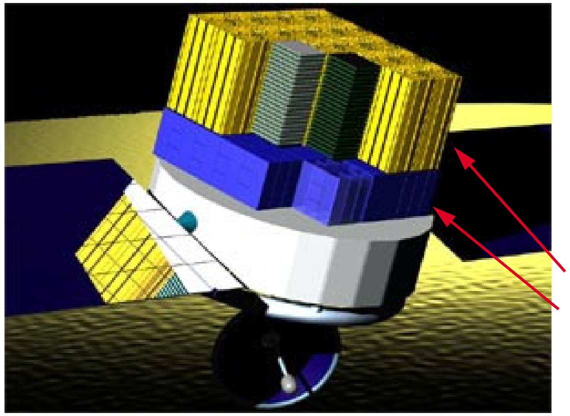
Satellite based Detectors

Liftoff scheduled for 2007



GLAST Gamma-Ray observatory for high energy photons in the range 20MeV to >300 GeV

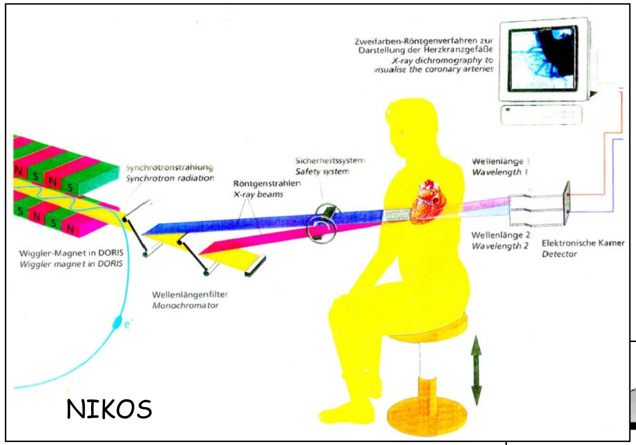
Astro particle physics

- history of star formation
- acceleration mechanism of AGN's
- sources of gamma ray bursts
- nature of dark matter

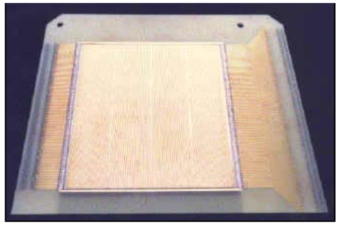
Components (need highest reliability !)

- precision tracker (Si-strips)
- calorimeter (CsI(Tl))
- data acquisition system
- anticoincidence detector

Applications in Medicine

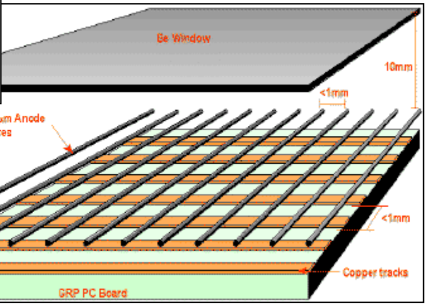


Non-invasive Koronary Angiography using synchrotron radiation



Imaging micrograp detector:

Photon rates ≈ 10^6 mm^{-2} s^{-1}



Interplay between Physics and Technology

Almost all effects used in particle detectors are based on the electromagnetic interaction only. Most modern detectors convert the absorbed energy into an electrical signal.

The detection sensitivity and performance depends on

- fluctuations in the detector
- fluctuations in the electronics

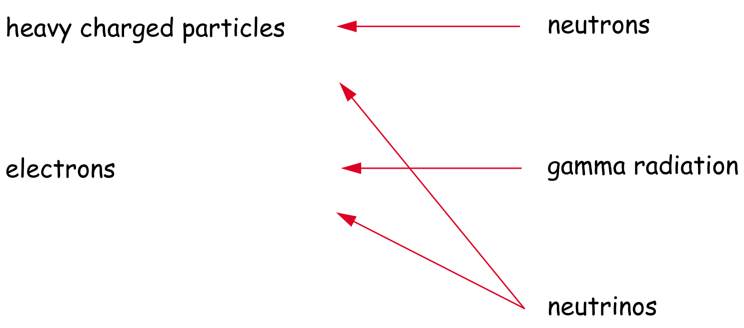
To maximize detection sensitivity and resolution one must consider

- signal formation in the detector
- coupling of the detector to the readout electronics
- fluctuations in the electronics

Understanding of e.g. a modern tracking detector in high-energy physics or a medical imaging system thus requires knowledge of

