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2015 LLNL NF Summer Program Report_Final

A. Kersting

October 28, 2015

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2015 LLNL Nuclear Forensics Summer Program

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PHOTO OF 2015 GROUP OF STUDENTS



Annie Kersting, Director, Glenn T. Seaborg Institute (far left), and 2015 Nuclear Forensics Summer Program Students.

The Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (LLNL) Nuclear Forensics Summer Program is designed to give graduate students an opportunity to come to LLNL for 8–10 weeks for a hands-on research experience. Students conduct research under the supervision of a staff scientist, attend a weekly lecture series, interact with other students, and present their work in poster format at the end of the program. Students also have the opportunity to meet staff scientists one-on-one, participate in LLNL facility tours (e.g., the National Ignition Facility and Center for Accelerator Mass Spectrometry) to gain a better understanding of the multi-disciplinary, on going science at LLNL.

Currently called the Nuclear Forensics Summer Program, this program began 15 years ago as the Actinide Sciences Summer Program. The program is run within the Glenn T. Seaborg Institute in the Physical and Life Sciences Directorate at LLNL. The goal of the Nuclear Forensics Summer Program is to facilitate the training of the next generation of nuclear scientists and engineers to solve critical national security problems in the field of nuclear forensics and have the students participate in conducting research at LLNL. We select students who are majoring in physics, chemistry, geology, mathematics, nuclear engineering, chemical engineering and environmental sciences. Students engage in research projects in the disciplines of actinide chemistry, radiochemistry, isotopic analysis, computational analysis, radiation detection, and nuclear engineering in order to strengthen the “pipeline” for future scientific disciplines critical to DHS (DNDO), NNSA.

This is a competitive program with over 50 applicants for the 6-8 slots available. Students also come on paid internships from NNSA, DHS. Students come highly recommended from universities all over the country. For example, this year we hosted students from 7 different universities. (See Table 1). This year's students conducted research on such diverse topics as actinide (Np, U, Pu) isotopic fingerprinting, statistical modeling in nuclear forensics, environmental radiochemistry, heavy element separations chemistry, radiation detector physics development, nuclear chemistry, and scintillator materials development (see Table 2.) Graduate students are invited to return for a second year at their mentor's discretion. We encourage continuation of research collaboration between graduate student, faculty advisor, and LLNL scientists.

In addition to hands-on training, students attend a weekly lecture series on topics applicable to the field of nuclear forensics (see Table 3). Speakers are experts from both within LLNL and the national community. Speakers are able to discuss the importance of their work in the context of advances in the field of nuclear forensics.

Graduate and undergraduate students on fellowships such as the Nuclear Forensics Graduate Fellowship are invited into our summer program. They usually come for 8-9 weeks and can return the following summer or stay throughout the year depending on their research needs. This year we had 1 Nuclear Forensic undergraduate join our program (Table 1, noted by an asterisks). We also had 2 Nuclear Forensic graduate students and 7 returning graduate students that were funding on other nuclear science fellowships.

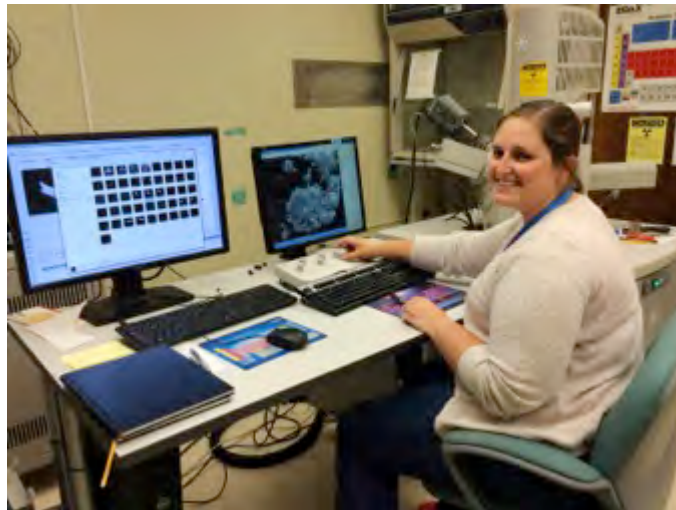
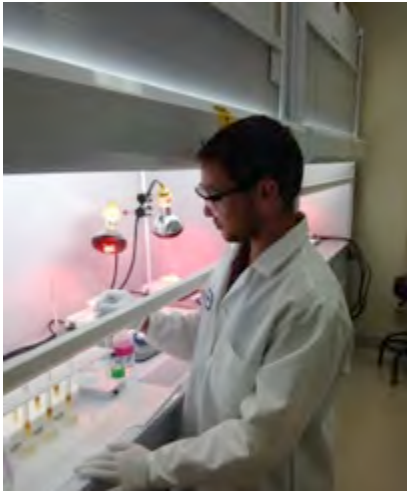
We also host students who are participating in the DOE-sponsored "Summer School in Radiochemistry" course held at San Jose State University and have recruited from this program. They come for a day, meet our summer students, see the research our students are doing, and tour our facilities.

We use our summer program to help develop a successful pipeline of top-quality students from universities across the U.S. Since 2002, 30-40% have returned to conduct their graduate research at LLNL:

- 14 became postdoctoral fellows at LLNL.
- 6 became postdoctoral fellows at other national labs.
- 9 were hired as career scientists at LLNL.
- 3 were hired as career scientists at other national labs.
- 3 were hired as faculty in the area of nuclear forensics/radiochemistry/nuclear science.

A big factor in the success of this program is the dedication of the staff scientists who volunteer to mentor the summer students. In FY14, funding from the Nuclear Forensics Graduate Mentoring Program (sponsor: DNDO) helped to partially support the time staff took to teach the summer interns. Staff scientists were able to take the necessary time to develop an appropriate summer project for their student, oversee necessary safety training, and dedicate more time to helping the interns maximize their productivity and scientific potential.

The posters presented at our Laboratory Student Poster Day are included at the end of this report.







