

# FYST17 LECTURE 4

# DETECTING AND IDENTIFYING

# PARTICLES

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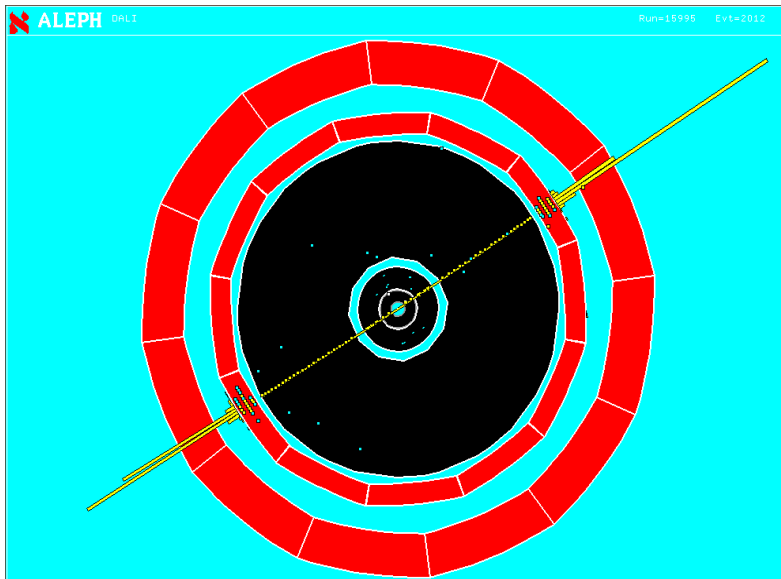
Thanks to D. Bortoletto, M. Wielers, and P. Hobson

# Today & tomorrow:

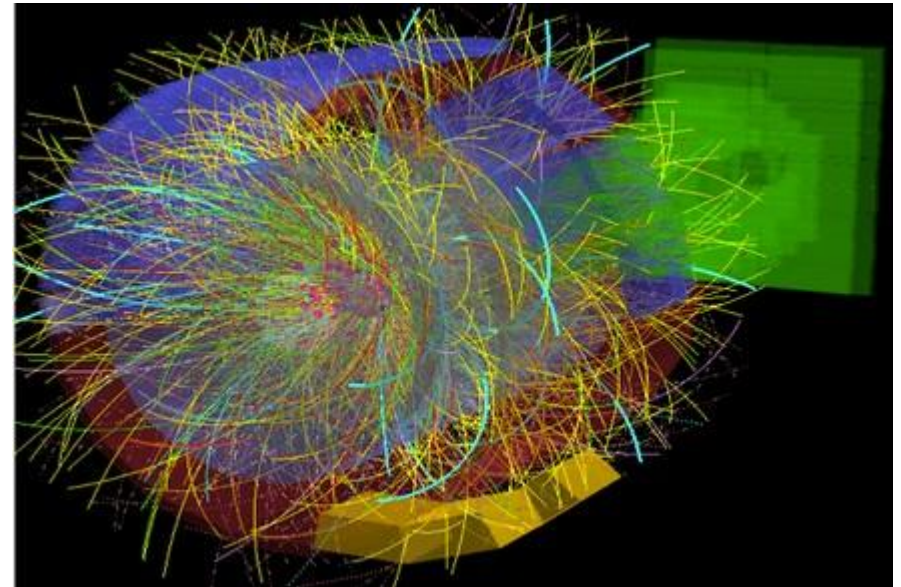
- Reminders
  - Cross section
  - Rapidity \ pseudo-rapidity
  - Bethe-Bloch ionization
- More about tracking and trackers
  - Types, resolution
- More about calorimeters
  - Types, resolution
- Some particle identification strategies
  
- Triggers

# Detecting particles

- Measurements depends on the available physics (given by the cross section) and our ability to identify it
- “Every effect of particles or radiation can be used as a working principle for a particle detector” *Claus Grupen*
- Goal of experiments: identifying (as many) particles (as possible) and measure their 4-momentum



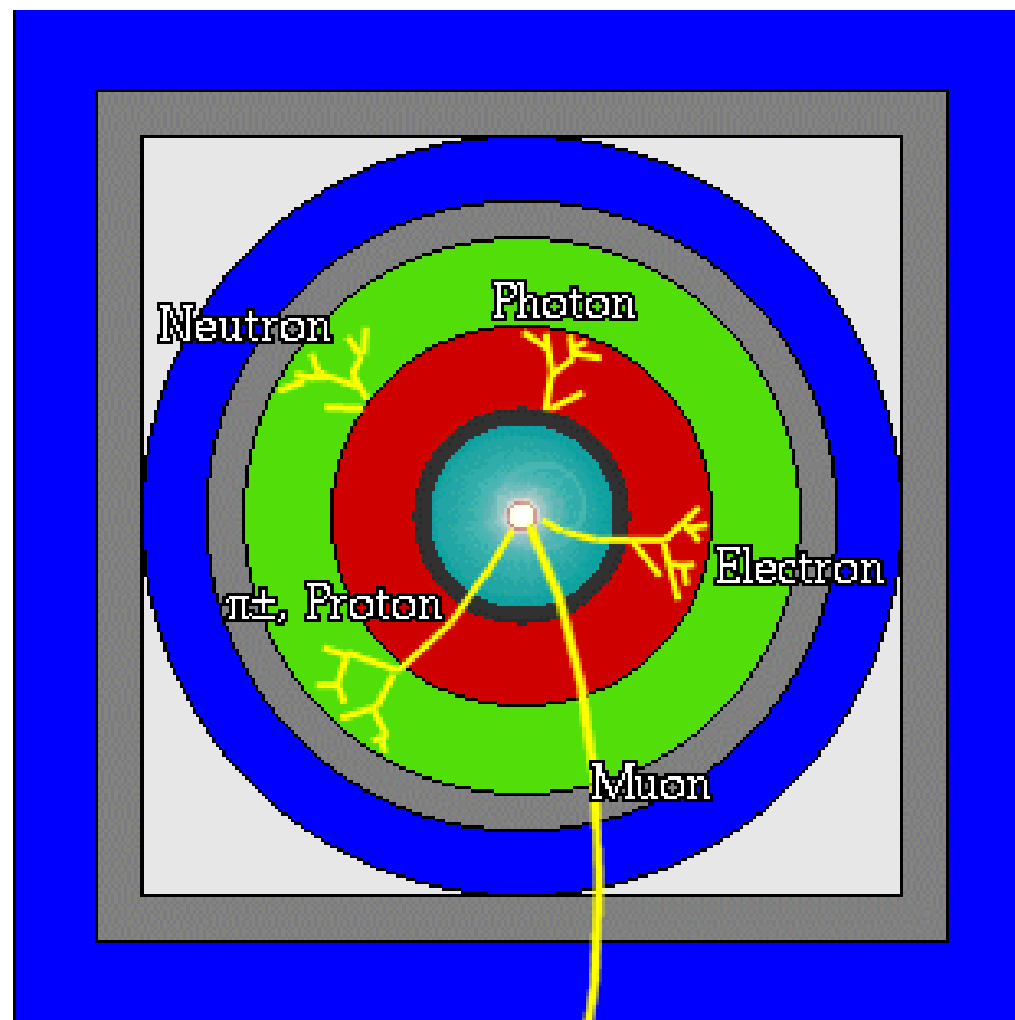
$Z \rightarrow e^+e^-$



ALICE heavy-ion collision

# A Detector cross section

- Beam Pipe  
(center)
- Tracking  
Chamber
- Magnet Coil
- E-M  
Calorimeter
- Hadron  
Calorimeter
- Magnetized  
Iron
- Muon  
Chambers




# Reminder: Cross section

$$\sigma = \frac{\text{no of interactions per unit time per target}}{\text{incident flux}}$$

Flux = number of incident particles/unit area/unit time

- The “cross section”,  $\sigma$ , can be thought of as the **effective** cross-sectional area of the target particles for the interaction to occur.
- In general this has nothing to do with the physical size of the target although there are exceptions, e.g. neutron absorption

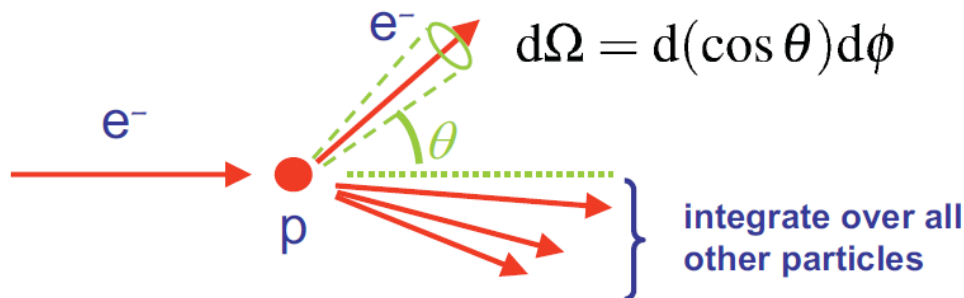
•  here  $\sigma$  is the projective area of nucleus

## Differential Cross section

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{\text{no of particles per sec/per target into } d\Omega}{\text{incident flux}}$$

or generally

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\dots}$$



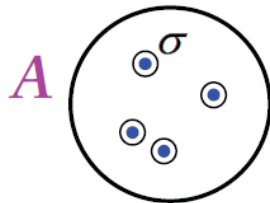
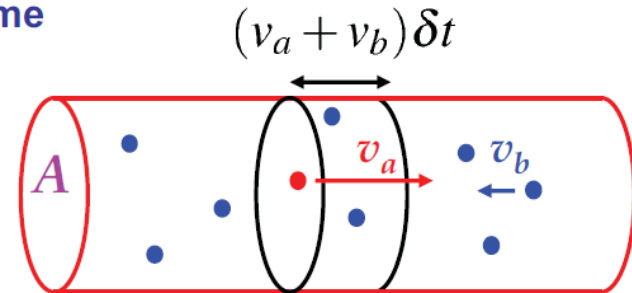
with

$$\sigma = \int \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} d\Omega$$

# Reminder: Cross section

- Consider a single particle of type  $a$  with velocity,  $v_a$ , traversing a region of area  $A$  containing  $n_b$  particles of type  $b$  per unit volume

In time  $\delta t$  a particle of type  $a$  traverses region containing  $n_b(v_a + v_b)A\delta t$  particles of type  $b$



- ★ Interaction probability obtained from effective cross-sectional area occupied by the  $n_b(v_a + v_b)A\delta t$  particles of type  $b$

• Interaction Probability = 
$$\frac{n_b(v_a + v_b)A\delta t\sigma}{A} = n_b v \delta t \sigma \quad [v = v_a + v_b]$$



Rate per particle of type  $a = n_b v \sigma$

- Consider volume  $V$ , total reaction rate =  $(n_b v \sigma) \cdot (n_a V) = (n_b V) (n_a v) \sigma = N_b \phi_a \sigma$

- As anticipated: Rate = Flux x Number of targets x cross section

# Rapidity

Rapidity  $y$  defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{E + p_z}{E - p_z} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{(E + p_z)^2}{(E + p_z)(E - p_z)} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{(E + p_z)^2}{m^2 + p_{\perp}^2} \\
 &= \ln \frac{E + p_z}{m_{\perp}} = \ln \frac{m_{\perp}}{E - p_z}
 \end{aligned}$$

Simple for calculations,  $\Delta y' = \Delta y$  for simple boost along z-axis

BUT **need to know  $m$** . Experimentally often unknown, instead use pseudo-rapidity  $\eta$

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{\sqrt{m^2 + \mathbf{p}^2} + p_z}{\sqrt{m^2 + \mathbf{p}^2} - p_z} \Rightarrow \eta = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{|\mathbf{p}| + p_z}{|\mathbf{p}| - p_z} = \ln \frac{|\mathbf{p}| + p_z}{p_{\perp}}$$

$$\text{or } \eta = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{p + p \cos \theta}{p - p \cos \theta} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1 + \cos \theta}{1 - \cos \theta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2 \cos^2 \theta/2}{2 \sin^2 \theta/2} = \ln \frac{\cos \theta/2}{\sin \theta/2} = -\ln \tan \frac{\theta}{2}$$

Only depends on the polar angle!

Not so simple,  $\Delta \eta' \neq \Delta \eta$  !

# Example of use of $\eta$

Align beam direction with z axis

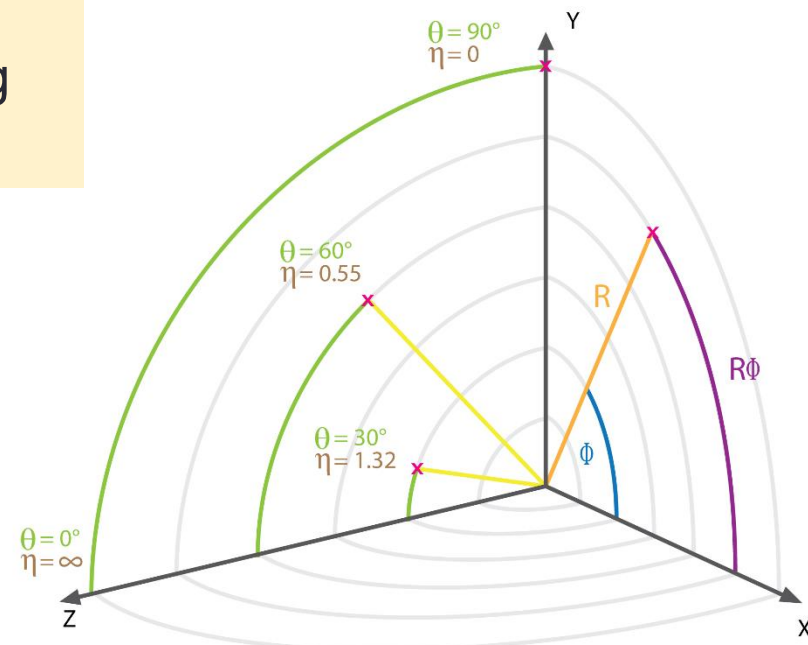
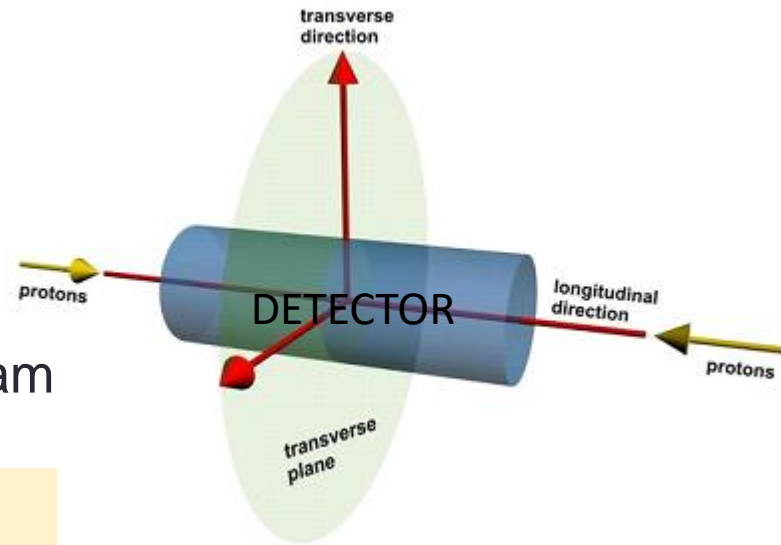
The x-y plane is then transverse to the beam

i.e. :

$\eta$  (and  $y$ )  $\rightarrow 0$  when particle travels transverse to beam ;

$\eta$  (and  $y$ )  $\rightarrow \infty$  when moving along beam axis

Important for accelerator physics:  
y Lorentz invariant along beam axis!





# The pseudo-rapidity gap

One can calculate that

$$\frac{d\eta}{dy} = \frac{d\eta/dp_z}{dy/dp_z} = \frac{E}{p} > 1$$

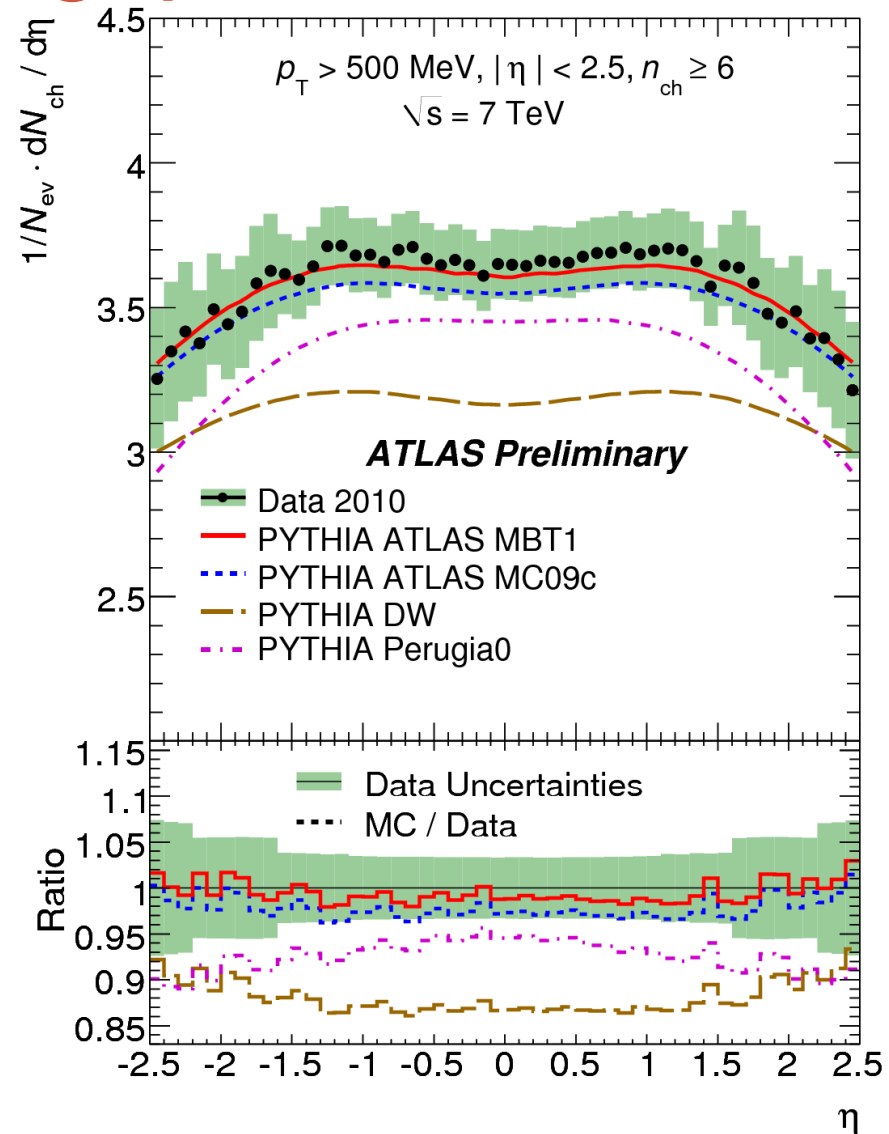
With the limits

$$\frac{d\eta}{dy} \rightarrow \frac{m_{\perp}}{p_{\perp}} \text{ for } p_z \rightarrow 0$$

$$\frac{d\eta}{dy} \rightarrow 1 \text{ for } p_z \rightarrow \pm\infty$$

So if the incremental flux  $dn/dy$  is flat for  $y \cong 0$  then  $dn/d\eta$  has a dip.

