



Standard Test Method for Application and Analysis of Helium Accumulation Fluence Monitors for Reactor Vessel Surveillance, E706 (IIC)¹

This standard is issued under the fixed designation E 910; the number immediately following the designation indicates the year of original adoption or, in the case of revision, the year of last revision. A number in parentheses indicates the year of last reapproval. A superscript epsilon (ε) indicates an editorial change since the last revision or reapproval.

1. Scope

1.1 This test method describes the concept and use of helium accumulation for neutron fluence dosimetry for reactor vessel surveillance. Although this test method is directed toward applications in vessel surveillance, the concepts and techniques are equally applicable to the general field of neutron dosimetry. The various applications of this test method for reactor vessel surveillance are as follows:

1.1.1 Helium accumulation fluence monitor (HAFM) capsules,

1.1.2 Unencapsulated, or cadmium or gadolinium covered, radiometric monitors (RM) and HAFM wires for helium analysis,

1.1.3 Charpy test block samples for helium accumulation, and

1.1.4 Reactor vessel (RV) wall samples for helium accumulation.

1.2 *This standard does not purport to address all of the safety concerns, if any, associated with its use. It is the responsibility of the user of this standard to establish appropriate safety and health practices and determine the applicability of regulatory limitations prior to use.*

2. Referenced Documents

2.1 ASTM Standards:

C 859 Terminology Relating to Nuclear Materials²

E 170 Terminology Relating to Radiation Measurements and Dosimetry³

E 184 Practice for Effects of High-Energy Neutron Radiation on the Mechanical Properties of Metallic Materials, E 706 (IB)⁴

E 244 Test Method for Atom Percent Fission in Uranium and Plutonium Fuel (Mass Spectrometric Method)²

E 261 Test Method for Determining Neutron Fluence, Fluence Rate, and Spectra by Radioactivation Techniques³

E 482 Guide for Application of Neutron Transport Methods for Reactor Vessel Surveillance, E 706 (IID)⁴

E 560 Practice for Extrapolating Reactor Vessel Surveillance Dosimetry Results, E 706 (IC)⁴

E 693 Practice for Characterizing Neutron Exposures in Iron and Low Alloy Steels in Terms of Displacements Per Atom (DPA), E 706 (ID)⁴

E 706 Master Matrix for Light-Water Reactor Pressure Vessel Surveillance Standards⁴

E 844 Guide for Sensor Set Design and Irradiation for Reactor Surveillance, E 706 (IIC)⁴

E 853 Practice for Analysis and Interpretation of Light-Water Reactor Surveillance Results, E 706 (IA)⁴

E 854 Test Method for Application and Analysis of Solid State Track Recorder (SSTR) Monitors for Reactor Surveillance, E 706 (IIIB)⁴

E 900 Guide for Predicting Neutron Radiation Damage to Reactor Vessel Materials, E 706 (IIF)⁴

E 944 Guide for Application of Neutron Spectrum Adjustment Methods in Reactor Surveillance, E 706 (IIA)⁴

E 1005 Test Method for Application and Analysis of Radiometric Monitors for Reactor Vessel Surveillance, E 706 (IIIA)⁴

E 1018 Guide for Application of ASTM Evaluated Cross Section Data File, E 706 (IIB)⁴

E 1214 Guide for Use of Melt Wire Temperature Monitors for Reactor Vessel Surveillance, E 706 (IIIE)⁴

E 2005 Guide for the Benchmark Testing of Reactor Dosimetry in Standard and Reference Neutron Fields, E 706 (IIE-1)⁴

E 2006 Guide for the Benchmark Testing of LWR Calculations, E 706 (IIE-2)⁴

3. Terminology

3.1 *Definitions*—For definition of terms used in this test method, refer to Terminology C 859 and E 170. For terms not defined therein, reference may be made to other published glossaries.⁵

4. Summary of the HAFM Test Method

4.1 Helium accumulation fluence monitors (HAFMs) are

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² *Annual Book of ASTM Standards*, Vol 12.01.

³ *Annual Book of ASTM Standards*, Vol 12.02.

⁴ *Annual Book of ASTM Standards*, Vol 12.02. The roman numeral-alphabetical designation at the end of this title indicates that a brief description of this standard may be found in Matrix E 706.

⁵ See *Dictionary of Scientific Terms*, 3rd Edition, Sybil P. Parker, Ed., McGraw Hill, Inc.

passive neutron dosimeters that have a measured reaction product that is helium. The monitors are placed in the reactor locations of interest, and the helium generated through (n,α) reactions accumulates and is retained in the HAFM (or HAFM capsule) until the time of removal, perhaps many years later. The helium is then measured very precisely by high-sensitivity gas mass spectrometry (1, 2).⁶ The neutron fluence is then directly obtained by dividing the measured helium concentration by the spectrum-averaged cross section. Competing helium producing reactions, such as (γ,α) do not, except for ${}^9\text{Be}(\gamma,\alpha)$, affect the HAFM results. The range of helium concentrations that can be accurately measured in irradiated HAFMs extends from 10^{-14} to 10^{-1} atom fraction. This range permits the HAFMs to be tested in low fluence environments yet to work equally well for high fluence situations.

4.2 Typically, HAFMs are either individual small solid samples, such as wire segments (3) or miniature encapsulated samples of small crystals of powder (4), as shown in Fig. 1. As with radiometric dosimetry, different materials are used to provide different energy sensitivity ranges. Encapsulation is necessary for those HAFM materials and reactor environment combinations where sample melting, sample contamination, or loss of generated helium could possibly occur. Additionally, encapsulation generally facilitates the handling and identification of the HAFM both prior to and following irradiation. The contents of HAFM capsules typically range from 0.1 to 10 mg.

4.3 Following irradiation, encapsulated HAFMs are cleaned and identified in preparation for helium analysis. Helium analysis is then accomplished by vaporizing both the capsule and its contents and analyzing the helium in the resulting gases in a high sensitivity mass spectrometer system (5). The amount of ${}^4\text{He}$ is determined by measuring the ${}^4\text{He}$ -to- ${}^3\text{He}$ isotopic ratio in the sample gases subsequent to the addition of an accurately calibrated amount of ${}^3\text{He}$ "spike." Unencapsulated HAFMs, for example, pure element wires, are usually etched to remove a predetermined layer of outer material before helium analysis (3). This eliminates corrections for both cross contamination between samples and α -recoil into or out of the sample during the irradiation.

4.4 The ${}^4\text{He}$ concentration in the HAFM, in general terms, is proportional to the incident neutron fluence. Consideration

must, however, be made for such factors as HAFM material burnup, neutron self-shielding and flux depression, α -recoil, and neutron gradients. Corrections for these effects are discussed more fully in Section 13. Generally, they total less than 5 % of the measured helium concentration. Since the individual corrections are usually known to within 50 %, the total error from these corrections amounts to $\leq 2\%$. Sources of uncertainty also lie in the HAFM material mass, isotopic composition, and mass spectrometric helium analysis. As indicated in Section 13, however, these uncertainties generally contribute less than 1 % of the total uncertainty for routine analyses.

