

High School Teacher Programme 2016

<https://indico.cern.ch/e/HST2016>

• Particle Detectors •

Mar Capeans

CERN EP-DT

July 8th 2016

• Particle Detectors •

OUTLINE

1. Particle Detector Challenges at LHC
2. Interactions of Particles with Matter
3. Detector Technologies
4. How HEP Experiments Work

• Particle Physics Tools •

- **Accelerators**

- Luminosity, energy...

- **Detectors**

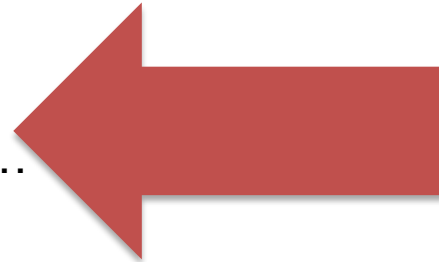
- Efficiency, granularity, resolution...

- **Trigger/DAQ (Online)**

- Efficiency, filters, through-put...

- **Data Analysis (Offline)**

- Large scale computing, physics results...



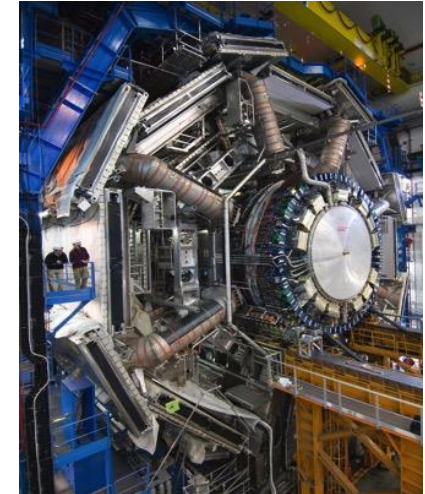
• Imaging Events •



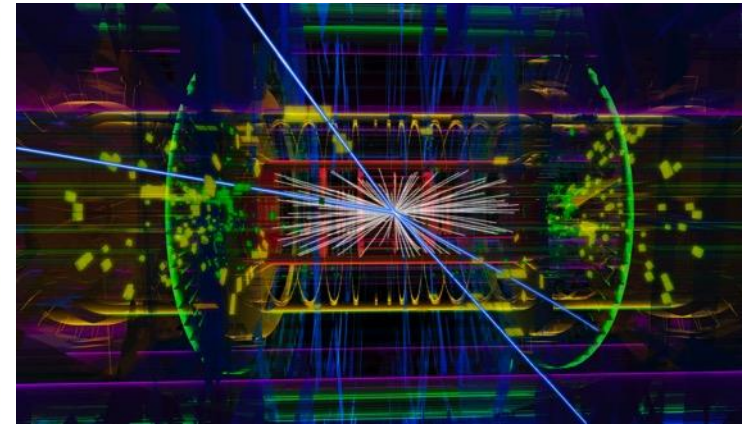
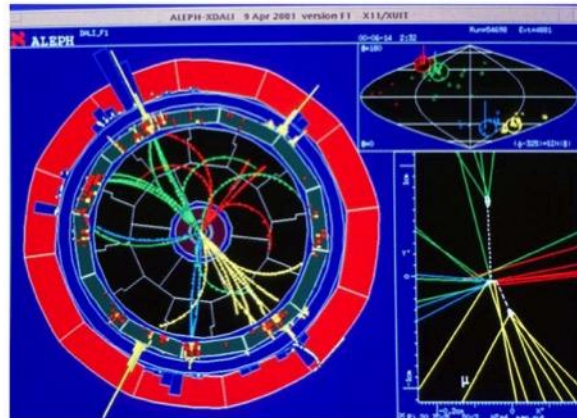
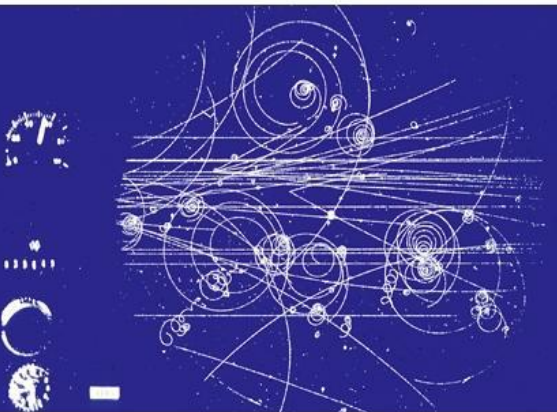
50's – 70's



LEP: 88 - 2000

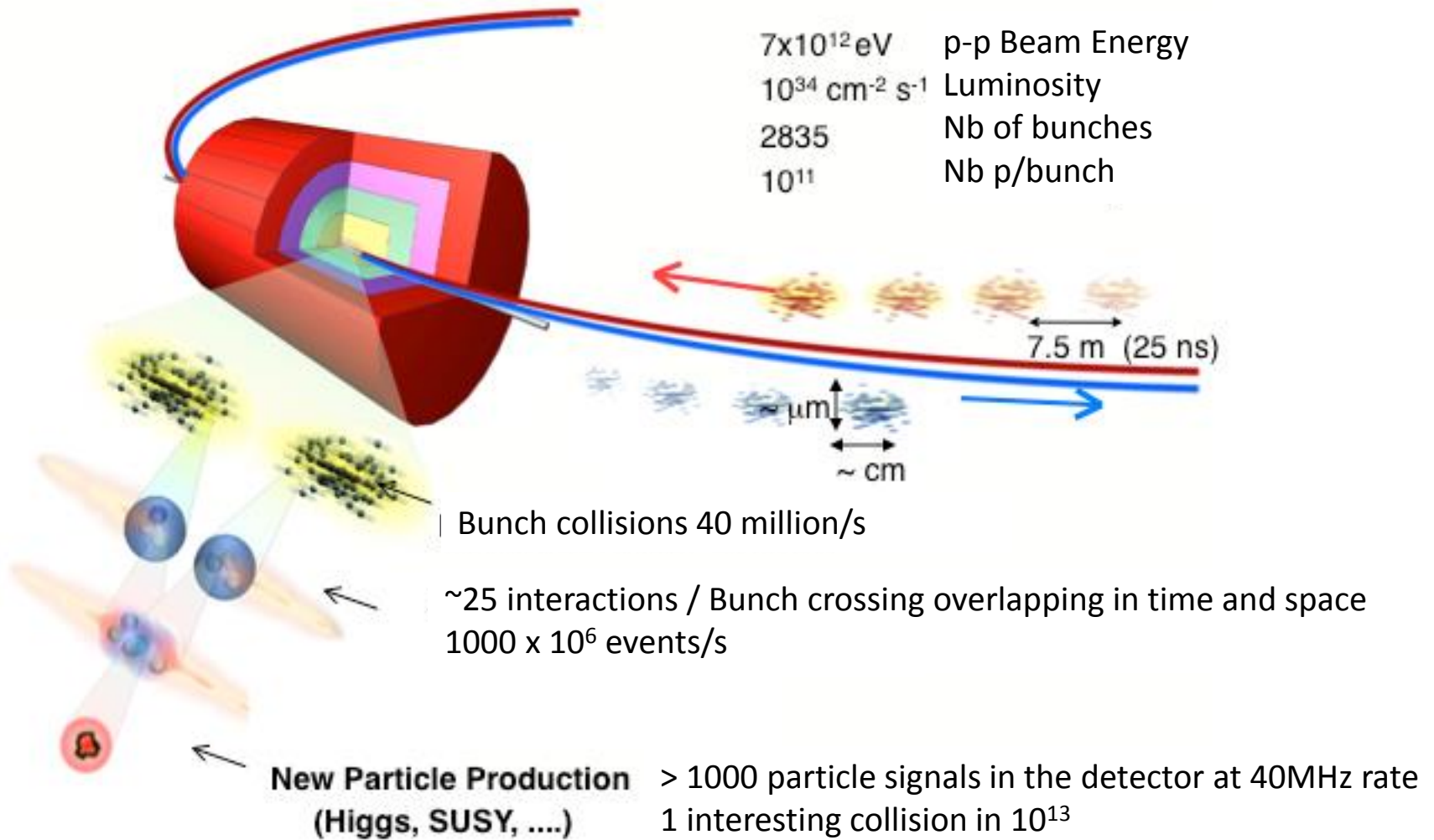


LHC



• ATLAS Event •

• LHC •



• Past VS LHC •

Dozens of
particles/s
No event selection
'Eye' analysis

VS

10^9 collisions/s

Registering $1/10^{12}$ events

GRID computing

Very Difficult Environment

At each bunch crossing ~1000 individual particles to be identified every 25 ns **High density of particles imply high granularity** in the detection system ...

Large quantity of readout services (100 M channels/active components)

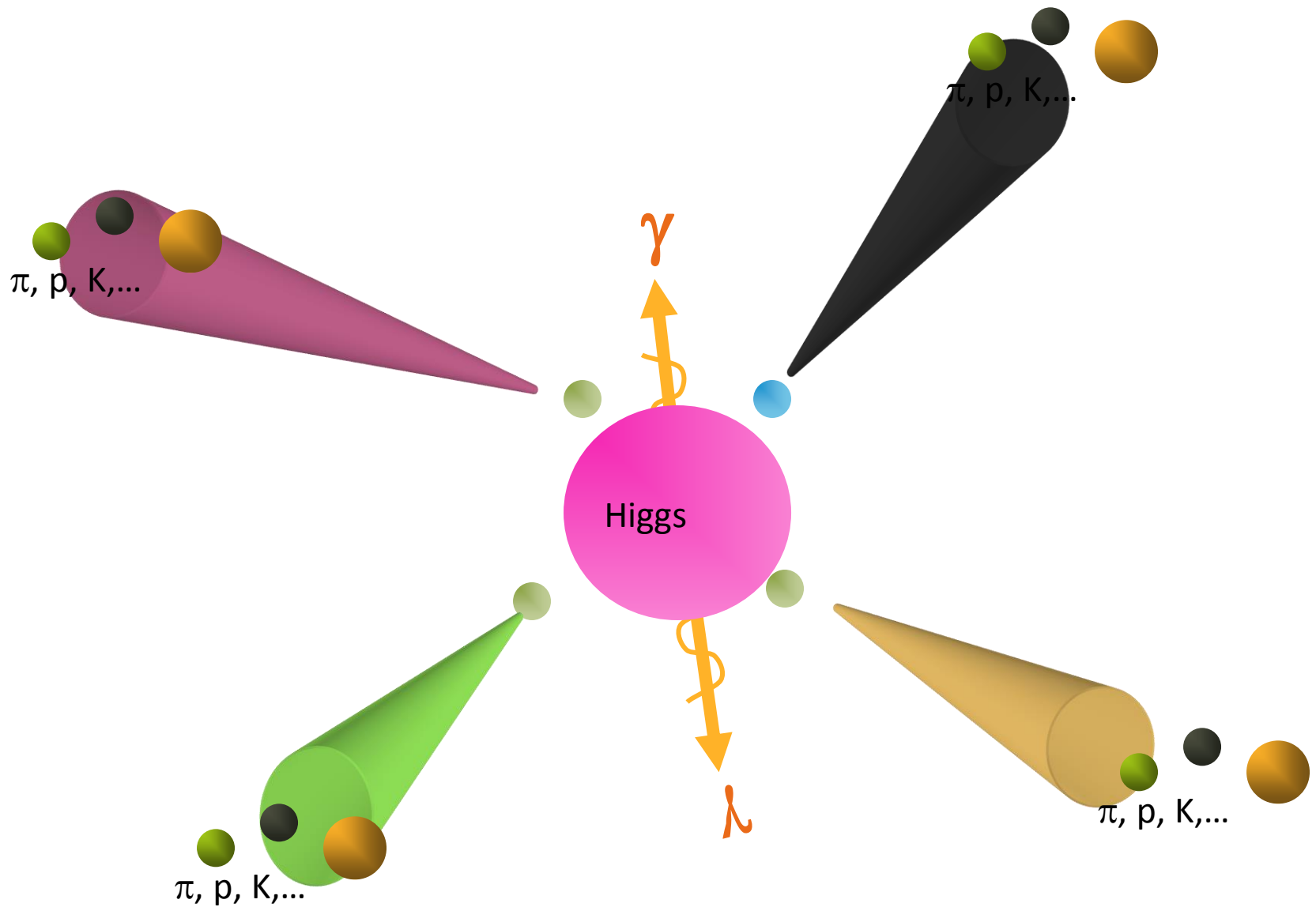
Large neutron fluxes, large photon fluxes capable of compromising the mechanical properties of materials and electronics components. **Induced radioactivity** in high Z materials (activation) which will add complexity to the **maintenance process**

Large **Magnetic Fields** in large volumes, which imply usage of **superconductivity (cryogenics)** and attention to **magnetic components** (electronics components, mechanical stress,)

• Artistic Event •



• Artistic Event •



• Particle Detection •

Slide: W.Riegler, CERN

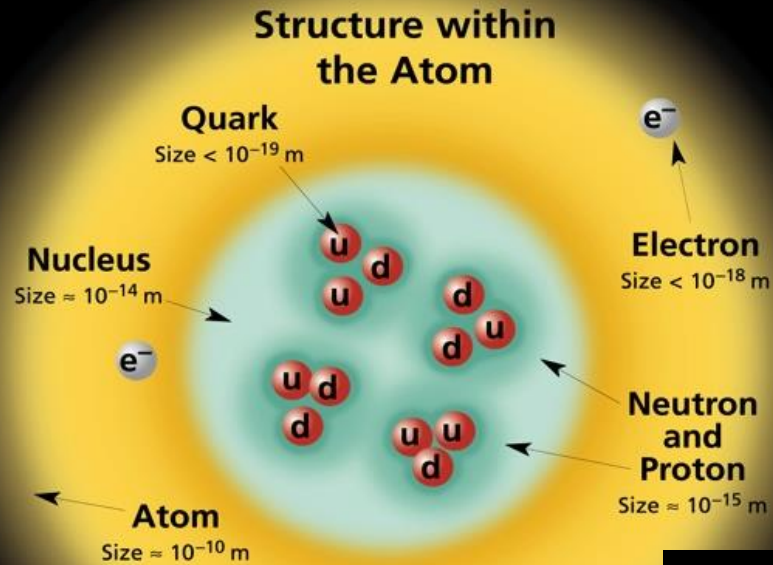
- **Only a few of the numerous known particles have lifetimes that are long enough to leave tracks in a detector**
- Most of the particles are measured through the decay products and their kinematic relations (invariant mass)
- Some short lived particles (b,c –particles) reach lifetimes in the laboratory system that are sufficient to leave short tracks before decaying
→ identification by measurement of short tracks
- Detectors are built to measure few charged and neutral particles (and their antiparticles) and photons: e^{\pm} , μ^{\pm} , π^{\pm} , K^{\pm} , K^0 , p^{\pm} , n , γ
- **Their difference in mass, charge and interaction is the key to their identification**

• Particle Detectors •

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• Interactions •



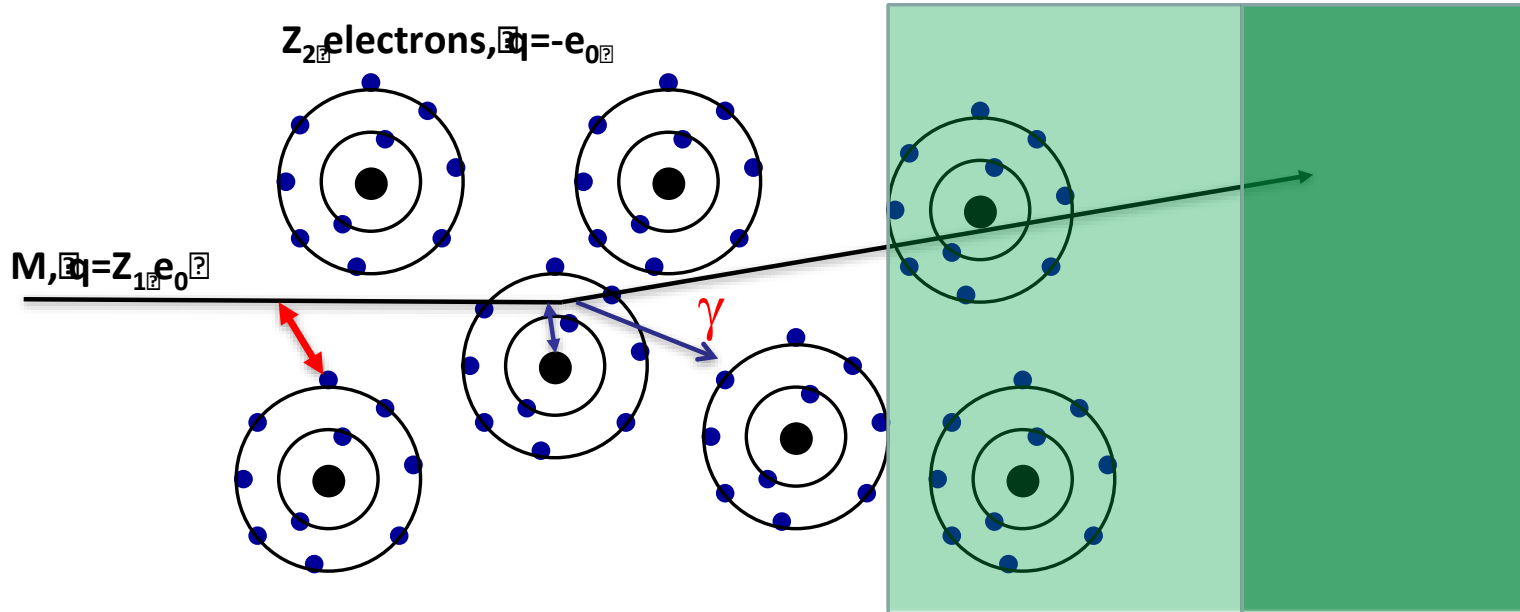
If the protons and neutrons in this picture were 10 cm across, then the quarks and electrons would be less than 0.1 mm in size and the entire atom would be about 10 km across.

PROPERTIES OF THE INTERACTIONS

Property \ Interaction	Gravitational	Weak (Electroweak)	Electromagnetic	Strong	
				Fundamental	Residual
Acts on:	Mass - Energy	Flavor	Electric Charge	Color Charge	See Residual Strong Interaction Note
Particles experiencing:	All	Quarks, Leptons	Electrically charged	Quarks, Gluons	Hadrons
Particles mediating:	Graviton (not yet observed)	W^+ W^- Z^0	γ	Gluons	Mesons
Strength relative to electromag for two u quarks at:	10^{-18} m	0.8	1	25	Not applicable to quarks
	$3 \cdot 10^{-17}$ m	10^{-41}	1	60	
	for two protons in nucleus	10^{-36}	10^{-7}	1	Not applicable to hadrons

• EM Interaction of Particles •

Slide: W.Riegler, CERN



Interaction with the atomic electrons. The incoming particle loses energy and the atoms are excited or ionized.

Interaction with the atomic nucleus. The particle is deflected (scattered) causing multiple scattering of the particle in the material. During this scattering a Bremsstrahlung photon can be emitted.

In case the particle's velocity is larger than the velocity of light in the medium, the resulting EM shockwave manifests itself as Cherenkov Radiation. When the particle crosses the boundary between two media, there is a probability of the order of 1% to produced and X ray photon, called Transition radiation.

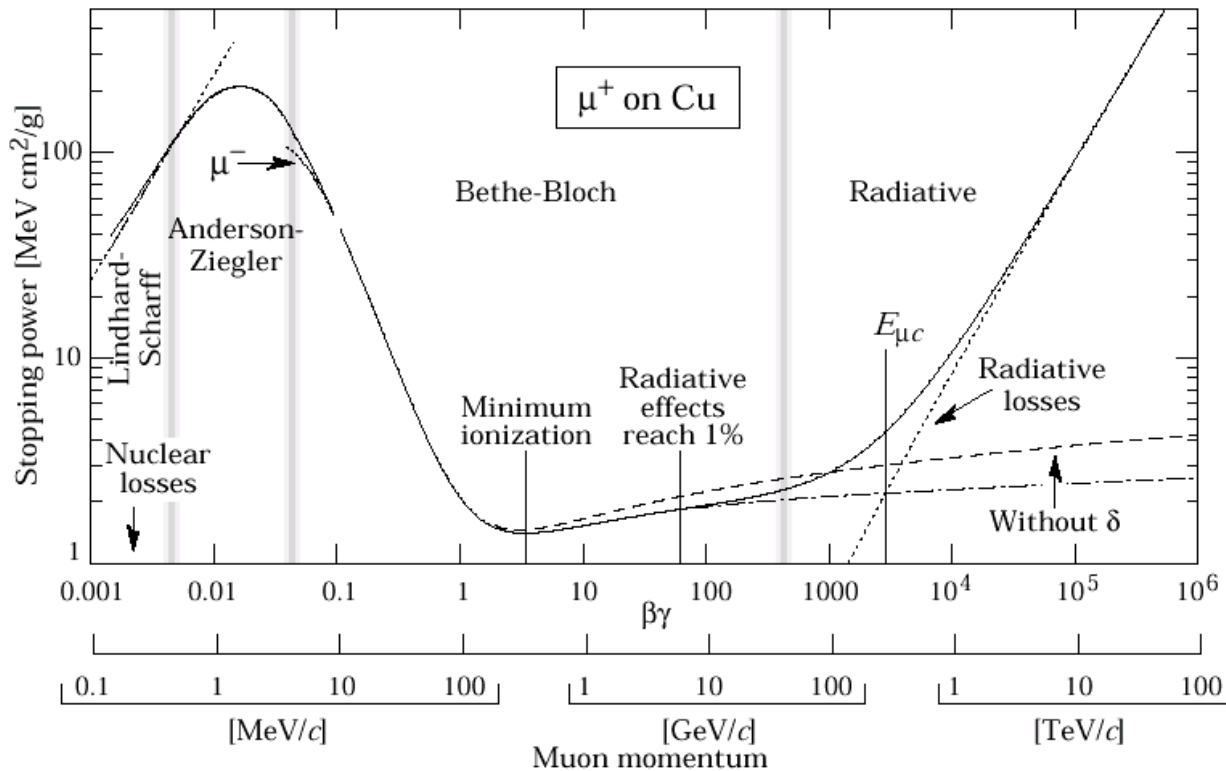
11/09/2011

• Heavy Charged Particles •

Bethe-Bloch formula gives the mean rate of energy loss (stopping power) for a heavy charged particle ($m_0 \gg m_e$), e.g. proton, k , π , μ

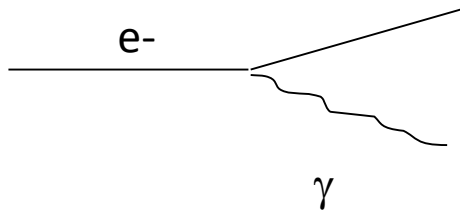
$$\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = -4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \gamma^2 \beta^2}{I^2} T^{\max} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta}{2} \right]$$

N: Avogadro's Nb
 m_e : e- mass
 Z, A: medium Atomic, Mass
 I: effective ionization potential
 B: projectile velocity

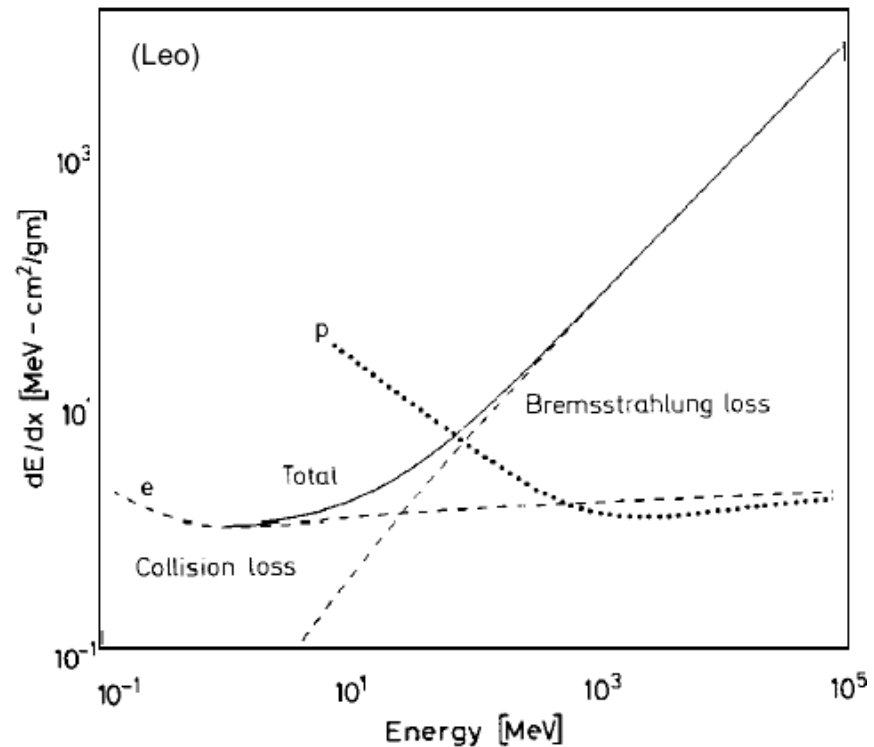


• Electrons and Positrons •

- Electrons/positrons; modify Bethe Bloch to take into account that incoming particle has same mass as the atomic electrons
- Bremsstrahlung (photon emission by an electron accelerated in Coulomb field of nucleus) in the electrical field of a charge Z comes in addition : \propto goes as $1/m^2$



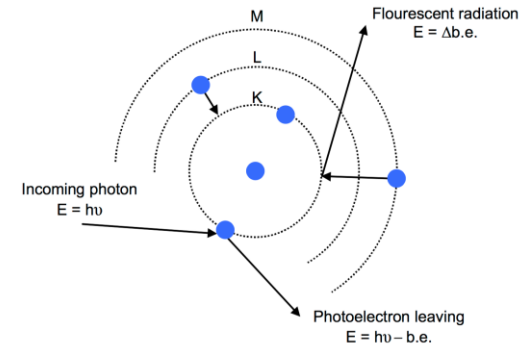
Deceleration of a charged particle when deflected by another charged particle, typically an electron by an atomic nucleus



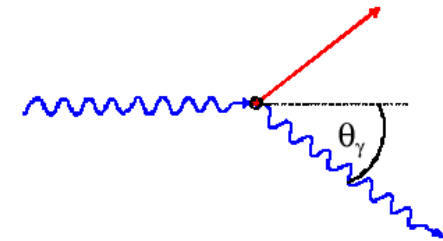
• Neutral Particles •

- **Photoelectric effect (Z^5)**; absorption of a photon by an atom ejecting an electron. The cross-section shows the typical shell structures in an atom.

