

INSTRUMENTATION AND DETECTORS

Part 1



A E P S H E P ²₀²₂

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DISCLAIMER

- Particle Detectors are very complex, a lot of physics is behind the detection of particles:
 - particle physics
 - material science
 - electronics
 - mechanics,
- To get a good understanding, one needs to work on a detector project ...
- This lecture can only give a glimpse at particle detector physics, cannot cover everything
- Biased by my favourite detectors !



Pic: DC Comics

Maybe not the ideal detector physicist

OVERVIEW

I. Detectors for Particle Physics

II. Interaction with Matter

III. Tracking Detectors

- Gas detectors
- Semiconductor trackers
- Muon Detectors

IV. Calorimeters

V. Examples of what can go wrong



Sunday



Monday



Wednesday

I. OVERVIEW: DETECTORS FOR PARTICLE PHYSICS

DISCOVERY OF NEUTRAL CURRENTS

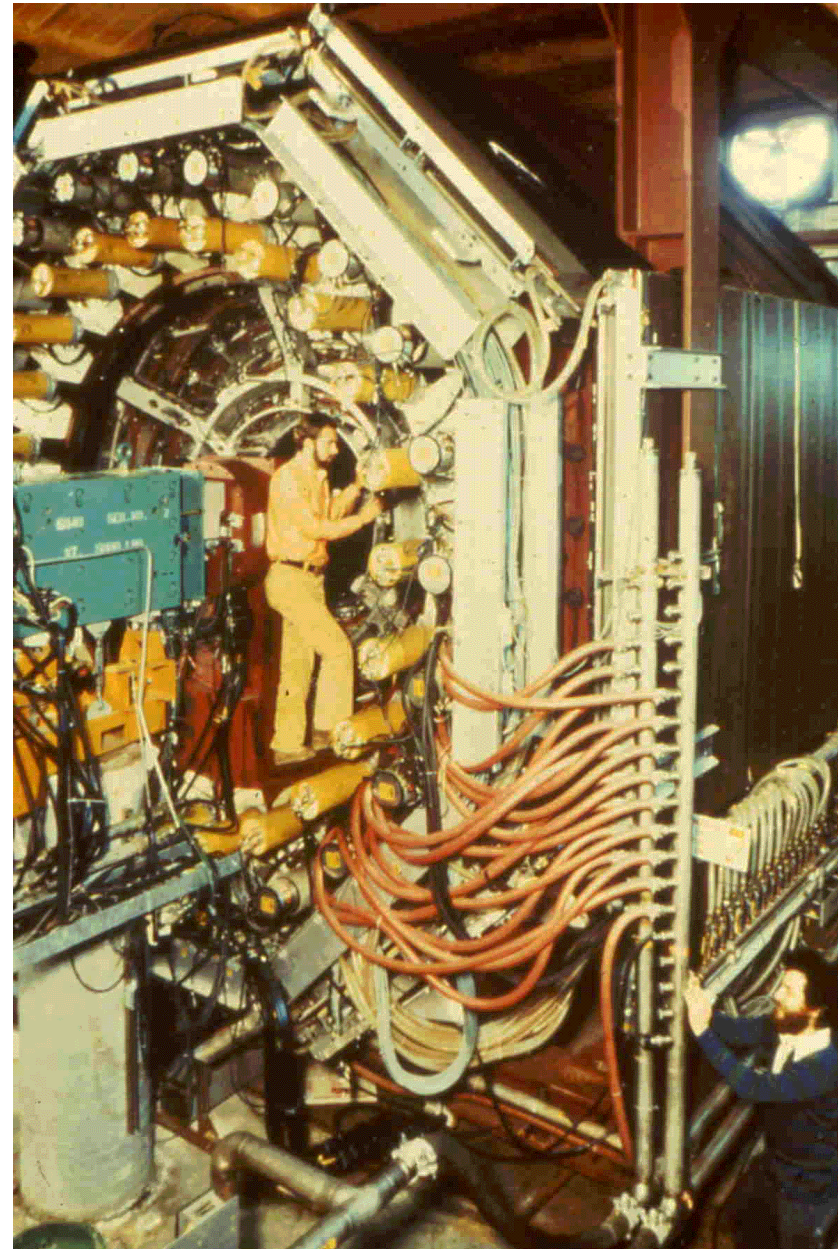
Gargamelle, 1972



MARK-I DETECTOR@SLAC

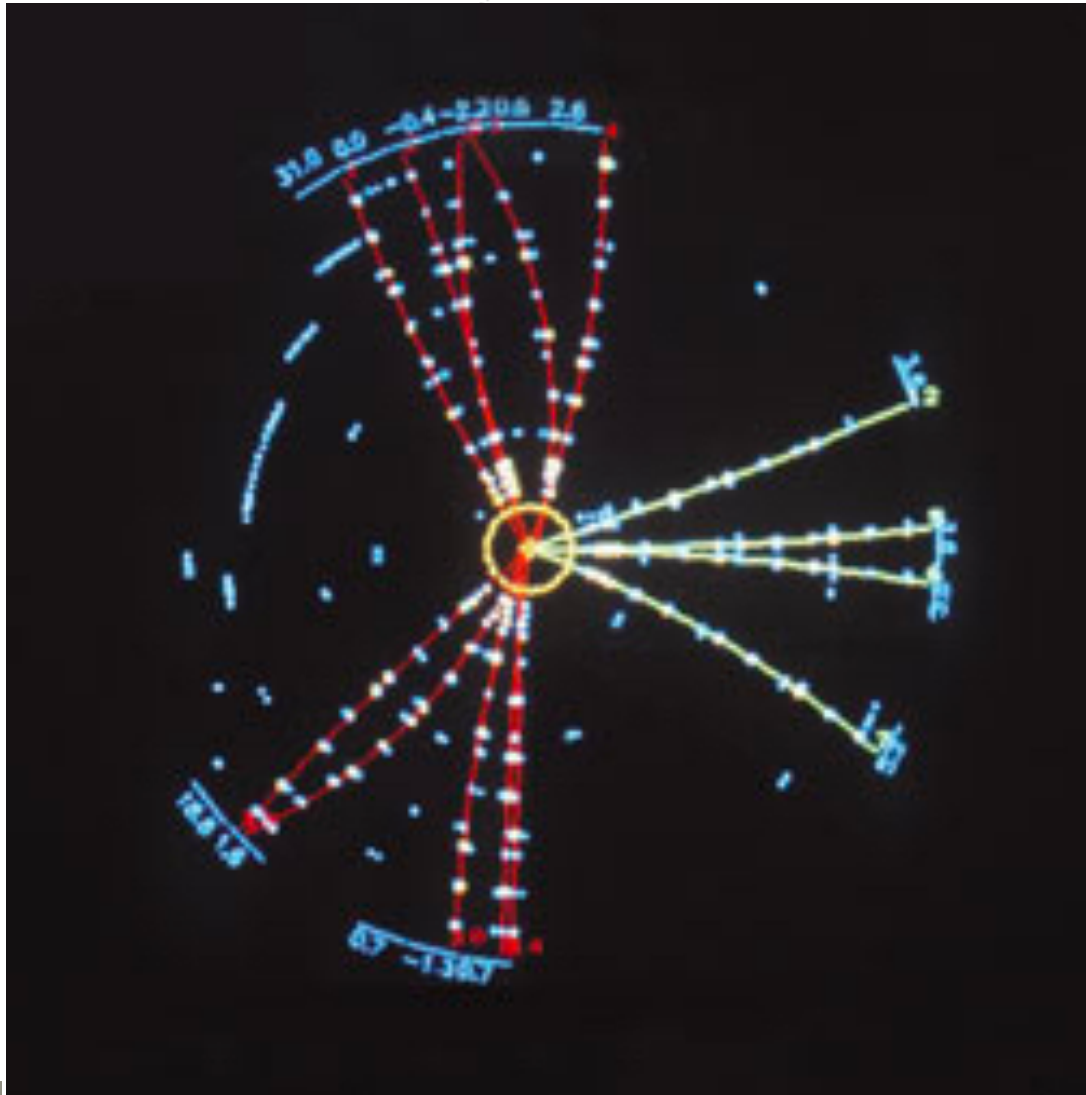
- Mark I detector: first 4 detector

Discoveries of the J/ψ particle and tau lepton, which both resulted in Nobel prizes (for Burton Richter in 1976 and Martin Lewis Perl in 1995)



DISCOVERY OF THE GLUON

18.06.1979



- Field theory predicted that the outgoing quarks radiate field quanta (gluons)
-> 3 jet events

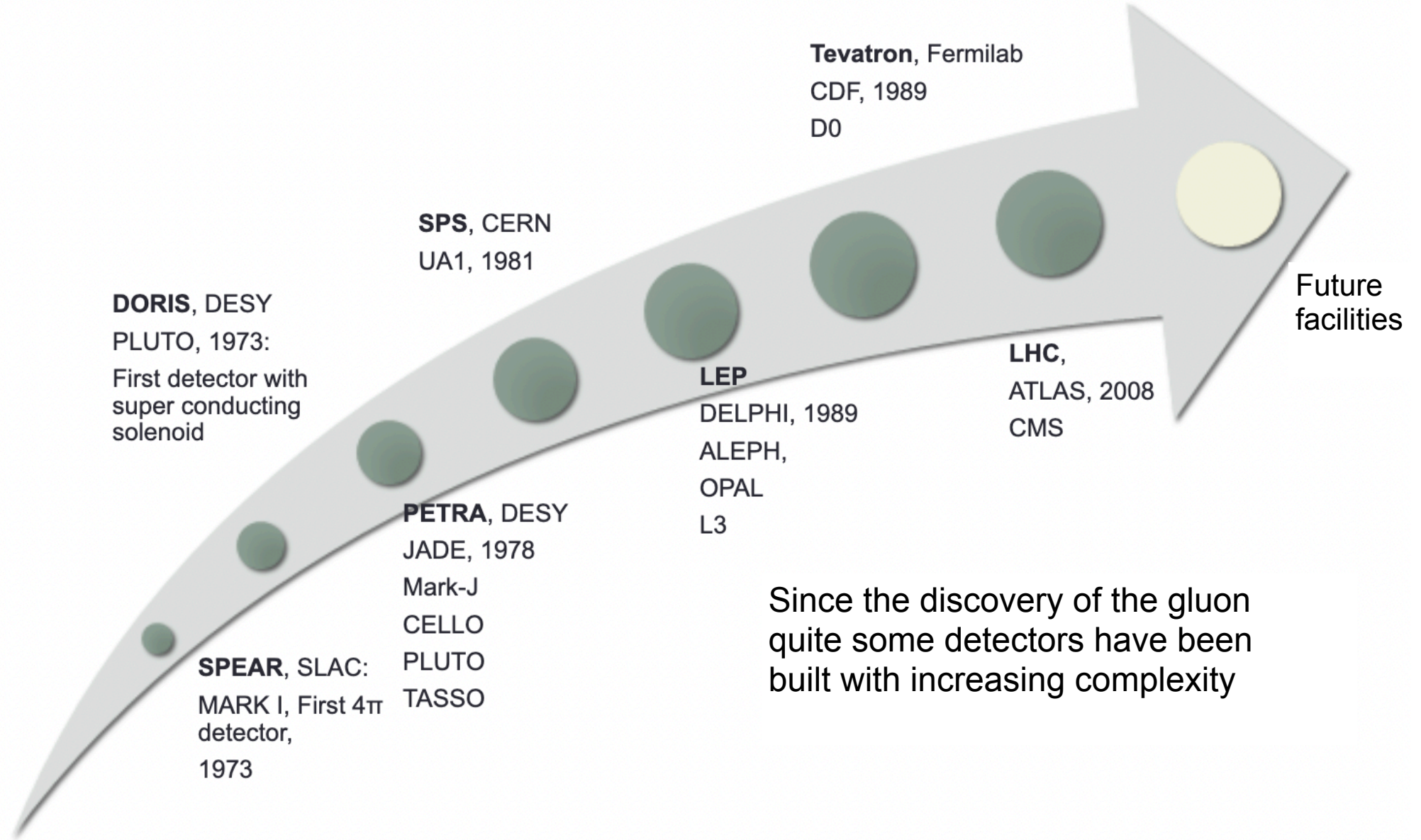
The quantum of the strong force was discovered and studied at lepton colliders



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EVOLUTION OF DETECTORS



Since the discovery of the gluon quite some detectors have been built with increasing complexity

