

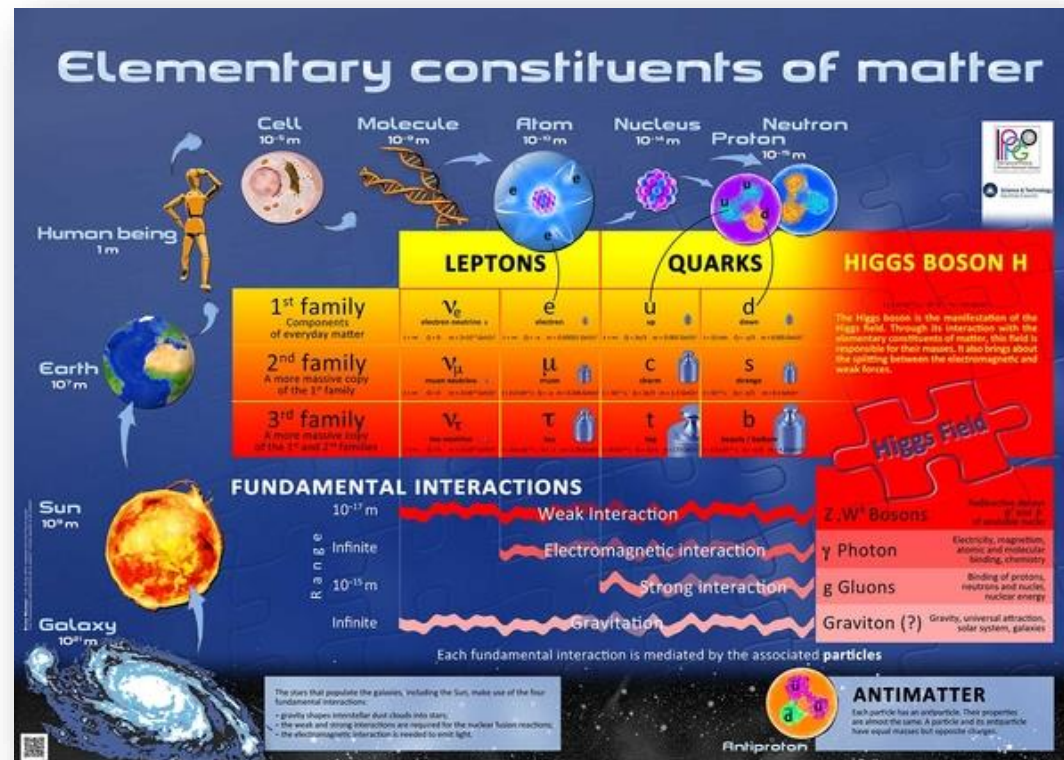
Physics of Particle Detectors

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Nuclear and particle physicists need to detect and measure the properties of the particles (or its absence) in all our experiments → Particle detectors

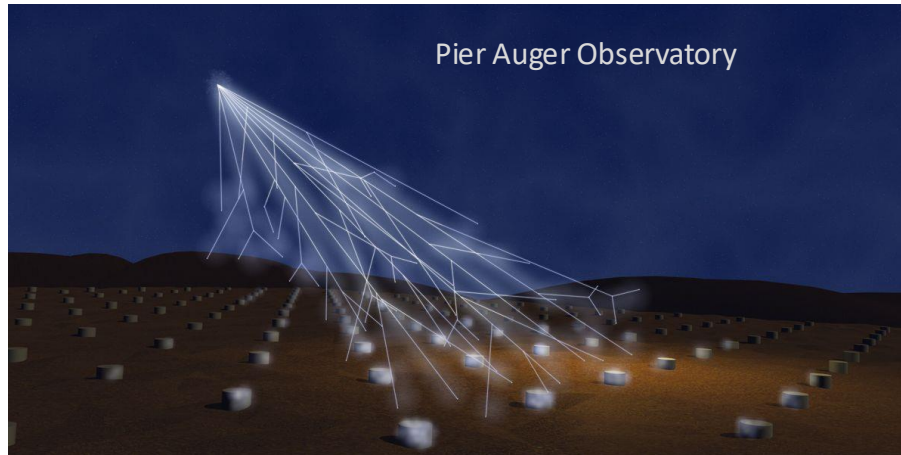
We are talking here about the fundamental particles described by the Standard Model (and beyond)



Two different ways of generating subatomic particles:

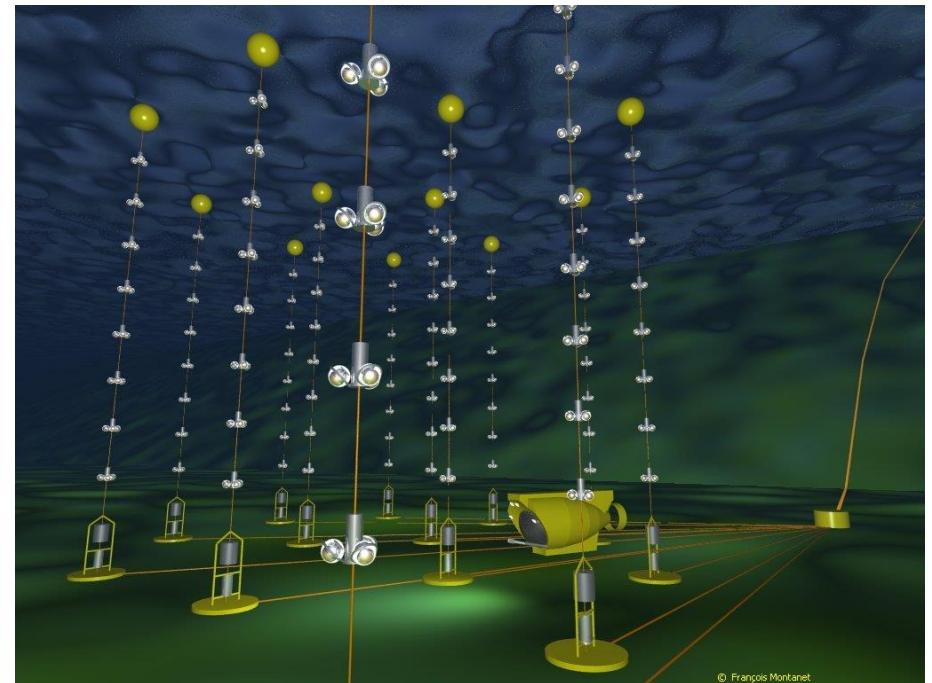
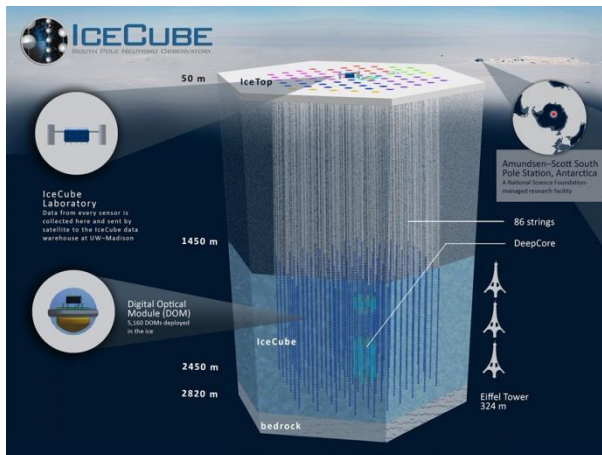
- One simple way of finding particles is to look at cosmic rays. This provides very high energy particles, but is a random process.
- The other way to generate these particles is using a particle accelerator, which manipulates particles using electrical and magnetic fields.





Investigate cosmic ray cascades using the atmosphere as part of the detector

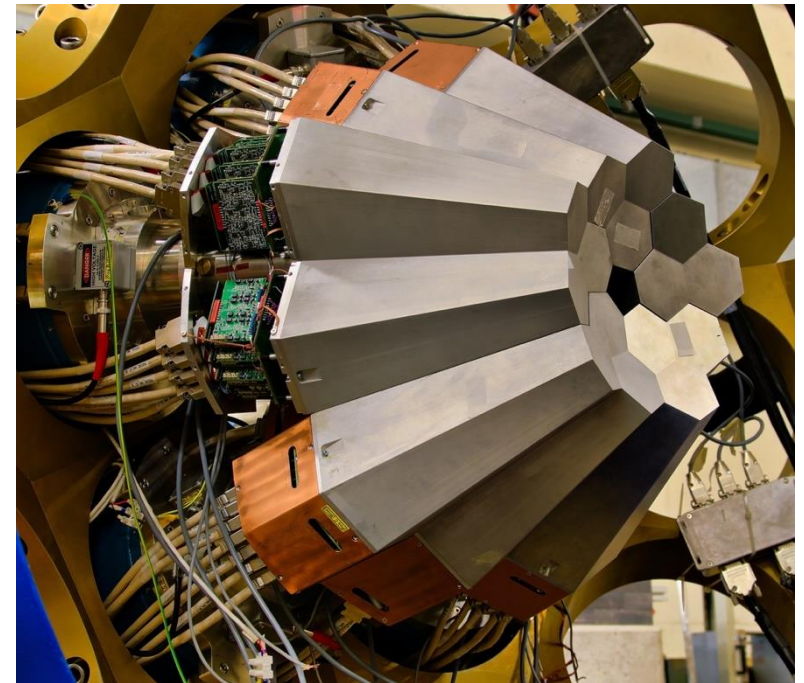
... also under sea water or polar ice



For nuclear physics experiments, there are centers where isotopes are produced. Specially important is the detection of gammas (high energy photons) produced by internal nuclear processes or neutrons



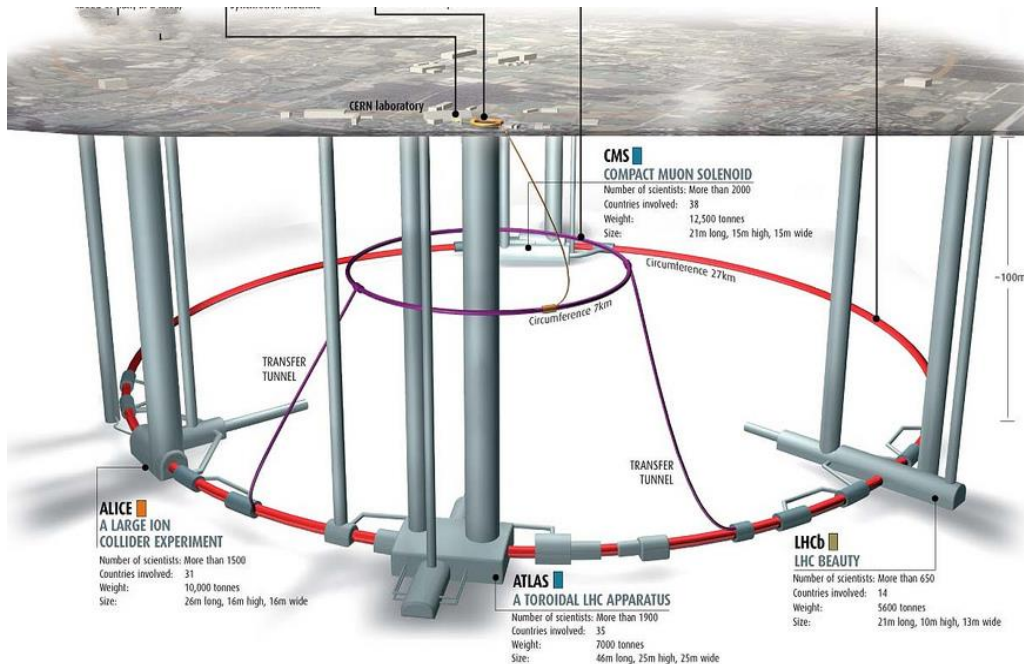
Neutron detector: $n + {}^3\text{He} \rightarrow p + {}^3\text{H}$



AGATA: **A**dvanced **G**AMMA **T**racker **A**rray

Accelerator interaction region surrounded by big general purpose experiments

Big (tens of meters) experiments made by large international collaborations over decades with specialized detectors working in a coordinated manner



Much closer to us, these detection techniques are used at hospitals to detect (PET, CT, ...) and treat tumors (hadron therapy, ...).

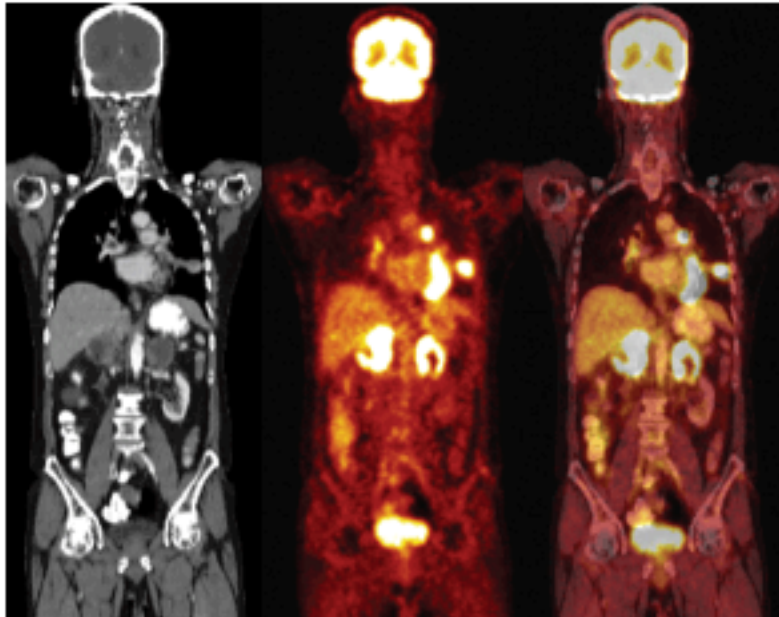
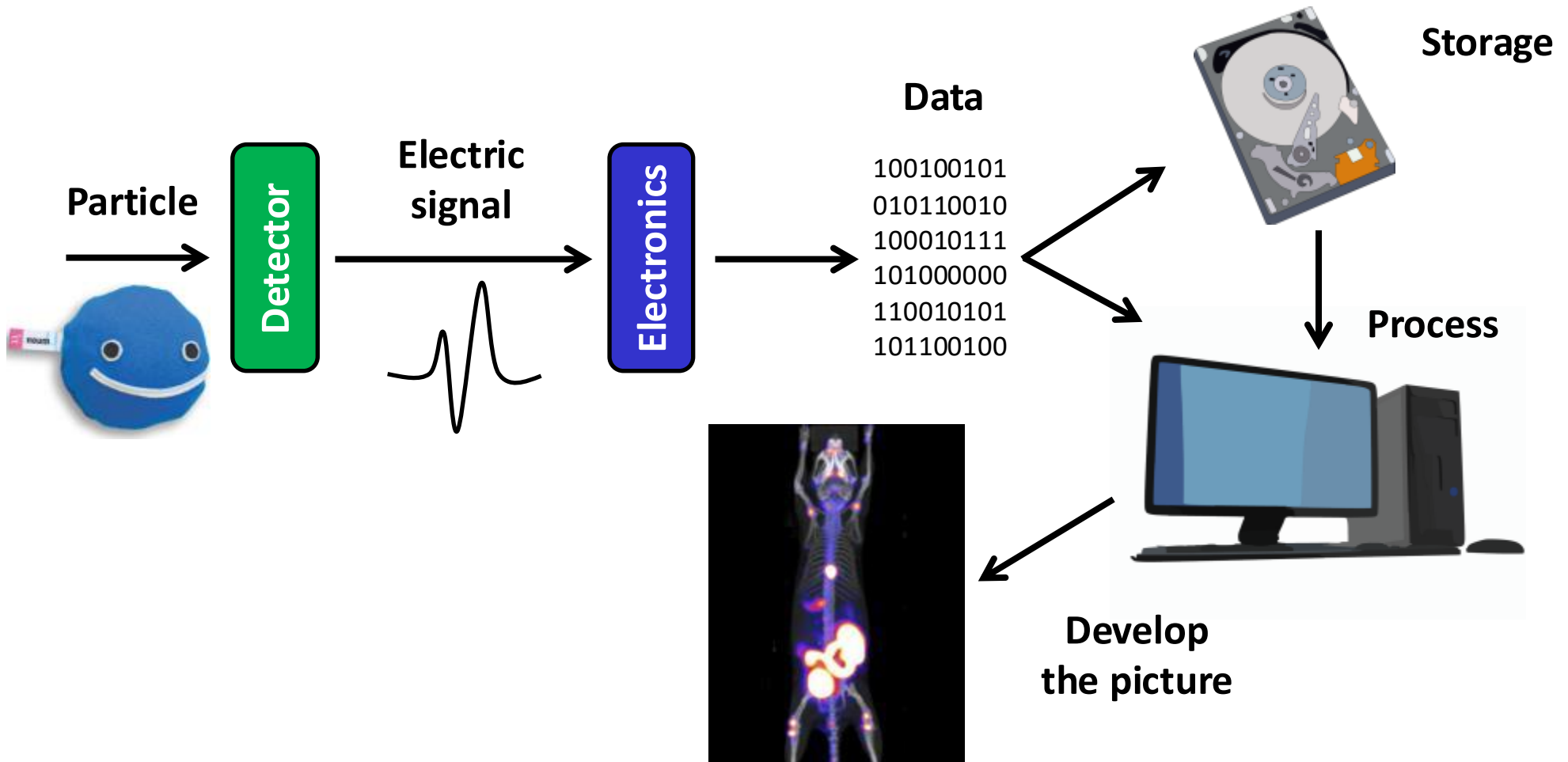


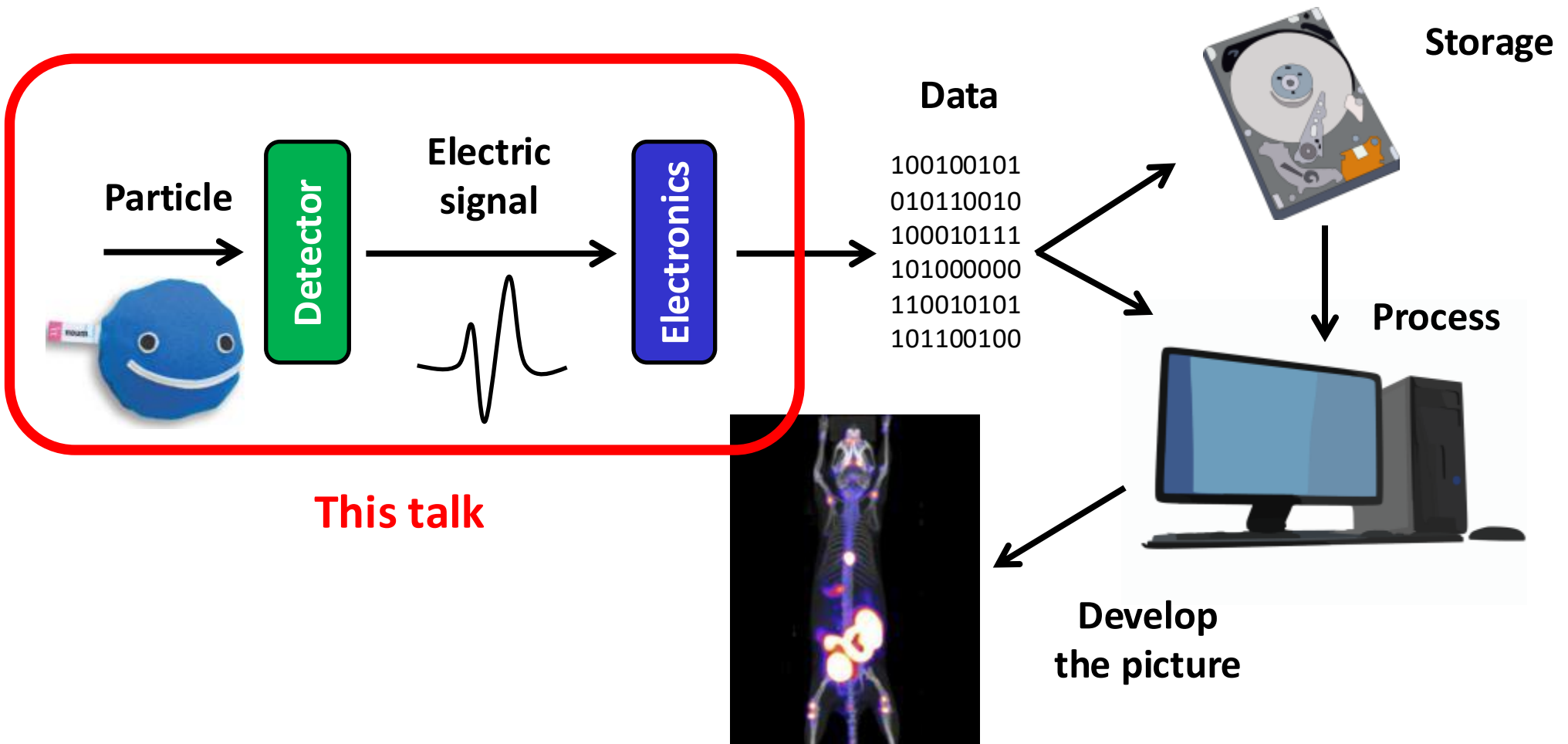
FIGURE 1. CT, PET, and PET/CT of lung cancer with adrenal metastases.



