

Cryogenic Detectors for Non-Accelerator Particle and Nuclear Physics

Sunil Golwala

2012/02/23

2012 EDIT School

Overview

Motivation

Basic physics, history, and applications of cryogenic detectors

Thermal phonons

Athermal phonons

Ionization and scintillation

Motivation

Consider a conventional ionization detector:

Photon (or charged particle)
enters the detection medium
and creates ionization

photons:

photoelectric absorption

Compton scattering

pair creation

results in energetic free electrons
(and maybe positrons)

heavy neutral particles

nuclear scattering results in a
recoiling nucleus

all charged particles create ionization

in a semiconductor: electron-hole pairs

Note also the phonons...

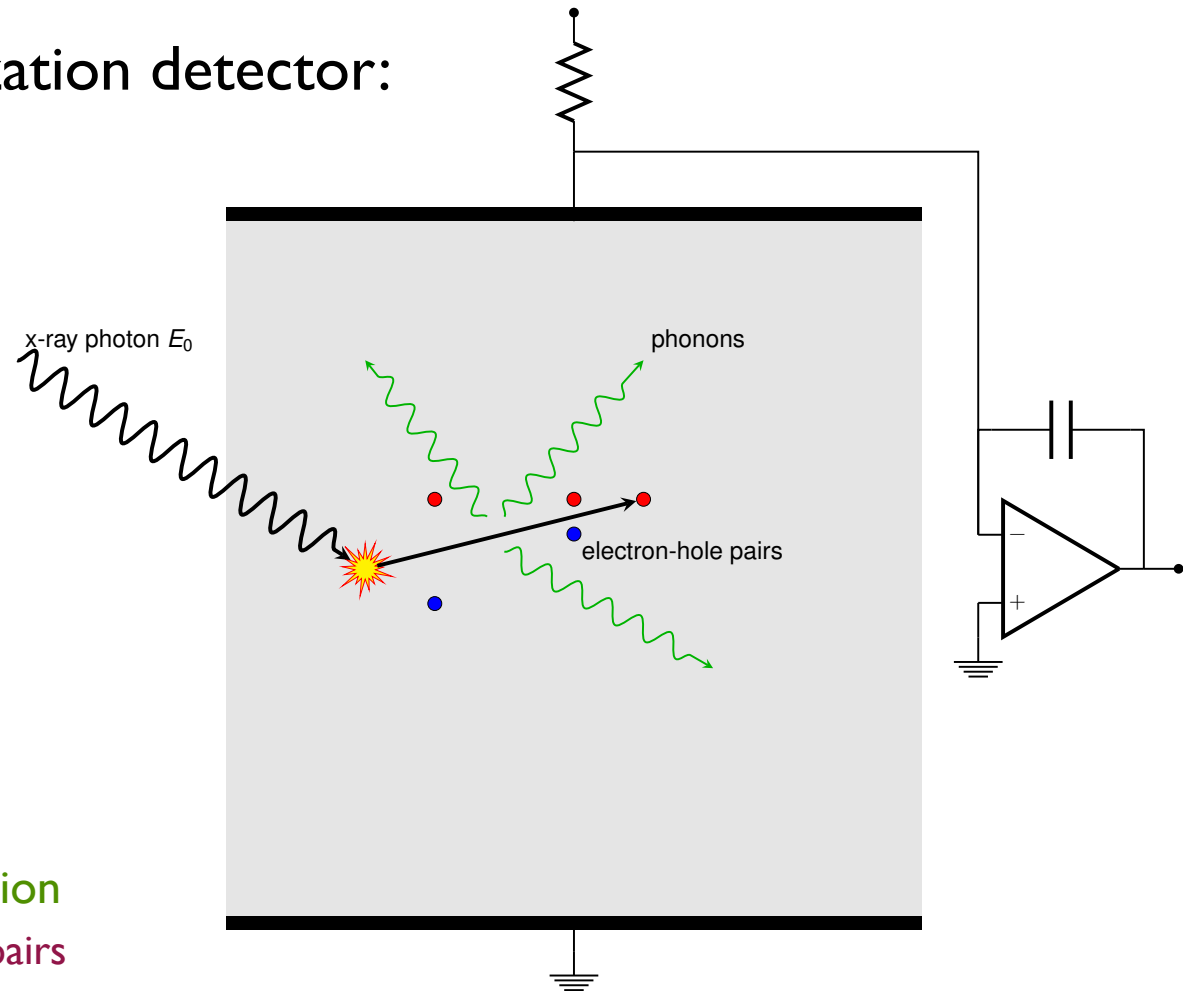


Figure by G. Hilton

Electron-hole pairs drifted in electric field to electrodes and current integrated

Scintillation detector:

scintillation photons emitted and collected by photodetector of some kind

Motivation: Counting Statistics

Limitations of conventional detectors

Simple counting statistics:

semiconducting detectors: $\sim 3\text{-}5$ eV required to create an e-h pair $\rightarrow 300$ pairs/keV

scintillation detectors: 20-40 eV per scintillation photon + quantum efficiency of photodetector $\rightarrow$ few photoelectrons/keV

For keV energy depositions, $\sigma_E/E \sim 5\%$ to 50%! Poor energy resolution at low energies.

Typically $\sigma_E/E \sim 1/\sqrt{E}$, so % levels at 100 keV for semiconductors, 1 MeV for scintillators.

Fano factor actually improves this somewhat; $F = 0.1$ in Si and Ge. [PDG]

But assumes no interesting physics:

- ionization trapping

- dead layers

- secondary excitation mechanisms that inflate fluctuations, etc. (e.g., LXe)

Further aggravated for particles that scatter with nuclei:

Quenching of ionization or scintillation for nuclear recoils can be $QF = 3$ to 10 or worse

σ_E/E scales as $\sqrt{QF}$

How to beat these limits?

- Use a smaller quantum: smaller ΔE to produce a single “energy carrier”

- Use a quantum whose production is independent of recoil type.

Motivation: Smaller Quanta

Smaller quanta: phonons and superconducting quasiparticles

Phonons: quantized crystal acoustic vibrations.

Energy scale set by Debye temperature and operating temperature

e.g., germanium: Debye temperature = 360K, energy = 31 meV

1K operating temperature $\rightarrow$ 86 μ eV

Superconductors have energy scale set by critical temperature

Pair-breaking energy: energy required to break a Cooper pair to create two quasiparticles (“qps”, $\sim$ free electrons) with energy Δ above Fermi level: $E = 2 \Delta = 3.52 k T_c = 300 \mu$ eV

Clearly, one can beat the counting statistics problem

Phonon and qp production:

What happens when energy is deposited in a material is very complex

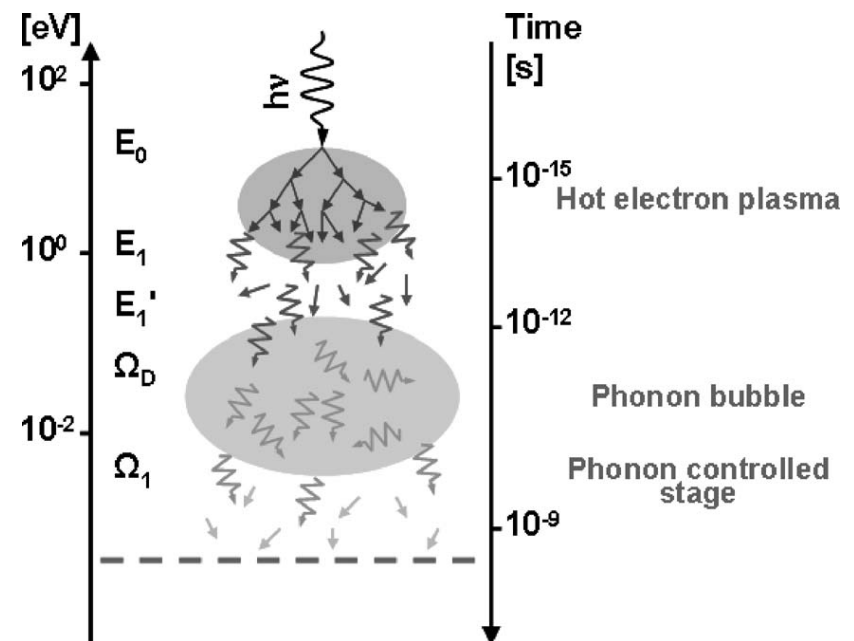
Even for MIP, energy is deposited in a hot plasma of electronic excitations:

MIP in silicon deposits 0.5 eV/nm

1 eV/particle = 11000 K!

This cloud radiates phonons up to $> E_{\text{debye}}$

In SC, phonons break Cooper pairs too.



Kozorezov et al PRB: 75, 094513 (2007)

Motivation: Independence of Particle Type

Energy scale of e-h pair/phonon cloud $\gg$ thermal phonon, qp energies

Phonon and qp production to first order do not care where the energy came from;
knowledge of high energy scale processes are lost

Absolutely true for thermal phonons and thermal qp's; mostly true for athermals

All the energy eventually goes into phonons:

ionization:

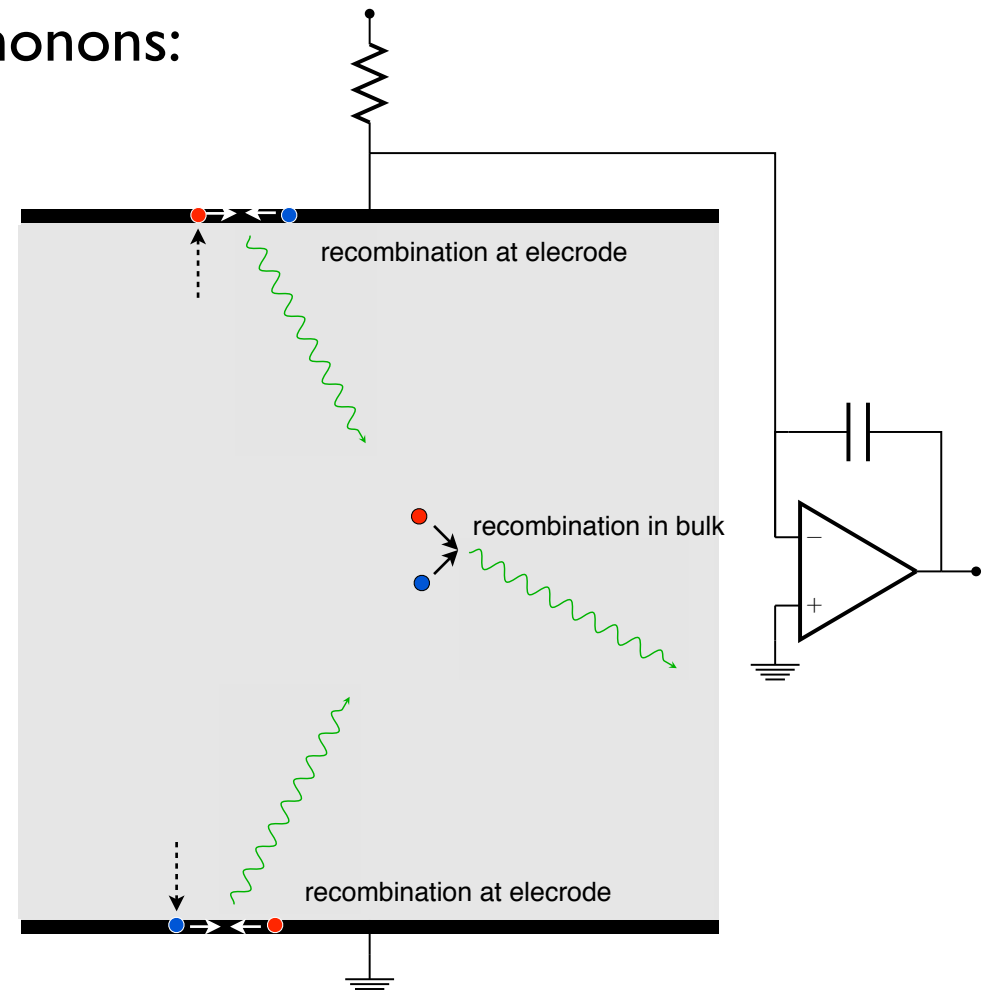
e-h pairs recombine in bulk or at the
electrodes and radiate recombination
phonons: recovers gap energy

though charge trapping and permanent
crystal defect creation will also
cause some loss of energy

scintillation:

scintillation photons escape and their
energy is lost (or detected externally)

but scintillation photons (~ 1 -few eV)
carry a small fraction of energy
needed to create them (20-40 eV/ph);
the remainder goes into phonons



Motivation: Independence of Particle Type

Energy scale of e-h pair/phonon cloud $\gg$ thermal phonon, qp energies

Phonon and qp production to first order do not care where the energy came from;
knowledge of high energy scale processes are lost

Absolutely true for thermal phonons and thermal qp's; mostly true for athermals

All the energy eventually goes into phonons:

superconductor

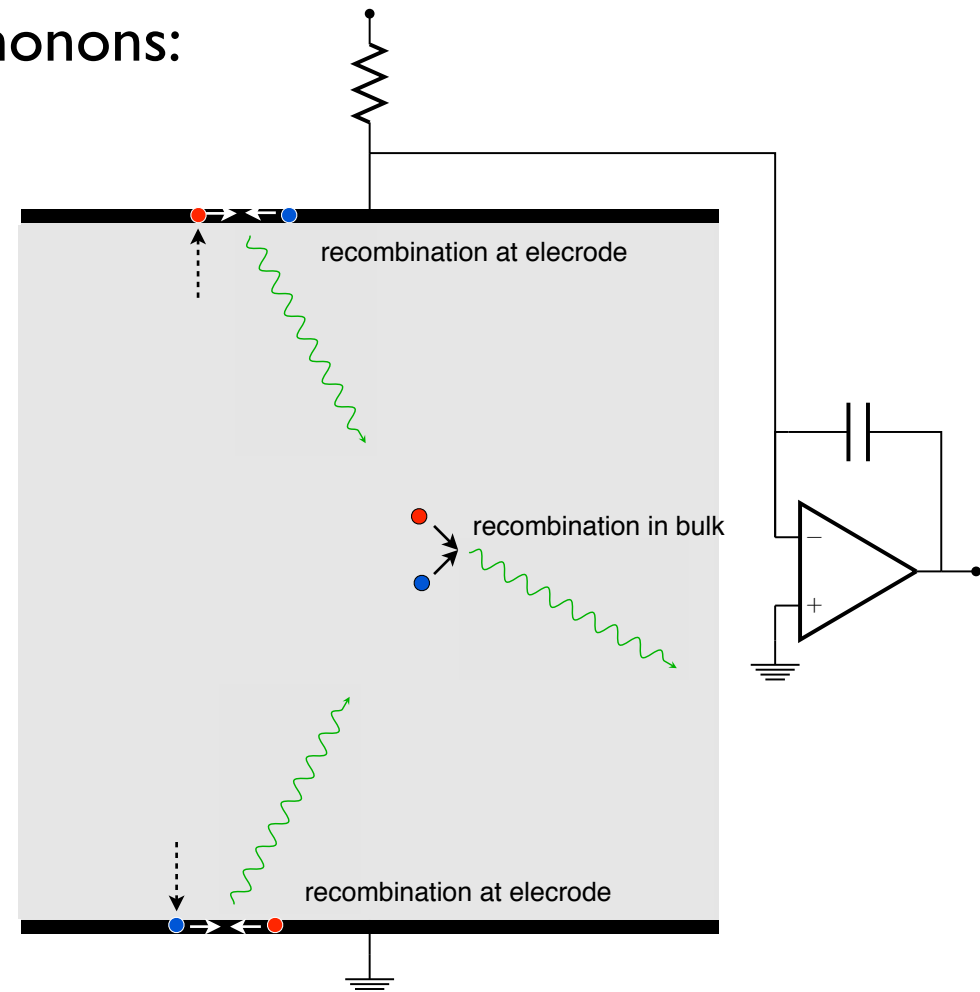
Once quasiparticles created, they
diffuse (cannot be drifted)