ATLAS@LHC

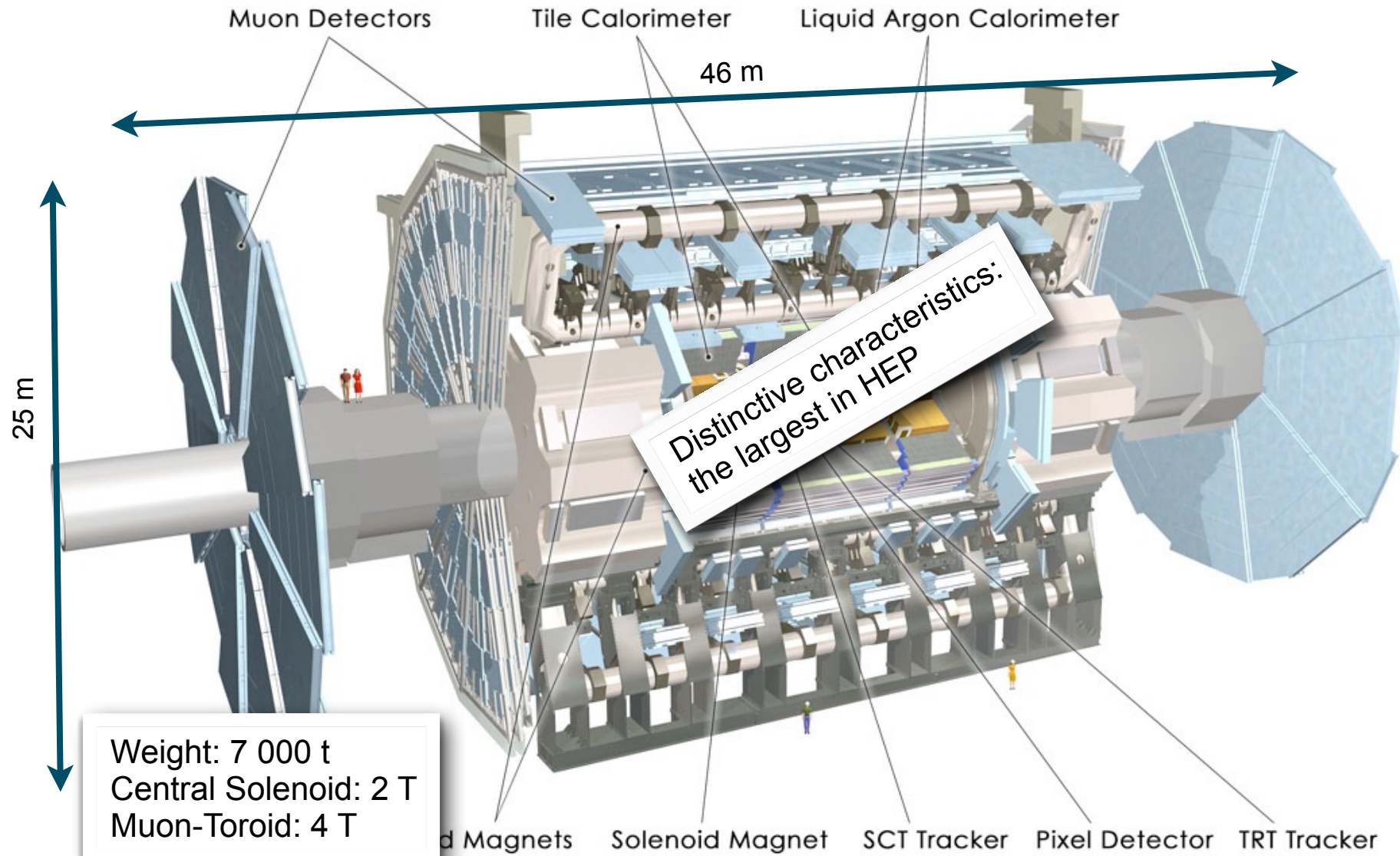


Illustration: CERN

ATLAS CROSS SECTION

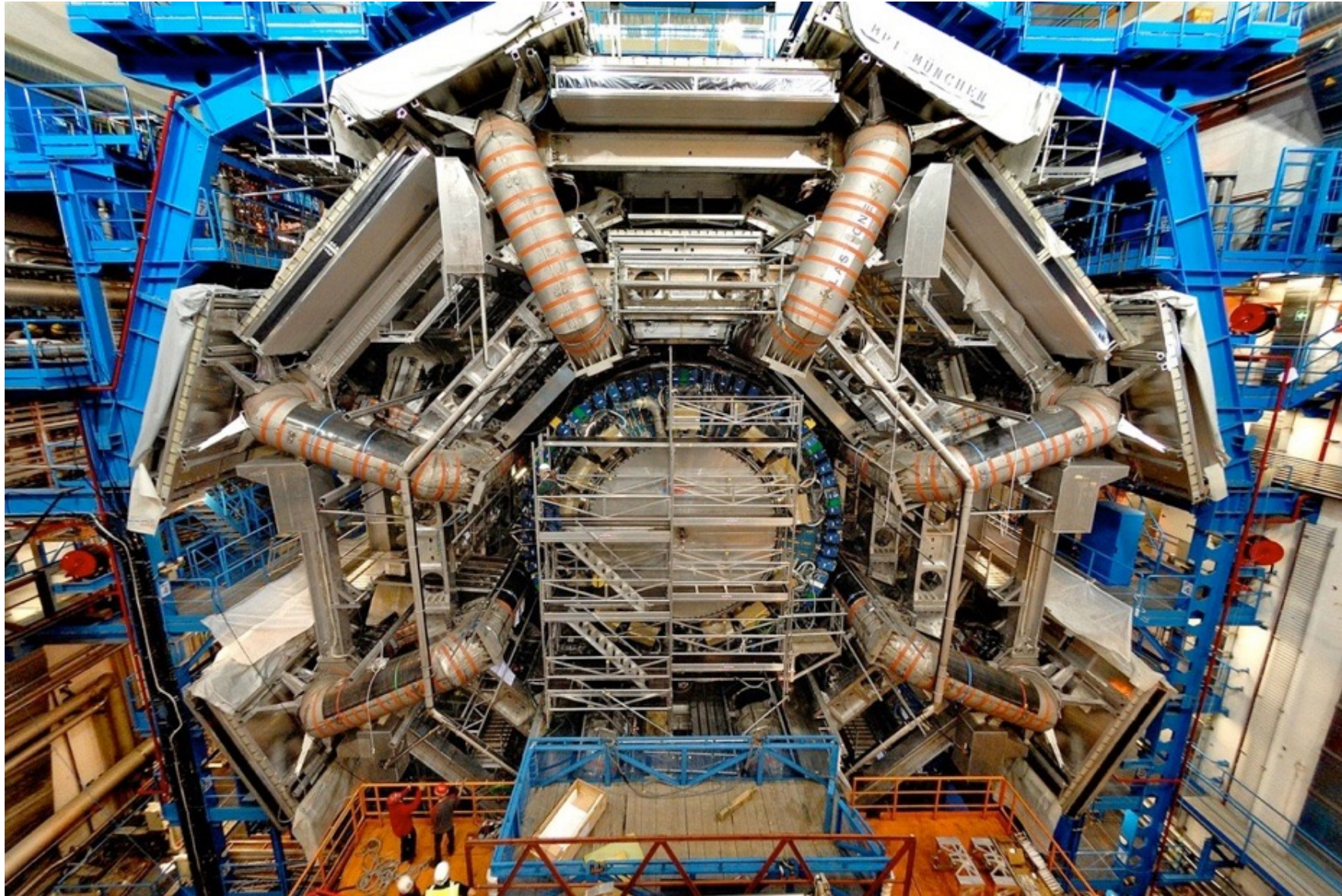
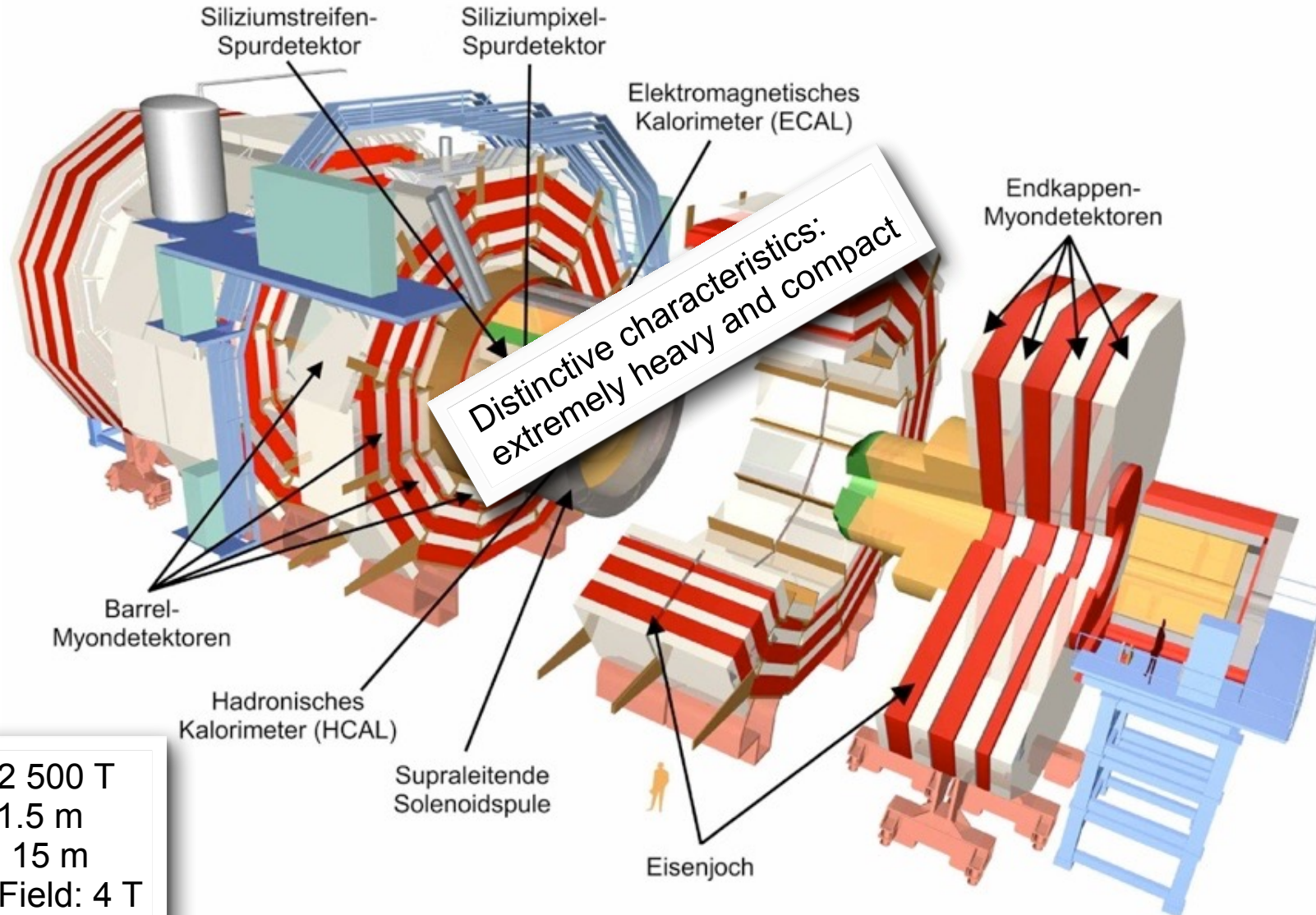


Foto: CERN



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Weight: 12 500 T
Length: 21.5 m
Diameter: 15 m
Solenoid-Field: 4 T