Referred to as the **rapidity gap**, very visible when tuning simulation to data



# Bethe-Bloch formula for energy loss by ionization

Valid for heavy charged particles ( $m_{\text{incident}} \gg m_e$ ), e.g. proton,  $k$ ,  $\pi$ ,  $\mu$

$$-\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = 2\pi N_a r_e^2 m_e c^2 \rho \frac{Z}{A} \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \left[ \ln\left(\frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2}{I^2} W_{\text{max}}\right) - 2\beta^2 - \delta(\beta\gamma) - \frac{C}{Z} \right]$$

$$= 0.1535 \text{ MeV cm}^2/\text{g}$$

$$\frac{dE}{dx} \propto \frac{Z^2}{\beta^2} \ln(a\beta^2\gamma^2)$$

## Fundamental constants

$r_e$  = classical radius of electron  
 $m_e$  = mass of electron  
 $N_a$  = Avogadro's number  
 $c$  = speed of light

## Absorber medium

$I$  = mean ionization potential  
 $Z$  = atomic number of absorber  
 $A$  = atomic weight of absorber  
 $\rho$  = density of absorber  
 $\delta$  = density correction  
 $C$  = shell correction

## Incident particle

$z$  = charge of incident particle  
 $\beta$  =  $v/c$  of incident particle  
 $\gamma$  =  $(1-\beta^2)^{-1/2}$   
 $W_{\text{max}}$  = max. energy transfer in one collision

$$r_e = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{m_e c^2}$$

# Bethe-Bloch formula

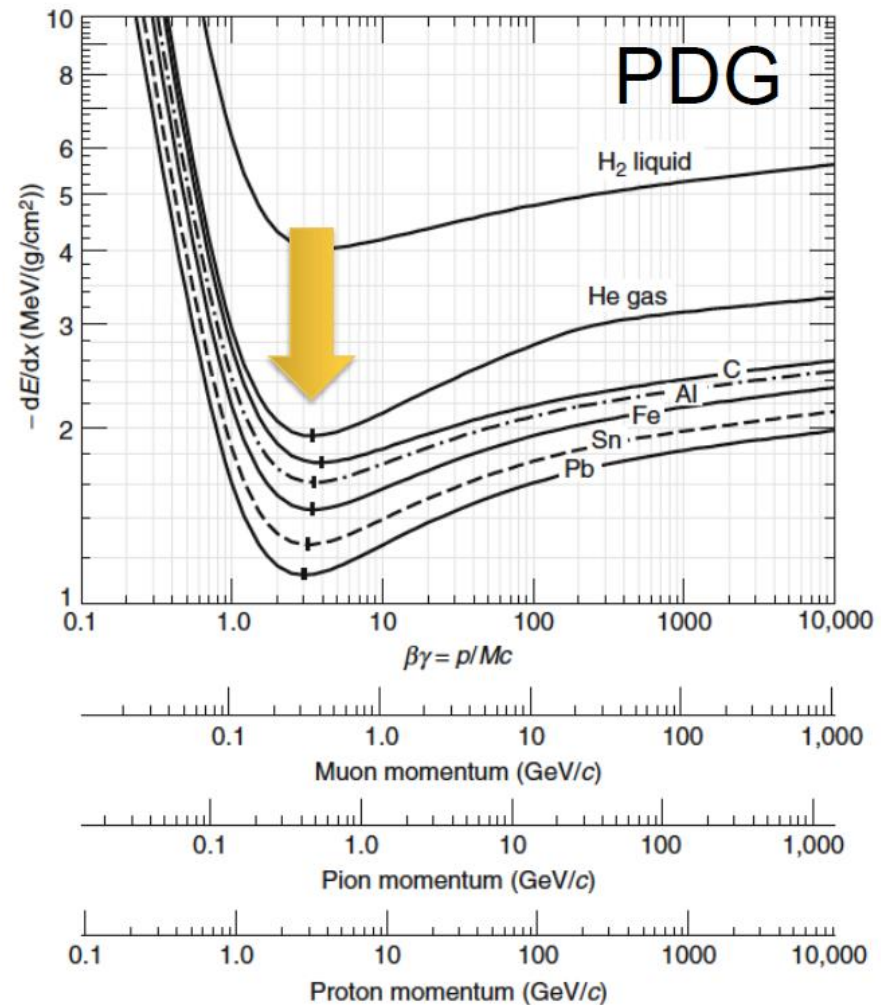
Low momentum: energy loss decreases as  $\sim 1/\beta^2$   
(slow particles feel the EM pull of atomic electrons)

Reaches minimum

Then relativistic rise as  $\beta\gamma > 4$  to plateau (Transv E field increases. Density effects due to increased polarization/ shielding in medium)

A particle with  $dE/dx$  near the minimum is called a minimum ionizing particle – MIP

*Notice that  $dE/dx$  in combination with momentum measurement can be used for particle ID!*



# Tracking

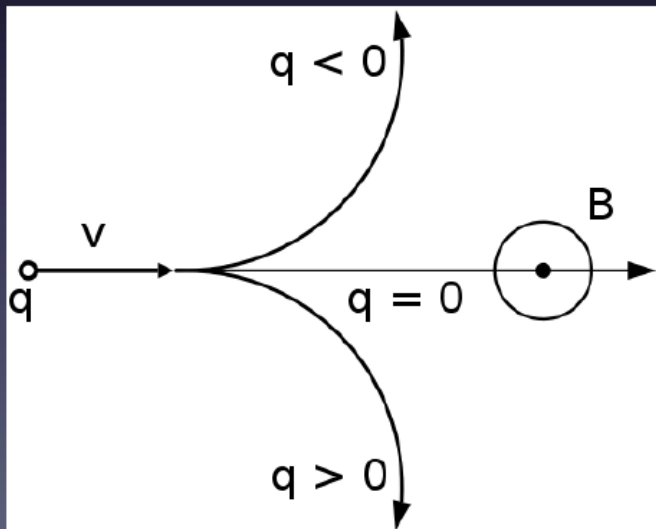
- Particle detection has many aspects:
  - Particle counting
  - Particle Identification = measurement of mass and charge of the particle
  - Tracking



© Rolf Hicker

- Charged particles are deflected by B fields:

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

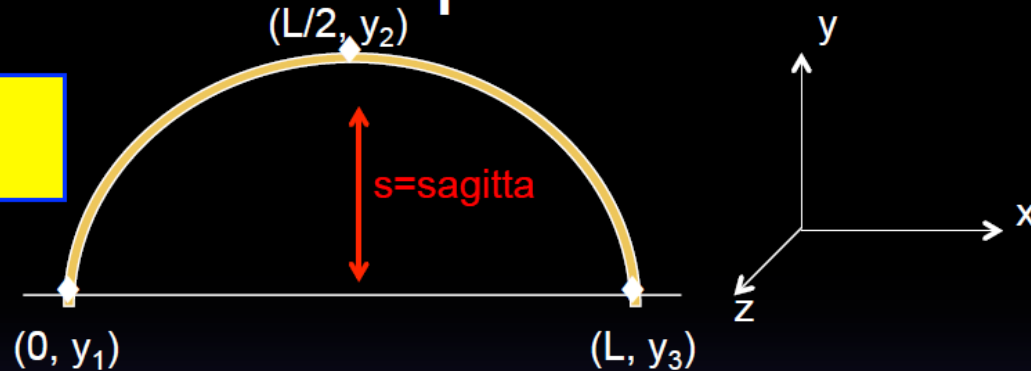


$$\rho = \frac{p_T}{q|B|} = \frac{\gamma m_0 \beta c}{q|B|}$$

- By measuring the radius of curvature we can determine the momentum of a particle
- If we can measure also  $\beta$  independently we can determine the particle mass.

# Momentum and position resolution

Trajectory of charged particle



Assume: we measure  $y$  at 3 points in  $(x, y)$  plane ( $z=0$ ) with precision  $\sigma_y$  and a constant  $B$  field in  $z$  direction so  $p_{\perp} = 0.3Br$ .

$$s = y_2 - \frac{y_1 + y_3}{2} \approx \frac{L^2}{8r} = \frac{L^2}{8p_{\perp}/(0.3B)} = \frac{0.3BL^2}{8p_{\perp}}$$

The exact expression is

$$s = r - \sqrt{r^2 - \frac{L^2}{4}}$$

The error on the sagitta,  $\sigma_s$ , due to measurement error is (using propagation of errors):

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

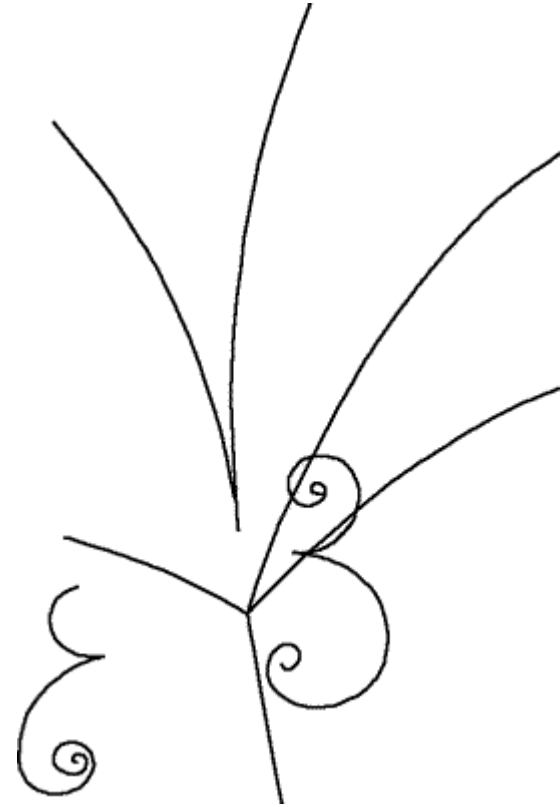
Thus the momentum ( $\perp$  to  $B$ ) resolution due to position measurement error is:

$$\frac{\sigma_{p_{\perp}}}{p_{\perp}} = \frac{\sigma_s}{s} = \frac{\sqrt{3/2} \sigma_y}{(0.3L^2 B)/(8p_{\perp})} = \frac{8p_{\perp} \sqrt{3/2} \sigma_y}{0.3L^2 B} = 32.6 \frac{p_{\perp} \sigma_y}{L^2 B} \quad (\text{m, GeV/c, T})$$

# Tracking detectors

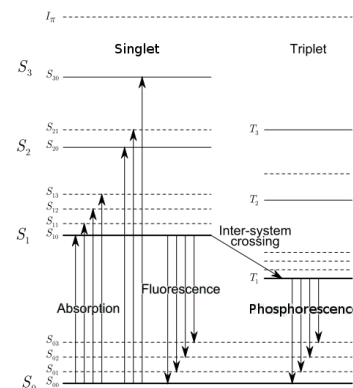
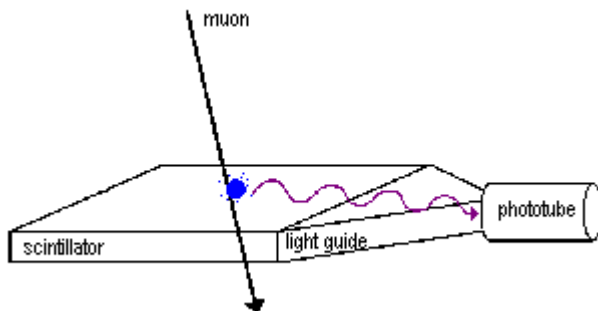
Many different implementations:

- Scintillators
  - Organic/inorganic crystals, plastic scintillator,
  - noble gases ...
- Photo detectors
  - PMTs
- Gaseous detectors
  - Wire chambers , drift chambers, time projection chambers
- Semiconductors
  - Silicon ,strips or pixels



# Scintillator trackers

- $dE/dx$  converted into light that is then detected with photo-detectors
- Main features:
  - Sensitivity to energy
  - Fast time response
  - Pulse shape discrimination
- Requirements:
  - High efficiency for the conversion of excitation energy into fluorescent radiation
  - Transparency to this radiation
  - Emission of light in a frequency range detectable for photo-detectors
  - Short decay time for fast response

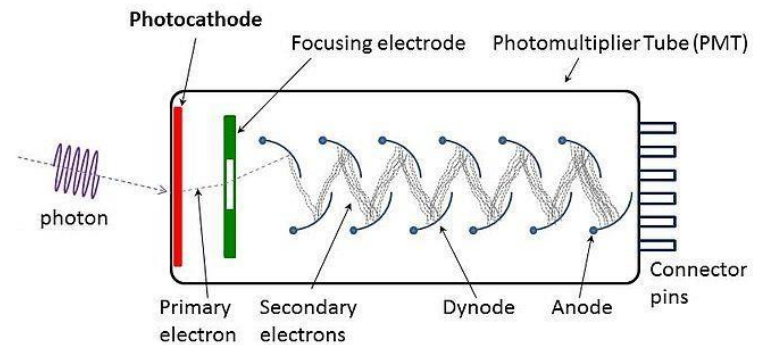




# Photo-detectors

Convert light into an electronic signal using photo-electric effect (convert photons into photo-electrons)

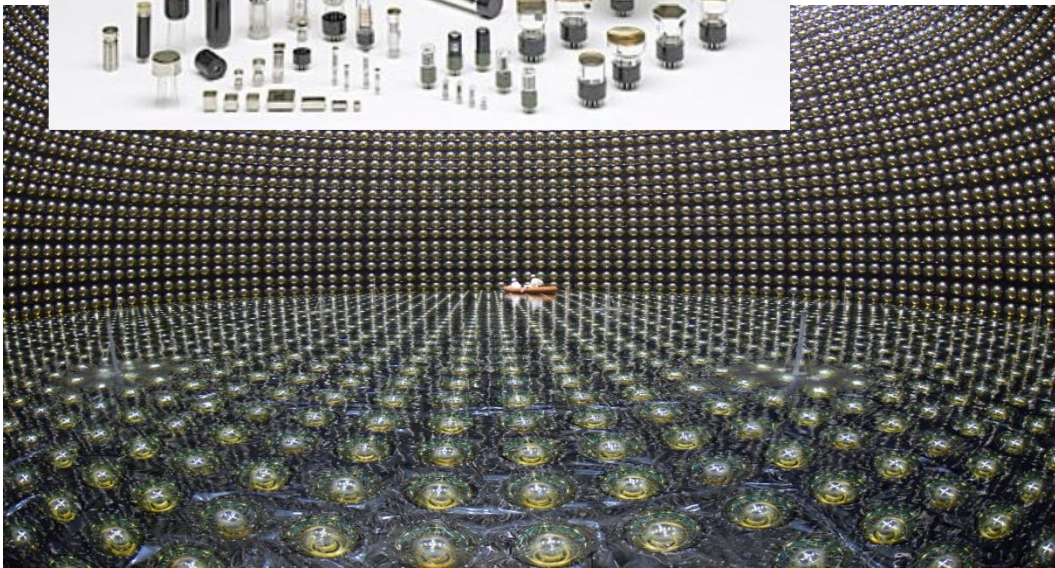
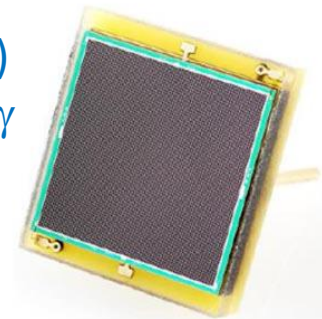
**Need high-efficiency photon-detection!**



Photomultiplier tubes PMTs

Also SiPM, Silicon photomultipliers

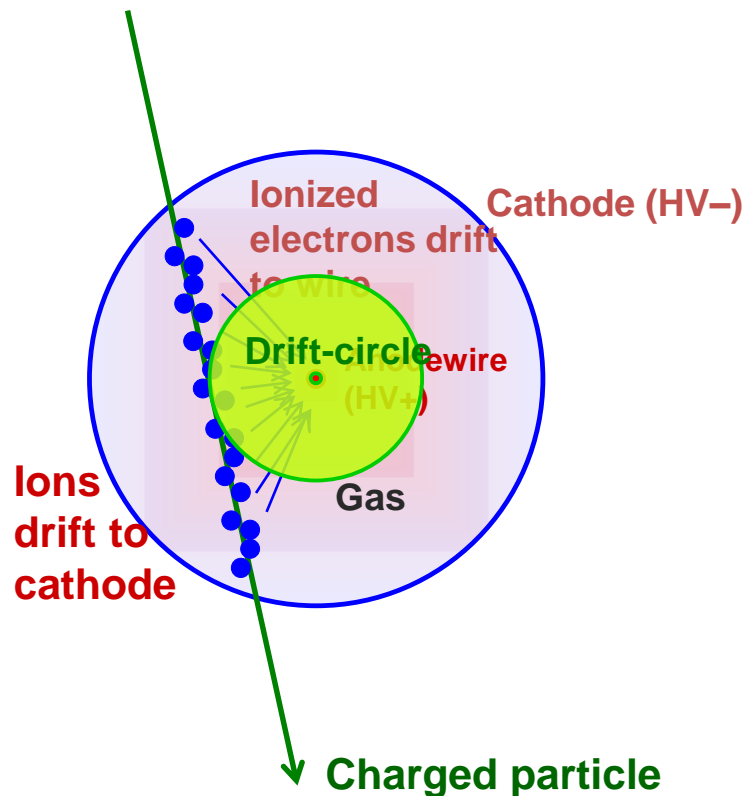
Compact (few mm)  
Sensitive to single  $\gamma$



