DEVELOPMENT OF A LOW ENERGY NEUTRON SOURCE FOR BUBBLE CHAMBER CALIBRATIONS

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20 Abstract

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The use of bubble chambers for direct dark matter detection requires high sensitivity to energy levels in the range of 1-100 keV and strict measures to reduce background radiation. Neutrons can be used to simulate WIMP elastic scattering interactions with the target volume in order to ensure high detection efficiency. We aim to develop a low energy neutron source that will allow us to properly calibrate bubble chambers to ensure their ability to detect such events. We propose a solution consisting of a neutron source composed of a radioisotope capable of emitting gamma radiation at the required energy thresholds and a target capable of ejecting photoneutrons when struck by the gamma radiation. We have chosen seven main candidates for a gamma source, taking note of important properties such as half-life, availability, cost, and many others. We have also calculated the theoretical energies of the neutrons emitted by each source and the rate at which each source would emit neutrons. We utilize the GEANT4 simulation software to explore various scenarios and determine effective neutron emission rates and the energies upon interaction with the C₃F₈. Results yielded from the Drexel Bubble Chamber will be useful for other members of the PICO collaboration and other direct detection experiments.

37 1 Introduction

38 1.1 Dark Matter & Bubble Chambers

The nature of cosmological dark matter has been an elusive mystery for many decades
despite occupying nearly a quarter of the universe's content[1]. The modern theory of Weakly
Interacting Massive Particles (WIMPs) proposes that dark matter can be explained through
particles only capable of interacting through the weak and gravitational forces. Due to the
nature of their interactions with other matter, WIMPs require highly specialized detection
methods with stringent calibrations. WIMPs as the leading candidate address many critical
issues in the ΛCDM Model such as galaxy rotation curves, the gravitational lensing of light
in underdense regions, and the flatness of the universe[3].

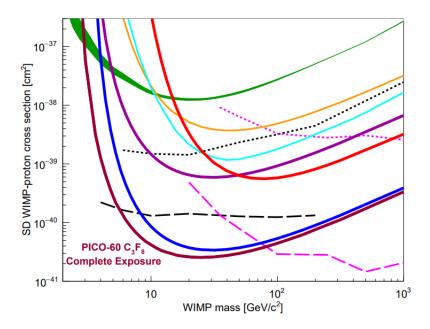


Figure 1: Latest spin dependent constraints on the WIMP-nucleon cross section from PICO-60[7]. Other relevant results include the first blind exposure of PICO-60 C₃F₈ (thick blue), as well as limits from PICO-60 CF3I (thick red), PICO-2L (thick purple), and PICASSO (green band).

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Bubble chambers have been used since the early 1950's as particle detectors [4] and have

more recently been adapted for the detection of WIMPs. Bubble chambers function by 48 maintaining a liquid in a superheated state through tuning its temperature and pressure. 49 Once in this state, any particle that deposits energy greater than the threshold energy will 50 result in bubble nucleation. The PICO Collaboration uses the concept of bubble chambers 51 with superheated fluorine-based liquids to provide some of the strongest constraints on the 52 WIMP nucleon cross-sections as illustrated in Figure 1[5]. The ability to achieve low background is critical to direct detection methods of WIMPs. 54 Several design decisions have been included to maximize detection efficiency and ensure 55 accuracy of events. Fluorine based liquids are especially appealing as a target volume due to their insensitivity to gamma and beta particles [6]. The use of piezoelectric sensors allows for discrimination of alphas by acoustic analysis. Muons are eliminated through the use of a water tank containing PMT's. Reconstruction of events in the target volume allows for discrimination of neutron events due to bubble multiplicity.

Previous bubble chambers[7] in the PICO collaboration utilized an up-side down design
where the target volume was placed below a buffer fluid as seen in Figure 2a. This chamber
faced many issues in the form of particulate falling down into the target volume and other
issues at the water-target fluid interface. The Drexel Bubble Chamber (DBC)[2] is a prototype right-side up design that aims to remove these issues by flipping the design. In order
to isolate the target volume, we use a sharp temperature gradient between the active and
non-active regions of the chamber as seen in Figure 2b.

The bubble chambers require calibrations with several types of sources to ensure that
each particle is detected and identified correctly. Most importantly, we must be sure that
the conditions of the chamber allow for detection of WIMPs. As result, the detector must
be sensitive to elastic scattering interactions from nuclear recoils in energy ranges of 1-100
keV. The best method for determining the efficiency of nuclear recoils is through low energy
neutron calibrations.

