

Microstructure-Assisted Laser-Driven Photonuclear Pulsed Neutron Source

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A scheme for a high-yield photonuclear pulsed neutron source is proposed by use of a relativistic femtosecond laser interacting with a microstructure target combined with a high-Z converter. By using three-dimensional particle-in-cell and Monte Carlo simulations, we find that bright γ rays are emitted by bremsstrahlung radiation when energetic dense electron bunches pulled out from the microstructure target pass through the converter. A large number of neutrons are thus induced via photonuclear reactions. With a laser of intensity of approximately $3.4 \times 10^{21} \text{ W/cm}^2$ and energy of approximately 6.2 J, a neutron pulse of yield as high as $1.9 \times 10^8 \text{ J}^{-1}$ and duration of approximately 45 ps can be obtained. This scheme could be realized in laboratories with current multipetawatt laser facilities.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The development of a tabletop particle accelerator [1,2] based on ultrahigh-power ultrashort laser pulse has opened a window for exploring alternative neutron-production techniques [3–9]. Compared with traditional neutron sources, laser-driven neutron sources have the advantages of small spot size, short duration, and high brightness [3,8]. These features are favored by many applications, such as fast-neutron resonance radiography [10], nuclear medicine [11], and neutron scattering [12]. There are two main laser-based methods of pulsed neutron production: beam-target fusion [3–5] and photonuclear reaction [6–9]. In general, the beam-target neutron source has higher neutron yield and energy as well as better direction [3]. However, the pulse duration of fusion neutrons is usually a few hundred picoseconds [8]. In contrast, it is easier to achieve a pulse duration as short as tens of picoseconds for photoneutrons [8], which is beneficial for high time resolution in neutron imaging. Furthermore, the photoneutron energy is typically determined by the gaps between the energy levels of the initial nucleus and the final nucleus [13]. The neutron spectrum usually exhibits a stable structure with energy ranging from kiloelectronvolts (keV) to megaelectronvolts (MeV), which is independent of the effective temperature of γ photons and depends only on the material properties [14]. The photonuclear pulsed neutron source is therefore suitable for some special applications, such as a neutron detector [15] and nuclear-cross-section measurement [16].

The number and temperature of hot electrons are of great importance for obtaining high-yield photonuclear neutrons. For a high-Z converter material, the cross section of the photonuclear reaction usually peaks at a photon energy on the order of a dozen MeV [17]. This requires that a large number of hot electrons can be accelerated to a reasonably high temperature. Laser wakefield acceleration [18] is an effective way to accelerate the negatively charged electrons to energies of hundreds of MeV or even GeV. Unfortunately, the total electric charge in laser wakefield acceleration is very small due to the low initial plasma density. The attainable neutron yield per joule of laser energy N_n/ε_L is thus limited to approximately 10^6 J^{-1} in experiments [9], where ε_L is the laser energy. The ultraintense laser interacting with a solid target allows efficient coupling of energy from the laser to relativistic hot electrons with a higher number density via $J \times B$ heating [19] or other mechanisms [20]. A recent experiment demonstrated that N_n/ε_L can be as high as approximately 10^7 J^{-1} , which is the experimental record for laser-driven photonuclear neutrons reported to date [8]. However, great increase of the achievable neutron yield remains a challenging endeavor since the laser beam is strongly reflected by the front surface of the target, especially for an ultra-short, ultraintense (USUI) laser pulse interacting with a flat target structure. Recently, microscale surface structures have attracted much interest to increase the energy-conversion efficiencies in acceleration of electrons [21,22], ions [23,24], and positrons [25] as well as the production of x-ray or γ -ray radiation [26,27]. For instance, three-dimensional printed microtube or micropillar targets with a length of more than $10 \mu\text{m}$ and inner diameters of several microns have been applied in experiments to enhance

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charged-particle acceleration [21,28] and achieve extreme pressure conditions [29], respectively.

In this paper, we propose an efficient scheme for generating a high-yield photonuclear pulsed neutron source via the interaction of an ultraintense femtosecond laser pulse with a microstructure target (MST). The setup is illustrated in Fig. 1. The MST is a solid planar end plate with a fabricated micron-scale metal wire array. Simulation results show the forward hot electrons generated from the MST have higher energy, temperature and laser-to-electron energy conversion efficiency compared with those generated from a planar geometry. When these electrons shoot into the subsequent high- Z converter, bright γ rays with high temperature are emitted by bremsstrahlung radiation. A large number of neutrons are then induced from the interaction of these photons with their surrounding heavy nuclei. For the optimal MST parameters, we find that N_n/ε_L is as high as approximately 10^8 J^{-1} and the pulse duration is approximately 45 ps.

II. MODEL AND SIMULATION PARAMETERS

To explore the dynamics of the electrons generated in the MST, we first perform numerical simulations with the three-dimensional particle-in-cell (PIC) code EPOCH [30]. The simulation box size is $x \times y \times z = 50\lambda_0 \times 12\lambda_0 \times 12\lambda_0$, with 32 cells per λ_0 , where $\lambda_0 = 0.8 \mu\text{m}$ is the laser wavelength. Each cell has 35 macroparticles. The cylindrical Cu wires, of length $L_0 = 10\lambda_0$, radius $r_0 = 0.2\lambda_0$, and transverse interval between the central axes of the adjacent wires $d_0 = 1.9\lambda_0$, are located between $x_0 = 5\lambda_0$ and $x_1 = 15\lambda_0$. A Cu end plate of thickness $L_1 = 1.0\lambda_0$ is used to support the metal wires, and is attached directly to the wire array. The MST is assumed to be a preionized Cu⁵⁺ plasma with density $n_e = 5n_i = 200n_c$, where $n_c = m_e\omega_0^2/4\pi e^2$ is the critical plasma density, where ω_0 is the laser frequency and e and m_e are the electron charge

