

PARTICLE DETECTORS

Second Edition

The scope of the detection techniques in particle detectors is very wide, depending on the aim of the measurement. Each physics phenomenon can be used as the basis for a particle detector. Elementary particles have to be identified with various techniques, and relevant quantities like time, energy, and spatial coordinates have to be measured. Particle physics requires extremely high accuracies for these quantities using multipurpose installations as well as dedicated experimental set-ups. Depending on the aim of the measurement, different effects are used. Detectors cover the measurement of energies from very low energies (micro-electron-volts) to the highest of energies observed in cosmic rays.

Describing the current state-of-the-art instrumentation for experiments in high energy physics and astroparticle physics, this new edition covers track detectors, calorimeters, particle identification, neutrino detectors, momentum measurement, electronics and data analysis. It also discusses up-to-date applications of these detectors in other fields such as nuclear medicine, radiation protection and environmental science. Problem sets have been added to each chapter and additional instructive material has been provided, making this an excellent reference for graduate students and researchers in particle physics. This title, first published in 2008, has been reissued as an Open Access publication on Cambridge Core.

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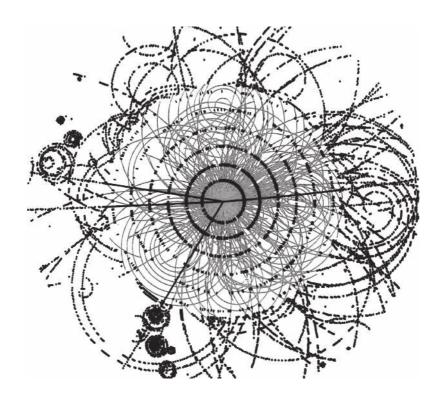
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Simulation of a Higgs-boson production in proton—proton interactions in the ATLAS experiment at the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) at CERN. The Higgs decays into a pair of Z bosons, each of which decays in turn into muons pairs. The four muons are indicated by the four straight lines. The hadronic background originates from the interactions of spectator quarks and other interactions in the same beam crossing.

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Second Edition

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Contents

	Prefa	ce to the	second edition	page xiii
	Preface to the first edition		xvi	
	Introd	duction		XX
1	Interactions of particles and radiation with matter			1
	1.1 Interactions of charged particles			2
		1.1.1	Energy loss by ionisation and excitation	3
		1.1.2	Channelling	12
		1.1.3	Ionisation yield	13
		1.1.4	Multiple scattering	18
		1.1.5	Bremsstrahlung	19
		1.1.6	Direct electron-pair production	22
		1.1.7	Energy loss by photonuclear interactions	24
		1.1.8	Total energy loss	24
		1.1.9	Energy-range relations for charged particles	s 26
		1.1.10	Synchrotron-radiation losses	28
	1.2	Interac	ctions of photons	31
		1.2.1	Photoelectric effect	32
		1.2.2	Compton effect	33
		1.2.3	Pair production	36
		1.2.4	Total photon absorption cross section	38
	1.3	Strong interactions of hadrons		41
	1.4	Drift and diffusion in gases		43
	1.5	Problems		49
	Refer	ences		51
2	Char	acterist	cic properties of detectors	56
	2.1		tions and basic statistics	56
	2.2	Charac	cteristic times	62



viii		Contents		
	2.3	Dead-time corrections	63	
	2.4	Random coincidences	63	
	2.5	Efficiencies	65	
	2.6	Problems	69	
	Refer	rences	69	
3	Unit	s of radiation measurements and		
		ation sources	71	
	3.1	Units of radiation measurement	71	
	3.2	Radiation sources	76	
		Problems	79	
		rences	81	
4	Accelerators			
_		Problems	82 87	
		rences	88	
5	Maiı	n physical phenomena used for particle		
J		ction and basic counter types	90	
	5.1	Ionisation counters	90	
		5.1.1 Ionisation counters without amplification	90	
		5.1.2 Proportional counters	97	
		5.1.3 Geiger counters	104	
		5.1.4 Streamer tubes	106	
	5.2	Ionisation detectors with liquids	110	
	5.3	Solid-state ionisation counters	112	
	5.4	Scintillation counters	122	
	5.5	Photomultipliers and photodiodes	130	
	5.6	Cherenkov counters	142	
	5.7	Transition-radiation detectors (TRD)	146	
	5.8	Problems	150	
	Refer	rences	151	
6	Historical track detectors			
	6.1	Cloud chambers	160	
	6.2	Bubble chambers	163	
	6.3	Streamer chambers	167	
	6.4	Neon-flash-tube chamber	169	
	6.5	Spark chambers	170	
	6.6	Nuclear emulsions	173	
	6.7	Silver-halide crystals	175	
	6.8	X-ray films	176	
	6.9	Thermoluminescence detectors	177	



