

CHERENKOV-RADIATION

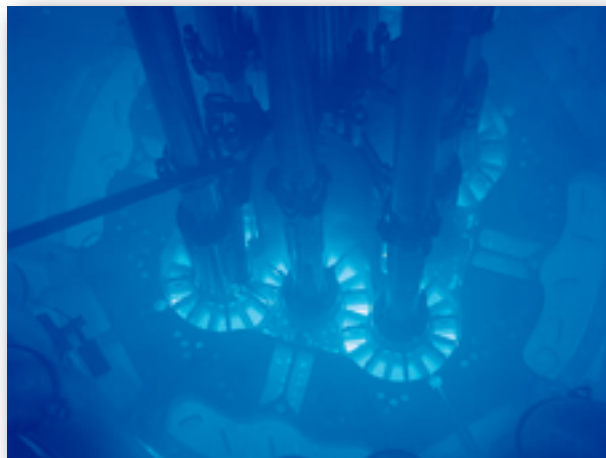
- Emission of photons when a charged particle is faster than speed of light within a medium ($n > 1$).
- Typically in transparent material: threshold
- Suitable for particle identification!
 - Only depending on β if momentum known.

Emission under a characteristic Angle:

$$\cos\theta_c = \frac{ct/n}{vt} = \frac{1}{n\beta}$$

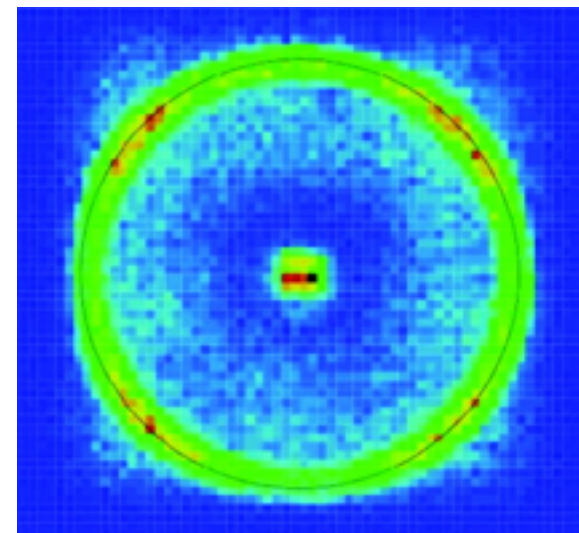
- Cherenkov angle: between 1° (air) to 45° (quartz).
- Number of photons is small \rightarrow good detectors are needed for the detection.

Pic: Idaho National Lab



PIC: NASA

“Sonic boom for charged particles”



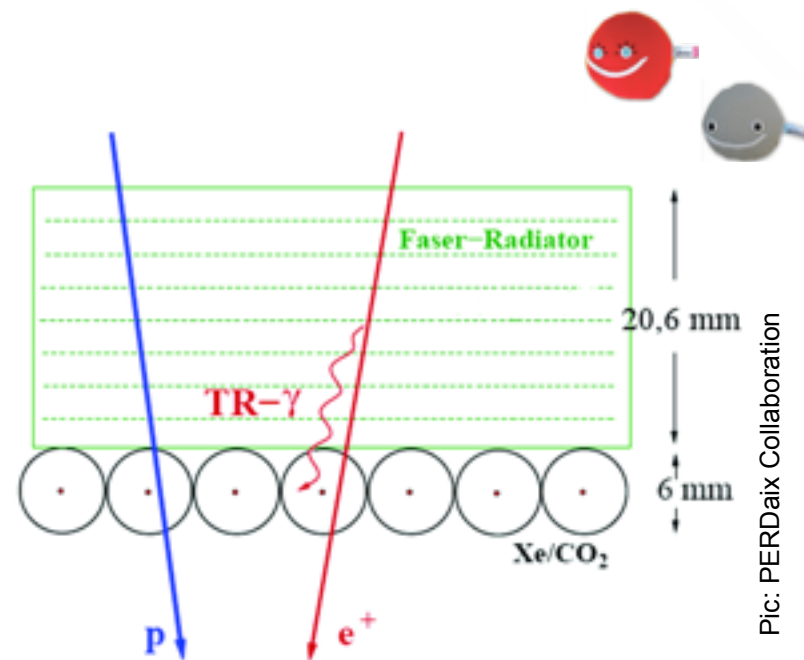
NIM A, 613 (2010), p. 195

Cherenkov ring recorded by an array of silicon photomultipliers (pions).

TRANSITION RADIATION

Transition Radiation

- is produced by relativistic charged particles when they cross the interface of two media of different refraction indices
 - can be explained by re-arrangement of electric field
 - significant radiation only at large γ ($O \sim 1000$) in the keV range. Very useful for electron/pion separation
-
- Energy loss at a boundary is proportional to the relativistic gamma factor.
 - A significant amount of transition radiation is produced for a gamma greater than 1000.
 - Gamma factor of protons is, up to a momentum of 5GeV, still in the order of 10.
 - Positron's gamma is greater than 1000 starting at 0.5GeV momentum.



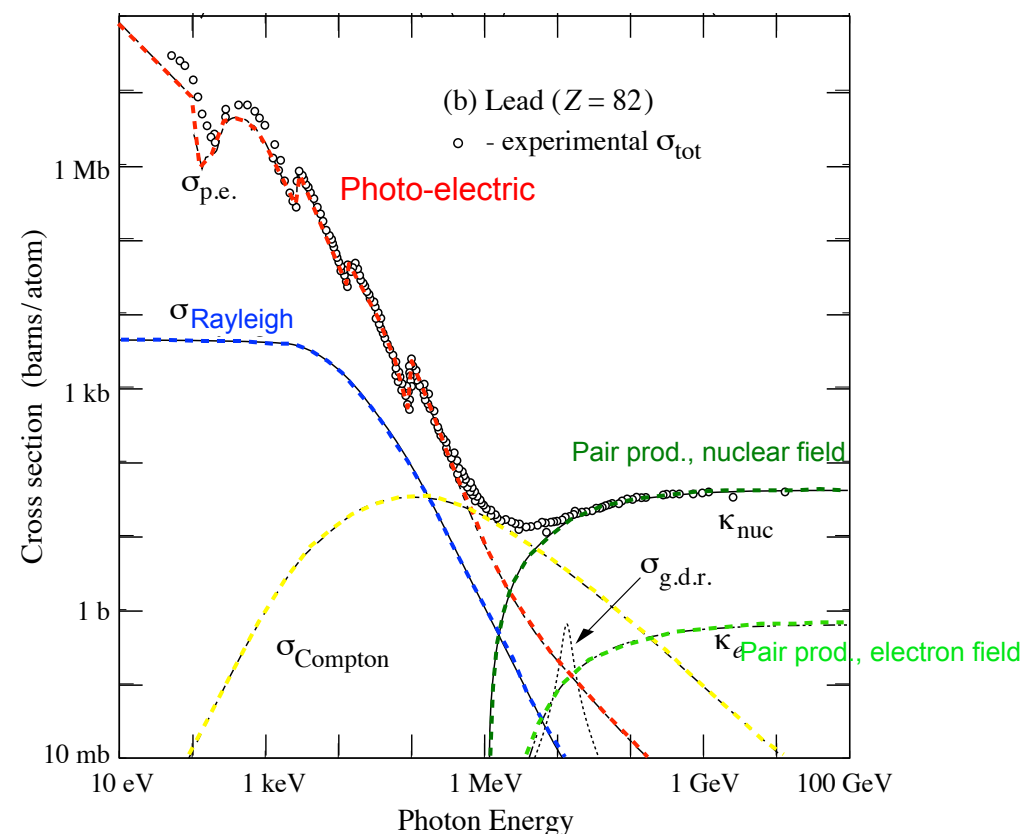
Both effects are not really contributing to the energy loss of the particles!

