

A Method of Estimating Local Nuclear Fall-Out

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The method described herein is designed as an objective that is intermediate between operational requirements, and the requirements of a strictly scientific investigation. It is designed to include all the factors considered to be the most important factors to determine a fall-out pattern, with the idea that we might find out enough about what is going on to permit a good simplified method for operational use. The simplified version that is used for local fall-out forecasting is described in Section 3. This is the same as that by New Techniques Developed after AVAL, the "Simplified Method for Techniques" of the Task Force Study Report. It covered good ground for further investigation of the fall-out pattern is applicable to any range of release rates which a constant fall-out rate could be assumed.

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The basic assumptions of the method are as follows:

- a. The whole cloud, up to its height of stabilization, is formed instantaneously at the time of detonation. This is what we call the "initial cloud".
- b. In any height layer of the initial cloud, the concentration (radioactivity per unit volume) is distributed according to the Gaussian law

$$c(r, h, t) = c_0(h) \exp(-r^2/a_0^2)$$

where $c(h)$ is the central concentration at height h , r is the radial horizontal distance, and a_0 is a "radius parameter" (analogous to standard deviation) that is also considered to be a function of height. From this concentration it follows that the total amount of radioactivity in a slice of unit vertical thickness is $c_0(h) a_0^2$.

- c. Throughout all of any such layer, the radioactivity is distributed normally with respect to the direction of the rate of fall of the particles. The direction of fall of the particles is a function of radioactivity that falls with respect to the rate of fall $f(h)$ is given by

$$f(h) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \left(\frac{r}{a_0} \right) \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{a_0^2}\right)$$

where $f(h)$ is the rate of fall of particles of greatest radioactivity, and σ (also considered to be a function of height) is the standard deviation of the direction of fall, weighted according to radioactivity. $f(h)$ and $\sigma(h)$ are constant through the layer.

- d. The rate of fall of any particle is constant until it reaches the ground.
- e. Any particle that starts from the same point will follow a path entirely in accordance with the wind pattern, as for all other particles that fall at the same rate (and the same level will diffuse laterally from the central particle in such a way that the Gaussian distribution is maintained.

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During this process, the increase in the windward parameter is described by

$$\frac{B}{B_0} = \left(1 + \frac{B}{B_0} \right)^{0.1H} \left(\frac{S}{L} \right)^{0.1H}$$

where S is the distance traveled by the vertical particle until it reaches the ground. (It is to be noted that S is not the straight-line distance from the origin to the landing point unless all winds at all levels are in the same direction). ρ and σ are physical quantities that may be used to describe the process of diffusion. They are not at present regarded as functions of height. (The symbol ρ is merely an abbreviation for the quantity ρ/ρ_0).



$$\left(\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{d}{dt} \right) \right) \right)$$

From these assumptions it follows that the dose rate on the ground is

$$I = \frac{K}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^H \frac{C_0(h)}{C_0(0)} \exp \left(-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2} dh \frac{df}{f}$$

where K is dose rate per unit of radon concentration, H is the height of the top of the cloud, and r is the distance from the point at which the dose rate is estimated to each of the landing points of central particles. These landing points will depend on the wind pattern below the level from which the central particle is emitted, so that r is a function of h . The landing points also depend on the rate of fall, so that r is also a function of t . Changing time, rate of fall to time of fall, one obtains

$$r^2 = \left((x - X) - \bar{u}t \right)^2 + \left((y - Y) - \bar{v}t \right)^2$$

where (X, Y) are the rectangular coordinates of the point where dose rate is estimated, and \bar{u}, \bar{v} are the wind components in the same coordinate system, averaged up to the height h .

b. To say this more precisely

$$r^2 = \int_0^h \left(\bar{u}^2 + \bar{v}^2 \right) dt$$

noting that \bar{u} is the average speed in the direction of \bar{u} and \bar{v} are the components of \bar{u} . This assumption is correct if one is satisfied that the diffusion depends on the total horizontal distance travelled by a central particle. It is simpler to assume that the vertical distance should not be used, rather than to be complicated.

c. The significance of f and σ can now be introduced. If $m \ll \sigma$, then

$$\frac{d}{dt} \approx \frac{d}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} \approx \frac{d}{dx} \bar{u}$$

so that the lateral dispersion of any point of the cloud will increase

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as if the source had some finite size source located at a distance βz_0 behind. The dose rate is directly proportional to the distance travelled by the central particle. If β is positive then the particles of the cloud will diverge more rapidly, and if β is negative they will diverge less rapidly. One can prevent any divergence by making β infinite or by taking β equal to zero. This method of describing the diffusive process is similar to that of Fokker, but not exactly the same.

