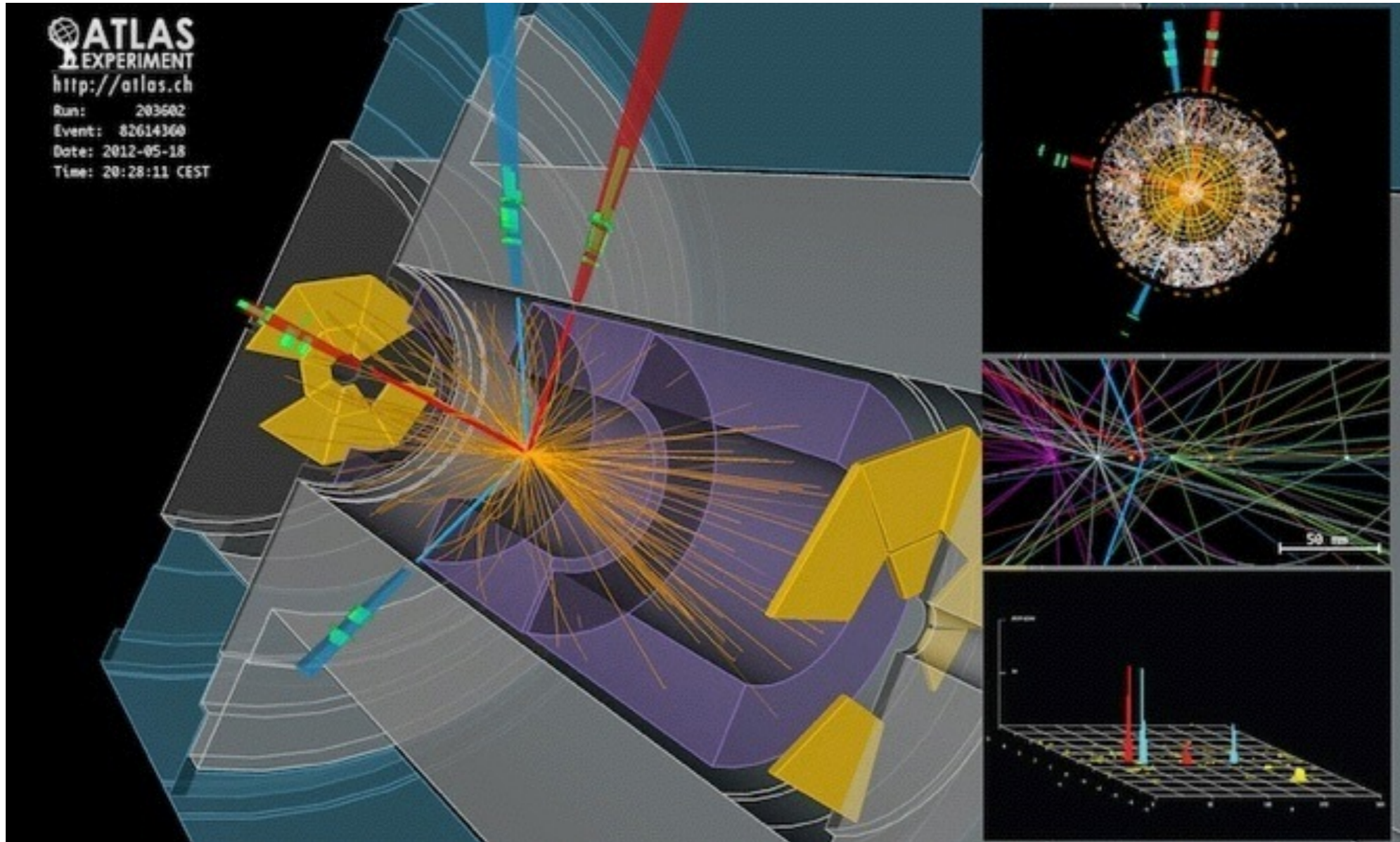


# Teilchenphysik mit höchstenergetischen Beschleunigern (Higgs & Co)



## 2. Detectors I

13.10.2014



# Detectors: Overview

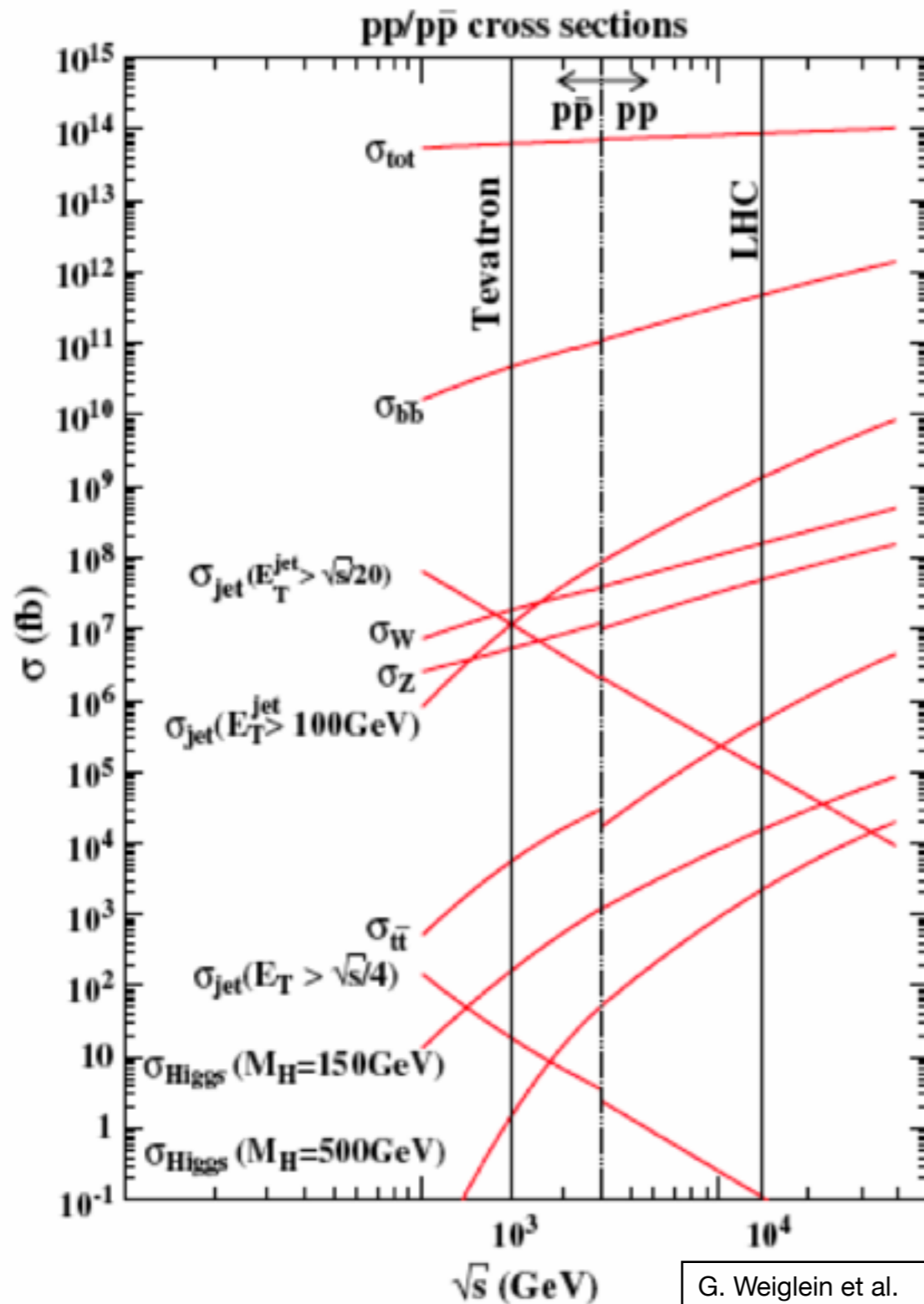
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- **Lecture Detectors I**
  - Introduction, overall detector concepts
  - Detector systems at hadron colliders
  - Basics of particle detection: Interaction with matter
  - Methods for particle detection
  
- **Lecture Detectors II**
  - Tracking detectors: Basics
  - Semiconductor trackers
  - Calorimeters
  - Muon systems

# Introduction, Overall Concepts



# The Conditions at Hadron Colliders



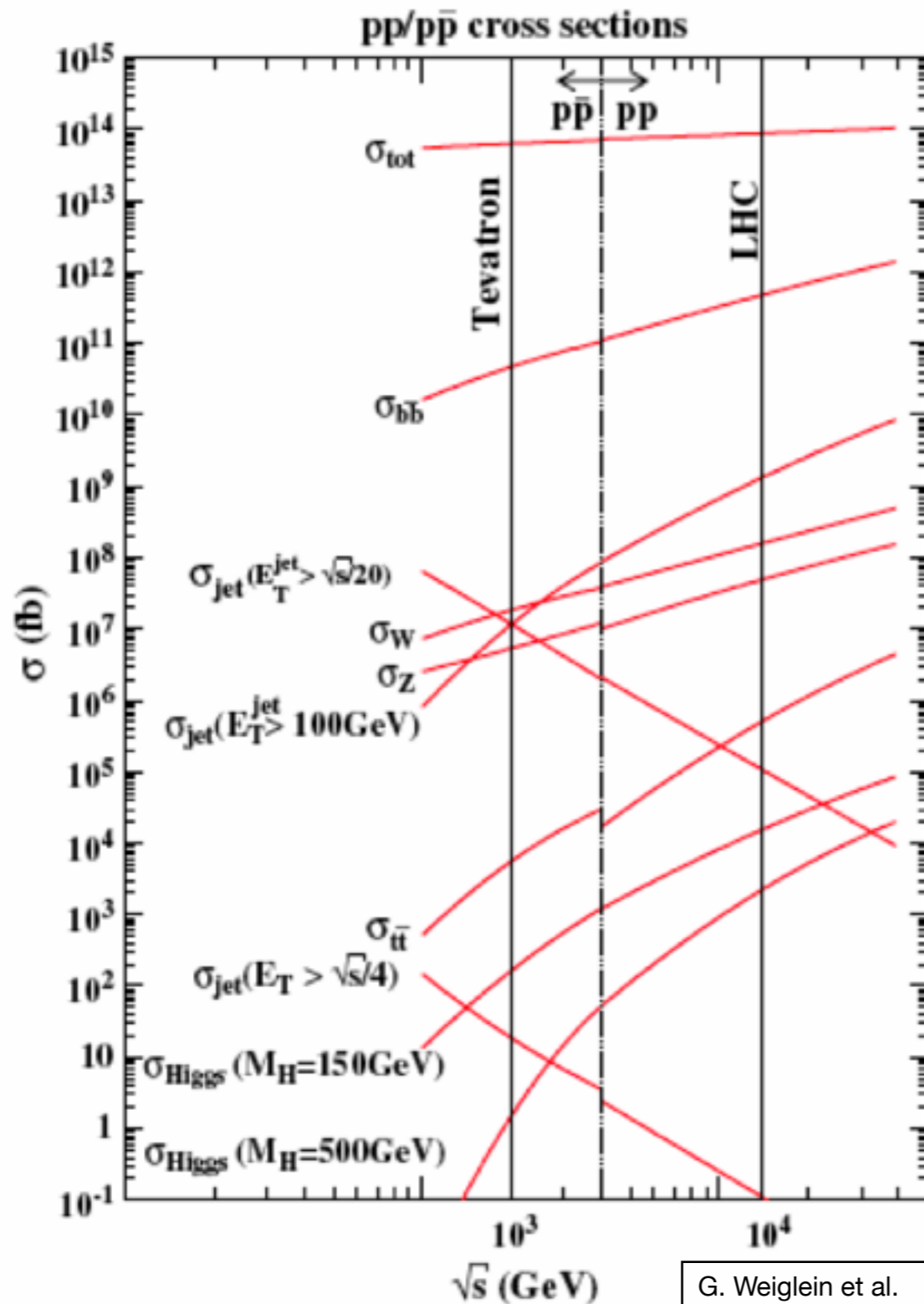
G. Weiglein et al.  
Physics Reports 426 (2006) 47–358

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$$\sigma(tt)/\sigma_{tot} \sim 10^{-8}$$

$$\sigma(H, M_H = 150 \text{ GeV})/\sigma_{tot} \sim 10^{-10}$$

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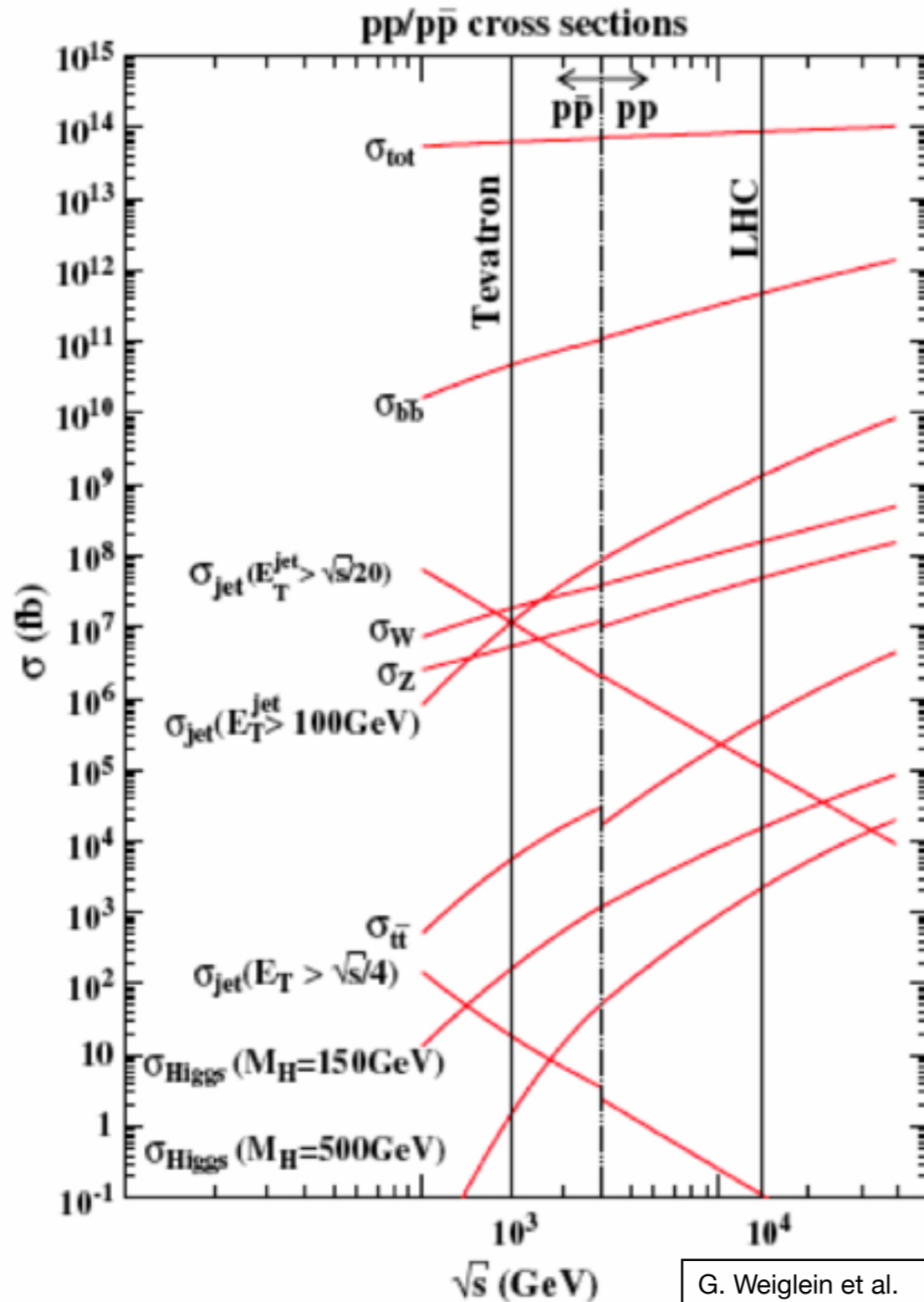
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- ▶ Very high event rates required!
- ▶ Detectors have to be able to cope with high particle rates and corresponding large amounts of data
- ▶ They have to be able to select (“trigger on”) interesting events

# Detector Requirements

---

- Conditions at LHC:

- Bunch crossing rate: 40 MHz (each 25 ns)

- Design Luminosity:

$$L = 10^{34} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

- pp - cross section:

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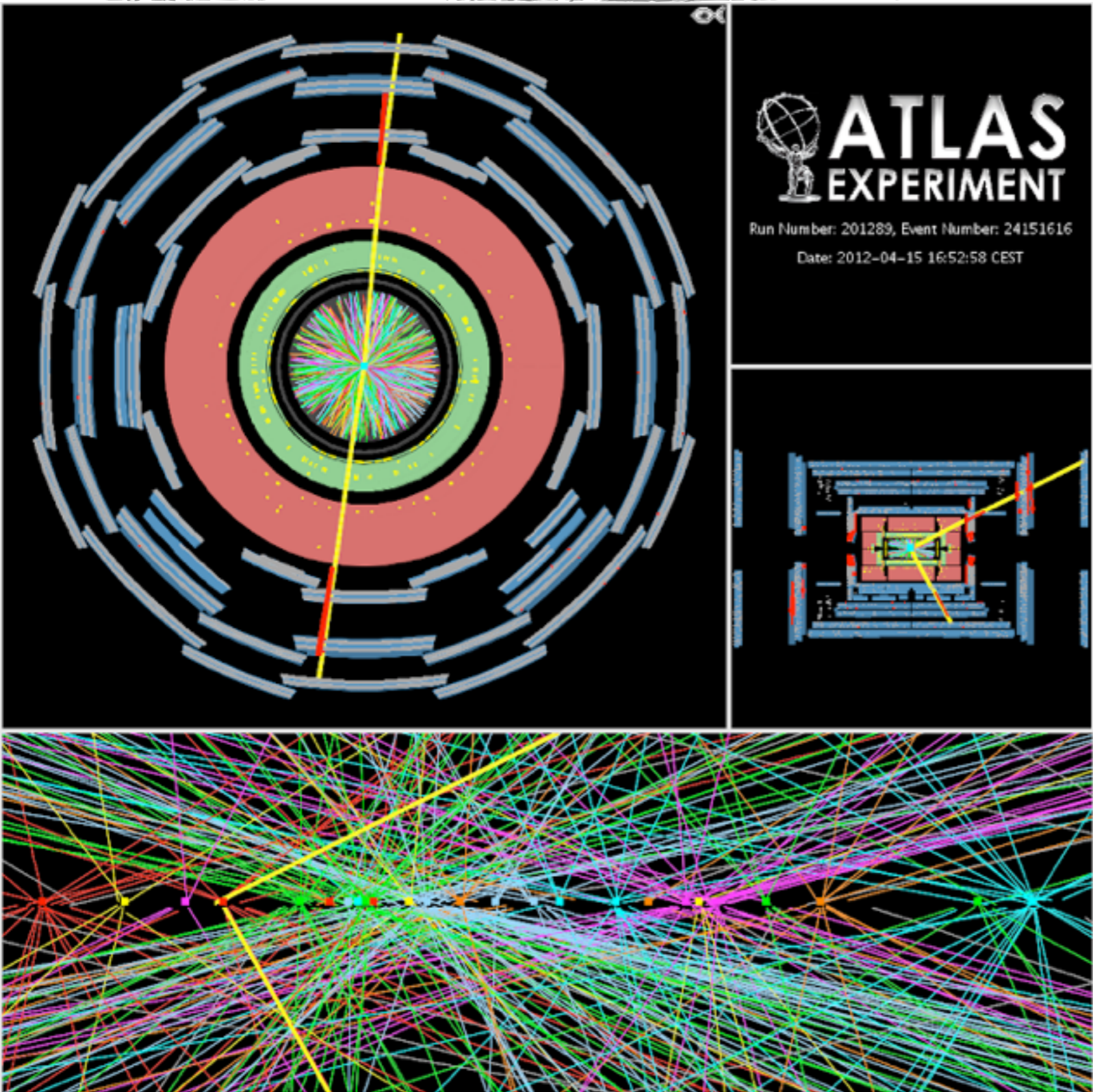
- high granularity to resolve high particle density

- Fast readout, data buffering directly on detector (“pipelines”), typically 128 BX deep

- ▶ Needs a fast decision, if an event is interesting and should be read out for further processing: a maximum of  $3.2 \mu\text{s}$  to decide

- High granularity results in high data volume: Maximum rate that can be stored  $\sim 100$  Hz ▣ Trigger and DAQ later in the series!

