# **Tracking Detectors**

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# **Basic Tracking Concepts**



 Moving object (animal) disturbs the material

- $\rightarrow$  A track  $\leftarrow$
- Keen observers can learn

Identity

• What made the track?

Position

- Where did it go through?
- Direction
  - Which way did it go?
- Velocity
  - How fast was it moving?

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# **Charged Particles**

#### Charged particles leave tracks as they penetrate material



Discovery of the positron Anderson, 1932

16 GeV  $\pi^-$  beam entering a liquid-H<sub>2</sub> bubble chamber at CERN, circa 1970

 "Footprint" in this case is excitation/ionization of the detector material by the incoming particle's electric charge

# **Coulomb Scattering**

Incoming particle scatters off an electron in the detector



Integrate above minimum energy (for ionization/excitation) and multiply by the electron density

See P. Fisher's lecture from NEPPSR'03

### Bethe-Bloch Formula

Average rate of energy loss [in MeV g<sup>-1</sup>cm<sup>2</sup>]

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

$$K = 4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2$$
$$= 0.307 \,\mathrm{MeVg^{-1}cm^2}$$

I = mean ionization/excitation energy [MeV]

- $\delta$  = density effect correction (material dependent)
- What's the funny unit?



### Bethe-Bloch Formula



$$\frac{dE}{dx} = -Kz^{2} \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^{2}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_{e}c^{2}\gamma^{2}\beta^{2}T_{\max}}{I^{2}} - \beta^{2} - \frac{\delta}{2} \right]$$

- dE/dx depends only on  $\beta$  (and z) of the particle
- At low  $\beta$ ,  $dE/dx \propto 1/\beta^2$ 
  - Just kinematics
- Minimum at  $\beta\gamma \sim 4$
- At high  $\beta$ , dE/dx grows slowly
  - Relavistic enhancement of the transverse E field
- At very high  $\beta$ , dE/dx saturates
  - Shielding effect

# Minimum Ionizing Particles



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## Primary and Secondary Ionization

An electron scattered by a charged particle may have enough energy to ionize more atoms



3 primary + 4 secondary ionizations

- Signal amplitude is (usually) determined by the total ionization
- Detection efficiency is (often) determined by the primary ionization

Gas	Primary [/cm]	Total [/cm]
He	5	16
CO <sub>2</sub>	35	107
$C_2H_6$	43	113

Ex: 1 cm of helium produce on average 5 primary electrons per mip.

$$\varepsilon = 1 - e^{-5} = 0.993$$

A realistic detector needs to be thicker.

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# Multiple Scattering

Particles passing material also change direction



## **Optimizing Detector Material**

- A good detector must be
  - thick enough to produce sufficient signal
  - thin enough to keep the multiple scattering small
- Optimization depends on many factors:
  - How many electrons do we need to detect signal over noise?
    - It may be 1, or 10000, depending on the technology
  - What is the momentum of the particle we want to measure?
    - LHC detectors can be thicker than BABAR
  - How far is the detector from the interaction point?



# **Readout Electronics**

#### Noise of a well-designed detector is calculable

- Increases with  $C_d$
- Increases with the bandwidth (speed) of the readout
- Equivalent noise charge  $Q_n$  = size of the signal that would give S/N = 1



- Typically 1000–2000 electrons for fast readout (drift chambers)
- Slow readout (liguid Ar detectors) can reach 150 electrons

More about electronics by John later today

# Silicon Detectors

Imagine a piece of pure silicon in a capacitor-like structure



 $dE/dx_{min} = 1.664 \text{ MeVg}^{-1}\text{cm}^2$ Density = 2.33 g/cm<sup>3</sup> Excitation energy = 3.6 eV

10<sup>6</sup> electron-hole pair/cm

Assume  $Q_n = 2000$  electron and require S/N > 10

Thickness > 200  $\mu$ m

Realistic silicon detector is a reverse-biased p-n diode



# **BABAR Silicon Detector**

Double-sided detector with AC-coupled readout



Aluminum strips run X/Y directions on both surfaces

#### Wire Chambers

Gas-based detectors are better suited in covering large volume

- Smaller cost + less multiple scattering
- Ionization < 100 electrons/cm → Too small for detection
  - Need some form of amplification before electronics

