Particle physics: lecture 2 Particle detectors

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ELEMENTARY PARTICLE PROCESSES: DECAYS

Elementary processes are of two types: *decays* and *scattering*.

- Stable particles: proton, electron, neutrinos, photon
- All other hadrons and leptons, W[±]/Z, and Higgs, decay, i.e., "break up" in various ways yielding ultimately stable particles.



- Quasi-stable final states, as far as particle detection goes: $\pi^{\pm}, K^{\pm}, \mu^{\pm}$
- These show up as charged tracks in trackers, but left alone long enough, they will ultimately undergo weak decay.

Q: check what are the allowed decays for $\pi^{\pm}, K^{\pm}, \mu^{\pm}$?

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LIFETIME

Typical life span of unstable particles:

• Half-life, $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$: time in which half of a large sample of unstable particles of some type decays. Proper lifetime, $\tau = t_{\frac{1}{2}}/\ln 2$

Empirically, decay rate (prob. of decay/unit time/particle) is t-independent

$dP=\Gamma dt$

 $dP {:}\xspace$ probability for a particle to decay over infinitesimal time interval dt

 $\Gamma = \sum_{i} \Gamma_{i}$: total decay width, time-independent total decay rate Γ_{i} : partial decay width, decay rate in channel i

Particles decay independently from each other, sample size N(t) obeys

$$dN(t) = -\Gamma N(t)dt \Rightarrow N(t) = N(0)e^{-\Gamma t} = N(0)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} , \quad \tau \equiv \Gamma^{-1}$$

 Γ_i/Γ : branching ratio (or fraction) of channel *i* (relative probability that the decay will take place through channel *i*)

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- The Particle Data Group (PDG) lists the known decay modes and their partial widths.
- Shown below for the $\Lambda(1115)$ strange baryon (link):

Decay Modes			Expand all of	decays
Mode		Fraction (Γ_i / Γ) Scale Factor/ Conf. Level	P(MeV/c)	
Γ_1	$p\pi^-$	$(64.1\pm0.5)\%$	101	~
Γ_2	$n\pi^0$	$(35.9 \pm 0.5)\%$	104	~
Γ_3	$n\gamma$	$(8.3\pm0.7) imes10^{-4}$	162	~
Γ_4	$p\pi^-\gamma$	$^{[1]}$ $(8.5\pm1.4) imes10^{-4}$	101	~
Γ_5	$pe^-\overline{\nu}_e$	$(8.34\pm0.14) imes10^{-4}$	163	~
Γ_6	$p\mu^-\overline{ u}_\mu$	$(1.51\pm0.19) imes10^{-4}$	131	~

TYPICAL LIFETIMES

• Fundamental particles have a wide range of lifetimes. The proton lifetime is > age of the universe!



• Note: only *proper* lifetime (τ) is really meaningful. That is, the lifetime in the particle's rest frame.

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TYPICAL LIFETIMES (CNTD.)

particle	main decay mode	lifetime
μ^-	$\mu^- \to e^- \nu_\mu \bar{\nu}_e$	$2.2 \cdot 10^{-6}s$
n	$n \to p e^- \bar{\nu}_e$	$8.8\cdot 10^2 s$
p	??	> age of Universe
π^+	$\pi^+ \to \mu^+ \nu_\mu$	$2.6\cdot10^{-8}s$
π^0	$\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$	$8.4 \cdot 10^{-17} s$
Δ^0	$\Delta^0 \to p \pi^-, n \pi^0$	$5.6 \cdot 10^{-24} s$

- Long lifetimes: weak coupling or some sort of suppression (phase-space, Cabibbo, GIM).
- EM decays have intermediate lifetimes
- Strongly decaying particles have shortest lifetimes and therefore largest decay widths.

LINESHAPES

- Particles don't have a mass *per se*, but lineshapes.
- Uncertainty principle: lifetime $\propto 1/\text{decay-width}$



• Broad resonance: $\rho^0(770) \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$: $M_0 \sim 770$ MeV, $\Gamma_0 \sim 145$ MeV.

LINESHAPES (CONTD.)

• Experimentally, what we see are often much more complicated.



- Two hadronic resonances "mixing" while decaying to $\pi^+\pi^-$.
- Lineshapes reveal underlying dynamics.

