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An Investigation of the Collision Lengths of Penetrating-Shower-Producing Radiation in Various Materials

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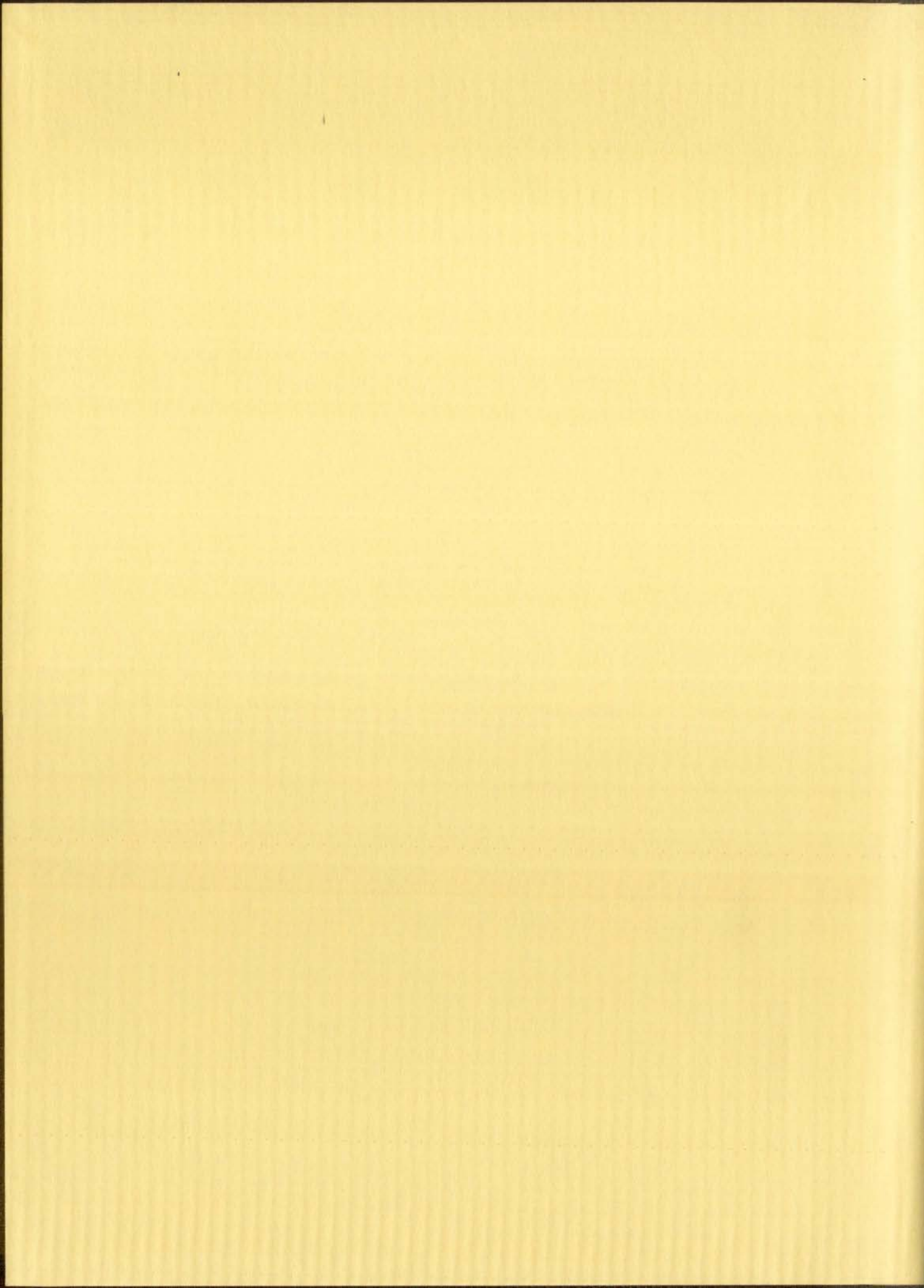
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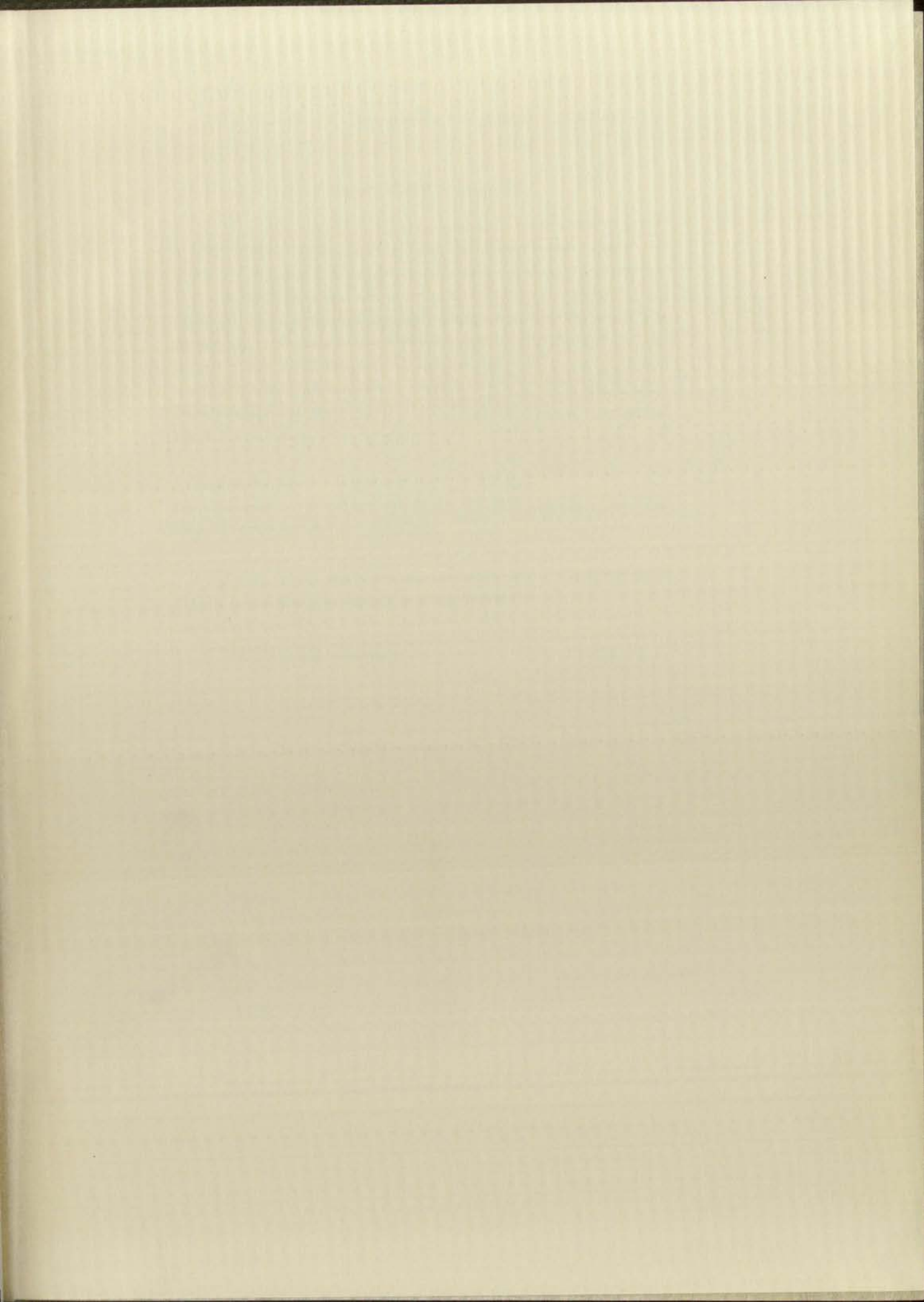
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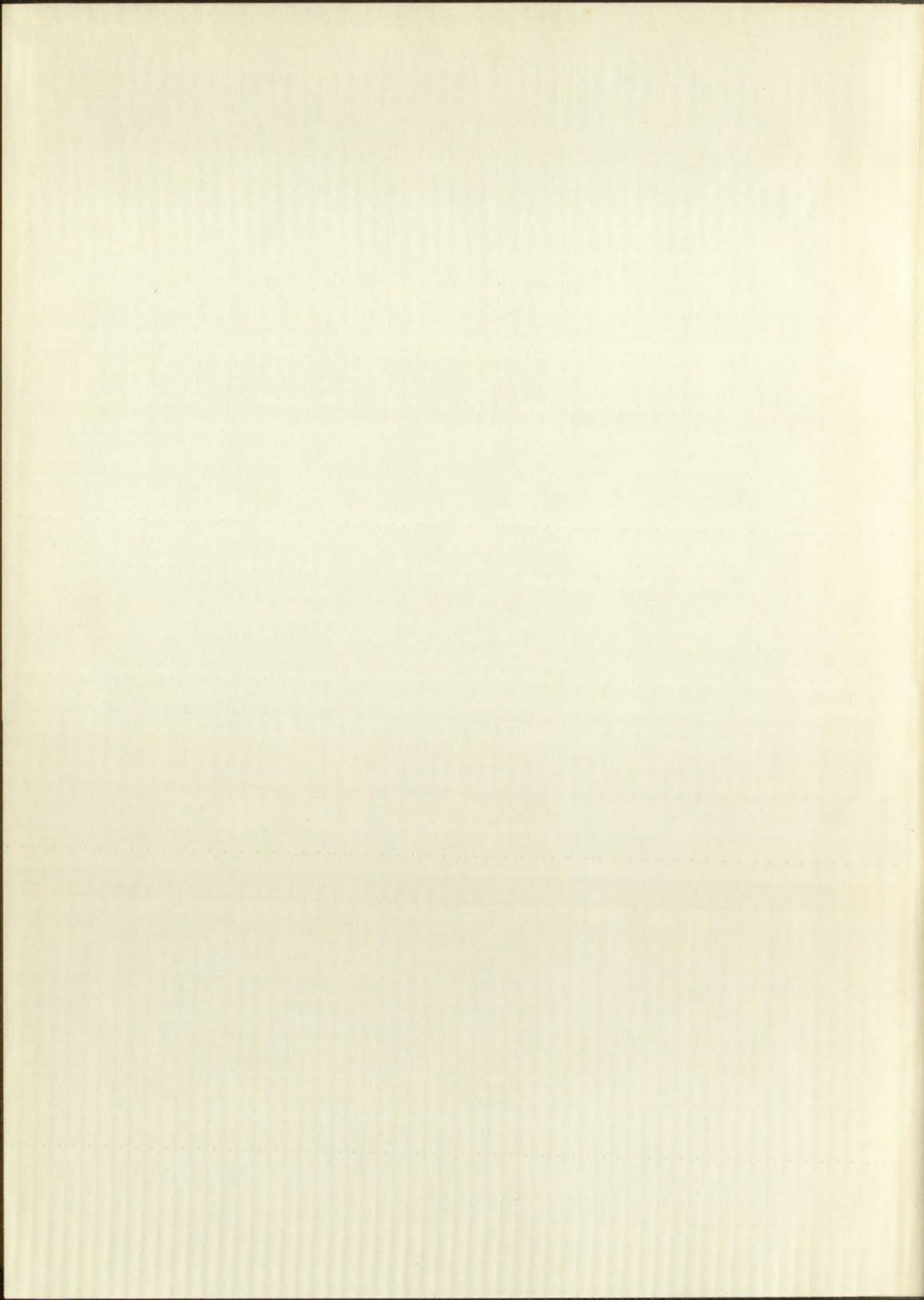


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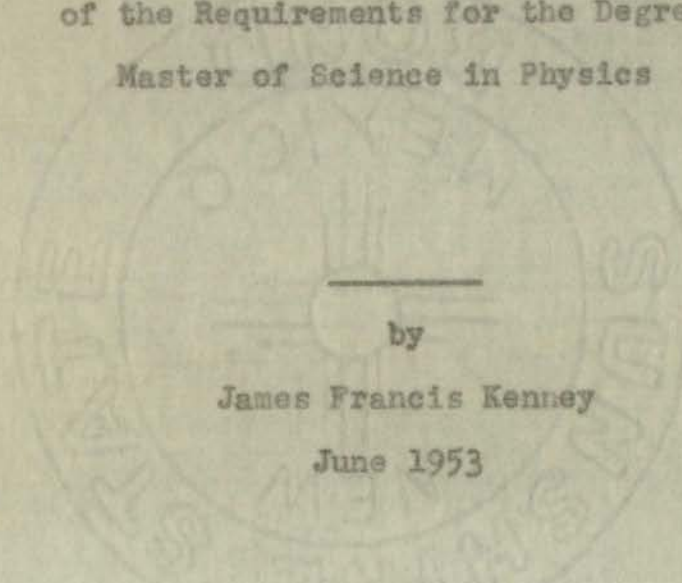
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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE COLLISION LENGTHS OF
PENETRATING-SHOWER-PRODUCING RADIATION
IN VARIOUS MATERIALS

A Thesis
Presented to
the Faculty of the Physics Department
The University of New Mexico

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science in Physics

by
James Francis Kenney
June 1953



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MASTER OF SCIENCE

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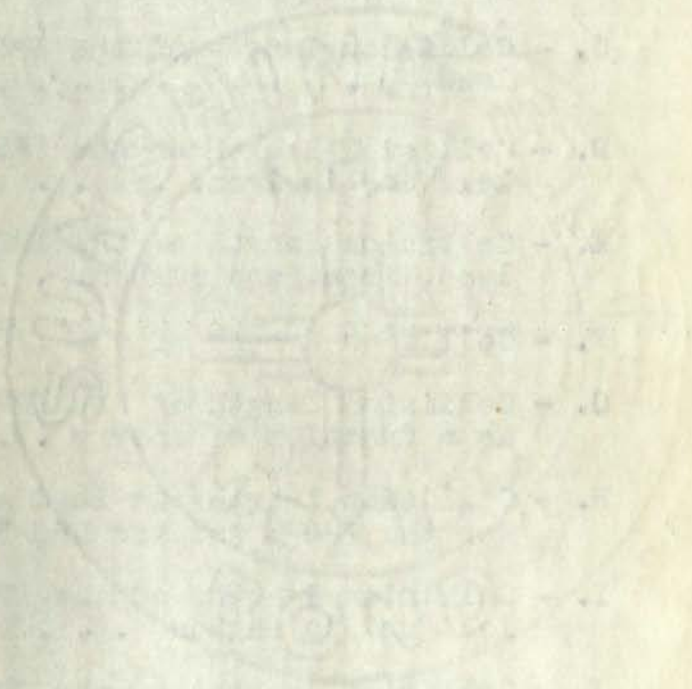
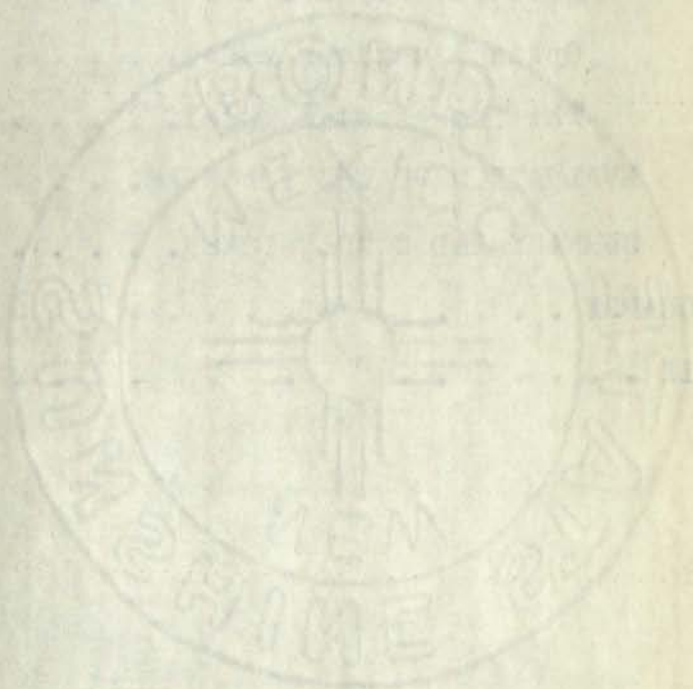


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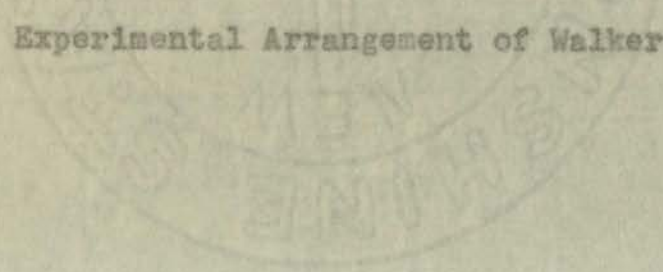
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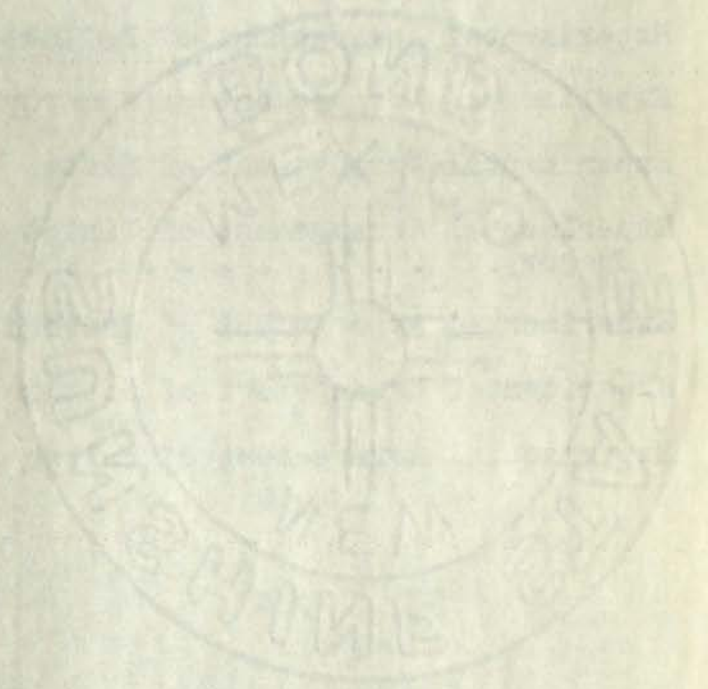
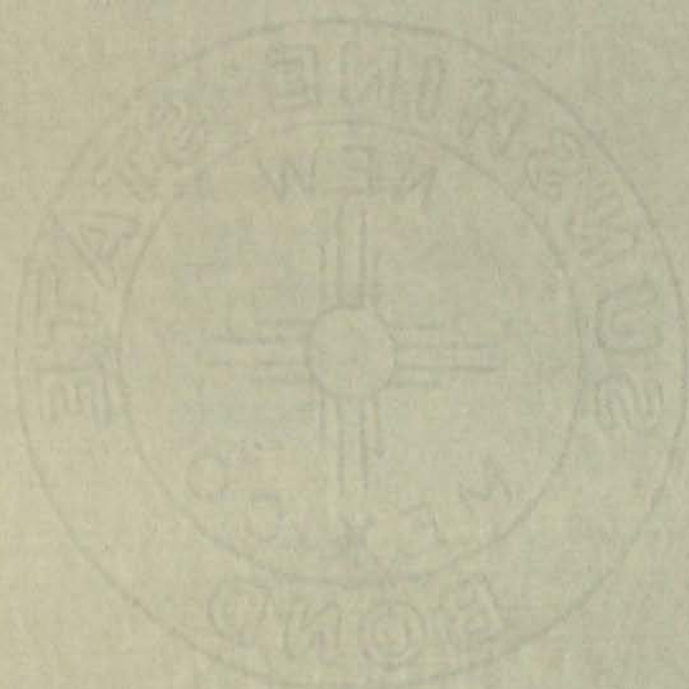


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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

For the past few years there has been a considerable amount of work done in the investigation of nuclear interactions of high energy cosmic radiation with various materials. The general purpose of work in this field is to obtain a better understanding of nucleon-nucleon-nucleon and nucleon-nucleus interactions at high energy.

The existence of elementary particles with a mass intermediate between the electron and the proton masses has now been definitely established. These particles are unstable, and the mechanism of their production is of prime importance in the theory of nuclear forces. One of these elementary particles is called the pi meson, and can be produced with high kinetic energy in a penetrating shower. If a highly energetic cosmic ray strikes a nucleus, it can create a shower of several highly energetic elementary particles such as protons, neutrons, V particles, and mesons. This event is known as the production of a penetrating shower.

The purpose of this paper is to compile and tabulate some of the experimental data that have been obtained on penetrating showers, and to compare these data with the results that should be expected from the various theories

COMMON CEMENT

The general character of the cement is such that it is well adapted for use in the construction of buildings and other structures where a high degree of strength and durability is required. The cement is of a fine texture and sets rapidly under the influence of water. It is of a light color and is easy to handle. The cement is of a high quality and is well adapted for use in the construction of buildings and other structures where a high degree of strength and durability is required.

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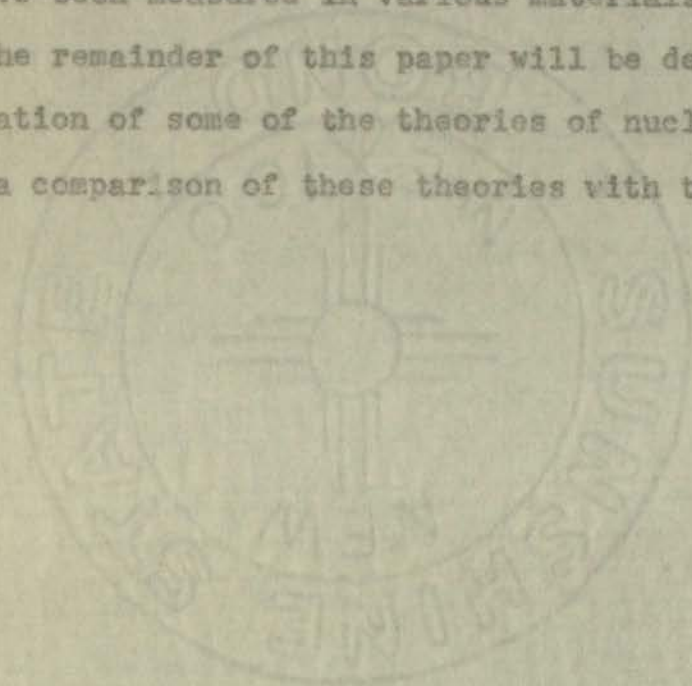


that have been advanced.

One type of pertinent experiment is an investigation of penetrating showers produced locally in some material. An investigation of this nature will give the collision length in a material of that component of the cosmic radiation which is capable of producing penetrating showers. By suitable coincidence-anticoincidence arrangements of geiger tubes, one can select either ionizing or neutral particles as the primaries that initiate the shower.

Chapter II of this paper will constitute a rather detailed analysis of one of these experiments so that the overall method and theory of this type of experiment will be clear. This will be followed in Chapter III by briefer descriptions of some of the other experiments in which collision lengths of the penetrating-shower-producing radiation have been measured in various materials.

The remainder of this paper will be devoted to a presentation of some of the theories of nuclear collisions, and to a comparison of these theories with the experimental data.



that have been observed.
One type of specimen, consisting of a small, rounded,
of irregular shape, is found in the
As the material is dried, it becomes
found in the soil. The specimens are
This material is a form of mineral matter,
evidence of which is the presence of
them, and the fact that they are
as the specimens are found in the
The type of material which is
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CHAPTER II

METHOD AND THEORY OF THE EXPERIMENT

Cosmic-ray particles which are capable of producing nuclear interactions are called "N-rays". The N-rays may be subdivided into charged and neutral particles. At appreciable depths in the atmosphere, the charged N-rays are composed almost entirely of protons and pi mesons. The flux of neutral pi mesons is certainly small because of their short mean life, estimated by Carlson, Hooper, and King¹ to be about 3×10^{-14} seconds. This is also true for the V_0 particle whose mean life has been estimated as being of the order of 10^{-10} seconds.² Therefore, the neutral N-rays are believed to consist almost exclusively of high energy neutrons.

The average distance that an incoming particle travels in a material before the first nuclear event or collision involving the particle is called the collision length L_c . The average distance that an incoming particle travels in a particular substance before it is absorbed is called the absorption length λ . The collision length, L_c , for a radiation which produces penetrating showers, is given by:

1)
$$L_c = m/\sigma \quad \text{g/cm}^2,$$

¹ Carlson, A. G., Hooper, J. E., and King, D. T., Phil. Mag. 41, 701 (1950)

² Fretter, W. B., May, M.M., and Nakada, M.P., Phys. Rev. 89, 148 (1953)

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where, for a molecular substance, m is the mass of a molecule of the substance, and σ is the sum of the effective collision cross sections for the production of penetrating showers in the nuclei composing the molecule.

In the measurement of collision lengths of charged N-rays, it is difficult to arrive at unambiguous results. However, in 1940, Rossi and Regener³ devised a coincidence-anticoincidence system which can be used for unambiguous measurements of the collision lengths of neutral N-rays. The first experiment which will be analyzed in this paper is based on the Rossi-Regener method.

THE FROMAN, KENNEY, REGENER EXPERIMENT⁴

I APPARATUS

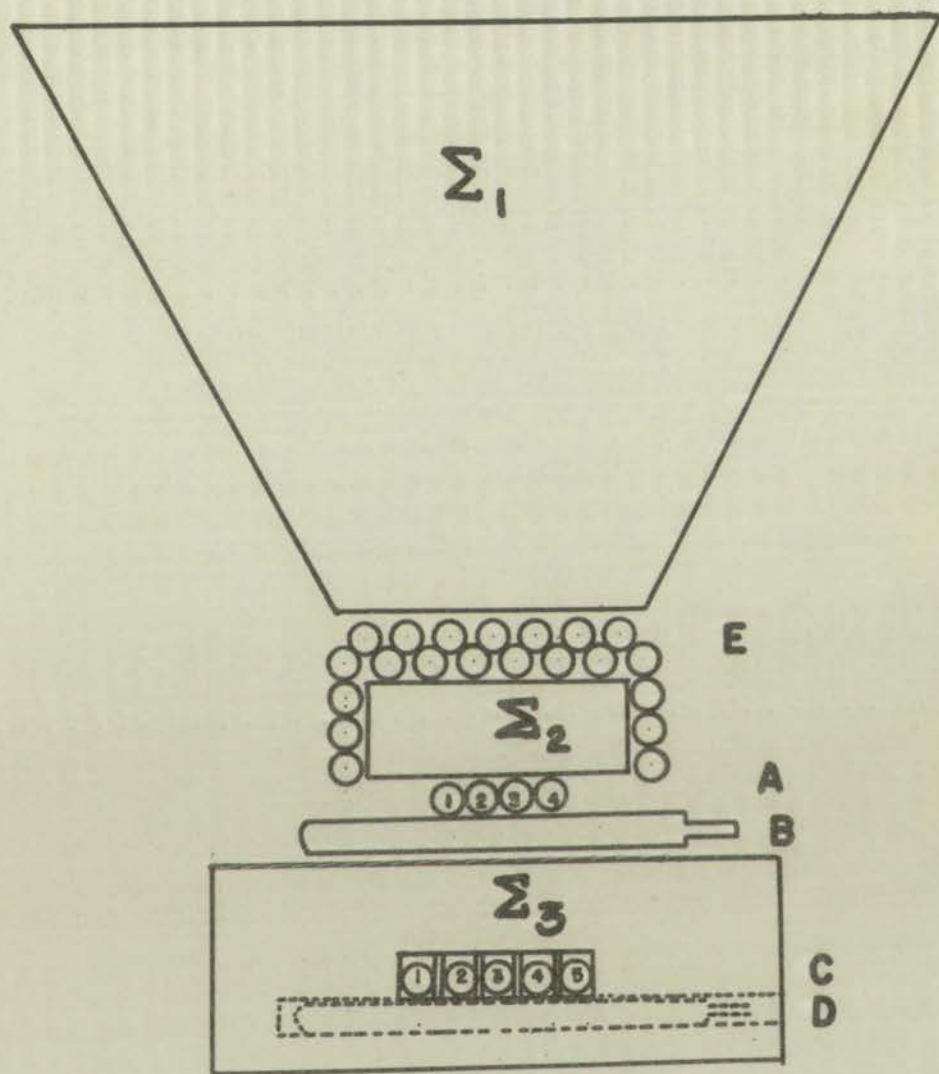
Two elevations of the geiger counter and absorber arrangement are shown in Figures 1 and 2. All of the equipment below Σ_1 was mounted on a car which could be moved under either of two stainless steel tanks Σ_1 , which were filled with water and heavy water respectively. The counts that were recorded were those that were caused by the discharge of a given counter in Tray A, a given counter in Tray B, two counters of a selected portion of Tray C, one

³ Rossi, B., and Regener, V. H., Phys. Rev. 58, 837 (1940)

⁴ Froman, D. K., Kenney, J. F., and Regener, V. H., (paper not yet published)

where, for a substance, the
of the substance, and in the
also every molecule of
in the solid state, and
in the liquid state, and
B-rays, it is known that
However, in 1905, it was
antifluorescence, and
measurements of the
The first experiment was
it based on the fact
The theory of the
Two elements of the
arrangement of the
and below, and
under which of the
filled with water and
that were recorded
charge of a given
Two E. the compound

³ Hessel, R., and
⁴ Brown, J. E.,
(Paper not yet published)



FRONT VIEW
EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT

FIGURE 1



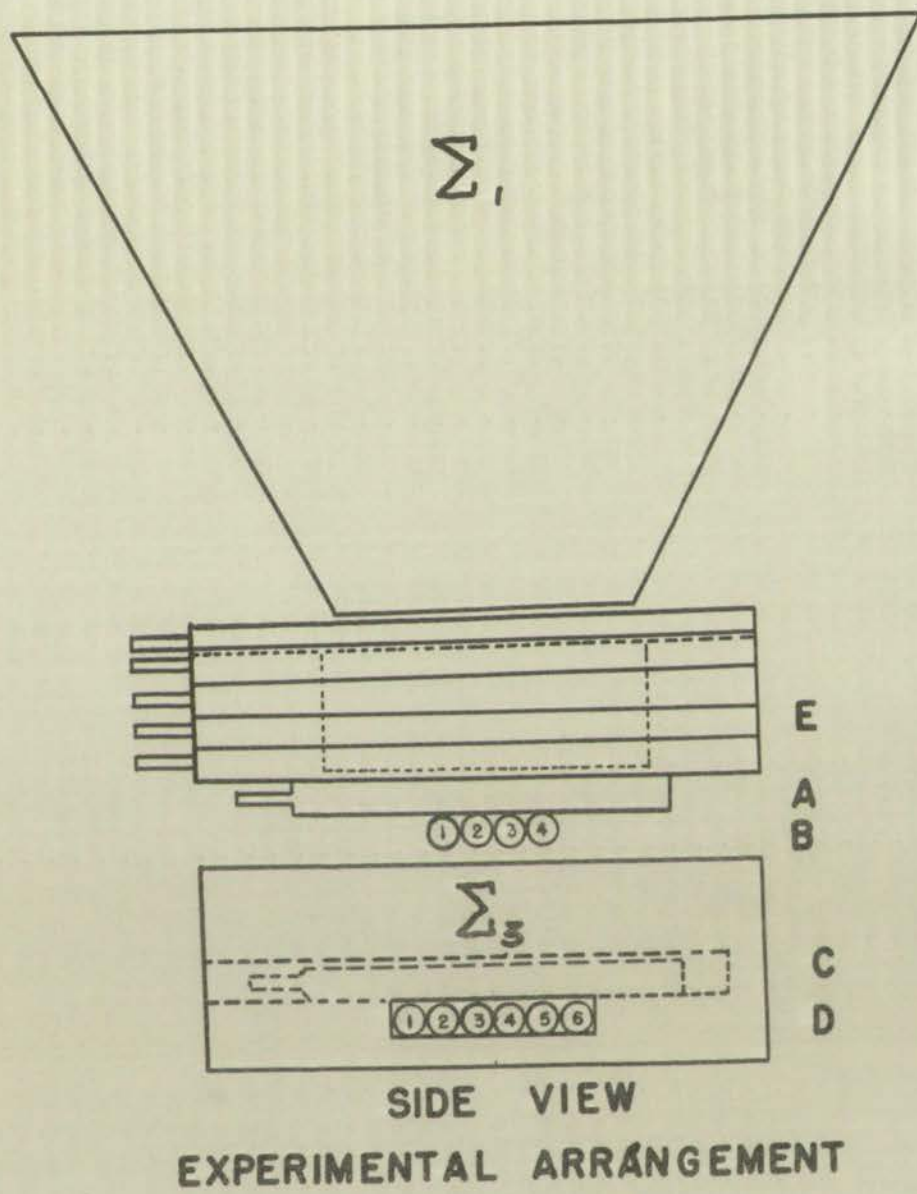


FIGURE 2



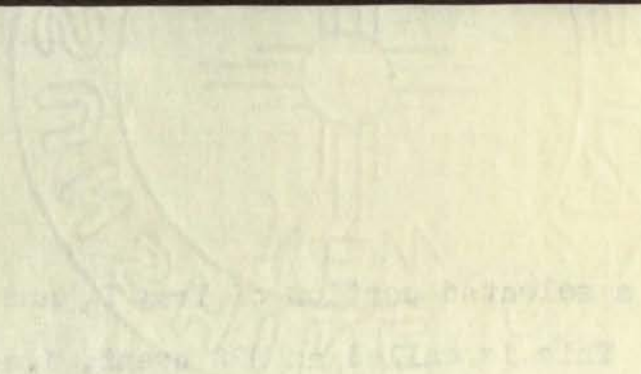
EXPERIMENTAL APPARATUS

FIGURE 2

counter from a selected portion of Tray D, and no counter from Tray E. This is called an NPS event, i.e., a penetrating shower initiated by a neutral particle. In the remainder of this paper, PS and IPS shall be taken to stand for a penetrating shower, and a penetrating shower initiated by an ionizing particle respectively. Other terminology that will be useful will be PSPR, NPSPR, and IPSPR, which shall be taken to stand for penetrating-shower-producing radiation, neutral penetrating-shower-producing radiation, and ionizing penetrating-shower-producing radiation respectively.

The selection of the various possible combinations of tubes in Trays A, B, C, and D was made in such a way that any straight line drawn through discharging counters would lie inside Σ_1 . This should insure that any particle that initiated a shower had to traverse Σ_1 . This will have the effect of eliminating primaries that are inclined far from the vertical.

In this experiment, it was desired to record the number of penetrating showers produced in a block of lead Σ_2 , by non-ionizing primaries which had traversed Σ_1 without a nuclear interaction. The requirement that no tube in Tray E was discharged ensured that the shower was initiated in Σ_2 by a neutral particle that had traversed Σ_1 without a nuclear interaction. If it had had a nuclear interaction in Σ_1 it would have been accompanied by charged particles as it crossed



number from a selected series of tubes in series
 from top to bottom. This is a series of tubes
 being shown initiated by a neutral particle. The
 box of this series, as well as the other series, is
 generating a series, and a particle is a particle
 ionizing particle necessarily. Other series
 be used will be PAPER, STONE, and IRON, and
 taken to stand for generating-series-
 neutral generating-series-
 generating-series-
 generating-series-

The collection of the various series is
 tubes in series A, B, C, and D, and
 any attached line drawn through the
 the inside. This should insure the
 initiated a series in a series. The
 effect of eliminating particles that are
 the vertical.

In this experiment, it is
 number of generating series
 by non-ionizing particles with
 a neutral ionization. The
 E was discharged and
 by a neutral particle that
 ionization. If it had
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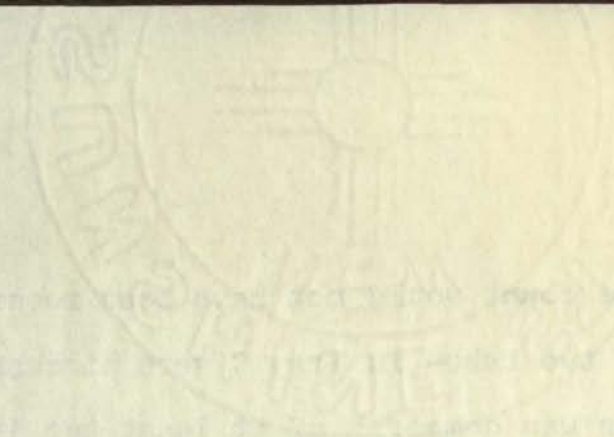
Tray E, and the count would not have been recorded. The requirement that two tubes in Tray C were discharged ensured that the shower was composed of at least two ionizing particles, and the 6 inches of lead between Trays B and C ensured that recorded showers originating in Σ_2 were made up of penetrating particles. Half-inch lead plates were inserted between adjacent tubes in Tray C to prevent local soft showers and knock-on electrons from registering as penetrating showers.

A block diagram of the circuitry is given in Figure 3. As one can see from the block diagram, Trays B and D were put into 2-fold coincidences, and Trays A and C were put into 3-fold coincidence. These were then put into 5-fold coincidence in the mixer circuit, and this 5-fold event was recorded as a PS. The 5-fold event was also put into anticoincidence with Tray E. This event was recorded as an NPS count. Both the PS and the NPS events were channeled into recorders in which the total number of each type of event that had occurred was recorded hourly.

Figure 4 is a schematic diagram of the 3-fold coincidence circuit. By inspecting the circuit, one can see that the allowable coincidences were the following:

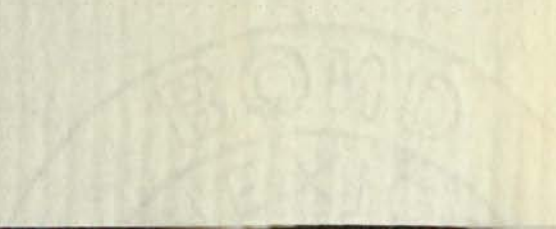
One given tube in Tray A can register in coincidence with two given tubes in Tray C:

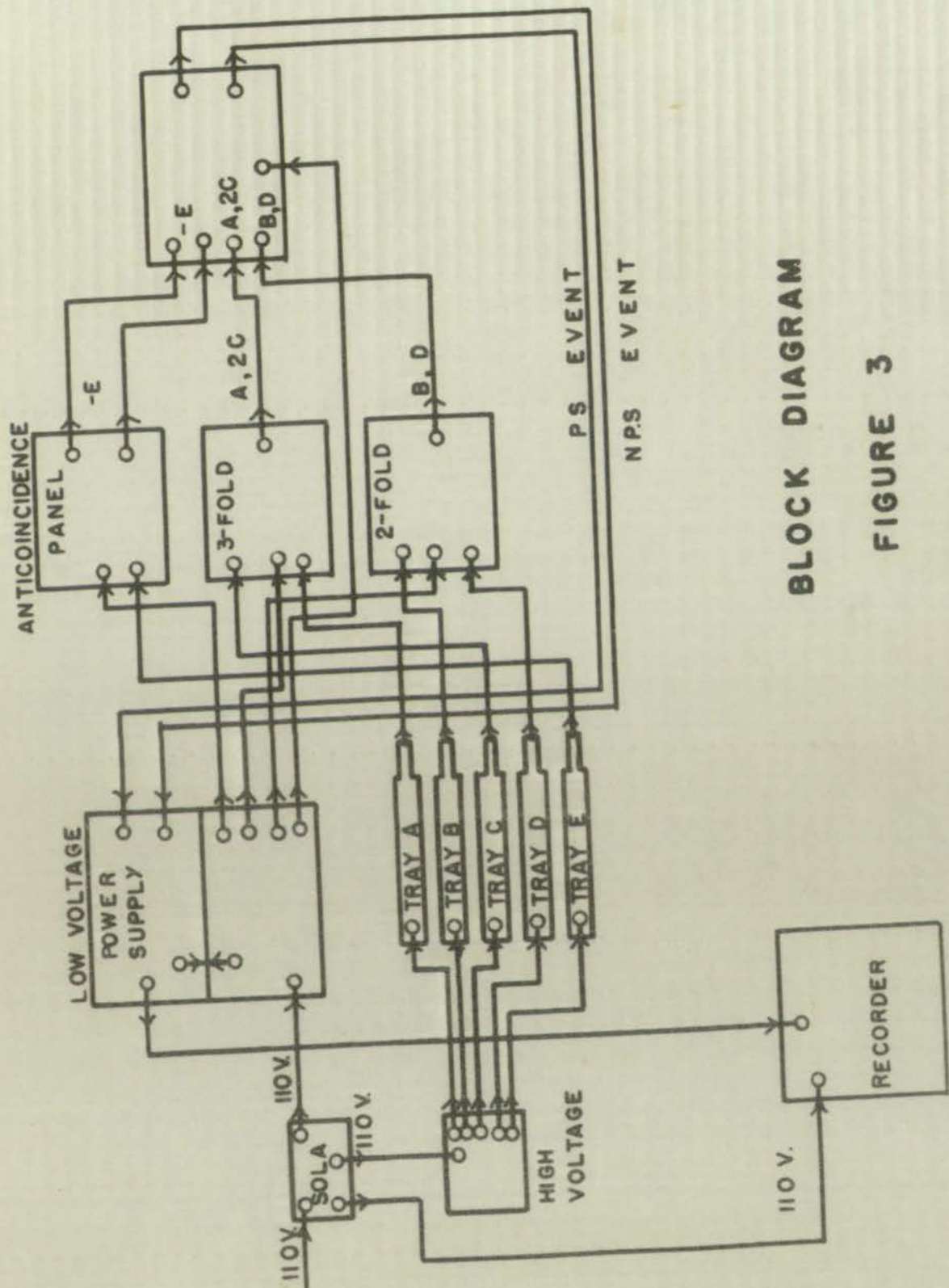
tube 1 with tubes 1 and 2 or 2 and 3



The first part of the paper is devoted to a description of the
 apparatus used in the experiments. The details of the
 apparatus are given in the Appendix. The results of the
 experiments are given in the following tables. The first
 table shows the results of the experiments with the
 apparatus as described in the text. The second table
 shows the results of the experiments with the
 apparatus as described in the text. The third table
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BLOCK DIAGRAM