Detector physics: Multidisciplinary area of knowledge involving several fields



Detector physics: Multidisciplinary area of knowledge involving several fields

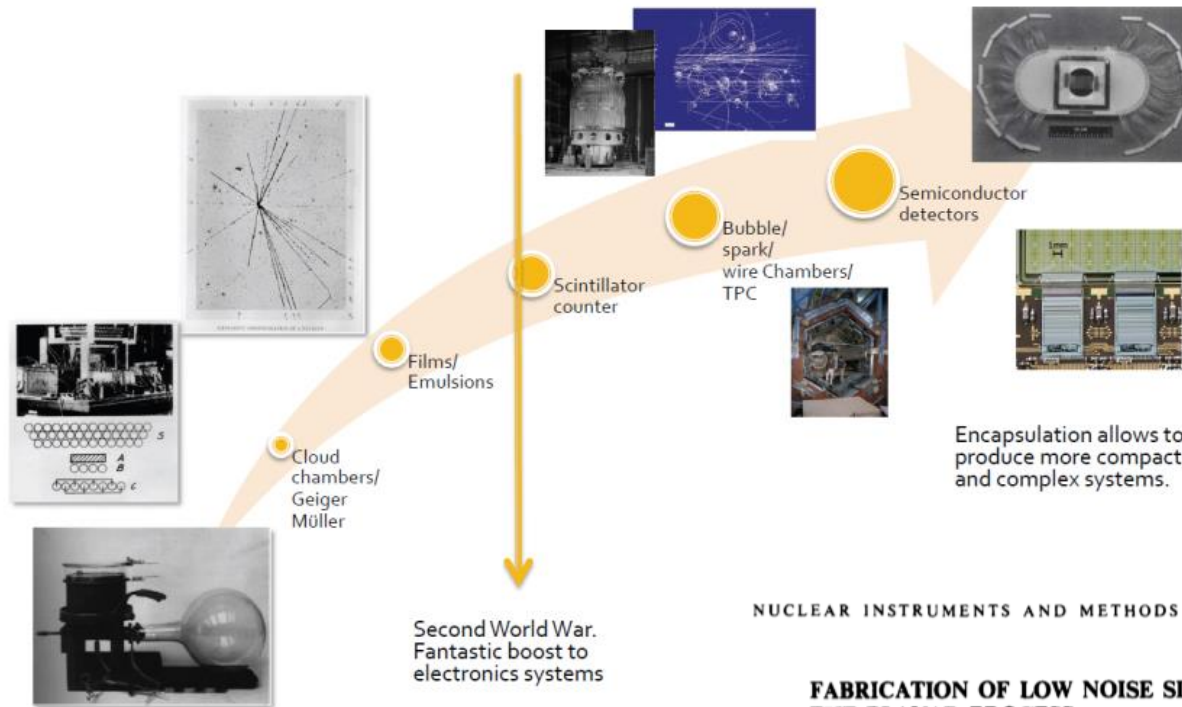


In particle physics, the processes occur on a scale that is either too brief or too small to be observed directly.

We can not see or touch the particles... So, we need some tools through which, indirectly, study those processes.

In particle physics, a **particle detector** is a device used to detect, track, and/or identify high-energy particles.

→ Types of radiation and interaction with matter



1979: the birth of the semiconductor era
First use of planar process developed for chip industry in a fixed target experiment with a planar diode

NUCLEAR INSTRUMENTS AND METHODS 169 (1980) 499-502, © NORTH HOLLAND PUBLISHING CO

FABRICATION OF LOW NOISE SILICON RADIATION DETECTORS BY THE PLANAR PROCESS

J KEMMER

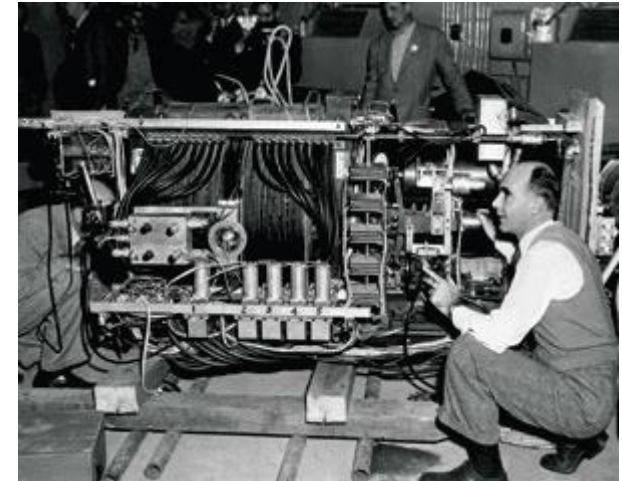
Fachbereich Physik der Technischen Universität München, 8046 Garching, Germany

Received 30 July 1979 and in revised form 22 October 1979

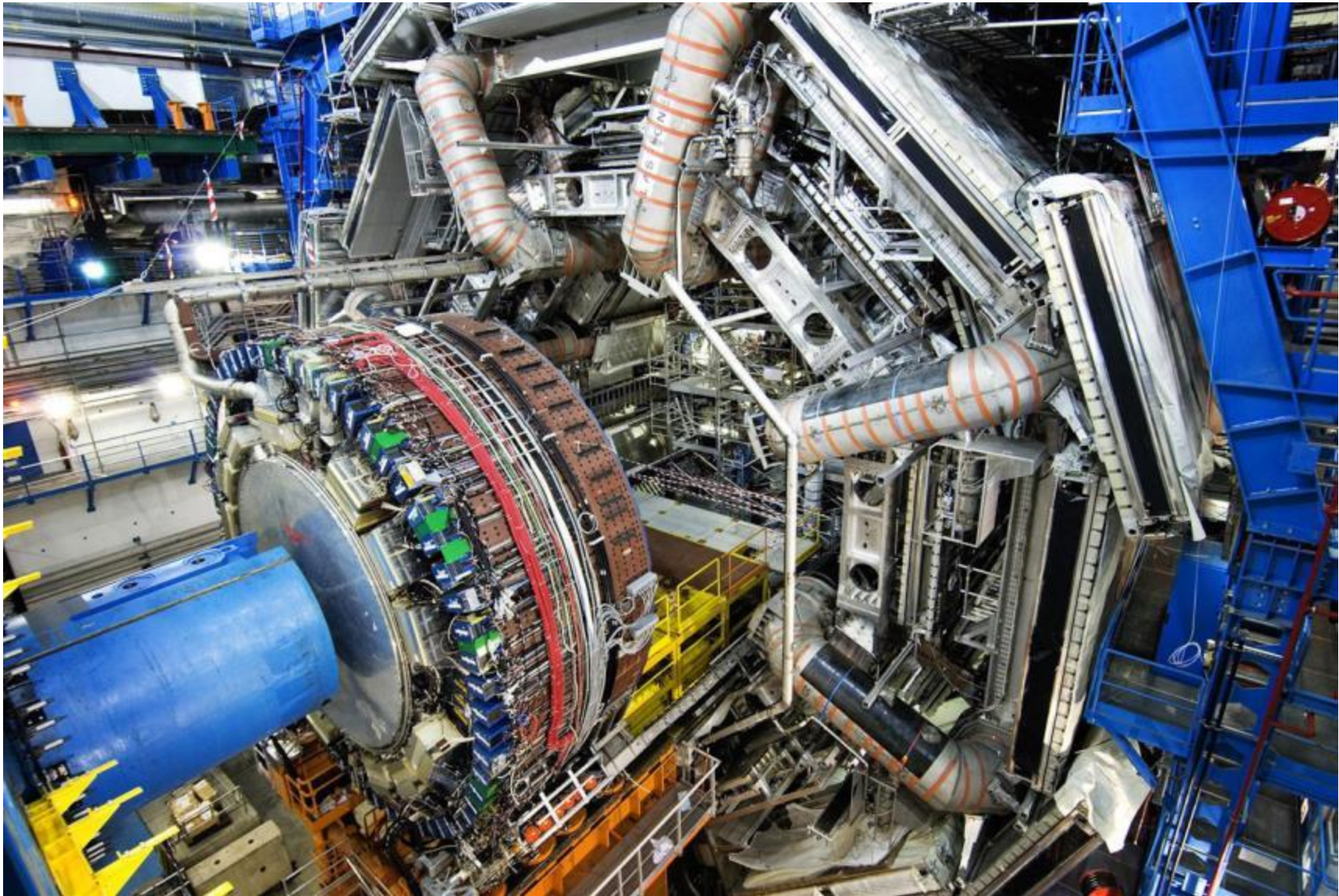
Dedicated to Prof Dr H -J Born on the occasion of his 70th birthday

By applying the well known techniques of the planar process oxide passivation, photo engraving and ion implantation, Si pn-junction detectors were fabricated with leakage currents of less than $1 \text{ nA cm}^{-2}/100 \mu\text{m}$ at room temperature. Best values for the energy resolution were 10.0 keV for the 5.486 MeV alphas of ^{241}Am at 22 °C using $5 \times 5 \text{ mm}^2$ detector chips

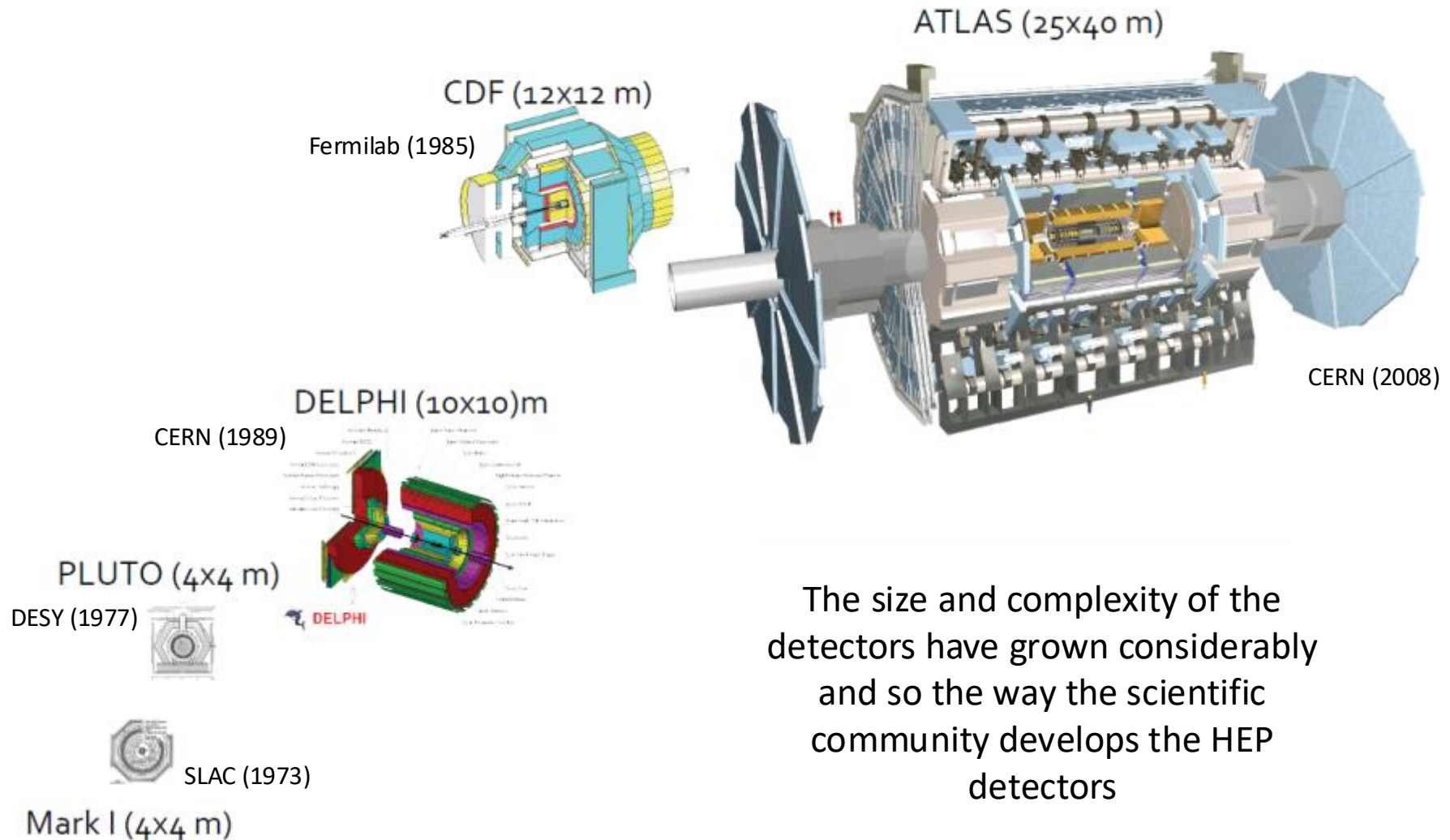
Cloud Chamber (1932)



ATLAS (Nowadays)



Detector Complexity Evolution

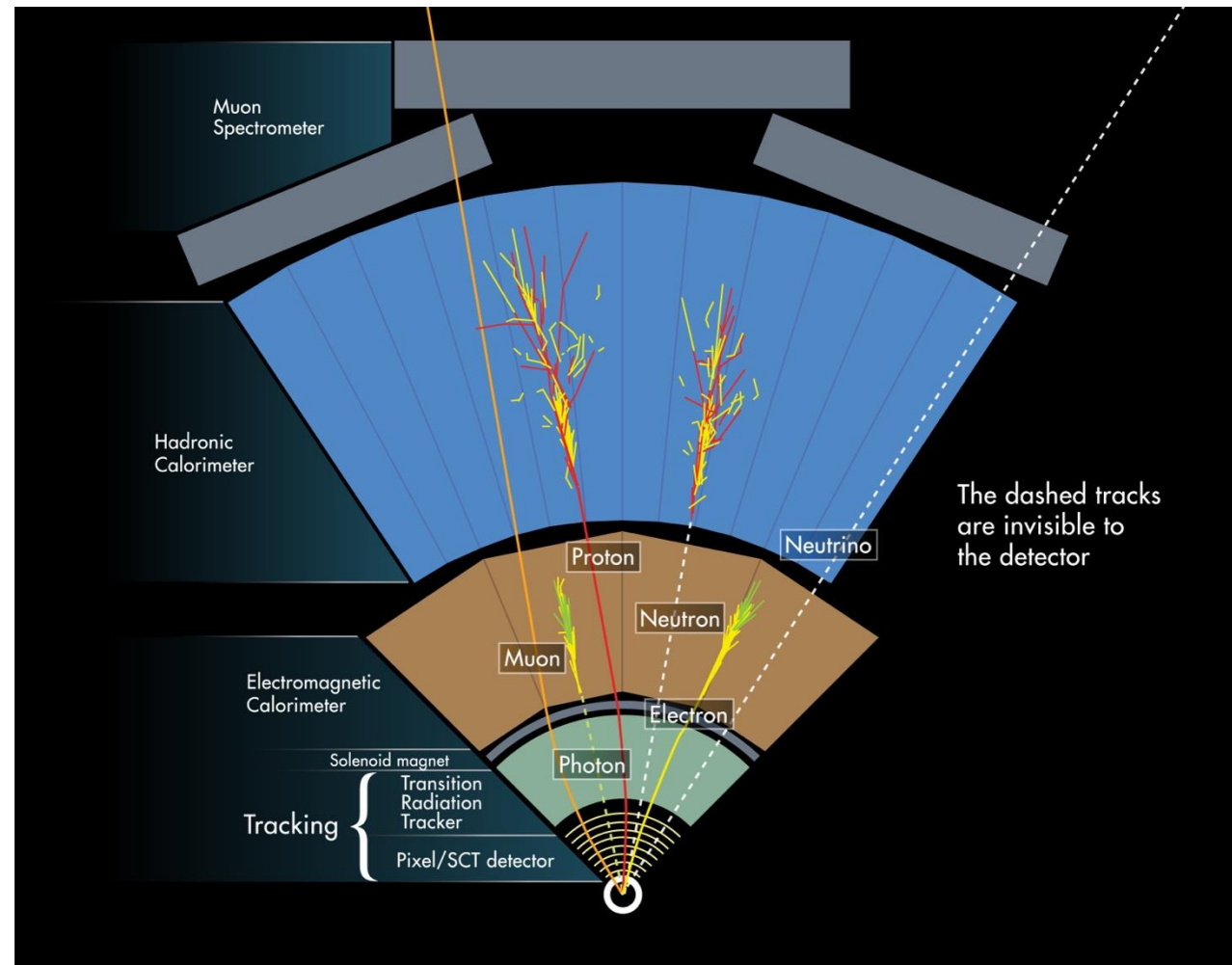


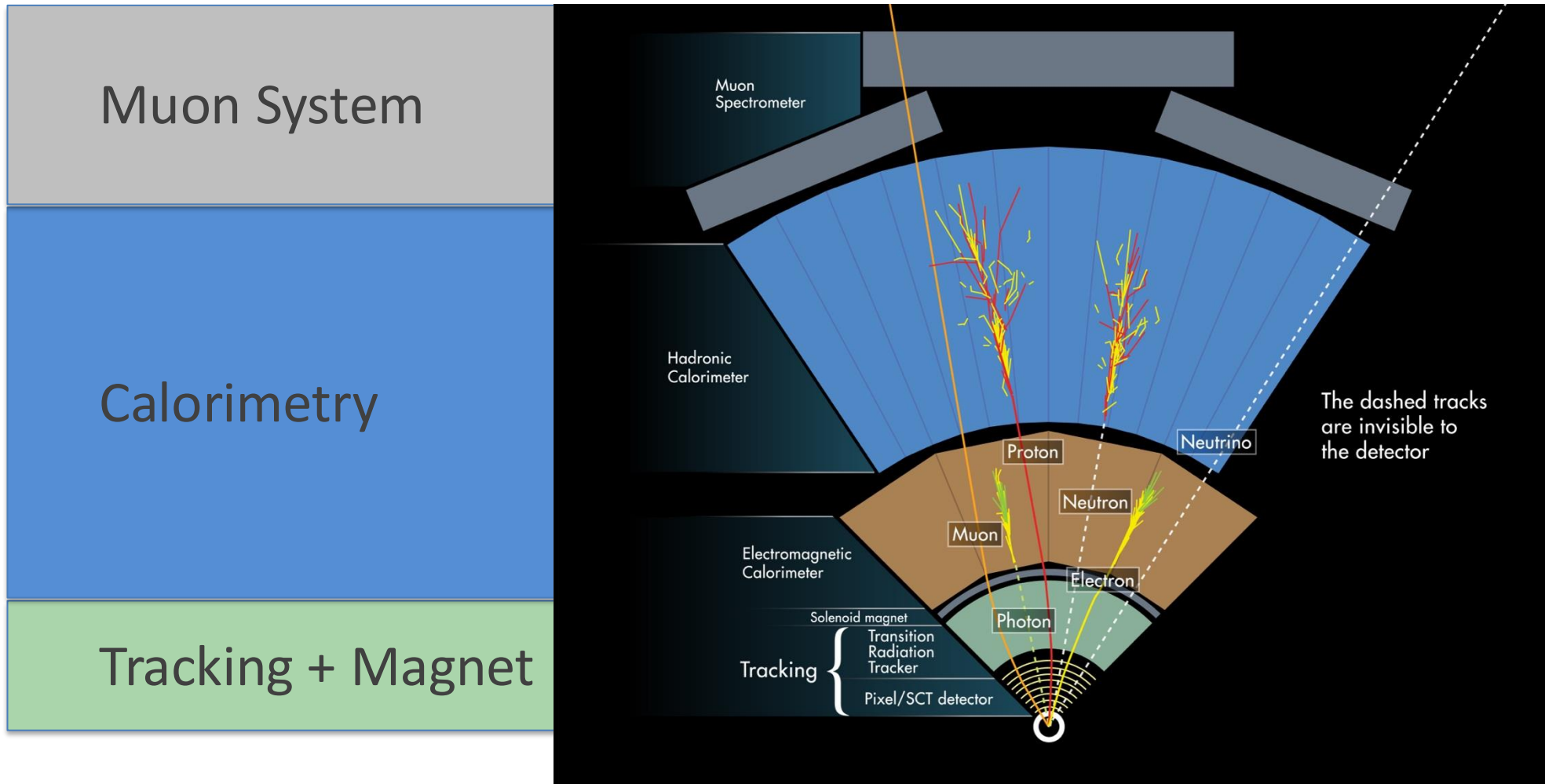
The size and complexity of the detectors have grown considerably and so the way the scientific community develops the HEP detectors

$$E = \sqrt{(mc^2)^2 + (pc)^2}$$

- Energy (E)
Calorimeters
- Mass (m)
Particle ID systems
- Momentum (p)
Vertex and trackers