CMS CROSS SECTION

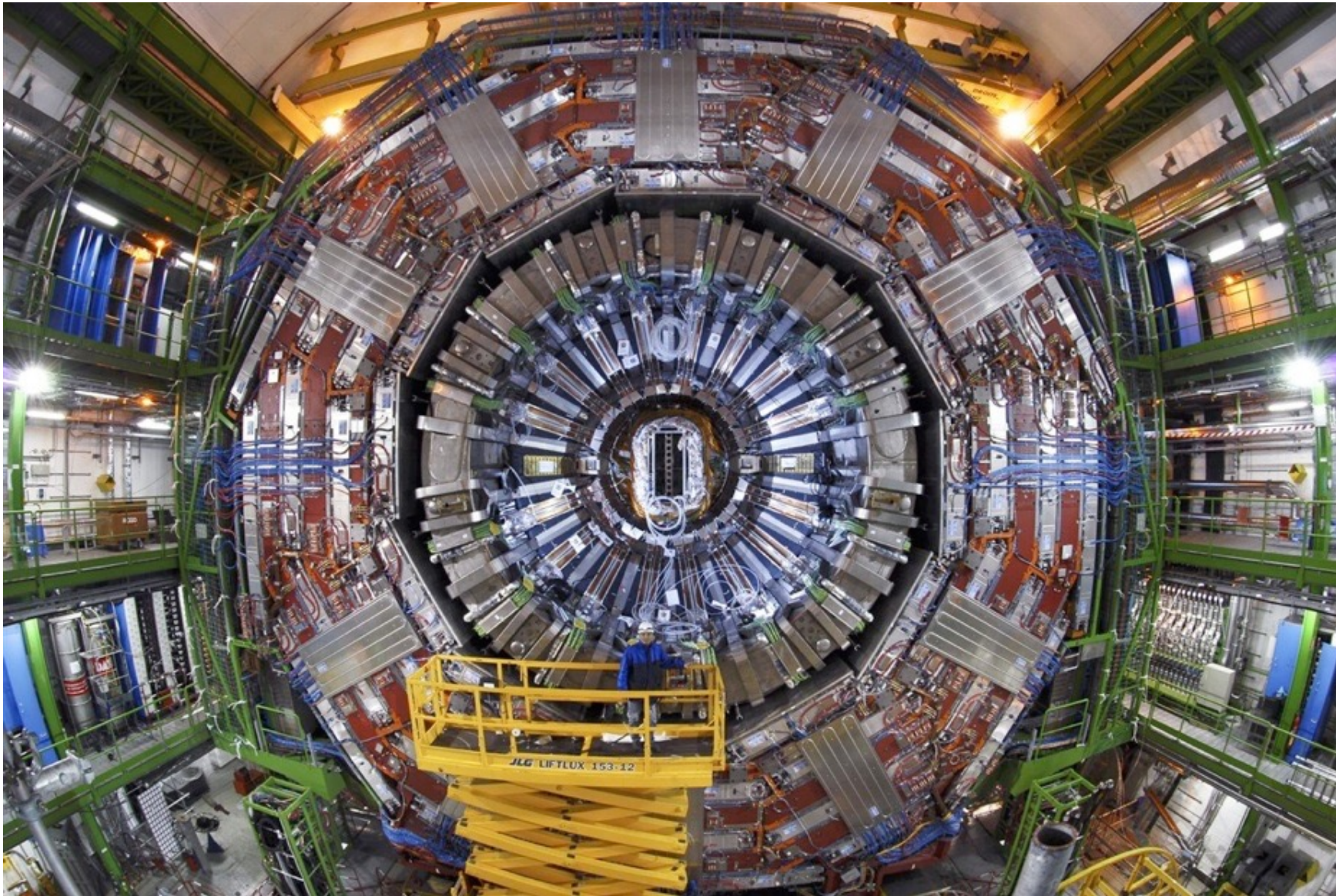


Foto: CERN



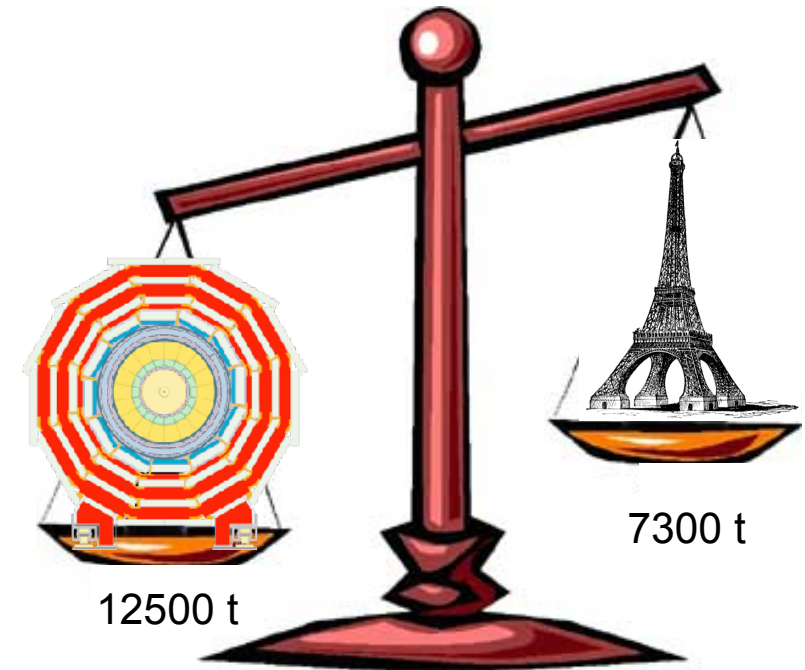
UNI

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SIZE AND WEIGHT



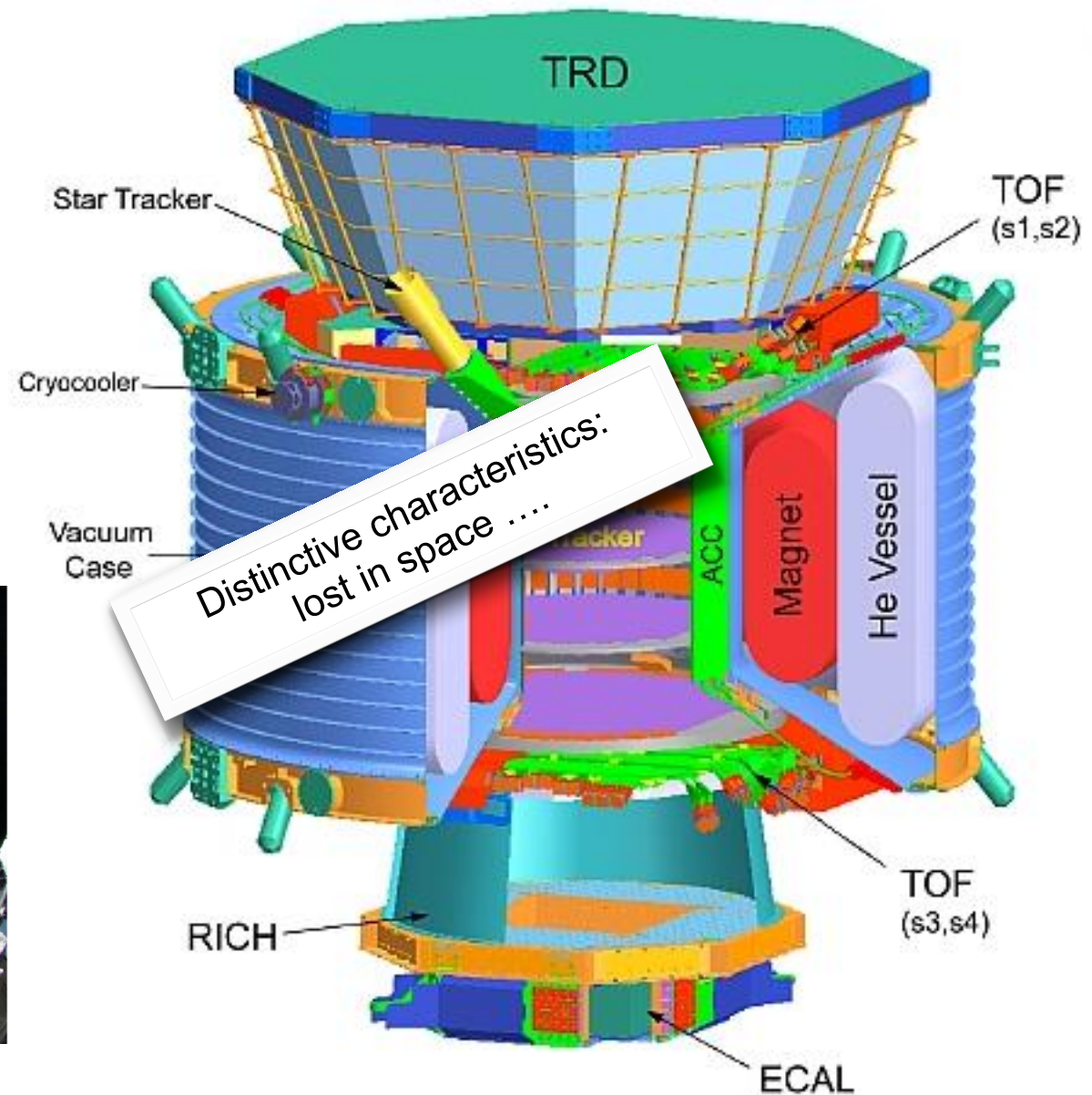
Brandenburger Tor in Berlin



CMS is 65% heavier than the Eiffel tower

AMS@ISS

Weight: 6700 kg
Length: 6 m
Diameter: 6 m
Solenoid-Field: 1.5 T



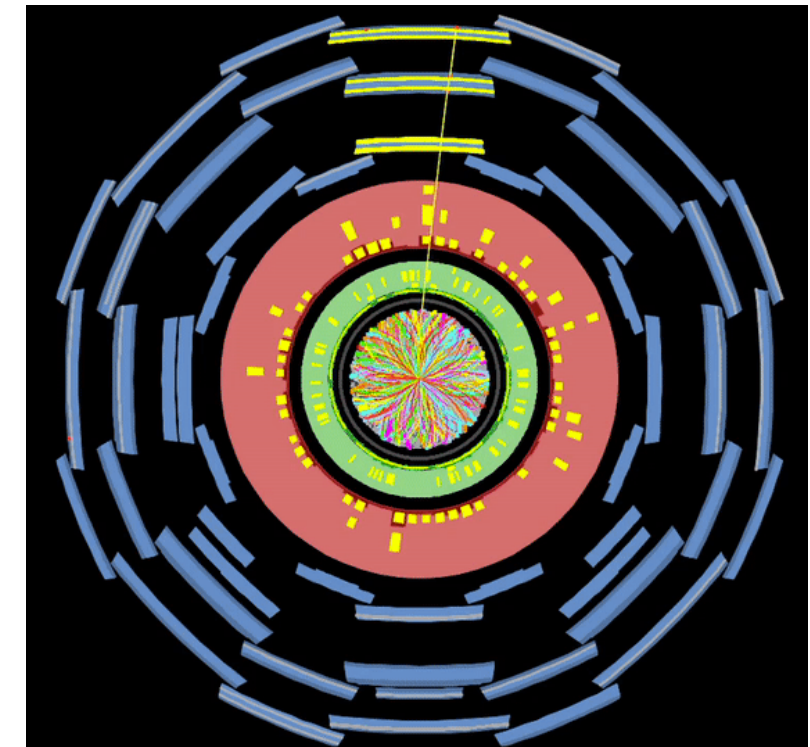
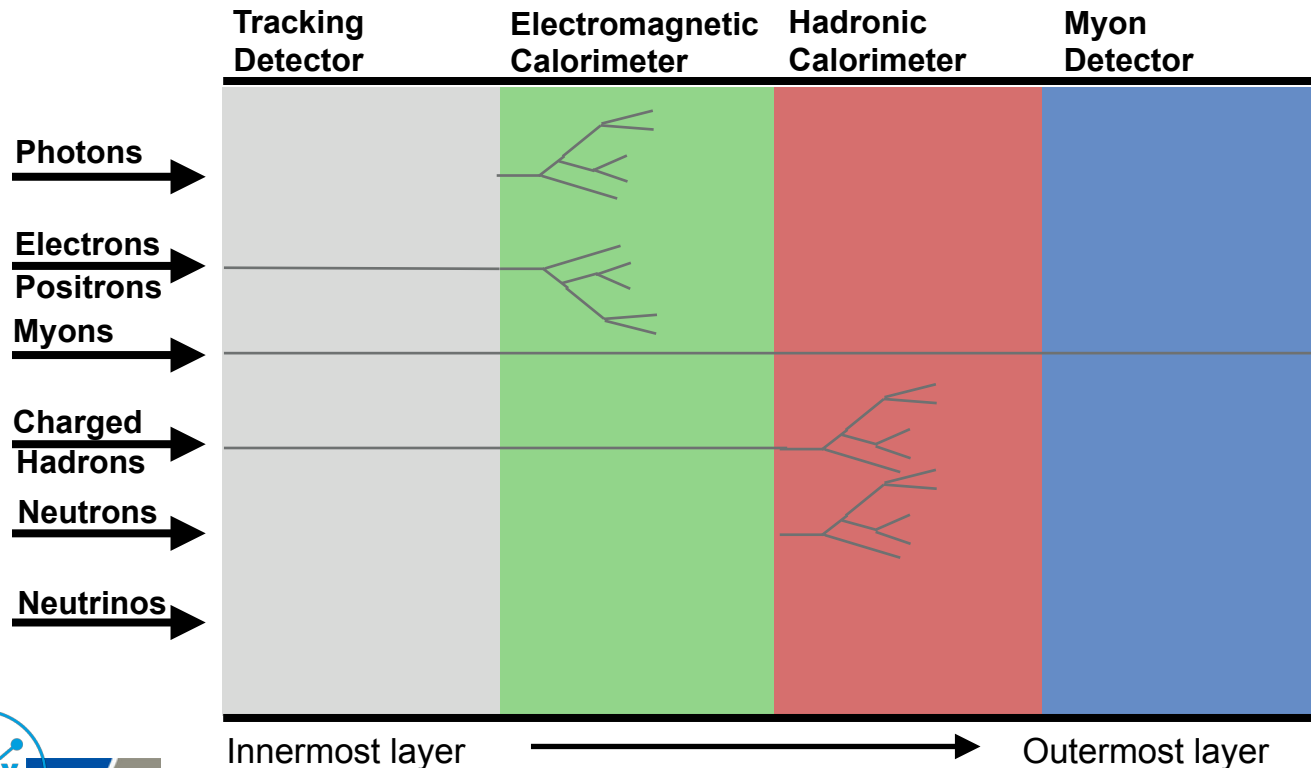
ICECUBE EXPERIMENT



Full movie: ATLAS experiment - Episode 2 - The Particles Strike Back

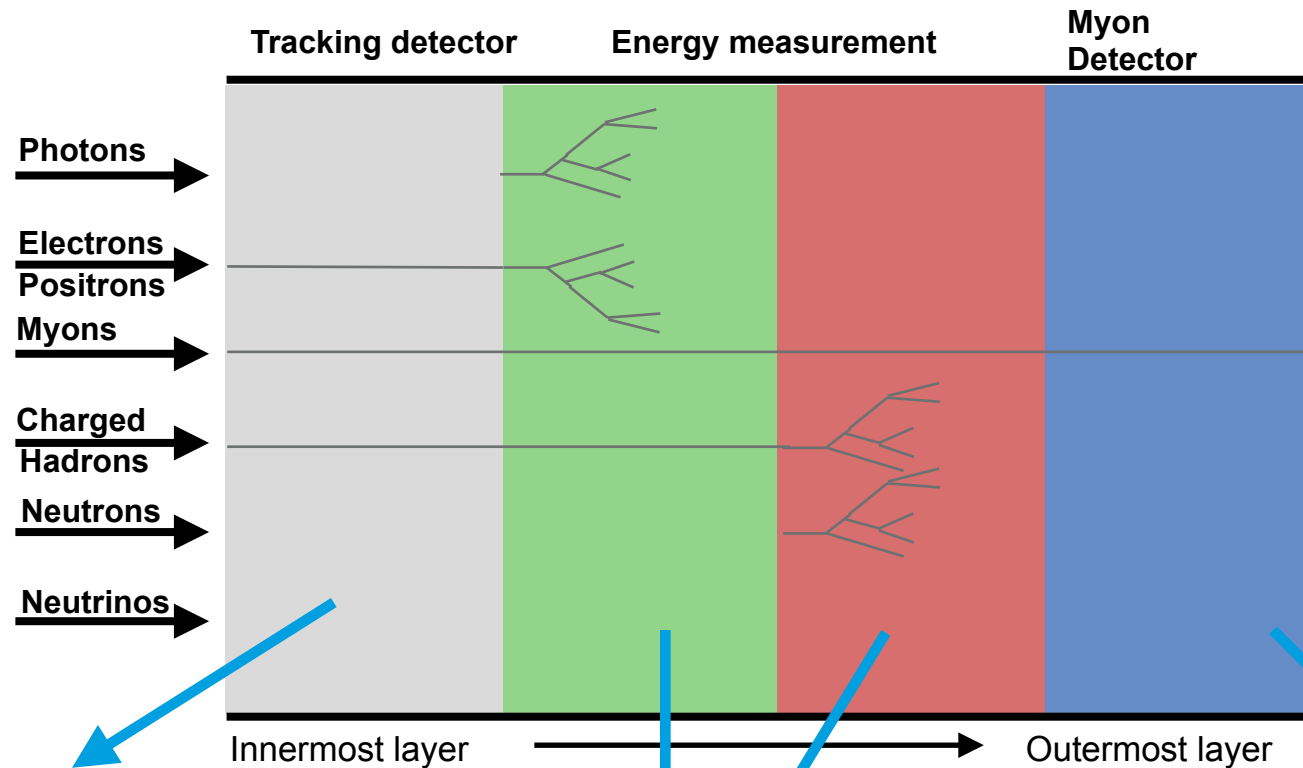
PARTICLE PHYSICS DETECTORS

- There is not one type of detector which provides all measurements we need -> “Onion” concept -> different systems taking care of certain measurement
- Detection of collision production within the detector volume
 - resulting in signals (mostly) due to electro-magnetic interactions



25 m

PARTICLE PHYSICS DETECTORS



Tracking detectors

- Silicon detectors:
 - pixel
 - strip
- Gas detectors
 - wire chambers
 - time projection chambers
 -

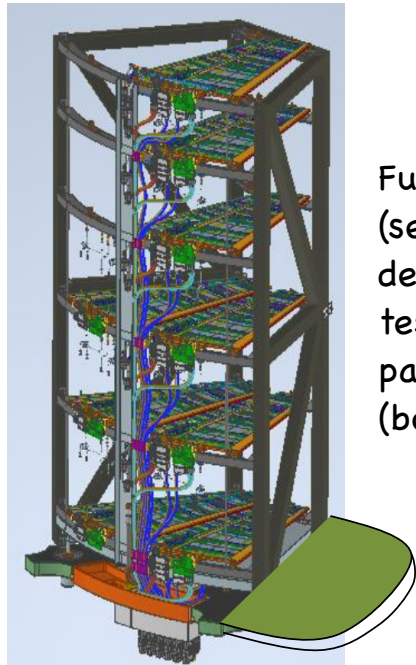
Calorimeter

- Electromagnetic cal
- Hadronic cal
-
- Homogeneous
- Sampling

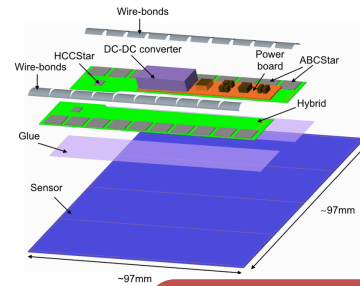
Muon detectors = outside tracker

- Gas detectors
 - Wire chambers
 - ...