4.5 Applying the above corrections to the measured HAFM helium concentration, the total incident neutron fluence (over the energy range of sensitivity of the HAFM) can be obtained directly from a knowledge of the spectrum-integrated total helium production cross section for the particular irradiation environment. At the present time, the uncertainty in the derived neutron fluence is mainly due to uncertainty in the spectrum-integrated cross section of the HAFM sensor material rather than the combined uncertainties in the helium determination process. This situation is expected to improve as the cross sections are more accurately measured, integrally tested in benchmark facilities (6), and reevaluated.

5. Significance and Use

5.1 The HAFM test method is one of several available passive neutron dosimetry techniques (see, for example, Methods E 854 and E 1005). This test method can be used in combination with other dosimetry methods, or, if sufficient data are available from different HAFM sensor materials, as an alternative dosimetry test method. The HAFM method yields a direct measurement of total helium production in an irradiated sample. Absolute neutron fluence can then be inferred from this, assuming the appropriate spectrum integrated total helium production cross section. Alternatively, a calibration of the composite neutron detection efficiency for the HAFM method may be obtained by exposure in a benchmark neutron field where the fluence and spectrum averaged cross section are both known (see Matrix E 706 IIE).

5.2 HAFMs have the advantage of producing an end product, helium, which is stable, making the HAFM method very attractive for both short-term and long-term fluence measurements without requiring time-dependent corrections for decay. HAFMs are therefore ideal passive, time-integrating fluence

⁶ The boldface numbers in parentheses refer to the list of references appended to this test method.

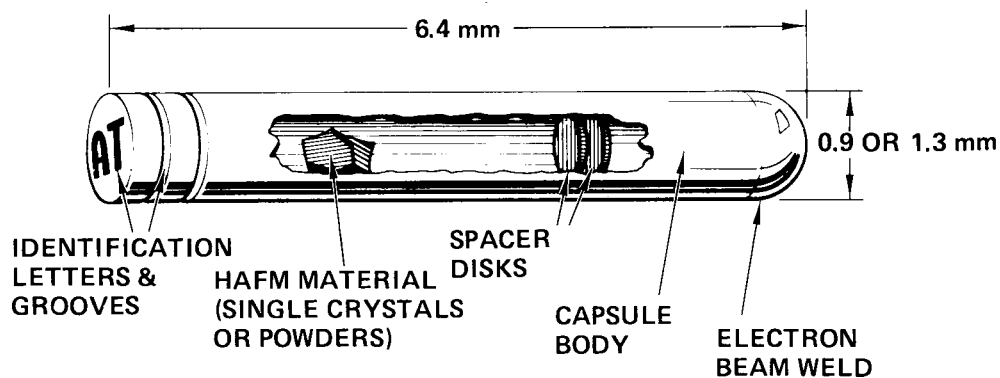


FIG. 1 Helium Accumulation Fluence Monitor Capsule

monitors. Additionally, the burnout of the daughter product, helium, is negligible.

5.2.1 Many of the HAFM materials can be irradiated in the form of unencapsulated wire segments (see 1.1.2). These segments can easily be fabricated by cutting from a standard inventoried material lot. The advantage is that encapsulation, with its associated costs, is not necessary. In several cases, unencapsulated wires such as Fe, Ni, Al/Co, and Cu, which are already included in the standard radiometric (RM) dosimetry sets (Table 1) can be used for both radiometric and helium accumulation dosimetry. After radiometric counting, the samples are later vaporized for helium measurement.

5.3 The HAFM method is complementary to RM and solid state track recorder (SSTR) foils, and has been used as an integral part of the multiple foil method. The HAFM method follows essentially the same principle as the RM foil technique, which has been used successfully for accurate neutron dosimetry for the past 20 to 25 years. Various HAFM sensor materials exist which have significantly different neutron energy sensitivities from each other. HAFMs containing ¹⁰B and ⁶Li have been used routinely in LMFBR applications in conjunction with RM foils. The resulting data are entirely compatible with existing adjustment methods for radiometric foil neutron dosimetry (refer to Method E 944).

5.4 An application for the HAFM method lies in the direct analysis of pressure vessel wall scrapings or Charpy block surveillance samples. Measurements of the helium production in these materials can provide in situ integral information on the neutron fluence spectrum. This application can provide dosimetry information at critical positions where conventional dosimeter placement is difficult if not impossible. Analyses must first be conducted to determine the boron, lithium, and other component concentrations, and their homogeneities, so that their possible contributions to the total helium production can be determined. Boron (and lithium) can be determined by converting a fraction of the boron to helium with a known thermal neutron exposure. Measurements of the helium in the material before and after the exposure will enable a determi-

nation of the boron content (7). Boron level down to less than 1 wt. ppm can be obtained in this manner.

5.5 By careful selection of the appropriate HAFM sensor material and its mass, helium concentrations ranging from ~10⁻¹⁴ to 10⁻¹ atom fraction can be generated and measured. In terms of fluence, this represents a range of roughly 10¹² to 10²⁷ n/cm². Fluence (>1 MeV) values that may be encountered during routine surveillance testing are expected to range from ~3 × 10¹⁴ to 2 × 10²⁰ n/cm², which is well within the range of the HAFM technique.

5.6 The analysis of HAFMs requires an absolute determination of the helium content. The analysis system specified in this test method incorporates a specialized mass spectrometer in conjunction with an accurately calibrated helium spiking system. Helium determination is by isotope dilution with subsequent isotope ratio measurement. The fact that the helium is stable makes the monitors permanent with the helium analysis able to be conducted at a later time, often without the inconvenience in handling caused by induced radioactivity. Such systems for analysis exist, and additional analysis facilities could be reproduced, should that be required. In this respect, therefore, the analytical requirements are similar to other ASTM test methods (compare with Test Method E 244).

6. Apparatus

6.1 *High-Sensitivity Gas Mass Spectrometer System*, capable of vaporizing both unencapsulated and encapsulated HAFM materials and analyzing the resulting total helium content is required. A description of a suitable system is contained in Ref (5).

6.2 *Analytical Microbalance for Accurate Weighing of HAFM Samples*, minimum specifications: 200-mg capacity with an absolute accuracy of ±0.5 µg. Working standard masses must be traceable to appropriate national or international mass standards. Additionally, a general purpose balance with a capacity of at least 200 g and an accuracy of 0.1 mg is required for weighing larger specimens.

6.3 *Laminar flow (optional) clean benches*, for use in the

TABLE 1 Neutron Characteristics of Candidate HAFM Materials for Reactor Vessel Surveillance

HAFM Sensor Material	Principal Helium Producing Reaction	Thermal Neutron Cross Section, (b)	Fission Neutron Spectrum	
			Cross Section, (mb) ^A	90 % Response Range, (MeV) ^A
Li	⁶ Li(n,α)T	942	457	0.167–5.66
Be	⁹ Be(n,α) ⁶ He;ra ⁶ Li	...	284	2.5–7.3
B	¹⁰ B(n,α) ⁷ Li	3838	494	0.066–5.25
N	¹⁴ N(n,α) ¹¹ B	...	86.2	1.7–5.7
F	¹⁹ F(n,α) ¹⁶ N	...	27.6	3.7–9.7
Al ^B	²⁷ Al(n,α) ²⁴ Na	...	0.903	6.47–11.9
S	³² S(n,α) ²⁹ Si
Cl	³⁵ Cl(n,α) ³² P	...	~13 (Cl)	2.6–8.3
Ti ^B	⁴⁷ Ti(n,α) ⁴⁴ Ca	...	0.634 (Ti)	6.5–12.8
Fe ^B	⁵⁶ Fe(n,α) ⁵³ Cr	...	0.395 (Fe)	5.2–11.9
Ni ^B	⁵⁸ Ni(n,α) ⁵⁵ Fe	...	5.58 (Ni)	3.9–10.1
Cu ^B	⁶³ Cu(n,α) ⁶⁰ Co	...	0.330	4.74–11.1
316-SS PV Steel Charpy Block	Helium Production Largely from ⁵⁶ Fe and ⁵⁸ Ni

^A Evaluated ²³⁵U fission neutron spectrum averaged helium production cross section and energy range in which 90 % of the reactions occur. All values are obtained from ENDF/B-V Dosimetry File data. Bracketed terms indicate cross section is for naturally occurring element.

