

# Calorimetry and particle ID

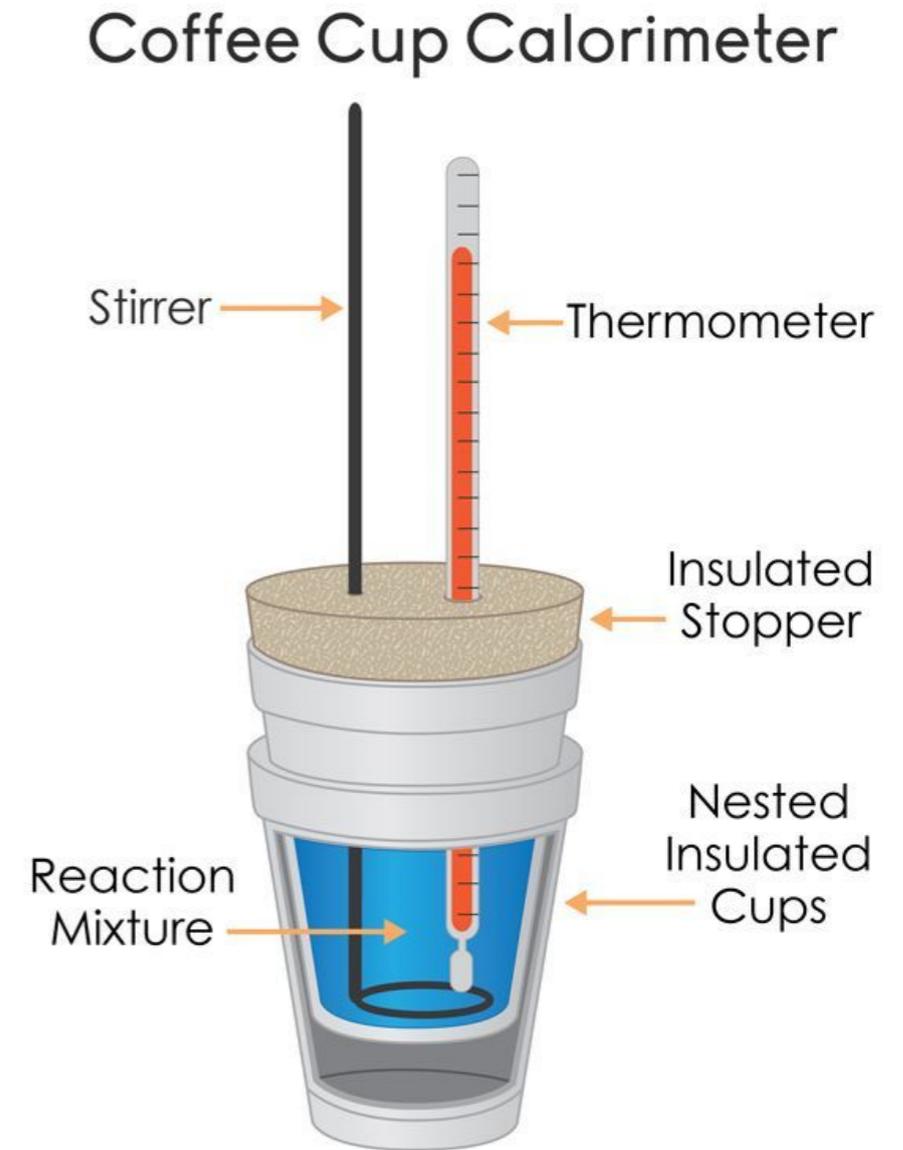
Kate Pachal  
Duke University

# Calorimeters

# What's a calorimeter?

---

- Calorimeters measure amount of energy output by some process
- Have discussed trackers already - these are critical to an all-purpose particle detector!
- But with only momentum information you don't have a full 4-vector. Need a calorimeter to tell you energy of your particle
- Calorimeters are destructive: incoming particle vanishes in reaction with material. If it's a good calorimeter, nothing comes out the other side
  - So put it after your tracker!!



# Goals and needs of a calorimeter

---

- Must be **thick enough** to contain all of the energy you're trying to measure
- Must **record a signal** that gives you accurate information about how much energy was lost
  - Signal recorded by calorimeter should be predictably **proportional** to deposited energy
- Must be sufficiently **granular** to tell you not just how much energy was deposited, but where
- Additional **practical concerns**: small enough to fit in your detector, not too expensive, able to survive radiation conditions of your experiment, read-out fast enough for your event rate, ...

# Glossary of upcoming terms

---

- $Z$  = atomic number of detector material
- $A$  = mass number ( $\sim 2Z$ )
- $X_0$  = radiation length. Distance after which all but 1/e of an electron's energy is lost via bremsstrahlung
- $t$  = depth in radiation lengths
- Critical energy = energy at which an electron interacts equally via bremsstrahlung and ionisation.  
 $E_C \sim 610 \text{ MeV}/(Z+1.24)$
- Shower maximum = depth of shower where there is maximum particle multiplicity

$$X_0 \simeq \frac{180A}{Z^2} \text{ g/cm}^2$$

$$t = \text{distance}/X_0$$

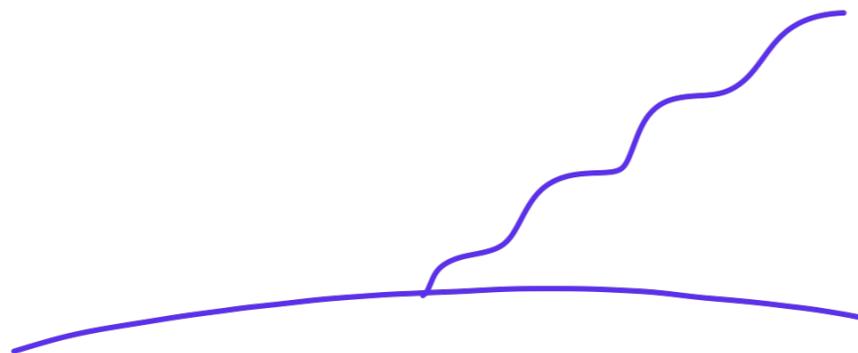
$$E_C \simeq \frac{610 \text{ MeV}}{Z + 1.24}$$

$$t_{max} = \ln\left(\frac{E}{E_C}\right) - [1.0, 0.5]$$

# Particles in matter

---

- A photon in space is pretty happy to just keep going! Atoms provide interaction potential that causes energy loss
- Higher density of atoms and higher atomic number both lead to greater potential for interaction



BREMSSTRAHLUNG

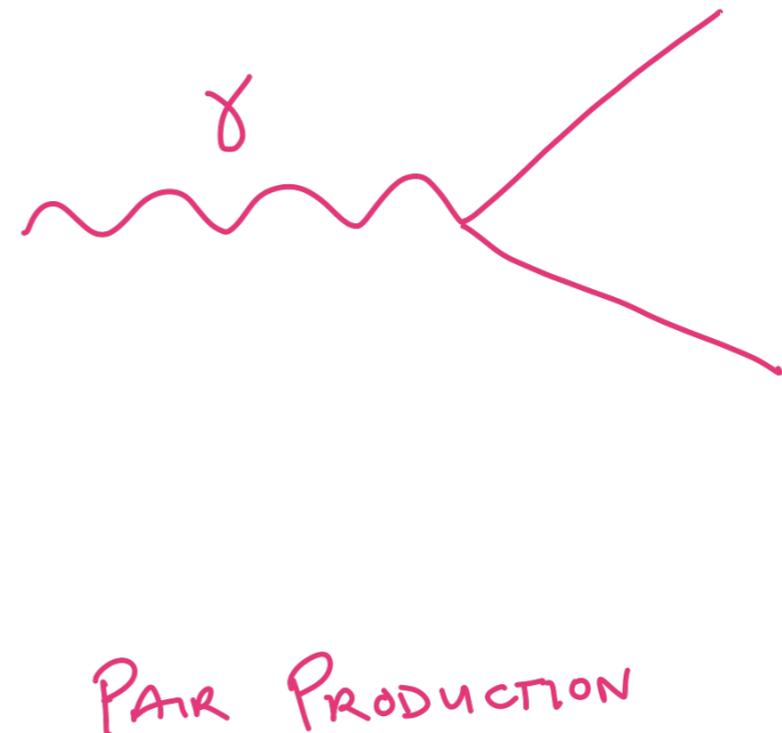
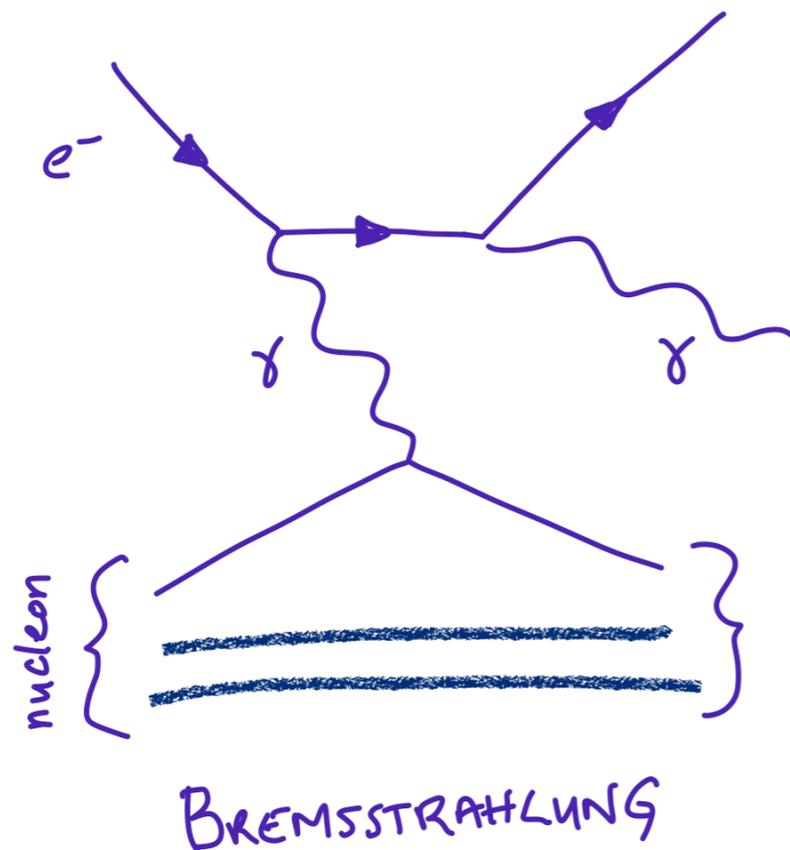


PAIR PRODUCTION

# Particles in matter

---

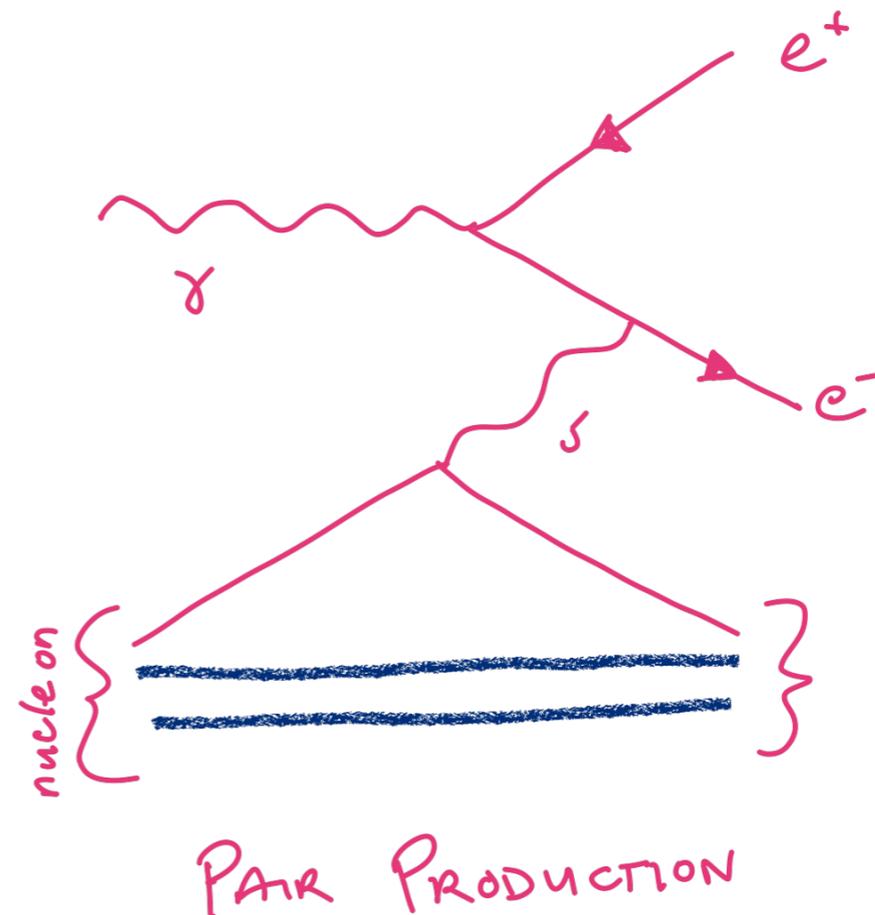
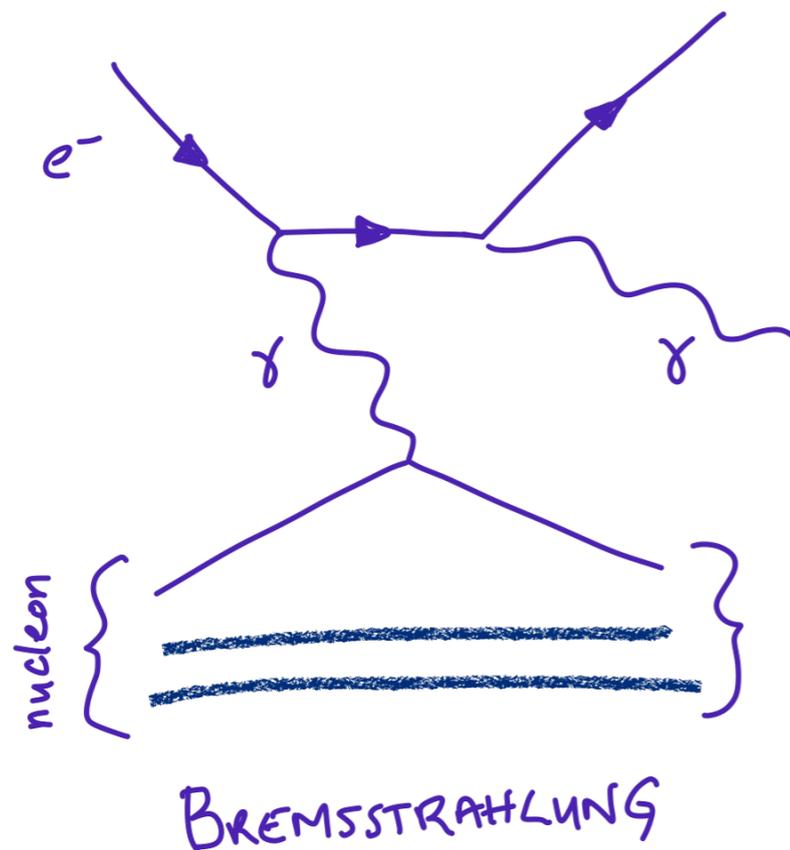
- A photon in space is pretty happy to just keep going! Atoms provide interaction potential that causes energy loss
- Higher density of atoms and higher atomic number both lead to greater potential for interaction



