

7th International Conference on New Developments In Photodetection



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Introduction to particle and radiation interactions with matter

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Standard Model of FUNDAMENTAL PARTICLES AND INTERACTIONS

The Standard Model summarizes the current understanding of the particles that make up the visible matter of the universe and the forces that govern their interactions. Gravity is excluded on this chart because it is one of the fundamental interactions but through all part of the "Standard Model".

FERMIONS matter constituents spin = 1/2, 3/2, 5/2, ...

Leptons spin = 1/2			Quarks spin = 1/2		
Flavor	Mass GeV/c ²	Electric Charge	Flavor	Approx. Mass GeV/c ²	Electric Charge
e ⁻ electron	<10 ⁻⁶	0	u ⁺ up	0.002	2/3
μ ⁻ muon	0.105658	-1	d ⁻ down	0.005	-1/3
τ ⁻ tau	1.777	-1	c ⁺ charm	1.3	2/3
			s ⁻ strange	0.1	-1/3
			t ⁺ top	175	2/3
			b ⁻ bottom	4.3	-1/3

BOSONS force carriers spin = 0, 1, 2, ...

Unified Electroweak spin = 1			Strong (color) spin = 1		
Name	Mass GeV/c ²	Electric Charge	Name	Mass GeV/c ²	Electric Charge
γ photon	0	0	g gluon	0	0
W ⁺	80.4	-1			
W ⁻	80.4	+1			
Z ⁰	91.187	0			

PROPERTIES OF THE INTERACTIONS

Property	Gravitational	Weak	Electromagnetic	Strong	Meson (q-q)
Intensity	Mass-Energy	Flavor	Electric Charge	Color Charge	None
Acts on	All	Quarks, Leptons	Electrically charged	Quarks, Gluons	Hadrons
Particle exchanging	Gravitons	W ⁺ , W ⁻ , Z ⁰	γ	Quarks, Gluons	Hadrons
Range	∞	10 ⁻¹⁶ m	∞	10 ⁻¹⁵ m	10 ⁻¹⁵ m
Relative strength	10 ⁻³⁸	10 ⁻⁵	10 ⁻²	10 ²	10 ⁻²

Structure within the Atom

Quarks Confined in Mesons and Baryons

Quarks are never found alone. They are always found in combinations called mesons and baryons. Mesons are made of a quark and an antiquark, while baryons are made of three quarks. The strong force between quarks is so powerful that it prevents them from escaping the meson or baryon. This is why we never see free quarks.

Hadronization

When a quark or antiquark is produced in a high-energy collision, it cannot escape the interaction region. Instead, it forms a jet of particles called a hadron. This process is called hadronization. The particles in the jet are made of quarks and gluons.

Color Charge

Quarks have a property called color charge. There are three colors: red, green, and blue. Gluons, the carriers of the strong force, also have color charge. The strong force is so powerful that it prevents quarks from escaping the meson or baryon.

Residual Strong Interaction

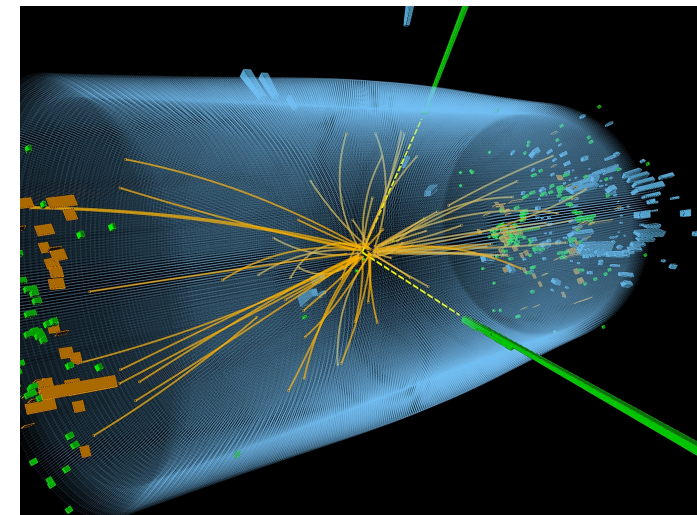
The strong force between quarks is so powerful that it prevents them from escaping the meson or baryon. This is why we never see free quarks. The residual strong force is the force that binds nucleons together in the nucleus.

Hadronization and Meson Production

When a quark or antiquark is produced in a high-energy collision, it cannot escape the interaction region. Instead, it forms a jet of particles called a hadron. This process is called hadronization. The particles in the jet are made of quarks and gluons.

Hadronization and Meson Production

When a quark or antiquark is produced in a high-energy collision, it cannot escape the interaction region. Instead, it forms a jet of particles called a hadron. This process is called hadronization. The particles in the jet are made of quarks and gluons.



Plan:

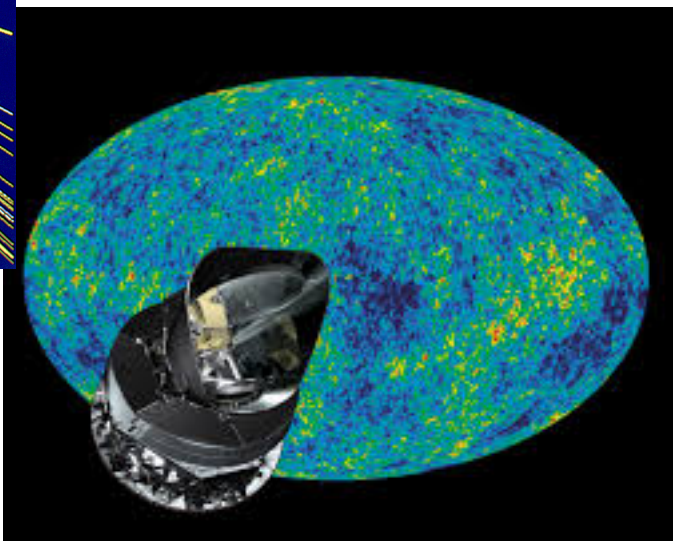
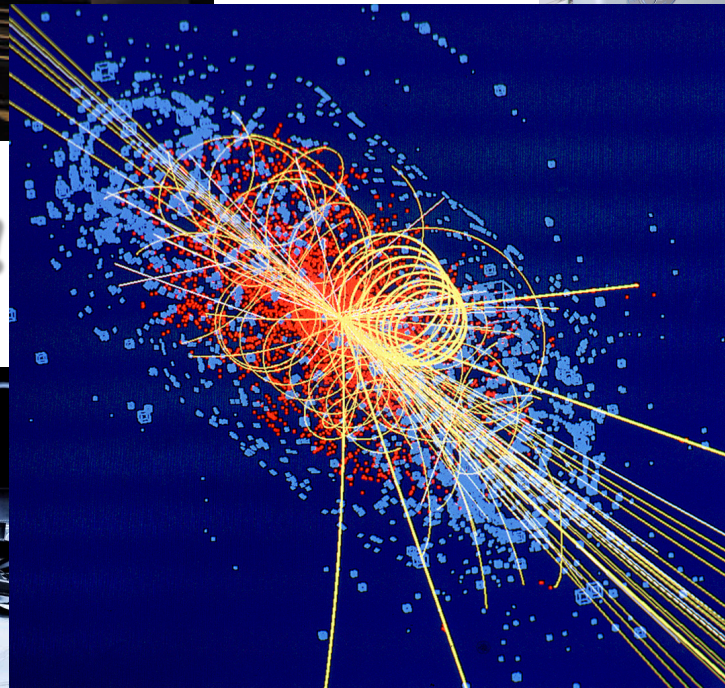
1. Introduction
2. Energy loss of charged particles in matter
3. Interactions of Photons
4. Some examples for light detection
5. Summary

1. Introduction

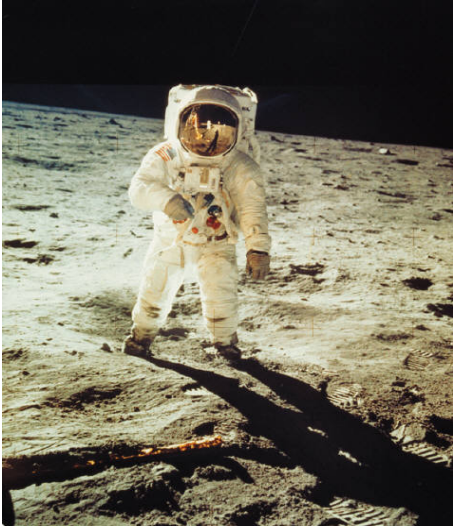
Why should we care?



Affects all of our life!



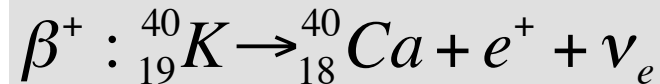
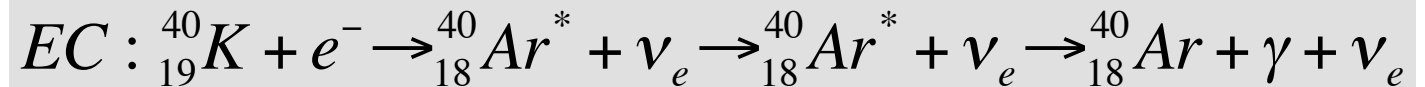
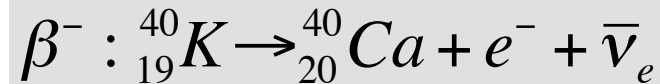
We are radioactive !



On average a human of 70 kg has 17 mg of Potassium 40

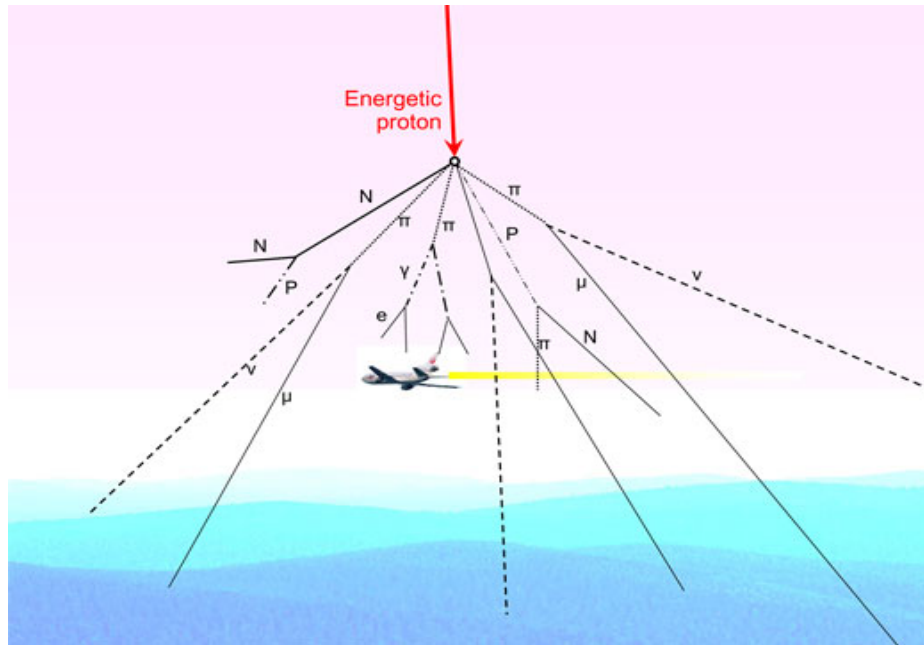
This results in 4,4 kBq of activity

This is 4400 disintegrations per second !



And when you eat a healthy carrot you get 0,1 kBq / kg !

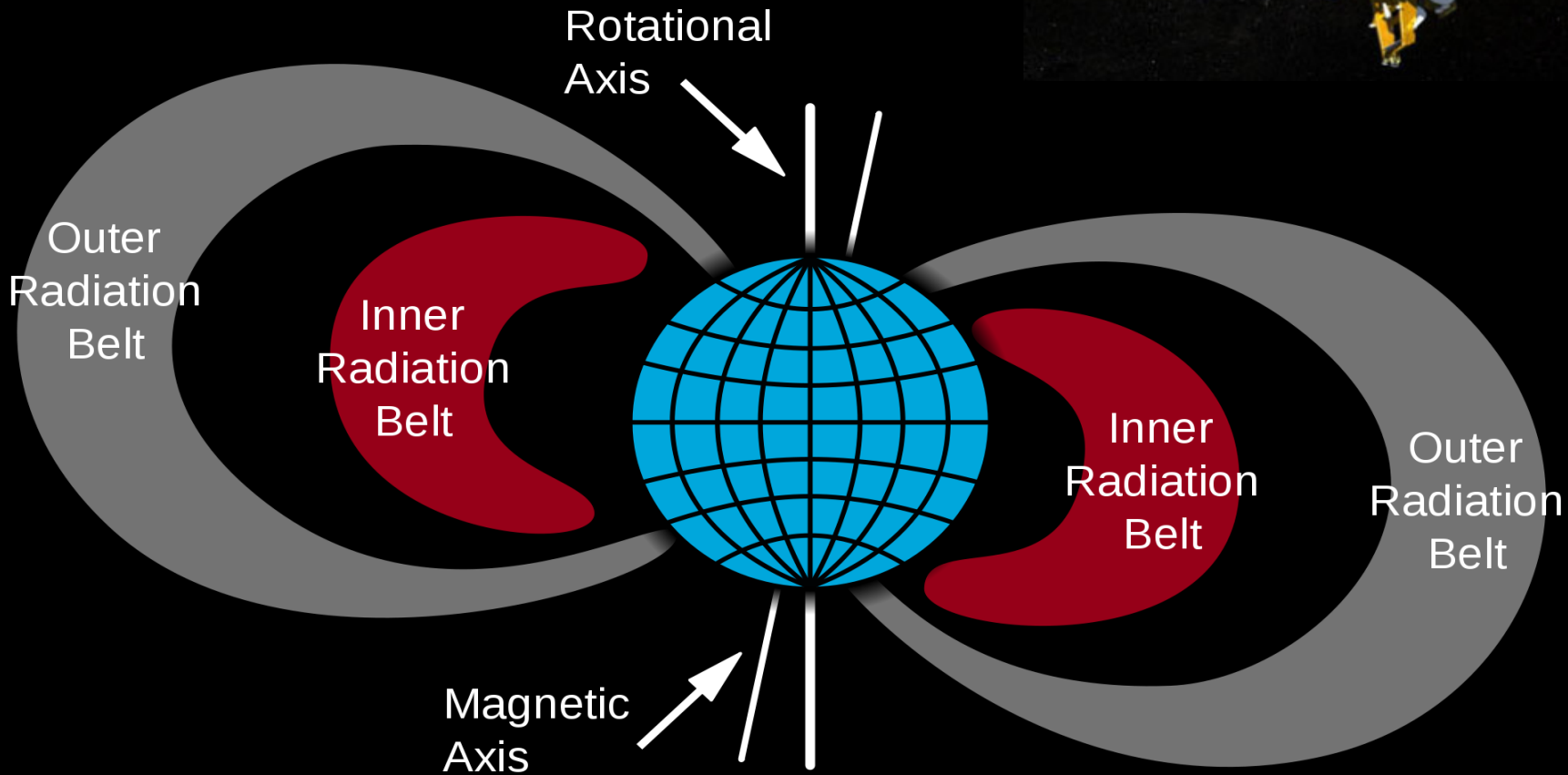
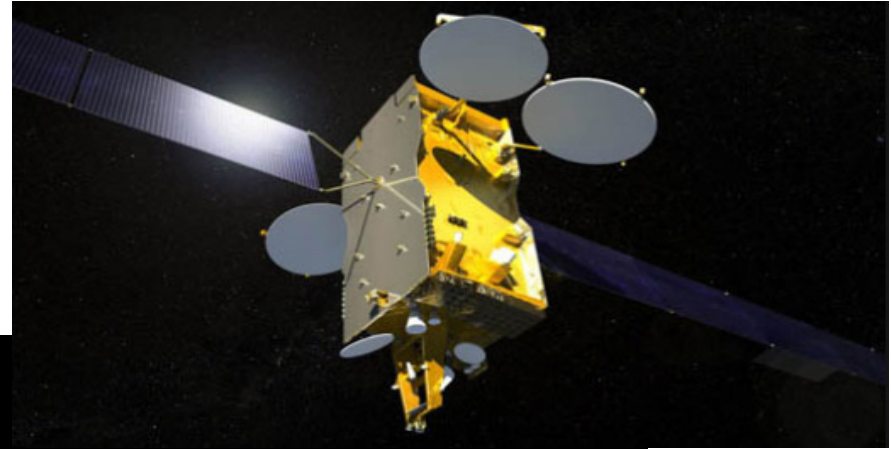
Exposure in flight:



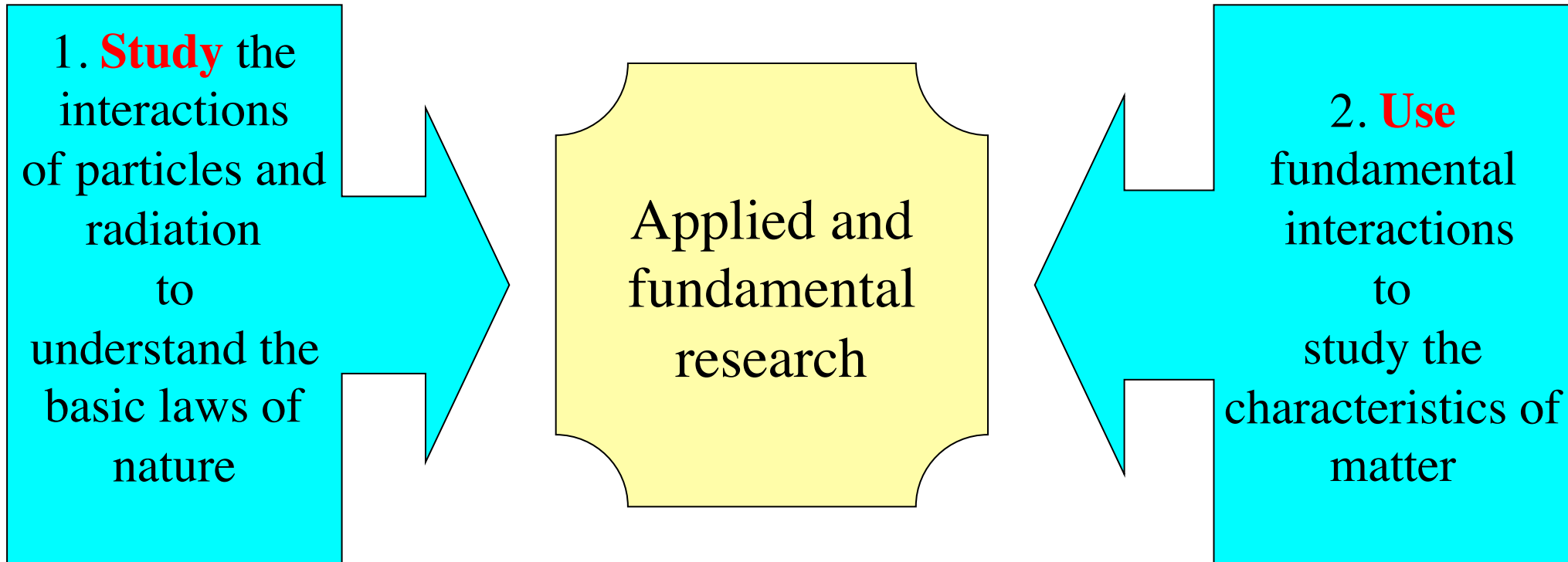
- The lowest dose rate measured was $3 \mu\text{Sv h}^{-1}$ during a Paris-Buenos Aires flight.
- The highest rates were $6.6 \mu\text{Sv h}^{-1}$ during a Paris to Tokyo flight and $9.7 \mu\text{Sv h}^{-1}$ on the Concorde in 1996–1997.
- The corresponding annual effective dose, based on 700 hours of flight for subsonic aircraft and 300 hours for the Concorde, can be estimated at between 2 mSv for the least exposed routes and 5 mSv for the more exposed routes.

- Sv = Unit of equivalent dose
- Natural annual background: (0.4 – 4) mSv
- Limit for radiation workers = 20 mSv y^{-1}

High level electronics in Satellites is affected



Two basic reasons why to detect particles or radiation:



Basic quantities:

$$\hbar c = 197,326960 \text{ MeV fm}$$

Fine structure constant:

$$\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar c} = 1/137,03599976$$

Classical electron radius:

$$r_e = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2} = \alpha \frac{\hbar c}{m_e c^2} = 2,817940285 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}$$

Energy loss:

$$K = 4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 = 4C m_e c^2 = 0,307 \text{ MeV.cm}^2.\text{g}^{-1}$$

More on orders of magnitude:

Basic units used in particle physics to describe detectors:

- **Photon absorption coefficient μ** : $I = I_0 e^{-\mu x}$
- **Radiation length X_0** : $E = E_0 e^{-x/X_0}$
- **Nuclear interaction length λ_I** : e^{-x/λ_I}

Material	X_0 (g/cm ²) (cm)	λ_I (g/cm ²) (cm)
H	61.28 (866)	50.8 (715.5)
C	42.7 (18.8)	86.3 (38.1)
Scintillator	43.7 (42.4)	81.9 (79.3)
Fe	13.84 (1.76)	131.9 (16.7)
Xe	8.48 (2.87)	169. (29.1)
Pb	6.37 (0.56)	194. (17.1)

Related cross sections:

Strong interaction : $\sigma \sim 10 \div 100$ mb

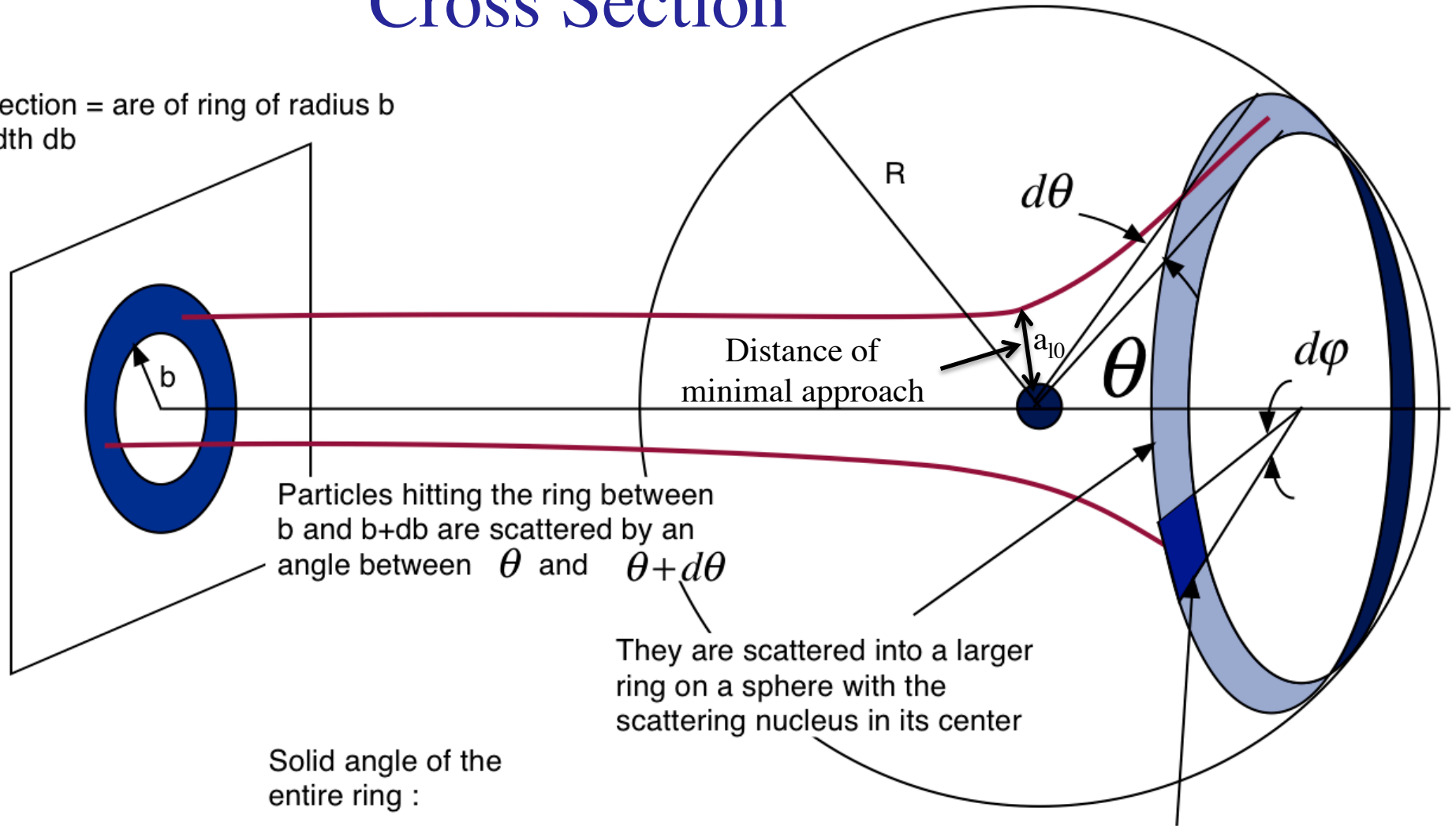
Electro-magnetic interaction: $\sigma \sim 10 \div 100$ nb

Weak interaction: $\sigma \sim 10 \div 100$ pb

(1 barn = 10^{-28} m²)

Cross Section

cross section = are of ring of radius b and width db



$$d\Omega = \frac{2\pi R \sin(\theta) R d\theta}{R^2} = 2\pi \sin(\theta) d\theta$$

solid angle of small area:

$$d\Omega = \frac{d\phi R \sin(\theta) R d\theta}{R^2} = \sin(\theta) d\theta d\phi$$

$$P(\Theta) = N \times \frac{\Delta S}{R^2} \times \frac{b}{\sin \Theta} \times \left| \frac{db}{d\Theta} \right|$$

Number of scatters [atoms/cm²] Solid angle dΩ Differential cross section σ(Θ) [cm²]

Differential cross section:

$$\sigma(\Theta) = \frac{b}{\sin \Theta} \times \left| \frac{db}{d\Theta} \right|$$

Total cross section:

$$\sigma_{tot} = \int_0^{4\pi} \sigma(\Theta) d\Omega$$

In practice the target is a slab of material

We want to know the average number of interactions per unit time scattered into $d\Omega$

- Assume the target centers uniformly distributed and the slab not too thick (no secondary interactions)
- The number of centers seen by the beam = Ndx
- N = density of centers, $N = N_A \times \rho/A$ (N_A = Avogadro's number, A = Atomic number)
- dx = thickness of the slab along the beam

average number of interactions per unit time scattered into $d\Omega$:

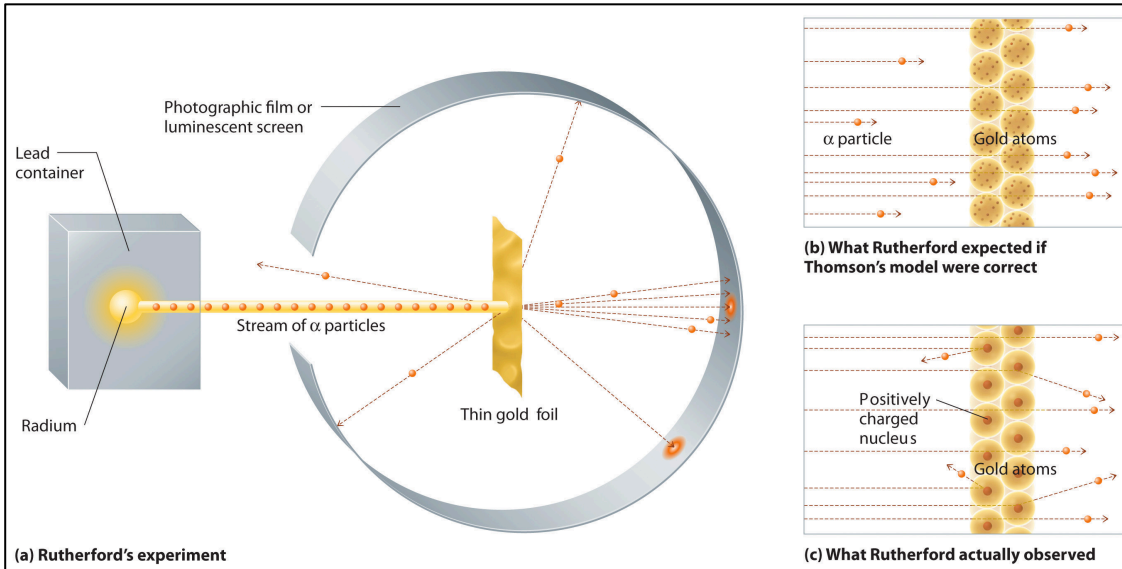
$$N_{scattered} = F \times S \times N \times dx \times \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}$$

F = flux per unit time [particles/(time x cm^2)]
 S = target area [cm^2]

The total number of scattered into all angles is:

$$N_{tot} = F \times S \times N \times dx \times \sigma$$

Example: Coulomb Scattering (Rutherford)



$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{b}{\sin \theta} \left| \frac{db}{d\theta} \right|$$

b = impact parameter
 θ = scattering angle

Relation between scattering angle, impact parameter and shortest approach:

$$\operatorname{tg}\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = \frac{a_0}{2b}, \quad a_0 = \text{shortest distance of approach}, \quad b = \text{impact parameter}$$

$$b = \frac{a_0}{2} \cot\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{db}{d\theta} = \frac{a_0}{4} \times \frac{1}{\sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{b}{\sin \theta} \left| \frac{db}{d\theta} \right| = \frac{a_0^2}{16 \sin^4\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)} \quad \text{with } a_0 = \frac{kZ_1Z_2e^2}{E}, \quad k = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}, \quad Z_1, Z_2 = \text{atomic numbers of beam and target}$$

Application:

We have a beam of protons with an energy of 22 MeV and an intensity of 200 nA on a thin gold foil target with a thickness $e = 100 \mu\text{g} / \text{cm}^2$.

