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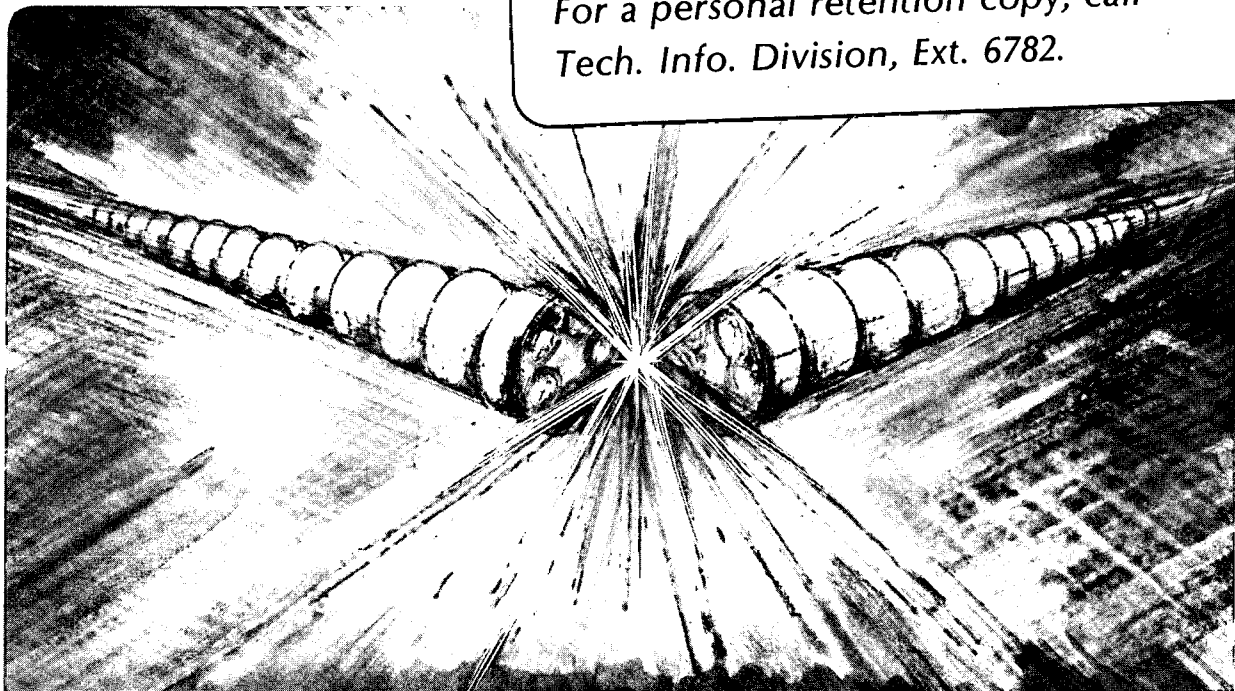
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**CHARGE-TRANSFER COLLISIONS FOR POLARIZED ION SOURCES\***

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Paper presented at the  
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May 23-28, 1983.

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# CHARGE-TRANSFER COLLISIONS FOR POLARIZED ION SOURCES

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## ABSTRACT

Charge-transfer processes relevant to polarized ion sources are discussed and results are summarized. The primary atom discussed is hydrogen, with particular emphasis on  $H^-$  formation. Heavier negative ions are briefly discussed.

## INTRODUCTION

Many atomic charge-transfer processes must be understood and atomic data utilized in the design of polarized ion sources, discussed in other papers presented at this conference. Charge-transfer data have been summarized in articles<sup>1-5</sup>; data on charge-transfer in metal-vapor targets have been summarized mainly in conference proceedings.<sup>6-9</sup> This paper contains discussion and summary of charge-transfer processes for hydrogen atoms and ions, primarily in metal-vapor targets, with an emphasis on  $H^-$  formation. Formation of metastable  $H(2s)$  for Lamb-shift polarized ion sources is also discussed, as are (briefly) formation of  $He^-$  and heavier negative ions.

Formation of negative hydrogen ions is of both basic and applied interest: for basic physics research, for injection into accelerators, and for attachment to low-energy atoms for energy analysis. Furthermore, fast  $H^-$  can be readily converted to  $H^0$  with high efficiency, with applications to heating of fusion plasmas and to weapons. There are three methods of creating  $H^-$  ions: charge transfer, (passage of  $H^+$  or  $H^0$  through a vapor or gas target), surface production (backscattering or desorption of  $H^-$  from a low work function surface by ion or atom impact), and "volume" production (direct production of  $H^-$  in a discharge). Only charge transfer will be discussed here, since all

H<sup>-</sup> polarized ion sources known to the author use charge transfer for the H<sup>-</sup> production. (Surface ionization has been used in positive polarized ion sources.) The discussion will concentrate on metal-vapor targets as charge-transfer media, the reason for which can be seen in Fig. 1, which shows the equilibrium yield of H<sup>-</sup> for typical gaseous and metal-vapor targets; the metal-vapor targets are a factor of 10 more efficient than are gas targets in converting H<sup>+</sup> or H<sup>0</sup> to H<sup>-</sup> at low energies (< 10 keV). There are, of course, other considerations in the selection of a charge-transfer medium, e.g., the energy of the hydrogen beam, scattering in the target, the target thickness required for charge-state equilibrium, target temperature required, and ease of pumping and of handling the target material.

Results for hydrogen and deuterium are intermixed in this paper. Hydrogen and deuterium projectiles at the same velocity have been found to have the same total cross sections and yields over the energy range considered; therefore results for D projectiles will be treated as if the experiment had been performed using H at half the energy, and vice versa. This does not hold for differential cross sections nor for partial cross sections (scattering into or outside of a given angle), for which H and D must be separately considered.

#### SYSTEMATICS OF CHARGE TRANSFER

This section contains a general discussion of the systematics of charge transfer; the reader is also referred to Refs. 3 and 4 and to the appendix of Ref. 10.

A beam of intensity  $I_{inc}$  is incident on a target of thickness  $\tau$  (Fig. 2). Target thickness  $\tau$  is the integral of the target density along the beam path:

$$\tau = \int_0^{\ell} n(x) dx \equiv \tau \ell_{eff} \quad (1)$$

where  $n(x)$  is density,  $x$  is measured along the beam path,  $\ell$  is the total distance over which  $n(x)$  is non-zero,  $\tau$  is the average

density, and  $\lambda_{\text{eff}}$  is the effective target length. The beam in Fig. 2 is shown leaving the target in 3 charge states, with intensity  $I_+$ ,  $I_0$ , and  $I_-$ . More generally, the fraction of the beam leaving the target in charge state  $i$  is  $F_i(\tau)$ .

$$F_i(\tau) = \frac{I_i(\tau)}{\sum_j I_j(\tau)} \quad (2)$$

By definition

$$\sum_i F_i(\tau) \equiv 1 \quad (3)$$

The equilibrium yield,  $F_i^\infty$ , is the fraction in charge state  $i$  of the beam leaving the target relative to the total beam after the target, for a very thick target.

$$F_i^\infty = \lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} F_i(\tau) \quad (4)$$

Some experimenters measure the conversion efficiency  $\eta_i(\tau)$  rather than  $F_i(\tau)$ ;  $\eta_i(\tau)$  is the fraction of beam in charge state  $i$  leaving the target relative to the incident beam.

$$\eta_i(\tau) = \frac{I_i(\tau)}{I_{\text{inc}}} \quad (5)$$

For a given geometry, there is some optimum value of  $\tau$  such that  $\eta_i(\tau)$  exhibits a maximum:  $\eta_i^{\text{opt}}$ . Because scattered beam can be lost from a target,

$$\sum I_i \leq I_{\text{inc}}, \quad (6)$$

and

$$\lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} \eta_i(\tau) = 0 \quad (7)$$

We have shown in the appendix to Ref. 10 that

$$\eta_i^{\text{opt}} \leq F_i^\infty \quad (8)$$

Also,  $F_i^\infty$  is independent of target geometry, while  $\eta_i^{opt}$  is dependent on the geometry of the target.

A schematic example showing fluxes and charge-state fractions for a typical 3-state system is shown in Figs. 3a and 3b. The equilibrium charge-state fractions are apparent in Fig. 3b, while optimum fluxes (equivalent to  $\eta_i^{opt}$ ) are evident in Fig. 3a.

There are certain (unusual) 3-state systems in which  $F_i$  exhibits an optimum value (Fig. 4a). An example is the fraction  $F_0$  for fast  $H^-$  incident on a target;  $F_0$  is optimal for some value of  $\tau$ , then decreases with further increase of target thickness.

Charge transfer for a 4-state system is often different, especially when one or more states is fragile, i.e., the fragile state is generated only from a particular state which disappears after several collisions, while the fragile state itself is readily destroyed in collisions subsequent to its formation (Fig. 4b). An example of a 4-state system is hydrogen including the metastable 2s state:  $H^+$ ,  $H^0(1s)$ ,  $H^0(2s)$ , and  $H^-$ .  $H(2s)$  is the fragile charge state; it is created by electron capture of low-energy  $H^+$  in a metal vapor, and is quenched (de-excited) in subsequent collisions. Another example is helium, in which 4 states<sup>11</sup> are considered:  $He^+$ ,  $He^0(t)$ ,  $He^0(s)$ , and  $He^-$ , where  $He^0(t)$  and  $He^0(s)$  are atoms in triplet and singlet states. The  $He^0(t)$  and  $He^-$  are both fragile.

Two related quantities are referred to for metastable  $H(2s)$ :  $f_{2s}$  and  $F_{2s}$  or  $f_m$  and  $F_m$ ).  $F_{2s}$  is the fraction of total beam leaving the target in the metastable 2s state, consistent with the definition in Eq. 2, while  $f_{2s}$  is the fraction of neutral atoms in the metastable 2s state.

Cross sections, charge-state fractions, and equilibrium yields are related by a set of coupled linear first-order differential equations:

$$\frac{dF_i}{d\tau} = \sum_j F_j \sigma_{ji} - \sum_j F_i \sigma_{ij} \quad (9)$$



For  $n$  states there are  $n(n-1)$  cross sections, e.g., 2 cross sections for 2 states, 6 for 3 states, and 12 for 4 states. Solutions to Eq. 9 can be found analytically<sup>3,4</sup> or by numerical integration.

A particularly simple and useful result is obtained for 2 states:

$$F_i^\infty = \frac{\sigma_{ji}}{\sigma_{ji} + \sigma_{ij}}$$

and

$$F_j^\infty = \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{\sigma_{ji} + \sigma_{ij}} \quad (10)$$

For the case of  $F_0$  and  $F_-$ , Eq. 10 becomes

$$F_-^\infty = \frac{\sigma_{0-}}{\sigma_{0-} + \sigma_{-0}}$$

and

$$F_0^\infty = \frac{\sigma_{-0}}{\sigma_{0+} + \sigma_{-0}} \quad (11)$$

#### EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH

A typical experimental apparatus<sup>10</sup> for measurement of charge transfer in an alkali-metal vapor target is shown in Fig. 5. A momentum-analyzed beam of  $D^+$  (or  $H^+$ ) is incident from the left. The target is a heat pipe, designed to recirculate alkali metal to minimize loss out the ends of the target. Use of a heat pipe for Cs, Rb, and Na is described in detail in Ref. 10. The beam after the collision is charge-state analyzed in a transverse electric field. The  $D^+$  and  $D^-$  are detected by magnetically-suppressed Faraday cups, while the  $D^0$  beam is detected with a

pyroelectric detector.<sup>10, 12-14</sup> Detection of the  $D^0$  beam is the aspect of the experiment most subject to uncertainty in the measurement of equilibrium yields. The pyroelectric detector is linear, sensitive ( $\sim 1V/Watt$ ), and its response is independent of the charge state of the projectile hitting it, hence it can be calibrated with an ion beam of known intensity. The  $D^+$  beam incident on the target is modulated, and the AC voltage generated on the pyroelectric detector is measured with a lock-in amplifier. Details can be found in Refs. 10 and 12-14.

A heat pipe cannot be used for alkaline-earth vapors in the density range of interest for charge transfer, because the melting temperature of the alkaline earth is higher than the operating temperature of the target. A typical design of a target<sup>12</sup> used for alkaline-earth vapors is shown in Fig. 6. An iron oven is heated by quartz lamps to obtain the temperature required, typically 400-800°C.

Data for 1-keV  $D^+$  incident on cesium vapor<sup>10</sup> and for 3-keV  $D^+$  on barium vapor<sup>12</sup> are shown as a function of target thickness or number density in Figs. 7 and 8. Charge-state equilibrium is apparent in both cases. Also shown in each figure is total beam transmitted through the target. It should be noted that the angle defined by the exit aperture of the alkaline-earth target was about half that of the alkali-metal target, so transmitted beam cannot easily be compared. Figure 7 also shows<sup>15</sup> the fraction  $F_{2s}$ , i.e., the metastable-atom fraction of the beam (as well as  $F_0$ , the total neutral fraction of the beam), showing that  $H(2s)$  play no role in production of  $H^-$  in a thick cesium-vapor target.

A major difficulty in measuring equilibrium yields is measurement of the flux of atoms, as discussed above. Minor difficulties include insufficient target thickness, unequal collection efficiency for scattered beams, and assorted problems related to the metal vapor. Cross-section measurements are generally more difficult; the major problems are (1) measurement of the atom flux, (2) incomplete collection and detection of scattered beams, and

(3) measurement of target thickness (usually measurement of the mean target density and effective path length). An additional difficulty in the measurement of H(2s) or H(2p) formation is the detection and collection efficiency of the Lyman-alpha detector. Measurement of 2-electron-transfer cross sections is complicated by the background single-step process (beam contamination) and the competition of two single-step processes.

#### RESULTS: ALKALI TARGETS

A selection of cross-section and thick-target results for H atoms in alkali-metal vapor targets is presented here. The emphasis is on new and/or otherwise interesting results; more complete results can be found in Refs. 6-10, 12, 16, and the references therein.

The cross sections  $\sigma_{+0}$ ,  $\sigma_{+-}$ , and  $\sigma_{-+}$  for D and H in cesium vapor are shown<sup>6</sup> in Fig. 9. Calculated cross sections  $\sigma_{+0}$  by Kimura et al.<sup>17</sup> in cesium and in sodium are shown in Figs. 10 and 11. Figures 10 and 11 show calculations of electron capture from both ground-state and optically excited targets; electron capture from Na\*(3p) is seen to be larger than from Na(3s) at low energies. Experiment and calculations for  $\sigma_{0-}$  and  $\sigma_{-0}$  are shown<sup>8, 10</sup> in Figs. 12 and 13. The large values of  $\sigma_{+0}$  and  $\sigma_{0-}$  for H in cesium and the small value of  $\sigma_{+-}$  shows that H<sup>-</sup> formation is dominated by the 2-step process, and that direct formation of H<sup>-</sup> from H<sup>+</sup> is almost negligible. Calculated cross sections  $\sigma_{-0}$  by Olson and Liu are shown in Fig. 14, showing also the contribution (dashed line) due to electron transfer rather than electron detachment.

The effect of angular scattering in various collision processes has been calculated by Olson and colleagues. Figure 15 shows<sup>19</sup> the acceptance angle needed to collect 50 percent and 90 percent of H<sup>-</sup> produced by collision of H<sup>0</sup> in cesium. Elastic scattering of H<sup>0</sup> is an important process in charge transfer. Olson has calculated the percent of  $\sigma_{00}$  (elastic scattering)

outside a given angle for  $H^0$  in cesium (Fig. 16) and in sodium<sup>7</sup> (Fig. 17).

Lamb-shift polarized ion sources require a beam of H atoms in the metastable 2s state. Selective electron capture<sup>20</sup> is required to form  $H^-$  from polarized  $H(2s)$ .

Formation of the metastable  $H(2s)$  state for  $H^+$  incident on alkali-metal vapors has been studied in a number of experiments,<sup>15, 21-23</sup> usually by de-excitation of the  $H(2s)$  (quenching) in an applied electric field. The resulting Lyman-alpha radiation is polarized. Cross sections  $\sigma_{+m}$  and  $\sigma_{+r}$  (formation of the metastable 2s state and the radiative 2p state) has been measured in cesium by Pradel et al.<sup>15</sup> shown in Fig. 18; the metastable fraction  $F_{2s}$  of the total beam for  $H^+$  in cesium as a function of target thickness  $\pi$  is shown<sup>15</sup> in Fig. 19. A summary of measurements of the fraction  $f_{2s}$  of metastable  $H(2s)$  relative to the neutral beam is shown in Fig. 20. We see that both  $\sigma_{+m}$  and  $f_{2s}$  show a peak at about 500eV for  $H^+$  in cesium vapor, and that  $f_{2s}$  is large, of the order of 30-50 percent. Similar results by Nagata<sup>23</sup> are shown in Fig. 21 for other alkali vapor targets.

The equilibrium yield  $F_{-}$  for  $D^-$  and  $H^-$  formation in cesium vapor is summarized<sup>10</sup> in Fig. 22; optimum conversion efficiency  $\eta^{opt}$  in cesium is shown in Fig. 23. The yield  $F_{-}$  in cesium vapor is seen to be large: 20-35 percent at low energies. Similar results<sup>10</sup> for sodium vapor are shown in Fig. 24 and 25; the yield  $F_{-}$  is seen to be of the order of 10 percent at intermediate energies.

The equilibrium yield can be compared with cross sections using Eq. 11. This is shown for cesium vapor<sup>10</sup> in Fig. 26; measured  $F_{-}$  is seen to agree with  $F_{-}$  calculated from cross sections.

#### RESULTS: ALKALINE-EARTH TARGETS

Recent results for  $F_{-}$  in alkaline-earth vapor targets are

summarized in Ref. 12, in which a maximum  $F_{-}^{\infty}$  of 50 percent is reported for charge transfer in a thick strontium-vapor target at an energy of 250eV/amu. Results by different experimental groups are in excellent agreement for alkaline-earth vapor targets. An example is shown in Fig. 27, which shows three measurements of  $F_{-}^{\infty}$  in strontium vapor.

Cross sections for charge transfer in alkaline-earth vapors have recently been measured<sup>24</sup>; results for  $\sigma_{+0}$ ,  $\sigma_{+-}$ ,  $\sigma_{0+}$ , and  $\sigma_{0-}$  are shown in Figs. 28-31, along with  $\sigma_{-0}$  deduced from  $F_{-}^{\infty}$  measurements and Eq. 11. It is to be noted that  $\sigma_{0-}$  increases with decreasing energy in strontium vapor, while  $\sigma_{-0}$  is relatively flat with energy, which is responsible for the large value of  $F_{-}^{\infty}$  in strontium vapor at low energy.

Formation of  $H(2s)$  by collisions of  $H^{+}$  in alkaline-earth vapors has been reported.<sup>25</sup> Results are shown in Figs. 32-33.

#### SUMMARY: $H^{-}$ FORMATION

Results for  $F_{-}^{\infty}$  in various alkali and alkaline-earth vapors are shown<sup>12</sup> in Fig. 34. Strontium vapor gives an  $F_{-}^{\infty}$  of as large as 50 percent at an energy of 250 eV/amu. Cesium gives 35 percent at lower energies, rubidium gives a high yield at intermediate energies, and sodium gives the highest yield for energies above 2 keV/amu.

#### HEAVIER NEGATIVE IONS

Formation of  $He^{-}$  by charge transfer in a metal vapor<sup>26</sup> requires consideration of (at minimum) a 4-state system. The  $He^{-}$  ion is a quartet state; it is created by electron capture of a helium atom in a triplet state. Both the  $He^{0}(t)$  and  $He^{-}$  fractions show optimum values, and are very small for thick targets. Results<sup>26</sup> are shown in Figs. 35 and 36; Fig. 37 shows that the maximum  $F_{-}^{opt}$  for  $He^{-}$  in cesium is 1.4 percent at 6 keV.

Formation of heavier negative ions has been surveyed<sup>27</sup> in sodium and magnesium vapor targets. Results are shown in Figs. 38 and 39. Yields approaching 100 percent are possible for favorable cases.

#### SUMMARY

Recent theoretical calculations and experimental results are providing a coherent understanding of  $H^-$  formation by charge transfer in metal vapors, although some disagreement exists between different experimental results or between experimental and theory in a few cases. The  $H^-$  yield is especially large in cesium vapor at low energies, exceeding 30 percent for energies below 400 eV/amu, and in strontium vapor, where the yield is 50 percent at 250 eV/amu. Charge transfer leading to formation of metastable  $H(2s)$  and to  $He^-$  and other heavier negative ions is briefly discussed. Additional considerations for application of charge transfer to polarized ion sources, e.g., angular scattering of beams, are also mentioned. The data and references in this report should be useful for the design of polarized ion sources requiring charge transfer.

