

A brief view of a biased selection of particle-detecting methods

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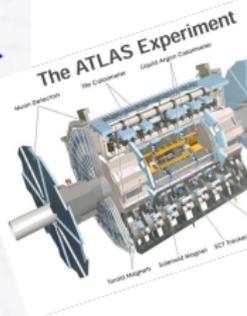
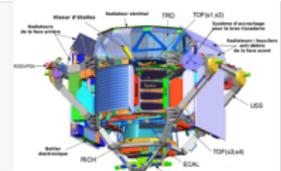
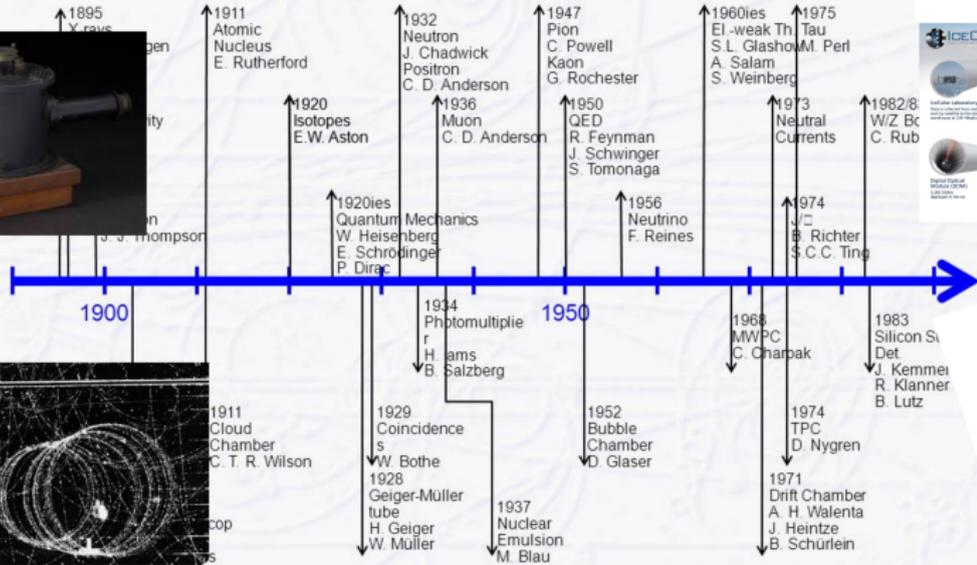
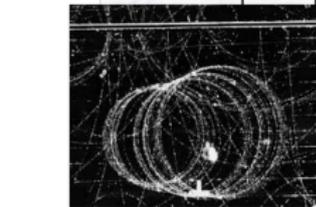
JRJC Instrumentation Session - October 15th



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1. Historical background
 - Basic recipe of a particle detector
2. Gaseous Ionization Chambers
3. Semiconductor detectors
4. Calorimeters
5. Conclusions

Timeline of Particle Physics and Instrumentation



1st EIROForum School on Instrumentation – History of Instrumentation Michael Hauschild - CERN, 11-May-2009, page 2

Some time ago you just needed a balloon

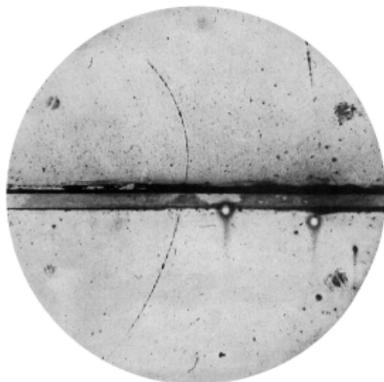


- ▶ Electroscopes: ionisation detector
- ▶ Photographic plates
- ▶ Cosmic ray discovery (1911)

Some time ago you just needed a balloon



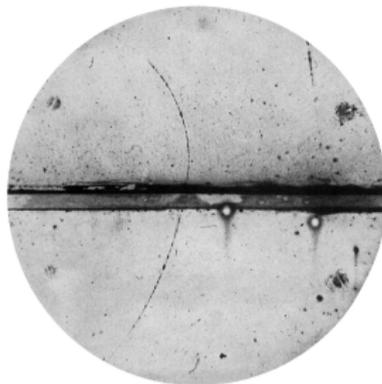
Cloud Chambers



- ▶ Supersaturated vapour (alcohol or water)
- ▶ Charged, energetic particles
- ▶ ionise gas and leave a trail,
- ▶ vapour condenses around the ions
- ▶ Need to record images (positron - 1932)

Some time ago you just needed a balloon

Cloud Chambers



- ▶ Superheated transparent liquid
- ▶ charged particles leave a trail of ions,
- ▶ vapour forms around the ions
- ▶ Large volume
- ▶ resolution of few μm
- ▶ weak neutral currents - 1973

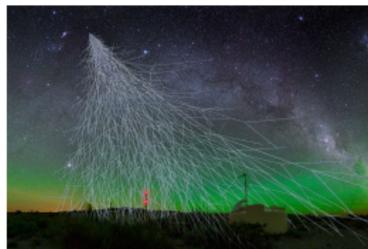
Bubble Chambers - 1952



Basic recipe of a particle detector

- ▶ Particles

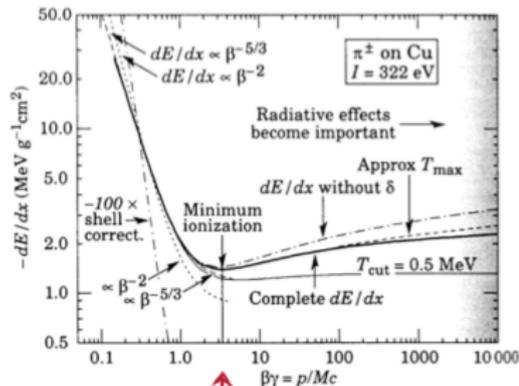
- ▶ radioactive source
- ▶ cosmic rays
- ▶ nuclear reactors/accelerators



