

# PARTICLE GAS DETECTORS

Carlos Ávila

Universidad de Los Andes, Colombia

**V UNIANDES PARTICLE DETECTOR SCHOOL**

# TALK OUTLINE

1. Principle of operation
  - Gas amplification – Townsend coefficients
  - Operation modes
  - Penning effect
  - Gas choice
  - Gas quenchers
  - Electronegative gases
  - signal formation
  - Drift and diffusion
2. Types of detectors
  - MWPC
  - Cathode Strip chambers
  - Drift chambers
  - Time projection chambers
  - Resistive plate chambers
  - MPGDs: MSG, Micromegas, GEM
3. Conclusions

# TALK BASED ON THE FOLLOWING MATERIAL:

1. PDG : Review of particle detectors of 2020:
2. Gaseous Radiation Detectors, Fundamentals and Applications, Fabio Sauli, Cambridge Univ, 2014
3. Particle Detectors, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, Claus Grupen & Boris Scwartz, Cambridge Monographs, 2008
4. Talks Given by : Manfred Kramer, Mar Capeans, Christian Joram, CERN

# FEATURES OF GAS DETECTORS

- Good spatial resolution
- Good  $dE/dx$
- Good Rate capability
- Fast & Large Signals
- Low radiation length
- Large area coverage
- Multiple configurations/flexible geometry

# GAS DETECTORS AT THE LHC

High Accurate Trackers

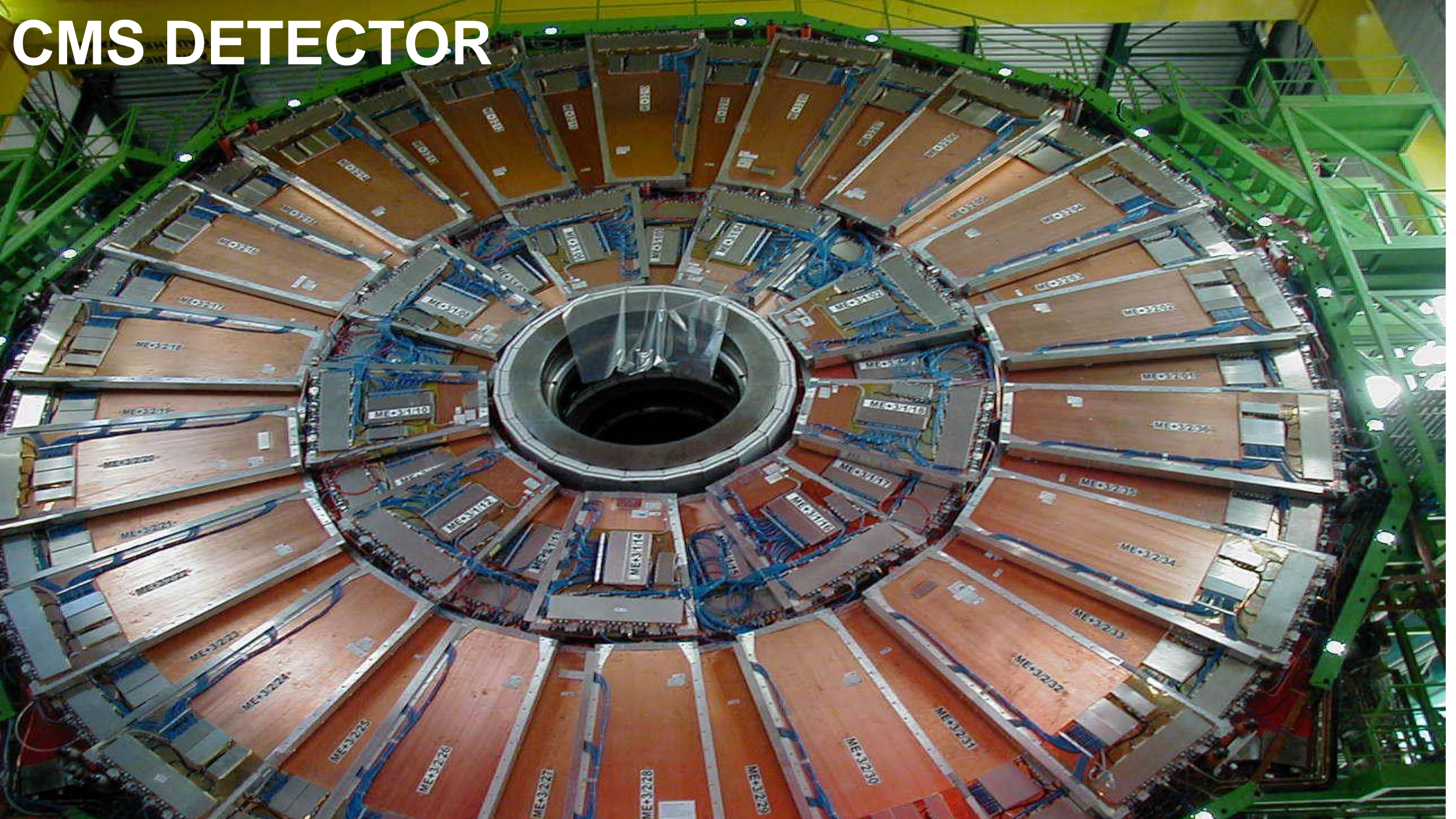
Large Area muon Systems

	Tracking	Particle Identification	Tracking	Triggering
ALICE	TPC Straw tubes	RPC Straw tubes RICH Pad Chamber	Pad Chamber	RPC
ATLAS	Straw tubes		Drift tubes	RPC TGC
CMS			Drift tubes CSC, GEM	RPC
LHCb	Straw tubes	RICH	MWPC GEM	
TOTEM	CSC GEM			

# • Gas in LHC detectors •

Experiment	Sub- Detector	Gas Mixture
ALICE	TPC, TRD, PMD	
ATLAS	CSC, MDT, TRT	
CMS	DT	Noble Gas + <b>CO<sub>2</sub></b>
LHCb	OT straws	
TOTEM	GEM, CSC	
LHCb	MWPC, GEM	
CMS	CSC	Ar – <b>CO<sub>2</sub></b> – <b>CF<sub>4</sub></b>
ATLAS, CMS, ALICE	RPC	C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> F <sub>4</sub> - iC <sub>4</sub> H <sub>10</sub> - SF <sub>6</sub>
ATLAS	TGC	CO <sub>2</sub> – n-pentane
LHCb	RICH	CF <sub>4</sub> or C <sub>4</sub> F <sub>10</sub>

# CMS DETECTOR



Silicon Tracker

PbWO<sub>4</sub>

Electromagnetic calorimeter

Hadronic calorimeter

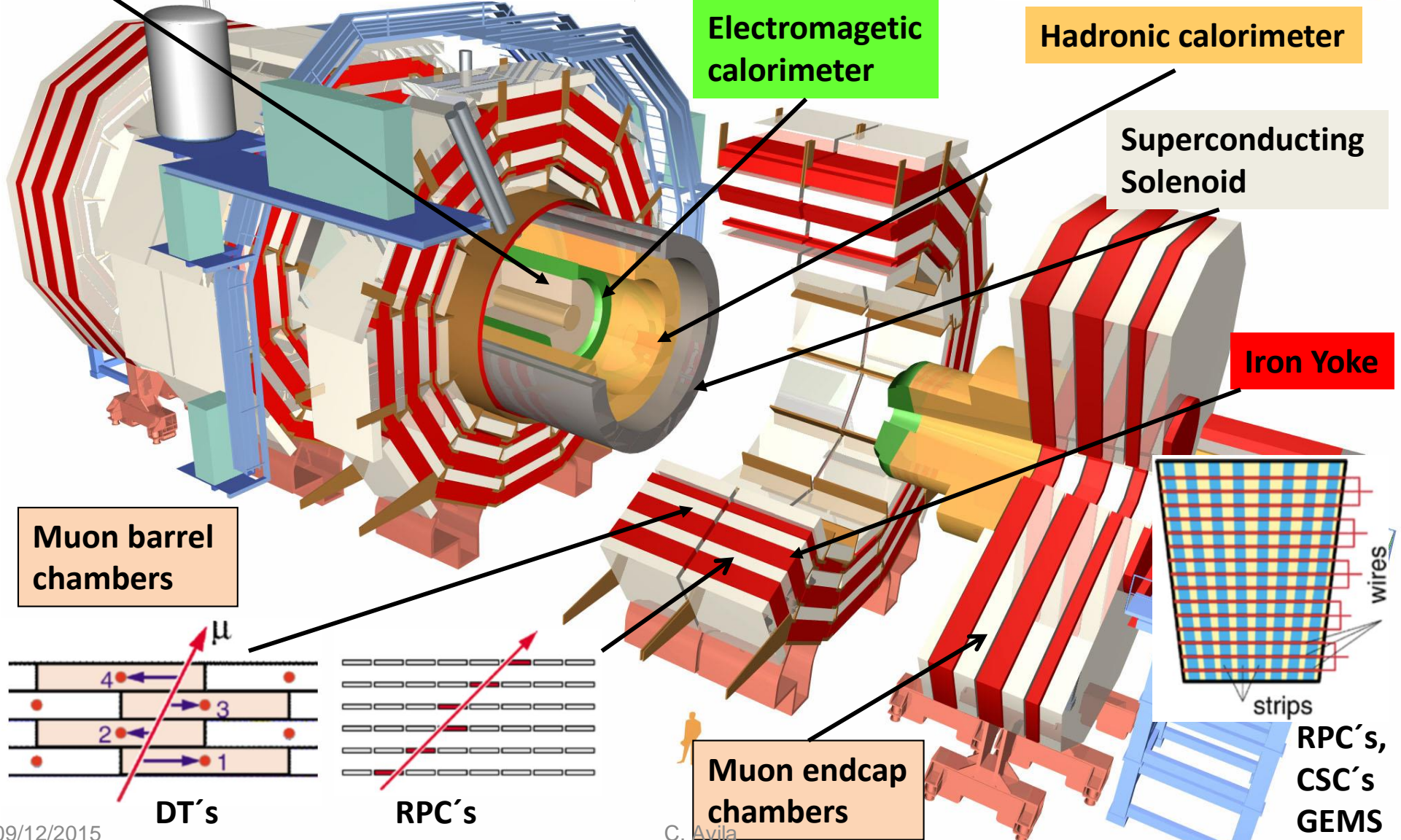
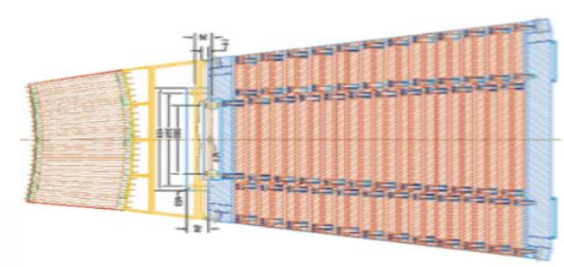
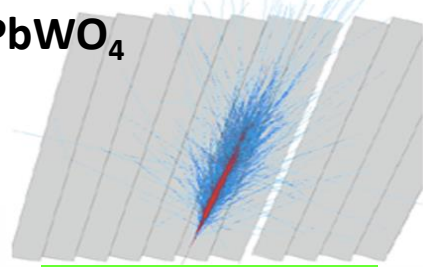
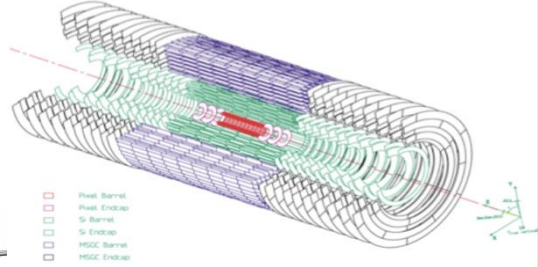
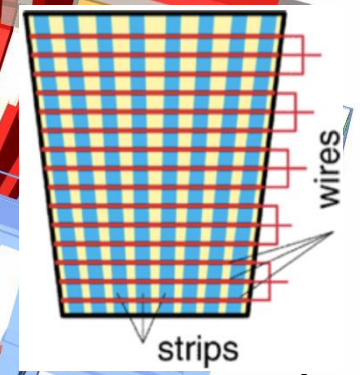
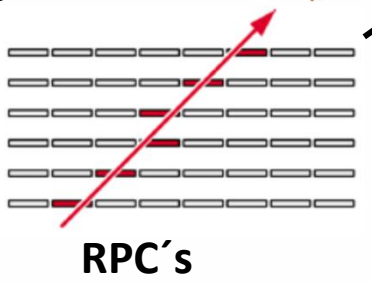
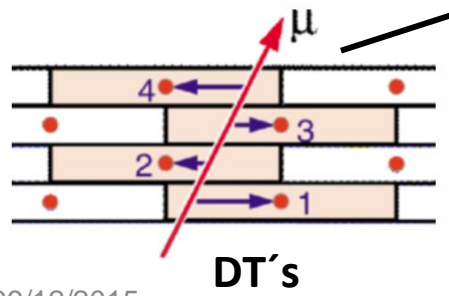
Superconducting Solenoid

Iron Yoke

Muon barrel chambers

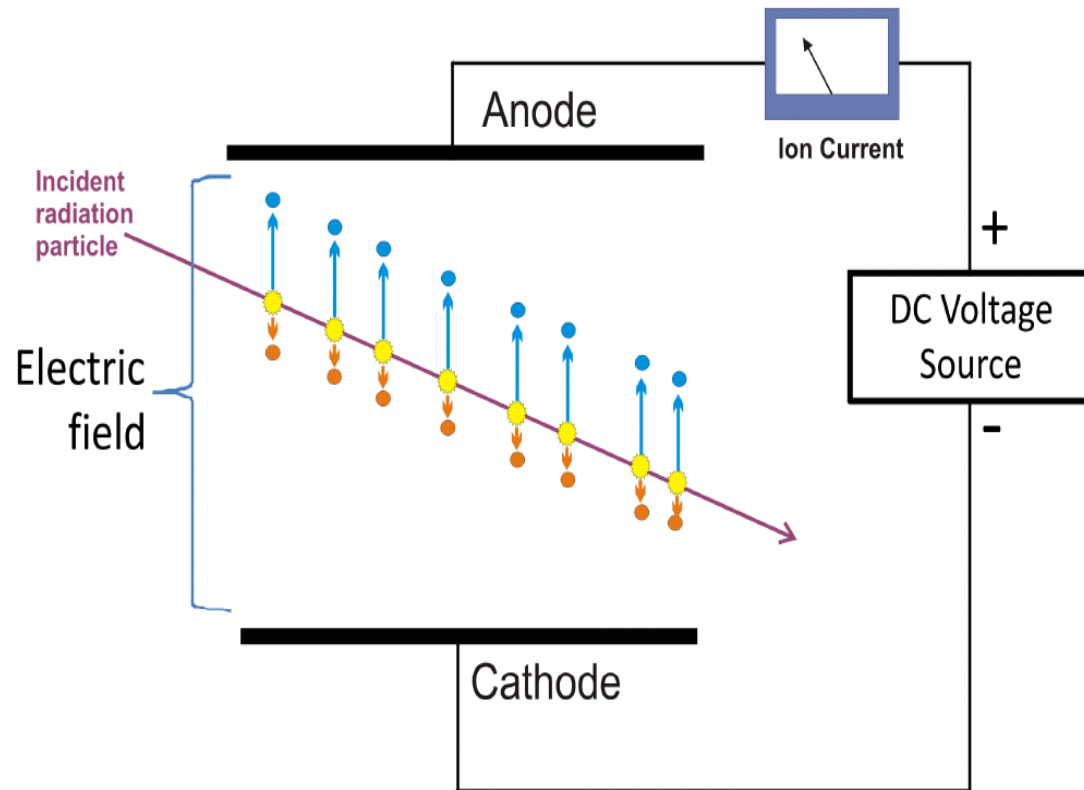
Muon endcap chambers

RPC's,  
CSC's  
GEMS



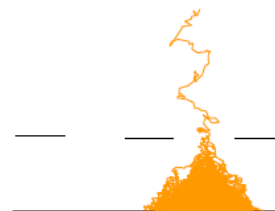
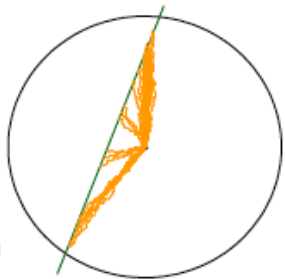


# PRINCIPLE OF OPERATION



- Charged particles ionize atoms of the gas along its track.
- An electric field transports electrons and ions towards electrodes.
- Electrons are multiplied in a strong electric field: The resulting primary electrons get enough kinetic energy to ionize other atoms
- The motion of electrons and ions induces a current on the readout electrodes
- The coordinates of the incident particle are deduced from the measurement of drift time, or of the center of gravity of the collected charge.

Different Geometries possible:



## Many questions to answer:

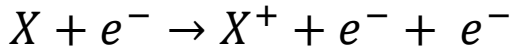
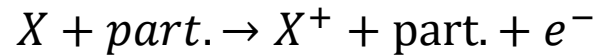
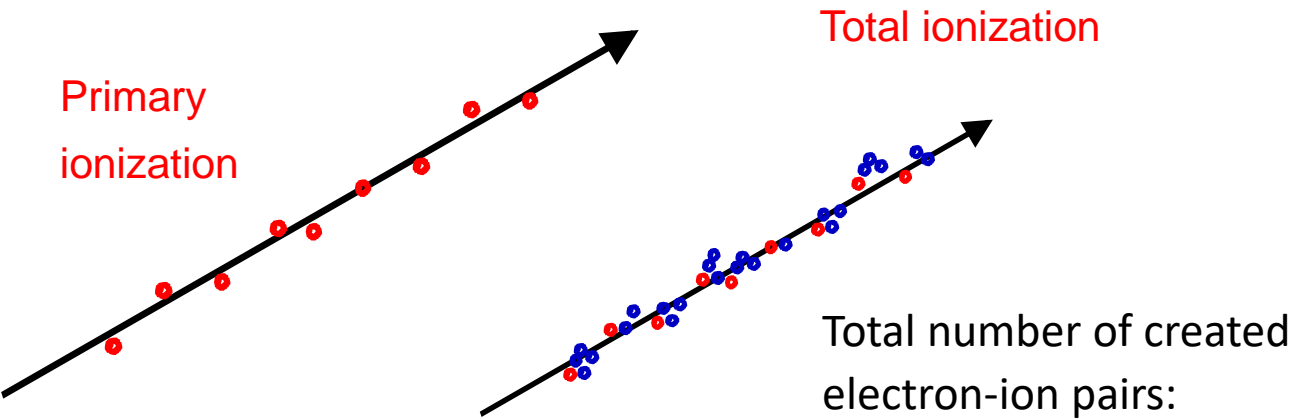
- How many electrons are produced ?
- Which energy do the electrons have?
- How far are they from the track?
- How fast are the electrons?
- Will electrons move in a straight line?
- Are they absorbed?
- Do they produce showers?
- How the electric field affects operation?
- ....

# INTERACTION OF CHARGED PARTICLES WITH THE GAS

Any charged particle traversing a gas will lose energy due to interactions with the atoms of the gas. This results in:

- **Excitation**, the particle passes a specific amount of energy to a gas atom
- **Ionization**, the particle knocks an electron off the gas atom, and leaves a positively charged ion

Resulting primary e- will have enough kinetic energy to ionize other atoms of gas. The sum is called Total Ionization



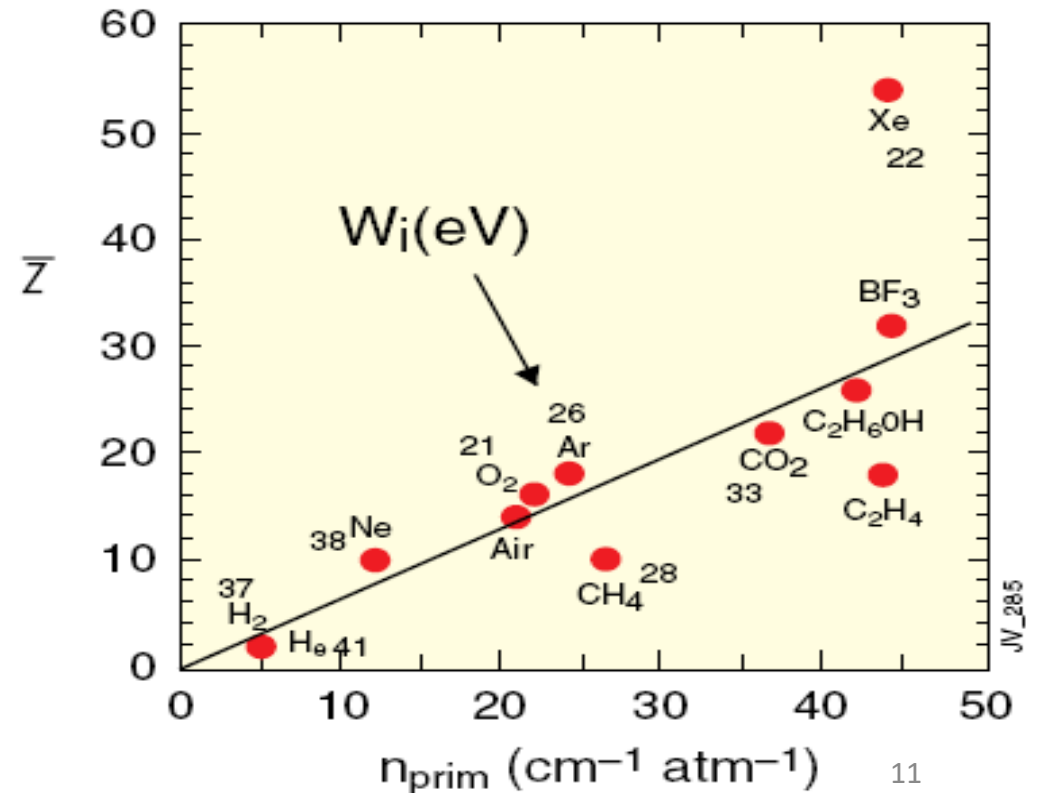
Total number of created electron-ion pairs:

$$n_{total} = \frac{\Delta E}{W_i} = \frac{\frac{dE}{dx} \Delta x}{W_i}$$

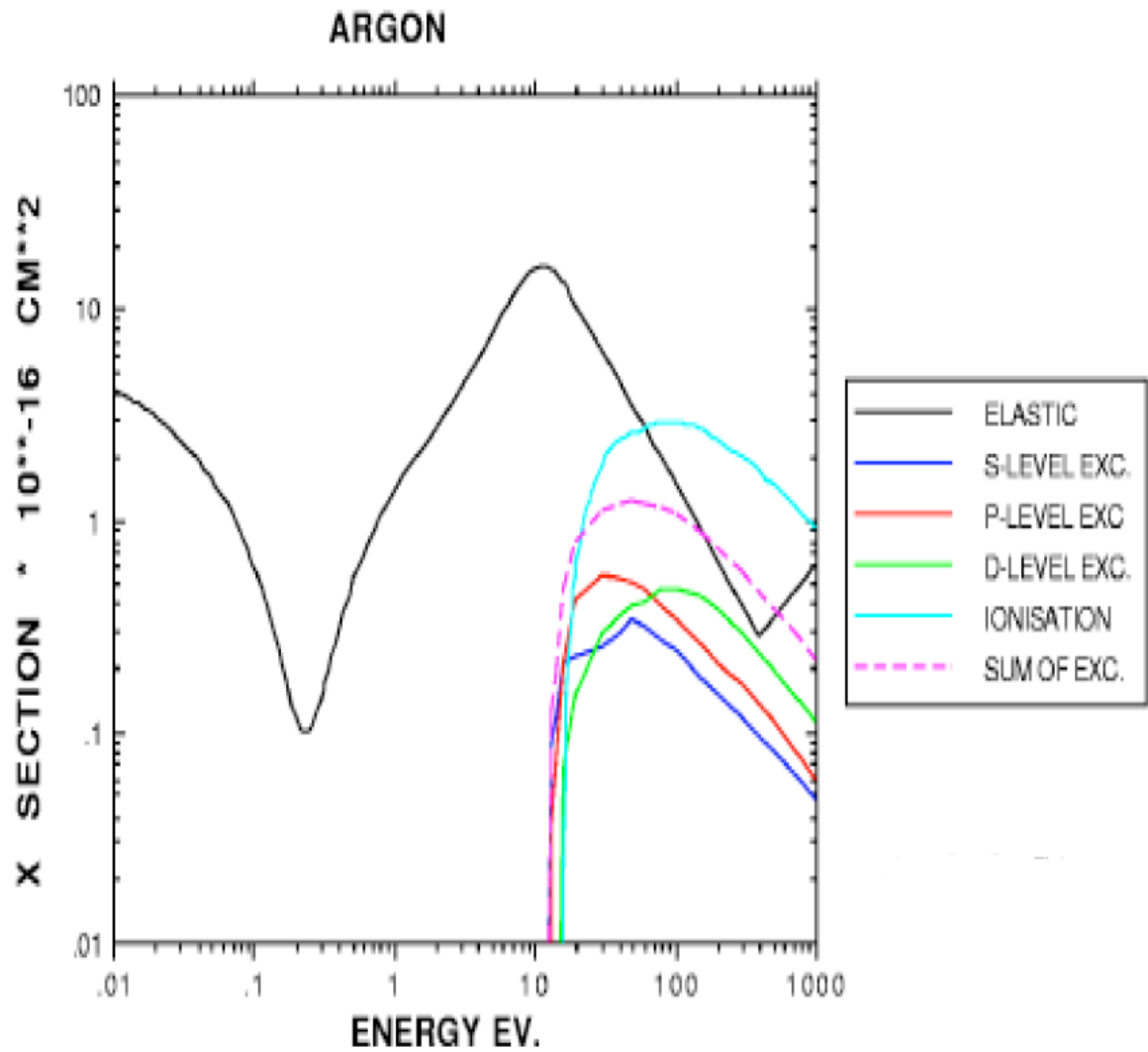
$$n_{total} \approx 3...4 \cdot n_{primary}$$

