

DETECTORS FOR HIGH ENERGY PHYSICS

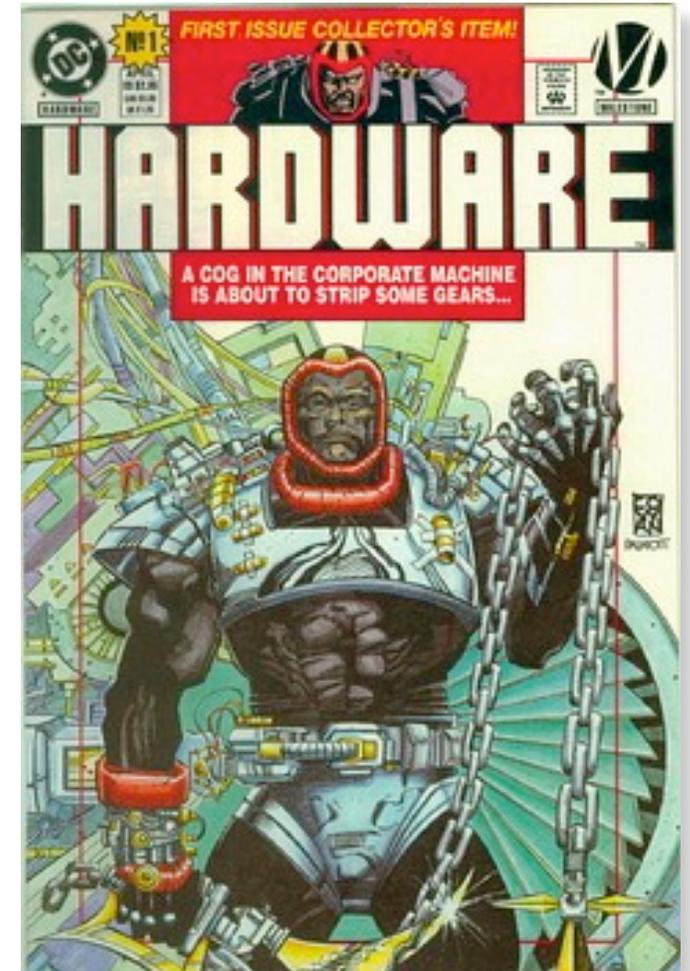
Part 1



Ingrid-Maria Gregor
DESY/Universität Bonn
Summerstudents 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. Calorimeters

IV. Tracking Detectors

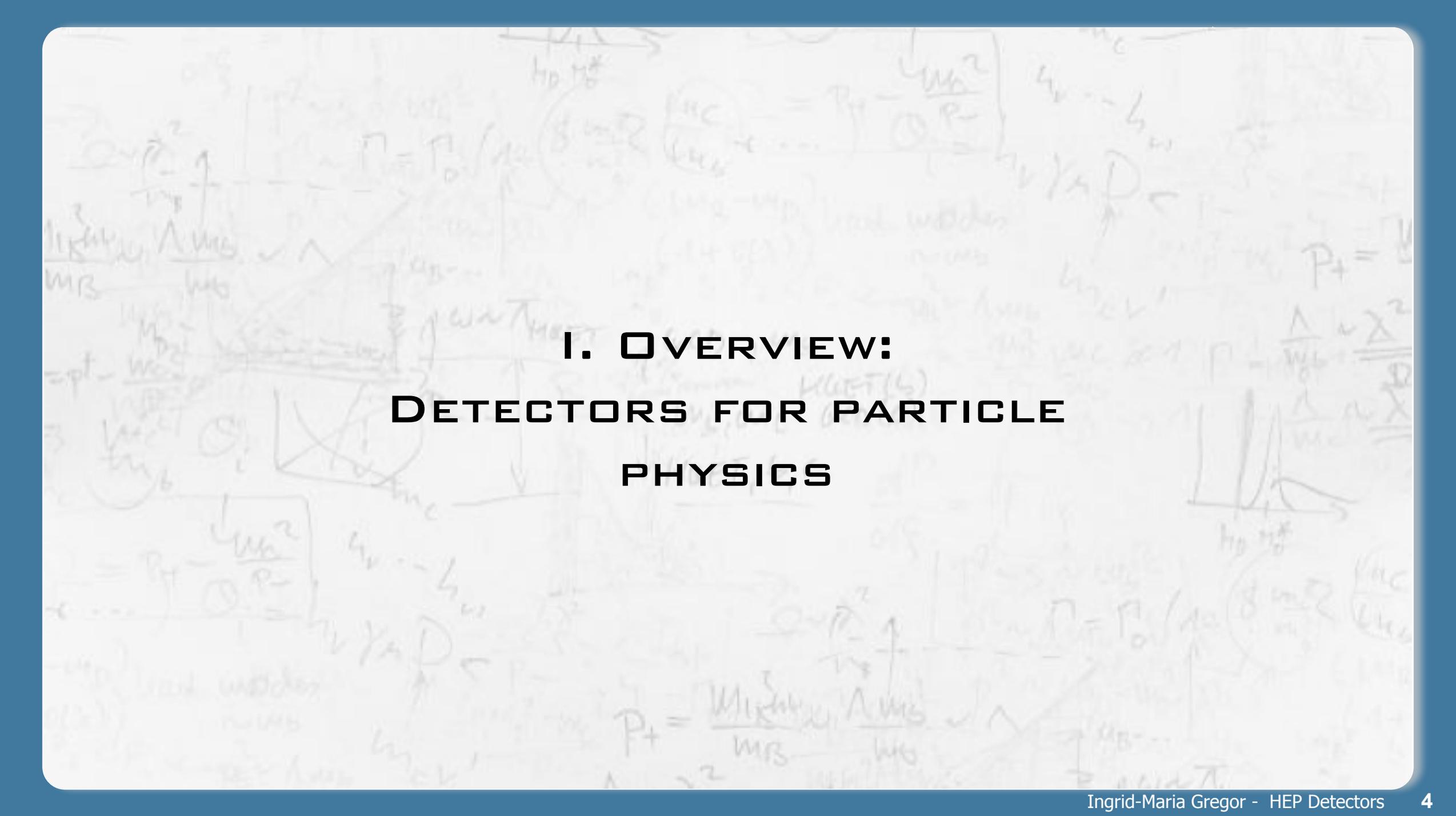
- Gas detectors
- Semiconductor trackers

V. Examples from the real life



Tuesday

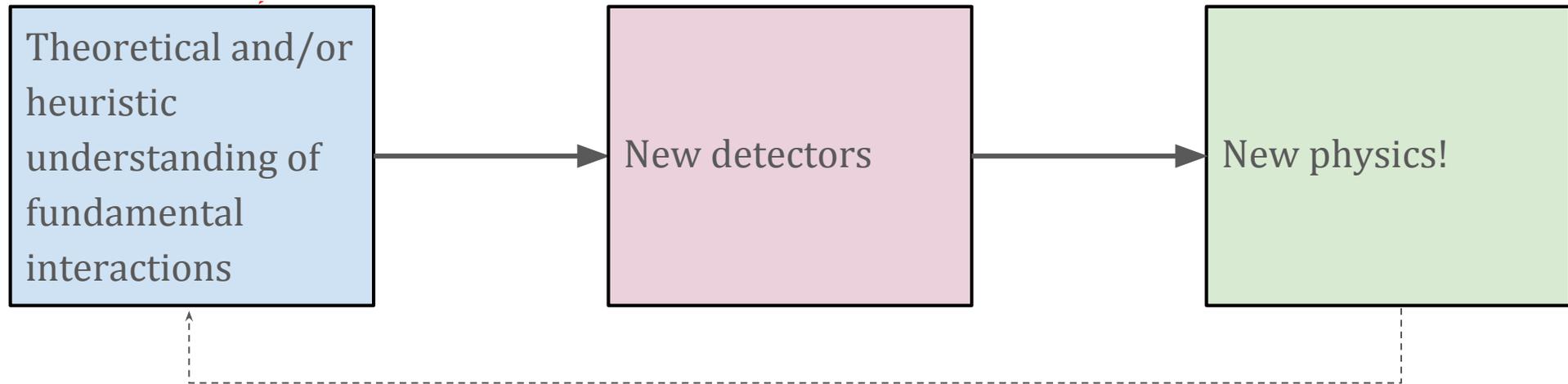
Wednesday

The background of the slide is filled with faint, handwritten physics notes and diagrams. These include mathematical expressions such as $E = mc^2$, $P = mv$, and $F = ma$, as well as various geometric shapes and arrows. The text is written in a cursive style and is mostly illegible due to its low opacity and the complexity of the handwriting. The overall appearance is that of a student's notebook page.

I. OVERVIEW: DETECTORS FOR PARTICLE PHYSICS

WHY STUDY DETECTOR PHYSICS ?

- Particle and nuclear physics discoveries are driven by **detector innovation**.
- And you need *fundamental understanding* to drive innovation



Instruments = Detectors

for particle physics / photon science / medicine / societal applications

- what is the underlying principle
- how do they work
- how precise can they measure