Basic recipe of a particle detector

- ▶ **Particles**
- ▶ **Material** that will interact with the particle
- ▶ **Charged particles:**
ionisation, bremsstrahlung, Cherenkov
→ multiple interactions
- ▶ **Photons:** photoelectric/Compton effect, pair production
→ single interaction
- ▶ **Hadrons:** nuclear interactions
→ multiple interactions
- ▶ **Neutrinos:** weak interaction
→ good luck with that

The difference in mass, charge and type of interaction is key when trying to identify them!



$$\beta = v/c; \gamma = 1/\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}$$

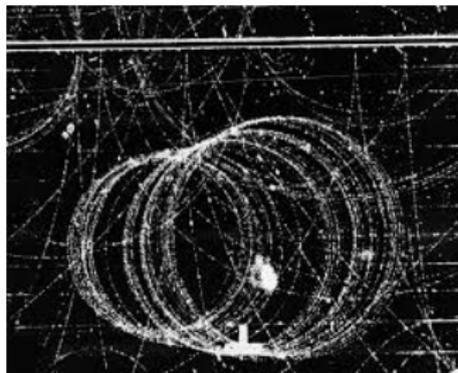
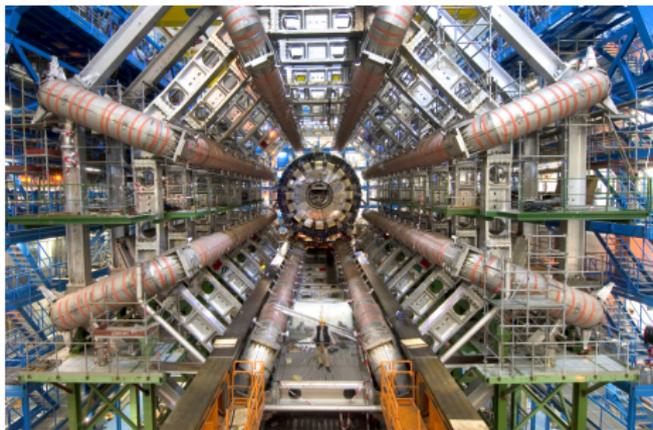
Basic recipe of a particle detector

- ▶ Particles
- ▶ Material that will interact with the particle
- ▶ Signal
 - ▶ be able to recognise the interaction
 - ▶ and record it!
 - ▶ The development of the electronics is key (i.e. silicon detectors and ASICs)

(Don't forget the magnetic field)

Charged particles are deflected in a magnetic field

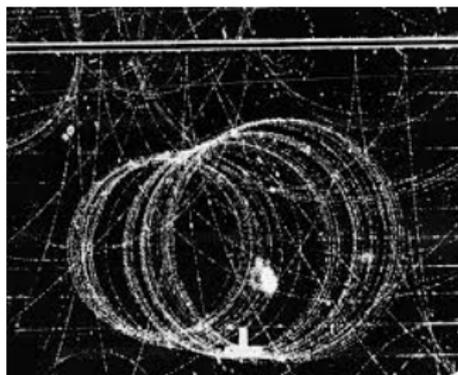
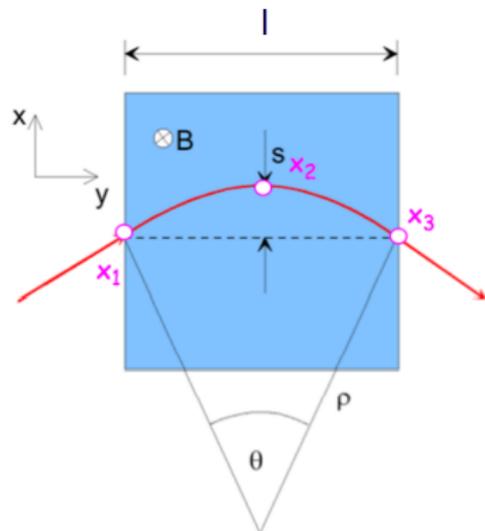
$$\vec{F} = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$



(Don't forget the magnetic field)

Charged particles are deflected in a magnetic field

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$



- ▶ If $m \sim 0$, for constant \vec{B} ,
- ▶ then $|\vec{p}|$ is constant (assumption: no energy loss in the detector)
- ▶ helical trajectory