Question: How many protons are detected in a detector with a surface $S = 0.2 \text{ cm}^2$ at a distance, $R = 10 \text{ cm}$ and an angle $\theta = 10^\circ$?

$$N_{inc} = \frac{I}{q} = \frac{200 \times 10^{-9} \text{ A}}{1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ A s}} = 1.25 \times 10^{12} \text{ particles/sec}$$

$$\text{Number of detected particles} = N_{det} = N_{inc} \times N_{target} \times \Omega \times \sigma(\theta)$$

$$N_{target} = \frac{N_{Avogadro} \times \text{Thickness}}{\text{atomic mass}} = \frac{6 \times 10^{23} (\text{nucl/mol}) \times 100 \times 10^{-6} (\text{g/cm}^2)}{197 (\text{g/mol})}$$

$$\Omega = \frac{S}{R^2} = \frac{0.2 \text{ cm}^2}{100 \text{ cm}^2}$$

$$\sigma(\theta) = \frac{a_0^2}{16 \sin^4\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)} = \frac{1}{16 \sin^4\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)} \times \left[\frac{kZ_1Z_2e^2}{E} \right]^2 \quad \text{using } \frac{ke^2}{\hbar c} = 1/137 \text{ and } \hbar c = 200 \text{ MeV fm}$$

$$N_{det} = 1.25 \times 10^{12} \text{ particles/sec} \times \frac{6 \times 10^{23} (\text{nucl/mol}) \times 100 \times 10^{-6} (\text{g/cm}^2)}{197 (\text{g/mol})} \times \frac{0.2 \text{ cm}^2}{100 \text{ cm}^2} \times \left[\frac{ke^2}{\hbar c} \times \hbar c \times \frac{1 \times 79}{22 \text{ MeV}} \right]^2 \times \frac{1}{16 \sin^4\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$$

$$N_{det} = 1.25 \times 10^{12} \frac{\text{protons}}{\text{sec}} \times \frac{3 \times 10^{17}}{\text{cm}^2} \times 2 \times 10^{-3} \left[\frac{1}{137} \times 200 \times 10^{-13} \text{ MeV cm}^2 \times \frac{1 \times 79}{22 \text{ MeV}} \right]^2 \times 10^3$$

$$N_{det} = 2 \times 10^5 \text{ protons/sec.}$$

2. Energy loss of charged particles in matter

Energy loss of particles (1):

Charged Particles:

Light particles:
electrons & positrons

- Bremsstrahlung dominates @ $E > 20 \text{ MeV}$
- Inelastic scattering with atoms (ionization)
- Elastic scattering with nucleons
- Cherenkov Radiation
- Nuclear reactions

Heavy particles:
muons, protons, π , α

- Inelastic scattering with atoms (ionization):
 $\sigma \approx 10^{-17} - 10^{-16} \text{ cm}^2$
- Elastic scattering with nucleons
- Cherenkov Radiation
- Nuclear reactions
- Bremsstrahlung

Energy loss of particles (2):

Neutral particles

photons

- Photoelectric Effect
- Compton Scattering
- Pair Production
- Nuclear reactions (small contribution)

neutrons

Slowing down (moderation) by:

- Elastic Scattering
- Inelastic Scattering

-> Nuclear Absorption

-> Nuclear Reactions (fission)

neutrinos

Electro-weak interaction:

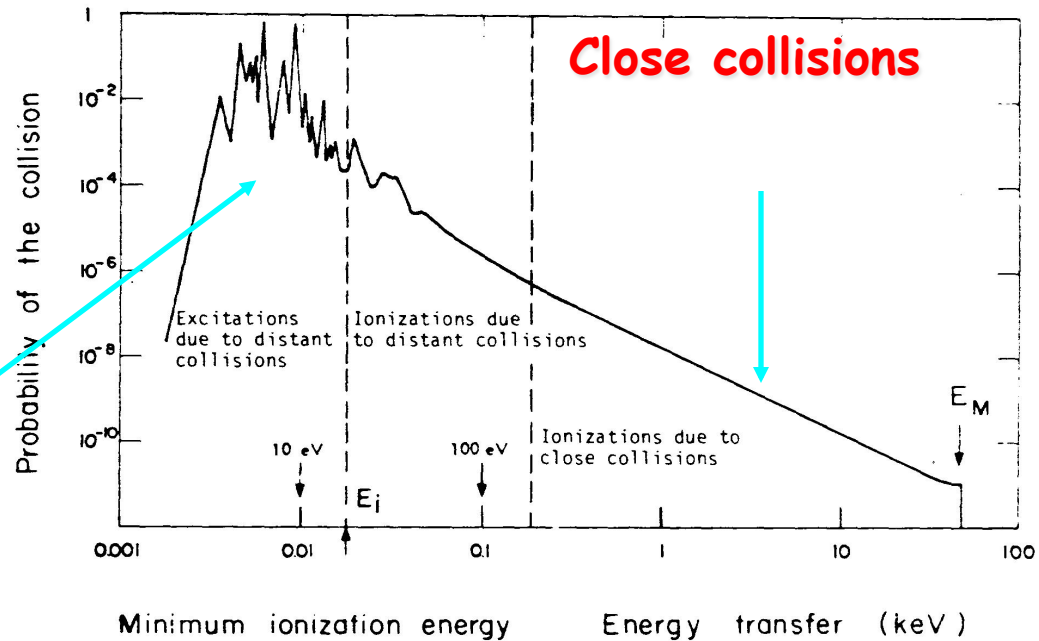


Energy loss of heavy particles by ionization

A heavy particle, M, loses its energy in matter in a continuous way by transferring it on electrons.

Dependent on the distance of the interaction, the energy loss is more or less important.

Distant collisions



Maximum energy transfer:

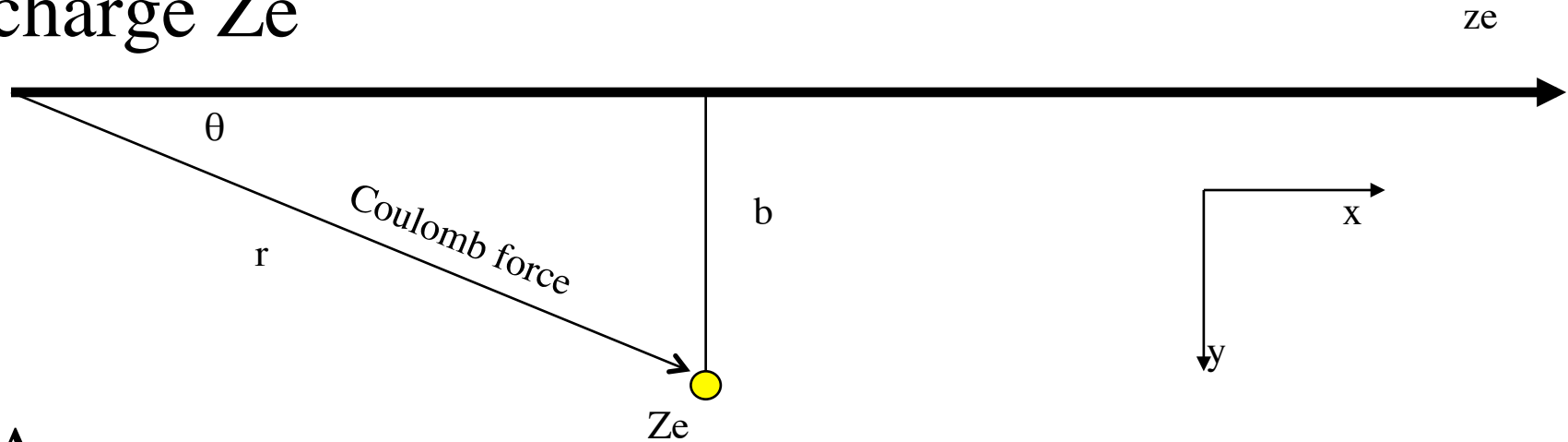
$$T_{max} = \frac{2\gamma^2 M^2 m_e v^2}{m_e^2 + M^2 + 2\gamma m_e M}$$

Bethe-Bloch Formula

- Describes how heavy particles ($m \gg m_e$) lose energy when travelling through material
- Exact theoretical treatment difficult
 - Atomic excitations
 - Screening
 - Bulk effects

Bethe-Bloch (1)

- Consider particle of charge ze , passing a stationary charge Ze



- Assume
 - Target is non-relativistic
 - Target does not move
- Calculate
 - Energy transferred to target

Force on projectile

$$\vec{F} = \frac{z \times Z \times e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \times r^2} \times \frac{\vec{r}}{r}$$

$$F_b = \frac{z \times Z \times e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \times r^2} \times \frac{b}{r}$$

Change of momentum of target/projectile

$$\Delta p_b = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_b dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{z \times Z \times e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \times r^2} \times \frac{b}{r} dt \quad \text{using } dt = \frac{dt}{dx} dx = \frac{1}{v} dx = \frac{1}{\beta c}$$

$$\Delta p_b = \frac{z \times Z \times e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \times \beta c} \times \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{b}{r^3} dx = \frac{z \times Z \times e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \times \beta c} \times \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{b}{(\sqrt{x^2 + b^2})^3} dx$$

using Mathematica one finds:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{b}{(\sqrt{x^2 + b^2})^3} dx = \frac{2\sqrt{\frac{1}{b^2}}b}{\sqrt{b^2}} = \frac{2}{b}$$

$$\Delta p_b = \frac{z \times Z \times e^2}{2\pi\epsilon_0 \times \beta c \times b}$$

Energy transferred

$$\Delta E = \frac{\Delta p^2}{2M} = \frac{Z^2 z^2 e^4}{2M (2\pi\epsilon_0)^2 (\beta c)^2} \frac{1}{b^2}$$

Bethe-Bloch (3)

- Consider α -particle scattering off Atom

- Mass of nucleus: $M=A \cdot m_p$

- Mass of electron: $M=m_e$

- But energy transfer is

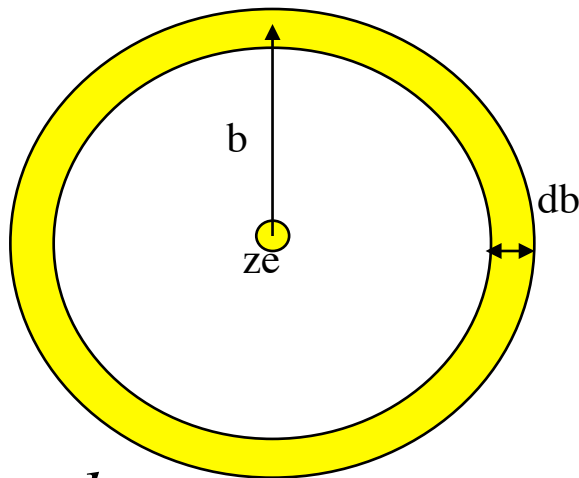
$$\Delta E = \frac{\Delta p^2}{2M} = \frac{Z^2 z^2 e^4}{2M (2\pi\epsilon_0)^2 (\beta c)^2} \frac{1}{b^2} \propto \frac{Z^2}{M}$$

- Energy transfer to single electron is

$$E_e(b) = \Delta E = \frac{2z^2 e^4}{m_e c^2 (4\pi\epsilon_0)^2 \beta^2} \frac{1}{b^2}$$

Bethe-Bloch (4)

- Energy transfer is determined by impact parameter b
- Integration over all impact parameters



$$\frac{dn}{db} = 2\pi b \times (\text{number of electrons / unit area})$$

$$= 2\pi b \times Z \frac{N_A}{A} \rho \Delta x$$

Bethe-Bloch (5)

- Calculate average energy loss

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{\Delta E} &= \int_{b_{\min}}^{b_{\max}} db \frac{dn}{db} E_e(b) = 2C \frac{m_e c^2}{\beta^2} \frac{Zz^2}{A} \rho \Delta x \left[\ln b \right]_{b_{\min}}^{b_{\max}} \\ &= C \frac{m_e c^2}{\beta^2} \frac{Zz^2}{A} \rho \Delta x \left[\ln E \right]_{E_{\min}}^{E_{\max}}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{with } C = 2\pi N_A \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2} \right)$$

- There must be limit for E_{\min} and E_{\max}
 - All the physics and material dependence is in the calculation of this quantities

Bethe-Bloch (6)

- Simple approximations for
 - From relativistic kinematics

$$E_{\max} = \frac{2\gamma^2 \beta^2 m_e c^2}{1 + 2\gamma \frac{m_e}{M} + \left(\frac{m_e}{M}\right)^2} \approx 2\gamma^2 \beta^2 m_e c^2$$

- Inelastic collision

$$E_{\min} = I_0 \equiv \text{average ionisation energy}$$

- Results in the following expression

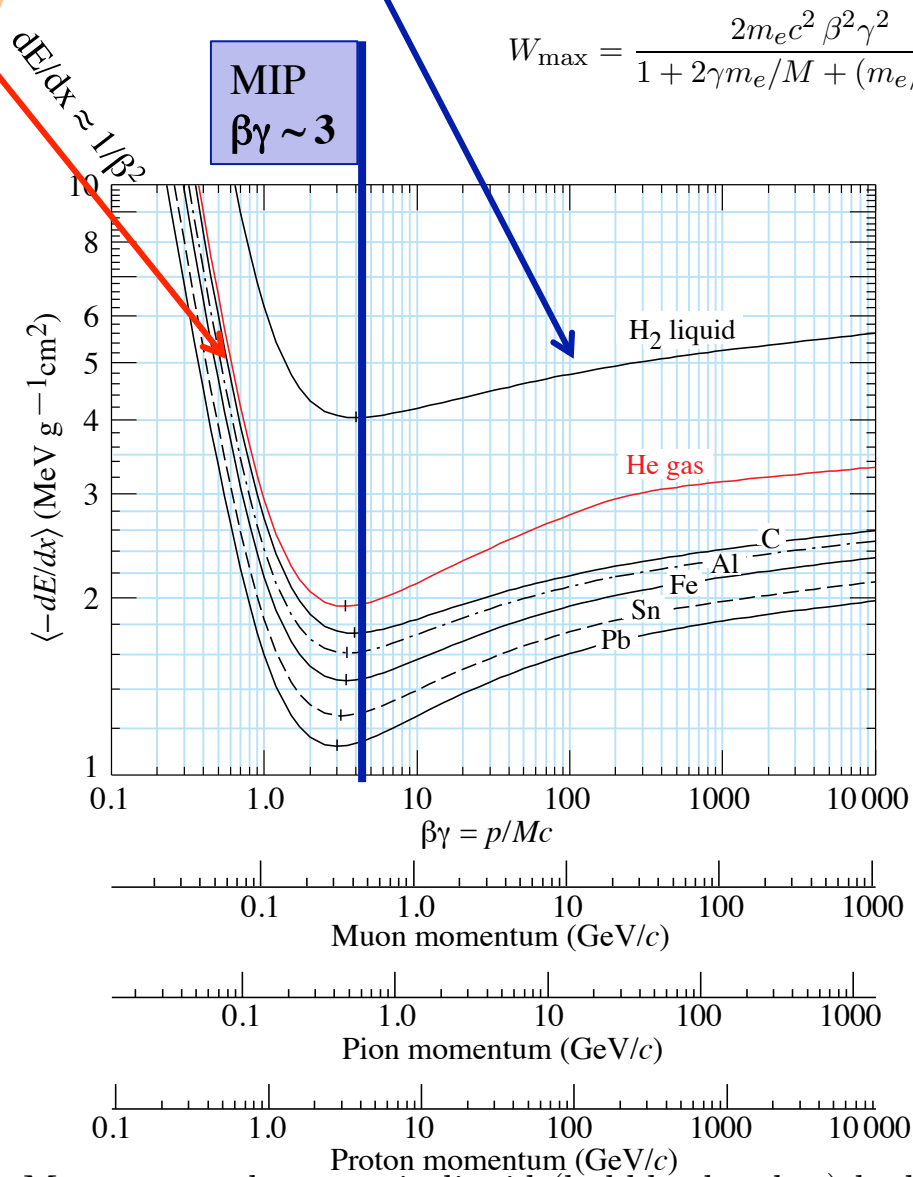
$$\frac{\overline{\Delta E}}{\Delta x} \approx 2C \frac{m_e c^2}{\beta^2} \frac{Zz^2}{A} \rho \ln \left(\frac{2\gamma^2 \beta^2 m_e c^2}{I_0} \right)$$

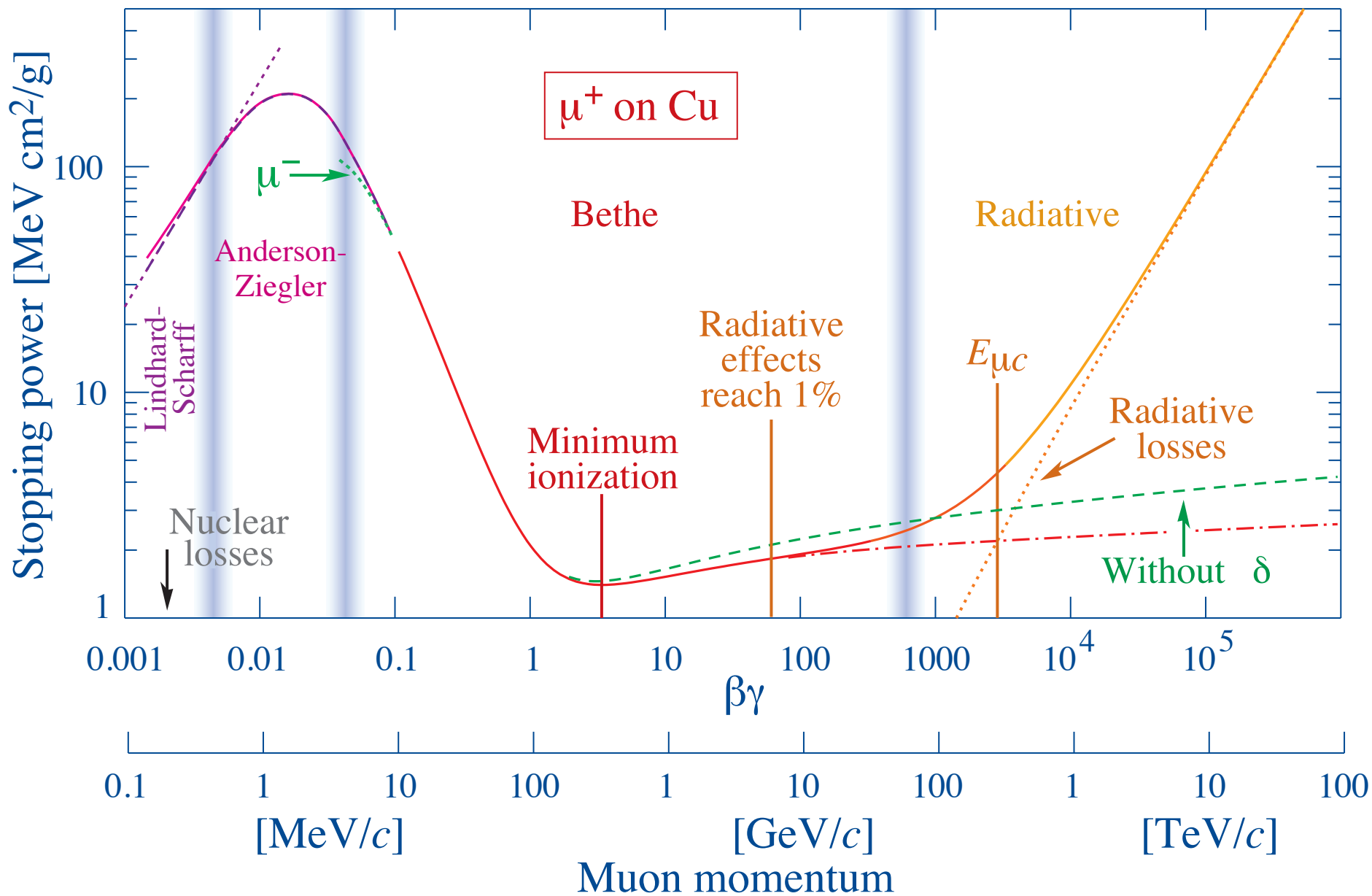
Mean Energy Loss: (Bethe-Bloch)

$$\left\langle -\frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = K z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2 W_{\max}}{I^2} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta(\beta\gamma)}{2} \right]$$

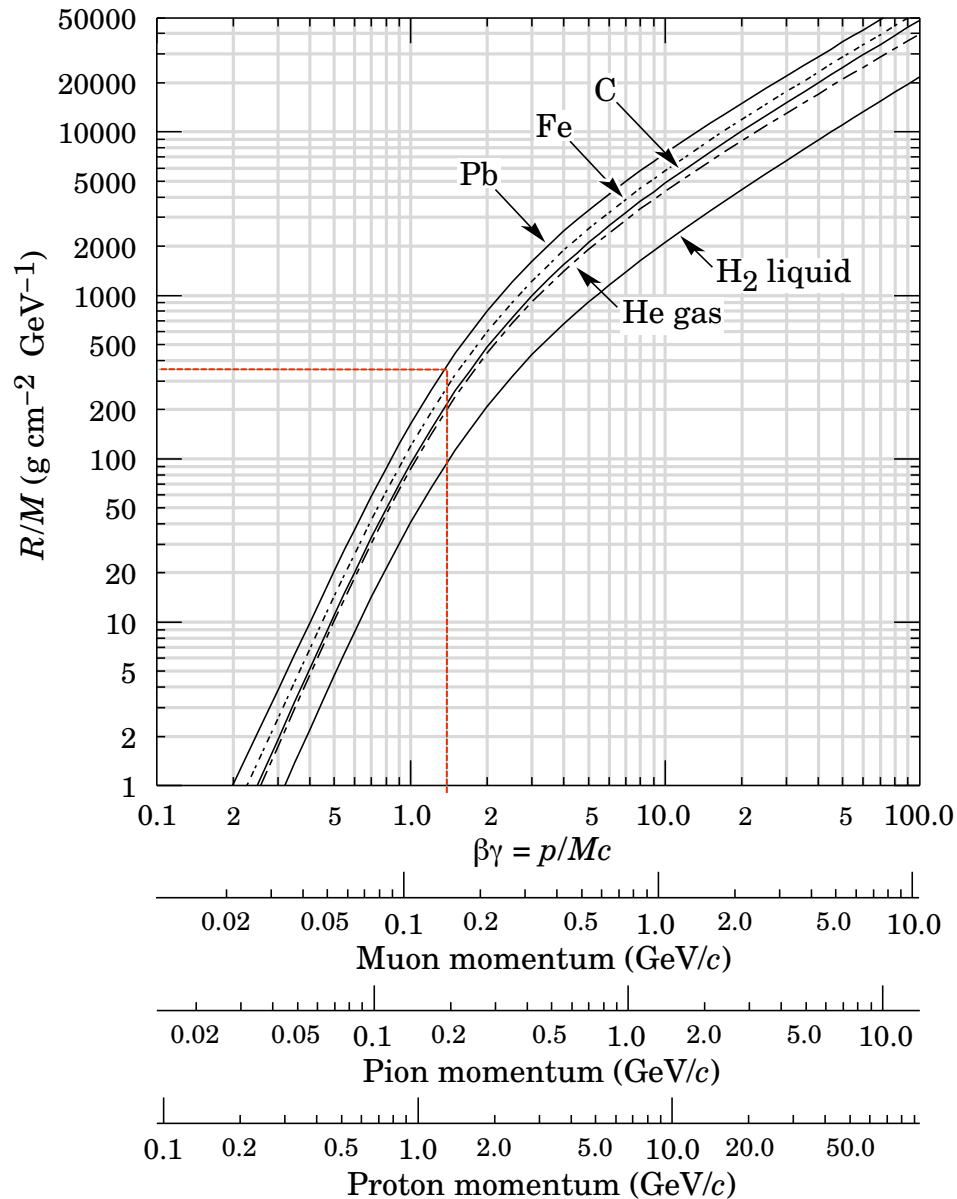
$$W_{\max} = \frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2}{1 + 2\gamma m_e/M + (m_e/M)^2}$$

Symbol	Definition	Value or (usual) units
α	fine structure constant $e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar c$	1/137.035 999 074(44)
M	incident particle mass	MeV/c ²
E	incident part. energy $\gamma M c^2$	MeV
T	kinetic energy, $(\gamma - 1)M c^2$	MeV
W	energy transfer to an electron in a single collision	MeV
k	bremsstrahlung photon energy	MeV
$m_e c^2$	electron mass $\times c^2$	0.510 998 928(11) MeV
r_e	classical electron radius $e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2$	2.817 940 3267(27) fm
N_A	Avogadro's number	$6.022 141 29(27) \times 10^{23}$ mol ⁻¹
z	charge number of incident particle	
Z	atomic number of absorber	
A	atomic mass of absorber	g mol ⁻¹
K	$4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2$	0.307 075 MeV mol ⁻¹ cm ²
I	mean excitation energy	eV (<i>Nota bene!</i>)
$\delta(\beta\gamma)$	density effect correction to ionization energy loss	
$\hbar\omega_p$	plasma energy $\sqrt{4\pi N_e r_e^3} m_e c^2 / \alpha$	$\sqrt{\rho \langle Z/A \rangle} \times 28.816$ eV ↳ ρ in g cm ⁻³
N_e	electron density	(units of r_e) ⁻³
w_j	weight fraction of the j th element in a compound or mixture	
n_j	α number of j th kind of atoms in a compound or mixture	
X_0	radiation length	g cm ⁻²
E_c	critical energy for electrons	MeV
$E_{\mu c}$	critical energy for muons	GeV
E_s	scale energy $\sqrt{4\pi/\alpha} m_e c^2$	21.2052 MeV
R_M	Molière radius	g cm ⁻²





Particle range:



Example: K^+ with $p_k = 700 \text{ MeV}/c$

$$m_k = 494 \text{ MeV}$$

$$\beta\gamma = \frac{p_k}{m_k c} = \frac{700}{494} = 1,42$$

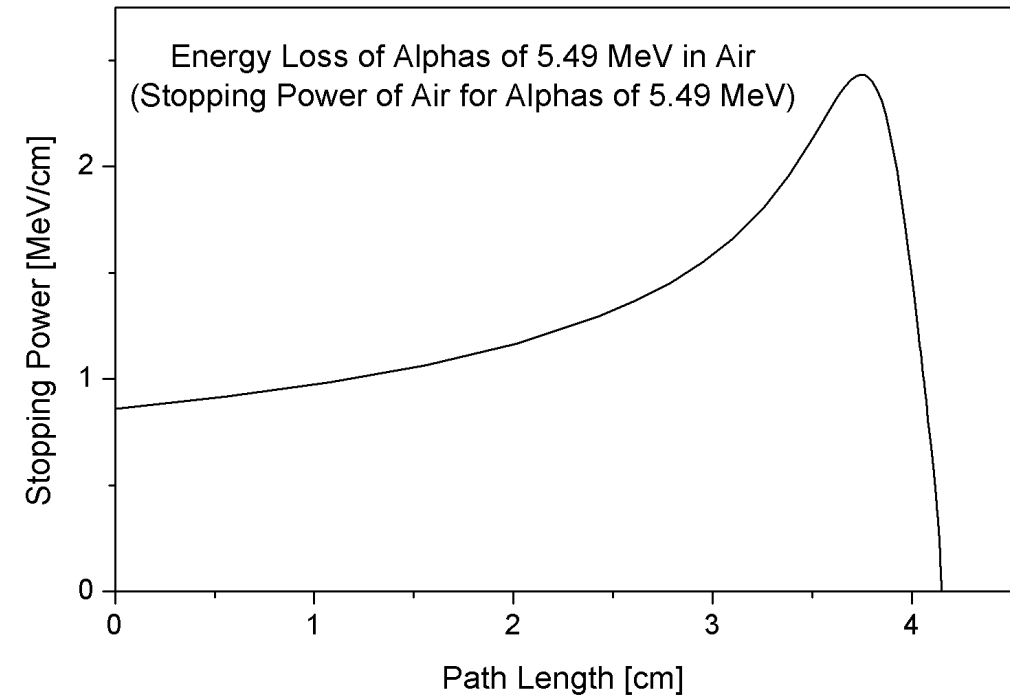
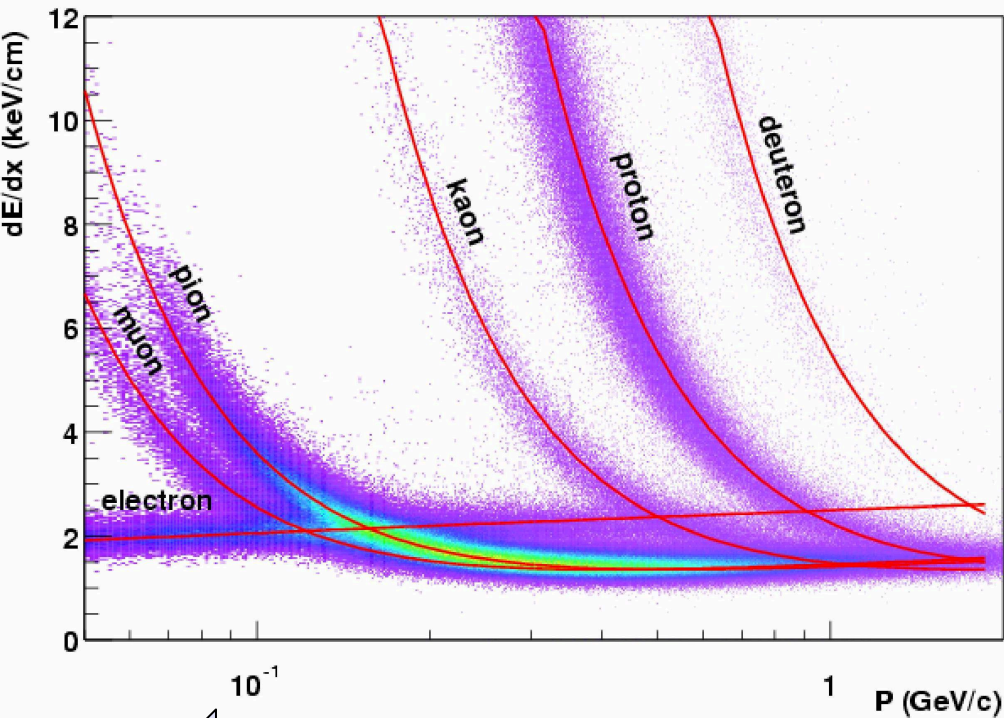
$$\text{For Pb: } R/M = 396 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ GeV}^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow R = 396 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ GeV}^{-1} \times 0,494 \text{ GeV} = 196 \text{ g cm}^{-2}$$

$$\rho_{\text{Pb}} = 11,35 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$$

$$\Rightarrow R = 196 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \div 11,35 \text{ g cm}^{-3} = \underline{\underline{17 \text{ cm}}}$$