^B Often included in dosimetry sets as a radiometric monitor, either as a pure element foil or wire or, in the case of aluminum, as an alloying material for other elements.

preparation of HAFM samples and capsules.

6.4 *Stereo microscope*, with 7 to 30 magnification, a ~0.1-mm graticule, and an optical illuminator.

6.5 *Electron beam welder*, with moveable platform stage, for sealing HAFM capsules, minimum specifications: variable beam power to 0 to 1 kW, variable beam size capable of focusing down to a diameter of 0.5 mm. Controls must also be available to permit automatic control of beam duration and onset and offset beam power slopes.

6.6 High temperature vacuum furnace for out-gassing HAFM materials, capsules, and mass spectrometer system furnace components. Minimum specifications: 1000°C at a maximum pressure of 10^{-5} Torr.

6.7 *Micro-sand blaster/cleaner*, for cleaning mass spectrometer vacuum furnace parts.

6.8 *X-ray machine*, for quality assurance test of HAFM capsules. Minimum specifications: 300 kV, 10 mA, 4-mm spot size with control of source distance to 1.0 m and exposure time to 5 min.

6.9 *General Laboratory Supplies*:

6.9.1 *Ultrasonic Cleaner*—100 to 200 W,

6.9.2 *Heat Lamp*—250 W, and

6.9.3 *Optical Pyrometer*—700 to 2000°C.

6.10 *Radioactive Material Handling*:

6.10.1 Lead shielding,

6.10.2 Portable radioactive (β - γ) counters (0.01 mrem/h to 100 rem/h), and

6.10.3 Radioactive waste disposal capability.

6.11 *Reagents and Materials*:

6.11.1 *Hydrochloric Acid (HCl)*, (37 %),

6.11.2 *Hydrofluoric Acid (HF)*, (48 %),

6.11.3 *Nitric Acid (HNO₃)*, (70 %),

6.11.4 *Sulfuric Acid (H₂SO₄)*, (96 %),

6.11.5 *Acetone [(CH₃)₂CO]*—Reagent grade (>99.7 %),

6.11.6 *Alcohol (C₂H₅OH)*—Pure (200 proof),

6.11.7 *Chloroform (CHCl₃)*—Reagent grade (>99.2 %),

6.11.8 *Distilled and Deionized Water*, and

6.11.9 *Detergent Cleaning Solution* (Alconox⁷ or equivalent).

7. HAFM Materials

7.1 *General Requirements*—The general requirements concerning the characteristics of HAFM materials fall into two broad categories: (1) nuclear properties and (2) chemical properties. These two categories are discussed separately below.

7.2 *Nuclear Properties*:

7.2.1 *Helium Production Cross Section*—Consideration must be made for the energy range or energy sensitivity of the (n, total helium) cross section of the potential HAFM sensor material. For any given neutron environment, the set of HAFMs or combination of HAFMs, RM, and SSTR multiple foils must be chosen to cover the entire neutron energy range (refer to Guide E 844). The majority of potential HAFM materials fall into the threshold reaction category. That is,

below the threshold energy (usually in the 1–10 MeV range), these materials produce essentially no helium from neutron reactions. Above this energy, however, the (n, total helium) cross section generally rises fairly rapidly to a plateau from where it continues to rise relatively slowly. Generally, the higher the threshold energy, the lower the total cross section. The threshold reaction HAFM isotopes presently identified as being most suitable for reactor vessel surveillance are ⁹Be, ¹⁴N, ¹⁹F, ²⁷Al, ³²S, ³⁵Cl, ⁵⁶Fe, ⁵⁸Ni and ⁶³Cu (see Table 1).

7.2.1.1 The two stable isotopes that have significant non-threshold helium production cross sections are ⁶Li and ¹⁰B. The cross sections of these two isotopes, which are large and well known, vary inversely with the neutron velocity below about 0.1 MeV. Above 0.1 MeV, the cross section behavior becomes more irregular, with the ⁶Li exhibiting a significant resonance near 0.24 MeV.

7.2.1.2 Other stable isotopes exist which have nonthreshold helium production cross sections, but all are much less than 1 barn (10^{-24} cm²). Of the radioactive isotopes, ⁵⁹Ni, which has a ~12 barn thermal neutron (n, α) cross section, is the only one important for HAFM neutron dosimetry through the two-stage reaction ⁵⁸Ni(n, γ), ⁵⁹Ni(n, α), ⁵⁶Fe. Also included in Table 1 are additional potential HAFM materials which are already included in the standard specified RM foil and metallurgical sets (refer to Matrix E 706) and thus may serve a double purpose (see 11.1). These materials include the natural elements Ti, Fe, Cu, and Ni; stainless steel dosimetry capsule material, RV steel; and Charpy block metallurgical specimens. Relevant characteristics of the various HAFM isotopes and materials are listed in Table 1. Aluminum is also often included in RM sets in the form of alloys of Co and Au.

7.2.2 *Activation Cross Sections*—Also to be considered in the selection of HAFM materials is their relative activation cross sections in typical reactor vessel neutron fields. Although activation reactions in general do not interfere with helium production (exceptions are cases of two-stage reactions as with ⁵⁸Ni, and cases where daughter products have contributing (n, α) reactions such as ⁹Be(n, α)⁶He \rightarrow ⁶Li), the resulting radioactive decay contributes to post-irradiation handling and analysis difficulties and, to this extent, should be minimized.

7.2.3 *Neutron Self-Shielding*—High cross section isotopes, such as ⁶Li and ¹⁰B, exhibit significant neutron self-shielding and surface flux depression in thermal and epithermal neutron environments. In order to apply these isotopes to reactor surveillance dosimetry, dilution of these materials by alloying is required to reduce their effective isotopic concentrations. Suitable alloying materials for boron and lithium at the 0.1 to 0.5 weight percent level are vanadium, niobium, and aluminum. Additional details on self-shielding are given in Section 13.

7.2.4 *Neutron Screening at Low Energies*—An alternate technique, or one that can be used in conjunction with alloying to reduce neutron self-shielding, is to protect the boron and lithium from low-energy neutrons by covering with appropriate materials. Cadmium or gadolinium provides a low-energy neutron cutoff of ~0.5 eV. A considerably higher cutoff energy can be achieved by shielding with boron carbide (B₄C). For 1 keV neutrons, ~4.5 cm of B₄C provides ~90 % attenuation.

⁷ Alconox is a registered trademark of Alconox Inc., 215 Park Ave. South, New York, NY 10003.