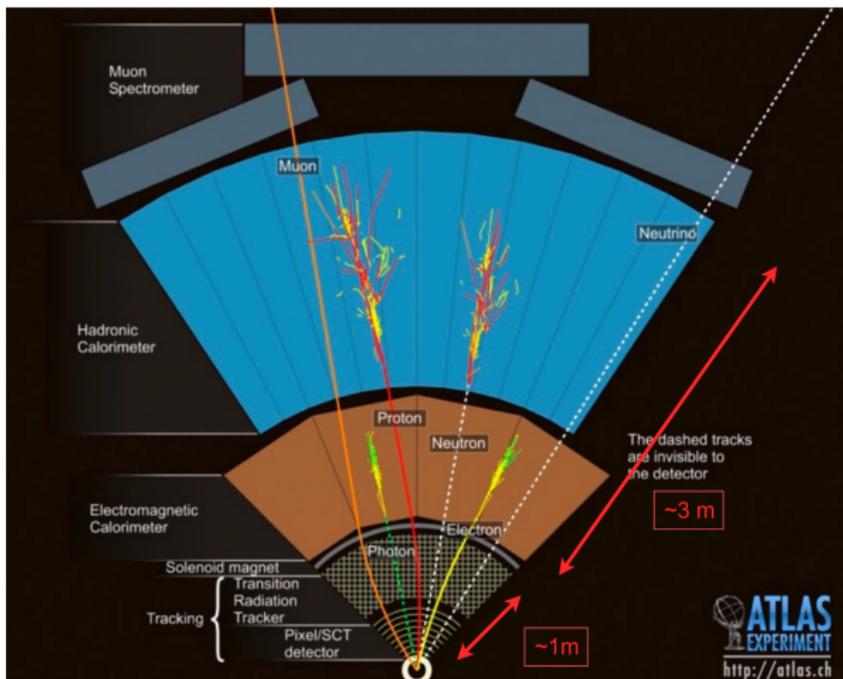
▶ Measure 3 points

$$\rightarrow \sigma_s = \sqrt{3/2} \sigma_y$$

$$\frac{\sigma_{p_T}}{p_T} \sim \frac{\sigma_y \rho_T}{n_{hits}}$$

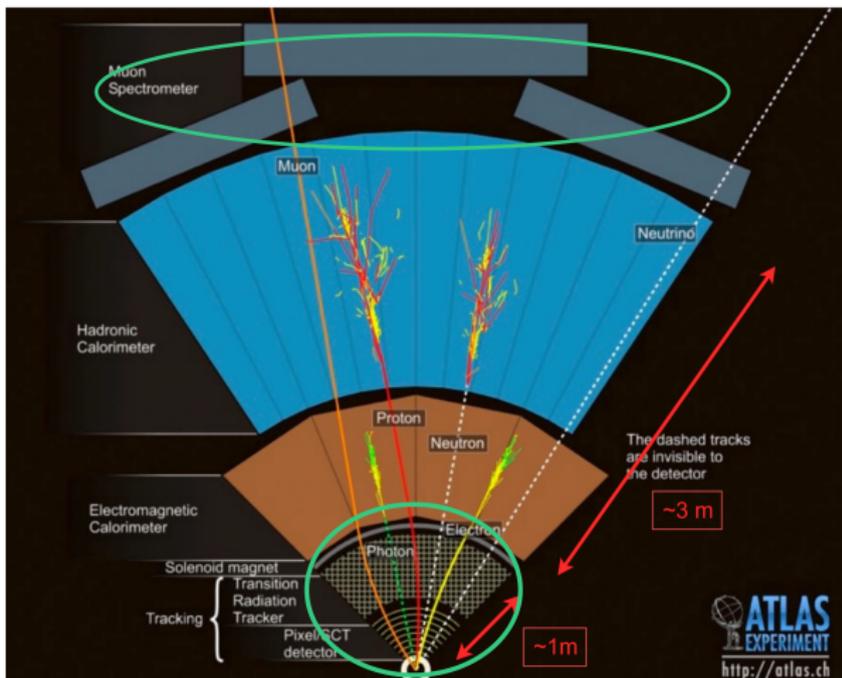
Detectors today...

Combine different technologies to measure the **path** and **energy** of the particles



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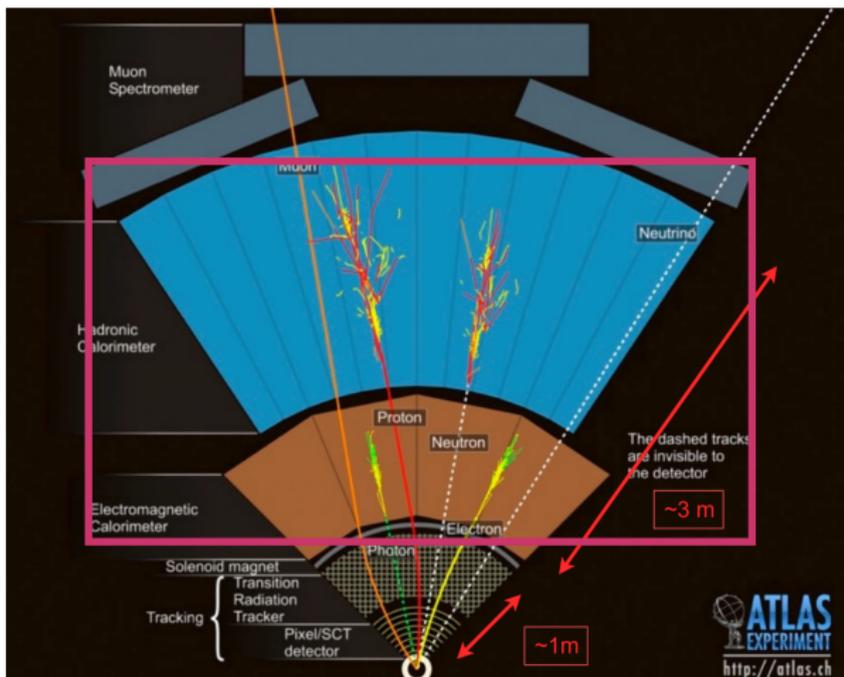
Combine different technologies to measure the **path** and **energy** of the particles



The **tracker** and **muon spectrometer** measure the momentum of passing charged particles - not modify particle's path and energy

Detectors today...