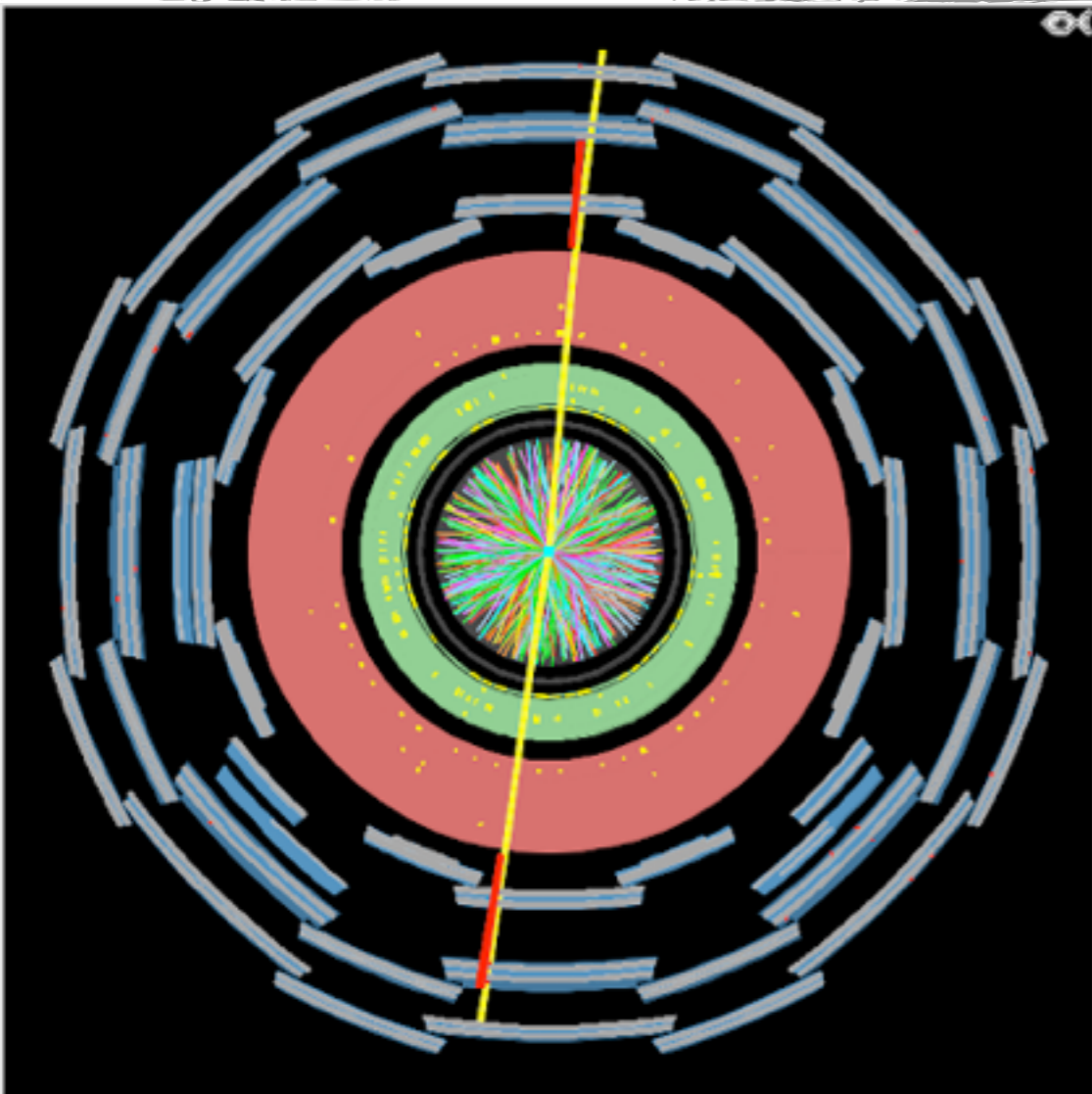
# LHC: Extreme Conditions



$Z \rightarrow \mu\mu$

... and 25 other collisions

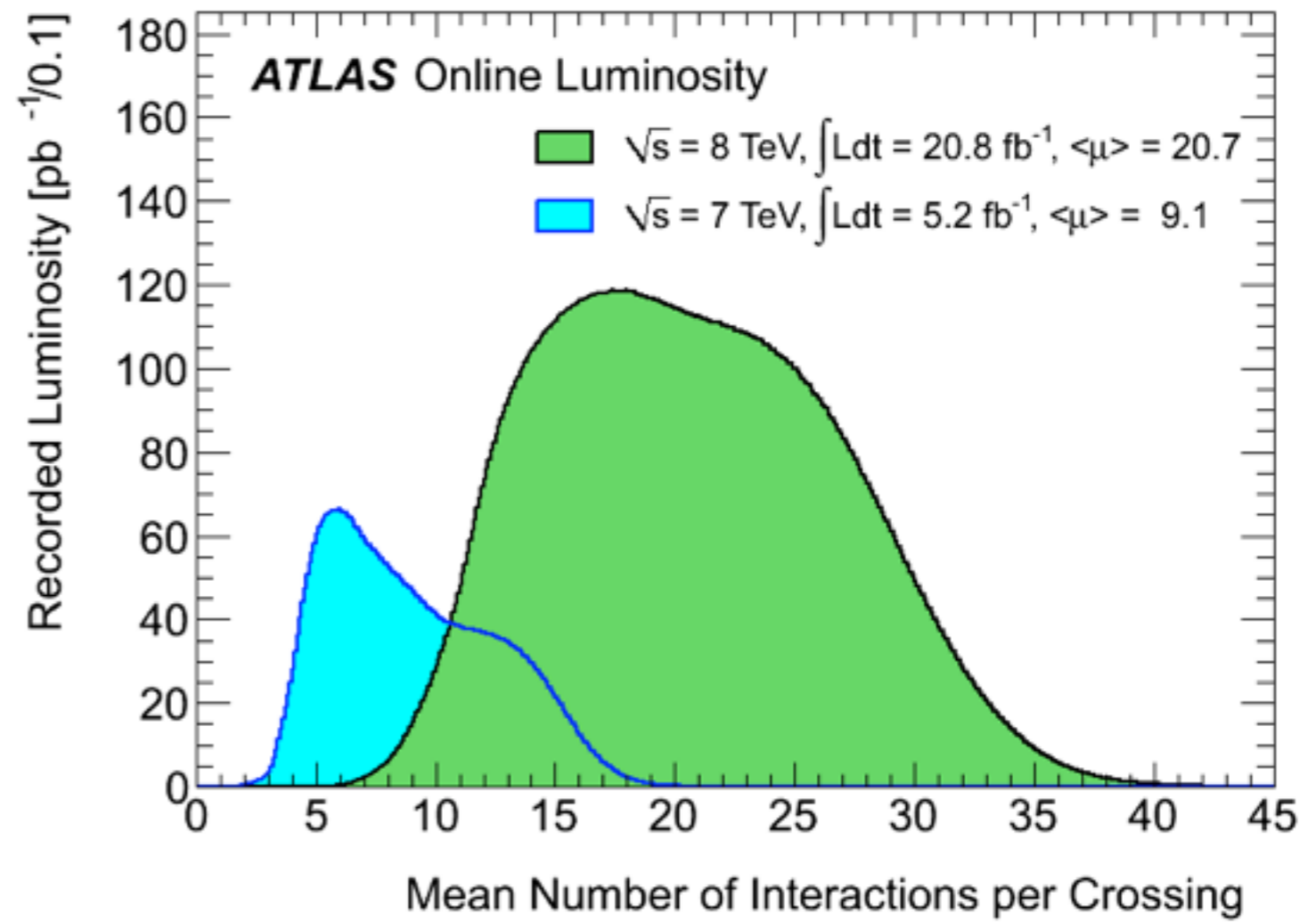
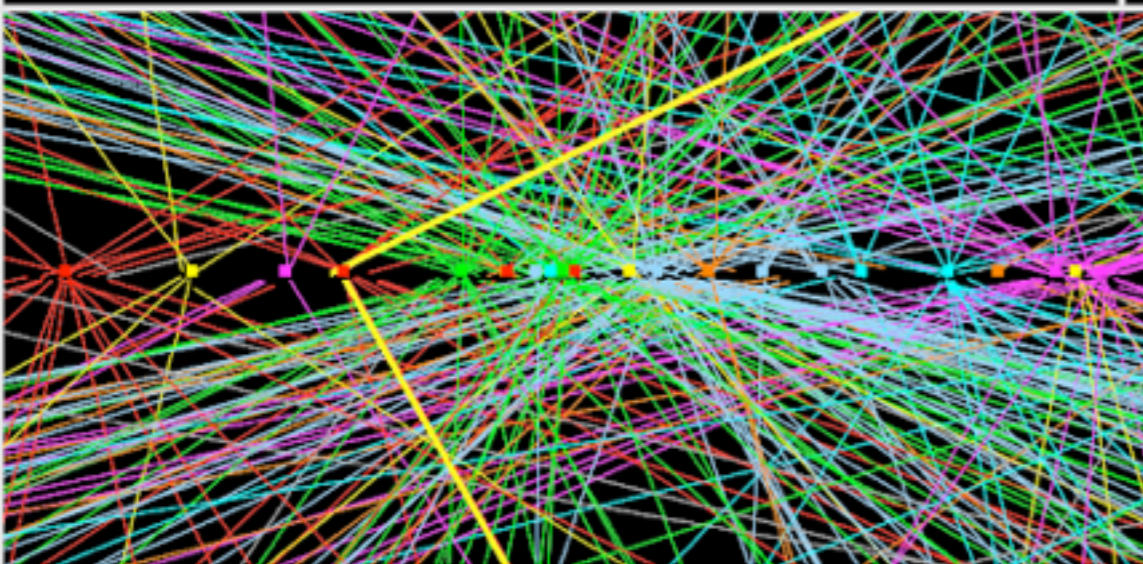
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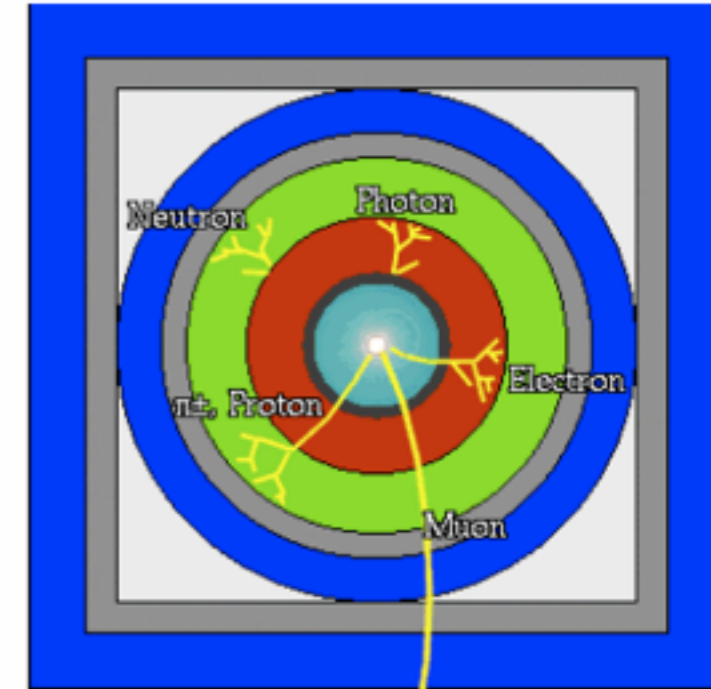
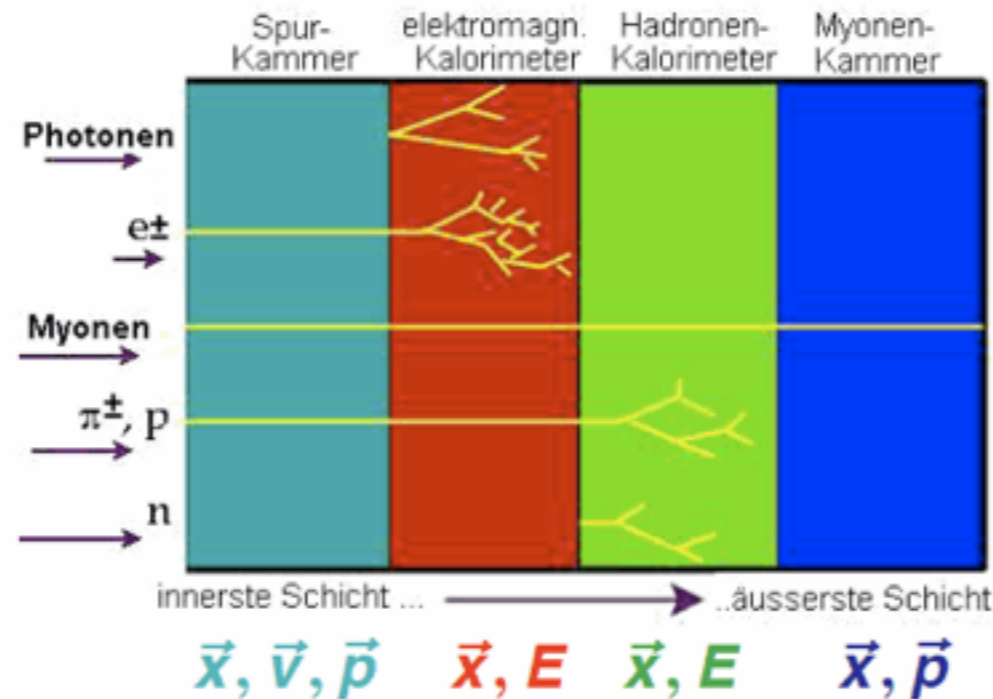
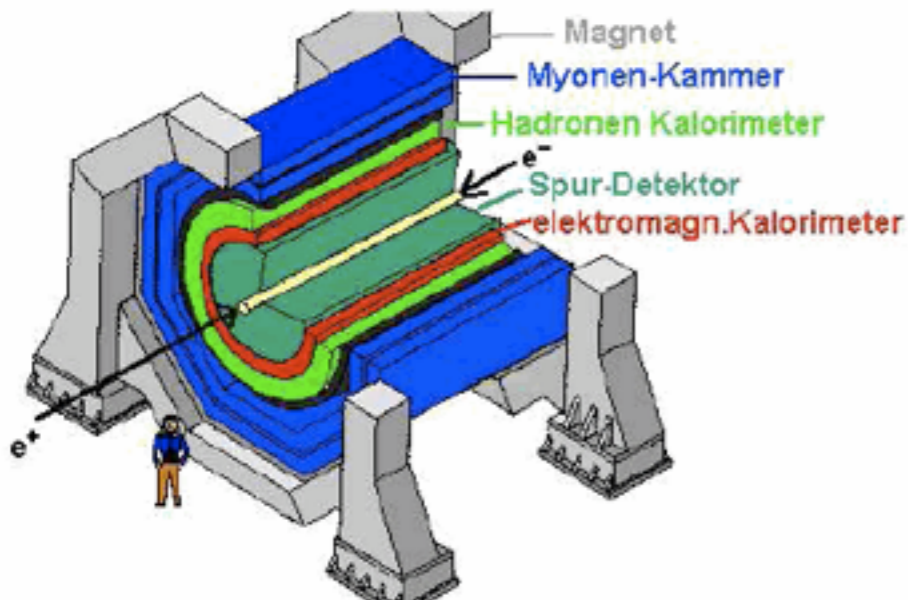
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Normal LHC conditions in 2012 data taking - will get more in the future!



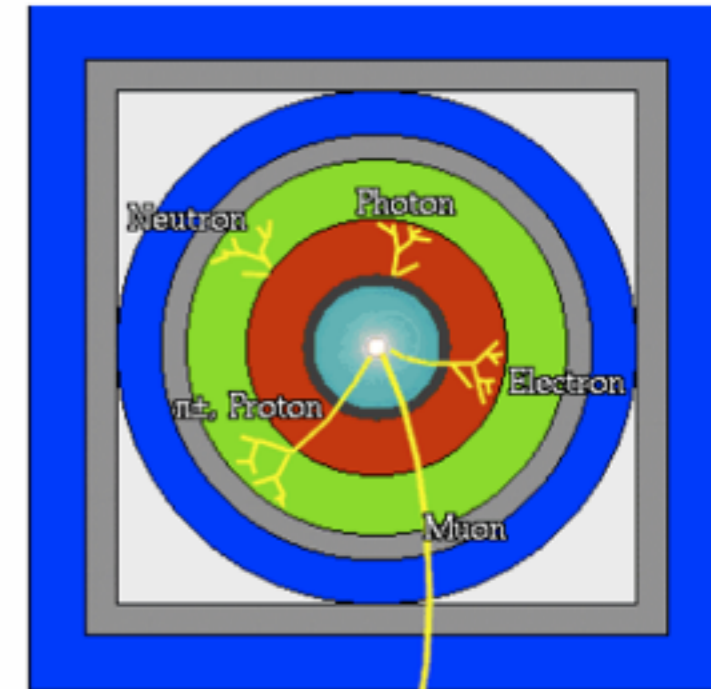
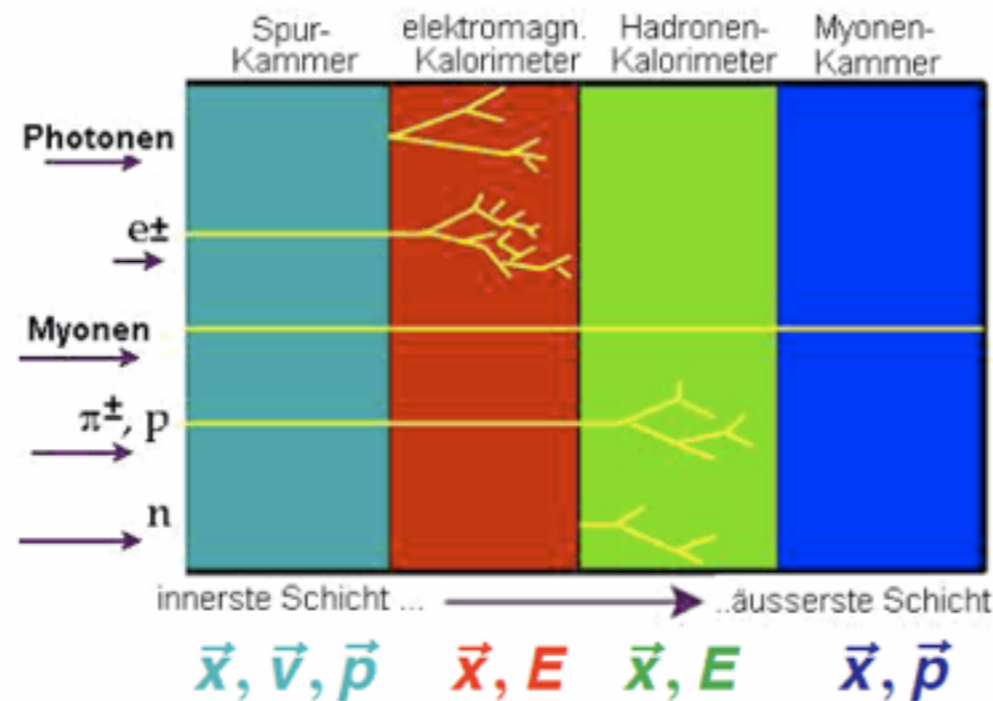
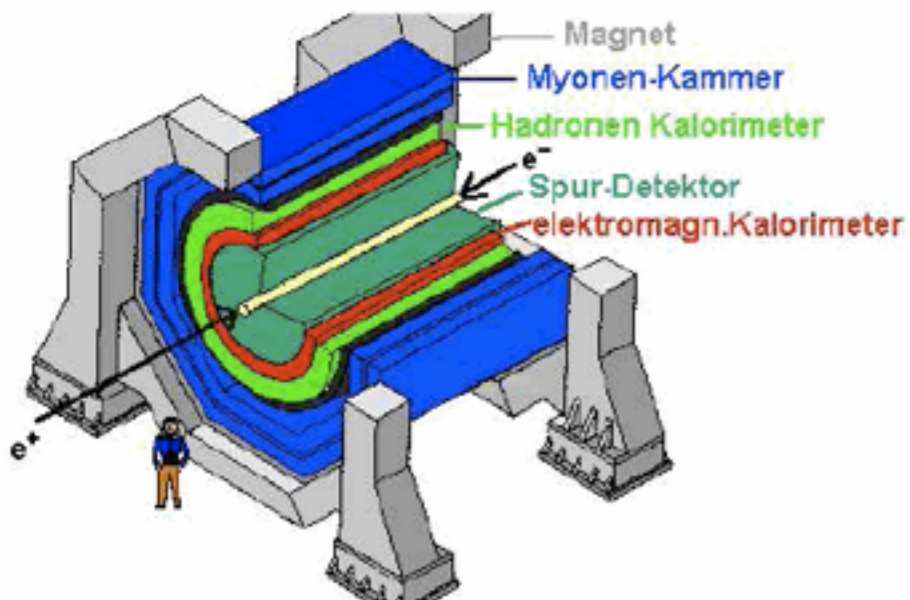
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- Detection of the final-state particles of the interaction
  - Signals generated via electromagnetic interaction with the detector material