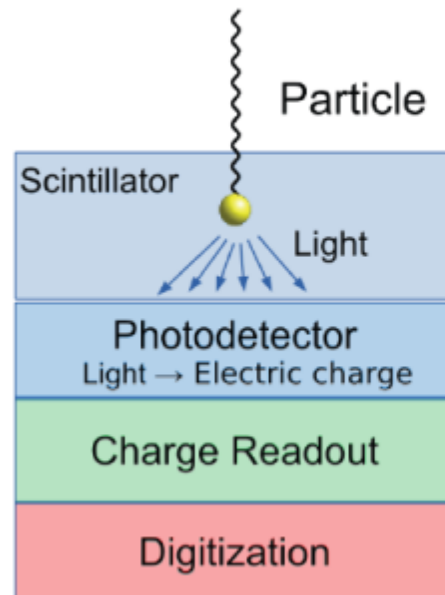
Specialized detector systems exploiting the different way particles interact with matter





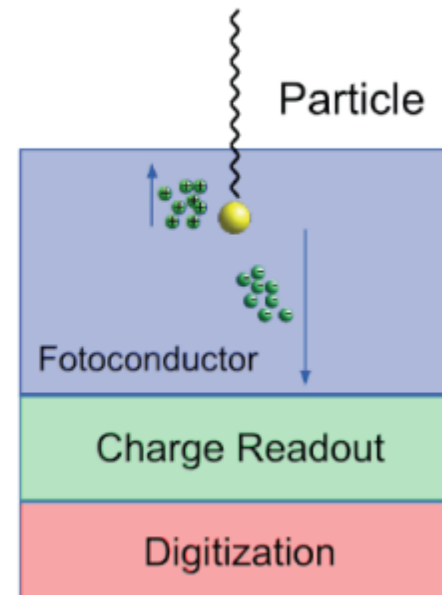
- In order to detect a particle:
 - It must interact with the material of the detector
 - Transfer energy in some recognizable fashion
- The detection of particles happens via their energy loss in the material it traverses
- Our goal is: Convert the energy deposited in an electrical signal we can play with

Indirect detection



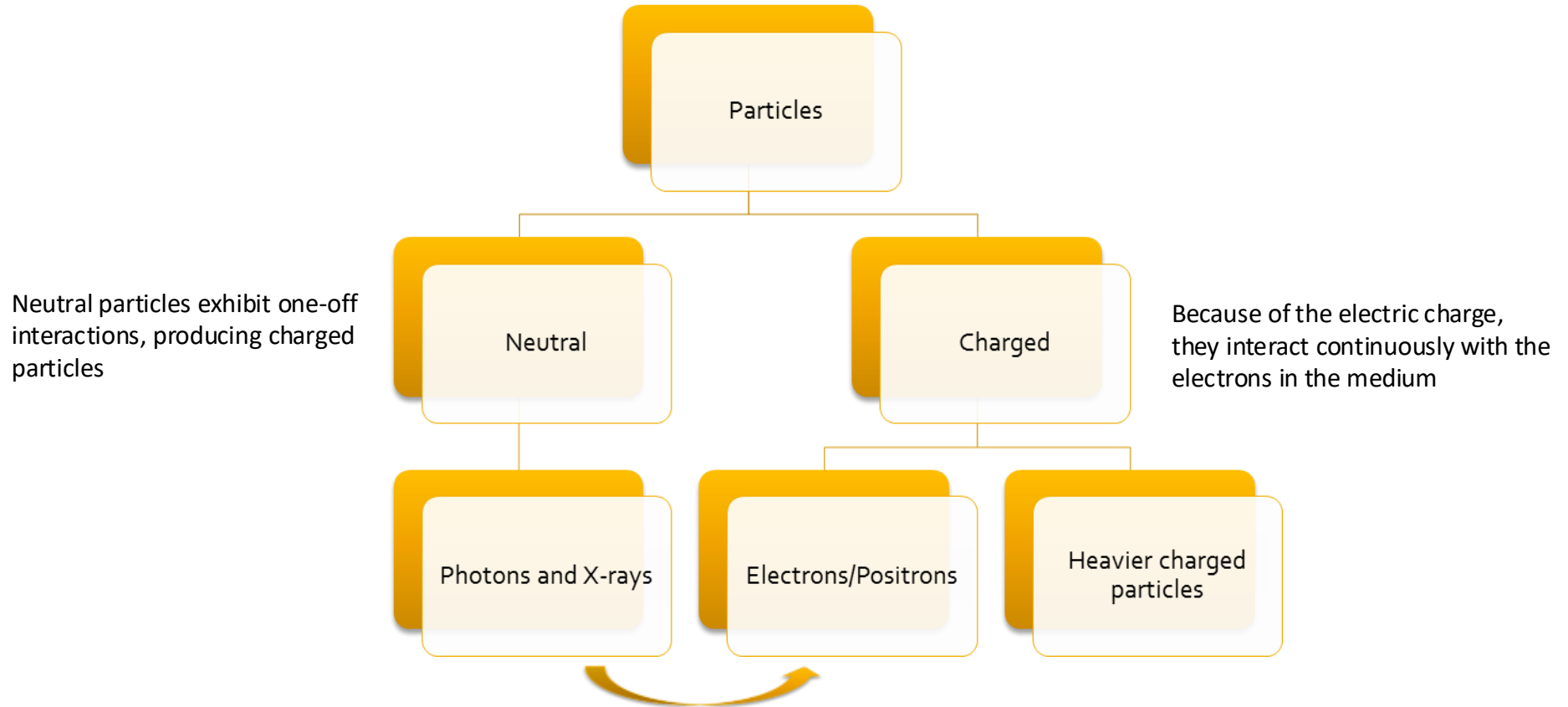
The deposited energy excites the medium that decays by emission of light which in a second step is converted into charge

Direct detection

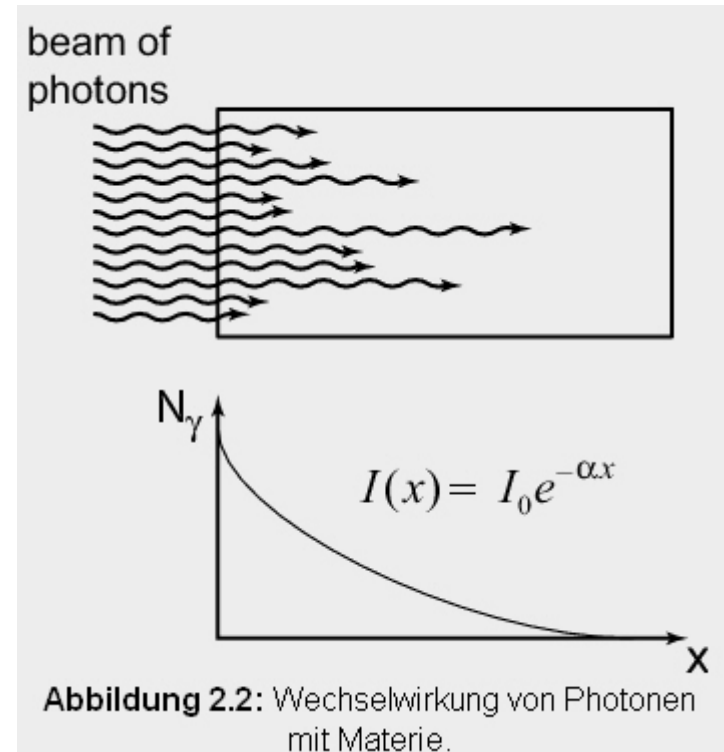
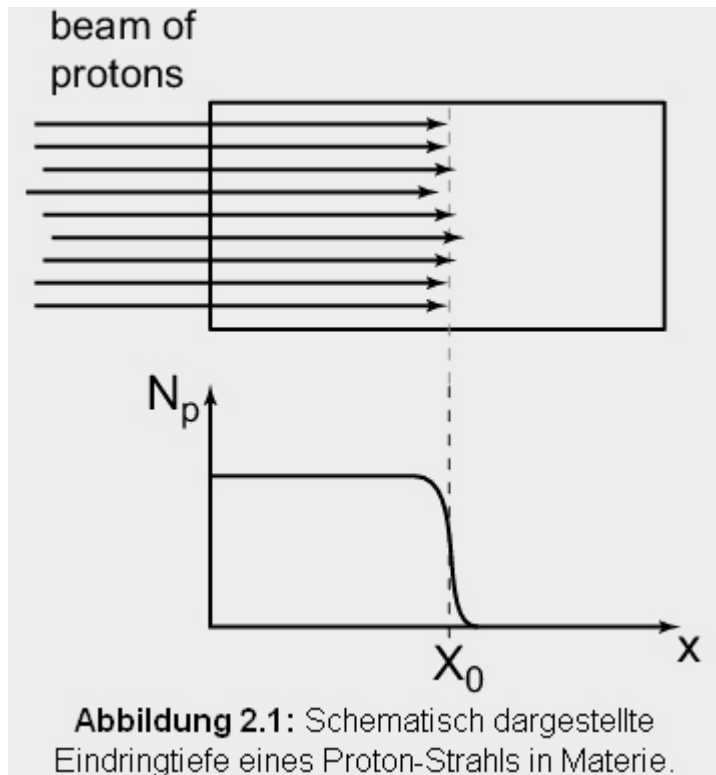


The ionization creates mobile charges that we can detect

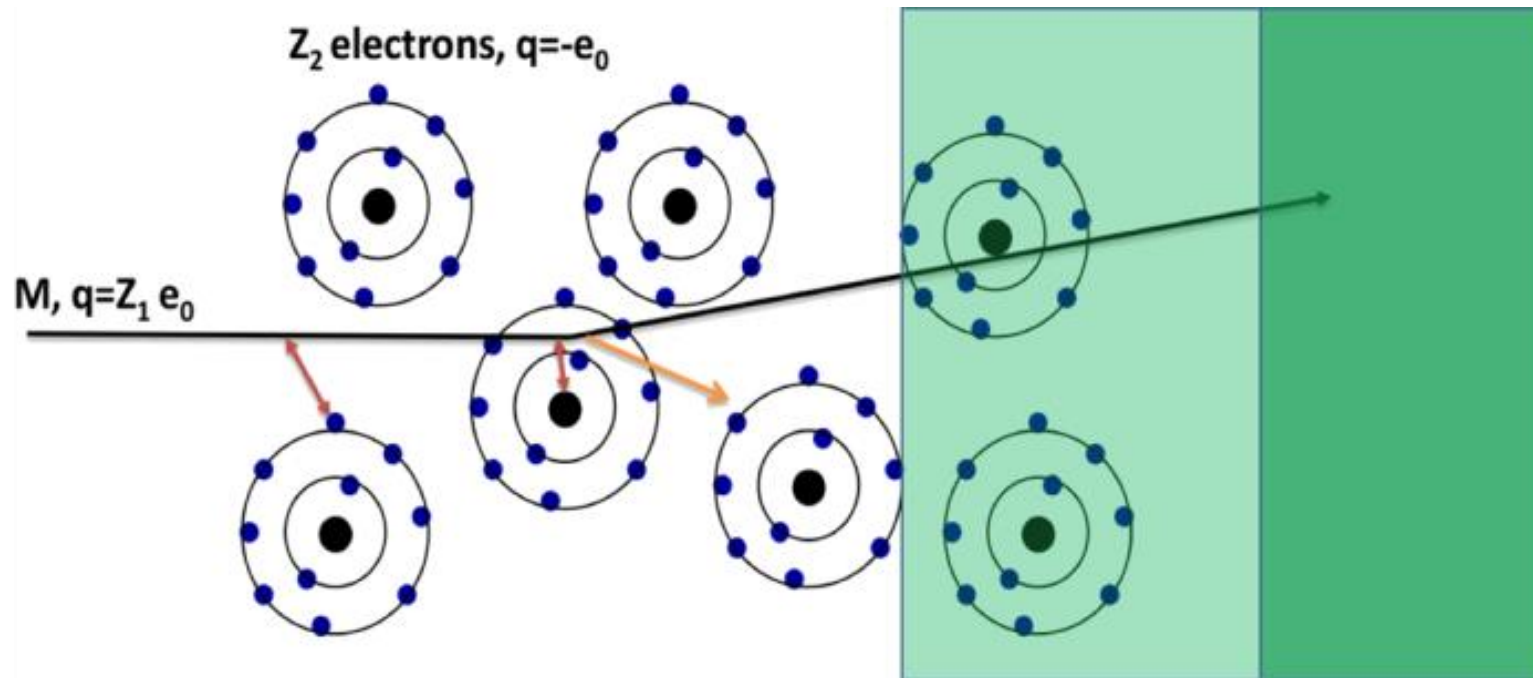
Interaction of particles with matter is the basis of all particle detection devices



- **Charged particles:** Ionization, Bremsstrahlung, Cherenkov, ...
- Photons: Photoelectric effect, Compton, pair production
- Neutral hadrons: Nuclear interactions
- Neutrinos: Weak interactions



Interaction Of Charged Particles With Matter



① Interaction with the atomic electrons. The incoming particle loses energy and the atoms are **excited** or **ionized**

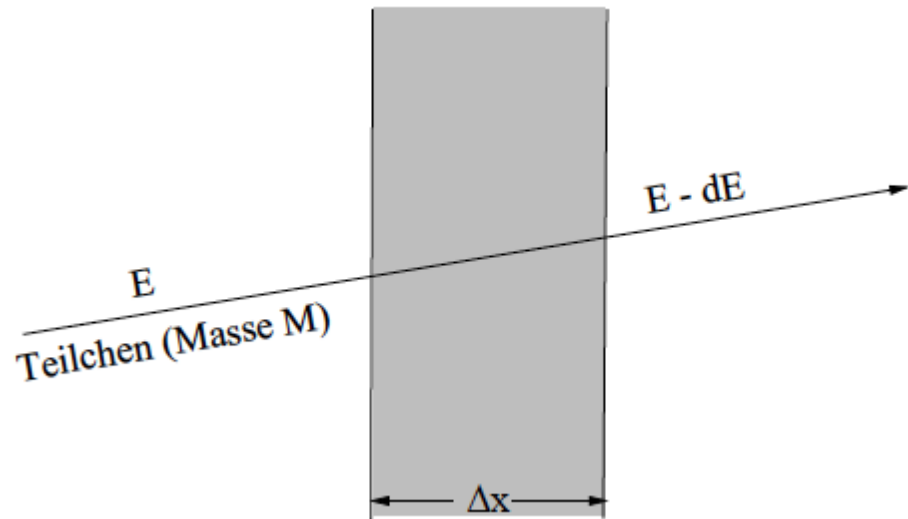
② Interaction with the atomic nucleus. The particle is deflected causing **multiple scattering**. **Bremsstrahlung**

③ **Cherenkov** or Transition Radiation

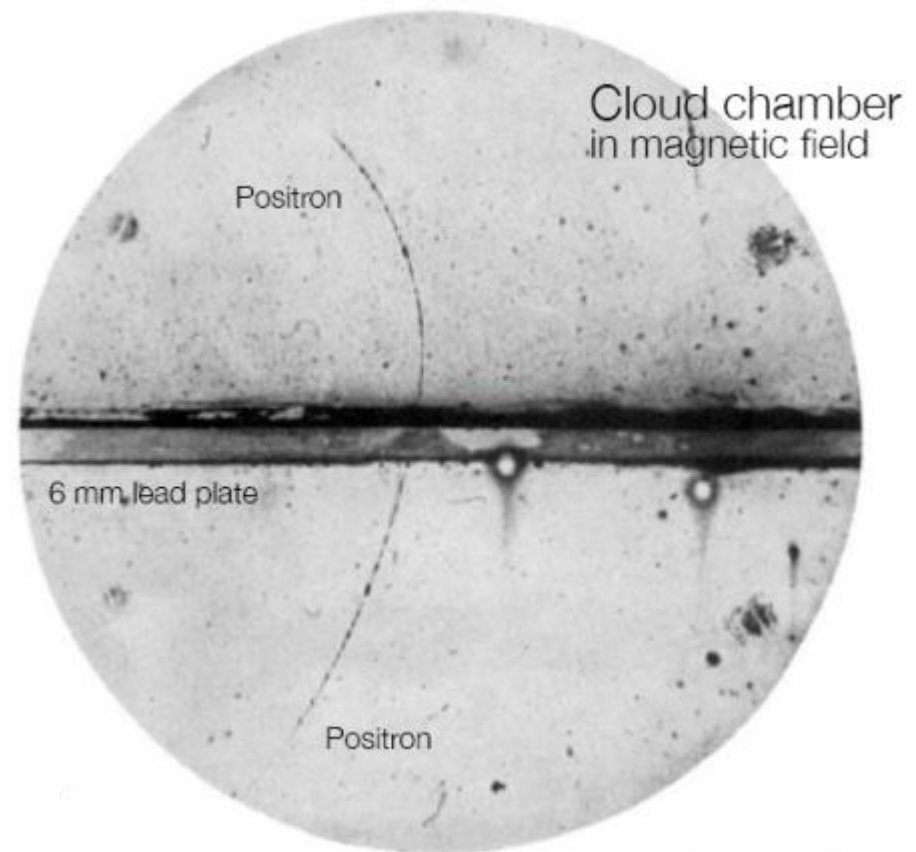
- Charged particles lose their energy mainly by ionization of the atoms of the medium
- We can 'calculate' the average energy loss per unit of length dE/dx

Bethe Bloch Formula

Describes the energy loss of a **heavy charged** particle in matter.



- Magnetic field 1500 Gauss
- Chamber diameter 15 cm
- A 63 MeV positron passes through a 6 mm lead, leaving the plate with an energy of 23 MeV.



Describes the energy loss of a **heavy charged** particle in matter.

The mean rate of energy loss (or stopping power) is given by the Bethe-Bloch equation:

$$-\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = K z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2 T_{\max}}{I^2} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta(\beta\gamma)}{2} \right] [\cdot \rho]$$

density

$$K = 4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 = 0.307 \text{ MeV g}^{-1} \text{ cm}^2$$

$$T_{\max} = 2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2 / (1 + 2\gamma m_e / M + (m_e / M)^2)$$

[Max. energy transfer in single collision]

z : Charge of incident particle

M : Mass of incident particle

Z : Charge number of medium

A : Atomic mass of medium

I : Mean excitation energy of medium

δ : Density correction [transv. extension of electric field]

$$N_A = 6.022 \cdot 10^{23}$$

[Avogadro's number]

$$r_e = e^2 / 4\pi \epsilon_0 m_e c^2 = 2.8 \text{ fm}$$

[Classical electron radius]

$$m_e = 511 \text{ keV}$$

[Electron mass]

$$\beta = v/c$$

[Velocity]

$$\gamma = (1 - \beta^2)^{-1/2}$$

[Lorentz factor]

Validity:

$$.05 < \beta\gamma < 500$$

$$M > m_\mu$$

Describes the energy loss of a **heavy charged** particle in matter.

