Master Thesis

Coulomb dissociation of ²⁶Ne

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Abstract

The study of the low-lying E1 strength of the neutron-rich ²⁶Ne nucleus was studied by using the Coulomb dissociation. In the unstable nuclei with extreme neutron to proton ratios, low-lying E1 strength at very low excitation energy was predicted. For ²⁶Ne, a coherent dipole vibration of the neutron skin against the the core was predicted in theory. The current study aims at observing such an exotic collective excitation. Although the final goal of this study is to derive the E1 strength distribution from the relative energy spectrum ²⁵Ne+n, we show here the preliminary analysis on the inclusive cross sections and angular distributions for the breakup reaction channels ²⁶Ne+Pb \rightarrow ²²⁻²⁵Ne+n+x, ²⁶Ne+Al \rightarrow ²²⁻²⁵Ne+n+x. This particular study aims at developing a method to distinguish the Coulomb dissociation component from the nuclear breakup.

The experiment was performed at RIKEN Projectile fragment Separator RIPS. The unstable beam of ²⁶Ne was produced by RIPS and bombarded Pb and Al targets to excite and breakup this projectile. The outgoing Ne fragment was detected in coincidence with a neutron.

Breakup cross sections of 26 Ne into ${}^{22-25}$ Ne with Al and Pb targets were obtained as well as the angular distributions of these fragments. In the analysis, we have observed distributions of two components of angular distribution, so called narrow and wide component. The wide component was explained by the fragmentation model. On the other hand, narrow component and cross sections were not well understood yet. Further analysis and theoretical studies are thus to be done for the near future.

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1.1 Neutron-rich nuclei

Recent development of high-energy heavy-ion accelerators has opened a new era. A large number of radioactive unstable nuclei lying far from the β -stability line is accessible by using new heavy ion accelerators. About six thousand of the radioactive nuclei were theoretically predicted which is huge compared to three hundred stable nuclei. Most of these radioactive nuclei are still to be explored in such a facility.

One of the interesting phenomenon has recently been found for weakly bound neutronrich nuclei with extreme neutron to proton ratios, such as neutron the halo and the skin. In Fig.1.1, the light region of the nuclear chart is shown, where neutron halo nuclei are marked. The halo structures are characterized by a twofold structure composed of a saturated dense core and a neutron halo with lower density extending out of the core as shown in the upper part of Fig.1.1. Such a structure was first indicated by systematic measurements of interaction cross sections for Li isotopes at 800 MeV/u by Tanihata et al.[1]. The large interaction cross sections observed for ¹¹Li indicated the extremely large r.m.s radius of 3.10 fm, which is about 20 % larger than that expected for the standard nuclei $(R=1.2A^{1/3} \text{ fm})$. In a subsequent experiment, Kobayashi *et al.*[2] found that the transverse momentum distribution of ⁹Li emitted from the fragmentation of ¹¹Li at 800 MeV/u has much narrower width than those for usual nuclei expected by the Goldhaber scaling law[3]. Since the observed momentum width represents the momentum of two valence neutrons of ¹¹Li, these neutrons should extend spatially outside the usual nuclear radius according to the uncertainty principal. In other words, two valence neutrons form a neutron halo surrounding the saturated ⁹Li core. Evidences for the halo structure of ¹¹Li are also found from the narrow angular distribution of neutrons emitted in the fragmentation ¹¹Li[4], the narrow longitudinal momentum distribution of emitted ⁹Li in the same reaction, and the similarity of the quadrupole moments between ⁹Li and ¹¹Li[8].



Figure 1.1: Nuclear chart for light nuclei. The neutron-rich nucleus 26 is located in the neutron-rich region around N=20. The exotic neutron halo is near the neutron drip line. Neutron halo is attributed to the small separation energy which forces the wave function to penetrate out from the range of the potential week by the quantum tunneling effect.

1.2 Low-lying E1 strength

At excitation energies above the particle threshold, the nuclear response of stable nuclei is dominated by collective vibrations of various multipolarities, i.e., giant resonance as listed in Table1.1. For the instance, the excitation energy for the isovector E1 mode(Giant Dipole Resonance(GDR)) is as high as about 10-20 MeV. However, for the nuclei with neutron halos, appreciable E1 strengths has been observed at much lower excitation energies compared to the usual GDR region. For the one-neutron halo nuclei ¹¹Be[6, 7] and ¹⁹C[9], the observed dipole strength at very low excitation energies was interpreted as a quantum- mechanical threshold effect, involving nonresonant transitions of the valence

spin isospin	multipolarity	\mathbf{I}^{π}	$\mathrm{E_x}$
Isoscalar(T=0)	monopole	0^+	$80A^{-1/3}$
	quadrupole	2^{+}	$65A^{-1/3}$
	octopole	3-	$30A^{-1/3}$, $120A^{-1/3}$
Isovector(T=1)	monopole	0^+	$60A^{-1/3}$
	dipole	1^{-}	$31A^{-1/3}+21A^{-1/6}$, [80A ^{-1/3}]
	quadrupole	2^{+}	$130A^{-1/3}$

Table 1.1: The list of the Giant Resonance.[18]

neutron into the continuum instead of the resonances. For ⁶He and ¹¹Li, a coherent dipole vibration of the two halo neutrons against the core was discussed. The first attempt to interpret the phenomenon addressed a notion of so-called Soft Dipole Resonance(SDR)[17]. This resonance may occur as an oscillation of a core nucleus against the halo neutrons with low frequencies. The excitation energy may be low since the restoring force between the core and valence neutron should be weak due to the low density of valence neutron. This mode is decoupled from the major oscillation mode which occurs between the saturated protons and neutrons in the core. Although the vibrational picture for the SDR was suggested in the theory, the interpretation of the experimental data is still under discussion. Such a mode, in literature sometimes referred as pygmy resonance, may arise if less tightly bound valence neutrons vibrate against the residual core (Fig1.3).

A pioneering work of the low lying GDR has been performed at GSI on the Oxygen isotopes [11]. In this work, the evolution of giant dipole strength with the neutron-rich oxygen isotopes from A=17 to A=22 was measured. For all neutron-rich isotopes investigated, the dipole strength appears to be strongly fragmented with a considerable fraction observed well below the giant dipole resonance, much in contrast to the dipole response of stable nuclei. To which extent the low-lying dipole strength observed in the neutron-rich oxygen isotopes involves coherent excitations or this is due to single particle transitions remain a subject of detailed theoretical study.

In the experiment, we have attempted to search for the SDR of the neutron-rich ²⁶Ne isotope which is located near the drip line as shown in Fig.1.1. The ²⁶Ne was predicted as the candidate of a SDR[26]. It shows that the stable ²⁰Ne has a main peak centered at the GDR energy of 20 MeV in Fig. 1.3. On the other hand, for the neutron-rich isotope ²⁶Ne, the calculation predicts a strong redistribution of the strength, a low energy component

appearing clearly at 8 MeV excitation energy, corresponding to a sizeable portion of the energy weighted sum rule in the upper part of Fig. 1.3.



Figure 1.2: The schematic view of the dipole motion. In the dipole breakup, the final states is continuum states instead of a resonant state. In the SDR, the resonance is the oscillation of a core nucleus against the halo neutrons with low frequencies. In the GDR, the resonance is the oscillation between the proton and the neutron.



Figure 1.3: The schematic view of the E1 calculation for ²⁶Ne and ²⁰Ne. In ²⁰Ne, the peak of the GDR is centered at about 20 MeV. On the other hand, the peak of GDR for ²⁶Ne is fragmented. In the experiment, We search for the pygmy resonance about 8 MeV.

2.1 Neutron-rich nuclei, ²⁶Ne

The radius of ²⁶Ne is known to be 2.86 fm(r.m.s).[22]. The one neutron separation energy and two neutron separation energy is 5.6 MeV and 9.8 MeV, respectively. The excitation energies and spin assignments for the low lying states are illustrated in Fig. 2.1. Some calculations for the isovector giant dipole resonance strength predicts a strong redistribution of the strength, a low energy component appearing clearly at about 8 MeV[26].



Coulomb excitation reaction serves as one of the powerful spectroscopic tools for investigating excited states of nuclei. An appealing feature of this reaction is the clear understanding of its reaction mechanism. In the classical Coulomb excitation experiment, the incident energy is usually set below the Coulomb barrier in order to avoid the influence of excitations via a strong interaction.

In this experiment, the energy of the incident beam is 58 MeV/u. The relative energy is the following.

$$E_{\rm rel} \simeq 1400 {\rm ~MeV}$$
 (Pb)

The present works, nevertheless, utilized a ²⁶Ne beam with the intermediate incident energy of 58 MeV/u, which lies far above the Coulomb barrier of 170 MeV(see Appendix A.1). The reason to use higher incident energy is that the reaction yield is much higher, which is important in the experiment using a secondary beam whose intensity is generally weak. The high reaction yield is due primarily to the large cross section of the Coulomb excitation, which often dominates over other reaction channels and almost eliminates the ambiguity caused by the contribution from the nuclear reaction. The large cross section is attributed to the long range nature of the Coulomb interaction, having a dependence of $\sim 1/r^{(\lambda+1)}$ for the λ -th multipolarity. As shown in Fig. 2.2, at the intermediate incident energies, the cross sections are relatively large even for $E_x=5$ MeV. In applying Coulomb excitation to unstable nuclei, it is practical to employ the radioactive nuclei provided as a beam. Hence, a projectile is to be excited by a Coulomb field of a high-Z target. The basic phenomenon of Coulomb excitation in the intermediate and high incident energy domains is shown in Fig. 2.1. As seen in the figure, a Lorentz- contracted electric field acts on a projectile nucleus when the projectile passes fast by a high-Z target at an impact parameter b. In this electric field, the incident nucleus absorbs a virtual photon 2.4. Hence, Coulomb excitation can be expressed as a photo-absorption process induced by a virtual photon, as schematically represented in Fig. 2.1 (b). This picture is treated by the so-called the equivalent-photon method[19, 20]. In this method, Coulomb excitation cross section at excitation energy E_x is expressed simply as a product of photoabsorption cross section $\sigma_{\gamma}^{E\lambda}(E_x)$ and virtual photon number $N_{E\lambda}(E_x)$ which is obtained by integrating $N_{\rm E\lambda}(E_x,b)$ (photon flux at a impact parameter b) from the cutoff impact parameter b_0 to infinity, i.e.,

$$\frac{d\sigma_c(E_x)}{dE_x} = \int_{b_0}^{\infty} 2\pi b db \frac{N_{E\lambda}(E_x, b)}{E_x} \sigma_{\gamma}^{E\lambda}(E_x)$$
(2.1)

$$=\frac{N_{E\lambda}(E_x)}{Ex}\sigma_{\gamma}^{E\lambda}(E_x)$$
(2.2)

where λ represents a multipolarity of the transition. The photo-absorption cross section is related to the reduced transition probability.

$$\sigma_{\gamma}^{E\lambda}(E_x) = \frac{(2\pi)^3(\lambda+1)}{\lambda[(2\lambda+1)!!]^2} (\frac{E_x}{\hbar c})^{2\lambda-1} \frac{dB(E\lambda)}{dE_x}$$
(2.3)



Figure 2.1: a) Schematic drawing for Coulomb excitation process. An electric field \vec{E} , illustrated by lines of electric force, is provided in the projectile rest frame, and thus is Lorentz-contracted in the beam direction. The final state is depicted as a dissociated state (Coulomb dissociation). b) The electric field from the target is interpreted as a virtual photon flux (equivalent photon method). The absorption of one photon in the typical direction is illustrated.