Q: check the properties of the ρ^0 and ω^0 mesons in PDG

ELEMENTARY PARTICLE PROCESSES: SCATTERING

- High energy collisions are our main tool to produce new heavy particles. Different colliders for different purposes.
- Highest energy collisions today are at the LHC: two proton beams at 7 TeV.
- Fixed-target and beam-dump experiments: high intensity photon/proton/pion/kaon beam on proton target



- SuperKEKB (Japan): e^+e^- collisions at precisely 10.58 GeV mass to produce only a *B*-meson pair. Clean environment.
- LBNF (Fermilab): protons on graphite → pions → muons + neutrinos. Intense neutrino beam!

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Collisions to particle detectors



- Infer interesting physics from end products.
- Detector's job is to identify and measure energy/momentum of final state particles (stuff the detector "sees"): charged tracks (π^{\pm} , K^{\pm} , e^{\pm} , p^{\pm} , μ^{\pm}), photons and may be neutrons.
- Detector interaction will be non-invasive (charged trackers) or absorbing (neutral calorimeters)?

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MODERN PARTICLE DETECTORS: "ONION LAYERS"

- Collision point cocooned inside layers of detectors.
- CMS detector at the LHC:



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SLICING THE "ONION"

• Slice of the CMS detector at the LHC:



• Sequence of the onion shells have to be carefully planned: trackers come first...muon chambers last.

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EARLY DETECTORS: HUMAN EYE

• The most obvious one. Sensitive and versatile photodetector.



• Can't measure the energy and works only at low rates.

EARLY DETECTORS: PHOTO PLATES



- X-rays discovered by Roentgen in 1895.
- AgBr/AgCl + energy \Rightarrow metallic (black) silver.

• Image era: photographs in cloud chambers, emulsions, bubble chambers. First 30 odd particles discovered this way.

COSMIC RAYS AS PARTICLE SOURCE



- How to produce new particles when we did not have accelerators? Cosmics are high; y energetic particles showering through the atmosphere. Mostly muons at sea level.
- Extremely useful source of "free" muons even today.

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COSMIC RAYS AS PARTICLE SOURCE (CNTD.)

Particle	Source of radiation	Specific behaviour or measurement	Instrument used for detection
e ⁻ Electron	Discharge tube	Ratio of e/m	Fluorescent screen, 1897
n Neutron	Polonium (α) + Be	Mass determination from elastic collisions	lonisations chambers, and confirmation with a Wilson cloud chamber, 1932
e ⁺ Positon	Cosmic rays	Ratio of e/m	Wilson cloud chamber, 1933
μ⁺ μ⁻ Muon	Cosmic rays	Absence of radiation loss in passage through Pb. (Also decay at rest)	Wilson cloud chamber, 1937
π⁺π⁻ Pion	Cosmic rays	$\pi\mu$ decay at rest	Nuclear emulsion, 1947
π ⁰ Pion	Accelerator	Decay into γ-rays	Counters, 1950
K⁺ Kaon	Cosmic rays	Measurement of radius of curvature	Wilson cloud chamber, 1944
K⁻ Kaon	Cosmic rays	$K_{\pi3}$ decay	Nuclear emulsion, 1949
K ^o Kaon	Cosmic rays	Decay into $\pi^+ + \pi^-$ at rest	Wilson cloud chamber, 1946
Λº Lambda	Cosmic rays	Decay in flight into $p^+ + \pi^-$	Wilson cloud chamber, 1950
∃ Xi	Cosmic rays	Decay in flight into $p + \Lambda^0$	Wilson cloud chamber, 1954
Σ [.] Sigma	Accelerator	Decay in flight into π + n	Diffusion chamber, 1954

WILSON' CLOUD CHAMBER





- Super-saturated water vapour. Charged particles traversing condense the vapour, leaving a trail.
- CTR Wilson discovered in 1911. Clean images led to many discoveries. Nobel Prize in 1927.

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WILSON' CLOUD CHAMBER (CNTD.)

- First tracking detector: magnetic could chamber.
- Bending tells you the charge \Rightarrow discovery of antielectron.



• Hard to make larger detectors for more penetrating tracks.

GLASER'S BUBBLE CHAMBER (1952)

- Same idea, replace medium with superheated liquid (H_2, D_2) . Charged particles leave tracks of bubbles as liquid boils. Nobel prize in 1960.
- Larger volumes, sharper images and can be reset quickly.



• CERN bubble chamber, used to study weak decays in the '70's.

• Superconducting solenoidal magnet to bend tracks. Millions of photos!