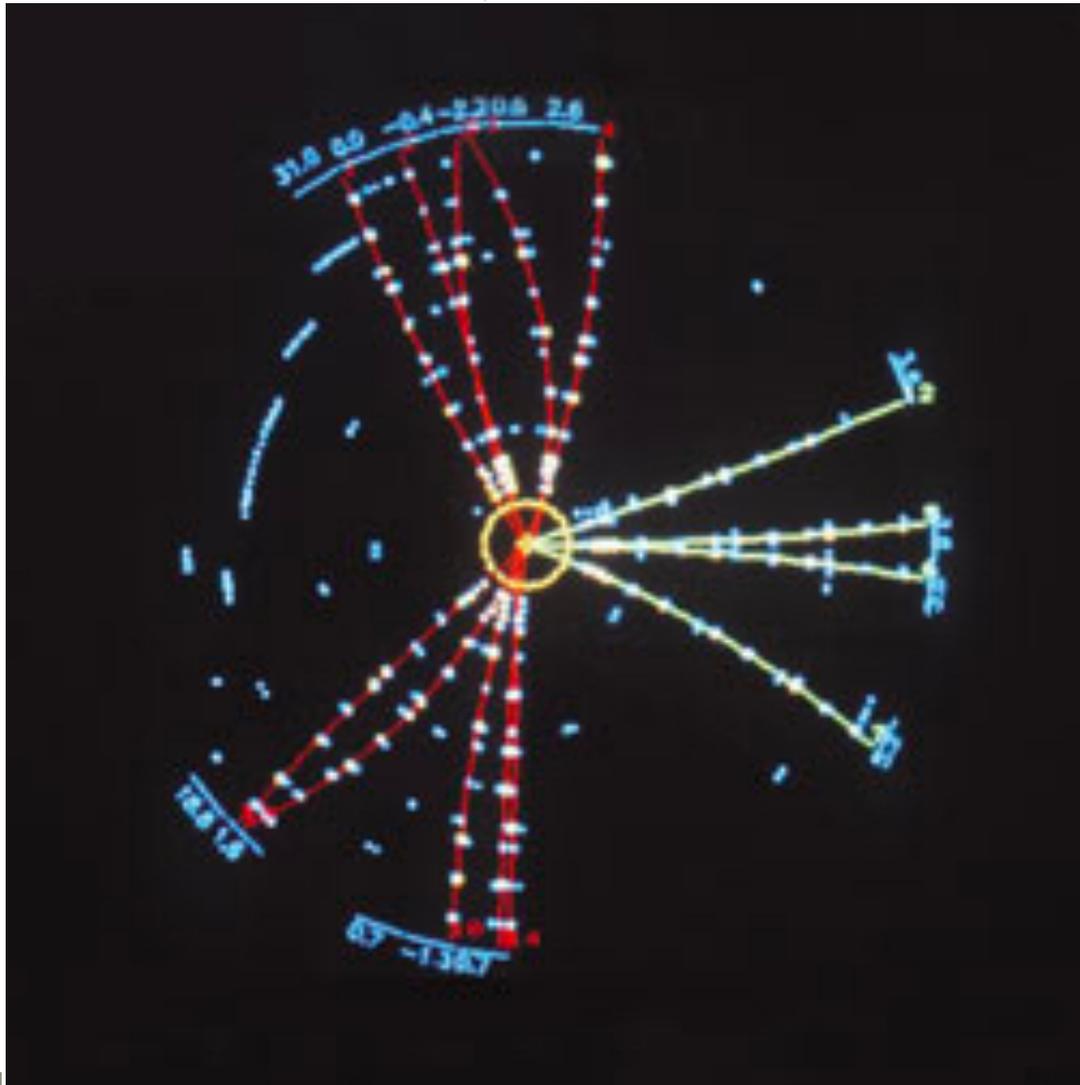
DISCOVERY OF NEUTRAL CURRENTS

Gargamelle, 1972



DISCOVERY OF THE GLUON

18.06.1979

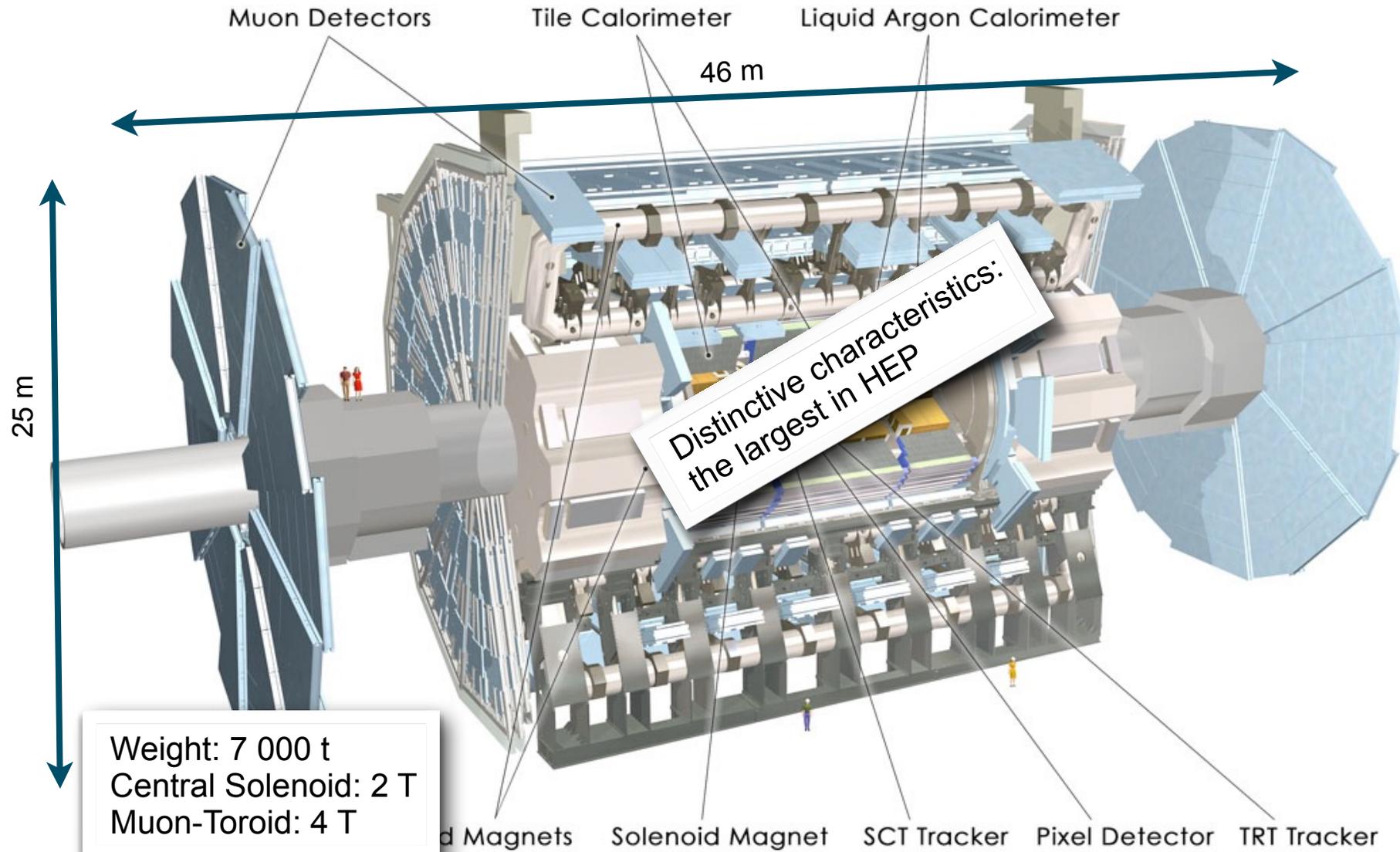


- Field theory predicted that the outgoing quarks radiate field quanta (gluons)
-> 3 jet events

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



ATLAS@LHC



ATLAS CROSS SECTION

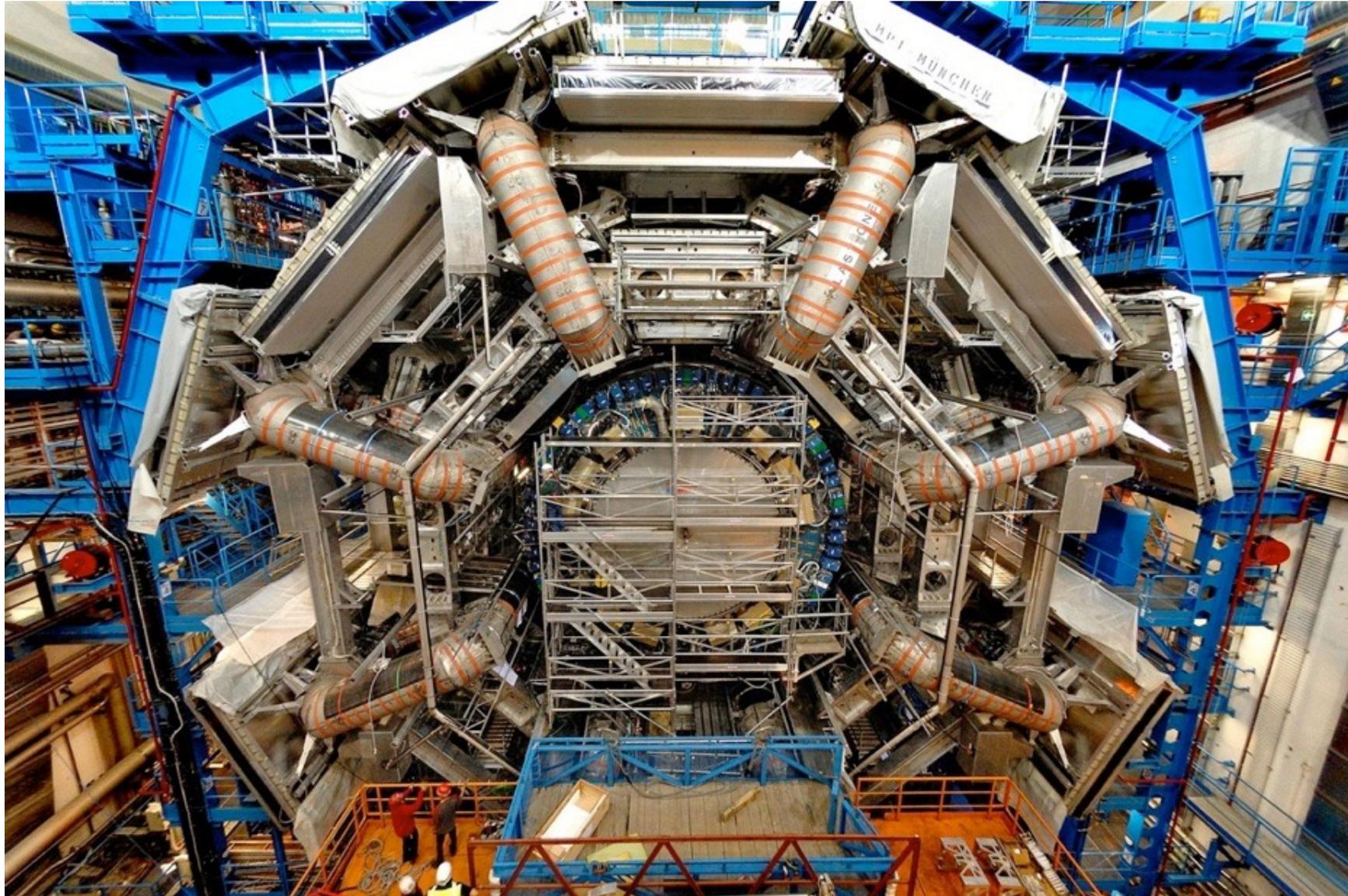
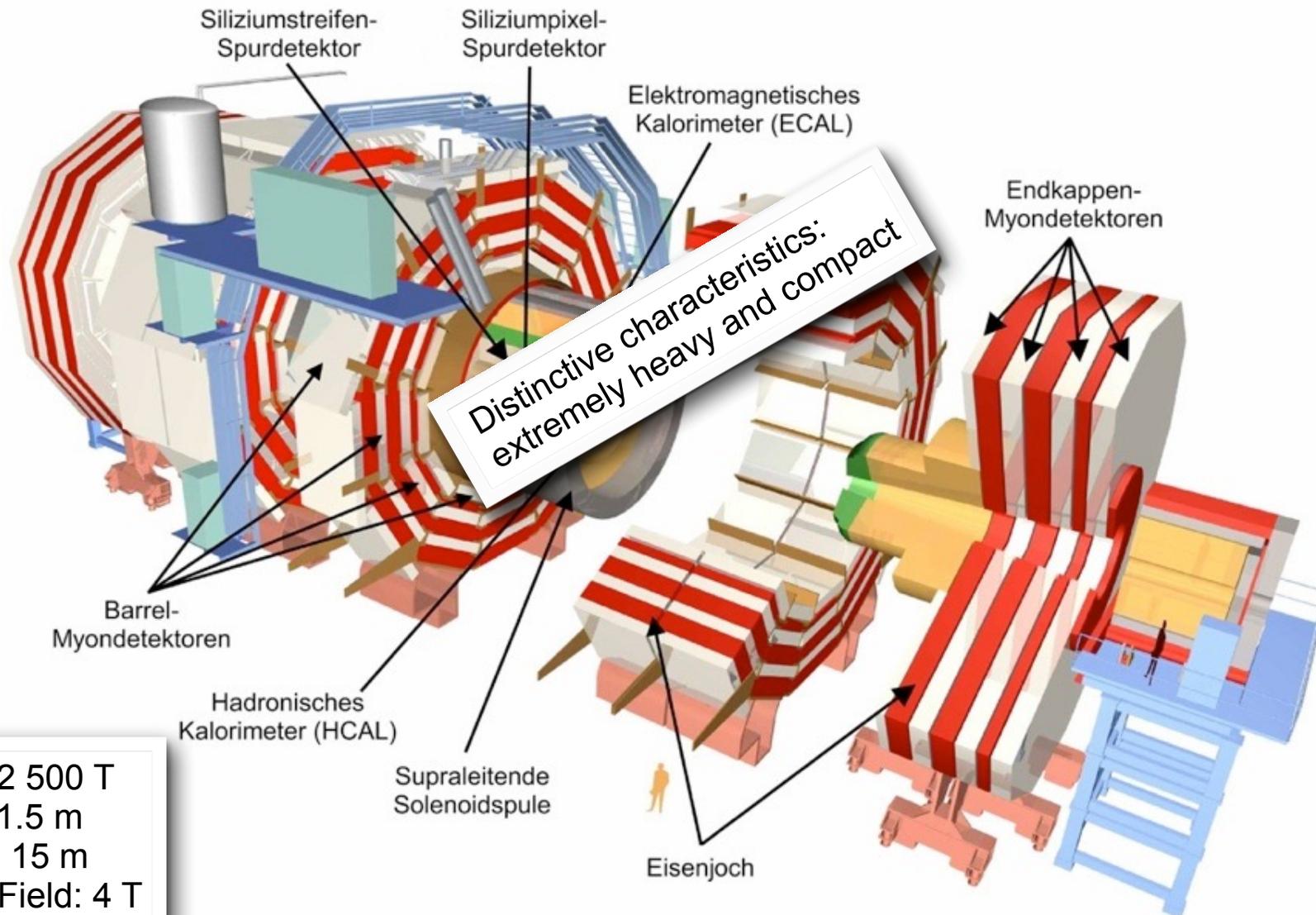