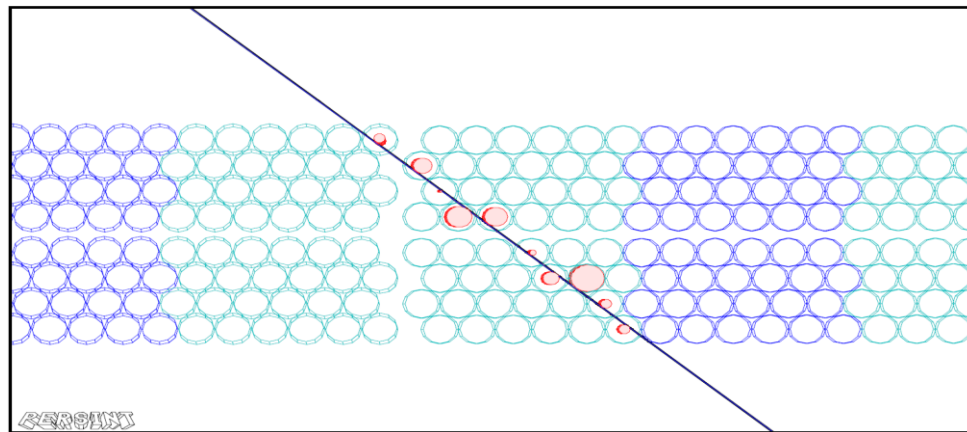


# Drift tubes

Classical detection technique for charged particles based on ionization of gas and measurement of the drift-time



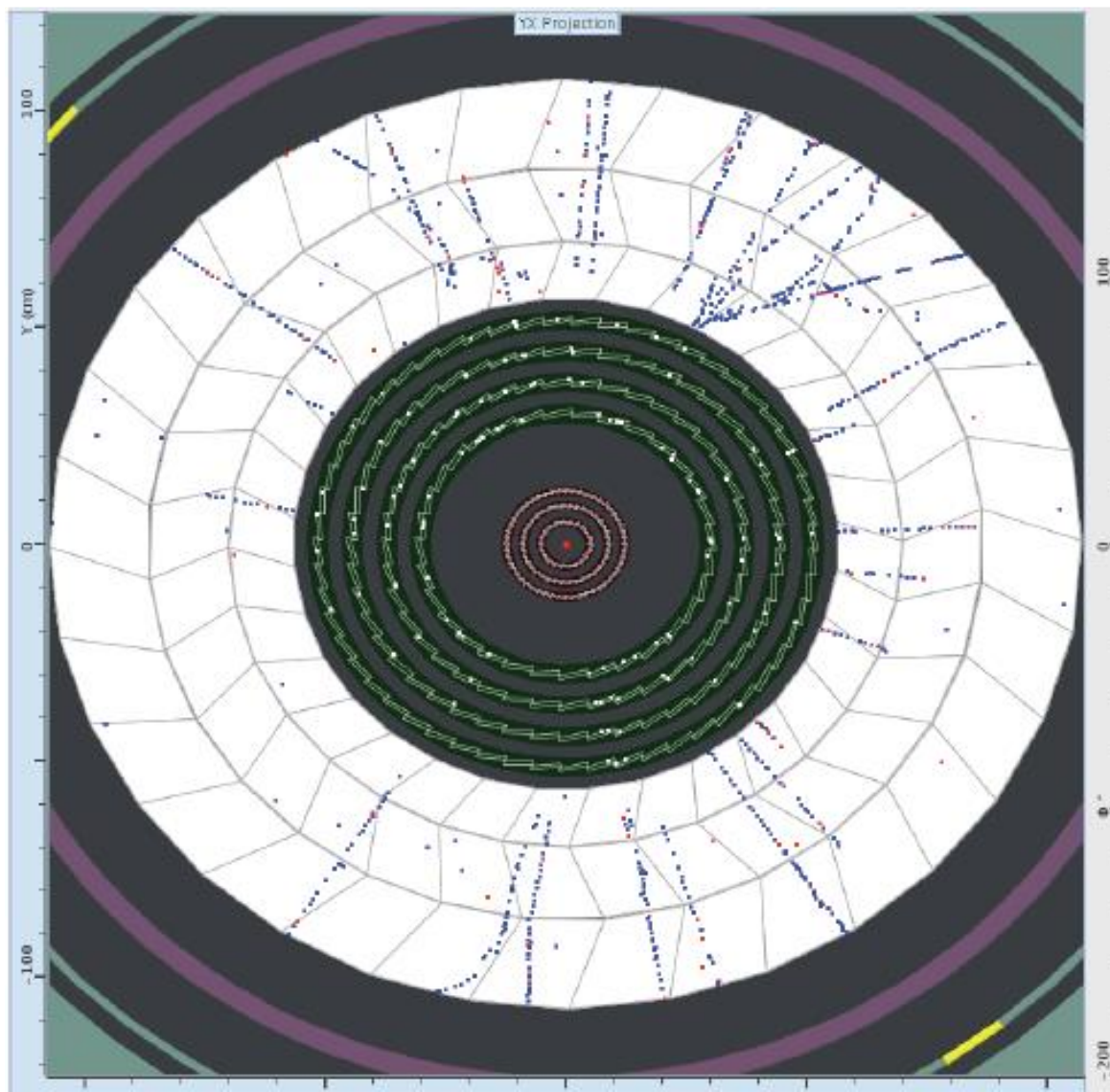
Example: muon passing muon drift tubes



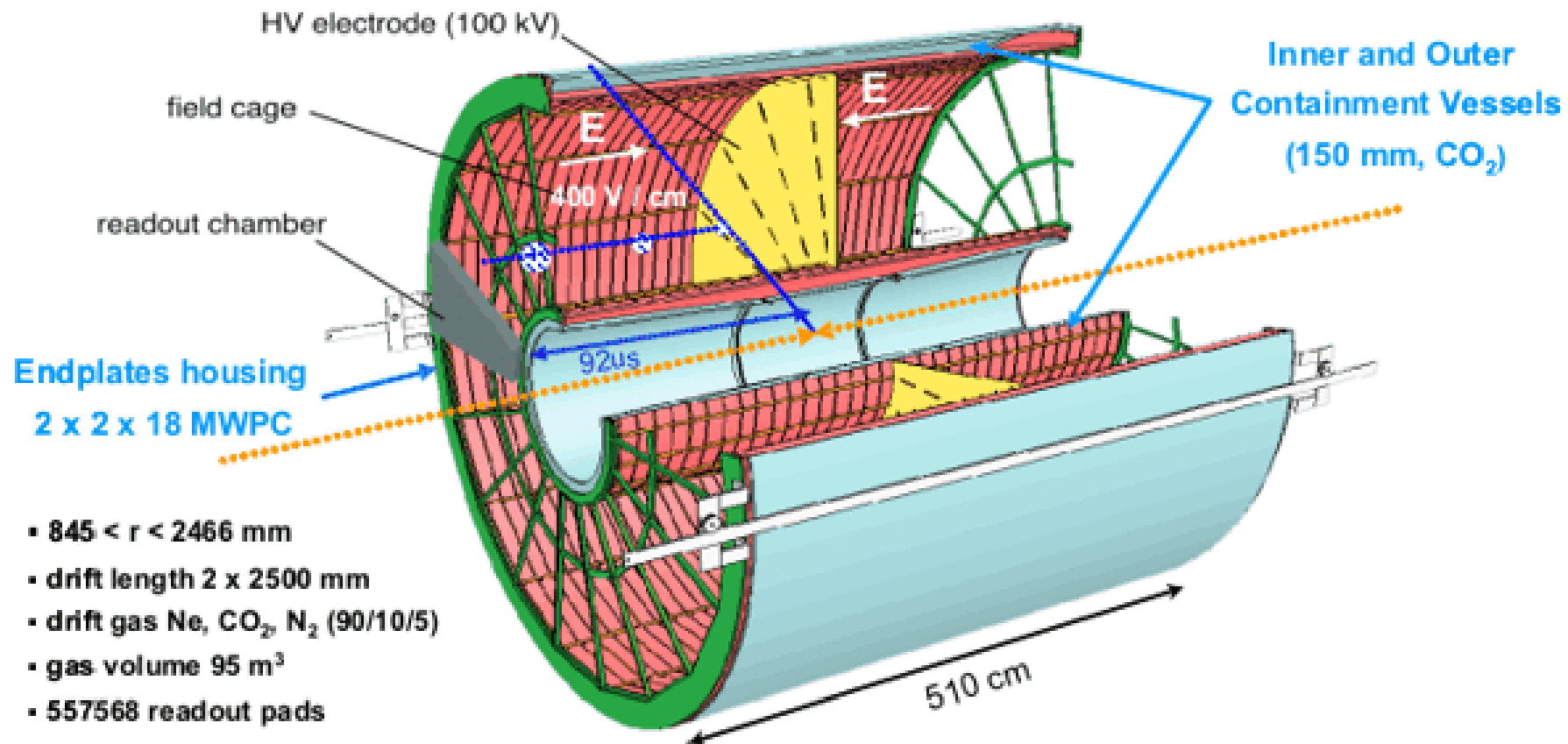
**TRT:** Kapton tube,  $\varnothing = 4 \text{ mm}$

**MDT:** Aluminium tube,  $\varnothing = 30 \text{ mm}$

# Example drift tube chamber: the ATLAS tracker



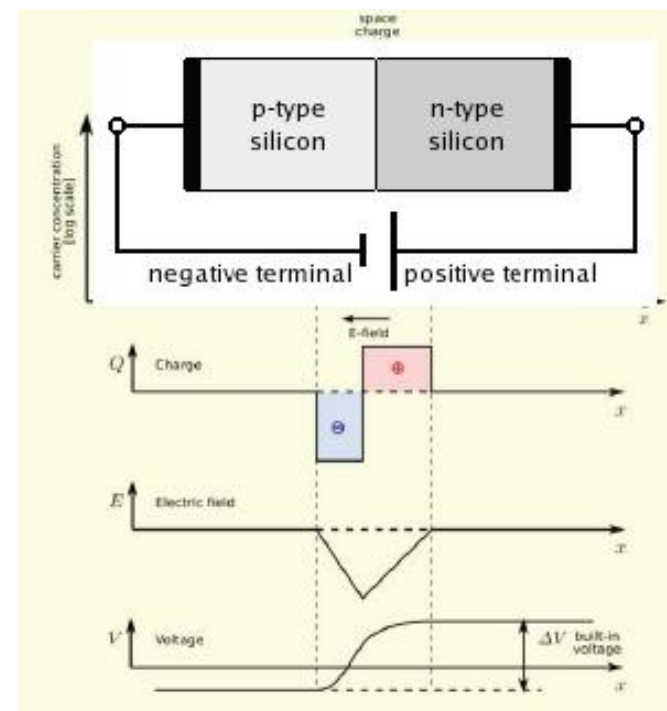
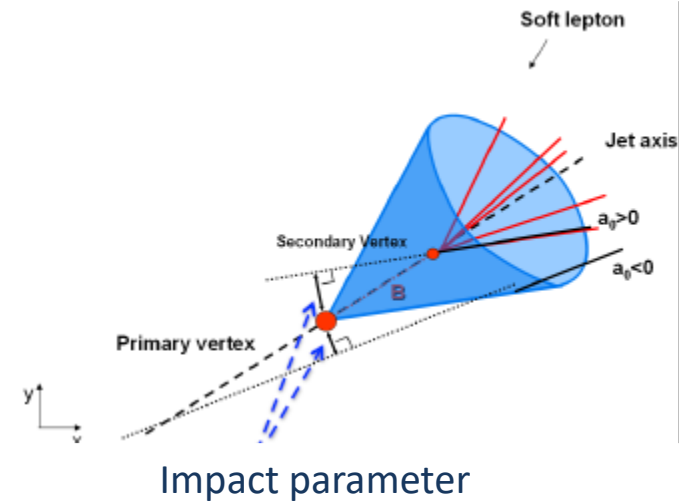
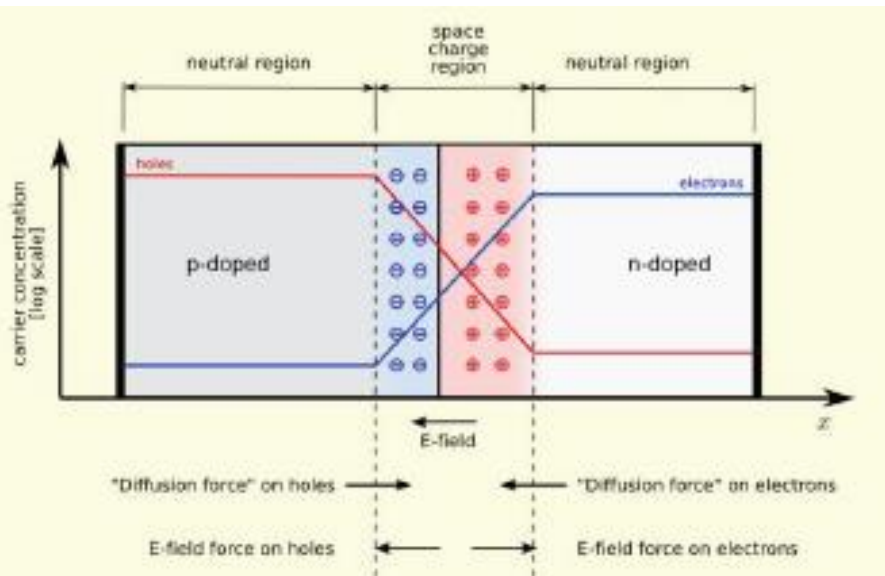
# The ALICE TPC



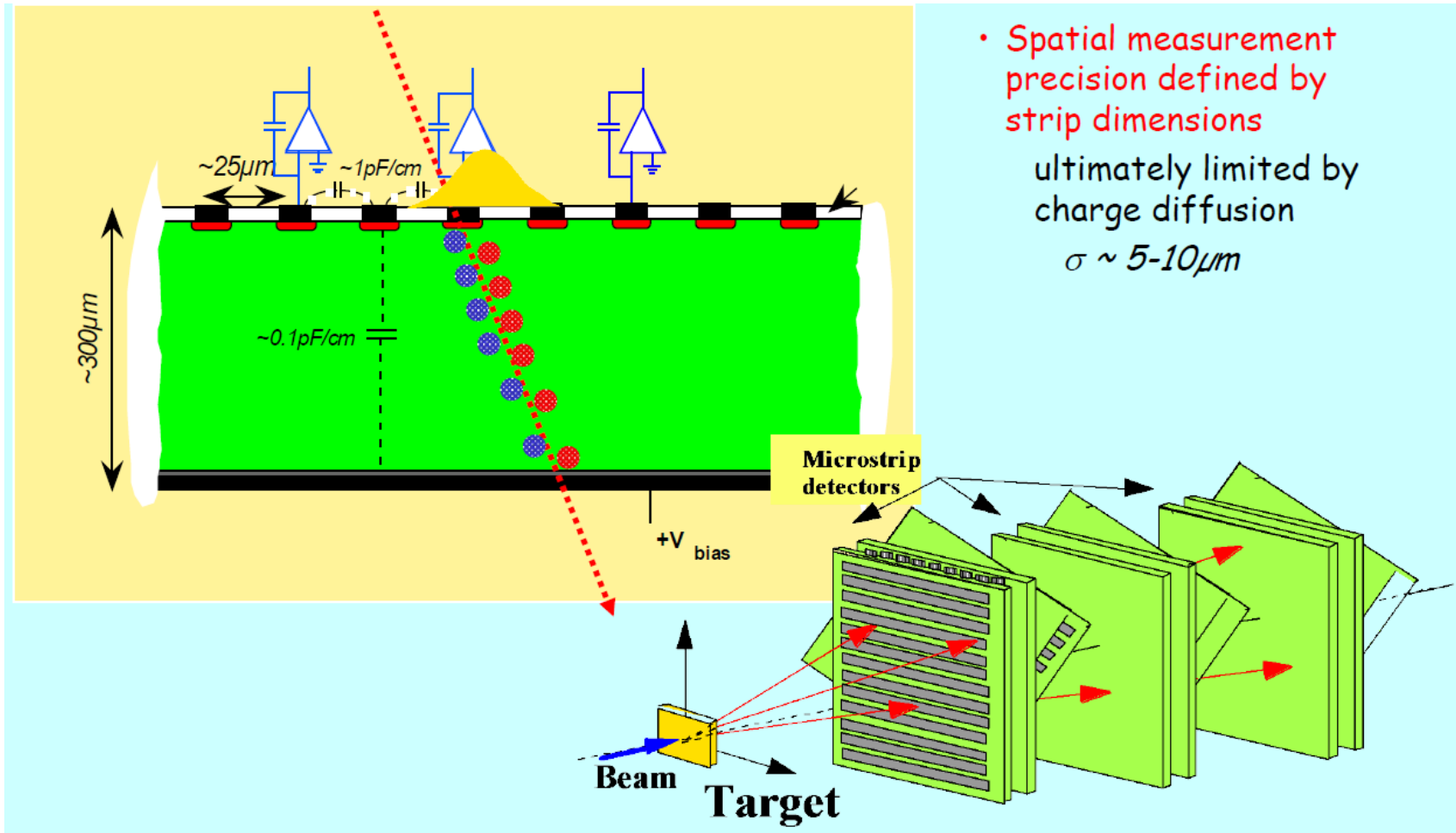
# Silicon detectors

Ionization detector for greater precision & vertexing

p-n junction w/o external voltage:  
limited sensitive region (depletion zone)

