

A Method of Estimating Local Area Fall-Out

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The method described herein is designed to be objective that is intermediate between operational procedures, and the standards of a strictly scientific investigation. It is designed to include all the factors considered to be the most important factors to the estimate of local area fall-out, with the idea that we might find out enough about what is going on to present a good simplified method for operational use. Our simplified version was developed for local fall-out forecasting is described in Section 4. The method is being by New Techniques Developed after NDAV, Year 2000 from the "New Techniques" of the Task Force Cable Report. It is hoped that it will lead to further investigation of the problem of local area fall-out to any degree of accuracy which a constant method could be derived.

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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 laterally according to the Gaussian law

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

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

- 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. Hence at any distance  $x$ , the direction of radioactivity that falls with speed  $v$  in the time  $t$  is given by

$$\frac{dx}{v} = \frac{1}{v} \left( \frac{dx}{dt} \right) dt = \frac{1}{v} \left( \frac{dx}{dt} \right) dt$$

where  $f(h)$  is the fall rate (or velocity) of particles of constant radioactivity, and  $\bar{v}$  (also considered to be a function of height) is the standard deviation of the logarithm of  $f(h)$ , weighted according to radioactivity.  $f(h)$  and  $\bar{v}(h)$  are constant through the layer.

- d. The rate of fall of any particle is constant until it reaches the ground.
- e. Any particle that survives to the ground (or level  $l$ ) follows a path entirely in accordance with the wind pattern, as do all other particles that fall at the same rate from 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 wind parameter is described by

$$\frac{dW}{dz} = \left( \frac{1}{W} + \frac{1}{S} \right) \frac{dS}{dz} + \frac{dW}{dz} \frac{dS}{dz}$$

where S is the distance traveled by the orbital 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). *Wind* is a general quantity that may be used to describe the motion of orbitals. They are not at present regarded as a function of height. (The quantity  $\frac{dW}{dz}$  is merely an abbreviation for the quantity  $\frac{dW}{dz}$ ).



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

$$I = \frac{K}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^H \frac{C_0(h)}{a(h)^2} \exp\left(-\frac{r}{a(h)}\right) \left(1 + \frac{r^2}{a^2(h)}\right) dh \frac{dr}{r}$$

where  $K$  is dose rate per unit of source 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 leading points of central particles. These leading points will depend on the wind pattern below the level from which the material is released, so that  $r$  is a function of  $h$ . The leading points also depend on the side of fall, so that  $r$  is also a function of  $\theta$ . Changing from side of fall to time of fall, one obtains

$$r^2 = \left( (x - X) + \frac{y - Y}{\tan \theta} \right)^2 + \left( (y - Y) \cos \theta \right)^2$$

where  $(X, Y)$  are the coordinates of the point where dose rate is estimated, and  $x, y$  are the coordinates of the same coordinate system, extended up to the height  $h$ .

b. To my knowledge

$$I = \frac{K}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^H \frac{C_0(h)}{a(h)^2} \exp\left(-\frac{r}{a(h)}\right) \left(1 + \frac{r^2}{a^2(h)}\right) dh$$

noting that  $\bar{v}$  is the average velocity (speed of direction). ( $\bar{u}$  and  $\bar{v}$  are  $\frac{1}{2}(\bar{u}_1 + \bar{u}_2)$  and  $\frac{1}{2}(\bar{v}_1 + \bar{v}_2)$  the components of  $\bar{v}$ ). This expression is correct if one is satisfied that the diffusion depends on the total horizontal distance travelled by each particle. It is difficult to assure that the vertical distance should be the same, plus or minus some complicated.

c. The significance of  $\theta$  and  $\theta_0$  can now be derived. If  $\theta = \theta_0$ , then

$$\frac{a}{a_0} = \frac{r_0}{r} \frac{1}{\cos \theta}$$

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

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is if the source had been further from the source located at a distance  $r_{00}$  beyond. The value of  $r_{00}$  is directly with distance travelled by the central particle. If  $r_{00}$  is greater than  $r_0$ , the surfaces of the cloud will diverge more rapidly, and if  $r_{00}$  is less than  $r_0$  they will diverge less rapidly. One can prevent any divergence by making  $\beta$  infinite or by making  $r_{00}$  equal to zero. While a cloud of describing the diffusive process in similar to that of Foltin, but not exactly the same.

