

## 27. PASSAGE OF PARTICLES THROUGH MATTER

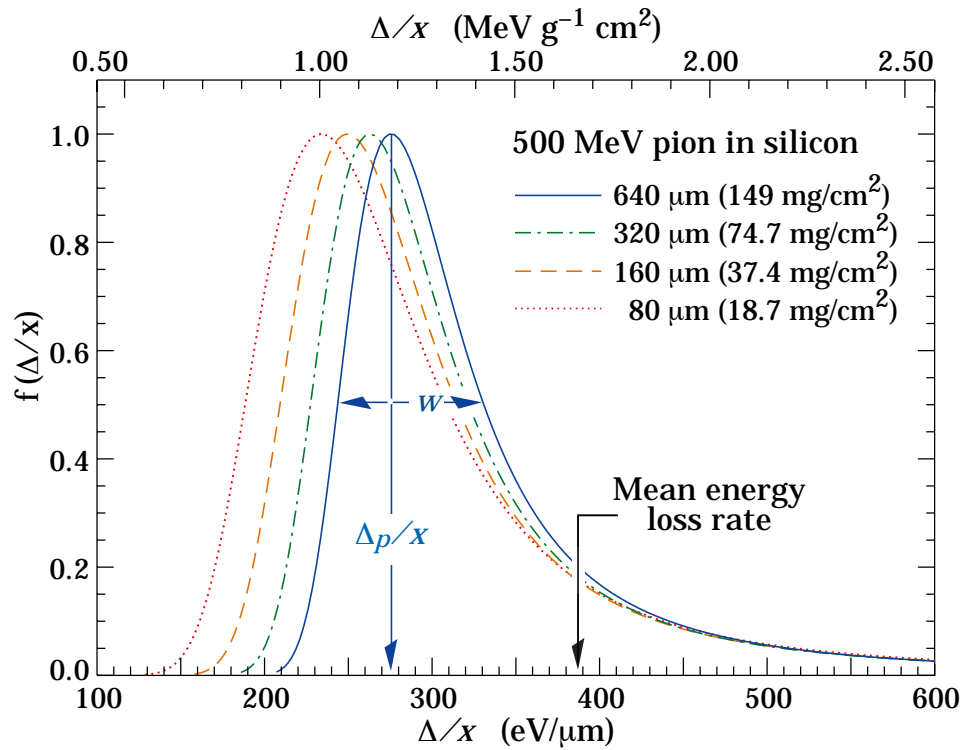
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## 27.1. Notation

**Table 27.1:** Summary of variables used in this section. The kinematic variables  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  have their usual meanings.

Symbol	Definition	Units or Value
$\alpha$	Fine structure constant ( $e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar c$ )	1/137.035 999 11(46)
$M$	Incident particle mass	MeV/ $c^2$
$E$	Incident particle energy $\gamma M c^2$	MeV
$T$	Kinetic energy	MeV
$m_e c^2$	Electron mass $\times c^2$	0.510 998 918(44) MeV
$r_e$	Classical electron radius $e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e c^2$	2.817 940 325(28) fm
$N_A$	Avogadro's number	$6.022 1415(10) \times 10^{23}$ mol $^{-1}$
$ze$	Charge of incident particle	
$Z$	Atomic number of absorber	
$A$	Atomic mass of absorber	g mol $^{-1}$
$K/A$	$4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 / A$	0.307 075 MeV g $^{-1}$ cm $^2$ for $A = 1$ g mol $^{-1}$
$I$	Mean excitation energy	eV ( <i>Nota bene!</i> )
$\delta(\beta\gamma)$	Density effect correction to ionization energy loss	
$\hbar\omega_p$	Plasma energy ( $\sqrt{4\pi N_e r_e^3} m_e c^2 / \alpha$ )	28.816 $\sqrt{\rho \langle Z/A \rangle}$ eV <sup>(a)</sup>
$N_c$	Electron density	(units of $r_e$ ) $^{-3}$
$w_j$	Weight fraction of the $j$ th element in a compound or mixture	
$n_j$	$\propto$ number of $j$ th kind of atoms in a compound or mixture	
—	$4\alpha r_e^2 N_A / A$	(716.408 g cm $^{-2}$ ) $^{-1}$ for $A = 1$ g mol $^{-1}$
$X_0$	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 $^{-2}$

(a) For  $\rho$  in g cm $^{-3}$ .