Depending on the succeeding decay process, Coulomb excitation cross sections can be measured in different ways. The decay processes are categorized as follows: 1) If the excitation energy is above a particle-decay threshold, the excited state will pre dominantly



Figure 2.2: Electromagnetic(Coulomb) excitation cross section of E1, M1 and E2 transitions of ²⁶Ne as a function of incident energy. These curves are calculated by the equivalent photon method.

decay by a particle emission (Coulomb dissociation). 2) If the excitation energy is below any of particle thresholds, the excited state will decay by a γ -ray emission. In the case of 1) further γ -ray emission follows when the decay product is in bound excited states. In Fig. 2.3, such excitation and decay schemes are shown for ²⁶Ne. The main part of the present work employed the breakup case, where the cross section was determined by measuring the dissociation cross section.(Case 1) We also independently studied Coulomb excitation of ²⁶Ne to the bound state. The B(E2) of this transition by using Coulomb exaltation was previously measured at MSU[12], so that we can use this excitation as a reference.(Case 2) We also searched for new level scheme below a particle threshold of reaction products.(Case 3)



Figure 2.3: Decay schemes for the Coulomb excitation and for searching for the new bound excited states.



Figure 2.4: Virtual photon spectrum $N_{E1}(E_x)$, estimated for the ²⁶Ne projectile with 58 MeV/nucleon and 500 MeV/nucleon, respectively on a Pb target. Note that the photon numbers decreases with E_x and the decrease is slow with the energy of the incident beam.

3.1 Production of ²⁶Ne RI Beam

The experiment was performed at RIKEN Projectile-fragment Separator RIPS [13]. Schematic views of RARF and RIPS are shown in Figs 3.1 and 3.2, respectively. The primary beam of ⁴⁰Ar at 95 MeV/nucleon bombarded a 2-mm-thick Be target and various isotopes were produced by the projectile fragmentation reaction in Fig D.1. The secondary beam of ²⁶Ne was collected and analyzed by RIPS. The average intensity and purity of the ²⁶Ne beam were about 6 kcps and 80%, respectively, with 58 MeV/nucleon just before the reaction target.

3.1.1 Riken Projectile-Fragment Separator(RIPS)

A separation of isotopes was performed by using two dipole magnets(D1-D2) and an Al degrader(F1). In the magnetic field, a charged particle follows Lorentz force in Eq.3.1.

$$B\rho \propto \frac{A}{Z}$$
 (3.1)

where

- *B*: magnetic filed strength
- ρ : radius of curvature
- Z: atomic number
- A: mass number

This shows that the particle is spatially separated by A/Z, which facilitates a separation of isotopes in the D1 dipole magnet section of RIPS. The energy loss of a charged particle passing though a matter is given by the following.



Figure 3.1: Layout of the RIKEN Accelerator Research Facility (RARF). An ⁴⁰Ar beam was pre-accelerated with the AVF Cyclotron and was mainly accelerated up to 95 MeV/nucleon with the Ring Cyclotron. The beam is transported through the beam transport line in the room D onto the production target at RIPS. The fragment separator RIPS [13] lies in the room D and E6.



Figure 3.2: Layout of the radioactive beam line RIPS. The separation of the secondary beam is achieved in two stages: F0-F1 and F1-F2. The F3 focus was used to locate the secondary target.

$$\Delta E \propto \frac{Z^2}{v^2} = Z^2 \text{TOF}^2 \tag{3.2}$$

where

- ΔE : energy loss of a charged particle
- v: velocity
- TOF: time of flight

A Charged particles passing though a matter can be separated by the Z number Eq. 3.2. By the different amount of the energy loss at F1, different isotopes may have different $B\rho$ values after F1, which facilitates a separation of isotopes in the D2 dipole magnet section of RIPS. Therefore, the selection of A/Z was performed by D1 magnet and the selection of Z was performed by an Al degrader located at F1. The incident particle was analyzed by the second dipole magnet (D2) though the $B\rho$.

3.1.2 Target

In the experiment, a natural Pb target with 0.23 g/cm² thickness for the Coulomb dissociation reaction and a natural Al target with 0.13 g/cm² for the evaluation of the nuclear breakup contributions were used, respectively. Runs with no target placed in the target frame (labelled 'empty') were also performed in order to subtract the background events caused by reactions with materials other than the target.

3.2 Detector System

This section is the description of the detectors which was used in this experiment and the schematic views of the setup is shown Fig.3.3.

3.2.1 Incident Beam Detectors

Incident beam detectors were constituted by the plastic scintillator at F2 (F2PL) and a set of two parallel-plate avalanche counters (PPAC's) [14] placed at F3 (F3PPAC-A,

F3PPAC-B). The schematic view of the F2 plastic scintillator and PPAC is shown in Fig. 3.4 and 3.5, respectively.

The purpose of the F2PL is the identification of the incident particles and the measurement of the velocity of the incident particles. The identification of the incident particles was performed by the TOF- ΔE method (see Eq. 3.2). The plastic scintillator was 0.5 mm thickness. The scintillation light was read out from both left and right ends of the detector by photo-multiplier tubes.

The incident angle of the beam was measured by two PPAC's. The incident momentum vector of the beam was measured by using both from F2PL and the incident angle from PPAC's. These two PPAC's were 30 cm apart from each other along the beam axis. Delay-line-type PPAC's were used in this experiment [14]. The active area of the PPAC was 100 mm \times 100 mm. PPAC was composed of one anode plate, and two cathode plates which were strip type. From both side signals on the strip, incident position of the beam can be read.

3.2.2 Detector for Reaction Products

This section is the description of the detectors which is placed backward F3, and the schematic view of the detectors is shown in Fig.3.6.

3.2.3 Silicon Strip Detector

Identification of the reaction products was necessary for reaction channel selection, since a large variety of isotopes were produced in the secondary fragmentation reaction. In this experiment, particle identification of the fragments was performed by using fourlayer Si strip detectors (SSD) composed of ΔE and E counters located at about 1.2 m downstream of the target. ΔE stands for the energy deposit in the first two layers of the silicon telescopes, and E denotes the sum of the energy deposit in the second two layers of the silicon telescopes. Figure 3.7 shows a schematic view of the silicon detector telescope. The first two layers were composed of eight Si detectors which were used for position detection. The position and intrinsic energy resolution of ΔE counters were 5 mm and 2% (FWHM), respectively. The last two layers were the E counter composed of eight Si(Li) detectors with 3 mm thickness, and an intrinsic energy resolution of 3% (FWHM). In non-relativistic kinematics, the kinetic energy of a particle can be expressed

in terms of the mass number A and the TOF as follows.

$$E = \frac{1}{2}Av^2 \propto \frac{A}{TOF^2}$$
(3.3)

From Eq. 3.2 and Eq. 3.3,

$$E\Delta E \propto AZ^2$$
 (3.4)

Therefore, by the $E\Delta E$, the particle identification of the fragments can be measured.

The position of the fragments was performed by using the strip (see in Fig. 3.8). This position resolution is 5 mm. The momentum of the fragments was analyzed from the E of SSD. Thus, the momentum vector of the fragments was calculated by using both the angle of the fragments from the position of fragments and from the momentum of it. The angle of the reaction products in the laboratory flame was determined by the position information both PPAC and SSD. P_{in} was measured by the F2PL and PPAC. P_{out} was measured by the SSD.

$$\theta = \arccos \frac{\mathbf{P}_{\text{in}} \cdot \mathbf{P}_{\text{out}}}{|\mathbf{P}_{\text{in}}|| \mathbf{P}_{\text{out}}|}$$
(3.5)

3.2.4 Gamma-Ray Detectors

An array of 152 NaI(Tl) scintillation detectors (DALI2) was placed around the target to detect γ rays emitted from the excited fragments in flight ($v/c \sim 0.3$). The schematic view is in Fig. 3.9. The high granularity of DALI2 allowed us to measure the angle of the γ -ray emission. The angular information was used to correct for the large Doppler shift, which was caused by a moving reaction products emitting γ rays in a high velocity ($v/c \sim 0.3$). For 2 MeV γ -rays, the efficiency was calculated to be around 13% (see in Appendix 4.7) with an intrinsic energy resolution of 7% (FWHM).

3.2.5 Neutron Detector

The neutrons produced in the reaction were detected by the neutron wall (see in Fig. 3.10). The neutron wall located 3 m downstream of the target was composed of 4 layers. Each layer had 29 plastic scintillators. The 28 veto counters were installed in front of the neutron counter. The veto counter rejected events in which a charged particle hits in the neutron wall. Two photo-multipliers, coupled to both ends of each scintillator in the horizontal direction, read out light-outputs of the scintillator. The average of the two PMT

timings was used to define the neutron TOF between the target and NEUT. The timing difference between PMT's determined the neutron hit position in the horizontal direction. The vertical position was distinguished by identifying the rod.

3.2.6 Trigger for Data Acquisition

The data for the present experiment were stored event-by-event, using a data acquisition system. We took particular care of reducing the dead time in data acquisition and the contribution from background events mainly caused by the incident beam with no reactions in the target. Therefore combinations of the following conditions were imposed.

- DSBEAM: the signal generated once each five hundred BEAM signals
- BEAM SSD NEUT: a logical AND of the trigger logic BEAM and SSD and NEUT
- BEAM SSD DALI: a logical AND of the trigger logic BEAM and SSD and GAMMA

Figure 3.11 shows a trigger logic diagram employed in the present experiment. The DSBEAM was used to monitor the beam profile during the experiment.