FIGURE 3



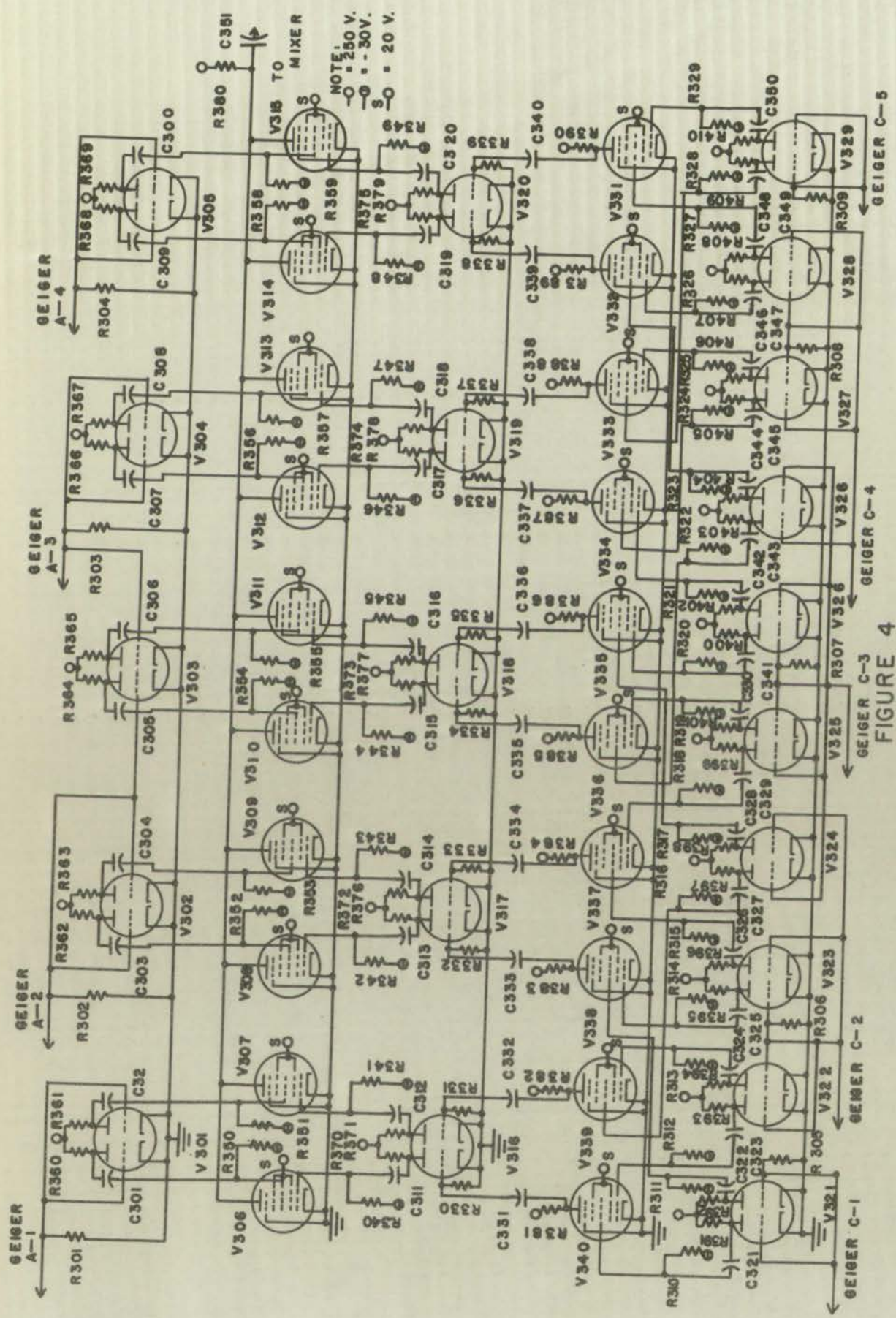
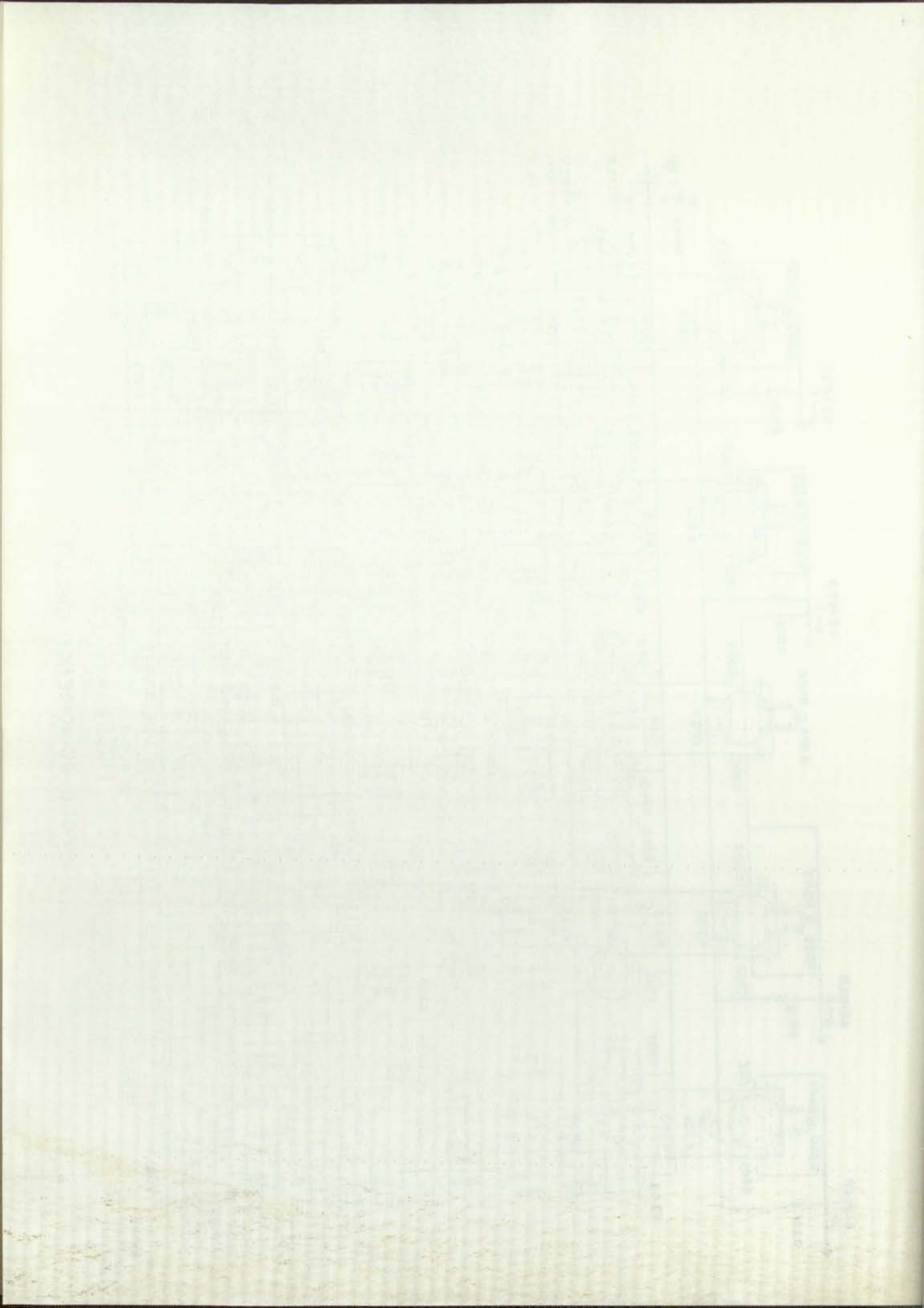
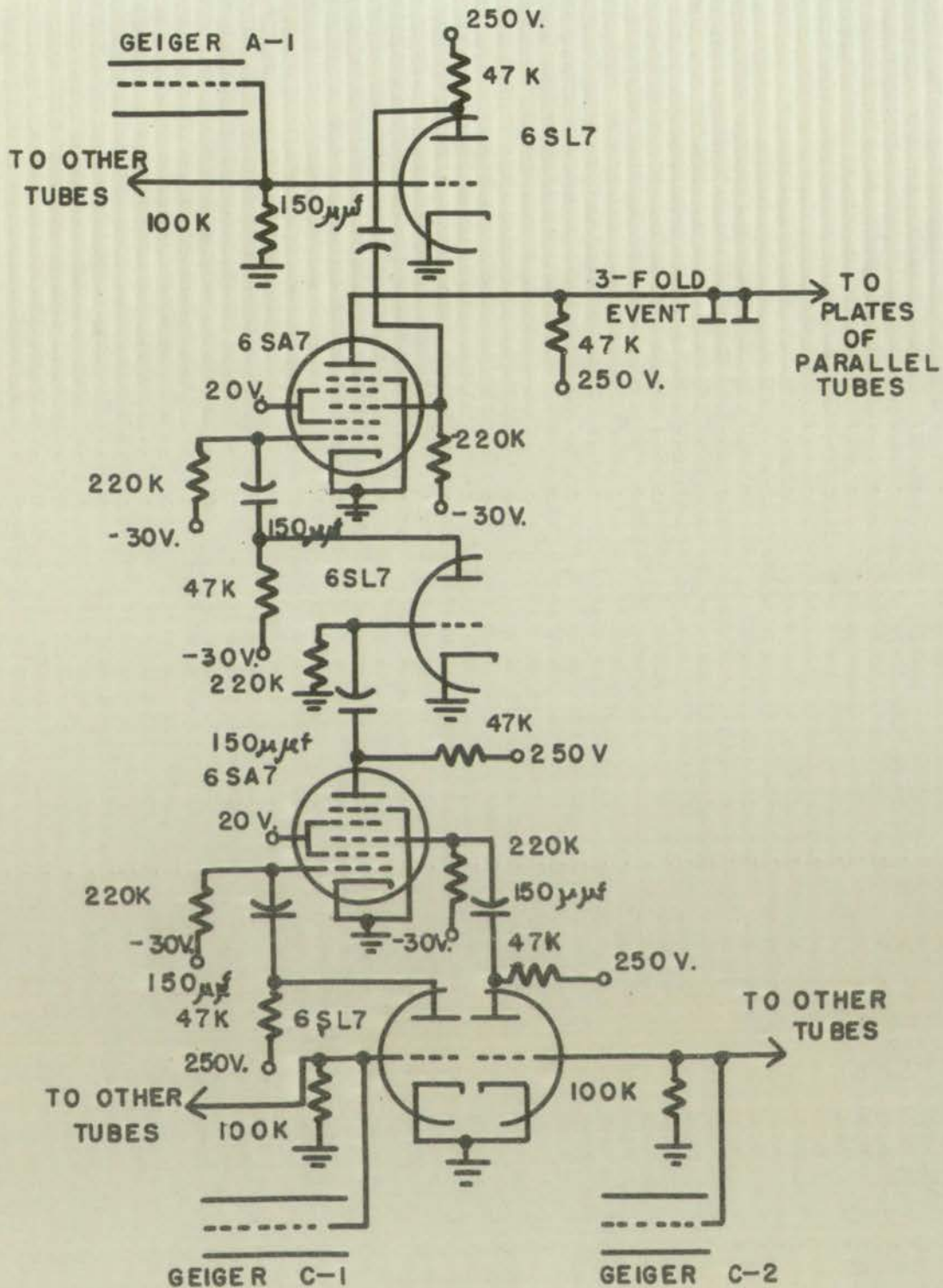


FIGURE 4

3-FOLD COINCIDENCE CIRCUIT





DETAIL
OF THE
3-FOLD COINCIDENCE CIRCUIT
FIGURE 5

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1-A 230V

TO OTHER

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2-6 OLD ENGINEER'S DRAWING

tube 2 with tubes 1 and 2 or 2 and 3 or 3 and 4
 tube 3 with tubes 2 and 3 or 3 and 4 or 4 and 5, and
 tube 4 with tubes 3 and 4 or 4 and 5.

The three-fold coincidence circuit was therefore composed of ten similar channels, one of which is presented in Figure 5. A tabulation of the values of all the component parts of the equipment is presented in Appendix I.

Figure 6 is the schematic diagram of the 2-fold coincidence circuit. By inspecting the circuit, one can see that the allowable coincidences were the following:

One given tube in Tray B can register in coincidence with one given tube in Tray D:

tube 1	with tubes 1 or 2 or 3 or 4
tube 2	with tubes 1 or 2 or 3 or 4 or 5
tube 3	with tubes 1 or 2 or 3 or 4 or 5, and
tube 4	with tubes 2 or 3 or 4 or 5.

The 2-fold coincidence circuit was therefore composed of eighteen identical channels, one of which is presented in Figure 7. The circuits employed in the 2-fold coincidence are basically the same as those used in the 3-fold chassis.

Figure 8 is the schematic diagram of the anticoincidence pre-amplifier panel. The circuit was arranged so that the outputs of five or six tubes were put in parallel and amplified by a vacuum tube. Figure 9 is a detailed view of one

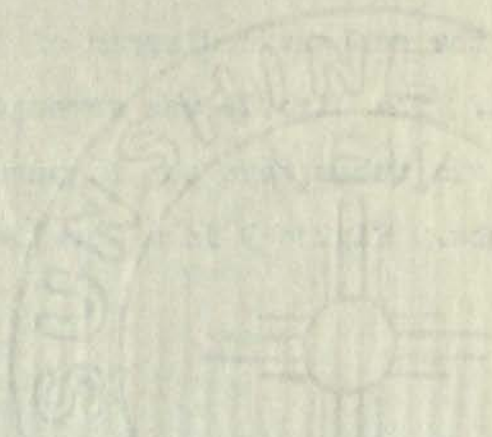
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Figure 3 is the...
dense circuit, by...
the allowable...
One given...
with one given...

- tube 1 with...
- tube 2 with...
- tube 3 with...
- tube 4 with...

The 2-fold...
of identical...
in Figure 7, the...
dense are...
circuit.

Figure 8 is...
pre-amplifier...
output of five...
fed by a...



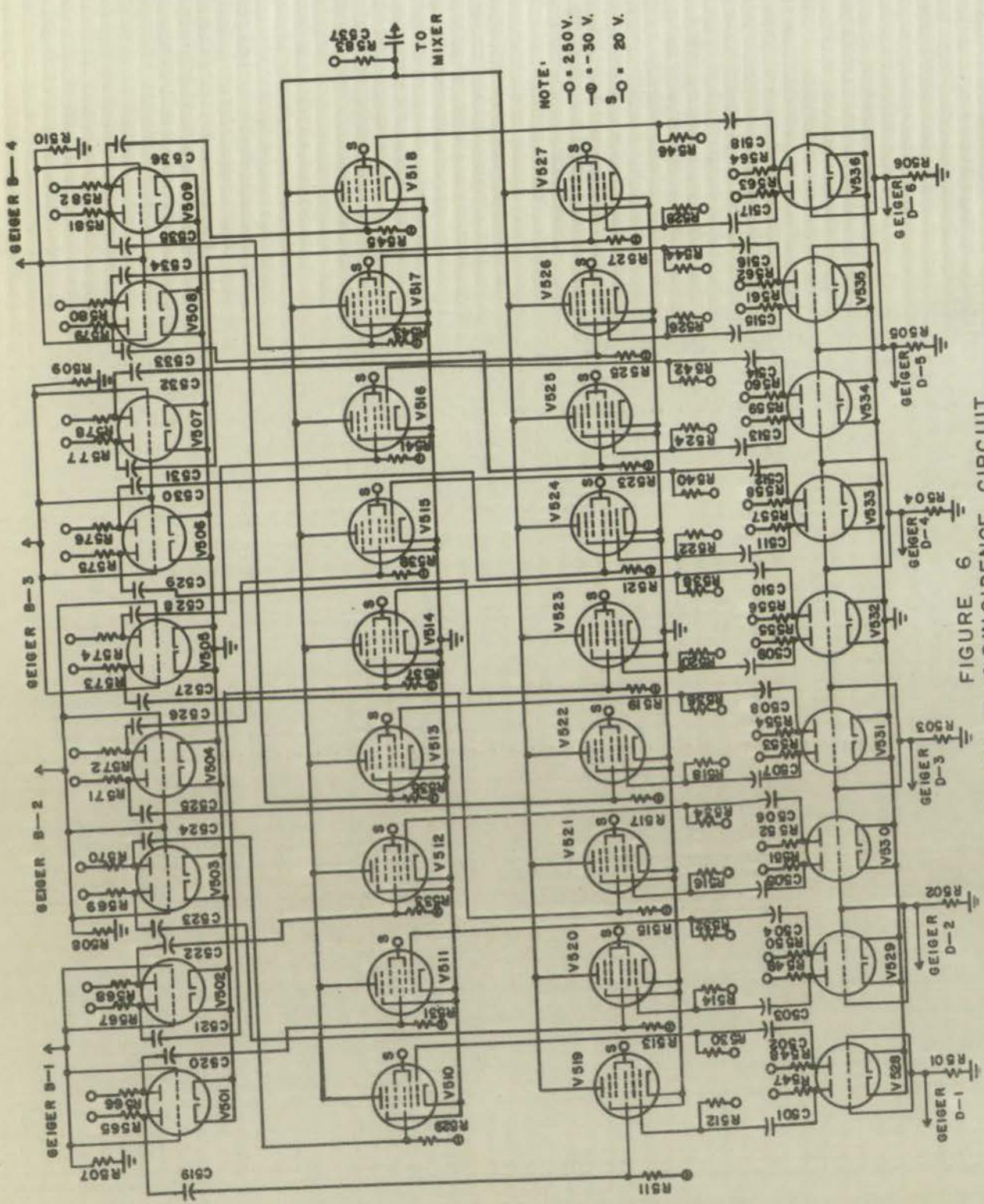
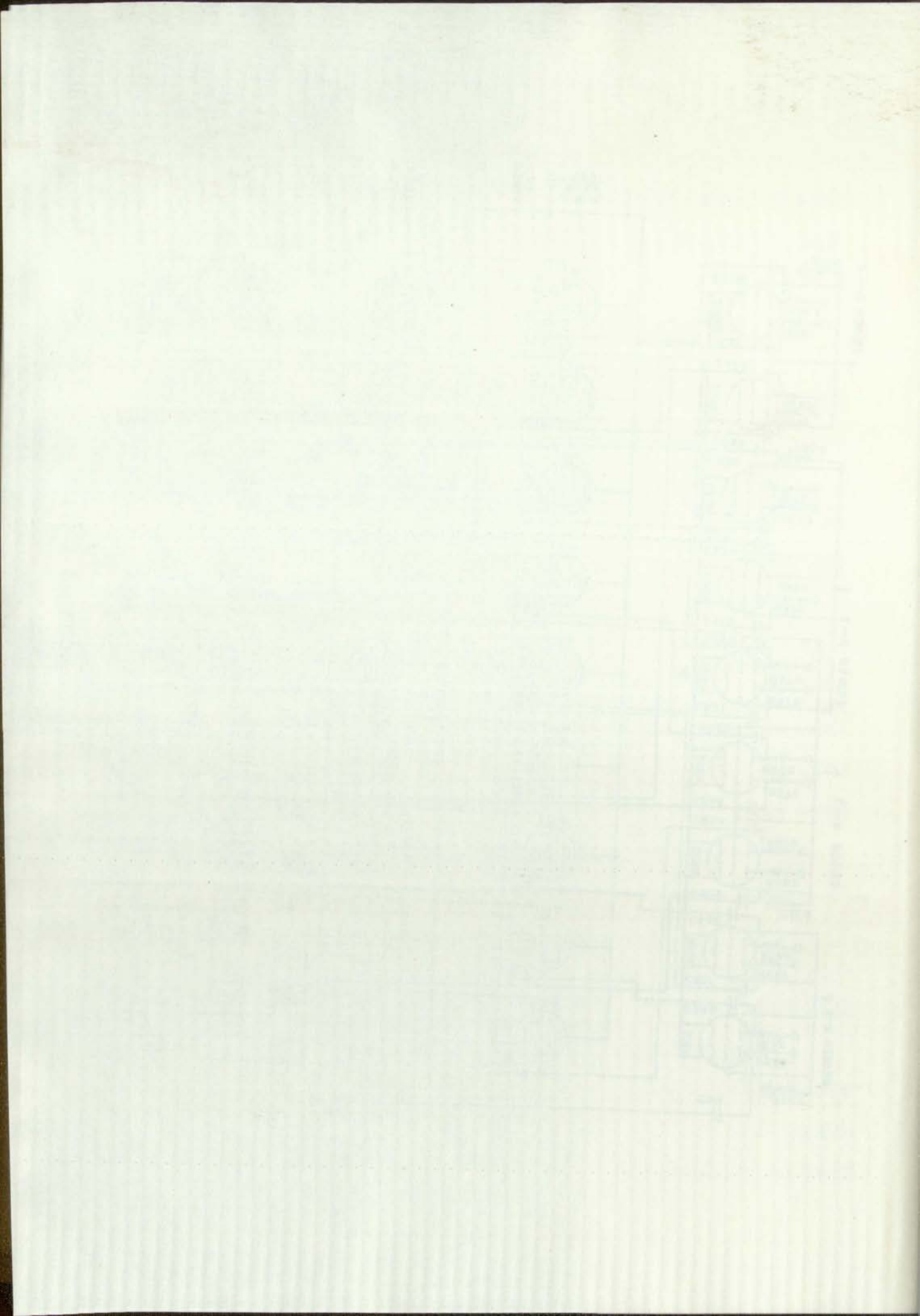
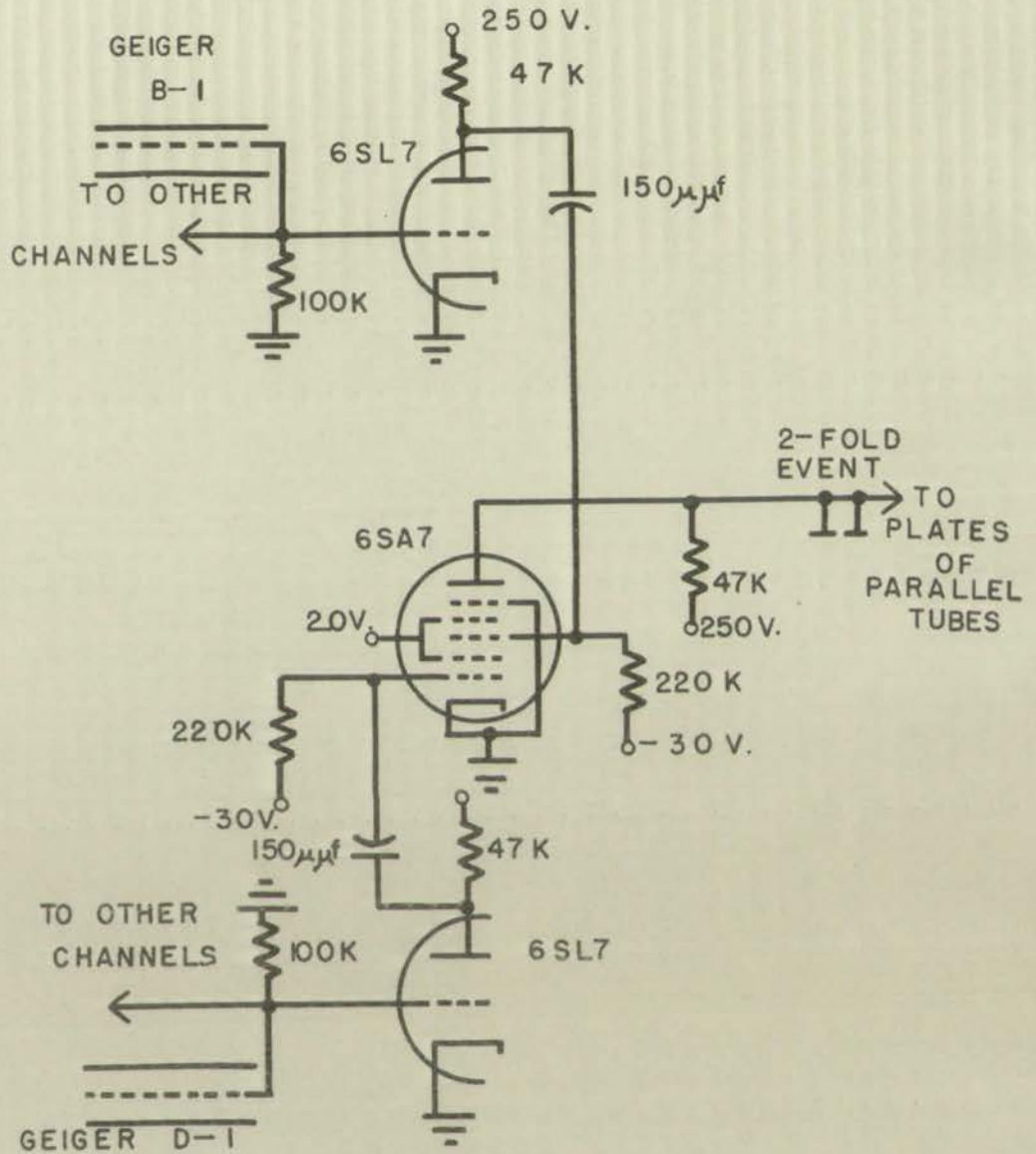


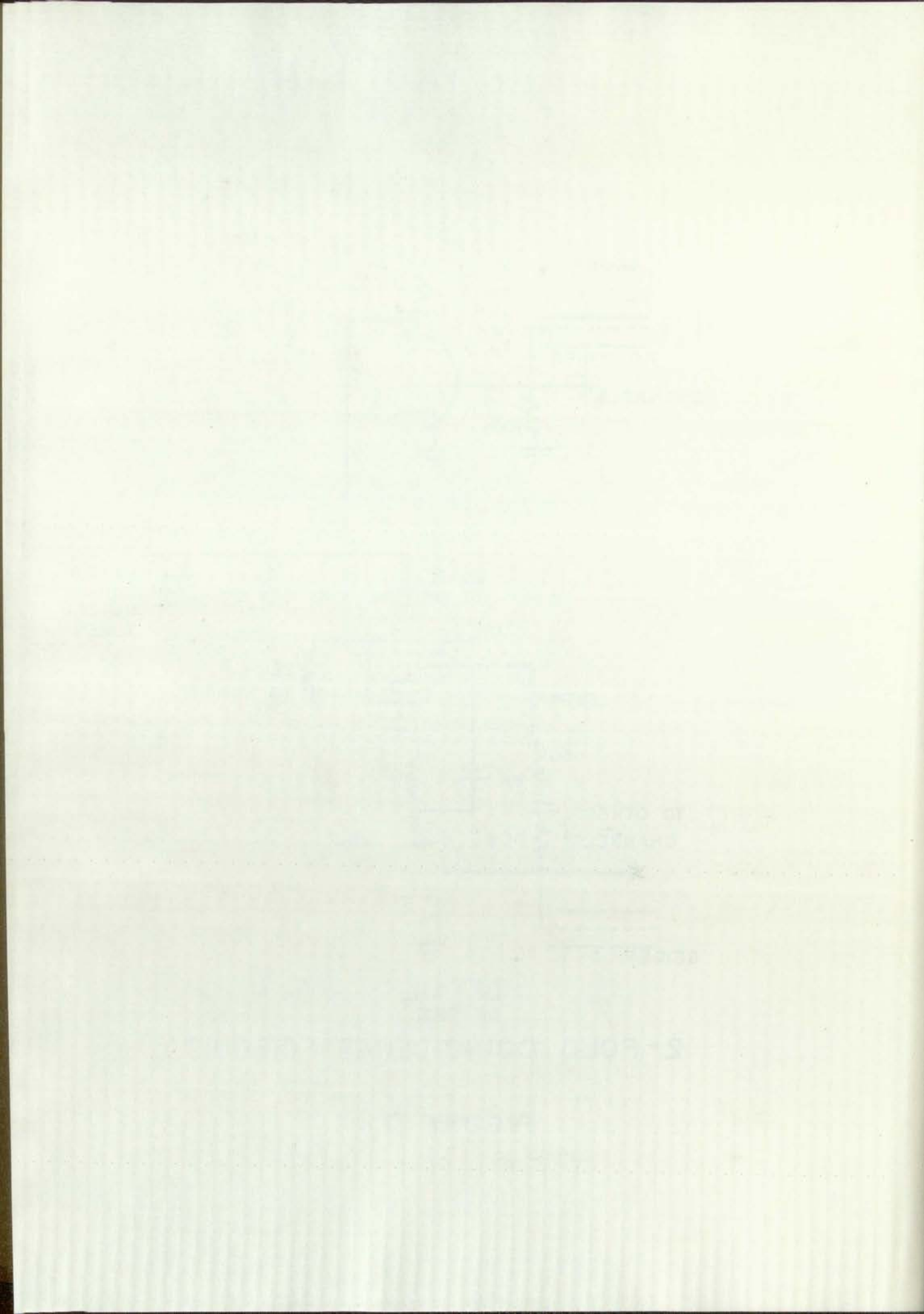
FIGURE 6
2-FOLD COINCIDENCE CIRCUIT

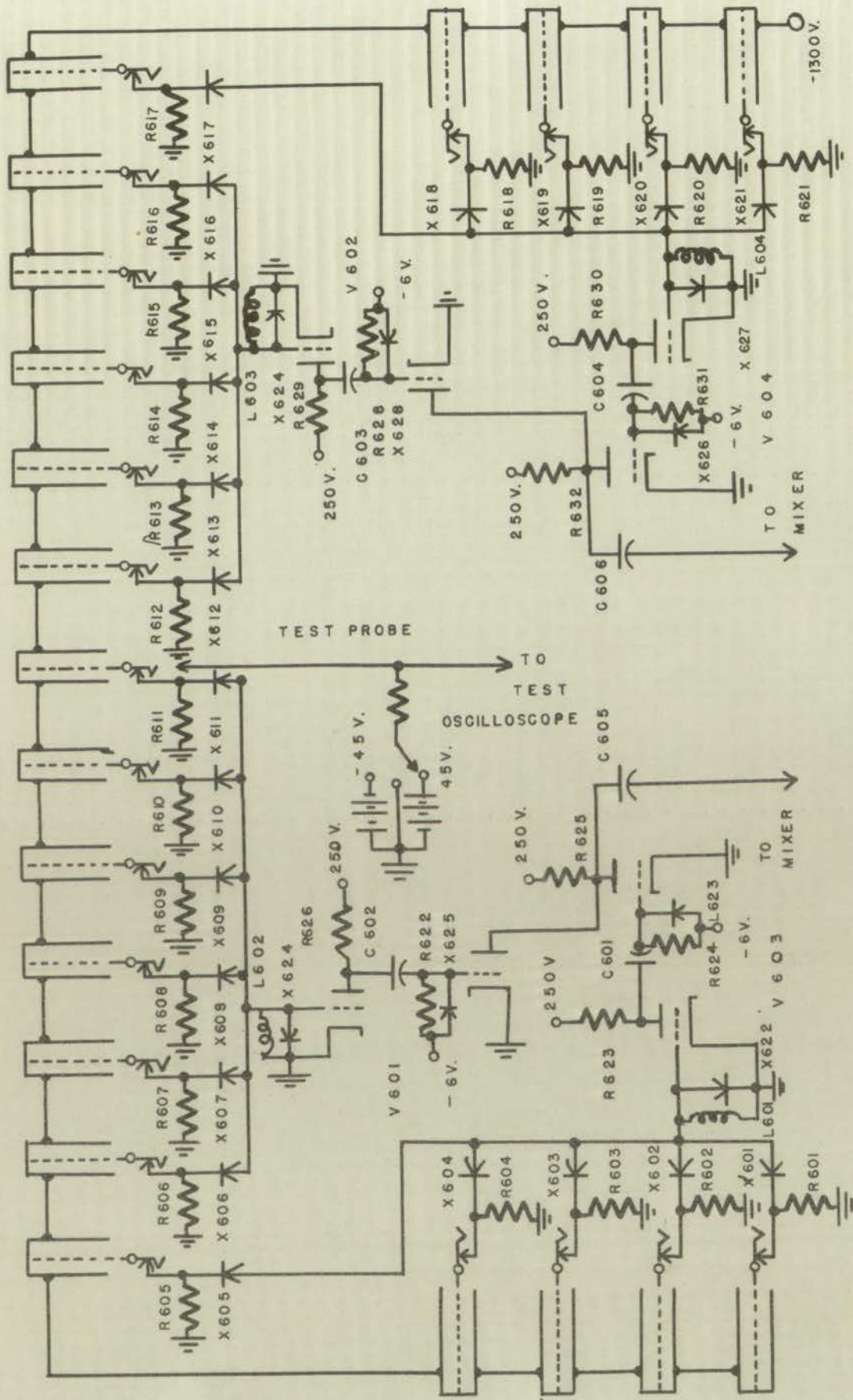




DETAIL
OF THE
2-FOLD COINCIDENCE CIRCUIT

FIGURE 7

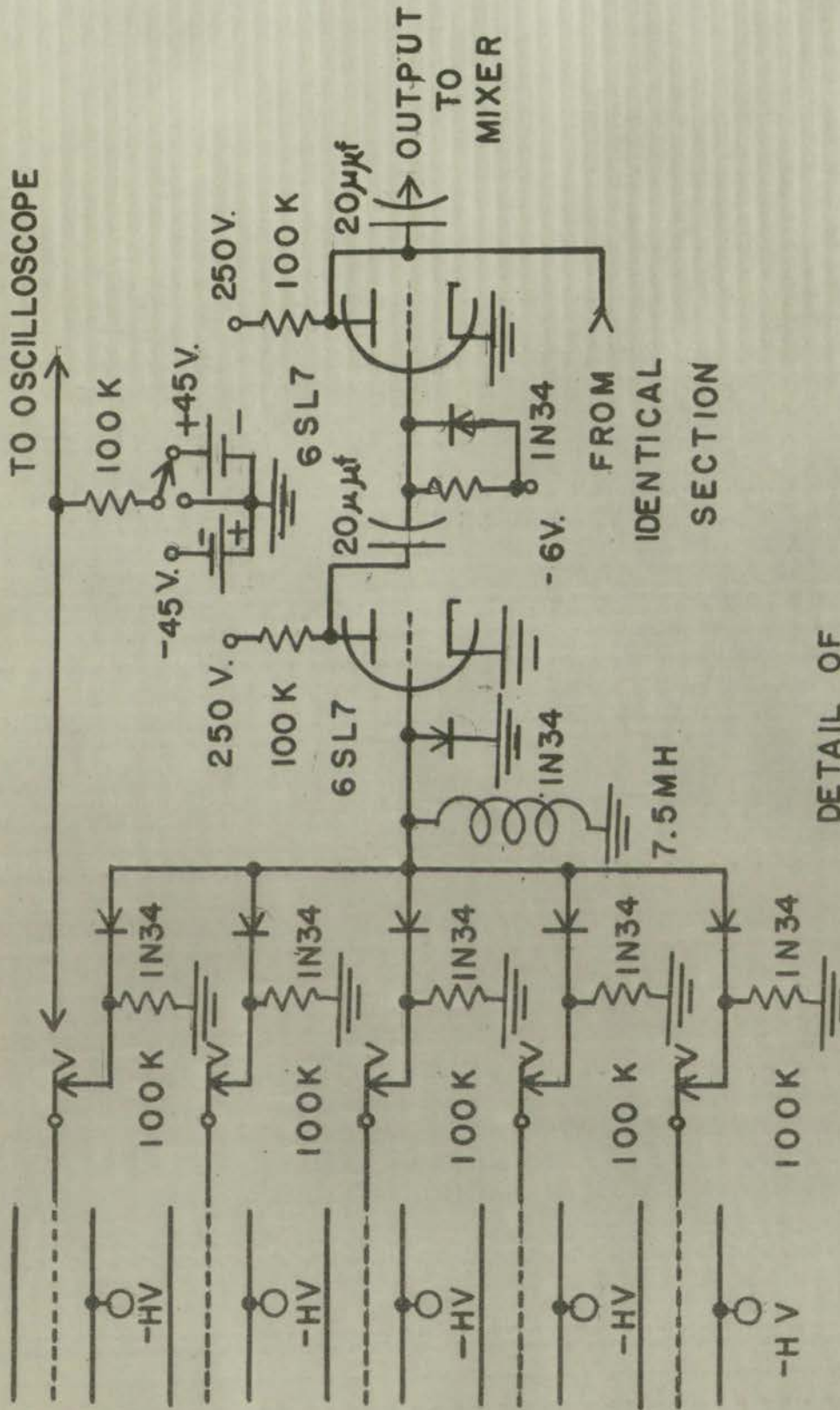




ANTICOINCIDENCE PANEL

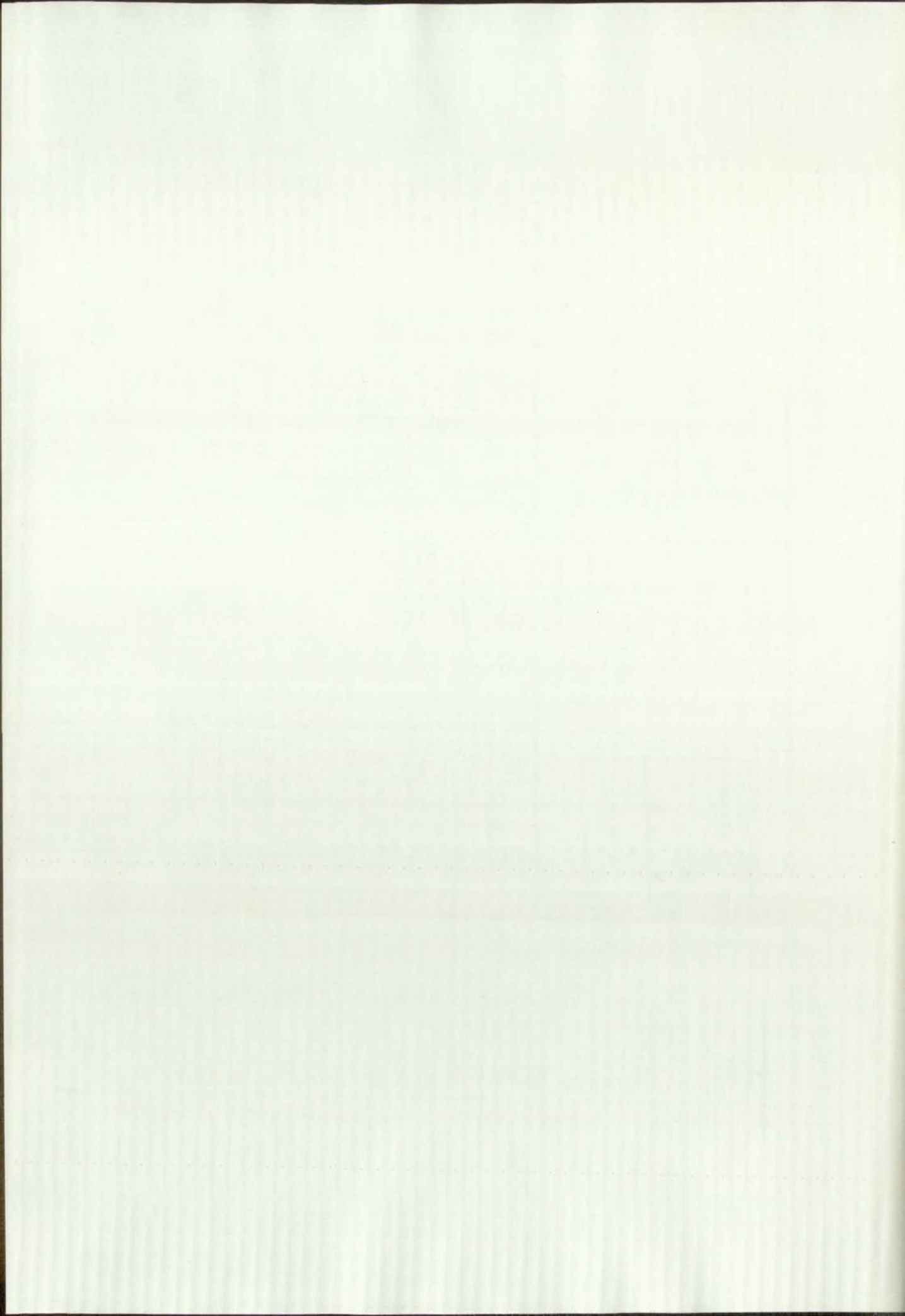
FIGURE 8





DETAIL OF
ANTICOINCIDENCE
TEST PANEL

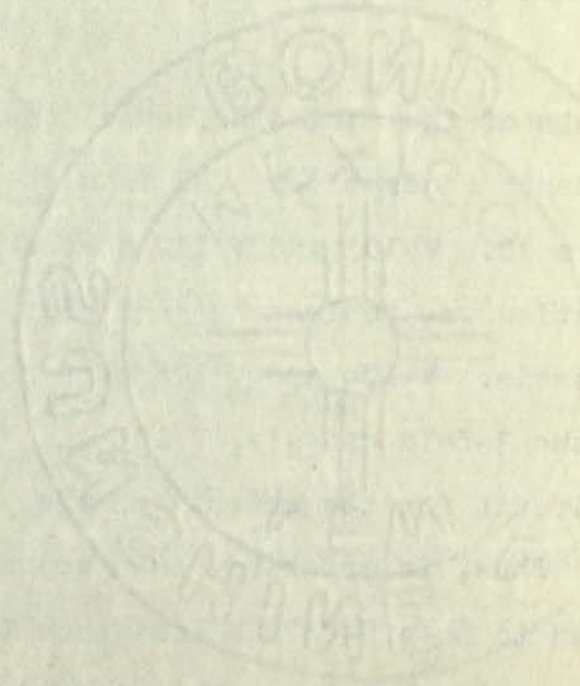
FIGURE 9



subgroup of tubes. The 1N3⁴ crystal diodes were put in series with the geiger tubes to prevent the capacities of the tubes from adding and thus causing a long dead time. Test points were included in this panel so that each geiger tube could be checked individually for proper operation.

The outputs of the anticoincidence panel and the 2 and 3-fold coincidence chassis were fed into the mixer circuit, shown in Figure 10. V 101 and V 102 composed a multivibrator whose function was to lengthen and clip the output from the 2-fold chassis. V 10⁴ and V 105 performed the same function for the 3-fold chassis, V 103 and V 106 composed a coincidence circuit for the outputs of the 2 and 3-fold coincidences. Thus, in order to get a coincidence at this point there had to be a 5-fold coincidence (A, B, 2C, and D) of the proper geiger tubes. This 5-fold coincidence was amplified in V 107, and fed into V 108, V 115, and V 118.

The outputs of the anticoincidence pre-amplifier panel were amplified and put into coincidence in tubes V 109 and V 110. This was then amplified successively in tubes V 111, V 112, and V 113. The output pulses of V 108 and V 113 were put into parallel coincidence and amplified in V 114. The purpose of this last coincidence is to form a blocking pulse which will prevent the multivibrator V 117 and V 118



The purpose of this report is to provide a detailed account of the activities and results of the project during the period from July 1, 1964, to June 30, 1965. The project was initiated in response to the need for a more efficient and effective method of handling the large volume of data generated by the various experiments conducted in the laboratory. The primary objective was to develop a system that would allow for the rapid and accurate processing of this information, thereby facilitating the analysis and interpretation of the experimental results. This report will describe the design and implementation of the proposed system, as well as the results of the tests conducted to evaluate its performance. It is hoped that the information presented here will be of value to other researchers who are faced with similar problems in their own work.