Foto: CERN



UNI

BONN



Distinctive characteristics:
extremely heavy and compact

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

CMS CROSS SECTION

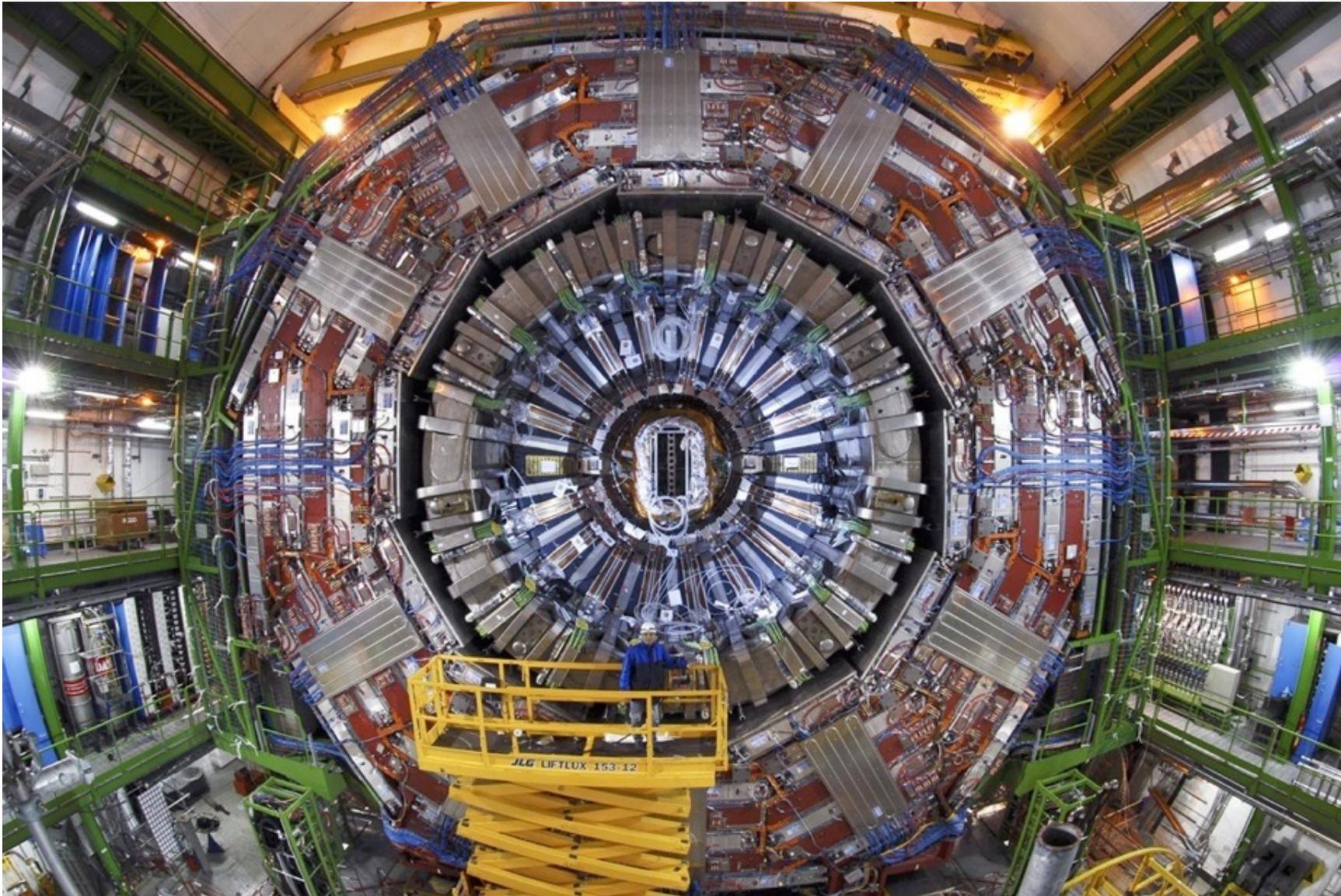


Foto: CERN



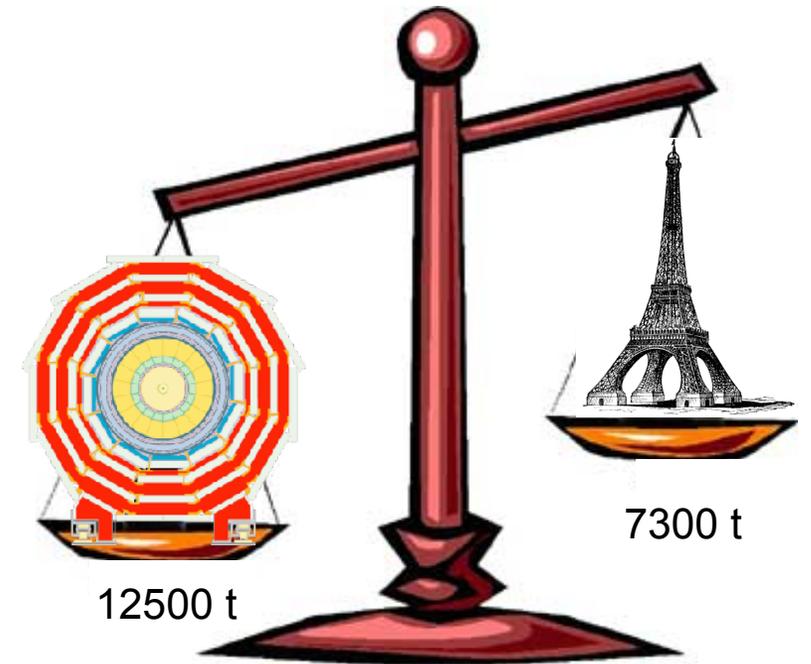
UNI

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SIZE AND WEIGHT



Brandenburger Tor
in Berlin



CMS is 65% heavier than the Eiffel tower

IN HAMBURG



EXAMPLE: ATLAS AT CERN

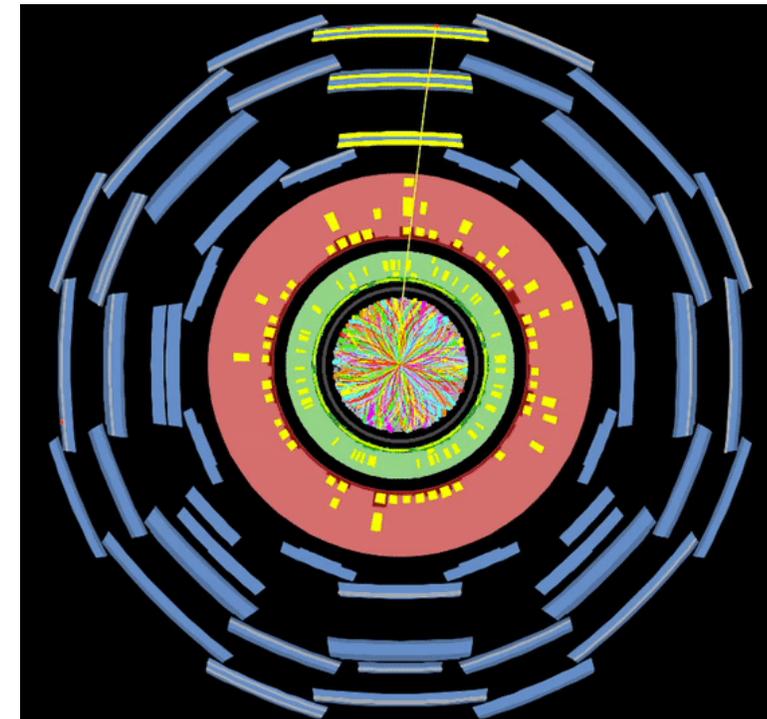
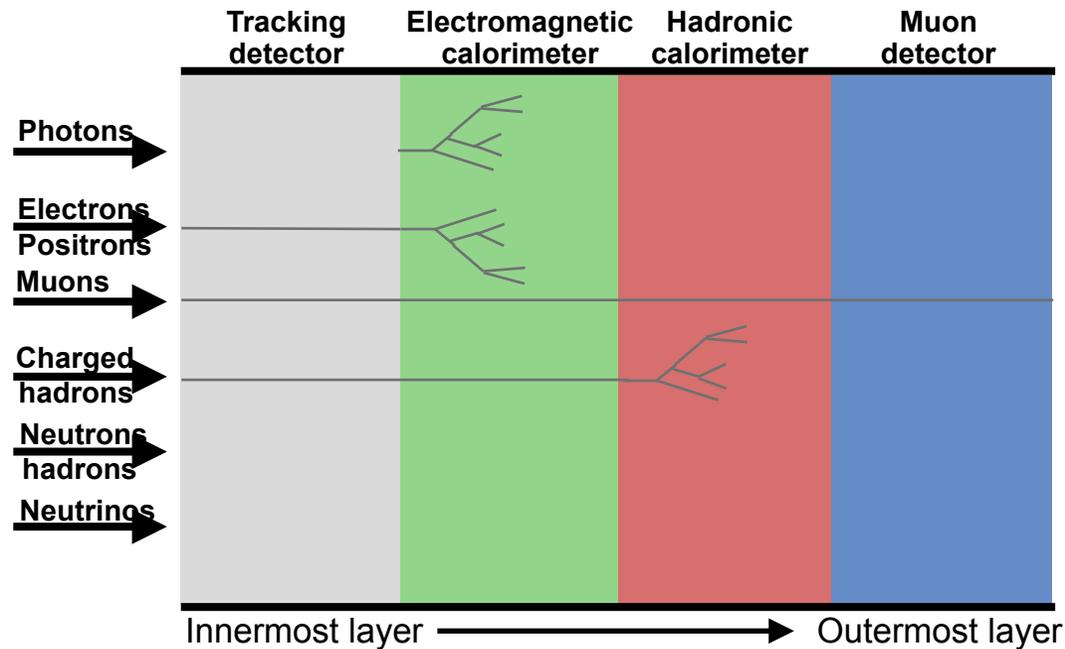
Full movie: ATLAS experiment - Episode 2 - The Particles Strike Back



Full movie: ATLAS experiment - Episode 2 - The Particles Strike Back
<http://cds.cern.ch/record/1096390?ln=en>
Ingrid-Maria Gregor - HEP Detectors - Part 1

CAMERAS FOR PARTICLE PHYSICS

- There is not one type of **detector** which provides all measurements we need (track, momentum, energy, PID)
 - “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

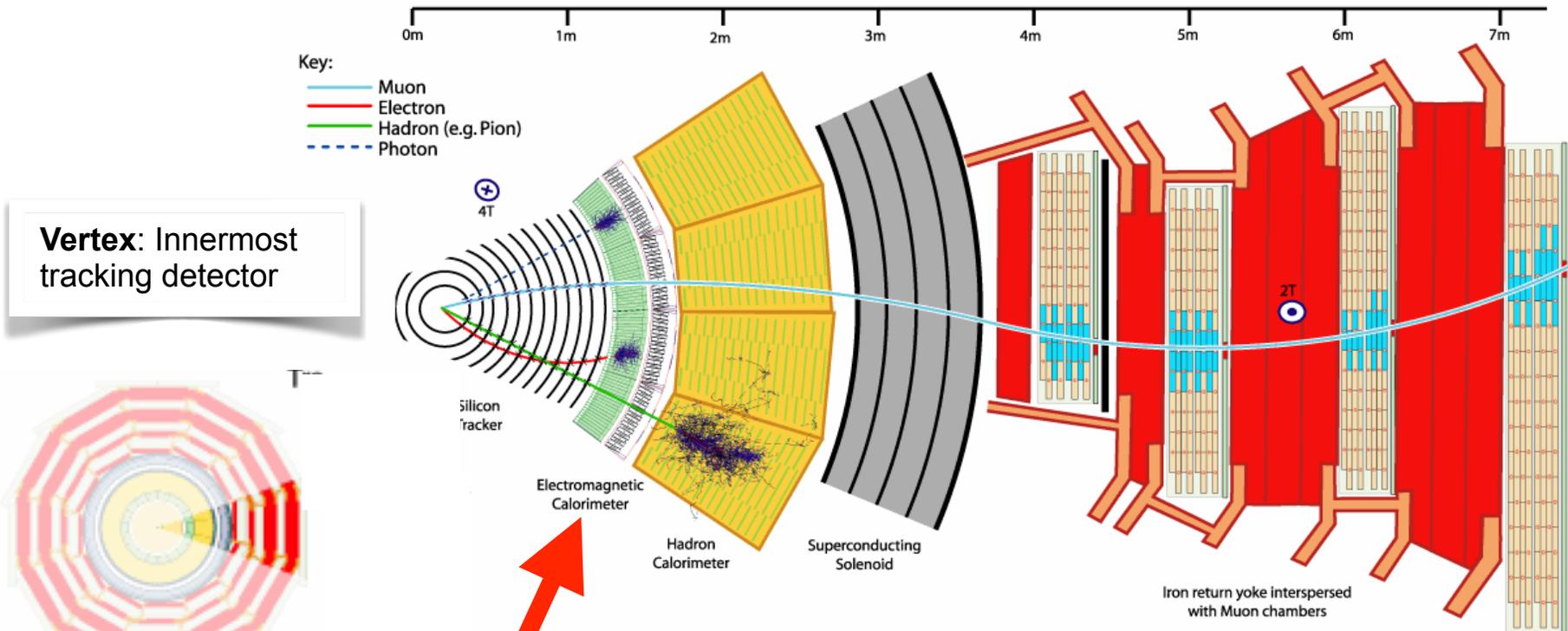


HEP DETECTOR OVERVIEW

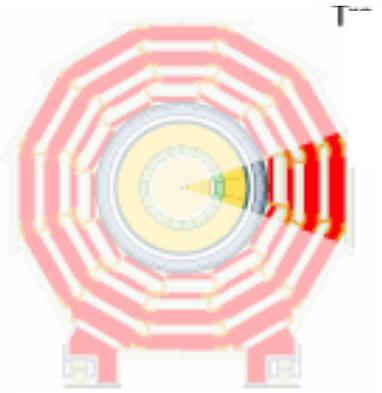
Tracker: Precise measurement of track and momentum of charged particles due to magnetic field.

Calorimeter: Energy measurement of photons, electrons and hadrons through total absorption

Muon-Detectors: Identification and precise momentum measurement of muons outside of the magnet



Vertex: Innermost tracking detector

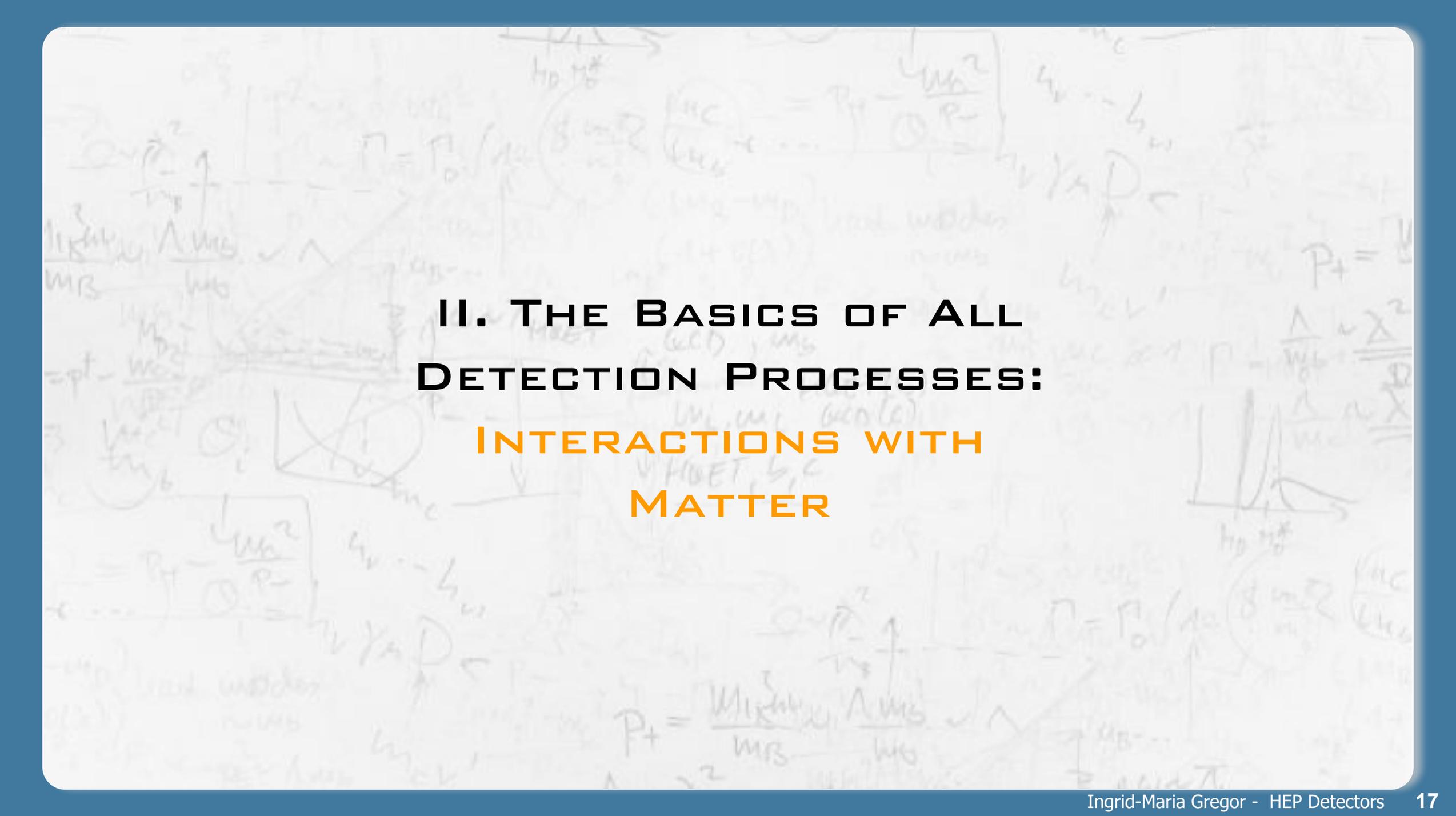


Transverse slice through CMS

Good energy resolution up to highest energies

Radiation hard (hadron collider)

