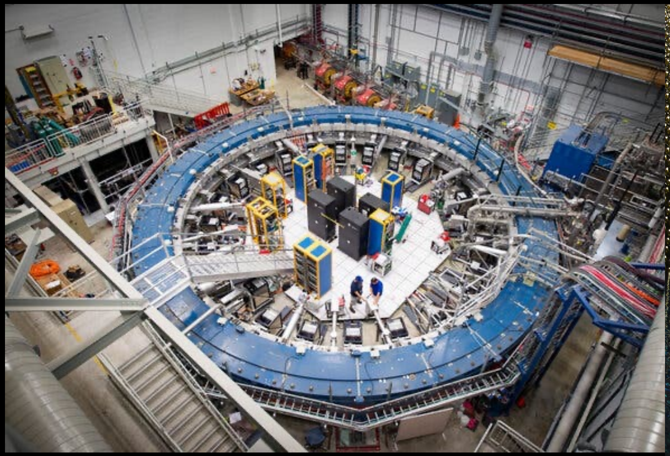
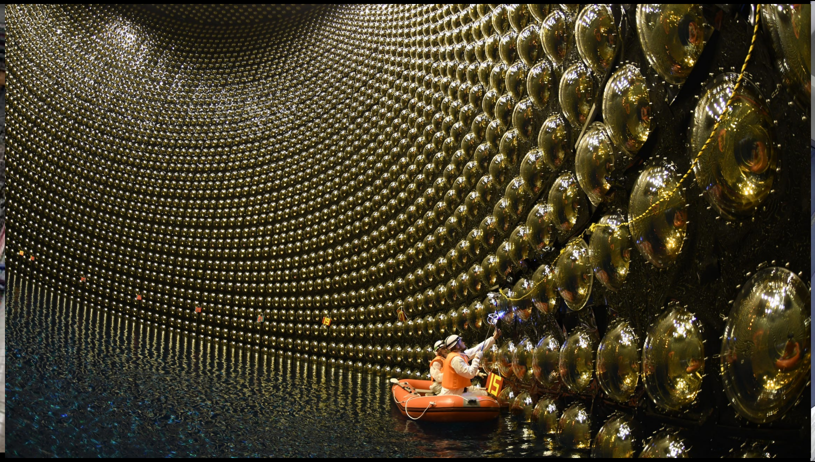
Detector Technologies

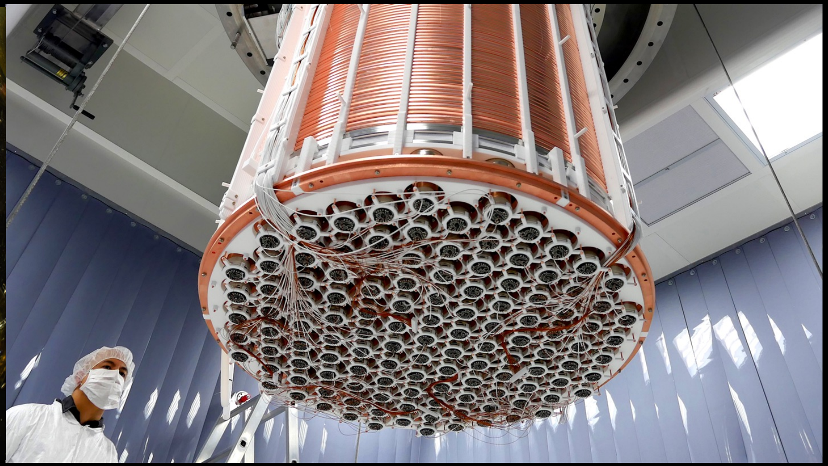
Daniela Bortoletto

Road path to the instrumentation lectures

- Why instrumentation is important ?
- Introduction on how we detect particles
- Note that experiments can be very different according to their physics focus

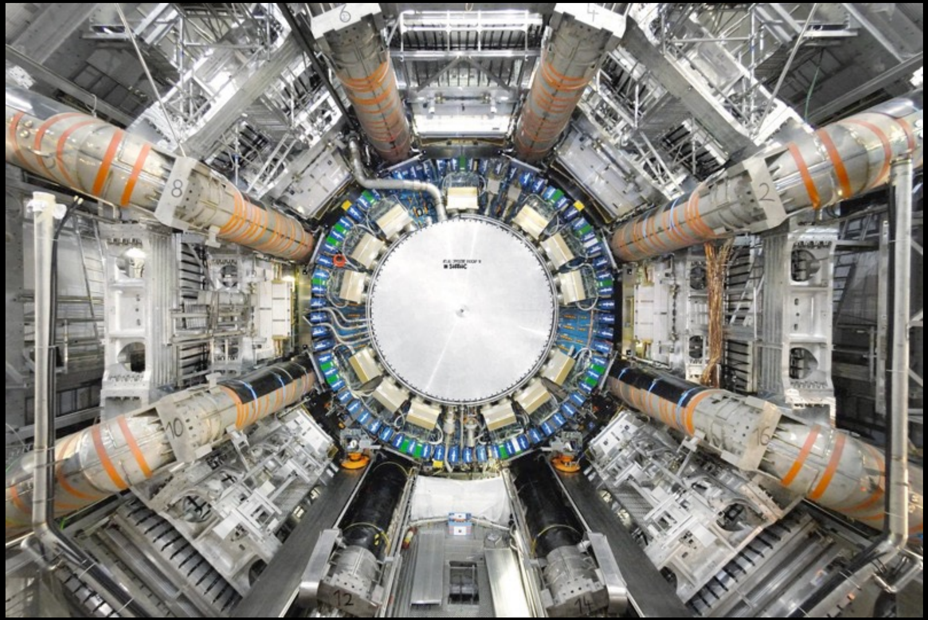


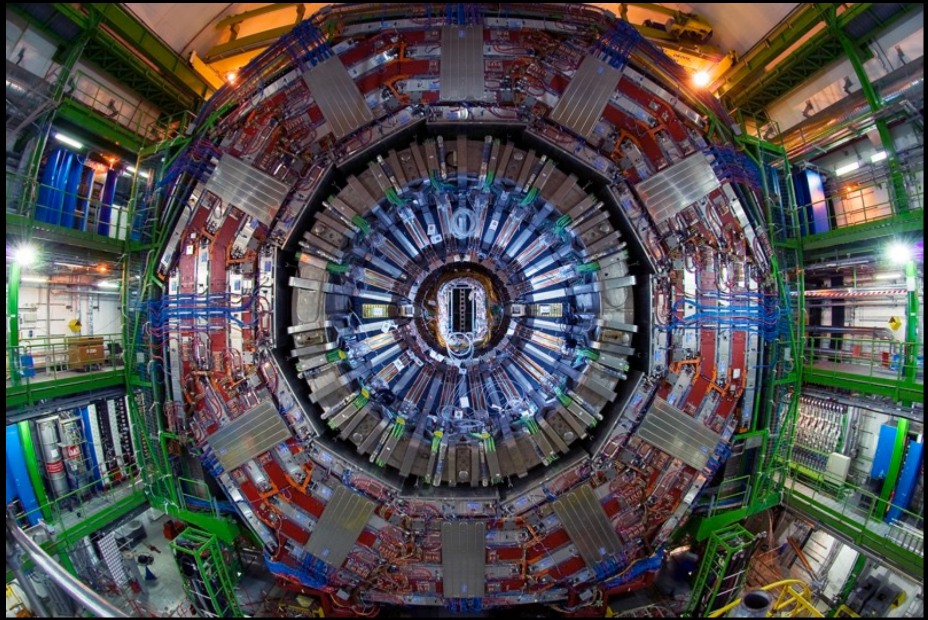




Road path to the instrumentation lectures

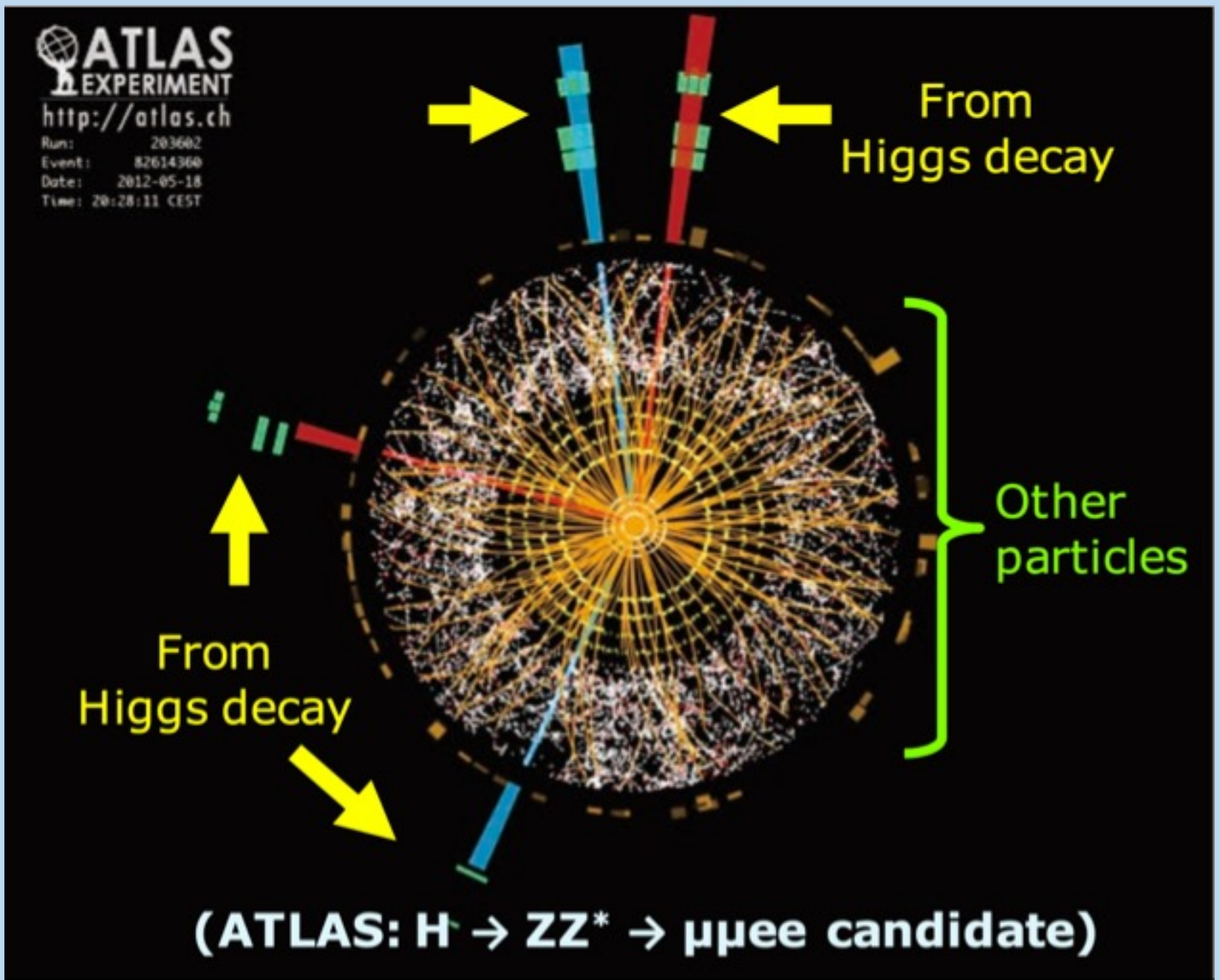
- Why instrumentation is important ?
- Introduction on how we detect particles
- Motivations for the general purpose LHC detectors (ATLAS and CMS)





- Tomorrow: silicon detectors and innovative technologies needed for the LHC upgrades and FCC

Very complex events



- Demonstrating that a luminosity of 10^{34} s^{-1} cm^{-2} could be usable was not easy and required a large RD effort that took decades
- We will have to do the same for future colliders like theFCC

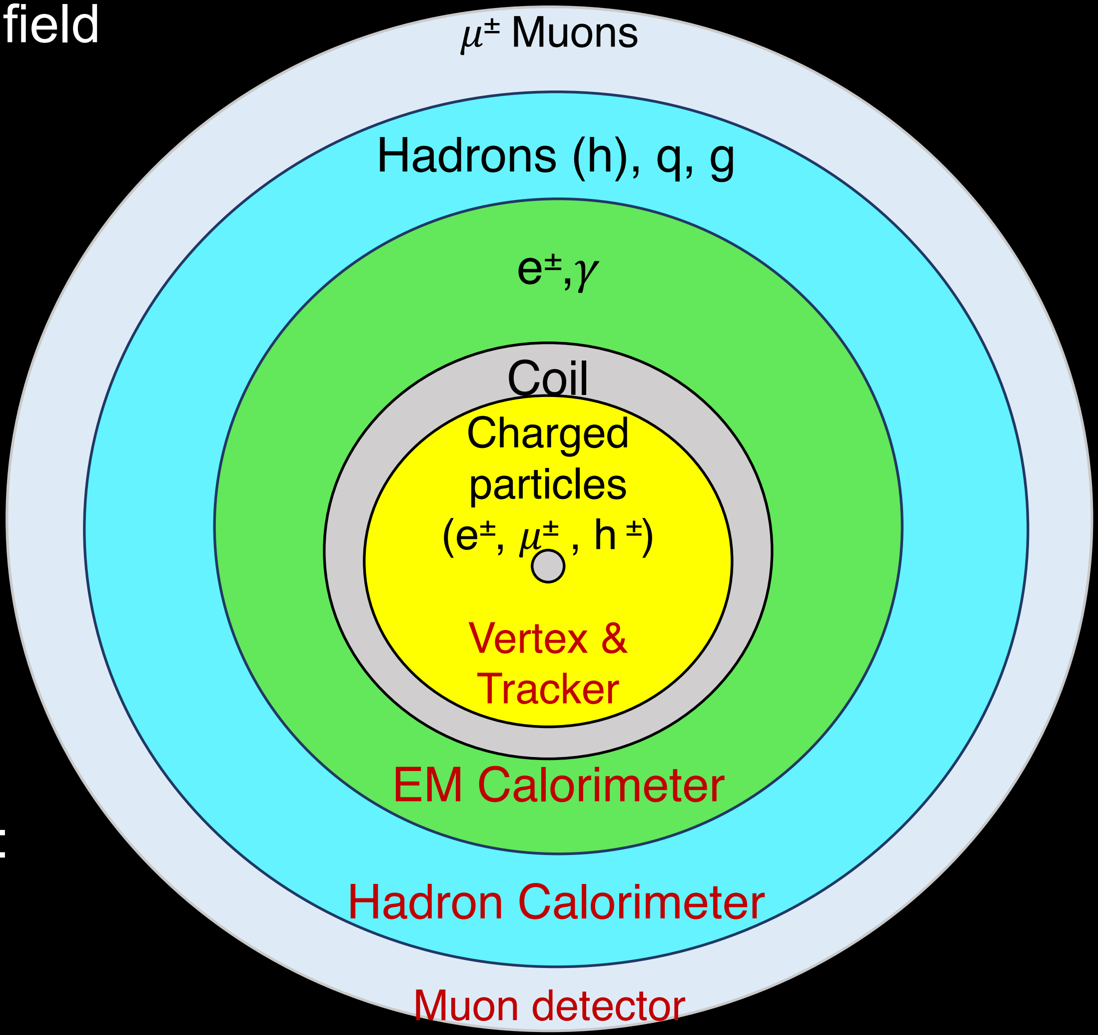
Large Hadron Collider (LHC)

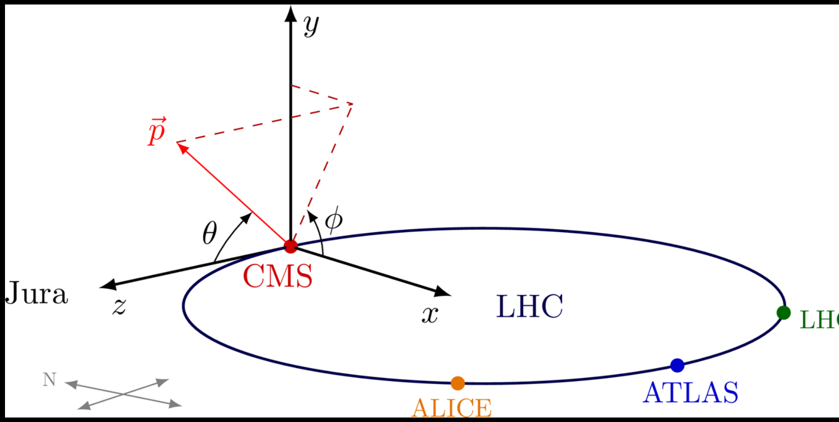
A 27km discovery machine colliding pp at 13 TeV

Collider detectors

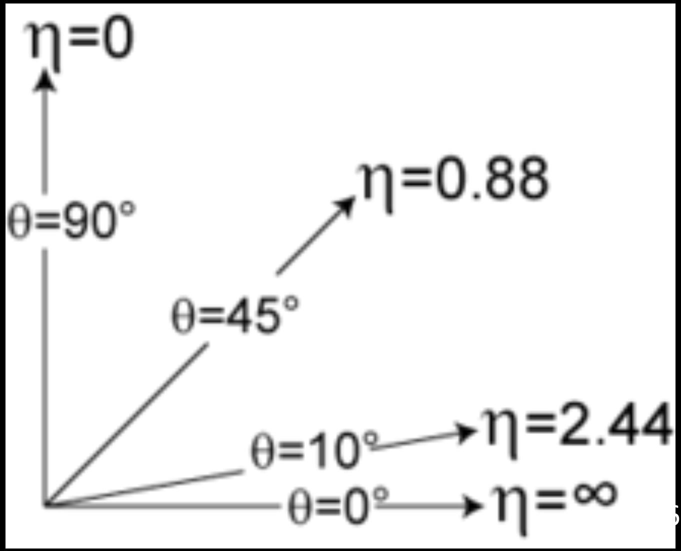
Coordinate system

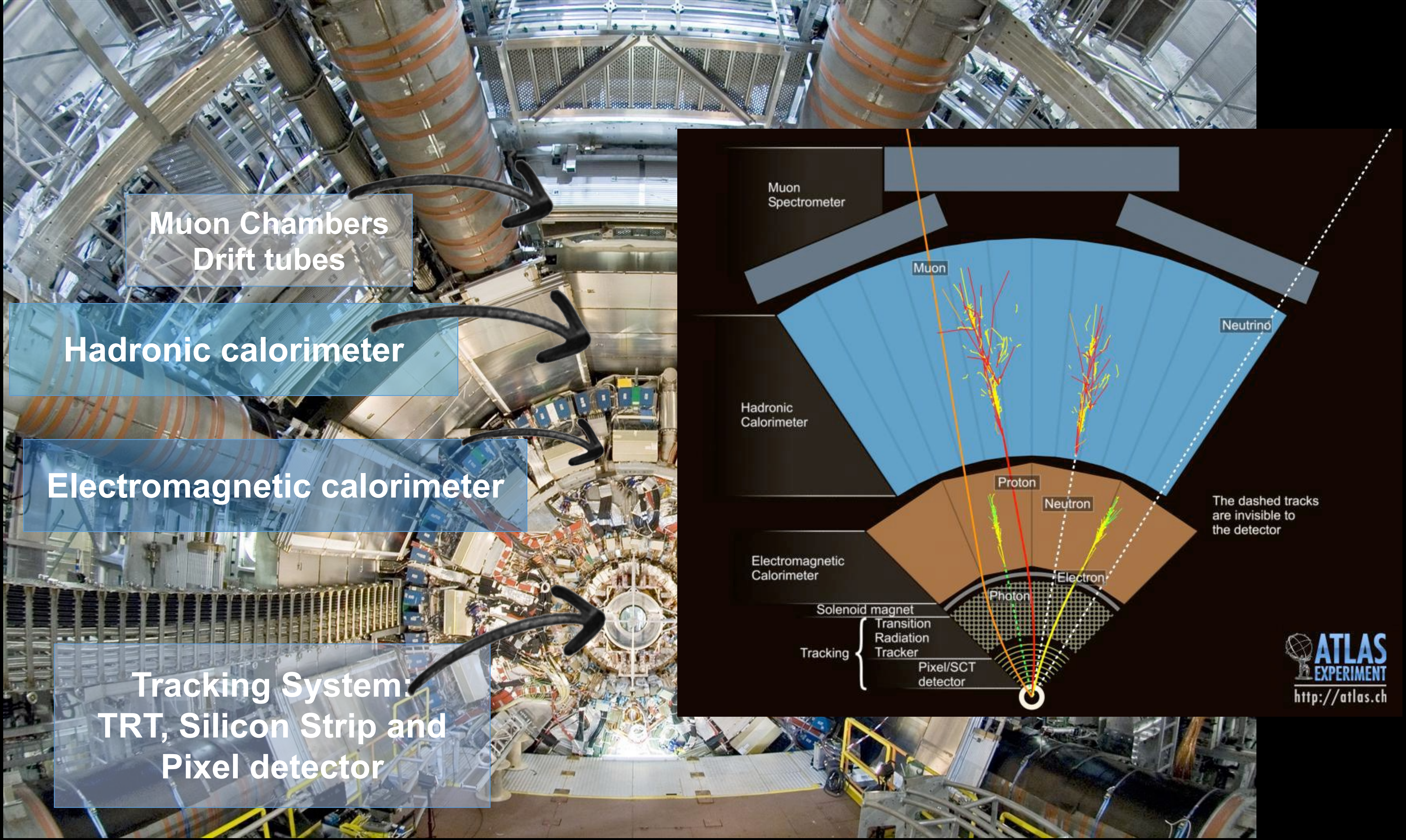
- Tracker detector: Measure position and determine charge and momentum by bending the charged particles in magnetic field
- Calorimeters: measure energy through total absorption (destructive for almost all particles except muons and neutrinos)
- Muon detectors: tracking detectors





$$\eta = -\ln\left(\tan\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)\right)$$

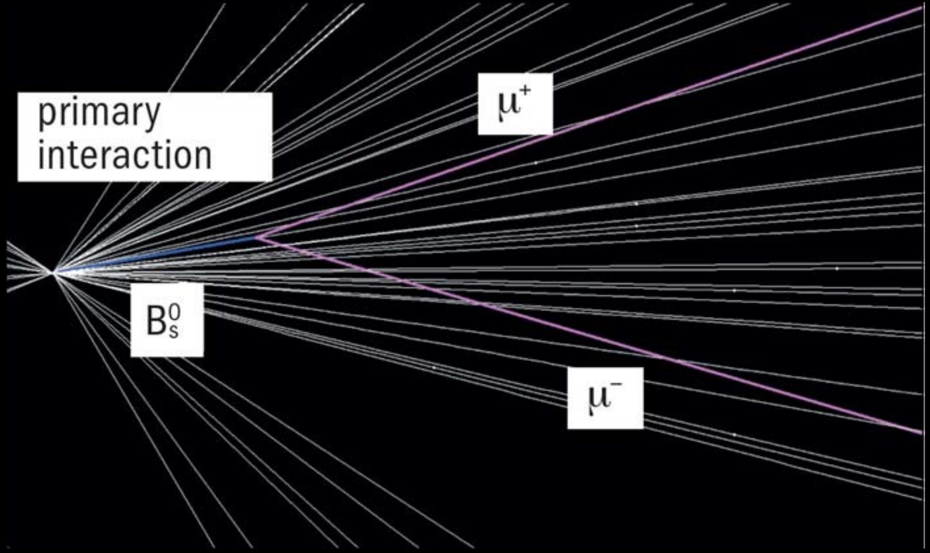




Muon Chambers
Drift tubes
Hadronic calorimeter
Electromagnetic calorimeter
Tracking System:
TRT, Silicon Strip and
Pixel detector
Muon Spectrometer
Muon
Neutrino
Hadronic Calorimeter
Proton
Neutron
The dashed tracks are invisible to the detector
Electromagnetic Calorimeter
Electron
Photon
Solenoid magnet
Transition Radiation Tracker
Tracking
Pixel/SCT detector
ATLAS EXPERIMENT
http://atlas.ch

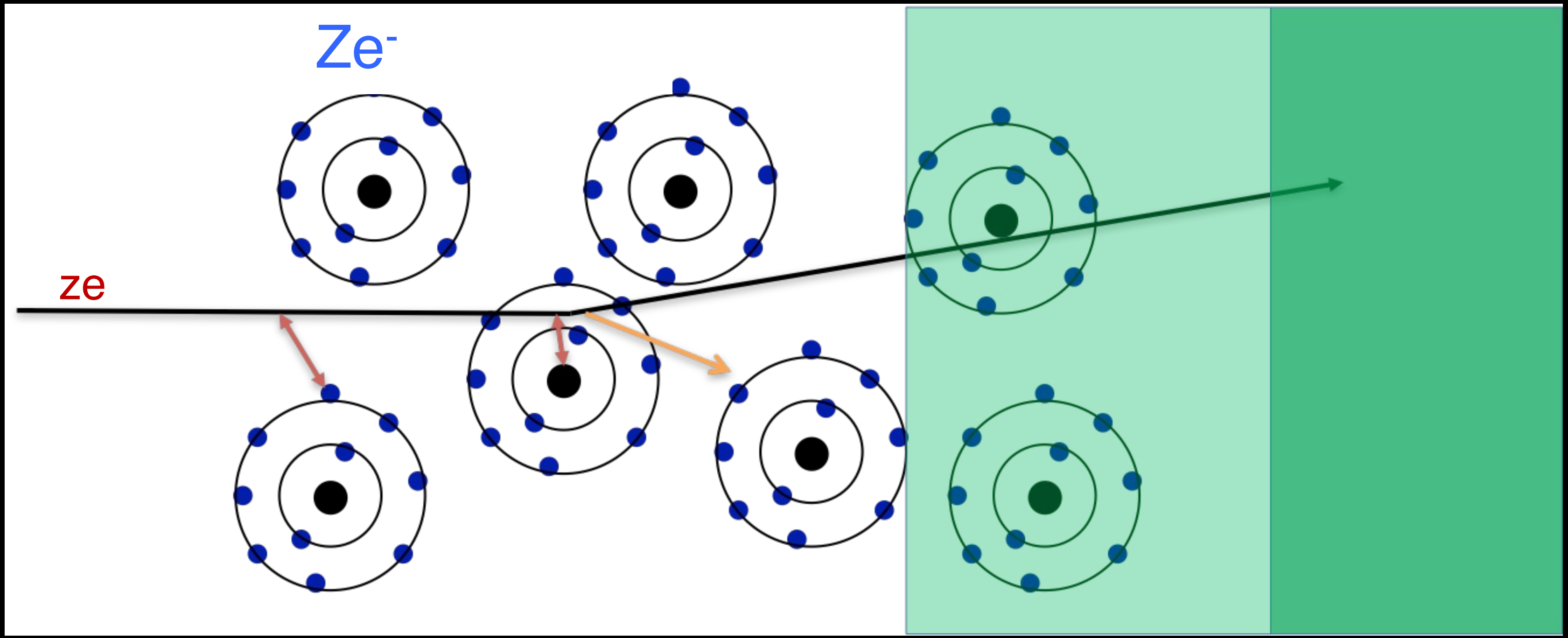
Detecting Elementary Particles

- The goal of LHC detectors was to measure well: e, μ, τ, γ, W, Z, jets, missing E_T, b tagging
- For W and Z, the information would be reconstructed through their decay to: $Z \rightarrow e^+e^-, \mu^+\mu^-$, qq….and W→ $e\nu, \mu\nu$,qq'…..
- b-tagging: reconstructing vertices of charged particles (e, μ, $p, \pi^{\pm}$, $K^{\pm}$) with a precision of $\approx 10\ \mu m$



- Every effect of particles or radiation can be used as a working principle for a particle detector.

EM interaction of charged particles with matter



Interaction with the atomic electrons

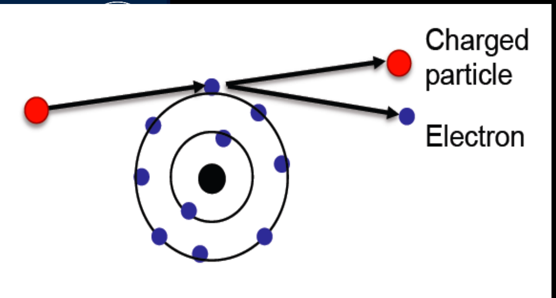
Incoming particles lose energy and atoms are excited or ionized.

Interaction with the atomic nucleus.

Particles are deflected and a Bremsstrahlung photon can be emitted.

If the particle's velocity is > the velocity of light in the medium → Cherenkov Radiation.

When a particle crosses the boundary between two media, there is a probability ≈1% to produce an X ray photon Transition radiation.



Energy loss by ionization

- The Bethe-Bloch equation for energy loss

Valid for heavy charged particles ($m_{incident} >> m_e$), e.g. proton, k, π, μ

$$-\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = 2\pi N_a r_e^2 m_e c^2 \rho \frac{Z}{A} \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \left[\ln\left(\frac{2 m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2}{I^2} W_{max} \right) - 2\beta^2 - \delta(\beta\gamma) - \frac{C}{Z} \right]$$

$2\pi N_a r_e^2 m_e c^2$ =0.1535 MeV cm^2/g

$$\frac{dE}{dx} \propto \frac{Z^2}{\beta^2} \ln\left(a \beta^2 \gamma^2 \right)$$

Fundamental constants

r_e=classical radius of electron

m_e=mass of electron

N_a=Avogadro's number

c =speed of light

Absorber medium

I = mean ionization potential

Z = atomic number of absorber

A = atomic weight of absorber

ρ = density of absorber

δ = density correction

C = shell correction

Incident particle

z = charge of incident particle

β = v/c of incident particle

γ = $(1-\beta^2)^{-1/2}$

W_{max}= max. energy transfer in one collision

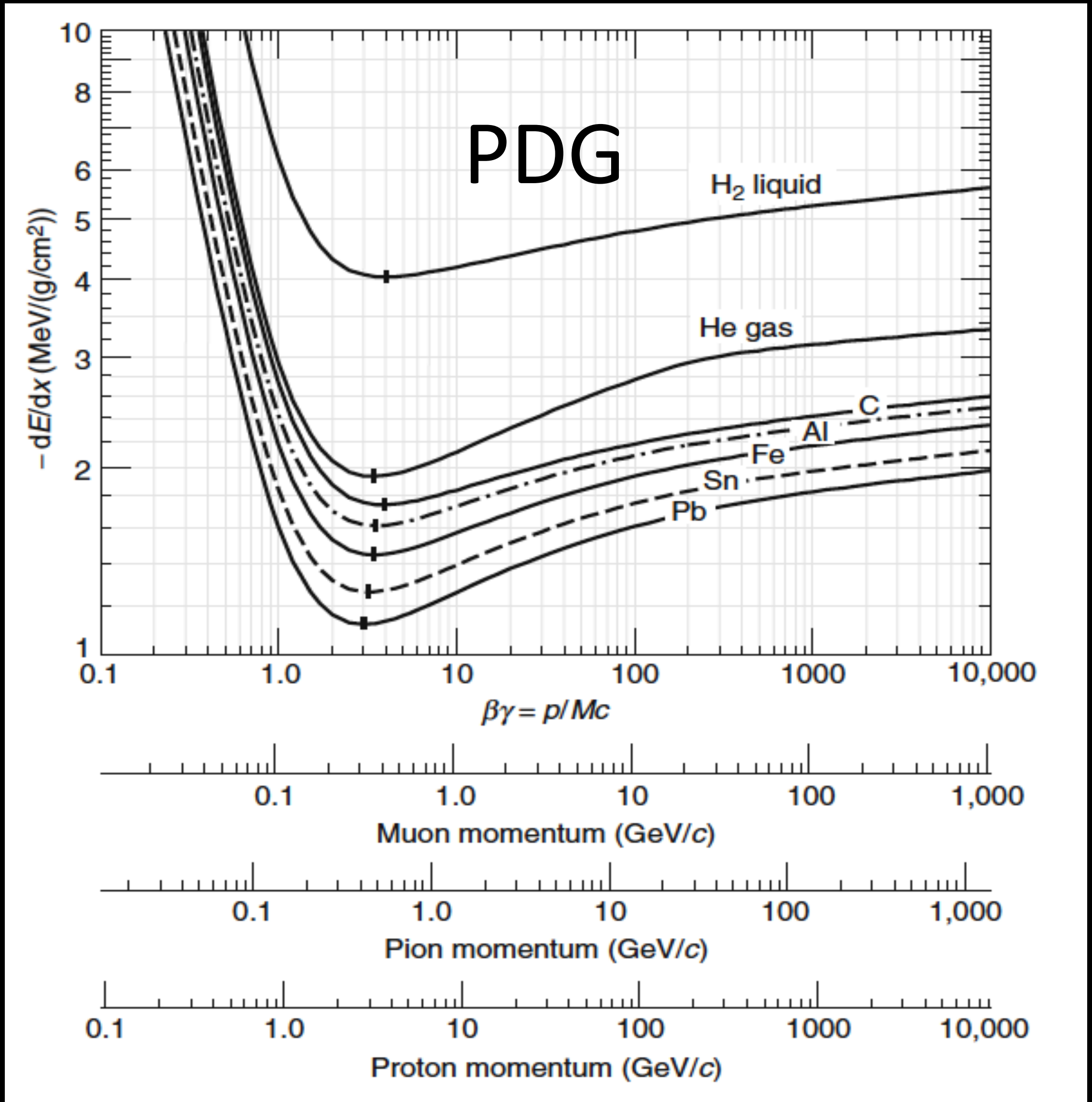
$$r_e = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{m_e c^2}$$

The Bethe-Bloch Formula

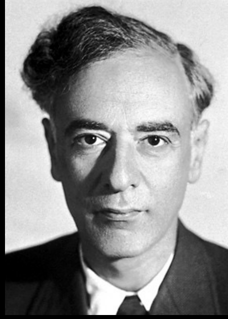
- Common features:
  - fast growth, as $1/\beta^2$, at low energy
  - wide minimum in the range $3 \leq \beta\gamma \leq 4$,
  - slow increase at high $\beta\gamma$.

- A particle with d**E**/d**x** near the minimum is a minimum-ionizing particle or mip.

- The mip's ionization losses for all materials except hydrogen are in the range 1-2 MeV/(g/cm^2)
  - increasing from large to low Z of the absorber.

