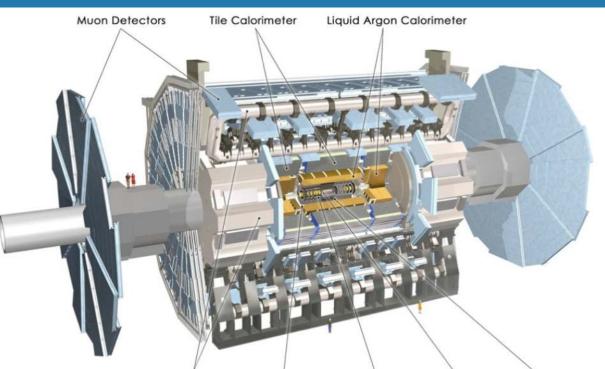
Particle tracking and Calorimeter in a nutshell

Son Cao, IFIRSE, ICISE

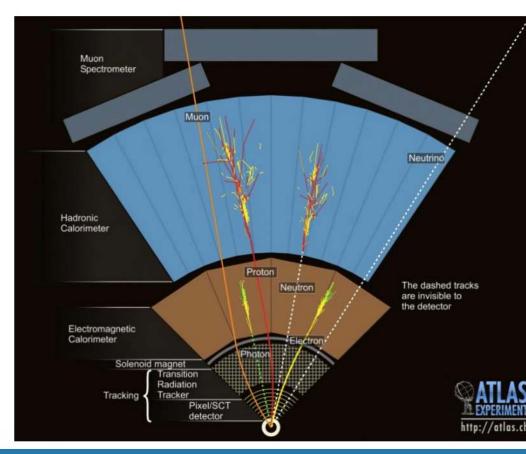


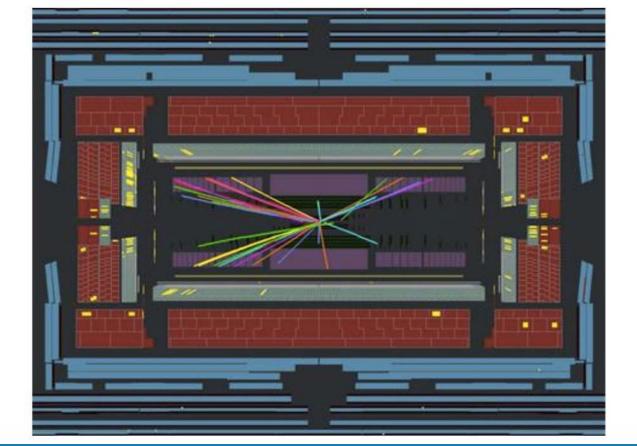
MAR. 5TH 2025

Most of particle detectors are big and compliciated

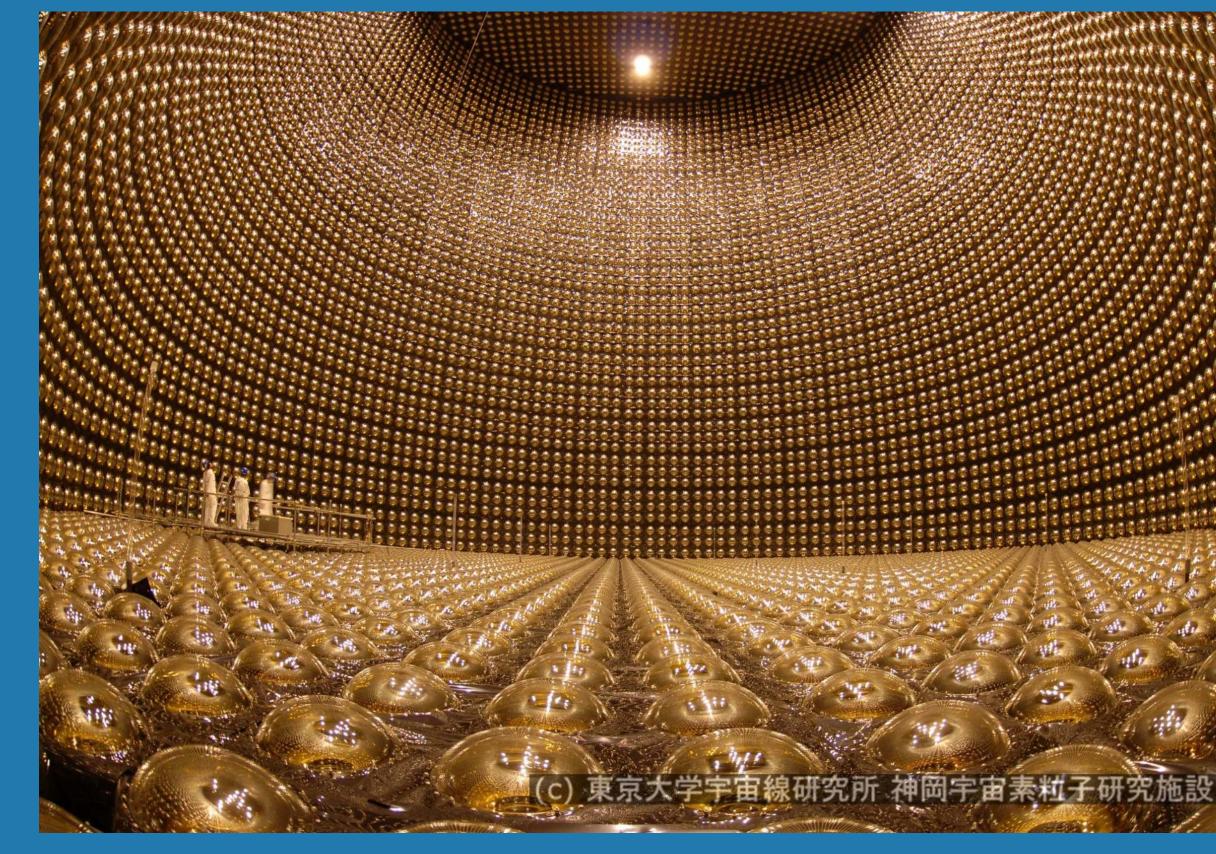


Toroid Magnets Solenoid Magnet SCT Tracker Pixel Detector TRT Tracker





ATLAST



Super-Kamiokande





"The real voyage of discovery consists, not in seeking new landscapes, but in having new eyes"

-Marcel Proust-

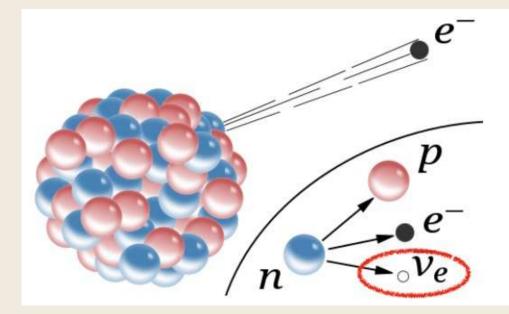
General concept of particle detectors

Particle interaction

•We can't see the interaction itself but the <u>end products</u> of the interaction

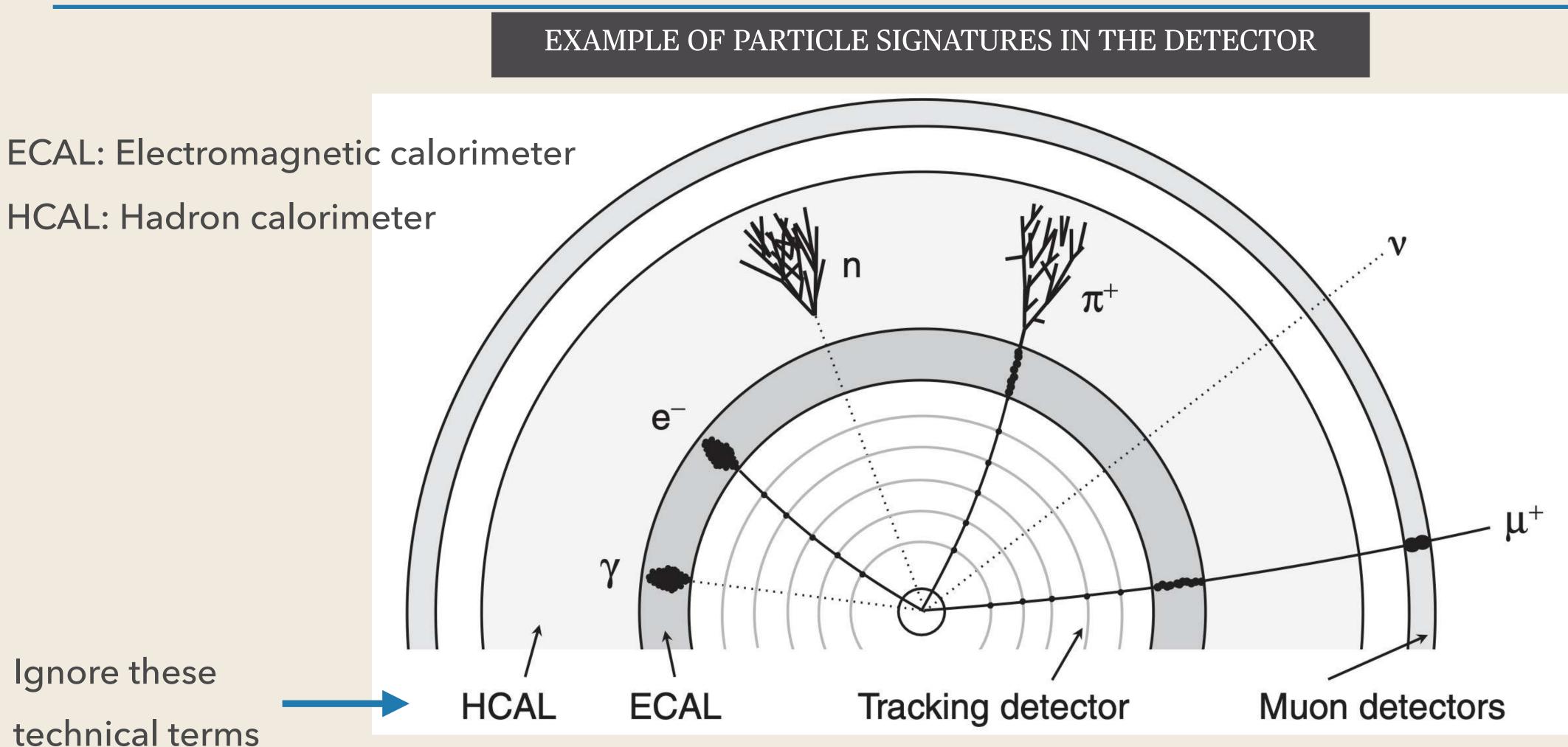
- Eg. Story of Pauli's proposal of "invisible" end product in beta decay
- End products are used to make sense of the underlying interaction
- End products are detected via their interaction with matter
- •Only relatively "stable" end-products $\gamma, e^{\pm}, \mu^{\pm}, p, n, \pi^{\pm}, \alpha$ (or He^{2+}) can leave **visible track** in the detector.
 - Produced ν is stable but interact weakly, so mostly passing detector without any interaction \rightarrow referred with so-called missing energy

	Particle type	Rest mass [MeV/c]	Mean life τ [s]	Main decay mode
Photons	(γ)	0	Stable	
Leptons	Electron (e^-), positron (e^+)	0.511	Stable	
	Muon (μ^+, μ^-)	105.66	2.2×10^{-6}	$\mu^- ightarrow { m e}^- \overline{ u}_e u_\mu$
				$\mu^+ \to \mathrm{e}^+ \nu_e \overline{\nu}_\mu$
Hadrons	Proton (p)	938.27	Stable	
	Neutron (n)	939.57	880	${\rm n} ightarrow {\rm pe}^- \overline{\nu}_e$
	Charged pion (π^+, π^-)	139.57	2.6×10^{-8}	$\pi^- ightarrow \mu^- \overline{ u}_\mu$
				$\pi^+ o \mu^+ u_\mu$
	Neutral pion (π^0)	134.98	8.5×10^{-17}	$\pi^0 o \gamma\gamma$



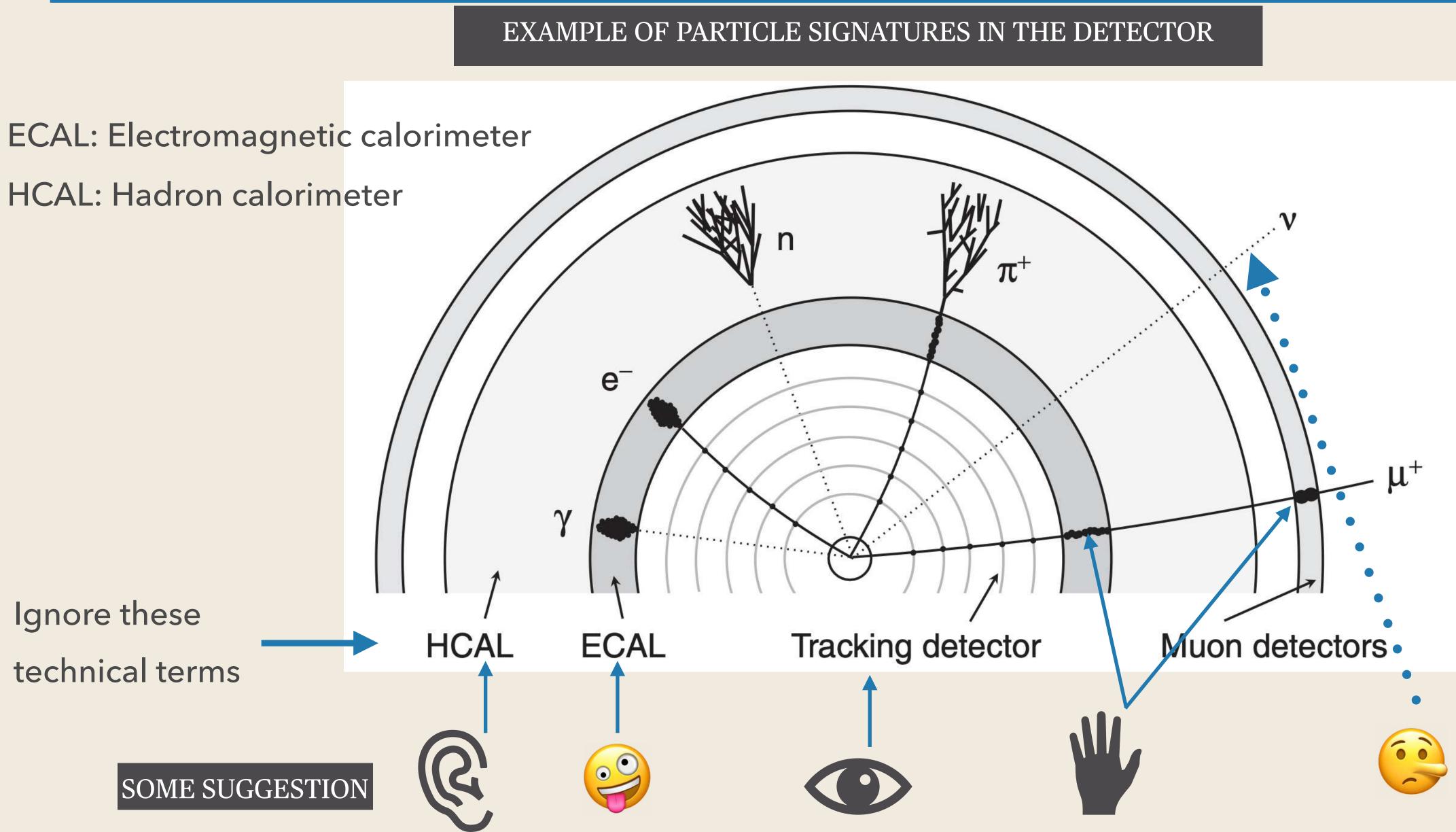
• Produced π_0 decay quickly into 2 photon (γ), which provides a quite distinct feature in detector





You can consider them as "sense organ" of the detector Can you try to match: eyes, ear, nose, tongue, skin







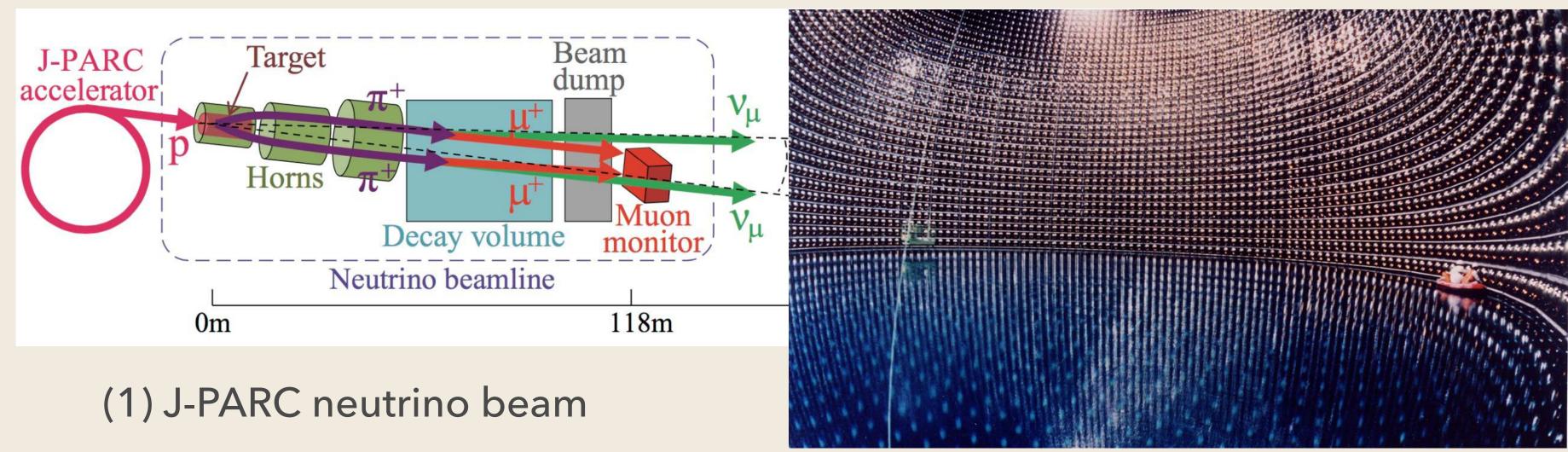
Conceptual particle detector

- **Ideally** (here particles = end products of the interaction)
- * Excellent identification of all produced particles
- * Excellent tracking (spatial and temporal) of all particles
- * Precise measurement of energy/momentum of all particles
- * Additional features
 - * Record High rate events: collider, near detector of neutrino experiments
 - Radiation tolerance: eg collider; MUMON detector of T2K ; caused eg. displacement of the lattice atom/ defection
 - * Continuous operation for ~ 10 years with little/no intervention
 - * Compromise: existing technology, money, space, time...