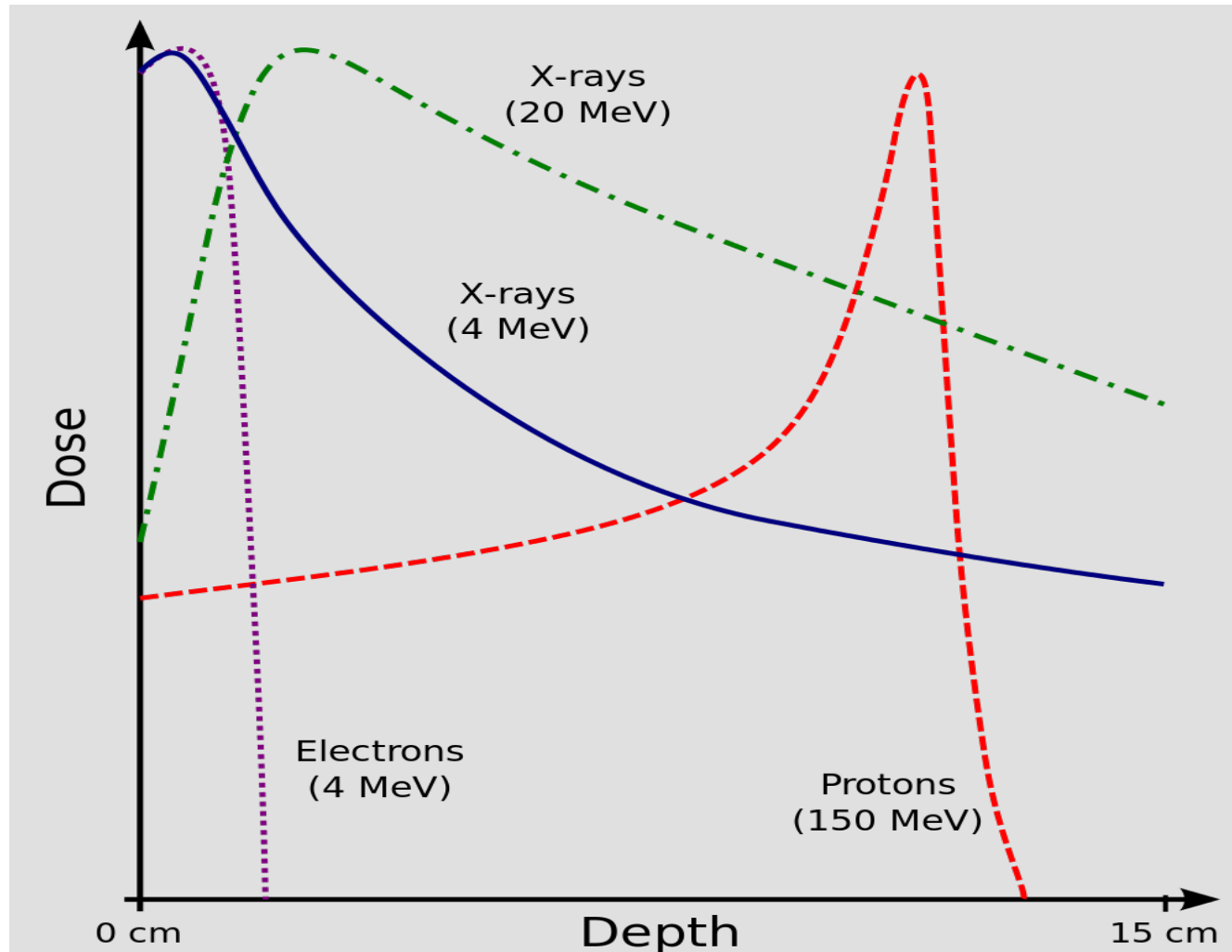
Bragg curve and Bragg peak:



Read from right to left

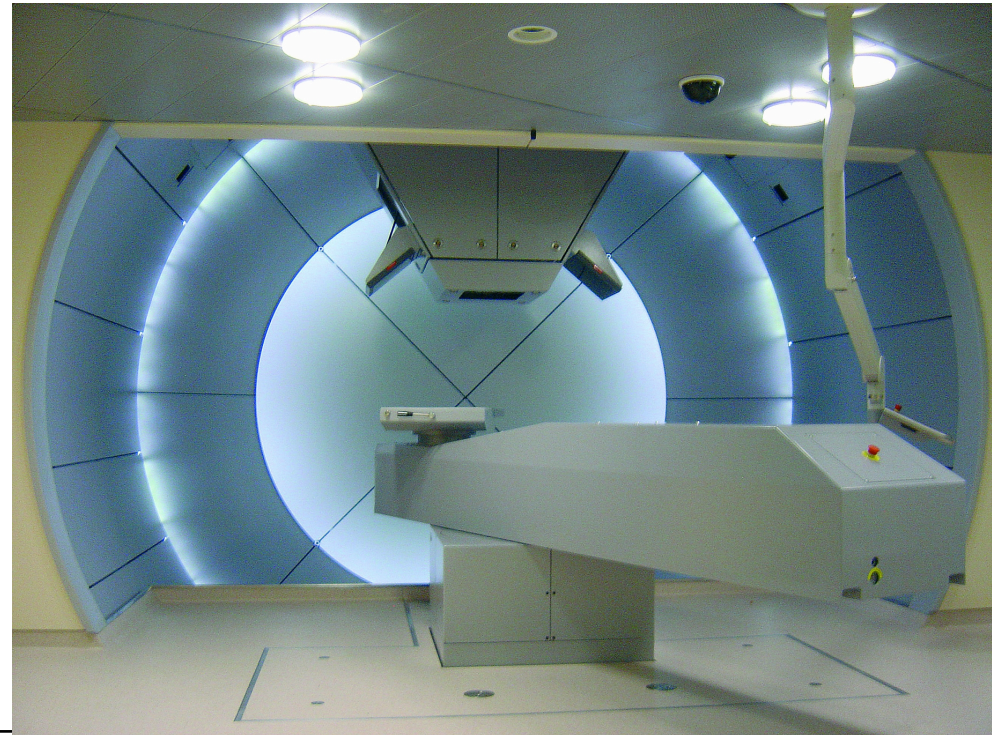
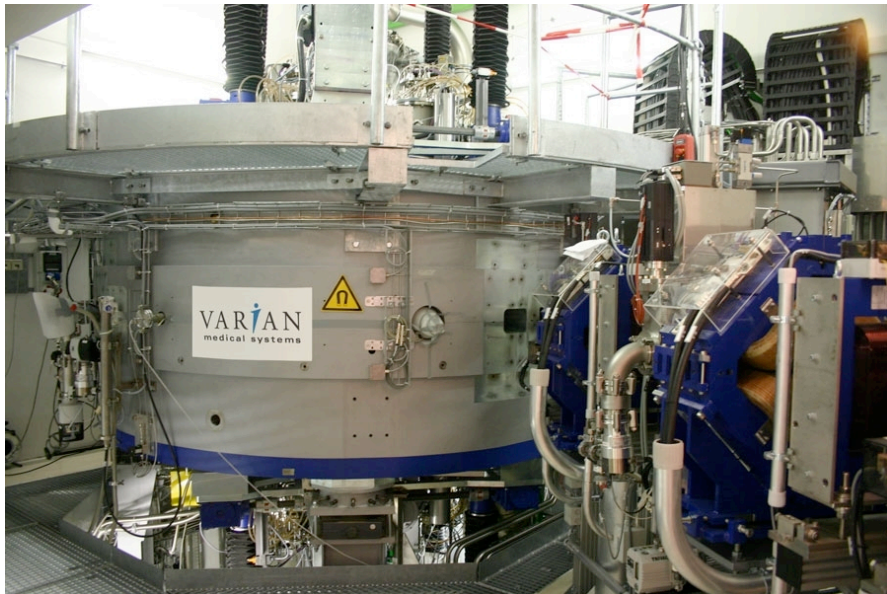
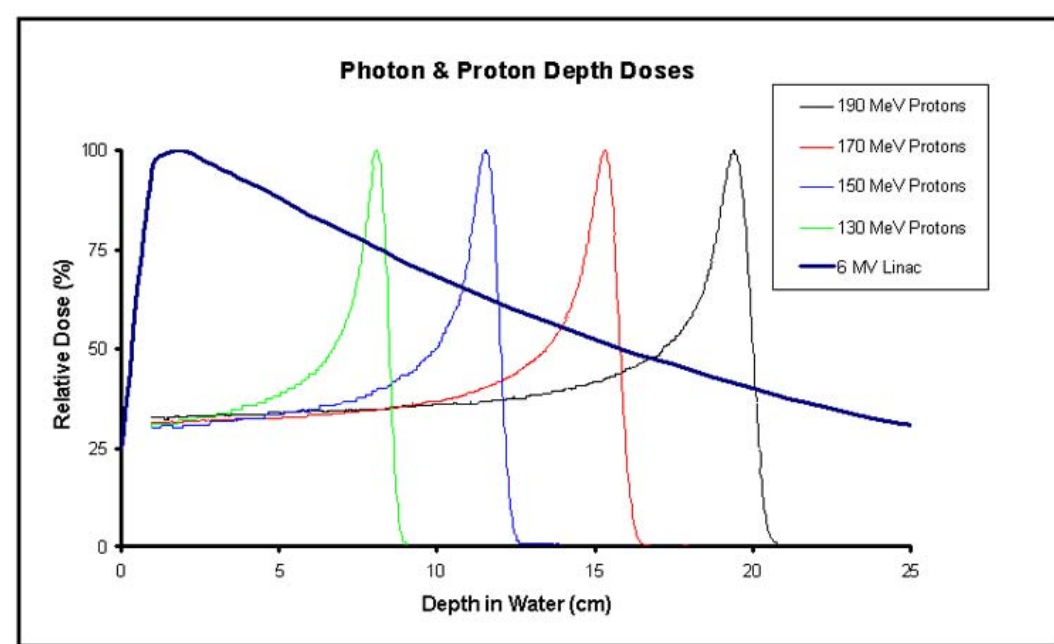
Write from left to right

Bragg curve: Different for X-rays and heavy particles

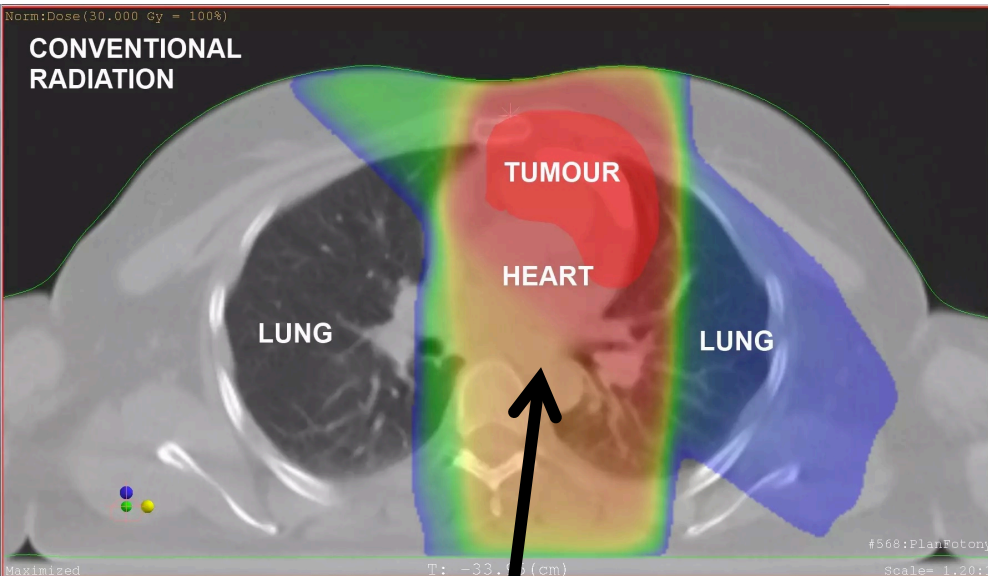


Application:

- Proton or
- Heavy Ion Therapy

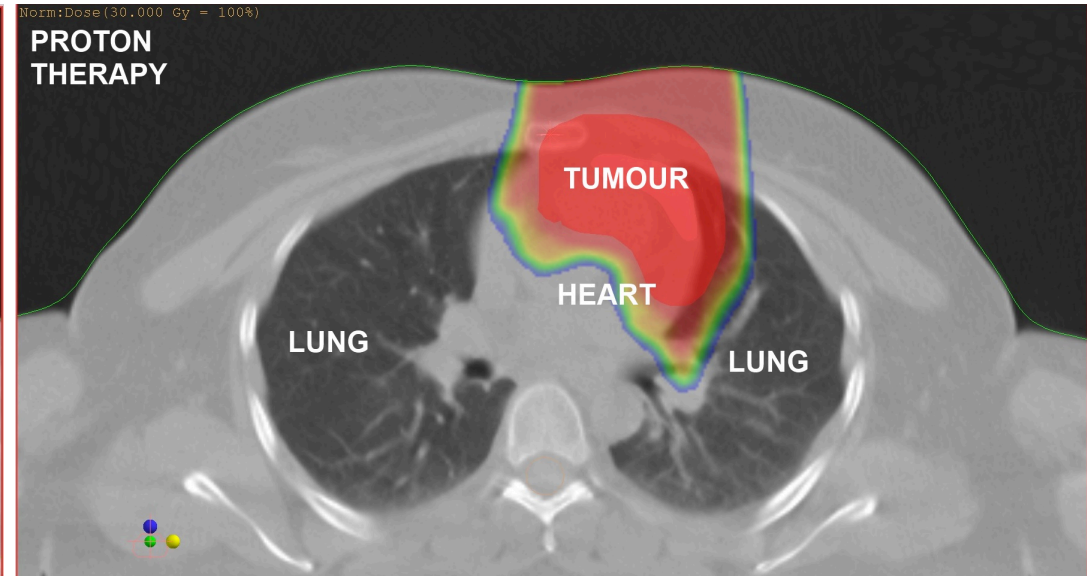


Advantage for tumor treatment



Higher irradiation of surrounding organs

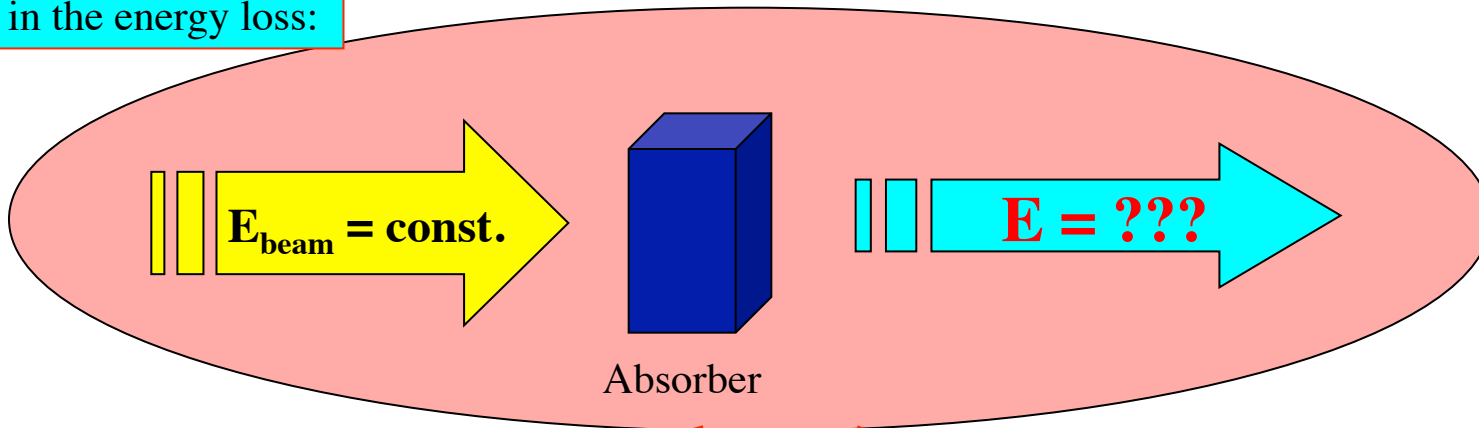
$$\text{For Photons X et } \gamma: I = I_0 e^{-\mu x}$$



With protons or heavy ions:

Heavy particles = less dispersion = better focused
 $dE/dx \rightarrow$ Bragg peak \rightarrow energy concentrated in tumor cells

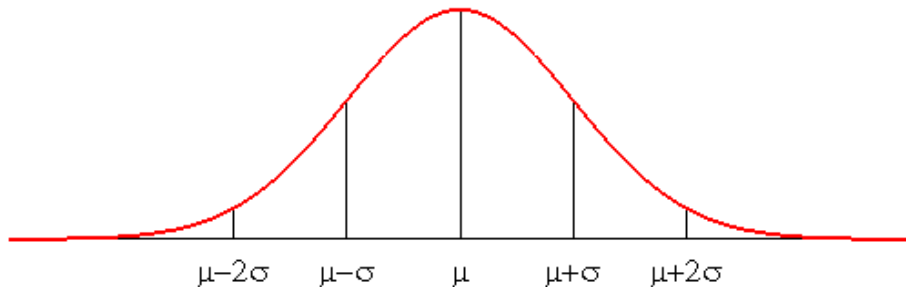
Fluctuations in the energy loss:



Thick Absorber:

Large number of collisions

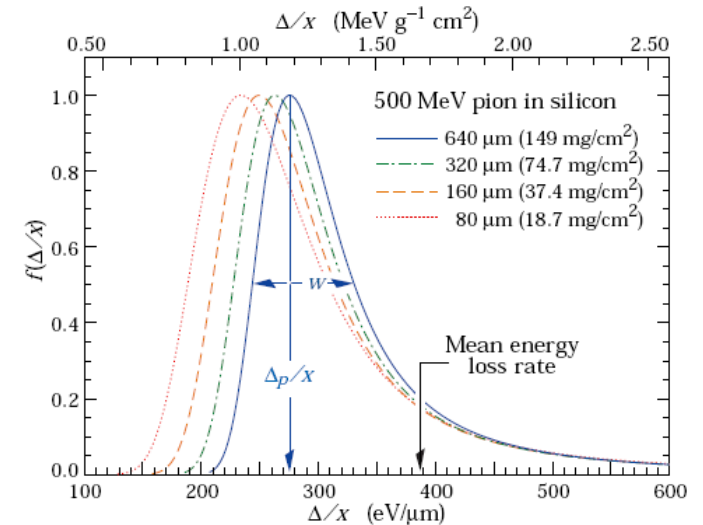
Gauss



Thin Absorber:

Small number of collisions

Landau Distribution



δ -Rays

- Energy loss distribution is not Gaussian around mean.
- In rare cases a lot of energy is transferred to a single electron

δ -Ray

- If one excludes δ -rays, the average energy loss changes
 - Equivalent of changing E_{\max}
-

Electrons

Energy loss of Electrons and Positrons

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{tot} = \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{rad} + \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{coll}$$

1. Energy loss by ionization like heavy particles:

Dominant at energies < 20 MeV

Bethe-Bloch Equation for electrons:

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right) = 0,307 \left(\frac{MeV}{g/cm^2}\right) \frac{Z}{A} \rho \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left(\ln \frac{2T(T + 2m_e)}{I \times m_e} - \beta^2 \right)$$

T = Kinetic energy of the electron

I = Ionization potential

Two modifications needed in the equation

Small mass \rightarrow larger deviation of the trajectory

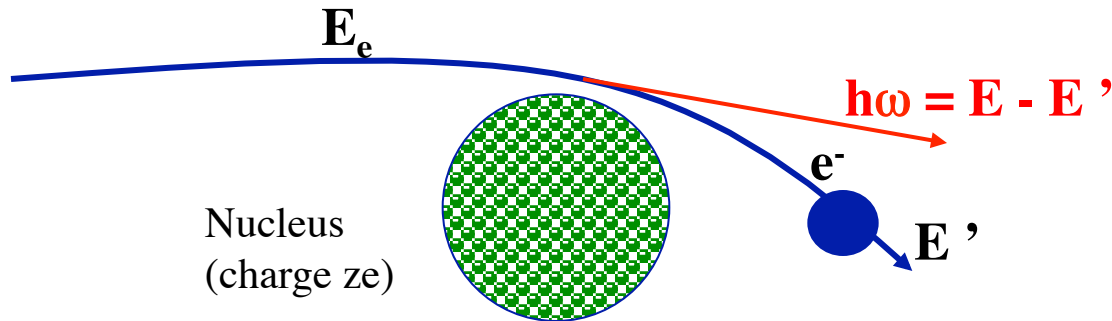
Diffusion of two identical particles (Pauli)

Energy loss of Electrons and Positrons

2. Energy loss by radiation (Bremsstrahlung): For $E > 20 \text{ MeV}$

Classical interpretation::

Radiation from the acceleration of an electron or positron in the field of the nucleus.



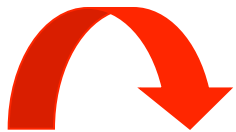
$$\frac{d\sigma}{dk} \cong 5\alpha z^2 Z^2 \left(\frac{m_e c^2}{Mc^2 \beta} \right)^2 \frac{r_e^2}{k} \ln \left(\frac{Mc^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2}{k} \right)$$

With k = Energy of the radiation (photons)

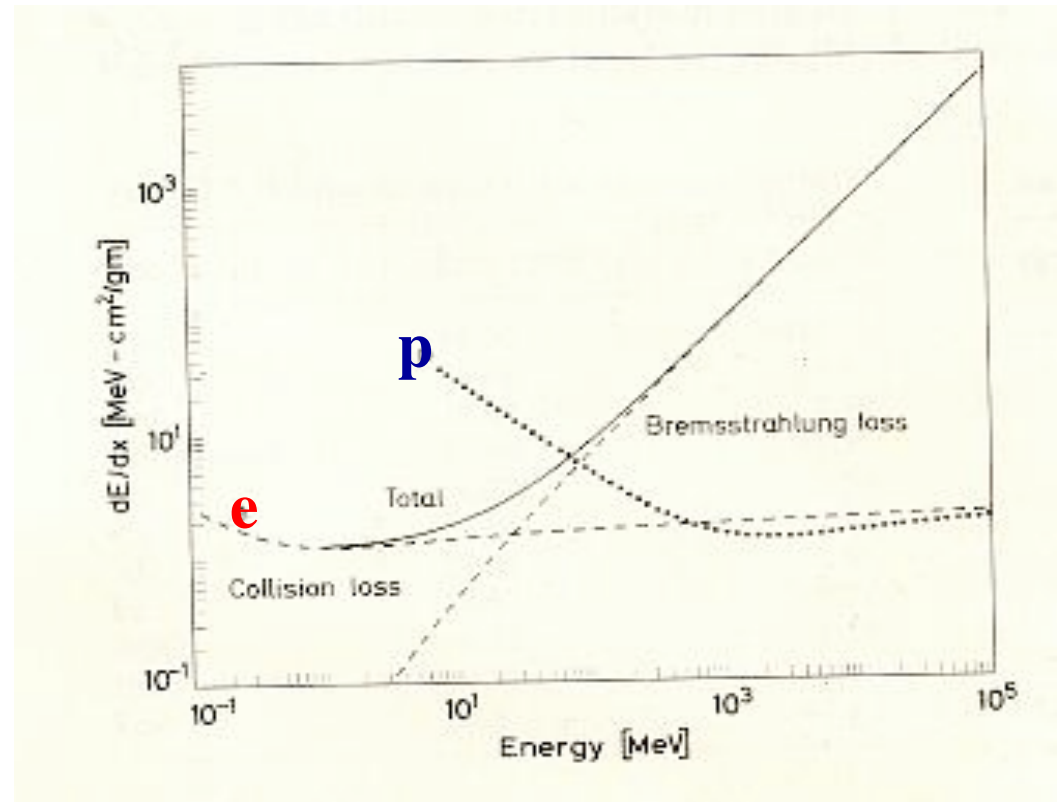
Energy loss of Electrons and Positrons

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dk} \propto \frac{1}{M_{\text{incomming particle}}}$$

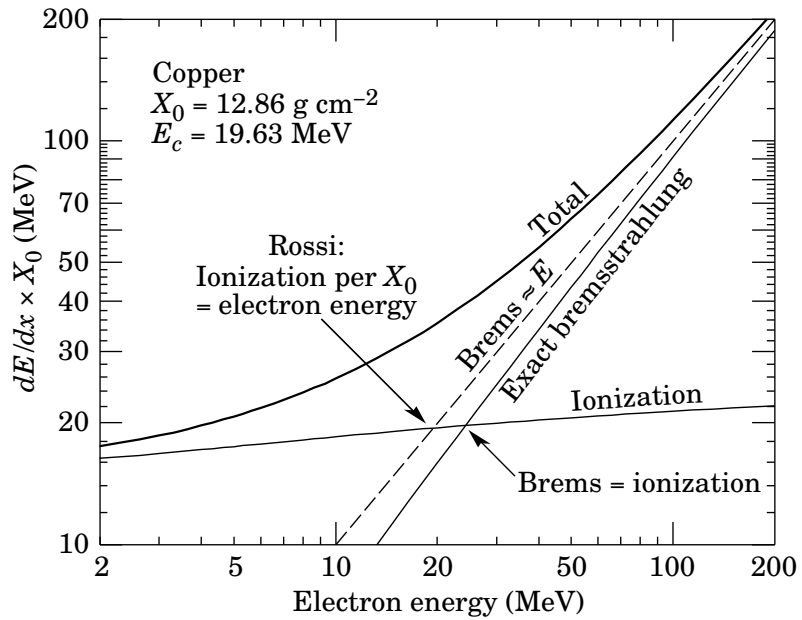
- For a muon ($M = 106 \text{ MeV}$) σ_{brems} is **40000** times smaller than for an electron!
- For a proton σ_{brems} is **roughly 4 million** times smaller!!!



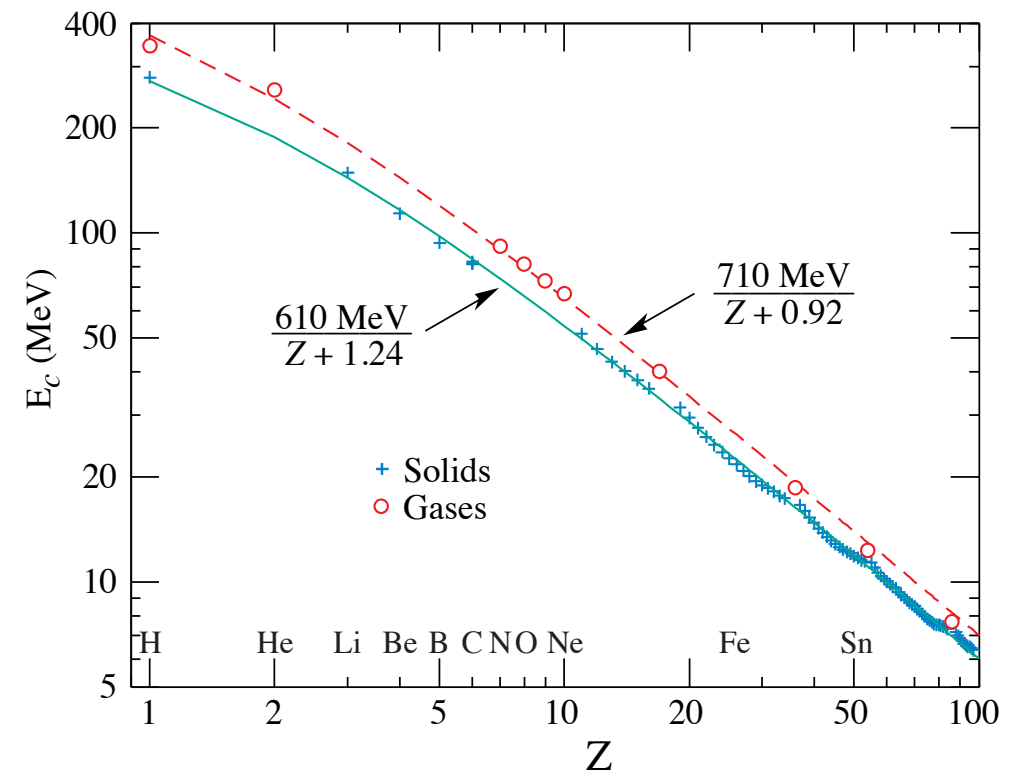
In first order, Energy loss by Bremsstrahlung is only relevant for electrons



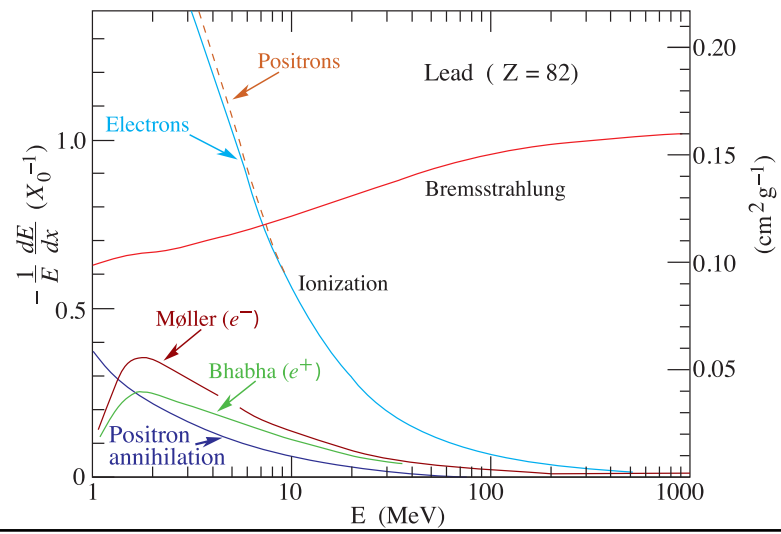
Definition of radiation length: X_0 = Average distance traveled by an electron before losing 1/e of its energy by Bremsstrahlung.