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AHA	Anderson, Howald, and Anderson (1979)31
BCW	Bohlen, Clausnitzer, and Wilsh (1968)32
BLPSS	Berkner, Leung, Pyle, Schlachter, and Stearns (1977)33
BVC	Brouillard, Claeys, and VanWassenhove (1977)22
CABR	Cisneros, Alvarez, Barnett, and Ray (1976)34
DMS	Dreiseidler, Miethel, and Salzborn (1981)35
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DZP	D'yachkov, Zinenko, and Pavlii (1966-1971)37
GAS	Girnius, Anderson, and Staab (1977)38
GSKM	Gruebler, Schmelzbach, Konig, and Marmier (1969, 1970)39
HKWS	Hiskes, Karo, Willman, and Stevens (1978)40
IOSF	Il'in, Oparin, Solov'ev, and Fedorenki (1965-1971)41
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OSB	Olson, Shipsey, and Browne (1976)49
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SBLAH	Schlachter, Bjorkholm, Loyd, Anderson, and Haeberli (1969)50
SSS	Schlachter, Stalder, and Stearns (1980)10
SVP	Spieß, Valance, and Pradel (1972)51
TGS	Tuan, Gautherin, and Schlachter (1974)21
VBC	VanWassenhove, Brouillard, and Claeys (1977)22

## Figure Captions

1. Summary of equilibrium yield  $F_{\pm}$  for H in typical metal vapors (Sr, Cs, Na) and gases ( $H_2$ , Xe).
2. Schematic diagram of experiment to measure charge-state fractions. A flux  $I_{inc}$  is incident on a target of thickness  $\tau$ . Fluxes  $I_+$ ,  $I_0$ , and  $I_-$  in charge states +, 0, and - leave the target.<sup>8</sup>
3. Schematic behavior of currents and charge-state fractions as a function of target thickness  $\tau$  for a 3-state system (+, 0, and -) with the incident beam in charge-state +. Figure 3a shows currents  $I_j$ , indicating optimum values of the 0 and - charge states; Fig. 3b shows charge-state fractions  $F_j$ , indicating equilibrium values. An example is low-energy  $H^+$  incident on an alkali-vapor target.
4. Schematic behavior of charge-state fractions  $F_j$  as a function of target thickness  $\tau$  for 2 systems having an  $F_{opt}$ . Figure 4a shows an unusual 3-state system, e.g., fast  $H^-$  incident on a gas target; the  $F_0$  fraction shows an optimum value. Figure 4b shows moderate energy  $He^+$  incident on a metal-vapor target; the fractions  $F_{0(m)}$  and  $F_-$  both have an optimum value.
5. Schematic diagram of apparatus used by the LBL group<sup>10</sup> to measure charge-state fractions in alkali-metal vapors. A heat-pipe target is shown. A transverse electric field is used to charge-state analyze the beam after the target; Faraday cups are used to detect the  $D^+$  and  $D^-$  ions, and a pyroelectric detector is used to detect the  $D^0$  atoms.
6. Schematic diagram of apparatus used by the LBL group<sup>12</sup> to measure charge-state fractions in alkaline-earth vapors. The target was heated by quartz lamps.
7. Charge-state fractions,  $F_j$ , as a function of cesium-target thickness,  $\tau$ , for 1-keV  $D^+$  incident on cesium vapor.<sup>10</sup> Also shown are charge-state fractions including the fraction in the metastable  $D(2s)$  state measured by Pradel et al,<sup>15</sup> and the total beam transmitted through the target.<sup>10</sup>
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9. Cross sections for D ions and atoms in cesium vapor.<sup>6</sup>
10. Electron-capture cross sections for  $H^+ + Cs(6s)$  (solid lines) and  $H^+ + C^*(6p)$  collisions (dashed lines), calcula-

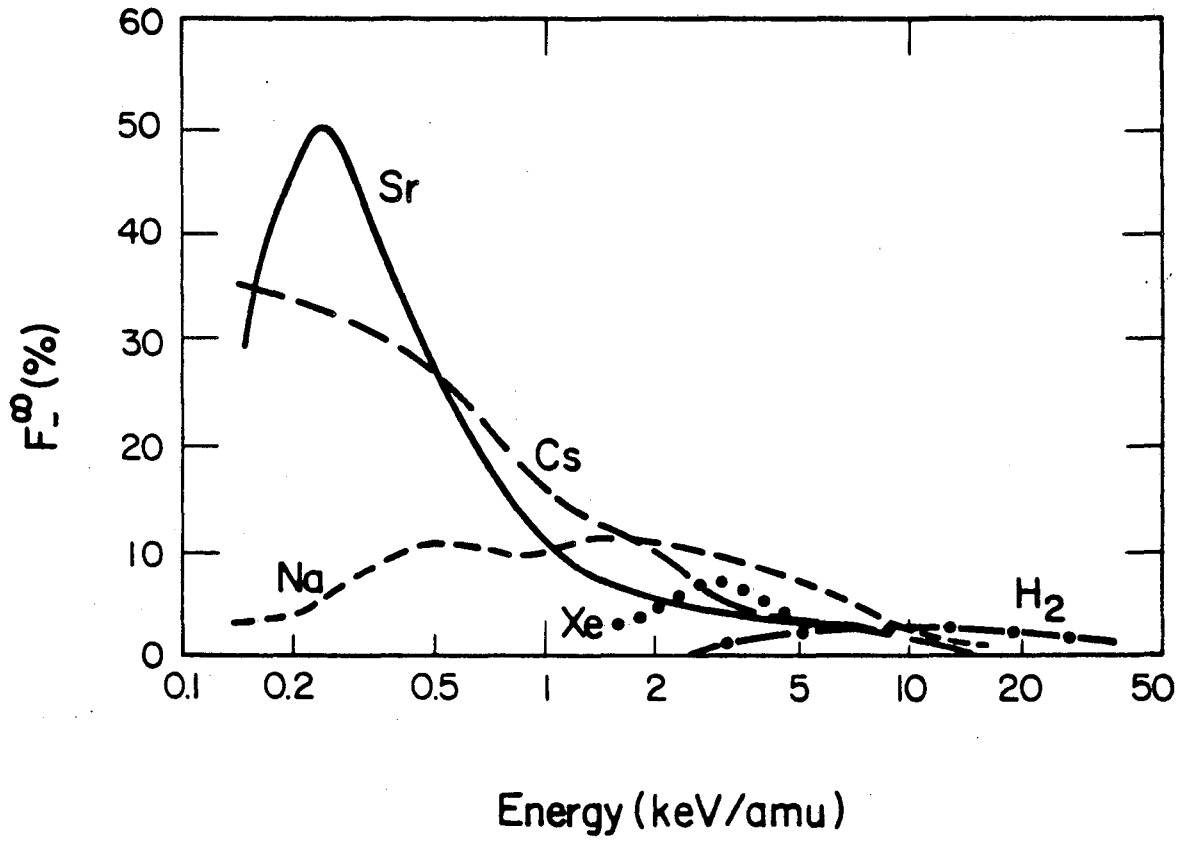
ted by Kimura et al.<sup>17</sup> The heavy solid and dashed lines belong to the total capture cross sections. The detailed H(2s) and H(2p) cross sections are labeled. Experimental cross sections of Nagata<sup>48</sup> are given by solid circles for total electron capture and by solid triangles for H(2s) production for collisions of H<sup>+</sup> with ground state Na(3s).

11. Calculated electron-capture cross sections for H<sup>+</sup> + Na(3s) collisions (solid lines) and H<sup>+</sup> + Na\* (3p) collisions (dashed lines) calculated by Kimura et al.<sup>17</sup> Same notation as in Fig. 10.
12. Cross section  $\sigma_{0-}$  for deuterium in cesium vapor.<sup>8,10</sup> Experimental results are shown as points, calculations as lines.
13. Cross section  $\sigma_{-0}$  for deuterium in cesium vapor.<sup>8,10</sup> Experimental results are shown as points, calculation as lines.
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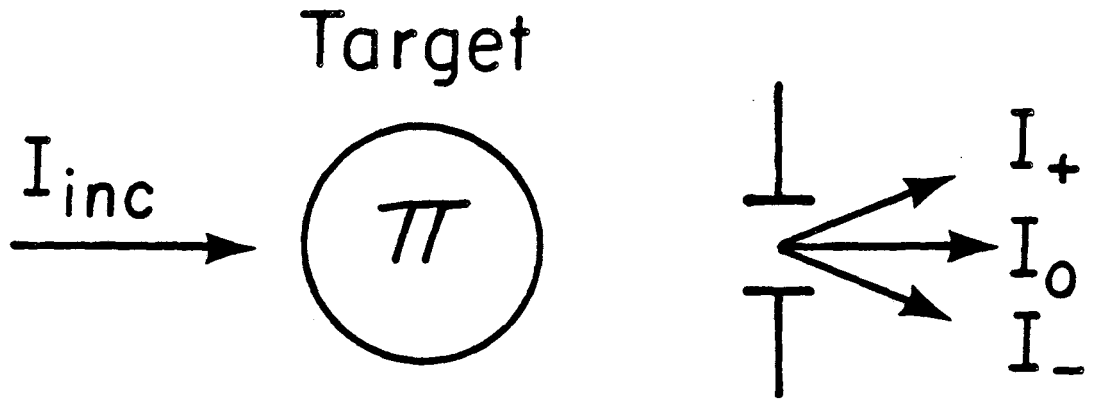
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XBL 836-2684

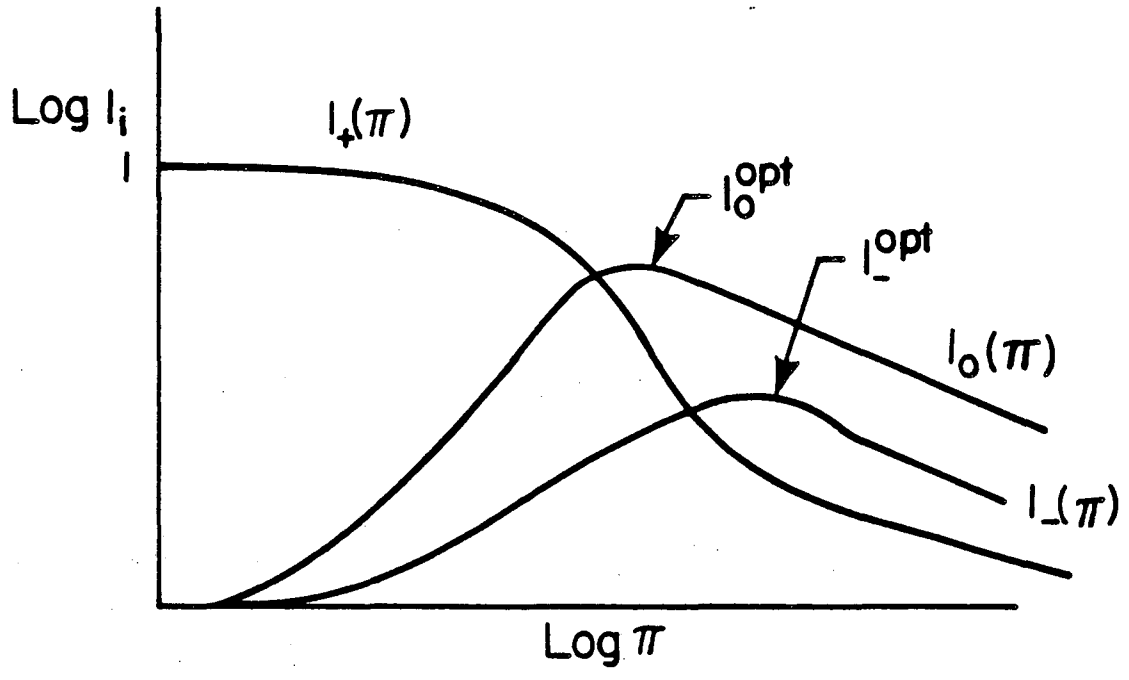
FIGURE 1





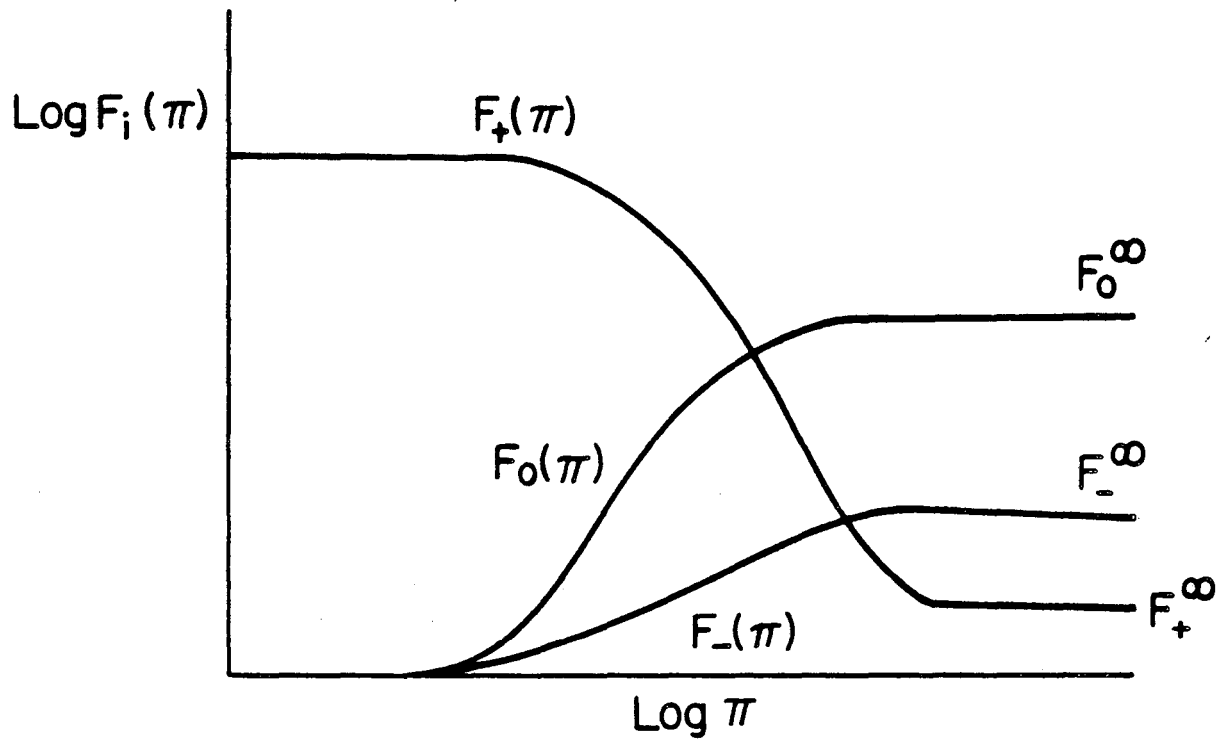
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FIGURE 2



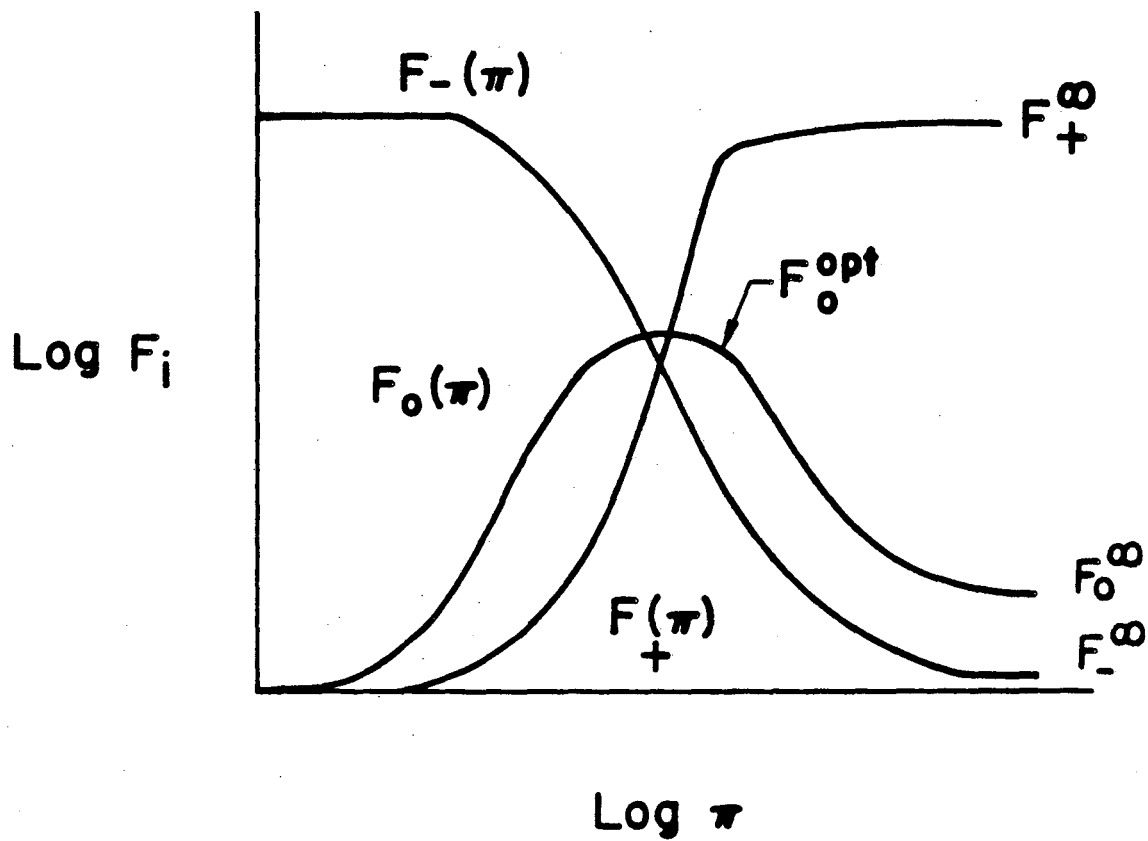
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FIGURE 3A



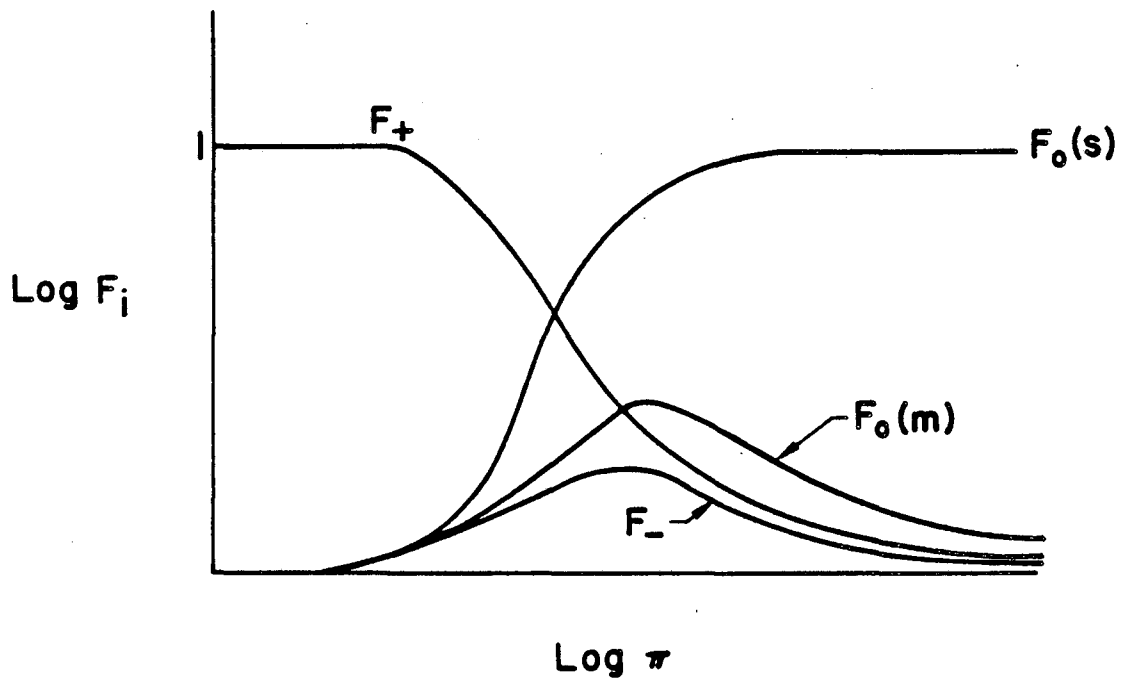
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FIGURE 3B