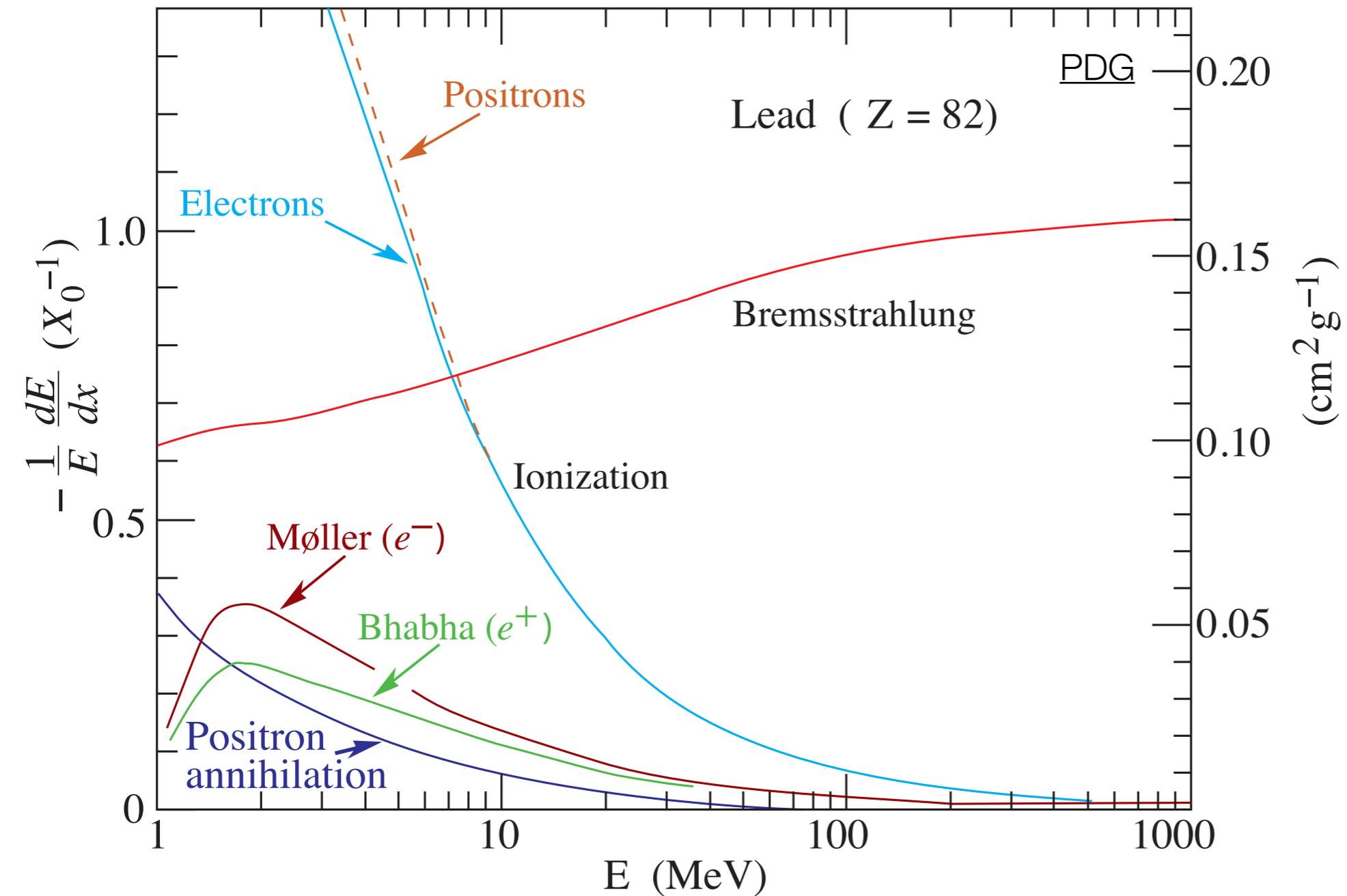
# Particles in matter

---

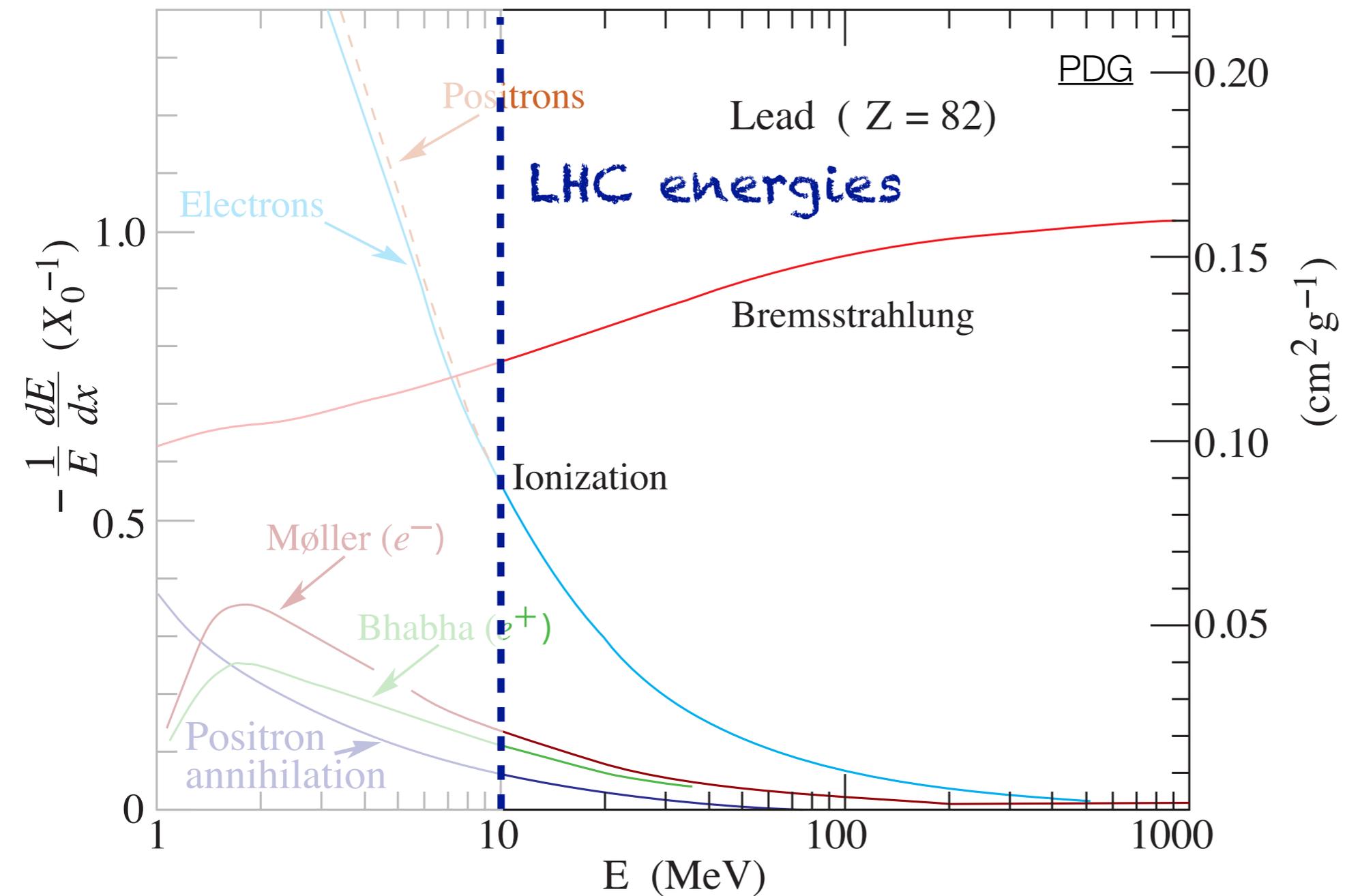
- A photon in space is pretty happy to just keep going! Atoms provide interaction potential that causes energy loss
- Higher density of atoms and higher atomic number both lead to greater potential for interaction



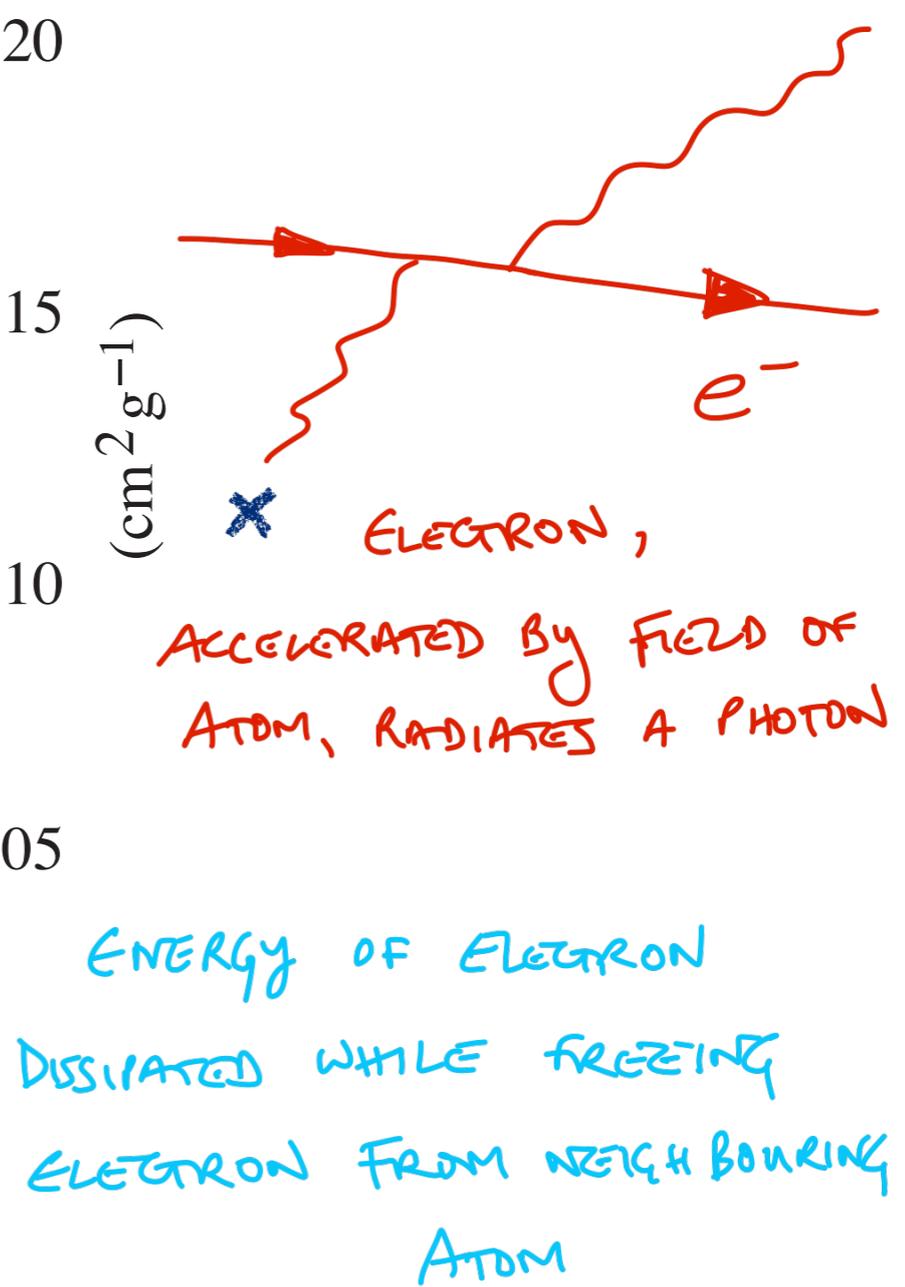
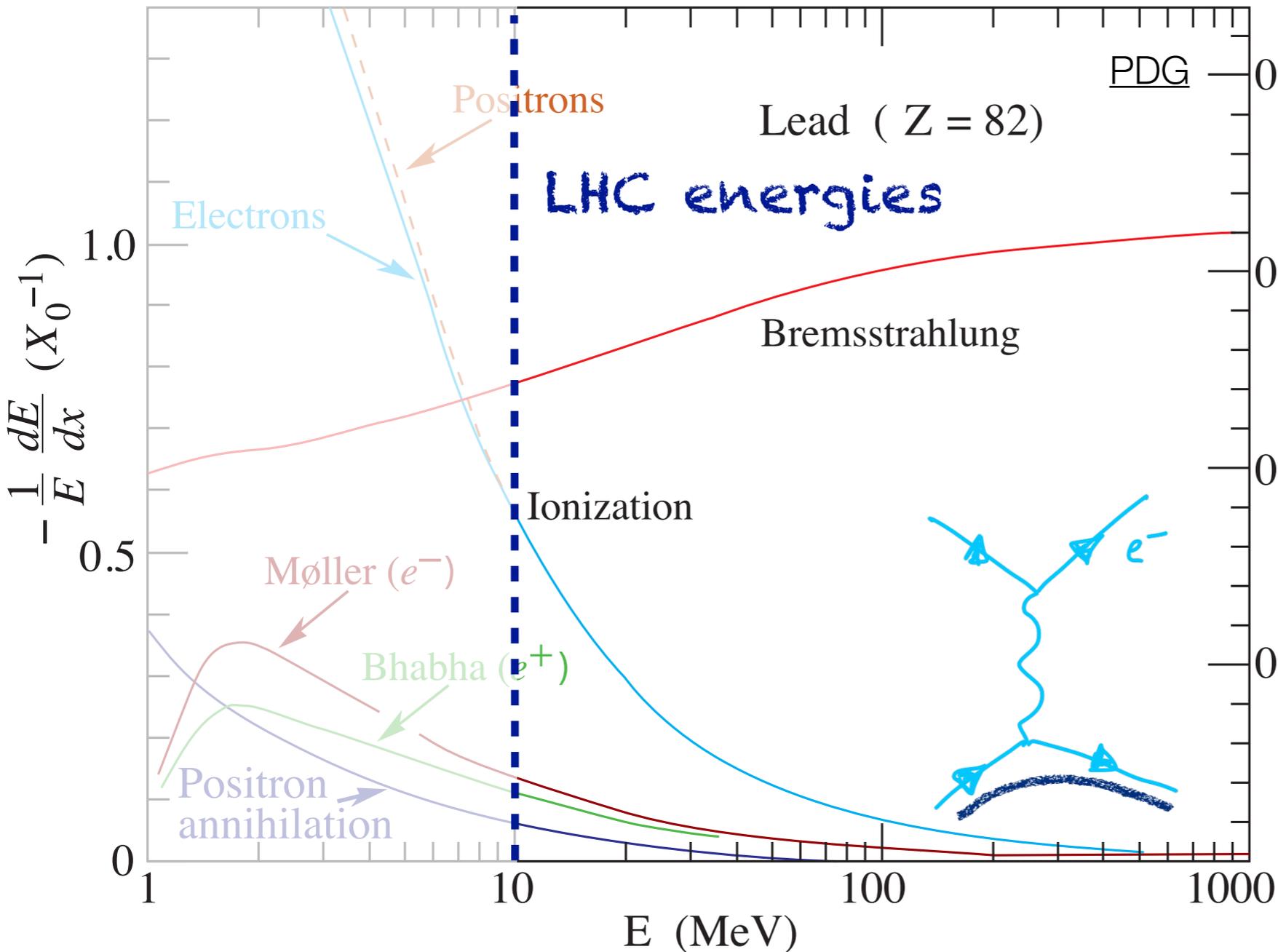
# Electron interactions



# Electron interactions

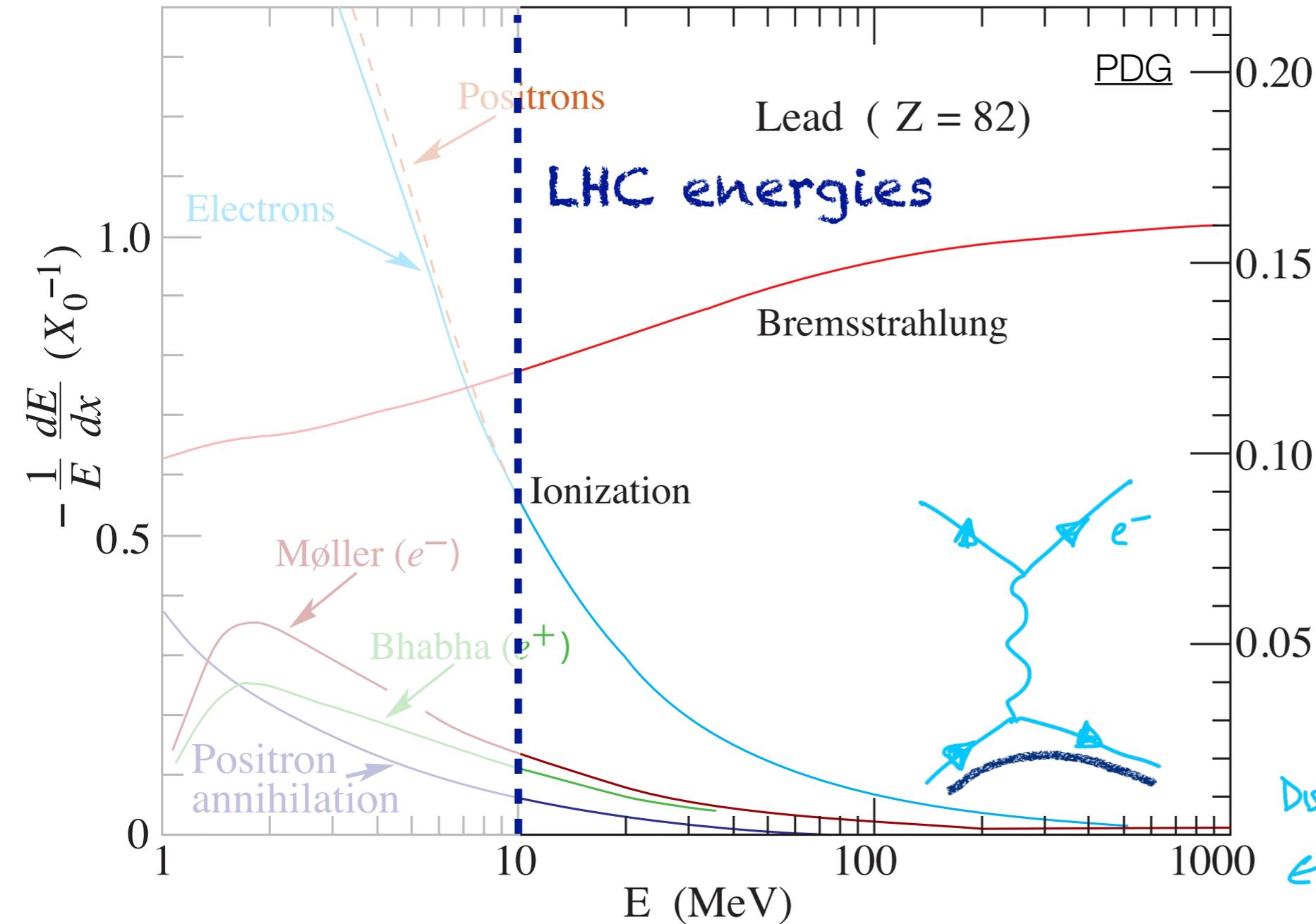


# Electron interactions



# Electron interactions

Reminder: electron needs to accelerate to radiate



$(\text{cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1})$

$\times$  ELECTRON, ACCELERATED BY FIELD OF ATOM, RADIATES A PHOTON

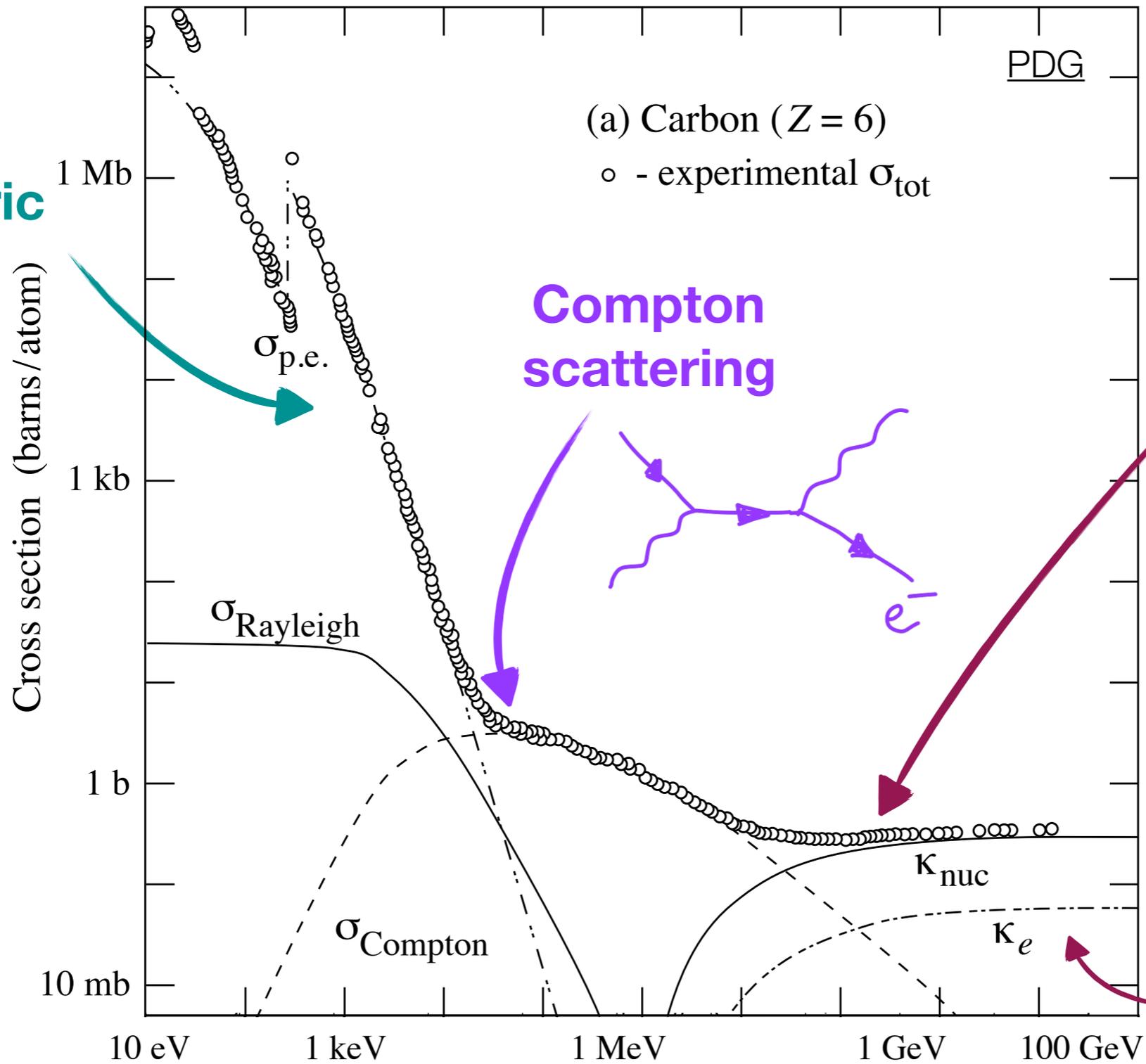
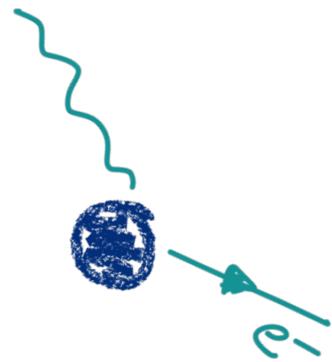
ENERGY OF ELECTRON DISSIPATED WHILE FREEZING ELECTRON FROM NEIGHBORING ATOM

$e^-$

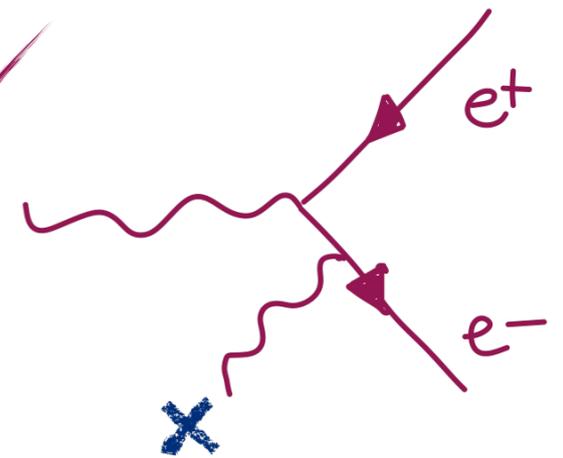
Detailed description: This block contains handwritten notes in red and blue ink. It includes a diagram of an electron (e-) being deflected by a nucleus (represented by a blue 'x'), emitting a photon (wavy line). The text explains that the energy of the electron is dissipated while freezing it from neighboring atoms.

