Changes in gas-detector simulation

Rob Veenhof

RD51 collaboration and Uludağ university, Bursa, Turkey

Operating principles:

- A charged particle passes through the gas and ionises molecules;
- the electric field in the gas volume transports the ionisation electrons and provokes multiplication;
- the movement of electrons and ions leads to induced currents in electrodes.

Лев Давидович Ландау (1908-1968)

Energy loss fluctuations



Given a single-collision energy loss distribution w(ε), the distribution f(ε) of the energy loss ε after many collisions is *schematically* given by the Laplace transform:

$$f(x,s) = e^{-x\int_{0}^{\infty} (1-e^{-s\epsilon})w(\epsilon)d\epsilon}$$

- ► Ландау showed (1944), assuming in particular:
 - thick layers: numerous small energy losses;
 - Rutherford-inspired energy loss distribution $w(\epsilon) \sim 1/\epsilon^2$;
 - neglect of the atomic structure:

 $Lf(s)\approx s^s$

L

Landau: too narrow for thin layers

2 GeV protons on an (only !) 5 cm thick Ar gas layer:



[Diagram: Richard Talman, NIM A **159** (1979) 189-211]

Virtual photon exchange model



Heed



Igor Smirnov

PAI model or absorption of real photons: Atom + $\pi^- \rightarrow \text{Ion}^{+*} + \pi^- + e^-$ (photo-electric effect, Atom + $\gamma \rightarrow \text{Ion}^{+*} + e^{-}$ real or virtual photon) Decay of excited states: $Ion^{+*} \rightarrow Ion^{++} + e^{-}$ (Auger) $\operatorname{Ion}^{+*} \rightarrow \operatorname{Ion}^{+} + \gamma$ (fluorescence) $Ion^{+*} \rightarrow Ion^{+*}$ (Coster-Kronig) Processing of electrons: \triangleright below ionisation energy \rightarrow transport \triangleright photo- and Auger-electrons (" δ -electrons"): (absorption of high-energy electrons) $e^- + Atom \rightarrow Ion^+ + 2 e^-$

Photo-absorption in argon

Argon has 3 shells, hence 3 groups of lines:



Range of photo- and Auger-electrons



Practical range: distance at which the tangent through the inflection point of the descending portion of the depth- absorbed dose curve meets the extrapolation of the Bremsstrahlung background (ICRU report 35, 1984)

MWPC

First gaseous tracking device 1968: Georges Charpak





One of the NA60 muon chambers



Georges Charpak

TPC

- Typically very large
 Almost empty inside
 Excellent for dealing with
- 1976: David Nygren







Alice

NA49



Star





1749: Cauchy-Riemann equations

Jean le Rond d'Alembert (Nov 16th 1717 –Oct 29th 1783)

Core of the complex potential method.

Augustin Louis Cauchy (Aug 21st 1789 – May 23rd 1857)



Georg Friedrich Bernhard Riemann (Sep 17st 1826 – Jul 20th 1866)

Existence of a derivative of a complex analytic function f = u + i v $f'(z) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$ $\frac{\partial u}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial v}$ $\partial x \quad \partial y$ $=\frac{\partial f}{\partial u} = -i\frac{\partial u}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial v}$ $\frac{\partial v}{\partial u} = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial u}$ $\partial x \qquad \partial y$

implies that Re(f) is harmonic:

 $\partial i y \quad \partial y \quad \partial y$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{-\partial^2 u}{\partial y \partial y} \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

Conformal mappings – an example

Schwartz-Christoffel transformation of a half-plane to the external part of a rectangle:

$$z \rightarrow \int_{0}^{z} \frac{d\xi}{\sqrt{\xi(\xi-1)(\xi-a)}}$$
$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{a}} \operatorname{sn}^{-1}(\sqrt{z}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}})$$





MPGD

Micro-Pattern Gas-based Detectors

- have small structural elements
- use 3d electrodes to generate electric fields.

MSGC

Built using solidstate techniques; good resolution; poor resistance to high rates.









Anode Cathode

Substrate

Gossip

The "electronic bubble chamber".