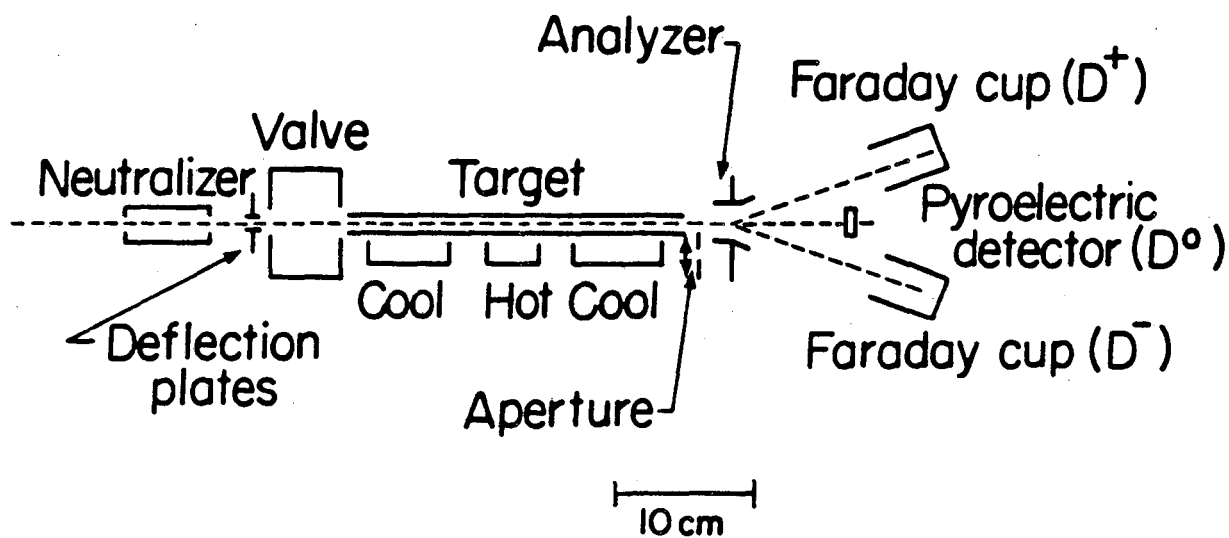
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FIGURE 4A



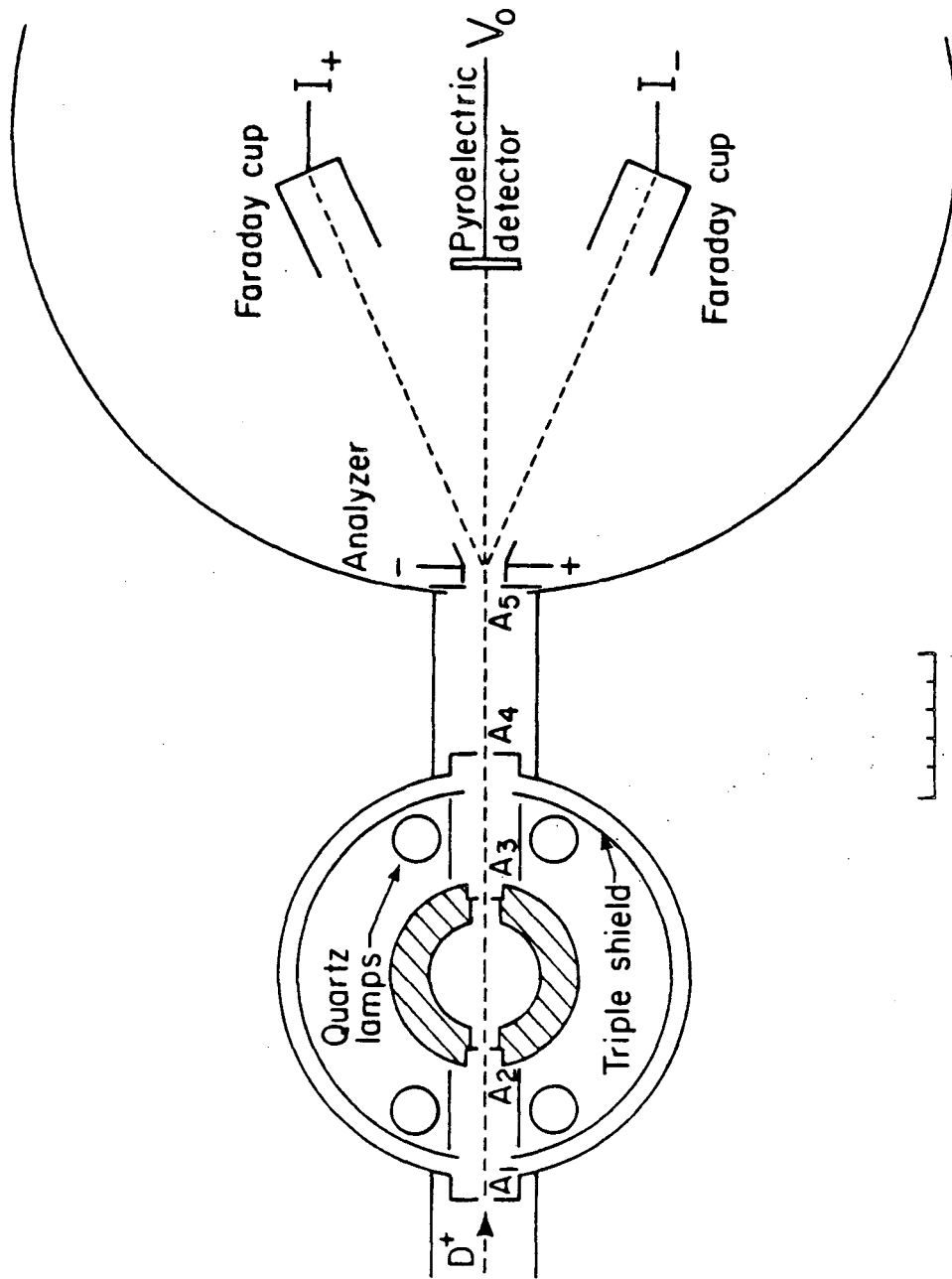
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FIGURE 4B



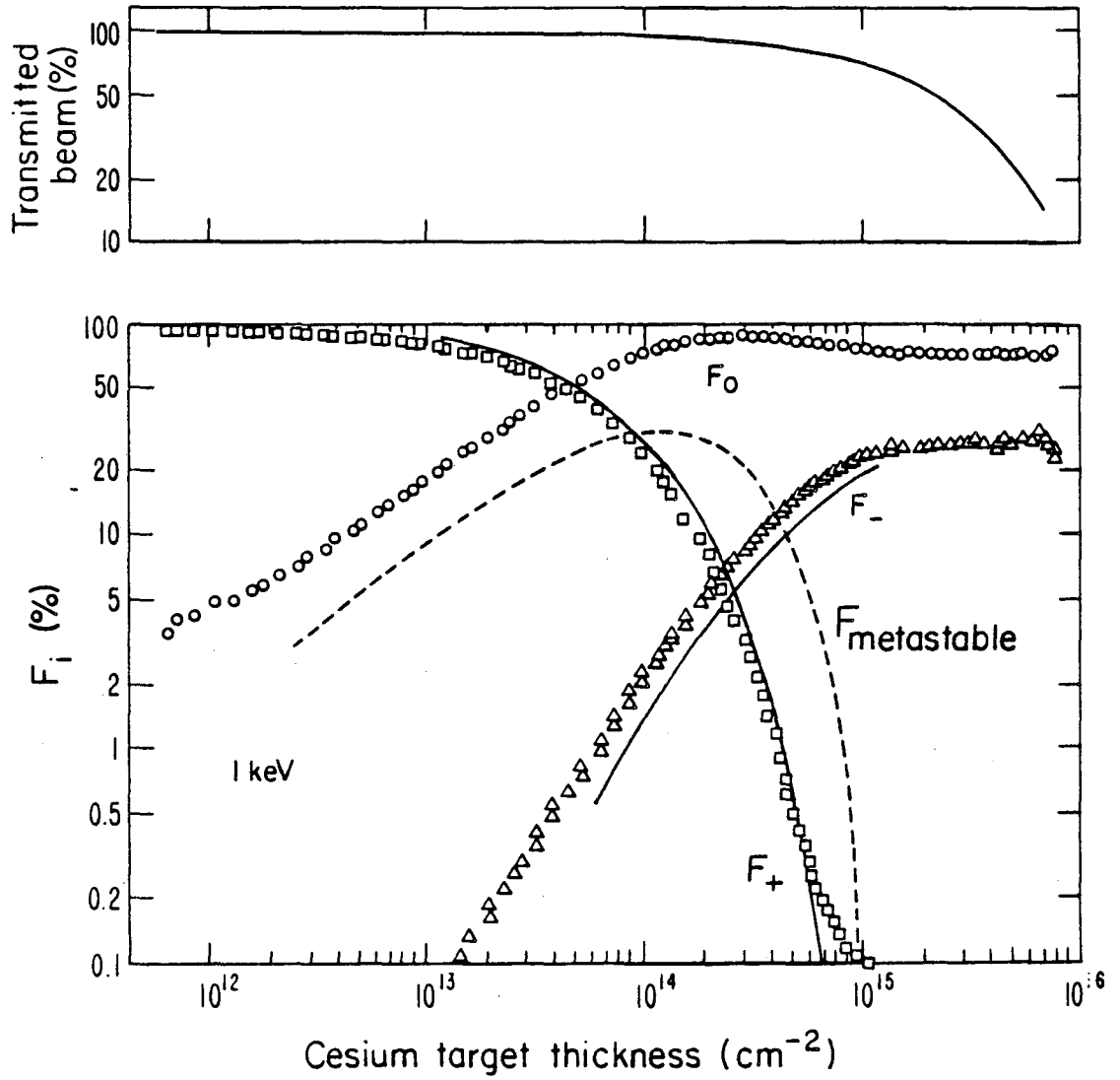
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FIGURE 5



XBL 813-2182 A

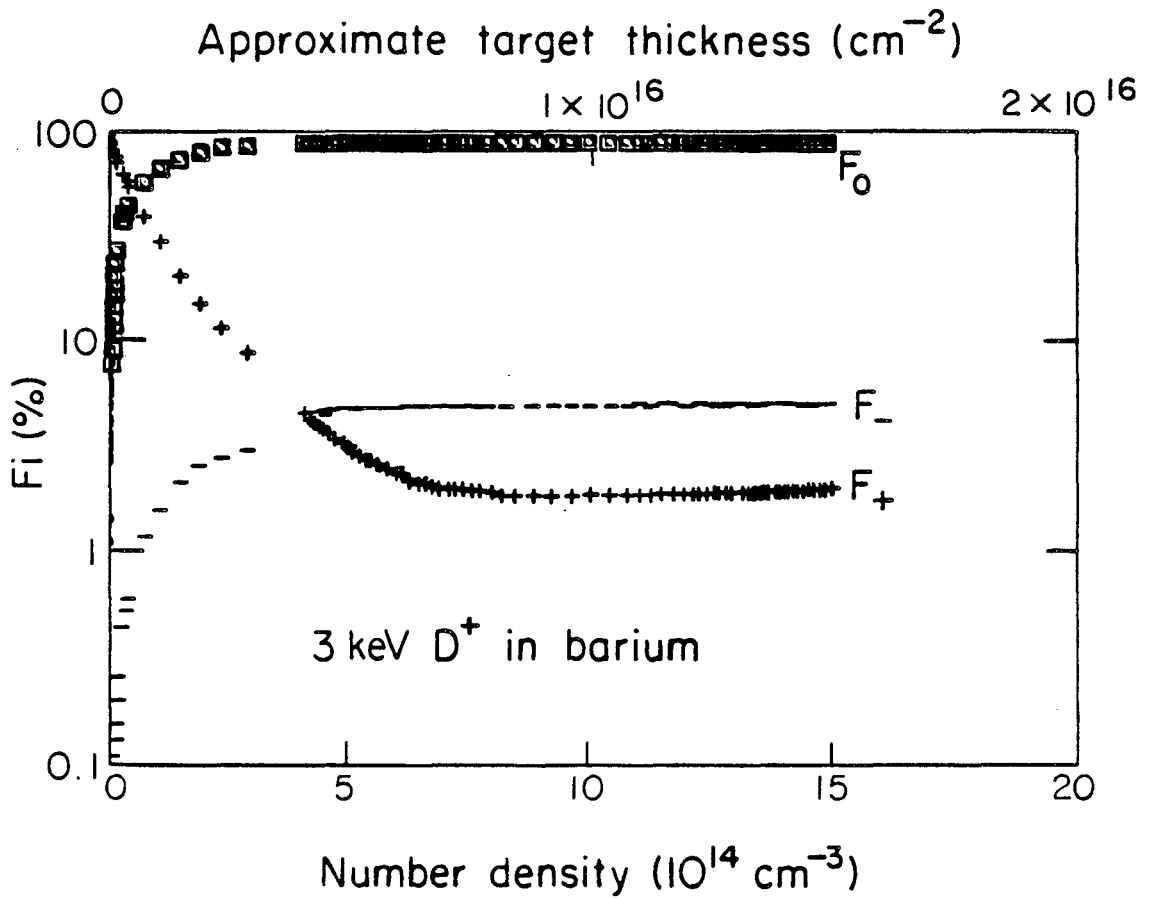
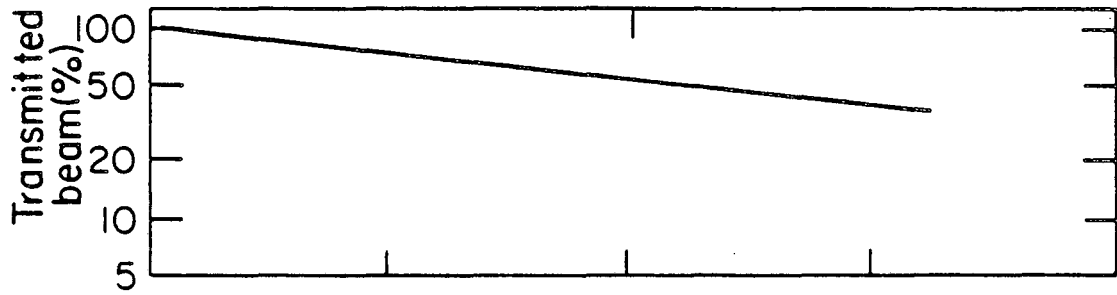
FIGURE 6