But otherwise similar to e-h pairs:

can recombine if they find another qp
in bulk or at surfaces

will eventually decay and emit energy in
phonons

even if trapped, usually will decay and
emit energy in phonons, though
timescale may be long



Physics of Thermal Phonon Detectors

Very simple: just measure the rise and decay of temperature of absorber

“Thermodynamic Limit”: calculate variance of energy content of absorber in canonical ensemble (e.g., Kittel). Yields:

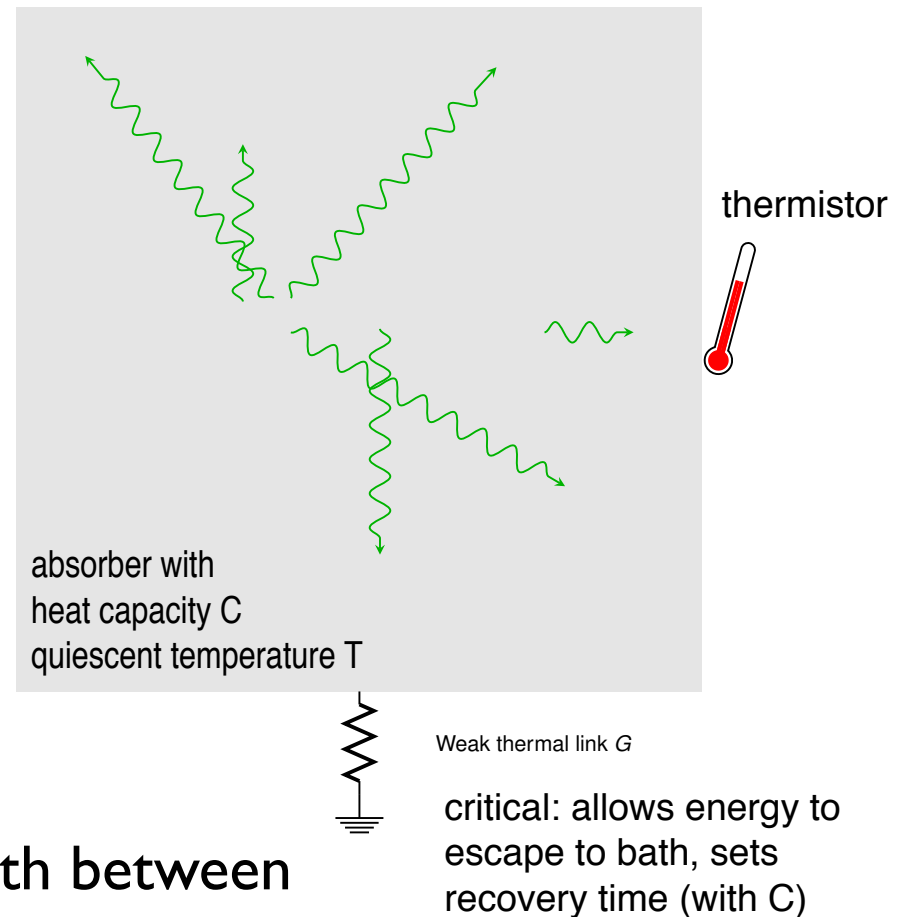
$$\sigma_E^2 = k_B T^2 C$$

C = heat capacity, T = temperature

Cause of fluctuations: stochastic

“bouncing around” of absorber and bath between microstates around mean energy. The fractional fluctuations go as $1/\sqrt{C}$ because by standard Poisson fluctuation argument: C gives the number of modes that can carry energy.

But this argument is wrong.



Physics of Thermal Phonon Detectors

Must think in terms of power flows. Absorber obeys:

$$C \frac{d\delta T}{dt} = \frac{dE}{dt} = P(t) - G \delta T$$

Energy content fluctuations related to temperature fluctuations and C

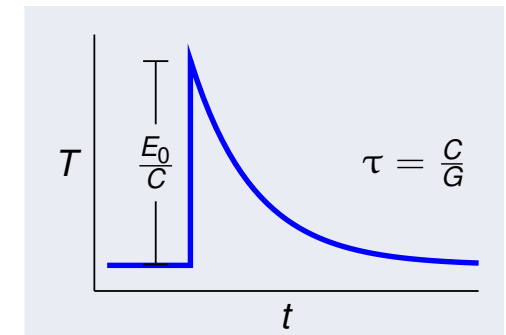
Rate of change of energy content of absorber

Input power e.g., $P(t) = E_0 \delta(t)$ for event of energy E_0

Power flow out through weak thermal link due to fluctuation of temperature away from mean value

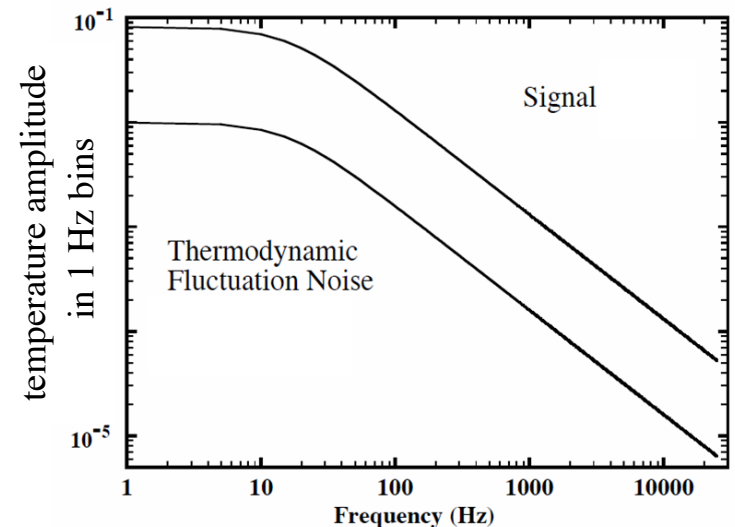
Response to a δ -function energy deposition E_0 is

Like a RC circuit, $R = 1/G$: $\delta T(t) = \frac{E_0}{C} \exp(-t/\tau) \quad \tau = \frac{C}{G}$



The fluctuations causing σ_E (“thermodynamic fluctuation noise”) are similar in flavor: they are due to stochastic energy transfer back and forth with bath via G (phonons)

But S/N ratio in frequency space is then fixed. With infinite detector bandwidth, get infinite signal to noise!

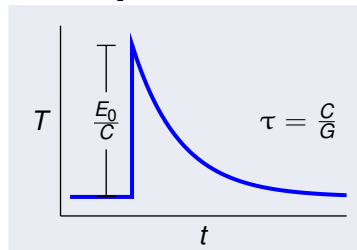


McCammon

Physics of Thermal Phonon Detectors

In reality, what limits S/N is the noise of the thermistor being used to measure the temperature and the microphysics of thermalization:

red: pulse
rising edge
not infinitely
sharp (as
we will see), results in add'l
time constants and rolloff
of signal

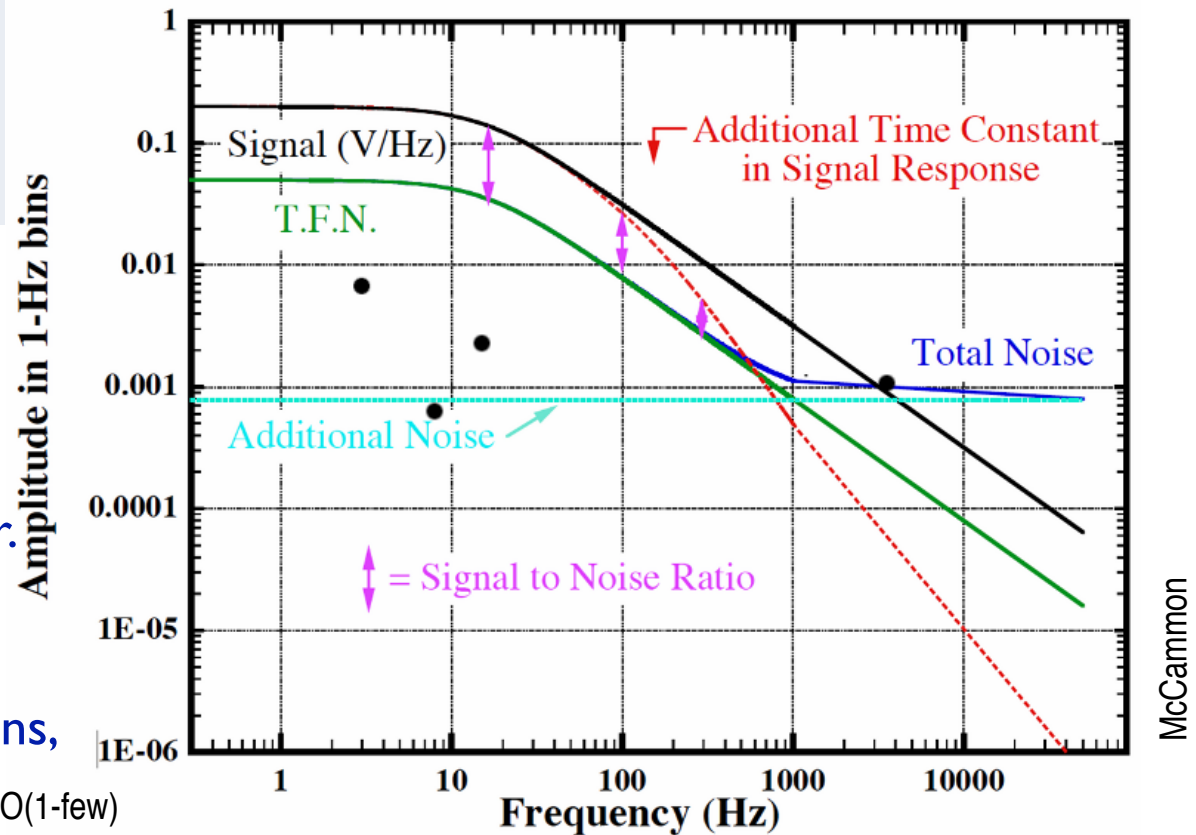


cyan: readout noise; e.g.,
Johnson noise of a thermistor.
Usually white, limits useful
signal bandwidth

For range of readout assumptions,

$$\sigma_E^2 = \xi^2 kT [T C(T) + \beta E] \quad \xi = O(1\text{-few})$$

2nd term = phonon counting statistics, becomes appreciable
when fractional energy/temperature change approaches 1



e.g. germanium, using Debye

$$\sigma_E = 5.2\xi \text{ eV at } 10 \text{ mK!}$$

$$C = \frac{12\pi^4}{5} N k \left(\frac{T}{\Theta_D} \right)^3$$

In practice, lose ~x5-10 from thermistor C and Joule power dissipation, excess
readout noise, etc.

History

Clearly, energy resolution and low threshold are the advantages.
First applications considered: coherent scattering of MeV ν ,
neutrinoless double beta decay, dark matter:

Drukier and Stodolsky, “Principles and Applications of a Neutral Current Detector for Neutrino Physics and Astronomy”, PRD 30: 2295 (1984)

Metastable superconducting grains for MeV neutrinos

Fiorini and Niinikoski, “Low-Temperature Calorimetry for Rare Decays”, NIM 224:83 (1984)

Neutrinoless double-beta decay and electron decay.

Goodman and Witten, “Detectability of Certain Dark Matter Candidates”, PRD 31: 3059 (1985):

Applies Drukier and Stodolsky to WIMP dark matter detection: low threshold critical

Cabrera, Krauss, and Wilczek, “Bolometric Detection of Neutrinos”, PRL 55: 25 (1985)

True bolometric detection.

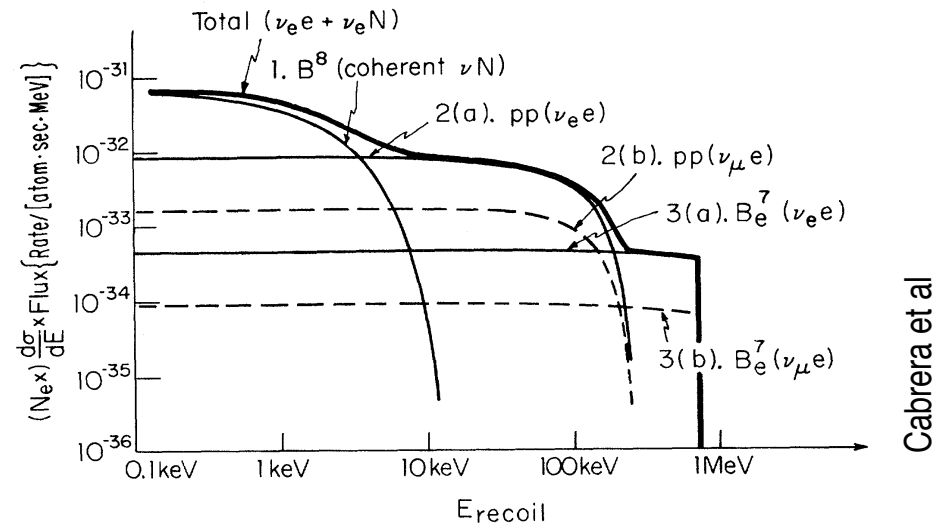


FIG. 1. Event rate vs recoil energy for solar- ν spectra. in silicon

History

First demonstrations

Niinikoski et al., “Heat capacity of a silicon calorimeter at low temperatures measured by alpha-particles”,
Europhys. Lett. 1:499 (1986)

Wang et al., “Particle detection with semiconductor thermistors at low temperatures”,
IEEE Trans. Nucl. Sci. 36: 852 (1989).

X-ray astronomy: provides grating-spectrometer resolution but with high QE; useful for fine structure of X-ray lines, velocity structure, esp. ^{55}Fe in accretion disks around black holes

Moseley, Mather, and McCammon,
“Thermal Detectors as X-ray Spectrometers”,
J. Appl. Phys. 56: 1257 (1984).

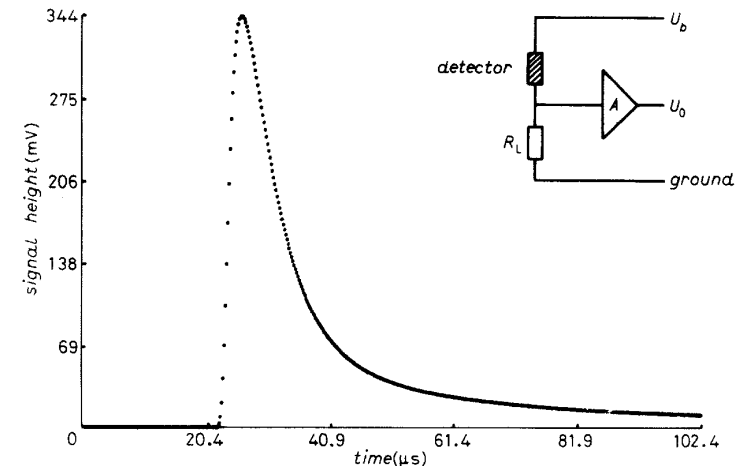


Fig. 2. – A typical pulse (at 500 mK). In the inset, the input circuit.

