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Published in:
Physics of Plasmas

Document Version:
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

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Citation: Physics of Plasmas (1994-present) 21, 056704 (2014); doi: 10.1063/1.4875336

View online: http://dx.doi.org/10.1063/1.4875336

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I. INTRODUCTION

Particle accelerators are important tools for both the fundamental and applied sciences. However, conventional accelerator technology is limited in its accelerating gradient to approximately 10 MV/m by material breakdown properties, thereby requiring long acceleration lengths and, consequently, large facilities for high-energy accelerators. Alternatively, laser-driven plasma waves can sustain acceleration gradients of order 100 GV/m, allowing for more compact facilities. The acceleration process of a high-intensity laser pulse driving a plasma wave to accelerate electrons is known as laser-wakefield acceleration (LWFA). 1

In 2004, various groups demonstrated LWFA of monoenergetic electron beams to highly relativistic energies. 2–4 In the decade following, multi-GeV energy electrons were reported using only cm’s of plasma. 2,5 Although these beams had high-energy, mono-energetic features, their charge was relatively limited to the electron injection processes of self-trapping or colliding-pulse injection mechanisms. 5 However, by adding a high-Z dopant to the plasma, the location and amount of charge can be controlled by the process of ionization injection, such that electrons are ionized at the laser’s peak intensity and directly injected into the plasma wave. 6,7 This allows for the separation of the injection and acceleration mechanisms in LWFA using separate stages. 8,9 Under certain conditions, large amounts of charge can be injected over the course of the entire acceleration process, leading to a broad, flat energy spectra. 10,11 These broad spectra, high-charge beams are well suited for bremsstrahlung generation since the process does not require mono-energetic beams due to the inherent spectral broadening.

Since electron beams from LWFA have bunch durations on the order of the driving laser pulse (∼30 fs), 14,15 the subsequent radiation generation from these electrons is of similar temporal duration, leading to high peak brightness 25 with inherent temporal synchronization. Transverse oscillations within the plasma wave structure—termed betatron oscillations—can produce synchrotron-like X-rays with typical photon spectra centered around 10 keV of typical photon spectra centered around 10 keV. 25,26 With higher intensity (a0 ≫ 1) scattering pulses, the electrons are greatly perturbed and slowly in the scattering laser field, yielding multiple photons per electron and numerous harmonics of the upshifted fundamental (4nν L, where n ~ 0.64a0 is the brightness harmonic). 27 These non-linear Thomson scattering (NLTS) effects greatly increase the yield, energy, and peak brightness of the resulting photon beam such that simulations show that a 100 pC, 200 MeV electron beam interacting with a laser pulse of a0 = 50 should yield peak brightness up to...
$10^{29}$ photons/s/mrad$^2$/mm$^2$/1% bandwidth with photon energies extending up past 30 MeV. Such peak brightness is comparable to the fourth generation light sources (X-ray free-electron lasers, XFEL), but extending to much higher energies and consisting of table-top size equipment. Moreover, such interactions may allow scientists to measure parameters where non-linear quantum electrodynamic (nQED) processes can become significant.

In this paper, we describe proof-of-principle work which demonstrates single-shot, high-spectral resolution diagnostics of high-energy bremsstrahlung from LWFA electrons interacting with solid targets. These diagnostics are important for future NLTS experiments where high-resolution, single-shot spectral measurements are crucial for studying the underlying processes. The applications of high-energy radiation from LWFA include the production of medical isotopes (e.g., $^{11}$C, $^{15}$O, and $^{18}$F), and active interrogation/photonuclear fission of special nuclear materials (e.g., $^{235}$U, $^{238}$U, and $^{239}$Pu) using a compact setup.

II. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

For these experiments, the chirped pulse amplified, 800 nm Ti:sapphire-based HERCULES laser at the Center for Ultrafast Optical Science (CUOS) in the University of Michigan was operated between 27–100 TW (0.8–3 J in 30 fs). The basic experimental geometry is shown in Fig. 1. The laser was focused with an f/20 off-axis paraboloid (OAP) mirror to a maximum intensity of $1.3 \times 10^{19}$ W/cm$^2$ ($a_0 = 2.5$) onto either a 3 mm gas jet or a 1 + 5 mm staged gas cell with He doped with 2.5% N$_2$ in the jet or first cell and pure He for the second cell. The resultant plasma had a peak density of $(5–10) \times 10^{18}$ cm$^{-3}$, measured via transverse optical interferometry. In these experiments, the LWFA process generated an electron beam with a broad energy spectrum extending to 500 MeV, with up to 600 pC of total charge, and $<2.5$ mrad divergence using the process of ionization injection (shown in Fig. 2(c)).