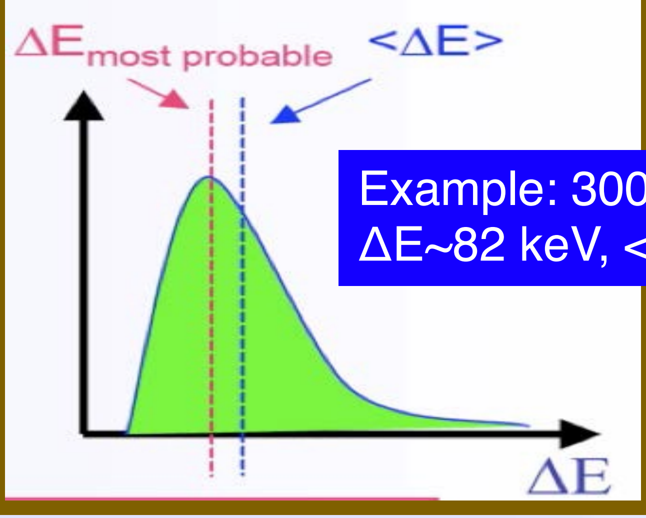


dE/dx Fluctuations

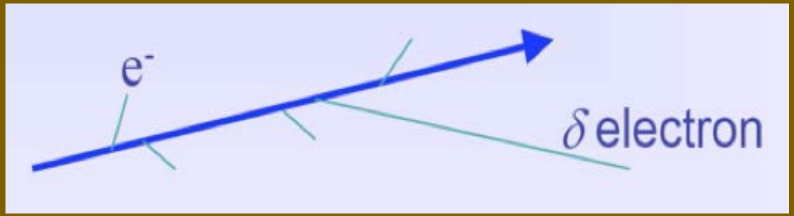


- A real detector cannot measure <dE/dx>
  - It measures the energy ΔE deposited in layers of finite thickness Δx
  - Repeated measurements are needed

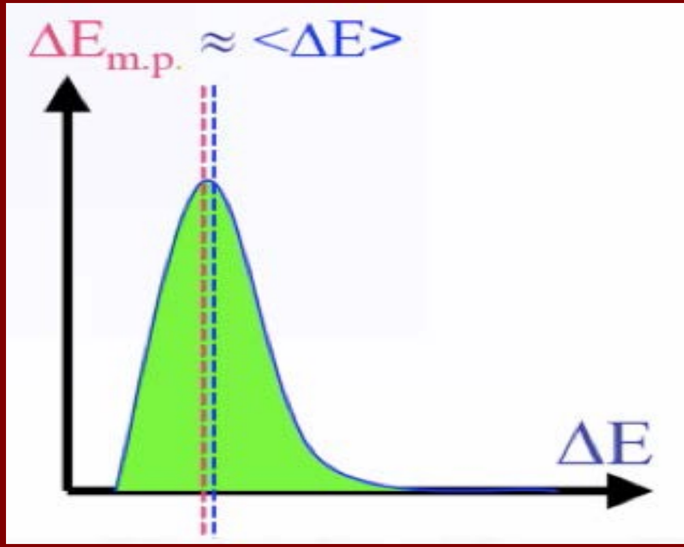
- Thin layers or low density materials: dE/dx has large fluctuations towards high losses (Landau-Vavilov, Bichsel)

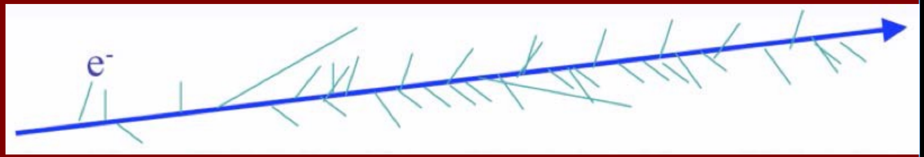


Example: 300 µm thick Silicon
ΔE~82 keV, $\langle \Delta E \rangle$ ~115 keV



- Thick layers and high density materials: the dE/dx is a more Gaussian-like (many collisions

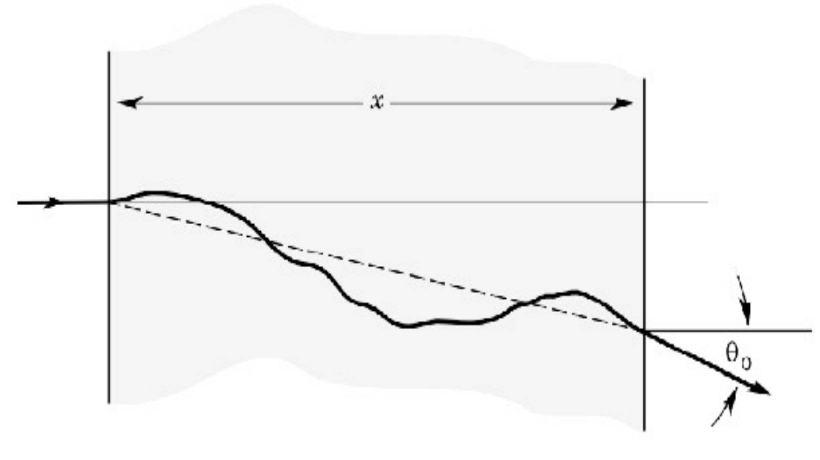




PDG

Multiple scattering

- A particle passing through material undergoes also multiple deflections due to Coulomb scattering with the nuclei
- The scattering angle as a function of the thickness x is



$$\theta_{\text{rms}}^{\text{proj}} = \sqrt{\langle\theta^2\rangle} = \frac{13.6\ \text{MeV}}{\beta c p} z \sqrt{\frac{x}{X_0}}\left[1 + 0.038 \ln(x/X_0)\right]$$

$$X_0 \cong \frac{716.4\ g \cdot cm^{-2}\ A}{Z(Z+1) ln\left(287/\sqrt{Z}\right)}$$

In g/cm must multiply by density to get a length!

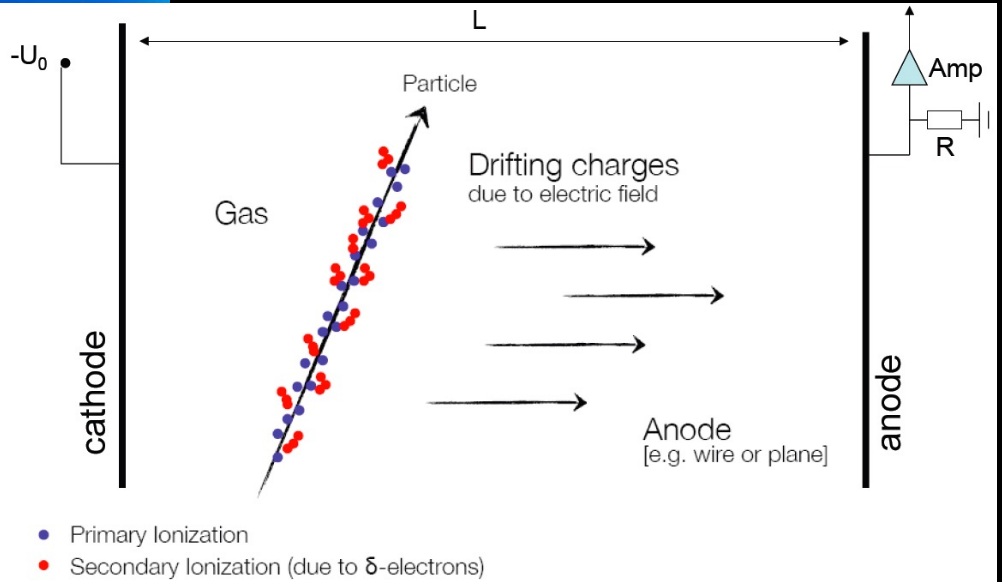
- Where:
  - p (in MeV/c) is the momentum, βc the velocity
  - z the charge of the scattered particle
  - x/X_0 is the thickness of the medium in units of radiation radiation length (X_0).

- Small deflections:
  - Large Radiation length X_0 – i.e. low Z and low density material (Be, C …)
  - Small x i.e. very thin detector elements
- Multiple scattering limiting tracking performance at low p

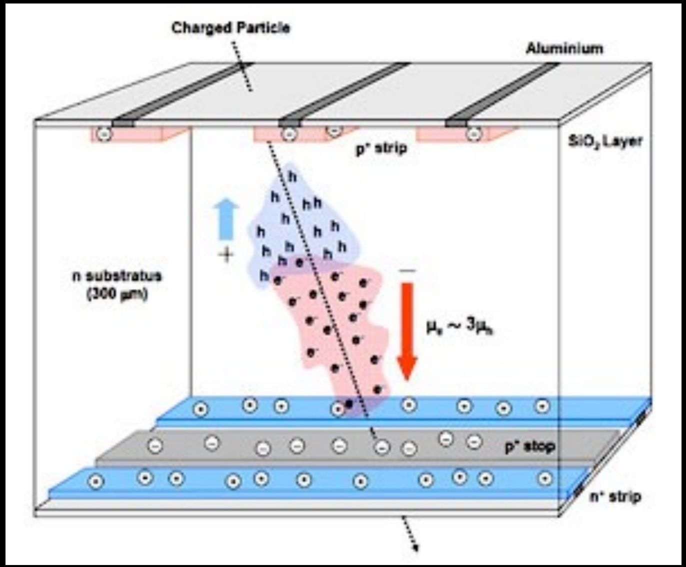
Tracking detectors

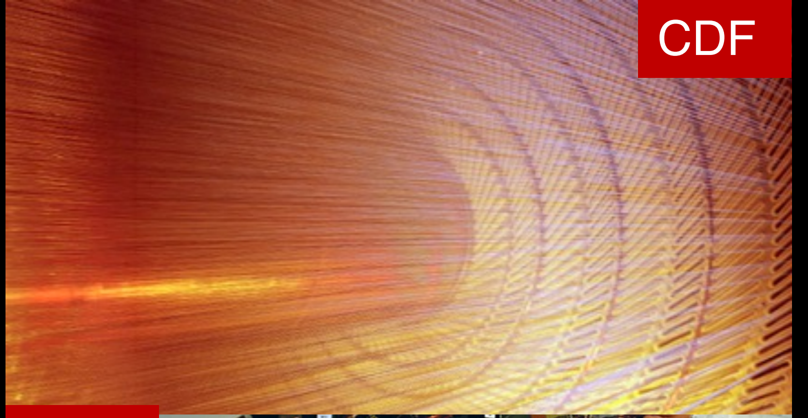
- High granularity detectors close to the interaction region measuring the trajectory using “hits” due to charged particles ionizing a material (gas, silicon)
  – charged particles’ momenta determined from their curvature in a B field (R[m]=p[GeV/c]/(0.3B[T]))
  – Extrapolation to origin allows the reconstruction of Primary Vertex of the “hard scattering”, while secondary vertices identify tau-leptons, b and c-hadrons by lifetime tagging ($d = \beta\gamma c\tau$)

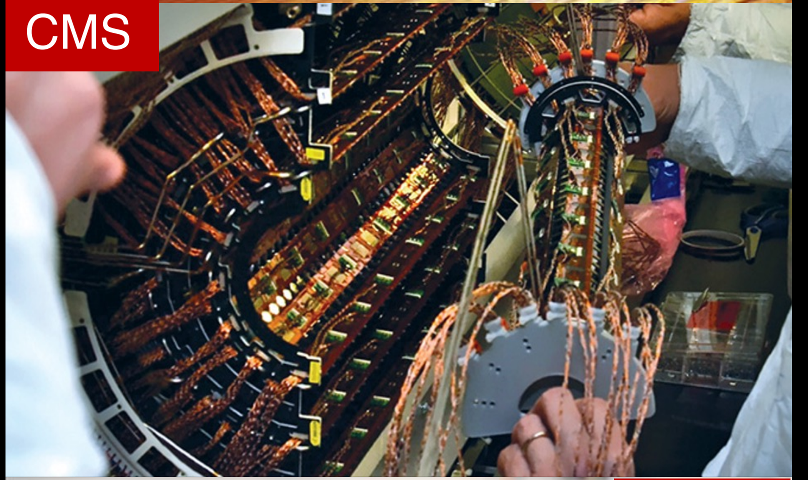
Gas Detectors

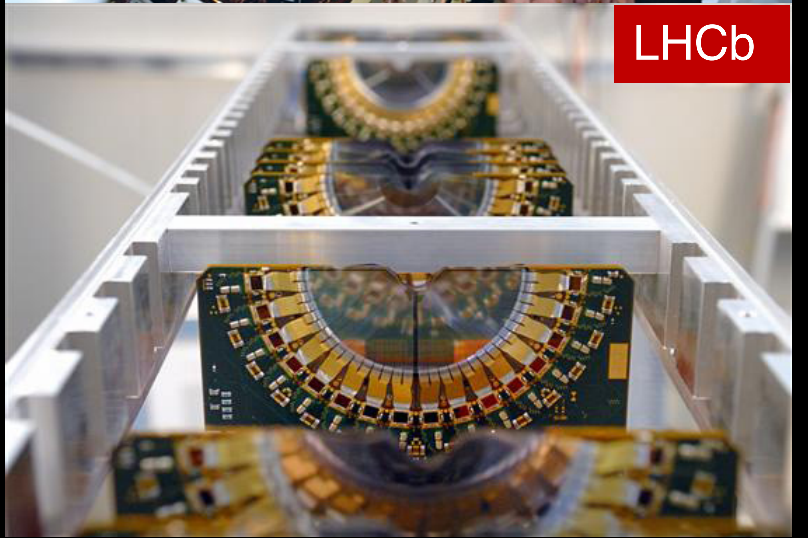


Silicon Detectors



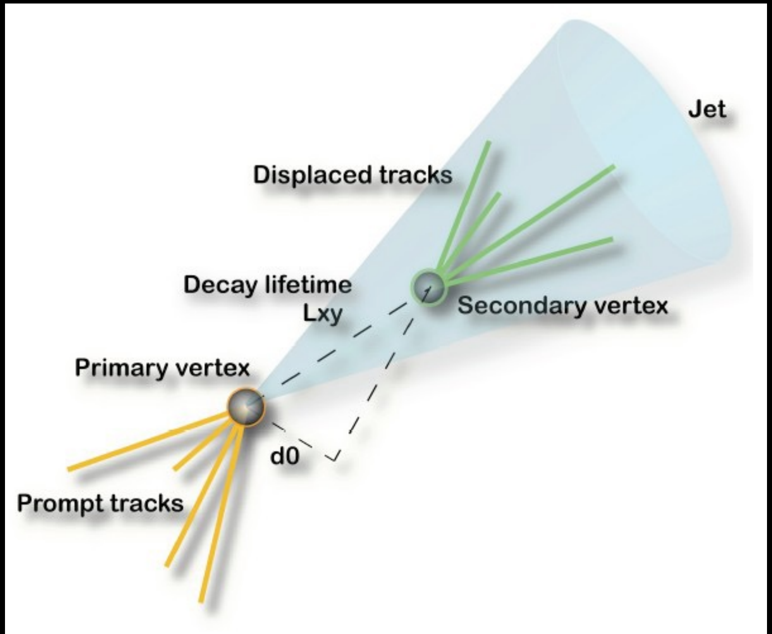


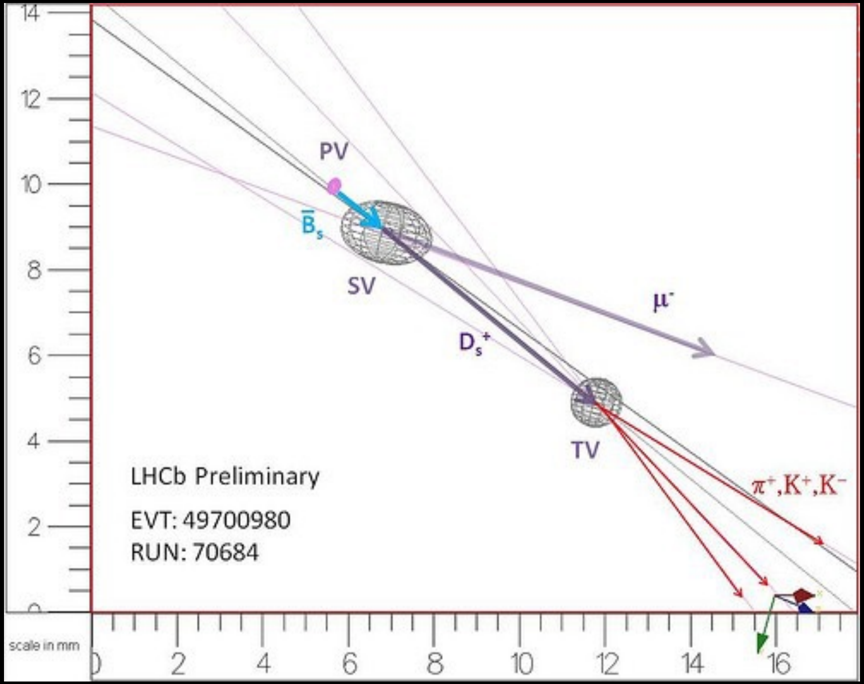




Impact Parameter

- Distance between primary vertex and prolongation is called impact parameter (d).
- If d is large the probability is high that the track comes from a secondary vertex
- Distance can be used for tagging b-jets and c-jets ($\beta\gamma c\tau$)



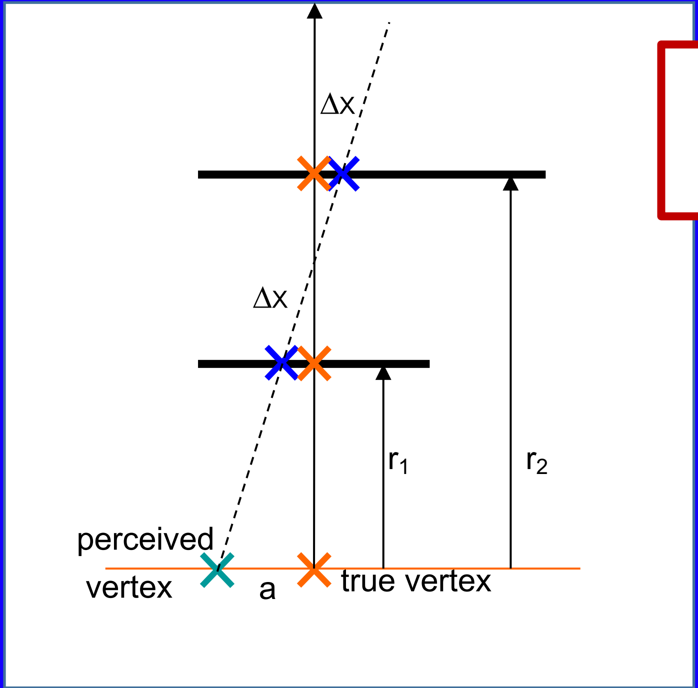


Impact Parameter resolution

- Vertex projection from two points: simplified telescope equation

Pointing resolution = (a $\oplus$ b) μm

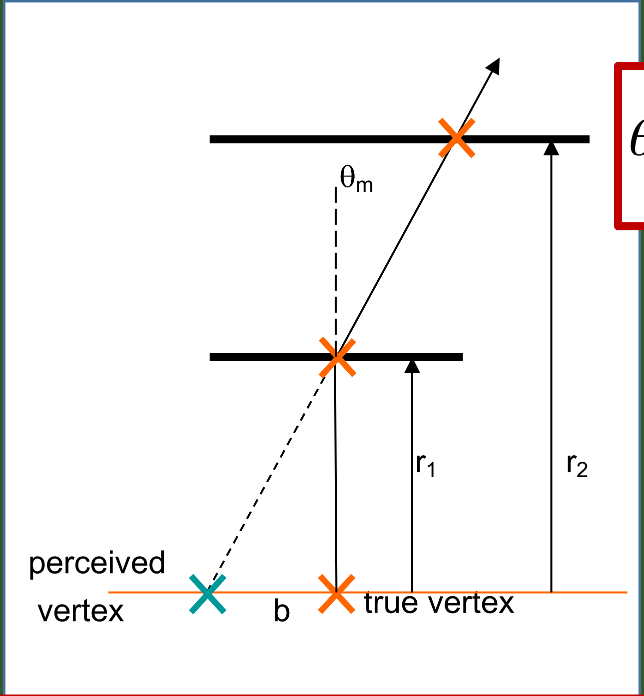
a= depends on detector position resolution



$$a = \Delta x \cdot \sqrt{\frac{r_2^2 + r_1^2}{(r_2 - r_1)^2}}$$

Minimize Δx: e.g. 50 μm pixel and r_2 very large compared to r_1 (first layer as close as possible to IP) → a=Δx=50/√12 = 15 μm

b= depends on multiple scattering

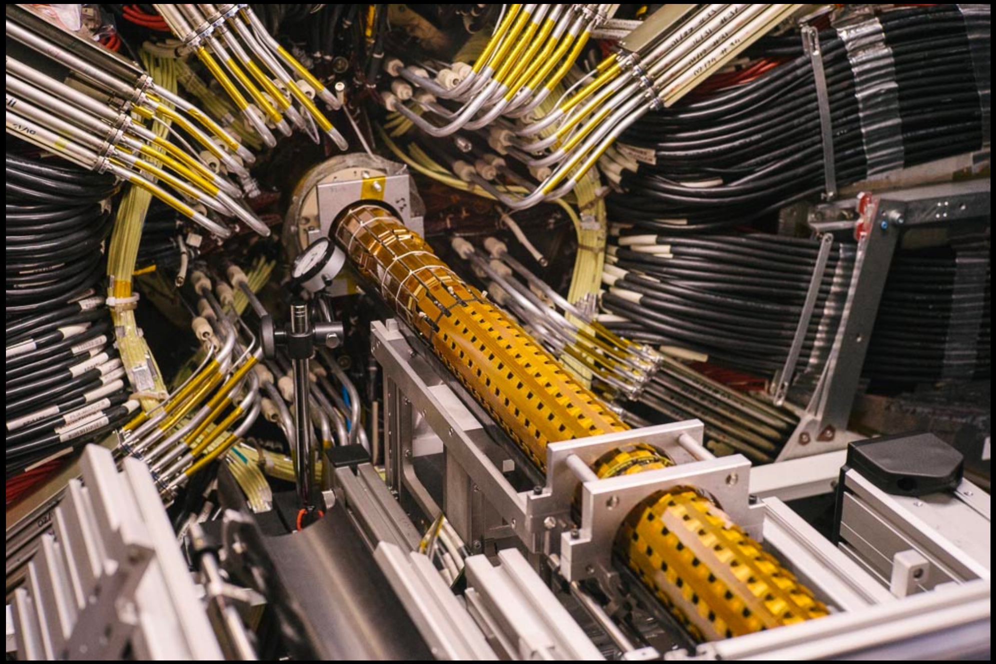


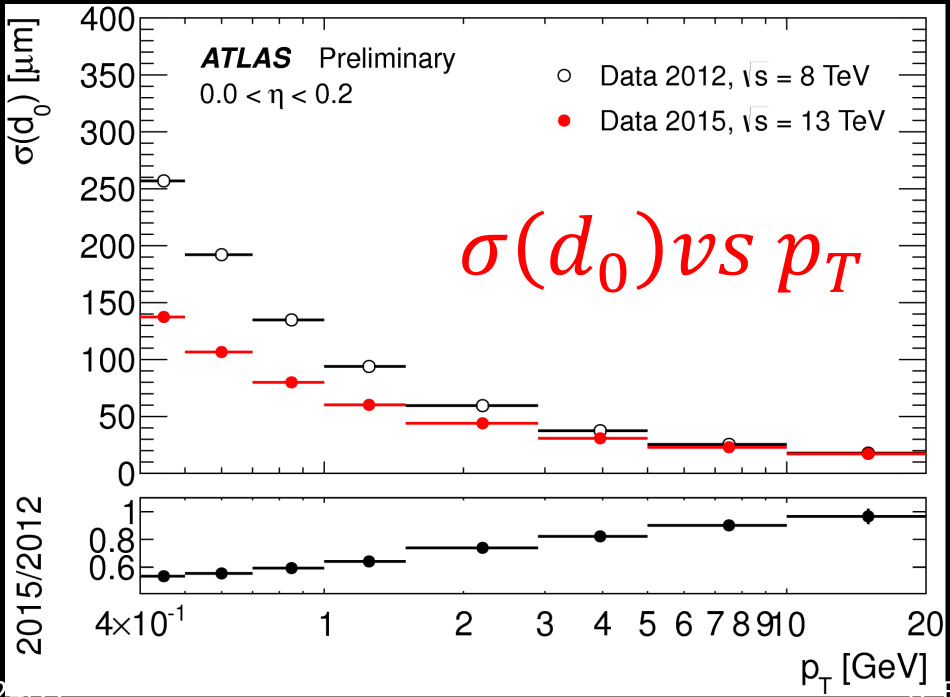
$$\theta_m = \frac{13.6 Mev}{\beta \cdot c \cdot p} \cdot \sqrt{x / X_0}$$

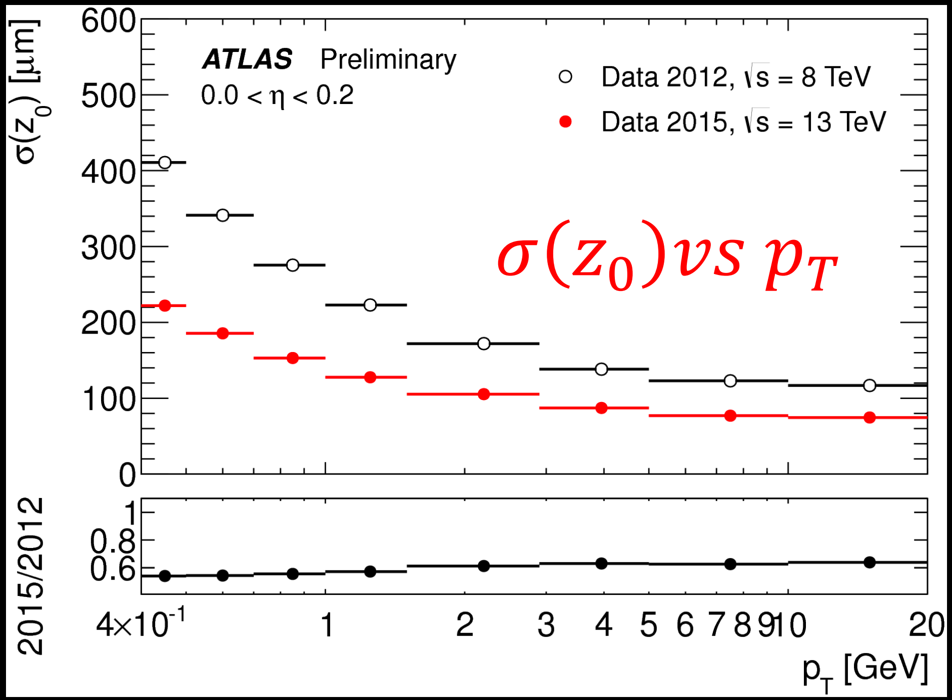
First layer with minimal amount of material: e.g. x/X_0 = 0.0114, r_1= 39mm → b= 57 μm for p=1GeV/c

Impact Parameter resolution

- Improvement by inserting IBL in the ATLAS Pixel system just before the start of Run 2 in 2015
- IBL: radius of 3.3 cm, smaller pixels 50 μm× 250 μm (instead of 50 μm×400 μm) and lower mass

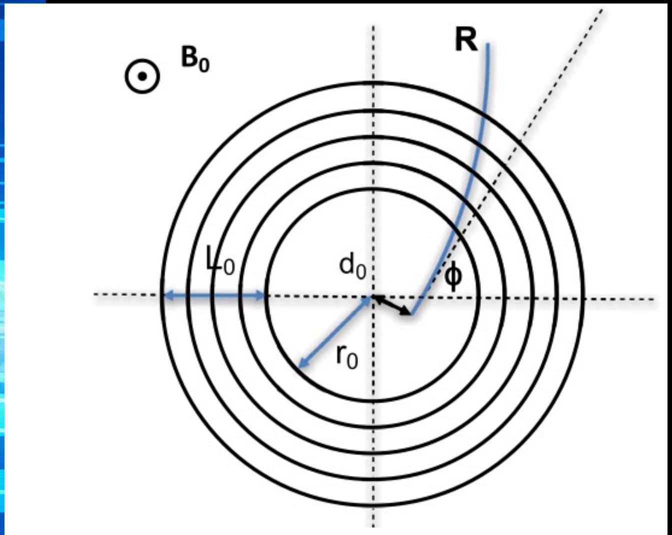




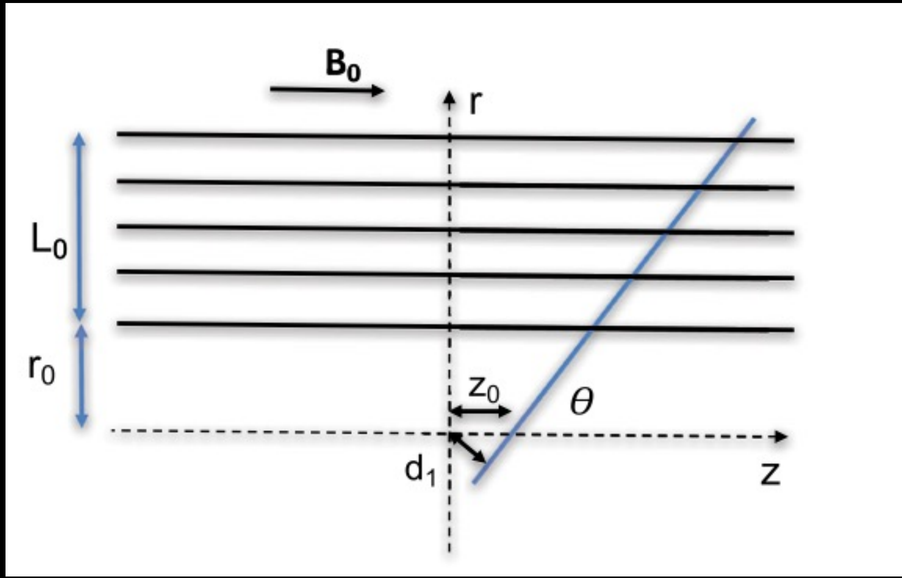


Momentum resolution

- Analytic expressions for momentum, track angle and impact parameter resolution have been calculated for equidistant layers



R[m]=p[GeV/c]/(0.3B[T])



- solenoid spectrometer with a constant B-field B_0
- $N + 1$ equal and equidistant detector planes.
- d_i the thickness of a single detector plane in X_0 units
- $d_{tot} = (N + 1)\, d_i$

$$\left.\frac{\Delta p_T}{p_T}\right|_{res.} = \frac{\sigma_{r\phi}\, p_T}{0.3\, B_0 L_0^2} \sqrt{\frac{720 N^3}{(N-1)(N+1)(N+2)(N+3)}} \approx \frac{12\, \sigma_{r\phi}\, p_T}{0.3\, B_0 L_0^2} \sqrt{\frac{5}{N+5}}$$

$$\left.\frac{\Delta p_T}{p_T}\right|_{m.s.} = \frac{N}{\sqrt{(N+1)(N-1)}} \frac{0.0136\,\mathrm{GeV/c}}{0.3\beta\, B_0 L_0} \times \sqrt{\frac{d_{tot}}{X_0 \sin\theta}} \left(1 + 0.038 \ln \frac{d}{X_0 \sin\theta}\right) \approx \frac{0.0136\,\mathrm{GeV/c}}{0.3\beta\, B_0 L_0} \sqrt{\frac{d_{tot}}{X_0 \sin\theta}}$$

Drasal & Riegler: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nima.2018.08.078

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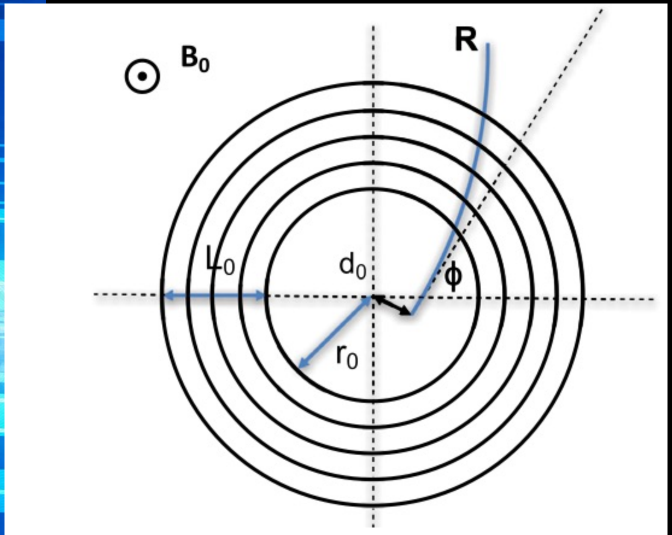

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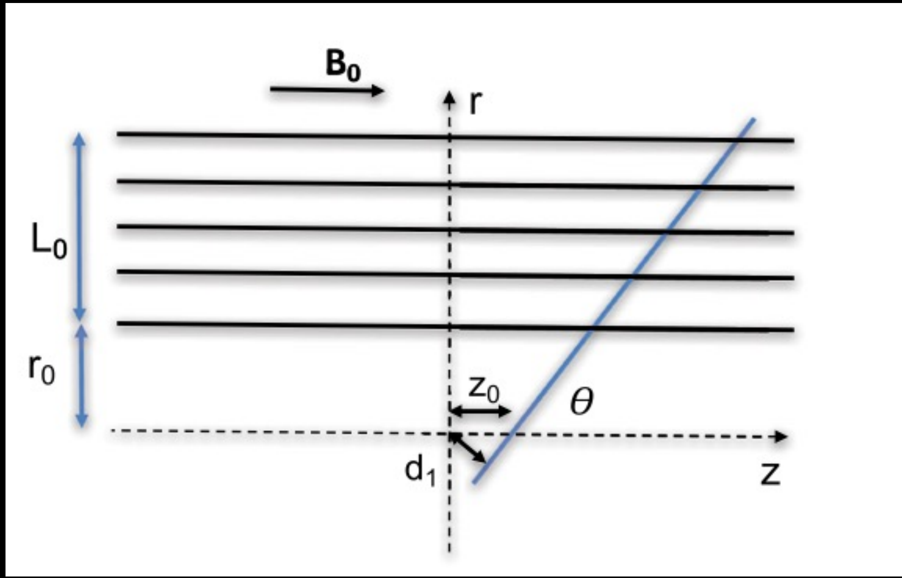

- solenoid spectrometer with a constant B-field B_0
- $N + 1$ equal and equidistant detector planes.
- d_i the thickness of a single detector plane in X_0 units
- $d_{tot} = (N + 1)\ d_i$

- Good transverse momentum resolution requires: small $\sigma_{r\phi}$, strong B_0 field, large L_0 (as L_0^2) , many measurement layers N (as $\sqrt{N}$), thin measurement layers (d_i), long X_0, low Z materials
- Momentum resolution gets worse at large p_T

Drasal & Riegler: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nima.2018.08.078

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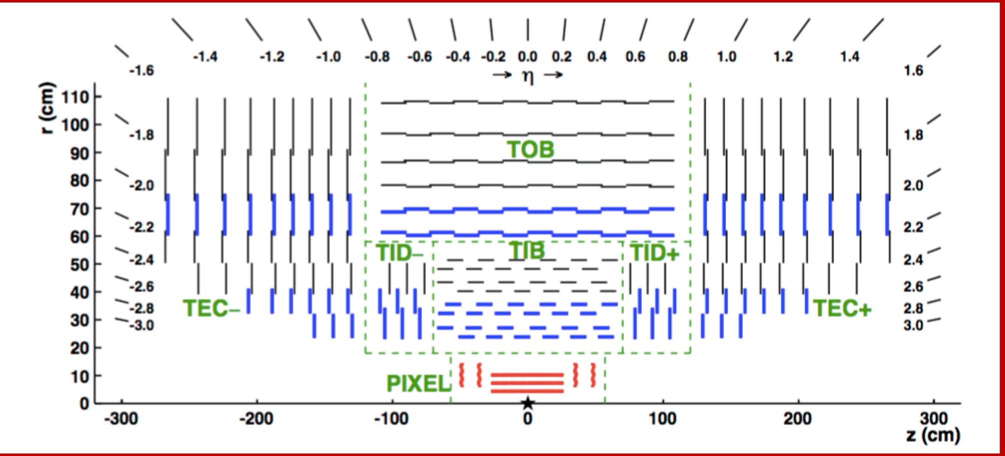
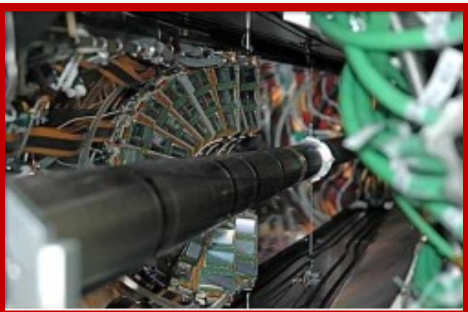
Atlas and CMS tracking

