

Collimated gamma-beams with high peak flux driven by laser-accelerated electrons

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Abstract

Laser-accelerated electrons are promising in producing gamma-photon beams of high peak flux for study of nuclear photonics, obtaining copious positrons and exploring photon-photon interaction in vacuum. We report on experimental generation of brilliant gamma-ray beams with not only high photon yield but also low divergence, based on picosecond laser-accelerated electrons. The 120J 1ps laser pulse drives self-modulated wakefield in a high-density gas jet and generates tens-of-MeV electrons with 26nC and divergence as small as 1.51°. These collimated electrons produce gamma-ray photons through Bremsstrahlung when transversing a high-Z solid target. We design a high-energy-resolution Compton-scattering spectrometer (CSS) and find that a total photon number of 2.2×10^9 is captured within an acceptance angle of 1.1° for photon energies up to 16 MeV. Comparison between the experimental results and Monte-Carlo simulations illustrates that the photon beam inherits the small divergence from electrons, corresponding to a total photon number

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24 2.2×10^{11} and a divergence 7.73° .

25

26 **Keywords:** gamma-ray beam, laser-electron acceleration, Bremsstrahlung, Compton-scattering
27 spectrometer

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32 1. Introduction

33 In recent years, laser-driven particle sources such as electrons[1], ions[2] and neutrons[3]
34 have been greatly developed due to the promising applications in high energy density physics,
35 nuclear physics, cancer therapy treatment etc. Based on laser-accelerated electrons, gamma-ray
36 radiations are also gaining rising interests for the ultra-high peak brilliance, short pulse duration
37 and small beam size[4-7]. Such compact gamma-ray sources could pave the way for nuclear
38 photonics, producing ultrashort neutron sources and medical isotopes[8], and radiography.
39 Particularly, the small beam size and large peak flux of the laser-generated gamma-ray sources can
40 greatly improve the contrast and spatial resolution for nondestructive radiography compared to
41 other approaches[9]. In strong-field quantum-electrodynamics, a promising approach to observe
42 the Breit-Wheeler electron-positron pair production[10] in the linear or nonlinear regime is to
43 collide laser-driven gamma photons with superintense lasers[11], X-ray radiations[12] or with
44 each other. This requires the gamma beams to be collimated, guaranteeing high photon density in
45 the collision region.

46 There are three main mechanisms to generate gamma-ray beams based on laser-driven
47 energetic electrons in experiment: betatron radiation[13], inverse Compton scattering (ICS)[14, 15]
48 and bremsstrahlung radiation[4, 5, 16, 17]. In general, Betatron radiation produces gamma-rays
49 with photon energies from hundreds of keV to MeV when electrons oscillate in the laser-driven
50 plasma bubble field. In ICS, the number of photons obtained by laser photons scattered by high
51 energy electrons is usually at 10^7 level[18], with photon energies up to several tens of MeV and
52 good beam collimation. On the other hand, copious gamma-photons can be produced when
53 energetic electrons collide with high atomic-number nuclei through Bremsstrahlung radiation. In
54 this case, the maximum energy of the gamma-photon is comparable to the maximum electron
55 energy. It is advantageous on producing large photon numbers, up to 3.2×10^{10} by femtosecond

56 laser[17].

57 A key to increase the photon yield in Bremsstrahlung is enhancing the number of relativistic
58 electrons in laser-plasma accelerations. For instance[16], using picosecond laser pulses of
59 relatively high pulse energy, plasma wakefield acceleration in the self-modulated regime produces
60 7.5 nC electrons hence inducing photon number of $10^9 \text{ Photons keV}^{-1} \text{ Sr}^{-1}$. However, the
61 divergence of bremsstrahlung gamma-ray beams is usually quite large (\sim several tens of degree)[17]
62 because of the scattering by the nucleus coulomb field.

