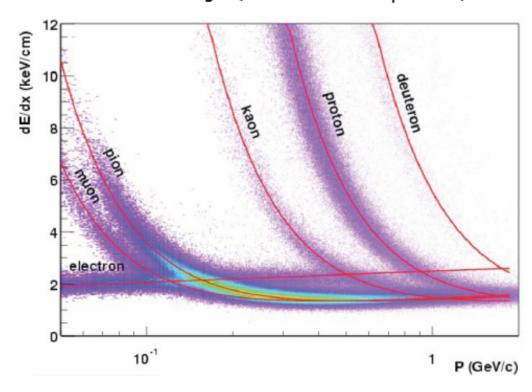
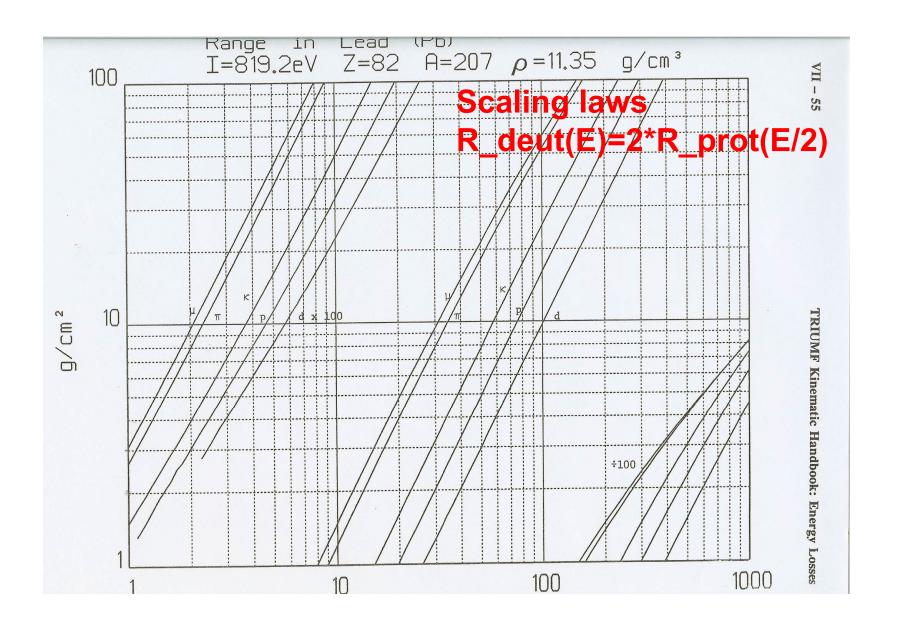
ELECTRON ENERGY LOSS

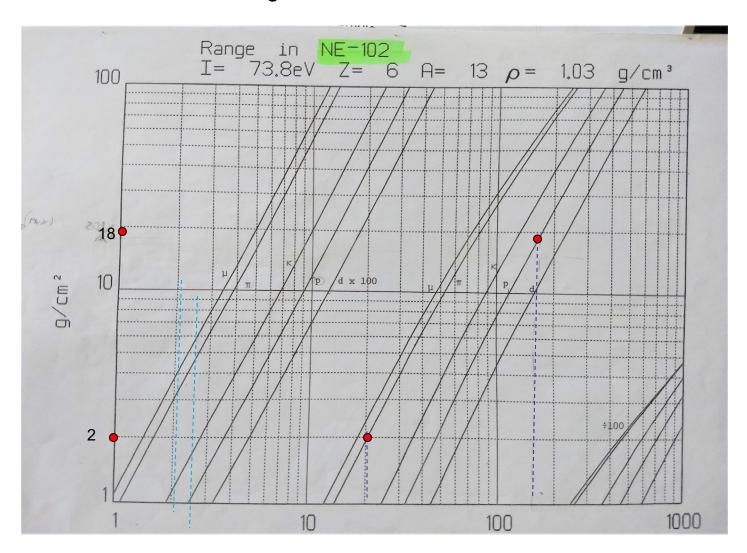
• STAR Time-Projection Chamber (TPC):

10% Methan / 90% Argon (2mbar above athm. pressure)