$\Delta E$  = total energy loss

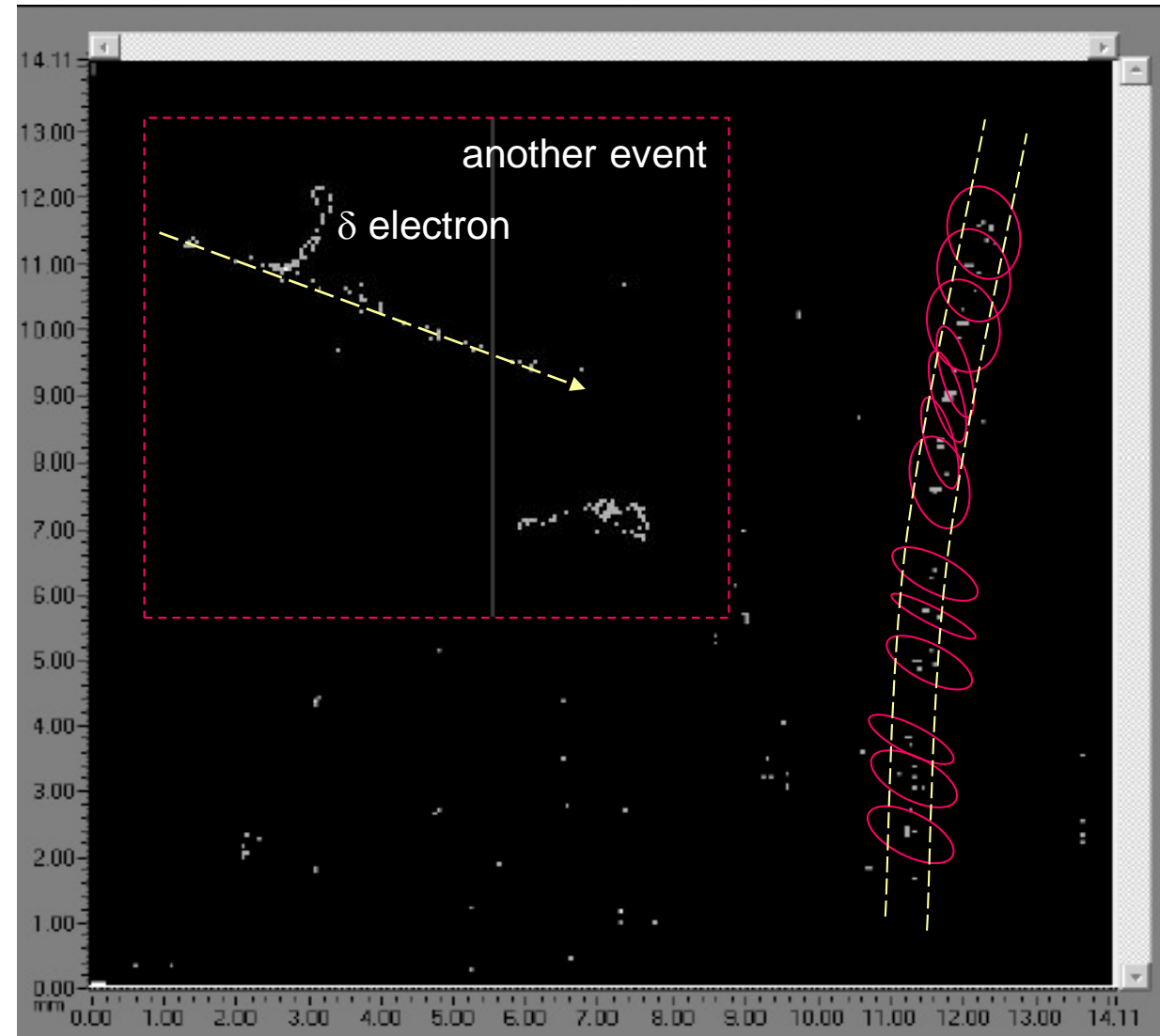
$W_i$  = effective <energy loss>/pair



# Energy dissipation mainly due to ionization



# Delta rays



track by cosmic particle (mip): 0.52 clusters / mm, ~3 e-/cluster

# Energy Loss of Charged Particles in Gases

Excitation energy	Ionization energy	<energy> per ion pair			<energy loss> <sub>MIP</sub>	<number> of primary electrons	<number> of total electrons
Gas	Density, mg cm <sup>-3</sup>	$E_x$ eV	$E_I$ eV	$W_I$ eV	$dE/dx _{\min}$ keV cm <sup>-1</sup>	$N_P$ cm <sup>-1</sup>	$N_T$ cm <sup>-1</sup>
He	0.179	19.8	24.6	41.3	0.32	3.5	8
Ne	0.839	16.7	21.6	37	1.45	13	40
Ar	1.66	11.6	15.7	26	2.53	25	97
Xe	5.495	8.4	12.1	22	6.87	41	312
CH <sub>4</sub>	0.667	8.8	12.6	30	1.61	28	54
C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>6</sub>	1.26	8.2	11.5	26	2.91	48	112
iC <sub>4</sub> H <sub>10</sub>	2.49	6.5	10.6	26	5.67	90	220
CO <sub>2</sub>	1.84	7.0	13.8	34	3.35	35	100
CF <sub>4</sub>	3.78	10.0	16.0	54	6.38	63	120

$$N_P = 25 \text{ electron-ion pairs/cm}$$

$$n_T = \Delta E / W_i = 2.5 \text{ keV/cm} / 26 \text{ eV} \sim 100 \text{ ion pairs/cm}$$

$$n_T / n_P \sim 4$$

# PRIMARY ELECTRONS

- The actual number of **primary** electron/ion pairs is **Poisson** distributed.

$$P(n) = \frac{\mu^n e^{-\mu}}{n!} \quad \mu = \langle n \rangle = L/\lambda \quad \lambda = \frac{1}{n_e \sigma_I}$$

$n$  = # primary electrons  
 $L$  = thickness  
 $\lambda$  = mean free path  
 $n_e$  = electron density  
 $\sigma_I$  = ionization x-section

The detection efficiency is therefore limited to :

$$\varepsilon_{det} = 1 - P(0) = 1 - e^{-\mu}$$

For thin layers  $\varepsilon_{det}$  can be significantly lower than 1.

For example for 1 mm layer of Ar  $n_{primary} = 2.5 \rightarrow \varepsilon_{det} = 0.92$ .

Consider a 10 mm thick Ar layer

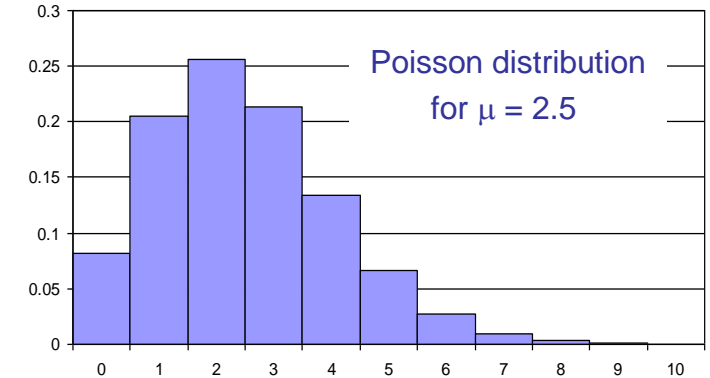
$$\rightarrow n_{primary} = 25 \rightarrow \varepsilon_{det} = 1$$

$$\rightarrow n_{total} = 80-100$$

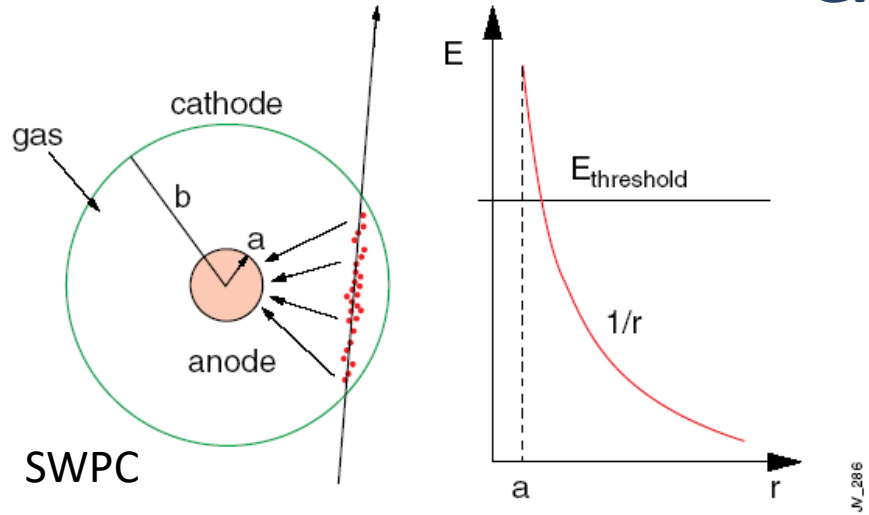
100 electron/ion pairs created during ionization process are not easy to detect.

Typical noise of the amplifier  $\approx 1000 e^-$

$\rightarrow$  The number of charge carriers have to be increased by **gas amplification**.

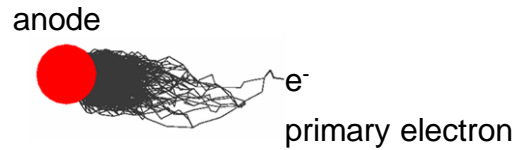


# GAS AMPLIFICATION



Electrons liberated by ionization drift towards the anode wire.

Electrical field close to the wire (typical wire  $\varnothing \sim$  few tens of  $\mu\text{m}$ ) is sufficiently high for electrons (above 10 kV/cm) to gain enough energy to ionize further  $\rightarrow$  **avalanche** – exponential increase of number of electron ion pairs.

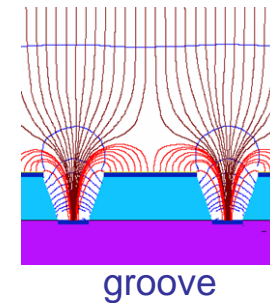
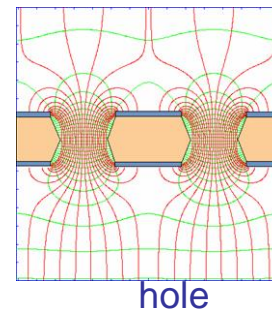
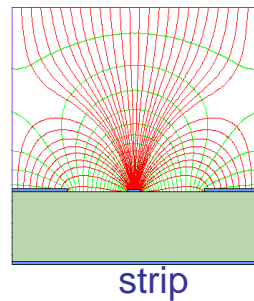
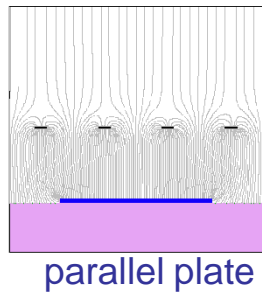


$$E(r) = \frac{CV_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{1}{r}$$

$C$  – capacitance/unit length

$$V(r) = \frac{CV_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \ln \frac{r}{a}$$

Cylindrical geometry is not the only one able to generate strong electric field:



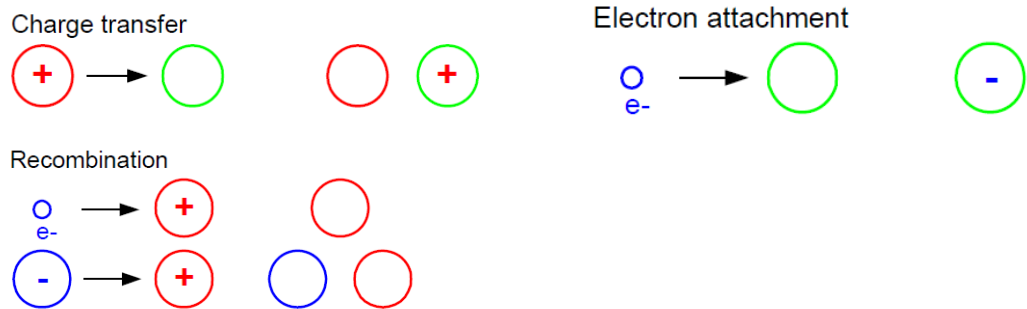
# GAS AMPLIFICATION

Multiplication of ionization is described by the first Townsend coefficient  $\alpha(E)$

$$n = n_0 e^{\alpha(E)x} \quad \text{or} \quad n = n_0 e^{\alpha(r)x}$$

$\alpha(E)$  is determined by the excitation and ionization cross sections of the electrons in the gas.

It depends also on various and complex energy transfer mechanisms between gas molecules:



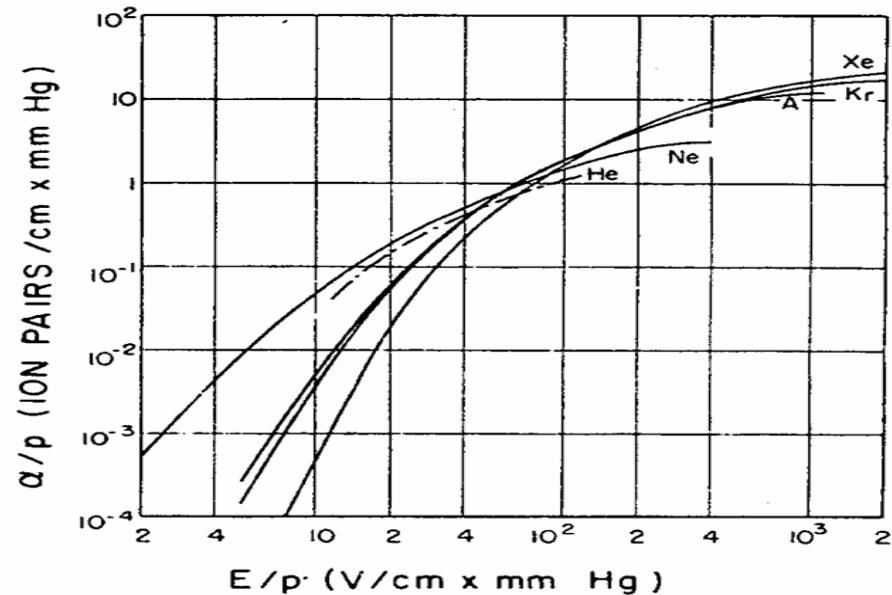
There is no fundamental expression for  $\alpha(E)$  → it has to be measured for every gas mixture.

$$M = \frac{n}{n_0} = \exp \left[ \int_a^{r_c} \alpha(r) dr \right]$$

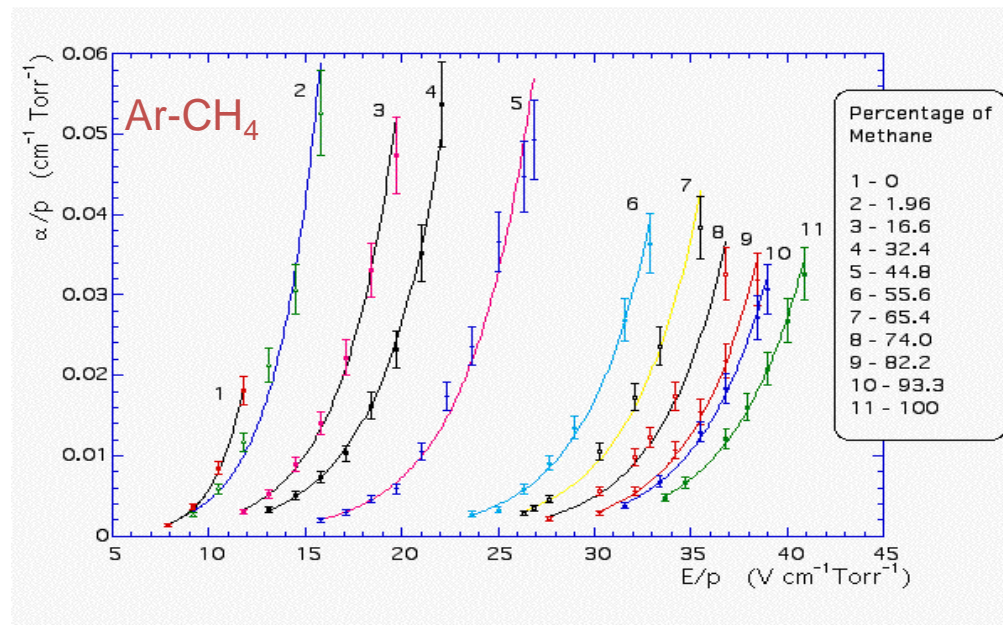
Amplification factor or Gain

$$dn = n \cdot \alpha dx$$

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\lambda} \quad \lambda - \text{mean free path}$$



S.C. Brown, Basic data of plasma physics (MIT Press, 1959)



A. Sharma and F. Sauli, NIM A334(1993)420



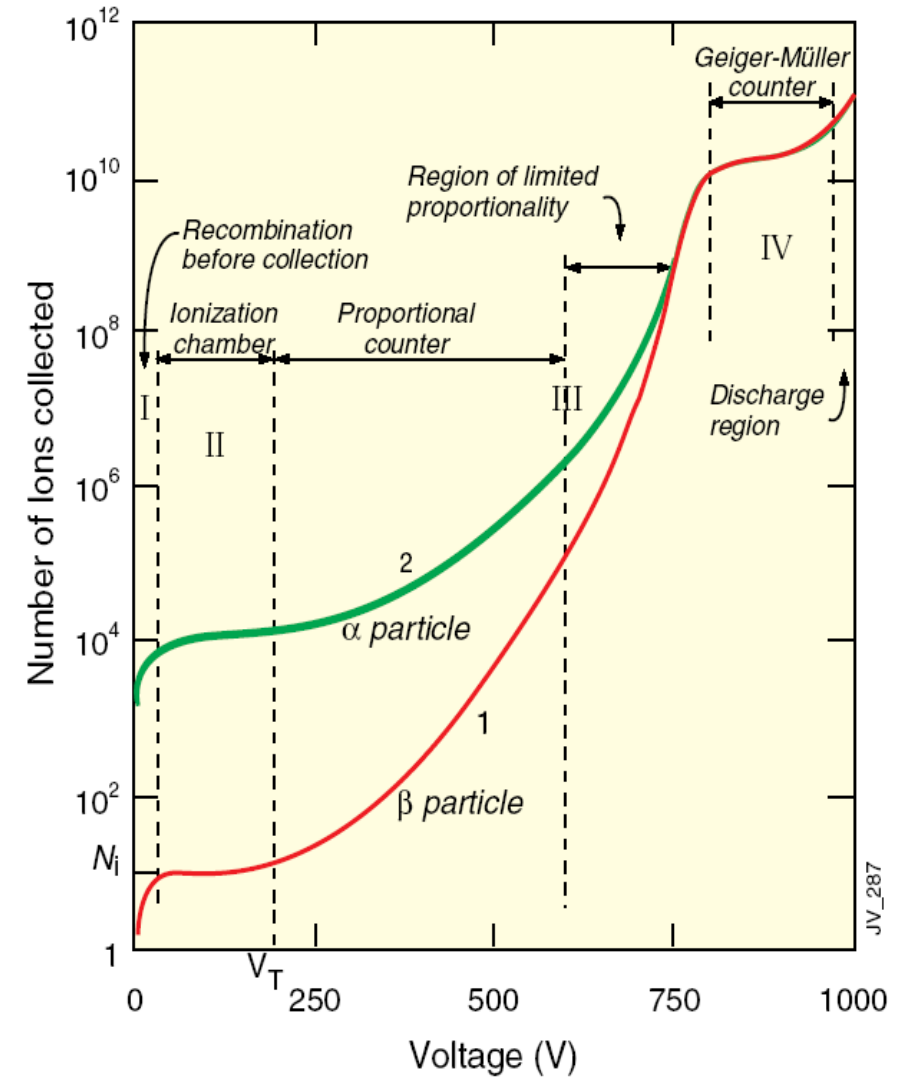
## SECOND TOWNSEND COEFFICIENT

- Following ionization, atoms may be in an excited state and subsequently emit photons, via the photoelectric effect additional electrons are produced.
- Probability of an electron to produce a photoelectron is called the second Townsend coefficient  $\gamma$ .
- In the first generation the primary  $e^-$  are amplified to  $N_0M$  and produce  $\gamma N_0M$  photoelectrons, these are amplified in the second generation to  $(\gamma N_0M) \cdot M = \gamma N_0M^2 e^-$  and create  $\gamma \cdot (\gamma N_0M^2)$  photoelectrons, etc.

$$N(x) = N_0M + N_0M^2\gamma + N_0M^3\gamma^2 + \dots = N_0M \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (M\gamma)^k = \frac{N_0M}{1 - \gamma M}$$

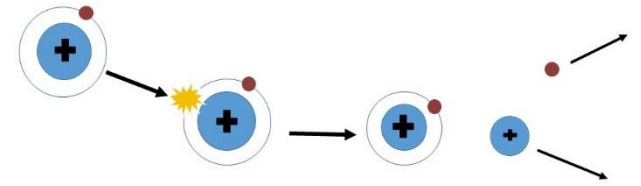
# OPERATION MODES

- **ionization mode** – full charge collection, but no charge multiplication; gain  $\sim 1$
- **proportional mode** – multiplication of ionization starts; detected signal proportional to original ionization  $\rightarrow$  possible energy measurement ( $dE/dx$ ); secondary avalanches have to be quenched; gain  $\sim 10^4 - 10^5$
- **limited proportional mode** (saturated, streamer) – strong photoemission; secondary avalanches merging with original avalanche; requires pulsed HV; large signals  $\rightarrow$  simple electronics; gain  $\sim 10^{10}$
- **Geiger mode** – massive photoemission; full length of the anode wire affected; discharge stopped by HV cut;

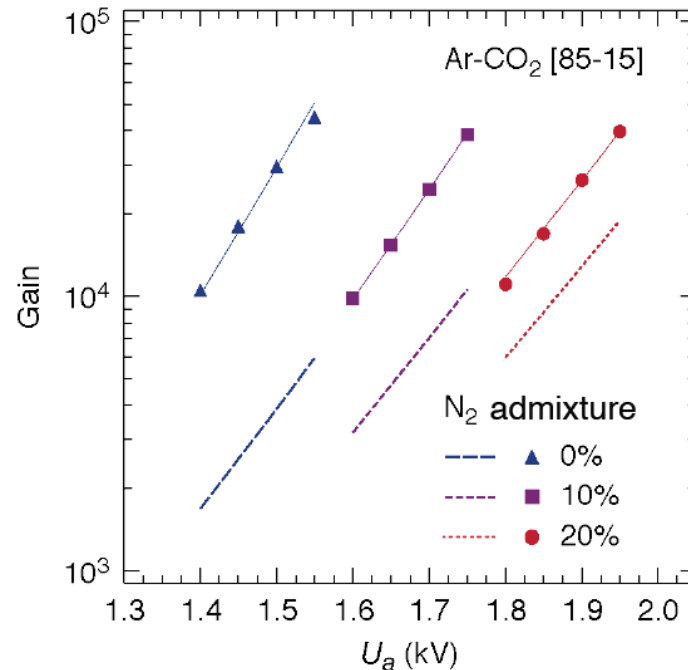


# PENNING EFFECT

- The **Penning effect** occurs in gas mixtures, in which a metastable excited state of one gas component is energetically higher than the ionization energy of the second gas component. The excited gas atoms/molecules ionize the second gas through collisions. → increase of the number of electron ion pairs.
- **Penning gas mixtures** consist typically of a noble gas (in most cases Ar) and a low concentration admixture of a molecular gas.



Amplification in a mixture of Ar (85%) and CO<sub>2</sub> (15%) with different admixtures of N<sub>2</sub>:



Penning effect:

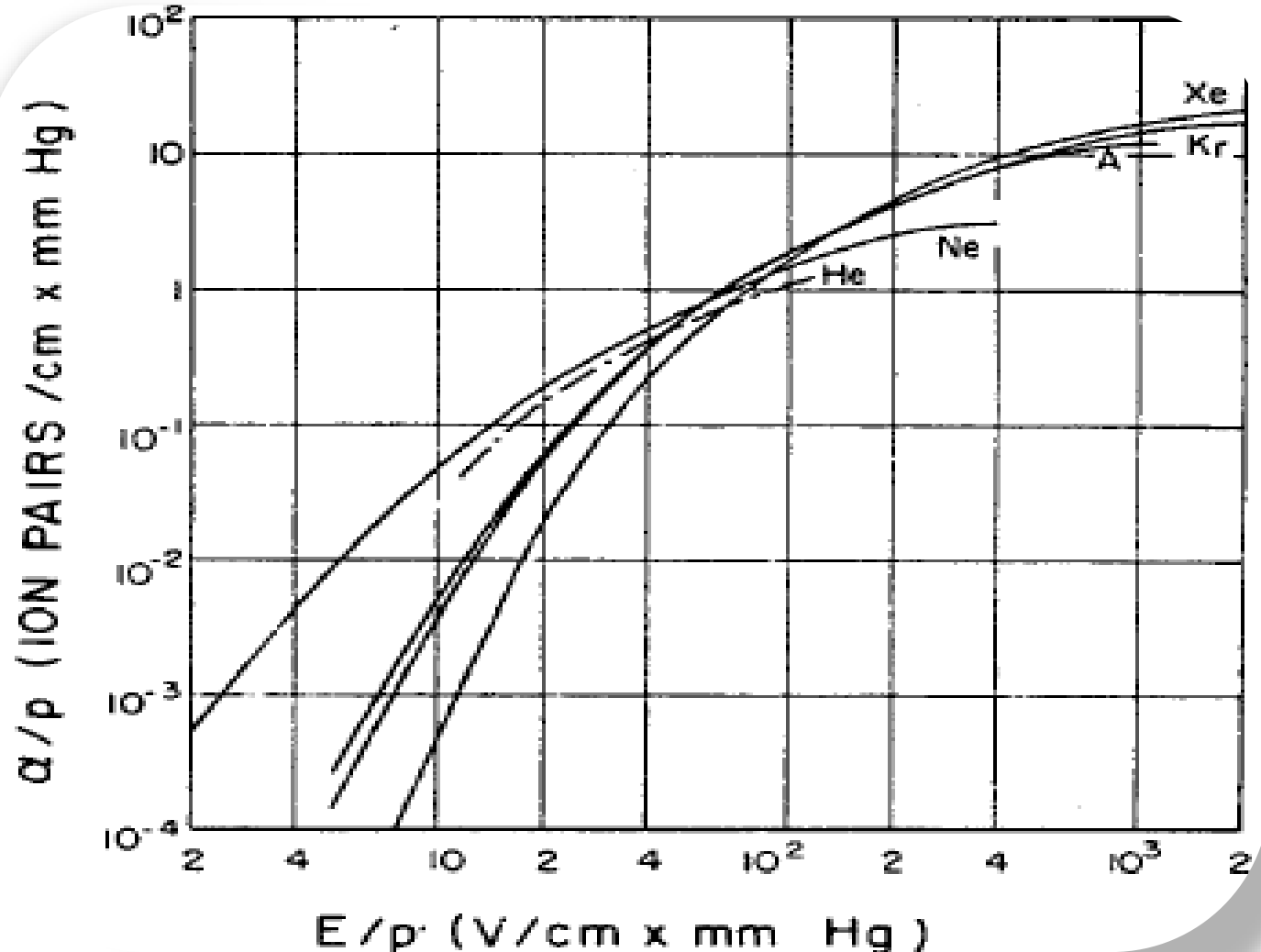


Points: measurements

Dashed lines: simulation without Penning effect

Continuous lines: simulation with Penning effect

# GAS CHOICE – NOBLE GASES



VIII A	
18	
2	□
<b>He</b>	
4,00	
Helis	
10	□
<b>Ne</b>	
20,18	
Neon	
18	□
<b>Ar</b>	
39,98	
Argonas	
36	□
<b>Kr</b>	
83,80	
Kriptonas	
54	□
<b>Xe</b>	
131,29	
Ksenonas	
86	□
<b>Rn</b>	
(222,02)	
Radonas	

