Detectors in Nuclear and Particle Physics

Prof. Dr. Johanna Stachel

Department of Physics und Astronomy University of Heidelberg

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7. Particle Identification

7 Particle Identification

- Time of Flight Measurement
- Specific Energy Loss
- Transition Radiation
- Cherenkov Radiation

Particle identification - parameters

in general, momentum of a particle measured in a spectrometer <u>and</u> another observable is used to identify the species

- velocity
 - time-of-flight $~~ au \sim 1/eta$
 - Cherenkov threshold $\ eta > 1/n$
 - transition radiation $~~\gamma\gtrsim 1000~~$ for e/π separation
- energy loss

$$- - rac{dE}{dx} \sim rac{z^2}{eta^2} \ln a eta \gamma$$

- energy measurement
 - calorimeter (chap. 8)

$$E = \gamma m_0 c^2$$

$$T = (\gamma - 1)m_0 c^2 \text{ (deposited for } p, n, nuclei)$$

$$E_{dep} = \gamma m_0 c^2 + m_0 c^2 \text{ (for } \bar{p}, \bar{n}, \ldots)$$

Special signatures

photon

- total energy in crystal or electromagnetic sampling calorimeter
 - + information on neutrality

neutron

- energy in calorimeter or scintillator with Li, B, or ${}^{3}\text{He}$ + information on neutrality

muon

- only dE/dx in thick calorimeter, penetrates thick absorber K^0 , Λ , Ξ , Ω , ...

- reconstruction of m_{inv} of weak decay products

neutrino

- only weak interaction with detector material, either as charged or neutral current

7.1 Time of flight τ

time difference between two detectors with good time resolution: 'start' and 'stop'-counter

- typically scintillator or resistive plate chamber, also calorimeter (neutrons)
- coincidence set-up or put all signals as stop into TDC (time-to-digital converter) with common start (or stop) from 'beam' or 'interaction'



for known distance L between start and stop counters, time-of-flight difference of two particles with masses $m_{1,2}$ and energies $E_{1,2}$:

$$\Delta t = \tau_1 - \tau_2 = \frac{L}{c} \left(\frac{1}{\beta_1} - \frac{1}{\beta_2} \right)$$

$$\Delta t = rac{L}{c} \left(\sqrt{rac{1}{1 - (m_1 c^2 / E_1)^2}} - \sqrt{rac{1}{1 - (m_2 c^2 / E_2)^2}}
ight)$$

limiting case
$$E \simeq pc \gg m_0 c^2$$
 $\Delta t = rac{Lc}{2p^2}(m_1^2 - m_2^2)$

require for clean separation e.g. $\Delta t \geq 4\sigma_t$

 \Rightarrow separation K/π at L = 3 m for $\sigma_t = 100$ ps possible up to p = 3 GeV/c

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{Cherenkov counter or RPC's} & \sigma_t \simeq 40 \mbox{ ps} \\ \mbox{scintillator} + \mbox{PM} & \sigma_t \simeq 80 \mbox{ ps} \end{array}$

Difference in time-of-flight for L = 1 m



but of course distance *L* can be larger

\$\$ detector area for a given acceptance

particle identification (PID) via time-of-flight at moderate momenta \rightarrow mass resolution:

 $p = \beta \gamma m$ with rest mass m, $\beta = L/\tau$ (here exceptionally c = 1 for short notation) $\Rightarrow m^2 = p^2 \left(\frac{\tau^2}{I^2} - 1\right)$ $\delta(m^2) = 2p\delta p\left(\frac{\tau^2}{L^2} - 1\right) + 2\tau\delta\tau\frac{p^2}{L^2} - 2\frac{\delta L}{L^3}p^2\tau^2$ m^2/p^2 use $\frac{p^2\tau^2}{r^2} = m^2 + p^2 = E^2$ $= 2m^2 \frac{\delta p}{R} + 2E^2 \frac{\delta \tau}{\tau} - 2E^2 \frac{\delta L}{L}$ $\sigma(m^2) = 2\left(m^4\left(\frac{\sigma_p}{p}\right)^2 + E^4\left(\frac{\sigma_\tau}{\tau}\right)^2 + E^4\left(\frac{\sigma_L}{L}\right)^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ $\frac{\sigma_L}{I} \ll \frac{\sigma_p}{p} \ll \frac{\sigma_\tau}{\tau}$

usually

 $\Rightarrow \qquad \sigma(m^2) \simeq 2E^2 \frac{\sigma_{\tau}}{\tau} \qquad \text{error in time measurement dominates}$

7.1.1 Resistive plate chambers: gas detector for precise timing measurement (material taken from talk by C. Williams on ALICE TOF)

how to get a good timing signal from a gas detector? where is the problem?