3.3 Data Set

Table 3.1 shows a list of experimental data set taken in the present experiment. The data are categorized into those for the calibration runs and those for extracting the spectra of interests. Calibration runs of 25 Ne were performed to measure the absolute energy of SSD. Calibration runs of proton and deuteron runs were performed to measure the absolute energy of NEUT. Calibration runs of 25 Ne brass which produced large number of γ rays were performed to measure the absolute timings of NEUT. The experimental runs aiming at obtaining the interesting spectra were performed using three different target, Pb, Al, empty (see the section of target).

Secondary Beam	Target	Trigger
²⁶ Ne (58 MeV)	Pb	COINorDSBEAM
²⁶ Ne (58 MeV)	Al	COINorDSBEAM
²⁶ Ne (58 MeV)	empty	COINorDSBEAM
²⁶ Ne for gamma products	Brass	COINorDSBEAM
²⁵ Ne (60, 55, and 50 MeV) for SSD	Pb	COINorDSBEAM
proton (70, 50, 40 MeV) and triton (87 MeV) for neutron counter	Pb	COINorDSBEAM
proton (30 MeV) for Veto counter	empty	COINorDSBEAM

Table 3.1: COIN is the trigger of $(BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT) \oplus (BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes GAMMA)$.



Figure 3.3: Schematic view of the setup backward F3. The detectors system comprises 152 NAI(Tl) detectors for detecting γ -rays, $\Delta E - E$ Silicon Strip Detector for detecting outgoing reaction products, and Neutron Wall for detecting neutrons produced in the reaction.



Figure 3.4: Schematic view of the F2 plastic scintillator.



Figure 3.5: picture of the PPAC



Figure 3.6: Schematic view of the setup backward F3.



Figure 3.7: The Schematic view of SSD. Left:particle identification of the fragments was performed by using four-layer Si strip detectors (SSD) composed of ΔE and E counters located at about 1.2 m downstream of the target.



Figure 3.8: readout position of SSD. Red line was for X strip at the first layer. Blue line was for Y strip at the second layer. The position of the reaction products was measured by the signal from both X and Y strips.



Figure 3.9: Schematic view of 152 NaI(T) scintillation detectors (DALI2).



Figure 3.10: The schematic view of Neutron Wall(NEUT))



Figure 3.11: Circuit diagram for trigger signal of data acquisition system.

4.1 Beam line detectors analysis

4.1.1 Timing calibration for TDC at Radio Frequency (RF), plastic scintillator and PPAC's



Figure 4.1: Plot of channel versus timing in Figure 4.2: TDC pulse Histogram. Hisns. This calibration was fitted by a linear togram obtained using the time calibrator module.

In order to extract physical information from the obtained data, digital data taken by the data acquisition system have to be converted to the physical quantities. For this purpose, we took calibration data, which were clearly related to the corresponding physical quantities. In this subsection, timing signal of RF, plastic scintillator and PPAC's were calibrated by using a time calibrator module. This module generated a start signals followed by a stop signal, and timing of the stop signal with respect to the start signal was changed directly and periodically with a given interval. To convert the obtained digital

data to ns, the following function was used (Eq. 4.1). The figure 4.1 and 4.2 show 20 ns pulse plot in the TDC channel and the result of the calibration of timing, respectively.

$$T(ns) = c_1 X(ch) + c_2$$
 (4.1)

4.1.2 Particle Identification by using the F2 Plastic Schintillator

In this subsection, particle identification of ²⁵Ne run and ²⁶Ne run, is described. The desirable incident beam including other particle which was unable to be rejected at RIPS was able to be selected by using F2PL. Particle identification was performed by using TOF between F0 to F2 versus ΔE at F2PL (see in Eq. 3.2). To compare the obtained data at F2PL with the data from yield estimation code **INTENSITY**[15], particle identification was performed.

4.1.3 Particle Identification of incident ²⁵Ne beam

In the incident ²⁵Ne beam, the estimation of the yield estimation was shown in table. reftab:25Ne, and the obtained data from experiment was shown in Fig. 4.3 and Fig. 4.4. The ²⁵Ne beam can be identified by using these three result.

Fragment	Rate (nucleon/sec)	TOF(F0-F2) (ns)
25 Ne	$6.2*10^3$	201.4
²⁶ Na	$6.8*10^3$	191.1
²⁷ Na	$9.0*10^{3}$	197.4
28 Mg	$5.0*10^{3}$	189.0
29 Mg	$9.8*10^{3}$	194.8

Table 4.1: The result of the estimation of both intensity and TOF(F0-F2) by using IN-TENSITY CODE for 25 Ne incident beam. This fragment was produced by the primary beam 40 Ar with 95 MeV.



Figure 4.3: TOF versus ΔE from experimental data at ²⁵Ne incident beam Figure 4.4: TOF spectrum of the incident beam at ²⁵Ne incident beam.

4.1.4 Particle Identification of incident ²⁶Ne beam

In the incident ²⁶Ne beam, the procedure of the identification was same as in the case of ²⁵Ne. As a result, the estimation of the fragment and the obtained data from experiment was shown in Table.4.2, Fig.4.5 and Fig.4.6 respectively.

Fragment	Rate (nucleon/sec)	TOF(F0-F2) (ns)
25 Ne	6.2^{3}	201.4
²⁶ Na	6.8^{3}	191.1
²⁷ Na	9.0^{3}	197.4
^{28}Mg	5.0^{3}	189.0
29 Mg	9.8^{3}	194.8

Table 4.2: The result of the estimation of both intensity and TOF(F0-F2) by using IN-TENSITY CODE for 26 Ne incident beam. This fragment was produced by the primary beam 40 Ar with 95 MeV.





Figure 4.5: TOF versus ΔE from experimental data at ²⁶Ne incident beam. Figure 4.6: TOF spectrum of the incident beam from experimental data at ²⁶Ne incident beam.

4.2 Purity estimation of the incident beam

The purity of ²⁵Ne, ²⁶Ne at F2PL was estimated. The definition of the purity is the following equation.

$$purity = \frac{N_{\text{des}}}{N_{\text{total}}} \tag{4.2}$$

where

- $\bullet~N_{\rm des}\!\!:$ number of the desired particle
- + $N_{\rm total}$: total number of the incident beam

The purity of ²⁵Ne and ²⁶Ne is the following.

purity
$$=\frac{N_{25Ne}}{N_{total}}=79.6\%$$

purity $=\frac{N_{26Ne}}{N_{total}}=77.3\%$

4.2.1 Determination of the incident beam momentum

From the momentum of the incident beam at D2 by using the magnetic field strength in NMR, the incident momentum of the beam in front of the target taking account of the energy loss passing though the material was calculated. In this analysis, the momentum of the incident beam was approximated by the function in Eq.4.3.

$$P_{\text{aftermaterial}} = C_4 + C_5 P_{\text{beforematerial}} + C_6 P_{\text{beforematerial}}^2 \tag{4.3}$$

- *P*_{beforematerial}: momentum
- *P*_{aftermaterial}: momentum corrected

The table.4.3 shows the result of the incident β and momentum between the obtained date calibrated by approximation and the estimation calculated by using the Bethe-Broch equation. Figure.4.7 shows the momentum distribution in front of the target which is calibrated above the procedure. This non-symmetric shape was caused by the acceptance of the RIPS.

	calculation	exp
β_{D2}	0.3427	0.3425
$\mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{aftertgt}}/\mathrm{A}$	316.75[MeV]	316.70[MeV]
$\beta_{\mathrm{aftertgt}}$	0.32194	0.3220
$E_{aftertgt}/A$	52.3803[MeV]	52.41[MeV]

Table 4.3: The comparison the experimental data corrected energy loss with the energy loss calculation. The experimental data was almost same as the calculation data.


Figure 4.7: the momentum distribution of the incident beam, ²⁶Ne in front of the target.

4.3 Analysis of PPAC

4.3.1 Efficiency calculation of PPAC

In the single hit event of a PPAC, the sum of the both side timing, (T_1+T_2) is constant. By using this feature, we set a gate to (T_1+T_2) for each cathode of all the PPAC's to exclude multi-hit events. The table of result in efficiency and typical histograms are shown in Table. 4.4, and Fig. 4.8, respectively. Incident angle of the beam at the target was made by extrapolation of the position information obtained by two PPAC'(see in appendix.A.2). The obtained spectrum of the incident angle is in Fig. 4.9. By using this angle, the result of the profile of beam size and and momentum vector of the incident beam ²⁶Ne in front of the target can be calculated. Figure. 4.10 and 4.11 are the result of these, respectively.

$$(T_{left} + T_{right}) = \frac{X}{V} + \frac{L - X}{V} = L/V \propto \text{constant}$$
(4.4)
efficiency(PPAC)=
$$\frac{{}^{26}Ne_{F2PL} \otimes (T_{right} + T_{leght} = \text{constant})}{{}^{26}Ne_{F2PL}}$$

efficiency	
PPACa	96.9%
PPACb	96.1%
PPACa⊗PPACb	93.4%

Table 4.4: The table of efficiency in the two PPAC'S (PPAC-A, PPAC-B)



Figure 4.8: Spectra of the sum of timing (T_1+T_2) of both electrodes attached to a PPAC. Single hit events constitute a sharp peak, while multi hit events exhibit smaller (T_1+T_2) . The single hit events are selected by the gates indicated by the arrows in the spectra.



Figure 4.9: θ at target. The plot was made by extrapolation of the position information obtained by two PPAC's before the target.



Figure 4.10: Beam spot size of ²⁶Ne. The plot was made by extrapolation of the position information obtained by two PPAC's in front of the target.



Figure 4.11: momentum vector of the incident beam. Momentum information was obtained by F2PL.

4.4 Particle Identification of Reaction Products

4.4.1 Energy Calibration of Silicon Strip Detector

 ΔE_{total} is the energy which is the total energy of the first layer and the second layer.

$$\Delta E_{\text{total}} = \Delta E_{\text{Xback}} + \Delta E_{\text{Yback}} \tag{4.5}$$

The reaction products are stopped in the third layer or the fourth layer. The total kinetic energy, E_{total} of the reaction products is the total energy of all SSD layer in case of stopping the reaction products.

$$E_{\text{total}} = \Delta E_{\text{total}} + E \tag{4.6}$$

where

- ΔE_{total} : total energy of ΔE counters
- $\Delta E_{\text{Xback}}, \Delta E_{\text{Yback}}$: energy loss of the first layer and the second layer, respectively
- E: energy of E counter
- E_{total} : total energy of reaction products

The Energy calibration of the four-layer-Si strip detectors (SSD) was performed by using the 25 Ne beams with 60 MeV/A, 55 MeV/A, and 50 MeV/A respectively. Table. 4.5 shows the result of the calibration.