# Photon interactions

**Photoelectric effect**  
dominant to ~50 keV

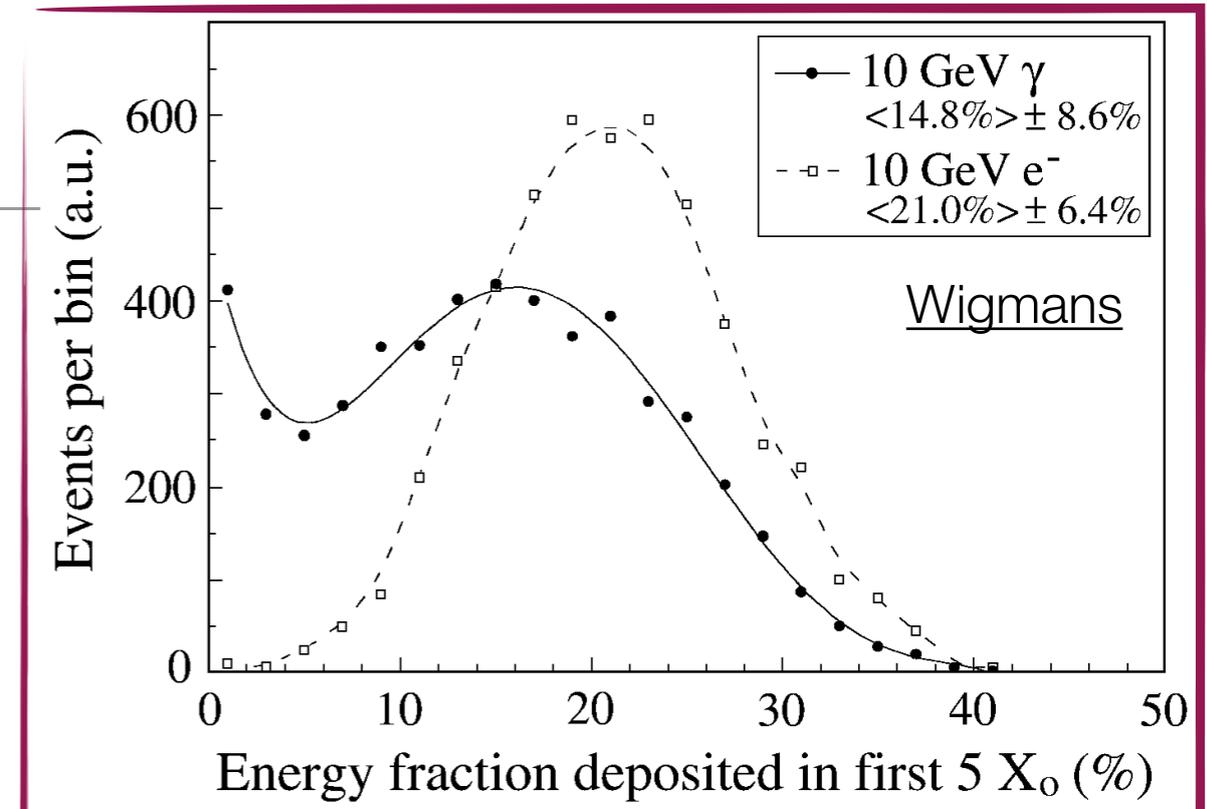
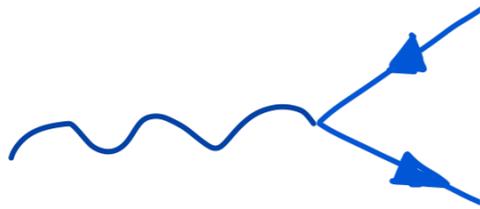


**Pair production**  
(in field of nucleus)



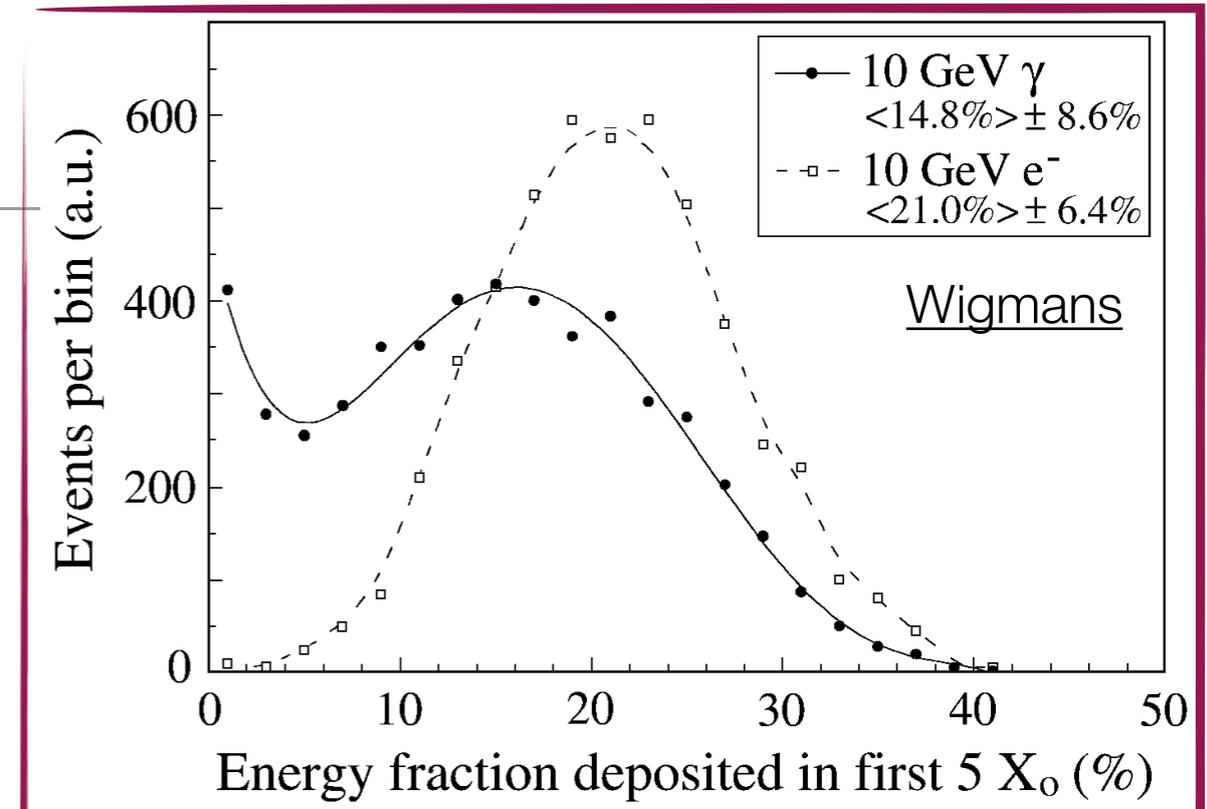
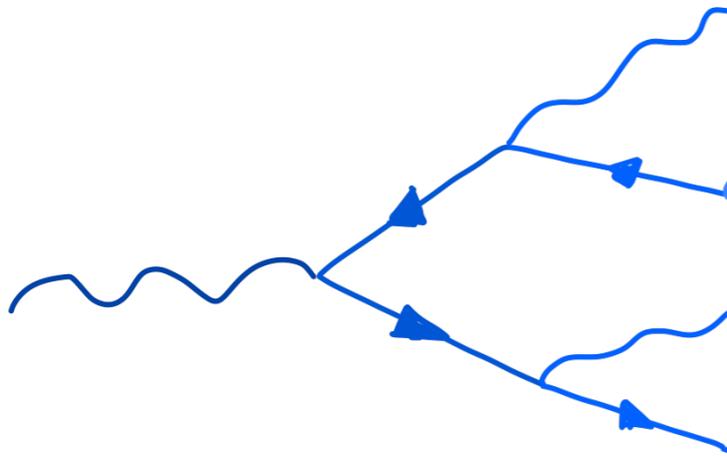
Smaller contribution from pair production near electron

# Electromagnetic showers in matter



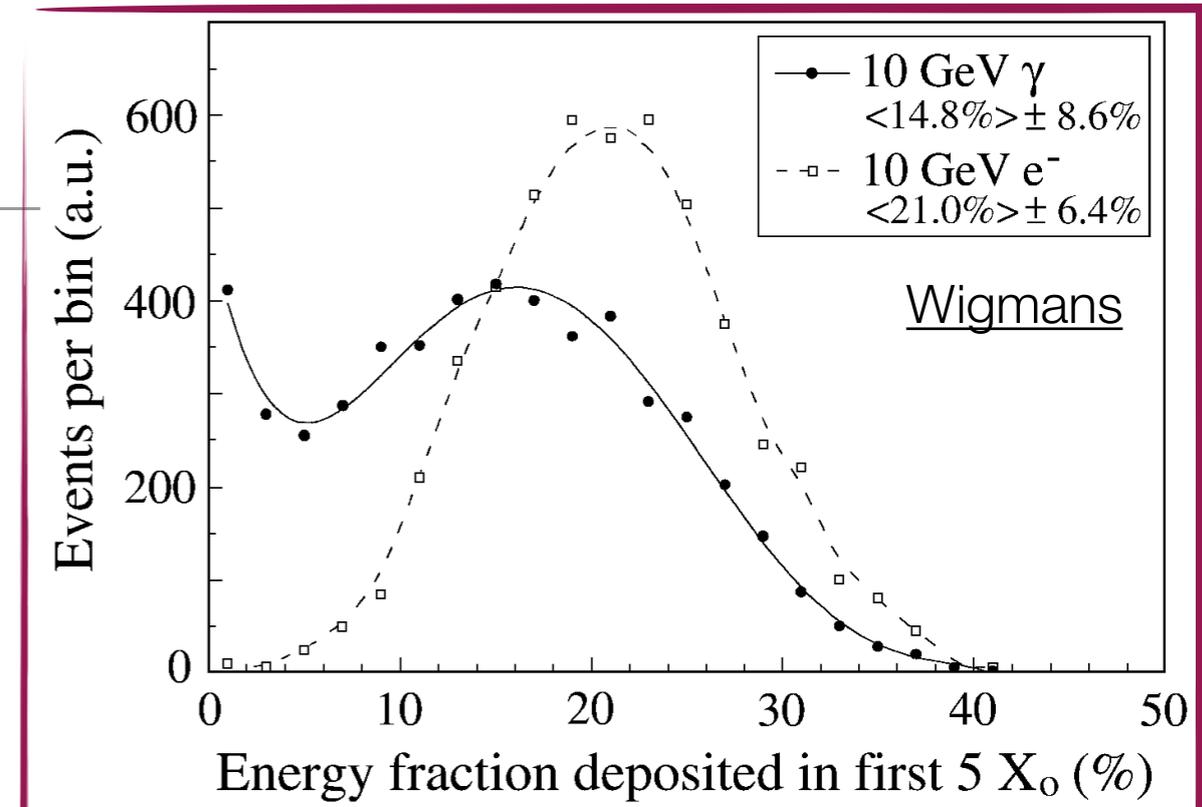
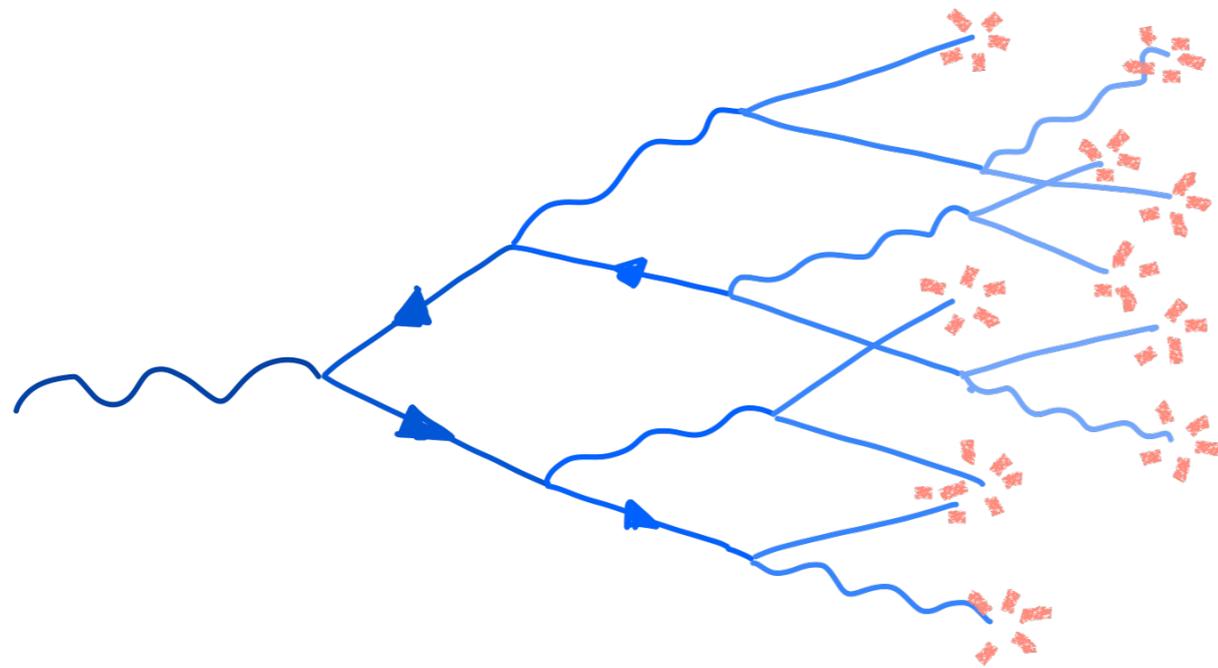
- High-energy photons pair produce electrons and positrons, vanishing in the process

# Electromagnetic showers in matter



- High-energy photons pair produce electrons and positrons, vanishing in the process
- Electrons and positrons radiate photons via bremsstrahlung as they travel through matter, interacting with fields of atoms

# Electromagnetic showers in matter



- High-energy photons pair produce electrons and positrons, vanishing in the process
- Electrons and positrons radiate photons via bremsstrahlung as they travel through matter, interacting with fields of atoms
- Once electrons fall below *critical energy*, more energy lost via ionisation than bremsstrahlung and the shower stops growing
- Shower maximum occurs where we have largest number of particles:  $E \sim E_c$

$$t = X/X_0$$
$$E_0 = \text{initial energy}$$

# Let's do some approximations!

---

- Interaction  $\sim$  once per  $X_0$ :  
 $N(t) = 2^t$
- Energy shared equally at each interaction: particle at  $t$  has

$$E \sim E_0/N(t) = E_0/2^t$$

- Shower maximum occurs when  $E = E_C$ :

$$E_C = E_0/2^{t_{\max}}$$

$$t_{\max} = \log_2(E_0/E_C)$$

# Let's do some approximations!

$$t = X/X_0$$

$$E_0 = \text{initial energy}$$

- Interaction  $\sim$  once per  $X_0$ :  
 $N(t) = 2^t$
- Energy shared equally at each interaction: particle at  $t$  has

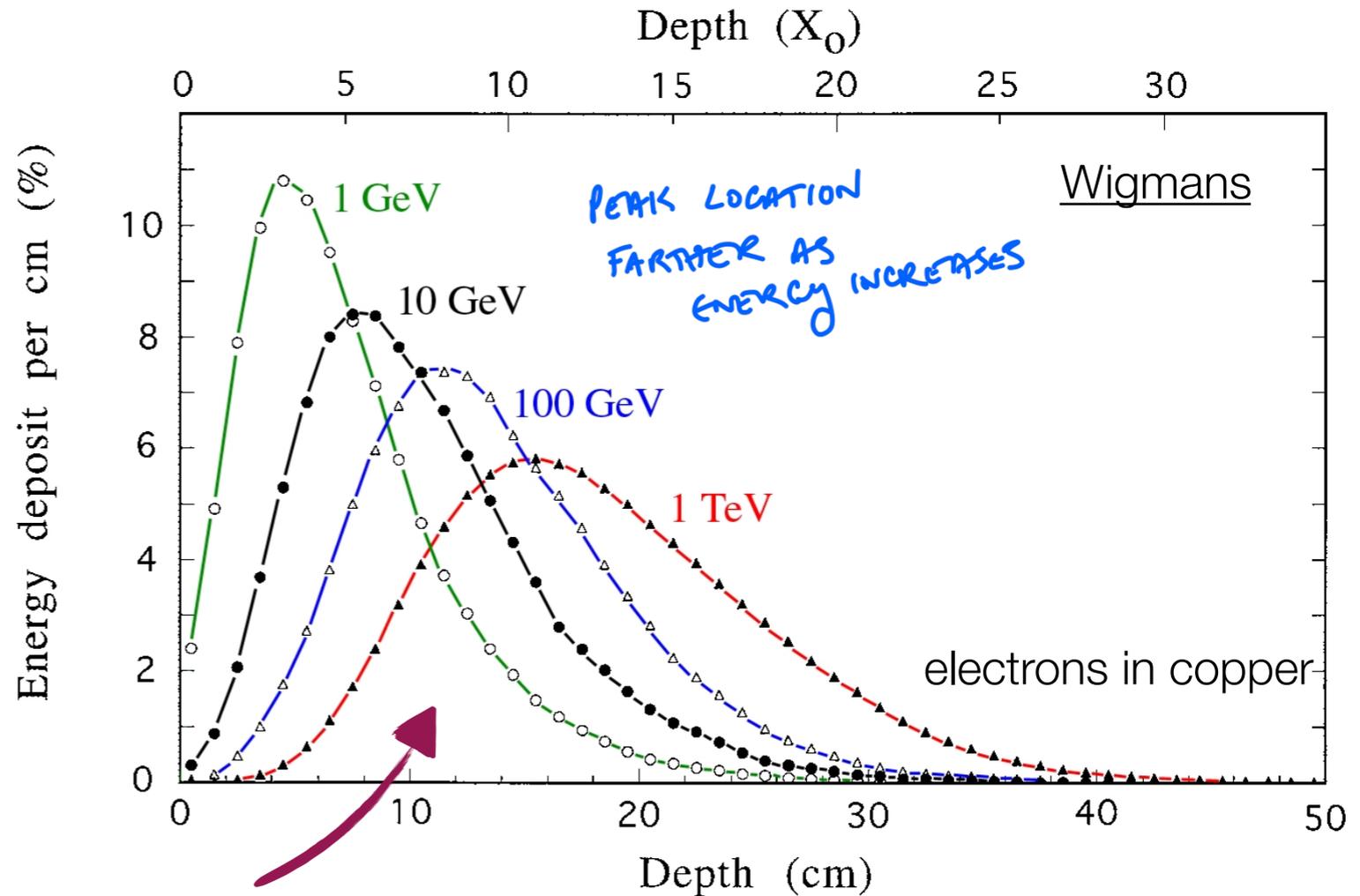
$$E \sim E_0/N(t) = E_0/2^t$$

- Shower maximum occurs when  $E = E_C$ :