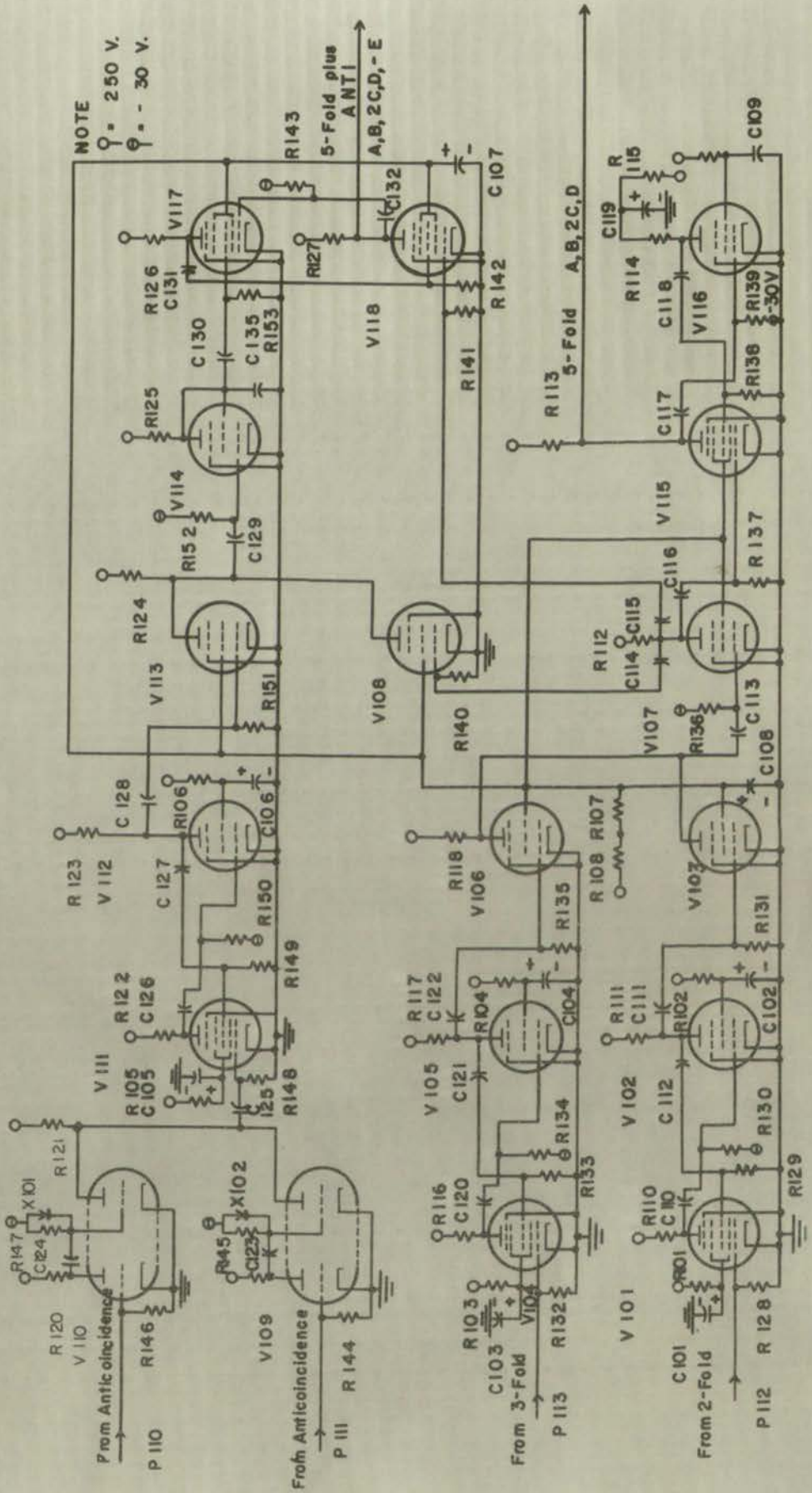
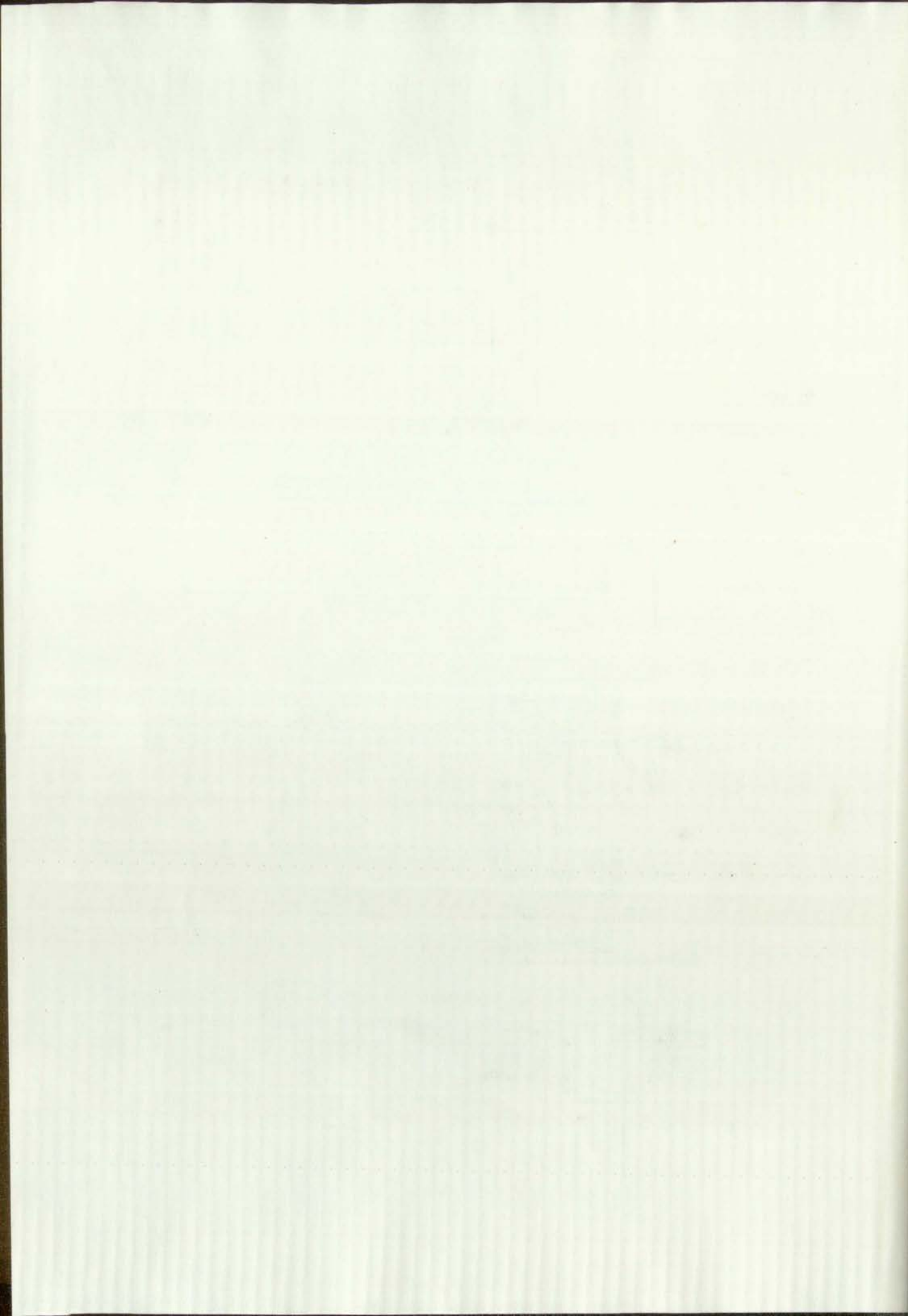


FIGURE 10 — MIXER CIRCUIT



from firing when a pulse from Tray E occurs at the same time as a 5-fold coincidence. This is necessary since the blocking pulse is lengthened to about nine microseconds by the capacitor combination C 130 and C 135. Therefore, the multivibrator V 117 and V 118 gave an output pulse every time an NPS event occurred. The multivibrator V 115 and V 116 gave an output pulse each time there was a PS event.

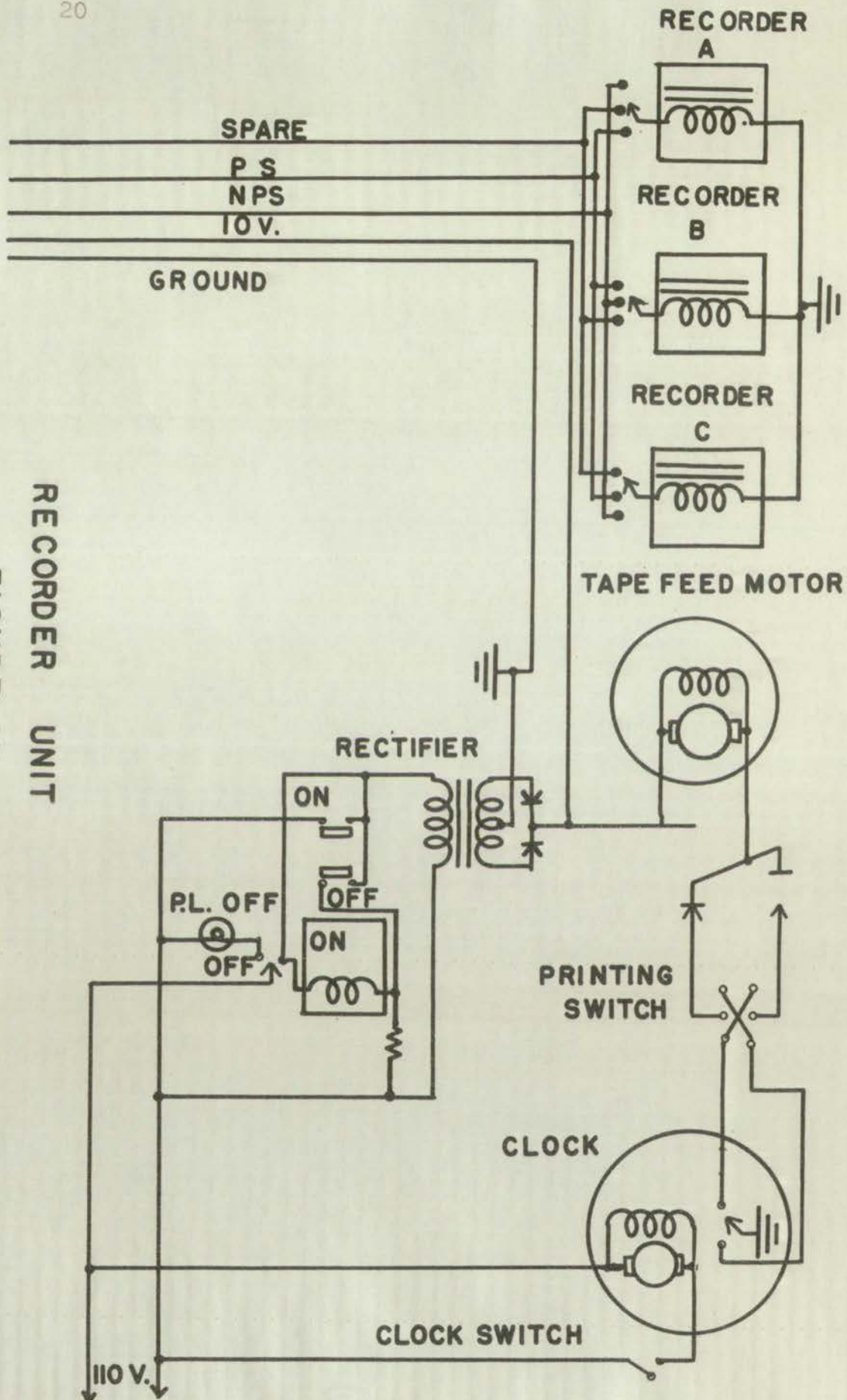
The output pulses of these multivibrators were sent into a pair of 6V6's located in the low voltage power supply, Figure 12. They were then fed into the printing mechanism, Figure 11, which was a modified Streeter-Amet traffic recorder. The total number of PS events, and the total number of NPS events were recorded hourly.

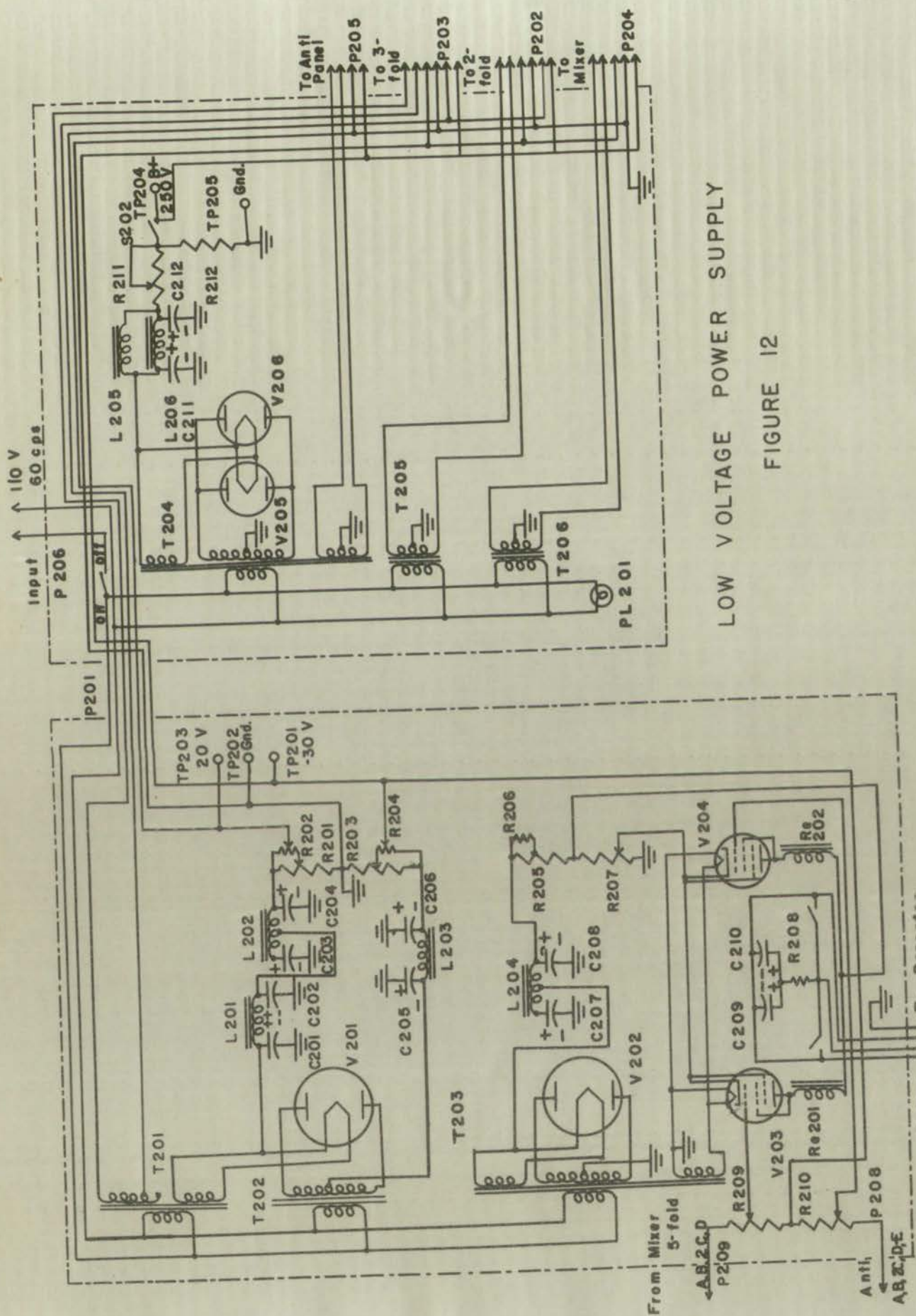
The counter tubes were of the type described by Regener⁵. All were two inches in diameter and twenty-four inches long, except those in Tray E which were thirty-six inches long. The high voltage power supply is shown in Figure 13.

The circuits were rather straightforward, and it is believed that no further explanation of them is necessary. The equipment was installed inside a building at Los Alamos,

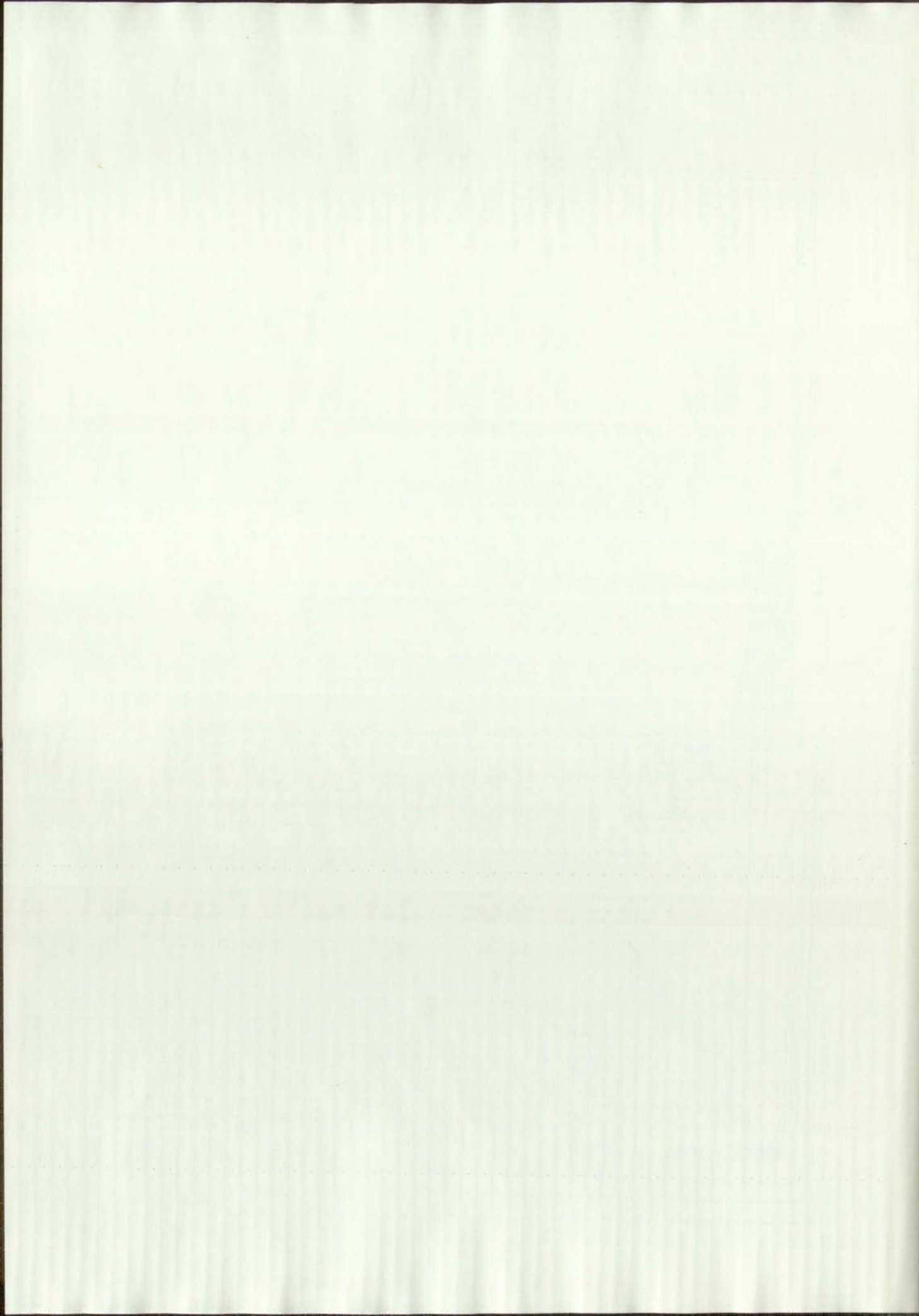
⁵Regener, V. H., Rev. Sci. Instr. 18, 267 (1947)

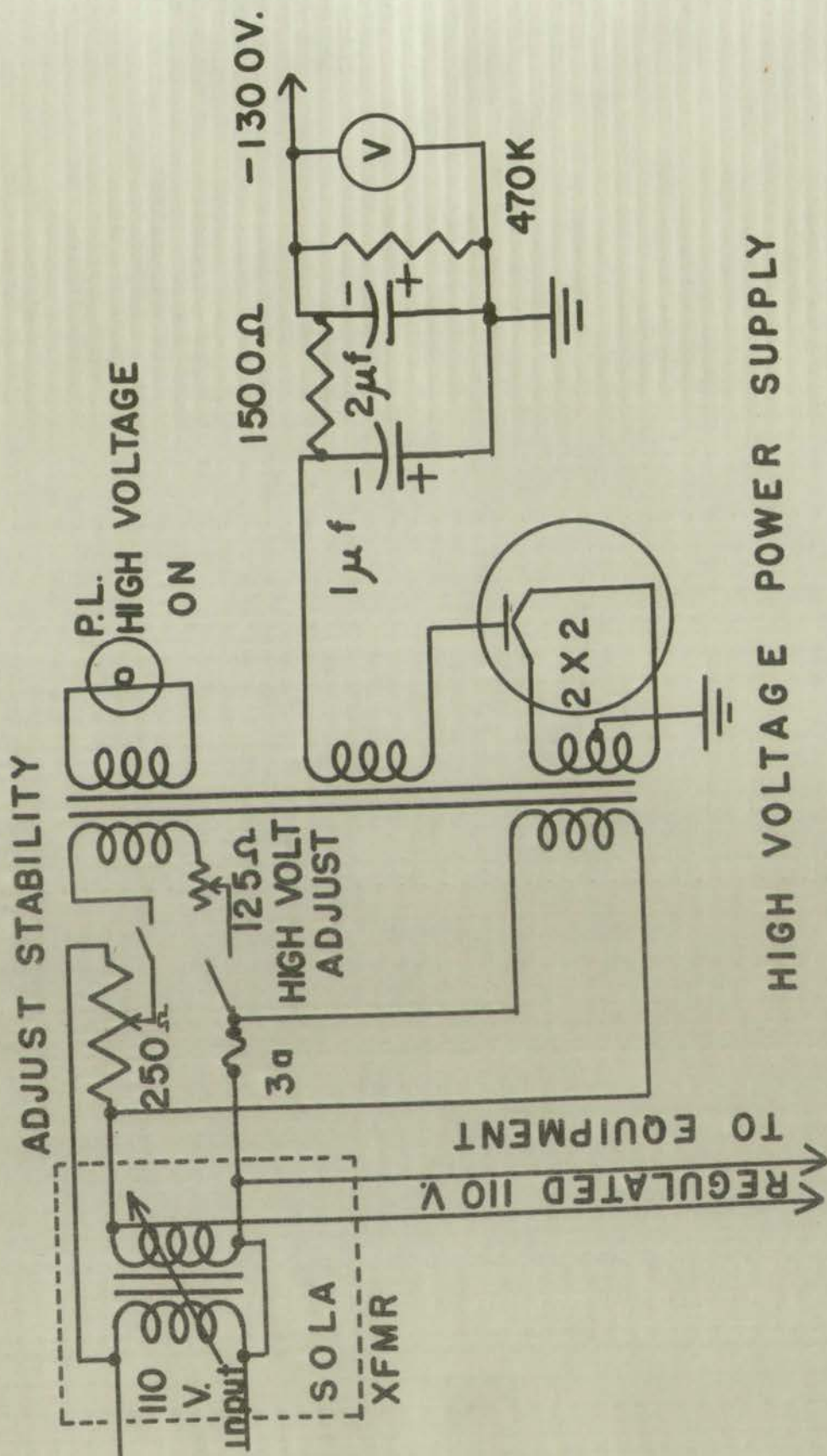
RECORDER UNIT
FIGURE 11





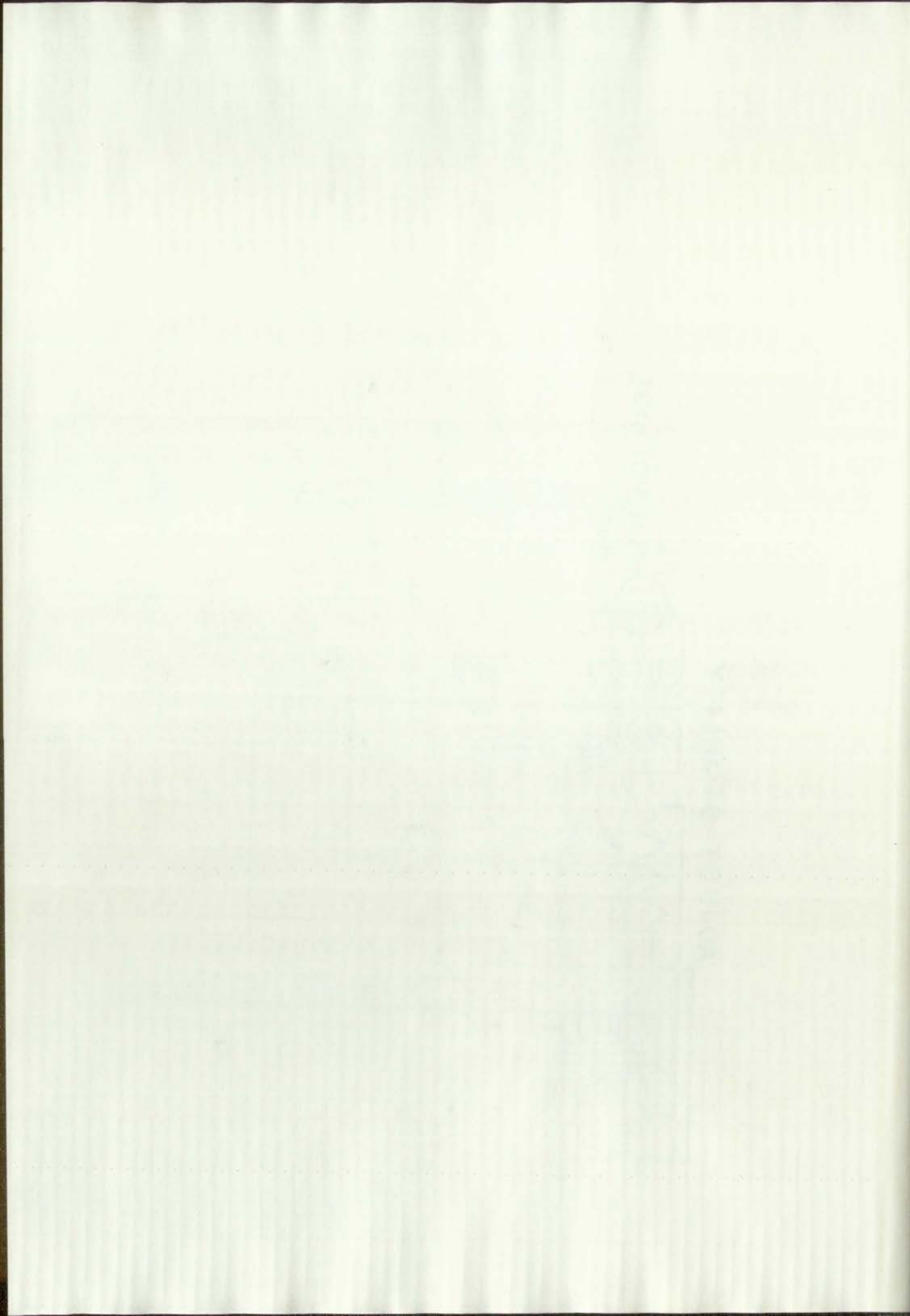
LOW VOLTAGE POWER SUPPLY
FIGURE 12





HIGH VOLTAGE POWER SUPPLY

FIGURE 13



New Mexico, altitude 2,280 m, under as nearly identical roof sections as possible. The positions of the tanks were interchanged twice so that the effect of the slight variation in roof thickness could be eliminated.

As the thickness of Σ_1 is increased, an exponential decrease in the number of showers produced in Σ_2 by non-ionizing primaries is expected. Such an exponential decrease provides a measure of the collision length of the shower-producing radiation in Σ_1 .

It should be observed that a nuclear collision of an incident neutron in Σ_1 might conceivably lead to the transfer of only a small fraction of its energy to ionizing secondaries. These low-energy secondaries might be absorbed in Σ_1 before reaching the anticoincidence Tray E, and the primary neutron might still be able to produce a penetrating shower in Σ_2 and thus an NPS count. If this process does happen the magnitude of the effect would certainly be dependent upon the thickness of absorber in Σ_1 and, consequently, one could not obtain an unambiguous experimental result for the collision length. However, the data from previous experiments,^{6,7,8}

⁶

Rollossen, G. R., Phys. Rev., 87, 71 (1952)

⁷

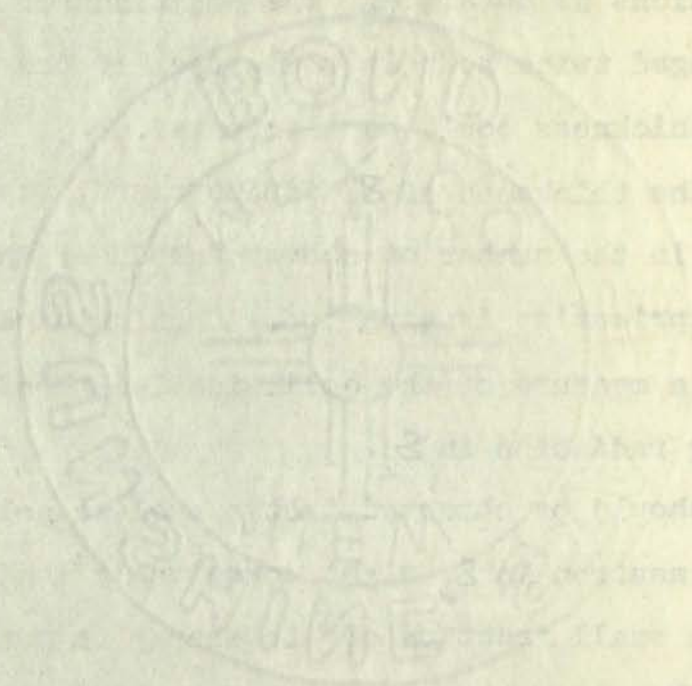
Boehmer, H. W., and Bridge, H. S., Phys. Rev., 85, 863 (1952)

⁸

Sitte, K., Phys. Rev., 78, 714 (1950)

COLLIER COMMISSION

APPENDIX



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- 6 Holston, G. W. ...
 - 7 Holston, G. W. ...
 - 8 (1922)
 - 9 ...

performed under similar conditions seem to show an exponential decrease of the NPS rate with thickness in Σ_1 . This indicates that the primary neutron does not penetrate beyond the distance which is penetrated in Σ_1 by its ionizing secondaries. This supports the view that an experiment of this type does measure the collision length for nuclear interactions of high energy non-ionizing N-rays.

Runs, usually of duration about 24 hours each, were made alternately under the tanks containing the H_2O and D_2O . The number of penetrating showers, both PS and NPS, and the time were recorded for each run. Similar runs were made with the tanks empty, and some data were taken with fillings of intermediate depth.

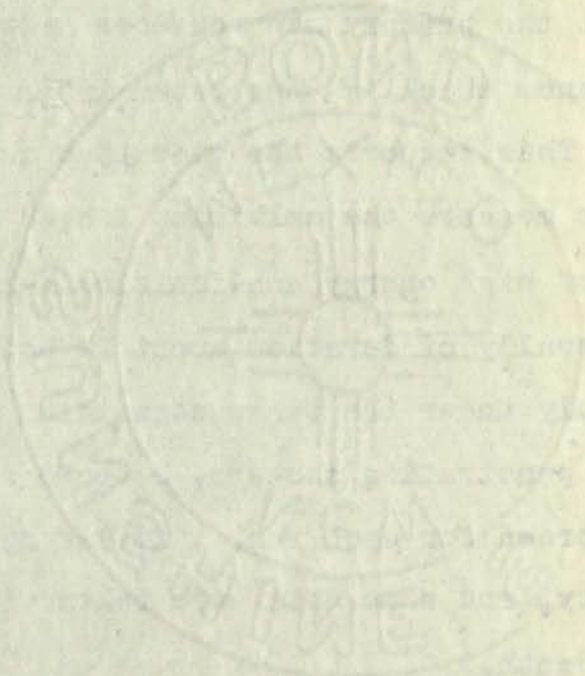
Some of the runs were made with lead in position Σ_2 , some without. A few NPS events were always observed with no lead in Σ_2 . At least some of these arose from showers formed in the counter walls and the supports for Tray E, and some may have come from wide-angle showers produced in the main lead shield Σ_3 by rays incident at a large zenith angle.

II TREATMENT OF DATA

The anticoincidence Tray E was not 100% efficient. Its inefficiency was measured frequently by moving the equipment away from both tanks, placing Tray B above Tray E, and connecting two counters in Tray C together. Thus, single

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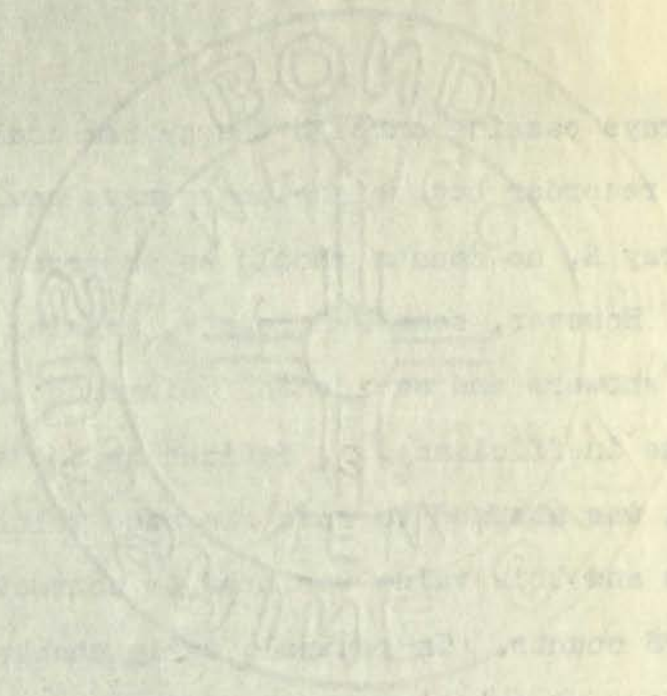
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ionizing rays passing through the system could cause counts on the PS recorder but, since these rays would have to pass through Tray E, no counts should be observed on the NPS recorder. However, some NPS counts, arising in part possibly from side showers and accidental coincidences, were always found. The inefficiency, ξ , defined as the ratio NPS/PS for this case, was assumed to have the same value during normal operations and this value was used to correct the observed rate of NPS counts. In general, daily checks were made upon the operation of the individual counters and the electronic circuits.

The barometric pressure was recorded and corrections were applied to the data for variations of the pressure from an arbitrary standard value near the mean.

The absorption of the roof was not quite the same for the two tank positions, designated N(north) and S(south), and the times spent with the equipment in each position for each arrangement of Σ_1 and Σ_2 were usually somewhat different. A weighted average of the ratio of the NPS counting rates in the two positions for the same absorber conditions showed that the counting rate in the N position exceeded that in the S position by 3.5%. That is, each differed from the average by 1.75%.

Let t_N and t_S be the times spent in the N and S positions



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respectively, and let N_N and N_S be the corresponding numbers of NPS counts in the two positions. Then, in order to reduce the total number of counts to the basis of average position, the following corrections were applied:

$$0.0175 N_S (t_S - t_N) / t_S, \quad \text{if } t_S > t_N$$

$$\text{and} \quad -0.0175 N_N (t_N - t_S) / t_N, \quad \text{if } t_N > t_S.$$

All data were reduced to average values for the N and S positions by applying the correction terms given above.

A correction for inefficiency, ϵ , of Tray E was made by subtracting the quantity $\epsilon \times \text{PS}$ from the observed number of NPS counts for each configuration of the absorbers Σ_1 and Σ_2 .

The absorption length of the NPSRP in air was taken to be $115 \text{ g/cm}^2 \approx 3.33 \text{ inches Hg}$. Thus, the intensity of the incident radiation at pressure p (measured in inches Hg) is given by $I_p = I_{p_0} \exp [-(p-p_0)/3.33] \approx I_{p_0} (1-0.3 \Delta p)$, where I_{p_0} is the intensity expected at an arbitrary pressure p_0 , chosen near the mean pressure, and $\Delta p = p - p_0$. Thus, in order to bring the results to a common barometric pressure basis, a correction of $0.3 \Delta p \times \text{NPS}$ was added to the NPS count for each run after the correction for inefficiency of Tray E had been made.

The background NPS counts, obtained with the lead removed from Σ_2 , were corrected in the same manner as the other NPS counts. As will be seen later, the background counting rate varies, within experimental error, at the same exponential



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rate with depth of water in Σ_1 as does the NPS counting rate when lead is present at Σ_2 . Thus, for calculations of collision lengths, it does not seem to matter, except for accumulation of errors, whether or not the background rate is subtracted from the otherwise corrected value.

Let σ_p , σ_d , and σ_o be the collision cross sections of the hydrogen, deuterium, and oxygen nuclei respectively, for neutral N-rays, and let L_{c1} and L_{c2} be the collision lengths for these rays in light and heavy water, respectively. Let R_o , R_1 , and R_2 be the corrected rates of production of penetrating showers in Σ_2 by neutral N-rays with $\Sigma_1 = 0$ (the empty steel tank), with $\Sigma_1 = x_1$ g/cm² H₂O and with $\Sigma_1 = x_2$ g/cm² D₂O, respectively. Let m_1 and m_2 be the molecular masses of light and heavy water respectively. If the number of penetrating showers produced in Σ_2 by neutral N-rays is a decreasing exponential function of the depth of water in Σ_1 , then,

$$\begin{aligned}
 2) \quad & R_1 = R_o \exp(-x_1/L_{c1}) \\
 & \text{and} \quad R_2 = R_o \exp(-x_2/L_{c2}), \\
 3) \quad & \text{where} \quad L_{c1} = m_1/(2\sigma_p + \sigma_o) \quad , \\
 & \text{and} \quad L_{c2} = m_2/(2\sigma_d + \sigma_o) \quad .
 \end{aligned}$$

From these above equations, one obtains

$$\begin{aligned}
 4) \quad R_1/R_2 &= \exp(x_2/L_{c2} - x_1/L_{c1}) \\
 &= \exp \left\{ 2 \left[x_2 \sigma_d/m_2 - x_1 \sigma_p/m_1 \right] + \left[x_2/m_2 - x_1/m_1 \right] \sigma_o \right\} .
 \end{aligned}$$



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If the depths of water are chosen such that

$$5) \quad x_2/m_2 = x_1/m_1,$$

as was done for the main part of this experiment, (4) reduces to:

$$6) \quad R_1/R_2 = \exp [2x_1(\sigma_{\text{H}} - \sigma_{\text{P}})/m_1],$$

from which one obtains

$$7) \quad \sigma_{\text{H}} - \sigma_{\text{P}} = (m_1/2x_1) \ln(R_1/R_2).$$

From these above equations, one obtains:

$$8) \quad L_{c1} = x_1/\ln(R_0/R_1) \quad \text{and}$$

$$9) \quad L_{c2} = x_2/\ln(R_0/R_2).$$

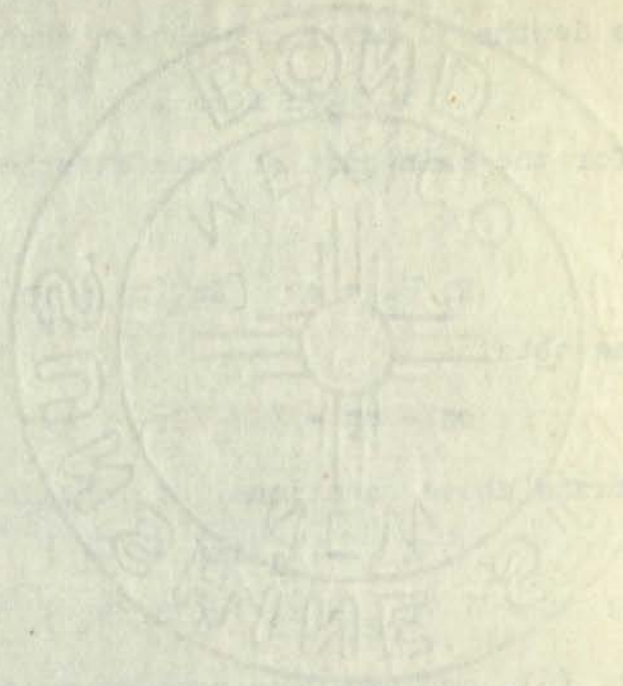
Equations (7), (8), and (9) were used to calculate the results of this experiment.

The inefficiency of Tray E was determined in 24 runs which resulted in a total of 80,851 PS counts and 1,020 NPS counts. This gives $\epsilon = 1,020/80,851 = 0.0126 \pm 0.0004$. Table I gives the magnitudes of the various corrections and the corrected values of the total NPS counts.

Table II gives the total time of running under each condition, the corrected total NPS counts, and the values of the corrected counting rates. All errors quoted represent standard deviations.

The logarithms of the corrected NPS counting rates observed with Σ_1 composed of light water are plotted in Figure 14 against depth of water for $\Sigma_2 = 0$ and for $\Sigma_2 = 6$ inches Pb. Both curves have the same slope within experimental

COLLEGE CONTENT
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TABLE I

OBSERVED COUNTS AND CORRECTIONS

No. of runs	Σ_1 in g/cm ²	Σ_2	PS counts, obs.	NPS counts, obs.	Corrections to N-S Ave.	NPS counts Pressure	NPS corrected
45	85.09, D ₂ O	6" Pb	35,210	2,459	-4.05	-444.0	2002.1
16	85.09, D ₂ O	0	15,824	386	-1.06	-199.3	186.7
34	76.6, H ₂ O	6" Pb	28,035	1,962	-8.19	-354.0	1583.9
15	76.6, H ₂ O	0	17,733	400	-2.09	-223.5	174.3
11	0	6" Pb	9,868	1,068	+14.00	-124.5	922.3
8	0	0	8,487	292	+5.11	-106.9	181.4
4	37.6, H ₂ O	6" Pb	3,332	293	-5.12	-42.0	238.6
4	37.6, H ₂ O	0	4,863	112	-1.96	-61.3	45.5
1	50.8, H ₂ O	6" Pb	688	65	-1.14	-8.7	55.2
1	50.8, H ₂ O	0	610	14	-0.24	-7.7	6.1
1	27.0, H ₂ O	6" Pb	484	44	-0.77	-6.1	37.1
1	27.0, H ₂ O	0	1,094	27	-0.47	-13.8	12.7

*The barometric pressure was not read, but the correction is negligible compared with the statistical error for a small number of counts.