picture: CMS@CERN

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



- Planes leave tracks in sky under certain conditions

PARTICLES LEAVE SIGNALS IN MATTER

- Different effects are involved when a particle passes through matter, depending on mass, charge and energy of the particle.
- Following the effects will be explained for



heavy charged particles
(with masses $> m_{\text{electron}}$)



electrons/positrons



photons



neutrons

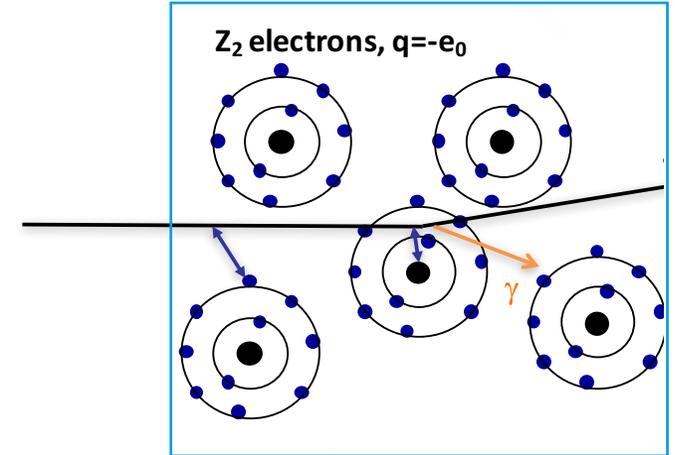
INTERACTIONS OF CHARGED PARTICLES

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**

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

or

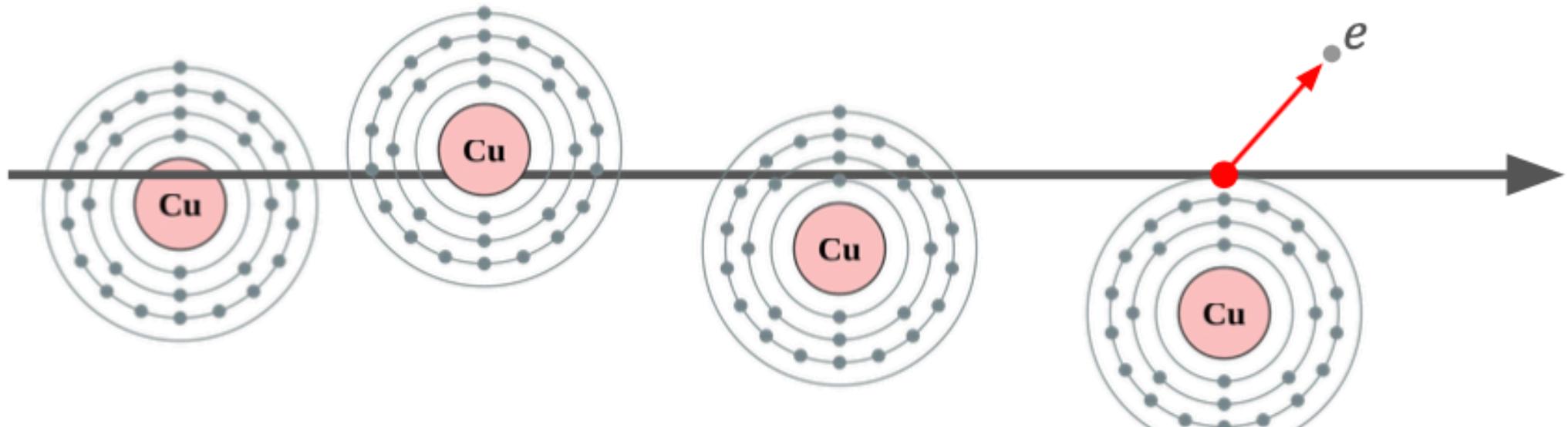
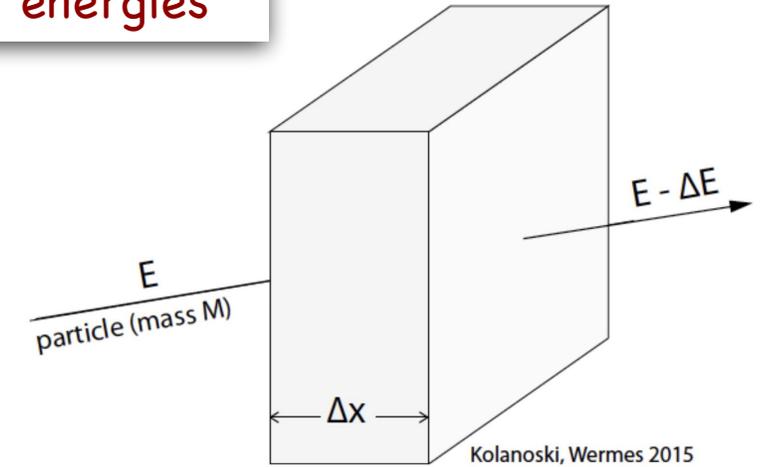
$$\left[\left\langle \frac{dE}{d\tilde{x}} \right\rangle \right] = \frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{gcm}^{-2}} \quad \text{Mass stopping power}$$

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

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 MATTER

- 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

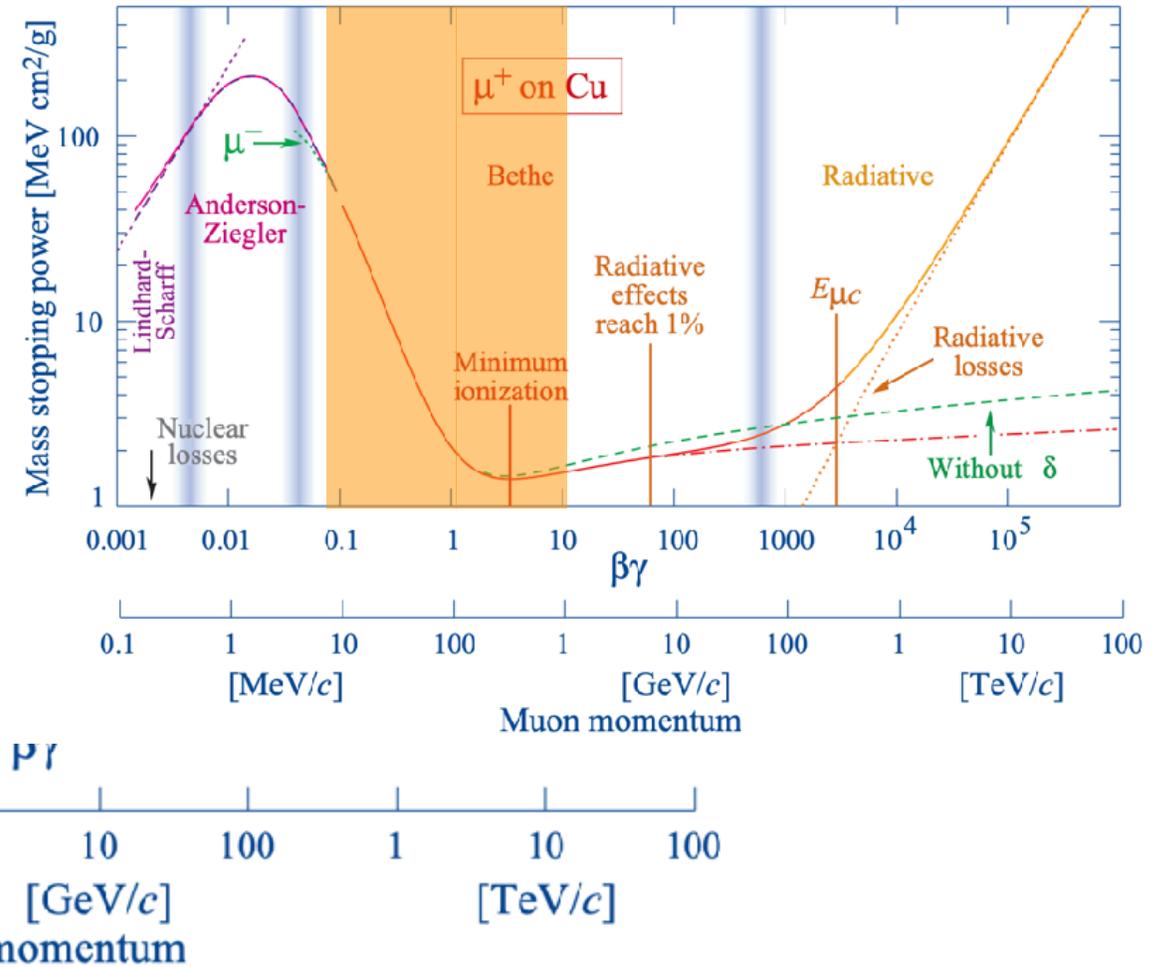
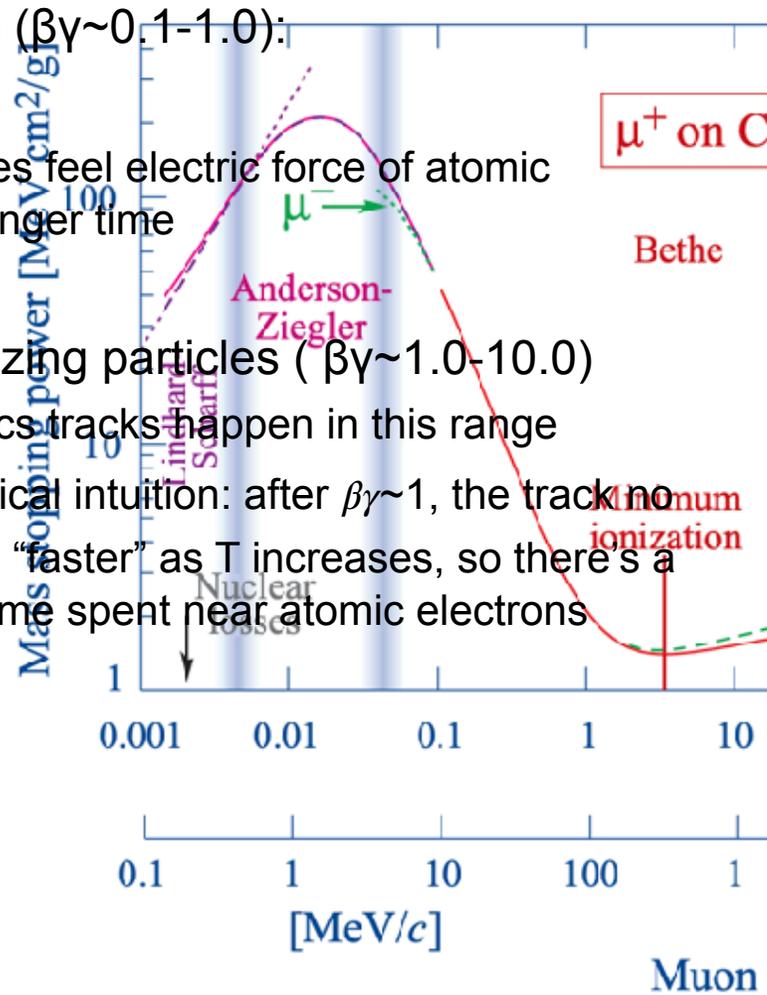
z : charge of incident particle in units of e