Niinikoski et al 1986

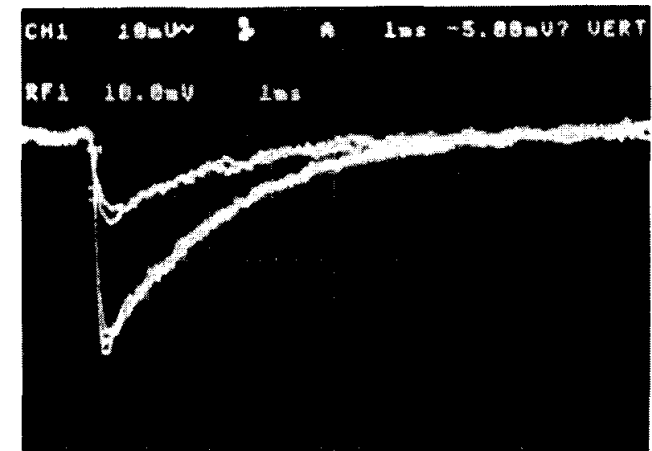


Figure 4. Pulses from X-rays of ^{241}Am incident on thermistor b at 18 mK. We chose typical pulses corresponding to the two peaks shown in Figure 5. The vertical scale is 100 $\mu\text{V}/\text{div}$, and the horizontal scale is 1 ms/div.

Wang et al 1989

Application Examples: Thermal Phonons

Neutrinoless Double Beta Decay: CUORE

Te as decay isotope, in TeO_2 crystals

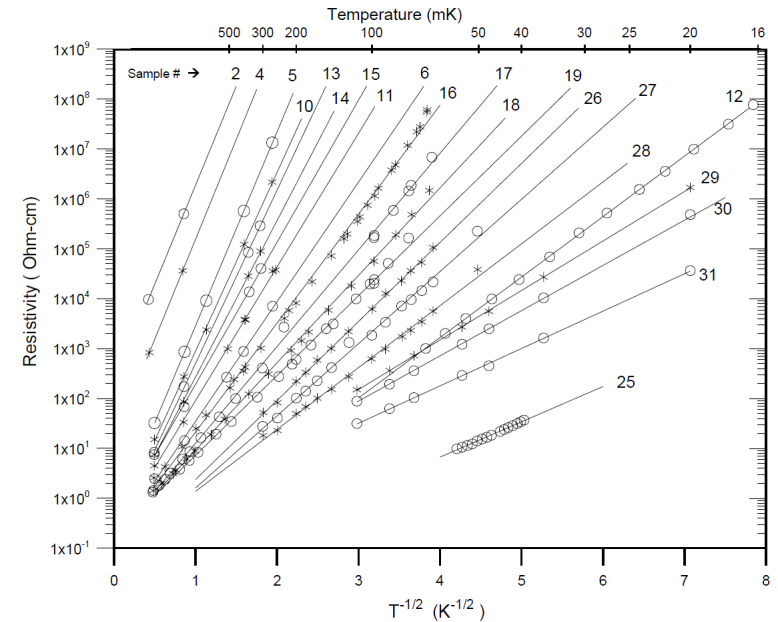
Thermometry by neutron transmutation
doped (NTD) germanium thermistors

NTD converts Ge to Ga using neutron capture
near a reactor; very uniform doping gives dR/dT

JFET voltage amplifier readout

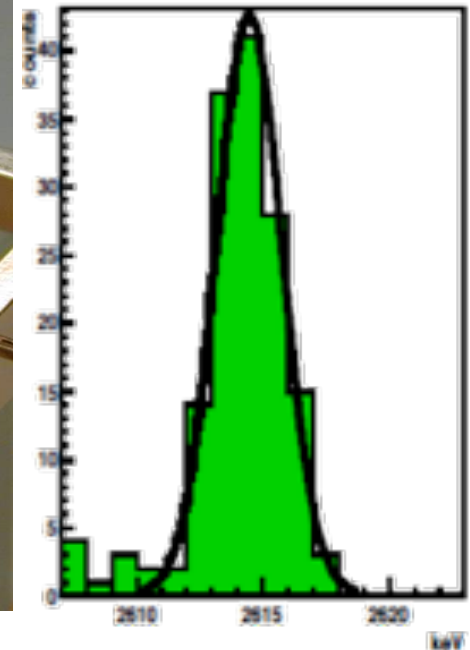
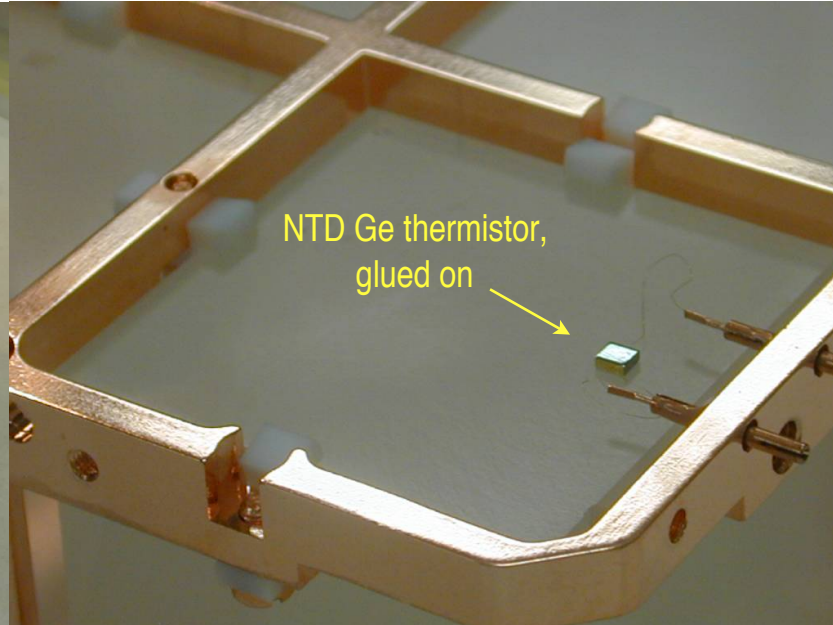
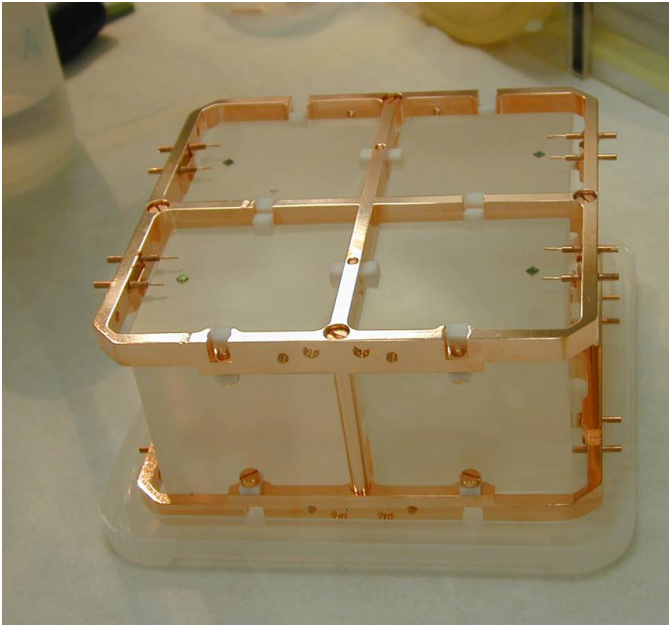
Source/absorber: 0.75 kg TeO_2 crystal, $5 \times 5 \times 5 \text{ cm}^3$

12 kg near-term, 200 kg long-term; 10 mK



E Haller, J Beeman

FWHM = 3.1 keV at 2615 keV



Application Examples: Thermal Phonons

Neutrino Beta Decay Endpoint: MARE

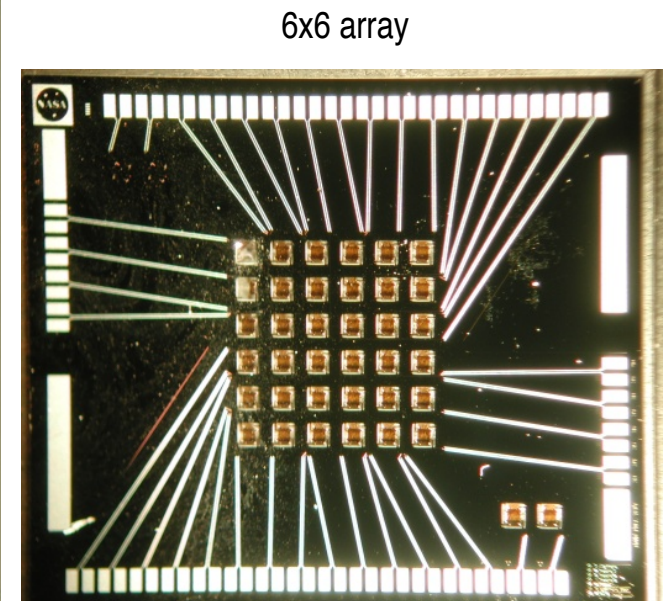
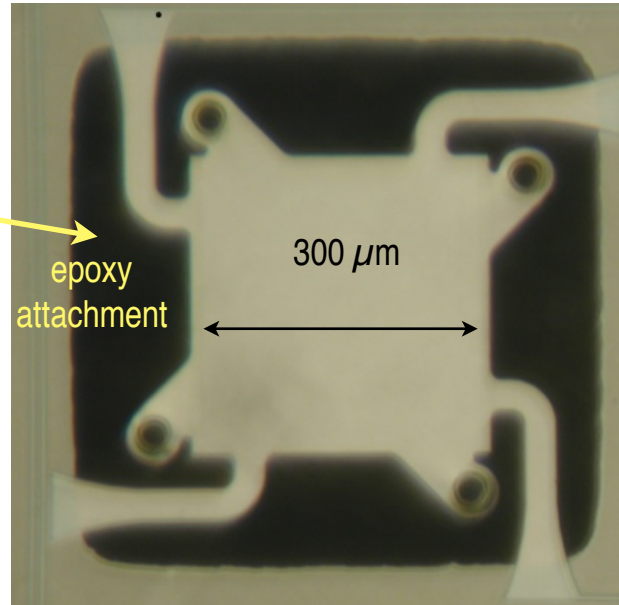
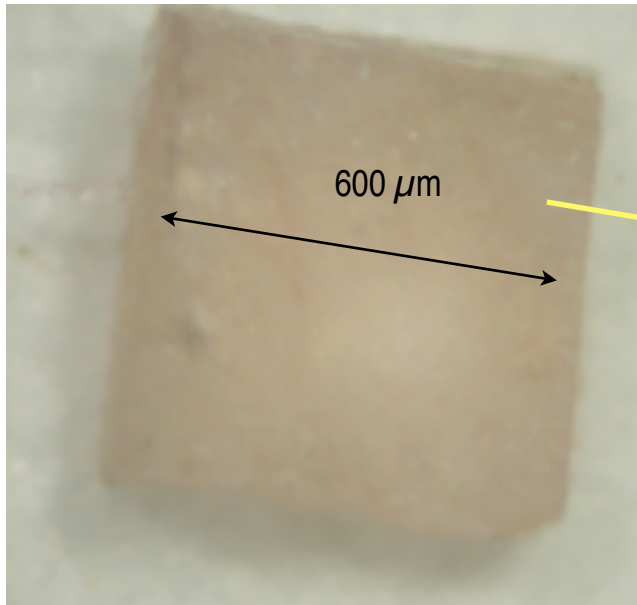
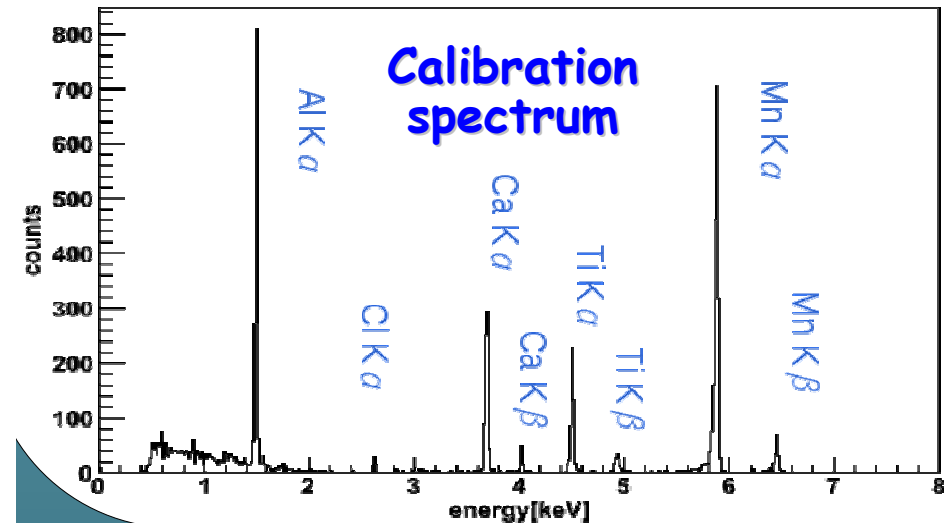
^{187}Re b-decay, $E_0 = 2.47$ keV

Source material: $600 \times 600 \times 250 \text{ } \mu\text{m}^3$,
500 μg AgReO_4 xtals

Thermistor: $300 \times 300 \times 1.5 \text{ } \mu\text{m}^3$
Si:P semiconducting

FWHM = 33 eV at 2.6 keV

$\tau = 500 \text{ } \mu\text{s}$ (sets count rate $\rightarrow$
decay statistics)



Applications Examples: CRESST I

Uses “superconducting phase transition”
thermometer or “transition-edge sensor”
(SPT, TES)

