FYST17 LECTURE 4 DETECTING AND IDENTIFYING PARTICLES

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

Today & next week:

- 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





A Detector cross section



Reminder: Cross section



- The "cross section", σ, can be thought of as the <u>effective</u> crosssectional 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





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 $(v_a + v_b)\delta t$

In time δt a particle of type a traverses region containing $n_b(v_a + v_b)A\delta t$ A 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 $\frac{n_b(v_a+v_b)A\delta t\sigma}{A} = n_b v \delta t\sigma$ $[v = v_a + v_b]$ Interaction Probability = 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:

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

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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 η

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

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

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

$$\int \ln \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{\theta}{2} + \frac{1}{2}$$

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

Example of use of η

Align beam direction with z axis The x-y plane is then transverse to the beam

i.e. :

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

$$\begin{array}{ll} \frac{\mathrm{d}\eta}{\mathrm{d}y} & \to & \frac{m_{\perp}}{p_{\perp}} \ \mathrm{for} \ p_{z} \to 0 \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}\eta}{\mathrm{d}y} & \to & 1 \ \mathrm{for} \ p_{z} \to \pm \infty \end{array}$$

So if the incremental flux dn/dy is flat for $y \cong 0$ then dn/d η 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 ($m_{incident}$ >> m_e), e.g. proton, k, π , μ $-\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = \frac{2\pi N_a r_e^2 m_e c^2}{I_a} \rho \frac{Z}{A \beta^2} \left[\ln(\frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2}{I^2} W_{\text{max}}) - 2\beta^2 - \delta(\beta\gamma) - \frac{C}{Z} \right]$ **Fundamental constants** $\frac{dE}{dx} \propto \frac{Z^2}{\beta^2} \ln\left(a\beta^2\gamma^2\right)$ r_e=classical radius of electron =0.1535 MeV cm²/g m_e=mass of electron N_a=Avogadro' s number c =speed of light Absorber medium = mean ionization potential Incident particle $r_e = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{m_e c^2}$ = atomic number of absorber z = charge of incident particle A = atomic weight of absorber = v/c of incident particle = density of absorber $= (1 - \beta^2)^{-1/2}$ γ = density correction W_{max} = max. energy transfer = shell correction in one collision

Bethe-Bloch formula

Low momentum: energy loss decreases as ~ $^{1}/_{\beta^{2}}$ (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

v

Q

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 β independently we can determine the particle mass.



The error on the sagitta, σ_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:

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

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 γ



Drift tubes

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



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)



Soft lepton Jet axis Secondary Vertex Primary vertex Impact parameter



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
Ø hits / track	3	8	~30
element size [µm]	50×400	80	4 mm
resolution [µm]	10×115	17×580	130
channels	8*10e7	6.3*10e6	3.5*10e5

2720.2 2505

2710

2115.2

1771.4

TRT end-cap

SCT end-cap

1399.7

1299.9

1091.5 934 848

853.8

580

Pixel

end-cap

650

400.5

Pixel barrel

z=0 mm

495

5 track parameters: d_0 , z_0 , ϕ_0 , θ , q/p

η = 1.4

η = 2.2 -

1106 mm

617 mm 560 mm

275 mm 149.6 mm 88.8 mm R=0 mm



For good tracking, needs:

p resolution

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

large B and L

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



The ATLAS tracker as seen by photon conversions



(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
- ✓ To be continued next week ...

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Calorimeters

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

Measured via secondary cascades



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

(n = #secondary cascade particles)In contrast to momentum resolution



Analytic shower model

Electromagnetic calorimeters



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





 $E_{visible}$ $f_{\it sampling}$

Energy resolution

• For EM calorimeters we can parameterise the resolution as



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

Sketches of ATLAS and CMS calorimeters



3x difference in sampling terms – other resolution terms similar

Hadron calorimeters Heavy Nucleus (e.g. U) Incoming hadron π^+ Ionization loss Ionization loss Intranuclear cascade Intranuclear cascade (Spallation 10-22 s) (Spallation 10-22 s) Internuclear cascade

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



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

Detecting Strips

Resistive plate





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 $\phi(1020)$.



Particle ID with Cherenkov detectors

<u>Charged</u>, relativistic particles in dielectric Polarization effect, Cherenkov photons emitted only if

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



Photosensitive Position Detector Charged Particle Charged Particle Chorenkov IIght Cone Freen Radiator

Simple geometric derivation gives the Cherenkov angle

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

Detector examples: Super-K , IceCube

Cherenkov - applications





Principle of:

RICH (Ring Imaging Cherenkov Counter) DIRC (Detection of Internally Reflected Cherenkov Light)





Magnetic Shield

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

Photon

Detectors

250 mrad

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







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 μs to s

Only limited-granulariy information available for the first trigger levels



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

Example: Higgs

L1 Coarse granularity



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:





Online analysis: by-passing the trigger?

Number of events



B. Storaci, CERN Seminar

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

First analyses/ 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 \rightarrow online analysis only
- Several challenges
 - Calibration always necessary
 - Radiation hardness detectors affected by particle flux