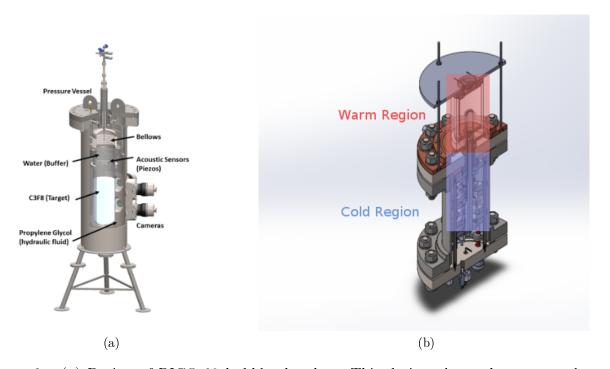


Figure 2: (a) Design of PICO-60 bubble chamber. This design places the target volume below a water buffer layer. (b) CAD design of the right-side up Drexel Bubble Chamber.

1.2 Low Energy Neutrons

Neutrons can be generated through many different methods such as spontaneous fission, α interactions on a low-atomic-weight target, γ interactions with a target such as ${}^9\mathrm{Be}$ or ${}^2\mathrm{D}$, or through neutron generators. We desire to generate neutrons at relatively low (< 100 keV) 77 energy scales, and as a result, the only viable method for a neutron source is through γ interactions upon a target. Although the other methods may satisfy many of the requirements, they are only capable of producing neutrons on the MeV energy scale, which violates a vital 80 component to this project. A method for using high energy neutrons includes the use of a 81 neutron generator and the detection of the neutron after interacting with the chamber. The 82 scattering angle and energy of the nuclear recoil can then be calculated, allowing the filtering 83 of any high energy recoils; however this method is unavailable to the PICO collaboration due 84 to several factors. We require low energy neutrons to properly calibrate bubble chambers 85 for WIMP events which will occur at similar energy levels. Without neutron calibration, it 86 is impossible to tell if the chambers are able to efficiently and accurately detect potential 87 WIMP events. 88

Neutron sources for chamber calibrations have been discussed and used before within the PICO collaboration[8] — [10]. The components of our neutron source will include a gamma source, target material, and appropriate shielding as necessary for safety. Starting with an isotope that undergoes some form of decay, it will then emit gammas at a monoenergetic level. If the gamma contains more energy than the threshold for neutron production, it will deposit enough energy upon contact and emit a neutron. The neutron will then come into contact with the bubble chamber and deposit its energy through nuclear recoils on to superheated C₃F₈. From there, our chamber will detect an event trigger, and we will be able to perform calibrations through image analysis, piezoelectric acoustic data, and other simulations.

Equation 1 shows the reactions of the targets with an incident gamma and the resulting

isotopes and particles. ⁹Be and ²D are of particular interest as targets due to their low atomic weight, making the threshold energies for neutron emission low enough for gamma sources. From this equation, we are able to determine the threshold energy of the gammas needed to emit one neutron from each nucleus with simple conservation of energy. Since the number of electrons does not change during this process, we are free to emit them from the calculations since they will cancel. A similar calculation for ²D is omitted, but yields 2.23 MeV. For the ⁹Be target, we obtain a threshold energy of 1.67 MeV as seen below in Equation 2.

$$^{9}Be + \gamma \longrightarrow {}^{8}Be + n$$

$$^{2}D + \gamma \longrightarrow {}^{1}D + n$$
(1)

(2)

 $m_{^9Be} * c^2 + Q = m_{^8Be} * c^2 + m_n * c^2$

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 $\Rightarrow Q = (m_{^{8}Be} + m_{n} - m_{^{9}Be}) * c^{2} = 1.67 \ MeV$

The key difficulty in designing a low energy neutron source is finding an a gamma emitter 109 that fits all of our requirements. The isotope must have a long enough half-life such that 110 it can survive through the extensive safety procedures at Snolab without losing a majority 111 of the material. It should also produce gammas close to the threshold energy of the target 112 such that the emitted neutron will be in our desired energy range. It is important to have 113 large branching ratios for these gamma energies so that we obtain neutrons primarily at the 114 energy we desire, and if gammas far above the threshold are primarily emitted, then we will 115 see high energy neutrons from our source. Finally, the isotope should be feasible to buy in 116 large enough quantities without either costing too much or requiring too much time to be 117 delivered. 118