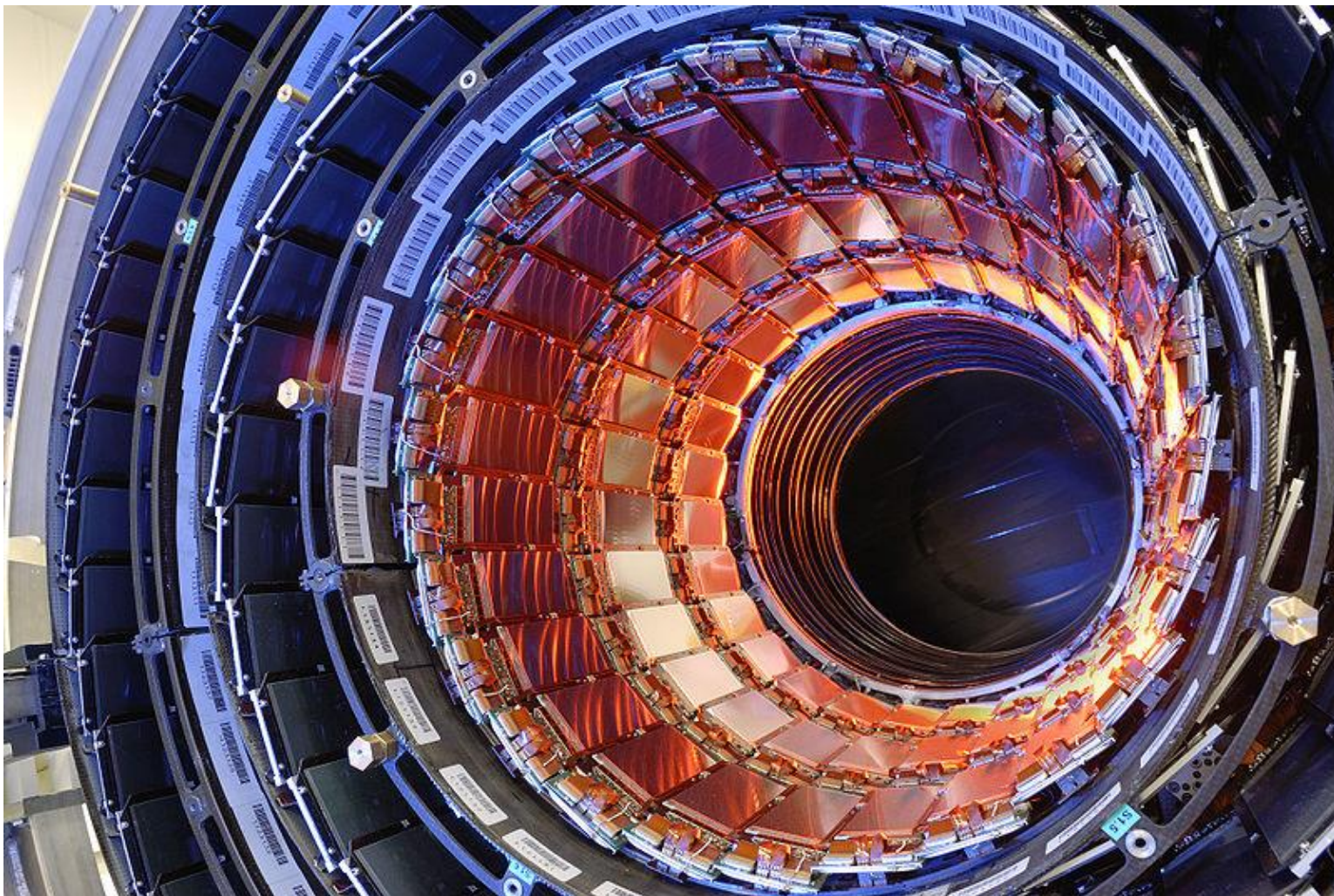


# Silicon diodes as position detectors





# CMS Si detector

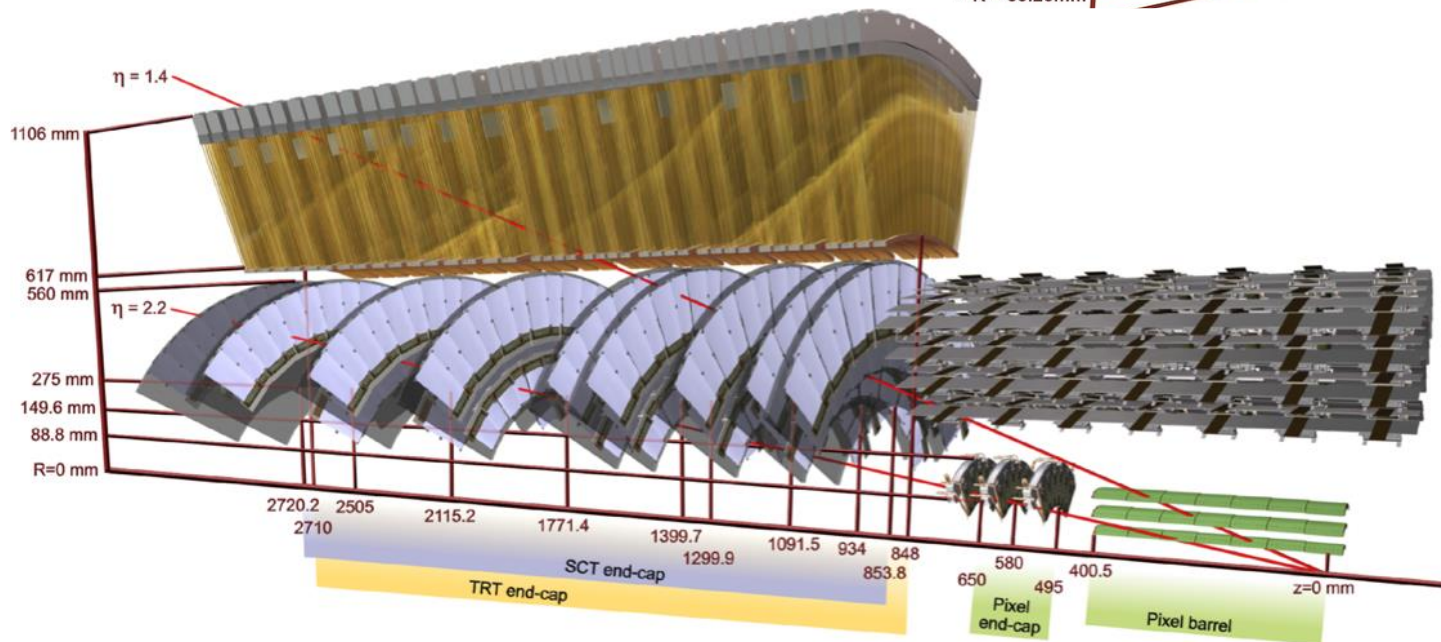
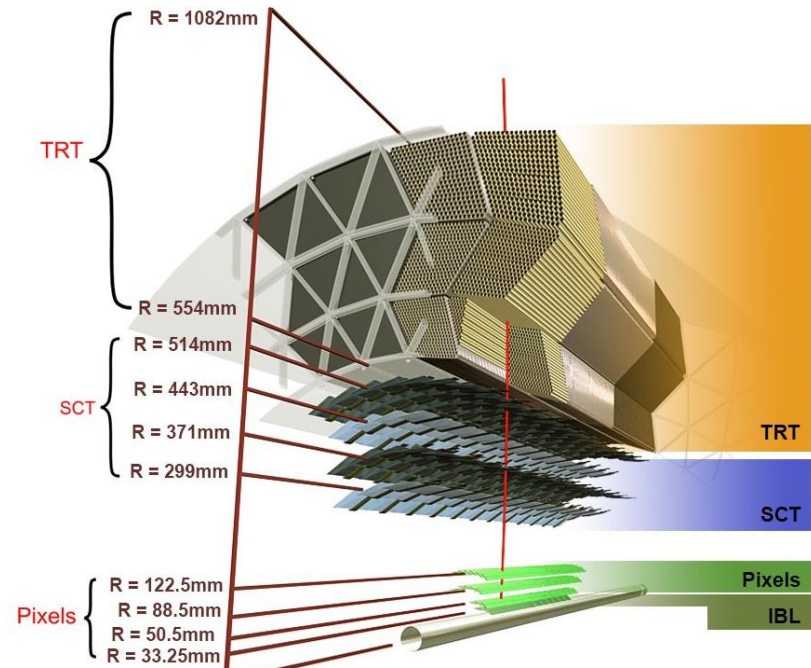




# Tracking in ATLAS

	Pixel	SCT	TRT
barrel layers	3	4	72
end-cap layers	2*3	2*9	2*160
$\emptyset$ hits / track	3	8	~30
element size [ $\mu\text{m}$ ]	50x400	80	4 mm
resolution [ $\mu\text{m}$ ]	10x115	17x580	130
channels	8*10e7	6.3*10e6	3.5*10e5

5 track parameters:  $d_0$ ,  $z_0$ ,  $\phi_0$ ,  $\theta$ ,  $q/p$



# For good tracking, needs:

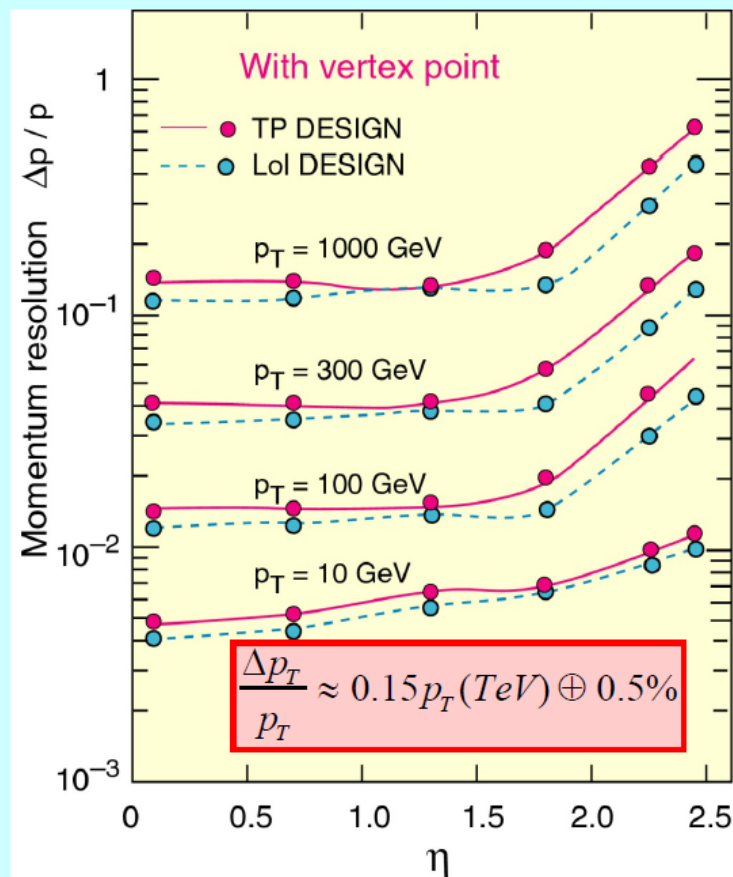
- p resolution

$$\frac{\sigma(p_T)}{p_T} \sim p_T \frac{\sigma_{meas}}{B \cdot L^2 \sqrt{N_{pts}}}$$

large B and L

- high precision space points  
detector with small intrinsic  $\sigma_{meas}$
- well separated particles  
good time resolution  
low occupancy  $\Rightarrow$  many channels  
good pattern recognition
- minimise multiple scattering
- minimal bremsstrahlung, photon conversions  
material in tracker  
most precise points close to beam

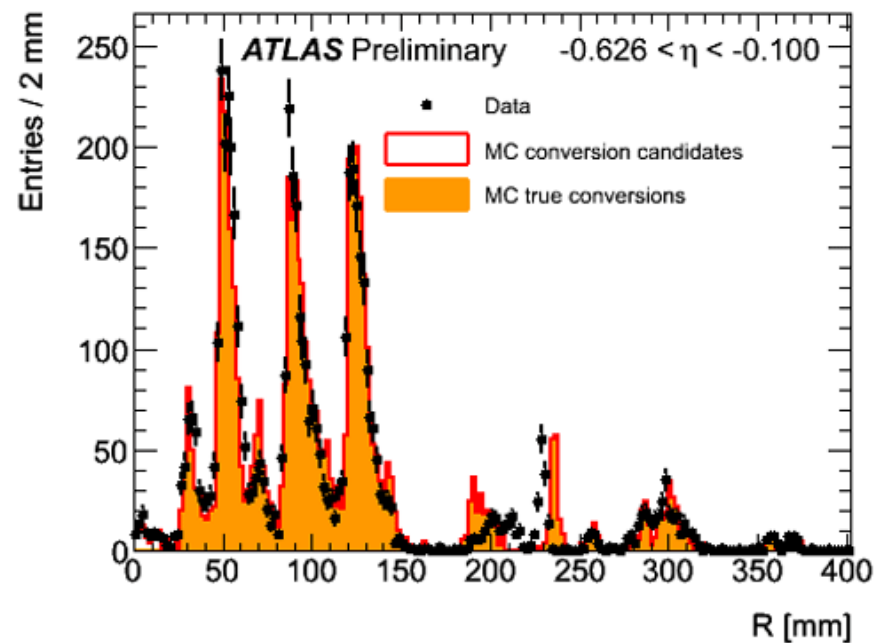
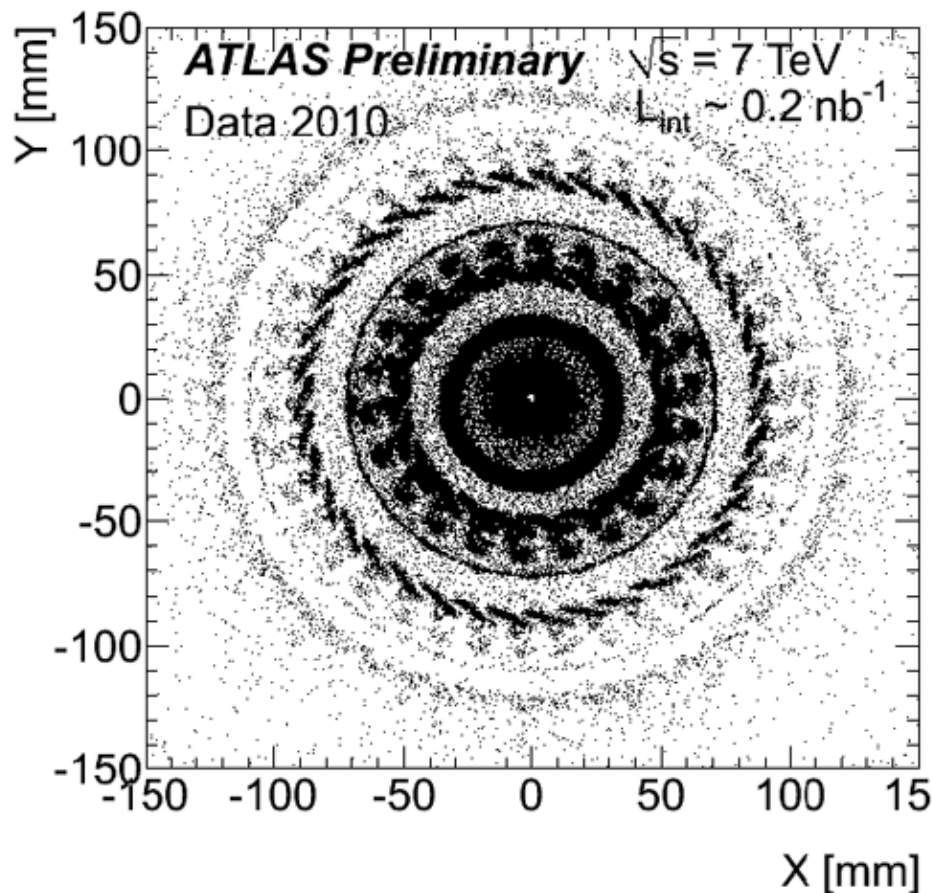
CMS example





# The ATLAS tracker as seen by photon conversions

Reconstructed photon conversions show clearly the location of (Si) tracking modules!



# (Preliminary) Summary

- ✓ Reminders of often-used variables
- ✓ Need several different techniques to uncover particles identities
- ✓ Today discussed possibilities for detecting charged particles
  - ✓ Si trackers and drift chambers are the most frequently used
- ✓ Good performance requires optimization in several parameters
- ✓ More tomorrow ...