Light

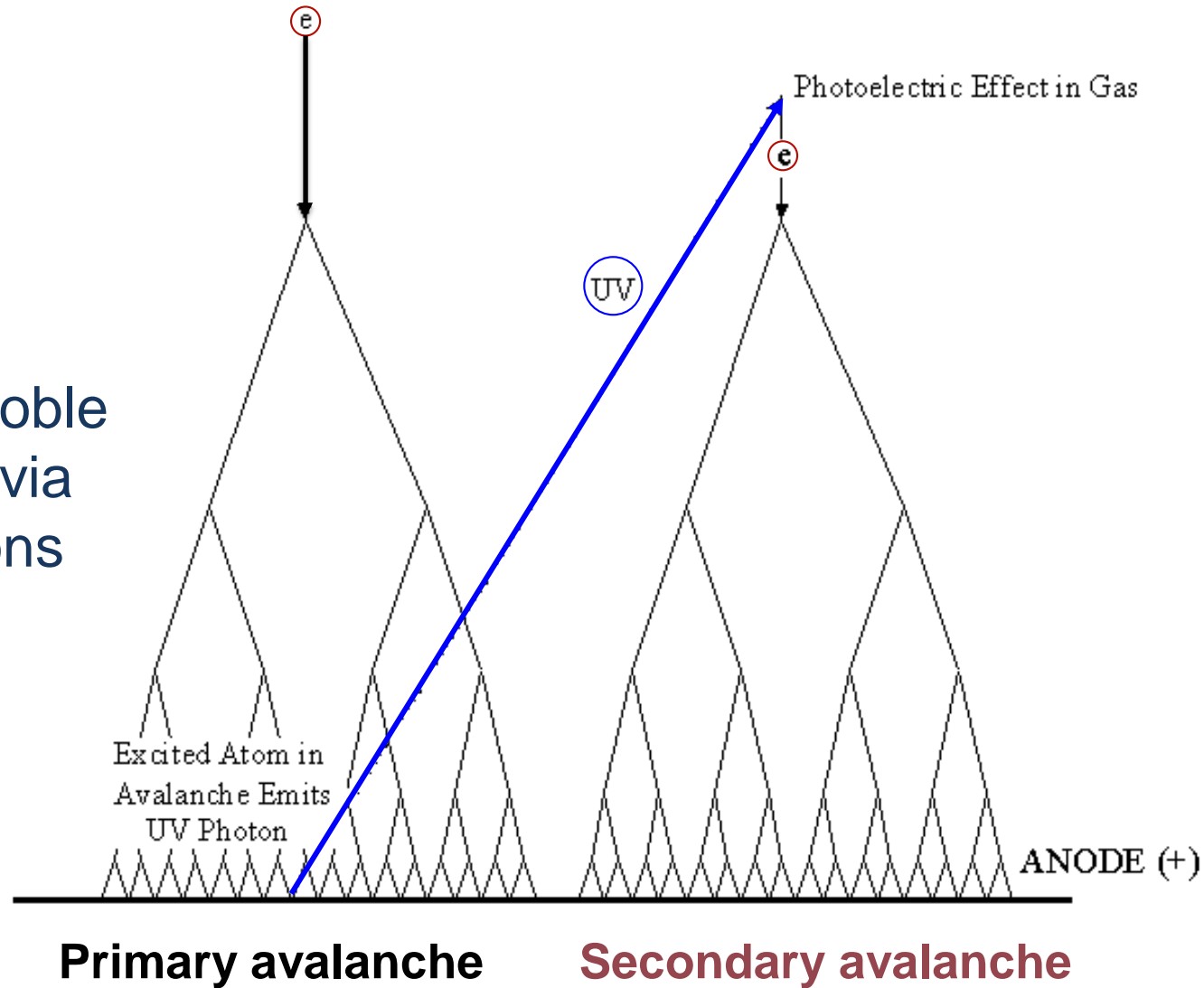
Abundant  
Inert  
Cheap

Expensive

Noble gases require the lowest electric field for formation of avalanche

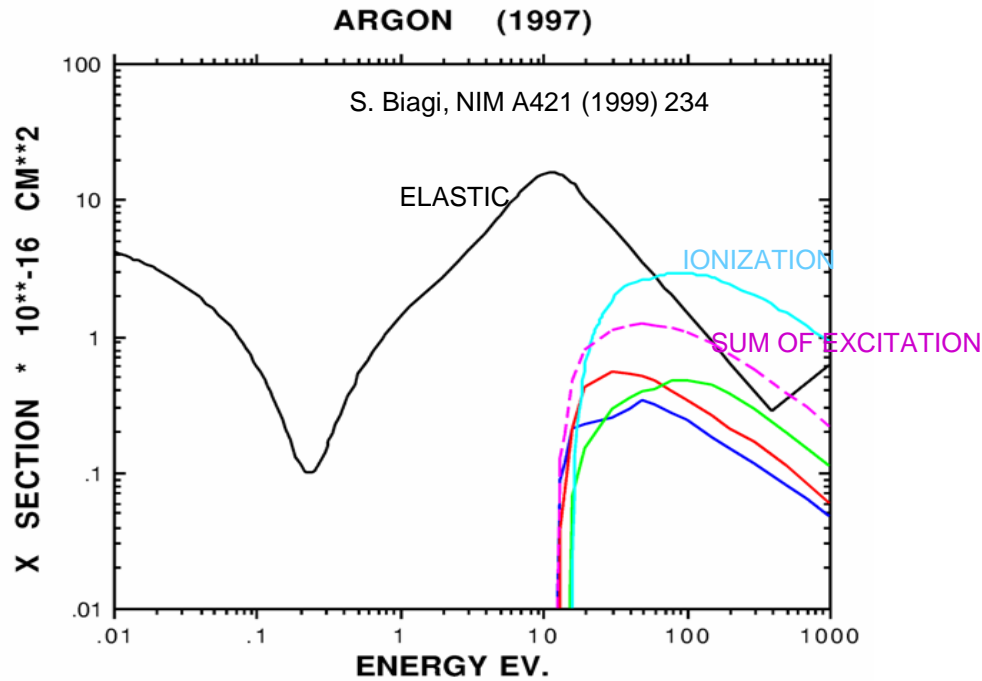
# DE-EXCITATION IN NOBLE GASES

De-excitation of noble gases occur only via emission of photons



# GAS CHOICE

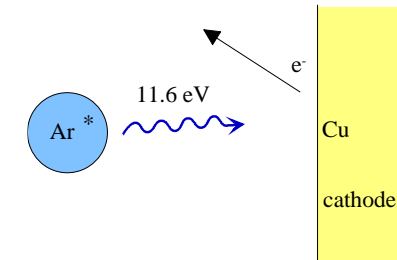
In noble gases, ionization is the dominant process, but there are also excited states.



De-excitation of noble gases only via emission of photons; e.g. 11.6 eV for Ar.

This is above ionization threshold of metals, e.g. Cu 7.7 eV.

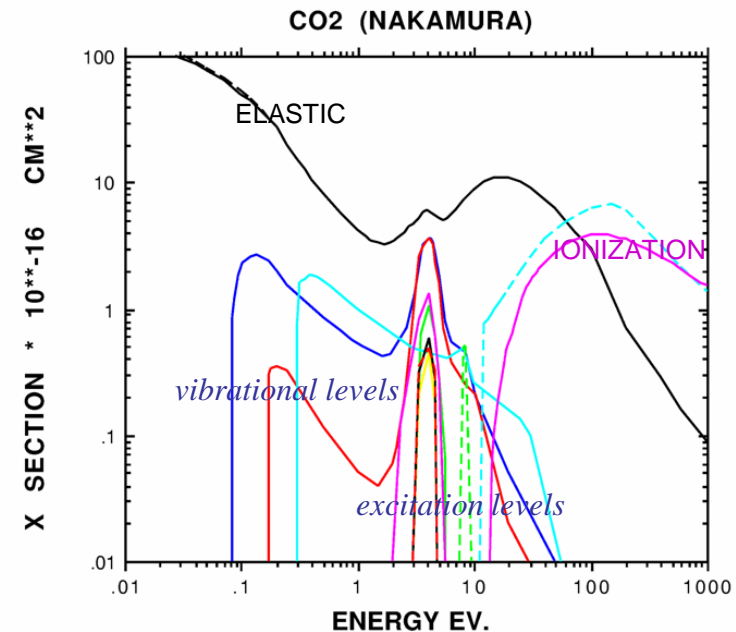
→ new avalanches → permanent discharges !



Solution: addition of polyatomic gas as a **quencher**

Absorption of photons in a large energy range (many vibrational and rotational energy levels).

Energy dissipation by collisions with gas molecules or dissociation into smaller molecules.

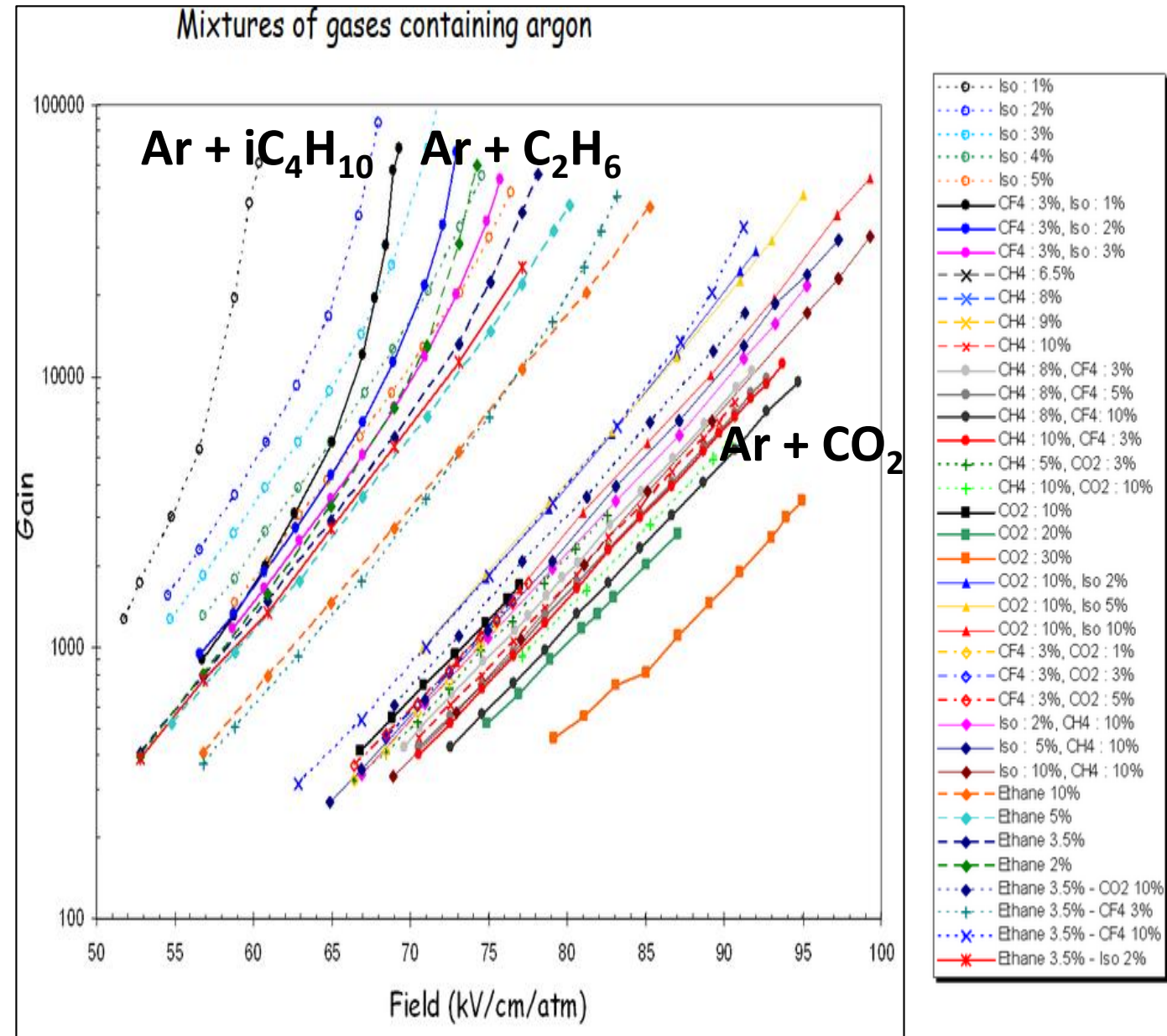


# QUENCHER GASES

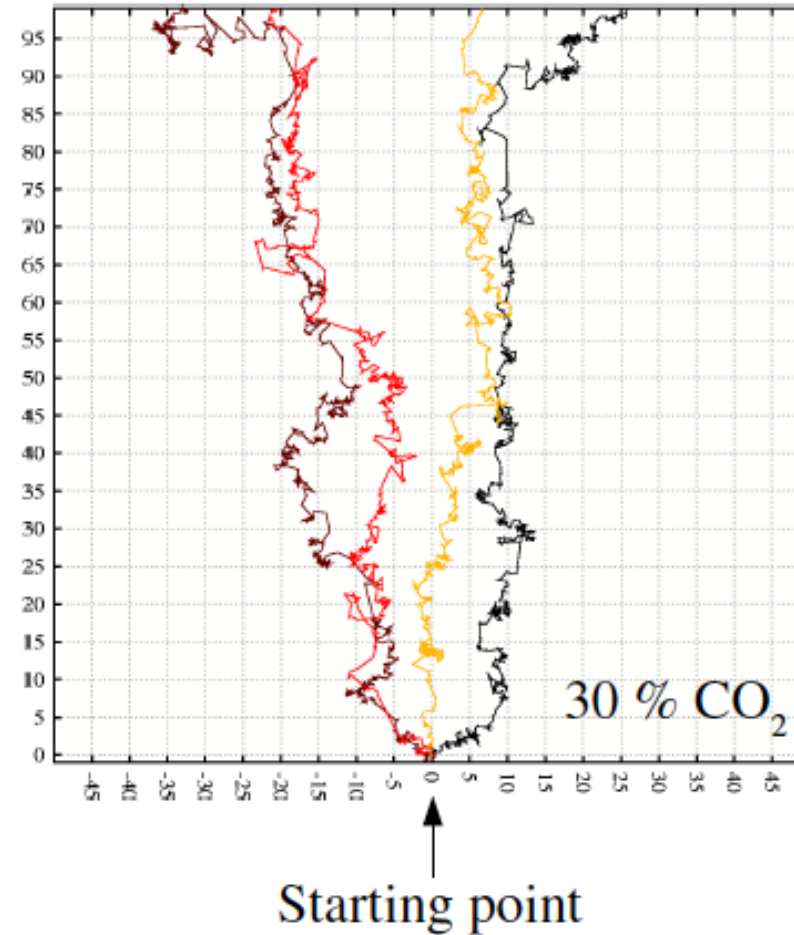
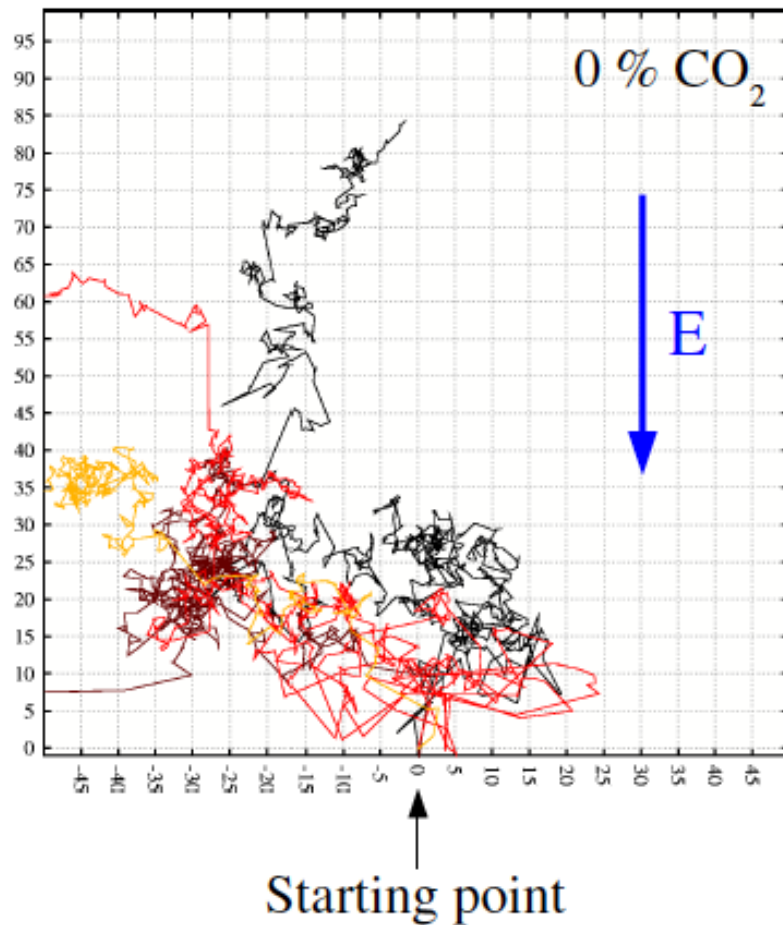
A polyatomic gas acts as a QUENCHER, i.e., absorbs photons in a large energy range due to the large amount of non-radiative excited states (rotational and vibrational)

- Most organic compounds in the HC and -OH families. The quenching efficiency increases with the # of atoms in the molecule
- Freons,  $\text{BF}_3$
- $\text{CO}_2$ : non flammable, non polymerizing, easily available

QUENCHING = Process that decreases the probability of secondary discharges



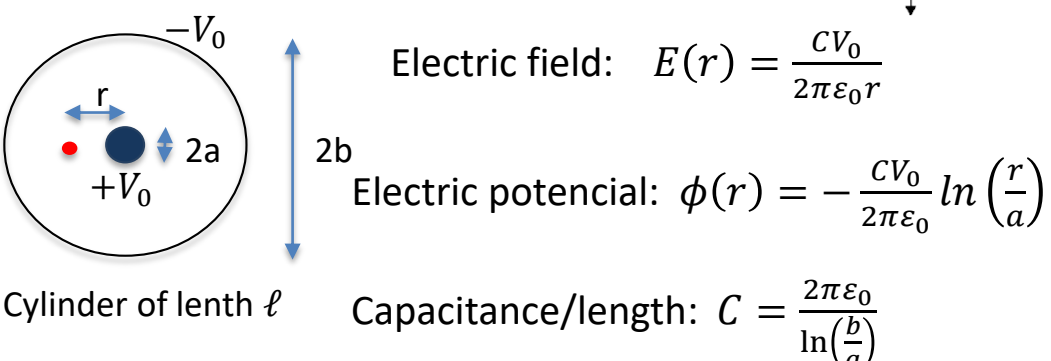
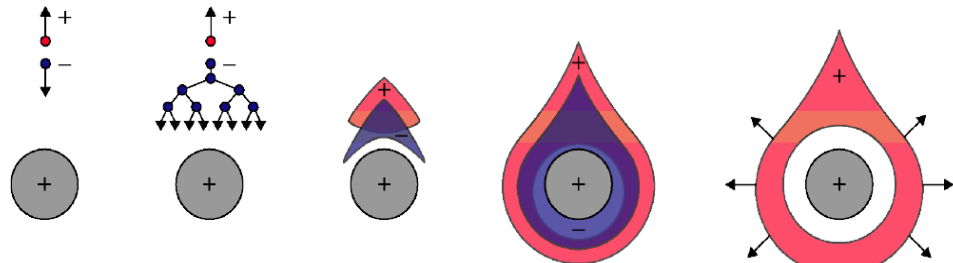
# ELECTRONS IN ARGON at 1 kV/cm





# SIGNAL FORMATION

- Electron avalanche occurs very close to the wire, with first multiplication occurring ~2x the wire radius.
- Electrons move to the wire surface very quickly ( $\ll 1\text{ns}$ ), but the ions drift to the tube wall more slowly ( $\sim 100\ \mu\text{s}$ ).
- Total charge induced by the electrons amount to only ~1-2 % of the total charge.



Change in kinetic energy for a charge  $q$ :  $dW = \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = -q \frac{d\phi}{dr} dr$

Electrostatic energy:  $U = \frac{1}{2} \ell CV^2 \Rightarrow dW = -dU = -\ell CV_0 dV$

$\Rightarrow q \frac{d\phi}{dr} dr = \ell CV_0 dV \Rightarrow dV = \frac{q}{\ell CV_0} \frac{d\phi}{dr} dr$

Total induced voltage for electrons ( $r'$  = position where avalanche starts):

$$V^- = -\frac{q}{\ell CV_0} \int_{a+r'}^a \frac{d\phi}{dr} dr = -\frac{q}{\ell CV_0} \left\{ \frac{CV_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln\left(\frac{a+r'}{a}\right) \right\}$$

Total induced voltage for ions:

$$V^+ = \frac{q}{\ell CV_0} \int_{a+r'}^b \frac{d\phi}{dr} dr = -\frac{q}{\ell CV_0} \left\{ \frac{CV_0}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln\left(\frac{b}{a+r'}\right) \right\}$$

$$\frac{V^-}{V^+} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{a+r'}{a}\right)}{\ln\left(\frac{b}{a+r'}\right)}$$

If we use typical values:

$$a = 10\ \mu\text{m}, b = 10\ \text{mm}, r' = 1\ \mu\text{m}$$

$$\frac{V^-}{V^+} \approx 1.4\%$$

Signal is mainly due to ions

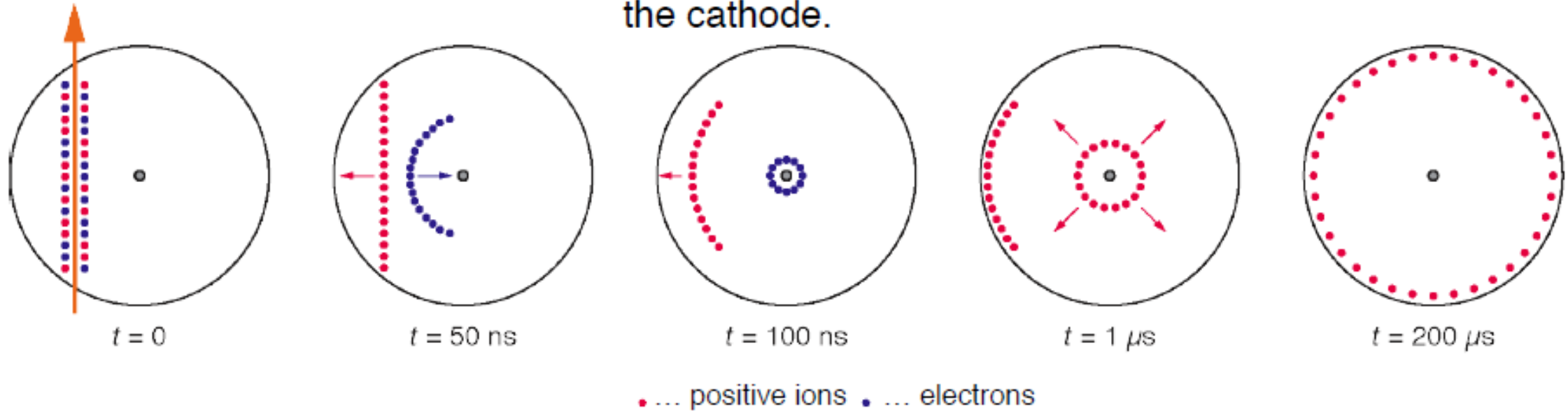
Charged particle produces primary ionization along the track.

Primary  $e^-$  drift quickly to the anode wire. Ions drift much slower to the cathode cylinder.

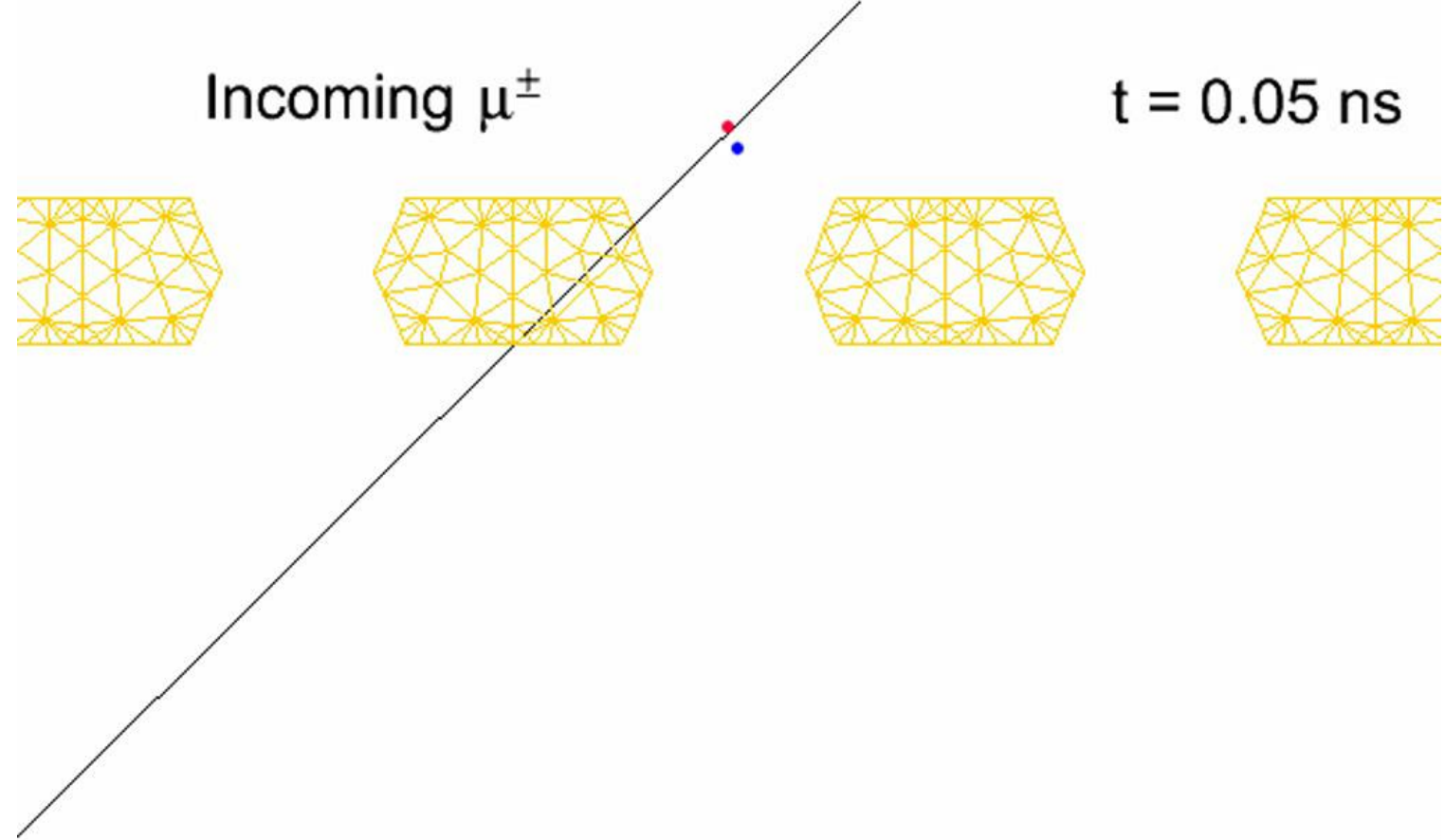
The primary  $e^-$  reach the region of high field and produce secondary ionization  $\rightarrow$  charge carrier avalanche around the wire. The primary ions continue to drift to the cathode.