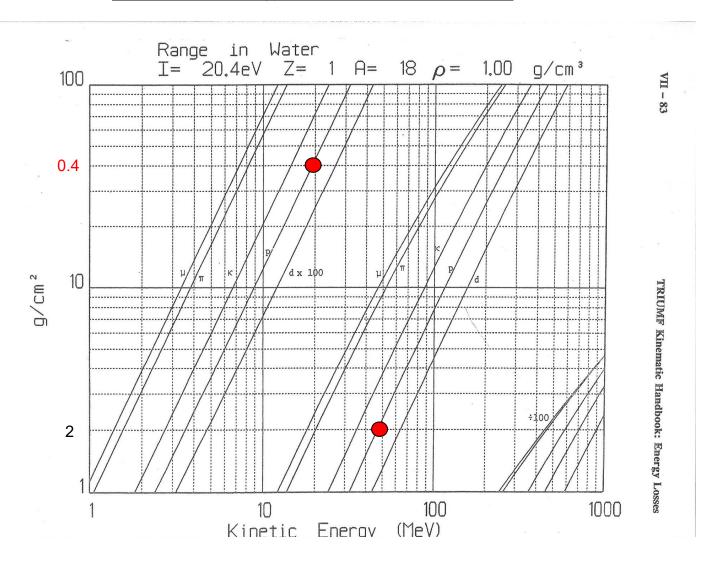


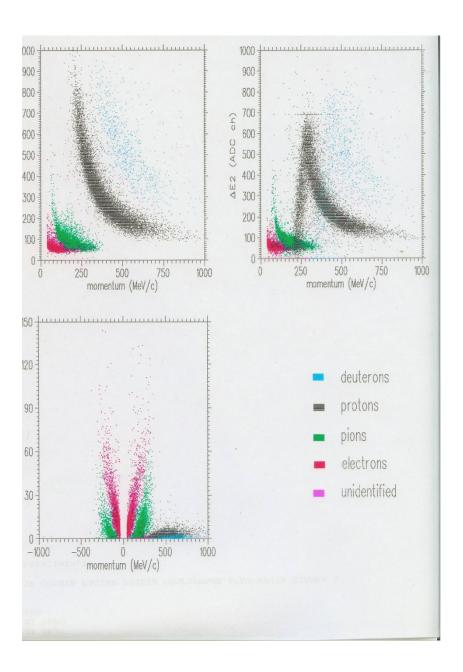


Mass discrimination also possible by making RANGE measurements See exercise n. 7 on range discrimination