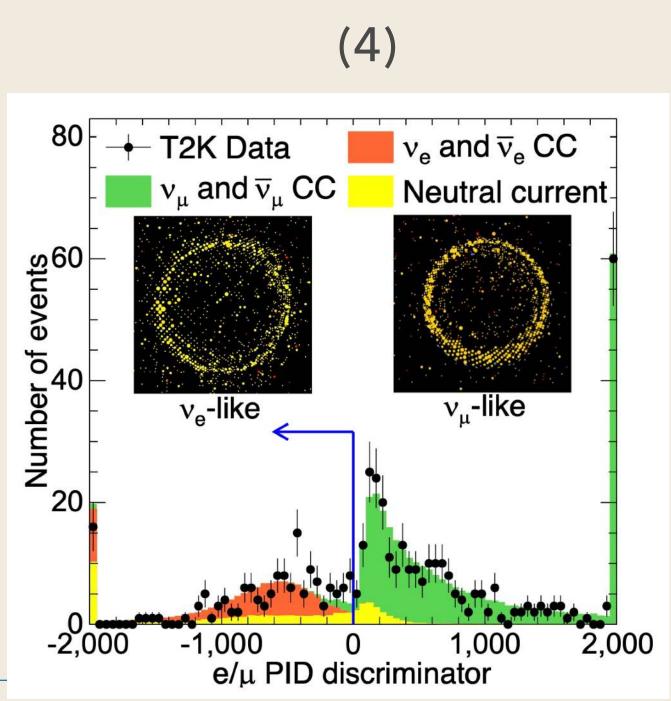
Bodies of particle experiment

- * The essential:
 - * (1)Particle sources: can be man-made or natural source
 - * (2)Active volume for particle interactions
 - * (3)Apparatus to "capture/visualize" the interaction process * (4)System for signal processing and analysis



(2) pure water/ Gd-loaded

(3) Photosensor





Bodies of particle experiment

- The essential:
 - * (1)Particle sources: can be man-made or natural source
 - * (2)Active volume for particle interactions
 - * (3)Apparatus to "capture/visualize" the interaction process
 - * (4)System for signal processing and analysis

* Supporting setup

*

- * Passive and active "Isolation"/shielding
 - * Underground, high Z materials
 - * Veto / outer detector
- * Additional detectors: to understand particle source, particle interaction, detector performance. Eg. Near detector complex in neutrino experiments
- * Additional facility to test/calibrate the detector's performance



10

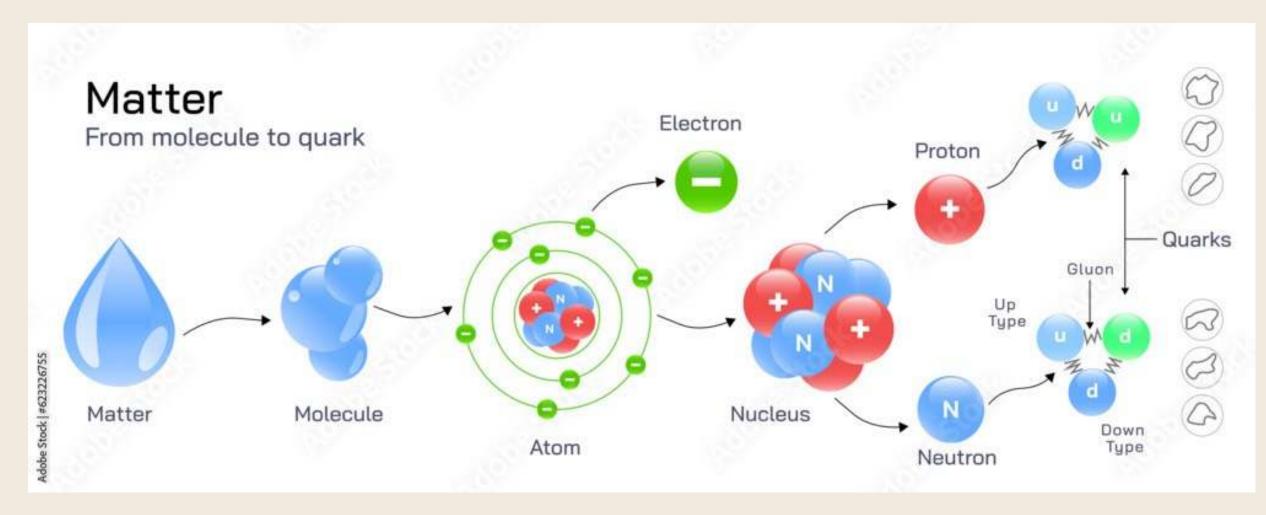
Working principle of particle detectors Any effect of particle inducing observable distinction when interacting with matter can be used as working principle of particle detector

					strong	electromagnetic	weak
Quarks	down-type	d	S	b	./	./	./
Quarks	up-type	u	С	t	V	V	V
Lontons	charged	e ⁻	μ^-	τ^{-}		\checkmark	\checkmark
Leptons	neutrinos	ν _e	\mathbf{v}_{μ}	ν_{τ}			\checkmark

These gives the overall framework to compute, but it likes "blackbox", not giving you features/observables to quantitatively measure.

Take-away message: fundamental properties of particle (radiation) and its interaction in the matter is essential not only for building particle detectors but for radiation-based technology

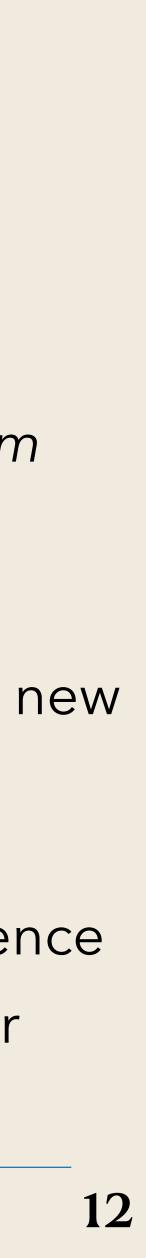
11

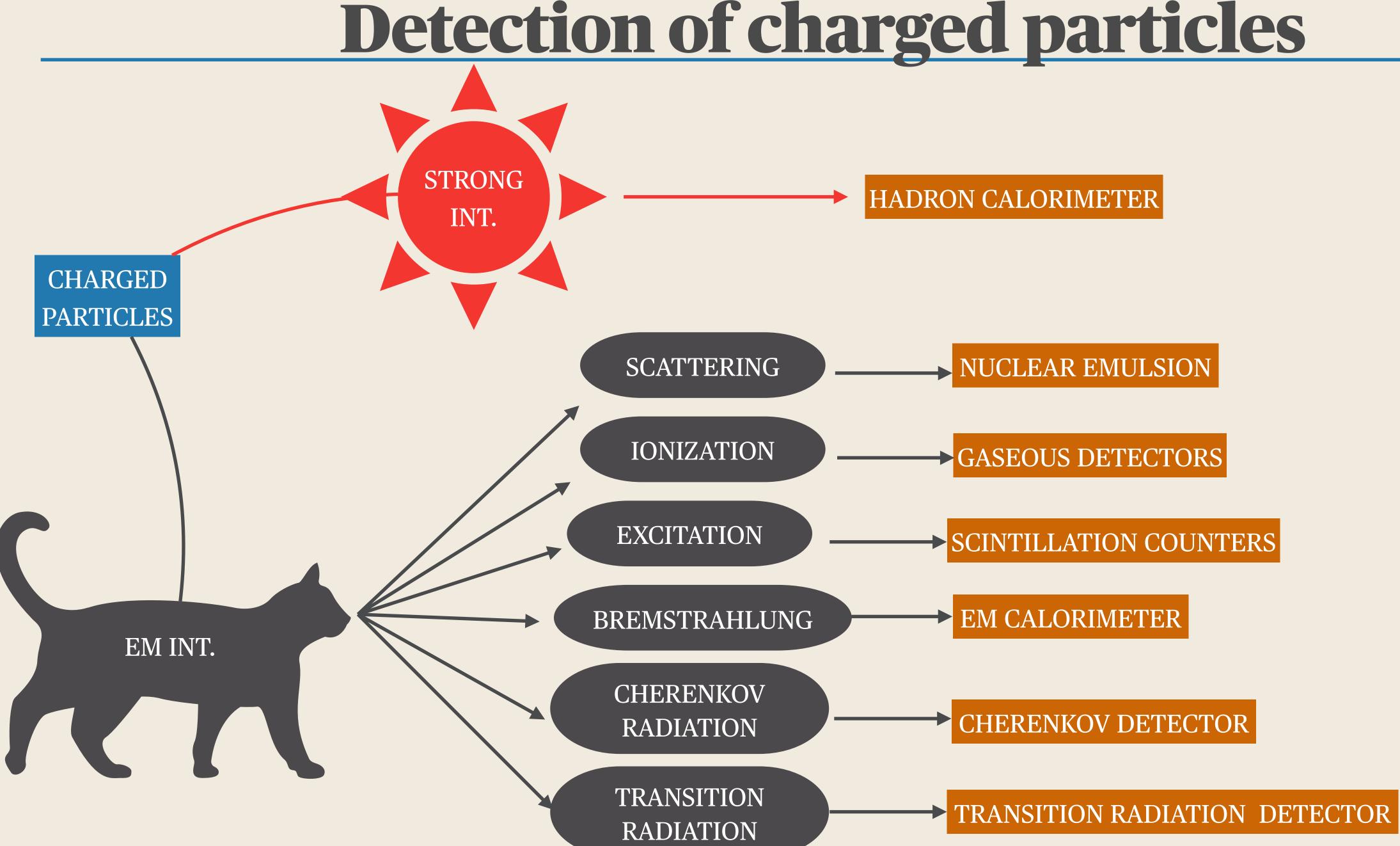


Working principle of particle detectors Any effect of particle inducing observable distinction when interacting with matter can be used as working principle of particle detector

Fundamental effects:

- •**Coherent scattering** (keep targeting atom *intact*), release some recoiled energy
- •Ionize atom by liberating electron
- Excite the atom/molecule and produce new particle(s)
- •Emit photon(s): Cherenkov radiation, transition radiation, scintillation, fluorescence
- Break down nucleus via inelastic nuclear scattering results in number of particles









Important point to keep in mind

- * We don't see particle interaction directly, but its end products
- End products are detected via their interaction with active volume in the particle detector
- * Any observable effect of particle when interacting with matter can be used as working principle of particle detector



14

The particle detector is really complicated to be digested in a short lecture.

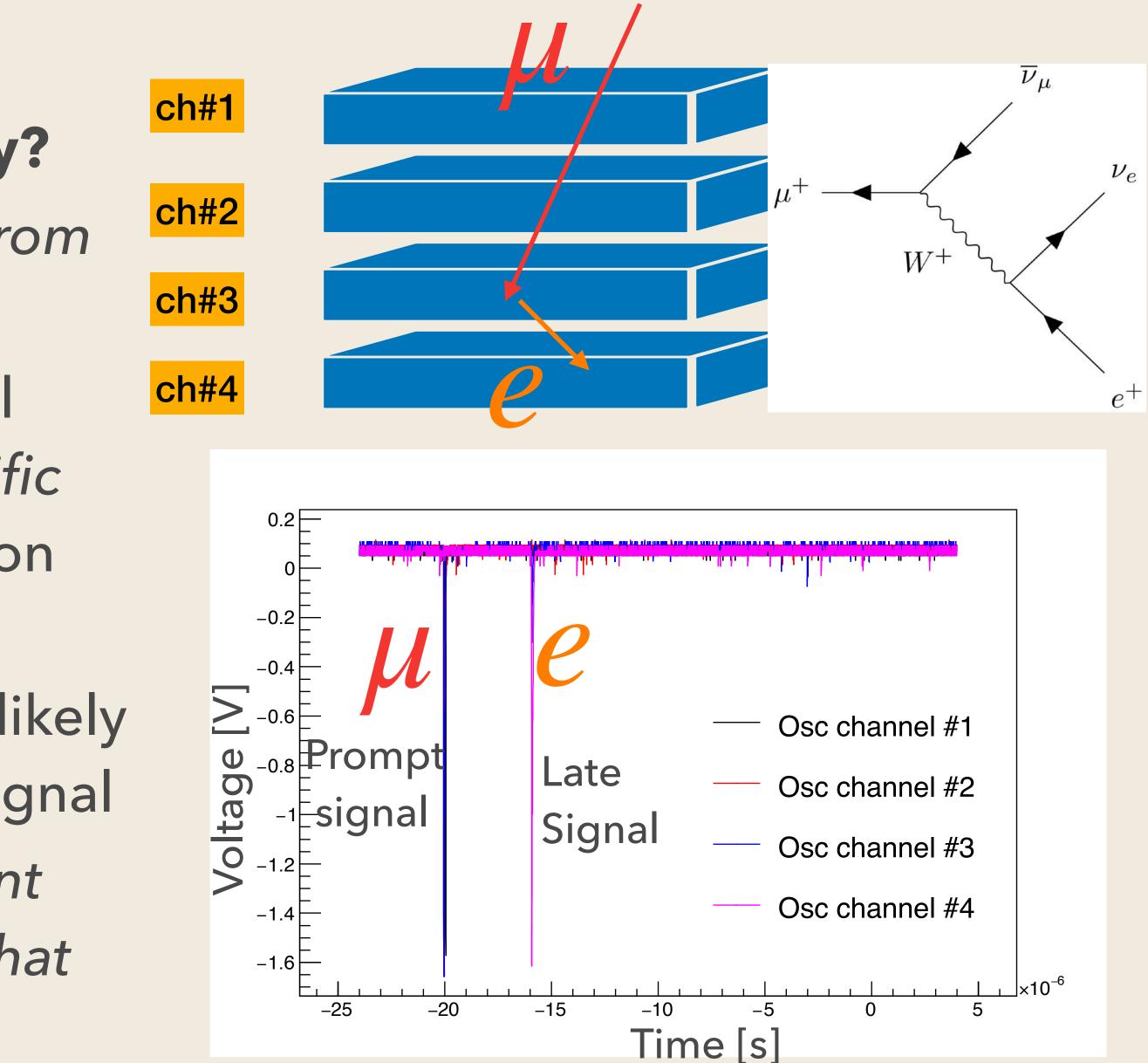
Target: general concepts and relevant technique used during this camp.



Start w/ questions regarding to muon decay measurement

How can be convinced that we observed is muon-to-electron decay?

- We know this process is possible (from physics laws)!
- We *know* most of radiation/signal observed (actually trigged w/ specific threshold and coincidence) are muon induced by cosmic ray
- We *assume* the late ~us signal is likely induced or related to the prompt signal
- (Measurement of the timing different btw/ signal gives similar result to what we know well (~2.2us lifetime))





Why measuring cosmic-ray muon decay is useful/interesting?

- Will allow us to examine the "time dilation" in special relativity
 - 600m before stopped
 - But we know most of cosmic-ray muons produced in the upper reach the Earth surface
 - 13.8 km.
- which govern the weak interaction
- Allow to test the Parity-violation (due to polarized nature of cosmic-ray) muons and parity violation in the weak interaction)
- produced along with electron in muon decay

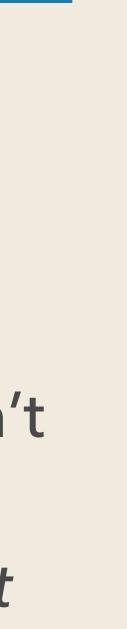
Knowing 2.2us lifetime, if not taking relativistic effect, muon will travel ~

atmospheric, ~ 10km (>>600m). So in classical mechanics, muons shouldn't

If include the relativistic effect, range of 4GeV muons before decay is about

Lifetime measurement will allow us to estimate the Fermi coupling constant

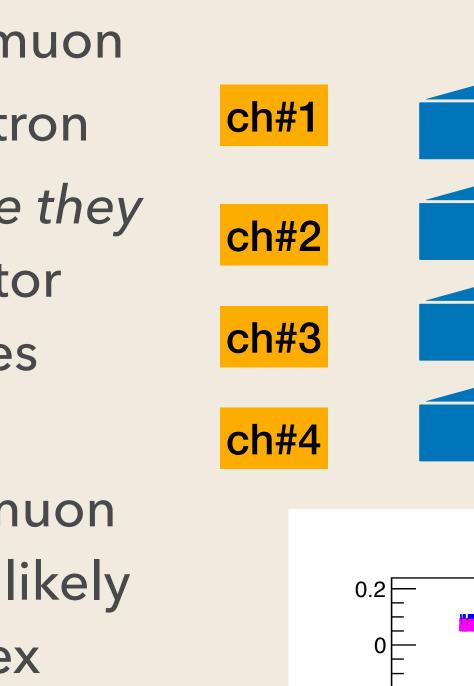
Allow to verify that there are actually two different kinds of neutrinos are

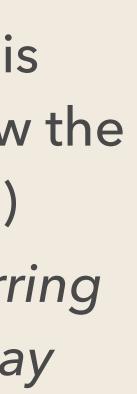


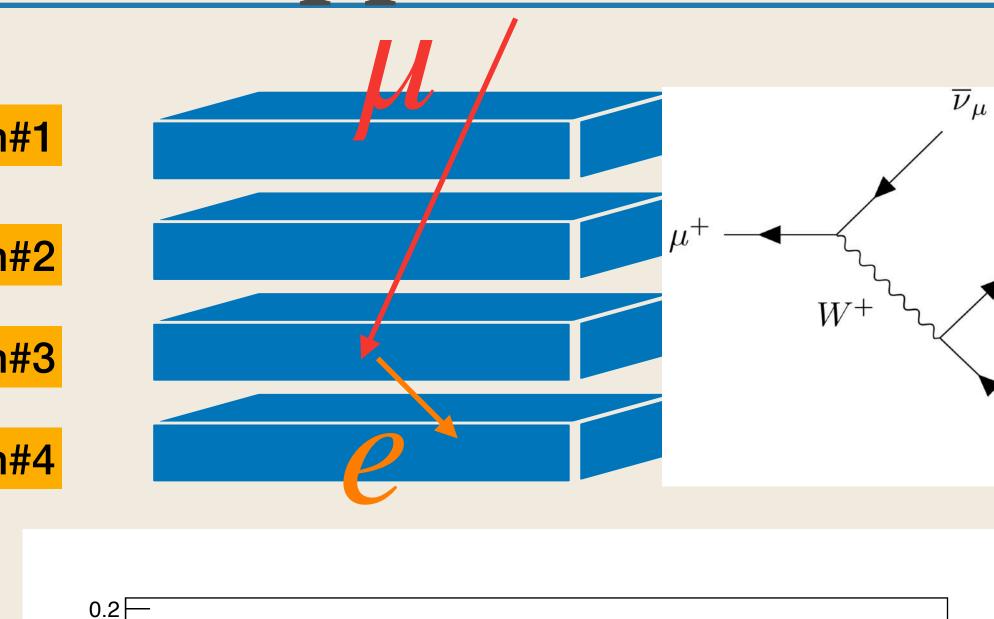


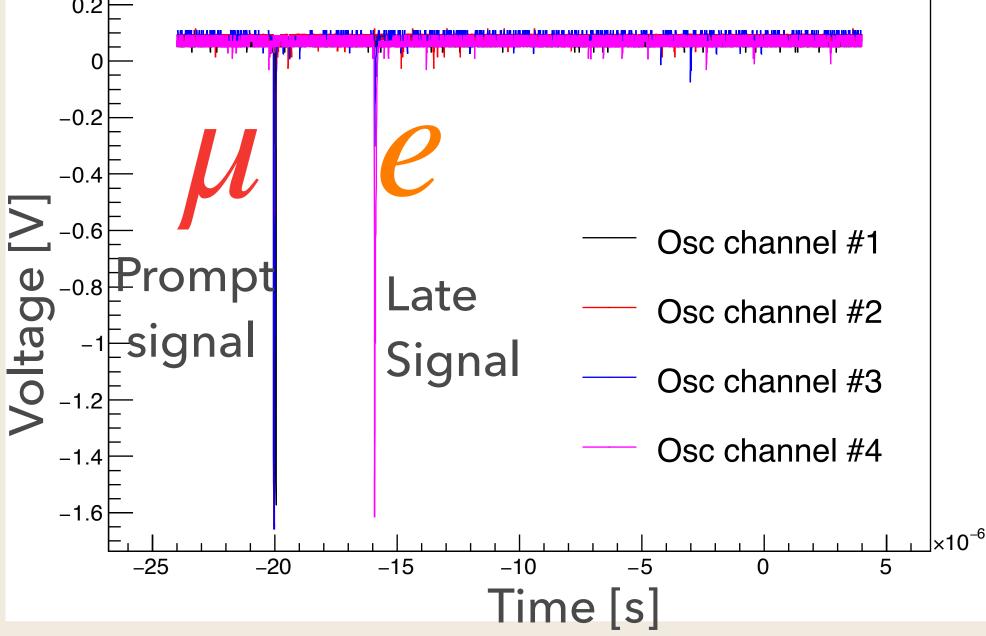
More arguments to support

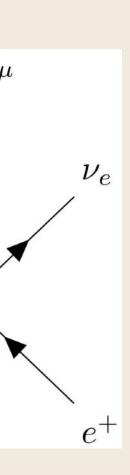
- Need to identify the prompt signal as a muon
- Need to identify the late signal as a electron
- It's impossible to identify neutrinos (since they *interact weakly*) but we make sure detector cover whole space and detect all particles involved
- Need to have high spatial resolution of muon and electron trajectories to tell that they likely originate from the same interaction vertex
- Measure energy/momentum of muon and electron to be more convinced that muon is from atmospheric (~ 4GeV) and they follow the conservation law (energy and momentum)
- (Parity violation in produced electron, referring) to nature of polarized muons, which is decay product of downward pions)