XBL815-2295

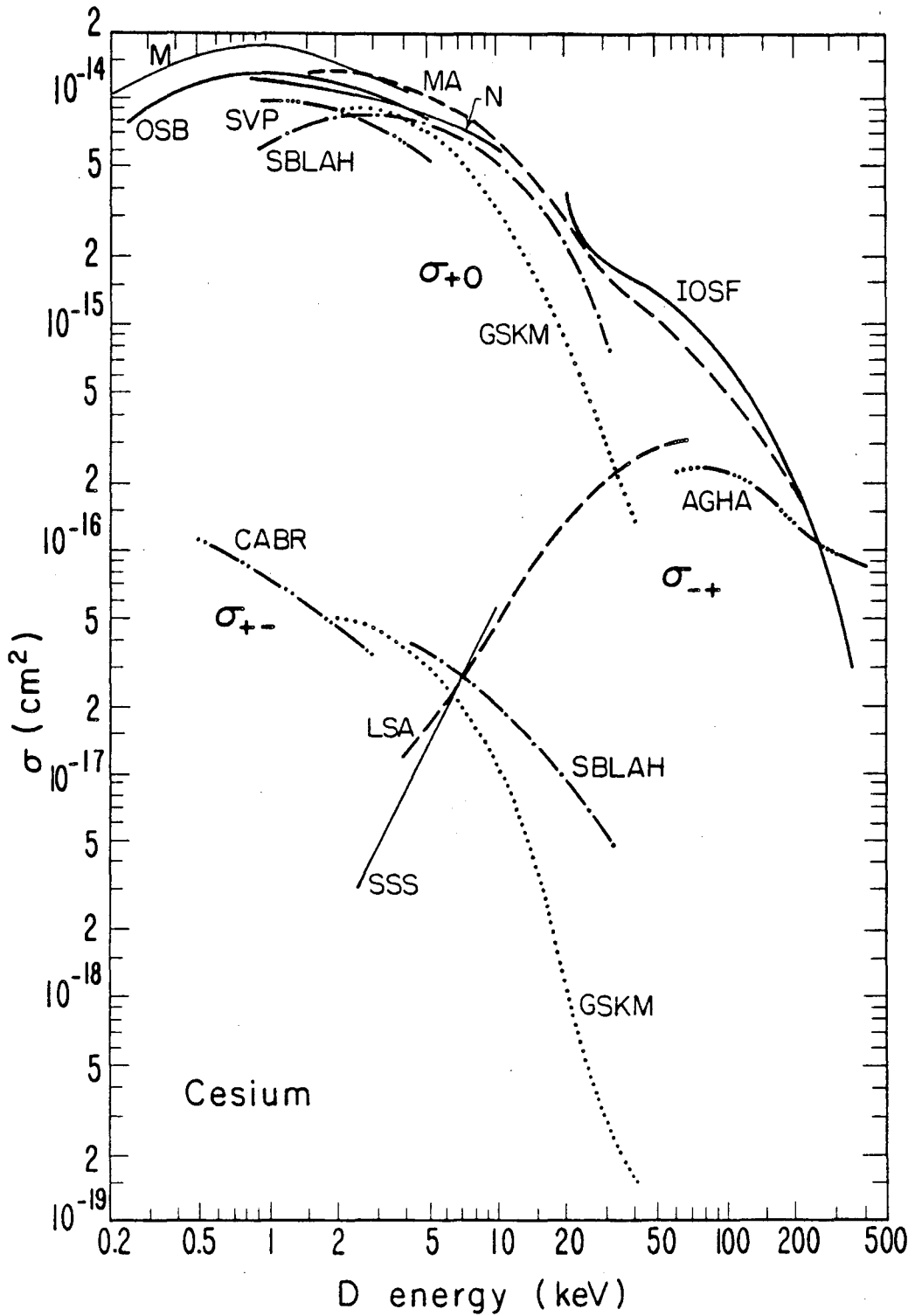
FIGURE 7





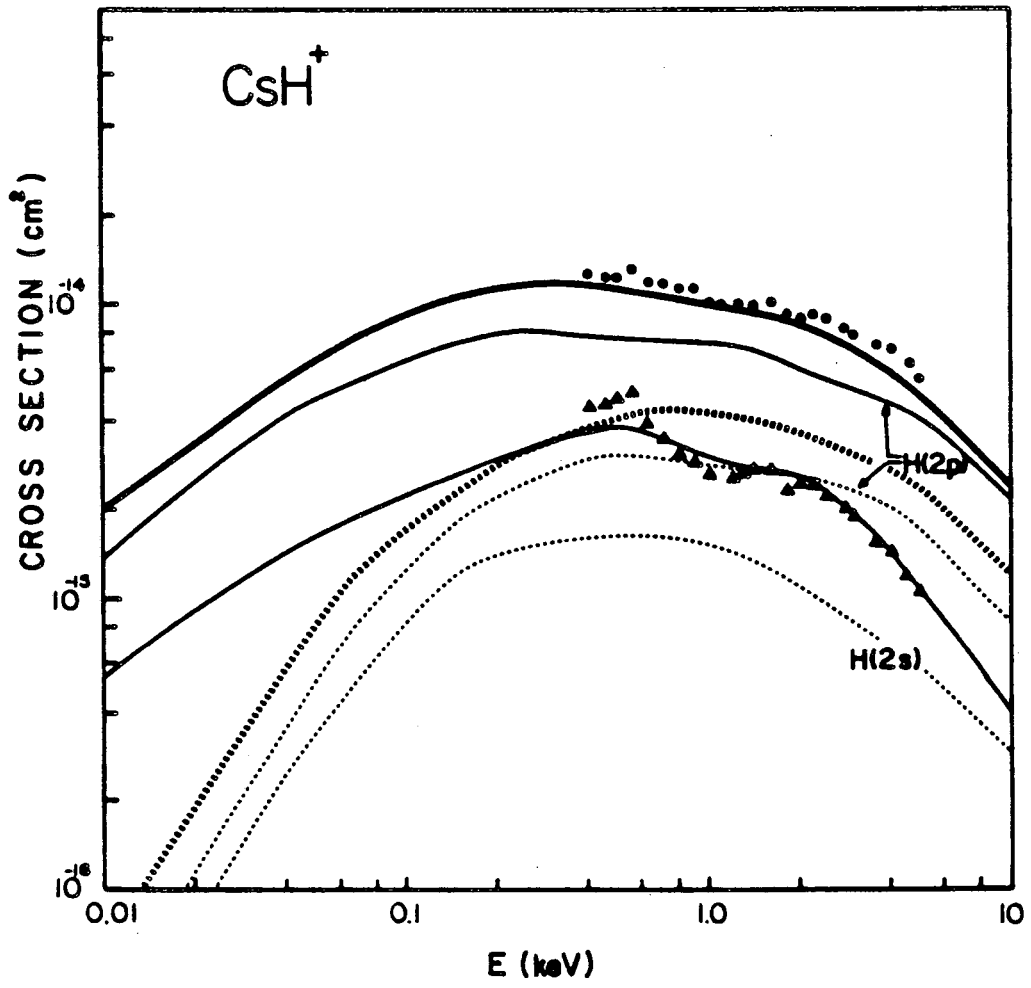
XBL 815 - 2286B

FIGURE 8



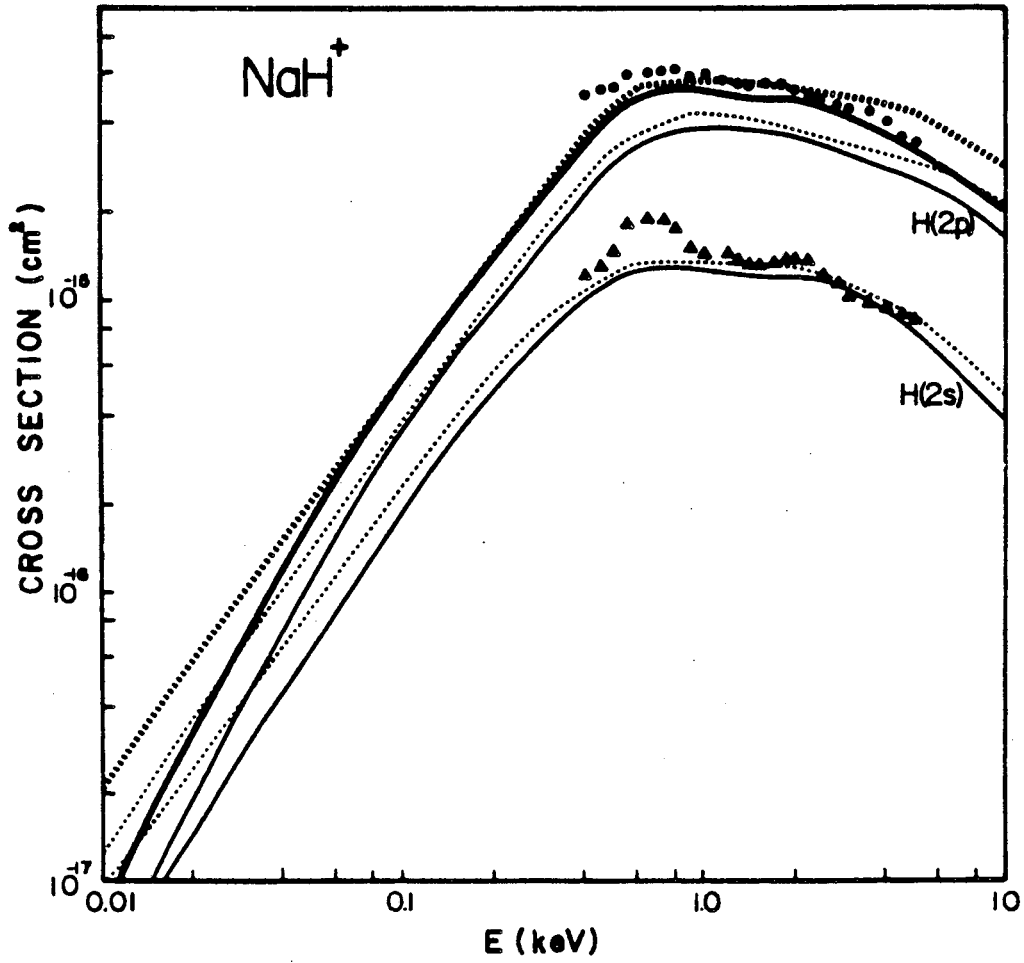
XBL 809-2007

FIGURE 9



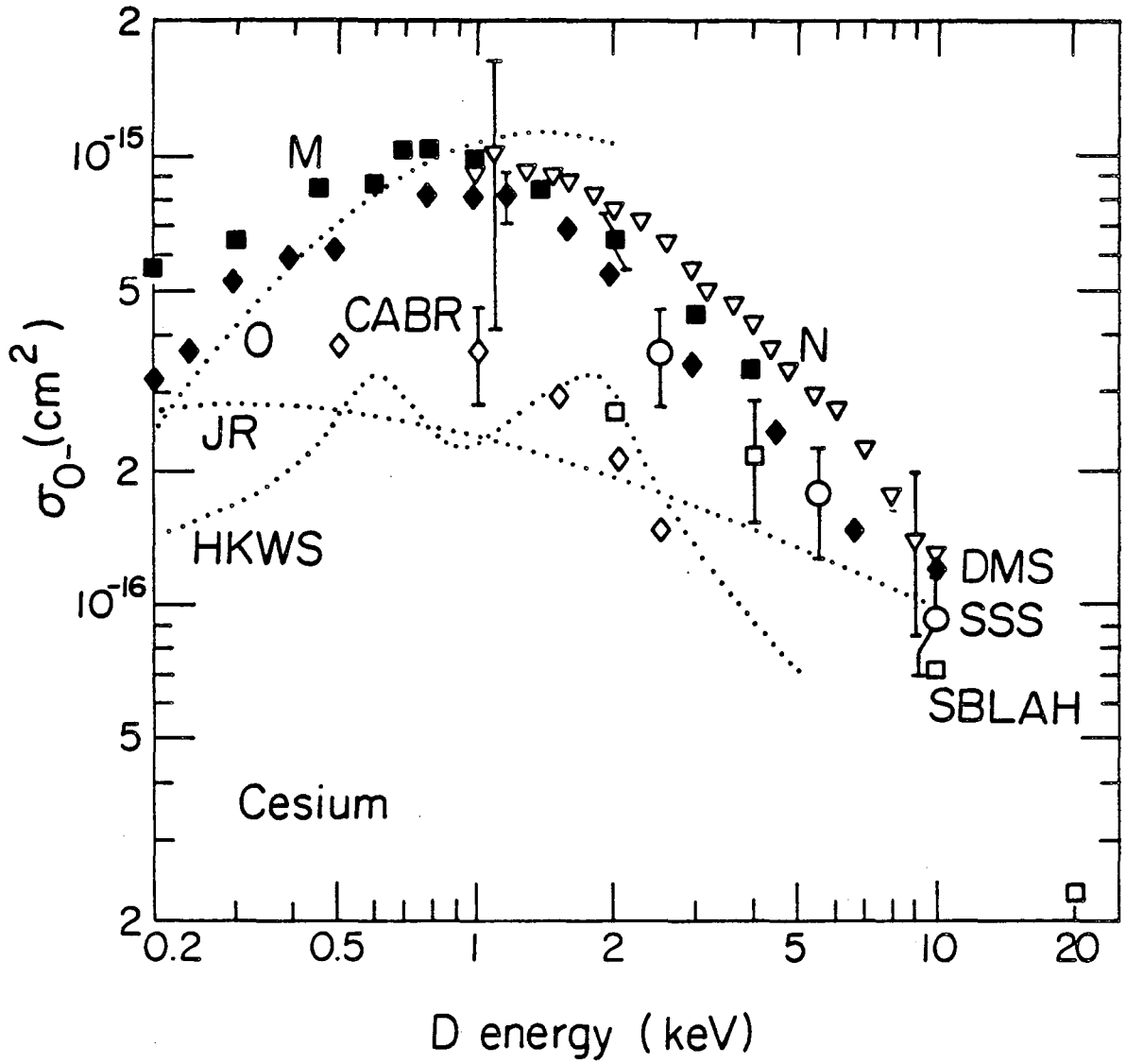
XBL 836-10150

FIGURE 10



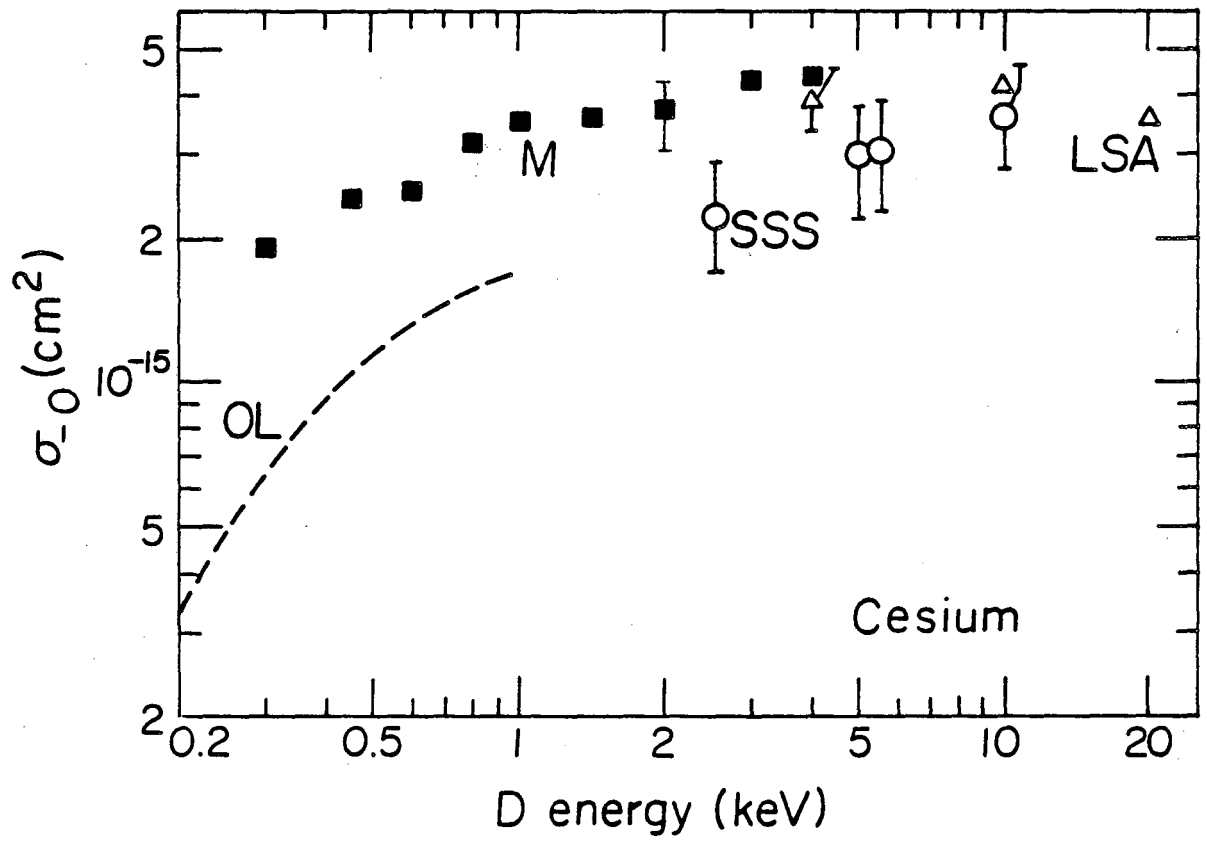
XBL 836-10149

FIGURE 11



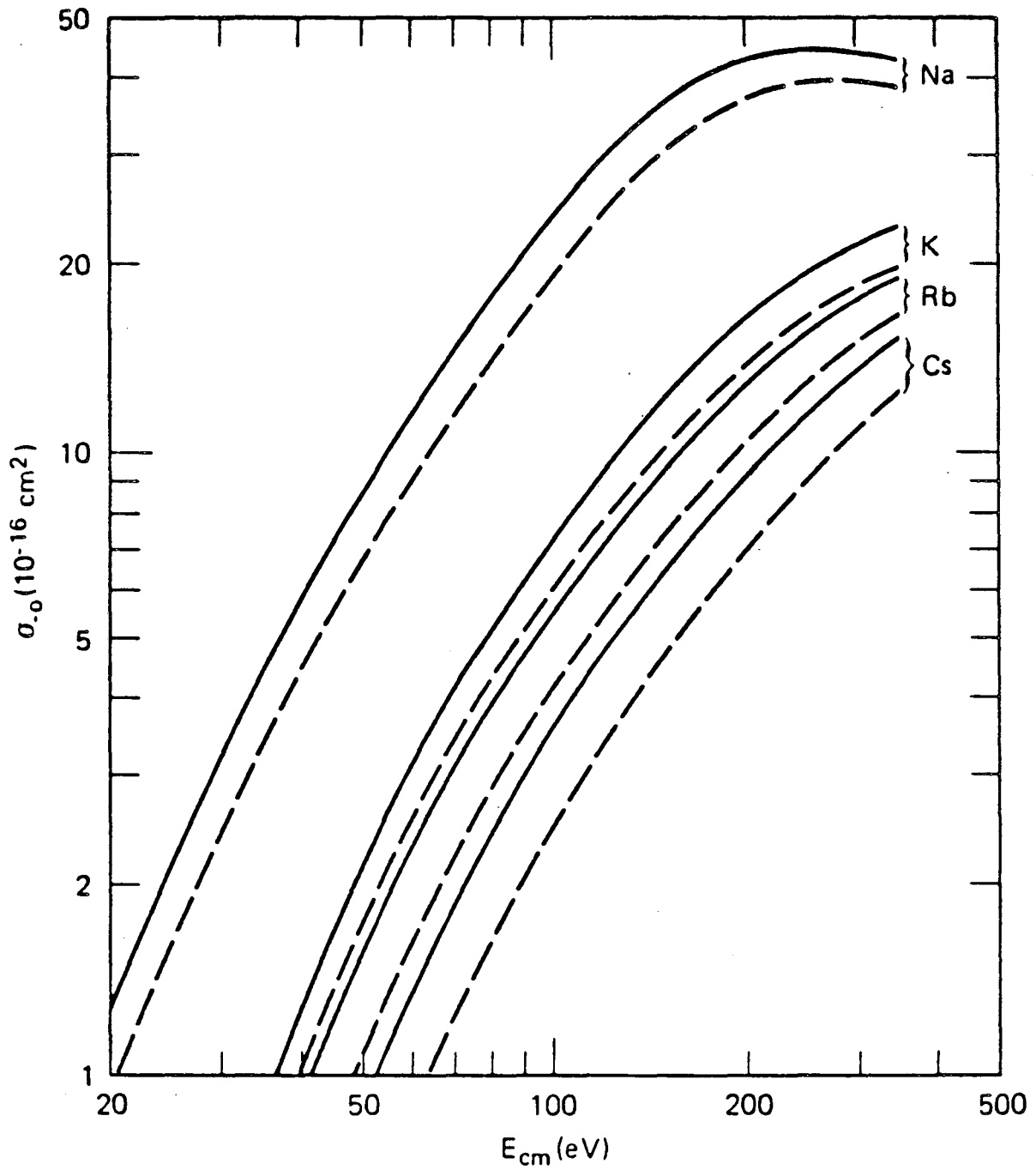
XBL 806 - 1189 A

