Fundamental Neutron Physics II

Neutron Sources and Neutron Beams

Fundamental Neutron Physics III

Neutron Beta Decay

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Introduction to Neutron Sources

Early neutron sources were based on simple nuclear processes:

 $\alpha + {}^{9}Be \rightarrow {}^{12}C + n$

Such sources are still used ("Pu-Be") but are limited in intensity.

Modern neutron research is based at sources of two types:

1. High Flux Fission Reactor

2. Accelerator "Spallation" Sources

The Fission Reactor









Leo Szilard

Each Fission Event Produces ~200Mev and ~1.5 "Useful" Neutrons



Nuclear Fission

Some Essential Features of a High Flux Reactor

Figure of Merit is the Peak Neutron Flux at the Core n/cm²/s

Key Design Features:

- 1. High Power <u>Density</u>
- 2. Compact Core
- 3. Highly Enriched Fuel
- 4. D₂O Moderation and Cooling
- 5. Cryogenic Cold Source(s)

Ultimate engineering limitation is ability to remove heat from the compact core at ~100MW

The Institute Laue Langevin, Grenoble

57 MW High Flux Reactor





Most Neutron Sources Have Multiple Moderators



The High Flux neutron Source at the ILL

A Neutron Source Can Serve Many Neutron Instruments



Instrument Layout at the Institut Laue Langevin



The Guide Hall at the ILL Houses ~30 Neutron Spectrometers





The NIST Cold Neutron research Center



Spallation Sources

At ~1.4 GeV, Each Incident Proton Produce ~40 "Useful" Neutrons



Neutron Production is Roughly Proportional to Power



NOTE: Spallation gives ~x10 more neutrons per MW

The Spallation Neutron Spectrum is Broad



(Courtesy, Gary Russell)

Moderators are Engineered for Specific Neutronic Performance



(Courtesy, Gary Russell)

Neutron Source Intensities Have Increased by Nearly 18 Orders of Magnitude* Since Chadwick



⁽Updated from Neutron Scattering, K. Skold and D. L. Price: eds., Academic Press, 1986)

The Spallation Neutron Source



Front-End Systems (Lawrence Berkeley)

Accumulator Ring (Brookhaven)



Linac (Los Alamos and Jefferson)

> Instrument Systems (Argonne and Oak Ridge)

2000

00-04492D/art

Target, Reflectors, and Moderators







Beamline 13 Has Been Allocated for Nuclear Physics



Beamline 13 Has Been Allocated for Nuclear Physics





Neutron Guides

At low energies S-wave scattering dominates, phase shift is given by $\cot(\delta) = \frac{-1}{kb_{coh}}$



For most nuclear well depths and well sizes, it is unlikely to obtain a positive coherent scattering length:

$$n = \sqrt{1 - \frac{N\lambda^2 b_{coh}}{\pi}}$$

Index of refraction is therefore <1 for most nuclei *

*In the vicinity of A~50 (V, Ti, Mn) nuclear sizes are such that b_{coh}<1 and thus n>1

Greene NNPSS July 2007



Neutrons will undergo complete "external" reflection from a polished surface for most materials

Ni or ⁵⁸Ni are particularly useful as a neutron mirror material

 $\theta_{crit}(Ni) \approx \frac{1.7 \times 10^{-3}}{\lambda (Angstrom)}$

For most neutron beams this means $\theta_{crit} \leq 10^{-2}$

Guide Section from SNS





Neutron Guides can be used to Focus Neutron Beams

Photo: Swiss Neutronics

Large Cross Section Guides are Commercially Available



Prototype Guide for SNS Ultracold Beam

Neutron Guide Installation at LANSCE


A Single Moderator can Feed Multiple Neutron Guides



Photo: Institut Laue Langevin

Reflectivity of Neutron Mirror

A Simple Neutron Mirror has Nearly Unit Reflectivity Up to a Maximum Critical Angle



The "Supermirror" Extends the "Effective" $\theta_{critical}$

Commercial Supermirror Neutron Guides are Available With $m \approx 3 - 4$





Commercial Supermirrors are available with m~4

Note that the number of layers scales as $\sim m^4$



Neutron Polarization

Neutron Polarization by Mirror Reflection

For a magnetic material, the index of refraction includes an additional spin dependent term:

$$n = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{Nb_{coh}}{\pi} \pm \frac{\mu B}{2\pi^2 \hbar^2}\right)}\lambda^2$$

For a judicious selection of material (~60% Fe-40% Co at saturation works quite well) it is possible to have n=1 for one state and n<1 for the other.