More Information

		Contents	ix
	6.10	Radiophotoluminescence detectors	178
	6.11	Plastic detectors	179
	6.12	Problems	180
	Refer	ences	181
7	Tracl	k detectors	186
	7.1	Multiwire proportional chambers	186
	7.2	Planar drift chambers	191
	7.3	Cylindrical wire chambers	197
		7.3.1 Cylindrical proportional and drift chambers	198
		7.3.2 Jet drift chambers	205
		7.3.3 Time-projection chambers (TPCs)	208
	7.4	Micropattern gaseous detectors	212
	7.5	Semiconductor track detectors	215
	7.6	Scintillating fibre trackers	219
	7.7	Problems	222
	Refer	ences	223
8	Calorimetry		230
	8.1	Electromagnetic calorimeters	231
		8.1.1 Electron-photon cascades	231
		8.1.2 Homogeneous calorimeters	238
		8.1.3 Sampling calorimeters	244
	8.2	Hadron calorimeters	249
	8.3	Calibration and monitoring of calorimeters	258
	8.4	Cryogenic calorimeters	261
	8.5	Problems	267
	Refer	ences	267
9	Parti	icle identification	273
	9.1	Charged-particle identification	274
		9.1.1 Time-of-flight counters	274
		9.1.2 Identification by ionisation losses	278
		9.1.3 Identification using Cherenkov radiation	281
		9.1.4 Transition-radiation detectors	289
	9.2	Particle identification with calorimeters	292
	9.3	Neutron detection	296
	9.4	Problems	301
	References		302
10	Neutrino detectors		
	10.1	Neutrino sources	307
	10.2	Neutrino reactions	309



x Contents

	10.3	Some historical remarks on neutrino detection	310
	10.4	Neutrino detectors	311
	10.5	Problems	323
	Refere	ences	324
11	Mom	entum measurement and muon	
	detec	tion	327
	11.1	Magnetic spectrometers for fixed-target experiments	328
	11.2	Magnetic spectrometers for special applications	336
	11.3	Problems	342
	Refere	nces	344
12	Ageir	ng and radiation effects	346
	12.1	Ageing effects in gaseous detectors	346
	12.2	Radiation hardness of scintillators	352
	12.3	Radiation hardness of Cherenkov counters	354
	12.4	Radiation hardness of silicon detectors	355
	12.5	Problems	357
	Refere	ences	358
13	Exam	ple of a general-purpose detector: Belle	360
	13.1	Detector components	361
		13.1.1 The silicon vertex detector (SVD)	362
		13.1.2 The central drift chamber (CDC)	364
		13.1.3 The aerogel Cherenkov-counter	
		system (ACC)	367
		13.1.4 Time-of-flight counters (TOF)	369
		13.1.5 Electromagnetic calorimetry (ECL)	372
		13.1.6 The $K_{\rm L}$ and muon detection system (KLM)	377
	13.2	Particle identification	379
	13.3 13.4	Data-acquisition electronics and trigger system Luminosity measurement and the detector	382
	10.1	performance	385
	13.5	Problems	387
	Refere		388
14	Electi	ronics	390
	14.1	Introduction	390
	14.2	Example systems	391
	14.3	Detection limits	395
	14.4	Acquiring the sensor signal	397
		14.4.1 Signal integration	397
	14.5	Signal processing	402
	14.6	Electronic noise	403



