



# ELISS2023

ELI Summer School | 29 Aug – 1 Sep 2023  
Dolní Břežany, Czech Republic

## Laser driven x-ray sources – Generation and Characterisation

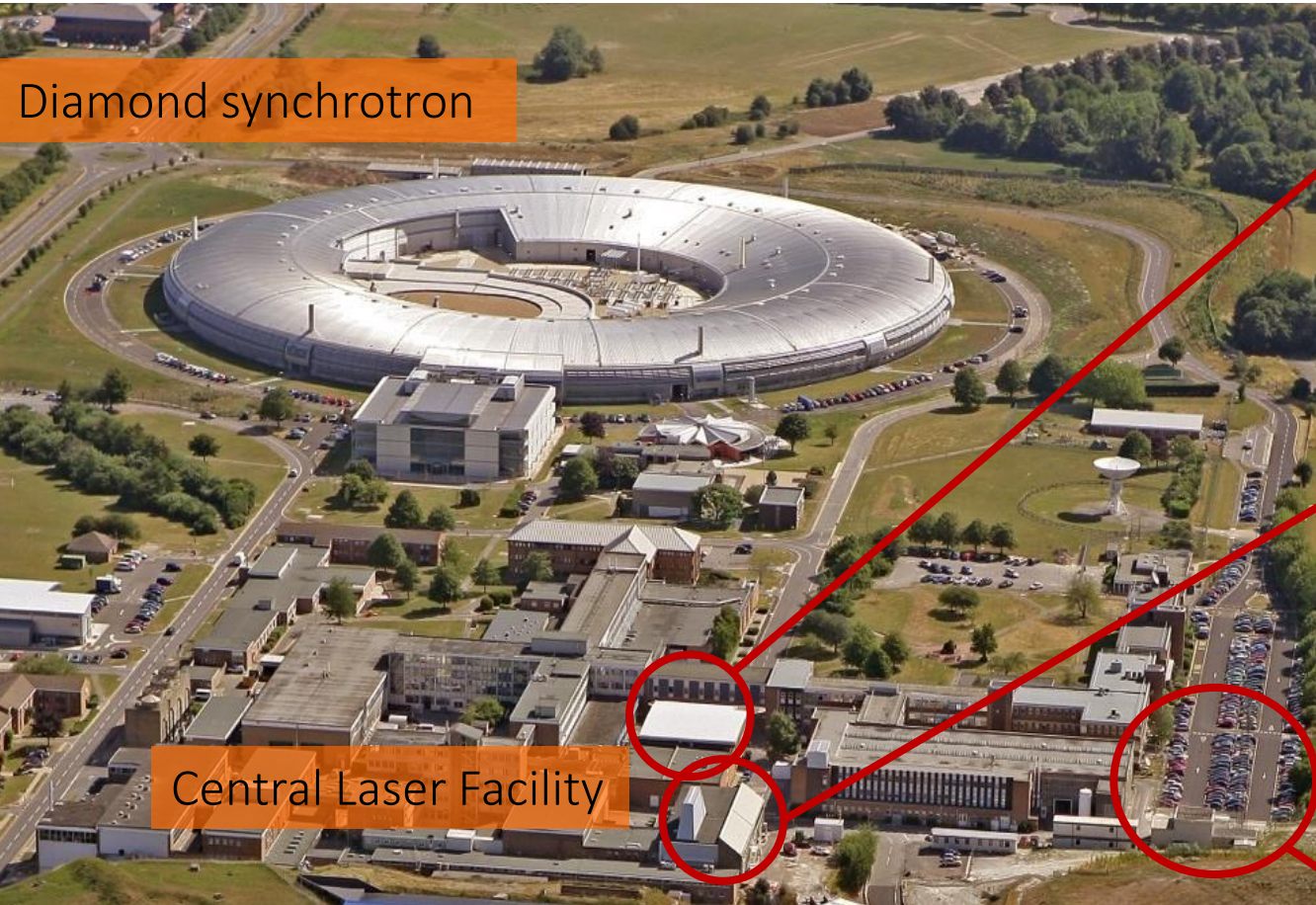
Chris Armstrong

Central Laser Facility, STFC Rutherford Appleton Laboratory, UK

30/08/2023

Dolní Břežany, Czech Republic

# STFC Rutherford Appleton Laboratory



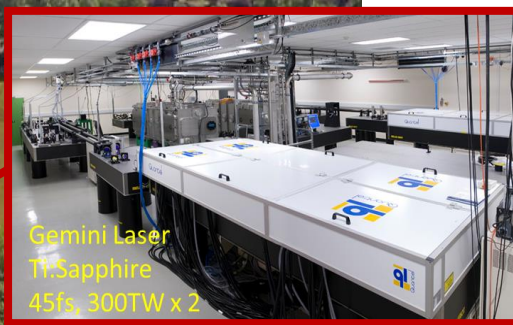
Diamond synchrotron

Central Laser Facility



**Vulcan**

600J, 600fs, 1PW  
10 shots a day



**Gemini**

2x15 J, 30 ps, 2x0.5PW  
10 shots in 5 minutes

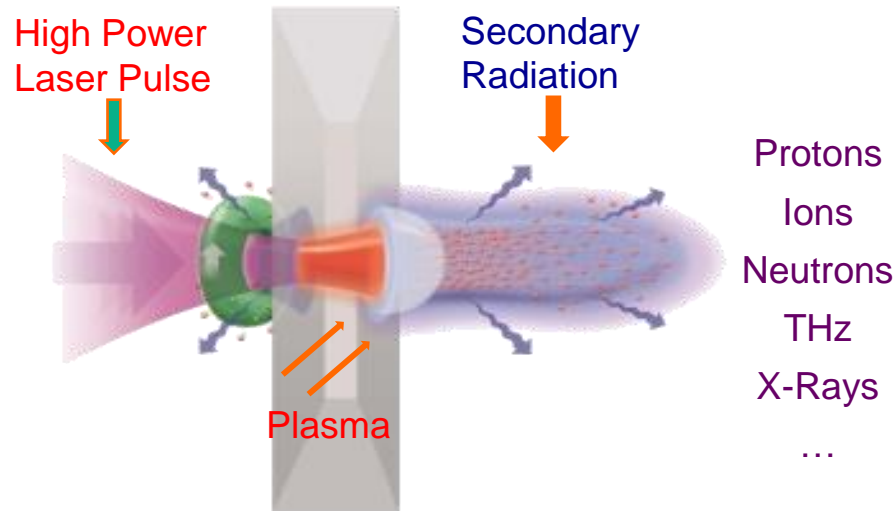


**EPAC**

30 J, 30 ps, 1PW  
10 shots in 1 second  
*Due 2025*

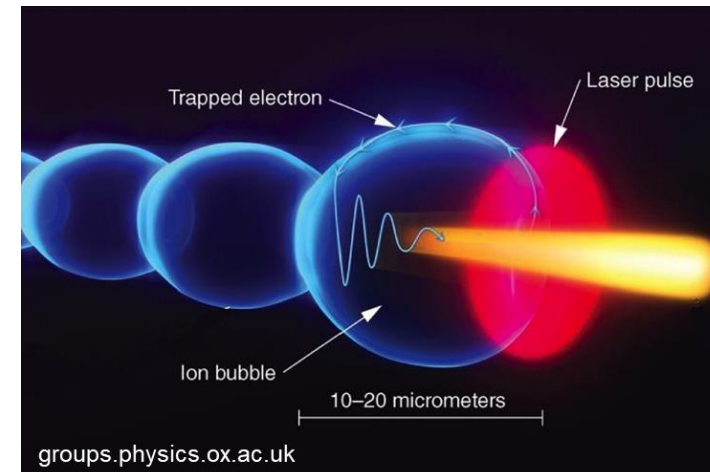
# Laser-plasma interactions

## Solid Targets



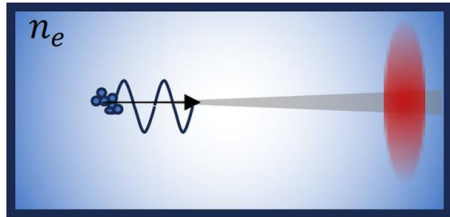
High efficiency (~80%), divergent, ~100um source of up to 100 MeV electrons, Ions, Neutrons, X-rays

## Gas Targets



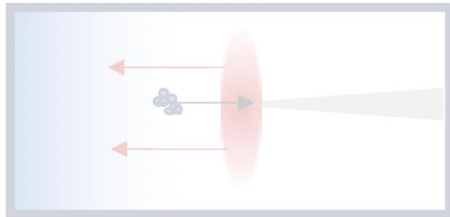
Low efficiency (~10%), highly directional, sub-micron source of up to 10 GeV electrons, and direct <100 keV coherent x-rays

# Laser driven x-ray sources



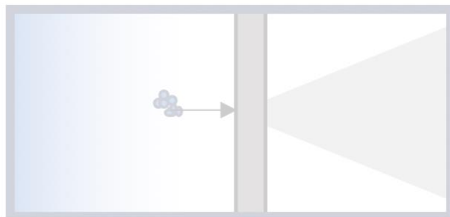
**Betatron**

10-100 keV  
Narrowly divergence source  
Due to electron orbits during acceleration



**Inverse  
Compton  
Scattering**

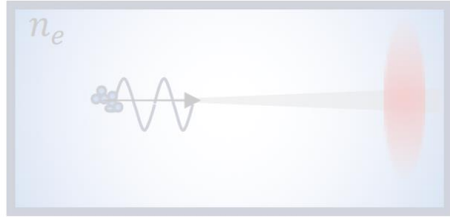
1-100s MeV  
Narrowly divergence source  
Due to scattering upshift of secondary laser



**LWFA  
Bremsstrahlung**

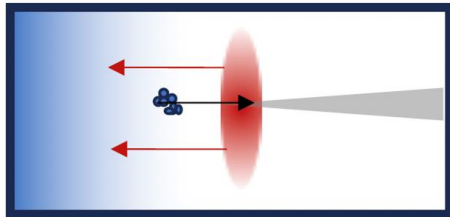
1-100s MeV  
Semi divergent source  
Interaction of ultra-relativistic electrons with target atoms

# Laser driven x-ray sources



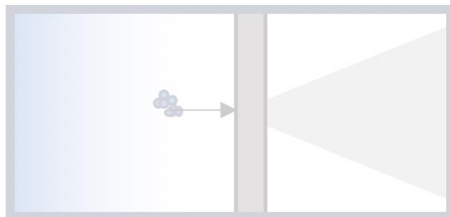
*Betatron*

10-100 keV  
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*Inverse  
Compton  
Scattering*

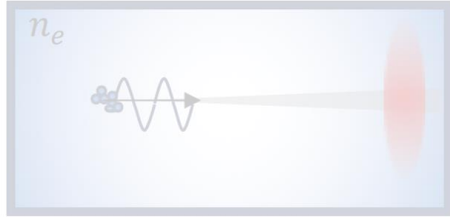
1-100s MeV  
Narrowly divergence source  
Due to scattering upshift of secondary laser



*LWFA  
Bremsstrahlung*

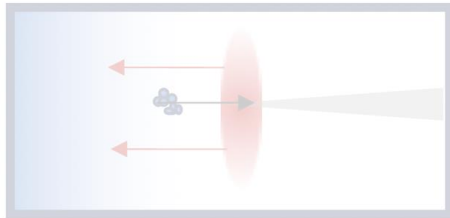
1-100s MeV  
Semi divergent source  
Interaction of ultra-relativistic electrons with target atoms

# Laser driven x-ray sources



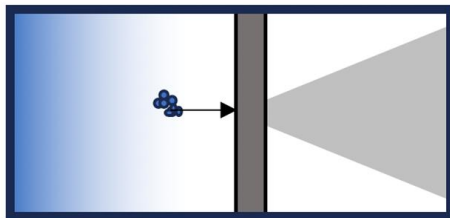
*Betatron*

10-100 keV  
Narrowly divergence source  
Due to electron orbits during acceleration



*Inverse  
Compton  
Scattering*

1-100s MeV  
Narrowly divergence source  
Due to scattering upshift of secondary laser



*LWFA  
Bremsstrahlung*

1-100s MeV  
Semi divergent source  
Interaction of ultra-relativistic electrons with target atoms



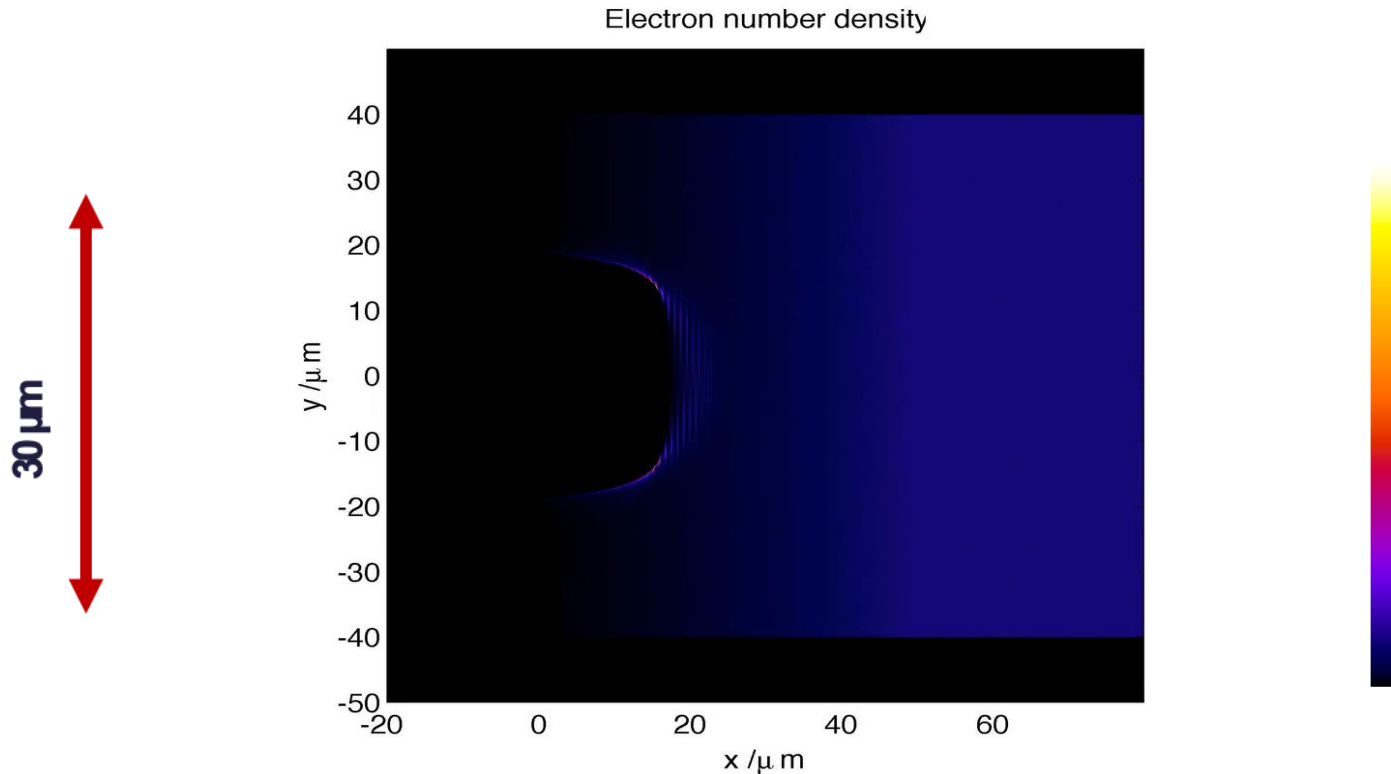
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# Generation Mechanisms

Schemes to generate x-ray sources from  
LWFA

# LWFA Betatron

Laser direction



Electron density map from PIC simulation of LWFA

## Laser wakefield acceleration

- cm-scale gas target
- Intense laser driver
- Multi-GeV electrons

## Source of bright, pulsed radiation sources

- few fs duration
- $\mu\text{m}$ -scale source size
- mrad divergence



# LWFA Betatron

**Electron energy**  $\propto$  Laser power,  
plasma density  
and wavelength

**Critical Frequency**  $\propto$  Electron energy,  
plasma frequency,  
and orbit

**Number of photons**  $\propto$  Electron number,  
number of oscillators,  
electron energy,  
“Wiggle” factor

**Spectral shape**  $\propto$  Angle,  
electron energy,  
Critical frequency

Critical energy

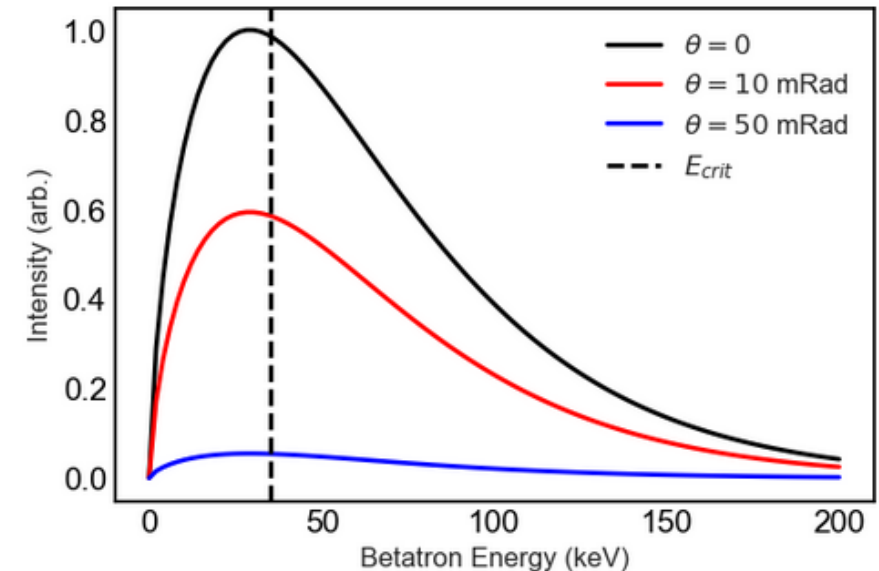
$$\omega_c \sim \frac{3}{2} \gamma^3 k_\beta^2 r_\beta c = \frac{3}{4c} \gamma^2 \omega_p^2 r_\beta$$

Total energy

$$W_{tot} = \frac{e^2}{6\epsilon_0} N_e N_\beta \gamma^2 K_\beta^2 k_\beta$$

Angular energy spectrum

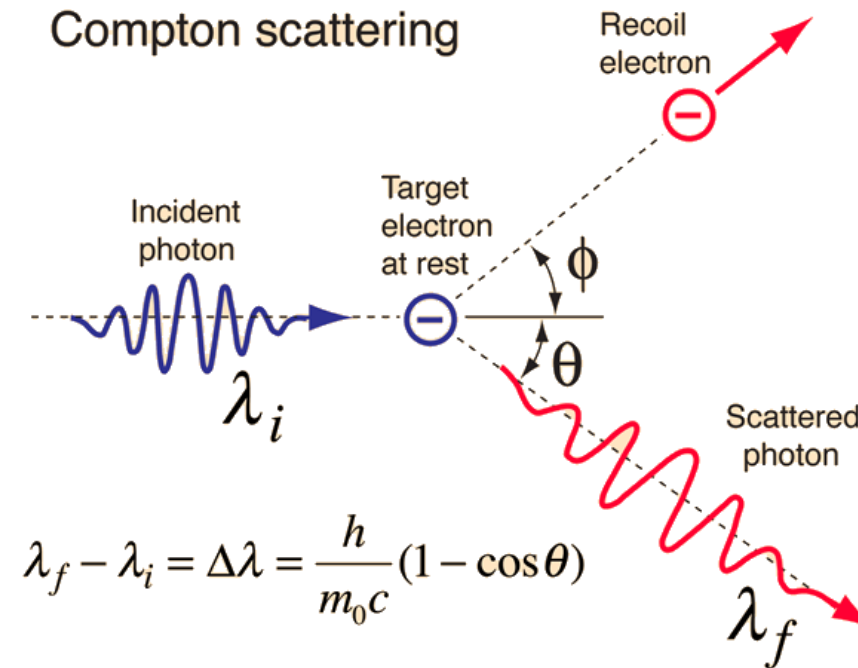
$$\frac{d^2 I_B}{d\Omega d\theta_B} = \frac{\gamma^2 \xi_B^2}{1 + \gamma^2 \theta_B^2} \left[ K_{2/3}^2(\xi_B) + \frac{\gamma^2 \xi^2}{1 + \gamma^2 \theta_B^2} K_{1/3}^2(\xi_B) \right]$$



# Inverse Compton Scattering (ICS)

For standard Compton scattering:

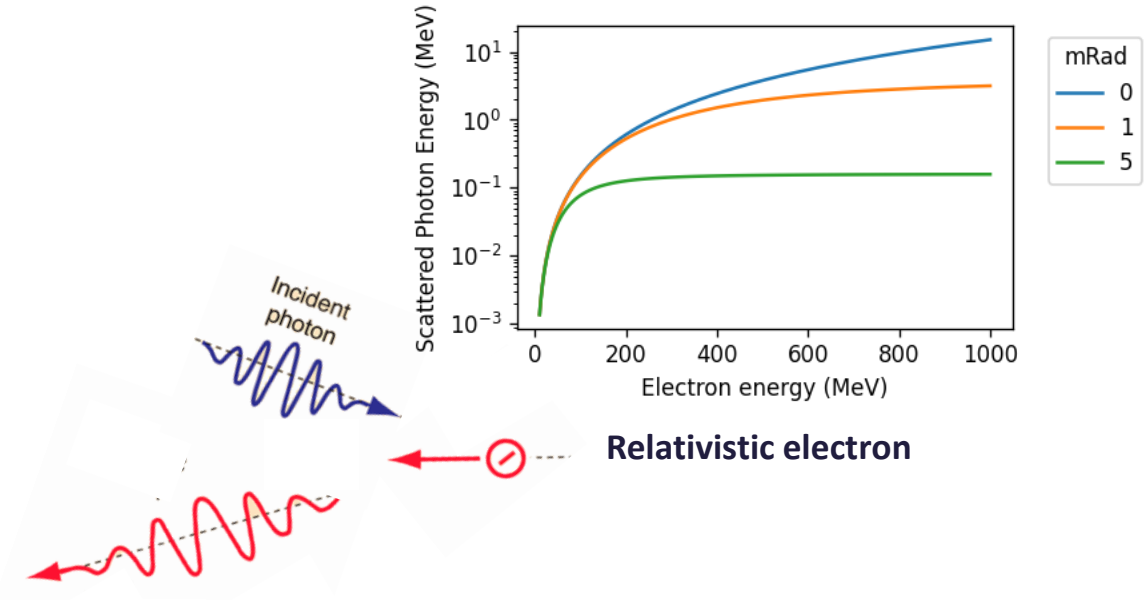
- Photon interactions with an electron at rest
- The photon is then scattered by some angle
- And experiences a downshift in energy relative to the angle of scatter.
- Electron recoils, conserving the momentum of the interaction



# Inverse Compton Scattering (ICS)

For inverse Compton scattering, everything I just said but backwards:

- Photon interacts with a relativistic ( $\gamma \gg 1$ ) electron
- Photon recoils from electron
- And experiences a upshift in energy relative to the angle of scatter and the energy of the electron



$$E_{x\text{-ray}} = \frac{4\gamma^2 E_{\text{laser}}}{1 + (\gamma\theta)^2 + 4\gamma E_{\text{laser}} / (m_e c^2)}$$

On axis for large gamma  
this simplifies:

$$\approx 4\gamma^2 E_{\text{laser}}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{E_e - m_0 c^2}{m_0 c^2}$$

# Inverse Compton Scattering (ICS)

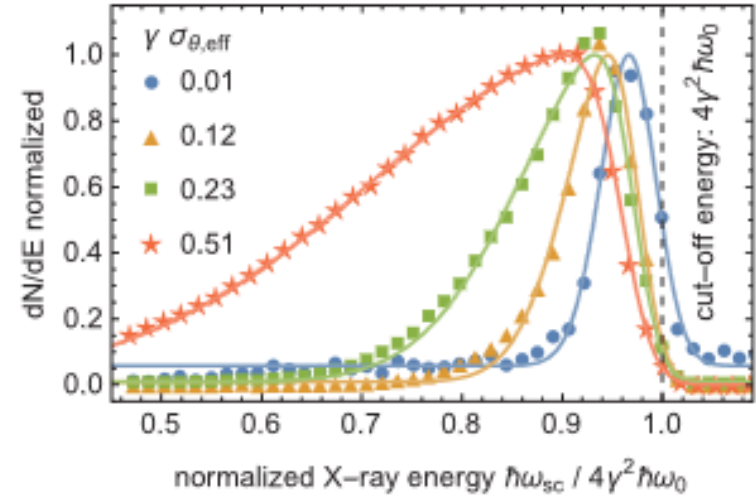
*Spectral width scales with electron bandwidth and interaction angle*

The scaling is a combination of the driven electron conditions and the scattering laser:

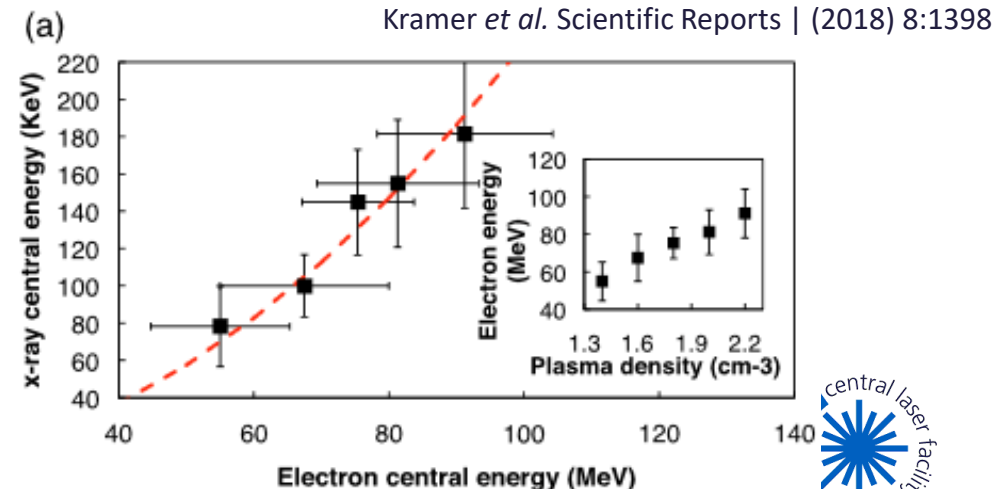
Increases in the scattering laser/photon energy linearly maps to the scattered photon energy

Increases in the electron energy drive a *squared* scaling in scattered photon energy

Bandwidth of the emission maps from the bandwidth of the electron beam and the angle of incidence



**Peak energy scales with electron energy**



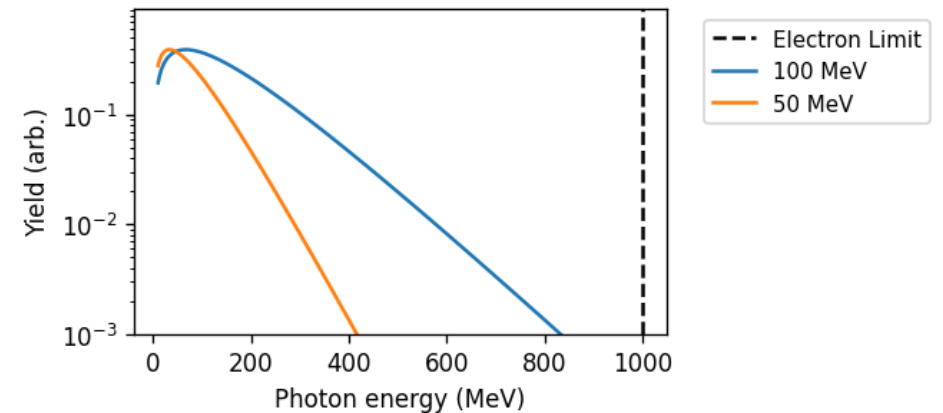
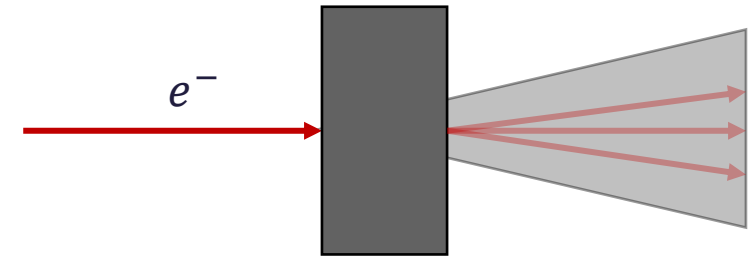
# LWFA Bremsstrahlung

Now instead of scattering a second laser onto the electron bunch we can accelerate them directly into a high-z target.

Electrons generate bremsstrahlung through interactions with the solid target, some remaining electron population escapes with a scattered fraction.

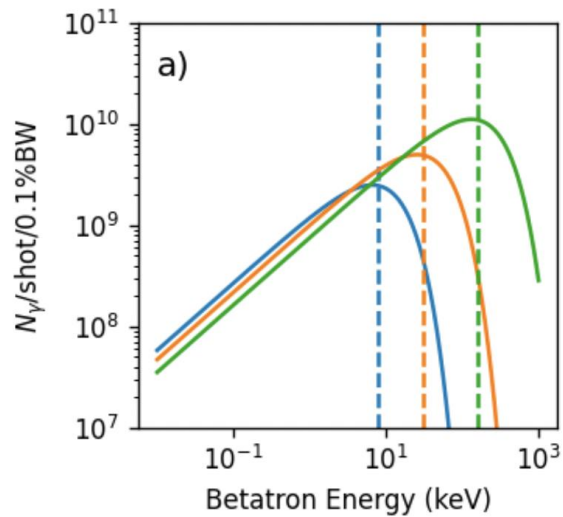
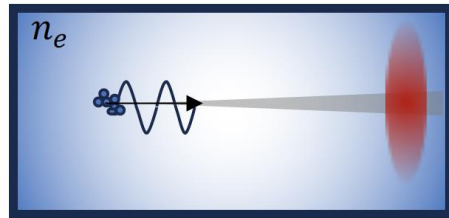
X-ray energy can't exceed the incident energy of the electrons, forms a distribution of x-ray energies of the form:

$$\frac{dN}{dE} \propto (E_x)^{-\frac{2}{3}} \exp\left(-\frac{E_x}{T_x}\right)$$

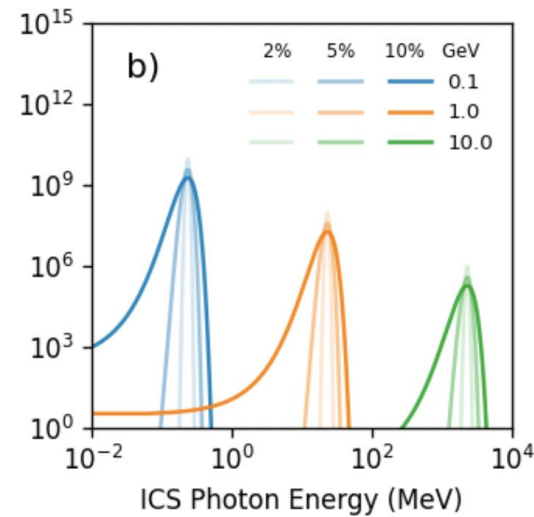
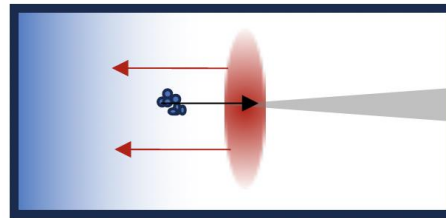


# Summary of Mechanisms

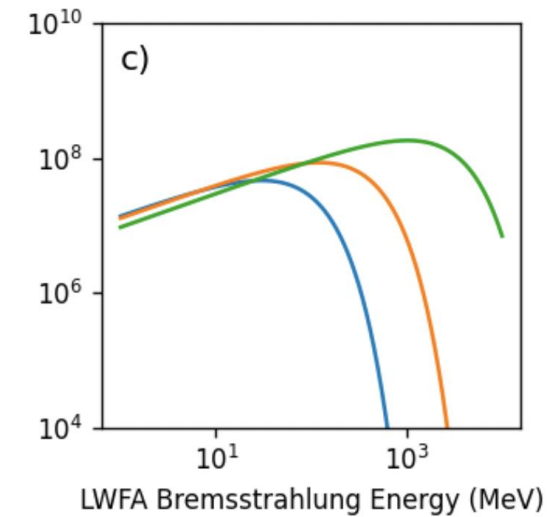
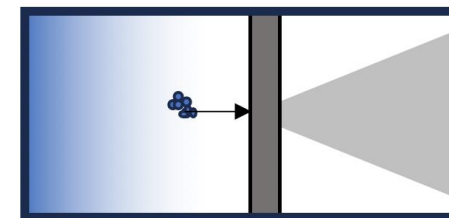
**LWFA  
Betatron**



**Inverse Compton  
Scattering**



**LWFA  
Bremsstrahlung**





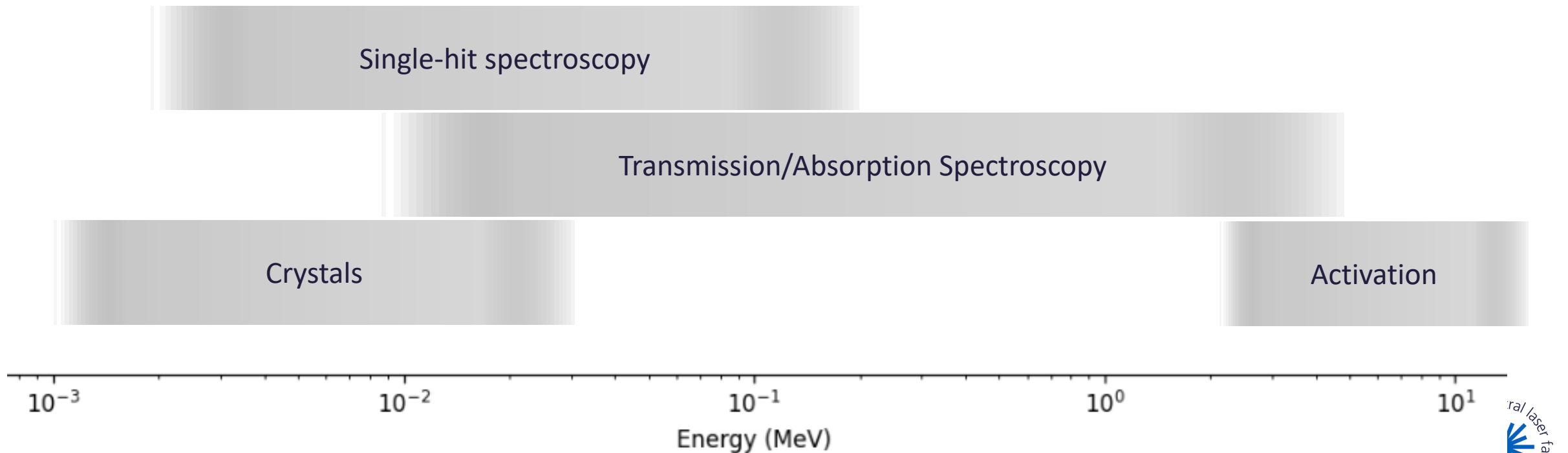
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# Characterisation

Methods to characterise emission from  
laser-driven sources



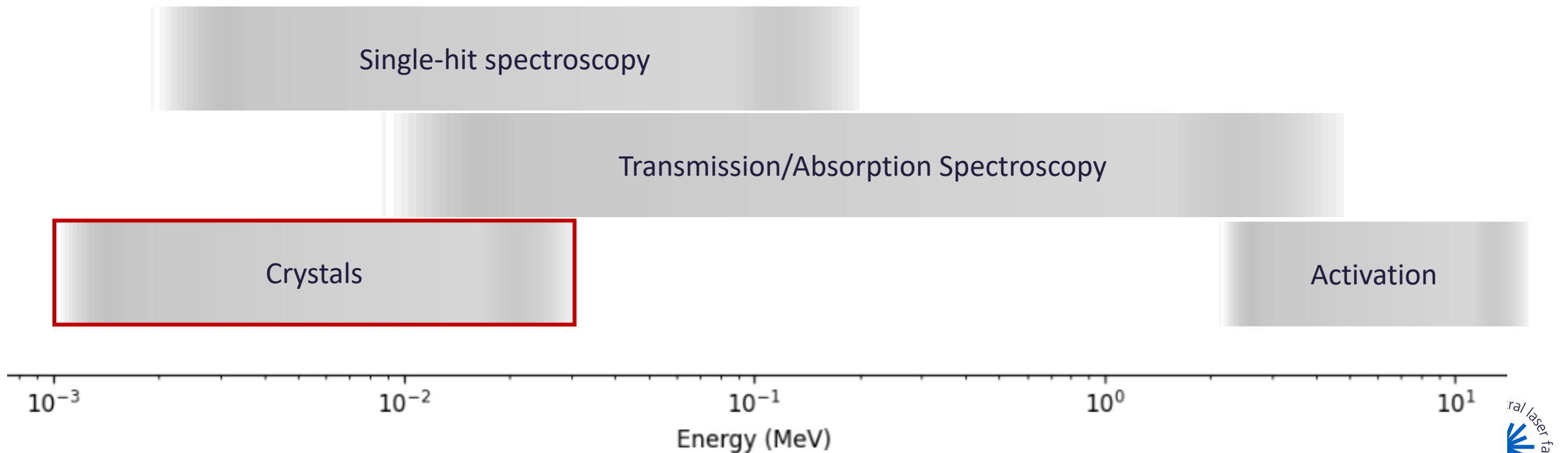
# Spectral Characterisation







# Spectral Characterisation



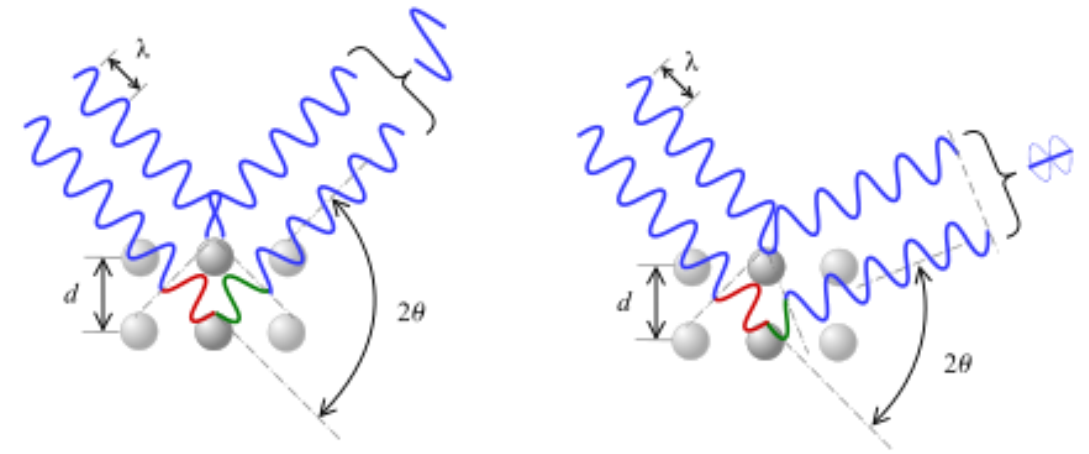
# Crystal spectroscopy

X-rays interacting with an atomic lattice can lead to constructive interference at a specific angle

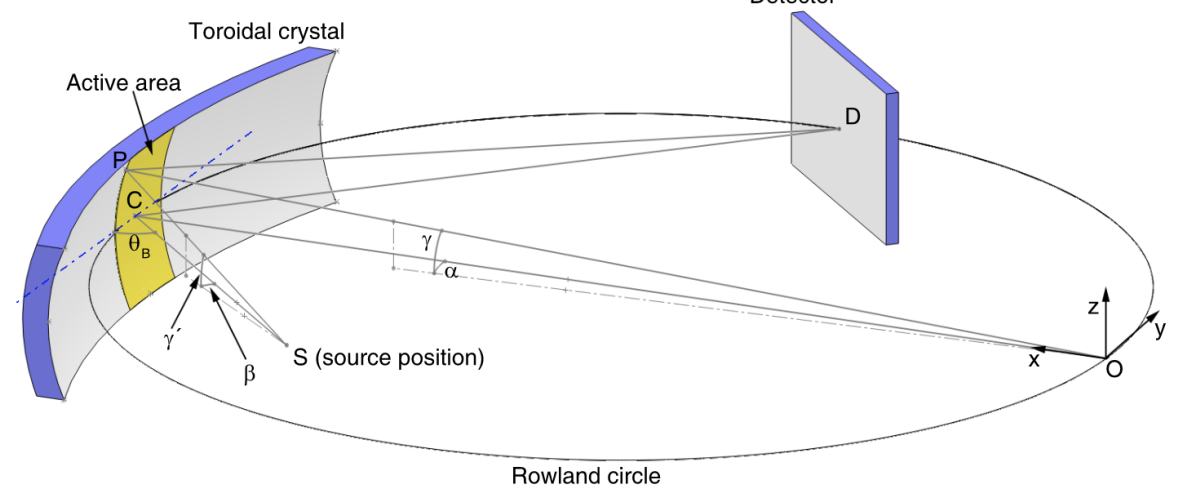
This angle defined by Bragg's Law is dependent on the crystal spacing and the energy/wavelength of photon interacting with it.

This phenomena can be used to select energies of x-ray by angling the crystal to match the desired wavelength.

Curved crystals (in one or two planes) then permit selective imaging.