CMS

All silicon system in 3.8 T solenoid field



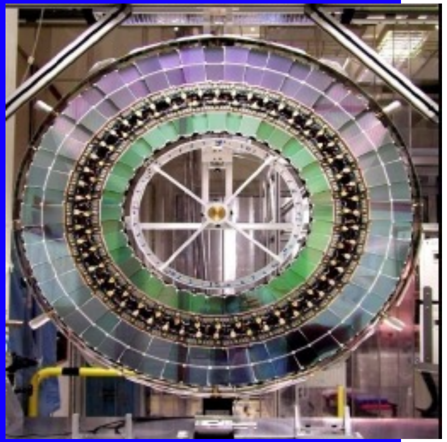


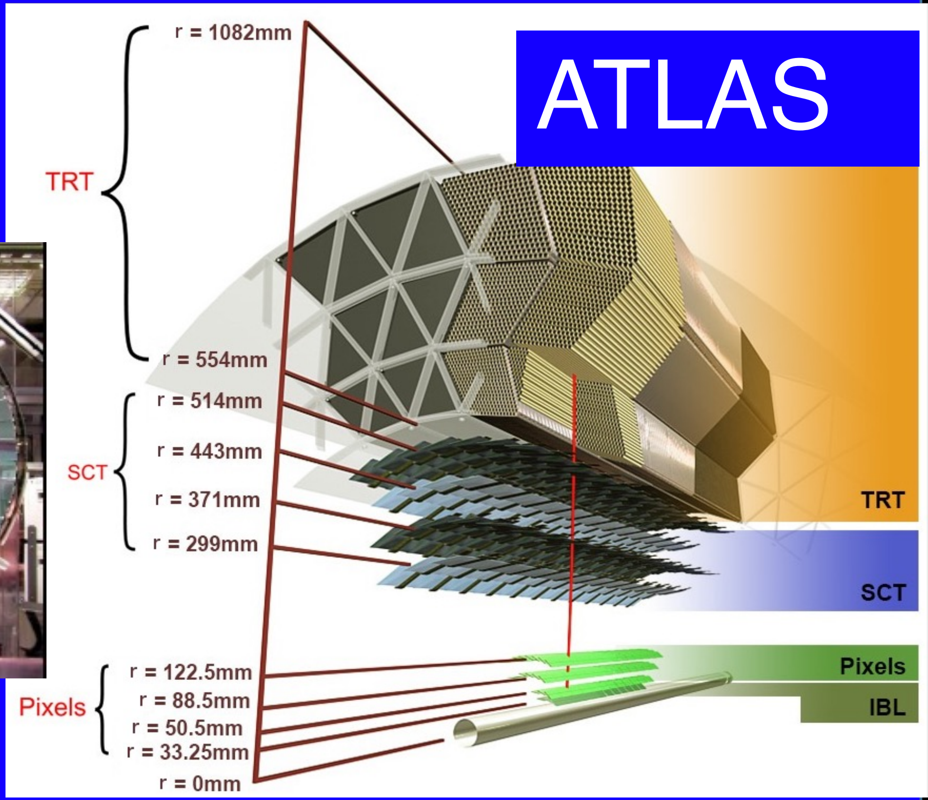
Strips: 198 m^2 with 9.3 M channels
Inner: 4 barrel layers, 3 end-cap disks
Outer: 6 barrel layers, 9 wheels

Pixels: 66 M pixels each 150 x 100 μm^2 pixels
3 barrel layers, 2 endcap disks/side (Upgraded in phase 1 to 4 barrel layers + 3 endcaps/side)

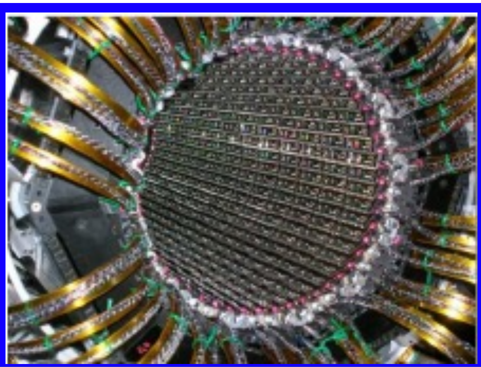
ATLAS

Silicon pixel and strip + transition radiation tracker (TRT) in 2 T field





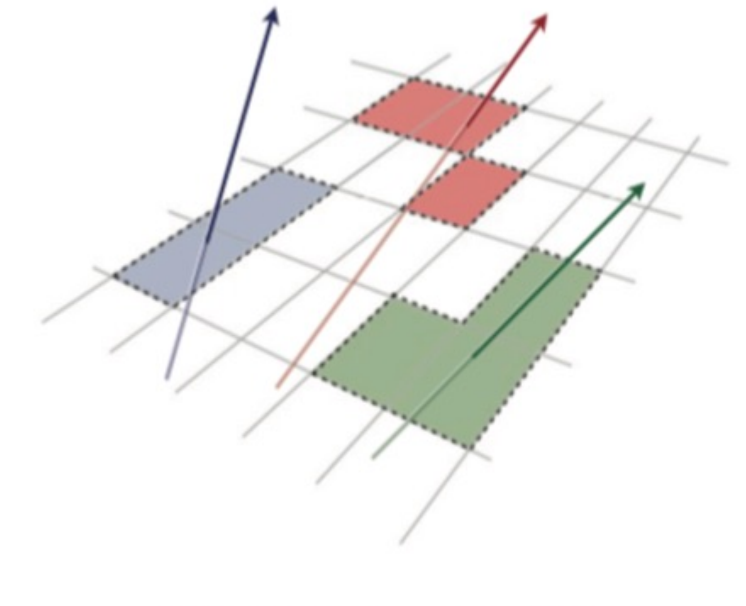
Strips: 61m^2 with 6.2 M channels
4 barrel layers + 9 disks per endcap
30 cm <R< 52 cm



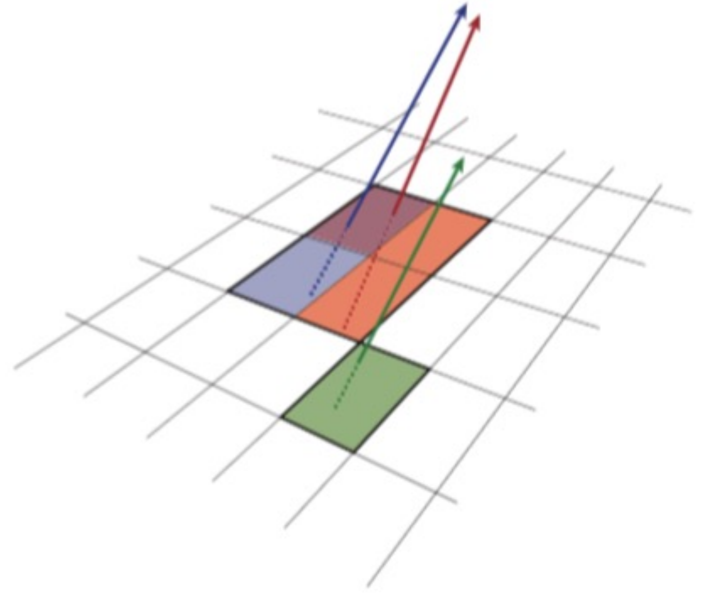
Pixels: 80M pixels each 50 x 400 μm^2
3 Barrel layers
3 endcap disks/side
IBL: 50 x 250 μm^2

From particle to hits

- Charged particle will create O(24000) electron-hole pairs
- Charge > threshold is considered a hit
- If charge is collected in multiple adjacent pixel/strips, the hits are grouped together into a cluster
  - Challenge: this can lead to merged clusters in dense environments
- Detector granularity critical to maintain low occupancy
  - Need higher granularity (more smaller pixels) as the luminosity increases
- Hit reconstruction efficiency (in working modules) is > 99% typically
- As a rule of thumb the position resolution is pitch/sqrt(12)



(a) Single-particle pixel clusters

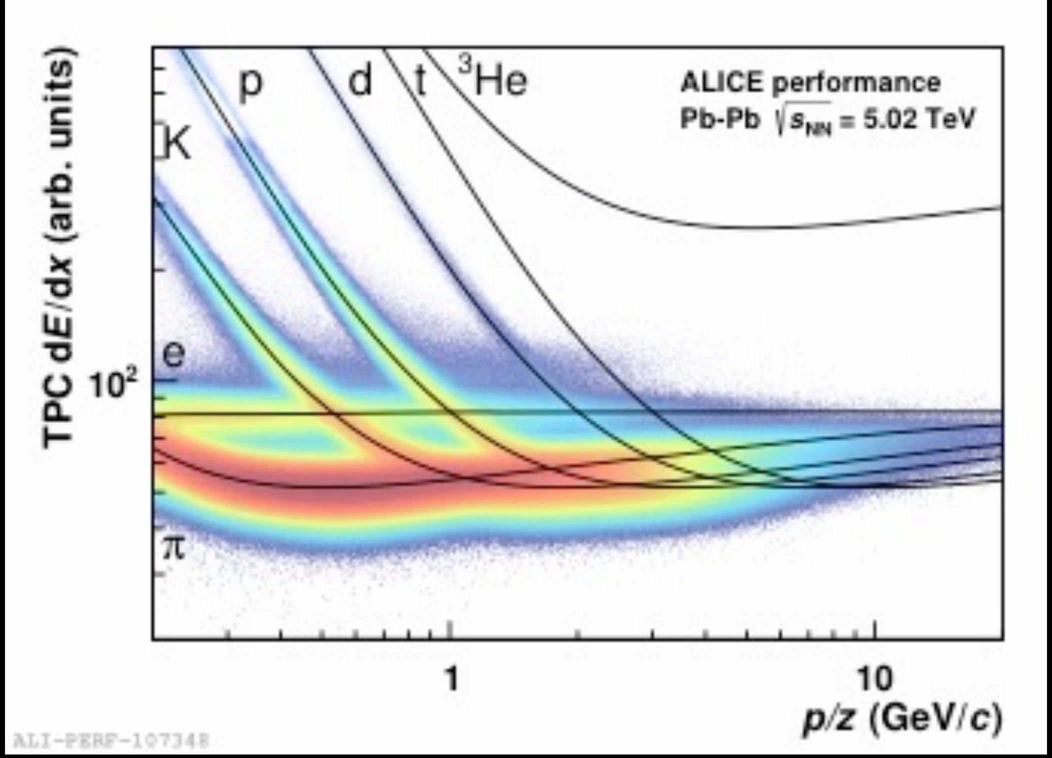


(b) Merged pixel cluster

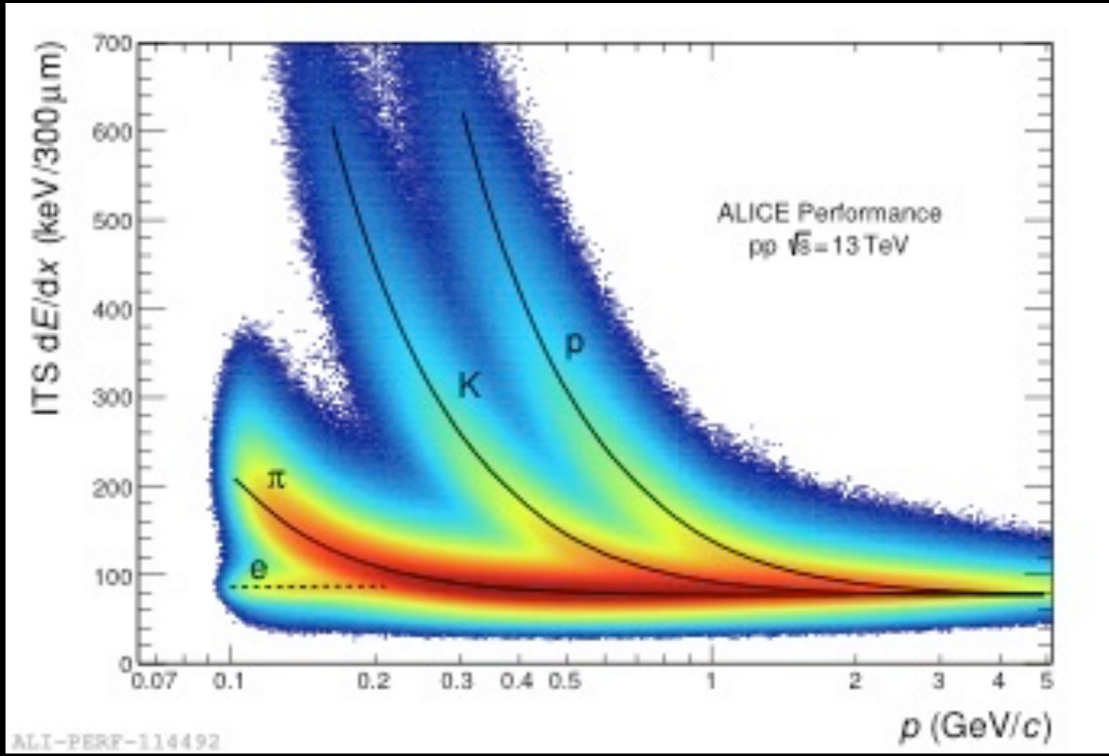
dE/dx and particle ID

- dE/dx is a function of βγ =P/Mc and can be used to separate different particles once p is known
- μ/π separation impossible, but π/K/p generally achievable

ALICE TPC – Gas detectors



ALICE TPC – silicon ITS



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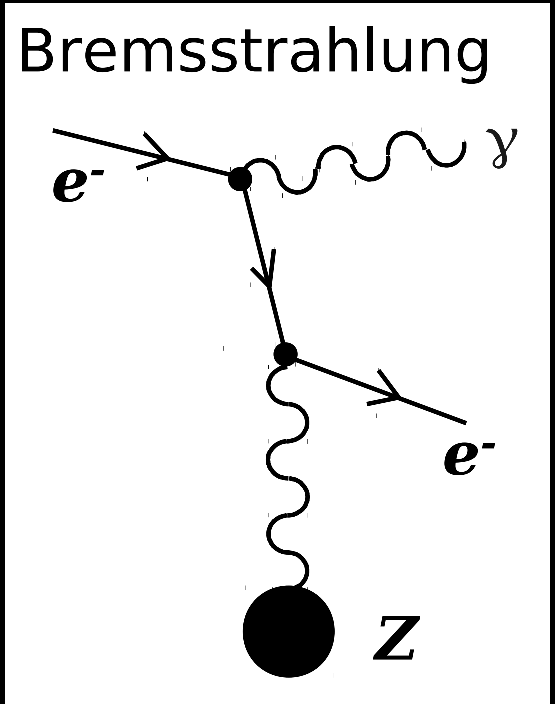
Electron energy loss

- Electrons loose energy in their interaction with matter mainly through:
  - Ionization – modified Bethe-Bloch formula for identical particles
  - Bremsstrahlung - energy loss proportional to $1/m^2$
    - Dominant for electrons with $E_e > 10$ MeV (and for h.e. muons) leading to exponential attenuation of the electron energy



$$\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{Brem} = -\frac{E(0)}{X_0} \qquad E(x) = E(0)\exp\left(-\frac{x}{X_0}\right)$$

- $\langle dE/dx \rangle_{brem}$ increases linearly with the initial energy E
- After a layer of material x = $\mathbf{X_0}$ the electron has 1/e of its initial energy.

$$X_0 \cong \frac{716.4\ g\ \cdot cm^{-2}\ A}{Z(Z+1)ln\left(287/\sqrt{Z}\right)}$$

X_0=radiation length g/cm^2

Must multiply by density to get a length!

- To contain an electron need small X_0 high Z materials
- The Moliere radius is the transverse size of the electron shower:

$$R_M \cong \frac{21.2\ MeV}{E_c} X_0$$

Total Energy loss and Critical energy

Critical energy

$$\left.\frac{dE}{dx}(E_c)\right|_{brems} = \left.\frac{dE}{dx}(E_c)\right|_{ion}$$

$$\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{\mathrm{Tot}} = \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{\mathrm{Ion}} + \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{\mathrm{Brems}}$$

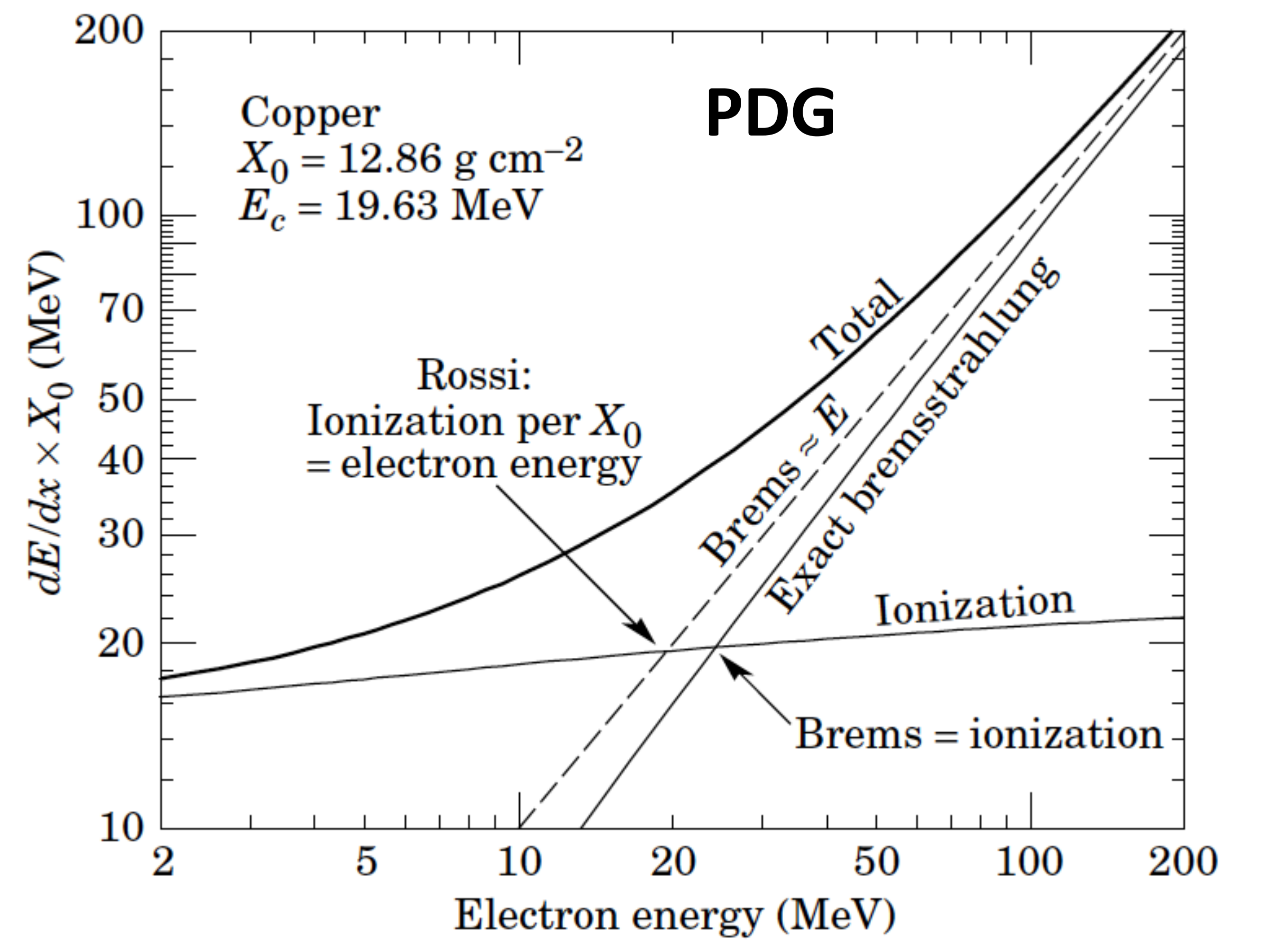
For solid and liquids

$$E_c = \frac{610\ \mathrm{MeV}}{Z+1.24}$$

For gasses

$$E_c = \frac{710\ \mathrm{MeV}}{Z+0.92}$$

Example Copper:
$E_c \approx 610/30$ MeV ≈ 20 MeV

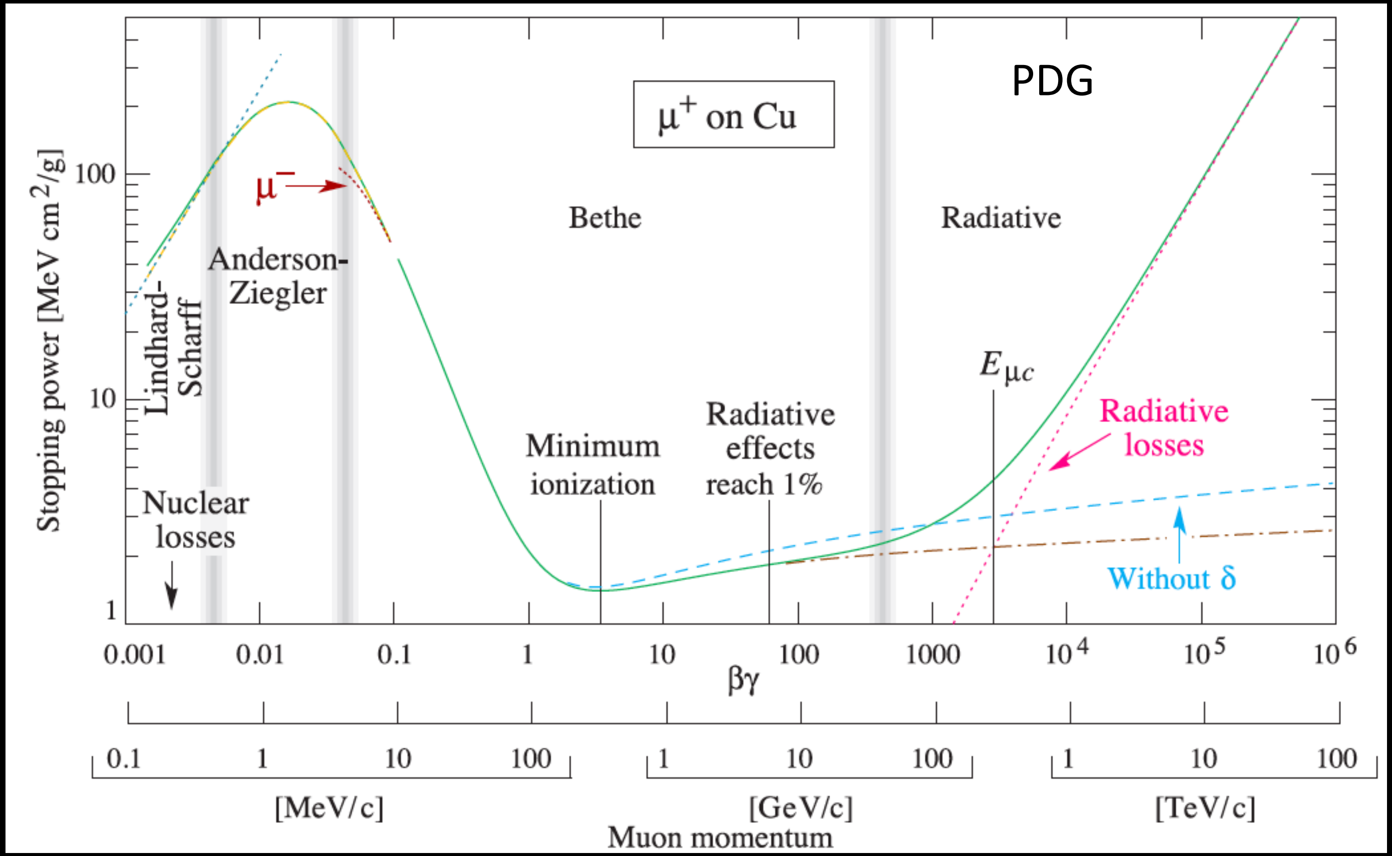


Muon Energy loss

The bremsstrahlung cross section is proportional to $1/m^2$

$$-\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle_{brem} \propto \frac{E}{m^2}$$

Since $(m_\mu/m_e)^2 \approx 44100$ E_c for muons > 100s GeV.



- Critical energy for muons is 450 GeV in copper
- At high energies (E 1 TeV) bremsstrahlung contributes about 40% to average muon energy loss.
- Muons with energies > ~10 GeV can penetrate thick layers of matter
- This is the key signature for muon identification

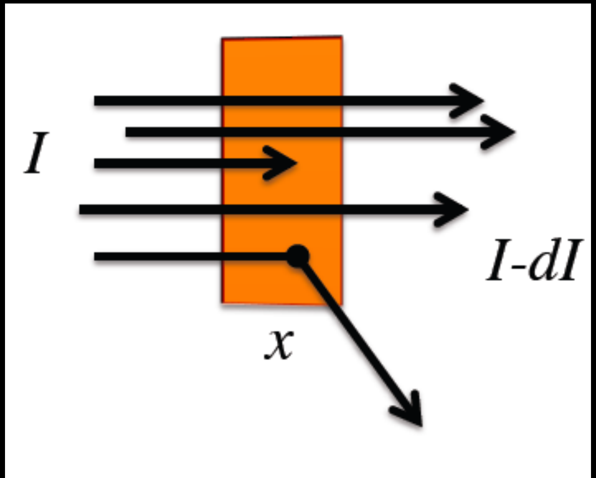
Interaction of photons with matter

- A photon can disappear or its energy can change dramatically at every interaction

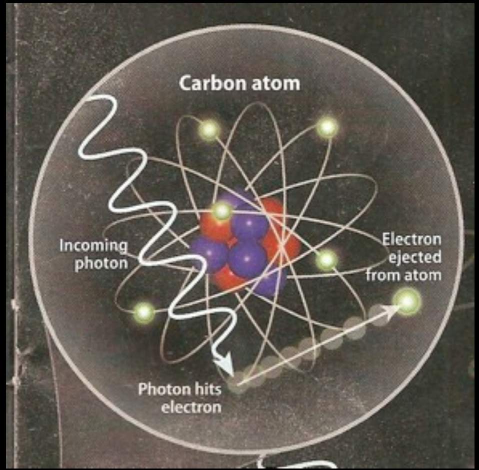
$$I(x) = I_0 e^{-\mu x} \qquad \mu = \frac{N_A}{A}\sum_{i=1}^{3}\sigma_i$$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\mu}$$

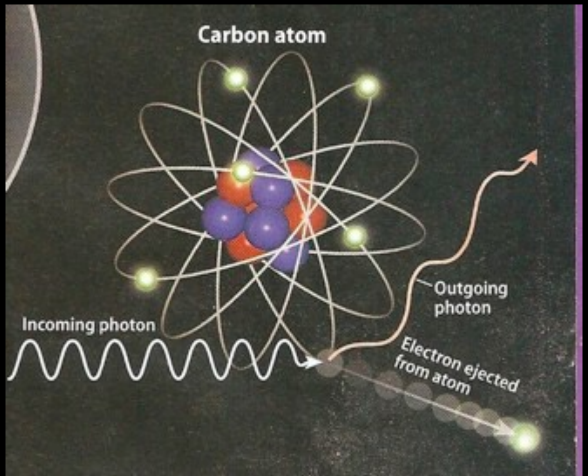
μ=total attenuation coefficient
σ_i=cross section for each process



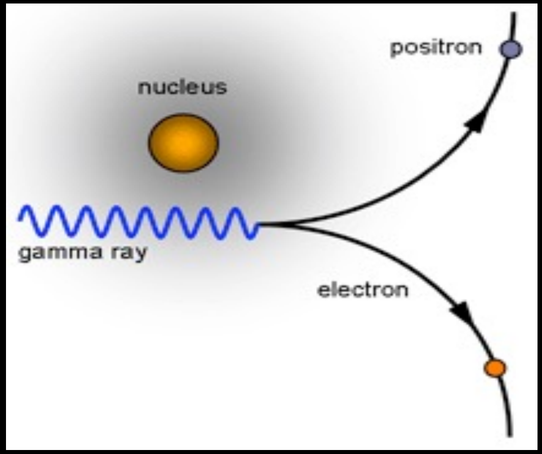
Photoelectric Effect



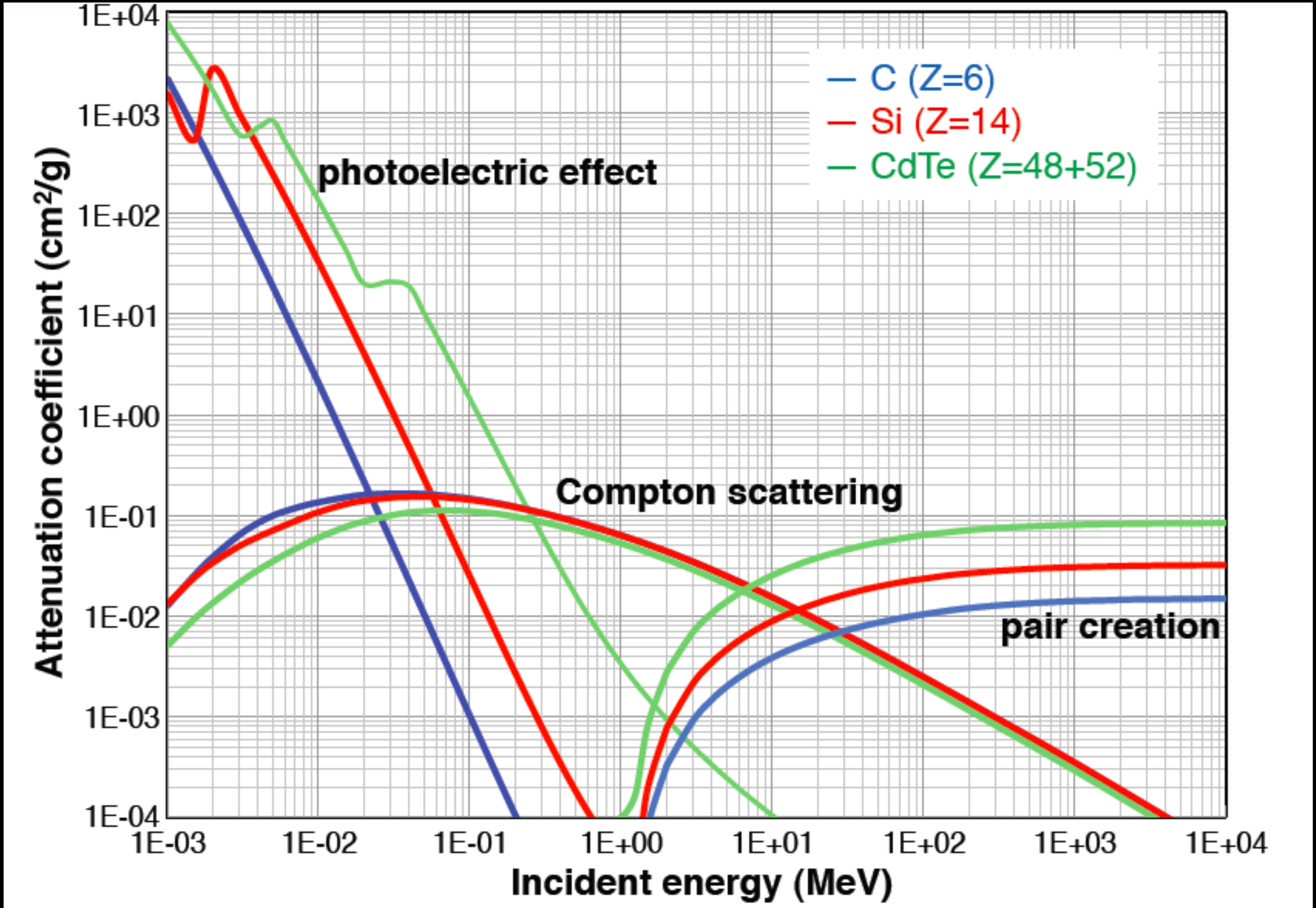
Compton Scattering



Pair production



Interaction of photons with matter



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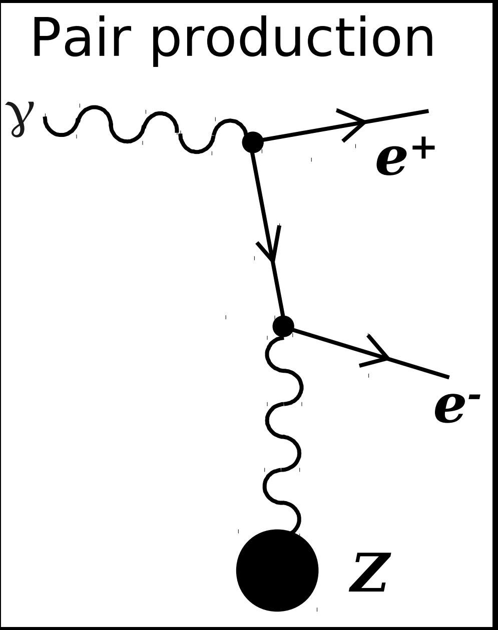
Pair production

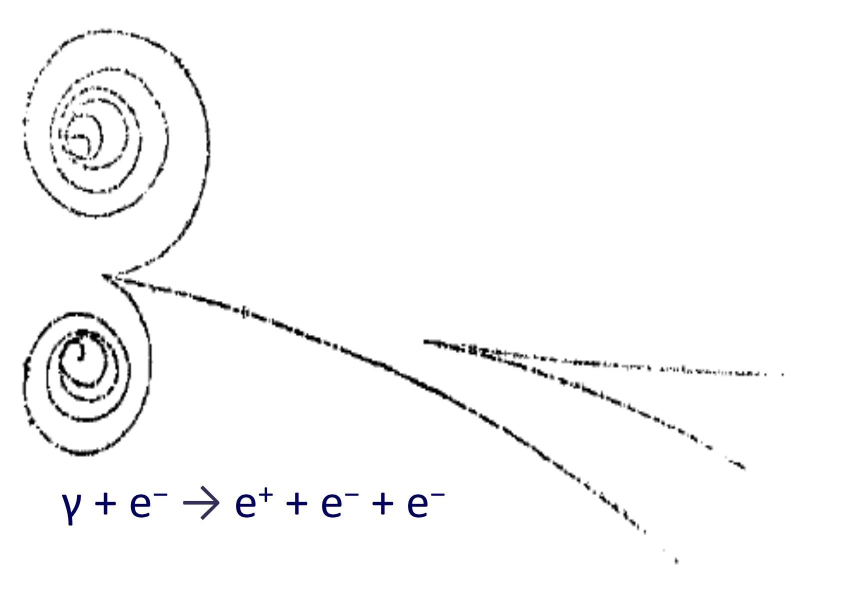
- Photons with E>100 MeV loose most of their energy in e^+e^- pair production
  – The threshold in the field of nuclei is $T=2m_ec^2$ =1.022 MeV
- The pair production cross section is:

$$\sigma_{pair} \sim \frac{7}{9}\frac{A}{N_A}\frac{1}{X_0}$$

Where A is the mass number of the target and N_A Avogadro Number

- The radiation length X_0 is also 7/9 of the mean free path for pair production by a high-energy photon