Because of the neutron perturbation effects of B_4C , however, this latter technique would be useful only at ex-vessel surveillance locations.

7.3 Sensor Chemical Properties—Various considerations must be made concerning the chemical properties of the HAFM sensor materials. Many of the HAFM isotopes, such as 6Li , 7Li , ^{14}N , etc., are conveniently useable only in compound form. Examples of suitable compounds are 6LiF , 7LiF , TiN , and ZrN . In the choice of the most useful compound, consideration must be given to such factors as: (1) helium production and activation cross sections of the host element (F, Ti, and Zr in the above examples), (2) homogeneity and stoichiometry of the compound, (3) residual impurities such as boron or lithium, (4) stability and resistance to decomposition at higher temperatures, (5) alloying potential with the encapsulating material, and (6) melting and vaporization temperatures, which are important when it comes to releasing the helium for mass spectrometric analysis.

7.4 HAFM Material Encapsulation—Encapsulation is necessary for those HAFM sensor materials and irradiation conditions for which there is a potential for either contamination, loss of generated helium from α -recoil or diffusion, or loss of sensor material itself. This includes those HAFM compounds which are in the form of fine powders or crystals, or which may melt at the temperatures anticipated in the irradiation environment. The encapsulating material must be chosen so as to completely contain the HAFM sensor and its generated helium, while at the same time having relatively low helium production and activation cross sections. The former is of importance for total helium production since the entire HAFM sensor plus capsule is later analyzed for helium. The latter is of importance in minimizing induced radioactivity in the HAFM capsule. Further requirements are that the encapsulating material must be reasonably durable to withstand handling before and after irradiation and that the material be both machinable and weldable to facilitate HAFM capsule fabrication. Generally, when it has been determined that the HAFM sensor material has itself the required helium retention, strength, and chemical inertness, the HAFM is used in the form of a “bare” wire segment without being encapsulated (3).

8. HAFM Material Processing

8.1 HAFM sensor and encapsulating materials must be analyzed for possible residual helium by pre-irradiation analysis of the various lot materials. In this regard, precautions should be taken to ensure that no helium has been used (as an inert gas) during any stage of material fabrication.

8.2 HAFM and encapsulating materials must also be analyzed for thermal neutron helium producing impurities (for example, 9Li and ^{10}B at sub-ppm levels). As discussed previously, this is most effectively done by helium analysis of a sample of each lot of material following a thermal neutron irradiation. The concentration and homogeneity of alloys containing low weight contents of boron and lithium (discussed earlier in 7.2.3) can also be determined in this way.

9. Manufacture of HAFMs

9.1 HAFM Capsules:

9.1.1 *Fabrication and X-ray Qualification*—As discussed

previously, encapsulation of HAFM sensor material is necessary in those cases where contamination, loss of sensor material, or loss of internally generated helium could occur. A typical HAFM capsule is shown in Fig. 1. These capsules generally are 6.4-mm long, with outside diameters of 0.9 or 1.3 mm and inside diameters ranging from 0.5 to 1 mm. To ensure no loss of internally generated helium, capsule walls must have a minimum thickness of 0.17 mm. This is most easily verified by X-ray inspection of each empty capsule from two perpendicular angles. To minimize time and cost, the capsules may be X-rayed in groups of approximately 100. Various X-ray conditions have been investigated, and from these tests, it has been determined that optimum capsule definition is obtained by enclosing the capsules in stainless steel hypodermic tubing during the X-ray procedure. The stainless steel serves both as a convenient holder and aligning material, and it has the effect of lowering the X-ray exposure to the film at the capsule edge. In this manner, a “sharp” material density edge for the X-rays is achieved, resulting in a well-defined capsule edge. Following the X-ray procedure, either the X-ray negatives or enlargement prints can be visually scanned using a calibrated magnifier to locate capsules whose central holes are not concentric and whose minimum wall thicknesses may fall outside the allowable limits. The X-ray negatives or prints should be kept on permanent file, with some means of identification for later tracing individual capsules back to the X-ray records.

9.1.1.1 In addition to the capsule X-ray number, each HAFM capsule should have an alphanumeric identification code stamped on the solid base, and as well may have one or two identifying grooves around the circumference. In this manner, individual capsules or groups of capsules can be identified remotely during post-irradiation hot cell recovery.

9.1.2 *HAFM Material Mass*—Encapsulated HAFM sensor materials can range in mass from single crystals (for example, ^{10}B or 6LiF) weighing less than 0.1 mg to fine crystalline powders weighing up to 10 mg. In each case, the total HAFM material mass should be determined using a microbalance and preferably a double substitution weighing scheme, in which the samples are compared with the working standard masses. Periodic calibration of the working standards must be made relative to appropriate national or international mass standards. Total mass accuracy, using this technique, is generally better than $\pm 0.3 \mu g$. For single crystals, the mass is best determined prior to loading. For the finer crystalline powders, however, the most reliable and accurate method of determining the mass is by weighing the HAFM capsule before and after loading.

9.1.3 *Capsule Welding*—Because of the need to exclude air, with its natural helium content, from the HAFM interior, weld closure of the capsule top is best accomplished by electron beam under vacuum. This form of welding has the additional advantage of precise control of weld power and heating zone. TIG welding, an alternate technique, would involve closure under an inert gas atmosphere which could complicate later helium analysis.

9.1.3.1 After HAFM material loading and prior to capsule welding, thin spacer disks should be placed above the sensor material to reflect the heat from the weld zone (see Fig. 1). This

is followed by partially closing the capsule top to facilitate the weld process. This can be accomplished either by insertion of a solid plug or by squeezing the top portion of the capsule together. Some gaps should be left in the capsule top to allow for complete evacuation (or inert gas backfilling) prior to final closure. To further reduce HAFM sensor material heating during welding, the lower portion of each capsule should be in firm contact with a suitable heat sink, "chill block." The length of the weld zone should be limited to the top ~ 1 mm of capsule.

9.1.4 *Final Capsule Weighing*—As an additional aid in pre- and post-irradiation identification, the final welded capsules should be weighed to an accuracy of at least ± 10 μg . Therefore, if part of the alphanumeric identification base code becomes unreadable, capsule identification would still be likely. Additionally, this additional weighing step reveals any possible HAFM material mass loss during the welding process. In this respect, capsule weighings before and after loading should include the actual spacer disks and weld cap (if applicable) to be used (see 9.1.3).

10. HAFM Analysis

10.1 *Outline of Test Method*—Determination of the helium content in HAFM materials is made by vaporizing the materials under vacuum. Immediately before the sample is vaporized and the ^4He is released, a precisely-known amount of ^3He is added (^3He "spike"). After mixing of the two isotopes, the gas passes over getters that remove unwanted gases, then passes into the mass spectrometer volume, which is isolated from its vacuum pump for "static mode" operation. The measurement of the $^4\text{He}/^3\text{He}$ ratio and a knowledge of the mass of the HAFM material then produces the helium concentration. A recommended helium analysis system has been described previously (5). Precautions must be taken to account for ^3He that might already be present in the HAFM (see 10.3.1).