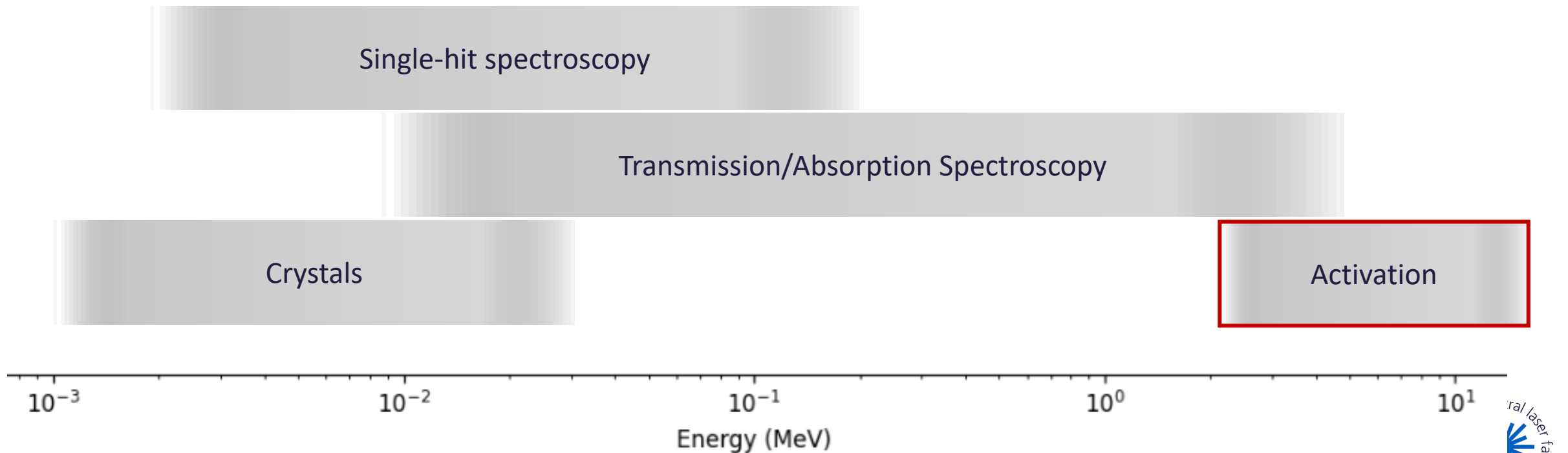


$$n\lambda = 2d \sin(\theta)$$





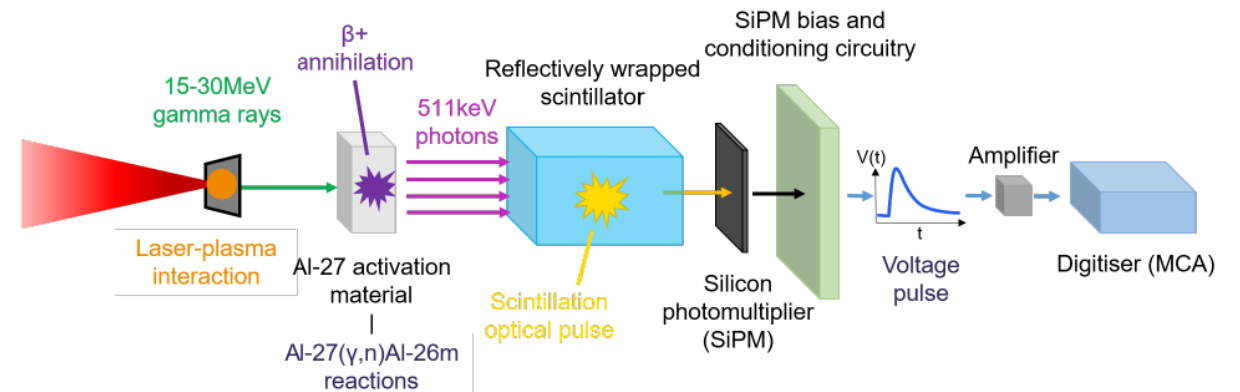
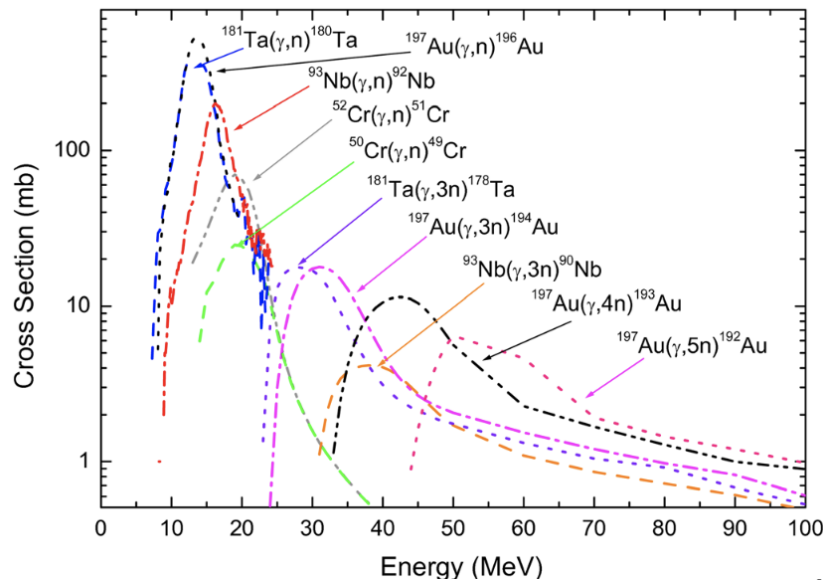
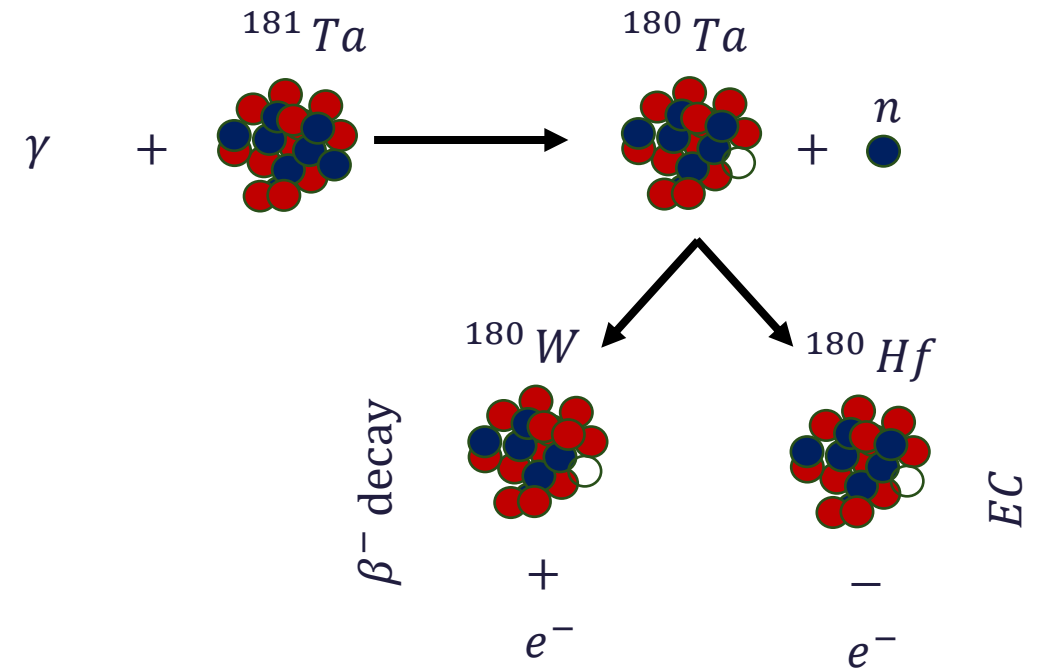
# Spectral Characterisation



# Activation spectroscopy

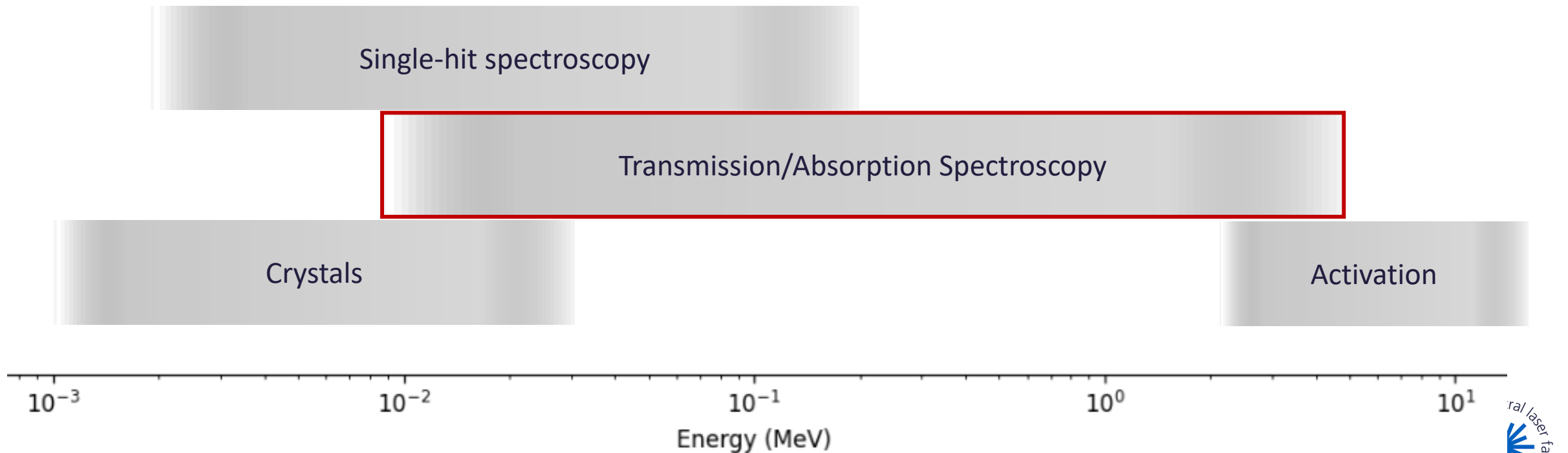
Nuclear activation occurs as a high energy photon (>10 MeV) interacts with a nucleus. There are several paths but the most common is  $(\gamma, n)$  reactions whereby the photon *kicks out* a neutron leaving the atom in a *generally unstable state*.

Monitoring the re-emission from the secondary products gives us a way to infer how many high energy photons there must have been





# Spectral Characterisation



# Absorption Spectrometers

Pass x-ray through a filter, measure response, pass through more of a filter, measure response.

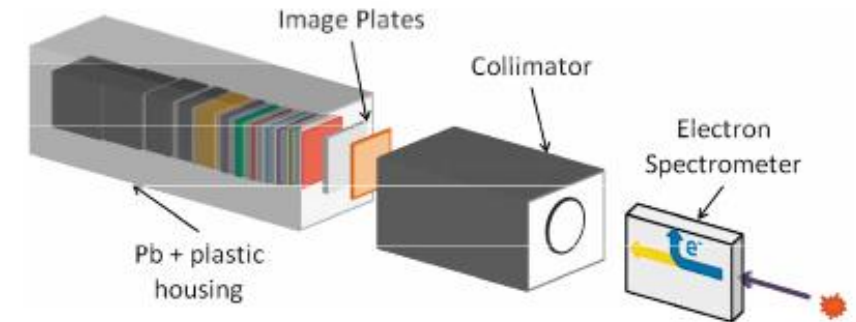
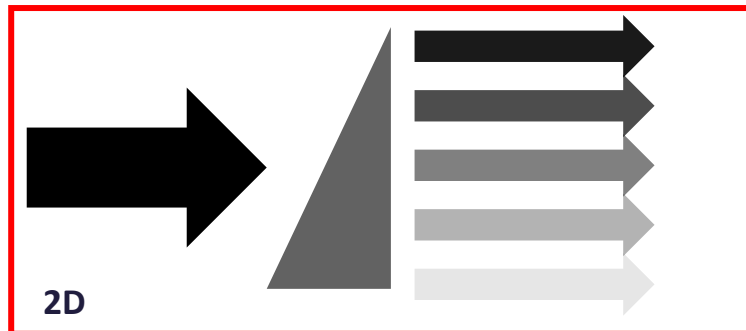
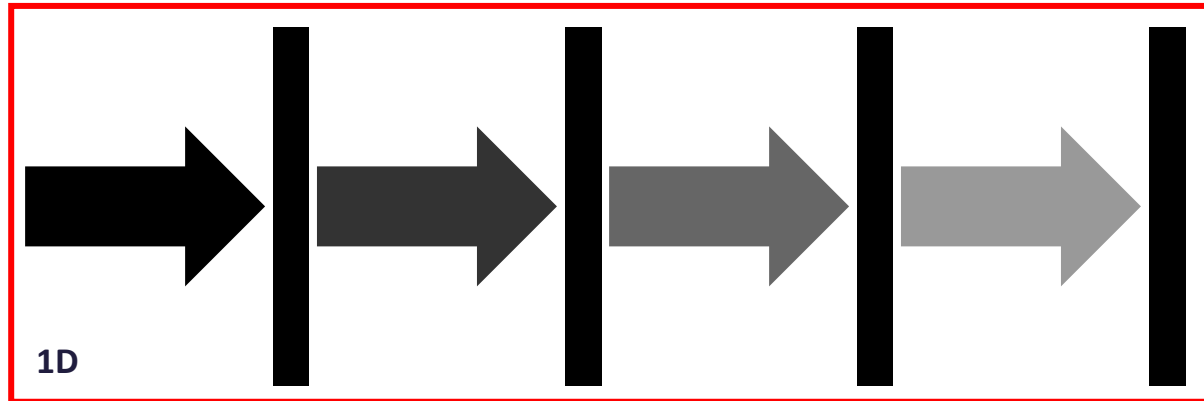
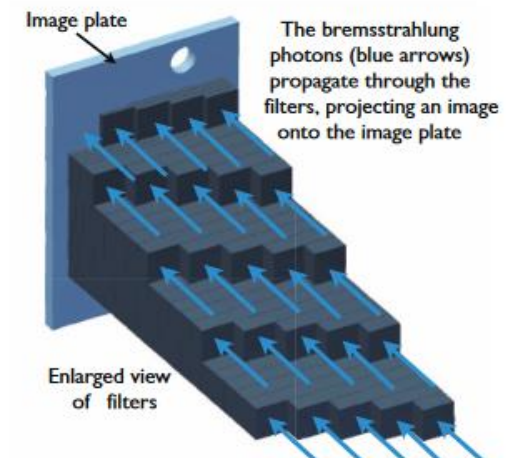


FIG. 1. (Color online) A diagram of the Bremsstrahlung spectrometer. The image plates are in a Lexan cartridge that fits into the Pb housing. The electron spectrometer deflects incident electrons.



Scott, Rev. Sci. Instrum. 84, 083505 (2013);

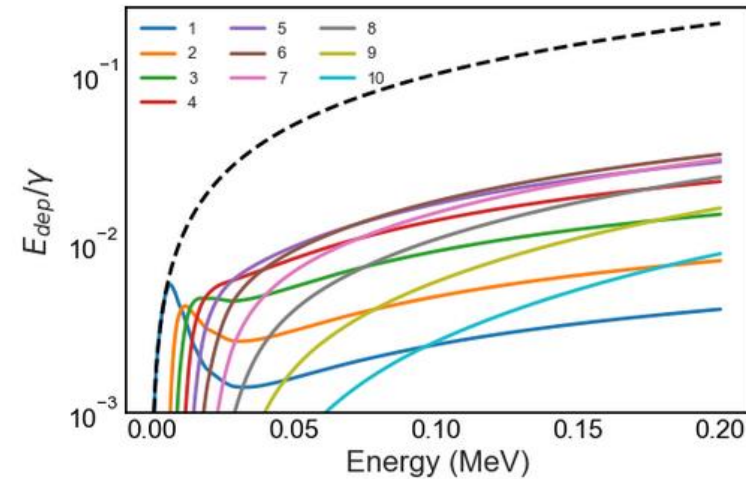
FIG. 2. The incident bremsstrahlung photons (blue arrows) propagate through the filter array, creating an image on the region of image plate behind the filters, this image contains convolved information about the spectral distribution of the bremsstrahlung photons. The 25 filters create 25 energy bins.

# Reconstruction

In both cases reconstruction follows a form fitting process:

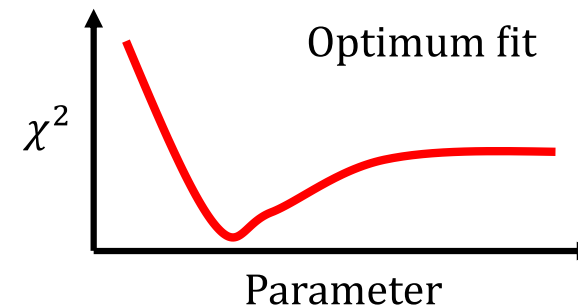
1. Define response of system
  - $R_k(E)$
2. Defined expected spectral form
  - $F(E, T_c)$
3. Scan parameters and compare to measured data

- $\chi^2 = \sum_0^k \frac{(m_k - x_k)^2}{x_k}$
- $x_k = R_k(E) \cdot F(E, T_c)$



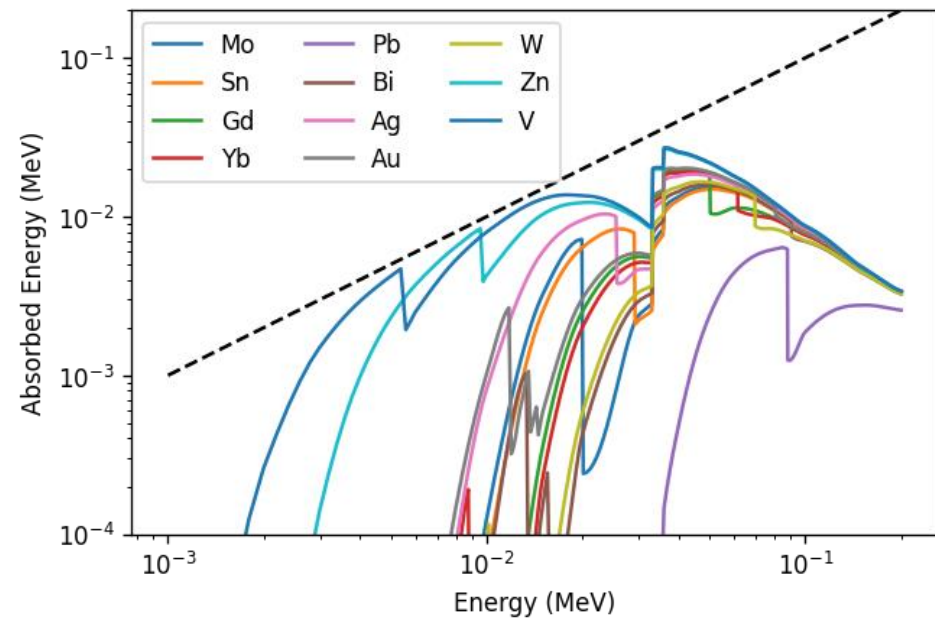
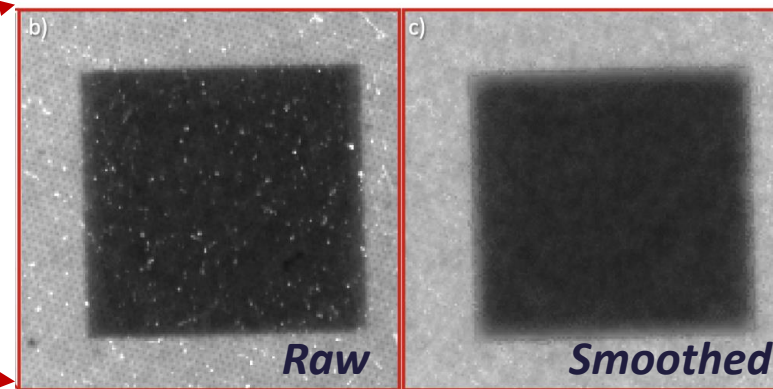
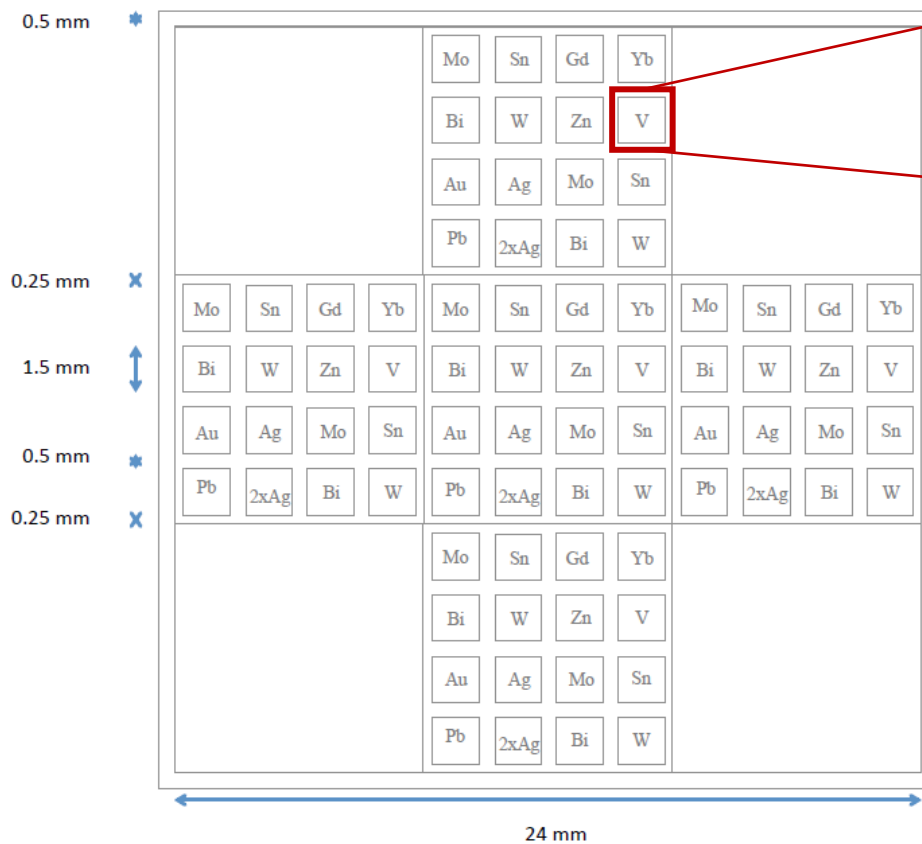
$$\frac{d^2 I_B}{d\Omega d\theta_B} = \frac{\gamma^2 \xi_B^2}{1 + \gamma^2 \theta_B^2} \left[ K_{2/3}^2(\xi_B) + \frac{\gamma^2 \xi_B^2}{1 + \gamma^2 \theta_B^2} K_{1/3}^2(\xi_B) \right]$$