Used in various detector technologies (very imp. In medical imaging)

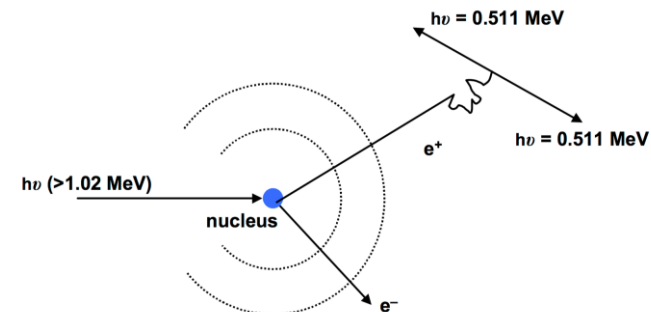


- **Compton scattering (Z)**; scattering of a photon against a free electron (Klein Nishina formula). This process has well defined kinematic constraints (giving the so called Compton Edge for the energy transfer to the electron etc) and for energies above a few MeV 90% of the energy is transferred (in most cases).



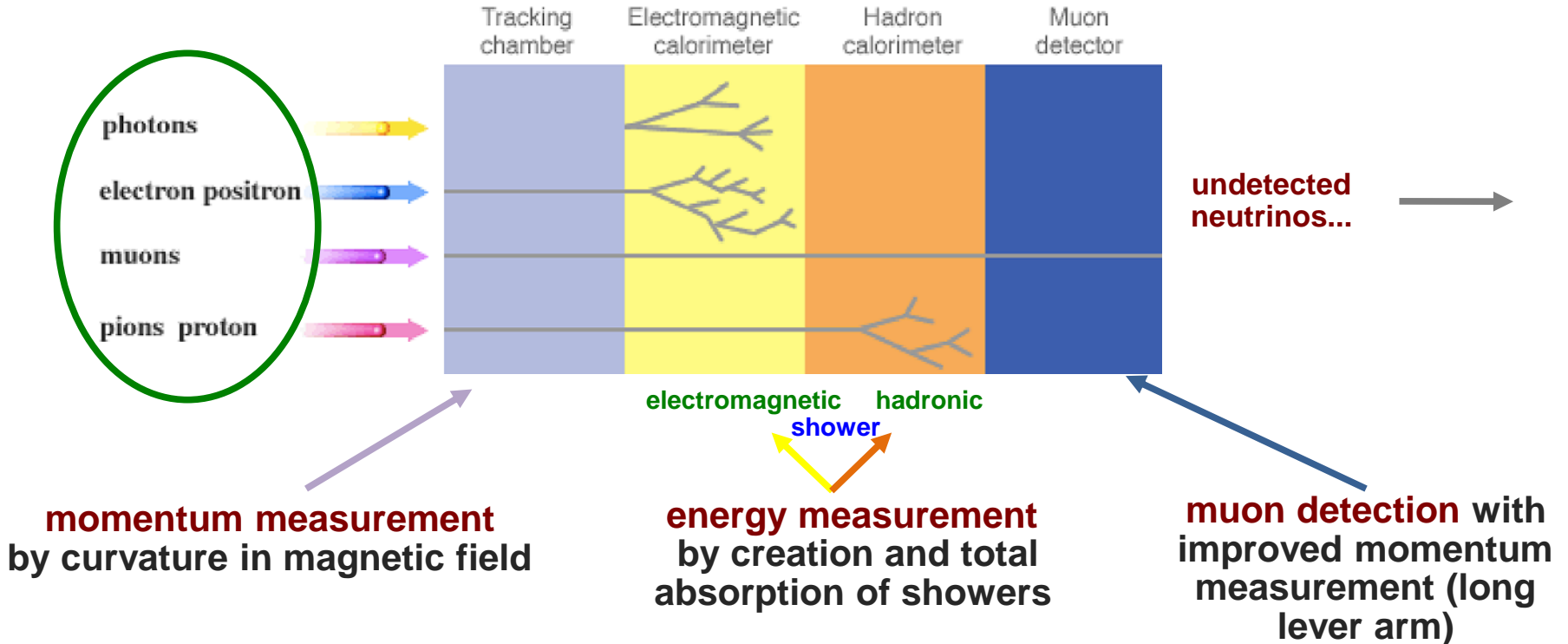
- **Pair-production (Z^2+Z)**; essentially bremsstrahlung; threshold at $2 m_e = 1.022$ MeV. Dominates at a high energy.

Most important in our field, Initiates EM shower in calorimeters



• Interactions in the Detector •

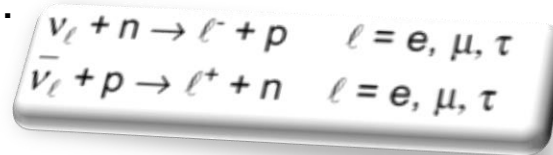
Low density → High density
High precision → Low precision
High granularity → Low granularity



• Neutrinos •

- Neutrinos interact only weakly, **tiny cross-sections**
- To detect neutrinos, we need first a charged particle (again)

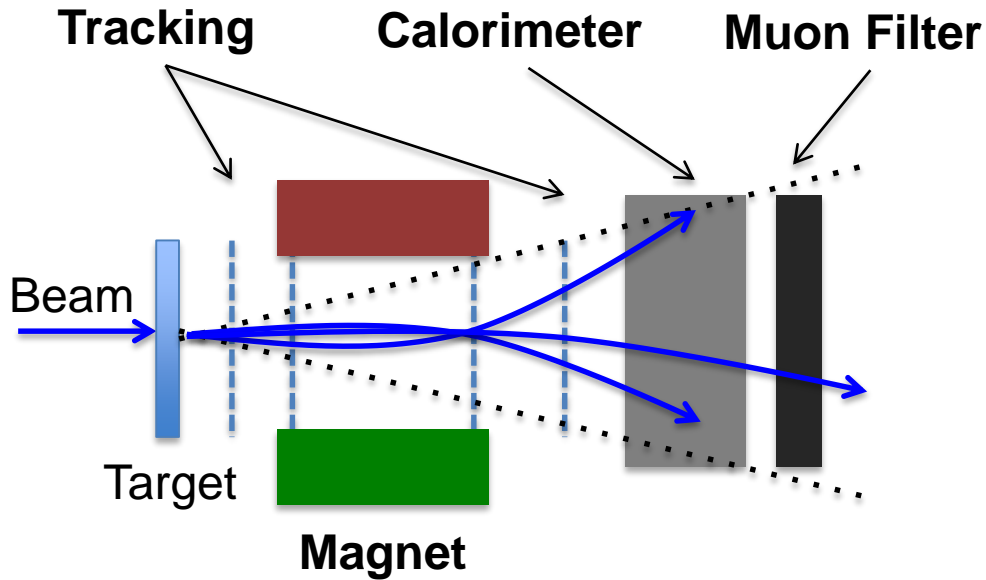
– Possible reactions:



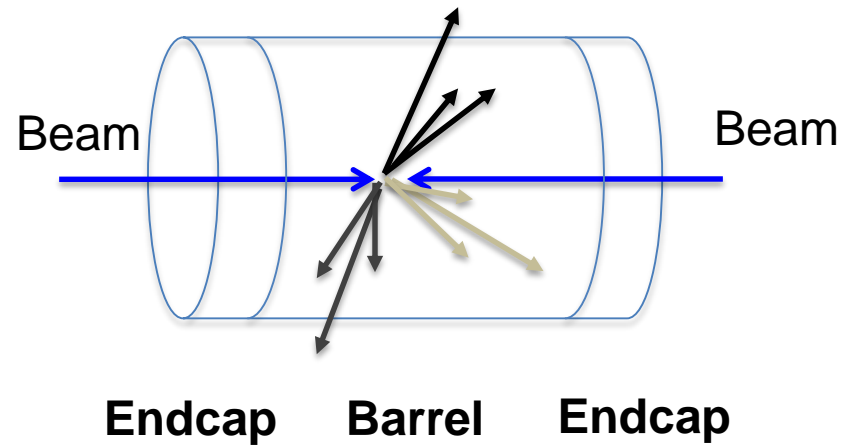
- The cross-section of the reaction $\nu_e + n \rightarrow e^- + p$ is of the order 10^{-43} cm² (per nucleon, $E_n \sim$ few MeV), therefore
 - Detection efficiency $\varepsilon_{\text{det}} = \sigma \times N^{\text{surf}} = \sigma \rho N_A d / A$
 - 1m Iron: $\varepsilon_{\text{det}} \sim 5 \times 10^{-17}$
- Neutrino detection requires big and massive detectors (kT) and high neutrino fluxes
- **In collider experiments, fully hermetic detector allow to detect neutrinos indirectly: we sum up all visible energy and momentum, and attribute missing energy and momentum to neutrino**

• Detector Systems •

Fix Target Geometry



Collider Geometry



• Particle Detectors •

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4. How HEP Experiments Work

• Detector Technologies •

- How are reactions of the various particles with detectors turned into electrical signals. We would like to extract position and energy information channel by channel from our detectors.
- Three effects/**technologies** are usually used :

Ionisation detectors | Semiconductors | Scintillators

If a particle has enough energy to ionize a gas atom or molecule, the resulting electrons and ions cause a current flow which can be measured.

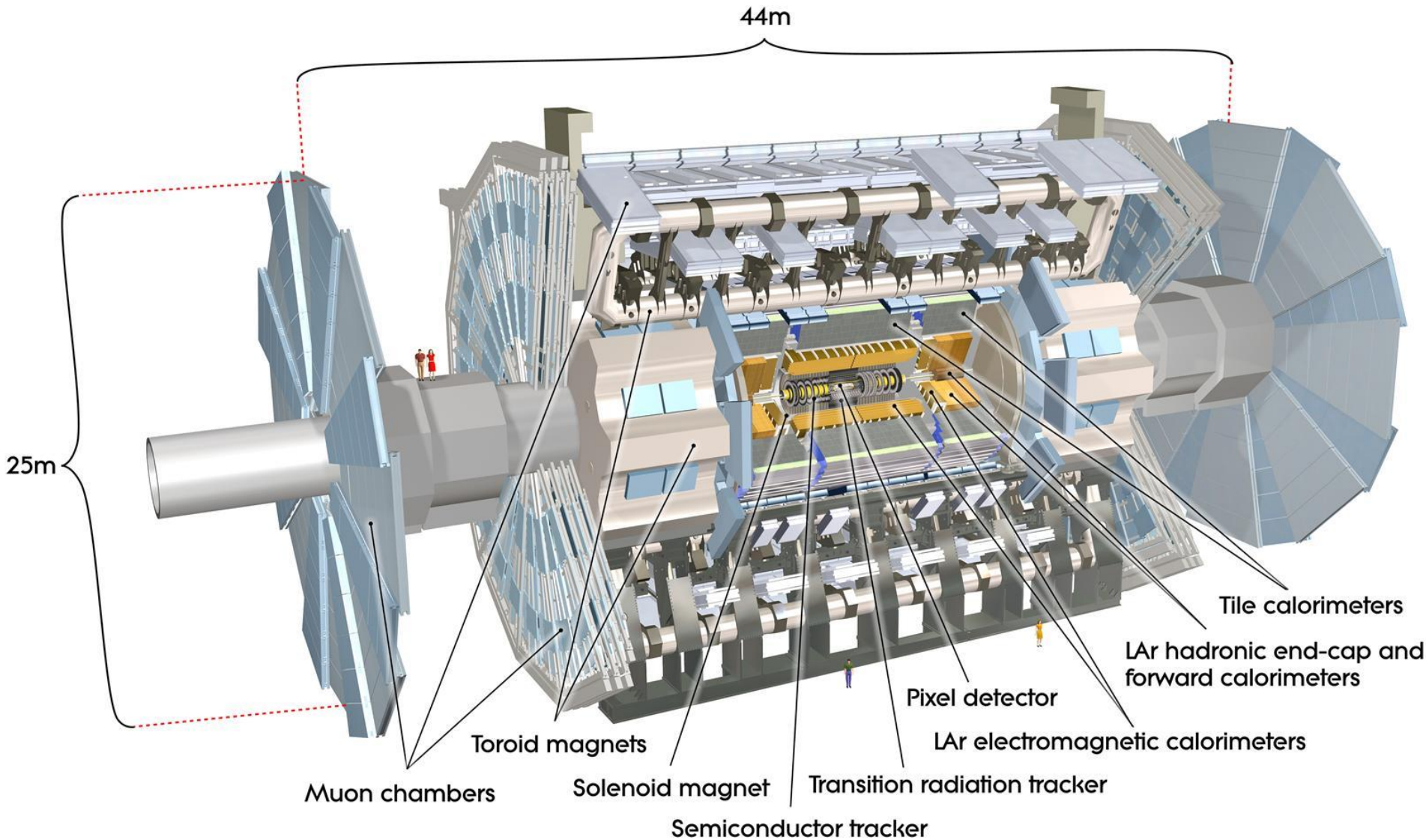
When a charged particle traverses Si, it produces ionizing and non-ionizing E Loss. The latter produces radiation damage, while ionization loss causes the creation of e-hole pairs which produces the signal.

Scintillators are materials that produce sparks or scintillations of light when ionizing radiation passes through them. The charged particle excites atoms in the scintillator, e- returns to ground state by emitting a photon.

and these are used for different **functions**: tracking and/or triggering, energy measurements, photon detectors for Cherenkov or TRT, etc

and from then on, it is all online (trigger, DAQ) and offline treatment and analysis

• ATLAS Detector •



CMS DETECTOR

Total weight : 14,000 tonnes
Overall diameter : 15.0 m
Overall length : 28.7 m
Magnetic field : 3.8 T

STEEL RETURN YOKE
12,500 tonnes

SILICON TRACKERS
Pixel ($100 \times 150 \mu\text{m}$) $\sim 16\text{m}^2 \sim 66\text{M}$ channels
Microstrips ($80 \times 180 \mu\text{m}$) $\sim 200\text{m}^2 \sim 9.6\text{M}$ channels

SUPERCONDUCTING SOLENOID
Niobium titanium coil carrying $\sim 18,000\text{A}$

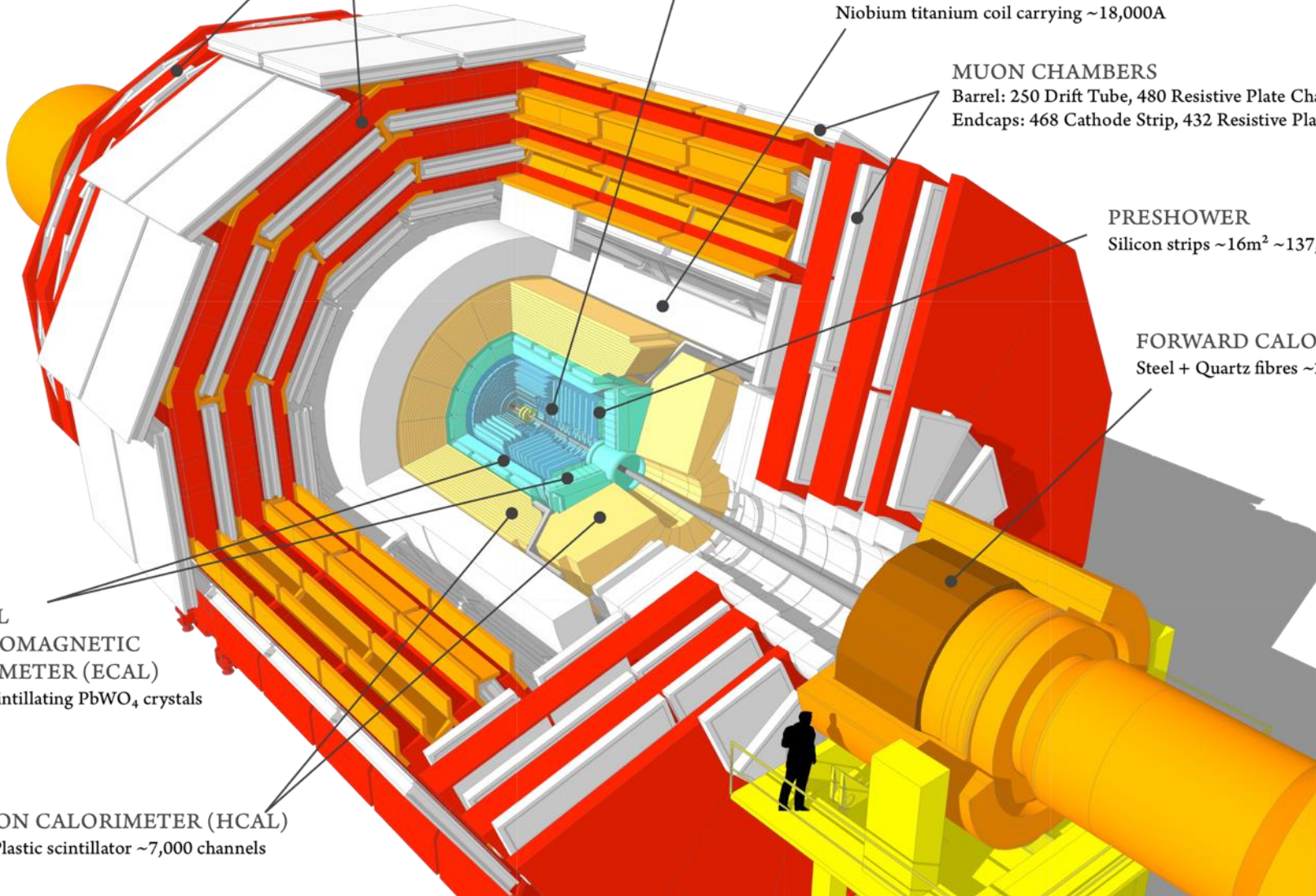
MUON CHAMBERS
Barrel: 250 Drift Tube, 480 Resistive Plate Chambers
Endcaps: 468 Cathode Strip, 432 Resistive Plate Chambers

PRESHOWER
Silicon strips $\sim 16\text{m}^2 \sim 137,000$ channels

FORWARD CALORIMETER
Steel + Quartz fibres $\sim 2,000$ Channels

CRYSTAL
ELECTROMAGNETIC
CALORIMETER (ECAL)
 $\sim 76,000$ scintillating PbWO_4 crystals

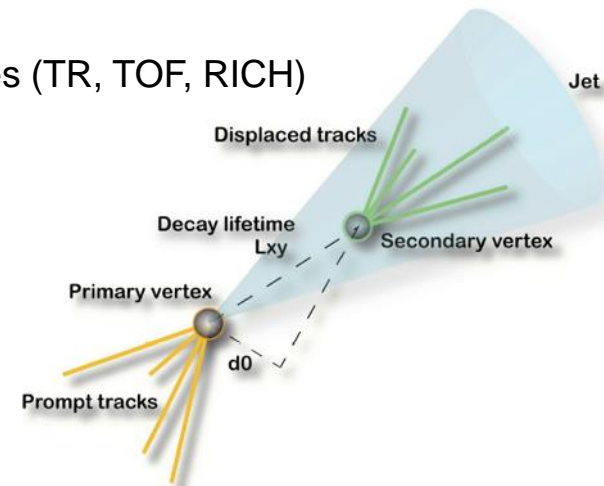
HADRON CALORIMETER (HCAL)
Brass + Plastic scintillator $\sim 7,000$ channels