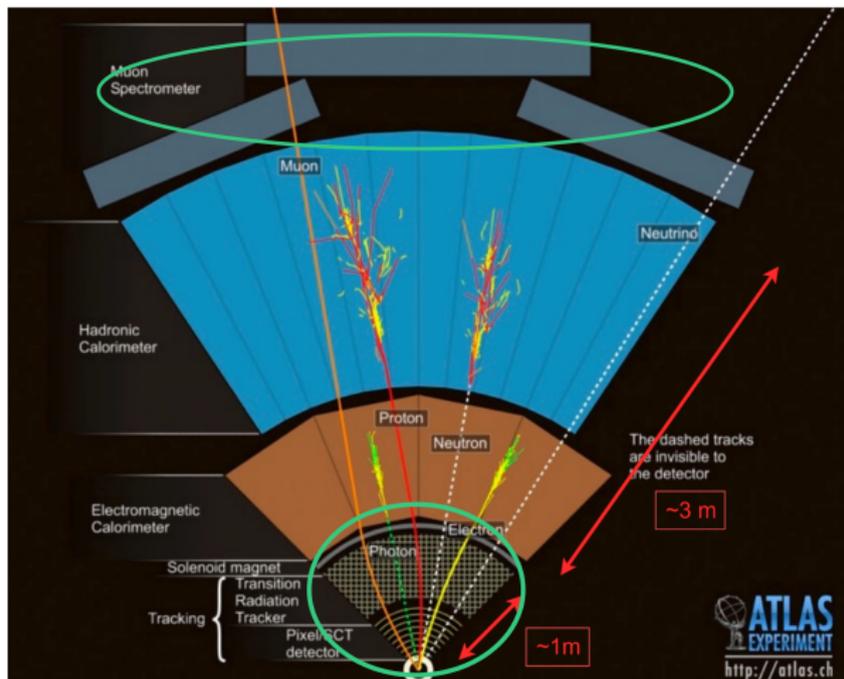
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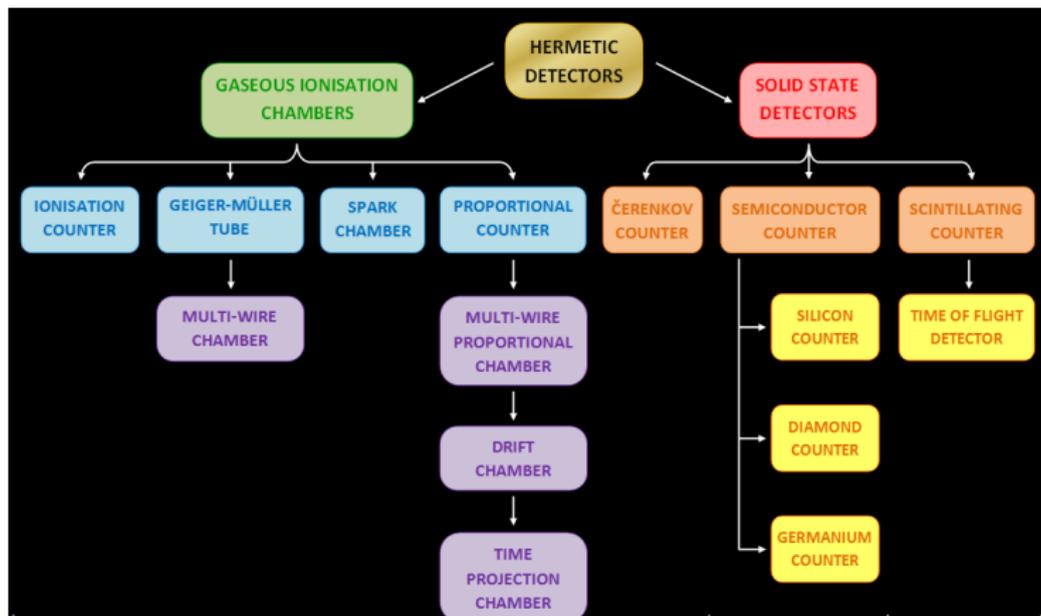
The **calorimeters** try to *stop* the particle to measure its energy - destructive measurement

Detectors today...

Combine different technologies to measure the **path** and **energy** of the particles



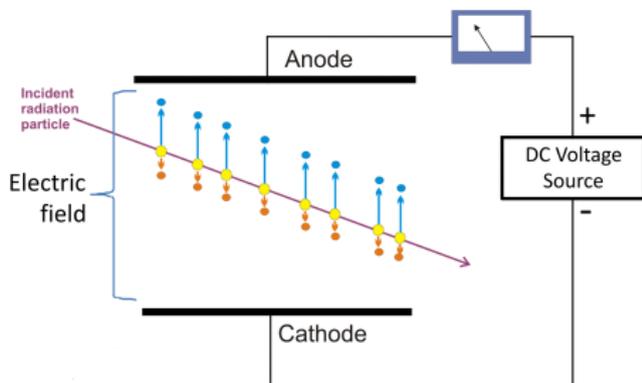
Types of detectors



Gas Detectors

Basic principle:

- ▶ A charged particle transverses a *carefully chosen* gas/gas mixture
- ▶ enclosed within an electric field \vec{E}
- ▶ gas is ionised by the particle
- ▶ generated charges drift towards cathode/anode
- ▶ measure current!



Gas Detectors

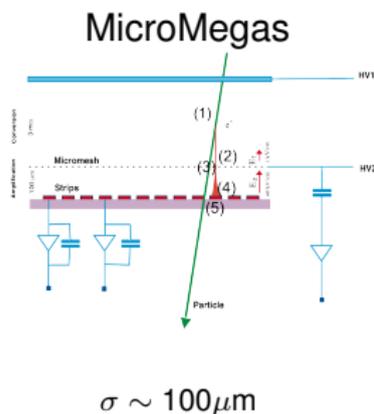
Geiger-Muller

- ▶ Main (well known) use: detect presence of radiation
- ▶ ~ 0.1 atm gas
- ▶ High V, several hundred volts \rightarrow high electric field
- ▶ gas multiplication (scattered e^- and UV photons)
- ▶ Gives one pulse per incident particle
- ▶ No energy measurement \rightarrow no particle ID



Ionization Chambers

- ▶ No multiplication (only direct ionisation)
- ▶ Small current signal: $\sim 10^{-12} - 10^{-15}$ A
- ▶ Can measure total ionisation
- ▶ Achieve spatial resolution through smart design/placement of electrodes
- ▶ MicroMegas, Gas Electron Multiplier, Resistive Plate Chambers

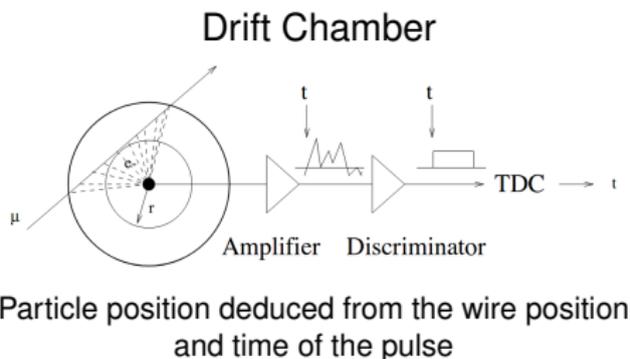


Gas Detectors

Proportional Counters

- ▶ Pulse height \propto radiation absorbed by the detector
- ▶ Gas mixture of inert gas (to be ionised) and quenching gas (to terminate the pulse)
- ▶ Relatively low \vec{E} : no recombination, avalanche only close to electrode
→ single avalanche per generated ion

