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Wade Blocker, Robert Kenney and Wolfgang K. H. Panofsky

March 27, 1950

Berkeley, California

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## Transition Curves of 330 Mev Bremsstrahlung

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March 27, 1950

Abstract

Transition curves produced by 330 Mev bremsstrahlung from the Berkeley synchrotron have been measured in carbon, aluminum, copper and lead. The measurements have been made by a thin ionization chamber "immersed" into the materials under study. The results are in agreement with expected shower behavior. An important part of this investigation is to provide a suitable means for standardizing the synchrotron beam. This is accomplished in two ways: 1. The area of the shower curves gives a good measure of the beam energy. 2. Analysis of transition curves with thin converters permits separation of Compton and pair electron ionization. The pair ionization can be compared with theory and the primary energy deduced. Agreement between these methods is very good. As a result of these measurements absolute cross section measurements in the synchrotron beam are possible.

## Transition Curves of 330 Mev Bremsstrahlung

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A. Introduction

Since the discovery of electron-gamma ray cascade showers in the cosmic radiation by Blackett and Occhialini<sup>(1)</sup> numerous investigations on the properties of such showers have been carried out. All such experiments fall essentially into three classes: 1. experiments in which the progress of a shower is visually traced by counting the number of particles at a given depth between converters<sup>(2)</sup>; 2. experiments in which ionization as a function of depth is measured<sup>(3)</sup>; 3. experiments studying the radial extend of the cascade radiation.

Cascade theory in its present form<sup>(4)</sup> gives expressions for functions  $P(E,t)$  and  $\mathcal{D}(E,t)$  which give the probability of finding an electron or gamma ray, respectively, of energy  $E$  at a depth  $t$ , respectively. Evaluation of the function depends on initial "boundary conditions", i.e., the primary energy spectrum of the initiating particles or particle. Experiments of type (1) as enumerated above give a direct count of the number of particles; however, the primary energy can only be inferred from the track count and the "critical energy"<sup>\*</sup> of the electrons in the material studied.

Ionization experiments on the other hand constitute a more direct measurement of shower energy but their interpretation in terms of number of particles at a given depth is more tenuous. This is particularly true in the case of heavy elements where the large scattering angles<sup>(5)</sup> of the low energy electrons make the ionization

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\* The critical energy is the energy loss by ionization per radiation unit traversed.

corresponding to a given particle uncertain. When such an experiment is carried out in the cosmic radiation the primary event cannot be identified. A more definite initial condition for a shower can be established by studying the transition from the equilibrium distribution in a light material to a heavy material as has been done by Vernov and Vavilov<sup>(6)</sup> and others.

In this experiment the method of ionization measurement in an effectively infinite medium has been used to study the longitudinal and also to some extent the transverse behavior of a shower. A definite initial condition is established by using as the initial radiation the bremsstrahlung of the Berkeley synchrotron with 330 Mev quantum limit. Transition curves in matter, initiated by accelerator produced radiation, have been studied previously only at energies where cascade effects are essentially negligible<sup>(7)</sup>. Showers initiated by synchrotron bremsstrahlung are not exactly equivalent to showers initiated by a single electron owing to the fact that a) only 15 percent of the incident electron energy is lost by radiation in the synchrotron target; and b) the target material, platinum, is not the same as the converter in which the shower propagation was studied (Pb, Cu, Al and C). The synchrotron bremsstrahlung spectrum is, on the other hand, not the ideal thin target spectrum because of finite target thickness. This somewhat modifies the primary gamma ray energy distribution by lessening the steepness of the spectrum near the quantum limit.

In addition to serving as a contribution to the experimental material bearing on cascade theory this work serves the practical purpose of providing a primary standard of beam energy of the synchrotron radiation. The magnitude of the ionization during the first part of the gamma ray initiated shower can be interpreted simply in terms of the cross sections for pair production and Compton electrons. Let the cross section for pair production and production of Compton electrons be  $\phi_{\text{pair}}(k)$  and  $\phi_C(k)$  respectively and let the energy contained in the primary x-ray beam be given



by

$$U = \int N_k k dk \quad (1)$$

where  $N_k$  is the number of primary quanta in the energy interval between  $k$  and  $k + dk$ .

The cross sections per atom will have the form

$$\phi_{\text{pair}} = (Z^2 + Z) \phi_{\text{pair}}^0 \text{ and } \phi_C = Z \phi_C^0 \quad (2)$$

where the  $\phi^0$  are functions essentially independent of the atomic number  $Z^*$ . If  $N_e$  is the number of electrons per unit area in a converter, then the ionization  $I(N_e)$  produced in an ionization chamber of thickness  $g$  by secondaries from the converter of a primary beam of energy  $U$  is given by

$$I(N_e) = N_e g I_0 \left\{ \int (kN_k) \phi_C^0(k) \frac{dk}{k} + 2(Z + 1) \int (kN_k) \phi_{\text{pair}}^0(k) \frac{dk}{k} \right\} \quad (3)$$

where  $I_0$  is the ionization/unit length in air of an electron near minimum ionization. The  $Z$  dependence of the beginning of the shower curve, where cascade processes are yet negligible, in combination with (1) and (3) gives therefore a measurement of  $U$ . Such an evaluation will depend on the theoretical expressions for  $N_k \phi_{\text{pair}}^0$  and therefore for large values of  $Z$  will show up deviations from the (Born approximation) theory previously found by Lawson<sup>(8)</sup> and others<sup>(9)</sup>. This deviation has in fact been observed.

The Compton integral in Eq. (3) as it stands is divergent. Actually it has a definite finite value due to the self absorption of the Compton electrons in the converter. In addition to this the Compton integral would be modified by the fact that the low energy spectrum  $N_k$  is affected by the quartz vacuum chamber walls. Theoretical evaluation of the first term is therefore not very fruitful.

An independent way of arriving at the energy of the primary beam is from the

\* The variation of ionization with energy, the small variation of  $\phi^0$  with atomic number, and the variation of pair production in the field of an electron will be considered later in the more detailed calculations.

area of the shower curve. Let  $I(t)$  be the observed ionization at a depth  $t$  of converter. If  $-\left(\frac{dE}{dt}\right)$  is the stopping power for electrons near minimum ionization in the material under study, then the total beam energy is closely given by

$$U = \int_0^{\infty} \left(-\frac{dE}{dt}\right) \frac{I(t)}{I_0 g} dt \quad (4)$$

since all energy is eventually lost by ionization. It is of course assumed here that the converters and ion chamber used contain the total radial extent of the shower. This method is not too accurate since it is difficult to take account of the small variation of  $dE/dt$  with electron energy.

The degree of agreement of the energy values calculated from Eqs. (3) and (4) for various values of  $Z$  furnishes a valuable check on the internal consistency of the data as well as on the behavior of the pair cross section as a function of  $Z$ .

These two methods serve to determine the total energy in a 330 Mev x-ray beam or an effective number of quanta defined by

$$Q = U/k_{\max} \quad (5)$$

where  $k_{\max}$  is the energy of the quantum limit. This analysis of the shower curves thus provides a basis for the determination of absolute photo-cross sections in the synchrotron beam. This method is considerably simpler and more reliable than the use of a graphite lined chamber as carried out by Melvin Lax<sup>(10)</sup>; as proposed there both the Compton and pair effects have to be calculated in detail and also specific calculations of the behavior of the electrons as to scattering, etc., are necessary. Studying the  $Z$  dependence of the ionization for converters of a small fraction of a radiation length thickness eliminates either complication.

A remark might be made here concerning the usual way in which the intensity of the x-ray beam from a high energy electron accelerator is specified. It is customary to give a value of a certain number of R/hr at a definite distance from the target. This quantity is measured usually with a small cylindrical ionization chamber of wall

material of given composition. As has been pointed out by Lax<sup>(10)</sup> such a method gives easily interpretable results if the electron range is small compared to the wall thickness which in turn is small compared to a radiation length. This condition can be met at small electron energies (up to 1-2 Mev) but is not applicable at higher energies.

### B. Apparatus

The progress of the shower produced by the synchrotron x-ray beam was observed by inserting a thin integrating ion chamber in plane parallel geometry into an effectively infinite slab of the converter under study at a distance  $t$  from the front face of the converter. The material both from the front and rear of the chamber greatly contributes to the observed ionization, as recently pointed out by Vernov and Vavilov<sup>(6)</sup>. A back scatterer is therefore necessary to account for the total energy in the shower.