normally signal generated in vicinity of anode wire, timing determined by drift of primary ionization clusters to this wire, signal consists of a series of avalanches spread over interval of order of 1 μ s



no way to get precision (sub-nanosecond) timing

idea: go to parallel plate chamber (high electric field everywhere in detector) clusters start to avalanche immediately induced signal sum of all simultaneous avalanches

but in practice this is not so ...





electron avalanche according to Townsend

 $N = N_0 e^{\alpha x}$

only avalanches that traverse full gas gap will produce detectable signals \Rightarrow only clusters of ionization produced close to cathode important for signal generation.

avalanche only grows large enough close to anode to produce detectable signal on pickup electrodes.

if minimum gas gain at 10^6 (10 fC signal) and maximum gain at 10^8 (streamers/sparks produced above this limit), then sensitive region first 25% of gap

time jitter \approx time to cross gap \approx gap size/drift velocity

SO

- a) only a few ionization clusters take part in signal production
- b) gap size matters (small is better)

first example: Pestov chamber (about 1975)

40 years ago Y. Pestov realized importance of size planar spark chambers with localized discharge – gas gap of 100 μ m gives time resolution \approx 50 ps, first example of resistive plate chamber



generally, excellent time resolution ~ 50 ps or better! but long tail of late events mechanical constraints (due to high pressure) non-commercial glass \rightarrow no large-scale detector ever built

how to make real life detector?

- a) need very high gas gain (immediate production of signal)
- b) need way of stopping growth of avalanches (otherwise streamers/sparks will occur)





answer: add boundaries that stop avalanche development. These boundaries must be invisible to the fast induced signal - external pickup electrodes sensitive to any of the avalanches

from this idea the Multi-gap Resistive Plate Chamber was born

Multi-gap Resistive-Plate Chamber



stack of equally-spaced resistive plates with voltage applied to external surfaces (all internal plates electrically floating)

pickup electrodes on external surfaces (resistive plates transparent to fast signal)

internal plates take correct potential – initially due to electrostatics but kept at correct potential by flow of electrons and positive ions - feedback principle that ensures equal gain in all gas gaps

Internal plates electrically floating!



in this example: 2 kV across each gap (same *E* field in each gap)

since the gaps are the same size - on average - each plate has same flow of positive ions and electrons (from opposite sides of plate) thus zero net charge flow into plate. **STABLE STATE**

What happens if a plate is at a wrong voltage for some reason?



feedback principle that automatically corrects potentials on the resistive plates – stable situation is "equal gains in all gas gaps"

ALICE TOF prototypes



test of pre-production strip: $120 \times 7 \text{ cm}^2$ read-out plane segmented into $3.5 \times 3.5 \text{ cm}^2$ pads



but how precise do these gaps of 250 μm have to be?

gain not strongly dependent on gap size - actually loose mechanical tolerance - but why?









Lower electric field

higher Townsend coefficient – higher gas gain but smaller distance for avalanche – lower gas gain lower Townsend coefficient – lower gas gain but larger distance for avalanche – higher gas gain

with the gas mixture used (90% C₂F₄H₂, 5% SF₆, 5% isobutane) and with 250 μ m gap size these two effects cancel and gap can vary by ±30 μ m

Cross section of double-stack MRPC – ALICE TOF



double stack each stack has 5 gaps (i.e. 10 gaps in total)

250 μm gap with spacers made from fishing line

resistive plates 'off-the-shelf' soda lime glass

400 μ m internal glass 550 μ m external glass

resistive coating 5 M Ω /square

Time of Flight Measurement

TOF with very high granularity needed!



array to cover whole ALICE barrel - 160 m² and \leq 100 ps time resolution highly segmented - 160,000 channels of size 2.5 × 3.5 cm² gas detector is only choice!

Time of Flight Measurement

modules need to overlap due to dead areas (frames) and noise





Outer module



ALICE TOF time resolution



7.2 Specific energy loss

use drop and relativistic rise of dE/dx - easy at low momenta where differences are large



is separation in region of relativistic rise possible? normally, due to Landau tail, very large overlap of, e.g., pion and kaon



truncated mean method:

many measurements and truncation of the 30 - 50% highest dE/dx values for each track