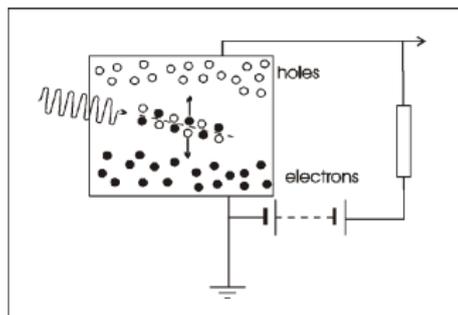
- ▶ Many of these detectors used currently in LHC experiments: TRT, MDT, RPC, CTC, TGC
- ▶ Most of these have $\sigma \sim 100\mu\text{m}$



Semiconductor Detectors

It is, basically, the same idea as before, but a lot more expensive...

- ▶ A charged particle transverses a **semiconductor material**



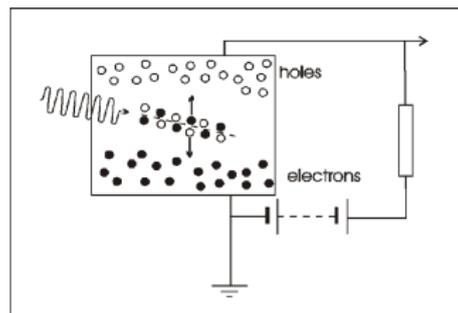
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Semiconductor:

- ▶ A crystal, like **silicon**, diamond, germanium
- ▶ different *dopings* control the conductivity
- ▶ n-type: excess of electrons
p-type: excess of holes
- ▶ n-p junctions → transistors/diodes
- ▶ light emission
- ▶ ... basically, the basis of a new technological era



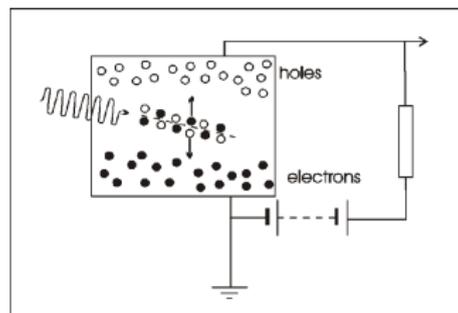
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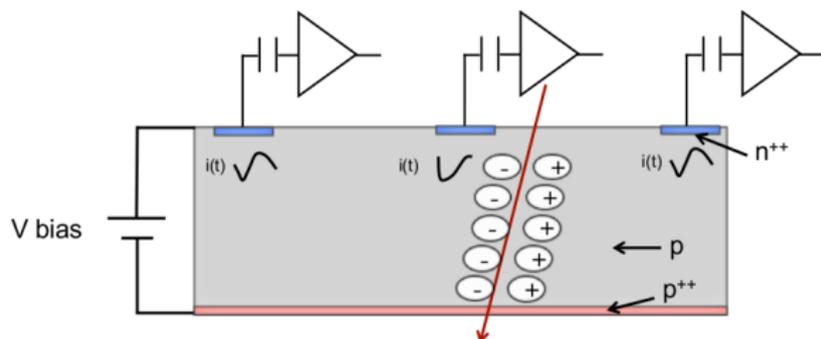
- ▶ A charged particle transverses a **semiconductor material**
- ▶ Placed between electrodes, so that the electrons/holes generated drift due to the electric field
- ▶ A pulse can be measured - Shockley-Ramo theorem

$$i = E_v qv$$

- ▶ The number of e/h pairs created is proportional to the intensity of the incident radiation; the E necessary per pair is well known (eg 3.6 eV in silicon)
- ▶ Used in almost all HEP experiments for tracking in the innermost layers
- ▶ Price noticeably decreased throughout the years, combined with enough R&D, allowed to export this technology to *the real world* (medical imaging)



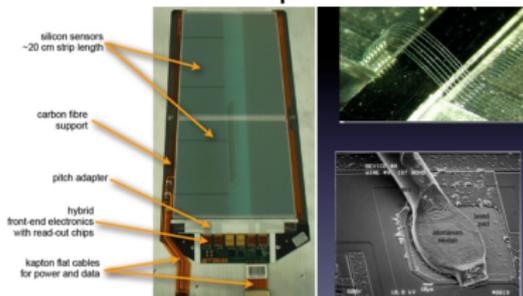
Silicon Detectors



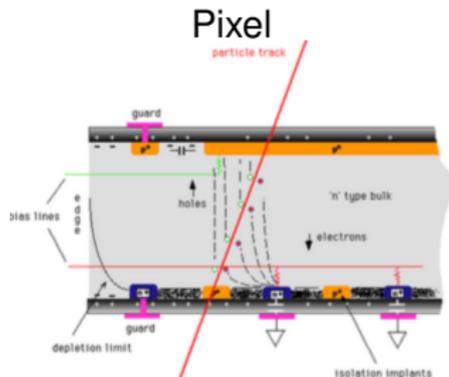
- ▶ Example n-on-p silicon detector
- ▶ Inversely polarised by a bias voltage → creates a depleted volume
- ▶ A charged particle crossing the sensor will create e/h pairs, which travel towards the electrodes
- ▶ $N(e/h)$ pairs depends on the type and energy of incident particle, and the thickness of the sensor
- ▶ Excellent spatial resolution