IMAGE ERA TO ELECTRONICS ERA: TRIGGERS

- Bubble chambers could provide $\sim 5\mu m$ track resolutions and full 4π hermetic acceptance. But impossibly slow rates (few Hz).
- No concept of trigger (selectively retain events) \Rightarrow mandatory at LHC rates (> 10⁹ Hz).



• Need electronic trigger logic. Since '70's, Geiger counters, scintillators+photomultipliers, spark chambers...

TRIGGER: PHYSICS IN A HEARTBEAT

- e⁺e⁻ colliders (BaBar/Belle): every collision is clean signal. Detector records (almost) everything.
- Hadron colliders (LHC): huge rates, but mostly uninteresting events. Triggering is key. Need to decide which events to write out to tape...



DETECTOR ACCEPTANCE

- Acceptance (or efficiency) = $N_{\text{reconstructed}}/N_{\text{incident}}$
- Uninstrumented regions (holes): invariably lead to loss of acceptance (c.f. bubble chambers).
- Can also be due to geometry (motivated by physics):



• Must recover back the full acceptance: simulation of the detector geometry/material + physics processes (Geant4 toolkit) key.

TYPICAL SIGNATURES OF PARTICLES



• Neutrino \Rightarrow missing energy @ colliders.

Typical signatures of particles (CNTD.)



• Neutral photons leave no hits in the SPD (scintillating pad detector). Enables separation between EM clusters due to photons from electrons.

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CHARGED PARTICLE INTERACTIONS

- (Multiple) elastic scattering in the detector material. Nuisance mostly degrades resolutions.
- Ionisation of electrons inside material atoms producing minuscule currents that have to be amplified. Basis of tracking detectors (silicon, drift chambers).
- Photon emission:
 - Bremsstrahlung: fast particles (especially electrons) loses energy by radiation due to interaction with nuclei. Major problem for electron tracking, compared to muons.
 - Cherenkov radiation: charged particle travelling in dense medium a speeds greater that speed of light in the medium, emits cone of light. Used for $K/\pi/p$ separation.
 - Scintillation light: optical photons emitted (plastic or inorganic) that are read out and amplified. Fiber trackers, calorimeter readouts.

$\langle dE/dx \rangle$ and Bethe-Bloch

• Energy loss by ionisation for $m \ge m_{\mu}$ given by Bethe-Bloch:

$$-\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx}\right\rangle = Kz^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2 T_{\max}}{I^2} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta(\beta\gamma)}{2}\right]$$

- Material effectively described by Z/A (Z is atomic number, A is atomic mass)
- Loss is $\propto 1/\beta^2$, $\beta = v/c$. If the momentum is known (from tracking), $\langle dE/dx \rangle$ gives the mass.
- PID: particle identification.

$\langle dE/dx\rangle$ dependence on momentum



• MIP: minimum ionising particle (relativistic).

$\langle dE/dx \rangle$ dependence on Z/A



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$\langle dE/dx\rangle$ for PID

• $\langle dE/dx \rangle$ measurements from the BaBar drift chambers



• Several sub-detectors contribute to multivariate PID discriminator. In particular, Cherenkov (RICH) detectors...

RING IMAGING CHERENKOV DETECTORS

- Just like sonic boom. n is the refractive index of the medium.
- Cone angle produces rings, for different momenta.



RICH PID IN ACTION...



pions/kaons/protons produce distinguishable rings critical to "flavor" physics



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THE SILICON REVOLUTION

- Silicon trackers: Indispensable in almost any modern particle detector today.
- Huge improvements, closely tied to the semi-conductor industry
- Cost-effective, high granularity (pixels, microstrips), high resolution (μm) , radiation-hard, low material budget: effectively the *only* solution close to the collision point.
- Cons: needs cooling (often $< -40^{\circ}$ C), and gets expensive for very large areas. Large number of readout channels (10^{7} at ATLAS/CMS Si trackers).

PRECISION VERTEXING

• VeLo sits just 7 mm away from the LHC beam! Femtosecond decay-time resolution



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SILICON TECHNOLOGY

- Silicon is a semiconductor and can be doped. *p*-type and *n*-type. *p*-*n* junction is depleted of charge carriers.
- Reverse bias (p-type to -, and n-type to +) further increases this depletion region.
- Ionization due to charged particle creates e^{-} - h^{+} pairs and a current (3.6 eV/pair, 80 pairs/ μm).