Isotope	Target	Half-Life (Years)	Main Gamma Energy (keV)	Branching Ratios (%)
²⁶ Al	$^9{ m Be}$	$7.17\mathrm{E}\!+\!05$	1808	99.76
$^{207}\mathrm{Bi}$	⁹ Be	31.55	1770	6.87
⁵⁸ Co	$^9{ m Be}$	0.19	1674	0.52
¹⁵⁰ Eu	$^9{ m Be}$	36.9	1690	0.15
$^{124}\mathrm{Sb}$	$^9{ m Be}$	0.16	1690	47.79
88Y	⁹ Be	0.29	1836	99.2
$^{226}\mathrm{Ra}$	$^2\mathrm{D}$	1590	2447	1.57

Table 1: List of potential gamma radioisotope sources with their corresponding targets, halflives, relevant gamma energies, and branching ratios gathered from the Table of Isotopes.

$_{\scriptscriptstyle{119}}$ 2 Methods

20 2.1 Identifying the Proper Gamma Source

Our first approach to tackling this problem is to create an exhaustive list of all potential 121 candidates for gamma sources and note the specific properties that we require them to have. 122 Included in the list will be each candidates gamma energy spectrum, branching ratios, half-123 life, and other information on the feasibility of acquiring the isotope. Another important property to keep track of is the neutron production rate. If the rate is too low, then we 125 will not be able to perform accurate calibrations; however, we also want to avoid too many 126 neutrons from being produced, as this would result in unnecessary exposure to radiation. 127 In addition the bubble chamber would see events occur too quickly for quality data to be 128 obtained. By searching the Table of Isotopes, a list has been developed as seen above in 129 Table 1. The seven isotopes listed are the most likely in terms of their branching ratios, 130 gamma energies, half-lives, and feasibility of being obtained. Most gamma sources do not 131 emit >2 MeV, and of the ones that do, none are close enough to the threshold for ²D. As a 132 result, finding a source to use with a ²D target is unlikely outside of ²²⁶Ra. 133

2.2 Calculating Expected Neutron Energies and Emission Rates

After gathering the list of potential gamma sources, our next step is to calculate and gather as much information about each of the isotopes to better inform our decision. The expected theoretical neutron energies for each system is calculated through[11]:

$$E_n = \frac{A-1}{A} \left[E_\gamma - Q - \frac{E_\gamma^2}{1862(A-1)} \right] + \delta; \tag{3}$$

Here, A is the mass number, E_{γ} is the energy of the incident gamma, Q is the threshold energy for the target, and δ is an energy spread function defined by:

The angle θ is defined as the angle between the incident gamma and the emitted neutron.

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$$\delta \approx E_{\gamma} \left[\frac{2(A-1)(E_{\gamma}-Q)}{931A^{3}} \right]^{1/2} cos(\theta)$$

$$\delta_{max} = 2E_{\gamma} \left[\frac{2(A-1)(E_{\gamma}-Q)}{931A^{3}} \right]^{1/2}$$
(4)

As seen in Figure 3, the θ dependence of δ can have significant effects, and it is difficult 141 to determine the value of θ , so we will assume that the source will interact such that the 142 gammas are incident in an isotropic manner, yielding δ_{max} instead. This occurs as a result 143 of an inherent spread in the energy of emitted neutrons[11]. 144 Next, we estimate the rate at which neutrons will be emitted from each system. We first 145 start with basic assumptions that will allow for convenience when doing the calculations: we will have 1g of material for both the gamma source and target, and the distance between 147 the source and target will be 1cm. In a later section, we will calculate the expected rate 148 based off quoted source strengths from suppliers. From the half-life of the gamma source, 149

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{ln(2)}{\lambda} \implies \lambda = \frac{ln(2)}{t_{1/2}}$$

$$A = \lambda N$$

the decay constant, and subsequently, the activity can be calculated:

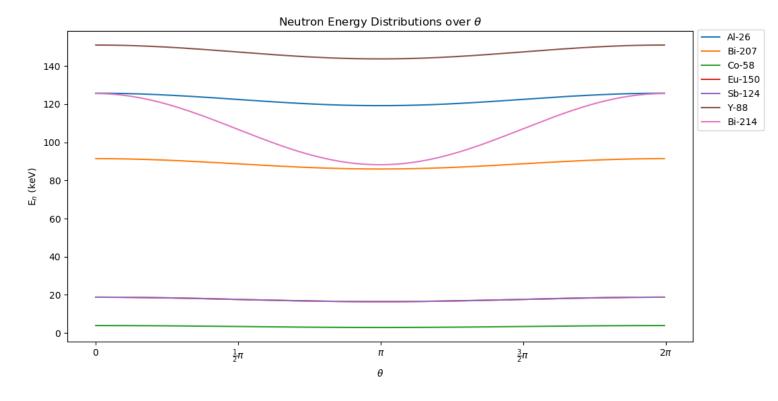


Figure 3: Expected neutron energies over a range of incident gamma angles from 0 to 2π . This is shown for each of our potential sources. Some like ²¹⁴Bi have large variability while most only vary by a few keV.