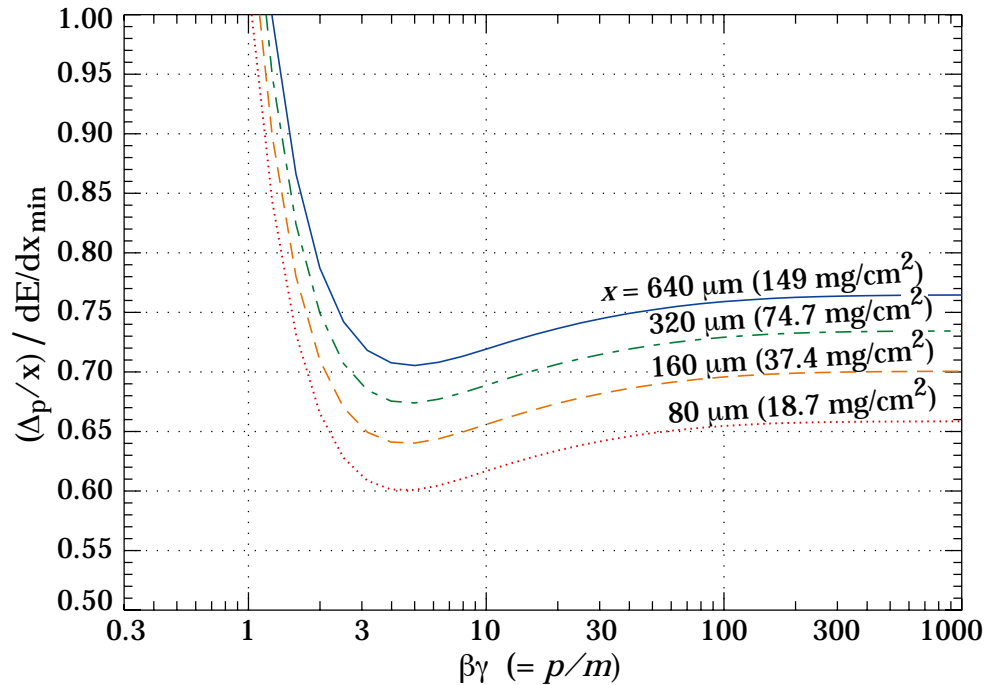
**Figure 27.7:** Straggling functions in silicon for 500 MeV pions, normalized to unity at the most probable value  $\delta_p/x$ . The width  $w$  is the full width at half maximum. See full-color version on color pages at end of book.

**27.2.7. Ionization yields :** Physicists frequently relate total energy loss to the number of ion pairs produced near the particle's track. This relation becomes complicated for relativistic particles due to the wandering of energetic knock-on electrons whose ranges exceed the dimensions of the fiducial volume. For a qualitative appraisal of the nonlocality of energy deposition in various media by such modestly energetic knock-on electrons, see Ref. 28. The mean local energy dissipation per local ion pair produced,  $W$ , while essentially constant for relativistic particles, increases at slow particle speeds [29]. For gases,  $W$  can be surprisingly sensitive to trace amounts of various contaminants [29]. Furthermore, ionization yields in practical cases may be greatly influenced by such factors as subsequent recombination [30].

### 27.3. Multiple scattering through small angles

A charged particle traversing a medium is deflected by many small-angle scatters. Most of this deflection is due to Coulomb scattering from nuclei, and hence the effect is called multiple Coulomb scattering. (However, for hadronic projectiles, the strong interactions also contribute to multiple scattering.) The Coulomb scattering distribution is well represented by the theory of Molière [31]. It is roughly Gaussian for small deflection angles, but at larger angles (greater than a few  $\theta_0$ , defined below) it behaves like Rutherford scattering, with larger tails than does a Gaussian distribution.

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**Figure 27.8:** Most probable energy loss in silicon, scaled to the mean loss of a minimum ionizing particle,  $388 \text{ eV}/\mu\text{m}$  ( $1.66 \text{ MeV g}^{-1}\text{cm}^2$ ). See full-color version on color pages at end of book.