- solid state physics
- semiconductor device physics
- semiconductor fabrication technology
- low-noise electronics techniques
- analog and digital microelectronics
- high-speed data transmission
- computer-based data acquisition systems

Interaction of Radiation with Matter



Charged Particles

Neutral Particles

heavy charged particles ← neutrons

electrons ← gamma radiation

neutrinos

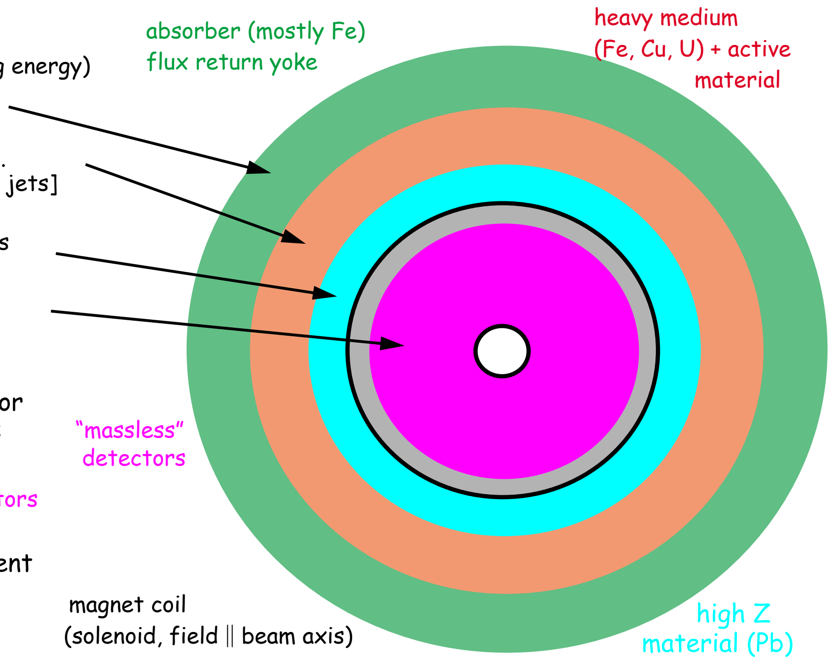
Coulomb-Interaction with electrons of medium

Mainly "singular" interactions, resulting in energy transfer to charged particles

Cross Section of Typical Collider Detector

Particle type:

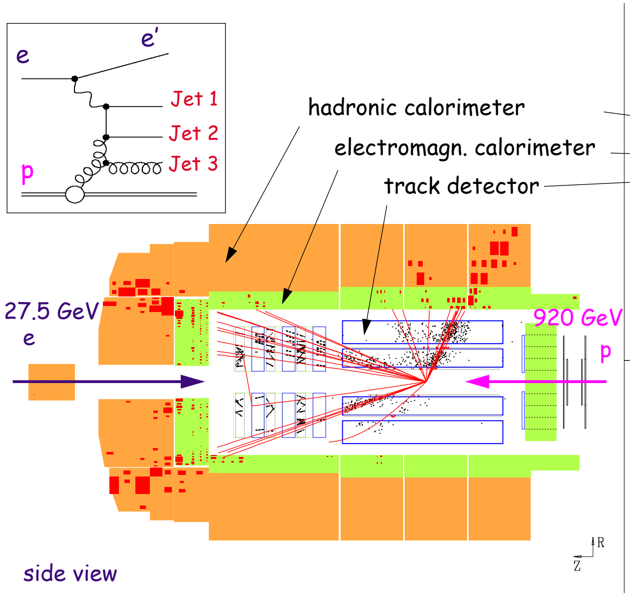
- neutrinos (missing energy)
- muons μ
- hadrons: p, π, K ...
  [quarks, gluons → jets]
- electrons, photons
- charged particles

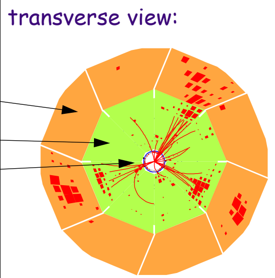


Rough classification

- track detectors for charged particles:
  - gas detectors
  - solid state detectors
- calorimeter for energy measurement
  - electromagnetic
  - hadronic