and rest mass, respectively. A p -polarized laser pulse is focused on the front surface of the wires and is normally incident into the MST. The amplitude profile of the laser pulse is given by $a = a_0 \sin^2(\pi t/2\tau_0) \exp[-(r/\sigma_0)^2]$, where the normalized laser amplitude $a_0 = eE_L/m_e\omega_0 c = 40$, where E_L is the laser electric field and c is the speed of light in a vacuum. The focal spot radius $\sigma_0 = 3\lambda_0$ and the pulse duration $\tau_0 = 10T_0$, where $T_0 = 2.67 \text{ fs}$ is the laser period. This corresponds to a laser intensity of approximately $3.4 \times 10^{21} \text{ W/cm}^2$, power of approximately 0.31 PW, and total energy $\varepsilon_L \approx 6.2 \text{ J}$. For comparison, we also simulate the planar-target (PT) case with the same laser parameters. We emphasize that the collision process is not considered in our PIC simulations since the plasmas will be heated to a high temperature of several MeVs or more in a very short time for relativistic femtosecond-laser–plasma interaction. The collision cross section is therefore very low, so physical collisional heating is negligible [31].

We then use the Monte Carlo (MC) code FLUKA [32] to investigate the γ -photon and photoneutron generation. The converter is composed of the high- Z metal Ta of thickness $L_2 = 2 \text{ cm}$ and transverse size $4 \times 4 \text{ cm}^2 = 16 \text{ cm}^2$. Ta material is chosen due to its large photonuclear reaction cross section. In the MC simulation, the laser-accelerated electron beam can be regarded as a point source since its spatial size (on the micron scale) is much smaller than that of the converter. When the electron energy and angular distributions from the PIC simulation are input into the MC simulation, a large number of random samples (here 5×10^5) are used to reproduce their distributions and calculate the averaged probability of neutron production. The distance ΔL between the MST and the converter will affect the electron distribution and final photoneutron generation. In Fig. 1, the MST and high- Z converter are separated only to show the whole physical process clearly. Actually, the electron source is initially located at the front surface of the converter (i.e., $\Delta L = 0$).

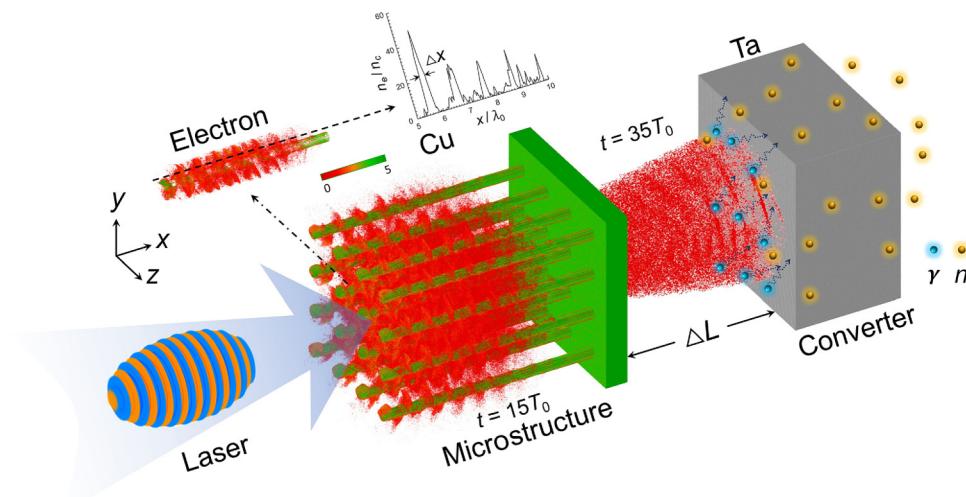


FIG. 1. The proposed scheme for high-yield photonuclear neutron generation. A relativistic femtosecond laser pulse irradiates a Cu wire-array MST combined with a high- Z Ta converter normally (not to scale). The density profiles $\ln(n_e/n_c)$ of the wire electrons at $t = 15T_0$ (before $x = 15\lambda_0$) and at $t = 35T_0$ (after $x = 16\lambda_0$) obtained from PIC simulation are also shown. The inset at the top gives the appearance of a particular wire within the laser focal spot and the axial profile of the electron bunch along the $y = 0.4\lambda_0$ and $z = -0.95\lambda_0$ direction.

The above laser-target parameters are used in Secs. III A and III B. In Sec. III C, to investigate the dependence of the electron temperature $k_B T_e$ (where k_B is the Boltzmann constant), photon temperature $k_B T_\gamma$, and neutron yield N_n on the laser intensity, only a_0 is changed, while all the other parameters remain unchanged. For the influence of the wire size and plasma density in Sec. III D, the laser amplitude is fixed at $a_0 = 40$. We then vary one of the parameters in turn, and other parameters are the same as in Secs. III A and III B.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Acceleration of dense electron bunches