63 In this work, to obtain high yield low divergence gamma sources, we first produce a
64 collimated high charge electron beam through picosecond laser-driven self-modulated wakefield
65 acceleration (SM-LWFA). Then it is sent to a high-Z target. The bremsstrahlung gamma-ray
66 photons are measured with a high-resolution Compton-scattering spectrometer (CSS). The latter
67 contains a gradual magnetic field to improve the energy resolution. The measured spectra are
68 reproduced with GEANT4 simulations, suggesting a total photon number of 2.2×10^{11}
69 gamma-photons ($>0.3 \text{ MeV}$) within a divergence angle of 7.73° . Such gamma-photons are
70 advantageous in radiography, exploring nuclear photonics, strong-field QED physics etc.

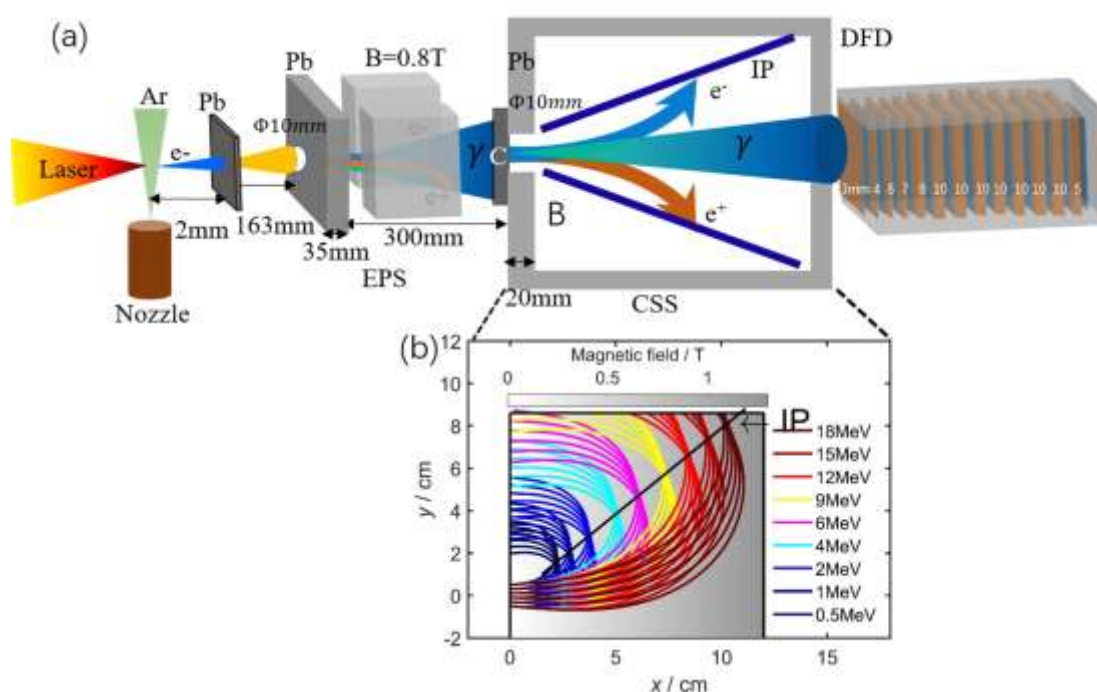
71 2. Experimental setup

72 The experiment was carried out in the SG-II UP picosecond experimental platform[19] at
73 Shanghai Institute of Optics and Fine Mechanics(SIOM). The schematic diagram of the
74 experiment is shown in Fig. 1. A linearly polarized laser pulse with a pulse duration of $\tau_p = 1 \text{ ps}$,
75 a center wavelength of 1053 nm , and an energy of 120 J was focused $600 \mu\text{m}$ above a pulsed
76 nozzle which is employed to produce a high-density argon gas jet by an $f/2.8$ off-axis parabolic
77 mirror. The focal spot has a full width at half maximum (FWHM) of $35 \mu\text{m}$, reaching peak
78 intensity of $3.1 \times 10^{18} \text{ W/cm}^2$. On-target laser field corresponds to a normalized laser amplitude
79 $a \approx 2.3$, where $a = eE/m\omega c$, e and m are the electron charge and mass, E is the electric
80 field, ω is the laser frequency, and c is the speed of light in vacuum, respectively. The back
81 pressure of the argon gas target in the experiment was $17 - 30 \text{ bar}$, and optical interferometry of
82 the laser-gas jet interaction indicated that the electron density reached a near critical density region
83 $2 \sim 4 \times 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, corresponding to a plasma wavelength $\lambda_p \approx 1.9 \mu\text{m}$. A 2 mm thick lead
84 target was placed 2 mm behind the gas jet. When the laser-accelerated energetic electrons pass
85 through the solid target, they are scattered by the nuclei and emit photons through bremsstrahlung.