E_c [Critical Energy] Brems = Ionization



Fractional energy loss per radiation length:



Range of Electrons

Multiple scattering in matter:



The range is very different from the dE/dx by Bethe-Bloch

Differences from 20% to 400%

More fluctuations in dE/dx than for heavy particles:

- ➡ 1. Energy transfer in each collision is bigger
- ➡ 2. Bremsstrahlung

Some empirical formulas to calculate the range of electrons::

Sternheimer relation:

$$R_e(T) = (0.486 \text{ g cm}^{-2}) T^n$$

with $n = 1.265 - 0.954 \ln(T)$

T en MeV

Example: Electron with $T = 100 \text{ KeV}$ in a TPC

With He at 77 K and 5 bars:

$$R(T) = (0.486 \text{ g cm}^{-2} / 3,124 \times 10^{-3} \text{ g cm}^{-3}) T^{(1,265 - 0,0954 \ln(0,1))}$$

$$\underline{R(0,1\text{MeV}) = 5 \text{ cm}}$$

Range of Electrons

$$R(T) = A \times E \left(1 - \frac{B}{1 + CT} \right)$$

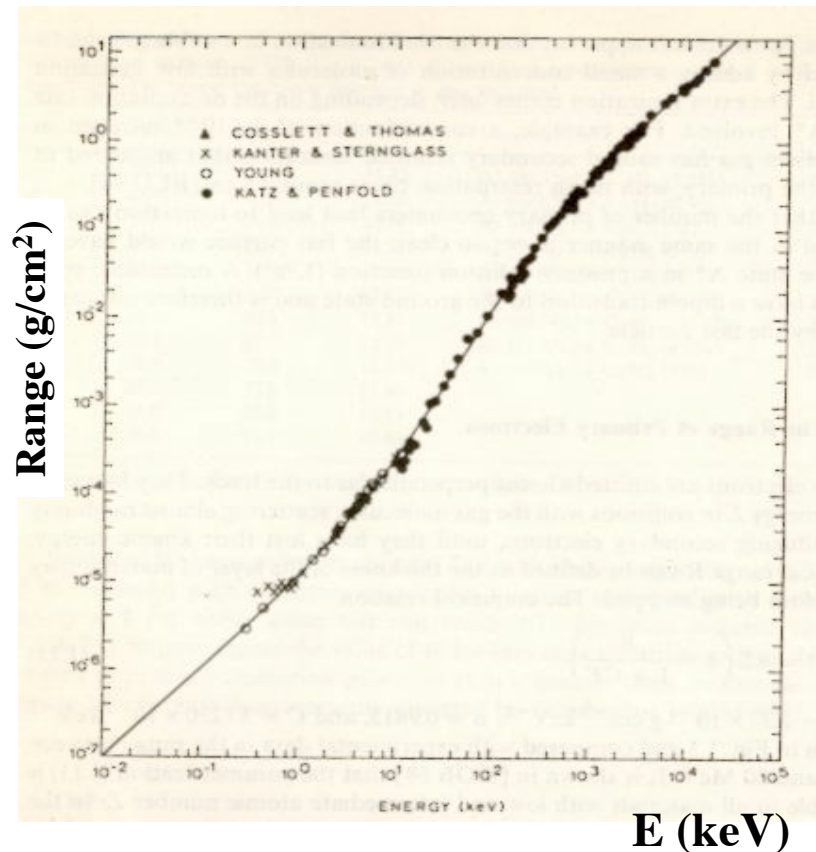
(Valid for small and medium Z)

Avec: $A = 5.37 \times 10^{-4} \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ KeV}^{-1}$

$B = 0.9815$

$C = 3.1230 \times 10^{-3} \text{ KeV}^{-1}$

$300 \text{ eV} < T < 20 \text{ MeV}$



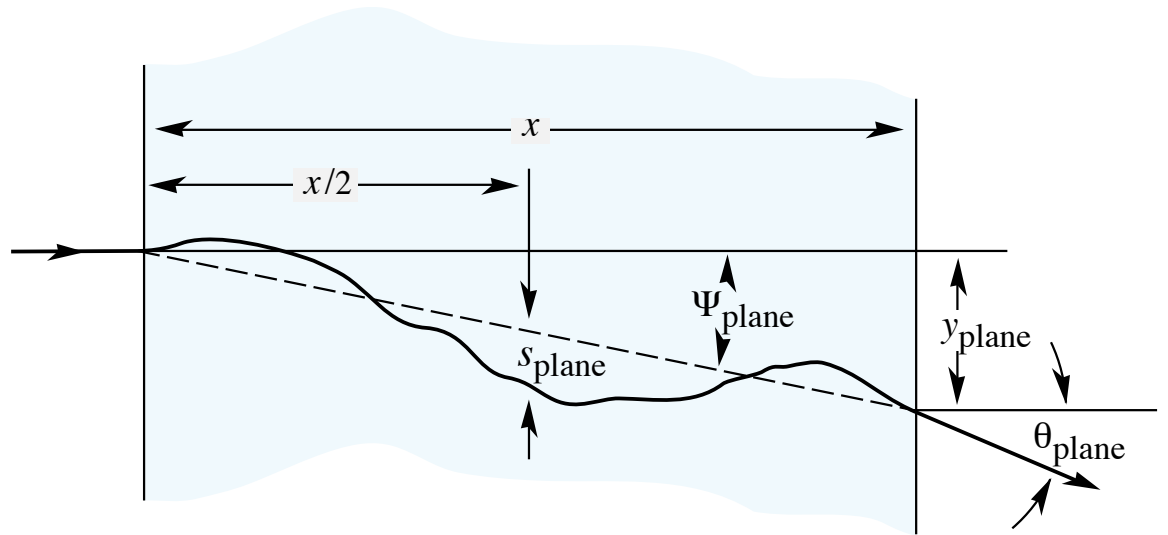
Blum, Rolandi: Particle Detection with Drift Chambers
Springer Verlag, 1993

Multiple scattering through small angles

- Charged particles traversing a medium are deflected by many small angle scatters.
- Scattering is mostly due to Coulomb scattering from nuclei. (for hadrons strong interaction also contributes)
- Angular distribution described by Molière theory and is in first approximation Gaussian.
- For large angles = Rutherford scattering (larger tails than the Gaussian distribution).

Gaussian approximation:

$$\theta_0 = \theta_{plane}^{rms} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \theta_{space}^{rms}$$



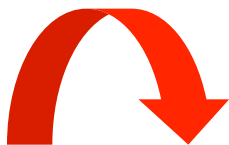
$$\theta_0 = \frac{13.6 \text{ MeV}}{\beta c \times p} z \sqrt{x / X_0} (1 + 0.038 \ln \{x / X_0\})$$

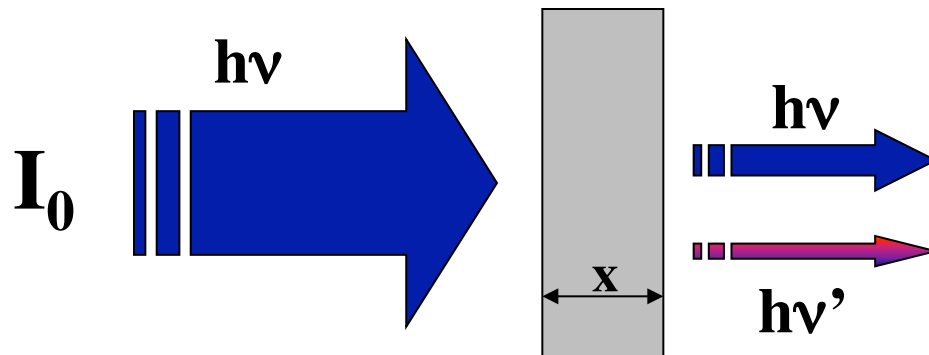
p , βc , z are momentum, velocity and charge of the incoming particle

Interactions of Photons

Interactions of Photons

Electric charge = 0  **No Coulomb scattering with electrons of matter**

- 
- Deeper penetration in matter (smaller cross section)
 - A beam of photons traversing a slab of matter is attenuated in **intensity**, NOT in energy!
 - Beam photons which passed through did NOT undergo an interaction.
 - If they had an interaction, they change energy.



$$I(x) = I_0 \exp(-\mu x)$$

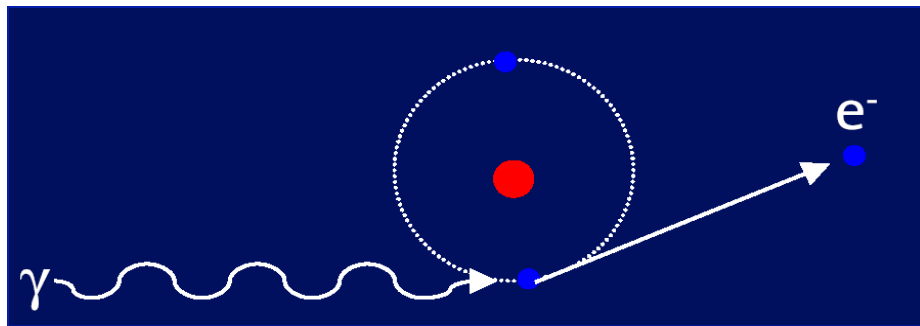
With: I_0 = Intensity of the beam
 μ = photon absorption coefficient
 x = path length

Interactions of Photons

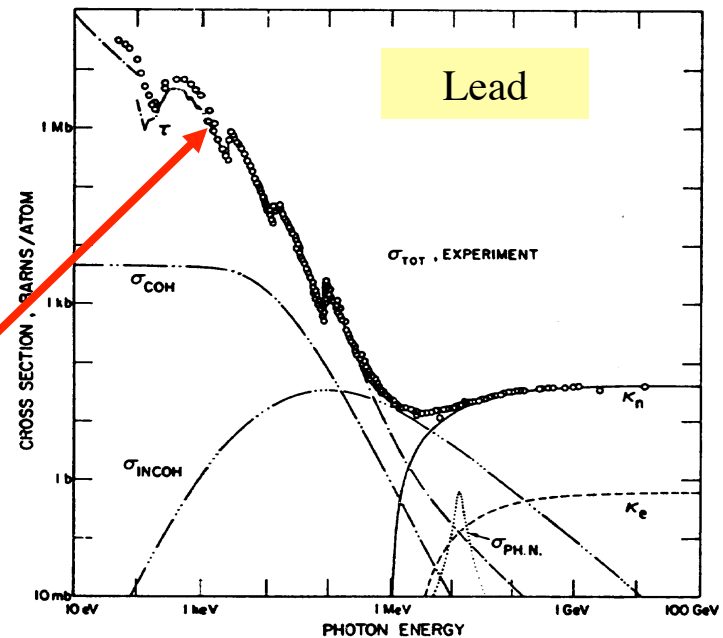
Three dominant Interactions:

1. Photoelectric effect: absorption of the photon, ejection of the electron

$$E_{(\text{electron})} = h\nu - E_{\text{binding}}$$



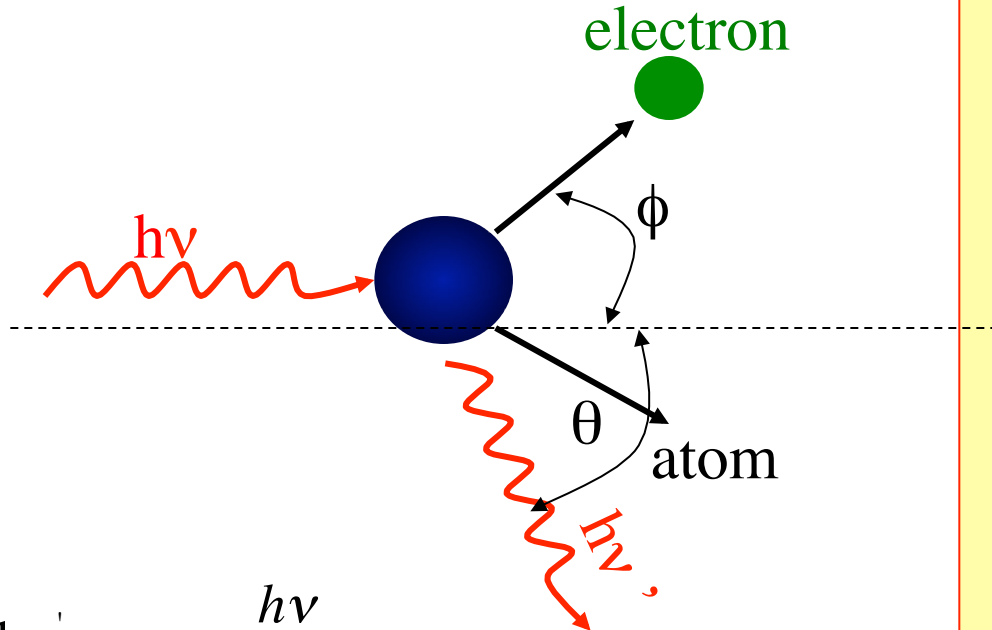
$$\sigma_{ph} = 4\sqrt{2}\alpha^4 Z^5 \left(\frac{8\pi r_e^2}{3}\right) \left(\frac{m_e c^2}{h\nu}\right)^{\frac{7}{2}}$$



Einstein: Prix Nobel 1921 pour l'explication de l'effet photoélectrique

Interactions of Photons

2. Compton Scattering: elastic scattering on a free electron

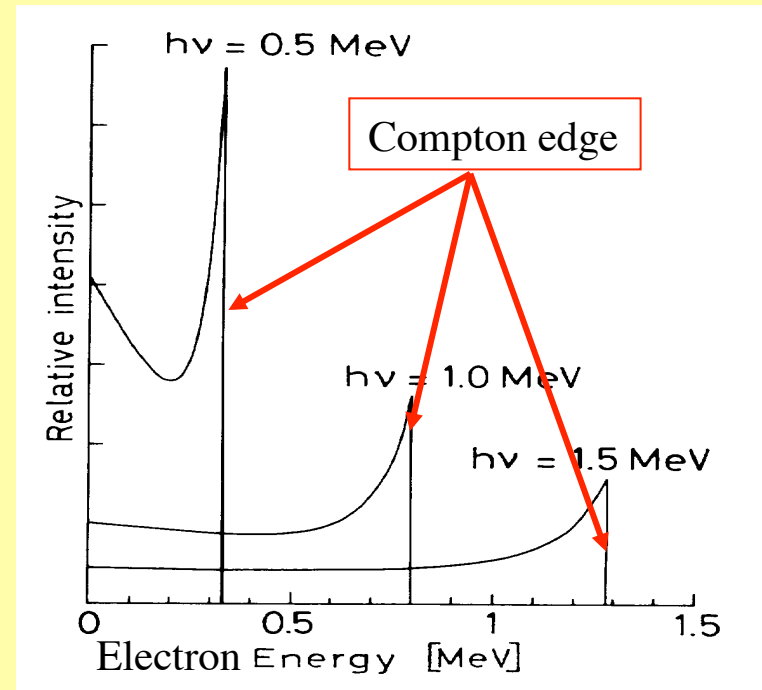


$$h\nu' = \frac{h\nu}{1 + \gamma(1 - \cos\theta)}$$

$$T = h\nu - h\nu' = h\nu \frac{\gamma(1 - \cos\theta)}{1 + \gamma(1 - \cos\theta)}$$

$$\cot\varphi = (1 + \gamma) \tan\frac{\theta}{2}, \gamma = h\nu / m_e c^2$$

Energy distribution of Compton recoil electrons:

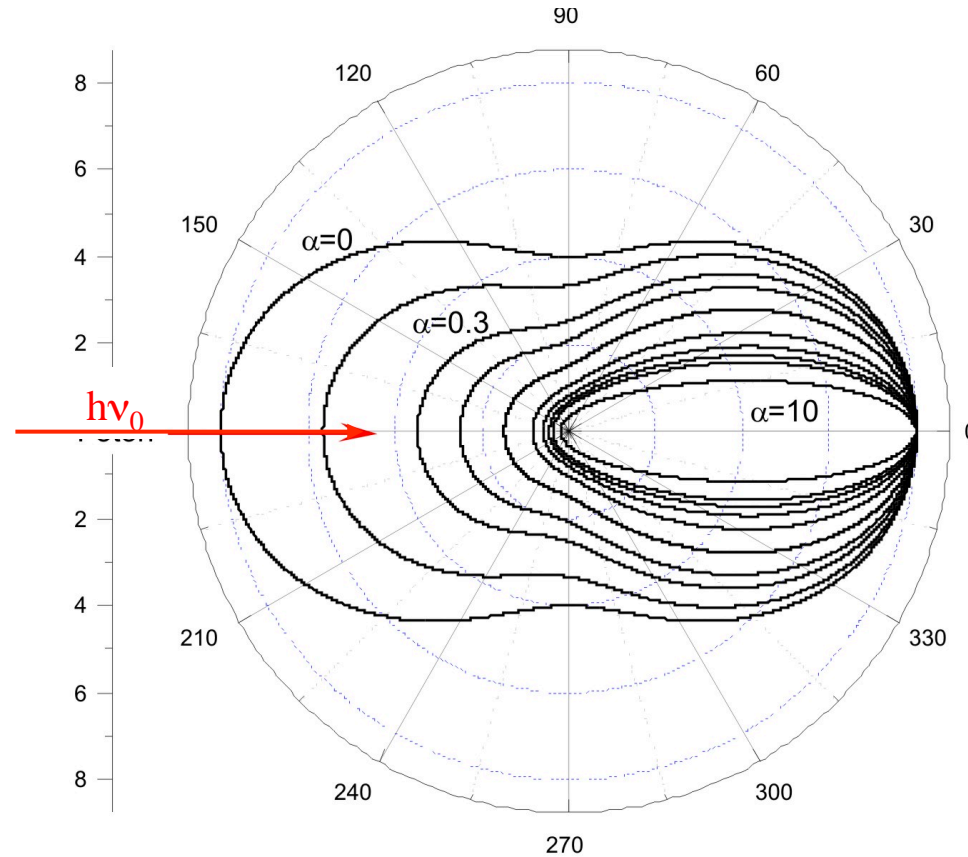


$$T_{\max} = E_{\gamma, \text{in}} \frac{2\gamma}{1 + 2\gamma}$$

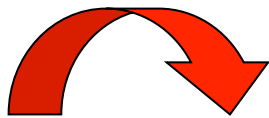
Compton scattering:

Angular distribution of the scattered photon

$$\alpha = h\nu_0 / m_0c^2$$
$$m_0c^2 = 0.511 \text{ MeV}$$



α large

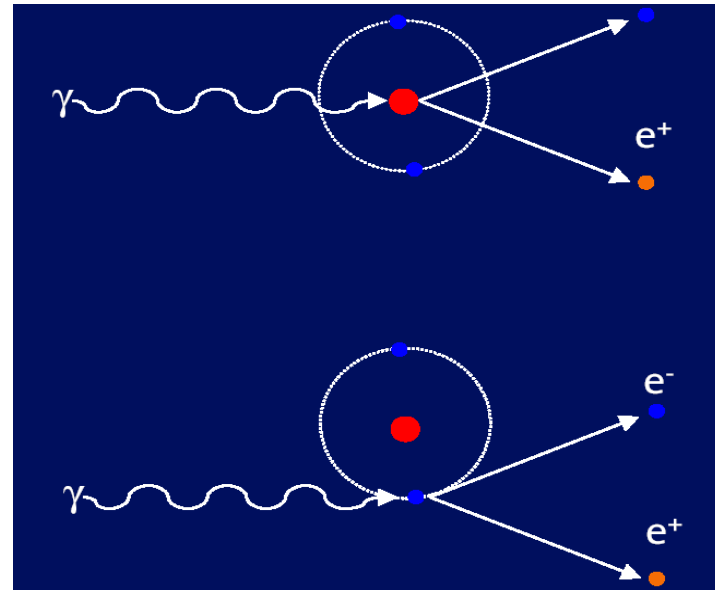


Photons scattered in forward direction

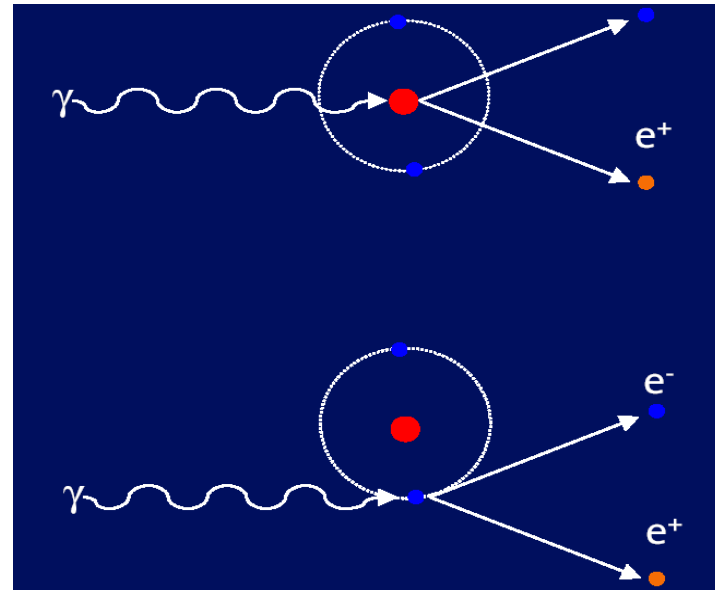
Interactions of Photons

3. Pair Production: absorption of the photon and creation of a pair electron - positron

Creation in the field of the nucleus



Creation in the field of the electron



$$E_{\text{threshold}} = 2m_e c^2 = 1,022 \text{ MeV}$$

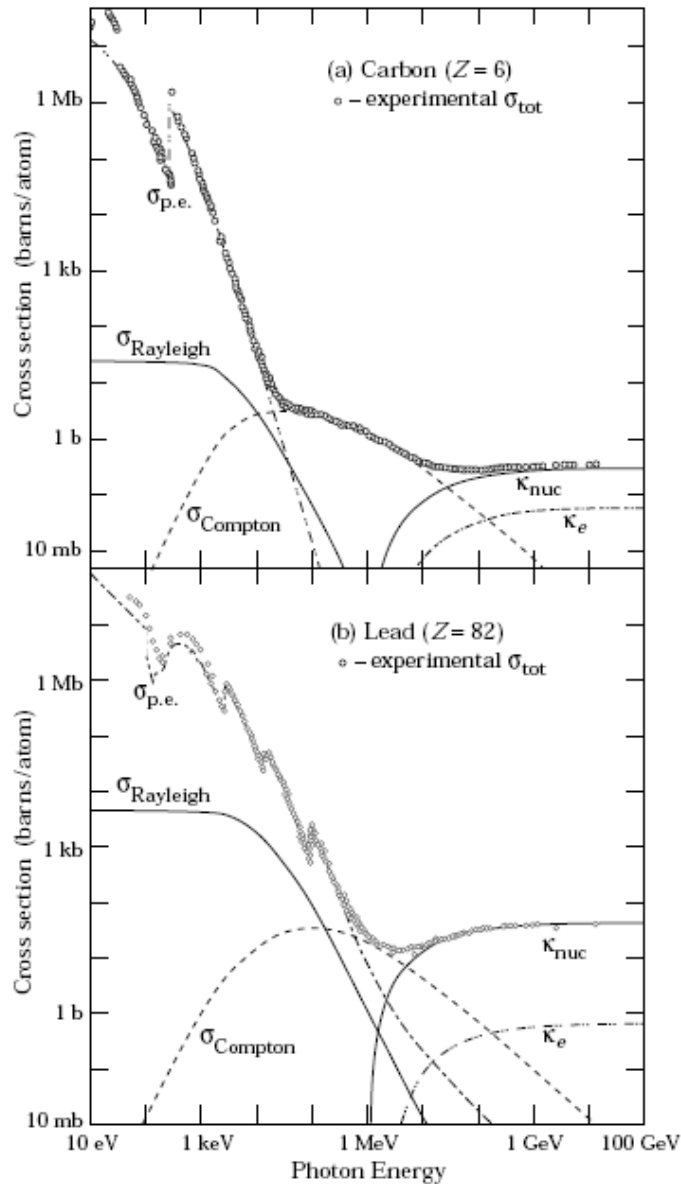
At high energies ($E_\gamma \gg 137m_e c^2 Z^{-1/3}$) the pair production cross section is almost constant

$$\sigma_{\text{paire}} = 4Z^2 \alpha r_e^2 \left[\frac{7}{9} \{ \ln(183Z^{-1/3}) - f(Z) \} - \frac{1}{54} \right]$$

$f(z)$ = correction à l'approximation de Born pour l'interaction coulombienne d'électron dans le champ électrique du noyau

$$\sigma = \frac{7}{9} \left(\frac{A}{X_0 N_A} \right) \quad \text{For } E > 1 \text{ GeV and high } Z$$

Cross Sections for Photon Interactions:



$\sigma_{p.e.}$ = effet photo-électrique atomique
 (absorption du photon, émission d 'un électron)

$$\sigma_{pe} \approx Z^5$$

$\sigma_{coherent}$ = diffusion cohérente
 (diffusion Rayleigh - ni ionisation, ni excitation
 d 'atome tout les électrons d 'atome en
 contribution les photons ne perdent pas d 'énergie)

$\sigma_{incoherent}$ = diffusion incohérente
 (diffusion Compton sur un électron)

$$\sigma_{compton} \approx Z$$

σ_{nuc} = absorption nucléaire

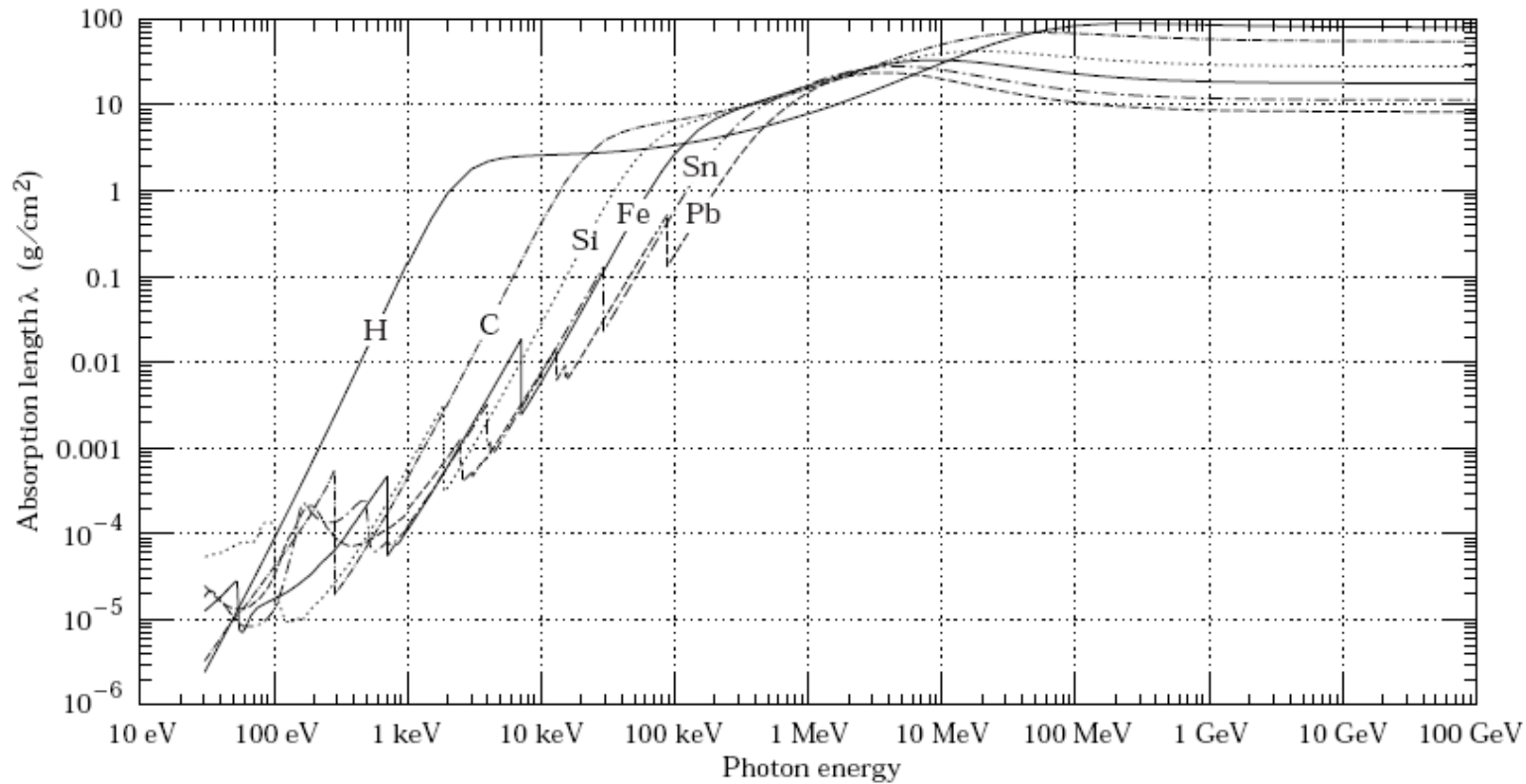
κ_n = production paire dans champ nucléaire

κ_e = production paire dans champ électronique

$$\sigma_{pair} \approx Z^2$$

Interactions of Photons

Photon mass attenuation length (mean free flight path)



$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\mu/\rho} \quad \text{where } \mu/\rho \text{ is the mass attenuation coefficient, } \rho = \text{density}$$

Electromagnetic Cascades:

High Energy Photon or Electron



Pair production and Bremsstrahlung



Generation of many electrons and photons of lower energy



Pair production and Bremsstrahlung



Generation of many electrons and photons of lower energy



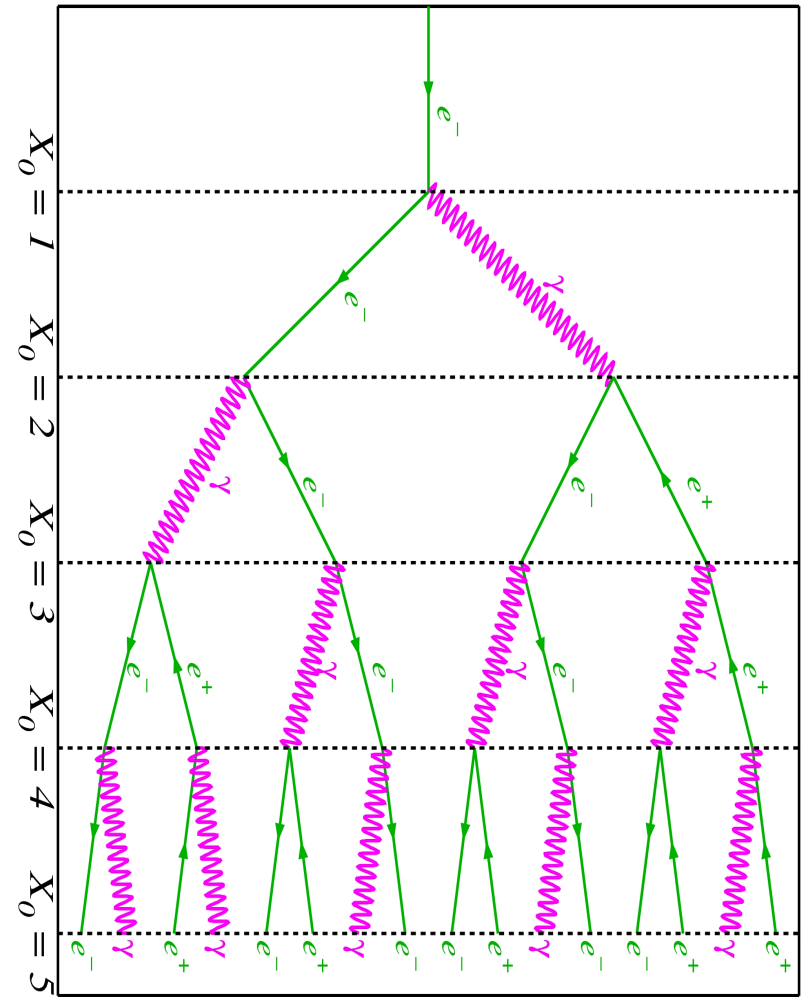
$E = E_{\text{critique}}$



Cascade stops



dE/dx by ionization



Some simple approximation:

1/ Longitudinal development:

An interaction occurs after each radiation length, after t radiation lengths we have a total of $N = 2^t$ particles

Each particle has an average energy of $E(t) = E_0 / 2^t$

Maximum penetration length of the cascade:

$$E(t_{\max}) = E_0 / 2^{t_{\max}} = E_c$$

$$t_{\max} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{E_0}{E_c}\right)}{\ln 2} \text{ and the maximum number of particles produced is } N_{\max} \cong \frac{E_0}{E_c}$$

2/ Transversal dimensions:

$$\text{Molière radius : } R_M = X_0 \frac{E_s}{E_c} \text{ with } E_s = \sqrt{4\pi/\alpha} \times m_e c^2 = 21 \text{ MeV (scale energy)}$$

90% of the particles stay inside a cylinder with R_M around the shower axis.