FIGURE 12



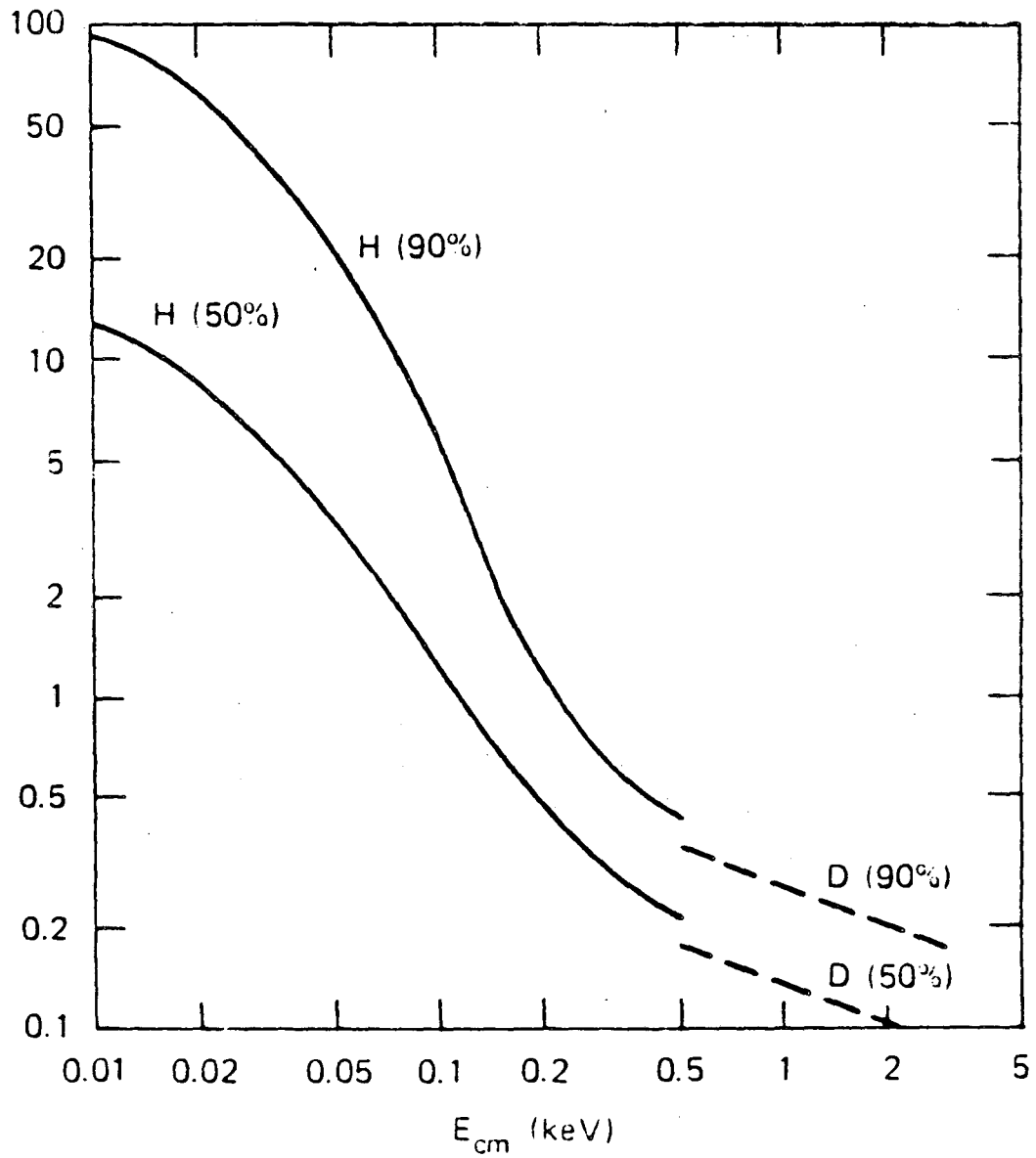
XBL 806 - 1189B

FIGURE 13



XBL 836-10158

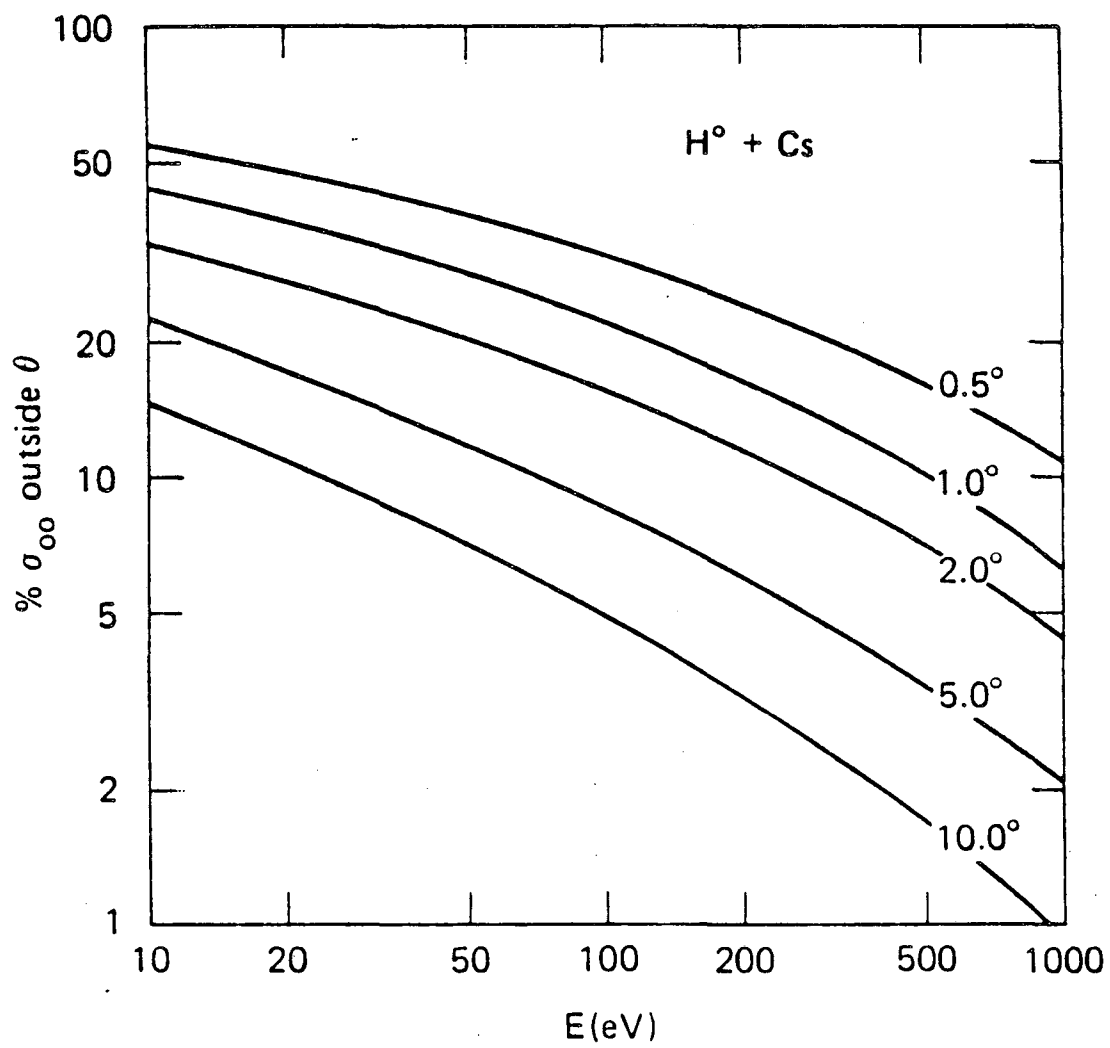
FIGURE 14



XBL 836-10164

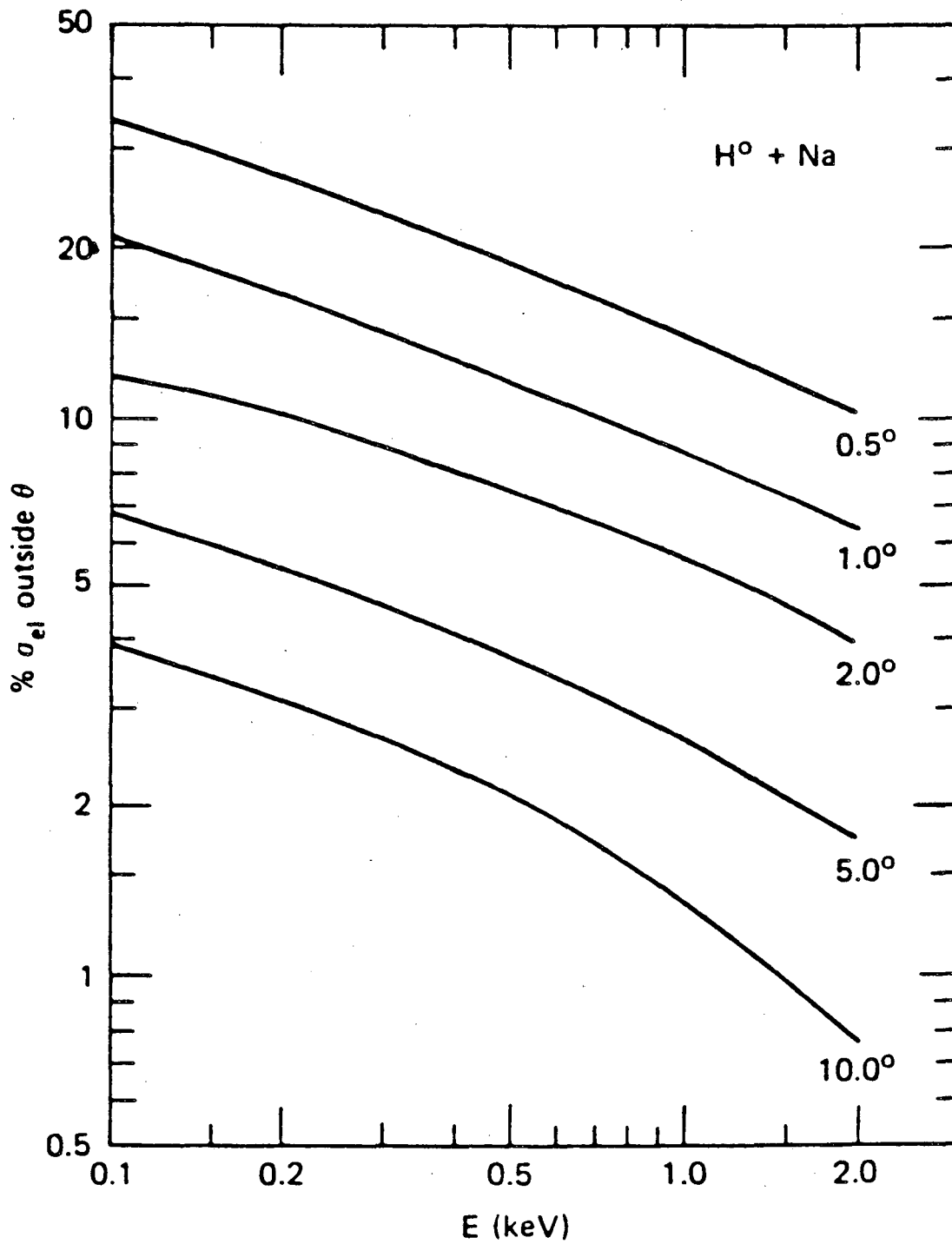
FIGURE 15





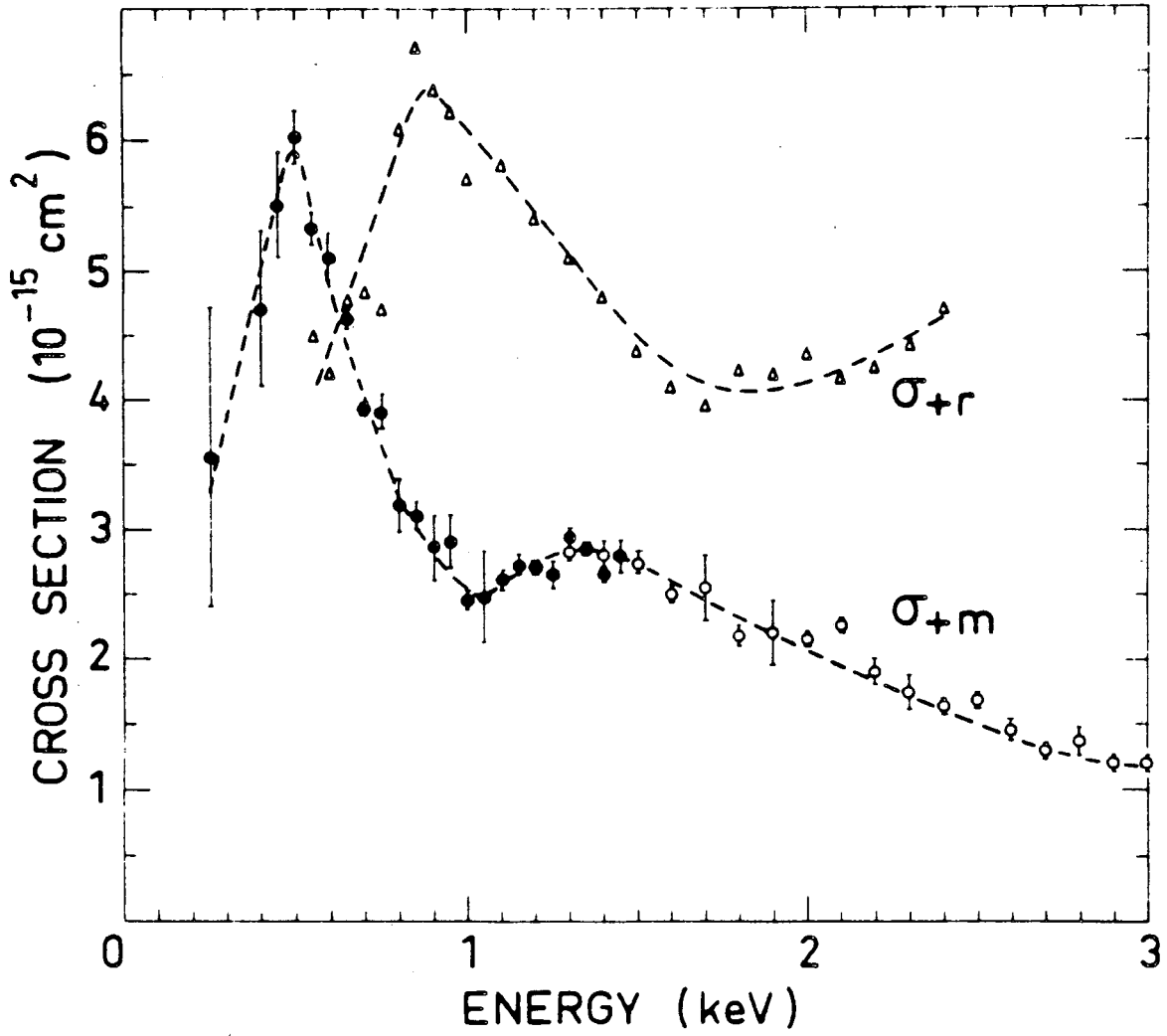
XBL 836-10146

FIGURE 16



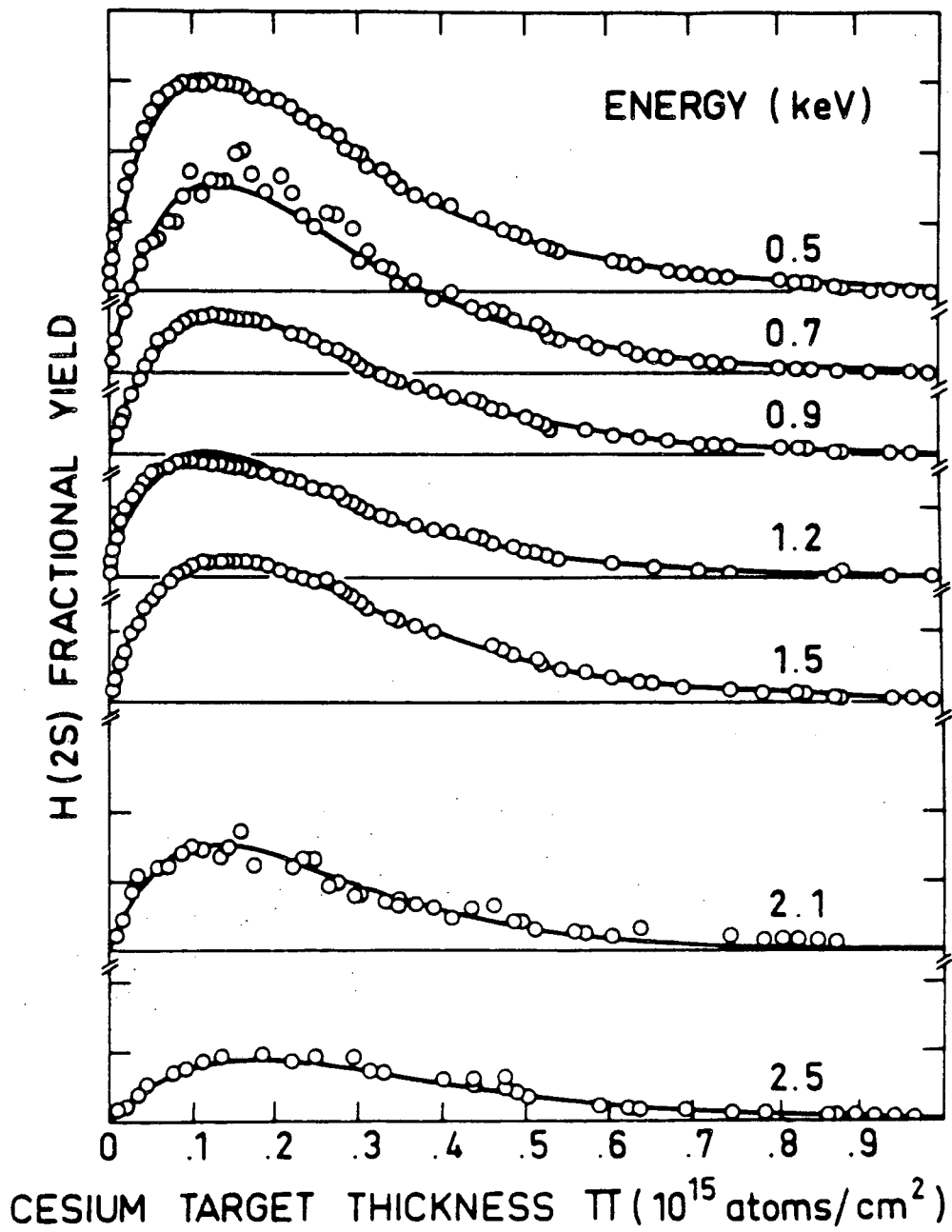
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FIGURE 17