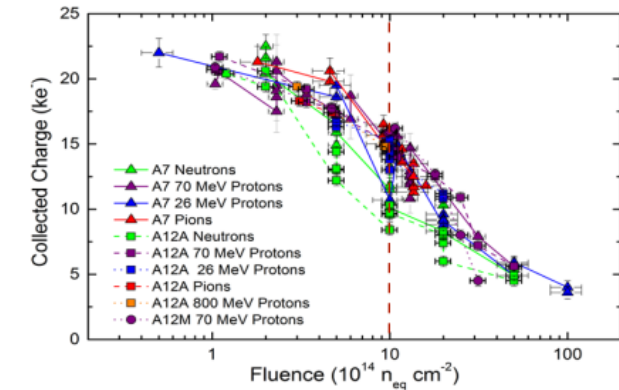
DETECTOR DEVELOPMENT CYCLE



Full system (segment of detector) to be tested with particles (beam, cosmics)



Crazy-idea-detector: use glue to build the detector....



Does the crazy-idea-detector "see" passing particles

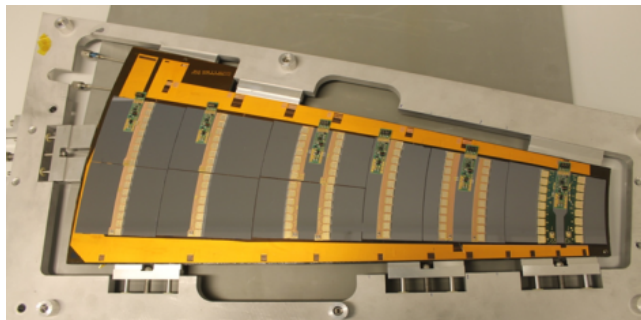
Crazy idea

Reality check

Fundamental R&D

System R&D

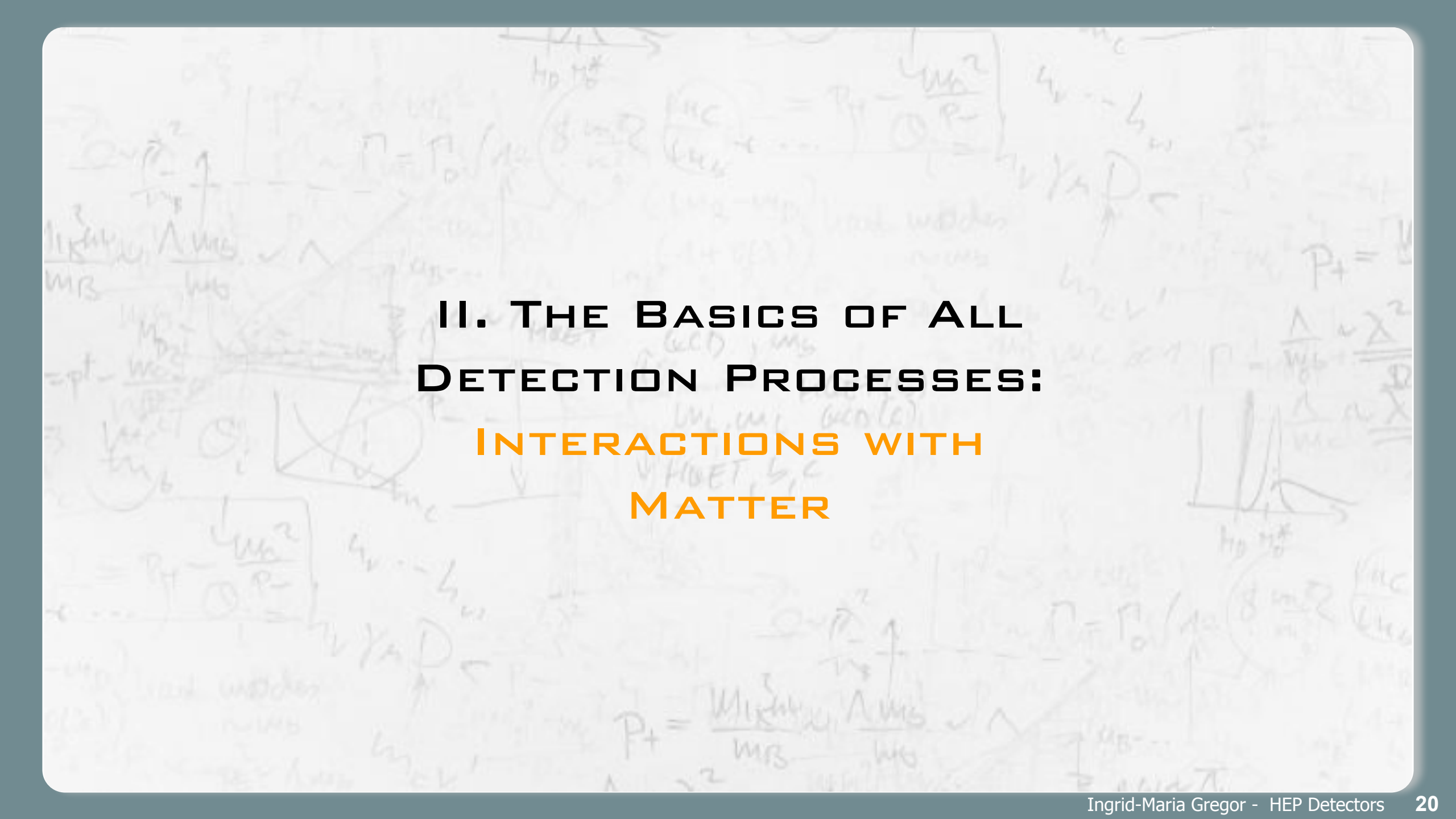
Prototyping, proof of concept



Towards large-size systems incl. cooling, powering, monitoring



Can we build a small-size detector out of it ? Test with "real" particles!

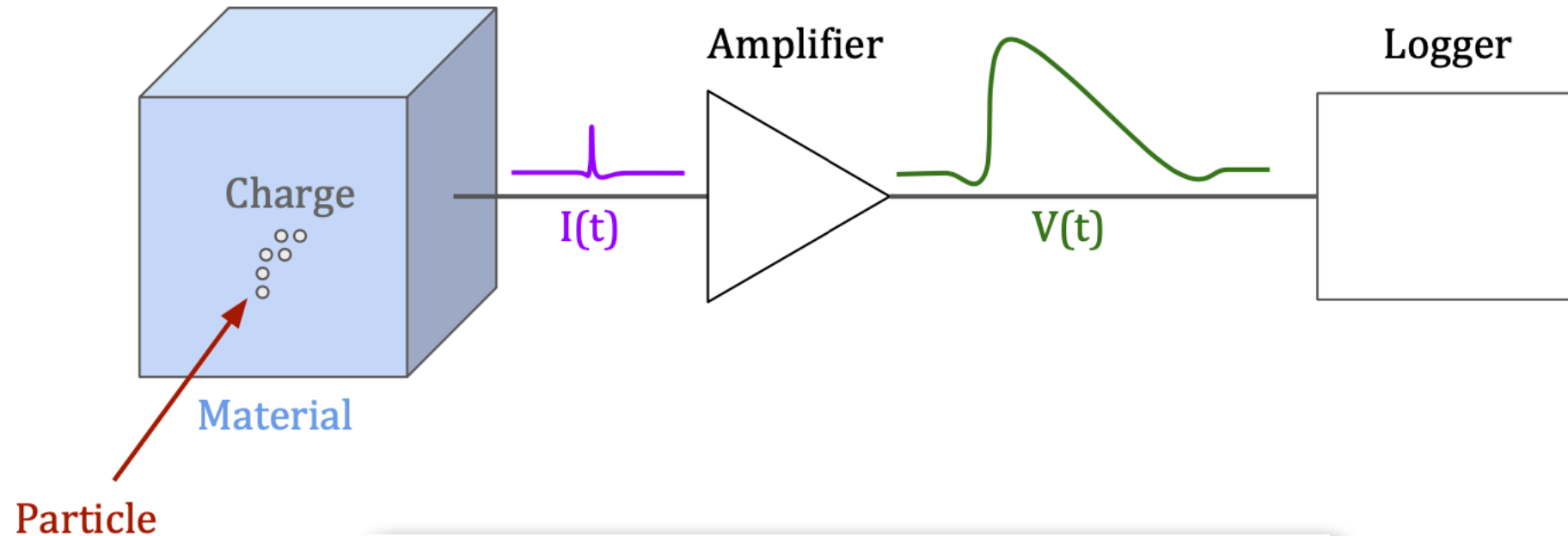
The background of the slide is filled with faint, handwritten mathematical notes and diagrams. These include various physics formulas such as $E = mc^2$, $P = \frac{W}{t}$, and $F = \frac{dp}{dt}$, along with sketches of particle tracks and detector components. The text is centered and reads:

**II. THE BASICS OF ALL
DETECTION PROCESSES:
INTERACTIONS WITH
MATTER**

ANALOGY



BASIC DETECTION PRINCIPLE

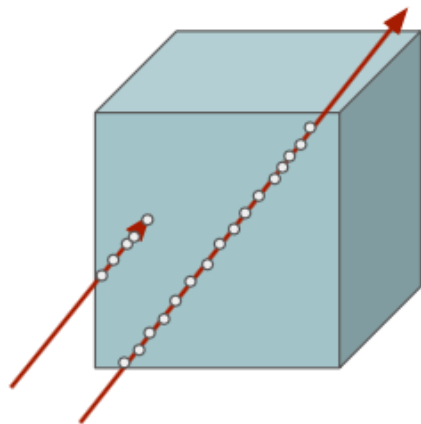


To interpret the result, we need to know **how particles interact with matter**. So that's where we start.

INTERACTIONS OF CHARGED PARTICLES

CHARGED PARTICLES

- For charged particles the electromagnetic interaction is dominating
- Charged particles penetrating matter can initiate the following processes:
 - Ionisation of atoms
 - Excitation of atoms
 - Bremsstrahlung (only relevant for electrons and positrons)
 - Cherenkov radiation
 - Transition radiation



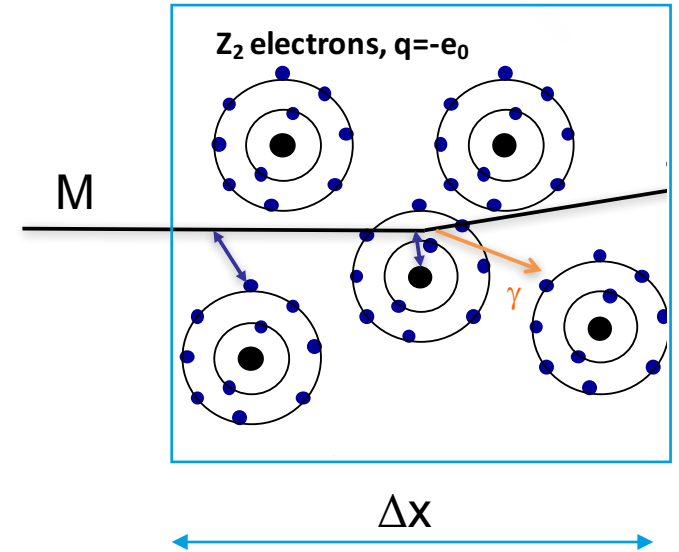
- All these processes **cause energy loss of the penetrating particles.**
- The relative contribution of these various processes to the total energy loss depends on the kinetic energy of the particle, the detector material, etc.

INTERACTION OF CHARGED PARTICLES



- A charged particle traverses material of thickness Δx
- Upon exiting, the energy of the particle has decreased by ΔE
- The basis of ~all particle detectors: **collect ΔE from the material**

- The deposited energy ΔE probably depends on:
 - Δx
 - Material density ρ
 - Particle mass M and charge ze
 - Particle kinetic energy T and velocity β



The key to detector design
is understanding dE/dx

$$\left[\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle \right] = \frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{cm}}$$

Linear stopping power

or

$$\left[\left\langle \frac{dE}{d\tilde{x}} \right\rangle \right] = \frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{gcm}^{-2}}$$

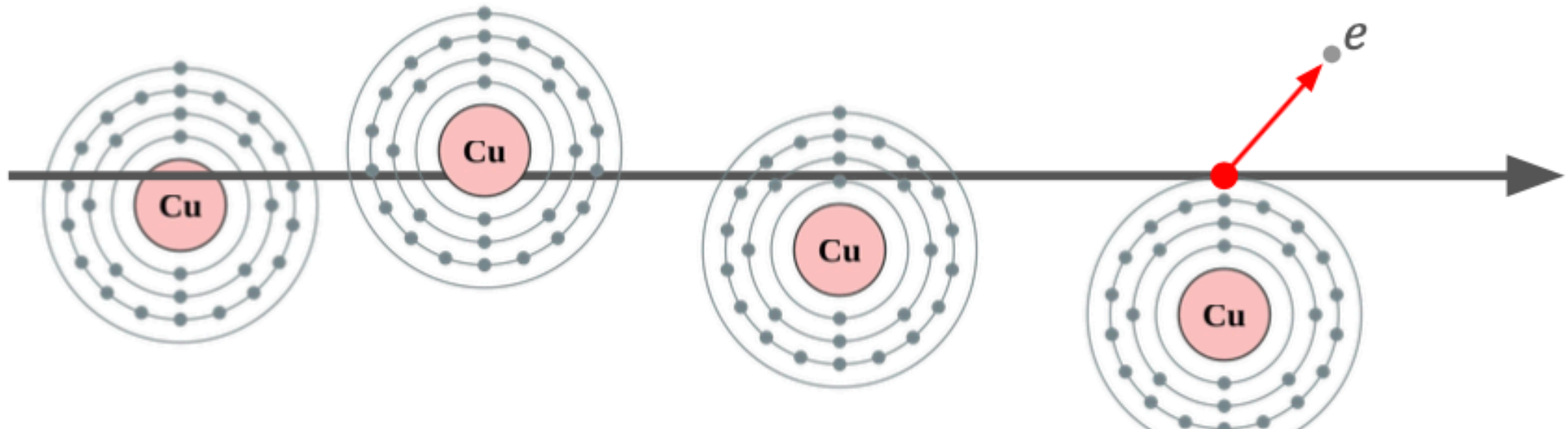
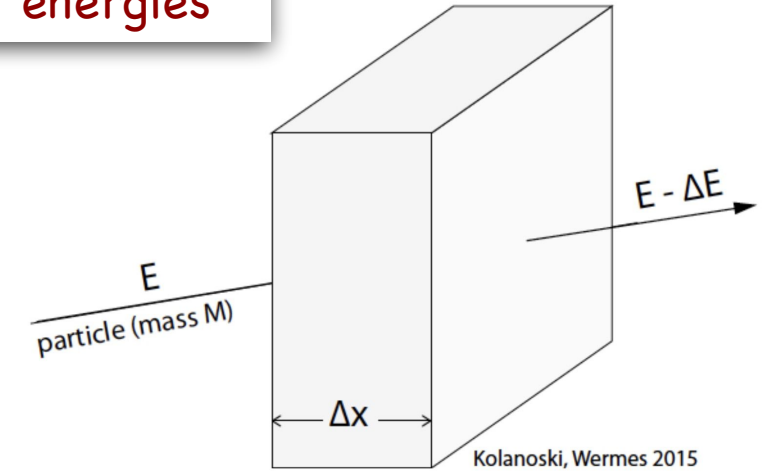
Mass stopping power

$$\tilde{x} = \rho x$$

IONISATION

The primary contributor to dE/dx at typical energies

- Particle can collide with **atomic electron** (EM interaction)
- If enough energy is transferred, the electron escapes, **ionising** the atom and causing small $-dE$
 - can also excite the atom, if transferred energy is small
- In general, this happens frequently, with small energy transfers ($<100\text{eV}$), so energy loss is \sim continuous