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

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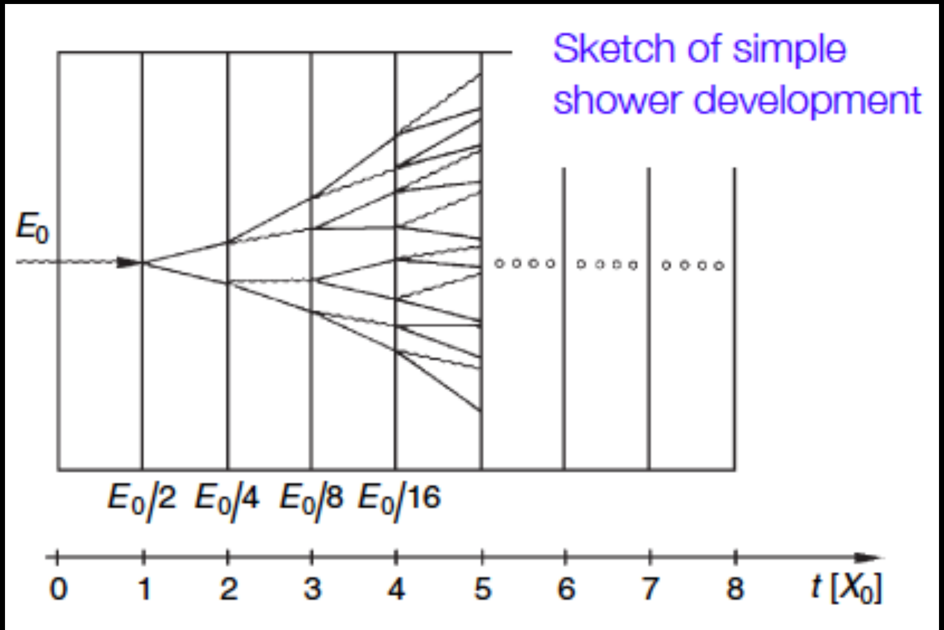
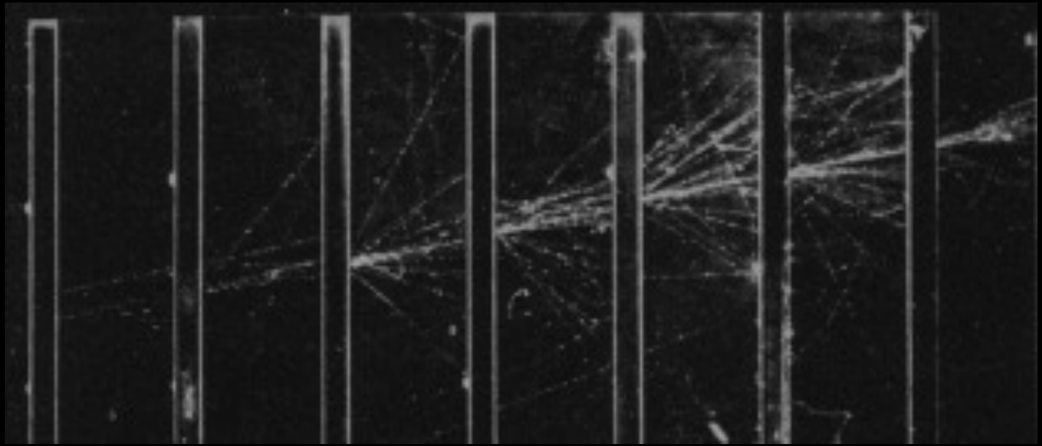
EM showers and X_0

- Simplified model [Heitler]: shower development governed by X_0
  - e^- loses [1 - 1/e] = 63% of energy in 1 X_0 (Brems.)
  - A γ will convert into a e^+e^- (pair prod.) with a probability P = 1 - exp(-7/9)=0.54
- Assume e≈2 and that for $E > E_c$ no energy loss by ionization/excitation
- Simple shower model:
  - $N(t)=2^t$ particles after $t = x/X_0$ each with energy $E(t)=E_0/2^t$
  - Stops if E (t) < $\mathbf{E_c=E_0 2^{tmax}}$
  - Location of shower maximum at

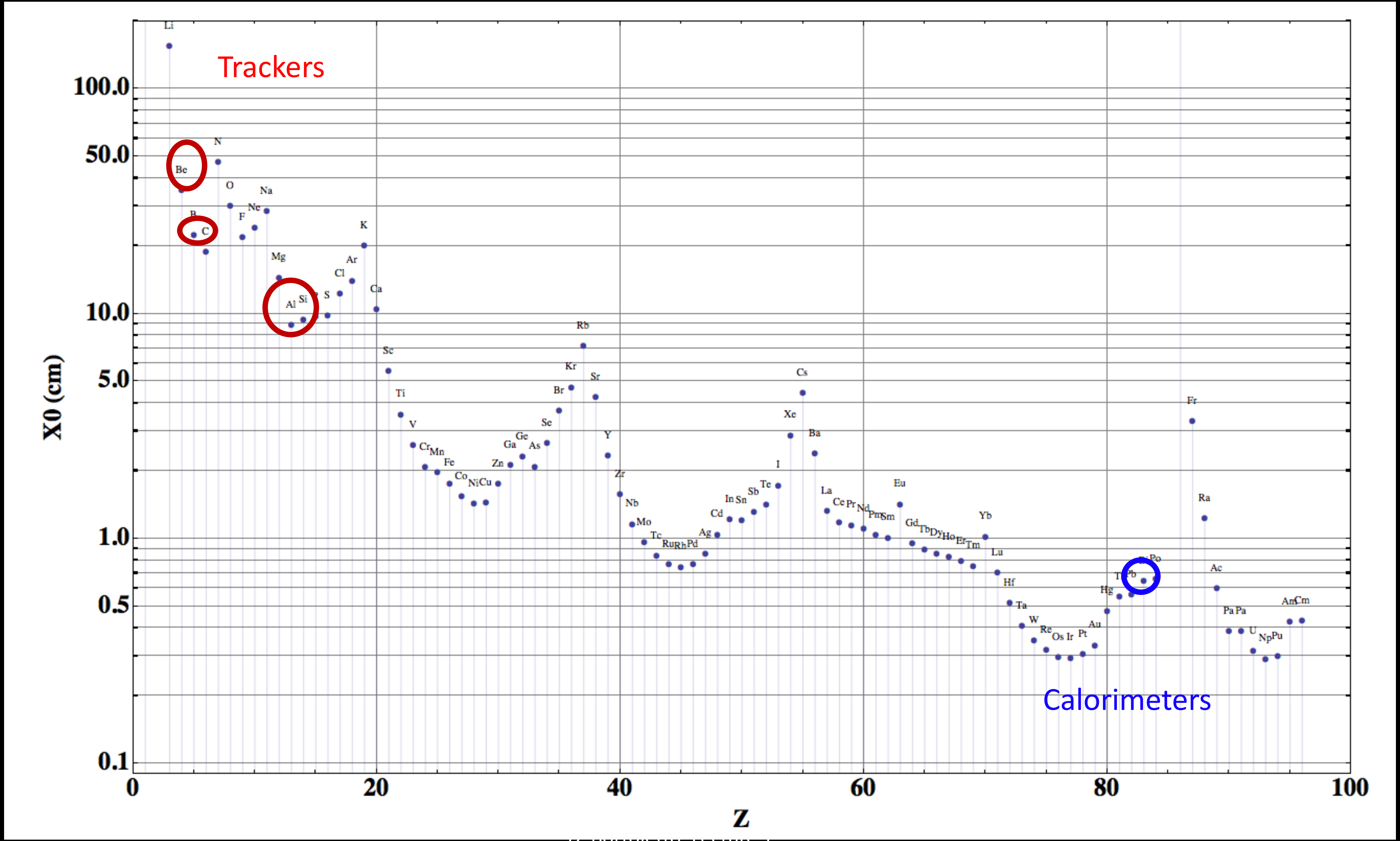
$$t_{max} = \frac{\ln(E_0/E_c)}{\ln 2} \propto \ln\left(\frac{E_0}{E_c}\right)$$



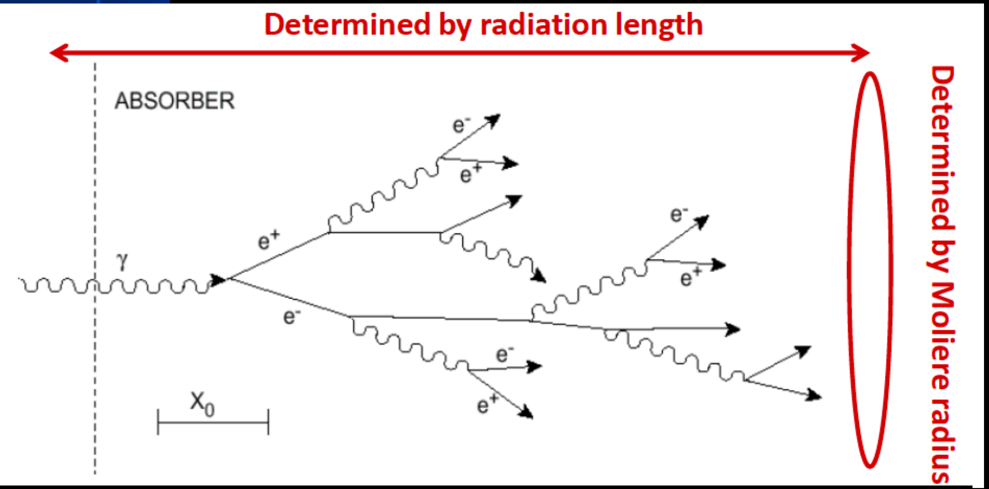


$$N_{max} = 2^{t_{max}} = \frac{E_0}{E_C}$$

Radiation length of different elements

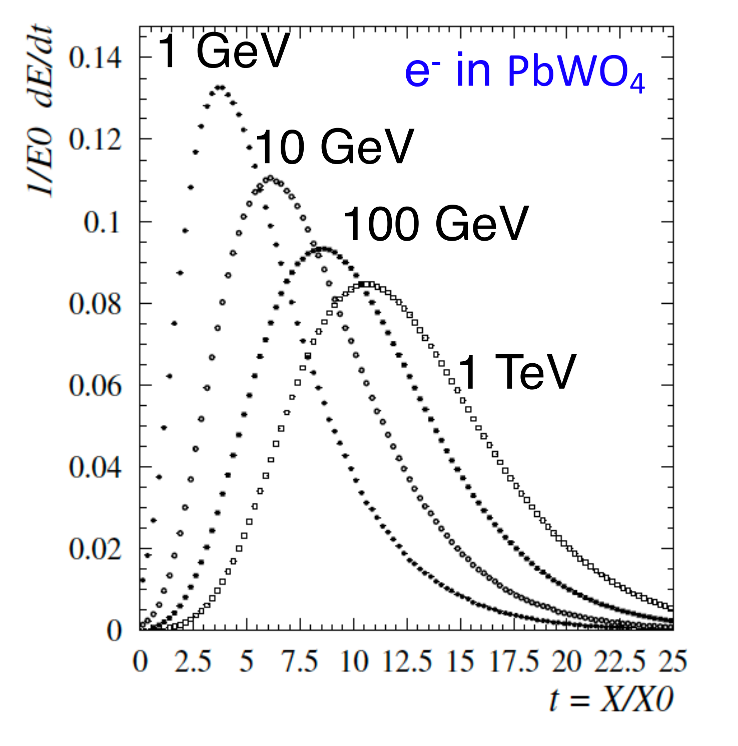


EM Shower development

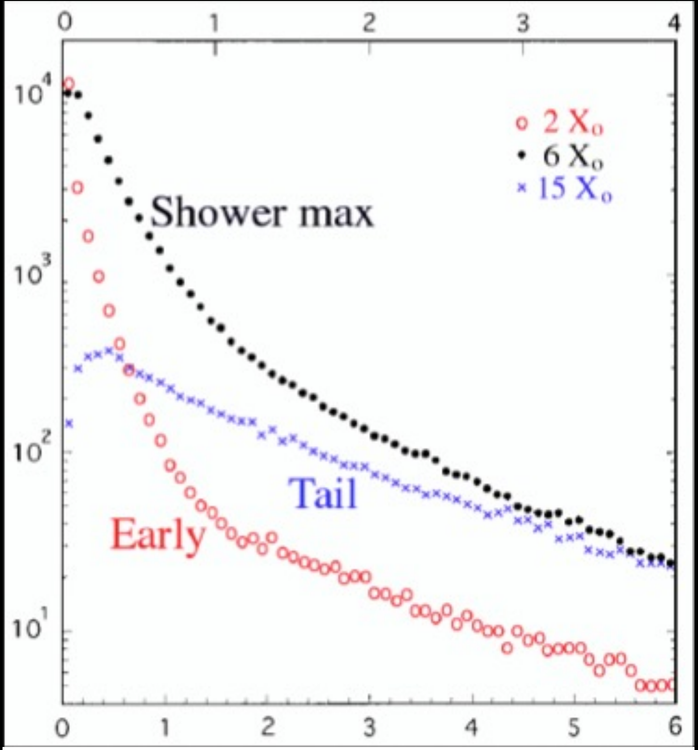


- Size of calorimeter driven by X_0
- Cell size related to R_M and chosen such that 70-80% of energy of a particle is deposited in the cell
- Granularity: size of detector elements in transverse and longitudinal direction. Determines the ability to resolve two showers induced by nearby particles

Longitudinal development



Transverse development for 10 GeV electron showers in Cu



Distance from shower axis [RM]

95% of energy within:

L (95%)= t_{max} + 0.08 Z + 9.6 X_0

$X_0 = \frac{180A}{Z^2}(g\,cm^{-2})$ and $t_{max} = \ln\frac{E}{E_c} - 1$

(for e induced showers)

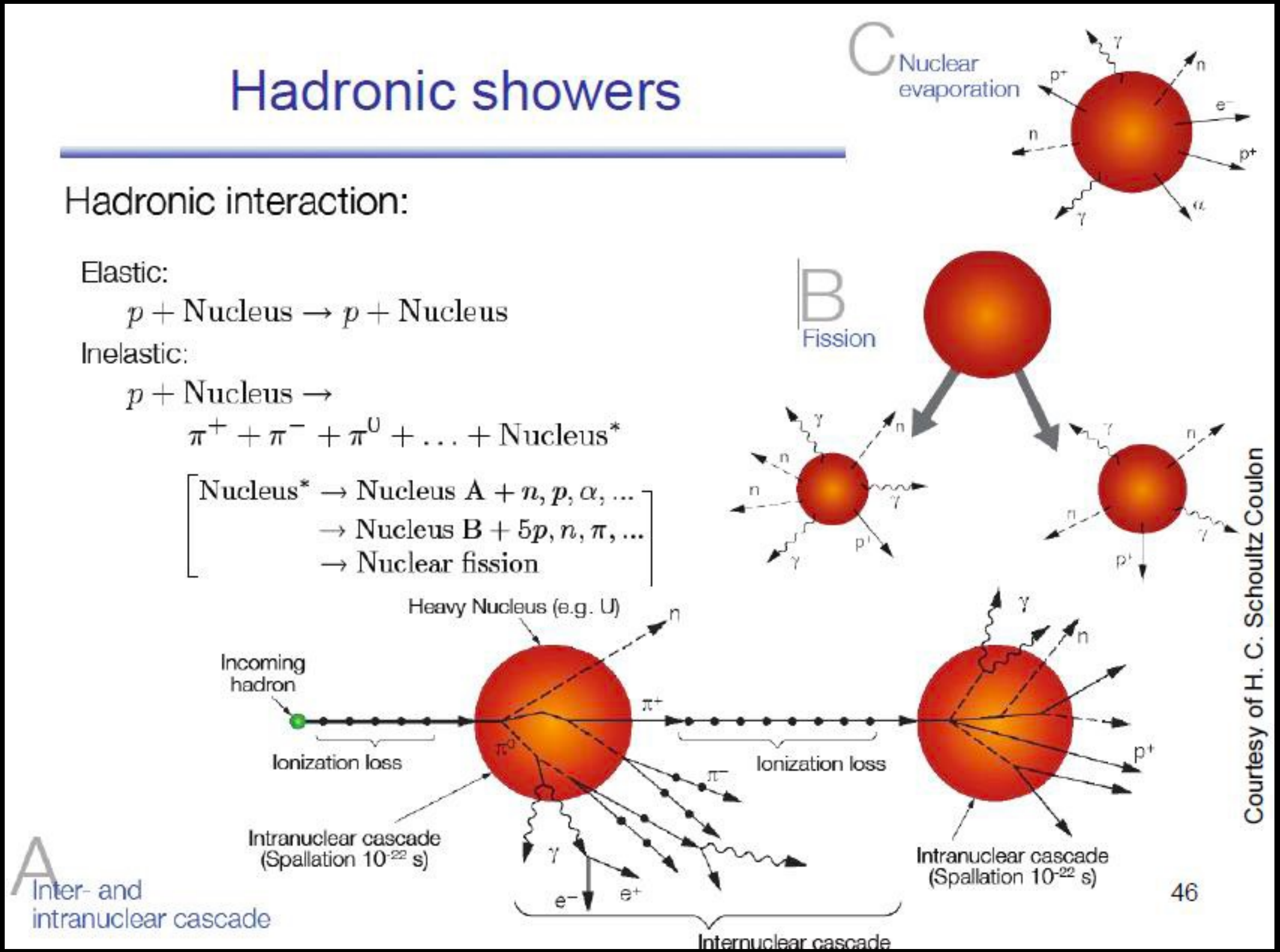
90% of energy: R_M

Beyond shower max broadening due to low energy γ

$R_M = \frac{21\,MeV}{E_c} X_0$

Hadron interactions with matter

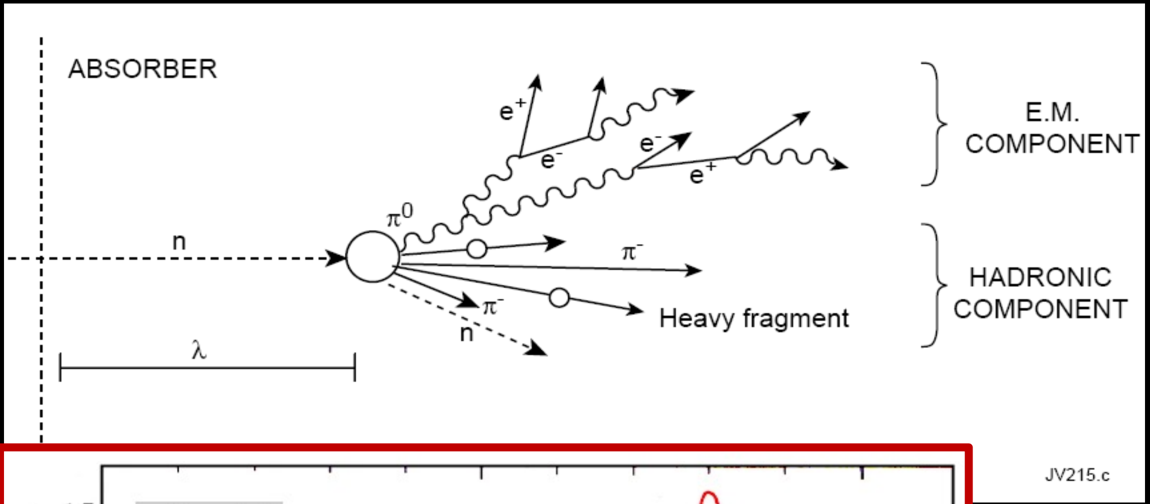
- Many processes involved:
  - Ionization,
  - hadron production (fragmentation, …
  - Charge exchange $\pi^{+/-}n \rightarrow \pi^0 p$/pbar
  - nuclear de-excitation,
  - nuclear breakup,
  - spallation neutrons,
  - muon and pion decay+
  - ……

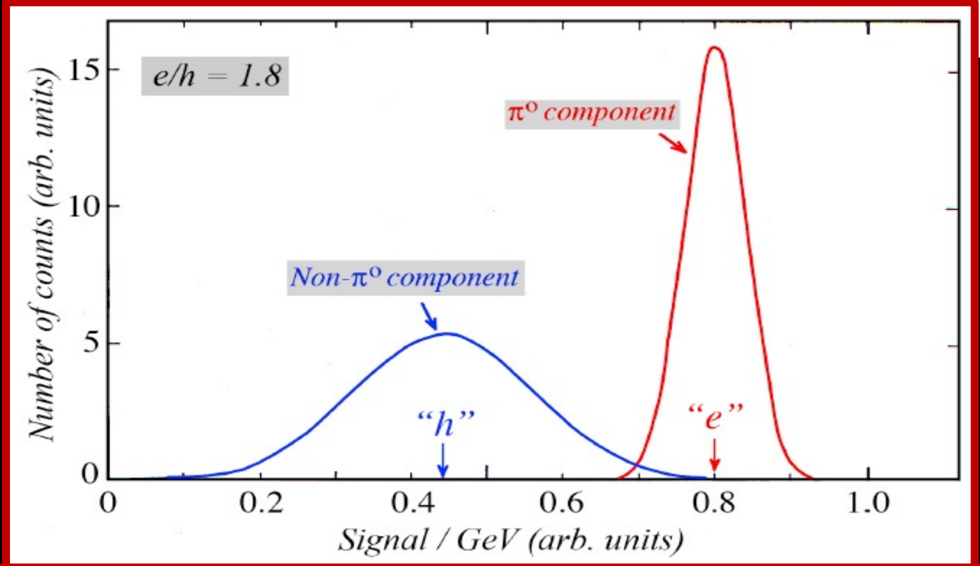


Hadronic Showers

- **Electromagnetic component:**
  - Electrons, photons (from excitation, radiation, decay of hadrons, photo-effect, …)
  - Neutral pions (eg, $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma, \eta \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$)

- **Hadronic component:**
  - Charged hadrons $\pi^{\pm}$, $K^{\pm}$,…:ionization, excitation, nuclei interaction (spallation p/n production, evaporation n, spallation products)
  - Neutrons: Elastic collisions, thermalization + capture (=>γ's)
  - Break-up of nuclei





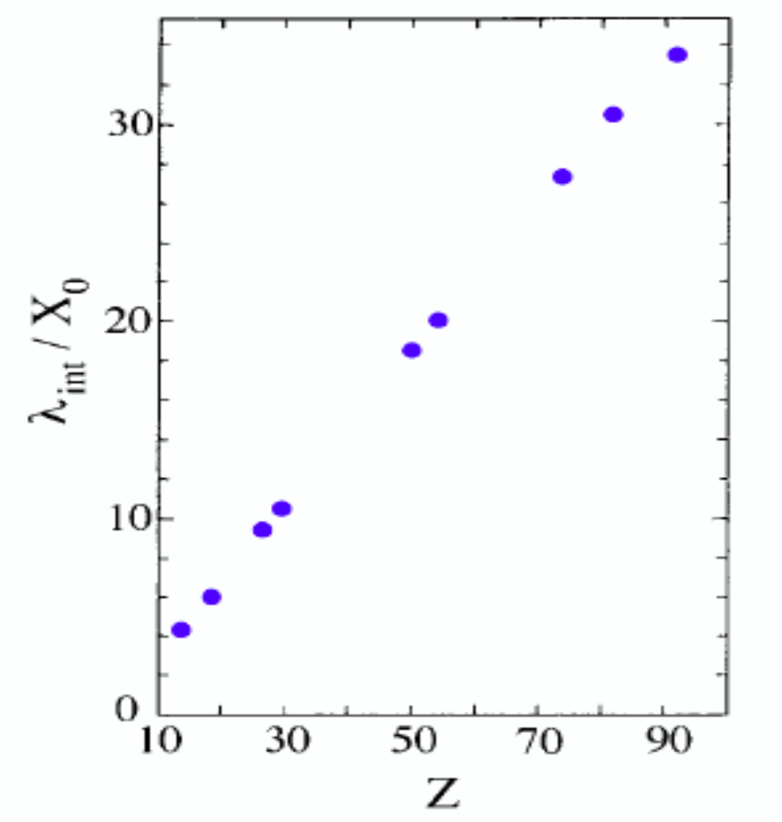
Part of the energy is lost in breaking nuclei (nuclear binding energy)

- Large **non-Gaussian** fluctuations of each component (EM vs non-EM)
- Large, **non-Gaussian** fluctuations in "invisible" energy losses

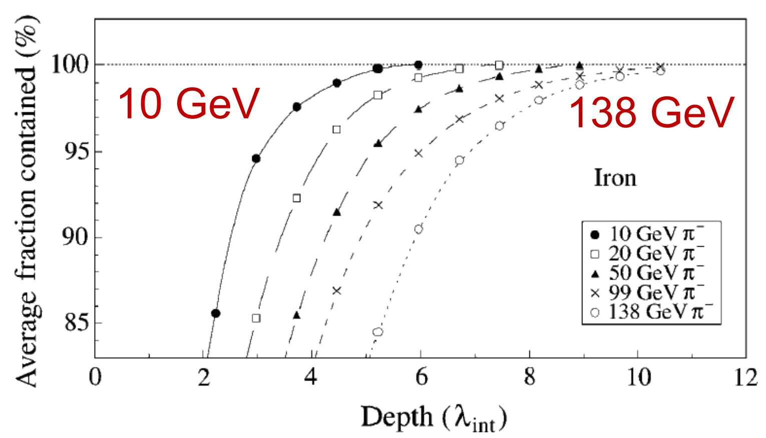
Nuclear Interaction Length

- Hadronic showers are governed by the interaction length λ_{int}: the mean free path between inelastic interaction

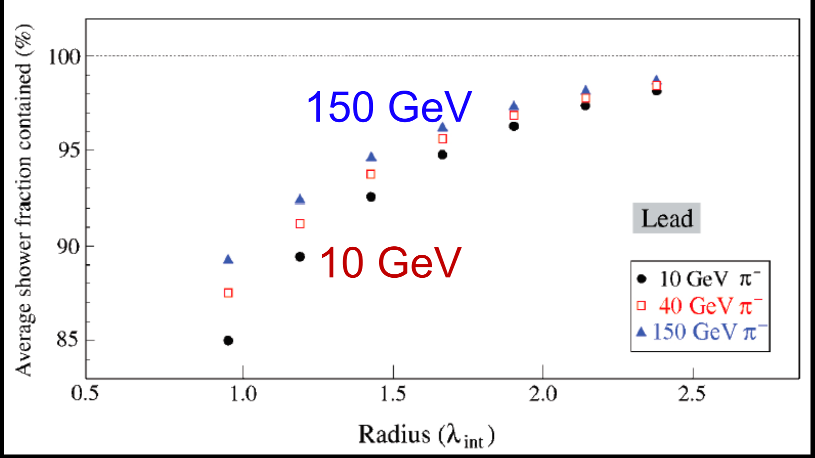
$$\lambda_{int} \approx \frac{35\ cm}{\rho} A^{1/3}$$



- **Longitudinal:** Need about **~10** λ_{int} to contain most of the hadronic showers



- **Transverse:** Need about **~1.5** λ_{int} to contain most of the hadronic showers



Nuclear Interaction length

- To contain an hadronic, you need small λ_{int}
- λ_{int} (Fe)=17 cm

	Lead	Iron
Ionization by pions	19%	21%
Ionization by protons	37%	53%
Total ionization	56%	74%
Nuclear binding energy loss	32%	16%
Target recoil	2%	5%
Total invisible energy	34%	21%
Kinetic energy evaporation neutrons	10%	5%
Number of charged pions	0.77	1.4
Number of protons	3.5	8
Number of cascade neutrons	5.4	5
Number of evaporation neutrons	31.5	5
Total number of neutrons	36.9	10
Neutrons/protons	10.5/1	1.3/1

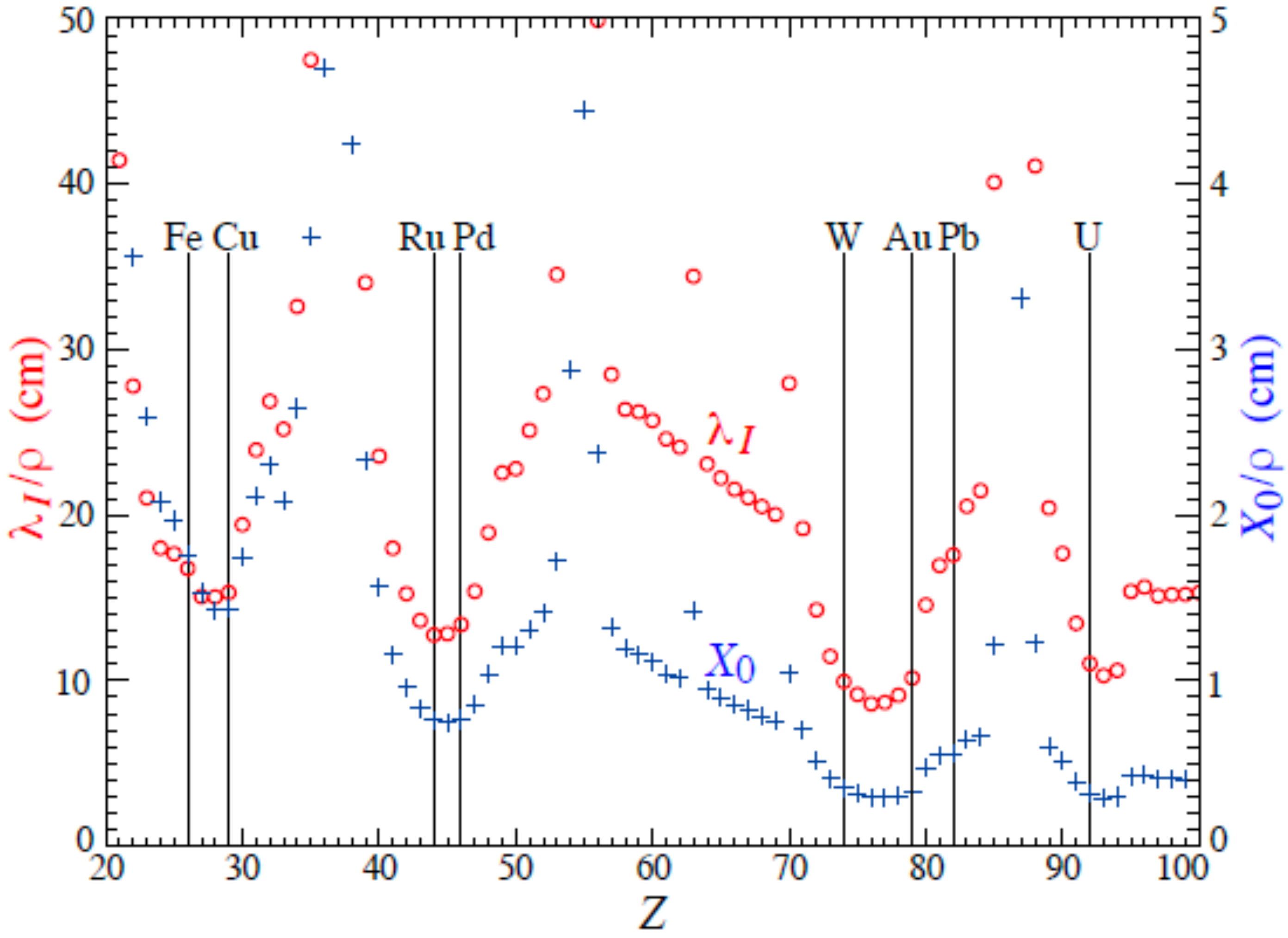
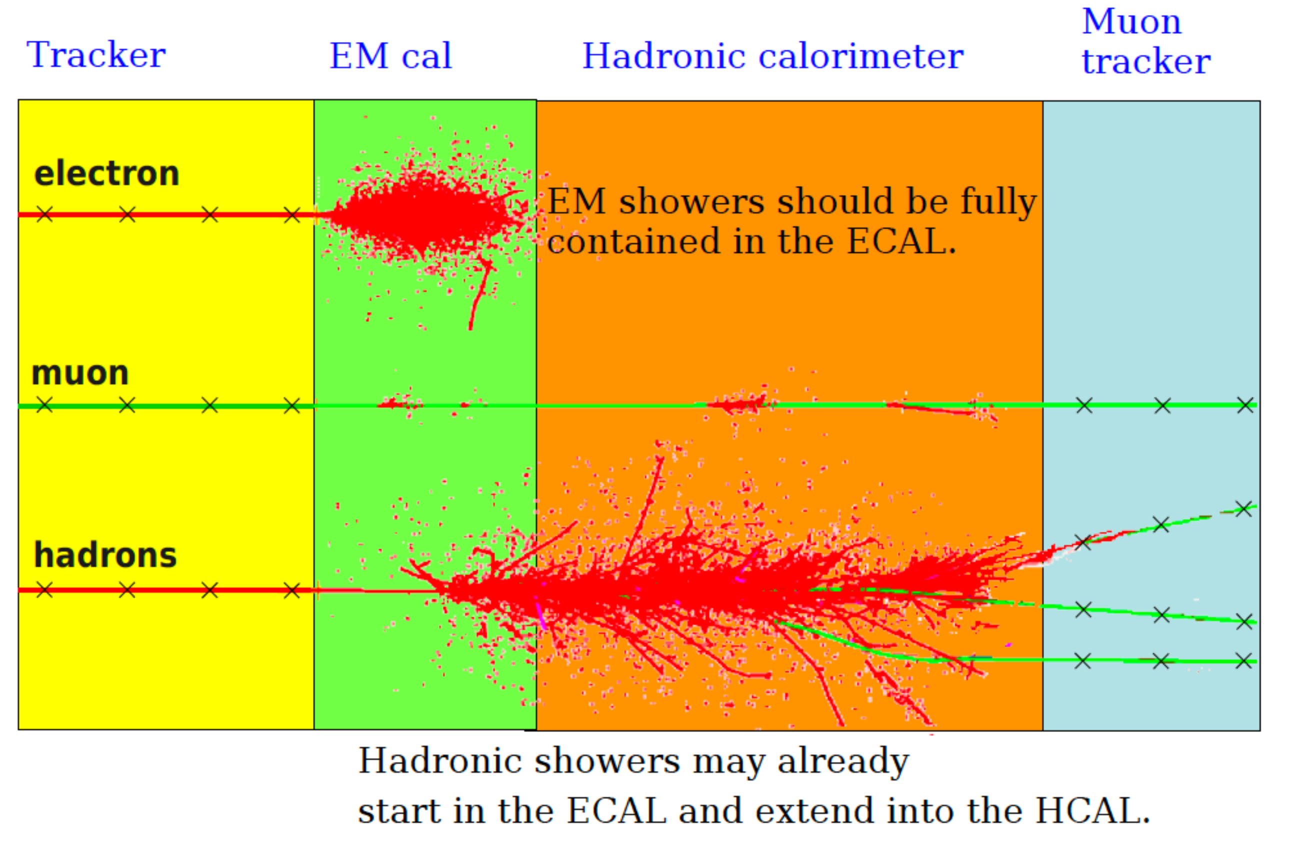


Figure 34.21: Nuclear interaction length λ_I/ρ (circles) and radiation length X_0/ρ (+'s) in cm for the chemical elements with $Z > 20$ and $\lambda_I < 50$ cm.