	Encounters/cm	$t_{99}(\mathrm{mm})$	Free electrons/c	m
He	5	9.2	16	
Ne	12	3.8	42	
$\mathbf{Ar}$	25	1.8	103	From PDG
Xe	46	1.0	340	A. Cattai and G. Rolandi
$\mathrm{CH}_4$	27	1.7	62	
$\rm CO_2$	35	1.3	107	
$\mathrm{C_{2}H_{6}}$	43	1.1	113	

# Gas Amplification

String a thin wire (anode) in the middle of a cylinder (cathode)



- Apply high voltage
- Electrons drift toward the anode, bumping into gas molecules
- Near the anode, E becomes large enough to cause secondary ionization
- Number of electrons doubles at every collision

# Avalanche Formation

Avalanche forms within a few wire radii



- Electrons arrive at the anode quickly (< 1ns spread)
- Positive ions drift slowly outward
  - Current seen by the amplifier is dominated by this movement

# Signal Current

Assuming that positive ion velocity is proportional to the E field, one can calculate the signal current that flows between the anode and the cathode

$$I(t) \propto \frac{1}{t+t_0}$$

- This "1/*t*" signal has a very long tail
  - Only a small fraction (~1/5) of the total charge is available within useful time window (~100 ns)
  - Electronics must contain differentiation to remove the tail



# Gas Gain

#### ■ Gas gain increases with HV up to 10<sup>5</sup>−10<sup>6</sup>

- With  $Q_n = 2000$  electrons and a factor 1/5 loss due to the 1/t tail, gain = 10<sup>5</sup> can detect a single-electron signal
- What limits the gas gain?
  - Recombination of electron-ion produces photons, which hit the cathode walls and kick out photo-electrons
    - → Continuous discharge
  - Hydrocarbon is often added to suppress this effect



### **Drift Chambers**

Track-anode distance can be measured by the drift time



# Drift Velocity

Simple stop-and-go model predicts

- $\vec{v}_D = \frac{e\tau}{m}\vec{E} = \mu\vec{E}$
- $\tau$  = mean time between collisions
- $\mu$  = mobility (constant)
- This works only if the collision cross section  $\sigma$  is a constant
- For most gases,  $\sigma$  is strongly dependent on the energy  $\varepsilon$ 
  - $v_D$  tends to saturate
  - It must be measured for each gas
  - *c.f.* μ is constant for drift of positive ions





# Drift Velocity

- Example of v<sub>D</sub> for Ar-CF<sub>4</sub>-CH<sub>4</sub> mixtures
   "Fast" gas
- Typical gas mixtures have  $v_D \sim 5 \text{ cm}/\mu \text{s}$ 
  - e.g.  $Ar(50)-C_2H_6(50)$
  - Saturation makes the *x*-*t* relation linear
- "Slow" gas mixtures have v<sub>D</sub> ∝ E
   e.g. CO<sub>2</sub>(92)-C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>(8)



T. Yamashita et al., NIM A317 (1992) 213

# Spatial Resolution

• Typical resolution of a drift chamber is  $50-200 \mu m$ 

Diffusion: random fluctuation of the electron drift path

 $\sigma_{r}(t) = \sqrt{2Dt}$  D = diffusion coefficient

Smaller cells help
"Slow gas" has small D
Micro vertex chambers (e.g. Mark-II)

- Primary ionization statistics
  - Where is the first-arriving electron?

Electronics

- How many electrons are needed to register a hit?
- Time resolution (analog and digital)
- Calibration of the x-t relation
- Alignment

#### Other Performance Issues

#### • dE/dx resolution – particle identification

- Total ionization statistics, # of sampling per track, noise
- 4% for OPAL jet chamber (159 samples)
- 7% for BABAR drift chamber (40 samples)
- Deadtime how quickly it can respond to the next event
  - Maximum drift time, pulse shaping, readout time
  - Typically a few 100 ns to several microseconds
- Rate tolerance how many hits/cell/second it can handle
  - Ion drift time, signal pile up, HV power supply
  - Typically 1–100 kHz per anode
  - Also related: radiation damage of the detector

# Design Exercise

• Let's see how a real drift chamber has been designed

Example: BABAR drift chamber





## Requirements

• Cover as much solid angle as possible around the beams

- Cylindrical geometry
- Inner and outer radii limited by other elements
  - Inner radius ~20 cm: support pipe for the beam magnets
  - Out radius ~80 cm: calorimeter (*very* expensive to make larger)
- Particles come from decays of *B* mesons
  - Maximum  $p_t \sim 2.6 \text{ GeV}/c$
  - Resolution goal:  $\sigma(p_t)/p_t = 0.3\%$  for 1 GeV/c
  - Soft particles important → Minimize multiple scattering!
  - Separating  $\pi$  and *K* important  $\rightarrow dE/dx$  resolution 7%
- Good (not extreme) rate tolerance
  - Expect 500 k tracks/sec to enter the chamber