Parameter scan



# Areal transmission spectroscopy

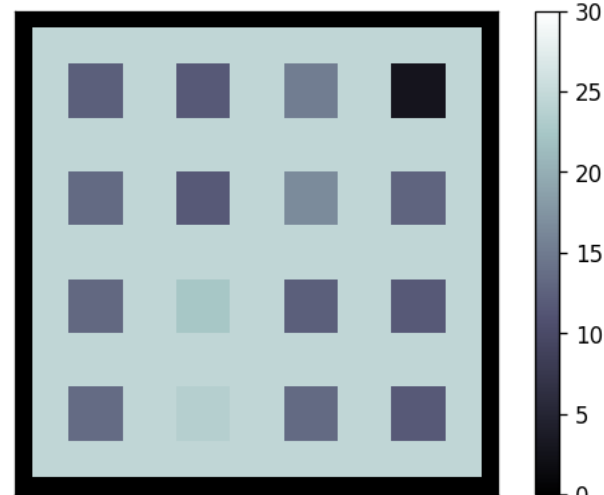
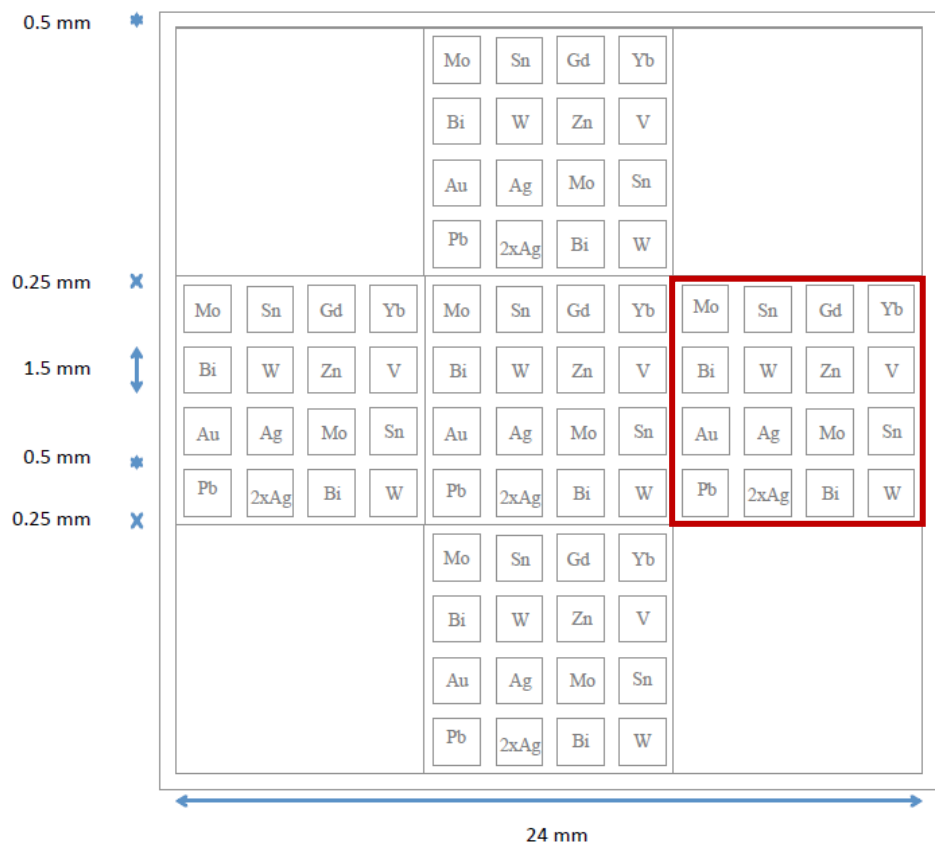
Element	Mo	Sn	Gd	Yb	Ag	Bi	Ag	Au	W	Zn	V
Thickness [ $\mu\text{m}$ ]	50	50	50	50	40	40	20	10	25	5	3



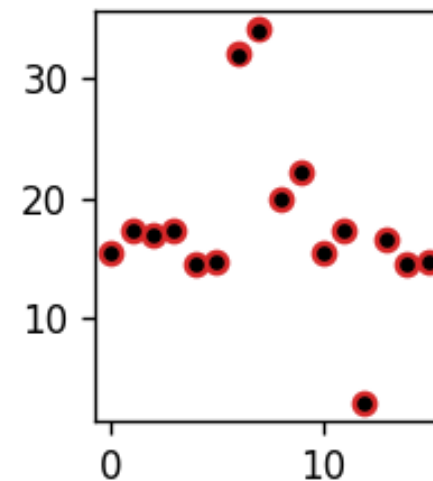
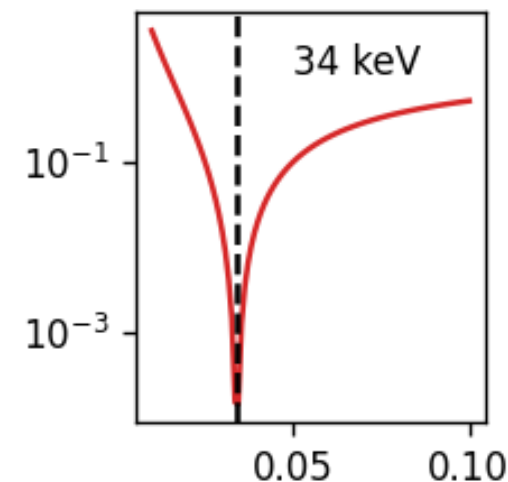


# Areal transmission spectroscopy

Element	Mo	Sn	Gd	Yb	Ag	Bi	Ag	Au	W	Zn	V
Thickness [ $\mu\text{m}$ ]	50	50	50	50	40	40	20	10	25	5	3



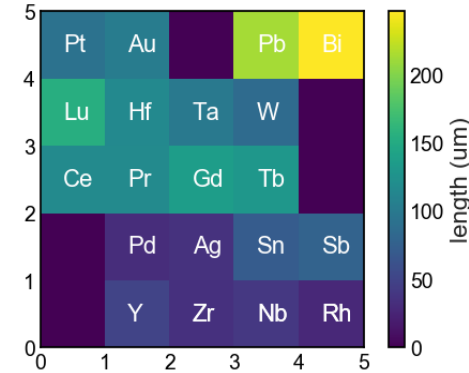
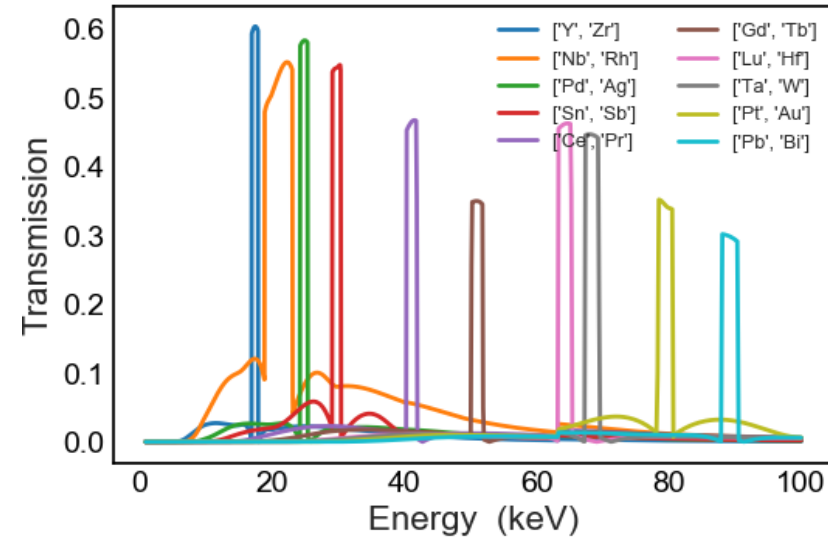
*Synch output from grid*



# Ross-pair transmission spectroscopy

Matching similar transmission functions with different elements provides an *effective* delta function from which we can isolate different spectral combinations.

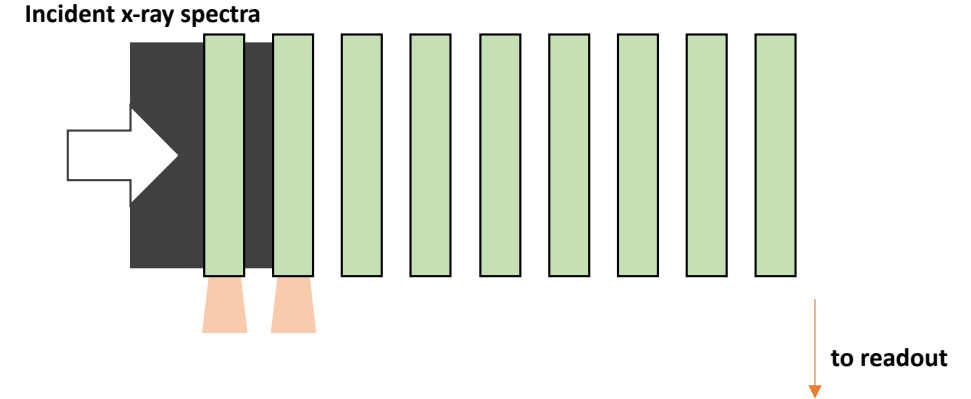
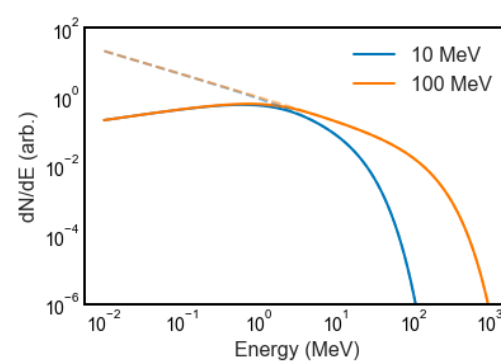
We still require the beam to be spatially uniform in each region but we can define smaller masks to sample the area at multiple points.



$$nE_k \approx \kappa\eta \left[ \int_0^\infty f(E)e^{-\sigma_1\rho_1\ell_1}dE - \int_0^\infty f(E)e^{-\sigma_2\rho_2\ell_3}dE \right] \quad nE_k \approx \frac{I_1 - I_2}{\kappa\eta}$$

# Linear absorption spectroscopy

Similar idea as before but each layer is also a detector plane, and since this samples a  $\sim 1D$  point we don't need to assume a uniform spectro-spatial distribution



Rusby, D.R. *et al* Rev. Sci. Instrum. 89, 073502 (2018)

Chen, Rev. Sci. Instrum. 79, 10E305 (2008);

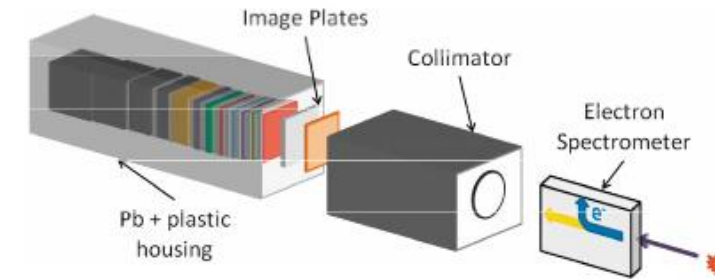
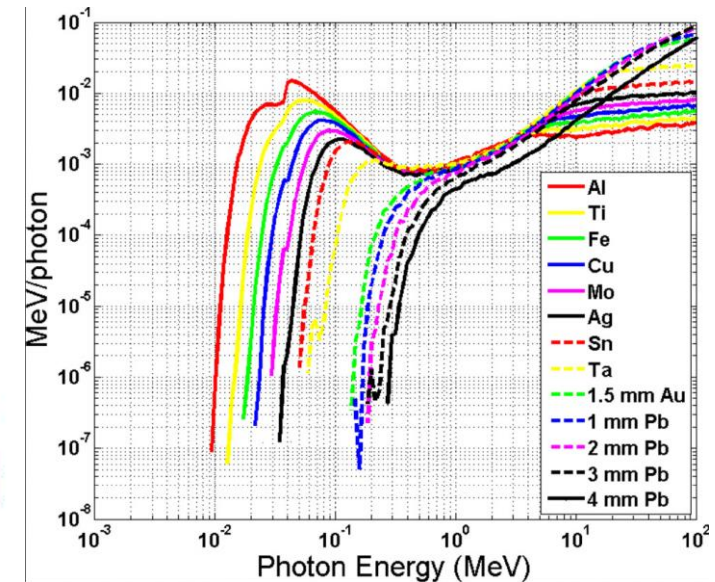
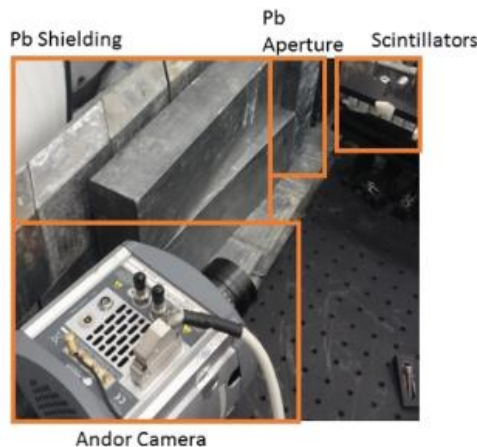
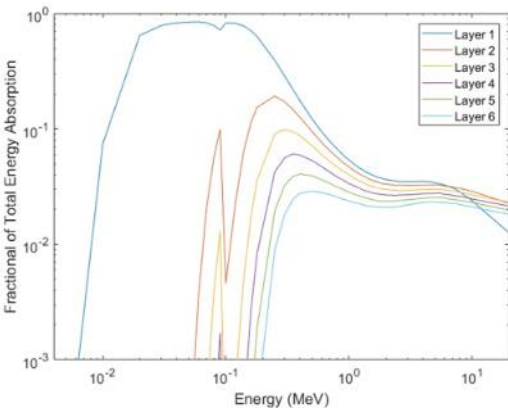


FIG. 1. (Color online) A diagram of the Bremsstrahlung spectrometer. The image plates are in a Lexan cartridge that fits into the Pb housing. The electron spectrometer deflects incident electrons.



# Reconstruction

From the response matrix expected responses for a series of incident spectra can be determined.

$$\Gamma * F = M$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_{L_1, E_1} & R_{L_1, E_N} \\ \dots & \dots \\ R_{L_N, E_1} & R_{L_N, E_N} \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} F_{E_1} \\ \dots \\ F_{E_N} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} M_1 \\ \dots \\ M_N \end{bmatrix}$$

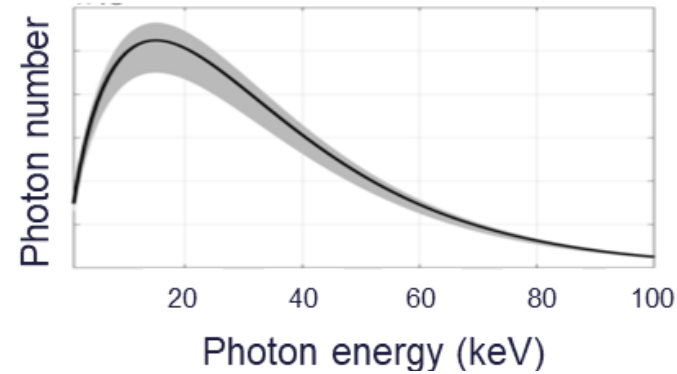
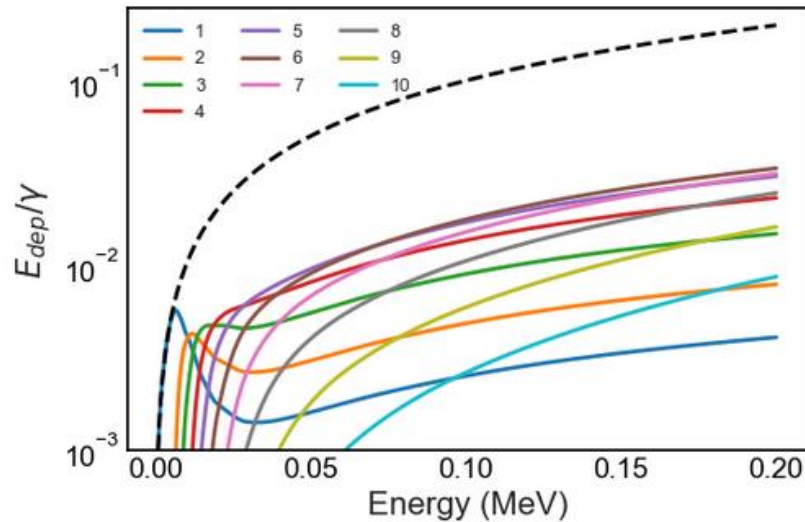
$\Gamma(E)$