Pixel / Strips

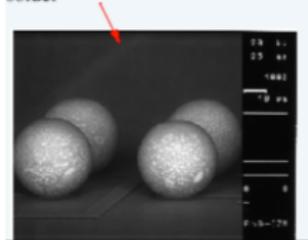
Silicon Strip module



- ▶ The resolution is given by the layout of electrodes
- ▶ 2D vs 3D tracking
- ▶ Pixels:
 - ▶ small area: low C, good S/N
 - ▶ small vol: low leakage current



fine pitch (50 μm) bump placements solder



Provide high precision tracking (vertex reconstruction) and momentum spectroscopy in large areas

Charged-Coupled Device - CCD

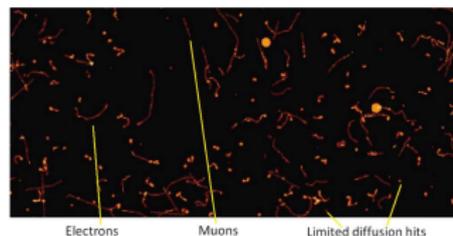
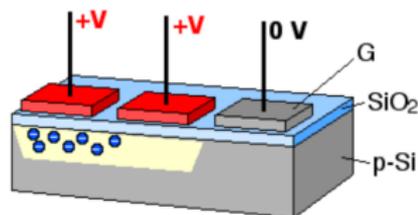
The pixel consists of a **MOS capacitor** (p-doped metal oxide semiconductor)

- ▶ **semiconductor** → silicon: active material, incident particle (usually photons) are converted into electrons
- ▶ **oxide**: insulator
- ▶ **metal**: voltage applied, collects the charge

Charged-Coupled Device - CCD

The pixel consists of a **MOS capacitor** (p-doped metal oxide semiconductor)

- ▶ biased before exposure to create a deep depletion region
- ▶ incoming particle generates e/h pairs charging the capacitor
- ▶ By applying potentials in a sequential way, the collected charge is moved to the end of the array
- ▶ At the end a charge amplifier collects the charge and transmits a voltage signal
→ the contents of the array are converted into a sequence of voltages

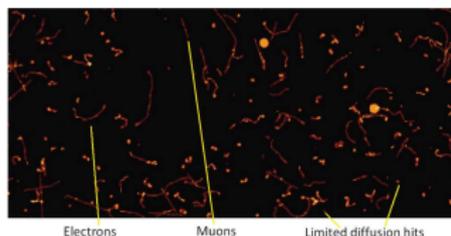
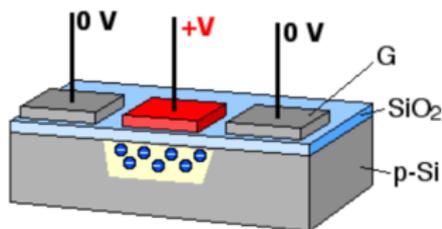


- ▶ Cooled CCDs are the most sensitive detectors for photons (single molecules, astrophysics), peak in 500-600 nm
- ▶ CMOS: commercial version, lower image quality

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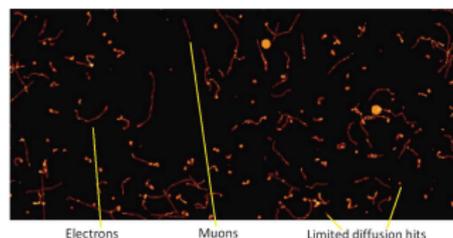
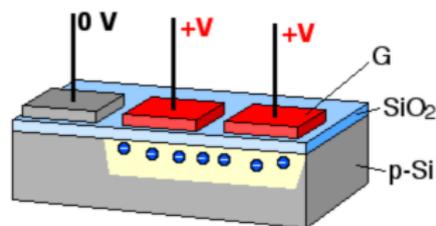
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Detector Type	Accuracy (rms)	Resolution Time	Dead Time
Bubble chamber	10–150 μm	1 ms	50 ms ^a
Streamer chamber	300 μm	2 μs	100 ms
Proportional chamber	50–300 μm ^{b,c,d}	2 ns	200 ns
Drift chamber	50–300 μm	2 ns ^e	100 ns
Scintillator	—	100 ps/n ^f	10 ns
Emulsion	1 μm	—	—
Liquid Argon Drift [Ref. 6]	$\sim 175\text{--}450 \mu\text{m}$	$\sim 200 \text{ ns}$	$\sim 2 \mu\text{s}$
Gas Micro Strip [Ref. 7]	30–40 μm	< 10 ns	—
Resistive Plate chamber [Ref. 8]	$\lesssim 10 \mu\text{m}$	1–2 ns	—
Silicon strip	pitch/(3 to 7) ^g	<i>h</i>	<i>h</i>
Silicon pixel	2 μm ⁱ	<i>h</i>	<i>h</i>

^a Multiple pulsing time.

^b 300 μm is for 1 mm pitch.

^c Delay line cathode readout can give $\pm 150 \mu\text{m}$ parallel to anode wire.

^d $\text{wirespacing}/\sqrt{12}$.

^e For two chambers.

^f n = index of refraction.

^g The highest resolution (~ 7) is obtained for small-pitch detectors ($\lesssim 25 \mu\text{m}$) with pulse-height-weighted center finding.

^h Limited by the readout electronics [9]. (Time resolution of $\leq 25 \text{ ns}$ is planned for the ATLAS SCT.)