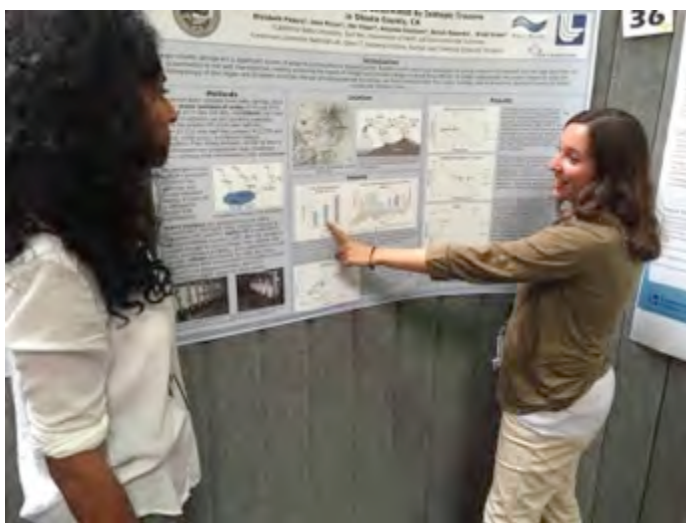
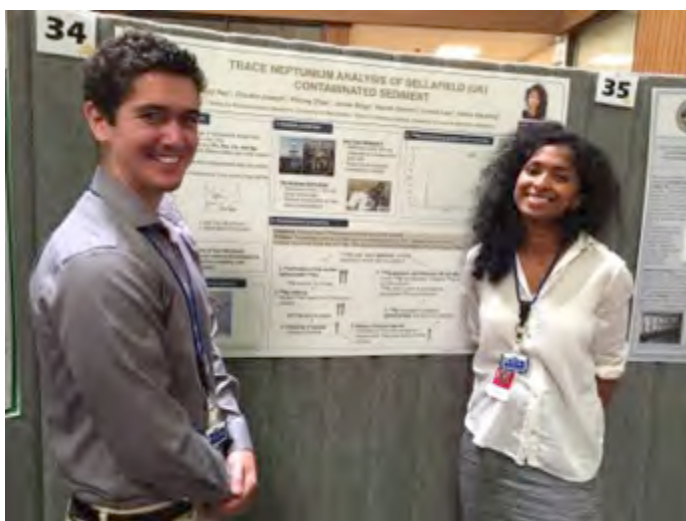
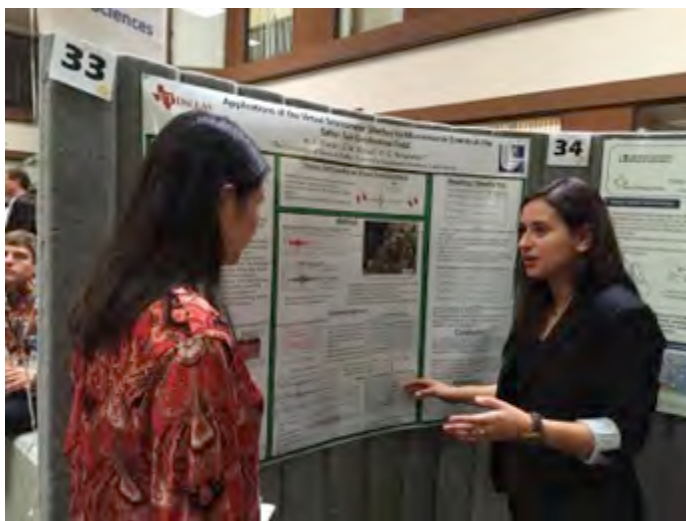


Table 1. Summer Students

Student	Major	University	Year
Merritt Earle**	Environmental Engineering and Earth Sciences	Clemson University	Undergrad
John “Jack” Goodell	Nuclear Chemistry	University of Maryland, College Park	Grad
Kathryn “Katie” Hoffman	Chemistry	University of Cincinnati	Grad
Rachel King Lopez	Civil and Environmental Engineering and Earth Sciences	University of Notre Dame	Grad
Elizabeth Peters	Geology	California State University East Bay	Grad
Andrea Rhode	Geosciences	University of Texas at Dallas	Grad
Colin Thomas	Nuclear Engineering	Georgia Institute of Technology	Grad

*= Nuclear Forensics Graduate Fellows ** = Nuclear Forensics Undergraduate Intern

Table 2. Student Projects and Mentors

Student	Mentor	Project
Merritt Earle**	Mavrik Zavarin Annie Kersting	GC-MS Characterization of Plutonium Interaction with Acetohydroxamic Acid
John “Jack” Goodell	Brian Bandong Christine Egnatuk	Simulation of Activation Product Gamma-Ray Spectra for Nuclear Forensics
Kathryn “Katie” Hoffman	Ruth Kips Mike Kristo	Preparation of Uranium Oxide Dispersions for Nuclear Forensics Morphological Analysis
Rachel King Lopez	Amy Gaffney Theresa Kayzar	A New Tool in the Nuclear Forensics Tool Box: Exploring Thorium Isotope Compositions of UOCs and Ore-UOC Pairs
Elizabeth Peters	Brad Esser	Groundwater Properties Determined by Isotopic Tracers in Shasta County, CA
Andrea Rhode	Eric Mazel Dennise Templeton	Applications of the Virtual Seismometer Method to Microseismic Events at the Salton Sea Geothermal Field
Colin Thomas	Brett Isselhardt	Modeling Tools for Resonance Ionization Mass Spectrometry

* = Nuclear Forensics Undergraduate Intern ** = Nuclear Forensics Graduate Fellows

Table 3. Seminar Schedule

Date	Speaker	Topic
6/18/14	Ruth Kips Staff Scientist, Chemical and Isotopic Signatures Group, Nuclear and Chemical Sciences Division	Nuclear Forensic Research: Science for National Security
6/25/14	James Begg Staff Scientist, Environmental Radiochemistry Group, Nuclear & Chemical Sciences Division	Biogeochemistry and the Fate of Plutonium in the Environment
7/2/14	Dawn Shaughnessy Group Leader, Experimental Nuclear and Radiochemistry, Nuclear & Chemical Sciences Division	Superheavy Element Discovery at LLNL
7/15/14	Amy Gaffney Staff Scientist, Chemical & Isotopic Signatures Group, Nuclear & Chemical Sciences Division	Chronometry of Geologic and Nuclear Materials
	Brett Isselhardt Staff Scientist, Chemical & Isotopic Signatures Group, Nuclear & Chemical Sciences Division	Resonance Ionization Mass Spectrometry Analysis for Nuclear Forensics
7/23/14	Brad Esser Group Leader, Environmental Radiochemistry, Nuclear & Chemical Sciences Division	Characterizing California Groundwater with Isotopes: Applications to the Drought and Climate Change
7/28/14	Gareth Law University of Manchester's School of Chemistry and the Dalton Nuclear Institute	Shining Light on the UK Nuclear Legacy
8/7/14	Annie Kersting Director, Glenn T. Seaborg Institute, Physical and Life Sciences Directorate	Closing out the Program

²Lawrence Livermore National Lab, 7000 East Ave. Livermore, CA 94550

Figure 1 - Derivatization Product Identification

Abundance

Time

M20 (Nalco)

M20 (Nalco)

Figure 2 - Calibration Curve

The calibration curve shows a strong positive linear correlation between Absorbance and Concentration (ppm). The regression line is defined by the equation $R^2 = 0.99722$.