Sharper dR/dT than thermistors $\rightarrow$ more sensitivity

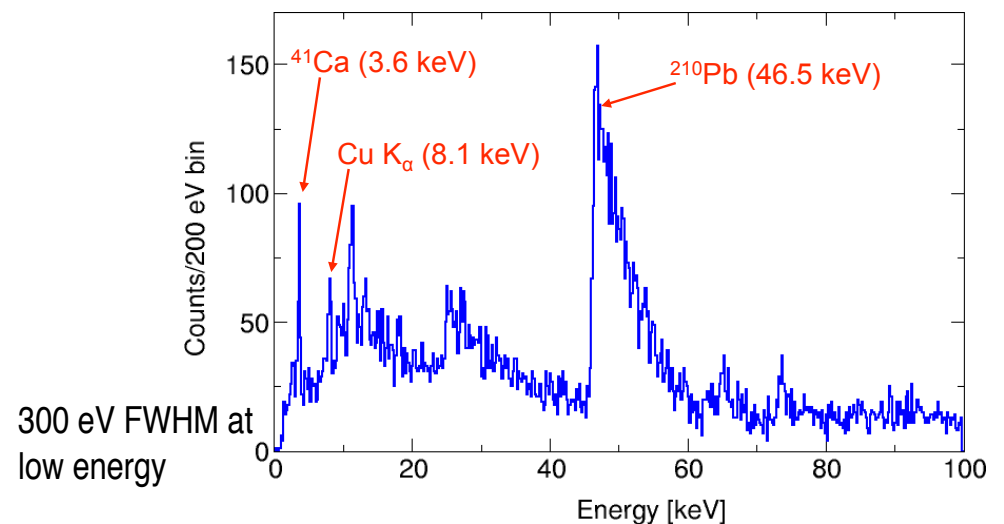
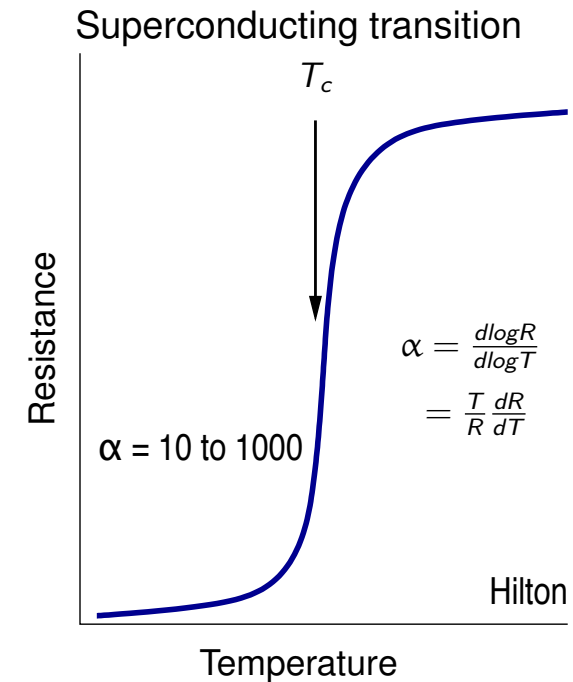
Thin film fabrication directly on substrate:

simple W thermometer

Au heater to apply feedback heating

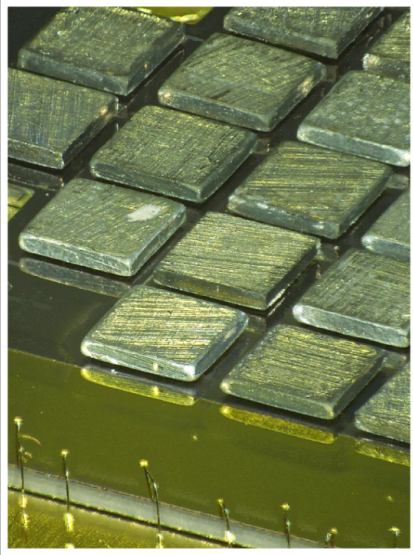
300 g CaWO_4 substrate, 10 mK

$\alpha \sim 10$

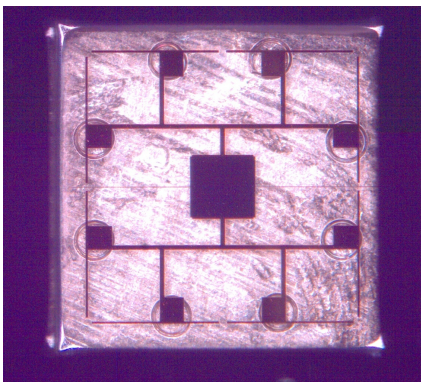
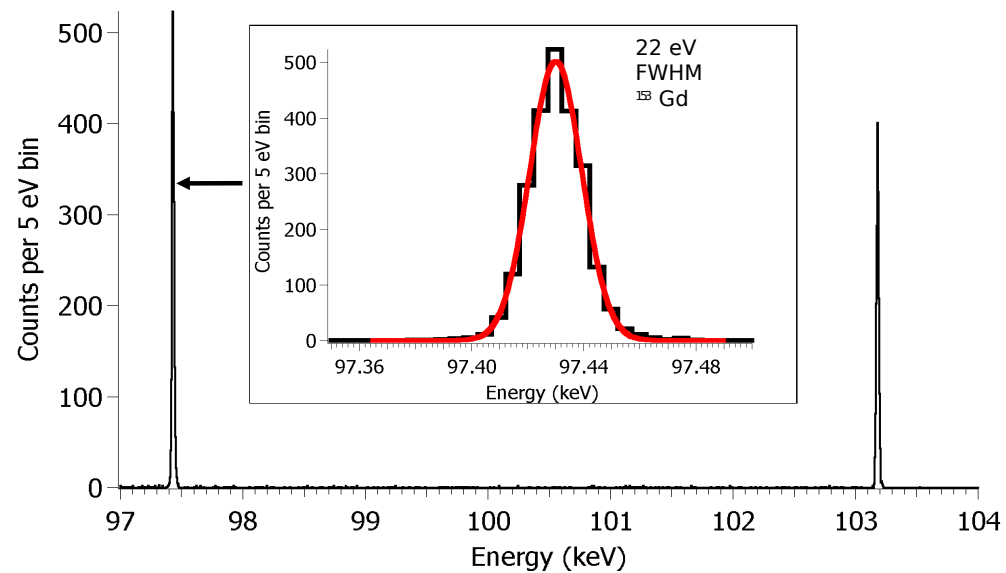


Applications Examples: Gamma-Ray Spectroscopy

Nuclear non-proliferation via gamma-ray spectroscopy. 0.02%@100 keV!



Tin absorbers
attached to TESs



Motivation for Athermal Phonon Detectors

For thermal phonon detectors, $\sigma_E \propto \sqrt{C} \propto \sqrt{M}$

Does not scale well with mass

In principle, no position information

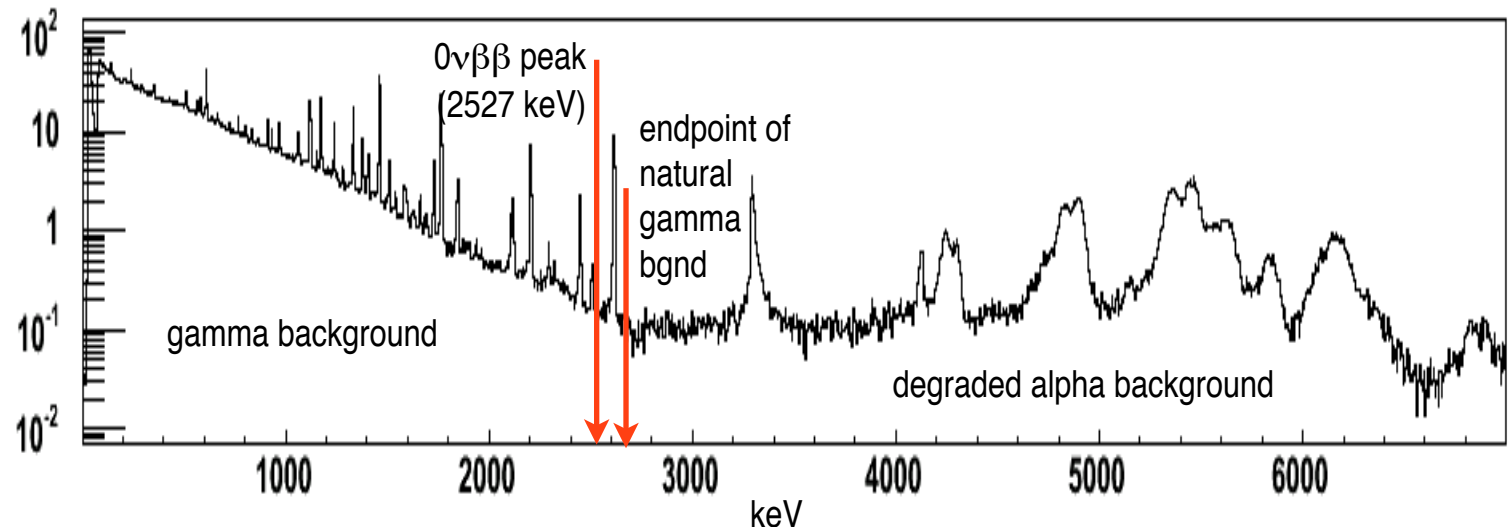
In practice, enough variation of thermal pulse shape with position to degrade energy resolution at higher energies, $\sigma_E \propto E$, but no information to use to correct!

Problematic backgrounds are usually more prevalent at detector surface

e.g., CDMS II: surface events due to electrons impinging on the detectors, penetrate only 10s of μm into 1-cm thick detector

e.g., CUORE: degraded alpha decays overlap ROI for $0\nu\beta\beta$ decay

Athermal
phonons
can solve
these
problems



Physics of Athermal Phonons

How to get from the hot bubble of ionization to thermal phonons?

Hot bubble radiates phonons like crazy

But there are scattering mechanisms:

Isotopic scattering: lattice ions vary in atomic mass, $\tau = 0.41 \mu\text{s} (\nu/1 \text{ THz})^{-4}$ in Si.

Elastic: phonon energy unchanged, but direction changes.

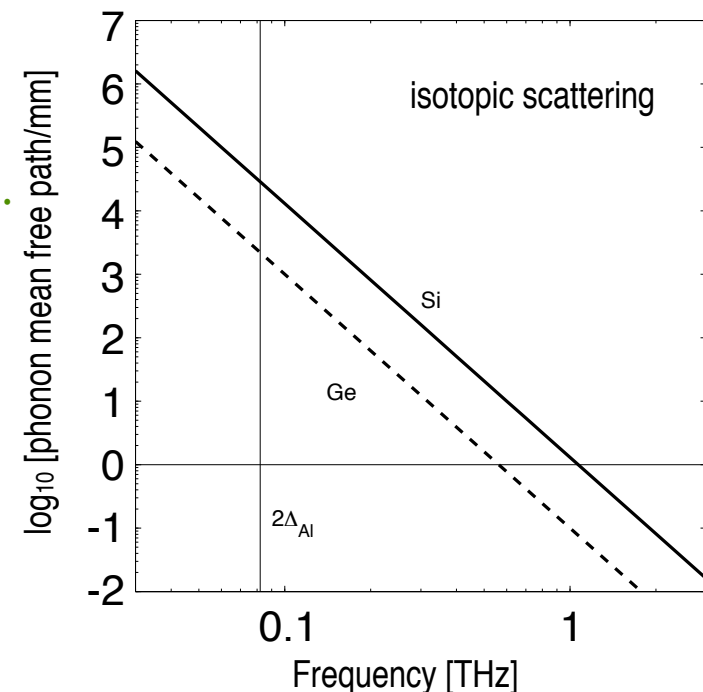
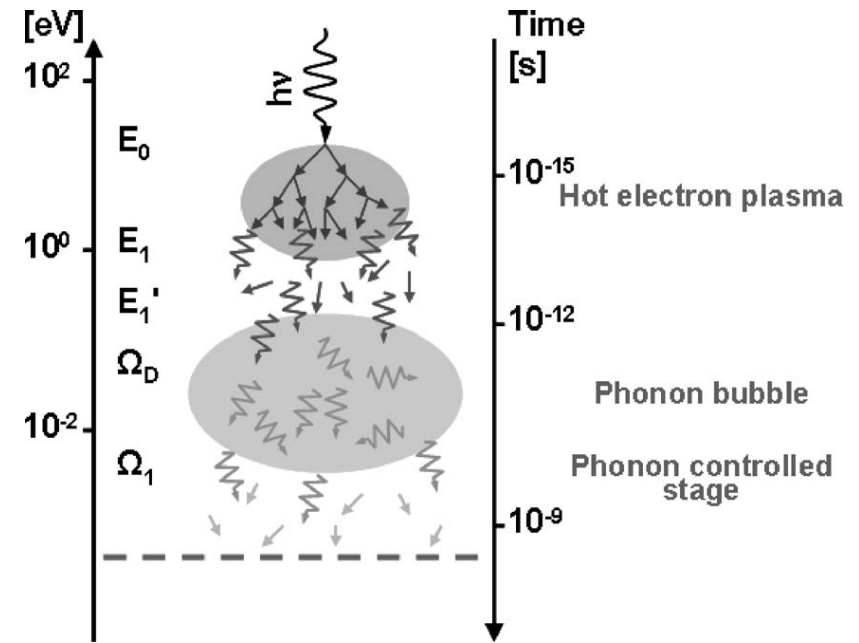
Anharmonic scattering: restoring forces for ions are not perfectly simple harmonic. $\tau = 10 \mu\text{s} (\nu/1 \text{ THz})^{-5}$ in Si.

Inelastic: phonon splits into two lower energy phonons (and direction changes).

Isotopic decay prevents propagation outside of phonon bubble until $\nu < 1 \text{ THz}$ (4 meV).

Anharmonic decay promotes downconversion, causing increase of mean free path to $\sim 1 \text{ cm}$ after $\sim 10 \mu\text{s}$, can propagate, “ballistic”.

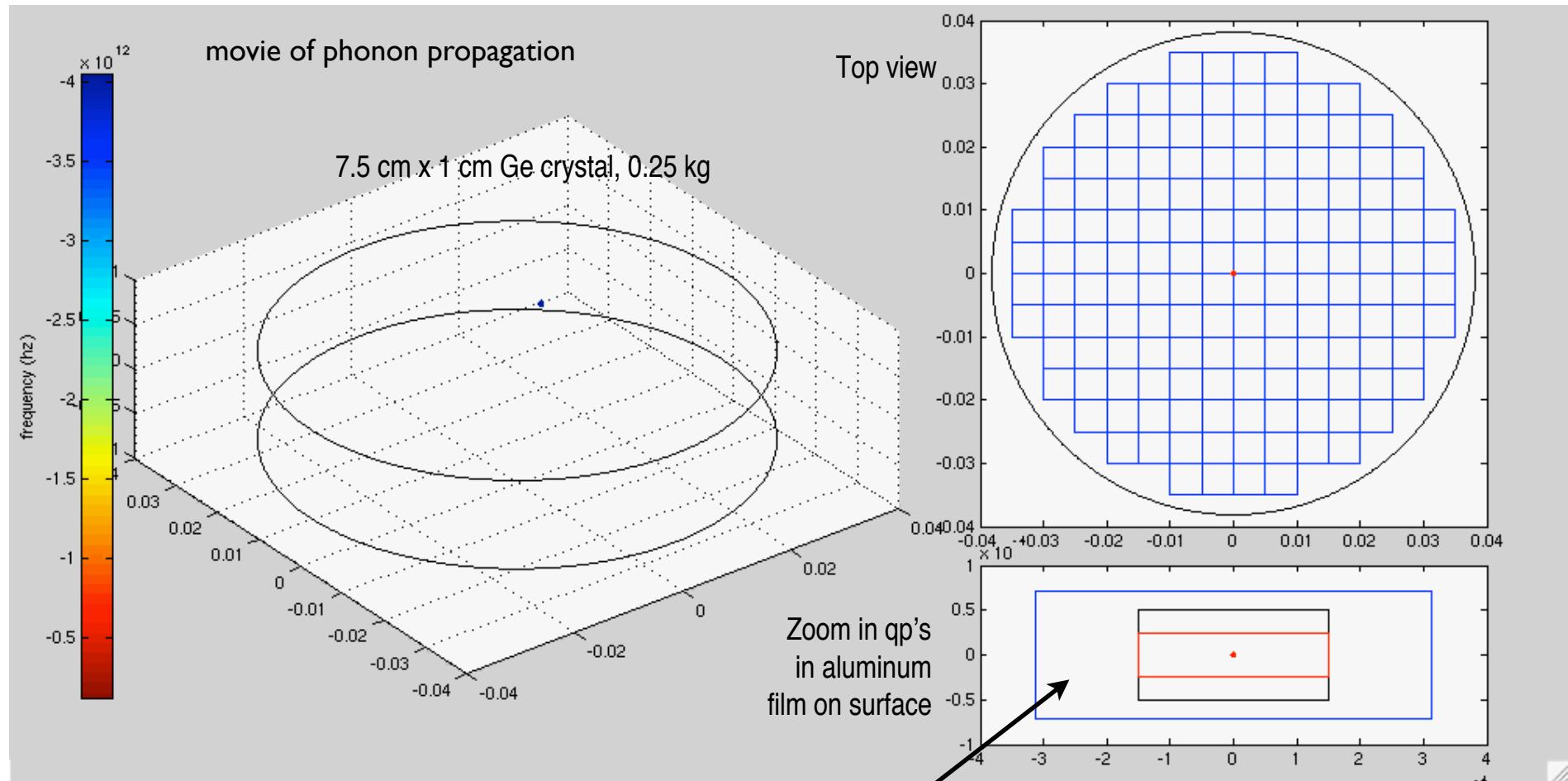
Many ms before phonons reach thermal energies (10 μeV , $\sim 2 \text{ GHz}$). Lots of time!



