

A short, practical guide to particle detection

Belle 2 academy | 2022 Bonn

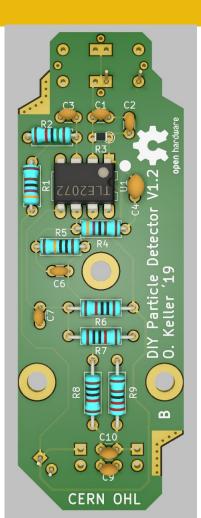
Peter Lewis

This week's project

DIY particle detector

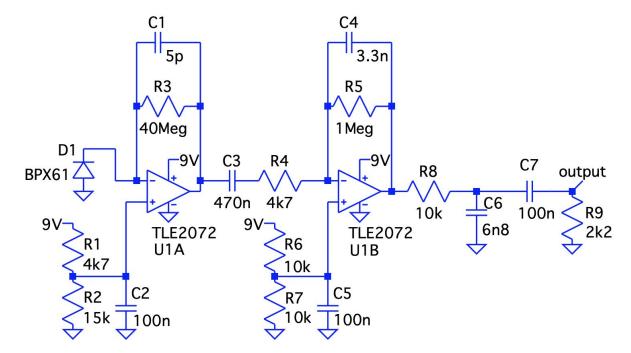
Electron detector

- Build a <u>DIY electron detector</u>
- We have all the parts [PIN diodes, amplification, boxes]
- You just need to assemble and test
 - (source: Uranium glass)
- You will learn some theoretical fundamentals:
 - Detector physics
 - Analog electronics
- You will gain some practical skills:
 - \circ Soldering
 - Assembly
 - Testing
- Plus, you can take it home with you!



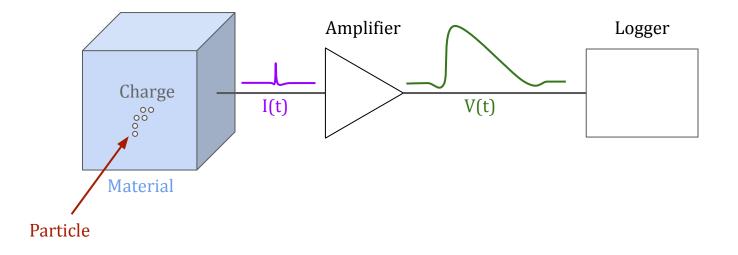
DIY particle detector

Can you "read" this like a book?

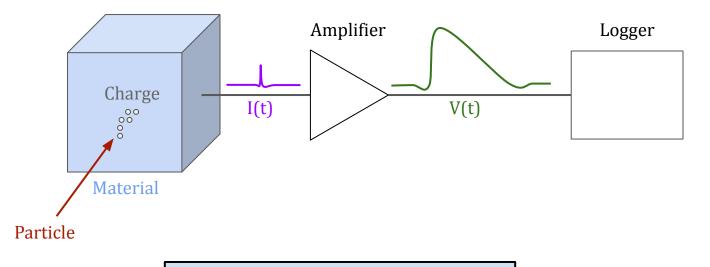


Don't worry, you will!

Basic detection principles



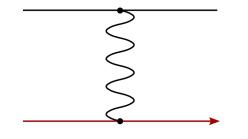
Basic detection principles

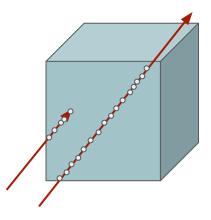


To interpret the result, we need to know **how particles interact with matter**. So

that's where we start.

Let's start with **charged particles**



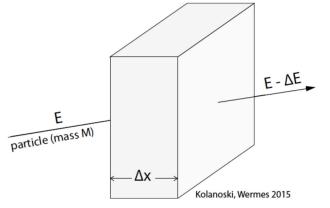


There are a **large number** of *primary* electromagnetic interactions. Each interaction causes **small energy loss** or **small deflection**. Particle can **transit** or **stop** in material.

dE/dx

Definition

- A charged particle traverses material of thickness Δx
- Upon exiting, the energy of the particle has decreased by ΔE
- The basis of ~all particle detectors: **collect ΔE from the material**



dE/dx

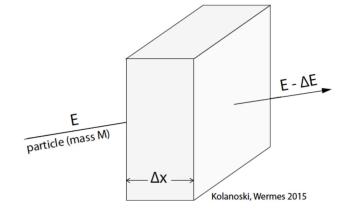
Definition

- The deposited energy ΔE probably depends on:
 - $\circ \Delta x$
 - \circ Material density ϱ
 - Particle mass *M* and charge *ze*
 - Particle kinetic energy *T* and velocity β
- The key to detector design is understanding **dE/dx**

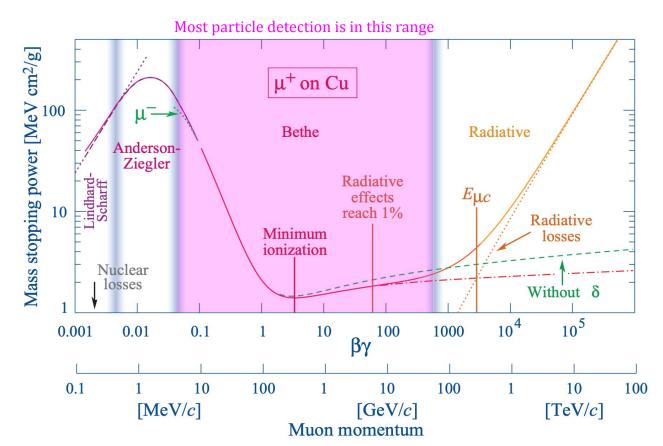
$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle \frac{dE}{dx} \rangle \end{bmatrix} = \frac{MeV}{cm} \qquad Linear \text{ stopping power}$$

or
$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle \frac{dE}{d\tilde{x}} \rangle \end{bmatrix} = \frac{MeV}{gcm^{-2}} \qquad Mass \text{ stopping power}$$

