Chapter 3

Particle Detection and Detector Layout

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Need to convert the presence of a particle into a measurable signal!

Historically: Angular distributions in scattering experiments measured by detecting light flashes with the human eye

1919 Evidence for hard nucleus in atom Rutherford et al.

Visible light:

 $E_{vis.light} \approx eV \Rightarrow Light \ creation \ by \\ low \ energy \ parts \ of \ particle \ cascade$



How is the light produced?

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Scintillators

Convert dE/dx \rightarrow Photons (light)

Anorganic:

High Z High absorption for γ

Simple crystal structure

Radiation hard

EM-calorimetry

Compact (X_0 , R_M)

Organic:

Low Z Low absorption for γ

Complex organic molecules

Less radiation hard

Trigger, hodoscope

Charged particles, neutrons



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Combine different materials to optimise light yield of scintillator Avoid identical absorption and emission levels



Requirements to additional component(s):

- Good solvability in ground material
- large fluorescence yield
- Absorption edge of component = Emission edge of ground material



Employed in: High precision gamma spectroscopy Measurement of charged particles with E < 1 MeV

Vertex finding, I.e. determining the interaction of a high energy reaction ...

... but also in modern calorimeters

Takes relatively small energy deposition to create a signal

Comparison: O(100 eV) to create a γ -quant in a scintillator 3.6 eV to create a electron-hole pair in silicon



Principle of particle detection



p+ doted region

Extension of depletion zone 300 μ m Specific resistance of depletion zone $10k\Omega m$

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Ionization of the detector material - Bethe Bloch

Charge collection in an electrical field

(E-Field extends over depletion zone, capacitance)

Electronic amplification and measurement of the signal

Number of charges is proportional to deposited energy

Segmentation of electrodes allows for high spatial resolution 7



pn-transition in reverse biasing mode



- Semiconducting detectors based in pn-transition which is connected in reverse-biasing
- E-Field is given by Poissonian Equation

$$\frac{d^2\phi}{dx^2} = \frac{e}{\varepsilon\varepsilon_0} (N_A - N_D + x_p - x_n)$$

 N_A = Acceptor Concentr. N_D = Donator Concentr. x_p = Thickness of depletion region p+-side x_n = Thickness of depletion region n-side Linear in region of depletion zone

- For a highly doted p type layer on a n-type substrate the total thickness of the depletion zone is given by

 $x_n + x_p \approx \sqrt{\frac{2\varepsilon\varepsilon_0}{eN_D}}V$ V = Bias Voltage

- Dark current by thermal fluctuations



Silicon photomultipliers

- A pixelated solid state Geiger counter (semi-conducting)
 - 1000 pixels on 1mm²
 - Gain 10**6, efficiency 10..15%
 - At 50 V typical bias voltage









Silicon photomultipliers cnt'd





Huge step in quality of SiPM in last decade

- ~Since 2003 MePHI/Pulsar (RU)
- ~Since 2006 Hamamatsu
- Recently Chinese producers

Silicon photomultipliers have many applications Inside and outside of particle physics

- Calorimeters for future e+e- colliders Tile Hcal, Dual readout, Scintillator Ecal



- HL-LHC Calorimeters
- Medical applications e.g. Endoscopy



Gaseous materials - RPC

RPC = Resistive Plate Chamber



D. Boumediene

- Primary Ionization in gas volume
- Acceleration in strong electric field (typically 5-10 kV between cathode and anode)
- \Rightarrow Lots of secondary ionisation
- \Rightarrow Measurable charge



Why Resistive Plate Chambers



Requires

 -Careful choice of resistive material (typically glass with resistive coating
-Control of the gas -> maintain avalanche mode, avoid saturation



Basic Principle: Charged particle ionizes liquid gas

embedded in an electrical field



Collection of Electrons at Anode: $v_{D,e-} = 4.5 \text{ mm/}\mu \text{s in LAr}$ $v_{D,lon} = 10^{4*}v_{De-}$

Liquie Noble gases have relatively small X_0 , I int => compact detectors Liquid Noble Gases have small electrongativity

i.e. no desire to capture drifting electrons since all atomic shells are filled



Ionizing particle (electron) creates line charge in Noble Gas

Current induced at Anode: $I_{lin}(t) = N_e \cdot e \frac{1}{t_D^2}(t_D - t)$ $t_D = d_{gap}/v_D$

Charge collected after t_D:
$$Q_0^{lin} = \int_0^{t_D} I_{lin}(t) dt = \int_0^{t_D} N_e e \frac{1}{t_D^2} (t_D - t) dt = \frac{1}{2} N_e e$$

Strongly ionizing particle with low energy creates point charge

Current induced at Anode:

$$I_p = \frac{N_e e v_D}{d_p} = const.$$

d_p = Point of creation of point charge

Charge collected after t_D : $Q_0^p(t) = N_e e$



A Calorimeter is a block of Matter



Typically it is subdivided into smaller Units called calorimeter cells

• The subdivision is not necessary for the energy measurement

... and even not really desired to keep highest Precision

→ Homogeneous calorimeters

But subdivision usually provides important spatial information on impact points

 \rightarrow Homogeneous calorimeters typcially come in a

« set of blocks »



Longitudinal Segmentation of a Calorimeter



Typically Calorimeters are subdivided longitudinally by alternating active and passive layers

'Sandwich Calorimeter'

A suited twofold segmentation allows already for distinction between e,g and hadrons sinc $\lambda_{int} >> X_0$

Typical for calorimeters with organic scintillators

longitudinal segmentation technically diffcult for Crystal Calorimeters Future calorimeters try to introduce Longitudinal segmentation



SpaCal – "Spaghetti Calorimeter"

Example H1 Experiment (1992-2007 @ HERA) Lead/Scintillating Fibre Matrix



Scintillating Files embedded in lead Ratio Lead/Fibre 2.27:1 Scintillation Light from fibres guided to PMT by lightmixers

 \Rightarrow Quasi homogenous Structure

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