Harry van der Graaf (r)





δ-electrons made visible in He/iC₄H₁₀, using a modified MediPix, ~2004.

Field calculation techniques

Closed expressions:

- almost all 2d structures of wires, planes + periodicities;
- dielectrics and space/surface charge are laborious;
- fast and precise, if applicable not suitable for MPGDs.

Finite elements:

- 2d and 3d structures, with or without dielectrics;
- several major intrinsic shortcomings.
- Integral equations or Boundary element methods:
 - equally comprehensive without the intrinsic flaws;
 - technically challenging and emerging.
- Finite differences:
 - used for iterative, time-dependent calculations.



"Stiffness and Deflection Analysis of Complex Structures", a study in the use of the finite element technique (then called "direct stiffness method") for aircraft wing design.







[M.J. Turner, R.W. Clough, H.C. Martin and L.J. Topp, *Stiffness and Deflection Analysis of Complex Structures*, J. Aero. Sc. **23** (1956), 805-824. MJT & LJT with Boeing.]

The price to pay for finite elements

- Finite element programs are flexible but they focus on the wrong thing: they solve V well, but we do not really need it:
 - quadratic shape functions do a fair job at approximating $V \approx \log(r)$ potentials;
 - potentials are continuous;
 - potentials and fields are not Maxwell compliant.
- *E* is what we use to transport charges, but:
 - ▶ gradients of quadratic shape functions are linear and not suitable to approximate $E \approx 1/r$, left alone $E \approx 1/r^2$ fields;
 - electric fields are discontinuous at element boundaries;
 - ▶ a local accuracy of ~50 % in high-field areas is not unusual.

Boundary element methods

- Contrary to the finite element method, the elements are on the boundaries, not inside the problem domain. Charges are computed for the boundary elements.
- The field in the problem domain is calculated as the sum of Maxwell-compliant field functions, each extending over the entire problem domain. There are no discontinuities.
- But ... the method poses substantial numerical challenges: large non-sparse matrices and inherent singularities. The technique is time consuming.

Magboltz: e⁻ transport in gases

- A large number of cross sections for 60 molecules...
 - Numerous organic gases, additives, *e.g.* CO₂:
 - elastic scattering,
 - 44 inelastic cross sections (5 vibrations and
 - 30 rotations + super-elastic and 9 polyads),
 - attachment,
 - 6 excited states and
 - 3 ionisations.
 - noble gases (He, Ne, Ar, Kr, Xe):
 - elastic scattering,
 - 44 excited states and
 - 7 ionisations.

 CO_2 – vibration modes

 \triangleright CO₂ is linear: \triangleright O – C – O

- Vibration modes are numbered V(*ijk*)
 - ▶ *i*: symmetric,
 - ▶ *j*: bending,
 - k: anti-symmetric.

Vibrations V(ijk)



Attachment in CO₂

 \triangleright CO₂ is a linear molecule:



- CO₂ with an extra e⁻: instable ($\tau \ll 1$ ps, $\epsilon_{VEA} \approx -3.8$ eV). Low energy e⁻ collisions produce O⁻, not CO₂⁻.
- With an e⁻ added, a bent structure (134°) is favoured. Long lifetime (τ ≈ 90 µs) but still *negative* electron affinity (ε_{AEA} ≈ -0.6 eV). metastable.
 Attachment works in [CO₂]_n clusters: vibration and rotation

modes absorb excess energy.

 σ bonds (2 times)



 π bonds (2 times)

[Source: presumably SS Zumdahl, Chemistry (1983) DC Heath and Company.]



Ionisation through excitation

Create excited noble gas atoms:

Ar + e⁻ → Ar + e⁻ (in)elastic scattering
Ar + e⁻ → Ar^{*} + e⁻ excitation
Ar + e⁻ → Ar⁺ + 2 e⁻ ionisation

Interaction with quencher:

 $Ar^* + CO_2 \rightarrow Ar + CO_2^+ + e^-$

if Ar^* excitation energy > CO_2^+ ionisation energy

Quenching rate constants are comparable to hard-sphere scattering, i.e. faster than radiative decay of (esp. higher) excited states.