1. If $m = 2$, then it is frequently found that the area covered by a segment of cloud is proportional to the square of the time, as in Fokker's model. However, the proportionality factor varies, as \bar{w} varies with height, and so the proportionality factor changes with the cross-section of the cloud itself, and in these respects it differs from Fokker's model.

2. In order to obtain a relation between the change of wind speed f to t changes the exponent of the equation to

$$\frac{d^2 f(t)}{dt^2}$$

$$\frac{d^2 f(t)}{dt^2} = \frac{d^2 f(t)}{dt^2}$$

It is noted that the concentration in the initial cloud must be related to those that would have been found in the case for which the dose rate is being calculated.

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(continued)

- b. Information that is needed for a complete description:
 - c. the winds pattern at height z_0
 - d. z_0 , the height of the top of the cloud.
 - e. r_0 , the initial spread parameter, or σ through-out radius, as a function of height.
 - f. θ_0 , the central concentration or frequency of height in the initial cloud, adjusted to the law of the vertical diffusion.
 - g. f , the logarithmic normal variate (adjusted according to diffusibility), as a function of height in the initial cloud.
 - h. σ , the logarithmic standard deviation of the distribution as a function of height in the initial cloud.
 - i. μ , diffusion parameter, described above.
 - j. ν , diffusion parameter, described above.

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5. a. Testing of the model requires the use of high speed computing machinery. With such machinery one can make large changes in the quantities described above, proceeding in a trial and error fashion. In order to achieve some degree of objectivity, the following approach is adopted.
- b. The logarithm of the ratio of estimated to observed dose rate is estimated at a number of points (say, 1000). This quantity is called γ (gamma). Then the mean γ , and the standard variance of the individual γ 's about the mean γ , are calculated. This process is repeated for a number of values of the parameter in question, (say, 10) for example. One then plots the variance against the mean, and selects as the best value the one that gives the best system. One then searches for other parametric quantities, and treats them in the same way, being sure that there is not too much correlation between the values of the different types of parameters.
- c. It will be noted that this procedure is the "least squares" method. One wants the least variance of γ in the distribution. In principle it is possible to get more variance (in the model) than each calculated value is, for example, to only use 90% of the observed value. One would then accept 10% of the variance that is specified in the model. If, however, one would obtain a good fit with only 10% of the observed activity (assuming, for example, one would have to examine other possibilities, one would first look to see whether the large fraction of the activity was excluded from the distribution. If one could not explain it is not practical to go all the way from 90% to 100% and part of the activity might be explained by other means. If no explanation follows, and if the fit is not too good, one has to conclude that the least squares criterion, in the form given here, is not useful. We have not yet considered this particular question.

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The method of approach is subject to the old criticist ranting as follows: By subdividing the depth of the cloud at will, you can obtain as many discrete parameters of a_0 , c_0 , f , etc. as you wish, so that you should be able to fit any number of observations exactly. This is true in principle, but if you select a set of values that look reasonable, and use it to see how it compares with yield over a wide range, the method can serve a useful practical purpose even though the values might be subjectively chosen.

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- a. For machine interpretation, using the IBM Model 701 "Defense Calculator", those parametric quantities (a, c, d, e, f) and the mean wind components ($\bar{u}, \bar{v}, \bar{w}$), which are functions of height, may be loaded as tables of data. The total height of the "spiral cloud", H , may be divided into M equal layers, each identified by an integer $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, (M-1)$. The time variable is likewise represented within each time being identified by an integer $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$. N may be any even value less than or equal to the maximum value of M to 32. N may be any even value less than or equal to the maximum value of M to 32. N may be any even value less than or equal to the maximum value of M to 32. The exponential factor in the formula is considered as zero if the absolute value of the exponent is less than a value ϵ which may be as large as 10.
- b. The coding is so arranged that the time integration is performed first and the height integration second. If desired, the fraction of the dose rate that enters each cell may also be computed and may be printed along with the calculated dose rates. The dose rates and the coefficients of the functions may be printed or may be printed and stored only the distribution dose rates and a list of the preselected series of locations.
- c. The codes are not yet frozen, and additional features are being added from time to time. We have two codes: (1) a "fixed point" code as outlined above, and (2) a "floating point" code that is more flexible and which is more flexible in scope.