The reflected (or transmitted beam from such a mirror will be polarized)

Mirror Polarizers are Usually Configured as Multi-Channel "Benders"





Photo: Swiss Neutronics

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Some Advantages of Magnetic Supermirror Reflection Polarizers:

High Polarization ~99% Simple to Use Commercially Available Highly Reliable

Some Disadvantages of Magnetic Supermirror Reflection Polarizers:

Challenging to Accurately Determine Polarization Limited Range of Neutron Energies Beam is Deflected

Photo: Swiss Neutronics

Spin Polarized ³He Works as a Neutron Spin Filter

$$n + {}^{3}He \rightarrow {}^{3}H + p$$



 $\sigma_{J=0} = 5300 \text{ barn at } v_0 = 2200 \text{ m/s}$ $\sigma_{J=1} \approx 0$

For low energy neutron there is essentially NO capture in the triplet state

An un-polarized neutron beam incident on a Polarized ³He Target yields a polarized neutron beam. Accurate Absolute Determination of Polarization

Neutron polarization depends upon thickness of cell, pressure in cell, 3He polarization, etc. which are hard to measure to high accuracy

$$P_n = \tanh\left(\frac{\sigma^{\uparrow\downarrow}\rho_{He}dP_{He}}{2}\right)$$

However, the neutron transmission depends on the same parameters:

$$T_n = \cosh\left(\frac{\sigma^{\uparrow\downarrow}\rho_{He}dP_{He}}{2}\right)$$

The application of a few hyperbolic trigonometric identities provides a greatly simplified relation for the neutron polarization that is based only on (relatively) easy to measure neutron transmission:

$$P_{n} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{T_{0}^{2}}{T^{2}}}$$

Where T_0 is the transmission through the cell when unpolarized and *T* is the transmission when the cell is polarized.

³He Neutron Polarizer for $n+p \rightarrow d + \gamma$ Experiment



3He Optical Pumping Cell



3He Cell in Oven



Polarizer System on Beamline at LANSCE

Ultra Cold Neutrons

*see Golub, Richardson, Lamoreaux, Ultracold Neutrons





For sufficiently large neutron wavelength, λ , n=0 and $\cos\varphi_{crit}$ =90°

This implies that neutrons will be reflected at all angles and can be confined in a "bottle"

These are known as "Ultracold Neutrons."

Ultracold Neutron Energies are Very Low

The Fermi "Pseudo-Potential" the most advantageous materials is ~ 100 neV

This corresponds to a:

Neutron Velocity

Neutron Wavelength

Magnetic Moment Interaction

Gravitational Interaction

≈ 500 m/s

≈ 500 Å

 $\mu_n \cdot B \approx 100 \text{ neV for } B \sim 1 \text{Tesla}$

 $m_n gh \approx 100 \text{ neV for } h \sim 1 \text{ m}$

Ultracold Neutron can be trapped in material, magnetic, or gravitational bottles

"A Thermal" Source of UCN*

In thermal equilibrium:
$$\rho(v)dv = \frac{2\Phi_0}{\alpha} \frac{v^2}{\alpha^2} e^{-v^2/\alpha^2} \frac{dv}{\alpha}$$

$$\alpha \equiv \sqrt{\frac{2k_B T_n}{m}}$$

 $\Phi_{_0}$ is total thermal flux

For a maximum UCN energy V:

$$\rho_{UCN} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\Phi_0}{\alpha} \left(\frac{V}{k_B T_n} \right)^{3/2}$$