If we define

$$\theta_0 = \theta_{\text{plane}}^{\text{rms}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \theta_{\text{space}}^{\text{rms}} . \quad (27.11)$$

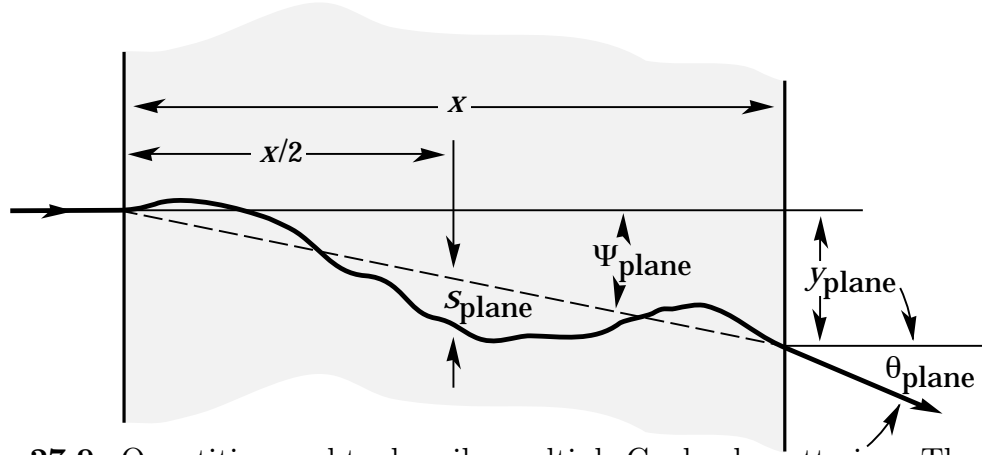
then it is sufficient for many applications to use a Gaussian approximation for the central 98% of the projected angular distribution, with a width given by [32,33]

$$\theta_0 = \frac{13.6 \text{ MeV}}{\beta c p} \approx \sqrt{x/X_0} \left[ 1 + 0.038 \ln(x/X_0) \right] . \quad (27.12)$$

Here  $p$ ,  $\beta c$ , and  $z$  are the momentum, velocity, and charge number of the incident particle, and  $x/X_0$  is the thickness of the scattering medium in radiation lengths (defined below). This value of  $\theta_0$  is from a fit to Molière distribution [31] for singly charged particles with  $\beta = 1$  for all  $Z$ , and is accurate to 11% or better for  $10^{-3} < x/X_0 < 100$ .

Eq. (27.12) describes scattering from a single material, while the usual problem involves the multiple scattering of a particle traversing many different layers and mixtures. Since it is from a fit to a Molière distribution, it is incorrect to add the individual  $\theta_0$  contributions in quadrature; the result is systematically too small. It is much more accurate to apply Eq. (27.12) once, after finding  $x$  and  $X_0$  for the combined scatterer.

Lynch and Dahl have extended this phenomenological approach, fitting Gaussian distributions to a variable fraction of the Molière distribution for arbitrary scatterers [33], and achieve accuracies of 2% or better.



**Figure 27.9:** Quantities used to describe multiple Coulomb scattering. The particle is incident in the plane of the figure.

The nonprojected (space) and projected (plane) angular distributions are given approximately by [31]

$$\frac{1}{2\pi\theta_0^2} \exp\left(-\frac{\theta_{\text{space}}^2}{2\theta_0^2}\right) d\Omega, \quad (27.13)$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\theta_0} \exp\left(-\frac{\theta_{\text{plane}}^2}{2\theta_0^2}\right) d\theta_{\text{plane}}, \quad (27.14)$$

where  $\theta$  is the deflection angle. In this approximation,  $\theta_{\text{space}}^2 \approx (\theta_{\text{plane},x}^2 + \theta_{\text{plane},y}^2)$ , where the  $x$  and  $y$  axes are orthogonal to the direction of motion, and  $d\Omega \approx d\theta_{\text{plane},x} d\theta_{\text{plane},y}$ . Deflections into  $\theta_{\text{plane},x}$  and  $\theta_{\text{plane},y}$  are independent and identically distributed.