To convert the obtained digital data to energy, the following function was used.

$$E(MeV) = C_1 X(ch) + C_2$$
(4.7)

table of calibration $^{25}\mathrm{Ne}$ beam[MeV/A]							
E_{D2}	$\Delta E_{\rm total}$	deviation	$E_{\rm total}$	deviation			
60.04 MeV/A(cal)	10.16		50.0				
(exp)	10.03	-0.13	49.3	-0.7			
55.41 MeV/A (cal)	11.19		43.91				
(exp)	11.20	-0.01	43.96	0.05			
49.55 MeV/A (cal)	13.48		36.81				
(exp)	13.51	0.03	36.83	-0.02			

Table 4.5: The result of ADC calibration obtained for the silicon detector telescopes with the 25 Ne beams with 60 MeV/A, 55 MeV/A, and 50 MeV/A respectively.

4.4.2 Particle Identification of Reaction Products

Figure. 4.12 shows the ΔE -E correlation of the reaction products from ²⁶Ne incident beam at 58.7MeV/nucleon.

In this analysis, in order to identify clearly the reaction products, E_{total} was redefined.

$$\acute{E}_{\rm total} = E + \frac{1}{2}\Delta E \tag{4.8}$$

The equation 4.8 shows that the total mean energy loss is $\frac{1}{2}\Delta E$ [23]. The PID value is defined as

$$PID = \Delta E_{\text{total}} \acute{E}_{\text{total}} = \Delta E (E + \frac{1}{2} \Delta E)^{c_1} \simeq A Z^2$$
(4.9)

 c_1 is a constant. In this analysis, c_1 was 0.75. Figure. 4.13 shows that Mass- ΔE correlation of the reaction products for Al target. The trigger condition of this figure is $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$ and the 5 MeV threshold of pulse height in the neutron counter was performed.



Figure 4.12: ΔE versus E of the reaction products.

4.4.3 Improving the mass resolution of SSD

Figure 4.13 shows that the fragment was mixed with the with ²⁶Ne beam because of the energy struggling of the target . To improve the mass resolution, the position information of SSD was used(see in Fig. 4.14). The angular distribution from the position information shows that the angle of ²⁶Ne outgoing the target is forward angle because of no reaction on the target(see in Fig. 4.15). The results of the mass spectrum rejecting this component at Pb and Al targets and empty are shown in Fig.(see in Fig. 4.16, 4.17, 4.18), respectively. The table of mass resolution σ from these mass spectrum is in Table. 4.6.



Figure 4.13: The mass versus of ΔE at Al target. The trigger condition is $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$. The 5 MeV threshold of pulse height on the neutron counter and multiplicity of zero on veto counters were performed. The Ne isotopes is mixed with the ²⁶Ne beam because of the energy struggling of the target.



Figure 4.14: The position of SSD. The space of each strips are 5 mm.



Figure 4.15: The mass versus of angular θ at Al target. The angle of ²⁶Ne beam is almost forward angle.



Figure 4.16: The mass identification of Ne isotopes on SSD after cutting the forward angle for Pb target.



Figure 4.17: The mass identification of Ne isotopes on SSD after cutting forward angle at Al target.



Figure 4.18: The mass id entification of Ne isotopes on SSD after cutting forward angle at empty target.

•

RUN	²⁶ Ne+Pb	²⁶ Ne+Al	²⁶ Ne+empty
²⁶ Ne	0.238	0.224	0.279
25 Ne	0.259	0.244	0.250
²⁴ Ne	0.259	0.222	0.232
²³ Ne	0.282	0.226	0.226
²² Ne	0.257	0.218	0.218
²¹ Ne	0.304	0.228	0.228
²⁰ Ne	0.477	0.294	0.254

Table 4.6: The table of σ with Gaussian fitting of mass distribution.

4.5 Analysis of Gamma Rays

4.5.1 Energy calibration

The analog data of DALI taken by the ADC modules were calibrated by using standard γ -ray sources of ²²Na (511 keV and 1275 keV), ⁶⁰Co (1173 keV and 1333 keV), ¹³⁷Cs (662 keV), and the mixture of Am-Be (4439 keV, 3928 keV and 3417 keV). The process of γ -rays from the mixture of Am-Be source is explained in the appendix. Table. 4.5.1 shows the resolute of the DALI calibration.



Figure 4.19: ch versus keV

source	Energy(KeV)	exp Energy(KeV)	deviation(KeV))
^{137}Cs	661.660	660.7	-0.3
⁶⁰ C0	1173.237	1174.	0.6
	1332.501	1335.	2.5
²² Na	1274.532	1276.	1.5
	511	506.2	-4.8
⁹ Be+ ²⁴¹ Am	4439.1	4428.	-11.1
	3928.1	3955.	27.
	3417.1	3402.	-15.

The function is

$$E_{\gamma} = c_1 E_{\rm ch} + c_2 \tag{4.10}$$

4.5.2 Timing Gate for Background Reduction

The γ -ray detectors were sensitive not only to the γ rays from the reaction products but also to the charged particle, neutrons, γ rays from the detectors, and natural background γ rays. In order to select true coincidence events, a gate width of γ -ray detection time was set. Figure 4.20 shows a time spectrum of the NaI(Tl) scintillation detectors. The timing data were calibrated in the same way as described in Beam line section.



Figure 4.20: Time spectrum of NaI(Tl) scintillators detectors. The γ -rays from the reaction products are selected by the gates indicated by the Gaussian component. The constant component was due to the background components.

Fitting function is

$$Y = c_1 \exp[-\frac{(T - c_2)^2}{2c_3^2}] + c_4$$
(4.11)

• $T=T_{F2PL} - T_{DALI}$

The constant c_4 is independent of timing. This is interpreted as background components. To select Gaussian component in Fig. 4.20, a clear peak corresponding to the true coincidence events can be taken.

4.6 Doppler shift correction

In this experiment, we detected γ -rays emitted from moving reaction products with a velocity v/c~0.32. Hence Doppler-shifted γ -ray energies were measured by the γ -ray detectors.



Figure 4.21: Schematic view of in-beam γ spectroscopy. The theta is the γ -ray detection angle with respect to the beam axis in the laboratory frame.

The γ -ray energy in the rest frame of the incident particle E_{γ}^{proj} and the γ -ray energy in the laboratory frame E_{γ}^{lab} are connected by the velocity of the incident particle and the γ -ray detection angle with respect to the beam axis in the laboratory frame θ . The introduction of the Doppler shift corrected spectrum is given by the following.

$$\begin{pmatrix} E_{\gamma}^{\text{proj}}/c\\ P^{\text{proj}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & -\beta\gamma\\ -\beta\gamma & \gamma \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} E_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}}/c\\ P^{\text{lab}} \end{pmatrix}$$

- E_{γ}^{proj} : γ energy in the rest frame of the incident particle
- P^{proj} : γ particle momentum in the rest frame of the incident particle
- E_{γ}^{lab} : γ energy in the laboratory frame
- P^{lab} : γ particle momentum in the laboratory
- β : relativistic velocity
- γ : Lorenz factor $1/\sqrt{1-\beta^2}$

$$E_{\gamma}^{\text{proj}}/c = \gamma E_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}}/c - \gamma \beta P^{\text{lab}}$$
 (4.12)

Relativistic velocity is the

$$\beta = \hat{\beta} \cos \theta \tag{4.13}$$

- $\dot{\beta}$: β of the production products
- θ : laboratory angle with respect to the beam axis

$$E_{\gamma}^{\rm lab} = h\nu \tag{4.14}$$

$$P = \frac{h}{\lambda} = \frac{h\nu}{c} \tag{4.15}$$

$$\frac{P}{E_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}}} = \frac{1}{c} \tag{4.16}$$

Therefore,

$$E_{\gamma}^{\text{proj}} = E_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}} \gamma (1 - \beta \cos \theta) \tag{4.17}$$



Figure 4.22: Energy spectrum of γ rays detected in coincidence with the ²⁶Ne reaction products.(right)Energy spectrum in laboratory frame.(left)Doppler-corrected γ rays energy spectrum with β =0.32. The peaks at 2020 keV is clearly seen while they are vague in right indicating good quality of the Doppler correction.

4.6.1 Result of the obtained spectrum from Ne isotopes

4.6.2 Energy resolution of the Doppler corrected γ -ray spectrum

Due to the finite accuracy of angular information and the velocity spread of the projectiles, the γ -ray energy peaks were broadened compared to the intrinsic energy resolution of the detectors. Based on equation 4.17, the resolution E_{γ}^{proj} is approximated,

$$\left(\frac{\Delta E_{\gamma}^{\text{proj}}}{E_{\gamma}^{\text{proj}}}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\beta \sin \theta_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}}}{1 - \beta \cos \theta_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}}}\right)^2 (\Delta \theta_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}})^2 + \left(\frac{\beta \gamma^2 (\beta - \cos \theta_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}})}{1 - \beta \cos \theta_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}}}\right)^2 (\frac{\Delta \beta}{\beta})^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta E_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}}}{E_{\gamma}^{\text{lab}}}\right)^2 (4.18)$$

From the correlation between energy and σ , the intrinsic energy resolution of the detectors is introduced as following.

$$\sigma = 1.9\sqrt{E} - 26.97 \tag{4.19}$$

fragment	E(exp)[keV]	σ	E(previous)[keV]	deviation[keV]	state
²⁶ Ne	2020	109	2020	0	$(2^+ \rightarrow g.s)$
²⁵ Ne	1688	89	1702	-14	unknown
²⁴ Ne	1978	98	1981.6	3.6	$2^+ \rightarrow g.s$
²³ Ne	1716	134	1701	15	$7/2 \rightarrow g.s$
	1294	170	1298	-4	$5/2^+ \to 1/2^+$
	1001	159	1017	-16	$1/2^+ \to g.s$
	785	120	805	-20	$3/2^+ \to 1/2^+$
²² Ne	1263	85	1274.5	-11	$2^+ \rightarrow g.s$
	848	171	-	-	-

Table 4.7: Gamma-ray energies of Ne isotopes from A of 26 to A of 22. The energies deduced in the present work are compared with the literature values.

source	¹³⁷ Cs	⁶⁰ C		²² Na		Am-Be		
Energy[keV]	661	1173	1332	511	1274	3417	3928	4428
σ [keV]	26	32	36	25	36	84	105	95

Table 4.8: The energy resolution of the obtained value from the standard γ source.