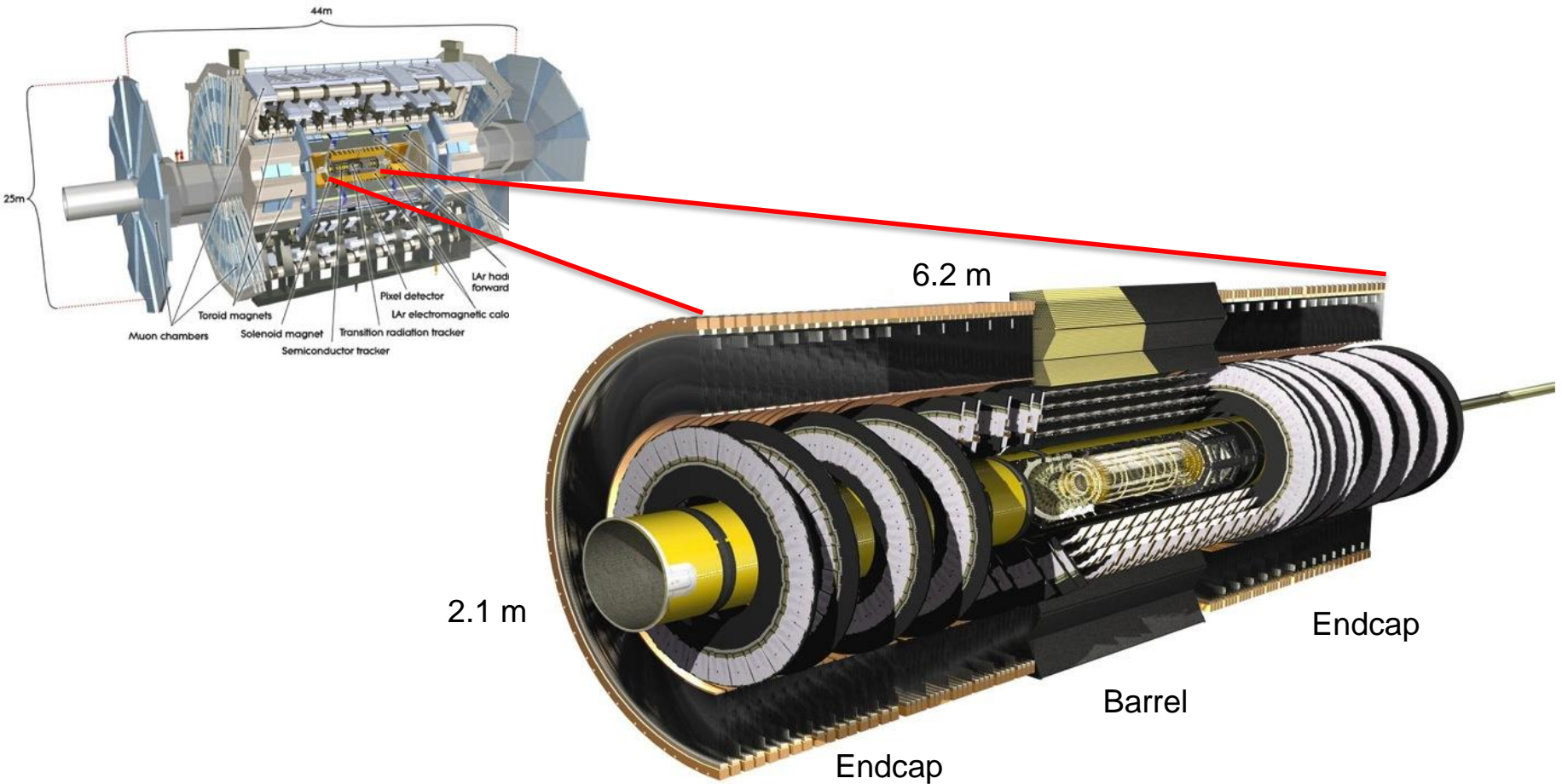
• Trackers •

- **Measure charged particles as they emerge from the interaction point, disturbing them as little as possible**
- Measure the trajectory of charged particles
 - Measure several points (hits) along the track and fit curves to the hits (helix, straight line)
- Determine their momentum
 - From their curvature in a magnetic field
- Extrapolate back to the point of origin
 - Reconstruct primary vertices
- Reconstruct secondary vertices
 - Long-lived particles have a measurable displacement between primary vertex and decay
- Match tracks with showers in the calorimeters or tracks in the muon systems
- Trackers also contribute to particle identification (PID)
 - Measuring rate of energy loss (dE/dx) in the tracker
 - Using dedicated detectors to distinguish different particle types (TR, TOF, RICH)

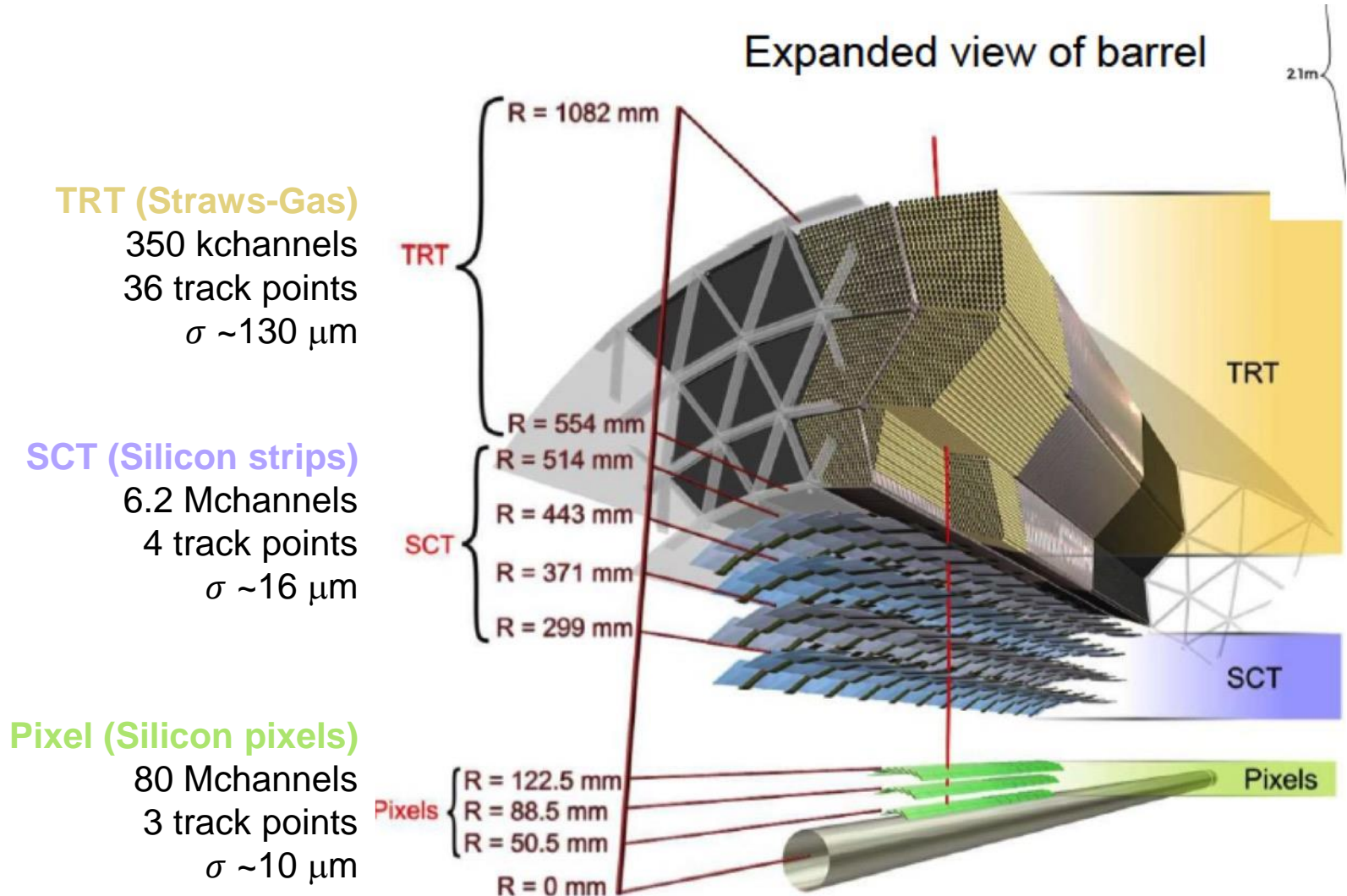
Want a compact detector, inside a magnetic field, to register as many hits as possible but light to minimise interactions of charged (and neutral) particles before they reach the calorimeter systems



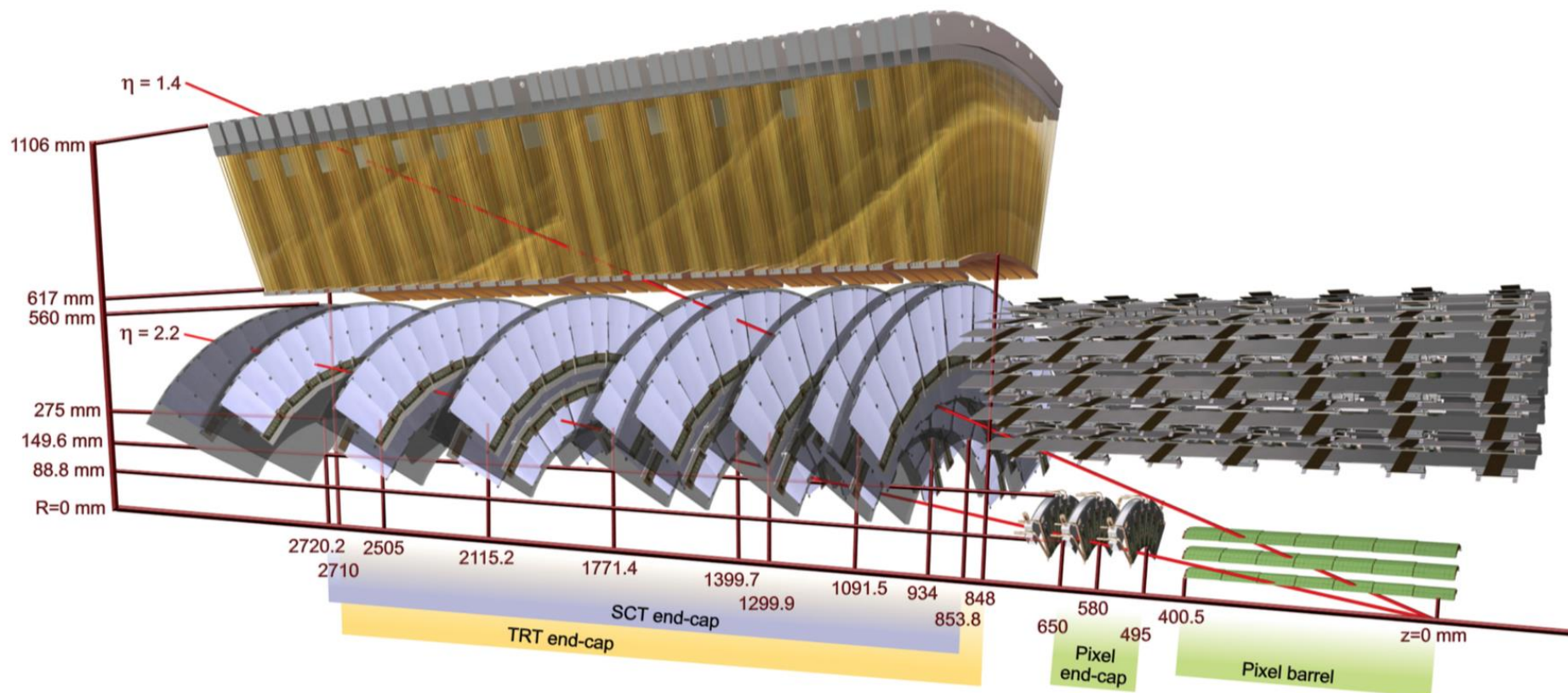
• ATLAS Tracker •



• ATLAS Tracker •



• Track Points •



ATLAS ID elements crossed by two charged particles of 10 GeV pT

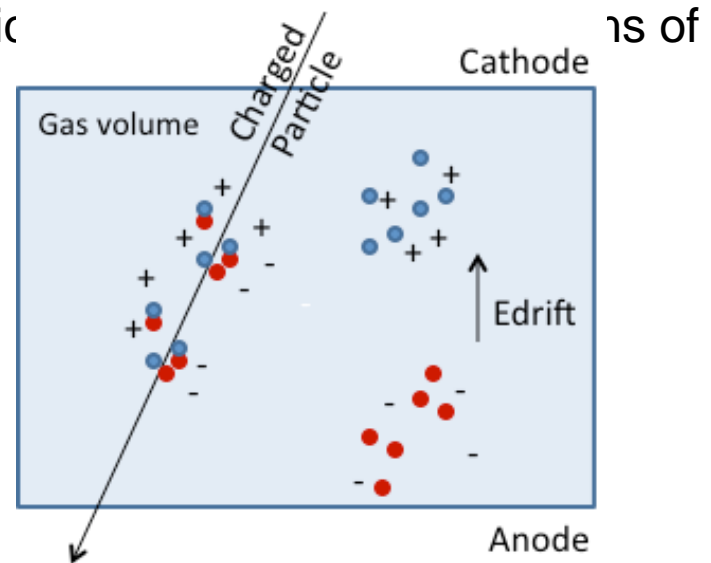
- A particle at $|\eta| = 1.4$ traverses the **beam-pipe**, **3 pixel** layers, **4 SCT** disks with double layers of sensors, and approximately **40 straws** in the TRT end-cap.
- A particle at $|\eta| = 2.2$ traverses the **beam-pipe**, only the **first pixel** layer, **2 end-cap pixel** disks and the last **4 disks of the SCT** end-cap.

• Gaseous Detectors •

Any charged particle traversing a gas will lose energy due to interactions with the atoms of the gas. This results in:

- **Excitation**, the particle passes a specific amount of energy to a gas atom
- **Ionization**, the particle knocks an electron off the gas atom, and leaves a positively charged ion

Resulting primary e^- will have enough kinetic energy to ionize more gas. The sum is called **Total Ionization**



• Ionization •

Energy Loss of Charged Particles in Gases

Gas	Density, mg cm^{-3}	E_x eV	E_I eV	W_I eV	$dE/dx _{\min}$ keV cm^{-1}	N_P cm^{-1}	N_T cm^{-1}
Ne	0.839	16.7	21.6	30	1.45	13	50
Ar	1.66	11.6	15.7	25	2.53	25	106
Xe	5.495	8.4	12.1	22	6.87	41	312
CH ₄	0.667	8.8	12.6	30	1.61	37	54
C ₂ H ₆	1.26	8.2	11.5	26	2.91	48	112
iC ₄ H ₁₀	2.49	6.5	10.6	26	5.67	90	220
CO ₂	1.84	7.0	13.8	34	3.35	35	100
CF ₄	3.78	10.0	16.0	54	6.38	63	120

$$n_p = 25 \text{ ion pairs/cm}$$

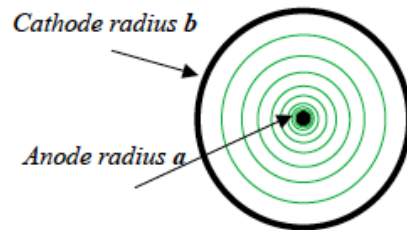
$$n_T = \Delta E/W_i = 2.5 \text{ keV/cm} / 25 \text{ eV} = 100 \text{ ion pairs/cm}$$

- 100 pairs are not easy to detect, typical noise of an amplifier is $\sim 1000 e^-$
- **Need to MULTIPLY the electrons**

• Amplification •

- Multiplication requires fields where the e^- energy occasionally is sufficient to ionise

THIN ANODE WIRE

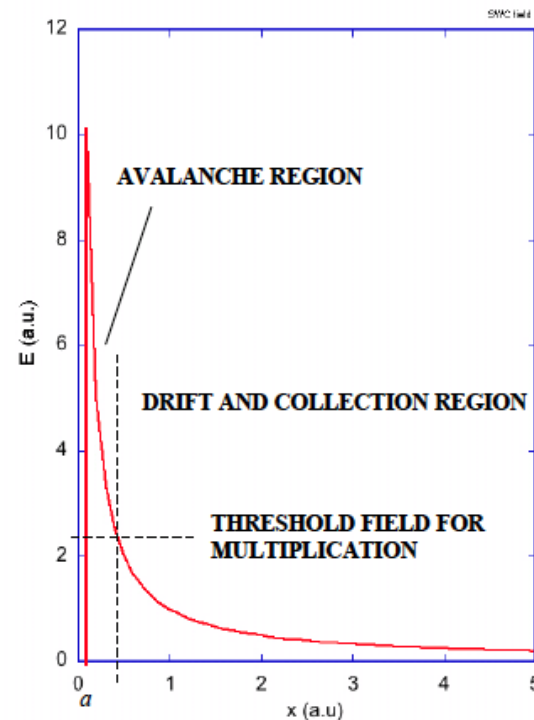


ELECTRIC FIELD AND POTENTIAL:

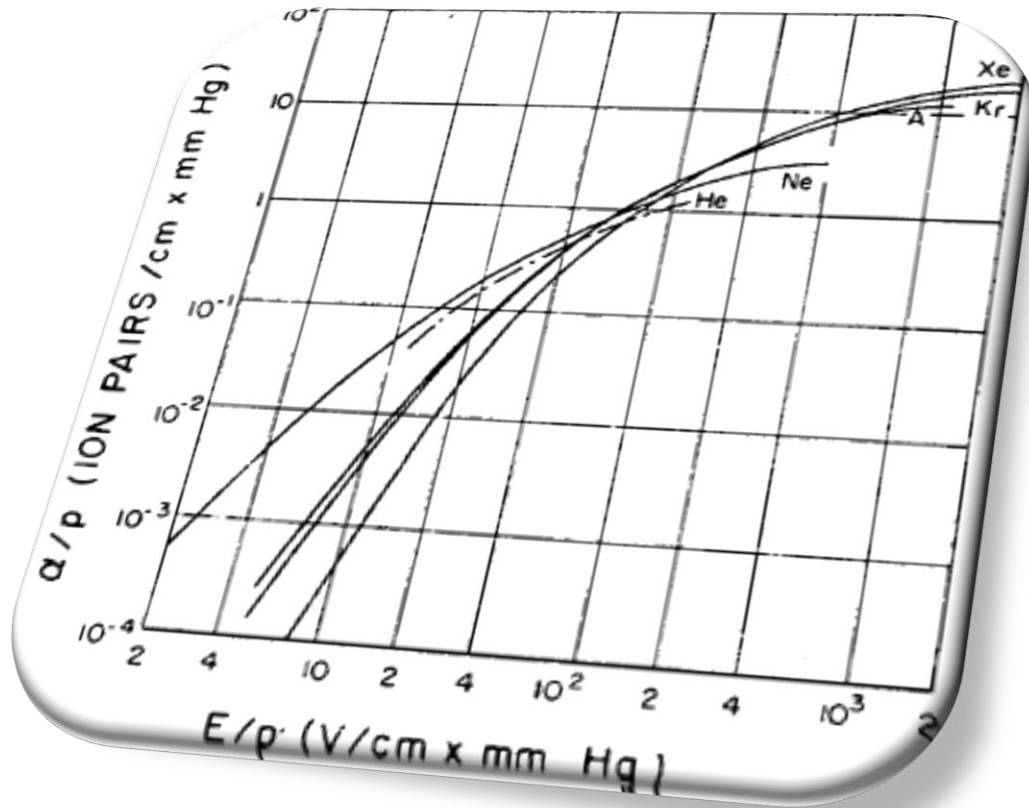
$$E(r) = \frac{CV_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r}$$

$$V(r) = \frac{CV_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{r}{a}$$

$$C = \frac{2\pi\epsilon_0}{\ln(b/a)} \quad \text{capacitance per unit length}$$



• Noble Gases •



Noble gases require the lowest electric field for formation of avalanches

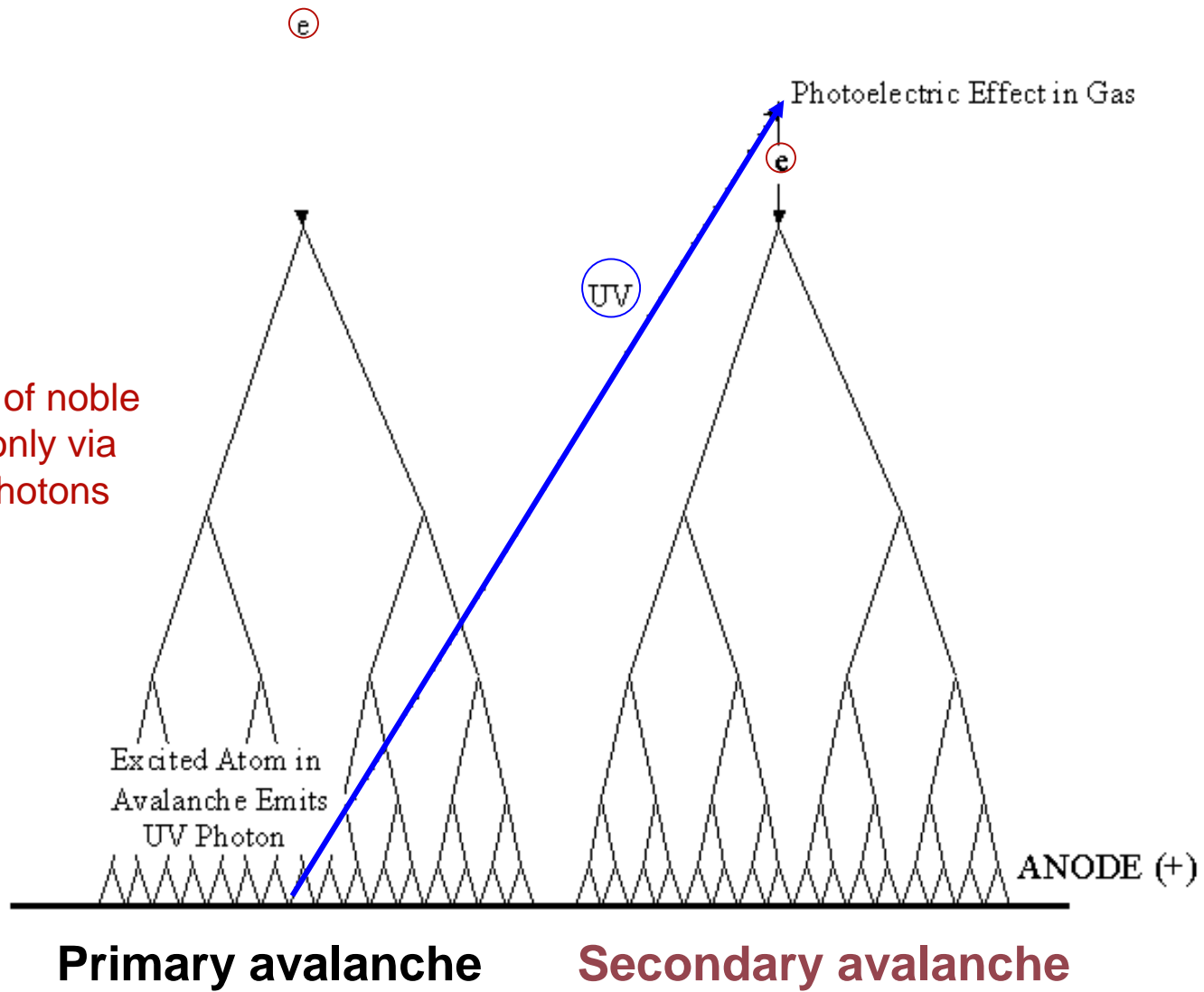
VIII A	
18	
2	He
	4,00
	Helium
10	Ne
	20,18
	Neon
18	Ar
	39,98
	Argon
36	Kr
	83,80
	Krypton
54	Xe
	131,29
	Xenon
86	Rn
	(222,02)
	Radon