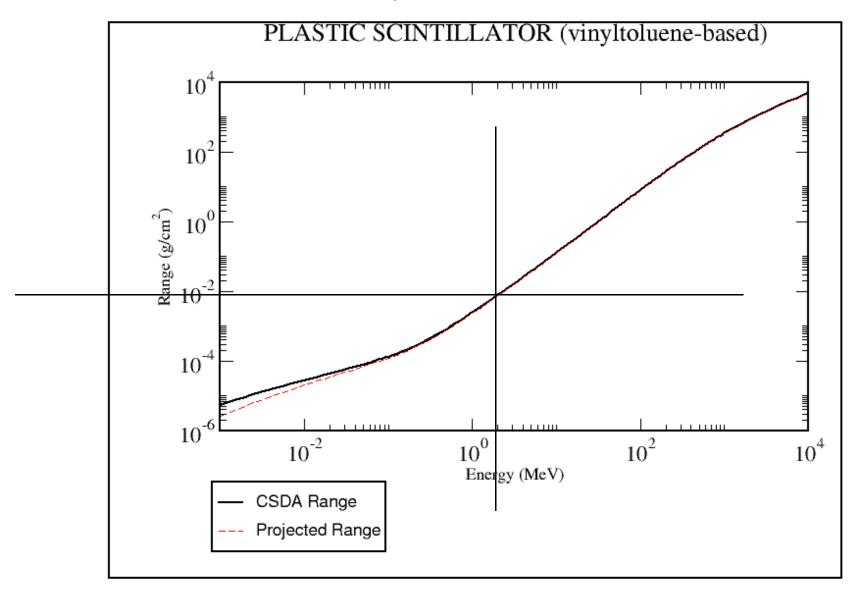


Exercise on energy loss inside/outside tumor

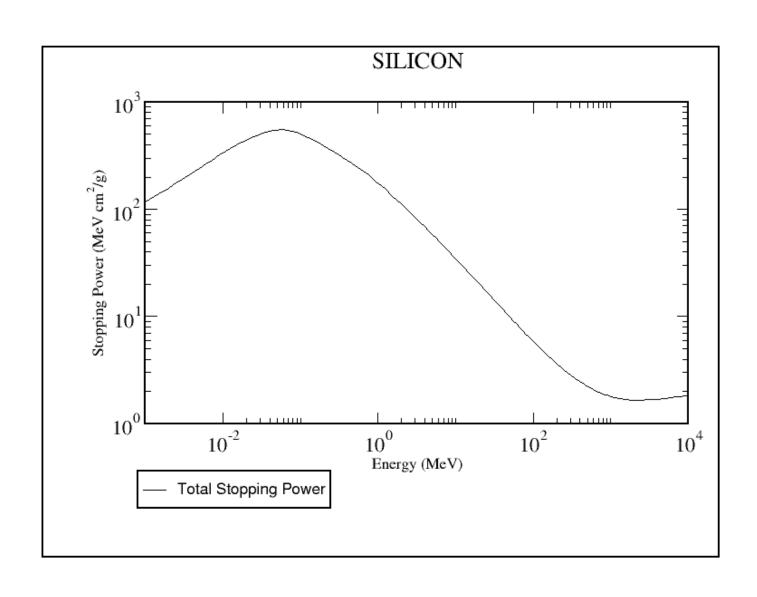




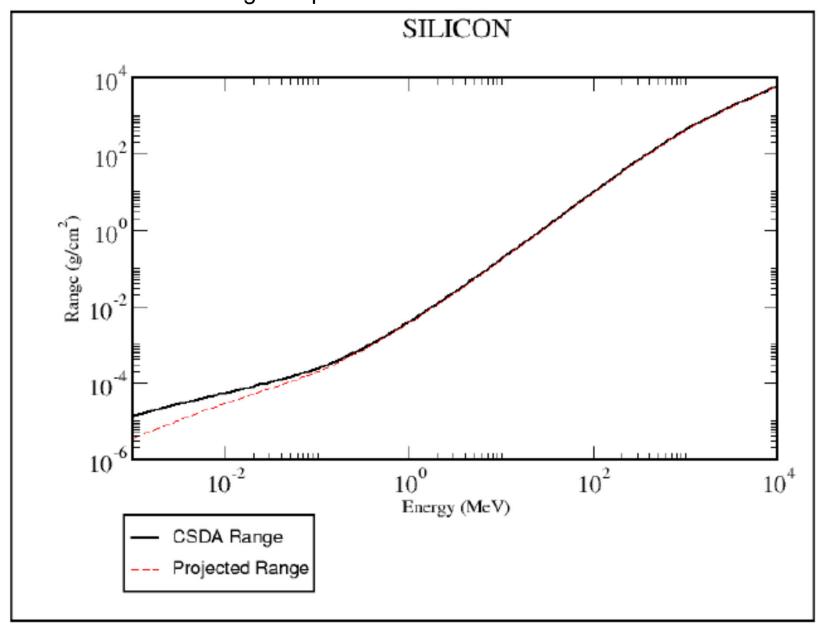
Range for protons in pl. scint

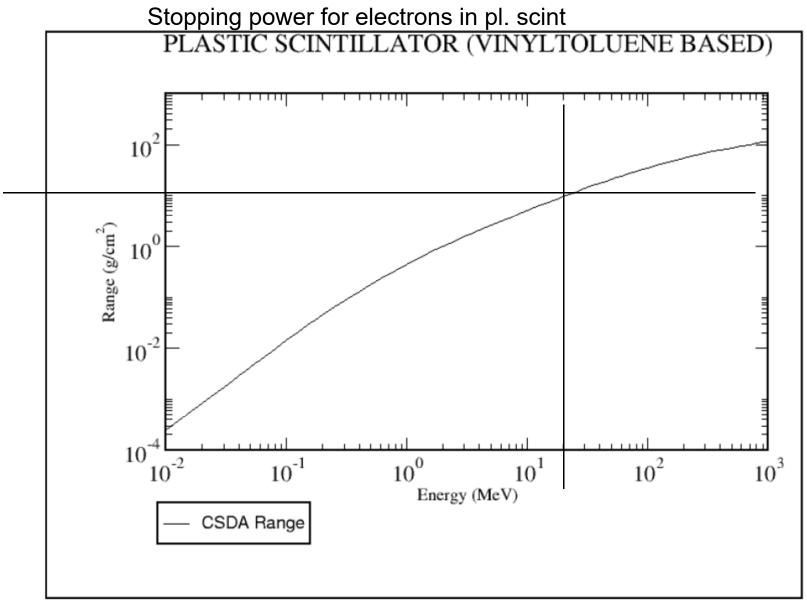


Stopping power for protons in silicon



Range for protons in silicon





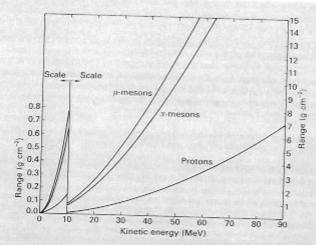


Fig. 11.3 The range kinetic energy curves for protons, π -mesons and μ -mesons in carbon. Equation (11.1) tells us that at low energies the rate of energy loss is varying inversely as the velocity squared and therefore every increment in incident energy requires a disproportionate increase in range to remove that increase in energy; thus for all particles the range increases faster than linearly with the incident kinetic energy. In addition, Figure 11.2 shows that for the same kinetic energy lighter particles suffer less energy loss and therefore have greater ranges. Thus the features of this figure can be predicted from the properties of the stopping power.