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Since starting on this problem about seven months ago, a considerable part of the time has been spent on making and debugging, which we undertook ourselves in order to learn how to use the Model (OI). Using Bravo fall-out data, we demonstrated that best overall predictions could be obtained for the various post-war quantities considered. However, the "best" values, as selected in this way, gave instead of the best predictions that were only 20 to 25% of the observed values, and the fit was not good. We then turned attention to Nevada data for which we became interested in an approximation that would be of the same order of accuracy as one of the two steps in the double integration. Before this possibility had been fully explored, Mr. Ray Shelton, who was operating the Nevada, joined forces with us, and we worked together for a week or two on this data. Mr. Shelton then took the data to Livermore and continued working on the Nevada data, while we turned attention again to the Bravo data. Mr. Shelton has reported recently that the values given for Nevada are within 10% and 20-25, and he is continuing work on other data. Mr. Shelton has started on the problem of predicting the fallout out on the assumption that practically all of the activity in the fallout cloud is in the tropopause. To date, our method of calculation has not succeeded in giving satisfactory results, although the wind speed which is used in the fall-out model is nearly the right value. At this point we feel, therefore, that we do not have any model in which we have confidence. We have merely a rough idea of calculation, the value of which has not been proven as far as Bravo is concerned.

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 BY W. H. Miller
 DATE 2/4/56

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100-100000-100000
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... making any adjustments, clouded field for 1 day, we tackled the "homework"
 ... conditions as a general rule, 1/4 does not justify a description.
 ... values that occurred in the distribution over

	<u>1 MT</u>	<u>50 MT</u>
Height of cloud (ft above)	31.5	19.0
Height of water (ft above)	7.0	7.0
a for surface (ft above)	0.94	4.58
for water (ft above)	0.31	1.49

Data: 9.25 for 1.0 for 1.0

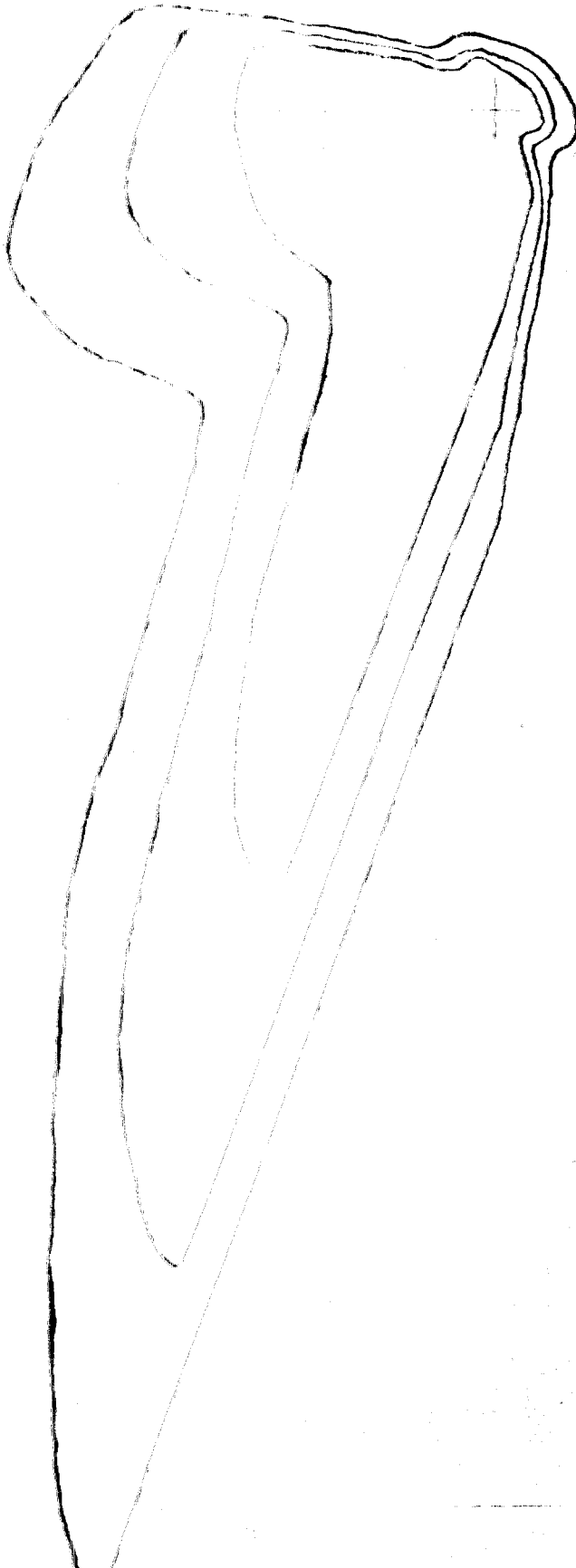
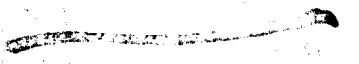
The value of ϵ was taken as zero along to the tropopause, and there-
 fore determined with the density. (The radio program requires only the
 ... of relative values, from which the actual values are adjusted so that
 ... total is 100% (the total of the above is in accordance with the field).
 ... height is a function of ... to the 10 days of the ... is
 ... from, according to the ... (100% for 10 days)