Concentration (ppm)	Absorbance
0.5	0.15
1.0	0.30
5.0	3.50
10.0	7.00

```

graph TD
    A[MQ Blank] --> B[Derivatization on 500 µL  
(repeated at 0, 1, 4, 8 days)  
LSC at 0, 1, 4, 8 days]
    A --> C[50 µL for LSC]
    A --> D[Lp3 oxidation state analysis]
    A --> E[Derivatization on 500 µL  
(repeated at 0, 1, 4, 8 days)  
LSC at 0, 1, 4, 8 days]
    
    F[1PPM AHA] --> B
    F --> C
    F --> D
    F --> E
    
    G[1PPM Pu] --> B
    G --> C
    G --> D
    G --> E
    
    H[1PPM Pu + 1PPM AHA] --> B
    H --> C
    H --> D
    H --> E
  
```

The flowchart illustrates the experimental workflow for the study. It begins with four sample types: MQ Blank, 1PPM AHA, 1PPM Pu, and 1PPM Pu + 1PPM AHA. Each sample type follows a similar sequence of steps: Derivatization on 500 µL (repeated at 0, 1, 4, 8 days) and LSC (at 0, 1, 4, 8 days), followed by 50 µL for LSC, and finally Lp3 oxidation state analysis. The final step for all samples is Derivatization on 500 µL (repeated at 0, 1, 4, 8 days) and LSC (at 0, 1, 4, 8 days).

[illegible]

¹R. J. Taylor, I. May, I. S. Denniss, A. L. Wallwork, G. Hunt, S. Hutchison, V. Richards, N. J. Hill, Proc. RECOD 98, European Nuclear Society, Nice, 1998, p. 417.
²Taylor R. J., Dennis I. S., May I., 2000 Hydroxamic Acids – Novel Agents for Advanced Porex Process, Atalante 2000, Avignon, France, P2-15.

Simulation of Activation Product Gamma-Ray Spectra for Nuclear Forensics

J. J. Goodell¹, C. M. Egnatuk², B. B. Bandong²

1) University of Maryland – Department of Chemistry & Biochemistry

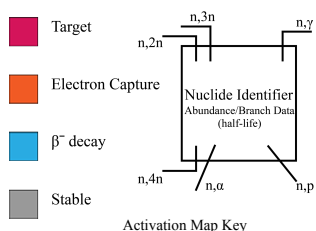
2) Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory – Nuclear & Chemical Sciences Division, Physical & Life Sciences Directorate



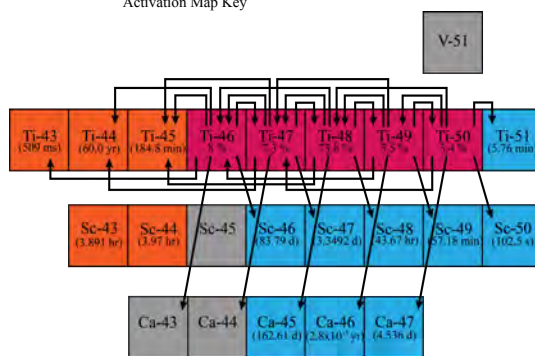
INTRODUCTION: Nuclear forensics is the science of source and route attribution of nuclear materials – what is it? where did it come from? who is responsible? The process of developing diagnostic tools and material/device signatures to answer these questions has become increasingly reliant on simulations due to the ban on nuclear testing and limited availability of resources. Signatures for fission products and the actinides are well understood, but there is little information available regarding the activation products of elements in more commonly used materials. To remedy this, we simulate the activation of these more common elements to identify any nuclides having high diagnostic value. This is accomplished through high-resolution gamma-ray spectroscopy using a high-purity germanium detector (HPGe). Here we present the resulting simulated gamma-ray spectra from the activation of 2 transition metals: gold (Au) and titanium (Ti).

OBJECTIVE: Identify activation products (APs) of commonly used materials which have high diagnostic value – easily distinguishable characteristic gamma-ray peaks with appropriate half-lives – to strengthen the nuclear forensics toolkit.

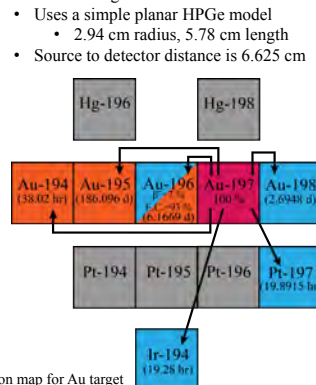
- Primarily interested in the 3d transition metals, some of the 5d transition metals, and a small selection of other metals
- Evaluate the APs and their decay chains resulting from 6 different neutron activation reactions



- Neutron Reactions:**
- $AX1_n(n, \gamma) A^{+1}X1_{n+1}$
 - $AX1_n(n, 2n) A^{-1}X1_{n-1}$
 - $AX1_n(n, 3n) A^{-2}X1_{n-2}$
 - $AX1_n(n, 4n) A^{-3}X1_{n-3}$
 - $AX1_n(n, p) AX2_{n+1}$
 - $AX1_n(n, \alpha) A^{-3}X3_{n-1}$



Activation map for Ti target



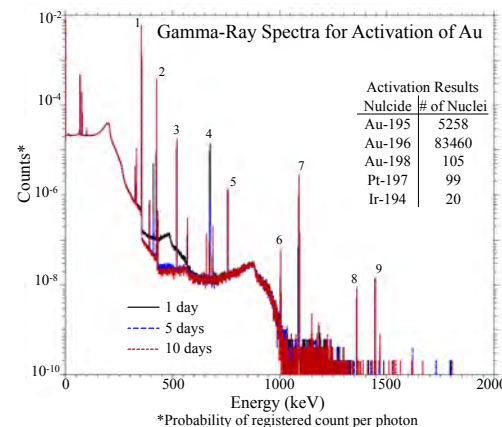
Activation map for Au target

METHOD:

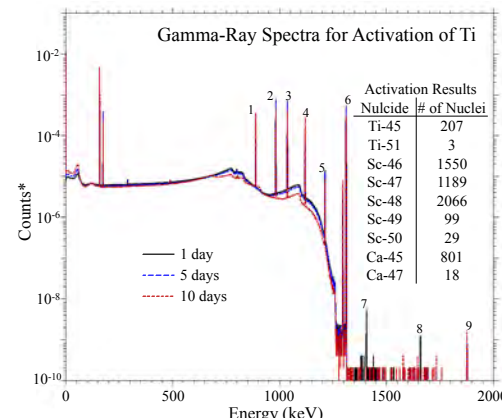
- Use a known neutron energy distribution to simulate the activation of a given element
- Calculate the activity of each AP and its daughter products up to a total decay time of 10 days
- Use the activity data at time "t" to define the source for the simple HPGe simulation using MCNP6
- Identify the energies and nuclides associated with easily distinguishable peaks in the gamma-ray spectra

Simulation Details:

- Neutrons produced through the (d,n) reaction on a ⁹Be target – simulating the UC Davis cyclotron setup
- Neutron energy ranges from 7-20 MeV
 - average = 11.78 MeV
- Uses a simple planar HPGe model
 - 2.94 cm radius, 5.78 cm length
- Source to detector distance is 6.625 cm



*Probability of registered count per photon



*Probability of registered count per photon

Spectrum Table

Target Element	Peak #	Spectrum Energy (keV)	Library Match Nuclide	Library Energy (keV)
Au	1	355.83	Au-196	355.73
	2	426.32	Au-196	426.1
	3	521.56	Au-196	521.4
	4	676.04	Au-198	675.88
	5	759.28	Au-196	759.1
	6	1006	Au-196	1005.7
	7	1091.5	Au-196	1091.4
	8	1361.5	Au-196	1361
	9	1446	Au-196	1446.3
Ti	1	889.65	Sc-46	889.28
	2	983.89	Sc-48	983.53
	3	1037.6	Sc-48	1037.52
	4*	1120.6	Sc-46	1120.55
	5	1213.4	Sc-48	1212.88
	6	1297.4	Ca-47	1297.09
	7*	1408.2	Ti-45	1408.1
	8	1661.1	Ti-45	1660.9
	9	1877.9	Ca-47	1878

*Multiple nuclides may produce this peak

CONCLUSION: The results presented here represent a very small portion of the work that needs to be done to better understand the role that APs play in nuclear forensics. This work illustrates the utility of simulations to generate useful data when resources are limited. Identifying the prominent gamma lines in activation products is only the first step in developing new diagnostic tools and material/device signatures for nuclear forensics.

FUTURE WORK:

- Create a more accurate model of the HPGe detector
- Simulate AP production from other element targets
- Expand simulations to include different neutron sources and energy distributions – McClellan TRIGA reactor and Flatop-25 critical assembly
- Incorporate other residual nuclides into the gamma-spectroscopy simulation
- Combine AP spectra with each other and expected fission product spectra and re-analyze
- Validate simulations against experimental data

Preparation of uranium oxide dispersions for nuclear forensics morphological analysis



Katie Hoffman¹, Ruth Kips², Michael Kristo²
Department of Chemistry, University of Cincinnati¹
Nuclear and Chemical Sciences Division, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory²



Introduction



Today morphological analysis is one of the main areas of focus for nuclear forensics research. While techniques such as scanning electron microscopy (SEM) are well-established as tools for visually capturing nuclear particle morphology, objective and universal methods for extracting information from the resulting images are still under development and discussion. Morphological features can potentially be identified as a signature left by the material's processing history, but only if images can be reliably analyzed. The Morphological Analysis for Material Attribution (MAMA) software being developed at Los Alamos National Laboratory (LANL) seeks to help achieve this goal for nuclear forensic samples specifically.



It has been observed that sample preparation plays a large role in the effectiveness of the MAMA software. A spatially even, monolayer dispersion of particles is most compatible with the software, but several sample preparation methods are currently in use across the field, all with varying results. This project seeks to identify the best sample preparation method for these purposes, using uranium ore concentrate (yellowcake) as a test material.

Objectives:

- Evaluate the effectiveness of current sample preparation methods for use with SEM and MAMA software
- Determine and optimize the best sample preparation method necessary for quantitative image analysis as it applies to nuclear forensics

Scanning Electron Microscopy

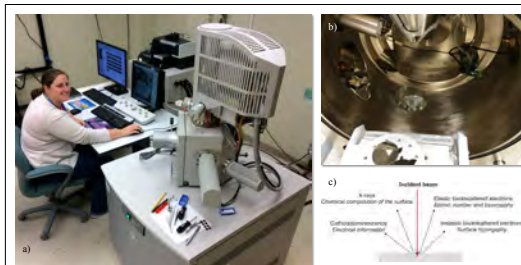


Figure 1. a) Instrument with computer interface b) inside chamber c) signals produced during SEM

Preparation Methods & Results

Sequential Carbon Tape Method

- Carbon mount (10 mm-dia) with double sided organic adhesive coating stuck to surface of aluminum stub (12 mm-dia)
- Stubs are gently pressed together to gradually decrease the amount of material collected across four stubs

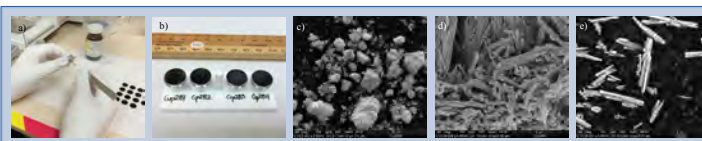


Figure 2. a) Pressing aluminum stubs with carbon tape together b) Material deposited on stub c) Magnification: 2,303x - heterogeneous mixture & many agglomerations d) Magnification: 26,694x - agglomeration e) Magnification: 26,851x - smaller particles can be found but are agglomerations

Sandwich (Rubbing) Method

- Vitreous carbon planchets (25 mm-dia), no adhesive
- Material is "sandwiched" between two planchets and they are rubbed together to disperse the material

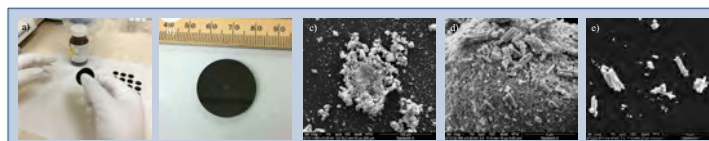


Figure 3. a) Rubbing two carbon planchets together gently b) Material deposited on planchet c) Magnification: 1,000x - agglomerations as well as dispersions of finer particulates present d) Magnification: 32,000x - agglomeration, different texture from above method e) Magnification 24,675x - small individual particles

Vacuum Impactor (VI) Method

- Same planchets used, planchet sits inside impactor (see Figure 2a)
- Material is vacuumed off any surface (i.e. container lid, wipe, another planchet)

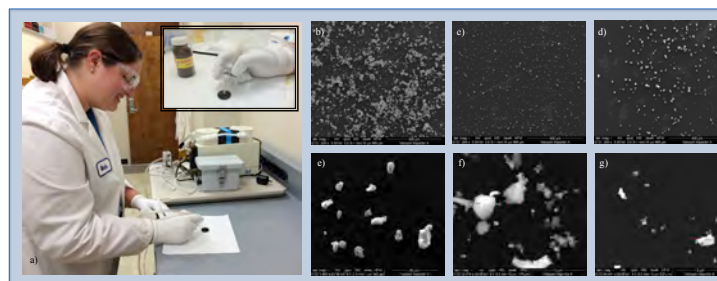
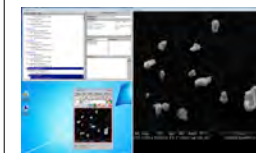


Figure 4. a) Vacuuming material off of smooth surface (planchet), inset: material is deposited onto second planchet that is inside plastic impactor. Top right row: All images at same magnification: 250x b) the center c) the inner ring d) the outer ring of the planchet. Bottom right row: e) Magnification: 1,806x - large agglomerations or particles with spherical nature f) Magnification: 32,839x - particles still agglomerate with this method g) Magnification: 46,441 - most individual particles look spherical rather than like a rod.