Pressure

Transfer rates for Ar-CO₂, from experimental gain curves

Hint of 3-body interactions.

[Tadeusz Kowalski and Özkan Şahin]



PhD students: solve this puzzle and win a fondue during your next visit to CERN.

Why does the rate fall in Ne-CO₂?



Scales: gas vs structural elements

- Recall:
 - Mean free path of e^{-1} in argon: 2-5 μ m,
 - diffusion:

```
~80 µm for 1 mm.
```

5 µm

- Compare with:
 - Micromegas mesh pitch: 63.5 μm
 - GEM polyimide thickness: 50 μm
 - Micromegas wire thickness: 18 μm
 - GEM conductor thickmess:
- Hence:
 - mean free path approaches small structural elements;
 - diffusion is not likely to be Gaussian.

e⁻ and ion⁺ trajectories

Example (Harp): $E \times B$ effect in an enlarged \aleph read-out cell.



Microscopic Micromegas



Legend:
– electron
O inelastic
O excitation
ionisation

Flux vs microscopic ?

- A diffusion-free flux argument does not reproduce the data ...
- but the microscopic approach works.

Field calculations: finite elements.



GEM, textbook

e⁻ & ion⁺ follow the "field lines"





GEM, microscopic view

Micropattern devices have characteristic dimensions that are comparable with the mean free path. Ionisations Ionisation e⁻ Ion backflow ·· Attachment

Avalanche electrons

[Plot by Gabriele Croci and Matteo Alfonsi]

Avalanche regions



Gain calculations in a pristine GEM

- Calculations predict that G_{tot} and G_{eff} rise with increasing inner hole diameter.
- G_{eff} rises mainly because the losses of incoming electrons diminish;
- G_{tot} rises because the exit electrode becomes more accessible.



HBD data

Measurements for 2 triple GEMs with different hole shape shows that smaller holes lead to *larger* gain !



[W. Anderson *et al.* 10.1109/NSSMIC.2007.4437147]

GEMs of various manufacturers


Effect of surface charge ($V_{\text{GEM}} = 400 \text{ V}$)

- In a clean GEM, small holes give lower gain.
- As charge accumulates, the gain curves cross.
- Effect more pronounced at higher GEM voltage.



Charges in GEMs

- In GEMs, active gas comes in contact with dielectrics; in breach of a fundamental law of gas-based devices. This results in charge accumulations on the plastic which distort the field.
- Space charge may affect ion back flow: see talk of Bernhard Ketzer.
- Polyimide can contain mobile charges. These migrate through the plastic and modify the field.

Charging-up current

- When applying voltage across a new GEM, a current flows:
 - *not* constant
 - (i.e. not a resistor)
 - decay is *not* exponential (i.e. not a capacitor);
 - decay is *not* linear (i.e. not evacuation);
 - but a power law.



Discharge current

- The initial charge carriers stay in the polyimide, as can be seen by switching off the HV.
- The discharge current has reverse polarity and obeys a Kohlrausch law.



Protons: polyamic acid (PAA)

Note the intermediate acid, i.e. an H⁺ donor:



$PAA \rightarrow PI$ vs baking temperature

- The quantity of remaining PAA depends on the baking temperature.
- The proton density therefore also varies.
- [H. Oji *et al.*, Memoirs of the Synchrotron Radiation Center, Ritsumeikan University, Kyoto, Japan 8 (2006) 187-188.]



Rudolf Hermann Arndt Kohlrausch (November 6th 1809, Göttingen -March 8th 1858, Erlangen)

Kohlrausch relaxation



- This time dependence is known since 1854 at least. Also known as Curie-von Schweidler behaviour.
- Numerous models have been proposed
 H. Kliem, *Kohlrausch relaxations: new aspects about the everlasting story*, doi: 10.1109/TDEI.2005.1511096.
- One of the simplest models specifically assumes ions (e.g. protons, not electrons) as charge carriers and has thin insulating barriers between dielectric medium and electrodes.