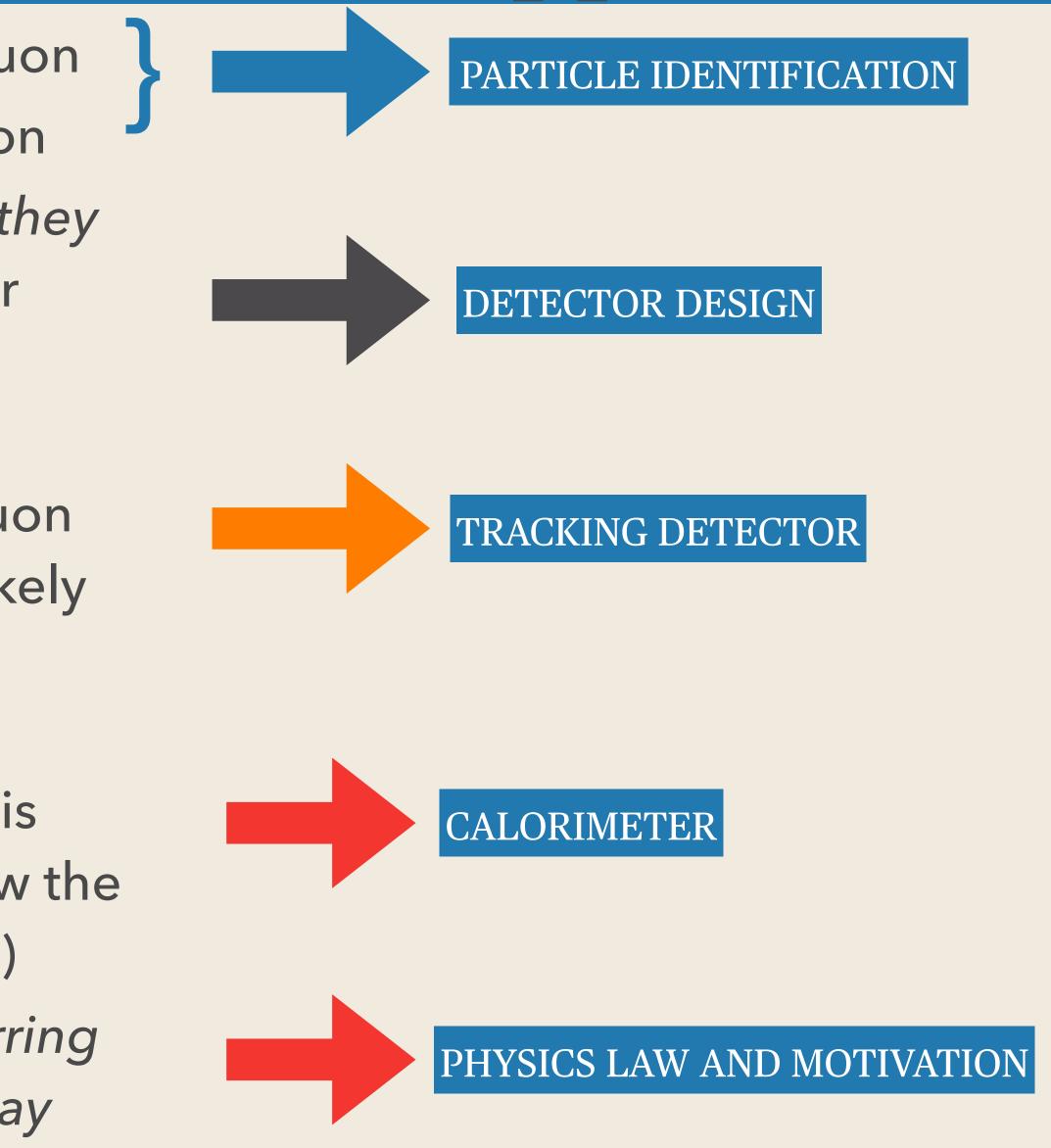






More arguments to support

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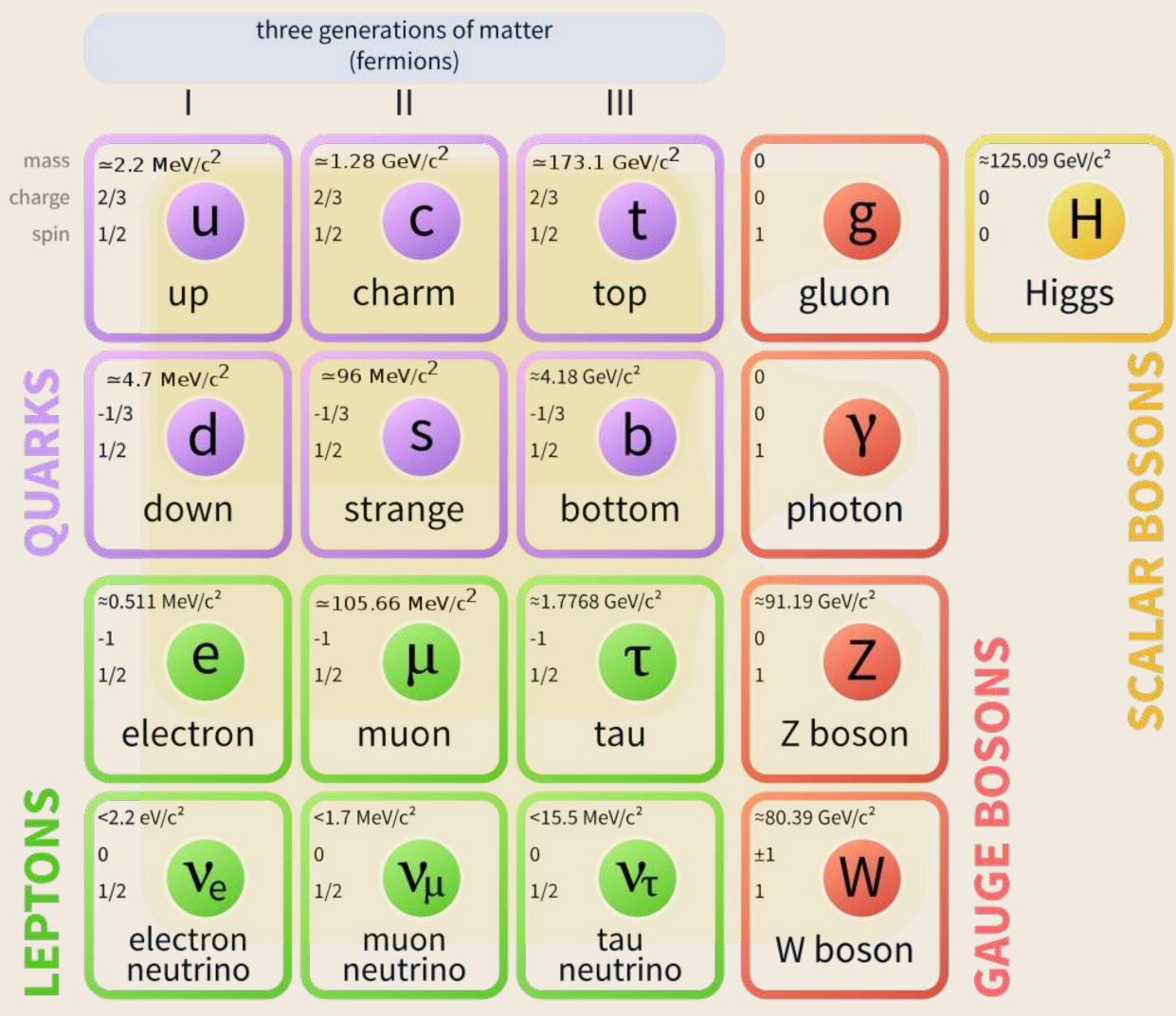
Particle identification



What kind of information used to identify particle?

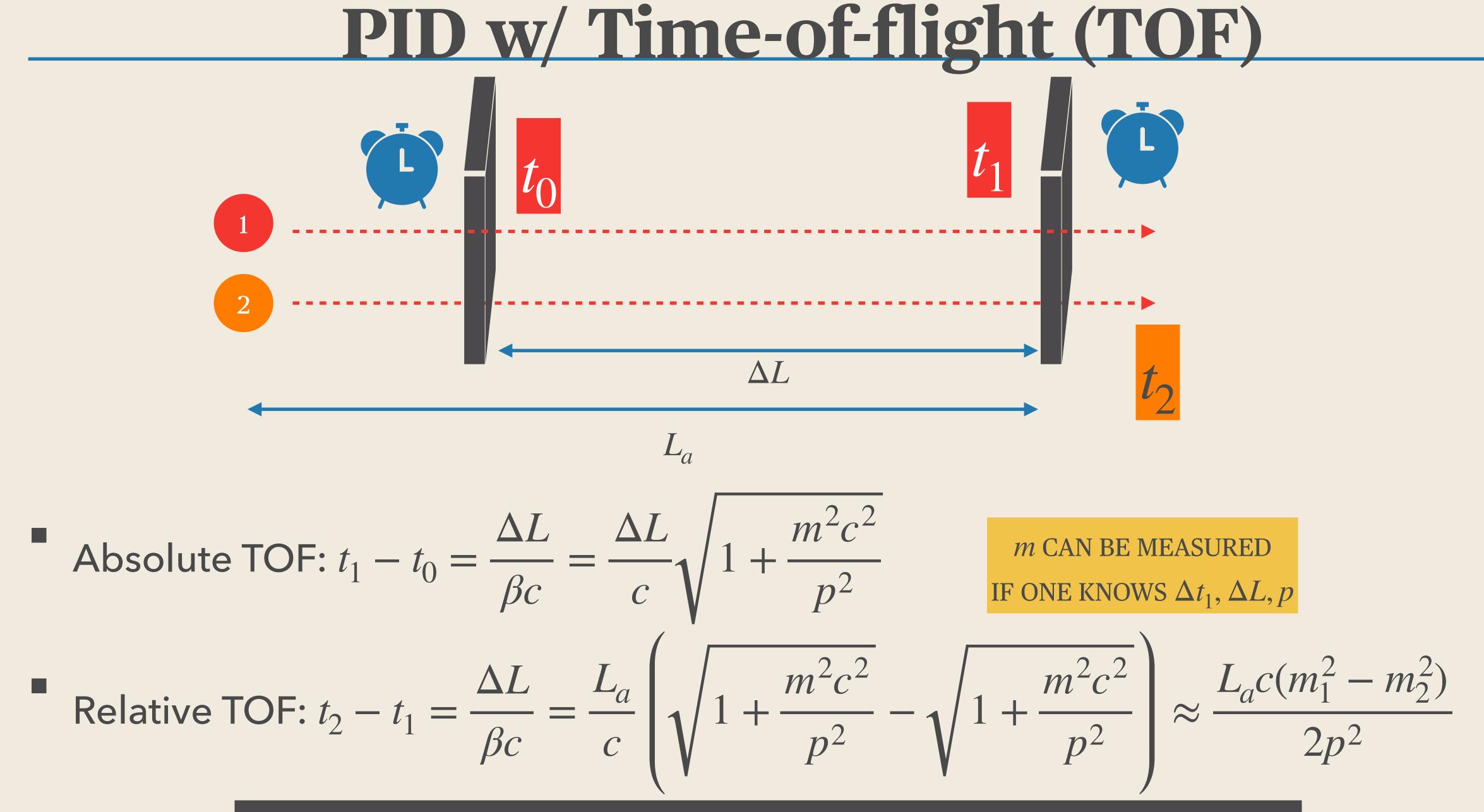
- Mass
- Charge
- Spin
- "Flavor" (also "color")
 - Eg. Electron neutrino and electron produced in pair
- Allowed interaction processes and interaction strength
 - Eg. Leptons (muon, electron, neutrino) do not have strong interaction
- Prompt decay products (eg. in case of W, Z, Higgs)

Standard Model of Elementary Particles







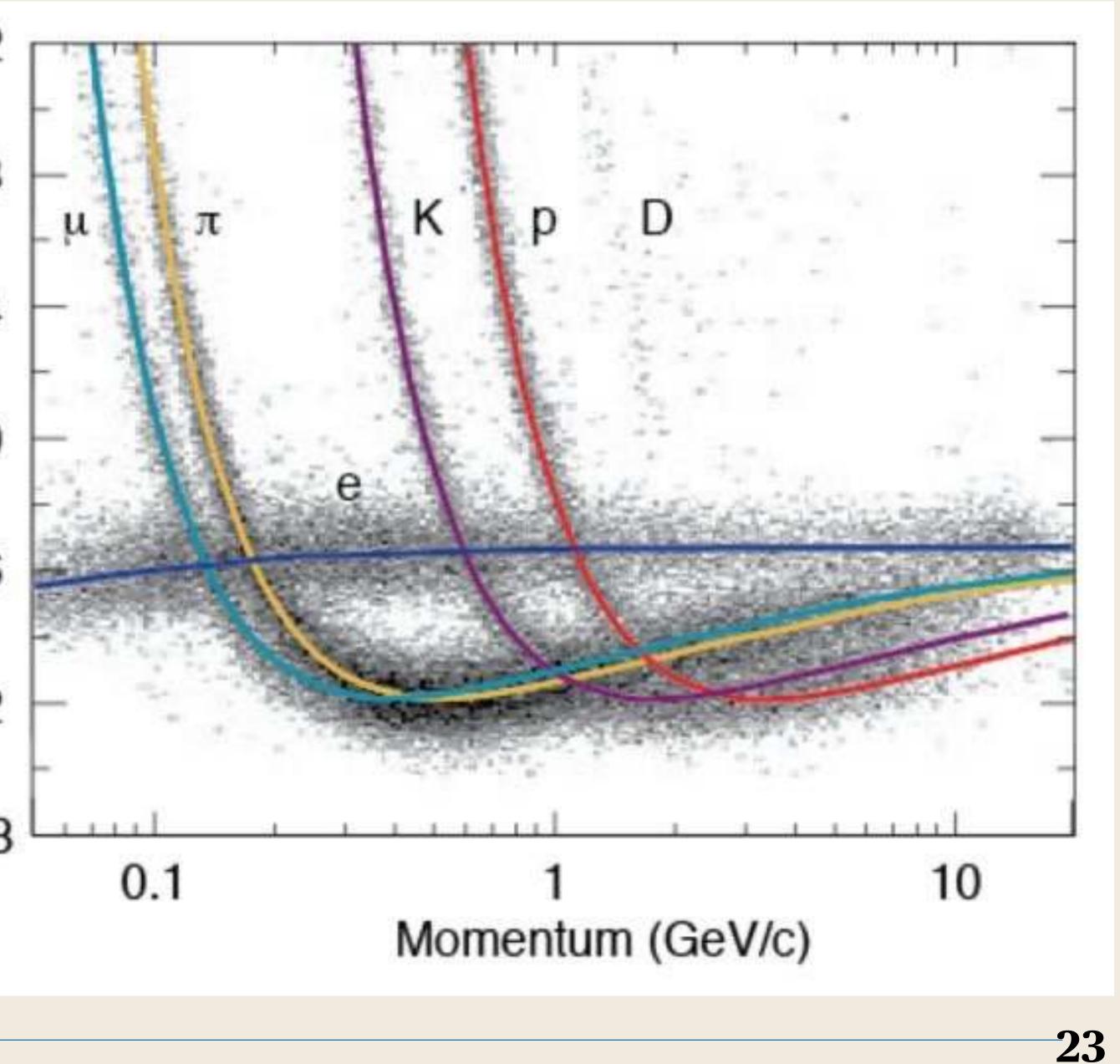


USEFUL CONVERSION: AT SPEED OF LIGHT, PARTICLE PASS 1 METER IN 3.3 NANOSECOND



Particle identification using dE/dx

- If one can measure dE/ dx simultaneously with momentum, particle can be classified
 Behavior of electron is different due to Bremsstrahlung process
 - 12
 - 8

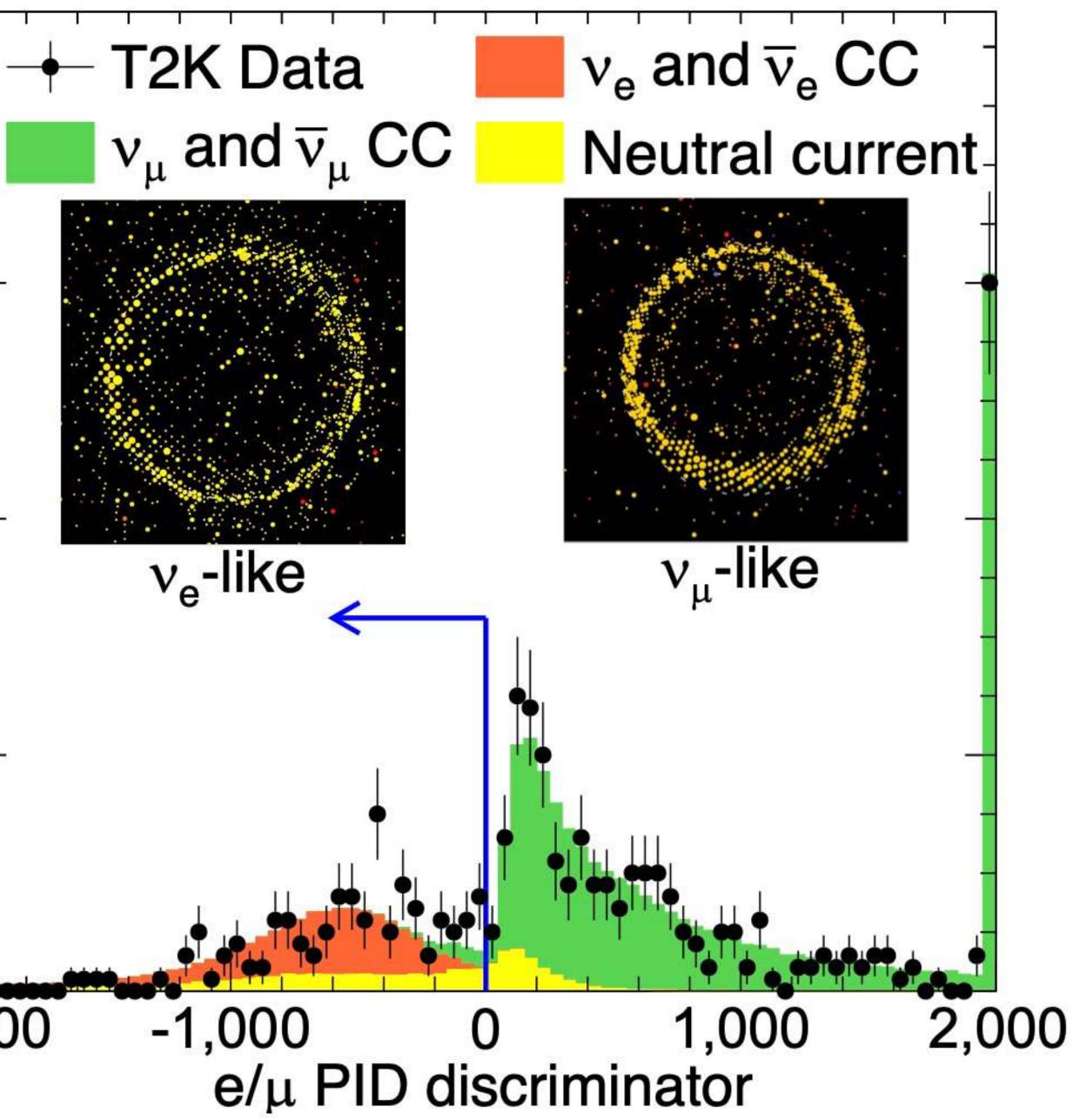


Electromagnetic shower development

- Electron quickly develops electromagnetic shower and give a fuzzy ring pattern than muon
- The *fuzziness* can be used as particle identity
- Also the Cherenkov threshold can be used for particle identity since it depends on particle

