



Particle Detectors

Summer Student Lecture Series 2001

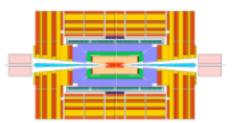
Christian Joram EP / TA1

From (very) basic ideas 1

 $\frac{1+1}{1+1} \approx 2$

to

rather complex detector systems







Outline

- Introduction
- Tracking (gas, solid state)

Tue/Wed (2x45 min)

- Scintillation and light detection
- Calorimetry
- Particle Identification

Thu (2x45 min)

- Electronics and Data Acquisition
- Detector Systems

Fri - (45 min)





Literature on particle detectors

Text books

- C. Grupen, Particle Detectors, Cambridge University Press, 1996
- G. Knoll, Radiation Detection and Measurement, 3rd Edition, 2000
- W. R. Leo, Techniques for Nuclear and Particle Physics Experiments, 2nd edition, Springer, 1994
- R.S. Gilmore, Single particle detection and measurement, Taylor&Francis, 1992
- W. Blum, L. Rolandi, Particle Detection with Drift Chambers, Springer, 1994
- K. Kleinknecht, Detektoren für Teilchenstrahlung,
 3rd edition, Teubner, 1992

Review articles

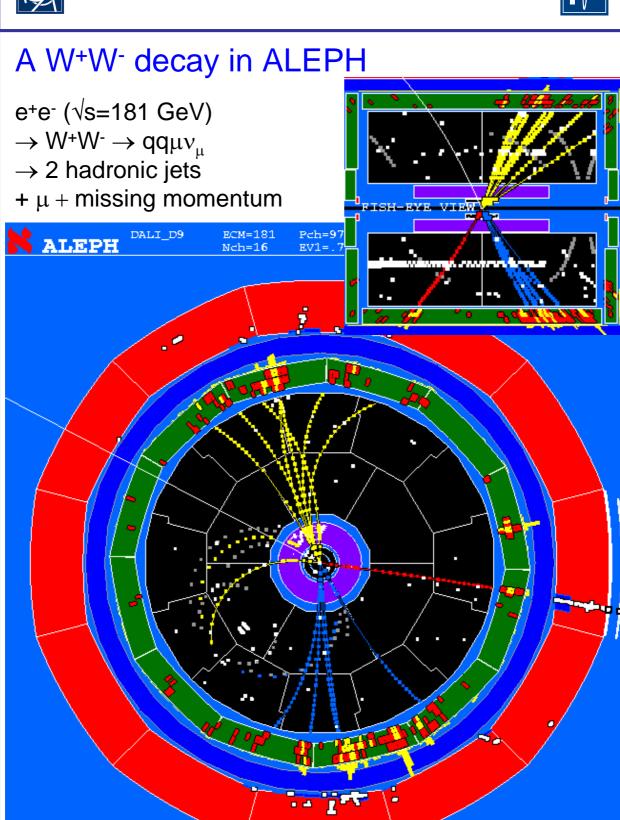
- Experimental techniques in high energy physics,
 T. Ferbel (editor), World Scientific, 1991.
- Instrumentation in High Energy Physics, F. Sauli (editor), World Scientific, 1992.
- Many excellent articles can be found in Ann. Rev. Nucl. Part. Sci.

Other sources

- Particle Data Book (Phys. Rev. D, Vol. 54, 1996)
- R. Bock, A. Vasilescu, Particle Data Briefbook
 http://www.cern.ch/Physics/ParticleDetector/BriefBook/
- Proceedings of detector conferences (Vienna VCI, Elba, IEEE)





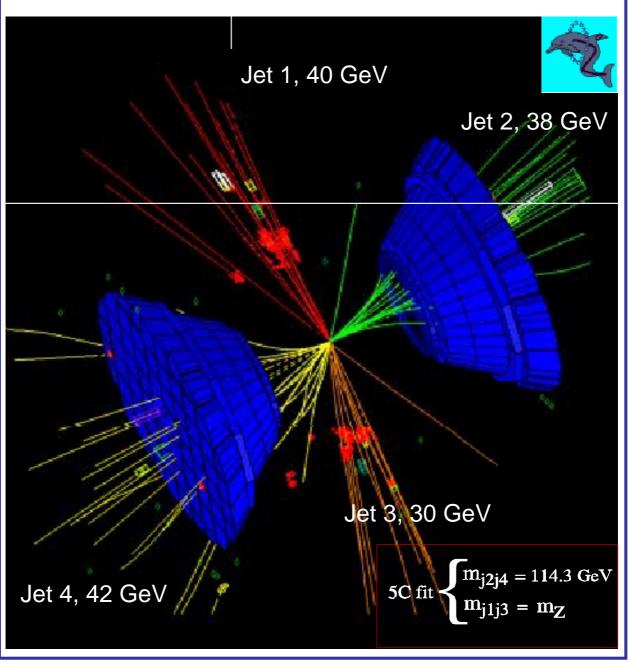






A 4-jet event in DELPHI (a Higgs candidate)

Possible underlying reaction: $e^+e^- (\sqrt{s}=205.5 \text{ GeV}) \rightarrow H^0Z^0 \rightarrow qqqq \rightarrow 4 \text{ hadronic jets}$

