

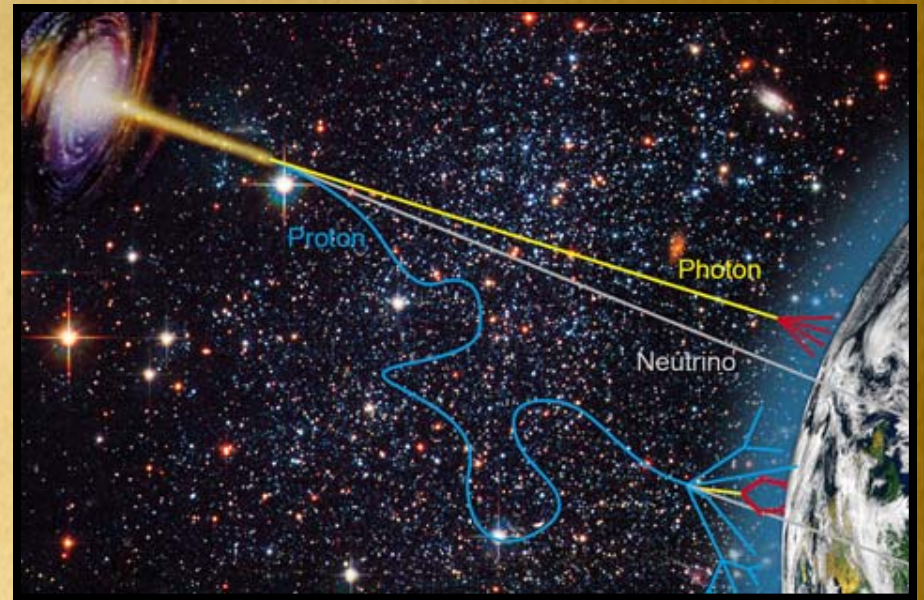
Cosmic Ray Instrumentation & Scientific Ballooning

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University of Chicago**



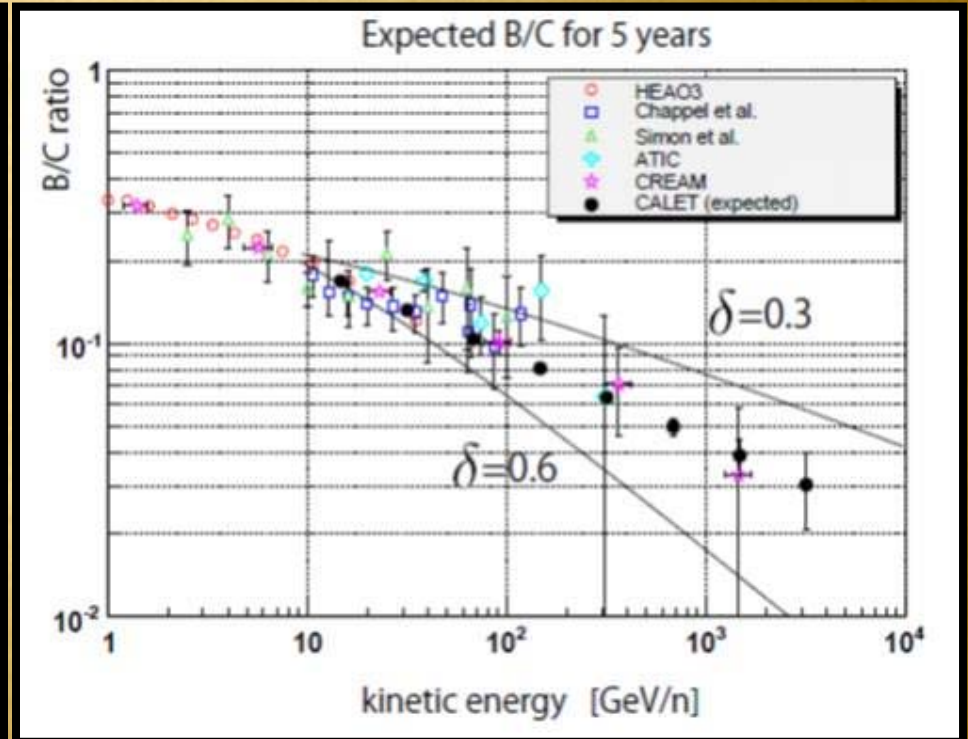
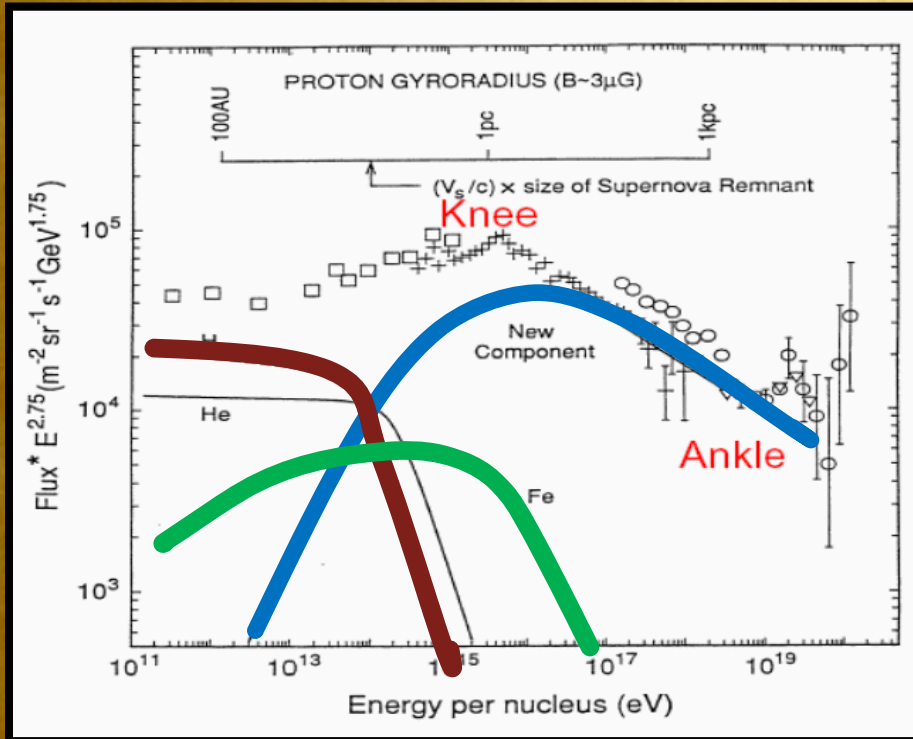
Goals?

- ❖ In the absence of pointing, rely entirely on other measurements:
 - ❖ Overall composition and how it changes with energy
 - ❖ Atomic Mass, A
 - ❖ Or, as a proxy, the atomic charge, Z
 - ❖ Particle Energy, E



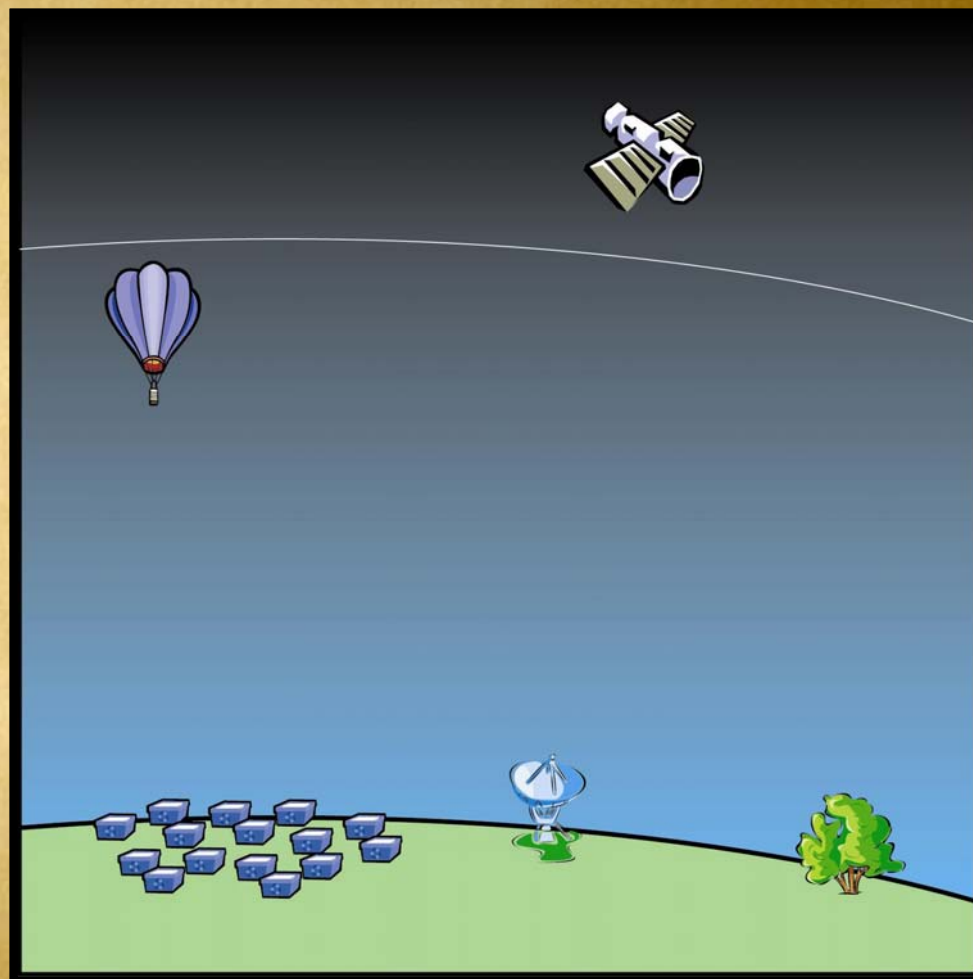
Goals?

- ❖ Variation in primary components
- ❖ Secondary to Primary Ratios



Challenges

- ❖ Above a few GeV – fluxes are quite low: need big detectors.
- ❖ But, can't do it from the ground: need to get above atmosphere.
 - ❖ Some options available at higher energy, but precision is much worse
 - ❖ Except Direct Cherenkov
- ❖ Achieving BOTH is difficult



Why Ballooning?

❖ Quick Turnaround

- ❖ Can hope to do more than 1 per career
- ❖ Often used as satellite pathfinders (e.g., GFEM in 2001)

❖ Cost

- ❖ Standard Space Launch
 - ❖ Shuttle: >\$450M
 - ❖ Space-X Dragon: \$55M
- ❖ Entire NASA BPO Budget for FY13: ~\$35M
 - ❖ 10-15 launches per year (domestic & foreign)

❖ Drawbacks:

- ❖ Short exposures
- ❖ Still have a residual 0.5% of atmosphere overburden

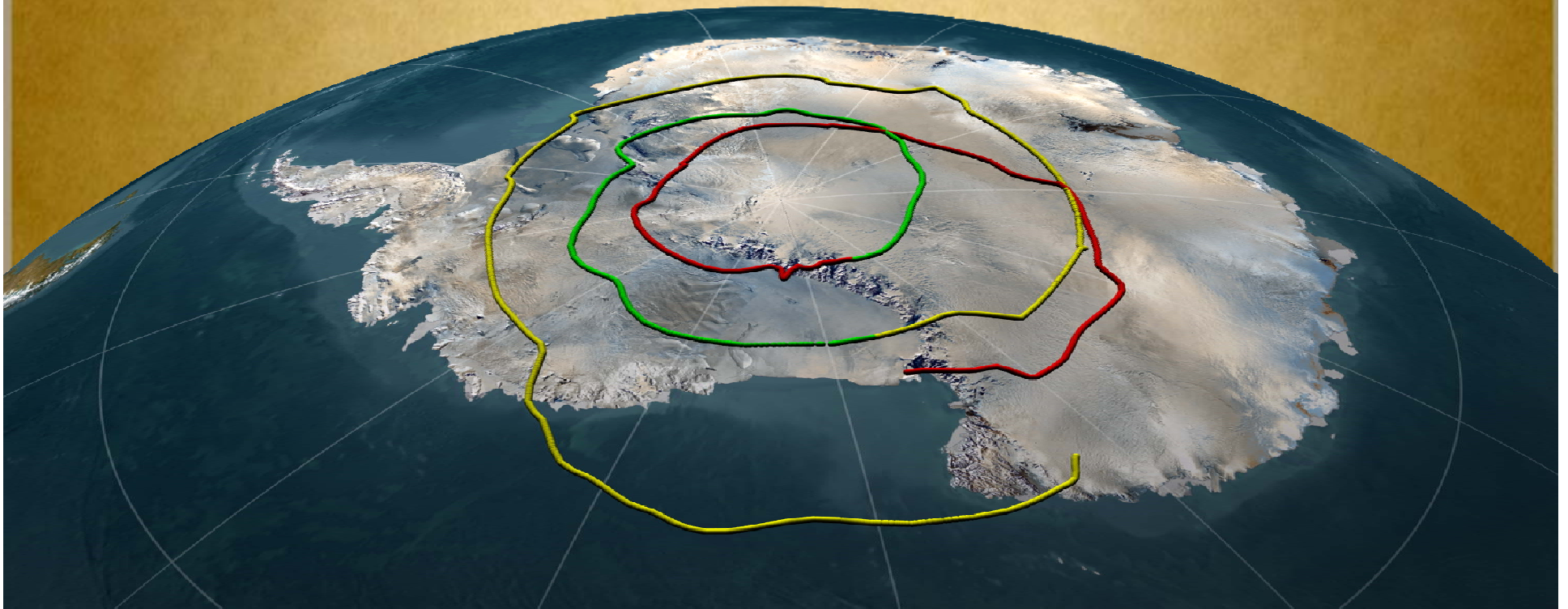
Ballooning

- ❖ **Ultra-long duration balloon program (NASA/CSBF)**
 - ❖ Up to 40 million ft³ | He-filled
 - ❖ Altitudes > 40km
 - ❖ Payloads up to 8000lbs
 - ❖ Yearly domestic and Antarctic campaigns (sometimes others)



Why Antarctica?