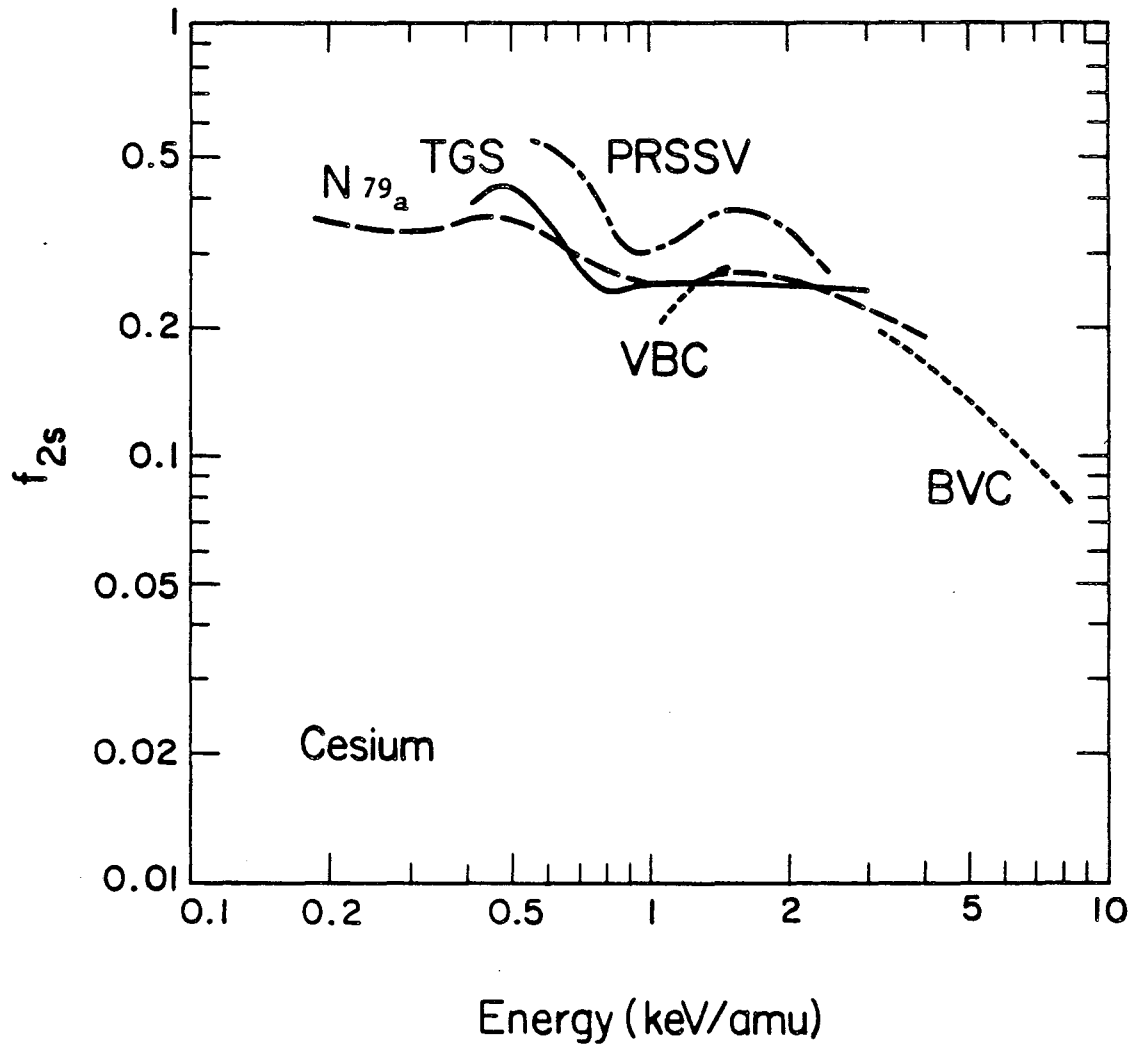
XBL 836-10151

FIGURE 18



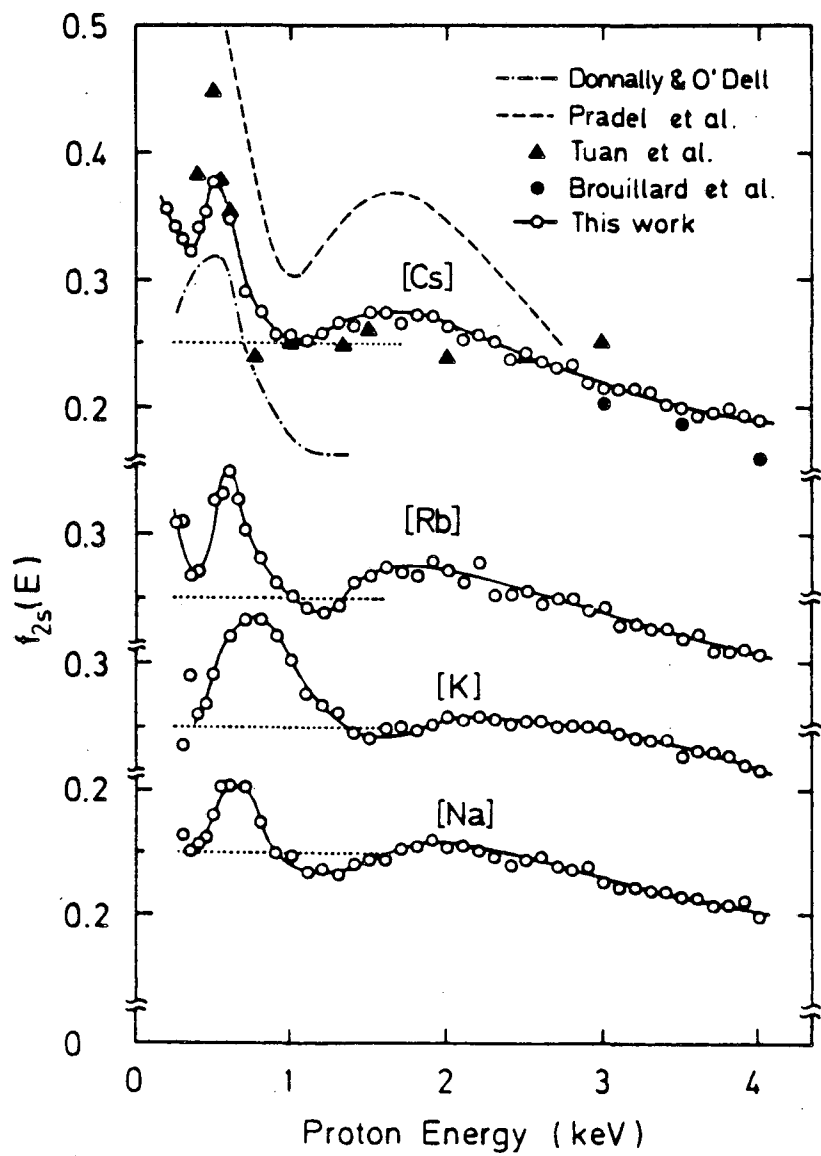
XBL 836-10152

FIGURE 19



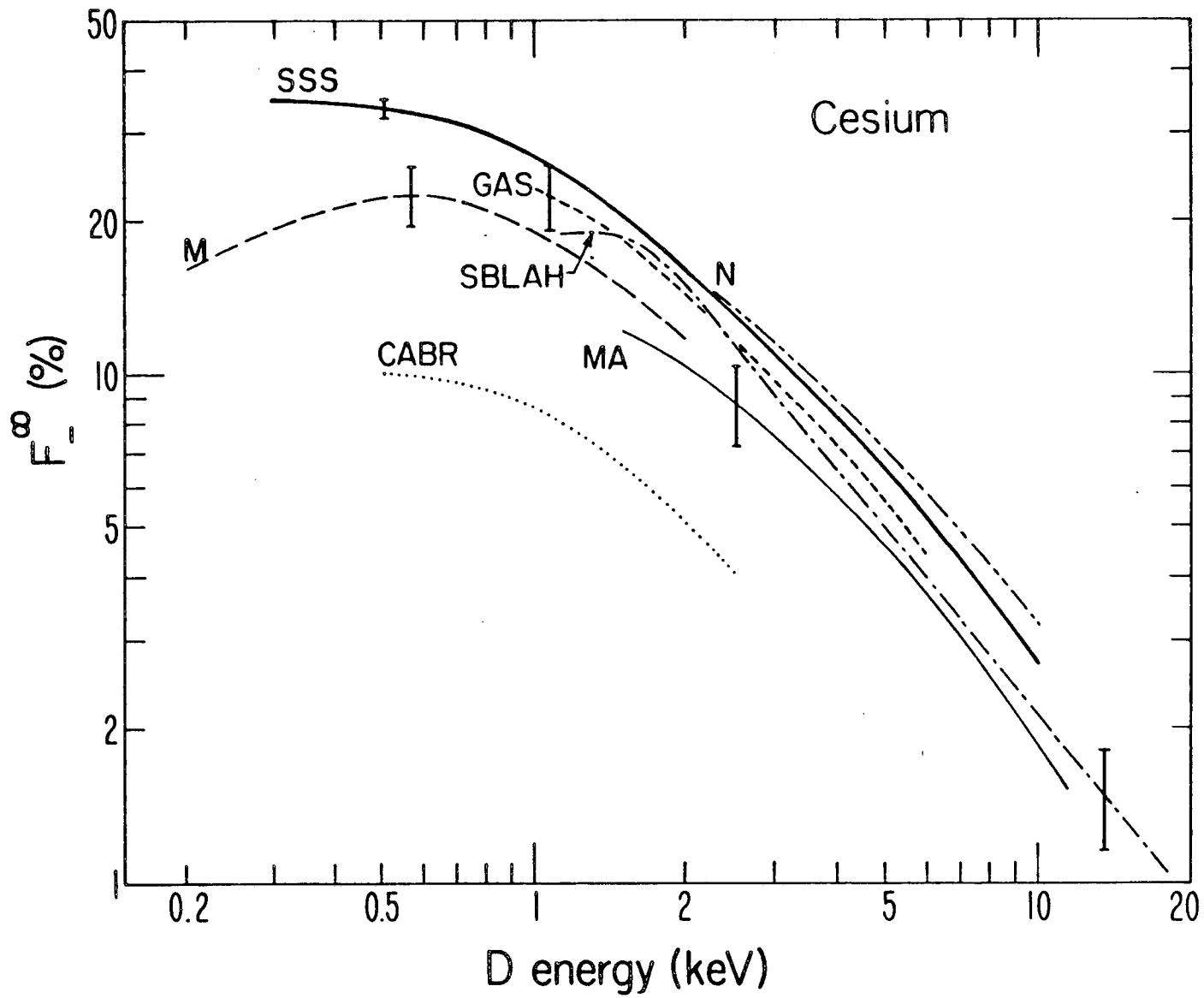
XBL 836-2682

FIGURE 20



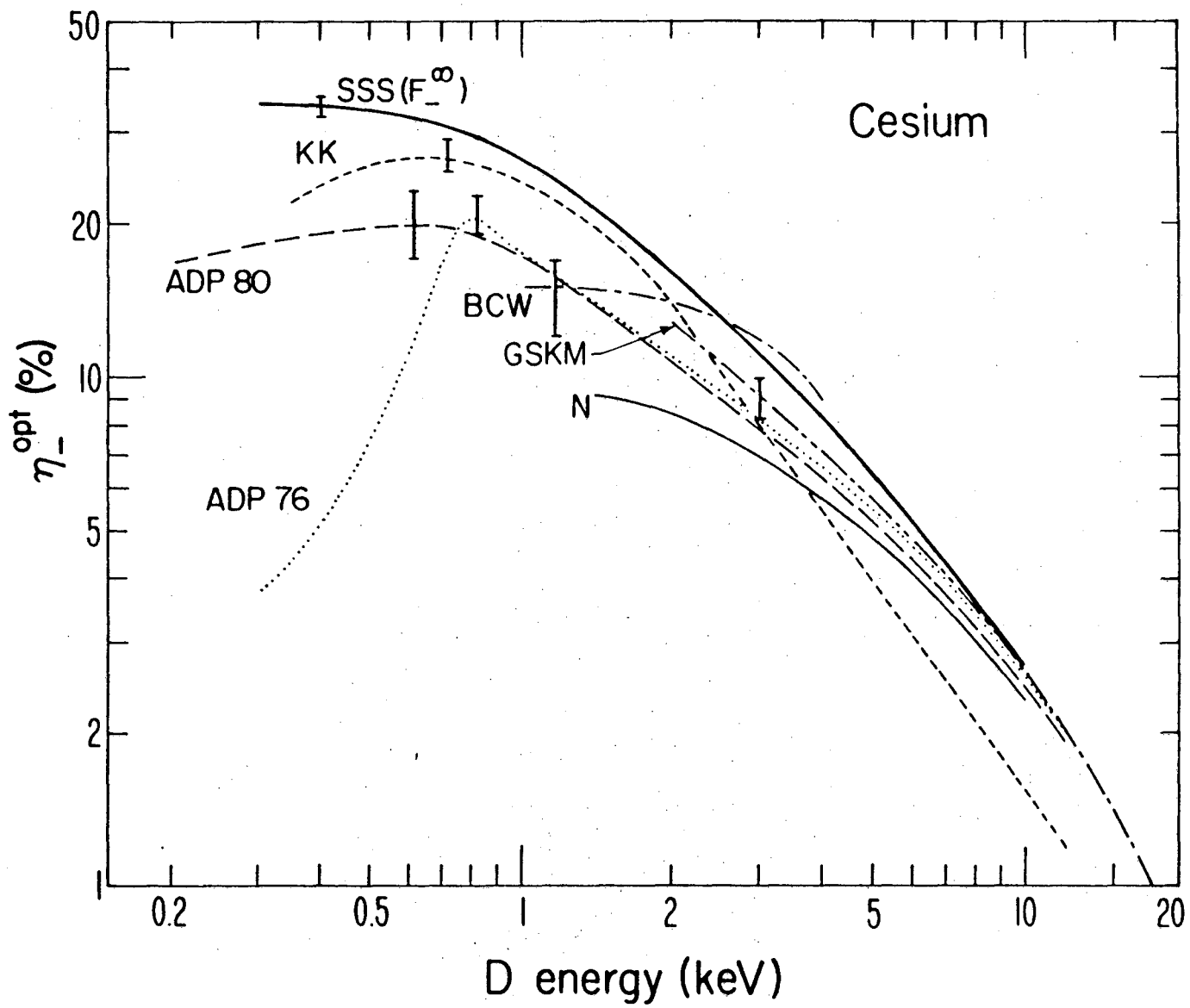
XBL 836-10157

FIGURE 21



XBL 802-348A

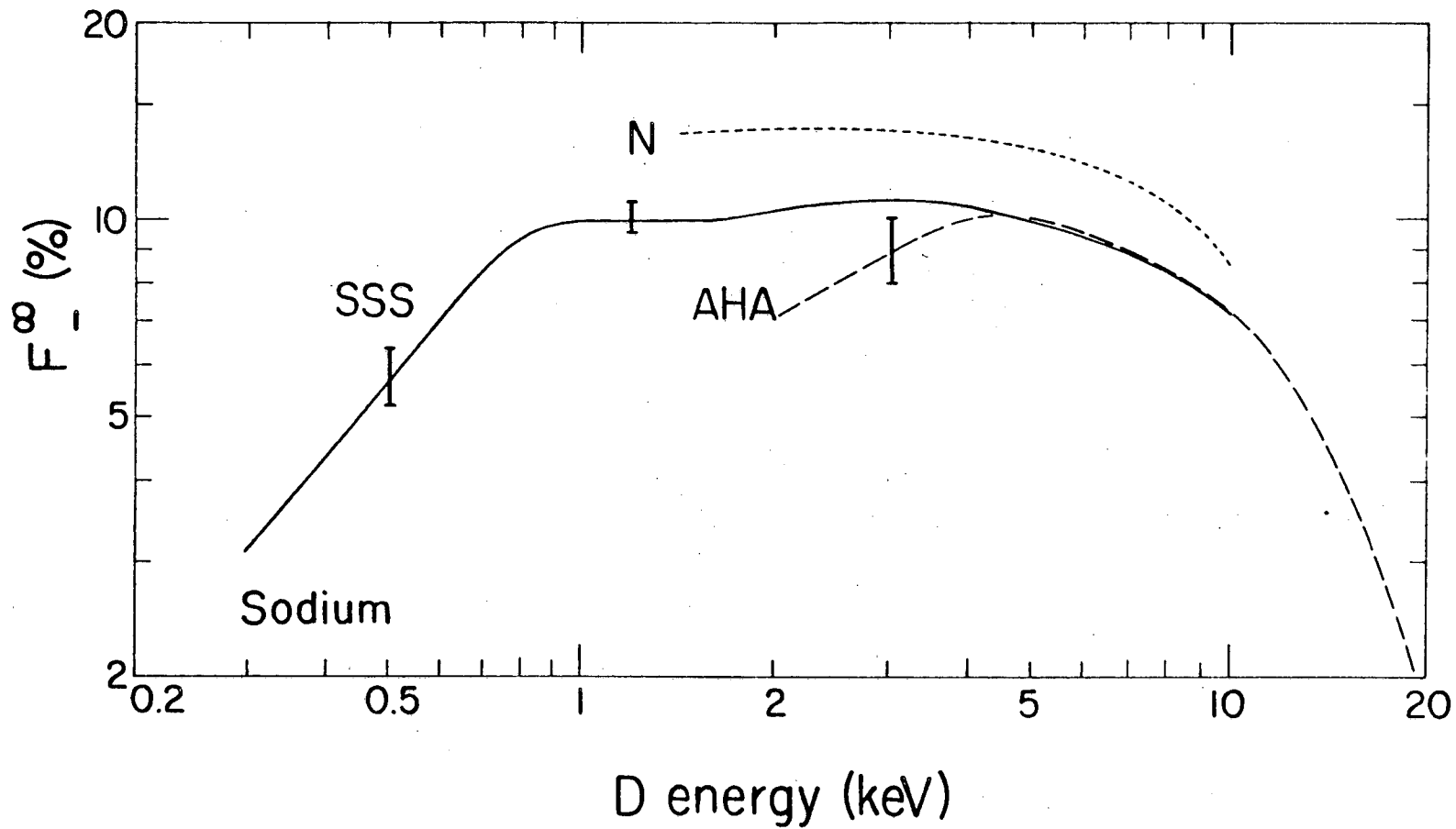
FIGURE 22



XBL 802-349A

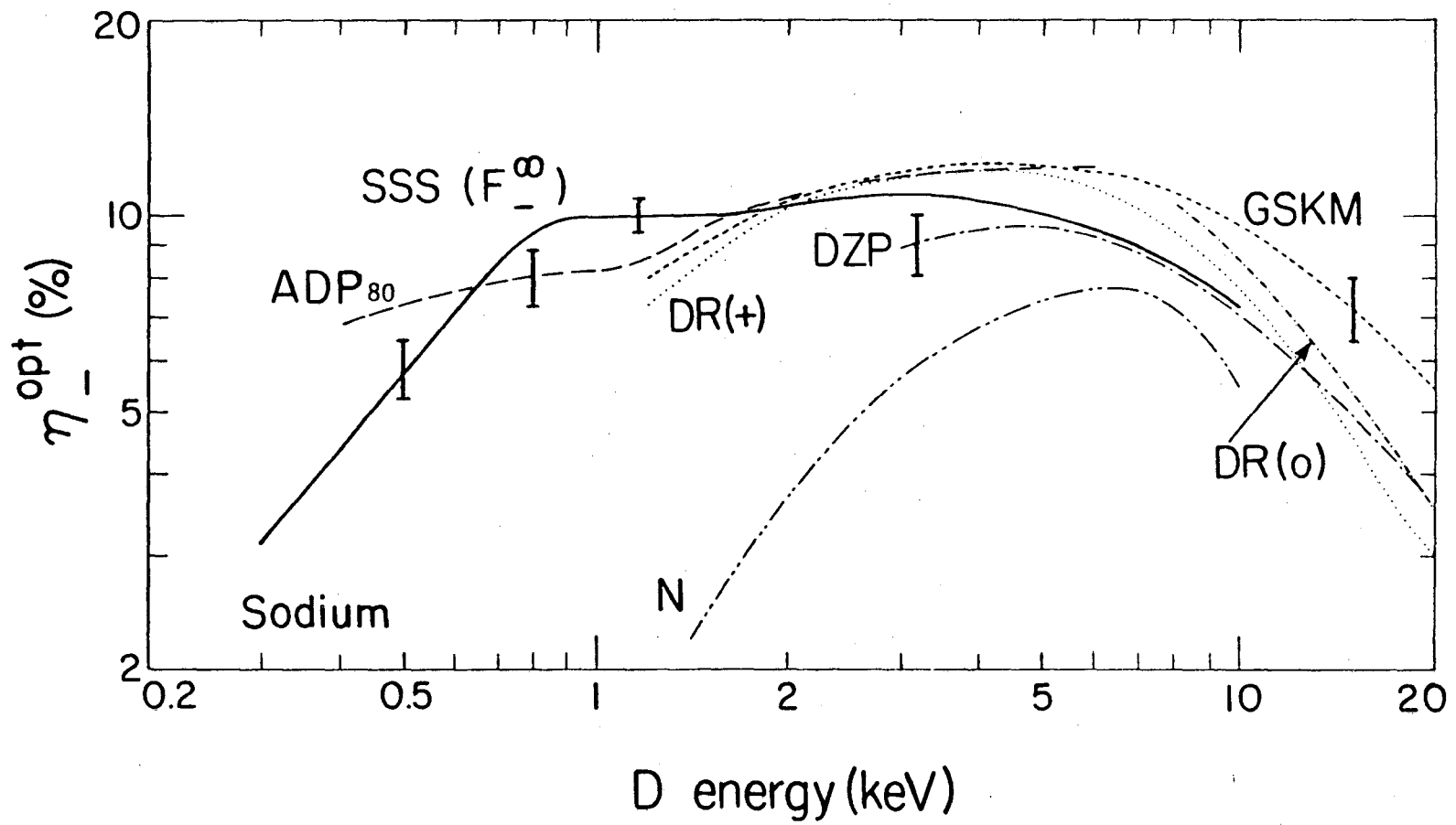
FIGURE 23





XBL 803 - 478A

FIGURE 24



XBL 803-477A

FIGURE 25

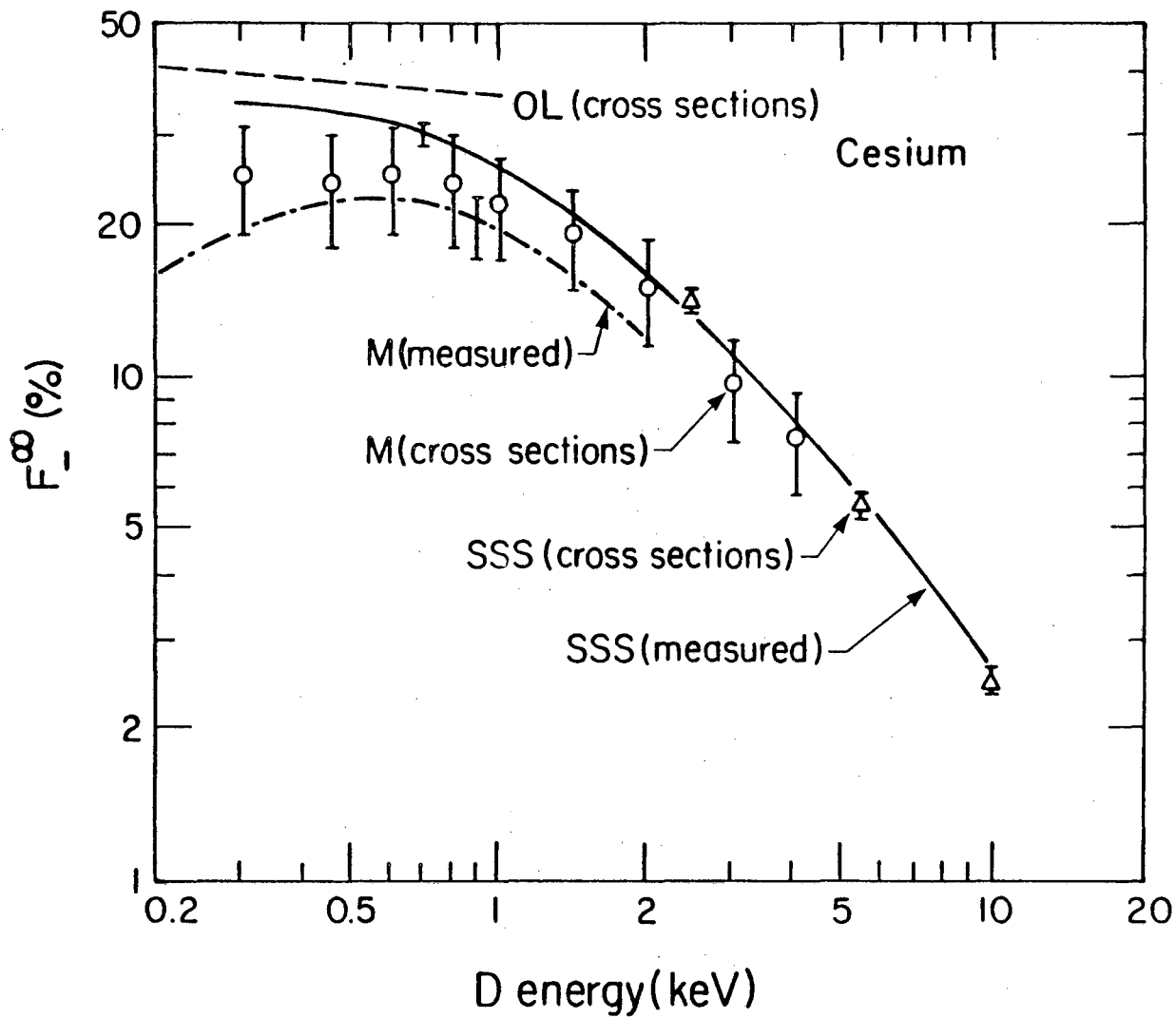
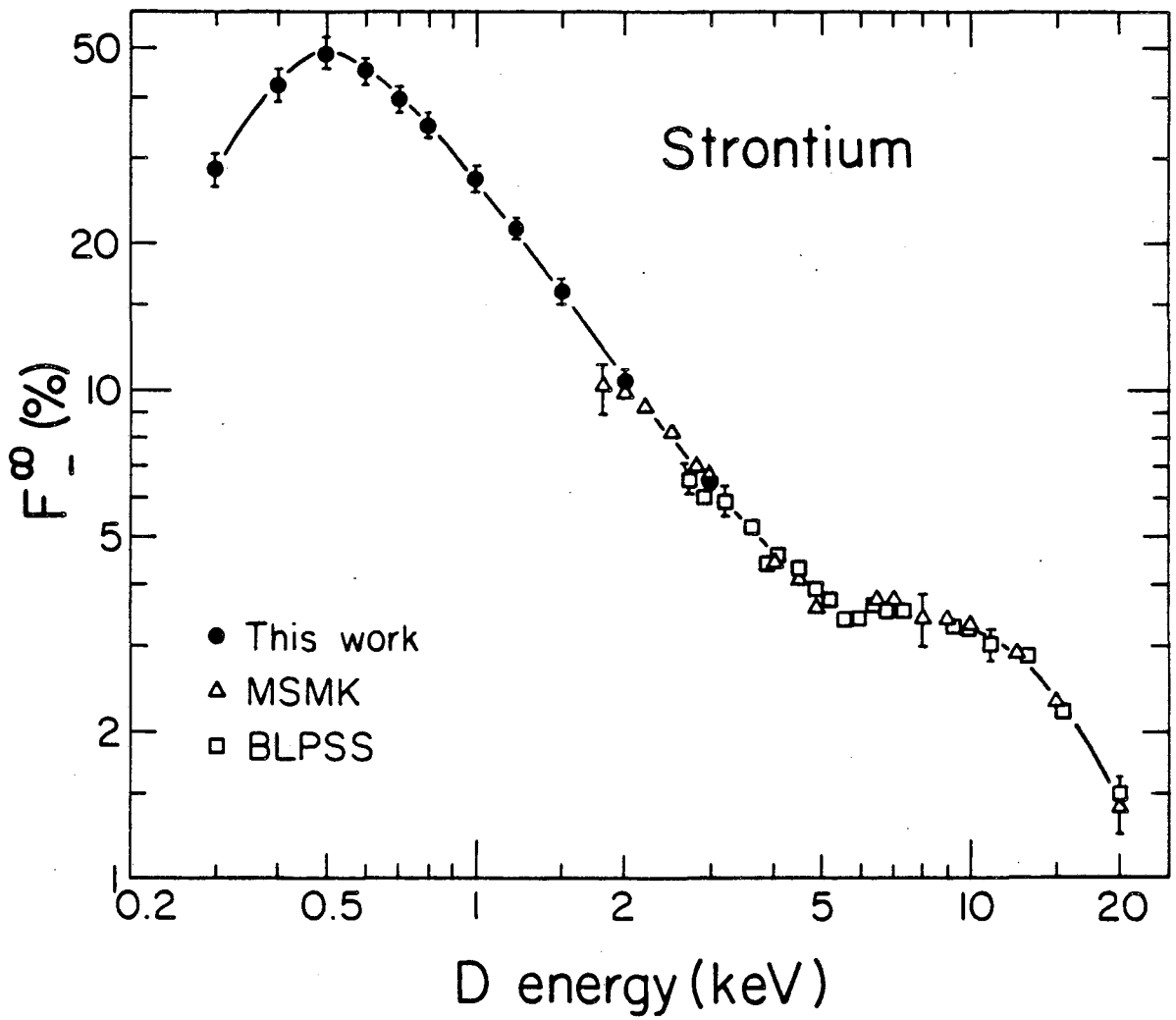