Mandic, after Wolfe and Clarke

Kozorezov et al PRB: 75, 094513 (2007)

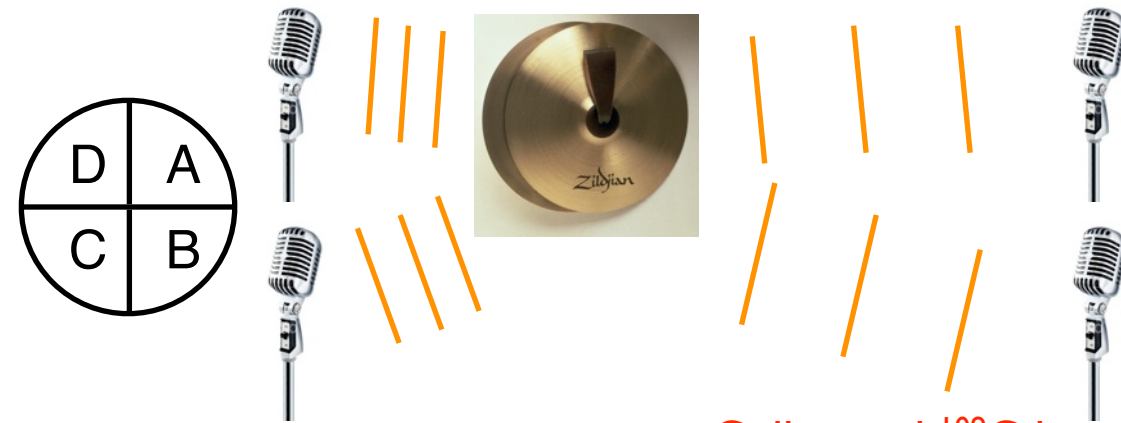
Physics of Athermal Phonons



How to detect?

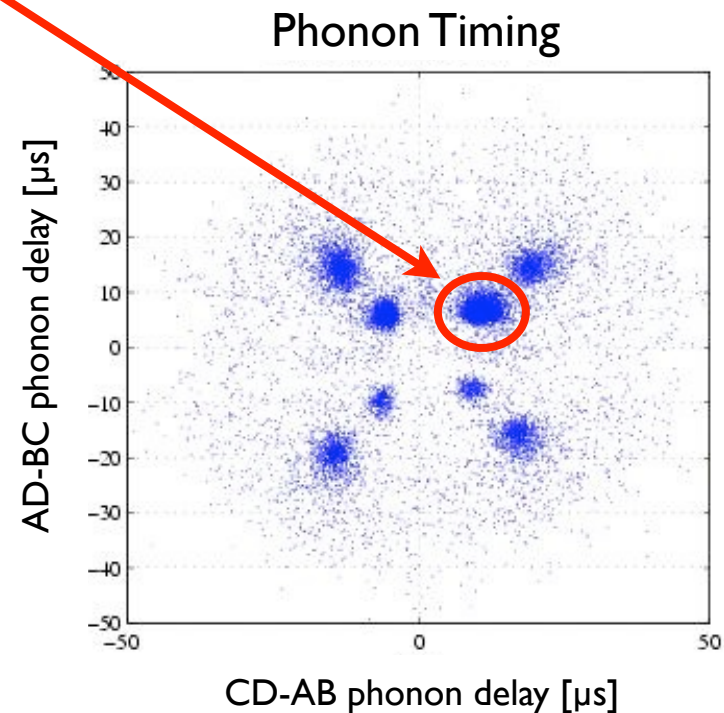
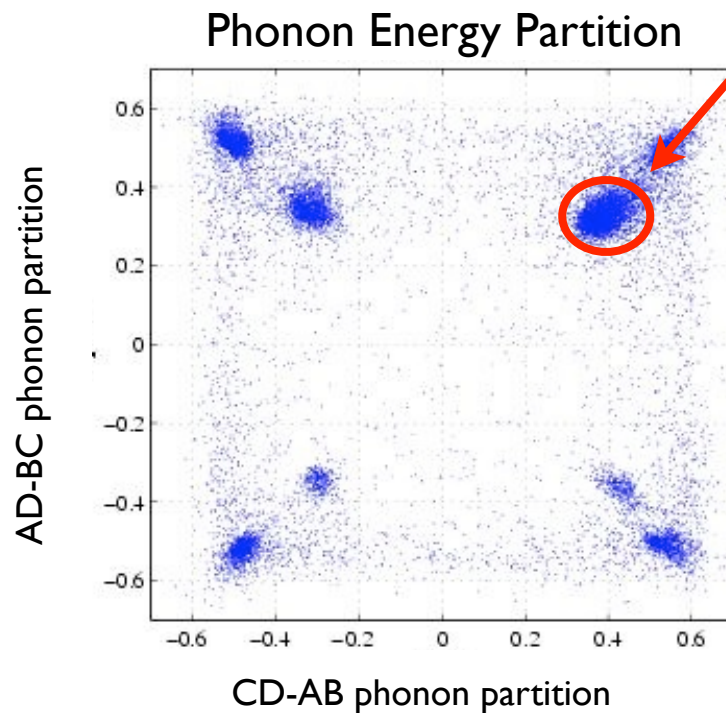
Absorb them in a superconductor ($2\Delta \sim 0.1 \text{ THz} \sim 400 \mu\text{eV}$) at the surface (converts phonons to quasiparticles) and then detect them there using qp detector (TES, MKID, etc.). Position resolved detection important!

Application Example: CDMS II



Sound speed $\sim 1 \text{ cm}/\mu\text{s}$
Allows one to measure
position using arrival times
and energy sharing among
4 phonon sensors on surface

Collimated ^{109}Cd sources (β , 22 keV γ)



Data from UC Berkeley calibration of T2Z5, née G3 I
V. Mandic et al., NIM A **520**, 171 (2004)

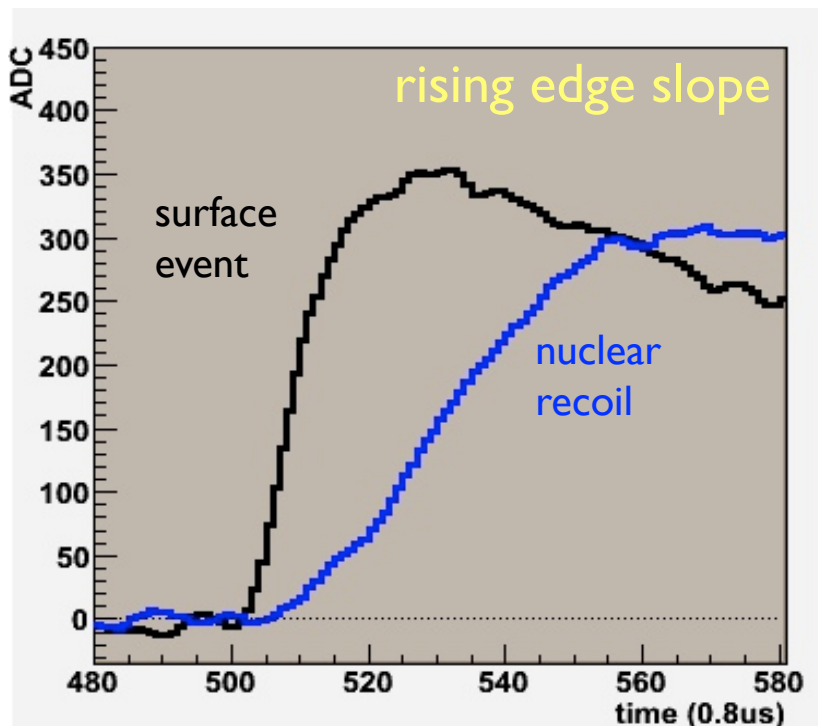
Application Example: CDMS II

Z-position sensitivity:

Surface events produce faster phonon pulses

Why? Surface, esp. metal films, promote downconversion to ballistic phonons.

Additional position information from athermal phonons.

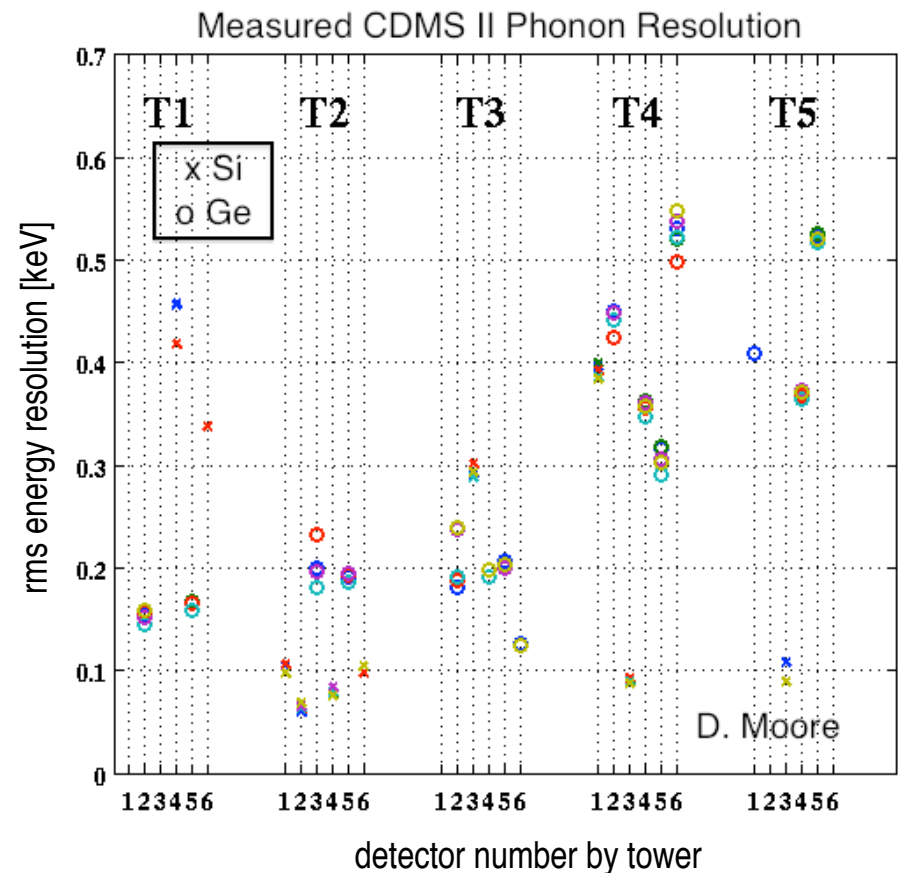


Energy sensitivity is exquisite:

σ_E as good as 0.1 keV when fabrication is well controlled

But position variation causes degradation:

FWHM = 0.4 keV @ 10.4 keV



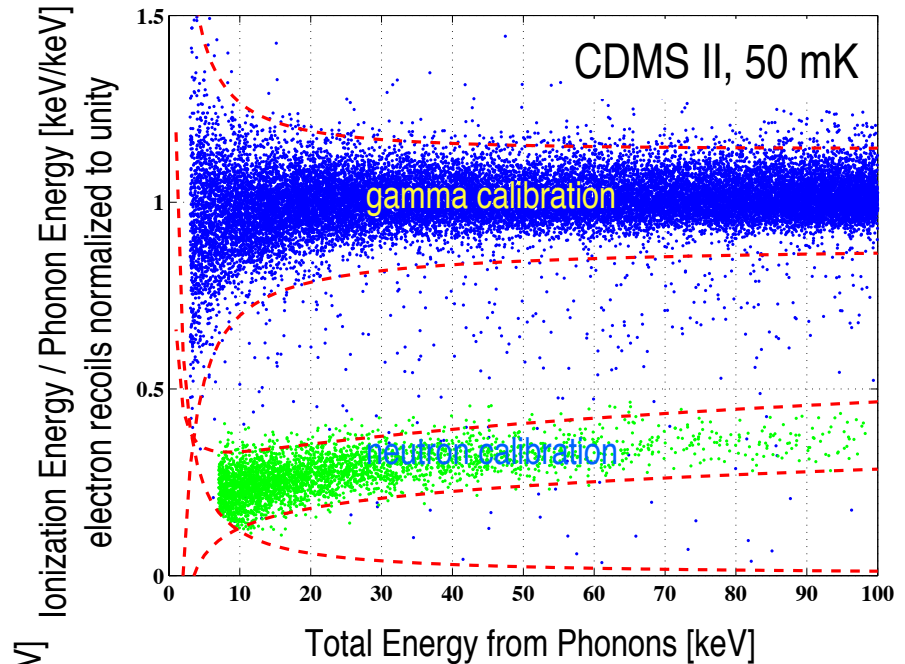
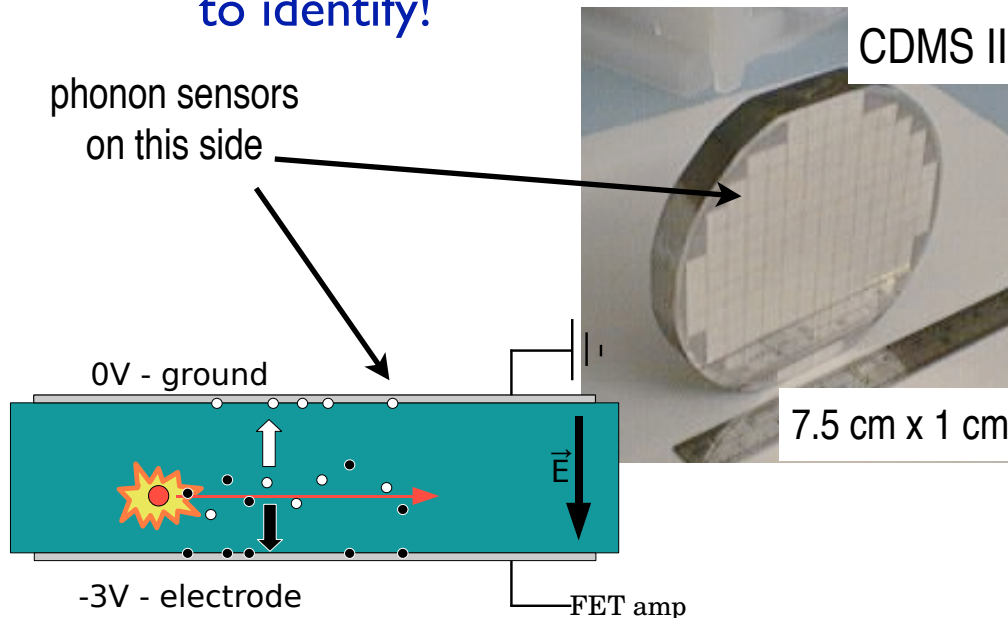
Cryogenic Ionization and Scintillation: Motivation

Or, making quenching your friend
Nuclear recoil discrimination

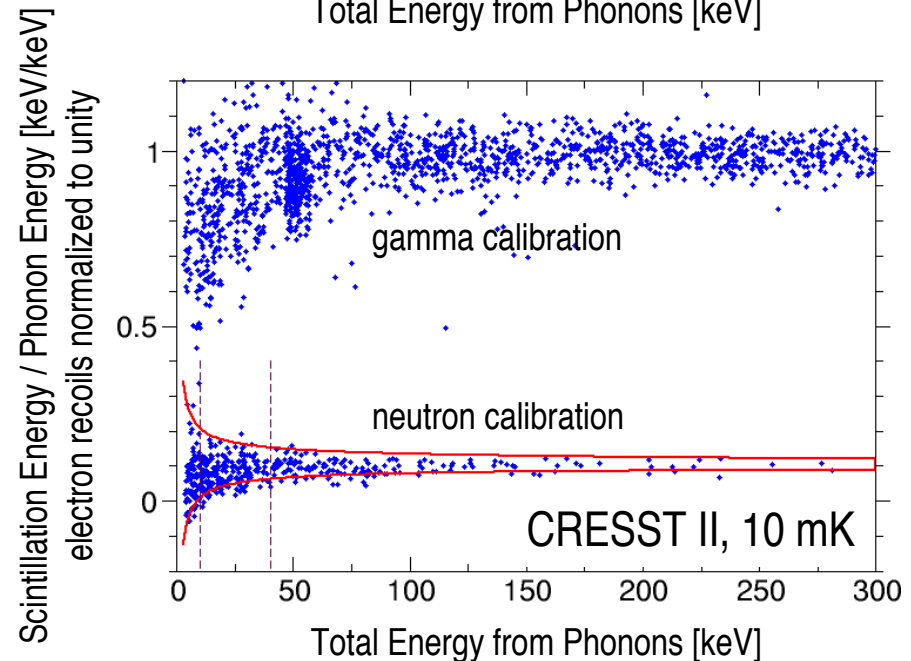
Dark matter particles (& ν) expected
to interact primarily with nuclei.