 $\tilde{x} = \rho x$



Energy loss via ionization



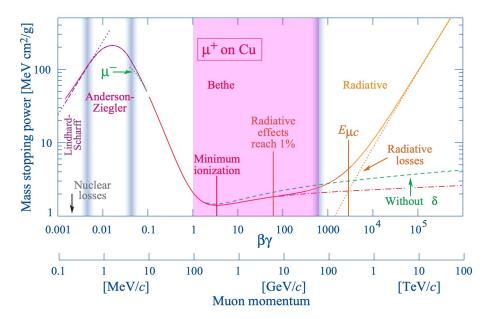
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Minimum ionizing particles

"MIPs"

- For a broad range of momenta, energy deposited **does ~not depend on momentum**
- Minimum at $\beta\gamma \sim 3$
 - $\circ~~$ ~250 MeV for muons
 - \circ ~1 **keV** for electrons (!)

 \rightarrow In most nuclear/particle physics, electrons are **not** MIPs but everything else is



Interactions with matter: charged particles: dE/dx

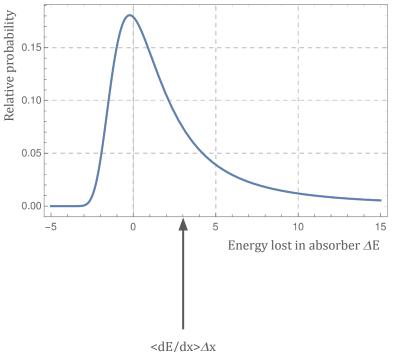
Fluctuations in $\Delta E / \Delta x$

Energy lost in a fixed-width absorber

• So far, we have been looking at the *mean* dE/dx, but (from PDG):

Few concepts in high-energy physics are as misused as $\langle dE/dx \rangle$. The main problem is that the mean is weighted by very rare events with large single-collision energy deposits. Even with samples of hundreds of events a dependable value for the mean energy loss cannot be obtained. Far better and more easily measured is

This is a statistical effect due to the rare, (relatively)
 high-dE nature of secondary scatterings (→ delta rays)

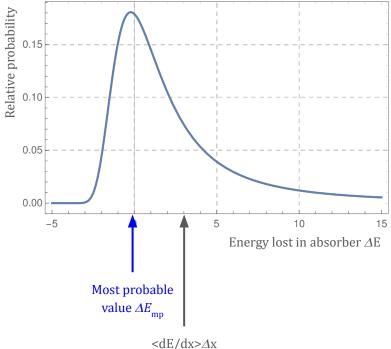


Fluctuations in $\Delta E / \Delta x$

Landau statistics

- ...continuing the PDG quote: "...Far better and more easily measured is the **most probable energy loss**..." (ΔE_{mp})
- The PDF characterizing the energy lost in an absorber ΔE is the "Landau distribution":

$$P(\lambda) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\lambda + e^{-\lambda}\right)\right]$$
$$\lambda \equiv \frac{\Delta E - \Delta E_{\rm mp}}{\xi} \qquad \qquad \text{Material constant}$$

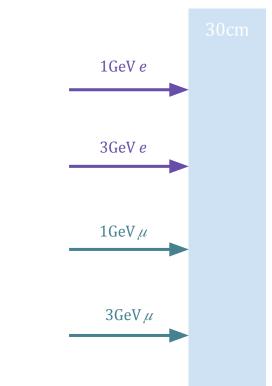


Interactions with matter: charged particles: dE/dx

Quick quiz

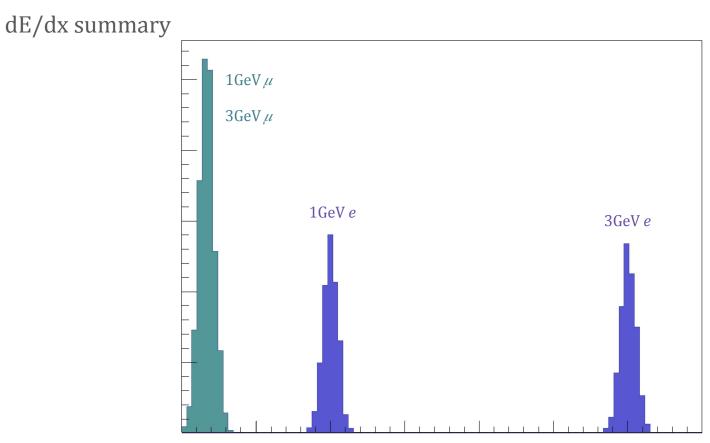
dE/dx summary

- Consider the Belle II electromagnetic calorimeter
 - Consists of 30cm-thick CsI crystals (effective Z=54)
- Imagine our physics consists of a 50/50 blend of electrons and muons, and a 50/50 blend of 1GeV and 3GeV particles
- Considering *dE/dx* losses, draw a *qualitative* histogram of energy deposited in the crystals