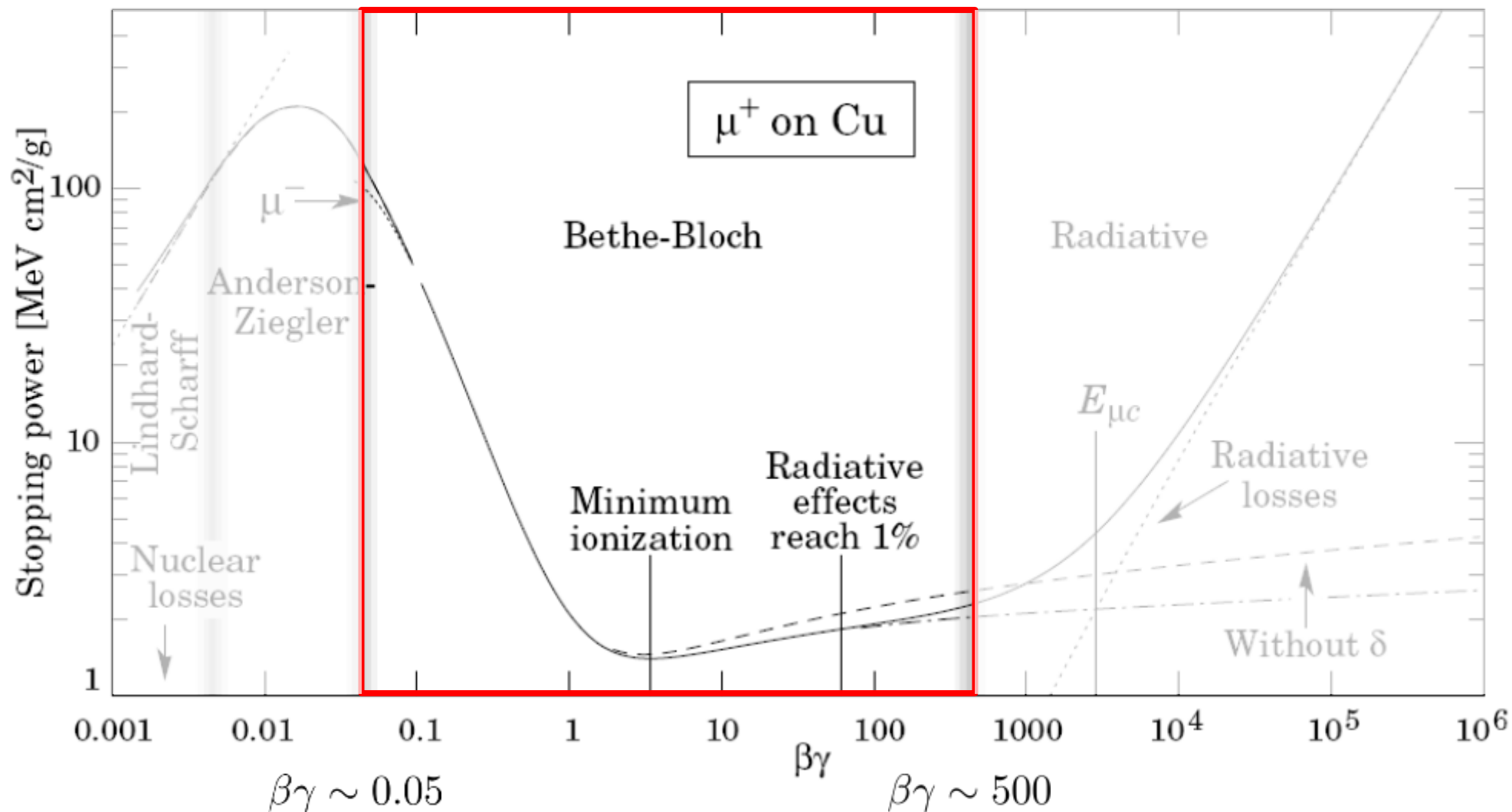
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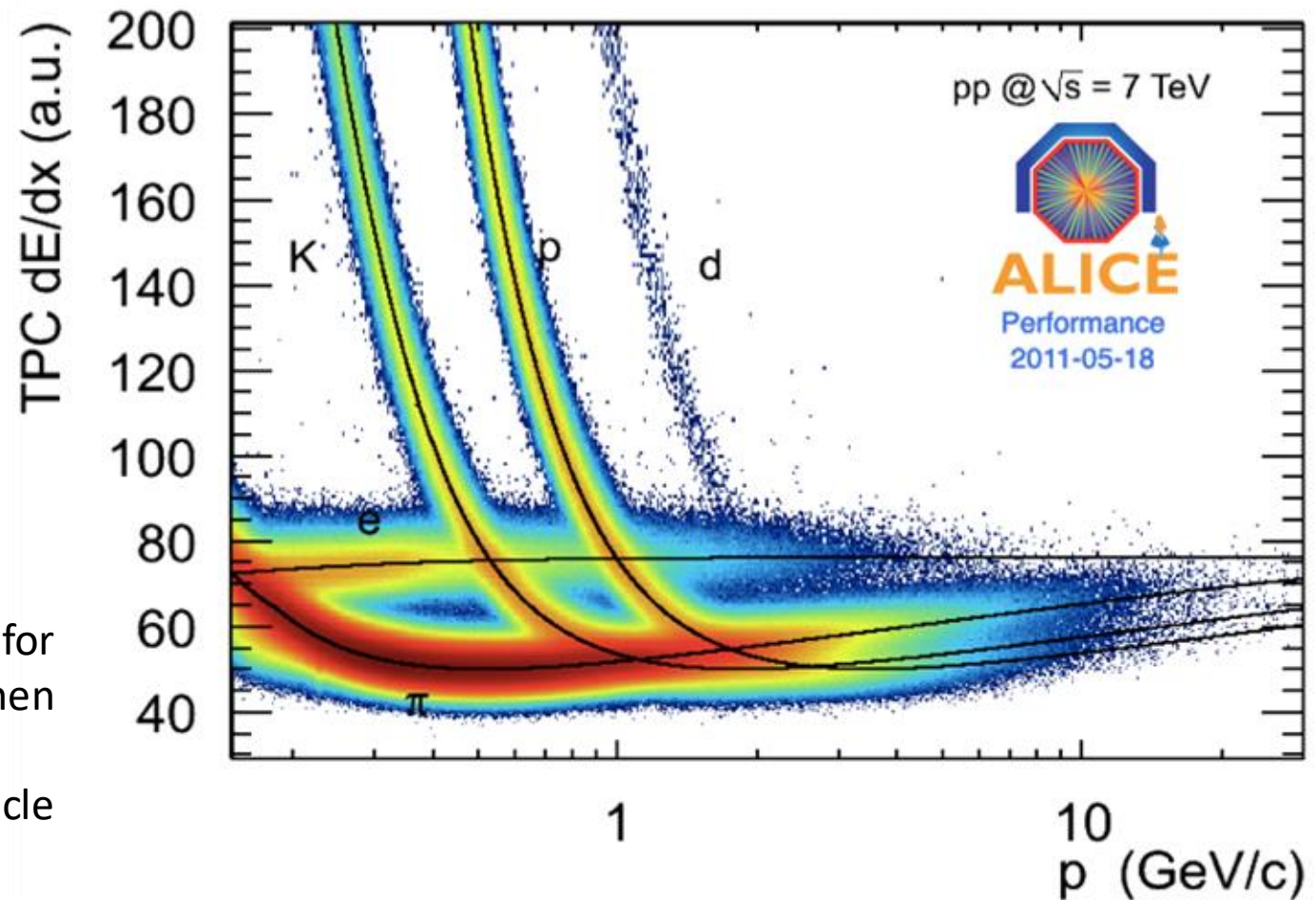
density

- Depends on $\beta\gamma = p/E \cdot E/m = p/m$ of the projectile particle
- Depends on z^2 , the charge of the projectile particle
- Same curve for all $z=1$ particles when plotted as a function of $\beta\gamma$
- Minimum at $\beta\gamma = p/m \sim 3$ ($v=96\%c$) $\rightarrow dE/dx \sim 1.5 \text{ MeV/cm}^2\text{g}$
- Minimum ionizing particles (MIP) $\rightarrow$ Particles with $\beta\gamma \sim 3$
- Depends only weakly on material (Z/A) at same $\beta\gamma$

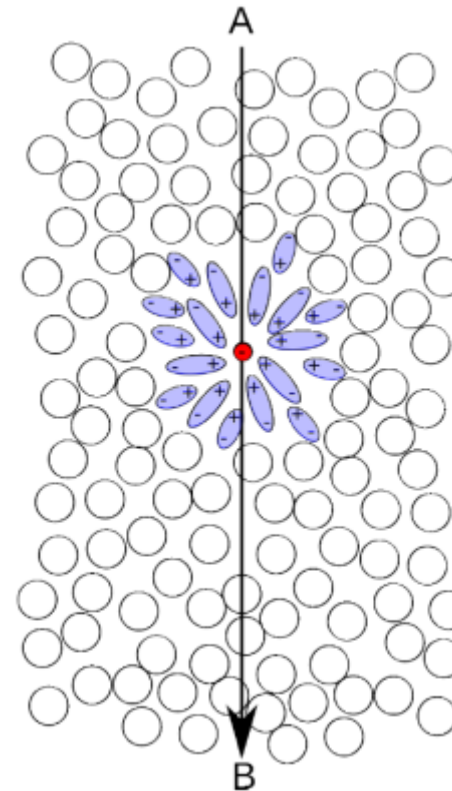
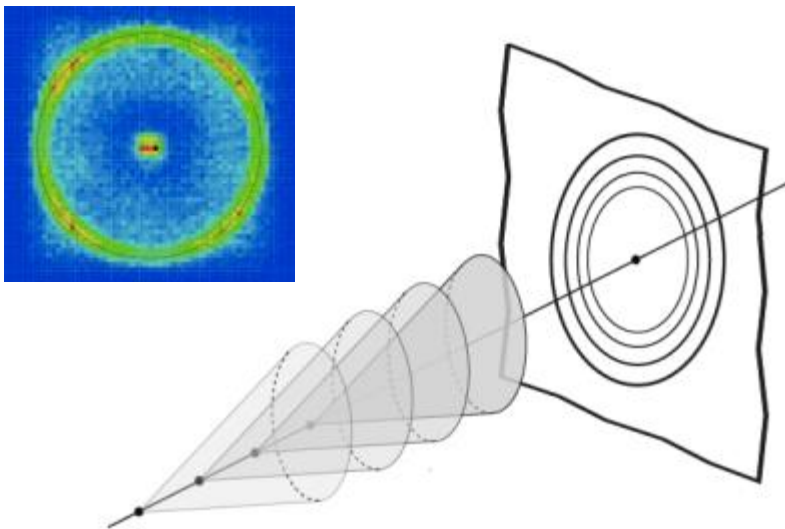
Bethe Bloch Formula: Features



- Get different curves for different particles when plotted against p
- Possibility for particle identification

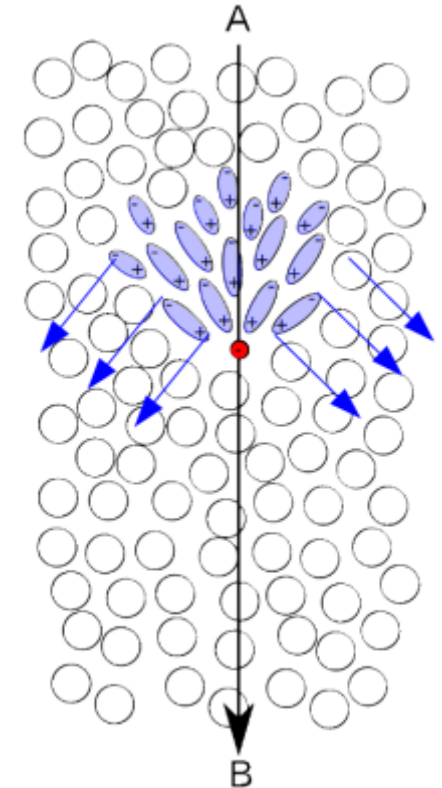


- Cherenkov light is produced by particles traversing a 'radiator' faster than the speed of light in that media
- Radiation is emitted at a characteristic angle producing a cone of light
- Process not important for energy loss, but used in high-energy physics detectors
- We can detect the light with a photodetector



$v < c/n$

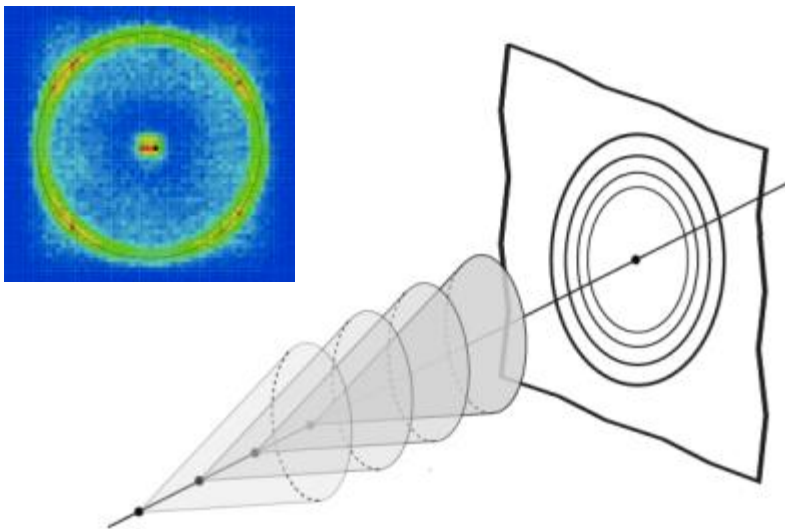
- Induced dipoles symmetrically arranged around particle path; no net dipole moment.
- No Cherenkov radiation



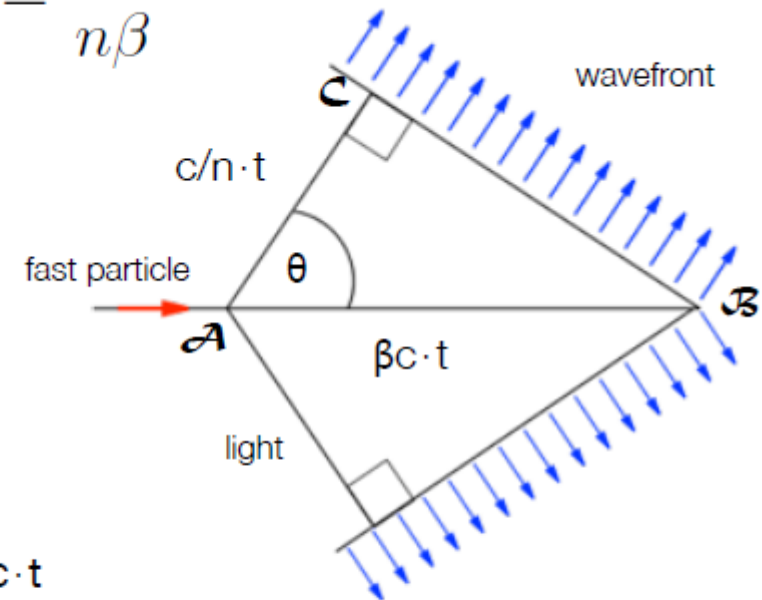
$v > c/n$

- Symmetry is broken and there is a constructive interference of electromagnetic pulses by polarization of the atomic dipoles.
- Radiation of Cherenkov photons

- Cherenkov light is produced by particles traversing a 'radiator' faster than the speed of light in that media
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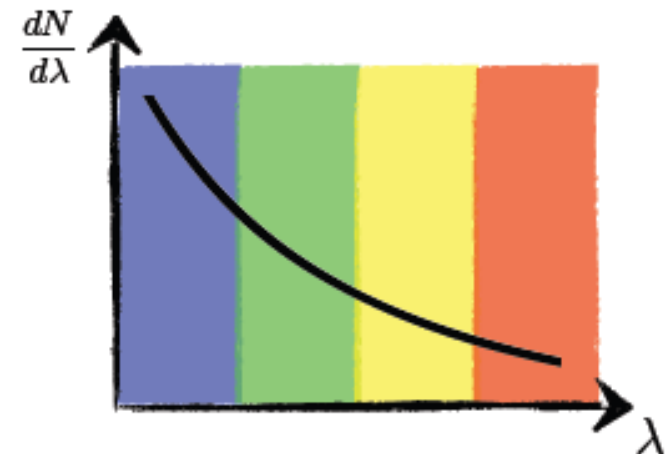
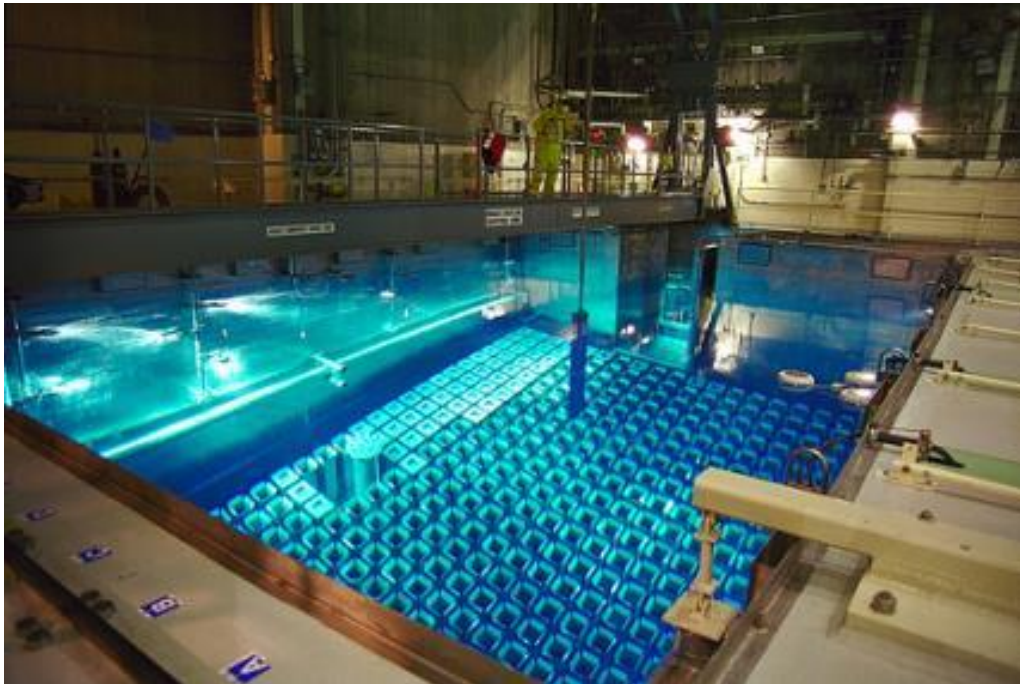
$$\cos \theta_c = \frac{1}{n\beta}$$



$$AB = \beta c \cdot t$$

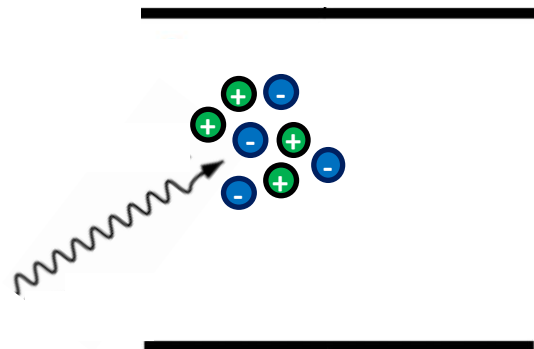
$$AC = c/n \cdot t$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta &= AC / AB = c/n \cdot t / (\beta c \cdot t) \\ &= 1/n\beta \end{aligned}$$

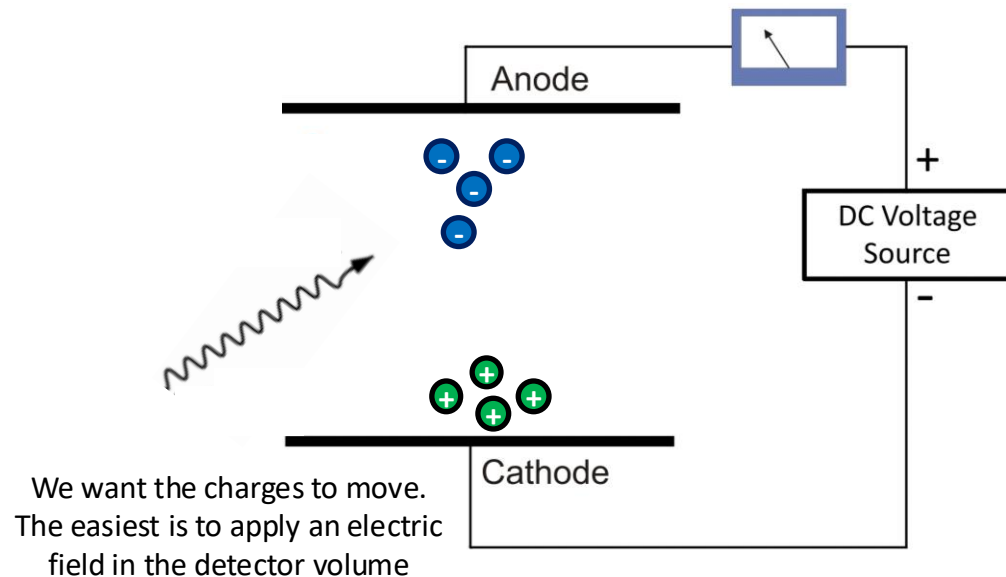


Gas-Filled Ionization Detectors

- Ionization creates charges in the detector volume:
 - Electron-ions in a gaseous detector (eh-pairs in a semiconductor)
- Electric field applied to move the charges and 'induce' an electric current
- Depending on the field strength, secondary ionizations are possible (amplification)

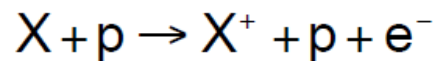


Charges created at rest. Not really useful

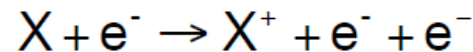


- Ionization creates charges in the detector volume:
 - Electron-ions in a gaseous detector
 - Electron-hole pairs in a semiconductor detector
- Electric field applied to move the charges and 'induce' an electric current
- Depending on the field strength, secondary ionizations are possible (**amplification**)