More Information

		Contents	XÌ
		14.6.1 Thermal (Johnson) noise	404
		14.6.2 Shot noise	405
	14.7	Signal-to-noise ratio versus sensor capacitance	405
	14.8	Pulse shaping	406
	14.9	Noise analysis of a detector and front-end amplifier	409
	14.10	Timing measurements	415
	14.11	Digital electronics	417
		14.11.1 Logic elements	417
		14.11.2 Propagation delays and power dissipation	419
		14.11.3 Logic arrays	421
	14.12	Analogue-to-digital conversion	421
	14.13	Time-to-digital converters (TDCs)	425
	14.14	0	427
	14.15	Interference and pickup	429
		14.15.1 Pickup mechanisms	429
		14.15.2 Remedial techniques	431
	14.16	Conclusion	433
		Problems	433
	Refere	ences	435
15	Data analysis		436
	15.1	Introduction	436
	15.2	Reconstruction of raw detector data	436
	15.3	Analysis challenges	439
	15.4	Analysis building blocks	441
		15.4.1 Charged-particle trajectories	442
		15.4.2 Energy reconstruction	446
		15.4.3 Quark jets	447
		15.4.4 Stable-particle identification	449
		15.4.5 Displaced vertices and unstable-particle	
		reconstruction	449
	15.5	Analysis components	452
		15.5.1 Monte Carlo event generators	452
		15.5.2 Simulation of detector response	453
		15.5.3 Beyond the detector	453
		15.5.4 Multivariate techniques	455
	15.6	Analysis in action	459
	15.7	Problems	462
	Refere	ences	462
16	Applications of particle detectors outside		
	particle physics		
	16.1	Radiation camera	467
	16.2	Imaging of blood vessels	471



xii Contents

	16.3	Tumour therapy with particle beams	475
	16.4	Surface investigations with slow protons	480
	16.5	Gamma- and neutron-backscatter measurements	482
	16.6	Tribology	484
	16.7	Identification of isotopes in radioactive fallout	486
	16.8	Search for hidden chambers in pyramids	487
	16.9	Random-number generators using radioactive decays	489
	16.10	Experimental proof of $\nu_e \neq \nu_\mu$	492
	16.11	Detector telescope for γ -ray astronomy	495
	16.12	Measurement of extensive air showers with the Fly's	
		Eye detector	497
	16.13	Search for proton decay with water Cherenkov	
		counters	500
	16.14	Radio-carbon dating	501
	16.15	Accident dosimetry	503
	16.16	Problems	503
	Refere	nces	505
	Résu	mé	510
17	Gloss	ary	512
18	Solutions		533
	Appen	dix 1: Table of fundamental physical constants	577
	Appen	dix 2: Definition and conversion of physical units	580
	Appen	dix 3: Properties of pure and composite materials	582
	Appen	dix 4: Monte Carlo event generators	584
	Appen	dix 5: Decay-level schemes	591
	Index		599



Preface to the second edition

Scientific knowledge is a body of statements of varying degrees of certainty – some most unsure, some nearly sure, but none absolutely certain.

Richard Feynman

The book on Particle Detectors was originally published in German ('Teil-chendetektoren') with the Bibliographisches Institut Mannheim in 1993. In 1996, it was translated and substantially updated by one of us (Claus Grupen) and published with Cambridge University Press. Since then many new detectors and substantial improvements of existing detectors have surfaced. In particular, the new proton collider under construction at CERN (the Large Hadron Collider LHC), the planning for new detectors at a future electron–positron linear collider, and experiments in astroparticle physics research require a further sophistication of existing and construction of novel particle detectors. With an ever increasing pace of development, the properties of modern detectors allow for high-precision measurements in fields like timing, spatial resolution, energy and momentum resolution, and particle identification.

Already in the past, electron–positron storage rings, like LEP at CERN, have studied electroweak physics and quantum chromodynamics at energies around the electroweak scale ($\approx 100\,\mathrm{GeV}$). The measurement of lifetimes in the region of picoseconds required high spatial resolutions on the order of a few microns. The Large Hadron Collider and the Tevatron at Fermilab will hopefully be able to solve the long-standing question of the generation of masses by finding evidence for particles in the Higgs sector. Also the question of supersymmetry will be addressed by these colliders. Detectors for these enterprises require precision calorimetry and high spatial resolution as well as unanticipated time resolution and extreme selectivity of events, to cope with high backgrounds. Particles in crowded



xiv

Preface to the second edition

jets have to be identified to allow for the invariant-mass reconstruction of short-lived particles. Radiation hardness is certainly also a hot topic for detectors at hadron colliders.