To characterize the electron beam before interaction with a solid converter target, a charge-calibrated magnetic spectrometer with a 0.8 T, 15 cm length magnet and scintillator screen (Kodak LANEX Regular) was installed directly behind the gas target in a separate shot series. Typical electron spectra are shown in Fig. 2. The magnet was also removed to measure the pointing and divergence of the electron beam with an on-axis LANEX screen, and also, in some cases, on a pixelated BGO scintillator array shielded by 50 mm of Pb. For every electron diagnostic, the scintillators were cross-calibrated for charge with image plates (Fujifilm BAS-MS) for a single shot.

Once characterized, the electron beam was propagated up to 155 cm before interacting with a solid converter target in a separate shot series. While passing through the converter, the electrons created bremsstrahlung photons with an energy spectrum extending up to the peak electron energy. For an ultra-relativistic electron interacting with a nucleus, experiencing a Coulomb deflection such that $E/E' \ll Mc^2$,
where $M$ is the rest mass of the nucleus and $E, E'$ are the electron energies before and after the collision, the differential cross section for the fraction of photons radiated per unit energy interval (units of area/energy) under the Born approximation is

$$
\frac{d\sigma}{d(\hbar\omega)} \approx \frac{2^3e^6}{12\hbar^2\gamma^6M^2c^3} \left( 1 - \frac{\hbar\omega}{E} + \frac{3}{4} \frac{(\hbar\omega)^2}{E^2} \right) 
\times \left[ \ln \left( \frac{2E(E - \hbar\omega)}{Mc^2\hbar\omega} \right) - 1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\hbar\omega} \right],
$$

for $\hbar\omega/E < 1$. This has a characteristic $1/\hbar\omega$ fall off for low photon energies and a cut-off close to the initial electron energy. For low energy photons, doubly differential cross section for the fraction of photons radiated per unit energy interval per unit solid angle is

$$
\frac{d^2\sigma}{d(\hbar\omega)d\Omega} = \frac{3\gamma^2}{2\pi} \frac{1 + \gamma^2\theta^2}{(1 + \gamma^2\theta^2)^4} \frac{d\sigma}{d(\hbar\omega)},
$$

where $\theta$ is the emission angle. The emission is confined to a cone of angle $\theta_c \sim 1/\gamma$ radians.

Depending on the converter thickness and atomic number ($Z$), these photons can subsequently generate electron-positron pairs through a Bethe-Heitler process, creating copious amounts of positrons for higher $Z$ materials. The characterization of these positron beams using LWFA is published elsewhere. To corroborate the experimental results and optimize parameters, Monte-Carlo simulations using the FLUKA code were run to simulate photon and lepton creation and transport. Figure 3(a) shows simulated spectra from the <200 MeV, 60 pC electron beams used for Compton scattering diagnostics (see Fig. 2(a)), whereas Figure 3(b) shows spectra using ideal LWFA electron beams of <350 MeV and 500 pC, similar to those used for activation experiments (see Fig. 2(c)).

For the Compton scattering diagnostic, only the photon beam is desired, so the spectrometer magnet is installed after the converter target to deflect charged particles. We also used activation diagnostics in which a solid target (either the converter itself or a secondary target) acted as a collector of radioisotopes before being read out by a slow detector.