# Collider Detectors

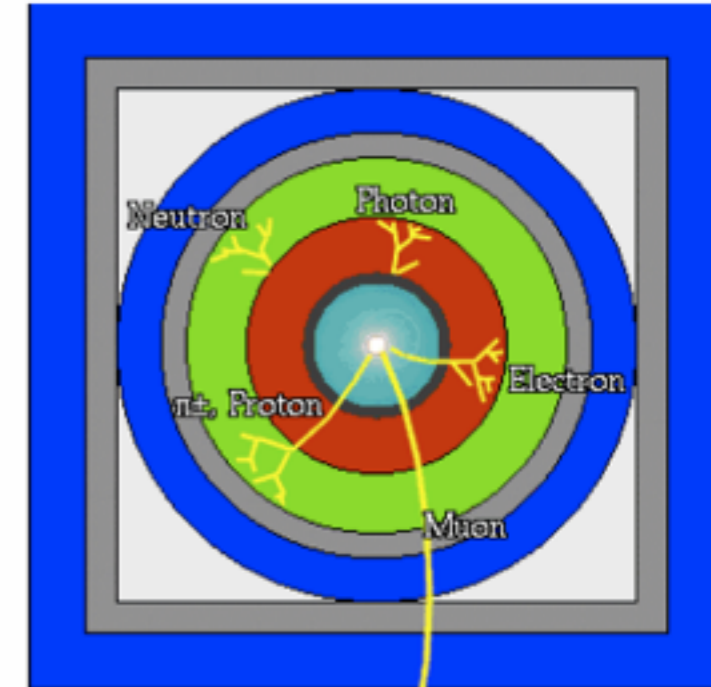
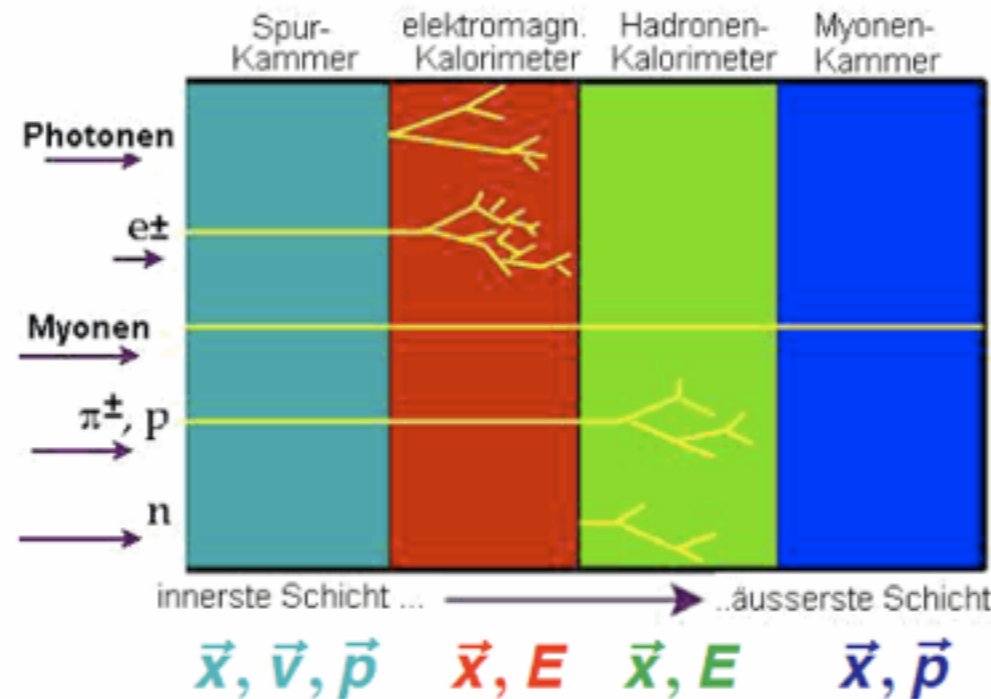
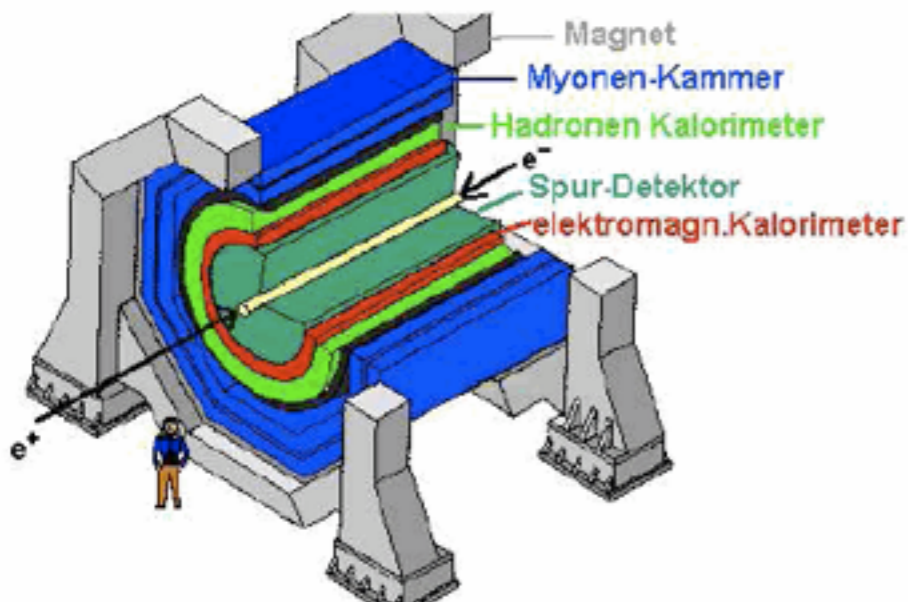
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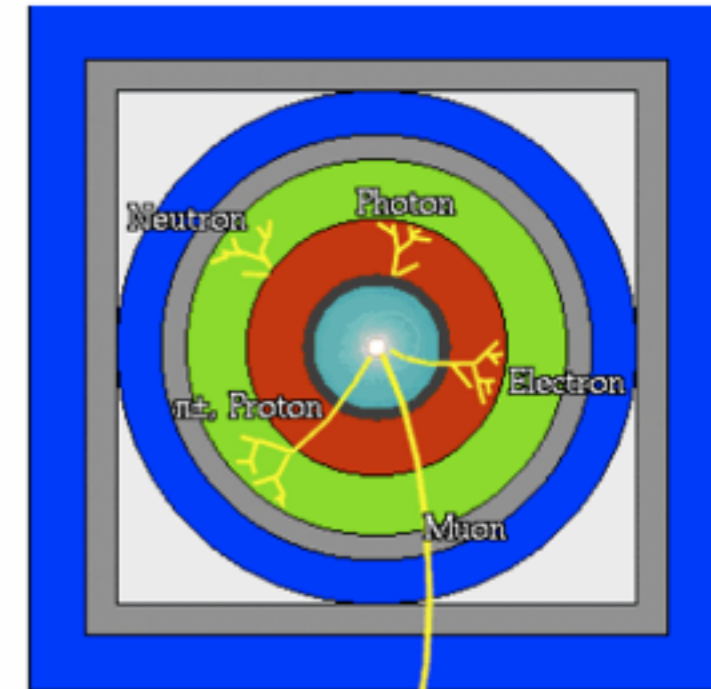
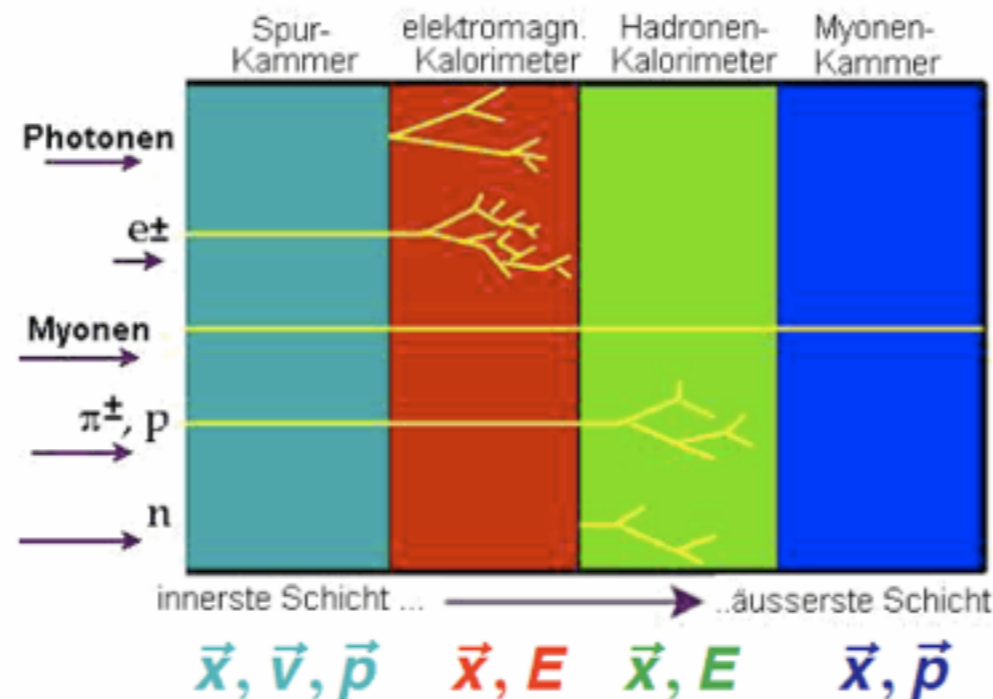
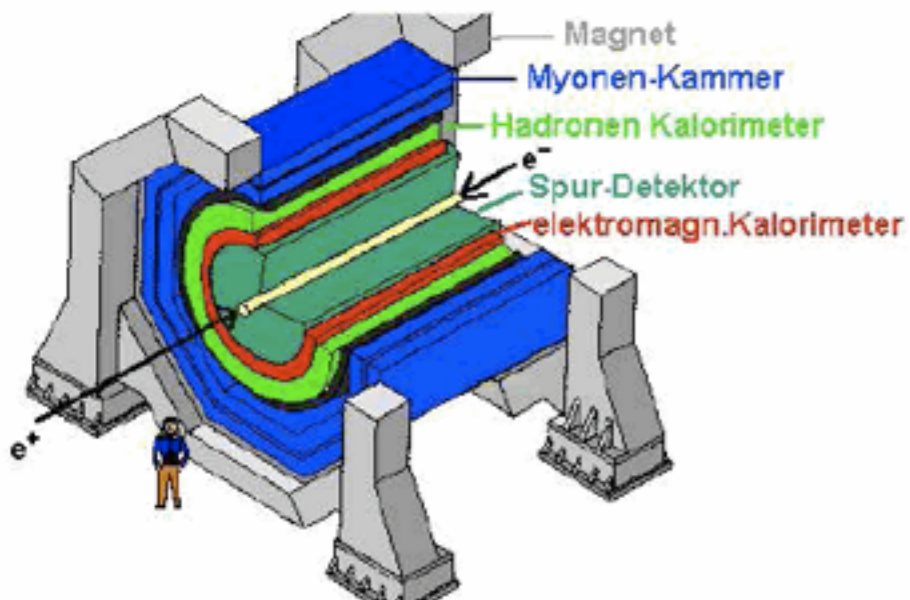


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**Muon detectors:** Identification and precise momentum measurement outside of the main magnet

# Generic Detector Construction Guide

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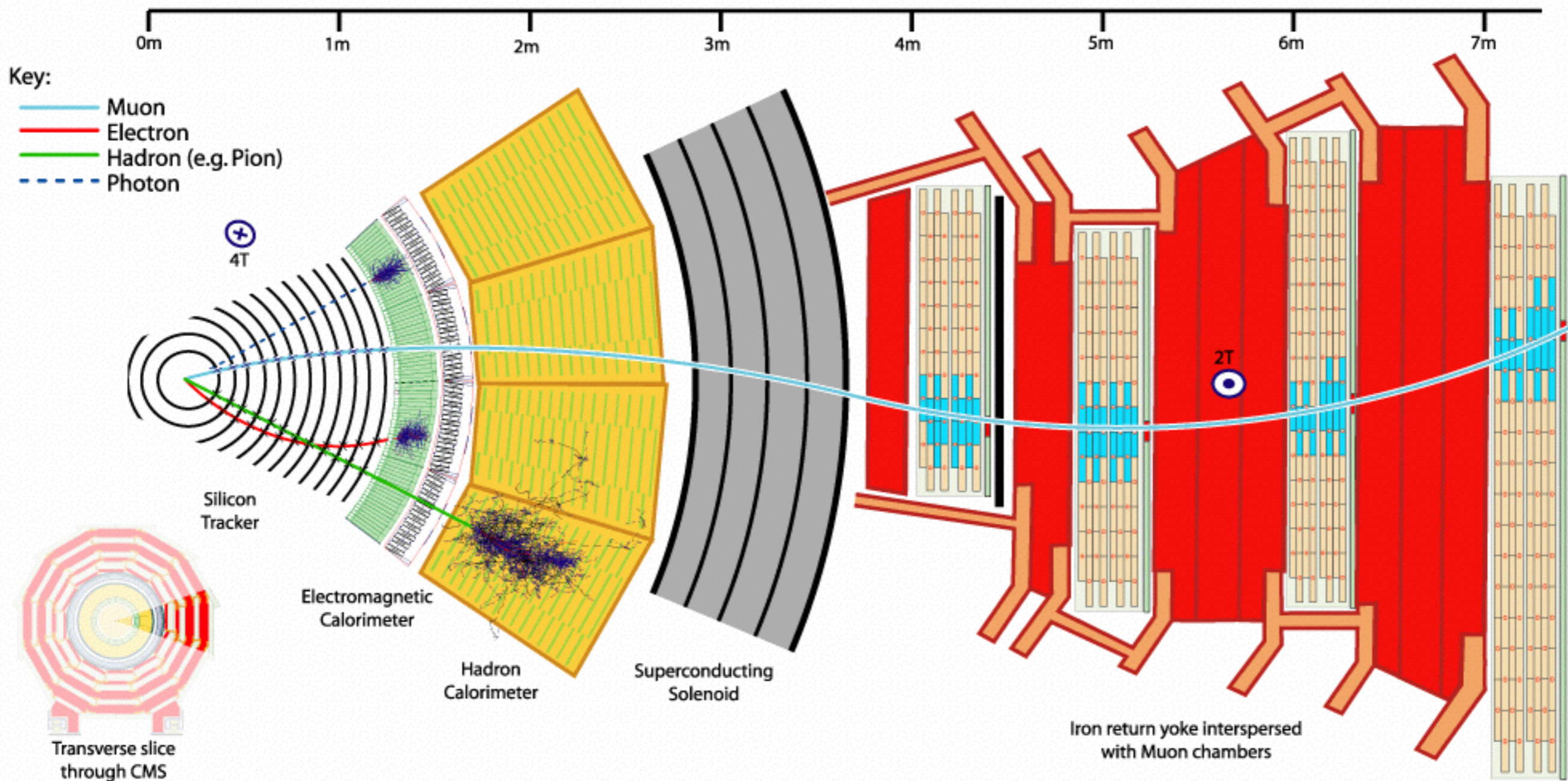
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- ▶ 6. A big (and strong) magnet!



# Detector Systems at Hadron Colliders

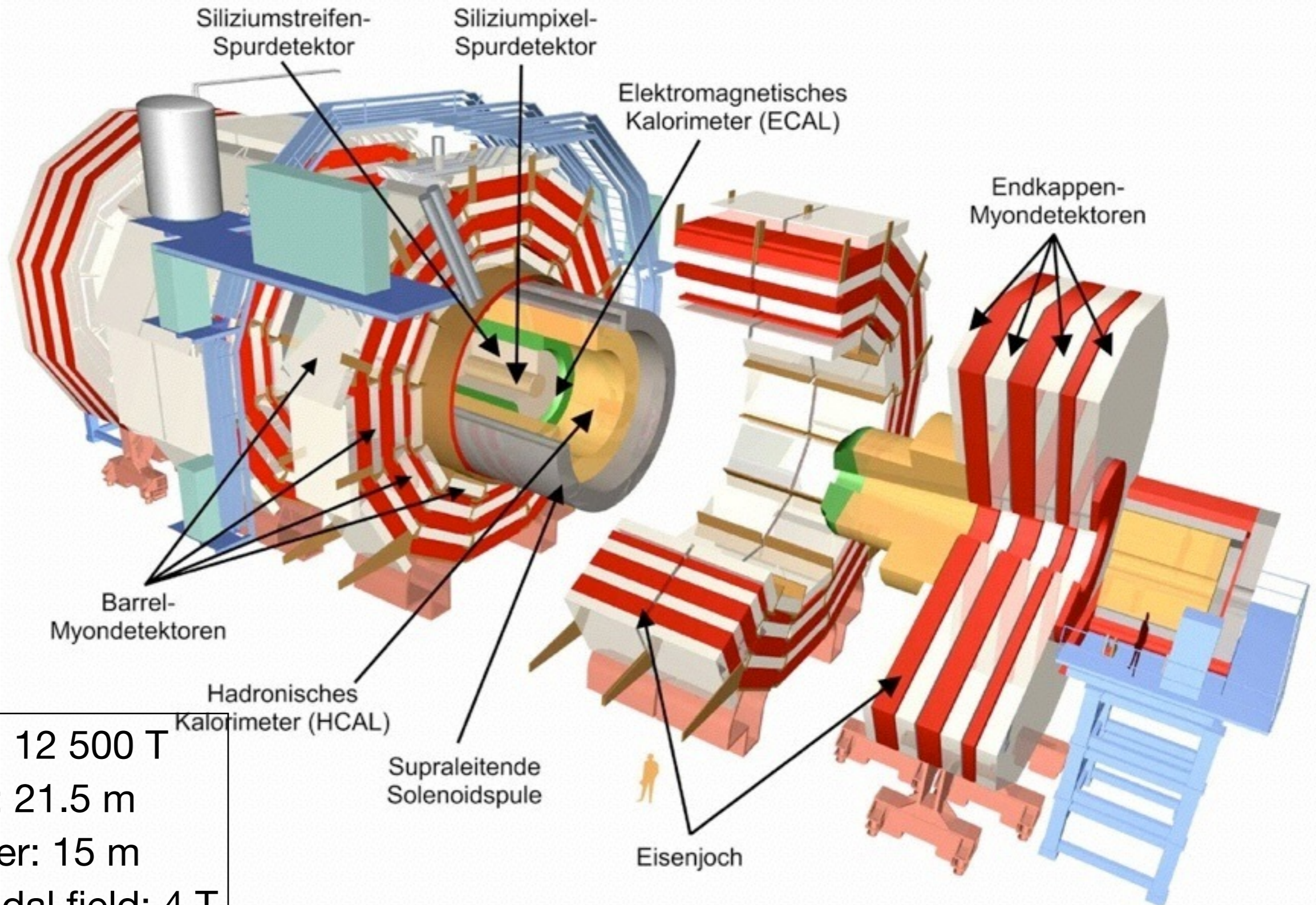


# Collider Detectors: Cross Section [CMS]



- The high energies require high magnetic fields and large detectors
- Here: CMS, where the “C” is for “compact”

# CMS: The Heavy Weight



Weight: 12 500 T  
Length: 21.5 m  
Diameter: 15 m  
Solenoidal field: 4 T

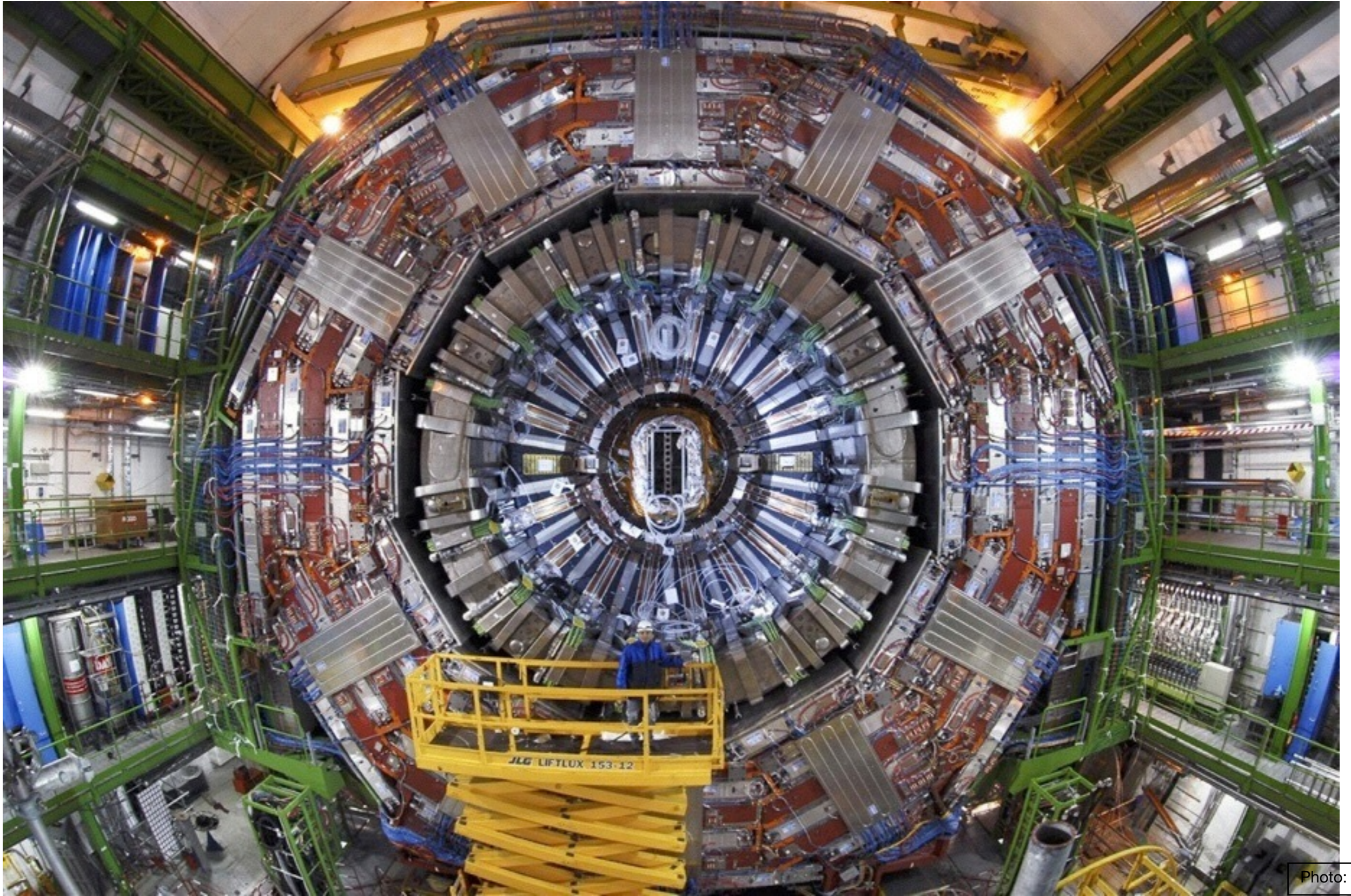
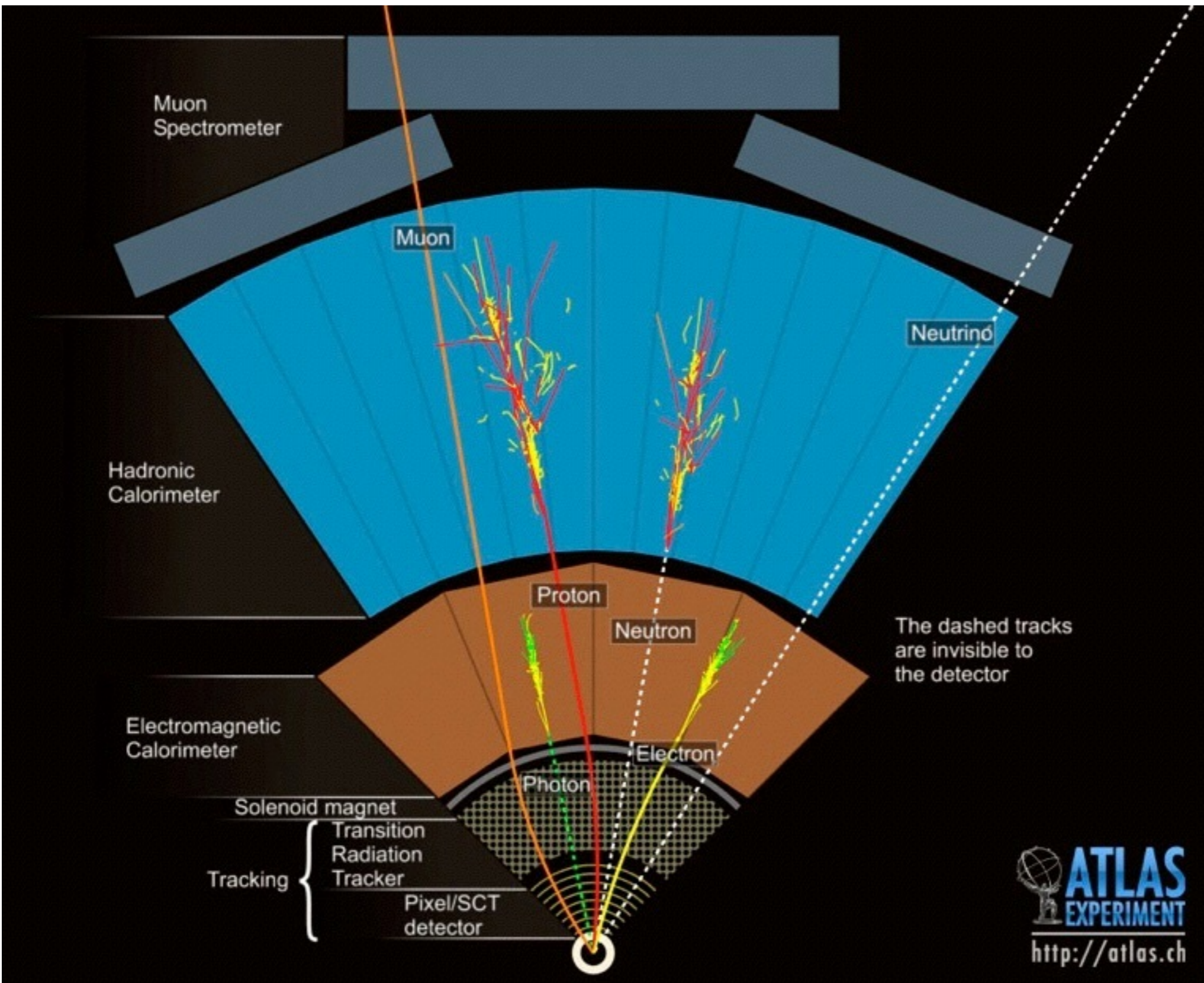