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 6 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

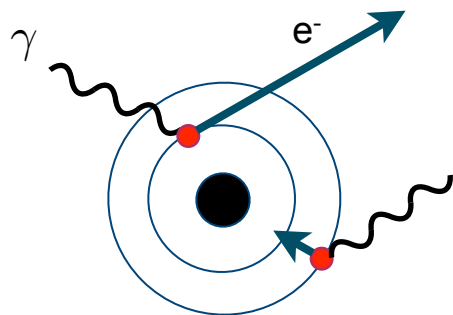


PHOTONS: INTERACTIONS



Most dominating effects:

Photo-Effect

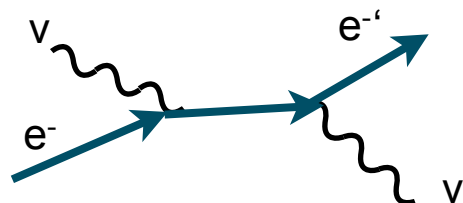


A γ is absorbed and photo-electron is ejected.

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

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

Compton-Scattering

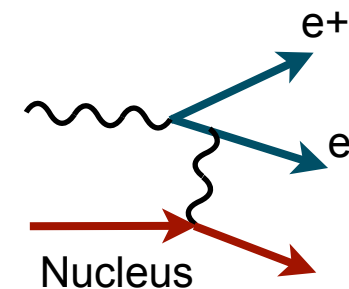


$$\gamma + e \rightarrow \gamma' + e'$$

Elastic scattering of a photon with a free electron

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

Pair creation



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

$$E_{\gamma} \geq 2m_e c^2$$

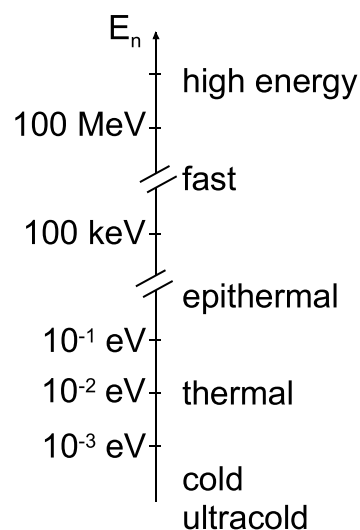
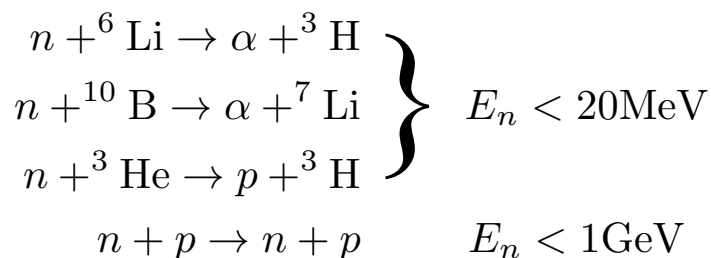
~1.022 MeV

⇒ Reduction of photon intensity with passage through matter:

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

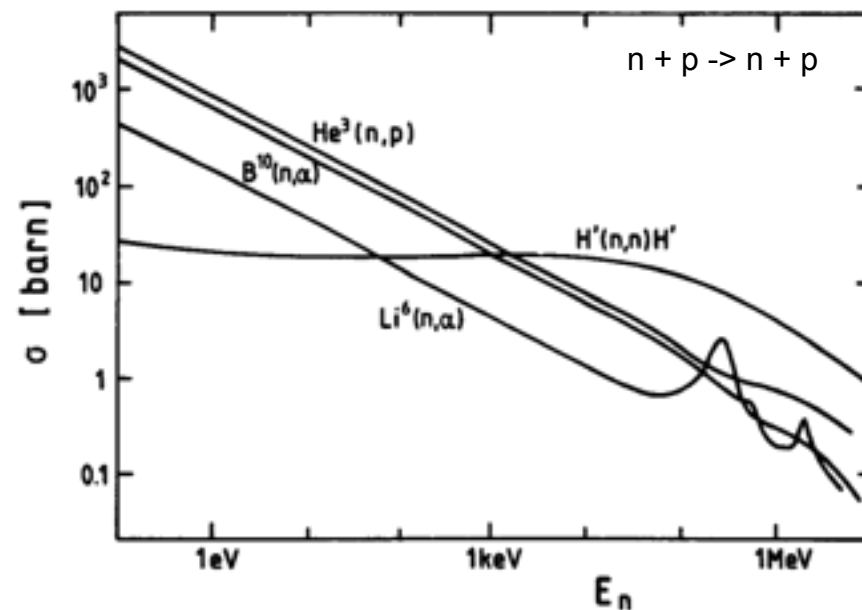
INTERACTIONS OF NEUTRONS

- Neutron interaction is based only on strong (and weak) nuclear force.
- To detect neutrons, one has to create charged particles.
- Possible neutron conversion and elastic reactions ...



In addition there are...