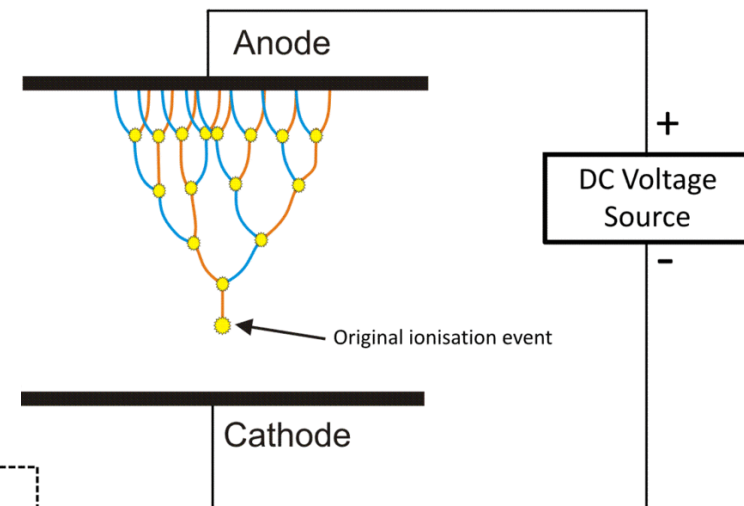
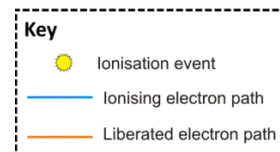
Primary ionization



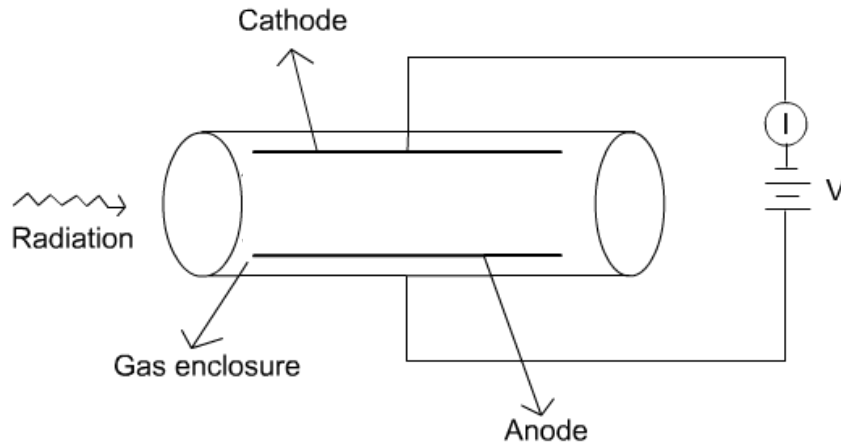
Secondary ionization



p = charge particle traversing the gas
X = gas atom
e⁻ = delta-electron (δ)

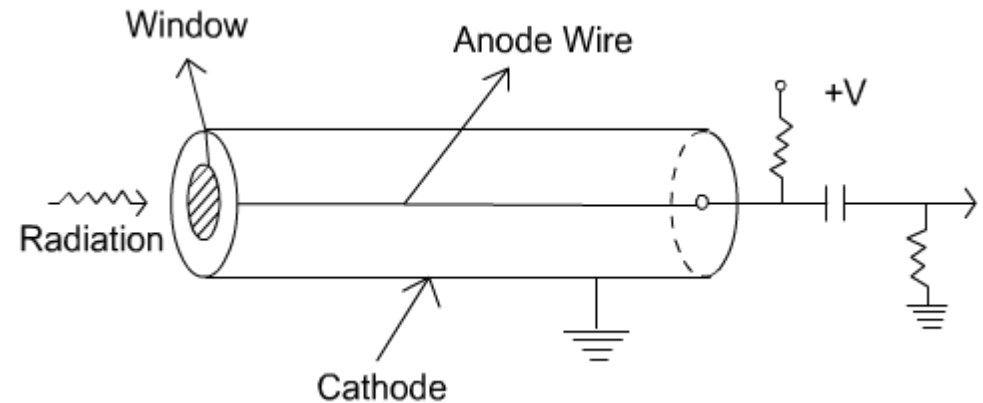


Not to scale



Planar design:

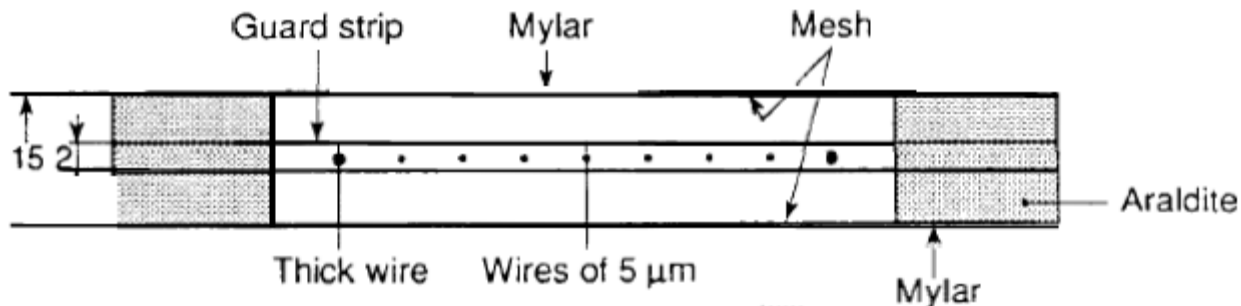
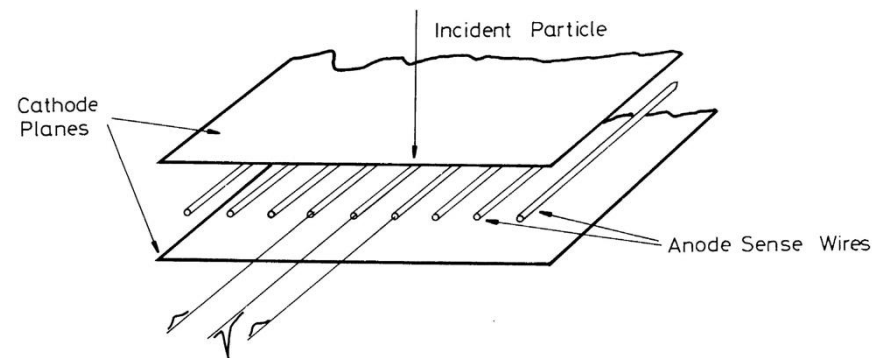
- E uniform and perpendicular to the electrodes
- Amount of ionization produced proportional to path length and to position where the ionization occurs
- Not proportional to energy



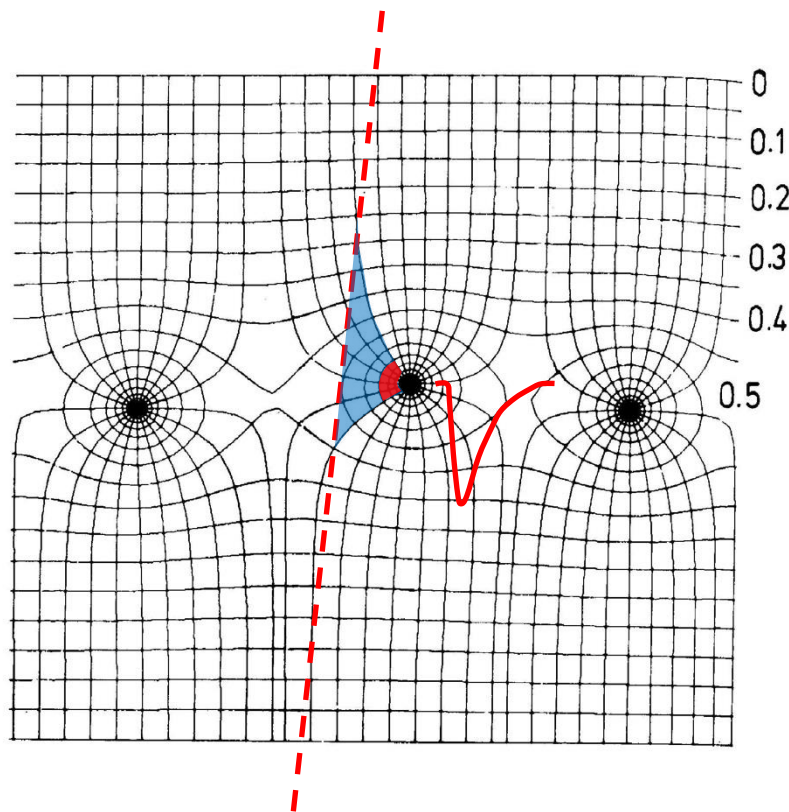
Cylindrical proportional counter:

- Single anode wire in a cylindrical cathode
- $E \sim 1/r$: weak field far from the wire
- Electrons/ions drift in the volume
- **Multiplication** occurs near the anode

- The detectors presented so far do not give a position measurement of the incident particle
- Solution: Multi-wire proportional chamber (only 1D information though)



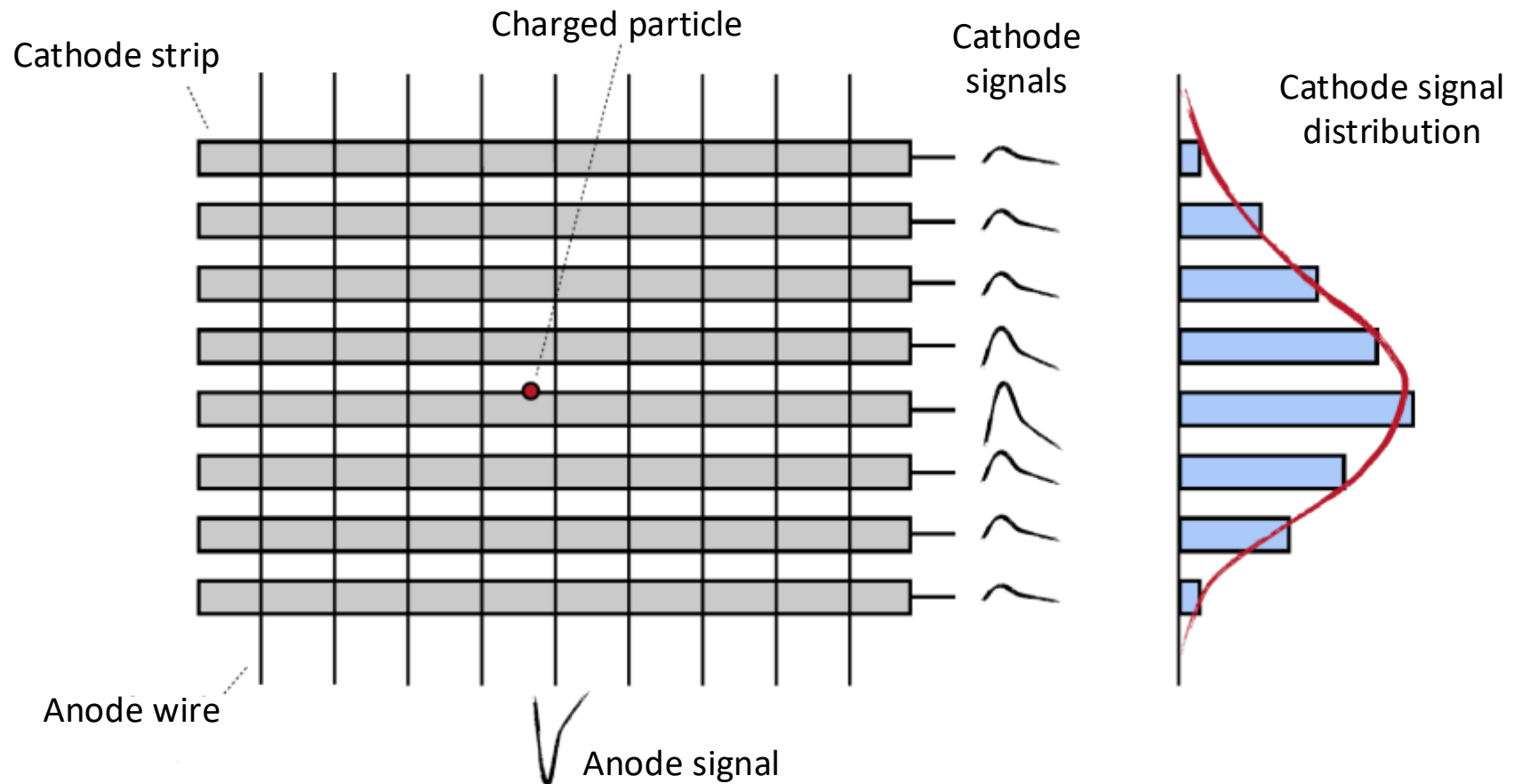
- The detectors presented so far do not give a position measurement of the incident particle
- Solution: Multi-wire proportional chamber (only 1D information though)



- Multiwire proportional chamber with single wire readout
- A charged particle traversing the detector leaves a trail of electrons and ions
- The electrons drift to the wires in the electric field and start to form an avalanche in the high electric field close to the wire
- This induces a signal in the wire which can be readout by an amplifier

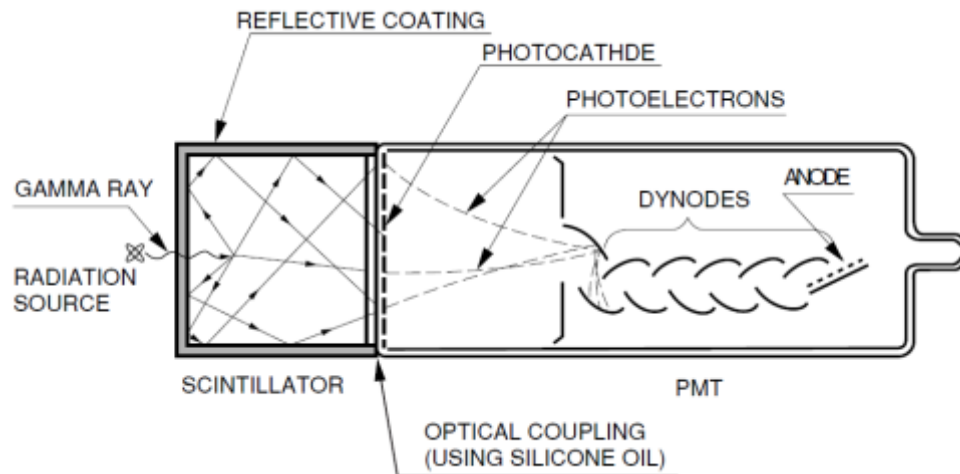
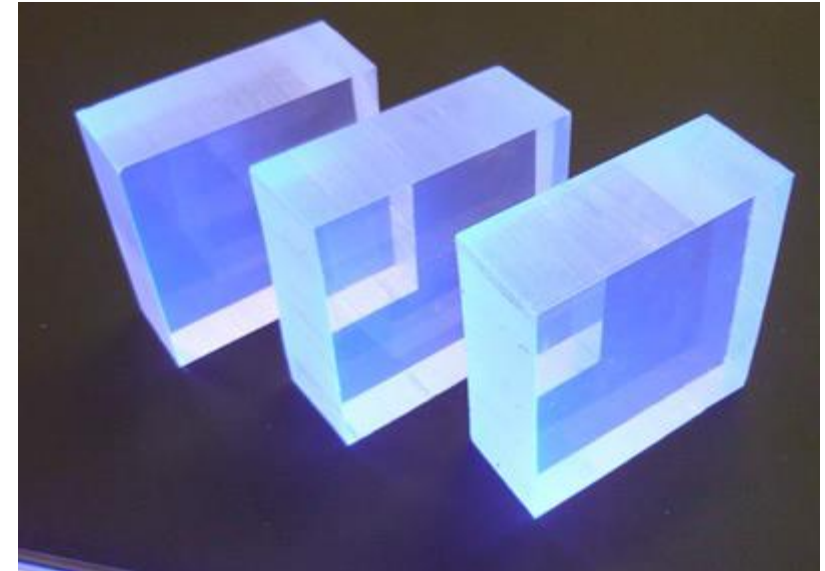
Possible improvements:

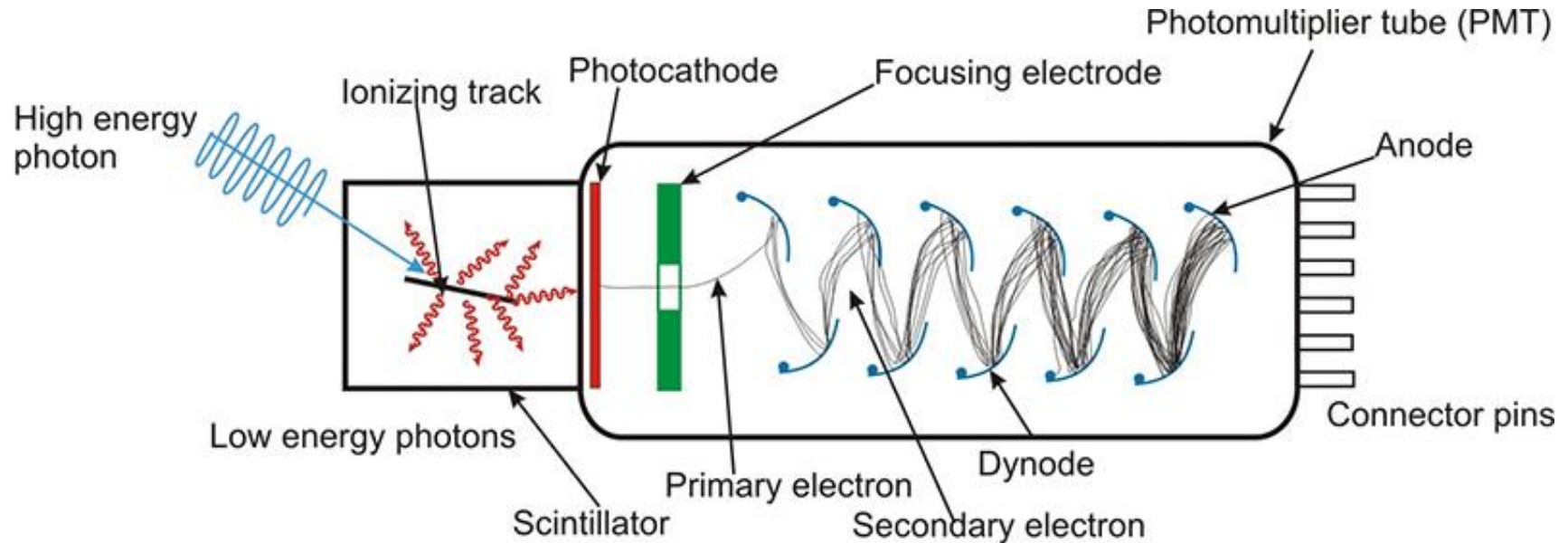
- Segmented cathode
- 3-dimension information → Several MWPCs with different orientation



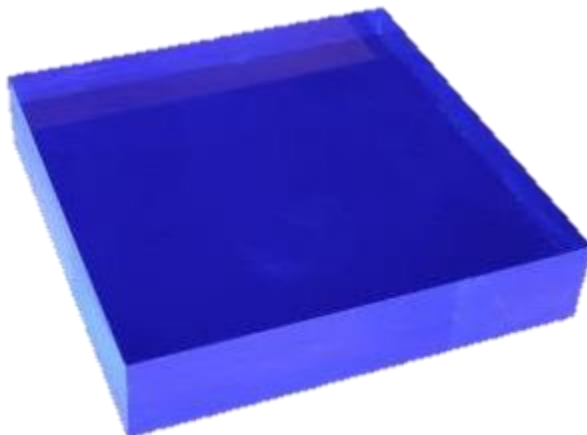
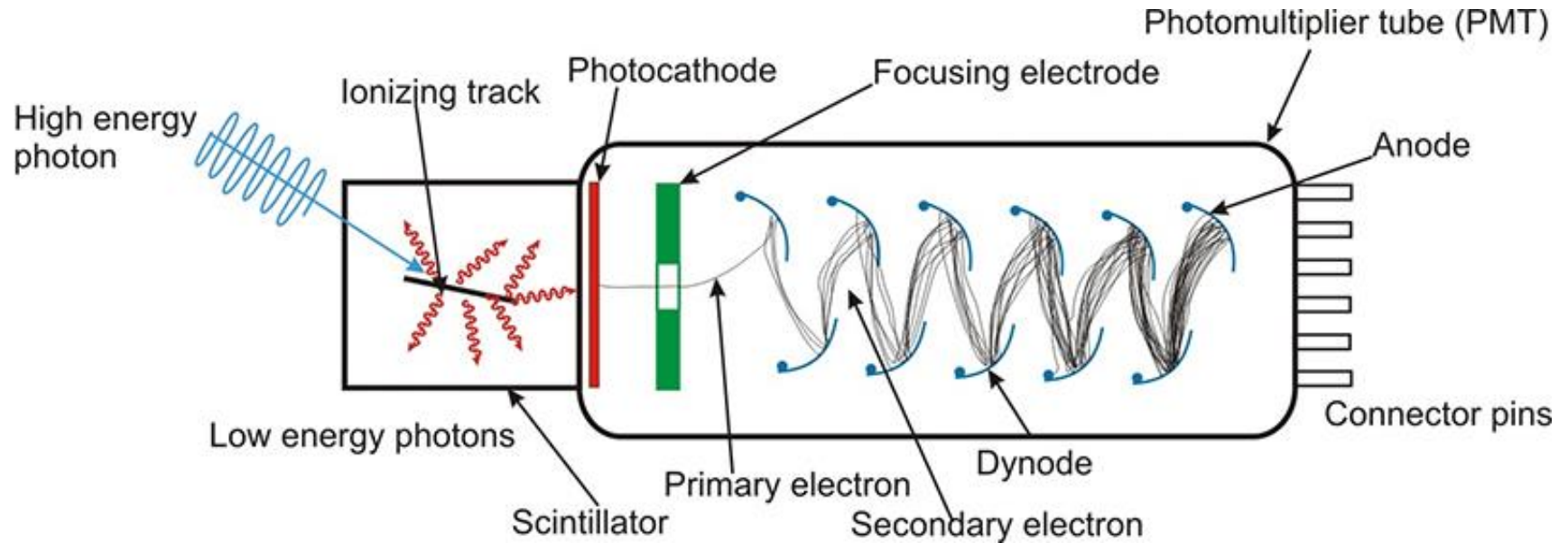
Scintillation Detectors

- The detector consists of a chemical compound (organic or inorganic) that emits short light pulses after the molecules of the material have been excited by the passage of a charged particle (dE/dx converted into visible light).
- The light produced is collected via a light guide onto a photodetector.
- Sensitivity to energy and fast time response





- The PMT has a photocathode from which electrons are emitted through the photoelectric effect.
- The electrons are accelerated in the electric field between several subsequent electrodes, dynodes, inside the PMT.
- Due to the increased energies of the electrons, each electron will kick out a number of secondary electrons as they hit the surface of the dynodes.
- With a suitable number of dynodes amplification is obtained before an electric signal is read out at the anode of the PMT.