$$E_C = E_0/2^{t_{\max}}$$

$$t_{\max} = \log_2(E_0/E_C)$$

$t_{\max}$  proportional to  $E_0$



# Let's do some approximations!

$$t = X/X_0$$

$$E_0 = \text{initial energy}$$

- Interaction  $\sim$  once per  $X_0$ :  
 $N(t) = 2^t$

- Energy shared equally at each interaction: particle at  $t$  has

$$E \sim E_0/N(t) = E_0/2^t$$

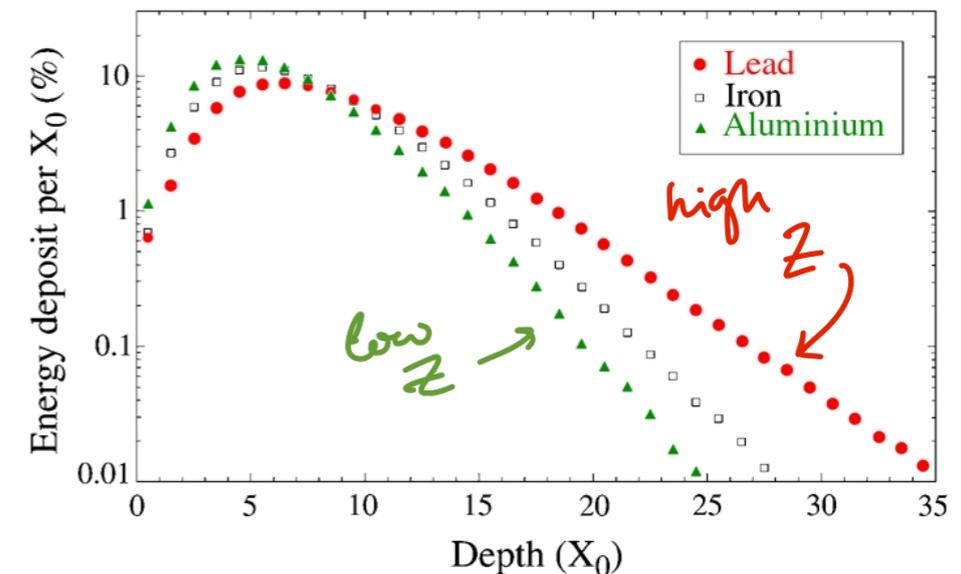
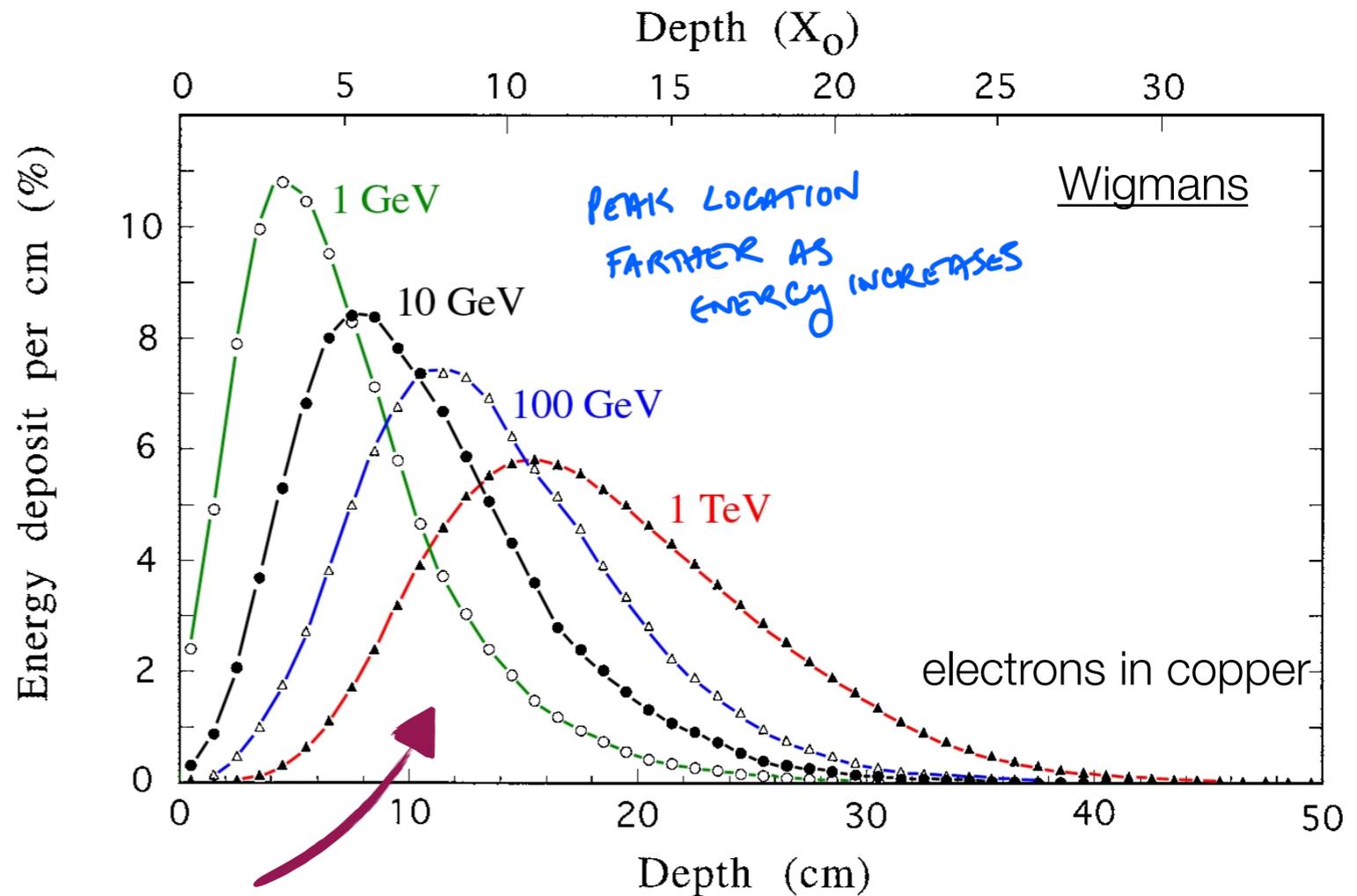
- Shower maximum occurs when  $E = E_C$ :

$$E_C = E_0/2^{t_{\max}}$$

$$t_{\max} = \log_2(E_0/E_C)$$

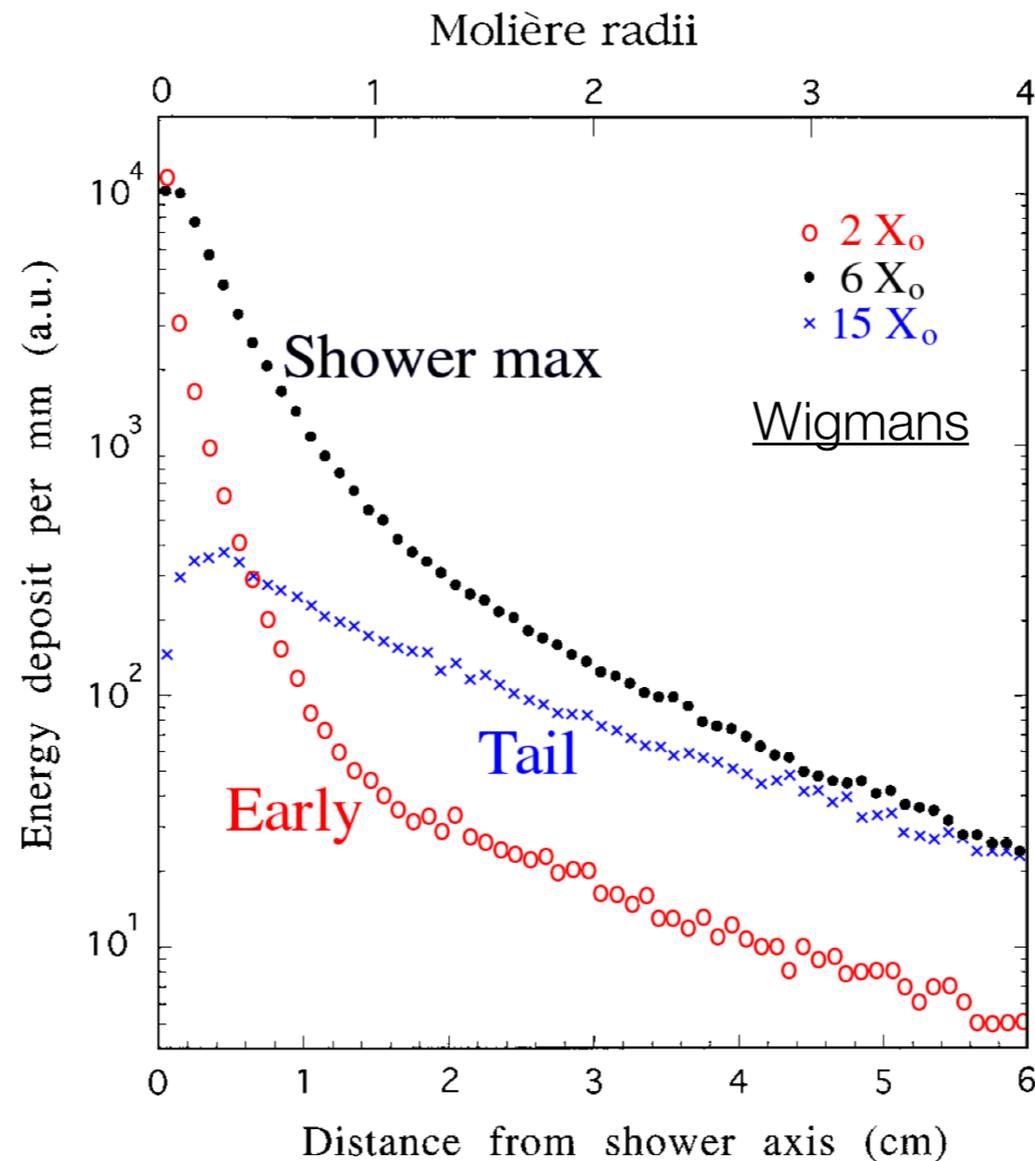
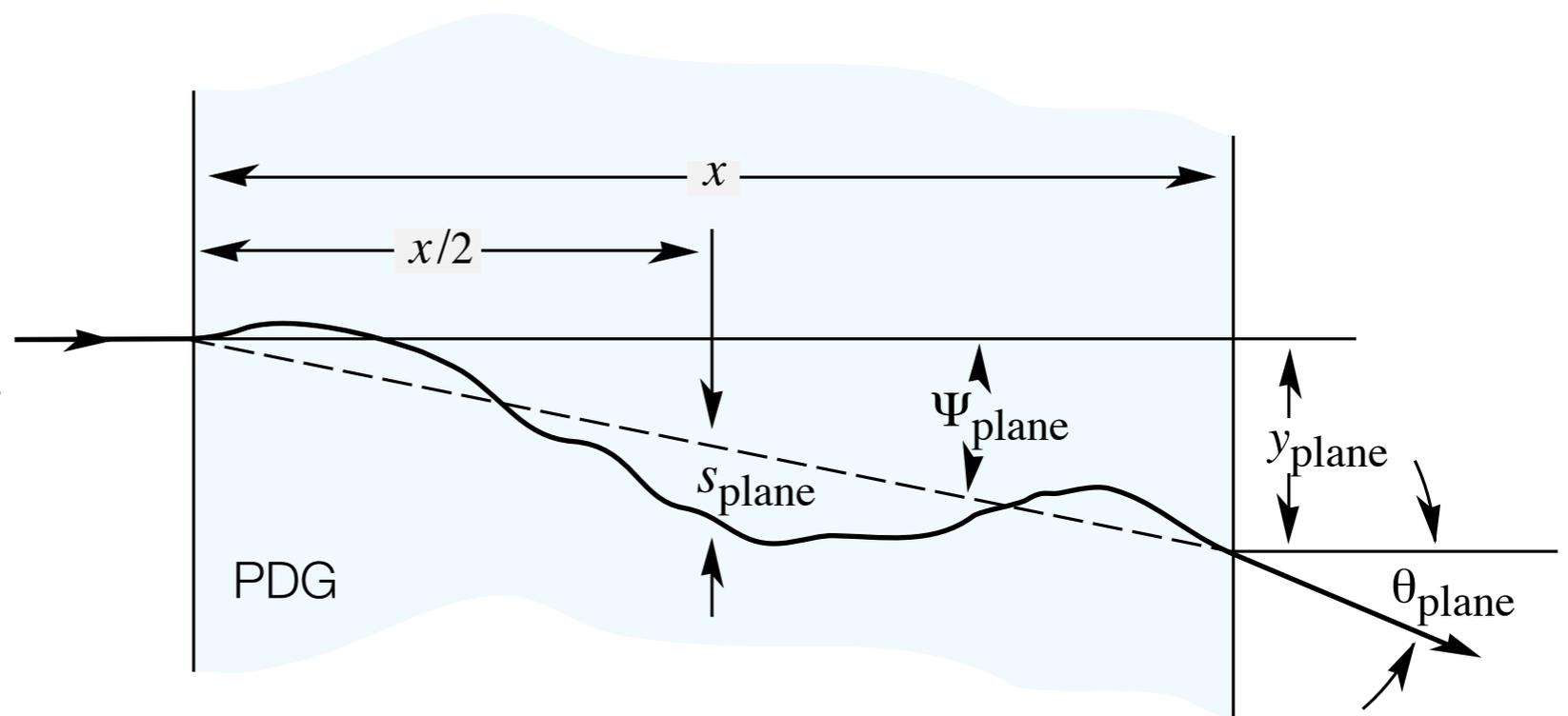
$t_{\max}$  proportional to  $E_0$

$E_C$  varies with  $Z$ , so shower profile varies a bit too



# Shower width

- **Multiple Coulomb scattering** of electrons - elastic, but changes direction.
- Dominant at high energies, used to derive Moliere radius
- **Compton scattering and photoelectric effect** produce new particles isotropically
- Relevant at lower energies



Define Moliere radius

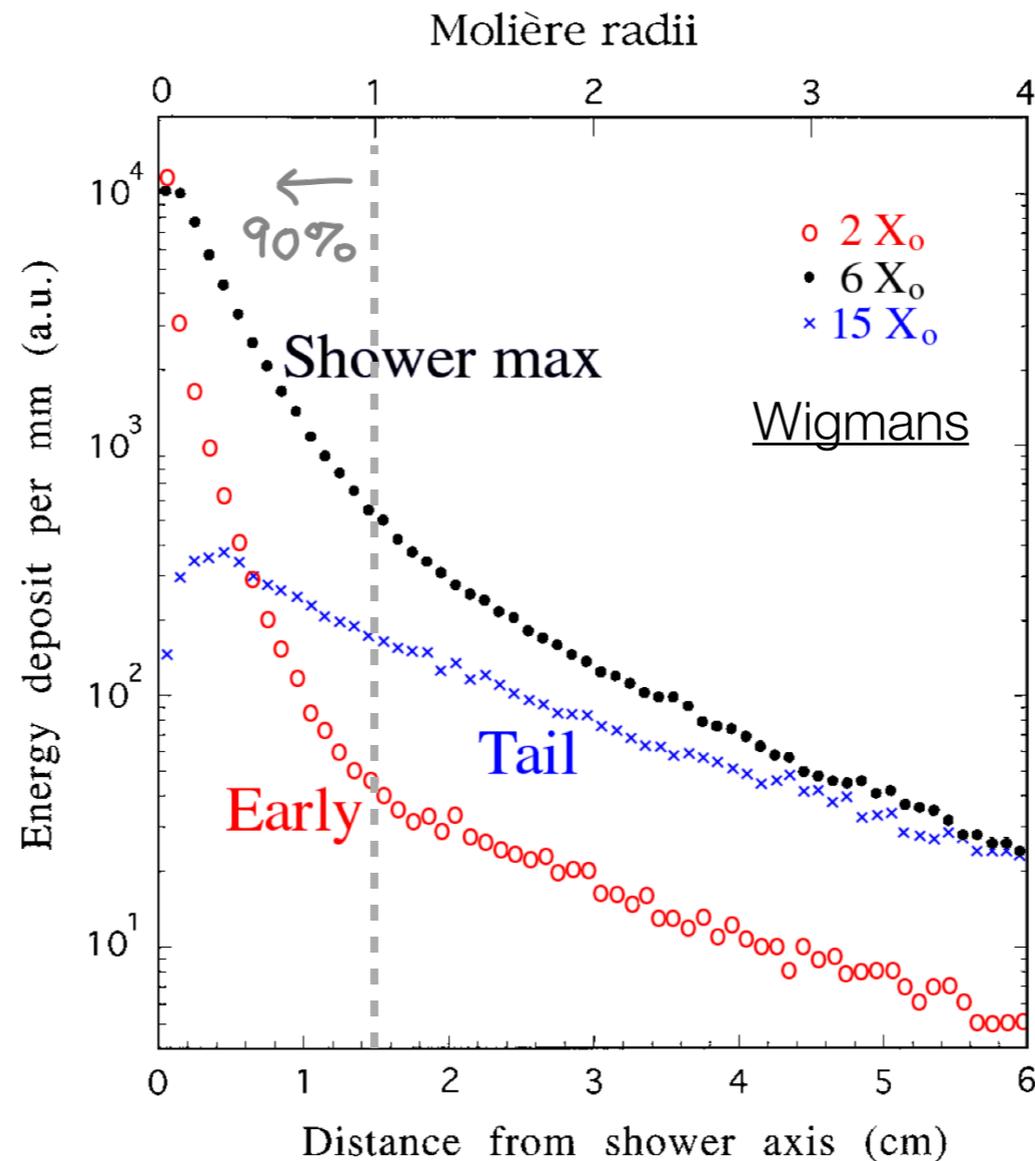
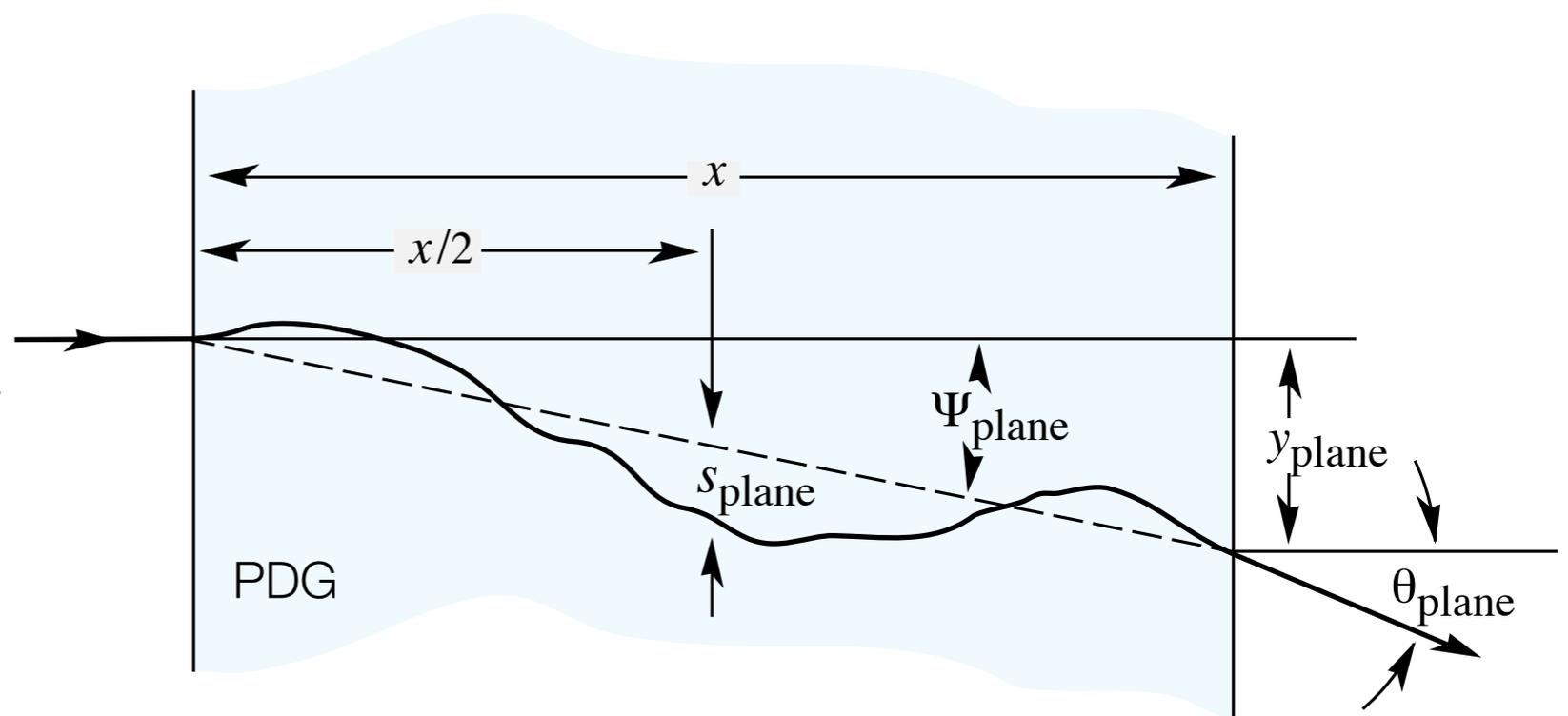
$$R_M \propto X_0 / E_C$$

$$\propto A / Z$$

Cylinder  
containing 90%  
of shower

# Shower width

- **Multiple Coulomb scattering** of electrons - elastic, but changes direction.
- Dominant at high energies, used to derive Moliere radius
- **Compton scattering and photoelectric effect** produce new particles isotropically
- Relevant at lower energies