Alternative: 'likelihood'-method for several $\frac{dE}{dx}$ -measurements

probability that pion produces a signal x: $p_{\pi}^{i}(x)$ for each particle measurements $x_1 \dots x_5$ probability for pion:

$$P_1 = \prod_{i=1}^5 p_\pi^i(x_i)$$

probability for kaon:

$$P_2 = \prod_{i=1}^5 p_K^i(x_i)$$

 $P_\pi = rac{P_1}{P_1 + P_2}$

$$\begin{array}{c} P_1 = 7.1 \cdot 10^{-6} \\ P_2 = 1.5 \cdot 10^{-8} \end{array} \right\} \qquad P_{\pi} = 99.8\% \\ \text{(see example on the right)} \end{array}$$





record: 3% have been reached (NA49 at SPS with Ar/CH₄, larger cells, and PEP-4/9 TPC at 8.5 bar)

7.3 Transition Radiation

effect: see chapter 2, particles with Lorentz factor $\gamma \gtrsim 1000$ emit X-ray photon when crossing from medium with one dielectric constant into another, probability of order α per boundary crossing



mean energy of transition radiation photon as function of electron momentum.

energy loss distribution for 15 GeV e, π in transition radiation detector

Transition radiation detector – TRD (schematic)



principle of separating ionization energy loss from the energy loss from emission of transition radiation photons

energy loss (excitation, ionization) plus transition radiation



distribution of number of clusters above some threshold for 15 GeV e, π

e/π separation in a transition radiation detector



 e/π separation at 15 GeV in a Li-foil radiator.

Application: ALICE TRD

radiator is followed by a gas detector that acts like a mini TPC: ionization and absorption of TR photon in 3 cm drift region, followed by amplification in MWPC with segmented cathode pad read-out, 20-30 time samples





ALICE TRD performance

Combined energy loss by ionization and transition radiation Nucl. Instr. Meth. **A881** (2018) 88-127, arXiv:1709.02743 [physics.ins-det]



beyond $\beta \gamma = 500$ effect of transition radiation visible

ALICE TRD performance



pion rejection with different algorithms around 1 GeV, pion supressed by 2 - 3 oom



electron/pion identification with TPC, TRD, TOF

7.4. Cherenkov radiation

real photons emitted when v > c/n

v < c/n

induced dipoles symmetric, no net dipole moment



v > c/n

induced dipoles not symmetric \rightarrow non-vanishing dipole moment



illustration of the Cherenkov effect

simple geometric determination of the Cherenkov angle θ_c

<u>threshold effect</u>: radiation for $\beta > 1/n$, asymptotic angle $\theta_c = \operatorname{arc} \cos \frac{1}{\beta n}$

number of Cherenkov photons per unit path length in interval $\lambda_1 - \lambda_2$ (see Chapter 2)

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}N_{\gamma}}{\mathrm{d}x} = 2\pi\alpha z^2 \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2\beta^2}\right) \frac{\mathrm{d}\lambda}{\lambda^2} \qquad (z = \text{charge in e})$$

in case of no dispersion (*n* const. in interval)

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}N_{\gamma}}{\mathrm{d}x} = 2\pi\alpha z^2 \sin^2\theta_c \frac{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1}{\lambda_1\lambda_2}$$

application of Cherenkov radiation for separation of particles with masses m_1 , m_2 at constant momentum (say $m_1 < m_2$)

to distinguish: particle 1 above threshold $\beta_1 > 1/n$ particle 2 at most at threshold $\beta_2 = 1/n$ or $n^2 = \frac{\gamma_2^2}{\gamma_2^2 - 1}$

in $\lambda=400-700$ nm range, lighter particle with $\gamma_1^2\gg 1$ radiates

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dN_{\gamma}}{dx} &= 490 \sin^2 \theta_c \\ &= 490 \frac{(m_2 c^2)^2 - (m_1 c^2)^2}{p^2 c^2} \text{ photons per cm} \\ \text{use } \sin^2 \theta_c &= 1 - \cos^2 \theta_c = 1 - \frac{\gamma_2^2 - 1}{\beta_1^2 \gamma_2^2} \approx \frac{1}{\gamma_2^2} - \frac{1}{\gamma_1^2} \end{aligned}$$

for radiator of length L in cm and quantum efficiency q of photocathode

$$N = 490 \frac{(m_2 c^2)^2 - (m_1 c^2)^2}{p^2 c^2} \cdot L \cdot q$$

and for threshold at N_0 photoelectrons

$$L = \frac{N_0 p^2 c^2}{490[(m_2 c^2)^2 - (m_1 c^2)^2] \cdot q}$$
(cm)

defines the necessary length of the radiator



required detector length for $N_0 = 10$ and q = 0.25 $\pi/K/p$ separation with Cherenkov detector: use several threshold detectors