Photo: CERN

# Particles in ATLAS



# ATLAS: The biggest Detector in Particle Physics

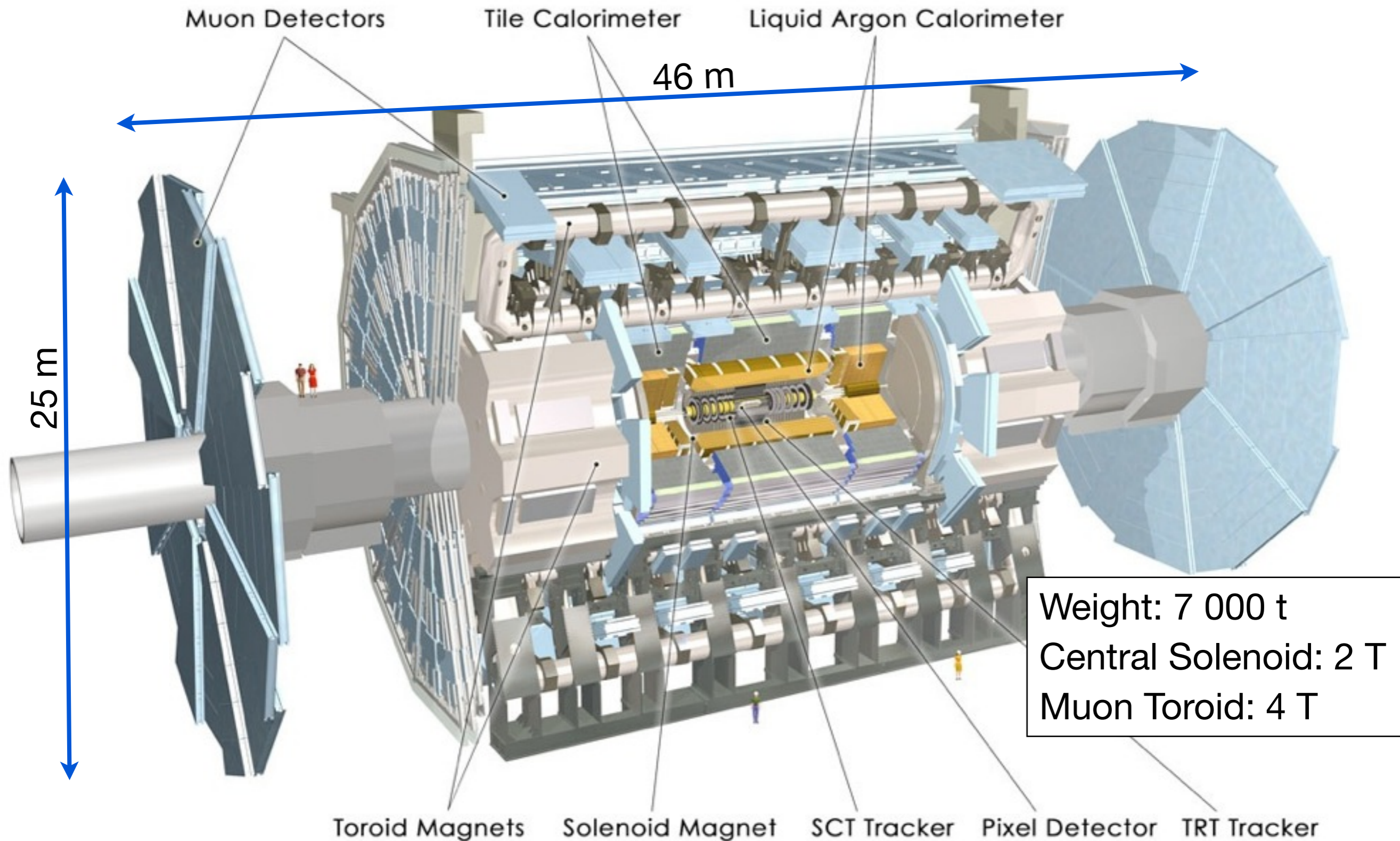


Illustration: CERN

# ATLAS

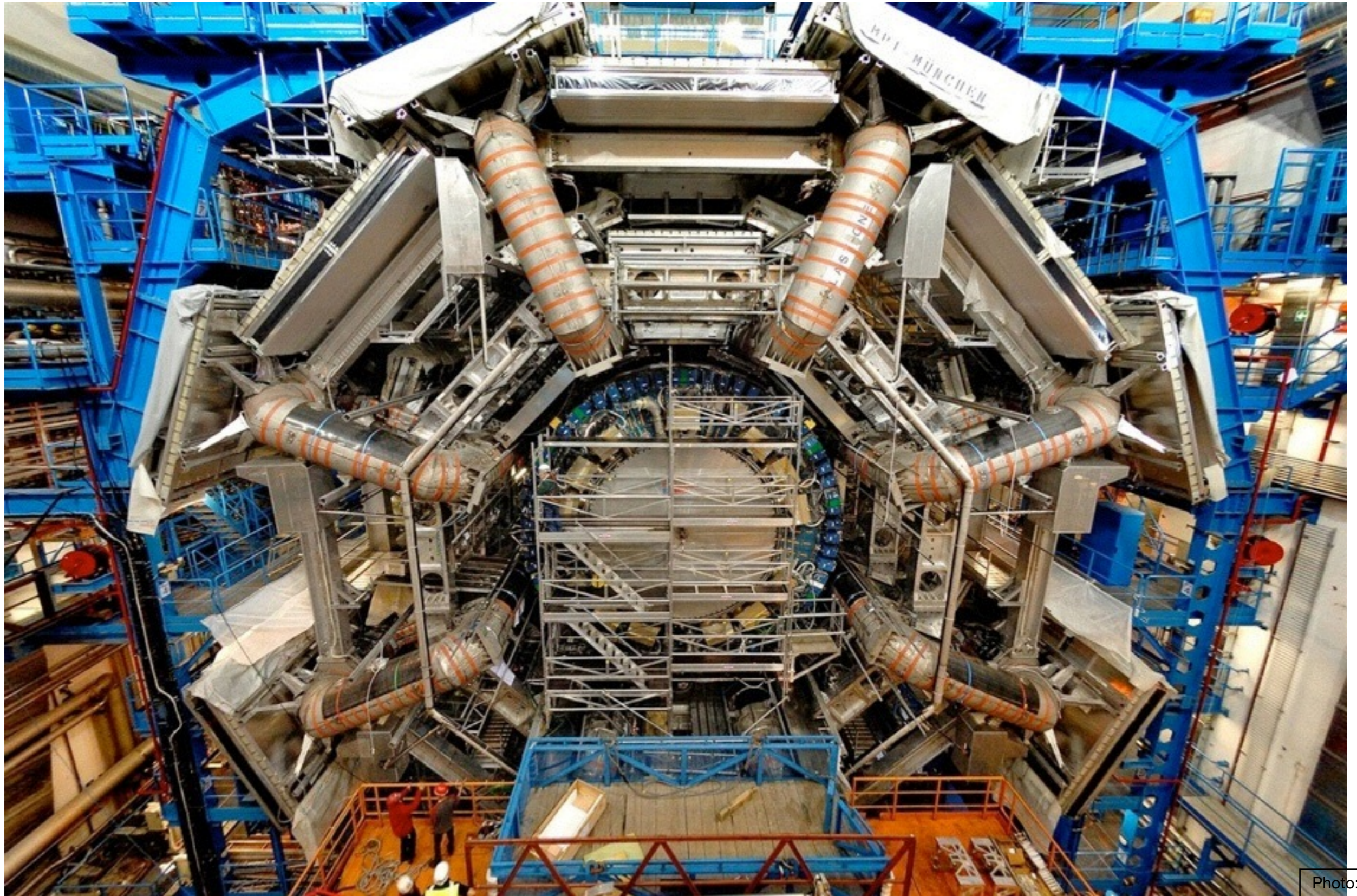


Photo: CERN



# Basics of Particle Detection: Interaction with Matter

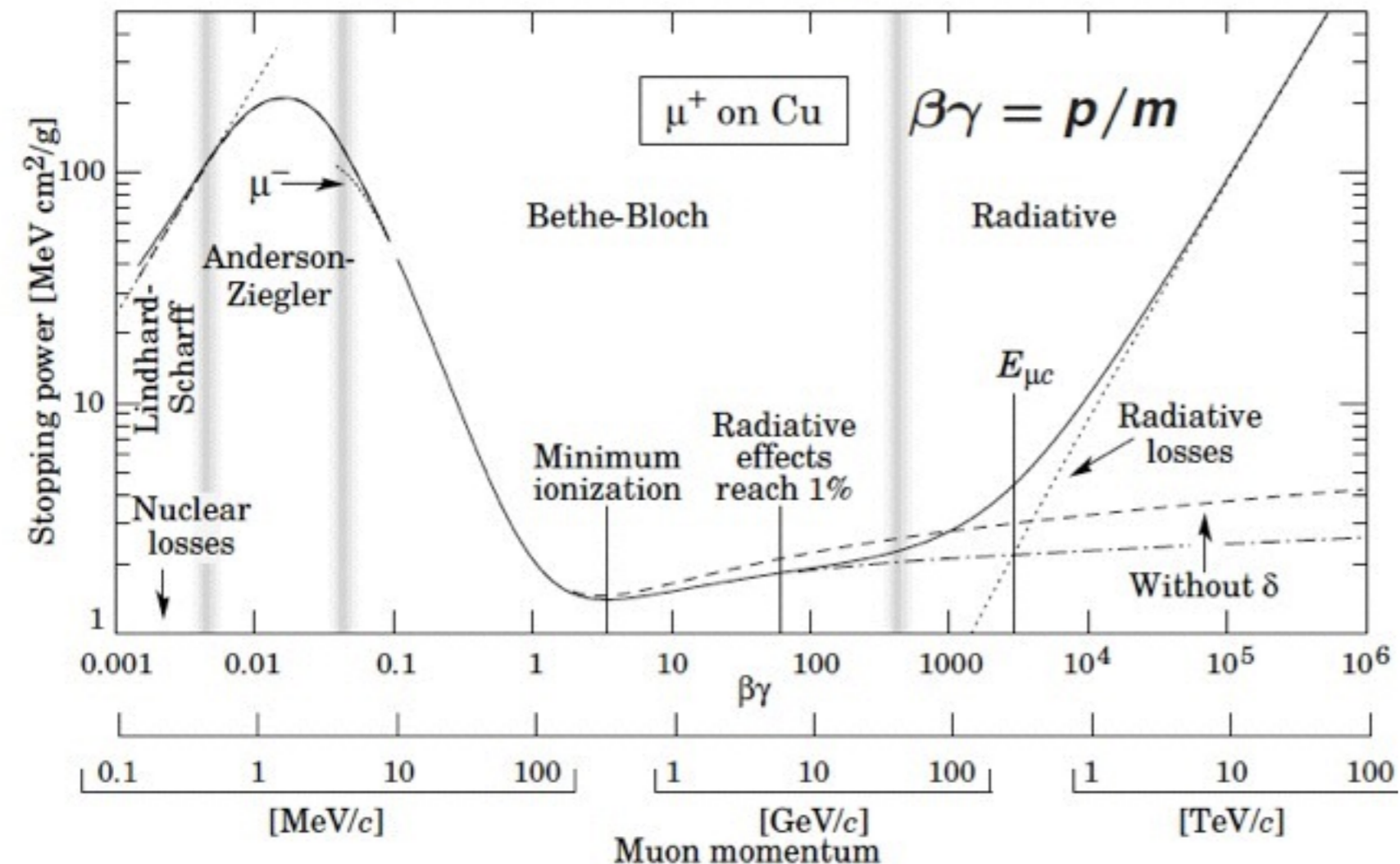




# Energy Loss in Matter: Bethe-Bloch

- The Bethe-Bloch Formula describes energy loss by ionization

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



- Applicable in intermediate energy range
  - Atomic effects at low energies and Bremsstrahlung at high energies separately

- Z/A dependence: large energy loss in H**

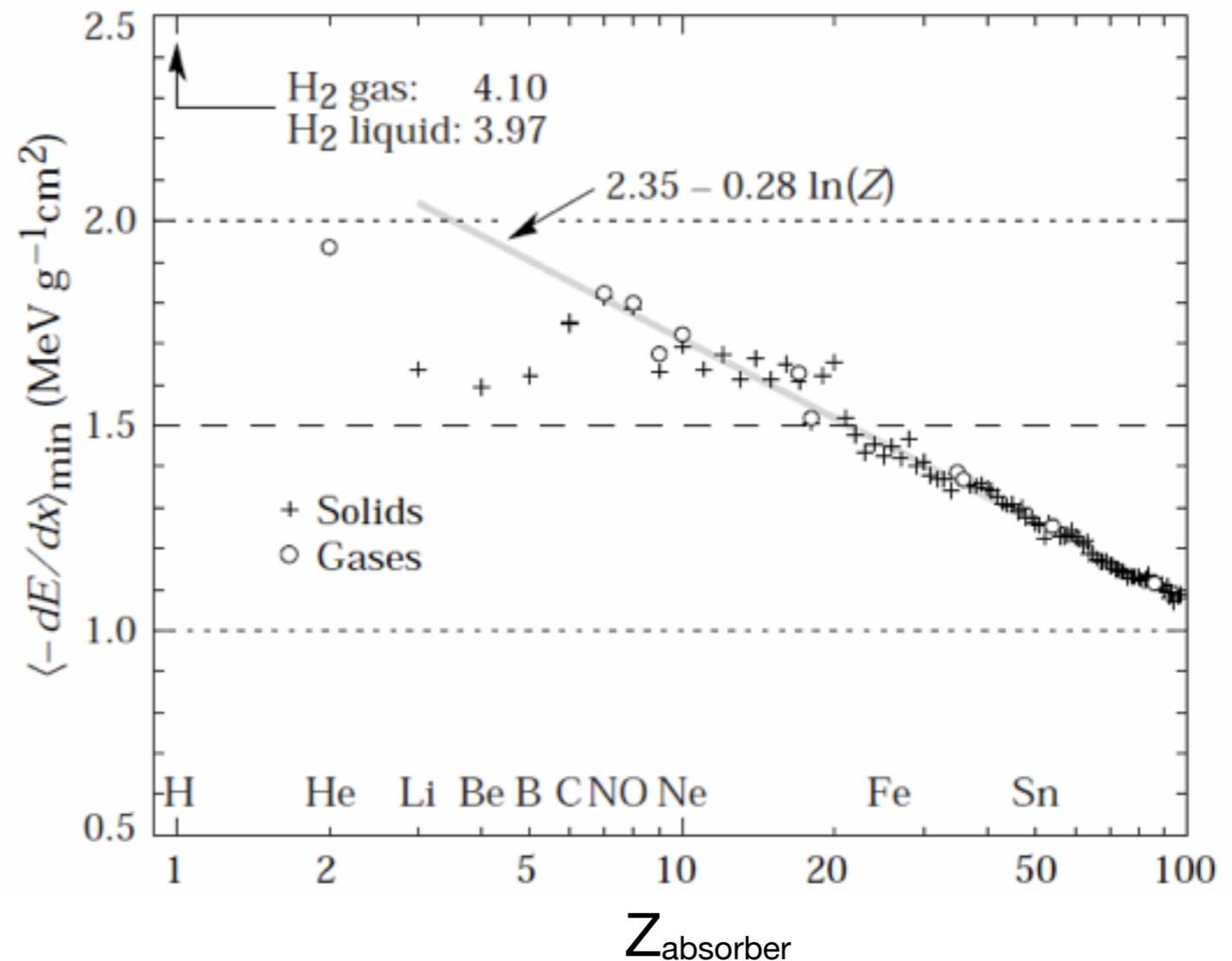
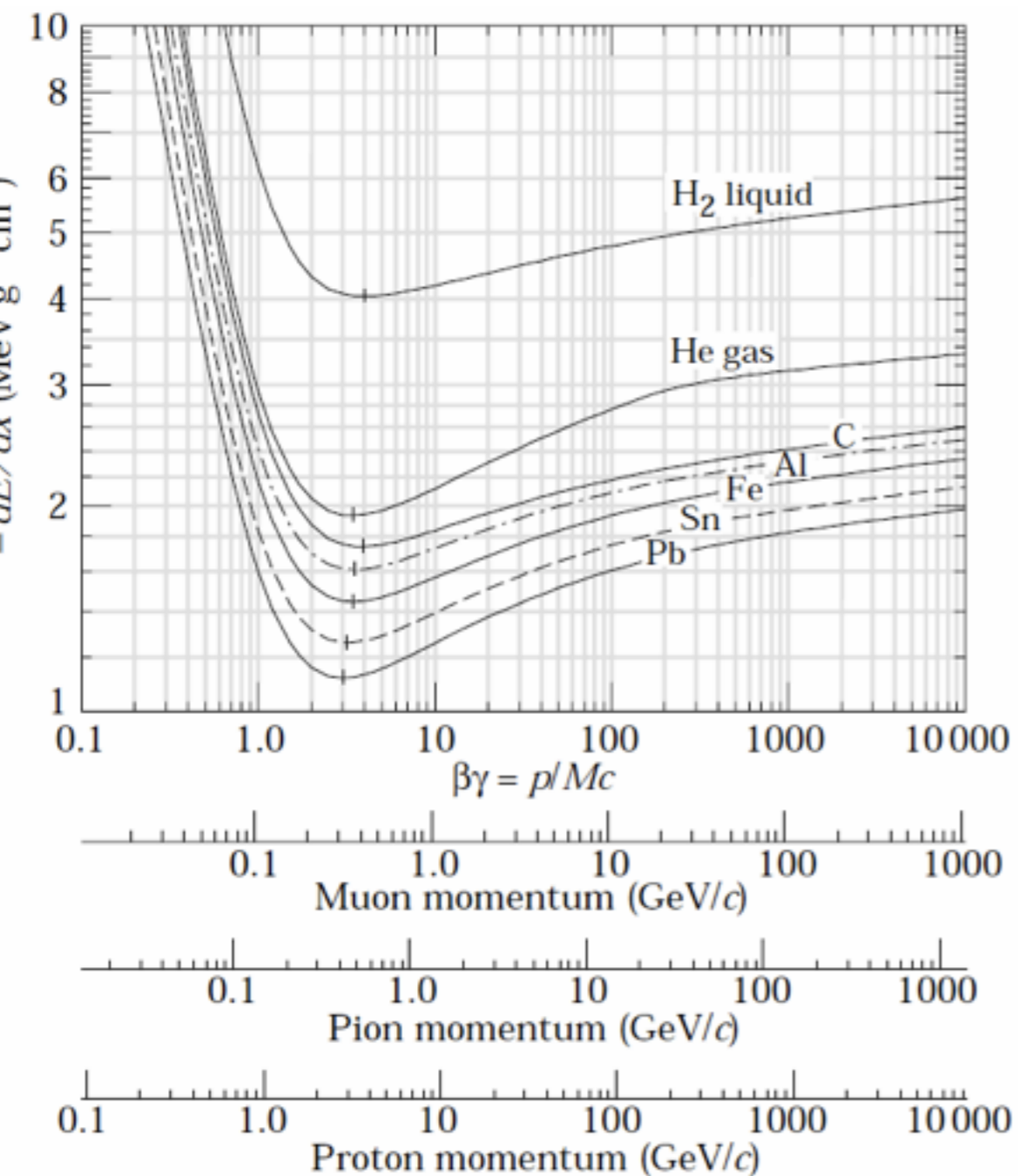
- 1/β<sup>2</sup> at low momenta: Heavy particles lose more energy**

- Minimum at p/m ~ 3-4: minimum ionizing particle MIP

- logarithmic rise for high momentum**

- Density effect due to polarization of medium**

# Material Dependence of Energy Loss



- Simple approximation: Energy loss of MIPs ( $\beta\gamma \sim 3$ ): 1-2 MeV g<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>2</sup> (exception: H)

