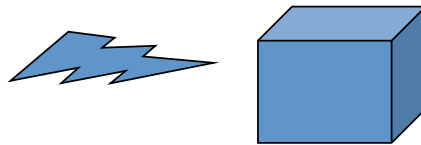


Interactions of Particles/Radiation with Matter



ESIPAP : European School in Instrumentation for Particle and Astroparticle Physics

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« Particles/Radiation » and « Matter »: non-exhaustive list

PARTICLES

- ${}^4_2\text{He}$
- e^\pm
- γ
- $\mu, \gamma, e^\pm, \pi, \nu, p \dots$

RADIATION

- α radiation
- β^\pm radiation
- e.m, X, γ radiation
- cosmic radiation

PARTICLES \leftrightarrow RADIATION

2 aspects of the same « entity »

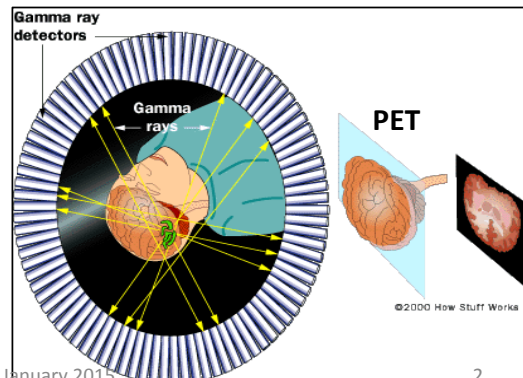
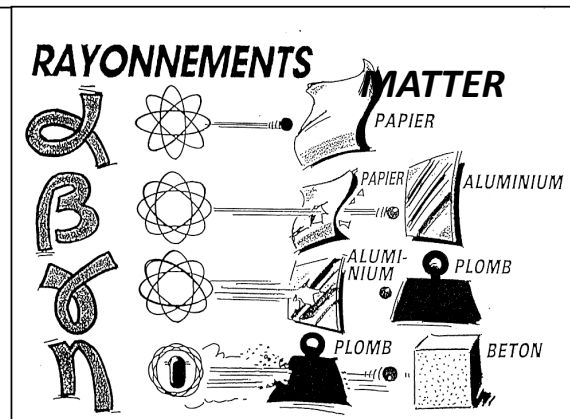
De Broglie relation

$$\lambda = h/p$$

(h = Planck constant)

MATTER

- detectors (research, medical app.,...)
- humain tissu/body (medical app.)
- electronic circuits
- Louvre paintings
- beauty cream, potatos, ...



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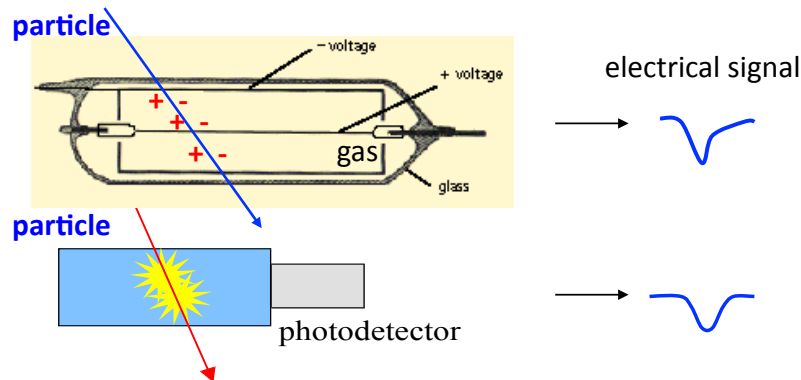
2

Motivation

- The interaction between **particles & matter** is at the base of several human activities
- Plenty of applications **not only in research** and not **only in Particle & Astroparticle**

Very important for particle detection !

- In order **to detect a particle**, the latter must interact with the material of the detector, and produce 'a (detectable) signal'



The understanding of **particle detection** requires the knowledge of the **Interactions of particles & matter**

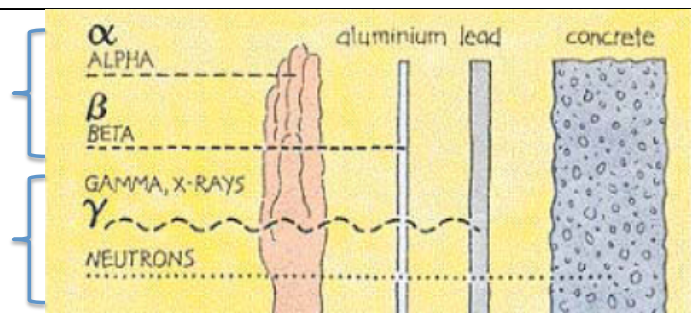
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Brief outline and bibliography

Two lectures + two tutorials

- **Interaction of charged particles**
 - « heavy » ($m_p \gg m_e$)
 - « light » ($m_p \sim m_e$)
- **Interaction of neutral particles**
 - Photons
 - Neutral Hadrons: n , π^0 , ...



- **Radiation detection and measurement**, G.F. Knoll, J. Wiley & Sons
 - **Experimental Techniques in High Energy Nuclear and Particle Physics**, T. Ferbel, World Scientific
 - **Introduction to experimental particle physics**, R. Fernow, Cambridge University Press
 - **Techniques for Nuclear and Particle Physics Experiments**, W.R. Leo, Springer-Verlag
 - **Detectors for Particle radiation**, K. Kleinknecht, Cambridge University Press
 - **Particle detectors**, C. Grupen, Cambridge monographs on particle physics
 - **Principles of Radiation Interaction in Matter and Detection**, C. Leroy, P.G. Rancoita, World Scientific
 - **Nuclei and particles**, Emilio Segré, W.A. Benjamin
 - **High-Energy Particles**, Bruno Rossi, Prentice-Hall
- ← "The classic"

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Also: [Particle Data Group](#)

<http://pdg.lbl.gov/2014/reviews/rpp2014-rev-passage-particles-matter.pdf>

For 'professionals': [GEANT4 \(for GEometry ANd Tracking\)](#)

(Platform for the **simulation** of the **passage of the particles through the matter**
Using Monte Carlo simulation)

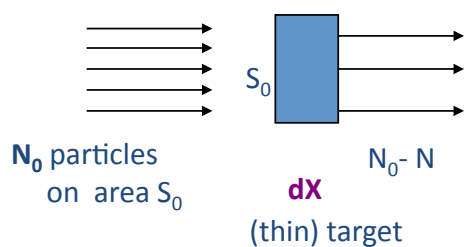
My slides have been inspired by :

Hans Christian Schultz-Coulon's lectures

Johann Collot @ ESIPAP 2014

Interaction Cross Section (σ)

σ characterises the **probability** of a given **interaction** process



n = number of target particles

M = target mass

A_{mol} = molar mass

ρ = target density

$N_A = 6.022 \cdot 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}$

(Avogadro number)

$$\sigma \equiv \frac{\text{Number of interactions per number of target particles in unit time}}{\text{Incident flux}}$$

Number of interactions per number of target particles in unit time = $(1/n) * dN/dt$

Incident flux = $(1/S_0) * dN_0/dt$

Interaction probability

$$\sigma \equiv [(1/n) * dN/dt] / [(1/S_0) * dN_0/dt] = (dN/dN_0) * (S_0/n)$$

It is easy to show that σ doesn't depend from S_0

$$n = (M/A_{\text{mol}}) N_A = (\rho dV) (N_A/A_{\text{mol}})$$

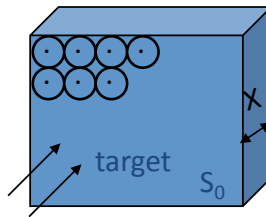
$$= \rho (S_0 dX) (N_A/A_{\text{mol}})$$

Cross section (σ)

σ \equiv interaction probability * (S_0/n)

n \equiv number of target particles

σ \equiv area of a small disk around a target particle



$[\sigma] = [l]^2 \rightarrow \sigma$ is measured in m^2 or **barn**

1 barn = $10^{-28} m^2 = 10^{-24} cm^2$
 1 mbarn = $10^{-27} cm^2$

Order of magnitude of cross sections :

Neutron of ~ 1 eV on $^{48}_{113}Cd$ $\sigma = 100$ barn = $10^{-22} cm^2$

Neutrino of ~ 1 GeV on p $\sigma = 10^{-38} cm^2$

*See also
 Marco Delmastro
 lectures*

Mean free path λ

λ = Average distance traveled between **two consecutive interactions in matter**

$$\lambda \equiv \frac{1}{\sigma n_v}$$

Another way of expressing the probability of a given process

σ total interaction cross-section

n_v number of scattering centers per unit volume

$$n_v = (\rho N_A)/A_{mol}$$

Order of magnitudes:

Electromagnetic interaction : $\lambda < \sim 1 \mu m$

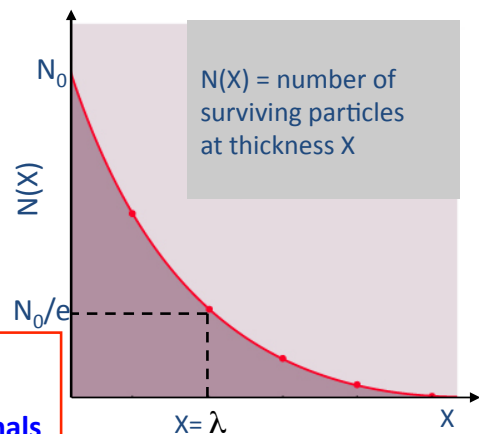
Strong interaction : $\lambda > \sim 1 cm$

Weak interaction : $\lambda > \sim 10^{15} m$

A practical signal (>100 interactions or hits) can only come from the electromagnetic interaction

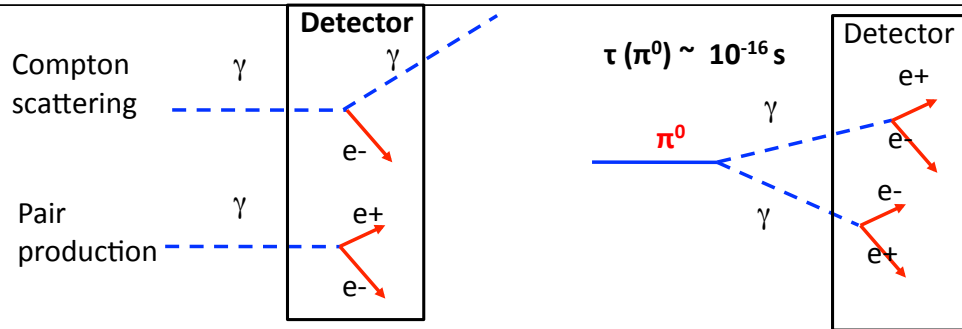
Particle detection proceeds in two steps :

- 1) primary interaction
- 2) charged particle interaction producing the signals

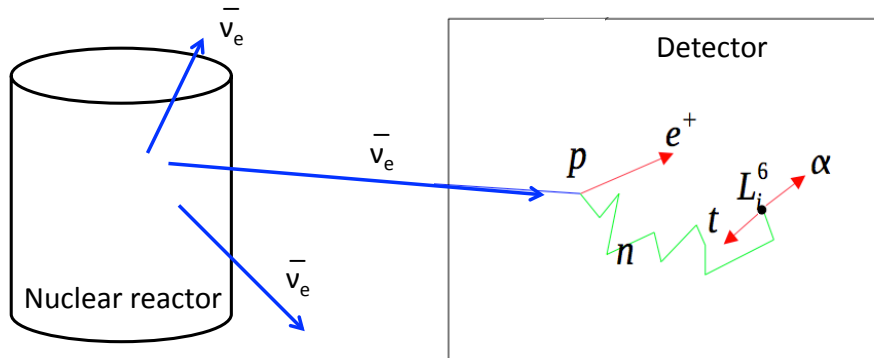


(*) Also: λ = absorption length, interaction length, attenuation length, ...then σ is the cross-section for the corresponding process (see later)

Examples: photon(γ), $\pi^0(\gamma)$, neutron(n), neutrino (ν) detection



Signals are induced **by e.m. interactions of charged particles** in detectors



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Outline: Main interaction processes

- 1st lecture
 - **Charged particle interactions**
 - 1) **Ionization**: inelastic collision with **electrons** of the atoms
 - 2) **Bremsstrahlung**: photon radiation emission by an accelerated charge
 - 3) **Multiple Scattering**: elastic collision with **nucleus**
 - 4) **Cerenkov & transition radiation effects**: photon emission
 - 5) **Nuclear interactions (p, π , K)**: processes mediated by strong interactions
- 2nd lecture
 - **Neutral particle interactions**
 - Photons :
 - **photoelectric and Compton** effects, **$e^+ e^-$ pair production**
 - High energy neutral hadrons with $\tau \sim 10^{-10} \text{ s}$ (n, K^0 , ..) :
 - **nuclear interactions**
 - Moderate/low energy neutrons :
 - **scattering** (moderation), **absorption, fission**
 - Neutrinos :
 - processes mediated by **weak interactions**

After the interaction the particles loose their energy and/or change direction or 'disappear'

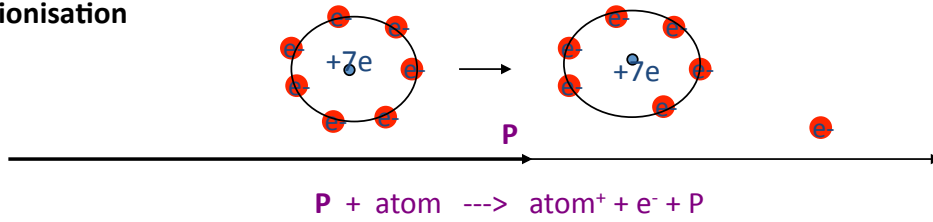
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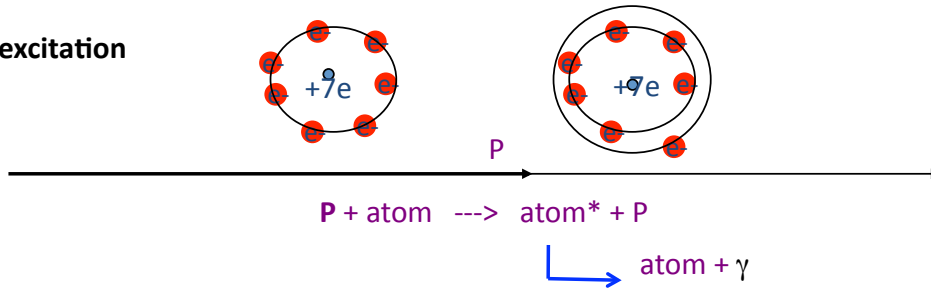
1) Inelastic collision with electrons of the atoms

Main e.m. process for heavy ($m_p \gg m_e$) charged particles **P** (ex. μ)

- ionisation



- excitation



- Both processes together (**ionization & excitation**) can also happen
- The particle **P** loses a bit of its energy (in each of the many collisions), its direction is \sim unchanged.
- **Inelastic collisions on nucleus** are much **less frequent** (since the **energy transfer** depends inversely on the target mass and $m_N \gg m_e$)

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how to derive the Bethe-Black formula

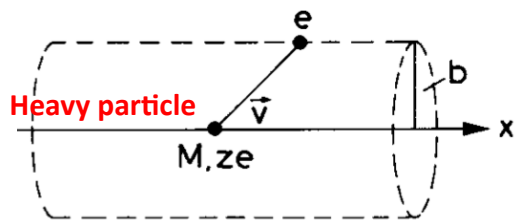
“~~Culture isn't knowing when~~
~~Napoleon died.~~ Culture means
 knowing how I can find out in two
 minutes.”