Define Moliere radius

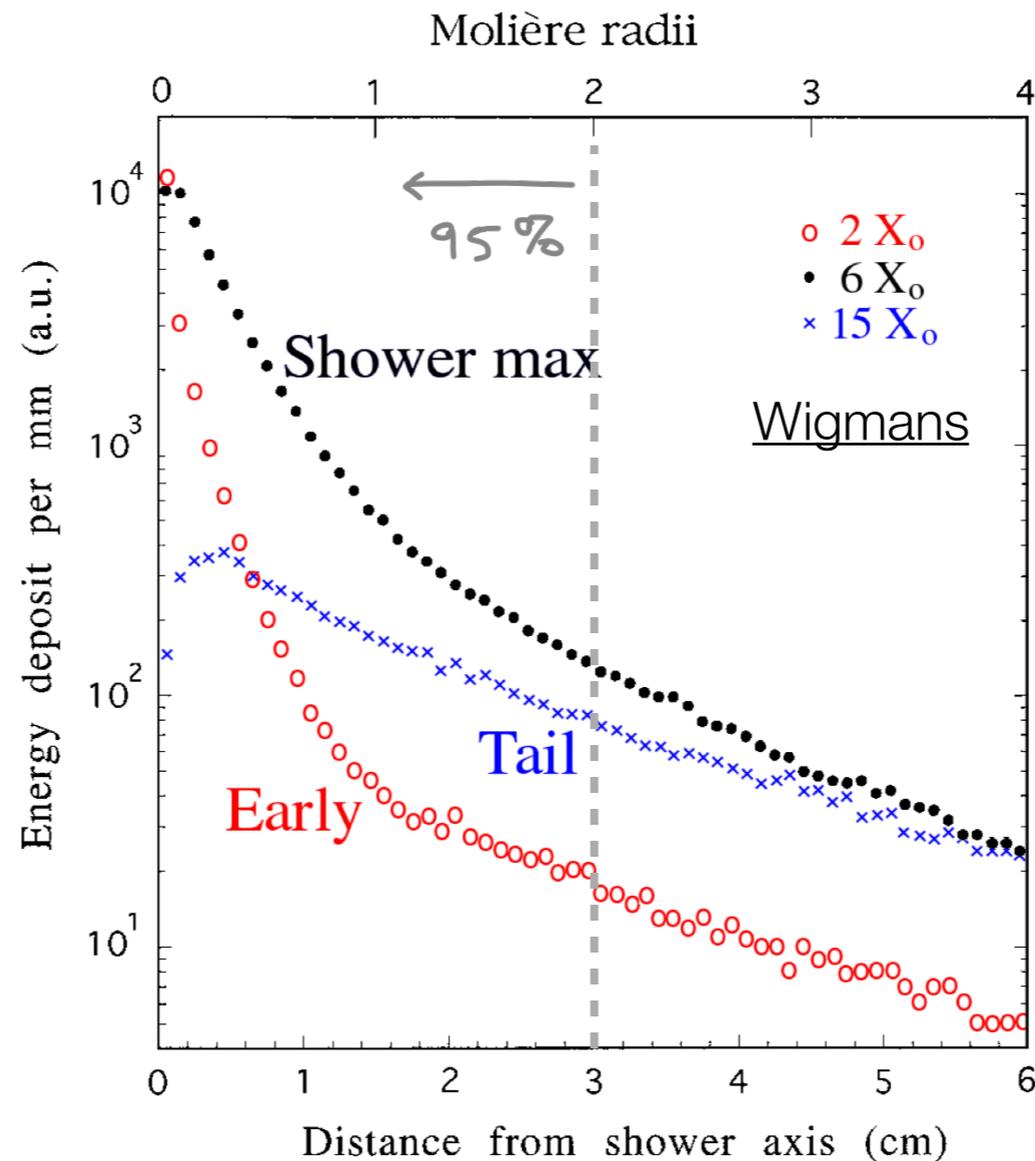
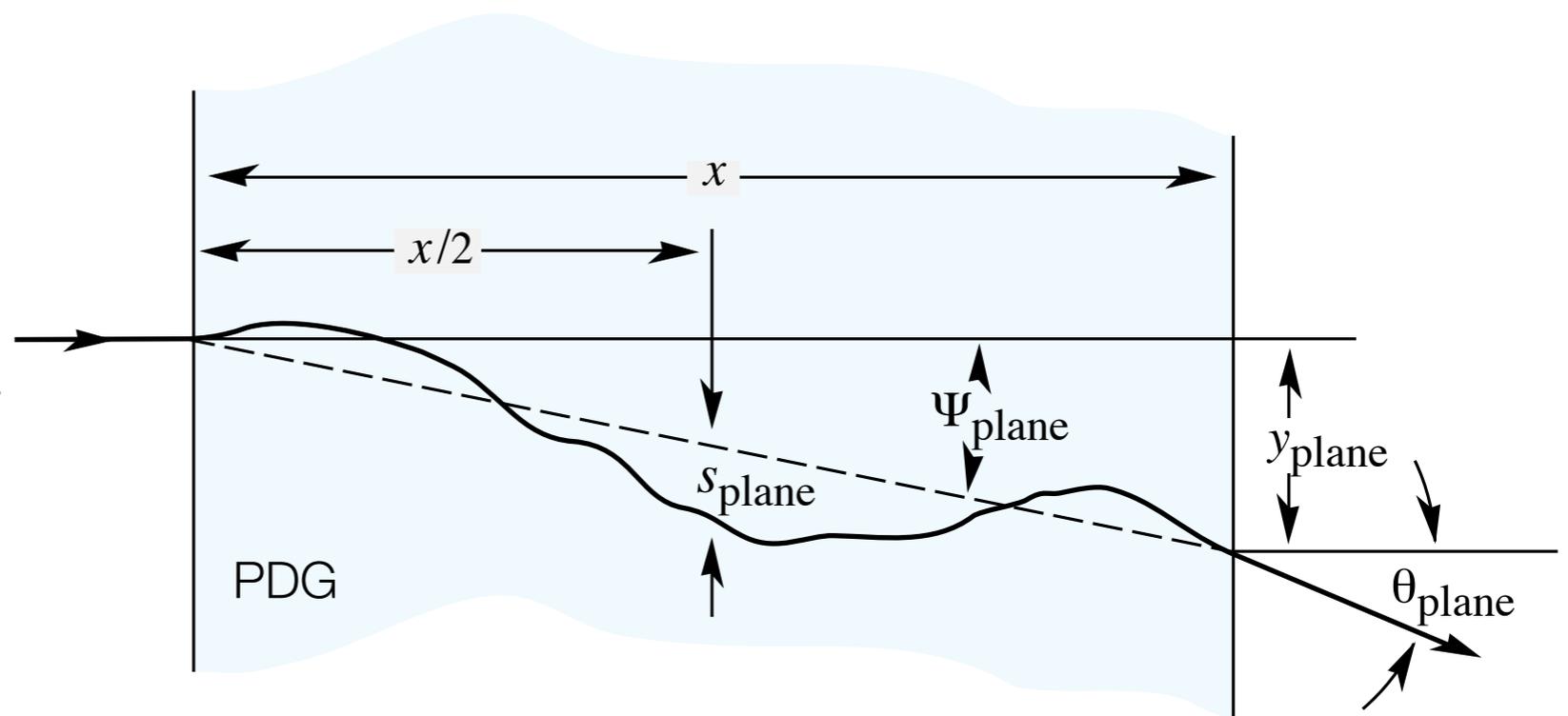
$$R_M \propto X_0/E_C$$

$$\propto A/Z$$

Cylinder  
containing 90%  
of shower

# Shower width

- **Multiple Coulomb scattering** of electrons - elastic, but changes direction.
- Dominant at high energies, used to derive Moliere radius
- **Compton scattering and photoelectric effect** produce new particles isotropically
- Relevant at lower energies



Define Moliere radius

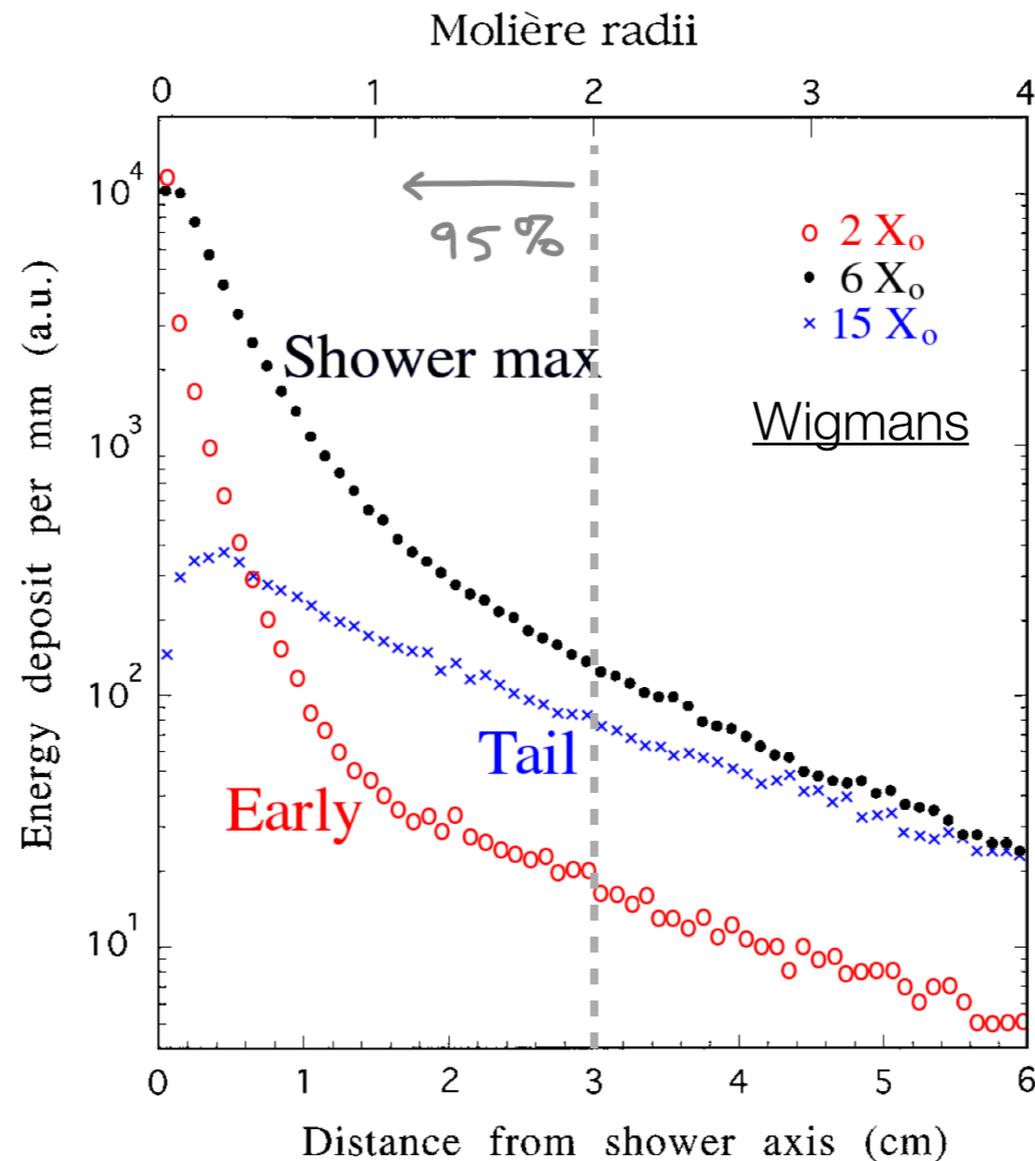
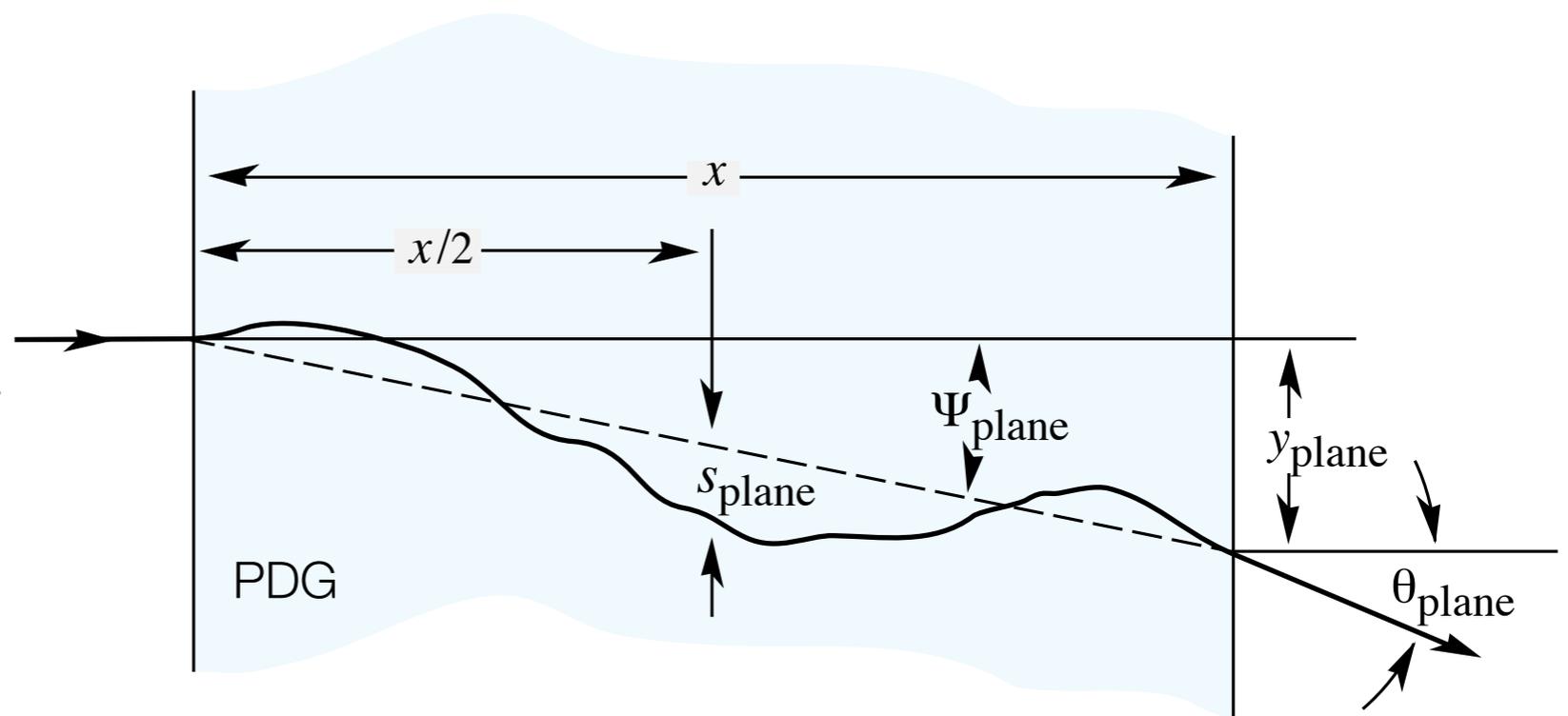
$$R_M \propto X_0/E_C$$

$$\propto A/Z$$

Cylinder  
containing 90%  
of shower

# Shower width

- **Multiple Coulomb scattering** of electrons - elastic, but changes direction.
- Dominant at high energies, used to derive Moliere radius
- **Compton scattering and photoelectric effect** produce new particles isotropically
- Relevant at lower energies



Define Moliere radius

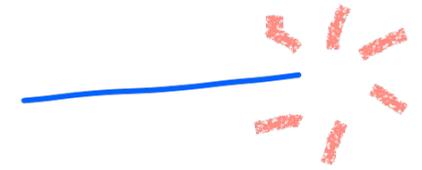
$$R_M \propto X_0/E_C$$

$$\propto A/Z$$

Recall  $X_0 \propto A/Z^2$

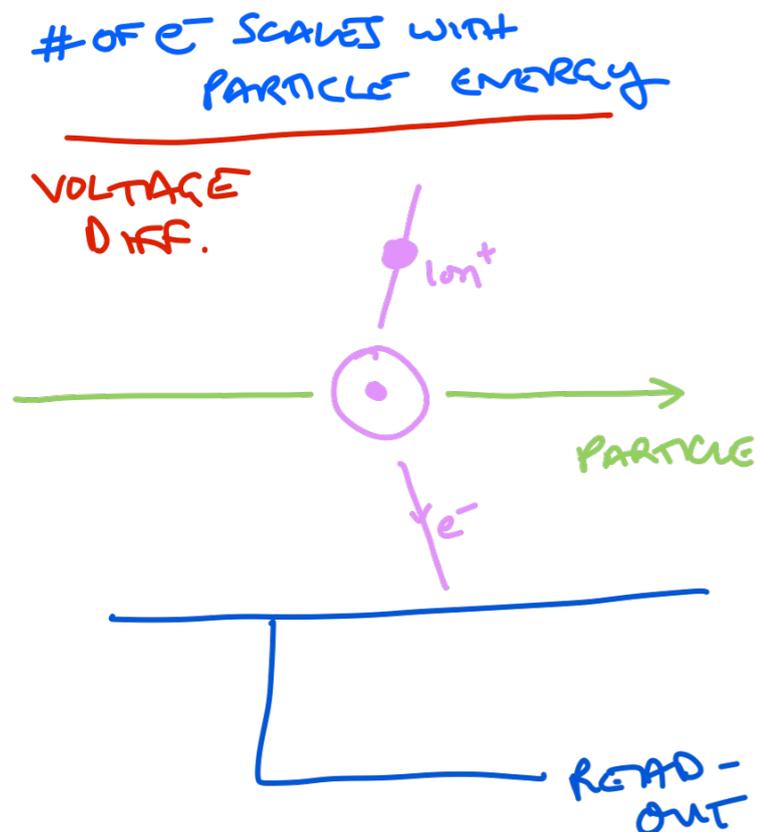
→ shower depth changes a lot with material, but  $R_M$  only changes a little

# What happens at the end of the shower?

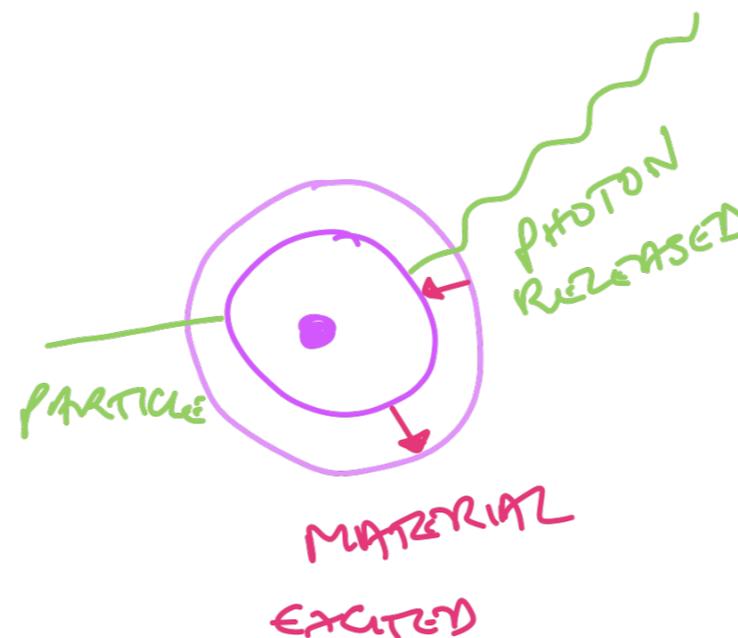


- In most materials, not much! In a block of lead, energy ultimately dissipates as heat. For us, this constitutes lost information.
- In other materials, well-defined process makes this energy visible to us.