86 Electron-positron pair creation through Bethe-Heitler process[20] also occurs during the
 87 interaction process when the emitted photons further interact with nuclei. An electron-positron
 88 spectrometer (EPS) with the magnetic field of $B = 0.8\text{T}$ was added 220 mm behind the lead
 89 target to deflect the positrons and electrons and measure their energy spectra, which had an
 90 acceptance divergence angle of 2.86° . We chose Fuji BAS-SR (or BAS-TR) image plates (IPs)
 91 as the recording detector. The IPs was scanned using a GE Typhoon 7000 flatbed image plate
 92 scanner[21].

93

94



95

96 **FIG.1.** Schematic of experimental setup. (a) A laser pulse propagates through an argon gas target, energetic
 97 electrons are generated and collide with the 2mm lead target located 2mm behind the gas target to generate
 98 gamma-ray beams. An electron-positron spectrometer (EPS) with an aperture of 10 mm located 220 mm behind
 99 the lead target with an acceptance divergence angle of 2.86° is added to deflect the positrons and electrons and
 100 measure their energy spectra. The gamma-ray beam spectra are measured with a typical differential filtering
 101 detector (DFD) and a Compton-scattering spectrometer (CSS) with a gradual magnet, which increases linearly
 102 along the laser direction and fills the whole spectrometer. The converter target in the CSS is carbon with thickness
 103 of 2 mm. The CSS and differential filtering detector are added 500 mm behind the lead target, which has an
 104 acceptance divergence angle of 1.1° . (b) Trajectories of the converted electron beams dispersed in the gradual
 105 magnetic field. There trajectories represent incident electron beams with energies 0.5 MeV-18 MeV. The converter
 106 electrons enter the magnetic field with different transverse positions of $[-5, 5]\text{mm}$, and different angles of
 107 $[-5^\circ, 5^\circ]$.

108

109 One key aspect of our experiments is the measurement of the gamma-ray spectrum.
110 Gamma-ray beams driven by laser-accelerated electrons are of short pulse duration, comparable to
111 that of the laser pulse (~ 1 ps here). Conventional scintillation and semiconductor detectors are not
112 applicable to resolve the energy spectrum of the gamma-ray flash since all photons reach the
113 detector in a short instance, resulting in the integrated photon energy being the sum of all received
114 gamma-ray beam energy. Therefore, methods like Compton-scattering[22, 23], photonuclear
115 activation[24, 25], and differential filtering[26, 27] are employed to detect ultra-short gamma-ray
116 flashes. The neutron operation thresholds relevant to the photonuclear activation cover a wide
117 energy range[25], while the attenuation coefficients are not so sensitive to gamma energy above
118 2MeV in differential filtering [28]. Thus their spectrum resolutions are limited, especially in the
119 high energy region.