INTERACTIONS OF “HEAVY” PARTICLES WITH

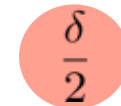


- Mean energy loss is described by the Bethe-Bloch formula

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


 Material; is the fraction of nucleons that are protons

 W_{max} Maximum kinetic energy which can be transferred to the electron in a single collision

 $\frac{\delta}{2}$ Density term due to polarisation: leads to saturation at higher energies

 Properties of the **particle**

 I^2 Excitation energy

 $\frac{C}{Z}$ Shell correction term, only relevant at lower energies

$$2\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 = 0.1535 \text{ MeV cm}^2 / \text{g}$$

r_e : classical electron radius =

m_e : electron mass

N_A : Avogadro's number

I : mean excitation potential

Z : atomic number of absorbing material

A : atomic weight of absorbing material

ρ : density of absorbing material

z : charge of incident particle in units of e

β : v/c of the incident particle

γ : $1/\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}$

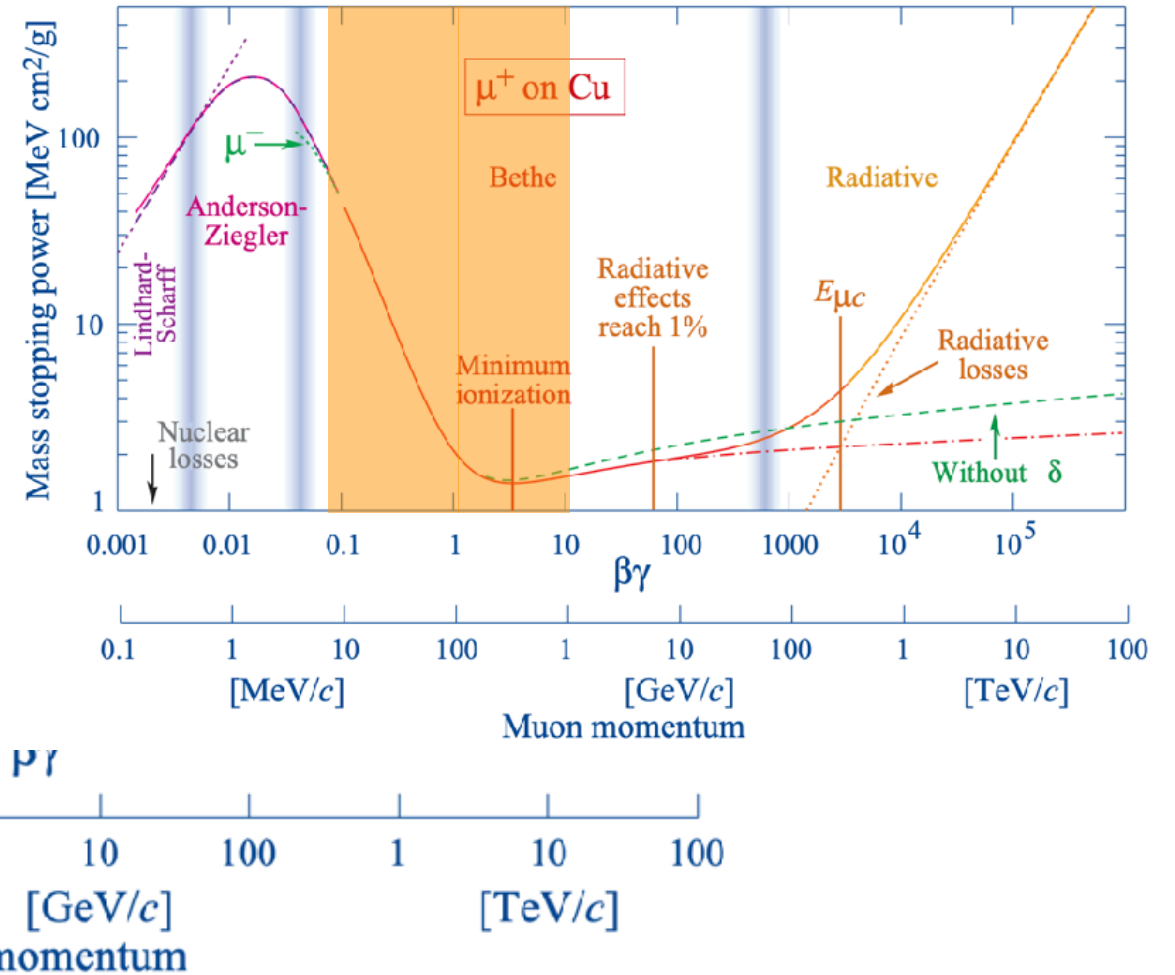
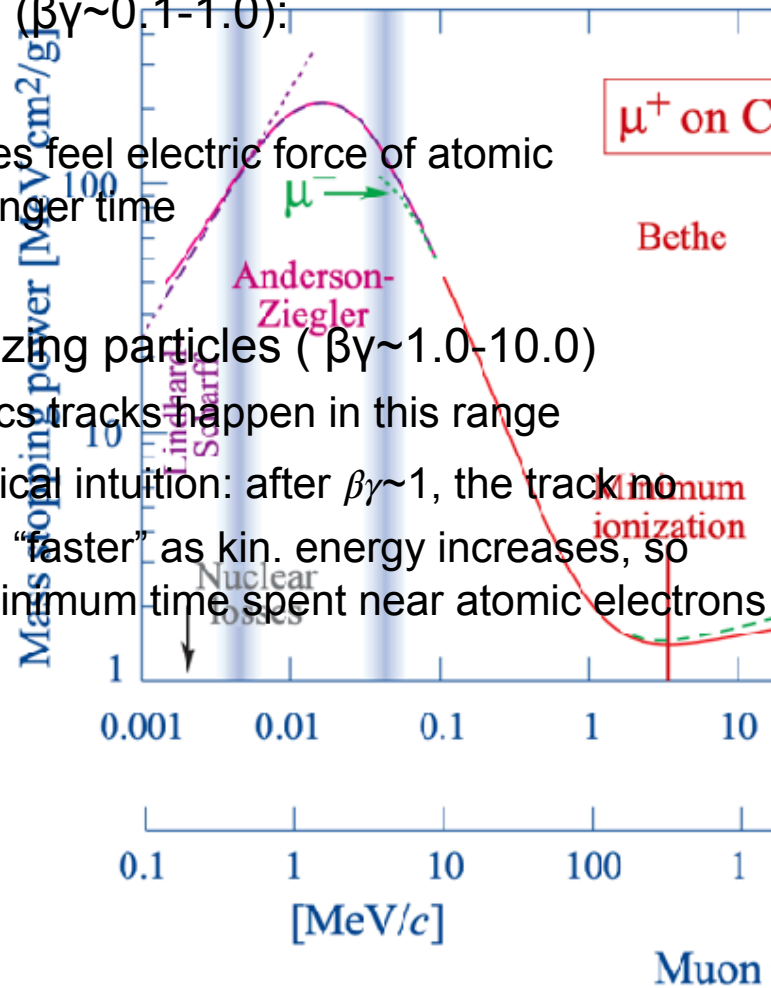
UNDERSTANDING BETHE BLOCH

- Kinematic term ($\beta\gamma \sim 0.1-1.0$):

- $dE/dx \sim \beta^{-2}$
- slower particles feel electric force of atomic electron for longer time

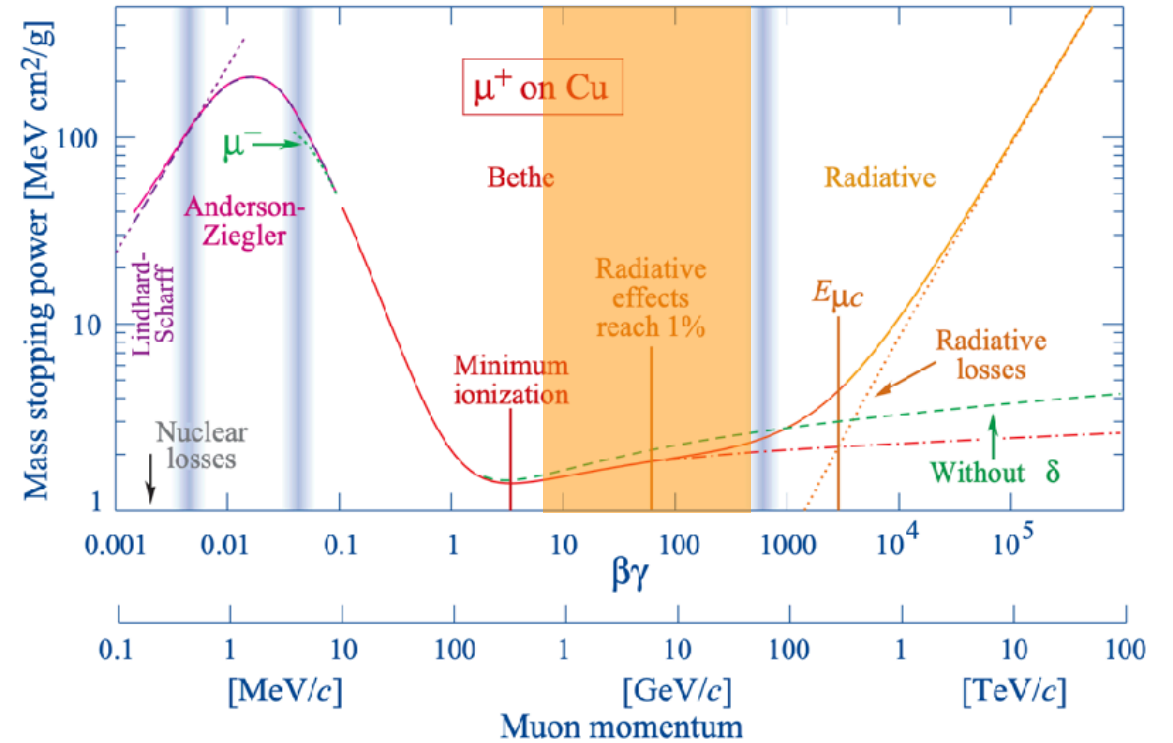
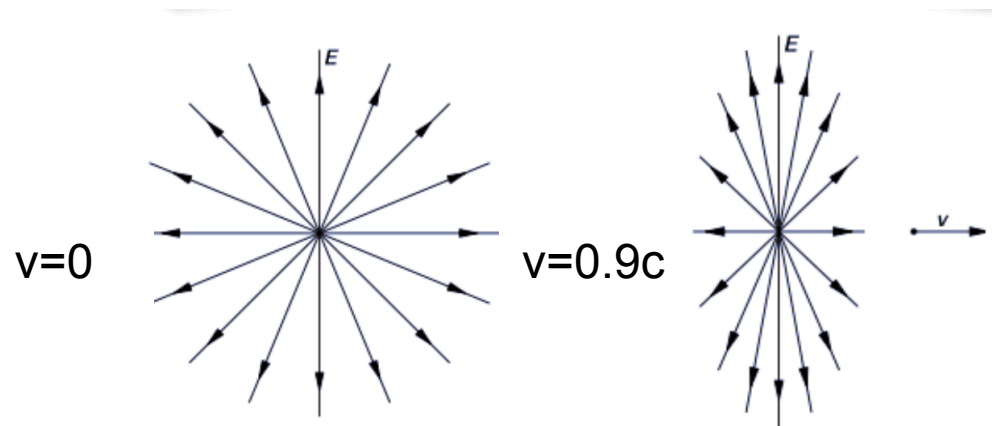
- Minimum ionizing particles ($\beta\gamma \sim 1.0-10.0$)

- Most physics tracks happen in this range
- Semi-classical intuition: after $\beta\gamma \sim 1$, the track no longer gets “faster” as kin. energy increases, so there’s a minimum time spent near atomic electrons