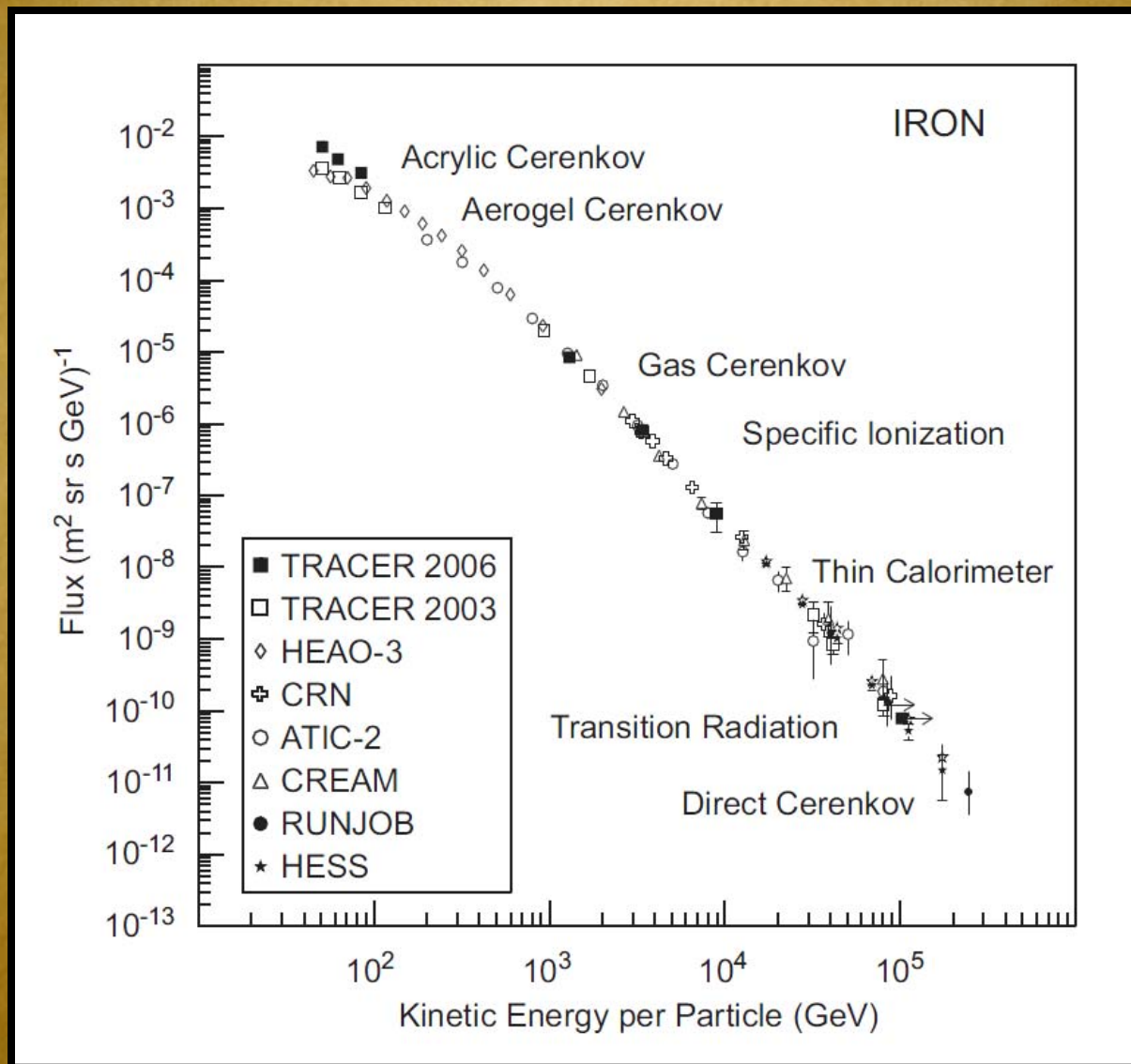
- ❖ Because the Sun never sets during Antarctic summer: power & fluctuations
- ❖ Stratospheric wind pattern is circular around pole.



Measurements

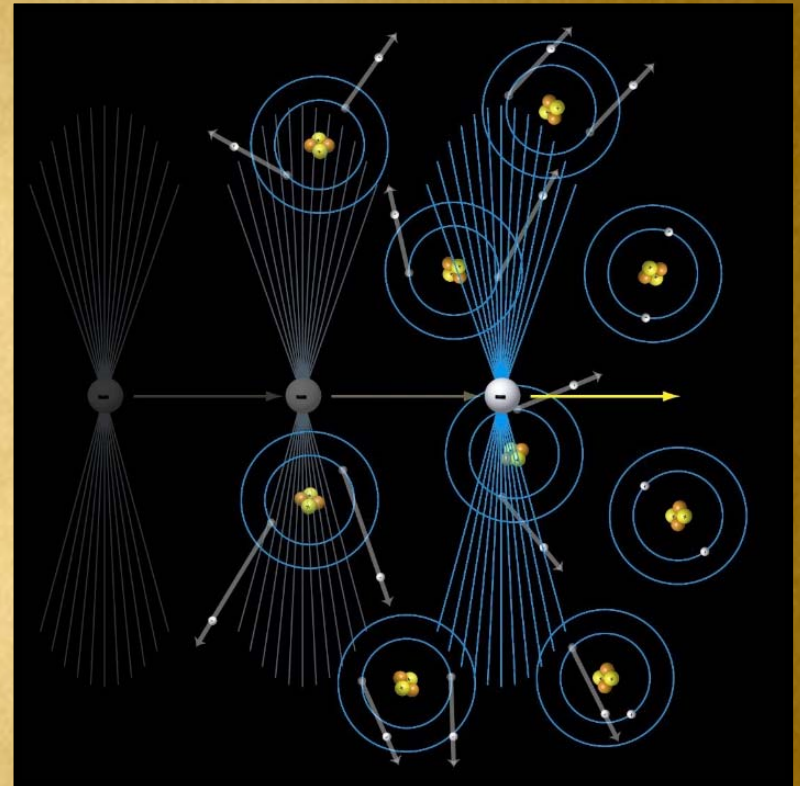
- ❖ To determine particle characteristics, we leverage our knowledge of how particles interact in matter and fields, and how those materials respond.
 - ❖ Example Interaction Processes:
 - ❖ Ionization
 - ❖ Cherenkov Radiation
 - ❖ Transition Radiation
 - ❖ Lorentz Forces
 - ❖ Nuclear Interactions
 - ❖ Often have to use more than one of these to extract single particle properties
 - ❖ Also have to apply different methods for different energy regions

7 Approaches to Iron Nuclei



Particle Charge

- ❖ A common way to determine particle charge is to utilize ionization
- ❖ When a charged particle enters a volume of material, its electric field can strip some electrons from atoms
- ❖ In some materials this can be used to infer some properties of the incoming particle

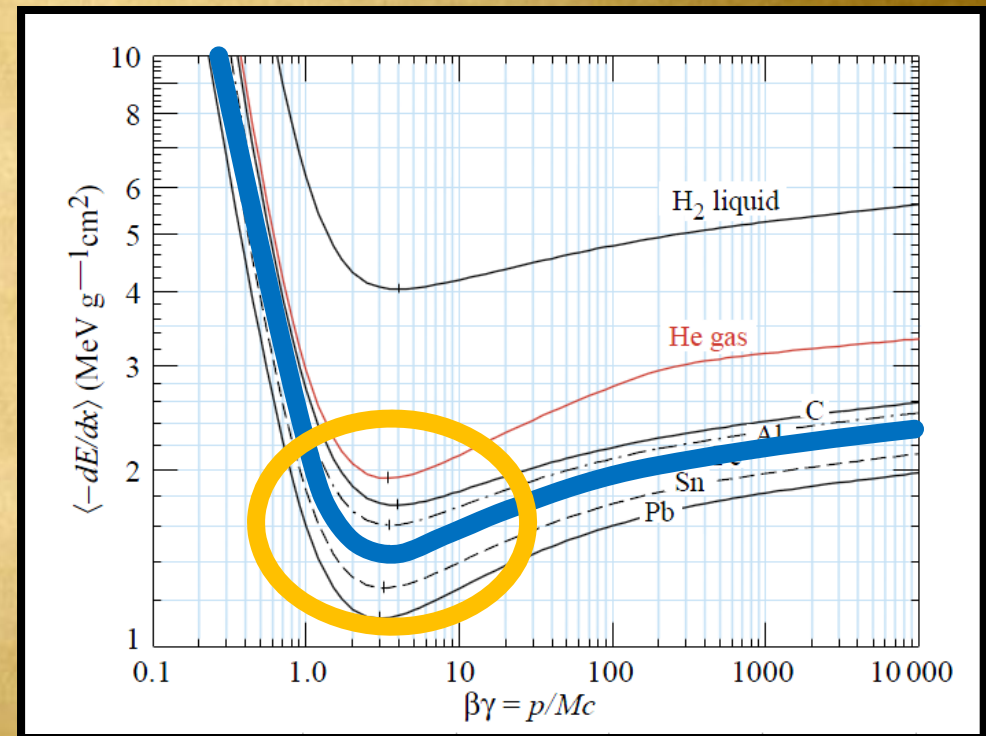


Bethe Formula (ions)

$$-\frac{dE}{dX} = K z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \gamma^2 \beta^2 T_{max}}{I^2} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta(\beta\gamma)}{2} \right] \text{ [MeV/(g/cm}^2\text{)]}$$

❖ Some points:

- ❖ \propto Incoming particle z^2
- ❖ Can't tell sign!
- ❖ Low-energy: $\propto 1/\beta^2$
- ❖ Minimum energy loss occurs at $\beta\gamma \sim 3$ [MIPs - Minimum Ionizing Particles]
- ❖ $dE/dX \sim 2 \text{ MeV/(g/cm}^2\text{)}$ for most materials

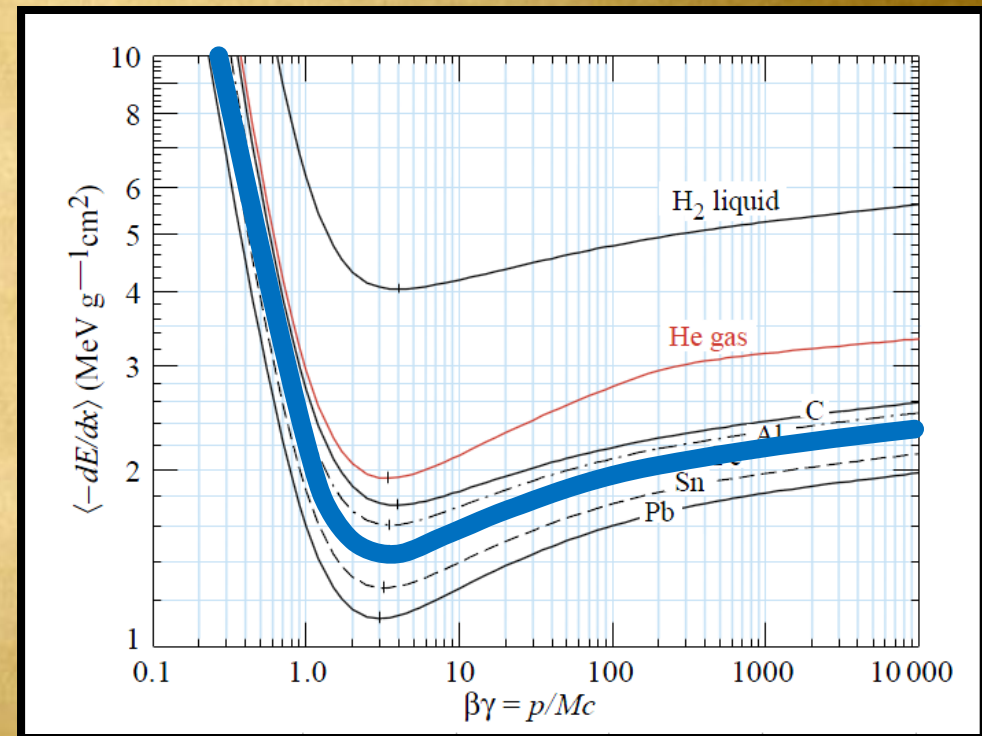


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❖ Some points:

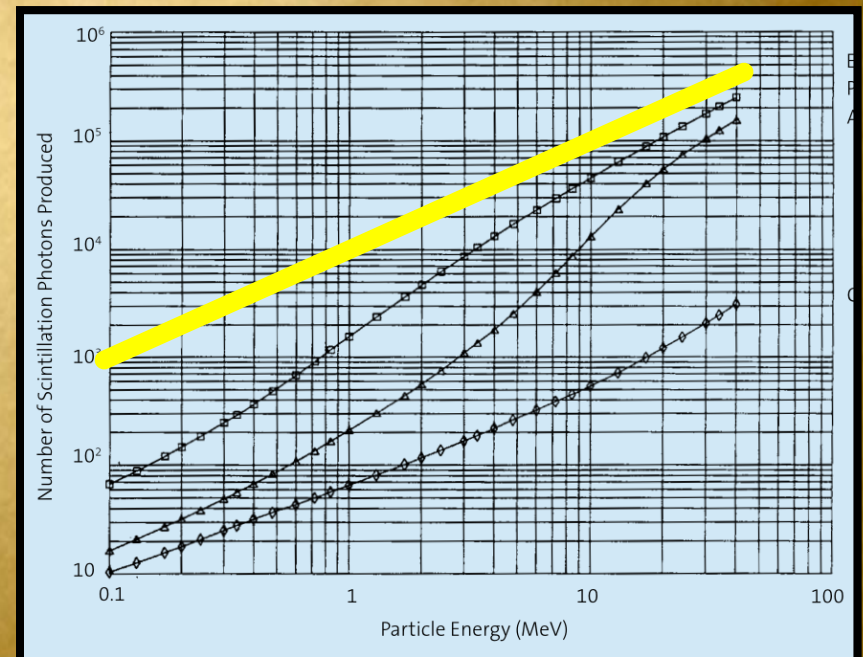
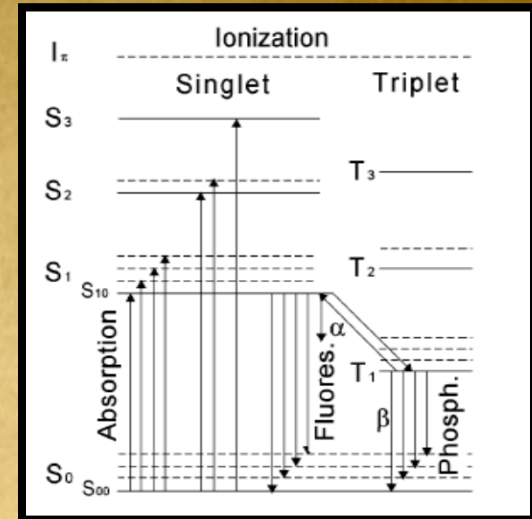
- ❖ At higher energy: $dE/dX \propto \ln(\beta\gamma)^2$
- ❖ Slow “Relativistic Rise” due to enhancement of the transverse E field
- ❖ Eventually saturates in the “plateau” region
- ❖ Varies with material
- ❖ NB! Lost energy does not always equal deposited energy



Similar (not identical) results apply for electrons

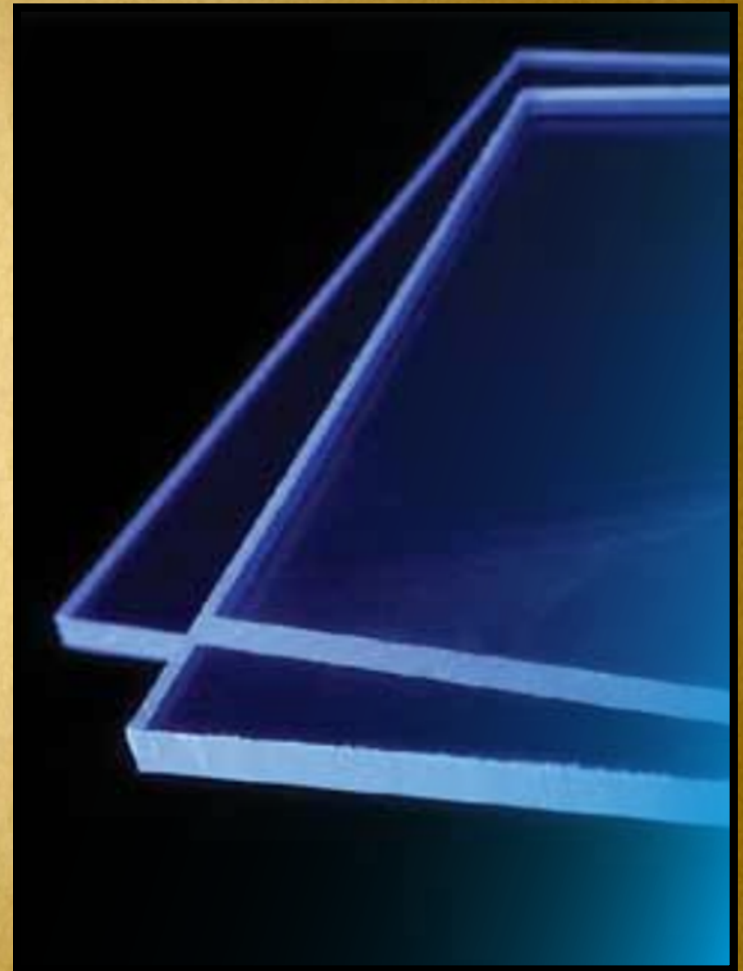
Scintillators

- ❖ Some materials respond to ionization energy deposits by emitting light
- ❖ Excitation of molecules to elevated energy levels, and subsequent rapid (\sim ns) decay with the release of photons
- ❖ For a large range of deposited energy (i.e., before saturation), the light level will vary linearly (or can be linearized) with the energy deposit
- ❖ Hence: light level tells you Z^2



Scintillators

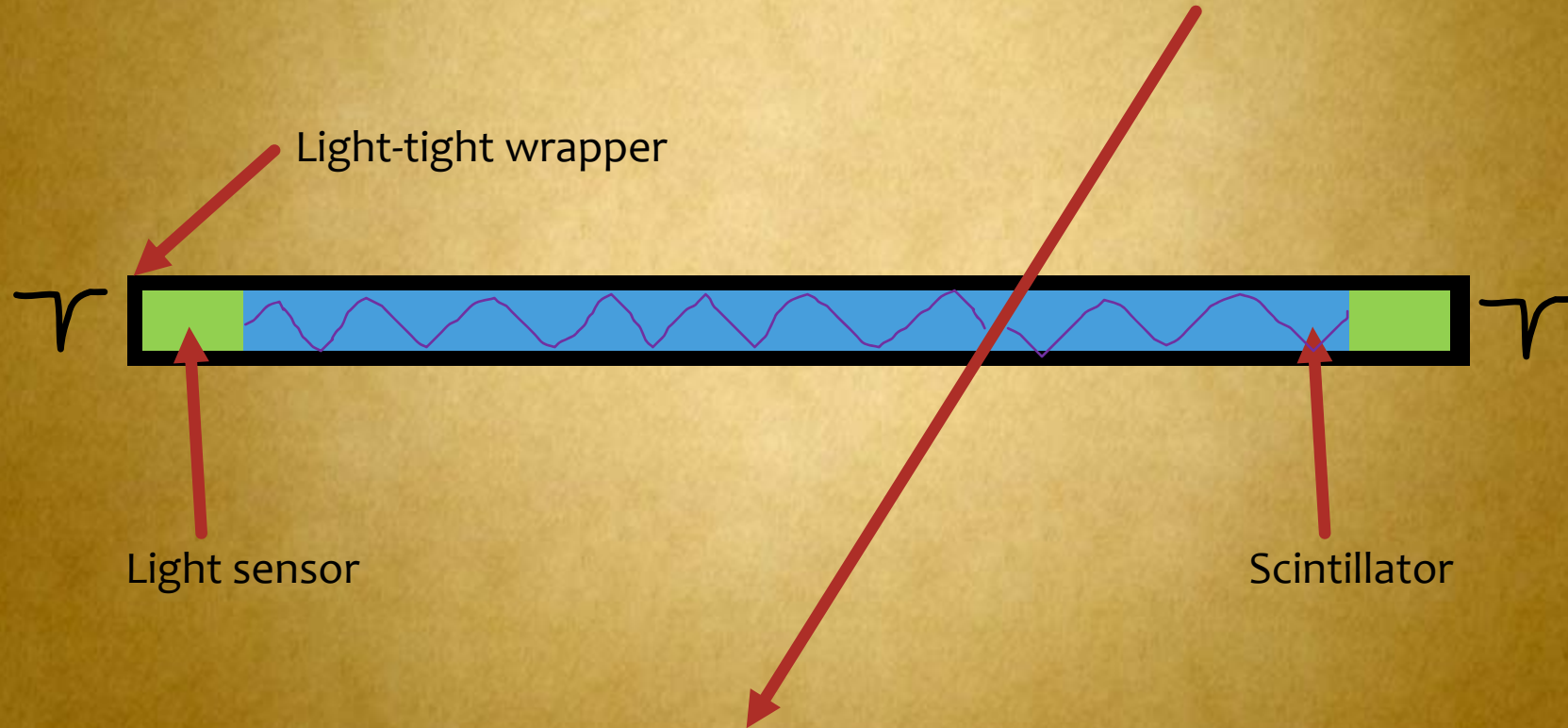
- ❖ The standard scintillator used in CR detectors is thin (\sim cm) slabs of plastic with organic scintillator dissolved in it
 - ❖ Cheap, Lightweight
 - ❖ Good light response (\sim 10,000 photons for a 1 MeV electron)
 - ❖ Fast (\sim 2 ns)
 - ❖ Requires a fast detector
 - ❖ Can employ this as an instrument trigger



Scintillators

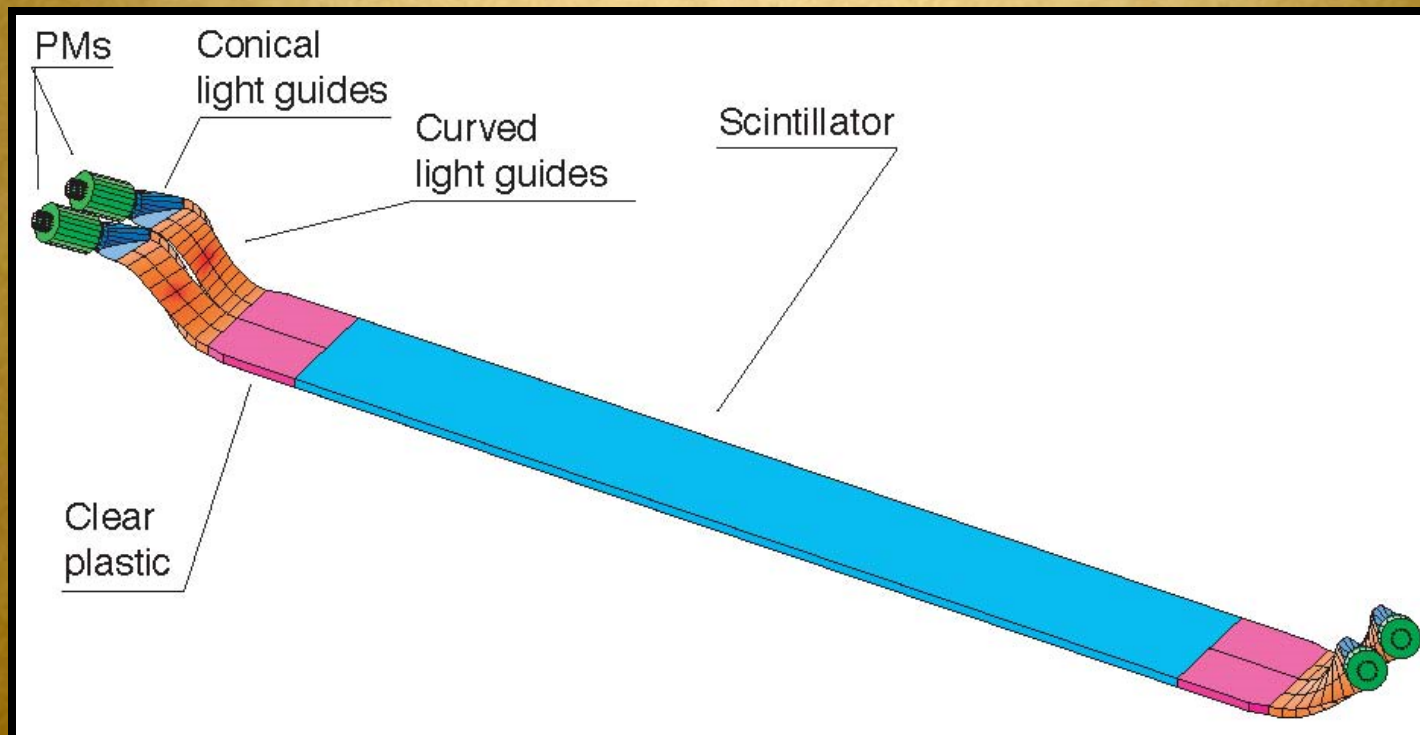
❖ Cartoon 'Paddle' Setup:

- ❖ Amplitude and timing can both be used



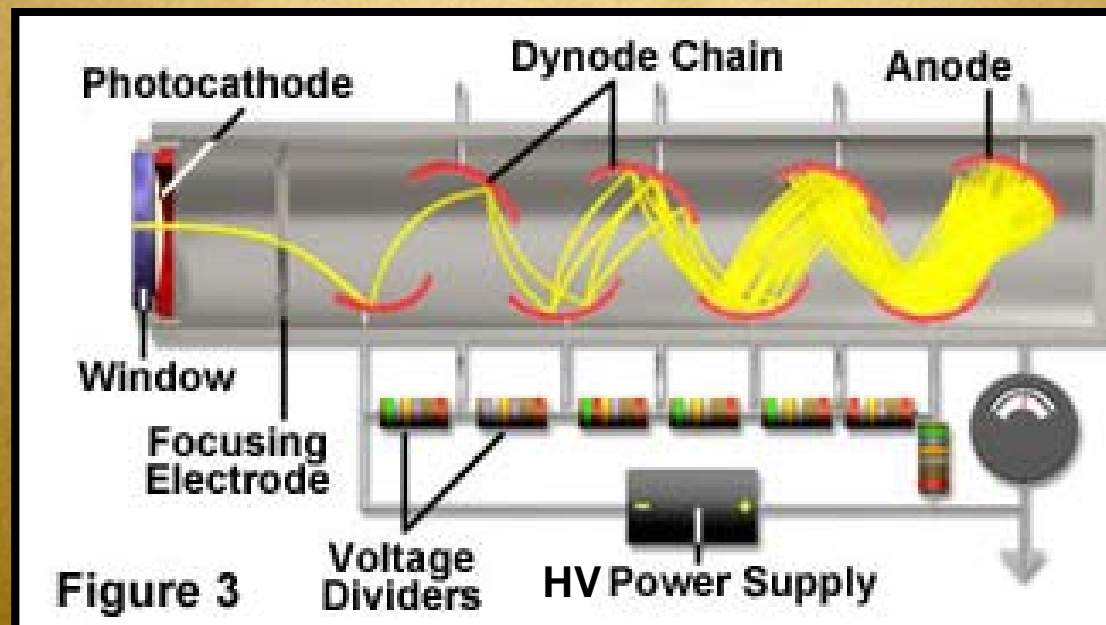
Scintillators

- ❖ **Real Designs more complex**
 - ❖ May employ 'light guides' to better map scintillator faces to photodetectors



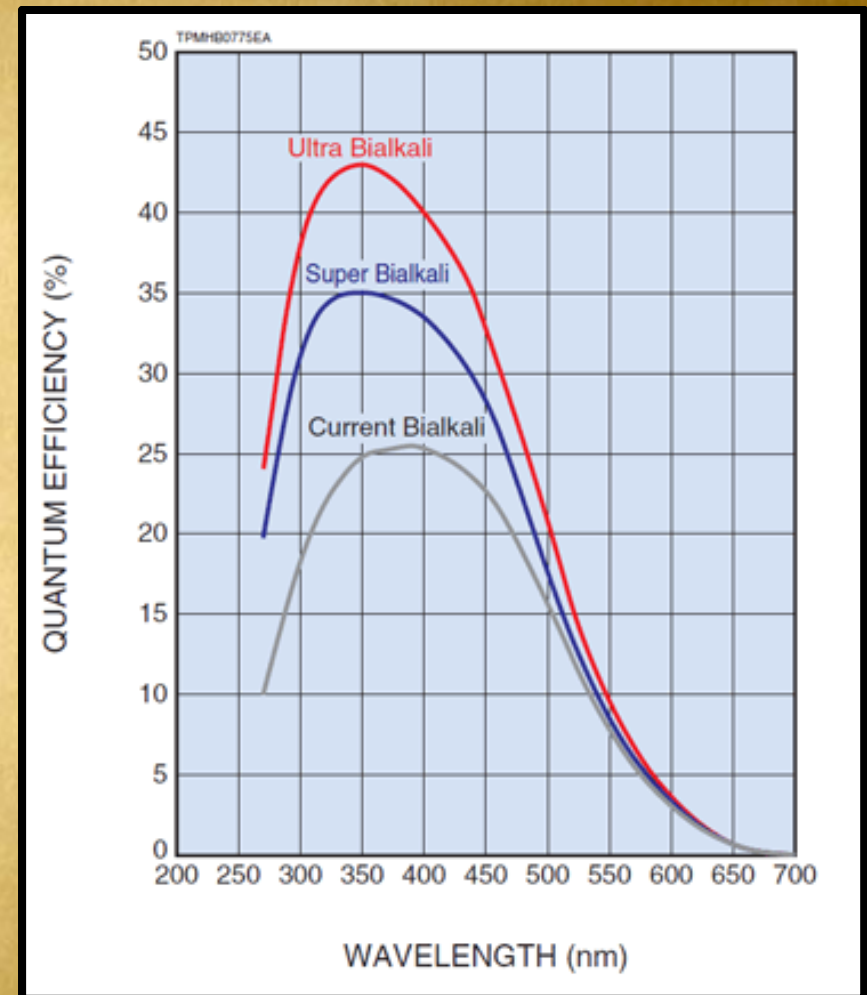
Photon Detection

- ❖ Need something to convert those light pulses (back) into electronic pulses for readout
- ❖ The standard for the last >50 years has been the photomultiplier tube (PMT)
- ❖ Basically consists of a photon-to-electron conversion device (photocathode), plus an amplification device (electron multiplier)



PMT Sensitivity

- ❖ “Quantum Efficiency” (QE) describes the sensitivity
 - ❖ #PEs Emitted/#Photons Incident
 - ❖ A (wavelength-dependent) property of the photocathode
 - ❖ Want to match this to the emission spectrum of your scintillator
 - ❖ PMT QE has not historically been great, but improvements are now appearing



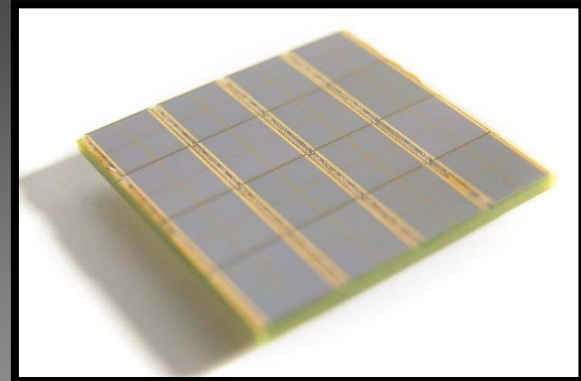
PMT Characteristics

❖ Pros:

- ❖ Good Gain
- ❖ Fast Operation
- ❖ Relatively quiet

❖ Cons:

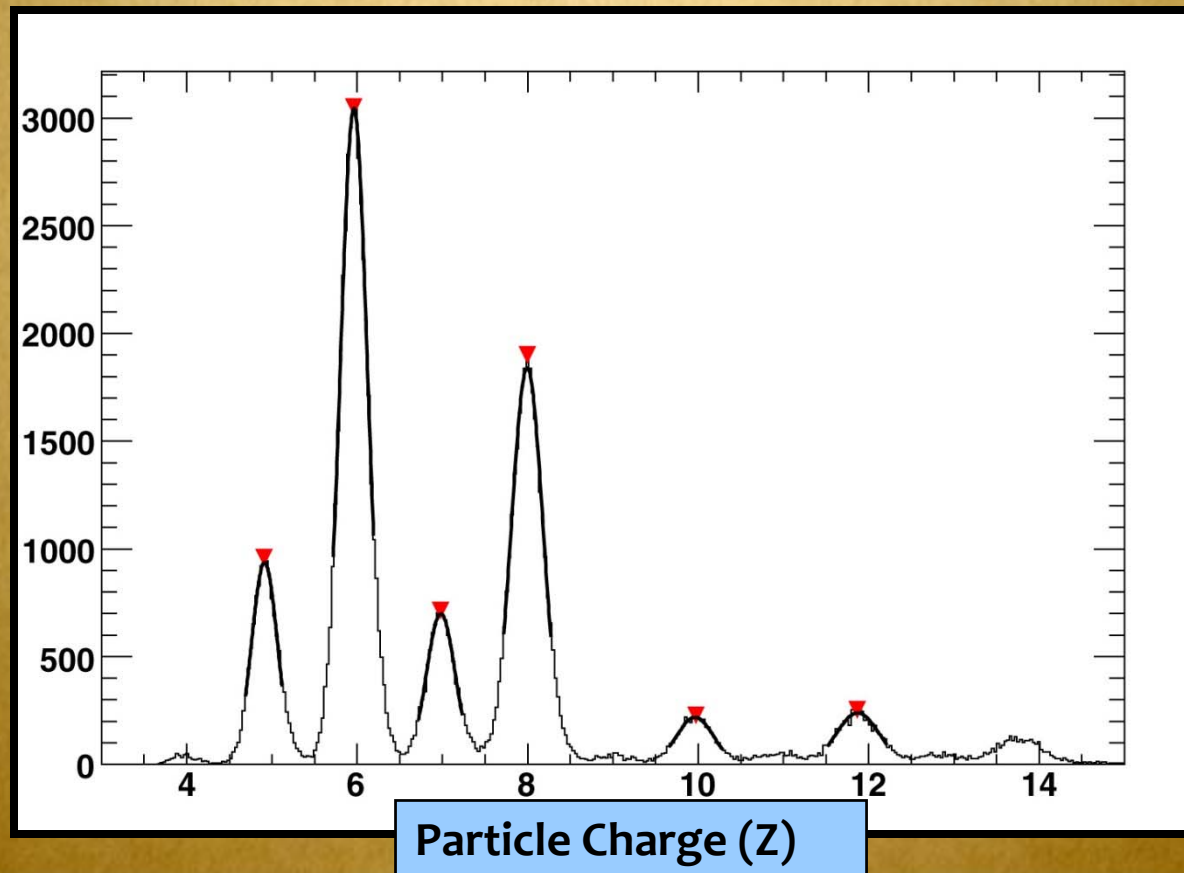
- ❖ Expensive (per unit)
- ❖ Fragile (evacuated glass tubes)
- ❖ Requires High Voltage
- ❖ Sensitive to magnetic fields



- ❖ New solid-state devices (SiPM) now starting to become an option
 - ❖ Cheap
 - ❖ High resolution
 - ❖ No High Voltage
 - ❖ Still very noisy

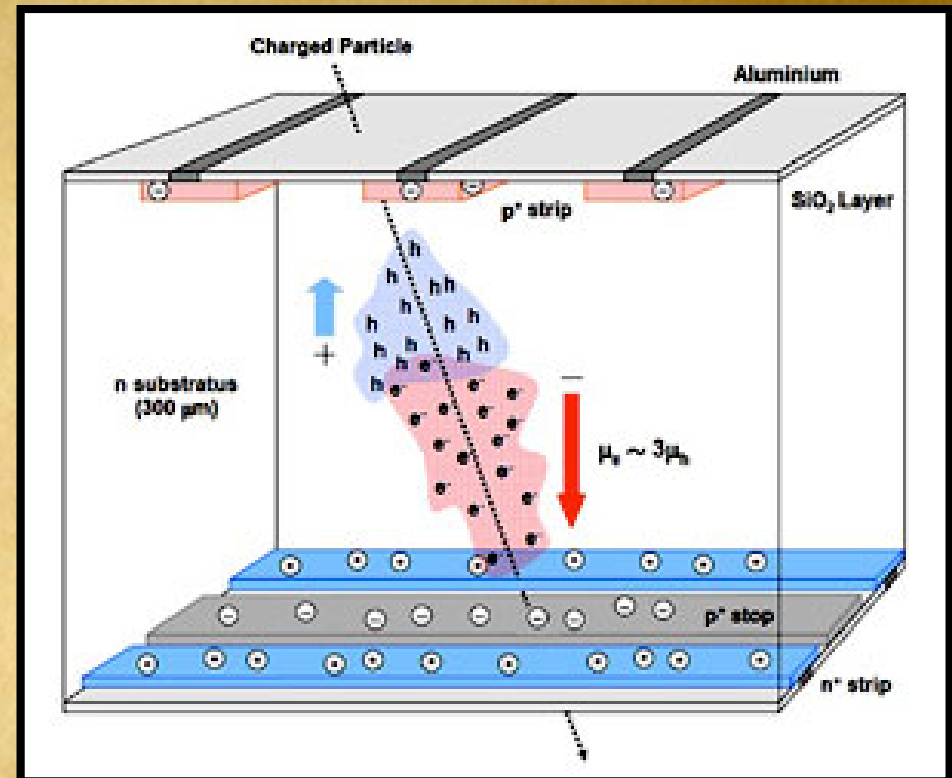
Charge Spectrum

- ❖ The kind of cosmic ray data you get from such a scintillator system looks like this:
 - ❖ (Some massaging required to achieve this!)