Umberto Eco

<http://www.spiegel.de/international/zeitgeist/spiegel-interview-with-umberto-eco-we-like-lists-because-we-don-t-want-to-die-a-659577-2.html>

Simple computation of the average energy loss of particle P

(how to derive the B&B formula)



- Electrons considered free and initially at rest
- Moving slightly during interaction
- Heavy particle undeflected

- Electric force acting on e

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} \quad \text{Effect of } \vec{F} // \text{ to the particle direction averages to 0 (symmetry)}$$

$$dt = dx/v$$

$$\text{Gauss law: } \Phi_S(\vec{E}) = 4\pi ze$$

$$\int E_{\perp} 2\pi b dx = 4\pi ze$$

$$\Delta p = \int F_{\perp} dt = e \int E_{\perp} dt = e \int E_{\perp} dx/v$$

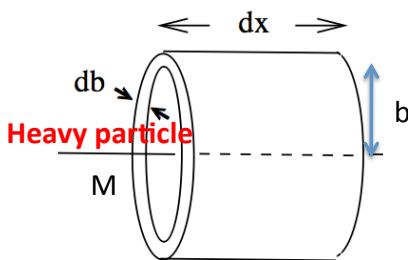
$$\text{Momentum transferred to one electron: } \Delta p = 2z e^2 / (b v)$$

\vec{E} = electric field generated by P

$$\text{Energy transferred to one electron: } \Delta E = \Delta p^2 / (2 m_e) = \frac{2 z^2 e^4}{m_e v^2 b^2}$$

E = kin. energy

Simple computation of the average energy loss



$N_c = (\rho N_A Z) / A_{\text{mol}}$ = number of electrons per unit of volume

$$dV = 2\pi db dx$$

$$-dE(b) = \Delta E N_c dV = \frac{4\pi z^2 e^4}{m_e v^2} N_c \frac{db}{b} dx$$

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{4\pi z^2 e^4}{m_e v^2} N_c \ln \frac{b_{\text{max}}}{b_{\text{min}}}$$

De Broglie wavelength of electron (after head-on collision $v_e \approx 2v$)

"Collision time"

b_{min} from De Broglie wavelength $b_{\text{min}} = \lambda_e = h/p = h/(2 m_e \gamma v)$

Electron period in atom

b_{max} from adiabatic invariance $b_{\text{max}} = (\gamma v)/v_e$

$b/(\gamma v) < \tau$ where $\tau = 1/v_e$

$l = h v_e$

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{4\pi z^2 e^4}{m_e v^2} N_c \ln \frac{2 m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2}{h v_e}$$

$$T_e^{\text{max}} = E_e^{\text{max}} - m_e = \frac{2 m_e \beta^2 \gamma^2}{(E_{\text{CM}}/M)^2}$$

deviates "only" by a factor 2 Lucia Di Ciaccio - ESIPAP IPM - January 2015

Average energy loss by a charged particle ($m_p \gg m_e$) in matter

Incident charged 'heavy' particle P of energy E  matter (e.x. gaz of a detector)

Bethe-Bloch formula (B & B)

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = K \rho \frac{Z}{A} \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \left[\ln \frac{2 m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2 T_{max}}{I^2} - 2 \beta^2 - \delta - 2 \frac{C}{Z} \right]$$

r_e = classic radius of electron = $\alpha/(m_e c^2) = 2.8$ fm

m_e = electron mass = 511 KeV

$$2K = 4 \pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 = 0.307 \text{ MeV g}^{-1} \text{ cm}^2$$

z = charge of incident particle in unit of e

β = particle speed in unit of c

$$\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1-\beta^2}$$

T_{max} = maximum energy transferred in a collision $\sim 2 m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2$ (for $2\gamma m_e \ll m_p$)

ρ = density of the matter

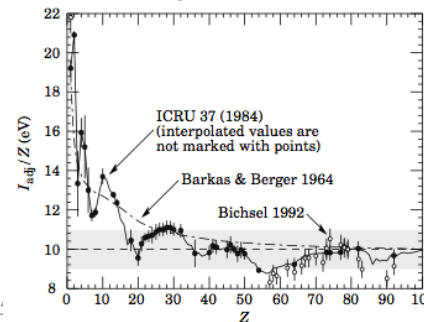
Z, A = atomic number, atomic weight of the matter

I = effective excitation potential of the matter

Difficult to compute --> obtained from dE/dx

$$I \text{ (eV)} = (12 + 7/Z) Z \quad (Z \leq 12)$$

$$I \text{ (eV)} = (9.76 + 58.8 Z^{-1.19}) Z \quad (Z \geq 12)$$



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Shell (C) and Density(δ) effect corrections

C = Relevant at low energy. Small correction. The particle velocity is close to orbital velocity of electrons and the assumption that atomic electrons are at rest breaks down. Takes into account binding energy. The energy loss is reduced. The capture process of the particle is possible

δ = Relevant at high energy.

The electric field of the particle polarise the atoms of the matter

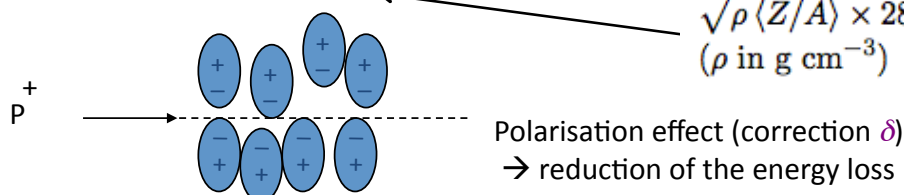
--> The energy loss is reduced since shielding of electrical field far from the particle path \rightarrow **moderation of the relativistic rise**

It depends on the particle speed and on the matter density

Density effect leads to saturation at high energy

For high energy: $\delta/2 \rightarrow \ln(\hbar\omega_p/I) + \ln \beta\gamma - 1/2$

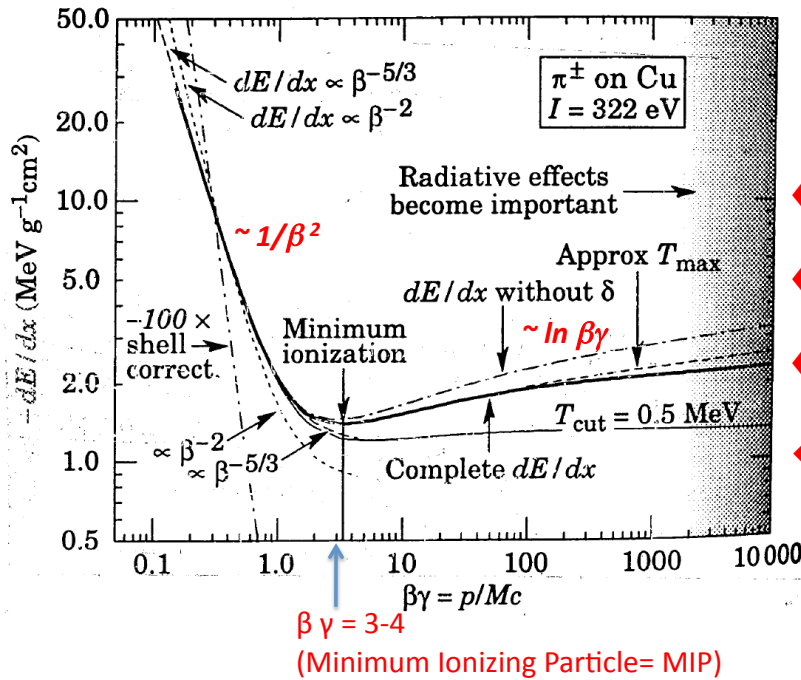
$$\hbar\omega_p = \text{"Plasma energy"} \\ \sqrt{\rho \langle Z/A \rangle} \times 28.816 \text{ eV} \\ (\rho \text{ in g cm}^{-3})$$



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Stopping power or mean specific energy loss ($m_p \gg m_e$)



Few remarks:

- ◆ $dE/dx = f(\beta)$
- ◆ dE/dx doesn't depend on m_p
- ◆ $dE/dx \propto z^2$ (particle charge)
- ◆ On vertical l'axis $-dE/(\rho dx)$ (MeV cm²)/g



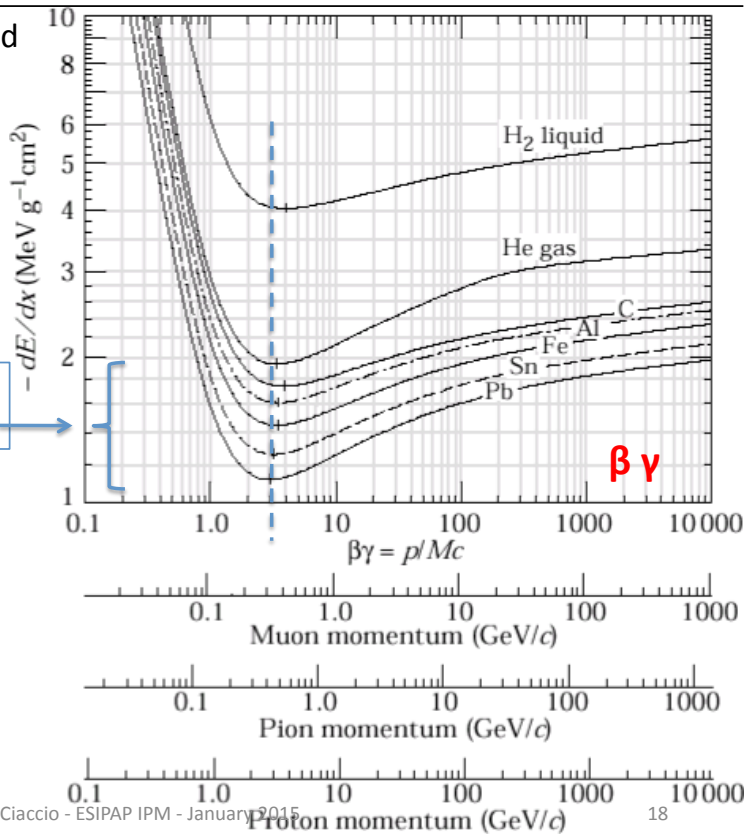
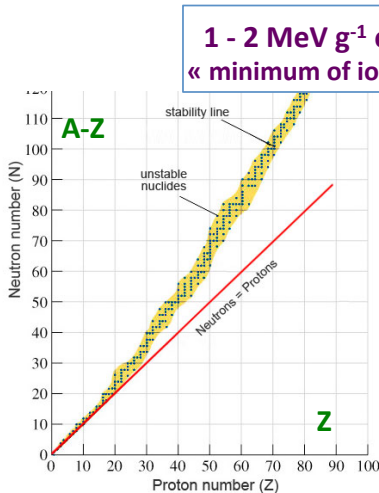
See Marco Delmastro lectures for explanation of $1/\beta^2$ and $\ln \beta\gamma$

Stopping power

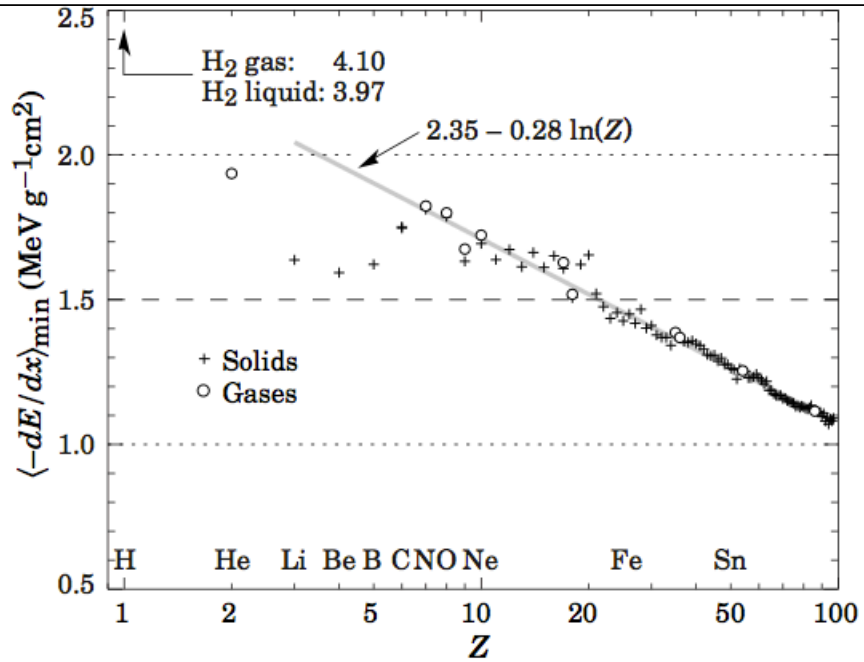
* If material thickness is measured in ρdx (g/cm²)

→ on vertical l'axis $-dE/(\rho dx)$ (MeV cm²)/g

the dependence on the material is reduced since $\sim Z/A \sim 0.5$



Stopping power at the minimum of ionization



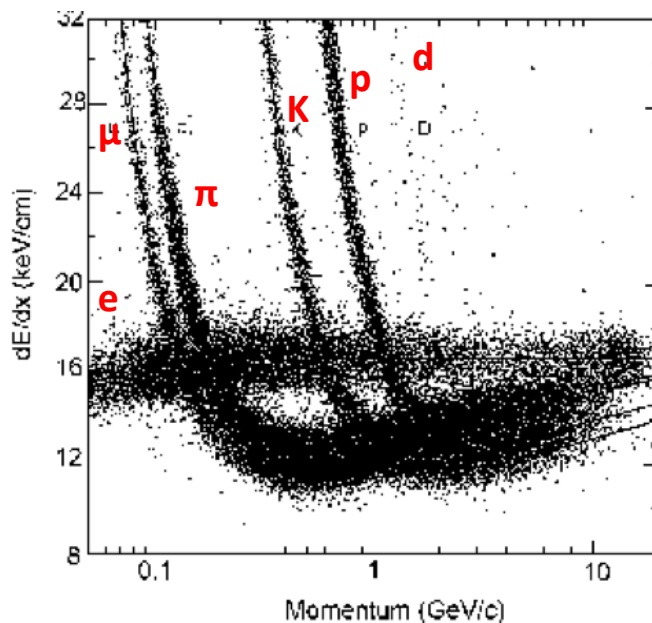
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Particle identification

$$\vec{p} = m \gamma c \vec{\beta} \quad \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

Measuring **independently** p and $\gamma\beta$ one can extract $m \rightarrow$ particle identification



PEP4-9
Time Projection Chamber (TPC)
@SLAC (late '70)

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Knock-on electrons or delta(δ) rays (secondary electrons)

High energy transfers generates **secondary electrons (delta rays)**

Distribution of δ with **kinetic energies** $T \gg I$:

$$\frac{d^2N}{dTdx} = \frac{1}{2} K z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \frac{F(T)}{T^2} \cdot \text{MeV}^{-1} \text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$$

$$K = 0.307$$

$F(T)$ = Spin dependent factor

β, m_0 = speed and mass of **primary** particle

x = **mass** thickness

Spin 0 $F(T) = F_0(T) = \left(1 - \beta^2 \frac{T}{T_{max}}\right)$

Spin 1/2 $F(T) = F_{1/2}(T) = F_0(T) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{T}{E}\right)^2$

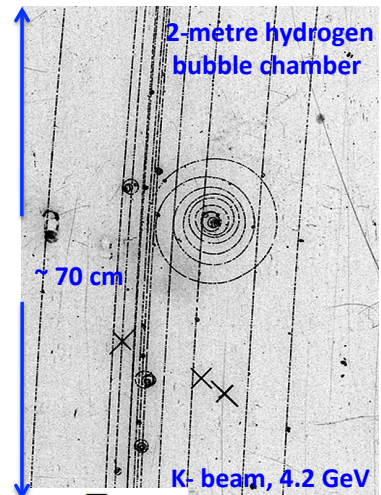
Spin 1 $F(T) = F_1(T) = F_0(T) \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \frac{T m_e}{m_0^2}\right) + \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{T}{E}\right)^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{T m_e}{m_0^2}\right)$

For $T \ll T_{max}$ & $T \ll m_0^2/m_e$ $F(T) = 1$ This allows to compute an approximate probability to generate a δ with $T > T_s$

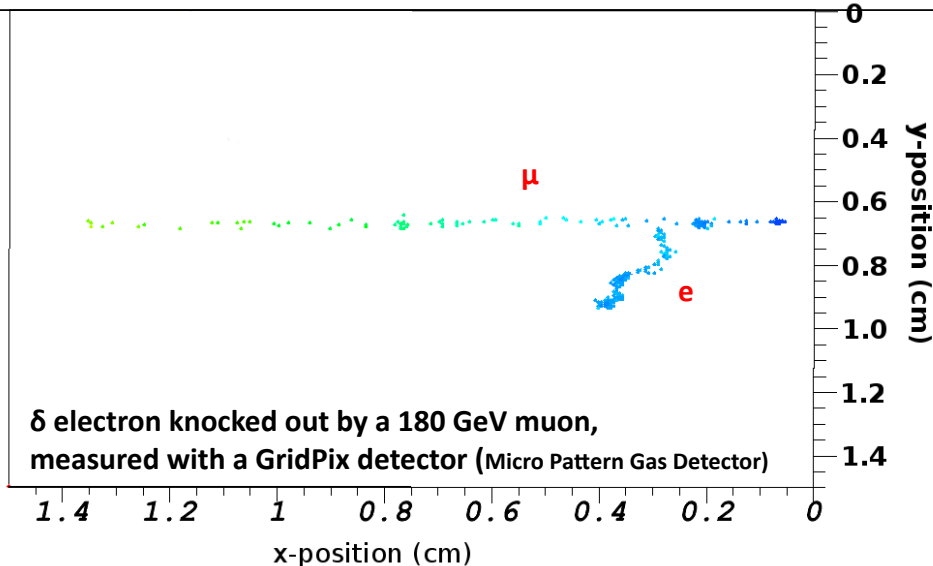
in a thin absorber of mass thickness x :

$$w(T_s, E, x) \simeq 0.3071 x \frac{z^2 Z}{A(g) \beta^2 T_s}$$

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Knock-on electrons or Delta(δ) rays (secondary electrons)