MAMA



This software was designed to help provide robust and accurate quantification of morphological features in nuclear material microscopy images. An associated lexicon of image descriptors has also been developed to facilitate the use of nuclear forensic image databases. Both are most effective when applied to a monolayer of material.

Segmentation & Quantification

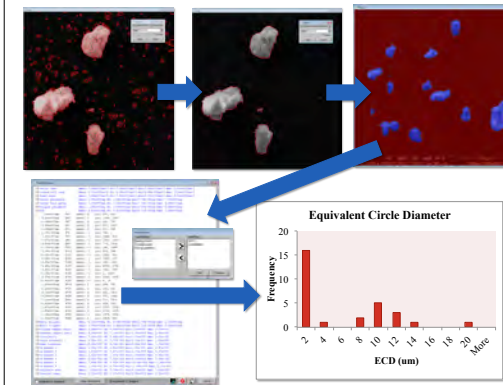


Figure 5. An example of possible steps in the MAMA software to obtain quantitative values from an SEM image. MAMA segments the image into particles, which can then be adjusted and assigned a label. A particle analysis will then produce a list of parameters that have been measured and calculated for each particle.

Conclusions

- There is little control over the amount of material deposited during the sequential carbon tape method. This method is ill-suited for quantitative analysis, but quick if only qualitative information is needed
- The sandwich method decreases agglomeration of the material, but doesn't provide an even overall dispersion of particles.
- Using a vacuum impactor with a high flow rate and a low sample amount will provide the most even dispersion of particles for quantification, but original material morphology is effected (particles become spherical)
- For VI, particles are sorted by size and velocity so the area of analysis on the planchet can greatly effect the quantitative results.
- Future work: Thorough characterization the behavior of various materials in the vacuum impactor to improve the quantitative output from MAMA

This work performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory under Contract DE-AC52-07NA27344. We thank the U.S. Department of Energy's National Nuclear Security Administration, Office of Defense Nuclear Nonproliferation Research and Development, for financial support.

LLNL-POST-675629



A new tool in the nuclear forensics toolbox:
Exploring thorium isotope compositions of UOCs and Ore-UOC pairs

King Lopez, Rachel^{1,2}; Kayzar, Theresa¹; Gaffney, Amy¹

¹University of Notre Dame, South Bend, IN; ²Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore, CA

Introduction

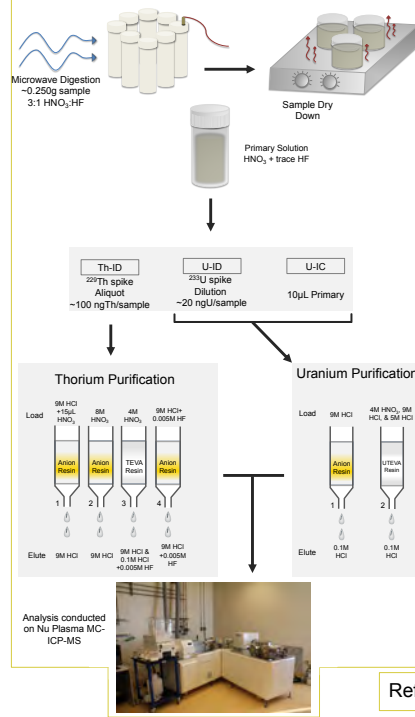
Isotopic analysis of uranium ore concentrates (UOC, also known as 'yellowcake') has been demonstrated to be a useful analytical technique to aid in identifying the parent material of a sample. Previous studies investigated the rare earth elements, transition metals, and various actinide isotope ratios to determine whether these signatures are preserved through UOC processing.¹ However, many of these geochemical signatures change through processing, mining, and enrichment, making it difficult to transform uranium ore to UOC. Th-230 forms from the decay of U-234, whereas Th-232 reflects the local geology of the ore deposit. Therefore, the $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ composition of uranium ores varies as a function of age, weathering, as well as the initial U and Th concentration of the ore.⁴

This study focuses on:

- $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ and Th concentration analysis of U ores and UOC using MC-ICP-MS
- Investigating the variation in $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ between a paired ore and UOC

Through the analysis of UOCs and ore-UOC pairs, this study examines the potential use of the $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ composition as a nuclear forensic signature.

Methods and Analytical Technique



Sample Description



Figure 1. Specimen of Uraninite (UO_2).⁵



Figure 2. Examples of uranium ore (left) and UOC powders (right)⁶.

Name	Location	Deposit Type	U-Mineral	Mining Method	Other
Argentina-Unspecified	n/a	Sandstone, Surficial	Pitchblende	Open Pit	Two mills for seven mines, possible blending
Canada-Faraday	Bancroft, ON	Intrusive	Uraninite	Underground	On-site Mill
Gabon-Mouauna	n/a	n/a	Francavillite	n/a	
Germany-Wismut	Various	Veins, black shale, tabular/rollfront ss, lignite	Pitchblende, Coffinite	Open Pit Underground	
Netherlands-Delft	-	-	-	-	No mines, only enrichment facilities
<u>Paired Samples from Vaal Reef Deposit, South Africa</u>					
Ore 12850-14	Kopanang, Great Noligwa and Moab Khotsong Mines	Conglomerate	Uraninite	Underground	Gold mine, powders mixed processing
Ammonium Diuranate (ADU) 12851-07					
U ₃ O ₈ 12851-09					

Table 1. Background information of the samples analyzed in this study.⁷ See figure 3 for processing schematic for the paired samples.

Results and Interpretation

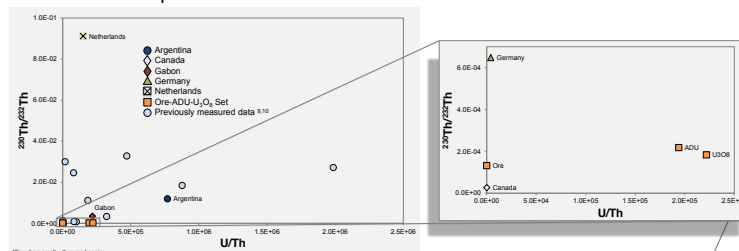


Figure 4. Thorium isotope variation of UOCs and ore relative to U/Th. The $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ compositions of the UOCs range from 2.66×10^{-4} to 9.12×10^{-4} . The $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ compositions of individual UOCs vary outside of analytical uncertainty. Therefore the $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ composition of a UOC may be a unique signature. The $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ variation between different localities is much greater than the variation among the ore-UOC set from South Africa (highlighted in the graph on the right). Therefore it is possible that the $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ signature is preserved through the ore to UOC conversion process. The increased U/Th in the ADU and U_2O_8 reflects the removal of impurities during the ore to UOC conversion process.