Other Options

- ❖ Another solid state device which can replace the entire scintillator/PMT chain: silicon strip/silicon pixel detectors
- ❖ Thin (300-400 μm) layers of silicon material with readout
- ❖ Direct collection of ionization electrons freed by the passage of charged particles.
 - ❖ About $3.6 \text{ fC}/Z^2$ for MIPs in a 300 μm layer



Silicon Charge Detectors

- ❖ Can use this to collect charge information, AND, due to small pixels/strips – tracking info
 - ❖ Optimizations needed (dynamic range, channel counts, etc) for tracking vs for charge collection
- ❖ **Pros:**
 - ❖ Good resolution
 - ❖ Comes with free tracking information
- ❖ **Cons:**
 - ❖ Expensive!
 - ❖ High to very high channel count
 - ❖ CREAM: 3000 channels vs <50 channels (TCD)

What Next?

❖ Now that you know what your particles are made of, you need to figure out their energy:

❖ You have a few options:

❖ Get velocity and determine energy: $E = mc^2 / \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$

❖ Cherenkov Detector

❖ Measure energy directly:

❖ Calorimetry

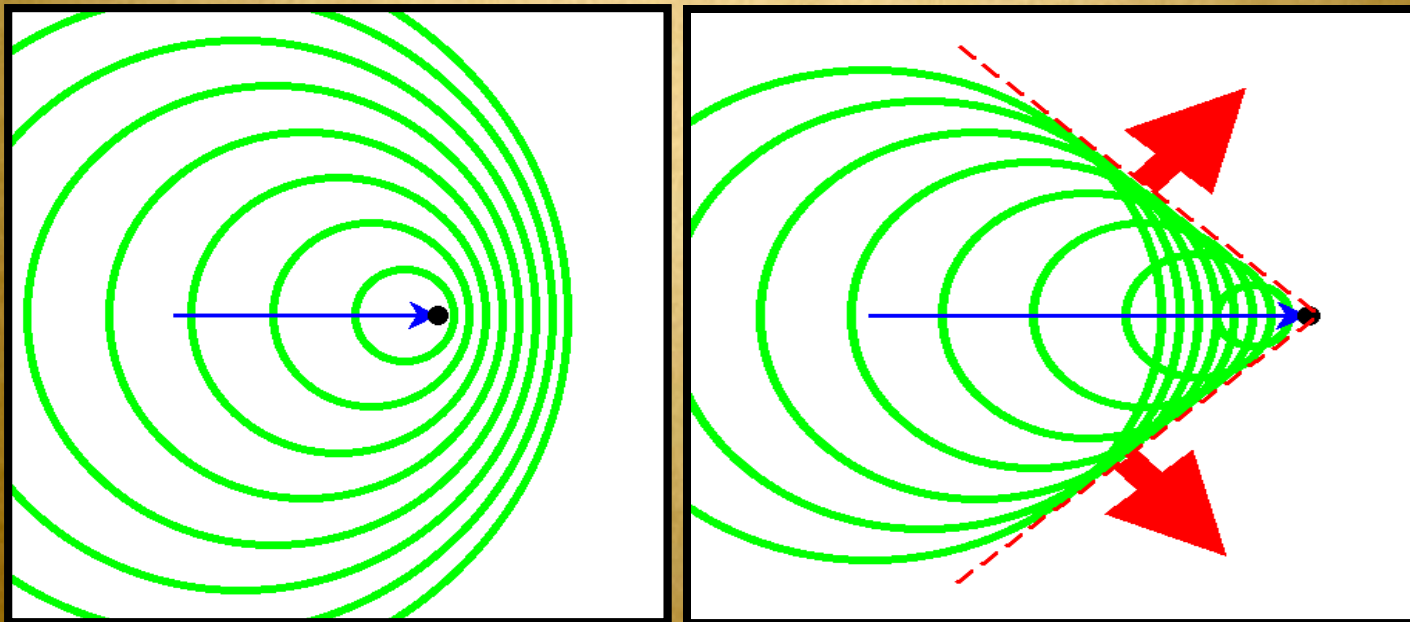
❖ Measure Lorentz Factor and determine energy: $E = \gamma mc^2$

❖ Transition Radiation Detector

Cherenkov Detectors

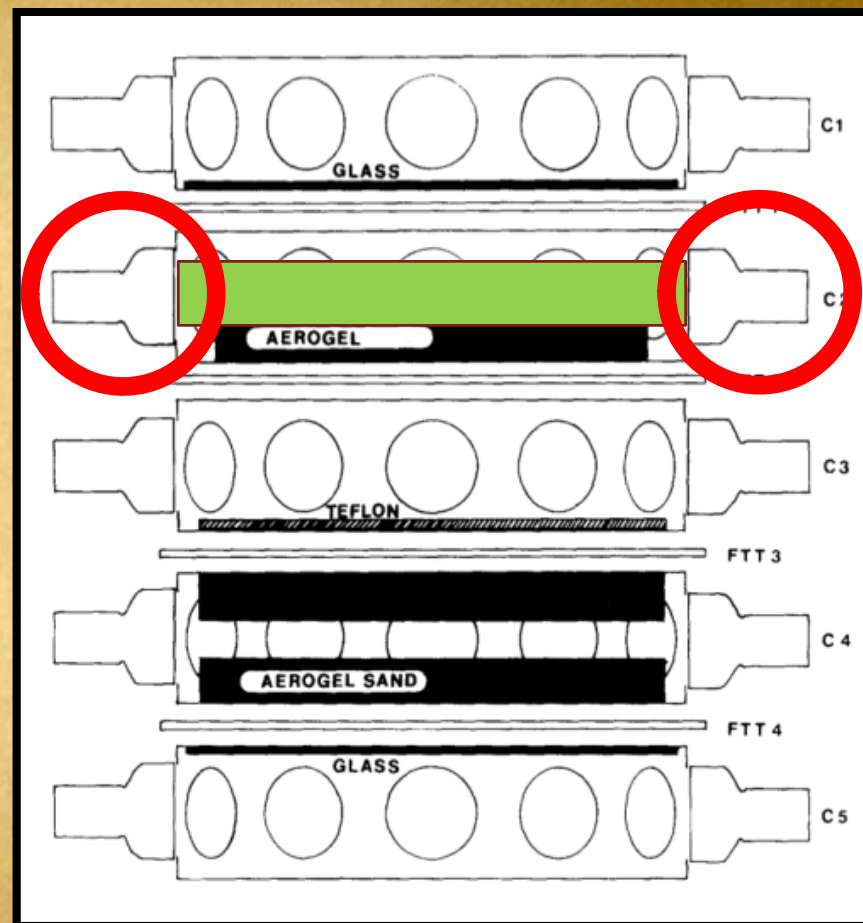
- ❖ Photon emission from charged particles exceeding the local speed of light
- ❖ Photon yield varies with Z^2 and velocity (β) of the particle

$$\frac{dN}{dEdx} \approx 370 Z^2 \left[1 - \frac{1}{\beta^2 n^2} \right]$$



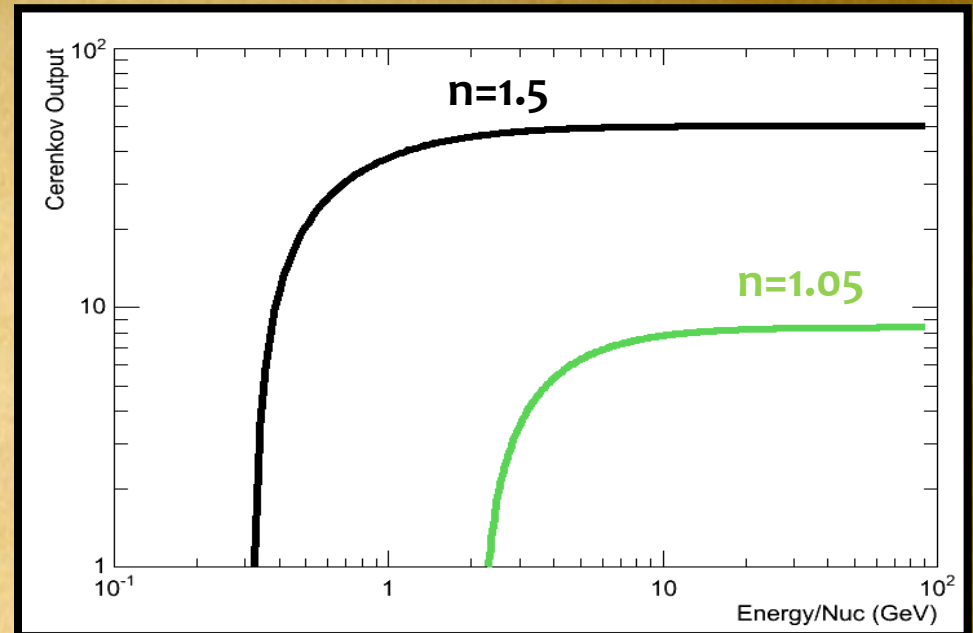
Cherenkov Detectors

- ❖ Cosmic ray CER detectors generally take the form of integrating volumes of radiator material read out with photomultipliers
- ❖ (In some cases) structure is similar to a scintillator system
- ❖ Typical 'radiator' materials: acrylic, aerogel, gas



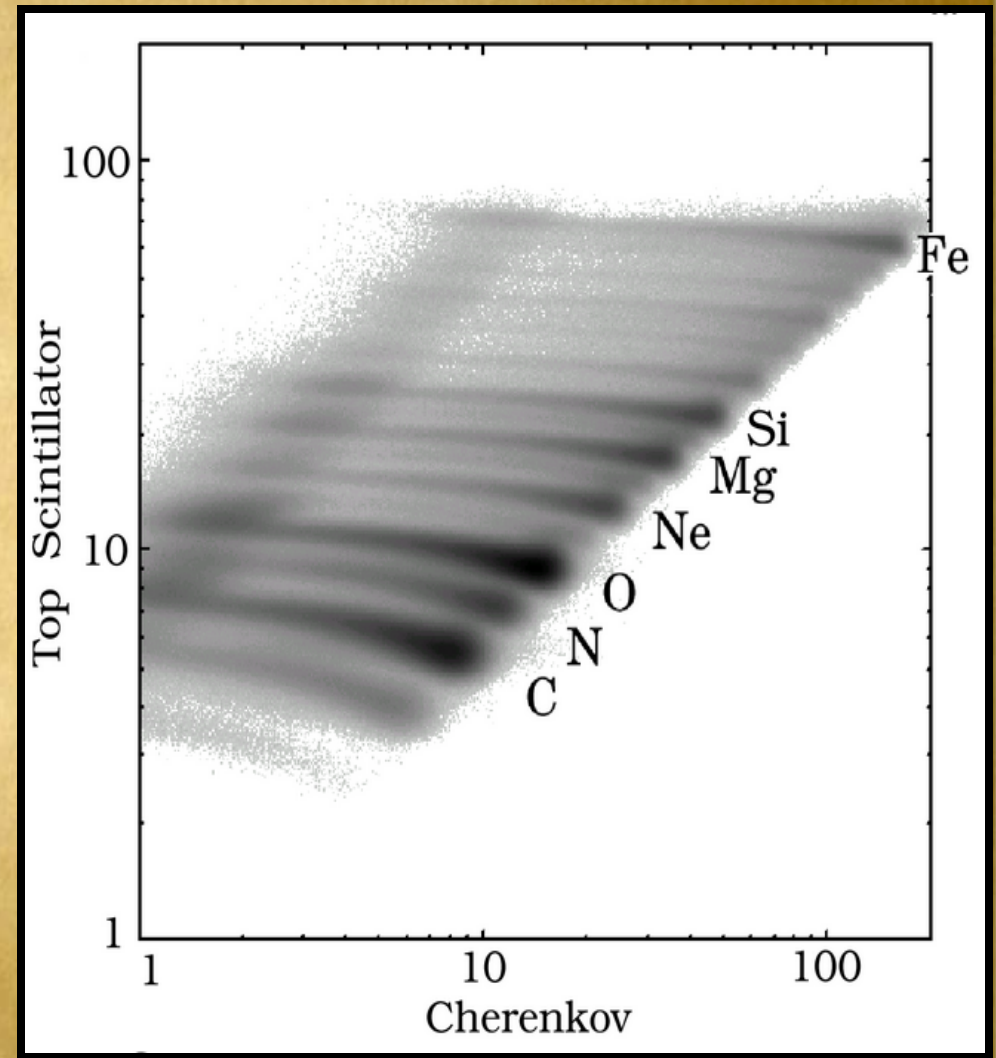
Cherenkov Detectors

- ❖ Yield saturates relatively quickly after threshold ($\beta > 1/n$), so multiple radiators allow to extend the energy reach
 - ❖ Examples: HEAO, TIGER
- ❖ But prior to saturation – a measure of β can be obtained, and hence Lorentz Factor, and thus energy