events 09 20 -2,000

80

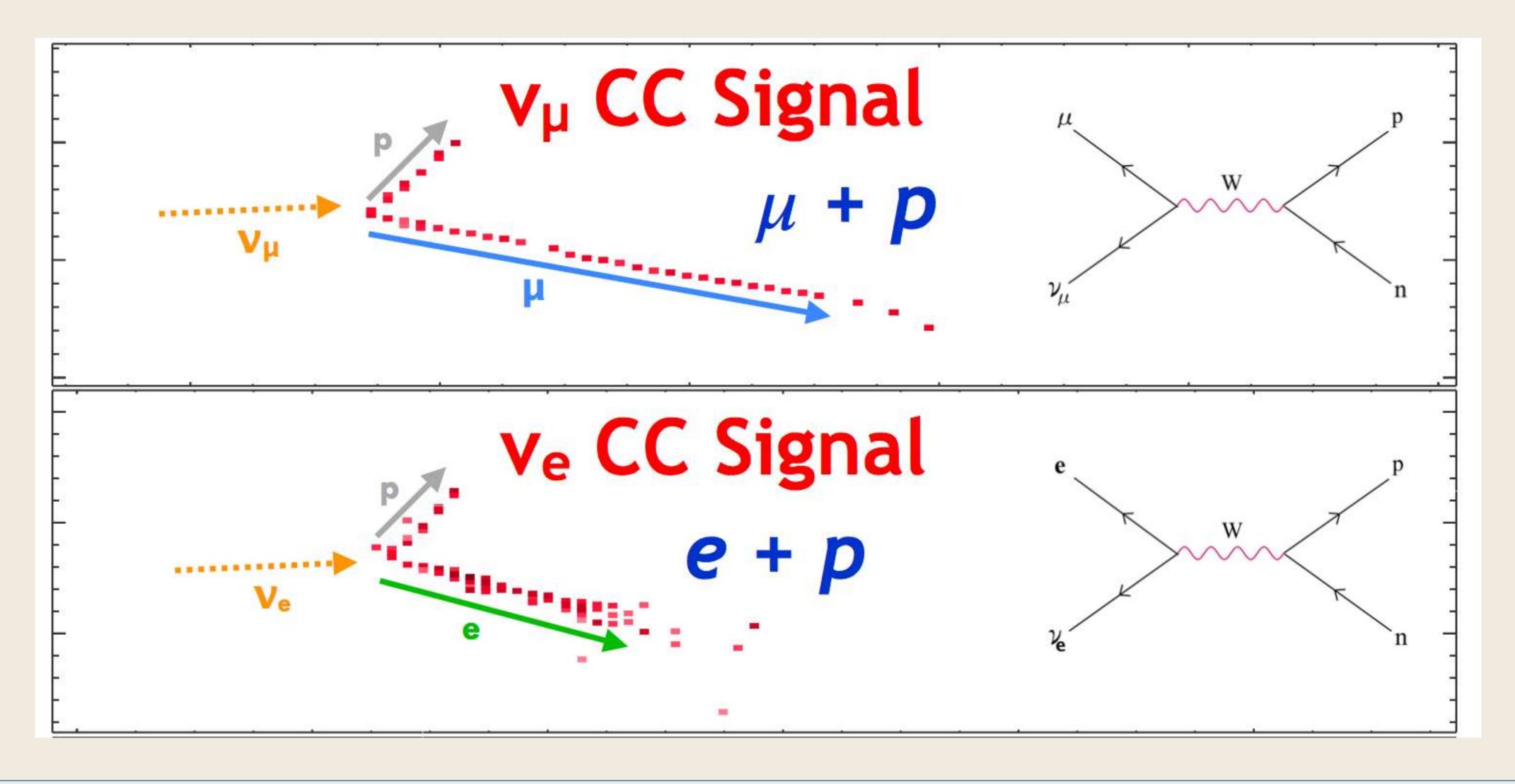






Ranging and Electromagnetic shower development

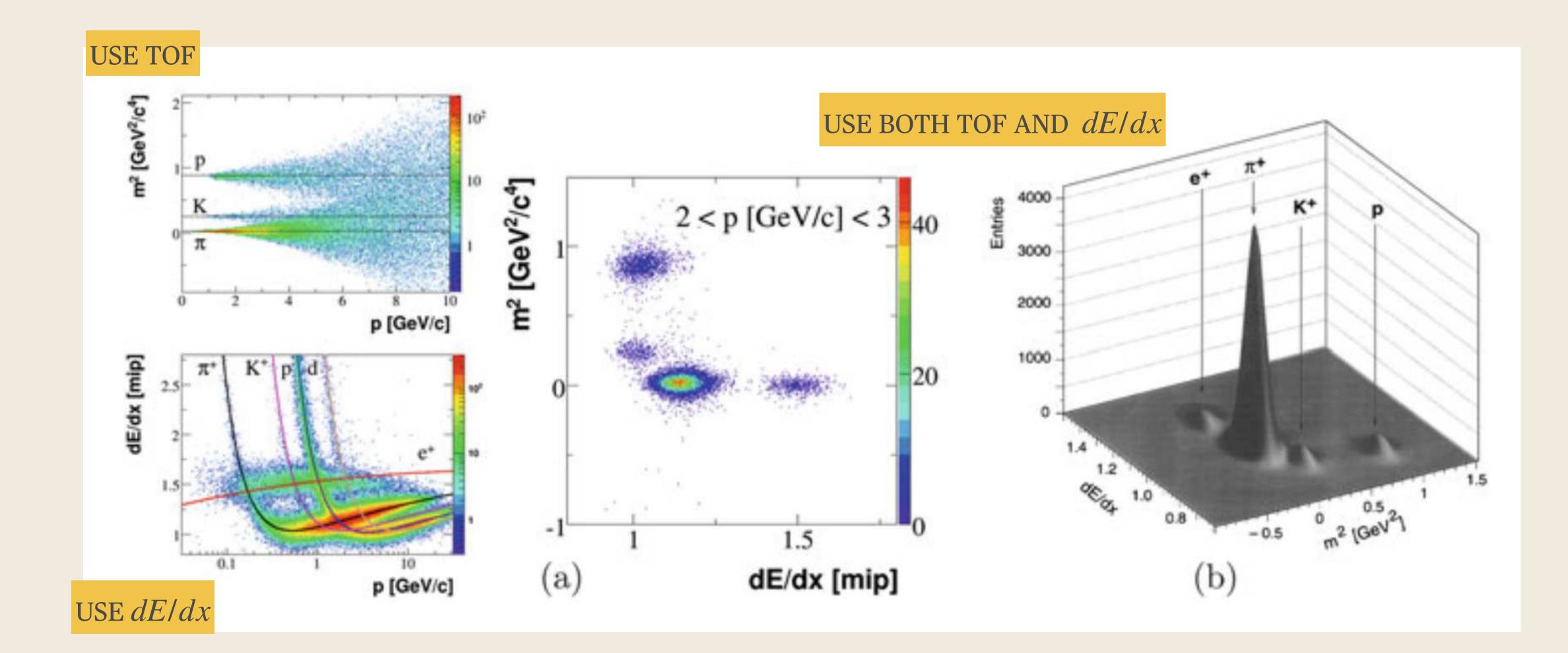
NOvA, scintillator technique







NA49 experiment: Use TOF and dE/dx



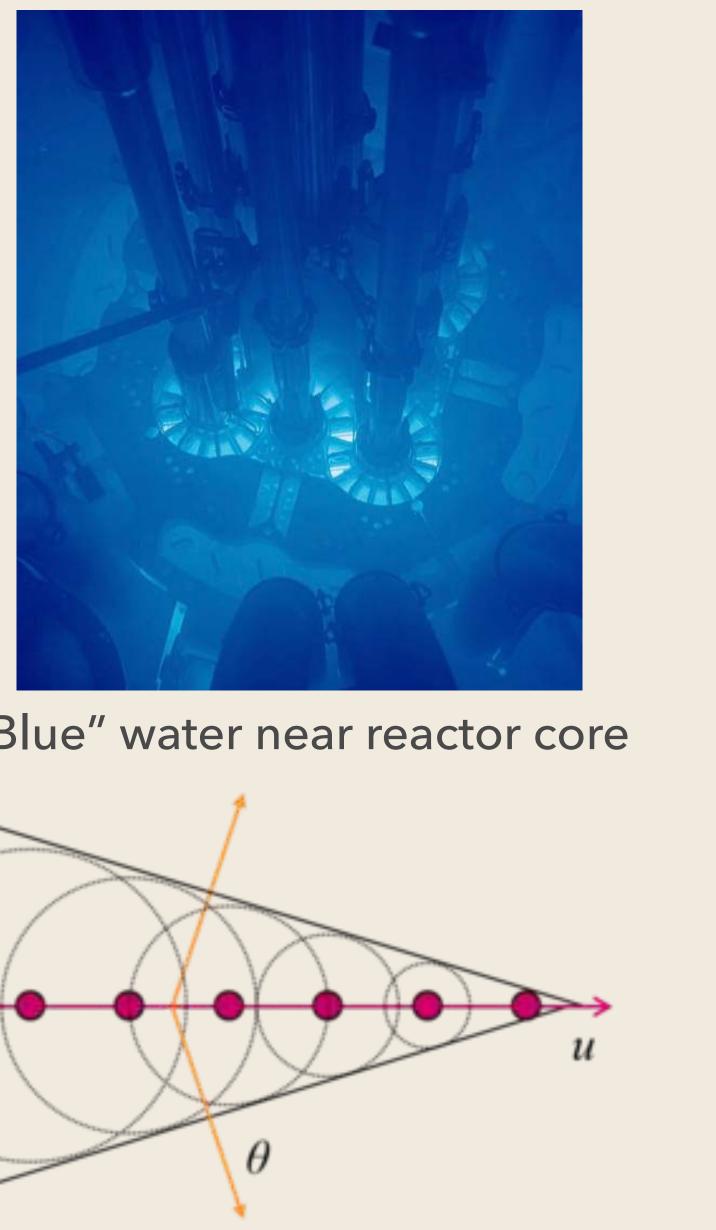


Cherenkov radiation for PID

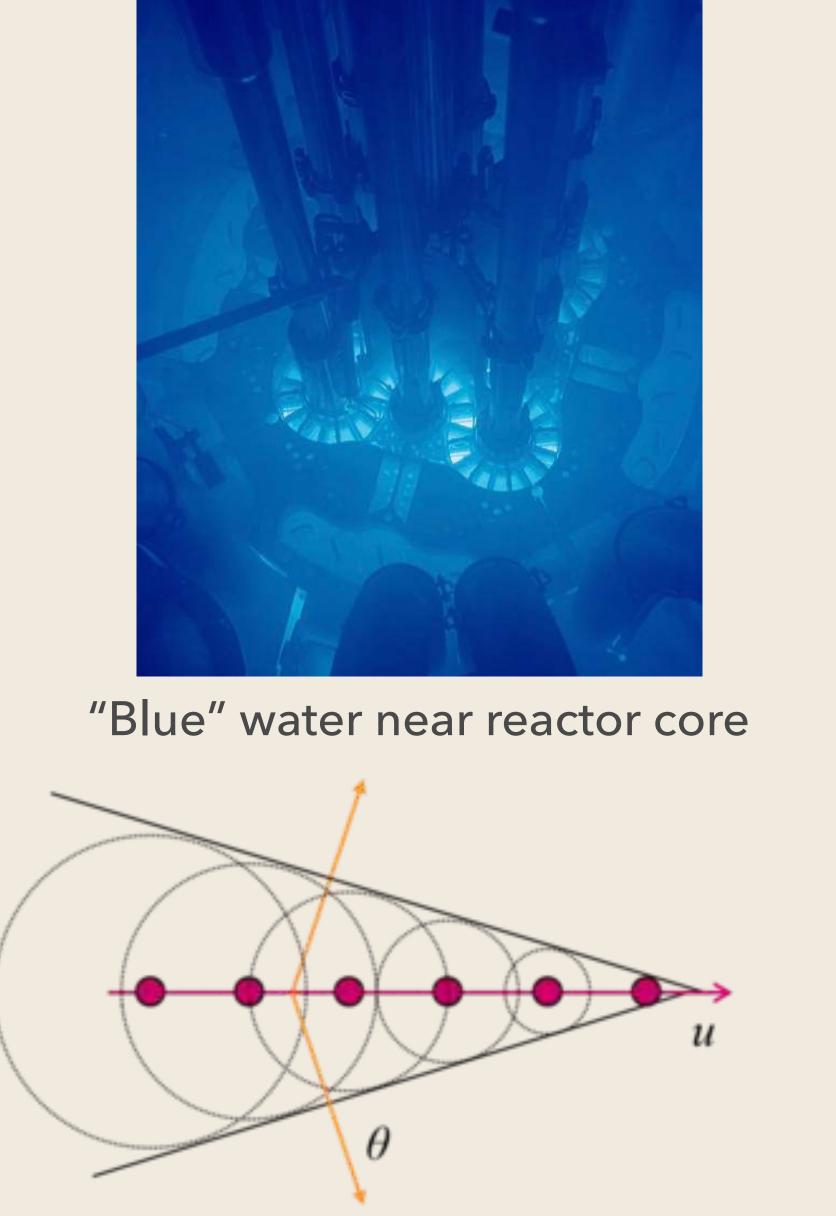
- Discovered by Pavel A. Cherenkov in 1937
- It happens when a charged particle passing through a polarizable medium with speed higher than the speed of light in that medium.

• $v = \beta c > c/n \rightarrow \beta n > 1$ where *n* is refractive index

- Mechanism: molecules are polarized in the direction of the charged particle moving
 - Excited molecules emit the light when back to the normal state
 - When particle moves faster than c/n, these emitted light added up constructively (interference) to emit the light at specific angle θ_C



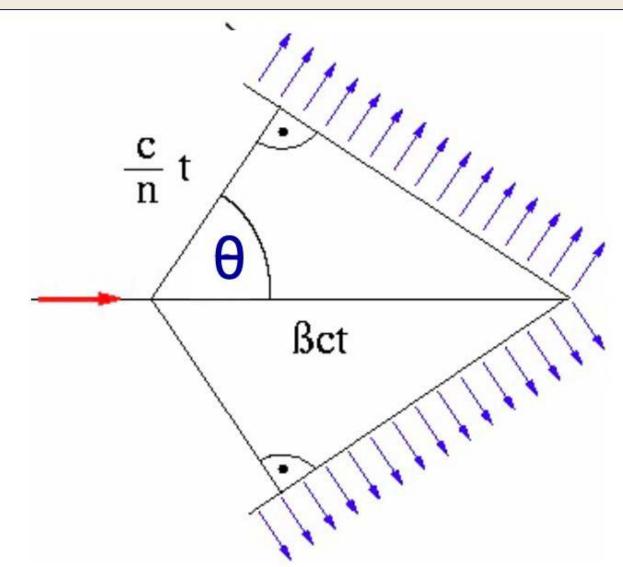
27



Cherenkov radiation for PID

- Threshold in Cherenkov radiation
 - In the air, threshold for pions is 5GeV/c but for Kaon is 20 GeV/c
 - In water, threshold for electron is 0.77 MeV, for muon is 160 MeV, for tau is 2.7 GeV
- Cherenkov angle $\cos \theta_C = \frac{1}{\beta n}$, depend on β
- Number of photons from Cherenkov radiation at a given wavelength $\frac{\partial^2 N}{\partial x \partial \lambda} = 2\pi \alpha (1 - 1/\beta^2 n^2) 1/\lambda^2$
 - More photon at lower wavelength, so Cherenkov mostly at blue and UV range
 - **Also depend on** β

$$rightarrow p_{th.} = \frac{mc/n}{\sqrt{1 - n^{-2}}}$$







Cherenkov radiation for PID

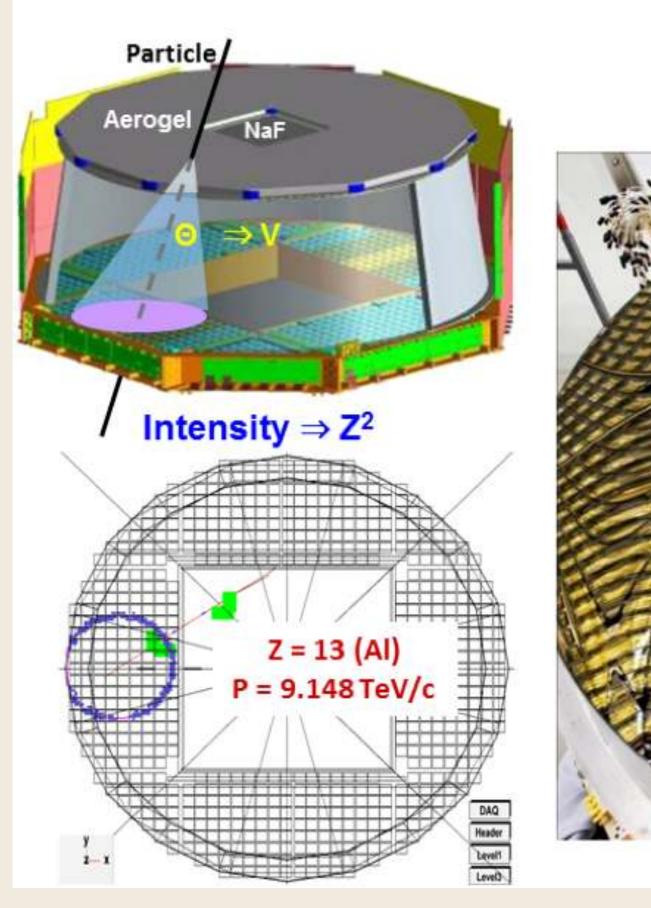
Material	n-1	β _c	θ_{c}	photons/cm
solid natrium	3.22	0.24	76.3	462
Lead sulfite	2.91	0.26	75.2	457
Diamond	1.42	0.41	65.6	406
Zinc sulfite	1.37	0.42	65	402
silver chloride	1.07	0.48	61.1	376
Flint glass	0.92	0.52	58.6	357
Lead crystal	0.67	0.6	53.2	314
Plexiglass	0.48	0.66	47.5	261
Water	0.33	0.75	41.2	213
Aerogel	0.075	0.93	21.5	66
Pentan	1.70E-03	0.9983	6.7	7
Air	2.90E-03	0.9997	1.38	0.3
He	3.30E-05	0.999971	0.46	0.03



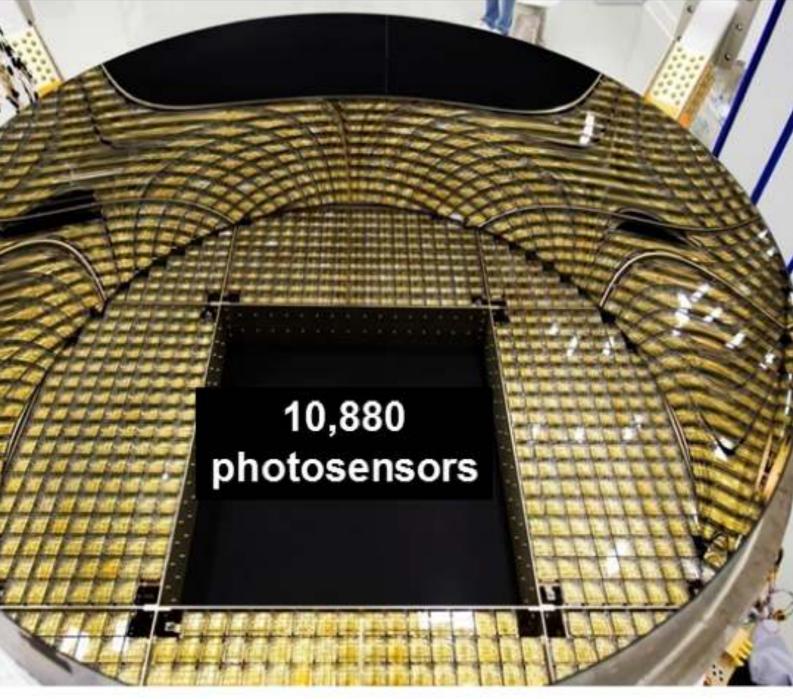
Cherenkov radiation for PID: RICH exp.