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TABLE II

RATES OF PRODUCTION OF PENETRATING SHOWERS BY NEUTRAL N-RAYS

No. of runs	Σ_1 in g/cm ²	Σ_2	Total time in hours	Corrected total NPS counts	NPS counting rate in hr ⁻¹
45	85.09, D ₂ O	6" Pb	1097.8	2002.1 ± 50	1.825 ± 0.045
16	85.09, D ₂ O	0	364	186.7 ± 20	0.512 ± 0.055
34	76.6, H ₂ O	6" Pb	855.6	1583.9 ± 44	1.851 ± 0.051
15	76.6, H ₂ O	0	392.4	174.3 ± 20	0.445 ± 0.051
11	0	6" Pb	253.7	922.3 ± 34	3.64 ± 0.13
6	0	0	193.4	181.4 ± 17	0.94 ± 0.09
4	37.6, H ₂ O	6" Pb	94.7	238.6 ± 17	2.52 ± 0.18
4	37.6, H ₂ O	0	96.4	45.5 ± 10.6	0.47 ± 0.11
1	50.8, H ₂ O	6" Pb	22	55.2 ± 8.1	2.51 ± 0.37
1	50.8, H ₂ O	0	15	6.1 ± 3.8	0.41 ± 0.25
1	27.0, H ₂ O	6" Pb	14	37.1 ± 6.6	2.65 ± 0.47
1	27.0, H ₂ O	0	24	12.7 ± 5.2	0.53 ± 0.22



Lot No.	Σ ₁ in boxes	Σ ₂	In pounds copy fine collected paper	Big scraps collected paper	Loss in lb. - I all except
14	92'00" 150	0	300	1000 ± 30	
16	92'00" 150	0	300	1000 ± 30	
18	92'00" 150	0	300	1000 ± 30	

REPORT OF INVESTIGATION OF NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS

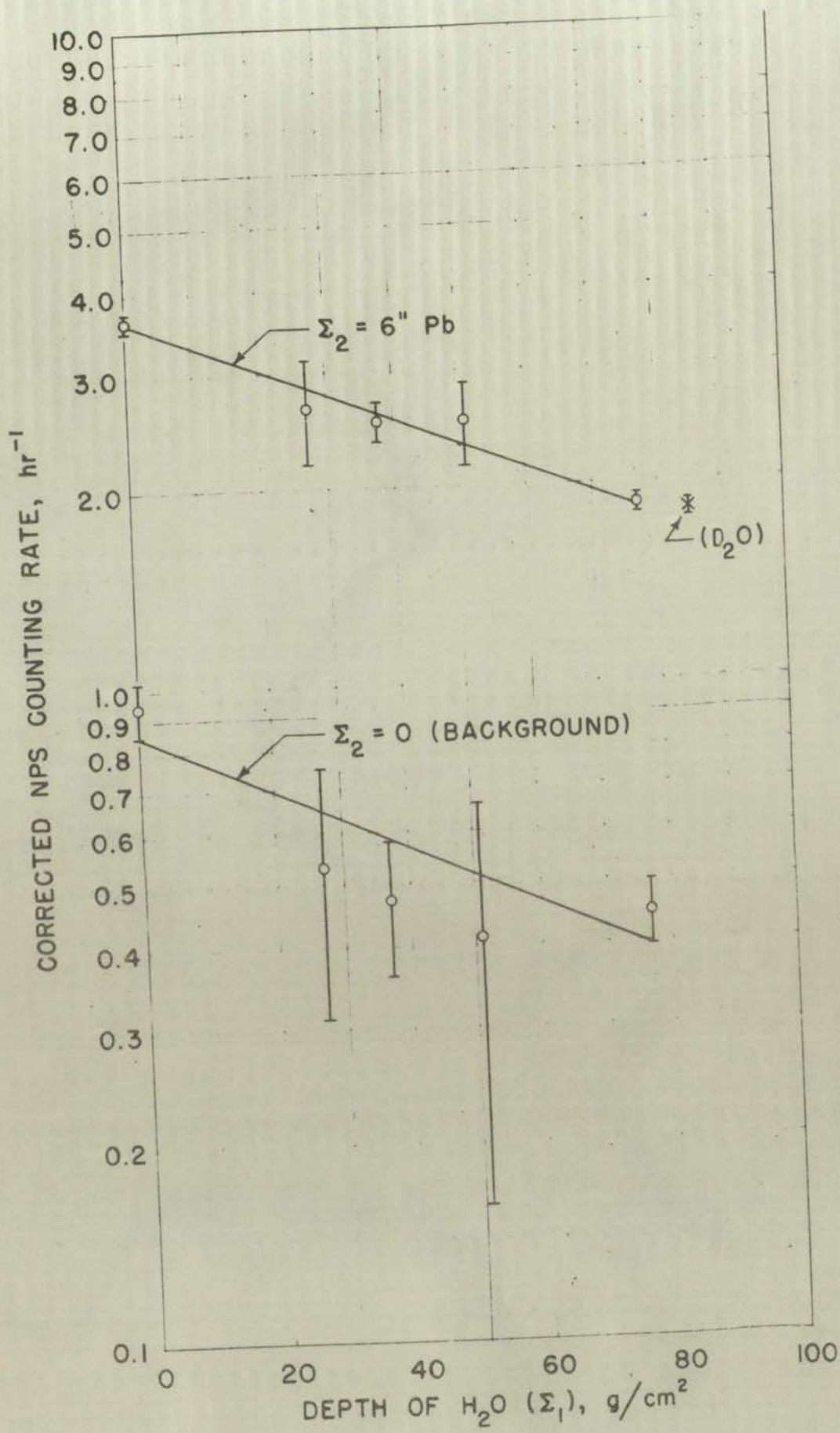
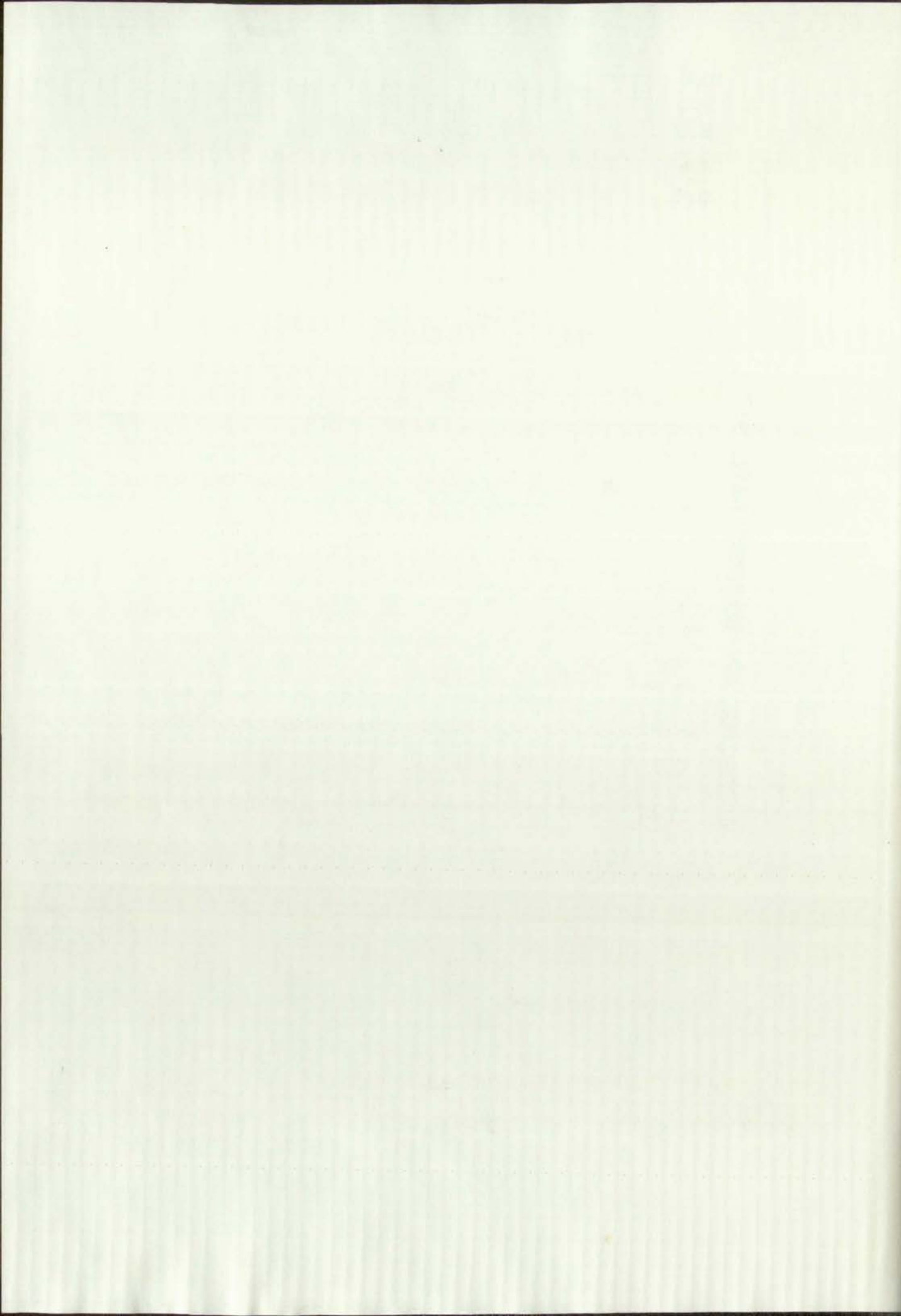


FIGURE 14

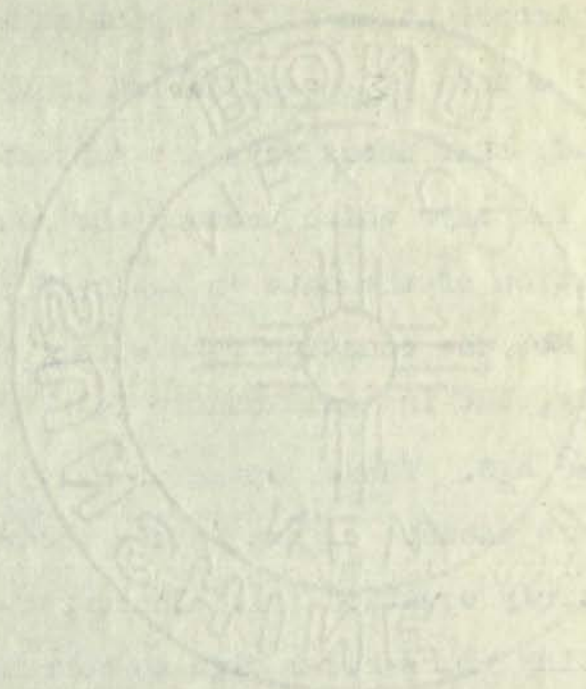


error. One interpretation of this fact is that most of the background counts ($\Sigma_2 = 0$) arise from rays incident through Σ_1 , and that these rays are subject to the same absorption as the rays which produce the penetrating showers.

Examination of the data in Table II shows that, for $\Sigma_2 = 6$ inches Pb, the counting rate with $\Sigma_1 = 85.09$ g/cm² D₂O is slightly, but insignificantly less than that with $\Sigma_1 = 76.6$ g/cm² H₂O. These depths of heavy and light water contain the same amounts of oxygen per square centimeter, i.e., they satisfy equation (5). Thus, the small difference in these counting rates has a sign to correspond with the cross section of the deuteron being greater than that of the proton, even though this difference is less than its statistical error. The difference between the corresponding background rates ($\Sigma_2 = 0$) has the opposite sign, but it also is less than its statistical error. There is no obvious reason for the background to be less with the corresponding depth of heavy water and, possibly, the reverse might be expected. If the true background with light water is equal to or greater than that for heavy water, perhaps the best value of the background for the both cases would be the weighted average of the two values given in Table II. However, the statistical errors are sufficiently large to include the possibility that the true background values are

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error. On January 30, 1900, the following was published in the *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine*: "The following is a list of the names of the members of the Society of Medicine who have been elected to the office of President for the year 1900-1901." The names listed are: Sir James Spence, Bart., President; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Vice-President; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Treasurer; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Secretary; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Librarian; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Auditor; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Chairman of the Council; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Chairman of the Committee on the Education of the Public; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Chairman of the Committee on the Education of the Professions; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Chairman of the Committee on the Education of the Clergy; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Chairman of the Committee on the Education of the Army and Navy; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Chairman of the Committee on the Education of the Colonies; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Chairman of the Committee on the Education of the Empire; Sir John Lubbock, Bart., Chairman of the Committee on the Education of the World.

equal, or even inverted in magnitude, and the value of $\sigma_{\bar{d}} - \sigma_{\bar{p}}$ has been calculated using the individual values of the background observed in the experiment.

Using the data of Table II, equation (7) gives:

$$\sigma_{\bar{d}} - \sigma_{\bar{p}} = 13 \pm 15 \text{ millibarns.}$$

(If the average value of the background had been used, as indicated in the previous paragraph, the result would have been

$$\sigma_{\bar{d}} - \sigma_{\bar{p}} = 4 \pm 12 \text{ millibarns.})$$

Similarly, equations (8) and (9) give the collision lengths as follows:

$$L_{c1} = 113 \pm 12 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in H}_2\text{O,}$$

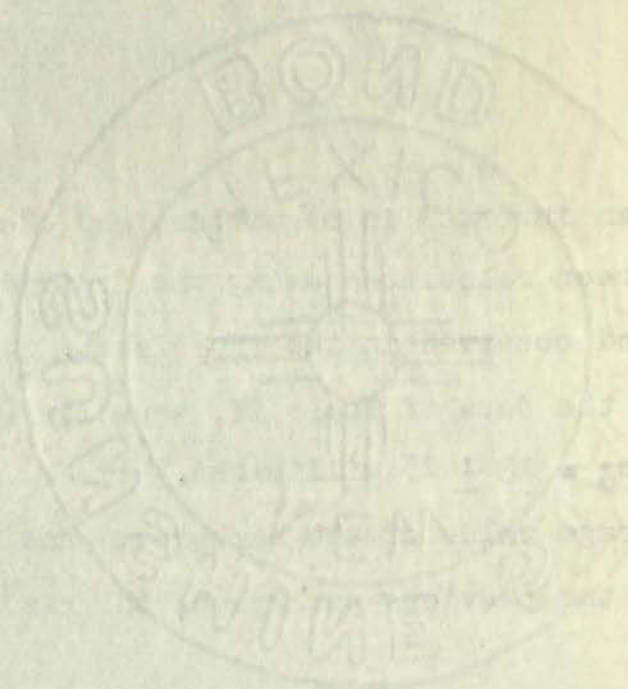
$$\text{and } L_{c2} = 123 \pm 13 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in D}_2\text{O.}$$

III CONCLUSIONS

From the analysis of this experiment, one can see that an unambiguous measurement of the collision length is obtained only if the following conditions are true.

- 1) The first condition is that the radiation that produces the shower actually passes through the absorber. Considerable side shielding (as in Σ_3), and anticoincidence tubes well-removed from the equipment to discriminate against extensive air showers help in this matter. Extensive air showers, unless properly discriminated against,

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are the largest source of error in experiments that allow ionizing particles to initiate the shower.

- 2) The second condition is that some protection be established so that single particles at large angles from the zenith, local soft showers, and knock-on electrons do not register as penetrating showers. This requirement may be fulfilled by proper geometric considerations.
- 3) Background measurements must be made to eliminate the chance coincidences that would simulate showers. This requirement may not be very important, since, as was pointed out previously, the background counting rate seems to vary at the same exponential rate with depth of absorber as does the regular counting rate. However, the statistics upon which this conclusion is based are quite poor.
- 4) If the experiment measures showers produced by non-ionizing primaries, some precaution must be taken to take account of the inefficiency of the anticoincidence tray.
- 5) The experiment must have been conducted for a sufficiently long time to have cancellation of the errors introduced by short period variations in the incident flux.

CHAPTER III

EVALUATION OF OTHER EXPERIMENTS

A. - COLLISION LENGTH OF THE NPSPR IN WATER.⁹

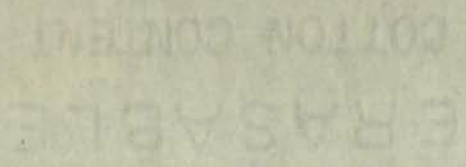
In 1951, Rollosson determined the collision length in water of the neutral component of the cosmic radiation which is capable of producing penetrating showers. The equipment is essentially the same as that used by Froman, Kenney, and Regener. The main changes which the latter made on the equipment used by Rollosson were of a geometric nature. Figure 15 shows two elevations of the experimental arrangement.

As one can see, there is a somewhat smaller amount of shielding in Σ_3 , a slightly different shaped tank, and a change in Σ_2 . In the experiment described in the previous chapter, Σ_2 was composed of 6 inches Pb, whereas in this experiment it was composed of 12 inches water. Thus, there was a different allowable solid angle in the two experiments, so that there was also a difference in the possible combinations of tubes in Trays A, B, C, and D to give allowable coincidences.

A value of the collision length of the NPSPR was given as:

$$L_c = 98 \pm 13 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in water.}$$

⁹ Rollosson, op. cit.





1. - COMPARISON OF THE TWO METHODS

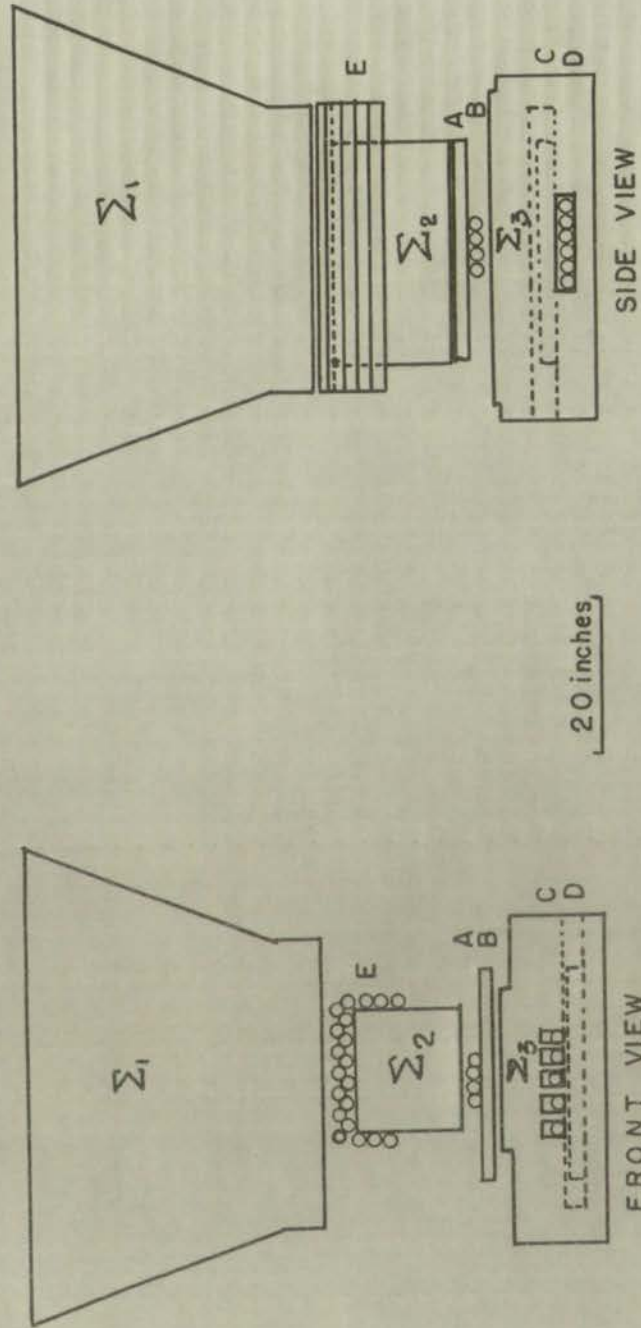
In 1971, the Bureau was requested to compare the two methods in the water of the Pacific Northwest of the United States, which is a typical example of a hard water. The equipment is described in the report of Kennedy, and the results are given in Table I. The results show that the two methods are in good agreement, but that the gravimetric method is more accurate than the titrimetric method.

As one can see, there is a very small difference of about 0.1% between the two methods. This is due to the fact that the gravimetric method is more accurate than the titrimetric method. The difference is due to the fact that the gravimetric method is more accurate than the titrimetric method. The difference is due to the fact that the gravimetric method is more accurate than the titrimetric method.

A value of the coefficient of variation is given in Table II.

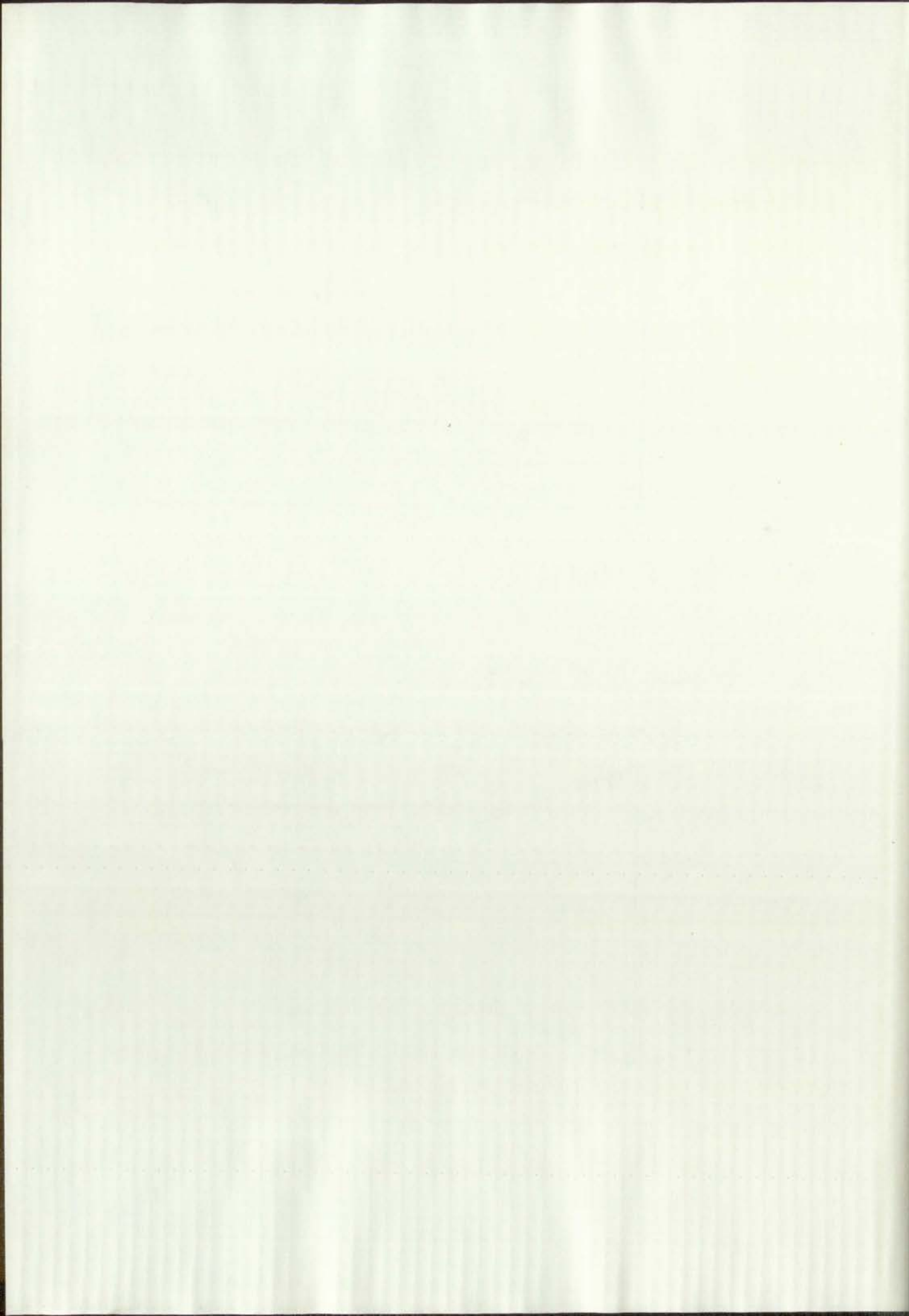
and

TABLE I
RESULTS OF THE COMPARISON OF THE TWO METHODS



EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT OF ROLLOSSON

FIGURE 15



This value agrees quite well with the value presented by Froman et al.. The experiment was performed at two altitudes, 2,770 m, and 1,570 m. From the difference in counting rates, the following value was deduced for the absorption length in air:

$$\lambda_{\text{air}} = 115 \pm 19 \text{ g/cm}^2.$$

The main difference in the treatment of data was that the calculated inefficiency was negligible in Rollosson's experiment, and was not included in the final calculation of the collision length.

B. - COLLISION LENGTH OF THE NPEPR IN PARAFFIN.¹⁰

This experiment performed by Pomeroy in 1950 is quite similar to those described previously. Two elevations of the experimental arrangement are given in Figure 16.

Neither the anticoincidence tray nor the side shielding were as extensive as in the experiments described above. Consequently, it is entirely possible that there were some extensive air showers that were included as local penetrating showers. The design of Σ_1 also left the possibility that particles inclined only somewhat from the vertical could cause a penetrating shower that would activate the detector, even though the incident particle traversed only a fraction of the

¹⁰

Pomeroy, D., Phys. Rev., BZ, 77 (1951)



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B. - COLLISION...

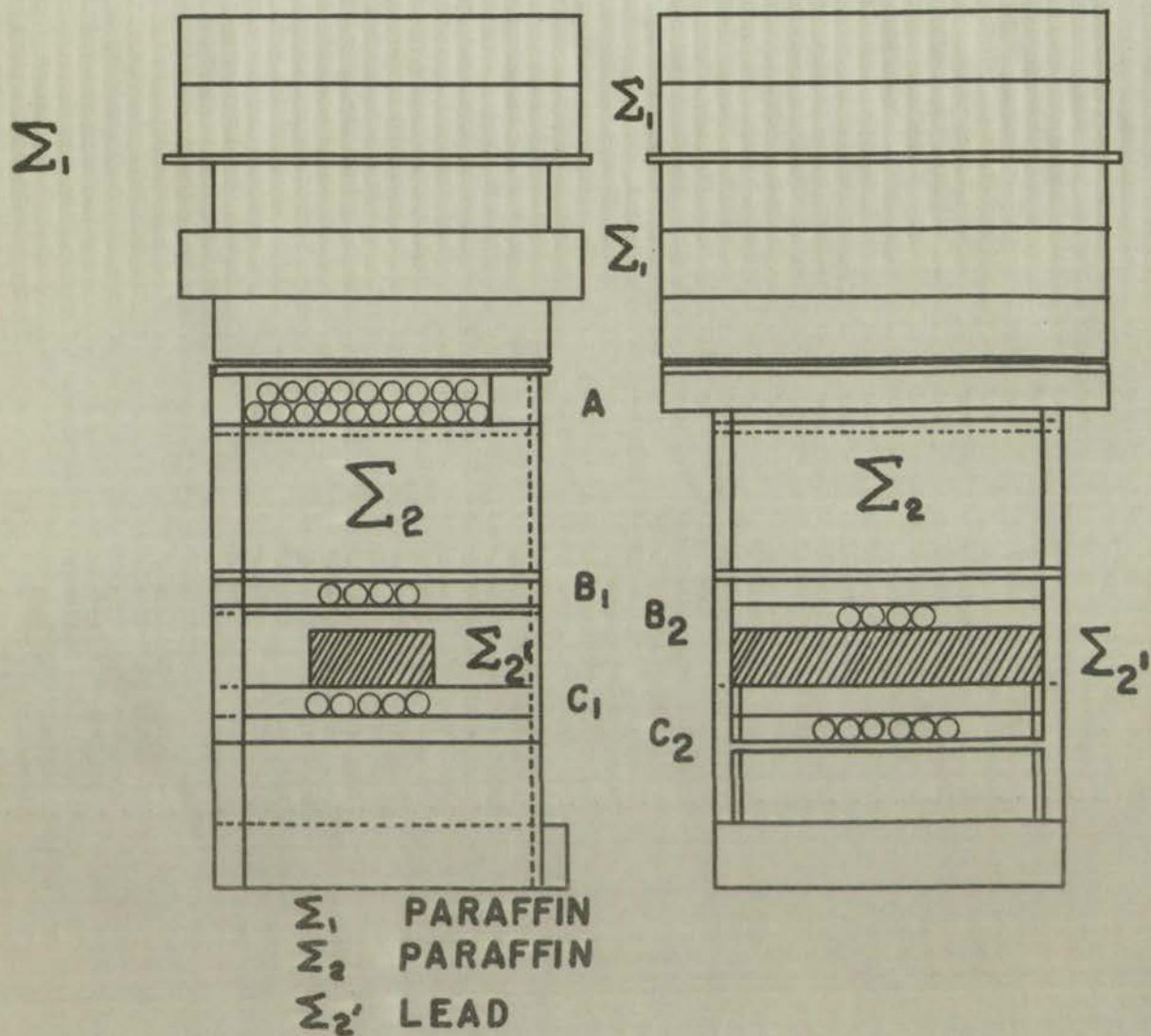
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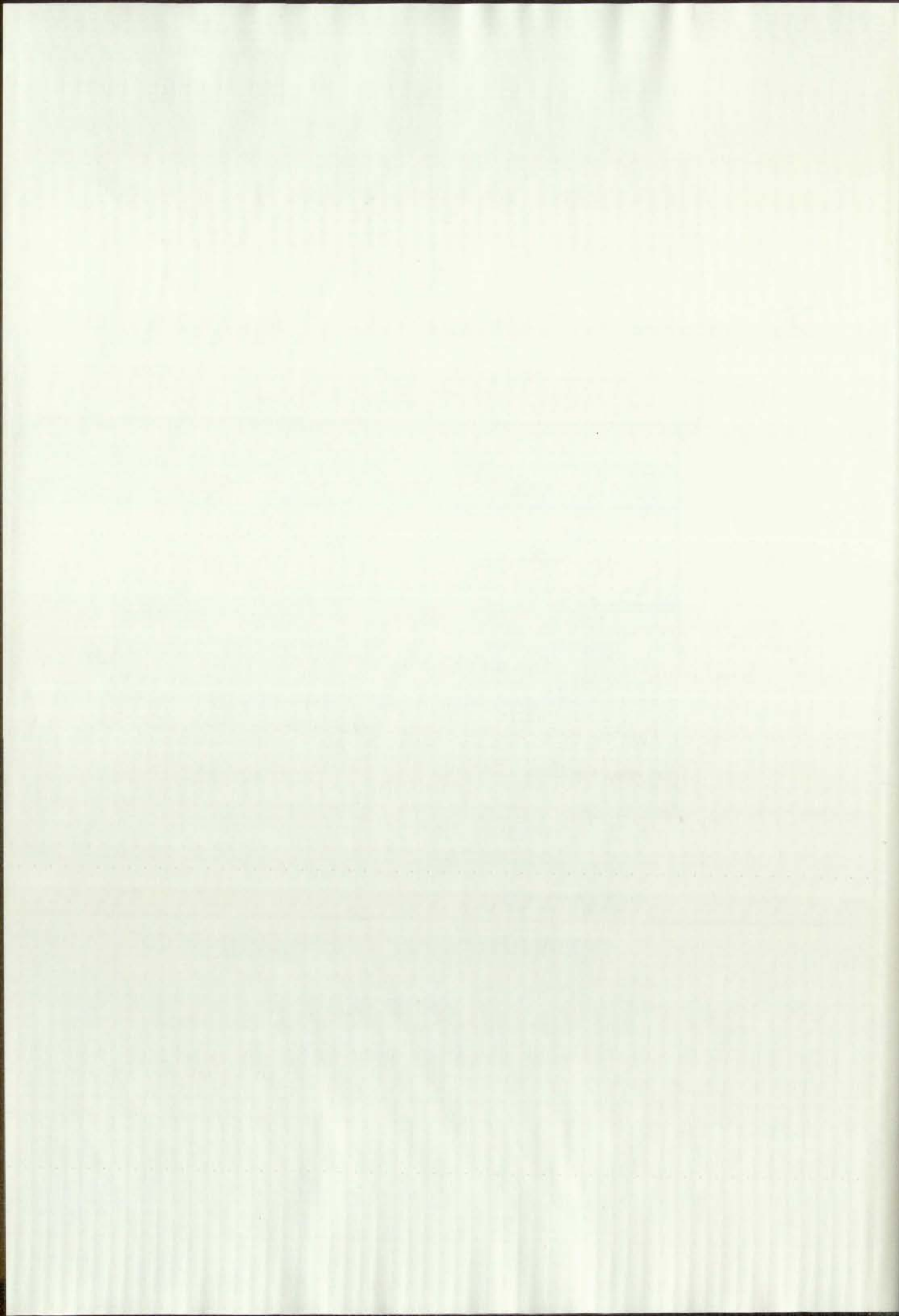
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EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT
 OF
 POMEROY

FIGURE 16



absorber. In general, the magnitude of these errors should be small, and the value given by Pomeroy is reasonably reliable.

The collision length of the NPSPR in paraffin as determined by Pomeroy is:

$$L_c = 61 \pm 6 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ at an altitude of 2,770 m,}$$

$$\text{and } L_c = 75 \pm 19 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ at an altitude of 1,570 m.}$$

From the difference in counting rates at the two altitudes, a value was deduced for the absorption length of the NPSPR in air which was given as:

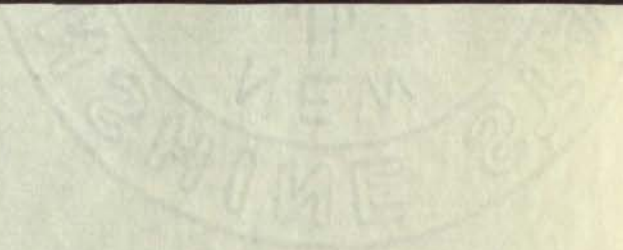
$$\lambda_{\text{air}} = 104 \pm 6 \text{ g/cm}^2.$$

C. - COLLISION LENGTH OF THE IPSPR IN LEAD.¹¹

Using the experimental arrangement of Figure 17, Sitte has investigated the collision length of the IPSPR in Pb. Using two separate values for the thickness of lead in the absorber Σ_3 , the required penetrating power of the secondaries in the shower was changed. An increased penetrating power of the secondaries corresponds to an increased energy of the primary particle. The showers were produced in the lead of Σ_2 . The required coincidences were those in which only one counter in Tray A, at least two counters in

¹¹

Sitte, K., op. cit.



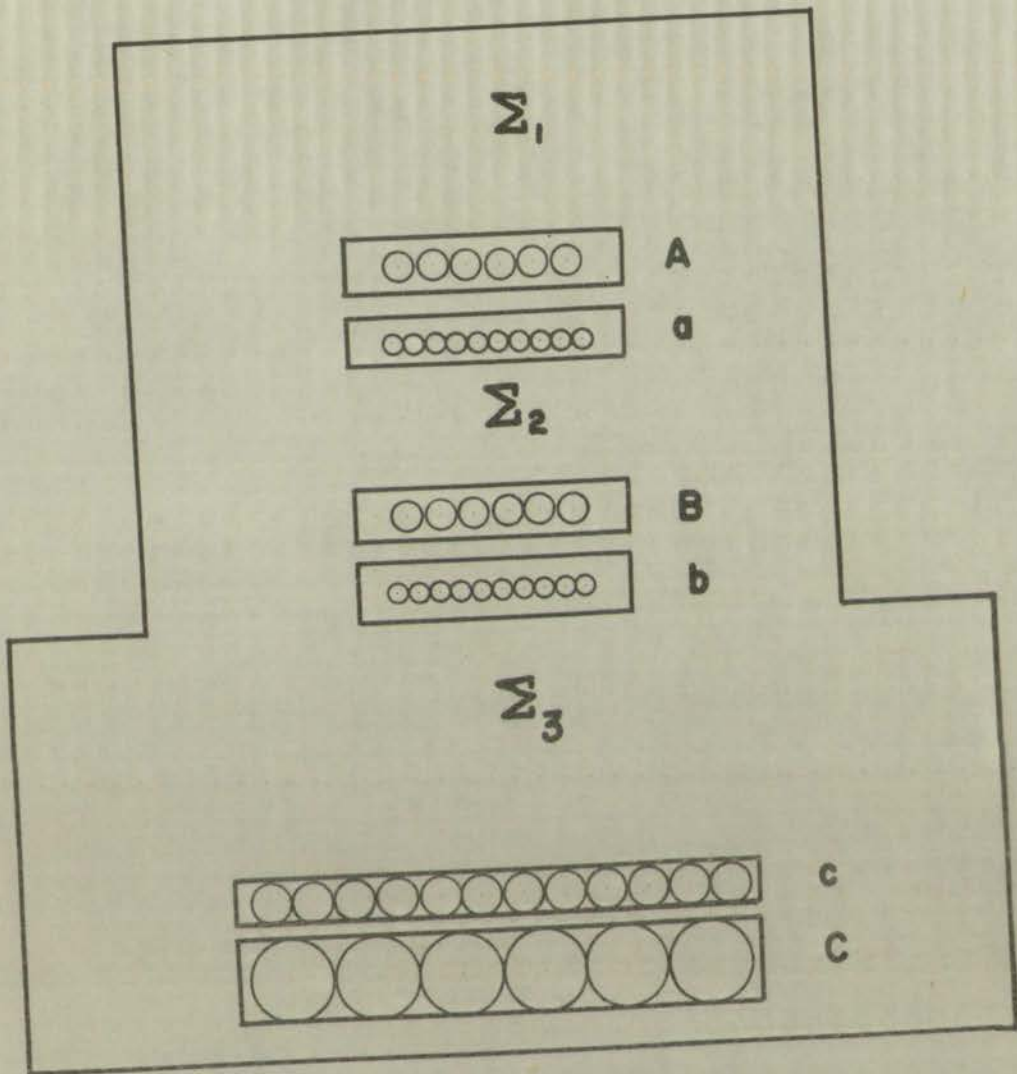
absorbed in the medium, and the value of ϵ is
 reliable. The collision frequency ν is
 determined by the theory of
 the free electron gas, and the value of ν is
 and
 From the difference in the values of ϵ and ϵ_0
 a value was calculated for the collision frequency ν
 in air which was given as

$\nu = 1.5 \times 10^{10} \text{ s}^{-1}$

Using the above values of ν and ϵ , the
 value of ϵ was calculated for the frequency ω
 of the incident light. Using the value of ϵ and
 in the absorption coefficient α , the value of α
 secondary in the medium was calculated. The
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 energy of the incident light. The value of α
 in the case of $\omega = 2\pi \times 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1}$. The value of α
 which only one number is given for the frequency

NEW YORK
 31





EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT
of
SITTE

FIGURE 17



Tray B, and at least three counters in Tray C were discharged. As the thickness of lead in Σ_1 was increased, showers would be formed in Σ_1 which would discharge more than one counter in Tray A. The count would then be rejected.

A bank of counter tubes in the near vicinity was also incorporated which registered a count every time one of these tubes was discharged in coincidence with a penetrating shower. This effectively records the number of showers that were produced by extensive air showers. The correlation between the number of penetrating showers and the number of air showers was less than 1%. This is, therefore, a good indication that this experiment actually measured the collision length of the IPSPR in lead. Hodoscope pictures were used to determine the actual number of secondaries in the shower.

The values obtained for the collision lengths of the IPSPR in lead are:

$$L_c = 162 \pm 10 \text{ g/cm}^2, \text{ where } \Sigma_3 = 200 \text{ g/cm}^2,$$

and

$$L_c = 196 \pm 13 \text{ g/cm}^2, \text{ where } \Sigma_3 = 100 \text{ g/cm}^2.$$

A criticism that applies to any experiment of this type is that a narrow or "collimated" shower could be formed in Σ_1 immediately above Tray A. This would discharge only one counter in Tray A, but still be registered as a penetrating shower produced in Σ_2 . The hodoscope tray a, as used in this experiment, should minimize the error introduced by this effect.



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COLLON POWELL



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D. - COLLISION LENGTH OF THE IPSPR IN LEAD AND IN IRON.¹²

Tinlot and Gregory measured the mean free path of the IPSPR in Pb and in Fe using the experimental arrangement of Figure 18. The recorded event was one in which at least one counter in each of Trays A, C, and D, only one counter in Tray B, and no counters in Tray E were discharged. This event was interpreted as a single ionizing particle traversing Σ_1 and Trays A and B, and then creating a shower in the lead separating Trays B and E from Trays C and D. If the shower were produced in the absorber Σ_1 , then the count would be discarded because it would be impossible for such a shower to discharge both Trays C and D without discharging more than one counter in Tray B or one in Tray B and one in Tray E. This is also a sufficient condition to eliminate any air showers.

Since the primary particle passed through Tray B, the shower could have been initiated any place between Tray B and Trays C and D. If it were initiated near the top of Σ_2 , then the shower would have been a genuine penetrating shower, because the secondaries would have had to penetrate about 4 inches of lead. If, however, the shower were initiated near the bottom of Σ_2 , the secondaries would not need to

 12

 Tinlot, J., and Gregory, B., Phys. Rev., 75, 519 (1949).

D. - COLLISION OF THE ...

Time and energy ...

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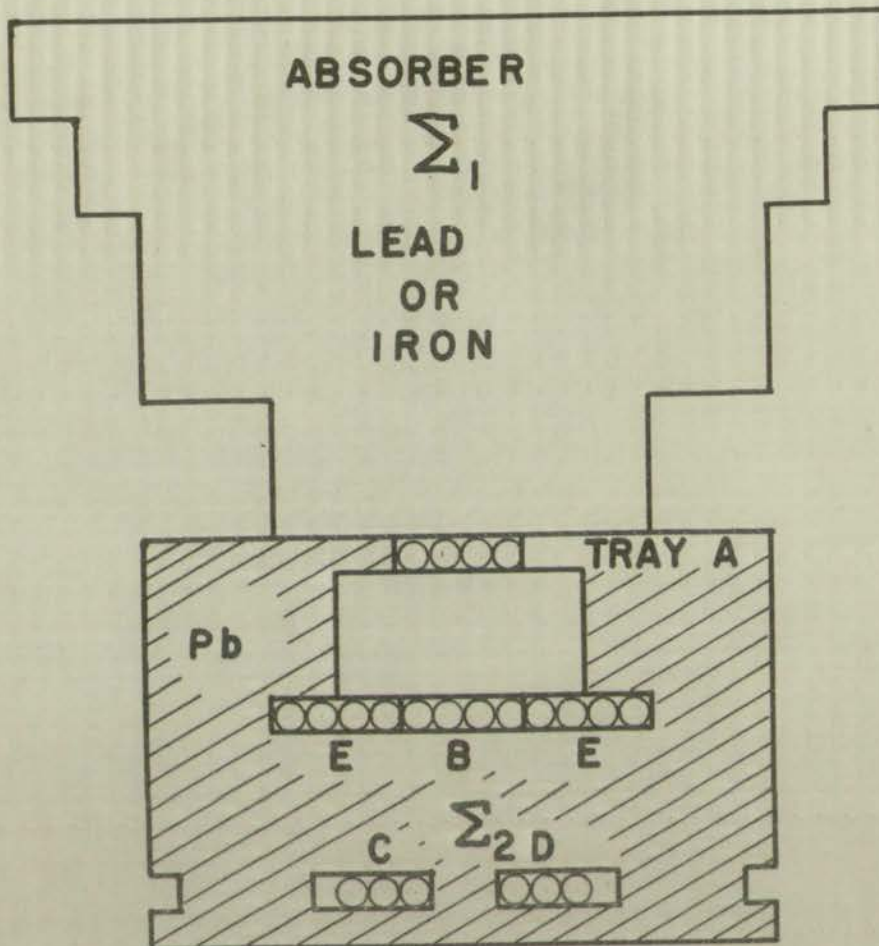
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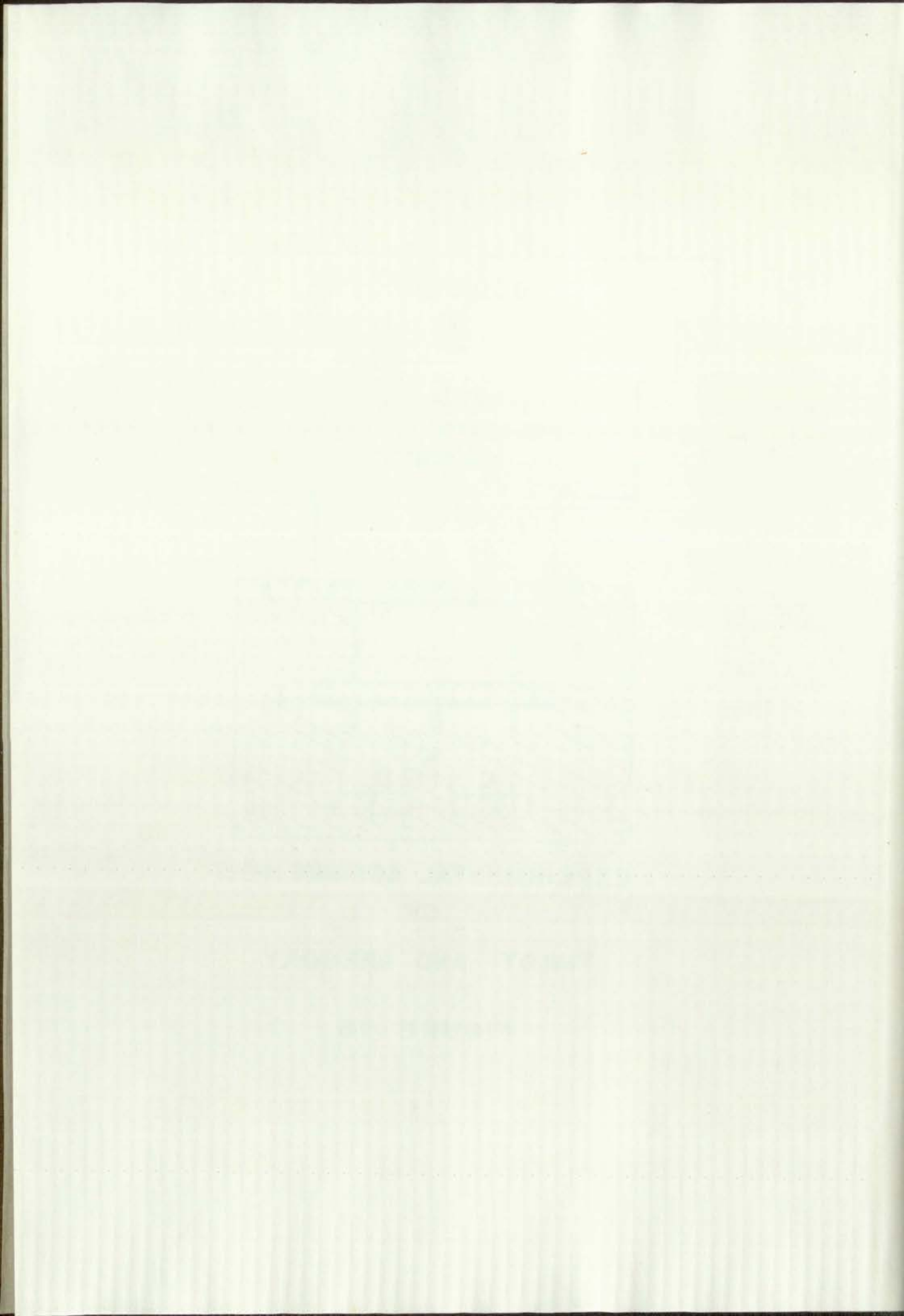




EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT
OF

TINLOT AND GREGORY

FIGURE 18



have been very penetrating to discharge both Trays C and D. The event recorded in this case may or may not be a penetrating shower. This is a rather serious objection to the validity of this experiment. The two inches of lead separating Trays C and D make it unlikely that any shower recorded was purely electronic in nature, or that the shower consisted of a knock-on particle and an electron shower. This helps to modify the objection to the validity of the experiment. The values for the collision length of the IPSPR presented in this paper are:

$$L_c = 310 \text{ g/cm}^2 \quad \text{where } \Sigma_1 \text{ is composed of lead,}$$

and $L_c = 200 \text{ g/cm}^2 \quad \text{where } \Sigma_1 \text{ is composed of iron.}$

E. - COLLISION LENGTHS OF THE IPSPR IN LEAD, IRON, AND CARBON.¹³

Using the experimental arrangement of Figure 19, Cocconi measured the absorption curve of the IPSPR in Pb, Fe, and C. The tubes in Tray A were all connected in parallel, as were the three tubes in each of Trays B, C, and D. The desired event was one in which Trays A, B, C, and D were discharged along with the discharge of only one tube in Tray E. This event was interpreted as due to a single ionizing particle passing through Σ_1 , Tray A, Σ_1 , Tray E, and then initiating a shower in Σ_2 , the secondaries of which

¹³

Cocconi, G., Phys. Rev., 75, 1075 (1949)

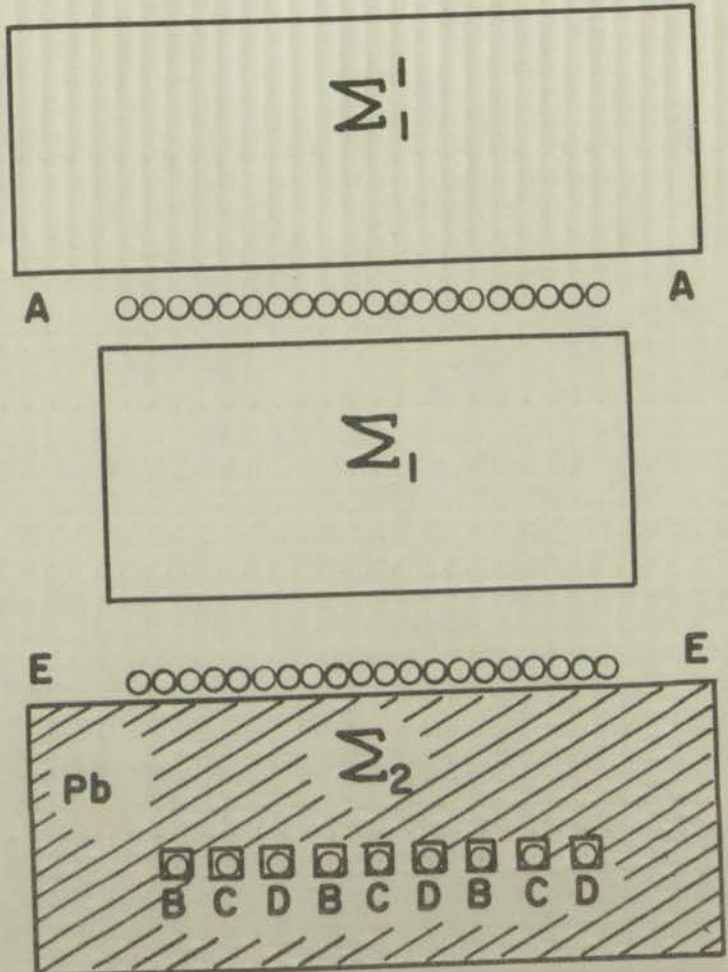
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EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT
OF
COCCONI

FIGURE 19



would then discharge Trays B, C, and D.