Example 1: HERA ep Event



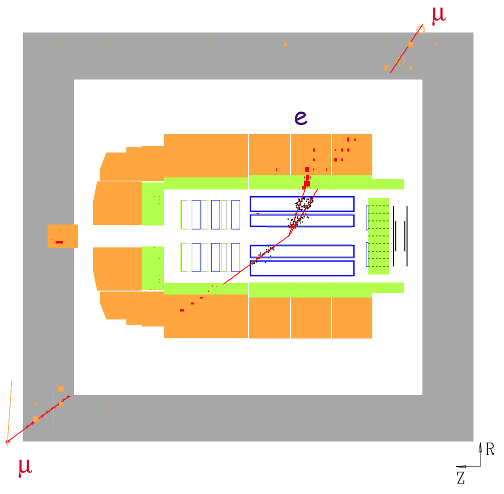


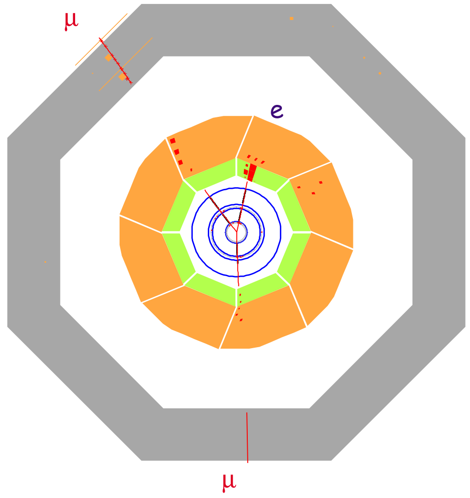
$$\sum_i \vec{p}_{trans} = 0$$

- almost hermetic detector
- ⇒ detection of nearly all produced particles
- exploit energy- and momentum conservation

Example 2: Muons

Because of their large mass (compared to electrons) muons can penetrate calorimeter and iron yoke

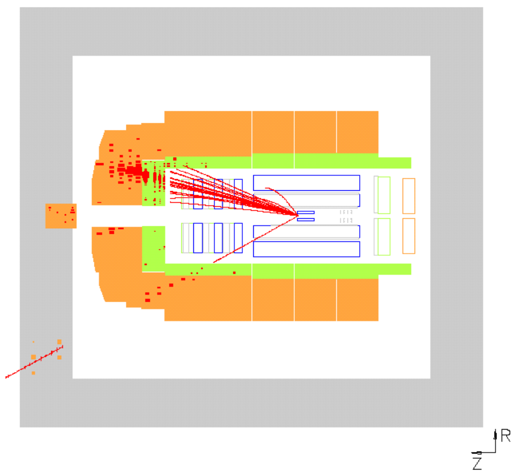




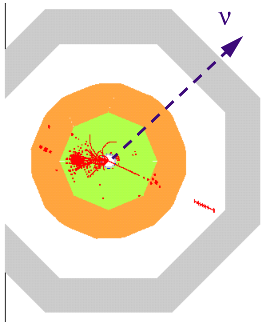
Example 3: Neutrinos

Event MUON-2

$$P_T^{\mu} = 28\,\mathrm{GeV}, P_T^{X} = 67\,\mathrm{GeV}, P_T^{miss} = 43\,\mathrm{GeV}$$



H1

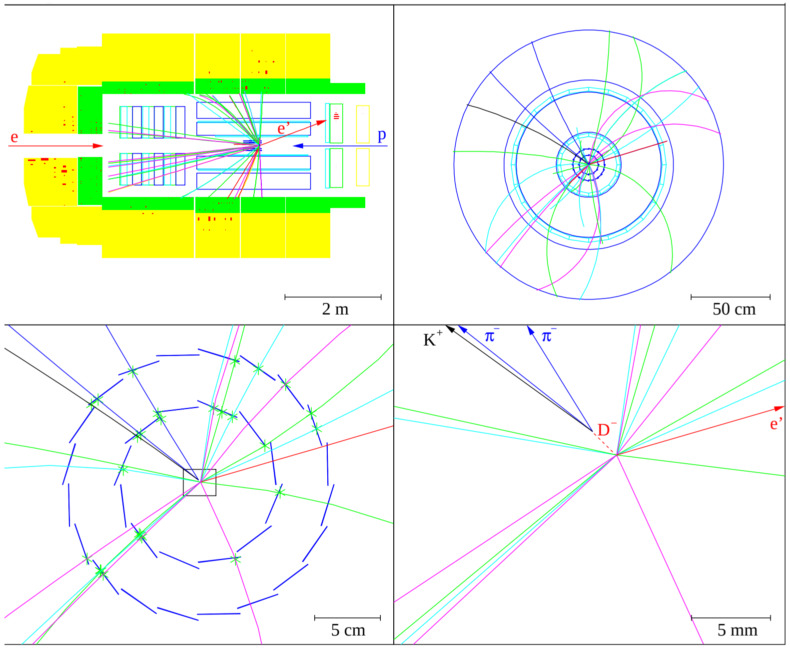


Missing transverse energy and transverse momentum:

$$\sum_i \vec{p}_{trans} = 43GeV$$

carried away by neutrino ?