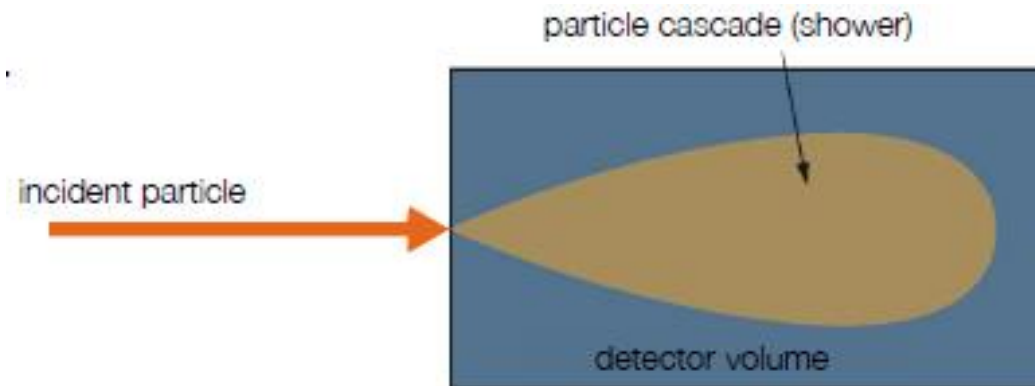


Electromagnetic Calorimeters

... where most of the particles end their journey...

Calorimetric methods imply total absorption of the particle energy in a bulk of material followed by the measurement of the deposited energy.

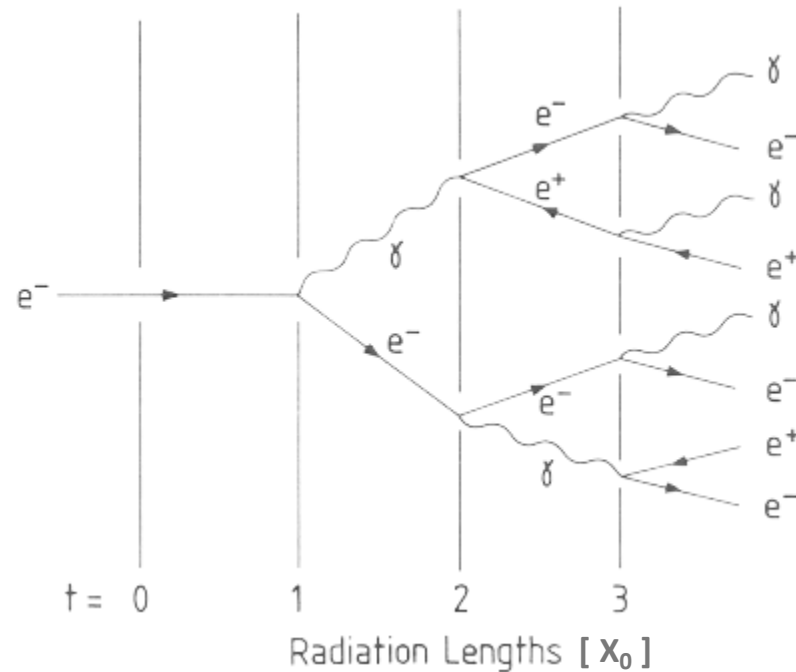
Photons, electrons and hadrons interact with media producing secondary particles which leads to a shower development. Thus calorimeters are most widely used in high energy physics to detect the electromagnetic (electromagnetic calorimeters) and hadronic (hadron calorimeters) showers.

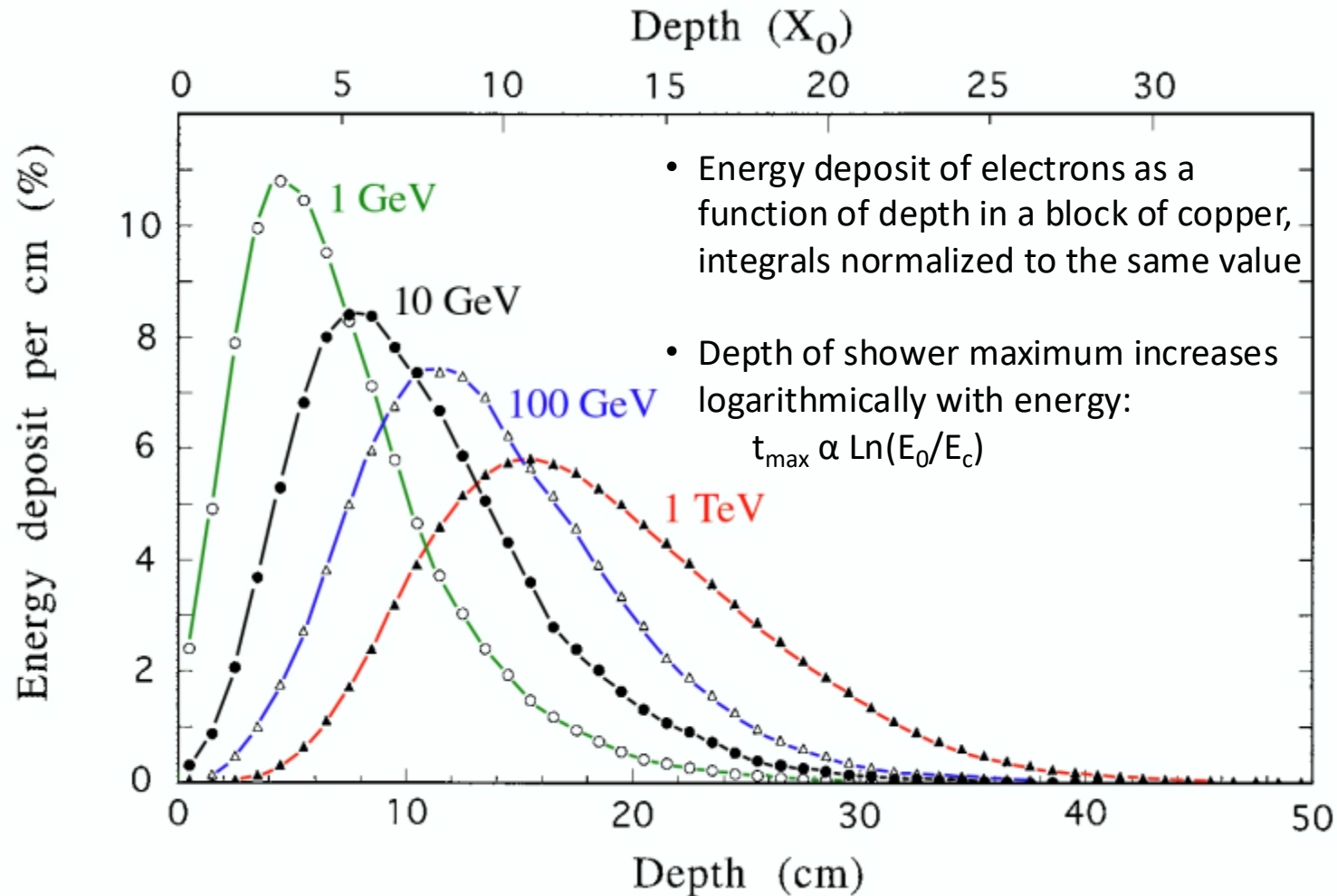


$\epsilon(t)$ Fracc. Incident E	1	1/2	1/4	1/8	...
$N(t)$ Number of cascades	1	2	4	8	...

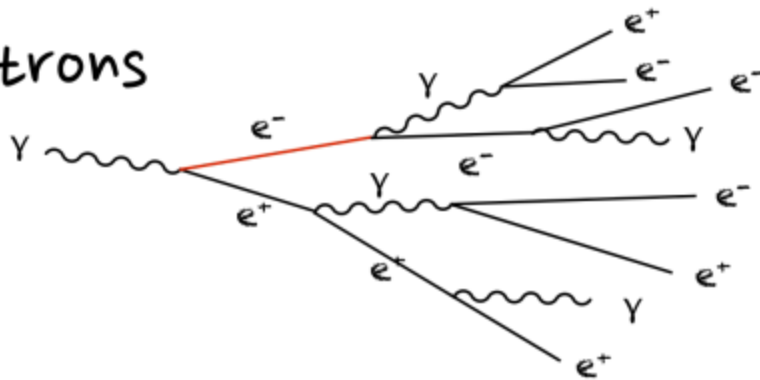
Simplified shower model (Heitler):

- Shower development is governed by X_0
- Depth of the shower $t = x/X_0$
- Particles after t : $N(t) = 2^t$
- Each with energy $E(t) = E_0/N(t) = E_0/2^t$
- Shower stops if $E < E_c$
- Number of particles $N = E/E_c$
- Maximum at $t_{\max} \propto \ln(E_0/E_c)$

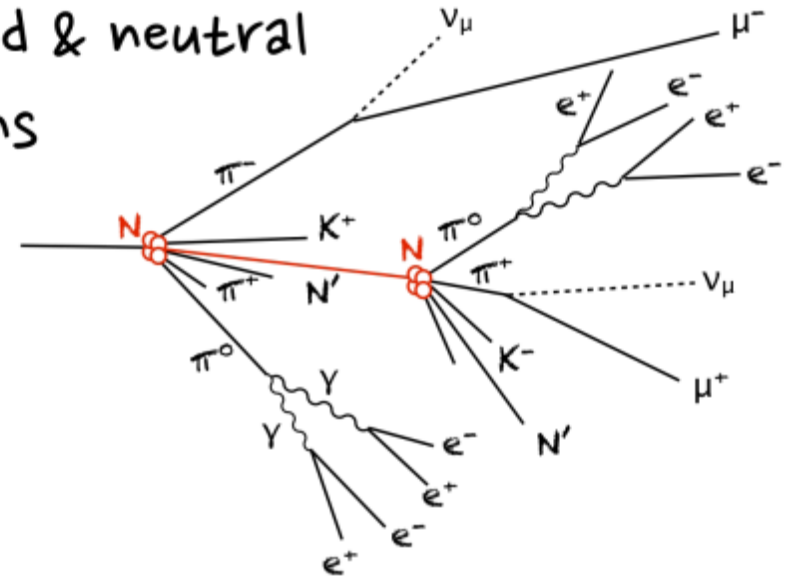




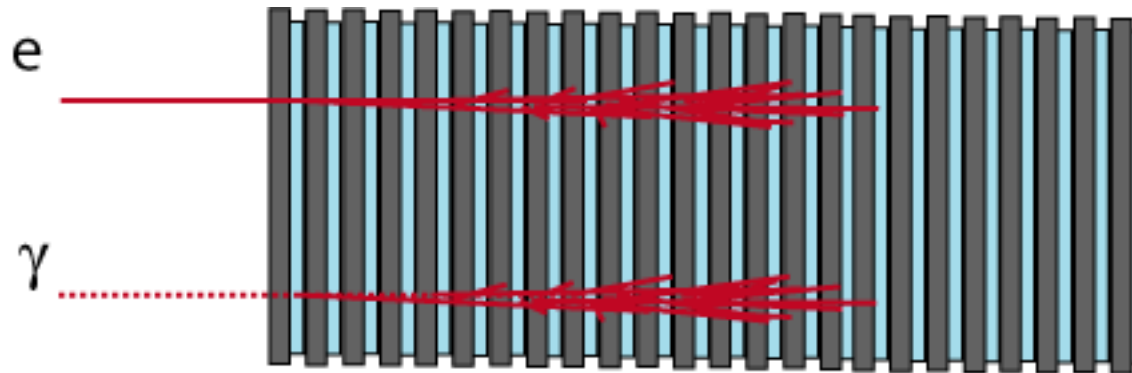
Photons
Electrons



charged & neutral
hadrons

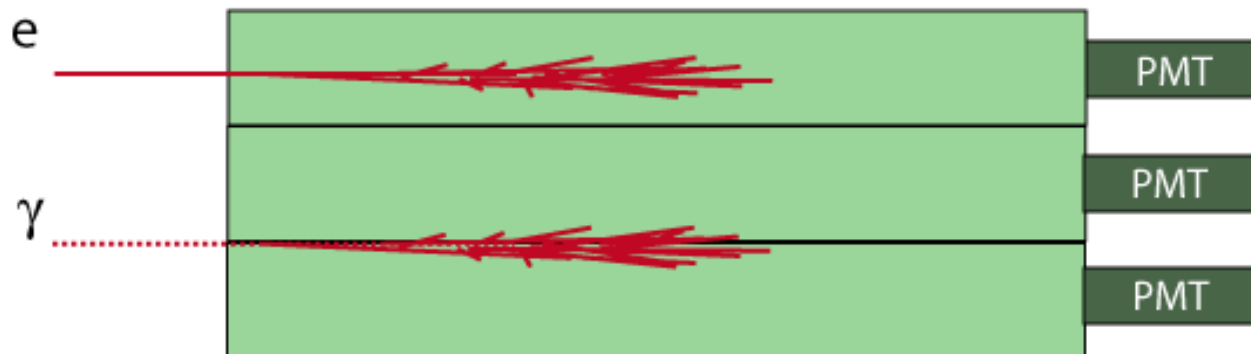


- Ionization energy of charged particles
- Neutrons
- e.m. Showers
- Photons from nuclear de-excitation
- Non detectable energy



Sampling calorimeter

Alternating layers of absorber and active material



Homogeneous calorimeter

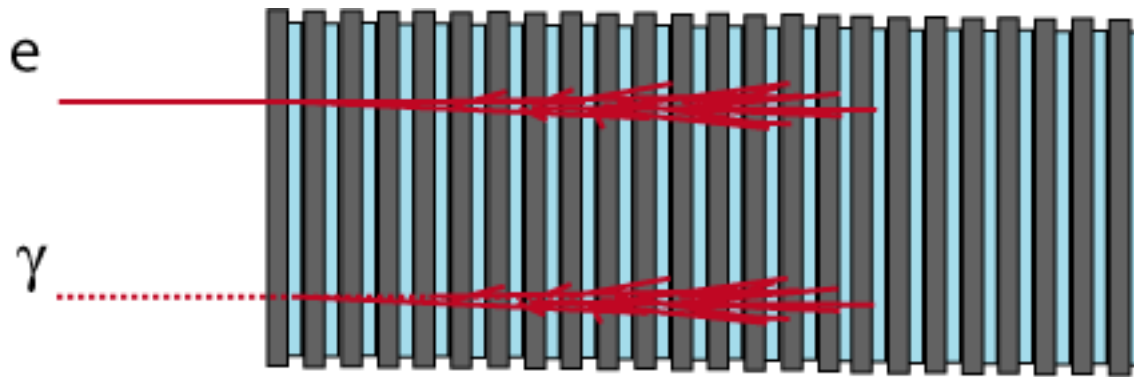
The active material is the absorber itself



Homogeneous calorimeter
The active material y the absorber itself

- Advantage: Optimal energy resolution, same response everywhere (good linearity), see all particles in the shower (best statistical precision)
- Disadvantage: Expensive and limited granularity

Homogeneous calorimeters are exclusively used for electromagnetic calorimeters (electrons, positrons and photons)

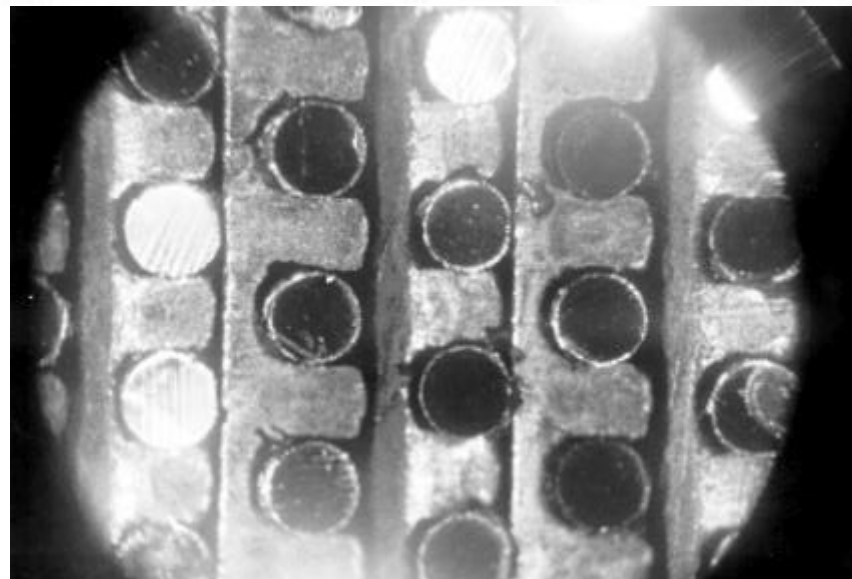
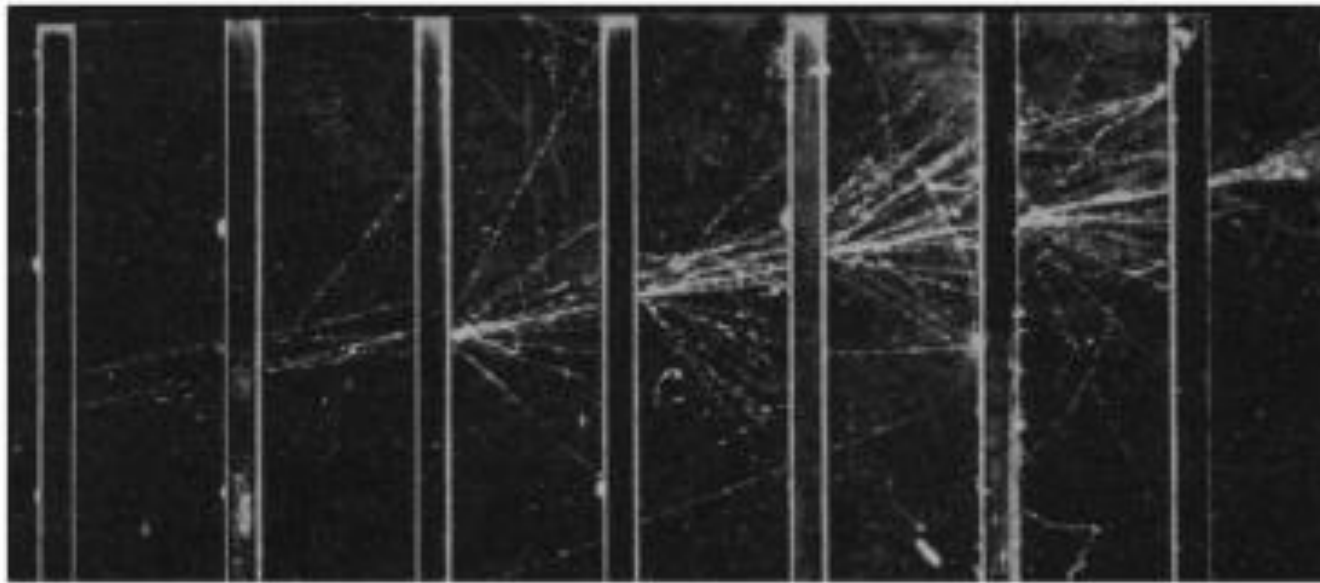