Most backgrounds at low energy
interact with electrons (Compton
scattering, low energy electrons)

Use simultaneous measurement
of phonons and quenched channel
to identify!



Filippini thesis



Angloher et al 2012

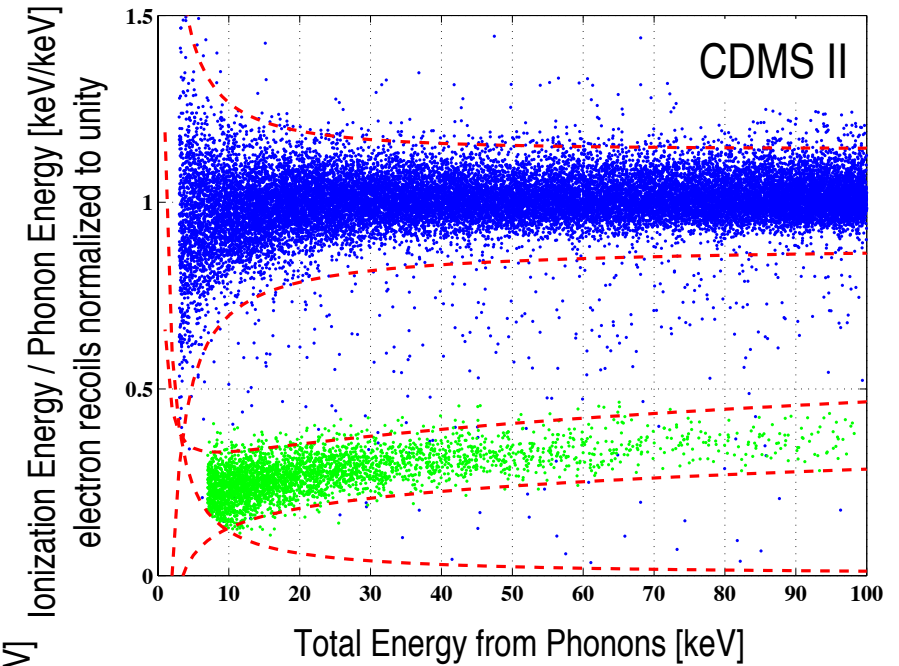
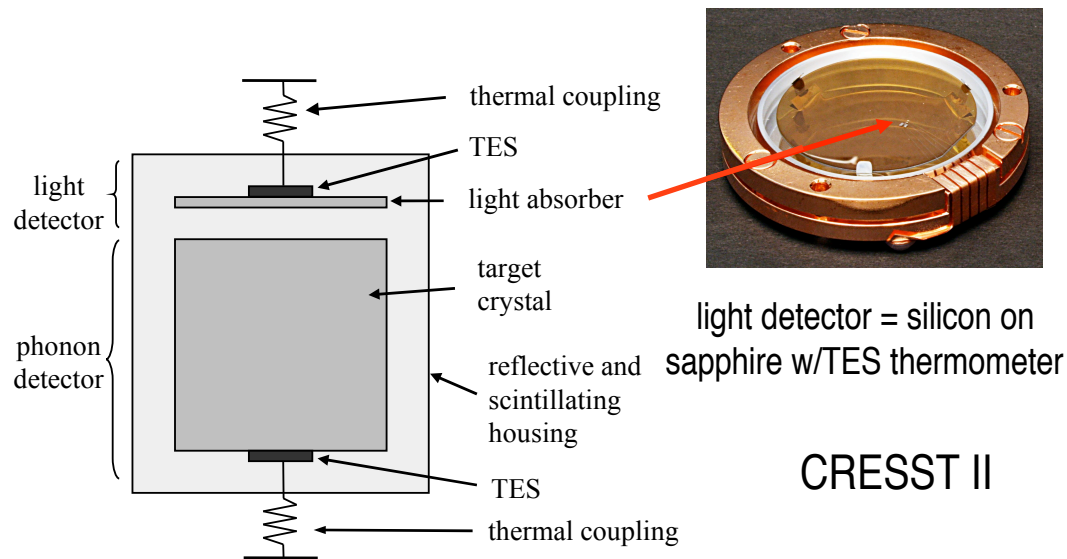
Cryogenic Ionization and Scintillation: Motivation

Or, making quenching your friend
Nuclear recoil discrimination

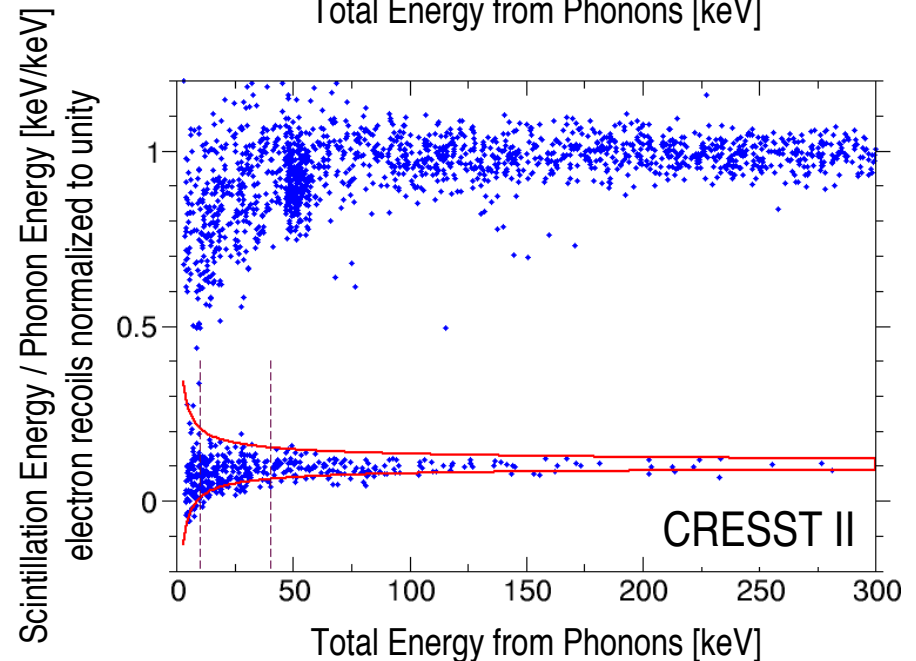
Dark matter particles (& ν) expected
to interact primarily with nuclei.

Most backgrounds at low energy
interact with electrons (Compton
scattering, low energy electrons)

Use simultaneous measurement
of phonons and quenched channel
to identify!



Filippini thesis



Angloher et al 2012

Cryogenic Ionization and Scintillation: Motivation

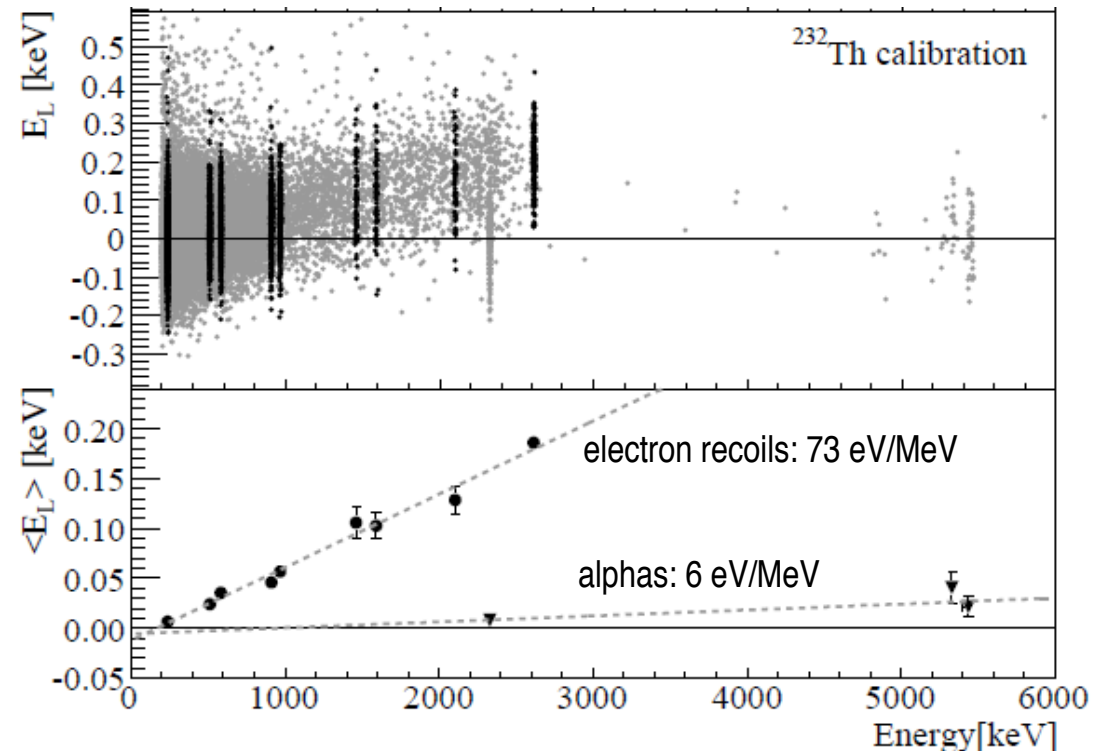
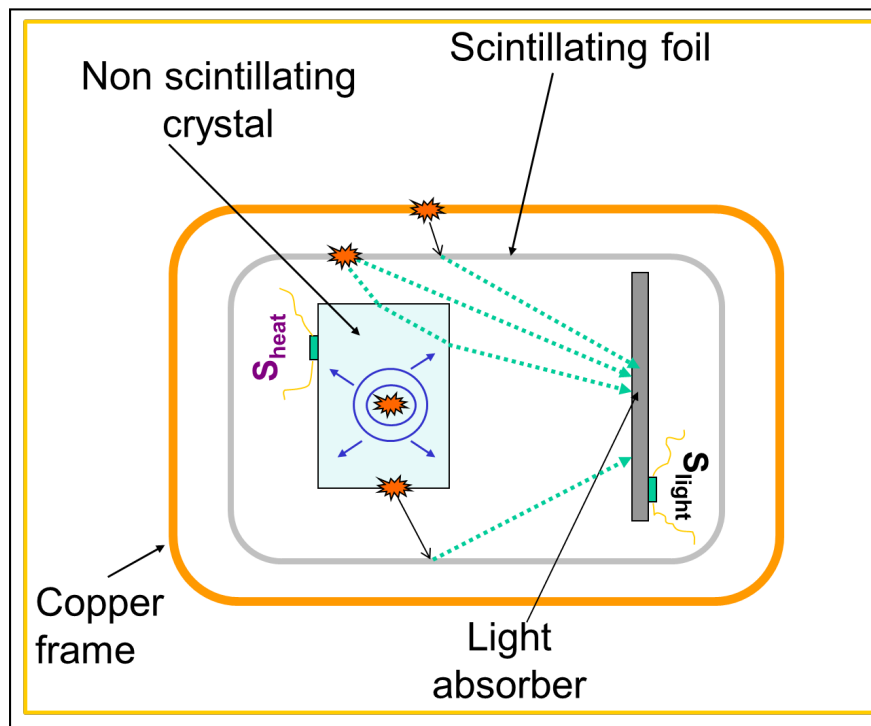
Or, making quenching your friend

Electron recoil discrimination

$0\nu\beta\beta$ should produce pure electron recoils

Recall α contamination for TeO_2 due to surface contamination

Very weak luminescence seen, much weaker for α particles than for electron recoils.
Enables rejection of α events.



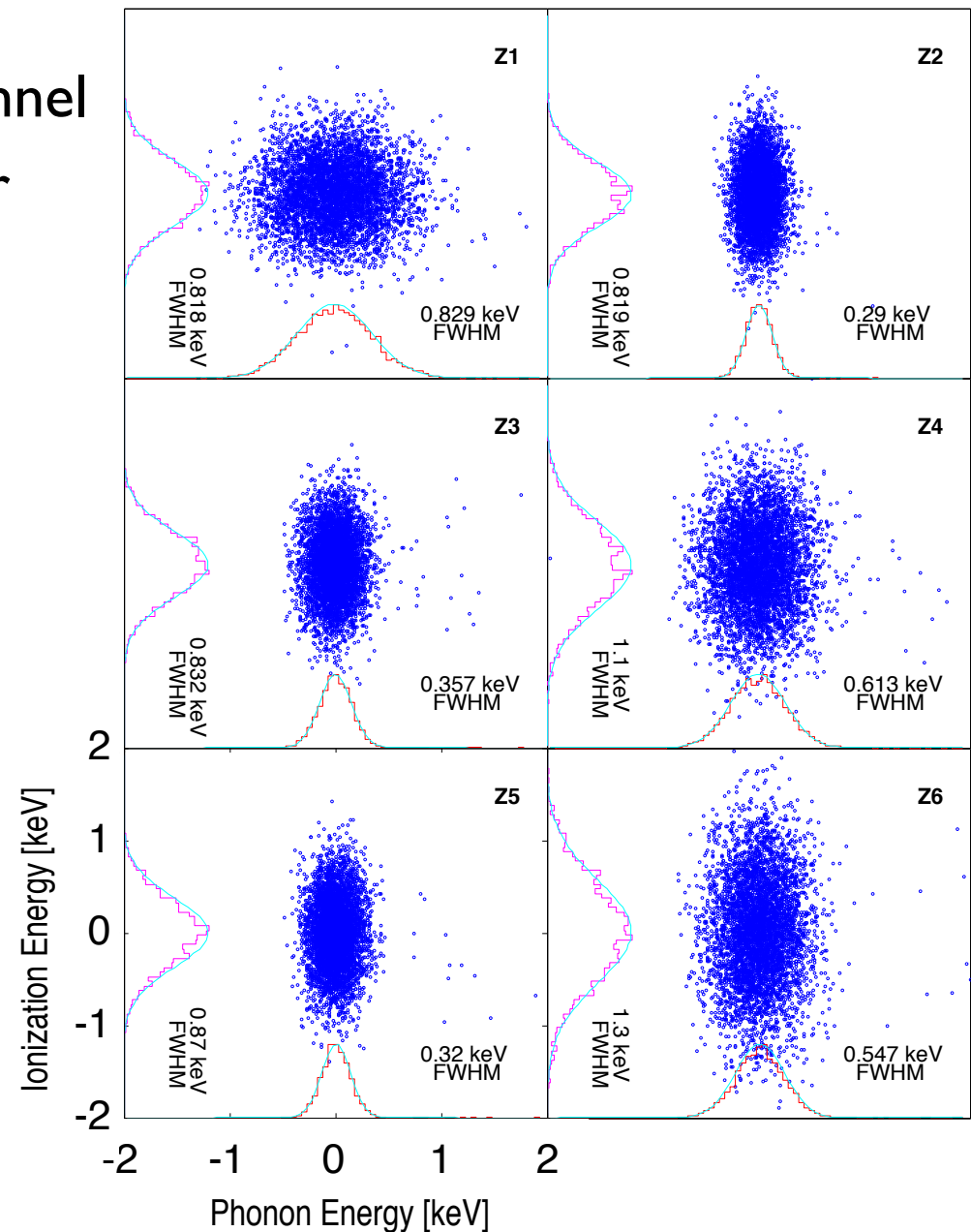
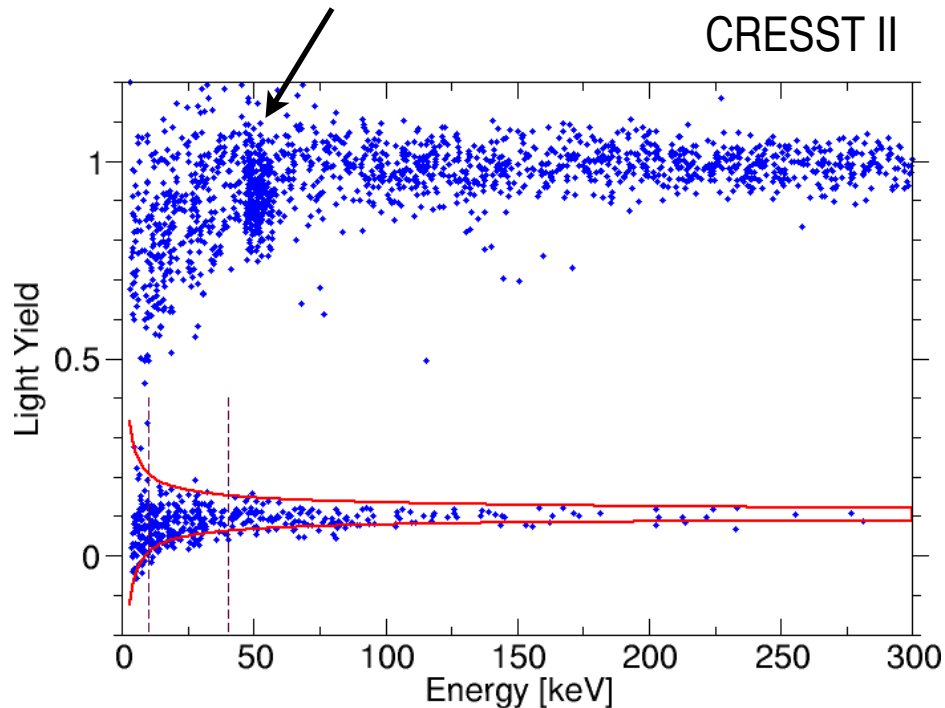
Cryogenic Ionization and Scintillation: In Practice