Layers: 1 thru 4 10

▪ 5	1	8	7.2
▪ 9	1	10	10.7
▪ 13	1	14	14

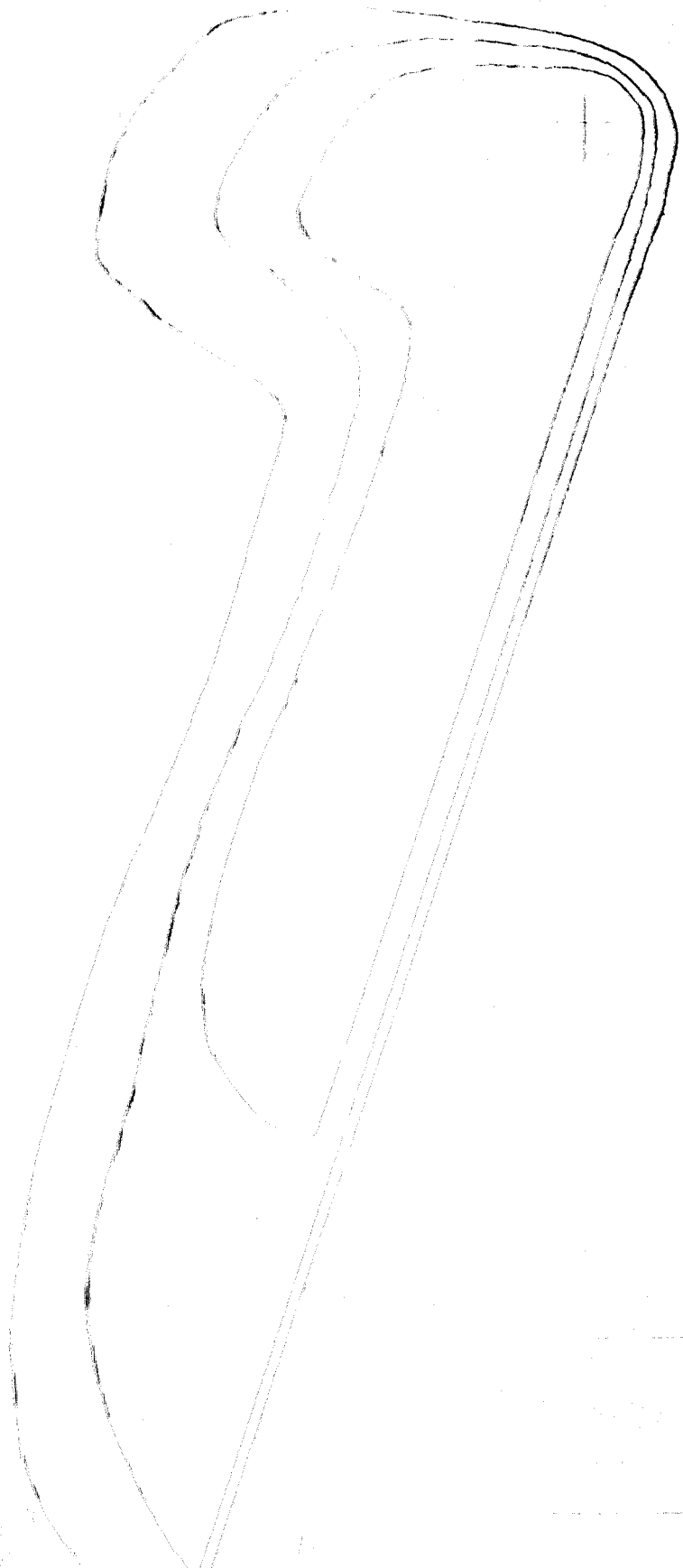
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100-100000-100000