1. If  $n = 2$ , the  $r_{00}$  is directly proportional to  $t$ , the area covered by a segment of cloud is proportional to the square of the time, as in Foltin's model. However, the proportionality factor varies, as  $\bar{w}$  varies with height, and another, the overall  $r_{00}$  proportionality factor changes with the overall strength of the cloud itself, and in these respects it differs from Foltin's model.

2. In addition to the basic condition, an change of variable from  $r$  to  $x$  changes the argument of the integral to

$$\int_0^x \frac{f(x)}{h}$$

$$\int_0^x \frac{f(x)}{h} dx$$

It notes also that concentrations in the initial cloud must be related to those that would have resulted if the time for which the dose rate is being calculated.

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Information needed for a calculation is then:

- a. the winds pattern at height  $z$  up to  $H$
- b.  $H$ , the height of the top of the cloud
- c.  $\rho_0$ , the initial (ground level) dry air density, as a function of height.
- d.  $C_0$ , the central concentration of droplets of height in the initial cloud, adjusted to the size of the cloud considered.
- e.  $f$ , the logarithmic growth rate (with respect to coagulation), as a function of height in the initial cloud.
- f.  $G_0$ , the logarithmic standard deviation of the distribution as a function of height in the initial cloud.
- g.  $\gamma$ , diffusion parameter, droplet growth.
- h.  $\delta$ , diffusion parameter, evaporation.



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5. a. Testing of the method requires the use of high speed computing machinery. With such machinery one can vary a large range in the quantities described above, proceeding to a total and final check. In order to achieve some degree of objectivity, the following approach is adopted.
  - b. The logarithm of the ratio of observed to expected case rate is estimated at a number of points (usually 100). This quantity is called  $\gamma$  (gamma). Then the mean  $\gamma$ , and the individual variance of the individual  $\gamma$ 's about the mean  $\gamma$ , are calculated, and the process is repeated for a number of values of the expected case rate, 1000 for example. One then plots the variance against the mean  $\gamma$  as the best value the one that gives the least variance. One then varies the other parametric quantities, and treats them in the same way, being sure that there is not too much correlation between the effects of the different types of parameters.
    - c. It will be noted that this application of the "least squares" method demands the use of a large amount of calculation. In principle it is possible to get some answers (the mean  $\gamma$ ) from such a calculated value as, for example, an only one year old observed value. One would then accept a 10% of the expected activity for a fixed  $\gamma$  on the criterion. If, however, one would obtain a year's record with only 10% of the expected activity recorded for, one would have to consider other possibilities. One would first look to see whether any large fraction of the activity was excluded from the population. In the effort to separate it is not practical to exclude the very few cases of definite value, and part of the activity might have been included in the data group chosen. If a plausible explanation follows, and if the data are not good, one has to conclude that the least squares criterion, as used here, is not useful. We have not yet considered this possibility in detail.

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The method of approach is subject to the charge of old-fashioned criticism running as follows: (a) subdividing the range of the cloud at will, you can obtain as many discrete parameter values of  $a_0, a_1, \dots$  as you wish, so that you should be able to fit any number of observations exactly. This is true, but the danger is not to select a set of values that look reasonable, and are in accord with what is known with yield over a wide range, the method can serve a useful practical purpose even though the values might be individually unwise.