For the MST, the distributions of the electron density at $t = 15T_0$ and the transverse electric field E_y of the laser at $t = 20T_0$ are shown in Fig. 1 and Figs. 2(a) and 2(b), respectively. One can see that many dense electron bunches are pulled out by the transverse electric field of the p -polarized laser pulse enfolding the metal wires. This phenomenon is consistent with previous results regarding a relativistic laser interacting with microtube or micropillar targets [23,33–37], and originates from the breaking of stimulated Langmuir oscillation for sufficiently large laser amplitudes [38]. For the highest-density peak, the width of the laminar electron layer $\Delta x \approx 0.2 \mu\text{m}$ [full width at half maximum (FWHM)], corresponding to a duration $\Delta t \approx \Delta x/c \approx 670 \text{ as}$. Usually, attosecond dense electron

layers are generated from the left tip of the wires and are then accelerated forward [37]. The entire temporal width of the electron bunches τ_e should thus be comparable to that of the laser pulse; that is, $\tau_e \approx 2\tau_0 = 20T_0$. The magnitude of transverse electric field remains almost unchanged, suggesting that the amplification effect of the laser amplitude from the nonlinear focusing of light in the hollow plasma channels is not significant. The channels between the adjacent wires can be regarded as rectangular plasma waveguides. Thus, the transverse magnetic (TM) mode of the waveguide will be excited as the laser pulse is passing through the channels [39]. We find that some of these pulled-out electrons can be trapped in the longitudinal electric field E_x^{TM} of TM modes, as shown in Figs. 2(d) and 2(e). They can be synergistically accelerated forward by this field as well as the laser ponderomotive force. Figures 2(c) and 2(f) show the phase-space distributions of the transverse electron momentum p_y and longitudinal electron momentum p_x at $t = 25T_0$. We see that p_x is much greater than p_y , indicating that the longitudinal electron acceleration is more dominant. The maximum longitudinal momentum $p_{x,\max}$ of hot electrons for the MST can be approximated by [23,35]

$$p_{x,\max} = \begin{cases} a_0^2 m_e c / 2 + e \langle E_x^{\text{TM}} \rangle t_a & (a_0 < a_{\text{cr}}), \\ \left(a_0 / \sqrt{v_{\text{ph}}^2 / c^2 - 1} \right) m_e c + e \langle E_x^{\text{TM}} \rangle t_a & (a_0 \geq a_{\text{cr}}), \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

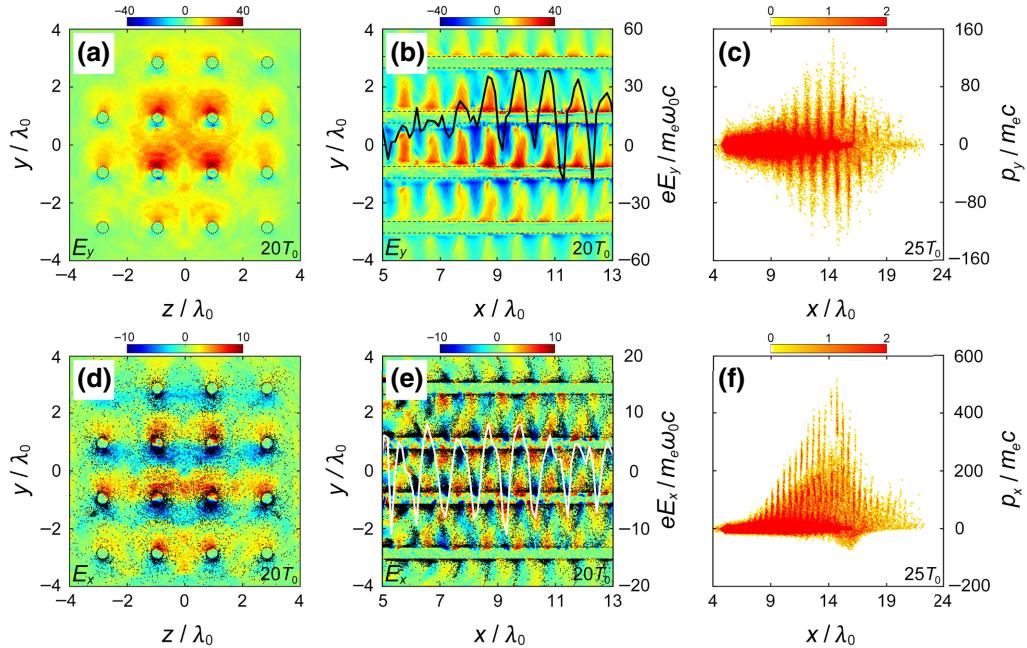


FIG. 2. Distributions of the (a),(b) transverse and (d),(e) longitudinal electric fields at $t = 20T_0$ for the MST case along (a),(d) the cross section at $x = 9.75\lambda_0$ and (b),(e) the longitudinal section at $z = -0.95\lambda_0$. The dashed black lines mark the outer edges of the Cu wires. The black and white curves in (b),(e) (corresponding to the right y axes) are the axial profiles along the $y = -0.7\lambda_0$ and $z = -0.95\lambda_0$ direction. The black dots in (d),(e) represent typical trapped electrons. The (c) transverse and (f) longitudinal momenta of the electrons pulled out from Cu wires by the laser at $t = 25T_0$. Here, all the electric fields and momenta are normalized by $E_0 = m_e\omega_0c/e$ and $p_0 = m_ec$, respectively.

where $E_x^{\text{TM}} \approx E_L / [4(d_0 - 2r_0)^2 / \lambda_0^2 - 1]^{1/2}$, $\langle E_x^{\text{TM}} \rangle \approx E_x^{\text{TM}} / 2$ is the averaged longitudinal electric field, and $t_a = \min(L_0/c, t_d)$ and $t_d = 2\lambda_0 / (v_{\text{ph}} - c)$ are the acceleration and dephasing times, respectively. Here, $a_{\text{cr}} = [2c / (v_{\text{ph}} - c)]^{1/2}$ is the threshold amplitude above which the effect of the phase velocity, $v_{\text{ph}} \approx [1 + \lambda_0^2 / 8(d_0 - 2r_0)^2] c$, exceeding c should be taken into account. Taking $a_0 = 40$, $L_0 = 10\lambda_0$, $d_0 = 1.9\lambda_0$, and $r_0 = 0.2\lambda_0$, we obtain $p_{x,\text{max}} = 560m_ec$, which fits well with Fig. 2(f).