Isotope	Theoretical Neutron Energy (keV)	n/s/g
²⁶ Al	128.99	539
$^{207}\mathrm{Bi}$	94.14	$1.52\mathrm{E}\!+\!05$
⁵⁸ Co	4.42	$2.27\mathrm{E}\!+\!07$
$^{150}\mathrm{Eu}$	19.93	2.51E + 04
$^{124}\mathrm{Sb}$	19.93	2.07E + 09
⁸⁸ Y	154.62	$3.34\mathrm{E}\!+\!08$
$^{226}\mathrm{Ra}$	144.25	$9.00\mathrm{E}{+03}$

Table 2: Gamma sources with their corresponding expected neutron energies and neutron rates.

Then the number of neutrons can be estimated through the most relevant factors: activity, branching ratio, the amount of target, the gamma-neutron cross section, and the spherical surface area covered by the isotropic emission of gammas. The gamma-neutron cross section can be found by reading them from plots from JANIS[12], which are shown in Appendix A, for each specific incident gamma energy. The neutron emission rate can then be estimated by Equation 5 below. The results of our calculations for the expected neutron energies and expected neutron emission rates are listed above in Table 2.

$$\#n \approx A * \%Branching * \frac{m_{target}}{m_{target nucleus}} * \sigma * \frac{1}{SA_{sphere}}$$
 (5)

Here, A is the atomic mass of the target, %Branching is the branching ratio of the primary gamma, the mass term counts the number of nuclei in the target available for collisions, σ is the gamma-neutron cross section, and SA_{sphere} is the surface area covered by isotropic gamma emission.

Two more calculations were done to determine how much deuterium is found per amount of heavy water, since that is the most available form, and how large would a sphere of that amount of heavy water be. The first is simply calculated by taking the ratios of the masses, so if we desire 1g of Deuterium as was used for the calculations above, we would need 10g of heavy water. The size of a sphere would then be found by equating the mass to the density times the volume of a sphere. This yields a radius of 1.29 cm, which is on the scale of the size that we would like the system to be at.

2.3 Narrowing Down Our List of Gamma Sources

The availability of our seven potential sources has been determined based on the strength,
price, lead time, and supplier. The first isotope to be explored is ²⁶Al, which looks to be
a strong candidate at first; however, it is incredibly difficult and expensive to obtain. Only
one supplier, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, is able to provide it at a cost of \$381 per nCi.

This is incredibly expensive considering we require amounts on the scale of mCi for a neutron rate large enough. ¹⁵⁰Eu is extremely is rare, making it infeasible to use for a gamma source. Similarly, ⁵⁸Co is also expensive and rare, requiring too long of a lead time to acquire.

Of the remaining sources, ²²⁶Ra is the weakest due to the available strength of the source 177 and high theoretical neutron energy. This leaves the two most popular gamma sources, ⁸⁸Y 178 and ¹²⁴Sb, and ²⁰⁷Bi. Looking at Table 1, it's clear that it would be too difficult for ¹²⁴Sb to 179 make it through the Snolab safety procedures and would be replaced far too often, resulting 180 in high expenses. ⁸⁸Y, although a strong contender, still has a short half-life, has been 181 studied before, and does not result in low neutron energies that we would like. As result, we 182 are able to conclude that the best source for our purposes will be ²⁰⁷Bi. We are only able to 183 obtain a ²⁰⁷Bi source strength of 0.01 mCi; however, further sections will test whether this 184 is strong enough. 185

186 2.4 Improving Neutron Emission Rate Estimations

The calculations done above for the neutron rates were naive in a few ways. First, we assumed that we would have 1g of gamma source material, when it would be more proper to use the the quoted strength of the gamma sources instead. The target was approximated as a sphere, when it will actually be a cylinder. In addition, the target was assumed to be pure and the mass was severely underestimated. In order to correct for this, we improve upon the calculations below.

The easiest issue to correct is that of the amount of gamma source material. The strengths quoted from each supplier, when multiplied by a conversion factor of 3.7E5, will replace A in Equation 5. Next, the actual target that will be used is BeO, which given a density of $3.02^g/cm^3$ and the dimensions in Figure 4b, yields a target mass of 29.15g. An additional factor of 9/25 will be picked up in Equation 5 due to the target being impure.