Example 4: Secondary Vertices



Mesons containing heavy quarks (charm or beauty) can decay via the weak interaction.

example: $D^- \rightarrow K^+ \pi^- \pi^-$

Resulting lifetimes are relatively long:

- $\tau \approx O(10^{-12}s)$ or
- $c\tau \approx 100$ - $500\ \mu m$

With the help of high precision track detectors one can distinguish if particles originate from secondary or primary vertex:

⇒ vertex detectors [in most cases based on silicon]

Interaction of Charged Particles

There are two principal effects which characterize the passage of charged particles through matter:

- energy loss
- change of direction

both effects result from the following electromagnetic processes:

- inelastic collisions with shell electrons of medium
- elastic scattering off nuclei

relevant is the statistical sum of many such interactions.

In addition there are the following processes:

- bremsstrahlung
- emission of Cherenkov radiation
- nuclear reactions
- emission of transition radiation

which however in general occur much less frequent than atomic collisions.

For charged particles one must distinguish light particles (e^+, e^-) and heavy particles (i.e. all the rest: μ, π ,p , α , light nuclei)

Bethe-Bloch Formula

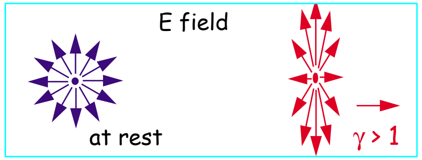
Energy loss by ionisation:

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = 4\pi N_A\, r_e^2 m_e c^2 z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \cdot \frac{1}{\beta^2} \cdot \left[\ln\frac{2m_e c^2\beta^2\gamma^2}{I} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta}{2}\right] \quad [\text{MeV/cm}]$$

- incident particle
  - $\beta = v/c$ velocity of particle
  - z charge of particle
- medium
  - Z, A of medium
  - $I \cong 16 \cdot Z^{0.9}$ average ionisation potential in [eV]
  - δ describes density effect due to polarisation of medium (⇒ saturation of relativistic rise)
- other constants
  - N_A Avogadro's number
  - $r_e = 2.8\, fm$ classical electron radius
  - m_e electron mass

Properties:

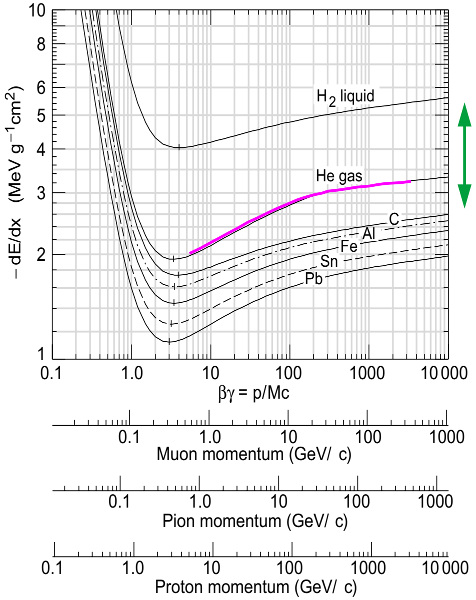
- dependence only on particle velocity not on particle mass
- at small energies
  - drops like $\propto 1/\beta^2$
- at relativistic energies i.e. $\beta\gamma \gg 1$
  - logarithmic rise $\propto \ln\beta\gamma = \ln E$



- approximate range of validity:

$$10\,\text{MeV/c} \le p \le 50\,\text{GeV/c}$$

Material Dependence



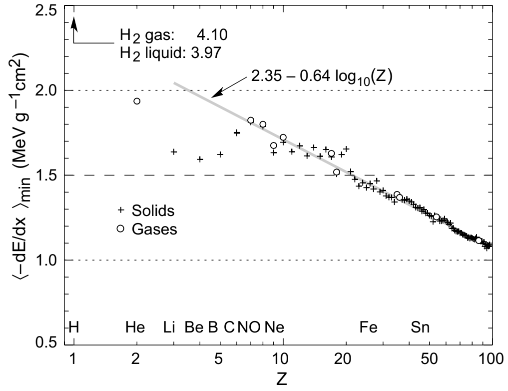
- logarithmic rise more pronounced for gases (He)