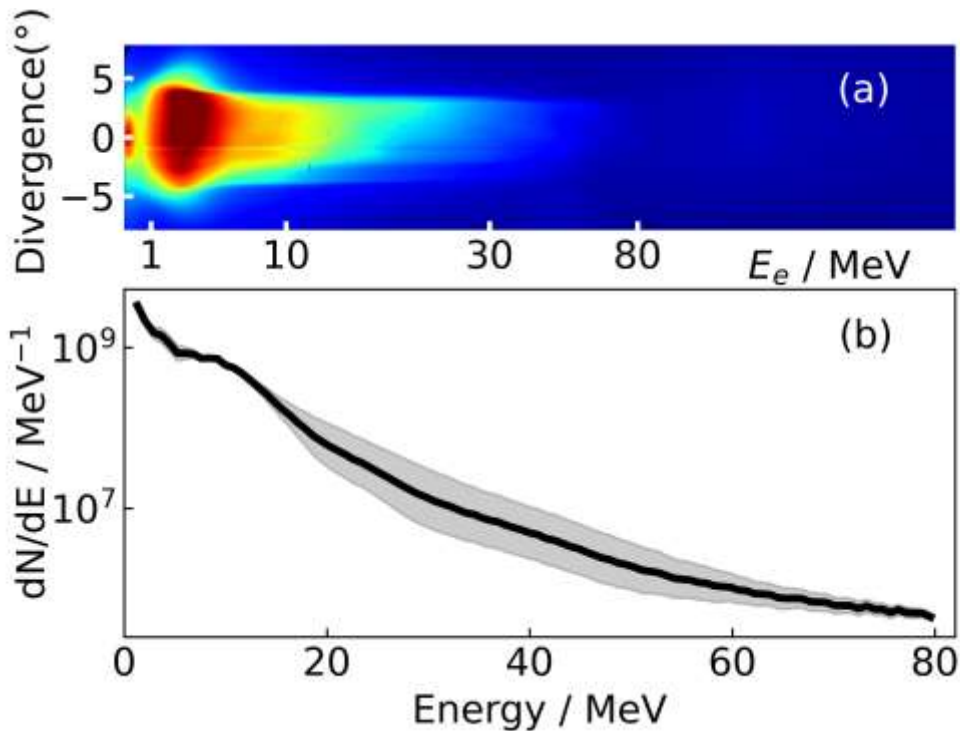
120 In this experiment, we chose differential filtering detector (DFD) and CSS together to detect
121 these photons. A typical CSS usually uses a uniform magnetic field profile[22] or a stepped
122 magnetic field profile[23] to deflect the photon-induced electron-positron pairs. The latter
123 employs a curved surface plate to improve the energy resolution. Instead, we apply a gradual
124 magnetic field for CSS, which increases linearly along the laser direction and fills the whole
125 spectrometer. Thus, it is capable of gathering the converted electrons with the same energy but
126 different emitting angles together and enhance the energy resolution of the gamma-ray beam as
127 shown in Fig. 1(b). There is the electron-positron pair effect in MeV gamma-ray range. The
128 influence of the electron-positron pair effect can be largely eliminated through their mutual
129 cancellation by the adoption of a symmetrical design for the spectrometer such that the positron
130 and electron spectra are measured simultaneously. Then the energy spectrum of gamma-beams can
131 be obtained from the corrected converted electron energy spectrum. The DFD is placed behind the
132 CSS, which consists of 13 pieces of lead filter with dimensions $2.5\text{cm} \times 2.5\text{cm}$ and different
133 thicknesses in the range of 3 – 10mm, placed one by one in the beam path, as shown in Fig. 1(a).
134 The gamma-ray beam spectrum is calculated using the gamma-ray signal in each IP, considering
135 the lead filter thickness and the attenuation coefficients of these thirteen energy groups. We use
136 equation $D_i = \sum_j^n R_{ij} \Phi_j, i = 1, 2, \dots, 13$ to calculate gamma-ray beam spectrum where D_i
137 represents the energy deposition on the i channel detector, Φ_j is the photon number in the j

138 energy interval, n is the number of filters, R_{ij} is the energy deposition coefficient of photons in
139 the j energy interval on the i filter. The CSS and DFD are added 500 mm behind the lead target,
140 which has an acceptance divergence angle of 1.1° . Additionally, the CSS and DFD are shielded
141 by lead box with the thickness of 1 cm and 2cm to avoid the background radiation. Thus, the
142 spectrometers measure the gamma-ray photon signal with low noise.