Cherenkov Radiation

Cherenkov Radiation



Pavel Alekseyevich Cherenkov

1904-1990

Physics Institute of USSR Academy of
Sciences, Moscow

Nobel prize in 1958

Cherenkov Radiation

A particle goes faster than the speed of light in the material

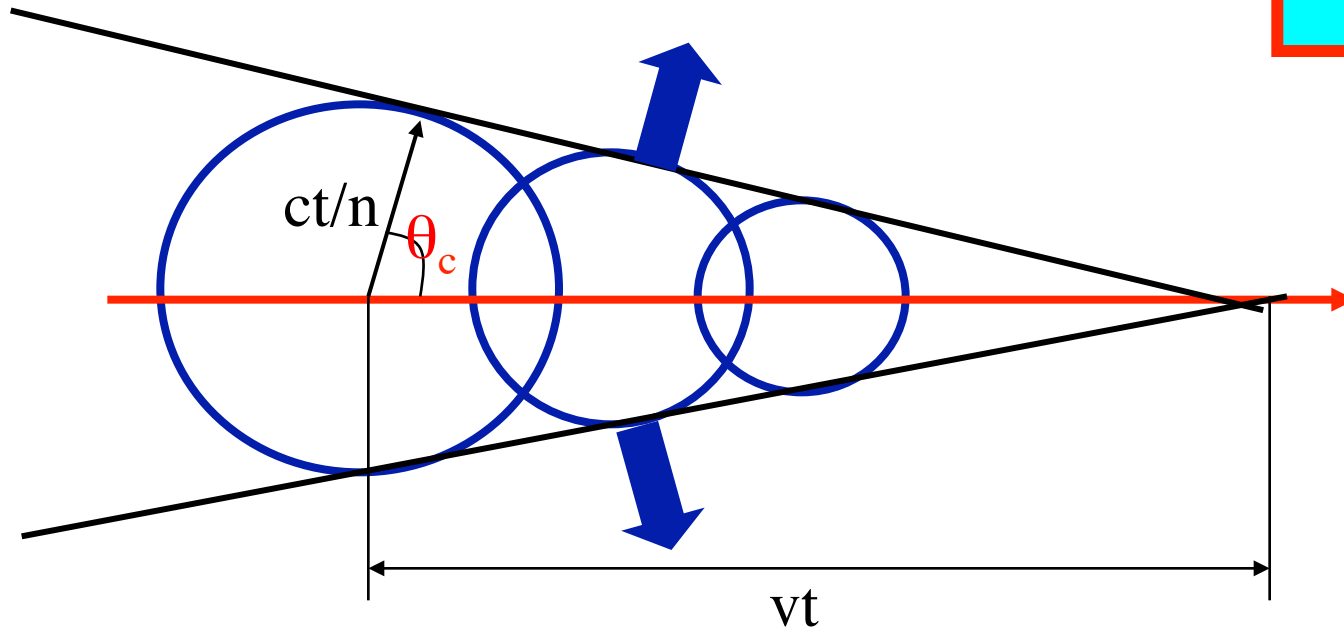


Emission of Cherenkov radiation

$\beta c = v = c/n$, n = index of refraction of the medium

Condition: $v_{\text{part}} > c/n$

$$\cos\theta_c = \frac{ct/n}{\beta ct} = \frac{1}{\beta n}$$



Cherenkov Radiation

θ_c = Cherenkov angle

Radiation of « Cherenkov » photons with a continues spectrum

The photons are polarized

Firs theory by
Tamm et Frank
(Prix Nobel
with Cherenkov)

$$\left(-\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{Cherenkov}} = \frac{4\pi e^2}{c^2} \int \omega d\omega \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 n^2} \right)$$

This is already included in the
 dE/dx by Bethe & Bloch
(relativistic rise)

Energy loss by Cherenkov radiation:

$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{Cherenkov}} \cong 10^{-3} \text{ MeVcm}^2\text{g}^{-1}$$

Energy loss by collision in H_2 :

$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{Coll}} \cong 0,1 \text{ MeVcm}^2\text{g}^{-1}$$

Energy loss by collision in a gas with large Z :

$$-\left(\frac{dE}{dx} \right)_{\text{Coll}} \cong 0,01 \text{ MeVcm}^2\text{g}^{-1}$$

Cherenkov Radiation

Number of Cherenkov photons per path length of a particle of charge ze and per unit of photon energy:

$$\frac{d^2N}{dEdx} = \frac{\alpha^2 z^2}{r_e m_e c^2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 n^2(E)} \right)$$

$$\approx 370 \sin^2\theta_c(E) \text{ eV}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1} \quad (\text{with } z = 1)$$

For photons of $400 \text{ nm} < \lambda < 700 \text{ nm}$



$$N/L \approx 490 \sin^2\theta_c$$

Example: How to build a huge Water Cherenkov detector?

Question: Should one use a normal window or Silica for the PM?

$$\frac{dN}{dx} = 2\pi z^2 \alpha \sin^2 \theta \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \frac{d\lambda}{\lambda^2} \quad \text{avec} \quad 2\pi z^2 \alpha = 4,584 \times 10^{-2}$$

Pour H₂O: n = 1.33

cosθ = 1/βn, avec β = 1: θ = 41.25°

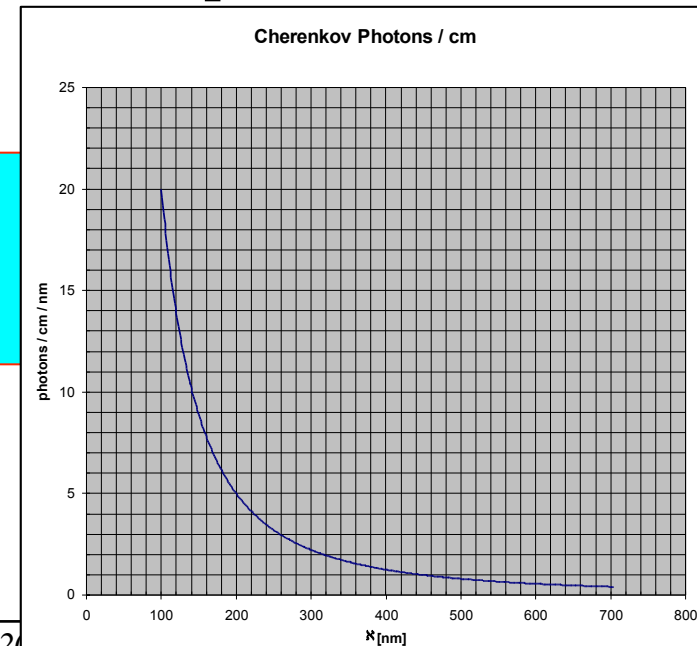
sin²θ = 0.437

$$\frac{dN}{dx} = 2\pi z^2 \alpha \sin^2 \theta \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \frac{d\lambda}{\lambda^2} = 2 \times 10^{-2} \left[\frac{1}{\lambda_{\min}} - \frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}} \right] \text{ [photons/nm]}$$

$$\frac{dN}{dx} = 2 \times 10^5 \left[\frac{1}{\lambda_{\min}} - \frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}} \right] \text{ [photons/cm]} \quad (\lambda \text{ en nm})$$

For 180 nm – 550 nm: dN / dx = 747 photons / cm

For 380 nm – 550 nm: dN / dx = 303 photons / cm

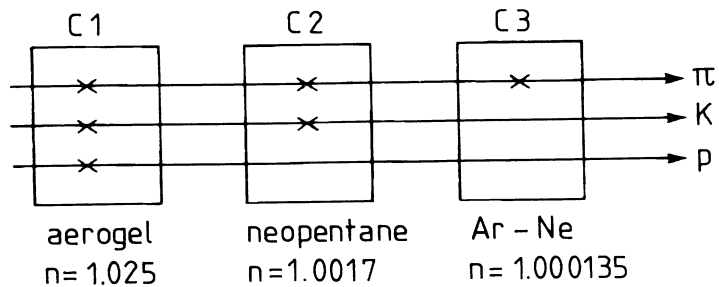


Cherenkov Detectors

- **Threshold counter** (Yes / No)
- **Differential counter** (uses the Cherenkov angle)
- **Ring imaging counter** (uses the image of the Cherenkov ring)

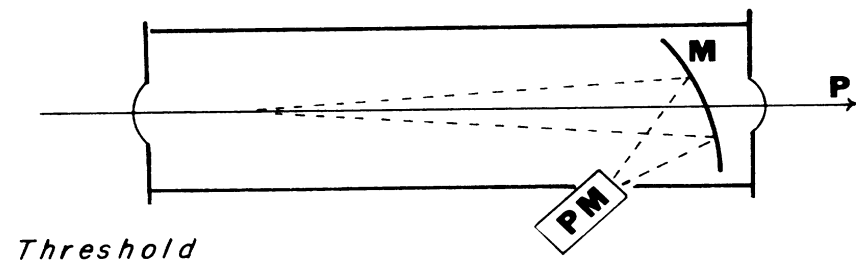
1. Threshold counter: Particle ID over threshold:

$$\beta_t = \frac{1}{n}$$



Example for He:

electrons	63 MeV/c
kaons	61 GeV/c
pions	17 GeV/c
protons	115 GeV/c



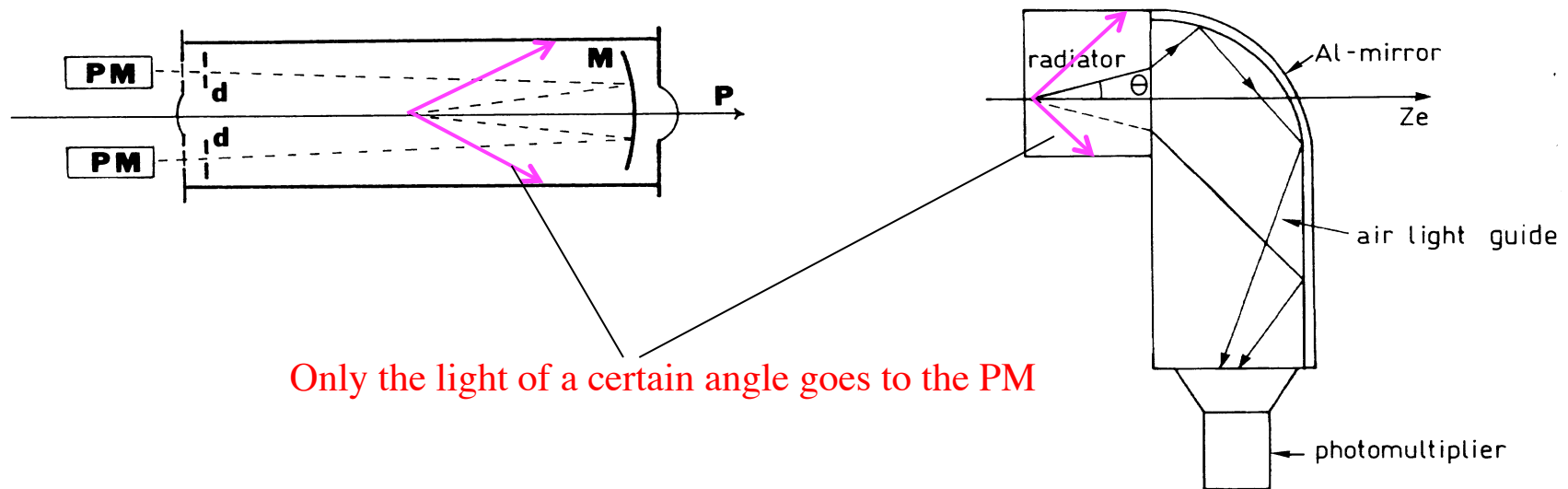
Cherenkov Detectors

2. Différentiel counters: Emission of Cherenkov light at a defined angle:

For a given momentum, $\cos\theta$ is fonction of the mass

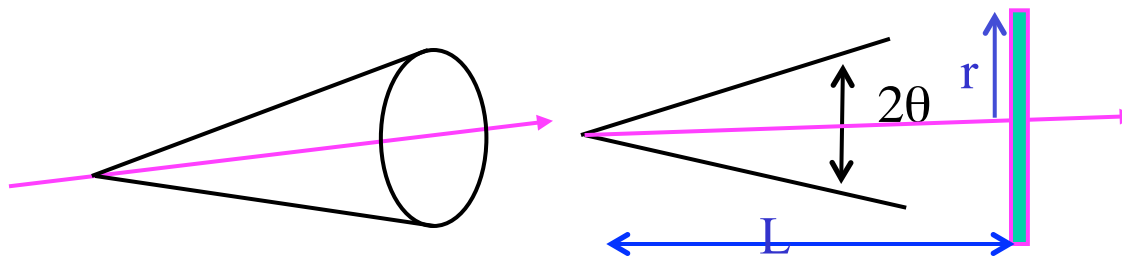
$$\cos\theta = \frac{1}{n\beta} = \frac{1}{n(p/E)} = \frac{\sqrt{m^2 + p^2}}{np}$$

Used as beam monitor: e.g. contamination of π and k.

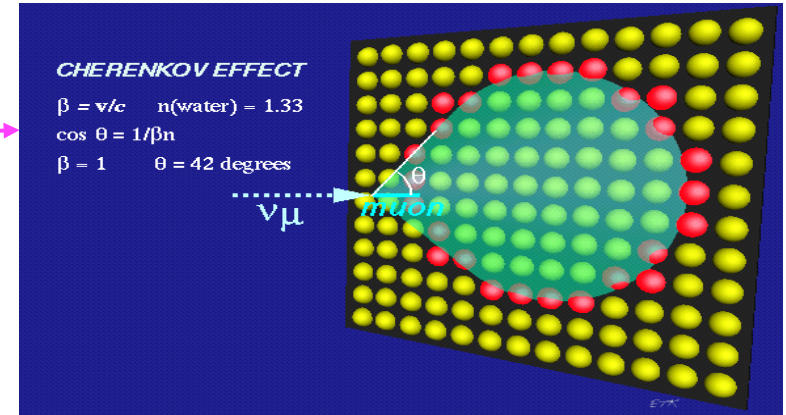


Cherenkov Detectors

3. Ring imaging counter (RICH):



$$r = L \times \tan\theta$$



Incoming particle with $p = 1 \text{ GeV}/c$, $L = 1 \text{ m}$, in LiF ($n = 1.392$):

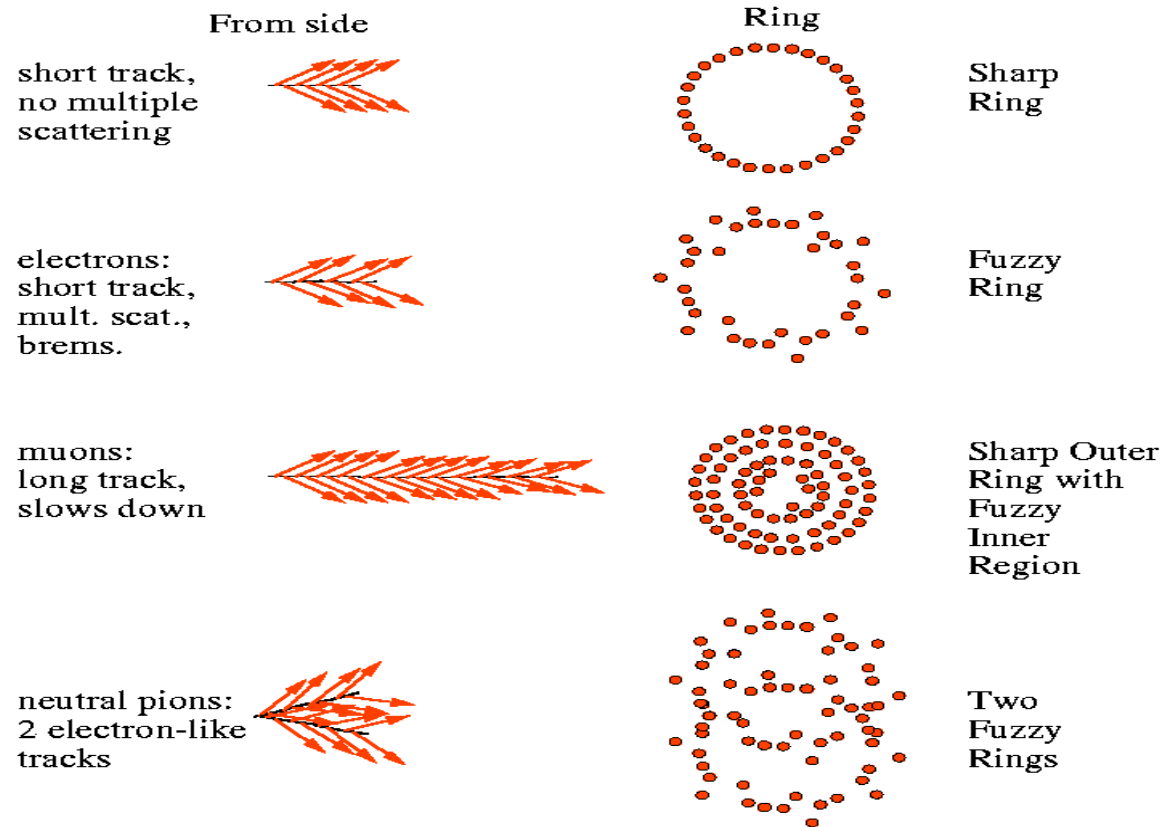
	$\theta(\text{deg})$	$r(\text{m})$
π	43.5	0.95
K	36.7	0.75
P	9.95	0.18

Very good $\pi/K/p$ separation

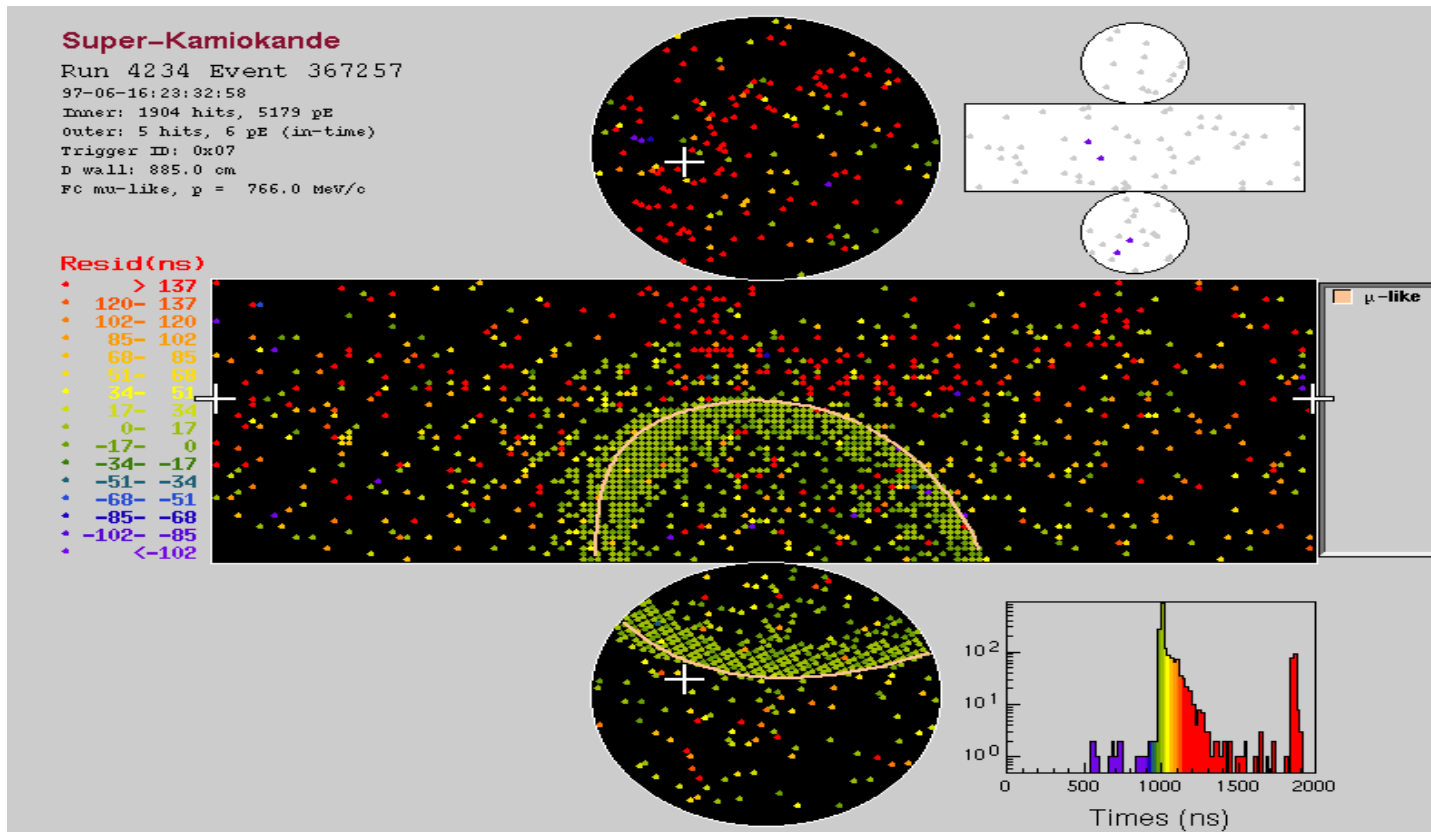
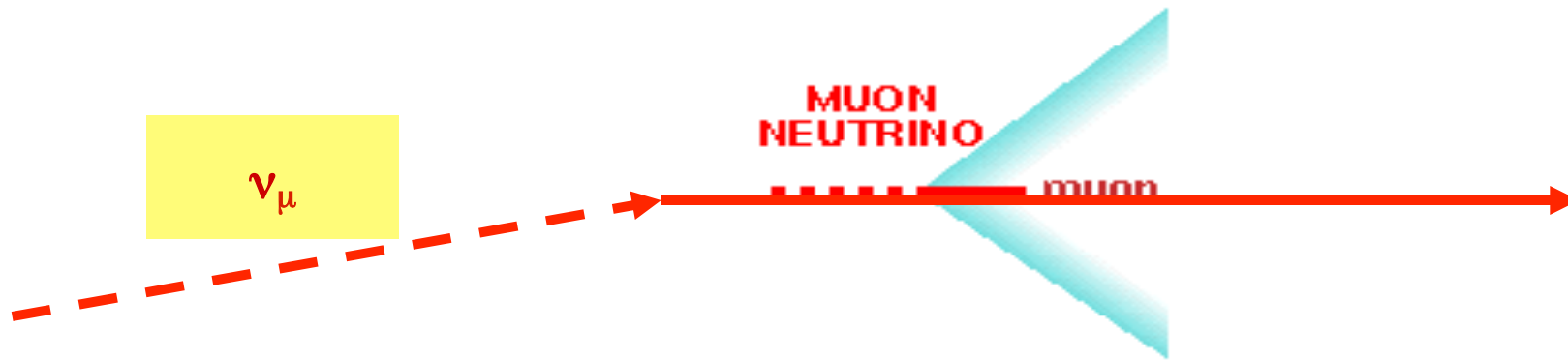


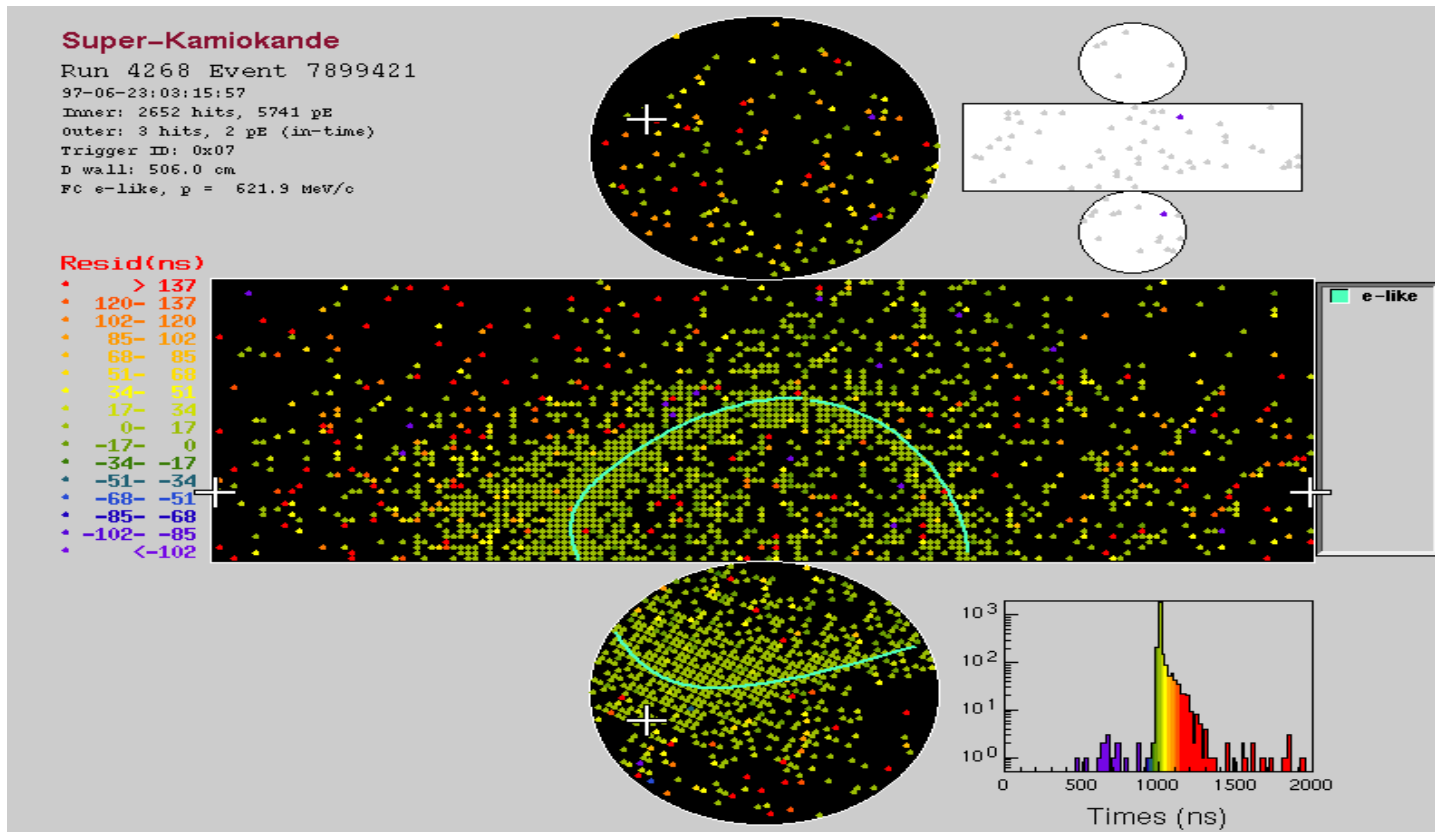
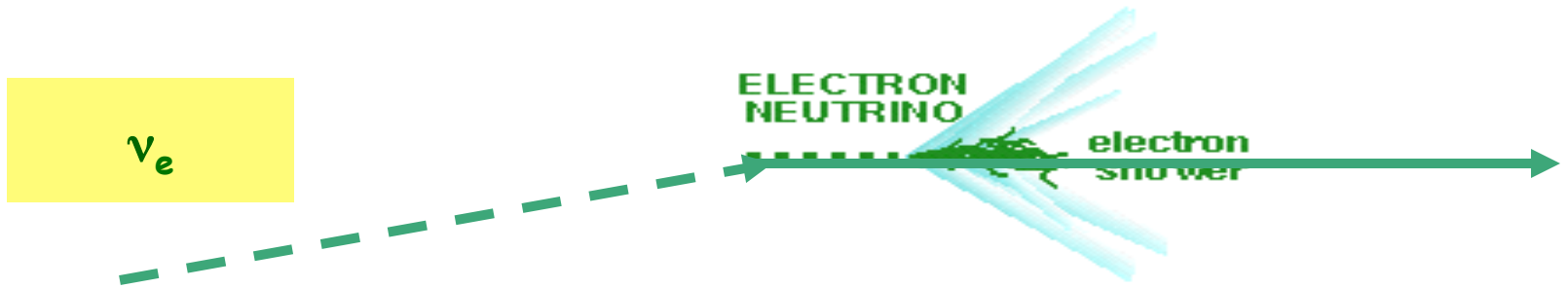
Particle ID