### III. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

#### A. Compton-scattering photon spectrometer measurements

For indirect photon spectrum measurements, we integrated 10 shots of electron beams with up to 200 MeV energy and an average of 60 pC of charge (Fig. 2(a)) to create photon beams as well as positrons (Fig. 3(a)). A secondary converter target of 4 cm LiF was then used to Compton scatter these photons into secondary electrons that were spectrally separated with a magnet and detected with an image plate (see Fig. 4(a)). To collect only the on-axis secondary electrons, a Ø15 mm aperture, 5 cm length Pb collimator was placed before the entrance to the magnet. This ensured that only electrons in the near forward direction were measured (Fig. 5(a)). In Compton scattering, for an electron initially at rest the final energy of the electron, $E$, depends on the scattered angle and is given by

$$
E = \left( 1 - \left[ \frac{\hbar\omega}{m_e c^2} (1 - \cos \theta) + 1 \right]^{-1} \right) \hbar\omega,
$$

![FIG. 3. Simulated bremsstrahlung spectra from a flat-top spectra electron beam with (a) 60 pC charge up to 200 MeV and (b) 500 pC charge up to 350 MeV interacting with a 2.8 mm Ta converter.](image)

![FIG. 4. (a) Compton-scattering spectrometer geometry. Note that the Pb collimator blocks the off-axis charged particles but can cause contaminant signal as a converter. (b) Raw image plate signal with outlined regions-of-interest. The signal in the center is from the on-axis photon beam.](image)
where $\theta$ is the angle between the momentum of the incident photon (with energy $h\nu$) and the scattered photon. Therefore, for $h\nu \gg m_ec^2$ and backward scattering, $\theta = \pi$, the forward scattered electron will have energy

$$E = h\nu - \frac{m_ec^2}{2},$$

i.e., very close to the original photon energy. The photon spectrum can be determined from the electron spectrum after taking this shift into account. However, in addition to this downshift in energy, scattering within the solid material will also affect the measured electron energy spectrum (Fig. 5(a)). Monte Carlo modeling can be used to determine an electron spectrum for incident photons of a certain energy (Fig. 6). The photon spectrum can subsequently be obtained from the electron spectrum by deconvolution (Fig. 5(b)). The positron signal indicates the amount of pair production occurring in the converter and must be subtracted from the total electron signal to isolate the Compton scattered electron (Fig. 5(a)). Monte Carlo modeling can be used to determine the zero-point (unresolved area) on the detector based on projection (seen in Fig. 4). As a result, a moderate size aperture was chosen to increase flux at the expense of spectral resolution.

**B. ($\gamma$,n) Activation measurements**

When a energetic photon has enough energy to overcome the binding energy of an neutron in the nucleus ($\sim$16 MeV per neutron), it can dislodge a neutron with a small, but significant, probability. When a neutron is ejected, the remaining proton-rich nucleus is typically radioactive and undergoes $\beta^+$ decay thereby emitting a positron. This positron quickly annihilates with a nearby electron to give off two 511 keV photons in opposing directions which can be easily measured and distinguished from background with a pair of NaI scintillators in coincidence (Fig. 7). The normalized activity curves for different materials irradiated by $10^9$ photons of 20 MeV energy are shown in Fig. 8(a). Utilizing materials with few second half-lives allows the coincident 511 keV signal to be clearly distinguished from the prompt radiation due to the electron beam and effectively collected (over numerous half-lives) before the next shot (in minute intervals). For these measurements, silicon was chosen as an activation target due to the short (4.15 s) half-life of its primary ($\gamma$,n) activation product ($^27$Si) and its high-energy ($\sim$16 MeV) reaction threshold.

The detector geometry and reaction process are depicted in Fig. 7. The NaI scintillators were both $\varnothing 75$ mm x $75$ mm.
in size, separated by 10 cm (5 cm on either side of the axis), and shielded with lead and graphite. High-purity (>99.999%), monocrystalline silicon of 10 mm × 10 mm × 100 mm size was placed on axis with the electron beam 155 cm away from the gas cell. Before entering the activation sample, the broad-energy electron beam passed through a 600 μm thick beryllium window 10 cm in front of the sample. The coincidence counting electronics were temporally gated until 100 ms after the shot to avoid prompt radiation from the electron beam, were energy gated for 450 ± 100 keV using single-channel analyzers (SCA) to remove spurious coincidences, and digitally read-out for real-time analysis. Over the course of 20 shots of electrons with up to 500 MeV energy and an average of 600 pC of charge (Fig. 2(c)), the measured activation varied with the pointing and charge of the beam as shown in Fig. 8(b).