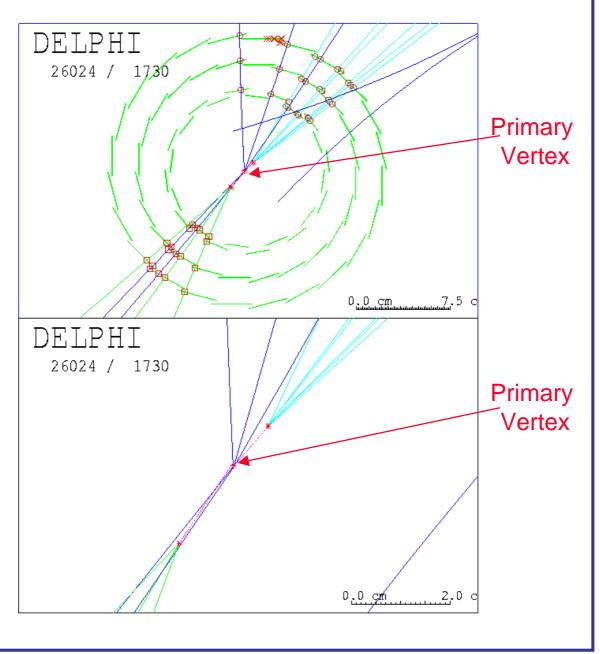






Reconstructed B-mesons in the DELPHI micro vertex detector

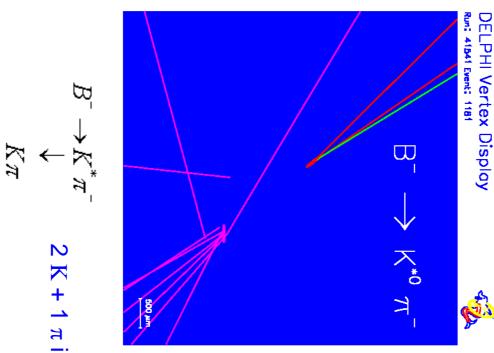
 $\tau_{\rm B} \approx 1.6 \text{ ps}$ $l = c\tau \gamma \approx 500 \text{ } \mu\text{m} \cdot \gamma$



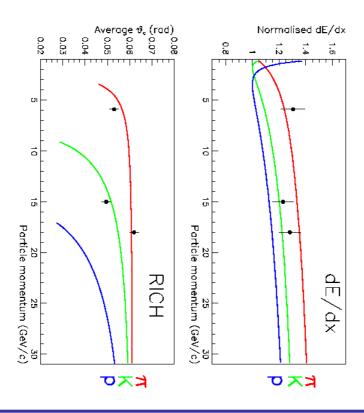




Particle identification methods

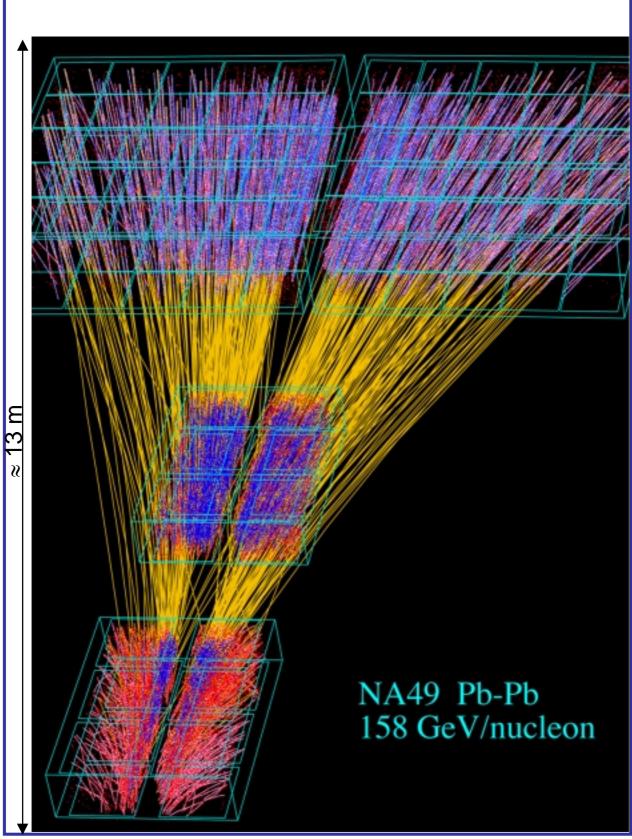


















A simulated event in ATLAS (CMS)

$$H \to ZZ \to 4\mu$$

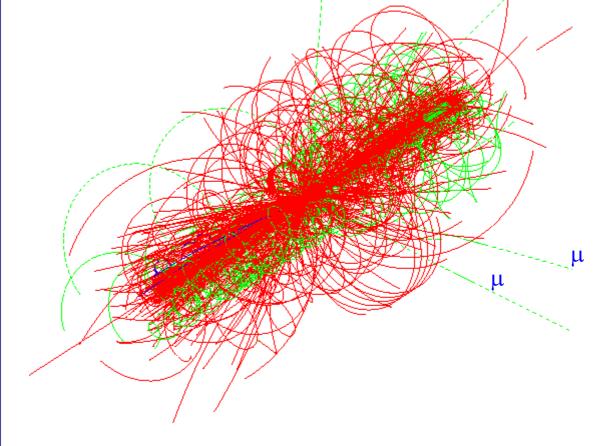
pp collision at $\sqrt{s} = 14 \text{ TeV}$ $L = 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, bunch

 $\sigma_{\text{inel.}} \approx 70 \text{ mb}$

Interested in processes

with $\sigma \approx 10-100$ fb

L = 10^{34} cm⁻² s⁻¹, bunch spacing 25 ns



- ≈ 23 overlapping minimum bias events / BC
- ≈ 1900 charged + 1600 neutral particles / BC





The 'ideal' particle detector for high energy physics experiments

High energy collisions (e^+e^- , ep, pp, p \overline{p}) \rightarrow 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.