Light

Abundant
Inert
Cheap

Expensive

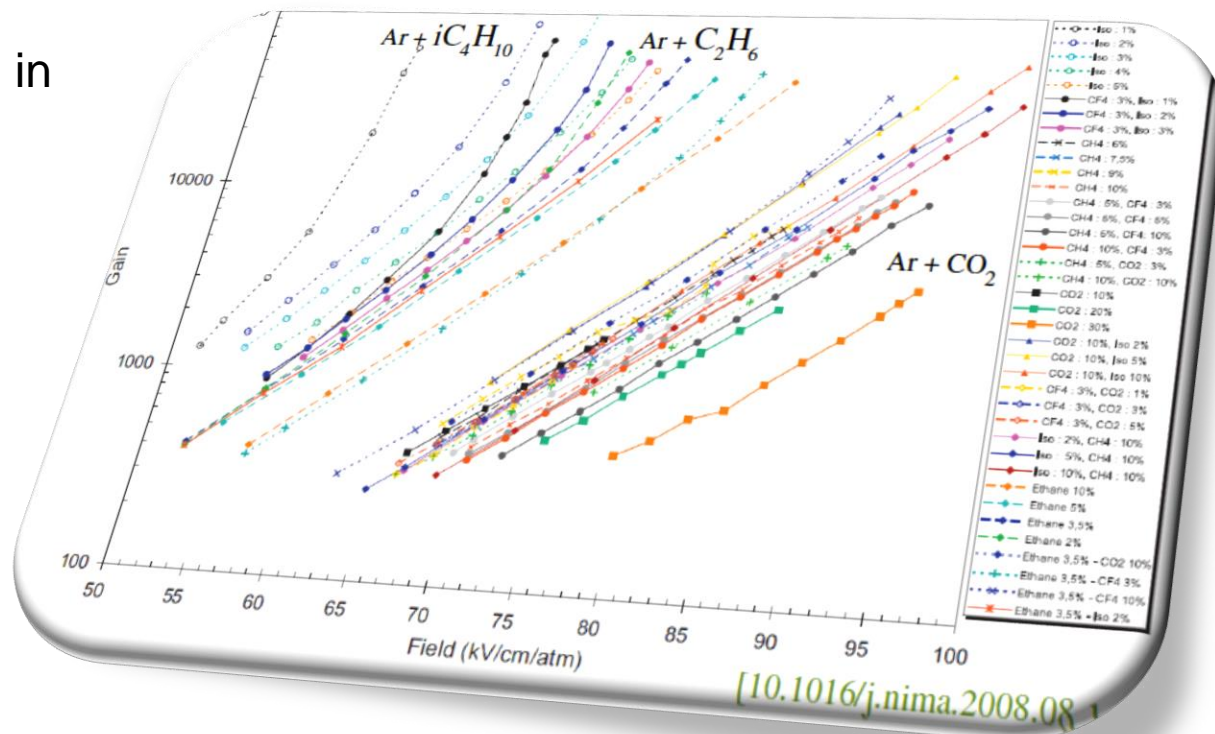
De-excitation of noble gases occur only via emission of photons



• Quencher Gases •

A **polyatomic gas** acts as a **QUENCHER**, i.e., absorbs photons in a large energy range due to the large amount of non-radiative excited states (rotational and vibrational)

- Most organic compounds in the **HC** and **-OH** families. The quenching efficiency increases with the nb of atoms in the molecule
- Freons, BF_3
- CO_2 : non flammable, non polymerizing, easily available

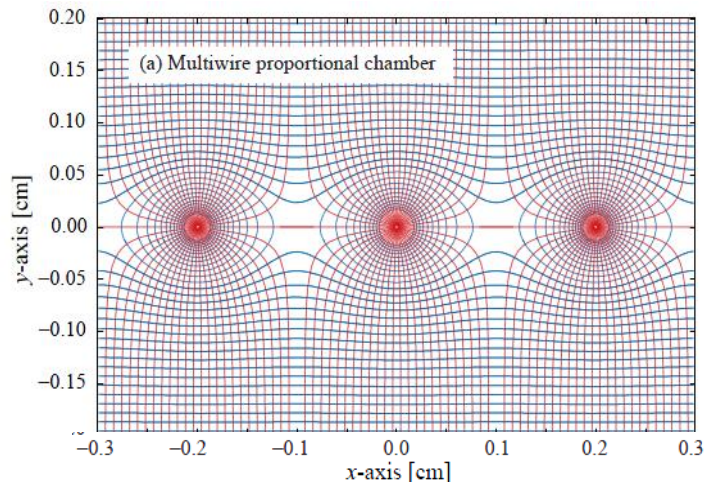
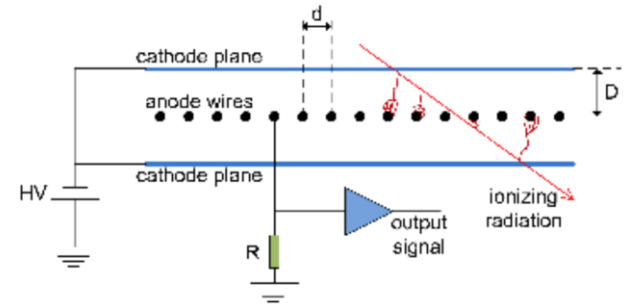


• Gas in LHC detectors •

Experiment	Sub- Detector	Gas Mixture
ALICE	TPC, TRD, PMD	
ATLAS	CSC, MDT, TRT	
CMS	DT	Noble Gas + CO₂
LHCb	OT straws	
TOTEM	GEM, CSC	
LHCb	MWPC, GEM	
CMS	CSC	Ar – CO₂ – CF₄
ATLAS, CMS, ALICE	RPC	C ₂ H ₂ F ₄ - iC ₄ H ₁₀ - SF ₆
ATLAS	TGC	CO ₂ – n-pentane
LHCb	RICH	CF ₄ or C ₄ F ₁₀

• MWPC •

- Fast position-sensitive detectors (1968)
- Continuously active
- Efficient at particle fluxes up to several MHz/cm²
- Sub-mm position accuracy
- **First electronic device allowing high statistics experiments !!**

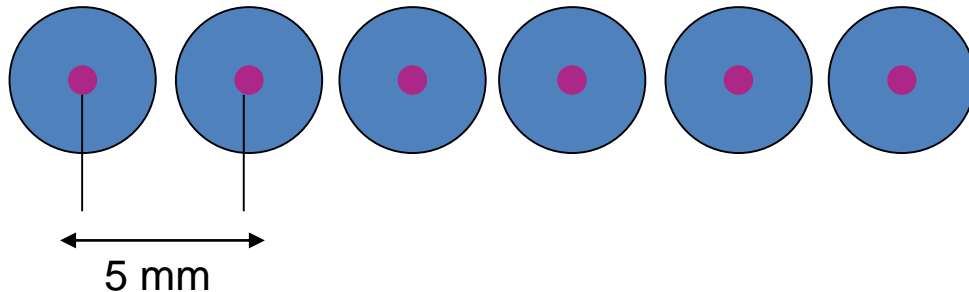


G.Charpak, Noble Prize in 1992



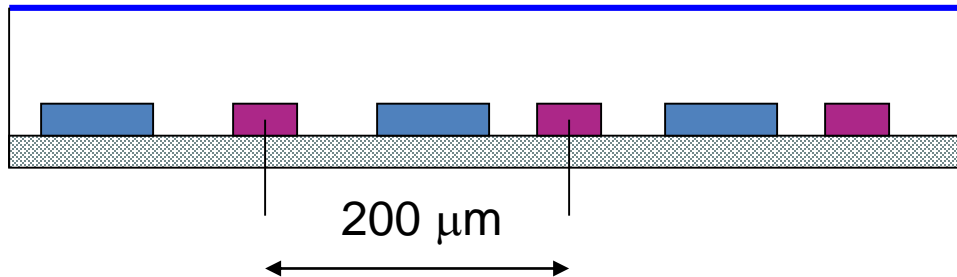
MWPC... Rate capability limited by space charge defined by the time of evacuation of positive ions

• Increasing Cell Granularity •



STRAW TUBES

Anode-cathode distance: 2 mm
Spatial resolution ~ 130-300 μm

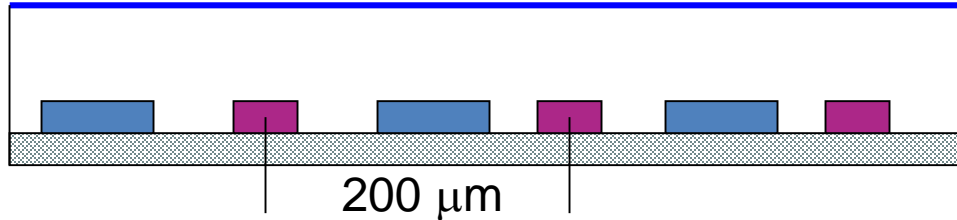


MICRO STRIP GAS CHAMBERS (MSGC - A.Oed,1988)

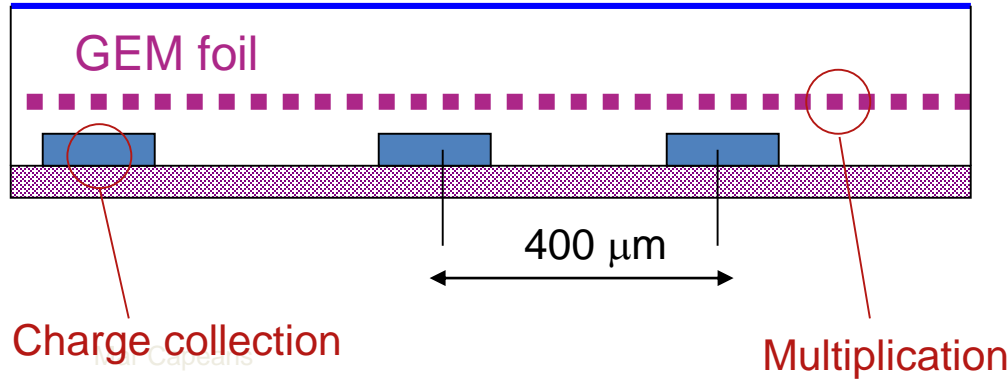
Semiconductor industry technologies
Anode-cathode distance: 40 μm
Spatial resolution ~ 40 μm

MSGC... Very high rate capability due to small pitch and fast ion collection, but delicate structures with very high fields in electrodes edges.... sparks

• Decoupling Multiplication from Charge Collection •

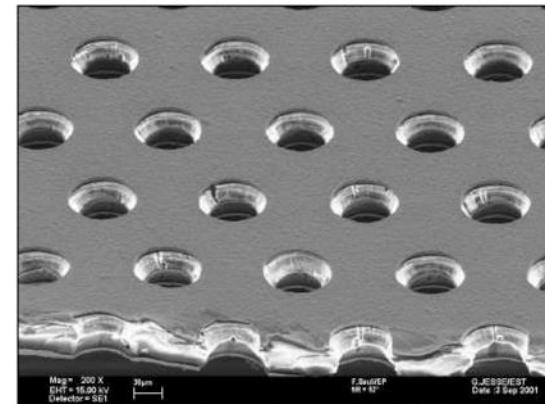


Micro Strip Gas Chamber



**Gas Electron Multiplier
(GEM – F.Sauli, 1998)**

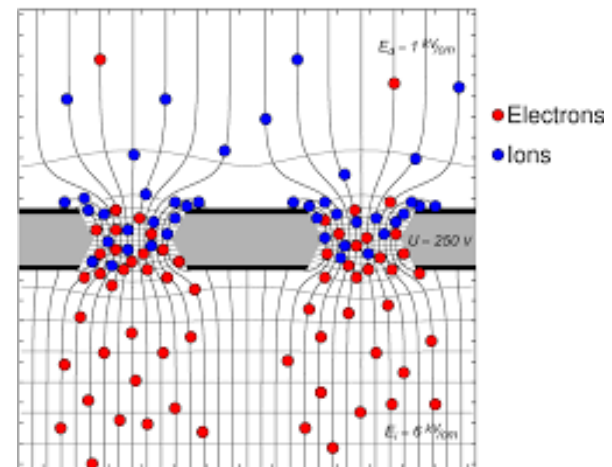
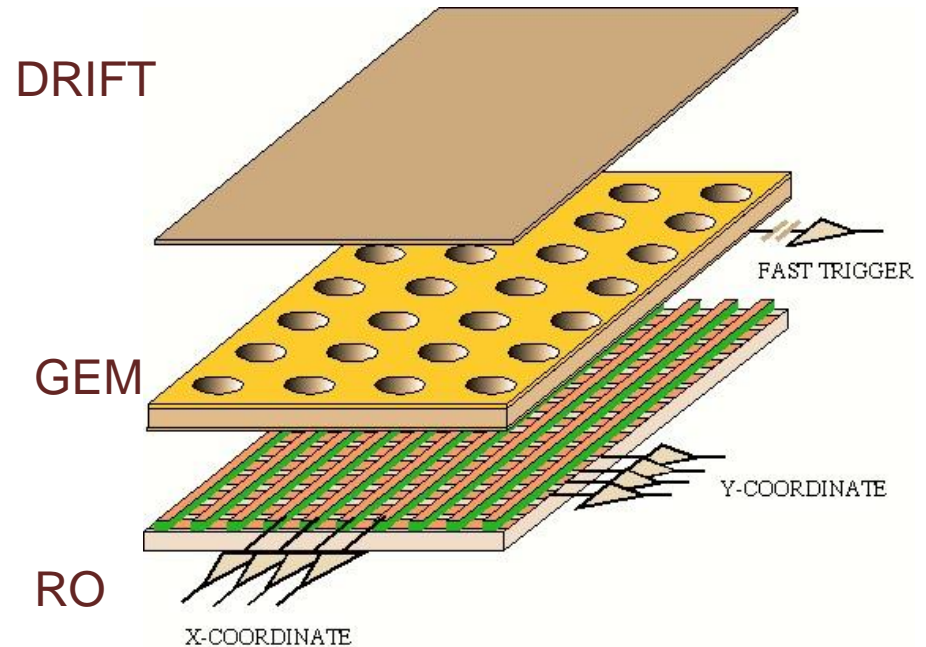
Spatial resolution $\sim 50 \mu\text{m}$
Time resolution better than 10 ns



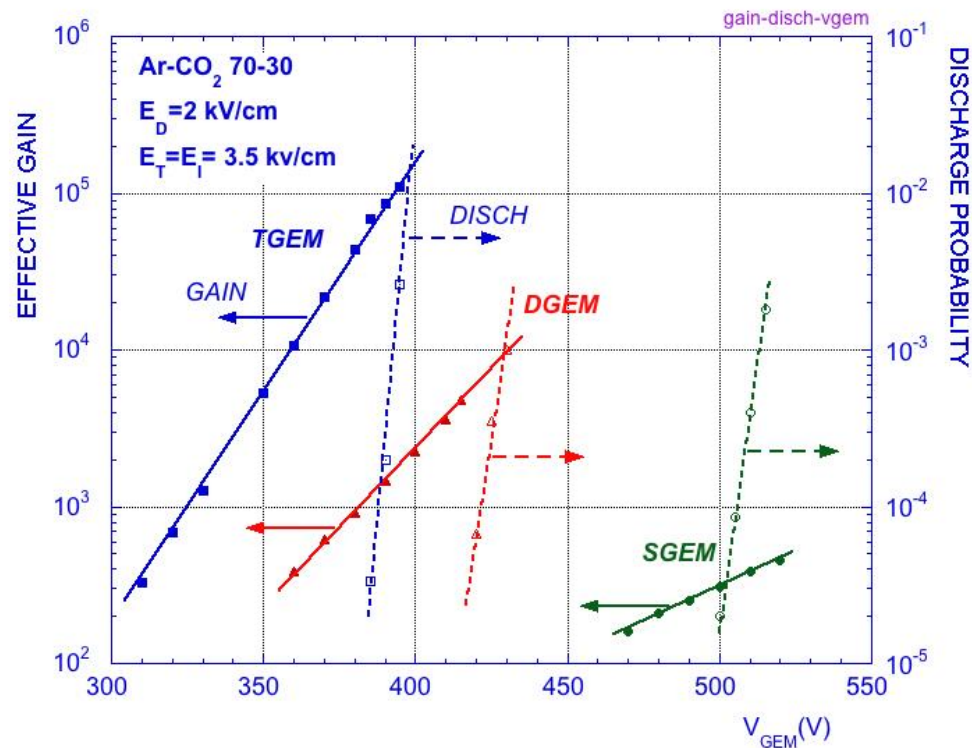
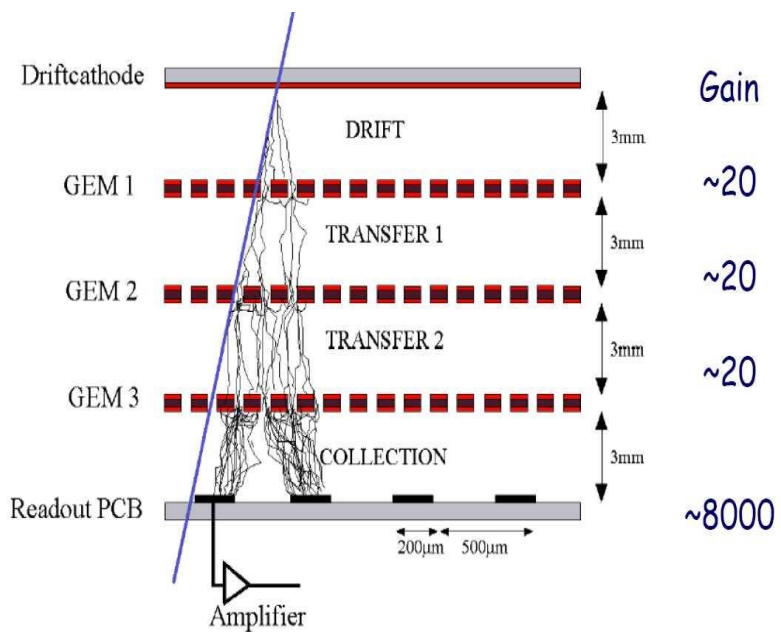
Thin metal-coated polymer foils
70 μm holes at 140 μm pitch

• GEM Detectors •

- Primary electrons are released by ionizing radiation in the gas (E-field between drift plane and GEM)
- By applying a suitable voltage difference between the two metal sides of the GEM, an electric field with an intensity as high as 100kV/cm is created inside the holes which act as multiplication channels
- Readout electrodes are at ground potential; electron charge is collected on strips or pads, ions are partially collected in the bottom of the GEM foil

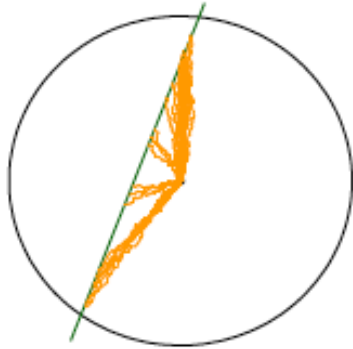


• Multi-GEM detectors •

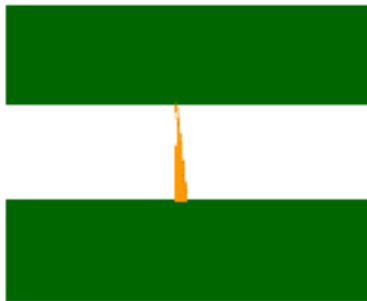


S. Bachmann et al Nucl. Instr. and Meth. A479(2002)294

• Time Resolution •



Cylindrical geometries have an important limitation:
Primary electrons have to drift close to the wire
before the charge multiplication starts
Limit in the time resolution $\sim 0.1\mu\text{s}$



In a parallel plate geometry the charge multiplication starts immediately because all the gas volume is active (uniform and very intense field). This results in much better time resolution ($\sim 1\text{ ns}$)

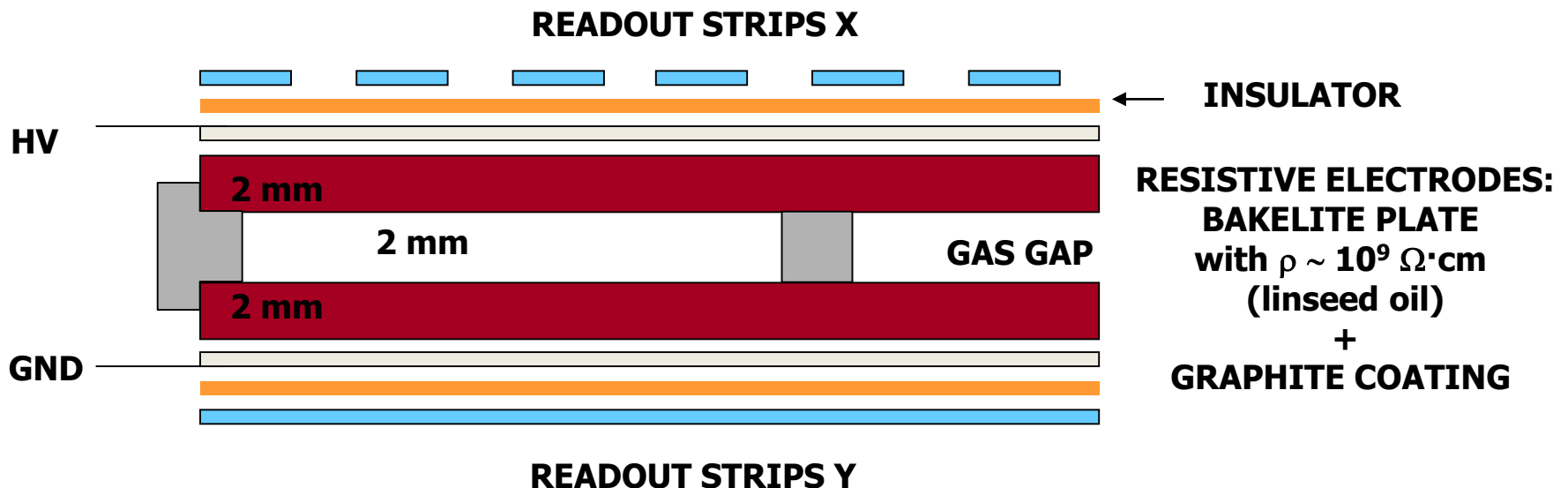
• RPC •

Developed in the 80s as an **affordable, robust, large area detector** with:

- Fast timing:** < 1 ns to ps for MRPC
- Space resolution: ~mm
- Rate capability: up to ~100 Hz/cm²

RPC developments for LHC

- Large Area Coverage (> 5000 m²) – Industrialization
- Increased Rate Capability (~kHz/cm²)
- Large Background Radiation

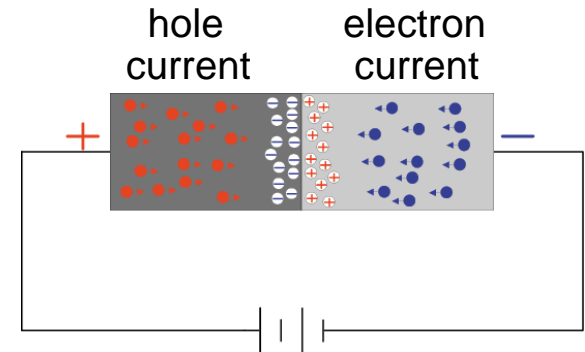


• Semiconductors •

- Used in nuclear physics for Energy measurements since the 50ies
- Appear in HEP in the 70ies
- In the 80ies, planar technique of producing silicon radiation sensors, permitting segmentation of one side of the junction and the use of signals recorded on the segments to determine particle positions
- Solid state ionization chamber, member of the large family of ionization detectors. A Si detector takes advantage of the special electronic structure of a semi-conductor