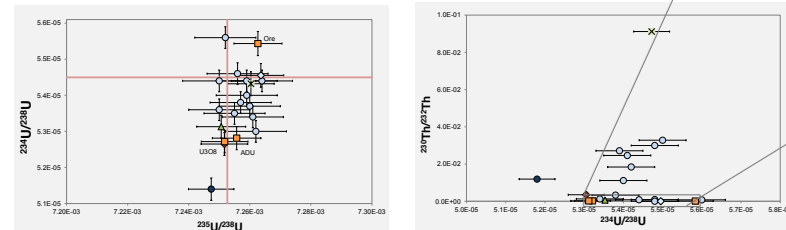


Figure 5. Uranium isotope composition of the UOCs and ore. All samples have natural $^{235}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U}$ compositions. The $^{234}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U}$ compositions are more variable than the $^{235}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U}$ compositions. ^{234}U is formed by alpha decay of ^{238}U , which may eject ^{234}U from a crystal structure and therefore

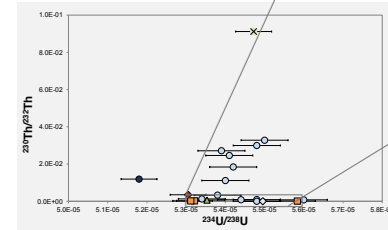


Figure 6. Isotope variation of $^{234}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U}$ and $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ within the UOCs and ore sample. The variation of $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ among the UOCs is larger than the variation of $^{234}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U}$ composition. The $^{234}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U}$ composition of the ore-ADU- U_3O_8 set changes among samples taken from different stages within the processing—see Figure 7.

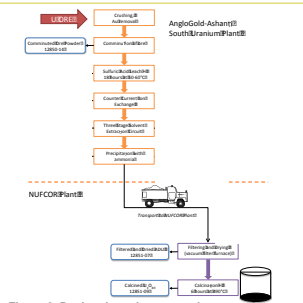


Figure 3. Depicted are the processing steps from conversion of ore to U_3O_8 at the AnglGold-Ashanti South Uranium Plant and the NUFOR Plant.⁸ The samples studied here are depicted by the blue boxes.

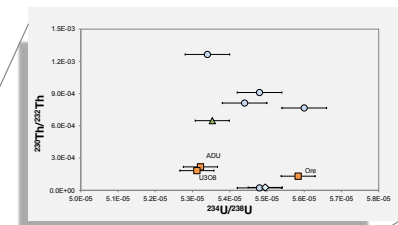


Figure 7. Isotope variation between ore-ADU- U_3O_8 . The processed samples have lower $^{234}U/^{238}U$ and higher $^{230}Th/^{232}Th$ than the ore.

Summary

- This study measured the variation of $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ in UOCs from a variety of localities and one ore-ADU-U308 set.
- The $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ variation of the UOCs is greater than analytical uncertainty. This variation does not correlate with U/Th.
- The variation of $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ within the ore-ADU-U308 set is smaller than the $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ variation between UOC localities. Therefore $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ may be a useful signature worth exploring for use in nuclear forensics.

Future Work

- Investigate sample powder homogeneity.
- Analyze duplicate samples
- Investigate variability of samples within a mine.
- Explore $^{230}\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}$ of ore-UOC pairs from different conversion processes.

References

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LLNL-POST-



Groundwater Properties Determined by Isotopic Tracers in Shasta County, CA

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Glenn T. Seaborg Institute

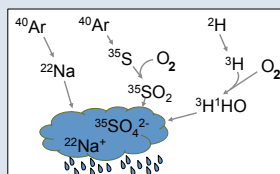
Introduction

Large-volume springs are a significant source of water to communities in Shasta County. Aquifers in this region are developed in young volcanic formations and the age and flow of groundwater is not well characterized, making predicting the impact of drought and climate change on spring flow difficult. To better understand the water resources and the hydrogeology of the region and to better constrain the age of water produced by springs, we have sampled water from wells, springs, and a stream for isotopic tracers of water source and residence time.

Methods

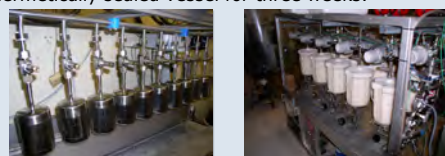
We analyzed water samples from wells, springs, and a creek for **stable isotopes of water** ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$), **sulfur-35** (87.4 day half-life), and **tritium** (12.3 year half-life). In addition, we are currently analyzing samples for krypton-85 (10.8 year half-life), sodium-22 (2.6 year half-life), carbon-14 (5,730 year half-life), noble gases, and helium isotopic composition. From these analyses, we will be able to gain information on groundwater ages (residence times), recharge area and elevation, and groundwater flow.

The isotopes in this study are produced by cosmic ray spallation and nuclear weapons testing. Krypton-85 is released by nuclear fuel reprocessing.



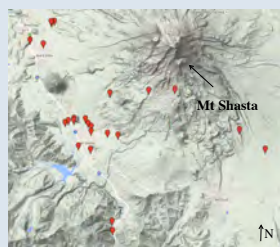
Precipitation of isotopes in the atmosphere.

Stable isotopes are analyzed by a Los Gatos Research DLT-100 liquid water isotope analyzer to determine $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$; **Sulfur-35** is analyzed by liquid scintillation counting (LSC) after the sample is passed through an ion exchange resin, eluted with NaCl, precipitated as BaSO_4 , and suspended in a LSC cocktail; **tritium** is analyzed by noble gas mass spectrometry after accumulation of daughter product helium-3 in a degassed sample stored in a hermetically sealed vessel for three weeks.

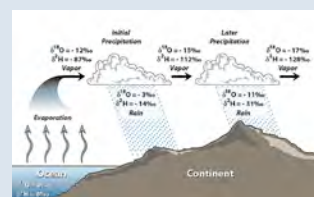


Tritium samples are shown on degassing lines. Samples (right) are being frozen with dry ice in preparation for analysis of helium-3.

Location

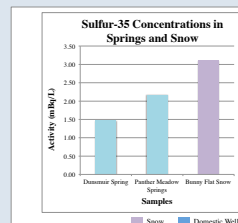


Sampling locations for groundwater, springs and creeks.

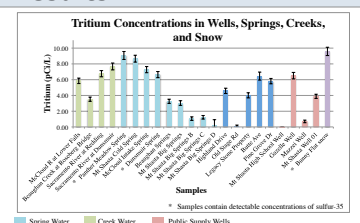


Schematic showing how stable isotopes of the water molecule fractionate during evaporation and precipitation.