δ rays are rare but produce high ionization

For $\beta \approx 1$ particle, on average **one** collision with $T > 10$ keV along a path length of **90 cm** of Ar gas

Restricted energy loss

- δ rays that may escape the detector if it is too thin
 - The average energy deposits are very often much smaller than predicted by **Bethe & Bloch**

If the energy transferred is restricted to $T \leq T_{\text{cut}} \leq T_{\text{max}} \rightarrow$ “restricted energy loss”

$$-\left. \frac{dE}{dx} \right|_{T < T_{\text{cut}}} = K z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2 T_{\text{cut}}}{I^2} - \frac{\beta^2}{2} \left(1 + \frac{T_{\text{cut}}}{T_{\text{max}}} \right) - \frac{\delta}{2} \right]$$

The difference between the **restricted energy loss** formula and the **B & B** is given by the contribution of the (escaping) δ rays

At very high energies, when $\beta\gamma > 10^{51}$, the stopping power reaches a constant called “Fermi plateau” :

$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right) \left[\frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{g/cm}^2} \right] = 0.3071 \frac{z^2 Z}{2.A(g)} \ln \left(\frac{2m_e T_{\text{cut}}}{(h\nu_p)^2} \right)$$

$h\nu_p =$
 $\hbar\omega =$ “Plasma energy”
 $\sqrt{\rho \langle Z/A \rangle} \times 28.816 \text{ eV}$
 $(\rho \text{ in } \text{g cm}^{-3})$

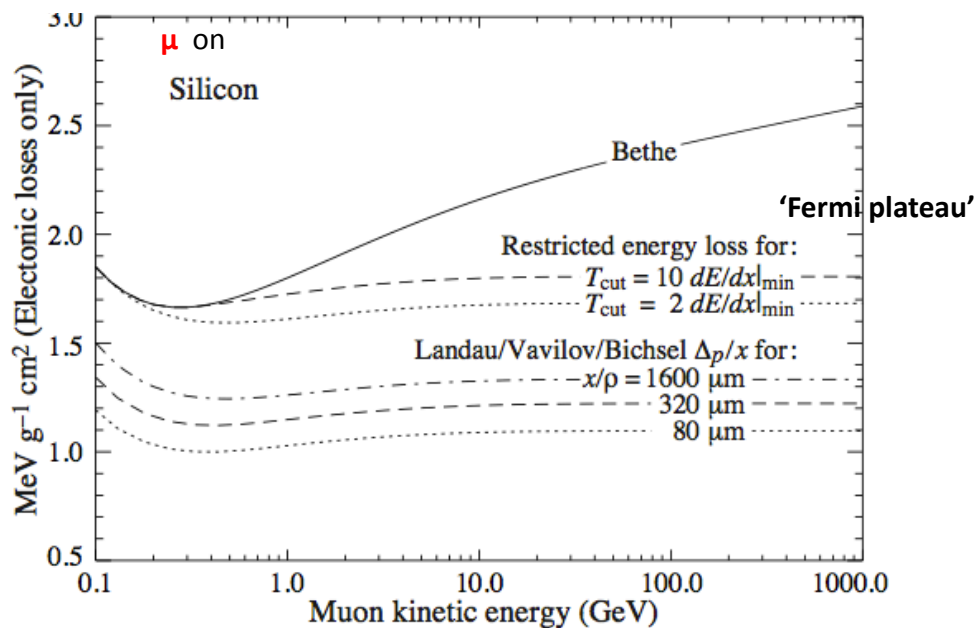
$S_1, h\nu_p =$ **density effect parameters**

Density effect parameters

Table 2.1 Values of $Z, Z/A, I, \rho$ in units of $\text{g/cm}^3, h\nu_p$ and density-effect parameters $S_0, S_1, a, md,$ and δ_0 for elemental substances.

El.	Z	Z/A	I eV	ρ	$h\nu_p$ eV	S_0	S_1	a	md	δ_0
He	2	0.500	41.8	1.66 10^{-4}	0.26	2.202	3.612	0.134	5.835	0.00
Li	3	0.432	40.0	0.53	13.84	0.130	1.640	0.951	2.500	0.14
O	8	0.500	95.0	1.33 10^{-3}	0.74	1.754	4.321	0.118	3.291	0.00
Ne	10	0.496	137.0	8.36 10^{-4}	0.59	2.074	4.642	0.081	3.577	0.00
Al	13	0.482	166.0	2.70	32.86	0.171	3.013	0.080	3.635	0.12
Si	14	0.498	173.0	2.33	31.06	0.201	2.872	0.149	3.255	0.14
Ar	18	0.451	188.0	1.66 10^{-3}	0.79	1.764	4.486	0.197	2.962	0.00
Fe	26	0.466	286.0	7.87	55.17	-0.001	3.153	0.147	2.963	0.12
Cu	29	0.456	322.0	8.96	58.27	-0.025	3.279	0.143	2.904	0.08
Ge	32	0.441	350.0	5.32	44.14	0.338	3.610	0.072	3.331	0.14
Kr	36	0.430	352.0	3.48 10^{-3}	1.11	1.716	5.075	0.074	3.405	0.00
Ag	47	0.436	470.0	10.50	61.64	0.066	3.107	0.246	2.690	0.14
Xe	54	0.411	482.0	5.49 10^{-3}	1.37	1.563	4.737	0.233	2.741	0.0
Ta	73	0.403	718.0	16.65	74.69	0.212	3.481	0.178	2.762	0.14
W	74	0.403	727.0	19.30	80.32	0.217	3.496	0.155	2.845	0.14
Au	79	0.401	790.0	19.32	80.22	0.202	3.698	0.098	3.110	0.14
Pb	82	0.396	823.0	11.35	61.07	0.378	3.807	0.094	3.161	0.14
U	92	0.387	890.0	18.95	77.99	0.226	3.372	0.197	2.817	0.14

Data are from [Sternheimer, Berger and Seltzer (1984)]



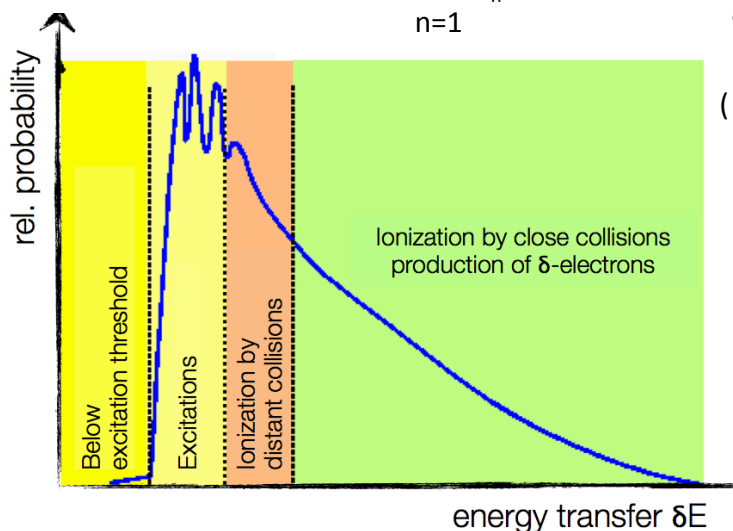
Δ_p = most probable energy loss (see later)
 x = mass thickness

dE/dx Fluctuations → Energy straggling

- **Bethe-Bloch** formula describes **mean energy loss**; but the measurements via energy loss ΔE in a material of thickness x is:

$$\Delta E = \sum_{n=1}^N \delta E_n(\beta)$$

- N number of collisions
- δE energy loss in a **single one collision** are distributed statistically → energy straggling



(besides it depends on β of the particle)

Complex subject first studied by L. **Landau** and then by P.V. **Vavilov**

No general exact solutions, few approximate formulas help to estimate it. Introduce :

Significance parameter : K

$$K = \epsilon / T_{\max}$$

$$\text{mean energy loss} = 153.4 \frac{z^2 Z}{\beta^2 A} \rho \delta x \text{ keV, in thickness } \rho dx$$

NB: ΔE depends on thickness x

dE/dx Fluctuations → Energy straggling

➤ Thin absorbers ($K \ll 1$):

- **Landau distribution**. Not analytic, useful approximation :

$$L(\lambda) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\lambda + e^{-\lambda})\right) \quad \lambda = \frac{\Delta E - \Delta E_{MP}}{\epsilon}$$

ΔE_{MP} = Most Probable value
 ϵ See previous slide

$$\Delta E_{MP} = \Delta E_{Bethe} + \epsilon \left(\beta^2 + \ln\left(\frac{\epsilon}{T_{max}}\right) + 0.194 \right) \text{ MeV}$$

- **Improved (I)** generalized energy loss distribution : convolution of a Landau with a Gaussian (takes better into account **distant collisions**)

$$f(\Delta E, x)_I = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_I^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} L(\Delta E - \Delta E', x) \exp\left(\frac{-\Delta E'}{2\sigma_I^2}\right) d(\Delta E')$$

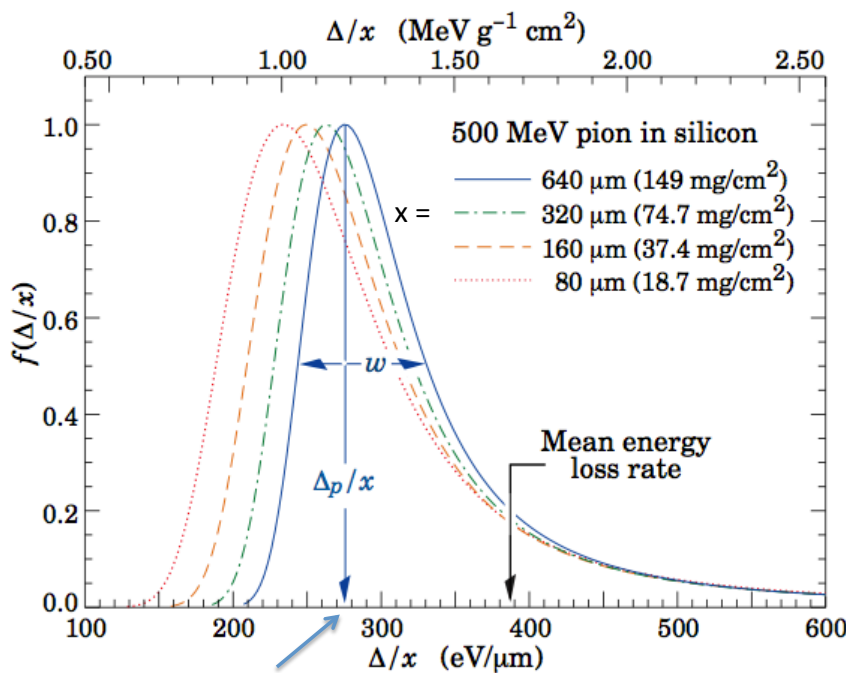
➤ Thick absorbers ($K \gg 1$):

The distribution tends to a

Gaussian

$$f(\Delta E, x) \simeq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi T_{max} \epsilon \left(1 - \frac{\beta^2}{2}\right)}} \exp\left(-\frac{(\Delta E - \Delta E_{Bethe})^2}{2 T_{max} \epsilon \left(1 - \frac{\beta^2}{2}\right)}\right)$$

Energy loss (Δ) distribution



Δ = energy loss
 x = thickness

Δ_p = most probable value

Stopping power of a compound medium

- For a compound of f elements:

$$-\frac{dE}{\rho dx} = \sum_1^f w_i \frac{dE}{\rho_i dx}$$

ρ_i = density of element i

$\frac{dE}{\rho_i dx}$ = stopping power of element i

w_i = mass fraction of element i

$$w_i = (N_i A_i) / A_m$$

N_i = number of atoms of element i

A_i = atomic weight of element i

A_m = molar mass of compound

$$A_m = \sum N_i A_i$$

- It is also possible to use effective quantities (empirical):

$$Z_{\text{eff}} = \sum N_i Z_i$$

$$A_{\text{eff}} = \sum N_i A_i$$

$$\ln I_{\text{eff}} = (\sum N_i Z_i \ln I_i) / Z_{\text{eff}}$$

$$\delta_{\text{eff}} = (\sum N_i Z_i \delta_i) / Z_{\text{eff}}$$

$$C_{\text{eff}} = \sum N_i C_i$$

Particle Range in matter : R

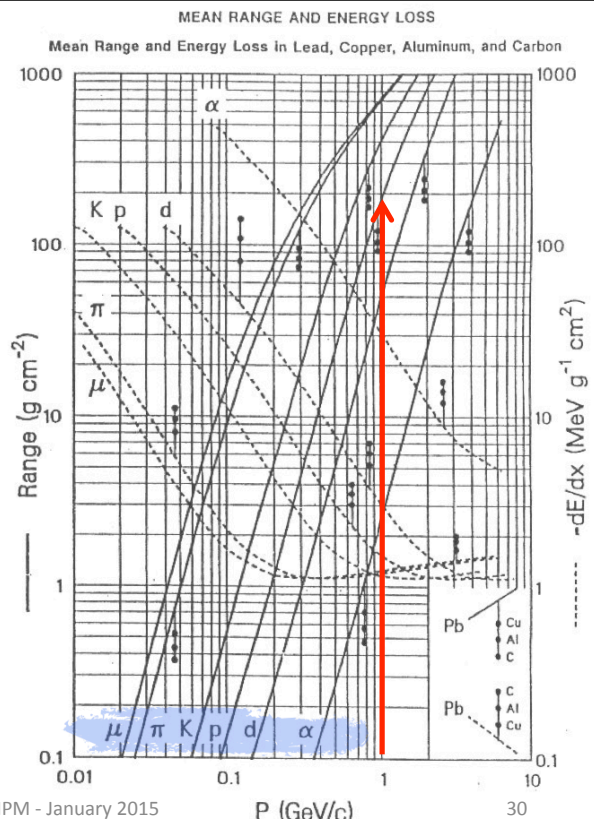
$$R(E_k) = \int_{E_k}^0 \left(\frac{dx}{dE} \right) dE = \int_{E_k}^0 \left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)^{-1} dE$$

- This expression ignores the Coulomb scattering (producing a zig-zag trajectory of P)
- The mean range $\langle R \rangle$ is also introduced. It corresponds to the distance at which half of the initial particles have been stopped. If $E_k > 1 \text{ MeV}$, $R \approx \langle R \rangle$.