Definitions and units



Some important definitions and units

$$E^2 = \vec{p}^2 c^2 + m_0^2 c^4$$

Energy E: measure in eV

• momentum p: measure in eV/c

• mass m_o: measure in eV/c²

$$\beta = \frac{v}{c} \qquad \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

$$E = m_0 \gamma c^2 \qquad p = m_0 \gamma \beta c \qquad \beta = \frac{pc}{E}$$

1 eV is a tiny portion of energy. 1 eV = $1.6 \cdot 10^{-19}$ J



$$m_{bee} = 1g = 5.8 \cdot 10^{32} \text{ eV/c}^2$$

$$v_{bee}$$
= 1m/s $\rightarrow E_{bee}$ = 10⁻³ J = 6.25·10¹⁵ eV
 E_{LHC} = 14·10¹² eV

To rehabilitate LHC...

Total stored beam energy:

 $10^{14} \text{ protons } * 14.10^{12} \text{ eV} \approx 1.10^8 \text{ J}$

this corresponds to a



$$m_{truck} = 100 T$$

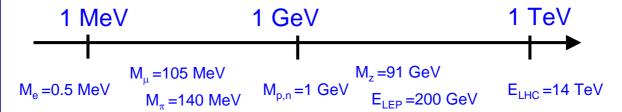
 $v_{truck} = 120 km/h$



Definitions and units



Some important masses/energies



For lengths we will often use units like

- 1 μm (10⁻⁶ m), e.g. spatial resolution of detectors
- 1 nm (10⁻⁹ m), wavelength of green light λ = 500 nm
- 1 A (10⁻¹⁰ m), size of an atom
- 1 fm = 1 fermi (10⁻¹⁵ m), size of a proton

For times practical units are

- 1 μs (10⁻⁶ s), an electron drifts in a gas 5 cm
- 1 ns (10⁻⁹ s), a relativistic e⁻ travels 30 cm
- 1 ps (10⁻¹² s), mean life time of a B meson
- Very useful relation: $\hbar c \approx 200 \ \mathrm{MeV} \cdot \mathrm{fm}$ e.g. convert $\lambda \Leftrightarrow \mathsf{E}$ of a photon $E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = 2\pi \frac{\hbar c}{\lambda} \approx \frac{1240}{\lambda}$
- To make the formulae less bulky, particle physicists set $\hbar=c=1$ e.g. $E^2=\vec{p}^2+m_0^2$ [E] = [p] = [m] = 1 eV



Definitions and units



The concept of cross sections

Cross sections σ or differential cross sections $d\sigma/d\Omega$ are used to express the probability of interactions between elementary particles.

Example 2 colliding particle beams

beam spot area A



$$\Phi_1 = N_1/t$$

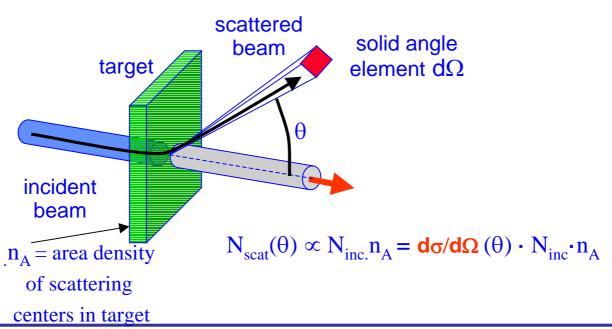
$$\Phi_2 = N_2/t$$

What is the interaction rate R_{int.}?

$$R_{int} \propto \Phi_1 \Phi_2 / A = \sigma \cdot L$$
Luminosity L [cm⁻² s⁻¹]