AMS Ring Imaging CHerenkov (RICH)

Measurement of Nuclear Charge (Z²) and its Velocity to 1/1000



https://ams02.space/detector/ring-imaging-cherenkov-detector-rich





Tracking detector

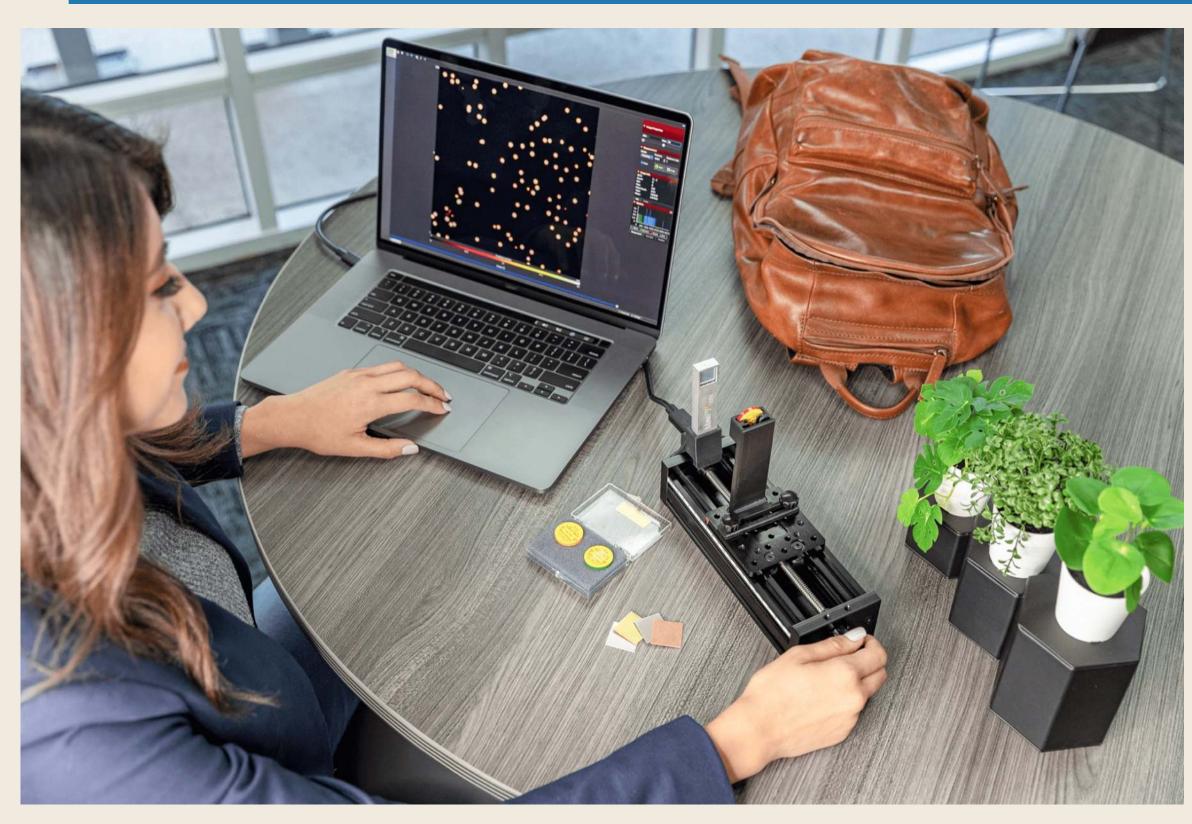
Tracking detector

To reveals the path, or "track", of a (charged) particle by providing

- Spatial information
- Temporal information
- While tracking, the detector also provide (partly) information of particle energy via measuring of the energy loss
- Sometimes, tracking detector can be designed to measure some particle properties, eg. charge, and/or momentum.

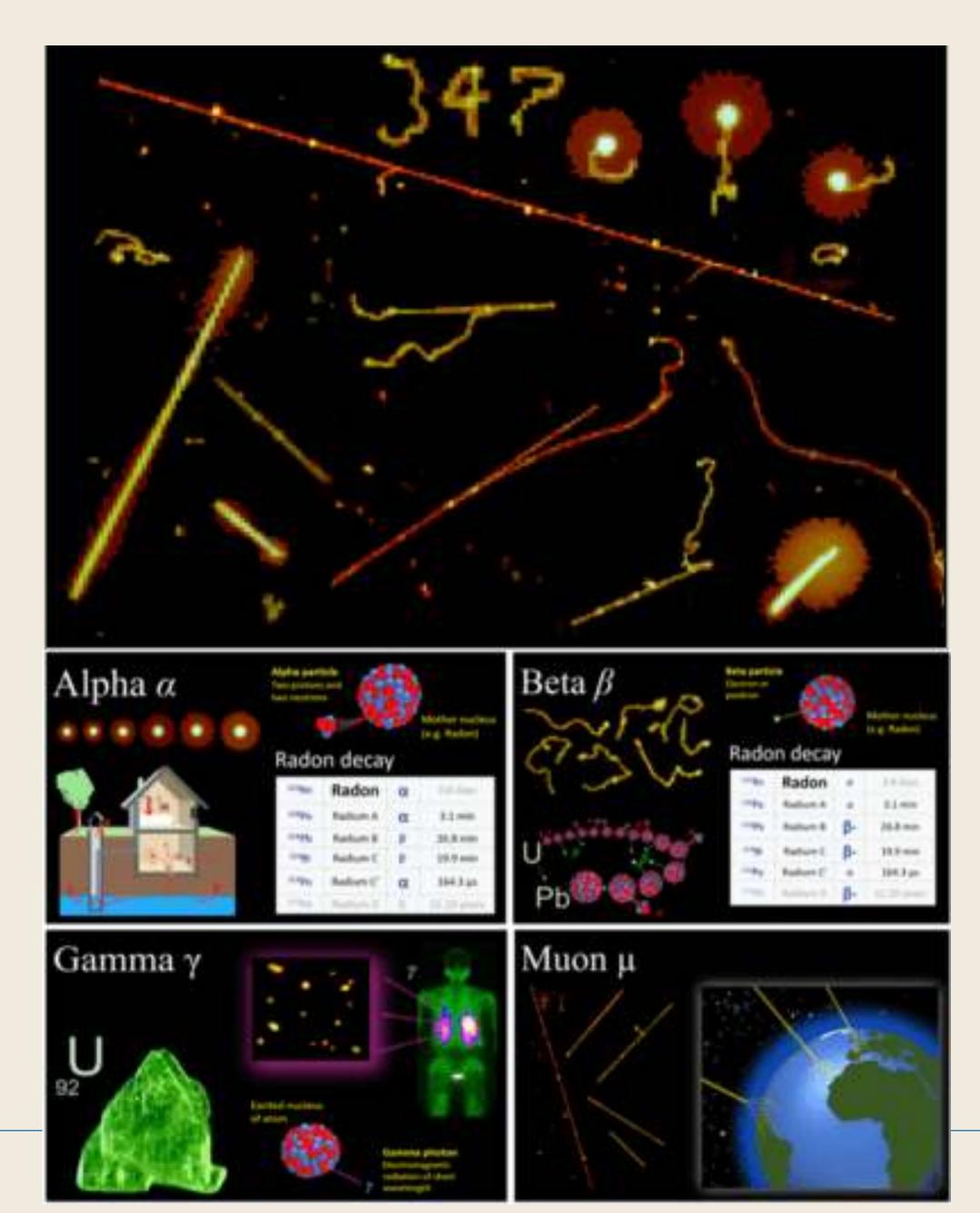


Eg. State-of-art of radiation tracking to the classroom



A transferred technology by CERN, being use by NASA More at Timepix section.

https://advacam.com/application/education/





Principle for tracking

Charged particle passing through matter

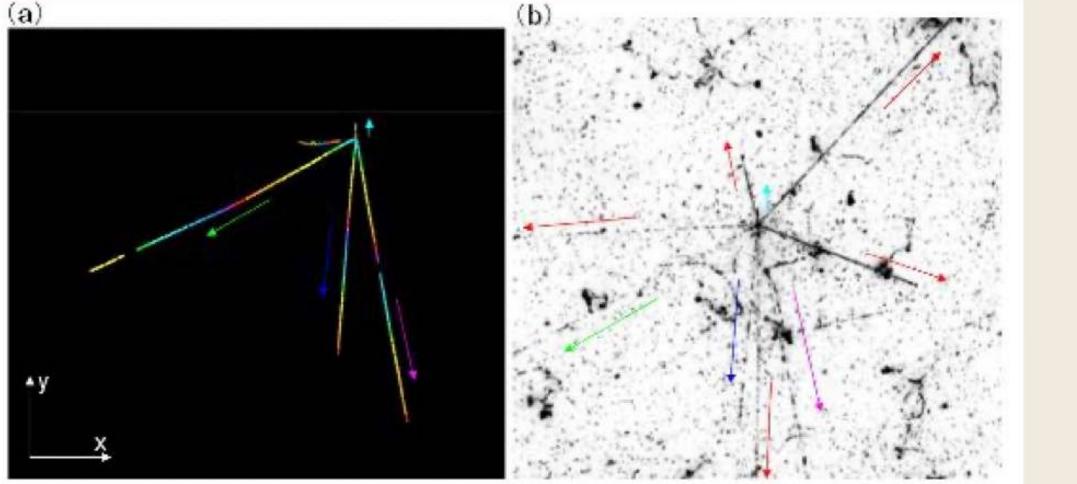
. . .

- Create <u>electron-ion pairs</u> in the gas
- Electron-hole pairs in semiconductor
- Scintillation light from excited molecules (liquid/plastic scintillators)
- Cherenkov light in the transparent materials

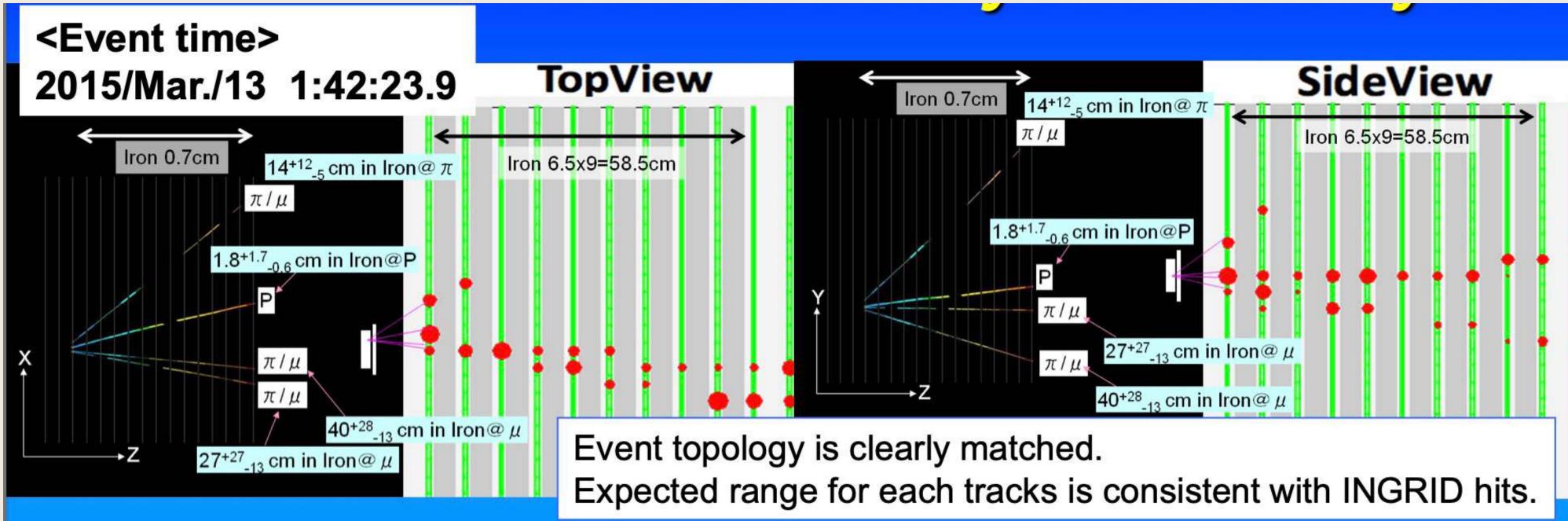
Understand these fundamental processes is critical for designing a tracking system.



Eg: Tracking with NINJA (Emulsion technique)



 $100 \,\mu \,\mathrm{m}$



In hybrid w/ other detector







35

Eg: Tracking with Super-FGD

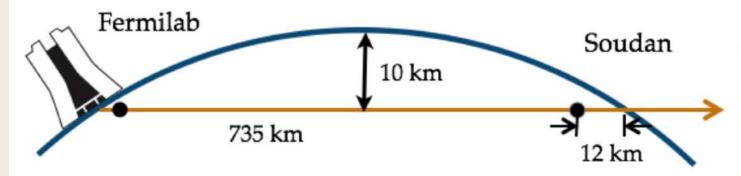
Detector size: 0.6 x 1.8 x 2.0 m³ Cube size: 1 x 1 x 1 cm³ Number of cubes: 2,160,000 Number of readout channels: 58,800

SCINTILLATION CUBES

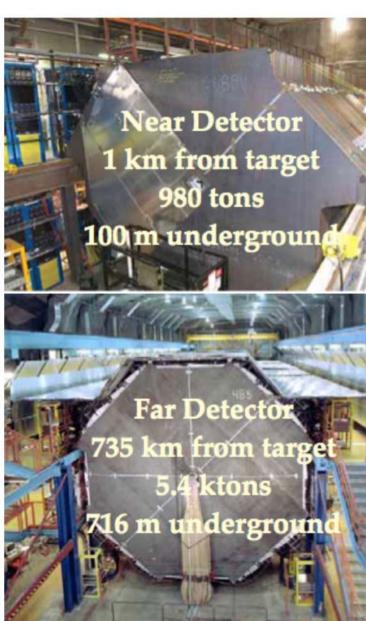


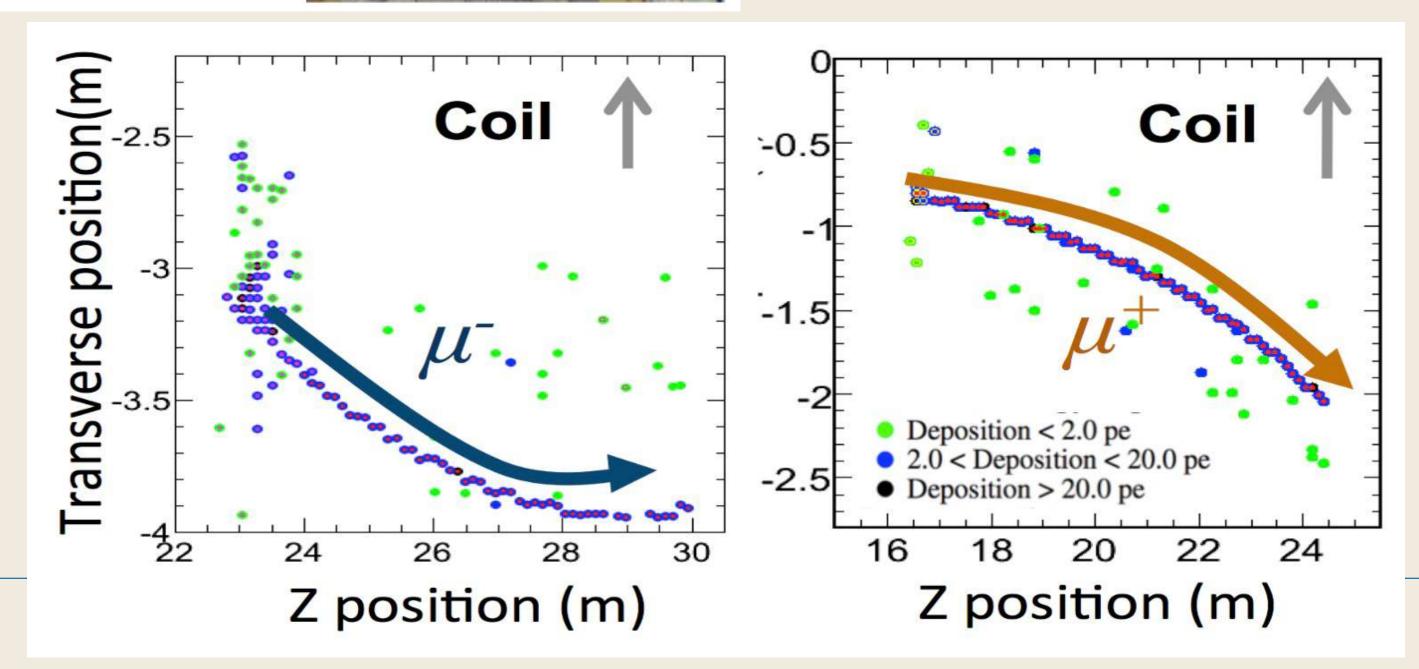


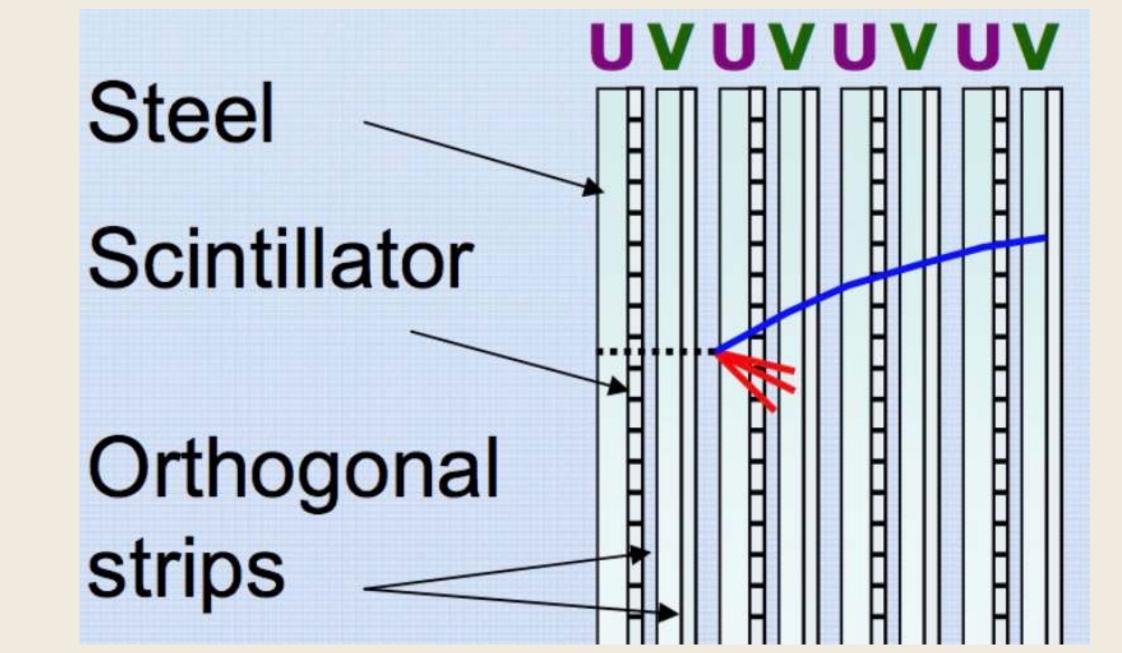
Eg: Tracking with charge identification



- \diamond NuMI high intensity neutrino beam
- ♦ Near Detector at Fermilab, IL
- \diamond Far Detector at Soudan, MN
- ♦ Two-detector design to mitigate systematic uncertainties