10.2 Apparatus:

10.2.1 *Mass Spectrometer*—Magnetic sector mass spectrometer with all-metal tube and an interior volume of about 1 L. The instrument should have an electron impact ion source, electron multiplier, and an electrometer with current measuring capability of at least 10^{-13} A with a stability of $<10^{-14}$ A/h. Output from the electrometer can be monitored directly via a strip chart recorder or digitally averaged for real-time computer analysis. The mass resolving power of the mass spectrometer itself should be a minimum of 50 with a mass scanning range from 2 to 50 amu. Mass scanning capability is useful in checking for possible interfering background gases. In addition, the entire system should be bakeable to 300°C .

10.2.2 *Vacuum System*—To minimize the time necessary to pump away gas samples between analyses, a multiple vacuum system consisting of several independent subsystems should be used. Rapid pumpout can best be accomplished, especially in the case of helium, when sequential pumping is employed. A rotary pump and then a turbomolecular pump first remove most of the helium very rapidly. As soon as the lower limit is reached, an ion pump is used to reduce the vacuum to a lower level. Finally, another ion pump is used only to maintain the mass spectrometer in the 10^{-9} Torr range between analyses.

10.2.3 *Furnaces*—Several methods have been successfully

used to vaporize HAFM materials. For small samples (≤ 2 mg) with melting temperatures less than $\sim 1800^\circ\text{C}$, the samples can be readily vaporized in small resistance-heated 0.25-mm diameter tungsten wire coil baskets (2). Larger samples (>2 mg), including HAFM capsules or samples with melting temperatures above 1800°C , can be vaporized in larger resistance-heated cylindrical graphite crucibles (4.8-mm OD, 20-mm long) (2). Prior to loading, the tungsten coil baskets and graphite crucibles should be degassed in vacuum by heating to $\sim 1750^\circ\text{C}$ for about 2 min. Vacuum furnaces have been constructed that contain up to ten individual tungsten coils or graphite crucibles. The design of the vacuum furnaces must allow vaporization of samples with masses ranging from about 0.5 to 200 mg (the heavier masses are associated with encapsulated HAFMs). During analysis, the current through the baskets or crucibles is steadily increased until decomposition of the tungsten or graphite occurs. In this manner, vaporization of the enclosed sample and total helium release is assured. For maximum sensitivity for very low level samples, the heating can be stopped prior to tungsten or graphite decomposition provided it can be ascertained that all HAFM sensor material has been vaporized. This reduced heating generally reduces the amount of helium "background" released by the furnace itself.

10.2.3.1 A third furnace type has been used to vaporize larger metallic samples with melting points up to $\sim 1200^\circ\text{C}$ (8). This furnace uses a graphite crucible which is resistance heated and then maintained at a constant temperature of $\sim 2000^\circ\text{C}$. Samples are dropped individually by remote means into the heated crucible and vaporized. The fact that the furnace temperature remains essentially constant during the analysis procedure reduces the uncertainty in the furnace "blank"—the amount of helium attributable to the furnace itself. This reduced uncertainty has the effect of lowering the effective detection limit of the mass spectrometer system. Using this technique, samples with masses up to ~ 1 g can be analyzed, with a resulting helium analysis uncertainty of $\sim 1 \times 10^8$ atoms. In copper, this is equivalent to a helium concentration of $\sim 10^{-14}$ atom fraction.

10.2.4 *Getters*—A system of getters should be used to purify the helium gas sample before it is admitted into the mass spectrometer, and to maintain a high vacuum in the mass spectrometer while it is being operated in the static mode. The getters could consist, for example, of a liquid-nitrogen-cooled charcoal trap, followed by, but separated from, a nonevaporable alloy getter (such as the SAES GT-50). Another alloy getter should be permanently attached to the mass spectrometer itself to maintain the vacuum while the instrument is isolated from its ion pump during sample analysis.

10.2.5 *Spike System*—A network of accurately calibrated volumes which dispenses known quantities of ^3He and ^4He , for calibration and for isotope dilution purposes, should be available. For convenience, this network can be attached directly to the mass spectrometer line. The size and required accuracy of the ^3He and ^4He spikes must be determined in conjunction with the characteristics of the mass spectrometer and the analysis lines to allow for absolute helium measurements in the range of 10^{10} to 10^{18} atoms of helium to an accuracy of 1 to 2 %. Glass

stopcocks should be used throughout the spike system rather than stainless steel valves, mainly because the stopcocks provide a more positive and reliable barrier through which helium has little chance of passing unnoticed. Another important advantage over stainless steel valves is the ease with which the volumes between the stopcocks may be calibrated. Helium absorption on vacuum grease is negligible. Although most of the spike system, including all the stopcocks, can be made of borosilicate glass, the volumes which are used for long-term storage of helium must be made either from aluminosilicate glass (Corning Type 1720)⁸, which is relatively impervious to helium, or from stainless steel.

10.2.6 The spiking systems should include, in addition to various sized ³He and ⁴He spikes, a standard spike mixture of both ³He and ⁴He. This mixture is required for calibration of the relative sensitivity of the mass spectrometer for masses 3 and 4. Further, the separate ³He and ⁴He spikes can be used to provide additional combinations of the two helium isotopes for further verification of the relative sensitivity, for verifying that the individual spike systems are dispensing the expected amounts of ³He and ⁴He, and to cross check the calibration and linearity of the mass spectrometer system as a whole. Additional calibration of the system should also be accomplished using an independent standard source of helium concentration. Standard helium gas mixtures can be obtained from the U.S. Bureau of Mines. Alternatively, air, which has a known helium concentration (5.24 appm), can be used (9).

10.3 *Analysis Procedure*—After estimating the approximate helium concentration in the HAFM sample, and after determining its mass, the sample is loaded into one of the vaporizing systems attached to the mass spectrometer (see 10.2.3). After suitable vacuum pumping (usually over night), the samples are ready for analysis. Immediately before the heating operation and the release of the sample gas, an appropriately sized spike of ³He is added. Unless other released gases interfere, complete mixing of the isotopes occurs in a few seconds. From this point on, it does not matter what fraction of gas is used for the analysis because only the ratio ⁴He/³He needs to be determined.

10.3.1 The removal of unwanted gases released during the vaporization of the sample is accomplished while the helium passes by the getters. The most important aspect of the operation is to make sure that as little helium as possible from all other sources contaminates the sample gas and changes the sample-plus-spike ⁴He/³He ratio before it is measured. This means that the purification should be done quickly.

10.3.2 A typical procedure is to allow the gas to expand into the liquid-nitrogen-cooled charcoal getter, after which the connecting all-metal valve is closed. The gas thus trapped (between 1 and 10 % of the total, depending on the size of the furnace assembly used) is sufficient for the mass spectrometric determination of the isotopic composition. After about 20 s, this aliquot of gas is permitted to expand into the getter enclosure. Finally, the gas is allowed into the mass spectrometer volume which is isolated from its ion pump. It stays in this volume until the isotopic ratio measurements are complete.

The small amount of helium admitted is usually about 10⁻⁷ cc STP, which does not deleteriously affect the mass spectrometer vacuum.

10.3.3 Gas samples from milligram-size specimens whose helium concentrations are above 0.1 appm are sufficiently large that a very small permeation or desorption of ⁴He into the mass spectrometer can be ignored. For smaller samples, this constant leak becomes perceptible, and eventually it sets the detection limit of the instrument. Thus, in all analyses, the ⁴He/³He ratio is carefully examined for systematic increase; and, if such an increase is found, the ratio is measured against time and extrapolated to the exact time the sample was admitted to the mass spectrometer volume. The ratio that is obtained is the helium isotopic ratio at the time the sample was introduced, which does not account for ⁴He leakage into the sample line or furnace. By taking a second and third aliquot of gas from this sample furnace, and analyzing them as described above, results can be extrapolated to give the true amount of ⁴He that was released from the sample. This can be done with negligible uncertainty introduced as a result of the extrapolation, except for the case of extremely small samples of helium.