β : v/c of the incident particle

γ : $1/\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}$

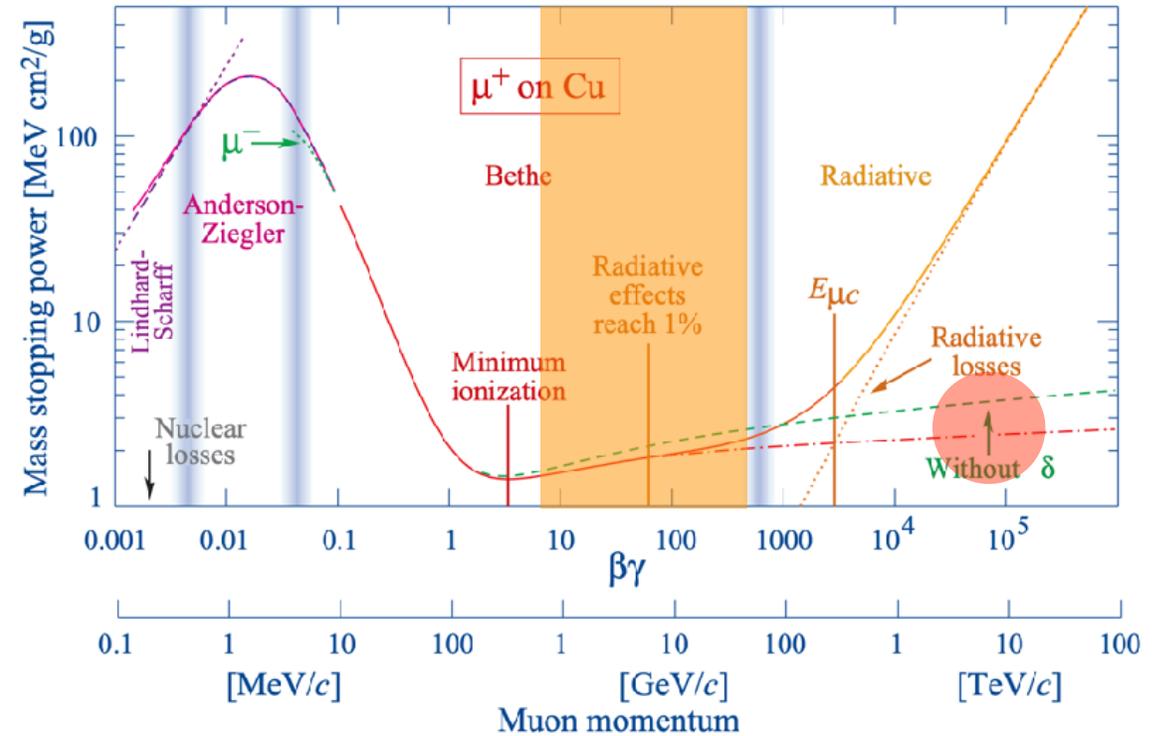
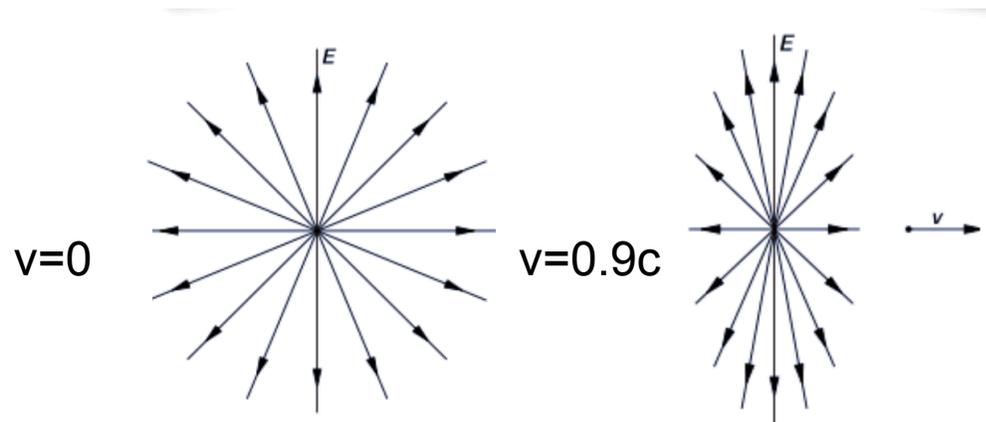
UNDERSTANDING BETHE BLOCH

- 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 T increases, so there's a minimum time spent near atomic electrons

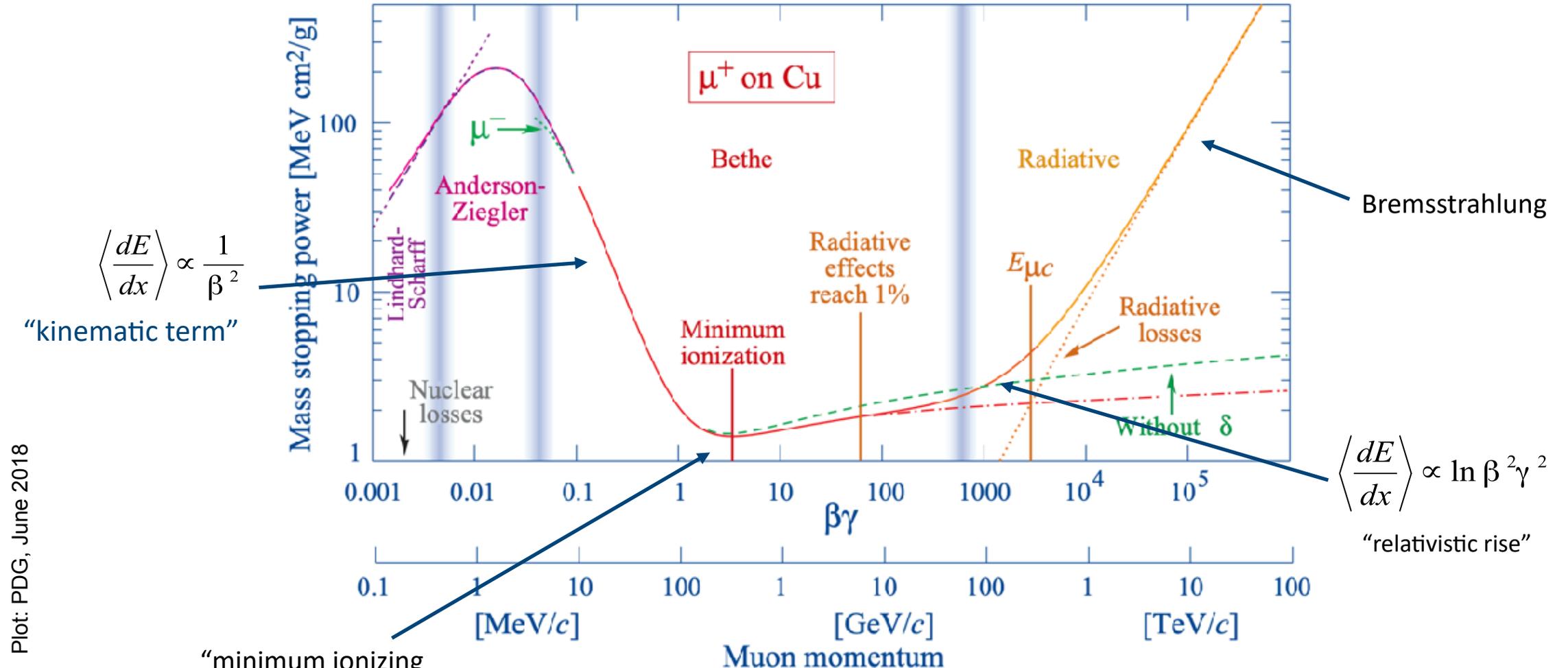


UNDERSTANDING BETHE BLOCH

- 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 $E_y \rightarrow \gamma E_y$



INTERACTIONS OF “HEAVY” PARTICLES WITH MATTER



Plot: PDG, June 2018



A CLOSER ACCOUNT OF ENERGY LOSS

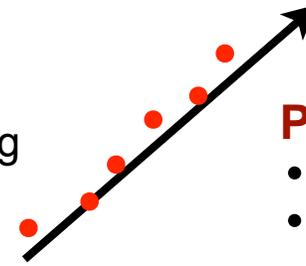


- Bethe-Bloch displays only the average
 - energy loss is a statistical process
 - discrete scattering with different results depending on strength of scattering
 - primary and secondary ionisation



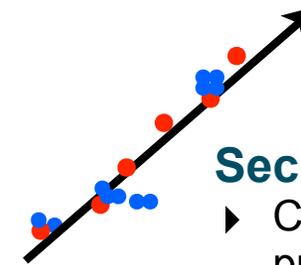
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Example of a delta electron in a bubble chamber: visible path



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

Total ionisation = **primary ionisation** + **secondary ionisation**



Liquid hydrogen bubble chamber 1960 (~15cm).

ENERGY LOSS IN THIN LAYERS



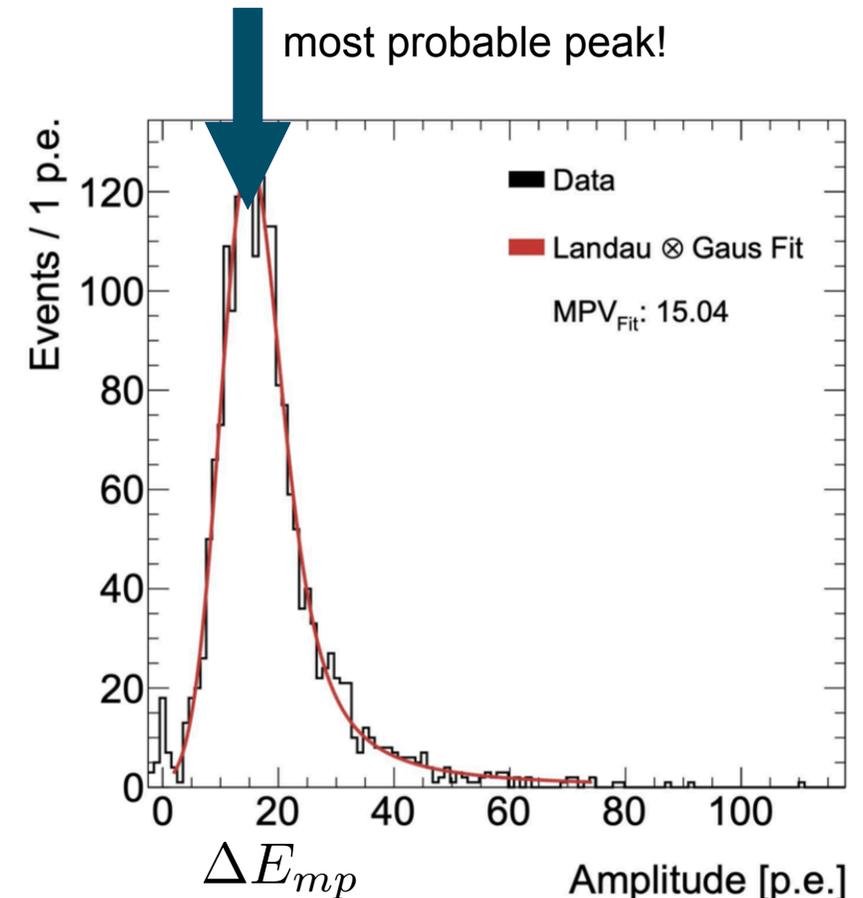
- Bethe Bloch formula describes average energy loss
- Fluctuations about the mean value are significant and non-Gaussian
 - A broad maximum: collisions with little energy loss (more probable)
 - A long tail towards higher energy loss: few collisions with large energy loss T_{\max} , δ -electrons.
- >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

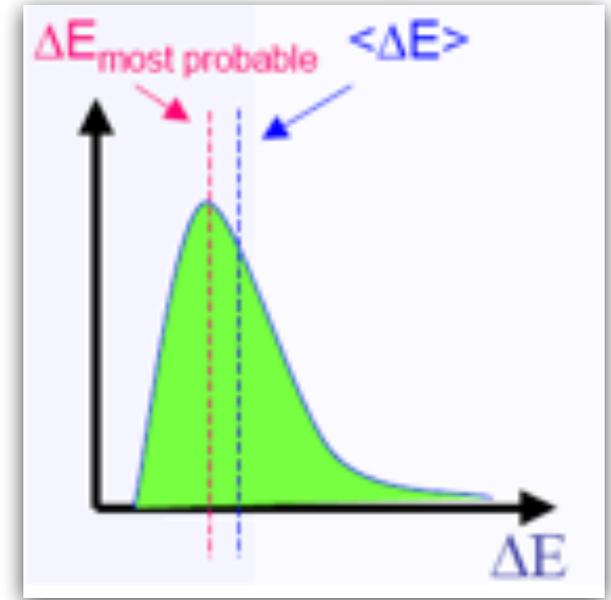


LANDAU TAILS

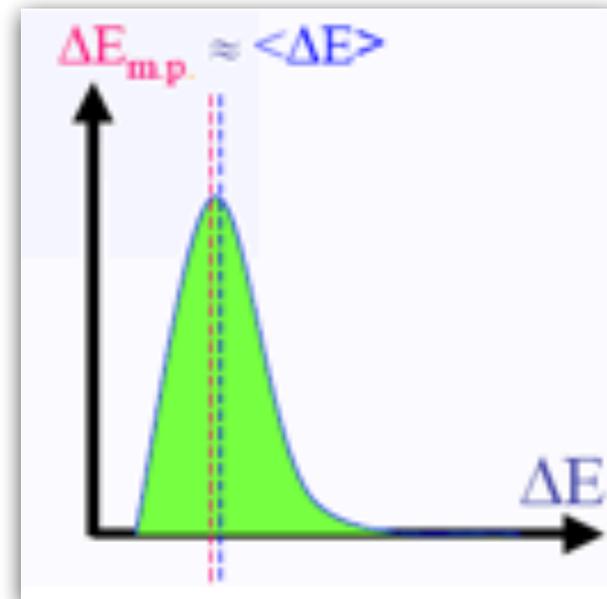
- Real detector measures the energy ΔE deposited in a layer of finite thickness δx
- For thin layers or low density materials
 - few collisions; some with high energy transfer