The ions produced in the secondary ionization drift also to the cathode. The secondary  $e^-$  are generated close to the anode.

Finally also the secondary ions reach the cathode.



**The induced signal is by far dominated by the movement of the ions!**



# CHARGE CARRIER DISTRIBUTION

The charge carrier distribution follows a Gaussian distribution:

$$\frac{dN}{dx} = \frac{N_0}{\sqrt{4\pi Dt}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{4Dt}\right)$$

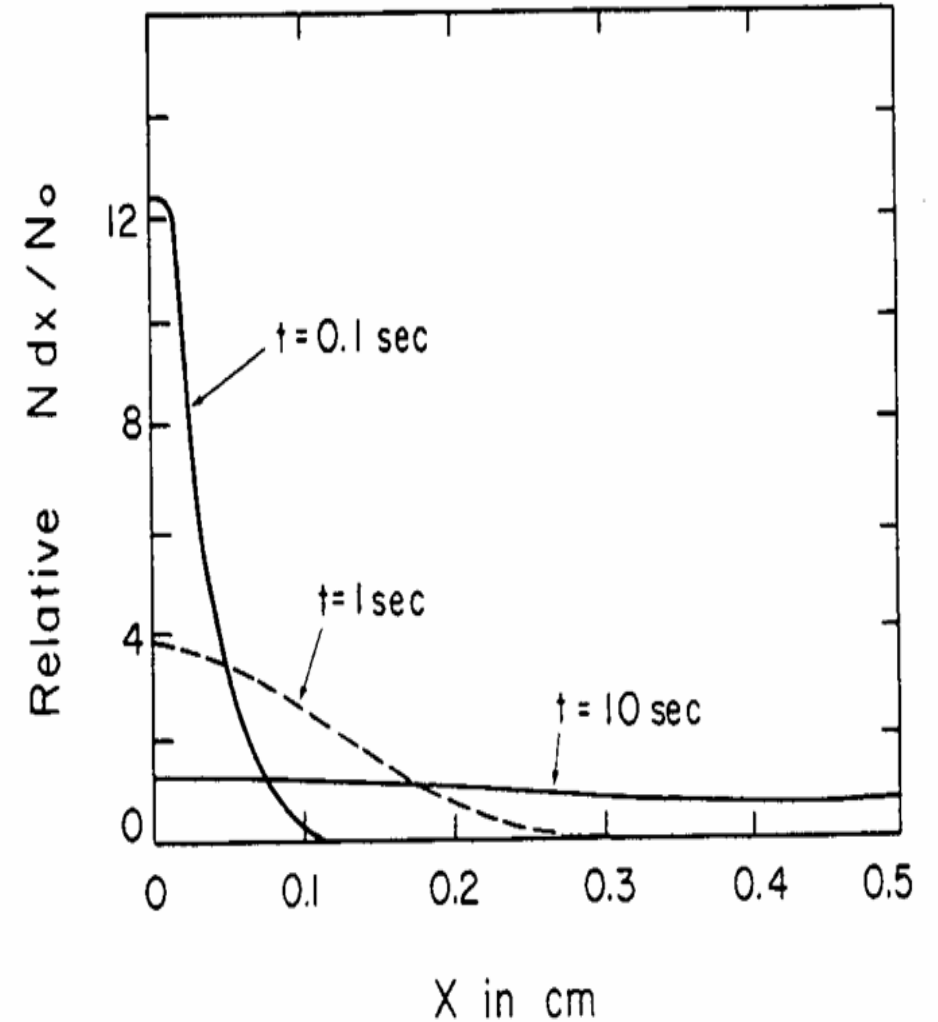
N= number of free charged carrier  
x = distance from point of creatio  
t= time after creation;  
D = Diffusion coefficient

The width (rms) of the distribution (linear diffusion):

$$\sigma_x = \sqrt{2Dt}$$

For volume diffusion (spherical dispersion):

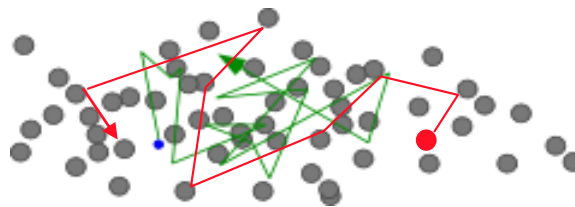
$$\sigma_{vol} = \sqrt{3}\sigma_x = \sqrt{6Dt}$$



# DRIFT AND DIFFUSION IN THE PRESENCE OF E FIELD

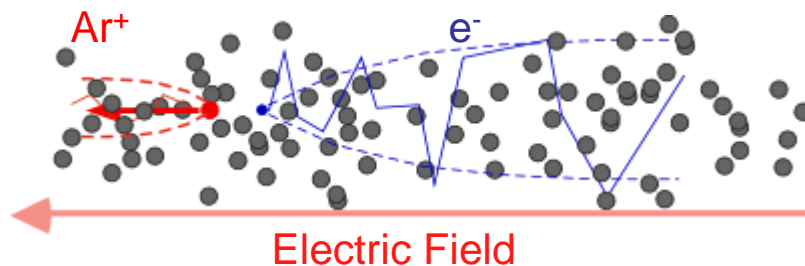
$E=0$  thermal diffusion

$$\langle v \rangle_t = 0$$



$E>0$  charge transport and diffusion

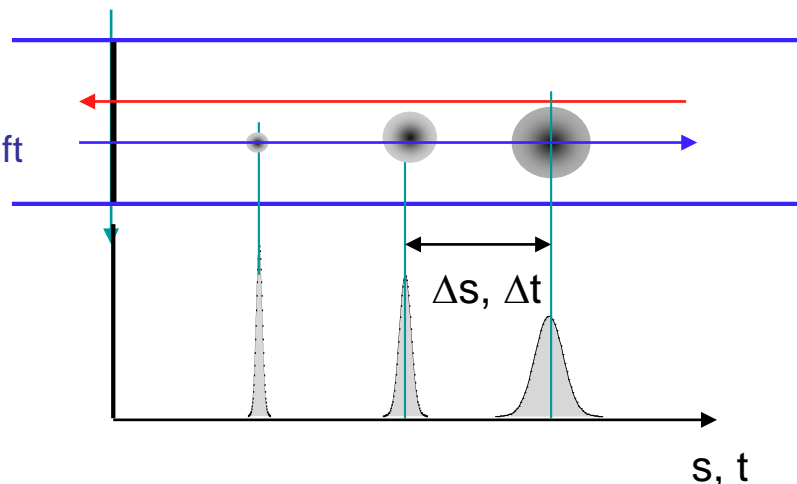
$$\langle v \rangle_t = v_D$$



$$v_D = \frac{\Delta s}{\Delta t} \quad \text{Drift velocity}$$

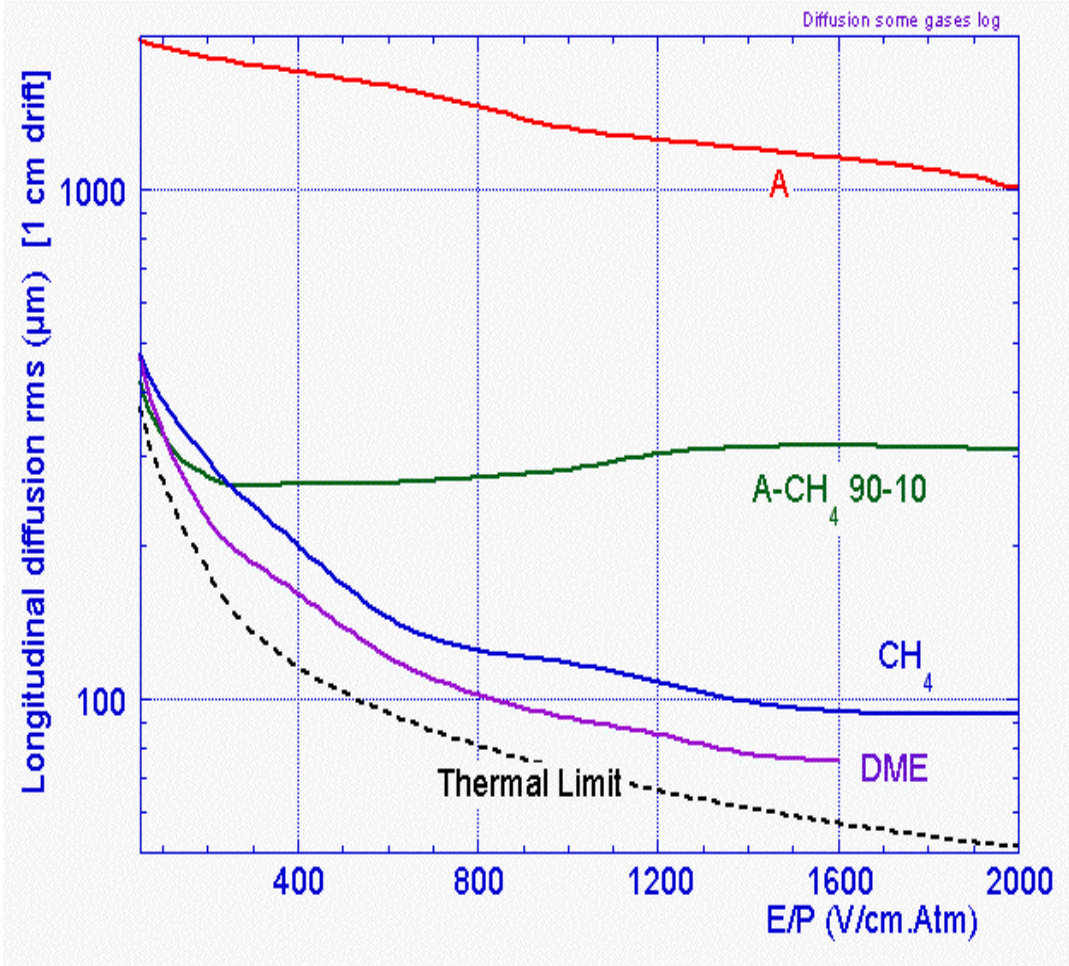
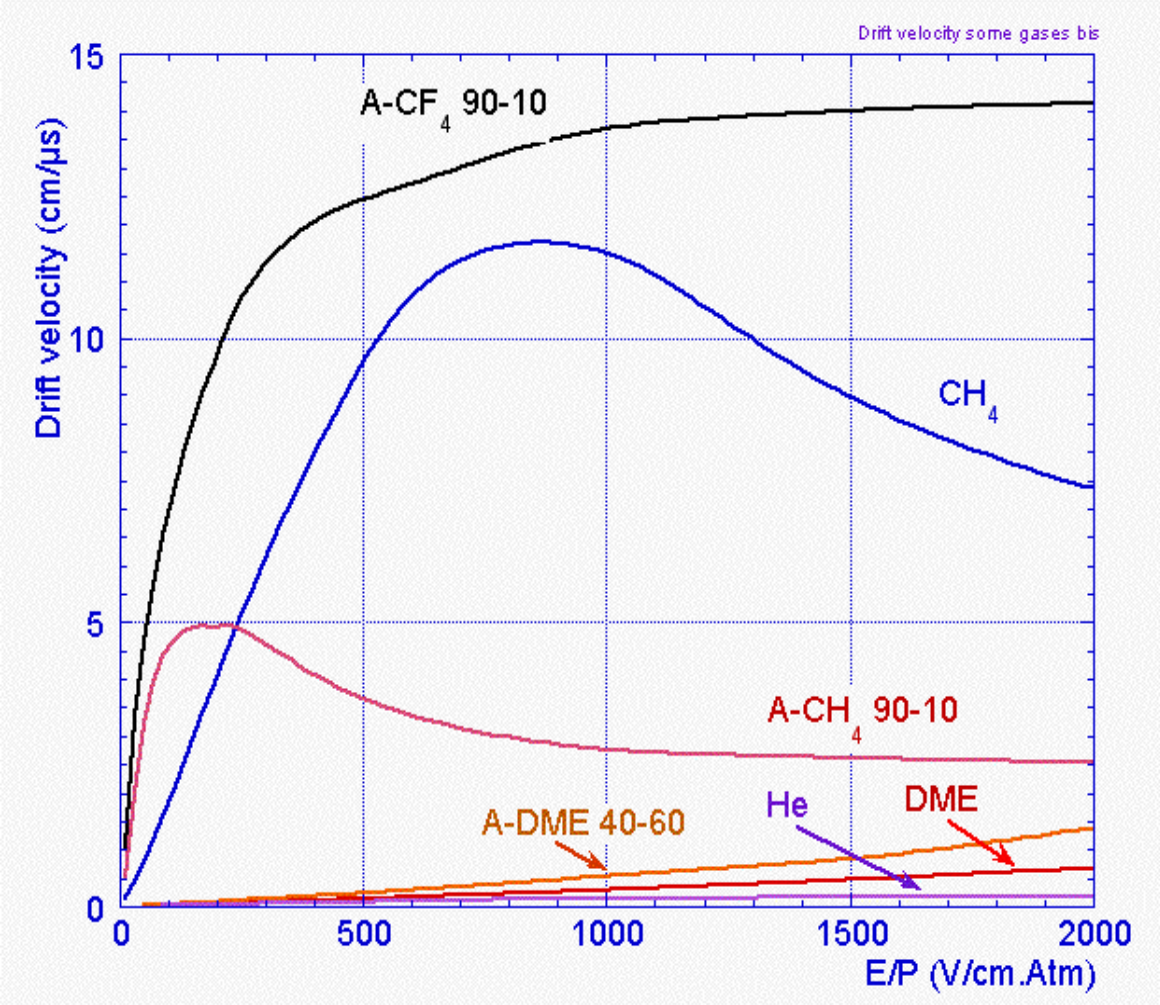
Electron cloud drift

$$\sigma_x = \sqrt{2Dt} = \sqrt{2D \frac{s}{v_D}} \quad \text{Diffusion}$$



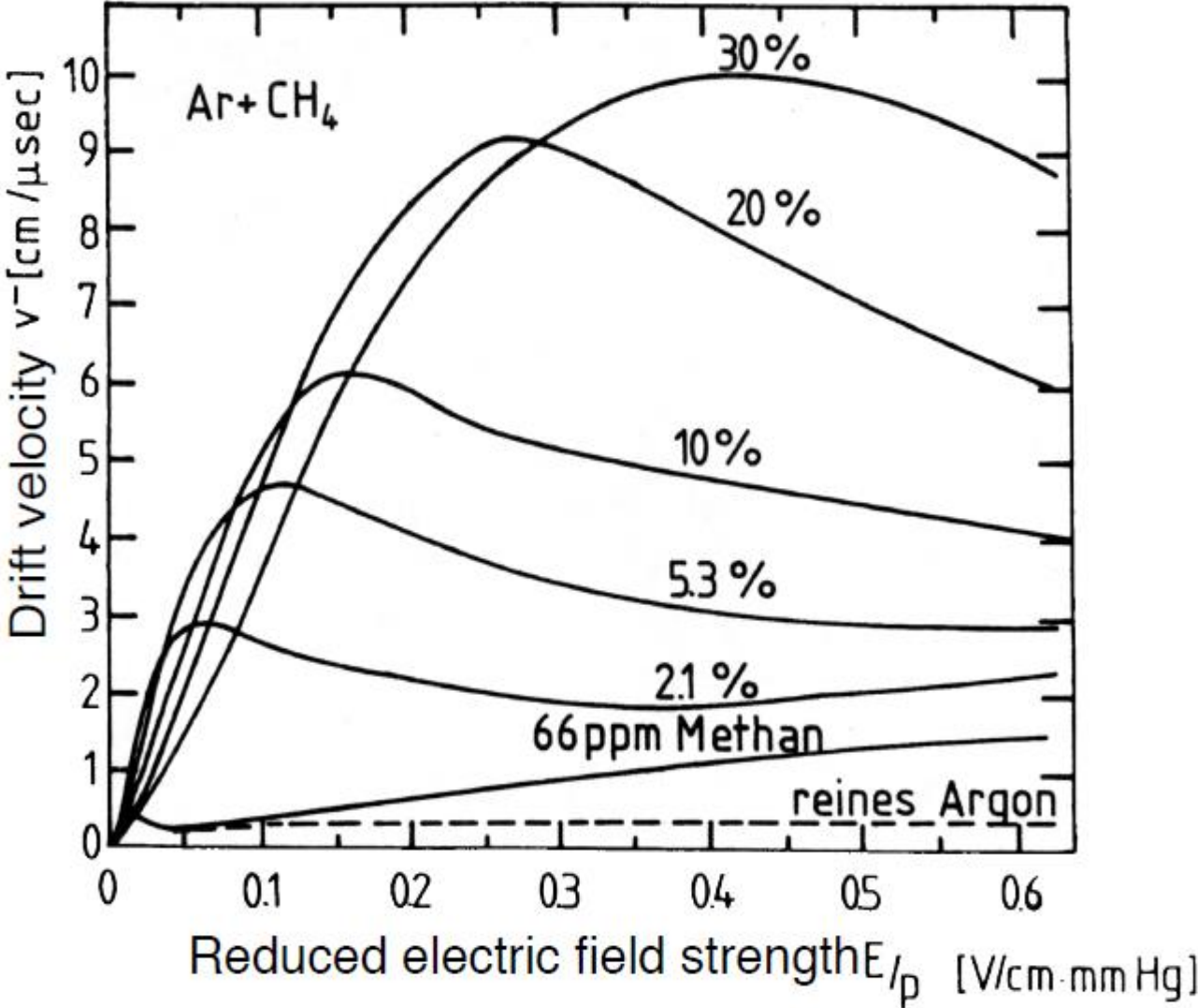
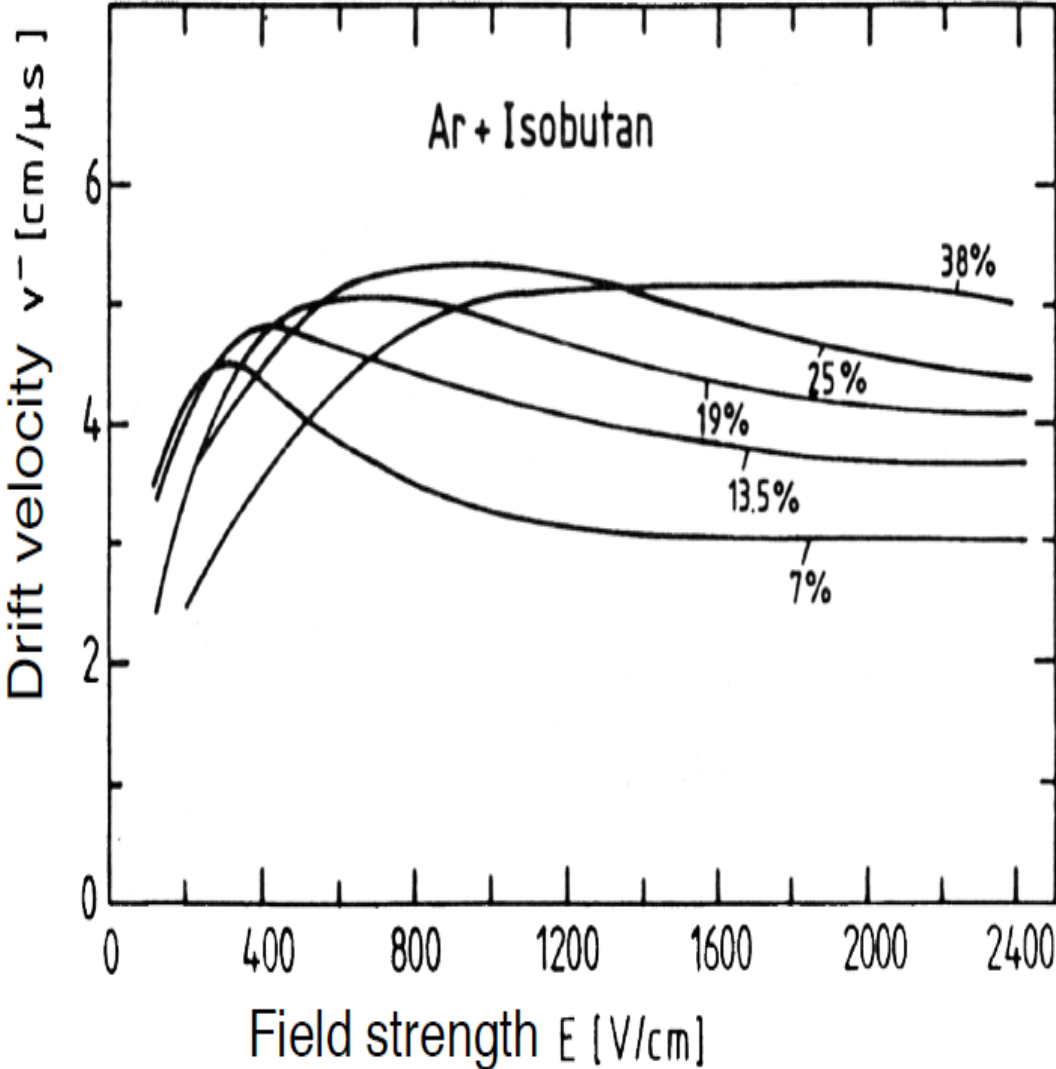
- If an external electric field is applied the electrons and ions are accelerated and move along the field lines drift
- The drift is superimposed onto the diffusion movement
- Acceleration is interrupted by collision with gas atoms, this limits the drift velocity mean drift velocity  $v_D$

# DRIFT VELOCITY AND DIFFUSION



Rule of thumb:  $v_D$  (electrons)  $\sim 5 \text{ cm}/\mu\text{s} = 50 \mu\text{m} / \text{ns}$ . Ions drift  $\sim 1000$  times slower.

# DRIFT VELOCITY FOR DIFFERENT GAS MIXTURES

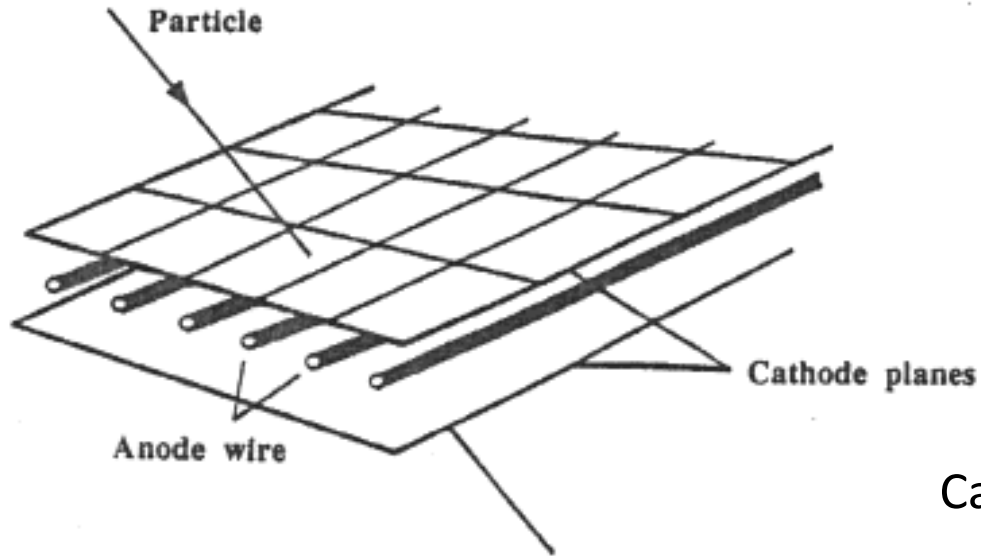


# CONSIDERATIONS FOR GAS CHOICE

- With an appropriate field, avalanche multiplication occurs in all gases
- But, there are many requirements:
  - Low working voltage
  - High Gas Gain
  - Good proportionality
  - High Rate capability
  - Long lifetime
  - Fast response/recovery
  - Safety (flammability, corrosive, irritants, toxics, etc.)
  - Stable (rad-hard)
  - Cost



# MULTIWIRE PROPORTIONAL CHAMBER (MWPC)



- Diameter of anode wires 10 – 50  $\mu\text{m}$
- Distances between wires 1 – 5 mm
- Each wire connected to an amplifier
- Typical gas amplification in MWPC is  $10^5$
- Max. particle rate  $\sim 10 \text{ kHz/mm}^2$