# Today & tomorrow:

- Reminders
  - Cross section
  - Rapidity \ pseudo-rapidity
  - Bethe-Bloch ionization
- More about tracking and trackers
  - Types, resolution
- More about calorimeters
  - Types, resolution
- Some particle identification strategies
  
- Triggers

# Accelerating particles

Lorentz force law

$$\mathbf{F} = q (\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B})$$

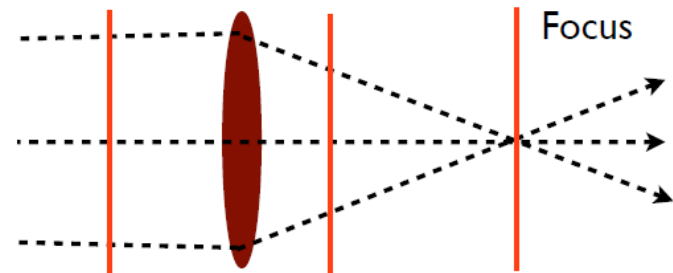
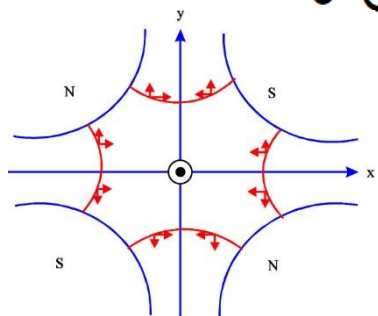
↖
↑
↖

Electric field    Velocity    Magnetic field

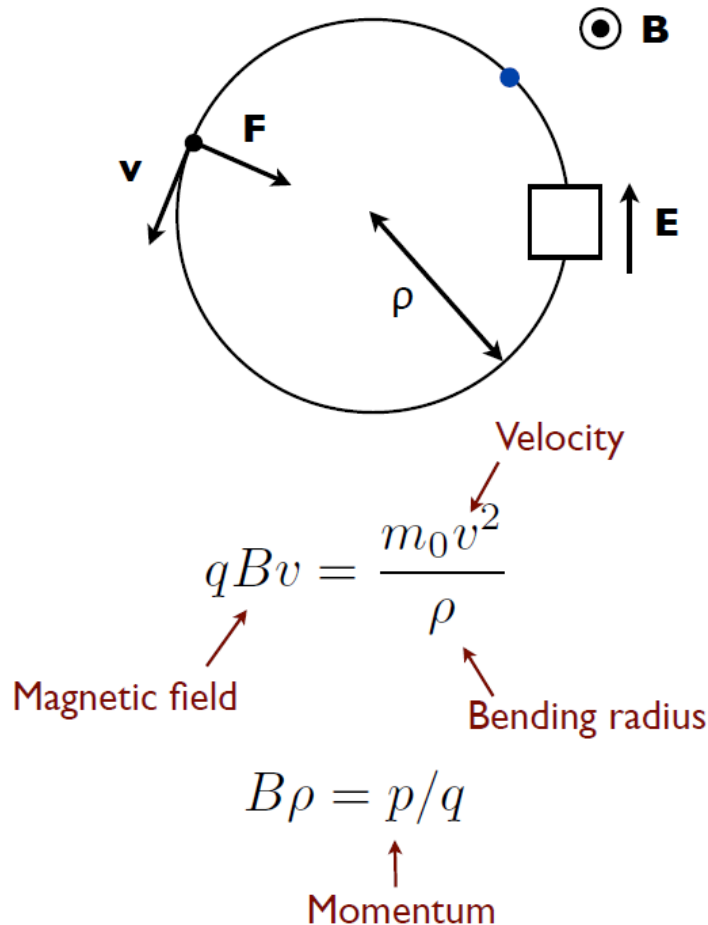
Energy change

$$\Delta E = \int_{\mathbf{r}_1}^{\mathbf{r}_2} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

- 
- 2nd year electromagnetism
    - Electric field (either static, or more commonly, time varying) to accelerate, or more appropriately, increase energy of beam
    - Magnetic part of Lorentz force used to guide and focus
      - Dipole magnets : to bend
      - Quadrupole : to focus or defocus

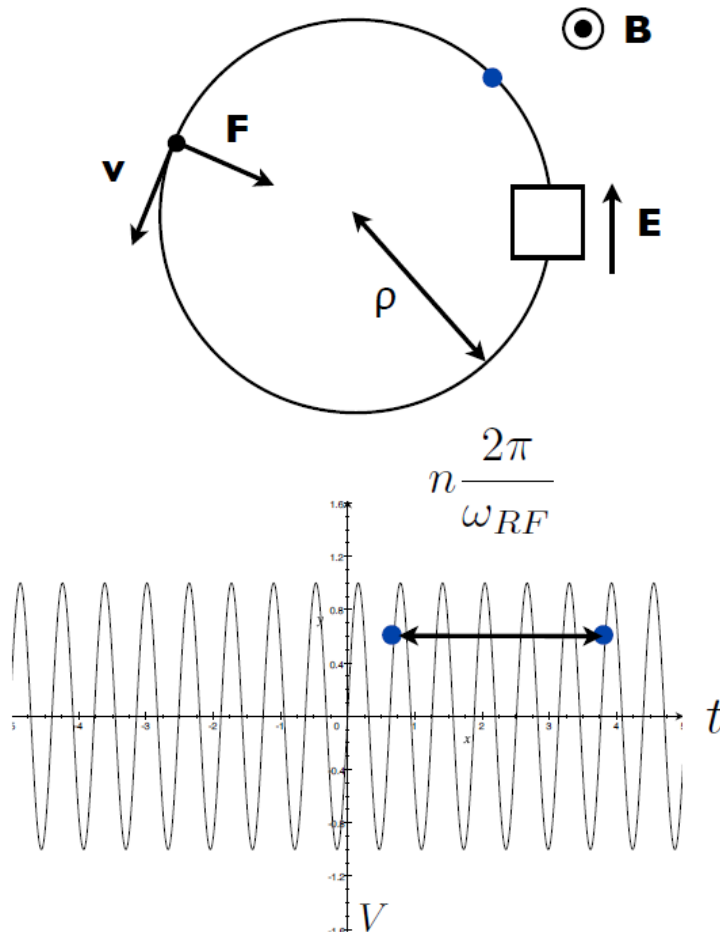


# The synchrotron



- Work horse of modern particle physics
- Huge legacy of discovery
  - W/Z, Gluon, Higgs, SUSY?
- Increase energy whilst synchronously increasing bending magnet strength
- Stable storage of high beam current/power
- Magnetic field proportional to momentum

# The synchrotron



- Time varying electric field:

$$V(t) = V_0 \sin(\omega_{RF}t + \phi)$$

↑  
Angular frequency of  
accelerating field

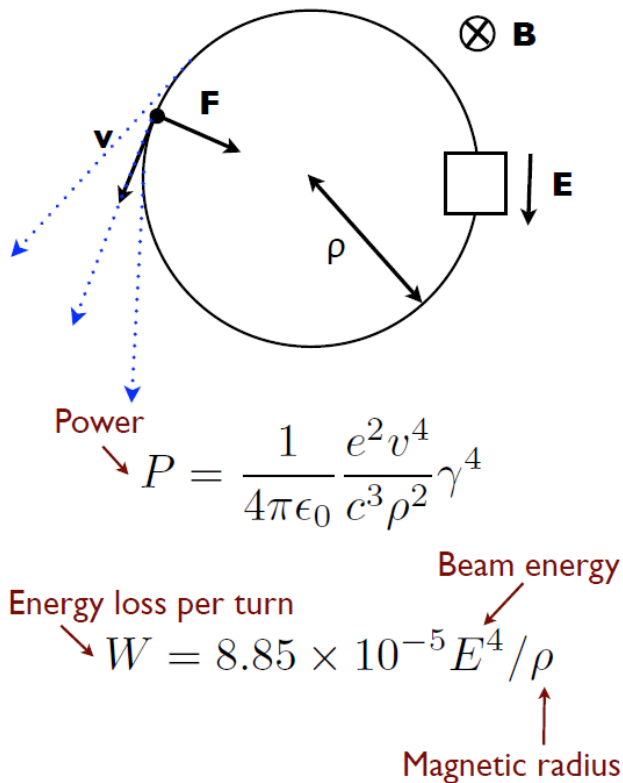
- Particle gets a kick every revolution

$$\frac{1}{f_{\text{ref}}} = n \frac{2\pi}{\omega_{RF}}$$

↑  
Revolution  
frequency

↑  
Integer

- As you know, circular colliders have the problem of synchrotron radiation



Goes as  $1/m^4$  so not a problem for the LHC but practical limit for e+e- reached already

**Linear colliders** do not have this problem  
But other practical problems (such as sheer size, loss of beam particles after collisions, steep accelerating gradient etc)

# Calorimeters

Measures the energy of **both** charged and neutral particles!

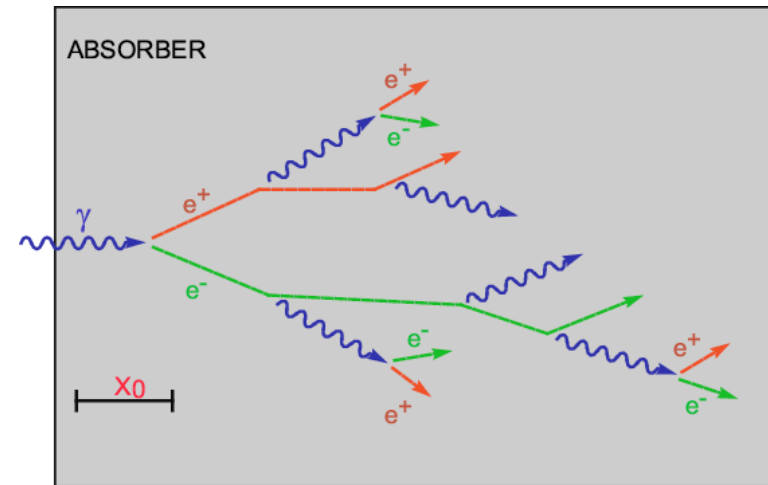
Measured via secondary cascades

The relative energy resolution **improves** with E:

$$\frac{\sigma}{E} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{E}}$$

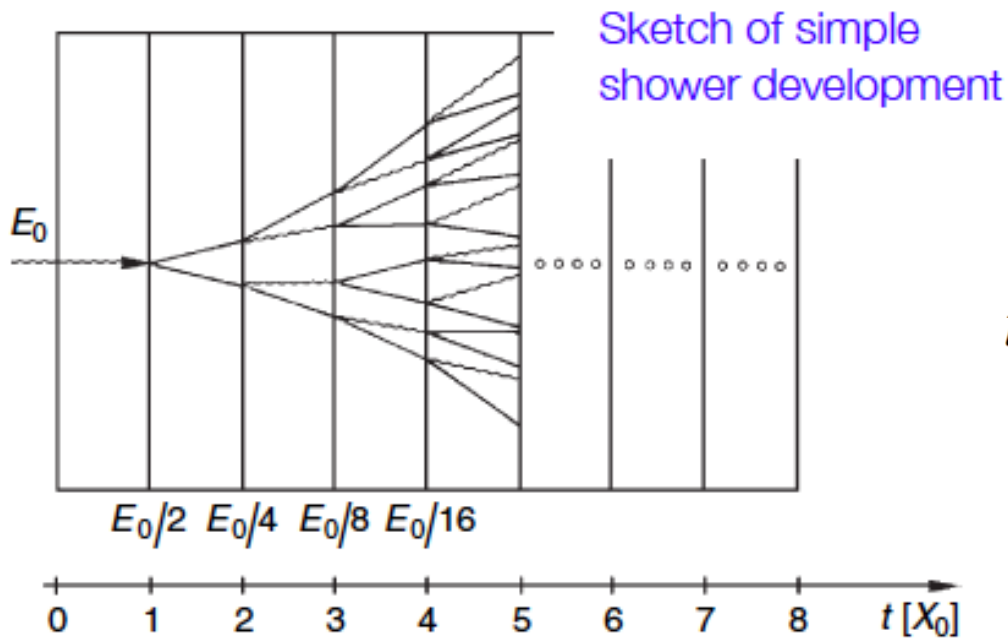
(n = #secondary cascade particles)

In contrast to momentum resolution





# Analytic shower model



Location of stop

$$t_{\max} = \frac{\ln(E / E_c)}{\ln 2} \propto \ln \left( \frac{E}{E_c} \right)$$

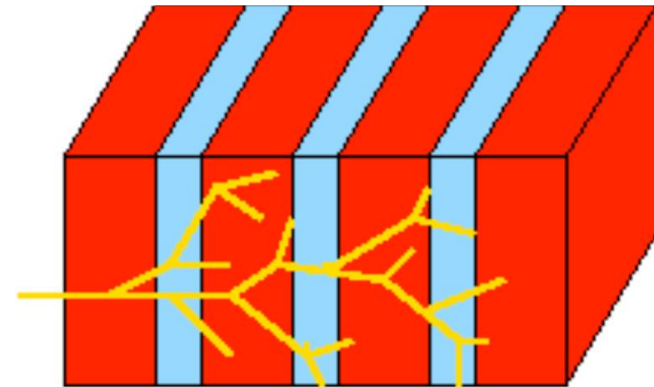
Initial energy

$$N_{\max} = 2^{t_{\max}} = \frac{E_0}{E_c}$$

# Types of calorimeters

- Homogeneous calorimeter:
  - Simpler geometry, simpler corrections
- Sampling calorimeter:
  - *Pro*: Depth and spatial segmentation
  - *Con*: only sampling a fraction of the shower, less precise, fluctuations
- Both need multiple corrections for non-uniformities etc

Pb crystal



$$f_{\text{sampling}} = \frac{E_{\text{visible}}}{E_{\text{deposited}}}$$

# Energy resolution

- For EM calorimeters we can parameterise the resolution as

$$\left(\frac{\Delta E}{E}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{a_0}{E}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{a_1}{\sqrt{E}}\right)^2 + b^2$$

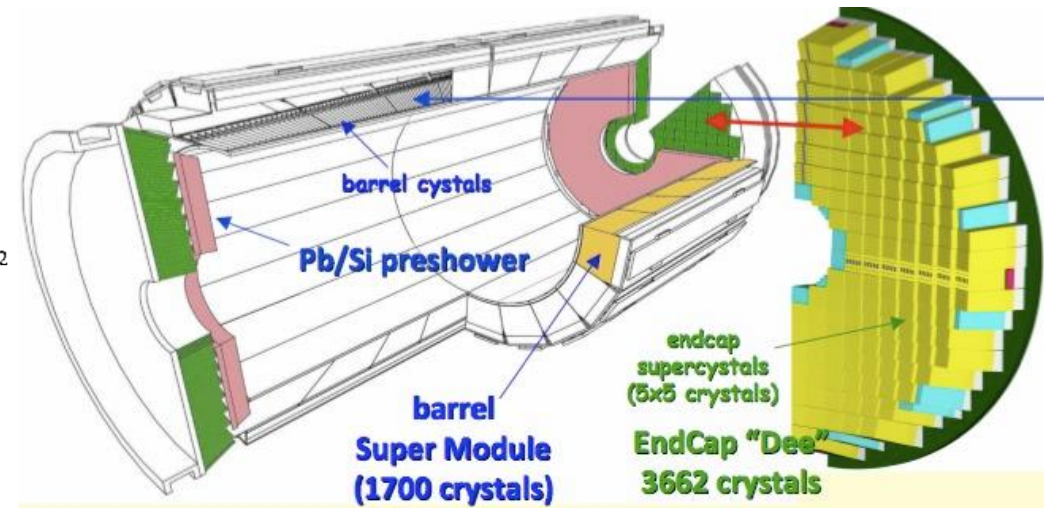
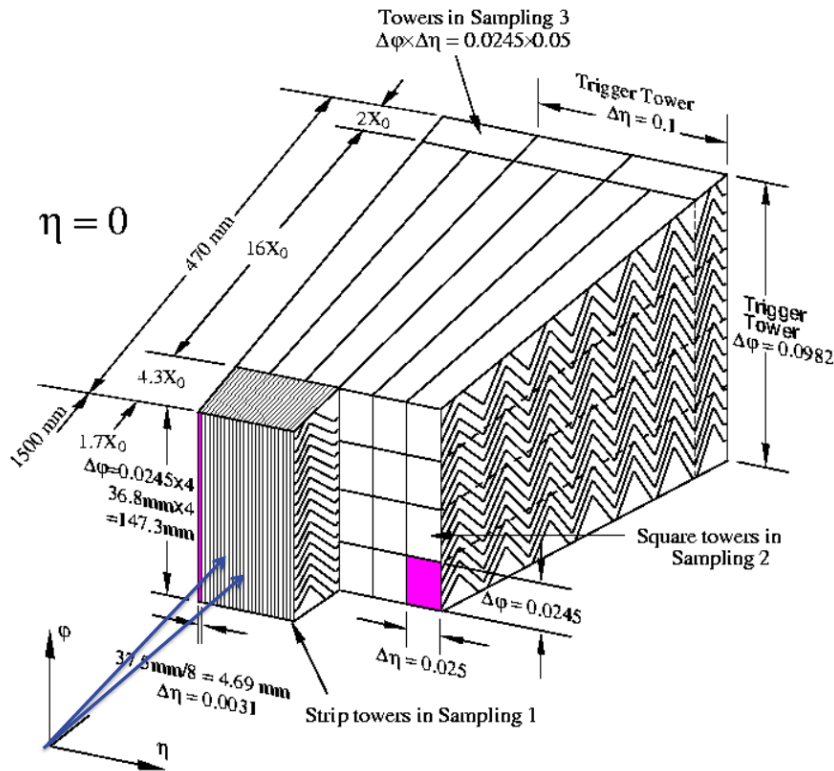
Systematic (or “constant”) term

Electronic noise summed over a few channels (3x3 or 5x5 typically)

Photoelectron statistics (Poisson)