The same criticism applies to this paper as did to the experiment of Tinlot and Gregory. That is, the penetration of the primary particle was well guaranteed, but not the penetrating power of the secondaries. Because of the wider separation of tubes in Trays B, C, and D in this experiment as contrasted with the separation of Trays C and D in the previously described experiment, the necessary penetration of the secondaries was somewhat greater. Therefore, the criticism is not to be taken as seriously as that pertaining to the experiment of Tinlot and Gregory. In this paper an absorption length was measured as a function of the thickness of the absorber, Σ_1^i and Σ_1 . The initial slope of this curve should be equal to the collision length of the IPSPR, and this is presented as:

$$\begin{aligned} L_c &= 160 \pm 15 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in lead,} \\ L_c &= 135 \pm 15 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in iron,} \\ \text{and} \quad L_c &= 100 \pm 5 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in carbon.} \end{aligned}$$

F. - COLLISION LENGTH OF THE IPSPR IN GOLD.¹⁴

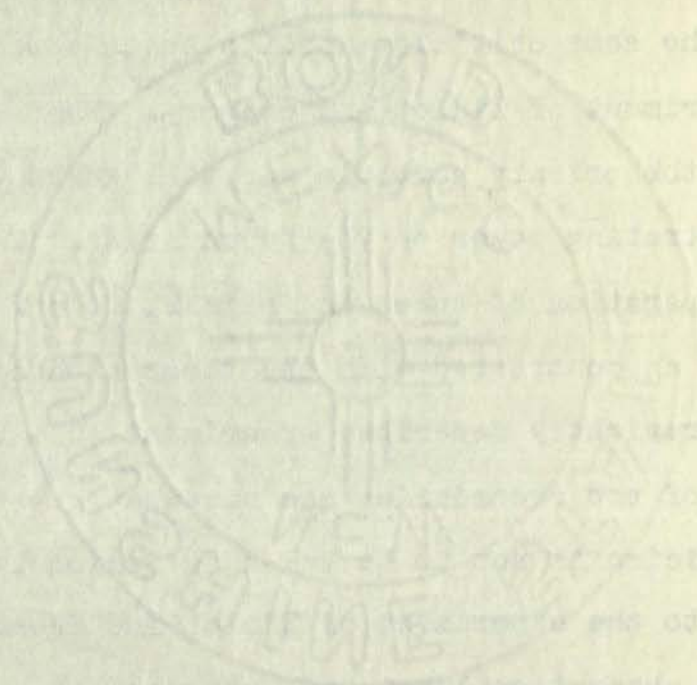
Utilizing the combination counter tube and cloud chamber arrangement of Figure 20, Gottlieb investigated the

¹⁴

Gottlieb, N. B., Phys. Rev., 82, 349 (1951)

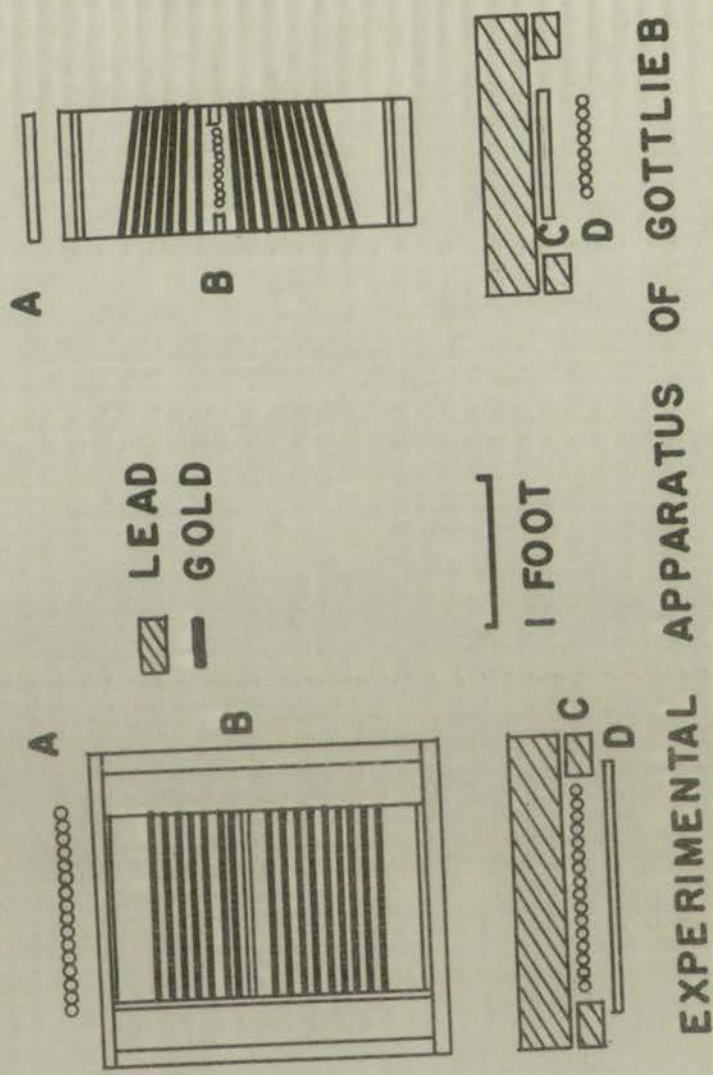
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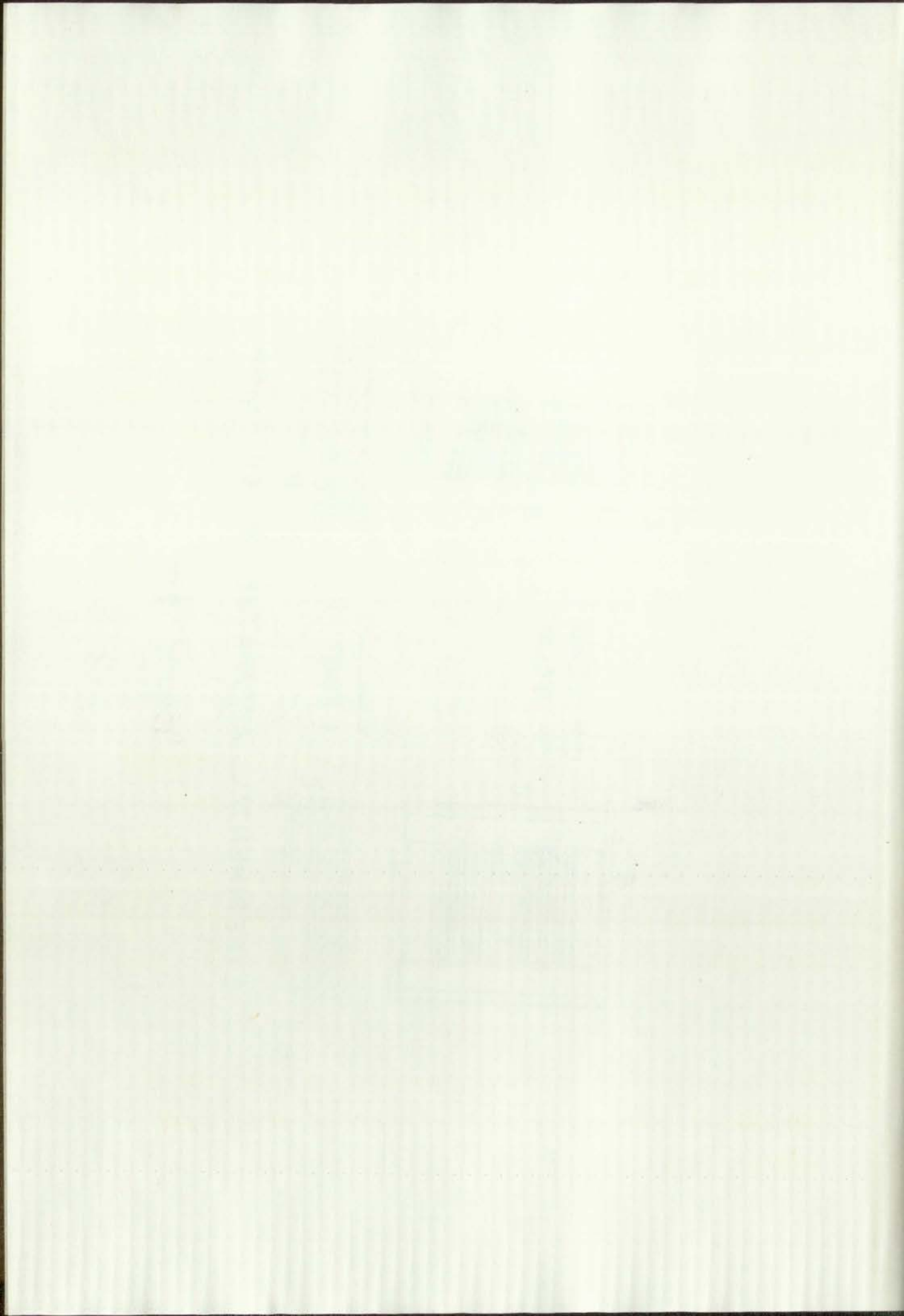
F. - COLLISION... Utilizing... another arrangement...



APPARATUS OF GOTTLIEB

EXPERIMENTAL

FIGURE 20



collision length of the IPSPR in gold. As shown in the diagram, most of the plates were composed of gold. The required event was one in which an ionizing particle entered the chamber and created a shower in one of the gold plates. The secondary particles had to be sufficiently penetrating so that at least three tubes in Tray C were discharged along with one tube in Tray D. Since photographs were taken of each event, there should be little error for which compensation cannot be made. Gottlieb calculated all the errors, then added a certain amount to the statistical error in his determination of the collision length. The value which is presented in this paper should, therefore, be quite acceptable. This value is:

$$L_c = 145 \pm 15 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in gold.}$$

In addition to this, the flux of particles entering the chamber that were capable of initiating high energy events in lead was compared with the flux of primary protons at the top of the atmosphere. From this, a value was computed for the absorption length in air of the particles that are capable of producing high energy events in lead. This value is:

$$\lambda_{\text{air}} = 77 \pm 5 \text{ g/cm}^2.$$

This value is not very reliable because not only protons, but also pi mesons are capable of producing high energy events in lead.



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G. - COLLISION LENGTH OF THE IPSPR IN LEAD AS A FUNCTION OF ENERGY.¹⁵

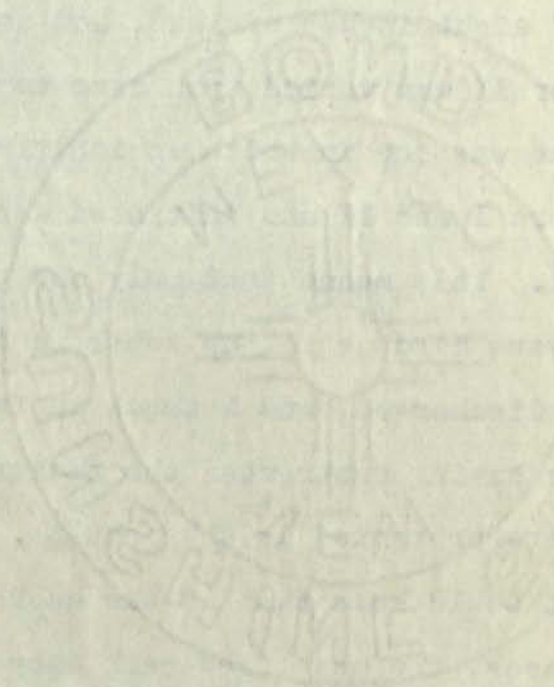
In 1949, Walker determined the mean free path in lead of the IPSPR as a function of energy using the experimental arrangement of Figure 21. The energies of the primary particles were not measured directly, but it was assumed that the showers of many penetrating particles were made by primaries of very high energy, while showers of fewer penetrating particles were initiated by primaries of lower energy. Absorber I was composed of four inches of lead, Absorber III was composed of eight inches of lead, and the thickness of lead in Absorber II was varied from zero to eight inches. A recorded event was one in which an ionizing particle passed through Absorbers I and II and initiated a penetrating shower in Absorber III. This means that only one tube in each of Trays A and B were discharged, no tubes in AS (air shower detector) were discharged, and N tubes in Tray C were discharged. After having subtracted the background, the curves of Figure 22 were presented as the results.

Thus, it would seem that as the energy of the primary particle increases, the mean free path decreases. Since nothing was said about the number of tubes discharged in

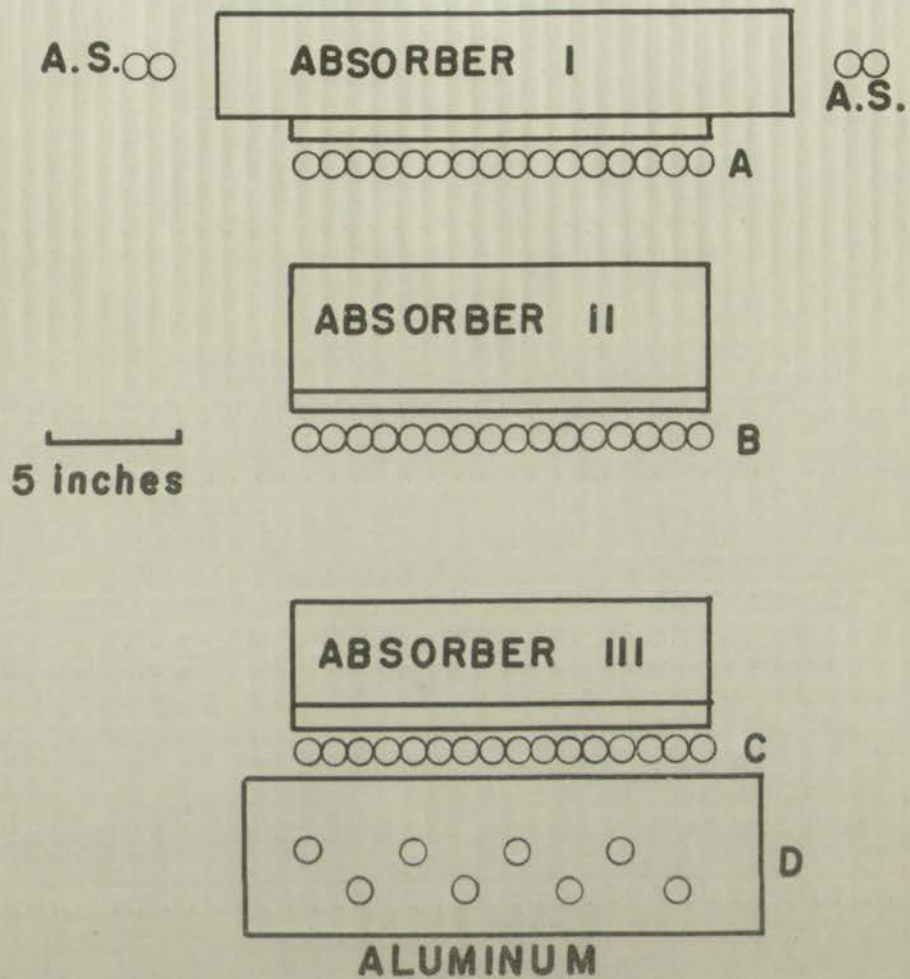
¹⁵

Walker, W. D., Phys. Rev., 22, 686 (1950)

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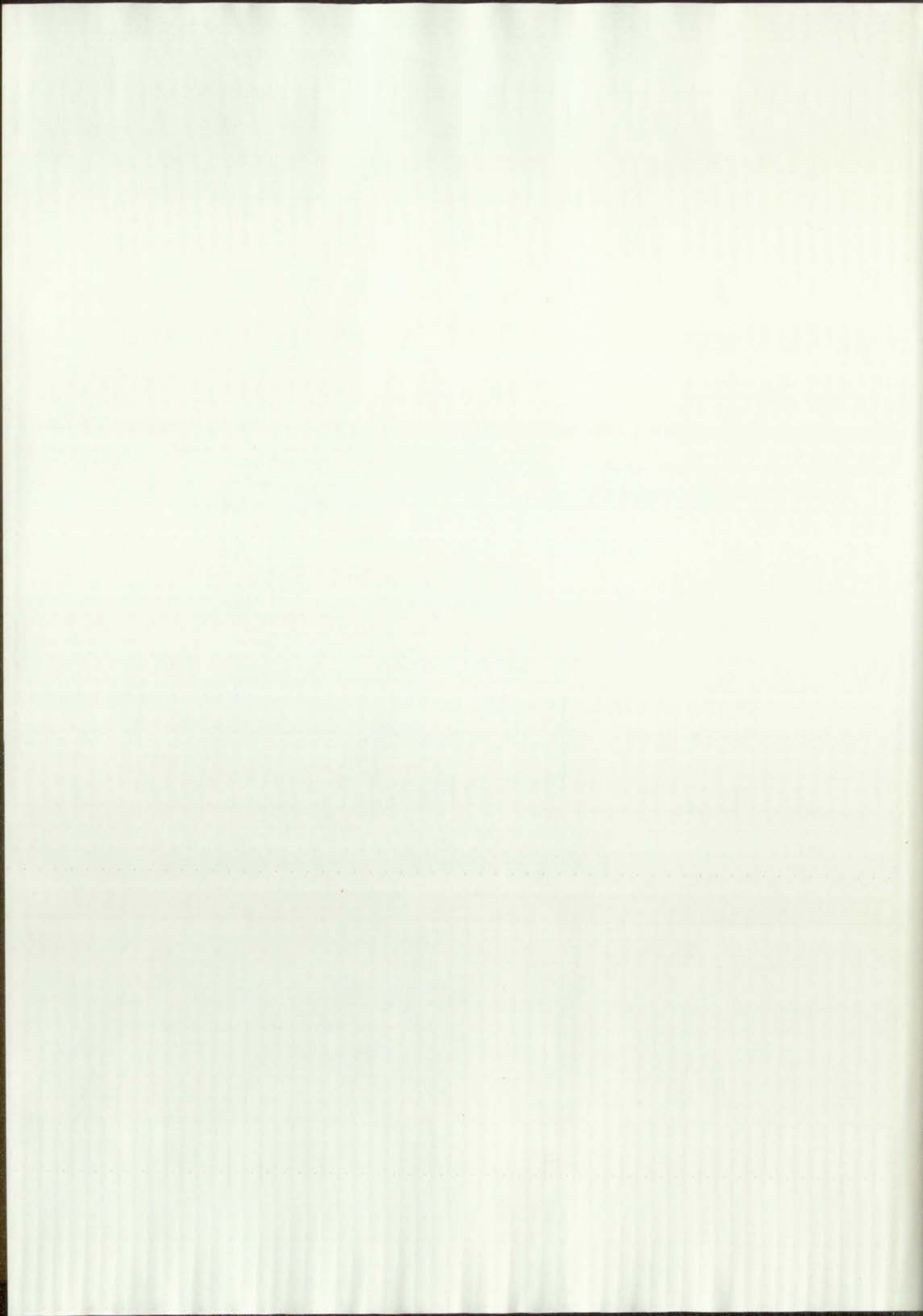


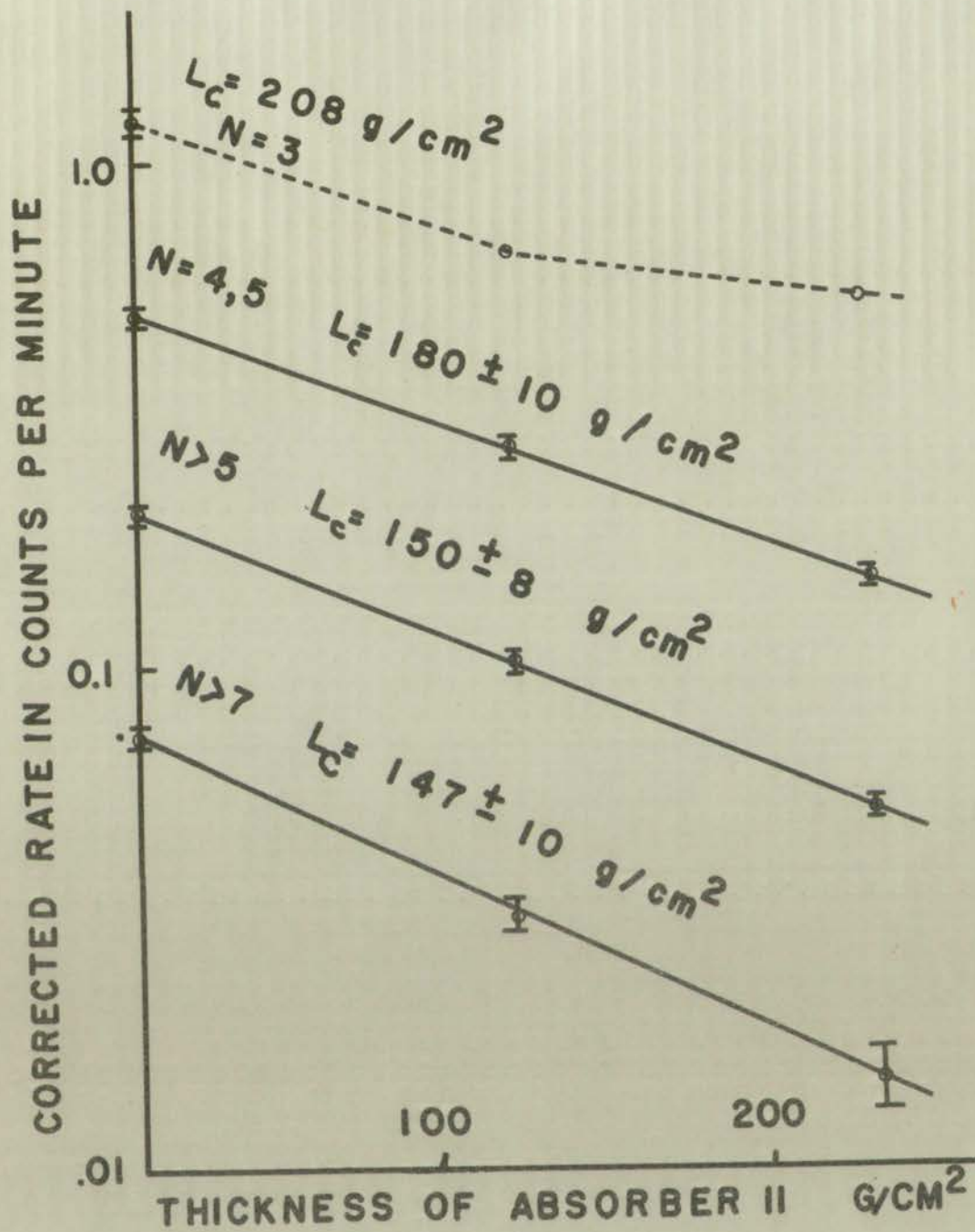
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EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT
OF
WALKER

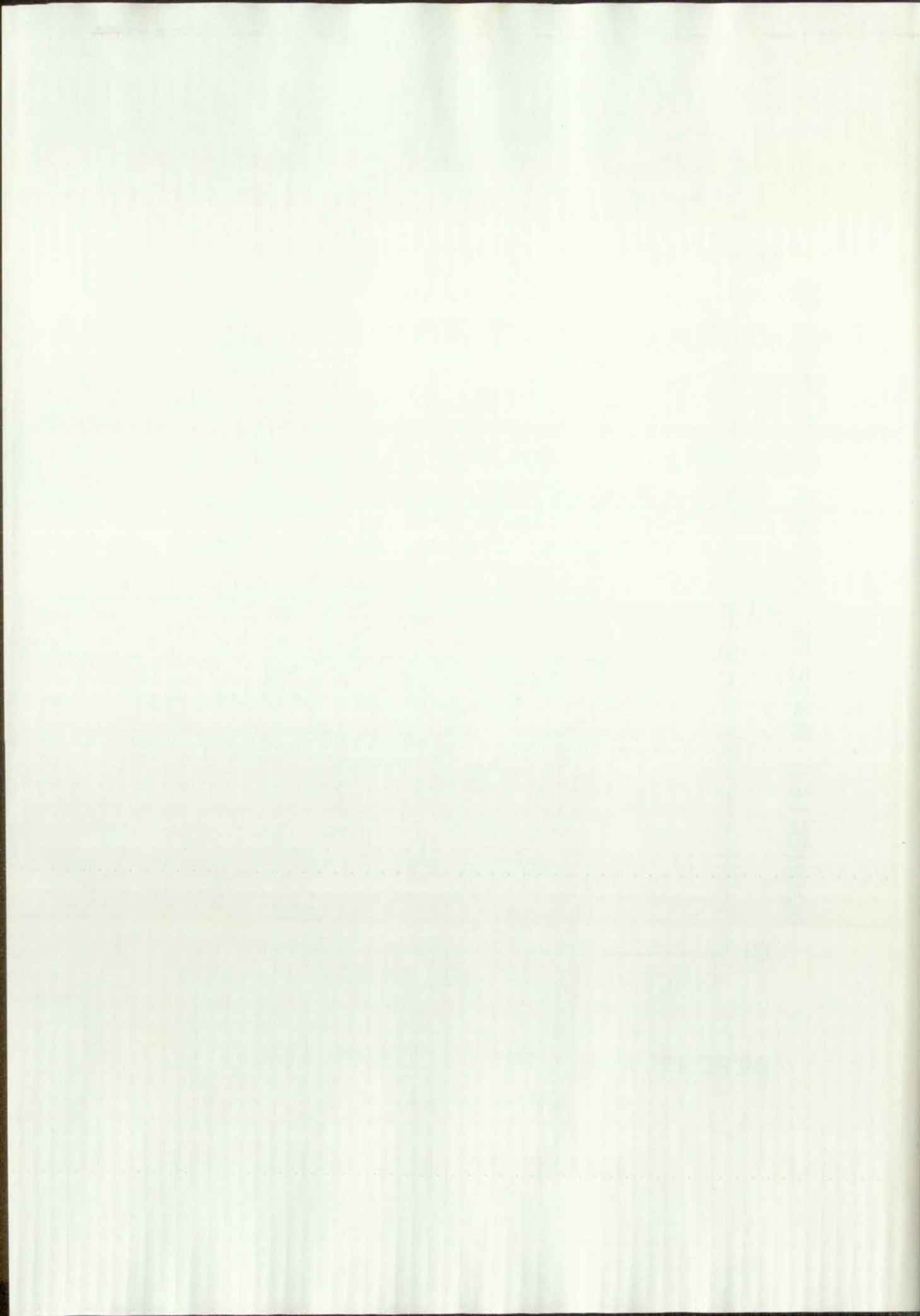
FIGURE 21





DEPENDENCE OF COLLISION LENGTH
ON ENERGY

FIGURE 22



Tray D, the penetration of the secondary particles may not have been guaranteed. However, because of the large number of tubes discharged in Tray C, it seems likely that in the two cases of $N > 5$, and $N > 7$, the mean free path is actually the collision length for the IPSPR in lead. These two values are:

$$L_c = 150 \pm 8 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in lead for } N > 5,$$

and

$$L_c = 147 \pm 10 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in lead for } N > 7.$$

A measurement of the zenith angle dependence of the primary radiation was determined to be $\text{Cos}^7 \theta$. From this, using the method of Greisen¹⁶, the absorption length of the primary particles in air was calculated to be:

$$\lambda_{\text{air}} = 100 \text{ g/cm}^2.$$

H. - COLLISION LENGTHS IN LEAD AND CARBON FOR THE IPSPR AND THE NPSPR.¹⁷

Using the experimental arrangement of Figure 23, Walker, Walker and Greisen measured the collision lengths in lead and carbon for both the IPSPR and the NPSPR.

It was required that no more than one counter in Tray A₁, no more than one counter in Tray A₂, and at least two counters in each of Trays B, C, and D be in coincidence, and that this event be in anticoincidence with the unshielded

¹⁶

Greisen, K. I., Phys. Rev., 61, 212 (1942)

¹⁷

Walker, W. D., Walker, S. P., and Greisen, I. I., Phys. Rev., 80 546 (1950)

Tray U, the quantity of the goods...
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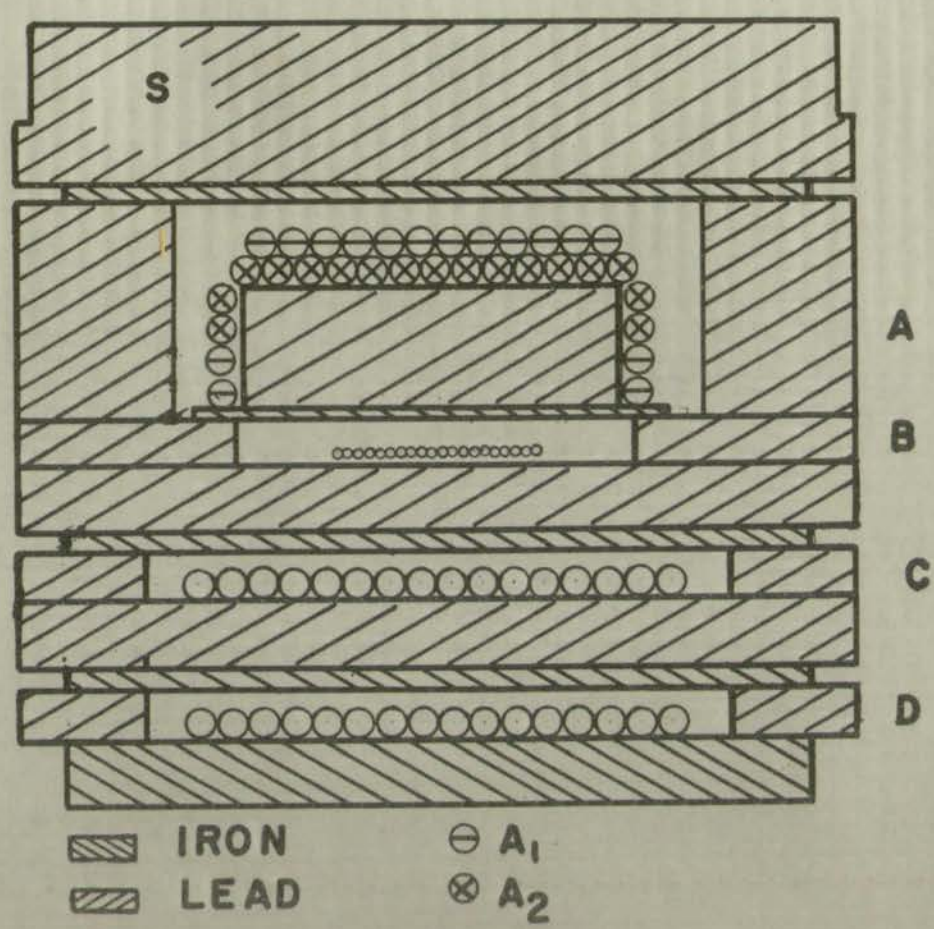
COLLISION COMPLAINT

ENVOY



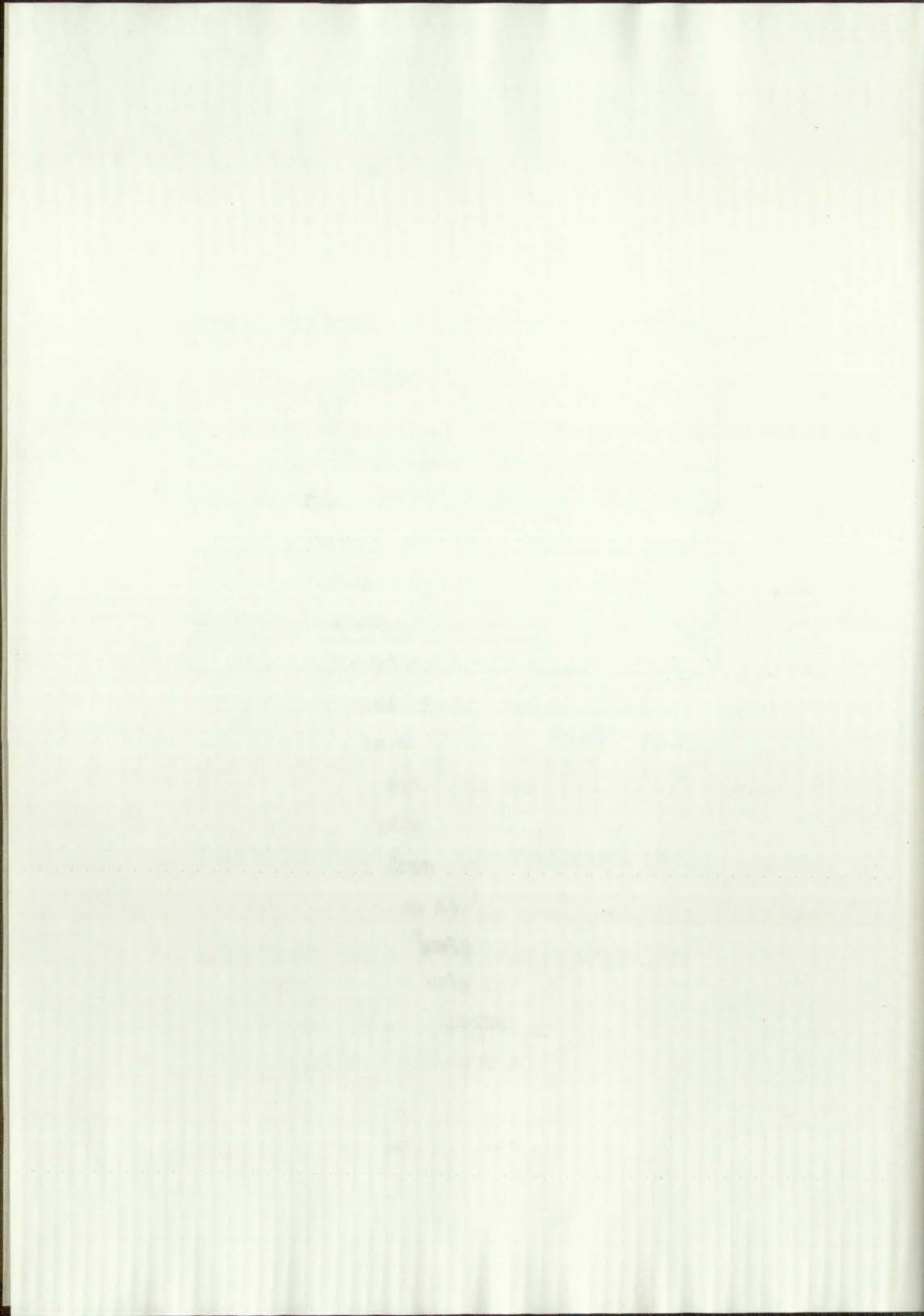
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EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT
OF
WALKER WALKER AND GREISEN

FIGURE 23



air shower detector (not shown in the figure). Part of the time it was required that no tube in either Tray A_1 or Tray A_2 be discharged. The first case corresponds to an IPS event, and the latter to an NPS event. The apparatus was operated with various thicknesses of lead or carbon in the Absorber S. This should give the collision lengths of both the NPSPR and the IPSPR in lead and carbon.

The experiment is certainly valid for the collision length of the NPSPR, but there is an objection to the validity of the measurement of the IPSPR collision length. It is entirely possible that either a neutral particle or a charged particle could create a "collimated" shower in the Absorber S immediately above Trays A_1 and A_2 . This would then be registered as an IPS event, and there would be an error introduced into the determination of the collision length of the IPSPR. However, since the tubes in Trays A_1 and A_2 were only one inch in diameter, and since they partially overlapped one another, it seems unlikely that many such showers were recorded. It is interesting to note that the collision lengths for both the neutral and the ionizing particles is the same within the statistical error of the experiment. The values presented are:

$$\begin{aligned}
 L_c &= 164 \pm 15 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ for neutral particles in lead,} \\
 L_c &= 157 \pm 12 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ for ionizing particles in lead,} \\
 L_c &= 80 \pm 7 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ for neutral particles in carbon,} \\
 \text{and } L_c &= 82 \pm 8 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ for ionizing particles in} \\
 &\quad \text{carbon.}
 \end{aligned}$$

the experiment is now being carried out in the
length of the tubes, and it is expected that the
of the experiment of the present kind will be
likely possible that other similar results will be
particles could be used for this purpose. The
is immediately evident that the results of the
registered at a low level, and it is expected
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the tubes, and it is expected that the
were only the results of the experiment.



I. - COLLISION LENGTHS OF THE NPSPR IN LEAD AND IN CARBON.¹⁸

Using the experimental arrangement of Figure 24, Boehmer and Bridge investigated the collision lengths of the NPSPR in both carbon and lead. The theory and method of this experiment is again based on the Rossi-Regener method. The counters in Tray A were connected in parallel, as were the counters in each of Trays C and D. The counters in each of Trays B and E were connected to addition circuits so that the actual number of counters discharged in each of these trays was recorded for each event. Tray A was in anticoincidence. In order to discriminate against all air showers, Tray F was included to reject all events in which one or more tubes in Tray F were discharged. The efficiency of Tray A was about 99.5%, and there was no correction necessary for the small inefficiency.

For events of high multiplicity (many counters in Trays B and E discharged), which would correspond to very energetic primaries, the observed collision lengths were:

$$L_c = 143 \pm 30 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ for lead,}$$

and

$$L_c = 85 \pm 12 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ for carbon.}$$

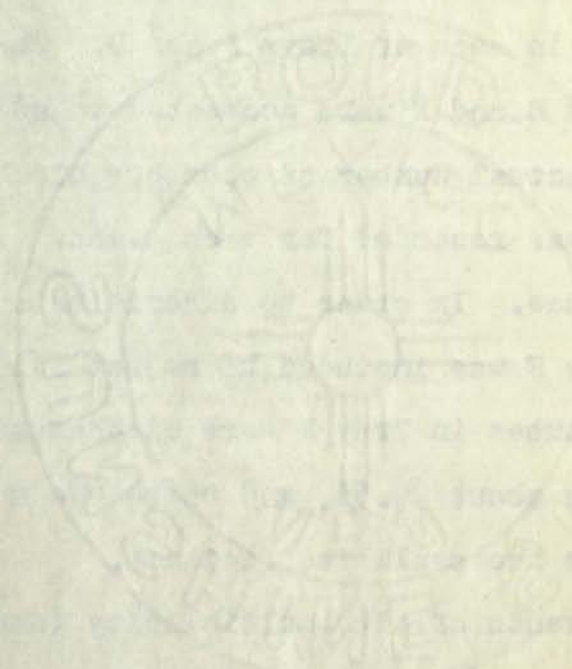
In discussing the apparent dependence of the collision length on the energy of the primary particle, the authors

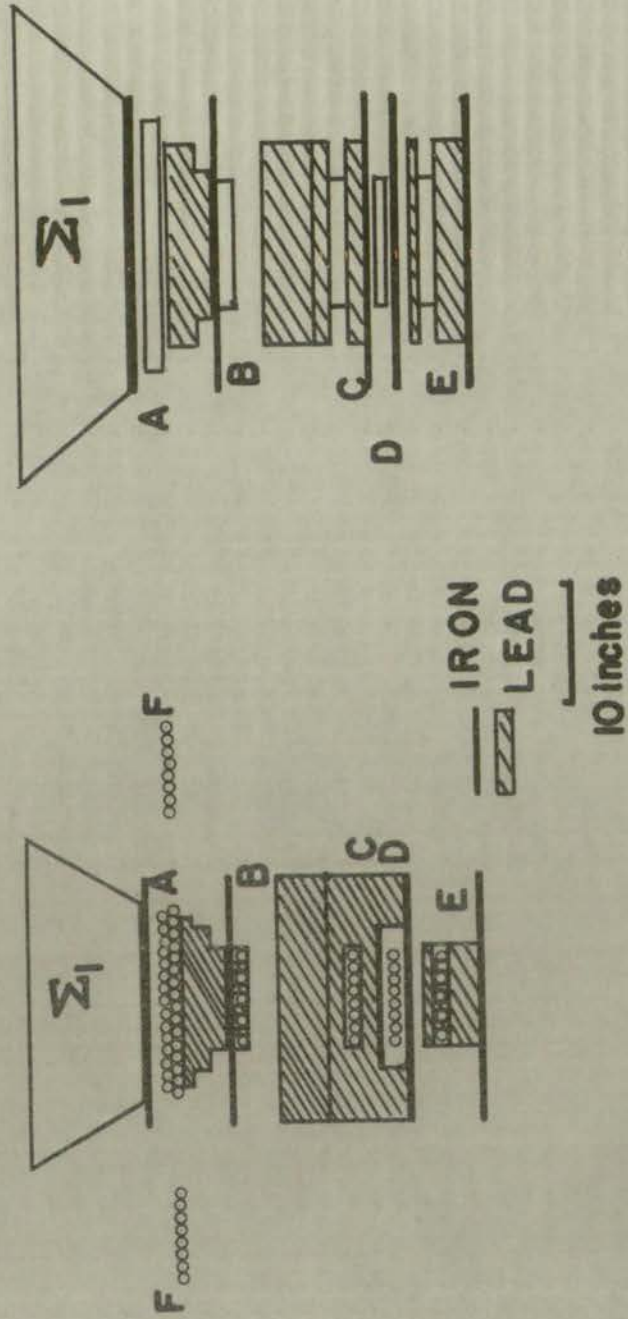
18

Boehmer, H. W., and Bridge, H. S., op. cit.