For $T \sim 300k$, $\alpha \sim 2.2x10^5$ cm/s, and $V \sim 250$ neV: $\rho_{UCN} = 10^{-13} \Phi_0 cm^{-3}$

The most intense neutron sources in the world (HFIR at ORNL or ILL) have $\Phi_0 \sim 10^{15} \text{ n/cm}^2/\text{s}$ So:

 $\rho_{\rm UCN} \approx 100 cm^{-3}$

*see Golub, Richardson, Lamoreaux, Ultracold Neutrons

Limits to Thermal UCN Production

In thermal equilibrium: $\rho_{UCN} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\Phi_0}{\alpha} \left(\frac{V}{k_B T_n} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}}$

Increase the Flux Φ_0 :

Reactors are at the practical limit of heat transfer. Only practical hope would be a 10-20 MW Spallation Source.

Lower the temperature T_n (also reduces α):

Practical limit for true moderator is about 20k which gives a density increase of ~x20

Practical Thermal Source Limit for UCN production:

$$\rho_{UCN} \approx 2 \cdot 10^3 cm^{-3}$$

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Super Thermal Source of UCN



- Neutrons of energy E ≈ 0.95 meV (11 k or 0.89 nm) can scatter in liquid helium to near rest by emission of a single phonon.
- Upscattering by absorption of an 11 k phonon is a UCN loss mechanism. But population of 11 K phonons is suppressed by a large Boltzman Factor: ~ e^{-11/T} where T~200 mk



Golub and Pendlebury (1977)

Fundamental Neutron Physics III

Neutron Beta Decay

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Neutron Beta Decay



Historical Digression

1934 Chadwick and Goldhaber make the first "precision" measurement of the neutron mass by looking at the photo-disassociation of the deuteron

$$hv + D^2 \rightarrow H^2 + n^0$$

Using 2.62MeV gammas from Thorium and determining the recoil energy of the protons they we re able to determine*:

 $M_n = 1.0080 \pm 0.0005$

$M_n > M_p + M_e$

It is energetically possible for a neutron to decay to e + p

*Chadwick and Goldhaber, Nature, 134 237 (1934)



Wolfgang Pauli



Enrico Fermi

- 1930 Pauli proposes the "neutrino" to explain apparent energy and angular momentum non-conservation in beta decay
- 1934 Fermi takes the neutrino idea seriously and develops his theory of beta decay



- 1935 The β decay of the neutron is predicted by Chadwick and Goldhaber based on their observation that $M_n > M_p + M_e$. Based on this ΔM , the neutron lifetime is estimated at $\sim \frac{1}{2}$ hr.
- 1948 Snell and Miller observe neutron decay at Oak Ridge
- 1951 Robson makes the first "measurement" of the neutron lifetime

$$n \rightarrow p^+ + e^- + \overline{v}_e$$

Fermi's View of Neutron Decay:



Modern View of Neutron Decay:



Processes with the same Feynman Diagram as Neutron Decay



After D. Dubbers

Introduction to Big-Bang Nucleosynthesis

The "Later" Big Bang



At this temperature, only familiar "nuclear physics" particles are present, the density is well below nuclear densities, and only well understood processes are relevant.

Neutrons and Protons are in thermal equilibrium through the processes:

$$v_e + n \leftrightarrow p^+ + e^-$$

 $e^+ + n \leftrightarrow p^+ + \overline{v}_e$

$$\frac{N_n}{N_p} = e^{-(m_n - m_p)/kT}$$

The "Later" Big Bang



Neutrino cross-sections are highly energy dependent and at this energy they become so small that neutrino scattering is insignificant. Thermal equilibrium between neutron and protons is no longer maintained.

$$\frac{N_n}{N_p} \approx \frac{1}{3}$$

If nothing else happened ALL the neutrons would decay via

$$n \rightarrow p^+ + e^- + \overline{\nu}$$

and the universe would be end up with only protons (Hydrogen)

Big Bang Nucleosynthesis



Nuclei are now stable against photo disassociation e.g.

$$n+p \to d+\gamma$$

and nuclei are quickly formed. The Universe is now ~87% protons & 13% neutrons

$3\frac{1}{2}$ min 10°K Nucleosynthesis Ends

Neutrons are all "used up" making ⁴He and the Universe is now has ~80% H and ~20% He.