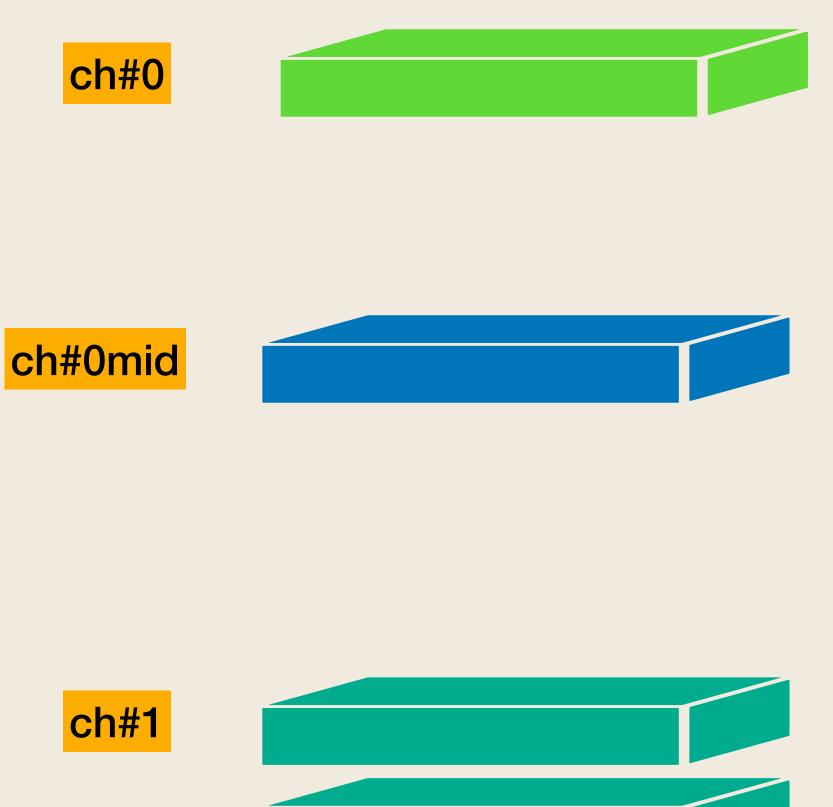




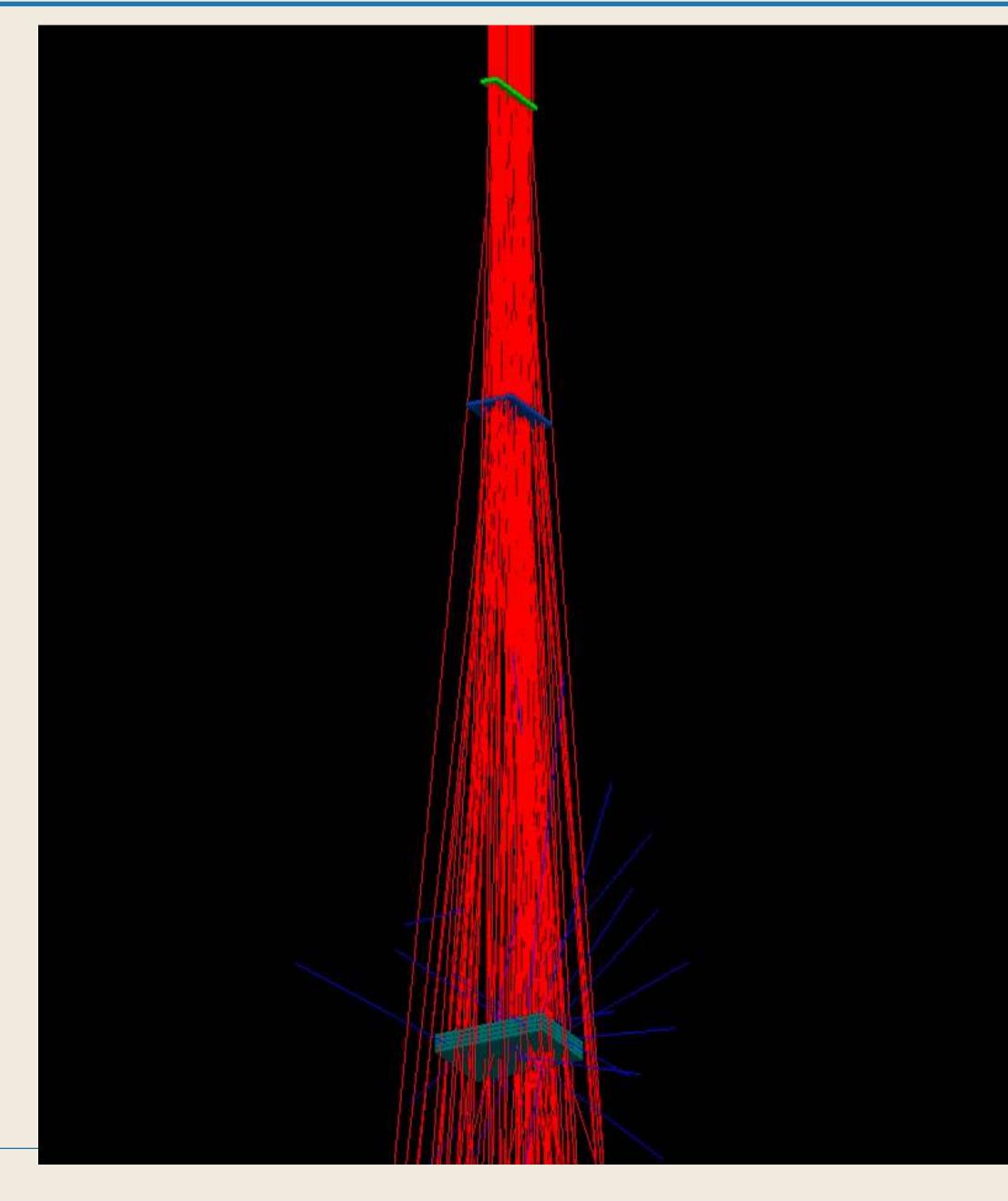


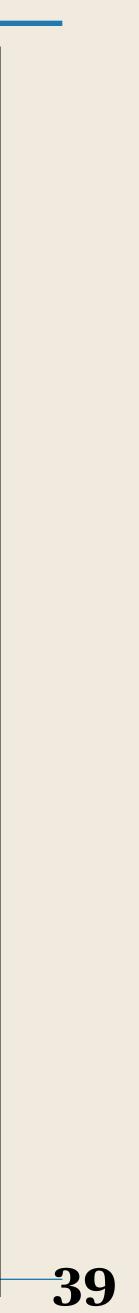
Tracking cosmic ray muons with simple scintillator setup

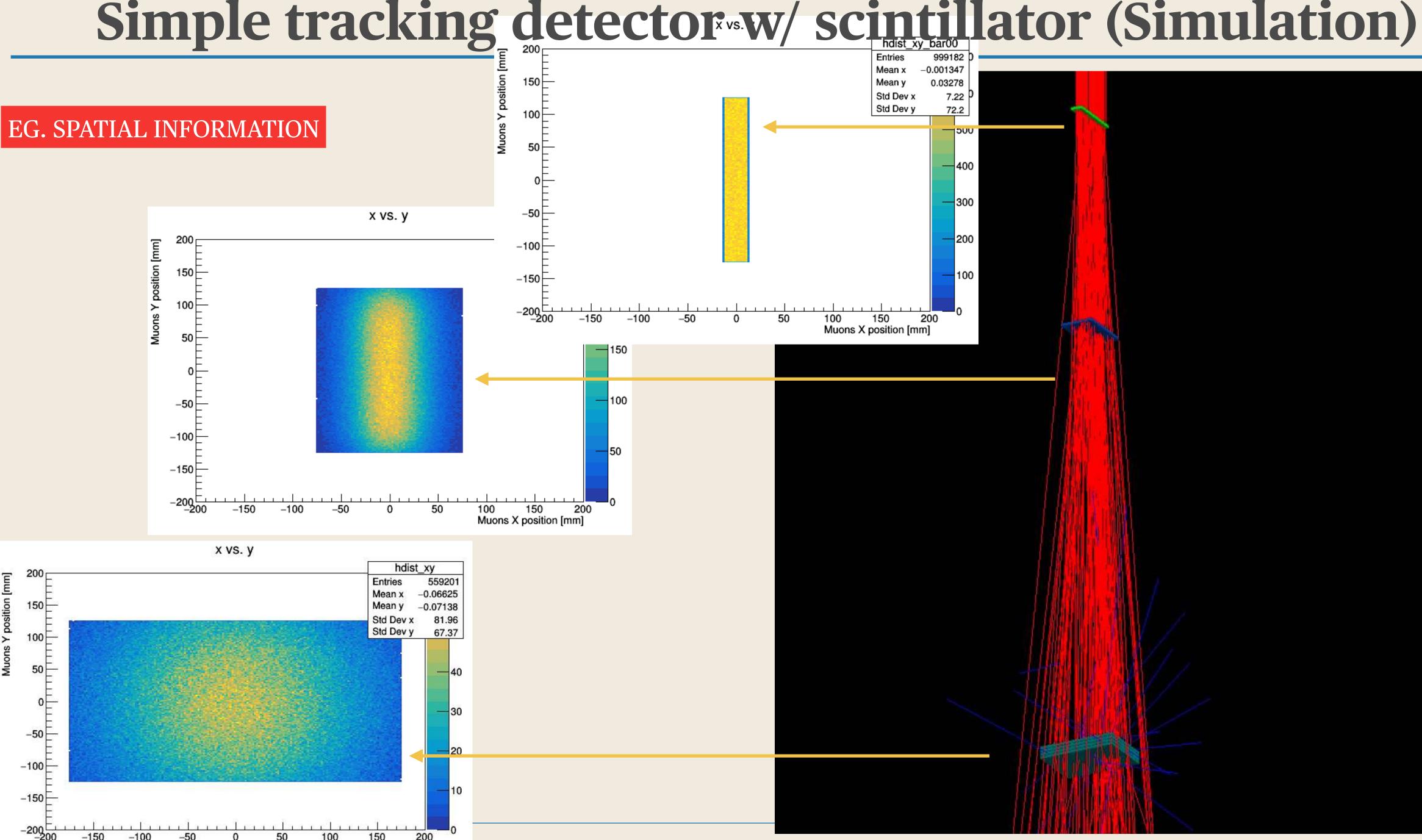
Simple tracking detector w/ scintillator (Simulation)

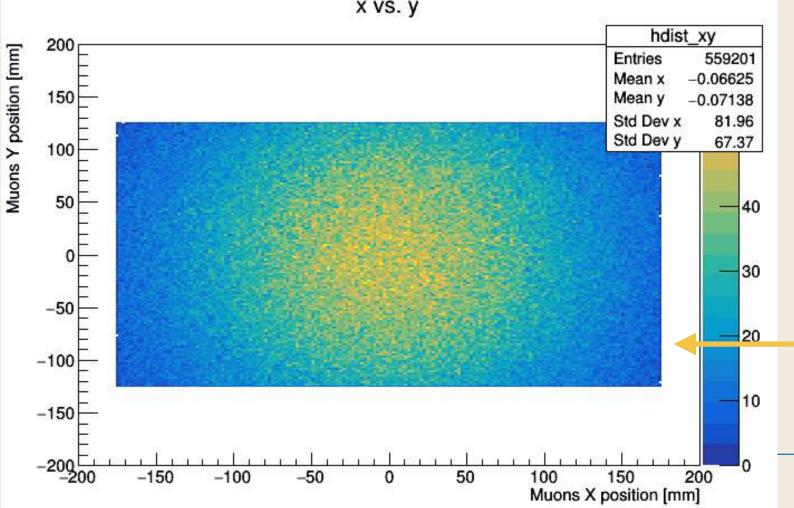








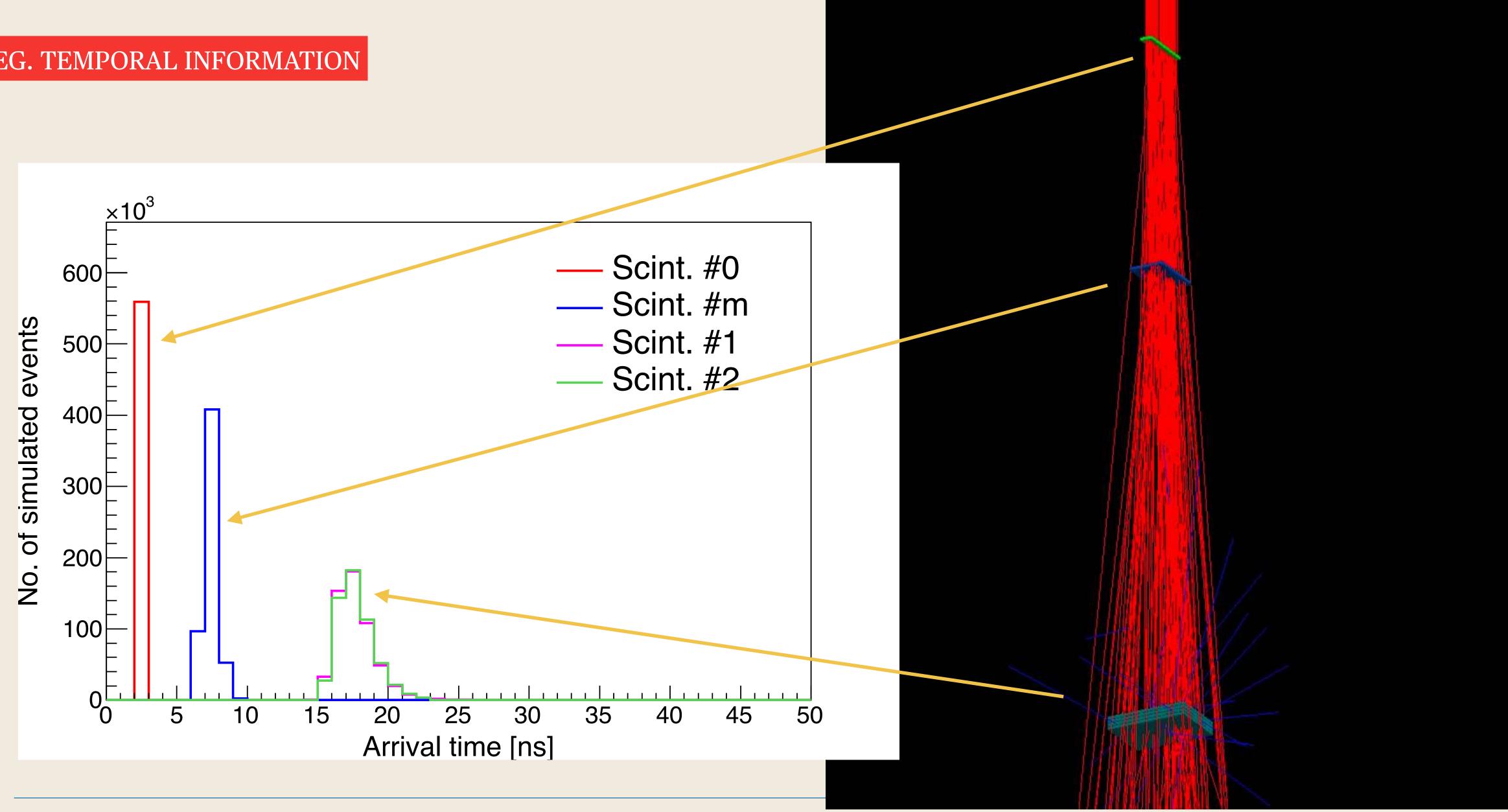






Simple tracking detector w/ scintillator (Simulation)

EG. TEMPORAL INFORMATION



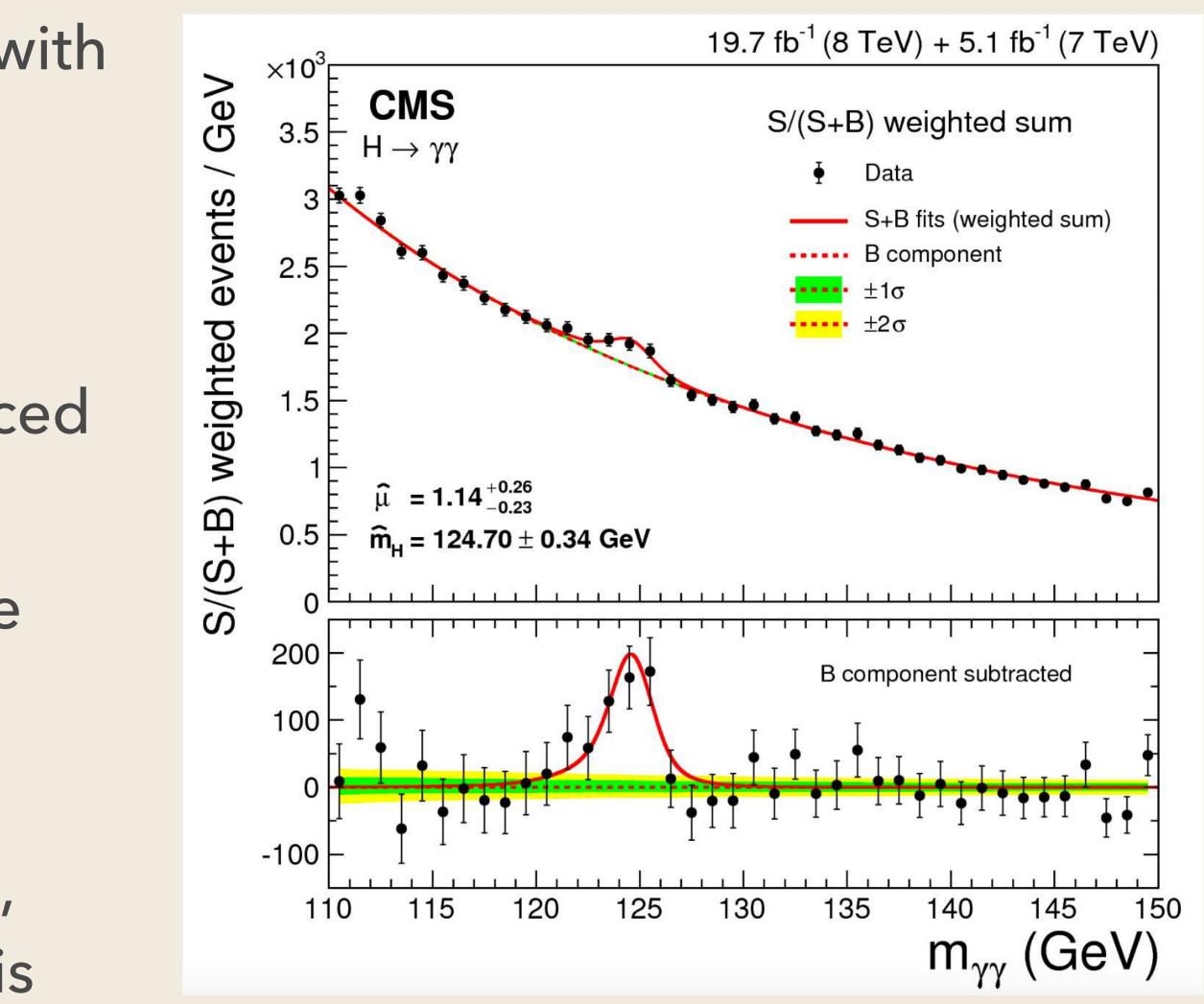


Calorimeter

Importance of energy measurement

To determine the energy of particle with some level of precision using the "energy loss phenomena"

- You can't measure directly but reconstruct from the signal induced of energy loss of particle
- Energy loss is proportional to the particle energy
- For some physics (eg. Higgs discovery, neutrino oscillation...), measuring the energy precisely is vital