Energy loss is a function of Z/A, I, and the density ρ . Hence use instead :

$$X = x \cdot \rho \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{dE}{dX} = \frac{1}{\rho} \cdot \frac{dE}{dx} \quad [\text{MeV g}^{-1}\text{cm}^2].$$

⇒ dE/dX essentially a function of Z/A

"Stopping Power"



dE/dx Application for Detectors

Gas

- ionisation ⇒ proportional/drift chamber

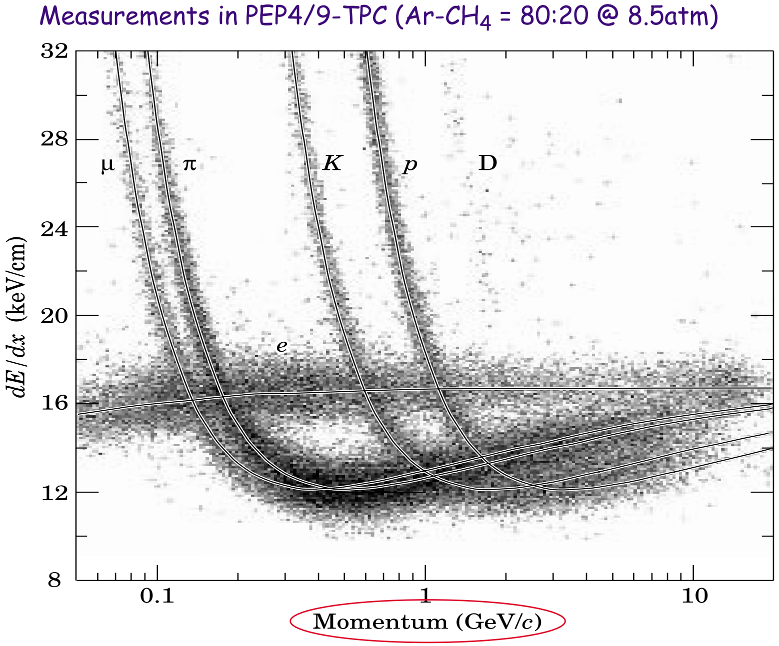
Liquid

- local heating ⇒ bubble chamber
- ionisation (LAr, LKr) ⇒ calorimeter

Solid State

- excitation of electrons
  → conversion into light ⇒ scintillators
- creation of electron-hole pairs ⇒ solid state detectors

dE/dx for different Particle Species



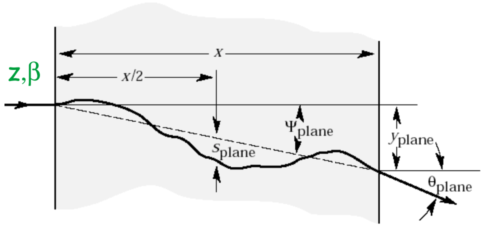
Measurements in PEP4/9-TPC (Ar-CH_4 = 80:20 @ 8.5atm)

- If dE/dx is plotted versus momentum of particle the curves are shifted for different masses
- Application: if also the momentum of the particle is known the measurement of the specific ionisation can be used for particle identification
- In this example each dot represents ≈185 single measurements in a drift chamber

Properties of some Materials (PDG)