Calorimetry

- Calorimetry refers to the detection of particles through total absorption in a block of matter
  – The measurement process is destructive for almost all particle
  – The exception are muons (and neutrinos) → identify muons easily since they penetrate a substantial amount of matter
- Calorimeters are essential to measure neutral particles

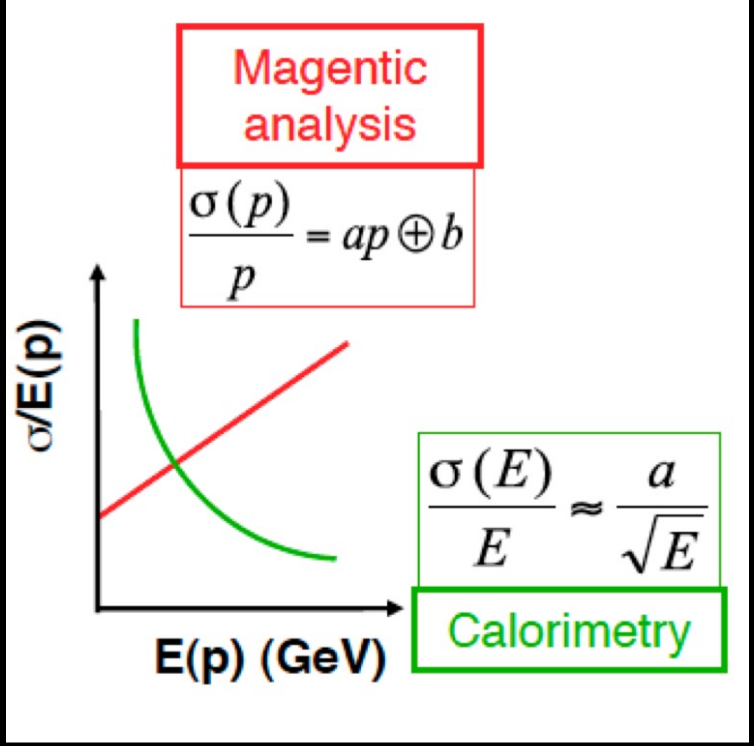


- Homogenous calorimeters: whole volume filled by high-density material (BGO, Lead glass, noble gases …)
  – Exclusively used for EM part
  – Best resolution
  – Expensive

- Sampling calorimeters: alternating layers of "absorbers" and active materials
  – Absorbers: Iron, Cupper, Lead….
  – Active: Plastic scintillators, silicon detectors, gas detectors…

Energy resolution

- Calorimeters are the ideal instrument to measure the full energy of particles, particularly at high momentum

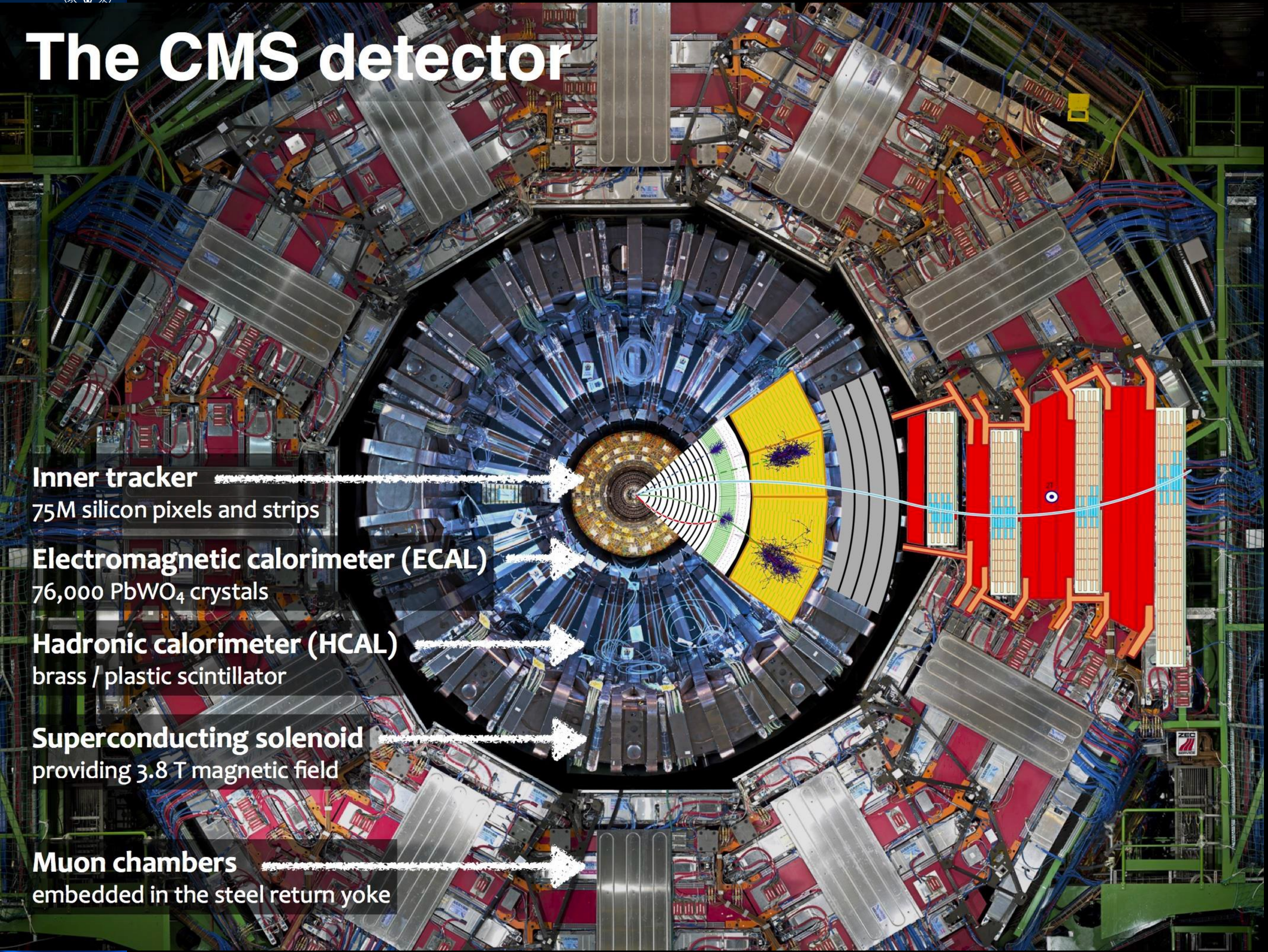


$$E \propto N \qquad \sigma_E \approx \sqrt{N} \approx \sqrt{E}$$

$$\sigma_E = a\sqrt{E} \oplus bE \oplus c \qquad \frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus b \oplus \frac{c}{E}$$

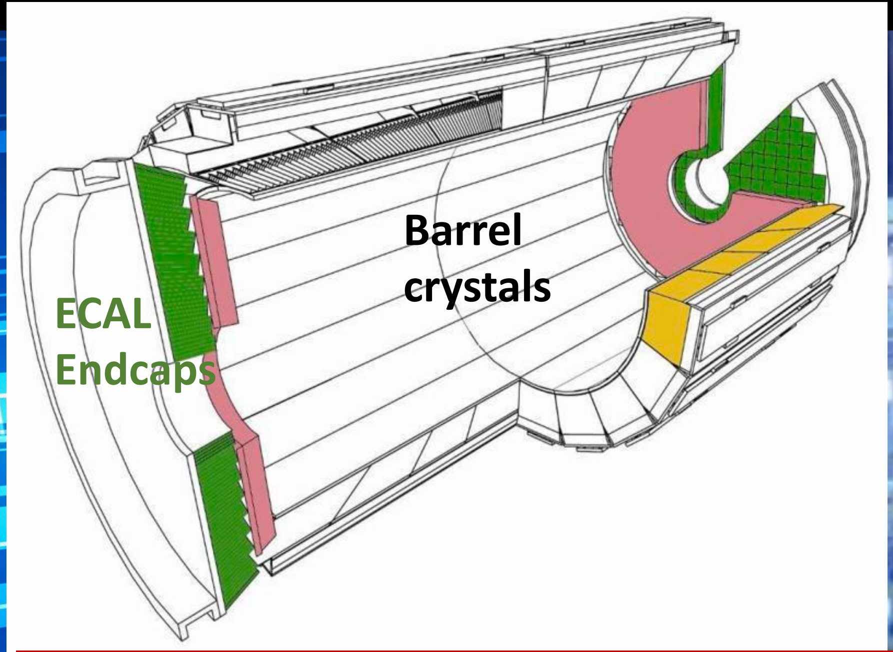
- a: stochastic term
  - intrinsic statistical shower fluctuations
  - sampling fluctuations
  - signal quantum fluctuations (e.g. photo-electron statistics)
- c: noise term
  - readout electronic noise
  - Radio-activity, pile-up fluctuations
- b: constant term
  - inhomogeneities (hardware or calibration)
  - imperfections in calorimeter construction (dimensional variations, etc.)
  - non-linearity of readout electronics
  - fluctuations in longitudinal energy containment (leakage can also be ~ E-1/4)
  - fluctuations in energy lost in dead material before or within the calorimeter

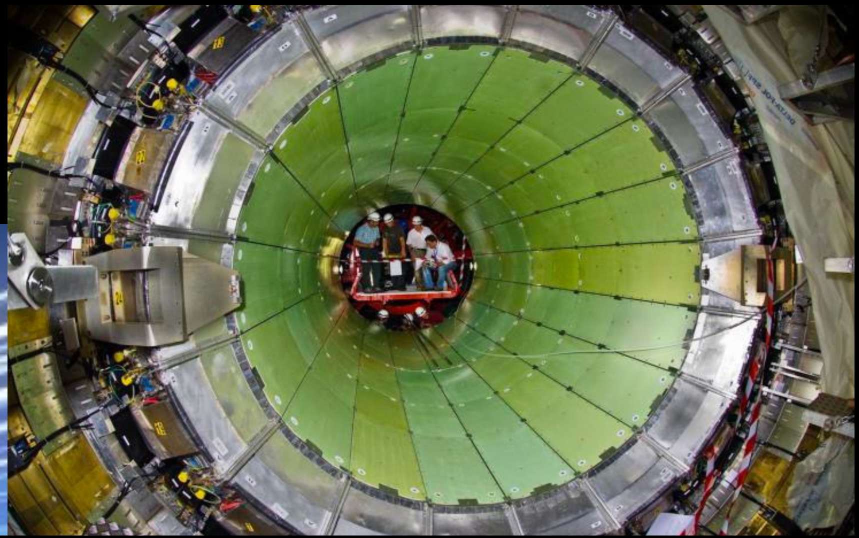
The CMS detector



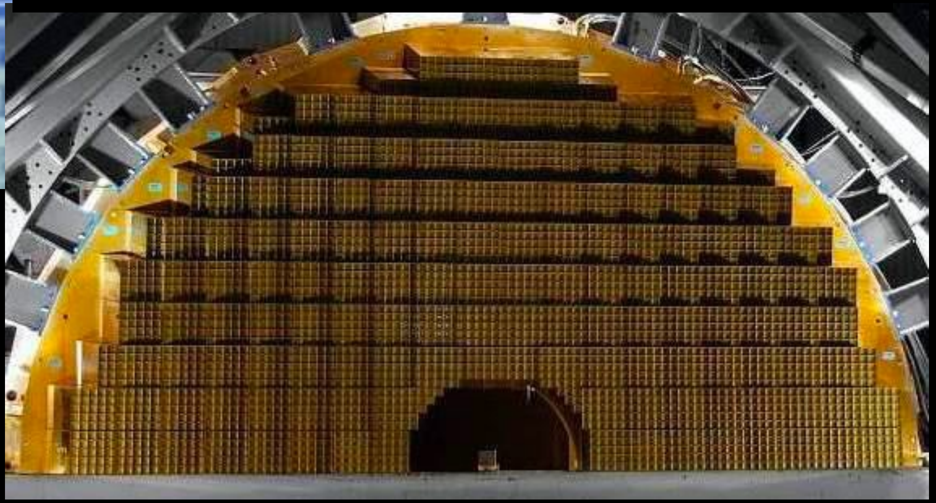
CMS ECAL

Homogeneous Ecal, $PbWO_4$ crystals 23 (22) cm long in Barrel (endcap)





- Barrel ($|\eta|<1.48$), ~ 67 t
- 61200 crystals in 36 super-modules

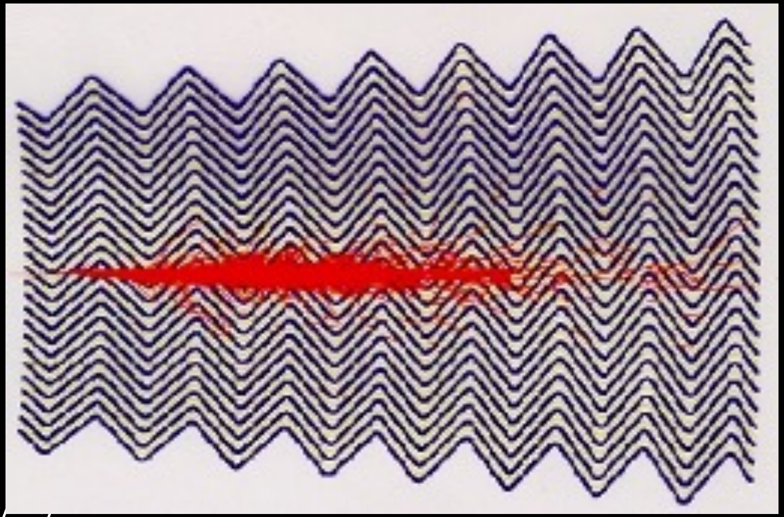


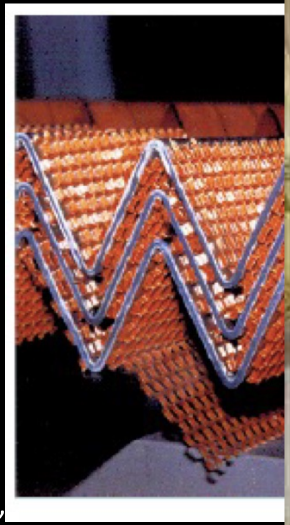
- Endcap I ($1.48 < |\eta|<3$), ~ 23 t
- 14648 crystals over 4 Dees (2 per endcap)

- Excellent energy resolution
  - $-X_0 = 0.89\ cm \Rightarrow$ compact calorimeter
  - $-R_M = 22\ cm \Rightarrow$ compact shower development
- Fast light emission
- Radiation hard (10^5 Gy)
- But low light yield ($150\ \gamma/\mathrm{MeV}$) and response depends on Temperature and dose

ATLAS ECAL

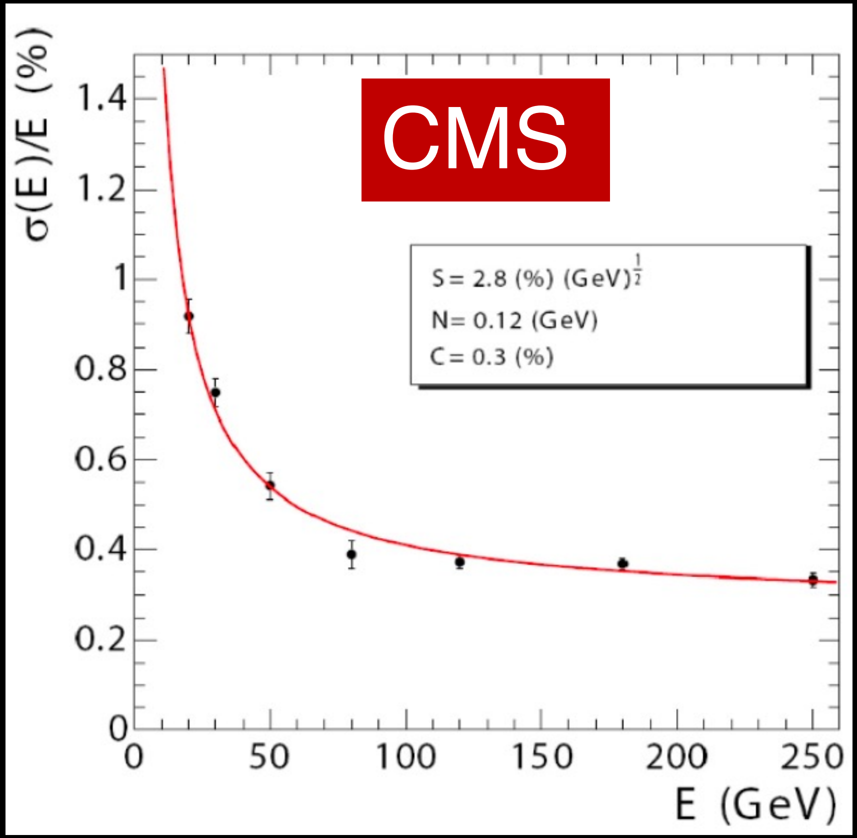
- Sampling Pb/LAr calorimeter with "accordion" geometry
- Longitudinal depth ~ 25 X_0, (47 cm vs 22 cm for CMS)
- 3 layers up to $|\eta|=2.5$
- 2 layers $2.5<|\eta|<3.2$
- Usage of Liquid Argon
  – Radiation Hard
  – High number of electron-ion pair produced by ionization (1 GeV deposit → 5×10^6 e-)
  – Stable vs time but needs cryostat (90K)

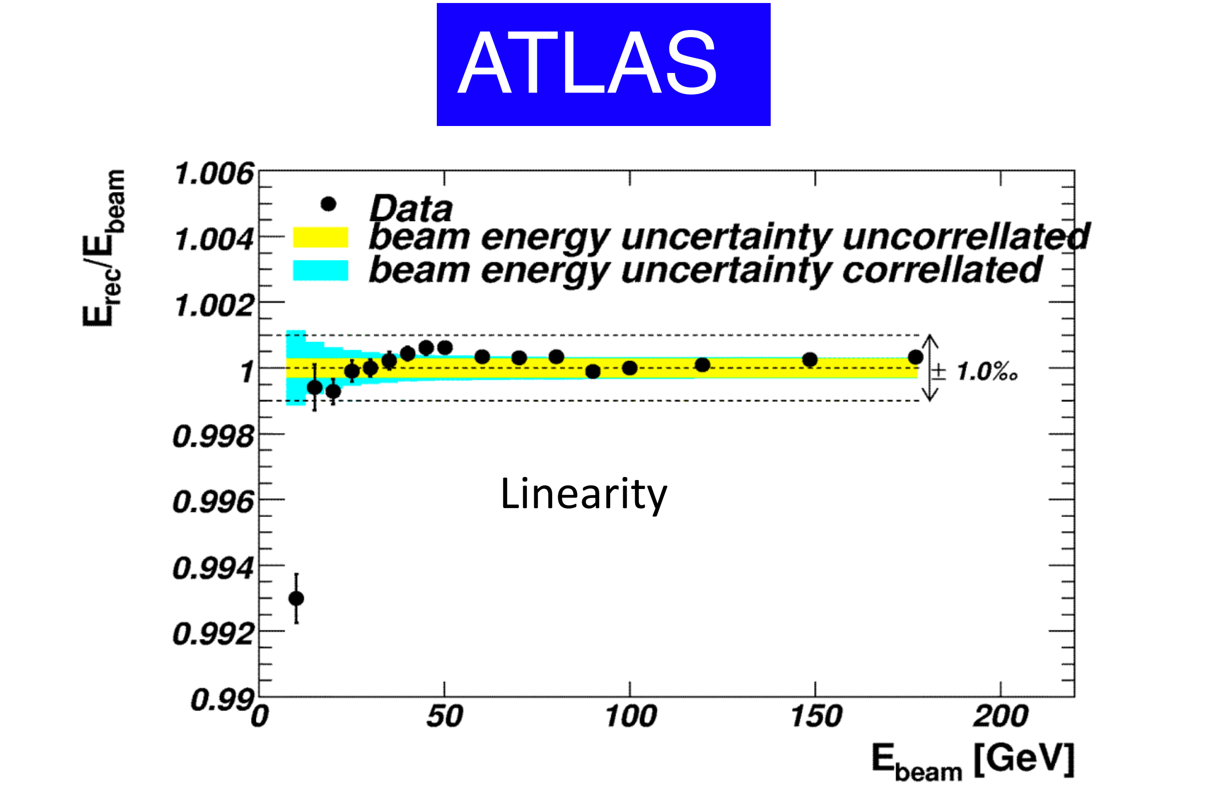




CMS and ATLAS calorimeter performance

- Standalone performance in test beams



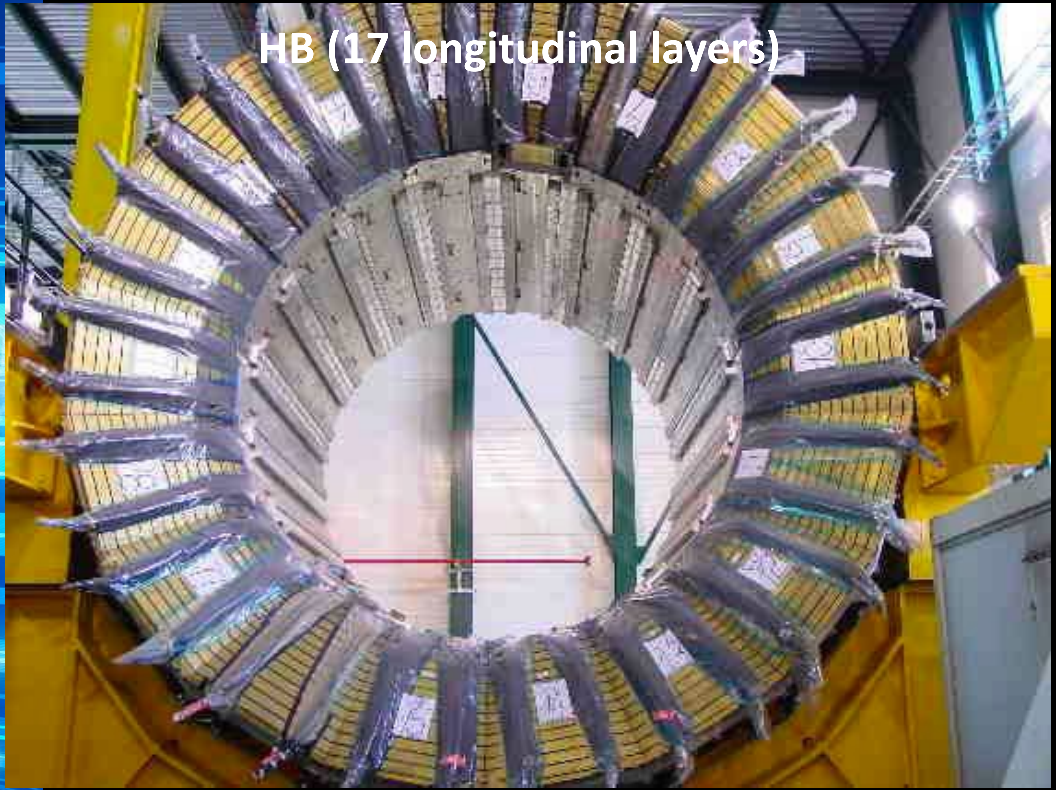


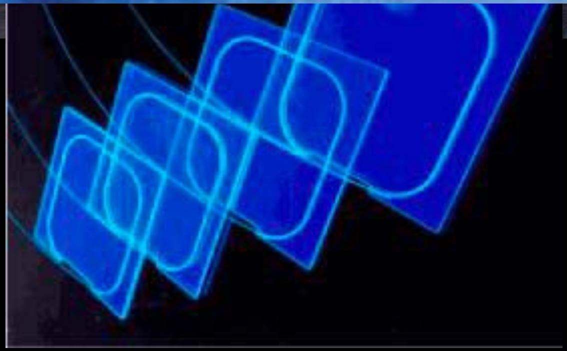
$$\frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{2.8\%}{\sqrt{E(\mathrm{GeV})}} \oplus \frac{125}{E(\mathrm{MeV})} \oplus 0.3\%$$

$$\frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{10\%}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus \frac{0.3}{E} \oplus 0.7\%$$

CMS HCAL

- HB/HE: Sampling Brass/plastic scintillator calorimeter

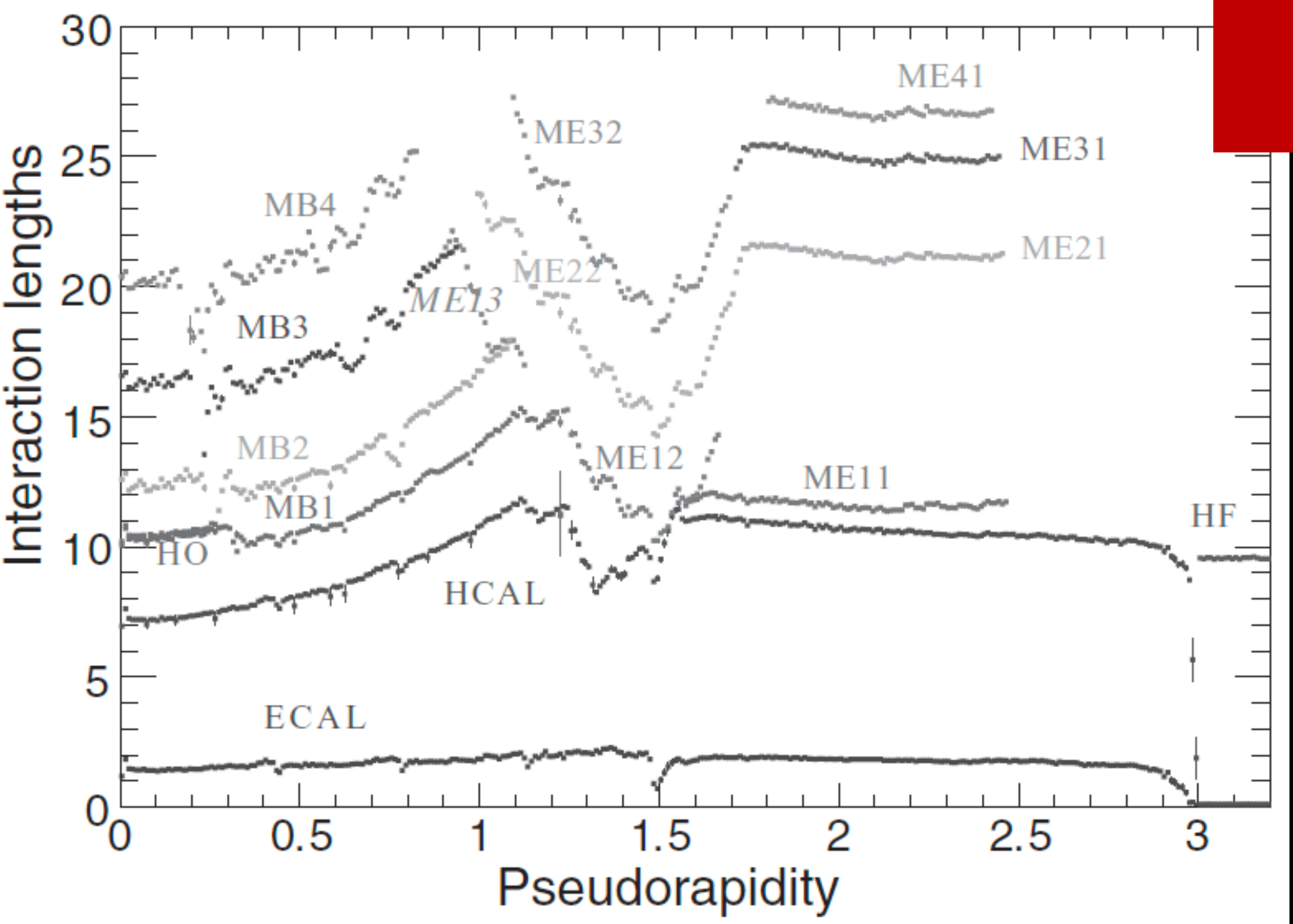


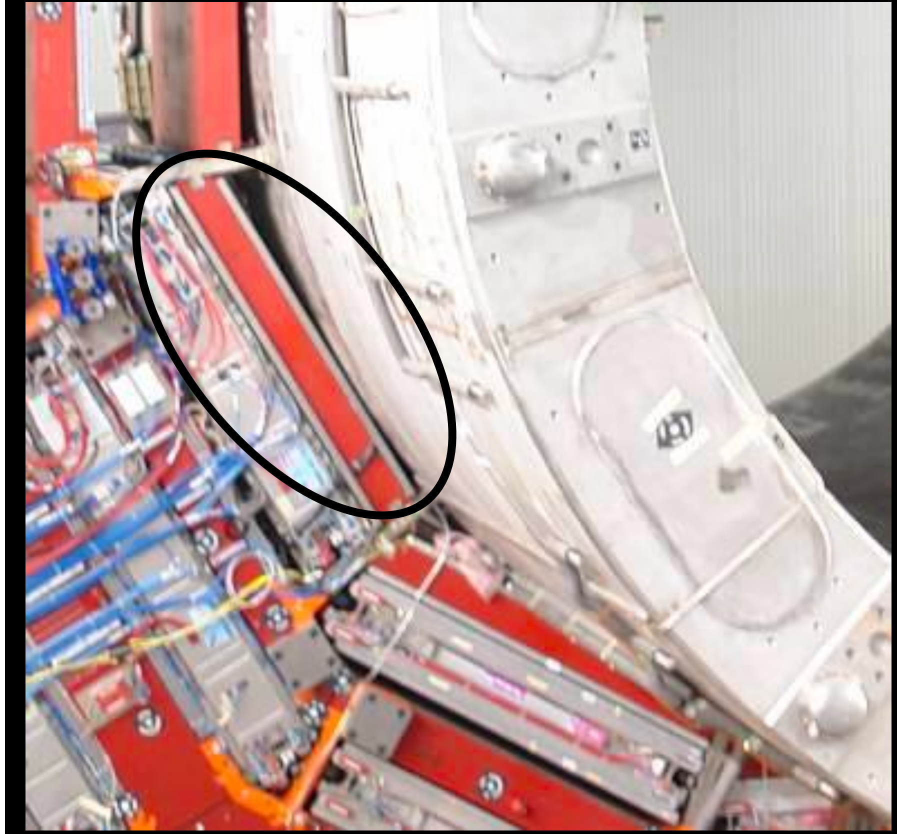


Segmentation: $\Delta\eta$x $\Delta\phi$ =0.087x0.087 (larger at high η)
8x20° "wedges" with alternate brass plates (5-8 cm) and "tiles" embedded with Wave Length Shifter (WLS).
Light from scintillator: blue-violet → WLS: absorb light then fluorescence in green → Green light read by Hybrid Photo Diode (HPD)

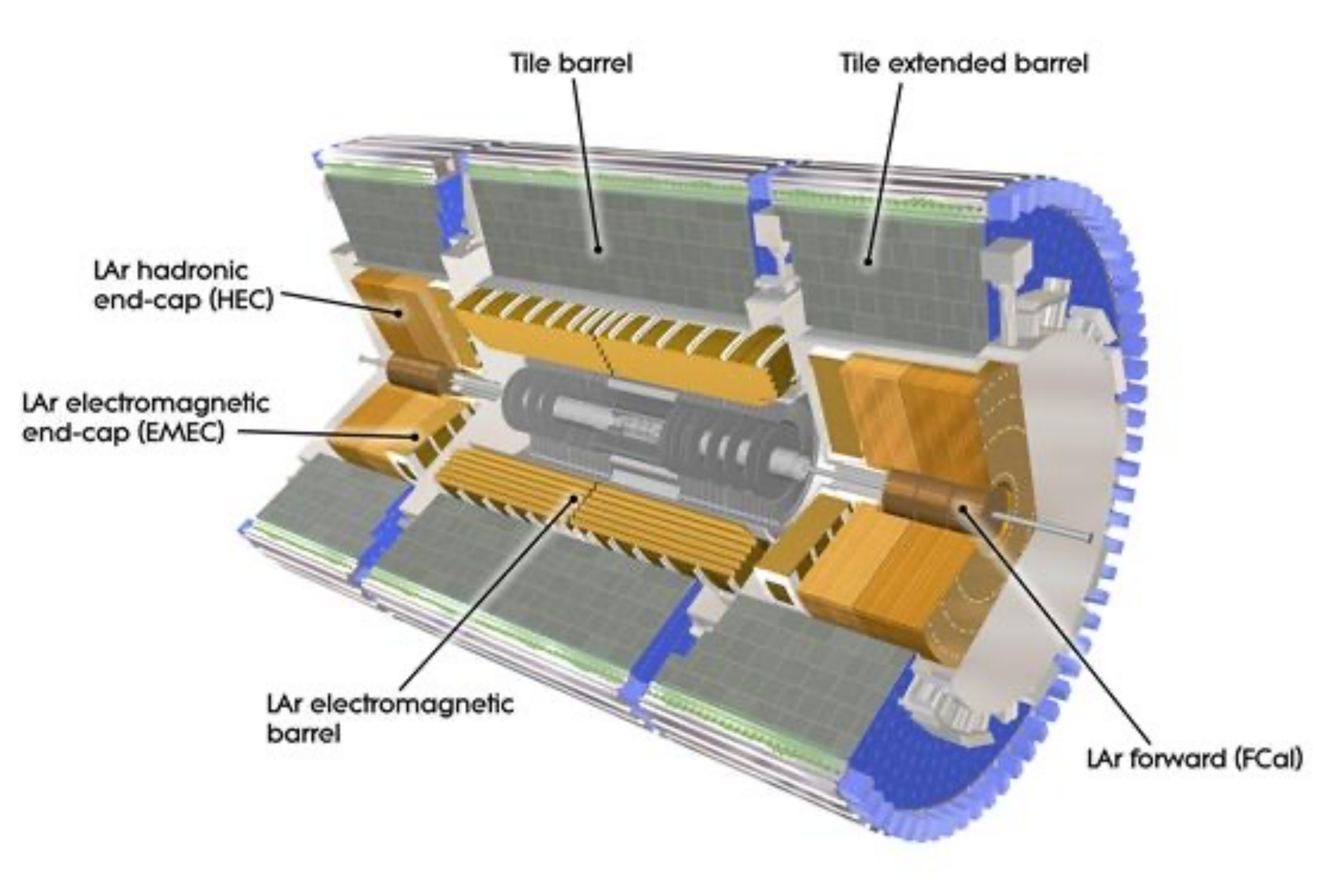
CMS HCAL

- At $|\eta|=0$, λ_{int} from HB =5.8 (7.2 with ECAL) → Large leakage…
- CMS adds HCAL Outer (HO):
  - Scintillator + WLS outside coil acting as "tail catcher"
  - Standalone resolution 100%/sqrt(E)





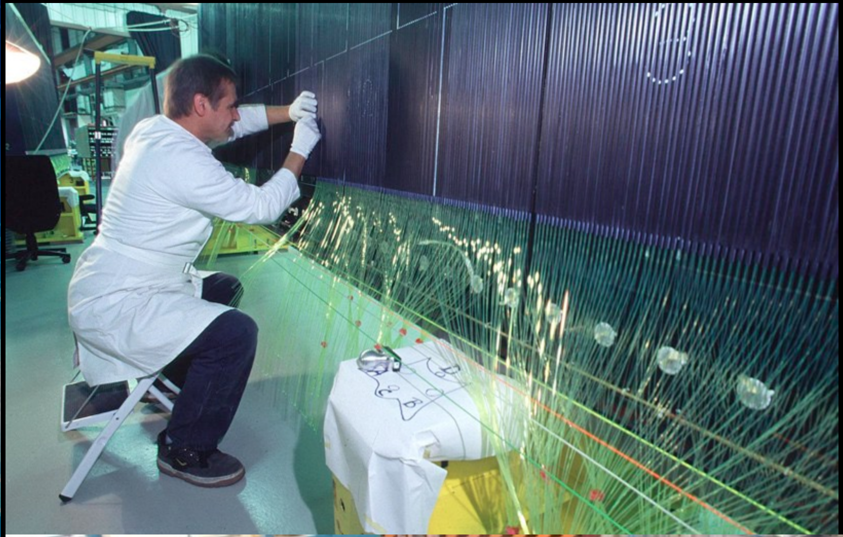
ATLAS HCAL

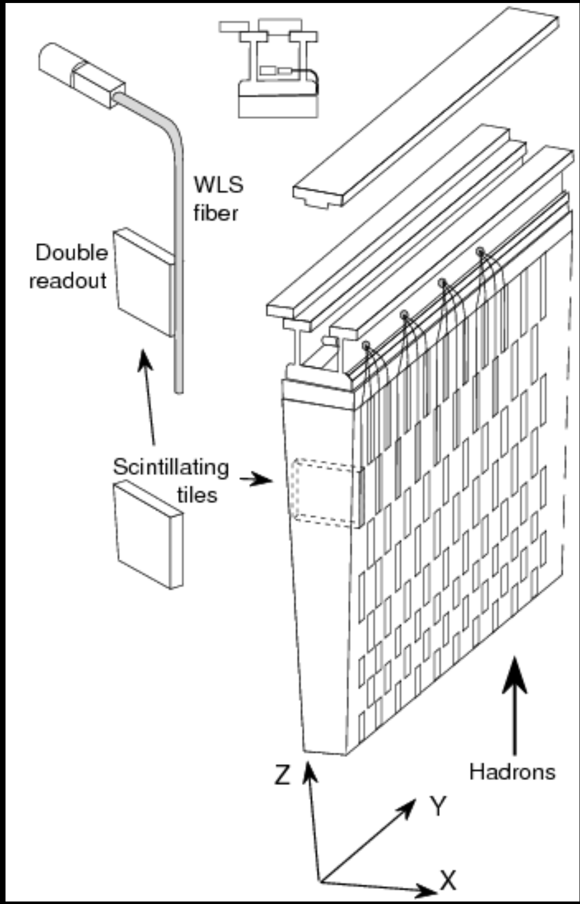


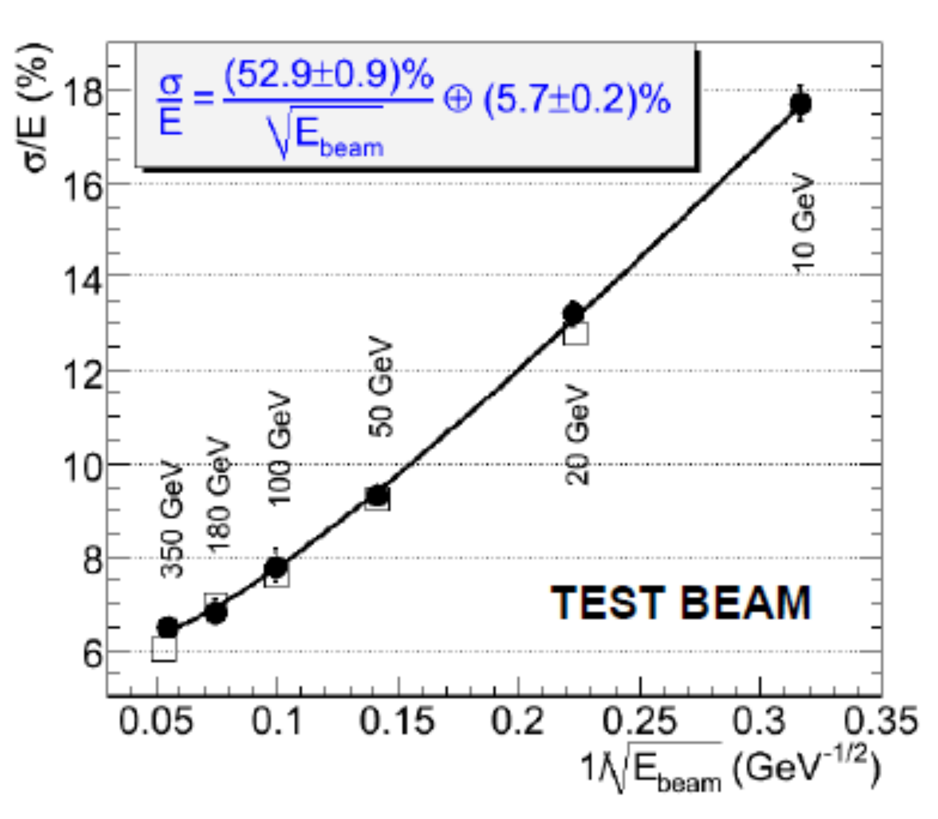
- Different technologies depending location due to different dose
- Total thickness about 8-10 λ_{int}
- $|\eta|$< 1.7 - Tile calorimeter Iron and scintillator
- 1.7<$|\eta|$< 3.2 LAr/Cu
- 3.2<$|\eta|$< 4.9 Forward calorimeter LAr/Cu or W