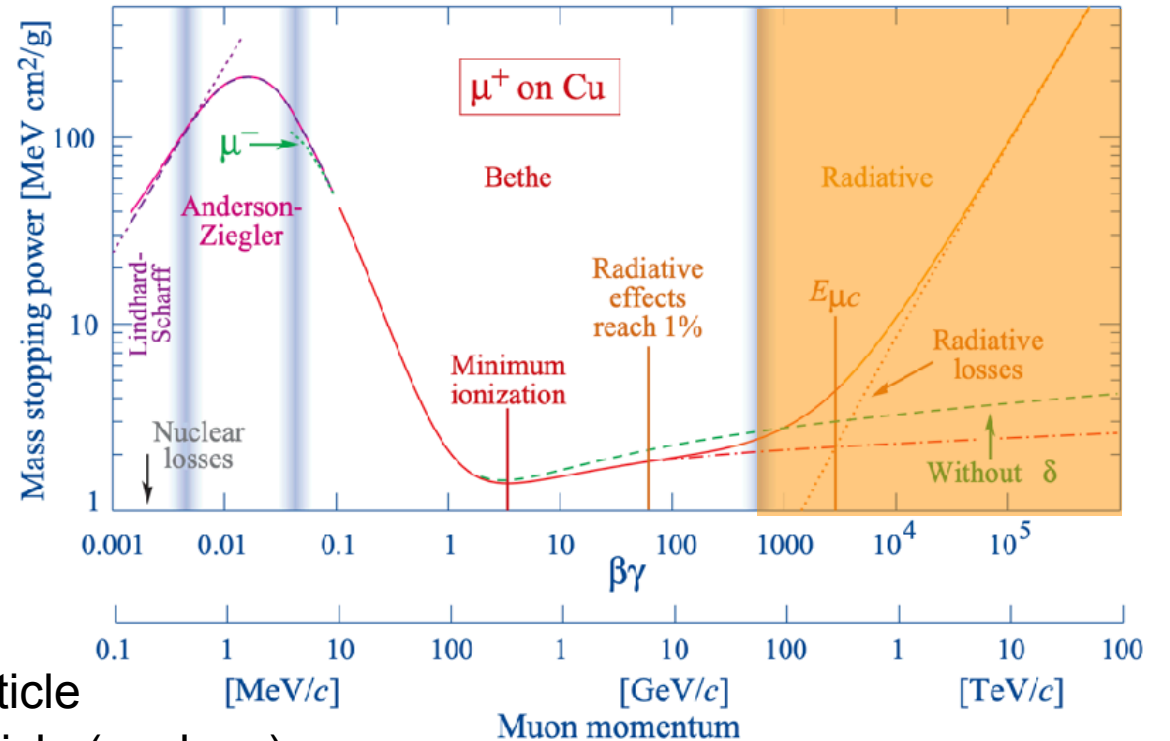
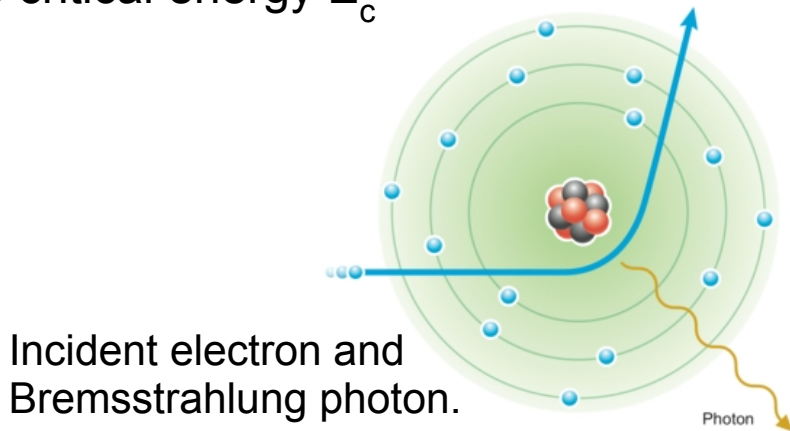
UNDERSTANDING BETHE BLOCH

- Rise after $\beta\gamma \sim 5$:
 - $dE/dx \sim \ln(\beta\gamma)^2$
 - due to more energy transfer from rare high-dE collisions
 - logarithmic rise due to lateral extension of electric field due to Lorentz transform $E_y \rightarrow \gamma E_y$



UNDERSTANDING BETHE BLOCH - LARGE $\beta\gamma$

- dE/dx diverges at large E
- Radiative losses equal ionisation losses at the critical energy E_c



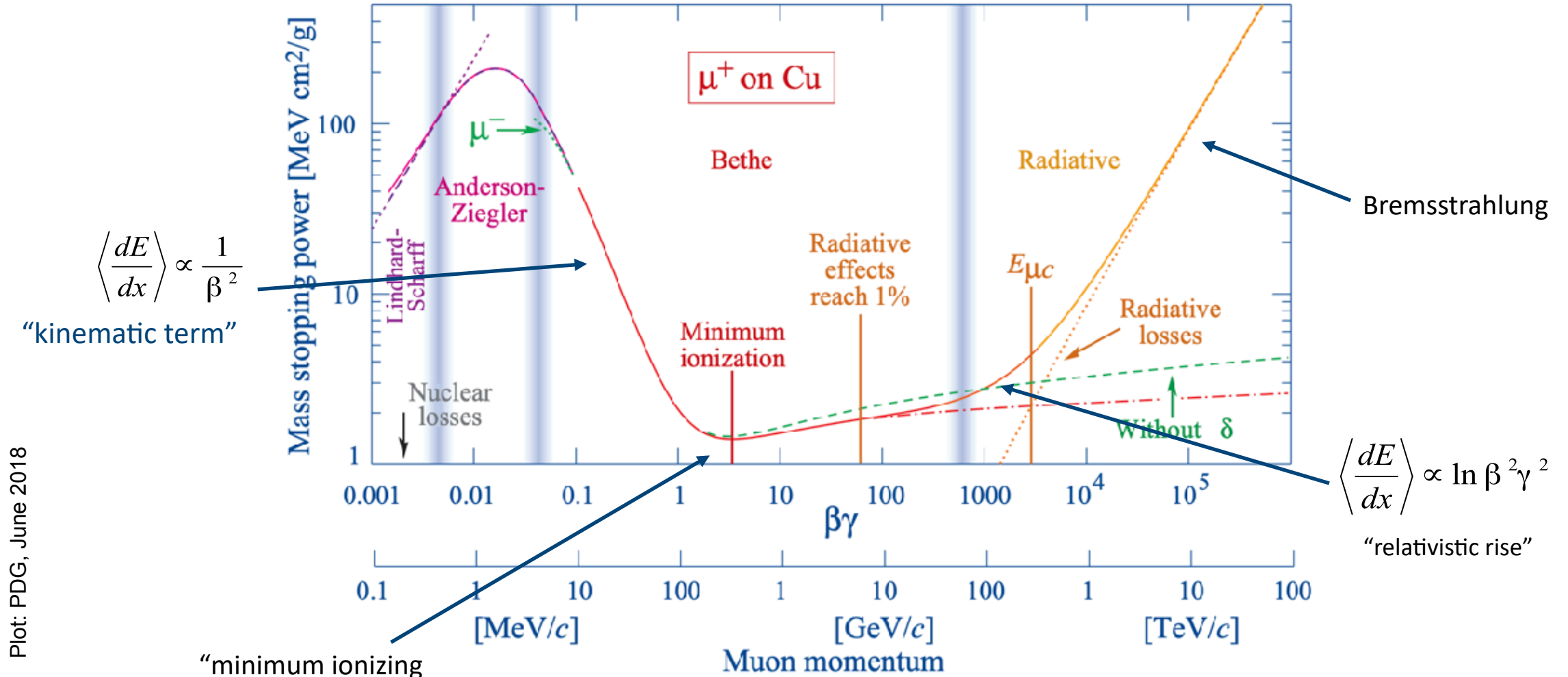
- Bremsstrahlung: photon emission by an charged particle accelerated in Coulomb field of another charged particle (nucleus)

- due to conservation of energy (with $h\nu=dE$)

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = 4\alpha N_A \frac{Z^2}{A} z^2 \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{mc^2} \right)^2 E \ln \frac{183}{Z^{1/3}} \propto \frac{Z^2 E}{m^2}$$

- Effect plays a role only for e^\pm and ultra-relativistic μ (>1000 GeV).

SUMMARY BETHE BLOCH



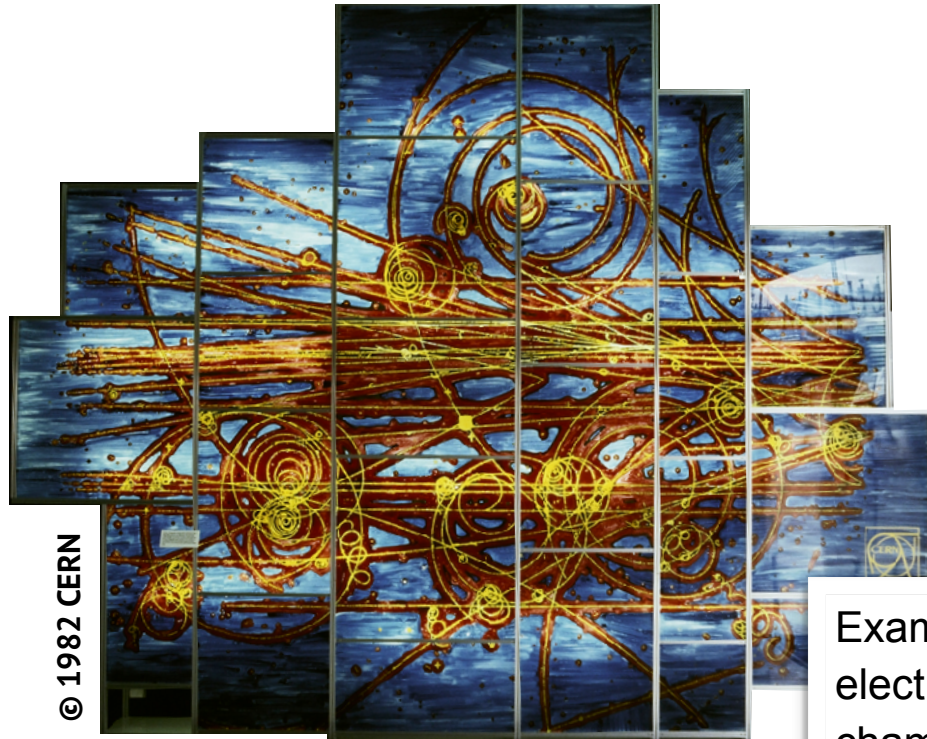
Plot: PDG, June 2018

“minimum ionizing particles” $\beta\gamma \approx 3-4$

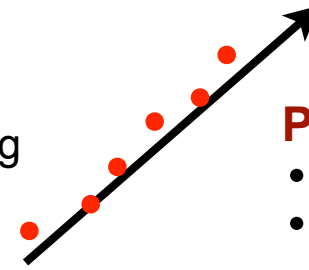
A CLOSER ACCOUNT OF ENERGY LOSS



- Bethe-Bloch displays only the average
 - energy loss is a statistical process
 - discrete scattering with different results depending on strength of scattering
 - primary and secondary ionisation

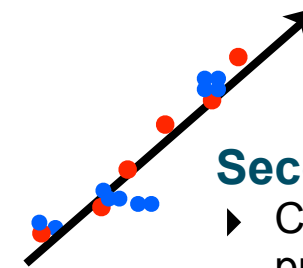


Example of a delta electron in a bubble chamber: visible path



Primary ionisation

- Poisson distributed
- Large fluctuations per reaction

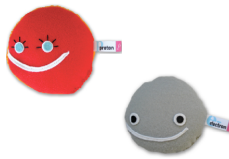


Secondary ionisation

- ▶ Created by high energetic primary electrons
- ▶ sometime the energy is sufficient for a clear secondary track: δ -Electron

$$\text{Total ionisation} = \text{primary ionisation} + \text{secondary ionisation}$$

ENERGY LOSS IN THIN LAYERS



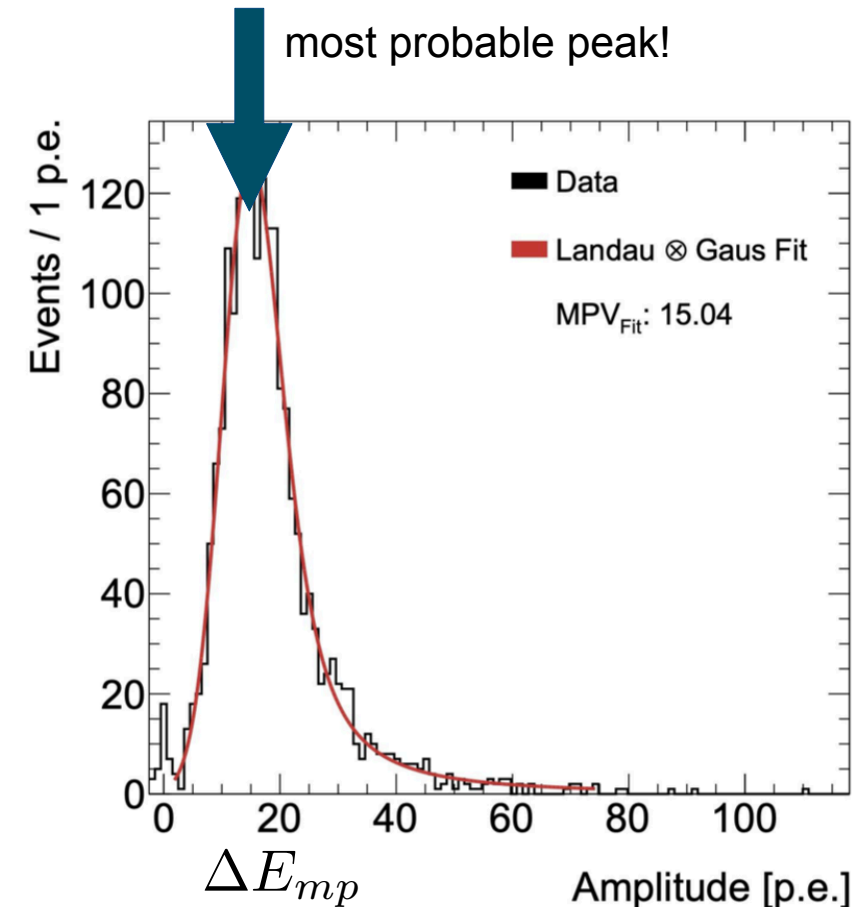
- Bethe Bloch formula describes average energy loss
- Fluctuations about the mean value are significant and non-Gaussian
 - A broad maximum: collisions with little energy loss (more probable)
 - A long tail towards higher energy loss: few collisions with large energy loss T_{\max} , δ -electrons.
- > Most probable energy loss shifted to lowered values

The Landau distribution is used in physics to describe the fluctuations in the energy loss of a charged particle passing through a thin layer of matter

$$P(\lambda) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2}(\lambda + e^{-\lambda}) \right]$$

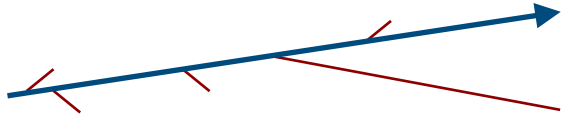
$$\lambda = \frac{\Delta E - \Delta E_{mp}}{\xi}$$