In principle the slit into which the ion chamber is inserted would have to be infinitely thin in order that the chamber measure a quantity corresponding to the ionization at a given depth in the converter and also that no energy be lost by side leakage across the edges of the chamber. The latter point is particularly important for heavy materials, since a shower initiated in a heavy element will contain a large number of electrons traveling at large angles to the initial beam direction. It was therefore found necessary to extrapolate the data to effectively zero chamber thickness.

The location of the apparatus with respect to the synchrotron is shown in Figure 1. The beam of x-rays originated in the synchrotron target, which was a strip of platinum 0.020 inch thick located within the vacuum chamber. For external experimental use, the beam passes through the wall of the vacuum chamber made of fused quartz approximately  $3/8$  inches thick. At the position of the collimator, the beam has a diameter of  $7/8$  inches, measured at the half intensity circle. The intensity at 2 inches from the beam axis is 2 percent of the intensity at the beam axis. The lead collimator block is 6 inches thick, 8 inches wide, 12 inches high, and has approximately a  $1/2$  inch diameter tapered collimating hole through its center which is

coaxial with the beam.

The shower intensity in the converter is measured by comparing the integrated ionization current of the ion chamber inserted into the thin slot in the converter with the reading of a monitor chamber located beyond the collimator (see Figure 1).

At the position occupied by the monitor ionization chamber, the x-ray beam diameter is approximately 1 inch; the sensitive volume of the monitor chamber is 6 inches in diameter. Adequate beam monitoring intensity was obtained from a sensitive volume of 1 inch depth. Both the monitor and detector ionization chambers contain air and are vented to the atmosphere. Details of the monitor chamber are shown in Fig. 2. The cylindrical walls are constructed of lucite. All foils are of 0.00035 inch aluminum. The active volume of the chamber is bounded by foils, in the planes  $bb'$  and  $dd'$ , which were applied to the lucite with polystyrene dope and stretched slightly. The collecting foil is in the plane  $cc'$  and is completely surrounded by the active volume. A grounded electrostatic shield surrounds the entire chamber and serves incidentally as a dust shield. It was also applied in the above manner to the surfaces  $aa'$  and  $ee'$  of the outer rings which serve as high voltage insulation from the foils  $bb'$  and  $dd'$ , but over surfaces  $ae$  and  $a'e'$  this shield was not allowed to touch the lucite, thus minimizing leakage to ground. The diameter of the monitor chamber is small enough so that the foils remain tight when supported only by the lucite. In passing through the monitor, the beam traverses 0.00175 inch of aluminum.

The soft x-ray background in the vicinity of the synchrotron is appreciable, with a harder component apparently originating at the injector. A wall of lead bricks shields both the ionization chambers from direct radiation coming from the region of the injector, while a 1/8 inch thick lead hood placed over the monitor, extending 30 inches from the monitor in both directions along the beam, shields it from the general soft x-ray background.

The construction of the detector chamber is basically the same as that of the monitor (see Fig. 2); however, no outer rings aa'b'b and dd'e'e are used. The converter plates (see Fig. 1) serve in lieu of electrostatic shield foils. The sensitive volume, 11 inches in diameter and 1/2 inch deep, is bounded by 0.0035 inch aluminum foils which were applied to the surfaces bb' and dd' with polystyrene dope and stretched slightly. The diameter of the chamber is large enough so that a mesh of 0.003 inch stainless steel wire, spaced two inches apart, is required to support the outer foils bb' and dd'.

The centers of the ionization chambers were positioned to within 1/8 inch of the beam axis by means of a transit located coaxially with the beam. The line of sight of the transit was adjusted and checked photographically so that it was within 1/16 inch of the beam axis at all points where the apparatus was placed.

The collimator was provided with a peepsight insert which allowed it to be checked photographically for coaxial alignment with the beam. The converter plates were so large that they did not require more than approximate positioning by eye.

The ionization current of each condenser was collected on a low leakage, polystyrene insulated capacitor, C (see Fig. 3). The voltage on the condenser was measured by a null method. The principle of the method is to maintain the condenser terminal connected to the ion collecting electrode at ground potential by sliding back the other terminal by a voltage exactly measurable by a potentiometer. This system also makes any correction for lead capacities etc., unnecessary. The zero voltage condition of the collector can be checked by an electronic voltmeter which serves only as a null indicator.

The complete circuit is shown in Fig. 3. The electronic voltmeter is disconnected from the collector electrode during the run (in order to avoid possible grid rectification of high transient pulses, such as might be produced by voltages induced by microphonic pulses of the ion chamber in the noise field of the synchrotron). After

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the run the collector is slid back to zero and the slide back voltage is measured. The grid current of the voltmeter is  $10^{-15}$  amps so that the charge loss during measurement is negligible. Leakage resistance between the high voltage foil and the collecting foil of the chamber was held above  $10^{15}$  ohms without benefit of guard rings. Less than 1/2 percent of the minimum voltage utilized for an ionization measurement was attributable to leakage. The condenser used was a .01  $\mu$  F condenser and the voltage collected of the order of 1 volt.

The collecting voltage P applied to the detector chamber was varied, and it was found that with fields between 800 and 1500 volts per inch the ionization readings for a given set of conditions remained a constant within the experimental error. 1200 volts per inch collecting field was used in both monitor and detector chambers.

### C. Experimental Procedure

The block of converter was formed of closely stacked plates of the element under study, located both ahead and behind the ion chamber. The x-ray beam, after passing through the monitor, fell normally upon the stack and the shower electrons were observed by the detector ionization chamber situated in a slot of width  $a$  and depth  $t$  in the stack. In all cases, as shown in Fig. 4, only a few inches of backscattering converter were required behind the chamber to serve in place of the remainder of the ideal infinite block. The ionization due to the backscatterer, essentially at shower maximum, is expressed as a fraction of the total ionization by the following: Pb, 0.41; Cu, 0.20; Al, 0.09; C, 0.04. The curves in Fig. 4 are taken approximately at the depth  $t$  corresponding to the shower maximum in each element.

When there is no converter before the detector chamber, allowing the beam to fall through the chamber directly onto the backscatterer, no detectable ionization due to the presence of the backscatterer is observed. This indicates that shower electrons arising in the backscatterer from the pure x-ray beam are created and scattered at depths which are too great to allow them to be scattered through the ionization

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chamber in the backward direction in appreciable numbers.

The carbon and aluminum plates were ten inches square and the copper and lead plates were 12 inches by 14 inches. These sizes were ample to contain the shower diameter<sup>(11)</sup> in the absence of an air gap. A very rough check of shower diameter was made using Eastman Type K x-ray film placed in the stack of plates at various points, and in all elements used, no indication was found of the presence of large amounts of radiation near the lateral borders of the stack of plates.

The elements studied were obtained from stock. The carbon was graphite type C-18, nominal density 1.58. The 2S aluminum used was found to contain less than 0.5 percent impurities. The copper and lead used were of commercial grade.

It was found to be unfeasible to construct a detector chamber of large enough diameter to intercept all the ionization from shower electrons in the slot, even though the showers were initiated by an x-ray beam less than 2 inches in diameter. Appreciable fractions of the electrons were backscattered into the slot at angles approaching 90 degrees with respect to the shower axis, especially in the case of a lead converter. It was thus necessary to observe the total ionization, at a given depth  $t$ , corresponding to several slot widths from 1.5 inches to 0.75 inches, and then to extrapolate the ionization values to zero slot width. The active volume of the chamber was kept in contact with the backscatterer plates at all slot widths. This extrapolated value for the total ionization was assumed to be the same value which one would find in the ideal case discussed above. The curves in Figures 5 and 6 show the magnitude of the necessary extrapolation for lead and copper converter. In the case of aluminum, a tendency for the ionization values to approach a plateau with decreasing slot width was observed, and the extrapolations were made accordingly. No extrapolation was found to be necessary in the case of carbon converter. Complete shower curves and results derived from them are based upon these extrapolated data.

The small energy discrepancies associated with the area of the lead curve

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(see section E) may be due to the difficulty of extrapolating in the correct manner. Also in lead some of the electrons have such low energy that the range in the chamber itself cannot be considered entirely negligible, nor is it necessarily true that all electrons are at minimum ionization. Small discrepancies in the energy balance of the heavy elements are thus expected. The construction of a chamber thinner than  $1/2$  inch was not considered compatible with good accuracy, since flexibility of the window foils would result in untenable variations in the sensitive volume.