Interactions with matter: charged particles: dE/dx

Quick quiz



Interactions with matter: photons

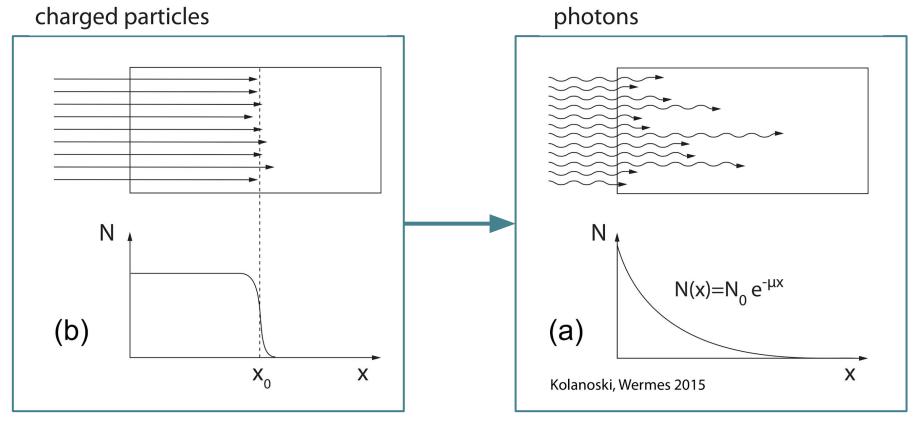
charged particles

There are a **large number** of *primary* electromagnetic interactions. Each interaction causes **small energy loss** or **small deflection**. Particle can **transit** or **stop** in material. photons

There is a **probability** of a single *primary* electromagnetic interaction. The interaction causes complete **absorption**. Photon either is

absorbed or isn't.*

Interactions with matter: photons

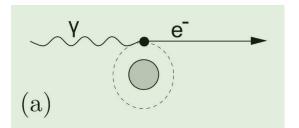


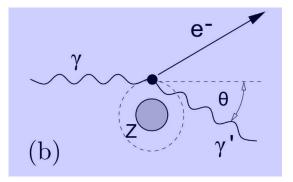
Interactions with matter: photons: overview

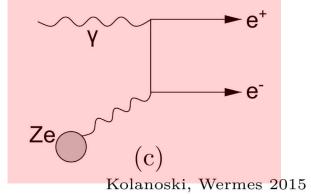
Photons

Overview

- Three primary process:
 - (a) photoelectric effect
 - (b) Compton scattering
 - (c) pair production

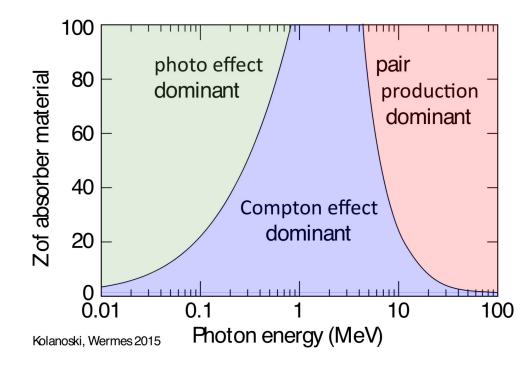






Photons

Absorption



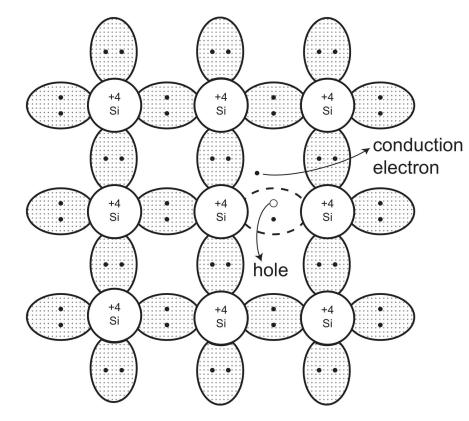
This is what we're using this week. Let's see how they work...

Semiconductor detectors: basics

Intrinsic semiconductors

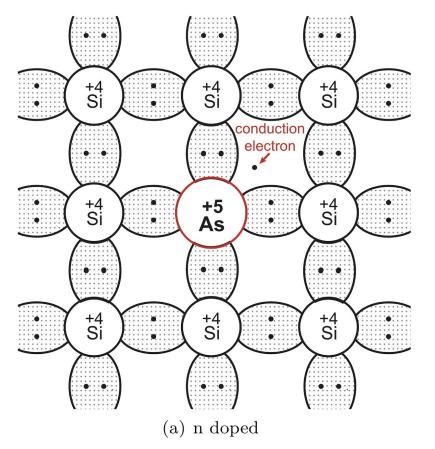
Review

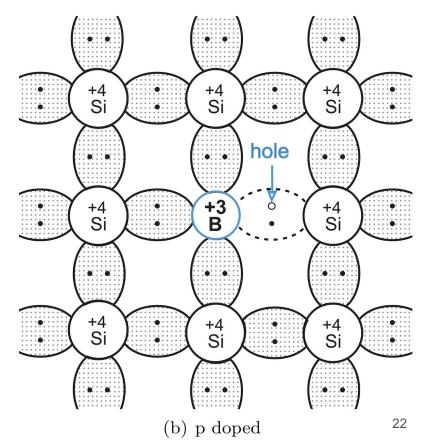
- *Intrinsic* semiconductors are **undoped**
- Conduction arises from movement of **electrons** and **holes**
- Electrons can be moved from the **valence band** to the **conduction band** by acquiring at least the energy of the **band gap**
- In semiconductors, electrons can be kicked up to the conduction band from **thermal energy**