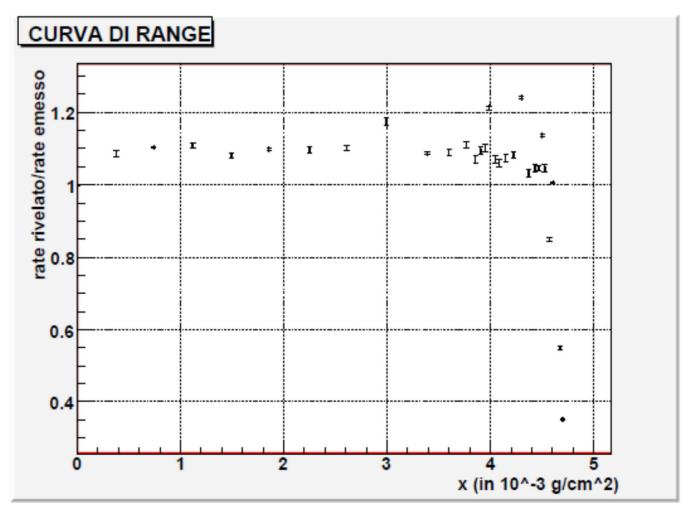
the two particles. Light electrons of a given velocity have low momentum and are easily scattered or badly suffer the effect of multiple scattering, both of which cause an increasing deviation from a straight track, and that means that the track length has a projection on the original electron direction which is shorter or much shorter than the track length (see Fig. 11.5). For α -particles of the same velocity, the momentum is much greater and the track suffers much less deviation and the projected track length is in most cases only slightly less

Scintillations per minute

Thickness:

Fig. 11.4 The transhydrogen gas at 15% other curves by visu from a source react scintillations per mir energy the chance of the loss of energy fluctuation on the n α-particles travel the until a thickness ele definition of range is and the fact that the length (Fig. 11.5). In range could be cut scintillations become point where the curv Fig. 6.6 is a cloud unique range and sn

angle deviation is ap deviation, θ_0 ; it is th



Curva di range sperimentale.

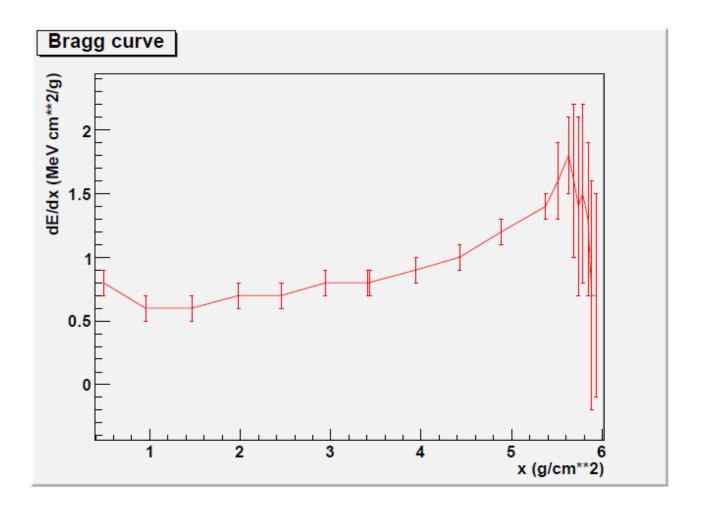
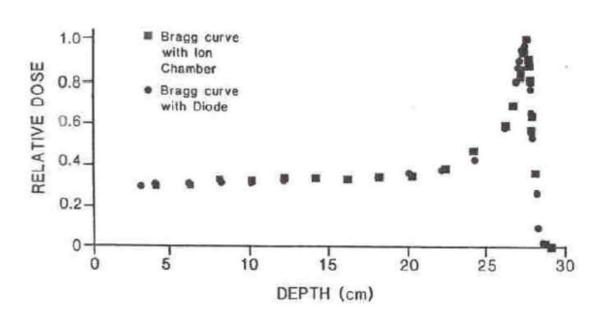


Figura 8: Grafico della curva di Bragg.