ATLAS Tile calorimeter

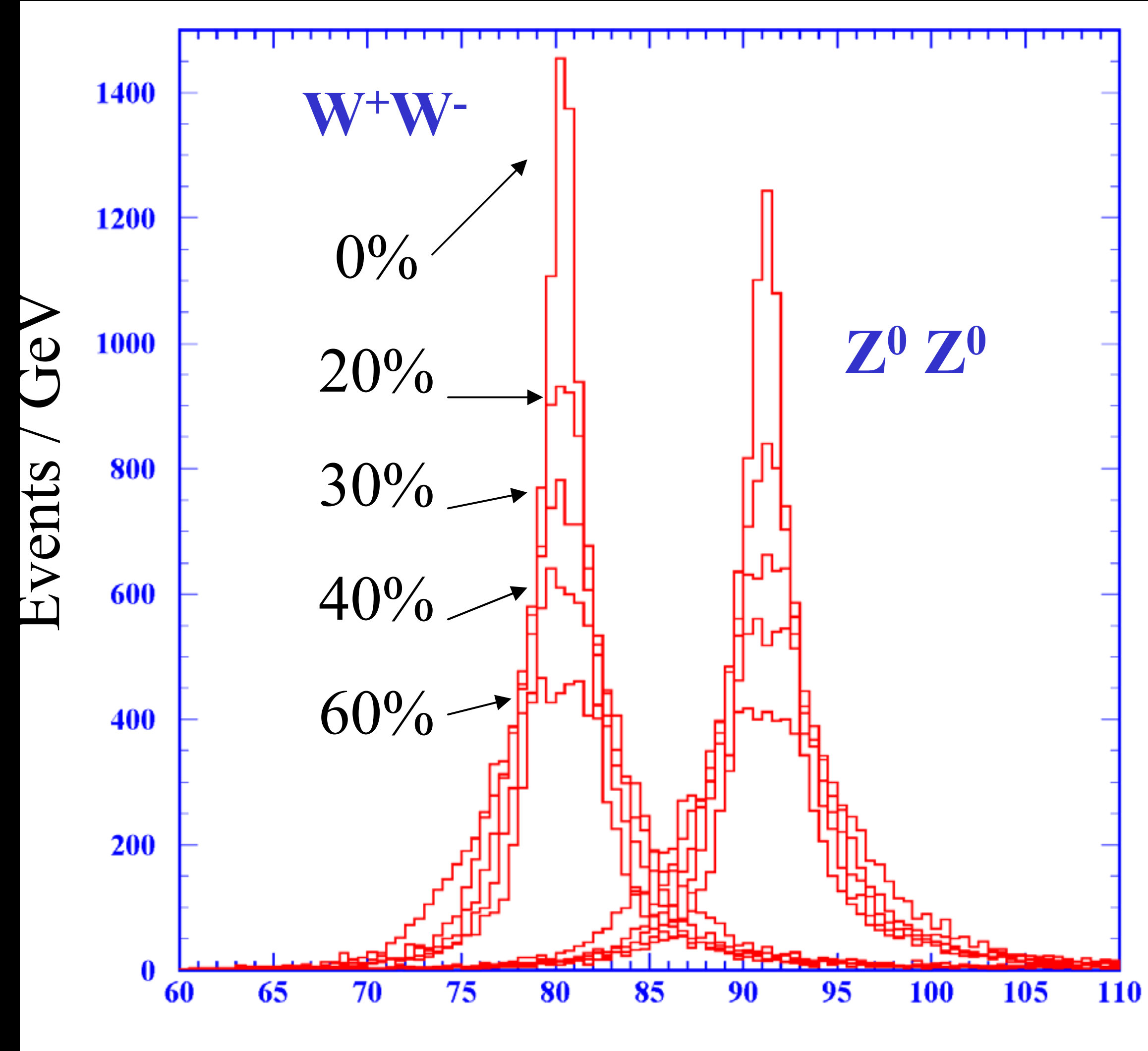
- steel/scintillator, scintillating fibers, readout by photomultiplier







Impact of calorimeter resolution



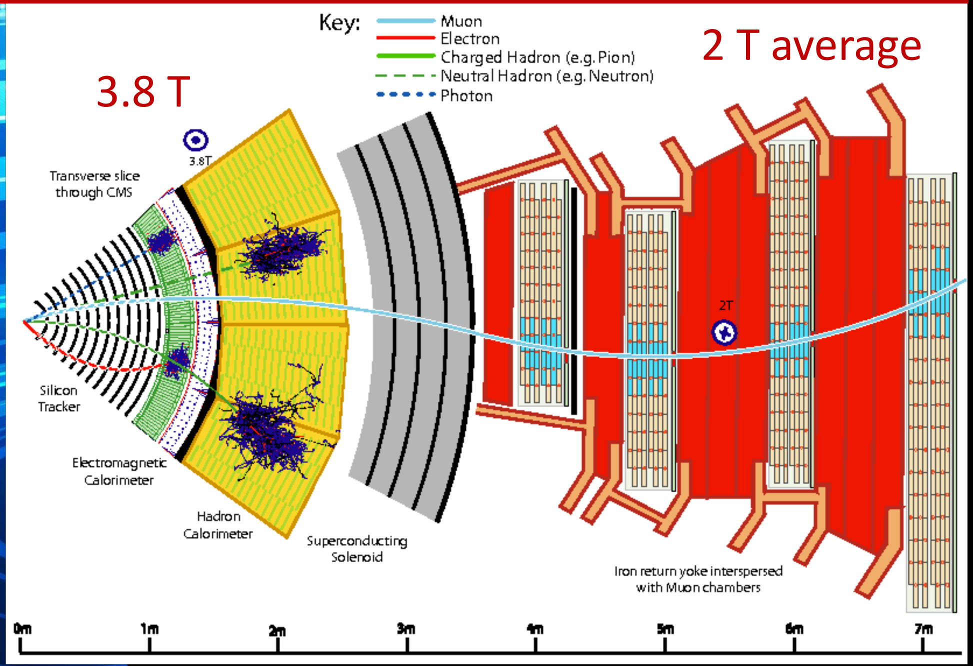
No kinematic fits, just direct measurement

- Comparing $e^+e^- \rightarrow WW$ and $e^+e^- \rightarrow ZZ$ at $\sqrt{s}$=300 GeV (hadronic decays only, assume WW:ZZ = 1:1 for illustration)
- *Reality = 7:1 !*
- 30%$\sqrt{E_{jet}}$ is a good target. Physics may demand even more !

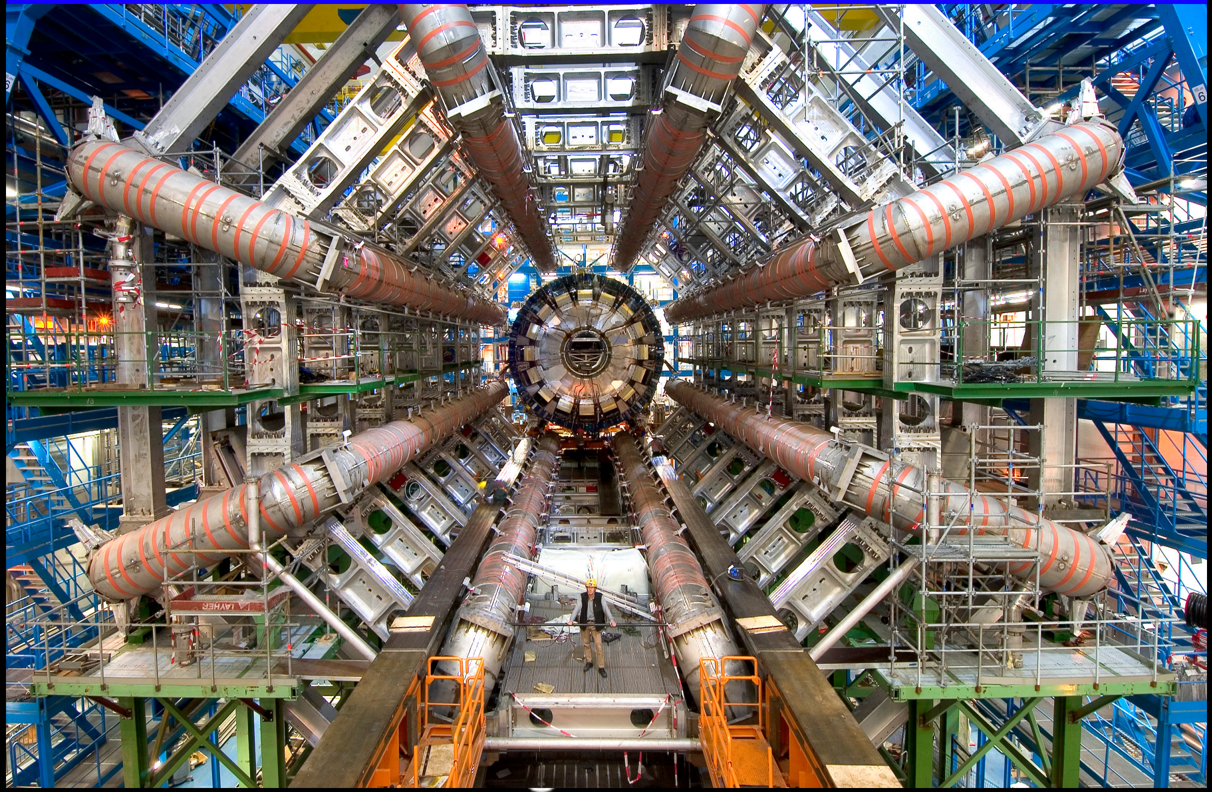
Muon Detection

- Muon identification, momentum measurement, and triggering depends on inner tracking system and muon spectrometers located after the calorimeters
- Layout depends critically on the magnet configuration adopted for the experiment.
- Both ATLAS and CMS inner trackers are in a solenoidal B field along the beam direction

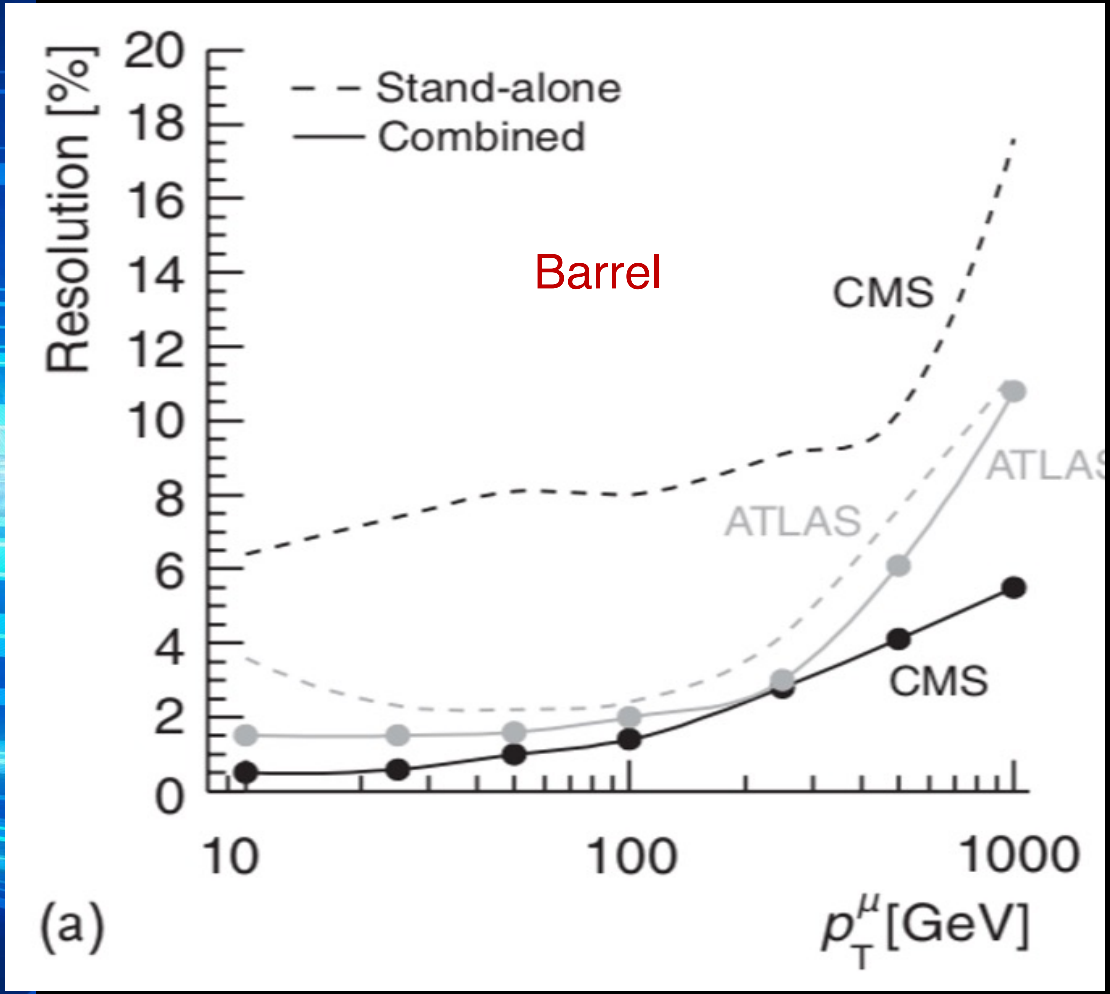
CMS Muon spectrometer
return field of solenoid for CMS

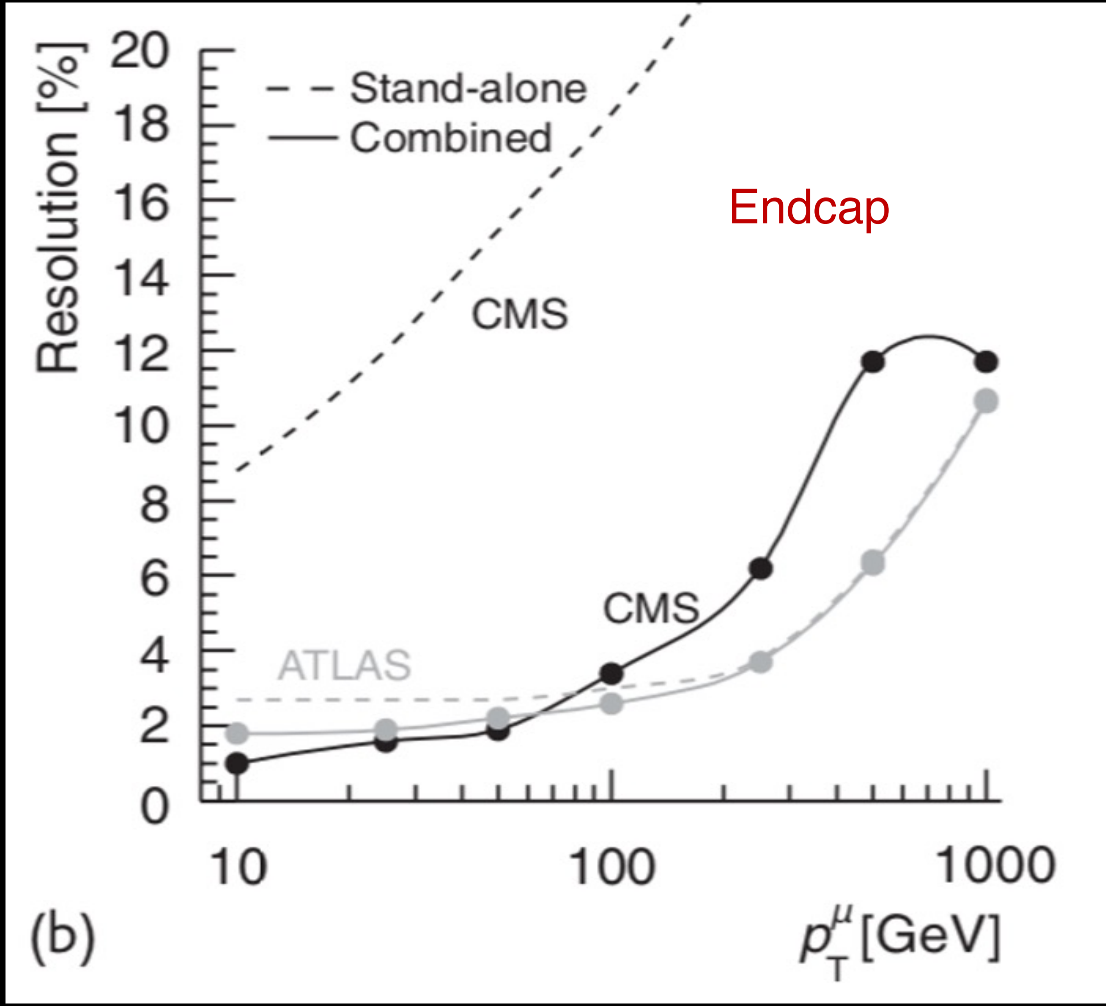


ATLAS muon spectrometer in air core Toroids (3.8 T peak) 0.8 T average in Barrel Toroid



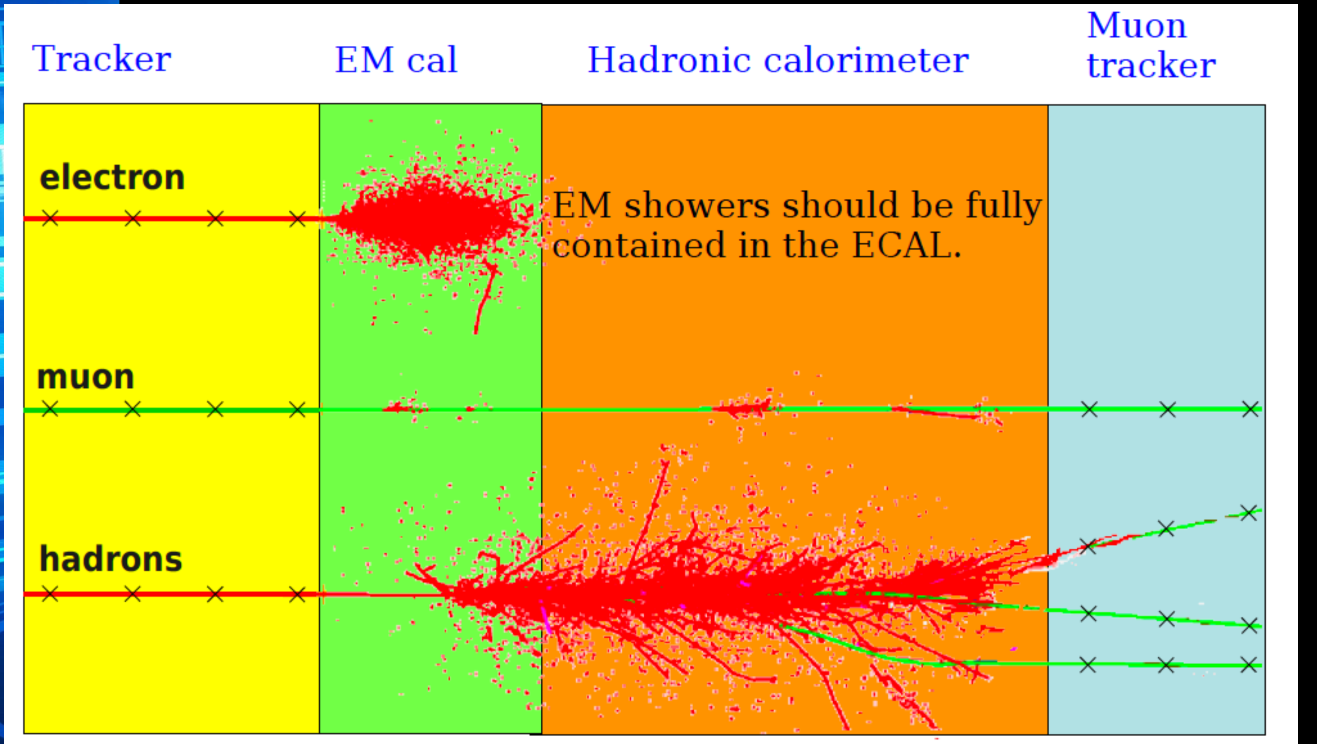
ATLAS vs CMS Muon resolution





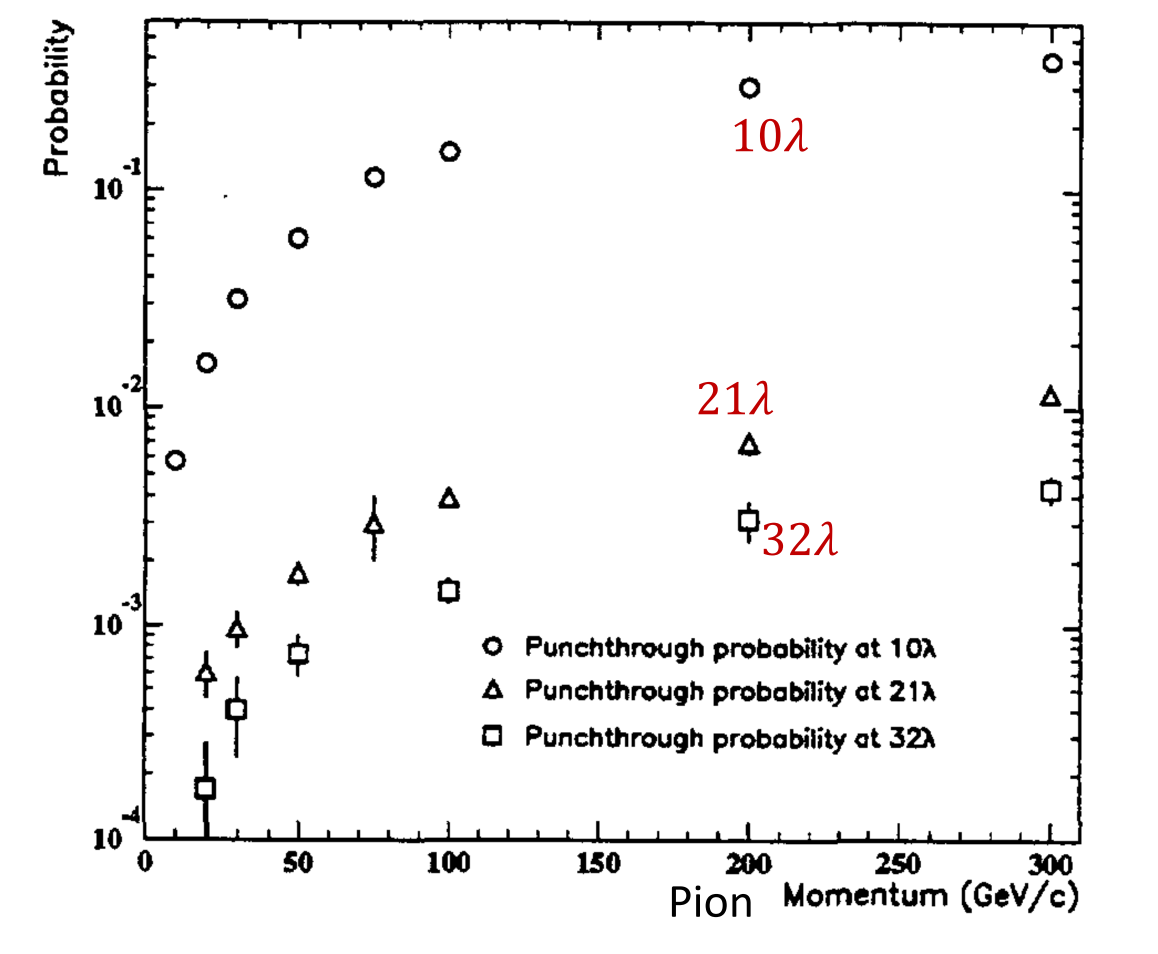
Punchthrough

- When does a pion look like a muon?
- Total punchthrough probability of hadronic showers at a given depth x is $P(x) = \frac{N_{hit}(x)}{N_{tot}}$



Hadronic showers may already start in the ECAL and extend into the HCAL.

Pion Punchthrough probability – from RD5



The RD5 muon spectrometer

('93 setup , Top view)

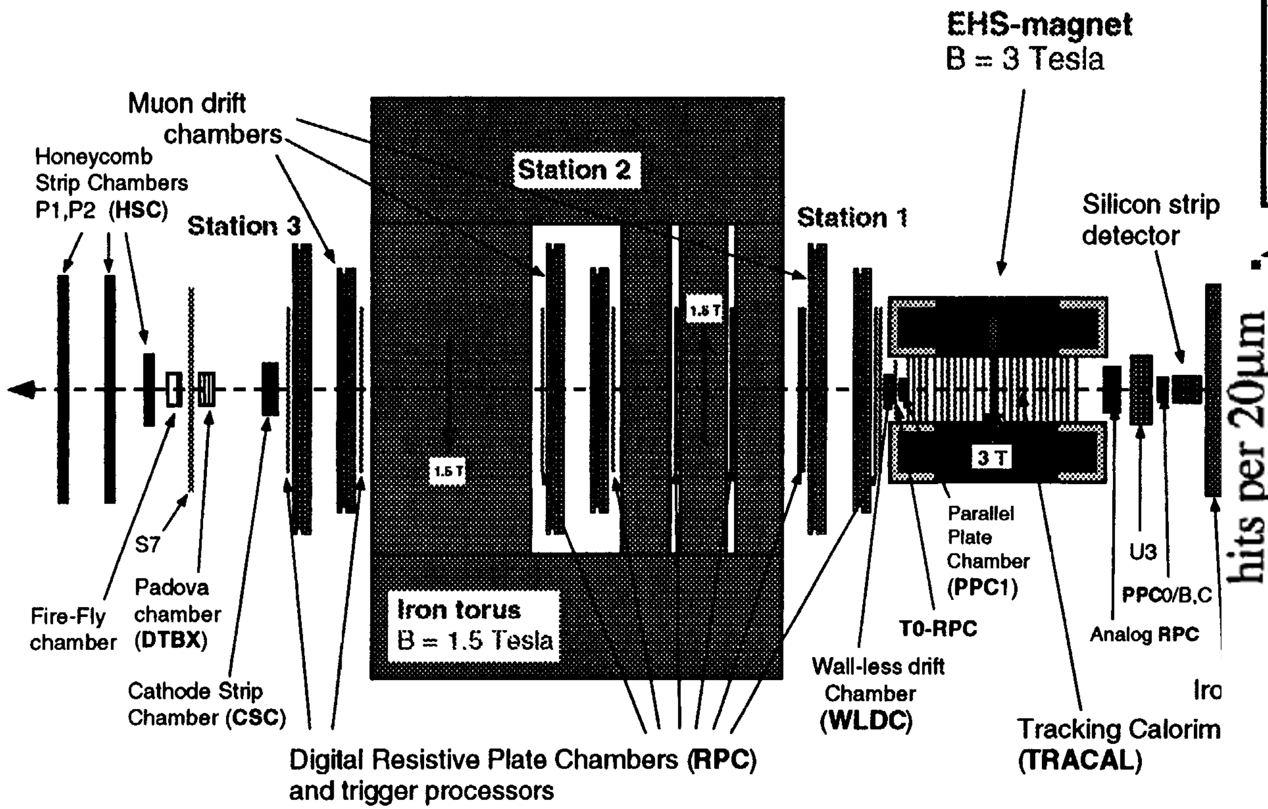


Figure 1: Schematic of the RD5 detector it its 1993 configuration.

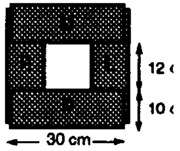
Trigger:

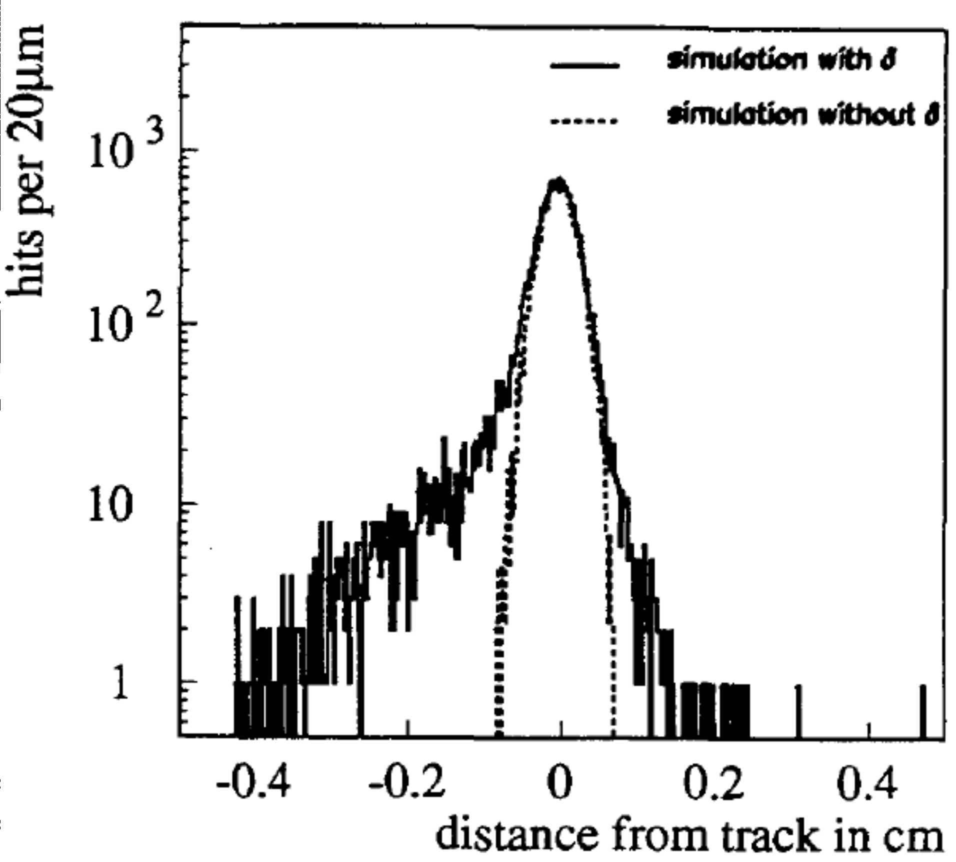
	μ	π		
		min.bias.	>10λ	>20λ
S1 x S5	●	●	●	●
VETO	●	●	●	●
S4	●	●	●	●
Station 1	●		●	●
Station 2	●			●

Scintillation counters:

S1:	10	cm	x	15	cm
S4a:	4	cm	x	4	cm
S4b:	2	cm	x	2	cm
S5:	15	cm	x	15	cm
S7:	100	cm	x	250	cm

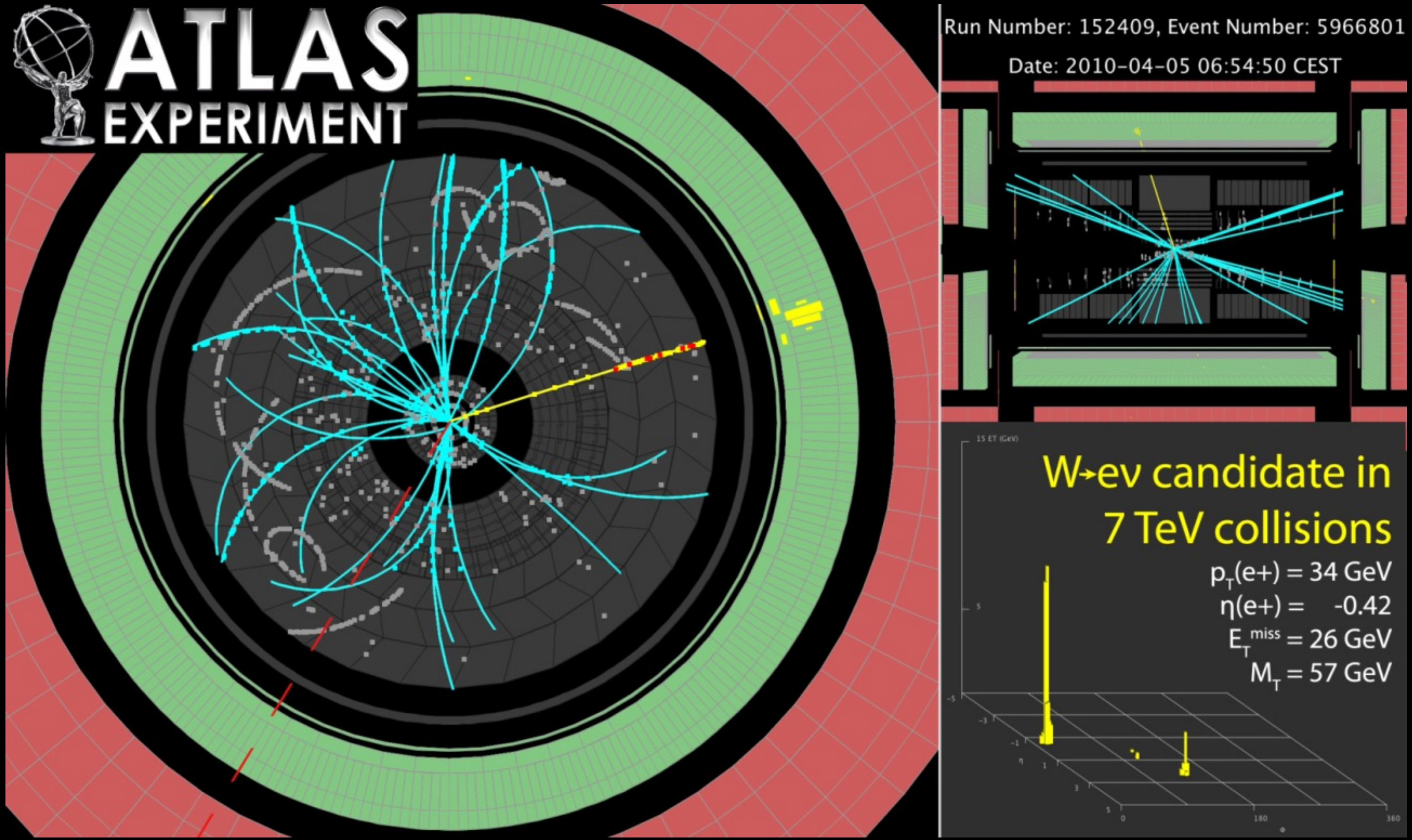
S2, S3 counters:





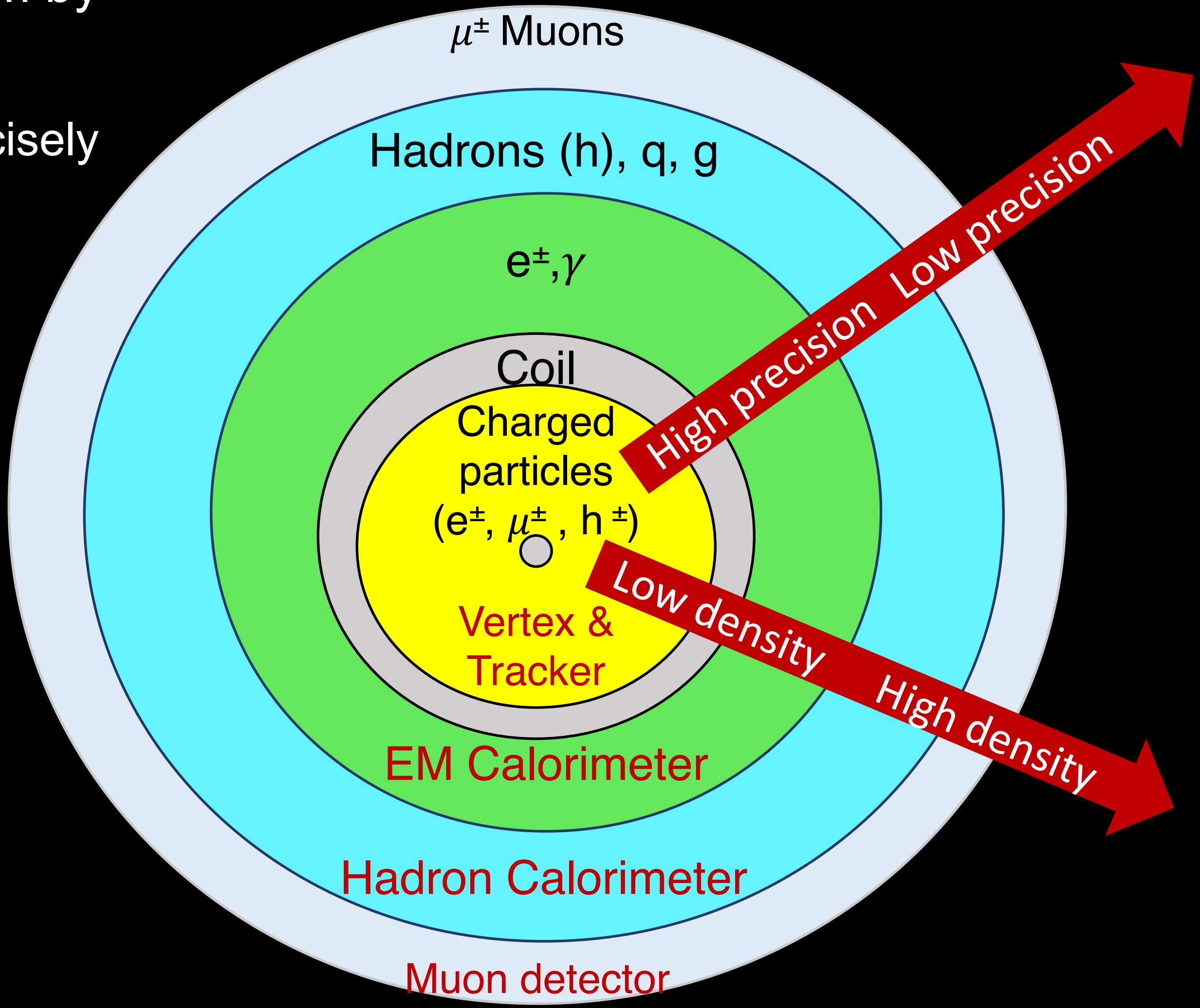
Neutrinos

- "Detected" by missing momentum – Must make sure your detector is hermetic !