Semiconductor detectors: basics

Doping semiconductors can make them eager electron *donors* or *acceptors*



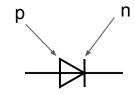


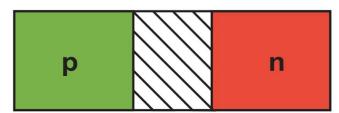
Semiconductor detectors: junctions

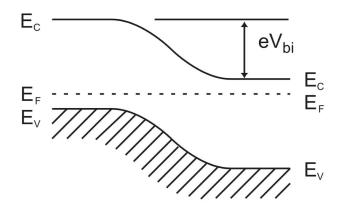
Junctions

PN junctions: unbiased

- A basic electronic component is a **PN diode** made from a single PN junction
- As drawn, this **doesn't conduct** because the *depletion region* is an insulator
 - (recombination region of electrons/holes)
- The *intrinsic* potential over the depletion zone is called the "built-in voltage" V_{bi}
- The **band diagram** now shows bent energy levels at the junction







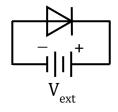
Semiconductor detectors: junctions

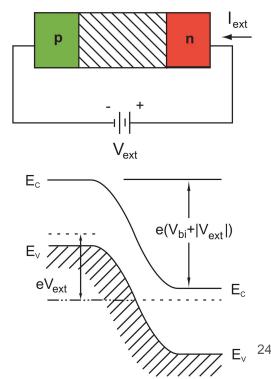
Junctions

PN junctions: reverse biased

- Now apply an external *reverse bias* V_{ext}
- The applied field **adds** to the built-in field
- This **increases the slope** in the depletion layer, thus **expanding** it
- This is the typical case for **particle detectors**

Note: **conductance** is far higher in forward biased case compared to reverse biased case. A diode can be *roughly* thought of as a "**one-directional conductor**" where the "arrow" in the circuit diagram shows the *direction of preferred current flow*

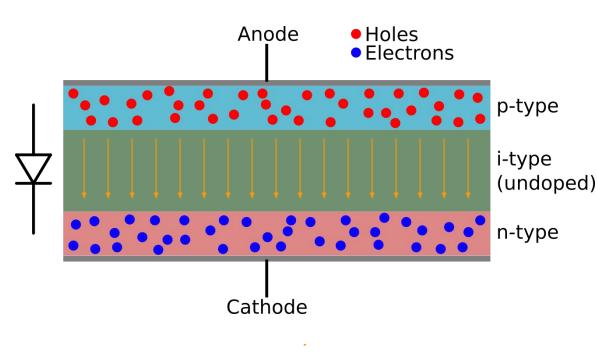




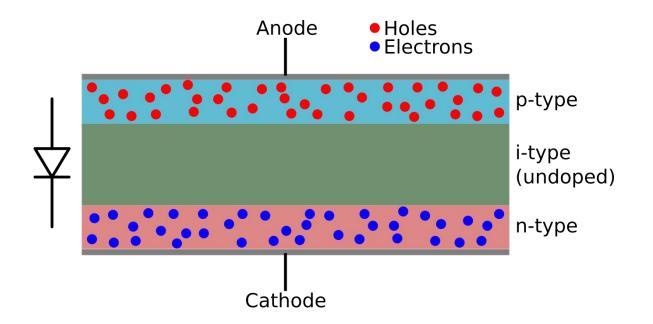
PIN diodes

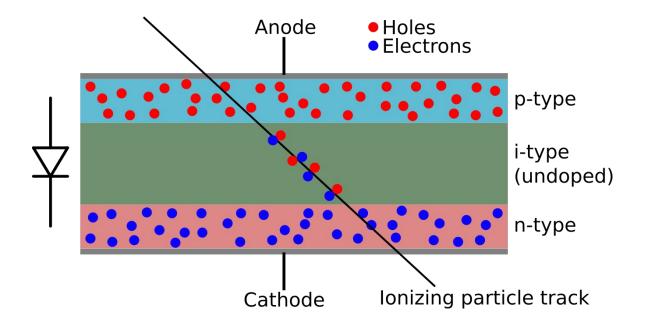
Insert a large **intrinsic** (*undoped*) layer

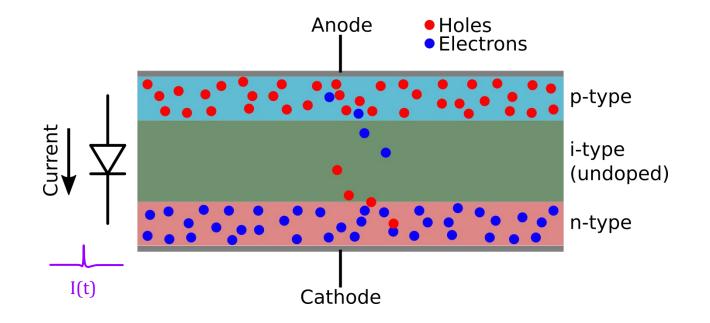
- Much larger depletion layer than in PN diode (roughly the whole *I* layer)
- The *built-in field* sweeps charge out of depletion region



This is instantly useful as a particle detector...







PIN diodes

Some nice features

- Entirely passive
- Super cheap (<1 euro)

However...

- Charge collected is *very small*
- Electron/hole pairs also arise from other sources (thermal noise/dark current...), obscuring signal

Anode Holes Electrons p-type i-type (undoped) n-type Cathode

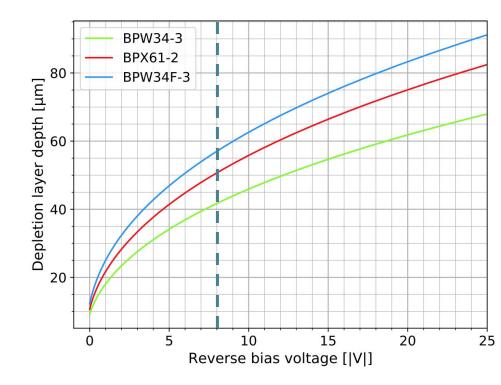
We can improve this...