• Semiconductors •

Basic element of a solid state (silicon) detector is... a **diode**
p-type (more holes) and n-type (more electrons) doped silicon material is put together

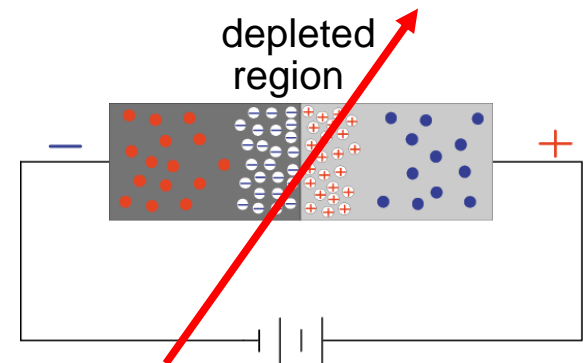


Current flow through diode if connects like this

For particle detectors: reverse bias the diode to create an active detection layer

Depletion layer: zone free of mobile charge carriers

- no free holes, no electrons so that we can observe the ionization charge
- thickness of depletion region depends on voltage, doping concentration



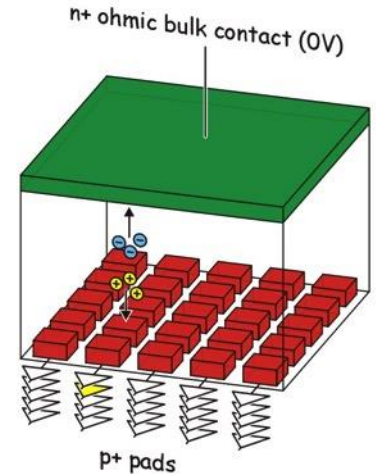
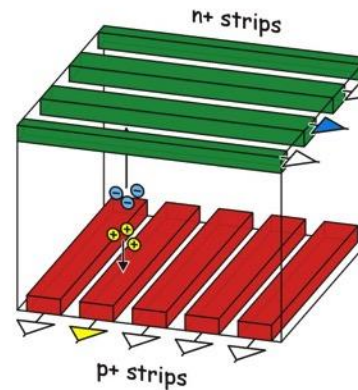
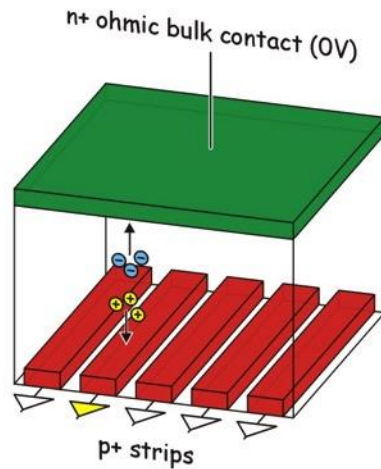
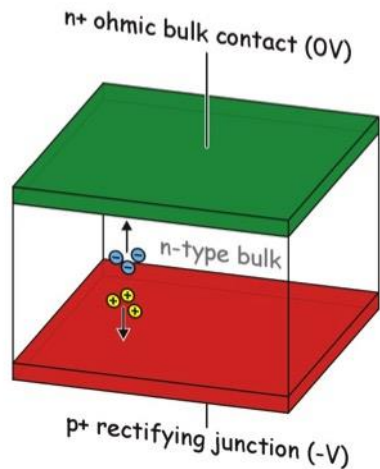
Charged particle can create new electron/hole pairs in depletion area sufficient to create a signal

Typically 20000 - 30'000 electron/hole pairs in Si 300 μm
Compare to intrinsic Si: $4.5 \cdot 10^8$ per detector/ cm^2

• Semiconductors •

- **Very attractive in HEP because of:**
 - Good intrinsic **energy resolution**
 - Silicon: 1 e-hole pair for every 3.6 eV released by a crossing particle. In Gas: 30 eV required to ionize a gas molecule
 - High primary ionization (larger signal), no amplification: typical detector thickness (300 μm) result in 3.2×10^4 e-/hole pairs
 - Si high density reduces the range of secondary e, thus **good spatial resolution**
 - 10 μm , the best $\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$
 - The **granularity** can also be very high
 - **Thin**, therefore can be positioned close to the interaction point
 - **Industrial process** (high yield, continuous development...)

• Strips VS Pixels •



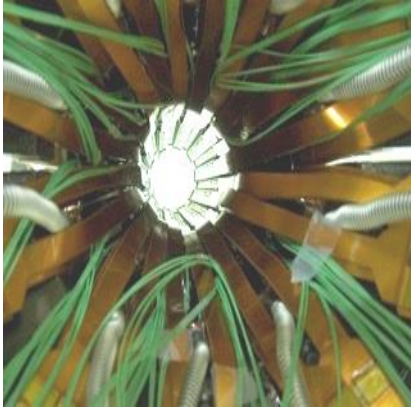
Strips

- Each strip is connected to one electronic readout channel
- First prototypes: ~ 1980
- Strip pitch: ~10-100 μm
- Position resolution: ~few μm due to charge sharing between neighbouring strips

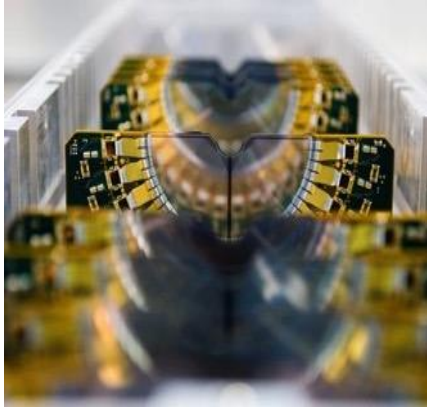
Pixels

- 2D resolution
- First prototypes ~1990
- Can be used for tracking or imaging:
 - particle tracking = detection of individual charged particles
 - imaging = count / integrate particles or photons

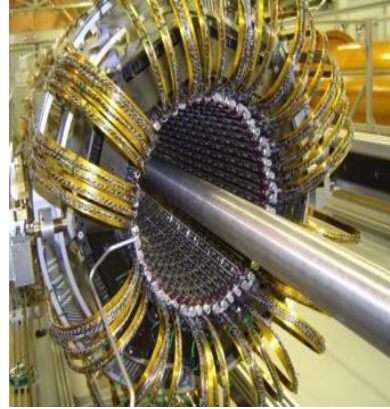
Silicon Detectors at LHC



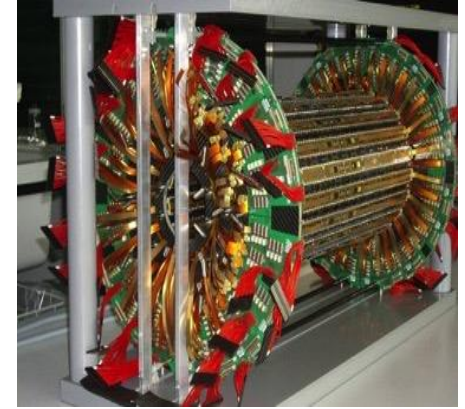
ALICE Pixel Detector



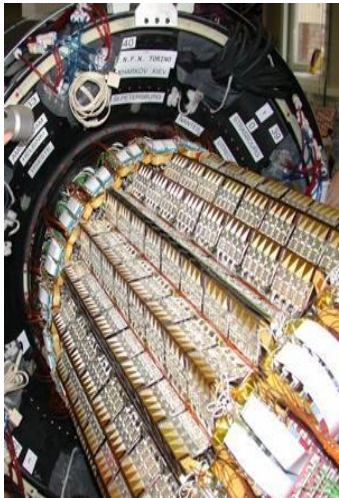
LHCb VELO



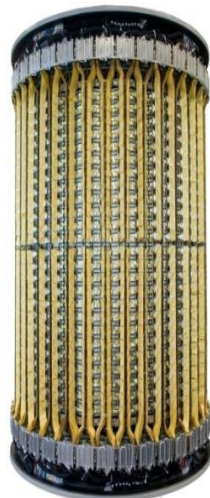
ATLAS Pixel Detector



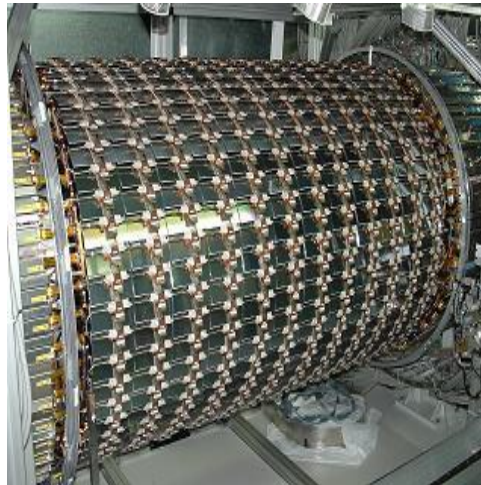
CMS Pixel Detector



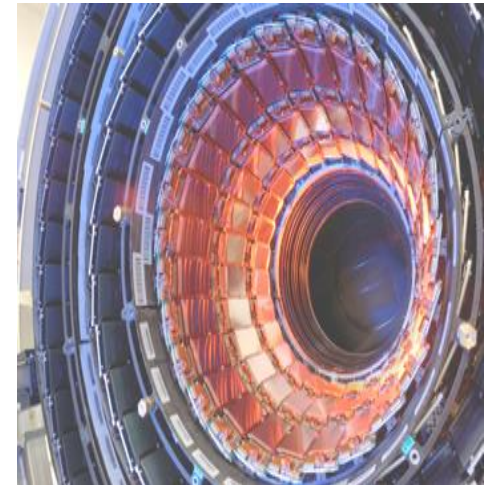
ALICE Drift Detector



ALICE Strip Detector



ATLAS SCT Barrel



CMS Strip Tracker IB

• Hybrid Pixels •

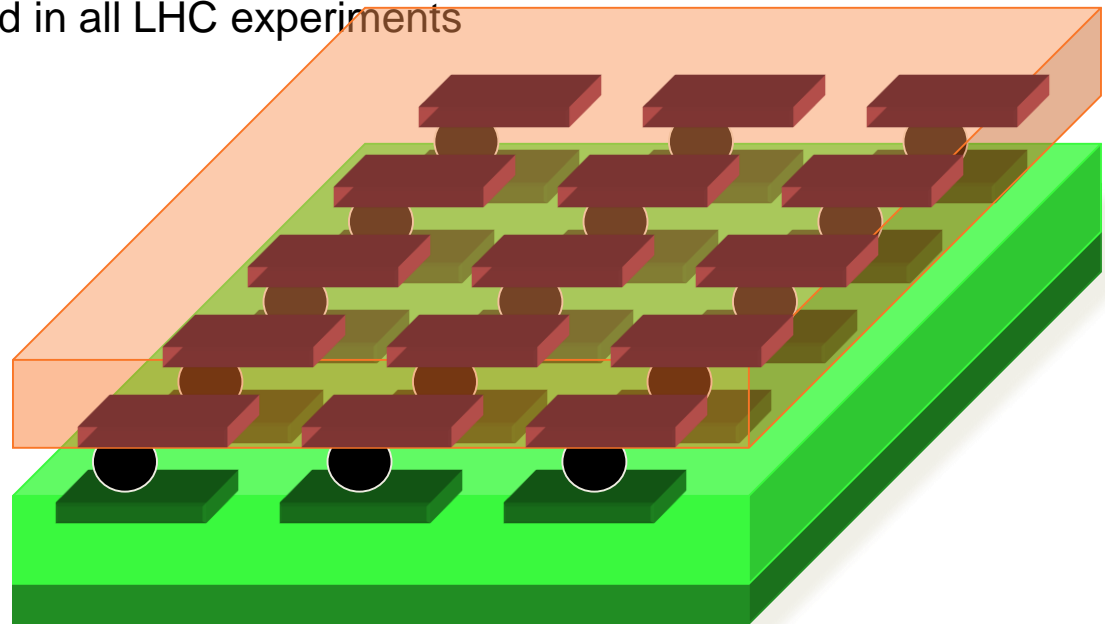
Development closely linked to progress in microelectronics and interconnection technologies (sensor & chip)

- Each pixel cell in the sensor is connected to a pixel cell in the readout chip via a bump bond
- Sensor and readout are optimized separately
- “Large” signal (sensor $\sim 200\text{-}300\mu\text{m} \times 80$ e-h pairs: 16000-24000 e-h)
- Thinning of readout wafers ($\sim 150\mu\text{m}$ at LHC)
- Mature technology employed in all LHC experiments

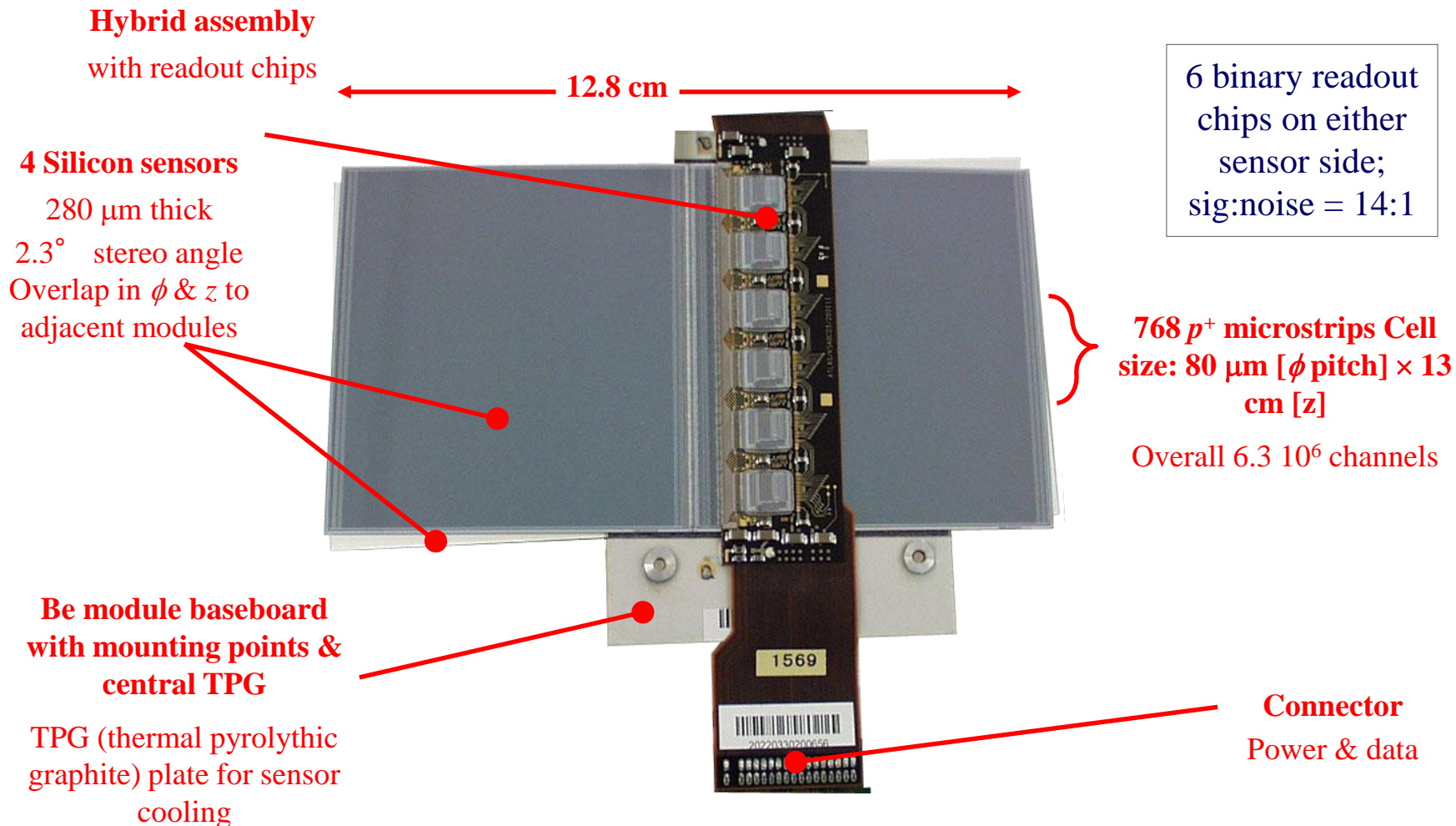
Readout Chip

Bump Bonds

Si Sensor



ATLAS, Barrel SCT module

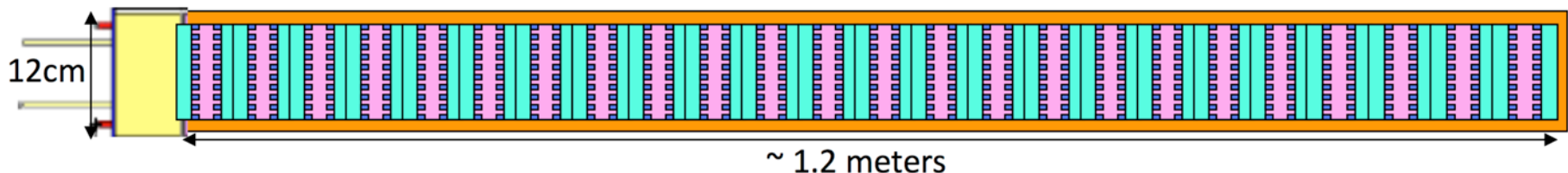
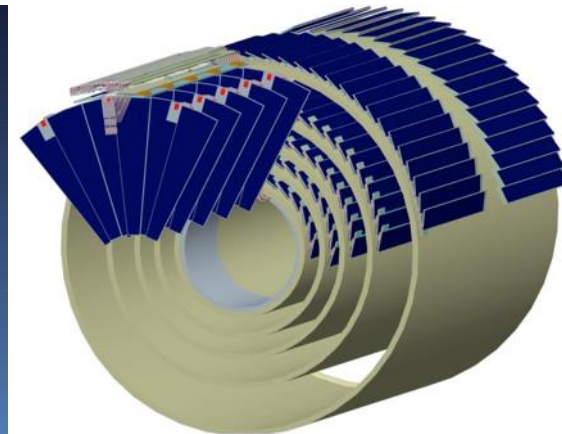
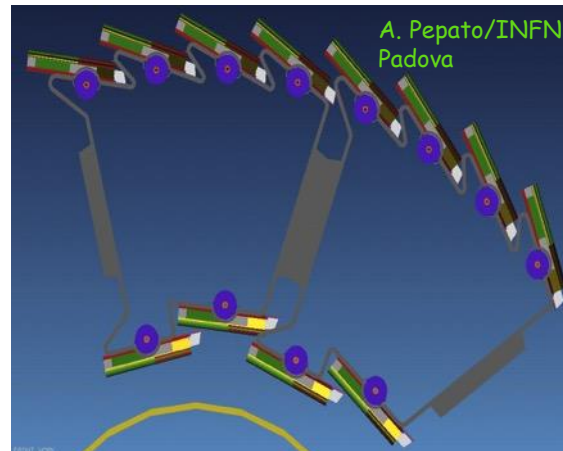
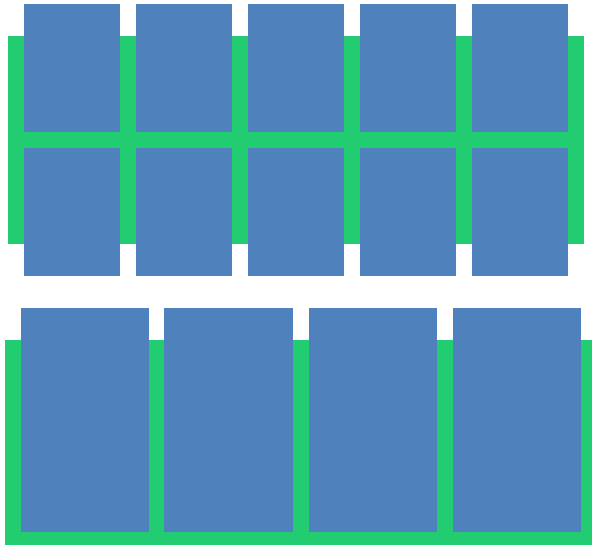


Fully equipped double sided electrical module with baseboard and readout hybrids

• Systems •

• How to efficiently cover large surfaces? Ladders (modules)

- sensor size limited by wafer size and bump bonding requirements (flatness!), LHC experiments today: $\sim 7\text{cm} \times 2\text{cm}$
- chip size limited by process rules (larger chip means lower yield in production)



• Systems •

What is a system?

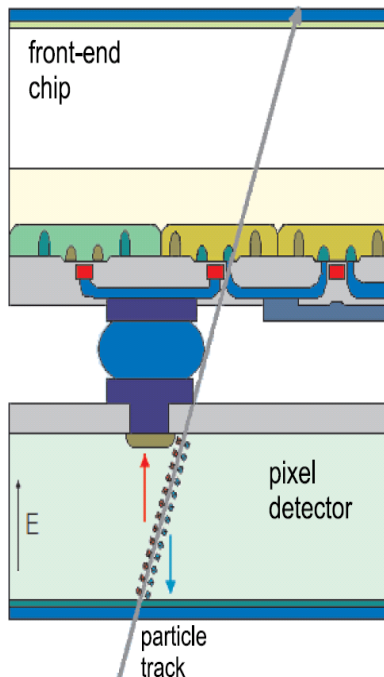
- Sensor
- Readout electronics
- Interconnection

- Mechanical supports
- Cooling, thermal aspects
- Power supplies
- Services: cables, pipes, fiber links...
- Monitoring, sensors, alignment

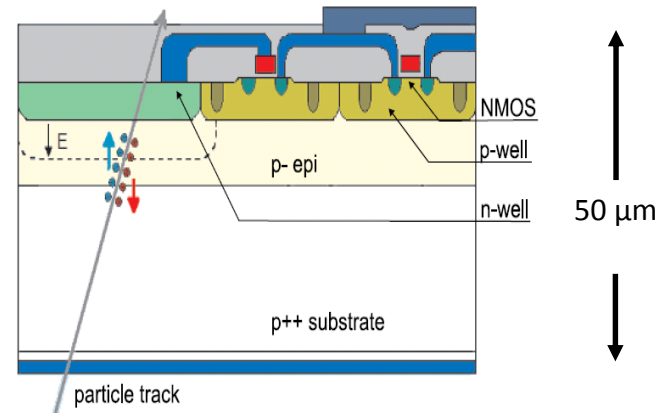


• Trends: Hybrid VS Monolithic •

Hybrid Pixel Detector



Monolithic Pixel Detector (example)



Goal: get low mass, highly granular silicon pixel detectors without interconnection to a sensor.

⇒ Integrate charge generation volume into the readout chip.