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



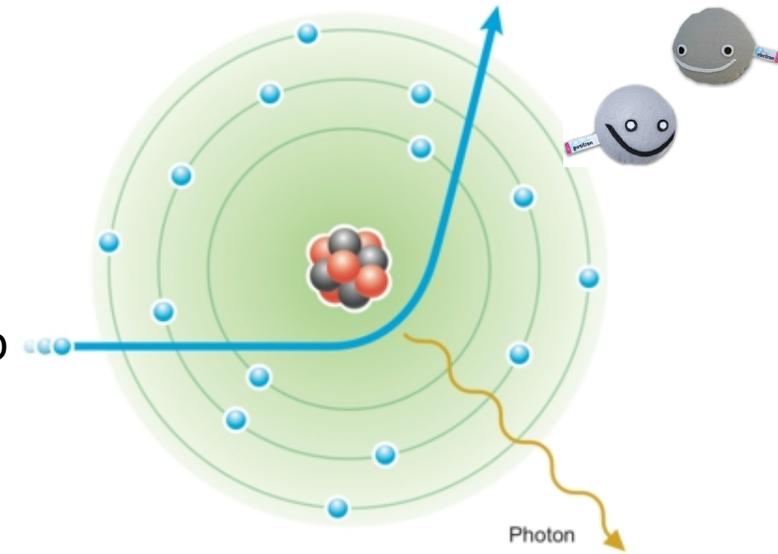
- For thick layers and high density materials
 - Many collisions
 - Central limit theorem: distribution \rightarrow Gaussian



ENERGY LOSS FOR ELECTRONS

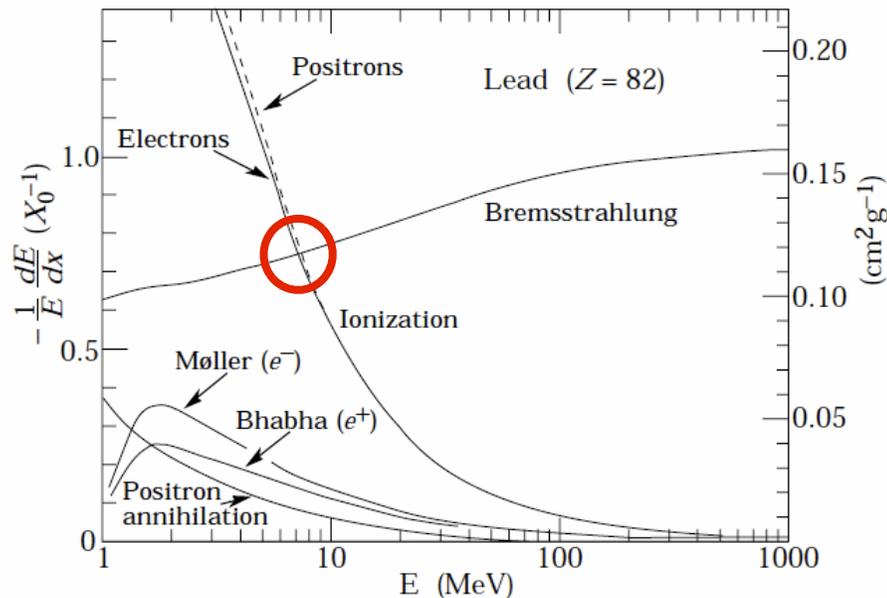
- Incident and target electron have same mass m_e
- Scattering of identical, indistinguishable particles
- Bremsstrahlung: photon emission by an electron accelerated in Coulomb field of nucleus

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



Incident electron and Bremsstrahlung photon.

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



- Bremsstrahlung is dominating at high energies
- At low energies: ionisation, additional scattering

Energy loss for anything heavier than an electron is dominated by ionisation.

ELECTRONS: ENERGY LOSS



- **Critical energy:** the energy at which the losses due to ionisation and Bremsstrahlung are equal

$$\frac{dE}{dx}(E_c) = \frac{dE}{dx}(E_c)$$

For electrons approximately:

$$E_c^{\text{solid+liq}} = \frac{610 \text{ MeV}}{Z + 1.24} \quad E_c^{\text{gas}} = \frac{710 \text{ MeV}}{Z + 0.92}$$

For electrons

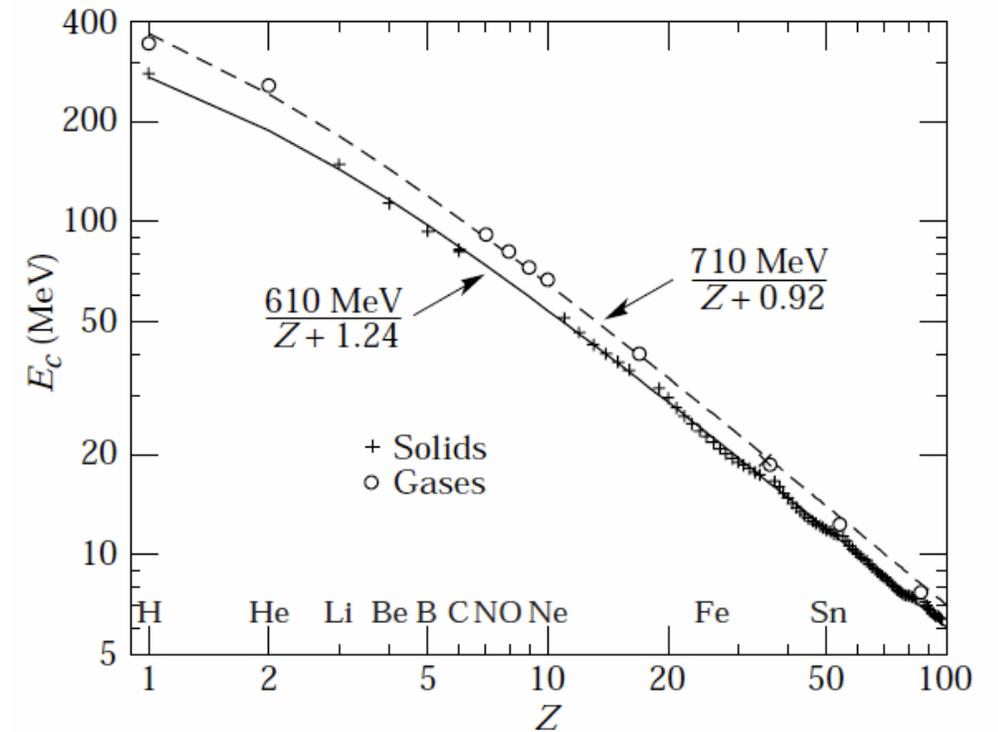
$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = 4\alpha N_A \frac{Z^2}{A} r_e^2 E \ln \frac{183}{Z^{1/3}}$$

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{E}{X_0}$$



$$E = E_0 e^{-x/X_0}$$

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



Parameters only depending on material the electron is passing through.

X_0 : Radiation length



ELECTRONS AND PHOTONS: RADIATION LENGTH



- Radiation length: an important parameter for particle detectors
- Thickness of material an electron travels through
 - until the energy is reduced by Bremsstrahlung to 1/e of its original energy

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

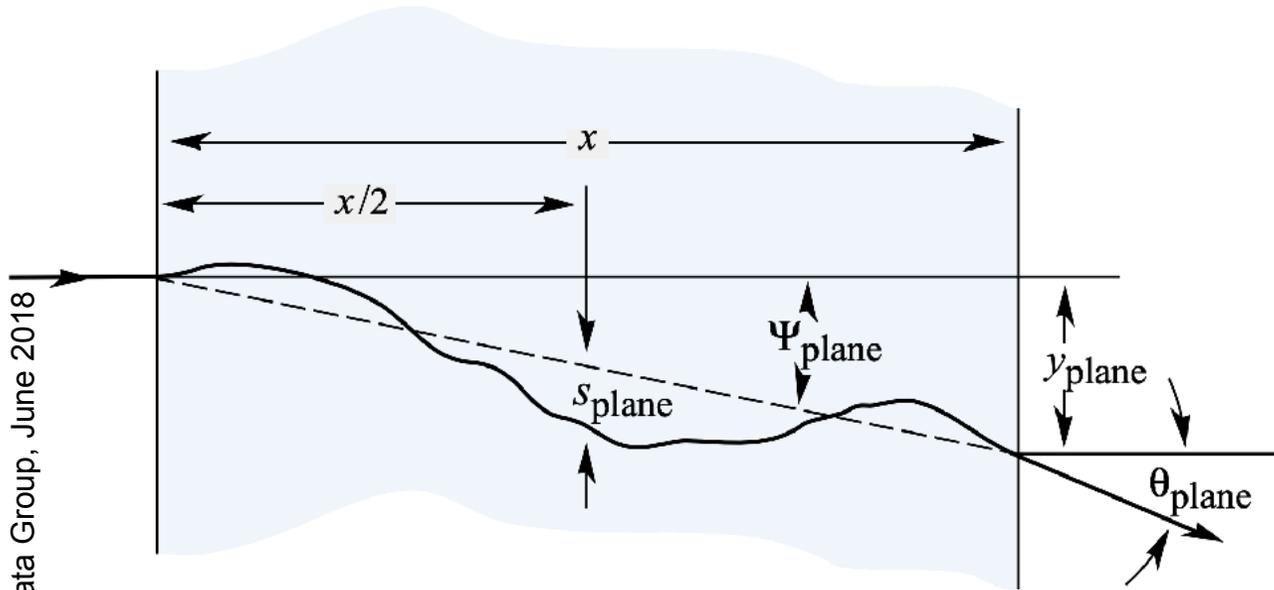
- The radiation length is also an important quantity in multiple scattering
- A very important number when building detectors, one always has to keep in mind how much material is within the detector volume

- Usually quoted in [g/cm²], typical values are:
 - Air: 36.66 g/cm² -> ~ 300 m
 - Water: 36.08 g/cm² -> ~ 36 cm
 - Silicon: 21.82 g/cm² -> 9.4 cm
 - Aluminium: 24.01 g/cm² -> 8.9 cm
 - Tungsten: 6.76 g/cm² -> 0.35 cm

MULTIPLE SCATTERING!



- Charged particles are forced to deviate from a straight track when moving through a medium: multiple scattering mostly due to Coulomb field.
- Cumulative effect of these small angle scatterings is a net deflection from the original particle direction.



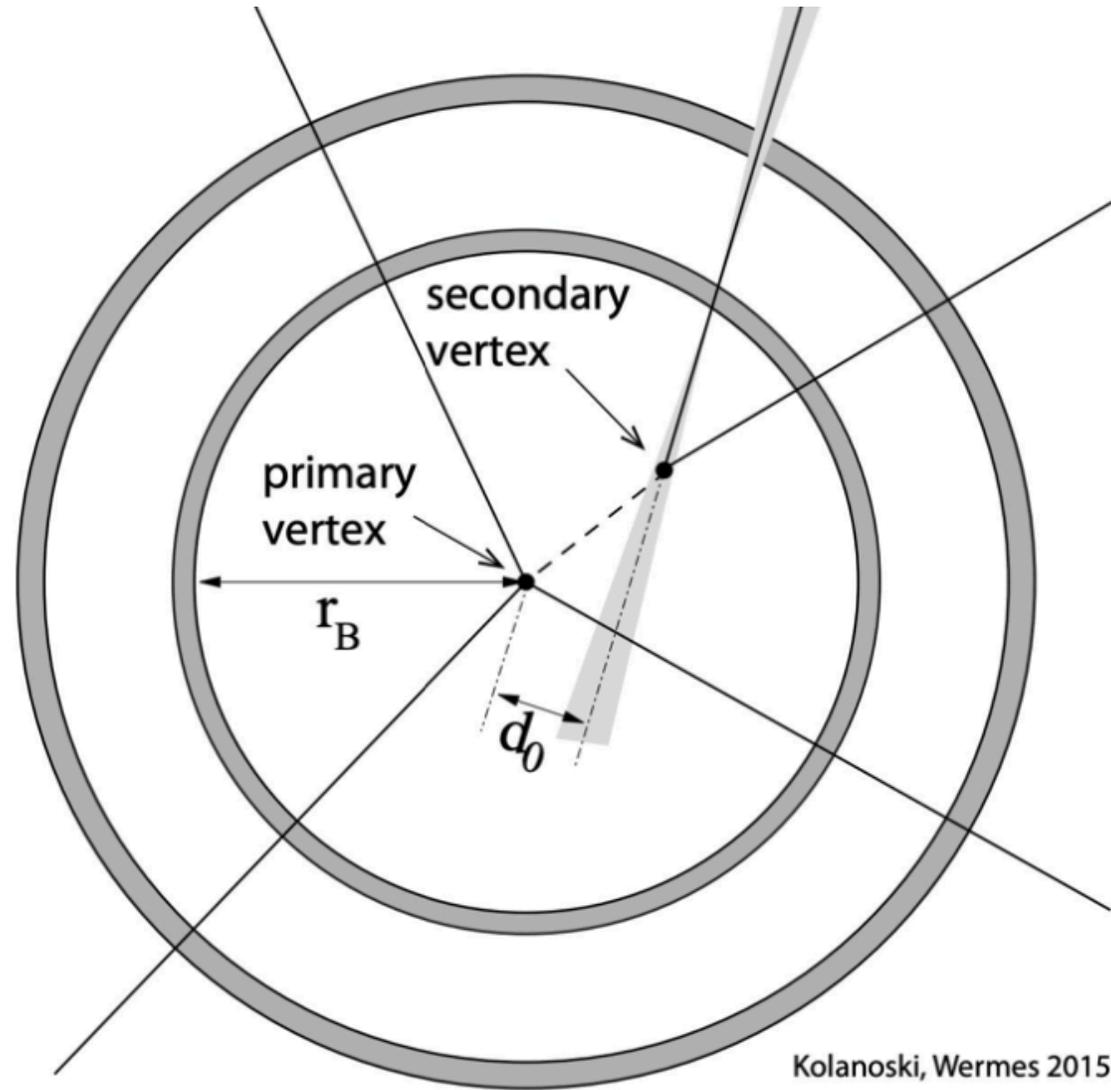
$$\theta_0 = \theta_{\text{plane}}^{\text{rms}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \theta_{\text{space}}^{\text{rms}}$$

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

- the smaller the momentum the larger the effect
- kind of Gaussian around original direction

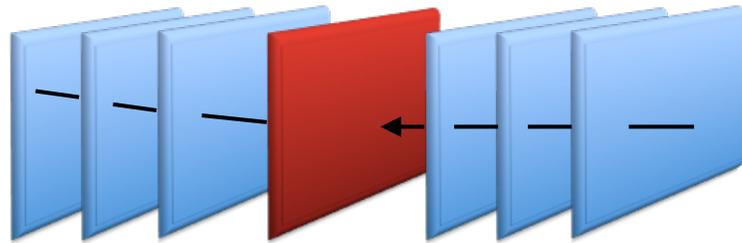
Gaussian approximation sufficient for many applications.