TOWARDS THE FUTURE: TIMING INFO (LGAD)

• High-luminosity LHC: pp bunch crossing every 25 ns. Pileup (interactions/bunch crossing) > 200.



• Just high spatial granularity won't do: primary vertices (pp collision point) are also separated in time. Need $\mathcal{O}(20)$ ps res.



CALORIMETERS

- Till now we wanted the detector material to be as less invasive as possible, to limit loss of resolution.
- Calorimeters: opposite. Ensure that all the energy is absorbed (and measured) inside detector. Resolution improves with energy.

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \otimes \frac{b}{E} \otimes c$$

- $a: \frac{\sigma_E}{E} \sim 1/\sqrt{n} \sim 1/\sqrt{E}$. Stochastic term, intrinsic property. For sampling calorimeters, 5-20%.
- b: noise term. Electronic noise from readout chain $\sim 1\%$.
- c: constant term. Non-uniformities in the material/readout.
- Note: energy resolution (σ_E) improves with energy, unlike trackers where the momentum resolution is poorer at high momentum.

SHOWER PROPAGATION: ECAL AND HCAL

• Shower shape: photon/electron (EM, ECal) vs proton/pion/kaon (nuclear, HCAL). Different calorimeters to "catch" the particles.



RADIATION LENGTH FOR EM SHOWERS



• Dominant processes at high energies. $\sigma_{\gamma}^{\text{pair}} = 7/9\sigma_e^{\text{brem}}$.

$$\sigma_{\gamma}^{\text{pair}} = 7/9\sigma_{e}^{\text{brem}}$$

$$\approx \frac{7}{9}4\alpha r_{e}^{2}Z^{2}\ln\frac{183}{Z^{1/3}} = \frac{7}{9}\frac{A}{N_{A}X_{0}}$$

- Brem energy loss: $E = E_0 e^{-x/X_0}$. $X_0 \sim 180 A/Z^2 [g/cm^{-2}]$
- High Z material for EM calorimetery. For Pb, $X_0 \sim 5.6$ mm.



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• Critical energy E_c : bream + pair prod dominates $E > E_c$. Below, ionisation, Compton eff. and photo el. eff.

•
$$E_c = 610/(Z + 1.24)$$
 MeV. For Pb,
 $E_c = 7.3$ MeV.

Shower propagation and shapes



- Depth is in units of X_0
- Longitudinal: $t_{\text{max}} = \frac{\ln E_0/E_c}{\ln 2}$ where the profile peaks.
- Transverse size given by $R_M = \frac{21MeV}{E_c} X_0.$
- Smaller R_M is preferred \Rightarrow compact showers
- Radial shower containment: 90%(95%) at $R_M(2R_M)$

EXAMPLES OF CALORIMETERS: HOMOGENOUS

- Primarily two types: homogenous and sampling.
- Homogenous detector: single medium, both absorber and detector. Entire energy absorbed. Excellent resolutions.
- Liq. Ar/Xe/Kr. Dense crystals (PbWO₄, CsI(TI)), or organic scintillators.



- Almost entirely for ECal.
- 3-d shower profile not accessible (important for shower effective position).



EXAMPLES OF CALORIMETERS: SAMPLING TYPE



LHCb ECal

- Sandwich absorbers (Pb/W/Cu) by active detectors like scintillators
- Poorer resolutions since only part of the full energy sampled.
- Used in both ECal and HCal.
- Rule of thumb: at least $25X_0$ thick absorbers needed.

NUCLEAR INTERACTION LENGTH

- Similar to X_0 , but for hadronic interactions, nuclear interaction length, $\lambda_n \sim A^{1/3}$.
- For the same material, $\lambda_n > 6X_0$. Therefore, hadronic showers start much later, than EM showers.

	Z	Density	Е	$X_{ heta}$	λ (=
		g.cm ⁻³	MeV	cm	cm
Fe	26	7.9	24	1.76	16.8
Cu	29	9.0	20	1.43	15.1
W	74	19.3	8	0.35	9.6
Pb	82	11.4	7	0.56	17.1
U	92	19.0	6	0.32	10.5

• Typically > $9\lambda_n$ of material to fully contain the showers. HCal's are always sampling type.

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LHCB ECAL/HCAL COMPARISON

• Schematic comparison between ECal/HCal at the LHCb experiment:



NEXT PARADIGM: 5D CALORIMETRY

• At HiLumi-LHC, tracker + calorimeter + timing: detailed jet reconstruction.