235 MeV Proton Bragg Curve

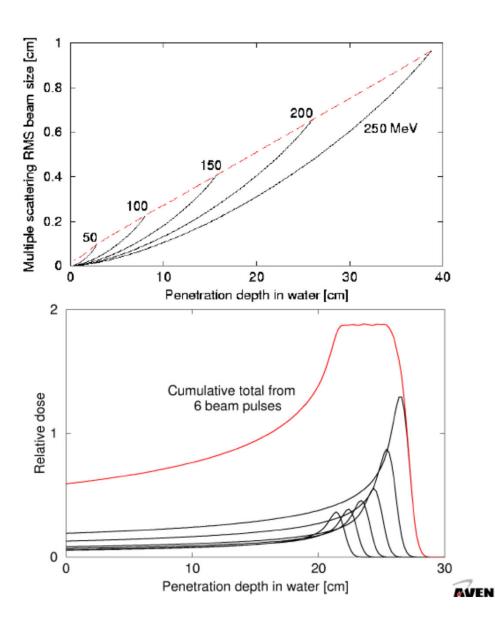
Loma Linda University Medical Center





- Suitable for 1.5 cm diameter tumor.
- ■Skin dose ~30% of maximum dose.

Coutrakon et al, Med. Phys.1991. 18:1093-1099.

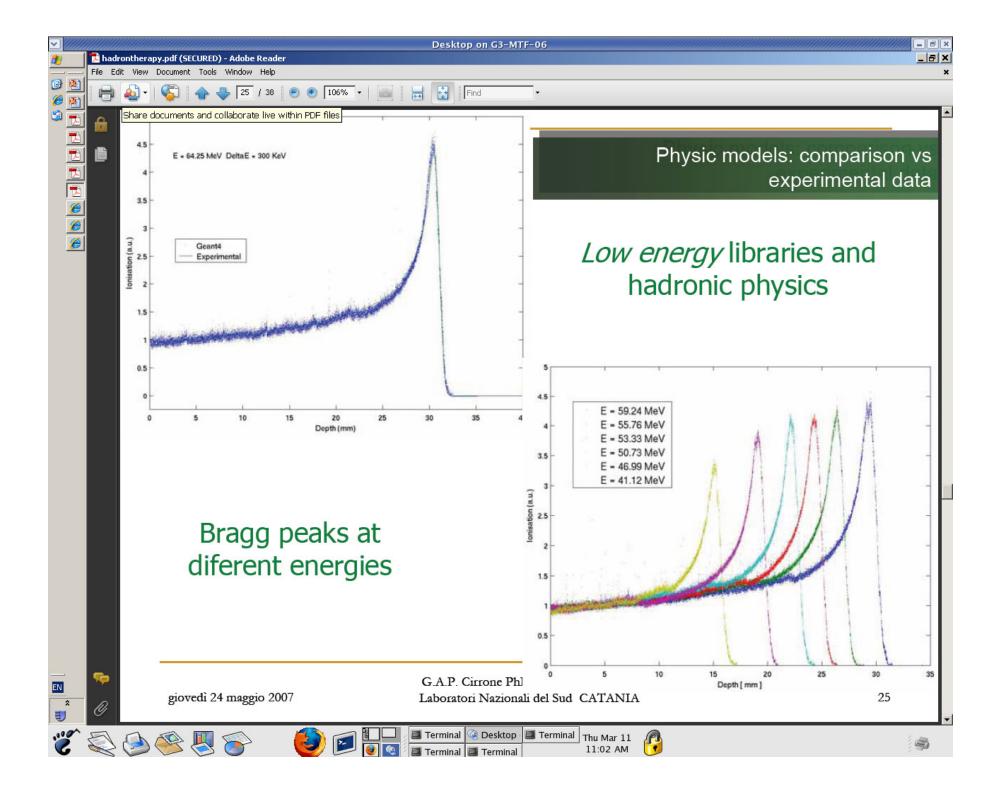


A perfect monochromatic proton beam, with zero initial emittance:

TOP spreads out transversely

BOTTOM acquires an energy spread that blurs the Bragg peak

Steer the beam and modulate its energy to "paint" the tumor!



Energy straggling. Thin absorbers Horst, fontana, basilico, hansel adams

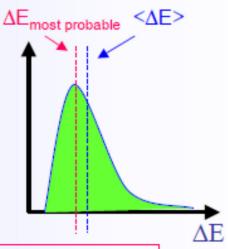
Real detector (limited granularity) can not measure $\langle dE/dx \rangle$! It measures the energy ΔE deposited in a layer of finite thickness δx .

For thin layers or low density materials:

→ Few collisions, some with high energy transfer.