Energy resolutions are evaluated using realistic condition, β of 0.32 and γ of 1.06 with $\Delta \theta_{\rm max}$ of 20 degrees in laboratory frame of 90 degrees and $\Delta \theta_{\rm min}$ of 0 degrees in laboratory frame of 0 degrees respectively, $\Delta \beta / \beta$ of 11.5% including the energy loss in the secondary target. $\Delta E_{\gamma}^{\rm lab}$ is the σ from 4.6.2.

fragment	²⁶ Ne	25 Ne	24 Ne	²² Ne
Energy[keV]	2020	1688	1978	1263
$\sigma[\exp][\text{keV}]$	109	89	98	85
σ [calc][keV]	121	102	119	78

Table 4.9: Energy resolution σ of the obtained Doppler corrected spectrum. The σ in the present work compared to the calculated σ .



Figure 4.23: Gamma-ray energy spectra obtained in coincidence with the reaction products 26Ne,²⁵Ne.



Figure 4.24: Gamma-ray energy spectra obtained in coincidence with the reaction prod-



Figure 4.25: Ne fragments gamma ray spectrum

Figure 4.26: Gamma-ray energy spectra obtained in coincidence with the reaction products 22Ne.

unregistered



Figure 4.27: Energy resolution function of $\gamma\text{-ray energy emitted from moving sources}$.



Figure 4.28: Energy resolutions for 2 MeV γ -ray emitted from moving sources with v/c \approx 0.32. Enet is the energy resolution of the Doppler corrected spectrum.

4.7 Efficiency calculation of the DALI

The efficiency of the DALI for the 2 MeV γ ray was estimated by **GEANT** code[?]. The energy of 2 MeV γ ray was for the To check the efficiency, γ -ray detection efficiencies were checked by using standard γ -ray sources. The standard sources, ¹³⁷Cs, ²²Na and ⁶⁰Co were used.

$$\epsilon = \frac{Yield_{\text{detected}}}{Yield_{\text{emission}}} \tag{4.20}$$

source	¹³⁷ Cs	²² Na	⁶⁰ Co
Energy[keV]	661	1173,1332	511,1274
intensity(T=0)[kBq]	46.6	359	41.2
half time($t_{1/2}$)[year]	30.07	2.6019	5.2714
emission probability[%]	0.8521	0.999,0.9998	0.9994

Table 4.10: Table of standard γ source data used in this experiment.

The efficiency from the standard γ sources was estimated as follows.

source	¹³⁷ Cs	⁶⁰ C		²² Na	
Energy[keV](exp)	661	1173	1332	511	1274
$Yiled_{emission}$	4.25×10^{7}	3.82×10^{7}	3.82×10^{7}	2.20×10^{8}	1.10×10^{8}
$Yiled_{detected}$	3.17×10^{4}	1.96×10^{5}	1.77×10^{5}	6.40×10^{5}	1.74×10^{5}
$Yiled_{detected}$ (calibrated)	1.35×10^{6}	6.31×10^{6}	5.70×10^{6}	7.80×10^{7}	2.14×10^{7}
efficiency[%]	31.7	16.5	14.9	35.4	19.4

Table 4.11: Table of efficiency for standard γ -ray sources.

 $Yiled_{detected}$ (calibrated) means

$$Yiled_{detected}(calibrated) = \frac{N_{ungatedevent}}{N_{gatedevent}} * (DS - DALI trigger) * Yiled_{detected}$$
(4.21)

Energy[keV]	661	1173	1332	511	1274	$E(2020\text{kev}; 2^+ \rightarrow \text{g.s})$
efficiency[%](cal)	31.0	20.2	18.5	38.4	19.1	13.6

Table 4.12: The efficiency calculated from GEANT.

- DS-DALI trigger: Down scale factor
- $\frac{N_{ungatedevent}}{N_{gatedevent}}$: livetime of DALI trigger
- $Yield_{511} = 2 * Yield_{1274\text{KeV}}$ in ²²Na

The efficiency for the 2 MeV γ ray by using **GEANT** code which reproduces well the measured efficiencies was estimated.

Figure 4.7 shows plot of the photo-peak efficiencies as a function of γ -ray energies. The solid line was calculated by **GEANT** code. For 2 MeV, efficiencies was estimated attained to be about 13.6 % and this curve is within the 20% deviation. In 2 MeV γ -ray, the efficiency was 13.6 % and the systematic error, $\Delta \epsilon$ from this figure was 20%, respectively.



Figure 4.29: Plot of photo-peak efficiencies as a function of γ -ray energies. The values measured by using γ -rays standard sources are plotted. The solid line represents the calculated values by **GEANT** code, which reproduces well measured efficiencies.

4.8 Acceptance Correction of SSD

The acceptance of the SSD was estimated by a Monte Carlo simulation. We first evaluated the detector acceptance in case where the incoming beam has no angular spread. Only the detector geometry is considered in this simulation. To check this calculation, the result of the simulation was compared to the result of the analytical calculation. Analytical calculation is from the geometry information by using the Eq.4.22.

$$\epsilon = \frac{2 * \pi * r_{\text{real}}}{2 * \pi * r} \tag{4.22}$$

Figure 4.30 and Figure 4.31 show the detector acceptance as a function of angular range, where θ represents the angle of the laboratory frame. The SSD covers the angle from 1.5 degrees to 5.0 degrees.



Figure 4.30: Detector acceptance of the SSD as a function of the angle in the laboratory flame. The data is obtained from the geometrical calculation.

As a next step, we took into account the finite size and the angular spread of the incident beams. The input profile of the incident beam for the simulation is in Fig 4.32. The result of the acceptance including the beam profile is shown in Fig. 4.33. The efficiency, ratio of SSD for the fragments was estimated and the results are shown in Table. 4.13 and Fig. 4.34.

As a system check of the acceptance for the SSD, the cross-section obtained from $Pb(^{26}Ne,^{26}Ne^*)$ was used. The first excited state, (2020 KeV:2⁺ \rightarrow g.s) for ²⁶Ne has already been measured[21] and this cross-section has already been estimated[12]. The result of the cross section (2020 KeV:2⁺ \rightarrow g.s) is shown in Fig.4.35 and Table.4.14.



Figure 4.31: Detector acceptance of the SSD as a function of the angle in the laboratory flame. This data is obtained from the Monte Carlo simulation and Only the detector geometry is considered in the simulation.



Figure 4.32: The input profiles of Y versus θ_Y , and X versus θ_X from the PPAC information. These show that the incident beam is focused on the SSD.



Figure 4.33: Detector acceptance of the SSD as a function of the angle in the laboratory flame from the Monte Carlo simulation. The finite size and angular spread of the incident beam is take into accounted in the data.

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fragments(system)	before correction	after correction	ϵ
25Ne Pb(lab)	9795	46471	21.1%
25Ne Al(lab)	3445	14304	24.1%
24Ne Pb(lab)	17487	85769	20.4%
24Ne Al(lab)	9700	33806	28.7%
23Ne Pb(lab)	13994	73276	19.1%
23Ne Al(lab)	7838	23298	33.6%
22Ne Pb(lab)	15956	81470	19.6%
22Ne Al(lab)	10227	29456	34.7%

Table 4.13: The number of events between before correction of SSD and after correction of SSD. Empty run has been already subtracted.



Figure 4.34: Plot of efficiency ratio for acceptance in the Ne fragment at Pb and Al, respectively.



Figure 4.35: Left: The γ -ray spectrum before acceptance correction for SSD in the Pb target. Right: The γ -ray spectrum after the acceptance correction for SSD.

	Pb
before(photo-peak count)	1236
after(photo-peak count)	3101
ratio(%) before/after	39.8
σ [mb](exp 58 MeV/nucleon)	68.2(13.6)
σ [mb](previous[12] 41.7 MeV/nucleon)	74(13)

Table 4.14: The counts and cross section of the photo-peak at 2020KeV for ²⁶Ne at Pb target. The correction of the efficiency for NaI was performed (**GEANT**). The further analysis of the angular distribution in center of mass frame was not performed.

5.1 Reaction Cross Section

Reaction cross sections of ${}^{26}Ne+Pb(Al) \rightarrow {}^{22-25}Ne+n+x$, are listed in Table 5.1, and are also shown in Fig.5.1. Here the acceptance for the fragment in SSD is corrected, but not for the neutron. The trigger condition is $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$. The 5 MeV threshold of pulse height of the neutron counter, and multiplicity of zero on veto counters were set.

RUN	²⁶ Ne+Pb(error)[mb]	²⁶ Ne+Al(error)[mb]
25 Ne	119(1.9)	10(0.3)
24 Ne	211(2.9)	29(0.6)
²³ Ne	167(2.7)	22(0.5)
²² Ne	197(3.1)	31(0.7)

Table 5.1: The list of reaction cross sections table of ${}^{26}Ne+Pb(Al) \rightarrow {}^{22-25}Ne+n+x$



Figure 5.1: The reaction cross sections of ${}^{26}\text{Ne+Pb}(\text{Al}) \rightarrow {}^{22-25}\text{Ne+n+x}$

As a simple model to estimate the Coulomb dissociation from ${}^{26}\text{Ne} \rightarrow {}^{22-25}\text{Ne}+n+x$ on the Pb target, the ratio, $\sigma_{\rm Pb}/\sigma_{\rm Al}$ was extracted. This value may be used to estimate the Coulomb dissociation contributions in the ${}^{26}Ne+Pb \rightarrow {}^{22-25}Ne+n+x$ reaction, when we assume that the same reaction from the Al target is produced only by the nuclear breakup. From Fig. 5.2, the ratio of A=25 is larger than that of any other fragment. This contributes two probabilities on the coincidence with neutron. This enhancement for the ²⁵Ne channel may be attributed to either of the following reasons. One is the large contribution of the Coulomb dissociation for 25 Ne than any other channels. This makes $\sigma_{\rm Pb}/\sigma_{\rm Al}$ larger. The other reason may be that the different reaction mechanisms between Coulomb and nuclear breakup is seen due to the trigger condition which requires neutron detection at forward angle. In the Coulomb breakup, where momentum transfer is small, the outgoing neutron is emitted at forward angles. On the other hand for the nuclear breakup, neutron tends to be emitted at large angles except for the evaporated neutron. As will be discussed in the next section, when we assume the fragmentation process for the nuclear breakup, the cross section for ²⁵Ne nuclear breakup should be hindered. Because this channel should not have an evaporated neutron. In fact the hindrance of the cross sections for ²⁵Ne compared to ²⁴Ne is seen in Fig 5.1, in particular for Al. Since $\sigma_{\rm Pb}/\sigma_{\rm Al}$ is, however, largest, there should remain Coulomb breakup contribution in ²⁵Ne.