Ar⁺ and Ne⁺ mobility

Avalanches take a few ns: http://cern.ch/garfieldpp/examples/gemgain
 Ion velocity at 3 kV/cm: Ar: ~20 µs/mm, Ne: ~8 µs/mm



Ion chemistry – rate constants

Ions react with the gas in which they move:

 $AH^+ B \rightarrow A BH^+$ proton exchange:

 $A^+ B \rightarrow A B^+$ charge transfer:

 $\operatorname{Ar}_{2}^{+}$ molecular ion formation

condensation reactions: new C-O and C-C bonds

Rate constants range from 10⁻⁹ to 10⁻¹⁴ cm³/s. At atmospheric pressure, in a pure gas, this corresponds to characteristic times of $40 \text{ ps to } 4 \text{ \mu s.}$

Ion transport

Ar 90 % - C_2H_6 10 %, at low pressure



[André Cortez et al. 10.1088/1748-0221/8/12/P12012]



Diffusion of Ar⁺ in Ar and Ne⁺ in Ne

Little experimental data, in particular at low fields. extrapolated from higher fields: ~10 µm for 1 mm



Changes

- Wires have fallen out of favour:
 - finite element and boundary elements.
- Electron transport:
 - transport and fields are coupled for small structures;
 - role of excited noble gas atoms, transfer measurements;
 - charges in dielectrics, surface charge, space charge.
- Current activities:
 - ion chemistry and measurement of ion transport;
 - semi-conductive layers.

Backup slides

GEM space charge – summary

- Space charge between GEMs pushes ions towards the cathode ("upper") GEM electrode. This reduces the ion back-flow.
- The trend of the measured rate dependence of ion back-flow is reproduced by simulations.
- By a stroke of luck, higher rates lead to improved ion backflow reduction.

Conical GEMs and misalignment can reduce ion back-flow.

GEM surface charge – summary

Gain (effective and total) is modified by charging-up.

Hole shape:

- charge-induced increase is strongest in tapered holes;
- gain is virtually stable in cylindric holes;
- dependence on hole shape is non-linear.

Voltage:

- effect increases with voltage.
- Although the absolute gain is not yet understood, simulations do reproduce charging-up effects.

Square mesh wires ?

- Square wires are much simpler to model than cylindric wires – but this is an inadequate simplification.
- Calculations done using finite elements.



Dipole moment of the mesh

Compare equipotentials $\sum_{drift}^{N} = 3.3 \text{ kV/cm}$: thin-wire elements overestimate the transparency by 15 %.



x [µm]

GEM – unit cell





Steady-state resistivity



3 GEM configurations adding N_2

- ▶ 3 GEMs under Ne/CO₂/N₂=(90/5/10). GEM2 is mis-aligned.
- Townsend: $\sim 2/cm$ at 6kV/cm. $\times 1.3$ gain in 2mm.
- 0.5% 2% of IBF with $E_{T1} \sim 4-6 kV/cm$ and $E_{T2} \sim 0.5 kV/cm$.

Eff. gain in Ne(90)/CO2(5)/N2(10)

ibf in Ne(90)/CO2(5)/N2(10)



24/24

4 GEM configurations adding N_2

- 4 GEMs under Ne/CO₂/N₂=(90/5/10). GEM2 and GEM4 is mis-aligned. E_{T1}=4kV/cm
- 0.3% 1% of IBF with $E_{T1} \sim$ 4-6kV/cm and $E_{T2} \sim 0.5$ kV/cm.
- ×2-3 improvement with 4 GEMs



Gain measurement

Care was taken:

- GEM was kept in dry gas for weeks;
- GEM had not been exposed to radiation for weeks;
- no area of the GEM was used twice;
- electrically insulated box, virtually no noise;

Gain curves

- Rise of gain is clearly visible at all voltages, in the range 5-20 %.
- An unexpected initial drop shows up.



Initial drop

 Properties:
 larger at low V_{GEM};
 decays faster at high V_{GEM};

Interpretation ?



Effect of pre-charge

- Pre-charge proportional ^{0.9} to the final equilibrium, ^{0.89} gives an initial drop. ^{0.88}
- Only works if the precharge is locally larger than the equilibrium.
- Typically requires a charge of 10⁶-10⁷ /hole.



Volume or surface charge ?