→ Energy loss distributions show large fluctuations towards high losses: "Landau tails"

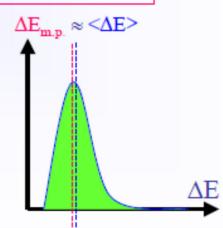


Example: Si sensor: 300 μ m thick. $\Delta E_{m,p} \sim 82 \text{ keV}$ $<\Delta E> \sim 115 \text{ keV}$

For thick layers and high density materials:

- → Many collisions.
- → Central Limit Theorem → Gaussian shaped distributions.

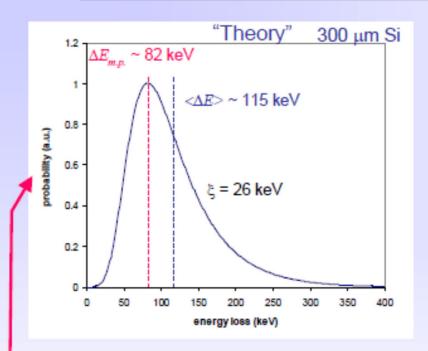






Interaction of charged particles

1. Introduction

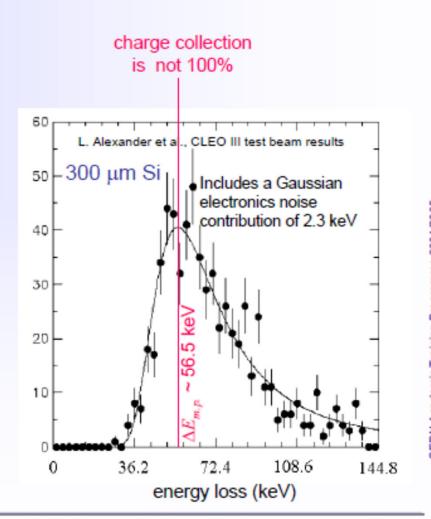


Landau's theory J. Phys (USSR) 8, 201 (1944)

$$f(x, \Delta E) = \frac{1}{\xi} \Omega(\lambda) \qquad \Omega(\lambda) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\lambda + e^{-\lambda})\right\}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\Delta E - \Delta E_{m.p.}}{\xi}$$

$$\xi = \frac{2\pi Ne^4}{m_e v^2} \frac{Z}{A} x$$
 (300 µm Si) = 69 mg/cm²



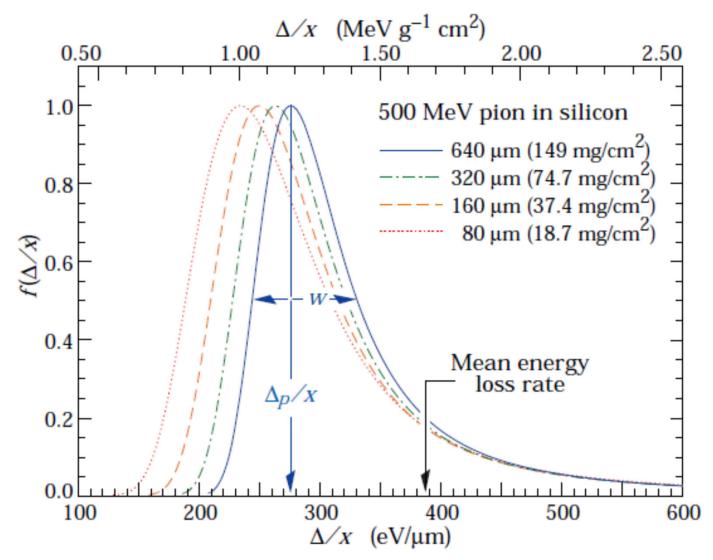


Figure 27.7: Straggling functions in silicon for 500 MeV pions, normalized to unity at the most probable value δ_p/x . The width w is the full width at half maximum.

fluttuazioni che sono descritte dalla distribuzione

Landau:

$$L(\lambda) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{(2\pi)})} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2}(\lambda + e^{(-\lambda)})\right)$$

$$\lambda = \frac{(\Delta E - \Delta E_m)}{(\zeta)}$$

•
$$\zeta = 2\pi N_0 r_e^2 m_e z^2 c^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{(\beta^2)} \rho x$$

La grande fluttuazione nella perdita di energia tra un evento ed un alt condiziona la risoluzione energetica dei rivelatori sottili.

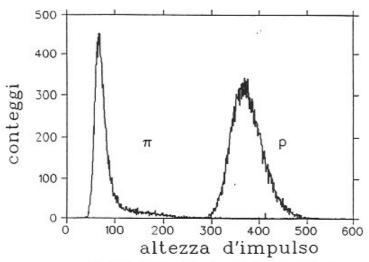


Fig.5.6- Altezza d'impulso di π^+ , p in Δ E1 per p=400 MeV/c.