σ has dimension area!
 Practical unit:
 1 barn (b) = 10⁻²⁴ cm²

Example: Scattering from target





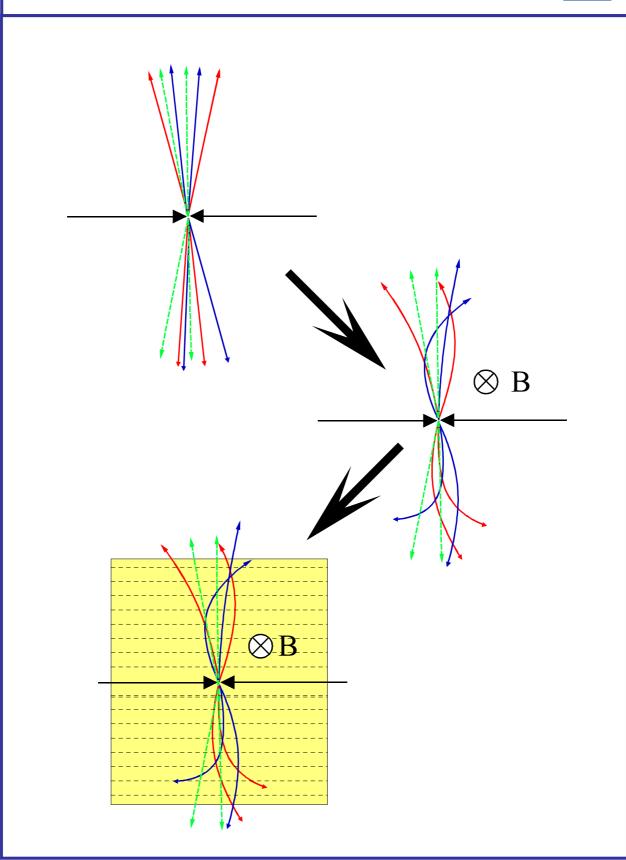






Momentum measurement



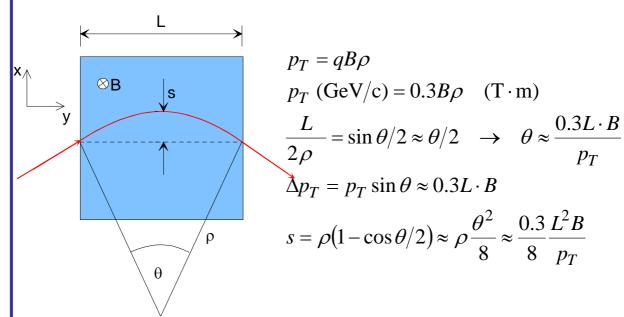








Momentum measurement



the sagitta s is determined by 3 measurements with error $\sigma(x)$: $s = x_2 - \frac{x_1 + x_3}{2}$

$$\frac{\sigma(p_T)}{p_T}\Big|_{meas.}^{meas.} = \frac{\sigma(s)}{s} = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}\sigma(x)}{s} = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}\sigma(x) \cdot 8p_T}{0.3 \cdot BL^2}$$

for N equidistant measurements, one obtains (R.L. Gluckstern, NIM 24 (1963) 381)

$$\frac{\sigma(p_T)}{p_T} \bigg|^{meas.} = \frac{\sigma(x) \cdot p_T}{0.3 \cdot BL^2} \sqrt{720/(N+4)} \qquad \text{(for N \ge \approx 10)}$$

ex: $p_T=1$ GeV/c, L=1m, B=1T, $\sigma(x)=200\mu m$, N=10

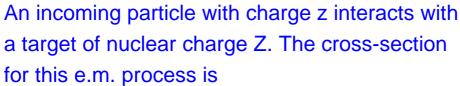
$$\frac{\sigma(p_T)}{p_T}\Big|^{meas.} \approx 0.5\%$$
 (s ≈ 3.75 cm)



Multiple Scattering



Scattering



$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = 4zZr_e^2 \left(\frac{m_e c}{\beta p}\right)^2 \frac{1}{\sin^4 \theta/2}$$

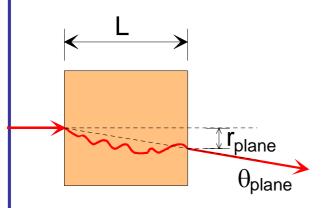
Rutherford formula

- ${
 m d}\sigma/{
 m d}\Omega$
- Average scattering angle $\langle \theta \rangle = 0$
- ♦ Cross-section for θ → 0 infnite!

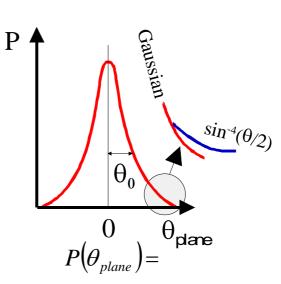
Multiple Scattering

Sufficiently thick material layer

→ the particle will undergo multiple scattering.



$$\theta_0 = \theta_{plane}^{RMS} = \sqrt{\left\langle {\theta_{plane}}^2 \right\rangle} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \theta_{space}^{RMS}$$



$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\theta_0} \exp\left\{-\frac{\theta_{plane}^2}{2\theta_0^2}\right\}$$



Momentum measurement



Approximation
$$\theta_0 = \frac{13.6 \, MeV}{\beta cp} z \sqrt{\frac{L}{X_0}} \left\{ 1 + 0.038 \ln \left(\frac{L}{X_0} \right) \right\}$$

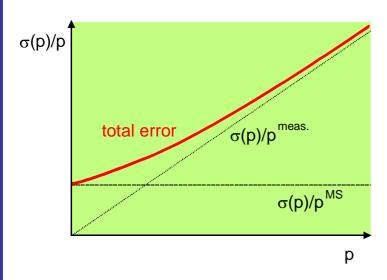
X₀ is radiation length of the medium (discuss later)

(accuracy $\leq 11\%$ for $10^{-3} < L/X_0 < 100$)