- inelastic reactions \rightarrow hadronic cascades $E_n > 1 \text{ GeV}$
- same detection principals as for other hadrons (calorimeter)

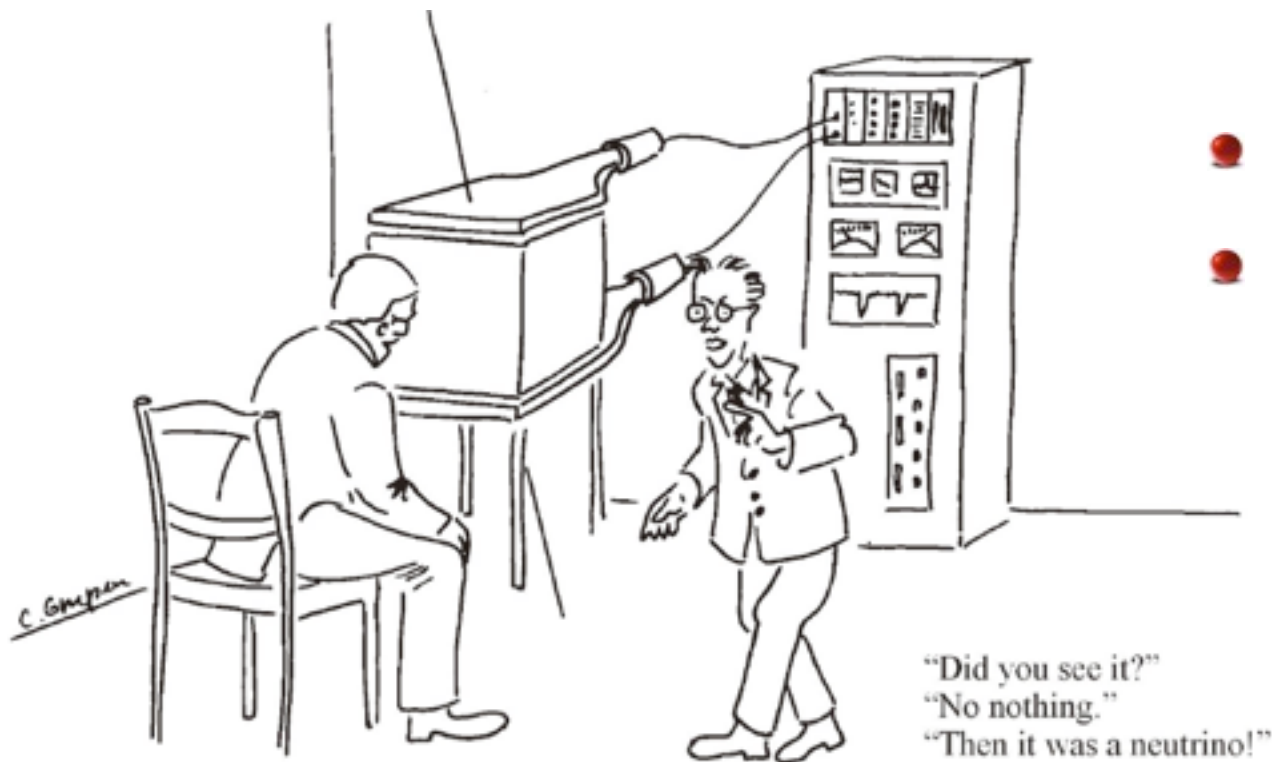


Plot: H. Neuert, Kernphysikalische Messverfahren, 1966

A SHORT WORD ON NEUTRINOS...



Claus Grupen, Particle Detectors, Cambridge Uni. Press 1996



- Neutrons react very weakly with matter
- Cross section for $\nu + n \rightarrow e^- + p$ is around 10^{-43} cm^2 .
- 1m Iron: probability 10^{-17}

- In collider experiments fully hermetic detectors allow indirect detection
 - Sum up all visible energy and momentum in detector
 - Missing energy and momentum belong to neutrino(s)

SUMMARY PART 1

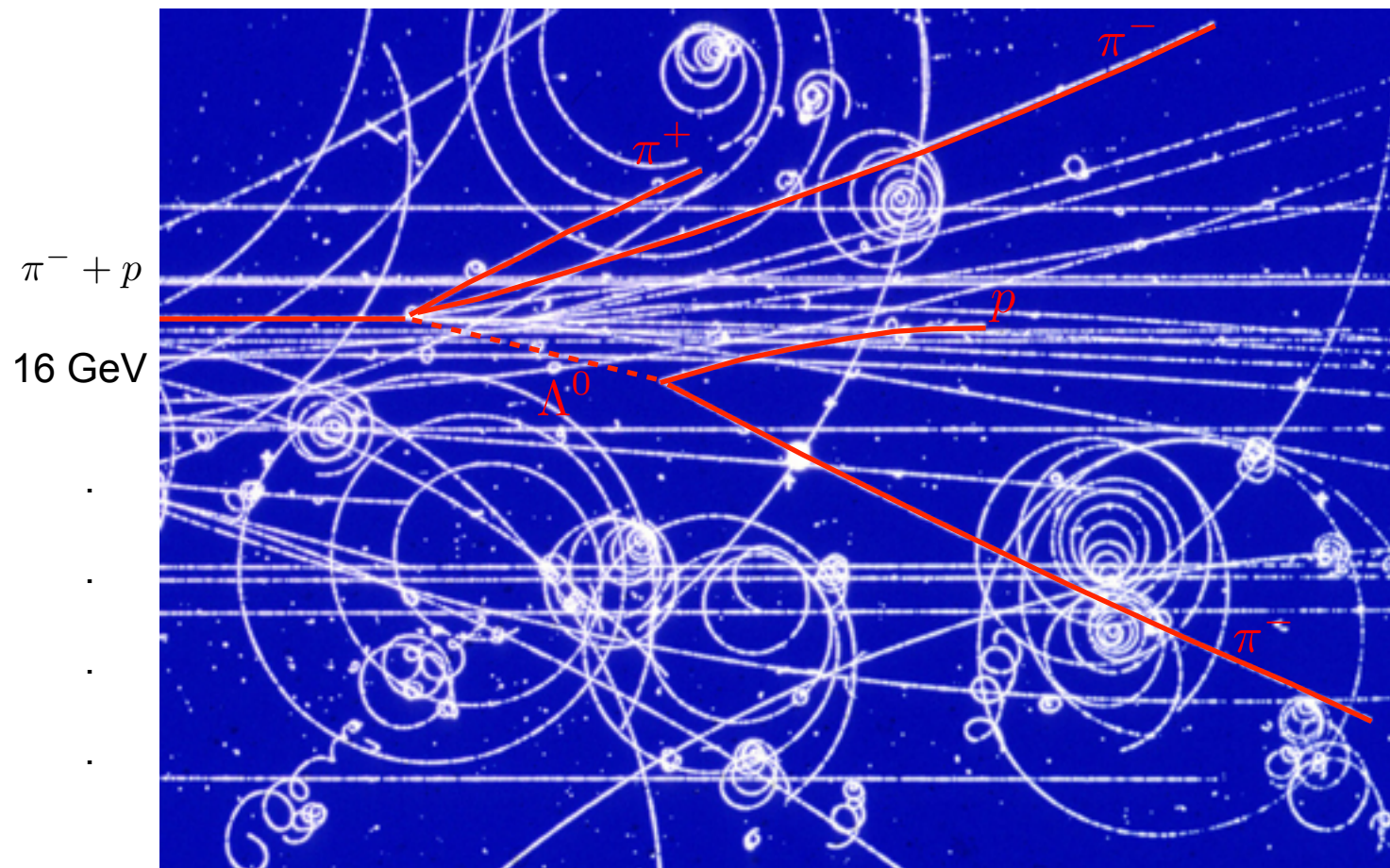
Ionisation and Excitation:

- 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....