## Position resolution:

Depends on wire distance

e.g. for  $d = 1 \text{ mm}$

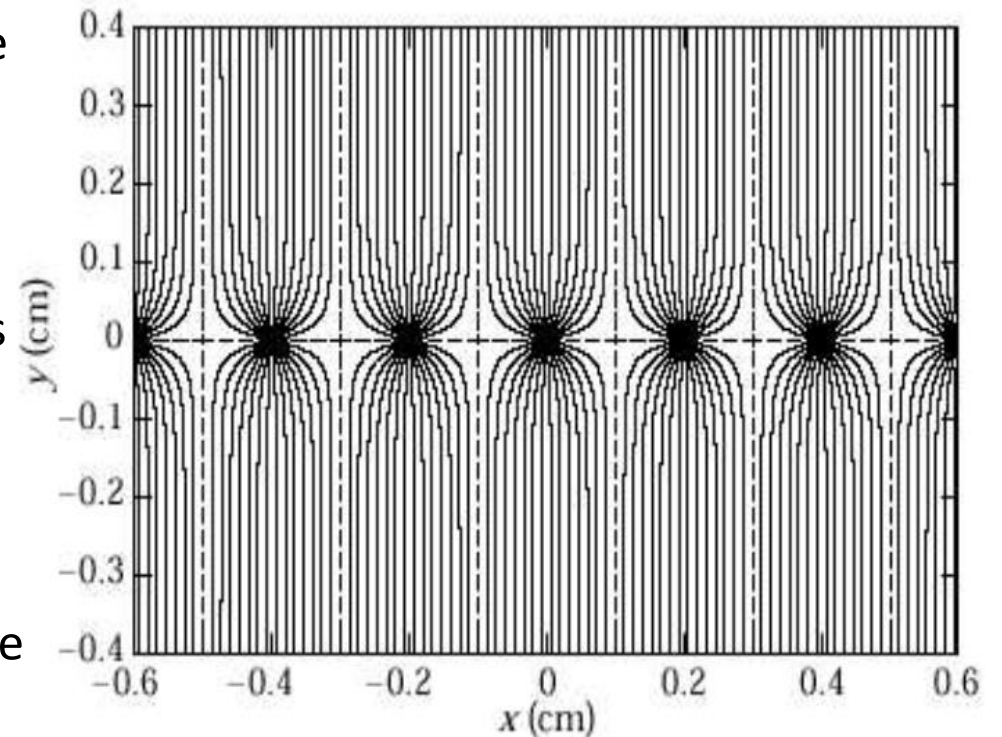
By simply using the wire position

$$\sigma_x = \frac{d}{\sqrt{12}} = 300 \mu\text{m}$$

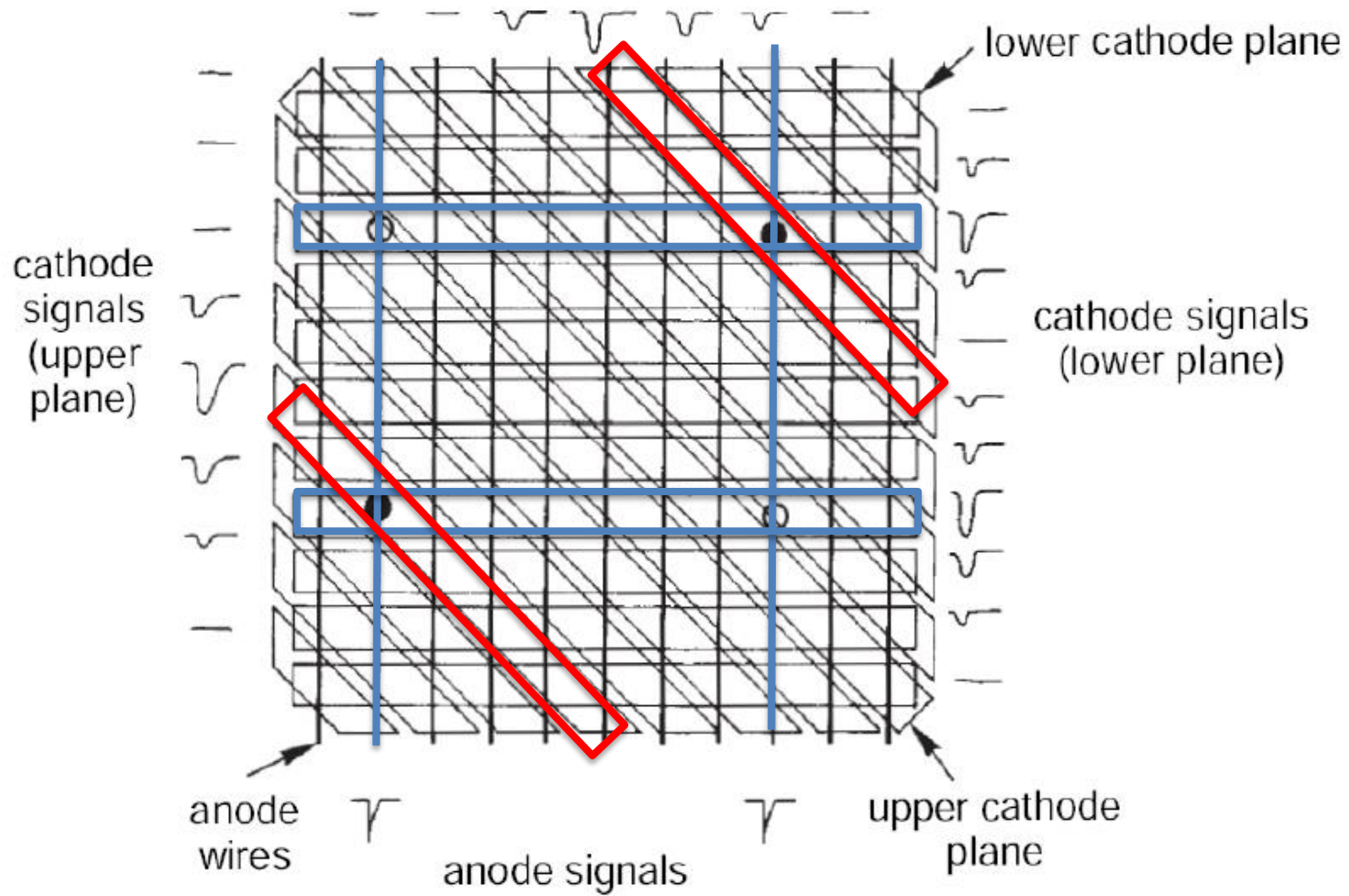
Catode plane

Anode wires

Catode plane



# CATHODE STRIP CHAMBERS



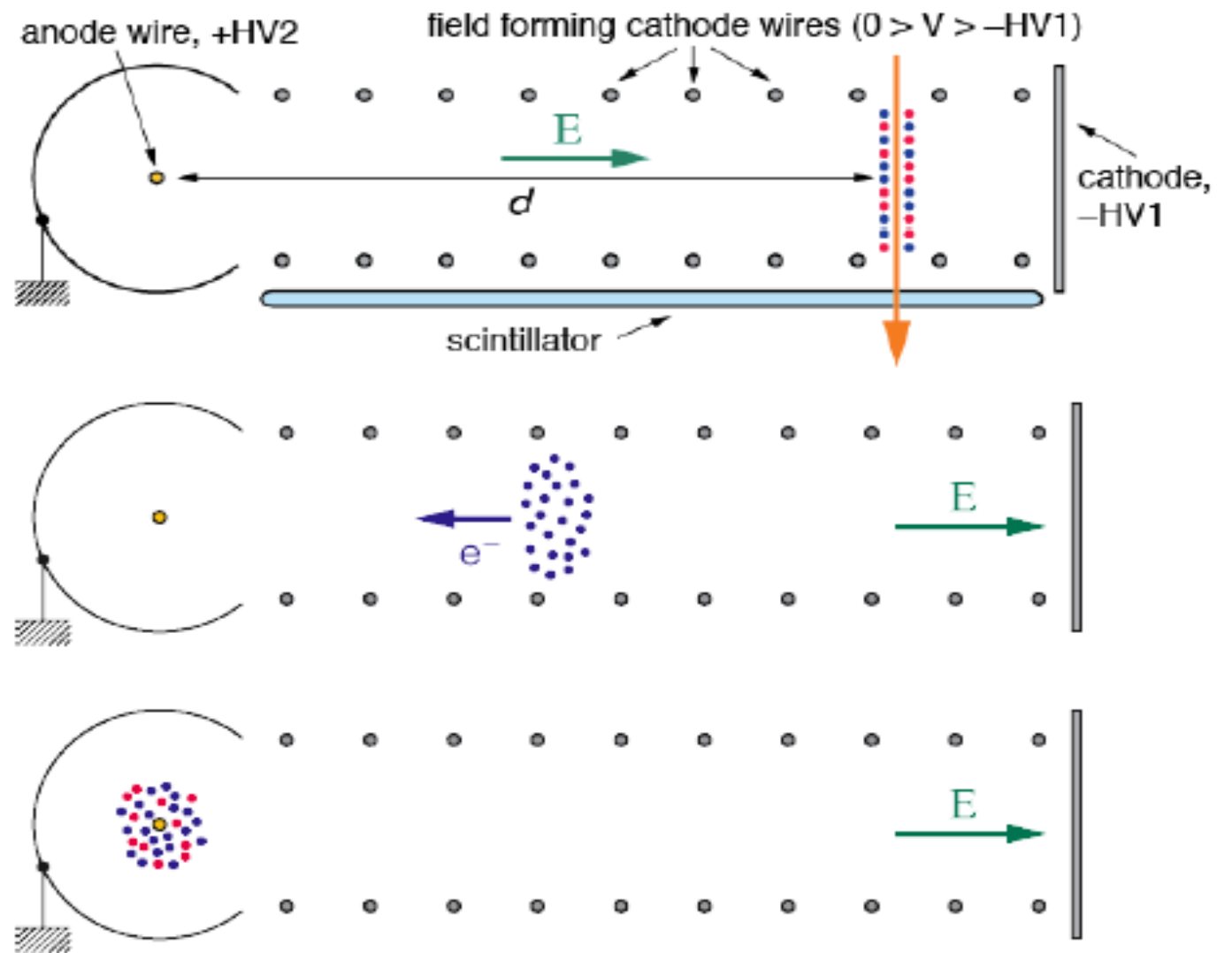
- A MWPC can only measure the coordinate perpendicular to the wires. No position measurement along the wires.
- If the cathode is segmented, perpendicular to the wires, the signal induced can be used to determine the second coordinate.
- Employing a center of charge calculation a **position resolution of 50  $\mu\text{m}$**  is achievable.
- Substantial functionality improvement due to cathode strips/pads.

# DRIFT CHAMBERS

1. Charged particle traversing the chamber produce ionisation. The scintillator signal starts a timer ( $t = t_0$ ).
2. Electrons drift to the anode wire.
3. Electrons reaching the wire create secondary ionisation (avalanche) and trigger a signal ( $t = t_1$ ).

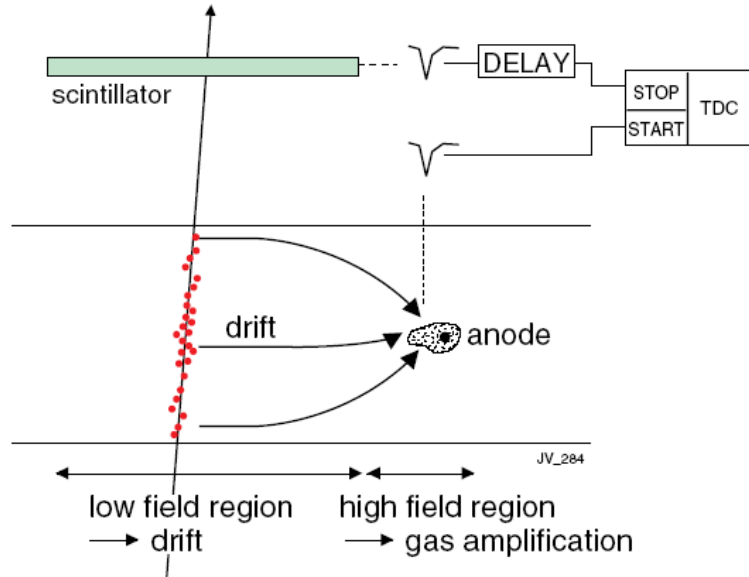
From the time difference the distance of the traversing particle to the wire is deduced.

$$\Delta t = t_1 - t_0, \quad x = v \cdot \Delta t$$

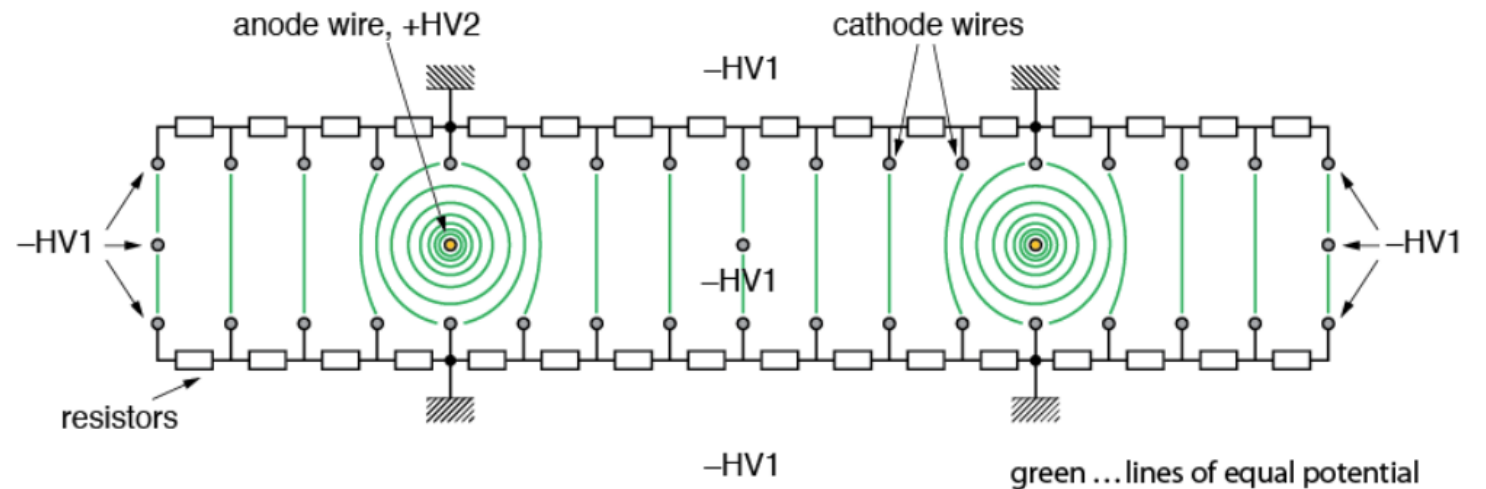


# DRIFT CHAMBERS

The electric field has to be homogeneous and the drift velocity constant and known. Additional field wires can improve the homogeneity.



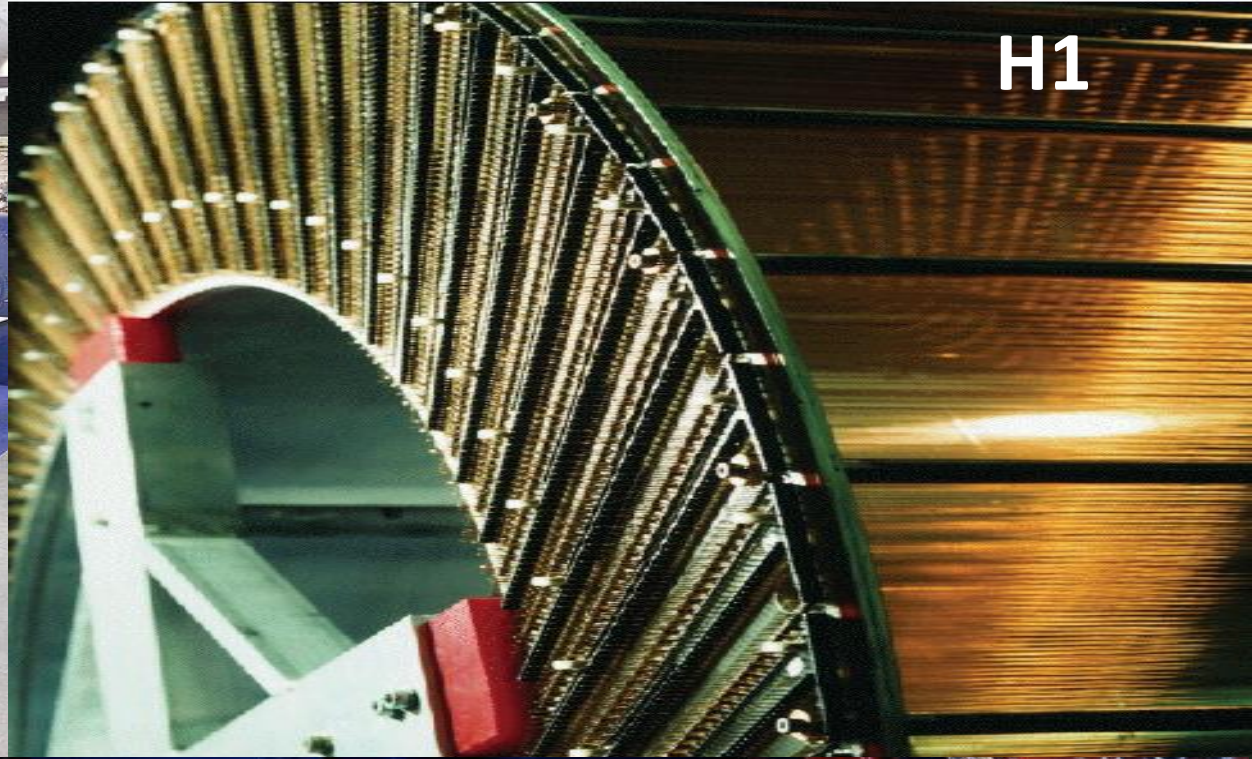
Typical geometry of a drift cell:



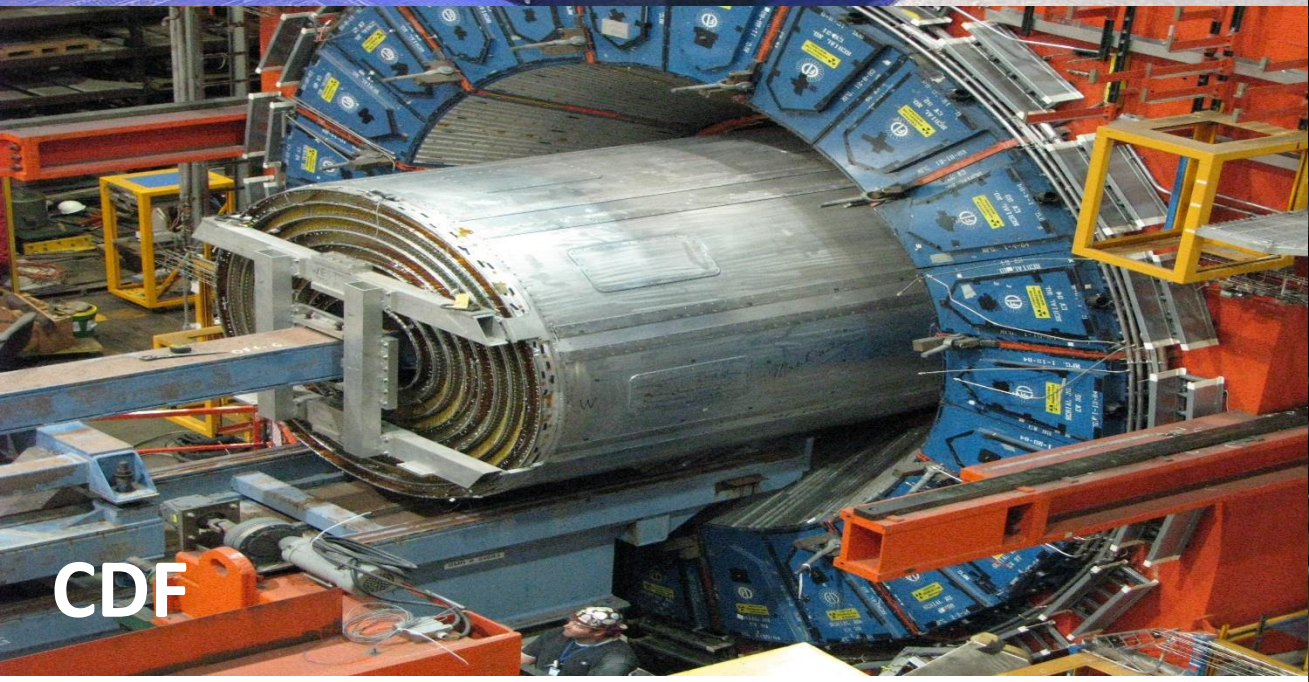
- Position resolution for large area chambers 200  $\mu\text{m}$  (small chambers as good as 20  $\mu\text{m}$ )
- Various gases used. Distinguish between fast gases (high  $v_D$  for high particle rates) and slow gases (low  $v_D$  for high spatial precision).
- Compared to MWPC: fewer wires and electronic channels, higher precision, but lower rate capability
- Typical drift distances 10 – 20 cm



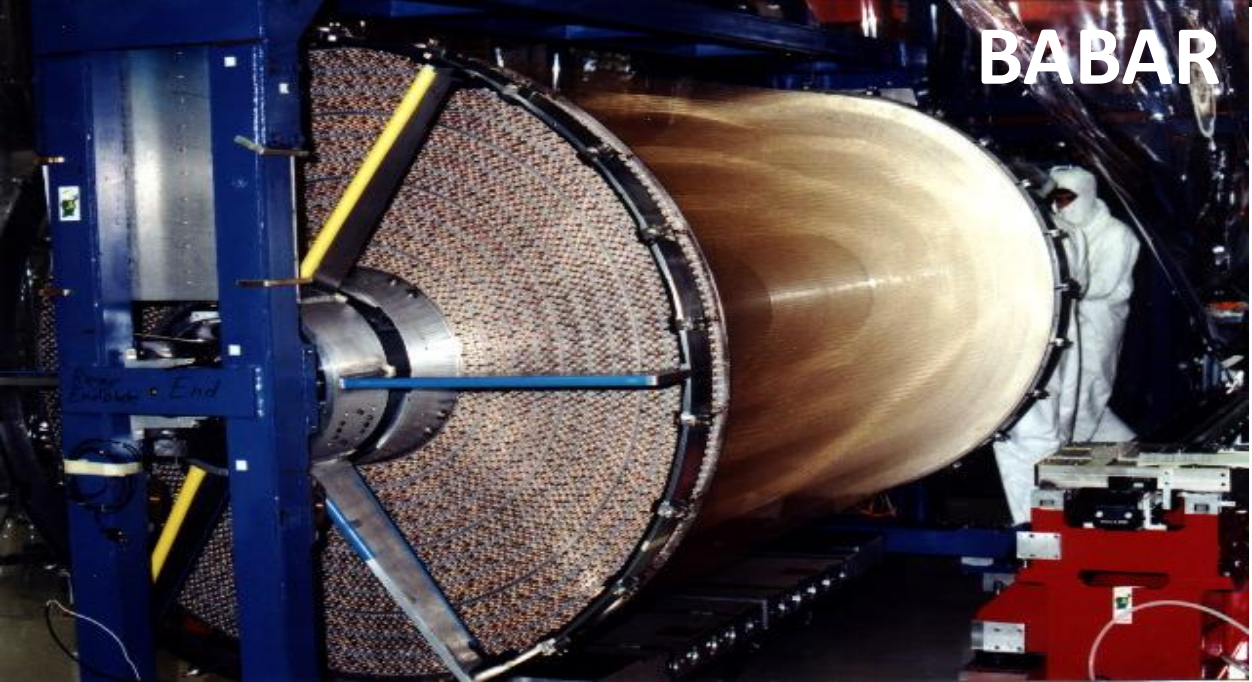
BELLE



H1

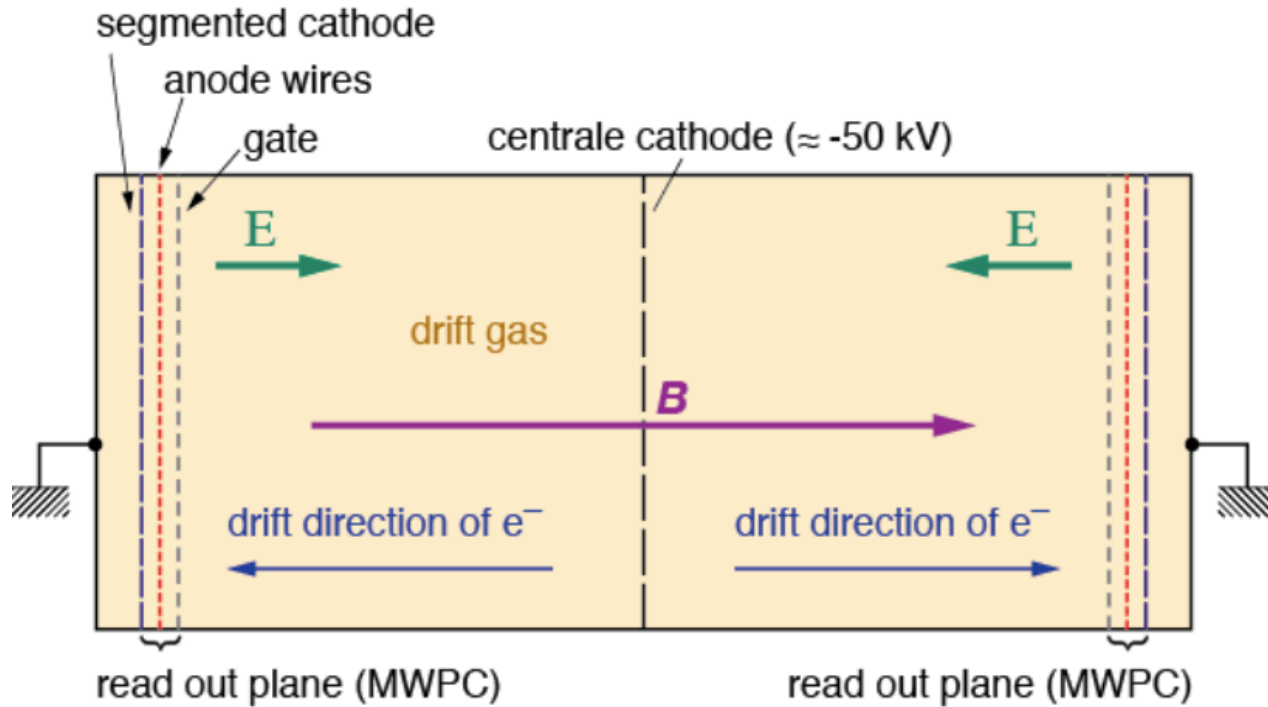


CDF

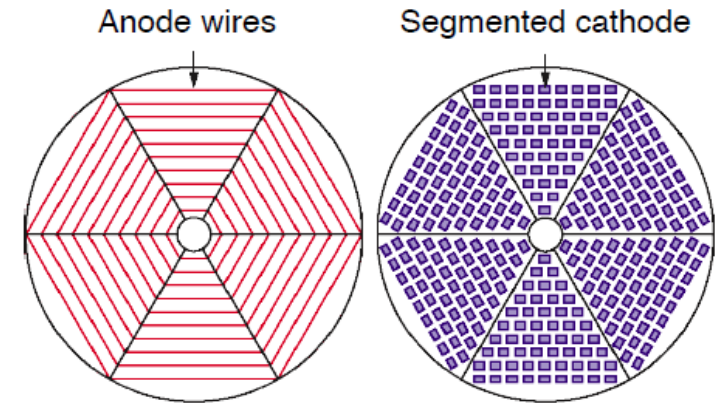


BABAR

# TIME PROJECTION CHAMBERS

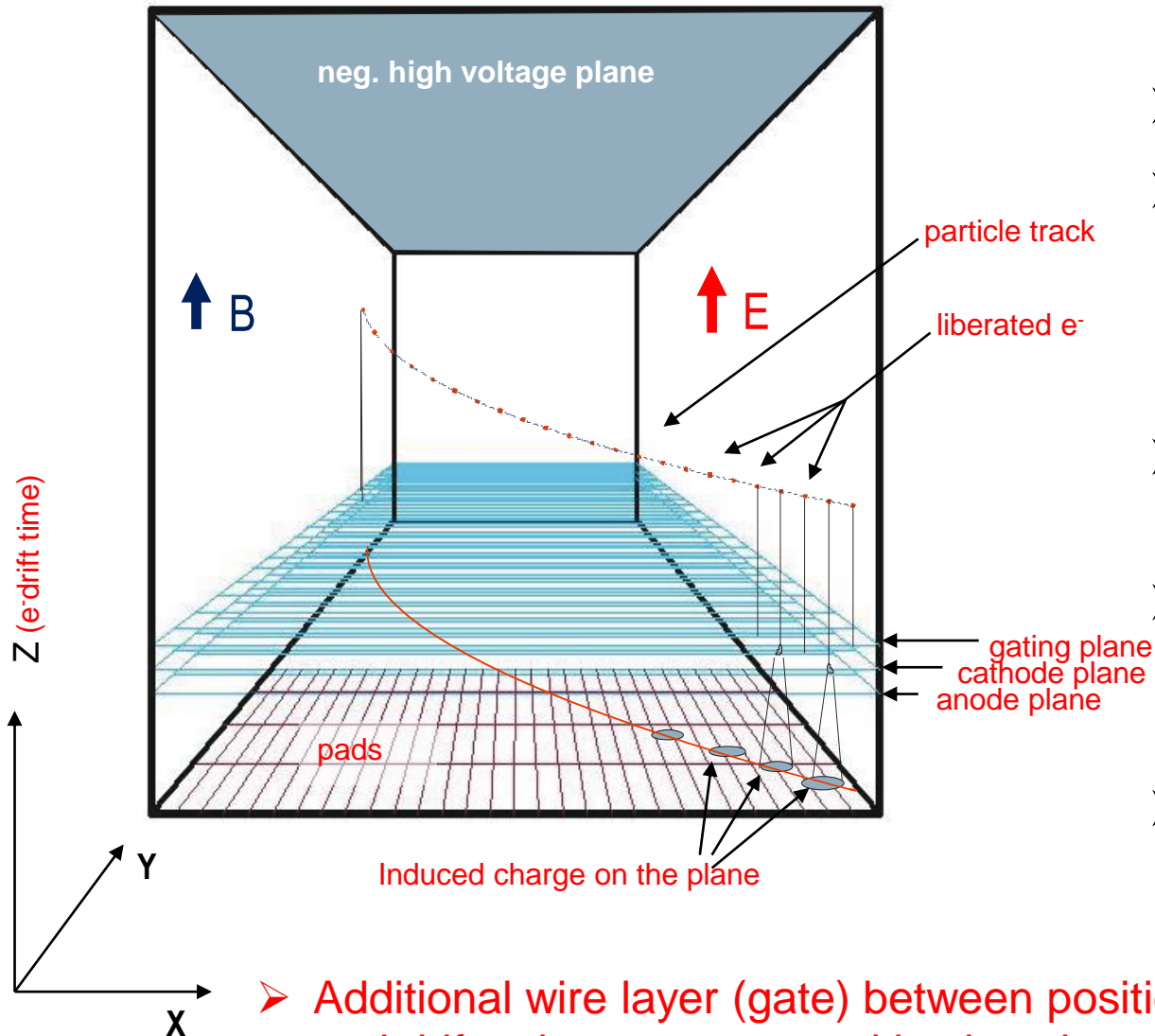


End plate detector (e.g. with segmented MWPC):



- Big gas filled volume
- Usually a central cathode at very high (negative) voltage in the middle
- On both sides position detectors for 2 dimensions (end plates)
- Electric field created by anode plane and central cathode plane parallel to the magnetic field of the experiment.