At $t = 35T_0$, most of the energetic electrons have penetrated through the attached end plate (shown in Fig. 1) and are therefore responsible for inducing the following γ -photon generation and photoneutron generation. Thus, we need to consider only the hot electrons behind the target ($x > 16\lambda_0$) with longitudinal momenta $p_x > 0$. Their spectra dN_e/dE_e are shown in Fig. 3(a), which shows that the electron temperature $k_B T_e$ and maximum energy $E_{e,\text{max}}$ are as high as 22.5 and 200 MeV, respectively, in the MST case. They are much greater than in the PT case due to effective electron acceleration in the plasma waveguide. Figure 3(b) presents the efficiency of energy conversion η_e from the laser to electrons with energies higher than a certain threshold E_p . For different E_p values, we see that

all the η_e values for the MST case are much higher than the values for the PT case. In particular, about 10.5% of laser energy is delivered to electrons of energy higher than $E_p = 25$ MeV with use of the microstructure. In contrast, η_e is close to 0 for the PT case. We also measure the efficiency of energy conversion from the laser to all the particles (i.e., total laser absorption rate η_l) for both cases. It is found that η_l for the MST case is about 76%, which is 1 order of magnitude higher than 7% for the PT case. We emphasize that η_l for the PT case is much lower than that in Ref. [40]. This is because for an USUI laser pulse the electrons cannot receive all the energy from the ponderomotive potential of the laser [23].

B. Generation of γ photons and photonuclear neutrons

Figure 3(c) shows the spectra of photons from MC simulations for both cases. We can see that a large number of γ photons are emitted by bremsstrahlung radiation for the MST. The photon temperature $k_B T_\gamma = 16$ MeV is far greater than the 1.3 MeV in the PT case. The highest efficiency of energy conversion from the laser to γ photons η_γ is about 2.5%. Synchrotron photons are also produced in the process of the laser interacting with the MST. However,

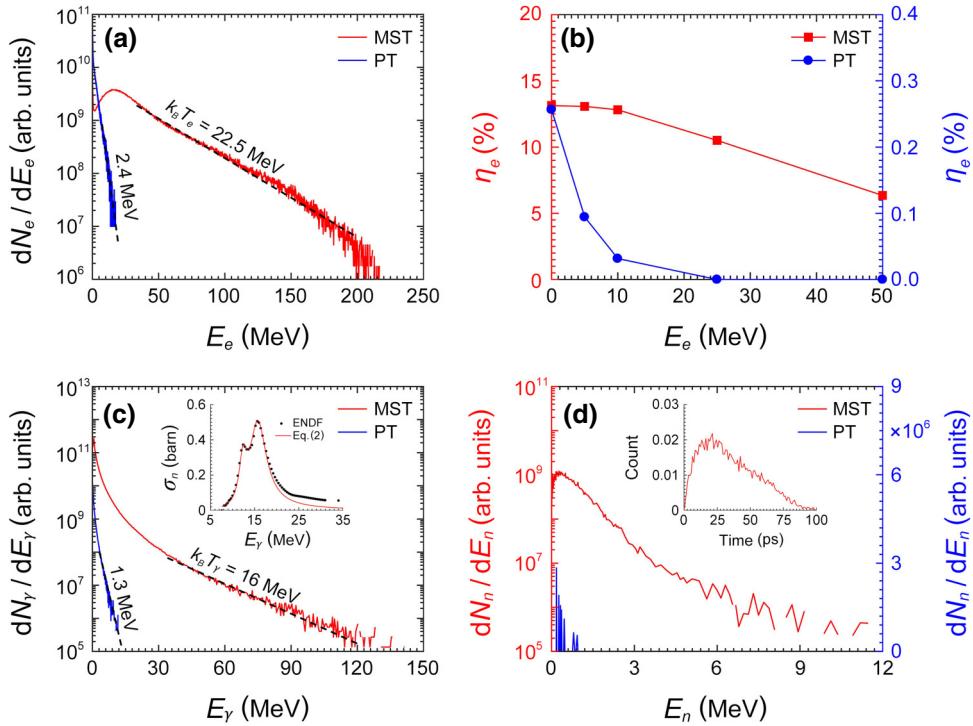


FIG. 3. Spectra of (a) electrons, (c) photons, and (d) neutrons as well as (b) the laser-to-electron energy-conversion efficiency η_e for electrons with energy higher than a certain threshold $E_p = 0, 5, 10, 25$, and 50 MeV for the MST case (red line) and the PT case (blue line). The blue curves in (b),(d) refer to the right y axes. The inset in (c) shows the photonuclear cross section in Ta material, and the black dots and the red line correspond to Evaluated Nuclear Data File data [41] and Eq. (2), respectively. The inset in (d) gives the temporal evolution of the normalized neutron number. Here, the electrons in (a),(b) are behind the target ($x > 16\lambda_0$) and have positive longitudinal momenta ($p_x > 0$). The black lines around the curves in (a),(c) label the electron and photon temperatures, and the time chosen corresponds to their highest values.