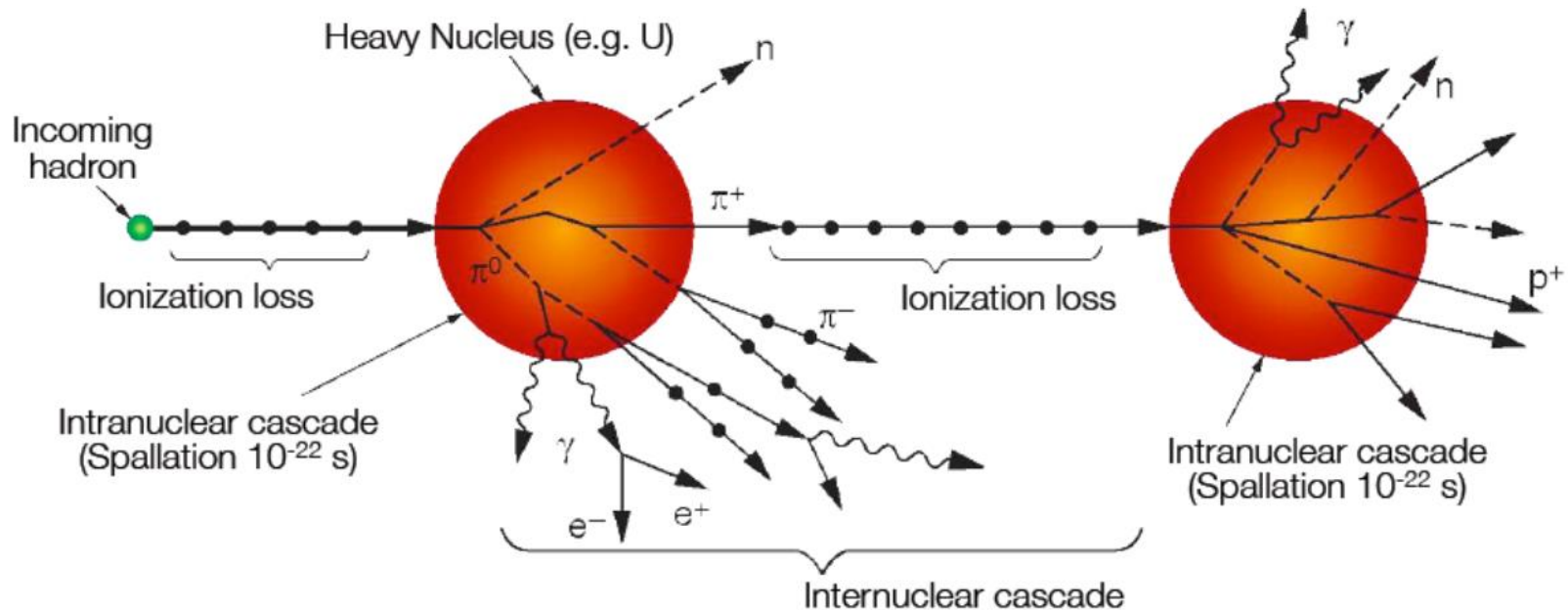
For sampling calorimeters also additional effects : since only a fraction of the total energy is sampled

# Pictures of ATLAS and CMS calorimeters



3x difference in sampling terms – other resolution terms similar

# Hadron calorimeters



Both strong and EM deposits + large fraction undetected

Effect on resolution:

What we actually use

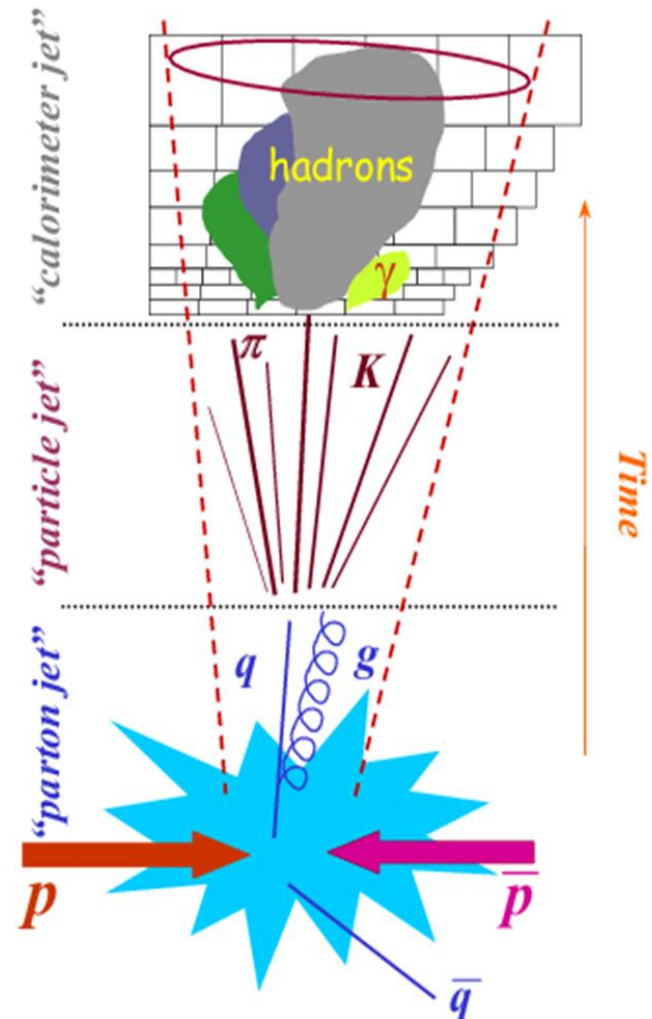
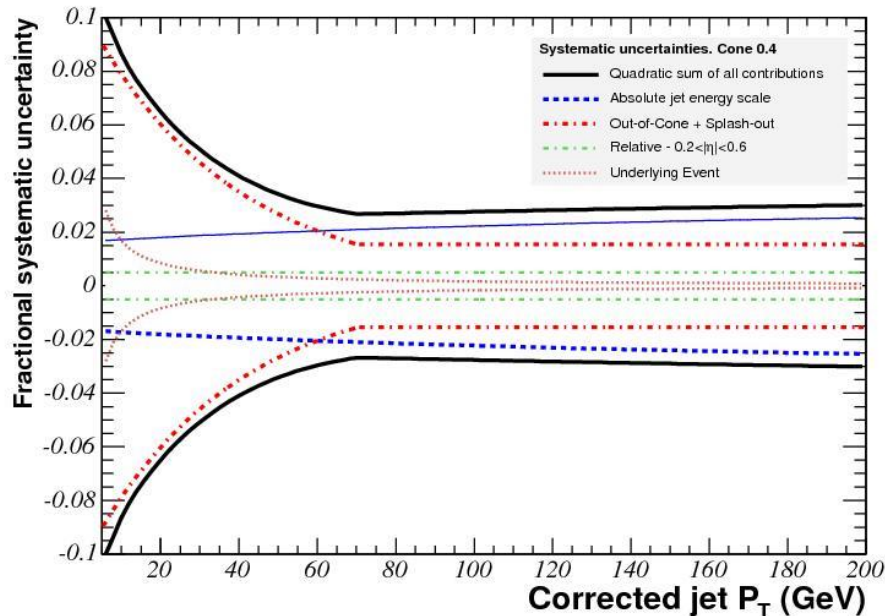
$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus b \left( \frac{E}{E_0} \right)$$

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus b$$

# Corrections: Jet energy scale

Select dijet events to study corrections:

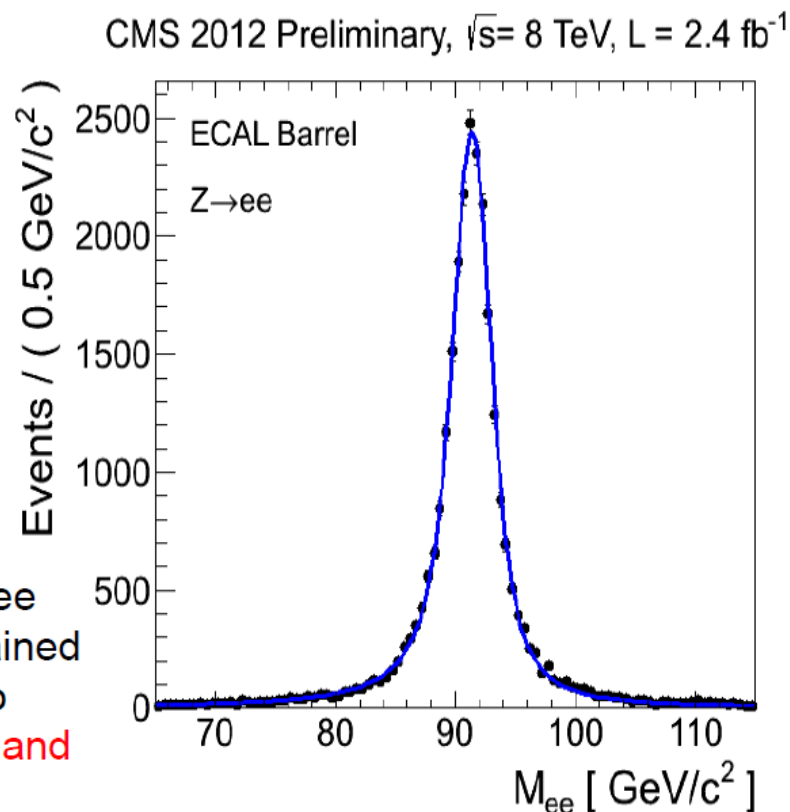
- EM vs hadron behavior
- Non-uniformity in response
- Pile-up
- Underlying event
- "out-of-cone" corrections



# CMS: Effect of corrections electrons

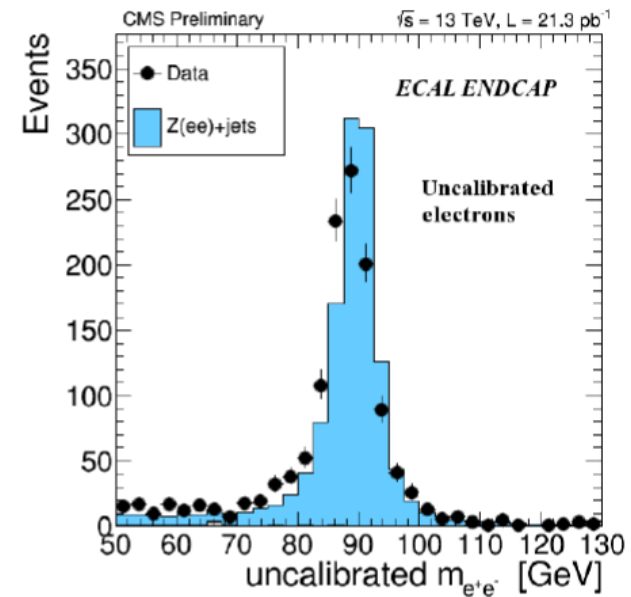
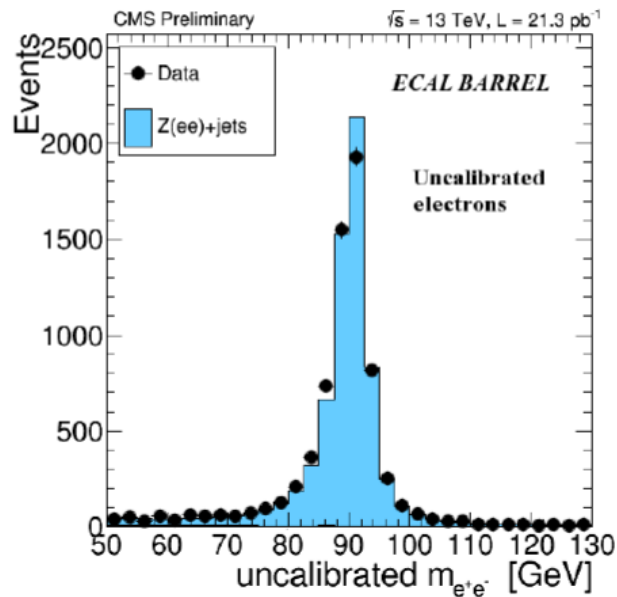
Instrumental resolution in barrel is 1 GeV at the Z peak

The plot shows the improvements in Z→ee energy scale and resolution that are obtained from applying energy scale corrections to account for the **intrinsic spread in crystal and photo-detector response**, and time-dependent corrections to compensate for **crystal transparency loss**





# Same experiment, first (not fully corrected) 13 TeV results

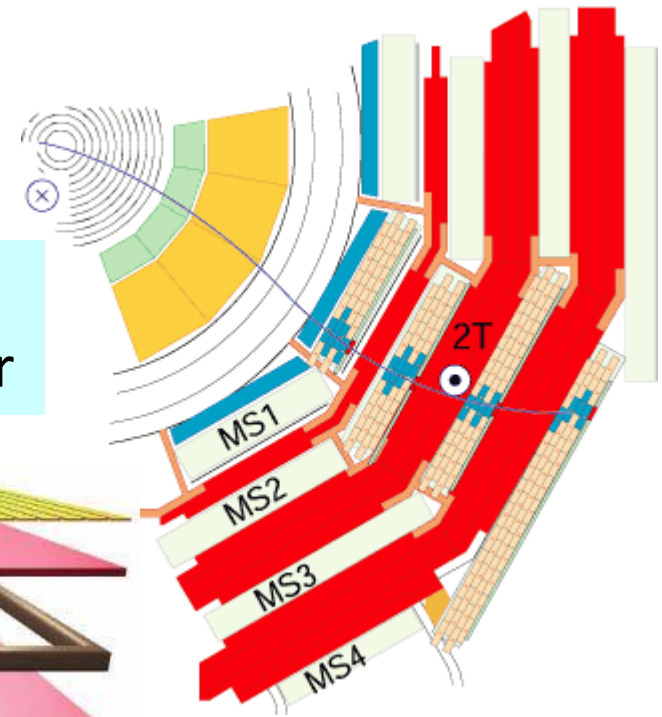
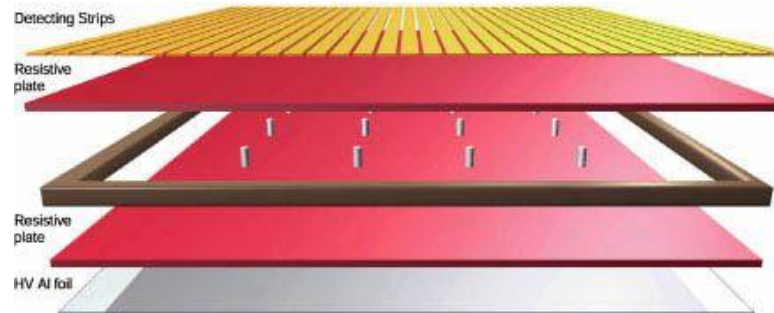


Non-optimised data (shown at EPS conference) from early Run 2 data in 2015. MC number is normalised to data and calibration is based on an extrapolation from Run 1 constants.

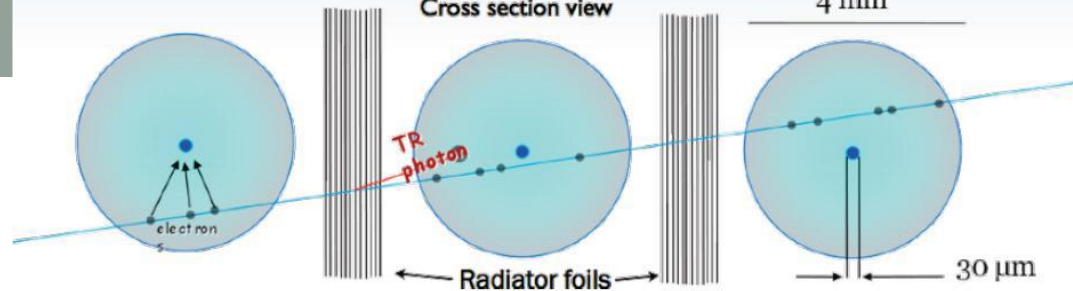


# Muon chambers

Muon tracking  
(much) Larger scales than for inner detector



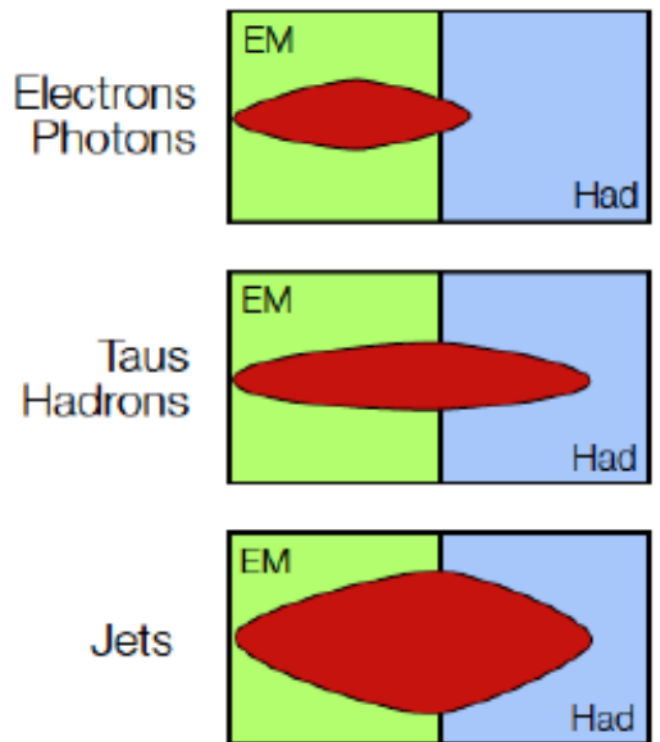
# Particle ID



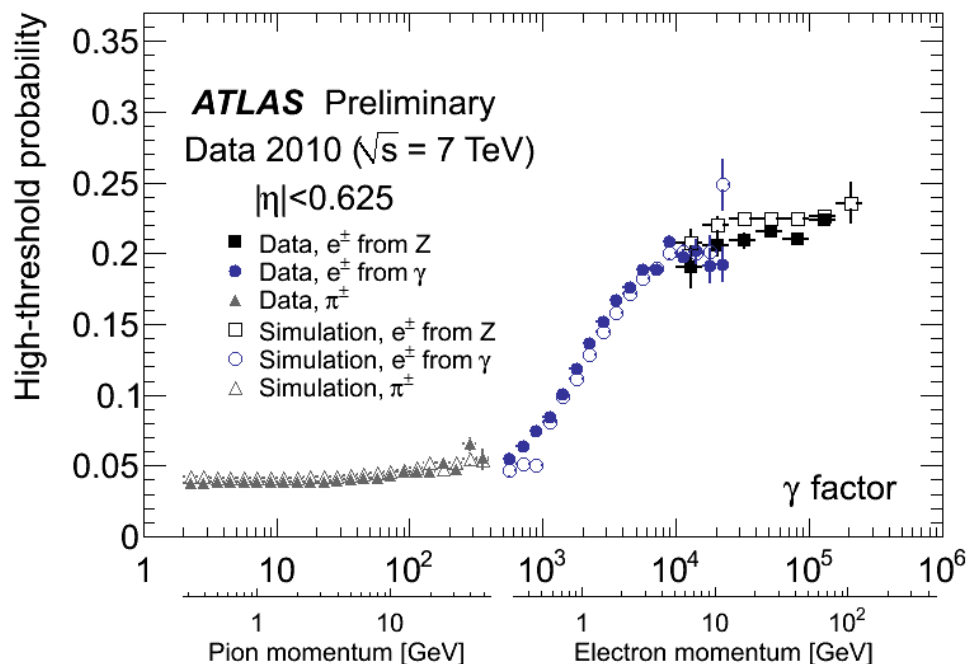
We use the combination of information to identify particles