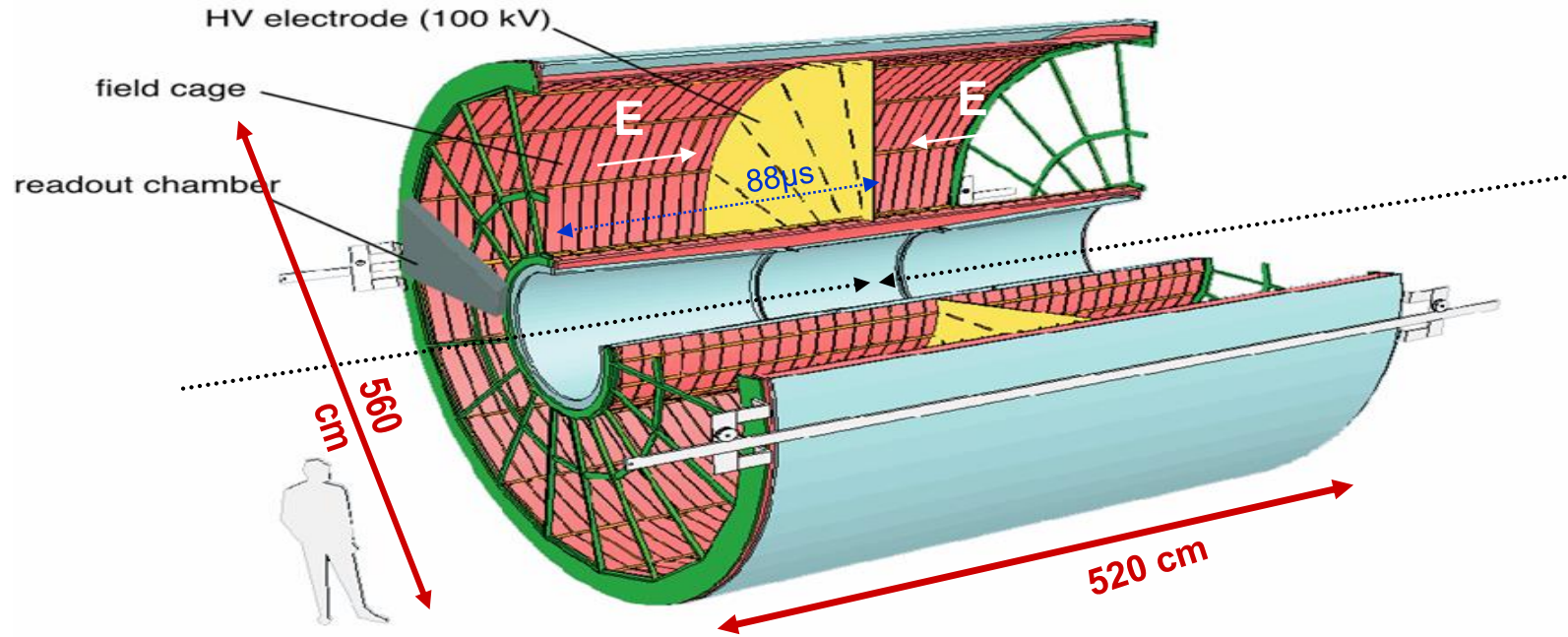
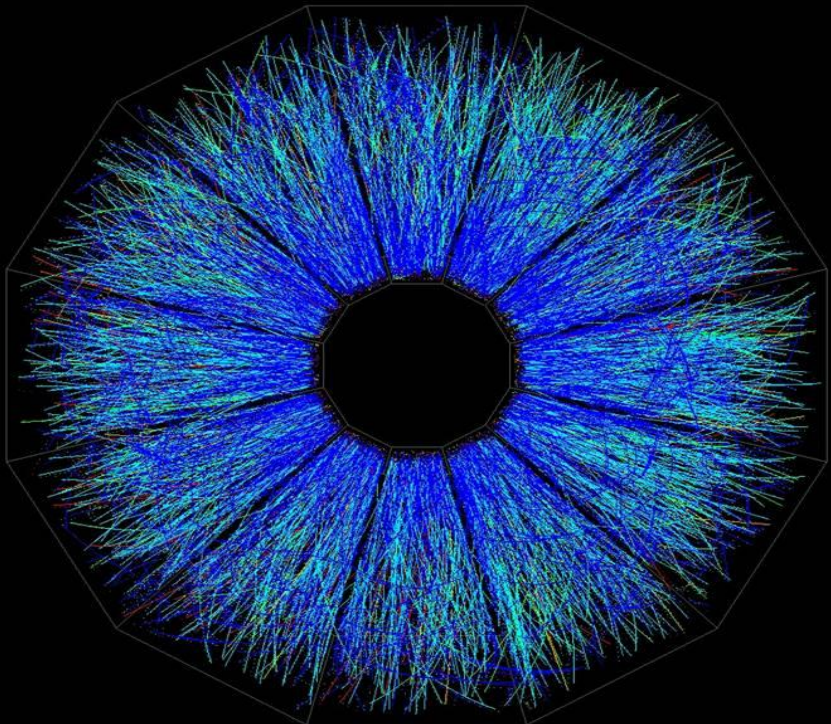
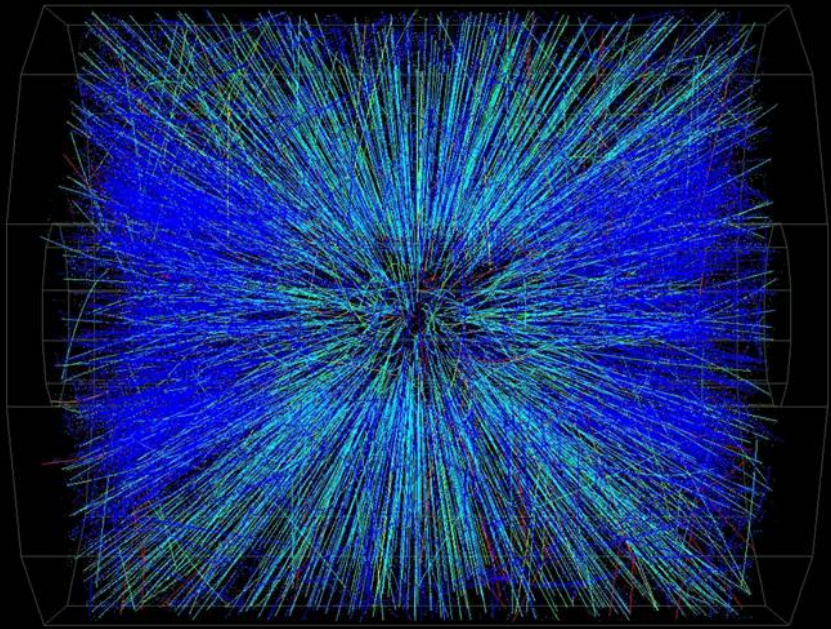
# TIME PROJECTION CHAMBERS



- TPC covers a large volume and delivers three dimensional images of the particle track.
- Very little material involved (no wires in central volume)
- Typical gas mixture argon methane (90%-10%)
- Up to a few hundreds of measurement points per particle track measured in large TPCs → excellent determination of the particle tracks (measurements also used for multiple dE/dx measurements).
- Position resolution of typically  $\sigma_{r,\phi} = 150\text{--}250 \mu\text{m}$  and  $\sigma_z \approx 1 \text{ mm}$
- Due to long drift times (e.g.  $90 \mu\text{s}$  for 2,5 m drift length ALICE TPC), TPCs are not suitable for high particle rates.
- Ions from end plate detector drift back into gas volume → long drift times and distortion of field due to space charge

➤ Additional wire layer (gate) between position detector and drift volume to stop positive ions is essential

# TIME PROJECTION CHAMBERS



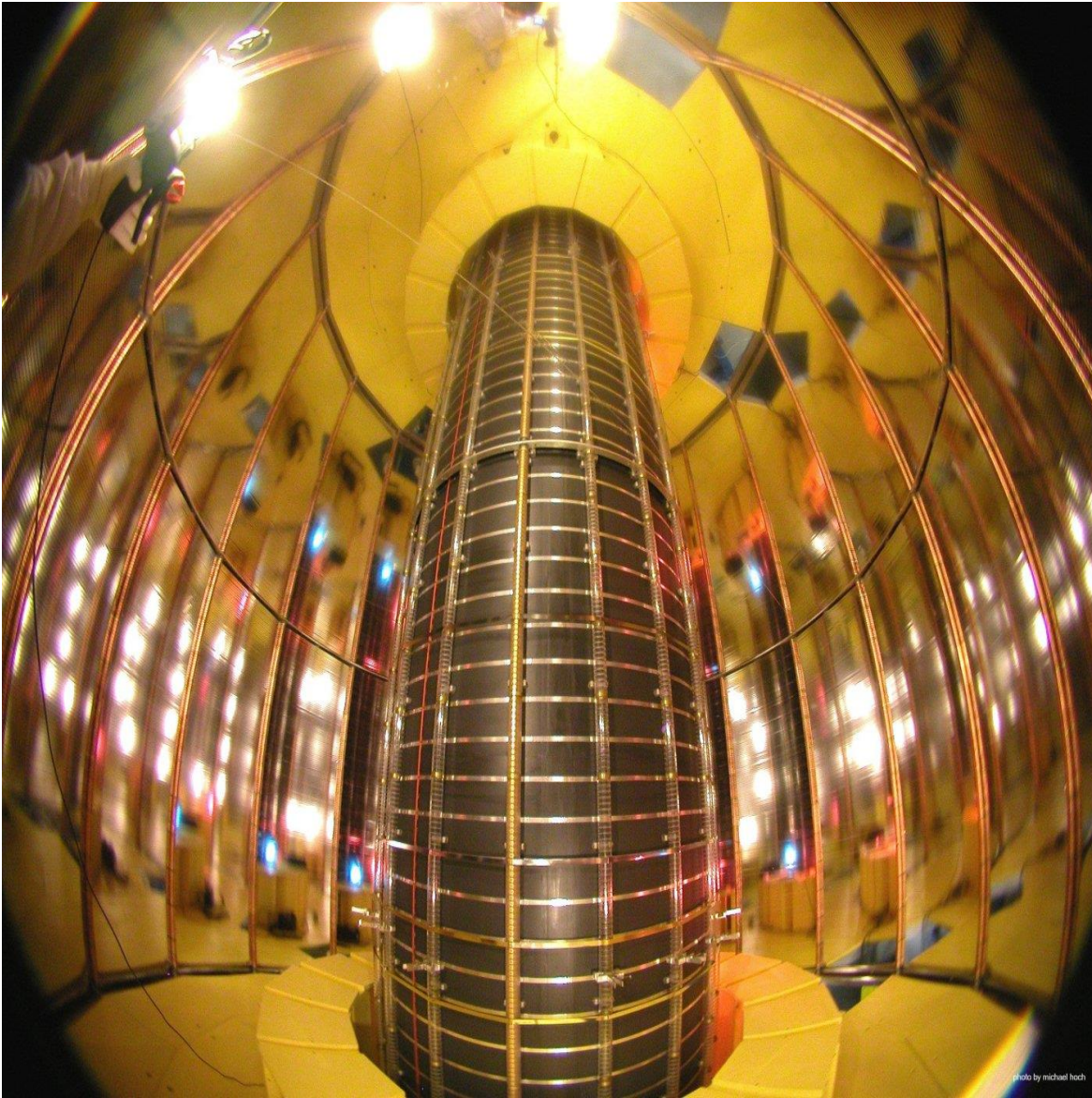
## Alice TPC

HV central electrode at  $-100$  kV  
Drift length  $250$  cm at  $E = 400$  V/cm  
Gas Ne-CO<sub>2</sub> 90-10  
Space point resolution  $\sim 500$   $\mu$ m  
 $dp/p = 2\%$  @  $1$  GeV/c;  $10\%$  @  $10$  GeV/c

Events from STAR TPC at  
RHIC Au-Au collisions at CM  
energy of  $130$  GeV/n  
Typically  $\sim 2000$  tracks/event

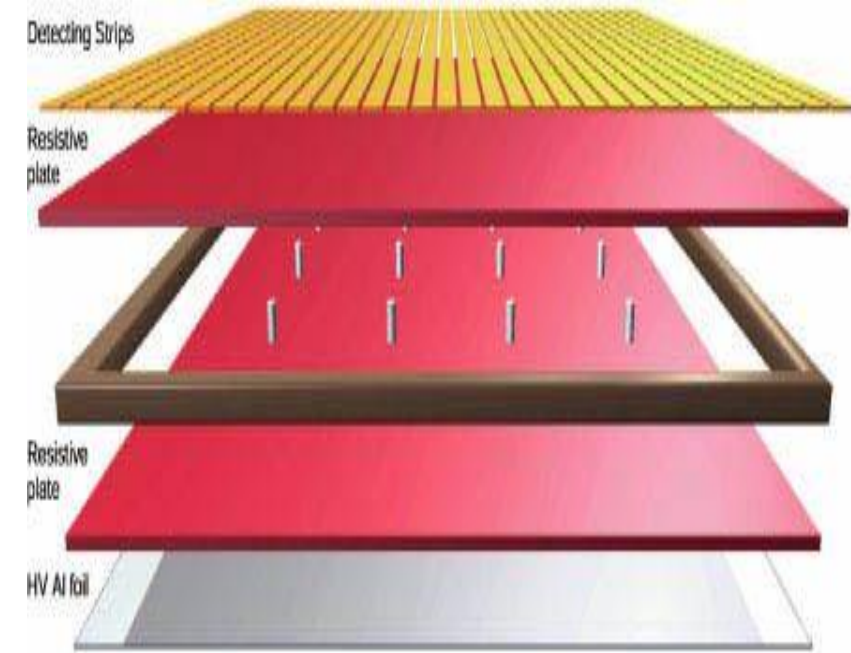
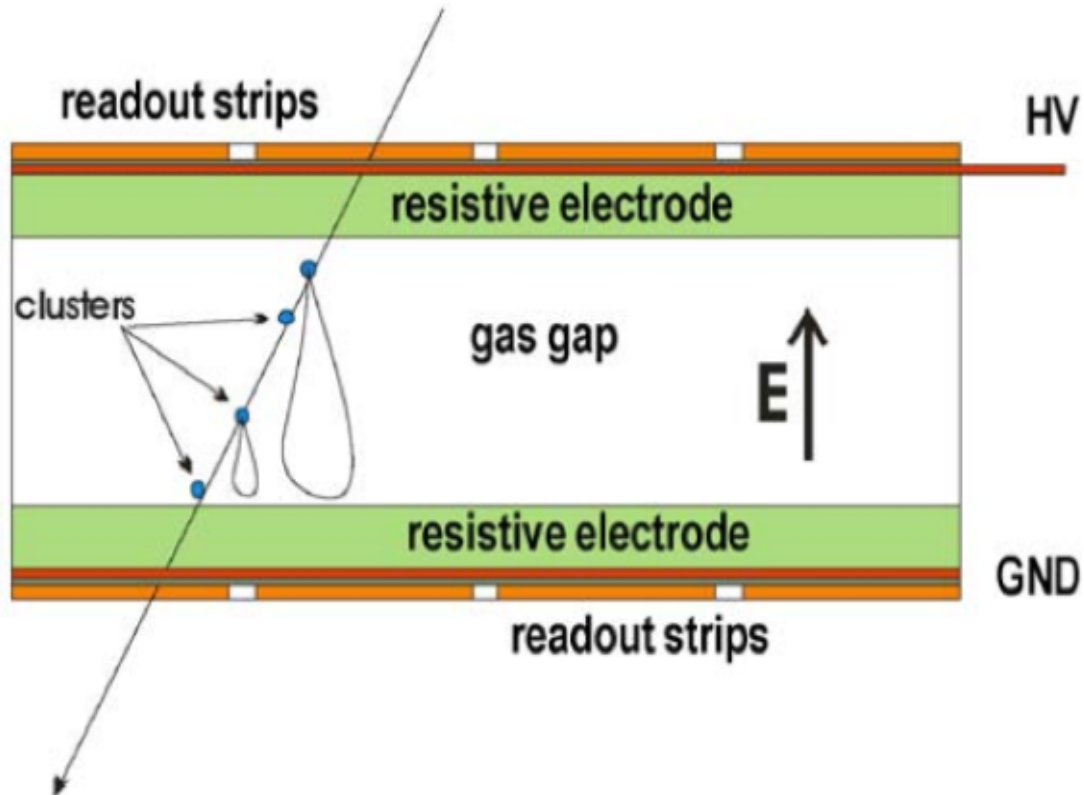


# ALICE TPC



# RESISTIVE PLATE CHAMBERS (RPCs)

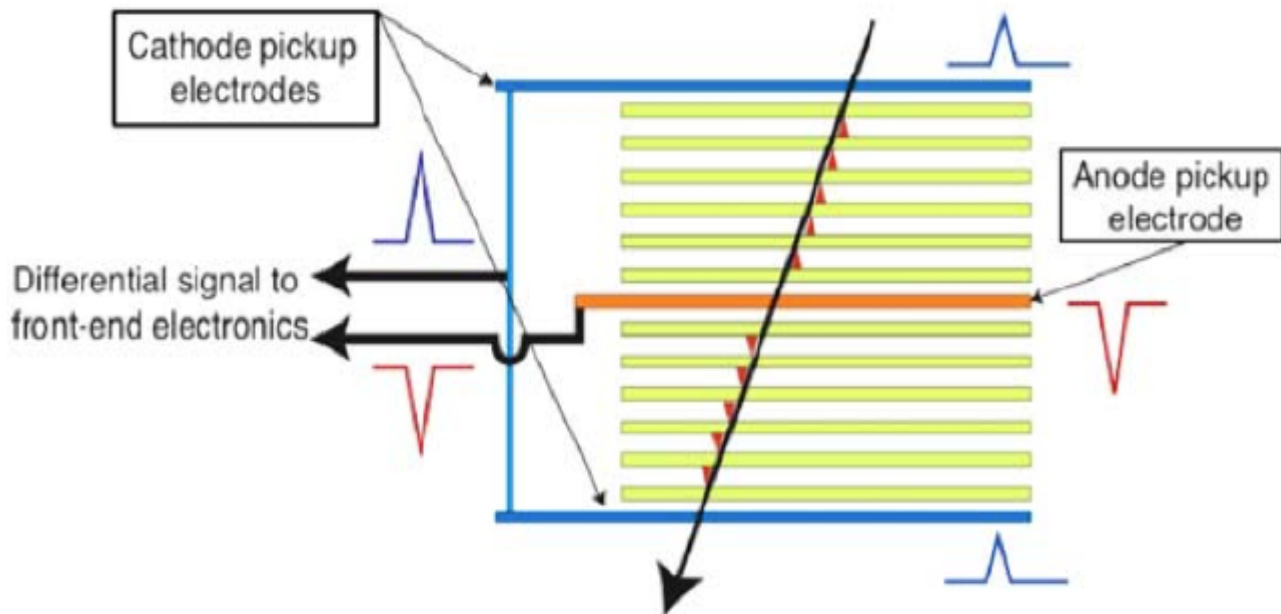
- ★ Gas gap typically 2 mm
- ★ resistive electrodes made of phenolic-melaminic (Bakelite),
- ★ electrodes to apply high voltage and insulated pick up electrodes
- ★ Gas chambers operated in avalanche or streamer mode.



Large area detectors  
Space resolution  $\sim$  mm  
Very fast timing ( $\sim$  1 ns) and  
sufficient high rate  
capability ( $\sim$  100 Hz/cm<sup>2</sup>)  
→ ideal devices for trigger detectors

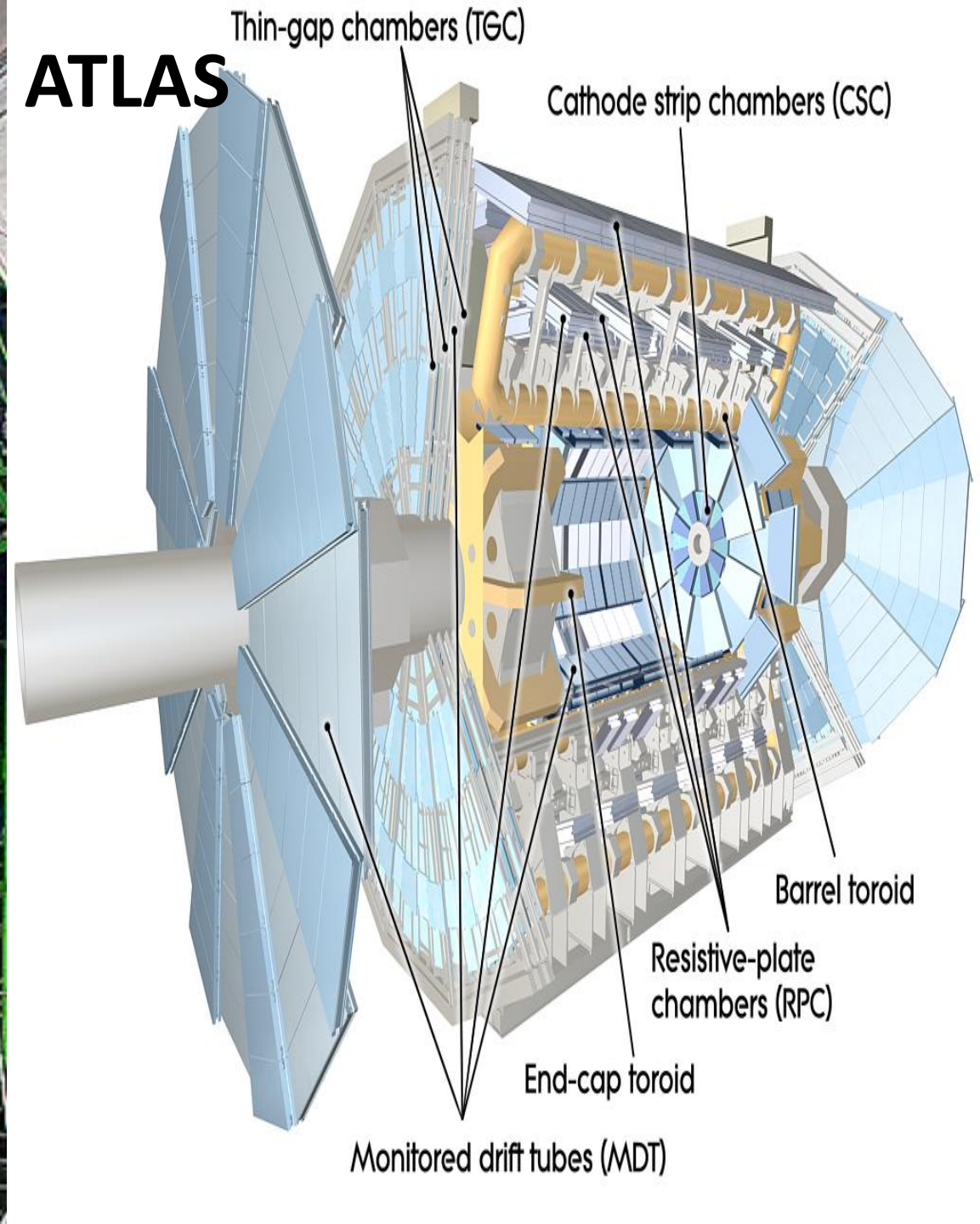
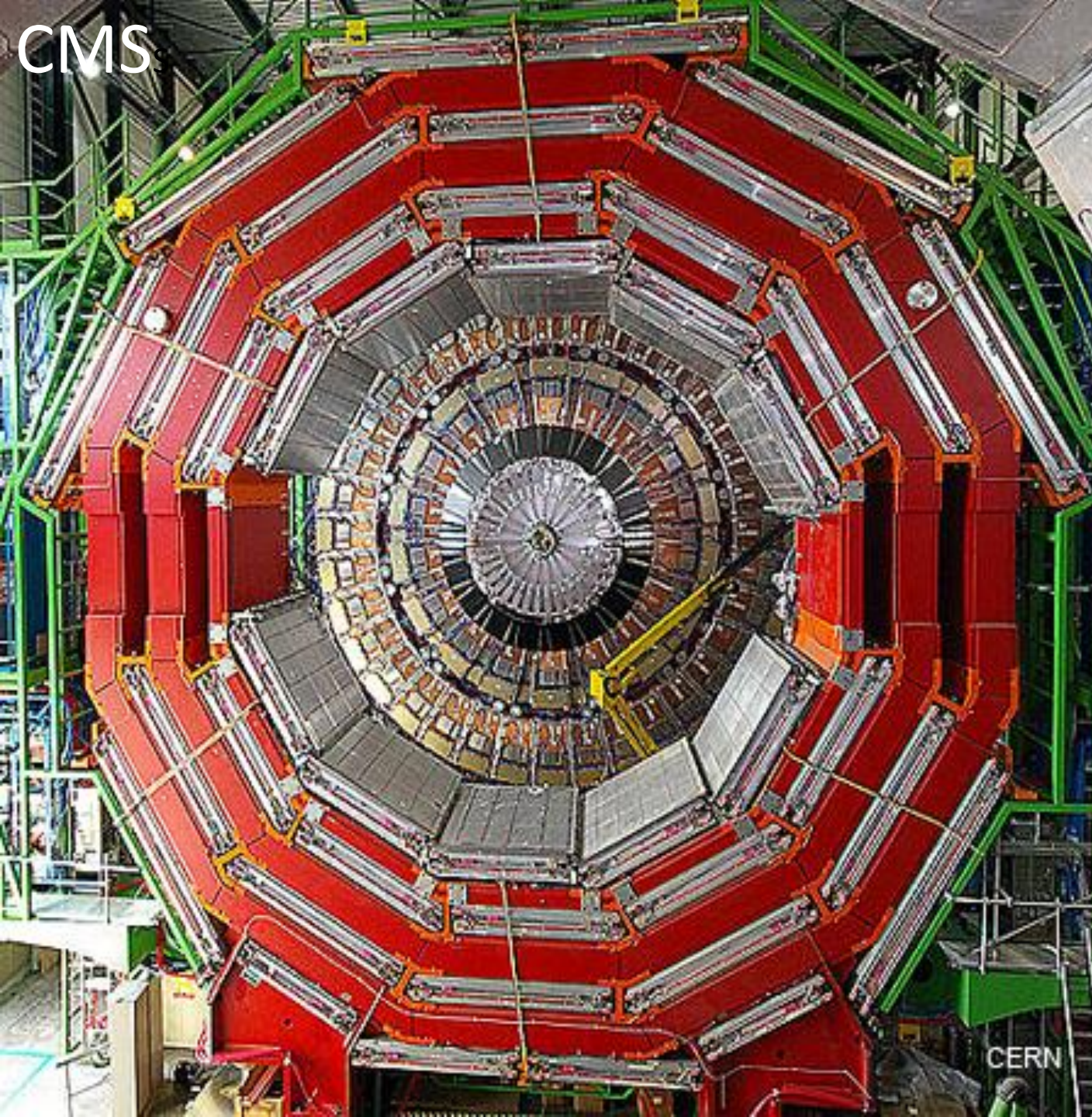
# MULTIGAP RPCs

- ★ Pile of resistive gas plates separated by thin spacers ( $\sim 250 \mu\text{m}$ , e.g. nylon fishing lines)
- ★ High voltage is applied to the outer electrodes, internal plates are floating and get correct potential by electrostatic equilibrium



Very high efficiencies  
Time resolution as low as 50 ps

Used for example in the  
ALICE TOF chambers.