ξ is a material constant



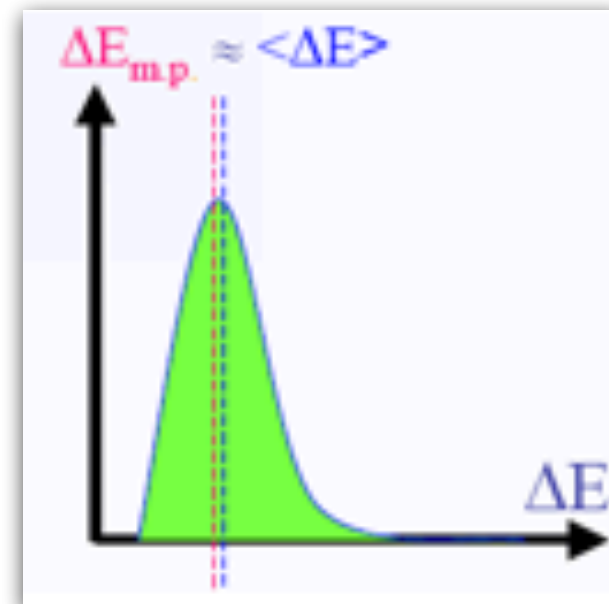
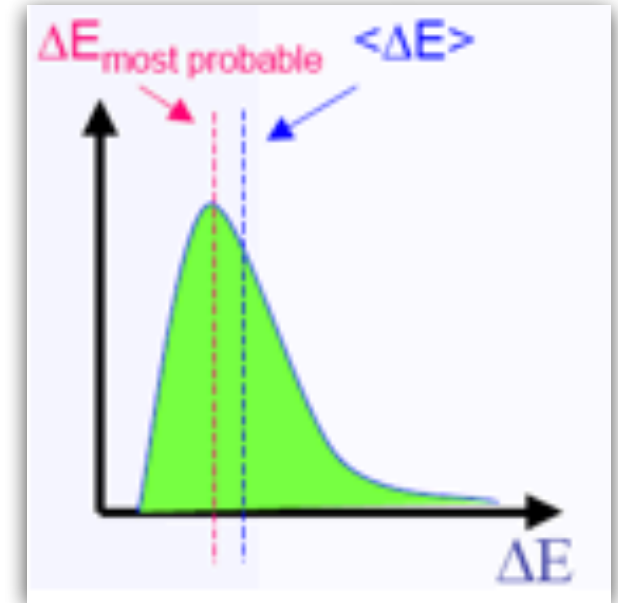
LANDAU TAILS

- Real detector measures the energy ΔE deposited in a layer of finite thickness δx
- For thin layers or low density materials
 - few collisions; some with high energy transfer



- ▶ Energy loss distributions show large fluctuations towards high losses
- ▶ Long Landau tails

- For thick layers and high density materials
 - Many collisions
 - Central limit theorem: distribution -> Gaussian



RADIATION LENGTH X_0



dE/dx for an electron

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = 4\alpha N_A \frac{Z^2}{A} r_e^2 E \ln \frac{183}{Z^{1/3}}$$

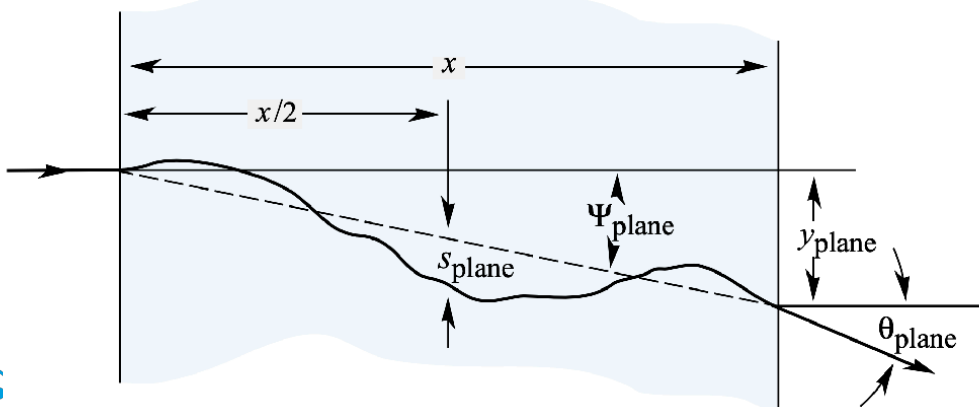
$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{E}{X_0} \quad \longrightarrow \quad E = E_0 e^{-x/X_0}$$

$$X_0 = \frac{A}{4\alpha N_A Z^2 r_e^2 \ln \frac{183}{Z^{1/3}}}$$

Parameters only depending on material the electron is passing through.

Thickness of material an electron travels through until the energy is reduced by Bremsstrahlung to 1/e of its original energy

- The radiation length is also an important quantity in multiple scattering
- A very important number when building detectors, one always has to keep in mind how much material is within the detector volume



- Usually quoted in $[g/cm^2]$, typical values are:
 - Air: $36.66 g/cm^2 \rightarrow \sim 300 m$
 - Water: $36.08 g/cm^2 \rightarrow \sim 36 cm$
 - Silicon: $21.82 g/cm^2 \rightarrow 9.4 cm$
 - Aluminium: $24.01 g/cm^2 \rightarrow 8.9 cm$
 - Tungsten: $6.76 g/cm^2 \rightarrow 0.35 cm$

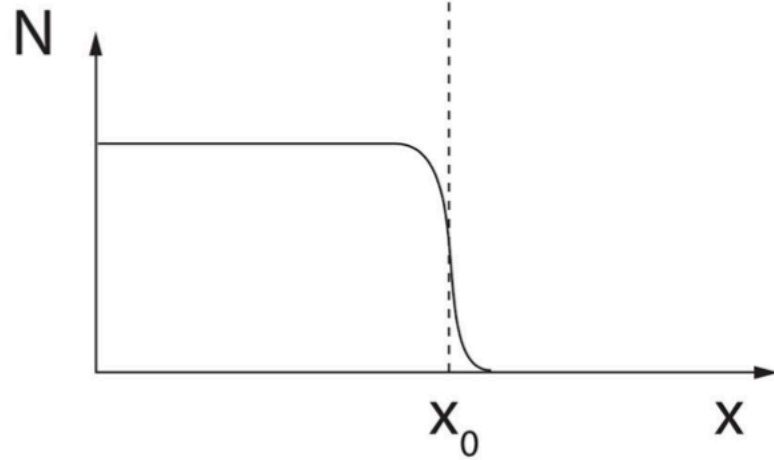
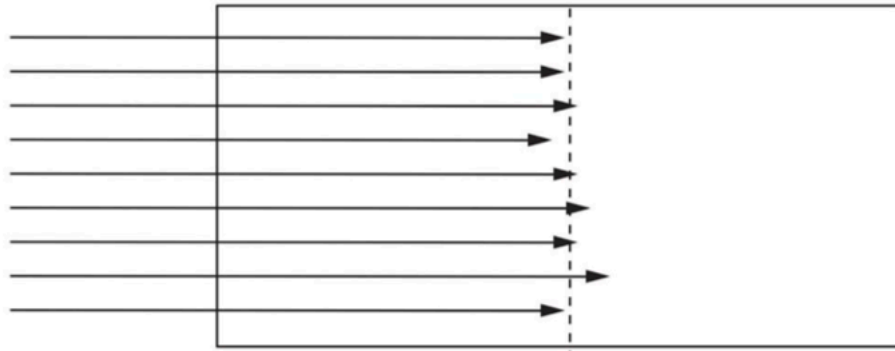
$$\theta_0 = \theta_{plane}^{rms} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \theta_{space}^{rms}$$

$$\theta_0 = \frac{13.6 MeV}{\beta c p} z \sqrt{x/X_0} [1 + 0.038 \ln(x/X_0)]$$

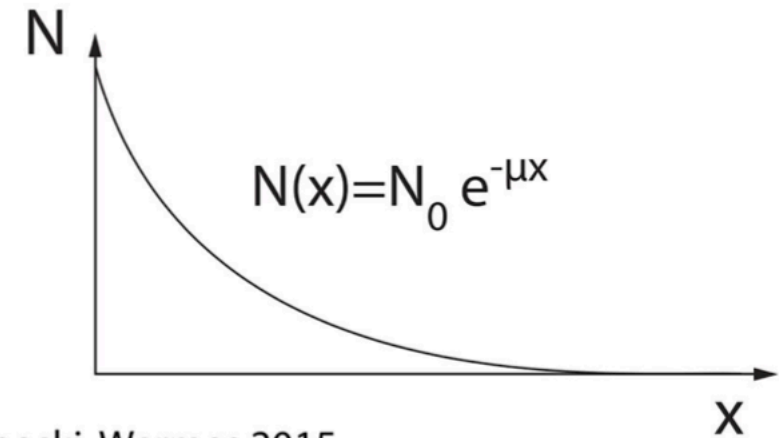
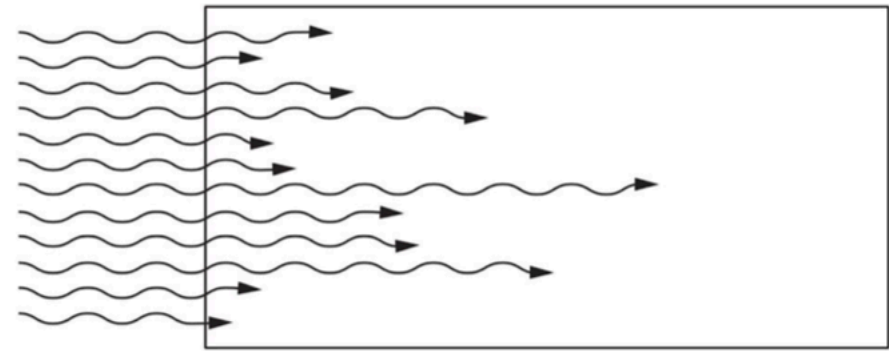
INTERACTIONS OF PHOTONS

BIG DIFFERENCE

Charged particles



Photons

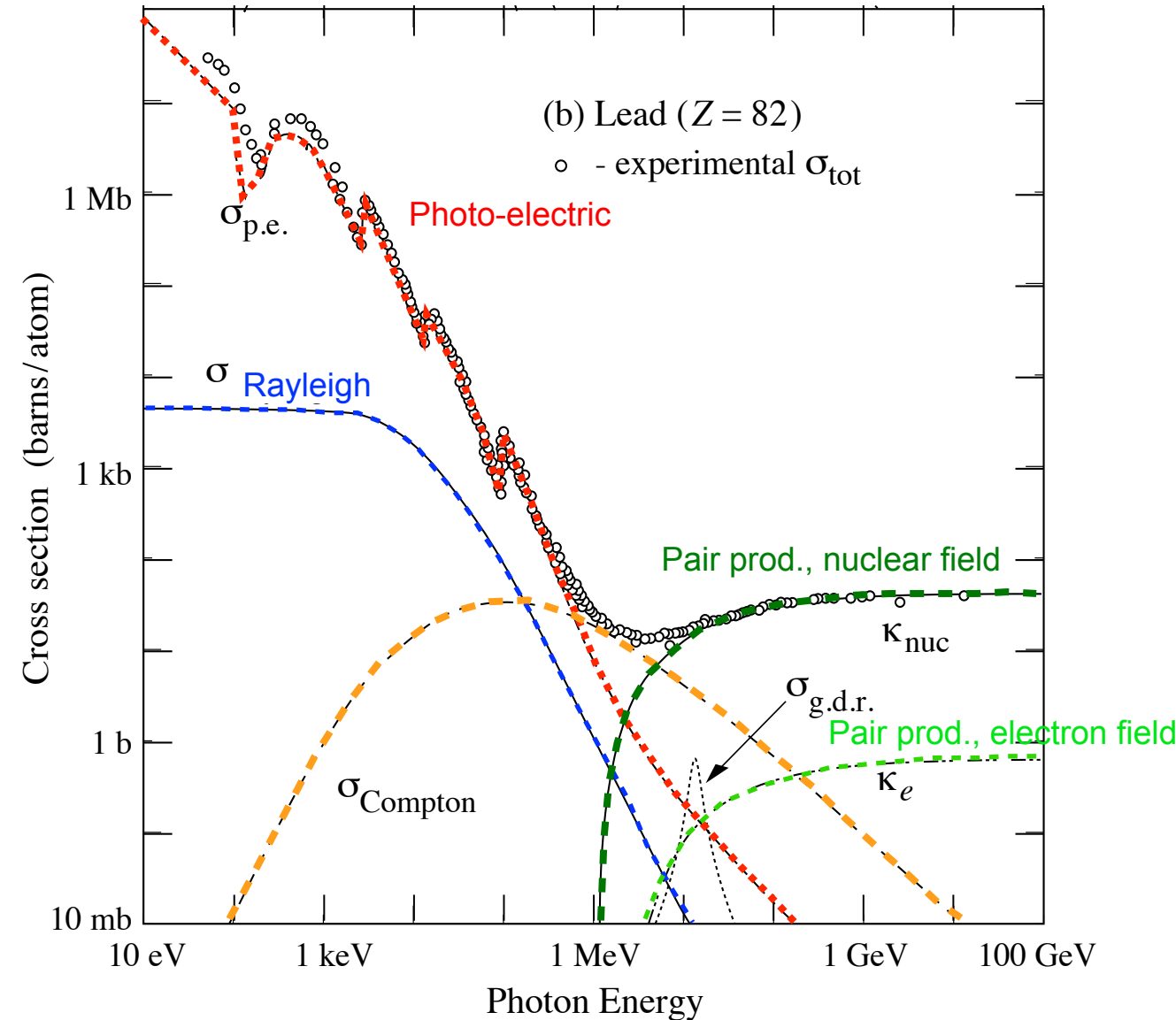


Kolanoski, Wermes 2015

PHOTONS: INTERACTIONS



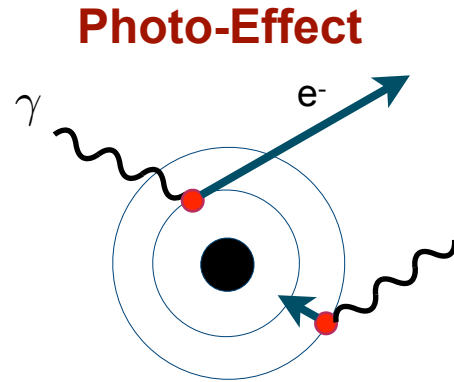
- Photons appear in detector systems
 - as primary photons,
 - created in Bremsstrahlung and de-excitations
- Photons are also used for medical applications, both imaging and radiation treatment.
- Photons interact via **six** mechanisms depending on the photon energy:
 - **< few eV:** molecular interactions
 - **< 1 MeV: photoelectric effect**
 - **< 1 MeV:** Rayleigh scattering
 - **~ 1 MeV: Compton scattering**
 - **> 1 MeV: pair production**
 - **> 1 MeV:** nuclear interactions



PHOTONS: MAIN INTERACTIONS



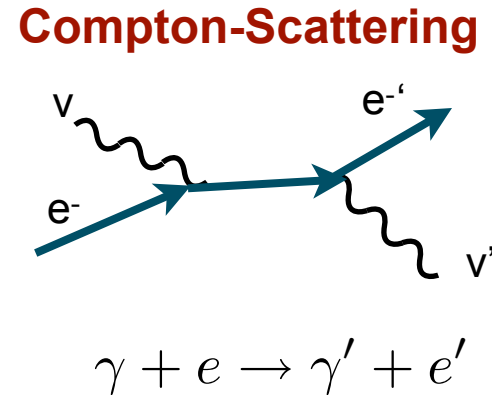
● Most dominating effects:



A γ is absorbed and photo-electron is ejected.