The x-ray beam was contaminated by electrons arising from the wall of the fused quartz vacuum chamber and from the air through which the beam passed before striking the apparatus. This background contamination was of small intensity, compared with the maximum shower intensity observed, principally due to the fact that the quartz vacuum chamber walls are at a point where the synchrotron magnetic field has a value of approximately one half of the value at the orbit. The fraction of a radiation length of air traversed by the beam is very small. The detector chamber is largely shielded against this background by the converter plates, except at very small values of  $t$  at which the contamination was adequately treated as a background. The intensity of this contamination background was proportional to the beam intensity so that the monitor chamber, which keeps only a proportional check on the beam intensity, is not affected.

An ionization value observed under any conditions was taken to be the ratio of detector condenser voltage to the corresponding monitor condenser voltage, both voltages resulting from charge collection during a single run approximately 1 minute in duration. This ratio was extrapolated in the manner discussed in the preceding section to arrive at the value for total ionization (see Figs. 7 and 8). Two successive runs were made for every slot width  $a$  at each depth  $t$  in the converter. The internal consistency is about 1.5 percent for points within a factor of 50 in intensity of the shower peak; for points farther down the curve the consistency drops to 10 percent. Long time changes in background were checked and found to be negligible.



#### D. Results on Shower Curves

The data for the normalized shower curves in Figures 7 and 8 were obtained for the elements lead, copper, aluminum, and carbon in a period of four weeks, a complete curve for one element requiring about twelve hours. Upon repeating a run it was found that while the shape of the curve was unaltered, the values of the ordinates may have changed slightly. It is believed that these changes were due in part to differences in the electron contamination of the x-ray beam at the times of the experimental runs since the geometry was not precisely reproduced for all runs.

The ordinates are proportional to the ratios of the voltages measured on the integrating condenser of the detector to the corresponding voltages measured for the monitor. The changes in absolute value discussed above required that the ordinates be normalized to some standard in order that the curves for the different elements might be compared. This was done by obtaining the ratio of the ordinate for the experimental point nearest the peak of a shower curve to that of the peak point for the copper curve for each of the elements. Each ratio was obtained once with the exception of the C/Cu ratio which was later checked, the two values agreeing to within 0.3 percent. This agreement is fortuitous since for successive runs for the same point the mean ordinate was reproducible to only about 1.5 percent on the average. In reducing the data, all points were normalized to correspond to the value 100 for the peak of the lead curve.

It is seen that the zero points for all the curves do not coincide. This is probably due to differences in electron contamination of the beam incident upon the converter. This means that the initial portions of the curves are slightly in error. This is not significant however, since the slopes are so great at this point that the maximum difference would correspond to a converter thickness of only about 0.1 g/cm<sup>2</sup>.

After the synchrotron beam has passed through a sufficiently great thickness of converter, it should be attenuated along the remainder of its path in such a manner

that the absorption coefficient has a constant and minimum value. The curves of Figure 7 and 8 show that the required thickness has been approached for lead and copper. The converter thickness of aluminum or carbon is not great enough to give this condition, but it is enough so that absorption coefficients determined from the curves may be used without serious error in the integration of the area of the shower curves as described below.

The dashed lines in Figures 7 and 8 are lines having slopes which correspond to the minimum absorption coefficient for gamma rays given by Heitler<sup>(12)</sup>. The pair contribution to the lead absorption coefficient has been decreased by 10 percent to take account of Lawson's<sup>(8)</sup> values for the lead pair production cross section. These lines are plotted for comparison with the experimental data.

#### E. Separation of Pair and Compton Contribution in the Ionization.

As has been shown in section A, the  $Z$  dependence of the ionization for small values of  $N_e$  can be used to separate the Compton and pair contributions to the total ionization. Let us rewrite Eq. (3), adding some detail as to the behavior of  $\phi_{\text{pair}}^0$ . In the notation of section A,

$$I(N_e) = N_e I_0 g \left\{ \int (k N_k) \phi_C^0 \frac{dk}{k} \right. \quad (6)$$

$$\left. + 2 (Z + 1) \int_0^1 \left\{ \left( \frac{\phi_{\text{pair}}}{Z^2} \right) \left( \frac{Z + \alpha}{Z + 1} \right) \cdot \left[ \frac{I\left(\frac{k}{Z}\right)}{I_0} \right] (k N_k) \right\} d \left( \log \frac{k}{k_{\text{max}}} \right) \right\}$$

The individual terms in the pair integral have been written to be slowly varying functions of  $Z$  and  $k$  respectively. Here  $\phi_{\text{pair}}$  is the cross section for pair production in the field of the nucleus,  $\alpha$  is the fractional contribution to the total pair cross section due to "triplet" production in the field of an electron. According to the calculations of K. M. Watson<sup>(13)</sup> and of A. Borsellino<sup>(14)</sup>,  $\alpha$  has a value from 0 to 0.9 in the range of interest, but the effective average value is: 0.49, and hence the factor  $(Z + \alpha)/(Z + 1)$  is only a small correction.

It has been assumed that only two of the three triplet members are observed. Similarly the term  $\phi_{\text{pair}}/Z^2$  has only a small  $Z$  dependence, due to the variation of the screening correction<sup>(13)</sup> as a function of  $Z$ .  $I\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)$  represents the ionization per unit length in air of a pair electron of energy  $\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)$ , it being assumed that each pair electron receives half the quantum energy in all cases. Since  $I(k/2)/I_0$  is a correction factor close to unity, it is not necessary to consider the detailed division of energy among the pair members.

The Bremsstrahlung spectrum  $k N_k$  corrected for finite target thickness has been kindly calculated for us by Mr. Walter Aron; the spectrum is shown in Fig. 9. The integral in the second term of Eq. (6) can thus be evaluated numerically as a ratio to the total beam energy  $U = \int k N_k dk$ . Let us designate this ratio by  $R(Z)$ , i.e., let

$$R(Z) = \frac{\int_0^1 \left\{ \left( \frac{\phi_{\text{pair}}}{Z^2} \right) \left( \frac{Z + \alpha}{Z + 1} \right) \frac{I\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)}{I_0} (k N_k) \right\} d \left( \log \frac{k}{k_{\text{max}}} \right)}{\int_0^1 (k N_k) d \left( \frac{k}{k_{\text{max}}} \right)} \quad (7)$$

This quantity represents the cross section for pair production (normalized to  $Z = 1$ ) averaged over the primary Bremsstrahlung spectrum.  $R(Z)$  is tabulated in Table I. The quantity  $\phi_{\text{pair}}/Z^2$  in the integrand contains both the screening correction and also, in the case of lead, the 10 percent correction as obtained by Lawson<sup>(8)</sup>.  $I\left(\frac{k}{2}\right)/I_0$  is obtained from the curve of Rossi and Greisen<sup>(5)</sup>.

TABLE I

$Z$	6	13	29	82
$R(Z)$ in $\text{cm}^2$	$2.54 \times 10^{-26}$	$2.55 \times 10^{-26}$	$2.50 \times 10^{-26}$	$2.20 \times 10^{-26}$

Figure 10 shows the initial parts of the shower curves (taken without back-scatterer) plotted as a function of the number of electrons per unit area of converter.

In addition to the experimental curves a curve is plotted labelled "Compton and Background". This curve is obtained by subtracting the proper fraction, computed from Eq. (6), of the difference between the aluminum and the carbon curve from the carbon curve; this fraction is nearly unity if  $\alpha$  in Eq. (6) is unity and if  $\phi_{\text{pair}}/Z^2$  is constant. It is not feasible here to compare the Compton curve with theory, since it is difficult to separate from the background and also since the Compton contribution can not be evaluated without consideration of the converter self-absorption. After subtracting out the "Compton and Background" curve, the curves presumably representing the pair ionization are obtained (Fig. 11).

If cascade effects are negligible, the curves of Fig. 11 should be straight lines. This is not the case and the observed curvature is a measure of the loss of the pair electrons by radiation and primary absorption. For thicknesses of converter of a small fraction of a radiation length, the slope will decay with distance essentially exponentially with a characteristic decay distance of the order of a radiation length. The slopes of the curves of Fig. 11 conform to this interpretation; points computed under the assumption of the slope falling exponentially from its observed initial value are plotted on the curves on Fig. 11. The initial slopes thus represent the pair contribution to the total ionization, and according to Eq. (6) should be a linear function of  $Z + 1$ , after correction for the variation of  $R(Z)$  with  $Z$  has been made. This correction has been applied and the resultant slopes are plotted against  $Z + 1$  in Fig. 12; it is seen that the agreement is good. As has been mentioned above, in agreement with the deviations observed by Lawson<sup>(8)</sup> for the pair cross sections in heavy elements for 100 Mev radiation, and by Walker<sup>(9)</sup> at 17.5 Mev, a 10 percent correction has been applied to  $R(Z)$  in the case of lead. The point is also plotted without the correction, with significantly poorer agreement.