A SHORT SUMMARY



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

$$\pi^- + p \rightarrow K_s^0 + \Lambda$$



OVERVIEW

I. Detectors for Particle Physics

II. Interaction with Matter

III. Calorimeters

IV. Tracking Detectors

● Gas detectors

● Semiconductor trackers

V. Examples from the real life

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Thursday

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Wednesday

III. CALORIMETERS

CALORIMETRY



CALORIMETRY: THE IDEA BEHIND IT

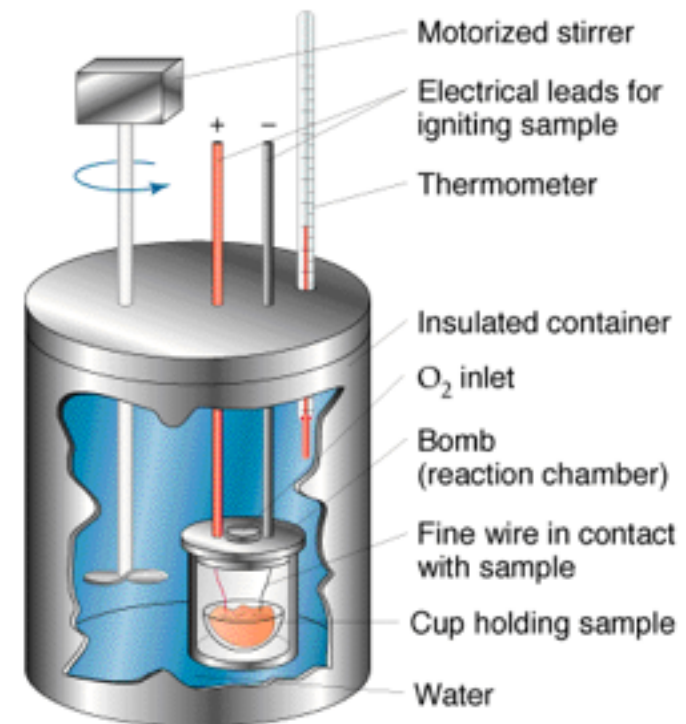


Ice-calorimeter from Antoine Lavoisier's 1789 *Elements of Chemistry*.

- Calorimetry originated in thermo-dynamics
- The total energy released within a chemical reaction can be measured by measuring the temperature difference
- In particle physics:
 - Measurement of the energy of a particle by measuring the total absorption

- What is the effect of a 1 GeV particle in 1 litre water (at 20°C)?

$$\Delta T = E / (c \cdot M_{\text{water}}) = 3.8 \cdot 10^{-14} \text{K} !$$



Picture: Francois G. Amar

CALORIMETRY: OVERVIEW

- Basic mechanism for calorimetry in particle physics:
 - formation of electromagnetic or hadronic showers.
- The energy is converted into ionisation or excitation of the matter.

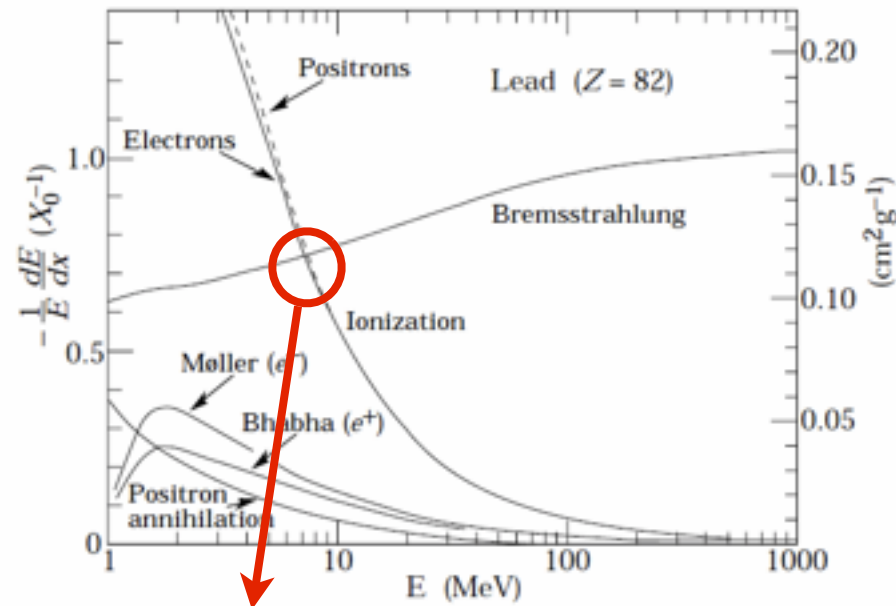


- Calorimetry is a “destructive” method. The energy and the particle get absorbed!
- Detector response $\propto E$
- Calorimetry works both for charged (e^\pm and hadrons) and neutral particles (n, γ) !