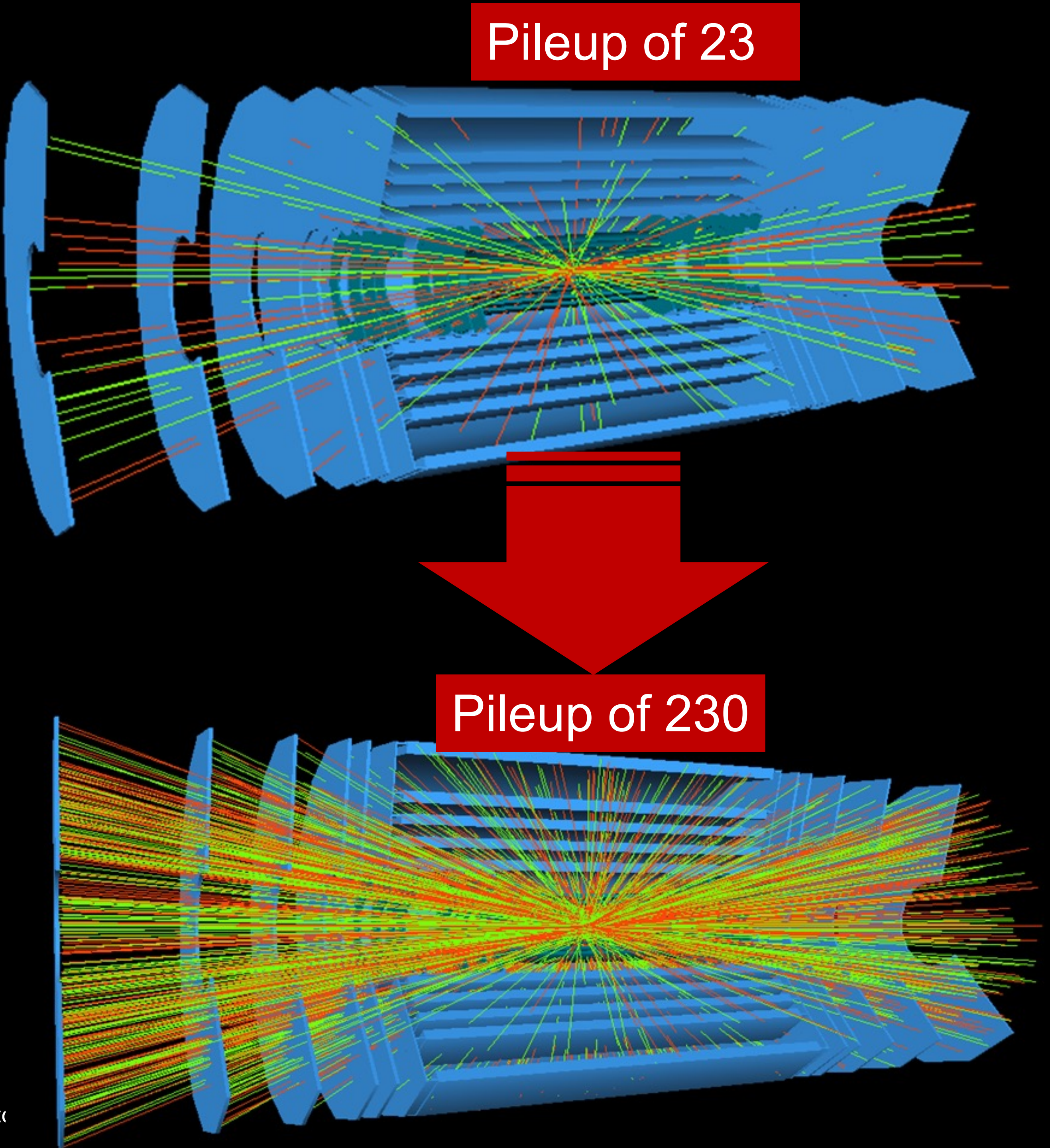
Building a collider detector

- Vertex Detectors: measure origin
- Trackers: Measure "charge" and momentum by bending the particle in a magnetic field
  - Light weight, low Z materials to measure precisely the position of the particle
- Calorimeters: detection of particles through total absorption
  - Process is destructive for almost all particles except muons and neutrinos
  - EM calorimeters: high Z materials to catch electrons and photons
  - Hadron Calorimeters: hadron interact mainly via the strong interaction, high A materials (Iron,Copper)
- Muon detectors: tracking detectors



Next lecture

- Silicon detectors
- New technologies for the HL-LHC
- The challenges of new colliders



Experiments have to be clever

Facility	Original Purpose	Discovery with Precision Instruments
CERN PS (1973)	πN(interactions)	Neutral Currents →Z,W
BNL AGS (1962-1974)	πN(interactions)	Two kinds of neutrinos, Time reversal non Symmetry, charm quark
FNAL (1977)	Neutrino Physics	Bottom quark, top quark
SLAC SPEAR (1968-1976)	ep,(QED)	Partons, charm quark, tau lepton
CERN ISR (1971-1980)	pp	Increasing pp cross-section
DESY PETRA (1979)	top(quark)	Gluon
Super-K (1996-)	Proton(Decay)	Neutrino Oscillations

INSTRUMENTATION

"New directions in science are launched by new tools much more often than by new concepts.

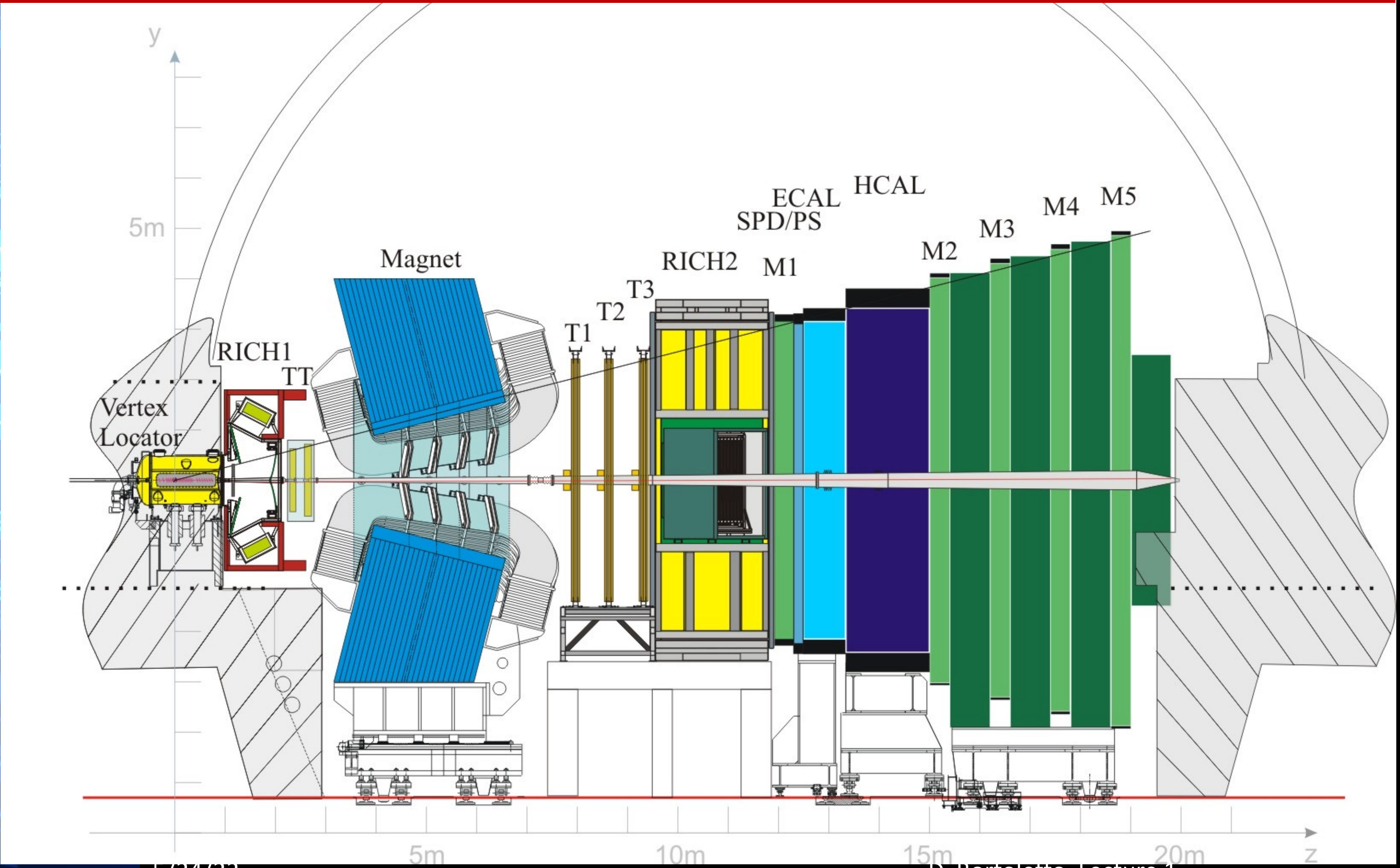
The effect of a concept-driven revolution is to explain old things in new ways.

The effect of a tool-driven revolution is to discover new things that have to be explained"

Freeman Dyson

LHCb

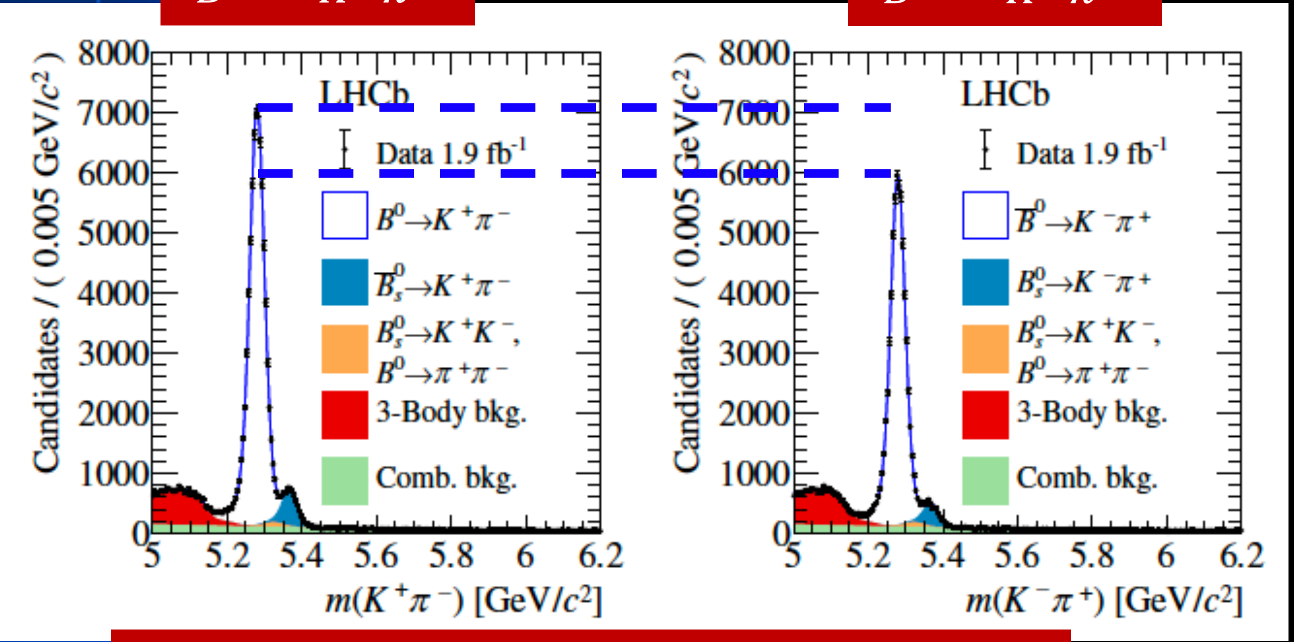
Dipole LCb integrated field 4Tm



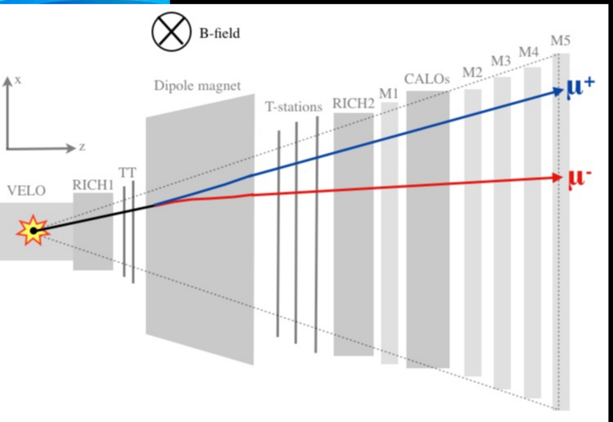
- Forward Spectrometer Configuration
  - At high energies b- and b-hadrons are produced mainly in the same forward or backward cone.
  - $<p_T(b)> \sim 80$ GeV/c $\rightarrow$ 7 mm mean decay distance $\rightarrow$ good separation between primary and decay vertices.
- Dipole magnet
  - Particle deflected in x - z plane
  - Detectors are arranged in parallel planes along z
  - Bending from difference of the slopes before and after magnet

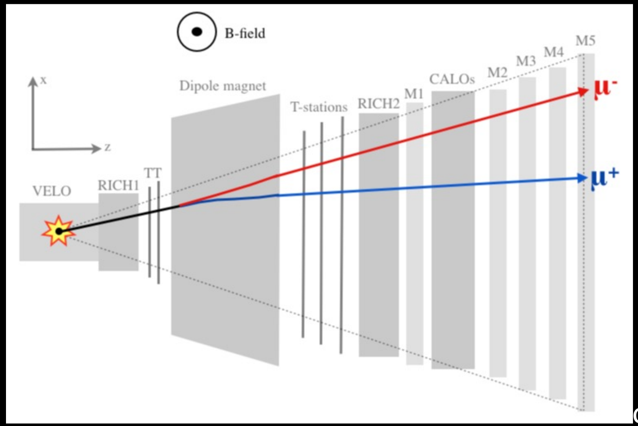
LHCb

$B^0 \rightarrow K^+\pi^-$ $\bar{B}^0 \rightarrow K^-\pi^+$



$A^{CP} = (-8.2 \pm 0.03 \pm 0.03)\%$

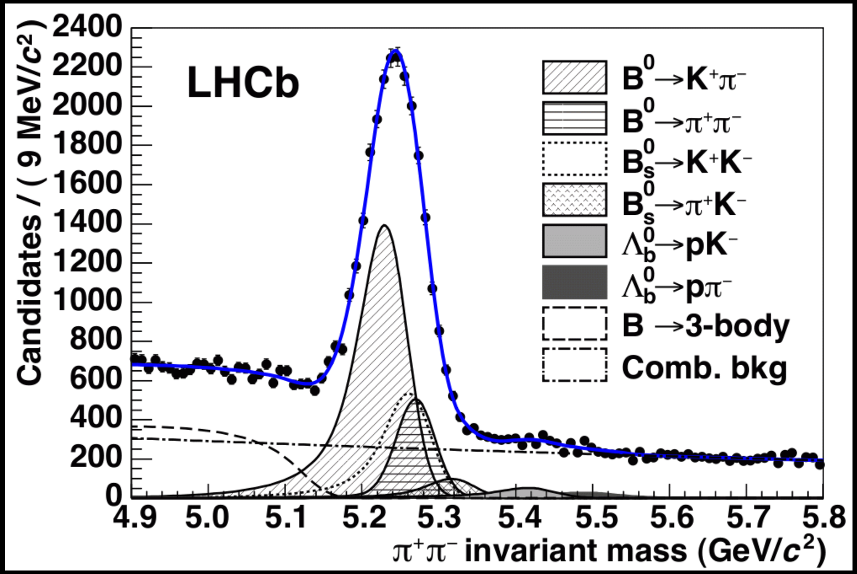




- Physics goals:
  - precision measurements of the CKM matrix to probe the validity of the SM and CP violation
  - Measurements of processes strongly suppressed in the SM which could be enhanced by NP
  - Measurements of rare decays $B_s \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$
  - Studies of lepton universalities
- Detector
  - Excellent vertex and proper time resolution (VELO)
  - Precise particle identification (ID): hadron π/K separation with Ring Imaging Cherenkov counters (RICH)
  - High momentum resolution for precise invariant mass reconstruction
  - A versatile trigger scheme

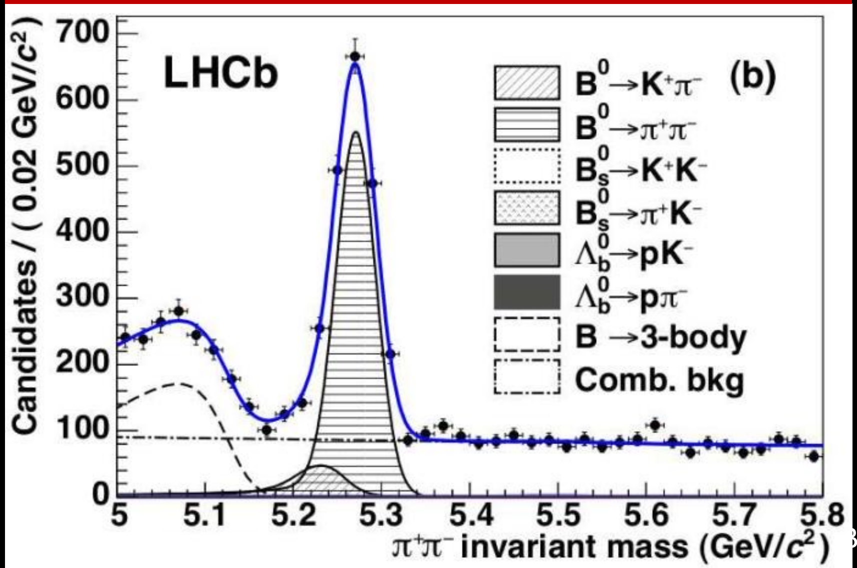
LHCb

Before RICH PID



Needed to distinguish $B^0 \to \pi^+ \pi^-$ from $B^0 \to K^+ \pi^-$

After RICH PID



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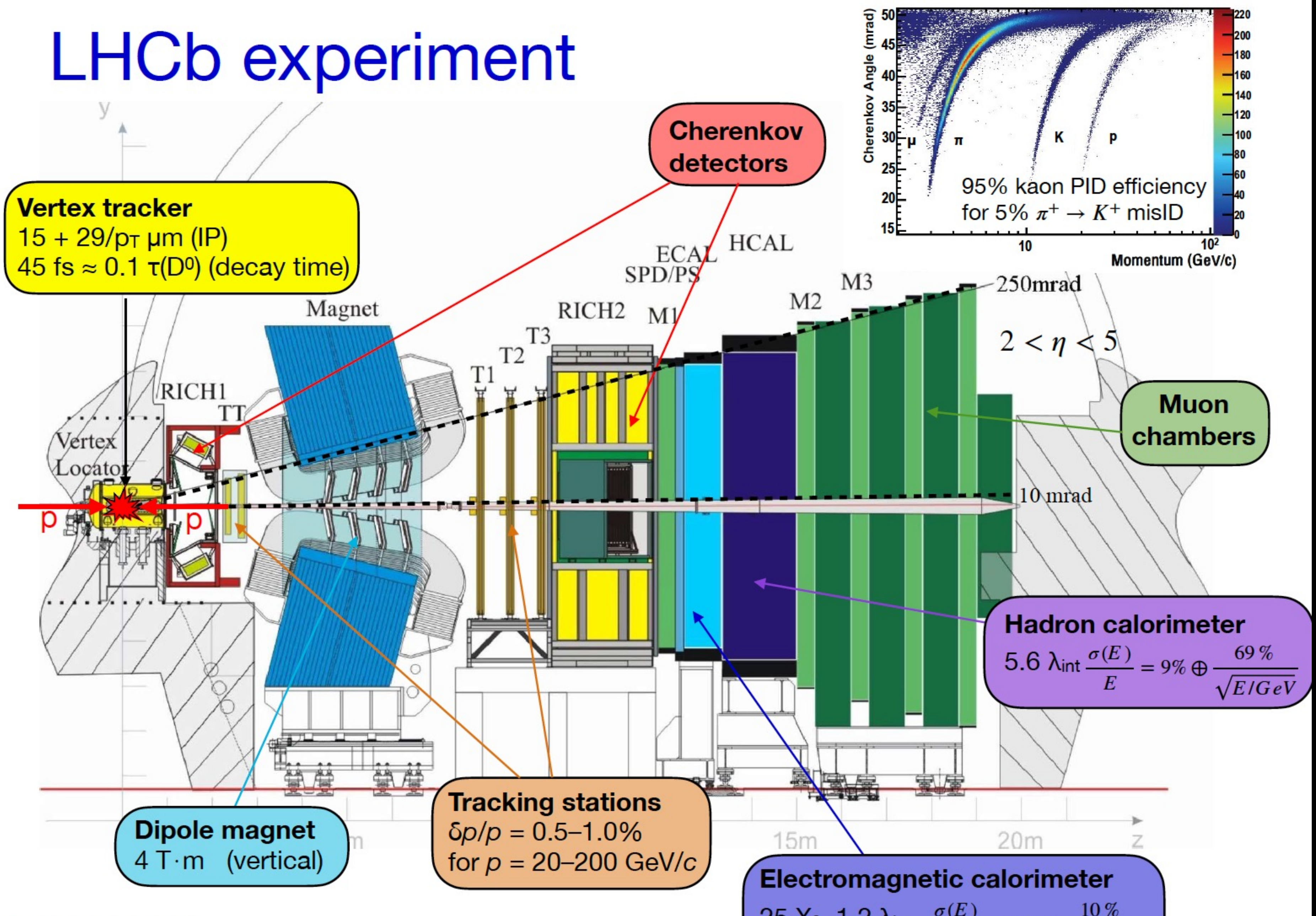
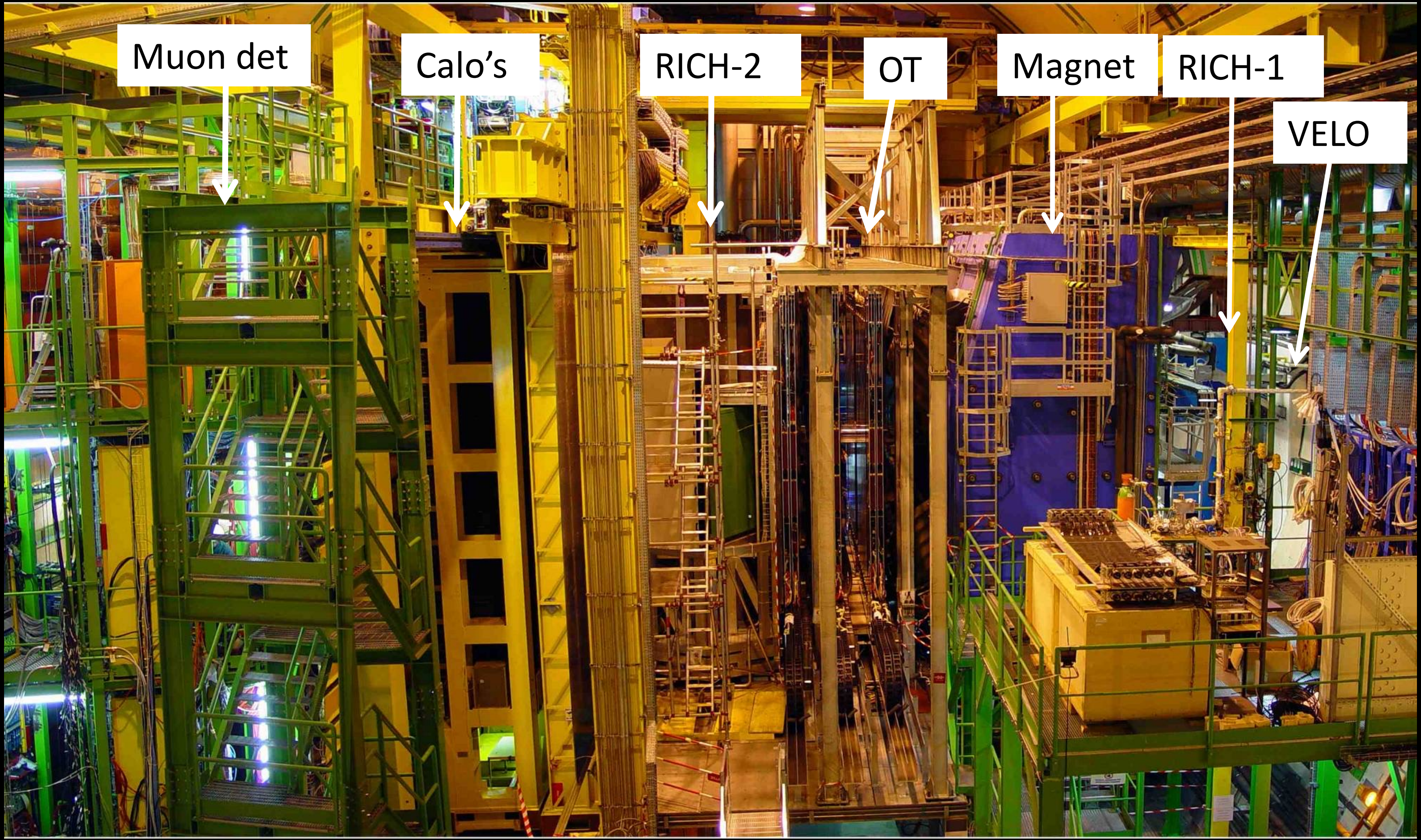
LHCb experiment

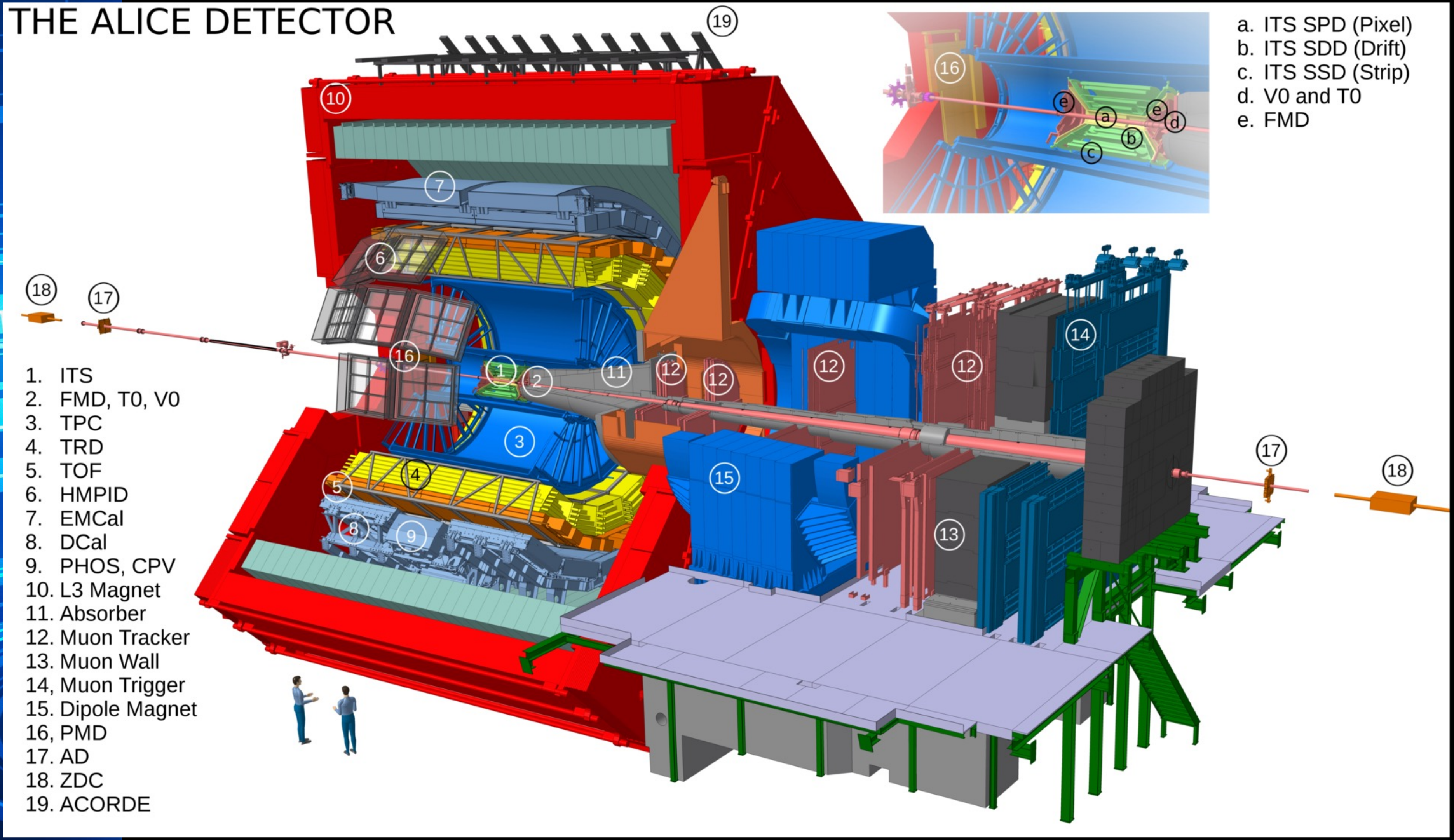


JINST 3 S08005 (2008)
Int. J. Mod. Phys. A 30 (2015) 7, 1530022

LHCb



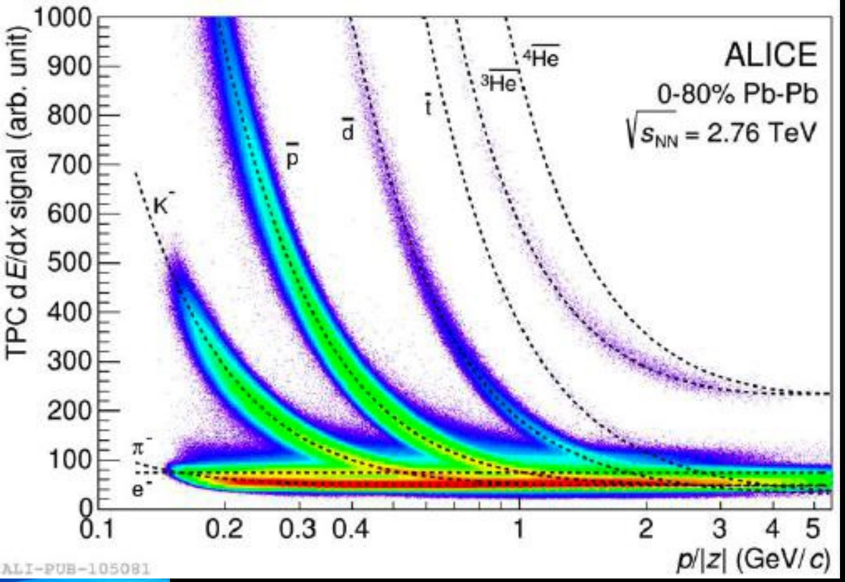
ALICE

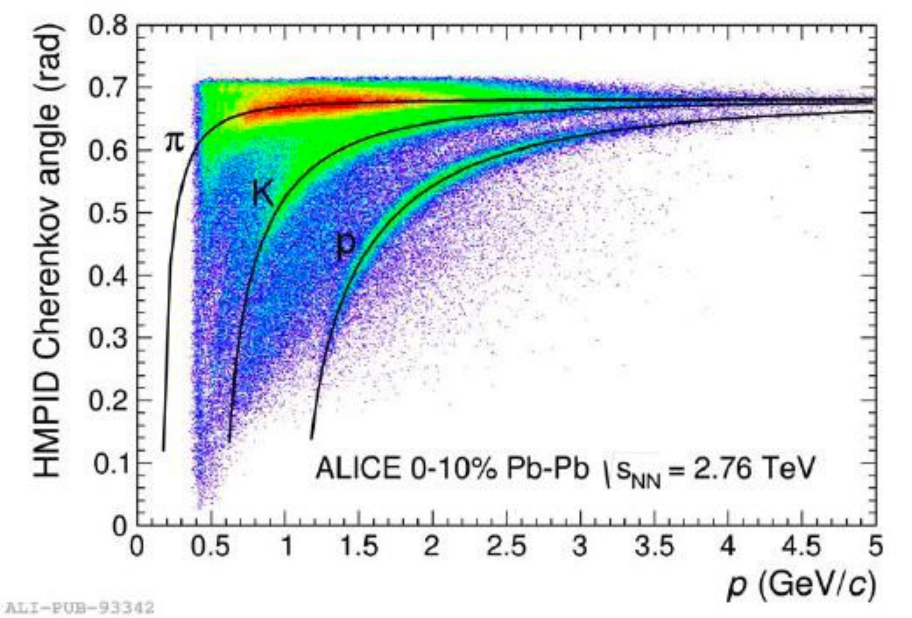


- Measurements down to very low p_T
- Particle ID in the Time Projection Chamber and Time of Flight detectors
- Excellent vertex detectors to measured heavy flavour charmed and beauty baryons
- Forward muon spectrometer studies the complete spectrum of heavy quarkonia (J/ψ and Υ resonances)