#### F. Standardization of the Synchrotron Beam.

The separation of the pair and Compton contribution described above makes it

possible to obtain a direct measurement of the total beam energy, using the theoretically calculated values  $R(Z)$  tabulated in Table II. It will be recalled that  $(Z^2 + Z) R(Z)$  is the cross section per Mev primary beam upper limit for the production of pairs and "triplets" when averaged over the primary Bremsstrahlung spectrum.

Analysis of the initial part of the shower curve by the subtraction method outlined above directly measures the number of pairs produced and thus the data of Table II immediately yield the primary energy for a given ion current due to pairs. In case it is not intended to obtain complete transition curves, then the beam can also be standardized by a "two element" method: Consider the measurement of the ionization  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  behind two converters of atomic numbers  $Z_1$  and  $Z_2$  of equal numbers ( $N_e$ ) of electrons per square centimeter.  $N_e$  must not be great enough to allow cascade effects to enter appreciably. It follows from Eq. (7) that the primary energy and the number of quanta (see Eq. (5)) is given by

$$Q = \frac{U}{k_{\max}} = \frac{1}{2N_e g I_0} \frac{I_2(N_e) - I_1(N_e)}{(Z_2 + 1) R(Z_2) - (Z_1 + 1) R(Z_1)} \quad (8)$$

This equation assumes that the converter thickness ( $N_e$ ) has been chosen to be small enough that no correction for the radiation effect noticeable in Fig. 11 is necessary. The following table gives a typical tabulation of the calculated energy as a function of converter thickness which indicates the effect of losses by radiation, and primary absorption. This table is computed directly from the experimental results plotted in Fig. 11. The data are however smoothed by assuming an exponential decay of the slope. This table can be used to decide on the maximum converter thickness permissible, and to derive the corrections necessary to extrapolate to zero thickness.

TABLE II

Converter Pair $\frac{N_e}{N_0}$	Pb-Cu	Pb-Al	Pb-C	Cu-Al	Cu-C	Al-C
.0	102.3	102.2	101.0	102.0	98.5	90.7
.025	101.0	101.0	99.9	101.1	97.8	90.5
.05	99.7	99.8	98.8	100.1	97.0	90.2
.075	98.5	98.6	97.7	99.1	96.3	90.0
.1	97.2	97.5	96.6	98.2	95.5	89.6
.2	92.3	92.9	92.4	94.4	92.6	88.6
.3	87.7	88.5	88.4	90.8	89.8	87.6
.4	83.2	84.3	84.5	87.2	87.0	86.5
.5	79.0	80.3	80.8	83.8	84.3	85.5

Normalized values of the energy flow in the collimated beam, in units of  $10^8$  Mev/sec, measured by the "two point" method. Various pairs of converters are used; the energy flow is tabulated against the thickness of the converter measured in terms of electrons/cm<sup>2</sup>.  $N_0$  = Avogadro's number. The variability of the entries indicates the effect of primary absorption and of radiation. This table serves as a guide to select proper converter thicknesses and also as a means to convert to zero converter thickness. This table is normalized to a reference intensity on the beam axis of about 1400 R/hr behind 1/8 inch of lead 1 meter from the target. This intensity was estimated from the reading of a large Zeus meter using the effective Zeus meter area and the measured value of 1.6 for the ratio of central intensity to average intensity in the beam emerging from a 1 inch collimator. This reference performance corresponds to about one-fourth of the usual operating intensity.

As a further alternate means of beam standardization the beam energy has been evaluated using the areas of the shower curves (Fig. 8) and Eq. (4). The areas were evaluated numerically excepting for the exponential tail of the curves; the tail area was evaluated analytically using the asymptotic absorption coefficients. This latter method is considered less accurate for reasons discussed above. In particular for heavy elements appreciable deviations are expected.

Table III shows the beam energy evaluated for typical operation of the Berkeley synchrotron. The value  $I_0$  used is 62.5 ion pairs/cm<sup>\*</sup>.

TABLE III

Method	I	II	III
Material	Pair production using Fig. 11	Pair production using two converters of equal electron surface density in the limit of zero converter thickness (see Table II)	Shower curve area
C	90.8		100.4
Al	90.7		103.0
Cu	96.7		94.6
Pb	100.0		84.6
Pb-Cu		102.3	
Pb-Al		102.2	
Pb-C		101.0	
Cu-Al		102.0	
Cu-C		98.5	
Al-C		90.7	

Beam energy flow through a one inch collimator distant 55 inches from the synchrotron target in units of  $10^8$  Mev/sec., or  $10^8/330$  quanta/sec, as computed by the various methods outlined in this paper. This tabulation is normalized to an axial beam intensity of 1400 R/hr at 1 meter from the synchrotron target, which is the same reference intensity used in Table II.

The values of beam energy as entered in Table III are not of equal reliability.

In the measurement by shower curve area (Column III) the values observed in the heavy

\* This value corresponds to dividing the theoretical energy loss for fast electrons by 32 volts. It is thus not equal to the number of ions/cm observed by drop count in cloud chamber work. The latter number does not include secondary ionization. The effect of electrons of insufficient range to cross the ionization chamber has also been evaluated and found to be negligible.

elements are less reliable owing to the large extrapolation to zero chamber thickness and the low energy and range of the ionizing electrons. The two converter method (Column II) will lead to the best results for pairs of most dissimilar  $Z$  since errors in the background and Compton subtraction are less significant. It is gratifying to note that the low  $Z$  shower data and large differential  $Z$  "converter pair" data are in good agreement.

The method of standardization based on the pair cross section (using Eq. (8)) can be executed quite rapidly and is being used for the calibration of chambers serving as secondary standards.

#### G. Acknowledgements

This work, including the method used, was proposed to us by Professor Edwin M. McMillan. He has guided the work throughout its progress and in particular is responsible for the method of separating pair and Compton effects. We are also indebted to the crew of the Berkeley synchrotron for their efficient operation of the machine during the bombardments. The calculation of the primary spectrum, pair cross sections, and the stopping powers used in these calculations was made by Mr. Walter Aron. This work was done under the auspices of the Atomic Energy Commission.

3/31/50/hw



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Figure Captions

- Fig. 1. Schematic arrangement of apparatus with respect to the synchrotron. The collimator absorbers and ionization chambers are coaxial with the beam. The lead wall shields the apparatus from x-rays originating at the injector. The slot width  $a$  is variable.
- Fig. 2. Cross section (side view) of monitor ionization chamber.
- Fig. 3. Schematic diagram of ionization chamber and associated circuits. The voltage  $V$  is measured by a potentiometer and decade voltage divider.
- Fig. 4. The observed total ionization, in arbitrary units, plotted against the thickness of the backscatterer. The thickness of the converter corresponds approximately to the maximum of the shower curve for that element (see Figs. 7 and 8). The cross on each curve indicates, for that element, the thickness of backscatterer used to obtain the data for the corresponding shower curve in Figs. 7 or 8.
- Figures 5 and 6. The total ionization, in arbitrary units, measured by the detector chamber plotted against the distance  $a$  (inches) between the converter and the backscatterer for "lead" in Fig. 5 and "copper" in Fig. 6 converters of thicknesses ( $\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ ) noted on the right of each curve. The data for a given converter thickness is extrapolated to  $a = 0$ , and this value is assumed equal to the total ionization within an infinitesimally thin slot in an infinite block of converter.
- Figures 7 and 8. The total ionization, in arbitrary units, in an effectively infinite block of converter plotted against the depth  $t$  in the converter. The ionization was observed by a thin ionization chamber in a slot of width  $a$  at depth  $t$  in the converter. Data were obtained at various slot widths  $a$  and extrapolated to  $a = 0$  in Figures 5 and 6. Those extrapolated values are the ordinates of these figures. The dashed lines of Fig. 7 have slopes

calculated from the minimum absorption coefficients given by Heitler<sup>(12)</sup>, and are plotted for comparisons with the data. The discrepancies in slope are considered to be within experimental error.

Fig. 9. The theoretical bremsstrahlung energy distribution for the Berkeley synchrotron, calculated for a single electron of energy 330 Mev incident normally upon a platinum target 0.020 inches in thickness.

Fig. 10. The total ionization, in arbitrary units, observed by a thin ionization chamber plotted against an abscissa proportional to the number of electrons per square centimeter of the converter. No backscatterer was present and no extrapolation to zero ionization chamber thickness was found necessary. Contributions to the total ionization due to Compton recoils and background are given by the lowest curve, which is independent of  $Z$ .