Particle ID in a Cerenkov Detector:



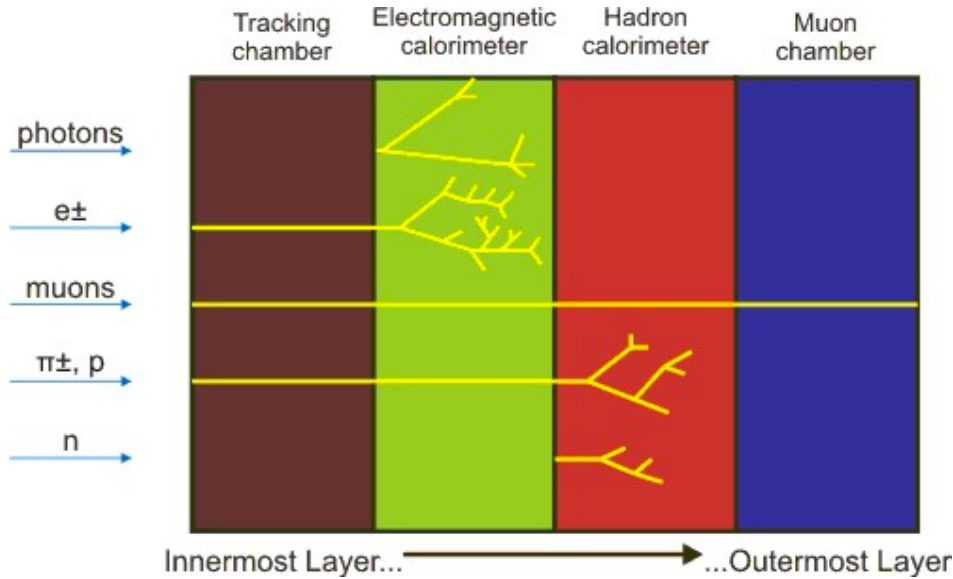
From SK and Miniboone)



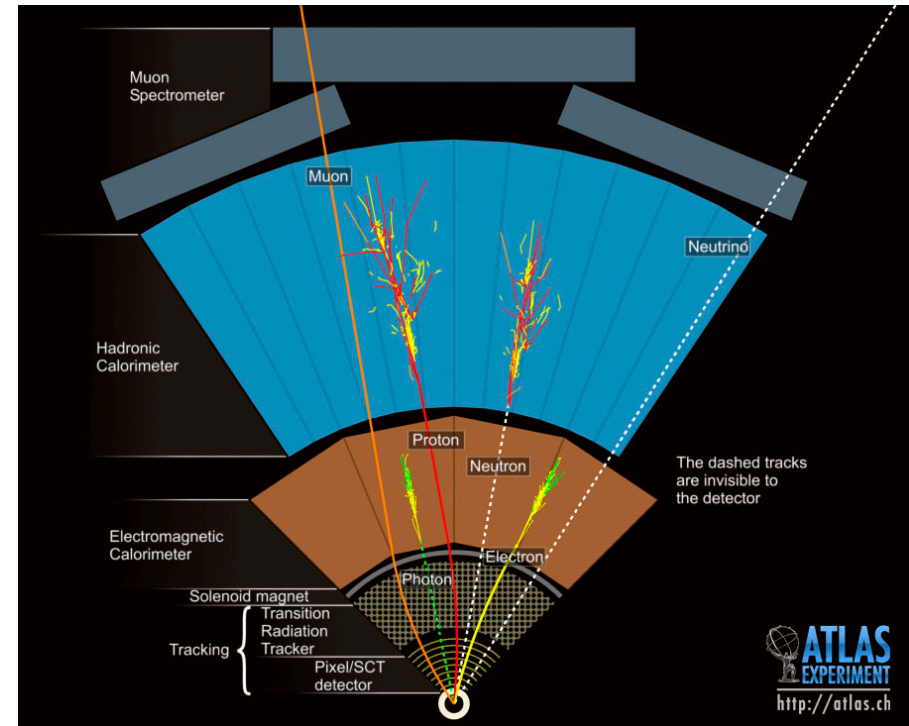


Different interactions = different interaction length = typical HEP detector:

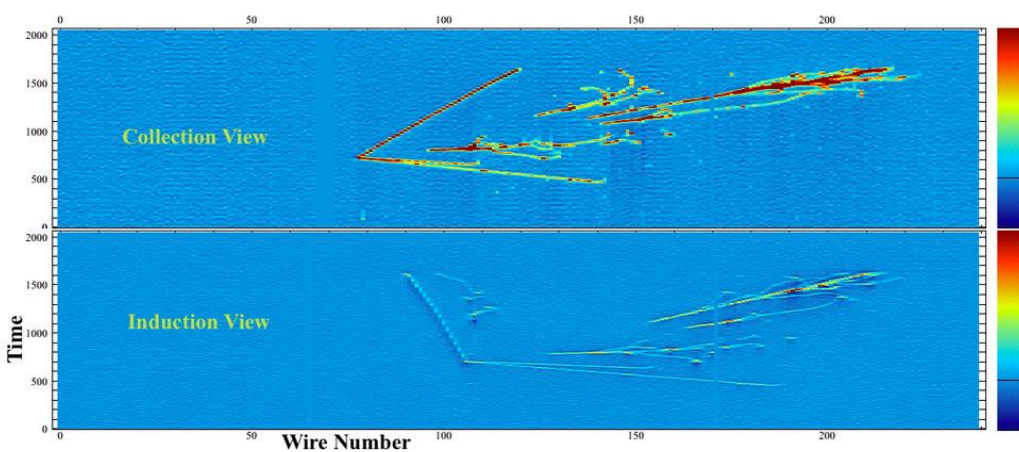
Generic detector:



Atlas:

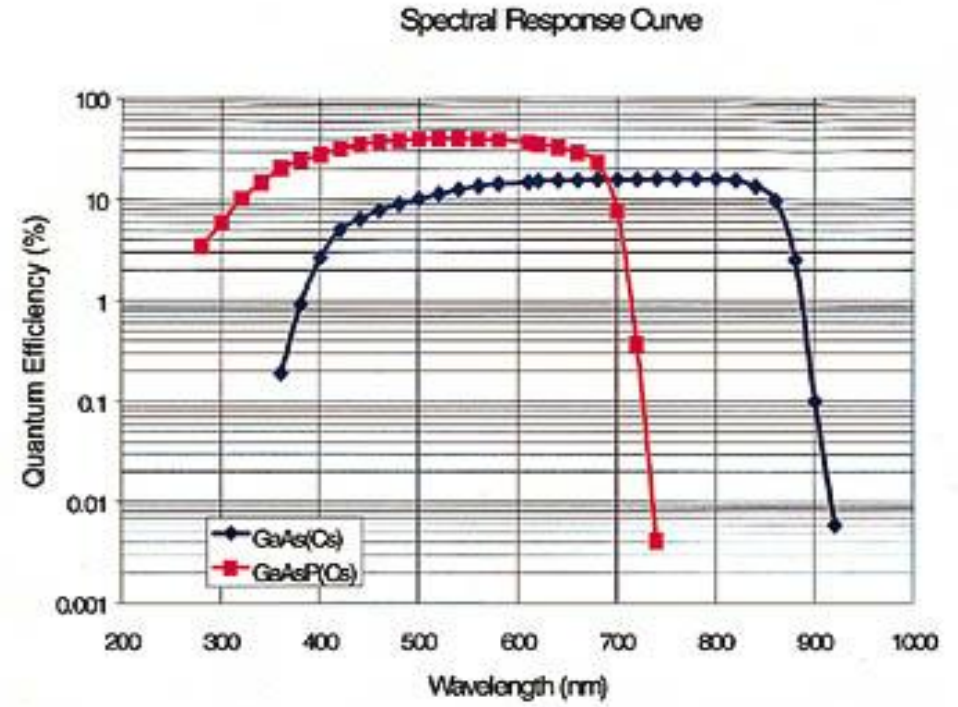
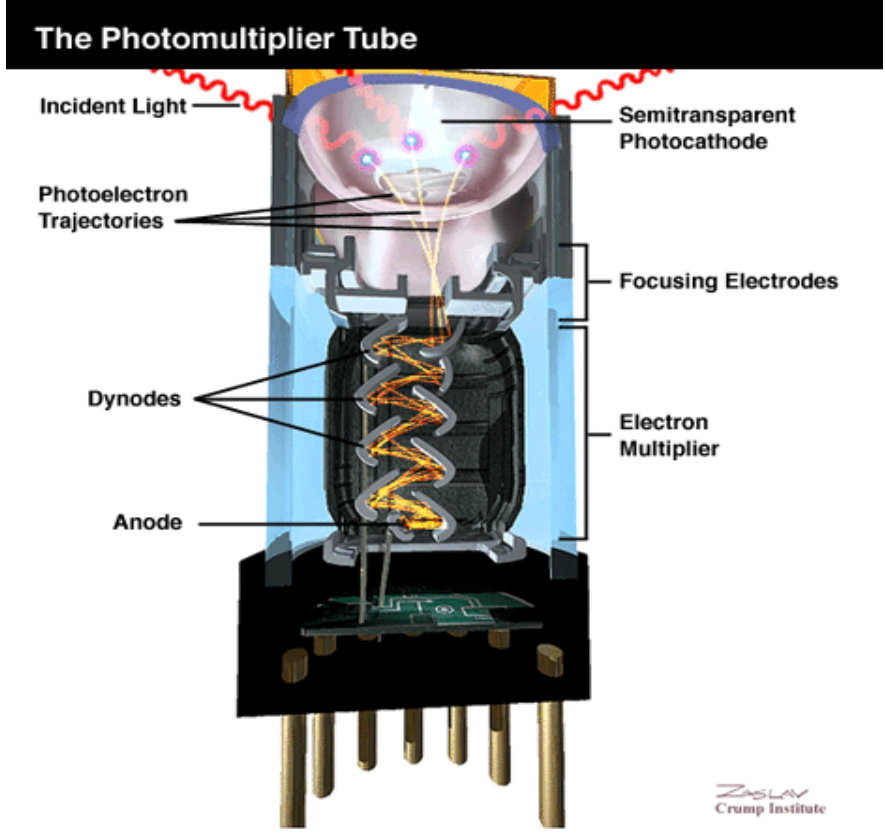


Neutrino event in a LAr detector:



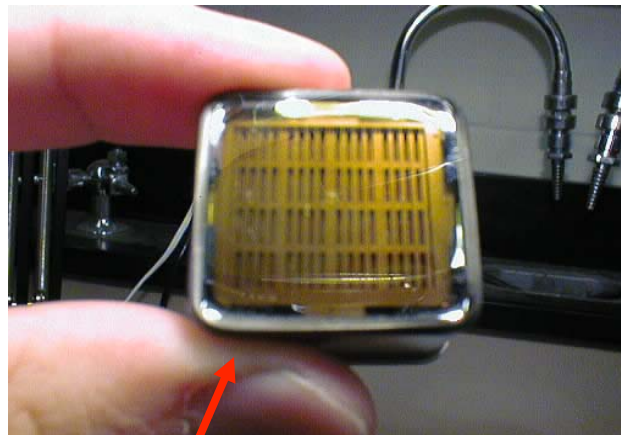
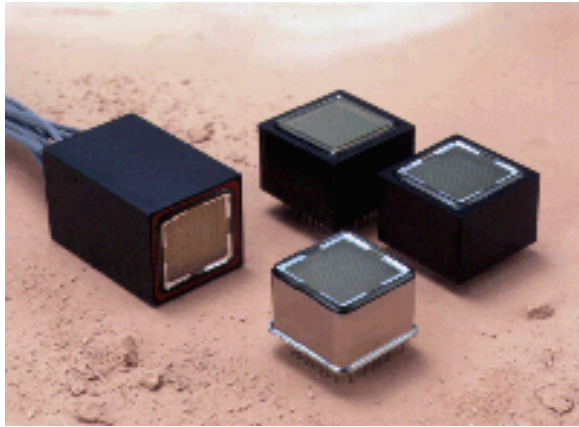
Some examples for light detection

Basic device: The Photomultiplier

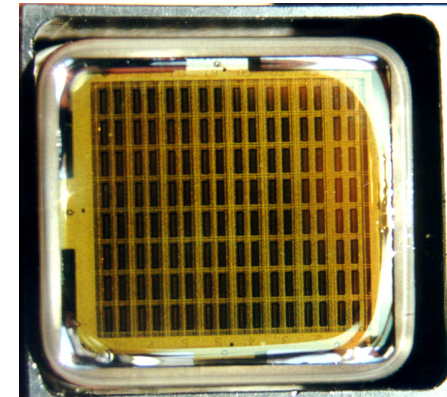


Multi-Anode Photomultiplier Tubes (MAPMT)

HV \approx 900 V



M16



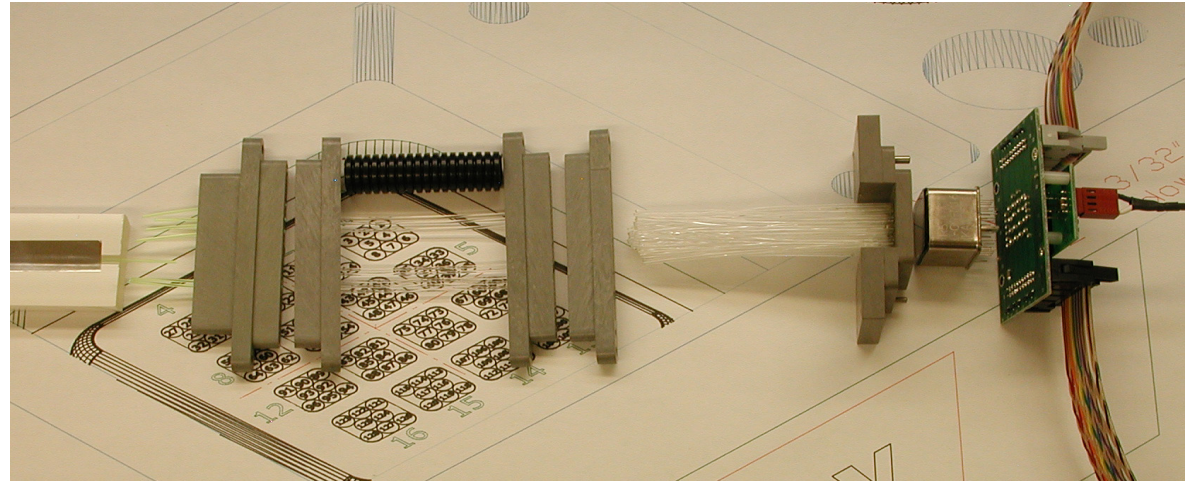
M64

Type No.	R5900U	R5900U-00-M4	H6568 (R5900-00-M16)	H7546 (R5900-00-M64)	R8520-C12	R5900U-00-L16	H7260 (R7259)
Anode format							
Number of anodes	1	4	16	64	6(X)+6(Y)	16	32
Number of dynode stages	10	10	12	12	11	10	10

Multi-anode photomultipliers (MAPMT)

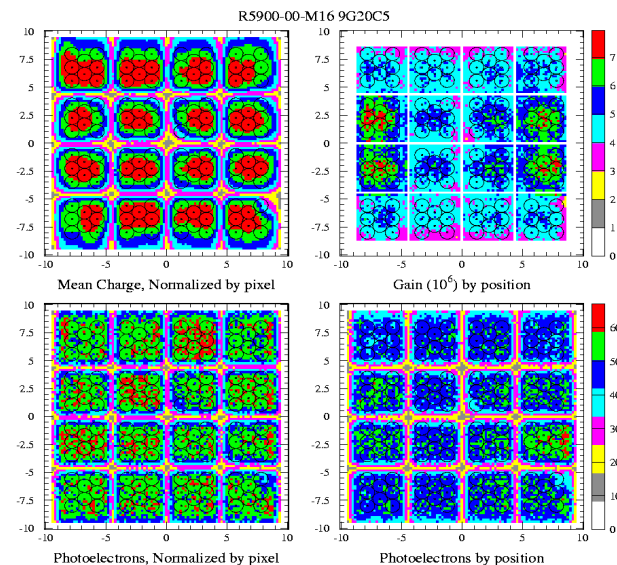
Example: Test Hamamatsu M16 for the MINOS experiment:

1,2 mm WLS fibres and LED blue



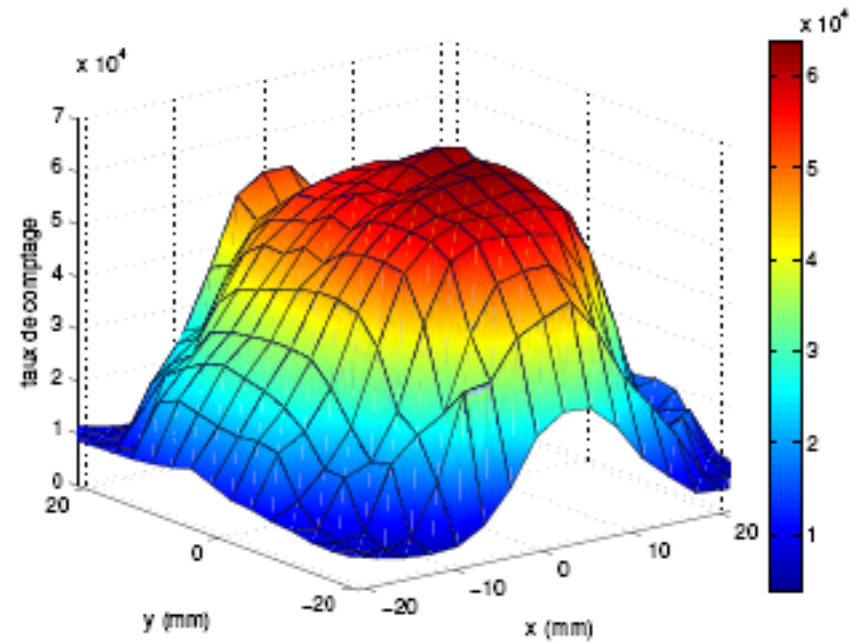
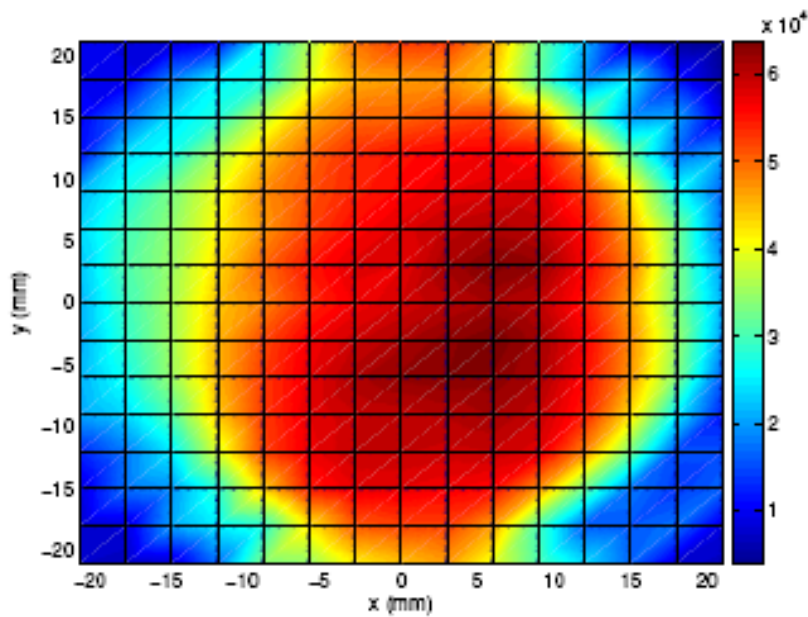
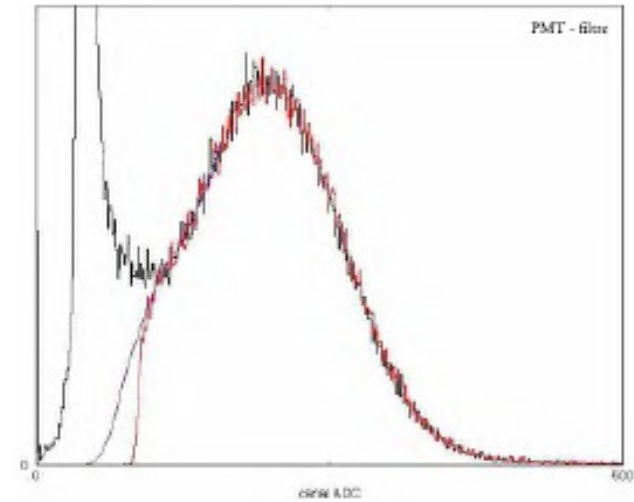
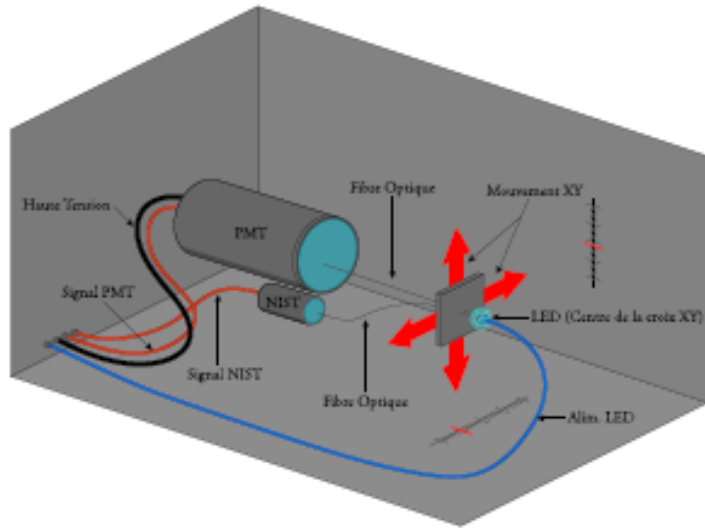
Attention to variation pixel to pixel but also inside one pixel

Variations up to 20%

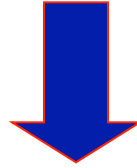


Spectre de photo-électron unique

These de Gwenaëlle Lefeuvre, APC, P7, 2006



Detection of particles and radiation by conversion of dE/dx into light



Typical setup: PM + Scintillator

Light output:

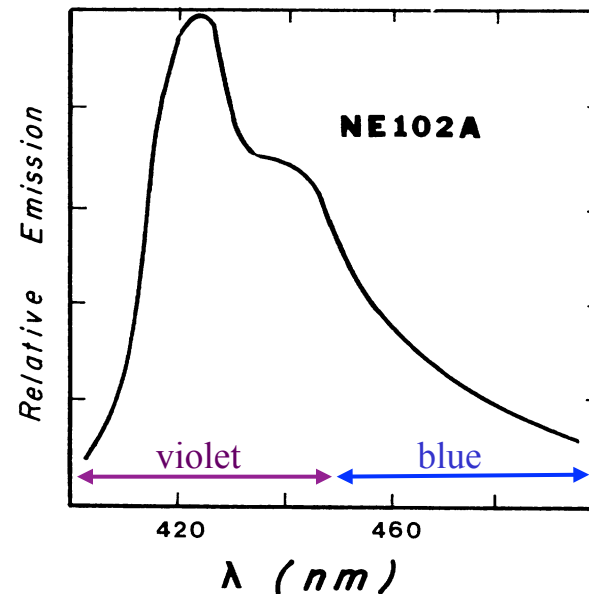
- Inorganic scintillators like NaI : $4 \times 10^4 \gamma / \text{MeV}$
 - Other crystals 1% to 20% of a NaI
- Organic scintillators produce: $\sim 10^4 \gamma / \text{MeV}$ ($1 \gamma / 100 \text{ eV}$)

Plastic Scintillators

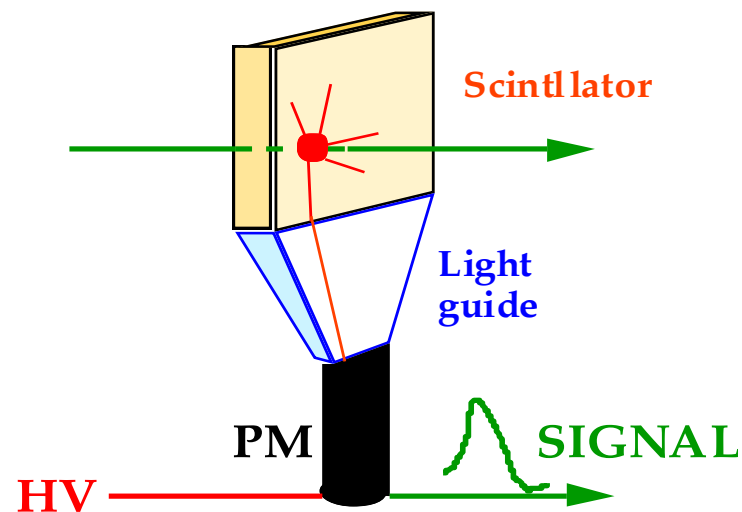
Type	Light ^a output	λ_{\max}^b (nm)	Attenuation ^c length (cm)	Risetime (ns)	Decay ^d time (ns)	Pulse FWHM (ns)
NE 102A	58-70	423	250	0.9	2.2-2.5	2.7-3.2
NE 104	68	406	120	0.6-0.7	1.7-2.0	2.2-2.5
NE 104B	59	406	120	1	3.0	3
NE 110	60	434	400	1.0	2.9-3.3	4.2
NE 111	40-55	375	8	0.13-0.4	1.3-1.7	1.2-1.6
NE 114	42-50	434	350-400	~1.0	4.0	5.3
Pilot B	60-68	408	125	0.7	1.6-1.9	2.4-2.7
Pilot F	64	425	300	0.9	2.1	3.0-3.3
Pilot U	58-67	391	100-140	0.5	1.4-1.5	1.2-1.5
BC 404	68	408	—	0.7	1.8	2.2
BC 408	64	425	—	0.9	2.1	~2.5
BC 420	64	391	—	0.5	1.5	1.3
ND 100	60	434	400	—	3.3	3.3
ND 120	65	423	250	—	2.4	2.7
ND 160	68	408	125	—	1.8	2.7

- ^a Percentage of anthracene.
- ^b Wavelength of maximum emission.
- ^c $1/e$ length.
- ^d Main component.

Typical emission spectrum



100 eV/photon



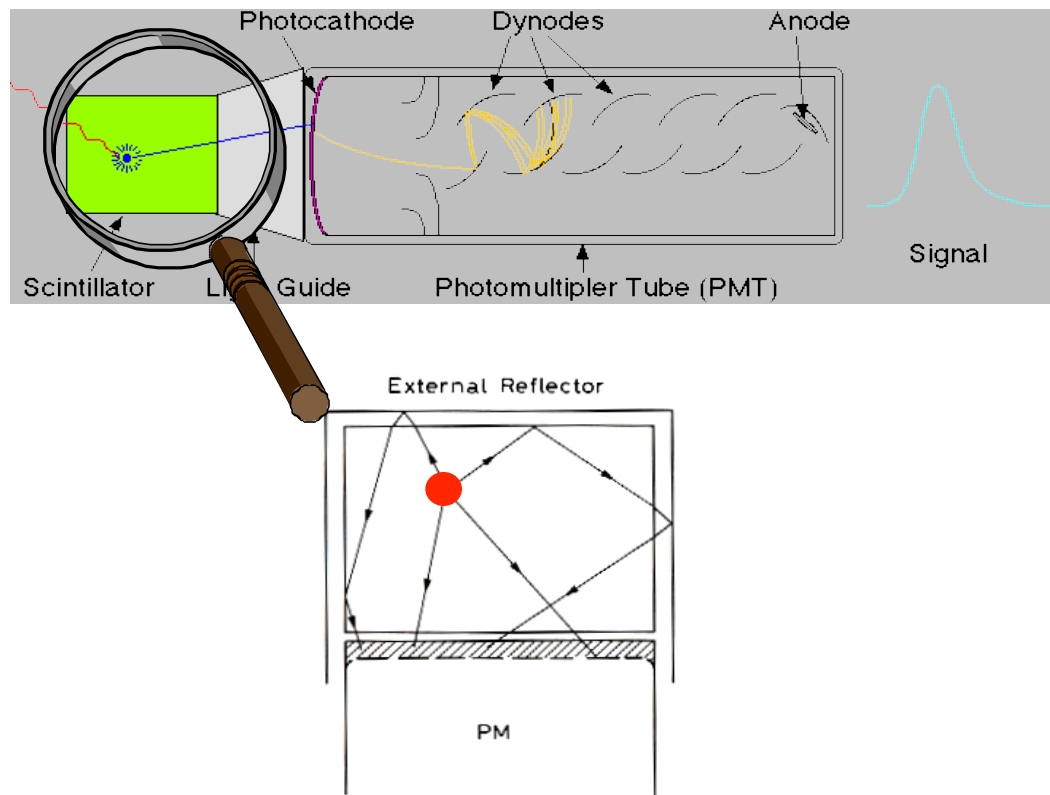
Inorganic Scintillators :

(Example NaI) : 25 eV / photon

Table 25.2: Properties of several inorganic crystal scintillators.