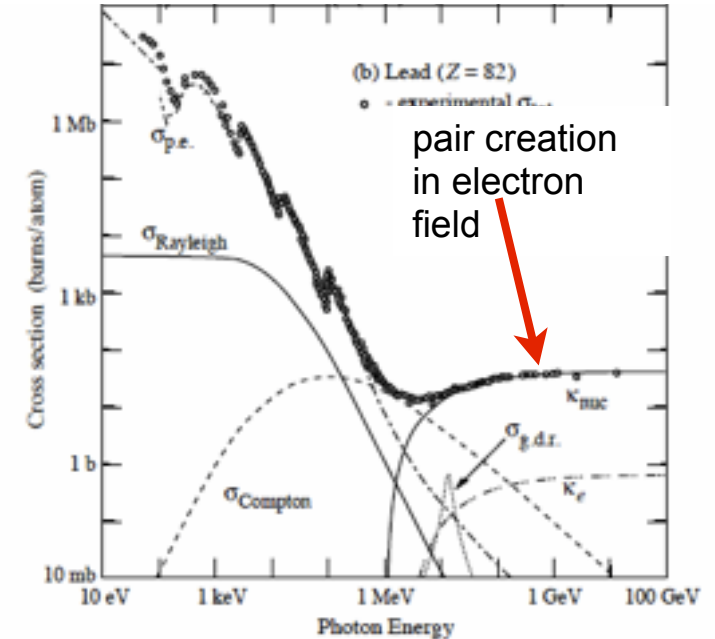


REMINDER

Electrons



Photons



- **Critical energy:** the energy at which the losses due to ionisation and Bremsstrahlung are equal
- **Radiation length** defines the amount of material a particle has to travel through until the energy of an electron is reduced by Bremsstrahlung to $1/e$ of its original energy

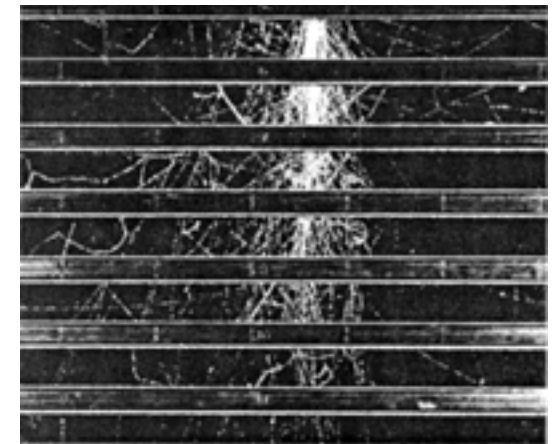
$$\langle E_e(x) \rangle \propto e^{\frac{x}{X_0}}$$

empirical:
$$X_0 = \frac{716.4 A}{Z(1+Z) \ln(287/\sqrt{Z})} \frac{g}{cm^2} \propto \frac{A}{Z^2}$$

ELECTROMAGNETIC SHOWERS

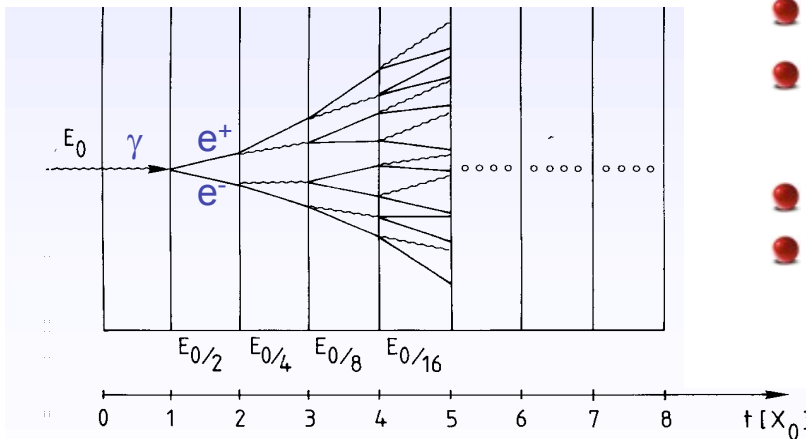


Cloud chamber photo of electromagnetic cascade between spaced lead plates.



Pic: MIT cosmic ray group

- High energetic particles: forming a shower if passing through (enough) matter.
- An alternating sequence of interactions leads to a cascade:
 - Primary γ with E_0 energy produces e^+e^- pair with 54% probability in layer X_0 thick
 - On average, each has $E_0/2$ energy
 - If $E_0/2 > E_c$, they lose energy by Bremsstrahlung



- Next layer X_0 , charged particle energy decreases to $E_0/(2e)$
- Bremsstrahlung with an average energy between $E_0/(2e)$ and $E_0/2$ is radiated
- Radiated γ s produce again pairs
- After t radiation lengths
 - number of particles
 - each with average energy

$$N \simeq 2^t$$

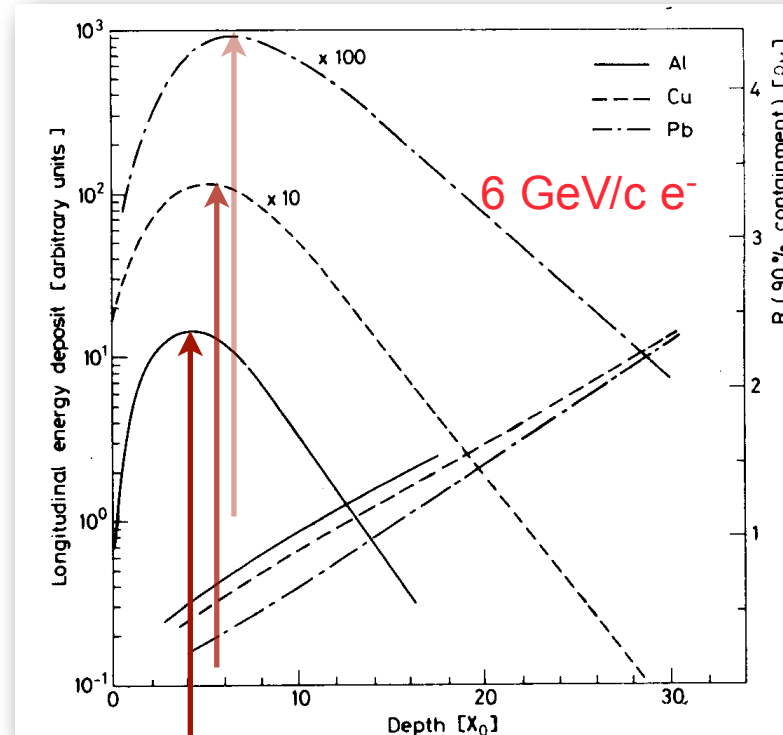
$$E_N \simeq \frac{E_0}{2^t}$$

EM SHOWER PROPERTIES

- Shower continues until energy of particles below critical energy.

$$E(t_{max}) = \frac{E_0}{2^{t_{max}}} = E_c$$

$$t_{max} = \frac{\ln \frac{E_0}{E_c}}{\ln 2} \quad N_{max} \simeq \frac{E_0}{E_c}$$



Shower maximum at t_{max}

- Simple model only, for more details MC simulation required.
- Shower curve should rise rapidly to a peak value and then fall to zero.
- The broad peak of the experimental curve can be interpreted in terms of a **energy spread** of the incoming particles.
- Long tail due to **muon interactions** producing knock-on electrons capable of making a contribution to the cascade process.