these photons are concentrated mainly in the x-ray waveband (i.e., the photon energy $E_\gamma < 1$ MeV) when the laser intensity is less than 10^{22} W/cm² (i.e., $a_0 < 70$) [26]. Their influence for photoneutron generation is therefore negligible since the threshold energy of photons for photonuclear reaction $E_{\gamma,\text{th}}$ is greater than 7 MeV, as presented in the inset in Fig. 3(c). In the semiclassical theory of the interaction between photons and nuclei, the shape of the photonuclear cross section σ_n consists of the superposition of the Lorentz curves [17]:

$$\sigma_n(E_\gamma) = \sum_i \frac{\sigma_{n,\text{max},i}}{1 + (E_\gamma^2 - E_{m,i}^2)/E_\gamma^2 \Gamma_i^2} (E_\gamma > E_{\gamma,\text{th}}), \quad (2)$$

where $E_{m,i}$ is the photon energy corresponding to the peak photonuclear cross section $\sigma_{n,\text{max},i}$ and Γ_i is the FWHM of the Lorentz curve. These variables in Eq. (2) can be acquired by comparison with the Evaluated Nuclear Data File [41]. For Ta material, there are typically two peak photonuclear cross sections (i.e., $i = 2$). We then obtain $E_{m,1} = 12.4$ MeV, $\sigma_{n,\text{max},1} = 0.25$ b, and $\Gamma_1 = 2.2$ MeV and $E_{m,2} = 15.8$ MeV, $\sigma_{n,\text{max},2} = 0.48$ b, and $\Gamma_2 = 4.5$ MeV. Note that $k_B T_\gamma = 16$ MeV for the MST is very close to the optimal photon energy $E_m = 15.6$ MeV for the maximum $\sigma_{n,\text{max}}$ in Ta material [also see the inset in Fig. 3(c)]. As a result, more neutrons are generated with a pulse duration of 45 ps FWHM, as shown in the inset in Fig. 3(d). For the MST, the neutron yield N_n is as high as 1.2×10^9 , which is increased by about 4 orders of magnitude compared with the PT case. We note that $N_n = 1.2 \times 10^9$ is only for the situation with $\Delta L = 0$. We also simulate the cases of different ΔL and find that N_n is only slightly decreased when ΔL is less than 0.1 cm ($N_n \approx 1.15 \times 10^9$ at $\Delta L = 0.1$ cm). However, it begins to decrease significantly as ΔL becomes larger (e.g., $N_n \approx 1 \times 10^8$ at $\Delta L = 10$ cm). Therefore, the optimal position for the converter is behind the Cu end plate (i.e., $\Delta L = 0$) to maximize the neutron yield.

For the MST, the accumulated fluences of electrons, photons, and neutrons projected on the x -o- y plane throughout the neutron-generation process are shown in Fig. 4. The fluence distributions of three species of particles show a candle-flame-like appearance. Most of the photons and neutrons are produced at the center of the flame. Their number density gradually decreases with increasing depth and radial distance from the $y = 0$ axis.

C. Scaling laws for the electron and photon temperatures, and neutron yield

We now examine the dependence of $k_B T_e$ and $k_B T_\gamma$ on a_0 since N_n is closely related to the properties of hot electrons and photons. Figure 5(a) shows that $k_B T_e$ scales as a_0 for both cases. Even for an USUI laser pulse, $k_B T_e$ (approximately equal to $0.56a_0$ MeV) in the MST case is still

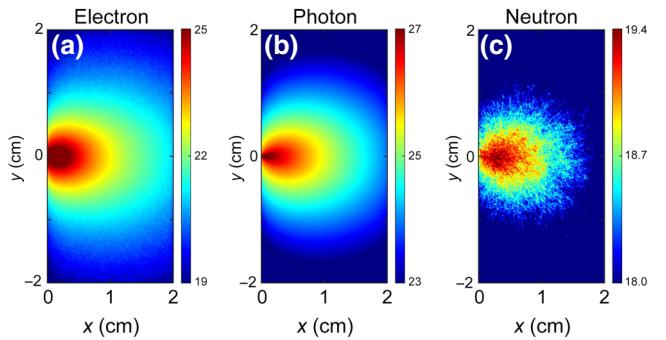


FIG. 4. The accumulated fluences (logarithmic scale) of (a) electrons, (b) photons, and (c) neutrons projected on the x -o- y plane from MC simulation for the MST.

greater than Wilks's ponderomotive scaling $k_B T_e/m_e c^2 = (1 + a_0^2)^{1/2} - 1$ [42] and Kluge's scaling $k_B T_e/m_e c^2 = 2\pi/\int_0^{2\pi} (1 + a_0^2 \sin^2 \omega_0 t)^{-1/2} dt - 1$ [43]. It is increased by almost 1 order of magnitude compared with $k_B T_e \approx 0.06a_0$ MeV in the PT case. Note that $k_B T_e \approx 0.06a_0$ MeV for the PT case agrees well with Beg's experimental fitting result $k_B T_e/m_e c^2 = 0.47a_0^{2/3}$ [44] and Haines's relativistic model $k_B T_e/m_e c^2 = (1 + 2^{1/2}a_0)^{1/2} - 1$ [45] due to inefficient laser-to-target energy coupling for an USUI laser pulse [23,35,45]. For the γ photons, $k_B T_\gamma$ also varies linearly with increasing a_0 for both cases and is slightly lower than $k_B T_e$ due to the energy loss in the inelastic collision of particles. Benefiting from a significant increase of $k_B T_e$, we find that $k_B T_\gamma \approx 0.38a_0$ MeV for the MST case is much greater than $k_B T_\gamma \approx 0.02a_0$ MeV for the PT case. Differently from the linear relationship in Fig. 5(a), we see that N_n grows exponentially with a_0 . However, N_n/ε_L gradually becomes saturated at approximately 10^8 J⁻¹ or even declines slightly when $a_0 \geq 50$. This is because there is an optimal photonuclear reaction cross section for Ta material. For $a_0 \approx 50$, $k_B T_e$ and $k_B T_\gamma$ are closer to their optimal values for neutron generation.