Sampling calorimeter

Alternating layers of absorber and active material

- Advantage: Better optimization for the corresponding requirements. Very compact. Simpler and cheaper than homogeneous.
- Disadvantages: Reduced energy resolution due to sampling fluctuations

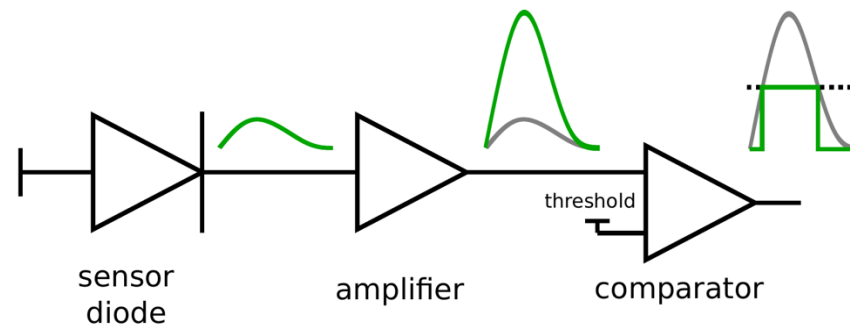
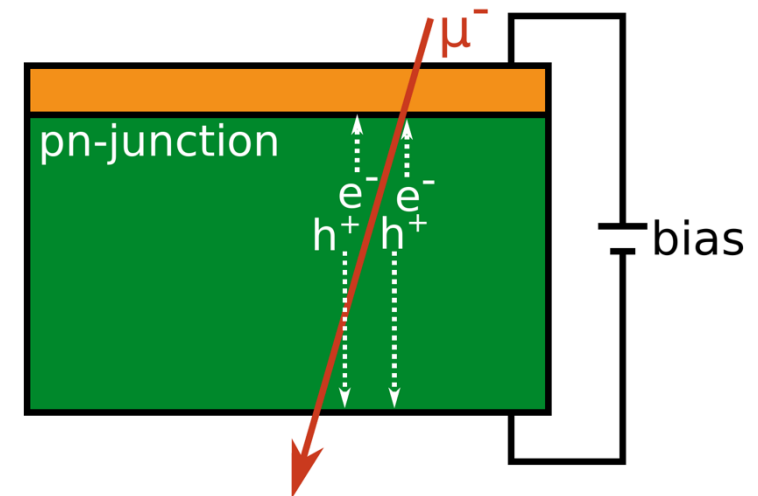




H1 Spaghetti calo

Silicon Detectors

- The working principle is like the gaseous systems
- Simplest detector: pn-junction
 - Operated in reverse bias $\rightarrow$ Depletion region
 - Traversing particle $\rightarrow$ Ionization = signal carriers
 - Typical thickness 50 – 300 μm
- Shockley-Ramo Theorem:
Moving charges induce signal on electrode



- **Silicon strip detectors**

A strip detector is an arrangement of strip like shaped implants acting as charge collecting electrodes (one-dimensional array of diodes).

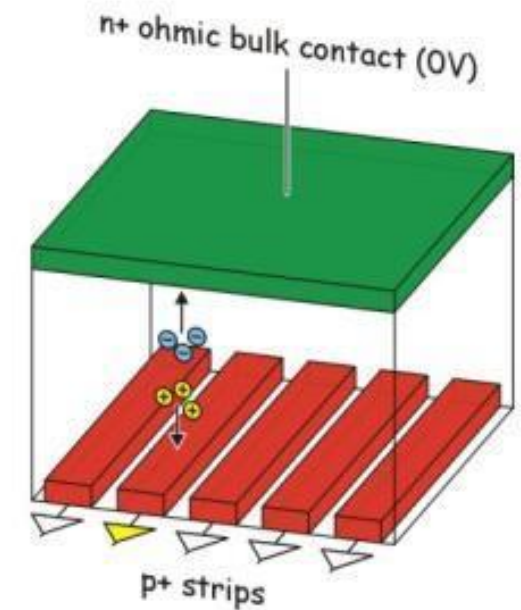
- Double sided silicon strip detectors

Two dimensional position measurements can be achieved by applying an additional strip like doping on the wafer backside by use of a double sided technology.

- Pixel detectors

2D array of pixels. Each pixel = 1 pn-junction

True 2 dimensional information without ambiguities



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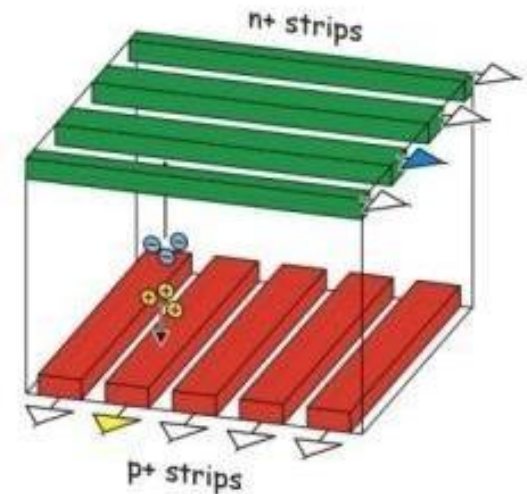
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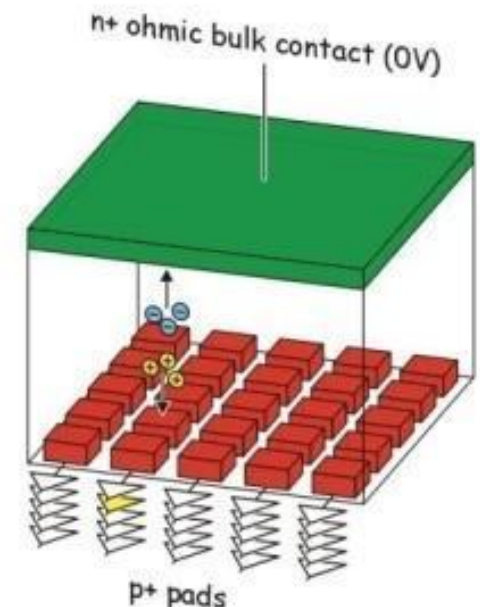
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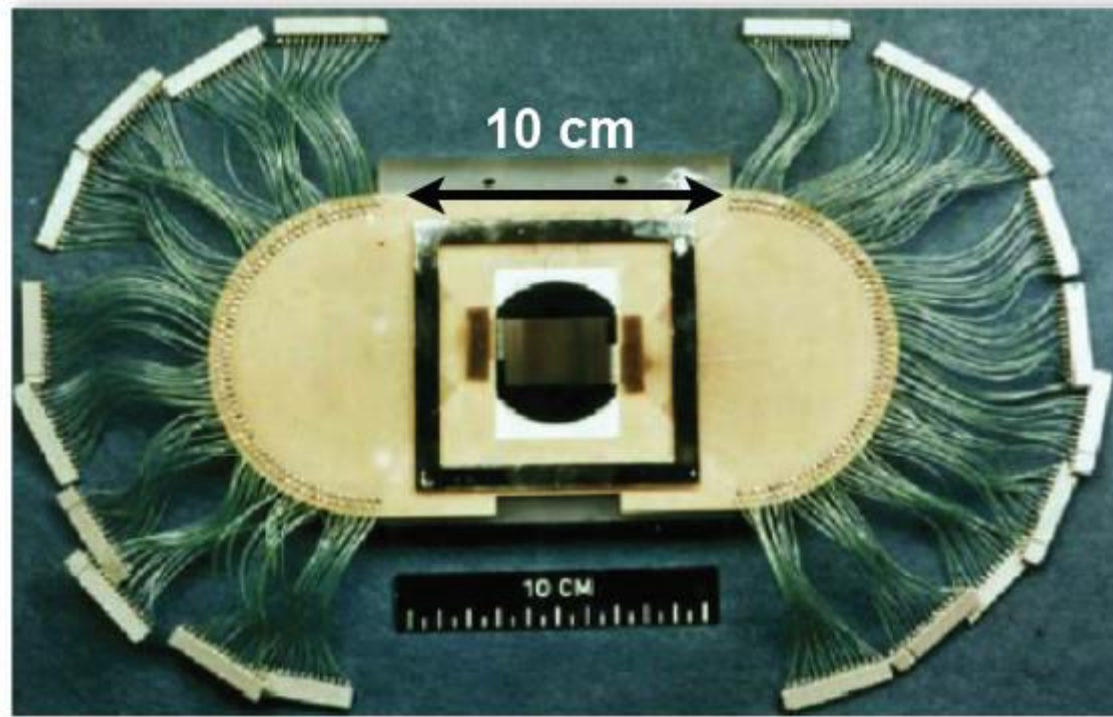
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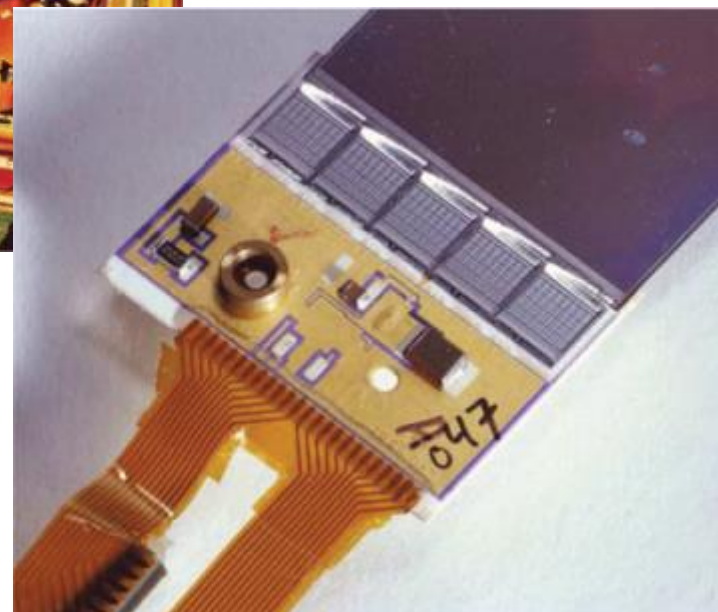
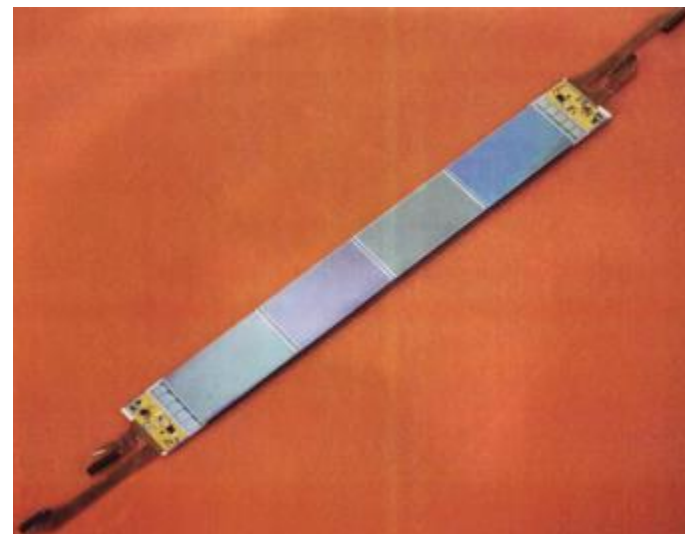
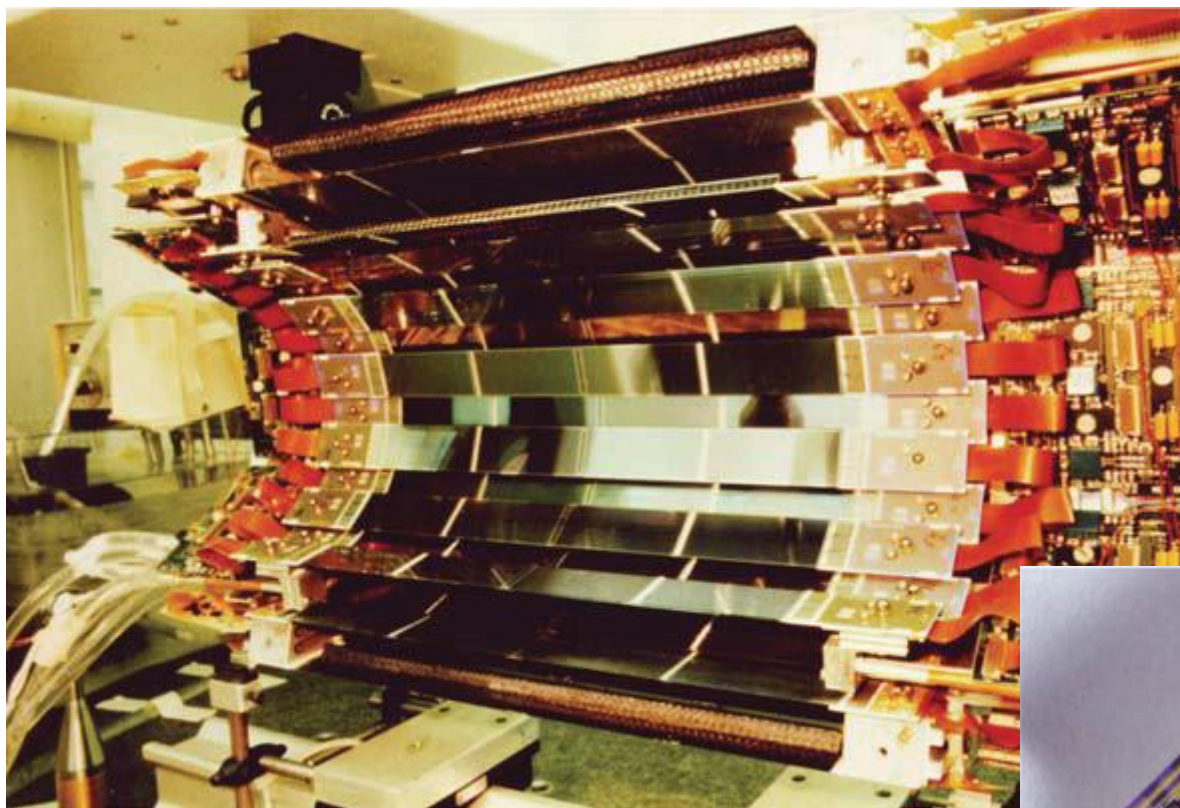
True 2 dimensional information without ambiguities



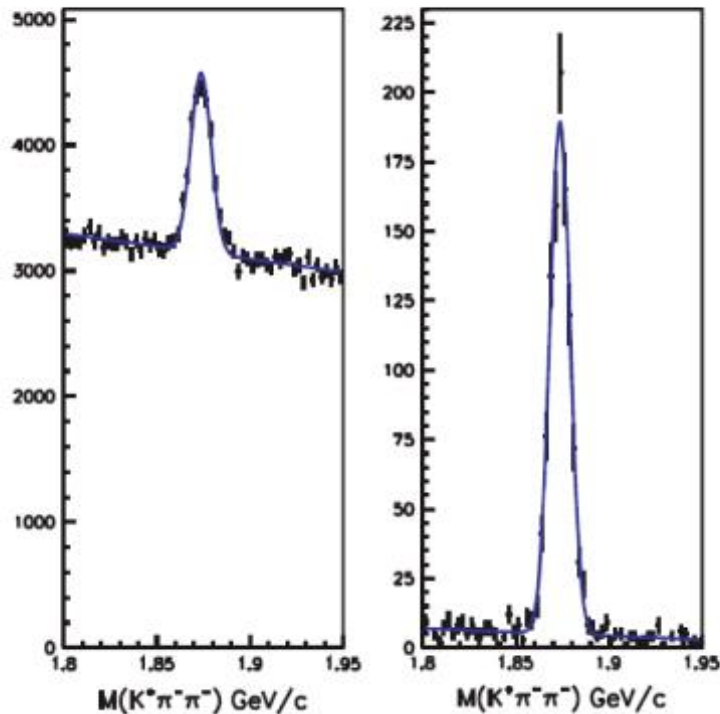
First use of a position-sensitive silicon detector in HEP experiment

- Measurement of charm-quark lifetime
- 1200 diode strips on $24 \times 36 \text{ mm}^2$ active area
- 250-500 μm thick bulk material
- 4.5 μm resolution

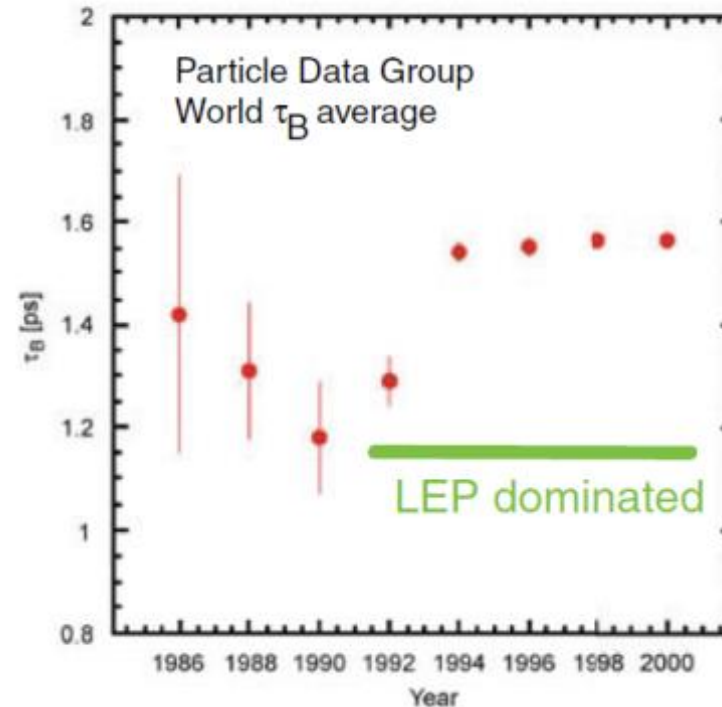




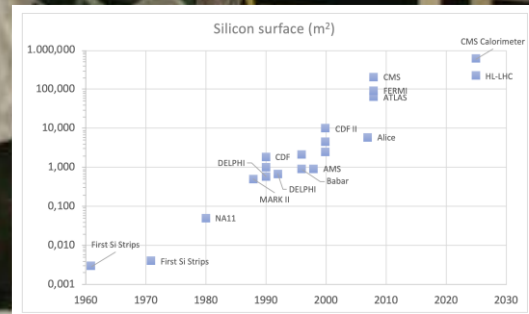
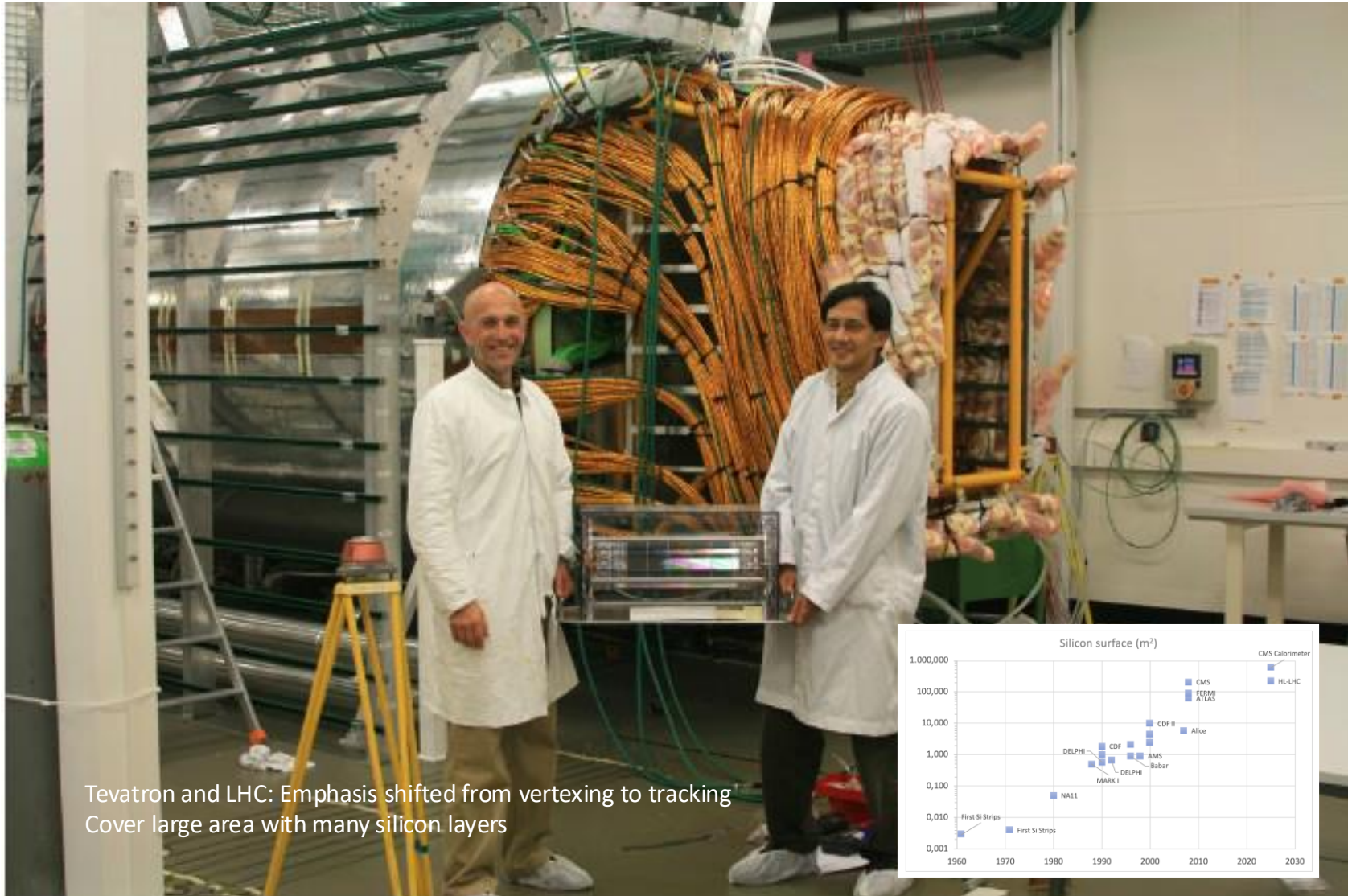
- A silicon ladder R/O electronics at the end
- 300 μm DSSD, 2 layers, 40 cm long
- No extra material in the sensitive area