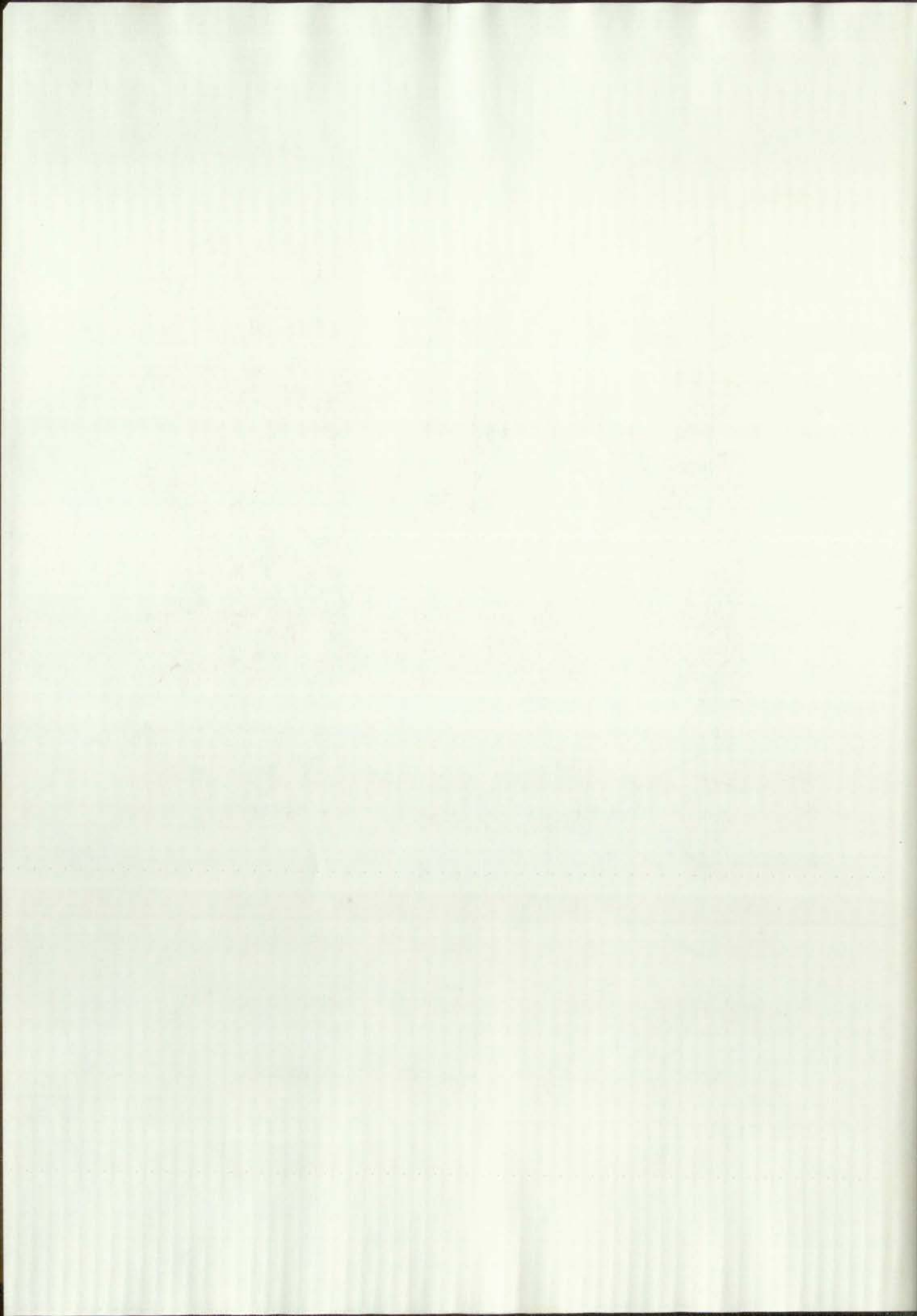
Using the experimental procedure...

Boomer and his group investigated the collision of the
the N₂ in the gas phase. The results of this experiment
of this experiment are shown in Figure 1. The number of
the number of collisions per unit time is shown in
each of these figures. It is seen that the number of
so that the collision number is proportional to the
these data are shown in Figure 2. It is seen that the
anticoilition. In fact, the collision number is
shows that the collision number is proportional to the
one of these figures in Figure 3. It is seen that the
of the collision number is proportional to the collision
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Tays B and C are shown in Figure 4. It is seen that
energetic collisions, the collision number is proportional
to the collision number. The collision number is
and the collision number is proportional to the collision
In discussing the collision number, it is necessary
length as the energy of the collision increases.





EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT
OF
BOEHMER AND BRIDGE
FIGURE 24



state:

Thus the results, if taken at face value, would indicate that the mean free path decreases as the energy of the particle producing the nuclear interaction increases. It is important to notice, however, that this effect may be of an instrumental character. For example, a high energy neutron on traversing the absorber Σ_1 , may undergo a nuclear interaction in which it loses only a small amount of energy and produces a few low energy charged particles. The charged particles may be stopped by ionization loss before they reach the anti-coincidence tray A, while the neutron may go on to produce another nuclear interaction in the material below A. The occurrence of events such as the one described above would make the observed mean free path longer than the actual mean free path. It is reasonable to assume that this source of error is more effective at low neutron energies because, as the energy of the neutron increases, the penetration of the secondary charged particles produced in its nuclear interactions also increases. Thus, the effect described may possibly explain the energy dependence of the observed mean free paths.

In view of this, the values for the collision lengths which will be considered the most valid are those in which the greatest multiplicity is demanded. As mentioned previously, these are:

$$L_c = 143 \pm 30 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in lead,}$$

and

$$L_c = 85 \pm 12 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in carbon.}$$

J. - COLLISION LENGTHS OF THE IPSPR IN CARBON, SULPHUR, AND IRON.¹⁹

Using the experimental arrangement of Figure 25,

¹⁹

Brown, R. R., Phys. Rev., 87, 999 (1952)

COLLEGE COLLEGE

ENHANCE



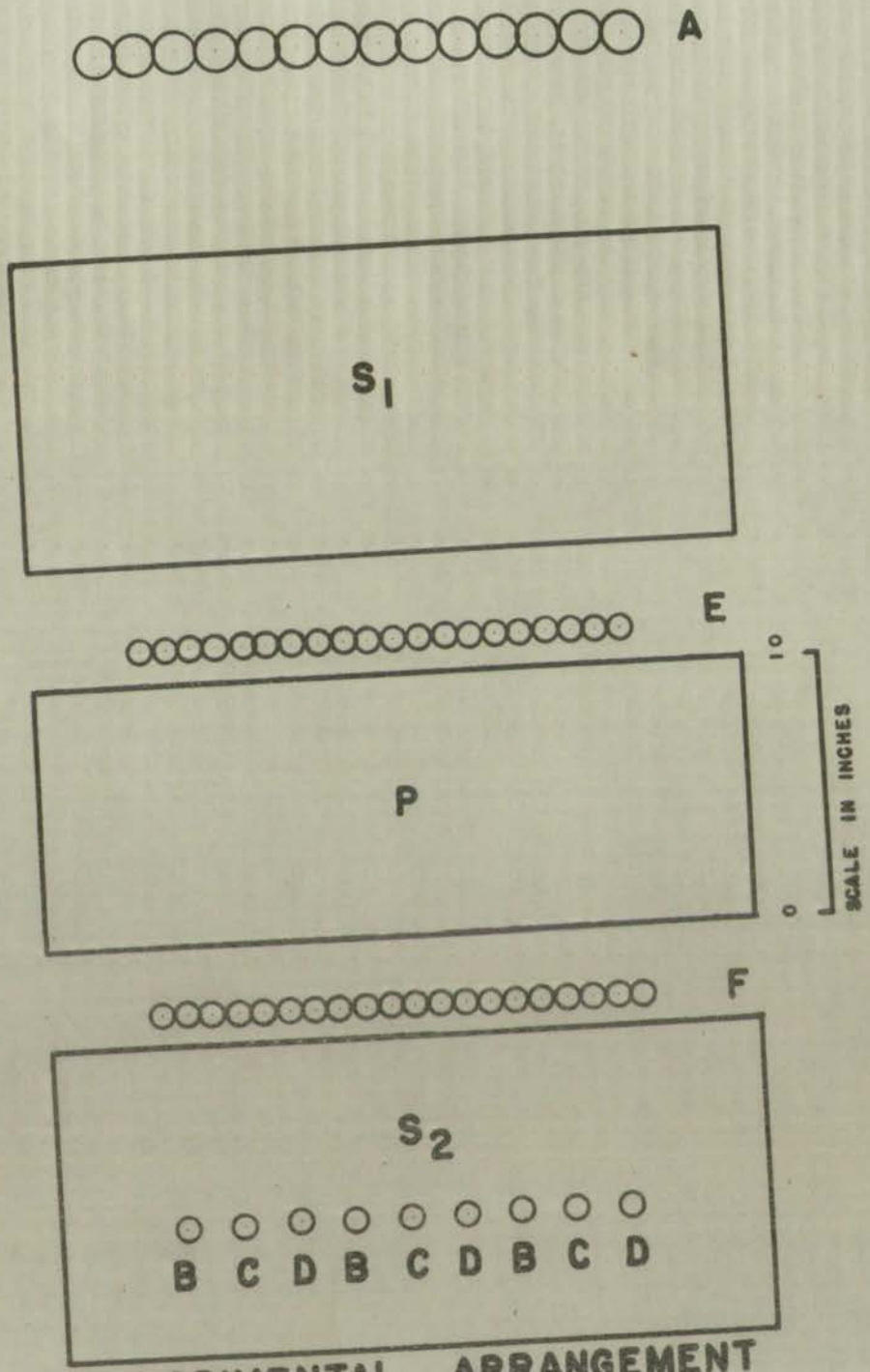
This document is a copy of a report prepared for the Board of Directors of the College of Arts and Sciences. The report details the progress of the college's efforts to enhance its academic programs and improve the quality of its education. It includes a detailed analysis of the current state of the college and a plan of action for the future. The report is intended to provide the Board with the information it needs to make informed decisions about the college's future.

In view of the fact that the college is a public institution, it is essential that the public be kept informed of the college's activities and the progress of its efforts to enhance its education. This report is being made available to the public in order to provide them with the information they need to make informed decisions about the college's future.

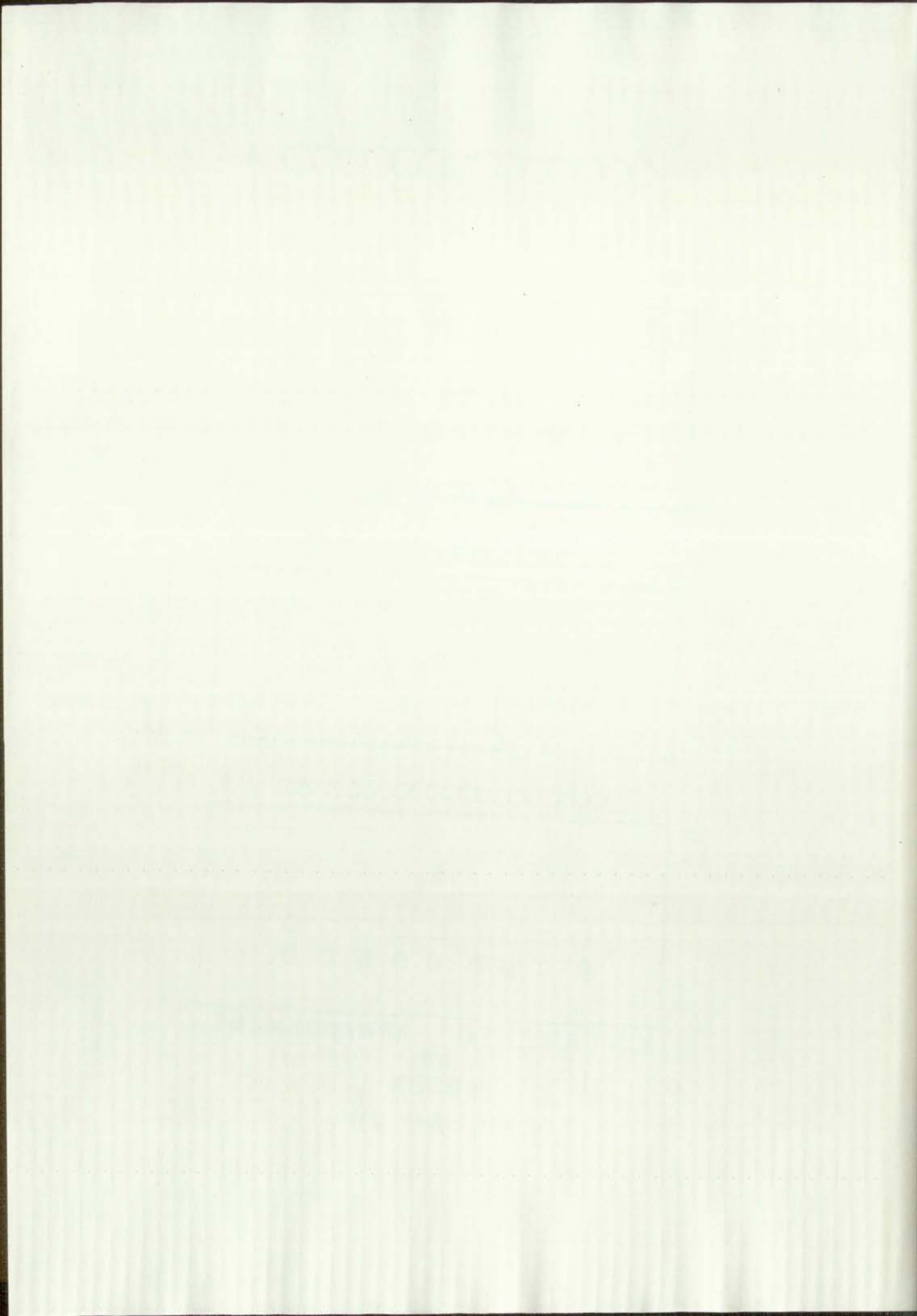
The report is being made available to the public in order to provide them with the information they need to make informed decisions about the college's future. It is hoped that this report will be of interest to the public and that it will help to bring about a better understanding of the college's activities and the progress of its efforts to enhance its education.

J. - COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES
AND BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Under the direction of the Board of Directors, the college is committed to providing a high quality education for all students. We are proud of the progress we have made in the past and we are confident that we will continue to make significant achievements in the future. We invite the public to join us in our efforts to enhance the quality of our education and to make a difference in the lives of our students.



EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT
of
BROWN
FIGURE 25



Brown has investigated the collision length of the IPSPR in carbon, sulphur, and iron at an altitude of 2,765 m. The desired event was one in which an incident ionizing particle created a penetrating shower in P. The minimum requirement for a master pulse was that a counter in each of Trays A, B, C, and D be discharged. The further requirement that only one counter in hodoscope tray E, and at least three counters in hodoscope tray F be discharged ensured that the shower was initiated in the producer P. The producer, P, was composed of 38 g/cm² of graphite, while S₂ was composed of 170 g/cm² of lead. The nature and amount of absorber in S₁ was varied. For a part of the time, the experiment was conducted at an altitude of 130 m with S₁ composed of carbon. From the difference in counting rates at the two altitudes, an absorption length in air of the IPSPR was determined to be:

$$\lambda_{\text{air}} = 132 \pm 17 \text{ g/cm}^2.$$

The values for the collision lengths of the IPSPR were determined to be as follows:

At 130 m,

$$L_c = 89 \pm 12 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in carbon.}$$

At 2,765 m,

$$L_c = 65 \pm 5 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in carbon,}$$

$$L_c = 76 \pm 7 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in sulphur,}$$

and

$$L_c = 115 \pm 12 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in iron.}$$

From the investigation conducted in the
in carbon, a black, crystalline
The distilled water was used
article appears to be a
reagent. The amount of
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The amount of
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As 100 mg.
As 100 mg.
and

The change in collision length at the two altitudes seems to suggest a dependence of the collision length on the energy of the primary particle. The author cautioned that there may be an additional error in the measurement of the collision length in sulphur. This is due to inability to measure accurately the thickness of the uneven sulphur blocks used.

A further criticism of this paper is to be found in the selection of events. As has been stated previously, it is very difficult to measure unambiguously the collision length of an ionizing particle. A possible event that would have been recorded on this equipment is the creation in the lower part of P of an electronic shower. This, if followed by a nuclear event in S_2 , could simulate a penetrating shower, even though the penetration of the secondaries has not been guaranteed.

K. - COLLISION LENGTHS OF THE PSPR IN LEAD, ALUMINUM, AND PARAFFIN.²⁰

The experimental arrangement of Figure 26 was used by George and Jason to obtain the collision length of the PSPR in several materials. The three main trays of tubes were di-

20

George, E. P., and Jason, A. C., Proc. Phys. Soc. London, A63, 1081 (1950).

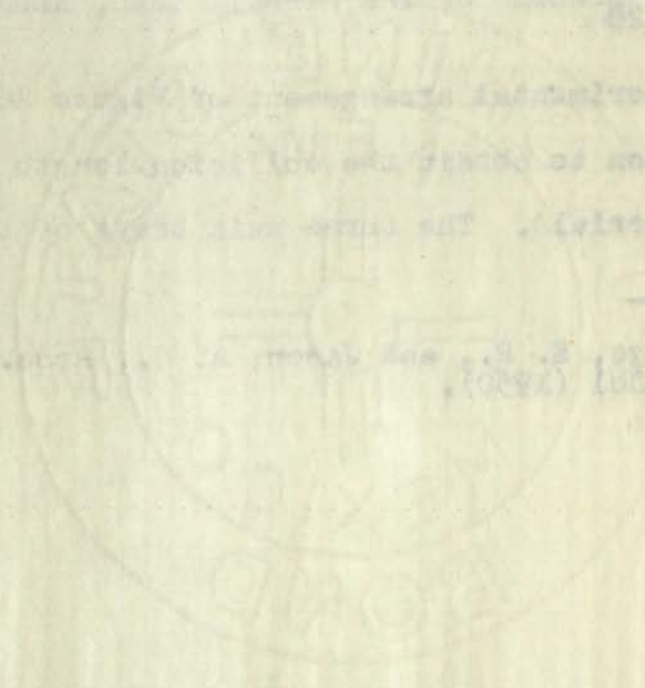
The change in collision length of the two particles seems to suggest a loss of energy of the particles during the energy of the primary particle. The energy of the particles that there may be an additional effect in the collision of the collision length in relation to the energy of the particles to measure accurately the thickness of the matter through which they pass.

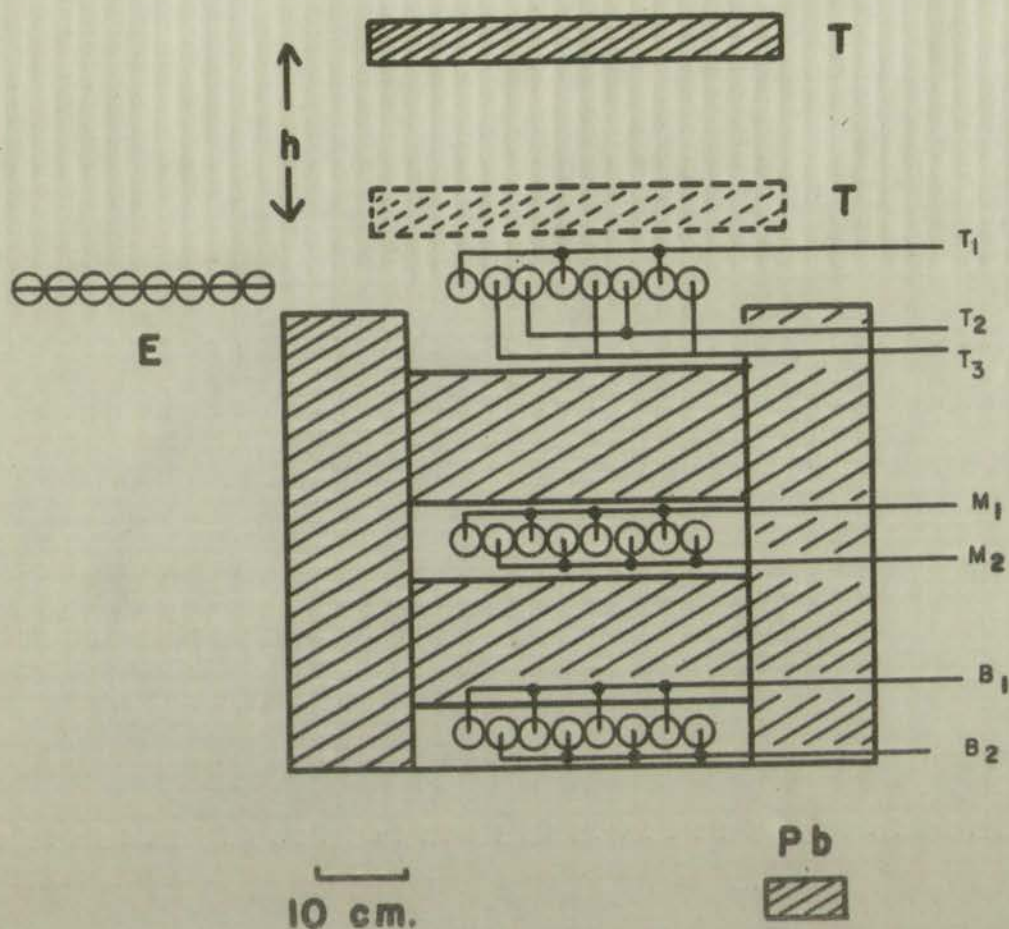
A further objective of this work is to determine the collection of events. As has been stated previously, it is very difficult to measure the energy of a particle of an incident particle. It would be very difficult to have been recorded on this apparatus. The energy of the lower part of the spectrum is not very different from that of a nuclear event in that it is not very different from that of a nuclear event even though the penetration of the particles has not been guaranteed.

E. - COLLISION LENGTH OF THE PARTICLES IN THE MEDIUM

The experimental arrangement which is used in this work is shown in Figure 1. The particles are produced in a source and pass through a collimator and are detected in several detectors. The time taken for the particles to pass through the collimator and be detected in the detectors is measured.

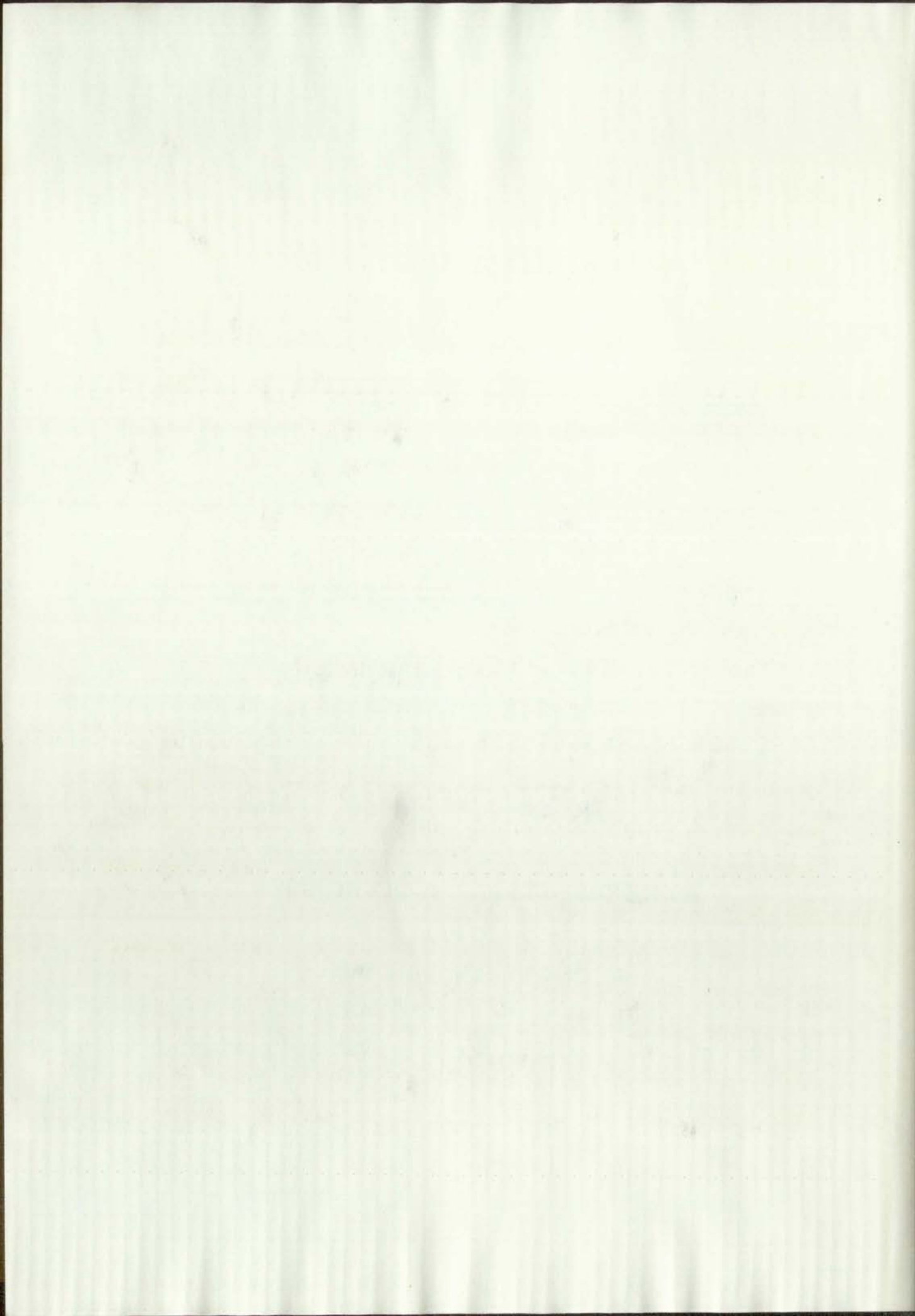
George and George, *Proc. Roy. Soc. London, A*, 1930, 125, 100.





EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT
OF
GEORGE AND JASON

FIGURE 26



vided into seven sets as shown in Figure 26. A coincidence of at least one tube in each of the seven sets accompanied by no discharge from the tubes in the air shower detector was used to define a local penetrating shower produced in the upper absorber. By the transition difference, collision lengths in the upper absorber were measured. Using lead in the upper absorber, the equipment was operated at sea level and at 3,457 m altitude. The values for the collision length in lead were averaged for the two altitudes, and the result was:

$$L_c = 180 \pm 40 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in lead.}$$

The values obtained at an altitude of 3,457 m for aluminum and for paraffin were:

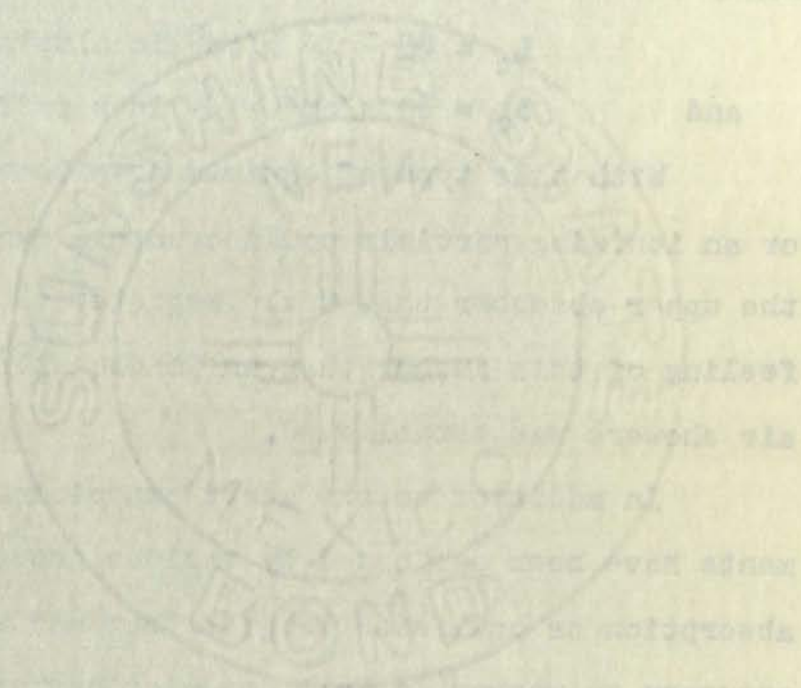
$$L_c = 85 \pm 15 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in aluminum,}$$

and

$$L_c = 80 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in paraffin.}$$

With this type of equipment, either a neutral particle or an ionizing particle could create a penetrating shower in the upper absorber that would register as an event. It is the feeling of this author that an inadequate protection against air showers was established.

In addition to the above experiments, several experiments have been performed by various groups which measured absorption or collision lengths, but not with sufficient accuracy to warrant a full description here. Therefore, a very brief statement of the results of these experiments will



ERASAB
COTTON CONTENT

be presented along with references to the original articles or letters.

L. - W. B. Fretter²¹ measured the frequency of occurrence, the multiplicity, and the angular distribution of penetrating showers produced in lead at both sea level and 3,027 m. From these data, there was obtained a value of approximately 170 g/cm² for the collision length of the IPSPR in lead, and an absorption length of the IPSPR in air of 123 ± 10 g/cm².

M. - In an investigation of the correlation of local penetrating showers with air showers at various altitudes, Tinlot²² derived an absorption length of the IPSPR in air of 118 ± 2 g/cm². For purposes of this calculation, there was no distinction made between local penetrating showers and air showers. There was also no correction made for inclination of the primary particle from the zenith.

N. - While investigating the latitude effect of the IPSPR at two altitudes, Walsh and Piccioni²³ obtained a value for the absorption length in air of the IPSPR. The value obtained

²¹

Fretter, W. B., Phys. Rev., 76, 511 (1949)

²²

Tinlot, J., Phys. Rev., 74, 1197 (1948)

²³

Walsh, W. D., and Piccioni, O., Phys. Rev., 80, 546 (1950)

be presented along with reference to the original studies
on fessets.

L. - W. B. Frazer²¹ measured the frequency of oscillations,
the multiplicity, and the angular distribution of spectra and
showers produced in lead at high voltages and 1,000 e. From
these data, there was obtained a value of approximately 100
eV/cm for the collision length of the LWRB in lead, and an
absorption length of the LWRB in air of 400 eV/cm.

M. - In an investigation of the correlation of local counts
with showers at various altitudes, Klinger²²
derived an absorption length of the LWRB in air of 100 eV/cm.
For purposes of this calculation, there was no distinction
made between local detector showers and air showers. There
was also no correction made for ionization of the primary
particle from the zenith.

N. - While investigating the latitude effect of the LWRB at
two altitudes, Fain and Stodol²³ obtained a value for the
absorption length in air of the LWRB. The value obtained

21 Frazer, W. B., *Phys. Rev.*, 10, 201 (1922)

22 Klinger, J., *Phys. Rev.*, 25, 1197 (1926)

23 Fain, W. D., and Stodol, G., *Phys. Rev.*, 25, 1197 (1926)

246 (1950)

was $112 \pm 2 \text{ g/cm}^2$. An estimated correction for inclination of the primary particles was made by the authors, and the final result presented was about 140 g/cm^2 .

O. - An investigation of the absorption of the N-component of the cosmic radiation using counter tubes and ionization chambers was carried out by Bridge and Rediker²⁴ at two altitudes. From a comparison of the counting rates at the two altitudes, a value was derived for the absorption length of the ionizing N-component of the cosmic radiation in air. This value is $119 \pm 5 \text{ g/cm}^2$.

P. - Using equipment very similar to that of George and Jason at airplane altitudes, Hodson²⁵ obtained data on the absorption length for the IPSPR in air. The notation and experimental arrangement used by Hodson is the same as that used by George and Jason. Therefore, the reader is referred to Figure 26 and the paper of George and Jason for the proper notation. The absorption length in air was determined as follows:

$\lambda_{\text{air}} = 126 \pm 2 \text{ g/cm}^2$ for a P-E event with no lead,
and $\lambda_{\text{air}} = 130 \pm 1.3 \text{ g/cm}^2$ for a P-E event with 10 cm Pb absorber; and from the transition difference,

$$\lambda_{\text{air}} = 132 \pm 3.5 \text{ g/cm}^2.$$

An estimated best value is listed as $129 \pm 2 \text{ g/cm}^2$.

²⁴ Bridge, H. S., and Rediker, R. H., Phys. Rev., 88, 206 (1952)

²⁵ Hodson, A. L., Proc. Roy. Soc., 65, 702 (1952)

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COTTON CONTENT (1952)
25

Q. - Using a cloud chamber, Chang et al²⁶ investigated the penetrating showers produced by ionizing particles in beryllium. The definition of a penetrating shower used by the authors was not very rigid. This, coupled with the fact that there were not enough events recorded to give a very good statistical error, places the experimental value of the collision length in beryllium of the IPSPR in some doubt. However, since it is the only piece of data available on beryllium, the value, as presented by the authors, is listed below:

$$L_c = 85 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in beryllium.}$$

26

Chang, W. Y., del Castillo, G., and Grodzins, L., Phys. Rev., 84, 582 (1951)



Faint, illegible text, possibly bleed-through from the reverse side of the page.

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L. P. Ryan, Jr. v. ...
E. P. Ryan, Jr. v. ...



CHAPTER IV
DATA AND CALCULATIONS

The results of all of the experiments described in Chapters II and III are tabulated in Table III. The purpose of the next part of this paper is to obtain the best value for the collision length of the penetrating-shower-producing radiation in the various substances. As has been pointed out in Chapter III, some of these experiments were conducted under conditions that were favorable to the inclusion of a systematic error. It is also apparent from Table III, in the case of the absorption length in air, and in the cases of the collision lengths in lead and in carbon, that the external consistency of the data does not permit the probable error of the most probable value to be based merely on the statistical error shown by the internal consistency of the data. In certain papers, described in Chapter III, where this author has suspected the inclusion of a systematic error, he has changed the value of the error presented. The reasons for the systematic errors have already been pointed out in Chapter III, and the reader is referred to these discussions in the cases in which the error value has been changed. The errors were not reliable as originally given, and were therefore increased by

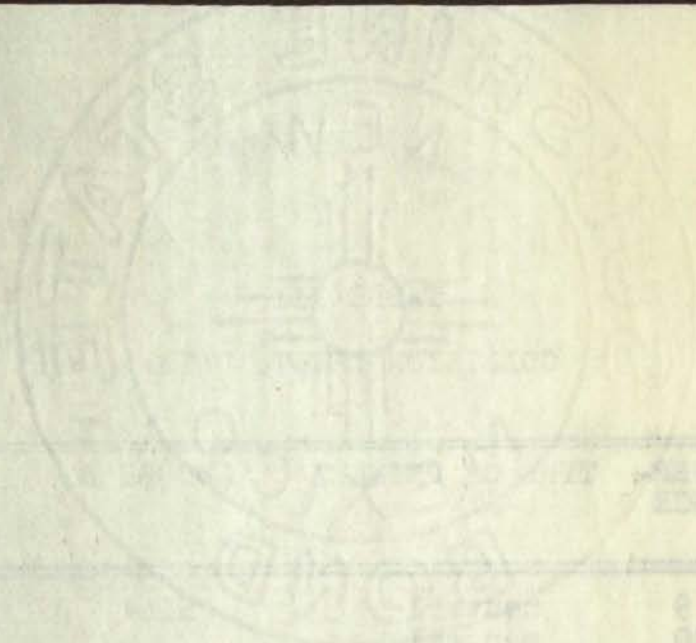
The results of all the experiments conducted in this laboratory are given in the following tables. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of California, Berkeley, are given in Table I, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, are given in Table II. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Wisconsin, Madison, are given in Table III, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Illinois, Urbana, are given in Table IV. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Texas, Austin, are given in Table V, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, are given in Table VI. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of California, San Diego, are given in Table VII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Washington, Seattle, are given in Table VIII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Colorado, Boulder, are given in Table IX, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, are given in Table X. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Oregon, Eugene, are given in Table XI, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Arizona, Tucson, are given in Table XII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of New York, Albany, are given in Table XIII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Maryland, College Park, are given in Table XIV. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Florida, Gainesville, are given in Table XV, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Georgia, Athens, are given in Table XVI. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of South Carolina, Columbia, are given in Table XVII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, are given in Table XVIII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Virginia, Charlottesville, are given in Table XIX, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Kentucky, Lexington, are given in Table XX. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, are given in Table XXI, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Mississippi, Oxford, are given in Table XXII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, are given in Table XXIII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Louisiana, Baton Rouge, are given in Table XXIV. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Missouri, Columbia, are given in Table XXV, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Iowa, Iowa City, are given in Table XXVI. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Wisconsin, Stevens Point, are given in Table XXVII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Illinois, Springfield, are given in Table XXVIII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Texas, El Paso, are given in Table XXIX, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Pennsylvania, Harrisburg, are given in Table XXX. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of California, Merced, are given in Table XXXI, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Washington, Tacoma, are given in Table XXXII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Colorado, Fort Collins, are given in Table XXXIII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Minnesota, Duluth, are given in Table XXXIV. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Oregon, Medford, are given in Table XXXV, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Arizona, Flagstaff, are given in Table XXXVI. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of New York, Binghamton, are given in Table XXXVII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Maryland, Baltimore, are given in Table XXXVIII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Florida, Tallahassee, are given in Table XXXIX, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Georgia, Augusta, are given in Table XL. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of South Carolina, Greenville, are given in Table XLI, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of North Carolina, Raleigh, are given in Table XLII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Virginia, Blacksburg, are given in Table XLIII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Kentucky, Bowling Green, are given in Table XLIV. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Tennessee, Chattanooga, are given in Table XLV, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Mississippi, Hattiesburg, are given in Table XLVI. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Alabama, Mobile, are given in Table XLVII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Louisiana, Lake Charles, are given in Table XLVIII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Missouri, St. Louis, are given in Table XLIX, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Iowa, Ames, are given in Table L. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Wisconsin, Oshkosh, are given in Table LI, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Illinois, Carbondale, are given in Table LII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Texas, Permian Basin, are given in Table LIII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Pennsylvania, Schuylkill, are given in Table LIV. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of California, San Francisco, are given in Table LV, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Washington, Pullman, are given in Table LVI. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Colorado, Denver, are given in Table LVII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Minnesota, St. Cloud, are given in Table LVIII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Oregon, Astoria, are given in Table LVIX, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Arizona, Yuma, are given in Table LX. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of New York, State University of New York, are given in Table LXI, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Maryland, Eastern Shore, are given in Table LXII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Florida, Jacksonville, are given in Table LXIII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Georgia, Dalton, are given in Table LXIV. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of South Carolina, Spartanburg, are given in Table LXV, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of North Carolina, Winston-Salem, are given in Table LXVI. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Virginia, Charlottesville, are given in Table LXVII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Kentucky, Lexington, are given in Table LXVIII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, are given in Table LXIX, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Mississippi, Hattiesburg, are given in Table LXX. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, are given in Table LXXI, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Louisiana, Baton Rouge, are given in Table LXXII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Missouri, Columbia, are given in Table LXXIII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Iowa, Iowa City, are given in Table LXXIV. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Wisconsin, Stevens Point, are given in Table LXXV, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Illinois, Springfield, are given in Table LXXVI. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Texas, El Paso, are given in Table LXXVII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Pennsylvania, Harrisburg, are given in Table LXXVIII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of California, Merced, are given in Table LXXIX, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Washington, Tacoma, are given in Table LXXX. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Colorado, Fort Collins, are given in Table LXXXI, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Minnesota, Duluth, are given in Table LXXXII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Oregon, Medford, are given in Table LXXXIII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Arizona, Flagstaff, are given in Table LXXXIV. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of New York, Binghamton, are given in Table LXXXV, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Maryland, Baltimore, are given in Table LXXXVI. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Florida, Tallahassee, are given in Table LXXXVII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Georgia, Augusta, are given in Table LXXXVIII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of South Carolina, Greenville, are given in Table LXXXIX, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of North Carolina, Raleigh, are given in Table LXXXX. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Virginia, Charlottesville, are given in Table LXXXXI, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Kentucky, Lexington, are given in Table LXXXXII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, are given in Table LXXXXIII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Mississippi, Hattiesburg, are given in Table LXXXXIV. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa, are given in Table LXXXXV, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Louisiana, Baton Rouge, are given in Table LXXXXVI. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Missouri, Columbia, are given in Table LXXXXVII, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Iowa, Iowa City, are given in Table LXXXXVIII. The results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Wisconsin, Stevens Point, are given in Table LXXXXIX, and the results of the experiments conducted in the laboratory of the University of Illinois, Springfield, are given in Table LXXXXX.



TABLE III
COLLISION LENGTH DATA

DATA POINT	REFERENCE	TYPE OF PRIMARY	ABSORBER	COLLISION LENGTH (g/cm ²)
1	9	neutral	air*	115 ± 19
2	10	neutral		104 ± 6
3	15	ionizing		100
4	19	ionizing		132 ± 17
5	21	ionizing		123 ± 10
6	22	ionizing		118 ± 2
7	23	ionizing		140
8	24	ionizing		119 ± 5
9	25	ionizing		129 ± 2
10	26	ionizing	beryllium	85
11	13	ionizing	carbon	100 ± 5
12	17	neutral		80 ± 7
13	17	ionizing		82 ± 8
14	18	neutral		85 ± 12
15	19	ionizing		89 ± 12
16	19	ionizing		65 ± 5
17	10	neutral	paraffin	61 ± 6
18	10	neutral		75 ± 19
19	20	mixed		80
20	9	neutral	water	98 ± 13
21	4	neutral		113 ± 10
22	4	neutral	heavy water	123 ± 10
23	20	mixed	aluminum	85 ± 15
24	18	ionizing	sulphur	76 ± 7
25	12	ionizing	iron	200
26	13	ionizing		135 ± 15
27	19	ionizing		115 ± 12
28	14	ionizing	gold	145 ± 15
29	11	ionizing	lead	162 ± 10
30	11	ionizing		196 ± 13
31	12	ionizing		310
32	13	ionizing		160 ± 15
33	15	ionizing		150 ± 8
34	15	ionizing		147 ± 10
35	17	neutral		164 ± 15
36	17	ionizing		157 ± 12
37	18	neutral		143 ± 30
38	20	mixed		180 ± 40
39	21	ionizing		170

* In air the absorption length has been measured, not the collision length.



DATE	TIME	DESCRIPTION	REMARKS
1960	12:00
1960	12:05
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1960	12:15
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In the description below the
 certain length.

an amount which this author felt would take account of the systematic error in the experiment. The changes that were made are listed below. The data point number refers to the order in which these data are presented in Table III.