Figure 5.2: The figure of the ratio, σ_{Pb}/σ_{Al} . The ratio between from A=22 to A=24 at are almost same ratio. This result shows this process arised from A=22 to A=24 is explained by the same reaction mechanism, nuclear reaction. But Coulomb dissociation for A=25 and hindrance of σ (Al) for A=25, ${}^{25}Ne+Al \rightarrow {}^{24}Ne+n+x$ are seen respectively. (Seen Fig 5.3 and Fig 5.4) $\frac{\sigma_{Al}(25)}{\sigma_{Al}(24)}$ =34% $\langle \frac{\sigma_{Pb}(25)}{\sigma_{Pb}(24)}$ =56%



Figure 5.3: The schematic view of the Coulomb dissociation for ${}^{26}+Pb \rightarrow {}^{25}Ne+n+x$.



Figure 5.4: The schematic view of the Nuclear Breakup for 26 +Al \rightarrow 25 Ne+n+x. Nuclear breakup(Upper part). Evaporation process(under part)

5.2 Angular distributions of Ne fragments



Figure 5.5: The schematic view of the Spectator Participant Method.

As discussed with previous section, the fragmentation is one of the important processes in the nuclear breakup. Here we analyze the data in terms of the fragmentation model. In this way, we attempt to develop a method to distinguish the Coulomb dissociation component from the nuclear breakup.

The fragmentation process is understood by the so called Spectator Participant model. The schematic view of the Spectator Participant model is shown in Fig.5.5. The scattering angle of the fragment by nuclear breakup is larger than that of Coulomb dissociation. Thus in the assumption that fragment is produced by both nuclear breakup and Coulomb dissociation, these reaction contribute to the angular distribution. In the nuclear breakup, Goldhaber model[3] is used to explain the momentum distribution. In the Goldhaber model, the angular distribution of the fragment in the laboratory frame is approximately described as

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = C_1 \exp\left(-A_F \frac{E_F \theta^2}{2\sigma_\perp}\right) \tag{5.1}$$

where σ_{\perp} is the variance of the momentum distribution in the perpendicular direction. σ_{\perp} in this model is represented as

$$\sigma_{\perp}^{2} = \frac{A_{F}(A_{p} - A_{F})}{A_{P} - 1}\sigma_{0}^{2} + \frac{A_{F}(A_{F} - 1)}{A_{P}(A_{P} - 1)}\sigma_{D}^{2}$$
(5.2)

where

- A_P : projectile mass number
- A_F : fragment mass number
- σ_0 : the width due to the Fermi momentum
- σ_D : deflection effect

The angular distributions of fragments for Al and Pb targets are shown in Fig. 5.6 and Fig. 5.7. As in this flame, angular distributions have two components, i.e, narrow and wide components. The one sigma widths σ_{\perp} for narrow and wide components were obtained by fitting the data by two Gaussian. The extracted σ_{\perp} values are shown in Fig. 5.8 and Fig.5.9 for the narrow and wide components, respectively. As shown in Fig.5.9, we have found that the wide components are almost the same irrespective of the kinds of the targets. As for the narrow components, the σ_{\perp} for Al is broader than that of Pb. We have then extracted $\sigma_{\rm D}$ parameter for the wide component. The obtained $\sigma_{\rm D}$ for Pb and Al targets are found to be almost the same result, 267(11) and 262(5), respectively for the constant value of $\sigma_0=87$ MeV/c[10](see Fig.5.9). This shows that the wide component is independent of the target, and is agreement with the Goldhaber model. For the narrow component, in the assumption of $\sigma_0=0$, the deflection parameter constant σ_D was obtained to be 96(0.3) and 121(15) for Pb and Al target, respectively. One possible of mechanism is that for the narrow component this component is due to the Coulomb dissociation. However the quantitative investigation for the mechanism is yet to be done.


Figure 5.6: The angular distribution of fragment for Al target from A=22 to A=25 in the laboratory frame.



Figure 5.7: The angular distribution of fragment for Pb target from A=22 to A=25 in the laboratory frame.



Figure 5.8: The σ_{\perp} for the narrow component and wide component respectively. The wide component is independent of the target. On the other hand, in the narrow component, the σ_{\perp} of Pb targets is smaller than the σ_{\perp} of Al target



Figure 5.9: The σ_{\perp} for the wide component. The solid line is the GoldHaber model calculation. By using $\sigma_0=87$, the deflection parameter of $\sigma_d=267(11)$ and $\sigma_d=262(4.6)$ at Pb and Al targets, and this value is independent of the target.

6 Conclusion

The study of the low-lying E1 strength of the neutron-rich ²⁶Ne nucleus was studied by using the Coulomb dissociation. In this thesis, the inclusive reaction cross sections and angular distributions for the breakup reaction channels ²⁶Ne+Pb \rightarrow ^{22–25} Ne+n+x, ²⁶Ne+Al \rightarrow ^{22–25}Ne+n+x were analyzed to develop a method to distinguish the Coulomb dissociation component from the nuclear breakup.

By the analysis of reaction cross section, we obtain the possibility of Coulomb breakup contribution in ²⁵Ne. This result was derived to the ratio, σ_{Pb}/σ_{Al} from ²⁶Ne+Pb(Al) \rightarrow ^{22–25}Ne+n+x. In the assumption that the same reaction from the Al target is produced only by the nuclear breakup, this value may be used to estimate the Coulomb dissociation contributions. The ratio of A=25 is larger than that of any other fragment.

In the angular distributions for the breakup reaction, angular distributions have two component, i.e, narrow and wide componets. For the wide component, the angular distribution is independent of the target. Therefore, this result is agreement with Goldhaber model. But for the narrow component, the quantitative investigation for the mechanism is yet to be done. In the next step, we should reconstruct the relative energy spectrum 25 Ne+n.

- Angular distributions (narrow and wide) \rightarrow Two components
- wide component \rightarrow In agreement with fragmentation model
- narrow component \rightarrow Further investigations are necessary

A.1 Coulomb Potential

Coulomb potential is

$$U(r) = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon r} = \frac{\alpha\hbar c}{r} Z_1 Z_2 \tag{A.1}$$

where

- U(r): Coulomb potential
- r: Sum of the target and the projectile radius
- Z₁, Z₂: atomic number
- e: charge of electron
- α : coupling constant $\simeq 1/137$
- ħc≃200 MeVfm

In the experiment, the incident beam and the reaction target are ²⁶Ne and ²⁰⁸Pb, respectively. Therefore, Z_1 and Z_2 are 10 and 82, respectively. Radius of the projectile and the reaction target are 2.86 fm [22]and 7.1 fm from the standard estimation $1.2 \times A^{1/3}$, respectively.

$$U = \frac{\alpha \hbar c}{R_1 + R_2} Z_1 Z_2 = \frac{1}{137} \times 200 \times \frac{1}{7.1 + 2.86} \times 10 \times 82 [\text{ MeV}] \simeq 120 \text{MeV} \quad (A.2)$$

In the kinetic energy of the incident beam,

$$E_{\rm rel} = E_{\rm in} \frac{M_{\rm tgt}}{M_{\rm tgt} + M_{\rm beam}} \tag{A.3}$$

where

- $E_{\rm rel}$: relative energy between the target and incident beam
- E_{in} : kinetic energy of the incident beam

+ $M_{\rm beam}, M_{\rm tgt}:$ mass of the incident and target, respectively

In this experiment, the energy of the incident beam is 58 MeV/u. The relative energy is the following.

$$E_{\rm rel} \simeq 1400 \; {\rm MeV} \; ({\rm Pb})$$

Therefore,

$$E_{\rm rel} \gg U(r)$$

A.2 Analysis PPAC

The following picture is the schematic view of the PPAC definition.



Figure A.1: PPAC definition θx (2) θy

Position of X and Y was calculated from both side signals on the X and Y strip, respectively.

$$T_{left} - T_{right} = \frac{X}{V} - \frac{L - X}{V} \propto X$$
 (A.4)

where

- V: velocity of the current at strip
- L: length
- X: position of the incident beam

The definition of X, Y and Z is shown in the Fig A.1. The incident angle θ , θ_X and θ_Y of the beam is calculated by using the position information of the PPAC-A and PPAC-B in Eq[?, ?].

$$\theta_{\rm X} = \tan^{-1} \frac{\mathrm{dX}}{\mathrm{Z}_{\rm PPACB} - \mathrm{Z}_{\rm PPACA}} \tag{A.5}$$

$$\theta_{\rm Y} = \tan^{-1} \frac{\mathrm{dY}}{\mathrm{Z}_{\rm PPACB} - \mathrm{Z}_{\rm PPACA}} \tag{A.6}$$

- $dX: X_{PPACB}-X_{PPACA}$
- dY: Y_{PPACB} - Y_{PPACA}

From θ_X , θ_Y , the image of the incident beam at target was extrapolated.

$$X_{\text{target}} = X_{\text{PPACA}} + dX \frac{Z_{\text{target}} - Z_{\text{PPACA}}}{Z_{\text{PPACB}} - Z_{\text{PPACA}}}$$
(A.7)

$$Y_{target} = Y_{PPACA} + dY \frac{Z_{target} - Z_{PPACA}}{Z_{PPACB} - Z_{PPACA}}$$
(A.8)

The momentum vector of the incident beam was measured by using the momentum from TOF at F2PL, and the incident angle of PPAC.

$$P_{\rm X} = P_{\rm beam} \frac{\tan \theta_{\rm X}}{\sqrt{1 + \tan \theta_{\rm X}^2 + \tan \theta_{\rm Y}^2}} \tag{A.9}$$

$$P_{\rm Y} = P_{\rm beam} \frac{\tan \theta_{\rm Y}}{\sqrt{1 + \tan \theta_{\rm X}^2 + \tan \theta_{\rm Y}^{\ 2}}} \tag{A.10}$$

$$P_{\rm Z} = \sqrt{P_{\rm beam}^2 - P_{\rm X}^2 - P_{\rm Y}^2} \tag{A.11}$$

- P_{beam} : beam momentum measured by F2PL
- P_X , P_Y , P_Z : X, Y and Z components of the beam momentum, respectively

B Appendix on NaI

B.1 Decay Table



Figure B.1: Decay table used by in this experiment.

The standard γ -ray sources of ¹³⁷Cs, ²²Na, ⁶⁰Co and the mixture of ²⁴¹Am-⁹Be were used in this experiment.

In the mixture of $^{241}\mathrm{Am}$ and $^{9}\mathrm{Be},$

B Appendix on NaI

$$^{241}\text{Am} \rightarrow \alpha + ^{237}\text{Np}$$

 $\alpha + ^{9}\text{Be} \rightarrow ^{12}\text{C}^{*} + n$

 $^{12}C^*$ is immediately de-excited to the ground state by emitting γ -ray at 4.391 MeV. High energy γ -rays produce pair productions more than the low energy γ -ray.