\*

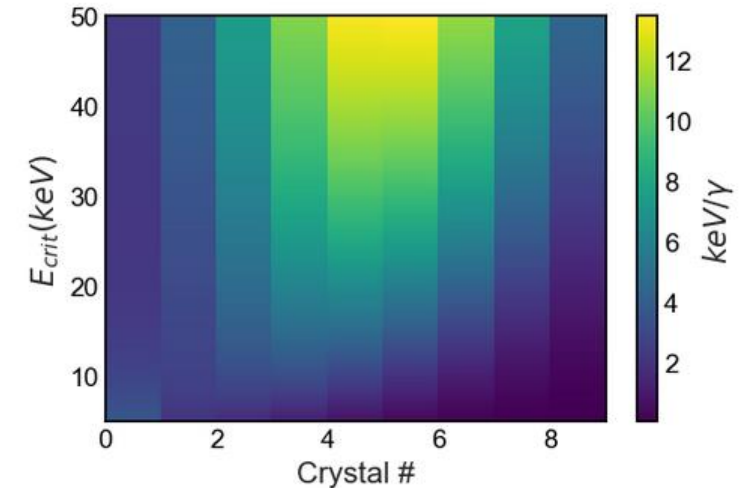
$F(E)$

=

$\langle M \rangle$



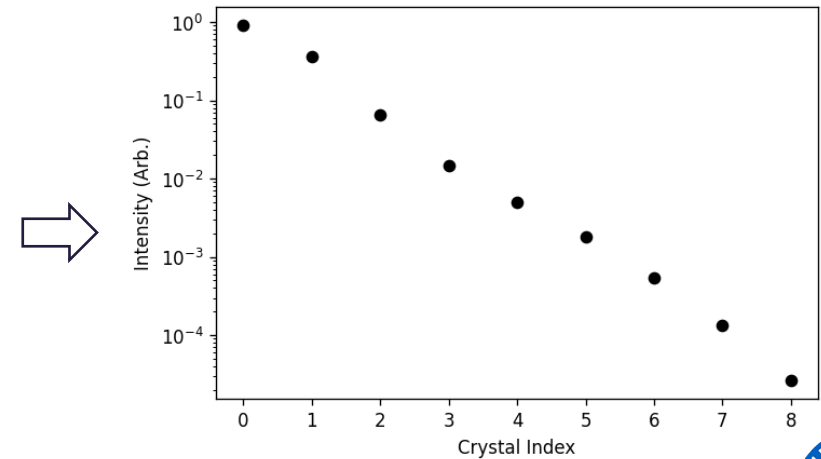
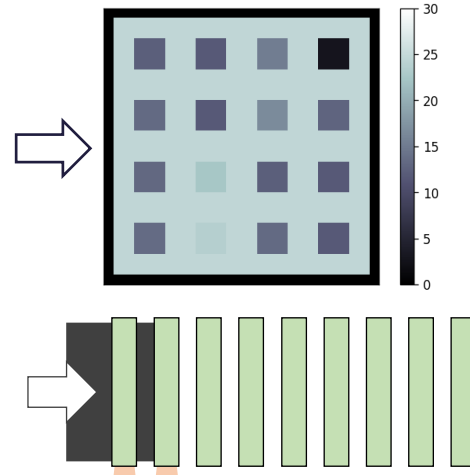
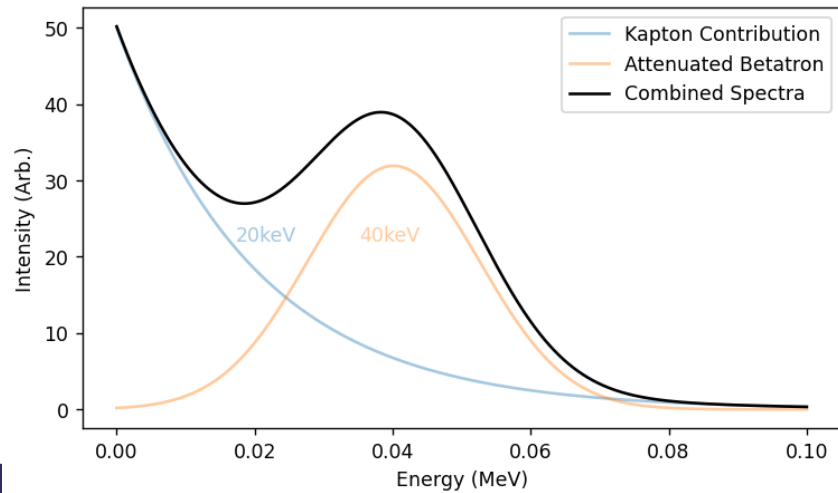
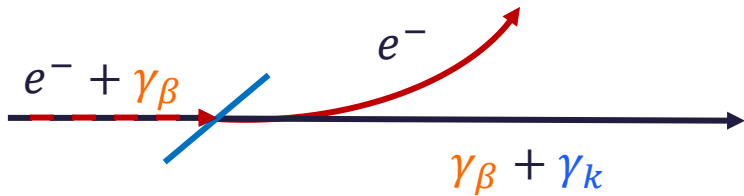
$$\frac{d^2 I_B}{d\Omega d\theta_B} = \frac{\gamma^2 \xi_B^2}{1 + \gamma^2 \theta_B^2} \left[ K_{2/3}^2(\xi_B) + \frac{\gamma^2 \xi_B^2}{1 + \gamma^2 \theta_B^2} K_{1/3}^2(\xi_B) \right]$$



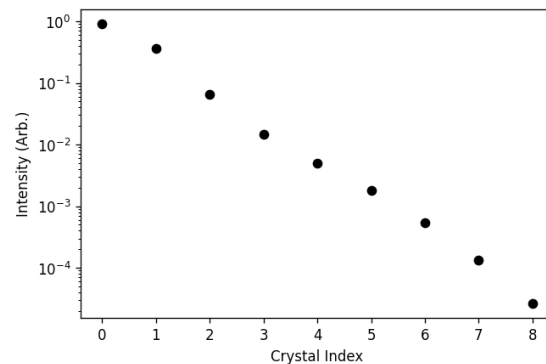
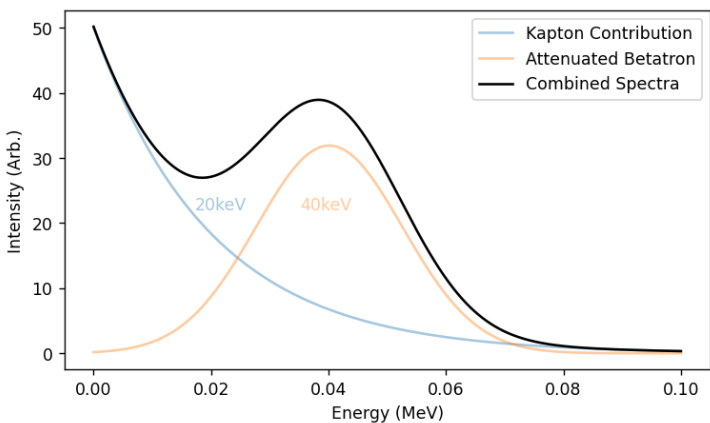
# Reconstruction

Consider a standard betatron arrangement:

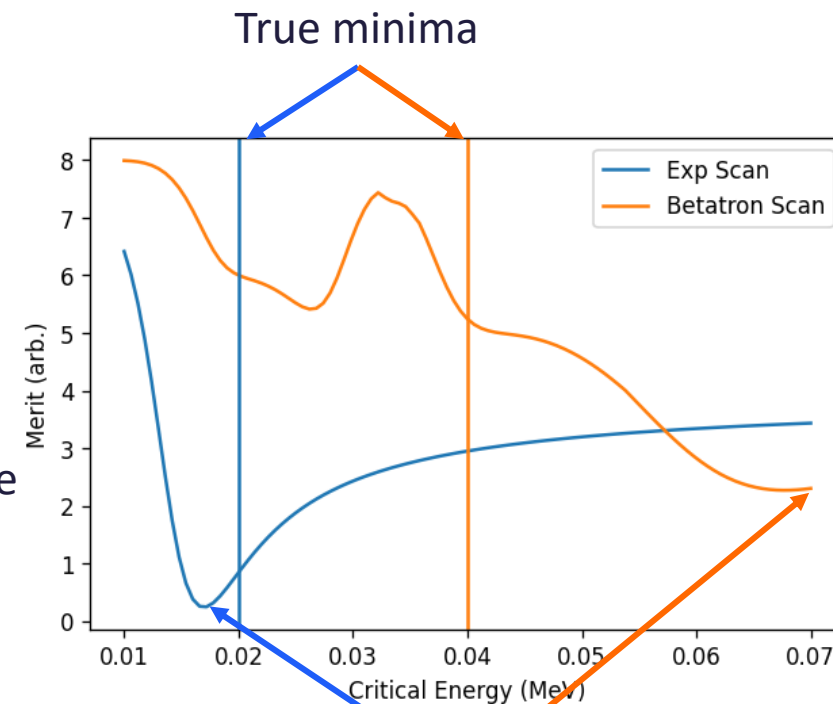
- LWFA produces  $e^-$  and  $\gamma_\beta$
- Remaining laser is dumped on flange/tape drive
- $e^-$  is not immediately swept clear interacts with beam dump and produces a secondary burst of  $\gamma_k$



# Reconstruction



Piecewise  
1D Scan

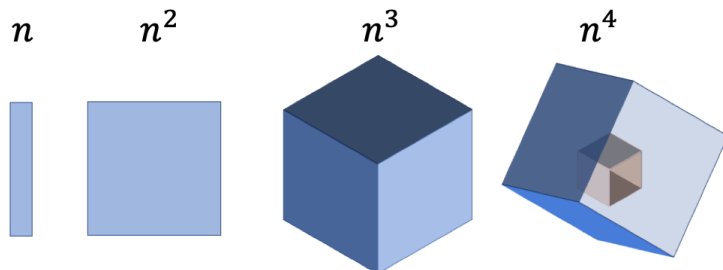


1D Scan minimas

Scanning the parameter space scales with number of parameters.

## Scanning Parameter Space

By only 3 parameters this could already **impact Hz level operation**

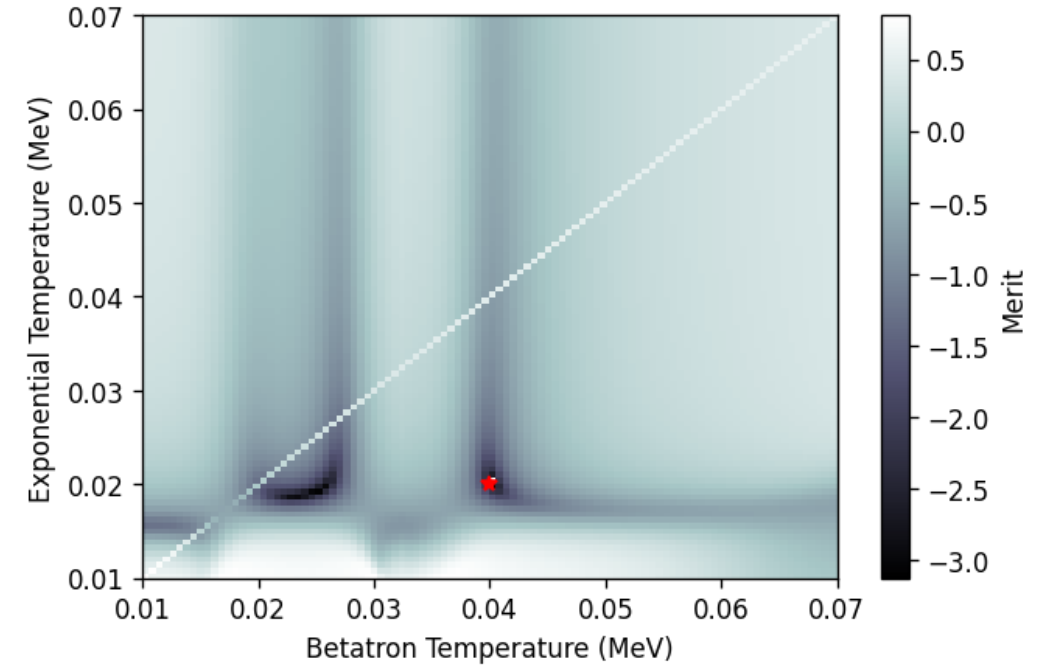
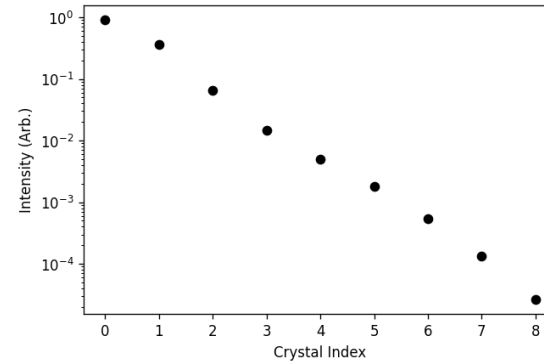
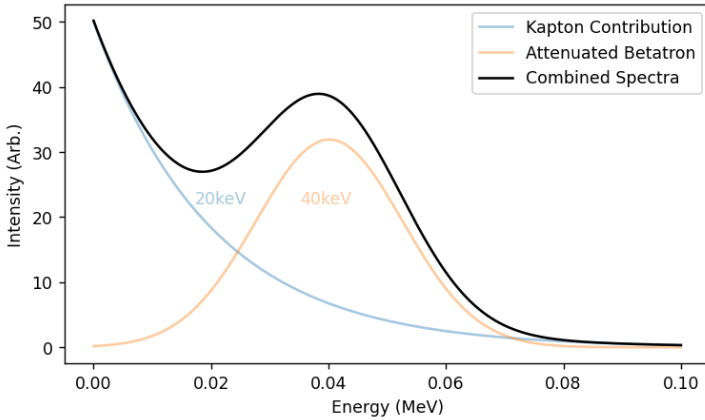


	$n$	$n^2$	$n^3$	$n^4$
Parameters to check	100	10000	1000000	100000000
Time to compute (1us per comparison)	<ms	..at 100 Hz	..a second	..over a minute

Treating these systems independently we cannot find the ground truth! And the problem is that we still achieve a good merit function!

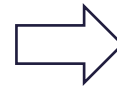
Instead, we have to solve for both components simultaneously!

# Reconstruction



## *Brute force grid-scan*

- 4x unknown dimensions to scan
- 2x temperatures (1x exponential, 1x betatron)
- 2x fluxes (1x exponential, 1x betatron)



## *Analytical flux reduction*

- 2x temperatures to scan
- 2x fluxes to solve for

*Scanning 100 values for each parameter =  $10^8$  sets to check!*     *Scanning 100 values for each parameter =  $10^4$  sets to check!*

# Reconstruction

Multiple components combine for our measured signal as:

$$S_k = n_1 \int_0^\infty f_1(E_\gamma, T_1) \Gamma(k, E_\gamma) dE_\gamma + n_2 \int_0^\infty f_2(E_\gamma, T_2) \Gamma(k, E_\gamma) dE_\gamma + \dots,$$

We wish to then find the sum of spectral terms that most closely matches the measured data  $M_k$ :

$$\delta = 1 - \frac{n_1 R_1}{M_k} - \frac{n_2 R_2}{M_k} \dots$$

$$Q \cdot R_1 = [n_1 R_1 - n_2 R_2 \dots] \cdot R_1$$

$$Q \cdot R_2 = [n_1 R_1 - n_2 R_2 \dots] \cdot R_2$$

$$\dots$$

$$Q \cdot R_n = [n_1 R_1 - n_2 R_2 \dots] \cdot R_n$$

## 1- Component

$$n_1 = \frac{QR_1}{R_{11}}$$

## 2- Component

$$n_1 = \frac{QR_2 R_{12} - QR_1 R_{22}}{R_{12}^2 - R_{11} R_{22}},$$

$$n_2 = \frac{-QR_2 R_{11} + QR_1 R_{12}}{R_{12}^2 - R_{11} R_{22}}.$$

## 3-Component

$$n_1 = \frac{QR_3 R_{13} R_{22} - QR_3 R_{12} R_{23} - QR_2 R_{13} R_{23} + QR_1 R_{23}^2 + QR_2 R_{12} R_{33} - QR_1 R_{22} R_{33}}{R_{13}^2 R_{22} - 2R_{12} R_{13} R_{23} + R_{11} R_{23}^2 + R_{12}^2 R_{33} - R_{11} R_{22} R_{33}},$$

$$n_2 = \frac{-QR_3 R_{12} R_{13} + QR_2 R_{13}^2 + QR_3 R_{11} R_{23} - QR_1 R_{13} R_{23} - QR_2 R_{11} R_{33} + QR_1 R_{12} R_{33}}{R_{13}^2 R_{22} - 2R_{12} R_{13} R_{23} + R_{11} R_{23}^2 + R_{12}^2 R_{33} - R_{11} R_{22} R_{33}},$$

$$n_3 = \frac{QR_3 R_{12}^2 - QR_2 R_{12} R_{13} - QR_3 R_{11} R_{22} + QR_1 R_{13} R_{22} + QR_2 R_{11} R_{23} - QR_1 R_{12} R_{23}}{R_{13}^2 R_{22} - 2R_{12} R_{13} R_{23} + R_{11} R_{23}^2 + R_{12}^2 R_{33} - R_{11} R_{22} R_{33}}.$$





# Spectral Characterisation

Single-hit spectroscopy

Transmission/Absorption Spectroscopy

Crystals

Activation

$10^{-3}$

$10^{-2}$

$10^{-1}$

$10^0$

$10^1$

Energy (MeV)



# Single-hit spectroscopy

X-ray photon comes in, electrons are freed proportional to the energy deposited. More energy deposited -> more electrons.

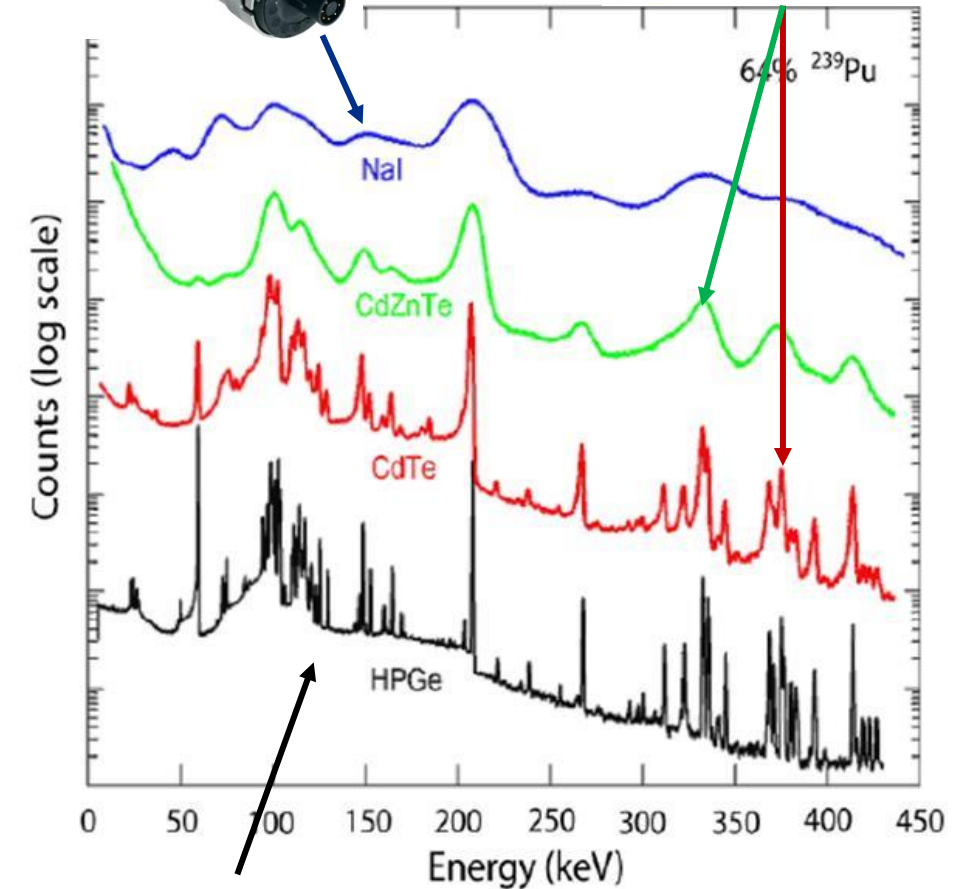
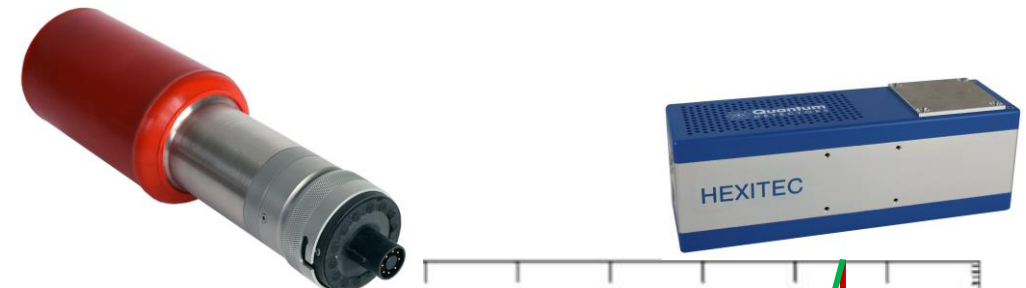
If we count all the electrons we can say how much energy arrived.

Same assumptions to the absorption spectrometers before but now we don't need to consider the spectral shape.

Requires two things:

- 1 photon per *measurement*
- Calibrated, ideally linear, energy resolving detector

Works as either scintillators or semiconductors with benefits to each design.



# Single-hit spectroscopy

Requires two things:

- 1 photon per *measurement*
- Calibrated, ideally linear, energy resolving detector

To at least approach a single shot characterisation we need to think about the number of measurements we can acquire.

There are two factors at play;

- the *number of samples per frame*,
- the *number of frames per pulse*.

# Single-hit spectroscopy

Requires two things:

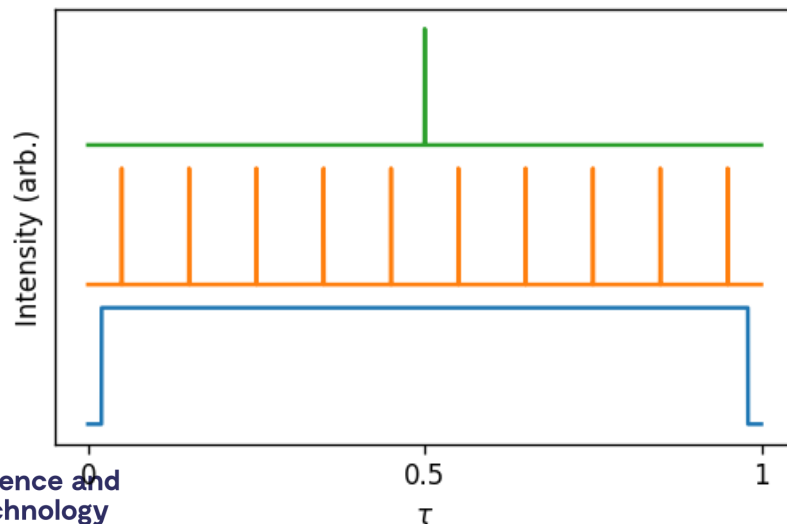
- 1 photon per *measurement*
- Calibrated, ideally linear, energy resolving detector

To at least approach a single shot characterisation we need to think about the number of measurements we can acquire.