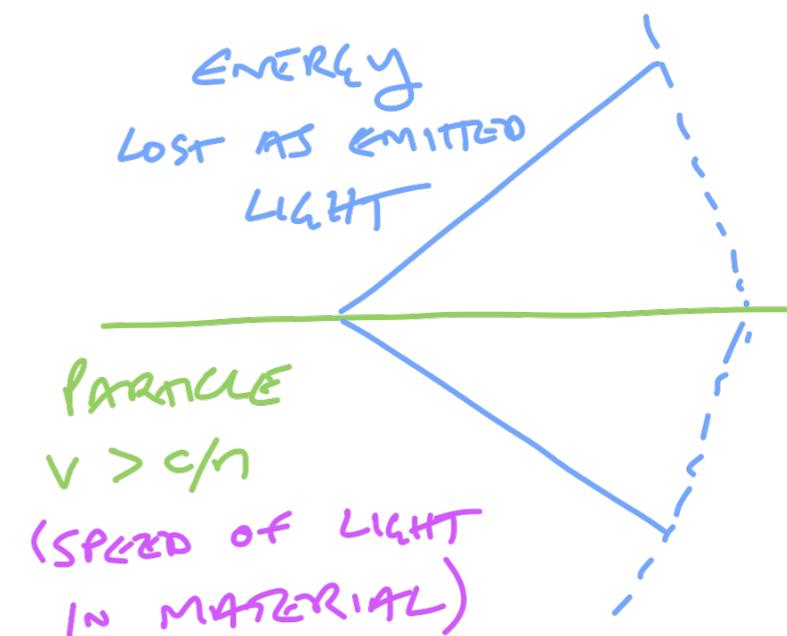
## Ionisation

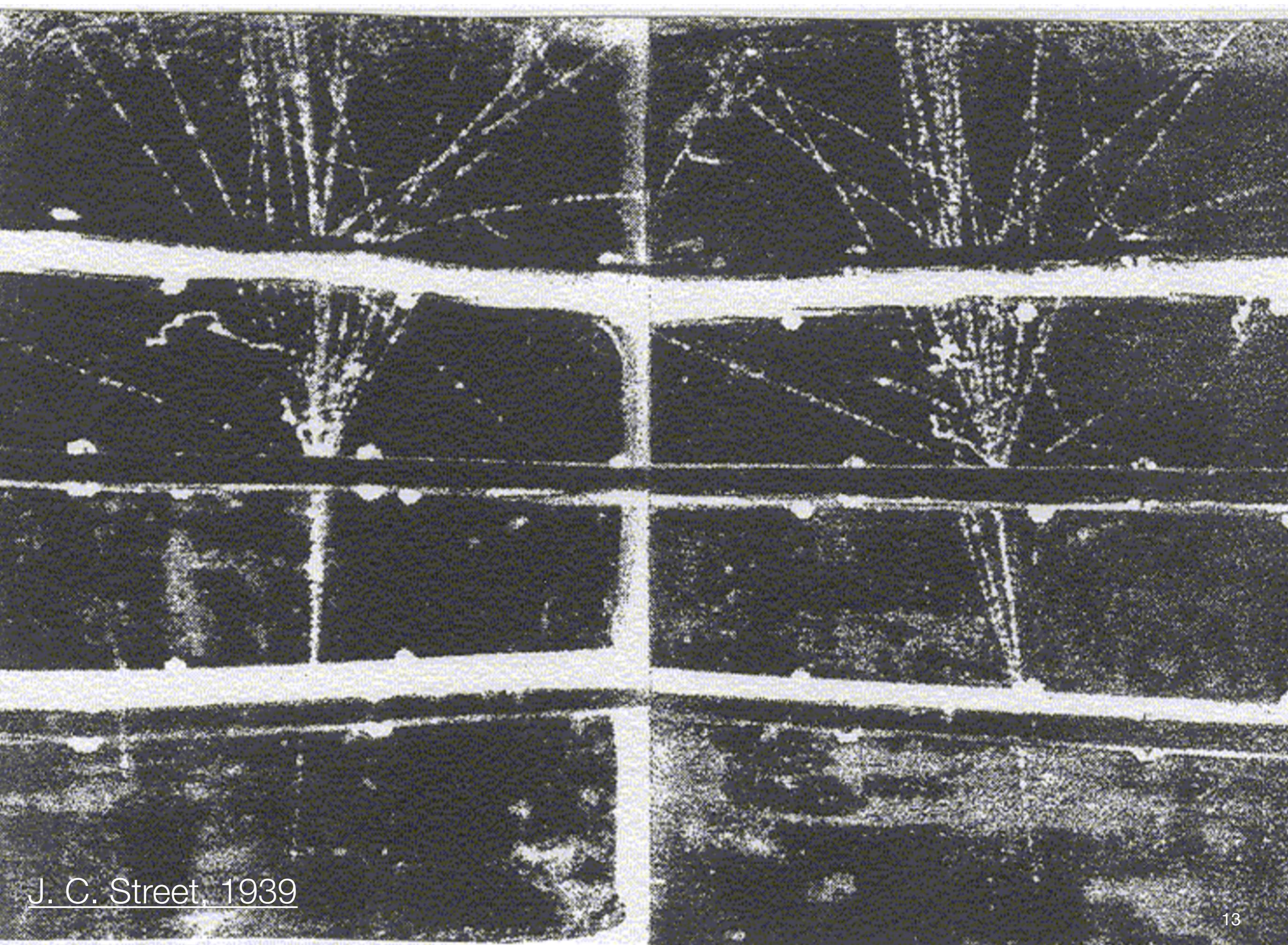


## Scintillation



## Cherenkov radiation





J. C. Street, 1939

# Materials for the detector

Also important: high granularity, fast response, affordable...

- Now to design a calorimeter to contain and measure shower energy! Two key (physics) features for the material we want to build it from.
  - Has to cause the shower to develop: favour **high Z**
  - Has to make deposited energy detectable and proportional to initial particle energy: needs to **ionise or scintillate** (see “end of the shower” slide!)
- It's possible to get a material that can do both!
  - Examples: solid lead tungstate crystals (CMS ECAL), large volume of liquid scintillator (KamLAND, Daya Bay)



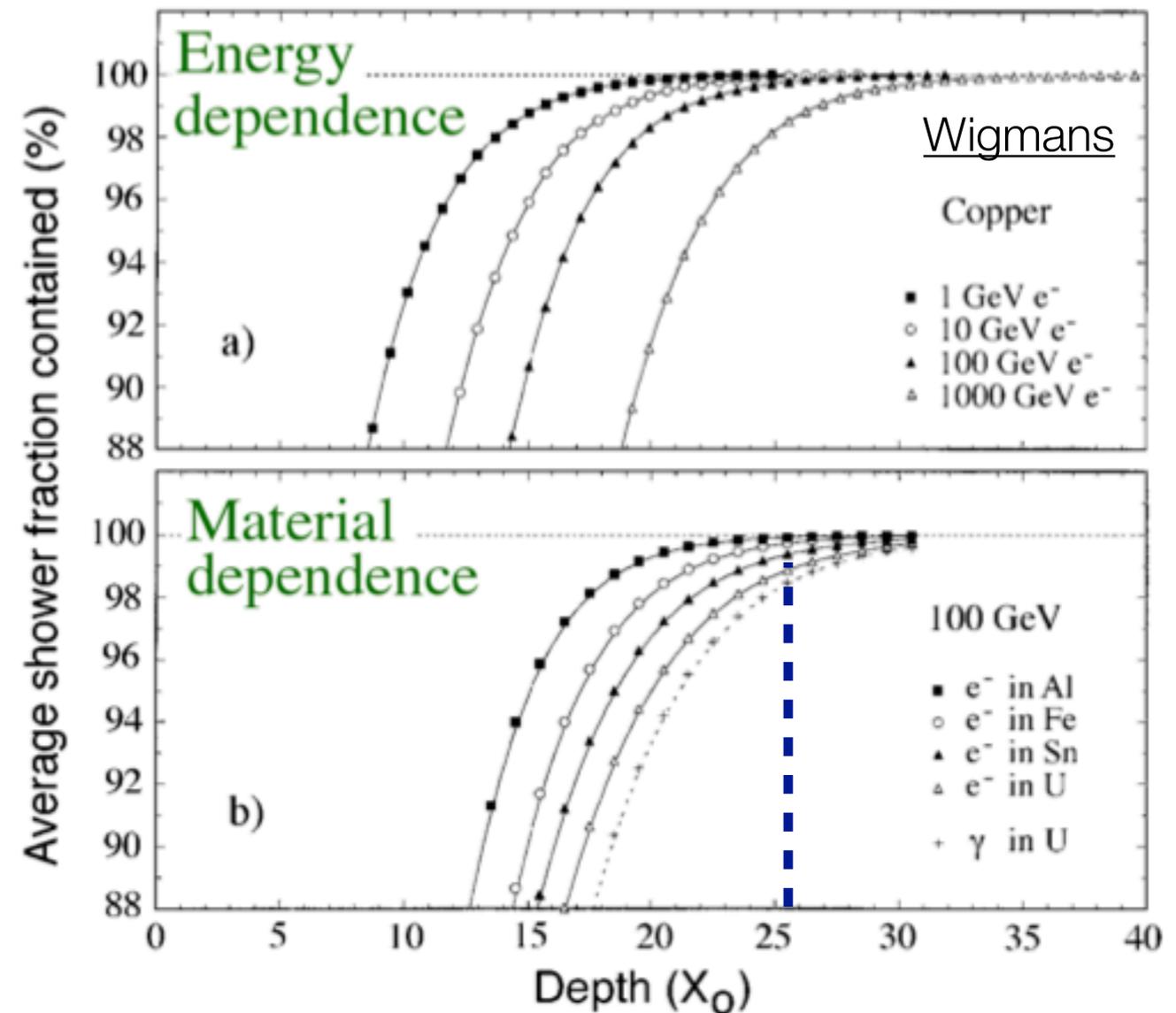
# Scale of a *homogeneous* calorimeter

	NaI(Tl)	BGO	CsI(Tl)	PbWO <sub>4</sub>
density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	3.67	7.13	4.53	8.28
$X_0$ (cm)	2.59	1.12	1.85	0.89
$R_M$ (cm)	4.5	2.4	3.8	2.2
$dE/dx_{mip}$ (MeV/cm)	4.8	9.2	5.6	13.0
light yield (photons/MeV)	$4 \cdot 10^4$	$8 \cdot 10^3$	$5 \cdot 10^4$	$3 \cdot 10^2$
energy resolution $\sigma_E/E$	$1\%/\sqrt{E}$	$1\%/\sqrt{E}$	$1.3\%/\sqrt{E}$	$2.5\%/\sqrt{E}$

Masciocchi

- CMS EM calorimeter made of PbWO<sub>4</sub>
- Each crystal 2.2 x 2.2 x 23 cm: equivalent to  $R_M \times R_M \times 25 X_0$
- Therefore, contains 99% of shower depth and is sufficiently granular to measure shower's position well

Electron induced showers  
(photon requires a bit more)



99% of shower contained  
after 19-26  $X_0$

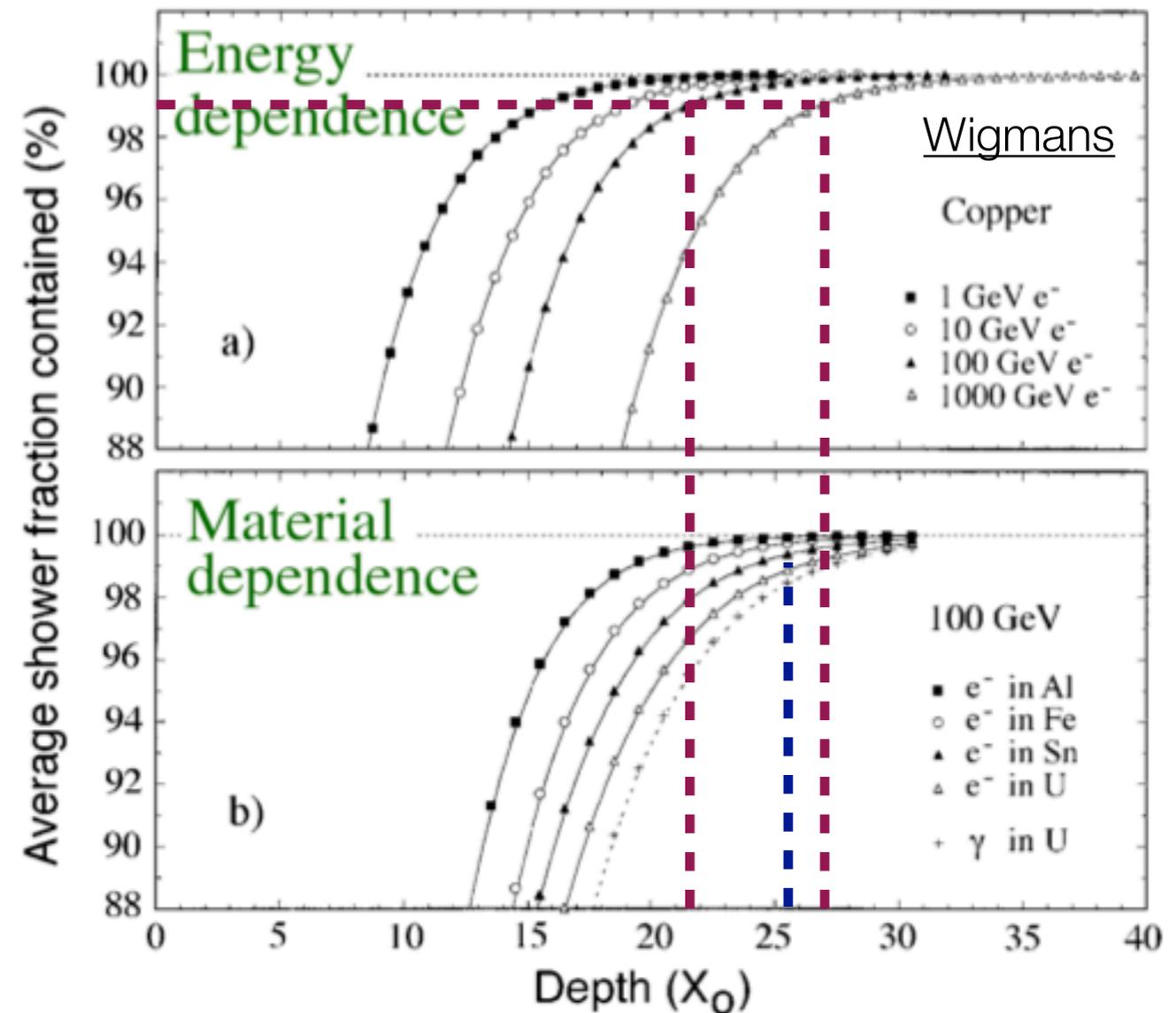
# Scale of a *homogeneous* calorimeter

	NaI(Tl)	BGO	CsI(Tl)	PbWO <sub>4</sub>
density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	3.67	7.13	4.53	8.28
$X_0$ (cm)	2.59	1.12	1.85	0.89
$R_M$ (cm)	4.5	2.4	3.8	2.2
$dE/dx_{mip}$ (MeV/cm)	4.8	9.2	5.6	13.0
light yield (photons/MeV)	$4 \cdot 10^4$	$8 \cdot 10^3$	$5 \cdot 10^4$	$3 \cdot 10^2$
energy resolution $\sigma_E/E$	$1\%/\sqrt{E}$	$1\%/\sqrt{E}$	$1.3\%/\sqrt{E}$	$2.5\%/\sqrt{E}$

Masciocchi

- CMS EM calorimeter made of PbWO<sub>4</sub>
- Each crystal 2.2 x 2.2 x 23 cm: equivalent to  $R_M \times R_M \times 25 X_0$
- Therefore, contains 99% of shower depth and is sufficiently granular to measure shower's position well

Electron induced showers  
(photon requires a bit more)