 $\gamma \rightarrow e^- + e^+$

 $e^+ e^-$ annihilation produced in the matter and then, two γ -ray, 511 keV were produced. In case of the NaI scintillation detectors depositing the energy contained two γ -ray, the total energy deposited in the NaI scintillation detector is same as γ -ray energy from deexcited states. In the ¹²C, this energy is corresponding to the 4.391 MeV. In case of one γ -ray of two γ -ray escaping from the detector, NaI scintillation detectors deposits the energy corresponding to the

$$E_{detected} = E_{\gamma} - m_e c^2$$

In the ¹²C, this energy is corresponding to the 3.928 MeV. In case of two γ -ray escaping from that, NaI deposits the energy corresponding to the

$$E_{detected} = E_{\gamma} - 2m_e c^2$$

In the ¹²C, this energy is corresponding to the 3.417 MeV.

In ${}^{12}C^*$, three type spectrum of energy, 4.439 MeV, 3.928 MeV and 3.417 MeV were detected in the NaI scintillation detectors.

B.1.1 Decay formula

$$\mathbf{A} = -\tau \frac{dN}{dt} = \tau N$$
$$N(t) = N(0)e^{-t/\tau}$$
$$\tau = t_{1/2}\log 2$$

- A: number of decay
- τ : decay constant
- $t_{1/2}$: half time
- N(t): yield



Figure B.2: γ -ray from the mixture of Am-Be sources. Be absorbed α from *alpha* decay of Am and then ¹²C* was produced. From the γ rays from ¹²C*, the three type spectrum of energy, 4.439 MeV, 3.928 MeV and 3.417 MeV were detected in the NaI scintillation detectors

C.1 formula

Cross section σ is given by

$$\sigma = \frac{N_{\text{fragment}}}{N_{\text{beam}}} \frac{A}{tN_A} \epsilon \tag{C.1}$$

- σ_{reaction} : cross section
- N_{reaction} : number of reaction events
- N_B : number of the incident ²⁶Ne beam
- A[g/mol]: mass number
- $t[g/cm^2]$: thickness of the target
- N_A [1/mol]: Avogadro's number
- ϵ : correction term

The correction term, ϵ includes the efficiency and the acceptance of the detectors. In this experiment,

- A=208[Pb]
- t=0.230[g/cm²]

$$\frac{A}{tN_A} = 149.64 * 10^{-27} m^2$$
 (C.2)

- C Cross Section Estimation
 - A=27[A1]
 - t=0.130[g/cm²]

$$\frac{A}{tN_A} = 34.48 * 10^{-27} m^2$$
 (C.3)

The incident N_{beam} can be estimated by using DSBEAM trigger which monitors the beam profile during the experiment.

$$N_{beam} = (DS - factor) * N_{^{26}Ne} * (LiveTime)_{DSBEAM}$$
(C.4)

- ϵ : correction of the detectors
- DS-factor: 500 of the down scale factor
- (LiveTime)_{DSBEAM}: live time for *DSBEAM* trigger

DS-factor and Live time, respectively, are

$$(DS - factor) = \frac{N_{beam}(scaler)}{N_{DS}(scaler)}$$
 (C.5)

$$(\text{LiveTime})_{\text{DS}} = \frac{(\text{DS} - \text{beam}_{(\text{raw}-\text{data})})}{(\text{DS} - \text{beam}_{(\text{scaler})})}$$
(C.6)

The reaction products of $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{fragment}}$ at $BEAM\otimes SSD\otimes NEUT$ and $BEAM\otimes SSD\otimes DALI$, respectively, are as follows.

In case of $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$ trigger,

$$N_{\text{fragment}} = N_{\text{raw-data}} * (\text{Livetime})_{b \otimes s \otimes n} * \epsilon_{\text{ssd}}$$
(C.7)

$$(\text{LiveTime})_{b \otimes s \otimes n} = \frac{N_{b \otimes s \otimes n}(\text{raw} - \text{data})}{N_{b \otimes s \otimes n}(\text{scaler})}$$
(C.8)

- (Livetime)_{b \otimes s \otimes n}: live time for $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$ trigger
- ϵ_{ssd} : acceptance correction of SSD

In the case of $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes DALI$ trigger,

$$N_{\text{fragment}} = N_{\gamma} * (\text{Livetime})_{b \otimes s \otimes d} * \epsilon_{\gamma}$$
(C.9)

$$(\text{LiveTime})_{b \otimes s \otimes d} = \frac{N_{b \otimes s \otimes d}(\text{raw} - \text{data})}{N_{b \otimes s \otimes d}(\text{scaler})}$$
(C.10)

- N_{γ} : number of the photon peaks
- $(Livetime)_{b\otimes s\otimes d}$: live time for $BEAM\otimes SSD\otimes DALI$ trigger
- ϵ_{γ} : efficiency of DALI
- ϵ_{γ} was estimated by **GEANT**.

C.1.1 The list of trigger event and livetime

RUN	²⁶ Ne+Pb	²⁶ Ne+Al	²⁶ Ne+emp
Ungated Trigger(scaler)	14852201	4920463	1551938
Accepted Trigger(scaler)	13598070	4738277	152043
beam SSD DALI(scaler)	11084097	2136137	378380
$beam \otimes SSD \otimes DALI(raw-data)$	10038675	1952605	328419
beam SSD NEUT(scaler)	3306474	2166475	547899
beam SSD NEUT (raw-data)	2982517	1979953	472618
DS-Beam(scaler)	1578423	1755869	822505
DS-Beam(raw-data)	1443494	1630666	725995
Beam	789451741	878002704	411256850
Live Time(all)	0.92	0.96	0.98
Live Time(bsd)	0.91	0.91	0.87
Live Time(bsn)	0.90	0.91	0.86
Live Time(ds)	0.91	0.93	0.88
DS-factor	500	500	500
²⁶ Ne(raw-data)	913434	1030369	479364
²⁶ Ne(raw-data)*(livetime)*(DS-factor)	501886813	553961828	272365909

Table C.1: The table of the number of the incident beam.

In $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$ trigger,

To subtract the empty target run to reject the background components in $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$ trigger, the statics of Al target run, and Pb target run is normalized by the empty run.

$$< pureTarget >= C1 < target > -C2 < empty >$$
 (C.11)

Number of Pb run and Al and empty, respectively, scaled by the number of the incident beam after correcting livetime of the detector.

The Cross section table C.5 obtained from previous data is following.

Cross-section correcting to the acceptance of the SSD is the following.

RUN	²⁶ Ne+Pb	²⁶ Ne+Al	²⁶ Ne+empty
factor normalized by empty run (A)0.54	0.49	1.0	
livetime of the trigger(B)	0.9	0.91	0.86
total factor(A*B)	C1=0.603	C1=0.543	C2=1.163

Table C.2: The scaling factor for normalizing of run. Trigger is $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$.

RUN	²⁶ Ne+Pb	²⁶ Ne+Al
²⁵ Ne	8208	21678
²⁴ Ne	22938	38345
²³ Ne	17079	30303
²² Ne	24113	35769

Table C.3: In $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$ trigger, The number of Ne isotopes reaction products from A of 26 to A of 22 after subtracting empty target run at Pb and Al target, respectively, in coincidence with neutron threshold 5 MeV. Veto counters has no hit.



Figure C.1: The mass distribution of Ne isotopes on SSD at Pb target, Al and empty, respectively, without acceptance correction. The number of Pb and Al, respectively is scaled by a empty run. Blue line, black line and green line are mass distribution of Pb target run, Al and empty, respectively.



Figure C.2: The mass distribution of Ne isotopes on SSD at Pb target and Al target, respectively, after subtracting empty run without acceptance correction. The number of Pb and Al, respectively, is scaled by a empty run. The green line and black is Pb target run and Al, respectively.



Figure C.3: The 26^+ peak of the 26 Ne at Al Figure C.4: The 26^+ peak of the 26 Ne at Pb target.

RUN	²⁶ Ne+Pb(error)[mb]	²⁶ Ne+Al(error)[mb]
25 Ne	58.0(0.9))	5.2(0.2)
24 Ne	95.9(1.3)	12.9(0.23)
²³ Ne	79.2(1.3)	11.5(0.22)
22 Ne	93.9(1.7)	14.2(0.26)

Table C.4: In $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$ trigger, the cross section of Ne isotopes reaction products from A of 26 to A of 22 after subtracting empty target run at Pb and Al target, respectively, in coincidence with neutron threshold 5 MeV. Veto counters has no hit. The acceptance correction of SSD was not performed. The acceptance and efficiency of neutron was not also performed.

RUN	²⁶ Ne+Pb(error)[mb]	²⁶ Ne+Al(error)[mb]
²⁵ Ne	119(1.9)	10(0.3)
²⁴ Ne	211(2.9)	29(0.6)
²³ Ne	167(2.7)	22(0.5)
²² Ne	197(3.1)	31(0.7)

Table C.5: After correcting the acceptance of the SSD. In $BEAM \otimes SSD \otimes NEUT$ trigger, the cross section of Ne isotopes reaction products from A of 26 to A of 22 after subtracting empty target run at Pb and Al target, respectively, in coincidence with neutron threshold 5 MeV. Veto counters has no hit. The acceptance correction of SSD was not performed. The acceptance and efficiency of neutron was not also performed.

RUN	²⁶ Ne+Pb	²⁶ Ne+Al
photo-peak(before accept) $E(2020 \text{ keV}; 2^+)$	1236	844
photo-peak(after accept) $E(2020 \text{ keV}; 2^+)$	3101	3670
ϵ efficiency	13.6%	13.6%
$\Delta\epsilon/\epsilon$ (hline)	20%	20%
ϵ acceptance	39.8%	31.1%
σ cross-section(mb) exp	68.2(13.6)	16.8(3.4)
σ cross-section(mb) previously[12]	74(13)	

Table C.6: The $E(2020;2^+ \rightarrow g.s)$ cross section of the ²⁶Ne at Pb and Al target, respectively.