# Energy Loss: A Closer Look

---

- Bethe-Bloch only gives the mean value!
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On the microscopic level: discrete scatterings, leading to ionization

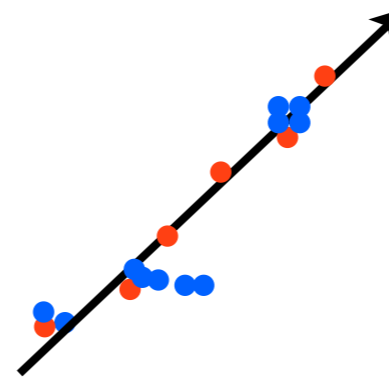
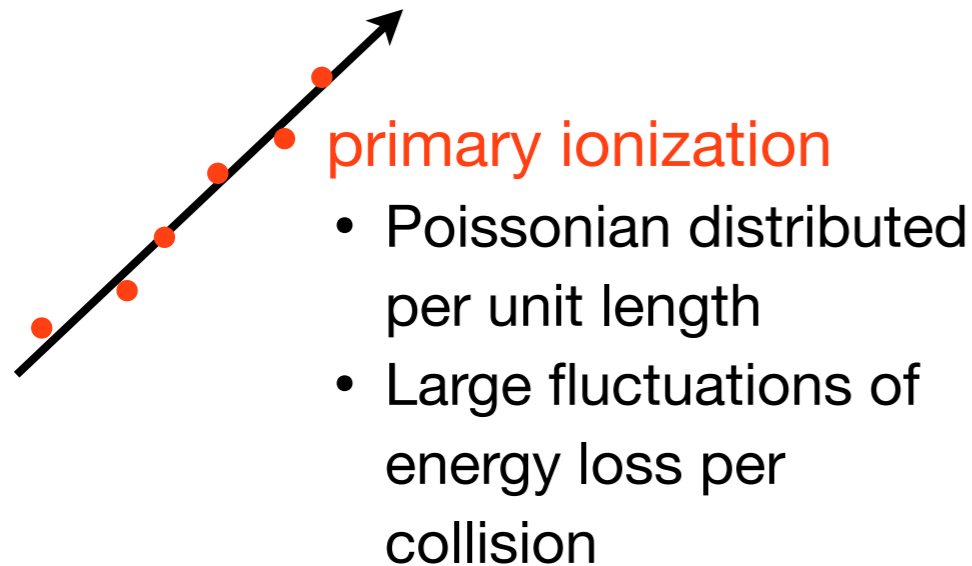
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- ⇒ Distinguishing primary and secondary ionization:



## secondary ionization

- ▶ originating from high-energy primary electrons
- ▶ Sometimes the energy is sufficient for a clearly visible secondary track:  $\delta$  electron

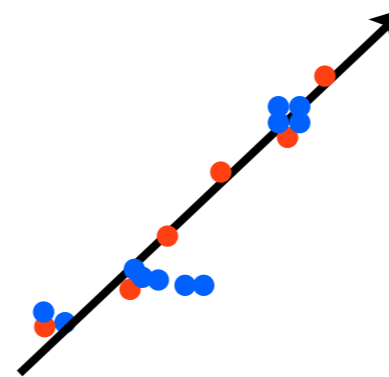
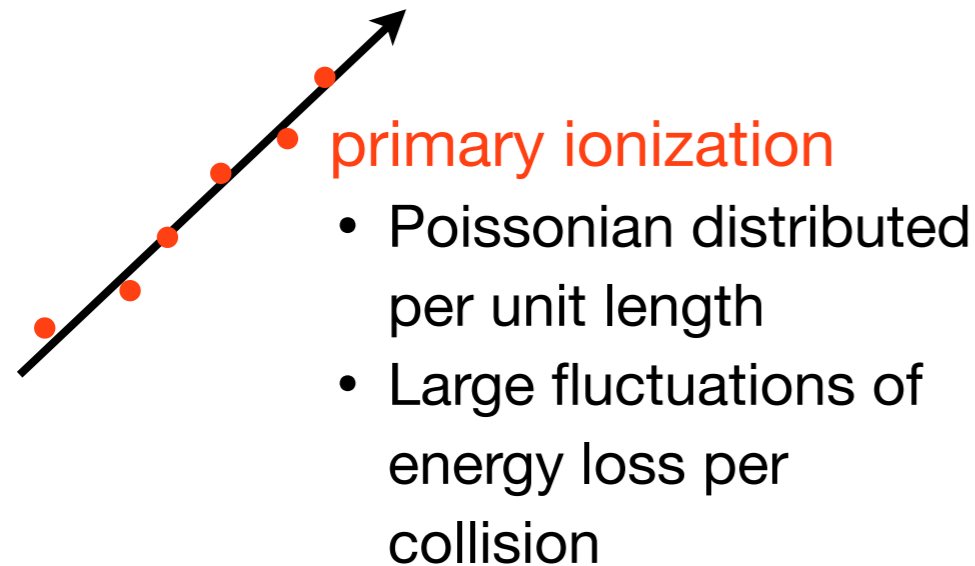
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total ionization = **primary ionization** + **secondary ionization**

In gases (STP) typically 30 primary reactions per cm, 90 electrons per cm

# Energy Loss: A Closer Look



- Example for a delta electron in a bubble chamber: clearly visible range!

# Energy Loss in Thin Layers

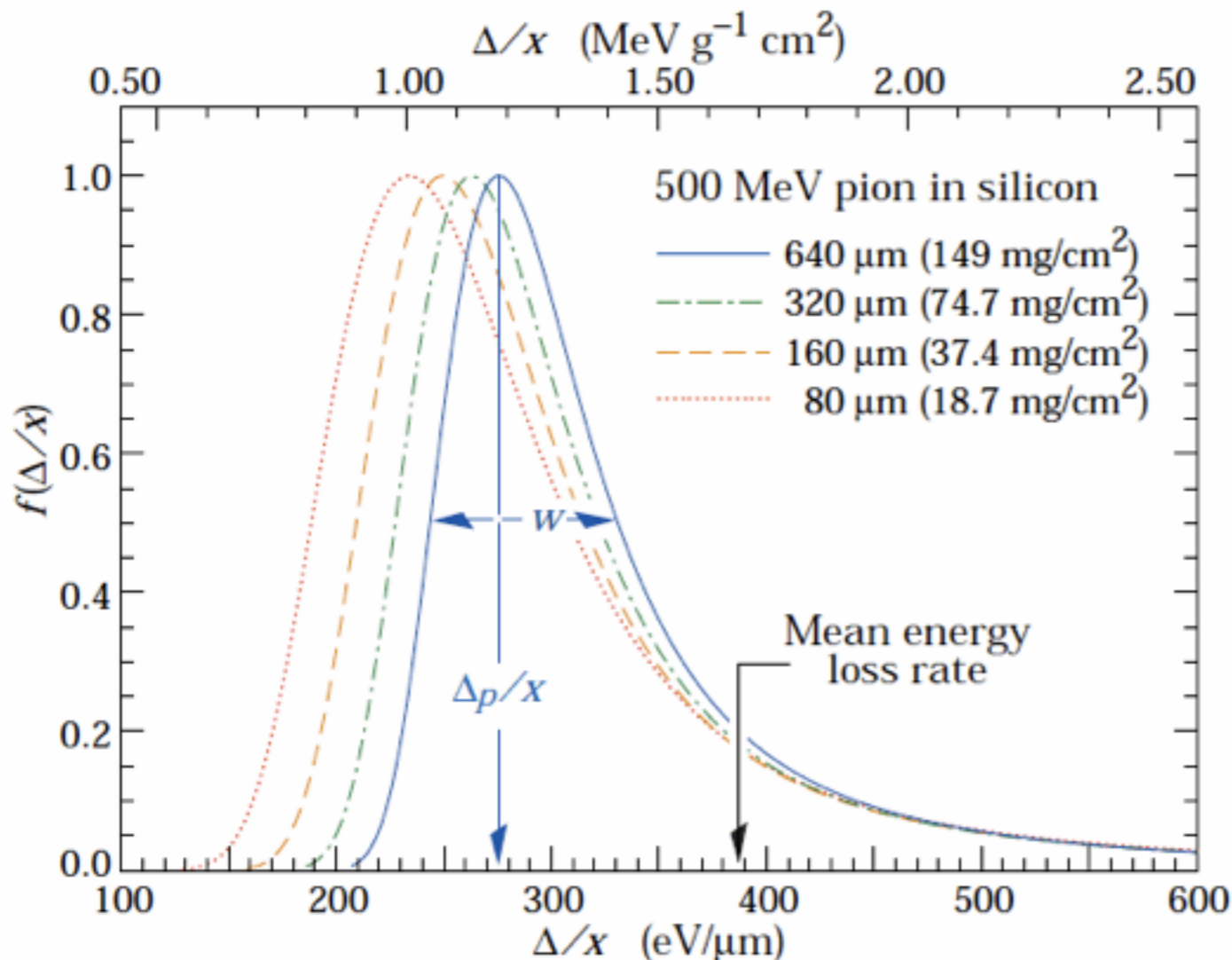
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- The large range of the energy loss in individual reactions results in large variations of the energy loss in thin detectors:
  - A broad maximum: Collisions with relatively small energy loss
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The energy loss in thin layers was first described by Landau:

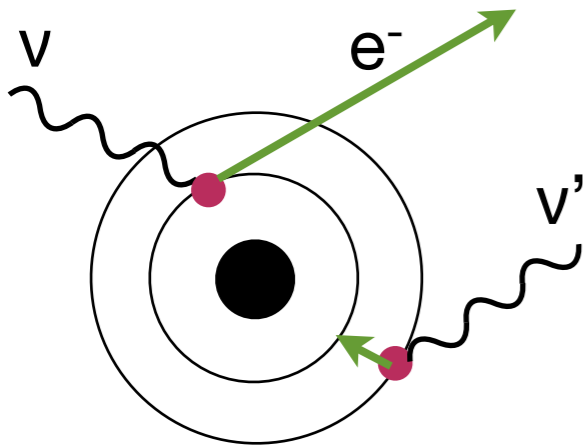
## Landau distribution

Thin absorber:  
 $\langle \Delta E \rangle < \sim 10 T_{\max}$

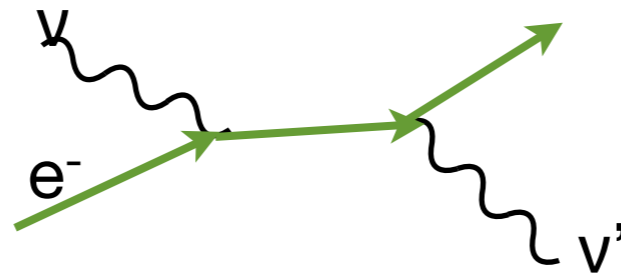
For 500 MeV pions:  $T_{\max} \sim 9$  MeV  
 (Mean energy loss in 9 mm of Si)

# Photons: Interactions

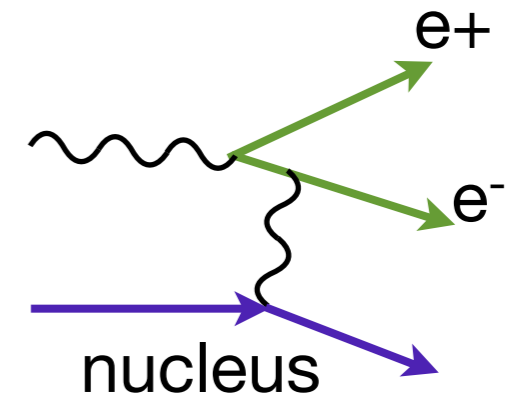
photo effect



Compton scattering



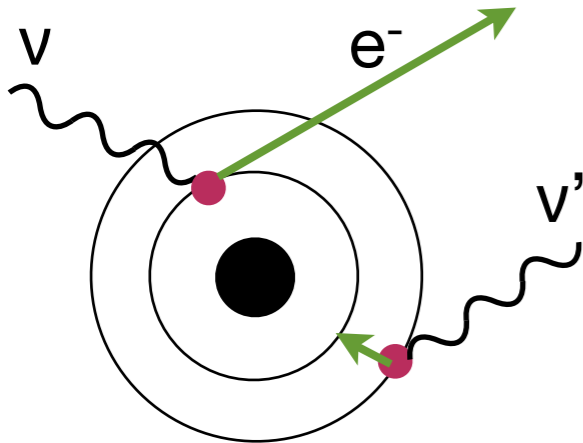
pair creation



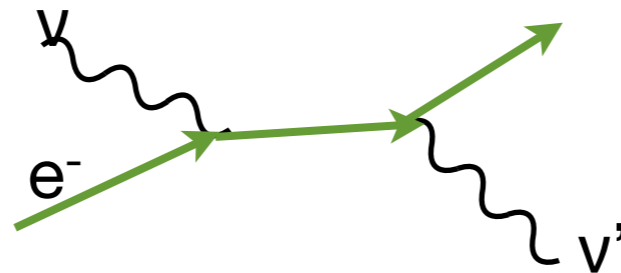
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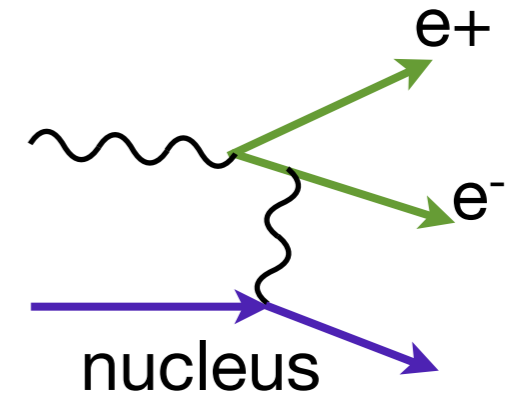
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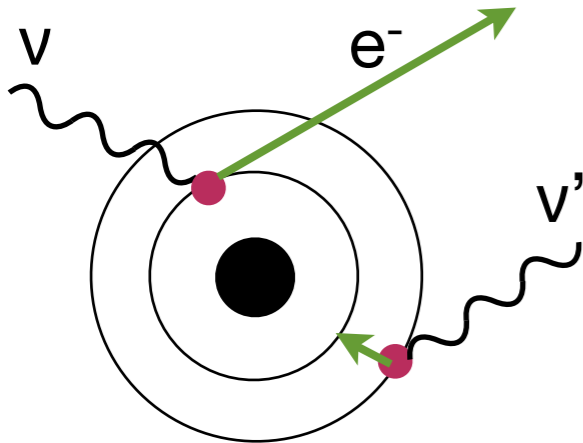


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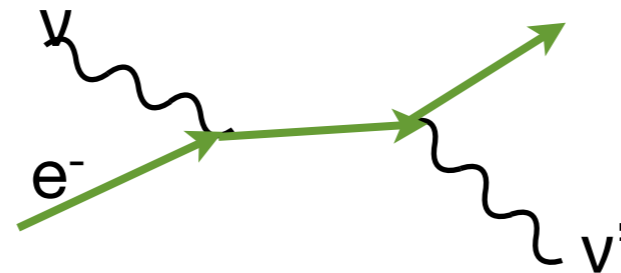
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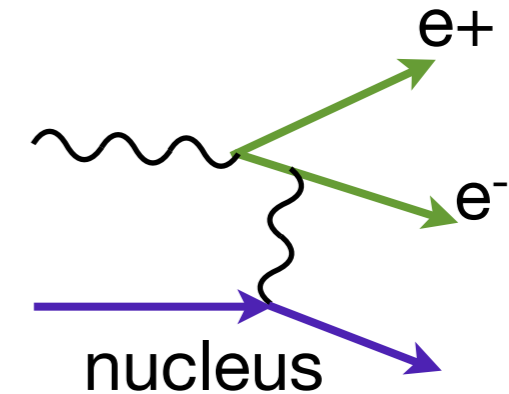
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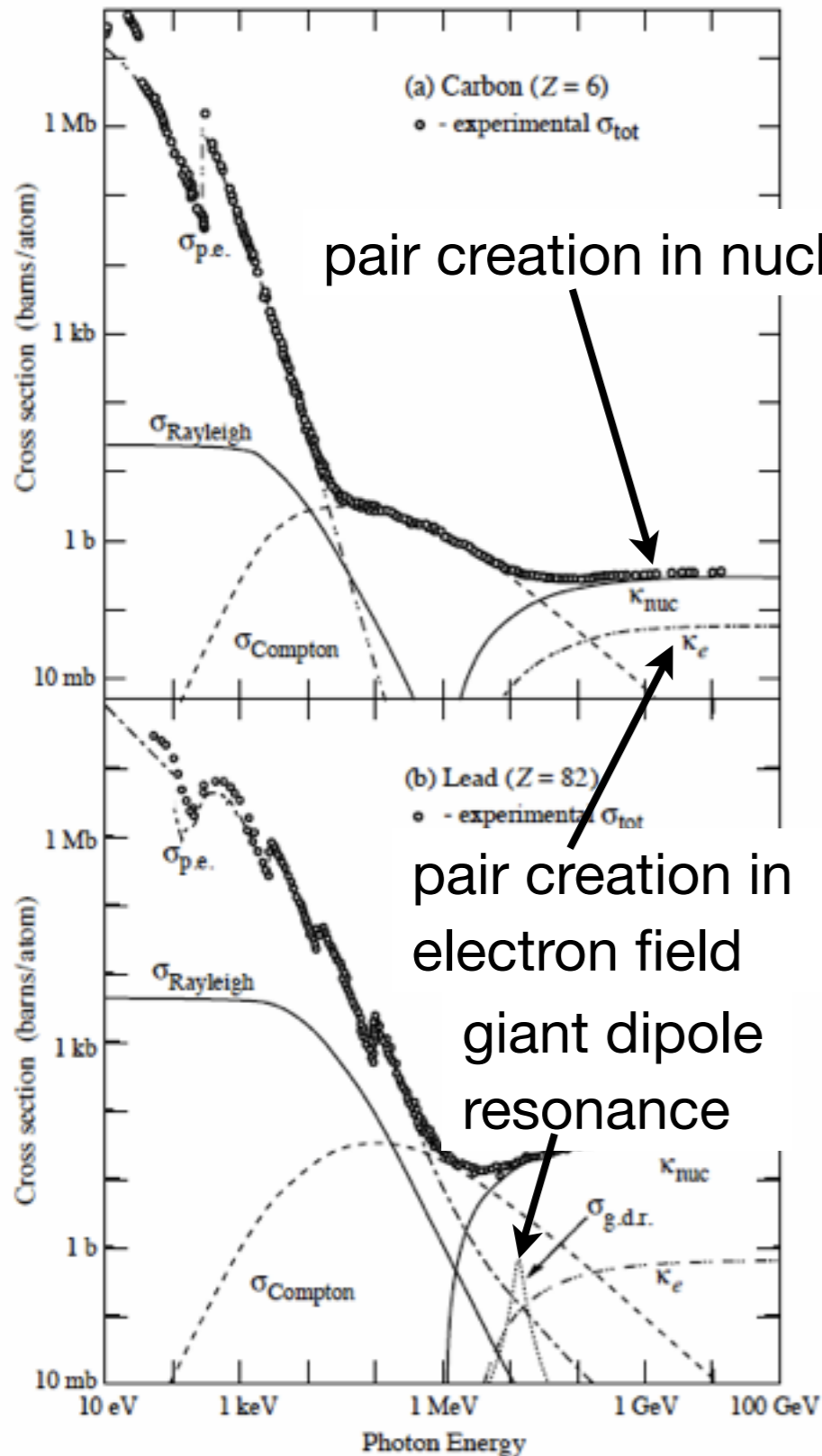
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⇒ Reduction of photon intensity when traversing matter:

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

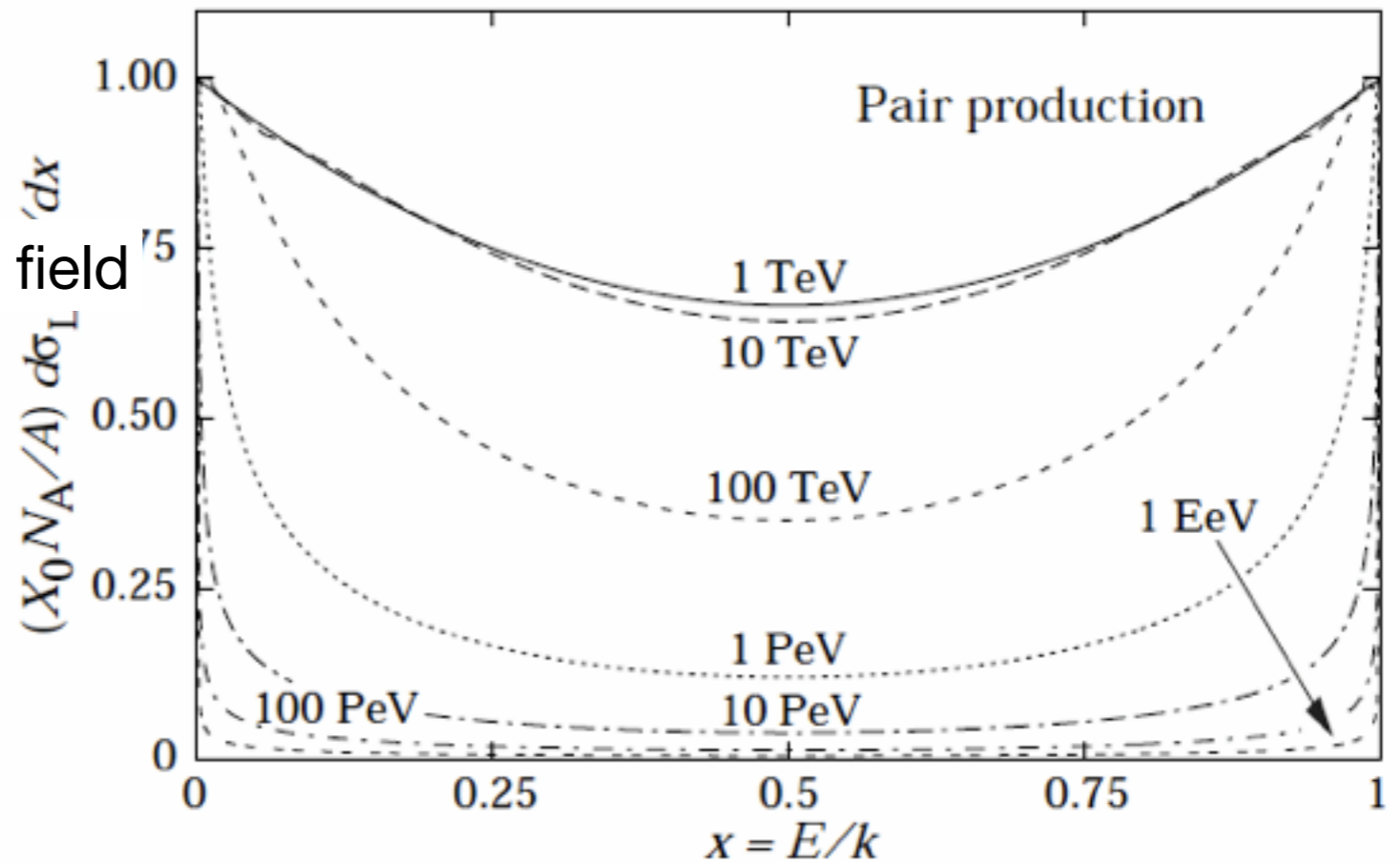
# Photons in Matter



pair creation in nuclear field

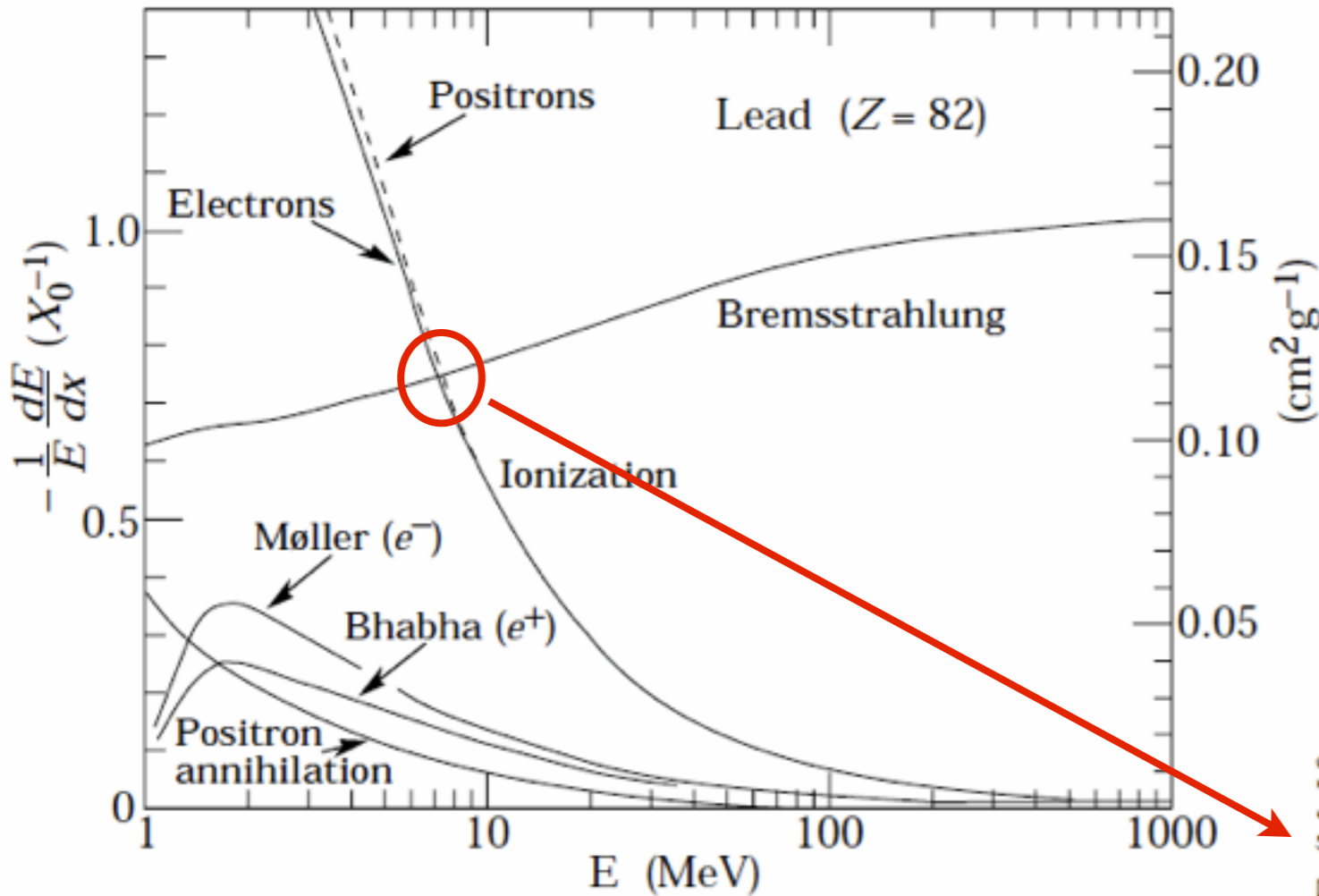
pair creation in electron field

giant dipole resonance



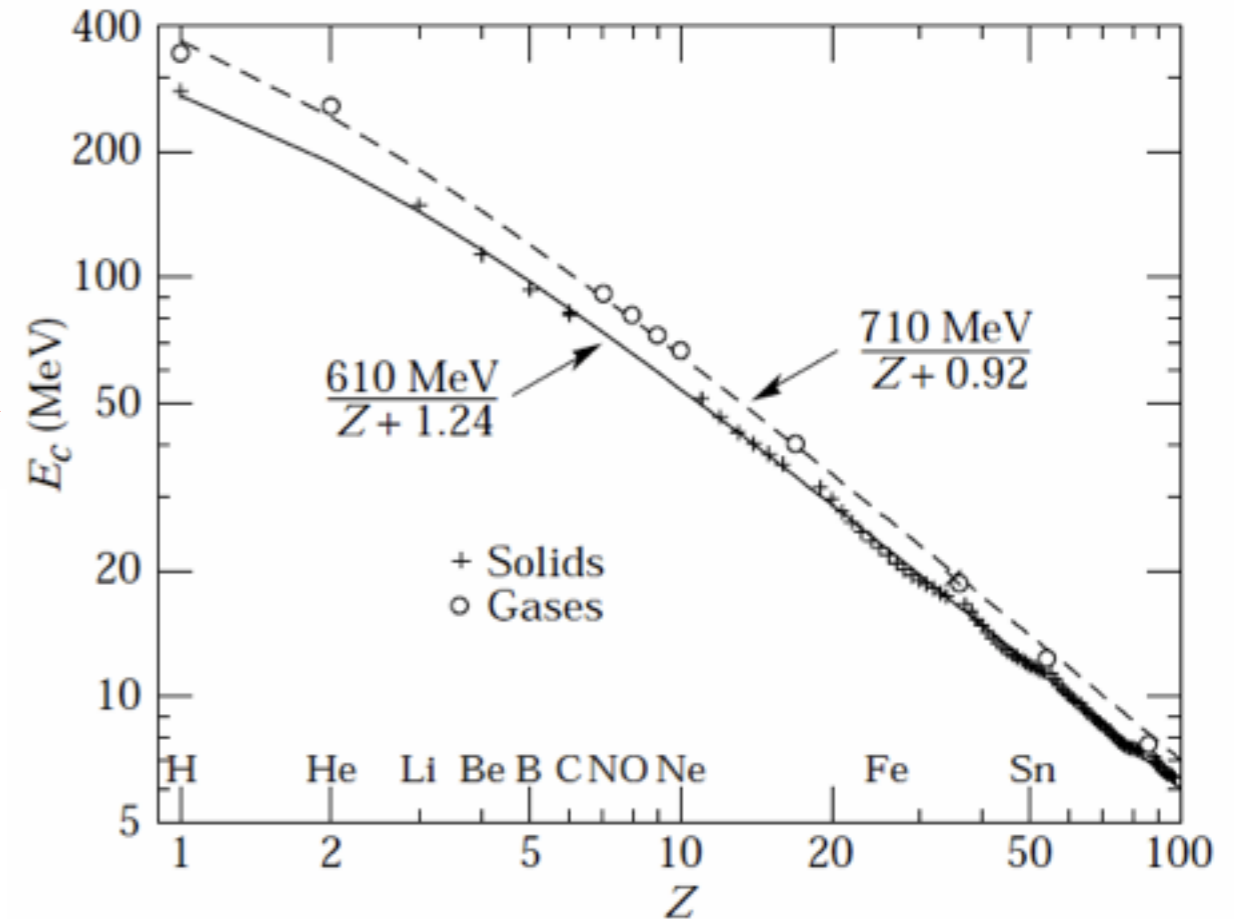
- At high energies pair creation dominates by far
- Low energies:
  - photoelectric effect
  - Coherent scattering: Rayleigh scattering
  - Compton scattering
  - nuclear excitation

# Electrons: Energy Loss



- Bremsstrahlung dominates at high energies
- At low energy: Ionization, scattering

- Critical energy: The energy where ionization energy loss equals radiative losses through Bremsstrahlung



# Electrons and Photons: Radiation Length

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- The relevant length scale: one radiation length
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$$X_0 = \frac{716.4 A}{Z(1+Z) \ln(287/\sqrt{Z})} \frac{g}{cm^2} \propto \frac{A}{Z^2}$$

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- Also relevant for the description of multiple coulomb scattering

# Electrons and Photons: Radiation Length

- The relevant length scale: one radiation length
  - Describes high-energy electrons and photons (Energy loss via Bremsstrahlung and  $e^+e^-$  - pair creation, respectively)
  - Defined as the amount of matter that has to be traversed such that
    - an electron loses all but 1/e of its energy via Bremsstrahlung
    - 7/9 of the mean free path for pair creation for high-energy photons

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

- Also relevant for the description of multiple coulomb scattering
- Is usually given in  $g/cm^2$ , typical values:
  - Air: 36.66  $g/cm^2$ , corresponds to  $\sim 300$  m
  - Water: 36.08  $g/cm^2$ , corresponds to  $\sim 36$  cm
  - Aluminium: 24.01  $g/cm^2$ , corresponds to 8.9 cm
  - Tungsten: 6.76  $g/cm^2$ , corresponds to 0.35 cm

# Methods of Particle Detection



# Ionization Chamber: A Classic

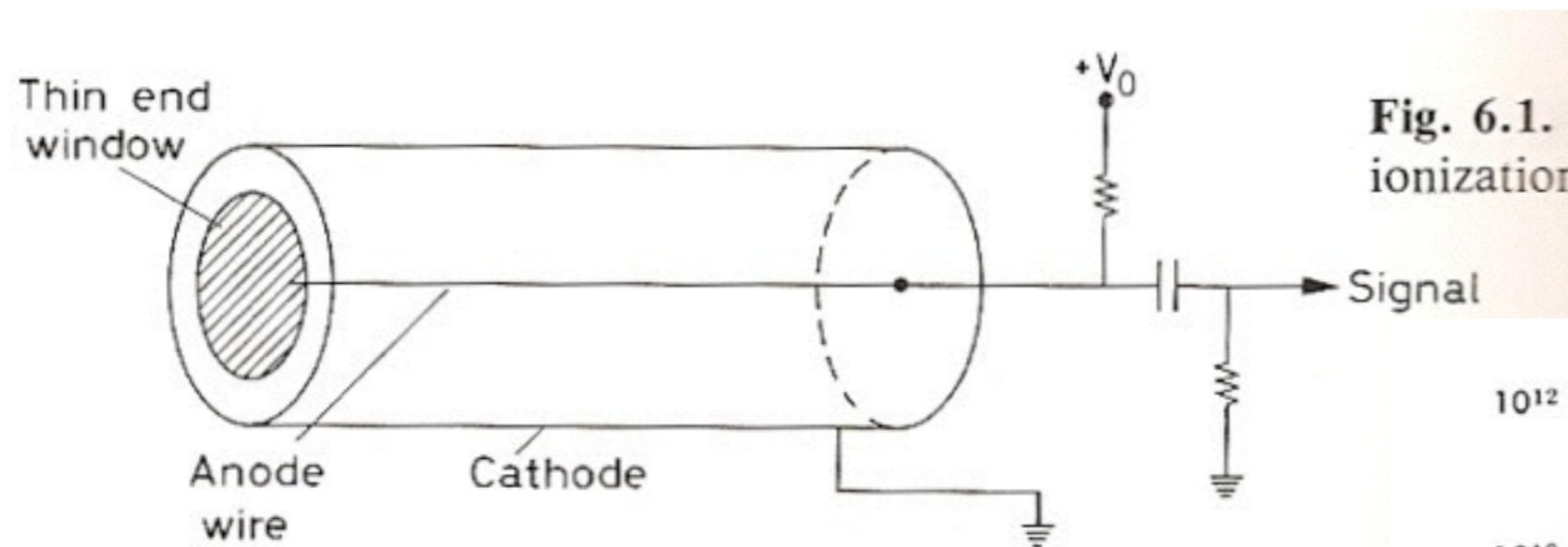
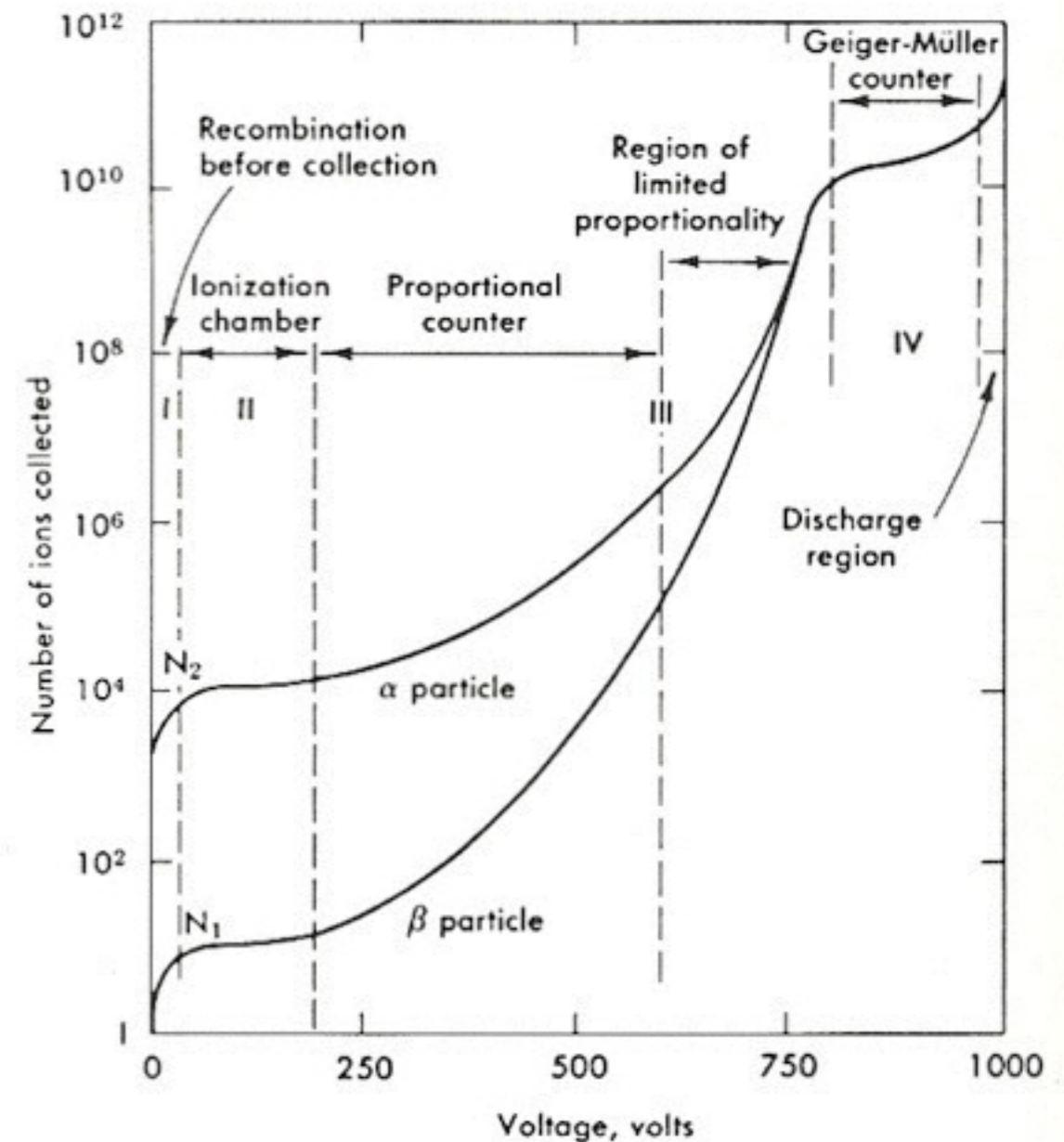
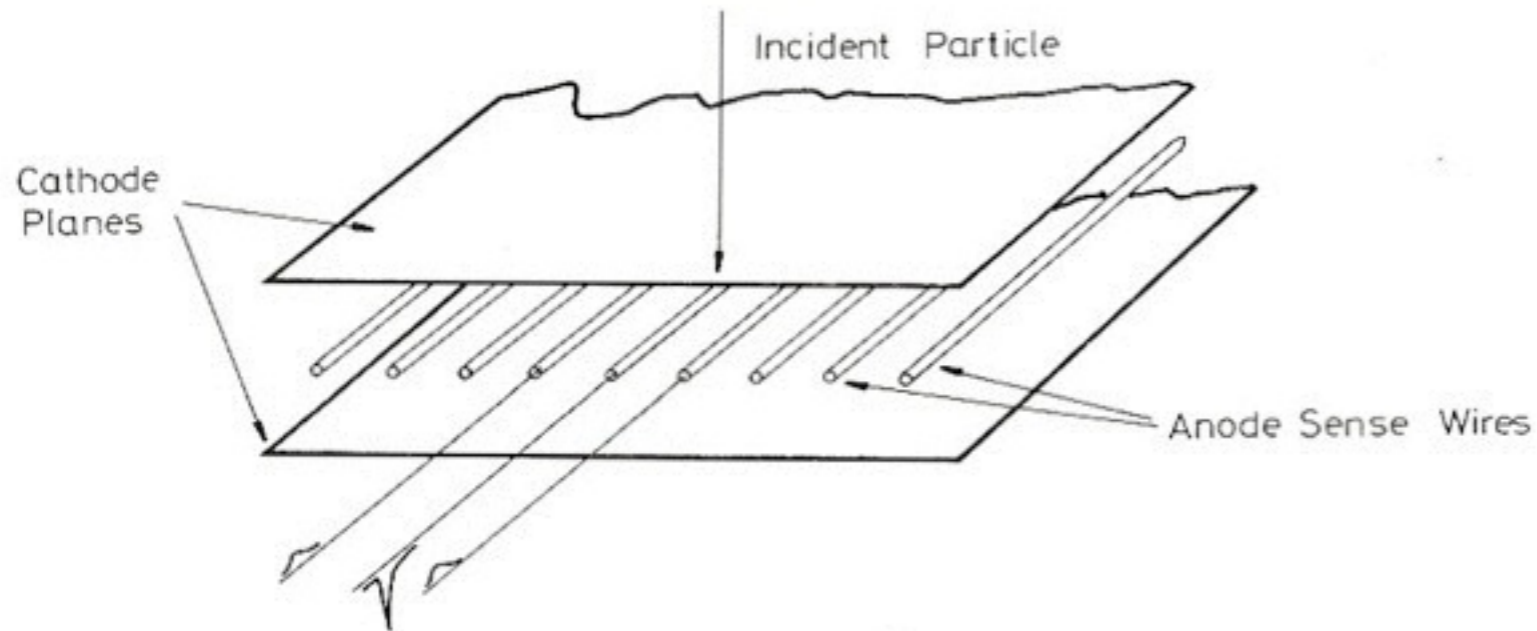


