

Particles detectors: some basic principles



Introduction

Five lectures on particle detectors

- Basic concepts of particle detection
 - Duccio Abbaneo
- Trigger and data processing
 - Andrea Bocci
- Silicon detectors
 - Thomas Bergauer
 - Gas detectors
 - Archana Sharma
- Calorimetry
 - Riccardo Paramatti

Five presentations on CMS upgrades

- Tracker Upgrade
 - Duccio Abbaneo
- Trigger Upgrade
 - Andrea Bocci
- Silicon sensors R&D
 - Thomas Bergauer
- Upgrade of Forward Calorimetry
 - Riccardo Paramatti
- Muon Upgrade
 - Archana Sharma

Introductory lectures

Meant for students

Certainly boring for senior particle physicists!
Meant to be understandable

Do not hesitate to ask questions!

Will not try to cover the topics in an exhaustive way…
Would require a 1-year long course!
... but rather to explain some of the basic concepts that should help to understand the CMS detector and its upgrades

Outline of this lecture

Very basic principles
 Implementation in CMS

 Entertaining pictures from the CMS construction

 Some more about tracking

Particle detector for high-enery physics experiments

■ High energy collisions (e⁺e⁻,ep,pp...)

- production of a multitude of particles (charged, neutral, photons)
- The 'ideal' detector should provide....
 - coverage of full solid angle (no cracks, fine segmentation)
 - detect, track and identify all particles (mass, charge)
 - measurement of momentum and/or energy, fast response, no dead time
- Practical limitations (technology, space, budget)
- Particles are detected via their interaction with matter
 - Many different physical principles are involved (mainly of electromagnetic nature).
- Finally we will observe: ionization and excitation of matter

Detector Geometries

Two main families:



Magnet concepts



- + large homogenous field inside coil
- needs iron return yoke (magnetic shortcut)
- limited size (cost)
- coil thickness (radiation lengths)

CMS, ALICE, LEP detectors







- + can cover large volume
- + air core, no iron, less material
- needs extra small solenoid for general tracking
- non-uniform field
- complex structure



What do we really observe?

> We observe "stable" particles

In practice: those that travel long enough inside the detector before disintegrating into lighter decay products

Charged particles leptons: electrons, muons hadrons: pions, K mesons, protons

Neutral hadrons: neutrons and some neutral K mesons

Photons

<u>To be noted:</u>

 (1) Neutrinos do not interact in our detectors
 Signature: "missing energy"
 requires a very hermetic and fully efficient detector
 (1) For all other particles: we measure their decay products

Interactions exploited

At the high energies we are working with, the relevant interactions are:

Leptons:

Charged hadrons:

Neutral hadrons:

bremsstrahlung, ionisation (or excitation) nuclear interactions, ionisation (or excitation) nuclear interactions

Photons: conversion to electron-positron pairs (Photo effect to detect e.g. the low-energy photons from excitation of matter)

Ionisation

Small and progressive energy loss Observable signal with minimal perturbation for a multi-GeV particle

Gas: a few 10 eV x a few 10 e⁻ / cm Amplification (avalanche) inside the detector (e.g. gain ~ 10000)



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Semiconductors (not *really* ionisation): few eV x 100,000 e⁻ / mm Signal directly collected by readout electronics

The readout electrode gives the coordinate of the track





 \mathbf{Z}

Bremsstrahlung

Emission of photons in the electric field of a nucleus For electronics it is the dominant energy loss for E > 500 MeV / Z \rightarrow Dominant for electrons, but (almost) negligible for all other particles Radiation length X₀ (energy reduced to 1/e) \propto 1/Z² [cm]

(air $X_0 \approx 300$ m, carbon fiber ≈ 25 cm, Si ≈ 9.4 cm, Cu ≈ 1.4 cm, Pb ≈ 0.56 cm)



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Photon conversions

Creation of e^+e^- pairs from energetic photons in the electric field of a nucleus Process similar to bremsstrahlung. Mean free path L = 9/7 X₀

Nuclear interactions

Mean free path for nuclear interactions λ_I is typically much larger than the radiation length: $\lambda_I \propto 1/A^{2/3}$ [cm] for solid materials (X₀×2 in C, up to X₀×30 in Pb)

P⁺

Un rivelatore di particelle: sfruttare le interazioni in sequenza

Ionisation in a high-granularity detector Magnetic field to measure momentum Minimize bremsstrahlung and photon conversions Minimize nuclear interactions Minimize amount of material Stop (absorb) all hadrons and measure their energy HADRON CALORIMETER Large thickness (1–2 m) of heavy material Often a sampling calorimeter

Reconstruct tracks of charged particles: TRACKER

Bremsstrahlung and photon conversions Absorb electroncs and photons, using high-Z material Measure energy: ELECTROMAGNETIC CALORIMETER Hadronic showers (can) start, but they are not contained $(\lambda_1 >> X_0)$

Two families: sampling and homogeneous

External detectors measuring outgoing muons MUON DETECTORS

Normally very big gas detectors (ionisation) Can be interleaved with iron slabs for B-field return (for solenoid magnets)



CMS: a direct application of the concept



Dimensions are dictated by the energy of the particles to be measured and by the precision required...