10.3.3.1 *HAFMs that Contain ³He*—In a few cases, ³He is also present in irradiated HAFMs. If so, it must be accounted for in the mass spectrometric analysis because it would not be distinguished from the ³He “spike.” This isotope is rarely formed directly by nuclear reactions, but usually occurs as the result of decaying tritium. In the case of ⁶LiF HAFMs, tritium is formed every time a helium atom is generated, so ³He can become significant after a few month’s decay. Very few other HAFM reactions produce tritium, but this gas can pass through many metals with ease, and consequently HAFMs that have not themselves generated any tritium can still contain this gas and its ³He daughter, just from being in a reactor core environment. In order to measure both helium isotopes simultaneously, therefore, a slightly modified mass spectrometric procedure is employed. A small known fraction of the helium gas released from the HAFM is analyzed for isotopic content before, rather than after, the addition of the spike. After the ³He content is measured with respect to the ⁴He, the ³He spike is added to the remainder of the gas sample, and the altered isotopic ratio is measured to provide absolute concentration. Once it has been established that the ³He content in a set of HAFMs is negligible compared with the added ³He spike, this modified procedure is no longer required.

11. Irradiation Guidelines

11.1 *Selection of HAFM Sensor Material*—There are several factors to be considered in the selection of HAFM materials for reactor vessel surveillance. Of primary importance is the desired energy coverage. Since the HAFM method is closely tied to the radiometric foil dosimetry method, the HAFM sensor materials should be chosen to complement the various multiple foils present. As discussed earlier, some RM and metallurgical materials can provide data for both methods simultaneously. Examples of this double utilization include using the ⁴⁶Ti(n,p)⁴⁶Sc, ⁵⁴Fe(n,p)⁵⁴Mn, ⁵⁸Ni(n,p)⁵⁸Co, ⁵⁸Ni(n,α)⁵⁵Fe, ⁵⁹Co(n,γ)⁶⁰Co, ⁶³Cu(n,α)⁶⁰Co, and ¹⁰⁹Ag(n,γ)^{110m}Ag reactions for radiometric determinations, while at the same time using the natural Ti, Fe, Ni, and Cu, and

⁸ Available from Corning Glass Works, Corning, NY 14831.

the alloys Al-0.1 %Co and Al-0.1 %Ag for helium accumulation. Beryllium has proven to be a useful dosimeter for low fluence applications, for example in reactor cavity locations. The ${}^9\text{Be}(n, \text{total He})$ cross section is sufficiently large so as to result in measurable helium levels in the low appb range. The neutron energy threshold for helium generation in beryllium is approximately 2 MeV.

11.1.1 Also to be considered are the masses of the various HAFM sensor materials. Because of the relatively large range of helium production cross sections for the various HAFM materials, each material must be assessed for its total helium production in the particular irradiation environment. With the standard HAFM capsule dimensions described earlier, HAFM material mass can range from about 0.1 to 10 mg. For very low fluence applications, slightly thinner walled capsules can be employed to increase internal volume and maximize sensor material mass.

11.1.2 For lower energy neutron fields, the nonthreshold HAFM materials, ${}^6\text{Li}$ and ${}^{10}\text{B}$, required alloying in order to reduce their effective nuclear density and subsequent self-shielding/flux depression corrections. Corrections are nevertheless usually required to account for material burnup. The effective energy range of the non-threshold HAFM (and radiometric) materials can be changed by placing thermal neutron shields such as boron (B_4C), gadolinium, or cadmium around the set of HAFMs.

11.1.3 Consideration must also be given to the total helium produced in the encapsulating material itself. Vanadium is often used, but for some very low (n, α) cross section sensor materials, the relative contribution from the vanadium can become significant. To this end, empty “blank” HAFM capsules should be included in order to determine the helium contribution from the encapsulating material.

11.1.4 Encapsulation materials other than vanadium with significantly lower threshold (n, α) cross sections are available. These include platinum, gold, and alloys of these two elements. Of these, the gold-platinum alloys have advantages because (1) the alloys are physically harder than either gold or platinum separately, and are therefore less susceptible to damage during handling and (2) the alloys have a lower thermal conductivity than either pure gold or pure platinum, and this reduces electron beam welding difficulties resulting from heating of the sensor materials. An additional advantage for gold, platinum, or alloys of these elements is that they can be obtained in very high purities, often with extremely low (or negligible) amounts of boron or lithium. Boron or lithium is extremely important for HAFM materials to be used for pressure vessel surveillance because of the relatively high thermal neutron fluxes at typical reactor surveillance locations.

11.2 *Experimental Considerations*—In order to reduce the possibility of external helium contamination, HAFMs should be irradiated in a non-helium atmosphere if possible. If thermal heat sinking is required to prevent HAFM overheating, argon, or preferably neon which has a higher thermal conductivity, may be used to surround the HAFMs. If the HAFM must be placed in a helium environment, the resulting surface helium can be removed by post-irradiation surface etching (generally $\leq 10 \mu\text{m}$). The effectiveness of this procedure may be verified

by the analysis of empty “blank” irradiated capsules, with and without the etching step.

11.2.1 If it is feasible, duplicate HAFM capsules of each type should be irradiated at each desired location. This will yield a measure of the HAFM reproducibility and also improve the final statistics. Unencapsulated HAFMs, such as bare wires of elements or alloys, generally do not require duplication since one piece is usually sufficient to provide duplicate or triplicate analyses. In extreme cases where knowledge of the reproducibility is essential, encapsulated small crystals or crystalline powder can be removed from the HAFM capsule after irradiation and analyzed as separate lots. Inclusion of one or more empty “blank” HAFM capsules in each irradiation environment is necessary to verify the contribution to the total helium from the capsule itself.

12. Calculation

12.1 The total helium concentration, H , in an irradiated HAFM is calculated as follows:

$$H = N/MS \quad (1)$$

where:

N = total number of helium atoms measured in the HAFM,

M = HAFM mass, (g), and

S = HAFM nuclear density, (atoms/g).

12.2 The incident neutron fluence, ϕt , may be obtained from the total helium concentration, H , as follows:

$$\phi t = H/\bar{\sigma} \quad (2)$$

where:

ϕ = neutron fluence rate ($\text{n}/\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}$),

t = irradiation time (s), and

$\bar{\sigma}$ = spectrum averaged HAFM cross section (cm^2).

12.2.1 Eq 2 assumes negligible burnup of the helium generation material. Except for the non-threshold isotopes, ${}^6\text{Li}$ and ${}^{10}\text{B}$ (see 13.3), burnup will be negligible for typical surveillance location fluences.

12.2.2 Therefore, it is possible, from Eq 2, to calculate the neutron fluence from a measurement of H provided sufficient data are available to accurately calculate $\bar{\sigma}$. More likely, however, H would be used in combination with other integral dosimetry detector data, using available adjustment codes (see, for example, Methods E 261, E 944, and Matrix E 706) to predict the neutron fluence.