Reverse biasing

Effects in PIN diode

- Increases depletion layer depth → more charge collected
- Decreases capacitance → decreased noise → improved signal:noise ratio

Our detectors will use 8V reverse biasing for this reason



Quick questions

DIY detector

- Why is our simple detector specifically an **electron** detector?
- What modifications would we need for
 - MIPs?
 - Alphas?
 - Photons?

Some electronics basics

Heuristic definitions: everything is a resistor



— A capacitor is a resistor that resists *steady* current flow

______ An inductor is a resistor that resists *transient* current flow

^{node} A **diode** is a resistor that strongly **resists current flow in only one direction**

Every electrical engineer in the world just dropped dead from horror. Let's use a *tiny* bit more rigor...

Related question: when a resistor resists current flow, what happens to the energy? What about a capacitor?

Impedance

Generalization of the concept of resistance for dynamic currents

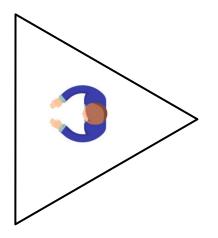
Note: if you take apart a lot of analog electronics, you'll see lots of resistors and capacitors, but few inductors. **Why**?

Impedance is **complex-valued** to keep track of phases and stuff, but you can still write Ohm's law:

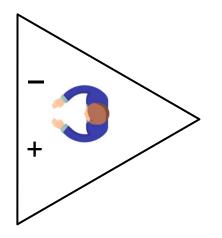
$$V = ZI$$

A bedtime story

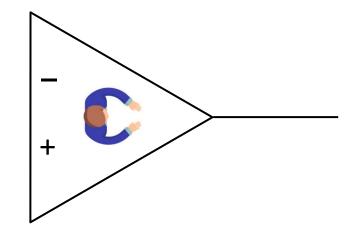
Inside a little triangle lives a tiny little man named Mr. OpAmp...



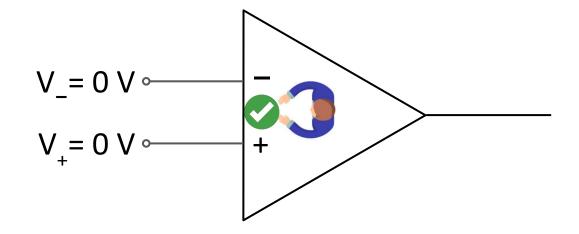
He is constantly monitoring two inputs, which we can label + ("*noninverting*") and – ("*inverting*")...



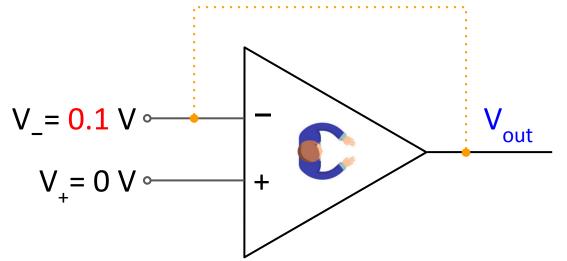
He can control a **single output** however he wants...



His job is to make sure that the **voltage difference** between the two inputs is always **zero...**

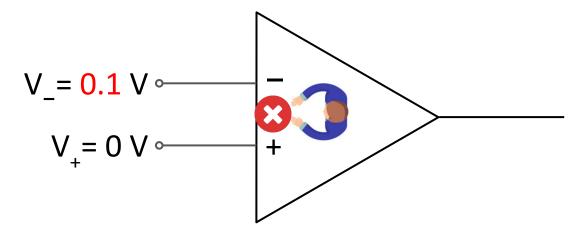


...and he *believes* that there is a connection from the output to the (–) terminal (*feedback*)...



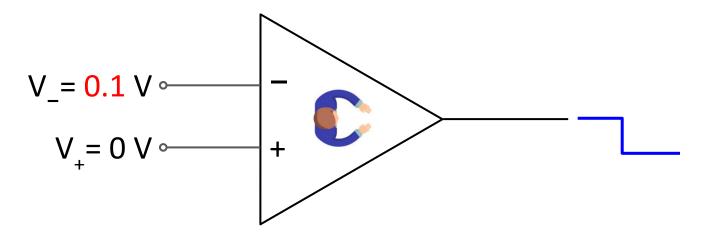
...so if he sees a voltage difference, he tries to fix it by controlling the voltage of the **output**, which he adjusts dynamically while monitoring the inputs continuously.

Let's mess with him a little bit: we'll send +0.1V to the (-) input.



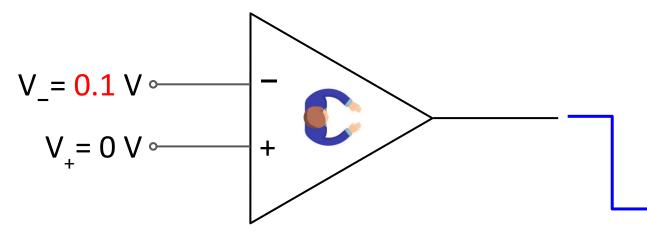
Oh no! He must fix this...

Since he *thinks* there is feedback, he will send out some negative voltage to try to equalize the inputs...



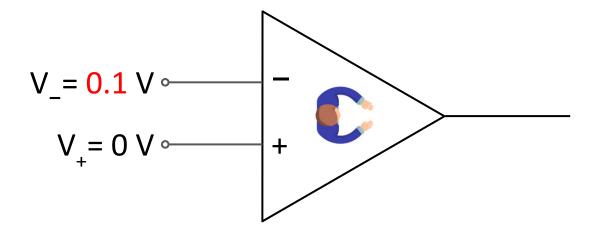
...but as he does, he notices that the (-) input is still too high, so he has to send out more...