The accurate evaluation for N_n depends on the entire electron-photon cascade and photon-matter interaction. In the following, we establish a simple theoretical model to estimate N_n in a convenient way. We assume that the electrons directly release relatively few neutrons and most of the neutrons are produced in the interaction between photons and nuclei [6]. The approximate expression for the integrated-over-angle bremsstrahlung cross section is [46]

$$\frac{d\sigma_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} = \alpha Z^2 \left(\frac{1}{E_\gamma} - \frac{\beta}{E_e} \right), \quad (3)$$

where $\alpha \approx 0.011$ b and $\beta \approx 0.83$ is a fitting constant based on the results of Seltzer and Berger [47]. By integrating Eq. (3) over dN_e/dE_e , we can obtain the spectral

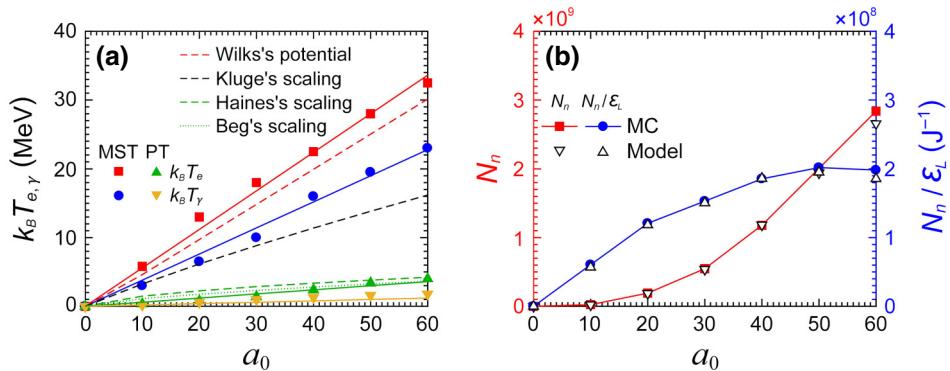


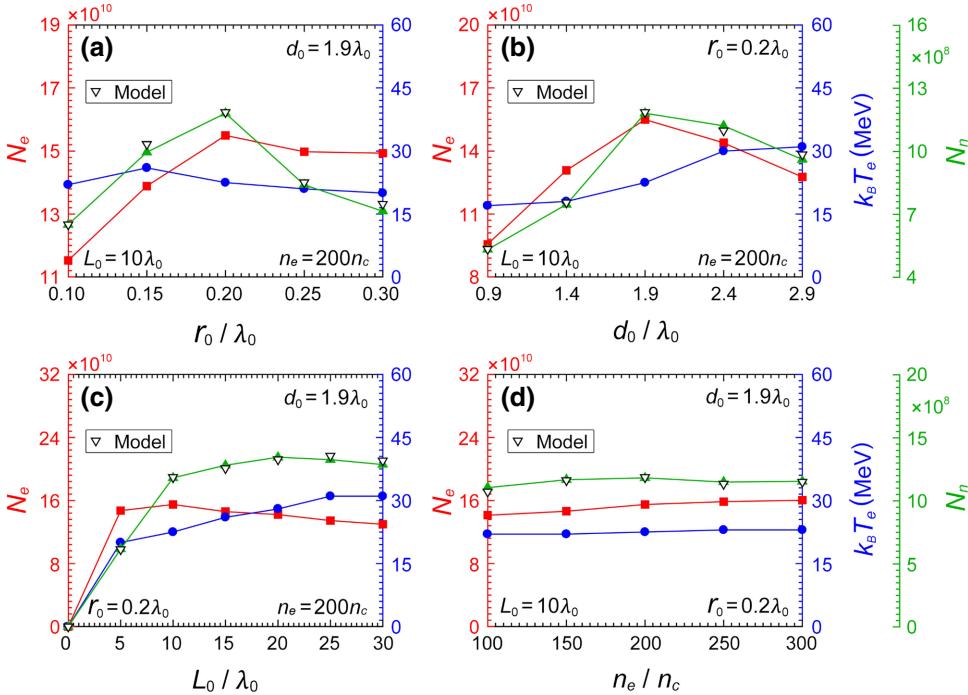
FIG. 5. (a) The highest electron (MST, red squares; PT, green triangles) and photon (MST, blue circles; PT, yellow triangles) temperatures for both cases versus laser amplitude a_0 . The solid lines are the fitting results. For comparison, several existing scaling laws for $k_B T_e$ for the laser-PT interaction are given, including Wilks's scaling (dashed red line) [42], Kluge's scaling (dashed black line) [43], Beg's empirical formula (dotted green line) [44], and Haines's model (dashed green line) [45]. (b) The neutron yield N_n (red squares) and the neutron yield per unit of laser energy N_n / ϵ_L (blue circles, corresponding to the right y axis) for the MST versus laser amplitude a_0 from MC simulations. The hollow black triangles represent the estimated results from the analytical model.

distribution of photons as

$$\frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} = n_a l \int_{E_\gamma}^{E_{e,\max}} \frac{d\sigma_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} \frac{dN_e}{dE_e} dE_e, \quad (4)$$

where n_a and l are the atomic density and thickness of the converter, and $E_{e,\max}$ and dN_e/dE_e are obtained from PIC simulation. After integrating Eq. (2) over dN_γ/dE_γ , we obtain

$$N_n = \zeta n_a l \int_{E_{\gamma,\text{th}}}^{E_{\gamma,\max}} \sigma_n \frac{dN_\gamma}{dE_\gamma} dE_\gamma, \quad (5)$$



where $E_{\gamma,\max}$ is the maximum photon energy. ζ (here approximately 0.72 for Ta material) is a correction coefficient that takes into account other effects, such as photoelectric absorption [48] and positron generation [25], competing with neutron generation, and is usually less than 1. The above estimation is valid only for a thin converter with thickness far below the average range of electrons in the material and thus the energy loss in the stopping process is ignored. In general, the Ta target is a few centimeters thick to maximize N_n , and thus the energy loss of hot electrons should be taken into account. For large thickness, the converter can be divided into s equal layers,