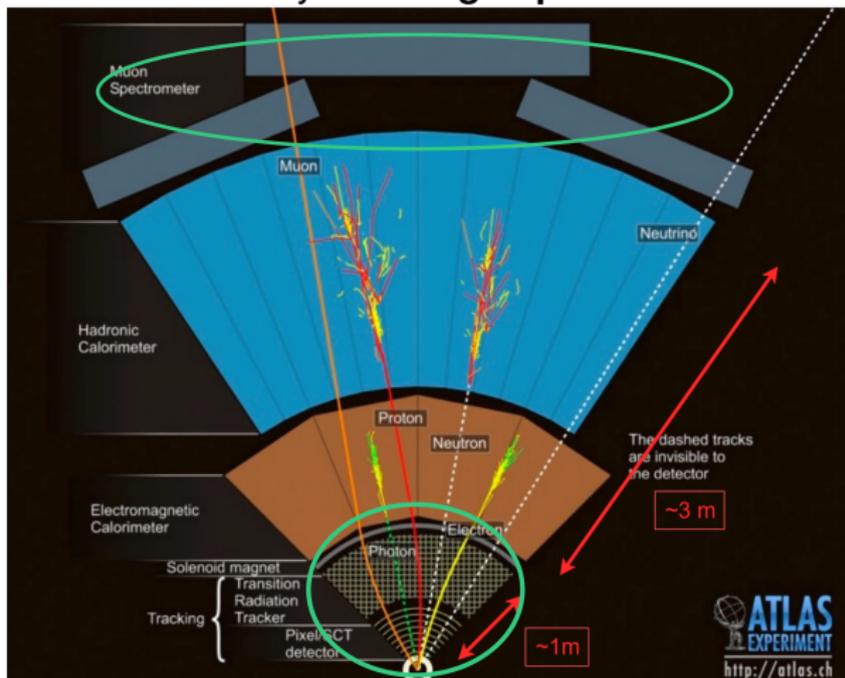
ⁱ Analog readout of 34 μm pitch, monolithic pixel detectors.

*the readout electronics can limit the performance!

Tracker and Calorimeter

So far we've seen detectors that measure the *passage* of a particle..

But only for **charged particles**

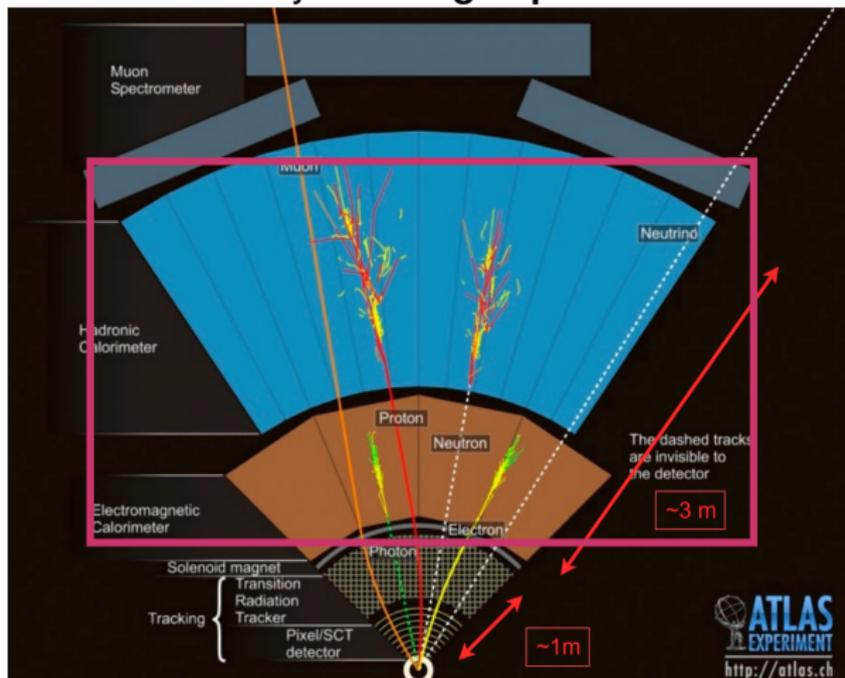


Combining many of the previous detectors we form a **track**, the path of the particle through the detector

Tracker and Calorimeter

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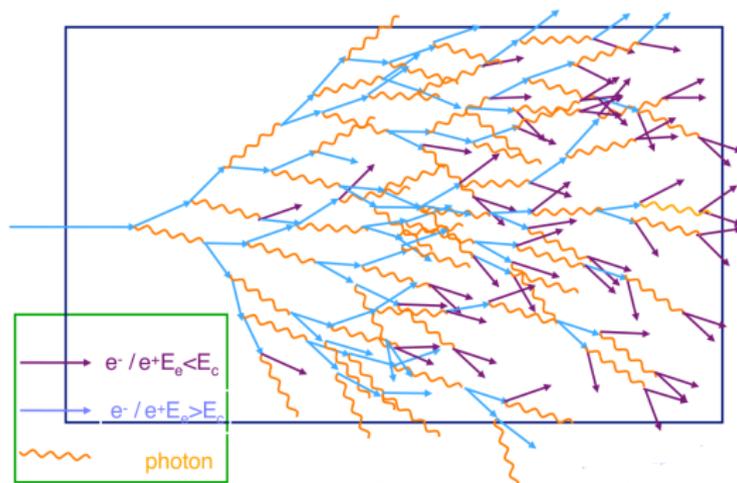
But only for **charged particles**



But what if we want to measure *everything*?
(or at least decently interacting charged and neutral particles)

EM shower

- ▶ An EM shower develops within de calorimeter, the energy of the incident particle is transferred to the generated $e^{+/-}$ and γ
- ▶ The number of cascade particles generated is proportional to the energy deposited by the incident particle
- ▶ it continues until $E < E_c$ (depends on the material)
- ▶ **Radiation length (X^0)** distance after which the incident e^- has irradiated 63% of its energy



Calorimeters

- ▶ Idea from thermodynamics:
 - ▶ 'adiabatic volume' (not loose energy)
 - ▶ Aim to collect all the energy of the particle (charged **and neutral**)
 - ▶ **destructive measurement**: no particles come out, except neutrinos and muons
 - ▶ fun fact: the sensitivity required is $\sim 10^9$ times larger than to measure a 1°C shift in 1g of water