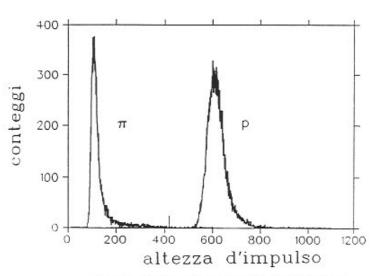


Fig.5.7- Altezza d'impulso di π^+ , p in $\Delta E2$ per p=400 MeV/c.

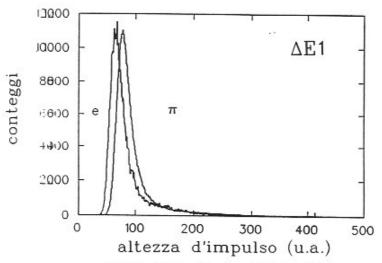


Fig.5.10- Altezza d'impulso di e⁺ π^+ in Δ E1 per p=240 MeV/c.

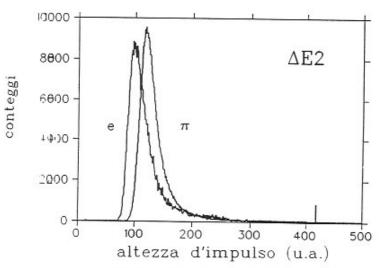
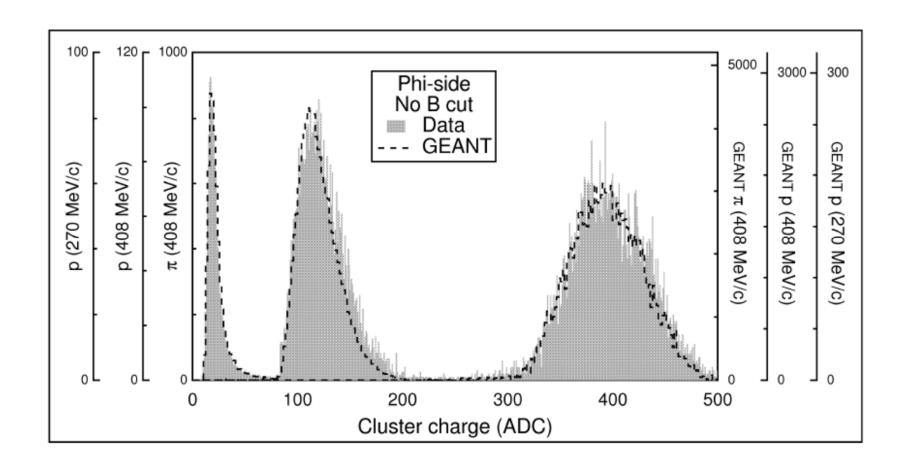
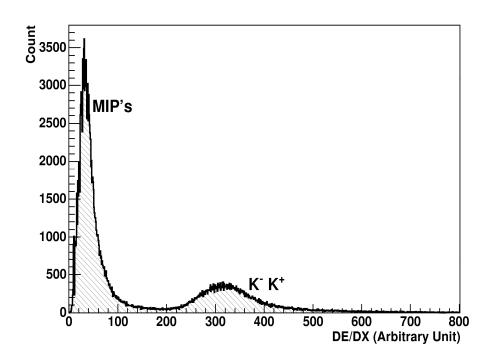
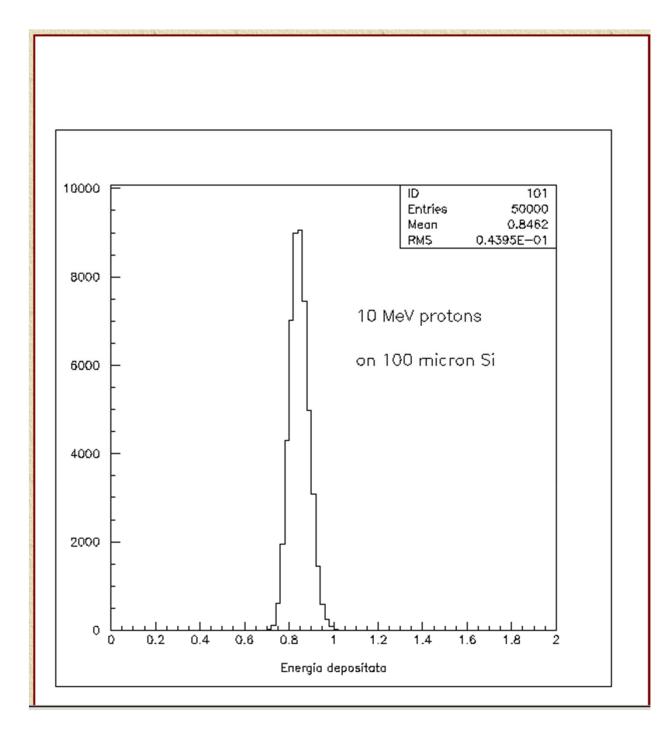
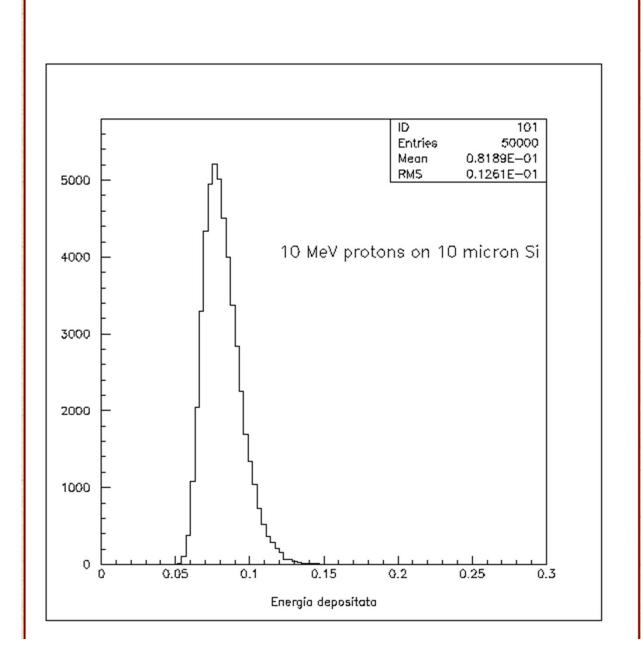