FIG. 6. The number N_e (red squares) and temperature $k_B T_e$ (blue circles) of the electrons, and neutron yield N_n (green triangles) for the MST as a function of (a) the radius r_0 , (b) the transverse interval d_0 , (c) the length L_0 , and (d) the initial electron density n_e of the Cu wires. The electrons counted in the simulations are behind the target and have positive longitudinal momenta. The solid and hollow symbols correspond to simulations and the analytical model, respectively.

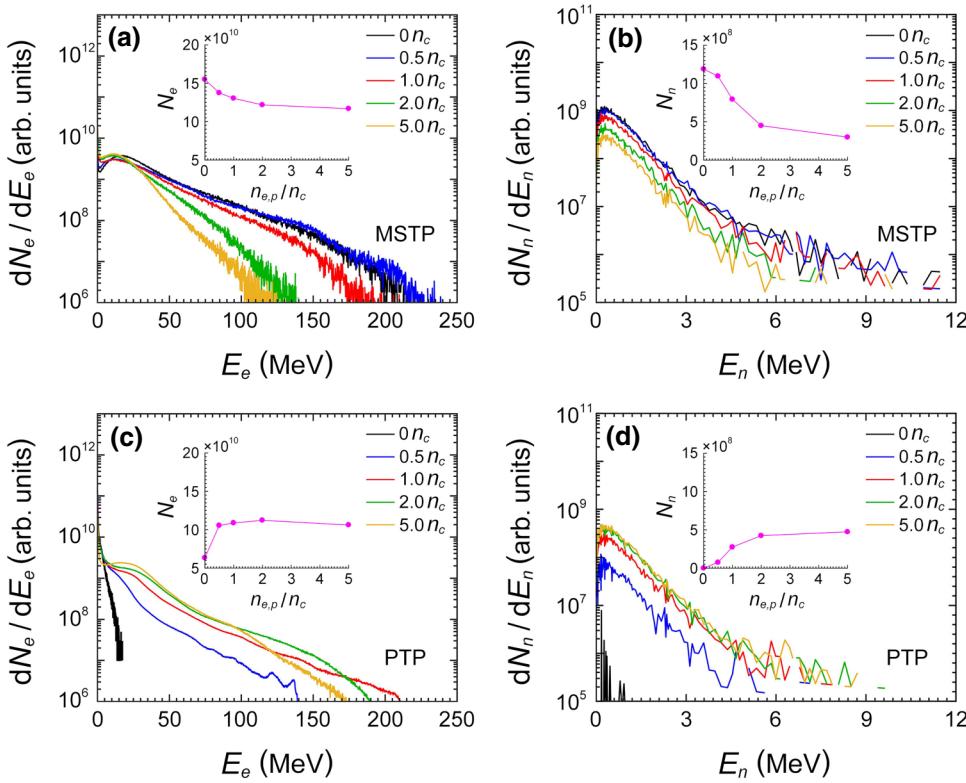


FIG. 7. Spectra of (a),(c) electrons that are behind the target and have positive longitudinal momenta and (b),(d) neutrons at different preplasma densities $n_{e,p}$ for the MSTP and PTP cases. The moment chosen in (a),(c) corresponds to that for the highest electron temperature. The insets in (a)–(d) (pink circles and curves) show the dependence of the electron number and neutron yield as a function of the normalized preplasma density $n_{e,p}/n_c$.

and the thickness of each thin layer $\Delta l = l/s$. The electron spectrum in the i th layer $dN_{e,i}/dE_{e,i}$ is then obtained with the initial dN_e/dE_e and the stopping power dE_e/dx of electrons in the converter material [49]. Thus, the photon spectrum of bremsstrahlung radiation $dN_{\gamma,i}/dE_{\gamma,i}$ in the i th layer can be given by use of Δl to replace l in Eq. (4), giving

$$\frac{dN_{\gamma,i}}{dE_{\gamma,i}} = n_a \Delta l \int_{E_{\gamma,i}}^{E_{\gamma,i,\max}} \frac{d\sigma_\gamma}{dE_{\gamma,i}} \frac{dN_{e,i}}{dE_{e,i}} dE_{e,i}. \quad (6)$$

The total neutron yield can therefore be rewritten as

$$N_n = \sum_i N_{n,i} = \sum_i \zeta n_a (l - i\Delta l) \int_{E_{\gamma,\text{th}}}^{E_{\gamma,i,\max}} \sigma_n \frac{dN_{\gamma,i}}{dE_{\gamma,i}} dE_{\gamma,i}, \quad (7)$$

where $N_{n,i}$ and $l - i\Delta l$ are the corresponding neutron yield and the path length of the photons in the i th layer, respectively. For a Ta converter, $Z = 73$ and $n_a \approx 5.5 \times 10^{22} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, we can obtain the final N_n and N_n/ε_L according to Eq. (7). The hollow symbols in Fig. 5(b) show the analytical results, which are in good accordance with the results of the MC simulations.