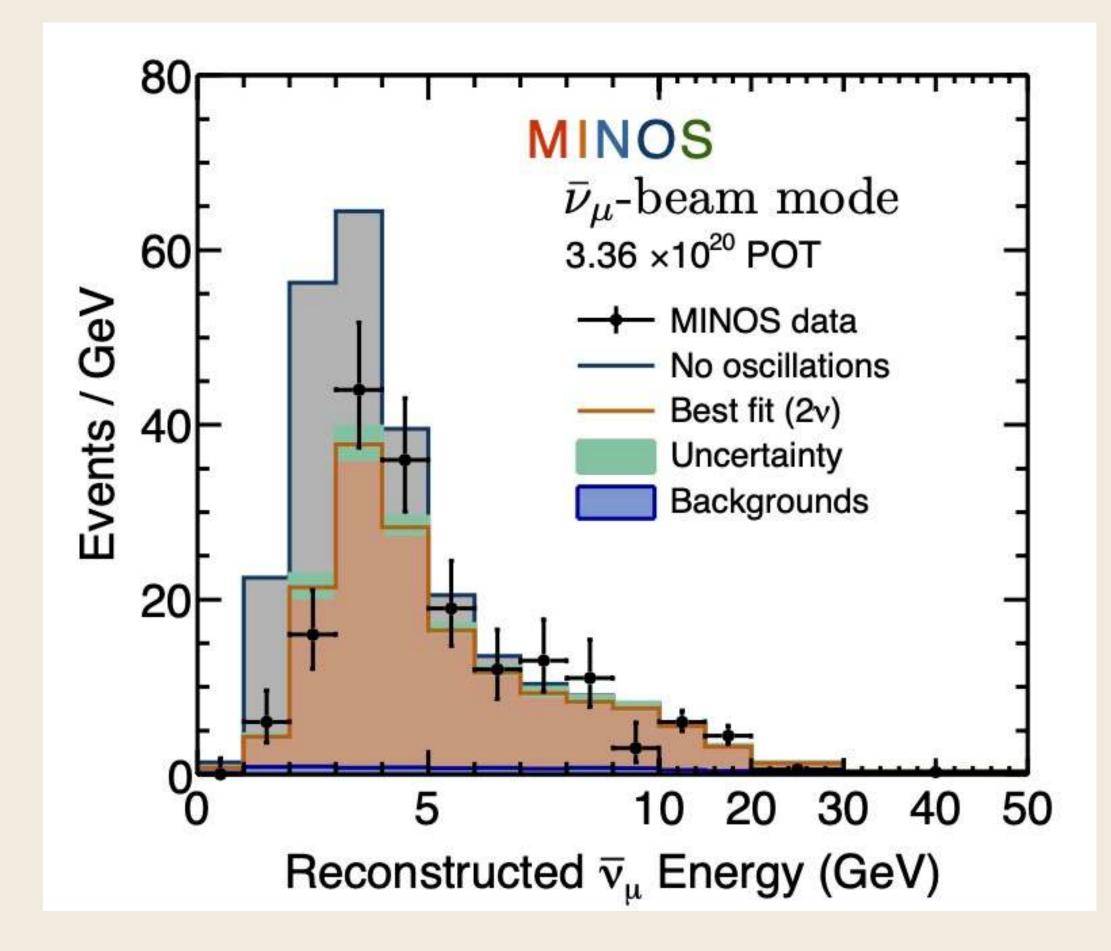


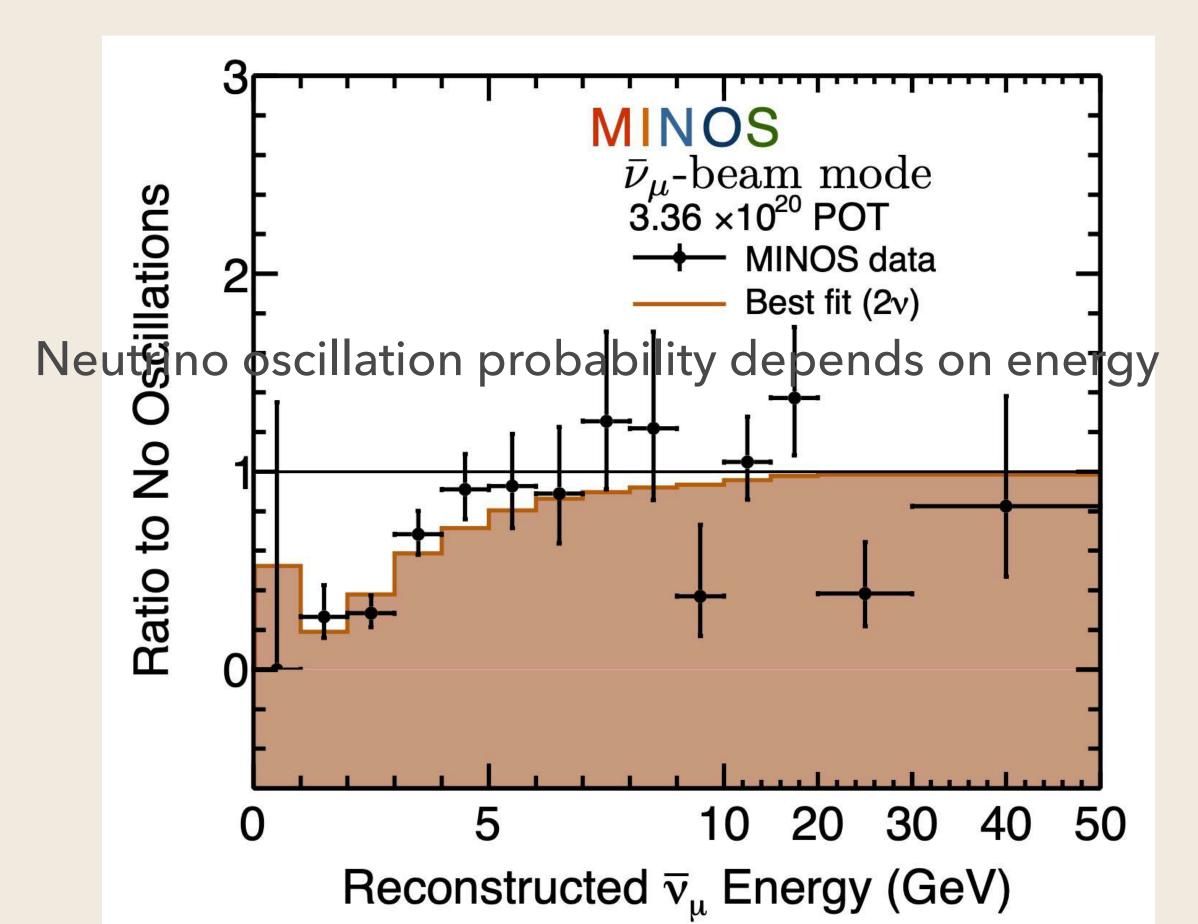
Higgs particle discovery thanks to the precise measurement of photon energy



Calorimeter for neutrino oscillation measurement

 $P(\nu_{\mu} \rightarrow \nu_{\mu}) \sim 1 - \sin^2 2\theta_{23} \sin^2 \frac{\Delta m_{31}^2 L}{4E_{\nu}}$



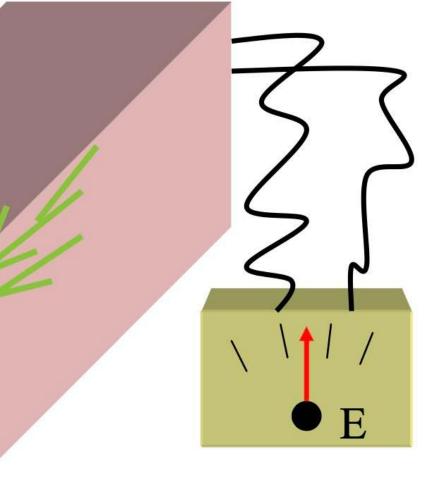




Calorimeter: design consideration

- Large enough and/or high-density material to absorb all of the energy of tobe-measured particles (include both charged and neutral particle)
- Record signal (charge or light collection) to refer to the energy lost
- Sufficiently granular to tell not just how much but where energy was deposited
- Other practical consideration: small enough to fit in detector, not too expensive, radiation hardness; fast read-out depending on event rate...

Principle: detect particles through total absorption in matter volume of the detector





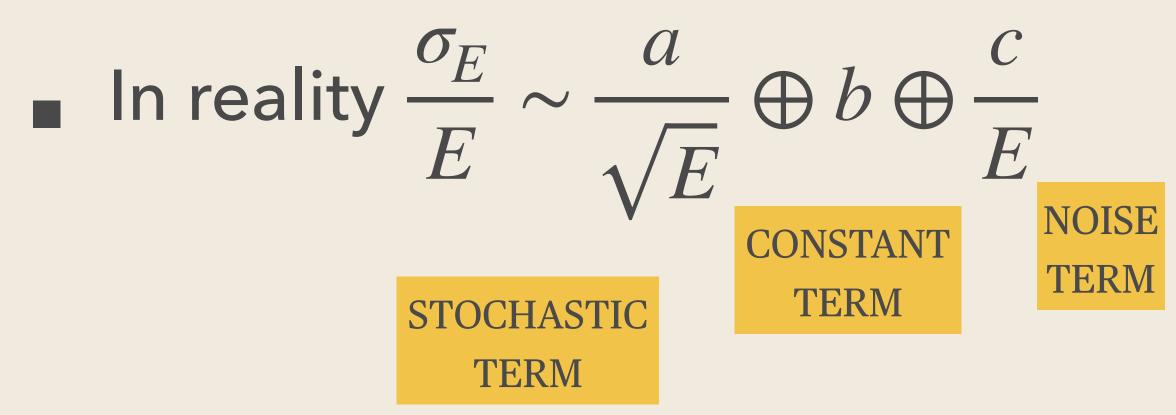






Energy resolution of calorimeter

- Spectrometer performance is characterized by "energy" resolution", typically as σ_E/E
 - Ideally $E \sim N$; $\sigma_E \sim \sqrt{N}$. So $\frac{\sigma_E}{E} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{E}}$



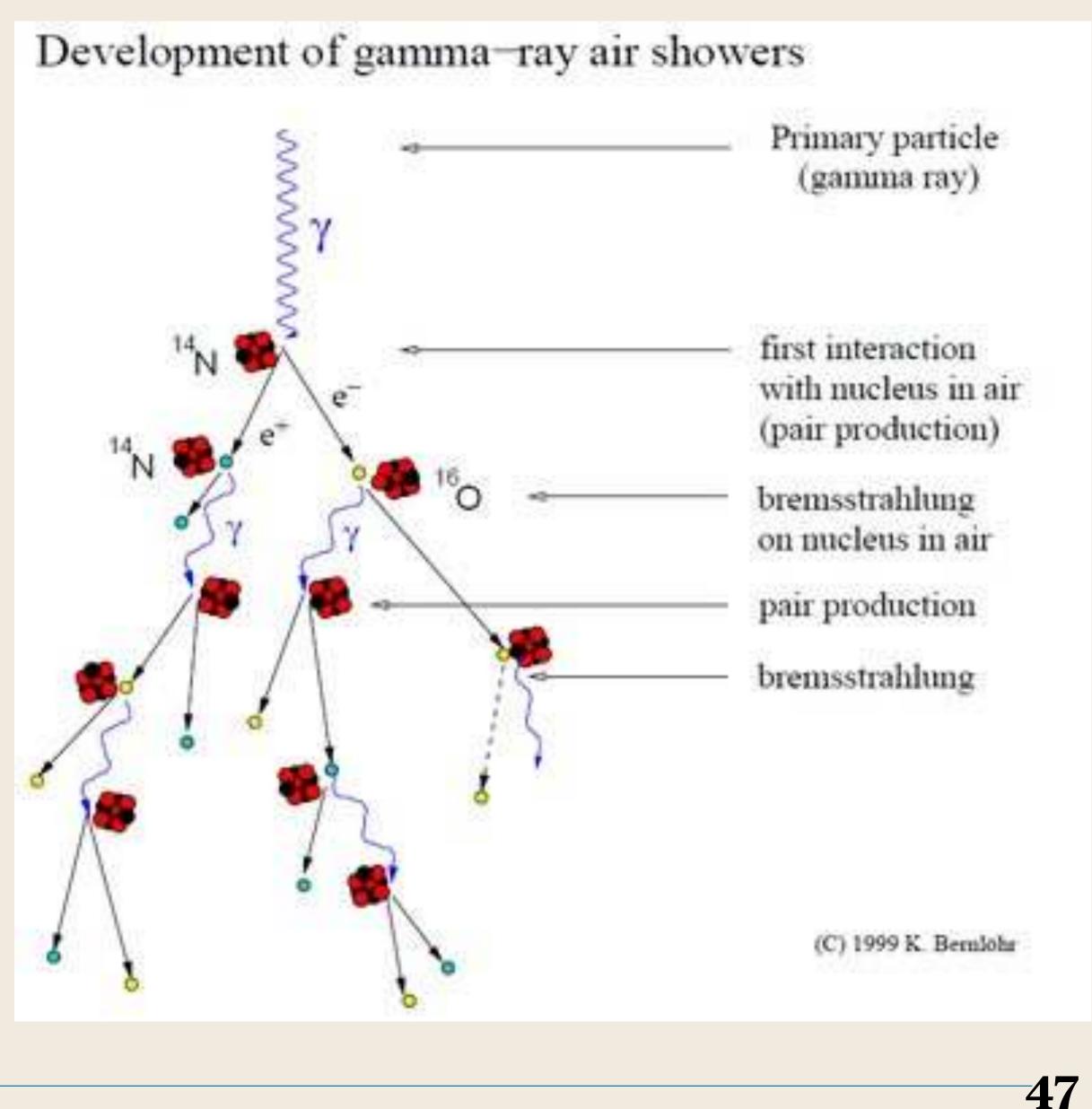
Essential task: calibrate conversion btw. what observed (eg. Scintillation light) to energy



Electromagnetic shower development

- Electromagnetic shower: High-energy photons produce pair of electrons and positrons
- Electrons and positrons radiate photons via Breamsstrahlung when travel through matter, interacting with fields of atoms
- One electron fall below critical energy, more energy loss via ionisation than bremsstrahlung and the shower stops growing

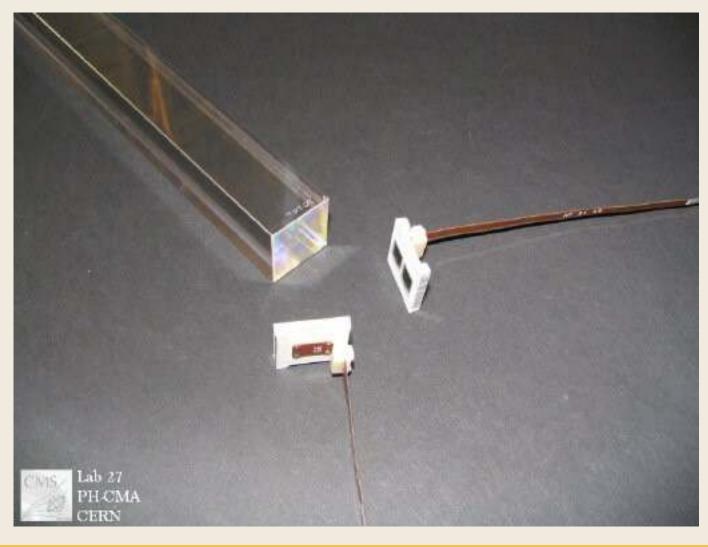
$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} \sim \frac{3\% - 10\%}{\sqrt{E/\text{GeV}}}.$$



Broadly two types: homogeneous and sampling

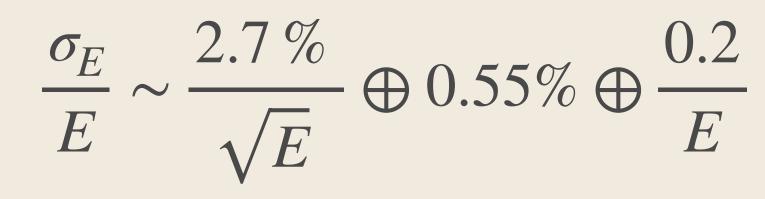
- Homogeneous type: all active volume, typically with high density transparent materials
 - Pros: excellent energy resolution
 - Cons: expensive; some limit in spatial resolution
- **Sampling**: consists of both passive (high Z materials like iron, tungsten) and active (scintillator) absorbers
 - Pros: cost-effective
 - Cons: not good energy resolution like the homogeneous type

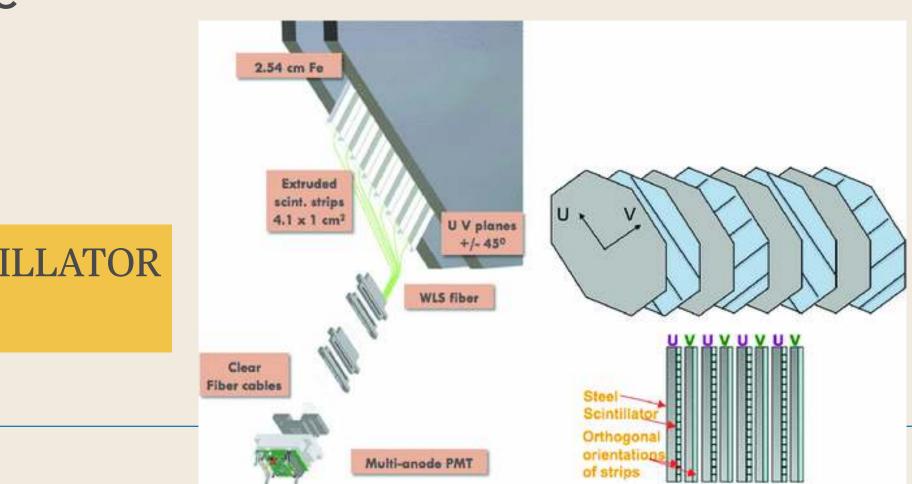
MINOS (+): STEEL-SCINTILLATOR **SANDWICH**



CMS ECAL: USE 80,000 PBWO₄ CRYSTAL

Can achieve





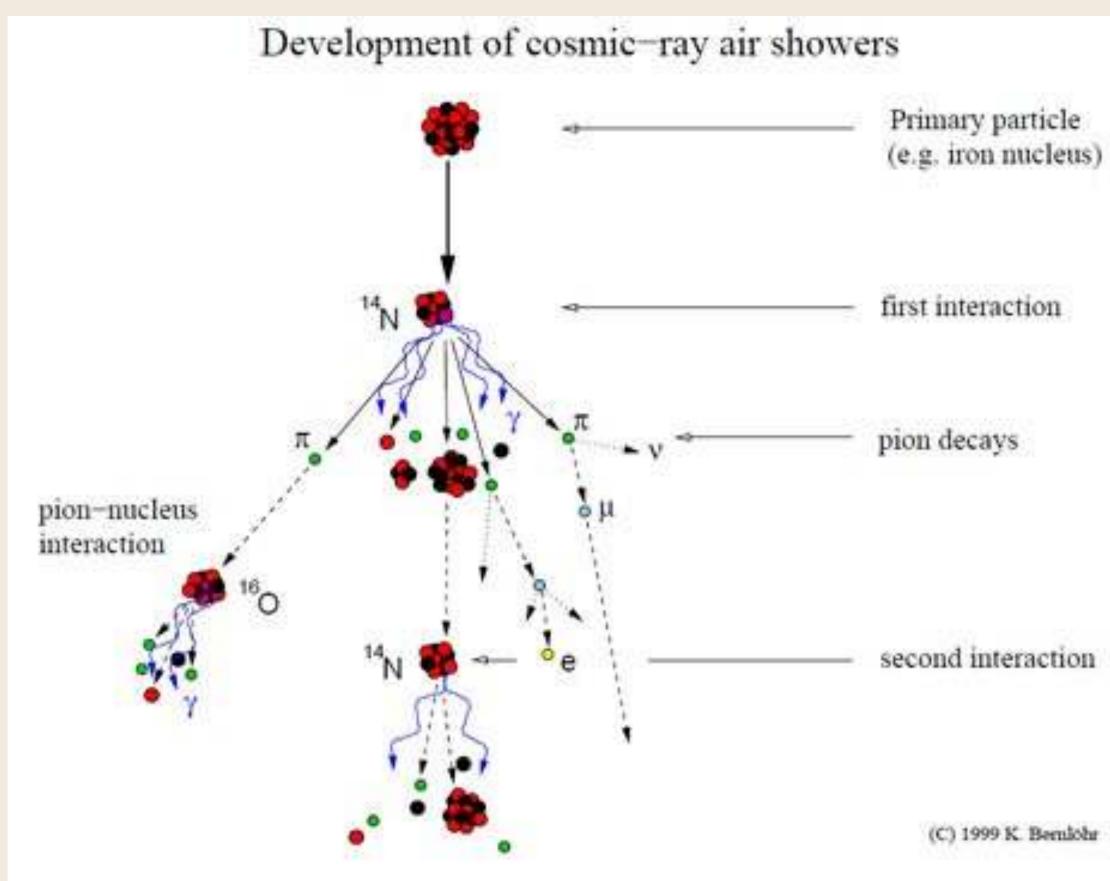




Hadronic shower development

- Driven by inelastic nuclear scattering
- Interaction length $\lambda_{int.} = 35 [g/cm^2] A^{1/3}$, only depend on detector material
 - Eg. In iron, $\rho \approx 7.8 \ g/cm^3$, A=28, interaction is about X₀= 13cm
 - Calorimeter thickness is about 9 X₀
- Complicated shower with pion, neutron, photon (from neutral pion), neutrino
- Some energy loss can't be observed, eg.
 Neutrino, nuclear binding energy ...
- Typically, hadronic shower energy resolution is worse than EM shower



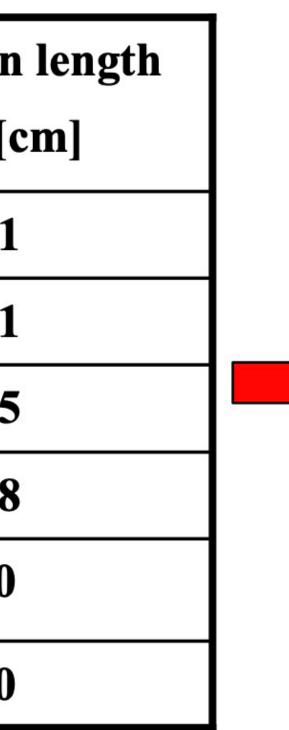


$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} \gtrsim \frac{50\%}{\sqrt{E/\text{GeV}}},$$



Hadron calorimeter thickness

Medium	Density ρ [g/cm ³]	Interaction λ _{INT} [c
Copper (Cu)	9.0	15.1
Lead (Pb) (ATLAS)	11.4	17.1
Uranium (U) (ZEUS)	19.0	10.5
Iron (Fe)	7.9	16.8
Plastic scintillator	~1.0	~80
Concrete	~2.5	~40



For "full" containment calorimeter thickness needed is about 9 λ_{INT} :

- 136 cm of copper
- 154 cm of lead
- 95 cm of uranium
- 150 cm of iron
- ~7 m of plastic-scintillator!!
- ~3.6 cm of concrete

Hadron calorimeters need to be deep!