For instance:

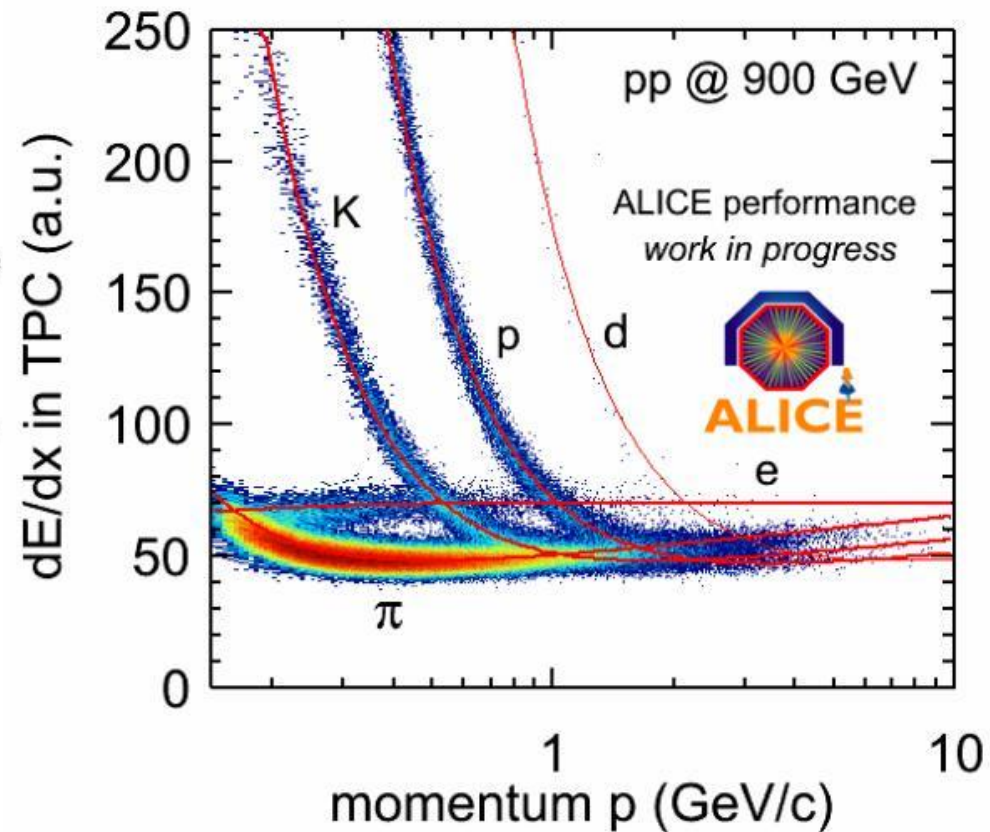
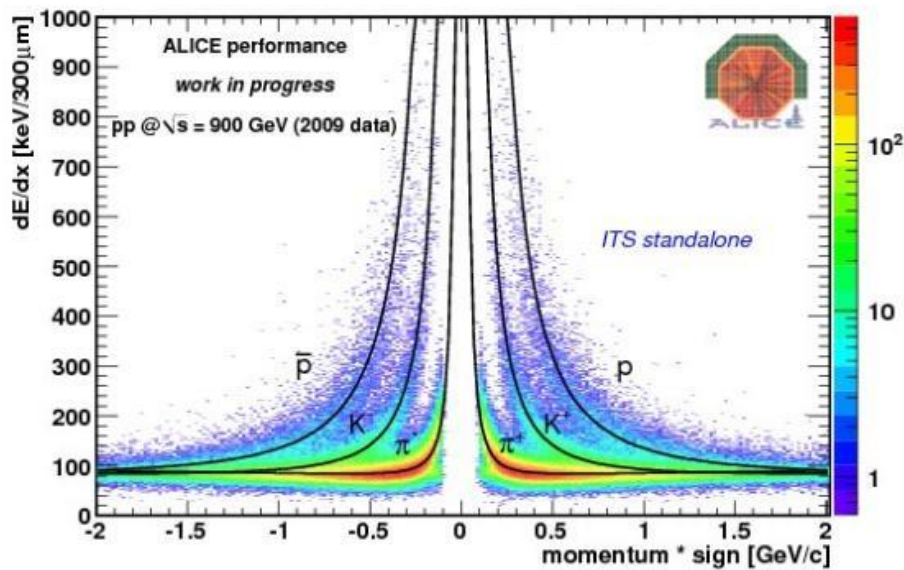
Shower shapes:



Transition radiation:



# Particle ID from ALICE



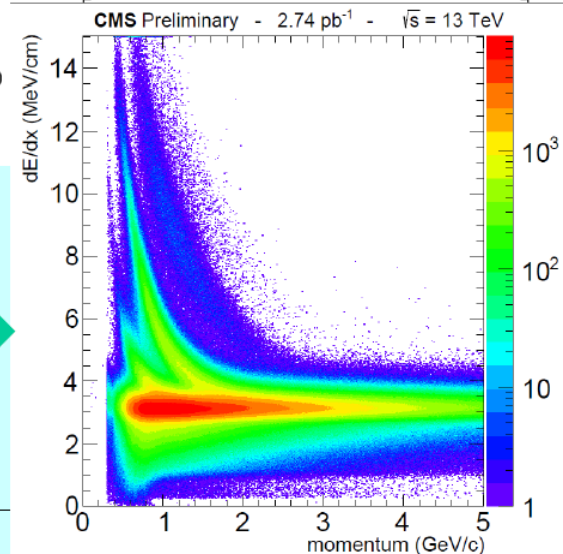
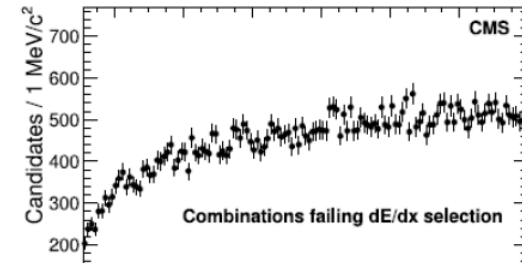
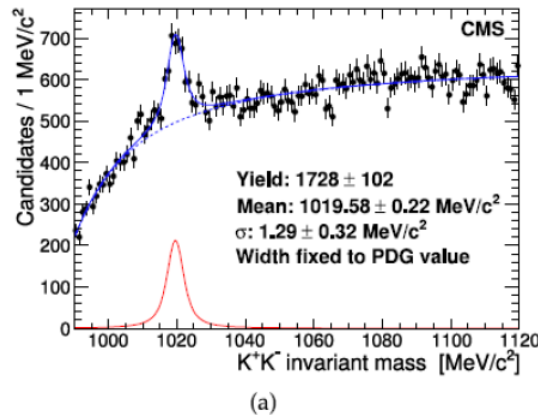


# Slide from CMS

## dE/dx

- Using dE/dx data to fit the KK invariant mass distribution to detect the  $\phi(1020)$ .

Fig. 15  $K^+K^-$  invariant mass distribution, with (a) both kaons satisfying the  $dE/dx$  requirement and with (b) at least one particle failing that requirement. In (a) a fit to the  $\phi(1020)$  hypothesis is shown



13 TeV data

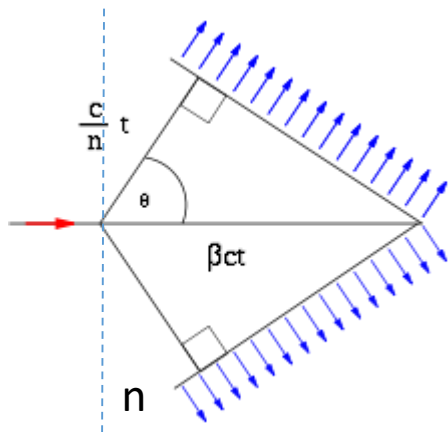


# Particle ID with Cherenkov detectors

Charged, relativistic particles in dielectric

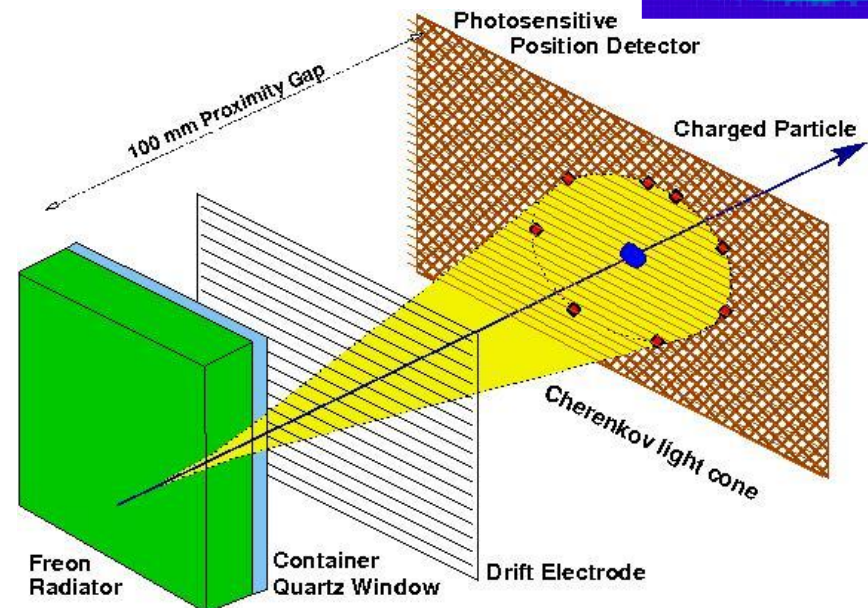
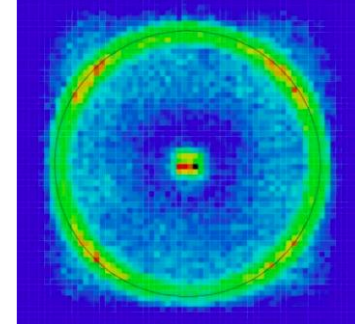
Polarization effect, Cherenkov photons emitted only if

$v_p > \frac{c}{n(\lambda)}$ , where  $n(\lambda)$  is the refractive index



Simple geometric derivation gives the Cherenkov angle

$$\cos\theta_c = \frac{1}{n(\lambda)\beta}$$



Detector examples: Super-K, IceCube

# Cherenkov - applications

Measurement of Cherenkov angle:  
Use medium with known refractive index  $n \rightarrow \beta$

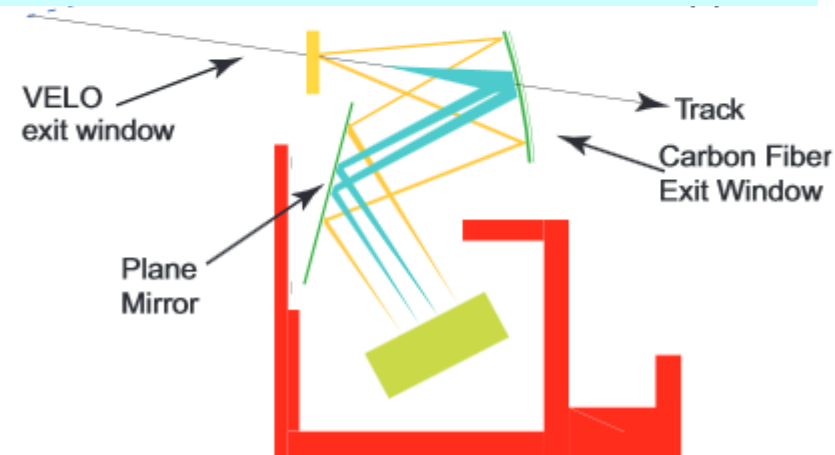
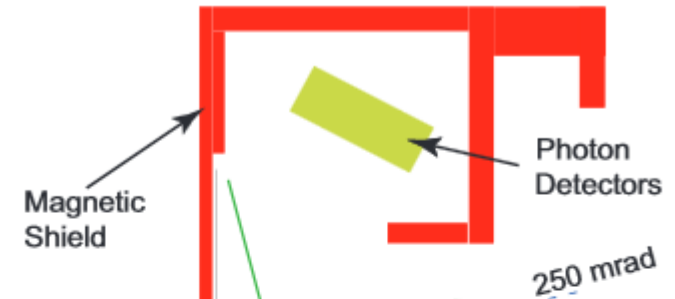
Principle of:

RICH (Ring Imaging Cherenkov Counter)

DIRC (Detection of Internally Reflected Cherenkov Light)

Cherenkov detection widely used in both collider experiments and cosmic ray experiments, For instance ALICE, AMS, the Air Cherenkov Telescope etc

LHCb RICH



Particles pass through radiator and radiated photons focused and detected by photo detector  
Velocity determined by measuring radius of ring

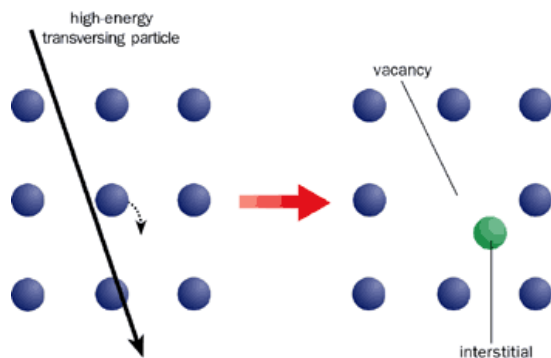
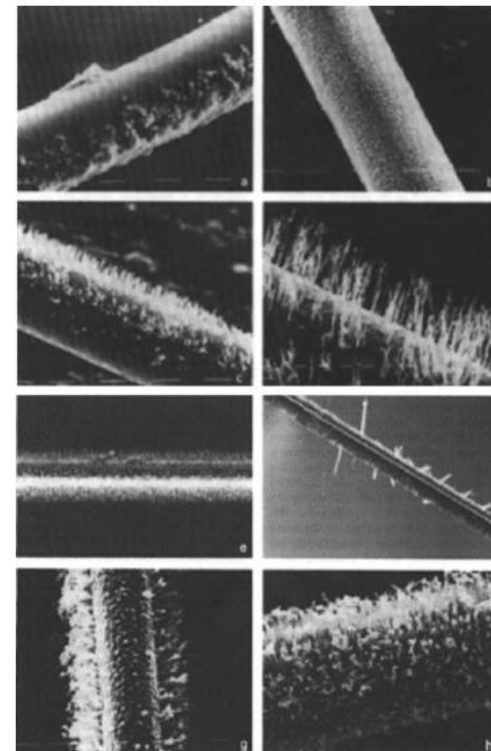
# Radiation damage

The high particle flux accelerates the aging process  
This affects both the performance of the electronics as well as detection quality.

For instance

- discoloration of scintillator material
- anode wires in wire chamber can get deposits of polymers and free radicals

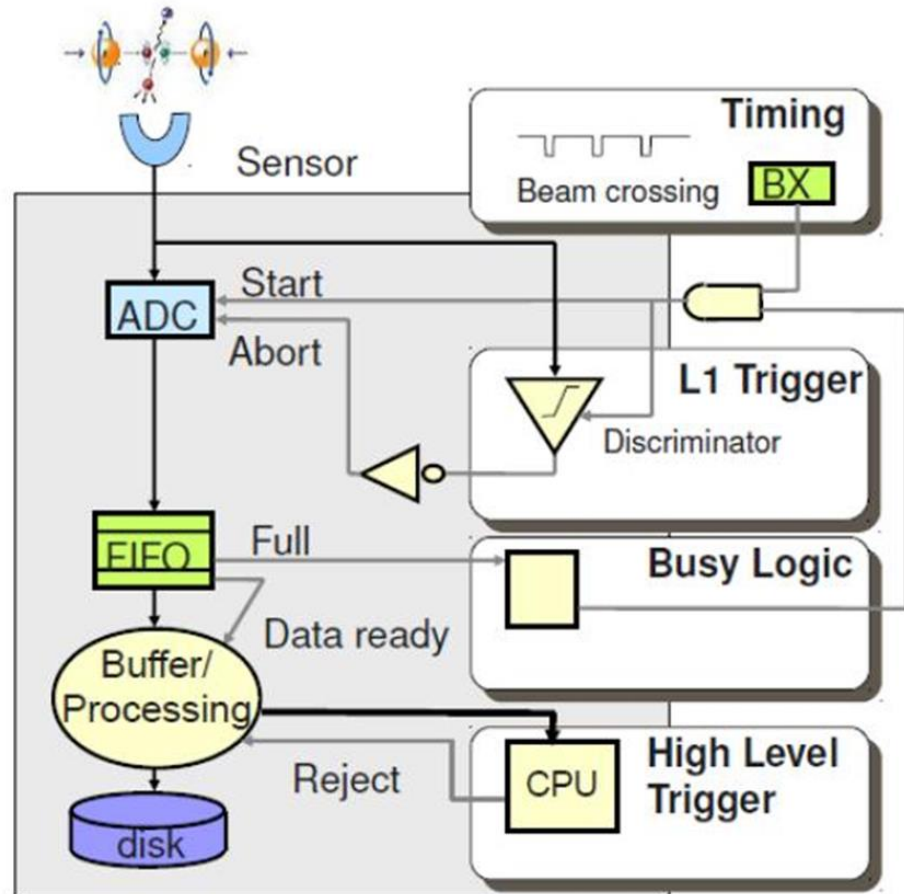
Anode wires with deposits



Silicon detectors: When a high-energy particle traverses a silicon detector, lattice defects are produced. These take the form of lattice vacancies and atoms at interstitial sites. They move around and combine with bulk impurities to create energy levels in the normally "forbidden" bandgap. (@CERN Courier)

# Triggers

- *Purpose: Reject events!*
- When storage and processing power insufficient
- Careful what you reject – cannot be recovered
- Multilayer structure to improve rejection factor and minimize mistakes