Some of the Reactions in Big Bang Nucleosynthesis

$$n \rightarrow p + e + \overline{v}$$

$$p + n \rightarrow d + \gamma$$

$$p + D \rightarrow^{3}He + \gamma$$

$$D + D \rightarrow^{3}He + n$$

$$D + D \rightarrow T + p$$

$$D + T \rightarrow^{4}He + n$$

$$D + ^{3}He \rightarrow He + p$$

$$^{3}He + ^{3}He \rightarrow^{4}He + 2p$$

$$N_n = N_0 e^{-t/\tau_n}$$

Disassociation Energy 2.2MeV

. . . .

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Some of the Reactions in Big Bang Nucleosynthesis





Burles et al. 1999

The Cosmic He/H Ratio Depends upon three quantities:

1) The Cooling rate of the Universe

Given by the heat capacity of the Universe Determined mainly by the number of "light particles" ($m \le 1 \text{ MeV}$) Includes photons, electrons (positrons), neutrinos (x3)

- 2) The Rate at which Neutrons are decaying <u>The neutron lifetime</u>
- 3) The rate at which nuclear interactions occur Determined by the the logarithm of the density of nucleons (baryons)*

*Because of expansion, the "absolute" baryon density is decreasing with time so the density is scaled as the ratio of matter to photons. The Parameters of Big Bang Nucleosynthesis



We can "invert" this line of reasoning. If we measure the Helium Abundance and the Neutron Lifetime, we can determine the density of "ordinary" matter in the universe.



<u>A Brief Digression on the Mass of the Universe</u>

From Big Bang Nucleosynthesis, we conclude that, averaged over the entire universe today, <u>after expansion</u>, there are a few protons per cubic meter.

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Is this a lot, or this it a little?
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Compared to What?

A Scale for the Density of the Universe

- From red-shift observations we know that the Universe is in a state of (nearly) uniform expansion.
- If the density of the Universe is sufficiently high, this expansion will come to a stop and a universal collapse will ensue.
- If the density of the Universe is sufficiently low, it will expand forever.
- The critical density of the universe is given by the Hubble constant H, and the Gravitational constant G

$$\rho_{critical} = \frac{3}{8\pi} \frac{H^2}{G}$$

• We define:

$$\Omega$$
 = ho / $ho_{critical}$

A Lower Limit for Ω

By simply counting the number of visible stars and galaxies we find

$$0.005 \leq \Omega_{total}$$

From extremely simple reasoning we have:

$$0.005 \leq \Omega_{total} \leq 2.5$$

Ω is NOT necessarily constant over time

If $\Omega > 1$ at any time, Then Ω will continue to grow larger with time.

If $\Omega < 1$ at any time, Then Ω will tend toward zero with time.

Only if $\Omega = 1$ EXACTLY, will it stay constant for all time

We observe that Ω is NOW not too far from 1 (0.01 < Ω < 2.5). Thus:

Ω was <u>EXTREMELY</u> close to 1 early in the big bang (|Ω-1|≤10⁻¹⁶)

This raises the "Fine Tuning" question:

If Ω is very nearly equal to 1, is it exactly 1?

For a many compelling reasons ("fine tuning", inflation, microwave background,...), We strongly believe that

Big Bang Nucleosynthesis provides a determination of the Cosmic Baryon Density: $\Omega_{B} \equiv \frac{\rho_{Baryon}}{\rho_{critical}}$

$$\Omega_B = (3.3 \pm 0.7)\% \qquad BBN$$

This can be compared with the determination from the Cosmic Microwave Background:

$$\Omega_B = (2.3 \pm 0.1)\%$$
 CMB

The largest uncertainty to the nuclear theory of Big Bang nucleosynthesis is the experimental value of the neutron lifetime.