There are two factors at play;

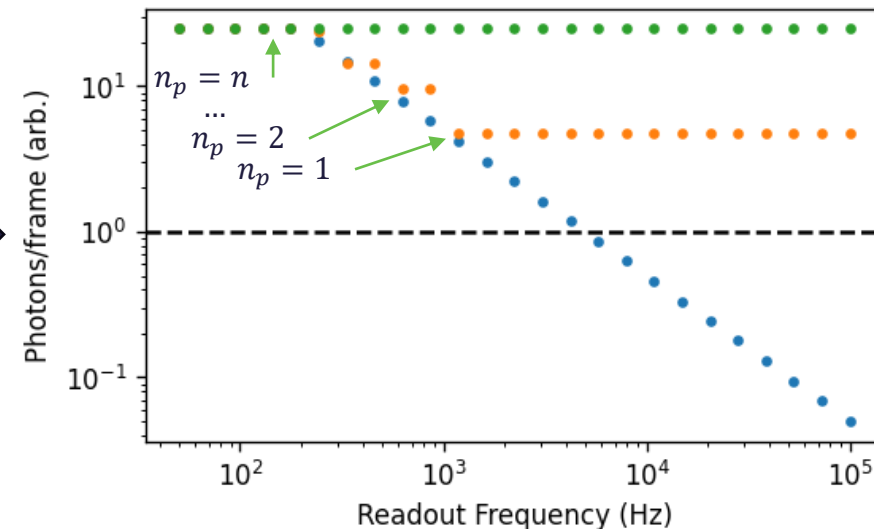
- the *number of samples per frame*,
- the *number of frames per pulse*.

Source



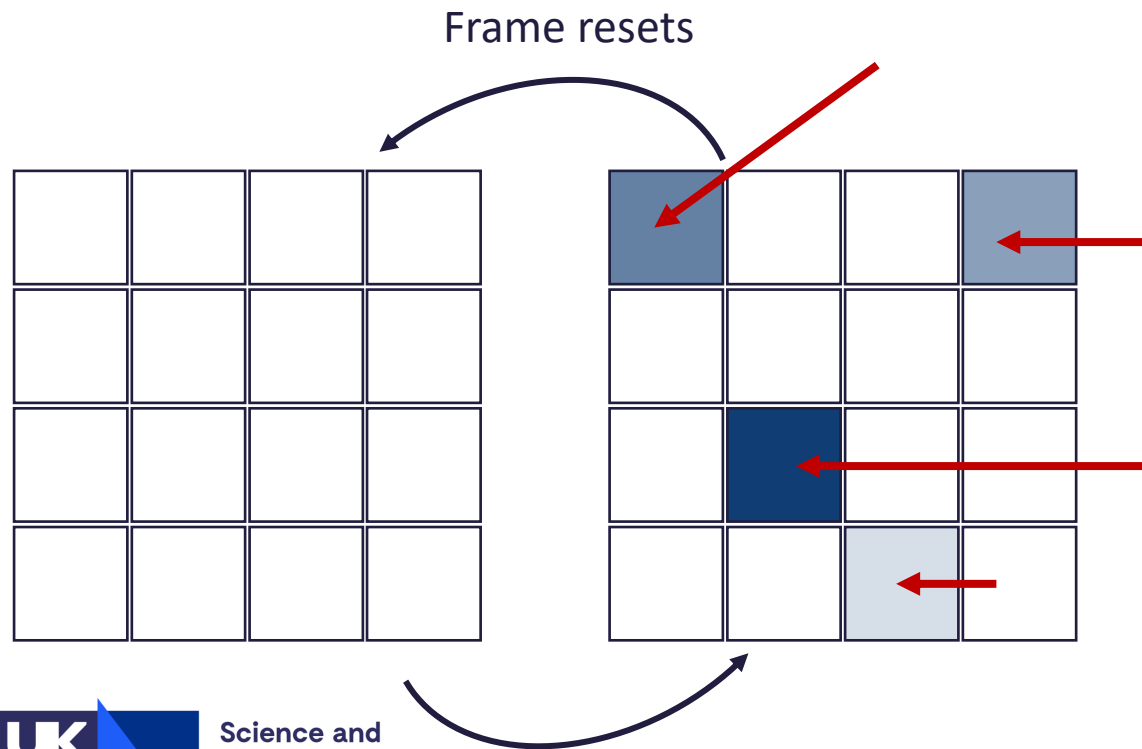
$$\int f(t)dt = c$$

Sampling



# Single-hit spectroscopy

To increase the number of samples per frame without requiring frequencies below the pulse duration of the laser (**~PHz**) we can instead increase the number of channels or pixels.



In doing so we move the number of events per frame we can accept

For **laser driven sources** we combined this with divergence of the beam and  $r^2$  (reducing the number of photons arriving per pixel)

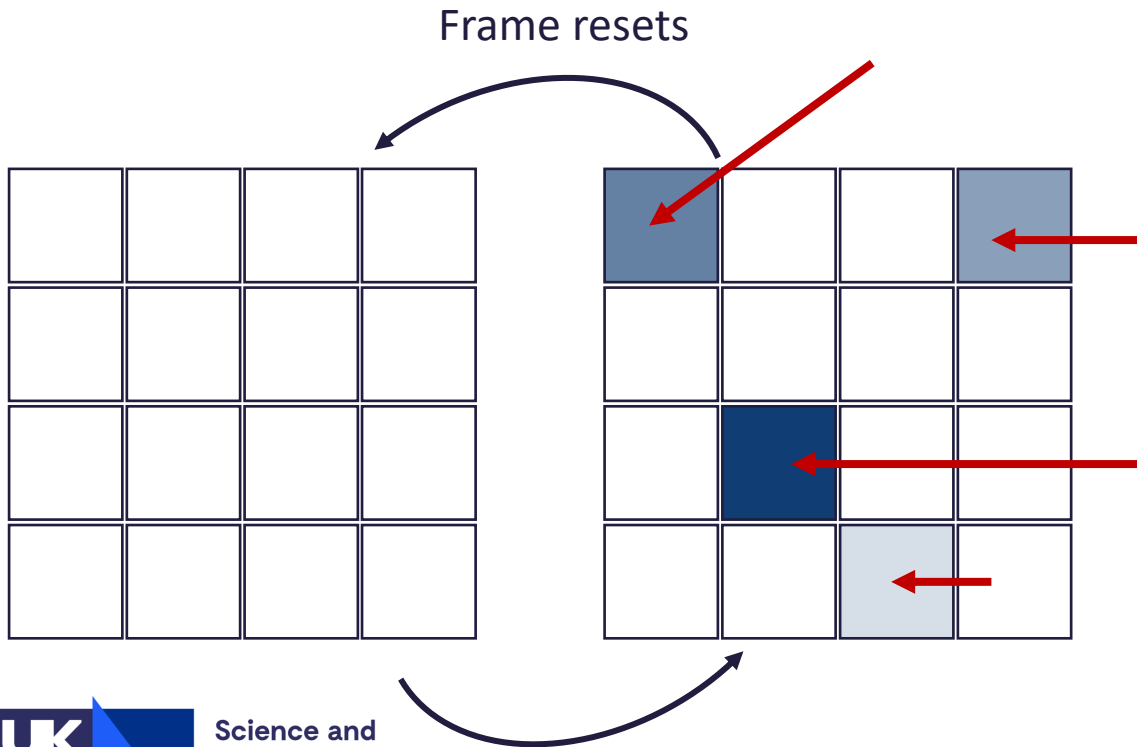
# Single-hit spectroscopy

To increase the number of samples per frame without requiring frequencies below the pulse duration of the laser (~PHz) we can instead increase the number of channels or pixels.

CPU Frequency World Record ranking on 17 August 2023

RANK	SCORE	USER	PROCESSOR
#1	9008.82 MHz	elmor	Intel Core i9 13900K (8P) @ 9008.8MHz
#2	8725.49 MHz	SuperO	Intel Core i9 13900K (8P) @ 8725.5MHz
#3	8722.78 MHz	The Stilt	AMD FX-8370 @ 8722.8MHz
#4	8716 MHz	safedisk	Intel Core i9 13900K (8P) @ 8716MHz
#5	8709 MHz	AndreYang	AMD FX-8150 @ 8709MHz

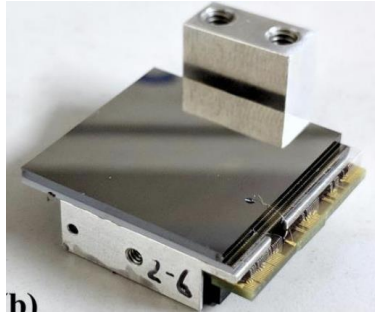
*100x faster than the current record CPU ...*



In doing so we move the number of events per frame we can accept

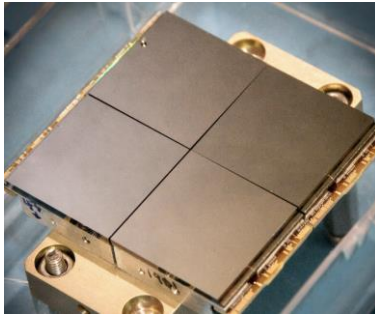
For *laser driven sources* we combined this with divergence of the beam and  $r^2$  (reducing the number of photons arriving per pixel)

# Overcoming Occupancy



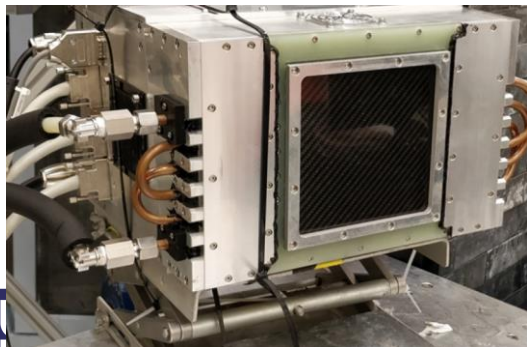
## Single sensor:

80 x 80 pixels at 250um pitch: 6400px  
~640 samples per shot at maximum density



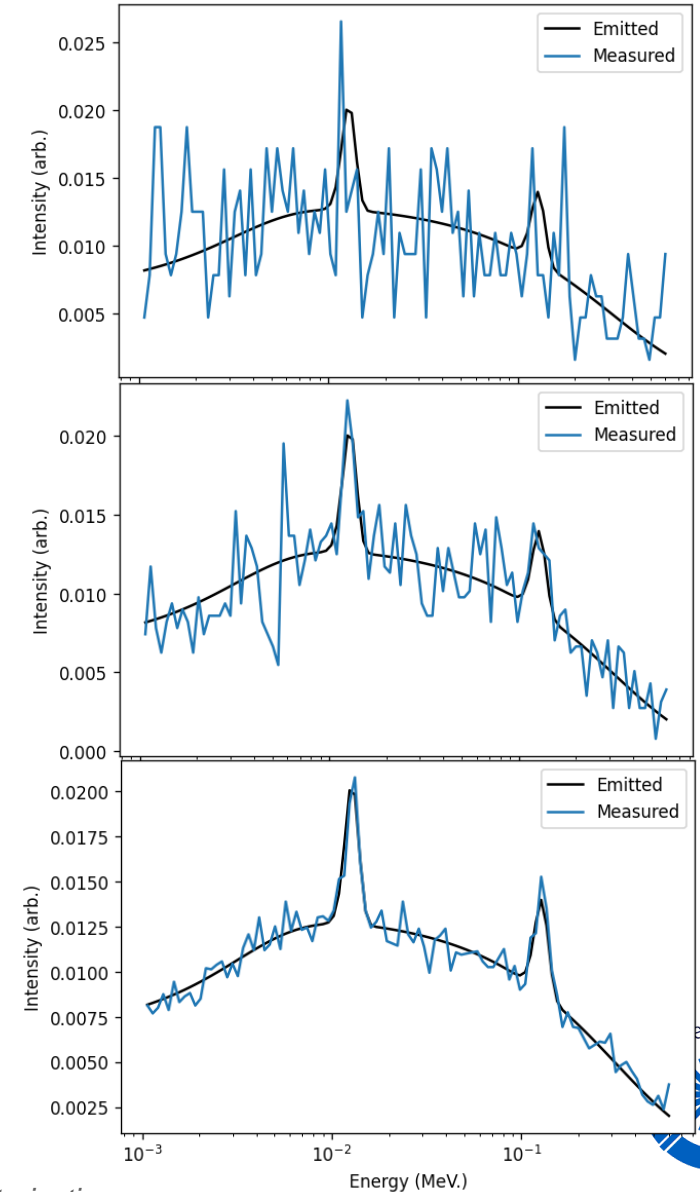
## 2x2 sensor:

25kpx  
~2500 samples per shot at maximum density



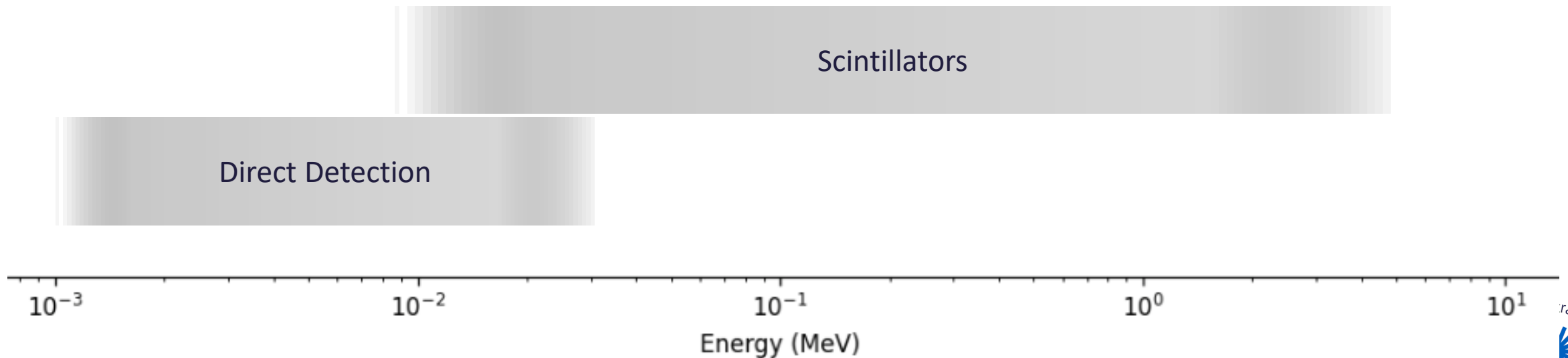
## 5x5 sensor:

160kpx  
~16000 samples per shot at maximum density





# Spatial Characterisation

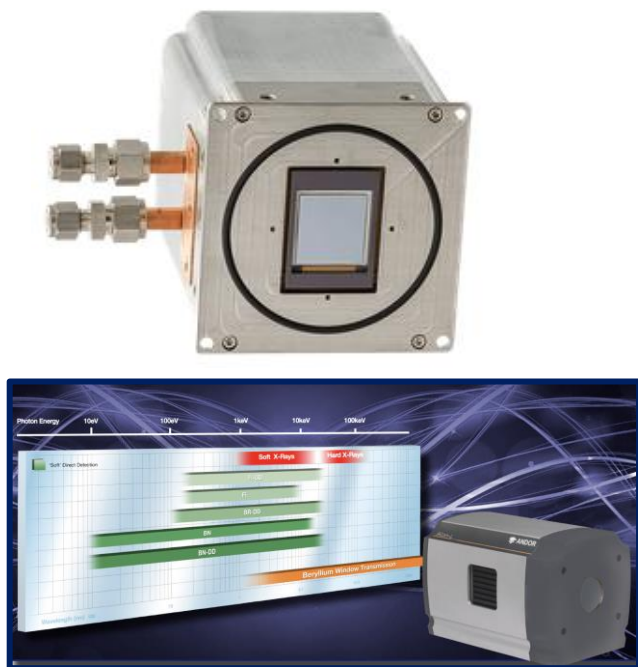




# Spatial Characterisation

As with spectral characterisation there are two main detectors schemes, either direct detection or indirect (via a scintillator):

## Direct detectors



## Indirect detectors

### Contact/FOP Scintillators



### Lens based scintillators

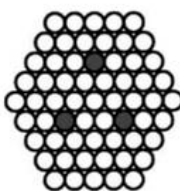
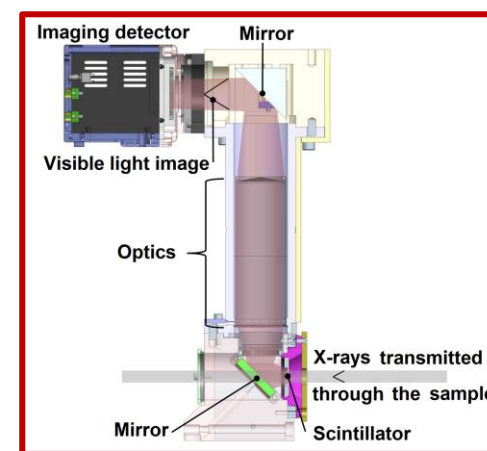


Fig.5: Statistical EMA

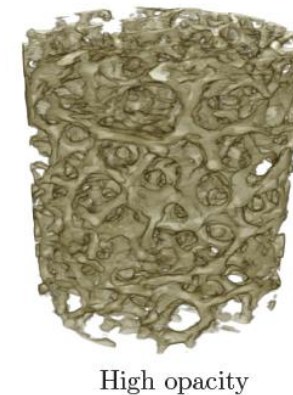
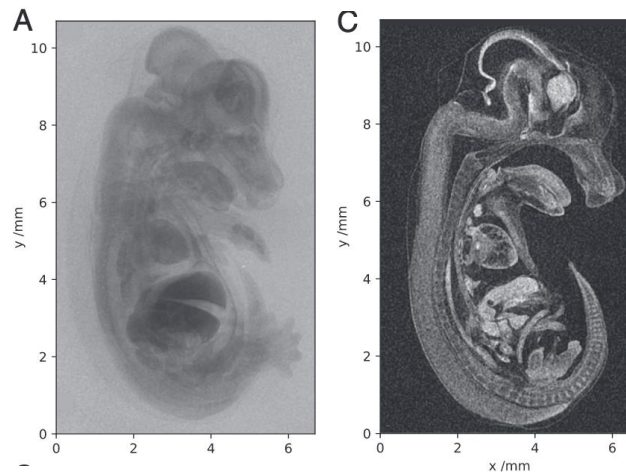
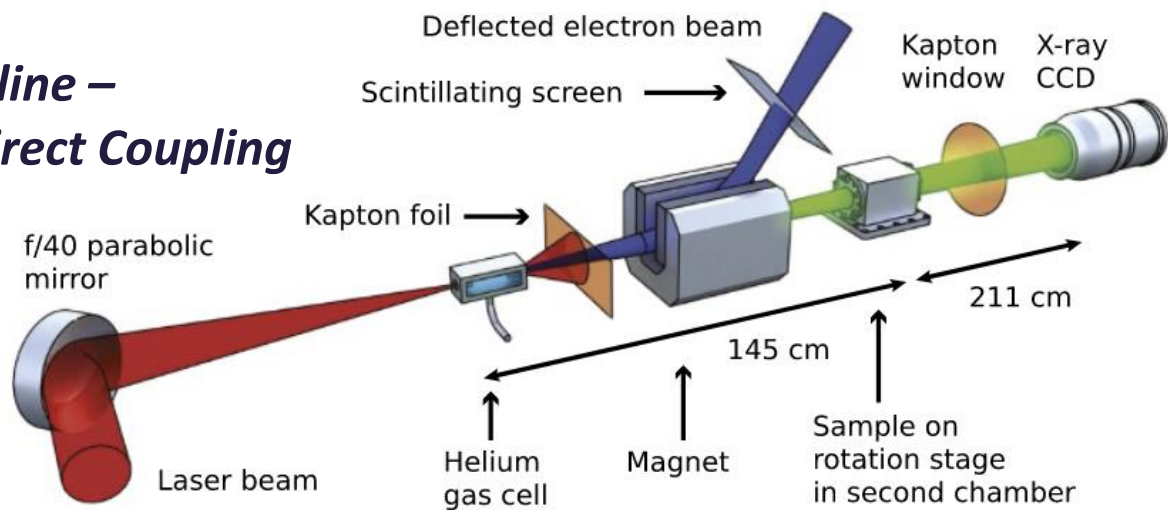