...but since there *isn't* really a connection, he keeps on sending more and more voltage to try to correct the problem, until he sends **all the voltage he has**...

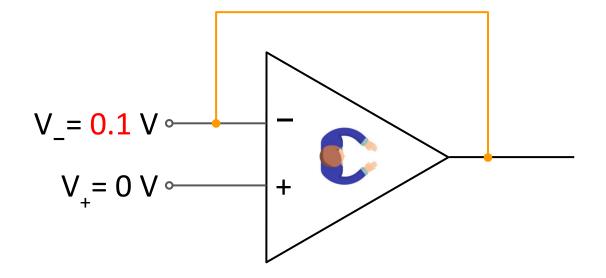


Question: what is the function of this device? What would you call it? What is not so great about it?

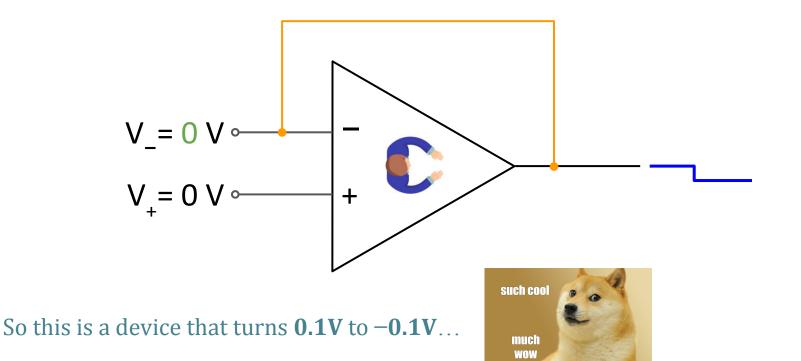
This is an *inverting amplifier*, but it amplifies **any voltage difference** into **maximum output**—it preserves no information about the *difference*. (It's a *comparator*.)



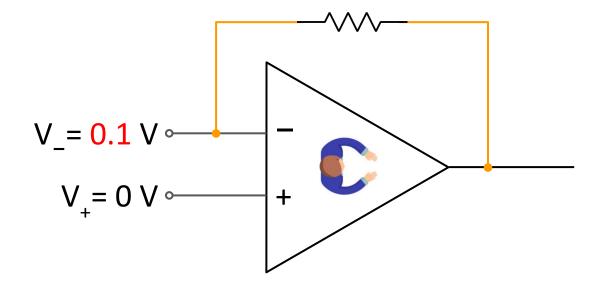
OK, but what if he's right? What if there **is** a connection to – (*negative feedback*)?



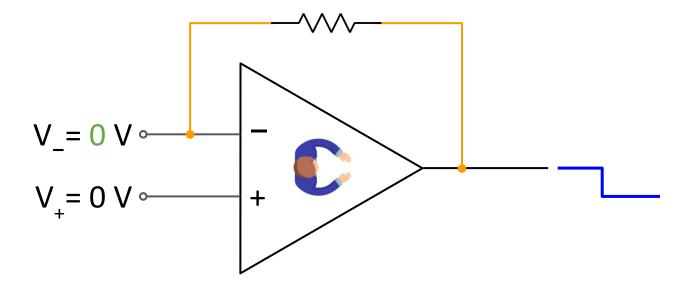
Well, now he can instantly fix the problem by sending out **-0.1V**.



OK, but let's exploit his assumption, by adding a **resistor** to the feedback...

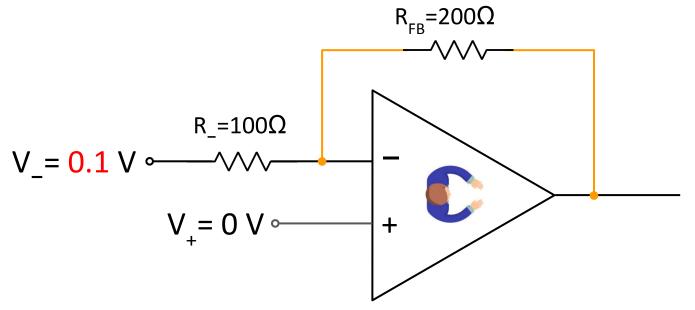


Well, he has to send out *more* voltage to correct the same problem...



If you use the output, you can now use this as an (inverting) *amplifier* with *gain*!

But wait... the feedback has **resistance**, while the input has none, so he can **never win**. So let's add a resistor to the input...



Question: what voltage will he need to send out?

This is a simple resistor ladder*... what is V_{out} ?

$$V_{=} 0.1 V$$

$$R_{=} 100\Omega$$

$$R_{FB} = 200\Omega$$

$$V_{out} = ??$$

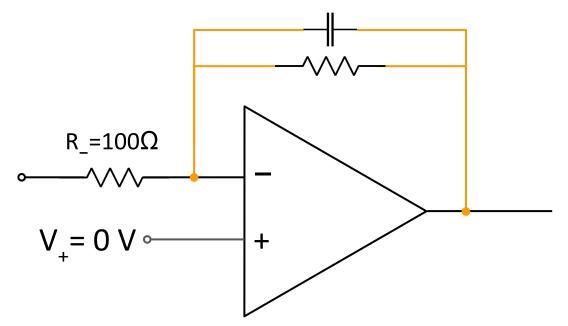
* the input has ~infinite impedance so it doesn't contribute to the ladder

Evidently, we can control the **gain** of the amplifier: $G = -R_{FB} / R_{-}$

$$V_{\text{out}} = -0.2 \text{ V}$$

Cool! But wait...