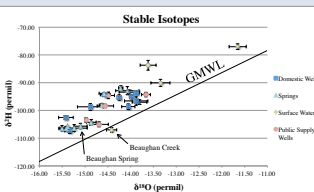
Results



Sulfur-35 activities (mBq/L) for springs and snow. Detection of sulfur-35 indicates the presence of a fraction of recently (<1-2 years) recharged groundwater. Only two springs had detectable sulfur-35.

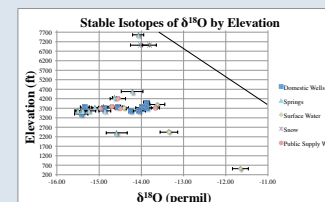


Tritium activities (pCi/L) for wells, surface water, creeks, and snow. Higher tritium activities generally indicate more recently recharged water. Tritium activities for wells and springs vary significantly indicating a range in groundwater ages.

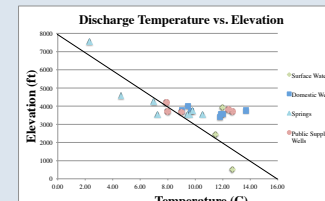


Water in the region plots on a local meteoric water line that parallels but is slightly offset from the Global Meteoric Water Line (GMWL). Groundwater well and spring water samples exhibit the same range of values. Surface water samples exhibit heavier isotopic values, except for Beaughan Creek, which plots on the lower left due to its higher elevation and closer proximity to Beaughan Springs.

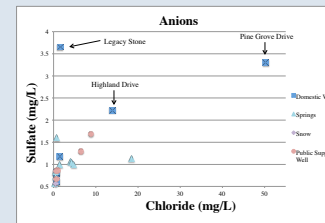
Results



The isotopically heaviest waters are measured in low elevation samples. The relatively large range of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in spring and groundwater samples from approximately 3200-4200 ft may indicate that water from these locations recharged over a range of elevations not represented by the sample elevations. The heavier samples from this elevation range may have had shorter flow paths than the lighter samples.



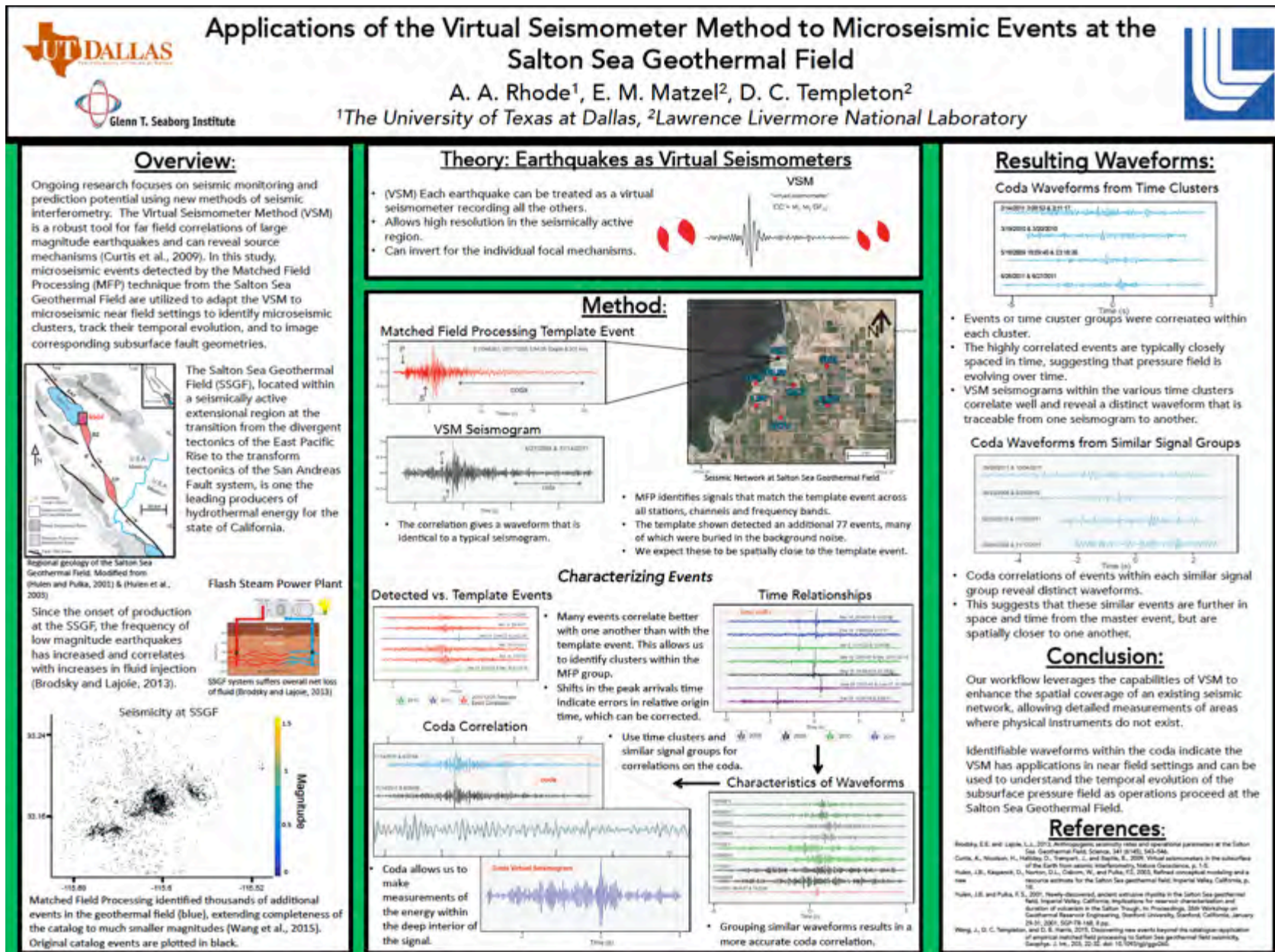
Mean annual air temperature decreases by 2°C for every 1000 ft elevation gain. A similar trend is expected for water recharge temperatures. Significantly colder discharge temperatures in spring and well waters than in surface waters sampled at the same elevation likely indicates groundwater recharge at higher elevations. There is no indication of geothermal heating in the groundwater.



Significant variability is observed in chloride (0-50 mg/L), sulfate (0-4 mg/L) and sulfate to chloride anion ratio. Most samples have low chloride (<15 mg/L) and low sulfate (<2 mg/L). Snow has the lowest concentration, and springs have low concentrations. Wells (especially domestic wells) have the highest concentrations and the most variability. This may be a result of mixing of older groundwater with spring water and/or snowmelt, or may be due to localized contamination. Three domestic wells appear to represent end-member signatures of water sources on Mt Shasta. Multivariate analysis will aid in the attribution of samples to specific water sources.