Fig.6: Annular EMA

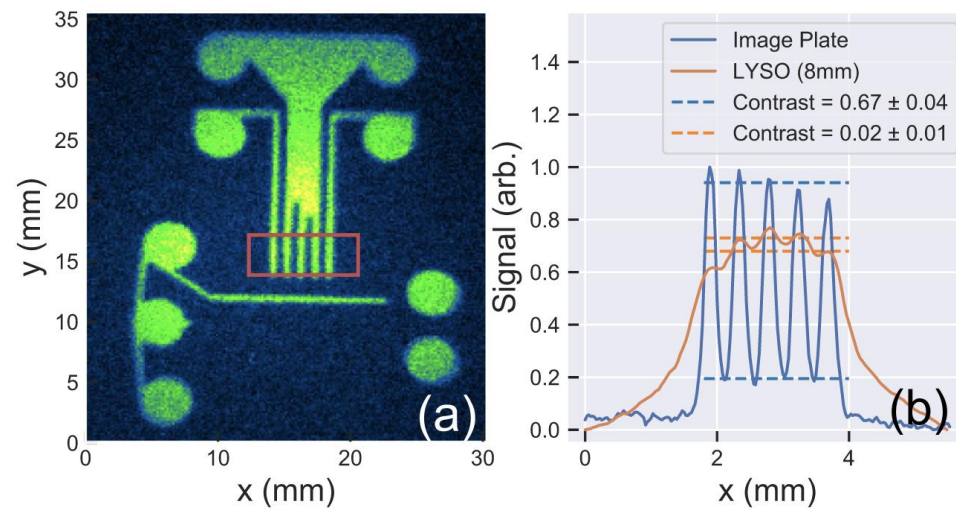
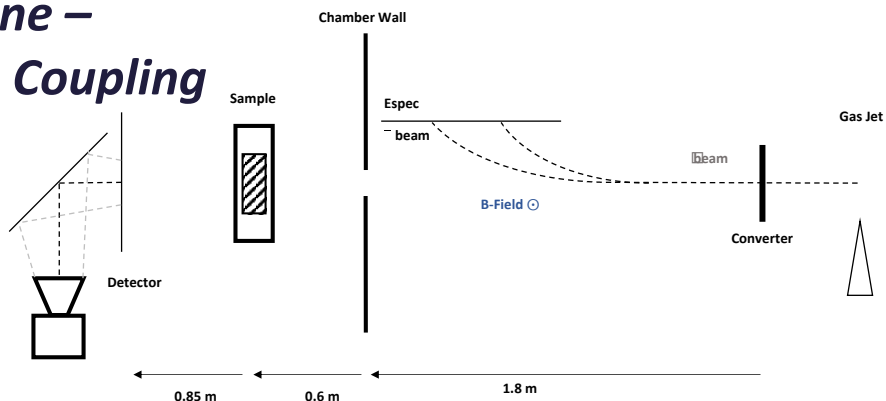
2023 ELISS DIMITRI DIZDANYI

# “...resolution was detector limited”

## Inline – Direct Coupling

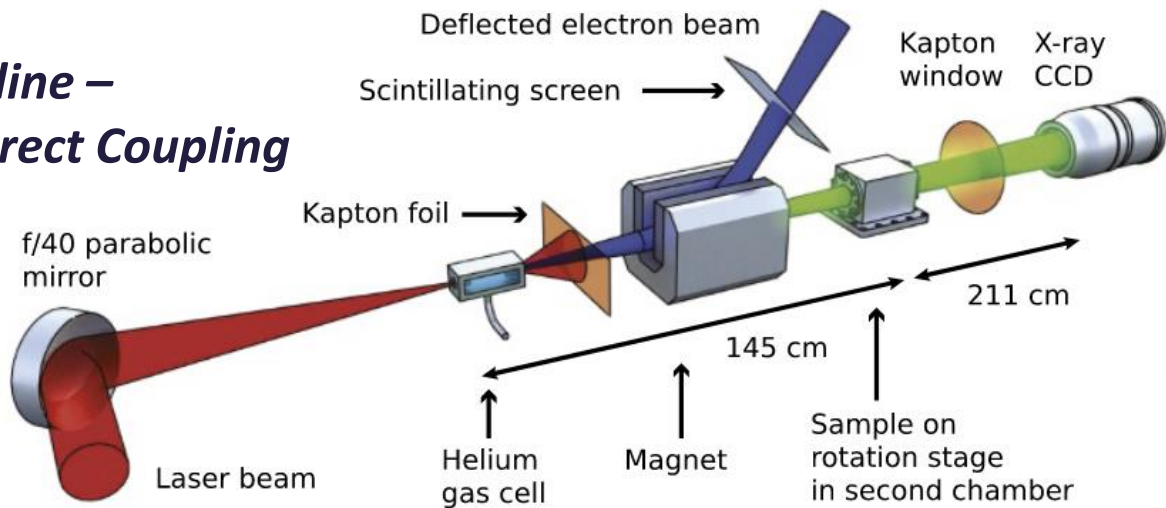


## Offline – Lens Coupling

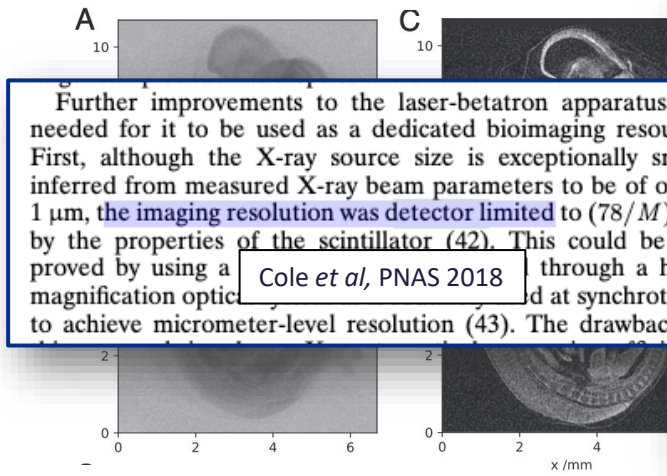
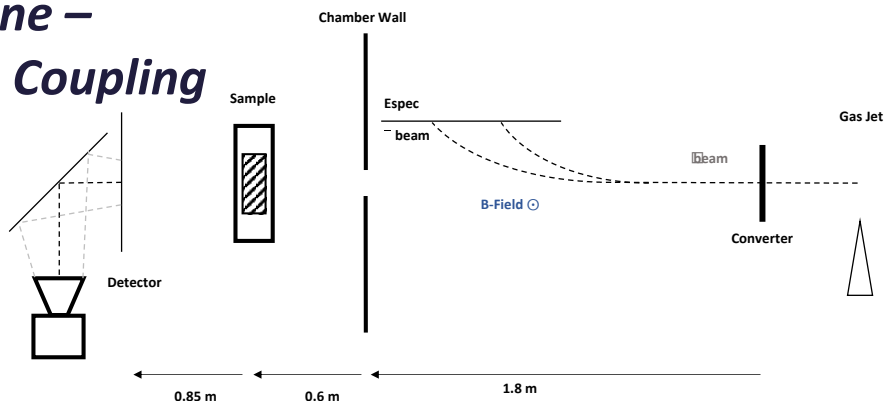


# “...resolution was detector limited”

## Inline – Direct Coupling



## Offline – Lens Coupling

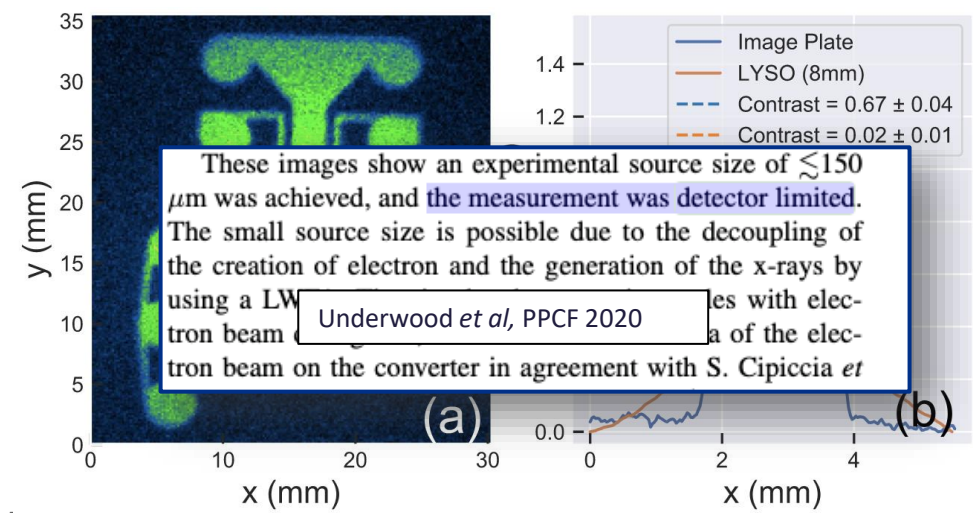


**4 Conclusion**

The development of laser wakefield accelerators as x-ray sources for a wide range of applications is a key objective for the CLF and our user community. We have demonstrated high quality biological imaging using laser-wakefield radiation. Currently the resolution is detector limited and this needs to be addressed with further experimental campaigns and detector development. The capability of the accelerator will improve as new facilities come on-line with more reliable laser and target performance. Our expertise in tomographic imaging has started and will aid the exploitation of these unique sources for applied science.

*Cole et al, PNAS 2018*

*Symes et al, CLF Annual Report 2018*



These images show an experimental source size of  $\lesssim 150 \mu\text{m}$  was achieved, and the measurement was detector limited. The small source size is possible due to the decoupling of the creation of electron and the generation of the x-rays by using a LWFA. This is in agreement with S. Cipiccia et al.

*Underwood et al, PPCF 2020*

# Spatial Characterisation

Generally speaking there is an inverse relationship between resolving power and sensitivity.

## Sensitivity

$$S = \frac{\int f(E) \exp(-\sigma\rho\ell) dE}{\text{mm}^2} \cdot \kappa \cdot \frac{NA^2}{4\eta^2} \cdot \frac{A_{px}(\text{mm}^2)}{M_o}$$

Photons produced in scintillator per area

Lens collection efficiency

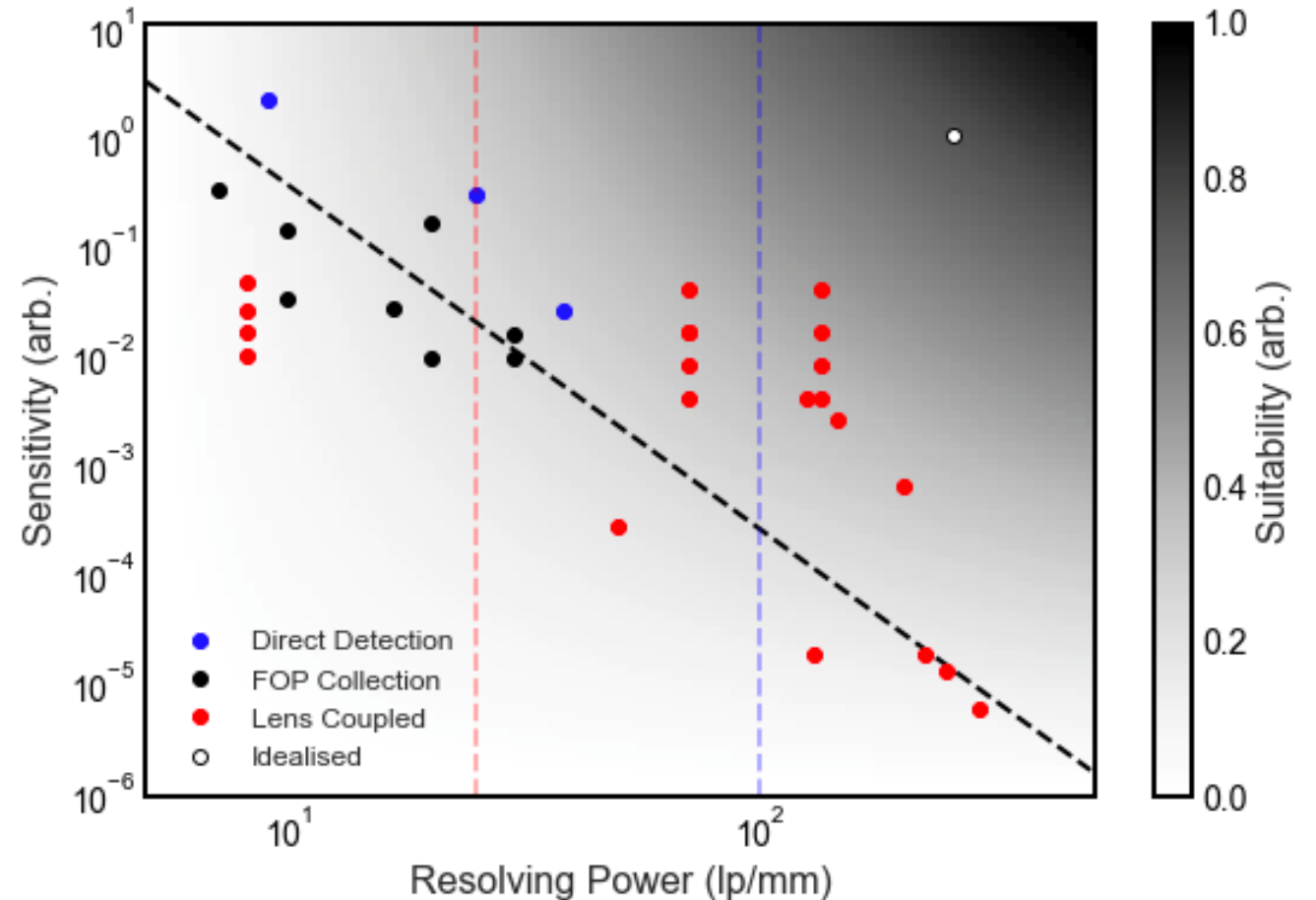
Distributed over pixels

## Resolving Power

$$R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{p}{NA}\right)^2 + (q\ell NA)^2} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{2dx}{NA}\right)^2 + \sigma_e^2}$$

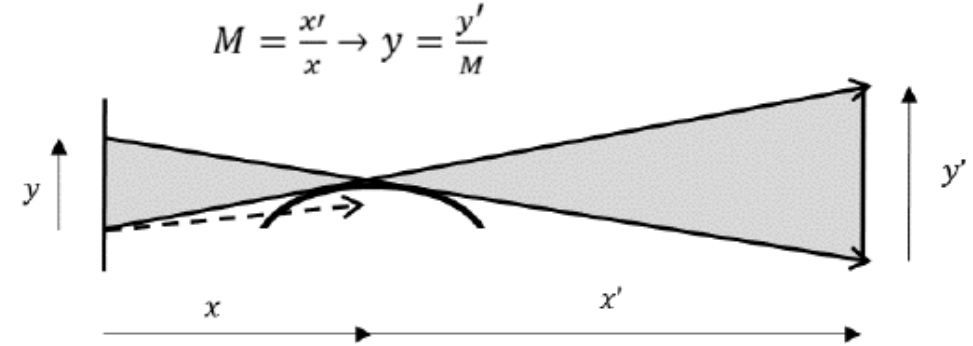
Defect of focus, diffraction, spherical aberration

Nyquist limit, energy deposition



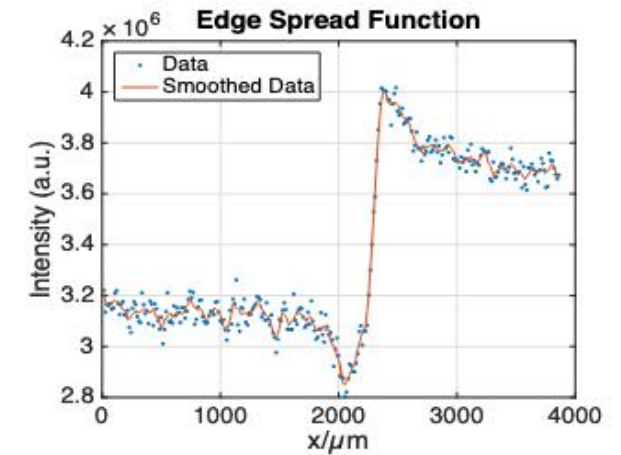
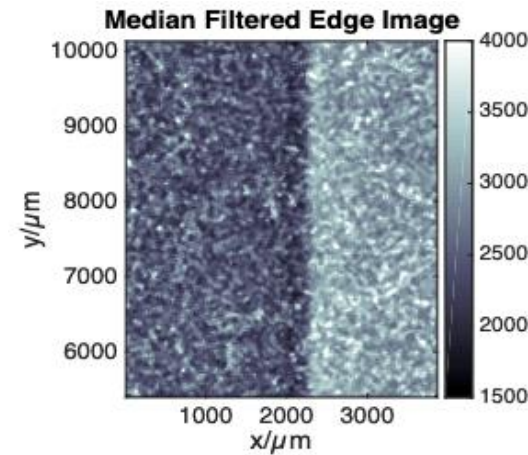
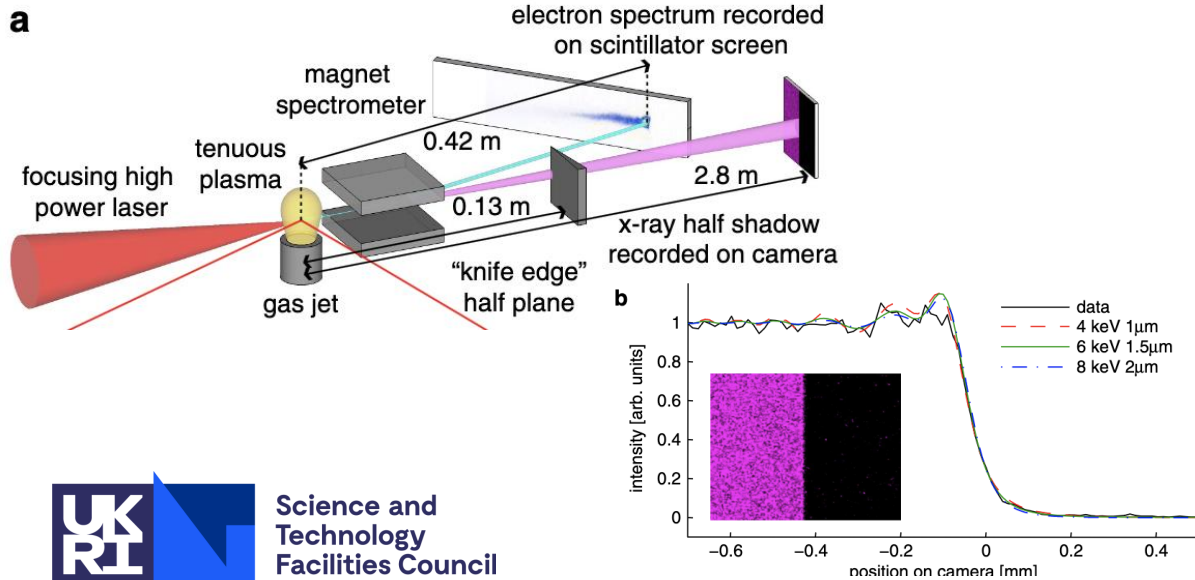
# Penumbral Measurements

Attenuating (knife/rolled/wire) edge positioned in the beam blocks part of the source, the transition from light to dark is a measure of the source profile.



Kniep *et al.* Phys. Rev. ST Accel. Beams 15, 021302 (2012)

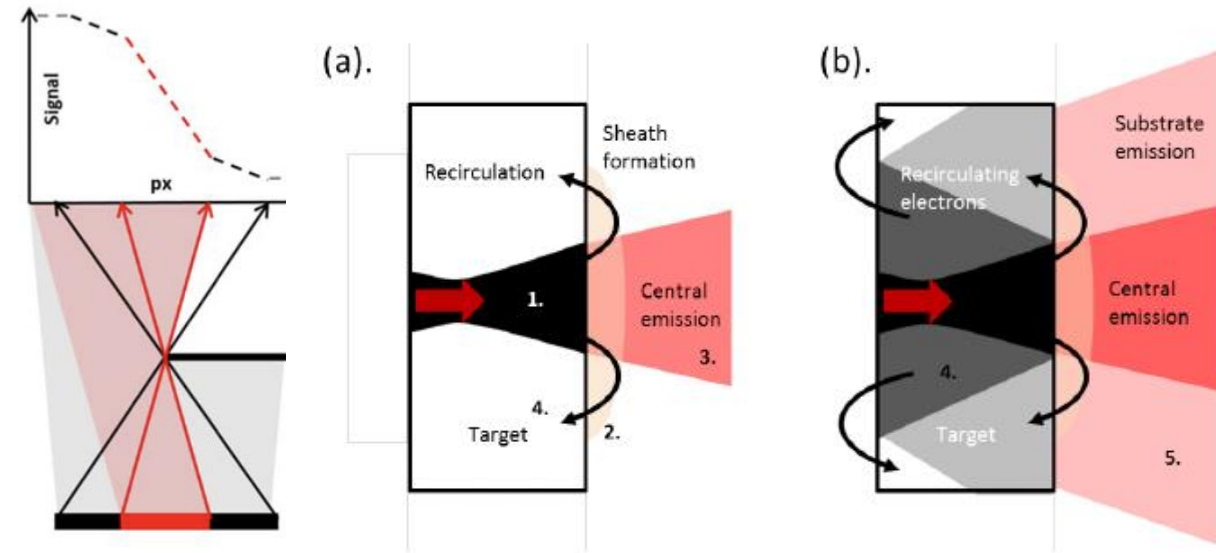
J. Wood, Diss. Imperial College London, (2017)



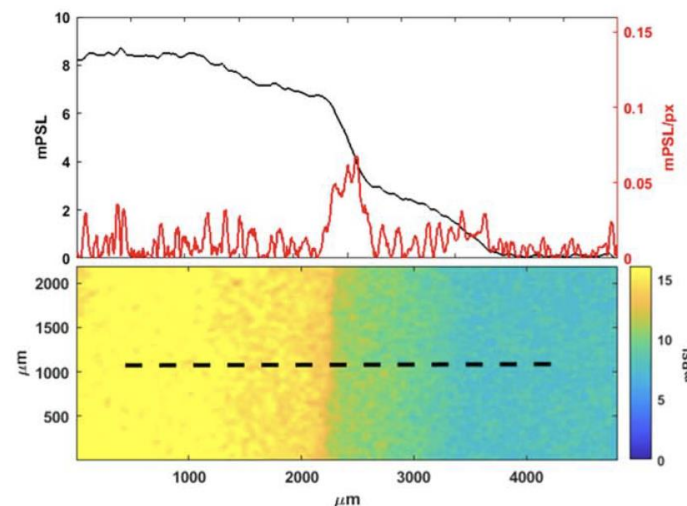
# Penumbral Measurements

For laser solid bremsstrahlung, this approach demonstrated a complexity to sources.