CDMS II

Resolution in ionization/scintillation
cannot match that in phonon channel

Threshold for science set by poorer
channel

clear from width of line in phonon and
light dimensions that light resolution
much poorer than phonon resolution



Application Example: CDMSLite, Coherent ν Scattering

Ionization performance limits event-by-event rejection to $E > 10 \text{ keV}_{\text{recoil}}$

Can we get around this?

Yes, sort of, in two ways, using quenching:

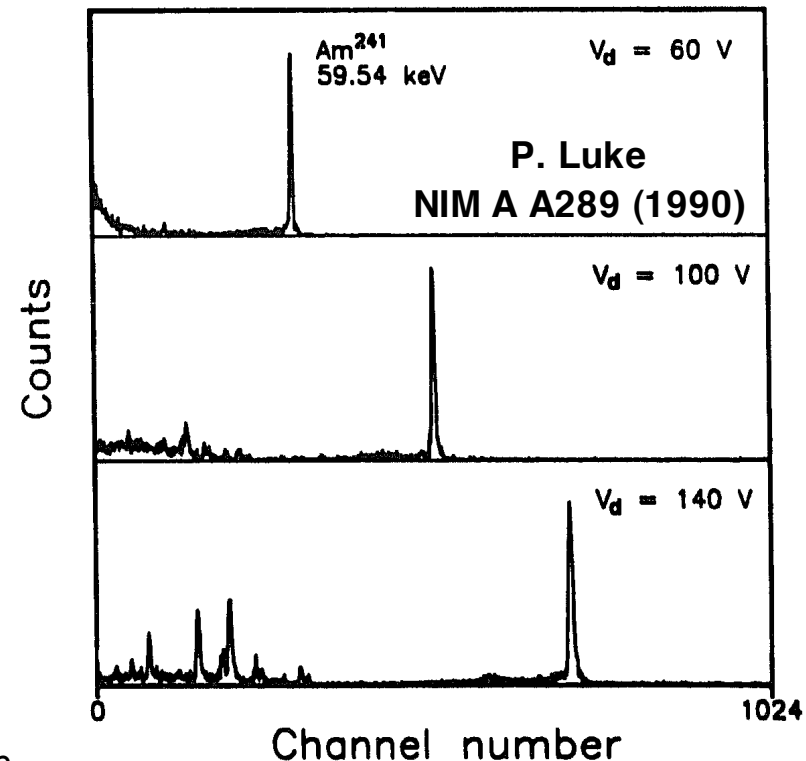
In phonon-mediated detectors with an electric field applied, all events have Luke-Neganov phonon (“drift heating”) contribution:

$$E_{\text{tot}} = E_r + E_{\text{luke}} = E_r + n_{eh} e V_b = E_r \left(1 + \frac{e V_b}{\epsilon_{eh}} \right)$$

~3 eV for CDMS
in Ge,
~3 eV for ERs,
~9 eV for NRs

Normally, we use ionization signal to measure and subtract (which further degrades performance!)

Paul Luke pointed out that one could apply a high field to make drift heating dominant and use thermal phonons to measure. Beats electronics noise in ionization (which typically limits baseline σ_E).



Application Example: CDMSLite, Coherent ν Scattering

In principle, lose nuclear recoil discrimination, but aided in two ways:

Different drift heating for electron and nuclear recoils “stretches out” ER bgnd: ER bgnd rate effectively decreased by QF.

Take data at different biases: ER bgnd and NR signal behave differently.

solid: 0V bias

dashed: 75V bias

cyan: noise triggers

green: WIMP signal

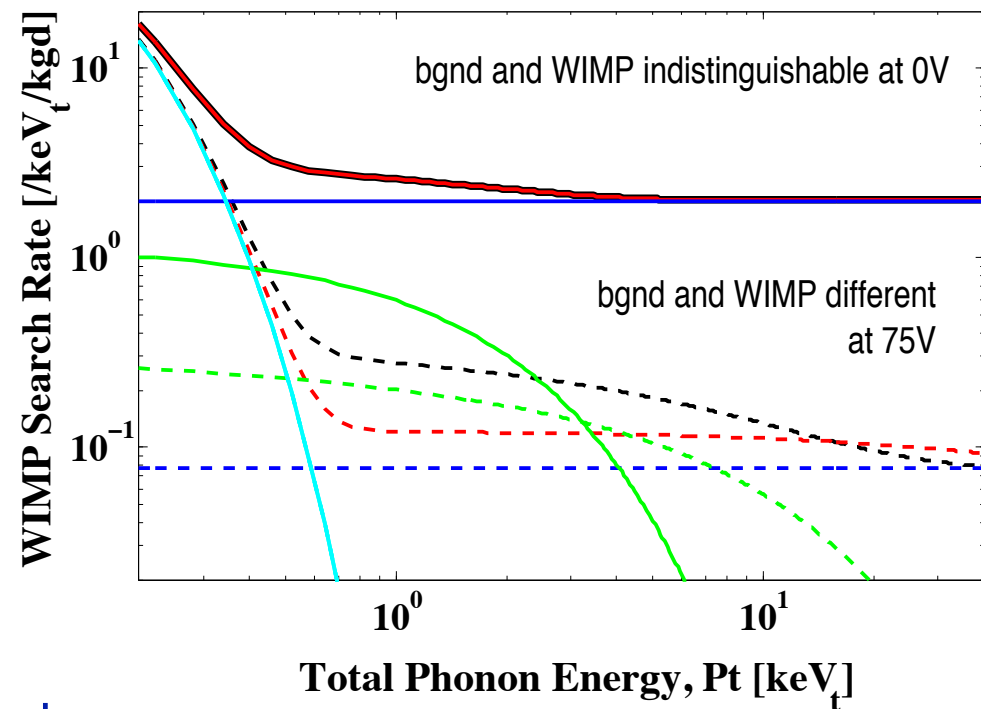
blue: constant ER bgnd

black: WIMP signal

+ constant ER bgnd

red: exponential increasing

ER bgnd + constant ER bgnd



Pyle et al, arXiv:1201.3685v1

Constant + exponential ER bgnd
indistinguishable from WIMP at

0V bias, very different at 75V bias because

of different stretching of WIMP and ER signals in phonon energy

SuperCDMS planning high bias running, coherent ν scattering expt in the works (Figueroa, Pyle, Mahapatra et al)

Cryogenic Ionization and Scintillation: In Practice

“Neutralization”

77K germanium ionization spectrometers:

large numbers of thermally excited carriers because
thermal energy $\sim$ donor/acceptor binding energy (~ 10 meV)

high voltage (few kV) applied to sweep all thermally
generated carriers out: depleted

ionized impurity sites would act as traps, but v. high
E-field prevents trapping

sub-Kelvin ionization collection:

No thermal carriers: $kT \ll 10$ meV. Depletion unnecessary.

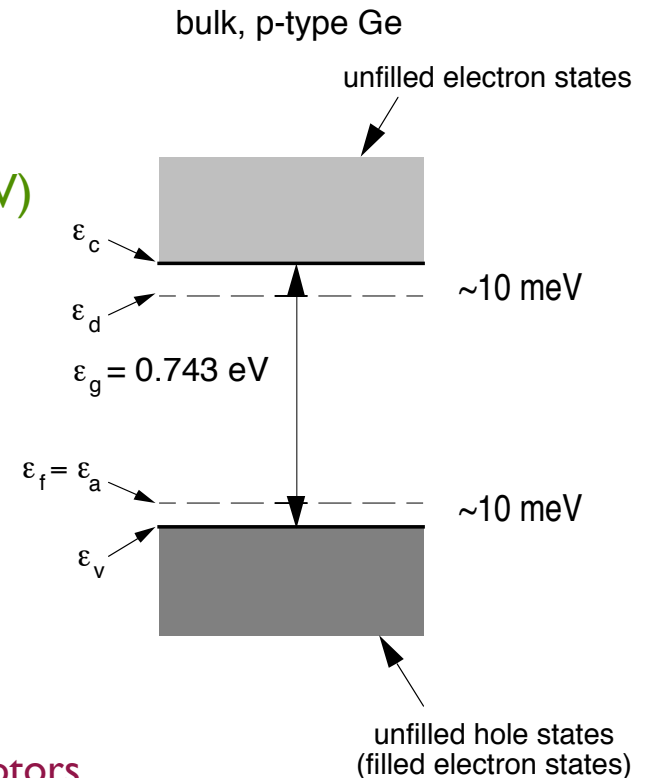
Only a few V need to be applied

But some donors/acceptors are ionized:

e.g., for p-type, $N_a \gg N_d$, so N_d electrons fall from donors to acceptors
creating N_d ionized impurities: traps for drifting charge

Empirically, find these traps can be “neutralized” by creating
free charges with radioactive source exposure or LED

“Neutralized state” remains for extended periods, esp. if
detectors regularly grounded and flashed with LED.

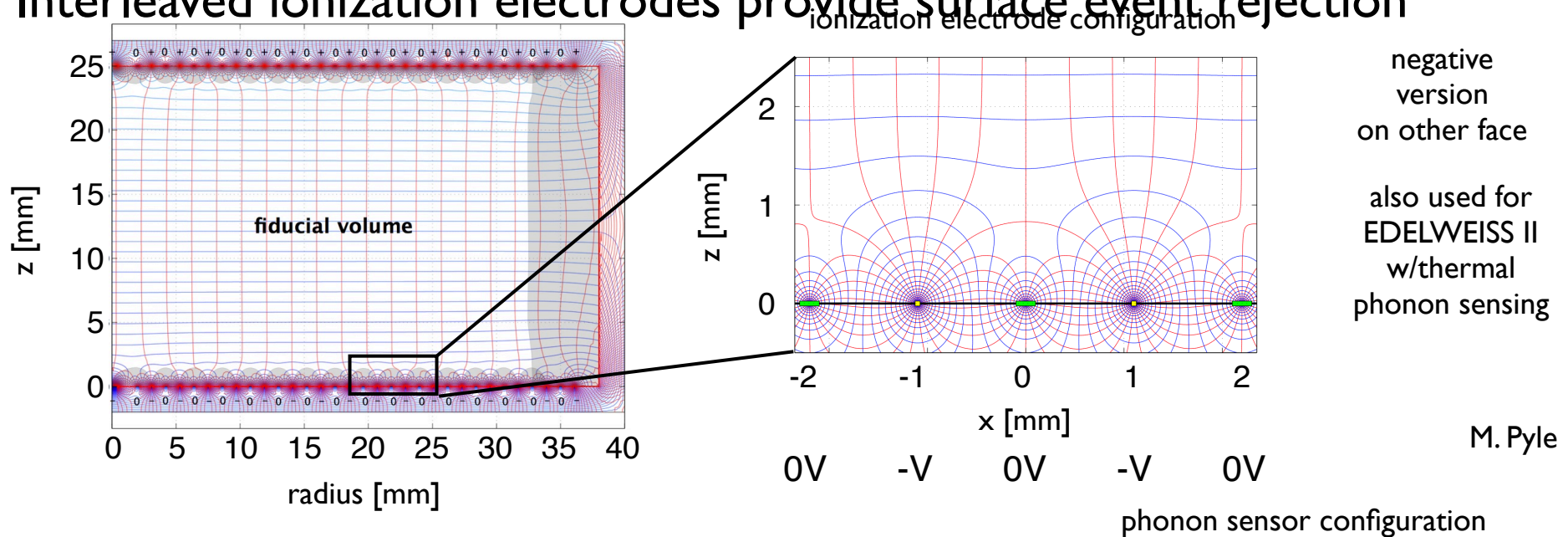


Cryogenic Ionization: Interdigitated Electrodes

Surface events (fast phonon signal) also have suppressed ionization:
can be misidentified as nuclear recoils.

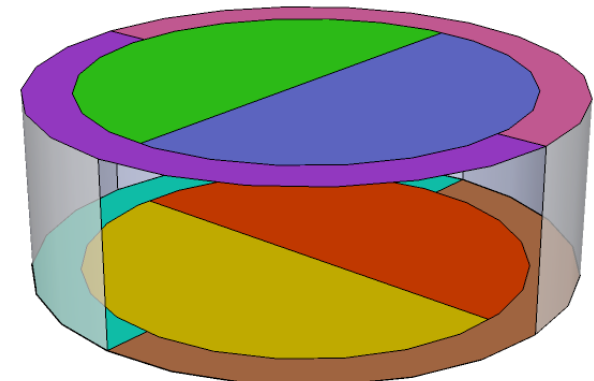
Phonon pulse shape provides $\sim 5 \times 10^{-3}$ misid probability, but better is needed.