DATA POINT	VALUE PRESENTED g/cm ²	VALUE ACCEPTED g/cm ²
6	118 ± 2	118 ± 8
13	82 ± 8	82 ± 10
15	89 ± 12	89 ± 15
16	65 ± 5	65 ± 8
17	61 ± 6	61 ± 8
23	85 ± 15	85 ± 18
24	76 ± 7	76 ± 12
27	115 ± 12	115 ± 15

It is also apparent from the consistency of the accepted data, and in particular from the results of Walker, Walker, and Greisen, that there is no significant difference existing in the measurement of the collision lengths for neutral or ionizing primary particles. In view of this, the data that were actually used for a calculation of the collision length in the various materials are listed in Table IV.

In the cases of lead and carbon, where there are

CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS



Table of contents listing page numbers and chapter titles, including sections like 'Introduction', 'Methodology', and 'Results'.

TABLE IV
SELECTED COLLISION LENGTH DATA

DATA POINT	REFERENCE	MATERIAL	COLLISION LENGTH (g/cm ²)
1	9	air*	115 ± 19
2	10		104 ± 6
5	21		123 ± 10
6	22		118 ± 8
8	24		119 ± 5
9	25		129 ± 2
10	26	beryllium	85
11	13	carbon	100 ± 5
12	17		80 ± 7
13	17		82 ± 10
14	18		85 ± 12
15	19		89 ± 15
16	19		65 ± 8
17	10	paraffin	61 ± 6
18	10		75 ± 19
20	9	water	98 ± 13
21	4		113 ± 10
22	4	heavy water	123 ± 10
23	20	aluminum	85 ± 18
24	18	sulphur	76 ± 12
26	13	iron	135 ± 15
27	19		115 ± 15
28	11	gold	145 ± 15
29	11	lead	162 ± 10
30	11		196 ± 13
32	13		160 ± 13
33	15		150 ± 8
34	15		147 ± 10
35	17		164 ± 15
36	17		157 ± 12
37	18		143 ± 30
38	20		180 ± 40

* In air the absorption length has been measured, not the collision length.

TABLE IV
 COLLISION COLLISION LENGTH DATA

DATA POINT	MEASUREMENT	INTERVAL	COLLISION LENGTH (cm)
1	0.10	0.05	0.05
2	0.15	0.05	0.10
3	0.20	0.05	0.15
4	0.25	0.05	0.20
5	0.30	0.05	0.25
6	0.35	0.05	0.30
7	0.40	0.05	0.35
8	0.45	0.05	0.40
9	0.50	0.05	0.45
10	0.55	0.05	0.50
11	0.60	0.05	0.55
12	0.65	0.05	0.60
13	0.70	0.05	0.65
14	0.75	0.05	0.70
15	0.80	0.05	0.75
16	0.85	0.05	0.80
17	0.90	0.05	0.85
18	0.95	0.05	0.90
19	1.00	0.05	0.95
20	1.05	0.05	1.00
21	1.10	0.05	1.05
22	1.15	0.05	1.10
23	1.20	0.05	1.15
24	1.25	0.05	1.20
25	1.30	0.05	1.25
26	1.35	0.05	1.30
27	1.40	0.05	1.35
28	1.45	0.05	1.40
29	1.50	0.05	1.45
30	1.55	0.05	1.50
31	1.60	0.05	1.55
32	1.65	0.05	1.60
33	1.70	0.05	1.65
34	1.75	0.05	1.70
35	1.80	0.05	1.75
36	1.85	0.05	1.80
37	1.90	0.05	1.85
38	1.95	0.05	1.90
39	2.00	0.05	1.95
40	2.05	0.05	2.00
41	2.10	0.05	2.05
42	2.15	0.05	2.10
43	2.20	0.05	2.15
44	2.25	0.05	2.20
45	2.30	0.05	2.25
46	2.35	0.05	2.30
47	2.40	0.05	2.35
48	2.45	0.05	2.40
49	2.50	0.05	2.45
50	2.55	0.05	2.50

* In all the absorption lengths are given in cm.

more than two values given in the original data, the best values for the collision lengths are:

$$L_c = 87 \pm 3 \text{ in carbon,}$$

and $L_c = 160 \pm 4 \text{ in lead,}$

provided that the errors are calculated from the data in Table IV on the basis of internal consistency.²⁷ Likewise, the best value for the absorption length in air is:

$$\lambda_{\text{air}} = 124 \pm 3 \text{ g/cm}^2.$$

If these results are determined in such a manner that one computes the errors on the basis of the external consistency²⁸ of the data presented in Table IV, the best values are:

$$L_c = 87 \pm 4 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in carbon,}$$

$$L_c = 160 \pm 5 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in lead,}$$

and $\lambda_{\text{air}} = 124 \pm 4 \text{ g/cm}^2 \text{ in air.}$

From equation (1), $L_c = m/\sigma \text{ g/cm}^2$, one can obtain the cross section associated with each collision length. If one also assumes that a cross section is given by $\sigma = \pi R^2$ * one can obtain from these cross sections the best experimental values for the nuclear radii, R . In order to determine the mass of a molecule of a substance, where the substance

²⁷

Birge, R. T., Phys. Rev., 40, 207, (1932)

²⁸

Loc. cit.

* This concept will be discussed further in Chapter VI.



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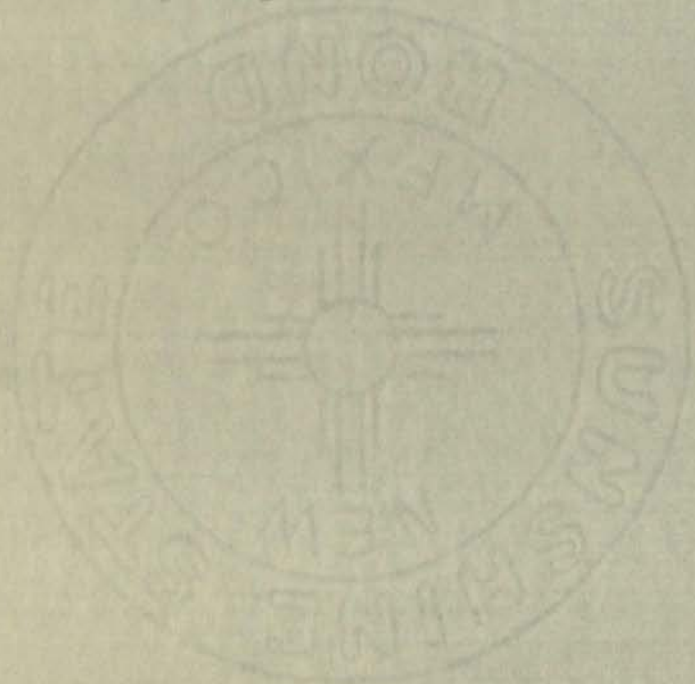
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is a mixture, one may average over the composition of the mixture. Thus for air, which is composed of approximately 21% oxygen and 79% nitrogen, one may assume that the mixture is equivalent to a molecular substance having a formula of $(0.79 N + 0.21 O)$. This is possible because in any high energy nuclear reaction, chemical binding energies are negligible. The mass of such a molecule would be 23.9×10^{-24} g. The final value of the collision length, the associated cross section, and the nuclear radius for each substance is given in Table V. In the case of poly-atomic molecules, the nuclear radius is the radius which a hypothetical nucleus would have if the cross section of the nucleus were equal to the sum of the cross sections of the nuclei composing the molecule.



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TABLE V
AVERAGE VALUES OF THE COLLISION LENGTHS

MATERIAL	K	($\text{g}^m \times 10^{24}$)	L_c (g/cm^2)	σ millibarns	R ($\text{cm} \times 10^{13}$)
air*	N_2, O_2	23.9	124 ± 4	192 ± 6	$2.48 \pm .04$
beryllium	Be	14.9	85	176	2.37
carbon	C	19.9	87 ± 4	229 ± 11	$2.70 \pm .07$
paraffin	CH_2	23.5	62 ± 6	379 ± 37	$3.43 \pm .17$
water	H_2O	29.9	107 ± 8	277 ± 21	$2.99 \pm .11$
heavy water	D_2O	33.2	123 ± 10	270 ± 22	$2.93 \pm .12$
aluminum	Al	44.8	85 ± 18	527 ± 112	$4.10 \pm .44$
sulphur	S	53.1	76 ± 12	699 ± 110	$4.72 \pm .38$
iron	Fe	92.8	125 ± 11	743 ± 65	$4.88 \pm .21$
gold	Au	327.	145 ± 15	2250 ± 233	$8.47 \pm .44$
lead	Pb	343.	160 ± 5	2140 ± 67	$8.29 \pm .13$

* In air the absorption length has been measured, not the collision length.



100

NO.	DATE	TIME	TEMP.	WIND	WIND DIR.	WIND VELOC.	WIND VELOC. (M.P.H.)	WIND VELOC. (M.P.H.)	WIND VELOC. (M.P.H.)	WIND VELOC. (M.P.H.)
10	10/10/1913	10:00	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
15	10/10/1913	10:15	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
20	10/10/1913	10:30	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
25	10/10/1913	10:45	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
30	10/10/1913	11:00	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
35	10/10/1913	11:15	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
40	10/10/1913	11:30	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
45	10/10/1913	11:45	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
50	10/10/1913	12:00	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
55	10/10/1913	12:15	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
60	10/10/1913	12:30	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
65	10/10/1913	12:45	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
70	10/10/1913	13:00	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
75	10/10/1913	13:15	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
80	10/10/1913	13:30	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
85	10/10/1913	13:45	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
90	10/10/1913	14:00	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
95	10/10/1913	14:15	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
100	10/10/1913	14:30	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10

NO.	DATE	TIME	TEMP.	WIND	WIND DIR.	WIND VELOC.	WIND VELOC. (M.P.H.)	WIND VELOC. (M.P.H.)	WIND VELOC. (M.P.H.)	WIND VELOC. (M.P.H.)
10	10/10/1913	10:00	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
15	10/10/1913	10:15	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
20	10/10/1913	10:30	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
25	10/10/1913	10:45	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
30	10/10/1913	11:00	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
35	10/10/1913	11:15	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
40	10/10/1913	11:30	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
45	10/10/1913	11:45	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
50	10/10/1913	12:00	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
55	10/10/1913	12:15	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
60	10/10/1913	12:30	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
65	10/10/1913	12:45	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
70	10/10/1913	13:00	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
75	10/10/1913	13:15	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
80	10/10/1913	13:30	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
85	10/10/1913	13:45	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
90	10/10/1913	14:00	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
95	10/10/1913	14:15	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
100	10/10/1913	14:30	65	10	10	10	10	10	10	10

VARIATION OF THE COEFFICIENT OF FRICTION
TABLE A

CHAPTER V

NUCLEAR TRANSPARENCY

In all of the above work, the energy of the incident particle could at best only be estimated. Therefore, it is of interest at this point to present the results of an experiment performed at considerably lower energies where the energy was a well-defined quantity.

Using 95 Mev neutrons from the 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch cyclotron at the University of California, Cook et al²⁹ measured the total cross section for neutrons incident on several different materials. Assuming that the total cross section, σ_{tot} , is composed of half elastic scattering and half inelastic scattering, σ_{tot} can be represented by $\sigma_{tot} = 2\pi R^2$, where R is the nuclear radius. Using the above relationship, experimental values of the nuclear radius were determined for each absorber. A plot of the experimental value of the nuclear radius against the cube root of the atomic mass number (R vs $A^{1/3}$) is given in Figure 27. If one further assumes that the nuclear radius R, is given by $R = r_0 A^{1/3}$, where r_0 is a constant, one can determine the best value of r_0 to fit the data. The value used to obtain the straight

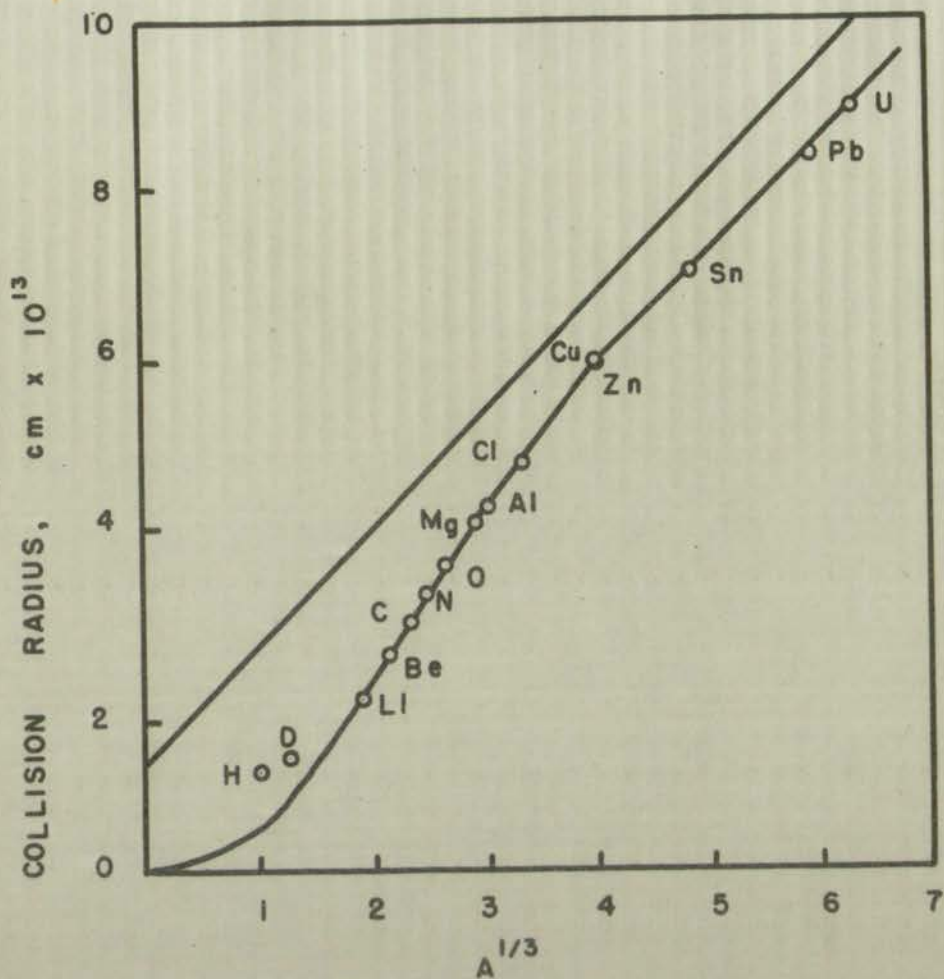
²⁹

L. J. Cook, E. M. McMillan, J. M. Peterson, D. C. Sewell, *Phy. Rev.* 75, 7, 1949.

*This concept will be discussed further in Chapter VI.

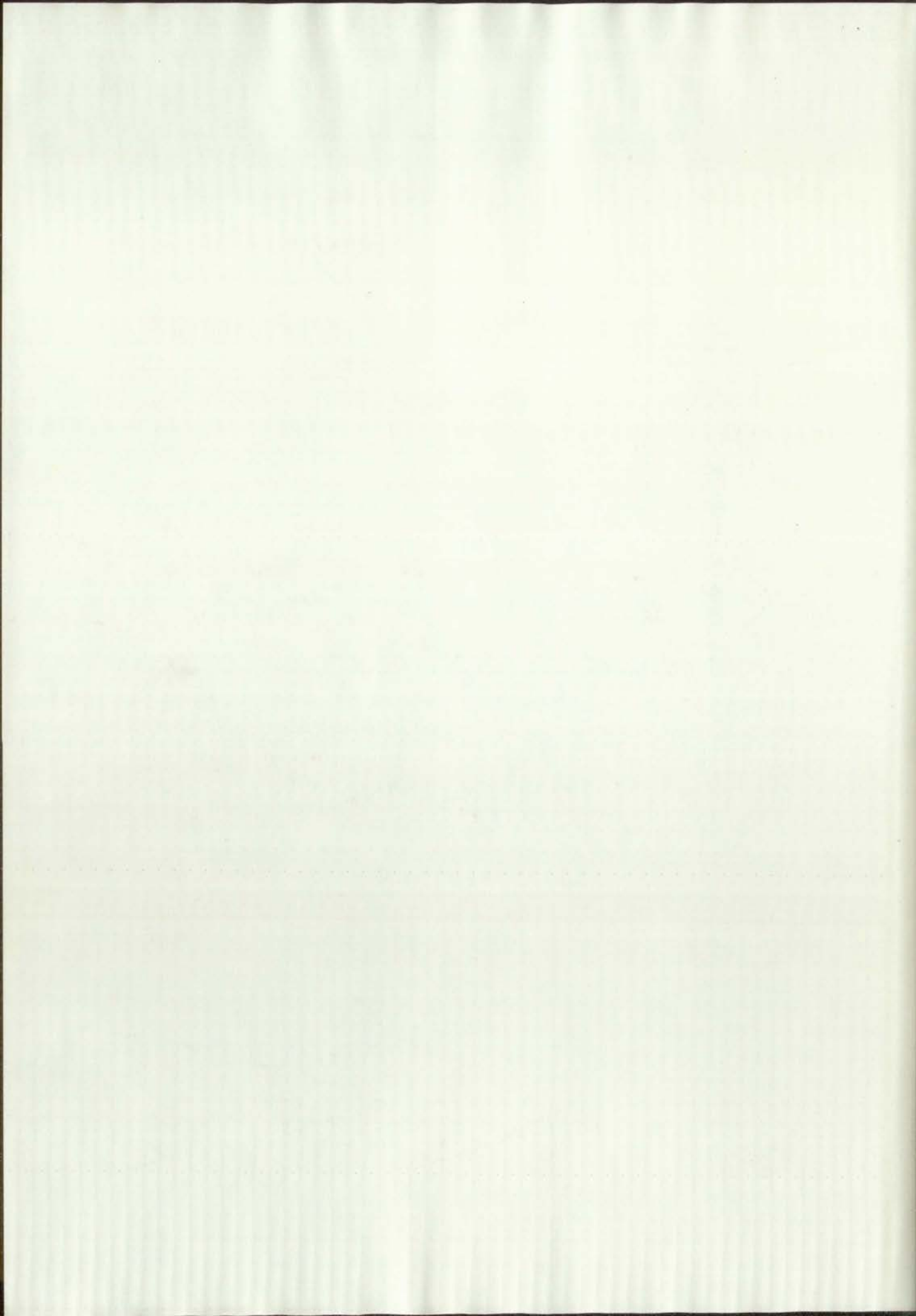
In all cases the cotton content of the seed is determined by the method of analysis described in the preceding section. The results of the analysis are given in the following table. It will be seen that the cotton content of the seed is generally high, and that the variation is not very great. This is due to the fact that the cotton content of the seed is determined by the method of analysis described in the preceding section, and that the results of the analysis are given in the following table.





COLLISION RADII FOR
90 MEV
NEUTRONS

FIGURE 27

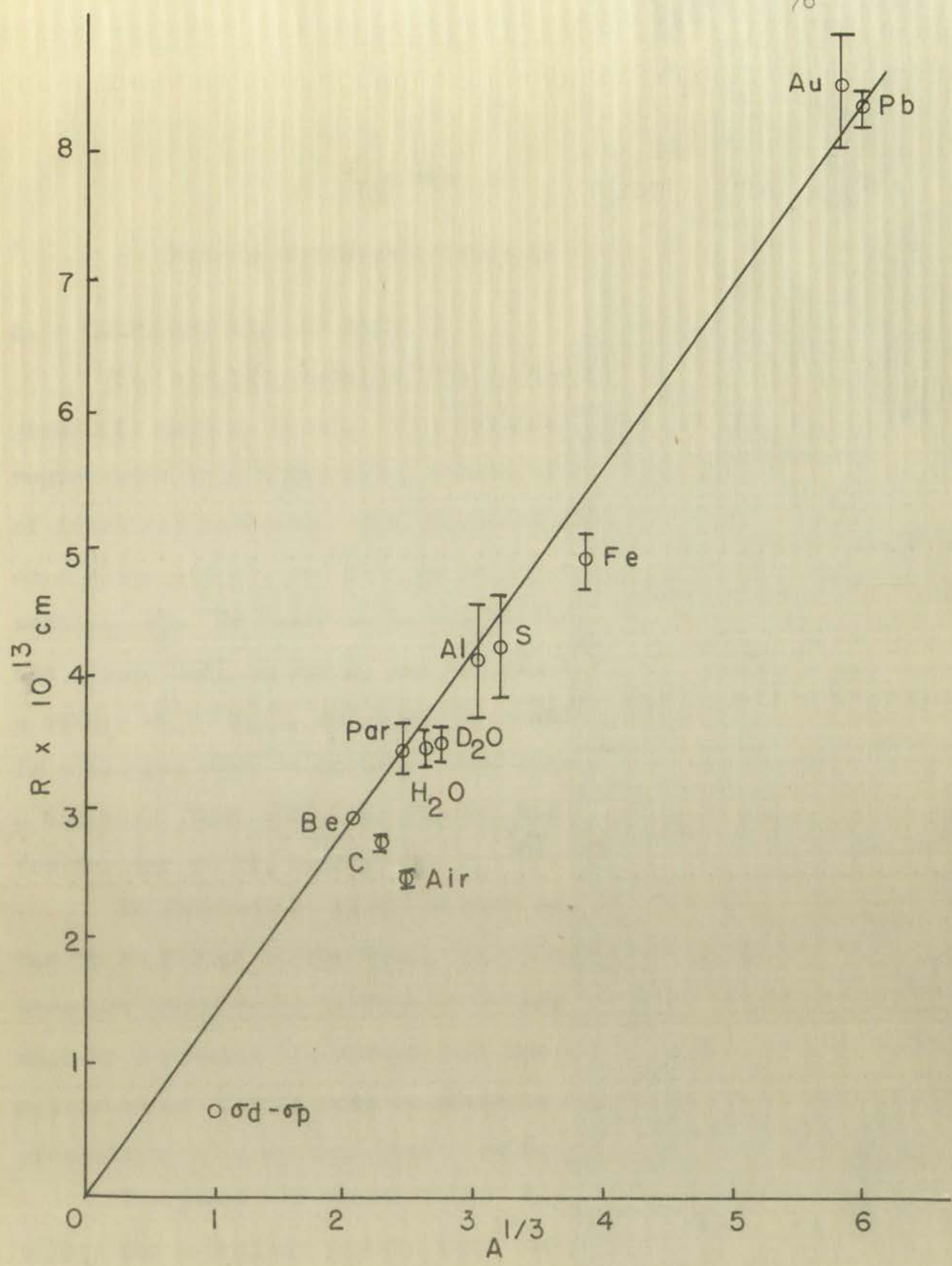


line in Figure 27 is $r_0 = 1.37 \times 10^{-13}$ cm.

It is to be seen from the results of this experiment that a considerable transparency is to be expected for nuclear events taking place in materials of low atomic mass number. This will be discussed further in the next section of this paper. A plot of R vs $A^{1/3}$ obtained from the data presented in Table V is given in Figure 28. Using a value of r_0 equal to 1.40×10^{-13} cm, it is indeed evident that there exists a transparency for the collision cross section of the PSPR with materials of low atomic mass number.



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NUCLEAR RADII FROM THE
GEOMETRIC MODEL
FIGURE 28

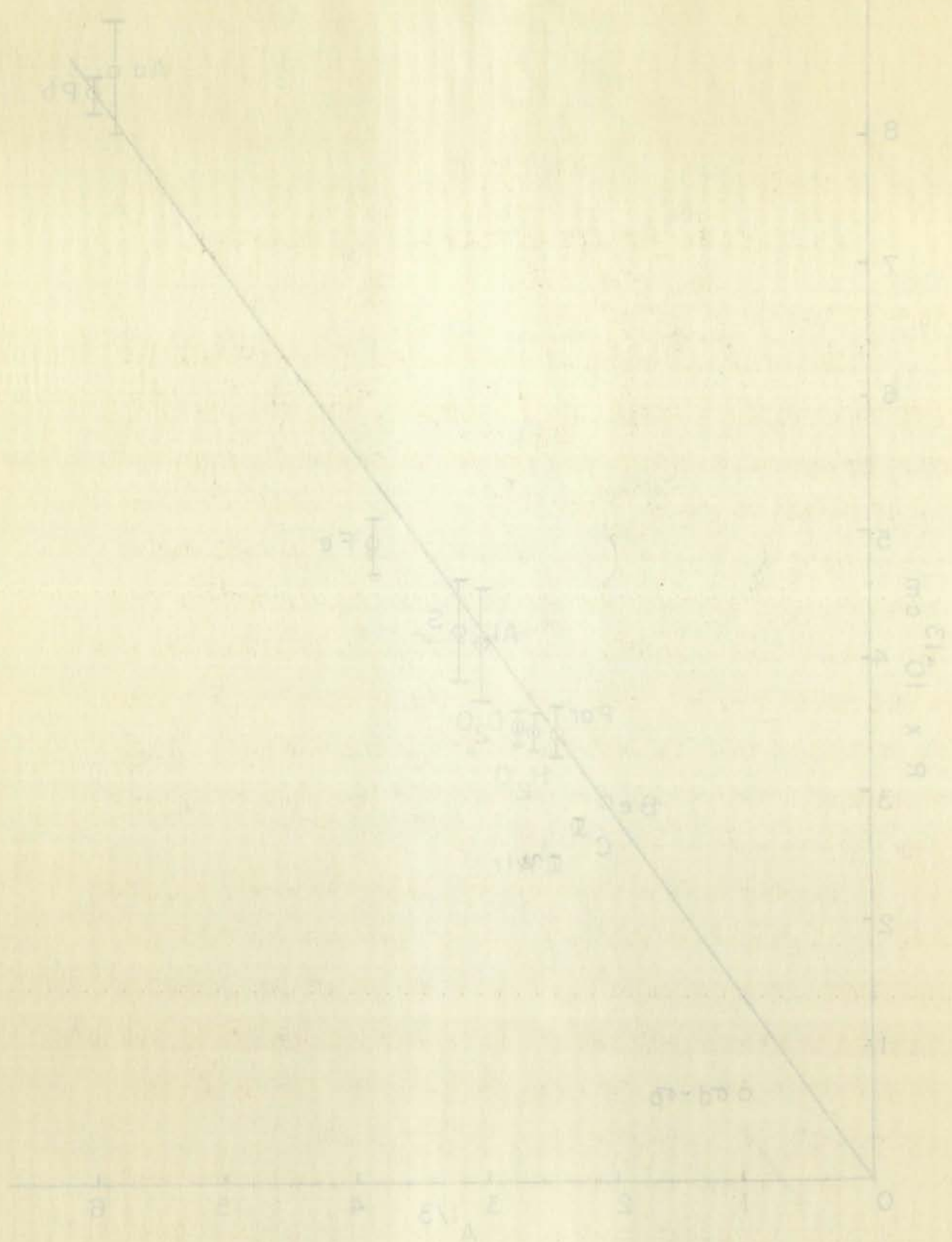


FIGURE 23
 GEOMETRIC MODEL OF NUCLEAR RADIUS FROM THE

CHAPTER VI

VARIOUS THEORIES OF NUCLEAR COLLISIONS

A. - GEOMETRIC NUCLEAR MODEL

The simplest model of the nucleus is called the geometric nuclear model. In this model, the nucleus is represented by a homogeneous sphere of radius R , composed of identical nucleons. The projected area of this sphere on a plane is πR^2 , and this is called the geometric cross section, σ_g . In order to calculate the dependence of R on the atomic mass number A , one assumes that each nucleon has a volume of $4\pi r_0^3/3$, and that the magnitude of this volume is unchanged when it combines with other nucleons to form a nucleus. From this, one obtains the familiar expression for nuclear radii, namely, $R = r_0 A^{1/3}$.

In this model, there is only one parameter, r_0 , that has to be fitted to the data. It is now evident that the straight lines drawn in Figures 27 and 28 of the previous chapter represent the curves that one would expect if the geometric cross section were an adequate description of the probability of a nuclear event taking place.

The geometric cross section does indicate the probability for a nuclear process quite well for large values of A if the constant r_0 is properly chosen. However, for low

VARIATION THEORY OF NUCLEAR COLLISIONS

A. - GEOMETRIC NUCLEAR MODEL

The simplest model of the nucleus is called the geometric nuclear model. In this model, the nucleus is represented by a homogeneous sphere of radius R , composed of identical nucleons. The projected area of this sphere on a plane is πR^2 , and this is called the geometric cross section, σ_g . In order to calculate the dependence of σ_g on the atomic mass number A , we assume that each nucleon has a volume of $\frac{4}{3}\pi r_0^3$, and that the dependence of this volume is unchanged when it collides with other nucleons to form a nucleus. From this, we obtain the familiar expression for nuclear radius, namely, $R = r_0 A^{1/3}$.

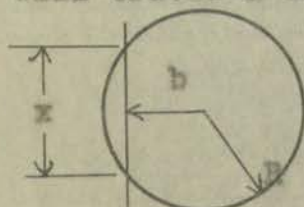
In this model, there is only one parameter, r_0 , and has to be fitted to the data. It is now evident that the straight lines drawn in Figures 13 and 15 of the previous chapter represent the error that one would expect if the geometric cross section were an adequate description of the probability of a nuclear event taking place.

The geometric cross section does indeed fit quite nicely for a nuclear process quite well for large values of A . If the constant r_0 is properly chosen. However, for low

values of A , it gives results that are too large. As one can see from Figures 27 and 28, there is a considerable transparency for small values of A . Therefore, this theory has to be modified to attain a transparency for nuclei of small atomic mass number.

B. - GEOMETRIC NUCLEAR MODEL WITH STATISTICAL TRANSPARENCY³⁰

A slight modification of the above theory will include a transparency for nuclei of low atomic mass number. In this model, one makes the same assumption of a smooth, homogeneous sphere of radius R , where $R = r_0 A^{1/3}$ as one did in the geometric model. In addition to this, one also assumes a mean free path l_c , in nuclear matter. Then if a particle is incident upon a nucleus with an impact parameter b , it will travel a distance x in traversing the nucleus.



b = impact parameter,
 R = radius of nucleus,
 x = path length.

Because of the mean free path, the probability of no event taking place between the nucleus and a particle that travels a distance x through the nucleus is $\exp(-x/l_c)$. Therefore, the probability of an event taking place is

$$1 - \exp(-x/l_c).$$

30

Rossi, B., High Energy Particles, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York: (1952).

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2. - GEOMETRICAL ANALYSIS
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Then the collision cross section, σ_{gt}^- , is given by

$$10) \quad \sigma_{gt}^- = \int_0^R 2\pi b db [1 - \exp(-x/l_c)] = \pi R^2 (1 - T),$$

$$\text{where } T = 1/\pi R^2 \int_0^R 2\pi b db \exp(-x/l_c)$$

Using the relationship $x = 2\sqrt{R^2 - b^2}$, one obtains

$$T = l_c^2/2r_0^2 A^{2/3} \left[1 - \left(1 + 2r_0 A^{1/3}/l_c \right) \exp\left\{ -2r_0 A^{1/3}/l_c \right\} \right].$$

Then the expression for the geometric cross section with statistical transparency becomes:

$$12) \quad \sigma_{gt}^- = \sigma_g (1 - T)$$

where T is given in equation (11). This cross section has the form

$$13) \quad \sigma_{gt}^- = \sigma_g \left\{ 1 - \left[2d^{-2} \left(1 - (1 + 2d)\exp(-d) \right) \right] \right\}$$

where d is equal to $2r_0 A^{1/3}/l_c$.

From this, one can immediately see that the transparency T increases as the atomic mass number decreases.

Using the method of successive approximations, and the experimental data presented in Table V, the best values for r_0 and for l_c have been determined to be:

$$r_0 = 1.46 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm,}$$

$$\text{and } l_c = 3.80 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm.}$$

The data for air, water, heavy water, paraffin, and beryllium were not included in the calculation of r_0 and l_c .

Then the collision cross section σ_{coll} is given by

$$(10) \quad \sigma_{coll}^R = \int_0^R \int_{\pi/2}^{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \exp(-\lambda \mu) \sin^2 \theta \, d\theta \, d\phi \, d\mu$$

where $T = \sqrt{V^2 R^2 - \lambda^2 \mu^2}$

Using the relationship $\lambda = \sqrt{V^2 - v^2}$, one obtains

$$T = \frac{1}{V} \sqrt{V^2 R^2 - (V^2 - v^2) \mu^2}$$

Then the expression for the collision cross section with

$$(12) \quad \sigma_{coll}^R = \frac{2\pi R^2}{V} \int_0^V \exp(-\lambda \mu) \lambda \mu \, d\lambda$$

where T is given in equation (11). The exact vector form of the form

$$(13) \quad \sigma_{coll}^R = \frac{2\pi R^2}{V} \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{V^2 - v^2}{V^2} \right) \left(1 + \frac{2V^2 - v^2}{V^2} \right) \right]$$

where δ is equal to $\frac{v^2}{V^2}$. From this, one can immediately see that the collision

cross-section T increases as the speed v increases.

Using the method of successive approximations, and the experimental data presented in Table I, we have obtained the

and for λ have been determined to be

$$\lambda_0 = 1.45 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm.}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 1.50 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm.}$$

The data for air, water, heavy water, benzene, and nitrogen

were not included in the calculation of λ_0 and λ_1 .

The nuclear radius R_{gt} described by this model is defined by the relationship

$$14) \quad \sigma_{gt} = R_{gt}^2.$$

This radius is plotted against the cube root of the atomic mass number (R_{gt} vs $A^{1/3}$) in Figure 29. The experimental values of the nuclear radii are also plotted on this curve. In order to obtain an idea of how well this model fits the experimental data for poly-atomic materials such as water, a radius was calculated from both the experimental and the theoretical cross sections. The experimental radius, R_{ex} , is defined by the relationship $\sigma_{ex} = \pi R_{ex}^2$. The theoretical nuclear radius, R_{gt} , is described by equation (14), where σ_{gt} is taken to be the sum of the cross sections for all the nuclei composing the molecule. In the case of water, for example, σ_{gt} equals $2 \sigma_H + \sigma_O$.

The experimental value of the nuclear radius for this case is not plotted on the abscissa value corresponding to $A^{1/3}$ where A is the sum of the atomic mass numbers of the nuclei composing the molecule, because the transparency is different for different values of A . R_{ex} is plotted on the graph with the same value of the abscissa as the theoretical nuclear radius. Therefore, if this theory were to describe the experimental data perfectly, R_{ex} would lie directly on the curve.

The nuclear radius R_N described by this model is

defined by the relationship

$$1 + \frac{R_N^2}{R_{ex}^2} = \frac{R_{ex}^2}{R_{ex}^2} \quad (1)$$

This radius is plotted against the mass number of the nucleus

mass number $(R_{ex} \text{ vs } A^{1/3})$ in Figure 2. The experimental

values of the nuclear radii are also plotted on this curve.

In order to obtain an idea of how well this model fits the

experimental data for poly-nuclear systems we will compare

a radius calculated from this model with the experimental one

the theoretical one. The experimental radius

R_{ex} is defined by the relationship $R_{ex} = k A^{1/3}$. The

theoretical nuclear radius, R_{th} , is defined by equation (1),

where R_{ex} is taken to be the sum of the radii of the nuclei

the nuclei composing the molecule. In the case of water, for

$$\text{example, } R_{ex} \text{ equals } 2 R_H + R_O.$$

The experimental value of the nuclear radius for this

case is not plotted on the absolute value corresponding to

$A^{1/3}$ where A is the sum of the atomic mass numbers of the

atoms composing the molecule, because the frequency is

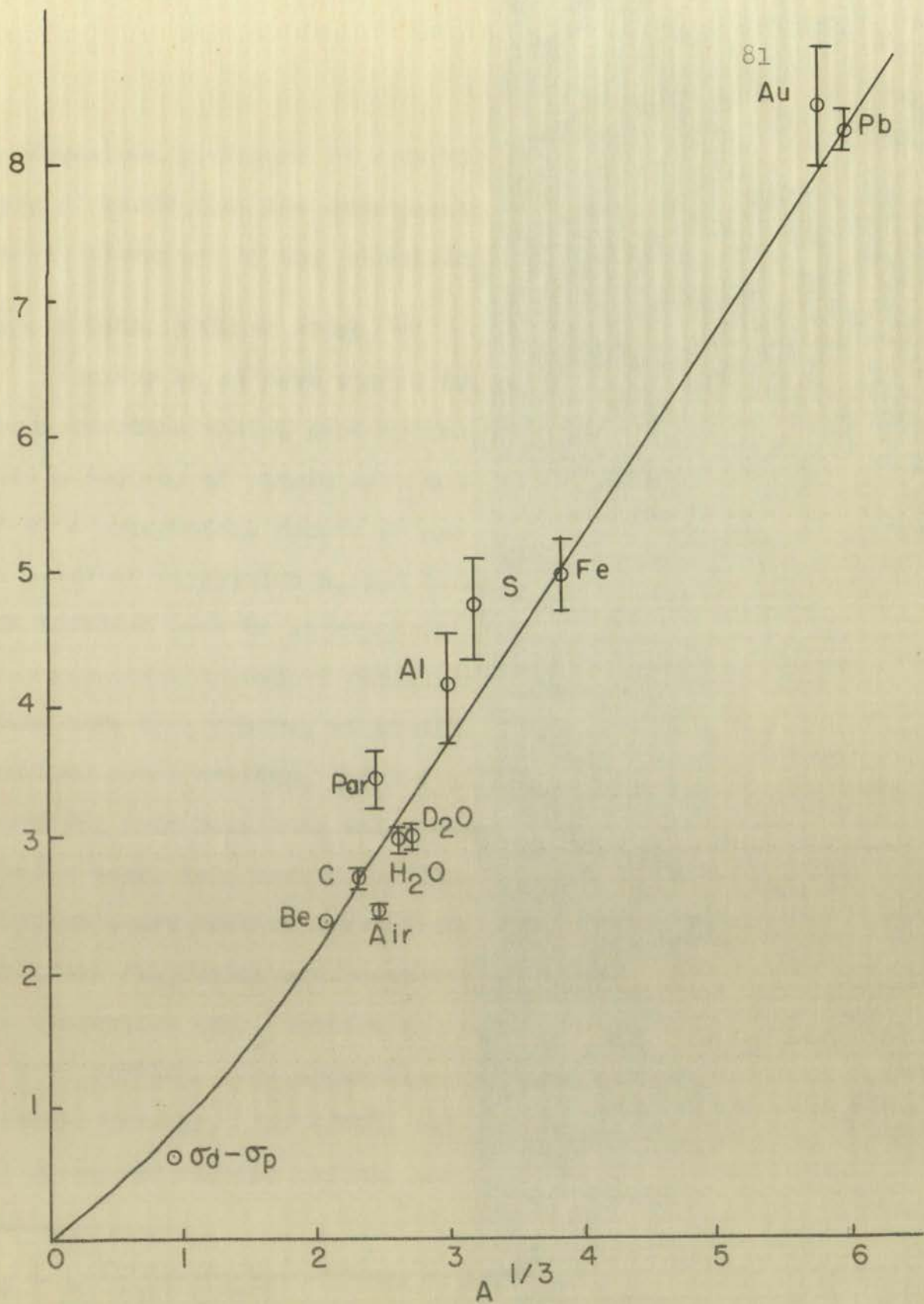
different for different values of A. R_{ex} is plotted on the

graph with the same value of the absolute as the theoretical

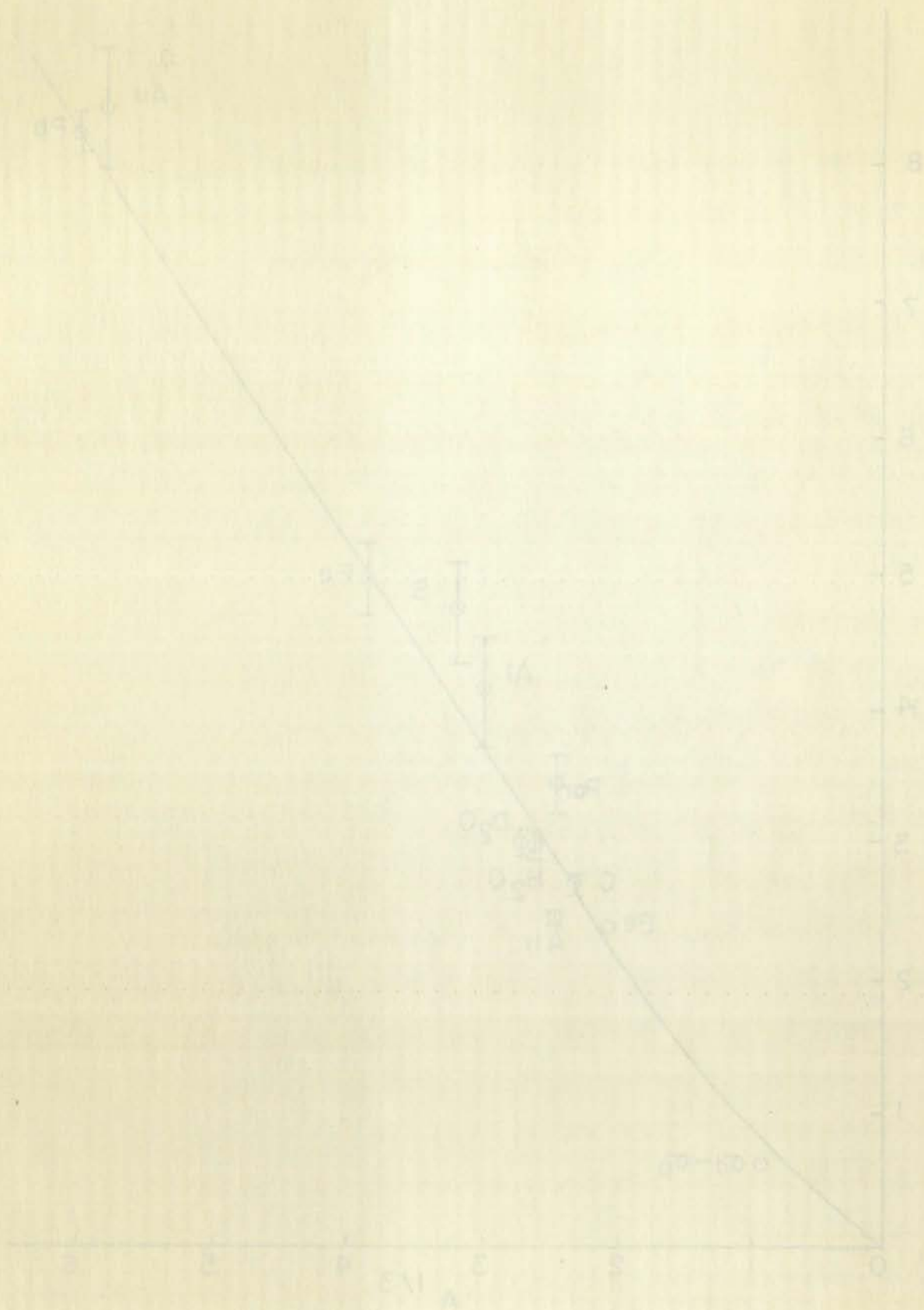
nuclear radius. Therefore, if this theory were to describe

the experimental data perfectly, R_{ex} would lie directly on the

curve.



NUCLEAR RADII FROM THE
 GEOMETRIC MODEL WITH
 TRANSPARENCY
 FIGURE 29



NUCLEAR PAIR FROM THE
 GEOMETRIC MODEL WITH
 TRANSPARENCY
 FIGURE 28

A comparison of Figure 29 with Figure 28 shows that this type of curve fits the experimental data better than a curve determined by the geometric model alone.

C. - OPTICAL NUCLEAR MODEL.³¹

Serber et al have worked out a nuclear model based on the assumption that Z protons and $A - Z$ neutrons combine to form a nucleus of atomic mass number A , that may be represented as a homogeneous sphere of nuclear matter characterized by an index of refraction n , and by an absorption coefficient K . The incident neutron is represented as a plane wave.