NaI(Tl)	BGO	BaF ₂	CsI(Tl)	CsI(pure)	PbWO ₄	CeF ₃
Density (g cm⁻³):						
3.67	7.13	4.89	4.53	4.53	8.28	6.16
Radiation length (cm):						
2.59	1.12	2.05	1.85	1.85	0.89	1.68
Molière radius (cm):						
4.5	2.4	3.4	3.8	3.8	2.2	2.6
dE/dx (MeV/cm) (per mip):						
4.8	9.2	6.6	5.6	5.6	13.0	7.9
Nucl. int. length (cm):						
41.4	22.0	29.9	36.5	36.5	22.4	25.9
Decay time (ns):						
250	300	0.7 ^f 620 ^s	1000	10, 36 ^f ~ 1000 ^s	5-15	10-30
Peak emission λ (nm):						
410	480	220 ^f 310 ^s	565	305 ^f ~ 480 ^s	440-500	310-340
Refractive index:						
1.85	2.20	1.56	1.80	1.80	2.16	1.68
Relative light output:[*]						
1.00	0.15	0.05 ^f 0.20 ^s	0.40	0.10 ^f 0.02 ^s	0.01	0.10
Hygroscopic:						
very	no	slightly	somewhat	somewhat	no	no

* For standard photomultiplier tube with a bialkali photocathode.
See Ref. 21 for photodiode results.
f = fast component, s = slow component



Résolution attendue avec un NaI:

La statistique d'ionisation et d'excitation est de type **Poissonnienne**

$$N_{\text{Ionisation}} = \frac{E}{w}$$

Avec une variance $\sigma^2 = N_{\text{Ionisation}}$ ($N_{\text{ionisation}}$ = nombre moyen d'ionisation)

$$R = 2.35 \frac{\sqrt{N_{\text{Ionisation}}}}{N_{\text{Ionisation}}} = 2.35 \sqrt{\frac{w}{E}} = 2.35 \sqrt{\frac{1}{N}}$$

$N_{\text{ionisation}} = 1 \text{ photon} / 25 \text{ eV}$ $1 \gamma \text{ de } 511 \text{ keV génère } 2 \times 10^4 \text{ photons}$

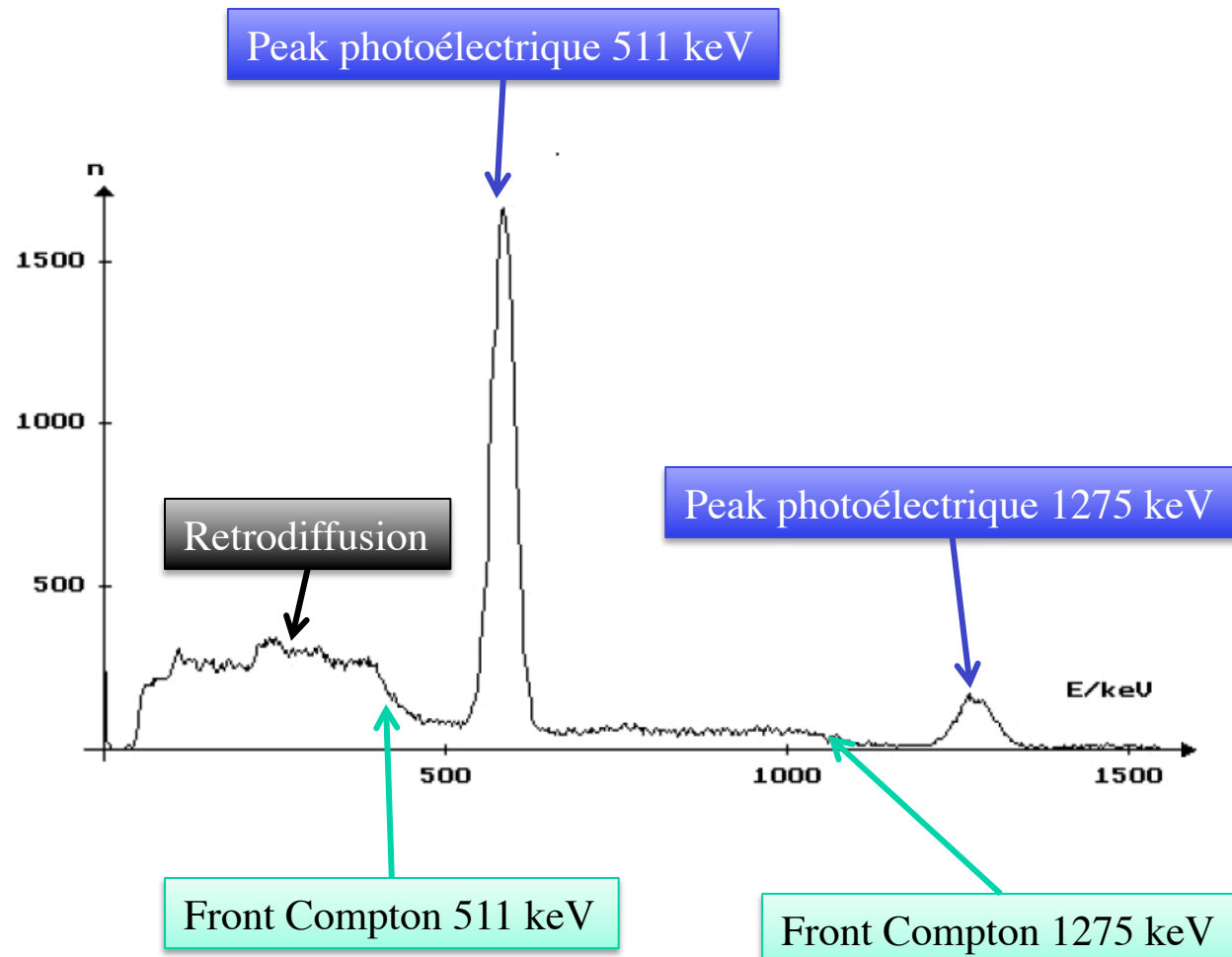
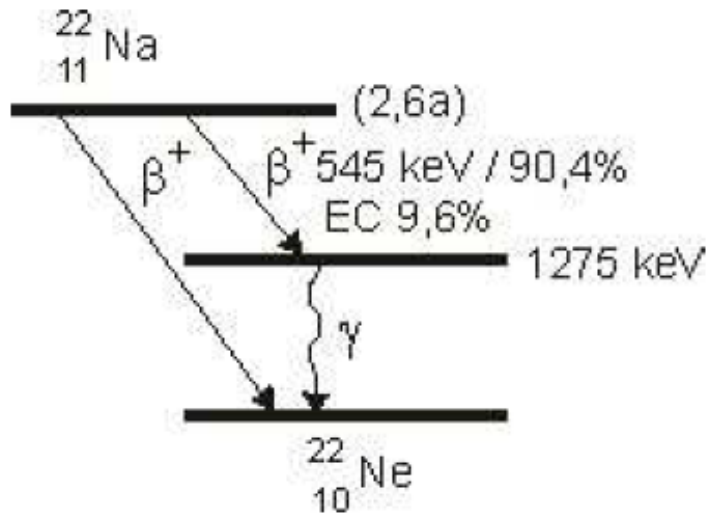
Efficacité de collection = 50 %

Efficacité quantique de la photocathode = 20 %

Nombre d'électrons dans le PM = $2 \times 10^4 \times 0,5 \times 0,2 = 2000$ photoélectrons

$$R = 2.35 \times \text{sqrt}(1/2000) = 5,2 \%$$

^{22}Na :



Exemple: PM couplé à un scintillateur plastique:

Quelques paramètres typiques d'un scintillateur plastique:

Perte d'énergie	2MeV/cm
Efficacité de scintillation	1 photon/100 eV
Efficacité de collection (nombre de photons arrivés au PM)	0,1
Efficacité quantique du PM	0,25

Quel signal électrique peut-on attendre avec un scintillateur de 1 cm?

Une particule chargée traversant le scintillateur perd 2 MeV, donc crée 2×10^4 photons
 $2 \times 10^4 \times 0,1 = 2 \times 10^3$ photons arrivent au PM qui les transforme en $2 \times 10^3 \times 0,25 = 500$ électrons

Avec un gain de 10^6 : $500 \times 10^6 = 5 \times 10^8$ électrons = 8×10^{-11} C

Si la charge est collectée en 50 ns $\rightarrow I = dq/dt = 8 \times 10^{-11}$ C / 5×10^{-8} s = $1,6 \times 10^{-3}$ A

Ce courant traverse une résistance de 50 Ω $\rightarrow V = IR = (50 \Omega)(1,6 \times 10^{-3} \text{A}) = 80 \text{mV}$

Visible avec un oscilloscope!

Quelle est l'efficacité de ce compteur? = Quelle est la probabilité d'avoir 0 photoélectrons?

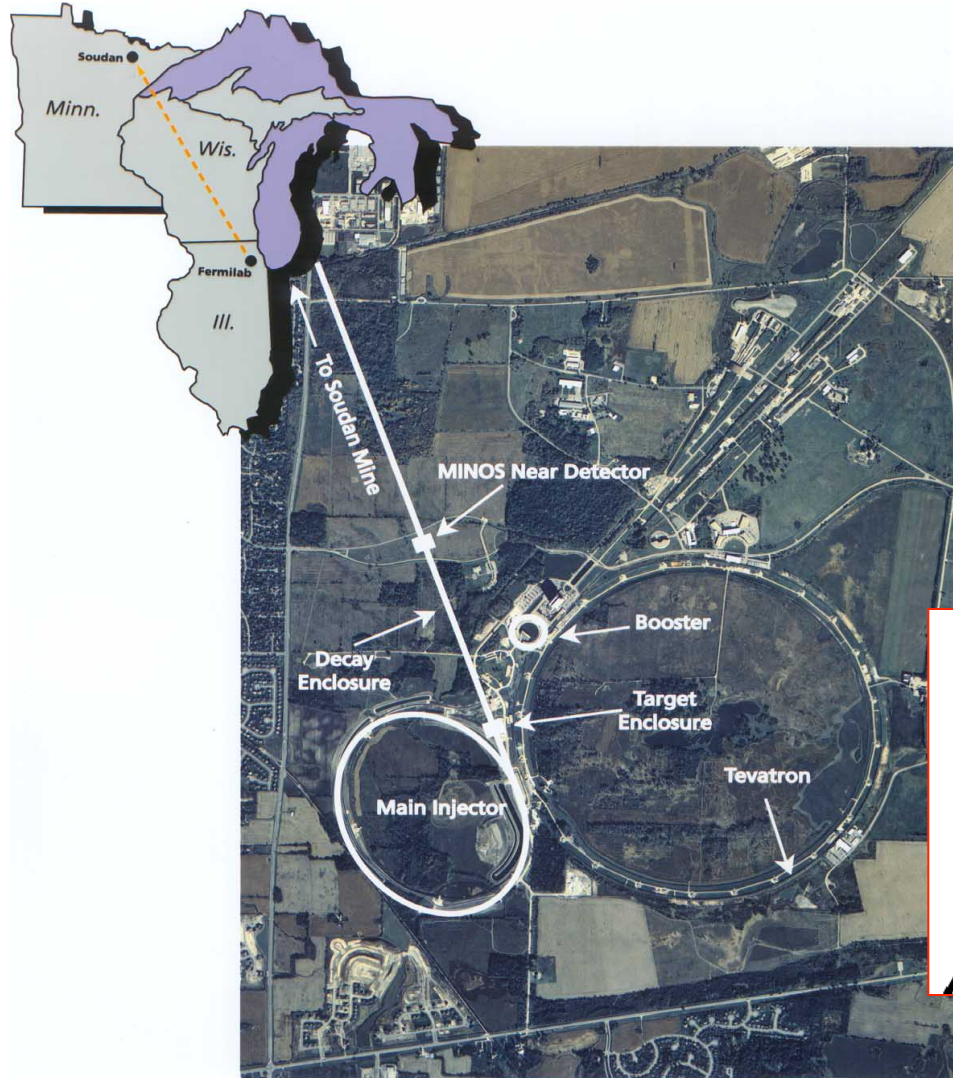
Statistique = Poisson:

$$P(r) = \frac{\mu^r e^{-\mu}}{r!} \rightarrow P(0) = \frac{500^0 e^{-500}}{0!} \cong 0$$

Donc l'efficacité est de 100%



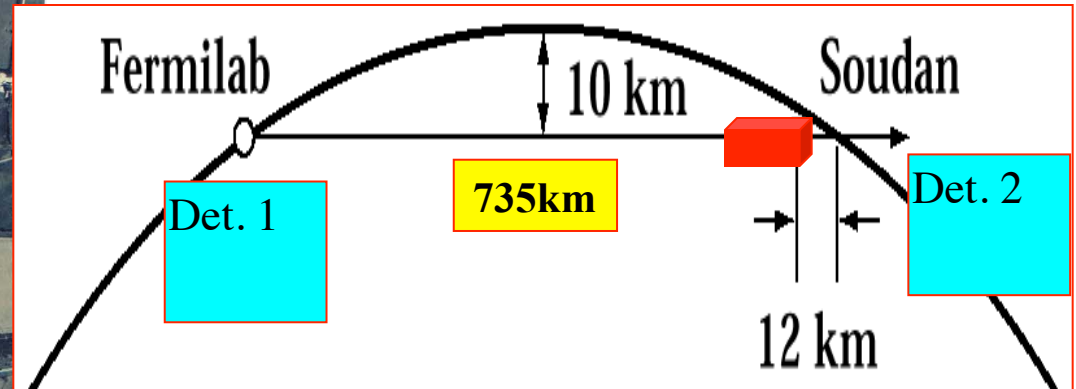
Exemple 1: détecteur MINOS - oscillations du neutrino

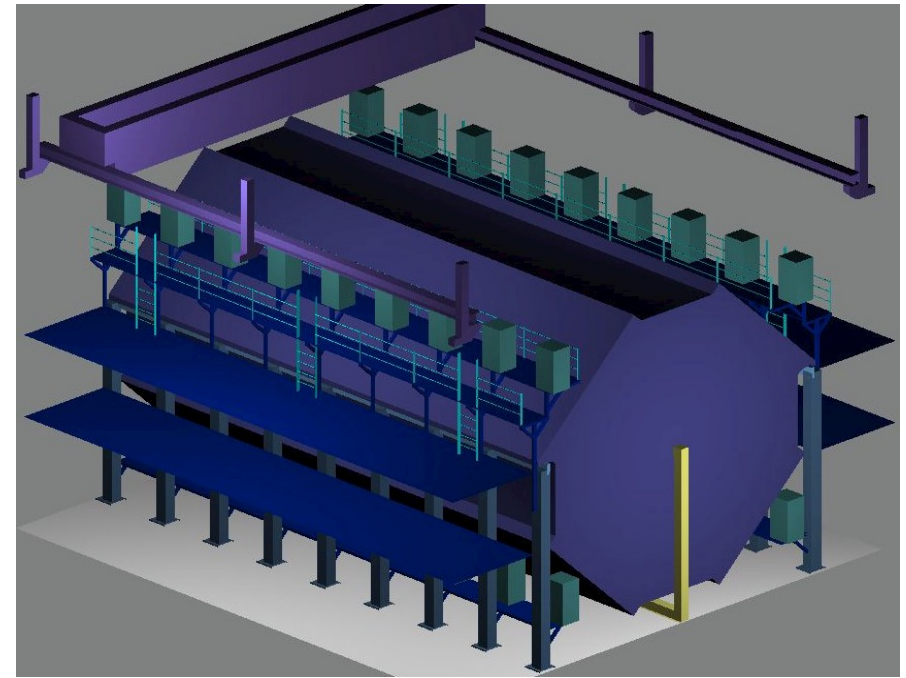
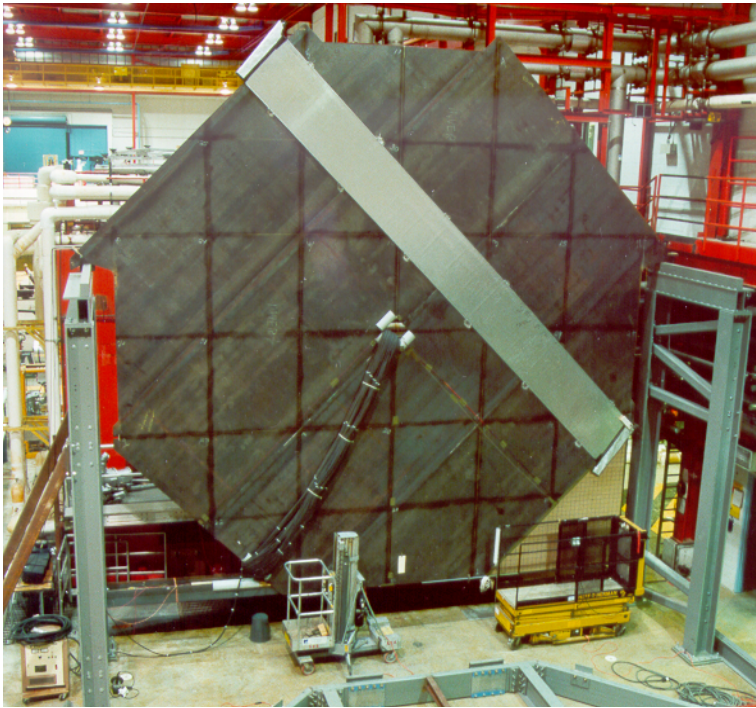


FERMILAB #98-1321D

MINOS: Composé de :

- Un faisceau de neutrino (3 faisceaux!)
- Un détecteur proche (980 t @ 1 km)
- Un détecteur lointain (5,4 kt @ 730 km)





Constitué de :

485 plaques d'acier octogonales (5,14 kt)

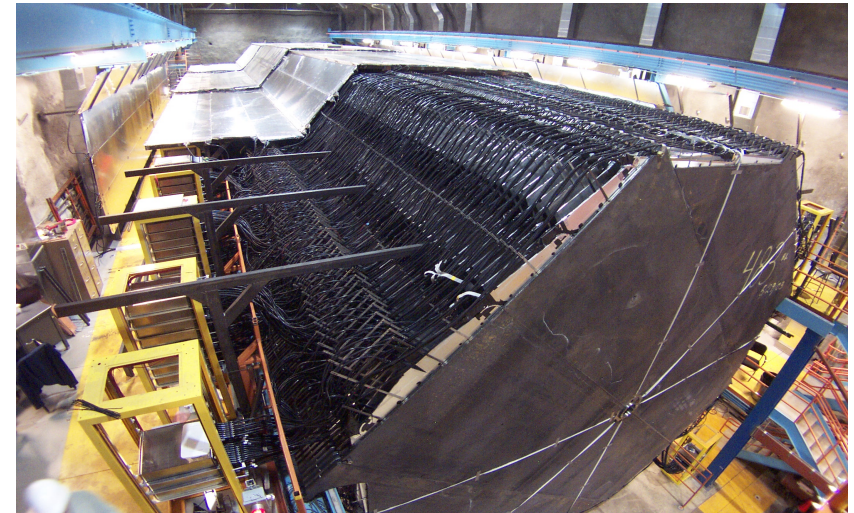
484 plaques de scintillateur octogonales (0,26 kt)

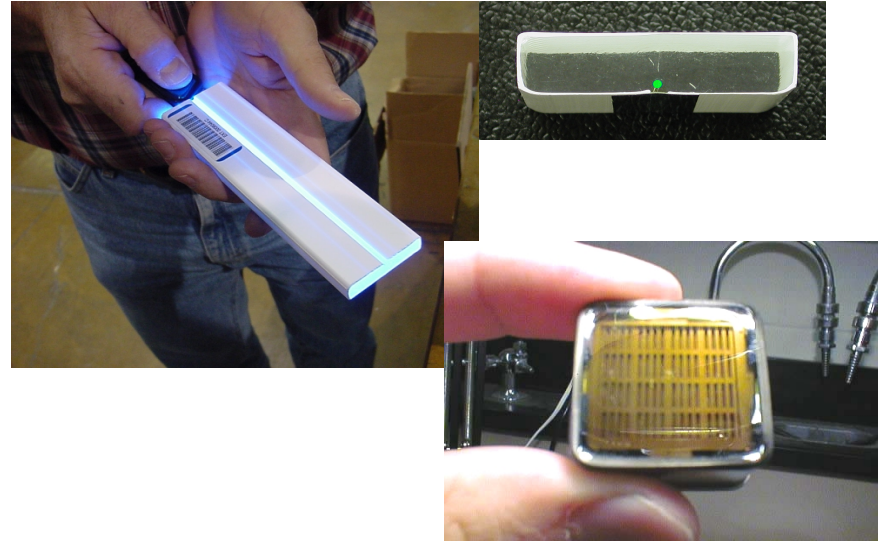
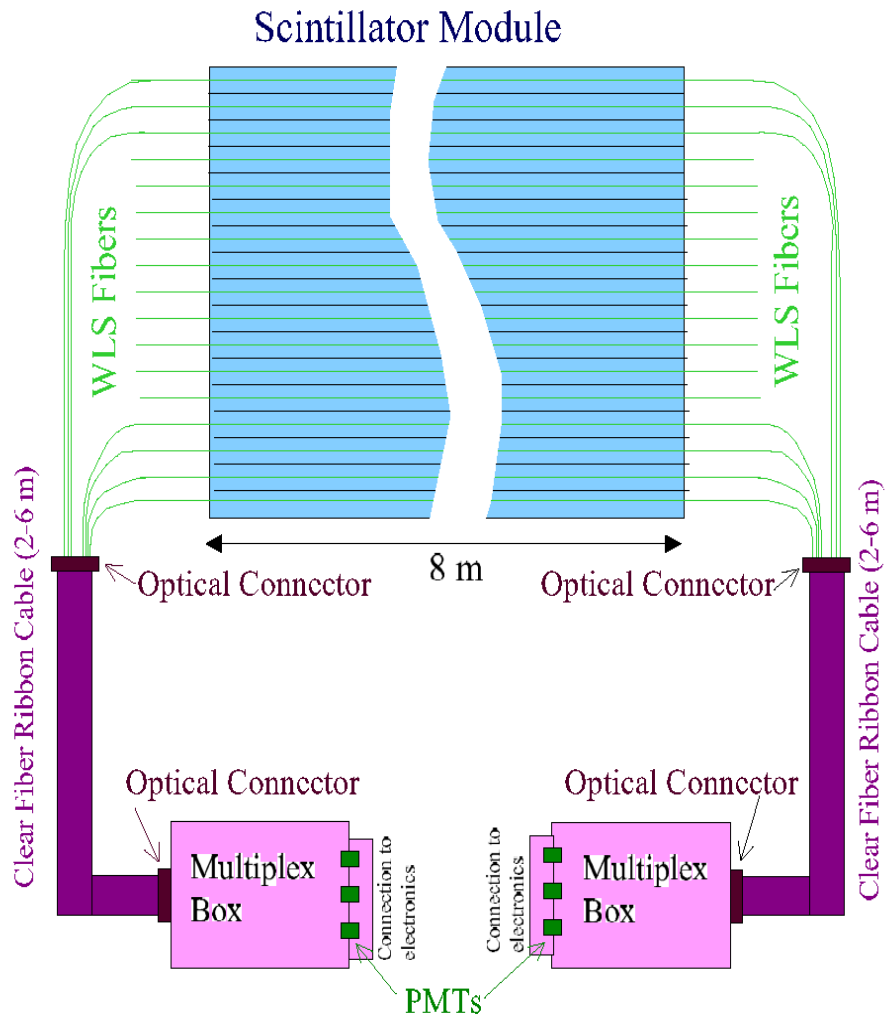
92,928 strips (4.1 x 1.0 cm), 1452 M16s

722 km de fibre (WLS fiber)

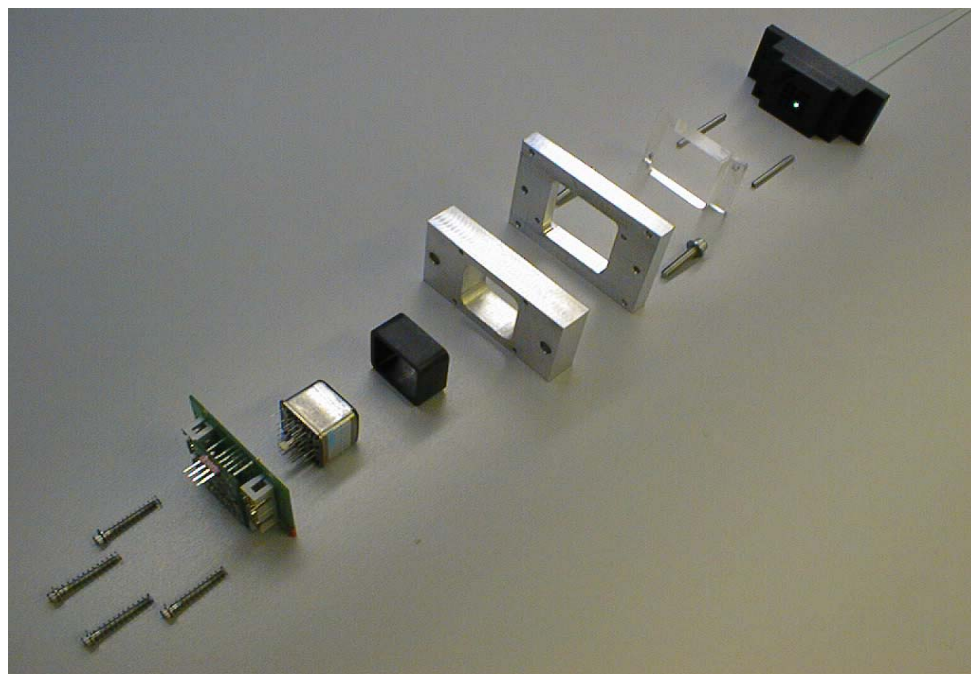
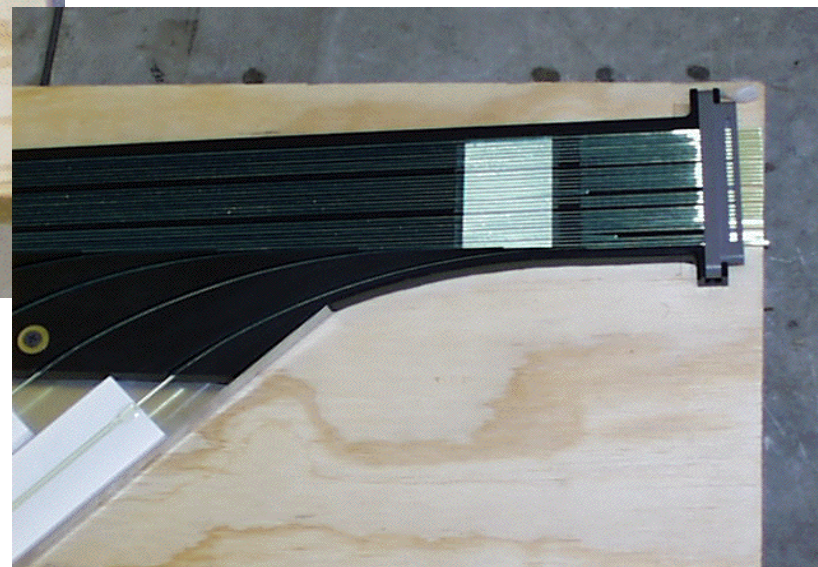
794 km fibre (clear fiber)

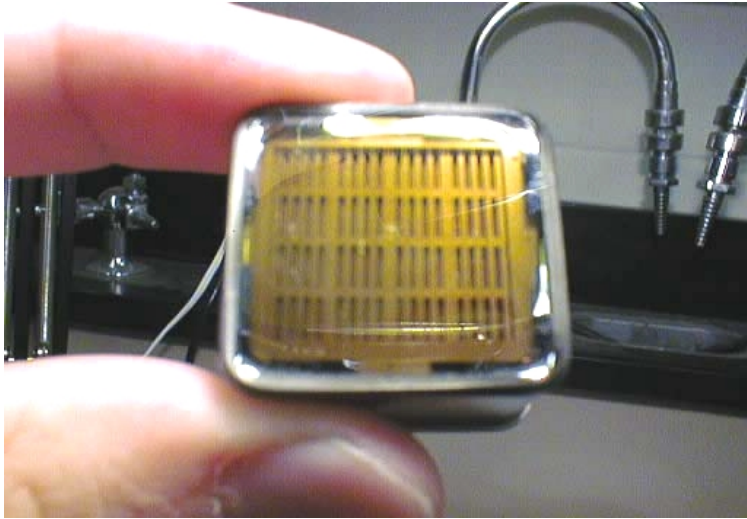
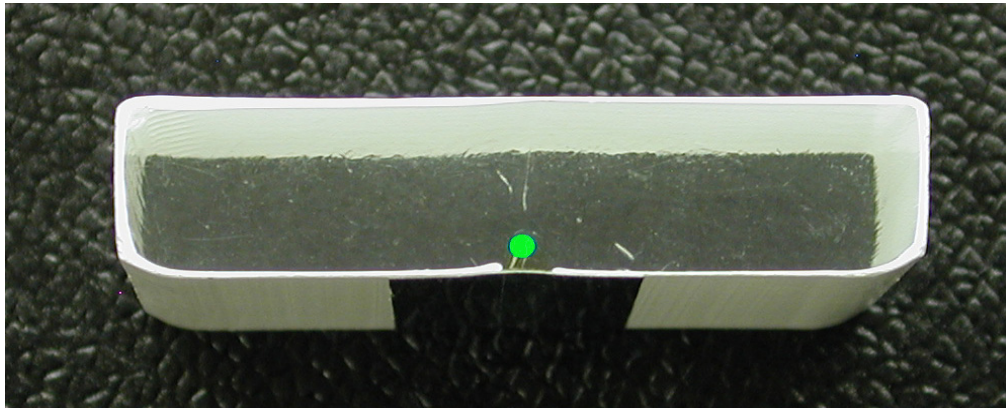
Un champ magnétique de 1,5 Tesla!