A better estimation of the neutron rate can be found from taking the average value of the distance that an emitted neutron would travel before interacting with the BeO target.

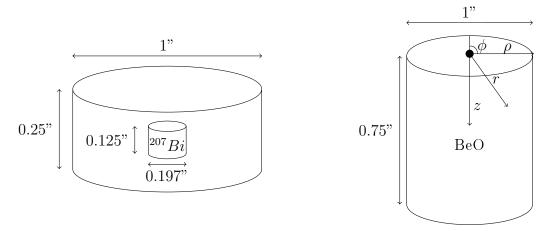


Figure 4: (a) Dimensional drawing of the ²⁰⁷Bi source. The source consists of an active volume located inside a non-active disk. (b) Dimensional drawing of the gamma target, BeO. Integrating over this volume allows for more accurate calculations.

$$\bar{f} = \frac{1}{V} \iiint_D f(\rho, \phi, z) dV \tag{6}$$

Equation 6 shows the generalized formula for averaging a function over a volume V and within a domain D. Applying this equation to our function for estimating the neutron emission rate in Equation 5 yields:

$$\#n \approx A * \%Branching * (\frac{m_{target}}{m_{Be}} * \frac{9}{25}) * \sigma * \frac{1}{V} \int_{0}^{1.905} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \int_{0}^{1.27} \frac{\rho}{4 * \pi * r^{2}} d\rho d\phi dz \qquad (7)$$

 $\rho = \sqrt{(r^2 + z^2)}$ is obtained from the coordinate system described in Figure 4b, V is the volume of the BeO cylinder in Figure 4b, and the additional mass factor for an impure target has been included. As a sanity check, we can compare our calculated rates with other results. For 1 Ci of ⁸⁸Y, the expected value is 10E4 N/s/Ci[6], so for 0.1 mCi, we would expect a rate on the order of 10 n/s. Our calculations yield 25.89 n/s, which is on the right order. The improved calculations yield a more accurate neutron emission rate of 0.30 n/s for the ²⁰⁷Bi-Be neutron source.

210 3 Analysis

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Now that an appropriate gamma source has been selected and the relevant calculations have been performed, our next goal is to determine how this source will interact with the DBC. We would like to know what the energy deposited by the neutrons will be, how often will we see bubbles as a result of source, and how will the gammas emitted from our source impact the chamber at low energy thresholds. To do this, we use GEANT4 to simulate the DBC with our ²⁰⁷Bi-Be neutron source using the source strength of 0.01 mCi, the calculated neutron energy of 94.14 keV, and expected neutron yield of 0.3 n/s.

218 3.1 Using GEANT4 For Simulating $^{207}\mathrm{Bi} ext{-Be}$ Neutron Source

GEANT4 is a simulation software that allows for the tracking of particles as they pass through matter, recording properties of each event such as the volume collided with, energies of the particle, scattering types, and more. GEANT4 is highly versatile in its ability to simulate particle events for a wide array of purposes ranging from astroparticle physics to accelerator physics. The software allows for highly detailed and specialized construction of

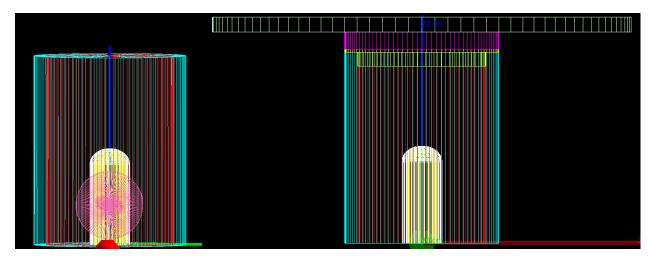


Figure 5: (a) GEANT4 assembly of the Drexel Bubble Chamber. The components are: acrylic: cyan, mineral oil: red, quartz: white, C₃F₈: yellow. The pink material is an optional inclusion of a particle guide. (b) New design with the addition of the top aluminum plate, plastic insulation, and copper heating plate.

detectors, enabling for high accuracy simulations of many different scenarios.

The first model of the Drexel Bubble Chamber is simulated using the most simplistic version of the detector with previous PICO code. The chamber is contained within a box of air, and the chamber is composed of the acrylic container, mineral oil, quartz jar, and C_3F_8 target. The idea of a particle guide to minimize neutron attenuation when the source is placed outside the mineral oil is also proposed and discussed in a later section. This introduces an additional component to the detector, seen above in Figure 5b. The final version of the chamber includes components from the top of the detector for more accurate simulations when sources are placed above the detector.