Proton with $p = 1 \text{ GeV}$

Target: lead with $\rho = 11.34 \text{ g/cm}^3$

$$R = 200 / 11.34 / 1 \text{ cm} \sim 20 \text{ cm}$$



Particle Range in matter : R

- R may be used to evaluate the particle energy

$$R \propto E_k^b \quad b \sim 1.75 \text{ for } E_k < \text{minimum ionisation}$$

- Scaling laws

- Particle 1 and 2, in same material

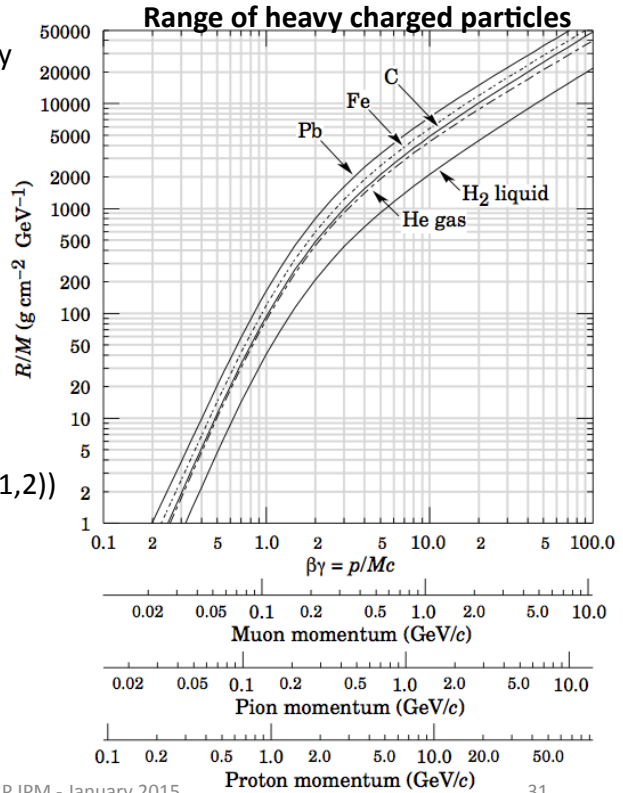
$$R_2(E_{k2}) \propto \frac{M_2 z_1^2}{M_1 z_2^2} R_1(E_{k1} * M_1/M_2)$$

- Same particle in two different materials(1,2))

$$\frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} \frac{\sqrt{A_1}}{\sqrt{A_2}}$$

- Compounds

$$R_{\text{composé}} = A_m / \sum (N_i A_i / R_i)$$

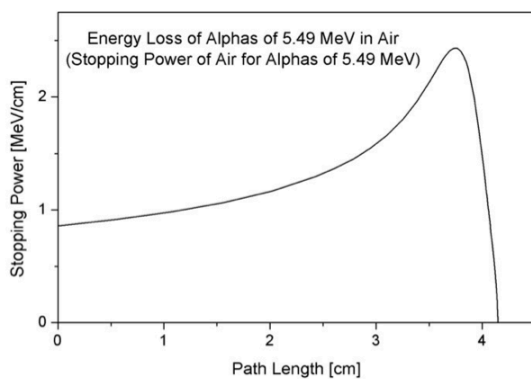


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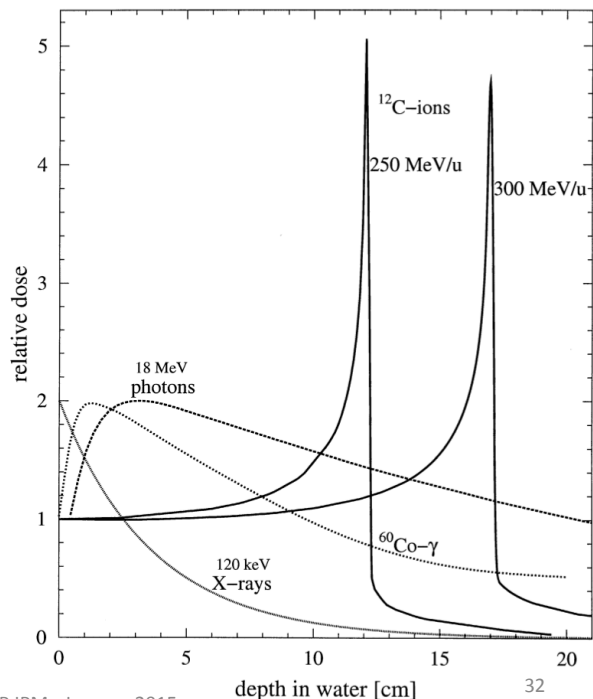
Mean Particle Range

- If the medium is thick enough, a particle will progressively decelerate while increasing its stopping power ($\beta^{-5/3}$) until it reaches a maximum (called the **Bragg peak**).



- Possibility to precisely deposit dose at well defined depth dependent on E_{beam} (Remember also dependence on z^2)

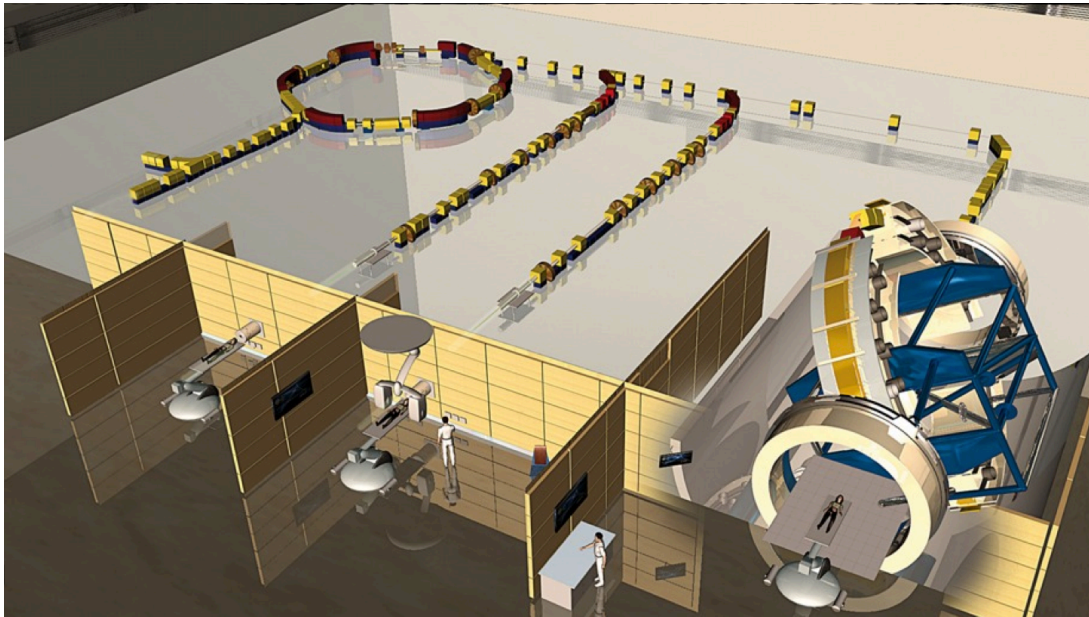
**Applications:
Tumor therapy**



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Heidelberg Ion-Beam Therapy Center (HIT)



~ 30 centers around the world

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Stopping power of e^\pm by ionization and excitation in matter

The **Bethe-Bloch formula** for e^\pm is **modified** since:

- 1) the change in direction of the particle was neglected; for e^\pm this approximation is not valid (scattering on particle with same mass)
- 2) Pauli Principle : the incoming and outgoing particles are the identical particles

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = 2 \pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 \rho \frac{Z}{A} \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \left[\ln \frac{\tau^2 (\tau+2)}{(\beta^2 / m_e c^2)^2} + F(\tau) - \delta - 2 \frac{C}{Z} \right]$$

For electrons: $F(\tau) = 1 - \beta^2 + \frac{(\tau^2/8) - (2\tau+1) \ln 2}{(\tau+1)^2}$ $\tau = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} - 1 = E_k/(mc^2)$

For positrons: $F(\tau) = 2 \ln 2 - \frac{\beta^2}{12} \left(23 + \frac{14}{\tau+2} + \frac{10}{(\tau+2)^2} + \frac{4}{(\tau+2)^3} \right)$

e^\pm lose more energy wrt heavier particles since they interact with particles of the same mass

▪ When a positron comes to a rest it annihilates : $e^+ + e^- \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$ of 511 keV each

▪ A positron may also undergo an annihilation in flight:
with a cross section :

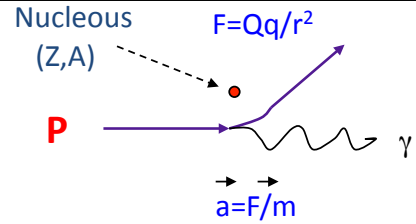
$$\sigma(Z, E) = \frac{Z \pi r_e^2}{\gamma+1} \left[\frac{\gamma^2+4\gamma+1}{\gamma^2-1} \ln(\gamma+\sqrt{\gamma^2-1}) - \frac{\gamma+3}{\sqrt{\gamma^2-1}} \right]$$

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2. Bremsstrahlung. Mean radiative energy loss.

- An accelerated (or decelerated) charged particle (**P**) emits electromagnetic radiation (γ)
- **Very fundamental process !**
- Here the process takes place in the **Coulomb field of the nucleus**. The amount of **screening** from the atomic electrons plays an important role
- Relevant in particular for **e^\pm** due to their small mass



$N = \text{atoms/cm}^3$ ($N = \rho N_A/A$)
 $Z = \text{atomic number}$

$E_0 = \text{Initial energy of particle P}$

$\nu_0 = E_0/h$

$h\nu = \text{energy of emitted } \gamma$

$\frac{d\sigma}{d\nu} = \text{Differential cross section of the bremsstrahlung process}$

$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{\text{brem}} = N \int_0^{\nu_0=E_0/h} h\nu \frac{d\sigma}{d\nu} d\nu = NE_0\phi(Z^2)$$

If P = electron:

If $E_0 \gg m_e c^2$ et $E_0 \ll 137 m_e c^2 / Z^{1/3}$ $\phi(Z^2) = 4\alpha Z^2 r_e^2 \ln(2E_0/m_e c^2 - 1/3 - f(Z))$ $\alpha = 1/137$

If $E_0 \gg 137 m_e c^2 / Z^{1/3}$ $\phi(Z^2) = 4\alpha Z^2 r_e^2 \ln(183 Z^{-1/3} - 1/18 - f(Z))$

$r_e = \alpha/(m_e c^2)$

See W.R. Leo

$f(Z) = \text{Coulomb correction}$

Bremsstrahlung – Energy Spectrum

Normalized bremsstrahlung cross section vs $y (= k/E_0)$ fraction of the electron energy transferred to the radiated γ

$$K = E_\gamma$$

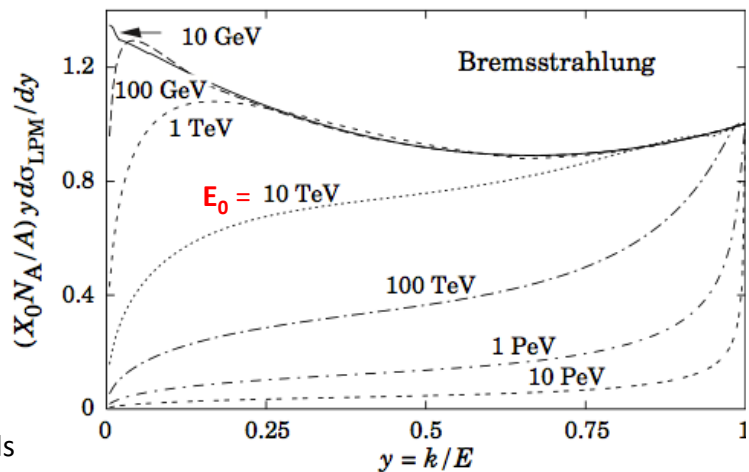
$$K \frac{d\sigma}{dk} = \nu \frac{d\sigma}{d\nu}$$

For high energy (small y):

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dk} = \frac{1}{k} \frac{A}{X_0 N_A} \left(\frac{4}{3} - \frac{4}{3}y + y^2 \right)$$

Formula accurate except for $y=1$ and $y=0$

see PDG for further details



LPM = Landau–Pomeranchuk–Migdal

Bremsstrahlung. Mean radiative energy loss

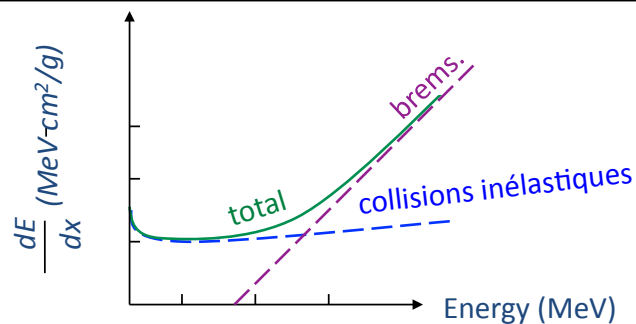
For a particle of charge z and mass m :

$$\frac{dE}{dx}_{\text{brem}}(z, m) = \left(\frac{m_e}{m}\right)^2 z^2 \frac{dE}{dx}_{\text{brem}}(e^-)$$

- Relevant in particular for e^\pm due to their small mass

- Shown so far is the mean energy loss due interaction **in the field of the nucleus**
- Contribution also from radiation which arises in the fields of the **atomic electrons**.
- Cross section are given by the above formula but replacing Z^2 with Z .
- The overall contribution can be approximated by replacing Z^2 by $Z(Z+1)$ in all the above formulas

Comparison dE/dx Bremsstrahlung vs ionisation/excitation



- The **average energy loss** due to **ionisation/excitation** increases with the **log of the energy** and linearly with Z :

- The **average energy loss** of due to **brem** increases **linearly** with **energy** and **linearly** with E and Z^2 :

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{\text{ion./excit.}} \propto Z/A, 1/\beta^2 \ln E$$

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{\text{brem}} \propto Z^2/A, E, 1/m^2$$

Energy loss due to **brem** is a discrete process: results from the emission of $\sim 1 \gamma$ ou 2γ
 --> fluctuations

Critical energy (E_c)

- The relevance of **bremsstrahlung** wrt **ionisation** depends on the **critical energy (E_c)** of the particle **P** in the material
- The **critical energy (E_c)** is the energy at which the **ionization stopping power** is **equal** to the mean **radiative energy loss**.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 @ E = E_c & @ E > E_c & @ E < E_c \\
 \left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{brem.}} = \left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{ion}} & \left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{brem.}} > \left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{ion}} & \left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{brem.}} < \left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{ion}}
 \end{array}$$

For e^\pm in :

Pb	$E_c = 9.5 \text{ MeV}$	For liquid and solids: $E_c \sim 610 \text{ MeV}/(Z+1.24)$
Cu	$E_c = 24.8 \text{ MeV}$	
Fe	$E_c = 27.4 \text{ MeV}$	For gas $E_c \sim 710 \text{ MeV}/(Z + 0.92)$
Al	$E_c = 51 \text{ MeV}$	

For other particles E_c would scale according to the square of their masses with respect to the electron mass.

Radiation length X_0

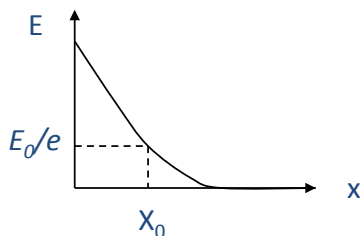
For $E \gg E_c$ $\left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{tot}} \approx \left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{brem.}}$ $N = \text{atoms/cm}^3$

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = N E_0 \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dE}{E} = N \phi dx$$

$$E = E_0 e^{-x/X_0}$$

$$X_0 \equiv 1/(N \phi)$$



$X_0 \equiv 1/(N \phi) \equiv$ radiation length \equiv distance after which an high energy electron has lost $1/e$ of his energy by radiation

Mean radiated energy of an electron over a path x in the medium

$$E_{\text{brem.}}(e^-) = E(1 - e^{-x/X_0})$$

Radiation length X_0

$$X_0 \begin{cases} \text{Pb} = 0.56 \text{ cm} \\ \text{Fe} = 1.76 \text{ cm} \\ \text{Air} = 30050 \text{ cm} \end{cases}$$

$$X'_0 \equiv X_0 \rho \qquad X'_0 = \frac{716.4 \text{ g cm}^{-2} A}{Z(Z+1) \ln(287/\sqrt{Z})}$$