99% of shower contained  
after 19-26  $X_0$

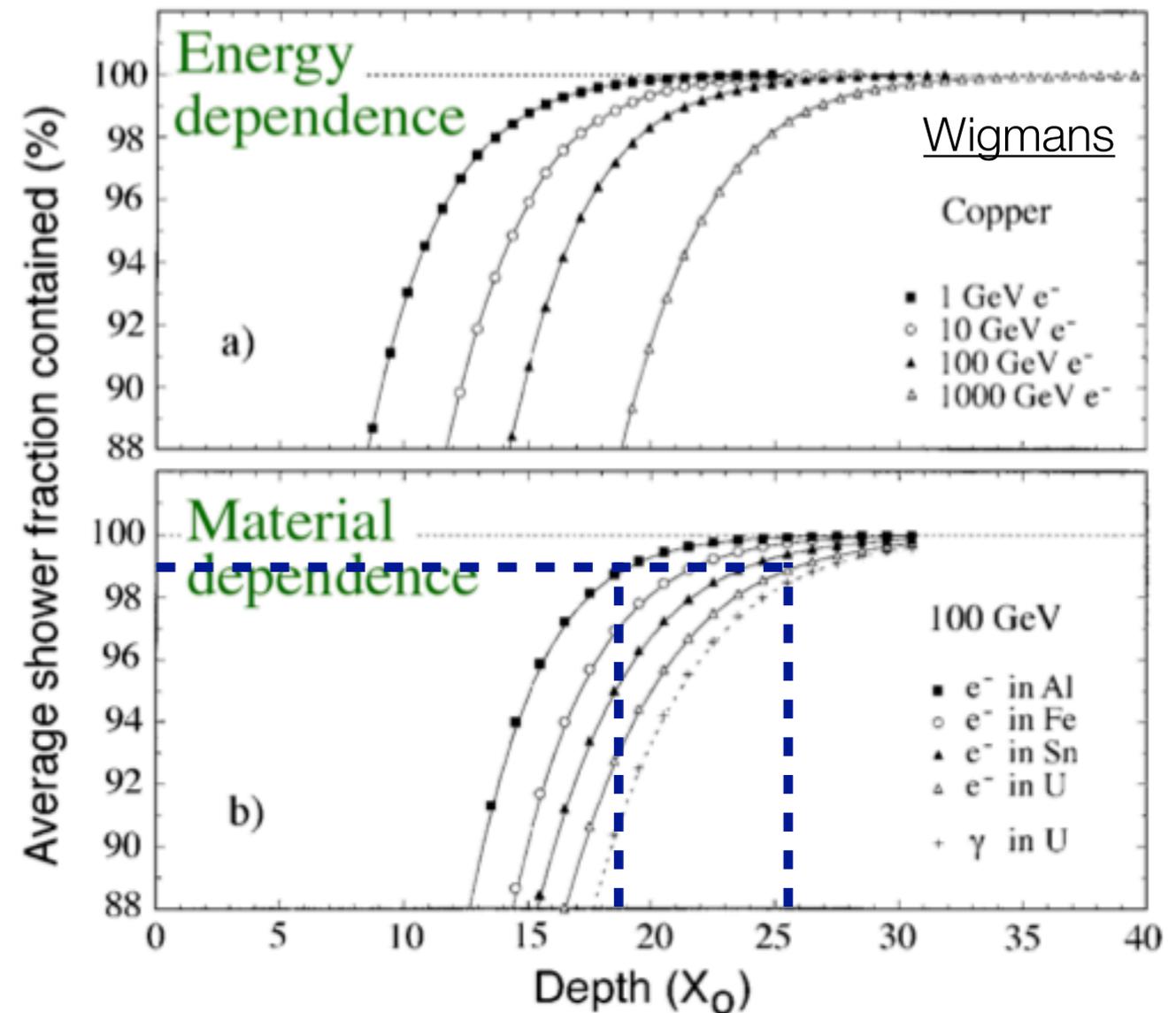
# Scale of a *homogeneous* calorimeter

	NaI(Tl)	BGO	CsI(Tl)	PbWO <sub>4</sub>
density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	3.67	7.13	4.53	8.28
$X_0$ (cm)	2.59	1.12	1.85	0.89
$R_M$ (cm)	4.5	2.4	3.8	2.2
$dE/dx_{mip}$ (MeV/cm)	4.8	9.2	5.6	13.0
light yield (photons/MeV)	$4 \cdot 10^4$	$8 \cdot 10^3$	$5 \cdot 10^4$	$3 \cdot 10^2$
energy resolution $\sigma_E/E$	$1\%/\sqrt{E}$	$1\%/\sqrt{E}$	$1.3\%/\sqrt{E}$	$2.5\%/\sqrt{E}$

Masciocchi

- CMS EM calorimeter made of PbWO<sub>4</sub>
- Each crystal 2.2 x 2.2 x 23 cm: equivalent to  $R_M \times R_M \times 25 X_0$
- Therefore, contains 99% of shower depth and is sufficiently granular to measure shower's position well

Electron induced showers  
(photon requires a bit more)

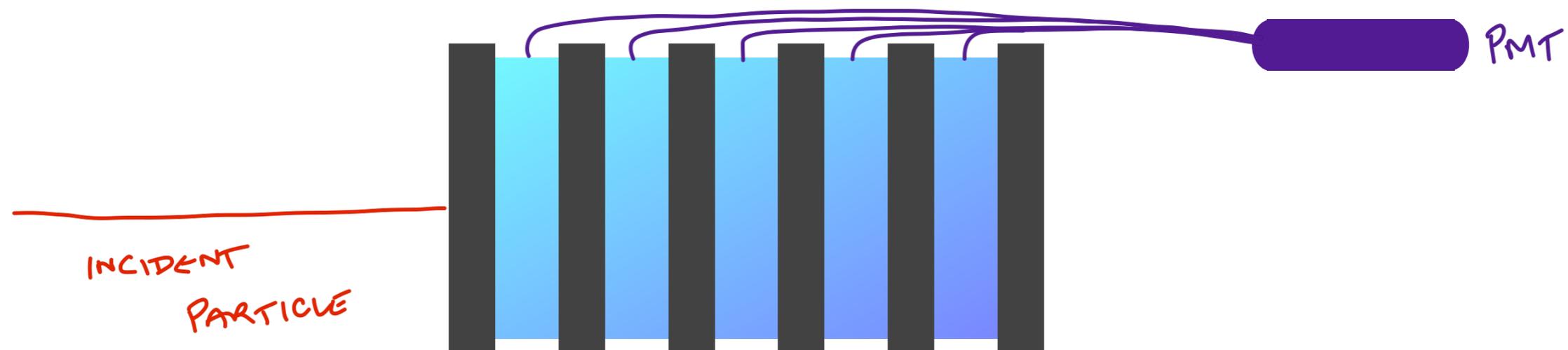


99% of shower contained  
after 19-26  $X_0$

# What if I don't have enough space/money?

---

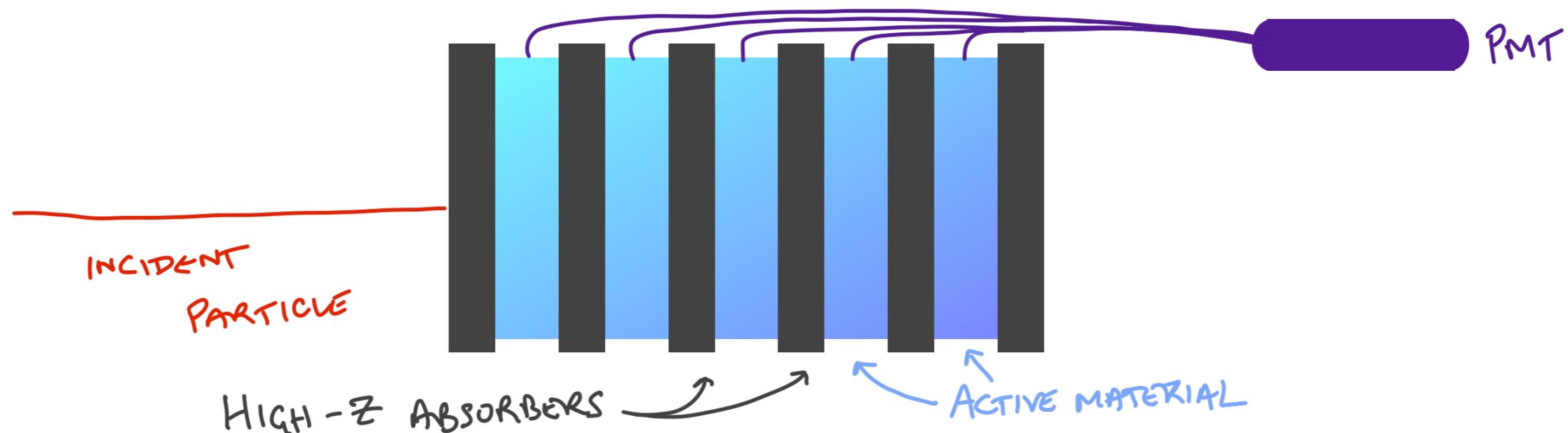
- Homogeneous calorimeters can be bulky or very expensive. More common to separate absorbing material from active material
- *Sampling calorimeters* alternate an absorber to force showering with active material which ionises or scintillates



- Only a fraction of deposited energy is recorded, but the fraction is predictable so the recorded signal is still proportional to incident particle energy

# What if I don't have enough space/money?

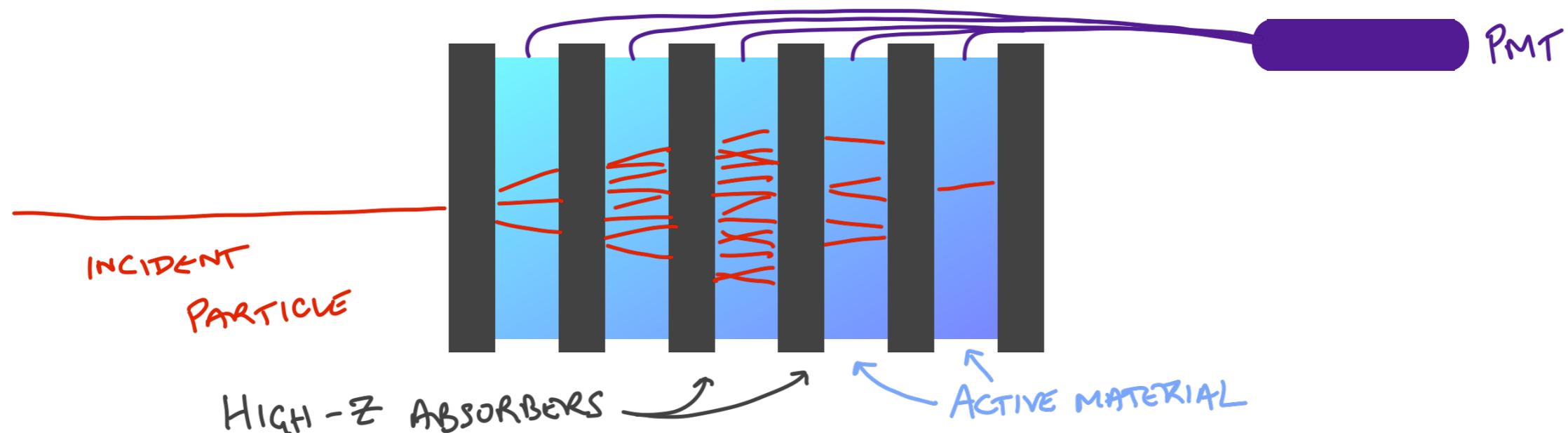
- Homogeneous calorimeters can be bulky or very expensive. More common to separate absorbing material from active material
- *Sampling calorimeters* alternate an absorber to force showering with active material which ionises or scintillates



- Only a fraction of deposited energy is recorded, but the fraction is predictable so the recorded signal is still proportional to incident particle energy

# What if I don't have enough space/money?

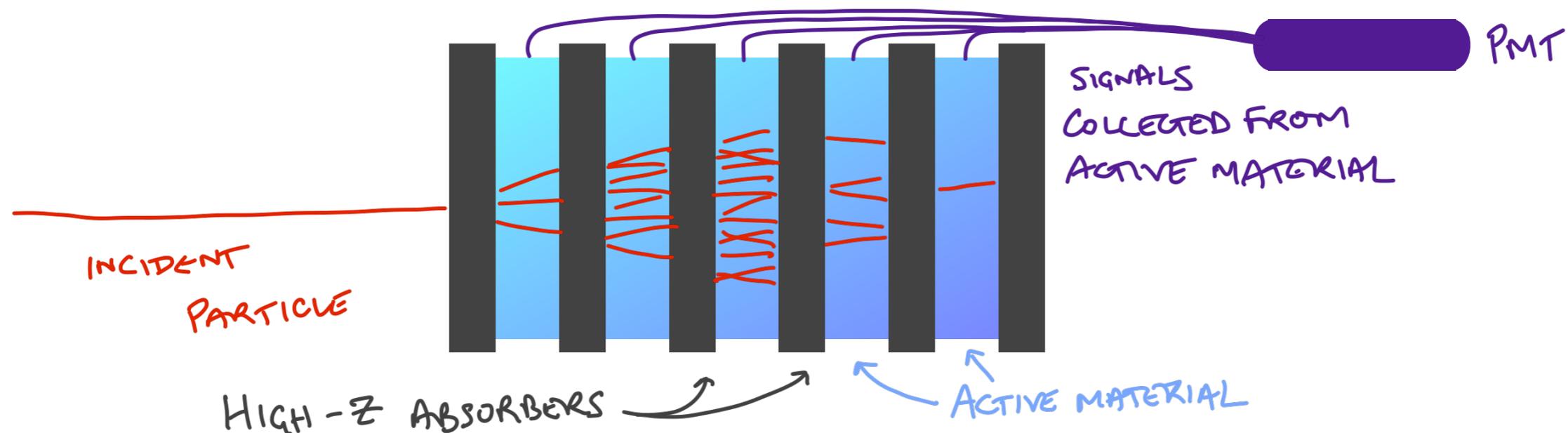
- Homogeneous calorimeters can be bulky or very expensive. More common to separate absorbing material from active material
- *Sampling calorimeters* alternate an absorber to force showering with active material which ionises or scintillates



- Only a fraction of deposited energy is recorded, but the fraction is predictable so the recorded signal is still proportional to incident particle energy

# What if I don't have enough space/money?

- Homogeneous calorimeters can be bulky or very expensive. More common to separate absorbing material from active material
- *Sampling calorimeters* alternate an absorber to force showering with active material which ionises or scintillates



- Only a fraction of deposited energy is recorded, but the fraction is predictable so the recorded signal is still proportional to incident particle energy

# Example of a *sampling* calorimeter

Dimensions from  
ATL-COM-LARG-2008

ATLAS EM calorimeter made of lead mixture as absorber ( $X_0 = 0.75$  cm) and liquid argon active material ( $X_0 = 14$  cm)

Calorimeter thickness: 46 cm

Lead layers: 1.1-1.5 mm

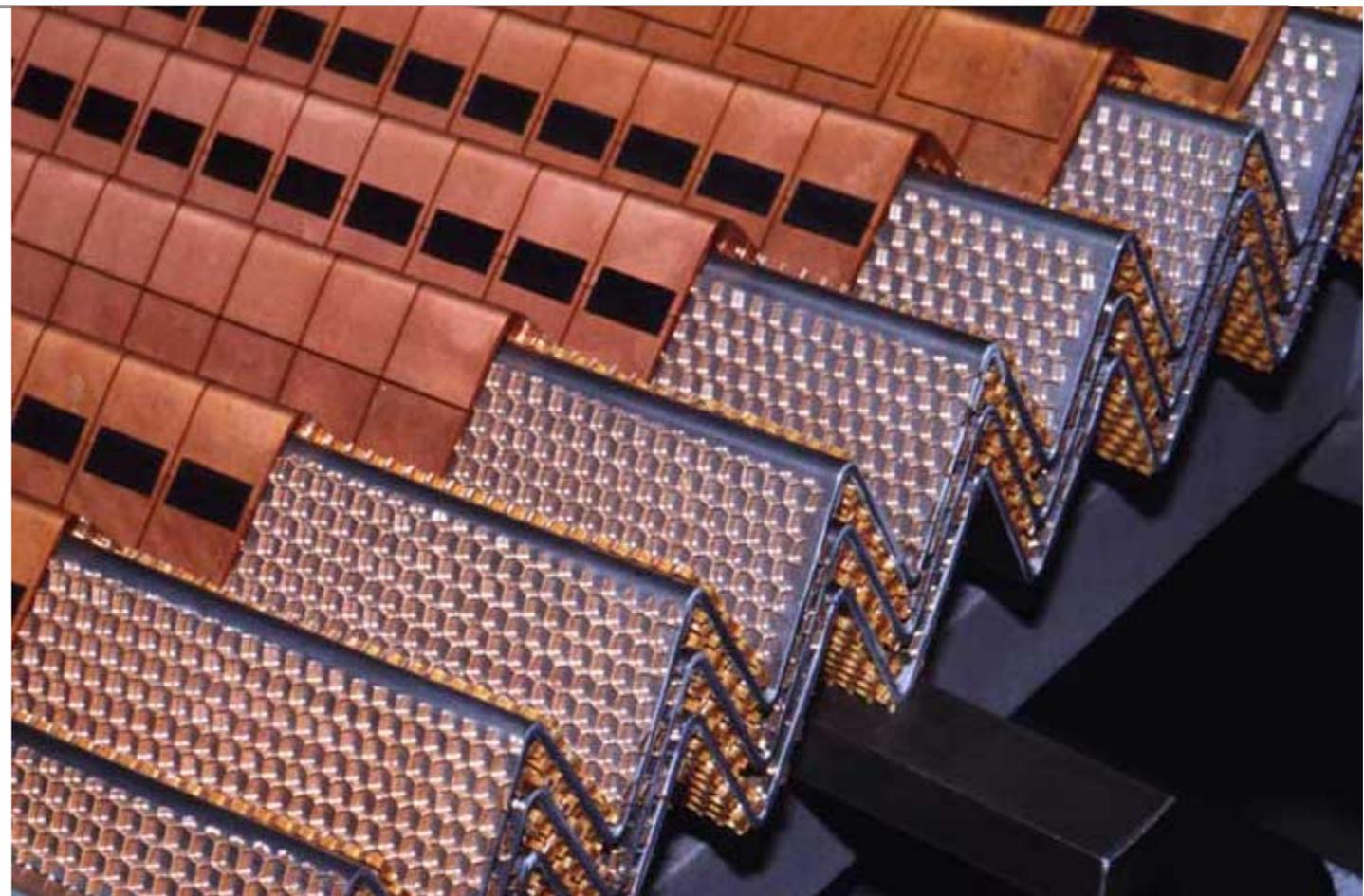
LAr layers: 2.1 mm

Total Pb thickness  $\sim 17$  cm  
 $= 22.7 X_0$

Total LAr thickness  $\sim 29$  cm  
 $= 2.0 X_0$

Total  $X_0$  is about 25

... enough to contain 99% of an electromagnetic shower.



If we wanted the same  $X_0$  with LAr alone, the calorimeter would have to be 3.5 m deep!

# Calorimeter resolution

---

## Resolution contributions

Showering fluctuations  
and statistics  $\propto 1/\sqrt{E}$

Noise  $\propto 1/E$

Shower leakage  $\sim$  constant

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus \frac{b}{E} \oplus c$$

Resolution is better  
for higher E!

- **Homogeneous calorimeters** have great resolution because all deposited energy is recorded
- **Sampling calorimeters** have additional contribution from fluctuations in amount sampled

# Calorimeter resolution

---

## Resolution contributions

Showering fluctuations  
and statistics  $\propto 1/\sqrt{E}$

Noise  $\propto 1/E$

Shower leakage  $\sim$  constant

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus \frac{b}{E} \oplus c \quad \sim 2 \text{ to } 3\%$$

Resolution is better  
for higher E!