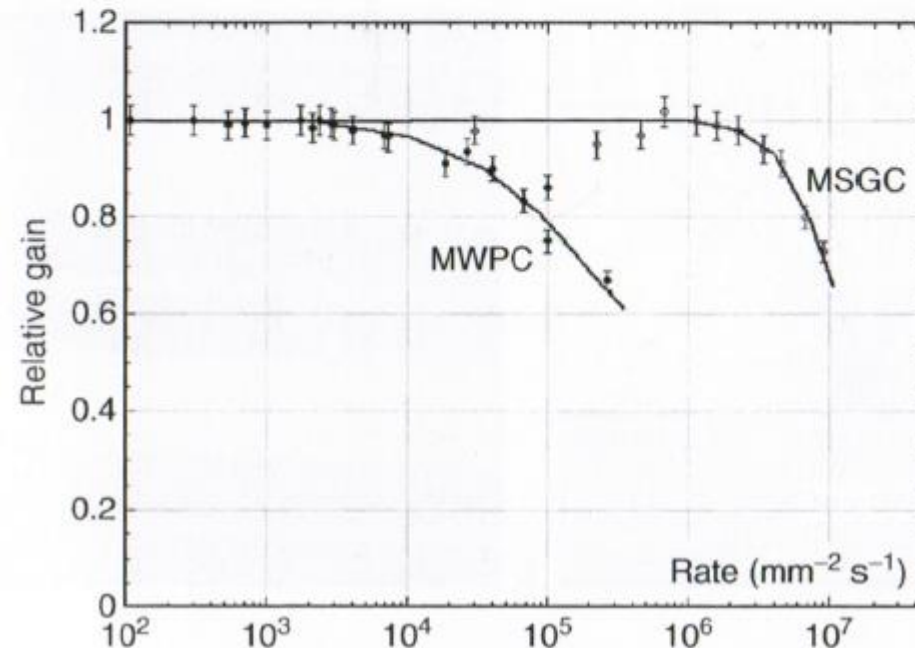
# MICRO PATTERN GAS DETECTORS (MPGDs)

Large group of different detector geometries

- ★ No wires – electrodes are deposited materials or printed structures. Photolithography of these processes allow for very fine structures.
- ★ Smaller cell sizes → improved position resolution  $\sim 30 \mu\text{m}$   
→ high rate capability  $\sim \text{MHz}/\text{mm}^2$

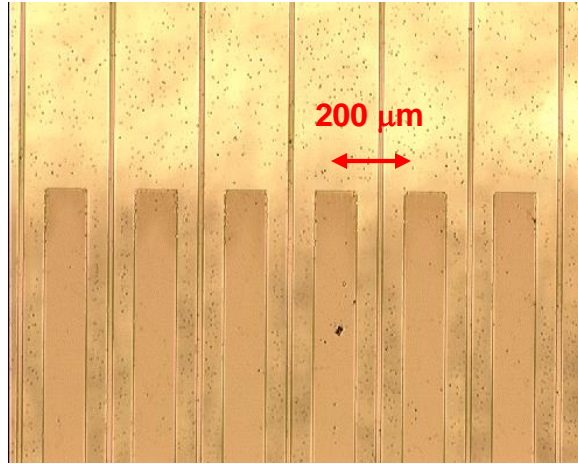
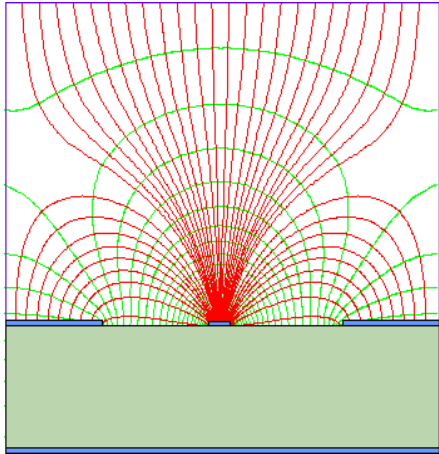
Examples :

- ★ Micro Strip Gas Counter
- ★ GEM
- ★ Micromegas



(MWPC) A. Breskin et al., Nucl. Instr. Meth. A 124 (1975)  
(MSGC) A. Barr et al., Nucl. Phys. B 61B (1998)

# MICRO STRIP GAS COUNTERS (MSGs)

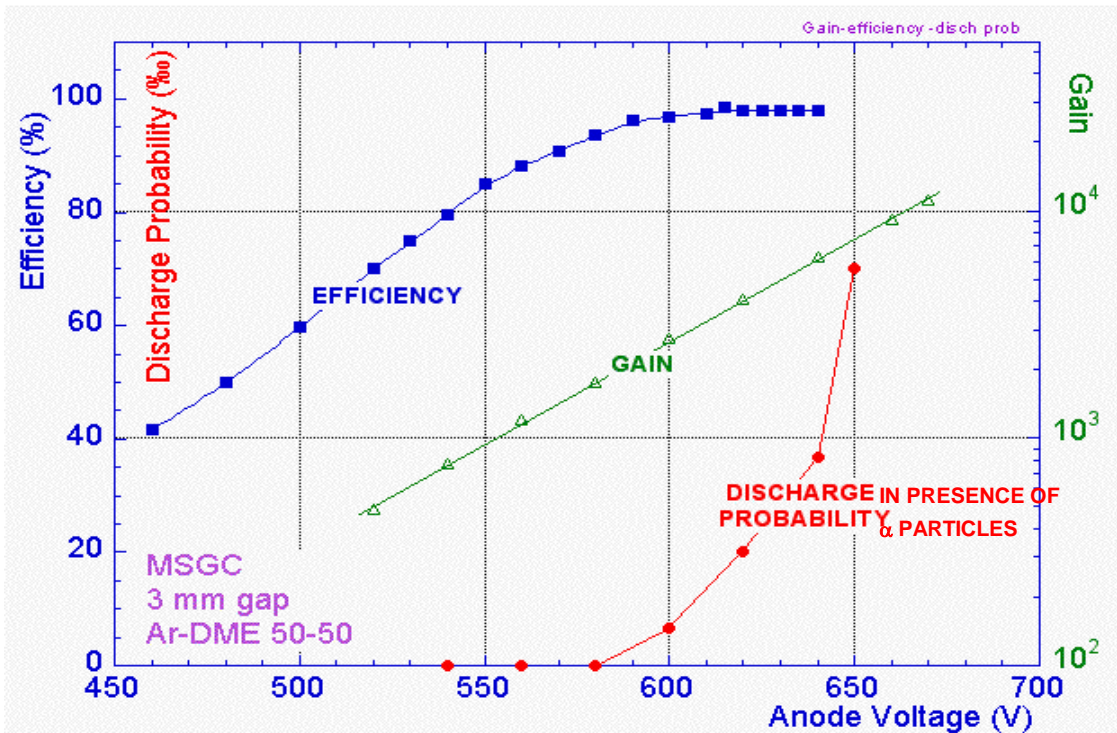


Thin metal anodes and cathodes on insulating support (glass, flexible polyimide ..)

## Problems:

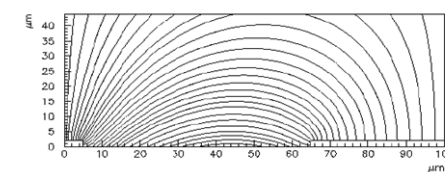
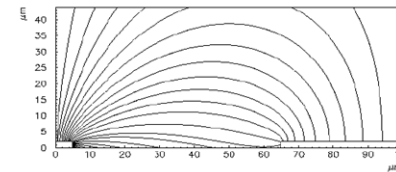
High discharge probability under exposure to highly ionizing particles caused by the regions of very high E field on the border between conductor and insulator.

Charging up of the insulator and modification of the E field → time evolution of the gain.



insulating support

slightly conductive support



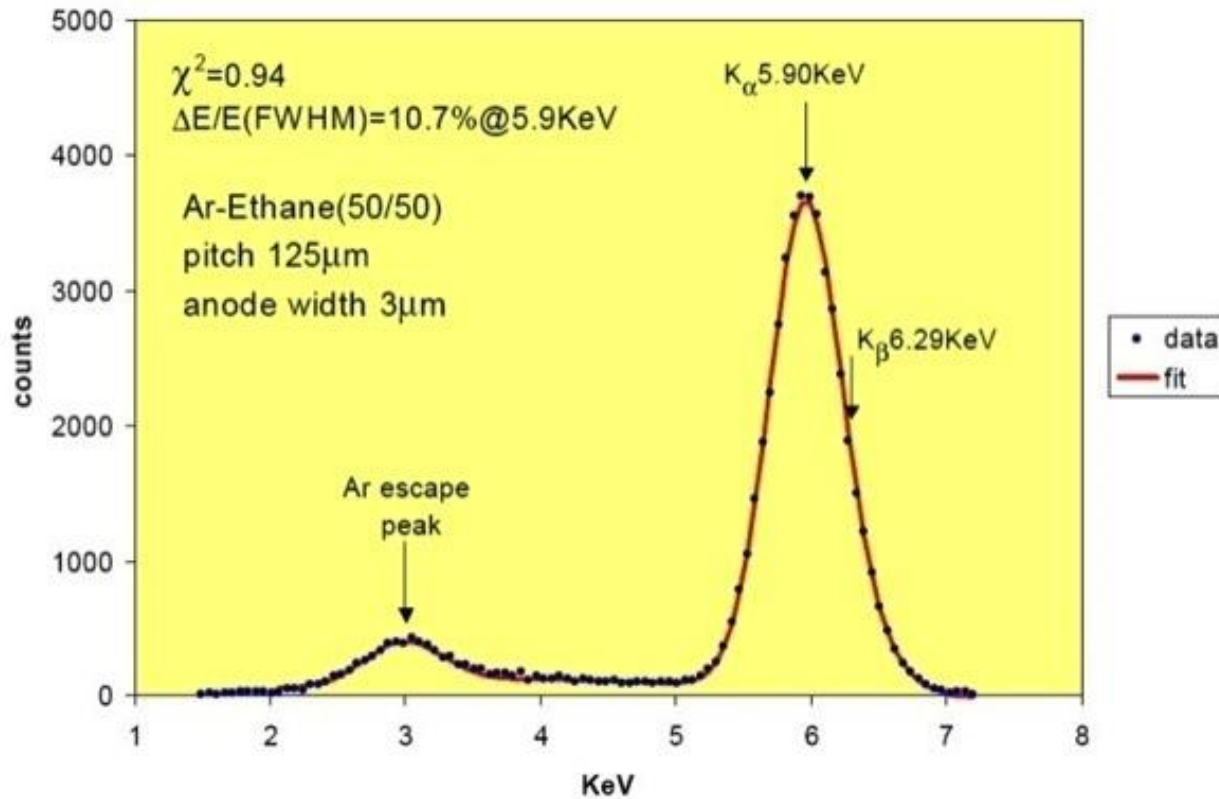
R. Bellazzini et al.

## Solutions:

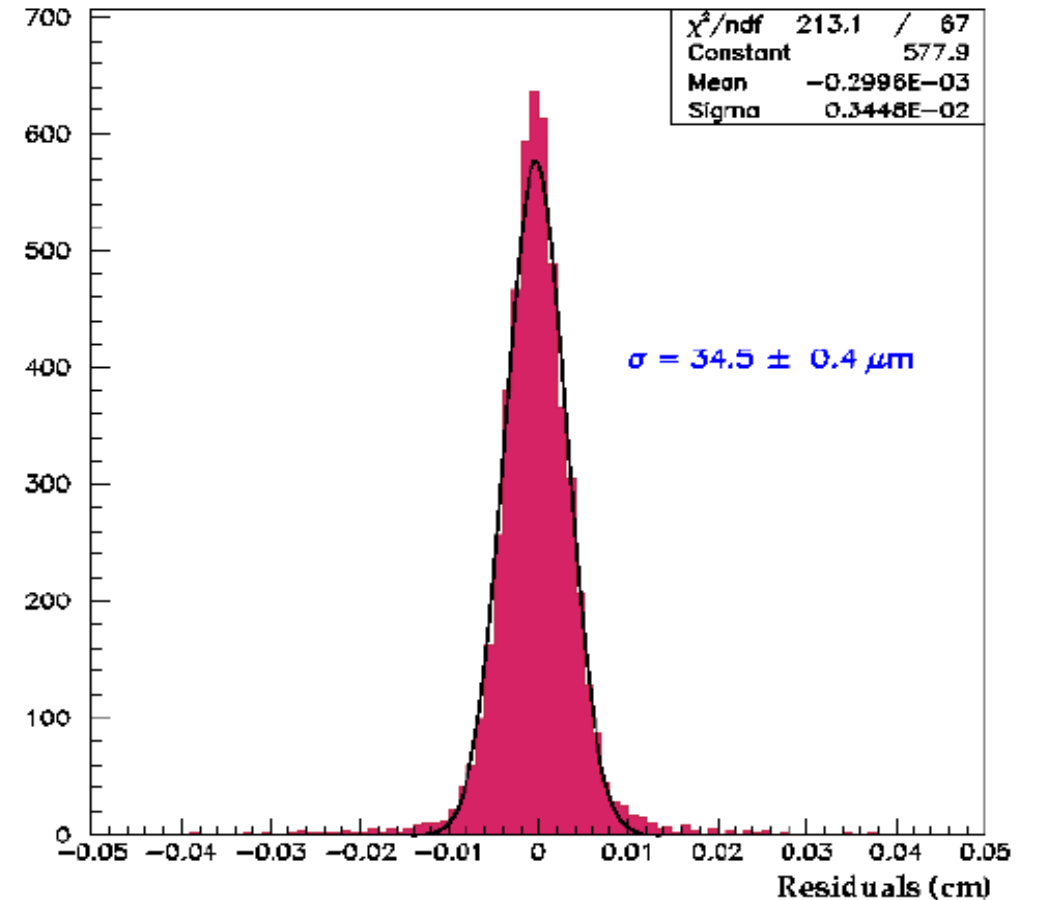
- slightly conductive support
- multistage amplification

# MICRO STRIP GAS COUNTERS (MSGs)

$^{56}\text{Fe}$  spectrum

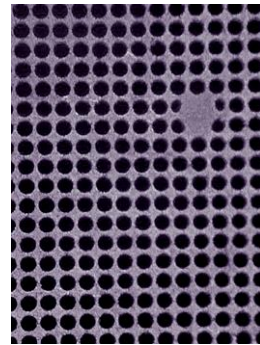
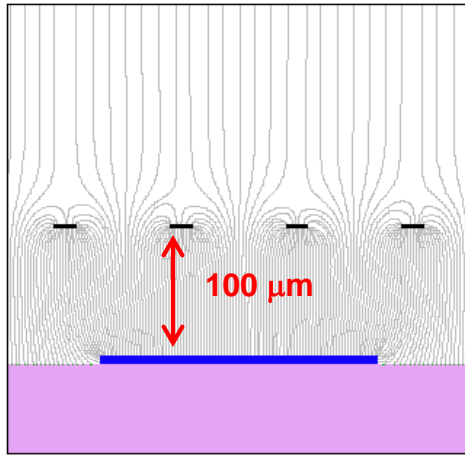


Energy resolution  $\sim 11\%$  for 5.9 keV



Spatial resolution =  $34.5 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{m}$   
2-track resolution  $\sim 400 \mu\text{m}$

# Micromegas – Micromesh Gaseous Structure

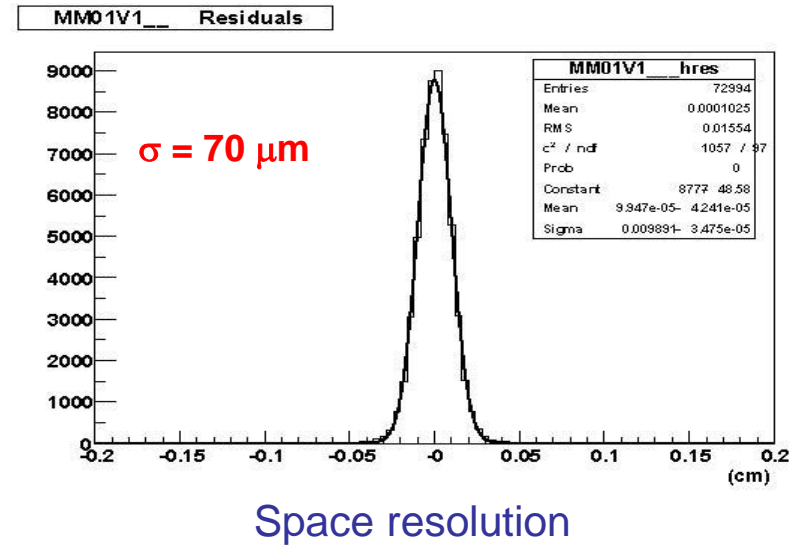
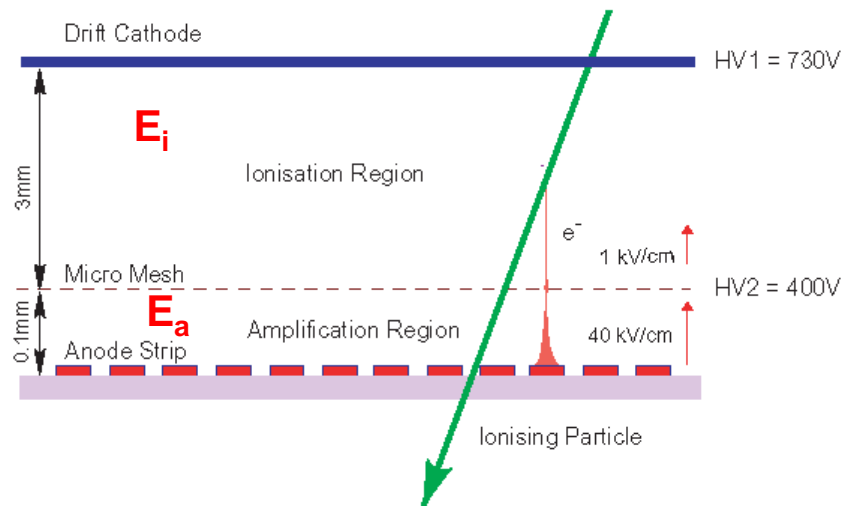


micromesh

Metal micromesh mounted above readout structure (typically strips).

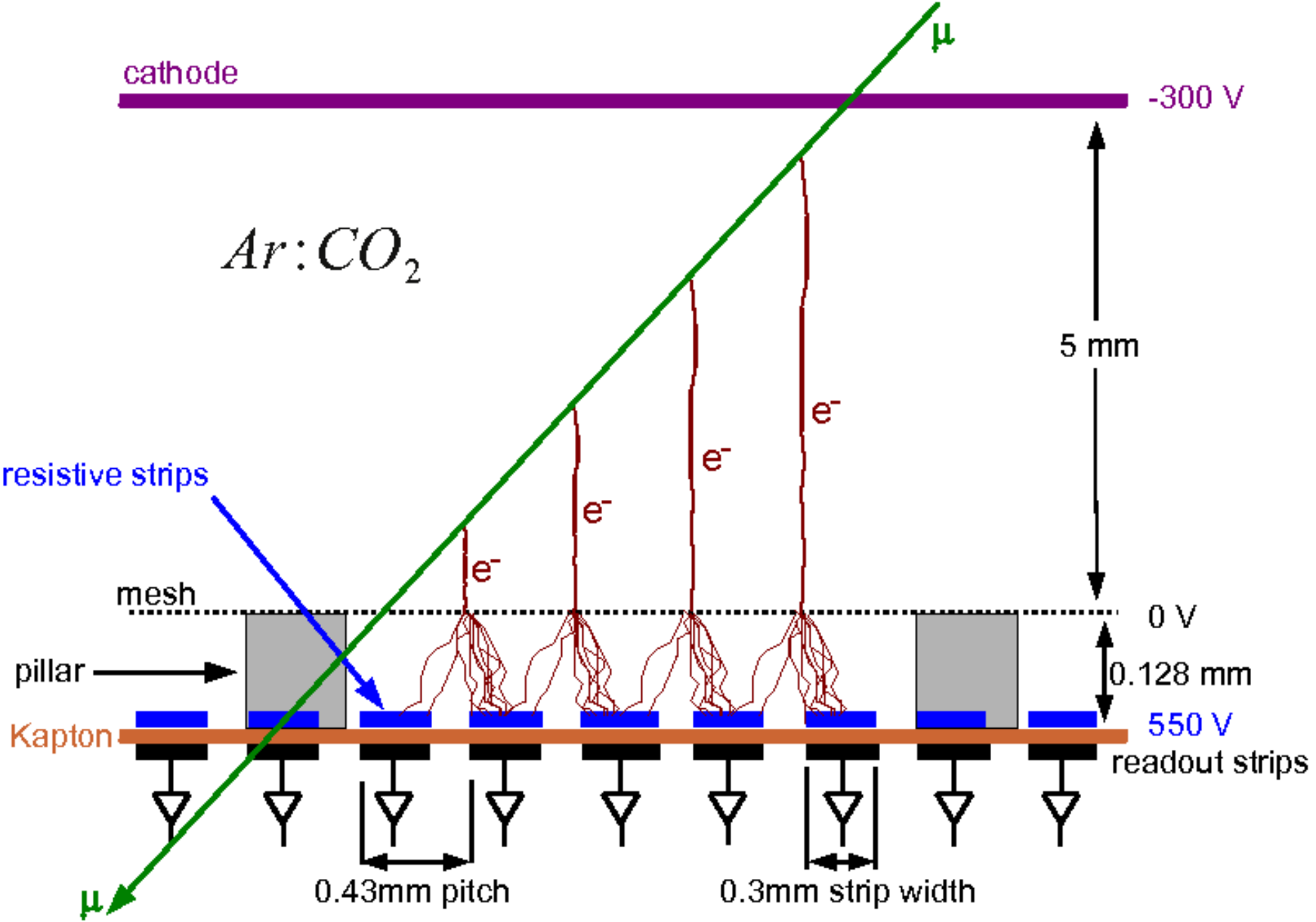
E field similar to parallel plate detector.

$E_a/E_i \sim 50$  to ensure electron transparency and positive ion flowback suppression.

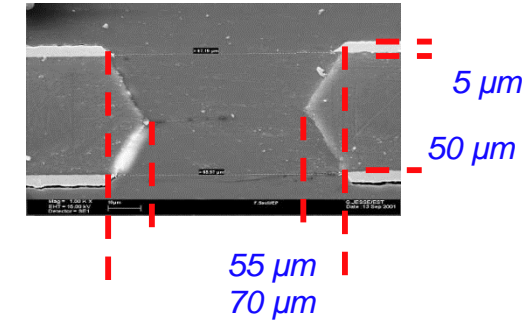
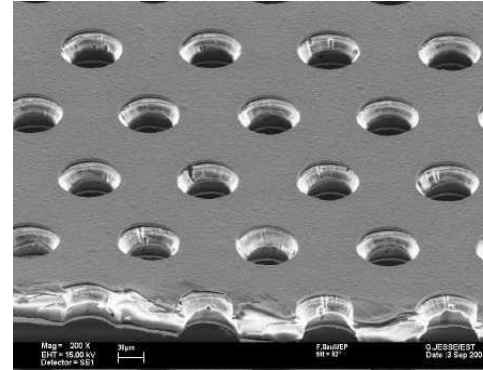
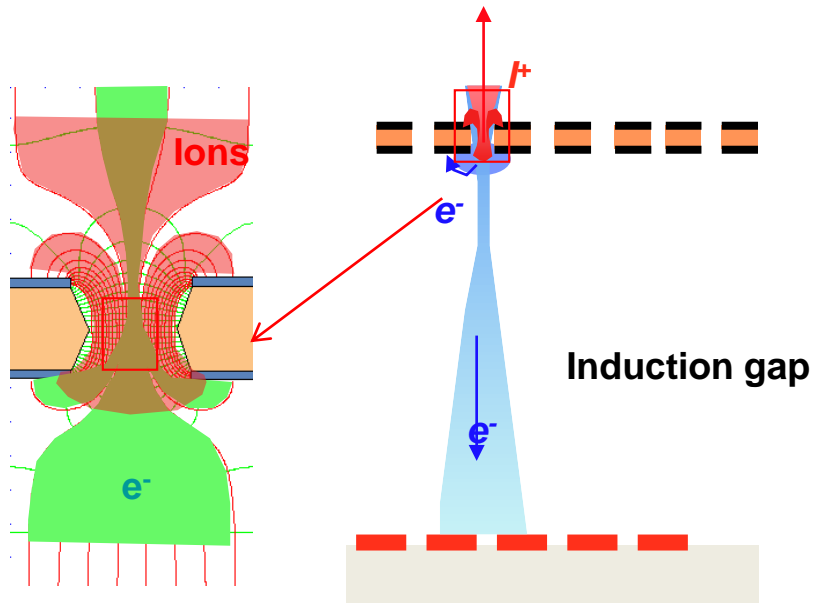




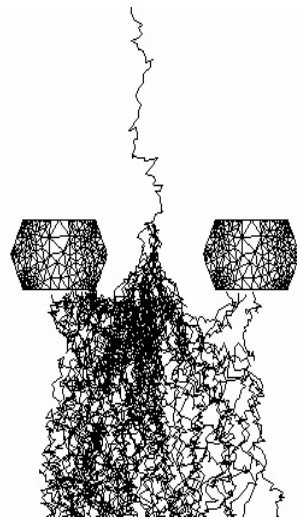
# Micromegas – Micromesh Gaseous Structure



# GEM – Gas Electron Multiplier

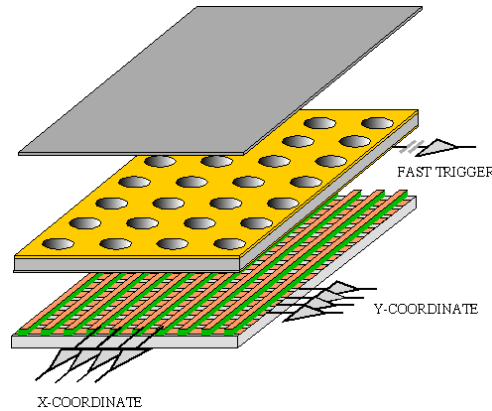


Thin, metal coated polyimide foil perforated with high density holes.