As seen below in Figure 6, the first thing to consider with our source is how it will emit particles. The ideal situation would be to focus the neutrons to be emitted linearly towards our target volume. Other considered angular distribution types are an arc covering the surface area of the detector and isotropic emission. A linear beam will produce an average neutron nuclear recoil energy almost three times stronger than isotropic source, leading to a bubble rate nearly seventeen times larger. In order to focus the neutrons to an arc or linear beam, you would need a material capable of reflecting neutrons without significantly

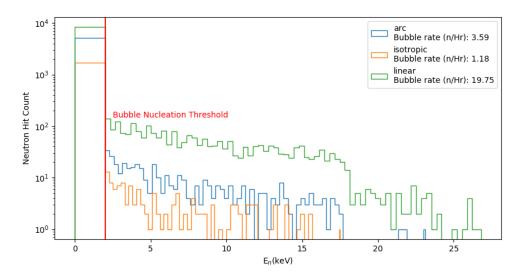


Figure 6: GEANT4 simulation of a neutron source placed 60mm away from the detector. As expected, linear emission performs best, follow by arc and isotropic emissions.

decreasing their energy. There is also no guarantee that the neutrons will be reflected outwards instead of continually scattering inside the shielding. In addition, the source will take up much more volume due to this additional material, making it much less flexible and inconvenient. As a result, we can conclude that it is best to leave the source as an isotropic emitter despite the fact that it is much weaker.

245 3.2 Location of Neutron Source Relative to the Target Volume

Next, we test for expected rates at varying distances from the chamber: 100mm, 60mm, and 18mm. These three key locations that the neutron source can be placed at correspond to the source being placed far away from the chamber, up against the acrylic, and up against the C_3F_8 . The results of the simulations can be seen below in Figure 7. Mineral oil strongly attenuates neutrons, greatly reducing both the energies and counts of neutrons that reach the target volume. Hydrogen and other low atomic number elements have high scattering cross sections with neutrons, reducing the likelihood of a neutron passing through unobstructed.

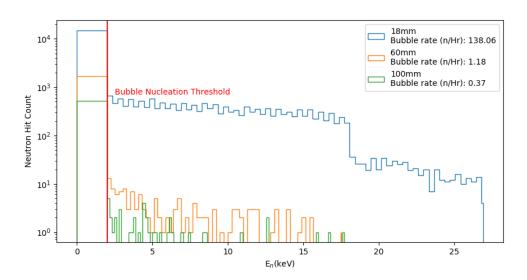


Figure 7: GEANT4 simulations overplotted to show the number of events in the target volume and the average energy of those events. At 100mm, the source was placed far from the detector; at 60mm, the source was placed right outside the mineral oil; and at 16mm, the source was placed inside the mineral, right up against the C_3F_8 .

Since the mineral oil contains a significant enough composition of Hydrogen, any amount will greatly impact the number of events we expect to see. The source should then be ideally placed within the mineral oil, as close to the quartz jar as possible to minimize the volume of mineral oil that each neutron will have to traverse before detection.

Inserting and removing the source from the mineral is a tedious task with a small chamber 257 like the DBC, so using the source with the large chambers will require careful design of a 258 source insertion tube. An alternative method might be to place a particle guide inside the 259 mineral oil that will allow the neutrons to safely traverse through to the C₃F₈ volume. We 260 test with three different materials of air for its low density, copper, and lead, both for their 261 high atomic numbers. The idea here is to displace the mineral oil volume with a higher atomic 262 number or lower density material such that the emitted neutrons would not be attenuated. 263 Looking at Figure 8, we see, as expected, that air performs the best at allowing neutrons to 264 travel through it, follow by lead and then copper. Even in the best case scenario, a particle 265 guide performs significantly worse than placing the source inside the mineral oil. 266

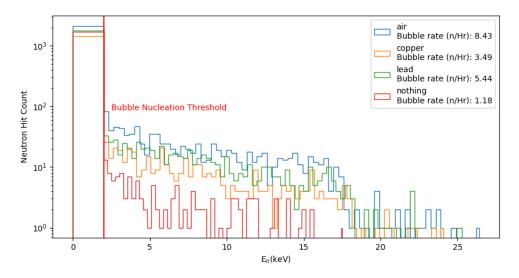


Figure 8: GEANT4 simulations overplotted to show the number of events in the target volume and the average energy of those events. These simulations were run with a particle guide made of air, lead, and copper introduced inside the mineral oil volume. The source as placed 60mm from the center, right outside the mineral oil.