Fig. 11. The pair ionization, in arbitrary units, plotted against an abscissa proportional to the number of electrons per square centimeter of the converter. These curves are obtained from the curves of Fig. 10 by subtracting the Compton plus background curve from the total ionization curves.

Fig. 12. The initial slopes of the curves in Fig. 11, divided by the function  $R(Z)$  (as tabulated in Table I) plotted against  $Z + 1$ . A point (x) is also shown indicating the deviation if the Lawson<sup>(8)</sup> correction is not used in computing  $R(Z)$ .

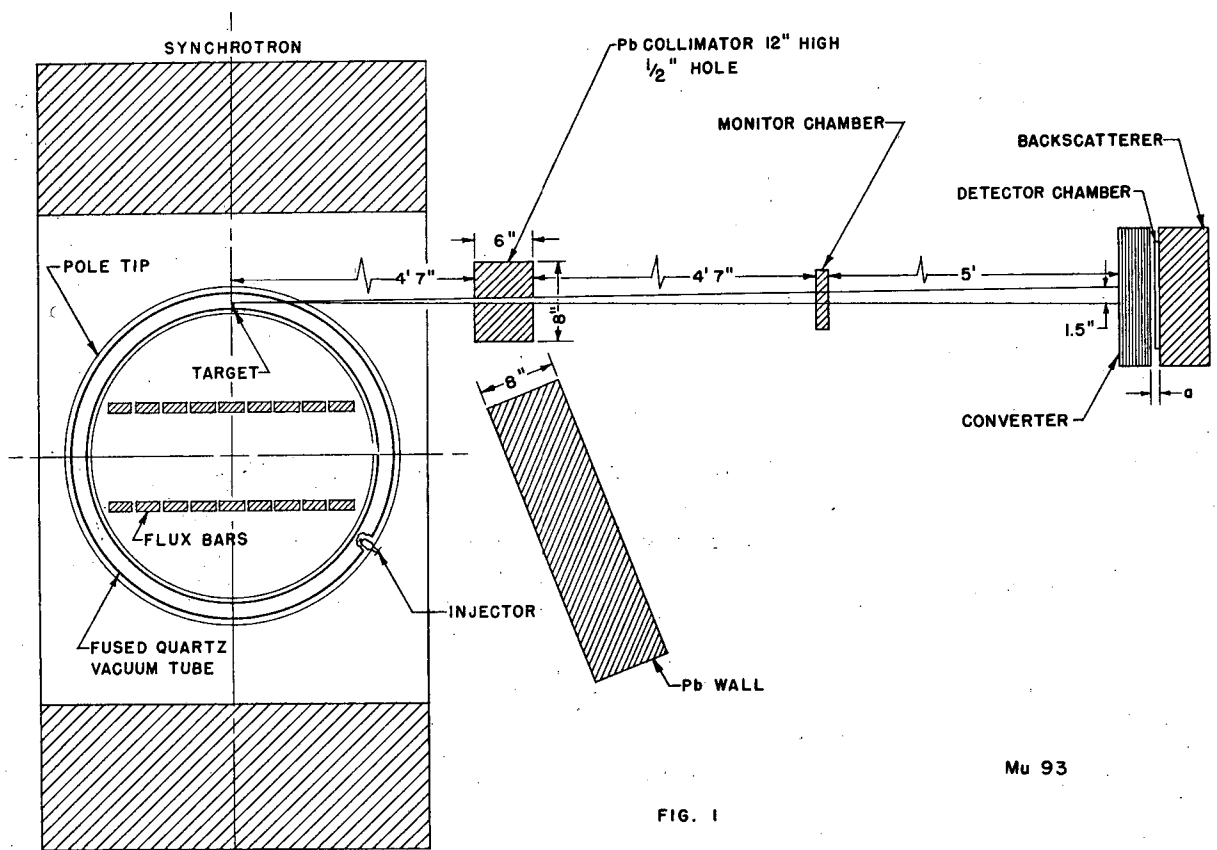
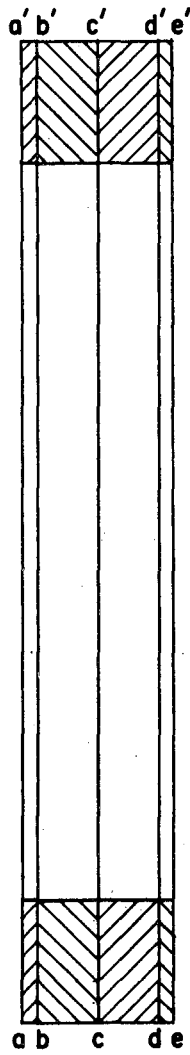