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- a. For machine interpretation, using the new Model 701 "Defense Calculator", those parametric quantities  $(a, c, v, \text{ and } f)$  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 profile  $(H)$  is now divided into  $M$  equal layers, each identified by an integer  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots (M-1)$ . The time variable is now more sophisticated with time being identified by an integer  $j = 1, 2, 3, \dots N$  where  $N$  has a maximum value of  $M$  to 32.  $N$  may be any value that doesn't take too much machine time, and the minimum and maximum limits of the time integration may be changed at will. The exponential factor  $\exp(-\lambda z)$  is now set as zero if the absolute value of the exponent is less than a value  $\lambda$  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. At each iteration, the fraction of the base area that covers the earth surface is now computed and may be printed along with the coordinates of every 3 base sites and the coordinates of low locations. In order to save this printing and obtain only the statistics, base points and low sites for a preselected series of locations.
- c. The codes are not yet frozen, and sufficient features are being added from time to time. We have two codes: (1) a "fixed 40000 point" code as outlined above, and (2) a "flexible 40000 point" code that is more general and which is more flexible in most respects.

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Since starting on this problem about seven months ago, a considerable part of the time has been spent on studying the data, which we undertook ourselves in order to learn how to use the Model 701. Using Bravo fall-out data, we determined that best fit conditions could be obtained for the various points which we had the data. However, the "best" values, as selected in 1954, gave almost identical predictions that were only 20 to 25% of the observed values, and the fit was not good. We then turned attention to the data for Nevada, and became interested in an approximation that would be of the same type of approximation, one of the two steps in the double integration. Before this year the data had been fully explored, but the data, and some special data, joined forces with us, and we did a lot of work on the Nevada data. Mr. Shelton then took over the data for Nevada, and we worked on the Nevada data, while we looked at the data for the Nevada data. Mr. Shelton has reported recently that the Nevada data is very close to the 1954 and UK-7, and he is continuing to work on the data. We have been working on the problem of predicting the Nevada data on the assumption that practically all of the activity in the Nevada area is from the Nevada area. To date, our method of calculation has not been able to give satisfactory results, and we think the Nevada data is still a mystery. We think the fall-out occur in Nevada nearly the right place. At this point we feel, therefore, that we do not have any good model in which we have confidence. We have merely a number of calculations that have not been proved as far as Bravo is concerned.