12.3 *Benchmark Testing*—As discussed earlier, the largest contributor to the uncertainty in any derived neutron fluence, ϕt , obtained from HAFM or other dosimetry data, or both, is the uncertainty in $\bar{\sigma}$. Experimental testing of candidate HAFM materials in benchmark neutron facilities, particularly fission neutron spectra, will result in significant improvements in evaluated HAFM cross sections as well as providing an overall check of systematic errors (see Matrix E 706). Testing of boron and lithium HAFMs has already been conducted in several benchmarks, (6) including the fission cavity field of the BR1 reactor at Mol, Belgium (10).

13. Precision and Bias

NOTE 1—Measurement uncertainty is described by a precision and bias statement in this standard. Another acceptable approach is to use Type A and B uncertainty components (12, 13). This Type A/B uncertainty

specification is now used in International Organization for Standardization (ISO) standards and this approach can be expected to play a more prominent role in future uncertainty analyses.

13.1 Uncertainties and errors in the helium generation reaction rate obtained by the HAFM method fall into four general categories: (1) mass, isotopic content, composition, and purity of HAFM materials; (2) mass spectrometer helium analysis uncertainties; (3) self-shielding, flux depression, and other neutron perturbation corrections; and (4) HAFM and capsule material helium background corrections. These various categories are discussed below and summarized in Table 2. For those cases where combinations of random uncertainties and possible systematic errors occur, these have been combined following the methods outlined by Wagner (11).

13.2 It should be noted that many of the uncertainty and error estimates in categories 3 and 4 (for example, corrections for neutron self-shielding and neutron gradients) are conservative and are based on previous HAFM experience in breeder reactor-type neutron spectra. It is fully expected that these estimates will be improved when sufficient LWR irradiation data are available. It should also be noted that the uncertainties associated with the measurement of total helium production are significantly lower than current uncertainty estimates for typical reactor vessel neutron field spectrum averaged cross sections (see 13.5).

13.2.1 *HAFM Material Properties*—HAFM material mass determinations have been discussed in 9.1.2. Uncertainty in mass is generally less than $\pm 0.3 \mu\text{g}$. Thus, for the usual range of HAFM material mass (0.1 to 10 mg), the total uncertainty is less than 0.3 %.

13.2.1.1 HAFM isotopic composition is of particular importance for separated isotopes and enriched or depleted isotopic compounds such as ^{10}B or ^6LiF . For these materials, uncertainty in isotopic composition is generally less than 0.5 %.

13.2.1.2 Residual impurities in HAFM materials have been discussed in Section 8. For ultrapure materials, impurity levels are generally less than several appm and are thus generally negligible for helium production when compared to the pri-

mary isotope of interest ($<0.002 \%$). The exception to this is low levels of boron and, to a lesser extent, lithium. If the HAFM material is to be used in neutron fields which have a significant low energy neutron component, particular care must be taken to ensure that the material has very low levels of these two elements because of the very high relative helium production cross sections of the isotopes ^{10}B and ^6Li at low neutron energies. As was discussed in Section 8, potential HAFM materials for such low energy neutron environments must first be examined for boron or lithium impurities (or other impurity elements which might cause excessive activation) by irradiation in a thermal neutron source, followed by helium analysis.

13.2.1.3 Potential errors in the helium production from boron and lithium impurity can be assessed. Lithium is generally not a problem because it is relatively volatile and thus is most likely to have been eliminated as an impurity during material fabrication. Additionally, the low isotopic abundance of ^6Li (7.5 % in natural lithium), combined with its lower thermal and epi-thermal neutron cross section (as compared to ^{10}B), reduces the relative effect of any lithium impurity by about a factor of 10. More consideration must be given to potential boron impurities, however. For the higher cross section HAFM materials, such as ^9Be , ^{14}N , ^{19}F , and ^{35}Cl , a boron impurity of $\sim 1 \text{ wt. ppm}$ could result in a background helium production in LWR in-vessel surveillance locations of up to $\sim 10 \%$ of the total helium generation. For the lower cross section HAFM materials, such as ^{27}Al , ^{56}Fe , ^{63}Cu , PV wall scrapings, and Charpy specimens, however, a similar boron impurity could produce up to 50 % of the total generated helium. This is of particular importance to the wall scrapings and Charpy specimens, because the compositions of the steel alloys used for PV wall construction typically contain up to 1 to 2 wt. ppm of boron. This makes it necessary to determine the boron content of the steel using archived or unirradiated specimens. Of course, at the higher boron levels, the correction to account for this effect would dominate the helium coming from the reaction of interest. In such cases, the total helium measurement would more appropriately be used to determine the thermal or low-energy neutron fluence. However, for dosimetry materials other than PV or Charpy specimens, the effects of a boron impurity can be significantly reduced by shielding the dosimeters with either cadmium or gadolinium.

13.2.1.4 A final source of error in this area is stoichiometry of compounds or composition of alloys. For those compounds whose stoichiometric characteristics are uncertain, as is the case for many nitrides, chemical analysis to determine exact chemical composition is necessary. Uncertainty in this area is usually less than 1 %, but this depends on the compound. For the low weight percentage boron and lithium alloys, boron and lithium contents can be determined to $\sim \pm 2 \%$. It is important, however, that homogeneity be verified over the entire lot. This can be accomplished by irradiating representative specimens together in a uniform thermal neutron flux, using a rotating holder if necessary, and subsequently analyzing the helium content in each segment by mass spectrometry.

13.2.2 *Mass Spectrometer Analysis*—The absolute accuracy of the mass spectrometric helium measurements depends on errors in the measurements of the indicated ^3He to ^4He ratio,

TABLE 2 Sources of Experimental Uncertainty and Error

Source of Uncertainty and Error	Percent Uncertainty, $(1\sigma)^A$
HAFM Material Properties	
HAFM mass	<0.3
Isotopic content	<0.5
Impurity effects (other than boron or lithium)	<0.0002
Boron and lithium impurity effects	<1 to 20 (see text)
HAFM alloy composition	~ 2
Stoichiometry	<1
Mass Spectrometer Analysis	
Reproducibility	<0.5
Absolute accuracy	≤ 1 (see text)
Corrections Applied to Helium Production	
Neutron self-shielding/flux depression	~ 2
Neutron gradients	<1
Material burnup	(see text)
α -recoil and diffusion	(see text)
Helium Contribution from Capsule and Host Material	
Capsule material background	<1

^A Percent uncertainty (1σ) on measured helium generation rate.

errors in the relative sensitivity of the mass spectrometer to masses 3 and 4 (mass discrimination), and errors in the absolute helium “spike” added to the sample.

13.2.2.1 Determination of the ratio of $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ is accomplished by repeatedly adjusting the mass spectrometer so that the ^4He and ^3He ion beams are sequentially recorded. Multiple measurements of isotopic ratios usually have less than 0.5 % 1σ standard deviation.

13.2.2.2 The nearly constant mass discrimination of the mass spectrometer can be determined for each day’s runs by measuring the ^3He to ^4He ratio in premixed solutions or in mixtures obtained from the individual ^3He and ^4He spikes. Additional uncertainty can also arise from small sensitivity variations during the day’s runs. Numerous measurements of samples with constant helium concentration have established a total system reproducibility of 0.4 to 0.5 %.