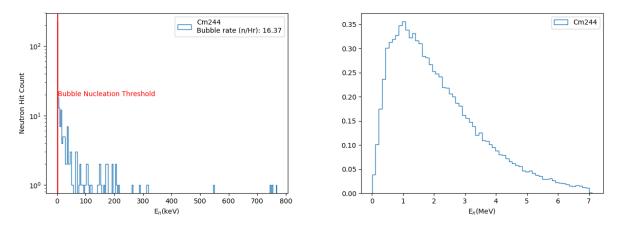


Figure 9: (a) Neutron energy counts on the target volume from spontaneous fission of ²⁴⁴Cm. (b) Emission energy spectrum of ²⁴⁴Cm replicated in GEANT4.

3.3 Additional Testing With ²⁴⁴Cm Source

We would like to have some indication that the simulations reflect reality before blindly trusting them as indicating any useful results. Experimental data has been previously obtained for a 244 Cm source placed directly above the chamber. This source primarily undergoes α decay with a small branching ratio for spontaneous fission. Since this source placed on top of the chamber, it is necessary to include the top components, as mentioned in the discussion on detector construction. From this data, a result of approximately 108 bubbles per hour was obtained. The current activity of the source has been calculated to be 4.64 neutrons/sec.

Using the calculate neutron emission rate, we can simulate the 244 Cm source with our chamber and attempt to see if the results match. As seen above in Figure 9b, the emission spectrum of the source is properly replicated; however, the bubble rate shown in Figure 9a is significantly less than our experimental value. This can potentially be explained by (α, n) reactions occurring within either the source itself or its container due to 244 Cm undergoing α decay a significant portion of the time. The physics that is being used with the simulation is not capable of detecting an (α, n) reaction, and as a result, the simulation will miss any neutrons produced through that process.

83 3.4 Expected Bubble Multiplicity and Rates

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Neutrons within the chamber are usually detected through their bubble multiplicity, so 284 we simulate our source over a range of threshold energies and calculate the multiplicity. This 285 value can be compared with experimental data to measure the detector bubble nucleation 286 threshold. Figure 10 shows the the average bubble multiplicity for each energy threshold 287 from the simulations. As a result of the low neutron energies, we should expect to see 288 bubble multiplicity very close to 1. As the threshold increases, the likelihood that a bubble 289 is nucleated decreases, meaning that the bubble multiplicity should also decrease. The 60mm 290 data also shows that there is high error in the results compared to 18mm, so placing the 291 source at 60mm will make it difficult to match experimental results with simulated results. 292 The advantage of using the bubble multiplicity is that any uncertainty in the strength our 293 our source will also cancel out through normalization. 294

The DBC can be scaled to the approximate sizes of PICO-40 and PICO-500 to see how the source might interact with the large chambers. Due to the increased volume, each threshold has a higher average bubble multiplicity. As seen in Figure 10b, there is a threshold with

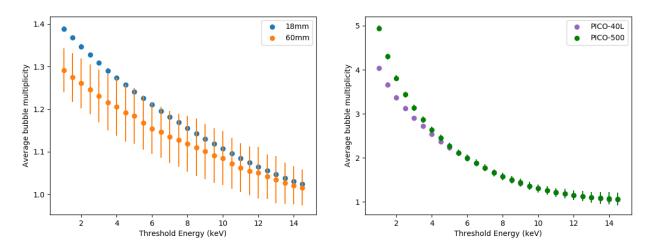


Figure 10: Expected average bubble multiplicities for a range of threshold energies. (a) Source placed 18mm and 60mm from the DBC chamber. (b) DBC chamber scaled to large chambers with source placed at 18mm. The errors bars in both plots are scaled to the equivalent of 100 hours runtime with the DBC.

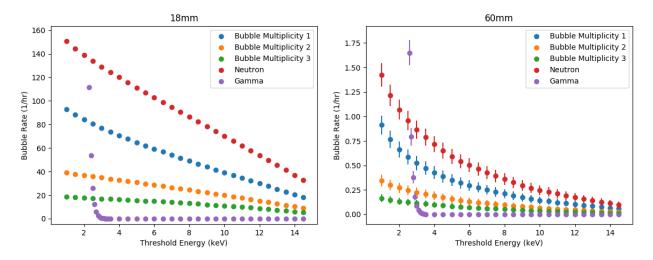


Figure 11: Expected bubble rates, including a breakdown of the multiplicity, as a function of threshold energy. The error bars are scaled the same as in Figure 10.

increasing the volume of the target liquid in which the bubble multiplicity no longer increases.