Expressing the mean radiated energy in unit of X'_0

→ The probability of the process becomes less dependent on the material

Pour un composé de N éléments :

$$\frac{1}{X_0} = \sum_i w_i \frac{1}{X_{0i}}$$

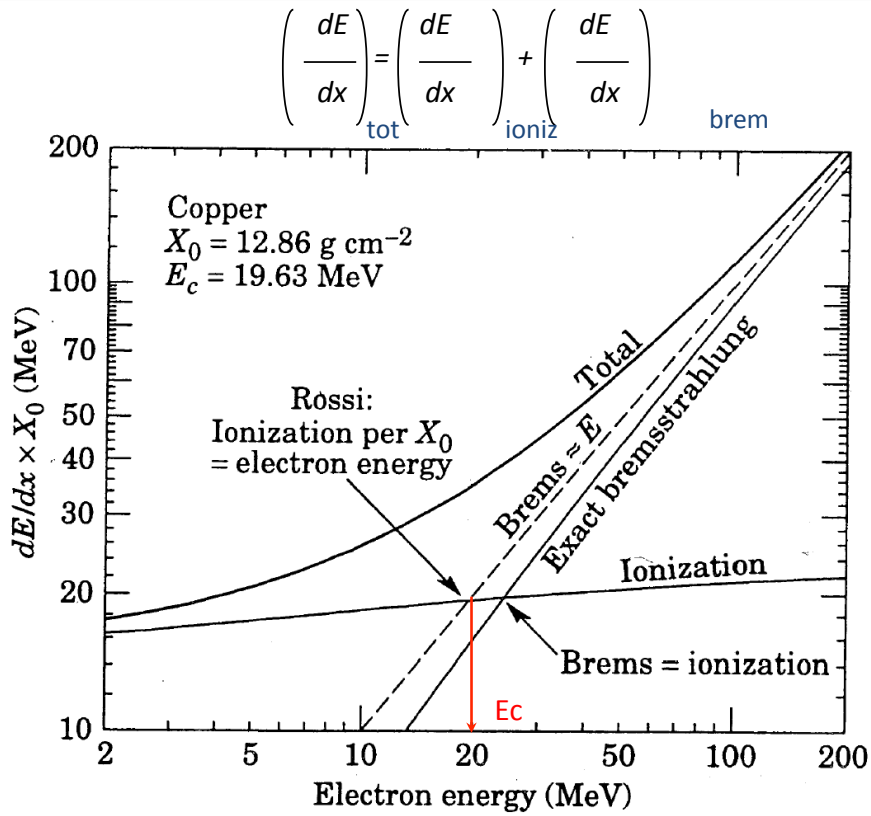
w_i = fraction in mass of element i

X_{0i} = radiation length of element i

For electrons

<i>medium</i>	<i>Z</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>X₀ (g/cm²)</i>	<i>X₀ (cm)</i>	<i>E_c (MeV)</i>
hydrogen	1	1.01	63	700000	350
helium	2	4	94	530000	250
lithium	3	6.94	83	156	180
carbon	6	12.01	43	18.8	90
nitrogen	7	14.01	38	30500	85
oxygen	8	16	34	24000	75
aluminium	13	26.98	24	8.9	40
silicon	14	28.09	22	9.4	39
iron	26	55.85	13.9	1.76	20.7
copper	29	63.55	12.9	1.43	18.8
silver	47	109.9	9.3	0.89	11.9
tungsten	74	183.9	6.8	0.35	8
lead	82	207.2	6.4	0.56	7.4
air	7.3	14.4	37	30000	84
silica (SiO ₂)	11.2	21.7	27	12	57
water	7.5	14.2	36	36	83

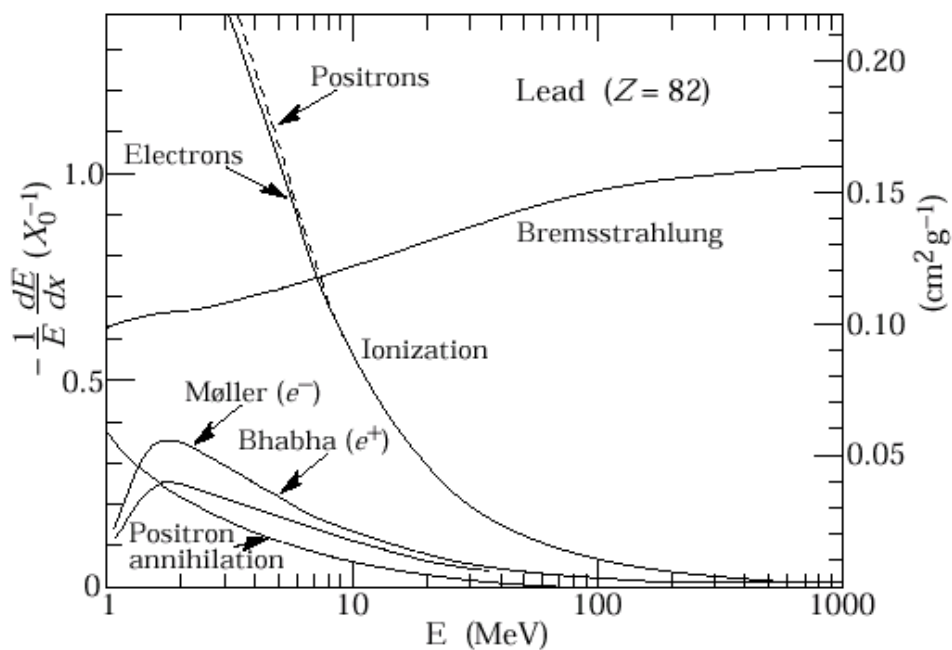
Electron interactions in copper



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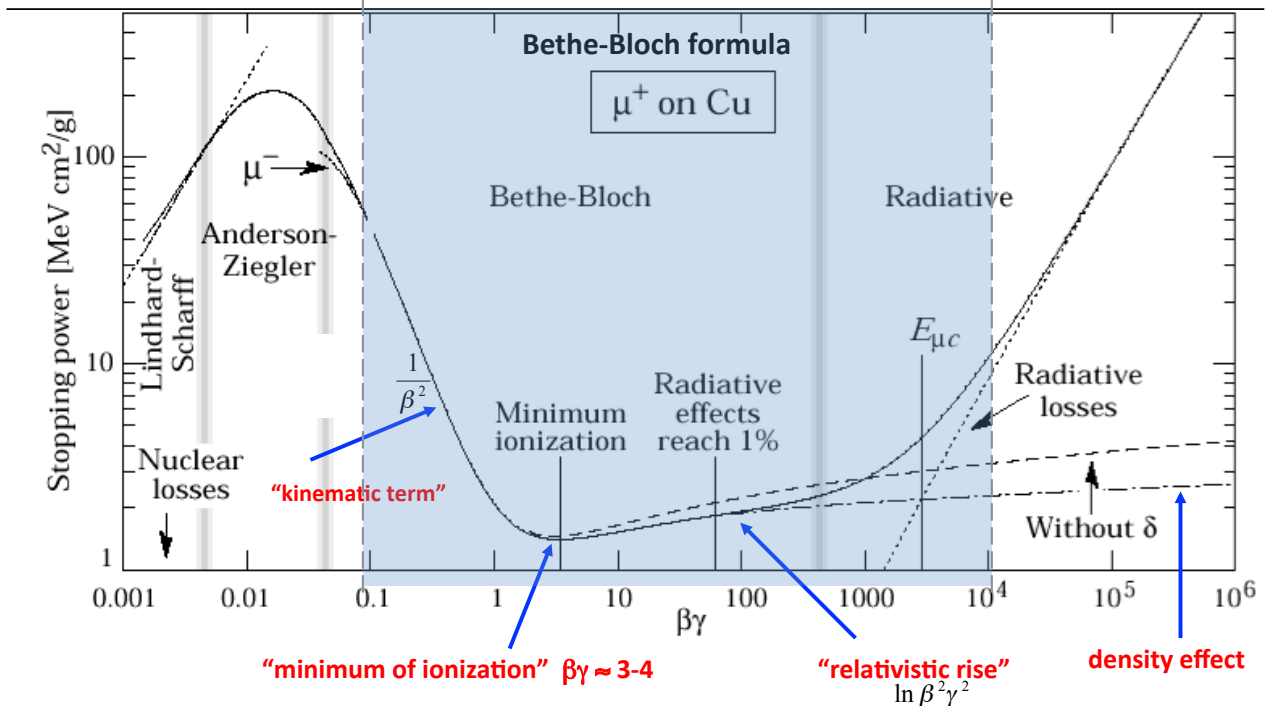
Interactions of electrons



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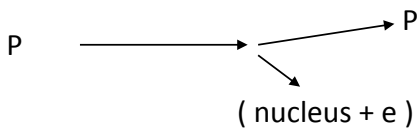
Total energy lost by a muon (μ) per unit length



At very low energy the **Bethe-Bloch** formula is not valid since the speed of the interacting particle is \sim speed of electrons in the atoms. For $\beta\gamma < 0.05$ there are only phenomenological fitting formulae

3. Elastic scattering with nuclei

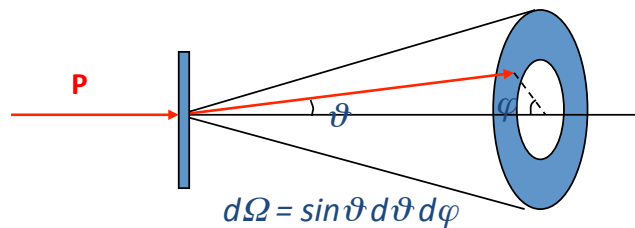
A **charged particle P** traversing a medium is deflected many times (mainly) by small-angles essentially due to **Coulomb scattering** in the electromagnetic field of **the nuclei**.



The **energy loss** (or transferred to the nuclei) is small ($m_{\text{nucleus}} \gg m_p$) therefore **neglected**, The change of direction is important.

- A **single collision** is described by the Rutherford formula (ignores spin and screening effects)

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = 4zZr_e^2 \left(\frac{m_e c}{\beta p} \right)^2 \frac{1}{\sin^4 \theta / 2}$$



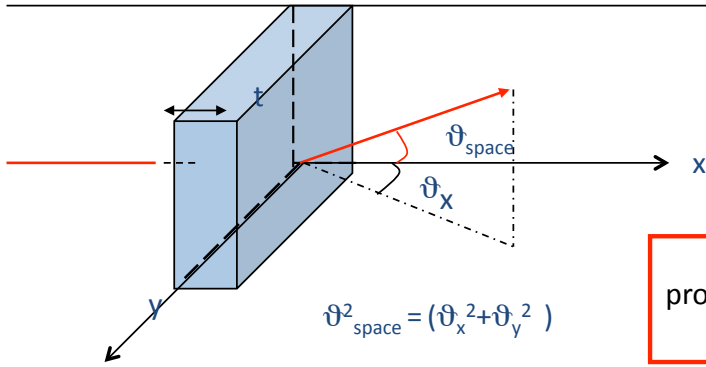
- **Multiple scattering:** $N_{\text{collisions}} > 20$

The particle follows a zig-zag trajectory

Deflection angles are described by the Molière theory



3. Multiple scattering through small angles ($< \sim 10^\circ$)

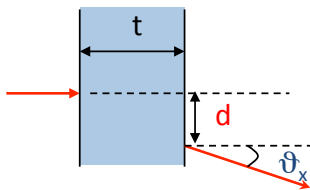


For small scattering angles the distribution of $\vartheta_x \approx$ Gaussian
 (Same for ϑ_y and $\vartheta_{space}^2 = \vartheta_x^2 + \vartheta_y^2$)

$$\text{prob}(\vartheta_x) d\vartheta_x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma_0} \exp(-\vartheta_x^2 / (2 \sigma_0^2)) d\vartheta_x$$

$$\sigma_0 = \frac{13.6 \text{ MeV}}{\beta p} |z| \sqrt{\frac{t}{X_0} \left(1 + 0.038 \ln \frac{t}{X_0} \right)}$$

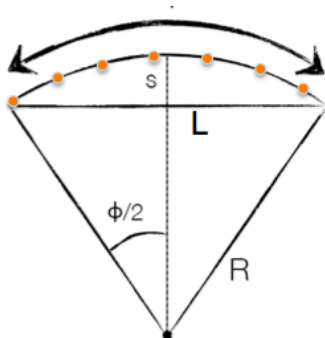
t = medium thickness
 rho = matter density
 X_0 = radiation length
 beta, p = speed/c and momentum of the incident particle



Particles emerging from the the medium are also laterally shifted :

$$\sigma_d^{rms} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} t \sigma_0$$

Momentum resolution



For momentum p: generally in experiment measure p_t

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_p}{p} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma_{p_t}}{p_t} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_\theta}{\sin \theta} \right)^2$$
multiple scattering term conts. in p_t
 using $p = \frac{p_t}{\tan \theta}$

Examples:
 Argus: $\sigma_{p_t}/p_t = 0.009^2 + (0.009 p_t)^2$ track uncertainty $\approx p_t$
 ATLAS: $\sigma_{p_t}/p_t = 0.001^2 + (0.0005 p_t)^2$
 [ATLAS nominal; TDR]

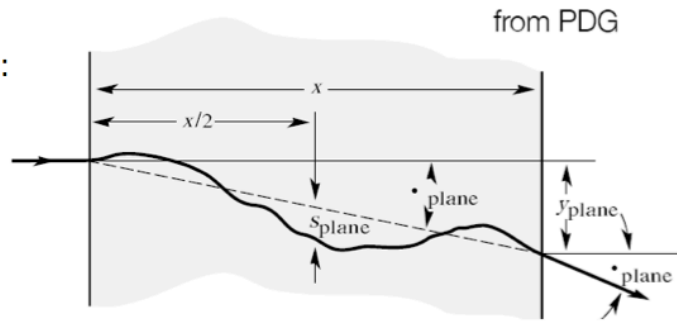
Momentum resolution

Multiple scattering contribution:

$$\sigma_\phi \approx \frac{14 \text{ MeV}/c}{p} \sqrt{\frac{L}{X_0}}$$

$$\frac{\sigma_p}{p} = \frac{\sigma_R}{R} = \frac{\sigma_\phi}{\phi}$$

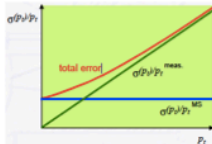
as $R = \frac{L}{\phi}$



At small momenta this limits resolution of momentum measurement ...

$$\frac{\sigma_p}{p} = \frac{\sigma_\phi}{\phi} = \frac{14 \text{ MeV}/c}{p} \sqrt{\frac{L}{X_0}} \cdot \frac{R}{L} = \frac{14 \text{ MeV}/c}{p} \sqrt{\frac{1}{LX_0}} \cdot \frac{p}{eB} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{LX_0}B}$$

momentum independent



$$\left(\frac{\sigma_{p_t}}{p_t}\right)^2 = \text{const} \cdot \left(\frac{p_t}{BL^2}\right)^2 + \text{const} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{B\sqrt{LX_0}}\right)^2$$

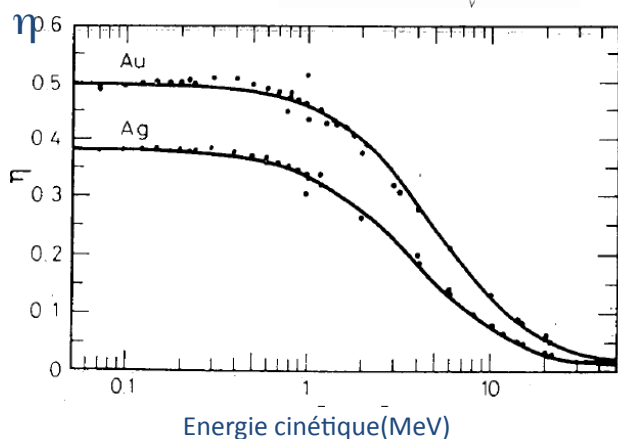
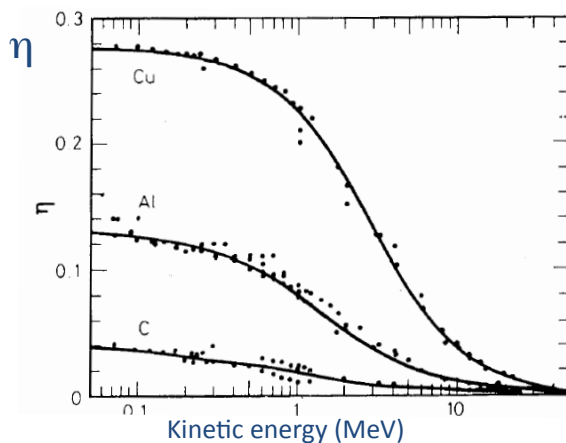
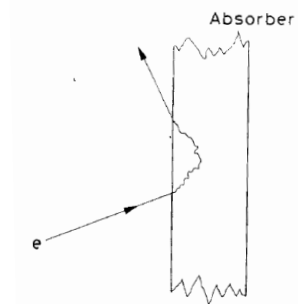
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3. Back-scattering of electrons

This effect

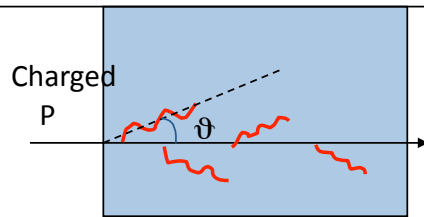
- * increases with Z of the material
- * is relevant for low energy electrons

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Number of backscattered electrons}}{\text{Number of incident electrons}}$$



Effect to take into account when building a detector for low energy electrons (< ~ 10 MeV)

Cherenkov light emission



Radiation emitted when a charged particle crosses a medium at a speed $>$ than the **phase velocity of light** in the medium

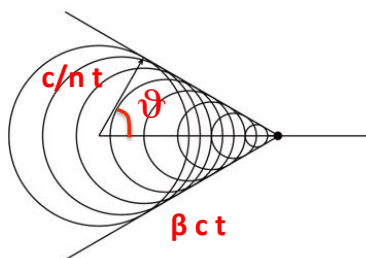
$$v_{\text{particle}} > c/n$$

n =refracting index

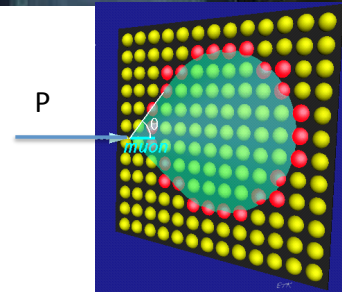
- The medium is **electrically polarized** by the particle's electric field (oscillating dipoles)
- When the particle travels fast this effect is left in the **wake** of the particle.
- The emitted energy radiates as a **coherent shockwave**



Cherenkov emission (e) TRIGA reactor



$$\cos \vartheta = \frac{1}{\beta n}$$



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Cherenkov light emission

- Number of photons emitted per unit path length and unit of wave length

$$\frac{dN}{dx d\lambda} = 2\pi\alpha \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 n^2(\lambda)}\right) z^2$$

- Number of photons per unit path length is:

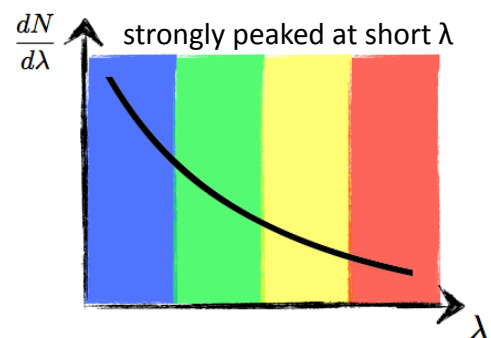
$$\frac{dN}{dx} = 2\pi\alpha z^2 \int_{\beta n > 1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 n^2}\right) \frac{d\lambda}{\lambda^2}$$

Assuming $n \sim \text{const}$ over the wavelength region detected

$$\frac{dN}{dx} = 2\pi\alpha \sin^2 \theta \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_1} - \frac{1}{\lambda_2}\right) z^2$$

in λ range 350-500 nm (photomultiplier sensitivity range),

$$\frac{dN}{dx} = 390 \sin^2 \theta \text{ photons/cm}$$



dE/dx due to Cherenkov radiation is small compared to ionization loss ($<$ 1%) and much weaker than scintillating output. It can be neglected in energy loss of a particle.