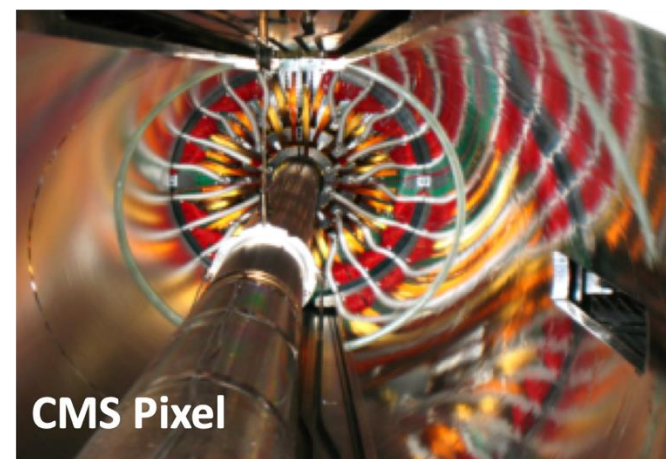
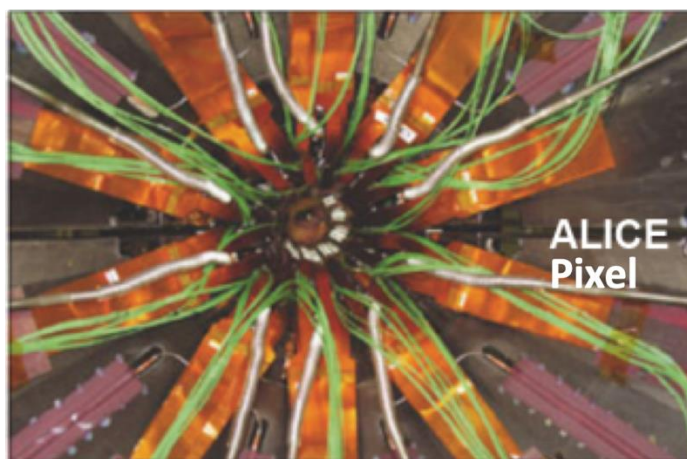
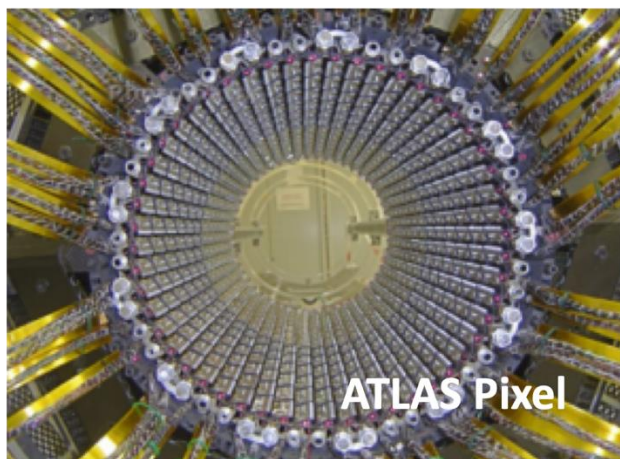
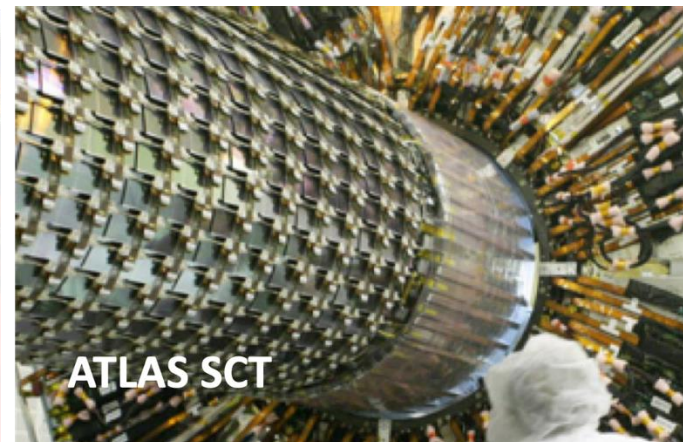
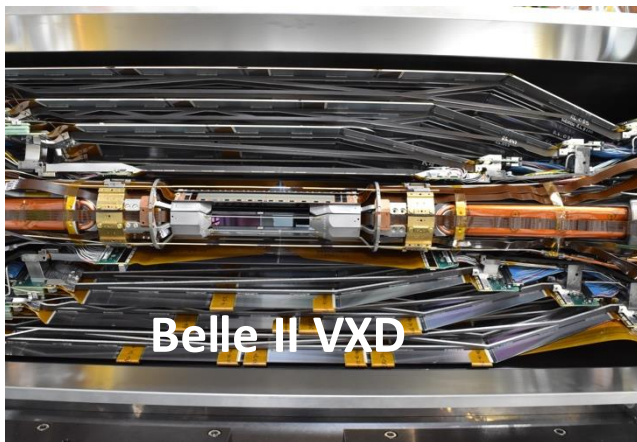
- $D^\pm \rightarrow K\pi\pi$ mass peaks before and after background removal using vertex cut at CDF
- 3 Si layers from 1.5 cm to 29 cm



- B lifetime measurements
- Silicon detector developments in the 90s

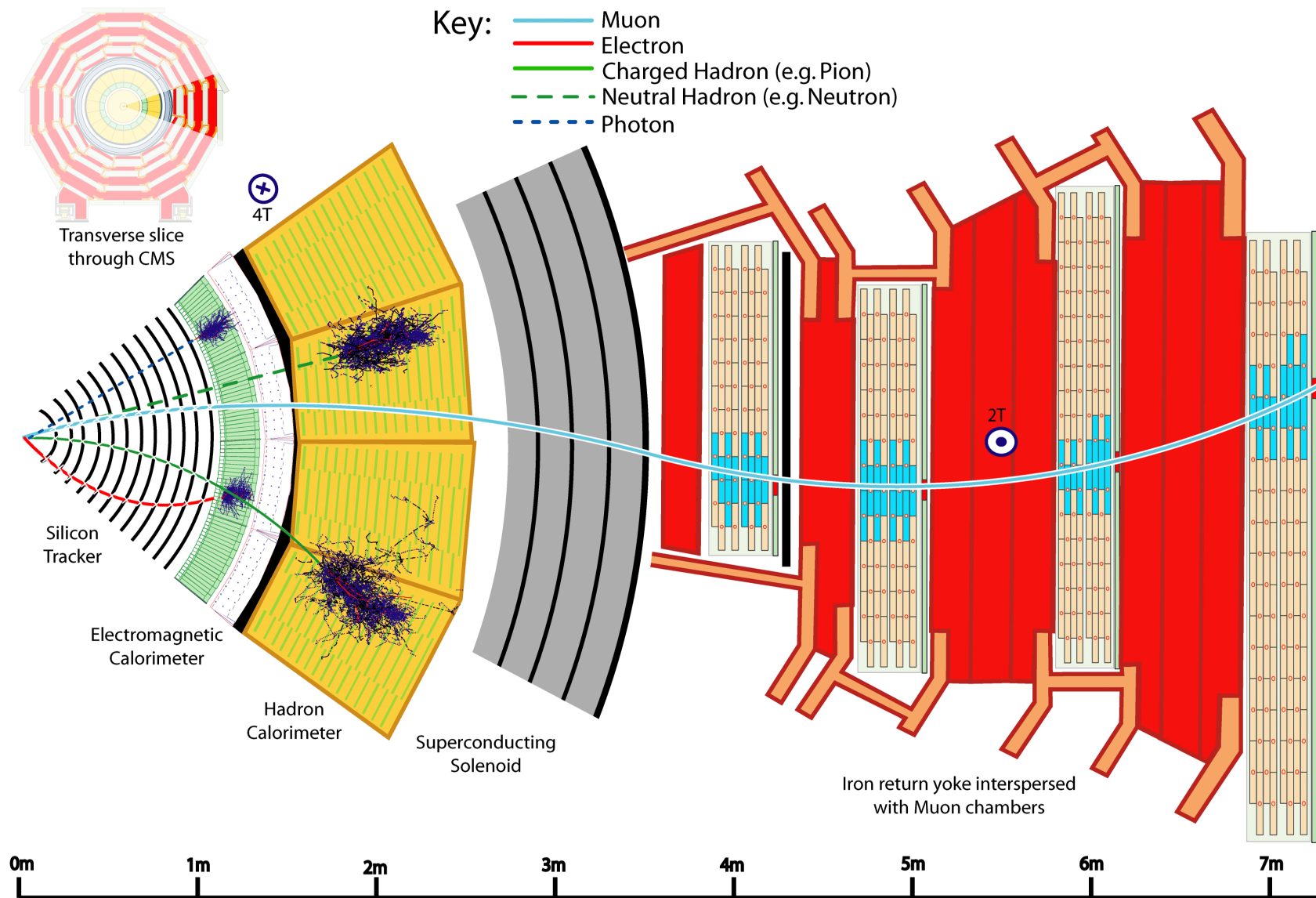


Nowadays: Silicon Everywhere



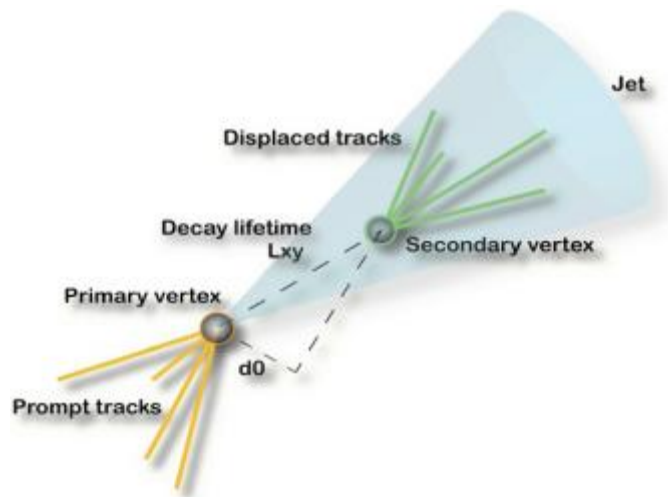
- Detectors are ***the*** instrument in nuclear and particle physics
- Detectors are extremely complex systems, needing joint development efforts of instrumentation physicist and engineers in large collaborations
- Constant activity and evolution, pushing the boundaries of commercial technologies and expanding to many applications in other fields

Summary





Thank you



$$\sigma_{d0} \approx \sqrt{\frac{r_2^2 \sigma_1^2 + r_1^2 \sigma_2^2}{(r_2 - r_1)^2}} \oplus \frac{r}{p \sin^{\frac{3}{2}} \theta} 13.6 \text{ MeV} \sqrt{\frac{x}{X_0}}$$

$$\sigma_{d0} \approx a \oplus \frac{b}{p \sin^{\frac{3}{2}} \theta}$$

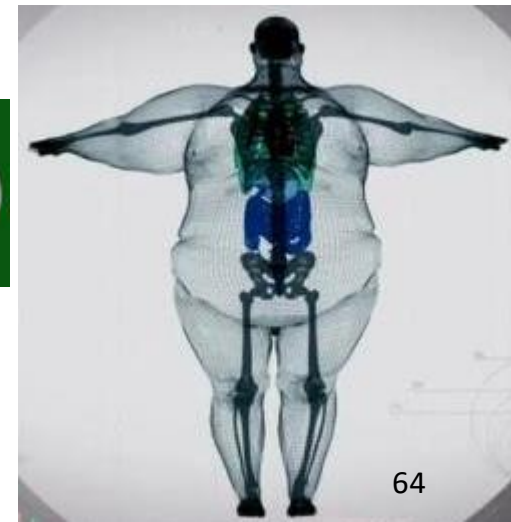
	a (μm)	b (μm GeV)
LHC	12	70
STAR	12	19
Belle II	8.5	10
ILC	5	10

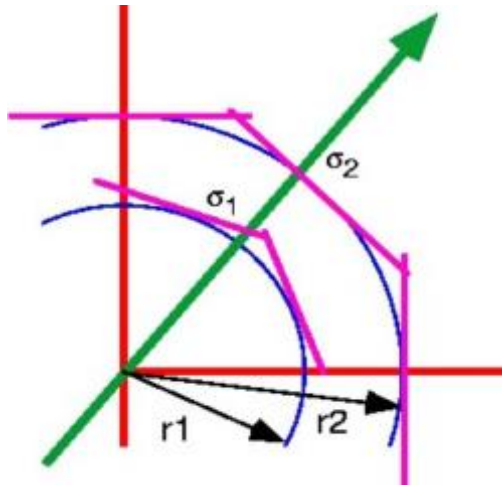
Common vertex detector requirements

- First layer close to the IP
- Low material budget
 - Reduced services
 - Low power dissipation
- High granularity
 - Good spatial resolution
- Fast readout
- Radiation hardness



a: Governs high momentum
b: Dominates at low momentum





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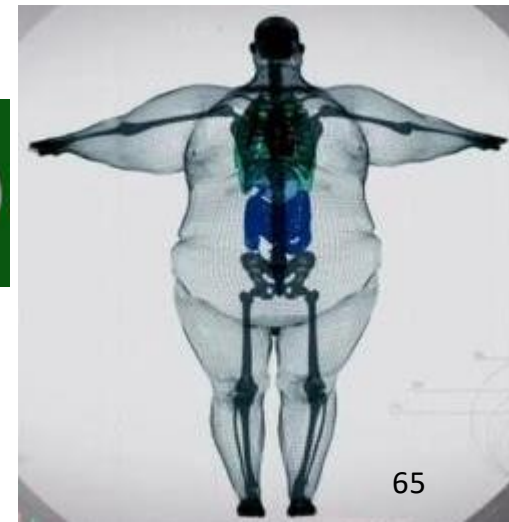
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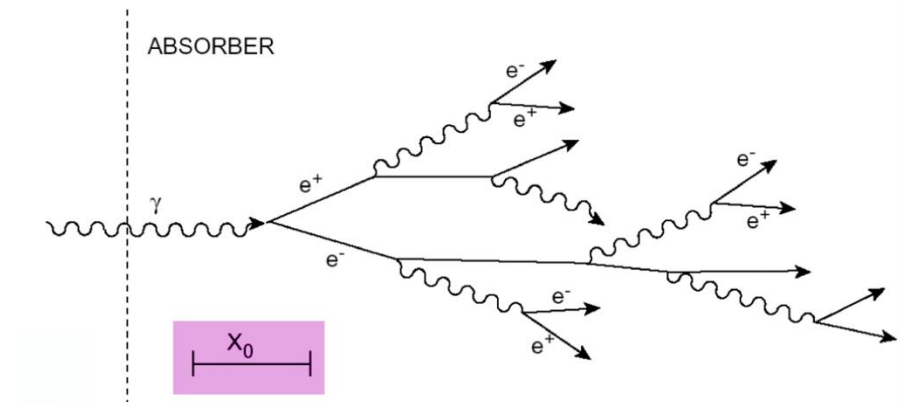
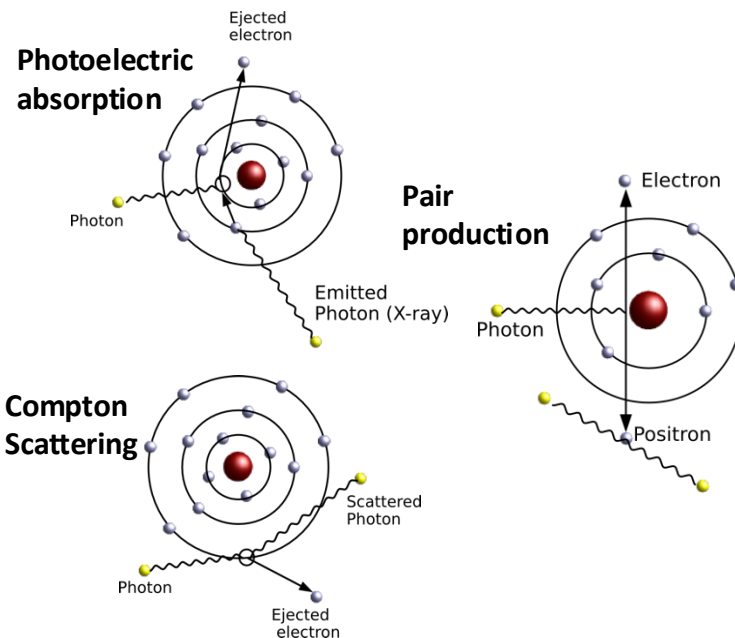
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We can't detect neutral particles directly.

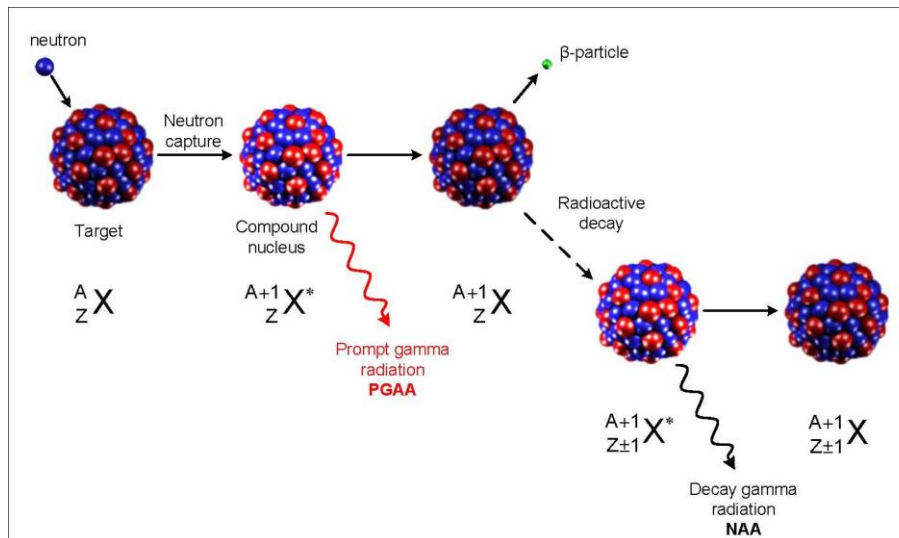
We can, though, detect the charged particles that they produce while interacting with the detector material.

Photons: They produce electrons and photons in their interactions, producing e.m. cascades if the energy is high enough



Neutrons

As with photons, we see the product of their interaction with the detector material or with the media we place to force the interaction.



Hadronic shower