Particle detection in astroparticle physics also presents a challenge. The origin of the highest-energy cosmic rays, even in spite of recent indications of possible correlations with active galactic nuclei, is still an unsolved problem. Detectors like in the Auger experiment or possibly also the giant IceCube array under construction in Antarctica will very likely find the sources of energetic cosmic rays either in our galaxy or beyond. Also the interaction mechanisms at very high energies, which are inaccessible at present and future accelerators and storage rings, will be attacked by measuring the shape and the elemental composition of the primary cosmic-ray spectrum beyond the expected Greisen cutoff, where energetic protons or nuclei are assumed to lose significant energy, e.g. in proton-photon collisions with the omnipresent blackbody radiation.

These modern developments in the field of particle detection are included in the second edition which is substantially updated compared to the first English edition. Also new results on modern micropattern detectors only briefly mentioned in the first edition and chapters on accelerators and neutrino detectors are included. The chapters on 'Electronics' and 'Data analysis' are completely rewritten.

We would like to mention that excellent books on particle detectors already exist. Without trying to be exhaustive we would like to mention the books of Kleinknecht [1], Fernow [2], Gilmore [3], Sauli [4], Tait [5], Knoll [6], Leo [7], Green [8], Wigmans [9], and Leroy and Rancoita [10]. There are also many excellent review articles in this field published in the literature.

We gratefully acknowledge the help of many colleagues. In particular, we would like to thank Helmuth Spieler for contributing the chapter on 'Electronics'. Archana Sharma has contributed some ideas for micropattern detectors and muon momentum measurement. Steve Armstrong assisted in rewriting the chapter on 'Data analysis'. Iskander Ibragimov very carefully transformed those figures which were recycled from the first edition, where they were just pasted in manually, into an electronic format. He also took care of the labelling of all figures to make them look uniform. T. Tsubo-yama, Richard Wigmans and V. Zhilich provided a number of figures, and A. Buzulutskov and Lev Shekhtman explained us several details concerning microstrip detectors. They also suggested a couple of relevant references. Some useful discussions with A. Bondar, A. Kuzmin, T. Ohshima, A. Vorobiov and M. Yamauchi were very helpful. Simon Eidelman and Tilo Stroh have carefully read the whole book and checked all problems. Tilo Stroh has also taken over the Herculean task to set the text in LaTeX, to improve the figures, to arrange the layout, and prepare a comprehensive index. This was of enormous help to us.



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XV

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Preface to the first edition

The basic motive which drives the scientist to new discoveries and understanding of nature is curiosity. Progress is achieved by carefully directed questions to nature, by experiments. To be able to analyse these experiments, results must be recorded. The most simple instruments are the human senses, but for modern questions, these natural detection devices are not sufficiently sensitive or they have a range which is too limited. This becomes obvious if one considers the human eye. To have a visual impression of light, the eye requires approximately 20 photons. A photomultiplier, however, is able to 'see' single photons. The dynamical range of the human eye comprises half a frequency decade (wavelengths from 400 nm to 800 nm), while the spectrum of electromagnetic waves from domestic current over radio waves, microwaves, infrared radiation, visible light, ultraviolet light, X-rays and gamma rays covers 23 frequency decades!

Therefore, for many questions to nature, precise measurement devices or detectors had to be developed to deliver objective results over a large dynamical range. In this way, the human being has sharpened his 'senses' and has developed new ones. For many experiments, new and special detectors are required and these involve in most cases not only just one sort of measurement. However, a multifunctional detector which allows one to determine all parameters at the same time does not exist yet.

To peer into the world of the microcosm, one needs microscopes. Structures can only be resolved to the size of the wavelength used to observe them; for visible light this is about 0.5 m. The microscopes of elementary particle physicists are the present day accelerators with their detectors. Because of the inverse proportionality between wavelengths and momentum (de Broglie relation), particles with high momentum allow small structures to be investigated. At the moment, resolutions of the order



Preface to the first edition

xvii

of 10^{-17} cm can be reached, which is an improvement compared to the optical microscope of a factor of 10^{13} .