EM SHOWER PROPERTIES

- Longitudinal development governed by the radiation length X_0 .
- Lateral spread due to electron undergoing multiple Coulomb scattering:
 - 95% of the shower cone is located in a cylinder with radius $2 R_M$
 - Beyond this point, electrons are increasingly affected by multiple scattering
- Lateral width scales with the **Molière radius R_M**
 - Important parameter for shower separation

$$R_M = X_0 \frac{E_s}{E_c} = 21.2 \text{ MeV} * \frac{X_0}{E_c}$$

$$E_s = m_e c^2 \sqrt{4\pi/\alpha} = 21.2 \text{ MeV}$$

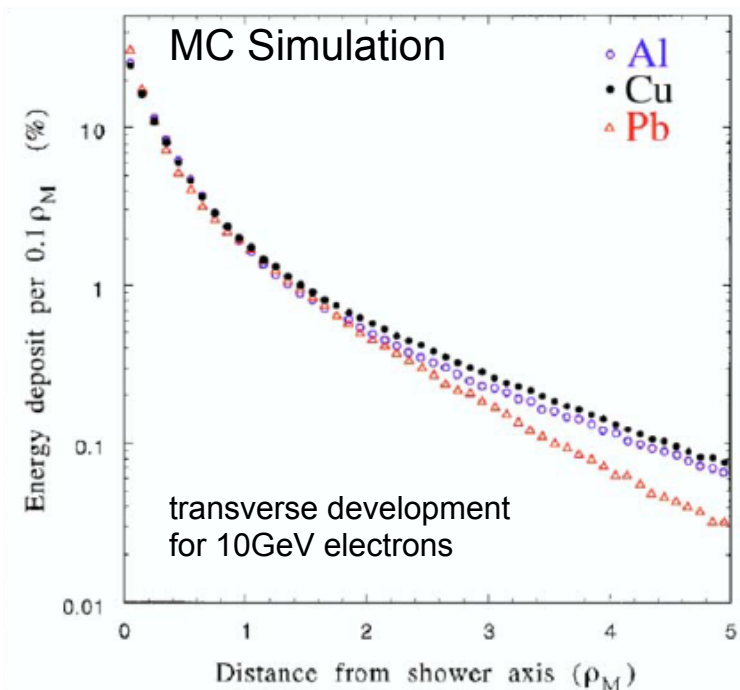
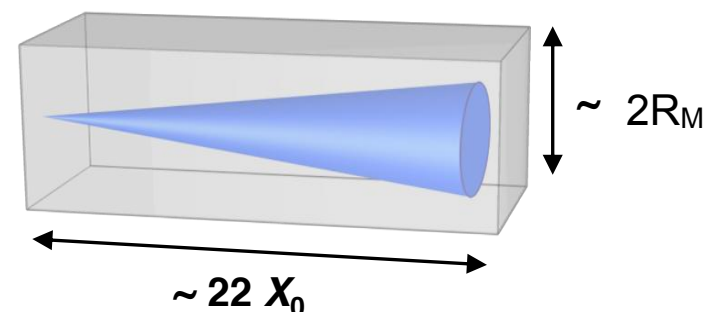
Example:

$E_0 = 100 \text{ GeV}$

in lead glass $E_c = 11.8 \text{ MeV}$

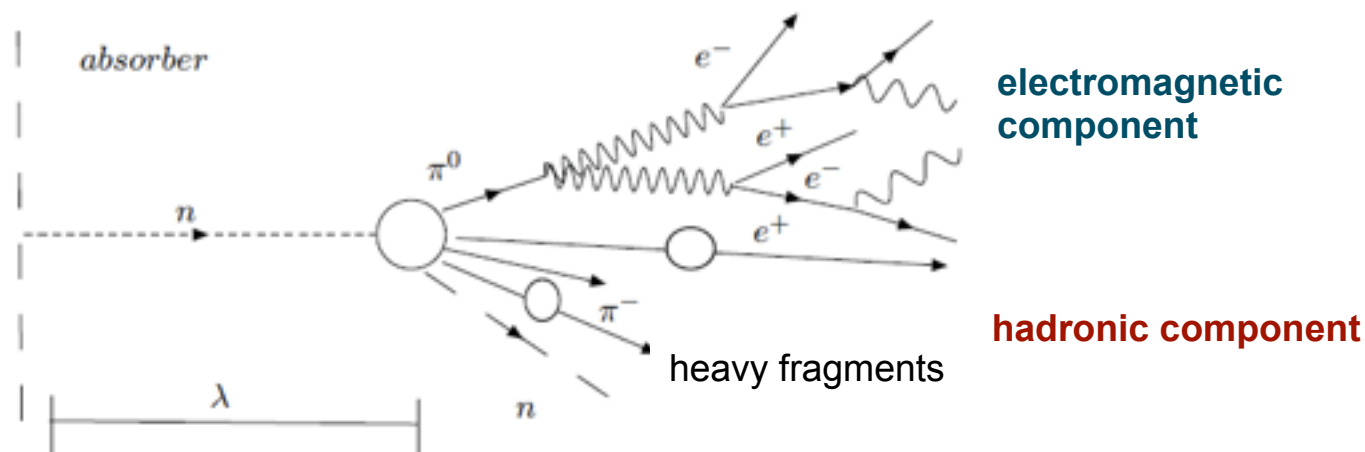
$\rightarrow N_c \approx 13, t_{95\%} \approx 23$

$X_0 \approx 2 \text{ cm}, R_M = 1.8 \cdot X_0 \approx 3.6 \text{ cm}$



HADRONIC CASCADE

- Within the calorimeter material a hadronic cascade is build up: in inelastic nuclear processes more hadrons are created