FIG. 1



GROSS SECTION OF IONIZATION CHAMBER

FIG. 2

Mu 94

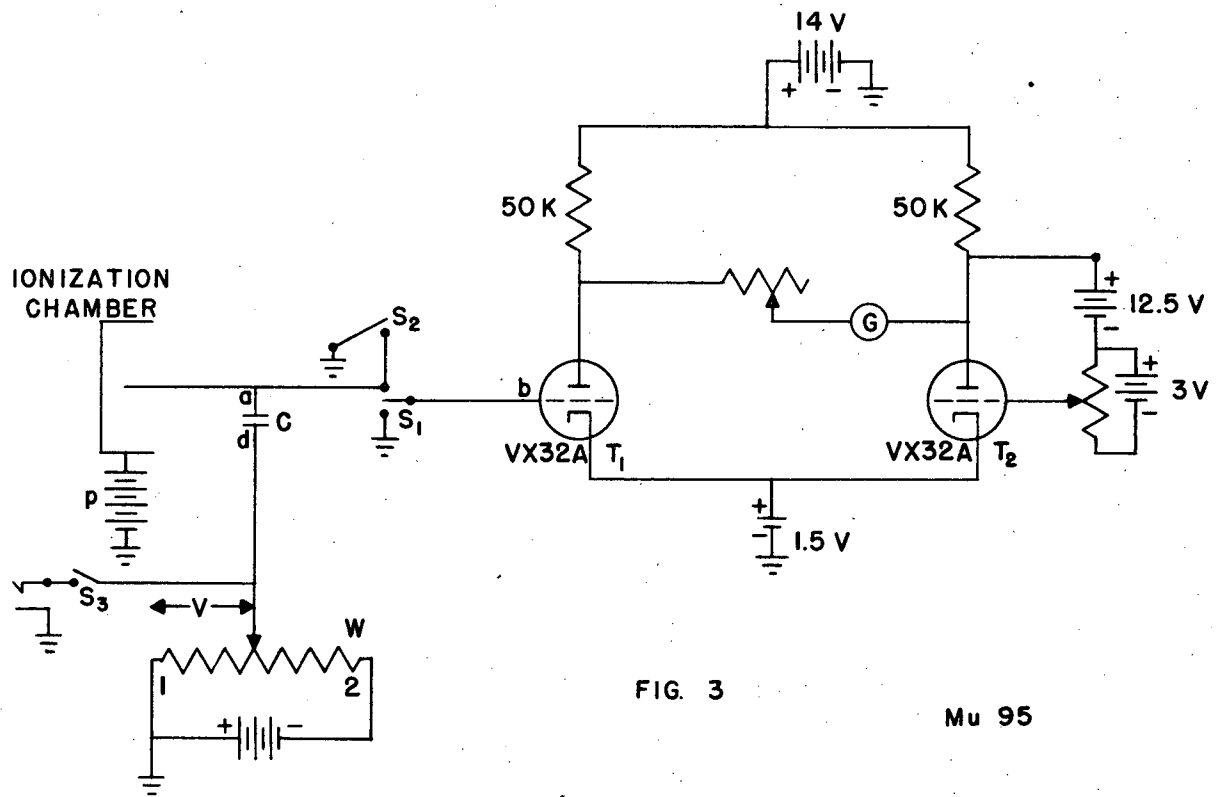


FIG. 3

Mu 95

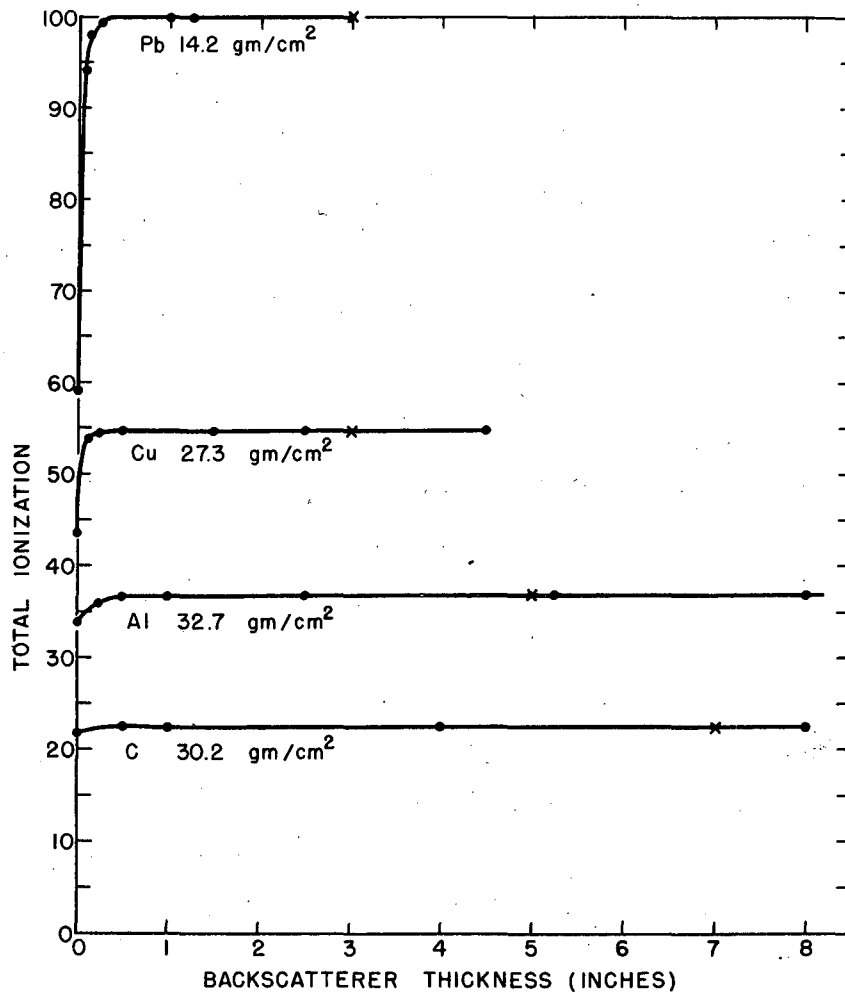


FIG. 4