There is not only a narrow source but a broader second distribution that can extend up to the width of the target foil. This is due to the recirculation of electrons in the target, those on the first pass all contribute to the central emission, a fraction of these recirculate and spread into the rest of the target driving a second less intense x-ray source.

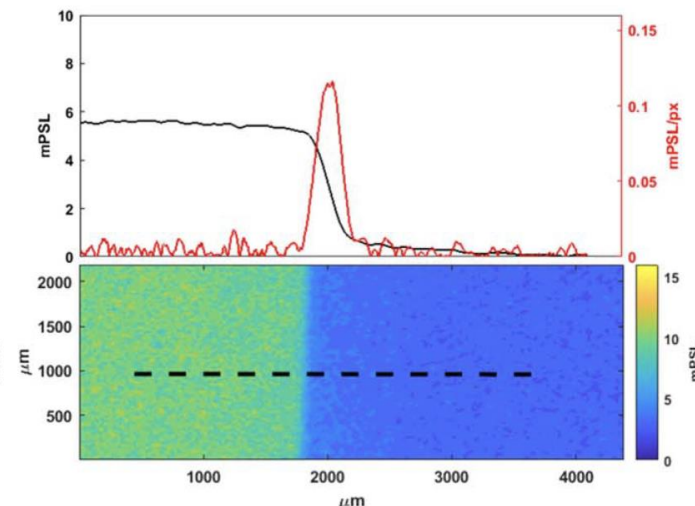


*Highest laser intensity*



(a)

*Optimised laser intensity*

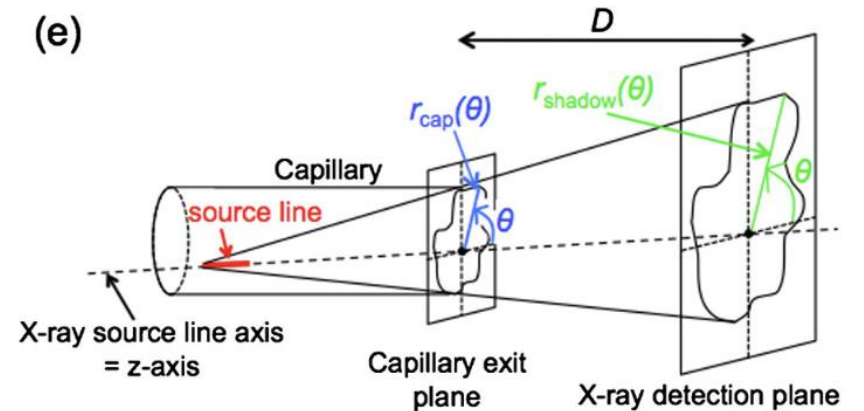
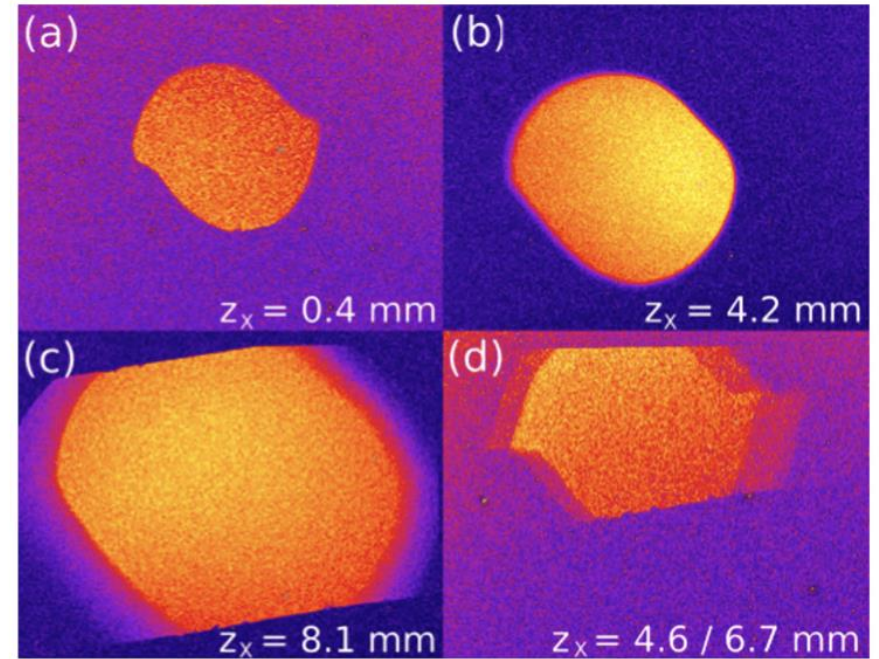
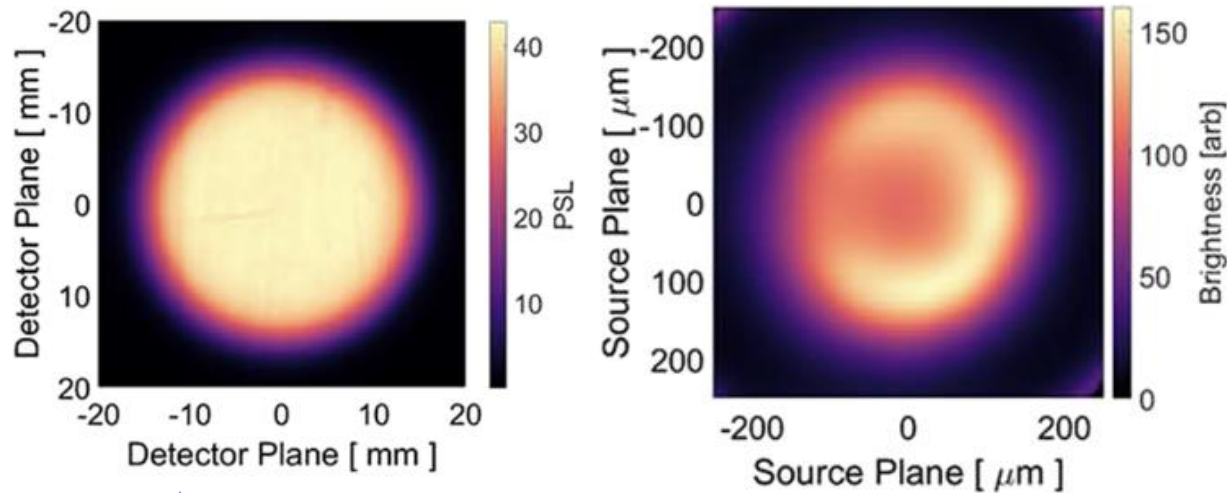


(b)

# Penumbral Measurements

Expanding this to an aperture, or complex shape, (or coded aperture..) allows a more complete picture of the source to be built up.

Adrian *et al.* RSI. **92**, 043548 (2021)

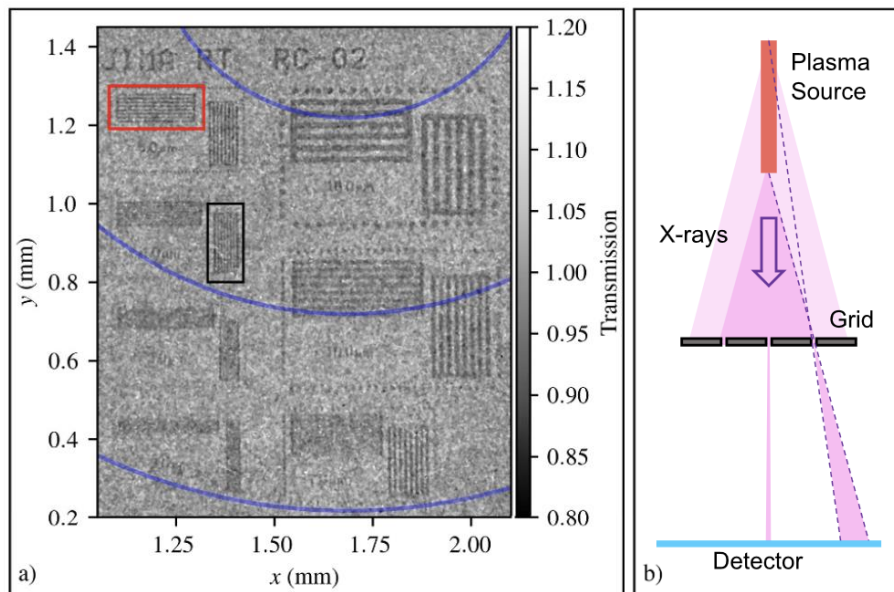


# Inference by radiography

One clear way to demonstrate the emission area of x-ray sources is to perform a radiograph of a known/characterisation sample. We again fall into the trap of becoming detector limited however it sets an upper bound on the source area.

## LWFA Betatron

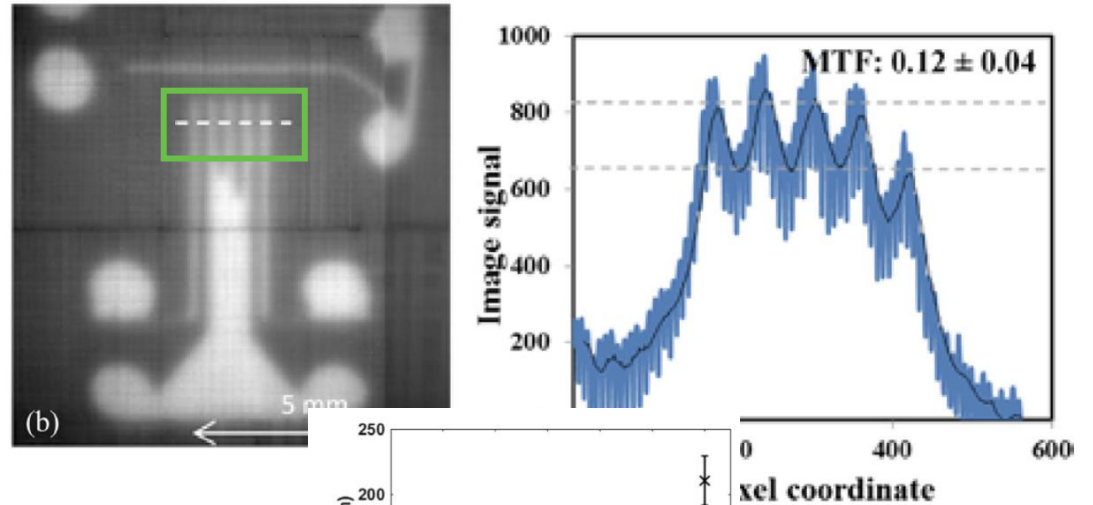
< 4  $\mu\text{m}$  near beam centre



Finlay et al/PPCF 63 (2021) 084010

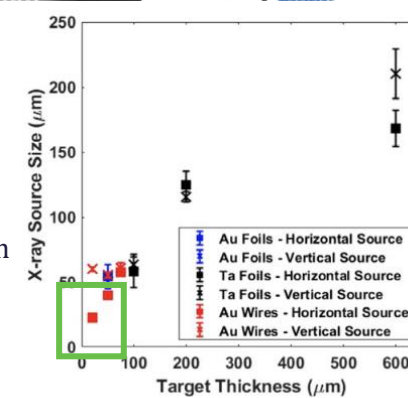
## LPI Bremsstrahlung

< 200  $\mu\text{m}$  for 100  $\mu\text{m}$  thick Ta target



Brenner et al. PPCF 58 (2016) 014039

Measured at 20  $\mu\text{m}$  for wire target



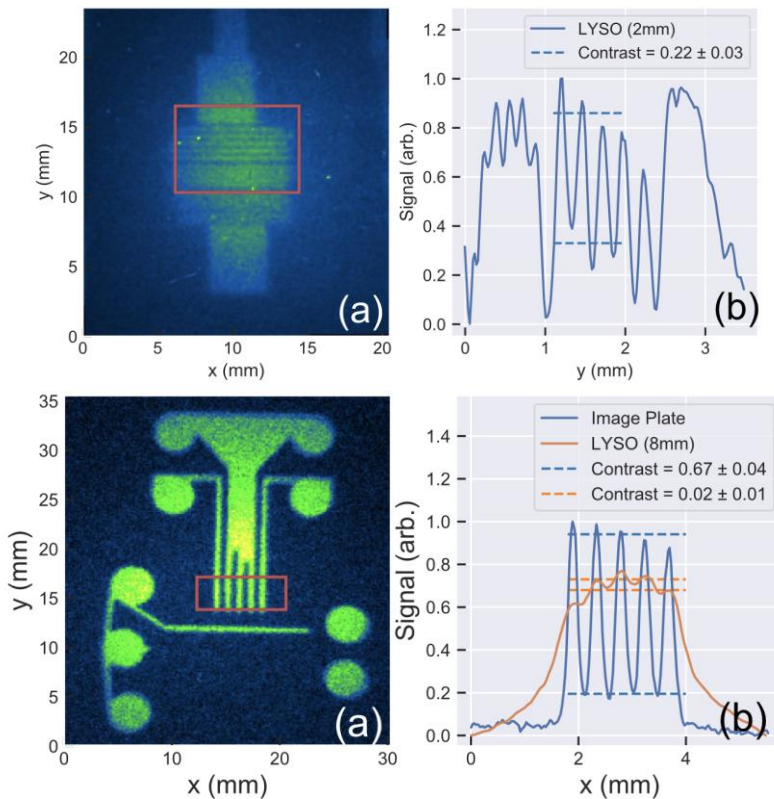
(a) Source Size



# Inference by radiography

## LWFA Bremsstrahlung

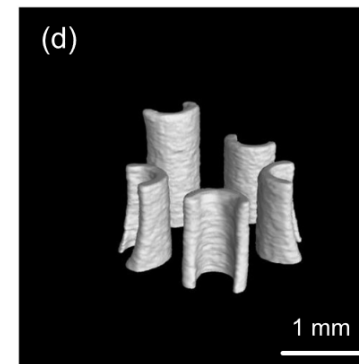
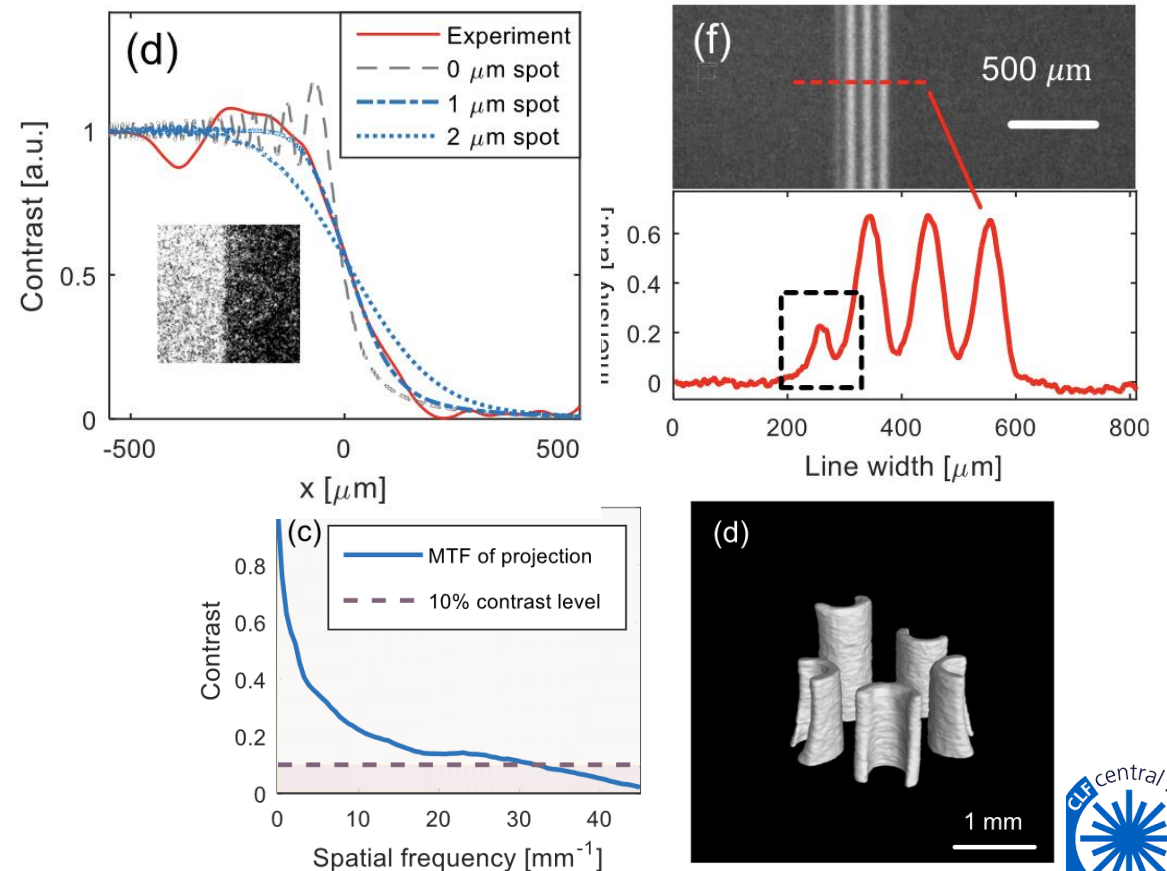
< 150  $\mu\text{m}$  on single shot



High contrast  $\sim 200\mu\text{m}$  from multi-shot accumulation

## ICS

< 20  $\mu\text{m}$  for 80 integrated shots,  $\sim 1\mu\text{m}$  for single shot



Underwood et al. PPCF 62 (2020) 124002

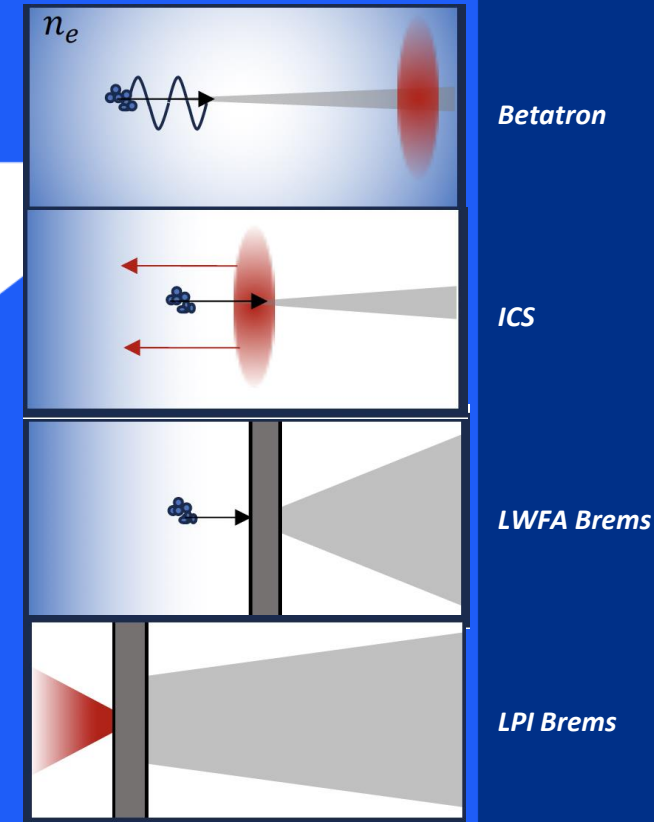


# Summary

Multiple mechanisms to generate x-rays with lasers.

Many techniques to characterise the emission both spectrally and spatially.  
*Although there are traps with each route that we must be aware of.*

Regardless, **laser driven x-rays are a powerful and flexible source of radiation**



*See the next talk by S. Cippiccia for a look into the applications of these sources!*



Science and  
Technology  
Facilities Council

# Thank you



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@STFC\_matters



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