“Disadvantages”

Signal $\sim 80e\text{-h}/\mu\text{m}$: $<1000 e\text{-h}$

Less radiation tolerant compared to hybrid pixel

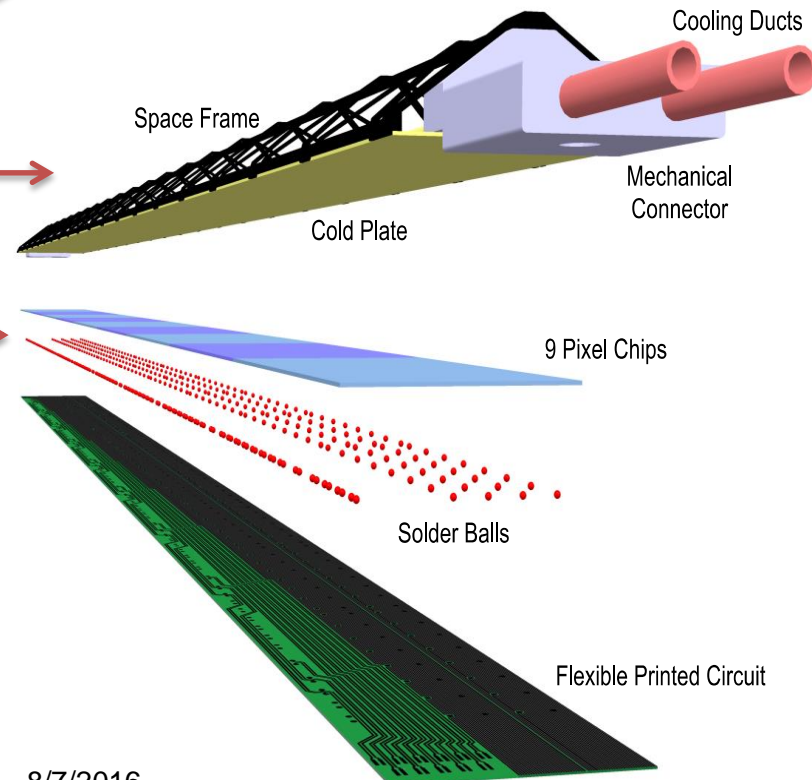
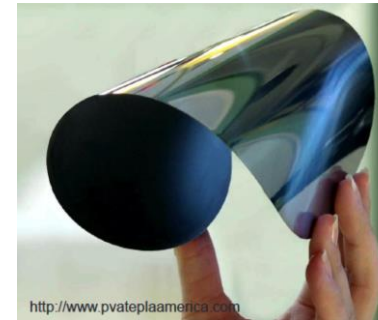
New technology

• Silicon detectors, Trends •

ALICE ITS Upgrade: Inner Layer Stave

Light weight, compact modules to minimize material budget:

- Monolithic sensors: integrated sensor and electronics
- Integrated mechanical support and cooling
- 50 μm silicon sensors connected via solder points (direct on chip laser soldering) to a 2-layer Al(Cu)-polyimide flex cable
- Power and signal connections to each chip

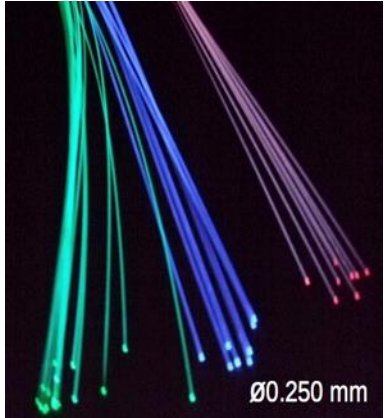


Scintillation Particle Detector

Scintillators are materials that produce sparks or scintillations of light when ionizing radiation passes through them. The charged particle excites atoms in the scintillator, e^- returns to ground state by emitting a photon

Detector Principle

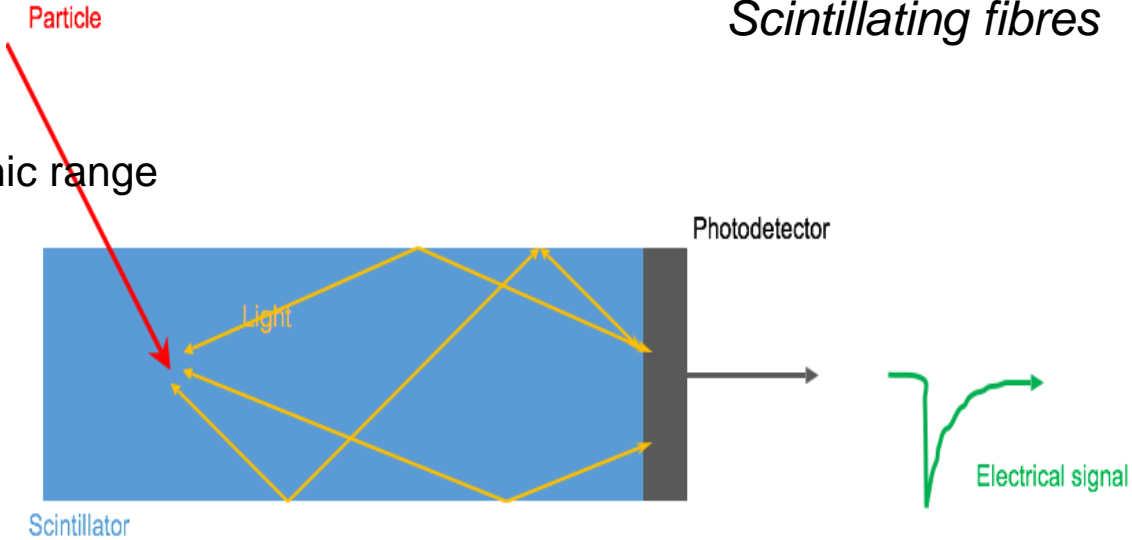
- dE/dx converted into visible light
- Detection via photosensor [e.g. photomultiplier, SiPM, human eye ...]



Scintillating fibres

Main Features

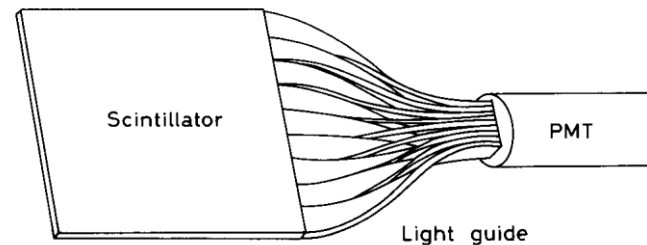
- Sensitivity to energy
- Good linearity over large dynamic range
- Fast time response
- Pulse shape discrimination



• Scintillators •

- Different types of scintillators
 - Inorganic crystalline scintillators (NaI, CsI, BaF₂...)
 - Nobel Gas (Ar)
 - Organic (Liquids or plastic scintillators)

- Many different geometries



*Large plates of scintillators
Coupled to single PMT*

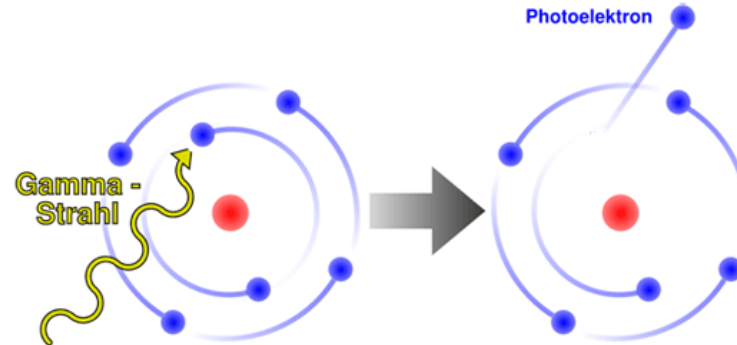
- The amount of light produced in the scintillator is very small. It must be amplified before it can be recorded as a pulse or in any other way.
- External wavelength shifters and light guides are used to aid light collection in complicated geometries; must be insensitive to ionising radiation and Cherenkov light

• Photo-detectors •

Slide: C.Joram, CERN

Purpose: Convert light into detectable electronic signal

Principle: Use photoelectric effect to 'convert' photons (γ) to photoelectrons (pe)

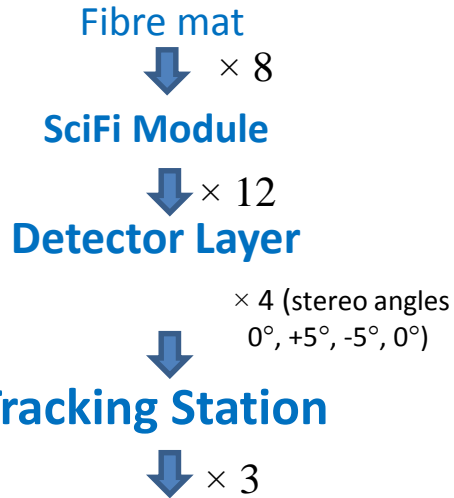


Details depend on the type of the photosensitive material. Many photosensitive materials are semiconductors, but photoeffect can also be observed from gases and liquids.

Photon detection involves often materials like K, Na, Rb, Cs (alkali metals) . They have the smallest electronegativity \rightarrow highest tendency to release electrons.

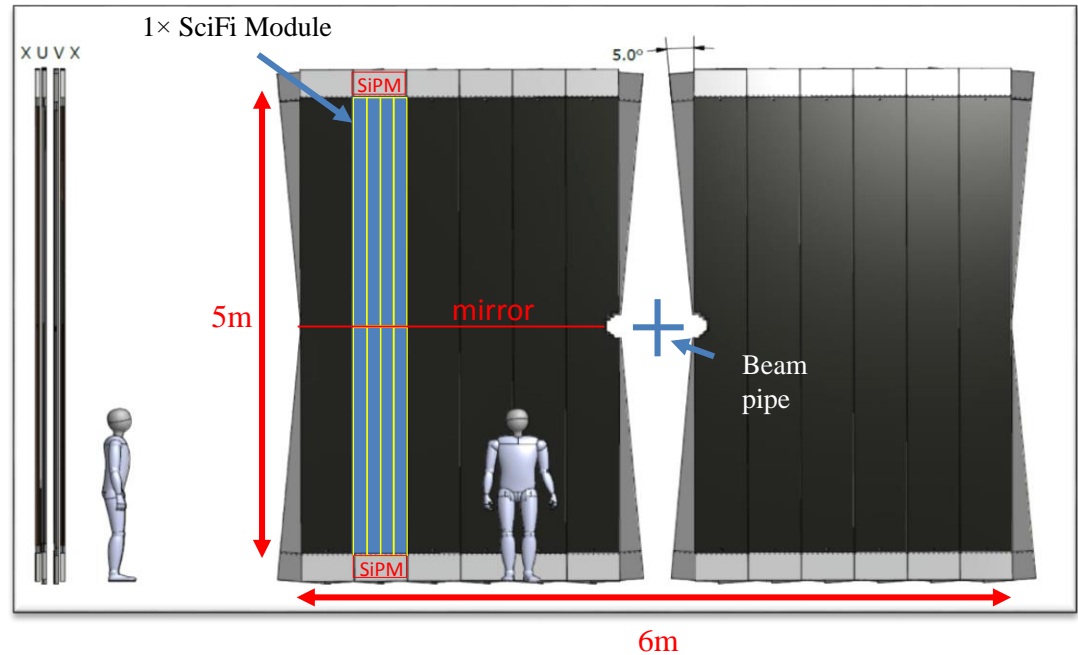
SciFi in numbers

Slide: C.Joram, CERN



Scintillating Fibre Tracker

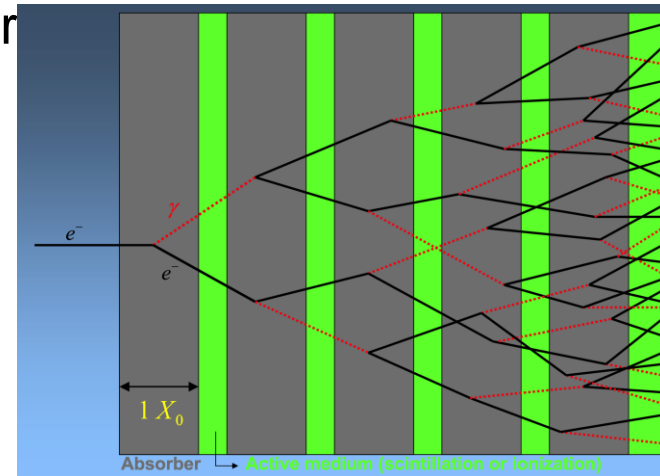
- 250 micron diam fibers
- 1152 mats, 144 modules
- **360 m²** total area
- almost **11,000 km** of fibre
- **~590'000** SiPM channels



• Calorimeters •

- Goal is to measure energy of incoming particle
 - **Detect E of neutral or charged particles.** Stop particles (absorb all the energy), except muon (heavy) & neutrinos (weak interaction).
 - The interaction of the incident particle with the detector (through electromagnetic or strong processes) produces a shower of secondary particles with progressively decreasing energy.

- Measure the integral of energy loss per depth
- Sample the energy loss at several points

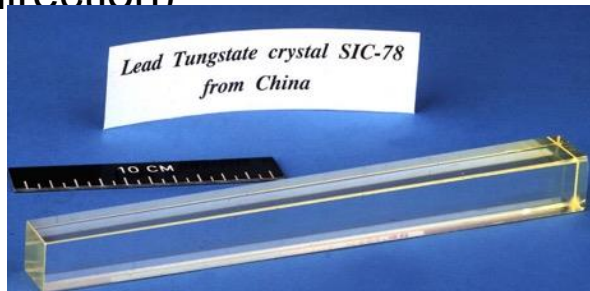


- Two types of calorimeters
 - Electromagnetic (photon and electron showers)
 - Hadron (pion, proton, neutron ...)

• Calorimeters •

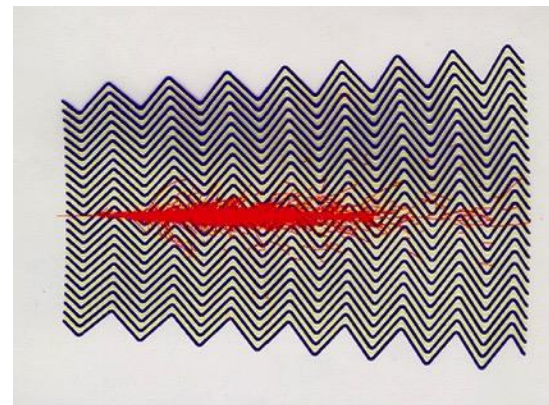
Homogeneous EM Calorimeter (CMS)

- Absorber = active detector
- Clear advantage: good energy resolution
 - the entire shower is kept in active detector material (no shower particle is lost in passive absorber)
- Disadvantages
 - limited granularity, no information on shower shape in longitudinal direction (along particle flight direction)



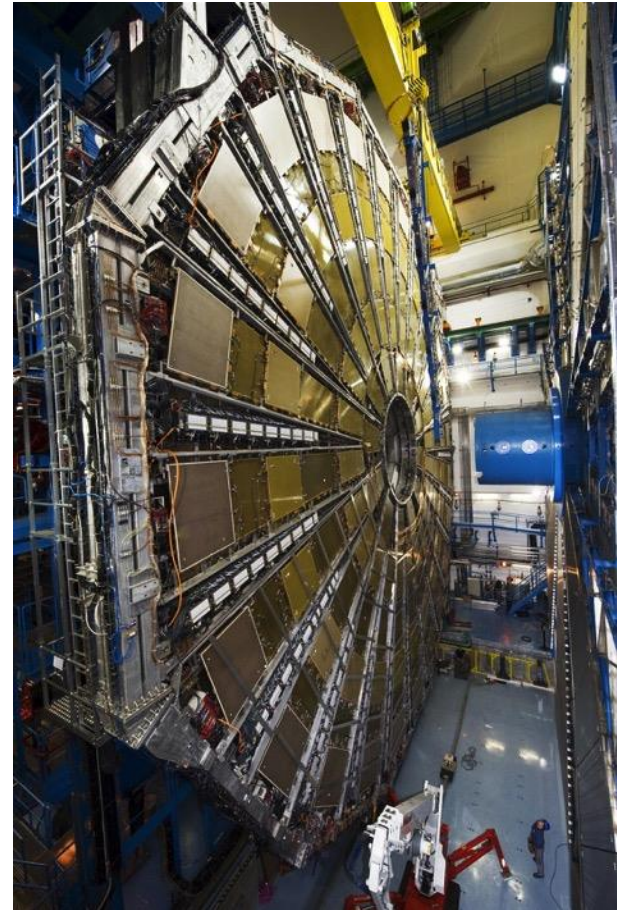
Sampling EM Calorimeter (ATLAS)

- Absorber interleaved with detector
- Typical sampling calorimeters use iron or lead absorber material, variety of detectors in between possible: gas detectors (MWPCs), plastic scintillators, **liquid noble gases** (LAr, LKr)
- ATLAS is using LAr with “accordion” shaped steel absorbers



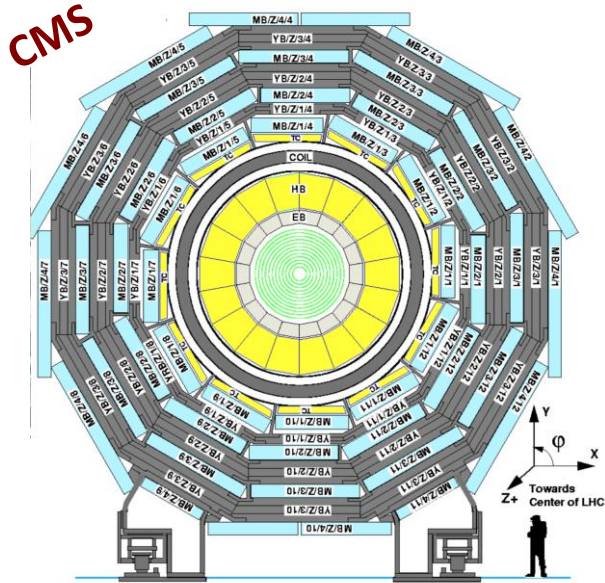
• Muon Systems •

- Function: **muon detection**; Muons are charged particles that are just like electrons and positrons, but 200 times heavier. Because muons can penetrate several metres of iron without interacting, unlike most particles they are not stopped by calorimeters. Therefore, chambers to detect muons are placed at the very edge of the experiment where they are the only particles likely to register a signal.
- Detection principle: Ionization detectors (gas), similar to precision trackers but usually of lower spatial resolution.
- They are fast detectors and are part of the Trigger system to select events



**ATLAS, 12 000 m², 1.1 Mchannels
Alignment precision $<\pm 30$ mm**

• Muon Spectrometer •



DRIFT TUBES (DT)

Central coverage
Tracking ($100 \mu\text{m}$) & trigger

Traditional Technology

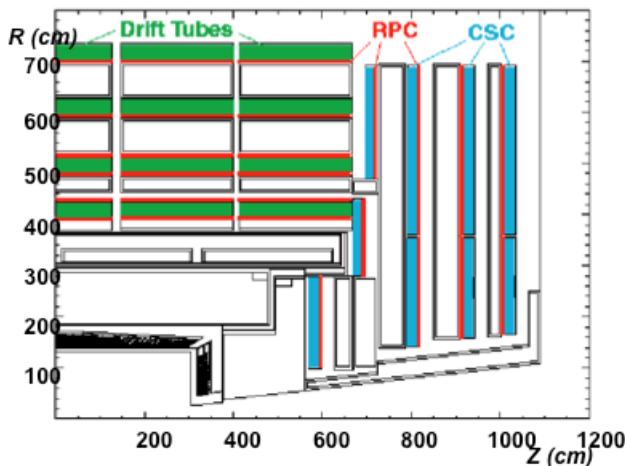
CATHODE STRIP CHAMBERS (CSC)

Forward coverage (6000 m^2)
Tracking (1 mm) & trigger
540 detectors, 0.5 MChannels

Designed to operate in intense magnetic field and neutron background $\sim 1 \text{ kHz/cm}^2$

RESISTIVE PLATE CHAMBERS (RPC)

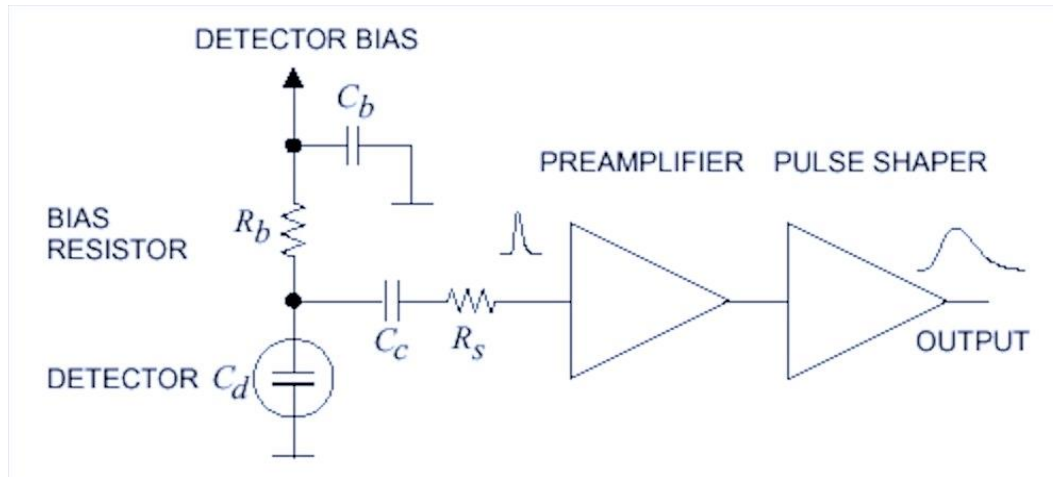
Central and forward coverage
Redundant Trigger (3 ns)
612 detectors





• Signals •

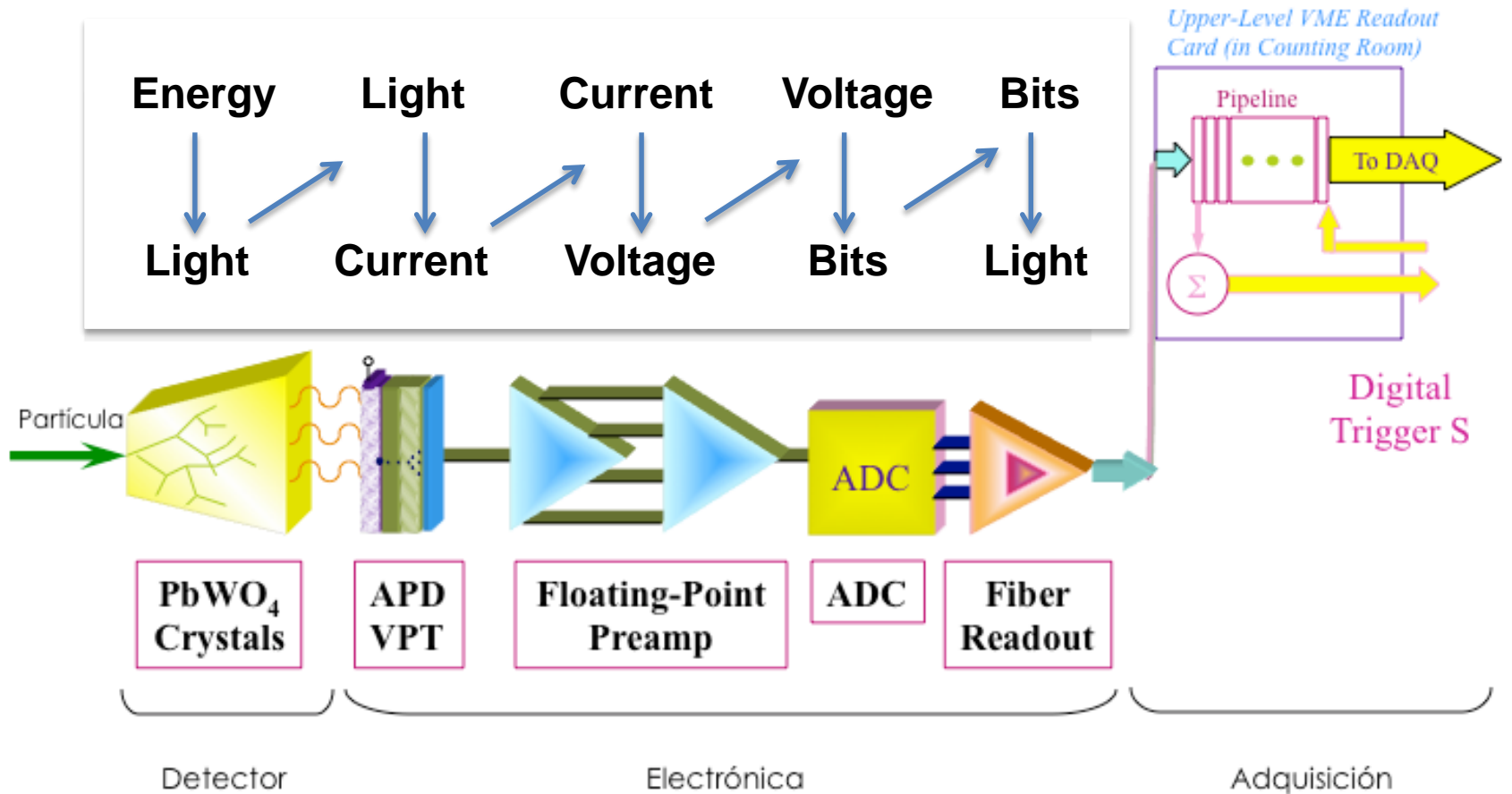
Most detectors rely critically on low noise electronics. A typical Front-End is shown below, where:



- Detector is represented by the capacitance C_d
- Bias voltage is applied through R_b
- Signal is coupled to the amplifier through a capacitance C_c
- R_s represents all the resistances in the input path

The preamplifier provides gain and feeds a shaper which takes care of the frequency response and limits the duration of the signal.