Fig. 6.1. Ionization

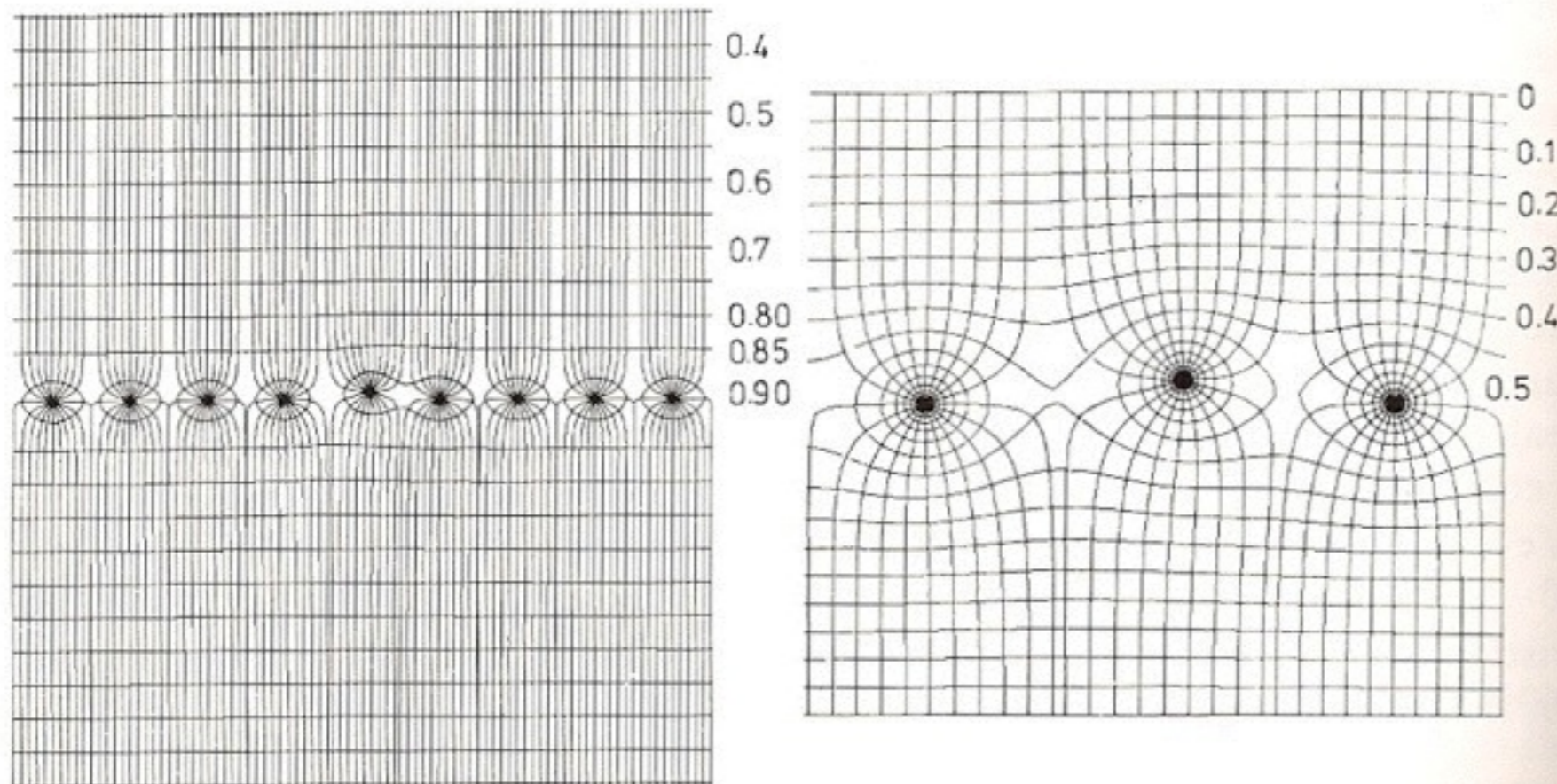
- Particles create electron-ion pairs in gas volume
- Electrons are accelerated in strong electric field, resulting in avalanche amplification
- Depending on the applied voltage the signal is proportional to the deposited energy or saturates



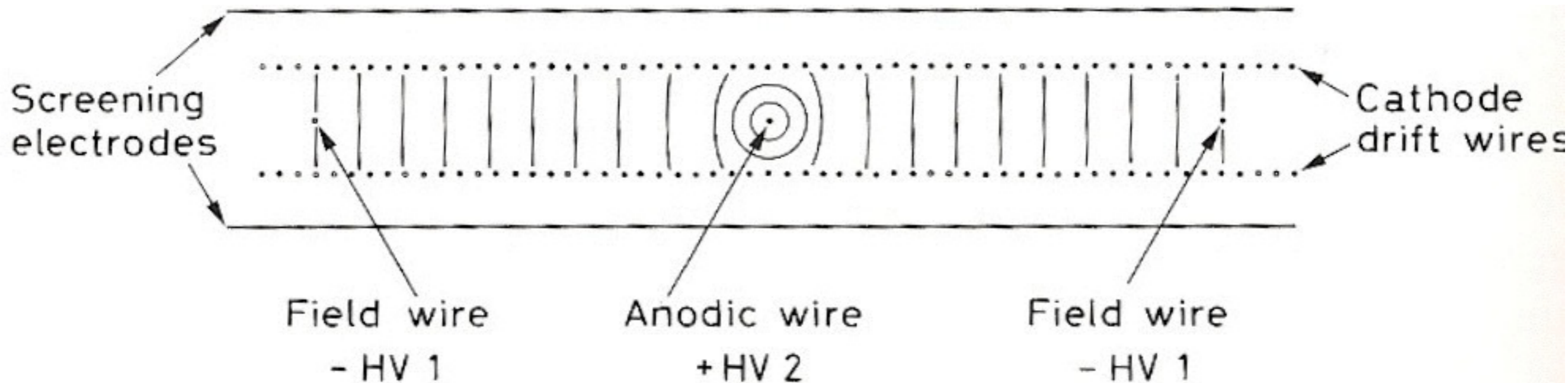
# Spatial Resolution



- **Multi-Wire Proportional Counter MWPC**
- G. Charpak 1968 (NP 1992)



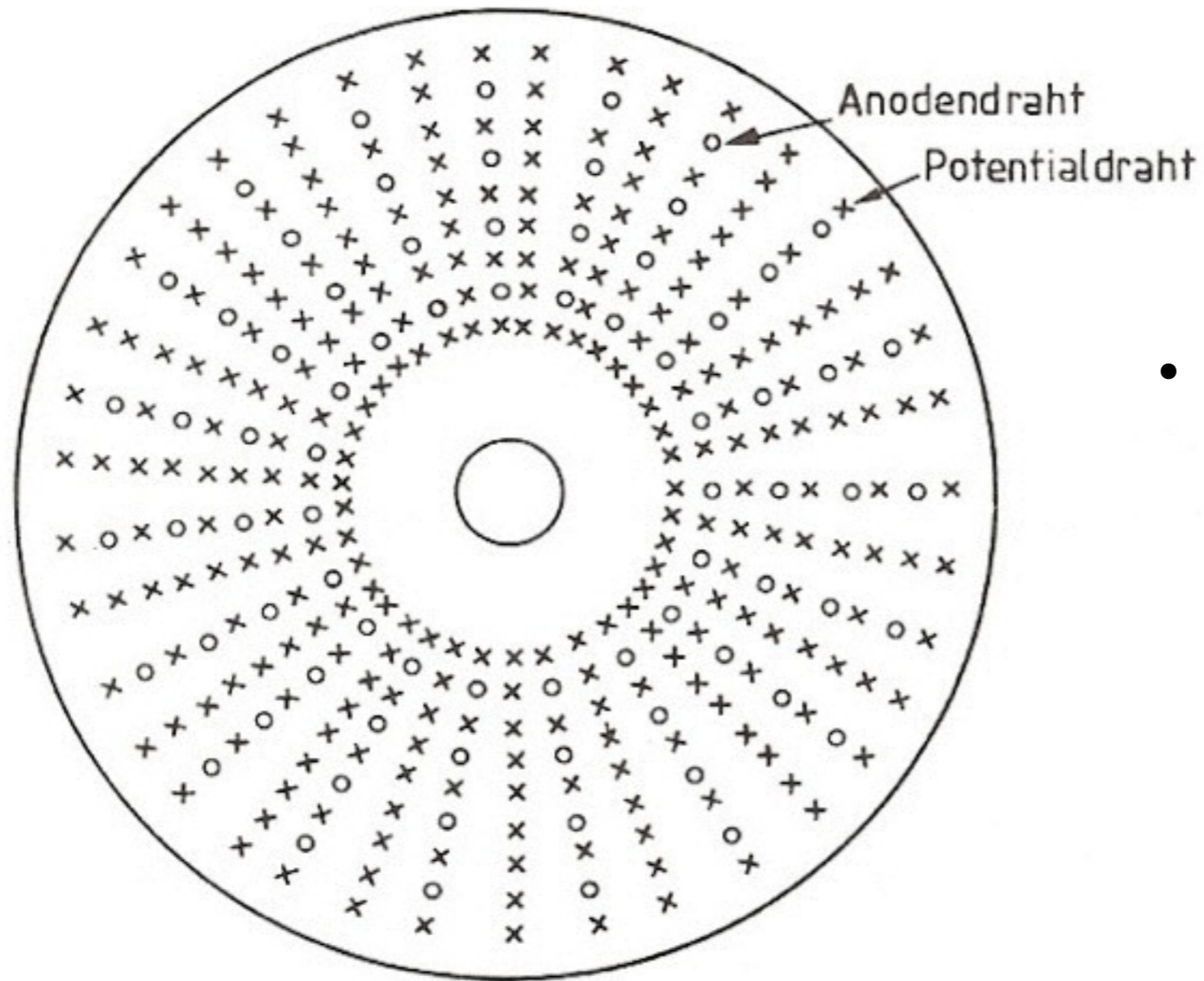
# Spatial Information through Timing: Drift Chamber



**Fig. 6.16.** Drift chamber design using interanode field wires (from *Breskin et al.* [6.22])

- If the time of passage of a particle is known from external measurements (trigger!) one can determine the location based on the arrival time of the charge cloud at the anode wire
- Prerequisite: Field distribution, and through that also drift velocity profile in gas volume well known

# Cylindrical Drift Chamber for Collider Detectors

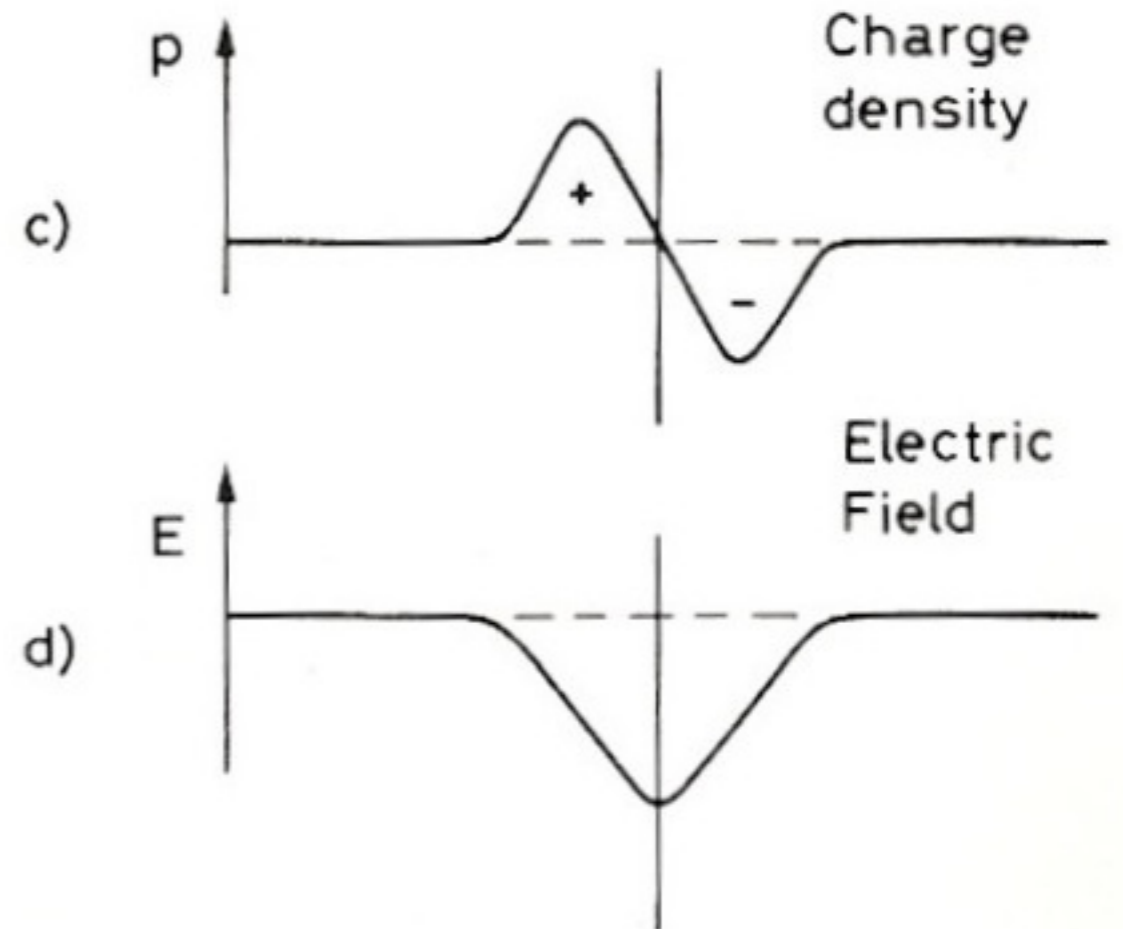
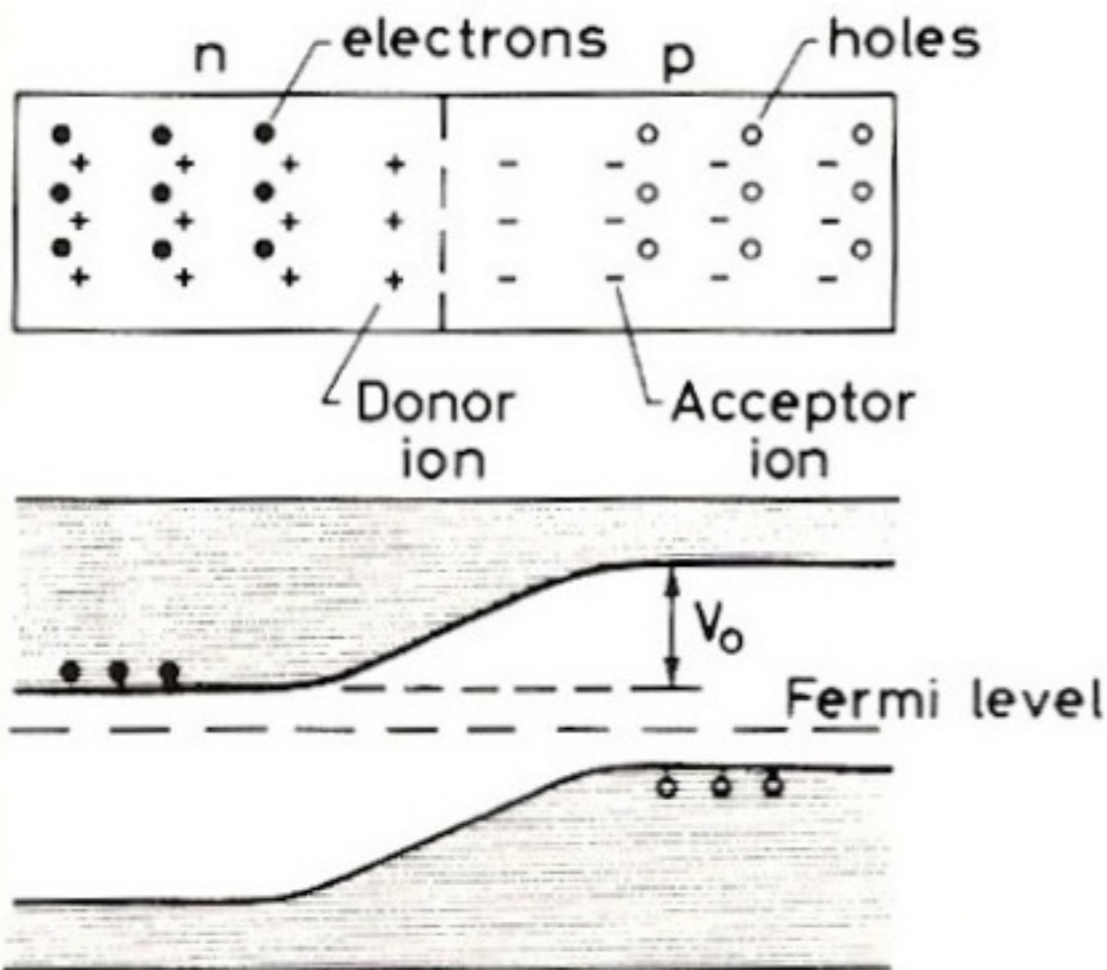


- Solenoidal magnetic field for momentum measurement parallel to chamber wires

Abb. 4.41 Prinzipieller Aufbau einer zylindrischen Driftkammer. Die Abbildung zeigt einen Schnitt durch die Kammer senkrecht zu den Drähten.

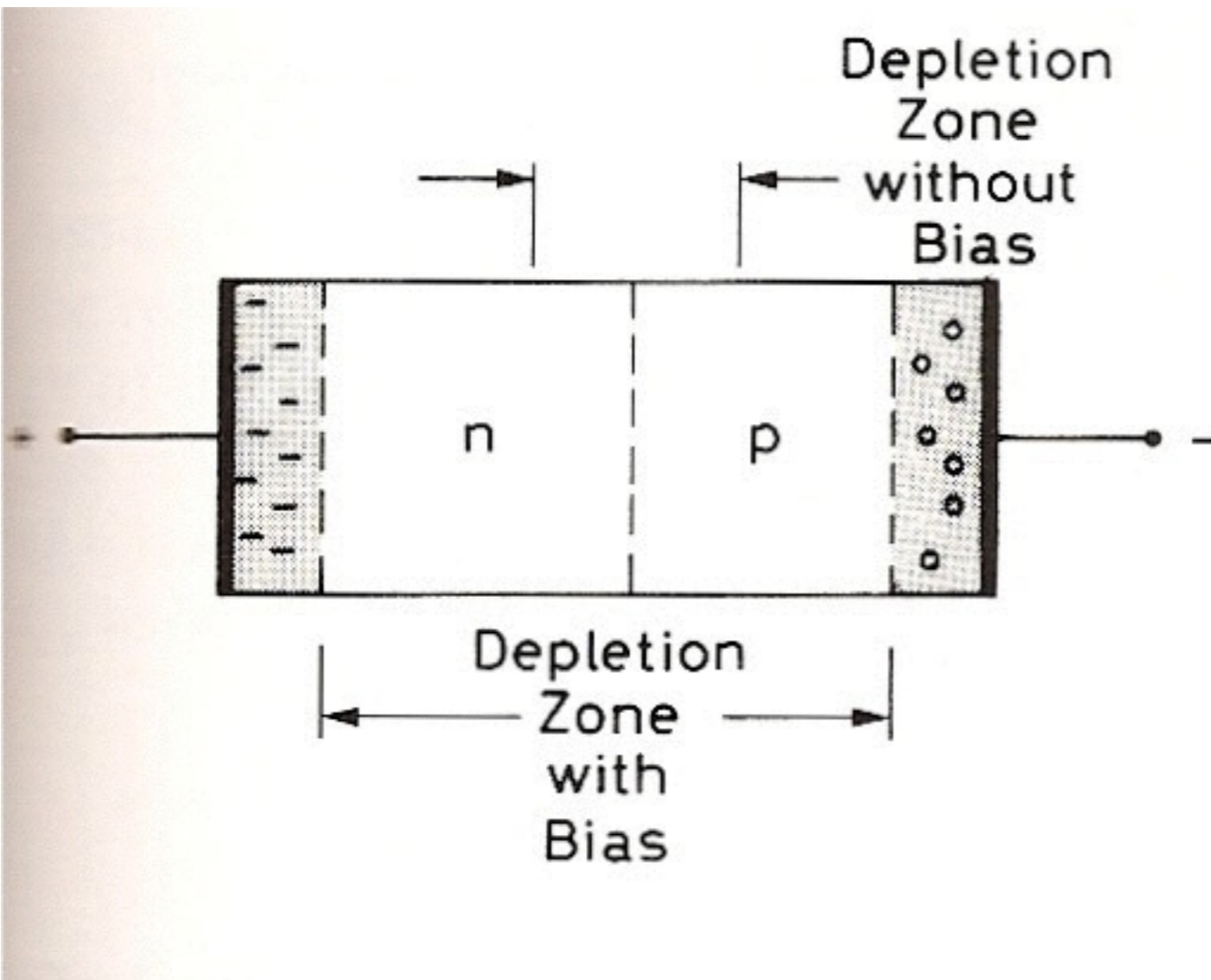


# Semiconductor Detectors: PN Junction



- By combining silicon with different dopants you get a PN junction
  - Donor (e.g. Phosphorus) provides electrons: n-doping
  - Acceptor (e.g. Boron) provides holes: p-doping
  - The charge excess gets neutralized on contact, a depletion zone and a corresponding electric field develops at the junction

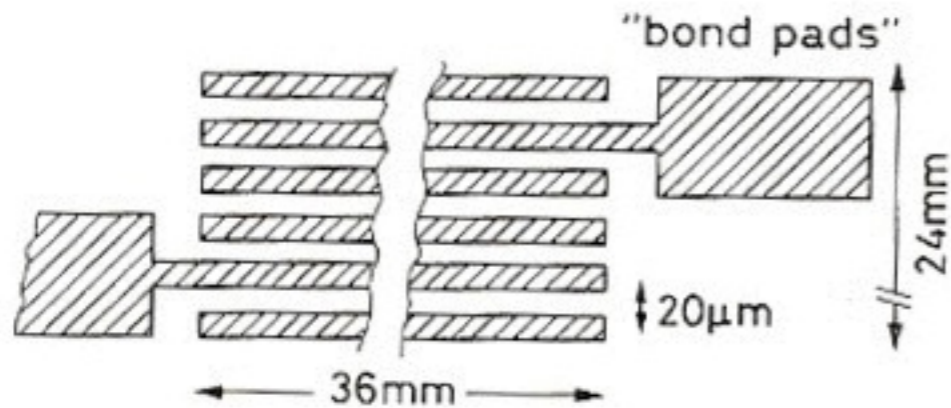
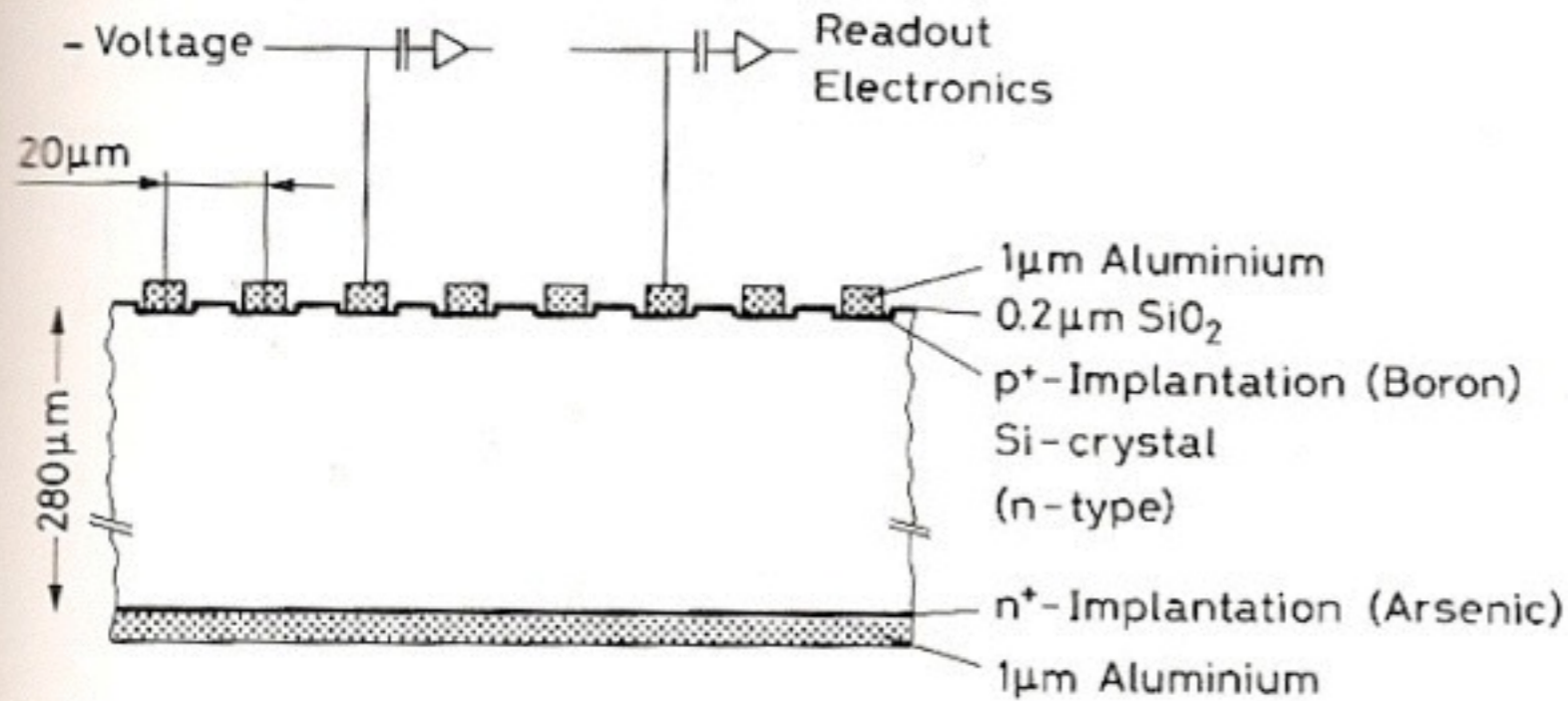
# Semiconductor Detectors: Charge Collection