Calorimeter techniques

- Common modern techniques used:
 - Gaseous/liquid Argon ionization
 - Scintillator detector
 - Cherenkov detector

. . .





Light guide (optional)

photodetector

Inorganic Scintillators

- Advantages
 - high light yield [typical; ε_{sc} ≈ 0.13]
 - high density [e.g. PBWO₄: 8.3 g/cm³]
 - **good energy resolution** (\rightarrow Calorimeters)
- Disadvantages complicated crystal growth
- large temperature dependence

scintillator

- **Organic Scintillators**
 - Advantages
 - very fast
 > pulse shape discrimination possible
 - easily shaped
 - small temperature dependence
 - Disadvantages
 - lower light yield [typical; $\varepsilon_{sc} \approx 0.03$]
 - Iow density [e.g. 1 g/cm³]
 - radiation damage

Light yield $\varepsilon_{sc} \equiv$ fraction of energy loss going into photons

EXPENSIVE

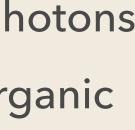
CHEAP

Scintillation detector

- One of the most common techniques in PN physics
- To detect energy deposited by ionizing particles or photons
- Broadly categorized into: organic scintillator and inorganic scintillator
- Main detection characteristics: linearity to energy; fast response (fast rising time)

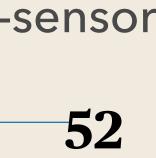
TiOz WLS fibre "green" photon scintillator spine photon to PM7 or SiPM

Sometimes need to use with WLS And normally read out with fast photo-sensor

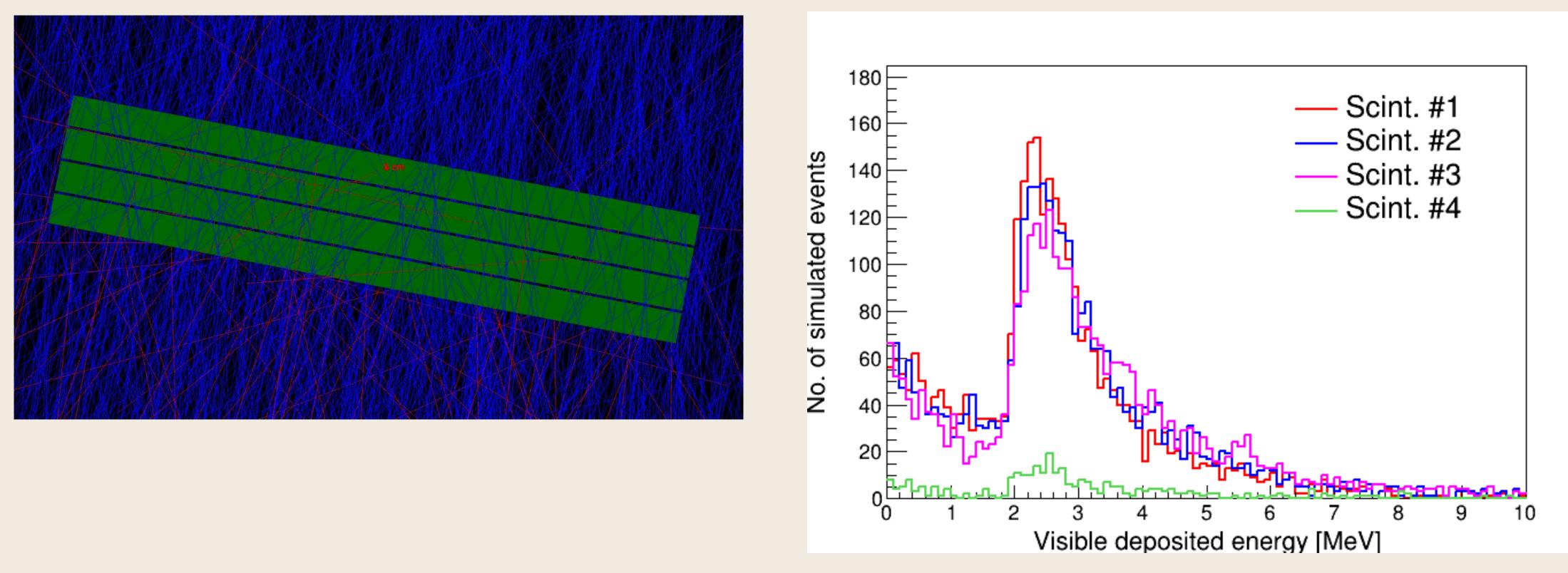








Example of energy deposit by muon on plastic scintillator



- We do not measure this amount of energy deposit directly
- We in fact count No. of photoelectron trigged by the produced scintillation light (captured, reemitted, and transported by WLS) with photodetector
- Understanding the physics of energy deposit process and the response of photodetector, scintillator, WLS allows us to make a conversion from what we observed to energy deposit.



Recent developments



Recent developments (personal interest)

- Dual readout: read both Cherenkov light and Scintillation light; eg. Water-based liquid scintillator
- High granularity, eg. SuperFGD with ~2 millions of 1cm x1cm x1cm cube for improving spatial resolution and energy resolution
- Improve the particle identification, noise suppression with Timeof-flight techniques based on fast photodetector, eg. TOF, T2K Near Detector
- Machine learning/ AI for event filtering, particle identification, anomaly event catching, energy regression...



Details in the textbooks

Second Edition

AND BORIS SHWARTZ

CAMBRIDGE MONOG ON PARTICLE PHYSICS, NU AND COSMOLO

26

Available in our bookshelf



CLAUS GRUPEN

W.R. Leo **Techniques for** Nuclear and **Particle Physics** Experiments



Gicise







Backup



Cherenkov Threshold

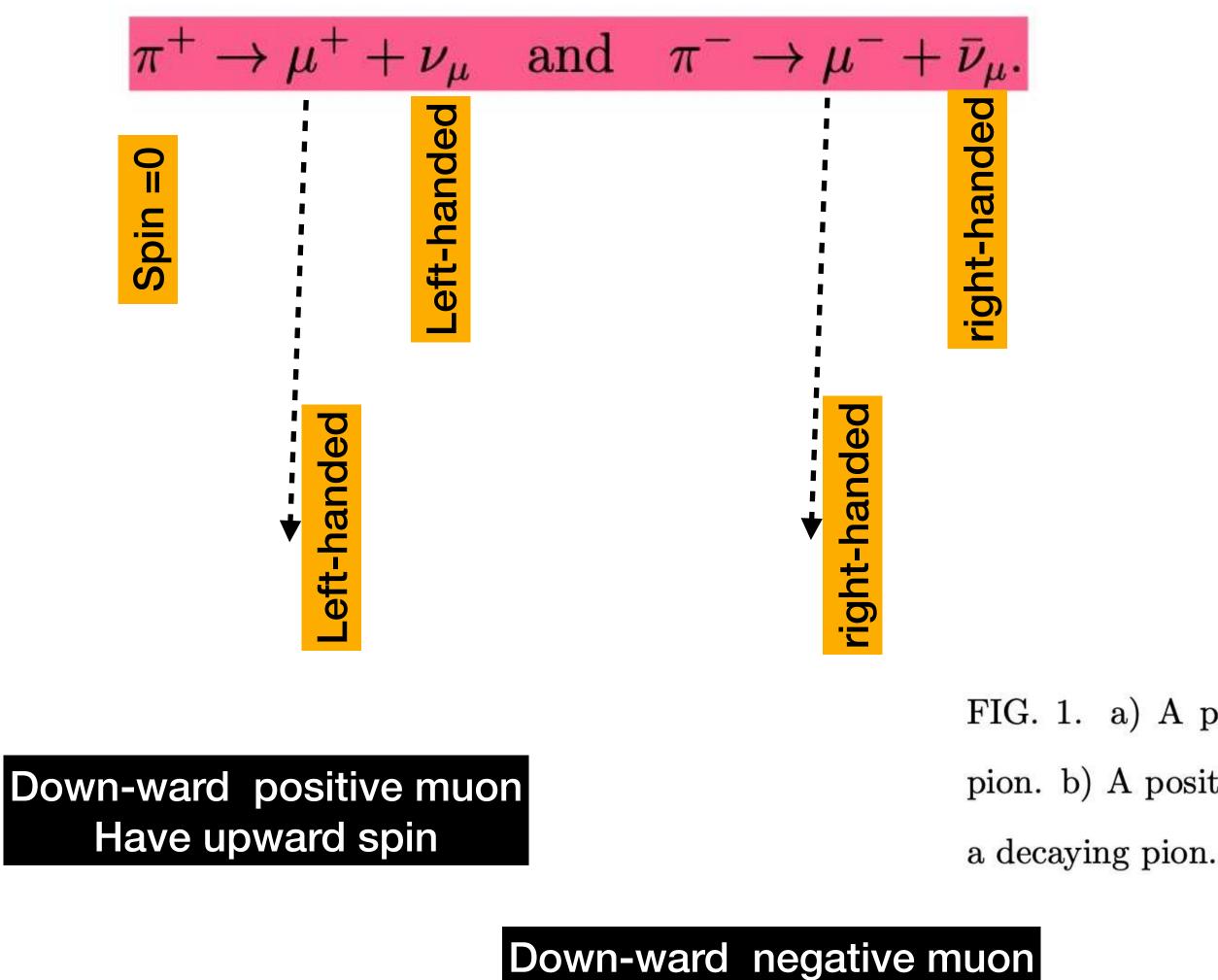
GeV/c

• Threshold in Cherenkov detector $p_{th.} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - n^{-2}}}$

In the air, threshold for pions is 5GeV/c but for Kaon is 20



Parity violation in muon decay



Have downward spin

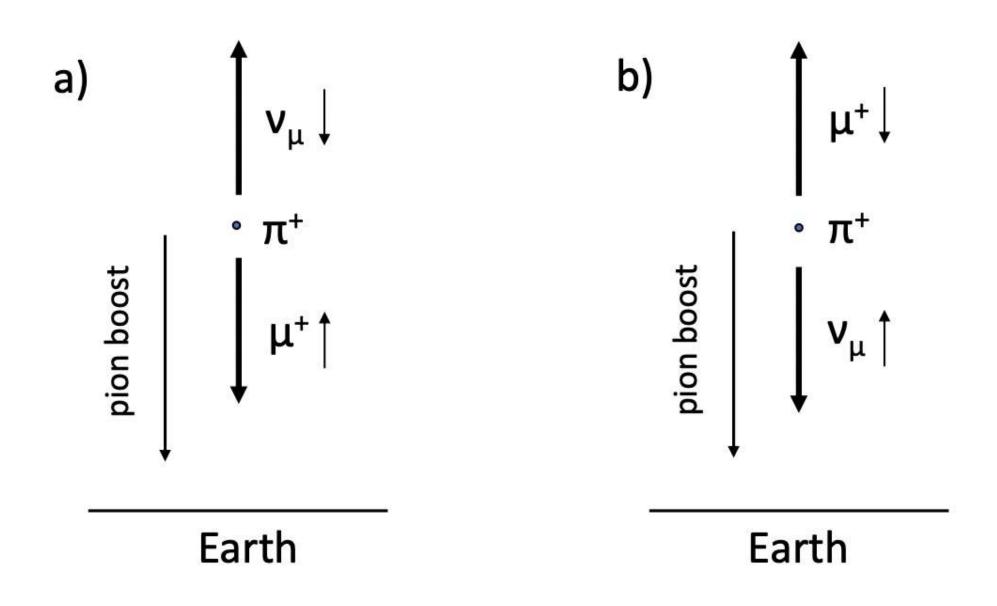
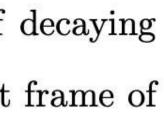
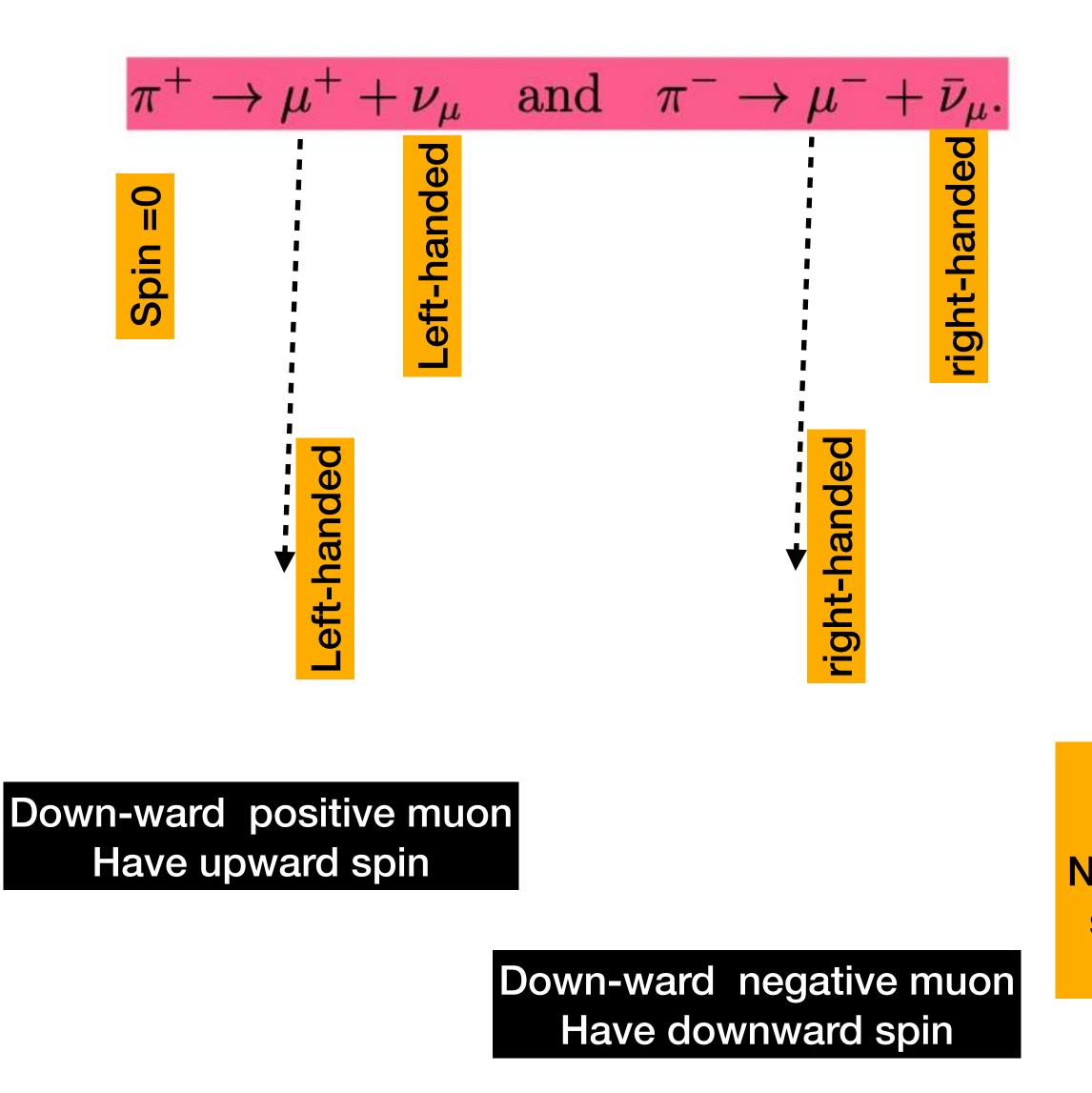


FIG. 1. a) A positive muon emitted in the pion boost direction in the rest frame of decaying pion. b) A positive muon emitted in the opposite direction of the pion boost in the rest frame of



Parity violation in muon decay



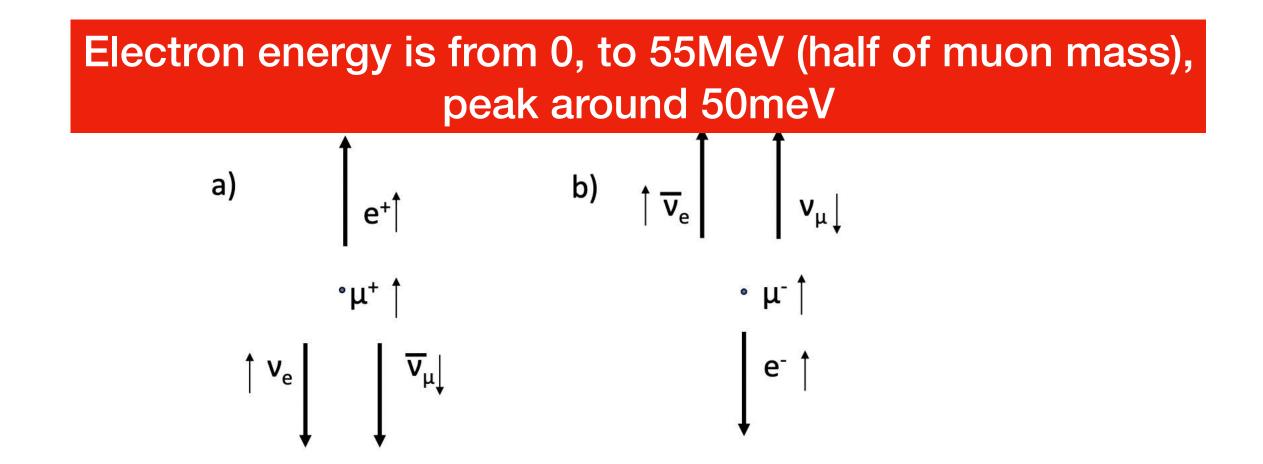


FIG. 2. Decay at the rest of a positive (a) and a negative (b) muon with the emission of the most energetic positron and electron, respectively.

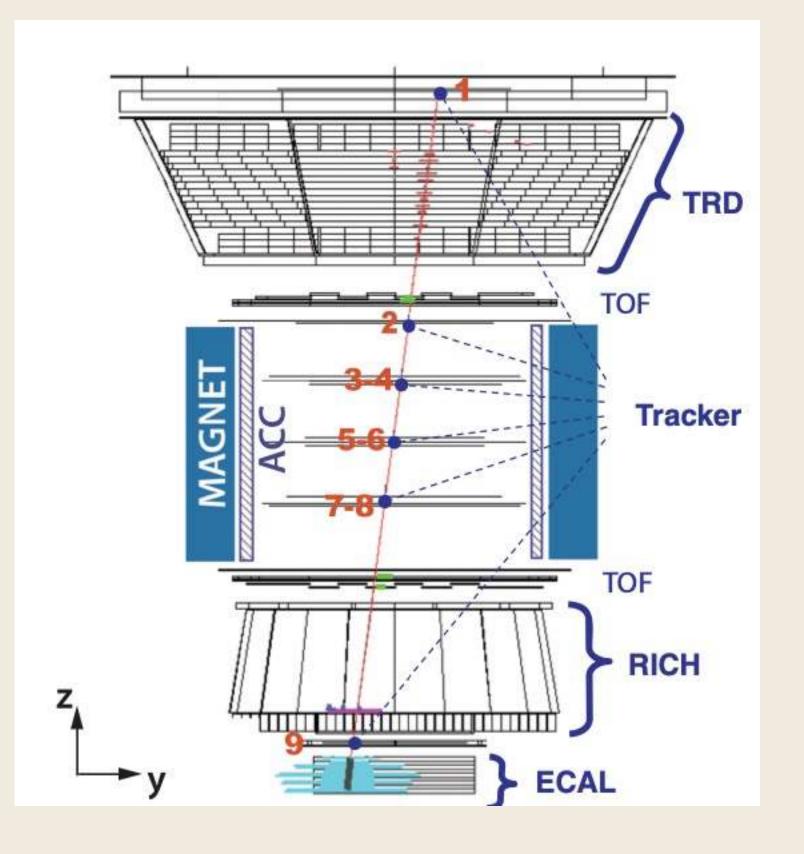
$$\mu^+ \rightarrow e^+ + \nu_e + \bar{\nu}_\mu$$
 and $\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\mu$.

In extreme case, positron (electron) get most energy When two (anti-)neutrino produces in the same direction Net neutrino spin is zero -> positron (electron) will prefer to have same spin direction as their parent. Sin positron (left) is right (left) handed Both positron and electron will prefer to emit upward



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