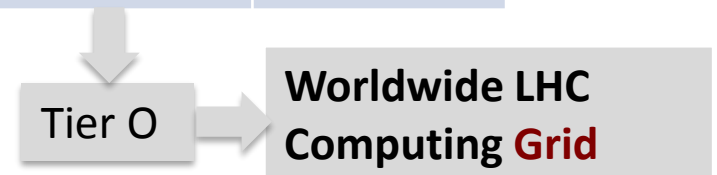
• Signals •



Data Acquisition, Storage, Distribution and Processing is as complex as the detector itself

- Large data production (~PB/sec) versus storage capability (~GB/sec) forces huge online selection
- 3 levels of triggers (first level fully electronics based)
- Data distribution for offline processing using GRID system

Trigger	Método	Entrada Sucesos/s	Salida Sucesos/s	Factor de reducción
Nivel 1	HW (\int , Calo)	40 000 10^3	100 10^3	400
Nivel 2	SW (RoI, ID)	100 10^3	3 10^3	30
Nivel 3	SW	3 10^3	0.2 10^3	15



• HEP Detectors •

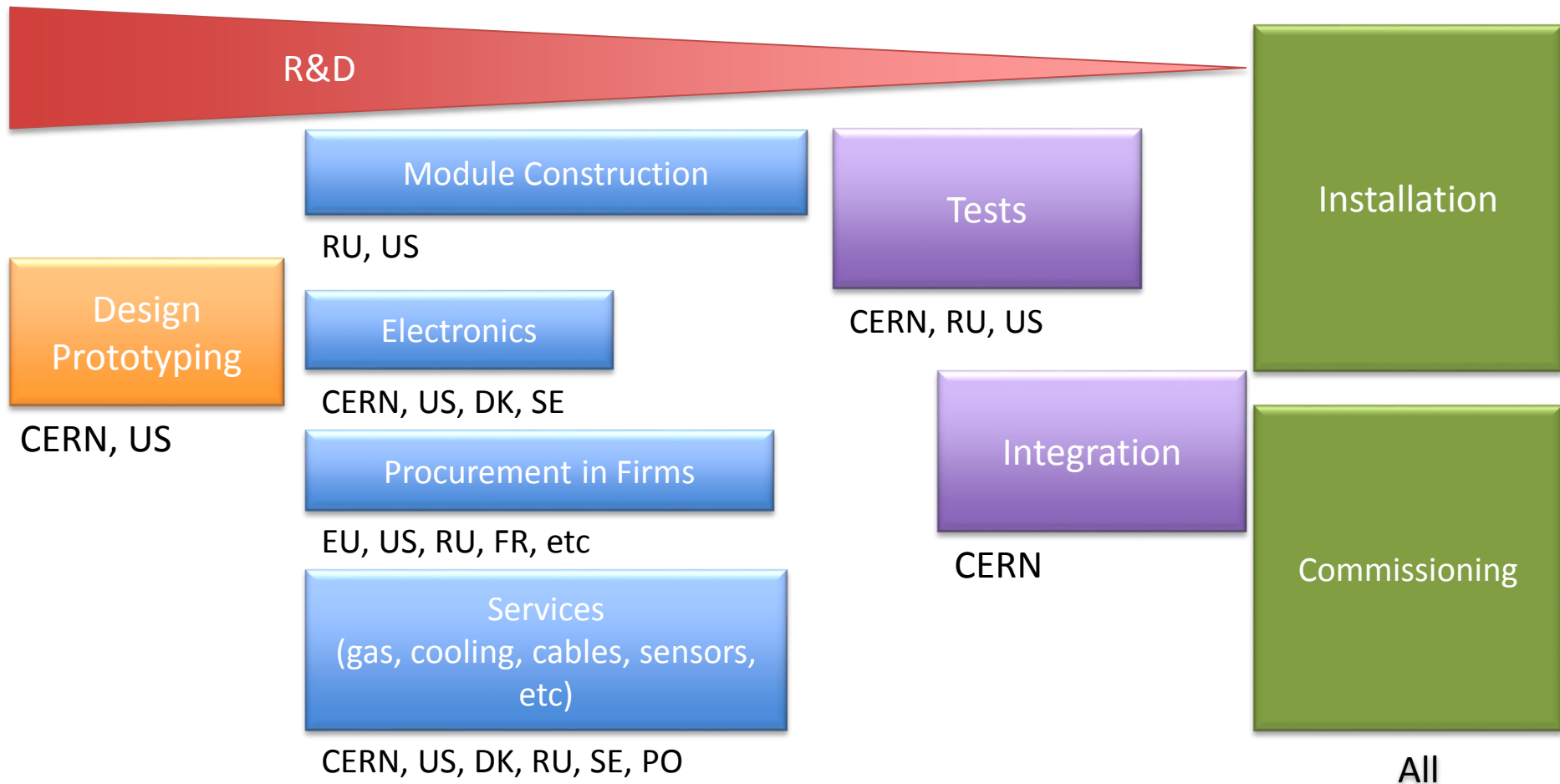
Last generation of HEP detectors are incredibly complex and state of the art pieces of technology

- Large use of (semiconductors/gas) radiation hard technology for trackers
- Calorimeters precise as never before
- Cryogenics for detectors and magnet systems
- Detector systems have increased in size and complexity at least a factor 10
- The data flow and data processing is unprecedented
- Projects span over a lifetime of 2-4 decades involving thousands of scientists

Experiment	Countries	Institutions	Scientists
ALICE	36	131	~1200
ATLAS	38	177	~ 3000
CMS	42	182	~ 3000
LHCb	16	65	~ 700

• Distributed/Collaborative Projects •

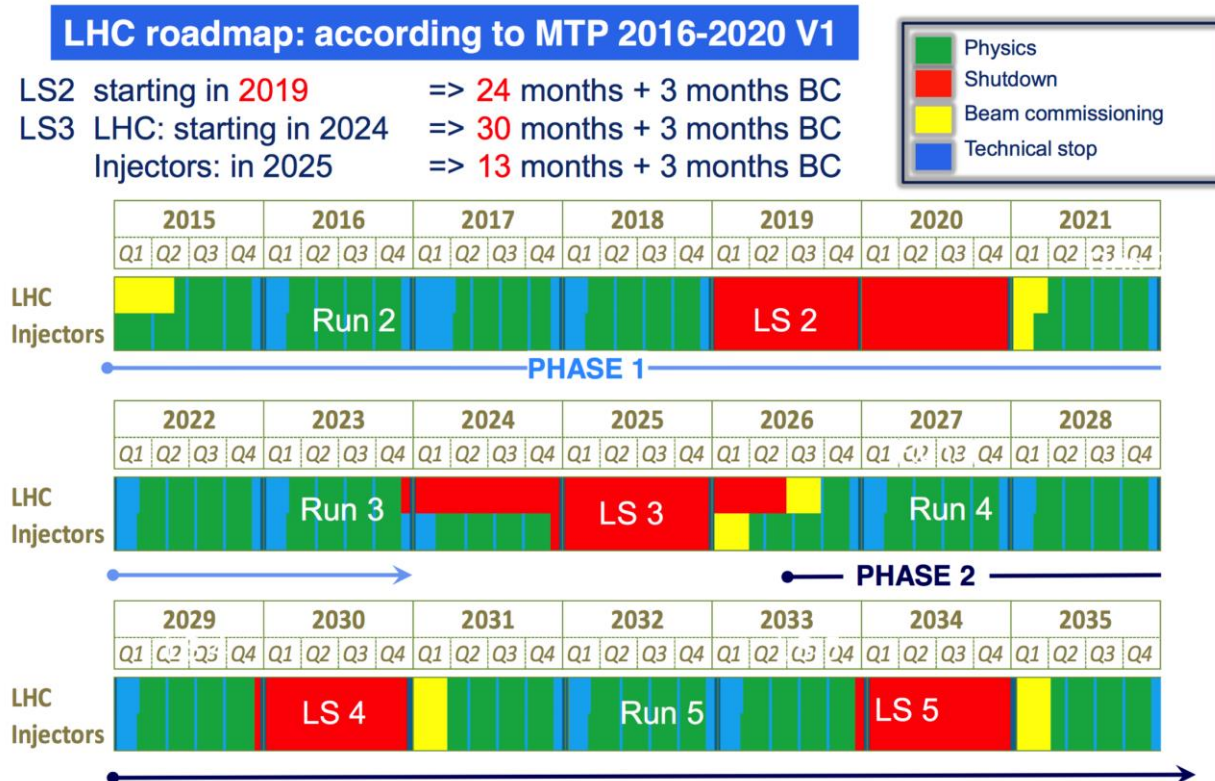
Example, the ATLAS Transition Radiation Tracker *(non-exhaustive list!)*



• Future •

CERN's priority is the exploitation of the LHC to its maximum potential... 2035

- Run1: 2008 – 2013 7-8 TeV ~ 2000 Higgs
- Run2: 2015 – 2018 13-14 TeV
- Run3: 2021 – 2023 > Luminosity



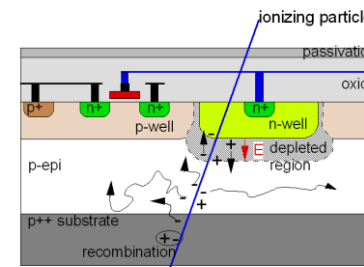
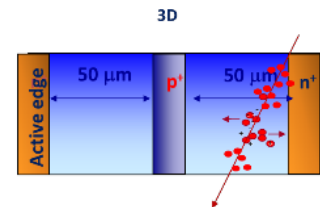
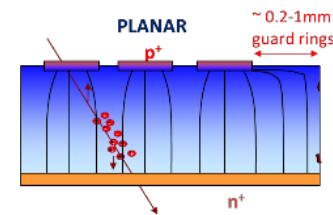
• Further Detector Upgrades •

The discovery of the Higgs boson is the start of a major programme of work to measure this particle's properties with the highest possible precision for testing the validity of the Standard Model and to search for further new physics at the energy frontier

- **Must replace inoperable detector elements (rad damage)**
- **Must upgrade electronics to cope with increased rates**

Trackers R&D Efforts

- Improved radhard
- Optimization of sensor thickness (reduced leak current) and geometry (better overlap, less material)
- 3D sensors
- Combine sensor and electronics in one chip (MAPS on CMOS)
- On detector thermal management (CO₂)
- Scintillating Fiber Tracker (LHCb)



• Detector Upgrades •

- **Calorimeters R&D Efforts**, towards rad tolerant systems
 - Rad-tolerant crystal scintillators (LYSO, YSO, Cerium Fluoride), WLS fibres in quartz capillaries, rad-tolerant photo-detectors (e.g. GaInP), change layout of tile calorimeter using WLS fibres within scintillator to shorten the light path length, High granularity Particle flow / Imaging Gas Calorimetry (CALICE)...
 - *Electronics upgrades*: On-detector front-end electronics with sufficient resolution and large dynamic range
- **Muon systems R&D Efforts**
 - Improved rate capability and timing, using novel detector technologies (e.g. MPGD)
- **Electronics**
 - Development of new front-end chips to cope with increased channel densities, develop high density interconnects, optimize power distribution, develop High speed links (≥ 10 Gbps)
- **Trigger/DAQ/Offline computing**
 - New trigger strategies, processing, networks, storage, CPU, CLOUD-computing...

• Detector Trends •

Sensors & FE

- Increased position resolution ($\sim\mu\text{m}$ level)
- Increased timing accuracy ($\sim\text{ns}$)
- Low mass
- Increased radiation hardness
- Integration sensors&electronics

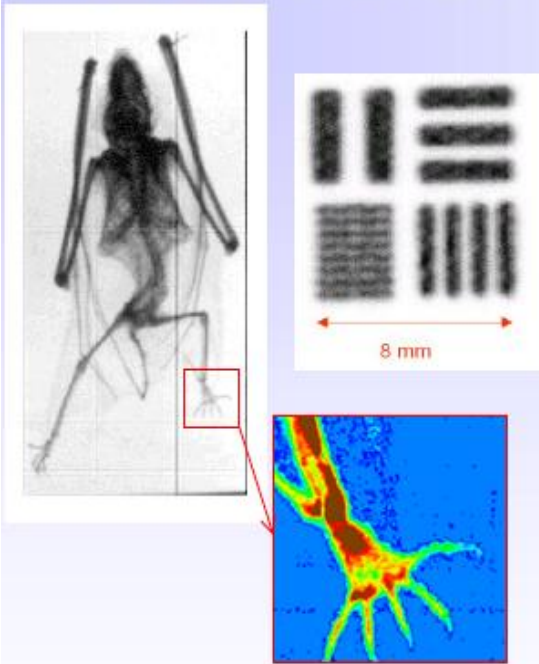
Engineering

- Interconnect technologies
- Powering, Cooling
- Services, Light-weight supports
- New materials
- Alignment, Stability...

Development of **integrated designs**, carried out in close collaboration with physicists, microelectronics experts, mechanical/thermal engineers, material/micro/nano technology scientists...

• Other Fields of Application •

Radiography with GEM (X-rays)



Fast and Thermo Neutron Detection

Non-destructive diagnostic, Biology, Nuclear plants, ...

Xray Low Energy

Radioactive waste...

Pixelated GEMs

Microdosimetry, Direct measurements with real tissue, Radon monitors....

Gamma High Fluxes

Radiotherapy...

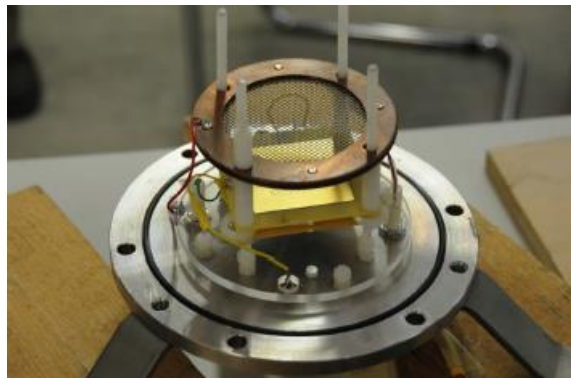
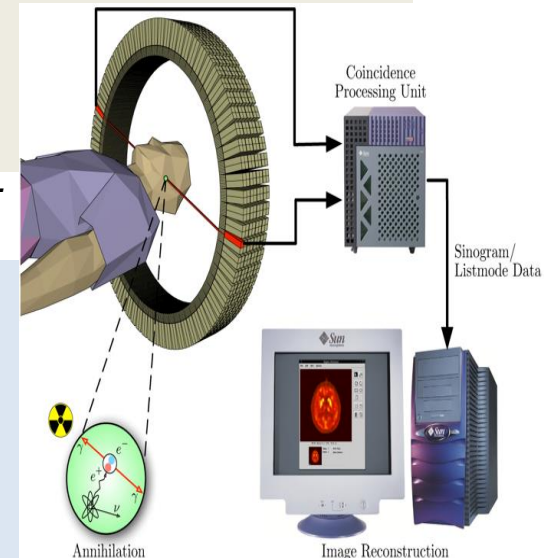
High Intensity Beam Monitors

Hadrontherapy, Ions beam monitoring...

Highly sensitive GEM-based UV
flame and smoke detector

*RETGEM-based detectors are able to
reliably detect a 1.5 m³ fire at a ~1 km
distance*

Ref. <http://arxiv.org/pdf/0909.2480.pdf>



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

There is a very close relationship between physics discoveries and developments in instrumentation: Accelerators, Detectors, Electronics and Computing

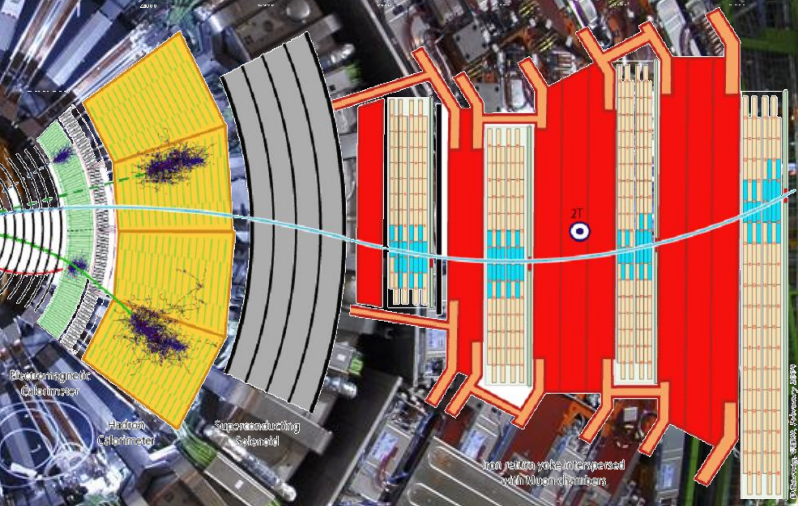
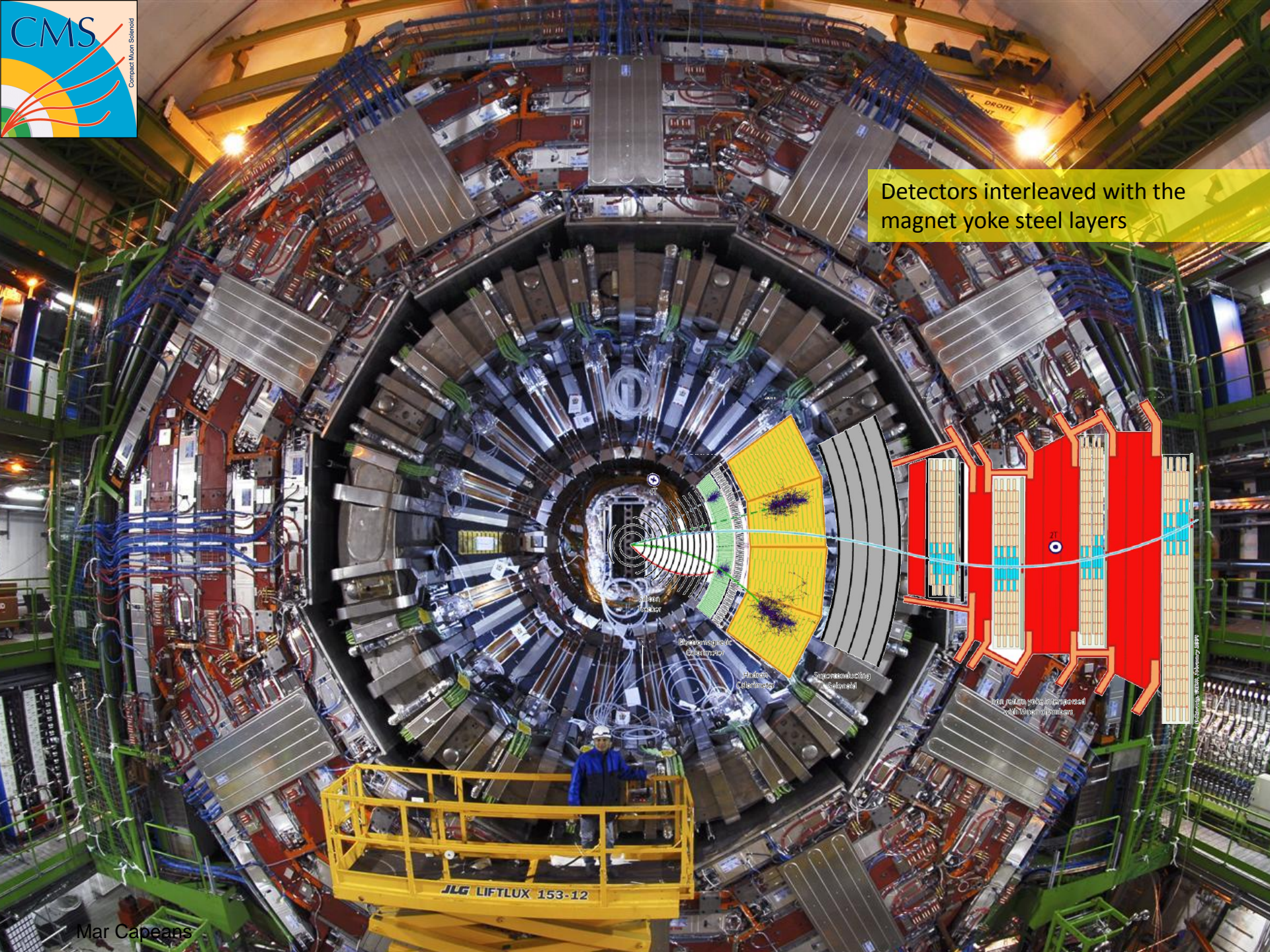
Thanks for your attention!