13.2.2.3 Spike system accuracy is determined from precise calibration of the various storage and aliquot volumes in the spiking system, and from precise data obtained during each spike system filling. With care, and proper design of the system absolute spike size accuracy can be maintained to better than 0.3 % (9).

13.3 *Helium Production Corrections*—Non-threshold HAFM materials, such as ^6Li and ^{10}B , require relatively large corrections for neutron self-shielding and flux depression in low energy neutron environments. Such corrections require a detailed knowledge of both the material energy dependent cross section and the neutron spectral shape and, therefore, are subject to relatively large potential errors (up to 50 %). Low weight percentage (about 0.1 to 0.5 %) alloys of these two isotopes, however, require thermal neutron self-shielding corrections of $\leq 4\%$. Resulting uncertainty in the corrected helium generation should therefore be $< 2\%$. Threshold HAFM materials have (n,α) cross sections sufficiently low such that neutron self-shielding and flux depression are entirely negligible.

13.3.1 Additional corrections may also be required for such factors as HAFM material burnup and α -recoil. Material burnup is only significant for the non-threshold isotopes ^6Li and ^{10}B . Depending on the irradiation facility and location, boron and lithium burnup can range from almost zero to $> 98\%$, but is generally kept below $\sim 20\%$ to maintain high sensitivity to neutron fluence. Uncertainty associated with this burnup correction is, however, very small.

13.3.1.1 Alpha recoil corrections are not required for encapsulated HAFMs because the recoiling alphas are retained by the capsule material. Effects of α -recoil in unencapsulated HAFMs can be nullified by etching the HAFMs after the irradiation to remove the affected surface altogether. Accordingly, the samples are selected before the irradiation to have a sufficient size for this procedure. In special cases (e.g., pressure vessel wall scrapings), optimum size samples may not be available. For these cases, complete removal of the affected surface by etching may not be possible, and a small correction for α -recoil effects may be required.

13.3.2 Helium loss by diffusion is not expected to occur in the alloys and metals presently contemplated for dosimetry in LWR environments. This is supported by evidence from the

more severe environment in the Experimental Breeder Reactor (EBR-II), where diffusion from many metals and through encapsulated HAFMs has been found to be negligible for in- and out-of-core locations. Further tests may be required, however, for the special case of very small sample sizes (≤ 0.05 mm), discussed above.

13.3.3 For the HAFM materials discussed in this standard, helium generation by non-neutron reactions is limited to gamma-induced helium generation in beryllium. The $^9\text{Be}(\gamma,\text{He})$ cross section has a threshold of about 1 MeV and an average cross section of about 1 mb from 1 to 20 MeV. This compares to an average cross section of about 300 mb for $\text{Be}(n,\text{He})$ in typical LWR spectra. For LWR dosimetry locations, the gamma flux will be comparable to the neutron flux and thus the effect of the photohelium reaction in beryllium will be small to negligible. Consideration must be given, however, to possible enhanced gamma flux due to neutron reactions with high Z materials such as cadmium that may be used as a thermal neutron shield.

13.4 *HAFM and Capsule Material Background*—Depending on the HAFM and encapsulating material, additional sources of generated helium can occur. Vanadium has a relatively low (n,α) cross section with a threshold of about 6 MeV. This usually results in a vanadium contribution to the total helium production of less than 1 %. Other potential HAFM encapsulating materials, such as gold/platinum alloys, have significantly lower (n,α) cross sections. Correction for the encapsulation material contribution can be made by including “blank” empty capsules in each irradiation location, or from calculated reaction rate data extrapolated to the irradiation location. Corrections must also be made for any helium production occurring from host elements in HAFM sensor compounds. Examples are $^{19}\text{F}(n,\alpha)$ in ^6LiF , and $^{48}\text{Ti}(n,\alpha)$ in TiN, etc. Generally, these contributions are small ($< 1\%$) and, as such, can either be neglected or accounted for using calculated reaction rate data, as discussed previously.

13.5 *Adjusted Spectral Averaged Cross Sections*—Uncertainties in calculated and/or adjusted spectral averaged helium production cross sections ($\bar{\sigma}$) in LWR surveillance environments may dominate the uncertainty in the derived exposure parameter values for this test method. Guide E 482, Methods E 994, E 1018, and Matrix E 706 offer procedures and data for arriving at these cross sections and their uncertainties.

13.6 *Total Uncertainty in the Measured Helium Generation Reaction Rate*—From Table 2, the total measurement uncertainty (quadrature) using the HAFM technique is in the range of 2 to 3 %. This estimate is valid for dosimeters that contain at least 10^{11} atoms of helium (10^{10} atoms for materials with melting points below $\sim 1200^\circ\text{C}$). This is significantly lower than current uncertainty estimates in typical reactor vessel neutron field unfolded spectrum averaged cross sections. As a result, the uncertainty in the derived neutron fluence (ϕt) from HAFM and other dosimetry data is currently limited by this cross section uncertainty.

14. Quality Assurance

14.1 Because of the importance of reactor pressure vessel surveillance to reactor safety, all facets of the use of helium

accumulation fluence monitors for reactor pressure vessel surveillance must follow an established set of procedures to maintain the accuracy and traceability of the dosimetry results. Information required for the proper use and interpretation of data obtained from the HAFM method are contained in previous sections.

14.2 Specific documentation requirements related to HAFM design, fabrication, and analysis are as follows:

14.2.1 Document all data and uncertainties relating to the HAFM sensor materials, including origin, purity, lot number, and stoichiometry. A knowledge of the precise stoichiometry is of particular importance for nitrides and oxides. In all cases where there are significant low-energy or thermal neutrons, the impurity concentrations of boron and lithium must be extremely low or accurately determined. Accurate determination is also required, of course, if boron or lithium themselves are the desired primary sensor materials. This would be the case, for example, for alloys such as Al-B or Al-Li, as described in 7.2.3. Additional information on the importance of boron and lithium is given in 8.2 and 13.2.1.3.

14.2.2 Document all procedures used and data obtained during HAFM capsule fabrication, including capsule X-ray number, sensor material and mass, capsule mass, encapsulating material, mass loss during welding, and leak check results. Document all uncertainties.

14.2.3 Document all sample preparation procedures that

follow the irradiation, including any sample surface etching, or sample segmentation.

14.2.4 Document all procedures used and data obtained during mass spectrometric analysis of the HAFM, including date and time of analysis, helium spike information, mass spectrometer discrimination factor, and special procedures such as those used for the simultaneous measurement of ^3He and ^4He . Document all corrections to the data, including background subtractions. Document all uncertainties.

14.2.5 Document all data and uncertainties used to convert measured helium concentrations to reaction rates, including reactor time-history, contributions of helium from the encapsulating material or other constituent elements such as zirconium in ZrN, and other corrections such as those for neutron self-shielding.

14.3 Quality assurance procedures associated with the reactor surveillance irradiation, including the design and location of sensors in dosimetry sets, and the use of the HAFM reaction rate data for surveillance analysis, are given in other ASTM standards (for example, Guide E 844, Practice E 853, Guide E 900, and Practice E 944).

14.4 All procedures and documentation must be maintained and accessible for a time period long enough to ensure availability for the full operating life of the reactor. This time period can be 20 to 40 years or longer.

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 **E 910**

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