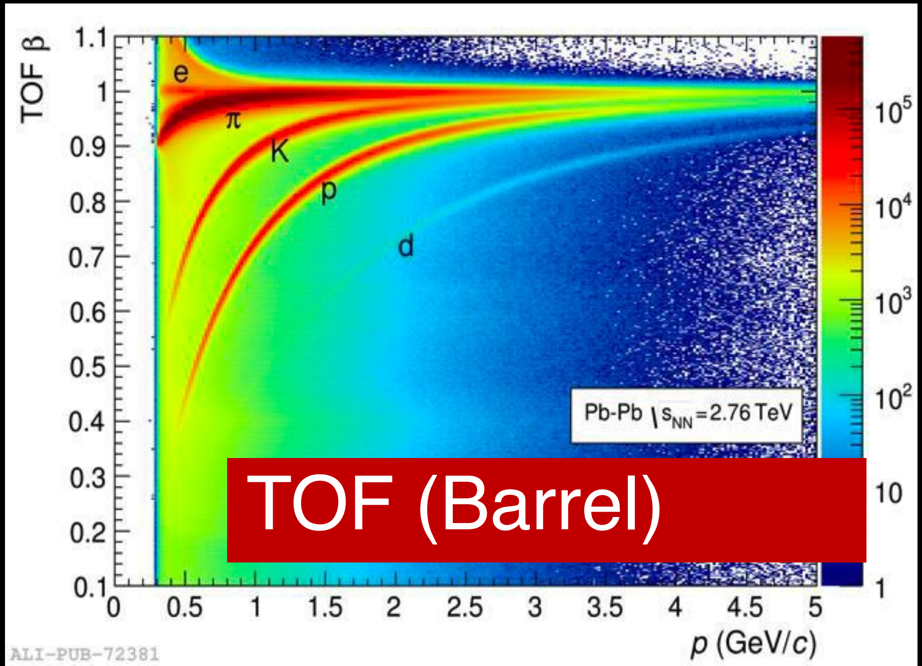
ALICE PID

TPC (+ITS) dE/dx





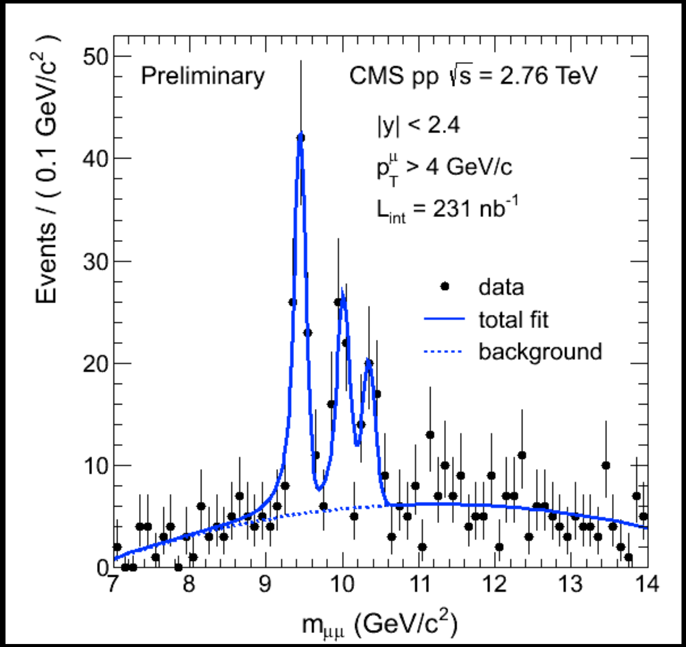
HMPID – Cherenkov radiation



TOF (Barrel)

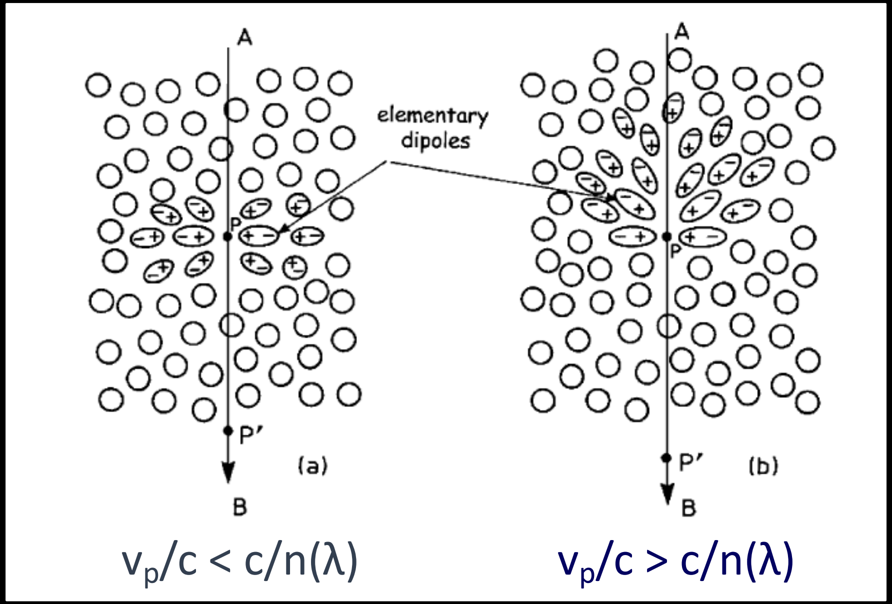
Plus

- Transition radiation detector (TRD)
- Photon spectrometer (PHOS)
- EM calorimeter (EMCAL)
- Muon spectrometer



Cherenkov emission

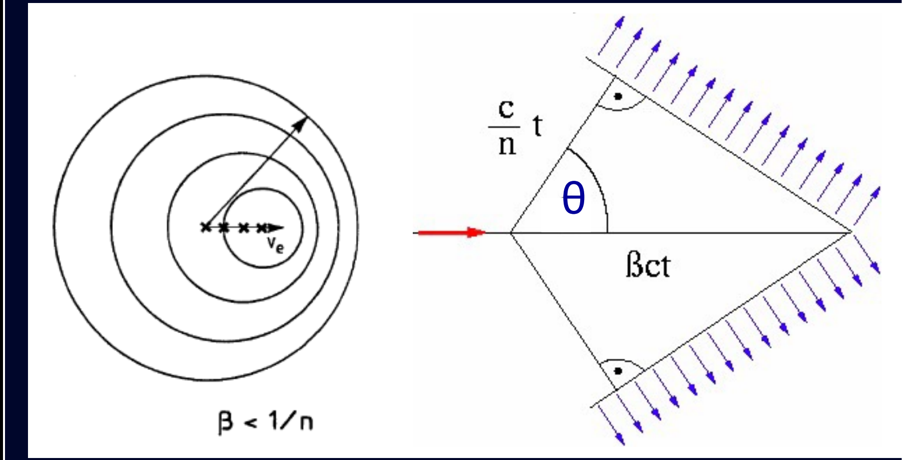
- If the velocity of a particle is such that **$\beta = v_p/c > c/n(\lambda)$** where $n(\lambda)$ is the index of refraction of the material, a pulse of light is emitted around the particle direction with an opening angle (**θ_c**)



Symmetric dipoles

coherent wavefront

Cherenkov angle



$$\cos\theta_c = \frac{1}{\beta n(\lambda)}$$

- The threshold velocity

$$\beta_{th} = \frac{v_{th}}{c} = \frac{1}{n(\lambda)}$$

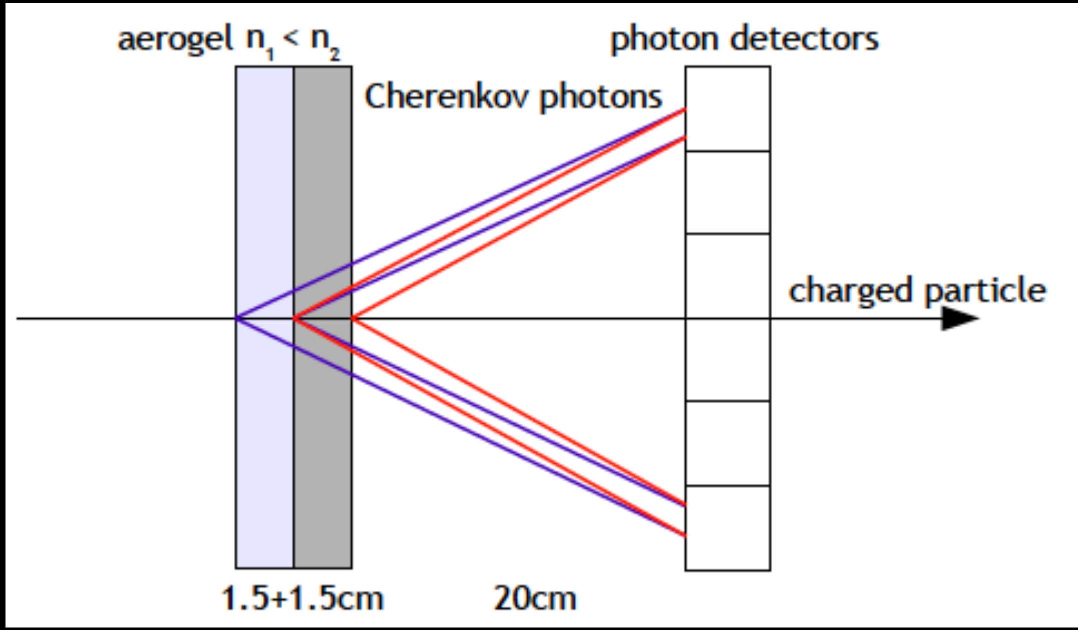
Number of produced photons:

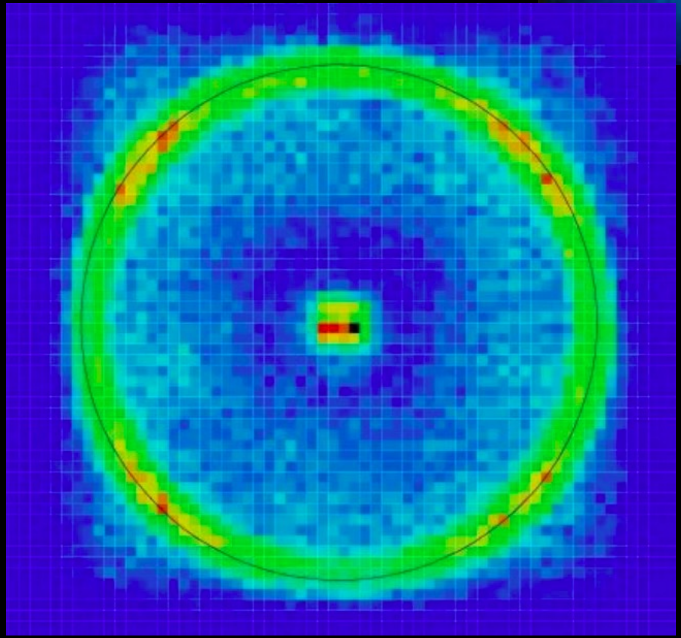
$$N_{photons} = L\frac{\alpha}{\hbar c}Z^2 \int \sin^2\theta_c(E)dE$$

Cherenkov photon emission

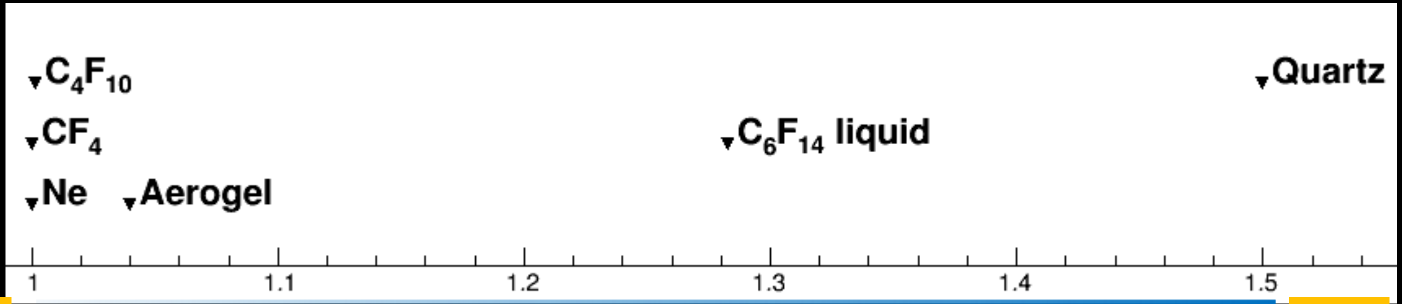
- Cherenkov emission is a weak effect and causes no significant energy loss (<1%)
- It takes place only if the track L of the particle in the radiating medium is longer than the wavelength λ of the radiated photons.
- Typically O(1-2 keV / cm) or O(100-200) visible photons /cm

Cherenkov radiation glowing in the core of a reactor





Refractive index range



1

1.5

~100 GeV/c

~1 GeV/c

Momentum

Silica Aerogel

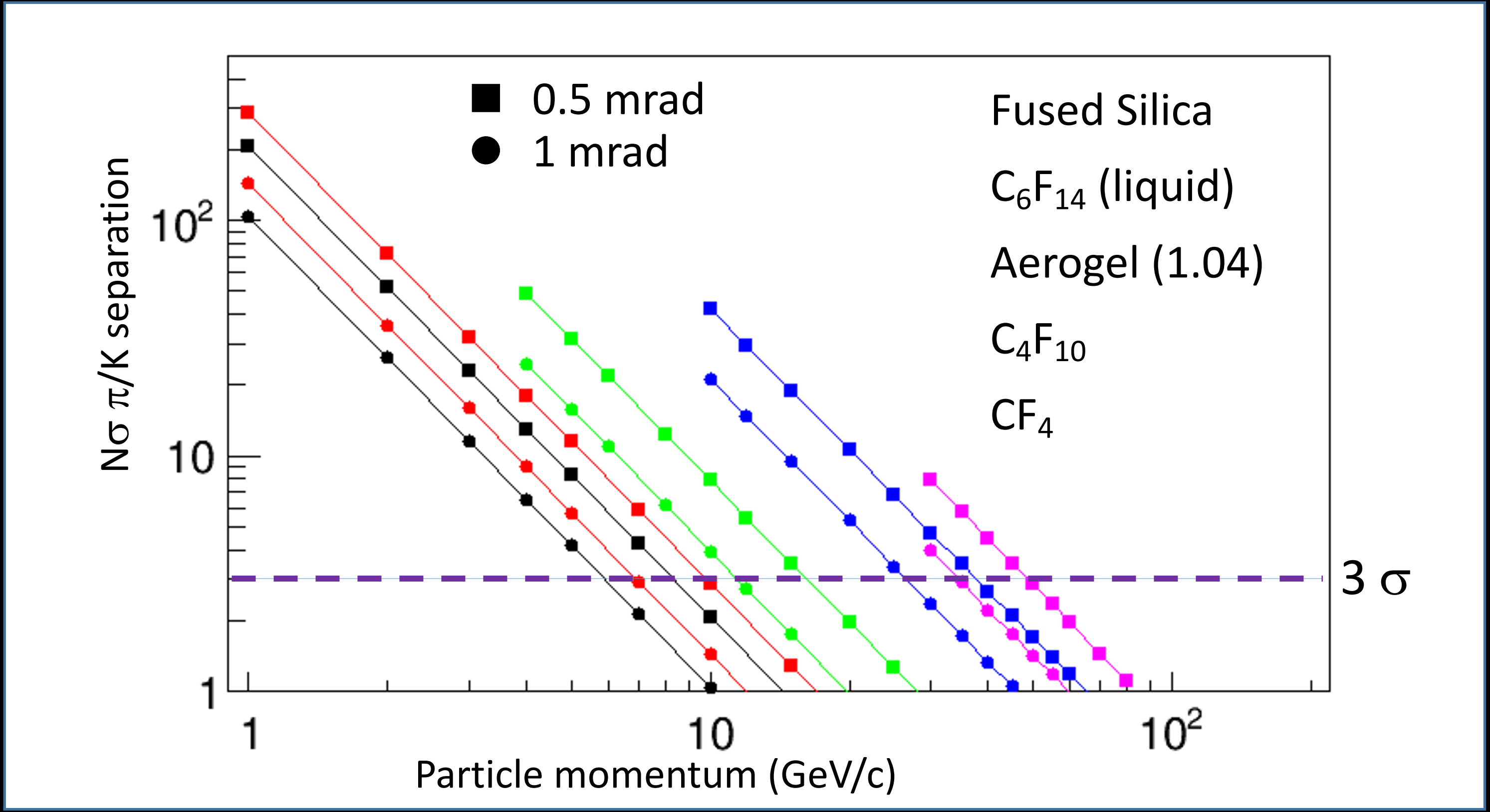
Quartz fibersl

RICH performance

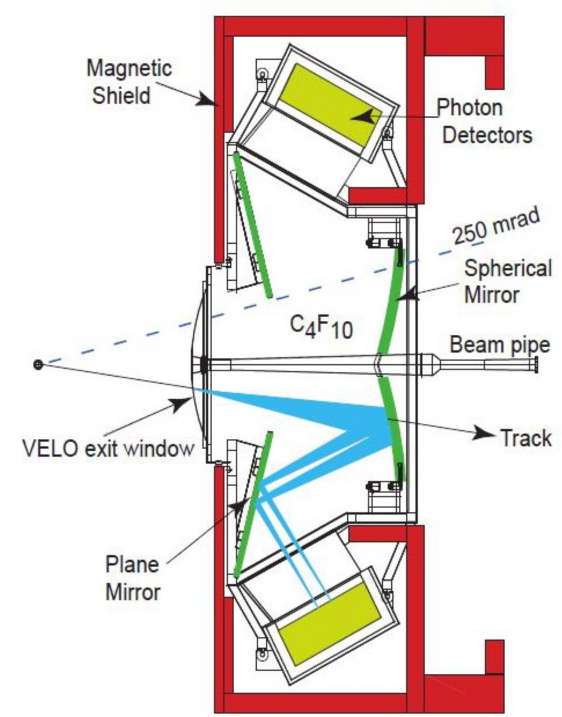
$$N_\sigma \approx \frac{|m_1^2 - m_2^2|}{2P^2\sigma[\theta_c(tot)]\sqrt{n^2-1}}$$

For particles well above threshold

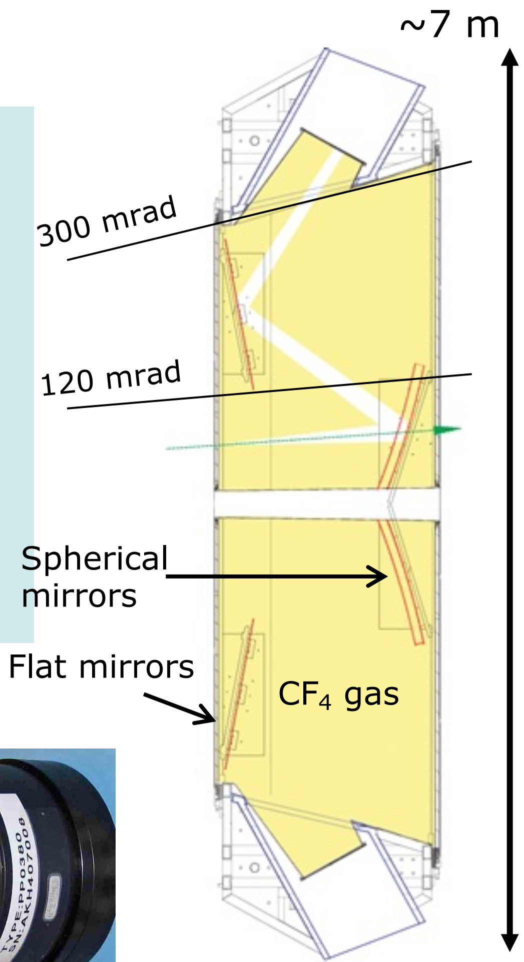
B. N. Ratcliff, NIMA 502 (2003) 211-221

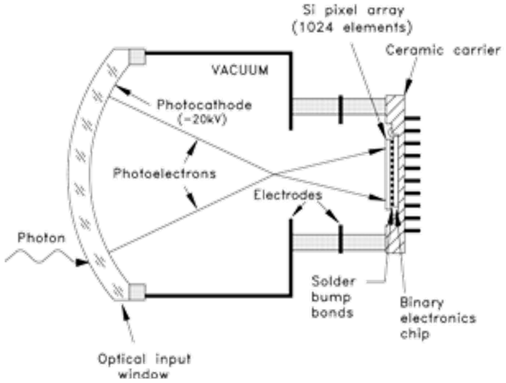


LHCb



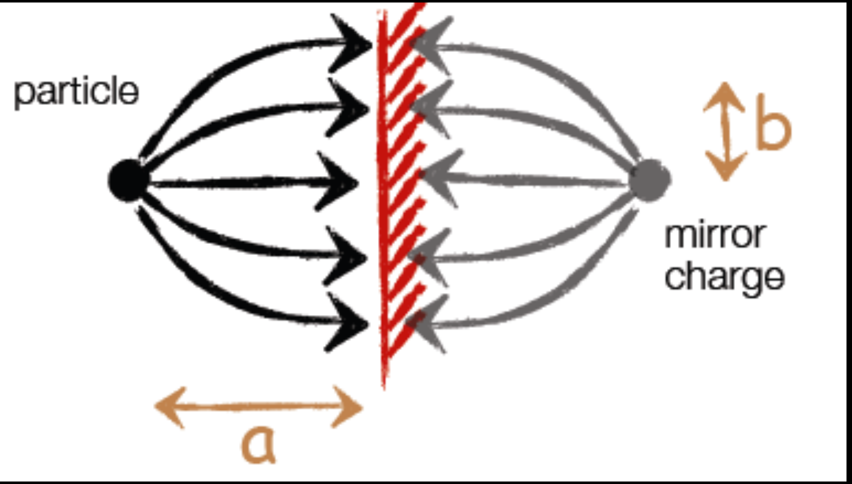
- Two detectors with gas radiators (C_4F_{10} and CF_4)
  - Originally with a 3rd radiator (aerogel)
- “Novel” photon detectors, pixel HPDs
  - Aging, issues with vacuum
- Two mirror systems
- Complex pattern recognition
  - 100s of tracks
  - Global likelihood method

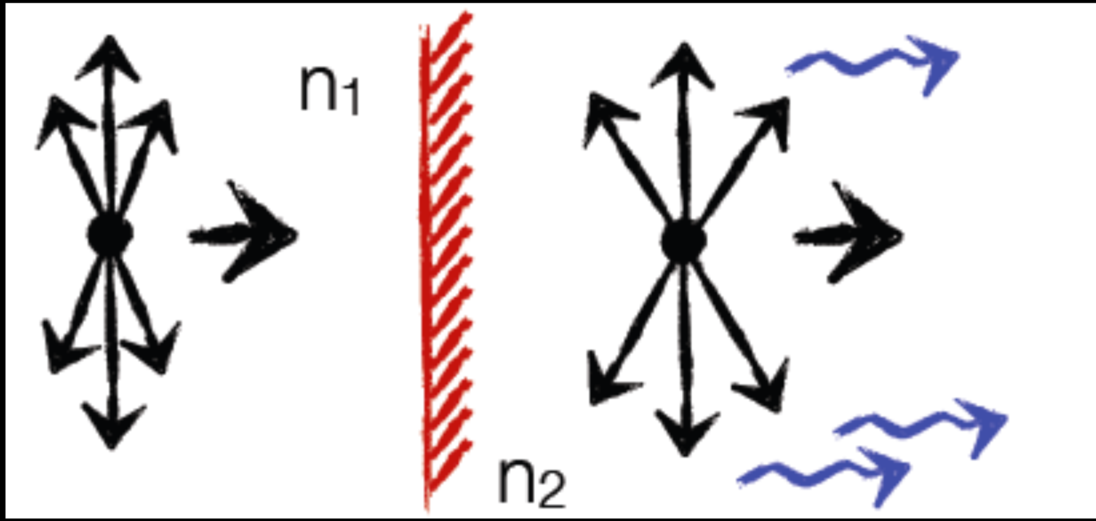




Transition radiation

- Transition radiation occurs if a relativist particle (large γ) passes the boundary between two media with different refraction indices ($n_1 \neq n_2$) [predicted by Ginzburg and Frank 1946; experimental confirmation 70ies]
- Effect can be explained by re-arrangement of electric field
- A charged particle approaching a boundary creates a dipole with its mirror charge

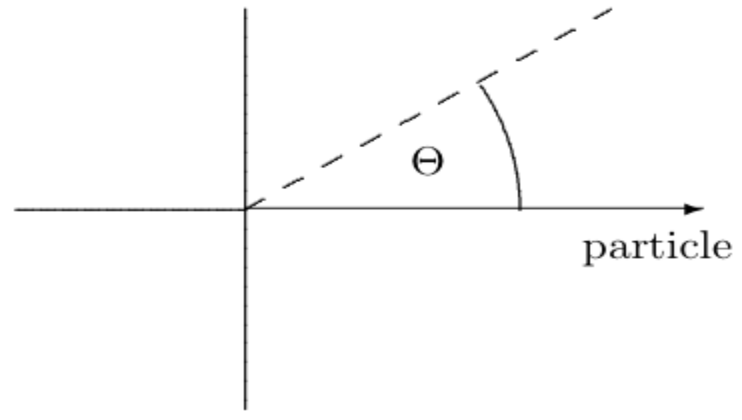




The time-dependent dipole field causes the emission of electromagnetic radiation

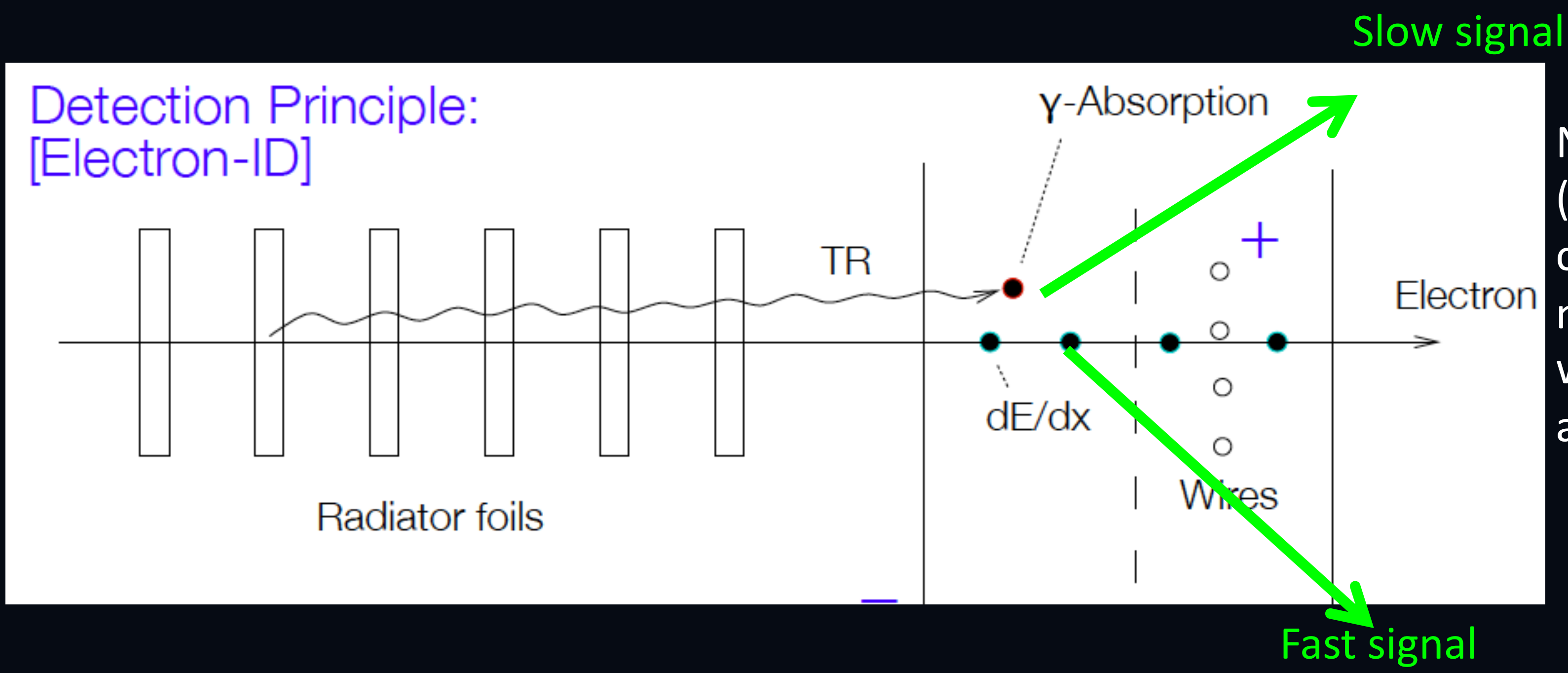
$$S = \frac{1}{3}\alpha z^2 \gamma \hbar \omega_P \quad (\hbar\omega_P \approx 28.8\sqrt{\frac{Z\rho}{A}} eV)$$

Transition Radiation



- Typical emission angle: $\theta=1/\gamma$
- Energy of radiated photons: $\sim \gamma$
- Number of radiated photons: αz^2
- Effective threshold: $\gamma > 1000$

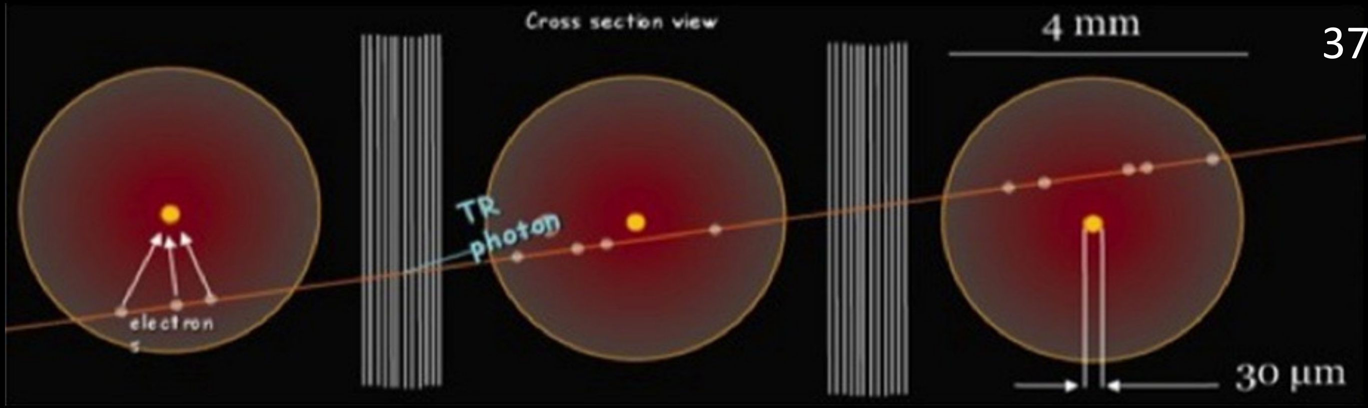
- Use stacked assemblies of low Z material with many transitions and a detector with high Z



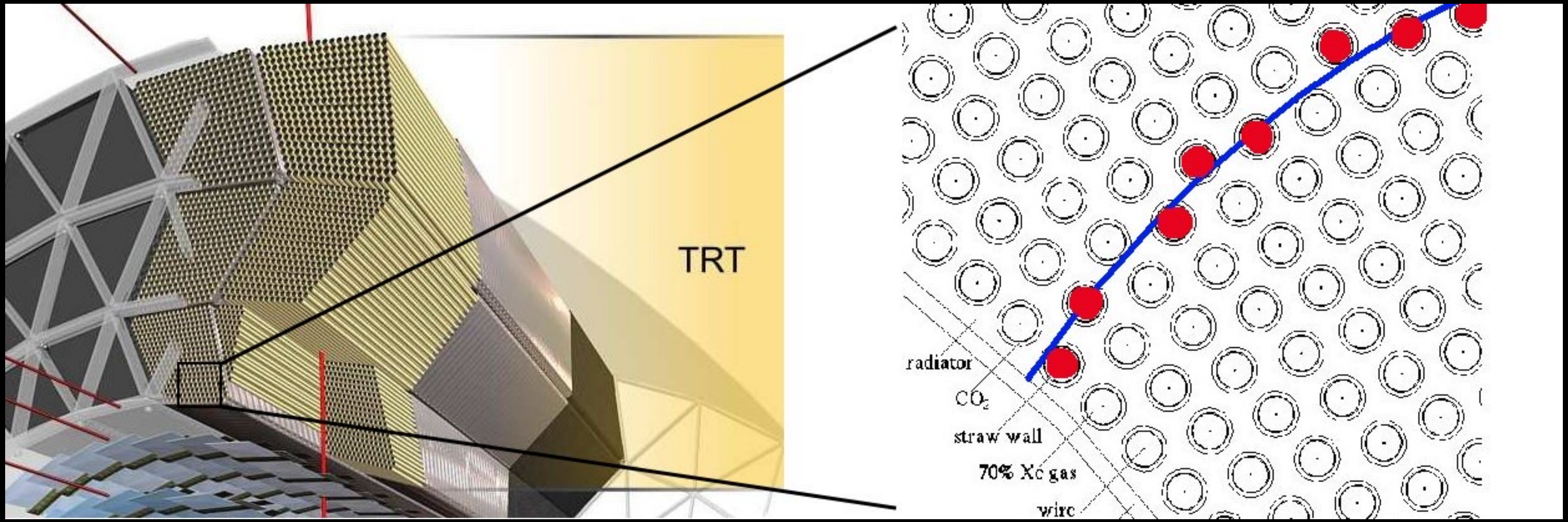
Note: Only X-ray (E>20keV) photons can traverse the many radiators without being absorbed

The ATLAS Transition Radiation Tracker

- The TRT main element are gas filled tubes (d=4 mm, 40-150 cm long) to measure precisely the position



370,000 drift tubes. Eac layer of straws interleaved with polypropylene as a radiator



Polypropylene fibers fill the gap between straws to distinguish e^- from hadrons

ATLAS Transition radiation tracker