Particle	γ	1/eta
π	71.9	1.0001
K	20.3	1.0012
р	10.6	1.0044
	Particle π Κ p	Particle γ π 71.9 K 20.3 p 10.6

condition for no radiation:

$$eta < rac{1}{n}$$
 or $rac{1}{eta} > n$



principle of particle identification by threshold Cherenkov counters (x represents production of Cherenkov photons)

 $\begin{aligned} \pi &: C1 \cdot C2 \cdot C3 \text{ pion trigger} \\ \text{K} &: C1 \cdot C2 \cdot \overline{C3} \text{ kaon trigger} \\ \text{p} &: C1 \cdot \overline{C2} \cdot \overline{C3} \text{ proton trigger} \end{aligned}$

Differential Cherenkov detectors

selection of velocity interval in which then actually velocity is measured

accept particles above threshold velocity $\beta_{min} = 1/n$

detect light for particles between β_{min} and a value β_t where light does not anymore propagate into (air) light guide by total reflection

$$\cos\theta_c = \frac{1}{n\beta}$$

the critical angle for total reflection:

$$\sin heta_t = rac{1}{n} ext{ } \cos heta_t = \sqrt{1 - rac{1}{n^2}}$$
 $\Rightarrow eta$ -range $rac{1}{n} < eta < rac{1}{\sqrt{n^2 - 1}}$



differential Cherenkov counter

example: diamond $n = 2.42 \implies 0.41 < \beta < 0.454$, i.e. $\Delta\beta = 0.04$ window selected if optics of read-out such that chromatic aberrations corrected \Rightarrow velocity resolution $\Delta\beta/\beta = 10^{-7}$ can be reached

principle of **DISC** (Discriminating Cherenkov counter)

Ring Imaging Cherenkov counter (RICH)

optics: such that photons emitted under certain angle θ form ring of radius r at image plane where photons are detected.

spherical mirror of radius R_{S} projects light onto spherical detector of radius R_D .

focal length of spherical mirror: $f = R_S/2$

place photon detector in focus: $R_D = R_S/2$

Cherenkov light emitted under angle θ_c radius of Cherenkov ring at detector:

$$r = f \cdot \theta_c = \frac{R_s}{2} \theta_c$$
$$\Rightarrow \beta = \frac{1}{n \cos(2r/R_s)}$$

photon detection:

- photomultiplier

- multi-wire proportional chamber or parallel-plate avalanche counter filled with gas that is photosensitive, i.e. transforms photons into electrons.

e.g. addition of TMAE vapor $(CH_3)_2N)_2C = C_5H_{12}N_2$ $E_{ion} = 5.4 \text{ eV}$

- or CsI coated cathode of MWPC (ALICE HMPID or hadron blind detector HBD in PHENIX)



working principle of a RICH counter

example: K/π separation at p = 200 GeV/c



photons detected in MWPC filled with He (83%), methane (14%), TEA (triethyl-amine, 3%), CaF₂ entrance window (UV transparent)

event displays - CERES RICH





1 electron produces about 10 photons

CERES Electron Identification with TPC and RICH



combined rejection - e.g. at 1.5 GeV/c at 67% e-efficiency ightarrow 4 \cdot 10⁴ π rejection

DIRC – Detection of Internally Reflected Cherenkov Light

collection and imaging of light from total internal reflection (rather than transmitted light) optical material of radiator used in 2 ways simultaneously:

- Cherenkov radiator
- light guide for Cherenkov light trapped in radiator by total int. reflection

<u>advantage</u>: photons of ring image can be transported to a detector away from path of radiating particle intrinsically 3d, position of hit $\rightarrow \theta_c, \phi_c$ and time \rightarrow long. position

example: BABAR at SLAC

- rectangular radiator from fused silica n=1.473

radiation hard, long attenuation length, low chromatic dispersion, excellent optical finish possible

- surrounded by nitrogen $n{\approx}1.00$
- stand-off box filled with water n=1.346 (close to radiator)

NIM A538 (2005) 281



- O Water transmission (1.1m)
- Mirror reflectivity
- ▲ Internal reflection coeff. (365 bounces)
- * Epotek 301-2 transmission (25μm)
- ✤ ETL 9125 quantum efficiency (Q.E.)
- □ PMT Q.E. ⊗ PMT window transmission
- Δ $\,$ Predicted Total photon detection efficiency





kaons can be separated up to 4 GeV/c BABAR physics: decays of B^0 to study CP violation b-tagging (78 % of $B^0 \rightarrow K^+ + X$) golden channel for CP: $B^0 \rightarrow J/\psi + \phi$ and $\phi \rightarrow K^+ + K^-$

Comparision different PID methods for K/ π separation



illustration of various particle identification methods for K/π separation along with characteristic momentum ranges.



a detector system for PID combines usually several methods