Back to momentum measurements: contribution from multiple scattering

$$\Delta p^{MS} = p \sin \theta_0 \approx p \cdot 0.0136 \frac{1}{p} \sqrt{\frac{L}{X_0}}$$

$$\left. \frac{\sigma(p)}{p_T} \right|^{MS} = \frac{\Delta p^{MS}}{\Delta p_T} = \frac{0.0136 \sqrt{\frac{L}{X_0}}}{0.3BL} = 0.045 \frac{1}{B\sqrt{LX_0}} \text{ independent of p!}$$



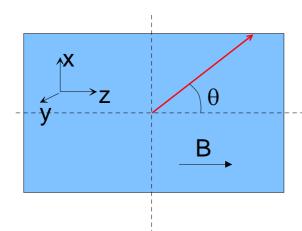
ex: Ar (X₀=110m), L=1m, B=1T
$$\frac{\sigma(p)}{p_T}\Big|^{MS} \approx 0.5\%$$

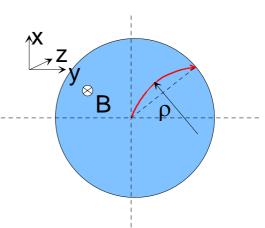


Momentum Measurement (backup)



Momentum measurement in experiments with solenoid magnet:





$$p_T = p \sin \theta$$

polar angle has to be determined from a straight line fit x=x(z).

N equidistant points with error $\sigma(z)$

$$\sigma(\theta)^{meas.} = \frac{\sigma(z)}{L} \sqrt{12(N-1)/(N(N+1))}$$

+ multiple scattering contribution.... normally small

In practical cases:
$$\frac{\sigma(p)}{p} \approx \frac{\sigma(p_T)}{p_T}$$

In summary:

$$\left. \frac{\sigma(p)}{p} \right|^{meas.} \propto \frac{\sigma(x) \cdot p}{BL^2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$$

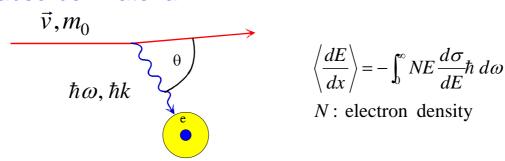




Detection of charged particles

How do they loose energy in matter?

 Discrete collisions with the atomic electrons of the absorber material.



Collisions with nuclei not important (m_e<<m_N).

• If $\hbar\omega$, $\hbar k$ are big enough \Rightarrow ionization.

Instead of ionizing an atom, under certain conditions the photon can also escape from the medium.

Emission of Cherenkov and Transition radiation. (See later).







Average differential energy loss



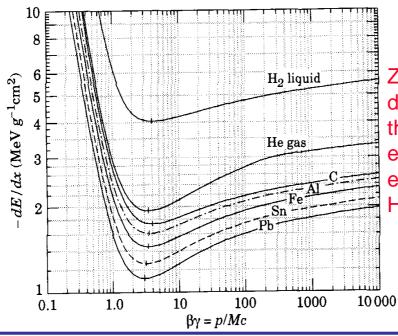
Ionisation only → Bethe - Bloch formula

$$\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = -4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \gamma^2 \beta^2}{I^2} T^{\text{max}} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta}{2} \right]$$

- dE/dx in [MeV g⁻¹ cm²]
- dE/dx depends only on β, independent of m
- Formula takes into account energy transfers

 $I \le dE \le T^{\text{max}}$ I: mean excitation potential $I \approx I_0 Z$ with $I_0 = 10 \text{ eV}$ (rough approximation, I fitted for each element)

- Bethe-Bloch formula only valid for "heavy" particles (m≥m₁₁).
- Electrons and positrons need special treatment (m_{proj}=m_{tarqet}), in addition Bremsstrahlung!



Z/A does not differ much for the various elements, except for Hydrogen!

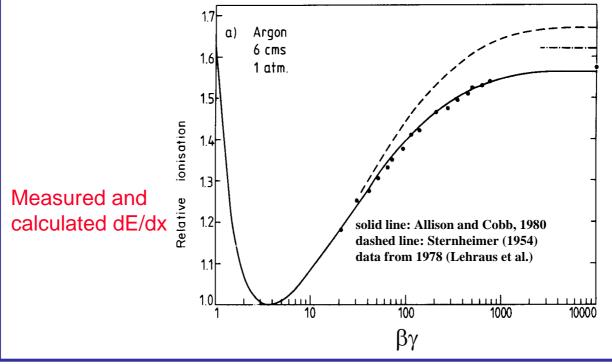


Bethe-Bloch formula



$$\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = -4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \gamma^2 \beta^2}{I^2} T^{\text{max}} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta}{2} \right]$$

- ♦ dE/dx first falls ∞ 1/β² (more precise β-5/3), kinematic factor
- then minimum at βγ ≈ 4 (minimum ionizing particles, MIP) (dE/dx ≈ 1 - 2 MeV g^{-1} cm²)
- then again rising due to $\ln \gamma^2$ term, relativistic rise, attributed to relativistic expansion of transverse E-field \rightarrow contributions from more distant collisions.
- relativistic rise cancelled at high γ by "density effect", polarization of medium screens more distant atoms. Parameterized by δ (material dependent) \rightarrow Fermi plateau
- many other small corrections





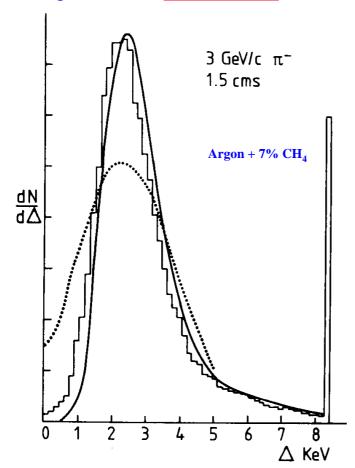
Landau tails



Real detectors (limited granularity) do not measure $\langle dE/dx \rangle$, but the energy ΔE deposited in a layer of finite thickness δx .