Real-world amplifiers ~always have feedback **capacitors...** can you guess why?

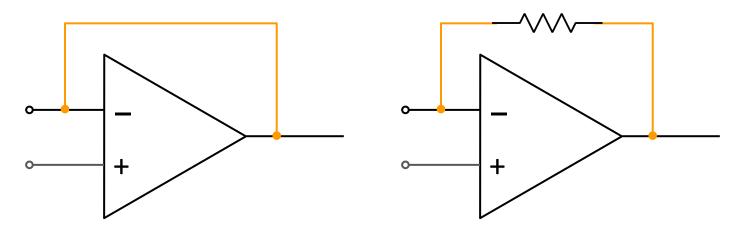


Think about the capacitor as a *frequency-dependent feedback resistor*...

With a feedback capacitor:

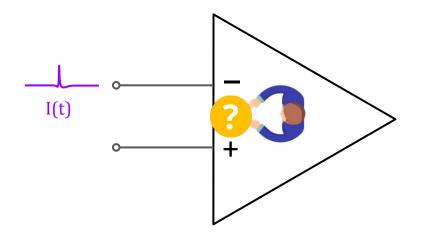
At high frequencies

At low frequencies



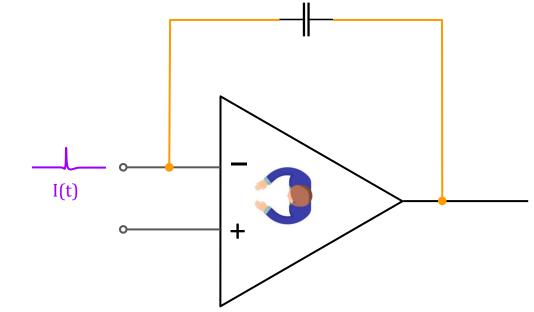
No (unity) gain for high-frequencies, max gain for low frequencies: this provides *noise filtering* (among other things!)

But *hold on*! Our PIN diode will output a *current*, not a voltage... but Mr. OpAmp is only concerned with comparing *voltages*...



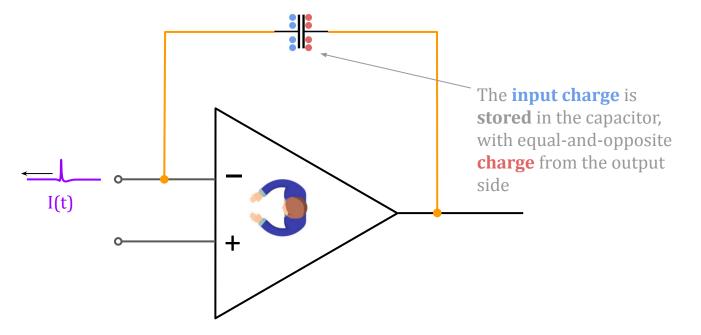
...what can we do to make him sensitive to *charge*?

Let's put a capacitor here...



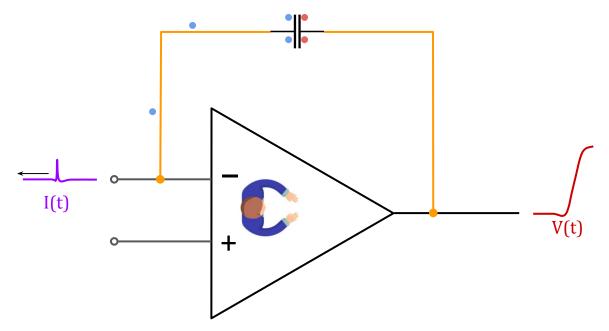
What happens now?

The capacitor will do capacitor things: adding charge q will lead to a **voltage difference** of q/C across the capacitor...



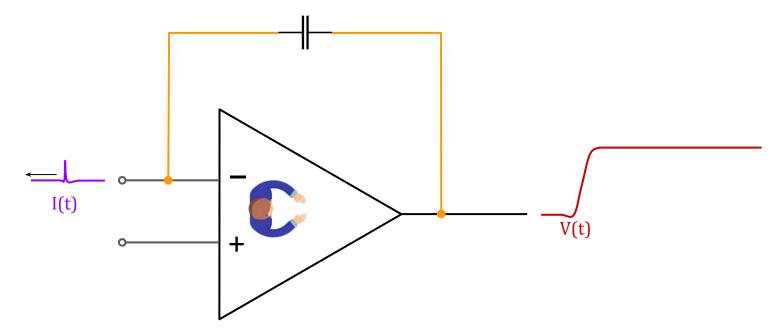
So now Mr. OpAmp will see a voltage signal **proportional to the deposited charge**...,

So Mr. OpAmp starts sending out voltage, which begins to cancel the capacitor voltage, *discharging* the capacitor, reducing the input voltage until it is **equalized**.



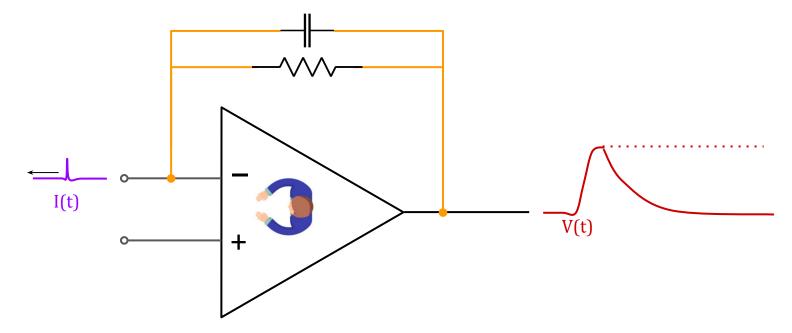
But wait! The input charges are *not gone*; no charge flows through a capacitor. So if he stops sending voltage, the charges will accumulate again... ⁵⁵

He's **stuck**! Without removing the injected charge, Mr. OpAmp can never return to normal. Whoops!