Figure 27.9 shows these and other quantities sometimes used to describe multiple Coulomb scattering. They are

$$\psi_{\text{plane}}^{\text{rms}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \theta_{\text{plane}}^{\text{rms}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \theta_0, \quad (27.15)$$

$$y_{\text{plane}}^{\text{rms}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} x \theta_{\text{plane}}^{\text{rms}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} x \theta_0, \quad (27.16)$$

$$s_{\text{plane}}^{\text{rms}} = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3}} x \theta_{\text{plane}}^{\text{rms}} = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3}} x \theta_0. \quad (27.17)$$

All the quantitative estimates in this section apply only in the limit of small  $\theta_{\text{plane}}^{\text{rms}}$  and in the absence of large-angle scatters. The random variables  $s$ ,  $\psi$ ,  $y$ , and  $\theta$  in a given plane are distributed in a correlated fashion (see Sec. 31.1 of this *Review* for the definition of the correlation coefficient). Obviously,  $y \approx x\psi$ . In addition,  $y$  and  $\theta$  have the correlation coefficient  $\rho_{y\theta} = \sqrt{3}/2 \approx 0.87$ . For Monte Carlo generation of a joint  $(y_{\text{plane}}, \theta_{\text{plane}})$  distribution, or for other calculations, it may be most convenient to work with independent Gaussian random variables  $(z_1, z_2)$  with mean zero and variance one, and then set

$$y_{\text{plane}} = z_1 x \theta_0 (1 - \rho_{y\theta}^2)^{1/2} / \sqrt{3} + z_2 \rho_{y\theta} x \theta_0 / \sqrt{3}$$

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$$=z_1 x \theta_0/\sqrt{12} + z_2 x \theta_0/2 ; \quad (27.18)$$

$$\theta_{\text{plane}} = z_2 \theta_0 . \quad (27.19)$$

Note that the second term for  $y_{\text{plane}}$  equals  $x \theta_{\text{plane}}/2$  and represents the displacement that would have occurred had the deflection  $\theta_{\text{plane}}$  all occurred at the single point  $x/2$ .

For heavy ions the multiple Coulomb scattering has been measured and compared with various theoretical distributions [34].

### 27.4. Photon and electron interactions in matter

**27.4.1. Radiation length :** High-energy electrons predominantly lose energy in matter by bremsstrahlung, and high-energy photons by  $e^+e^-$  pair production. The characteristic amount of matter traversed for these related interactions is called the radiation length  $X_0$ , usually measured in  $\text{g cm}^{-2}$ . It is both (a) the mean distance over which a high-energy electron loses all but  $1/e$  of its energy by bremsstrahlung, and (b)  $\frac{7}{9}$  of the mean free path for pair production by a high-energy photon [35]. It is also the appropriate scale length for describing high-energy electromagnetic cascades.  $X_0$  has been calculated and tabulated by Y.S. Tsai [36]:

$$\frac{1}{X_0} = 4\alpha r_e^2 \frac{N_A}{A} \left\{ Z^2 [L_{\text{rad}} - f(Z)] + Z L'_{\text{rad}} \right\} . \quad (27.20)$$

For  $A = 1 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$ ,  $4\alpha r_e^2 N_A/A = (716.408 \text{ g cm}^{-2})^{-1}$ .  $L_{\text{rad}}$  and  $L'_{\text{rad}}$  are given in Table 27.2. The function  $f(Z)$  is an infinite sum, but for elements up to uranium can be represented to 4-place accuracy by

$$f(Z) = a^2 [(1 + a^2)^{-1} + 0.20206 - 0.0369 a^2 + 0.0083 a^4 - 0.002 a^6] , \quad (27.21)$$

where  $a = \alpha Z$  [37].