The length scale of the shower is given in means of the nuclear reaction length λ_l

$$\lambda_l = \frac{A}{N_A \sigma_{total}}$$

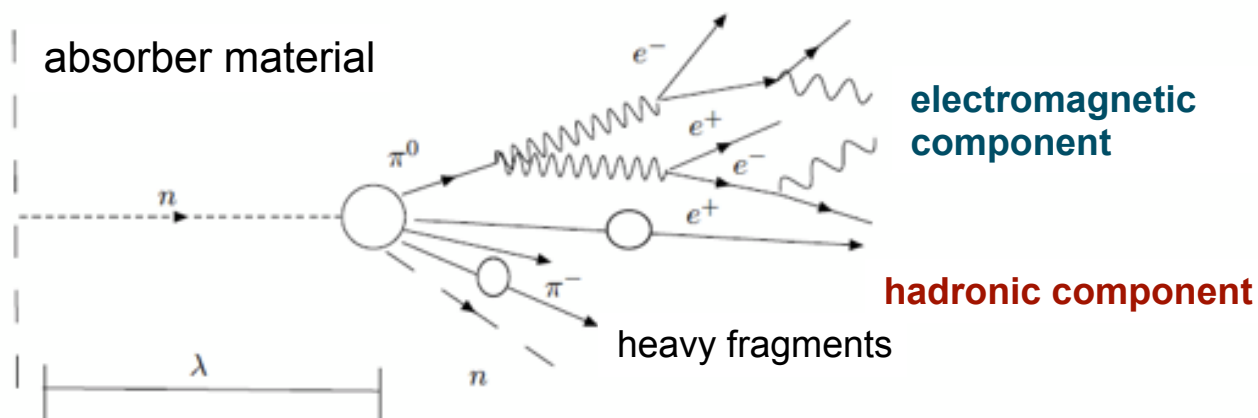
↑ total cross section for nuclear processes

Compare X_0 for high-Z materials, we see that the size needed for hadron calorimeters is large compared to EM calorimeters.

	λ_l	X_0
Polystyren	81.7 cm	43.8 cm
PbWO	20.2 cm	0.9 cm
Fe	16.7 cm	1.8 cm
W	9.9 cm	0.35 cm

HADRONIC CASCADE: THE DETAILS

Pic: T. Ferbel. Experimental Techniques in High Energy Physics.



Hadronic showers are way more complicated than em showers.

- Different processes are created by the impinging hadron:
 - high energetic secondary hadrons taking a significant part of the momentum of the primary particle [e.g. $O(\text{GeV})$]
 - a significant part of the total energy is transferred into nuclear processes: nuclear excitation, spallation, ... \Rightarrow Particles in the MeV range
 - neutral pions (1/3 of all pions), decay instantaneously into two photons \Rightarrow start of em showers
 - Breaking up of nuclei (binding energy) neutrons, neutrinos, soft γ 's, muons

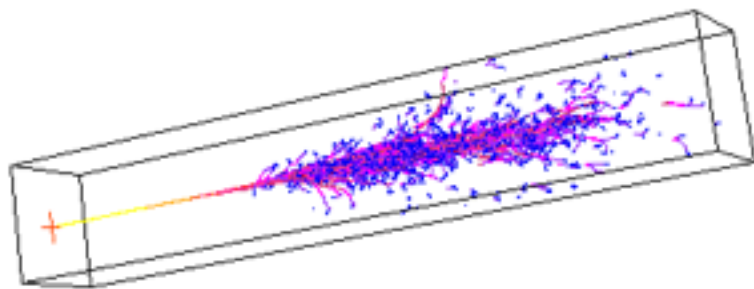
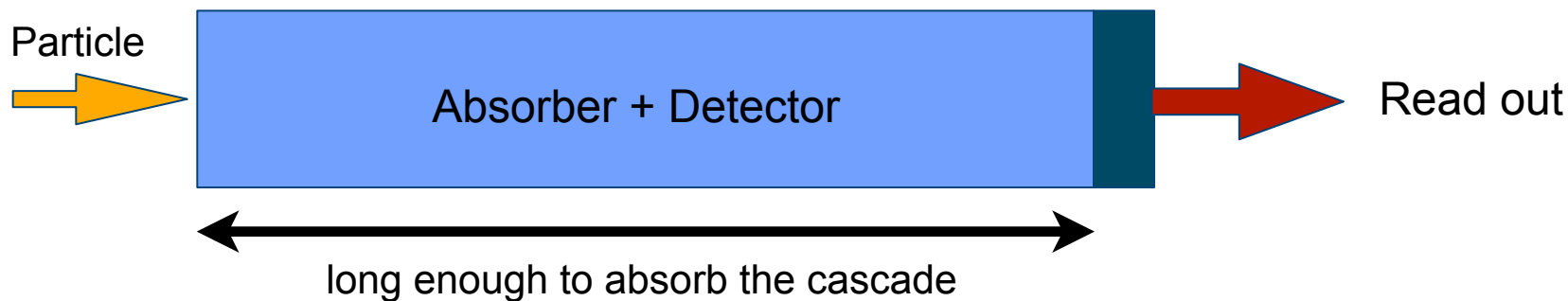
invisible energy
 \rightarrow large energy fluctuations
 \rightarrow limited energy resolution

CALORIMETER TYPES

- Two different types of calorimeters are commonly used: Homogeneous and Sampling Calorimeter

- Homogeneous Calorimeter**

- The absorber material is active; the overall deposited energy is converted into a detector signal
- Pro: very good energy resolution
- Contra: segmentation difficult, selection of material is limited, difficult to built compact calorimeters