143 **3. Experimental results and discussion**

144 When a high-intensity $a > 1$ laser pulse with pulse duration τ_p larger than the plasma
145 period λ_p / c propagates through an underdense plasma $n_e < n_c$, it undergoes self-focusing and
146 drives plasma waves through the Raman forward scattering (RFS) and self-modulation
147 instabilities[16]. The gas target is ionized simultaneously and a significant number of electrons are
148 injected and accelerated. In our case, an argon cluster target with high density is employed to
149 enhance the beam charge of energetic electrons from laser-driven electron acceleration[29]. The
150 raw-data recorded by the EPS in Fig. 2(a) shows that the electron bunch has a broad energy
151 spectrum with a cut-off energy of 80 MeV. After the deconvolution[30], the electron spectrum is
152 plotted in Fig. 2(b). The electrons are first accelerated by the longitudinal field, the transverse field
153 leads to betatron-like oscillations of the off-axis electrons. This transverse electric field of the laser,
154 when in near resonance with the betatron motion of the electrons, will in turn increase the
155 transverse momentum of the electrons, which can be converted into longitudinal momentum via
156 the $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}$ force. This process is analogous to the direct laser acceleration (DLA)[31]. The black line
157 represents the geometric mean value of the data. It is noted that the electrons accelerated in the
158 plasma wave also undergo betatron oscillations about the laser axis due to the restoring force of
159 the ion column that forms behind the drive laser[16]. However most of the radiation from betatron
160 oscillations cannot pass through the thick lead target in the experiment.

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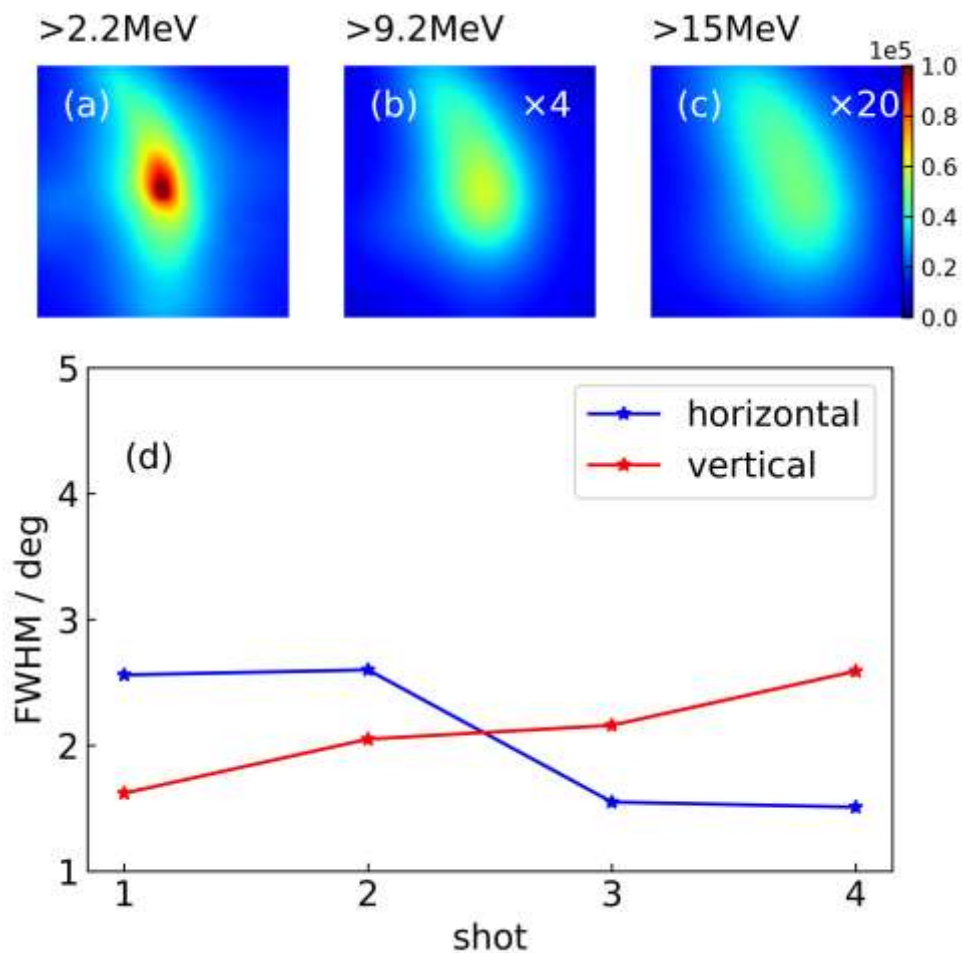


162

163 **FIG.2.** (a) Raw signal of the laser-accelerated electron beam recorded in the IP. (b) Extracted energy spectrum of
 164 the energetic electron beam. The black line represents the geometric mean value of the data of two shots. The
 165 shaded regions represent uncertainty.