For thin layers (and low density materials):

- → Few collisions, some with high energy transfer.
- → Energy loss distributions show large fluctuations towards high losses: "Landau tails"



data: Harris et al. (1977) dotted curve: Landau(1944) solid curve: Allison and Cobb (1980)

For thick layers and high density materials:

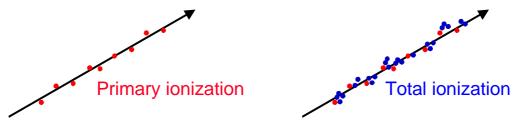
- → Many collisions.
- → Central Limit Theorem → Gaussian shape distributions.





Primary and total ionization

Fast charged particles ionize the atoms of a gas.



Often the resulting primary electron will have enough kinetic energy to ionize other atoms.

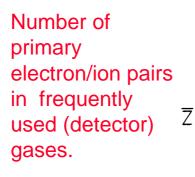
$$n_{total} = \frac{\Delta E}{W_i} = \frac{\frac{dE}{dx} \Delta x}{W_i}$$

 $n_{total} \approx 3...4 \cdot n_{primary}$

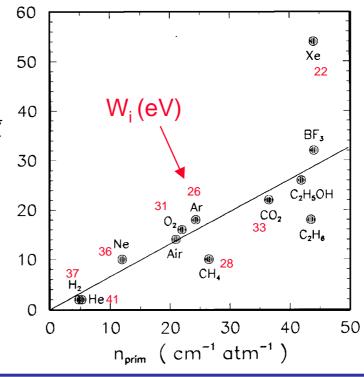
total number of created electron-ion pairs.

 $\Delta E = total energy loss$

W_i = effective <energy loss>/pair



(Lohse and Witzeling, Instrumentation In High Energy Physics, World Scientific,1992)







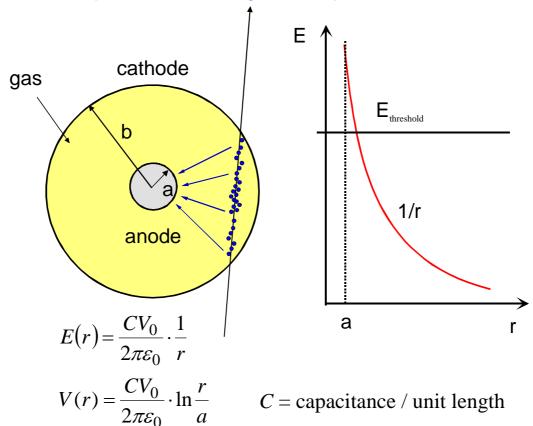
≈ 100 electron-ion pairs are not easy to detect!

Noise of amplifier ≈1000 e⁻ (ENC)!

We need to increase the number of e-ion pairs.

Gas amplification

Consider cylindrical field geometry (simplest case):



Electrons drift towards the anode wire (≈ stop and go! More details in next lecture!).

Close to the anode wire the field is sufficiently high (some kV/cm), so that e⁻ gain enough energy for further ionization → exponential increase of number of e⁻-ion pairs.





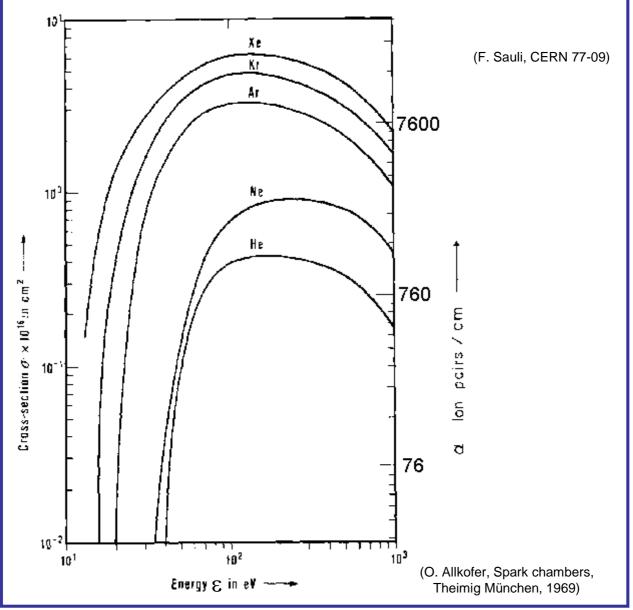
$$n = n_0 e^{\alpha(E)x}$$
 or $n = n_0 e^{\alpha(r)x}$

α: First Townsend coefficient (e⁻-ion pairs/cm)