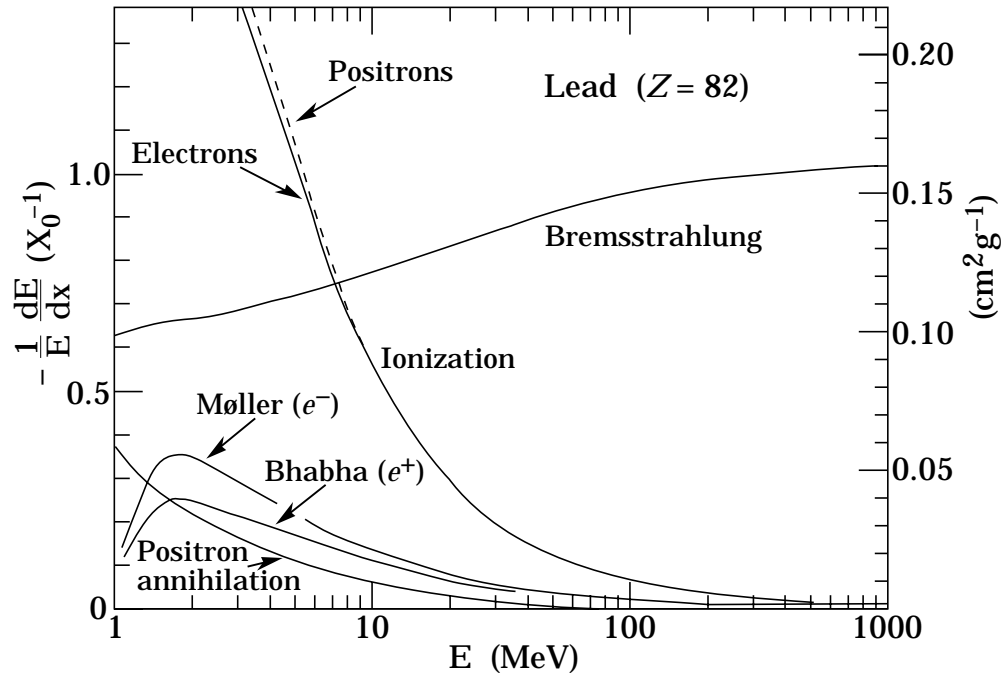
**Table 27.2:** Tsai's  $L_{\text{rad}}$  and  $L'_{\text{rad}}$ , for use in calculating the radiation length in an element using Eq. (27.20).

Element	$Z$	$L_{\text{rad}}$	$L'_{\text{rad}}$
H	1	5.31	6.144
He	2	4.79	5.621
Li	3	4.74	5.805
Be	4	4.71	5.924
Others	$> 4$	$\ln(184.15 Z^{-1/3})$	$\ln(1194 Z^{-2/3})$

Although it is easy to use Eq. (27.20) to calculate  $X_0$ , the functional dependence on  $Z$  is somewhat hidden. Dahl provides a compact fit to the data [38]:

$$X_0 = \frac{716.4 \text{ g cm}^{-2} A}{Z(Z + 1) \ln(287/\sqrt{Z})} . \quad (27.22)$$

Results using this formula agree with Tsai's values to better than 2.5% for all elements except helium, where the result is about 5% low.



**Figure 27.10:** Fractional energy loss per radiation length in lead as a function of electron or positron energy. Electron (positron) scattering is considered as ionization when the energy loss per collision is below 0.255 MeV, and as Møller (Bhabha) scattering when it is above. Adapted from Fig. 3.2 from Messel and Crawford, *Electron-Photon Shower Distribution Function Tables for Lead, Copper, and Air Absorbers*, Pergamon Press, 1970. Messel and Crawford use  $X_0(\text{Pb}) = 5.82 \text{ g/cm}^2$ , but we have modified the figures to reflect the value given in the Table of Atomic and Nuclear Properties of Materials ( $X_0(\text{Pb}) = 6.37 \text{ g/cm}^2$ ).

The radiation length in a mixture or compound may be approximated by

$$1/X_0 = \sum w_j/X_j, \quad (27.23)$$

where  $w_j$  and  $X_j$  are the fraction by weight and the radiation length for the  $j$ th element.

**27.4.2. Energy loss by electrons :** At low energies electrons and positrons primarily lose energy by ionization, although other processes (Møller scattering, Bhabha scattering,  $e^+$  annihilation) contribute, as shown in Fig. 27.10. While ionization loss rates rise logarithmically with energy, bremsstrahlung losses rise nearly linearly (fractional loss is nearly independent of energy), and dominates above a few tens of MeV in most materials

Ionization loss by electrons and positrons differs from loss by heavy particles because of the kinematics, spin, and the identity of the incident electron with the electrons which it ionizes. Complete discussions and tables can be found in Refs. 7, 8, and 27.