Volume:

- Kohlrausch measurement, dividing the integrated moved charge by the PI volume: $n < 5 \ 10^{12}$ / cm³.
- The volume from where charge can reach bare PI is 5 10⁻⁸ cm³/hole.
- ► Charge: < 2 $10^5 q_{e}$ /hole

Surface:

Same measurements, but dividing the integrated charge by 5890 holes/cm².



$r_{\rm P}$ in Ar/CO₂ mixtures

 $r_{\rm P}$ for 30 % CO₂ currently requires an extrapolation



Transfer rate fit in GEM

- Extracting r_P from GEM ⁵× data is more complicated than in tube data because of charging-up effects.
- The accuracy is inevitably smaller.
- Preliminary.



Solutions for 2-dimensional fields

- As ansatz for the potential function ϕ , we use: $\phi = \operatorname{Re} \log F$
- Required properties of *F*:
 - log F analytic function in the problem domain;
 - *F* has simple zeroes at the wires;
 - leads to finite field energy.

Examples:

- Single charge: F = z hence: $\phi = \log(r)$
- Row of charges: $F = \sin(\pi z/s), F = \sinh(\pi z/s)$
- Forest of charges: $F = \vartheta_1(\pi z/s_x, e^{-\pi s_y/s_x}) + \dots$

Cross section of argon

Cross section in a hard-sphere model: Radius: ~70 pm (http://www.webelements.com) Surface: $\sigma = \pi (70 \ 10^{-10} \text{ cm})^2 \approx 1.5 \ 10^{-16} \text{ cm}^2$ Simplified cross sections used by Magboltz: Cross section [10⁻¹⁶ cm²] Elastic cross section Ionisation Excitations .1 .01 .1 10 100 1000 .01 1 Electron energy [eV]

Mean free path in argon

Given:

Cross section of 1 atom: $\sigma \approx 1.5 \ 10^{-16} \ \mathrm{cm}^2$

Atoms per volume:

 $\sigma \approx 1.5 \ 10^{10} \ \mathrm{cm}^2$ $\mathscr{L} \approx 2.5 \ 10^{19} \ \mathrm{atoms/cm}^3$

Mean free path for an electron ?

- An electron hits all atoms of which the centre is less than a cross section radius from its path
- Note the electron of the electron of the electron of the second state $\mathcal{L}\sigma L$ atoms
- ► Hence, the mean free path is $\lambda_{e} = 1/(\mathscr{L}\sigma) \approx 2.7 \ \mu m$
- Much larger than the distance between atoms, 3.5 nm and typical gas molecule diameters, 140-600 pm.

Drift velocity in electric fields

Imagine that an electron stops every time it collides with a gas molecule and then continues along *E*.

To cover a distance λ_{β} , it will need a time *t*:

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{qE}{m_e} t^2 = \lambda_e, i.e. \quad t = \sqrt{\frac{2\lambda_e m_e}{qE}}, i.e. \quad \overline{v} = \frac{\lambda_e}{t} = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_e qE}{2m_e}}$$

For example:

 $\overline{v} \approx 13 \,\mathrm{cm}/\mu\,\mathrm{s}$ for $E = 1 \,\mathrm{kV/cm}$



E [kV/cm]



Electrons in Ar/CO₂ at E=1 kV/cm


Drift velocity vs Mean velocity

Drift velocity: distance effectively travelled divided by time needed.

Imagine they take equal time:

 $v_{\rm D} = \overline{v}$

 $v_{\rm D} \ll \overline{v}$





2

3

4

5 6 7 8 9

10³

2

3

4

50

Magboltz for Ar/CO_{2} at 3 bar.

5 6 7 8 9

Transport - scale \gg mean free path

- For practical purposes, electrons from a given starting point reach the same electrode – but with a spread in time and gain.
- Electrons transport is treated by:
 - integrating the equation of motion, using the Runge-Kutta-Fehlberg method, to obtain the path;
 - integrating the diffusion and Townsend coefficients to obtain spread and gain.
- This approach is adequate for TPCs, drift tubes etc.