CONSEQUENCE OF MULTIPLE

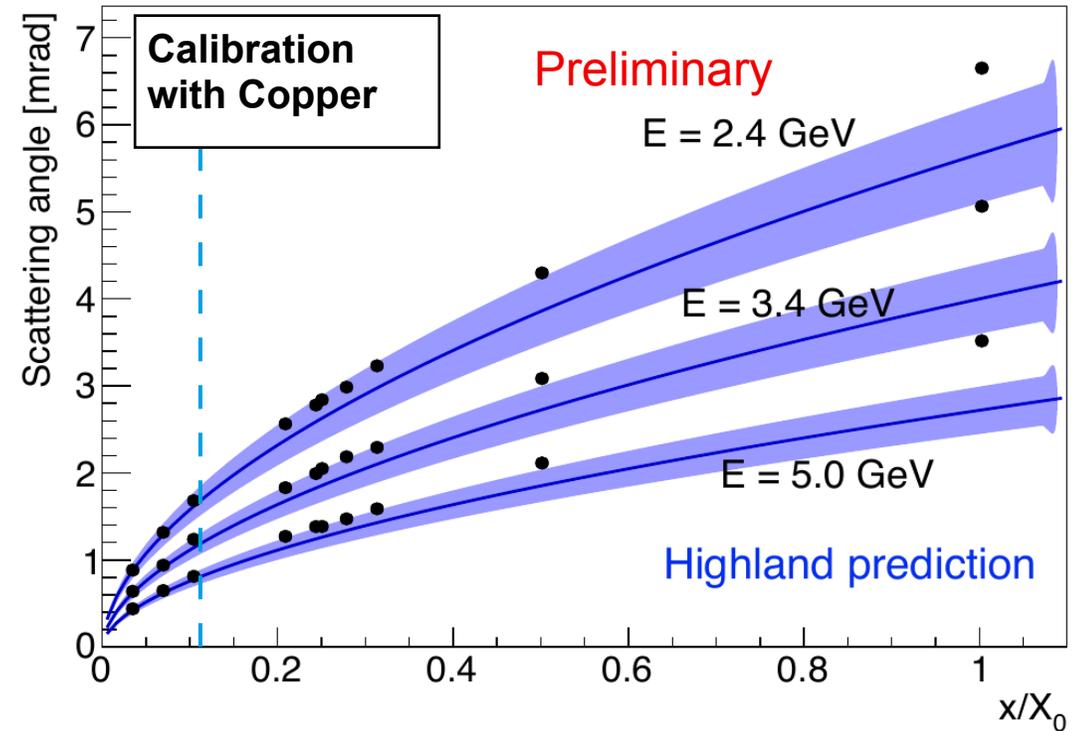
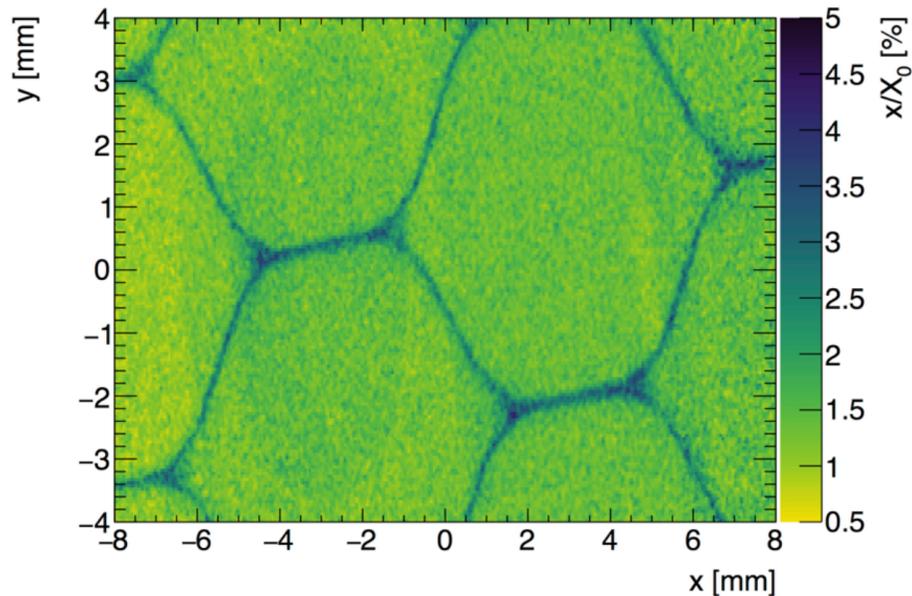


USING MULTIPLE SCATTERING

- Possibility to provide x/X_0 maps of complex targets -> input for detector simulations
- Currently only coarse information of modules available as radiation length for composite materials typically not available

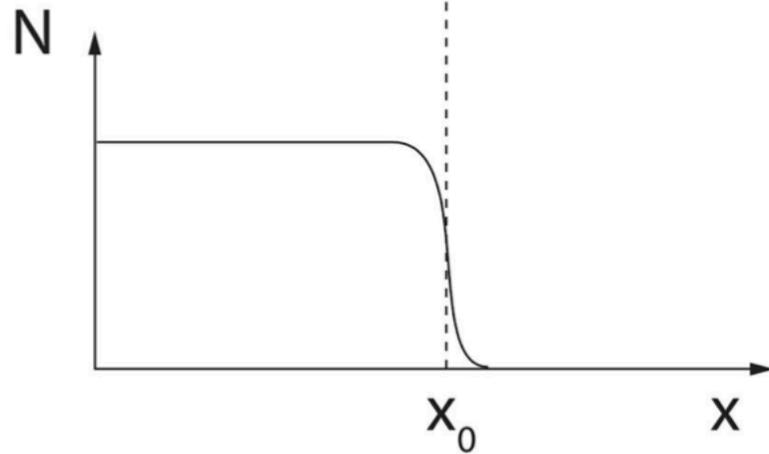
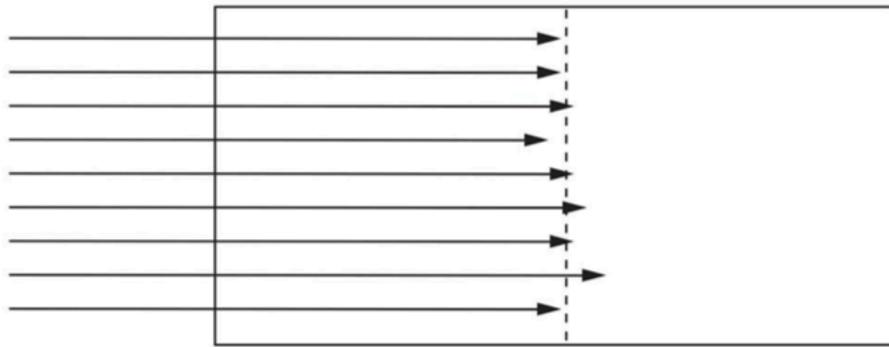


Measuring kink angle

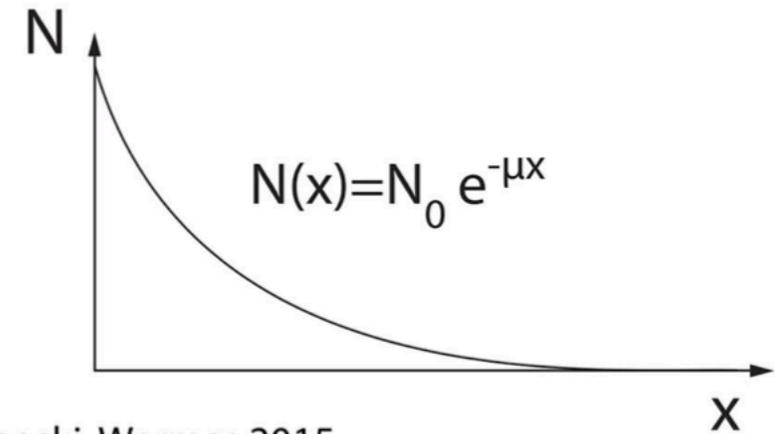
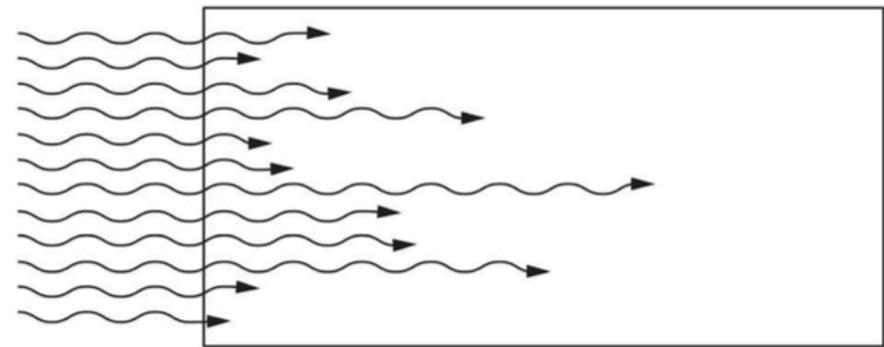


BIG DIFFERENCE

Charged particles



Photons

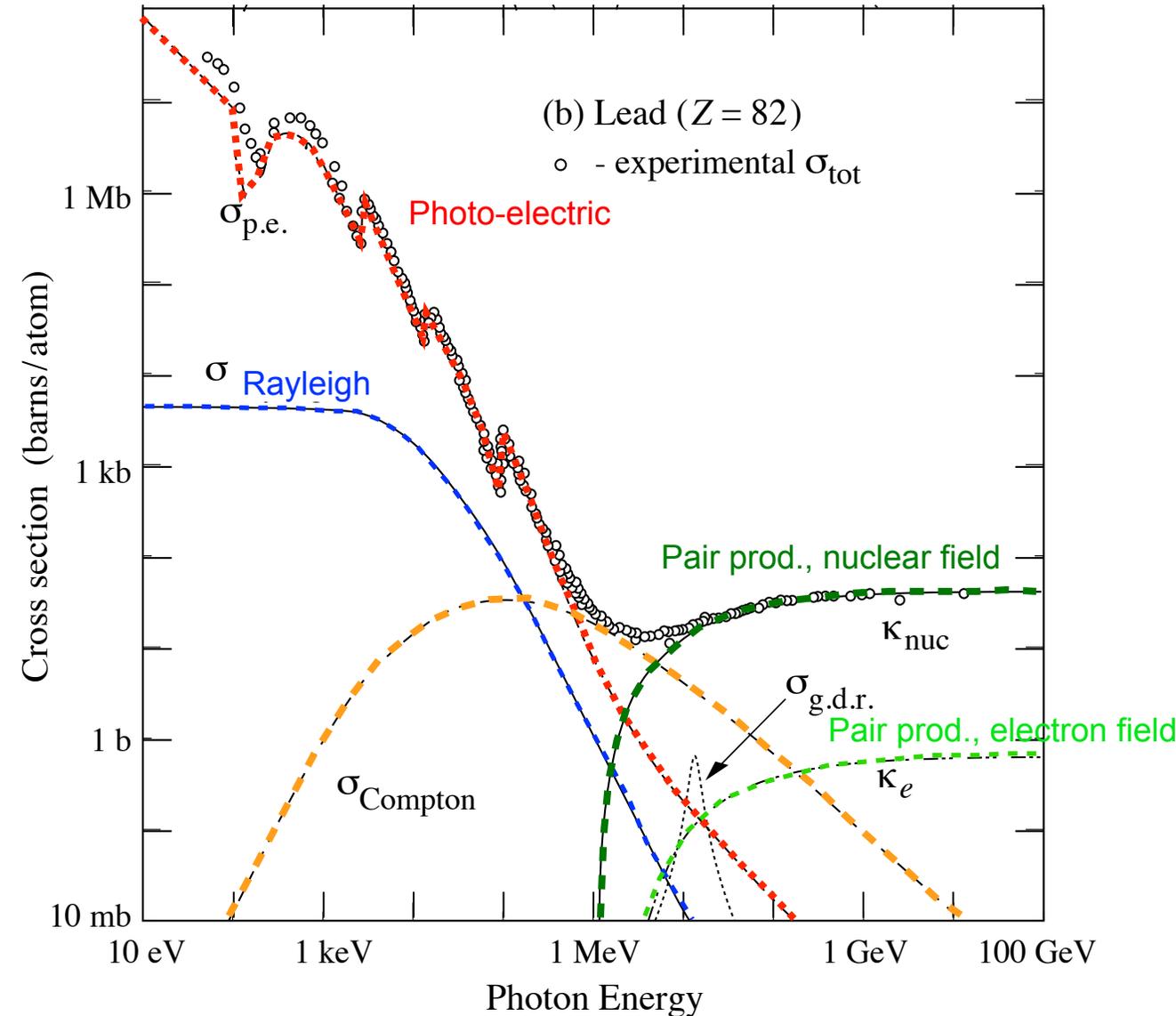


Kolanoski, Wermes 2015

PHOTONS: INTERACTIONS



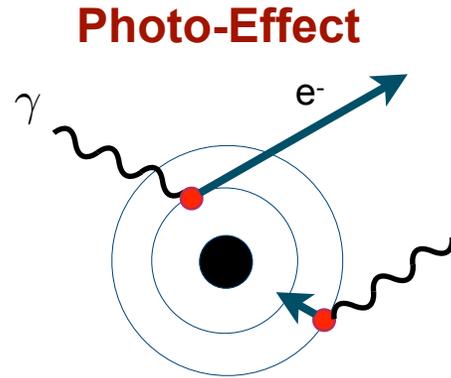
- Photons appear in detector systems
 - as primary photons,
 - created in Bremsstrahlung and de-excitations
- Photons are also used for medical applications, both imaging and radiation treatment.
- Photons interact via **six** mechanisms depending on the photon energy:
 - < few eV: molecular interactions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



PHOTONS: INTERACTIONS



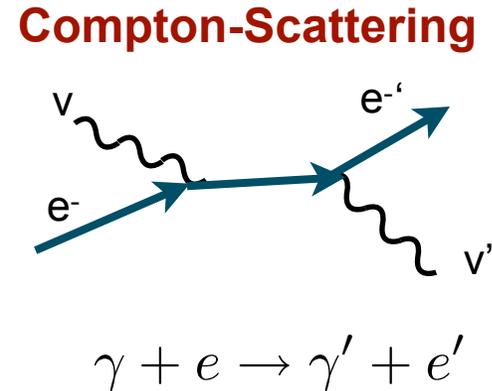
● Most dominating effects:



A γ is absorbed and photo-electron is ejected.