NAUTICAL MILES

Contour interval 2, 4, 12 and 20 FT
Contour interval 2, 4, 12 and 20 FT
1:25,000



+

0 10 20 30
Nautical Miles

CONTINUATION OF MAP - 50 MP and 1 MP

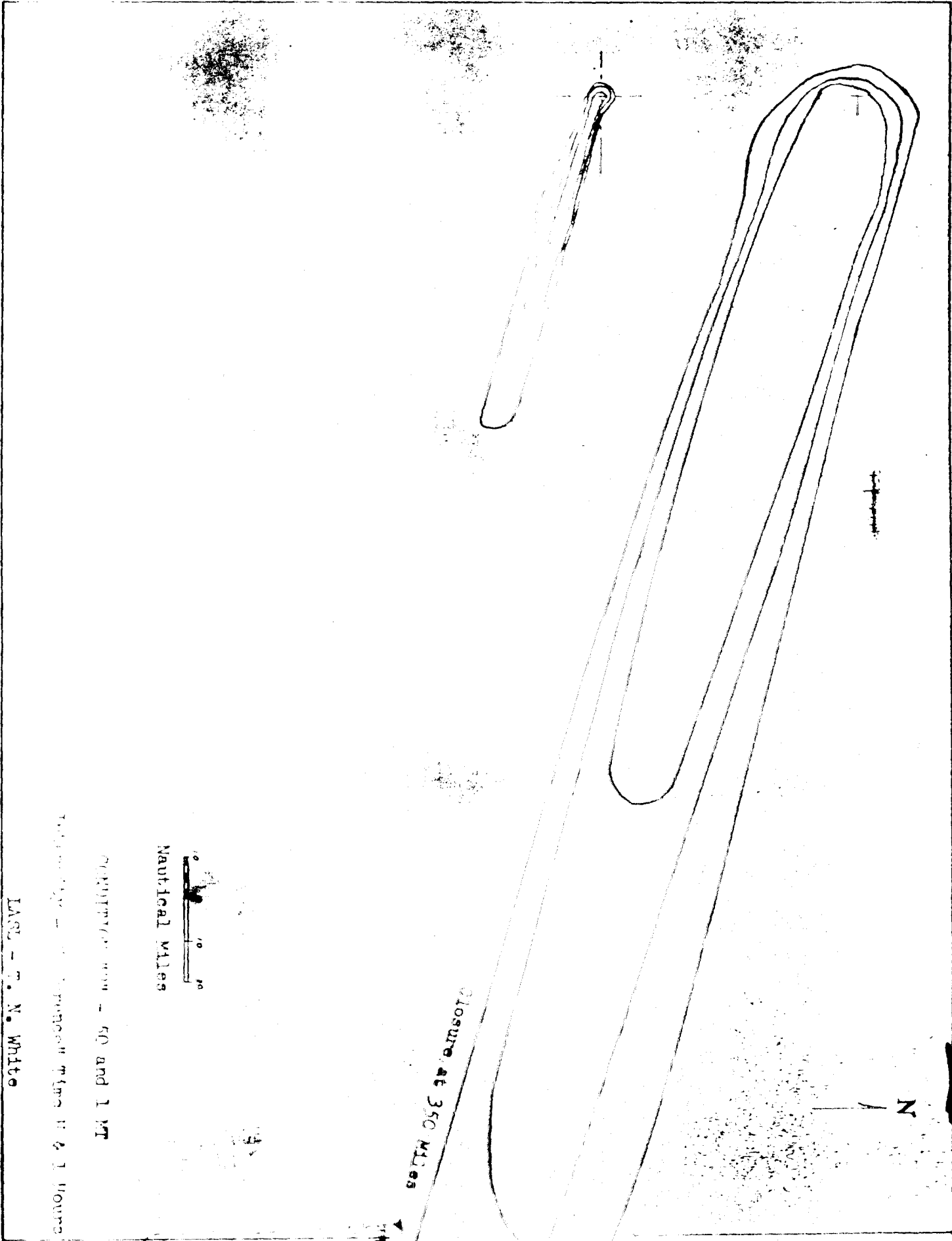
Scale - 1:100,000

DATE - 10/10/50

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1952



0 10 20
Nautical Miles