# Momentum Resolution

In a *B* field,  $p_t$  of a track is given by

 $p_T = 0.3 B \rho$ 

 If N measurements are made along a length of L to determine the curvature

$$\frac{\sigma(p_T)}{p_T} = \frac{\sigma_x p_T}{0.3BL^2} \sqrt{\frac{720}{N+4}}$$

Given L = 60 cm, a realistic value of N is 40

To achieve 0.3% resolution for 1 GeV/c

$$\frac{\sigma_x}{B} = 80 \,\mu \mathrm{m/T}$$

• We can achieve this with  $\sigma_x = 120 \ \mu m$  and  $B = 1.5 \ T$ 

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# Multiple Scattering

- Leading order:  $\theta_0 = \frac{13.6 \text{ MeV}}{\beta cp} z \sqrt{L/X_0}$ 
  - Impact on  $p_T$  measurement  $\sigma(p_T) = p_T \theta_0 = 0.0136 \sqrt{L/X_0}$
  - For an argon-based gas,  $X_0(Ar) = 110$  m, L = 0.6 m →  $\sigma(p_T) = 1$  MeV/c → Dominant error for  $p_T < 580$  MeV/c
  - We need a lighter gas!
- $He(80)-C_2H_6(20)$  works better
  - $X_0 = 594 \text{ m} \Rightarrow \sigma(p_T) = 0.4 \text{ MeV/c}$
- We also need light materials for the structure
  - Inner wall is 1 mm beryllium  $(0.28\% X_0)$
  - Then there are the wires

#### Wires

- Anode wires must be thin enough to generate high E field, yet strong enough to hold the tension
  - Pretty much only choice:
     20 µm-thick Au-plated W wire
  - Can hold ~60 grams
  - BABAR chamber strung with 25 g
- Cathode wires can be thicker
  - High surface field leads to rapid aging
  - Balance with material budget
  - **BABAR** used 120  $\mu$ m-thick Au-plated Al wire
- Gas and wire add up to  $0.3\% X_0$



# Wire Tension

- Anode wire are located at an unstable equilibrium due to electrostatic force
  - They start oscillating if the tension is too low
  - Use numerical simulation (e.g. Garfield) to calculate the derivative dF/dx
  - Apply sufficient tension to stabilize the wire
  - Cathode wire tension is often chosen so that the gravitational sag matches for all wires
- Simulation is also used to trace the electron drift and predict the chamber's performance



# Cell Size

- Smaller cells are better for high rates
  - More anode wires to share the rate
  - Shorter drift time  $\rightarrow$  shorter deadtime
- Drawbacks are
  - More readout channels  $\rightarrow$  cost, data volume, power, heat
  - More wires  $\rightarrow$  material, mechanical stress, construction time
- Ultimate limit comes from electrostatic instability
  - Minimum cell size for given wire length
- BABAR chose a squashed hexagonal cells
  - 1.2 cm radial × 1.6 cm azimuthal
  - 96 cells in the innermost layer



#### End Plate Close Up



# Wire Stringing In Progress



#### Gas Gain and Electronics

• With He(80)- $C_2H_6(20)$ , we expect 21 primary ionizations/cm

- Simulation predicts ~80  $\mu$ m resolution for leading electron
- Threshold at 2–3 electrons should give 120  $\mu$ m resolution
- Suppose we set the threshold at 10000 *e*, and 1/5 of the charge is available (1/*t* tail) → Gas gain ~ 2×10<sup>4</sup>
  - Easy to achieve stable operation at this gas gain
  - Want to keep it low to avoid aging
- Drift velocity is  $\sim 25 \ \mu m/ns$ 
  - Time resolution must be <5 ns</p>
  - Choose the lowest bandwidth compatible with this resolution
    - Simulation suggests 10–15 MHz

## Actual Performance



## Further Reading

- F. Sauli, Principles of Operation of Multiwire Proportional and Drift Chambers, CERN 77-09
- C. Joram, *Particle Detectors*, 2001 CERN Summer Student Lectures
- U. Becker, *Large Tracking Detectors*, NEPPSR-I, 2002
- A. Foland, *From Hits to Four-Vectors*, NEPPSR-IV, 2005