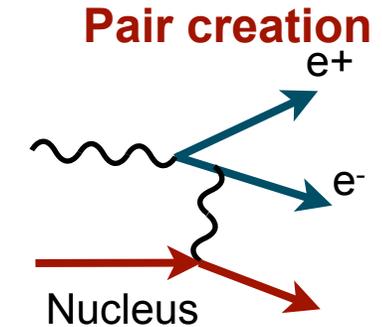
- the γ disappears,
- the photo-electron gets an energy

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



Elastic scattering of a photon with a free electron

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



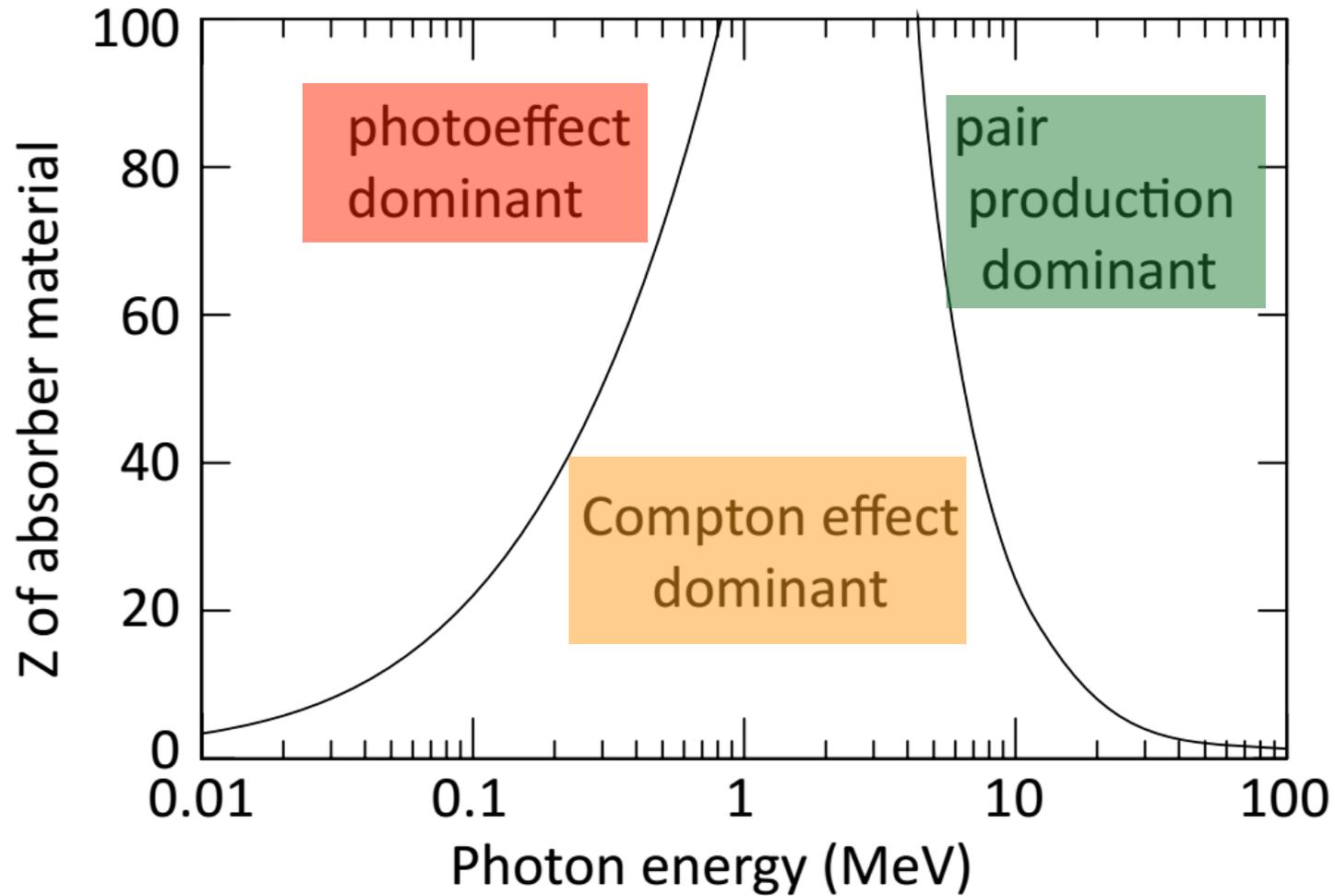
Only possible in the Coulomb field of a nucleus (or an electron) if

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

⇒ Reduction of photon intensity with passage through matter:

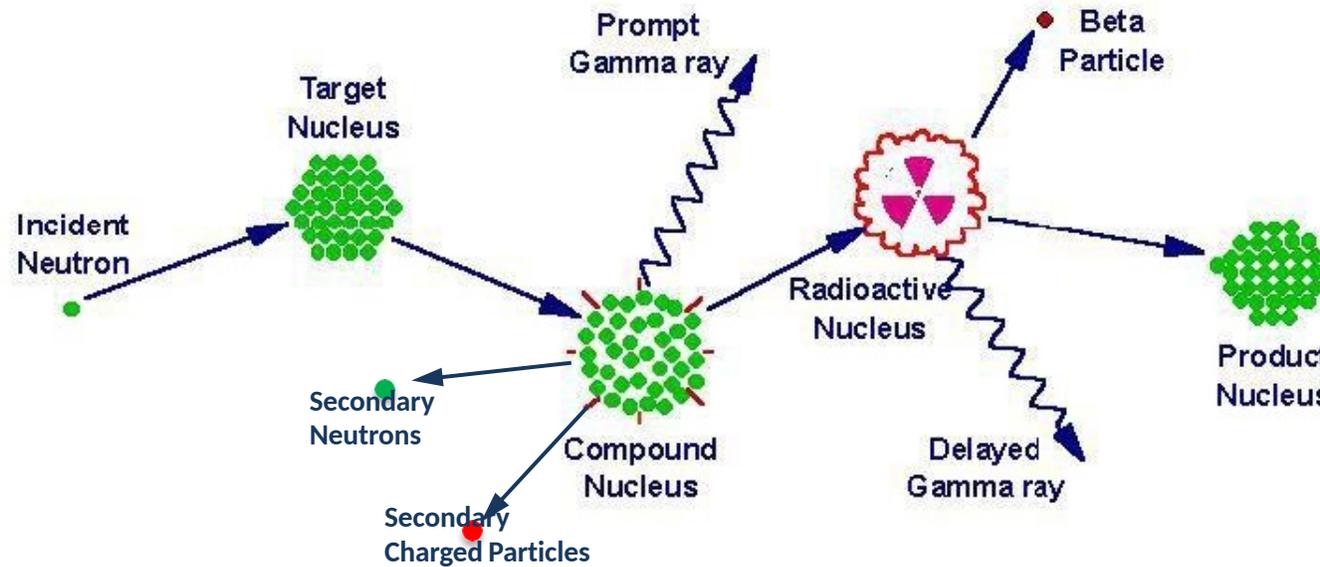
$$I(x) = I_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

DOMINANT REGIONS

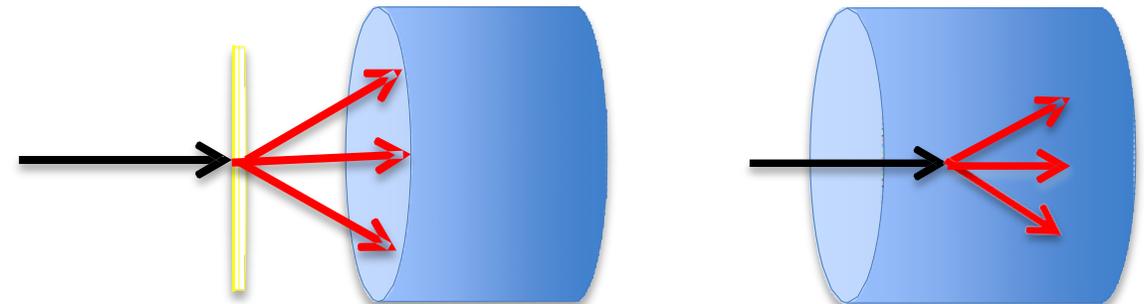


GENERAL DETECTION PRINCIPLES

- Neutron detectors do not detect neutrons but products of neutron interactions!



- Almost all detector types can be made neutron sensitive:
 - external converter (radiator)
 - converter = detector



SUMMARY PART 1

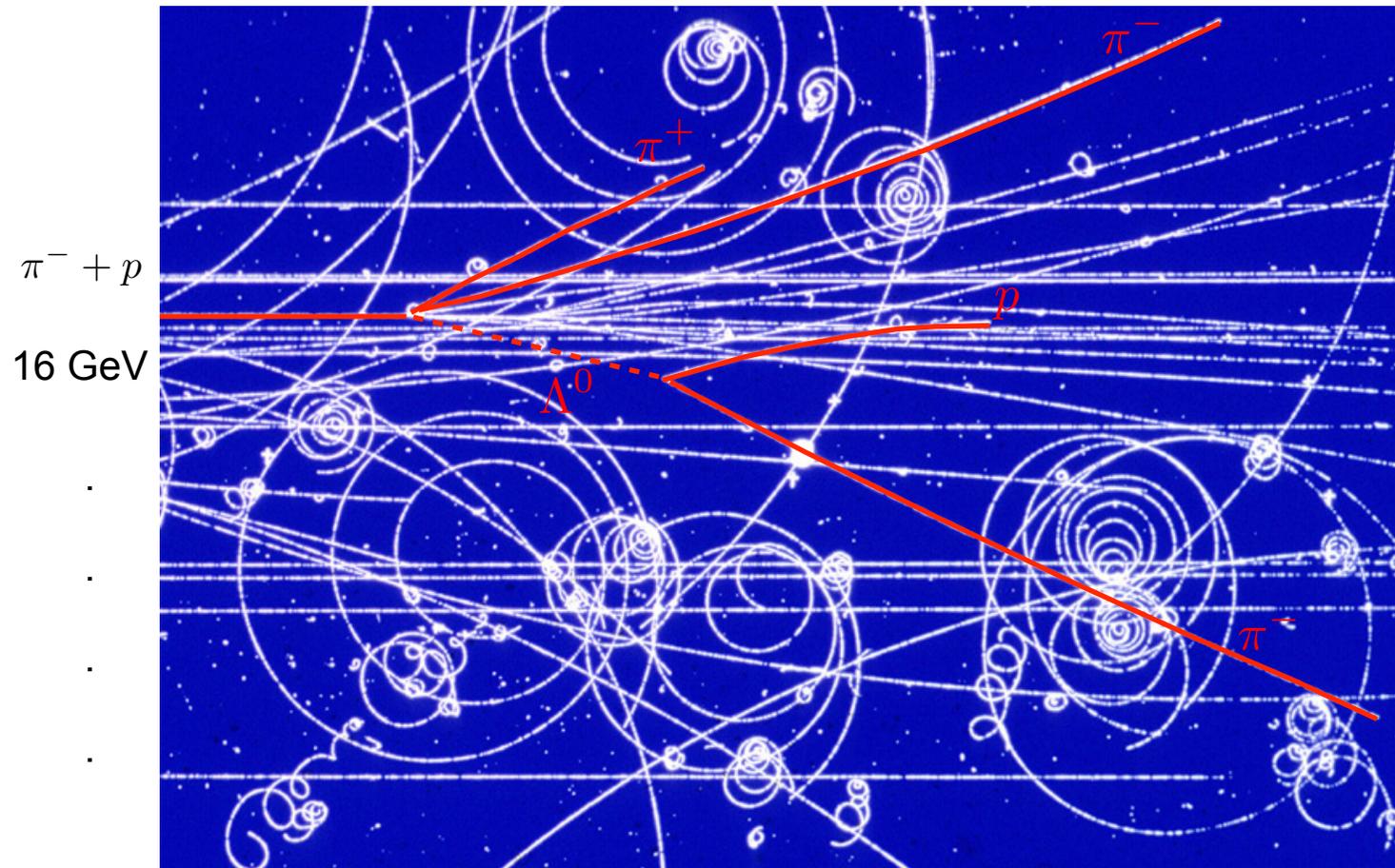
Ionisation and Excitation:

- 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