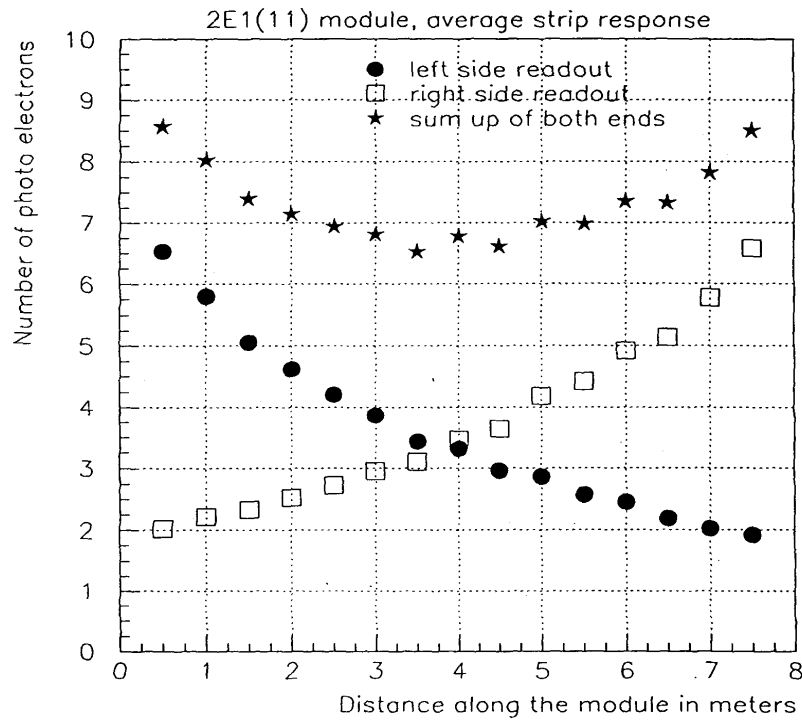




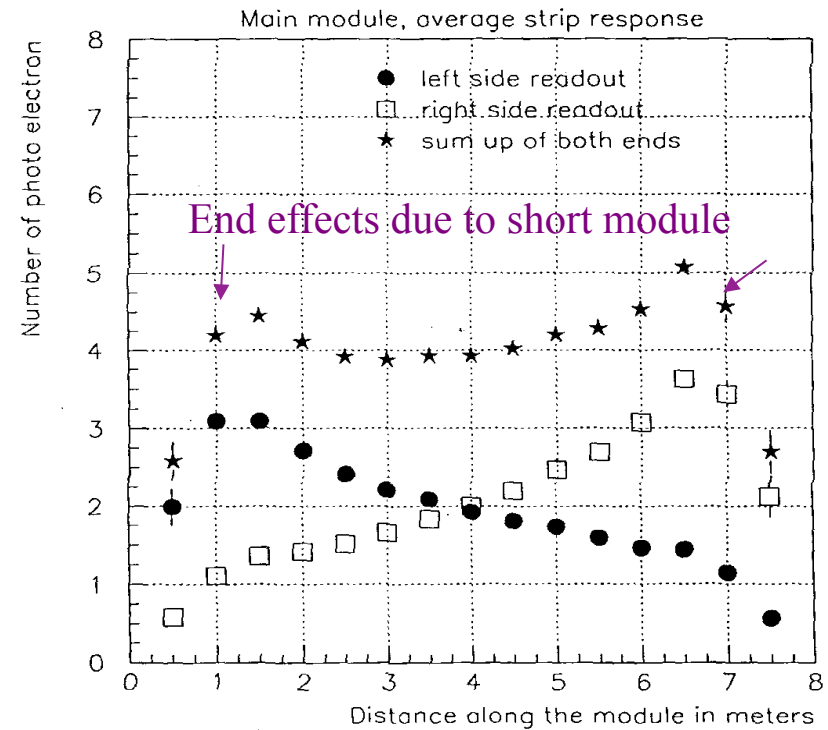




Résultats de test: nombre des photo-électrons par particule d'ionisation minimale

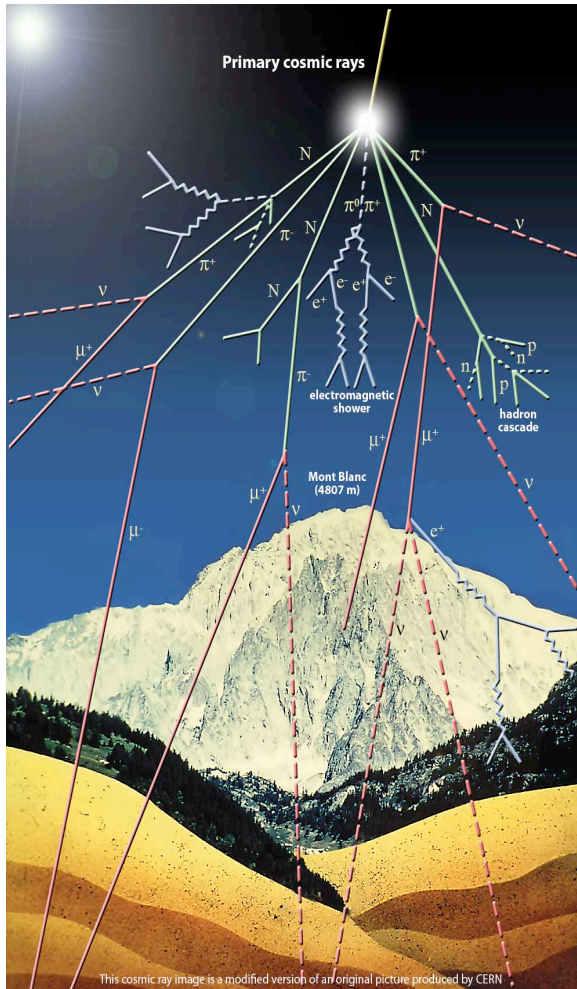


Meilleur module



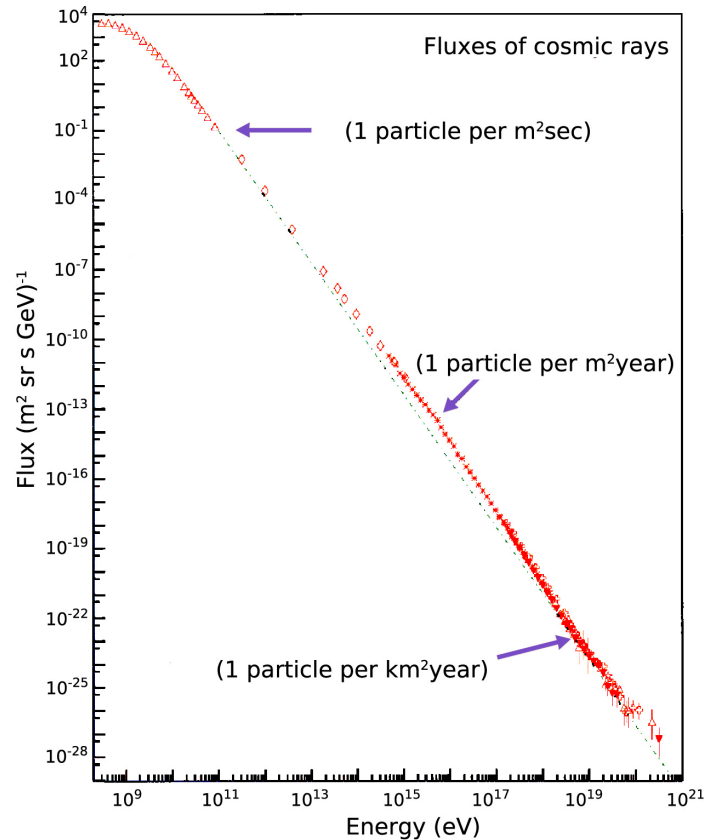
Mauvaise module

Use of atmospheric muons – a cheap and easy way for calibration...

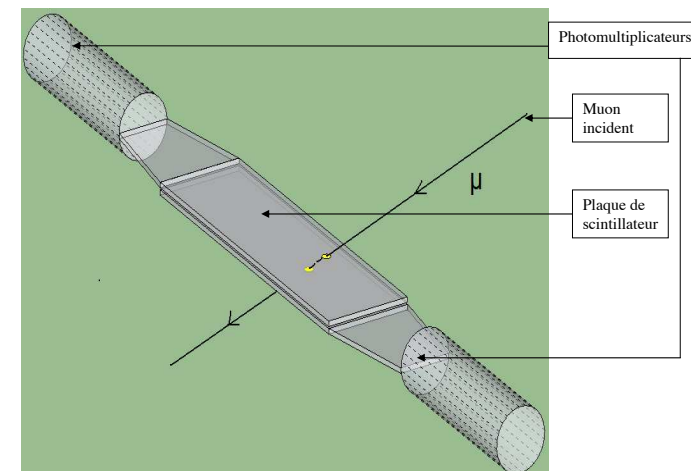


$$\langle E_{\mu_{\text{atm}}} \rangle \approx 4 \text{ GeV}$$

$$\text{Flux at ground} \approx 130 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$$



μ - hodoscope



Use of atmospheric muons – a cheap and easy way for calibration...

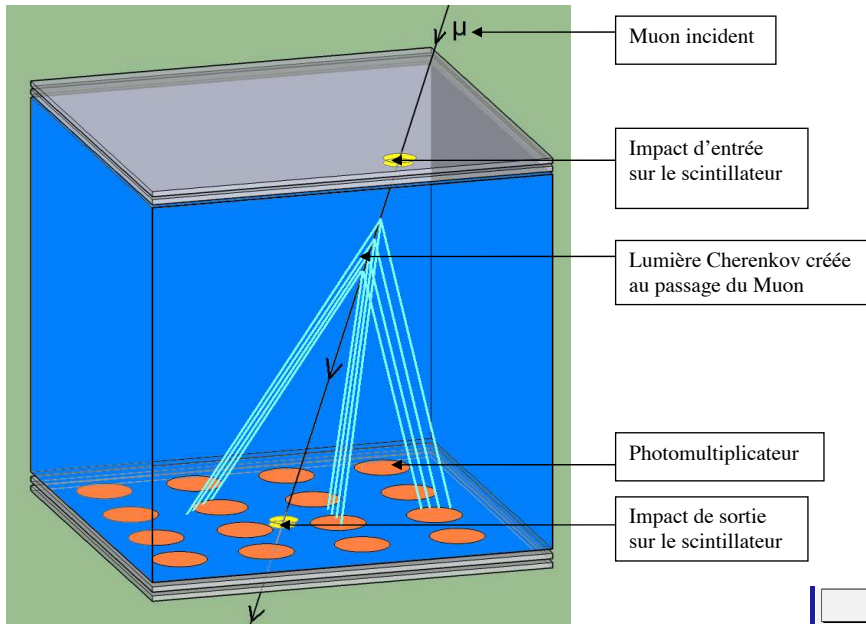
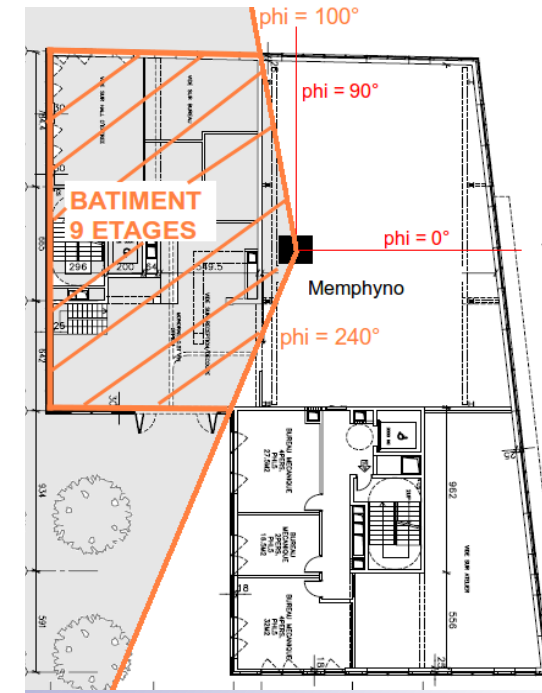
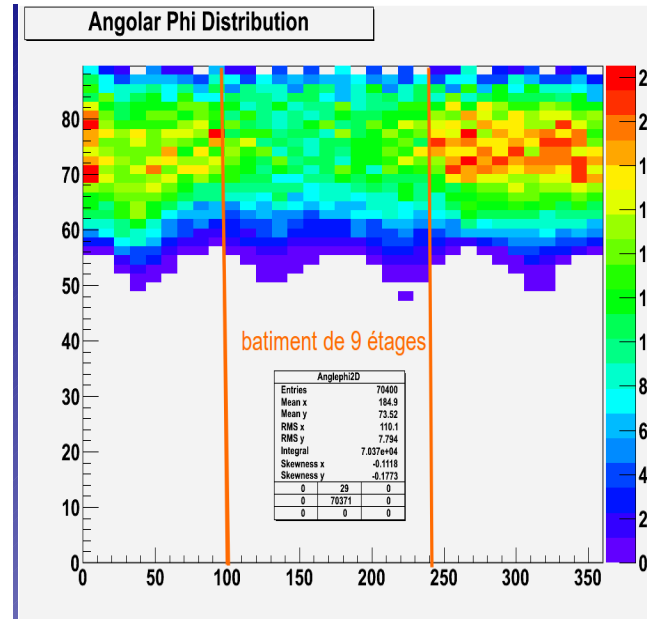
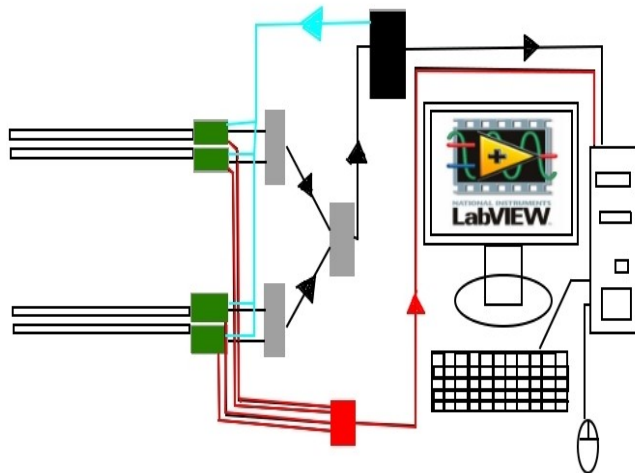
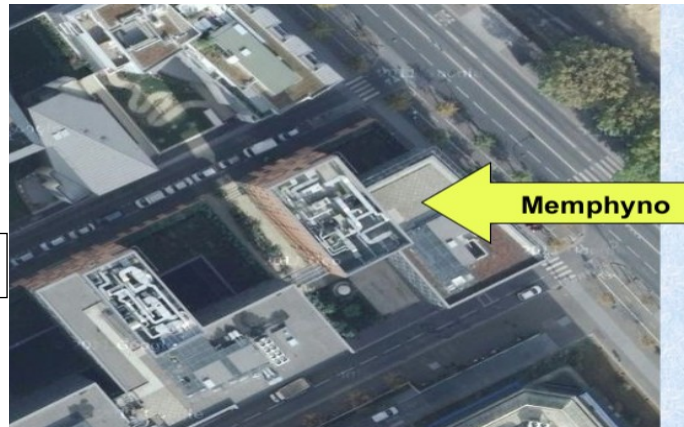


Figure 7 - Schéma de Memphyno



MIP's (Minimum Ionizing Particles)

Very useful tool for calibration of experiments
And
Discussions...



Exemple 2: Application en médecine

Les principes de la tomographie à émission de positrons (TEP)

Source: M-L Gallin-Martel, ISN, IN2P3

Etape 1 : Production du traceur

- Isotopes standards émetteurs β^+



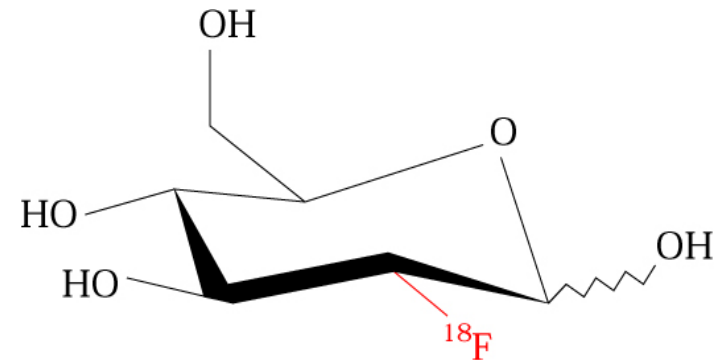
	^{18}F	^{15}O	^{11}C	^{13}N
T :	114 min.	2 min.	20 min.	10 min.

Etape 2 : Synthèse du radio traceur

Marquage d'un composé biologique

EX : Fluorodésoxyglucose marqué ^{18}F \Rightarrow FDG
90 % des radio pharmaceutiques utilisés en TEP

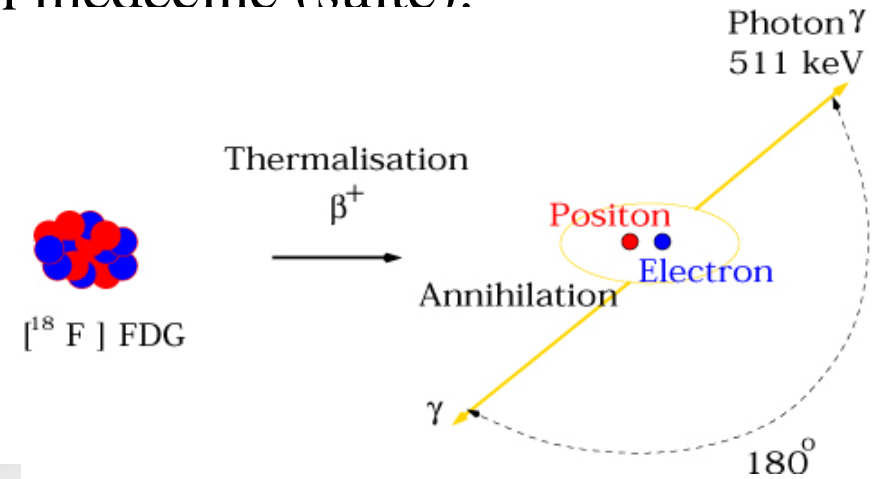
Radio Synthèse : Introduction du ^{18}F sur une liaison carbone



Exemple: Application en médecine (suite):

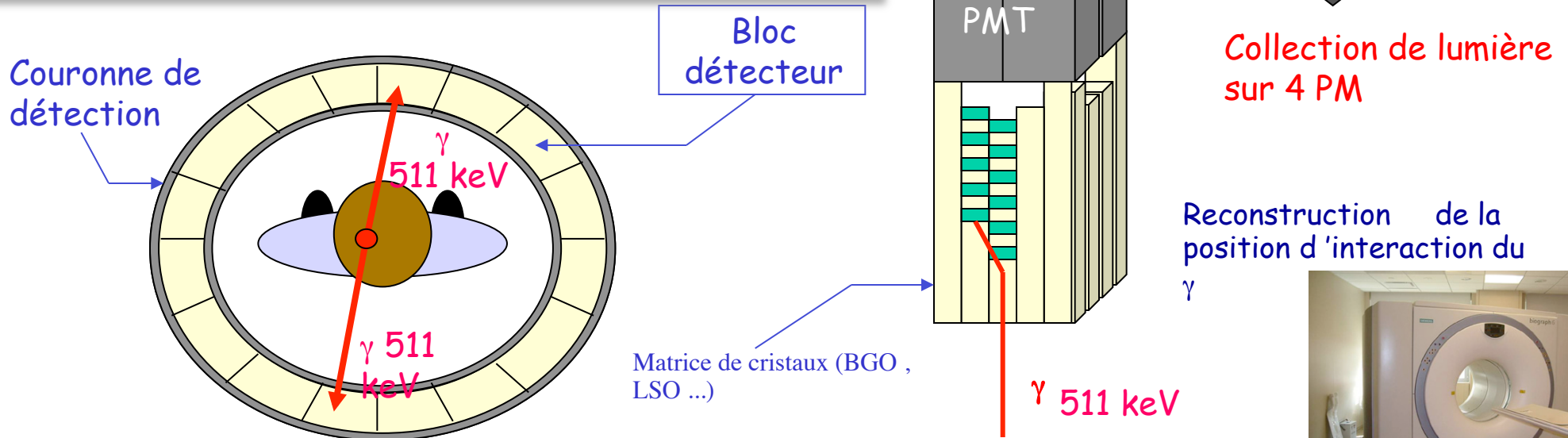
Etape 3 : Processus physiques

- 1 ♦ Désintégration β^+ du traceur
- 2 ♦ Thermalisation du β^+ dans les tissus
- 3 ♦ Annihilation : $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$




Etape 4 : Détection et acquisition du signal

- ♦ Détection des γ en coïncidence ♦ Collimation électronique



Conclusions:

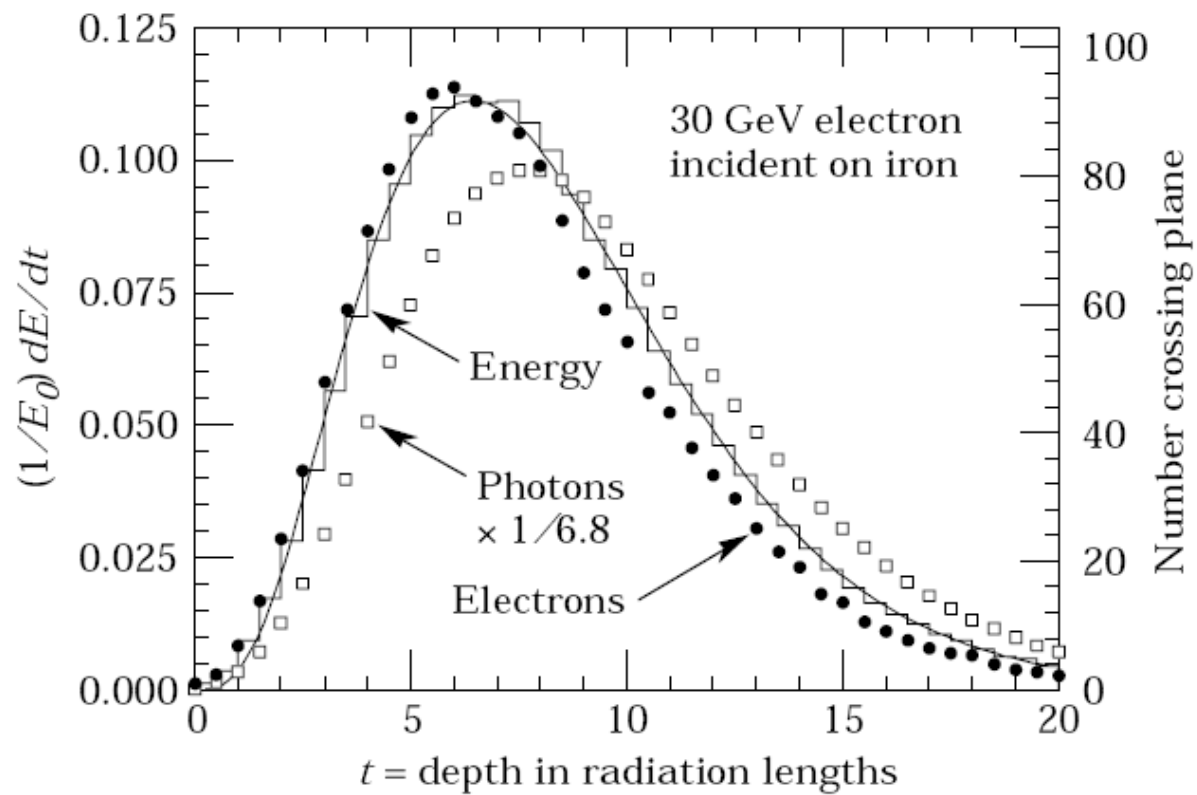
- The basics of interactions of particles and radiation with matter are reviewed.
 - One should get the order of magnitude of the expected signal from a « back of the envelope » calculation.
 - For this conference examples on light detection are chosen.
 - Many application in LEP, HEP, medical imaging, environmental surveillance and many more.
- 

Thanks to all authors of illustrations used in the presentation and found on the web!

References:

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- **TECHNIQUES AND CONCEPTS OF HIGH-ENERGY PHYSICS**, ed. by Th. Ferbel (Plenum, New York 1983)
- **TECHNIQUES FOR NUCLEAR AND PARTICLE PHYSICS EXPERIMENTS**, W.R. Leo (Springer-Verlag, Berlin 1987)
- **RADIATION DETECTION AND MEASUREMENTS**, G.F. Knoll (Wiley, New York 1999)
- **RADIATION DETECTORS**, C.F.G. Delaney and E.C. Finch (Clarendon Press, Oxford 1992)
- **SINGLE PARTICLE DETECTION AND MEASUREMENT**, R. Gilmore (Taylor and Francis, London 1992)
- **INSTRUMENTATION IN HIGH ENERGY PHYSICS**, ed. by F. Sauli (World Scientific, Singapore 1992)
- **PARTICLE DETECTORS**, K. Grupen (Cambridge Monographs on Part. Phys. 1996)
- **Particle Physics Booklet**, W. –M. Yao et al., *Journal of Physics G* 33, 1 (2006)

<http://pdg.lbl.gov/>



Bremsstrahlung

Cherenkov radiation

Origin: Acceleration of a particle in the field of the nucleus

Origin: Polarization of the material after passage of the particle

$$Intensity \propto \frac{z^2 Z^2}{M}$$

Intensity is independent of the particle mass

$$\theta \propto \frac{m_0 c^2}{E_0}$$

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

Compton scattering:

1929: Klein-Nishima formula:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{r_e^2}{2[1 + \gamma(1 - \cos\theta)]^2} \left(1 + \cos^2\theta + \frac{\gamma^2(1 - \cos\theta)^2}{1 + \gamma(1 - \cos\theta)} \right)$$

with $\gamma = h\nu / m_e c^2$

★ High energy limit ($\gamma \gg 1$) all photons are forward scattered ($\theta = 0$)

★ **Thomson scattering** (classical limit of scattering of photons by free electrons) – Klein –Nishime reduces to

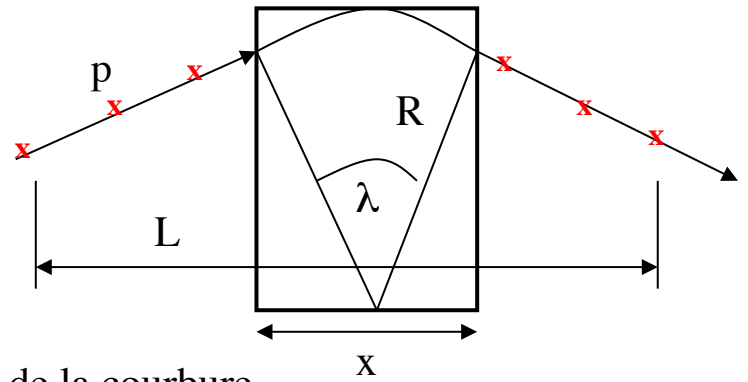
$$\sigma = \frac{8\pi}{3} r_e^2 \quad \text{Thomson cross section}$$

Rayleigh scattering = scattering of photons by atoms as a whole (all electrons contribute) = coherent scattering

Measurement of particle momentum in a magnetic field:

$$P \cos \lambda = 0.3 z B R$$

(R [m], rayon de courbure et B [Tesla], champ magnétique)



La distribution des mesures de la courbure $k = 1/R$ est \approx gaussienne

$$(\delta k)^2 = (\delta k_{res})^2 + (\delta k_{ms})^2$$

δk = erreur de la courbure
 δk_{res} = erreur de la résolution
 δk_{ms} = erreur de la diffusion multiple

Mesure le long de la trace de $N > 10$ points avec une erreur $\sigma(x)$ par point :

$$\delta k_{res} = \frac{\sigma(x)}{L^2} \sqrt{\frac{720}{N+4}}$$

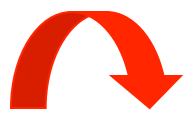
L = projection de la longueur
 $\sigma(x)$ = erreur de la mesure de chaque point de la trace

La résolution en impulsion sera affectée par la diffusion multiple

$$\delta k_{ms} \approx \frac{(0.016)(GeV/c)z}{L\beta \cos^2 \lambda} \sqrt{\frac{L}{X_0}}$$

Et aussi:

$$\delta k_{ms} \approx 8 s_{plane}^{rms} / L^2$$



Résolution pour l'impulsion



$$\left| \frac{\Delta p}{p} \right| = \frac{p}{0.3B} \delta k$$

Mesure de l'impulsion en champ magnétique

Exemple: expérience CHORUS (CERN)

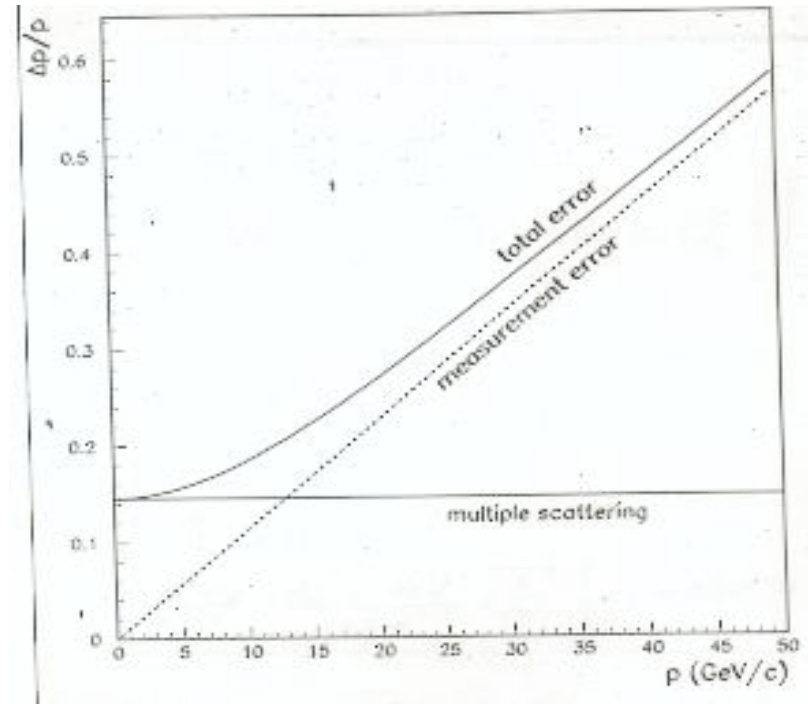
$\sigma(x) = 1 \text{ mm} = 10^{-3} \text{ m}$, $L = 1,3 \text{ m}$, $x = 0,5 \text{ m}$, $B = 1,65 \text{ T}$, 4 points de mesure

$$\delta k_{res} = \frac{\sigma(x)}{L^2} \sqrt{\frac{720}{N+4}} = \frac{10^{-3}}{1.69} \sqrt{\frac{720}{8}} = 5.61 \times 10^{-2}$$

$$\left| \frac{\Delta p}{p} \right|_{res} = \delta k_{res} \times \frac{p}{0.3 \times 1.65} = 1.13 \times 10^{-2} \times p$$

$$\delta k_{ms} = \frac{1}{L^2} 8 \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3}} x \theta_0 \left(\frac{1}{p} \right) = \frac{1.154}{1.69} \times 0.5 \times 0.2112 \left(\frac{1}{p} \right) = 0.0721 \left(\frac{1}{p} \right)$$

$$\left| \frac{\Delta p}{p} \right|_{ms} = \delta k_{ms} \frac{p}{0.3 \times 1.65} = 0.1456$$



Erreur totale:

$$\left| \frac{\Delta p}{p} \right| = \sqrt{\left| \frac{\Delta p}{p} \right|_{res}^2 + \left| \frac{\Delta p}{p} \right|_{ms}^2} = \sqrt{1.277 \times 10^{-4} p^2 + 0.0212}$$