Using the Kirchhoff formalism for the scattering of a plane wave by a sphere, an absorption cross section, a diffraction cross section, and the angular dependence of the scattered wave have been calculated. The diffraction cross section takes into account elastic scattering, and the absorption cross section takes into account true absorption, inelastic scattering and scattering with exchange. Therefore the absorption cross section is the one that is applicable to this problem. The absorption coefficient is given by the particle density, $3A/4\pi R^3$, multiplied by σ , where R is the geometric nuclear radius, and where σ is defined by the

31

Fernbach, S., Serber, R., and Taylor, T. B., Phys. Rev., **75**, 1352 (1949)



following:

$$\sigma = [Z \sigma_{np} + (A - Z) \sigma_{nn}] / A.$$

σ_{np} is the cross section for the event in question between an incident neutron and a proton bound in a nucleus; and σ_{nn} is the cross section for the same event between an incident neutron and a neutron bound in a nucleus.

In this treatment, all interactions between the nucleons inside the nucleus have been neglected. To make this a reasonable approximation, the binding energy of the nucleus must be small compared with the kinetic energy of the incident particle.

The absorption cross section, σ_a , is given by

$$\sigma_a = \pi R^2 \left\{ 1 - \left[1 - (1 + 2KR) \exp(-2KR) \right] / 2K^2 R^2 \right\},$$

which has the form,

$$15) \quad \sigma_a = \sigma_g \left\{ 1 - 2d^{-2} \left[1 - (1 + 2d) \exp(-d) \right] \right\}.$$

This is the same form as the cross section described by the geometric nuclear model with statistical transparency.

Since this cross section has the same form as one previously described, it adds no new information to this particular problem. It does, however, offer a very elegant method of obtaining a transparency that is large for small

following:

$$\sigma = \left[\frac{4\pi}{k^2} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (2l+1) \sin^2 \delta_l \right] \times A$$

σ_{el} is the cross section for elastic scattering between an incident neutron and a proton bound in a nucleus. σ_{in} is the cross section for the same event between an incident neutron and a neutron bound in a nucleus.

In this treatment, all interactions between the nucleus and the neutron have been neglected. It was assumed that the neutron energy is small compared with the kinetic energy of the incident particle.

The absorption cross section, σ_a , is given by

$$\sigma_a = \pi \lambda^2 \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (2l+1) \sin^2 \delta_l \right] \times A$$

which has the form

$$\sigma_a = \frac{\pi \lambda^2}{2} \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (2l+1) \sin^2 \delta_l \right] \times A$$

This is the same form as the cross section described by the geometric nuclear model with statistical transmission. Since this cross section has the same form as one previously described, it adds no new information to this particular problem. It does, however, offer a very simple method of obtaining a cross section that is large for small

atomic mass numbers. It also gives additional information on elastic scattering, and about the angular dependence of scattered neutrons.

D. - THE THOMASIAN MODEL.³²

In all of the nuclear models proposed, one treats the interaction of an incident particle, or a wave that represents the incident particle, with the particles inside the nucleus. In most of these models, one assumes that the kinetic energy of the incident particle is high enough so that the binding energy of the nucleus may be neglected. One then is allowed to treat the interaction as a sum of nucleon-nucleon interactions instead of as a nucleon-nucleus interaction. (Note the definition of σ in the optical nuclear model, where σ_{np} and σ_{nn} are assumed to be constant despite the values of A and Z.)

In a radical departure from this type of treatment, Thomas has suggested that perhaps the way that one should look at this interaction is not on a nucleon-nucleon basis, but rather on the basis of the interaction between an incident particle and the meson field associated with the nucleus. The method employed in this treatment will be that of essentially neglecting the nucleons of the nucleus, and treat-

³²

Thomas, Roy - Private communication to the author.



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the inclusion of...

and because in...

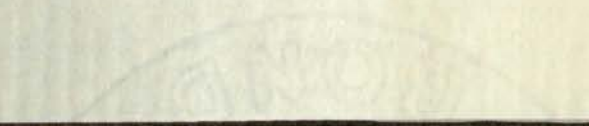
the same is...

is a critical...

Thomas has...

not refer to...

The author...



ing only the "nuclear glue", or meson field. The formula for the nuclear radius R , will then be given by:

$$R = R_0 N^{1/3},$$

instead of $R = r_0 A^{1/3},$

where N is the number of mesons associated with the nucleus.

However, the number of mesons associated with a nucleus will be equal to the binding energy of the nucleus divided by the rest energy of the pi meson.

$$16) \quad N = (B.E. / M c^2)$$

Then the formula for the inelastic cross section will be given by:

$$17) \quad \sigma_1 = \pi R^2 = \pi R_0^2 N^{2/3} = \pi R_0^2 (B.E./M c^2)^{2/3}$$

Since N is a well-defined quantity, there is only one parameter that must be fitted to the data, and that is R_0 .

This theory does not have an explicit energy dependence term associated with it, but if the proper energy dependence term is ever established, it can be included in this theory by making R_0 a function of the energy. An interesting thing about this model is that it introduces a transparency of the proper order of magnitude on an entirely different physical basis than the usual theories.

One will also note that, since there is no binding energy for the hydrogen nucleus, there is also a zero cross section for the hydrogen nucleus according to this theory.



the only the "number" of the "series". The formula
for the number of series is given by

$$n = 2\sqrt{E}$$

$$n = 2\sqrt{E_0}$$

where n is the number of series, E is the energy
however, the number of series is not
nucleus will be equal to the binding energy of the nucleus
divided by the rest energy of the electron.

$$n = 2\sqrt{E_0} \quad (1)$$

Thus the formula for the number of series is given by:

$$n = 2\sqrt{E_0} \quad (2)$$

Since n is a well-defined quantity, there is a
series that will be listed in the table, and that is
This theory has not yet been tested experimentally
dependence is calculated with it, but in the present
dependence is not yet established. It can be shown
this theory by taking E_0 a function of the energy. In the
correcting thing about this model is that it is not
transparency of the upper part of the spectrum is an
different spectral lines in the visible region.

One will also note that, since there is no binding
energy for the hydrogen atom, there is also a series
series for the hydrogen atom, which is also in the

If, however, there is actually a small cross section associated with the hydrogen nucleus, this can also be accounted for by a refinement to this model.

It is a generally accepted fact that part of the time, a proton exists in the neutron-pi meson state. Therefore on the average, there is a small fraction of the proton existing as a pi meson, and this fraction is equal to N , the number of pi mesons associated with the nucleus. Using equation (17), the best value of the parameter R_0 was established by applying the method of least squares to the experimental data*. This value is:

$$R_0 = (3.53 \pm .10) \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm.}$$

Using this value of R_0 , the curve of R plotted against the cube root of the atomic mass number has been determined, and this is presented in Figure 30.

* The binding energies were determined from the following sources:

33

Segre, E. H., Revised Segre Chart, Addison-Wesley Press, Cambridge, Mass., (1948)

34

Mattauch, J., Nuclear Physics Tables, Interscience Publishers, New York. (1946)

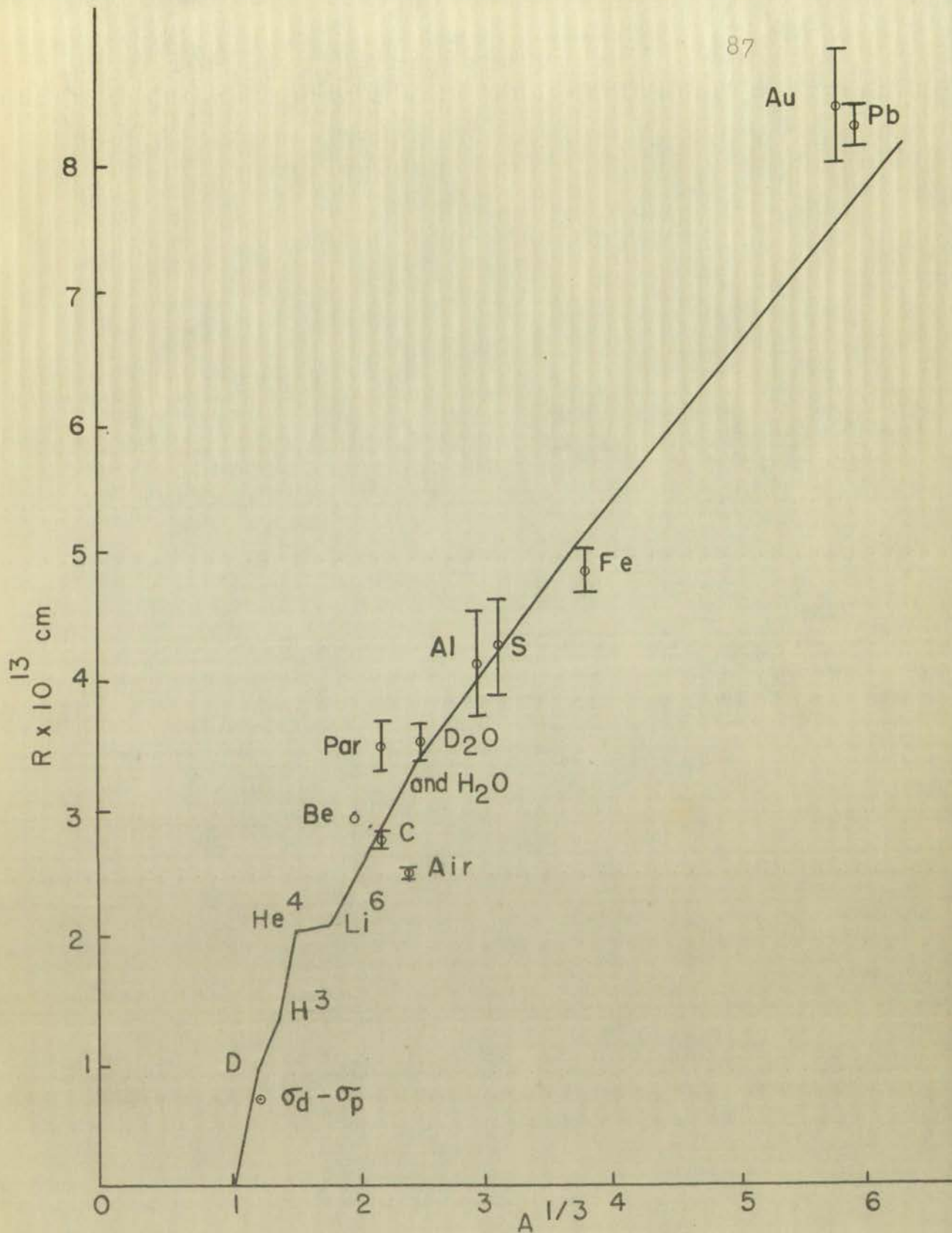
It, however, does not contain a self-explanatory table
 labeled with the number of cases, but only the number
 for a particular case.

It is a condition of the case that the
 a person shall be the possessor of the property
 on the average, that is, the condition of the person
 existing as a condition of the property is that the
 number of persons shall be the same as the number of
 equation (1), the value of the property shall be the
 established by applying the weight of the property to the
 experimental data. This is the case.

$$E = (3.23 \pm 1.10) \times 10^{-12} \text{ eV}$$

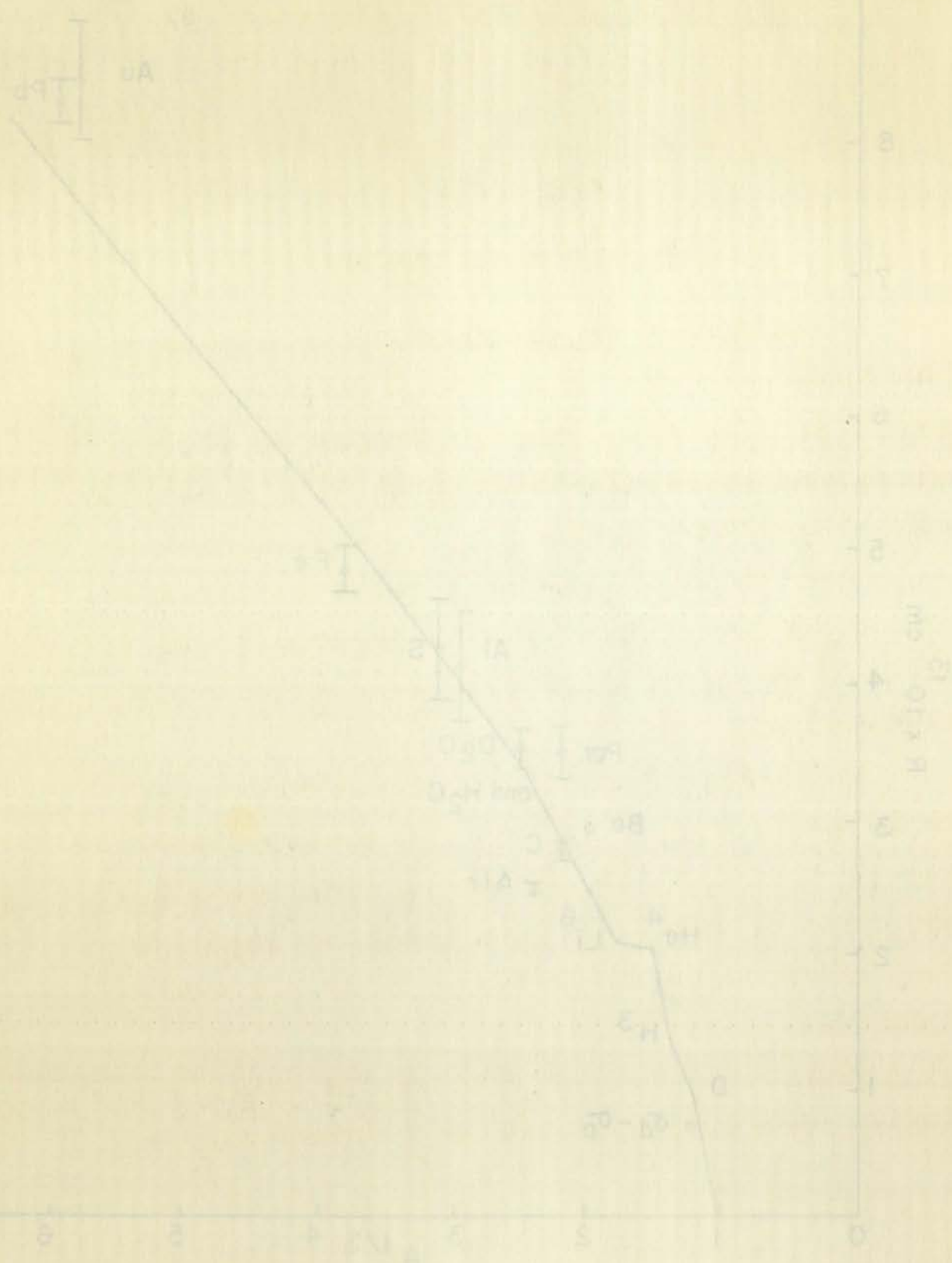
Using this value of E , the value of λ is determined
 and the value of λ is determined and the value of λ is
 determined, and this is the value of λ .

* The binding energies were determined from the
 following sources:
 33
 G. H. R. Hoare, *Atomic Energy*, London, 1954.
 Proc. Cambridge Phil. Soc., (1954)
 34
 W. H. R. Hoare, *Atomic Energy*, London, 1954.
 Publishers, New York, (1954)



NUCLEAR RADII FROM THE
THOMASONIAN NUCLEAR MODEL

FIGURE 30



THOMASOMAN NUCLEAR MODEL
 NUCLEAR RADI FROM THE
 FIGURE 50

CHAPTER VII

EVALUATION OF THE THEORIES

A comparison of the experimental data listed in Table V with the results to be expected from the various theories is presented in Table VI. The accuracy of the data does not permit a reasonable evaluation of the relative worth of the various theories.

It is reasonable, however, to reject the geometric model on the basis of both the cosmic-ray results given in this paper and the results of experiments carried out at lower energies.

The geometric model with statistical transparency and the optical nuclear model both give the same results. These models are quite adequate for describing processes taking place in materials of large atomic mass number, but do not give a sufficiently large transparency for materials of low atomic mass number.

On the basis of the existing data, no selection can be made between the optical model and the Thomasonian model.

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FRIEDRICH-SCHLEGEL



Table 1.1 shows the results of the tests conducted on the specimens. The average values of the ultimate strength and elongation are given in Table 1.2. The values of the ultimate strength and elongation are compared with the values of the ultimate strength and elongation of the specimens of the same material and the same shape as the specimens tested in this test. The values of the ultimate strength and elongation of the specimens tested in this test are found to be lower than the values of the ultimate strength and elongation of the specimens of the same material and the same shape as the specimens tested in this test.

TABLE VI
EXPERIMENTAL AND THEORETICAL CROSS SECTIONS

MATERIAL	EXPERIMENTAL CROSS SECTION (millibarns)	GEOMETRIC CROSS SECTION (millibarns)	OPTICAL CROSS SECTION (millibarns)	THOMASONIAN CROSS SECTION (millibarns)
air*	192 ± 6	374	274	309
beryllium	176	265	186	202
carbon	229 ± 11	323	229	277
paraffin	379 ± 37	360	285	277
water	277 ± 21	422	351	344
heavy water	270 ± 22	452	391	390
aluminum	527 ± 112	503	481	500
sulphur	699 ± 110	620	515	570
iron	743 ± 65	908	805	843
gold	2250 ± 233	2090	2050	1810
lead	2140 ± 67	2150	2140	1860
$\sigma_p - \sigma_p$	# 13 ± 15	36	22	23

* In air an absorption cross section, not a collision cross section is presented.

This value is that given by Froman, Kenney, and Regener.

STATIONARY STATE OF THE BIRTH RATE IN A RURAL AREA

THE BIRTH RATE IN A RURAL AREA IS 20 PER MILLE PER ANNUM. THE MORTALITY RATE IS 10 PER MILLE PER ANNUM. THE EXPECTED LIFETIME OF AN INDIVIDUAL IS 60 YEARS.

AGE CLASS	POPULATION	BIRTHS	DEATHS	NET CHANGE
0-4	2000	400	0	+400
5-9	2000	400	0	+400
10-14	2000	400	0	+400
15-19	2000	400	0	+400
20-24	2000	400	0	+400
25-29	2000	400	0	+400
30-34	2000	400	0	+400
35-39	2000	400	0	+400
40-44	2000	400	0	+400
45-49	2000	400	0	+400
50-54	2000	400	0	+400
55-59	2000	400	0	+400
60-64	2000	400	0	+400
65-69	2000	400	0	+400
70-74	2000	400	0	+400
75-79	2000	400	0	+400
80-84	2000	400	0	+400
85-89	2000	400	0	+400
90-94	2000	400	0	+400
95-99	2000	400	0	+400
100+	2000	400	0	+400

AGE CLASS	POPULATION	BIRTHS	DEATHS	NET CHANGE
0-4	2000	400	0	+400
5-9	2000	400	0	+400
10-14	2000	400	0	+400
15-19	2000	400	0	+400
20-24	2000	400	0	+400
25-29	2000	400	0	+400
30-34	2000	400	0	+400
35-39	2000	400	0	+400
40-44	2000	400	0	+400
45-49	2000	400	0	+400
50-54	2000	400	0	+400
55-59	2000	400	0	+400
60-64	2000	400	0	+400
65-69	2000	400	0	+400
70-74	2000	400	0	+400
75-79	2000	400	0	+400
80-84	2000	400	0	+400
85-89	2000	400	0	+400
90-94	2000	400	0	+400
95-99	2000	400	0	+400
100+	2000	400	0	+400

POPULATION IN A RURAL AREA AT STATIONARY STATE

TABLE II

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The existing experimental data are neither sufficiently accurate nor consistent to obtain any really good comparison of the experimental data with the various theories. In the selection of experiments to be presented in this paper, the author has attempted to eliminate any experiments which measured events other than were claimed. In cases in which some doubt existed as to the validity of the experiment, that experiment was given a low weight in the calculation of average values of the cross sections. Even with this type of selection, the data are still not very consistent.

From the data that do exist, however, it seems that the collision length is the same for both the ionizing and the neutral component of the cosmic radiation that is capable of producing penetrating showers. To fit all the data chosen, the best value for the mean free path of the penetrating-shower-producing radiation in nuclear matter is:

$$l_0 = 3.80 \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm.}$$

The experimental data permit no conclusions at all about the dependence of the cross section for penetrating shower production on the energy of the incident particle.

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The first part of the experiment was devoted to the study of the effect of the angle of incidence on the energy of the scattered radiation. It was found that the energy of the scattered radiation increases with the angle of incidence. The second part of the experiment was devoted to the study of the effect of the thickness of the scattering medium on the energy of the scattered radiation. It was found that the energy of the scattered radiation increases with the thickness of the scattering medium.

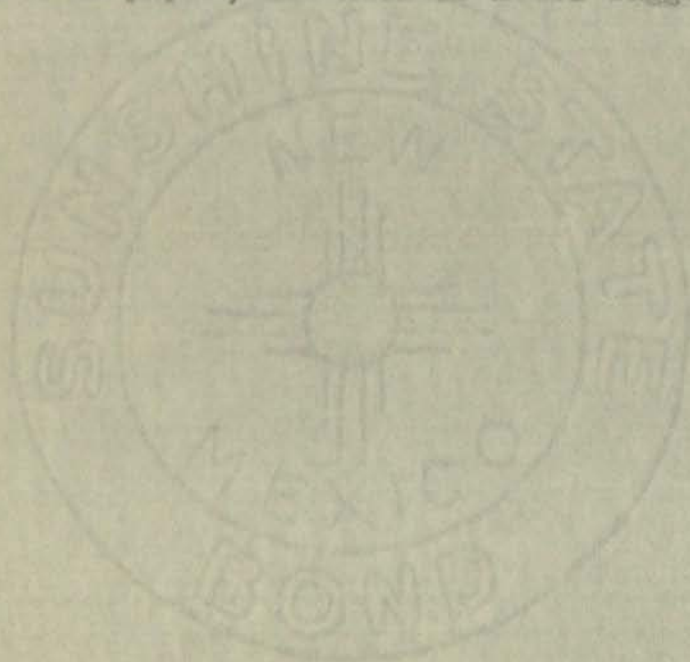
From the data obtained in the experiment it was found that the energy of the scattered radiation increases with the angle of incidence and the thickness of the scattering medium. The results of the experiment are shown in the following figures.

Fig. 1. Energy of scattered radiation vs. angle of incidence.

The experimental data show that the energy of the scattered radiation increases with the angle of incidence and the thickness of the scattering medium. The results of the experiment are shown in the following figures.

Since the binding energies of light nuclei vary radically, the validity of the model suggested by Thomas could be checked easily. An experiment that would do this would be a measurement of the absorption cross section of high energy neutrons in helium and in deuterium. Because of the experimental difficulties entailed in working with liquid helium and liquid deuterium, this experiment would be best conducted with neutrons from a cyclotron.

The author wishes to express his appreciation to Dr. D. K. Froman and Dr. V. H. Regener for their generous assistance and encouragement throughout the progress of this investigation. Special thanks are also due to Dr. Roy Thomas for invaluable discussions and for permission to treat, in this paper, the nuclear model suggested by him.



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Since the binding nature of these results was
radically, the validity of the data reported in this
could be checked easily. Inasmuch as this work is
would be a measurement of the electrical stress
high energy neutrons in helium and in nitrogen, the
of the experimental difficulties involved in the
liquid helium and liquid nitrogen, the experiment
be best conducted with helium from a cylinder.
The author wishes to express his appreciation to
Dr. D. E. Thomas and Dr. V. M. Bennett for their
assistance and encouragement throughout the progress of
this investigation. Special thanks are due Dr. H. L.
Boynton for valuable discussions and for suggestions
to read, in this paper, the author would suggest to him



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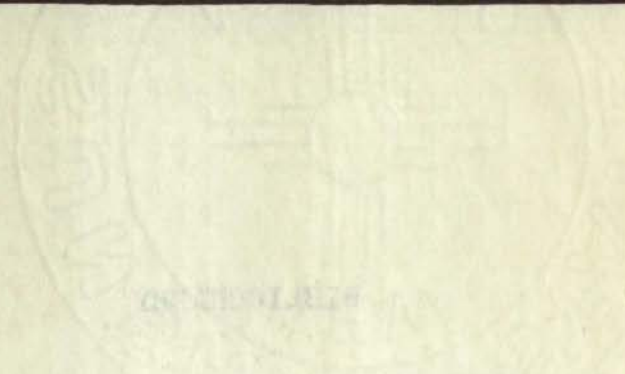
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MEMORANDUM

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8. *[Faint, illegible text]*

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12. *[Faint, illegible text]*

13. *[Faint, illegible text]*

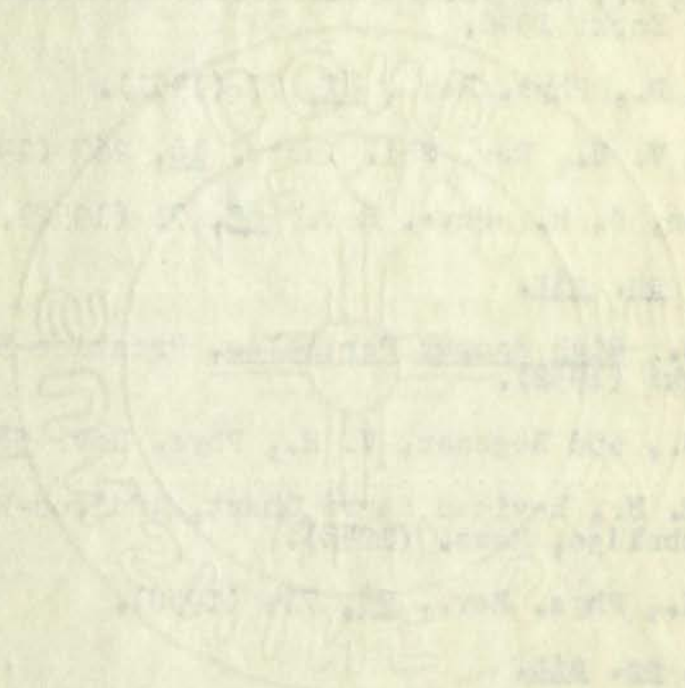
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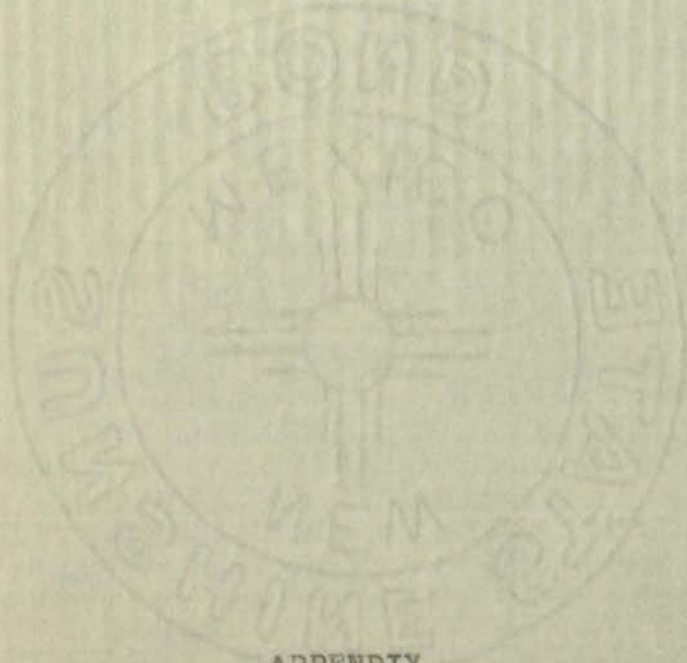
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EXHIBITS



APPENDIX

COLLON DOCUMENT
EPAKSYBLE



APPENDIX I

TABULATION OF THE COMPONENT PARTS OF THE
EXPERIMENT OF FROMAN, KENNEY, AND REGENERRESISTORS

<u>NUMBER</u>	<u>OHMS</u>	<u>DESCRIPTION</u>
R 208	5	2 watts
R 206	250	5 "
R 205	700	10 "
R 107 and R 108	750	5 "
R 207 and R 211	1250	100 "
R 202 and R 204	5K	potentiometer
R 115	10K	1 watt
R 212	10K	50 "
R 101 through R 106	11K	2 "
R 109	11K	2 "
R 201 and R 203	20K	50 "
R 110, R 111, R 116 R 117, R 122, and R 123	22K	1 "
R 114, R 126, R 128, R 132, R 360 through R 410, and R 547 through R 583.	47K	1 "
R 112, R 119 through R 121, R 129 through R 131, R 133 through R 136, R 149 through R 152, and R 601 through R 632.	100K	1 "
R 113, R 118, R 124, and R 127.	100K	2 "

RESISTORS

NUMBER	OHMS	DESCRIPTION
R 138, R 139, R 142 through R 146, R 301 through R 359, and R 501 through R 546.	220K	1 watt
R 209 and R 210	250K	potentiometer
R 147	470K	1 watt
R 125, R 137, R 140, R 141, R 148, and R 153.	1M	$\frac{1}{2}$ "

CAPACITORS

NUMBER	MICROMICROFARADS
C 110 and C 112	10
C 601 through C 606	20
C 111, and C 122 through C 125	25
C 129, and C 113 through C 116	50
C 126 through C 128, C 301 through C 351, and C 501 through C 537	150
C 135	500
C 130	1000
	MICROFARADS
C 101 through C 109	0.1
C 117, C 118, C 131, and C 132	0.3

TABLE I

EXPERIMENTAL	THEORY	RESULTS
1.0	1.0	R 132, R 133, R 134 through R 136, R 201 through R 202, and R 203 through R 204
2.0	2.0	R 205 and R 210
3.0	3.0	R 211
4.0	4.0	R 137, R 138, R 139, R 140, R 141, R 142, and R 143
5.0	5.0	
6.0	6.0	
7.0	7.0	
8.0	8.0	
9.0	9.0	
10.0	10.0	
11.0	11.0	
12.0	12.0	
13.0	13.0	
14.0	14.0	
15.0	15.0	
16.0	16.0	
17.0	17.0	
18.0	18.0	
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22.0	22.0	
23.0	23.0	
24.0	24.0	
25.0	25.0	
26.0	26.0	
27.0	27.0	
28.0	28.0	
29.0	29.0	
30.0	30.0	
31.0	31.0	
32.0	32.0	
33.0	33.0	
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96.0	96.0	
97.0	97.0	
98.0	98.0	
99.0	99.0	
100.0	100.0	



E. R. ANDERSON
 CHEMICAL PHYSICS

CAPACITORS

NUMBER	MICROFARADS	D. C. WORKING VOLTAGE
C 207 and C 208	8	450
C 119 through C 121, and C 211	10	450
C 205 and C 206	12	150
C 201 and C 202	20	150
C 212	20	450
C 203 and C 204	25	25
C 209 and C 210	100	25

INDUCTORS

NUMBER	VALUE
L 201 and L 203	250 henries
L 202 and L 204	20 henries (swinging choke)
L 205 and L 206	20 henries

VACUUM TUBES

NUMBER	TYPE
V 201, V 202, V 205 and V 206	5R4 GT
V 101, V 104, V 111, V 115, V 117, V 118, V 306 through V 315, V 331 and V 340, and V 510 through V 527.	6SA7
V 102, V 103 V 105 through V 108, V 116, and V 112 through V 114.	6SH7

DATE

DESCRIPTION

NUMBER

1974

1000 1000 1000

C 207 and C 208

1970

100 100 100

C 119 through C 121, and C 211

1971

12

C 207 and C 208

1970

20

C 201 and C 202

1970

20

C 212

1970

22

C 203 and C 204

1970

100

C 209 and C 210

VALUE

NUMBER

270 Dollars

I 201 and I 202

50 Dollars (excluding value)

I 202 and I 203

50 Dollars

I 204 and I 205

ACCORD THREE

TYPE

NUMBER

200 02

V 201, V 202, V 203 and V 204

2000

V 101, V 104, V 111, V 112, V 113, V 114, V 115, V 206 through V 210, V 211 and V 212, and V 213 through V 217

2000

V 102, V 103, V 107 through V 109, V 116, and V 117 through V 119

VACUUM TUBES

NUMBER	TYPE
V 109, V 110, V 301 through V 305, V 316 through V 330, V 501 through V 509, V 528 through V 536, and V 601 through V 604.	6SL7
V 203 and V 204	6V6

TRANSFORMERS

NUMBER	MANUFACTURER	TYPE
T 201	U.T.C.	PA453
T 202	Thordarson	T19F76
T 203	Thordarson	T17R30
T 204	U.T.C.	CG431
T 205	U.T.C.	PA122
T 206	Thordarson	T19F79

MISCELLANY

NUMBER	DESCRIPTION	TYPE
Re 201 and R e 202	RELAY	SPST DC 5000 ohms
X 201, X 202, and X 601 through X 629.	CRYSTAL DIODE	1N34

PLATE NO. 9

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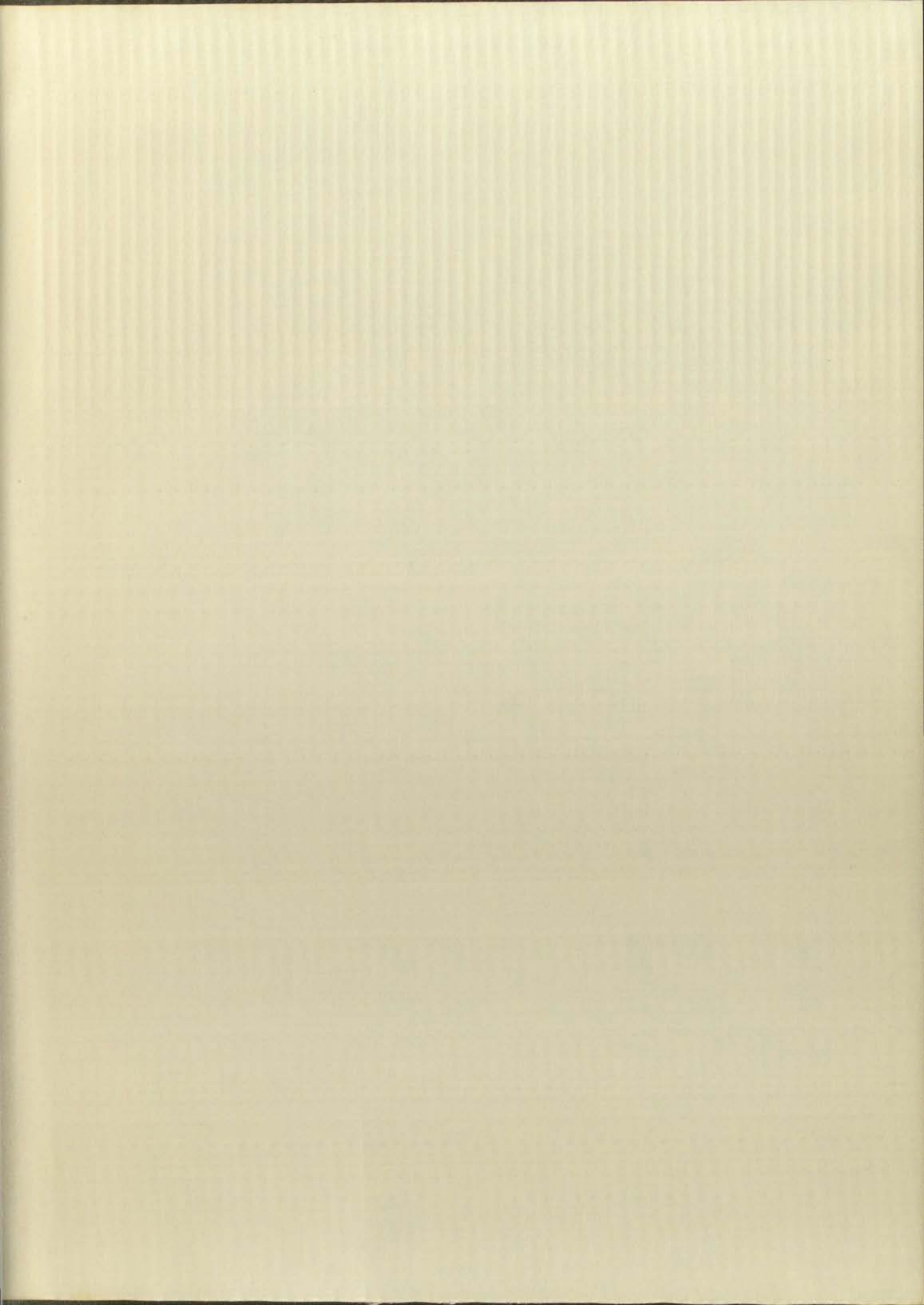
V 101 through V 102
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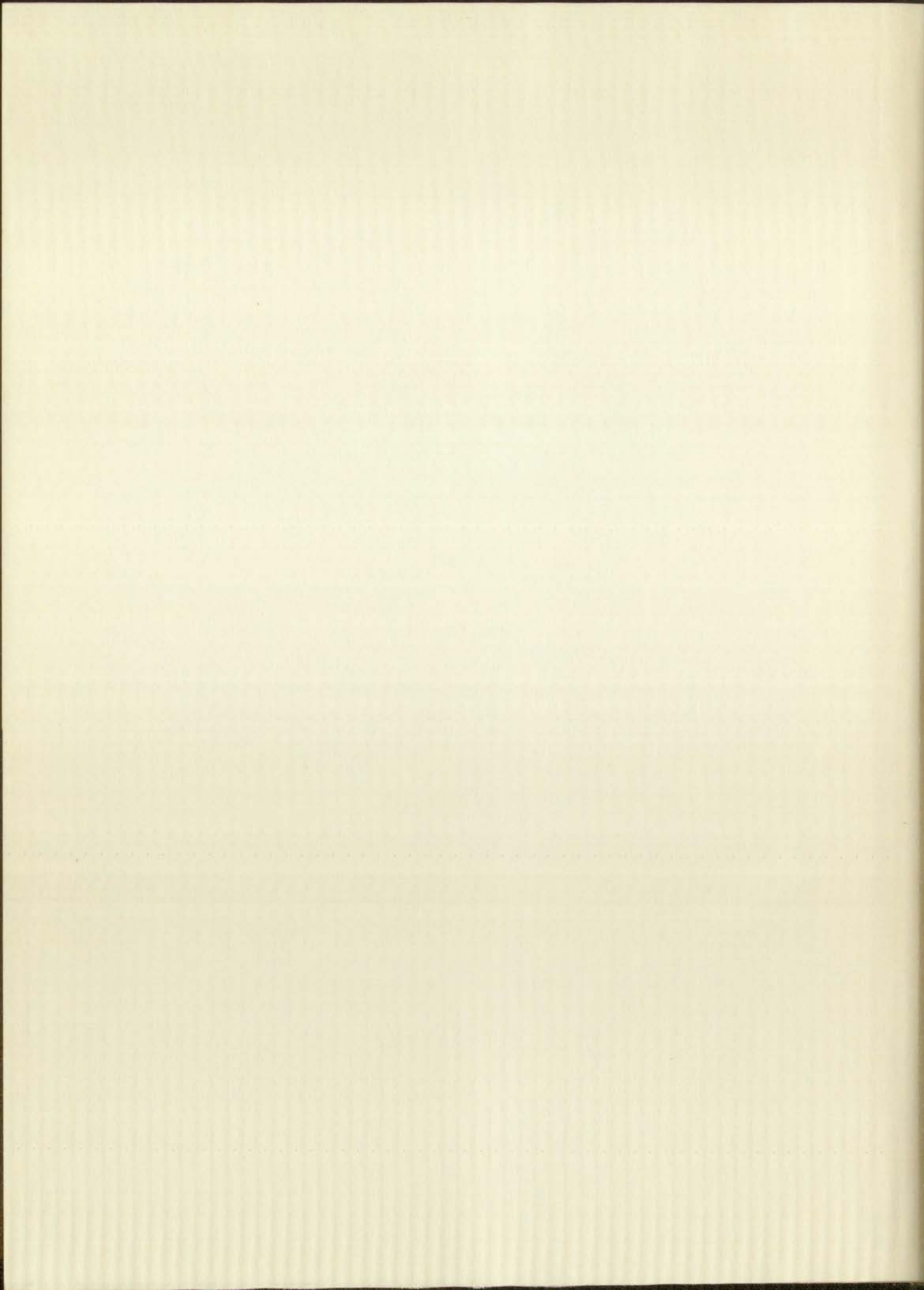
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 U.S. CO. 109
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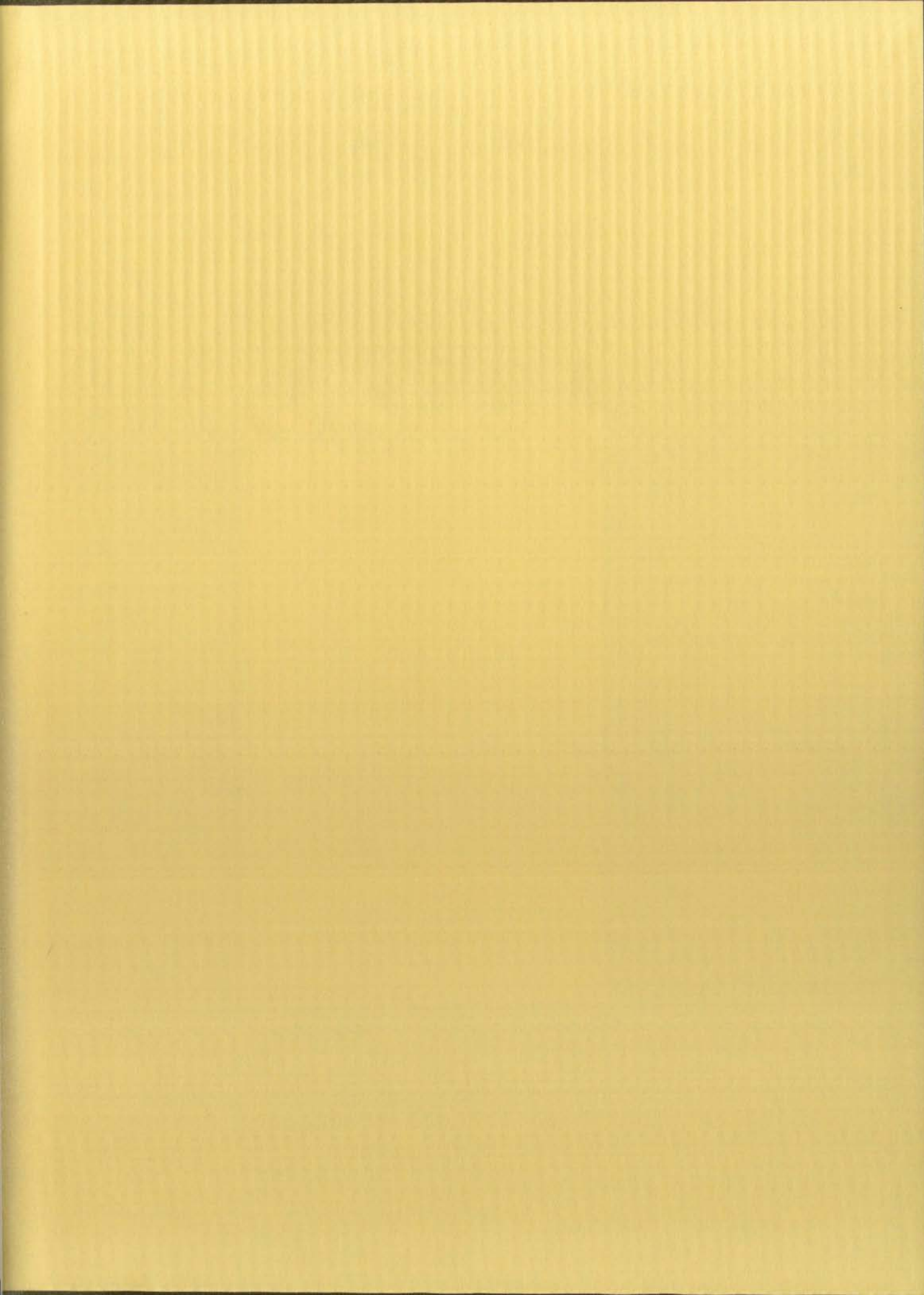
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