Types of particles

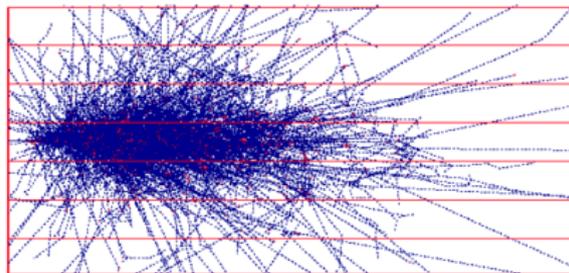
- ▶ Electromagnetic
- ▶ Hadronic

Types of calorimeters

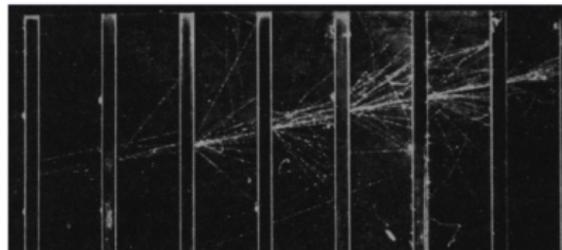
- ▶ Homogeneous
- ▶ Sampling

Homogeneous/Sampling

Homogeneous



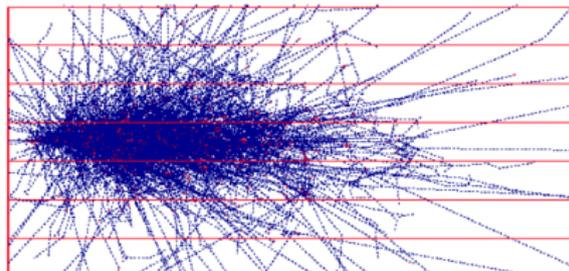
Sampling



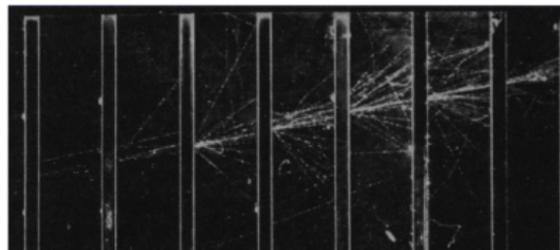
- ▶ All the energy is deposited in the active medium
- ▶ So the same material needs to stop the particle and generate a signal
- ▶ Heavy active material: lead tungstate PbWO (CMS calorimeter)
- ▶ Excellent energy resolution
- ▶ No longitudinal segmentation

Homogeneous/Sampling

Homogeneous



Sampling

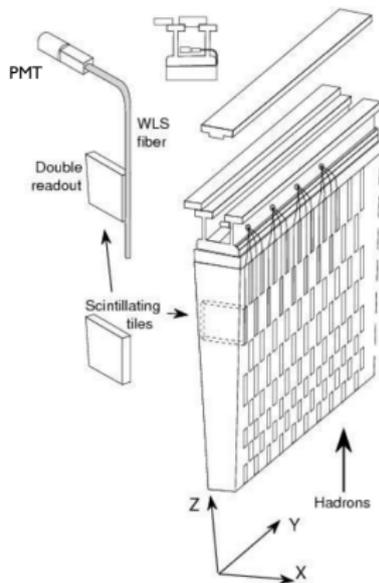
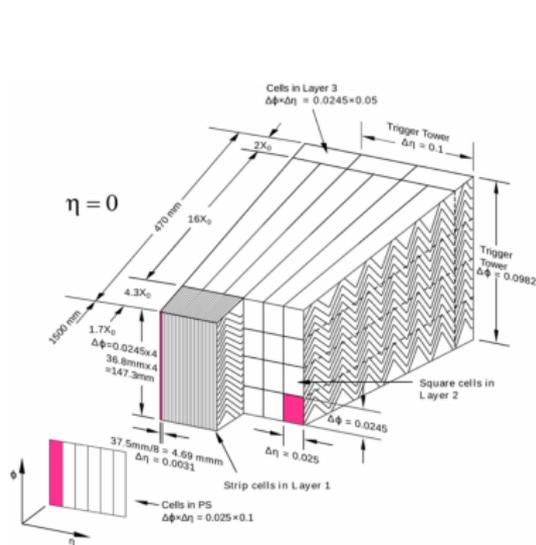


- ▶ Heavy stopper/absorber material (Cu, Pb, Fe)
- ▶ Sampled by an active material (scintillator plastic, semiconductor, gas)
- ▶ Limited energy resolution
- ▶ But gives information of the longitudinal deposition of the energy

EM and Hadronic calorimeters

Different concepts for different particles:

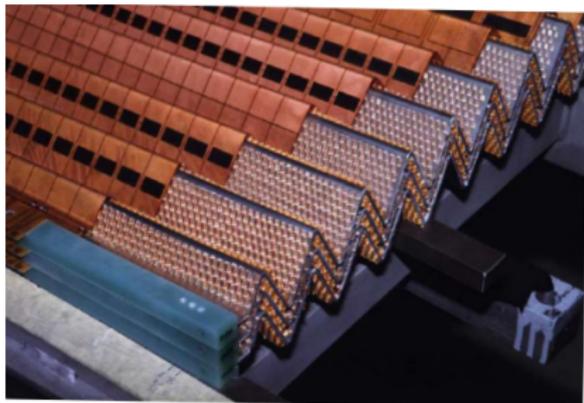
- ▶ EM : LAr as active material, Pb/Steel absorber, thin electrodes collect the signal
- ▶ TileCal: scintillator plastic as active material, F_e absorber.
WS fibres take light towards PMTs
- ▶ Calibration: necessary to have a beam of known particles.
- ▶ Response to the EM and non-EM part of the shower is different, e/h degree of non-compensation



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Conclusions

- ▶ Not very exhaustive basics of particle detectors¹
 - ▶ Skipped Cherenkov detectors, photomultipliers, and many other topics
 - ▶ Mostly biased towards LHC experiments...
- ▶ But we got the basics:
 - ▶ key elements in a particle detector
 - ▶ some gaseous detectors
 - ▶ some solid state detectors
- ▶ Now lets hear your talks!

¹Disclaimer: lots of material and pictures taken from Wikipedia, I. Winteger's CERN summer school lectures, papers, etc. . .