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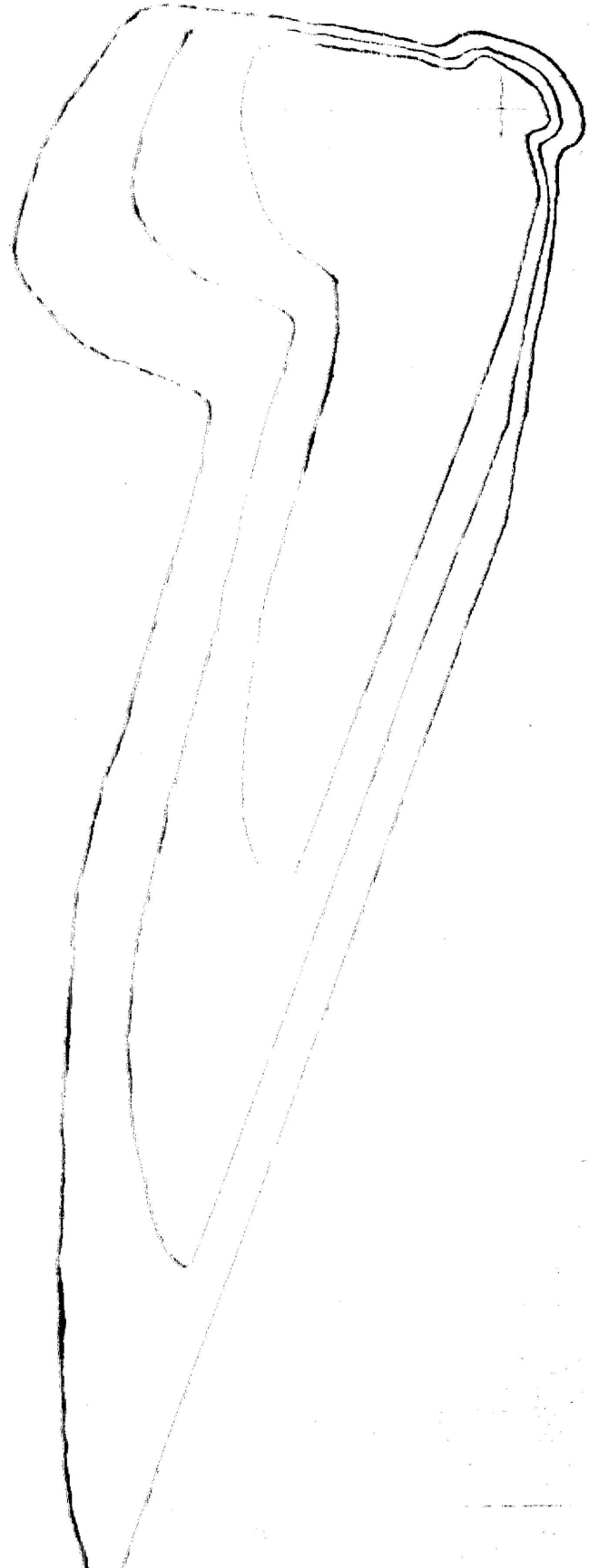
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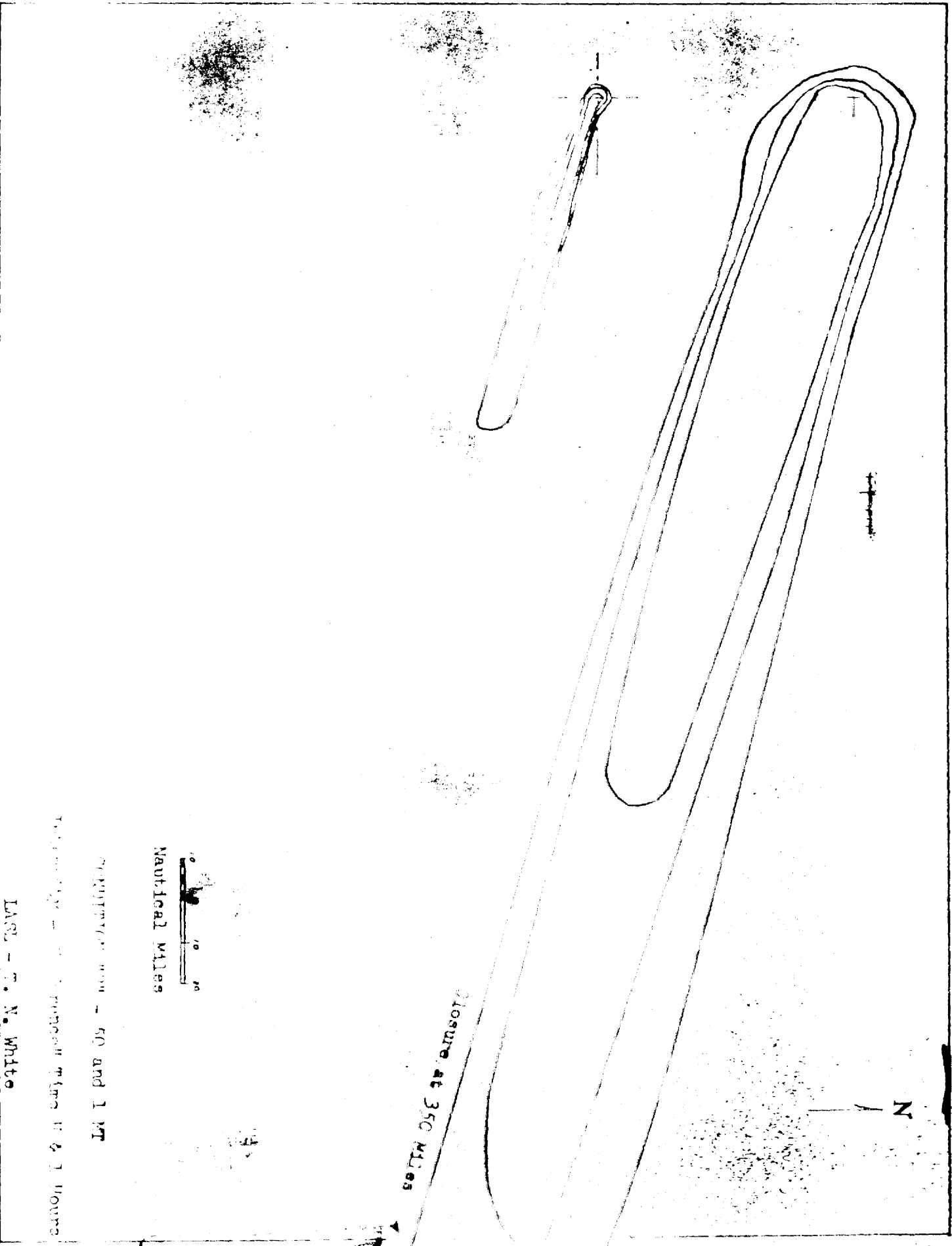