- An external bias voltage increases the depletion zone by removing all charge carriers
- ▶ Created electrons and holes move to the contacts without recombining with the Si: development of a signal

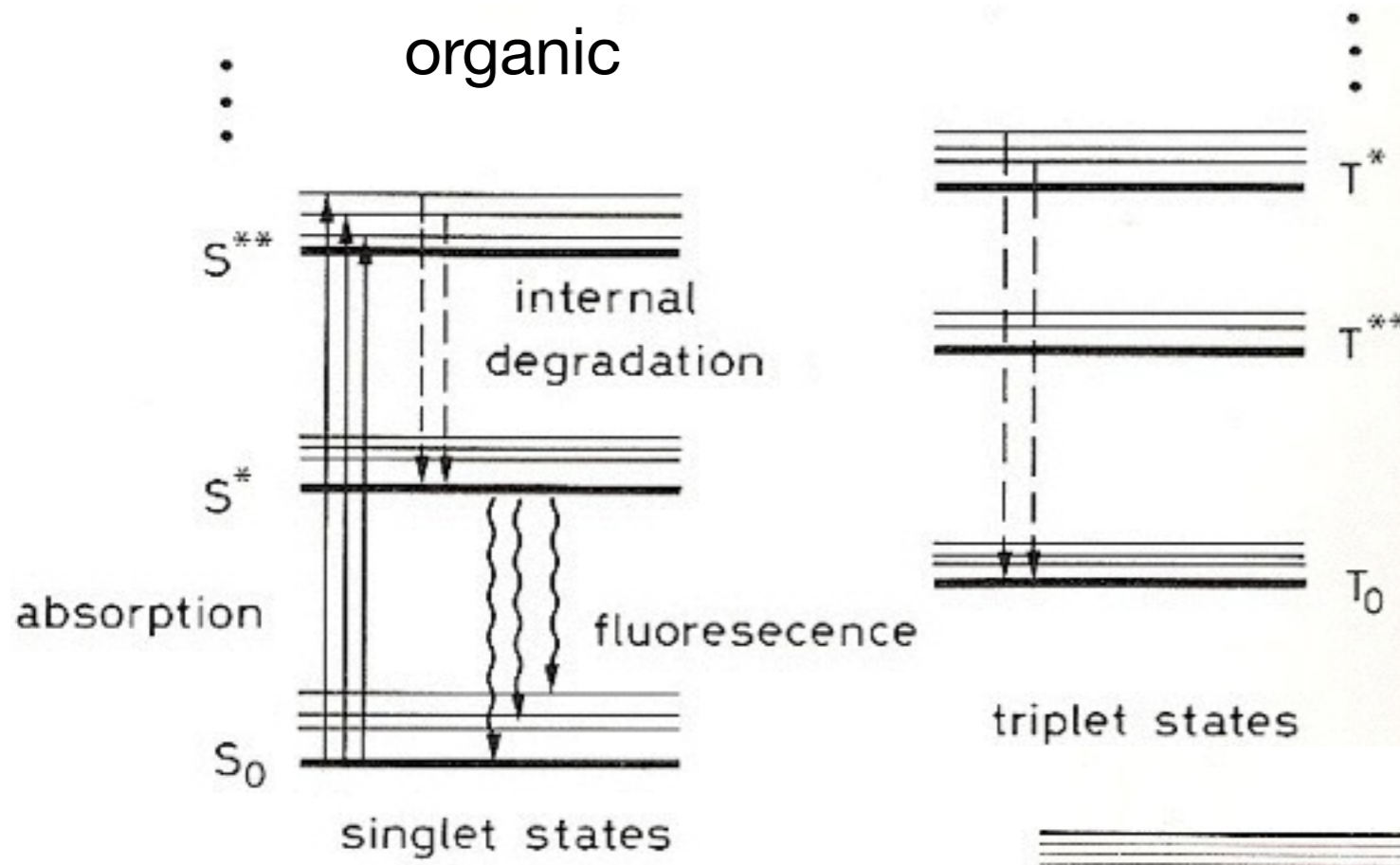
- Through-going particles produce electron-hole pairs (in Si: 3.6 eV required per pair, for comparison: 20 eV - 40 eV in gas)
  - The high density and low ionization threshold allows to build compact detectors with excellent spatial resolution

# Semiconductor Strip Detectors



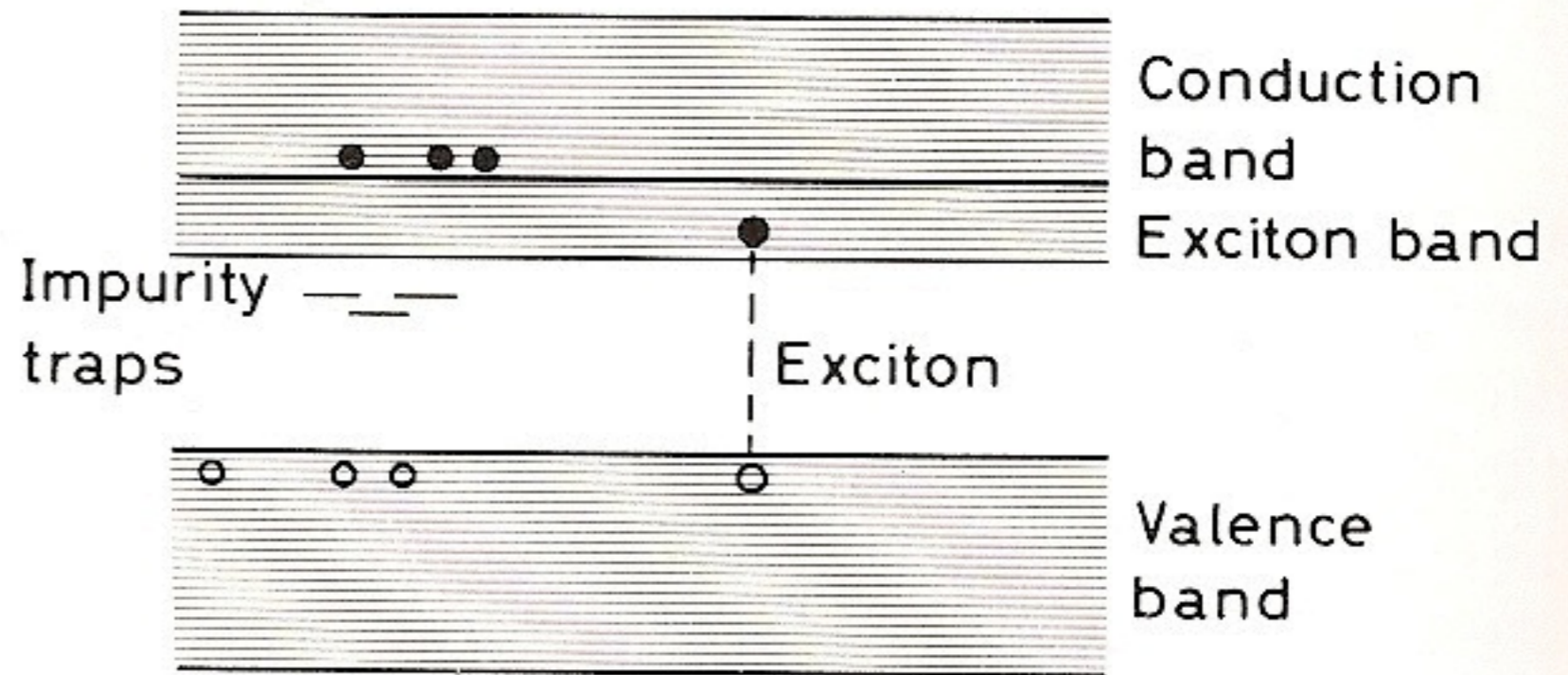
**Fig. 10.16.** Layout of a micro-strip detector and readout strips (from *Hyams et al.* [10.14])

# Scintillators

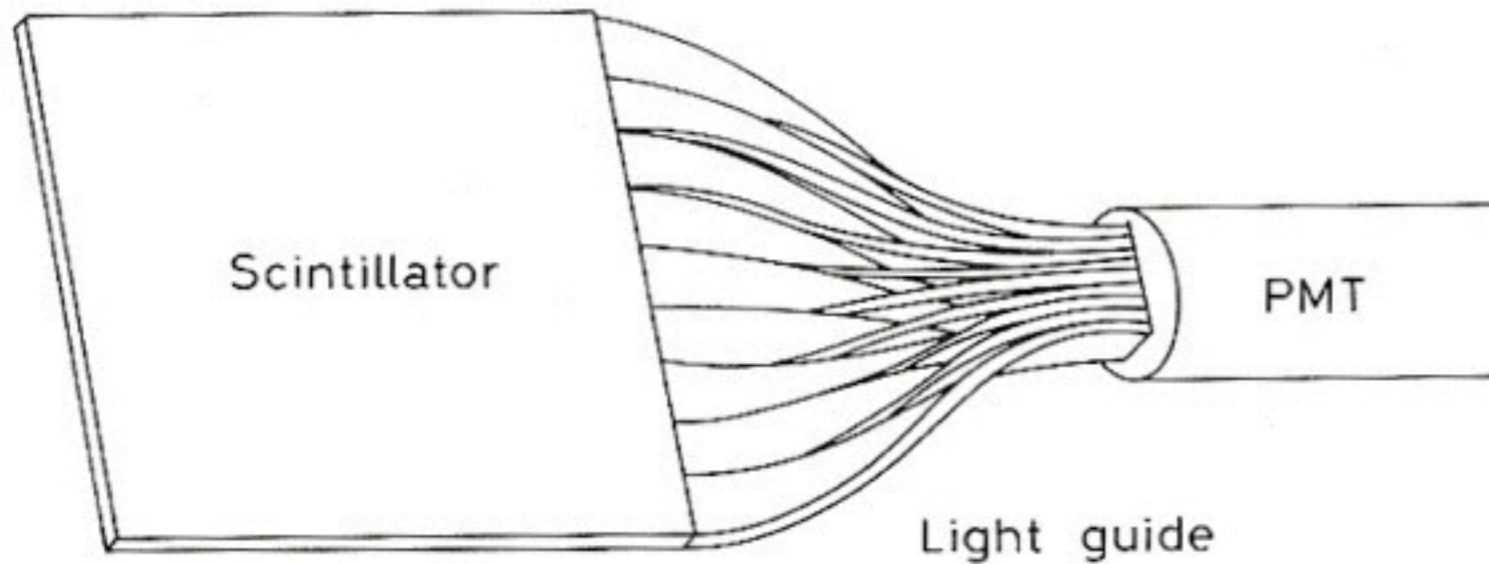


- Scintillators emit light when traversed by ionizing particles
  - Excitation of metastable states (organic scintillators) or Defects in Crystals (inorganic scintillators)

inorganic:

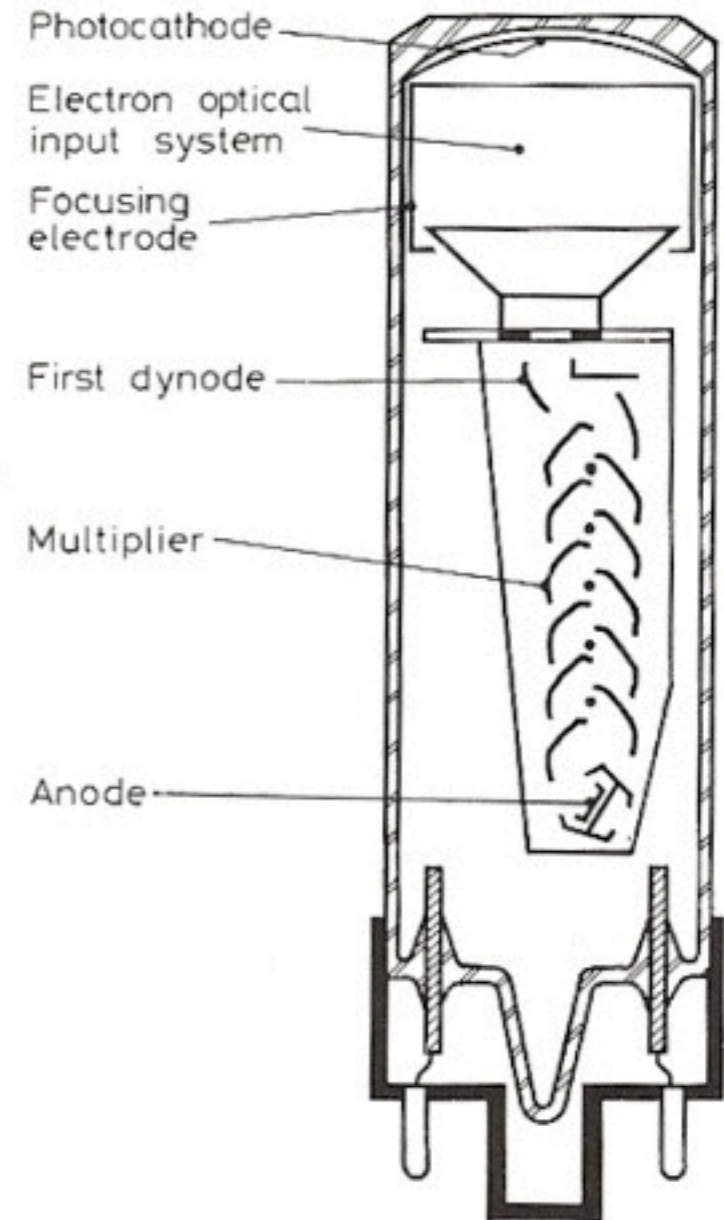


# Scintillation Detectors



**Fig. 9.7.** The *twisted* light guide. Many strips of light guide material are glued on to the edge of the scintillator and then twisted  $90^\circ$  so as to fit onto the PM face

- Classical principle: Detection of scintillation light with photo multipliers
  - today these are more and more replaced by silicon-based photon detectors
  - Scintillators (in particular plastic scintillators) provide a fast signal, ideal for trigger detectors



**Fig. 8.1.** Schematic diagram of a photomultiplier tube (from Schonkeren [9.1])

# Other Methods for Particle Detection

- Almost no limit for your creativity
  - Various effects originating from the interaction of particles with matter can be exploited:
- Cherenkov light for the accurate measurement of particle velocity
- Transition radiation for velocity measurement
- ...

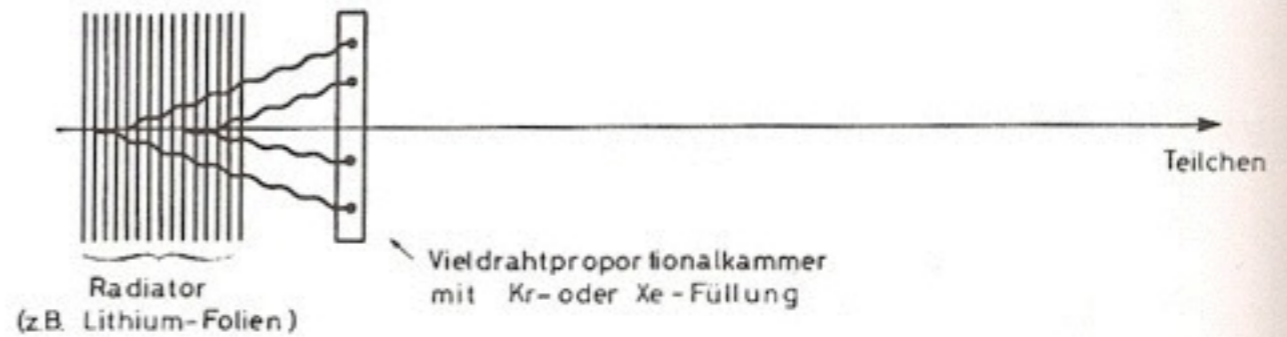


Abb. 6.22 Prinzipieller Aufbau eines Übergangsstrahlungsdetektors.

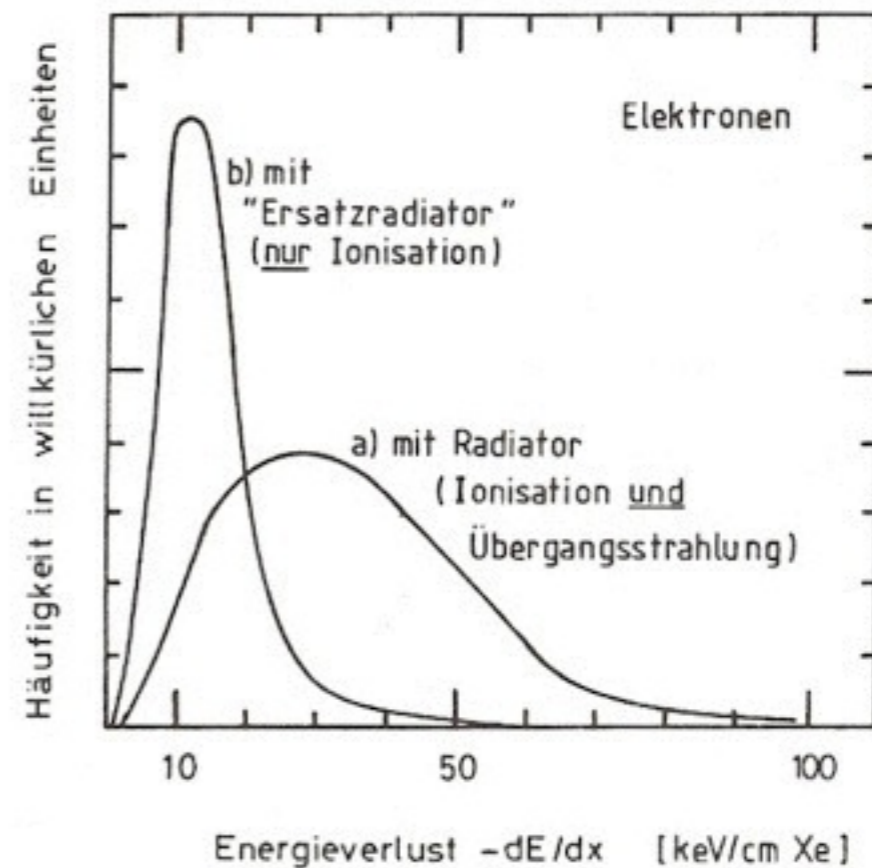


Abb. 6.23 Prinzipieller Verlauf der Häufigkeitsverteilung des Energieverlustes hochenergetischer Elektronen für einen Übergangsstrahlungsdetektor mit Radiator und "Ersatzradiator" (nach [143]).

# Summary

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- Detector systems at colliders detect stable and long-lived particles  
Observables are energy, momentum, time of flight; tracks and secondary vertices and particle identification
- A central component of all detectors is the magnetic field - Solenoids are standard, but other solutions are used as well
- The most commonly used mechanism is ionization by charged particles
  - Described by the Bethe-Bloch Equation
- Many different techniques are used for particle detection
  - Gas-filled ionization chambers, multi-wire chambers and drift chambers
  - Semiconductor detectors
  - Scintillators
  - Transition radiation detectors, Cherenkov detectors, ...

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  - Scintillators
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Next Lecture: Detectors II, F. Simon, 20.10.2014





# Zeitplan

1.	Einführung; Stand der Teilchenphysik	06.10.
2.	Teilchendetektoren an Tevatron und LHC (I)	13.10.
3.	Teilchendetektoren an Tevatron und LHC (II)	20.10.
4.	Hadronenbeschleuniger: Tevatron und LHC	27.11.
5.	Monte Carlo Generatoren und Detektor Simulation	03.11.
6.	Trigger, Datennahme und Computing	10.11.
7.	QCD, Jets, Strukturfunktionen	17.11.
8.	Standard-Modell Tests	24.12.
9.	Higgs I	01.12.
10.	Higgs II	08.12.
11.	Top Physics	15.12.
	----- No Lecture -----	22.12.
	-----Christmas -----	
12.	Supersymmetry	12.01.
13.	Exotica / LHC Pläne	19.01.
14.	Future Collider Projects	26.01.