To investigate the macrocosm, the structure of the universe, energies in the ranges between some one hundred micro-electron-volts (eV, cosmic microwave background radiation) up to $10^{20}\,\mathrm{eV}$ (high energy cosmic rays) must be recorded. To master all these problems, particle detectors are required which can measure parameters like time, energy, momentum, velocity and the spatial coordinates of particles and radiation. Furthermore, the nature of particles must be identified. This can be achieved by a combination of a number of different techniques.

In this book, particle detectors are described which are in use in elementary particle physics, in cosmic ray studies, in high energy astrophysics, nuclear physics, and in the fields of radiation protection, biology and medicine. Apart from the description of the working principles and characteristic properties of particle detectors, fields of application of these devices are also given.

This book originated from lectures which I have given over the past 20 years. In most cases these lectures were titled 'Particle Detectors'. However, also in other lectures like 'Introduction to Radiation Protection', 'Elementary Particle Processes in Cosmic Rays', 'Gamma Ray Astronomy' and 'Neutrino Astronomy', special aspects of particle detectors were described. This book is an attempt to present the different aspects of radiation and particle detection in a comprehensive manner. The application of particle detectors for experiments in elementary particle physics and cosmic rays is, however, one of the main aspects.

I would like to mention that excellent books on particle detectors do already exist. In particular, I want to emphasise the four editions of the book of Kleinknecht [1] and the slightly out-of-date book of Allkofer [2]. But also other presentations of the subject deserve attention [3–25].

Without the active support of many colleagues and students, the completion of this book would have been impossible. I thank Dr U. Schäfer and Dipl. Phys. S. Schmidt for many suggestions and proposals for improvement. Mr R. Pfitzner and Mr J. Dick have carefully done the proof reading of the manuscript. Dr G. Cowan and Dr H. Seywerd have significantly improved my translation of the book into English. I thank Mrs U. Bender, Mrs C. Tamarozzi and Mrs R. Sentker for the production of a ready-for-press manuscript and Mr M. Euteneuer, Mrs C. Tamarozzi as well as Mrs T. Stöcker for the production of the many drawings. I also acknowledge the help of Mr J. Dick, Dipl. Phys.-Ing. K. Reinsch, Dipl. Phys. T. Stroh, Mr R. Pfitzner, Dipl. Phys. G. Gillessen and Mr Cornelius Grupen for their help with the computer layout of the text and the figures.



xviii

Preface to the first edition

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xix

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Introduction

Every act of seeing leads to consideration, consideration to reflection, reflection to combination, and thus it may be said that in every attentive look on nature we already theorise.

Johann Wolfgang von Goethe

The development of particle detectors practically starts with the discovery of radioactivity by Henri Becquerel in the year 1896. He noticed that the radiation emanating from uranium salts could blacken photosensitive paper. Almost at the same time X rays, which originated from materials after the bombardment by energetic electrons, were discovered by Wilhelm Conrad Röntgen.

The first nuclear particle detectors (X-ray films) were thus extremely simple. Also the zinc-sulfide scintillators in use at the beginning of the last century were very primitive. Studies of scattering processes – e.g. of α particles – required tedious and tiresome optical registration of scintillation light with the human eye. In this context, it is interesting to note that Sir William Crookes experimenting in 1903 in total darkness with a very expensive radioactive material, radium bromide, first saw flashes of light emitted from the radium salt. He had accidentally spilled a small quantity of this expensive material on a thin layer of activated zinc sulfide (ZnS). To make sure he had recovered every single speck of it, he used a magnifying glass when he noticed emissions of light occurring around each tiny grain of the radioactive material. This phenomenon was caused by individual α particles emitted from the radium compound, striking the activated zinc sulfide. The flashes of light were due to individual photons caused by the interaction of α particles in the zinc-sulfide screen. A particle detector based on this effect, the *spinthariscope*, is still in use today for demonstration experiments [1].