166

167 Removing the lead target and spectrometers, a spatial high-energy electron beam analyzer
 168 (SHEEBA)[32] composed of Al plates and IPs is located 500 mm behind the argon target to
 169 detect the spatial distribution of electrons. Fig. 3(a) shows a spatial profile of electrons with
 170 energy $> 2.2\text{MeV}$, blocked by a 5-mm-thick Al plate in front. It has a Gaussian-type distribution
 171 with horizontal divergence of 1.51° and vertical divergence of 2.59° for shot 4. The spatial
 172 distribution of electrons seems to be elliptic, almost the same direction with laser polarization,
 173 which could be attributed to the residual transverse momentum[16, 33] that the electrons gain at
 174 the moment of ionization and/or to DLA[34, 35]. The divergence angle of electron beam increases
 175 while the energy increases from $E > 9.2\text{MeV}$ to $E > 15\text{MeV}$, as shown in Fig. 3(b,c). Electron
 176 beam divergence angles of 4 continuous shots show good stability in Fig. 3(d), where the blue and
 177 red lines indicate the horizontal and vertical divergence angles respectively. An electron beam
 178 charge of 26 nC is measured here, which is beneficial to the subsequent applications. Detailed
 179 analysis of the generated electron beams will appear elsewhere. Such high charge electron beams
 180 have also been obtained by a picosecond-scale[31] kilojoule-class laser, where the total charge in
 181 the electron beams exceeds 700 nC and scales approximately linearly with laser intensity.



182

183 **FIG.3.** (a-c) Spatial distribution of the electron beam recorded in the IP corresponding to different energies,
 184 namely, $E > 2.2$, $E > 9.2$, and $E > 15$ MeV. (d) Electron beam divergence angles of 4 continuous shots. The blue
 185 and red lines represent horizontal and vertical divergence angles respectively.