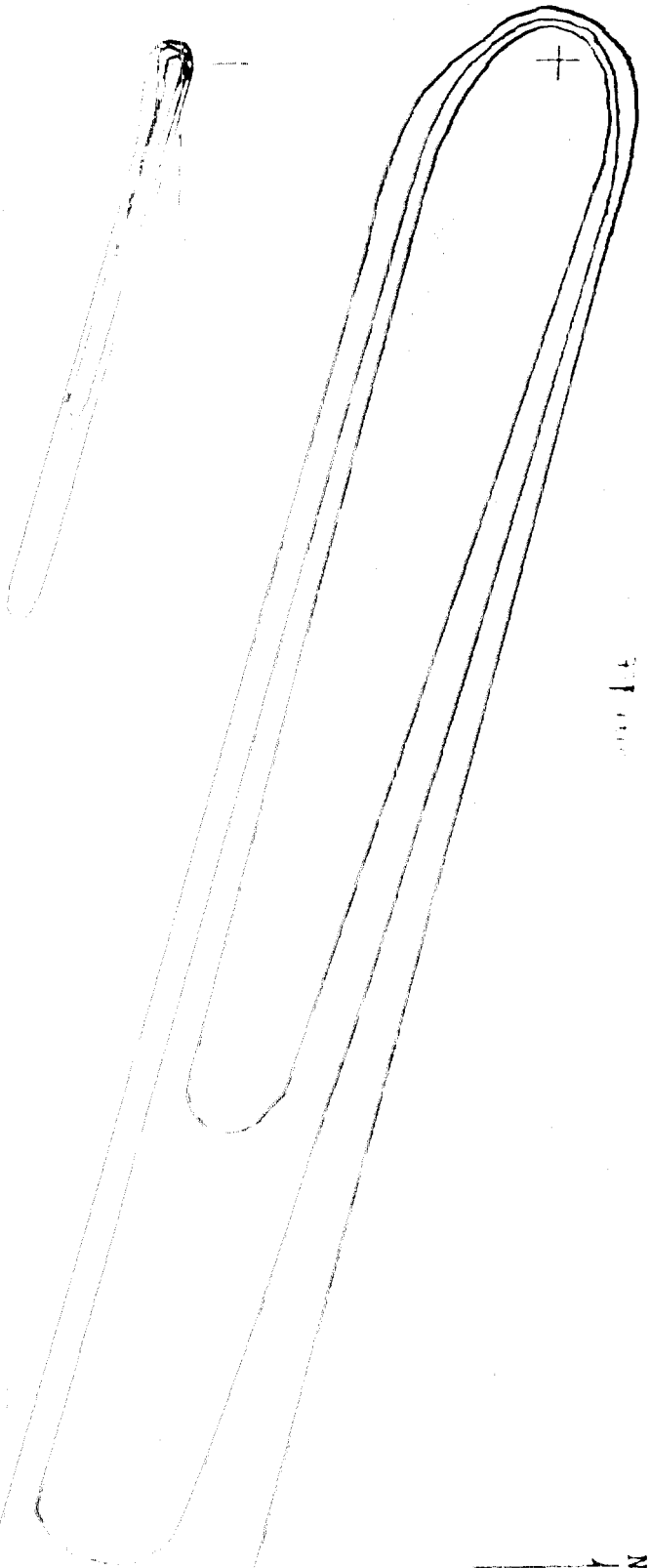
Equipment used - 50 and 1 BT

Reference - ...

LAST - T. N. White

Closure at 350 Miles

N



100 ft

N

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NAUTICAL MILES

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COMMUNICATIONS - 50 MT and 1 MT

TO 49 HOURS

BY - P. N. WHITE