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Transition radiation

- This radiation is emitted mostly in the **X-ray domain** when a particle crosses a boundary between media of different dielectric properties
- The radiation is emitted in a cone at an angle $\cos \theta = 1/\gamma$
- The probability of radiation per transition surface is low $\sim 1/2 \alpha$ (fine structure constant)
- The energy of radiated photons increases as a function of γ

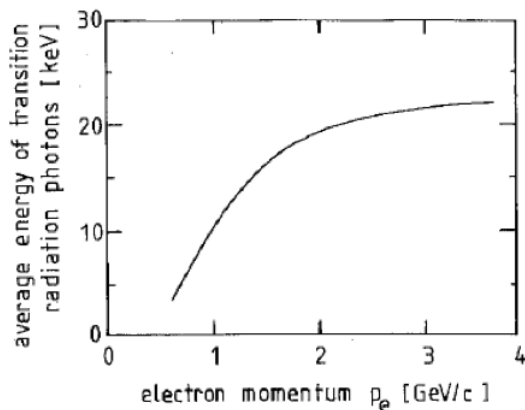


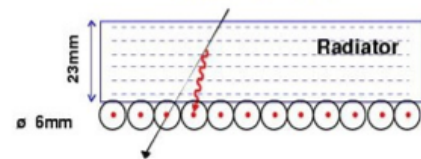
Fig. 6.21. Typical dependence of the average energy of transition radiation photons on the electron momentum for standard radiator arrangements [450].

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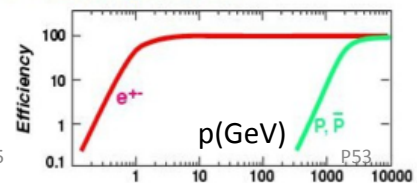
The Transition Radiation Detector (TRD)

Aachen I (K. Luebelsmeyer, S. Schael), MIT (U. Becker)

AMS detector TRD Module



: e^\pm / hadron rejection $> 10^3$



Interactions of photons (γ)

γ : particles with $m_\gamma = 0$, $q_\gamma = 0$, $J^{PC}(\gamma) = 1^{-}$

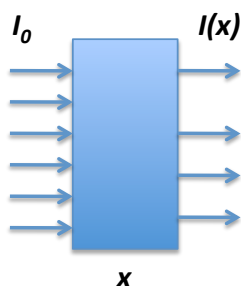
Since $q_\gamma = 0$, the photons are **indirectly** detected: in their interactions they produce **electrons** and/or **positrons** which subsequently interact (**e.m.**) with matter.

Main processes:

1. Photoelectric effect
 2. Compton scattering
 3. $e^+ e^-$ pairs production
- ↓ E_γ

Photons may be **absorbed** (photoelectric effect or e^+e^- pair creation) or **scattered** (Compton scattering) through large deflection angles.

→ difficult to define a mean range → an attenuation law is introduced:



$$I(x) = I_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

$$\mu = N \sigma = \frac{N_A}{A} \rho \sigma \equiv \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

See also slide 8

- μ absorption coefficient
- N atoms/ m^3
- A masse molaire
- N_A nombre Avogadro
- ρ density
- σ **Photon cross section**
- λ Mean free path or absorption length

γ Absorption length ($\lambda \equiv 1/\mu'$)

$$I(x) = I_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

$$I(x) = I_0 e^{-\mu' x'}$$

$$x' \equiv x \rho$$

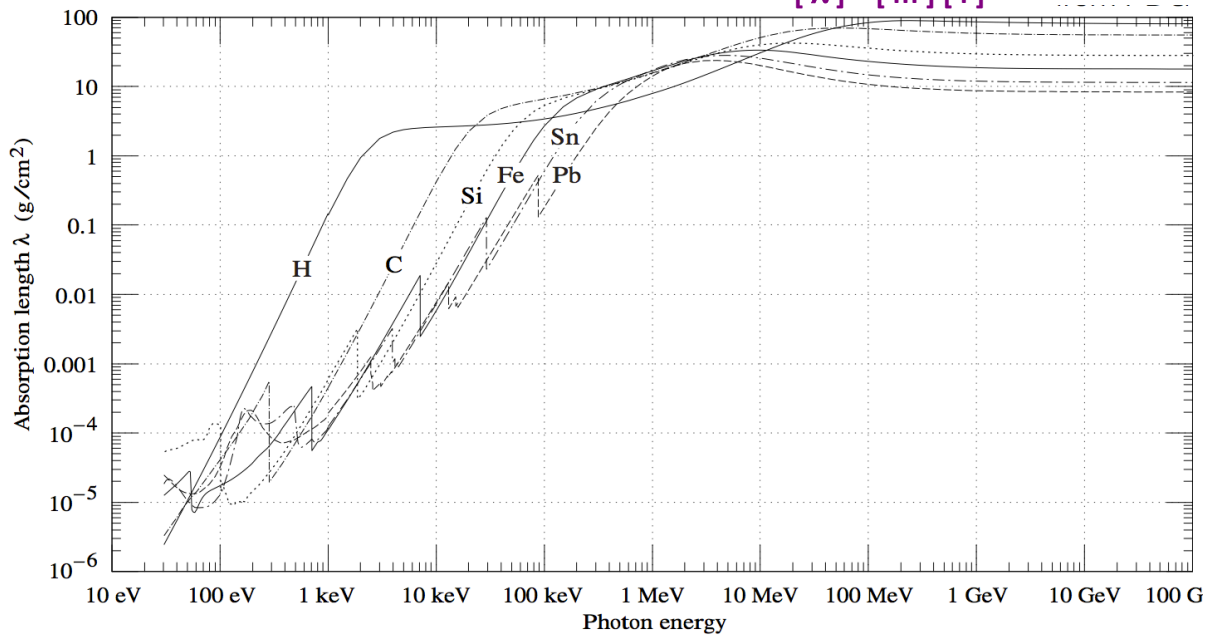
$$[x'] = [m] [l]^{-2}$$

$$\mu' \equiv \mu/\rho$$

$$[\mu'] = [m]^{-1} [l]^2$$

$$\lambda \equiv 1/\mu'$$

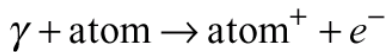
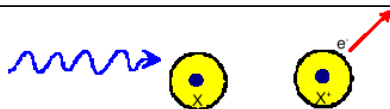
$$[\lambda] = [m] [l]^{-2}$$



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1. Photoelectric effect



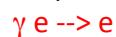
- The energy of the γ est is transferred to the electron and the γ disappears

- Energy of the final electron:

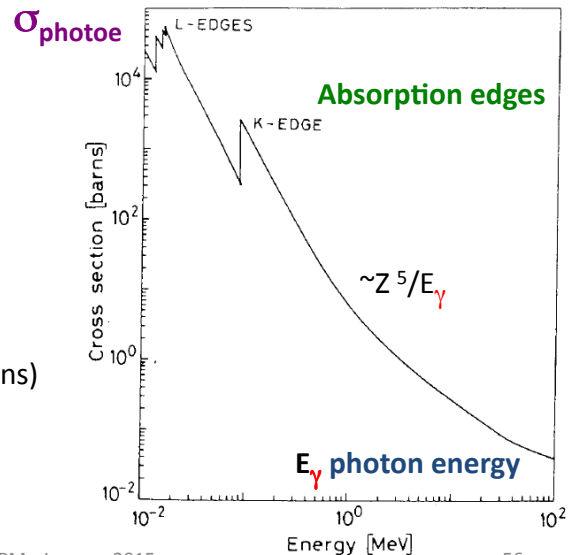
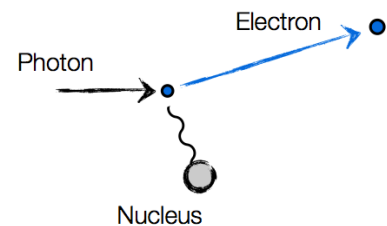
$$E_e = E_\gamma - E_{\text{electron binding energy}} = h\nu - E_b$$

$$E_b = E_K \text{ or } E_L \text{ or } E_M \text{ etc...}$$

This effect can take place only on bounded electrons since the process (on 'free' electrons)



cannot conserve the momentum and energy



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1. Photoelectric effect

- At « low » energy ($I_0 \ll E_\gamma \ll m_e c^2$):

$$\sigma_{ph} = \alpha \pi a_B Z^5 (I_0/E_\gamma)^{7/2}$$

- At « high » energy ($E_\gamma \gg m_e c^2$):

$$\sigma_{ph} = 2\pi r_e^2 \alpha^4 Z^5 (m_e c^2)/E_\gamma$$

Example:

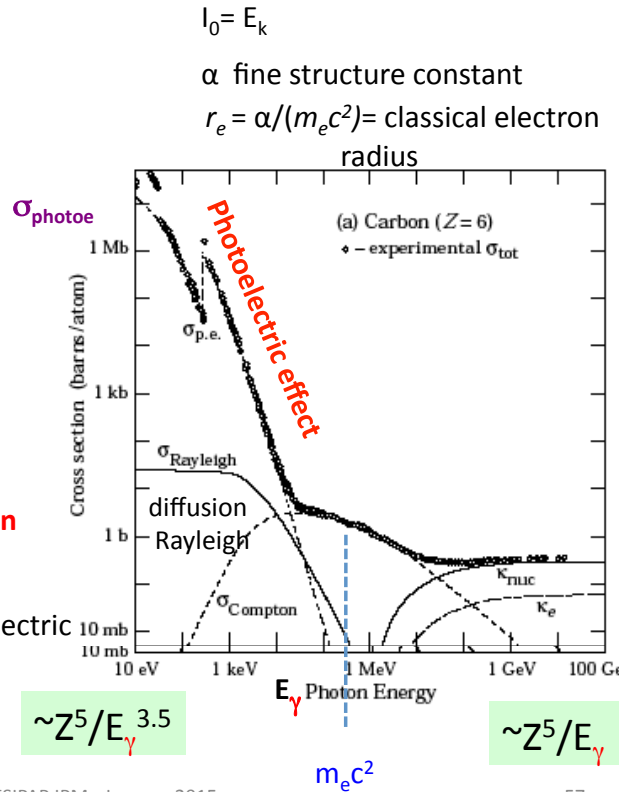
$$a_B = 0.53 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

$$I_0 = 13.6 \text{ eV}$$

For $E_\gamma = 100 \text{ KeV}$

$\sigma(\text{Fe}) = 29 \text{ barn}$
 $\sigma(\text{Pb}) = 100 \text{ barn}$

- At low energy ($E_\gamma < 100 \text{ keV}$), the photoelectric effect dominates the total photon cross section



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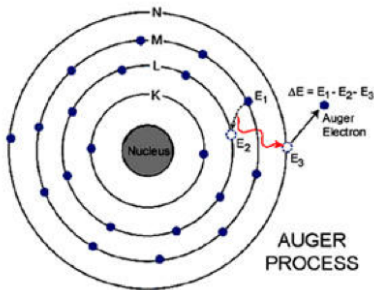
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Atom de-excitation (after photoelectric effect)

Following the emission of a photoelectron, the atom is in an excited state

De-excitation occurs via two effects (time scale: $\sim 10^{-16} \text{ s}$)

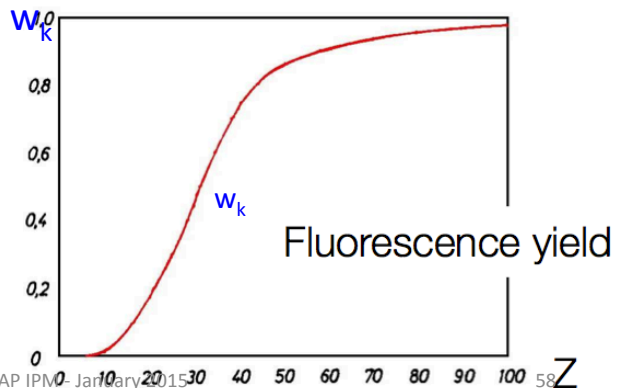
- Auger effect: $\text{Atom}^{**+} \rightarrow \text{atom}^{*++} + e^- \rightarrow \text{Auger electron}$
- Fluorescence: $\text{Atom}^{**+} \rightarrow \text{atom}^{*+} + \gamma \rightarrow \text{X rays}$



Auger electrons deposit energy locally (small energy $< \sim 10 \text{ KeV}$)

X rays must interact via photoelectric effect (significantly longer range)

$$W_K = \frac{\text{Prob (fluorescence)}}{\text{Prob (fluorescence) + Prob (Auger)}}$$



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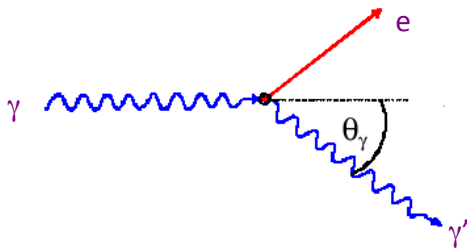
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2. Compton scattering

Elastic scattering of γ on « free » electrons



In the matter electrons are bounded. When the γ energy, $E_\gamma \gg$ binding electron energy the electron can be considered as free.



$$E_{\gamma'} = \frac{E_\gamma}{1 + (E_\gamma/m_e c^2) (1 - \cos \theta_\gamma)}$$

Kinetic energy of the outgoing electron E_k^e :

$$E_k^e = E_\gamma - E_{\gamma'} = E_\gamma \frac{(1 - \cos \theta) (E_\gamma/m_e c^2)}{1 + (E_\gamma/m_e c^2) (1 - \cos \theta)}$$

γ Forward scattering $\theta_\gamma = 0 \rightarrow E_{\gamma'} = E_{\gamma' \max} = E_\gamma \quad E_e = 0$

Initial photon can give all its energy to final photon

γ Backward scattering $\theta_\gamma = \pi \rightarrow E_{\gamma'} = E_{\gamma' \min} \rightarrow E_k^e$ is max but not to the electron !