D. Parametric effect

The parameters of the microplasma wires play a crucial role in the electron acceleration and subsequent neutron

generation. Figure 6 shows the influence of r_0 , d_0 , L_0 , and n_e on N_e , $k_B T_e$, and N_n . One can see that to provide more electrons and reduce light reflection, the optimal radius $r_0 \approx 0.2\lambda_0$ for the highest N_e is only a few times the skin depth ($l_s \approx 0.07\lambda_0$), as shown in Fig. 6(a). $k_B T_e$ (approximately 22.5 MeV) at $r_0 = 0.2\lambda_0$ is not the highest, but it corresponds to the optimal $k_B T_\gamma$ (approximately 15.6 MeV), as seen in Figs. 3(a) and 3(c). This will result in the highest N_n at $r_0 = 0.2\lambda_0$. For given r_0 , Fig. 6(b) indicates that there also exists an optimal d_0 . This is because the blocking effect will occur if $d_0 \leq 2\lambda_0$; conversely, E_y at the wire surfaces is not great enough to pull out sufficient electrons when d_0 is too large [39]. We see that the most neutrons are produced at $d_0 = 1.9\lambda_0$ since a large number of electrons with $k_B T_e = 22.5$ MeV are generated in the interaction process. Note that d_0 for the highest $k_B T_e$ is larger than $1.9\lambda_0$, which is different from that for the optimal N_e . This is because the electrons are easier to accelerate to higher energies when fewer electrons are trapped in the E_x^{TM} field of TM modes. This phenomenon is similar to the beam-loading effect in laser wakefield acceleration of electrons [1]. In addition to r_0 and d_0 , L_0 is also of great importance for electron acceleration and neutron generation. To obtain greater t_a , the wire should be of sufficient length since t_d is usually much greater than L_0/c for small d_0 [23]. Figure 6(c) shows that L_0 is at least $10\lambda_0$ when $r_0 = 0.2\lambda_0$ and $d_0 = 1.9\lambda_0$. With increasing L_0 , we find that N_e , $k_B T_e$, and N_n grow slowly because of the nearly depleted laser energy. Furthermore, we also notice

that N_e is slightly reduced, which is because many of the electrons with low energies counted in our simulation are actually from the Cu end plate. For greater L_0 , almost all the laser energy is used to pull out and accelerate the wire electrons, resulting in less energy impacting on the end plate. Besides, we also simulate the case of different n_e values, and the results show that N_e , $k_B T_e$, and N_n remain nearly unchanged, as shown in Fig. 6(d). This is because, for given a_0 , l_s (proportional to $1/\sqrt{n_e}$) becomes larger as n_e decreases; conversely, l_s is smaller for higher n_e . The total number of electrons pulled out from the skin layer is almost comparable for different n_e values.

Actually, a preplasma can be formed between these Cu wires when the laser prepulse or amplified spontaneous emission interacts with the MST. To explore the effect of a preplasma on N_n , we perform simulations with uniform preplasmas of different densities filling the gaps between the wires [i.e., the MST-with-preplasma (MSTP) case]. Figures 7(a) and 7(b) show the spectra of electrons and neutrons at five preplasma densities of $n_{e,p} = 0$, $0.5n_c$, $1.0n_c$, $2.0n_c$, and $5.0n_c$. We note that the influence of the preplasma on electron generation and neutron generation is negligible if $n_{e,p} < 2n_c$. However, for higher $n_{e,p}$, electron generation is obviously suppressed because more laser energy is consumed in the preplasma and thus cannot be fully used to pull out and accelerate dense electron bunches. This results in a decrease of N_n since photoneutron generation depends on N_e and $k_B T_e$. For comparison, we also simulate the case of a planar target with a preplasma (PTP), as shown in Figs. 7(c) and 7(d). The preplasma before the PT is of length $10\lambda_0$, which is the same as L_0 in the MSTP case. One can see that N_e and N_n for the MSTP case are much greater than in the PTP case when $n_{e,p} < 2n_c$. However, they will be comparable with increasing $n_{e,p}$ because the betatron resonant absorption begins to dominate the electron-heating process for the PTP case [50,51]. Usually, $n_{e,p}$ is relatively low for an USUI laser pulse with high contrast [52]. The MST is therefore beneficial for hot-electron generation and neutron generation. For experiments, it is important to keep the wires intact, which requires that the laser contrast is at least 10^{10} , as shown in recent experiments [21,24,29,53–55]. Fortunately, an USUI laser pulse of intensity greater than 10^{20} W/cm² and contrast up to 10^{12} is available [29]. Our proposed scheme should be realizable in the laboratory with existing technology.

IV. CONCLUSION

In summary, we propose a highly efficient scheme for producing a photonuclear pulsed neutron source by irradiating a microstructure target with an ultraintense femtosecond laser pulses combined with a high-Z converter. The interaction process is investigated by three-dimensional PIC and MC simulations. It is found that the transverse

electric field of the laser can pull out dense electron bunches from the wires. These electrons can be synergistically accelerated forward by the ponderomotive force of the laser and the longitudinal electric field of the excited TM modes between the adjacent wires. When they pass through the subsequent high-Z converter, a large number of photons and neutrons are generated by bremsstrahlung radiation and photonuclear reaction, respectively. For optimized microstructure parameters, the neutron yield per joule of laser energy is as high as approximately 2×10^8 J⁻¹ and the pulse duration is as short as approximately 45 ps. This yield is almost 1 order of magnitude higher than the record 1.1×10^7 J⁻¹ for a laser-driven photonuclear neutron source reported to date. A simple analytical model is established to predict the neutron yield, which is fairly consistent with the simulation result. Our scheme offers a relatively simple route to produce high-yield neutrons for applications such as fast-neutron resonance radiography, neutron therapy, and fusion-material research.

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