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$
 λ : mean free path

$$M = \frac{n}{n_0} = \exp \left[\int_{a}^{r_C} \alpha(r) dr \right]$$

Gain
$$M \approx ke^{CV_0}$$

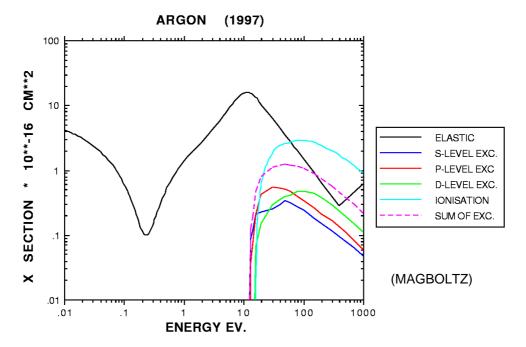






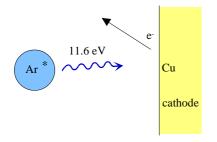
Choice of gas:

Dense noble gases. Energy dissipation mainly by ionization! High specific ionization.



De-excitation of noble gases only possible via emission of photons, e.g. 11.6 eV for Argon.

This is above ionization threshold of metals, e.g. Copper 7.7 eV.



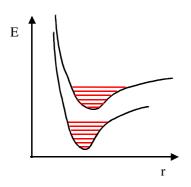
→ new avalanches → permanent discharges!





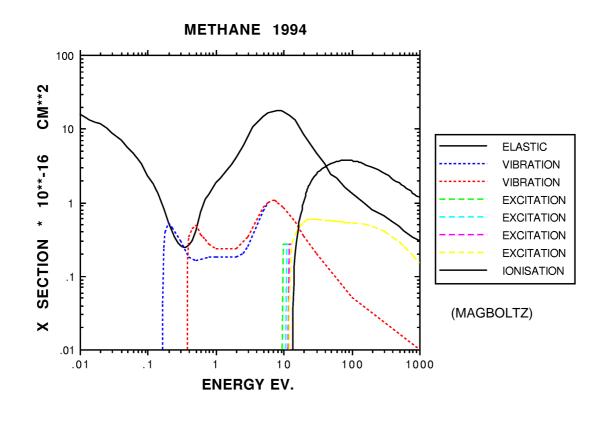
Solution: Add poly-atomic gases as quenchers.

Absorption of photons in a large energy range (many vibrational and rotational energy levels).



Energy dissipation by collisions or dissociation into smaller molecules.

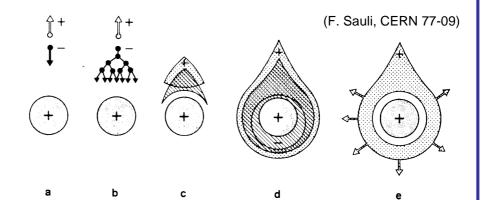
Methane: absorption band 7.9 - 14.5 eV







Signal formation

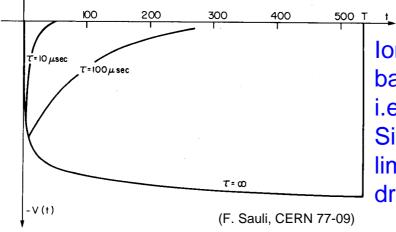


Avalanche formation within a few wire radii and within t < 1 ns!

Signal induction both on anode and cathode due to moving charges (both electrons and ions).

$$dv = \frac{Q}{lCV_0} \frac{dV}{dr} dr$$

Electrons collected by anode wire, i.e. dr is small (few μ m). Electrons contribute only very little to detected signal (few %).



lons have to drift back to cathode, i.e. *dr* is big. Signal duration limited by total ion drift time!

Need electronic signal differentiation to limit dead time.



Operation modes of chambers

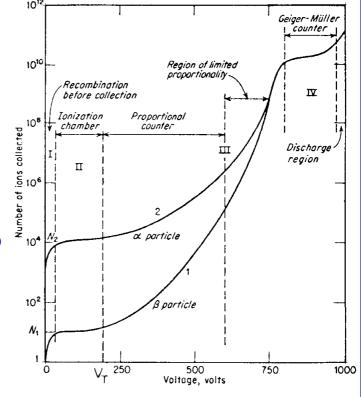


Operation modes:

- ionization mode: full charge collection, but no charge multiplication.
- Proportional mode: above threshold voltage multiplication starts. Detected signal proportional to original ionization → energy measurement (dE/dx). Secondary avalanches have to be quenched. Gain 10⁴ - 10⁵.
- Limited Proportional → Saturated → Streamer mode: Strong photo-emission. Secondary avalanches, merging with original avalanche. Requires strong quenchers or pulsed HV. High

gain (10¹⁰), large signals \rightarrow simple electronics.

Geiger mode: Massive photo emission. Full length of anode wire affected. Stop discharge by cutting down HV. Strong quenchers needed as well.