Compton Edges

• γ Backward scattering $\theta_\gamma = \pi$

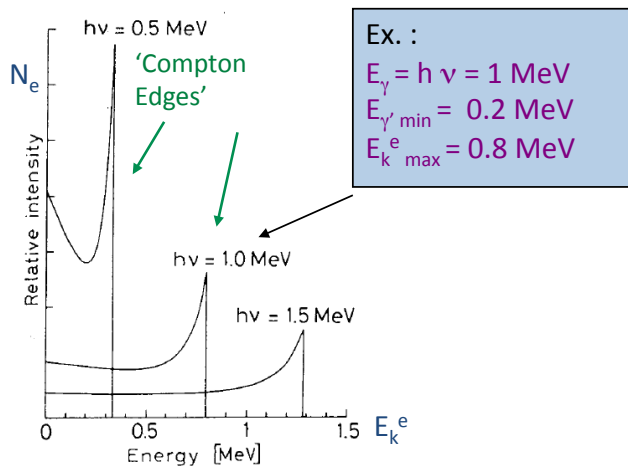


$$E_{\gamma' \min} \rightarrow E_k^e \max$$

$$E_\gamma = E_{\gamma'} + E_k^e$$

$$E_{\gamma' \min} = \frac{E_\gamma}{1 + 2 E_\gamma/m_e c^2} \rightarrow E_k^e \max = E_\gamma \frac{2 E_\gamma/m_e c^2}{1 + 2 E_\gamma/m_e c^2}$$

Transfer of complete γ energy to e via Compton scattering is not possible



Important for single photon detection: if photons is not completely absorbed a minimal amount of energy is missing

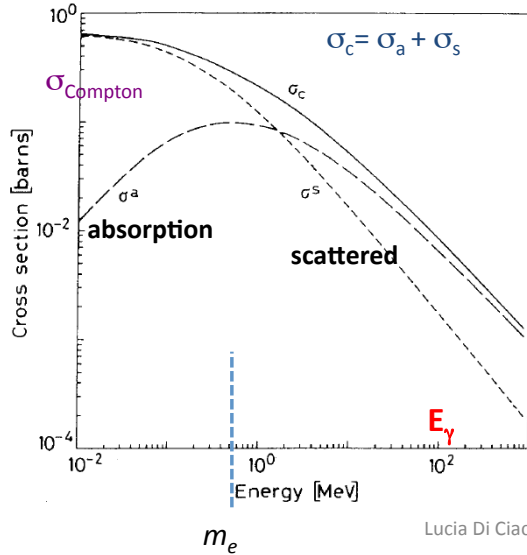
Compton Cross Section

Klein-Nishina Formula:

$$\frac{d\sigma_c^e}{d\Omega} = \frac{r_e^2}{2} \frac{1 + \cos^2\theta_\gamma}{(1 + \epsilon(1 - \cos\theta_\gamma))^2} \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon^2(1 - \cos\theta_\gamma)^2}{(1 + \cos^2\theta_\gamma)(1 + \epsilon(1 - \cos\theta_\gamma))} \right) \quad (\text{per electron})$$

$$\sigma_c^e = 2\pi r_e^2 \left(\left(\frac{1 + \epsilon}{\epsilon^2} \right) \left\{ \frac{2(1 + \epsilon)}{1 + 2\epsilon} - \frac{1}{\epsilon} \ln(1 + 2\epsilon) \right\} + \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \ln(1 + 2\epsilon) - \frac{1 + 3\epsilon}{(1 + 2\epsilon)^2} \right) \quad (\text{per electron})$$

$$\epsilon = \frac{E_\gamma}{m_e c^2}$$



@ Small photon energy ($E_\gamma \ll m_e c^2$)

$$\sigma_c = \sigma_{th} (1 - E_\gamma / (m_e c^2)) \quad \sigma_{th} = 8\pi/3 r_e^2 = 0.66 \text{ barn}$$

@ Large photon energy ($E_\gamma \gg m_e c^2$)

$$\sigma_c \sim (\ln E_\gamma) / E_\gamma$$

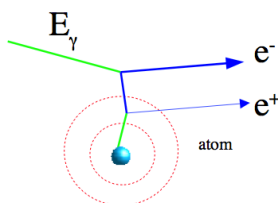
Cross section per atom:

$$\sigma_c^{atom.} = Z \sigma_c^e$$

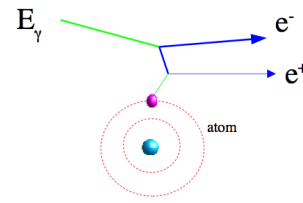
$$d\sigma^s/d\Omega = (E_\gamma / E_\gamma) d\sigma/d\Omega$$

3. Pair production $\gamma \rightarrow e^+ e^-$

For energy-momentum conservation the process cannot take place in 'vacuum', an interaction with an electromagnetic field is necessary



Pair production in the field of the nucleus



Pair production in the field of an electron
(smaller probability $\sim 1/Z$)

Threshold process : $E_\gamma > 2 m_e c^2 (1 + m_e/m_x)$

$$m_x = m_N$$

$$m_x = m_e$$

Kinetic energy transferred to nucleus

First experimental observation of a positron

direction of the
high-energy photon



Production of an
electron-positron pair
by a high-energy photon
in a Pb plate

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e⁺ e⁻ pair production cross-section

$$\epsilon = \frac{E_\gamma}{m_e}$$

$$1 \ll \epsilon < \frac{1}{\alpha Z^{1/3}}$$

$$\sigma_{pair}^{atom.} = 4\alpha r_e^2 Z^2 \left(\frac{7}{9} \ln(2\epsilon) - \frac{109}{54} \right)$$

$$\epsilon \gg \frac{1}{\alpha Z^{1/3}}$$

$$\sigma_{pair}^{atom.} = 4\alpha r_e^2 Z^2 \left(\frac{7}{9} \ln\left(\frac{183}{Z^{1/3}}\right) - \frac{1}{54} \right)$$

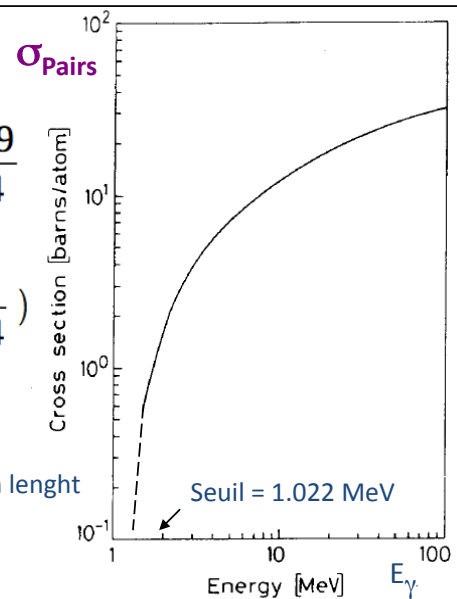
In this high energy regime
($E_\gamma \rightarrow \infty$)

$$\sigma_{pair}^{atom.} \simeq \frac{7}{9} \frac{A}{N_A} \frac{1}{X_0}$$

X_0 = radiation length

accurate to within a few percent down to energies as low as 1 GeV, particularly for high-Z materials.

Pair production is the leading effect at high energy



Rises above threshold

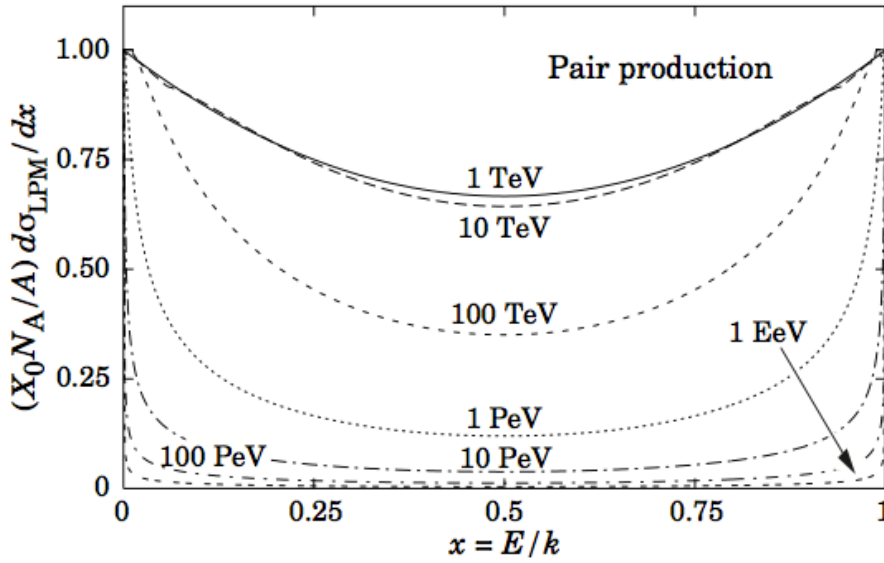
reaches saturation for
large E_γ [screening effect]

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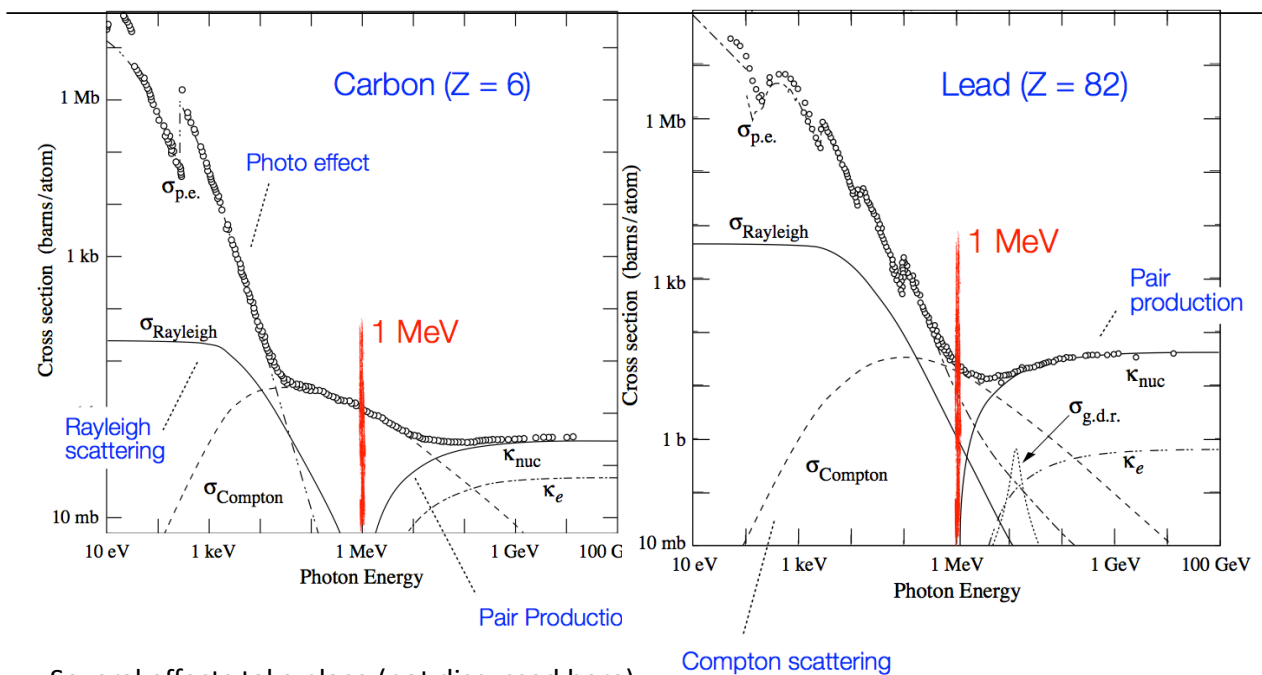
Normalized $e^+ e^-$ pair production cross section

$k = E_\gamma$ $E = E_e$



fractional electron energy $x = E/k = E_e/E_\gamma$

γ total cross section

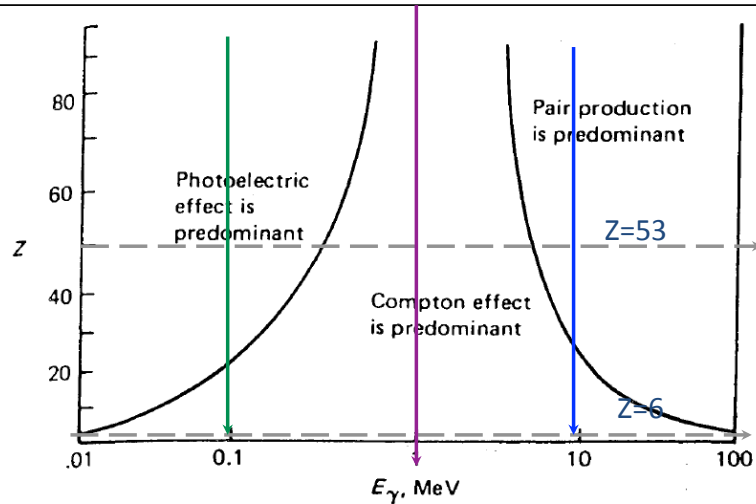


Several effects take place (not discussed here):

Rayleigh Scattering

Photo Nuclear Interactions (giant dipole resonance).

Dependence on Z et on E



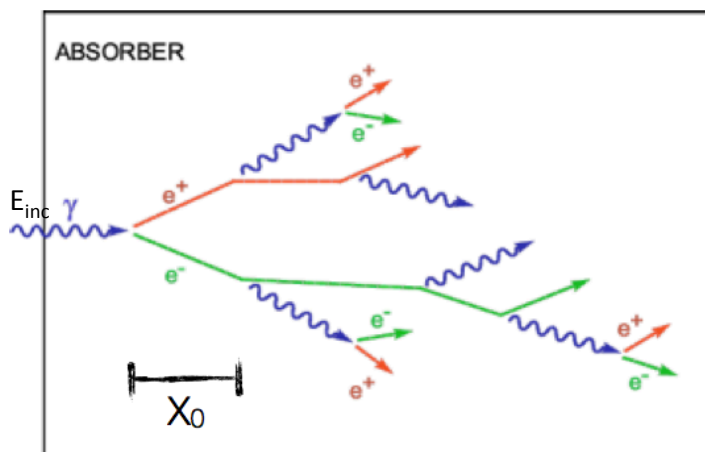
$E_\gamma = 0.1$ MeV in C ($Z=6$) Compton effect is dominant
 in I ($Z=53$) Photoelectric effect is dominant

$E_\gamma = 1$ MeV Compton effect is dominant

$E_\gamma = 10$ MeV in C ($Z=6$) Compton effect is dominant
 in I ($Z=53$) pair production is dominant

Electromagnetic showers

Dominant processes at high energies



$$t_{\max} = \ln \frac{E_{\text{inc}}}{E_c} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 0.5 \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} e^- \\ \text{gamma} \end{matrix}$$

$$L_{95\%} \approx t_{\max} + 0.08 Z + 9.6 [X_0]$$

Also electrons can start e.m. showers

See M. Delmastro, I. Wingerter lectures

E_c = critical energy

Hadron collisions and interaction lengths

The total cross section for **very high energy hadrons** is expressed as:

$$\sigma_T = \sigma_{\text{elastic}} + \sigma_{\text{inelastic}}$$

The inelastic part of the total cross-section is susceptible to induce a **hadron shower** (increase of particles multiplicity)

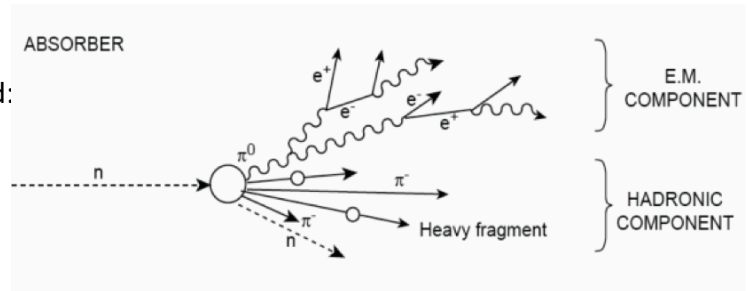
Two mean lengths are introduced:

- “nuclear collision length”

$$\lambda_T = \frac{A}{N_A \sigma_T} \text{ g cm}^{-2}$$

- interaction length

$$\lambda_I = \frac{A}{N_A \sigma_{\text{inelastic}}} \text{ g cm}^{-2}$$



See M. Delmastro, I. Wingerter lectures

95% containment of a hadronic shower is for a thickness of :

$$L_{95\%} (\text{in units of } \lambda_I) \approx 1 + 1.35 \ln(E(\text{GeV}))$$

→ ~ 10 **interaction lengths** are needed to contain a 1 TeV hadronic shower

In high A materials $\lambda_I > X_0$ This explains why hadron calorimeters are deeper than electromagnetic

6. ATOMIC AND NUCLEAR PROPERTIES OF MATERIALS

Table 6.1. Abridged from pdg.lbl.gov/AtomicNuclearProperties by D. E. Groom (2007). Quantities in parentheses are for NTP (20° C and 1 atm), and square brackets indicate quantities evaluated at STP. Boiling points are at 1 atm. Refractive indices n are evaluated at the sodium D line blend (589.2 nm); values $\gg 1$ in brackets are for $(n - 1) \times 10^6$ (gases).