Material	Z	A	$\langle Z/A\rangle$	Nuclear [a] collision length λ_T {g/cm^2}	Nuclear [a] interaction length λ_I {g/cm^2}	$dE/dx\|_{\min}$ [b] $\left\{\frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{g/cm}^2}\right\}$	Radiation length [c] X_0 {g/cm^2}	Radiation length [c] X_0 {cm}	Density {g/cm^3} ({g/ℓ} for gas)	Liquid boiling point at 1 atm(K)	Refractive index n ($(n-1)\times10^6$ for gas)
H_2 gas	1	1.00794	0.99212	43.3	50.8	(4.103)	61.28 [d]	(731000)	(0.0838)[0.0899]		[139.2]
H_2 liquid	1	1.00794	0.99212	43.3	50.8	4.034	61.28 [d]	866	0.0708	20.39	1.112
D_2	1	2.0140	0.49652	45.7	54.7	(2.052)	122.4	724	0.169[0.179]	23.65	1.128 [138]
He	2	4.002602	0.49968	49.9	65.1	(1.937)	94.32	756	0.1249[0.1786]	4.224	1.024 [34.9]
Li	3	6.941	0.43221	54.6	73.4	1.639	82.76	155	0.534		—
Be	4	9.012182	0.44384	55.8	75.2	1.594	65.19	35.28	1.848		—
C	6	12.011	0.49954	60.2	86.3	1.745	42.70	18.8	2.265 [e]		—
N_2	7	14.00674	0.49976	61.4	87.8	(1.825)	37.99	47.1	0.8073[1.250]	77.36	1.205 [298]
O_2	8	15.9994	0.50002	63.2	91.0	(1.801)	34.24	30.0	1.141[1.428]	90.18	1.22 [296]
F_2	9	18.9984032	0.47372	65.5	95.3	(1.675)	32.93	21.85	1.507[1.696]	85.24	[195]
Ne	10	20.1797	0.49555	66.1	96.6	(1.724)	28.94	24.0	1.204[0.9005]	27.09	1.092 [67.1]
Al	13	26.981539	0.48181	70.6	106.4	1.615	24.01	8.9	2.70		—
Si	14	28.0855	0.49848	70.6	106.0	1.664	21.82	9.36	2.33		3.95
Ar	18	39.948	0.45059	76.4	117.2	(1.519)	19.55	14.0	1.396[1.782]	87.28	1.233 [283]
Ti	22	47.867	0.45948	79.9	124.9	1.476	16.17	3.56	4.54		—
Fe	26	55.845	0.46556	82.8	131.9	1.451	13.84	1.76	7.87		—
Cu	29	63.546	0.45636	85.6	134.9	1.403	12.86	1.43	8.96		—
Ge	32	72.61	0.44071	88.3	140.5	1.371	12.25	2.30	5.323		—
Sn	50	118.710	0.42120	100.2	163	1.264	8.82	1.21	7.31		—
Xe	54	131.29	0.41130	102.8	169	(1.255)	8.48	2.87	2.953[5.858]	165.1	[701]
W	74	183.84	0.40250	110.3	185	1.145	6.76	0.35	19.3		—
Pt	78	195.08	0.39984	113.3	189.7	1.129	6.54	0.305	21.45		—
Pb	82	207.2	0.39575	116.2	194	1.123	6.37	0.56	11.35		—
U	92	238.0289	0.38651	117.0	199	1.082	6.00	≈0.32	≈18.95		—
Air, (20°C, 1 atm.), [STP]			0.49919	62.0	90.0	(1.815)	36.66	[30420]	(1.205)[1.2931]	78.8	(273) [293]
H_2O			0.55509	60.1	83.6	1.991	36.08	36.1	1.00	373.15	1.33
CO_2 gas			0.49989	62.4	89.7	(1.819)	36.2	[18310]	[1.977]		[410]

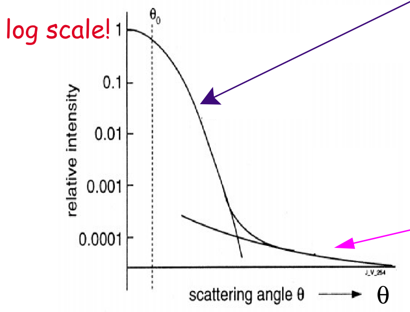
Multiple Scattering



Scattering of charged particles off the atoms in the medium causes a change of direction:

- the statistical sum of many such small angle scatterings results in a gaussian angular distribution with a width given by:

$$\theta_0 = \frac{13.6\text{MeV}}{\beta pc} z \sqrt{\frac{x}{X_0}}\left[1 + 0.038 \ln\left(\frac{x}{X_0}\right)\right]$$



- example: p = 1 GeV/c, d = 300μm Si, X_0=9.4cm
  ⇒ $\theta_0 \approx 0.8$ mrad
  for 10cm distance this means 80μm !
- the less likely scattering off the atomic nuclei causes large scattering angles resulting in a deviation from a gaussian distribution at large angles

Summary

- properties of different particles requires many different types of detectors
- rough classification
  - track/position detectors (non destructive) → Part II
  - calorimeters (destructive) → Part III
- basically all detectors based on electromagnetic interaction
- detectors also more and more used for other applications (e.g. medical appl.)

- energy loss of charged particles: Bethe Bloch
  - $z^2/\beta^2 \rightarrow \ln E$ → Fermiplateau
  - minimum at $\beta\gamma \approx 3$: 1-2 MeV per gcm^{-2}

- multiple scattering
  - gaussian distribution: angular spread $\theta_0 \sim \frac{1}{p}\sqrt{\frac{x}{X_0}}$
  - deviation due to large angle scattering (nuclei)