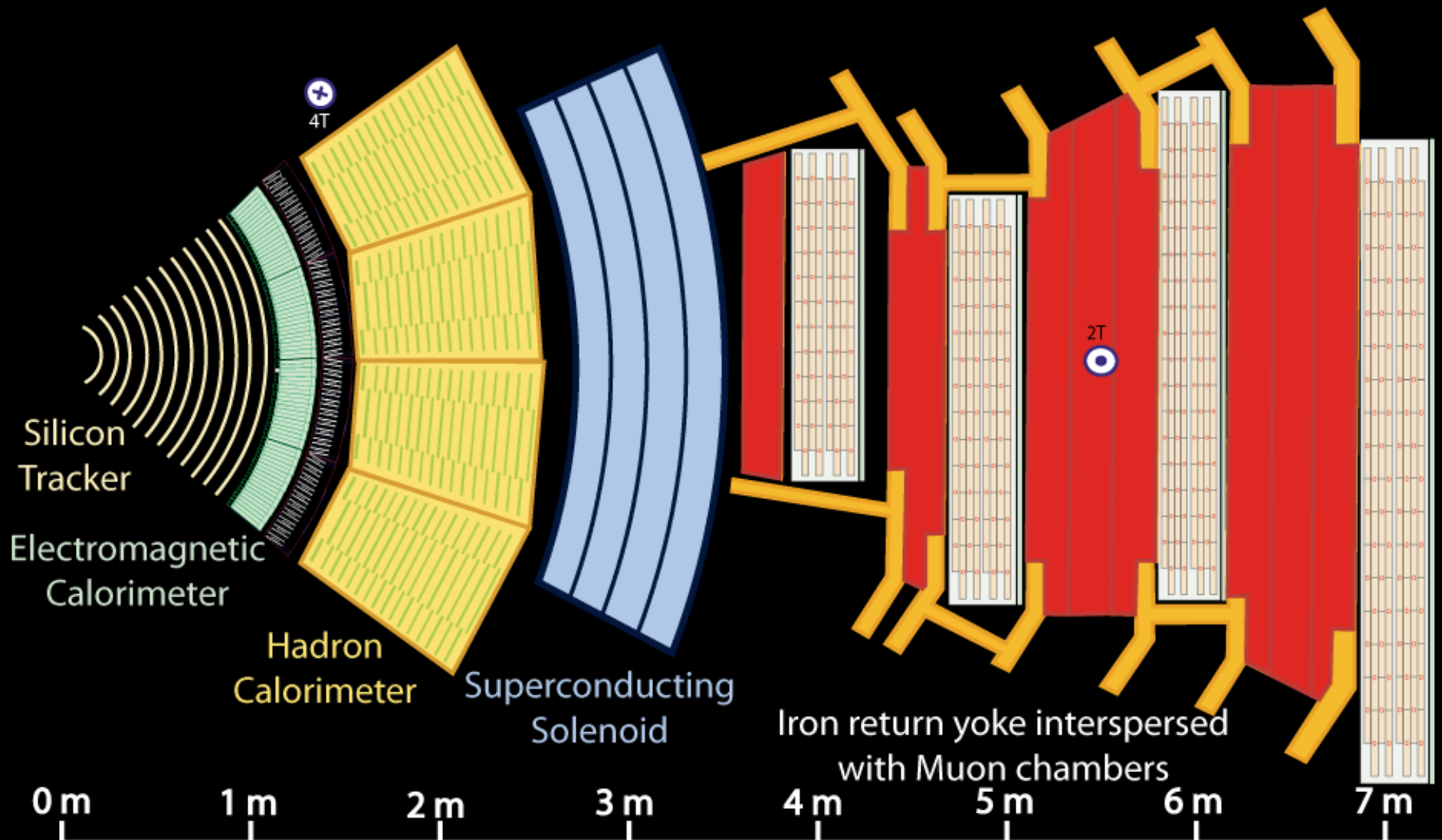


- *The Particle Detector BriefBook* <http://www.cern.ch/Physics/ParticleDetector/BriefBook/>
- CERN summer student lectures by W.Riegler:
<http://indico.cern.ch/conferenceDisplay.py?confId=134370>
- ICFA Schools on Instrumentation
 - The last one:
<http://fisindico.uniandes.edu.co/indico/conferenceTimeTable.py?confId=61#20131125>
- **BOOKS:**
- K. Kleinknecht - Detectors for Particle Radiation, C.U.P. 1990
- R.K. Bock & A. Vasilescu - The Particle Detector BriefBook, Springer 1998
- R. Fernow - Introduction to Experimental Particle Physics, C.U.P. 1986
- **W.R. Leo - Techniques for Nuclear and Particle Physics Experiments, Springer-Verlag 1987**
- G.F. Knoll - Radiation Detection and Measurement, Wiley 1989
- **CERN Notes:**
- Fabjan & Fischer - Particle Detectors CERN-EP 80-27, Rep. Prog. Phys. **43** (1980) 1003
- F. Sauli - Principles of Operation of Multiwire Proportional and Drift Chambers, CERN 77-

Spare Slides

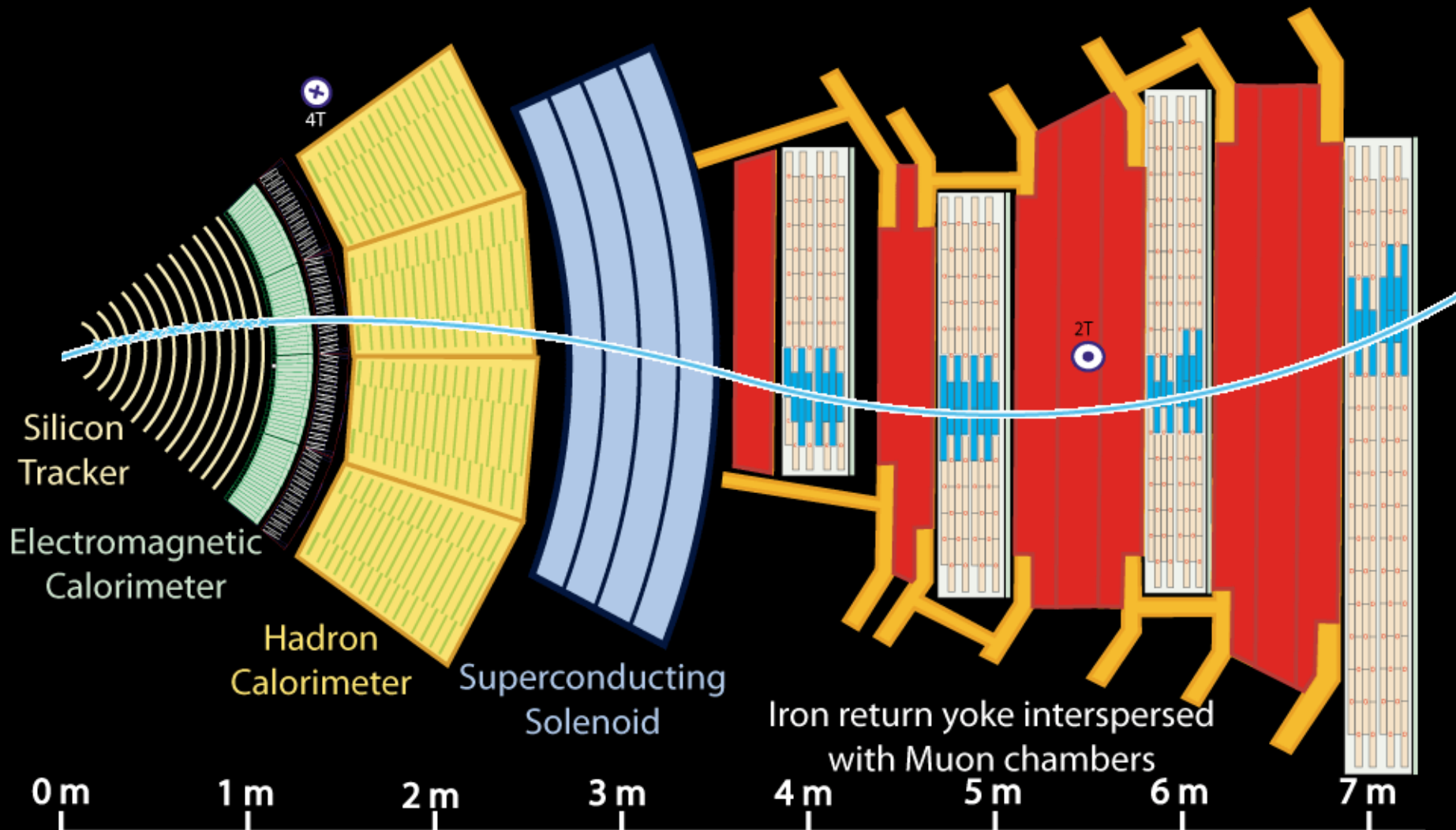
Detectors interleaved with the magnet yoke steel layers





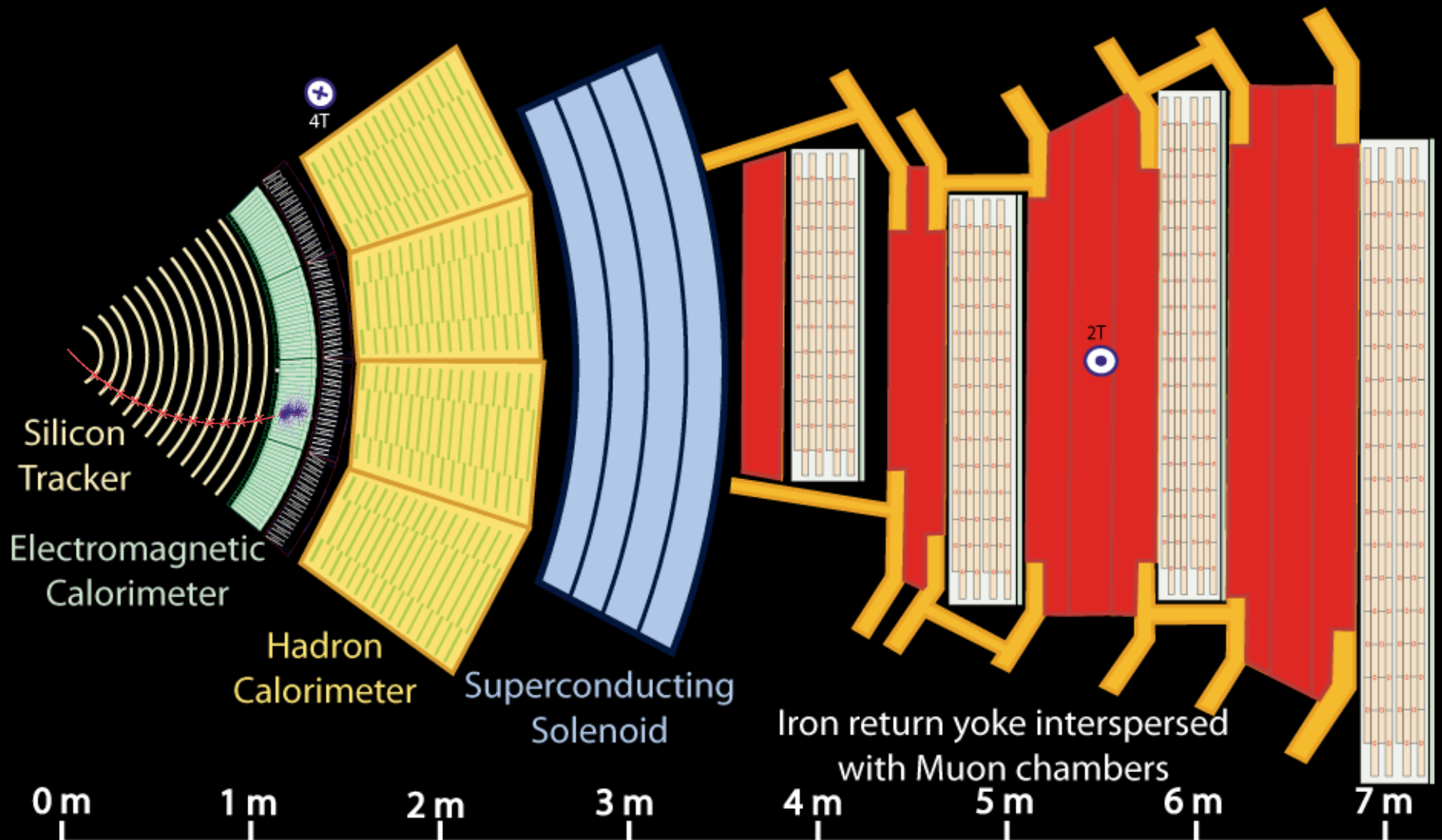
Key:

- Muon
- Electron
- Charged Hadron (e.g. Pion)
- - - Neutral Hadron (e.g. Neutron)
- - - Photon



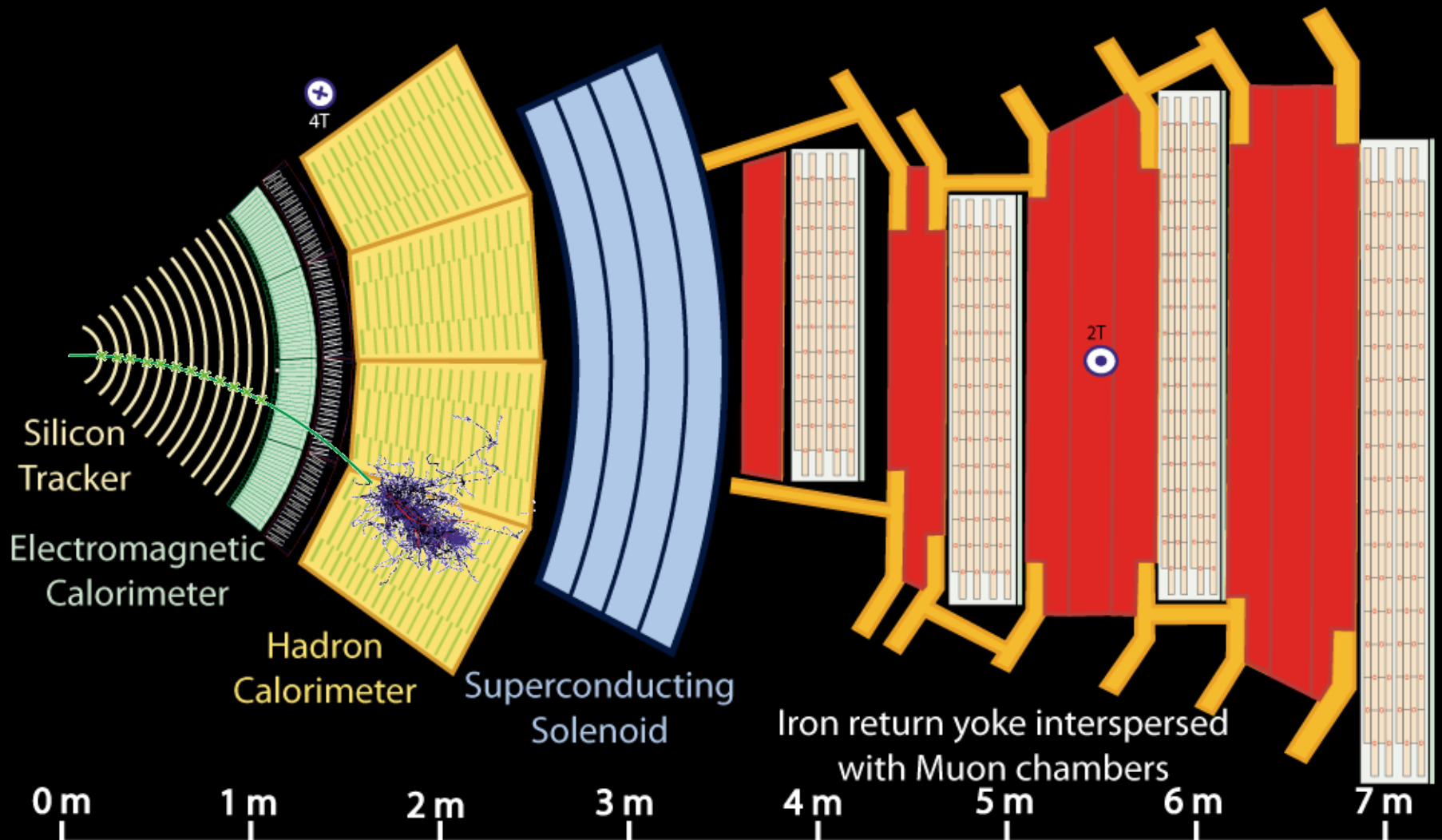
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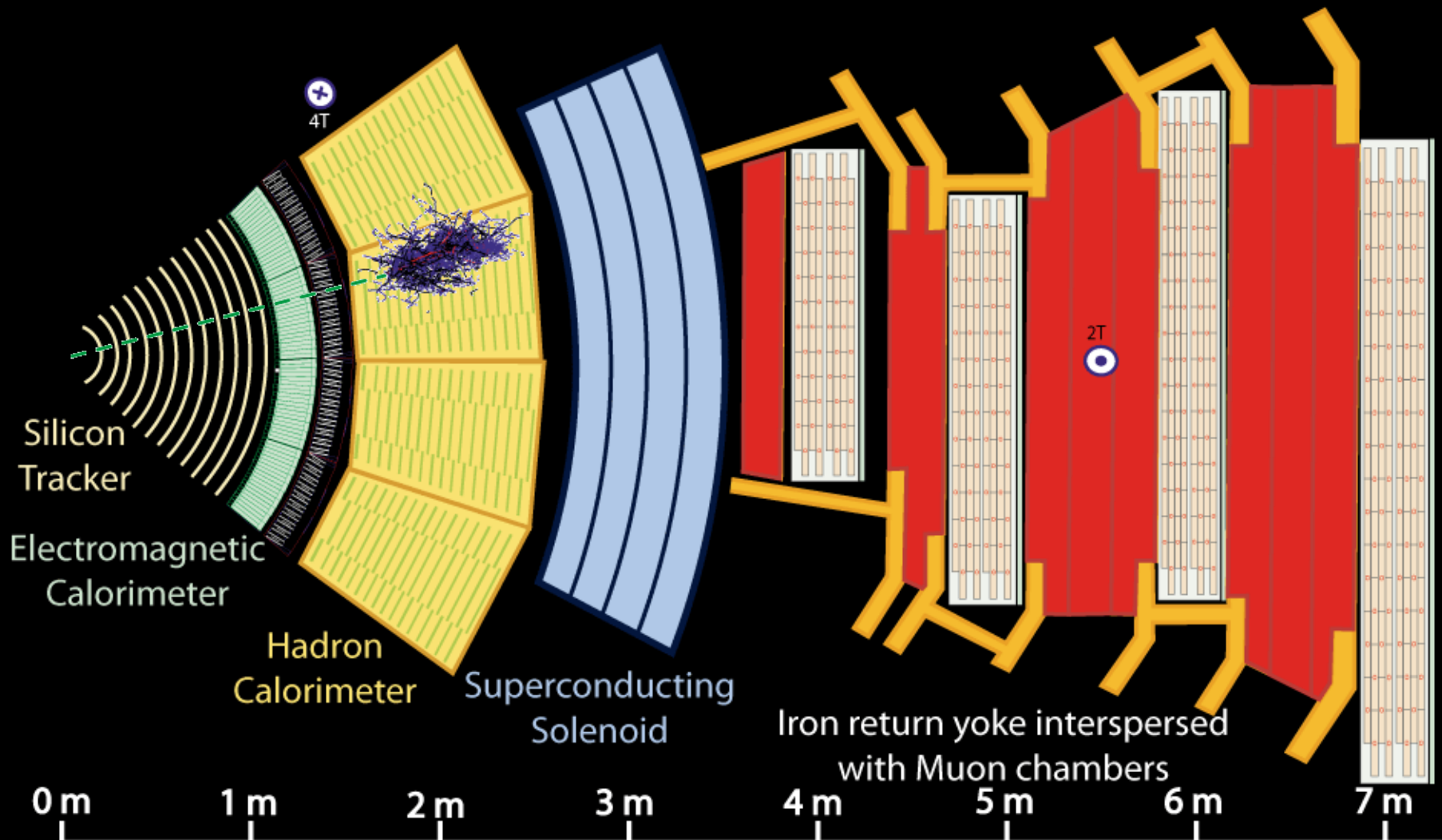
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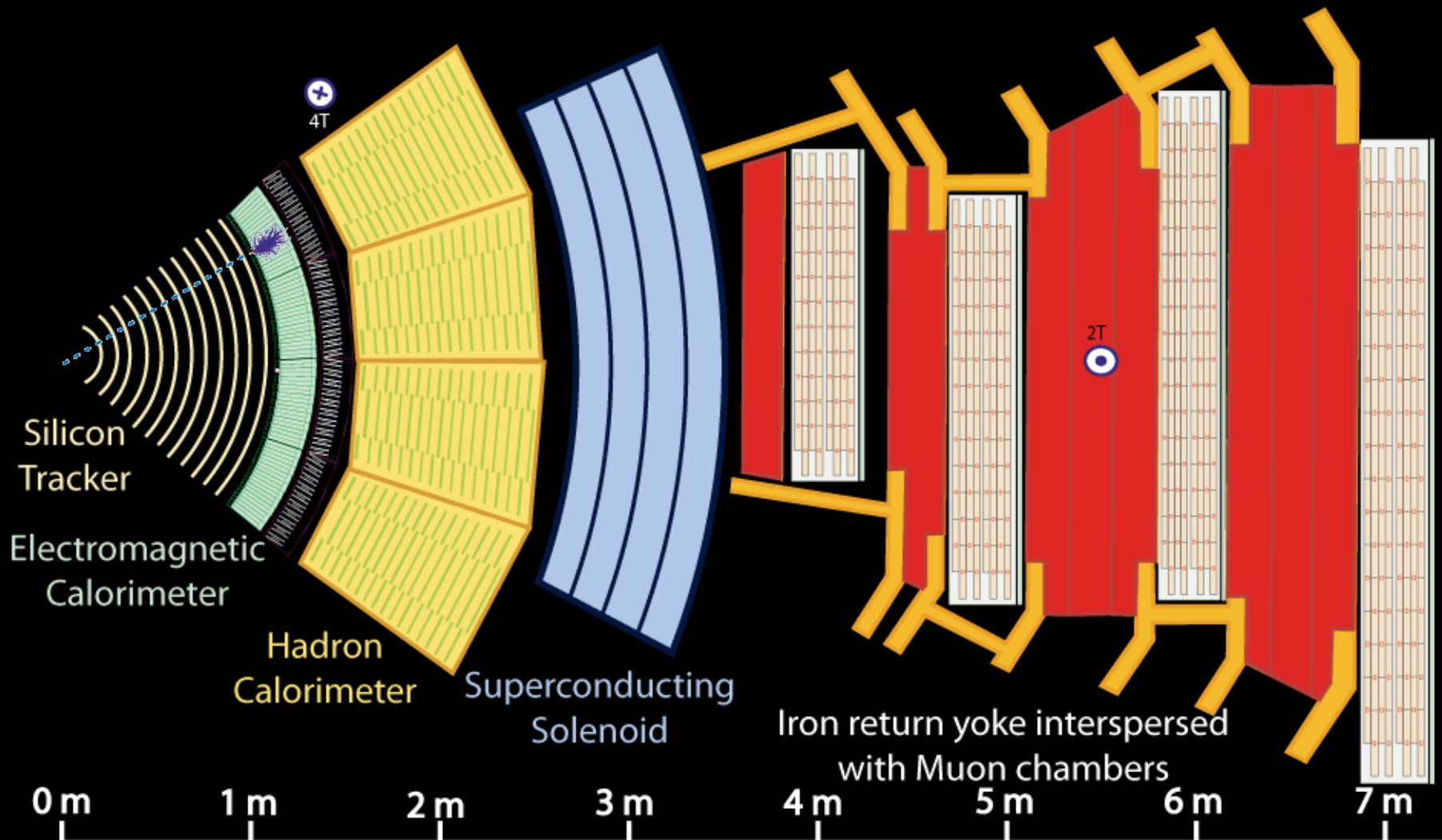
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