Overall, the measured activity for an average shot had a half-life of 4.06 ± 0.67 s and an initial activation of 648 ± 320 decays as estimated by fitting individual. The low number of measured decays was likely due to the scatter of the beam before entering the sample and the inefficient bremsstrahlung conversion within the relatively low-Z sample. However, given the 0.12% probability of a photon inducing a reaction in the rod, the estimated >15 MeV photon flux is on the order of 5 × 10^5 photons/cm²/shot.

Alternatively, fused silica (SiO₂) and copper rods of Ø12.7 mm × 100 mm size were used to demonstrate different aspects of activation. An activity trace of electron beams entering fused silica is shown in Fig. 8(c). Activation of oxygen (122 s half-life) in the fused silica sample establishes a low-level background between the short-lived silicon peaks. To investigate longer half-life materials, 25 shots were taken on a Cu sample (62Cu half-life is 9.67 min). The Cu activity clearly follows the expected exponential decay as shown in Fig. 8(d). Assuming each shot contributed roughly the same signal and taking into account the time between shots, a simple rate equation can model the buildup of activity until shots cease. By fitting the decay curve of Cu to yield the initial activity after shots and in conjunction with this simple model, an estimate of the activations for a single-shot can be estimated as 4200 decays/shot, corresponding to 1.4 × 10^5 photons/shot above 10 MeV given the 3% probability of interaction.

C. (γ,n) Autoradiography measurements

Besides measuring the exponential decay of the activation signal, the spatial distribution of activation can be measured by placing a spatially sensitive, integrating detector (such as imaging plate, film, CCD, etc.) on the sample after the shot in a process known as autoradiography. In our

FIG. 7. Nuclear reaction diagram for $^{28}$Si activation. Bremsstrahlung photons dislodge neutrons from $^{28}$Si to give $^{27}$Si which undergoes $\beta^+$ decay (half-life of 4.15 s) and emits a $\gamma$ which quickly annihilates with a nearby $e^-$ to give two 511 keV photons.

FIG. 8. (a) Calculated activities for various materials irradiated by 10^6 photons of 20 MeV energy normalized according to abundance and density. (b) and (c) Experimental (blue) and averaged (red) activity traces from multiple shots on (b) high-purity Si and (c) fused silica (SiO₂). (d) Experimental activity (blue), averaged (red), and expected (green) traces of 25 shots accumulation on Cu.
4 cm Cu, 3.2 mm Cu, and 15 mm C in order of increasing distance from the gas target where the 4 cm Cu acted as the primary converter. The plates were integrated for 20 shots and were read out by separate image plates for 1 h (collecting 98% and 88% of the signal for Cu and C, respectively). The spatial profiles of the electron beam impacting the 4 cm Cu, 3.2 mm Cu, and 15 mm C are shown in Figs. 9(a)–9(c), respectively. Taking a lineout across each signal (Figs. 9(d)–9(f)), the divergence of the beam on 4 cm and 3.2 mm Cu was measured to be roughly 10 mrad full-width-at-half-maximum (FWHM). Since 511 keV photons are the primary contributors to the signal, the image plate signal can also be integrated to estimate the total photon flux. For the 3.2 mm Cu, total activations were $2 \times 10^3$ activations/shot, implying a 10 MeV flux of $2 \times 10^7$ photons/cm$^2$ given approximately 0.1% probability of capture in the 1 cm$^2$ area and 3.2 mm thickness.

One important consideration is the thickness of the sample. Thicker samples undergo more activations, but the detector collects scattered photons and secondary particles from deep in the sample and photons travelling greater distances before exiting the sample, thereby increasing the background. This effect was observed between the 4 cm and 3.2 mm samples of Cu.

**IV. CONCLUSIONS**

In conclusion, electron beams from LWFA can be used for a variety of high-energy, high-brightness radiation generation mechanisms. In this paper, we have demonstrated proof-of-principle, single-shot diagnostics which can be used at high repetition rate for measuring this high-energy radiation. The first single-shot, high-resolution gamma-ray spectrum from LWFA bremsstrahlung was measured using a Compton-scattering based electron spectrometer. Moreover, the first measurements of short-lived (few second) radioisotopes using a LWFA source enable a shot-to-shot energy monitoring diagnostic of the secondary radiation.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

This research was supported by DOE/NSF-PHY 0810979, NSF CAREER 1054164, DARPA AXiS N66001-11-1-4208, SF/DNDO F021166, and the Leverhulme Trust ECF-2011-383.