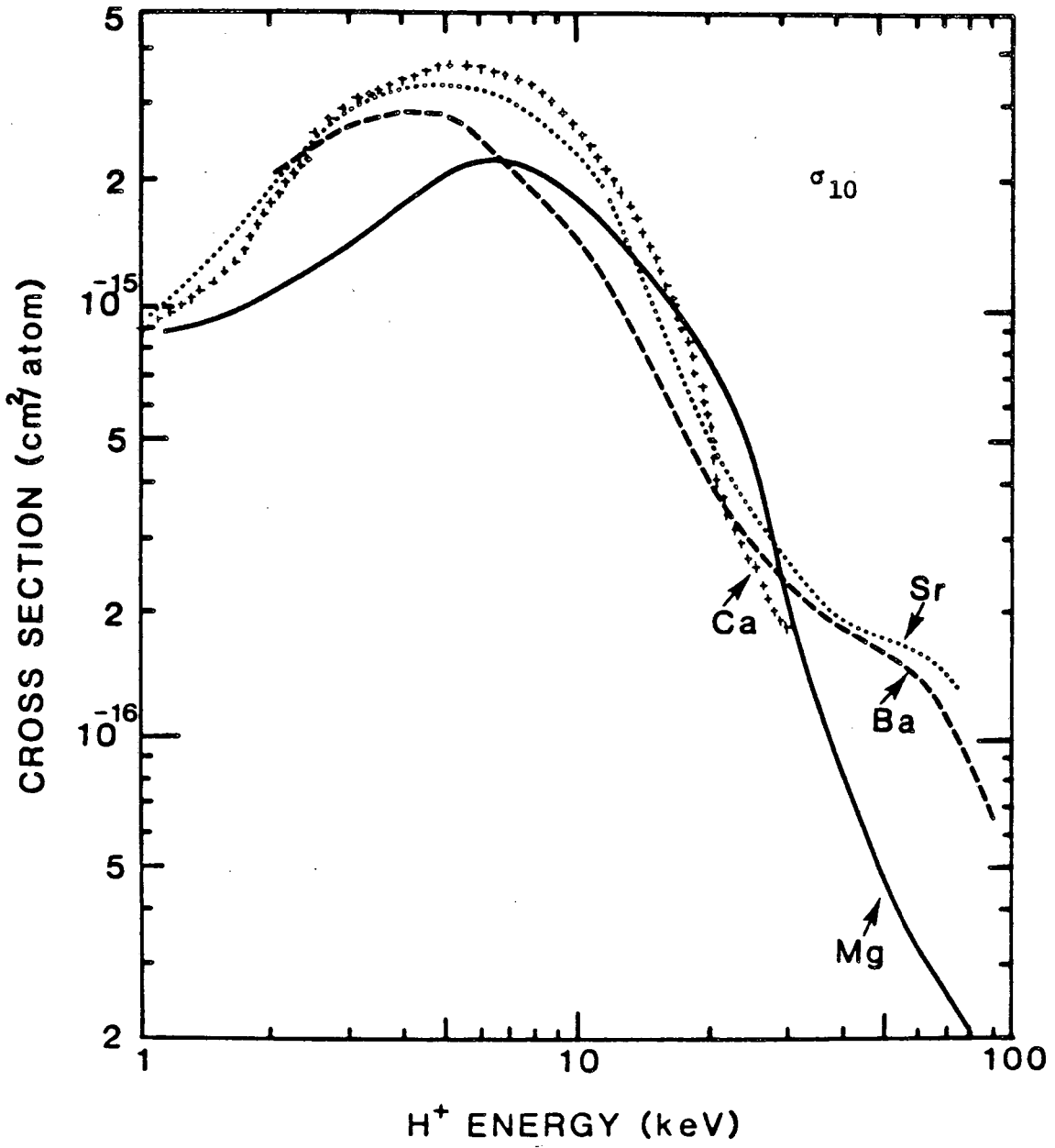
FIGURE 26

XBL 803-468B



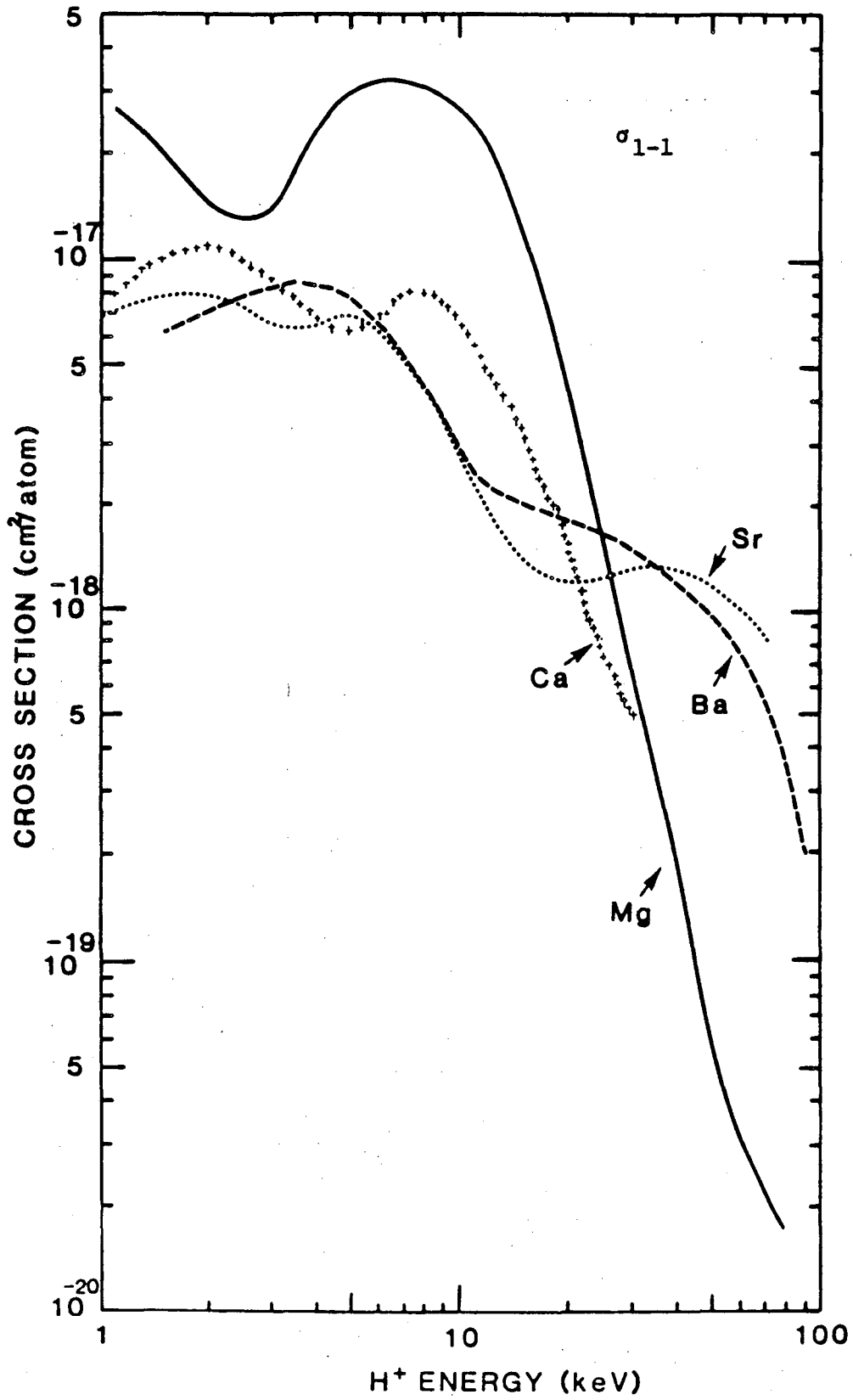
XBL 821-4434 A

FIGURE 27



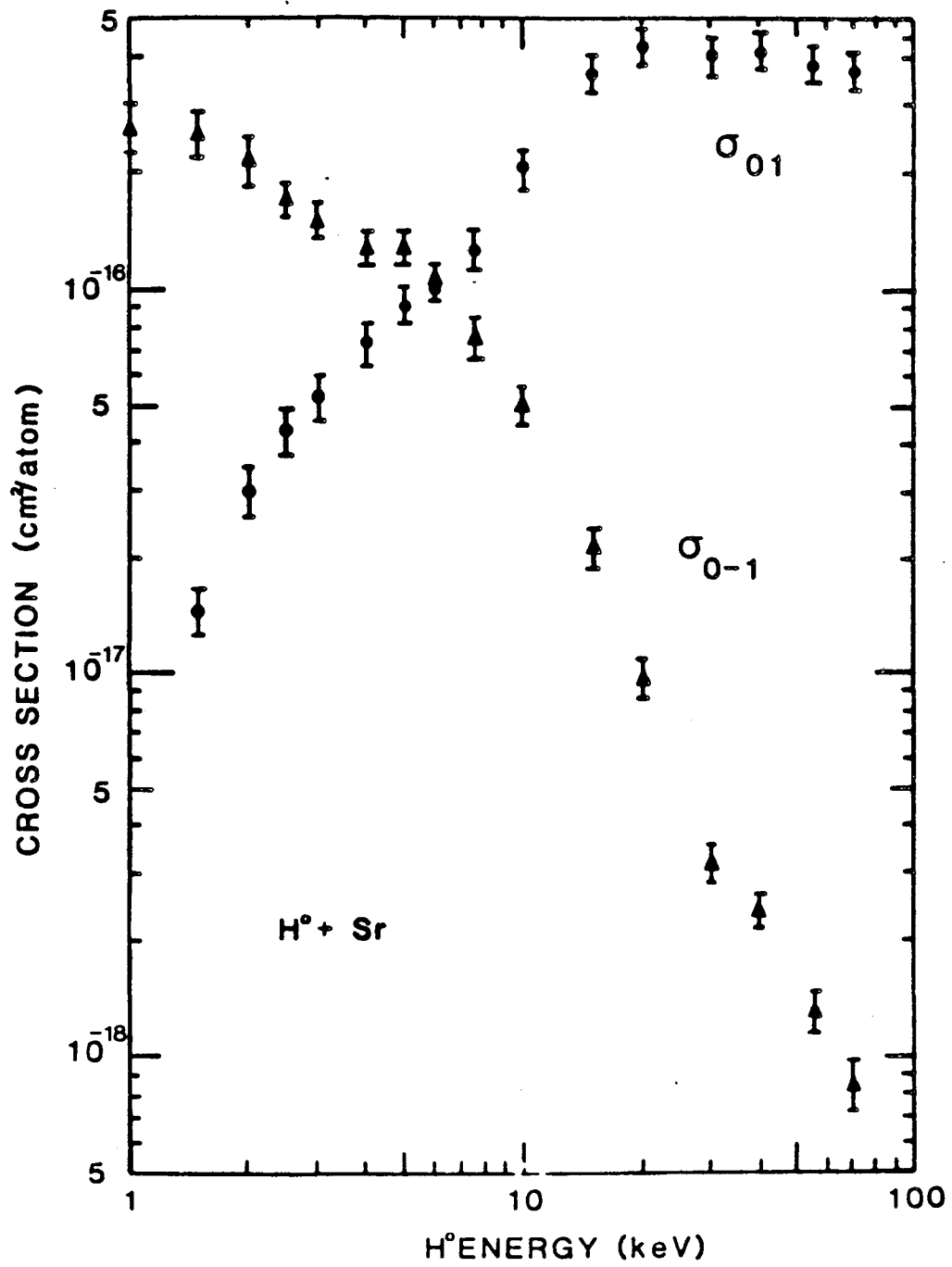
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FIGURE 28