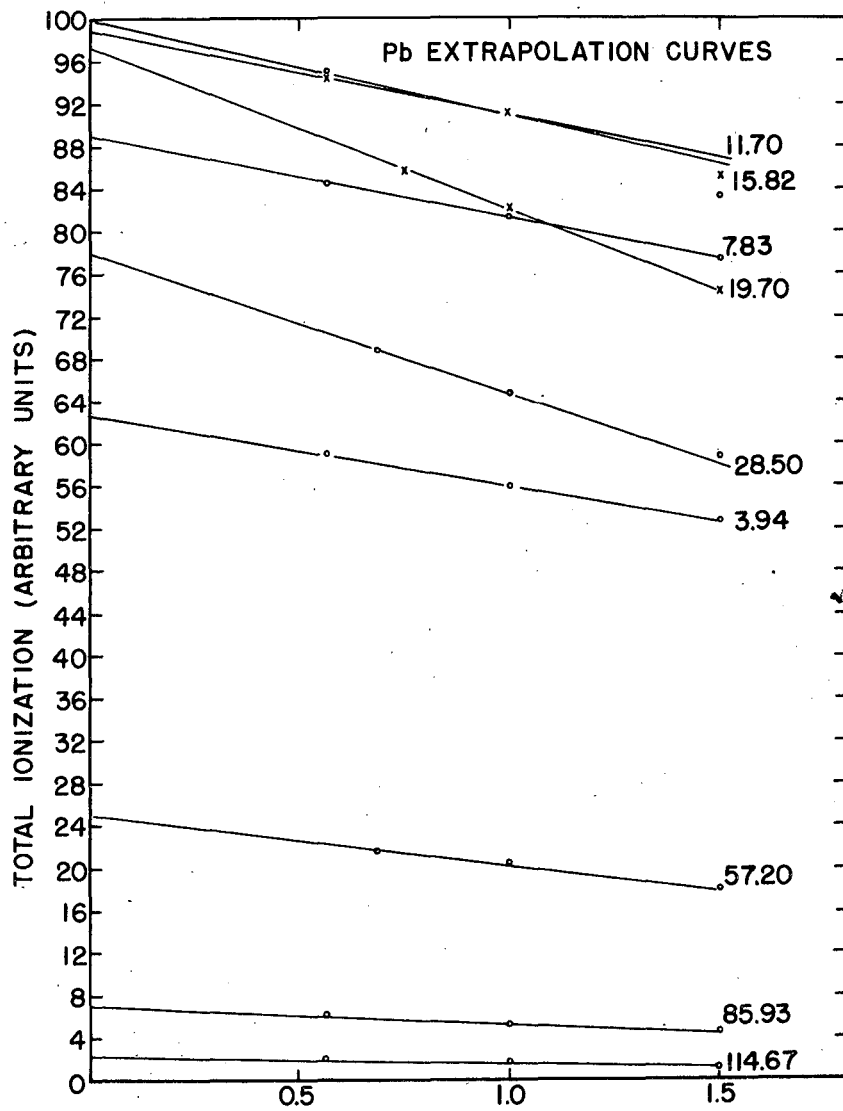


FIG. 5

a

Mu 97

14299-1



copper

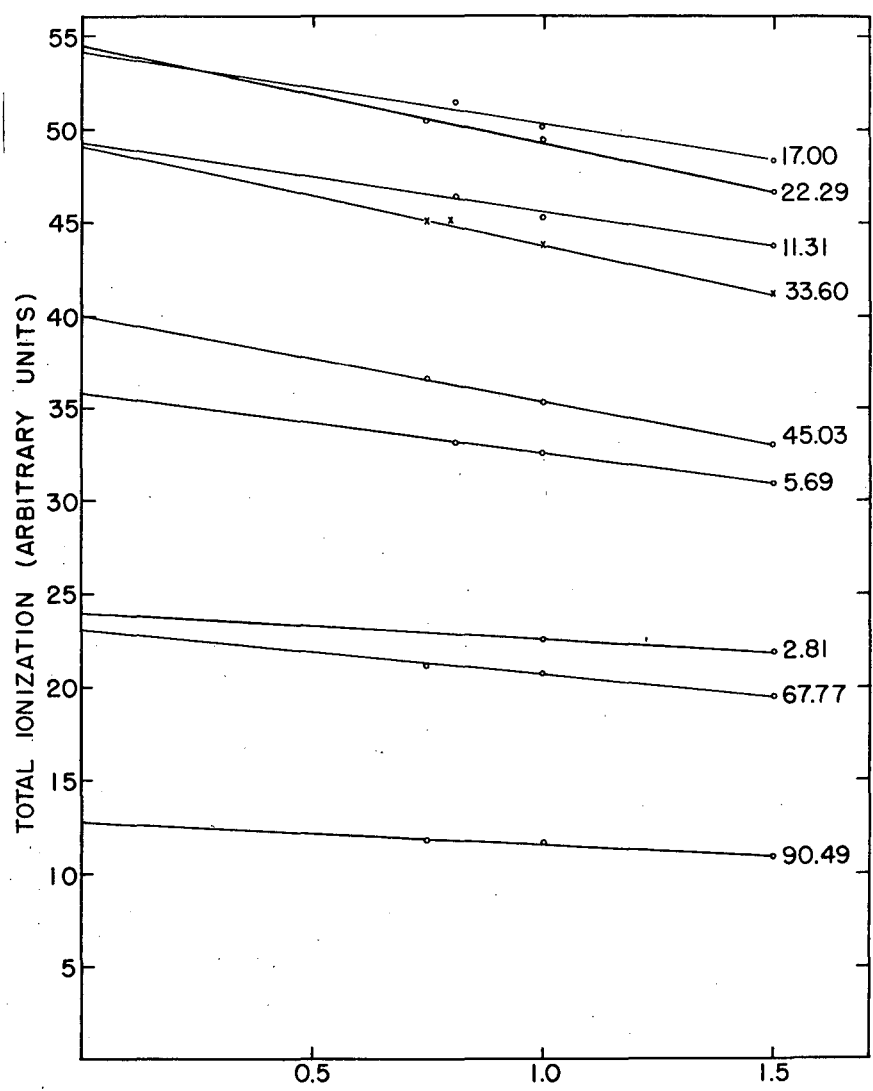
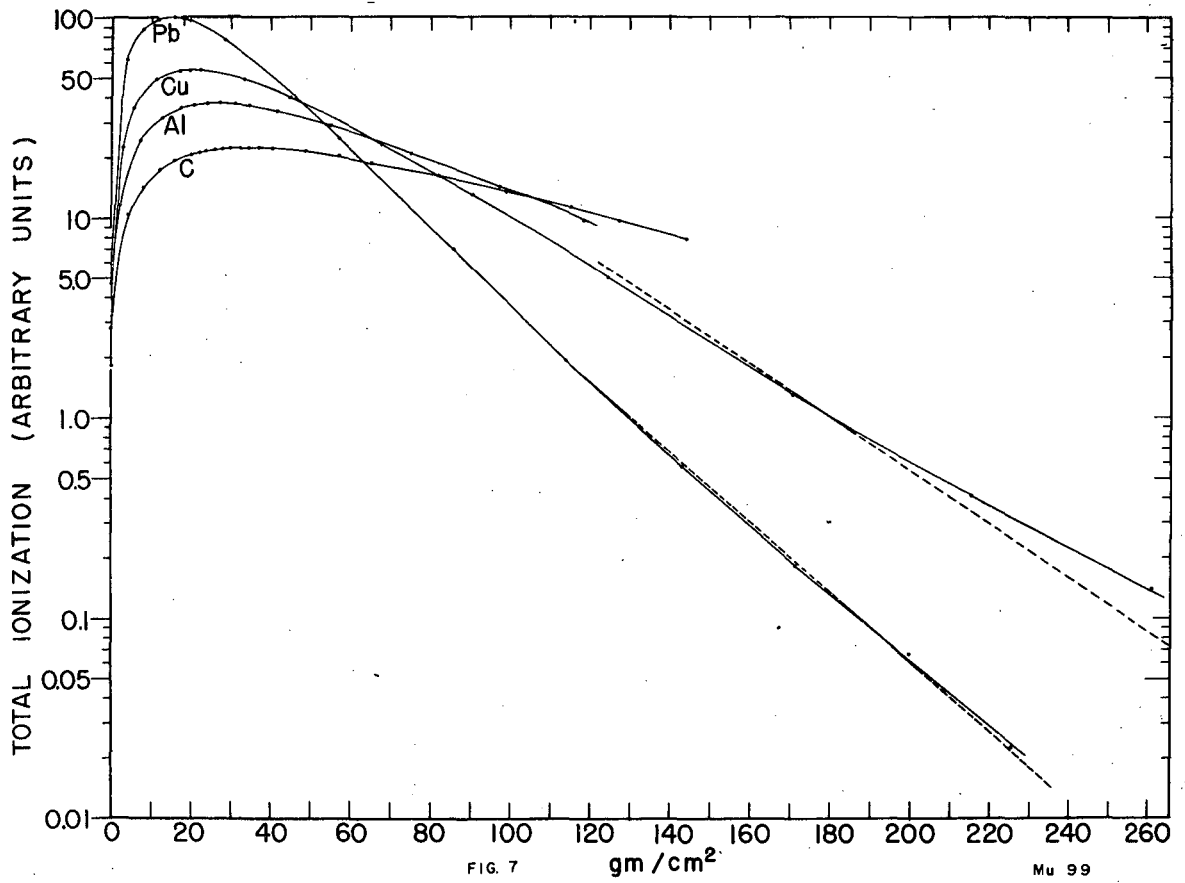