First comparison of IBF between real and simulations

- Simulation (Penning factor) is tuned to reproduce the gain.
- However, IBF in simulation doesn't agree with the measurements.
- Strong dependence on V_{GEM} in the measurements



More results from the measurements

- Rate, Energy (target), drift-space (3 mm or 80 mm) dependence
- Clear rate and drift-space dependence of IBF.
- Indicating space-charge effect (\propto rate×gain×seed) to IBF...





Space-charge above a single GEM

Drift plane

GEM1

► Ions at $z \in [0, 100 \,\mu\text{m}]$ above the GEM; $E_{dr} = 400 \,\text{V/cm}; \,\text{Ar/CO}_2 \,70/30;$

Gain: Does not depend on the ion density;

▶ IBF: Onset of decrease at ~10⁴ ions/hole,



Hole Alignment

- ▶ IBF with 3 GEMs. Ne/CO₂=(90/10).
- ► IBF vs. hole distance between GEM1 and GEM2.
- Strong alignment dependence (×10) for $E_{T1} \ge 2-4$ kV/cm.
- No alignment dependence for E_{T1} ~1 kV/cm. But IBF is worse.





The mediæval solution ... arrow slits !





Absorbing photo- & Auger-electrons

Both typically have enough energy to ionise:

 $E_{pe} = E_{\gamma} - E_{shell},$ $E_{Auger} = E_{knock-out} - E_{filling} - E_{emitted}$

- ► The energy is dissipated by scattering, excitation and ionisation of the outer shells, producing electrons serving for detection → transport. This consumes ~20-30 eV per electron produced – much more than the ionisation energy.
- In the process, δ -electrons are scattered extensively, leaving an erratic trace of ionisation electrons.

Geiger counter

Detects radiation by discharge

Can count α and β particles (at low rates ...)

No tracking capability

Around 1928: Hans Geiger and Walther Müller





Hans Geiger (1882-1945)



A Geiger-Muller counter built in 1939 and used in the 1947-1950 for cosmic ray studies in balloons and on board B29 aircraft by Robert Millikan et al.

Made of copper, 30 cm long





[J. C. Street and E. C. Stevenson, Phys. Rev 52 (1937) 1003]

Findings μ^{\pm} experiment 1937

- Curvature of "track B" is consistent with a charged, negative particle.
- Ionisation density 6 × density of "usual thin tracks", *i.e.* high energy charged particles.
- Assuming ionisation $\propto 1/v^2$, and using the curvature, the estimated mass was $130 \pm 33 m_e$ or $66 \pm 17 \text{ MeV}$ (*cf.* PDG 2012 value: 105.6583715 ± 0.0000035 MeV).

Spark chambers

Popular in the 1960s and 1970s

Parallel plates between which a spark develops when an ionising particles passes

Read out optically or acoustically (!)

Precursor in a way to the RPC



A J/ ψ event from SPEAR (1974)

Attachment in CO₂

Thin-wire approximation ?

The thin-wire approximation is usual in wire chambers – but is not adequate here.

Field calculations: neBEM.



Surface charge

GEMs violate the 1st law of gas-based detectors: active gas must not be in contact with an insulator.

Electrons and ions will therefore land on the insulating material.

Polyimide as used in GEMs is an extraordinarily good insulator: once on the surface, charge stays there.

GEMs with surface charge

- The polyimide surface area inside the holes is sliced.
- Start: uncharged GEM;
- iterate:
 - simulate avalanches;
 - histogram electron and ion deposition patterns;
 - add surface charges and recalculate the field;
- convergence when electron and ion deposits balance.



Conclusions

- Microscopic simulations, although time consuming, are capable of reproducing e.g. the transparency of Micromegas meshes.
- GEMs have insulating material in contact with active gas. As a result, the insulator collects charge and the surface charges modify the detector behaviour.
- Evacuation of ions from multiple GEMs is sufficiently slow for space charge effects to become noticeable at high rates. This modifies the ion back-flow rate.

Ion back flow and space charge

Alice plans using a triple GEM for TPC read-out with:
 ion back flow < 0.5 % (< 0.25 % in some sources)
 effective gain 2000

https://cdsweb.cern.ch/record/1475243/files/LHCC-I-022.pdf

Gas-based detectors

Tracking + identification devices for charged particles, that rely on the ionisation of gas molecules and the currents due to the movement of electrons and ions.