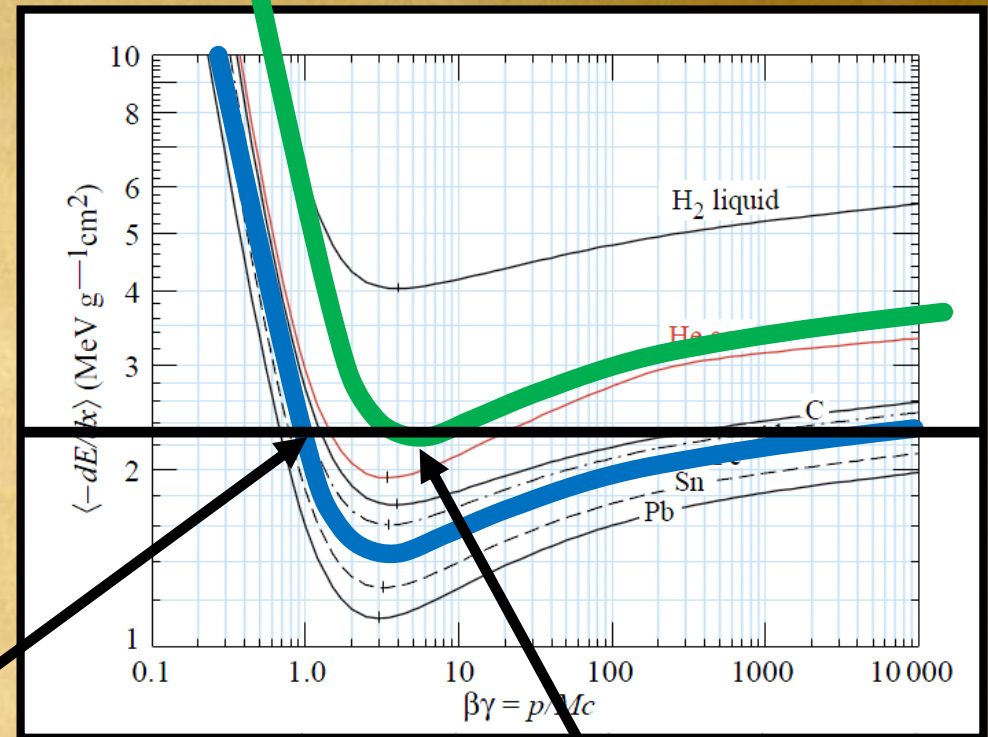
Cross Correlations

- ❖ The power of multiple detectors
- ❖ Cherenkov Signal vs Scintillator signals – allows you to separate high-Z, high-E particles from low-Z, low-E particles



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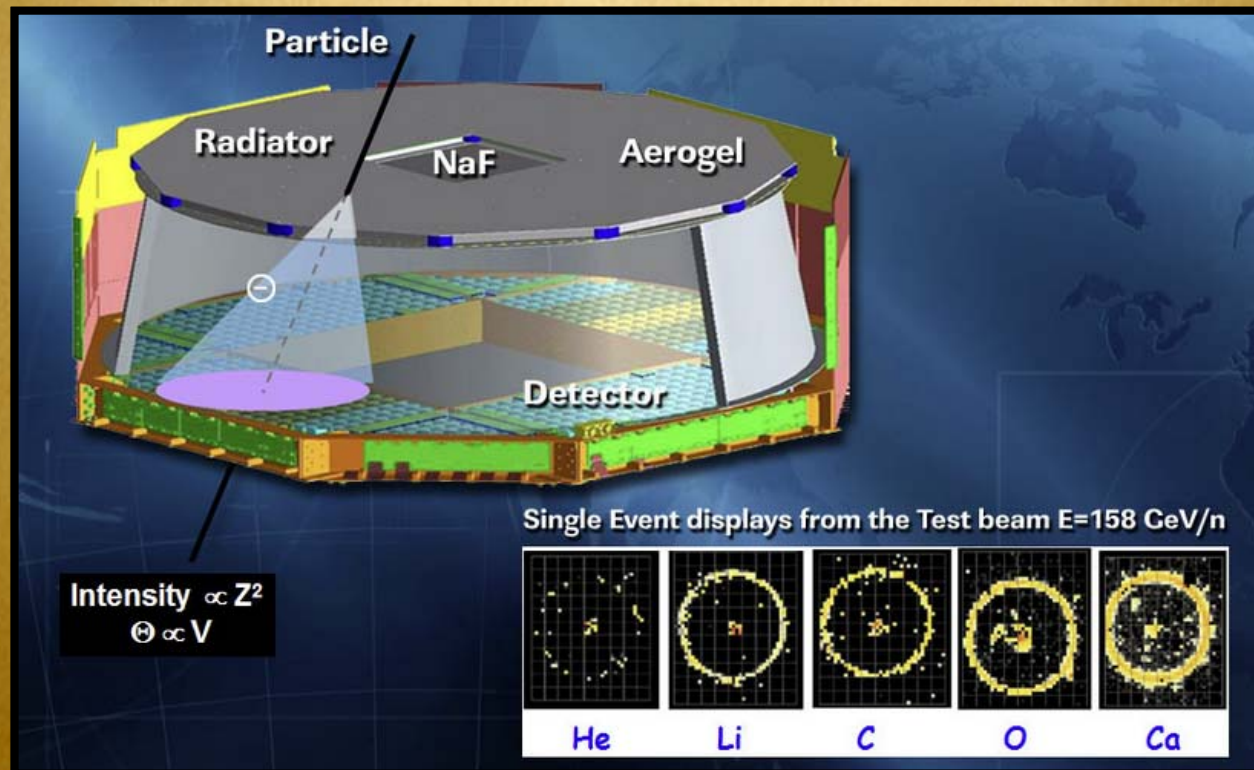


Low-Z, Low-E

High-Z, High-E

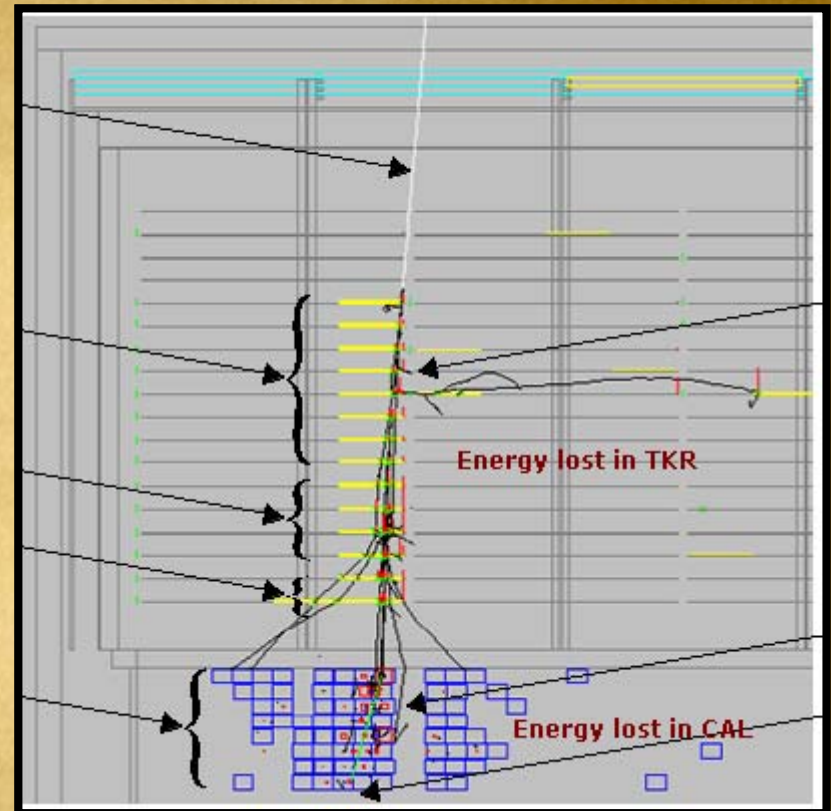
Ring Imaging CHerenkov

- ❖ RICH detectors improve resolution ($\Delta v/v$) and energy range by also using angular information
- ❖ Requires an imaging detector plane
- ❖ Used on UC-RICH/CAPRICE, AMS experiments



Calorimeters

- ❖ Generally work by having the particle smash in, initiating an EM cascade, and then absorbing the energy of daughter particles in a series of subsequent detectors
- ❖ A stack of scintillators and photo-detectors (LAT), or solid state ionization detectors (CRIS), etc.



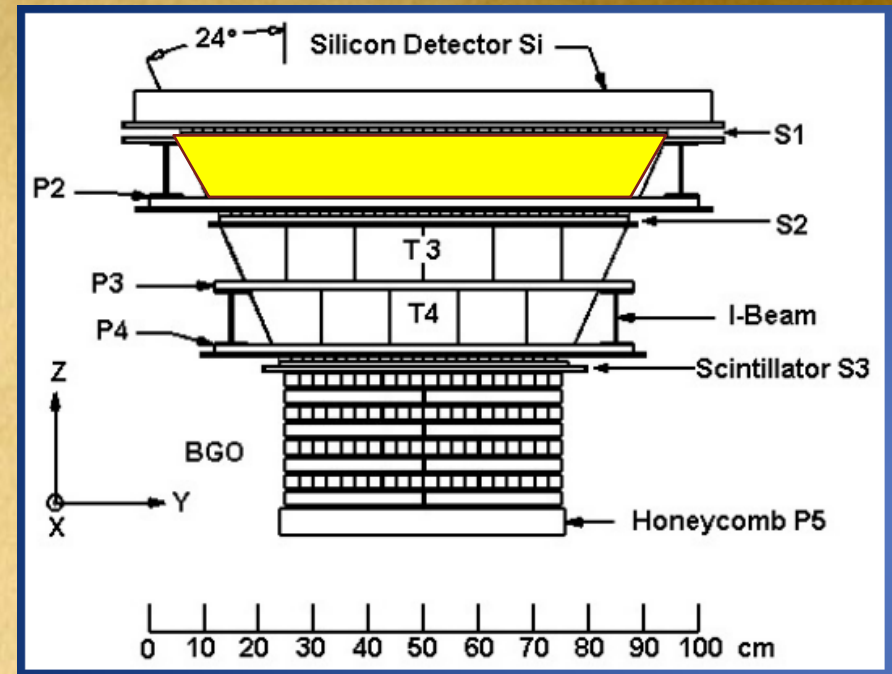
Nuclear Calorimeters

- ❖ Calorimeters are trickier to use with nuclei vs electrons & photons
- ❖ Nuclear Interaction lengths tend to be much longer than radiation lengths in most materials
- ❖ LAT, e.g., is $8.6 X_0$ deep, but only $0.43 \lambda_{\text{int}}$ deep

material	X_0 (g/cm ²)	λ_n (g/cm ²)
H ₂	63	52.4
Al	24	106
Fe	13.8	132
Pb	6.3	193

Nuclear Calorimeters

- ❖ This has led to the introduction of “target” or “thin” calorimeters for CR studies.
- ❖ These basically take an EM calorimeter and stick a non-instrumented high- λ_{int} target in front to ‘jumpstart’ hadronic cascades and allow shorter (lighter) detectors
- ❖ Examples: ATIC, CREAM