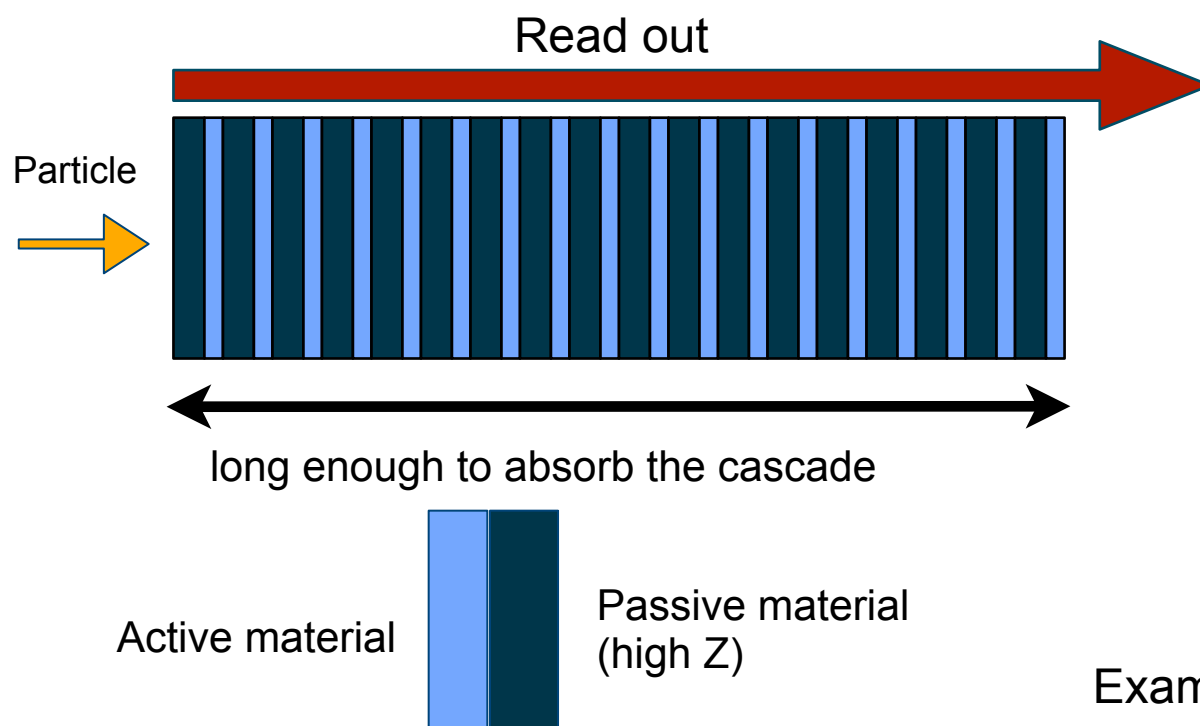


Example: Crystal calorimeter

SAMPLING CALORIMETER

Sampling Calorimeter

- A layer structure of passive material and an active detector material; only a fraction of the deposited energy is “registered”
- Pro: Segmentation (transversal and lateral), compact detectors by the usage of dense materials (tungsten, uranium,...)
- Contra: Energy resolution is limited by fluctuations



Important parameter:
Sampling Fraction

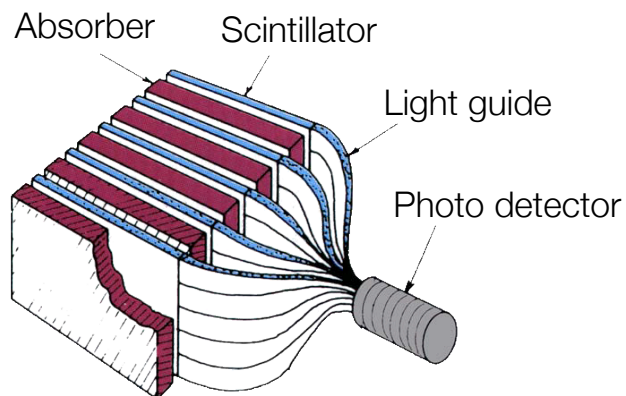
The fraction of the energy of a passing particle seen by the active material.

Typically in the percent range

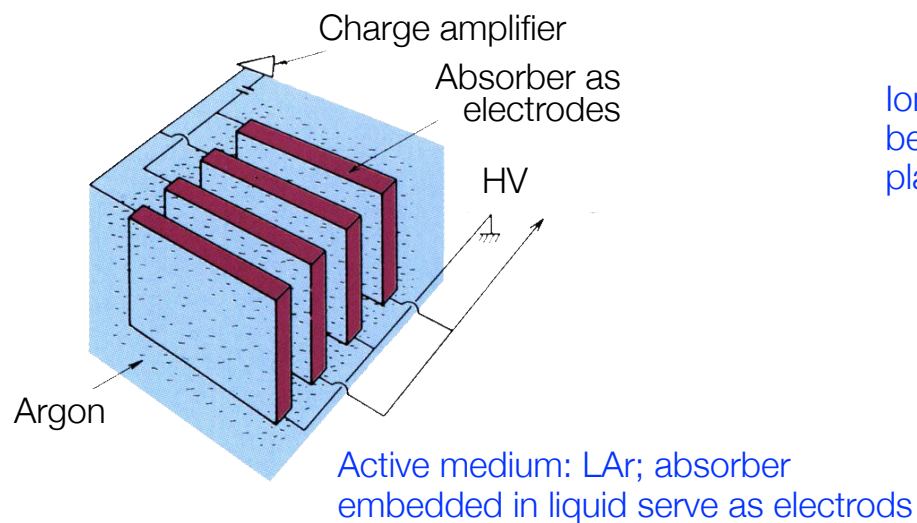
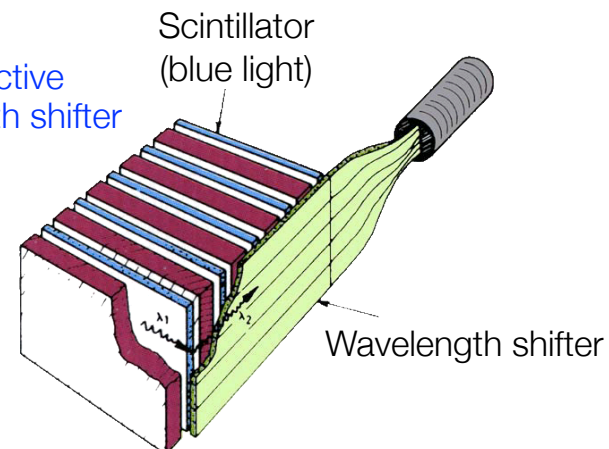
Example: ZEUS Uranium Calorimeter

SAMPLING CALOS: POSSIBLE SETUPS

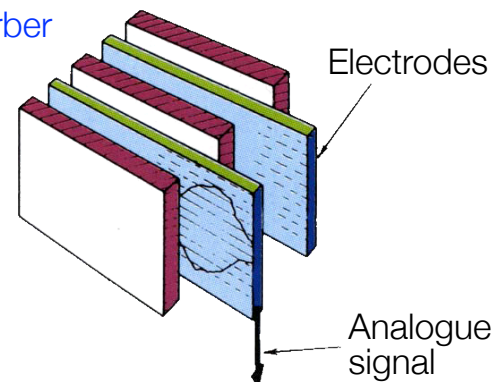
Scintillators as active layer;
signal readout via photo multipliers



Scintillators as active layer; wave length shifter to convert light



Ionization chambers between absorber plates



CALORIMETER: IMPORTANT PARAMETER (1)

- The relative **energy resolution** of a calorimeter is parametrised:

$$\left(\frac{\Delta E}{E}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{c_s}{\sqrt{E}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{c_n}{E}\right)^2 + (c_c)^2$$

- Stochastic term c_s**

- the resolution depends on intrinsic shower fluctuations, photoelectron statistics, dead material in front of calo, and sampling fluctuations

- Noise term c_n**

- Electronic noise, radioactivity, i.e. dependent of the energy

- Constant term c_c**

- Energy independent term contributing to the resolution: due to inhomogeneities with in the detector sensitivity, calibration uncertainties and radiation damage

Losses of Resolution:

- Shower not contained** in detector → fluctuation of leakage energy; longitudinal losses are worse than transverse leakage.
- Statistical fluctuations** in number of photoelectrons observed in detector.
- Sampling fluctuations** if the counter is layered with inactive absorber.
-

10 minutes coffee break !