CMS and ATLAS



CMS = Compact Muon Solenoid

... and also by the options chosen!



Scheme of CMS



CMS subdetectors: the tracker

Finely segmented silicon sensors (pixels in the inner part, then strips).

Reconstruct the trajectories of charged particles and measure their momentum in the magnetic field

The largest silicon tracker ever built! Cylinder of 2.2 m diameter and nearly 6 m length





Pixel detector 800 modules, 66 million channels

Strips detector: 15000 modules, 10 milion strips, 220 m² active surface.

Tracker parts during construction





Electromagnetic calorimeter

Electromagnetic Calorimeter

Nearly 80000 crystals of lead tungstate ($PbWO_4$): 64000 in barrel and 16000 in the end-caps.

Homogeneous calorimeter: crystals create electromagnetic showers and produce scintillation light

Very dense (ρ =8.3 g/cm³, X₀=0.9 cm, R_M=2.2 cm) but transparent to the light that they produce.

ECAL assembly





Supermodule 1700 crystals

In total 36 supermodules

Hadron calorimeter



Sampling calorimeter

Layers of dense material (steel, brass) interleaved with layers of scintillating fibers

Measure energy of hadrons (protons, neutrons, pions...), not absorbed by the electromagnetic calorimeter

Superconducting magnet

20.000 Amperes in a solenoid of L = 13 m e D = 6 m, made of a duperconducting cable of niobium-titanium, working at $-270^{\circ}C$.

The solenoid

Field of ~ 4 Tesla, i.e. 100.000 times the earth field

The curvature of the charged particle trajectories in the B field yields the measurement of the momentm (and the electric charge)

The solenoid

Most powerful magnet ever built, at the frontier of technology



External vacuum tank Made of three parts, assembled at CERN Internal vacuum tank Single piece, brought to CERN with a very special transport (~120 km) Solenoid : 5 coils joined together Return yoke: ~10500 tons of iron, also main support structure of CMS and house for the muon detectors

Transport and construction





Insertion in the vacuum tank



The iron yoke

External barrel rings x 4 – 2 per side

Endcap disks x 6 (3 per endcap – 4th being built now!)

Central barrel ring

	Central Ring	Outer Rings
Barrel ring	1250 tonnes	1174 tonnes
Vacuum vessel	264 tonnes	-
Superconducting coil	234 tonnes	-
Support feet	72 tonnes	66 tonnes
Cabling on vacuum vessel	150 tonnes	-
Support for racks and cables	10 tonnes	10 tonnes
Total	1980 tonnes	1250 tonnes

	Total weight		14000 ton
	Diameter		15m
Length Magnetic field		21.6m	
		ield	4 Tesla
1.3	Sec. 1	12000	
Endcap disk 1 (YE1) ~730 (di		~730 (disk)	+ 90 (cart) tonnes
Endc	ap disk 2 (YE2)	~730 (disk) + 90 (cart) tonnes	
Endc	dcap disk 3 (YE3) \sim 300 (disk) + 90 (cart) tonn		+ 90 (cart) tonnes

Gas (ionisation), for muon tracking

Housed in the iron of the magnet return yoke both in the barrel and in the endcaps.

Different types of detectors, because of different particle density and different functions (tracking and "trigger")

Muon detectors

In total ~ 6000 m^2 of active surface

The CMS site in 2000



Assembly of the yoke (surface)



Assembly of the coil





The insertion of the coil



February 2006: muon assembly ongoing











Prepared while CMS was assembled on the surface (and several parts in many other different labs)

Underground caverns



Lowering of CMS parts



"YBO" - the heaviest piece



The insertion of the ECAL barrel



Cables, optical fibers, cooling pipes...



Insertion of the Tracker





Tracking precision

Some basic maths:



σ(s) is purely geometrical: scales (roughly) as σ_x N^{-1/2}
 For N equidistant measurements:

$$\frac{\sigma(p_T)}{p_T}\Big|^{meas.} = \frac{\sigma(x) \cdot p_T}{0.3 \cdot BL^2} \sqrt{720/(N+4)}$$

Gives all the fundamental scaling laws for tracking precision.... in air!

Multiple scattering

Particles scatter off nuclei





Multiple scattering inside the tracking volume limits the tracking precision



 Contribution from MS independent of p_T ! For our heavy tracker becomes relevant already at p_T ~10 GeV/c

Readout electronics and trigger (introducing the next presentation [...postponed to tomorrow])

The front-end electronics samples the detectors at 40 MHz.

The timing is tuned for each detector part to be in phase with the arrival of the particles (accounting also for the time of flight from the interaction point).

At least for the most congested parts, the shaping time of the readout electronics must be shorter than 25 ns, to avoid additional pileup from earlier bunch crossing.

The readout electronics contains <u>buffers</u> that store the information of the detectors at each bunch crossing.

The length of these buffers determines the max time during which these data remain available, before being overwritten by new events: <u>maximum latency available for the Level-1</u> <u>trigger</u>

Thanks for your attention!

Questions?