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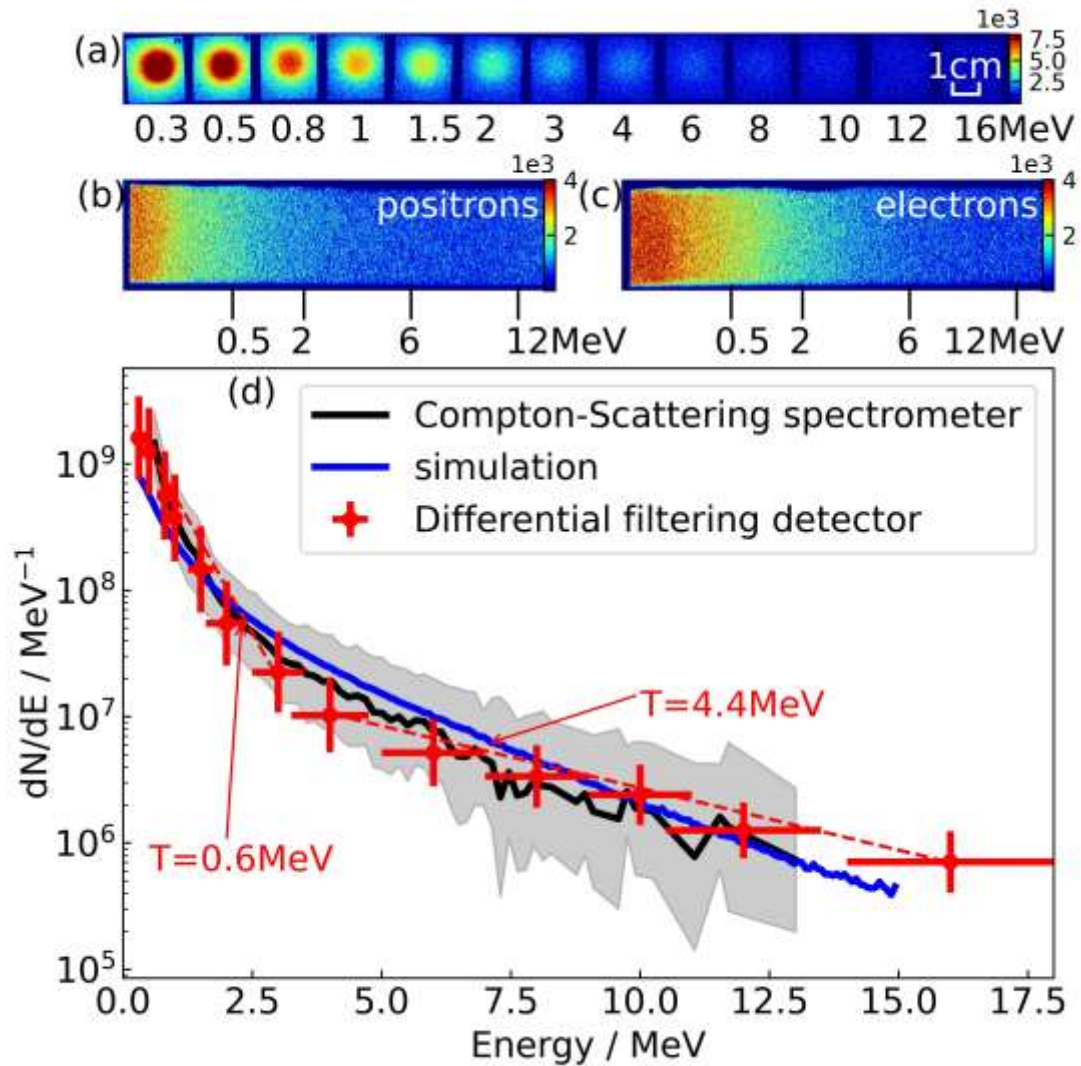
187 These electrons with nC of charge and low divergence then collide with the 2mm thick lead
 188 target to generate gamma-ray photons through bremsstrahlung radiation. The EPS serve to remove
 189 the secondary electrons and positrons leaving the converting target here. The raw-data recorded by
 190 the DFD is shown in Fig. 4(a) within the acceptance angle 1.1° . The spectrum of gamma-ray
 191 beam shows a two-temperature structure (0.6 MeV and 4.4 MeV). It should also be noticed that
 192 the gamma-ray signal on the 6th IP is still clear enough after penetrating a 3.8 cm-thick lead-layer.
 193 With a 3-mm-thick lead in front of the first IP in Fig. 4(a) to block gamma-ray beams with energy
 194 lower than 0.3 MeV, a high total photon number of 2.2×10^9 is detected by the DFD. The
 195 raw-data of positrons and electrons recorded by the CSS are shown in Fig. 4(b) and Fig. 4(c). The
 196 continuous gamma-ray beam spectrum of geometric mean is shown in Fig. 4(d) by a black line,

197 which is in good agreement with the result from the DFD and have a higher energy resolution.

198 To model the gamma-ray generation process, a series of test particle simulations are carried
199 out with the Monte-Carlo code Geant4[36]. The simulation includes several physical processes
200 such as bremsstrahlung, scattering, ionization, pair production, photoelectric effect and Compton
201 scattering. A total number of 10^7 electrons with the same energy and spatial distributions as the
202 experimental measurement in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 impact a 2-mm-thick lead target. The electron
203 source is considered point-like. The simulated gamma-ray beam spectrum is shown by the blue
204 line in Fig. 4(d), and it is in good agreement with the experimental result especially in the energy
205 range above 2.5MeV. The simulated temperatures of the gamma-ray beam within 1.1° are found
206 to be 0.9MeV for low-energy part and 2.7MeV for high-energy part. The slight difference for
207 low-energy part from the experimental result has not been clarified, and further work is needed.
208 Simulations also indicate that the produced gamma-ray source has a FWHM size of $433\mu\text{m}$ at
209 emergent surface of the lead converter.