Material	Z	A	(Z/A)	Nucl.coll. length λ_T {g cm ⁻² }	Nucl.inter. length λ_I {g cm ⁻² }	Rad.len. X_0 {g cm ⁻² }	$dE/dx _{\text{min}}$ {MeV g ⁻¹ cm ² }	Density {g cm ⁻³ }	Melting point (K)	Boiling point (K)	Refract. index (@ Na D)
H ₂	1	1.00794(7)	0.99212	42.8	52.0	63.04	(4.103)	0.071(0.084)	13.81	20.28	1.11[132.]
D ₂	1	2.01410177803(8)	0.49650	51.3	71.8	125.97	(2.053)	0.169(0.168)	18.7	23.65	1.11[138.]
He	2	4.002602(2)	0.49967	51.8	71.0	94.32	(1.937)	0.125(0.166)		4.220	1.02[35.0]
Li	3	6.941(2)	0.43221	52.2	71.3	82.78	1.639	0.534	453.6	1615.	
Be	4	9.012182(3)	0.44384	55.3	77.8	65.19	1.595	1.848	1560.	2744.	
C diamond	6	12.0107(8)	0.49955	59.2	85.8	42.70	1.725	3.520			2.42
C graphite	6	12.0107(8)	0.49955	59.2	85.8	42.70	1.742	2.210			
N ₂	7	14.0067(2)	0.49976	61.1	89.7	37.99	(1.825)	0.807(1.165)	63.15	77.29	1.20[298.]
O ₂	8	15.9994(3)	0.50002	61.3	90.2	34.24	(1.801)	1.141(1.332)	54.36	90.20	1.22[271.]
F ₂	9	18.9984032(5)	0.47372	65.0	97.4	32.93	(1.676)	1.507(1.580)	53.53	85.03	[195.]
Ne	10	20.1797(6)	0.49555	65.7	99.0	28.93	(1.724)	1.204(0.839)	24.56	27.07	1.09[67.1]
Al	13	26.9815386(8)	0.48181	69.7	107.2	24.01	1.615	2.699	933.5	2792.	
Si	14	28.0855(3)	0.49848	70.2	108.4	21.82	1.664	2.329	1687.	3538.	3.95
Cl ₂	17	35.453(2)	0.47951	73.8	115.7	19.28	(1.630)	1.574(2.980)	171.6	239.1	[773.]
Ar	18	39.948(1)	0.45059	75.7	119.7	19.55	(1.519)	1.396(1.662)	83.81	87.26	1.23[281.]
Ti	22	47.867(1)	0.45961	78.8	126.2	16.16	1.477	4.540	1941.	3560.	
Fe	26	55.845(2)	0.46557	81.7	132.1	13.84	1.451	7.874	1811.	3134.	
Cu	29	63.546(3)	0.45636	84.2	137.3	12.86	1.403	8.960	1358.	2835.	
Ge	32	72.64(1)	0.44053	86.9	143.0	12.25	1.370	5.323	1211.	3106.	
Sn	50	118.710(7)	0.42119	98.2	166.7	8.82	1.263	7.310	505.1	2875.	
Xe	54	131.293(6)	0.41129	100.8	172.1	8.48	(1.255)	2.953(5.483)	161.4	165.1	1.39[701.]
W	74	183.84(1)	0.40252	110.4	191.9	6.76	1.145	19.300	3695.	5828.	
Pt	78	195.084(9)	0.39983	112.2	195.7	6.54	1.128	21.450	2042.	4098.	
Au	79	196.966569(4)	0.40108	112.5	196.3	6.46	1.134	19.320	1337.	3129.	
Pb	82	207.2(1)	0.39575	114.1	199.6	6.37	1.122	11.350	600.6	2022.	
U	92	[238.02891(3)]	0.38651	118.6	209.0	6.00	1.081	18.950	1408.	4404.	

Material	Z	A	(Z/A)	Nucl.coll. length λ_T {g cm ⁻² }	Nucl.inter. length λ_I {g cm ⁻² }	Rad.len. X_0 {g cm ⁻² }	$dE/dx _{min}$ { MeV g ⁻¹ cm ² }	Density {g cm ⁻³ } {(gℓ ⁻¹)}	Melting point (K)	Boiling point (K)	Refract. index (@ Na D)
Air (dry, 1 atm)			0.49919	61.3	90.1	36.62	(1.815)	(1.205)		78.80	
Shielding concrete			0.50274	65.1	97.5	26.57	1.711	2.300			
Borosilicate glass (Pyrex)			0.49707	64.6	96.5	28.17	1.696	2.230			
Lead glass			0.42101	95.9	158.0	7.87	1.255	6.220			
Standard rock			0.50000	66.8	101.3	26.54	1.688	2.650			
Methane (CH ₄)			0.62334	54.0	73.8	46.47	(2.417)	(0.667)	90.68	111.7	[444.]
Ethane (C ₂ H ₆)			0.59861	55.0	75.9	45.66	(2.304)	(1.263)	90.36	184.5	
Butane (C ₄ H ₁₀)			0.59497	55.5	77.1	45.23	(2.278)	(2.489)	134.9	272.6	
Octane (C ₈ H ₁₈)			0.57778	55.8	77.8	45.00	2.123	0.703	214.4	398.8	
Paraffin (CH ₃ (CH ₂) _n ≈23CH ₃)			0.57275	56.0	78.3	44.85	2.088	0.930			
Nylon (type 6, 6/6)			0.54790	57.5	81.6	41.92	1.973	1.18			
Polycarbonate (Lexan)			0.52697	58.3	83.6	41.50	1.886	1.20			
Polyethylene ([CH ₂ CH ₂] _n)			0.57034	56.1	78.5	44.77	2.079	0.89			
Polyethylene terephthalate (Mylar)			0.52037	58.9	84.9	39.95	1.848	1.40			
Polymethylmethacrylate (acrylic)			0.53937	58.1	82.8	40.55	1.929	1.19			1.49
Polypropylene			0.55998	56.1	78.5	44.77	2.041	0.90			
Polystyrene ([C ₆ H ₅ CHCH ₂] _n)			0.53768	57.5	81.7	43.79	1.936	1.06			1.59
Polytetrafluoroethylene (Teflon)			0.47992	63.5	94.4	34.84	1.671	2.20			
Polyvinyltoluene			0.54141	57.3	81.3	43.90	1.956	1.03			1.58
Aluminum oxide (sapphire)			0.49038	65.5	98.4	27.94	1.647	3.970	2327.	3273.	1.77
Barium fluoride (BaF ₂)			0.42207	90.8	149.0	9.91	1.303	4.893	1641.	2533.	1.47
Carbon dioxide gas (CO ₂)			0.49989	60.7	88.9	36.20	1.819	(1.842)			[449.]
Solid carbon dioxide (dry ice)			0.49989	60.7	88.9	36.20	1.787	1.563	Sublimes at 194.7 K		
Cesium iodide (CsI)			0.41569	100.6	171.5	8.39	1.243	4.510	894.2	1553.	1.79
Lithium fluoride (LiF)			0.46262	61.0	88.7	39.26	1.614	2.635	1121.	1946.	1.39
Lithium hydride (LiH)			0.50321	50.8	68.1	79.62	1.897	0.820	965.		
Lead tungstate (PbWO ₄)			0.41315	100.6	168.3	7.39	1.229	8.300	1403.		2.20
Silicon dioxide (SiO ₂ , fused quartz)			0.49930	65.2	97.8	27.05	1.699	2.200	1986.	3223.	1.46
Sodium chloride (NaCl)			0.55509	71.2	110.1	21.91	1.847	2.170	1075.	1738.	1.54
Sodium iodide (NaI)			0.42697	93.1	154.6	9.49	1.305	3.667	933.2	1577.	1.77
Water (H ₂ O)			0.55509	58.5	83.3	36.08	1.992	1.000(0.756)	273.1	373.1	1.33
Silica aerogel			0.50093	65.0	97.3	27.25	1.740	0.200	(0.03 H ₂ O, 0.97 SiO ₂)		

Neutron interactions

Electric charge of the neutron n : $q_n = 0$

➡ The n interacts via « **strong interaction** » with nuclei (short range force $\sim 10^{-13}$ cm)

Classification of neutrons:

Cold or ultracold neutrons	$E_n < 0.025$ eV
Thermal or slow neutrons	$E_n \sim 0.025$ eV
Intermediate neutrons	$E_n \sim 0.025$ eV ÷ 0.1 MeV
Fast neutrons	$E_n \sim 0.1$ ÷ 10-20 MeV
High energy neutrons	$E_n > 20$ MeV

Main interaction processes of n : **scattering (elastic and inelastic), absorption, fission hadron shower production** depending on the neutron energy

Sometimes:

Slow neutrons (slow neutrons) $E_n < \sim 0.5$ MeV

Fast neutrons (fast neutrons) $E_n > \sim 0.5$ MeV $E = 0.5$ MeV = 'cadmium cutoff'

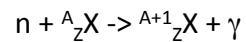
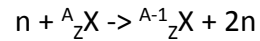
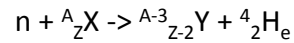
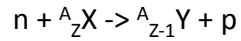
Neutron interactions

Scattering with nuclei : $n + {}^A_ZX \rightarrow {}^A_ZX^{(*)} + n$

Elastic \rightarrow moderation

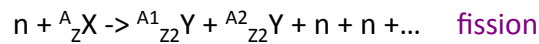
Inelastic

Absorption & Nuclear reactions:



Radiative capture of n

Fission:



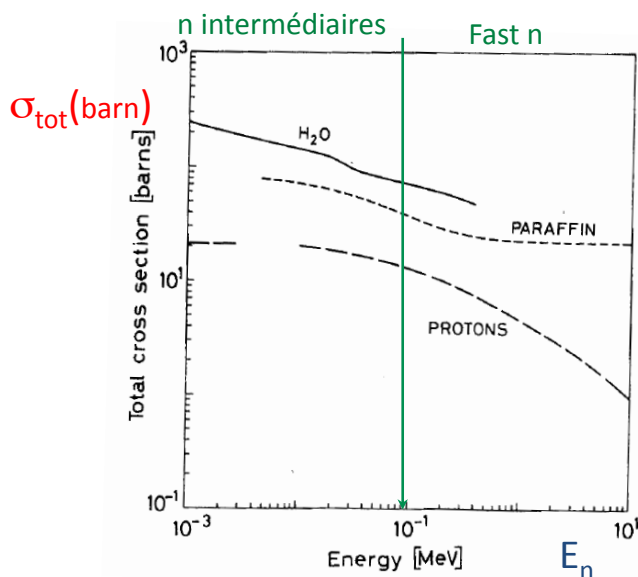
fission

Cross section $\approx 1/v_n$ (more probable for low energy) + pics résonants

Hadron shower $E_n > 100 \text{ MeV}$

Cross section of low energy neutrons (n)

Neutron cross section on H_2O , paraffine and protons

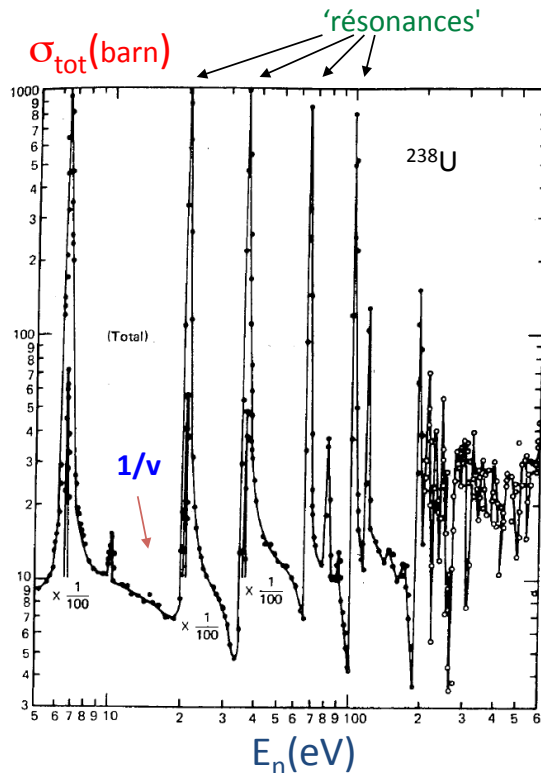


$$1 \text{ barn} = 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2 = 10^{-28} \text{ m}^2$$

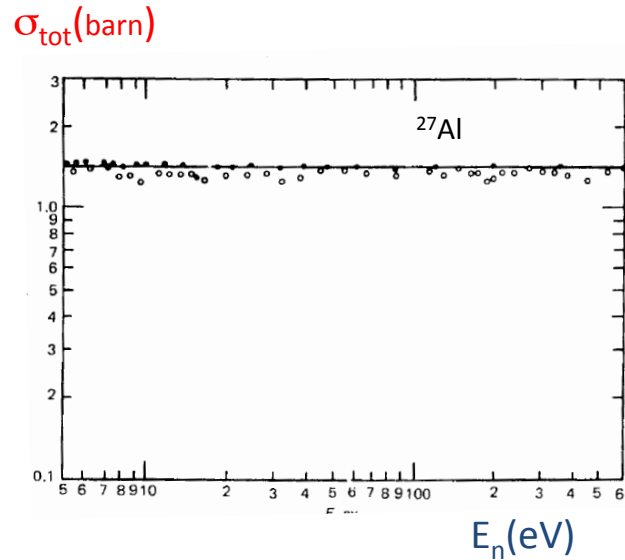
$$\text{Radius of the nucleon } R \approx 10^{-15} \div 10^{-14} \text{ m}$$

$$1 \text{ barn} \approx R^2$$

Low energy neutron (n) cross section



Very different scales on the vertical axis



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Important for detector: Deposited energy

- **Deposited energy** is what generates the signal in a particle detector
- The **energy loss** is never equal to the **deposited energy** as the radiated photons or the secondary particles may escape the medium
- Deposited energy is subjected to large stochastic fluctuations. (stopping power is the **mean** energy loss)
- If the medium is **thin** and the number of interactions is small, the deposited energy distribution is asymmetric : it is sometimes called a **Landau distribution**.
- If the medium is thick or the number of interactions is large, the deposited energy distribution tends to a Gaussian.
- There are no simple and exact analytical formulae to compute deposited energy.
- Nowadays, to estimate the energy deposited in a detector or more generally in a medium we use a Monte-Carlo program which simulates the propagation of the particle through matter : e.g. Geant4

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Important for detection: Creation of electron-ion pairs

When the measured signal is a current or a charge liberated through ionizing interactions, it is useful to compute the **mean number of created electron-ion pairs**

$$n = \frac{\Delta E_{\text{deposited}}}{W}$$

where : **W** is the required **mean energy to produce an e-ion pair**

$W > I$ (mean excitation and ionization potential)

In many gas $W \sim 30$ eV.

In semiconductor detectors (Ge, Si), W is much lower : e.g. $W=3.6$ eV for Si and $W=2.85$ eV for Ge

Better statistics \rightarrow better resolution

END

Useful relations of relativistic Kinematics and HEP units

$\vec{p} = m_0 \gamma \vec{v}$ $\gamma \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$ $\beta \equiv v/c$ $m_0 \equiv$ rest mass
 $\gamma \equiv$ Lorentz boost
 $m \equiv m_0 \gamma$

• Kinetic energy $E_k = (\gamma-1) m_0 c^2$

• Total energy $E = \sqrt{(pc)^2 + (m_0 c^2)^2}$

• Total energy $E = E_k + m_0 c^2 = m_0 \gamma c^2 = m c^2$ $\gamma = E/(m_0 c^2)$

$E = m c^2$ « equivalence mass & energy »

Units :
 $[E] = \text{eV}$ $[m] = \text{eV}/c^2$ $[p] = \text{eV}/c$

« Natural units »

$\hbar = 1$
 $c = 1$

$[c] = \frac{[l]}{[t]}$ $[l] = [t]$

$[E] = [p] = [m] = [v] = [t]^{-1}$

See Marco Delmastro lectures