Interleaved ionization electrodes provide surface event rejection



Interleaved ionization electrodes causes different
distribution of ionization signals among electrodes
for surface and bulk events

High field near surface increases ionization yield
for surface events



Cryogenic Ionization: Interdigitated Electrodes

Interleaved ionization electrodes provide surface event rejection

High field at surfaces increases ionization yield

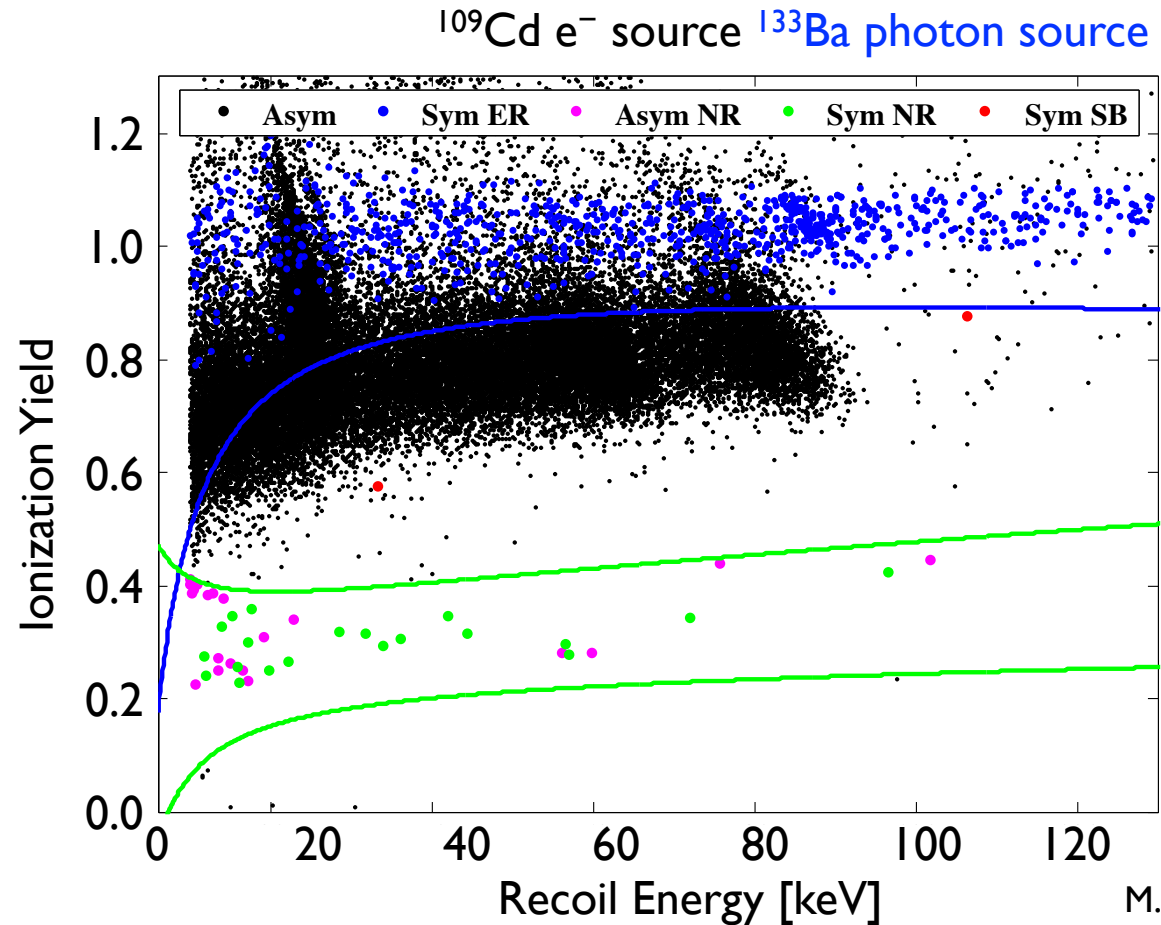
Surface events share charge asymmetrically

Phonon energy sharing and timing z position

Also used by EDELWEISS II w/thermal phonon sensing

History:

First suggested by Paul Luke. Tested for CDMS, but not much effort put in. Demonstrated by EDELWEISS, then retested by CDMS. Now in use by both.



Cryogenic Ionization: Interdigitated Electrodes

Interleaved ionization electrodes provide surface event rejection

High field at surfaces increases ionization yield

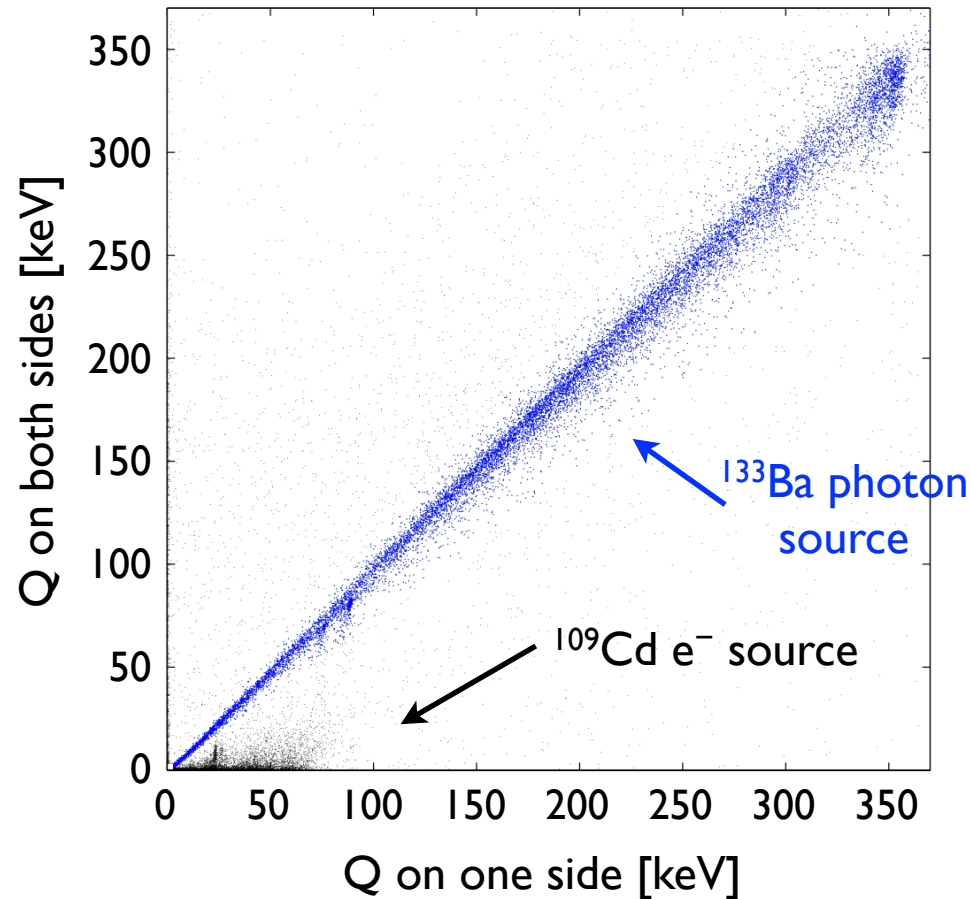
Surface events share charge asymmetrically

Phonon energy sharing and timing z position

Also used by EDELWEISS II w/thermal phonon sensing

History:

First suggested by Paul Luke. Tested for CDMS, but not much effort put in. Demonstrated by EDELWEISS, then retested by CDMS. Now in use by both.



M. Pyle, B. Serfass

Cryogenic Ionization: Interdigitated Electrodes

Interleaved ionization electrodes provide surface event rejection

High field at surfaces increases ionization yield

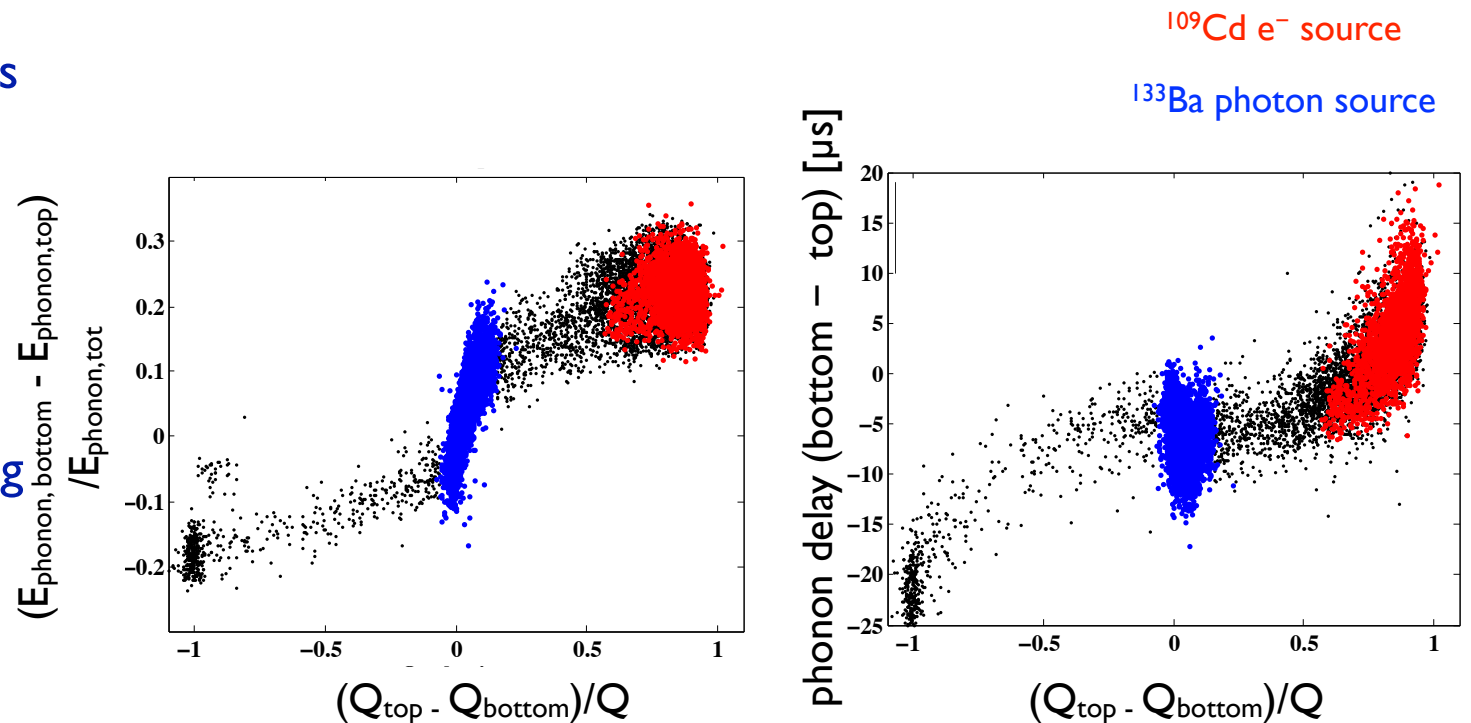
Surface events share charge asymmetrically

Phonon energy sharing and timing z position

Also used by EDELWEISS II w/thermal phonon sensing

History:

First suggested by Paul Luke. Tested for CDMS, but not much effort put in. Demonstrated by EDELWEISS, then retested by CDMS. Now in use by both.



M. Pyle, B. Serfass

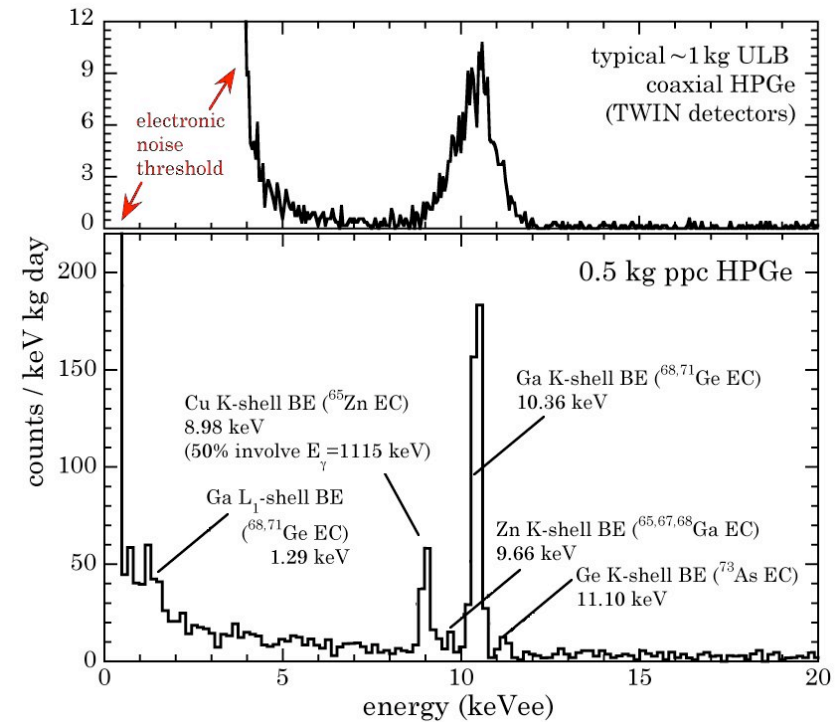
Truth in Advertising

Ge ionization spectrometers
(p-type point contact, Collar et al)
can offer excellent low-energy
resolution, electronics
FWHM = 160 eV via low
capacitance and modern FET
technology

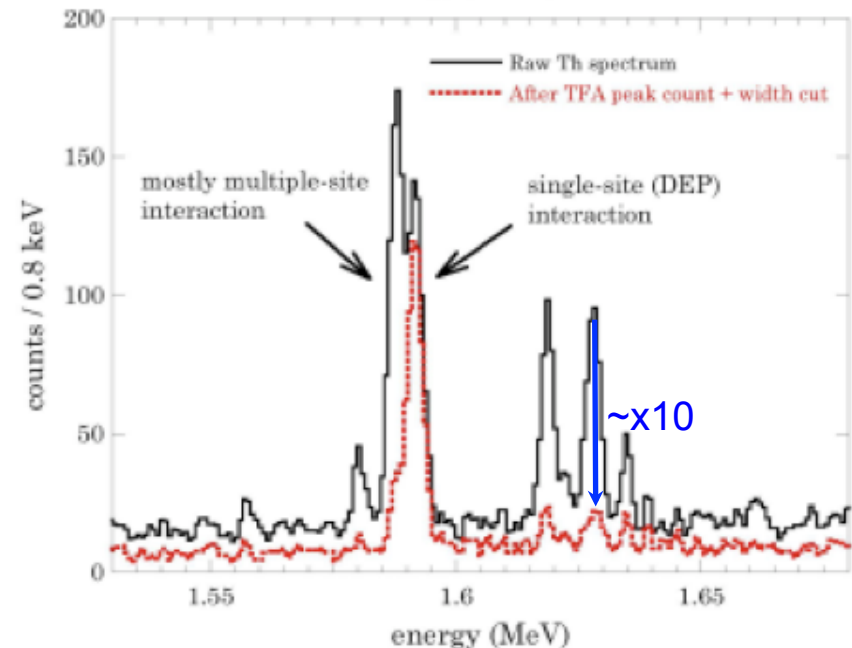
Ge ionization spectrometers show
comparable energy to, e.g., TeO_2 ,
for $0\nu\beta\beta$

FWHM = 3-4 keV at 2039 keV

But, restricted to Ge; phonon-
mediated detectors allow wide
range of substrates



Barbeau, Collar et al



Barbeau et al., JCAP 09:009 (2007);

Luke et al., IEEE Trans. Nucl. Sci. 36, 926 (1989).

Conclusions

Cryogenic detectors have a number of advantages that make them appropriate for applications in non-accelerator particle and nuclear physics:

- excellent energy resolution

- low thresholds

- wide applicability to different substrates

- ability to combine with “quenched” signals to provide discrimination power

In many cases, the challenge of operation is worth the qualitatively new physics that can be studied!