Electrons are collected on patterned readout board.  
A fast signal can be detected on the lower GEM electrode for triggering or energy discrimination.  
All readout electrodes are at ground potential.  
Positive ions partially collected on the GEM electrodes.

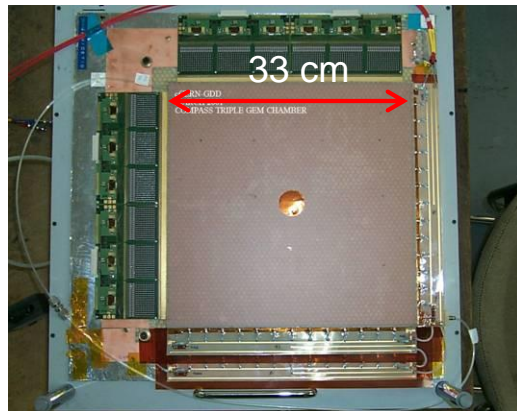
# GEM – Gas Electron Multiplier



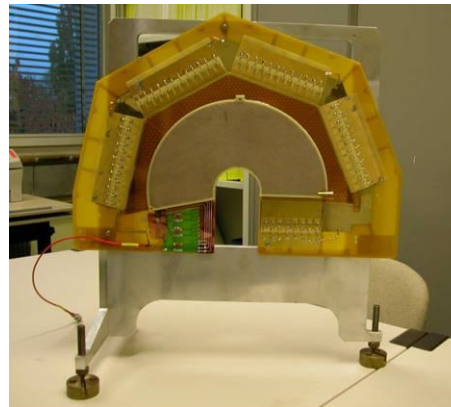
Full decoupling of the charge amplification structure from the charge collection and readout structure.

Both structures can be optimized independently !

A. Bressan et al, Nucl. Instr. and Meth. A425(1999)254

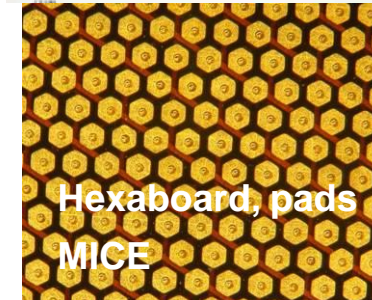
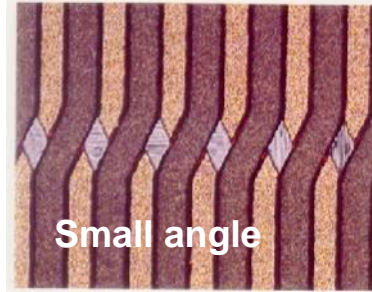


Compass



Totem

Both detectors use three GEM foils in cascade for amplification to reduce discharge probability by reducing field strength.



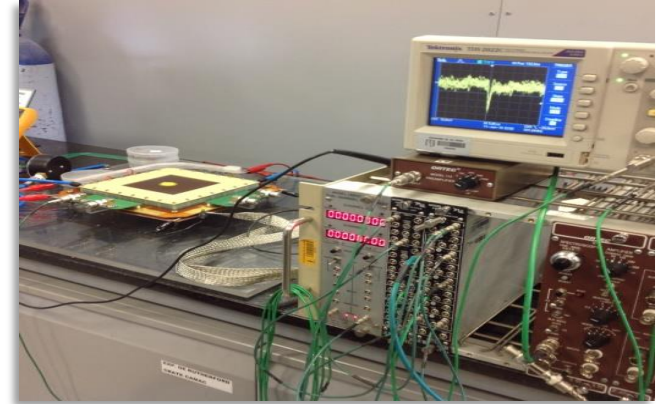
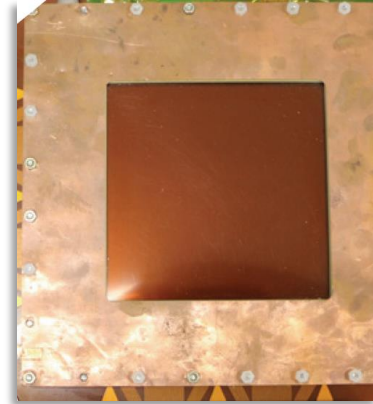
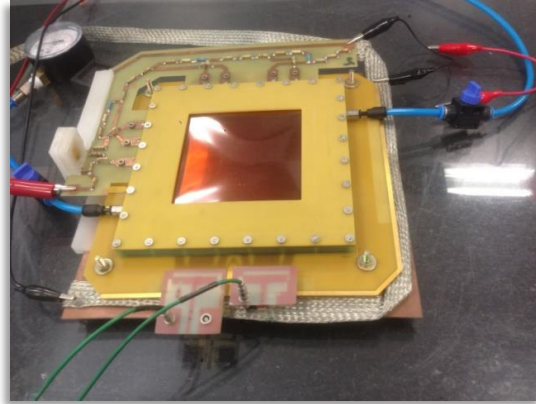
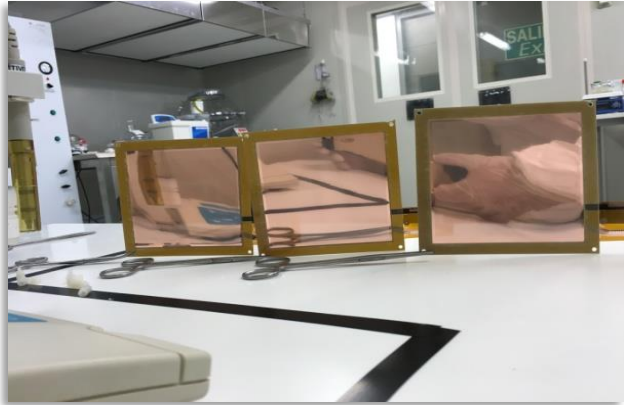
## ACTIVITIES CARRIED OUT WITH 10cmx10 cm GEMS AT OUR UNIVERSITY

- First 2 GEM Kits, Assembled @ Uniandes Clean Room

- We use Ar 75 % CO<sub>2</sub> 25% as main gas mixture. We have access to other mixtures

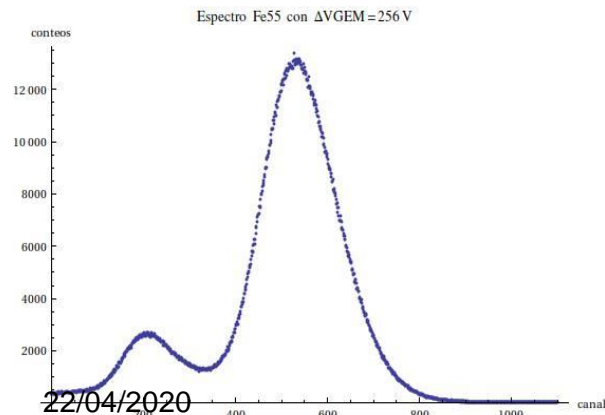
- Grounding improvements

Tested GEMs with <sup>55</sup>Fe source

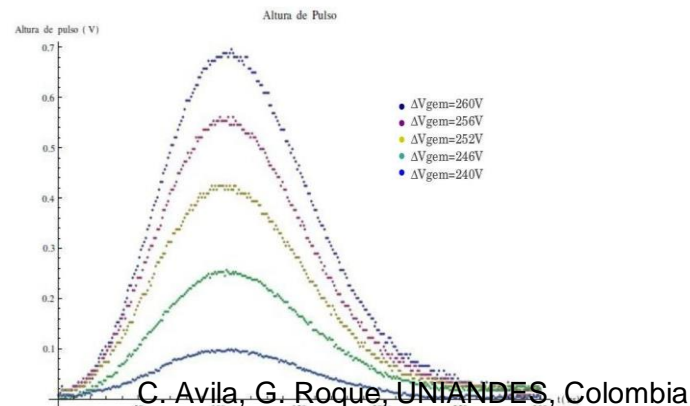


GEM performance tests performed with all channels short circuited.

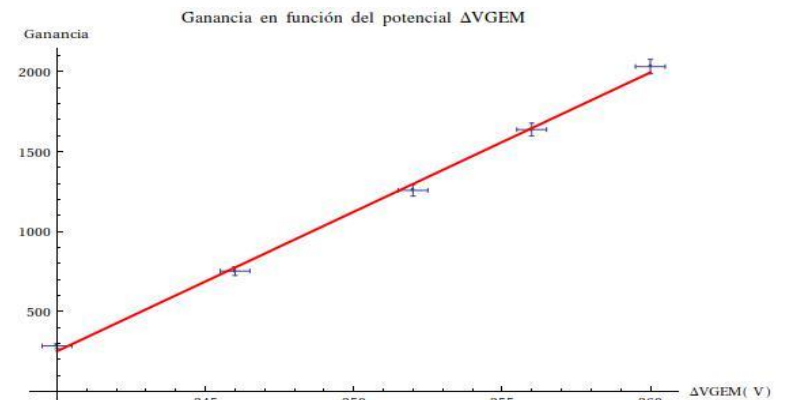
Measured <sup>55</sup>Fe Spectrum



Gain as function of ΔV<sub>GEM</sub>



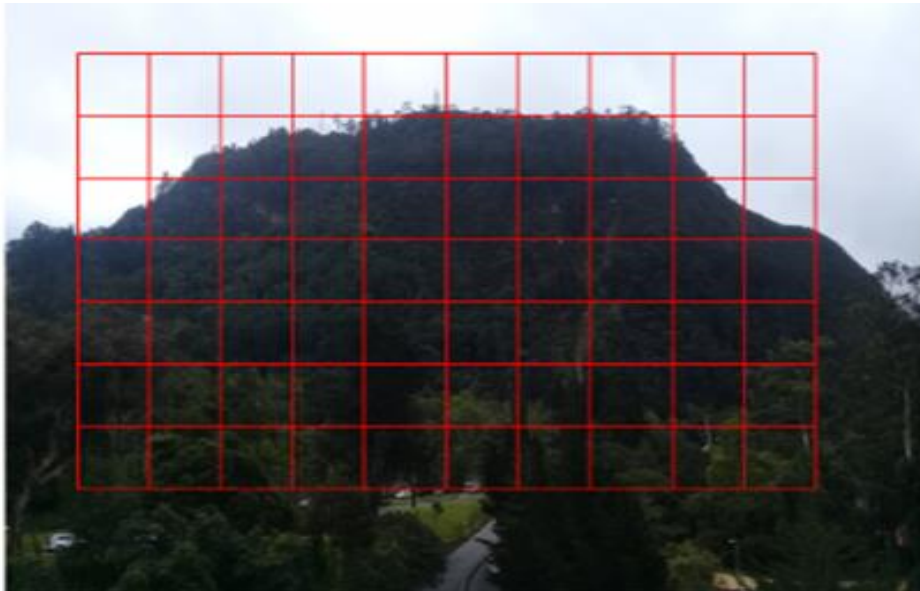
Gain Linearity as function of ΔV<sub>GEM</sub>



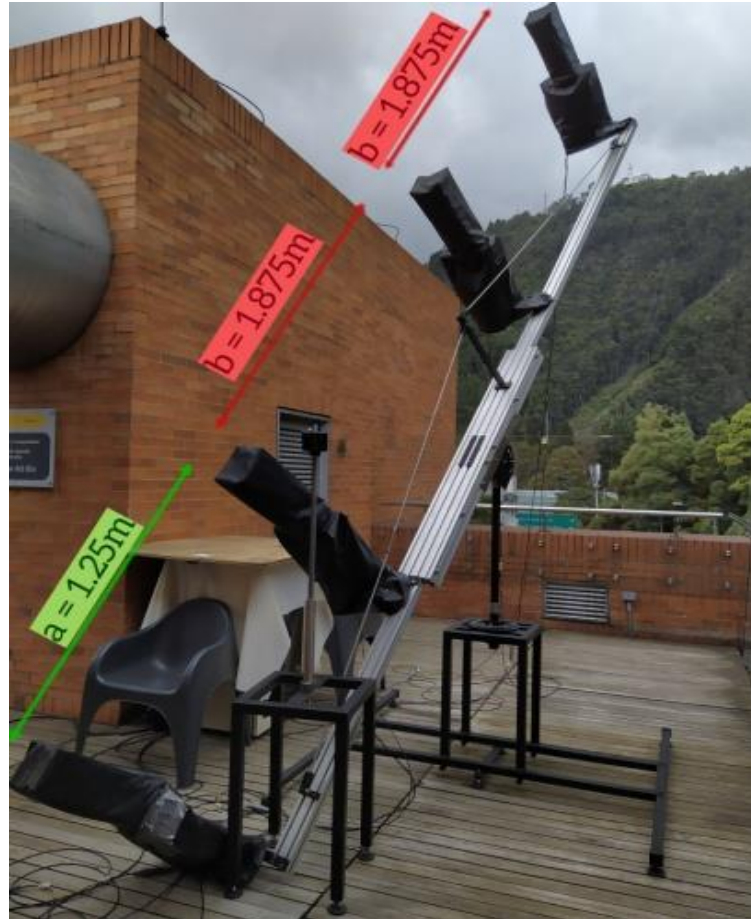
# MUON TELESCOPE TO MEASURE MUON FLUX THROUGH MONSERRATE HILL



Monserrate Hill at 1.1 km for University Campus



Scan muon flux through cells near top of the hill and normalize to open sky flux.



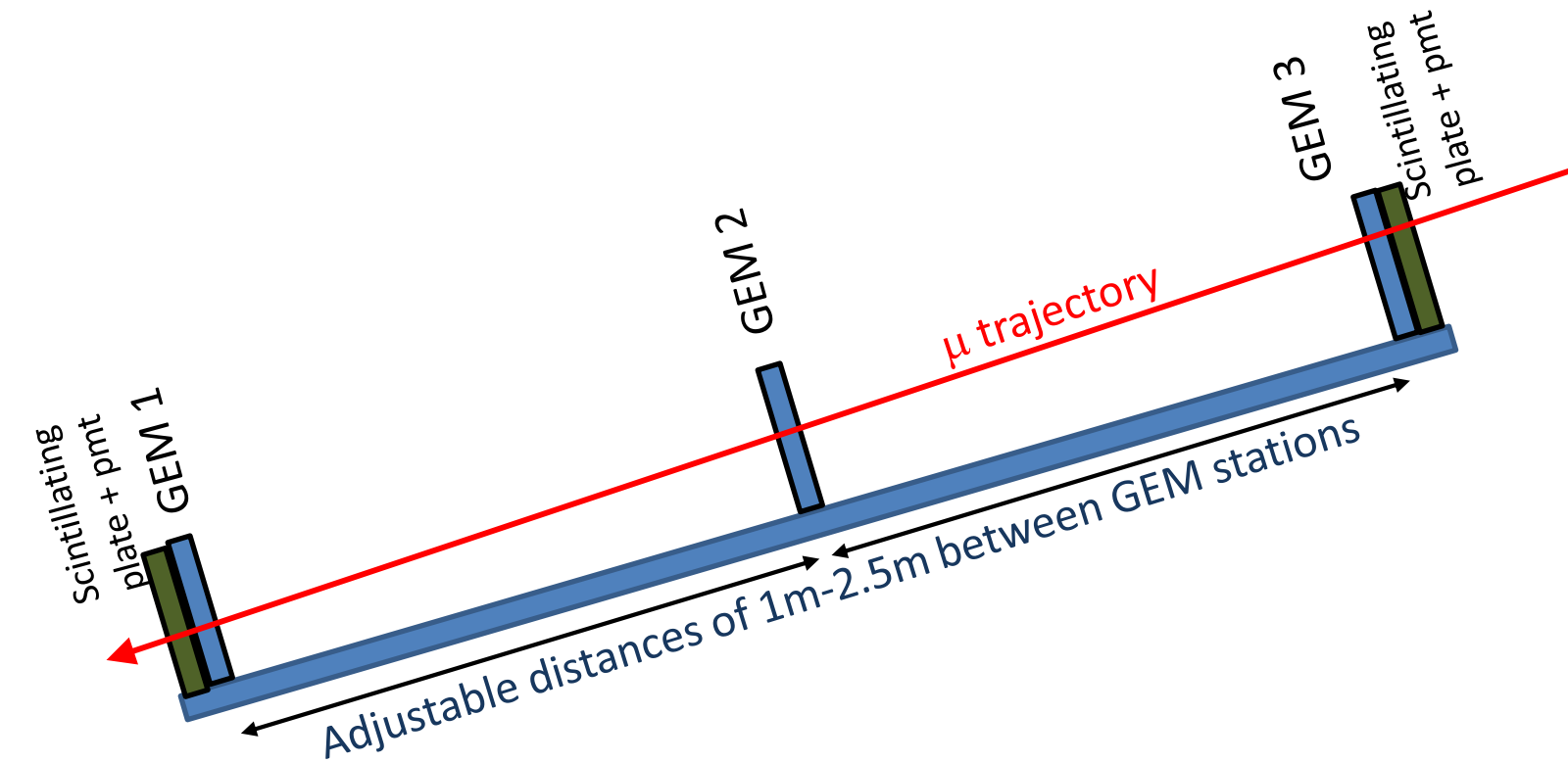
Four 25cmx25 cmX 1cm scintillator blocks readout with standrad pmts  
C. Avila, G. Roque, UNIANDÉS, Colombia

## Aim:

- To understand detector setup details, sources of noise and logistics: effect of temperature gradient between day and night, vibrations due to wind, protection against rain, etc.
- Measure muon flux at open sky at ecuador level 2640 m asl.
- Make estimates of average material density of Monserrate hill near its top.
- Compare measurements to CORSIKA Simulation.

# OUR PLAN WITH GEM DETECTORS

**PHASE 1 (within a year):** Assemble a Muon Telescope with 3 GEM stations



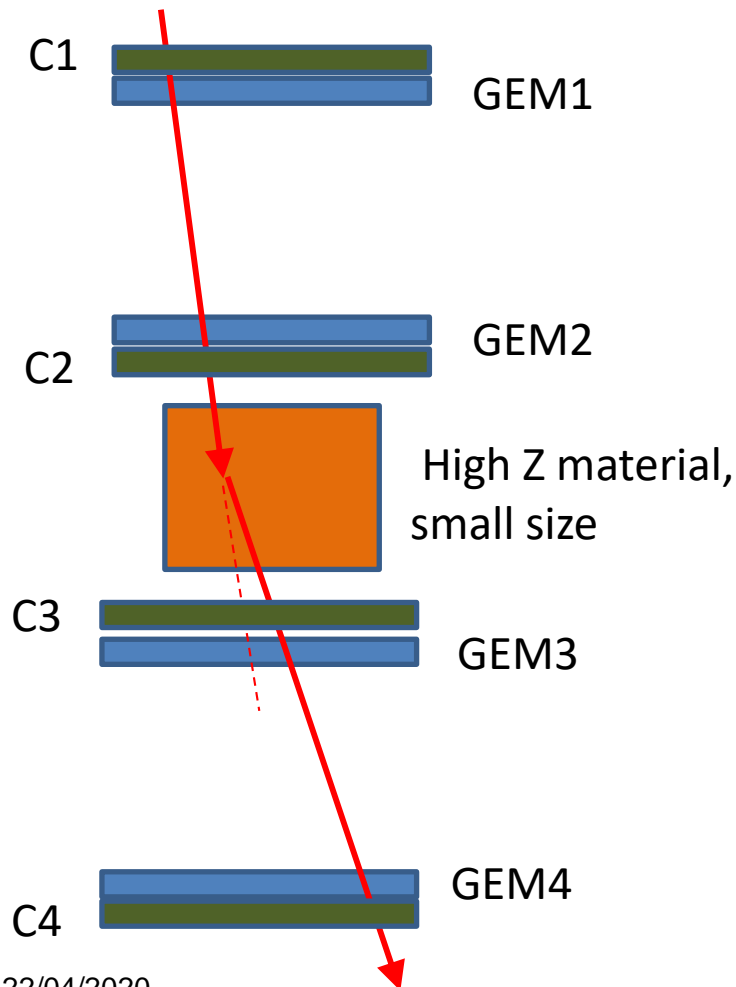
It might need at least 6 months of data taking for scanning the top part of Monserrate Hill.

## DAQ REQUIREMENTS:

- Trigger + timing with scintillation plates
- Readout of the (x,y) coordinates of each of the 3 GEM stations. Each GEM having 256 channels in x and 256 channels in y. Total of 1536 channels.
- DAQ rate < 200 HZ
- Integrate with other external devices: Temperature, humidity, HV, current.. Measurements.
- DAQ software for monitoring and data storage.
- Provisions for gas feeding and recirculation between all the GEM stations.

# OUR PLAN WITH GEM DETECTORS

**PHASE 1 (within 1-2 years):** Assemble a Muon Telescope with 4 GEM stations for muon scattering

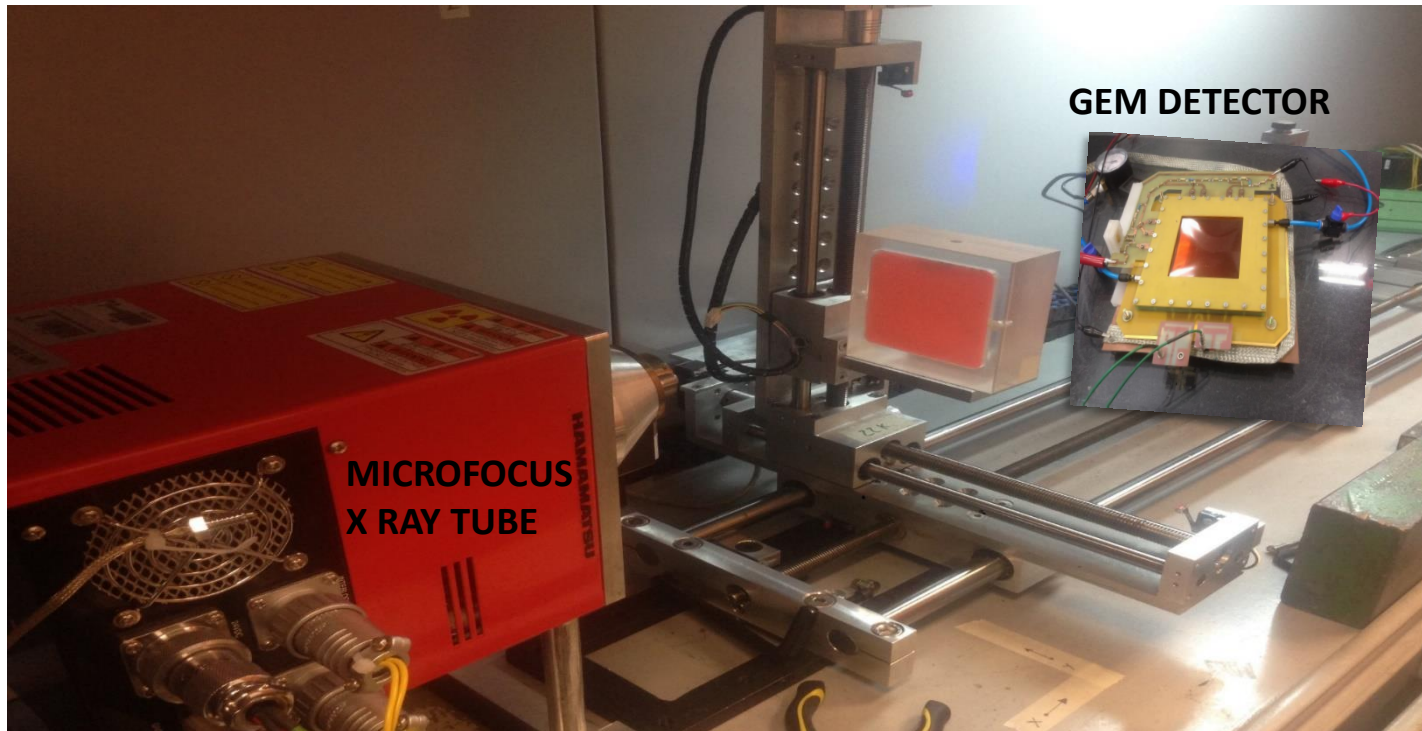


## DAQ REQUIREMENTS:

- Trigger + timing with scintillation counters
- Readout of the (x,y) coordinates of each of the 4 GEM stations. Each GEM having 256 channels in x and 256 channels in y. Total of 2048 channels.
- DAQ rate < 200 HZ
- Integrate with other external devices: HV, current.. Measurements.
- DAQ software for monitoring and data storage.
- Provisions for gas feeding and recirculation between all the GEM stations.

# OUR PLAN WITH GEM DETECTORS

**PHASE 2 (within 1-2 years):** Assemble a GEM detector for X-ray imaging



## DAQ REQUIREMENTS:

- Need only one GEM detector
- **DAQ rate ~ MHZ**
- Integrate with other external devices: HV, current.. Measurements.
- DAQ software for monitoring and data storage and integrate to CT software.



## CONCLUDING REMARKS

- Gaseous radiation detectors play important role in triggering and track reconstruction of muons in LHC experiments
- Large areas and different geometries
- High efficient and high rate capabilities.
- Useful for many interdisciplinary applications

**Thank you for your Attention**