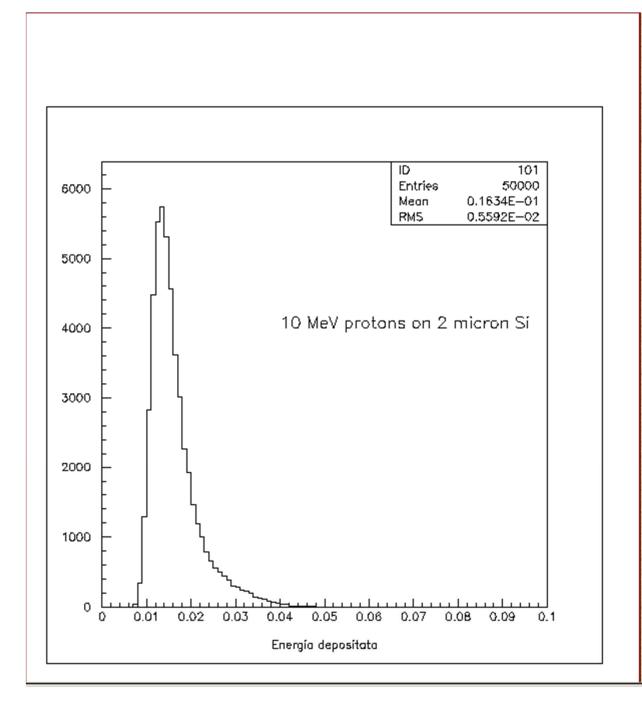
Fig.5.11- Altezza d'impulso di e⁺ π^+ in Δ E2 per p=240 MeV/c.











tions

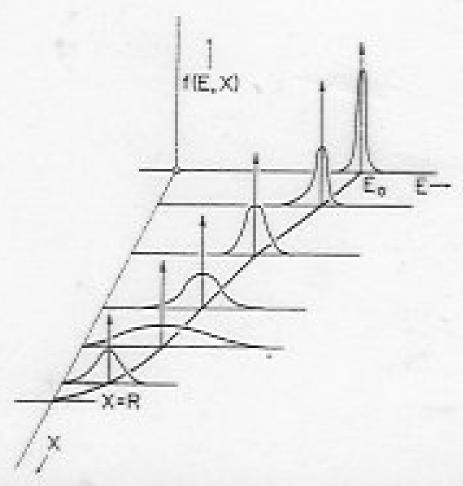


Figure 2.4 Plots of energy distribution of a beam of initially monoenergetic charged particles at various penetration distances. E is the particle energy and X is the distance along the track. (From Wilken and Fritz.³)