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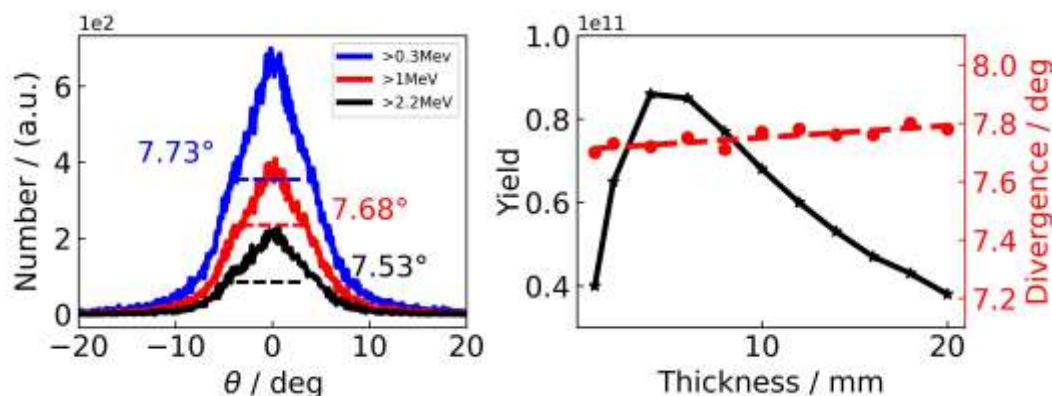
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213 **FIG.4.** (a) The raw-data of gamma-photon signal recorded by the DFD. The raw-data of positrons (b) and
 214 electrons (c) recorded by the CSS. (d) Experimental spectra from the CSS (black solid), the DFD (red cross), and
 215 GEANT4 simulation with the experimental electrons as input (blue solid), within the divergence angle of 1.1° .
 216 These horizontal error bars represent thirteen energy intervals and the vertical error bars represent uncertainty for
 217 DFD. The black line represents the geometric mean value of the data and the shaded regions represent uncertainty
 218 for CSS.

219

220 The simulated angular divergence of gamma-ray beam with different energies are
 221 summarized in Fig. 5(a). It can be seen that the FWHM divergence of the gamma-ray beam of
 222 $> 0.3 \text{ MeV}$ is only 7.73° , which is lower than the recent experimental results under
 223 commensurate laser conditions[16]. Considering that the gamma-ray beam has a two-dimensional
 224 Gaussian distribution, the acceptance angle of 1.1° in the experiment means that only 1% of
 225 the photons is measured. Therefore, the total photon number generated in the experiment is
 226 estimated to be 2.2×10^{11} -among the highest yield comparing to previous results[16, 17, 37]

227 driven by laser-accelerated electrons. It is noted that the gamma-ray photon number could be
 228 further increased by raising the picosecond-scale laser energy[31]. The divergence of the
 229 gamma-ray beam decreases with the increase of energy as shown in Fig. 5(a). Overall, the
 230 gamma-ray beam with high yield and low divergence produced in our experiment could be a
 231 promising source for electron-positron production, radiography measurements in HEDS and ICF
 232 and nuclear photonics.



233
 234 **FIG.5.** (a) The divergence of gamma-ray beam by GEANT4 simulation with energy $> 0.3\text{MeV}$, $> 1\text{MeV}$ and $>$
 235 2.2MeV . (b) Gamma-ray photon ($> 0.3\text{MeV}$) yields and divergence (FWHM) versus different lead thicknesses.
 236 The simulation is performed with the experimental electrons as input.

237

238 The influence of thicknesses and FWHM have also been studied by simulation shown in Fig.
 239 5(b). As the target thickness, the generated gamma-ray photon number increases due to continuous
 240 interaction between electrons and the target. However, the energetic photons will be attenuated as
 241 the target thickness further increases. When these two processes get balance, the largest yield of
 242 gamma photons is obtained with the lead target thickness of 4mm. The divergence angle of the
 243 gamma-beams is basically unchanged while the target thickness increase.

244 4. Conclusion

245 In conclusion, we use a picosecond laser to generate electron beams with large charge and
 246 low divergence, and subsequently to generate gamma-ray beams with high yield low divergence
 247 through bremsstrahlung radiation. A typical DFD and a special-designed high detection resolution
 248 CSS with a gradual magnetic field are used at the same time to detect the generated gamma-ray
 249 beams precisely. The gamma-ray beams have a total photon number of 2.2×10^{11} , size of $433\mu\text{m}$
 250 and divergence of 7.73° , which is promising sources for photonuclear reaction and clinical
 251 applications. Future improvements to these sources can be done by using higher laser energies.

252

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