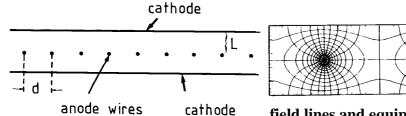


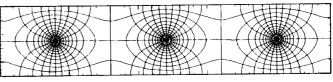
Multi wire proportional chambers



Multi wire proportional chamber (MWPC)

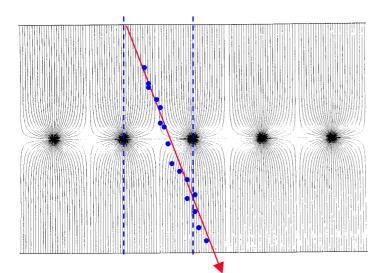
(G. Charpak et al. 1968, Nobel prize 1992)





field lines and equipotentials around anode wires

Capacitive coupling of non-screened parallel wires? Negative signals on all wires? Compensated by positive signal induction from ion avalanche.



Typical parameters: L=5mm, d=1mm, $a_{wire}=20$ mm.

Normally digital readout:

Normally digital readout: spatial resolution limited to
$$\sigma_x \approx \frac{d}{\sqrt{12}}$$
 (d=1mm, σ_x =300 μ m)

Address of fired wire(s) give only 1-dimensional information. Secondary coordinate

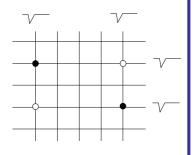


Multi wire proportional chambers

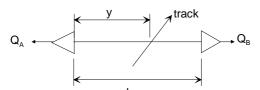


Secondary coordinate

Crossed wire planes. Ghost hits. Restricted to low multiplicities. Also stereo planes (crossing under small angle).

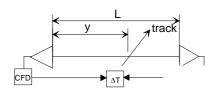


Charge division. Resistive wires (Carbon,2kΩ/m).



$$\frac{y}{L} = \frac{Q_B}{Q_A + Q_B} \quad \sigma\left(\frac{y}{L}\right) \text{ up to } 0.4\%$$

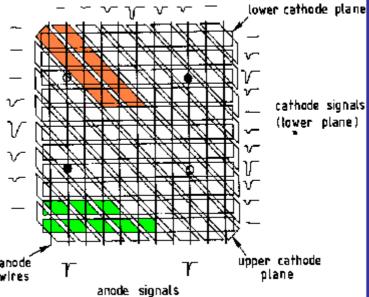
Timing difference (DELPHI Outer detector, OPAL vertex detector)



- $\sigma(\Delta T) = 100 \, ps$
- $\rightarrow \sigma(y) \approx 4cm$ (OPAL)

cathode signals (upper plane)

- 1 wire plane
 - + 2 segmented cathode signals cathode planes (upper plane)



Analog readout of cathode planes.

 $\rightarrow \sigma \approx 100 \ \mu m$

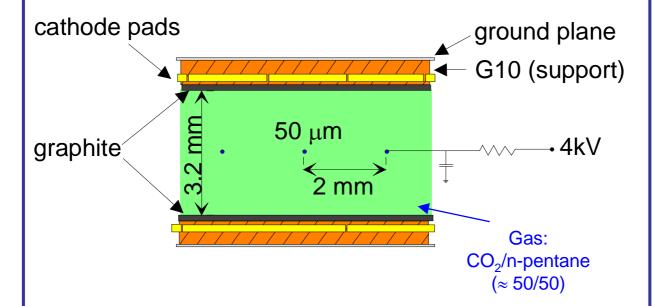


Derivatives of proportional chambers



Some 'derivatives'

Thin gap chambers (TGC)



Operation in saturated mode. Signal amplitude limited by by the resistivity of the graphite layer ($\approx 40 \text{k}\Omega/\square$).

Fast (2 ns risetime), large signals (gain 106), robust

Application: OPAL pole tip hadron calorimeter.

G. Mikenberg, NIM A 265 (1988) 223

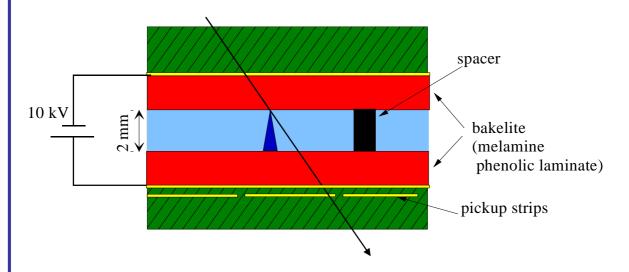
ATLAS muon endcap trigger, Y.Arai et al. NIM A 367 (1995) 398



Derivatives of proportional chambers



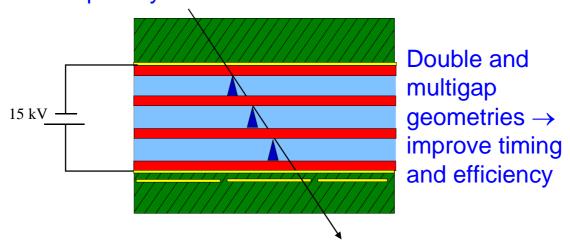
Resistive plate chambers (RPC)No wires!



Gas: $C_2F_4H_2$, (C_2F_5H) + few % isobutane

(ATLAS, A. Di Ciaccio, NIM A 384 (1996) 222)

Time dispersion \approx 1..2 ns \rightarrow suited as trigger chamber Rate capability \approx 1 kHz / cm²



Problem: Operation close to streamer mode.