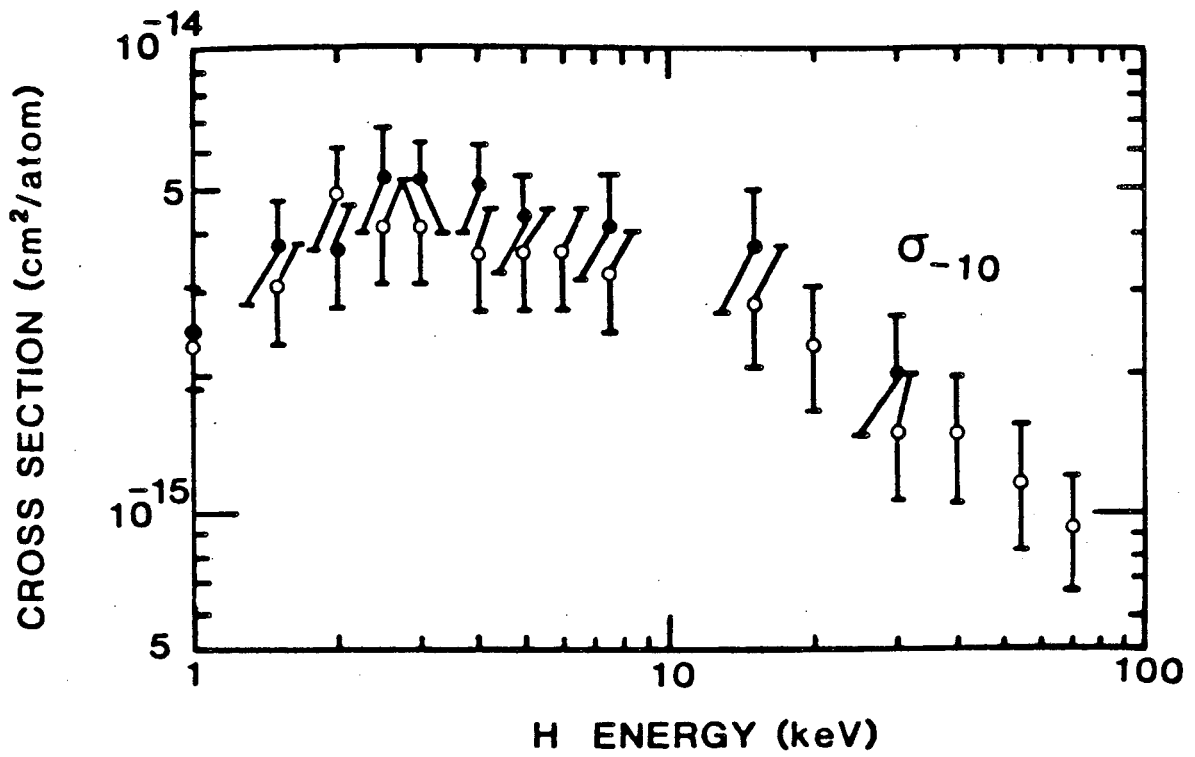
XBL 836-10166

FIGURE 29



XBL 836-10168

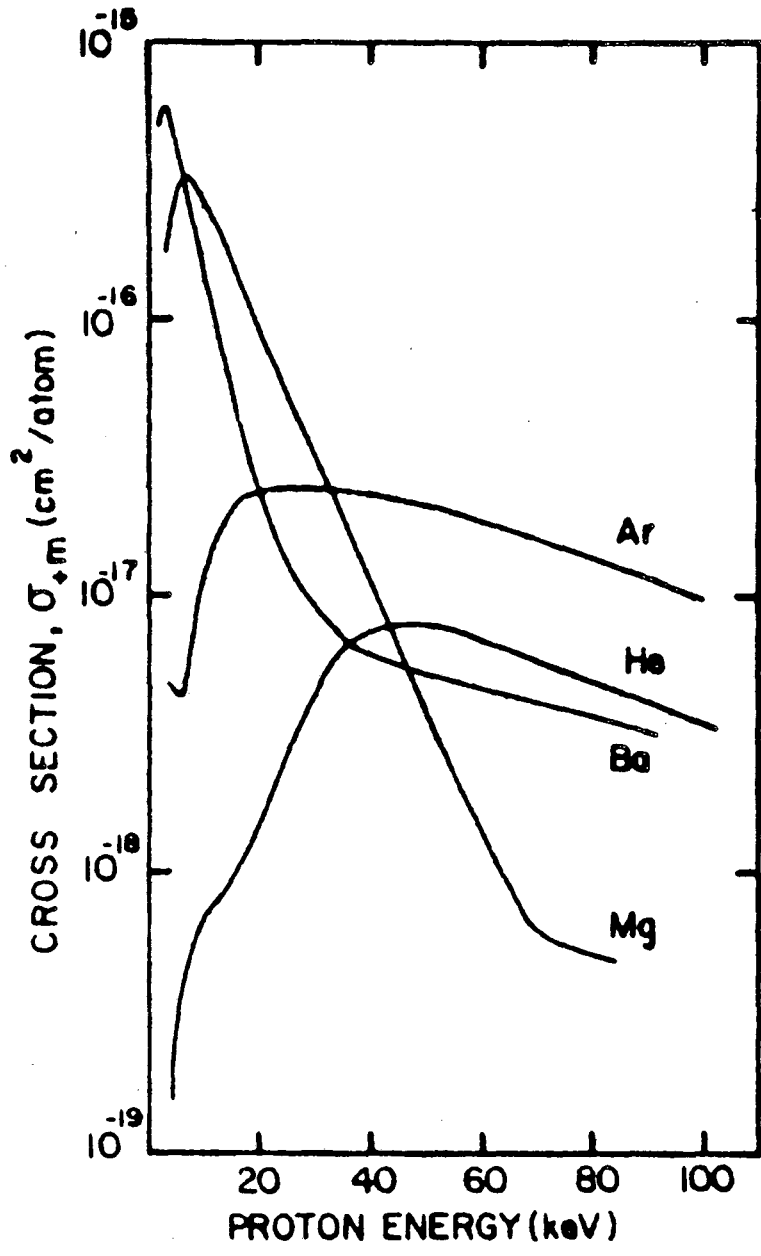
FIGURE 30



XBL 836-10169

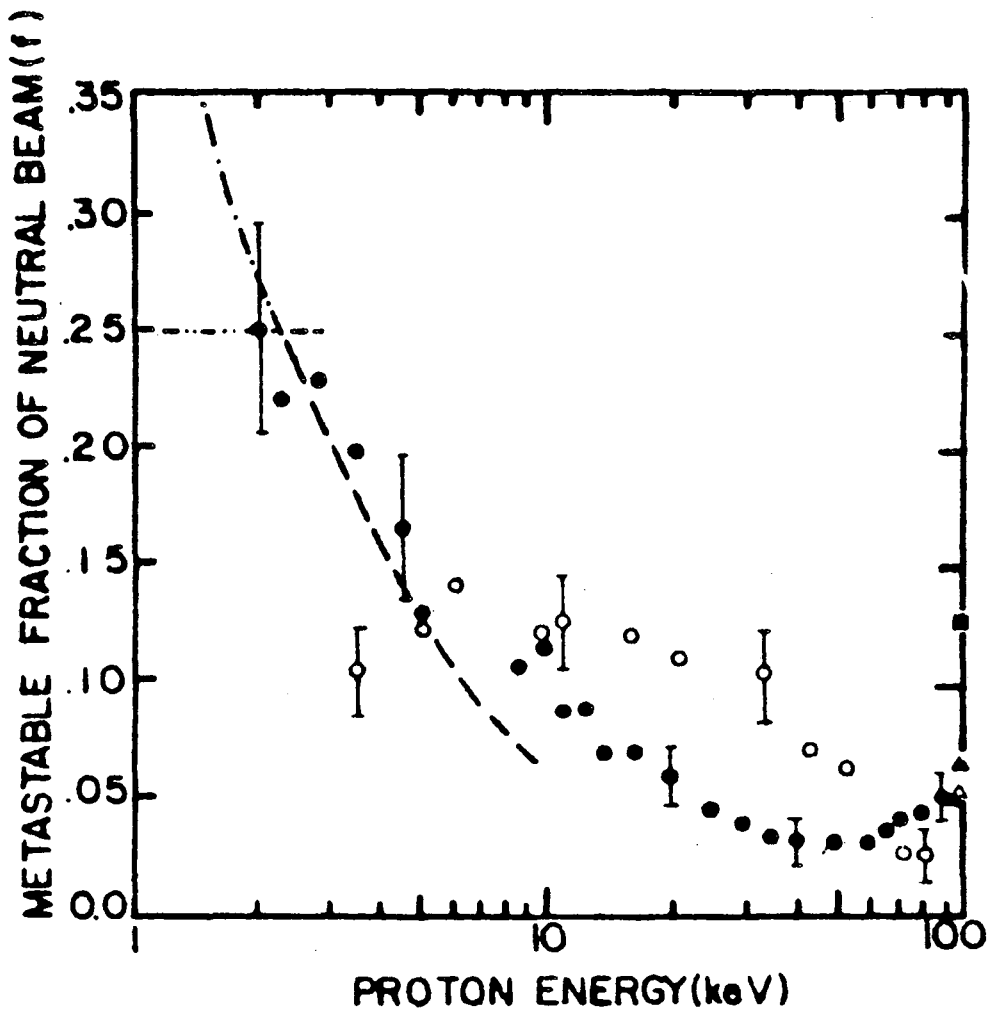
FIGURE 31





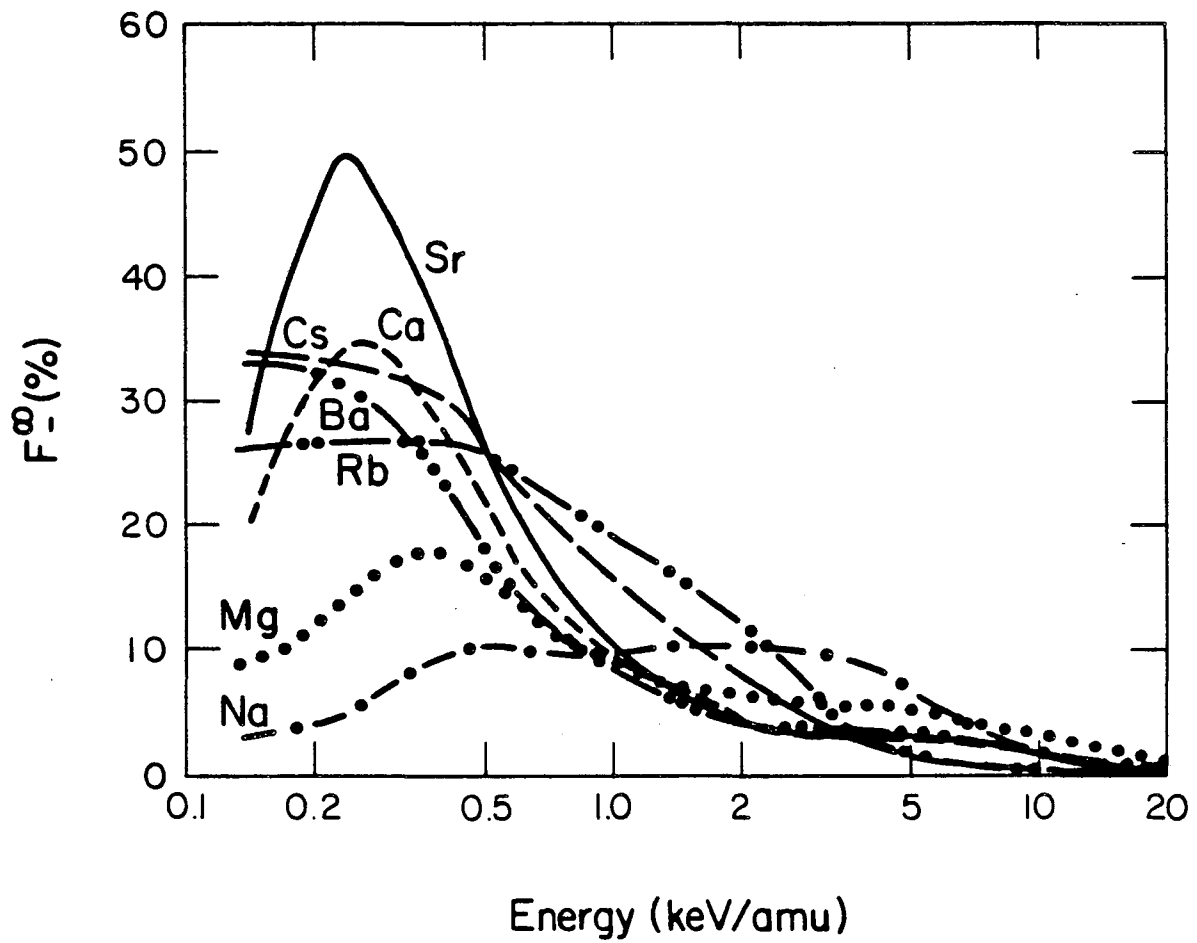
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FIGURE 32



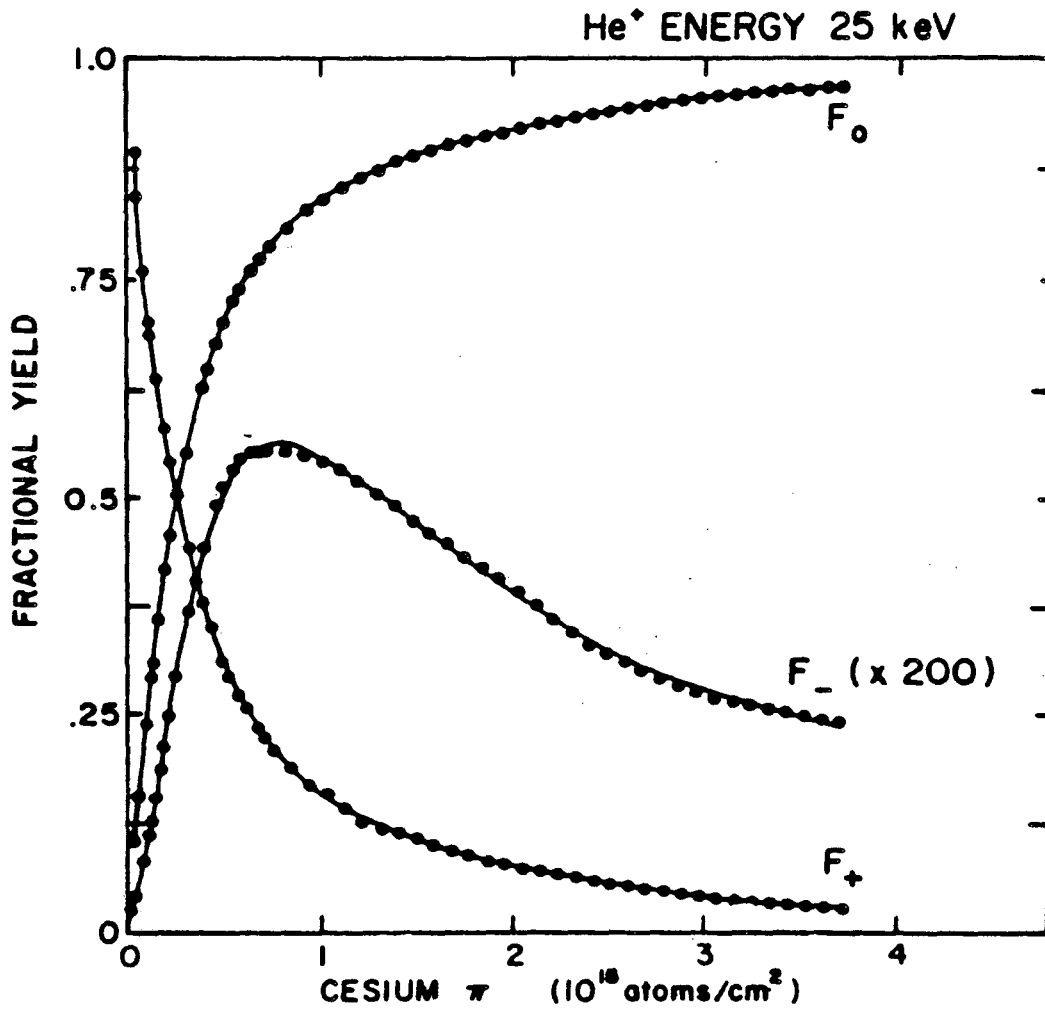
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FIGURE 33



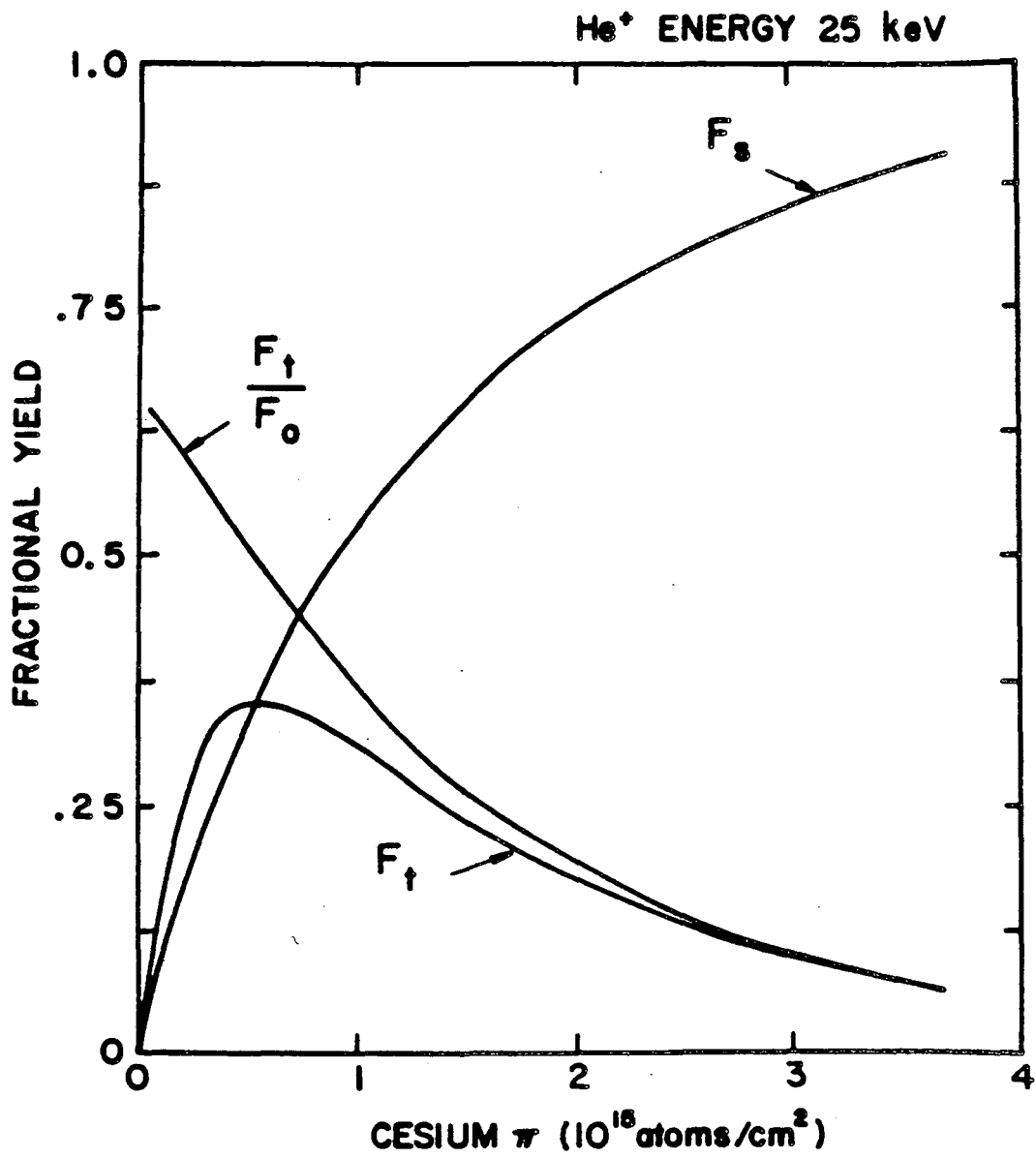
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FIGURE 34



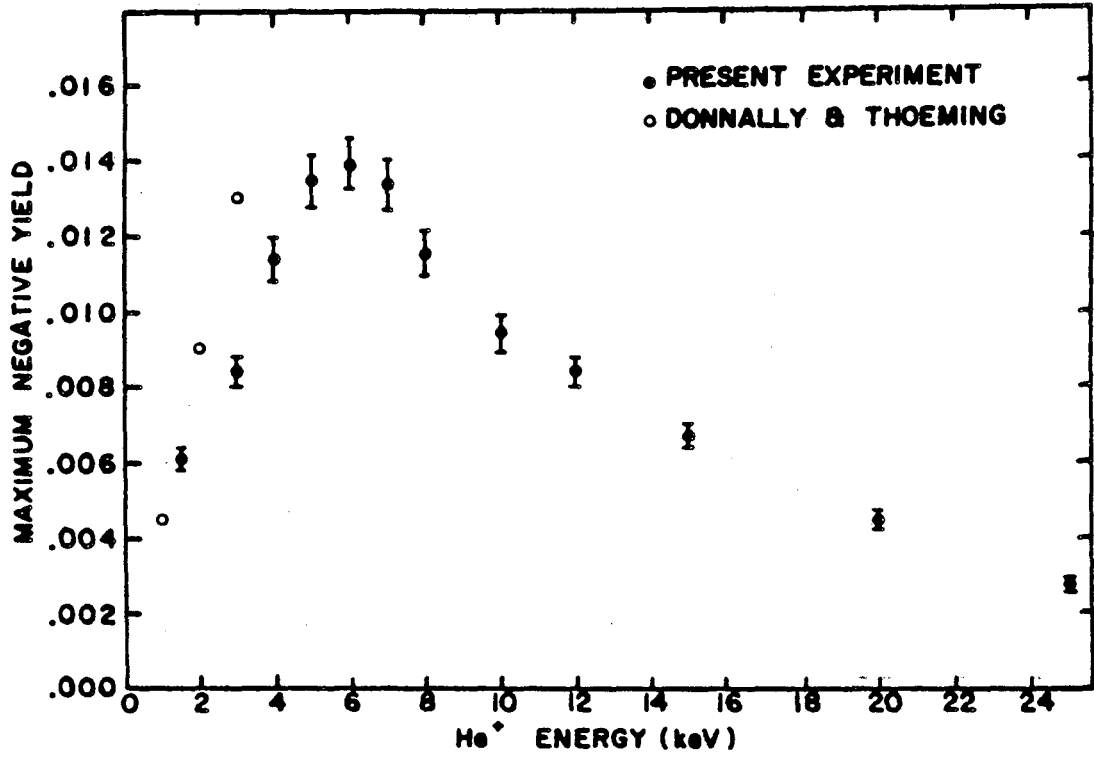
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FIGURE 35



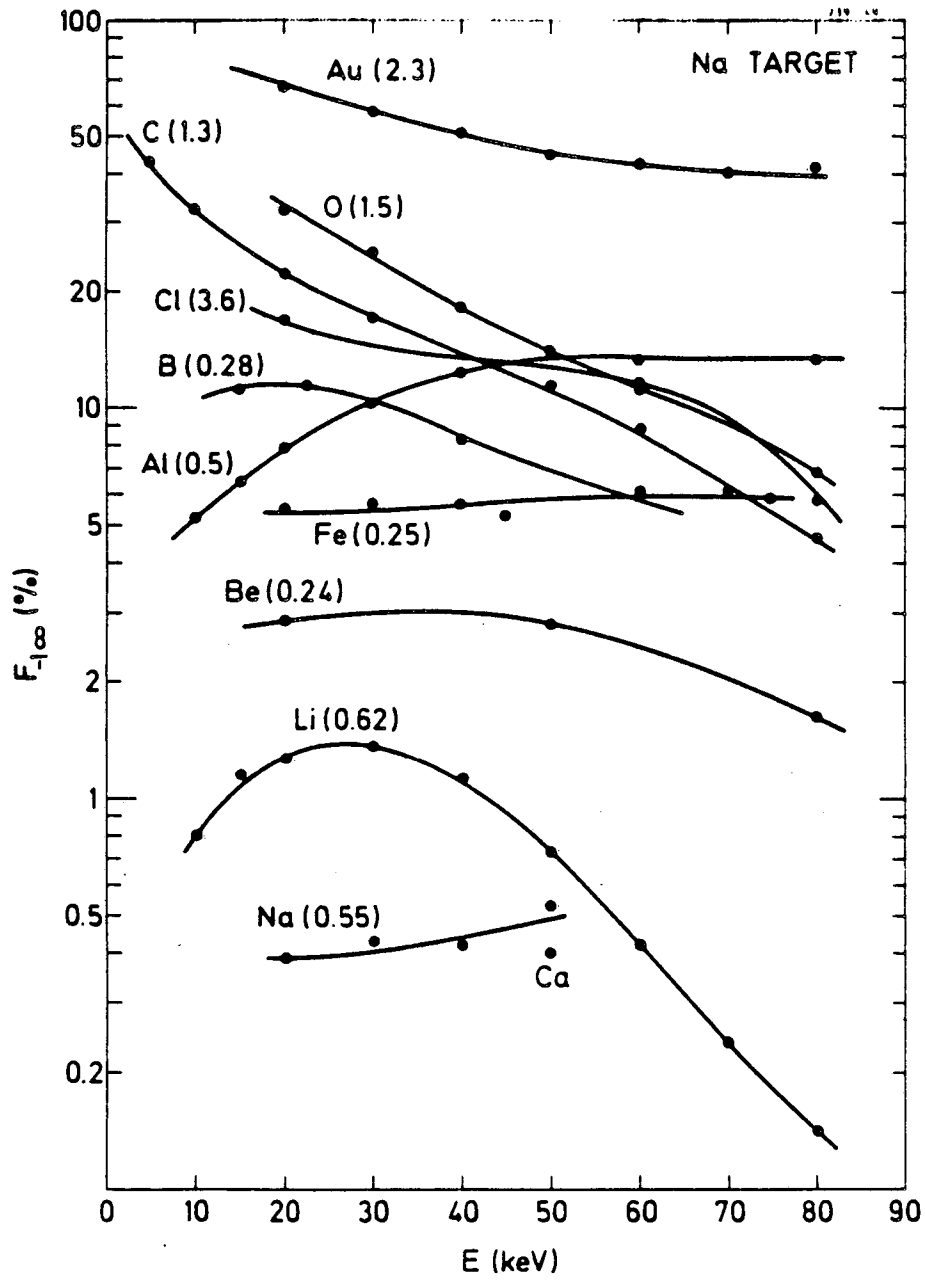
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FIGURE 36



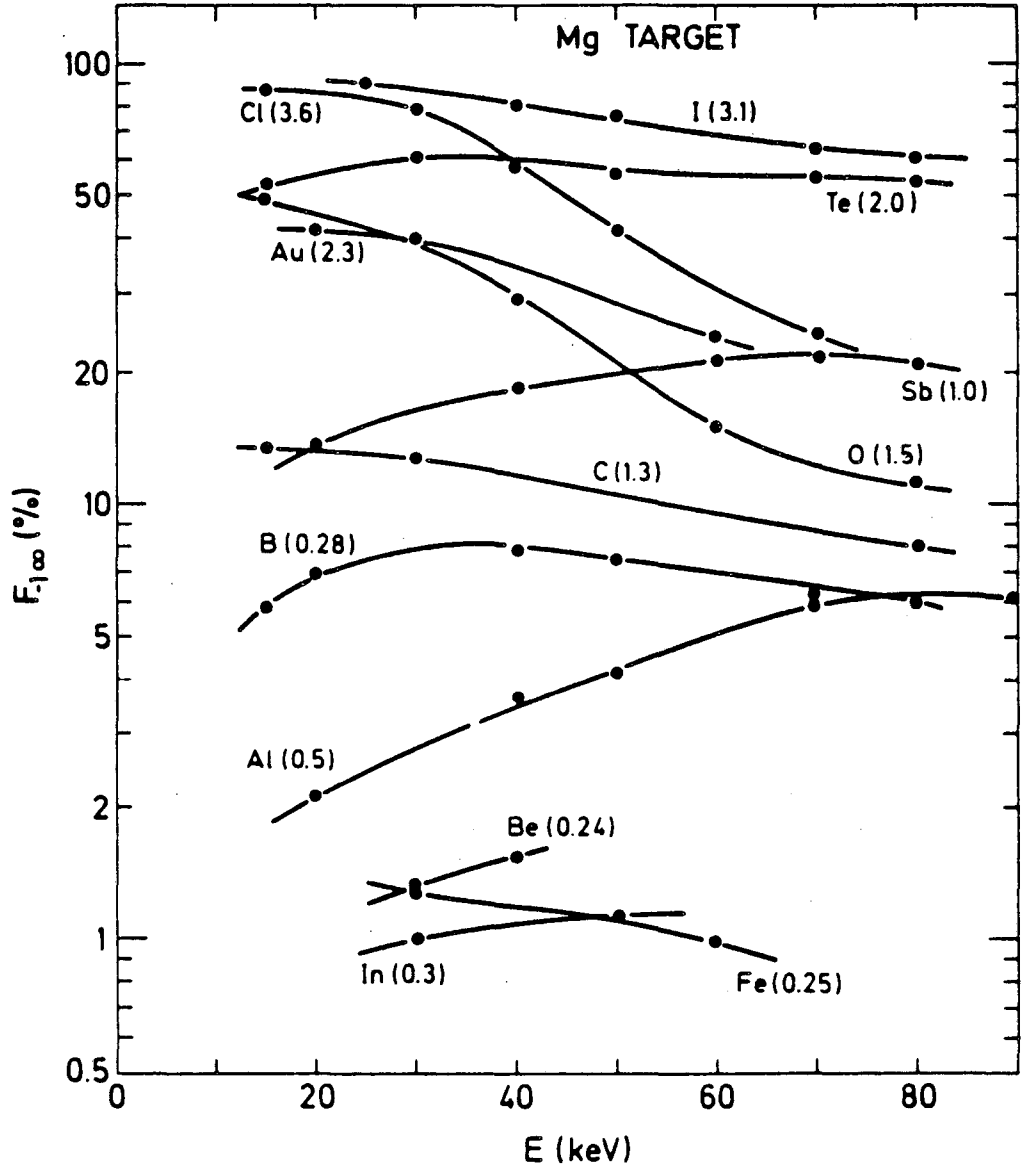
XBL 836-10156

FIGURE 37



XBL 836-10153

FIGURE 38



XBL 836-10147

FIGURE 39



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