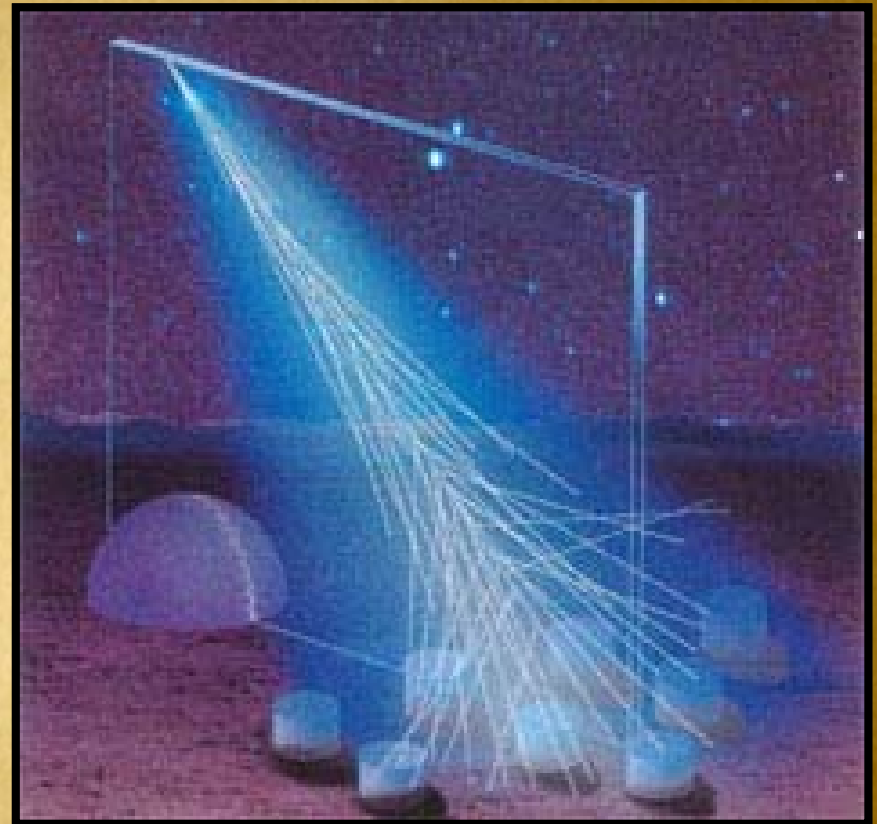


Calorimeters

- ❖ **General operational mode is simple:**
 - ❖ Count up all the deposited energy in your active components and this is the particle energy (or a value related to the particle energy)
- ❖ **Pros**
 - ❖ Good energy resolution
 - ❖ Simple?
- ❖ **Cons**
 - ❖ Can't calibrate for all energies/particles
 - ❖ Heavy! Generally have to be small

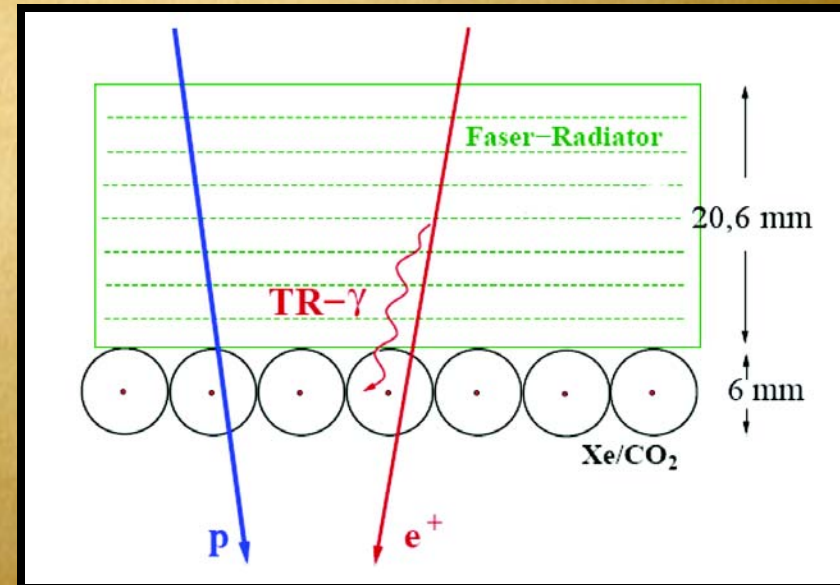
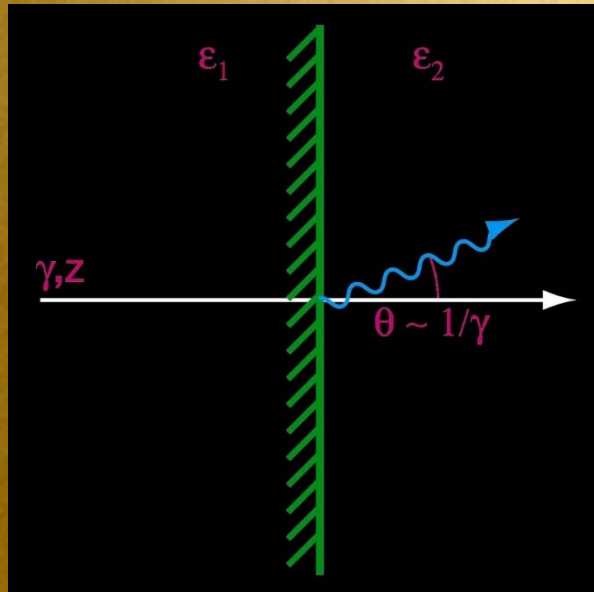
Calorimeters

- ❖ Probably worth mentioning that air shower arrays and ground-based gamma-ray instruments are calorimeters – use the atmosphere as absorber

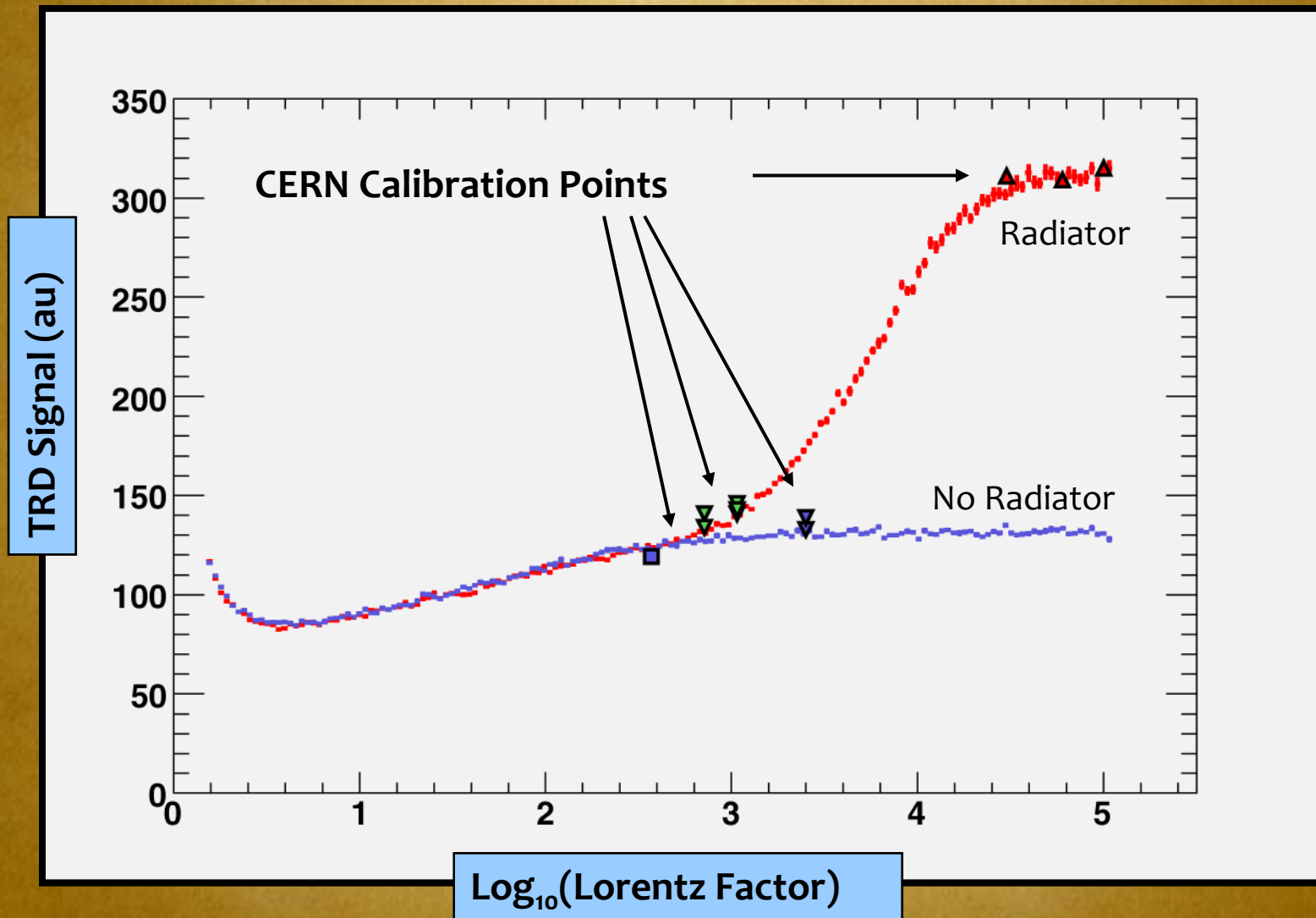


Transition Radiation

- ❖ X-ray radiation from dielectric transitions
 - ❖ Varies with Lorentz Factor (γ) and charge Z^2
 - ❖ Electron and proton at same energy have much different γ
- ❖ Detectors require multiple interfaces + thin gas detectors
- ❖ Important points:
 - ❖ Process not destructive to the particle
 - ❖ Can be calibrated at beamlines [cf calorimeters]

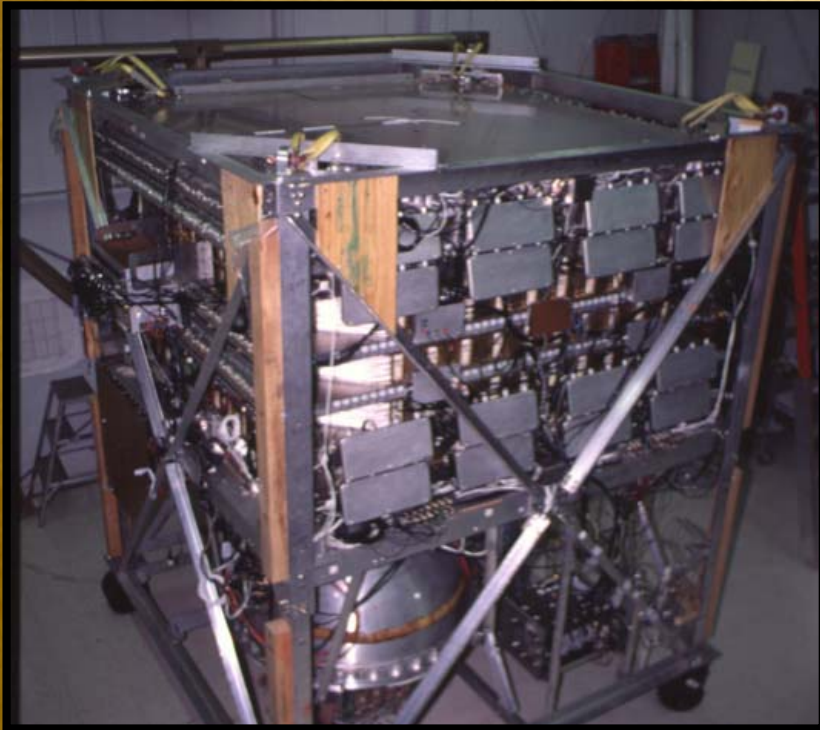


Simulations vs CERN Calibration



CR Detectors

❖ Examples: TRACER & CREAM



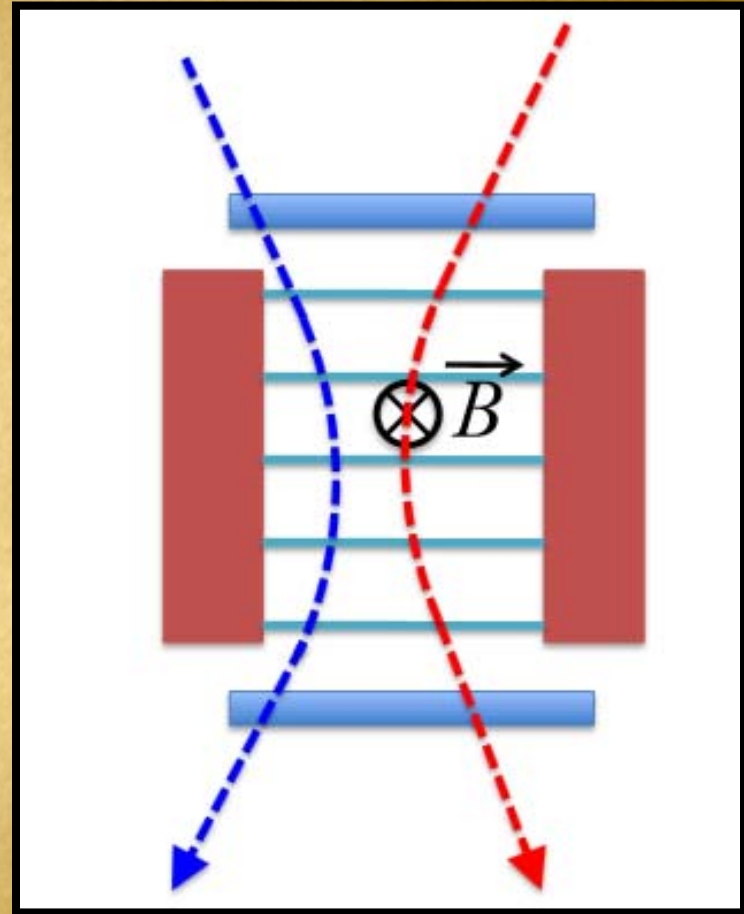
Magnet Spectrometry

- ❖ If you really want to measure the mass of the primary particles (e.g., isotope measurements), then using Z as a proxy for A will not be sufficient
- ❖ But how to make a detector which responds to mass?
 - ❖ Magnet spectrometers achieve this by measuring multiple particle properties and inferring the mass.
 - ❖ For instance, a simultaneous measure of momentum and velocity will give you the mass: $p = \beta\gamma mc$

$$m = p \left(\frac{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}{\beta} \right)$$