At this point, the limiting factor becomes the energy of the neutrons rather than the space for more bubbles to nucleate.

The expected bubble rate at a given threshold energy will not only give us an idea of how many events we should expect for a given threshold, but it will also be able to give us an idea of what threshold is being operated at if we know the event rate. We expect the bubble rates to decrease as the threshold energy for nucleation is increased due to less neutrons with sufficient energy coming in contact with the target volume. This effect is observed above in Figure 11 for gammas and neutrons emitted at 18mm and 60mm. It is also important to note that around 2.2 keV, the gammas emitted from the ²⁰⁷Bi source will dominate the neutrons emitted, making it impossible to differentiate between the two events at lower thresholds when gammas become relevant for bubble nucleation.

Figure 11 also breaks down the composition of the neutron bubbles rates by bubble multiplicity. As expected, lower bubble multiplicities have higher rates than higher multiplicities. For a source placed 60mm away, the error bars show that we would have difficulty differentiating between nearby threshold energies due to significant overlap. This effect is minimized when placed 18mm away due to the large increase in the number of events greater than

the threshold energies. The primary goal of the calibrations is to be able to experimentally measure the bubble nucleation threshold of the detector and to differentiate WIMP events in the low keV range from other particles such as gammas, so if we can decrease the threshold at which gammas dominate, then finding a WIMP event becomes more likely.

319 4 Conclusion

We have shown that it is possible to construct a neutron source capable of emitting 320 monoenergetic neutrons in the sub-100 keV energy range. An initial list of seven potential 321 isotopes was filtered down to ²⁰⁷Bi by analyzing the half-lives, branching ratios, expected 322 neutron energies, and expected neutron emission rates. These values were then used in simu-323 lating the source and the Drexel Bubble Chamber using GEANT4. We analyzed this source 324 over a variety of different scenarios including angular distribution, location, and chamber 325 composition. From these simulations, we have concluded that placing the source inside the 326 mineral oil will obtain the highest event rates and the most consistent energies. The simula-327 tions also show that we should expect the source to be useful until 2.2 keV, at which point 328 the gammas emitted from the ²⁰⁷Bi source will become a significant event trigger. Several 329 results from the simulations follow expected trends, indicating that the conclusions drawn 330 from them have a valid foundation. 331

Future plans for the experiment consist of purchasing the gamma source and target to construct the neutron source. Once the source is complete, data taking will begin to compare experimental results with the results from the calculations and simulations done here. We can obtain more in depth information as the complexity of the simulations and analysis is built upon by future work, and if successful, the source will prove extremely useful for calibrating other chambers. Further success will have the source adapted for use on the large detectors. With the improved calibrations, more stringent limits can be set on the WIMP-nucleon cross section and potentially push us one step closer to detecting dark matter.

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365 Appendix A: γ -neutron Cross Section Plots

Incident gamma data / JENDL/PD-2016 / Be9 / MT=5 : (z,anything) / Product Be8 Production cross section

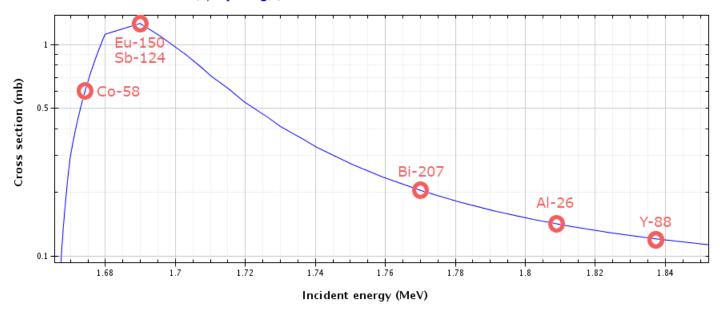


Figure 12: Cross sections for gamma-neutron interactions with a ⁹Be target as a function of incident gamma energies. Highlighted are the energies of the emitted gammas from each potential source[12].

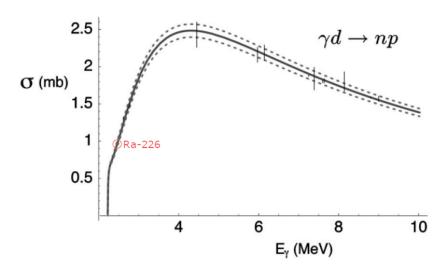


Figure 13: Cross sections for gamma-neutron interactions with a Deuterium target as a function of incident gamma energies. The energy for ²²⁶Ra is highlighted[13].