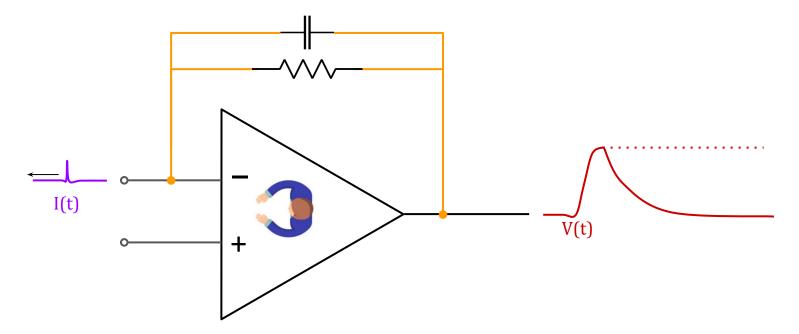
But at least the output voltage is proportional to the input charge (it has *integrated* the current pulse), so we have preserved our d*E*. How do we reset the amplifier now? ⁵⁶

Let's add a **big** resistor in parallel to the capacitor. Now we allow charge to slowly drain out of the input. Mr. OpAmp can then relax and prepare for the next pulse...



Question: what determines the **shape** of the decay?

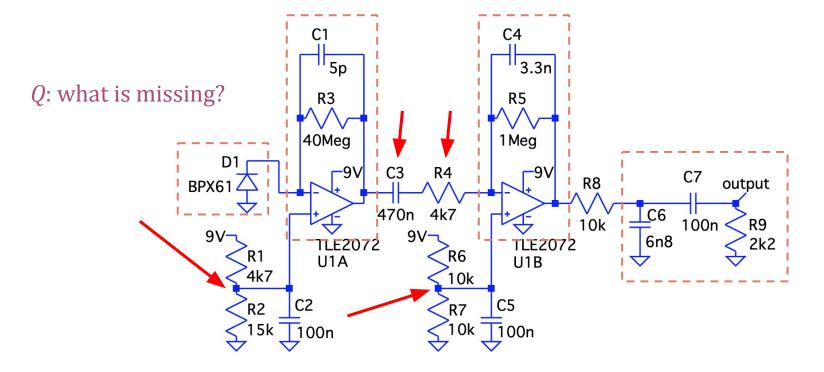
We have built a **charge-sensitive (pre)amplifier**. Its gain is **1**/*C* and the decay time of the pulse is *RC*.



In almost all cases you will first use a **charge sensitive amplifier** followed by a **voltage amplifier**... the main difference is relative values of *R* and *C*, and no input R 58

Mr. OpAmp is an (*ideal*) **Op**erational **Amp**lifier. They are used for *tons* of things.

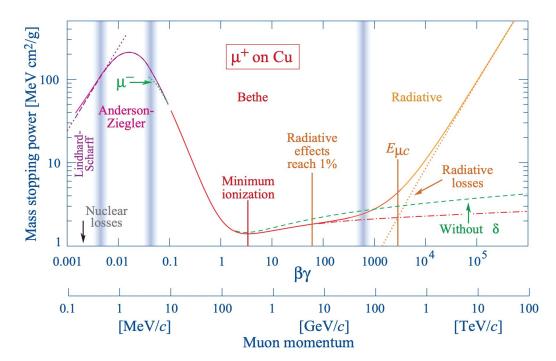
You can now qualitatively explain **everything** going on here and calculate gain:



A question:

The circuit outputs a voltage **directly proportional to the charge deposited**. So, can we do *spectroscopy* with this device with:

- MIPs?
- Electrons?
- Alphas?
- Photons?



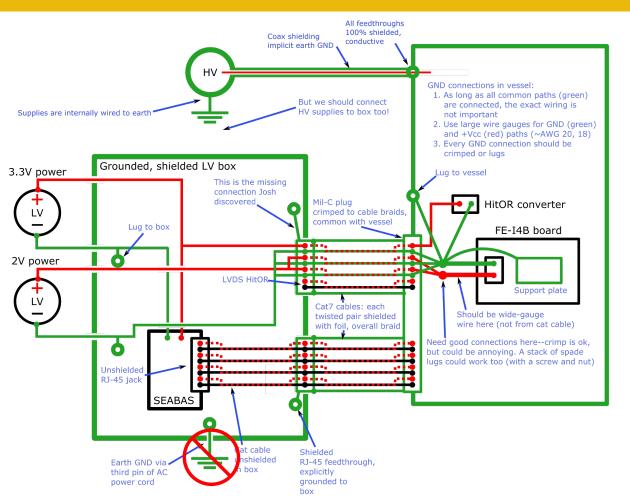
One last thing... why do we always, *always* put stuff in metal boxes?

Our amplifier is *awesome* at taking **small transient currents** and turning them into **big voltages**.

Small transient currents can be caused by stuff we really don't like:

- *Induction* of current by radio-frequency EM waves (like cellphones)
- *Capacitive* coupling of detector with other nearby electronics

To make a very long story short... always *shield* every part of your device with a **grounded** conductor (Faraday cage)...



Best practice:

Shield everything

Design the grounding; be clear what is connected to what

Require very low resistance from shields to earth ground

Only **one** path to earth ground*

Any questions?

If not: enough talking, let's build!