Introduction

xxi

Scintillations in the form of 'northern lights' (aurora borealis) had already been observed since long. As early as in 1733 this phenomenon was correctly interpreted as being due to radiation from the Sun (Jean-Jacques D'Ortous De Mairan). Without knowing anything about elementary particles, the atmosphere was realised to be a detector for solar electrons, protons and α particles. Also, already about 50 years before the discovery of Cherenkov radiation, Heaviside (1892) showed that charged particles moving faster than light emit an electromagnetic radiation at a certain angle with respect to the particle direction [2]. Lord Kelvin, too, maintained as early as 1901 that the emission of particles was possible at a speed greater than that of light [3, 4]. At the beginning of the twentieth century, in 1919, Madame Curie noticed a faint light emitted from concentrated solutions of radium in water thereby operating unknowingly the first Cherenkov detector. Similarly, Cherenkov radiation in water-cooled reactors or high-intensity radiation sources is fascinating, and sometimes extremely dangerous (e.g. in the Tokaimura nuclear reactor accident) to observe. The human eye can also act as Cherenkov detector, as the light flashes experienced by astronauts during their space mission with eyes closed have shown. These light emissions are caused by energetic primary cosmic rays passing through the vitreous body of the eye.

In the course of time the measurement methods have been greatly refined. Today, it is generally insufficient only to detect particles and radiation. One wants to identify their nature, i.e., one would like to know whether one is dealing, for example, with electrons, muons, pions or energetic γ rays. On top of that, an accurate energy and momentum measurement is often required. For the majority of applications an exact knowledge of the spatial coordinates of particle trajectories is of interest. From this information particle tracks can be reconstructed by means of optical (e.g. in spark chambers, streamer chambers, bubble and cloud chambers) or electronic (in multiwire proportional or drift chambers, micropattern or silicon pixel detectors) detection.

The trend of particle detection has shifted in the course of time from optical measurement to purely electronic means. In this development ever higher resolutions, e.g. of time (picoseconds), spatial reconstruction (micrometres), and energy resolutions (eV for γ rays) have been achieved. Early optical detectors, like cloud chambers, only allowed rates of one event per minute, while modern devices, like fast organic scintillators, can process data rates in the GHz regime. With GHz rates also new problems arise and questions of $radiation\ hardness$ and ageing of detectors become an issue.

With such high data rates the electronic processing of signals from particle detectors plays an increasingly important rôle. Also the storage



xxii

Introduction

of data on magnetic disks or tapes and computer-aided preselection of data is already an integral part of complex detection systems.

Originally, particle detectors were used in cosmic rays and nuclear and particle physics. Meanwhile, these devices have found applications in medicine, biology, environmental science, oil exploration, civil engineering, archaeology, homeland security and arts, to name a few. While the most sophisticated detectors are still developed for particle physics and astroparticles, practical applications often require robust devices which also function in harsh environments.

Particle detectors have contributed significantly to the advancement of science. New detection techniques like cloud chambers, bubble chambers, multiwire proportional and drift chambers, and micropattern detectors allowed essential discoveries. The development of new techniques in this field was also recognised by a number of Nobel Prizes (C.T.R. Wilson, cloud chamber, 1927; P. Cherenkov, I. Frank, I. Tamm, Cherenkov effect, 1958; D. Glaser, bubble chamber, 1960; L. Alvarez, bubble-chamber analysis, 1968; G. Charpak, multiwire proportional chamber, 1992; R. Davis, M. Koshiba, neutrino detection, 2002).

In this book the chapters are ordered according to the object or type of measurement. However, most detectors are highlighted several times. First, their general properties are given, while in other places specific features, relevant to the dedicated subject described in special chapters, are discussed. The ordering principle is not necessarily unique because solid-state detectors, for example, in nuclear physics are used to make very precise energy measurements, but as solid-state strip or pixel detectors in elementary particle physics they are used for accurate track reconstruction.

The application of particle detectors in nuclear physics, elementary particle physics, in the physics of cosmic rays, astronomy, astrophysics and astroparticle physics as well as in biology and medicine or other applied fields are weighted in this book in a different manner. The main object of this presentation is the application of particle detectors in elementary particle physics with particular emphasis on modern fast high-resolution detector systems. This also includes astroparticle physics applications and techniques from the field of cosmic rays because these activities are very close to particle physics.

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xxiii

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