C.1.2 Error estimation of cross section

In this section, the way of the error estimation for cross section is shown in following.

$$\sigma_{\rm reaction} = \frac{N_{\rm frag}}{N_{\rm B}} \frac{A}{tN_{\rm A}}$$
(C.12)

- σ_{reaction} : cross section
- N_{fragment} : number of the reaction products
- N_B : number of the incident beam
- A[g/mol]: mass number
- $t[g/cm^2]$: thickness of the target
- N_A [1/mol]: Avogadro number

The error $\Delta \sigma$ of the cross section is given by following.

$$\Delta \sigma = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta N_{\text{frag}}}{N_{\text{frag}}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta \epsilon_{\text{frag}}}{\epsilon_{\text{frag}}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta N_B}{N_B}\right)^2} \tag{C.13}$$

- ΔN_B : statics error of the incident beam
- ϵ : acceptance correction of SSD
- $\Delta \epsilon$: acceptance correction error of SSD
- $\Delta N_{\rm frag}^{\rm sta}$: statics error of the reaction products number
- $\Delta N_{\rm frag}^{\rm fit}$: fitting error of the reaction spectrum spectrum on SSD

Subtracting empty target run from Pb and Al target, respectively, run produce the error of the Pb and Al target run, respectively, with the error of the empty run.

In empty run, Δx is the error of the empty run.

$$N_{\rm emp} = x \pm \Delta x \tag{C.14}$$

In Pb and Al run, respectively, Δy is the error of the Pb and Al run , respectively.

$$N_{\rm tgt} = y \pm \Delta y \tag{C.15}$$

F is the number of the total event after subtarcting the empty target run.

$$F = N_{\rm tgt} - C1 * N_{\rm emp} \tag{C.16}$$

Therefore,

$$\Delta N_{\rm frag} = \Delta F \tag{C.17}$$

• C1: coefficient in normalizing target statics

$$\Delta F = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\delta F}{\delta x}\right)^2 (\Delta x)^2 + \left(\frac{\delta F}{\delta y}\right)^2 (\Delta y)^2}$$
(C.18)

$$\frac{\delta F}{\delta x} = 1 \tag{C.19}$$

$$\frac{\delta F}{\delta y} = C1 \tag{C.20}$$

Therefore,

$$\Delta F = \sqrt{(\Delta x)^2 + (\Delta y * C1)^2} \tag{C.21}$$

In the γ -ray spectrum case,

$$\sigma = \frac{N_{\gamma}}{N_{beam}} \frac{A}{tN_A}$$
(C.22)

Therefore,

$$\frac{\Delta\sigma}{\sigma} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta N_{\gamma}}{N_{\gamma}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta\epsilon_{\gamma}}{\epsilon_{\gamma}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta N_B}{N_B}\right)^2} \tag{C.23}$$

$$\Delta N_{\gamma} = \sqrt{(\Delta N^{\text{sta}}_{\gamma})^2 + (\Delta N^{\text{fit}}_{\gamma})^2}$$
(C.24)

- σ : cross section
- N_{γ} : number of the photo-peak number
- ϵ : efficiency of the DALI
- N_B : statics error of the incident beam
- $\Delta N_{\gamma}^{\mathrm{sta}}$: statics error of the photo-peak number
- $\Delta N_{\gamma}^{\rm fit}$: fitting error of the photo-peak spectrum

$$\Delta = \sqrt{\frac{F(A-F)}{A-1}}\sigma_0 \tag{D.1}$$

where

- A: mass number of the projectile
- F: mass number of the fragment
- $\sigma_0^2 = \frac{1}{5} P_F^2$
- Δ : momentum distribution of the fragment

$$<(\sum \mathbf{P}_{i})^{2}>=\sum_{i=1}<\mathbf{P}_{i}^{2}>+\sum_{i\neq j}<\mathbf{P}_{i}\cdot\mathbf{P}_{j}>=A<\mathbf{P}_{i}^{2}>+A(A-1)<\mathbf{P}_{i}\cdot\mathbf{P}_{j}>=0$$
(D.2)

$$\Delta^2 = \langle \mathbf{P}_F^2 \rangle = \langle \sum_{i=1}^F (\mathbf{P}_i)^2 \rangle = F \langle \mathbf{P}_i^2 \rangle + F(F-1) \langle \mathbf{P}_i \cdot \mathbf{P}_j \rangle$$
(D.3)

$$\sqrt{\langle P_F^2 \rangle} = \sqrt{\frac{F(A-F)}{A-1}} \sqrt{\langle P_i^2 \rangle} = \frac{1}{5} P^2{}_0 \sqrt{\frac{F(A-F)}{A-1}} \simeq 90 \sqrt{\frac{F(A-F)}{A-1}} MeV$$
(D.4)

According to the model developed by Goldhaber[3], the width of the parallel momentum width σ in the fragment is the following.

$$\Delta = \sigma_0 \sqrt{\frac{F(A-F)}{A-1}} \tag{D.5}$$

where

• F: mass number of the fragment



Figure D.1: Fragmentation

- A: mass number of the projectile
- Δ : the momentum distribution of the fragment
- P_F: Fermi momentum of nucleon

At relative energies, the momentum distribution of the projectile fragments are well described by Gaussian functions of the form.

$$\frac{d^{3}\sigma}{dP^{3}} = C \exp(-\frac{P_{\perp}^{2}}{2\sigma_{\perp}^{2}}) \exp(-\frac{-(P_{\parallel} - P_{0})^{2}}{2\sigma_{\parallel^{2}}})$$
(D.6)

where C is a normalization constant. The variables P_{\perp} and P_{\parallel} are the fragment momentum in the directions parallel and perpendicular to the beam respectively. The average fragment momentum in the beam direction is P_0 .

The angular distribution of the fragment in the laboratory frame is described in the following by the thesis[10]. The variance of the momentum distributions in the directions parallel and perpendicular to the beam are σ_{\perp}^2 and σ_{\parallel}^2 respectively.

Eq.D.6 can be transformed in the laboratory frame into the double differential cross section.

$$P = \sqrt{2A_F E_F} \tag{D.7}$$

$$P_{\parallel} = P\cos\theta, \ P_{\perp} = P\sin\theta \tag{D.8}$$

$$\frac{d^2\sigma}{dEd\Omega} = N_0(A_F, E_F)^{1/2} \exp(-A_F(\frac{E_F \sin \theta^2}{\sigma_\perp^2} + \frac{E_F \cos \theta^2 - 2(E_F \bar{E})^{1/2} + \bar{E}}{\sigma_{\parallel^2}})) \quad (D.9)$$

where N_0 is a normalization coefficient, E_F its laboratory kinetic energy, \overline{E} its most probable kinetic energy and θ is the laboratory detection angle.

In the condition of the experiment, $\sigma_{\parallel} \simeq \text{constant}$, and $\sin \theta \simeq \theta$, $\cos \theta = 1$ for $\theta \simeq 0$.

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = C_1 \exp\left(-A_F \frac{E_F \theta^2}{2\sigma_\perp^2}\right) \tag{D.10}$$

In the in the thesis[10], σ_0 is 87 MeV/c.

Therefore free parameter is σ_D .

$$\sigma_{\perp}^{2} = \frac{A_{F}(A_{p} - A_{F})}{A_{P} - 1} \sigma_{0}^{2} + \frac{A_{F}(A_{F} - 1)}{A_{P}(A_{P} - 1)} \sigma_{D}^{2}$$
(D.11)

where

- A_P : projectile mass number
- A_F : fragment mass number
- σ_D : deflection of the projectile the nuclear and Coulomb fields of the target prior to fragmentation

D.1 Coulomb dissociation from the Cross-section

To investigate the narrow component, the cross section integrated over the angle in laboratory flame from 1 degrees to 5 degrees in the narrow component and wide component at Pb and Al targets were measured, respectively(see in Table. D.1 and D.2.)

Mass	Pb (wide)	Al(wide)
25	288.9(4.6)	273.3(30.5)
24	282.1(4.7)	273.9(9.2)
23	257.8(7.1)	265.6(7.8)
22	234.7(8.6)	268.0(3.6)

Table D.1: The cross section table for the wide component integrated over angle between 1 and 5 degrees at Pb and Al targets.

Mass	Pb (narrow)	Al Pb(narrow)
25	92.0(2.0)	133.5(14.3
24	88.9(1.6)	122.5(7.7)
23	85.9(2.1)	119.6(17.1)
22	81.(1.9)	60.3(4.2)

Table D.2: The integrated cross section table for the narrow component integrated over angle between 1 and 5 degrees at Pb and Al targets.

By using these cross section of the narrow and wide components, respectively. the following possibilities were considered.

1. $\sigma_{\text{narrow}}/\sigma_{\text{wide}}$ decreases with the neutron for the fragment decrease.?

The energy of the excited states though Coulomb dissociation process is lower than that of the excited states though the nuclear breakup by the limited photon number(see in Fig. 2.4). Thus, the contribution of the Coulomb dissociation is probably decreases with the neutron of the fragment decrease. But this consideration was not enhanced at the Pb target (see in Fig.D.3).



Figure D.2: The σ_{\perp} for the wide component. The solid line is not agreement with GoldHaber model calculation. In the assumption of $\sigma_0=0$, the deflection parameter of $\sigma_d = 96(0.3)$ and 121(15) was calculated at Pb and Al target, respectively.

2. The ratio $\sigma_{\text{narrow at Pb}}/\sigma_{\text{narrow at Al}}$ enhanced (Z_{Pb}/Z_{Al}) as simply model, amplitude of Rutherford scattering?

The narrow component is at the angle between 1 and 2.5 degrees and this component started from 0 degrees. Therefore, the integration for must be calculated from 0 degrees. To check precision of the integrated ratio from 0 degrees for extrapolation, firstly the ratio of wide component cross section was measured. These ratio was compared to the detected angle between 1 and 5 degrees. As a result, these ratio are agreement with each other in Fig. D.4. In the next step, the ratio of narrow component cross section was measured as same procedure. But the large ambiguity was shown in Fig. D.5.



Figure D.3: The figure of the ratio, $\sigma_{narrow}/\sigma_{wide}$. This figure shows that the narrow component between Pb and Al target is symmetric tendency.



Figure D.4: The ratio of $\sigma_{\rm Pb}/\sigma_{\rm Al}$ for wide component at the laboratory region from 1 to 5 degree and extrapolation region from 0 to 5 degree. The ratio of two region is almost same and this shows that the extrapolation is adequacy.



Figure D.5: The table of $\sigma_{\rm Pb}/\sigma_{\rm Al}$ for narrow component between A=22 to A=26. This figure shows that the ratio of the laboratory frame from 1 degrees to 5 degrees and extrapolation frame from 0 degrees to 5 degrees is different from each other. This shows that the ambiguity of the forward angle. The black line is based on the assumption of the simple mode Rutherford scattering. This model is dependent on the charge of target, $\sigma \simeq Z^2_{\rm tgt}$ In the thesis, the problem on the narrow component was not resolved.

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