Common features:

- gas
- high electric fields
- electric signals due to electron and ion motion
- Simplest way to generate high fields: wires. However, the present-day detectors use more intricate electrodes.

Micromegas

Fast, rate tolerant tracking device

1994: Yannis Giomataris and Georges Charpak



A mesh – holes of $30 \,\mu m$



Yannis Giomataris

(every 2mm, 100µm diam)

GEMs



A few electrons enter here





Many electrons exit here

Fabio Sauli

[Four Curies: Pierre, Marie, Irène and Pierre's father, around 1904 at the BIPM]

1896: Ionisation by radiation

Early in the study of radioactivity, ionisation by radiation was recognised:

"Becquerel discovered in 1896 the special radiating properties of uranium and its compounds. Uranium emits very weak rays which leave an impression on photographic plates. These rays pass through black paper and metals; they make air electrically conductive."

[Pierre Curie, Nobel Lecture, June 6th 1905]

"A sphere of charged uranium, which discharges spontaneously in the air under the influence of its own radiation, retains its charge in an absolute vacuum. The exchanges of electrical charges that take place between charged bodies under the influence of the new rays, are the result of a special conductivity imparted to the surrounding gases, a conductivity that persists for several moments after the radiation has ceased to act."

[Antoine Henri Becquerel, Nobel Lecture, December 11th 1903]



IBF Measurements at CERN

- Systematic measurements at RD51 lab. in CERN.
 - Field dependence (ΔV_{GEM} , T1, T2, Induction)
 - Rate, x-ray position dependence (charge current density)



[Slide made by Taku Gunji]

Herbert Kliem

Kohlrausch relaxation



Hopping model (3d, MC) including Coulomb force of neighbouring ions, *mirror charges* and external field.



De-excitation











References:

D. Coster and R. de L. Kronig, Physica 2 (1935) 13-24.

Lise Meitner, Über die β-Strahl-Spektra und ihren Zusammenhang mit der γ-Strahlung, Z. Phys. 11 (1922) 35-54.

L. Meitner, *Das* β -*Strahlenspektrum von UX*, *und seine Deutung*, Z. Phys. **17** (1923) 54-66.

P. Auger, J. Phys. Radium 6 (1925) 205.

Which shells matter ?





Wade Allison

John Cobb

All electron orbitals (shells) participate:

outer shells: frequent interactions, few electrons;

inner shells: few interactions, many electrons.



$V_{\text{GEM}} = 220 \text{ V} \text{ and } V_{\text{GEM}} = 300 \text{ V}$



$V_{\text{GEM}} = 400 \text{ V} \text{ and } V_{\text{GEM}} = 500 \text{ V}$



Space-charge simulations: Method

- \blacktriangleright Slice the space in drift direction by 100 $\mu{\rm m}$
- Uniformly distribute ions in space $z \in [Z, Z + 100 \mu m]$
- Calculate the field by ANSYS and evaluate gain/IBF by Garfield++
- Example of the field around GEM1 with N_{ions}=0, 10⁵, 10⁶ with E_{drift}=0.4kV/cm. less IBF with huge N_{ions}?



[Slide made by Taku Gunji]

Space-charge above a double GEM

- Ions at z ∈ [0, 100 µm] above GEM2;
 Gain changes by a factor 2: smaller
 - electron collection losses at GEM1 ?
- ▶ IBF decreases from ~5 10^4 ions/½ hole,





Note: N_{ions} is expressed in ions / ½ hole [Slide: Taku Gunji]

Drift plane

GEM1

GEM2

PADs

Penning mechanism (cont'd)

Once produced, the excited noble gas atom can: decay (cascade towards a radiative or metastable, which may or may not ionise); independent of the quencher concentration collide and ionise a quencher molecule; linear in the quencher concentration form a molecular ion or an excimer (usually not) capable of ionising) linear resp. quadratic in the pressure.

Hence, except at high pressure, the transfer probability should rise with the quencher concentration.