Conclusion

Isotopic tracers provide insights into the sources and residence times of water in Mt Shasta aquifers. Tritium varied significantly in springs, domestic wells and public supply wells, indicating a range in the age of produced groundwater. Sulfur-35 also provides valuable constraints. Some springs had a detectable S-35 activity, indicating a component of very recently recharged water and potentially more rapid response to drought and climate change. The wells and other springs had no detectable S-35.

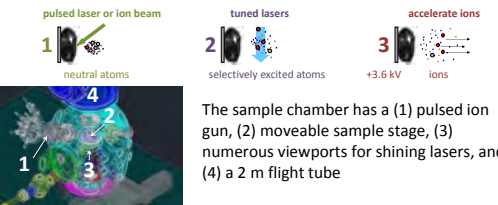
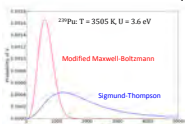
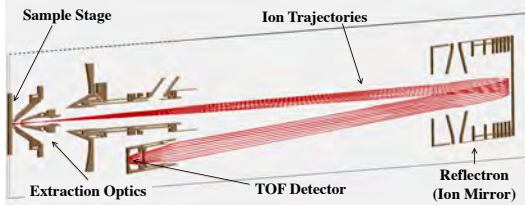
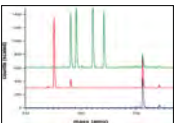
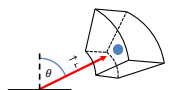

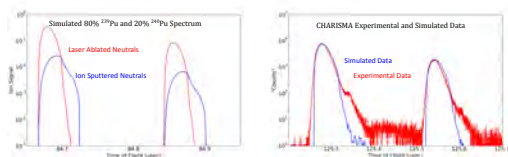
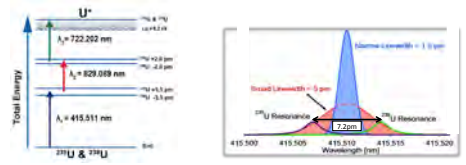




Modeling Tools for Resonance Ionization Mass Spectrometry

C.G. Thomas, B.H. Isselhardt, M.R. Savina



WHAT IS RIMS?	HOW DO WE CREATE NEUTRAL ATOMS FOR ANALYSIS?	LET 'EM FLY!
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Resonance Ionization Mass Spectrometry (RIMS) is useful for analyzing the chemical and isotopic makeup of solids The three basic steps in RIMS: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Generating a plume of neutral atoms from the sample through either ion sputtering or laser ablation Resonantly ionizing only the atomic species of interest with lasers Accelerating the photo-ions into a Time Of Flight (TOF) mass analyzer  <p>The sample chamber has a (1) pulsed ion gun, (2) moveable sample stage, (3) numerous viewports for shining lasers, and (4) a 2 m flight tube</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gas-phase neutral atoms are typically created by ion sputtering, where desorbed ion kinetic energies (E) follow the Sigmund-Thompson formula, and atom yield (Y) is described by [1]: $\frac{\partial^3 Y}{\partial E \partial^2 \Omega} \propto \frac{E \cdot \cos \theta}{[E + U]^3}$ $P(v) = \frac{v^3}{2} \left(\frac{m}{kT} \right)^2 e^{-mv^2/2kT}$ LION will also use laser ablation to create neutrals, a process that follows a modified Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution described by [2]:  <p>Laser-ablated neutrals desorb with lower velocity which makes them easier to focus once ionized, thereby improving mass spectrum peak shape</p>	<p>SIMION model of LION with predicted ion trajectories</p>  <ul style="list-style-type: none"> SIMION is a commercially available charged particle transport code that <ul style="list-style-type: none"> models complex ion optic systems calculates each cell's electrostatic potential using Laplace's equation predicts ion flight paths and detector collision times
WHY DO WE USE RIMS?	LET'S GENERATE SOME IONS!	PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Because RIMS selectively ionizes atoms, it allows an accurate measure of isotopic ratios by limiting isobaric interferences RIMS requires very little sample prep and can be used on a sample with no "wet chemistry," leading to quicker measurement turnaround While RIMS is a destructive technique, it only requires sub-nanogram sample quantities to generate accurate mass spectra The above qualities make RIMS an excellent tool for nuclear forensics  <p>RIMS spectra of a sample containing both U and Pu. RIMS can analyze samples like these without any preparation. (Measurement made with Chicago Argonne Resonance Ionization Spectrometer for Mass Analysis (CHARISMA))</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Discretize hemisphere above sample into $\Delta r \Delta \theta \Delta \phi$ "igloo bricks" Compute charge weight factor (CWF), or relative fraction of desorbed particles in each cell $CWF_i = \int_{\phi_{i-1/2}}^{\phi_{i+1/2}} \int_{\theta_{i-1/2}}^{\theta_{i+1/2}} \int_{r_{i-1/2}}^{r_{i+1/2}} P(r, \theta, \phi) dr d\theta d\phi$  Apply laser ionization probability on each cell to arrive at representative ion distribution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When all processes are simulated, we can predict mass peak shapes for different ionization schemes and compare LION's mass spectra with those from previous RIMS instruments  <p>Left: LION simulation with laser ablated neutrals and sputtered neutrals Right: CHARISMA simulated and experimental results with laser ablation</p>
HOW CAN WE IMPROVE RIMS?	GET EXCITED WITH LASERS!	CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To accurately predict the measurement capabilities of a RIMS instrument, we need to <ul style="list-style-type: none"> generate a representative sample of ions understand laser ionization physics realistically model flight paths Livermore has extensively studied laser ionization of isotopes interesting to nuclear analysts, and commercially available software models ion trajectories through electric and magnetic fields quite well The purpose of this project is to simulate a representative "ion packet" and use it to predict the capabilities of the new Livermore Laser Ionization of Neutrals (LION) RIMS instrument 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To ionize neutrals in the desorbed plume, a broadband laser is tuned to resonantly excite the isotopes of interest and then shined into the sample chamber [3]  <p>Three-laser resonance ionization scheme for uranium</p>	<p>Conclusions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> RIMS is useful for isotope characterization of nuclear materials Laser desorbed ions generate sharper mass peaks <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ions have lower spread in velocity For equal ionization delays, the ion packet is more tightly packed <p>Future Work</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Model pulsed extraction for simultaneous SIMS/RIMS experiment with high energy particle detector in reflectron Model delayed fragmentation/ionization of molecular species

This work was performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory under contract DE-AC52-07NA27344. Lawrence Livermore National Security, LLC

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[3] B. H. Isselhardt et al., "Improving Precision in Resonance Ionization Mass Spectrometry: Influence of Laser Bandwidth in Uranium Isotope Ratio Measurements" in *Anal. Chem.*, vol. 83, no. 7, pp 2469-2475, Mar. 2011.