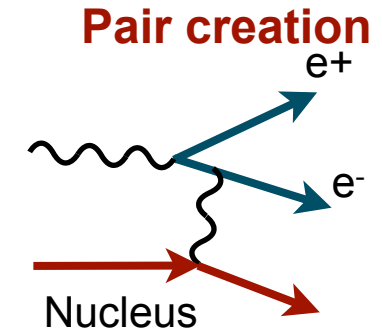
- the γ disappears,
- the photo-electron gets an energy

$$E_{p.e} = E_{\gamma} - E_{\text{binding}}$$



Elastic scattering of a photon with a free electron

$$E'_{\gamma} = \frac{1}{1 + \epsilon(1 - \cos \theta_{\gamma})}$$



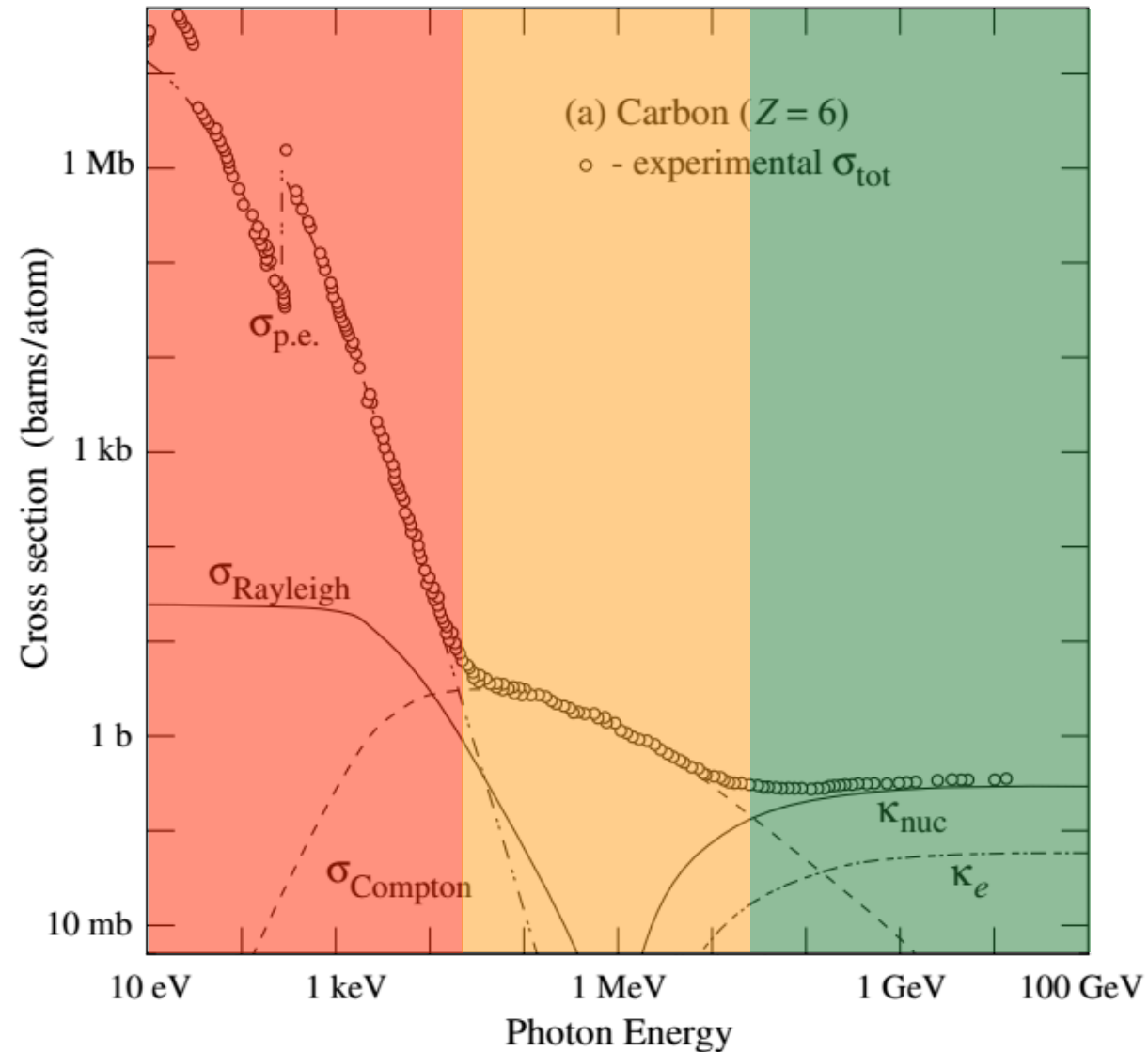
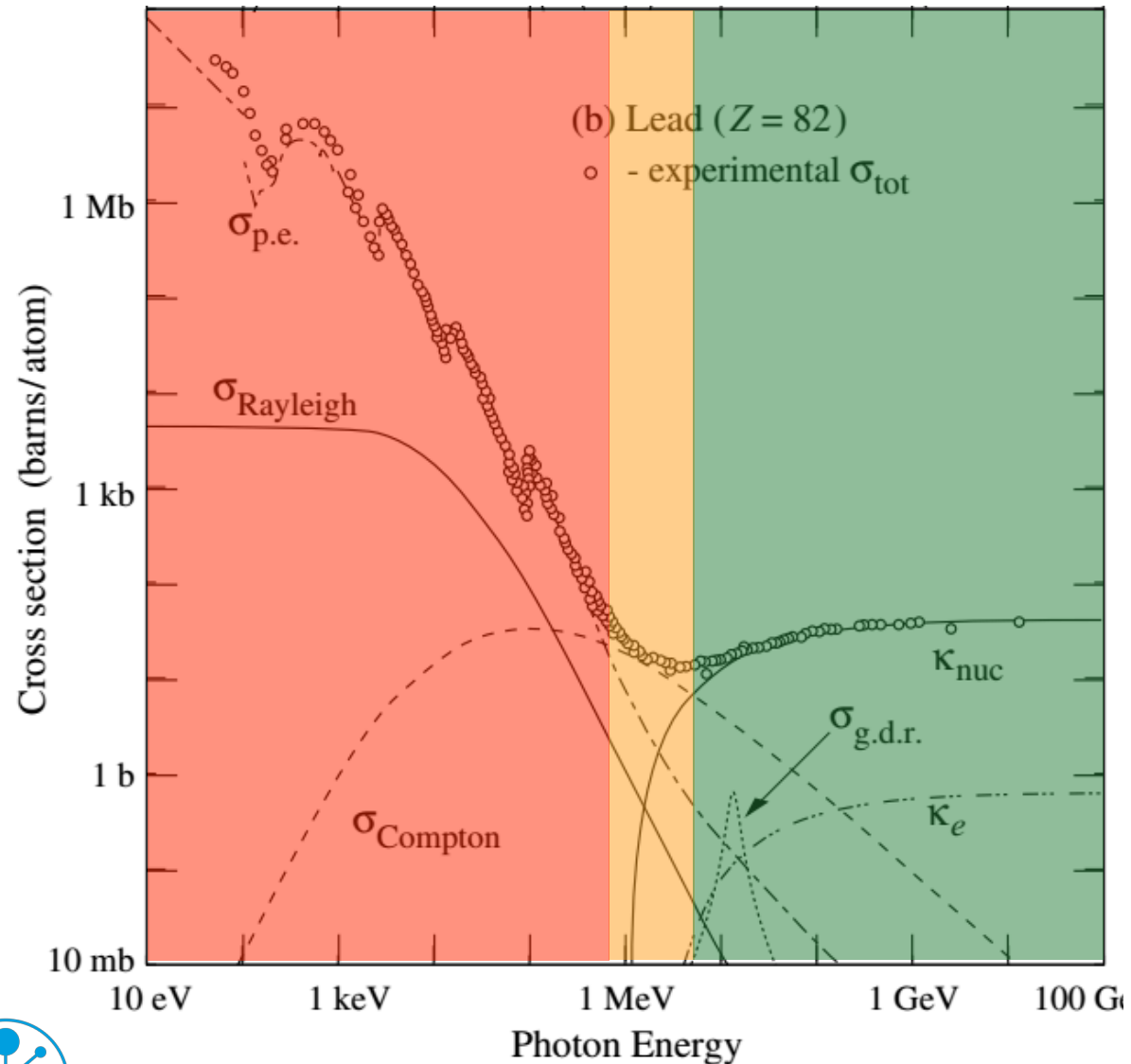
Only possible in the Coulomb field of a nucleus (or an electron) if

$$E_{\gamma} \geq 2m_e c^2 \approx 1.022 \text{ MeV}$$

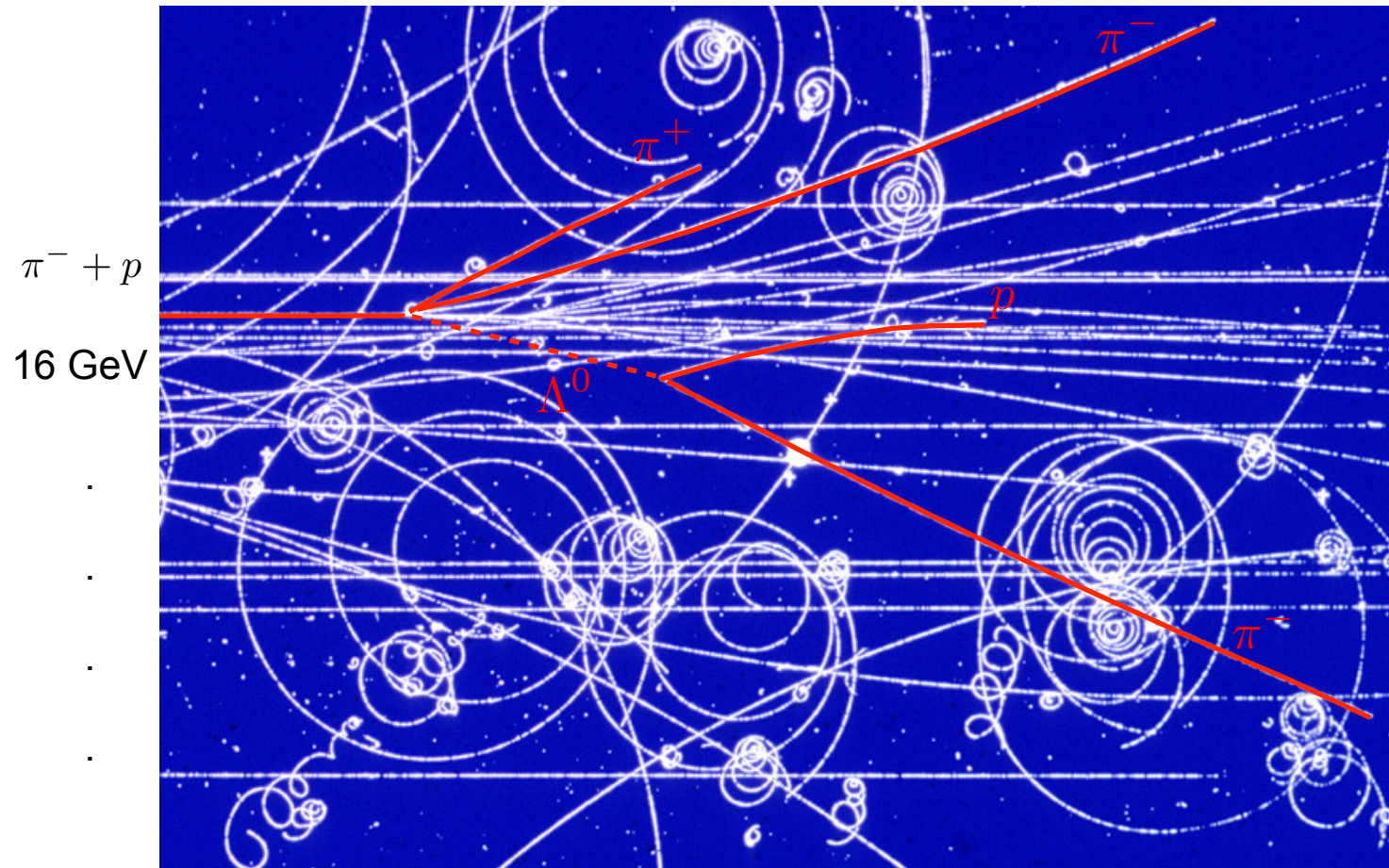
⇒ Reduction of photon intensity with passage through matter:

$$I(x) = I_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

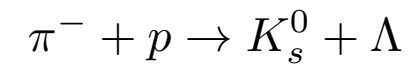
PHOTONS: CLEAR DEPENDENCE ON Z OF MATERIAL



A SHORT SUMMARY



Lifetime of lambda:
 $2.6 \cdot 10^{-10}$ sec
-> a few cm



SUMMARY PART 1

Ionisation and Excitation:

- Charged particles traversing material are **exciting and ionising** the atoms.
- Average energy loss of the incoming charged particle: good approximation described by the **Bethe Bloch** formula.
- The energy loss fluctuation is well approximated by the Landau distribution.

Multiple Scattering and Bremsstrahlung:

- Incoming particles are **scattering off** the atomic nuclei which are partially shielded by the atomic electrons.
- Measuring the particle momentum by deflection of the particle trajectory in the magnetic field, this scattering imposes a lower limit on the momentum resolution of the spectrometer.
- The deflection of the particle on the nucleus results in an acceleration that causes emission of Bremsstrahlungs-Photons. These photons in turn produced e^+e^- pairs in the vicinity of the nucleus....



OVERVIEW

I. Detectors for Particle Physics

II. Interaction with Matter

III. Tracking Detectors

- Gas detectors
- Semiconductor trackers
- Muon Detectors

IV. Calorimeters

V. Examples of what can go wrong



Sunday



Monday



Wednesday