FIG. 6

Mu 98



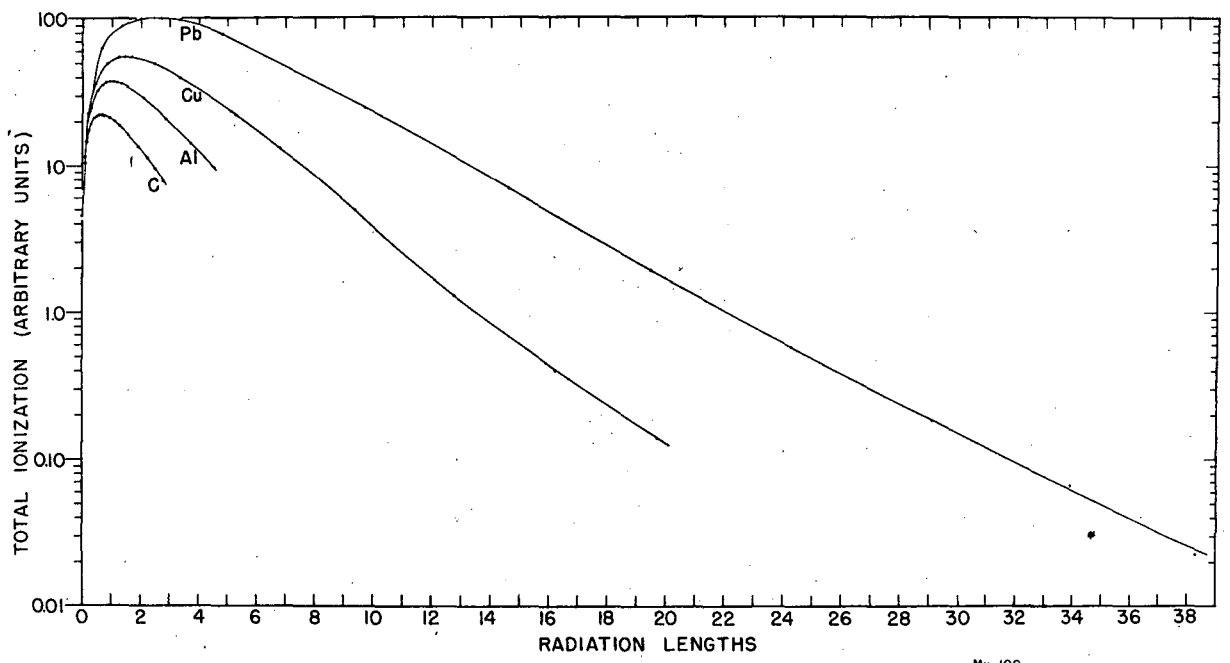


FIG. 8

Mu 100

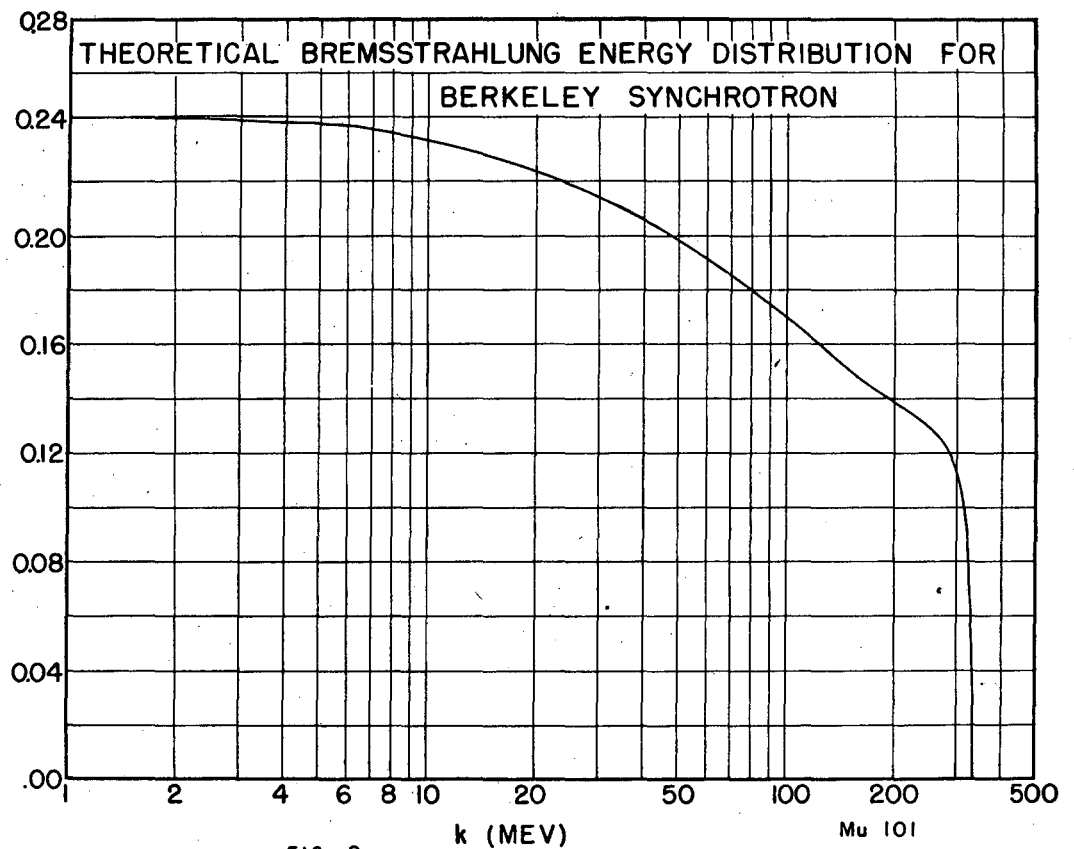
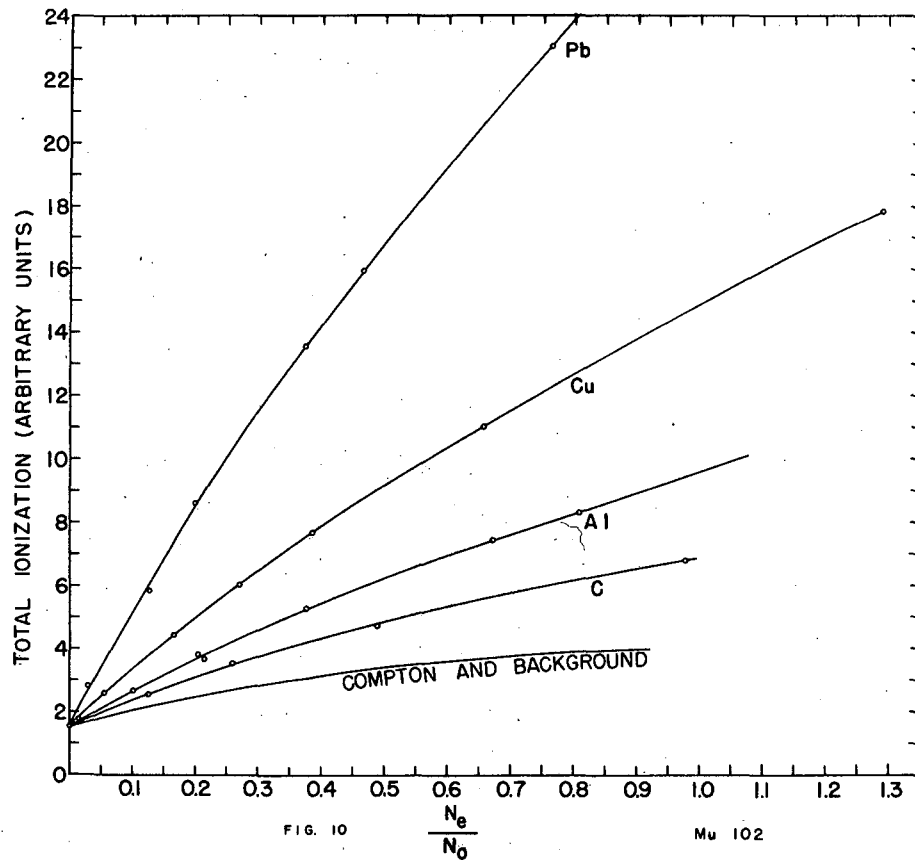
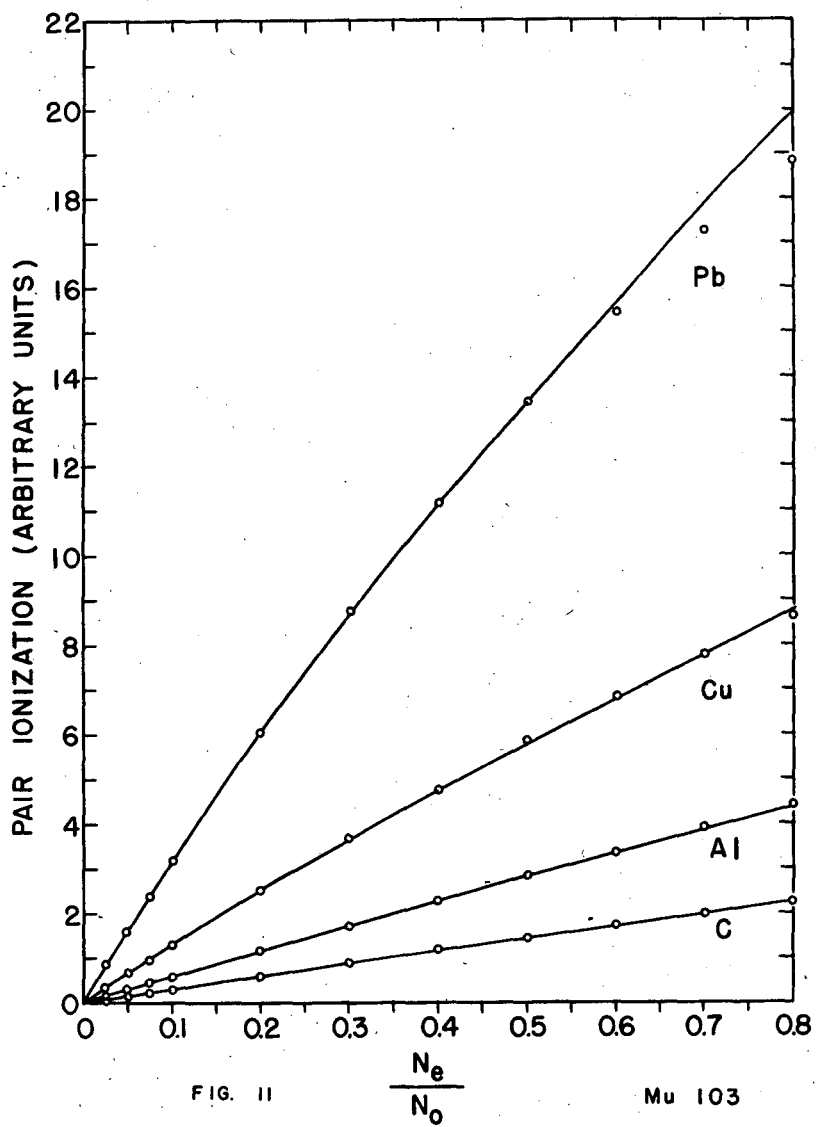


FIG. 9





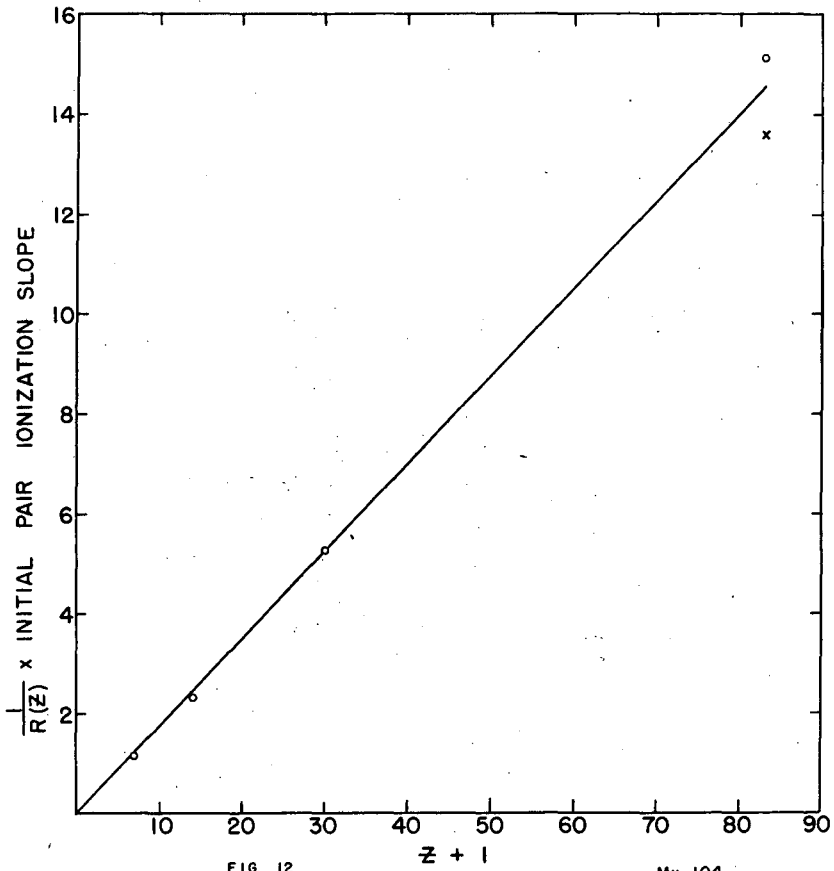


FIG. 12

Mu 104

14684-2