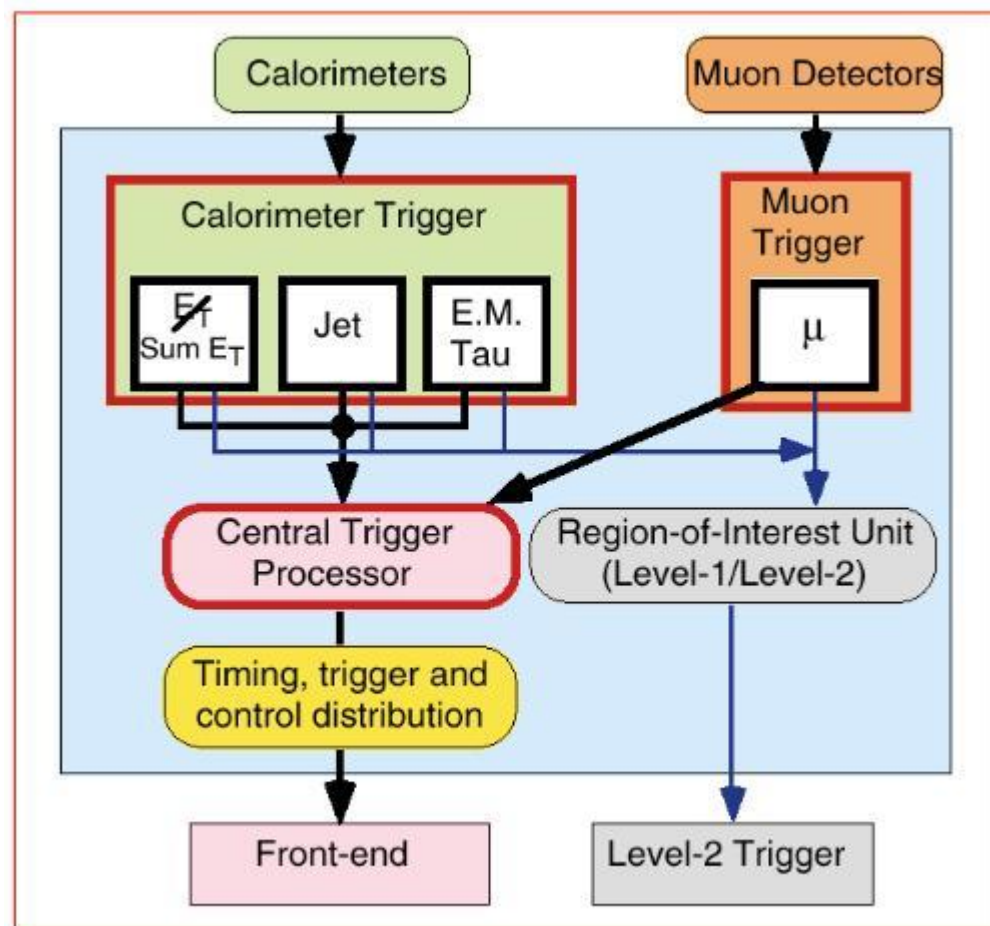




# Trigger input ATLAS example

Decision times from  $\mu\text{s}$  to  $\text{s}$

Only limited-granularity information available for the first trigger levels

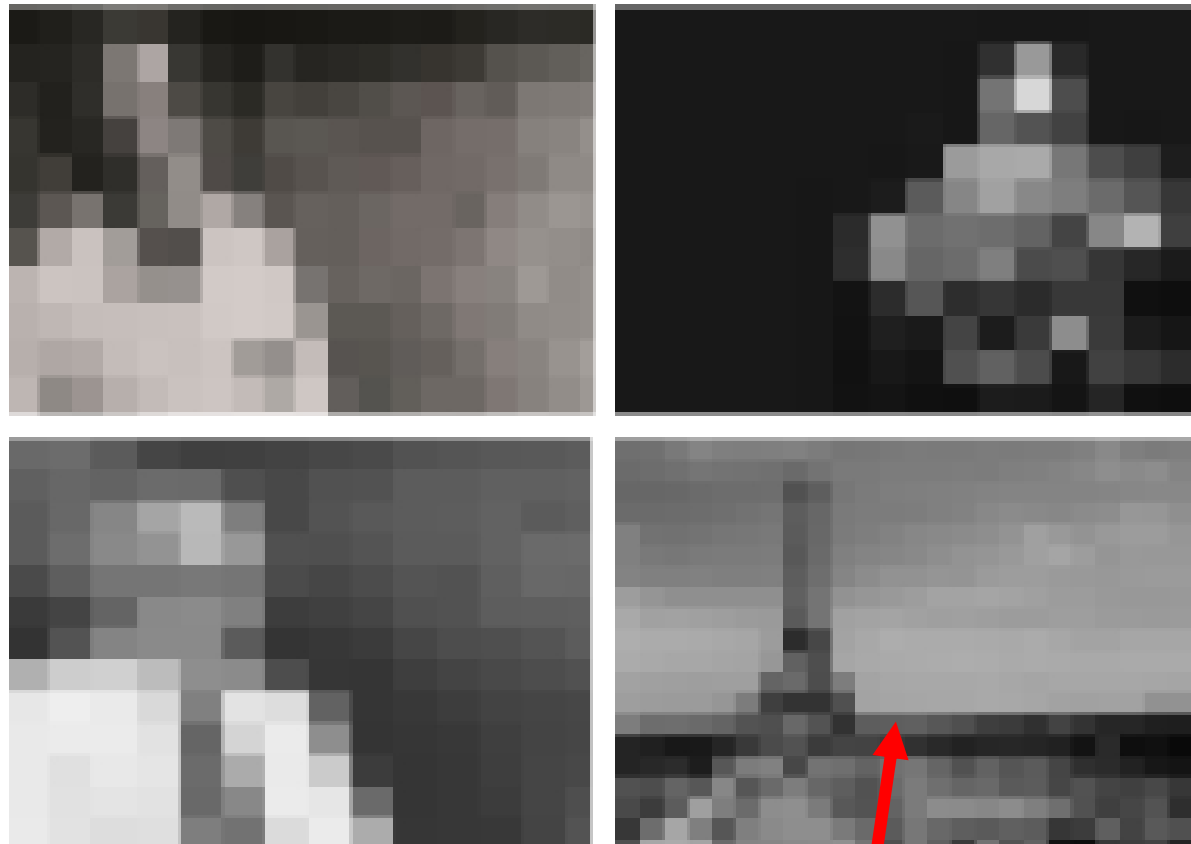


- "the trigger does not determine which physics model is right, only which physics model is left" A. Bocchi

## Example: Higgs

• L1

Coarse  
granularity

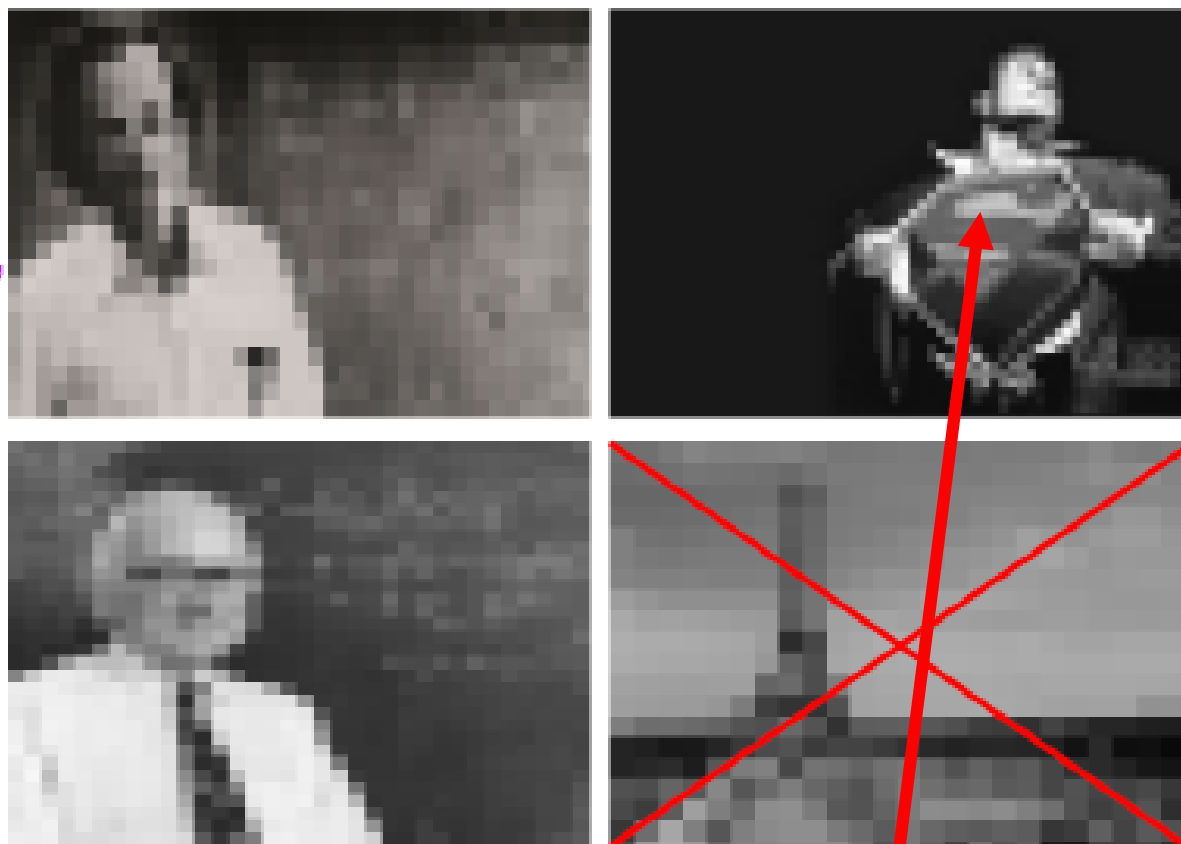


*L1: This is not Higgs*

## Example: Higgs

### •L2

Improved reconstruction,  
improved ability to reject events

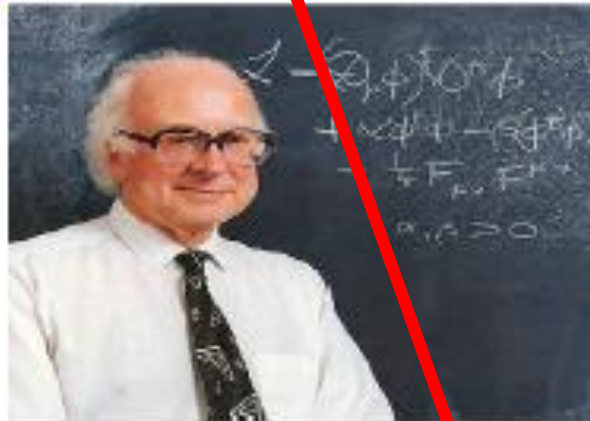
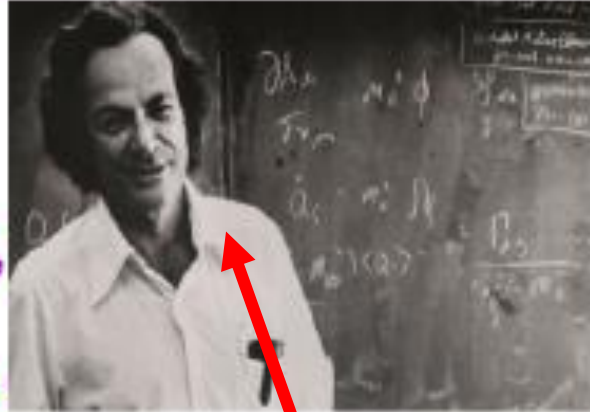


*L2: This is not Higgs*

## Example: Higgs

• EF

high quality  
reconstruction,  
improved  
ability to reject  
events



*L3/EF: This is not Higgs*

# Trigger efficiency

Enters in calculation of cross section:

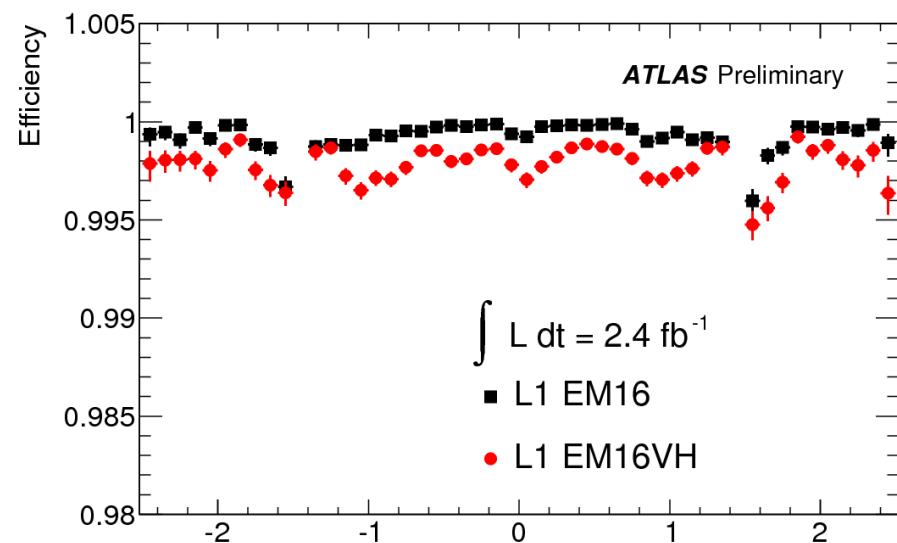
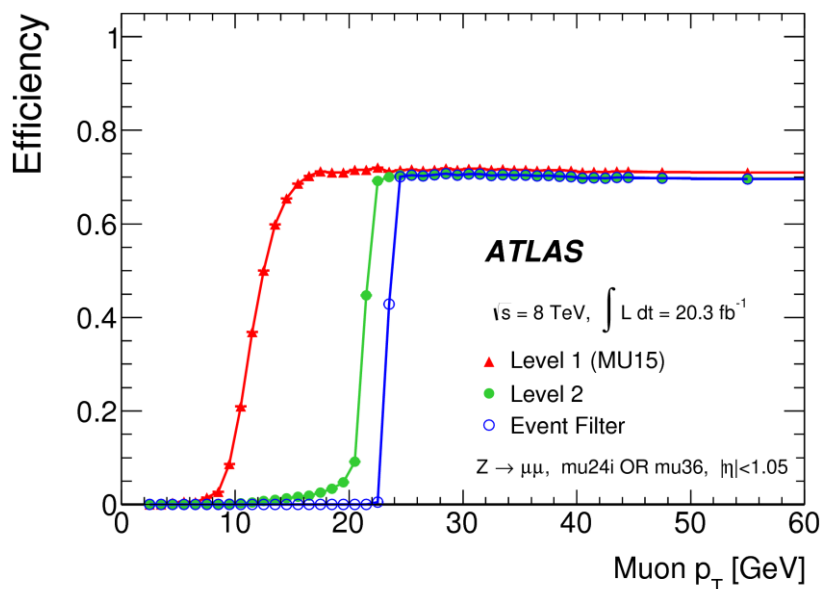
$$\sigma = \frac{N}{A \cdot \varepsilon \cdot \int L dt}$$

Acceptance

Efficiency

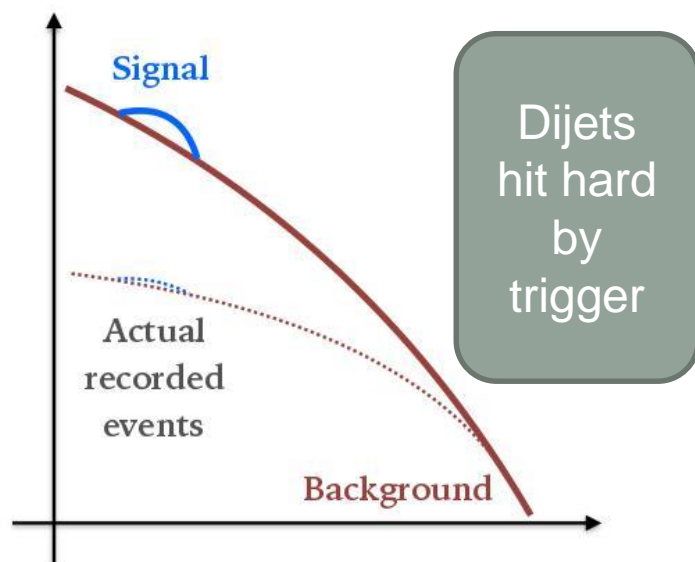
Integrated luminosity

Examples: ATLAS trigger:



# Online analysis: by-passing the trigger?

Number of events



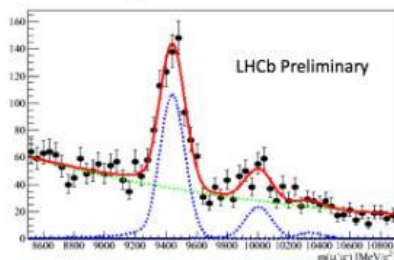
If we relax storage requirement  
Analysis can be done directly on first  
level trigger output

Detector performance/ resolution  
degraded  
-but not always a show stopper

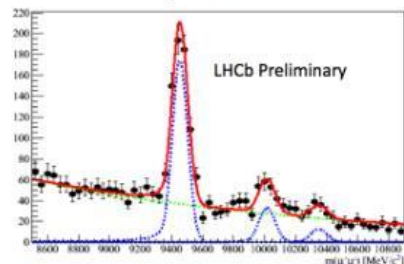
Run 2

Invariant mass distribution for  $\Upsilon \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$

First alignment  
 $\sigma_\Upsilon = 92 \text{ MeV}/c^2$



Better alignment  
 $\sigma_\Upsilon = 49 \text{ MeV}/c^2$



First attempts on-going at the LHC  
experiments

Raw data still not stored ...

# Summary/outlook

- Success often spells many different techniques
- Detector choice depends on conditions – almost always a compromise, signal vs background vs costs
- Triggers part of current detector technology
  - Events not triggered not stored → online analysis only
- Several challenges
  - Calibration always necessary
  - Radiation hardness – detectors affected by particle flux