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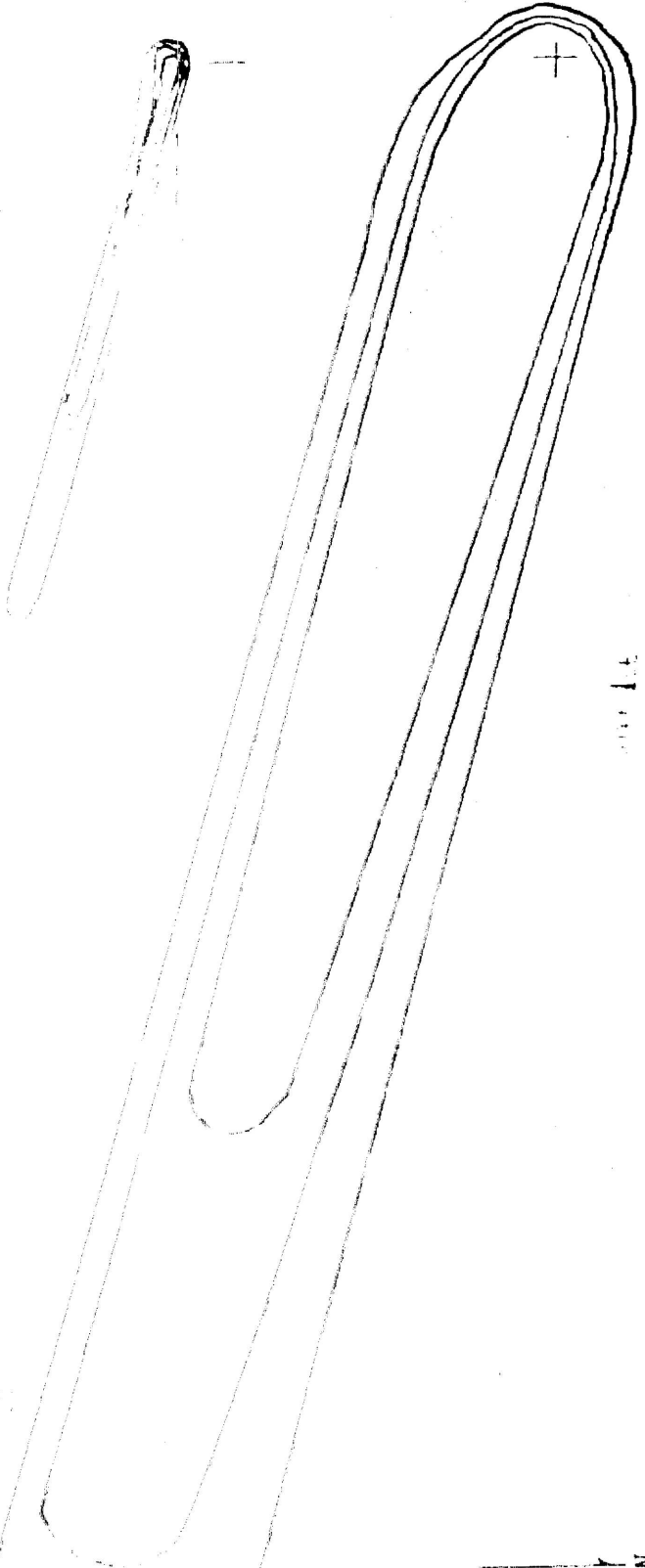
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