Magnet Spectrometry

- ❖ In practice, you do this by measuring how the particle bends in a magnetic field, obtaining the rigidity ($R = pc/Ze$)
 - ❖ Use tracking detectors like silicon strips or gas detectors
- ❖ Then use, e.g., scintillators to tell you the charge, which gives you momentum, p



Magnet Spectrometry

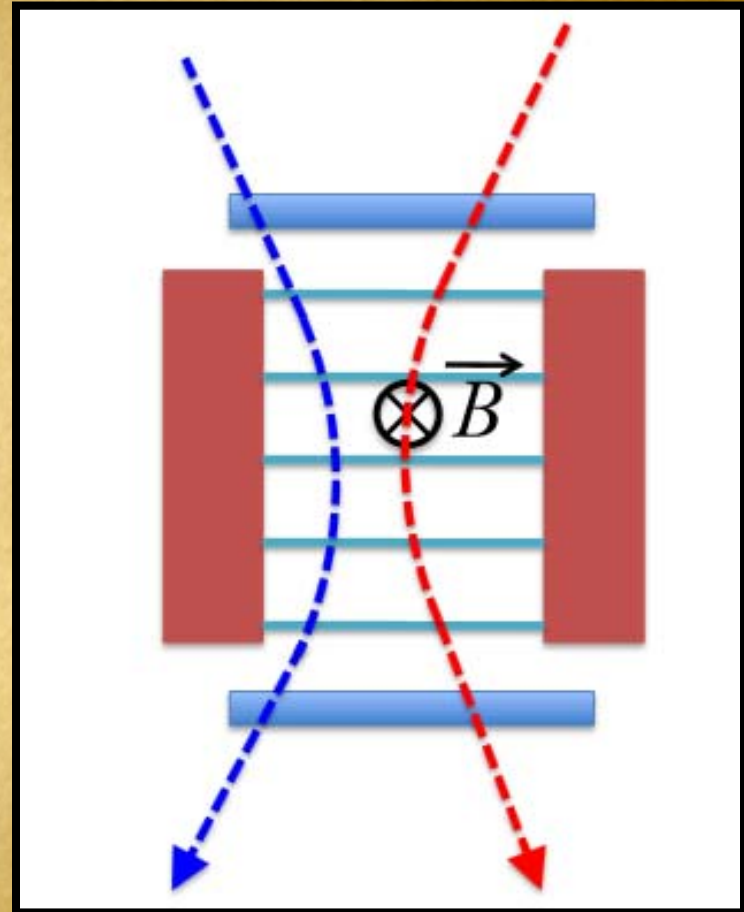
❖ Then you can use time-of-flight or Cherenkov detectors to give you β (and thus γ)

❖ Error Formula:

$$\left(\frac{\sigma_M}{M}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\sigma_P}{P}\right)^2 + \left(\gamma^2 \frac{\sigma_\beta}{\beta}\right)^2$$

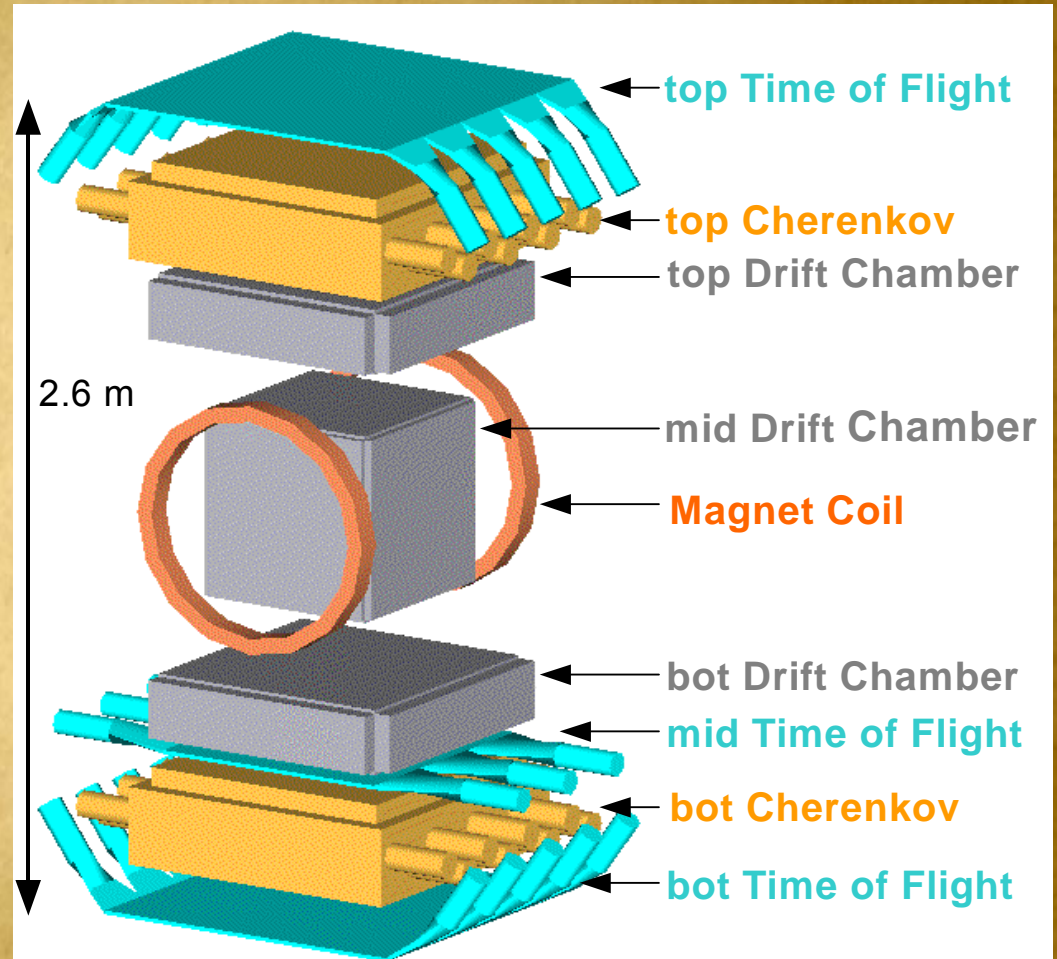


This term severely impacts energy reach



ISOMAX

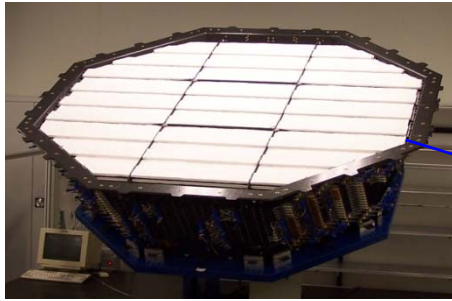
- ❖ Most successful detector for high-energy isotope measurements was **ISOMAX**
- ❖ Multiple charge detectors
- ❖ Multiple Cherenkov detectors
- ❖ Gas ionization tracking chambers
- ❖ 0.8T B-field



AMS: A TeV precision, multipurpose spectrometer

TRD

Identify e^+ , e^-

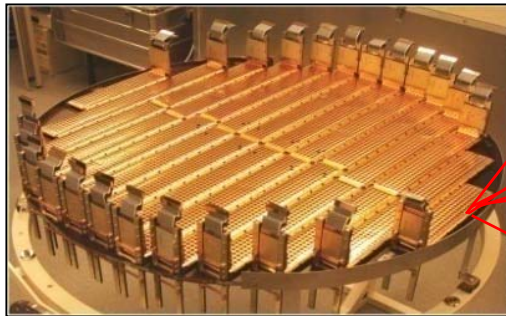


Particles and nuclei are defined by their charge (Z) and energy ($E \sim P$)

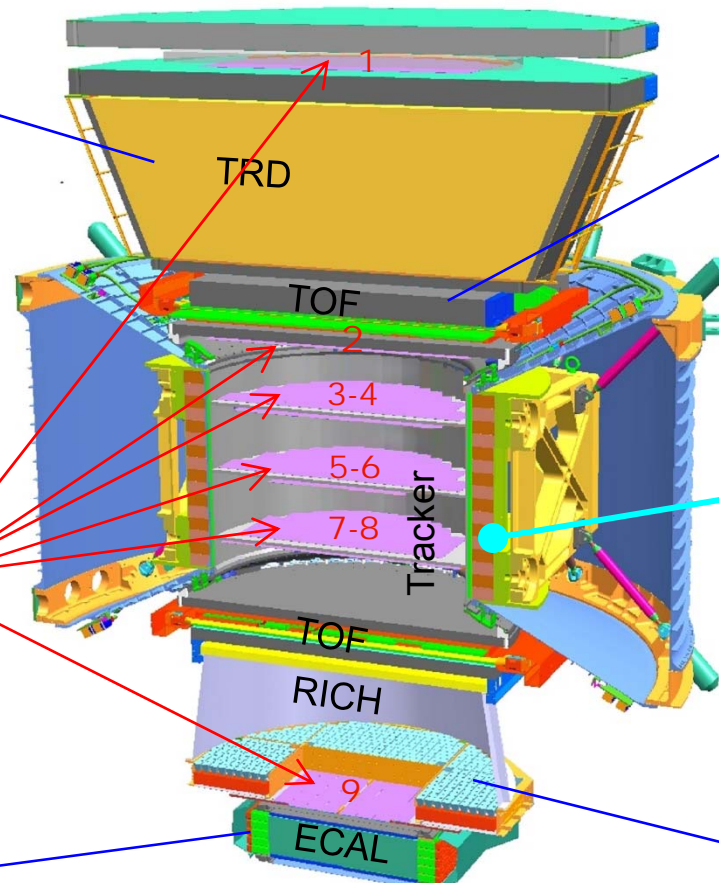
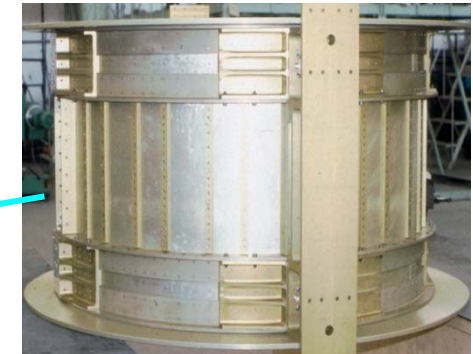
TOF
 Z, E



Silicon Tracker
 Z, P



Magnet
 $\pm Z$

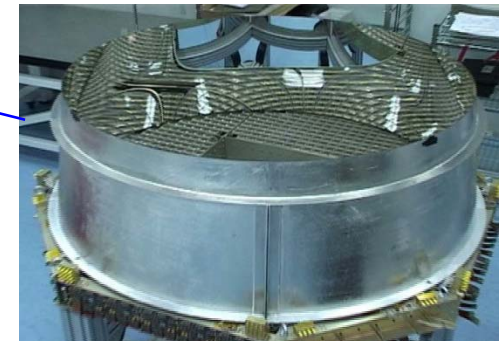


ECAL

E of e^+ , e^- , γ



RICH
 Z, E



Z, P are measured independently from Tracker, RICH, TOF and ECAL

Summary

- ❖ To measure particle properties over a large range of particle types and energies, multiple techniques are required
 - ❖ Need to understand how particles interact with matter to do this.
- ❖ Other resources:
 - ❖ Particle Data Booklet
 - ❖ The Particle Detector BriefBook
 - ❖ Longair's Book(s)
 - ❖ Knoll's Book