- **Homogeneous calorimeters** have great resolution because all deposited energy is recorded
- **Sampling calorimeters** have additional contribution from fluctuations in amount sampled

# Calorimeter resolution

---

## Resolution contributions

Showering fluctuations and statistics  $\propto 1/\sqrt{E}$

Noise  $\propto 1/E$

Shower leakage  $\sim$  constant

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus \frac{b}{E} \oplus c$$

Resolution is better for higher E!

$$a \rightarrow a\sqrt{d/f_{\text{samp}}}$$

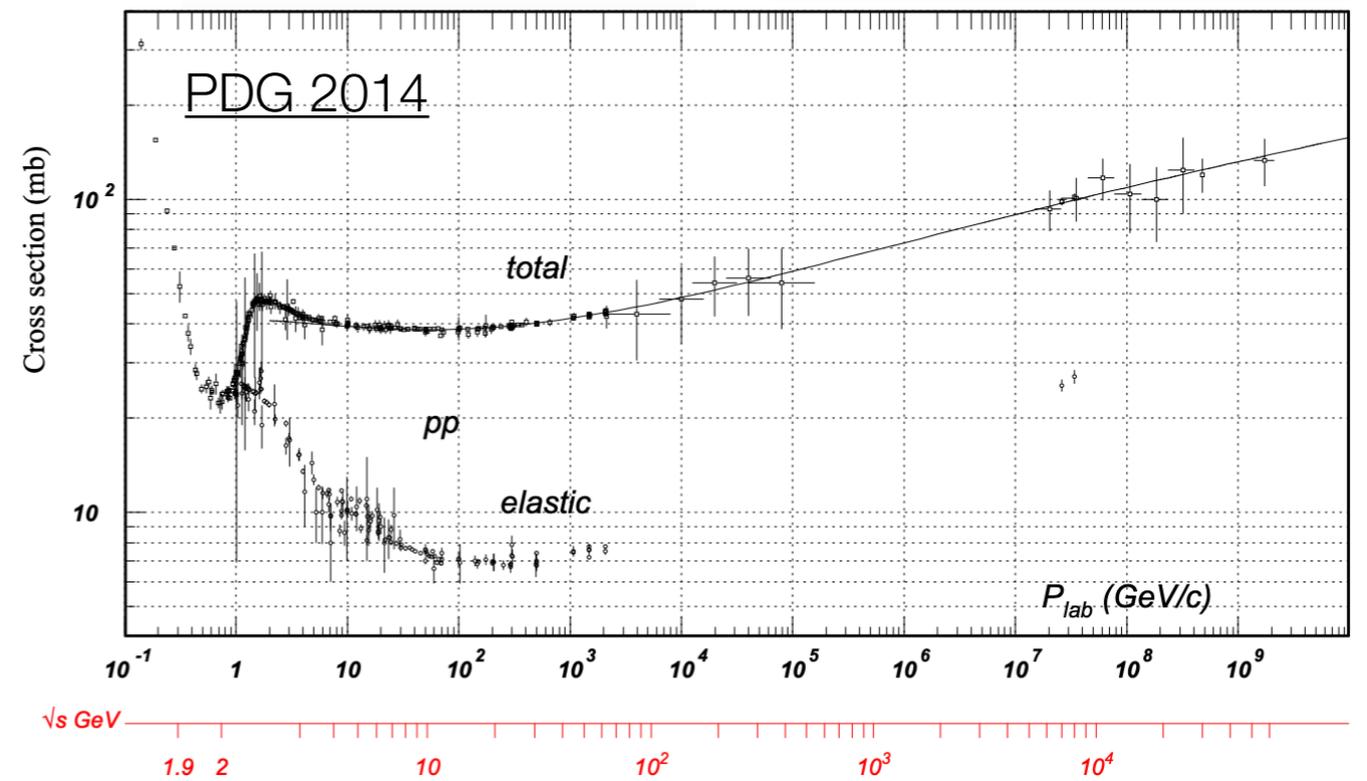
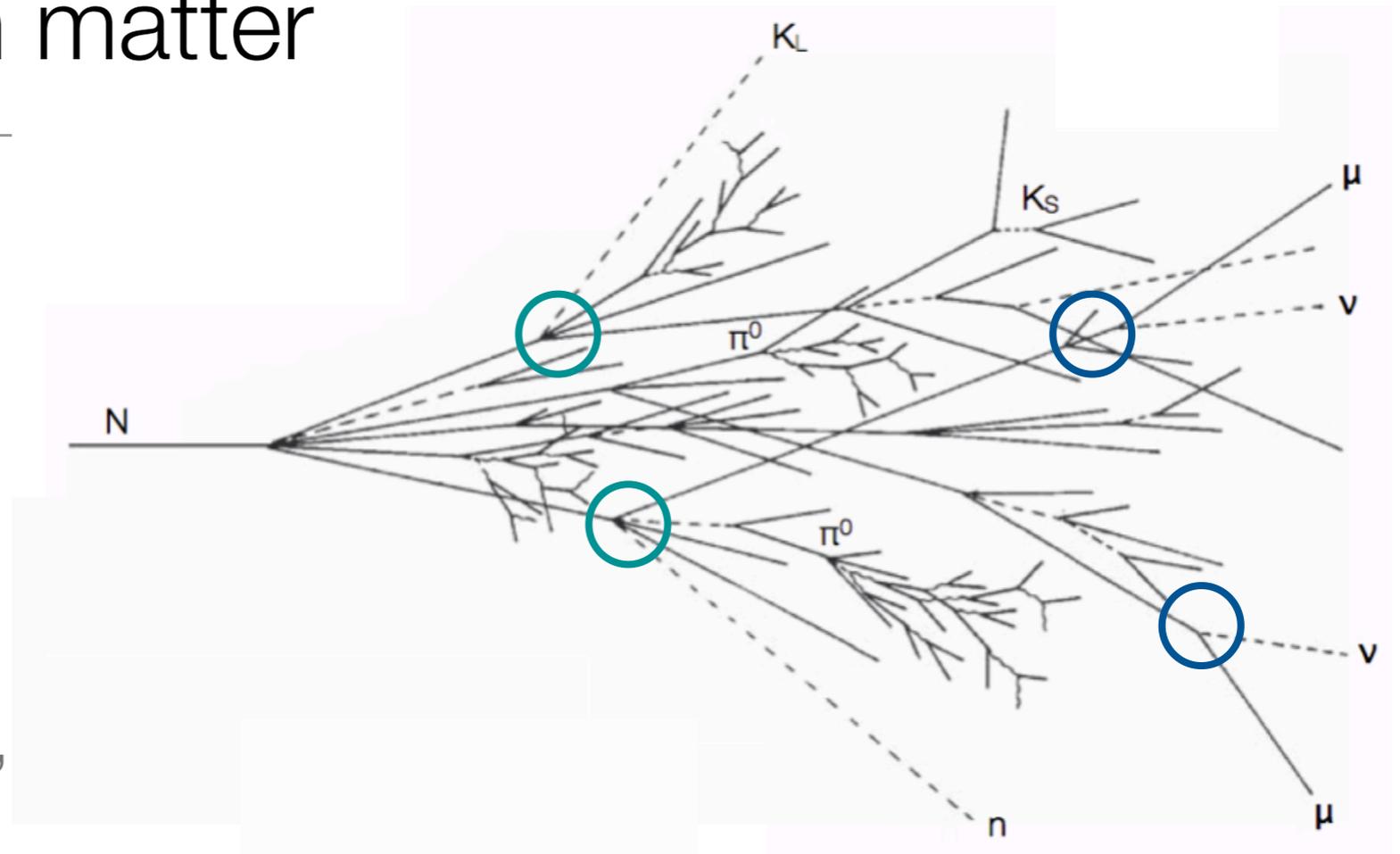
$d$  = active layer thickness  
 $f_{\text{samp}}$  = sampling fraction

- **Homogeneous calorimeters** have great resolution because all deposited energy is recorded
- **Sampling calorimeters** have additional contribution from fluctuations in amount sampled

**~ 5 to 15%**

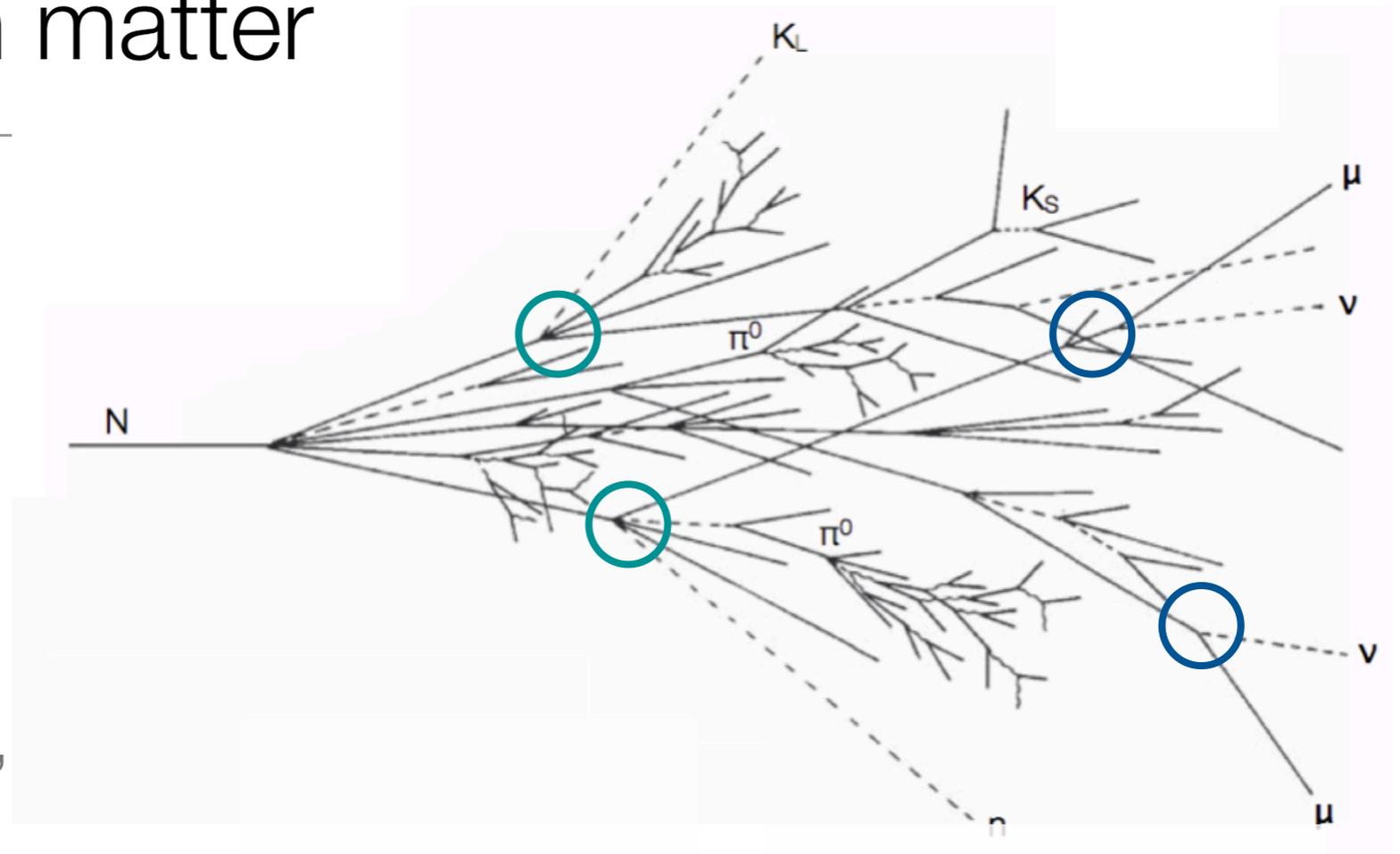
# Hadronic showers in matter

- Strongly charged particles generate more complicated showers
- **Nuclear spallation** reactions release hadrons from target material nuclei, but binding energy is lost and won't appear in calorimeter signal
- Produced fission fragments can undergo  **$\beta$  decays**, creating non-measured neutrinos



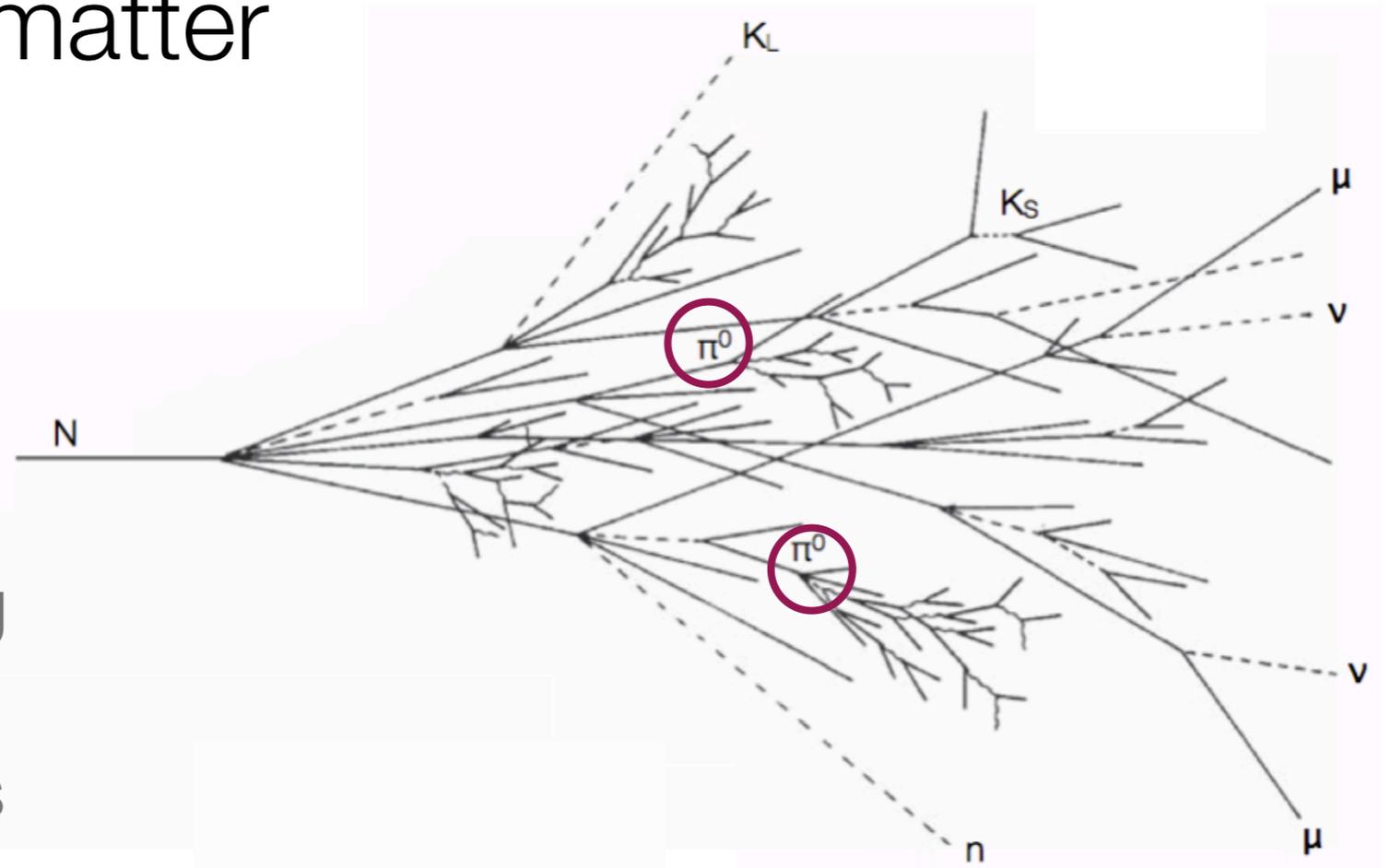
# Hadronic showers in matter

- Strongly charged particles generate more complicated showers
- **Nuclear spallation** reactions release hadrons from target material nuclei, but binding energy is lost and won't appear in calorimeter signal
- Produced fission fragments can undergo  $\beta$  **decays**, creating non-measured neutrinos



# Hadronic showers in matter

- Strongly charged particles generate more complicated showers
- Main products of showering are pions. Produce  $\pi^+$ ,  $\pi^-$ ,  $\pi^0$  in roughly equal fractions
- **$\pi^0$  decays to  $\gamma\gamma$**  which initiates electromagnetic sub-cascade. The more interactions take place in a shower, the more chances to create a  $\pi^0$



***Non-linearity:***  
**Response is different (better)**  
**for higher-energy jets**

# Size of a hadronic shower

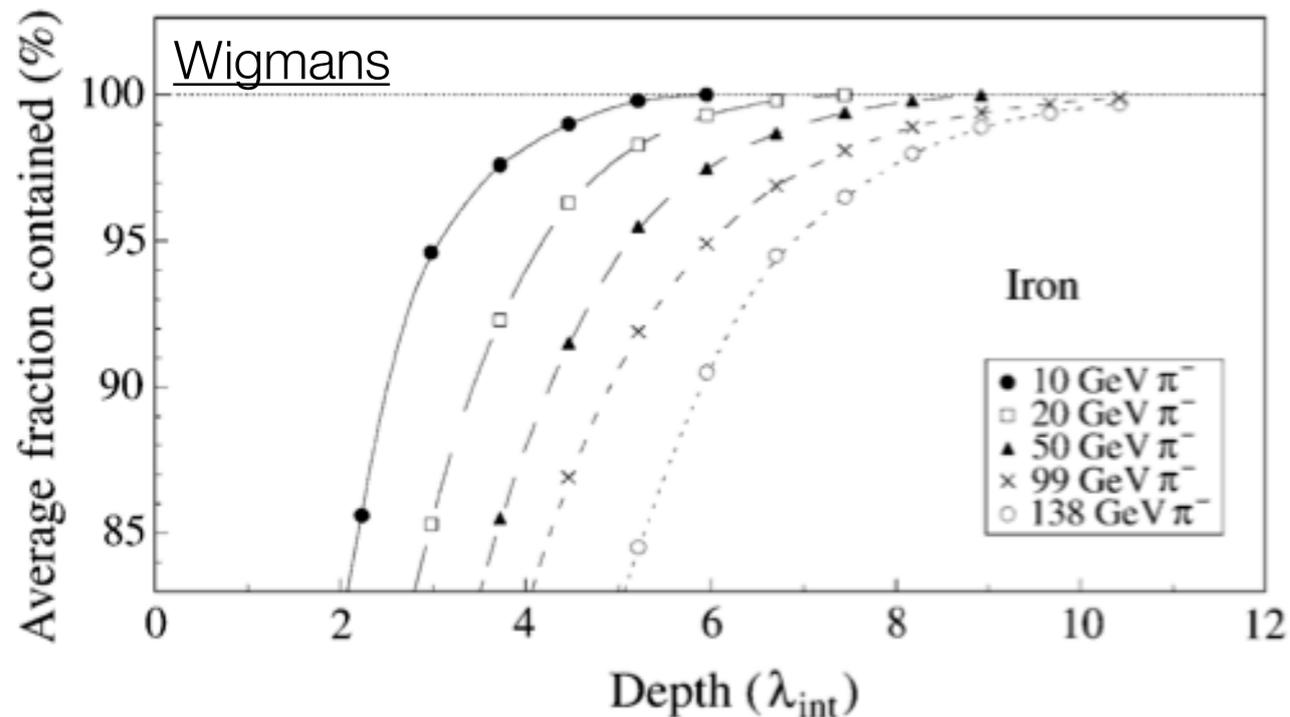
- Equivalent of radiation length is *interaction length*  $\lambda_{\text{int}}$
- Hadronic shower 95% contained within **9  $\lambda_{\text{int}}$  longitudinally** and 1  $\lambda_{\text{int}}$  transversely

$$\sigma_{\text{tot}} = \sigma_{\text{el}} + \sigma_{\text{inel}}$$

$$\sim \sigma_{pp} \cdot A^{2/3}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{int}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{\text{tot}} \cdot n} \approx \frac{A}{\sigma_{pp} A^{2/3} \cdot N_A \rho}$$

$$\sim 35 \text{ g/cm}^2 \cdot A^{1/3} \quad \text{for high } Z$$



# Size of a hadronic shower

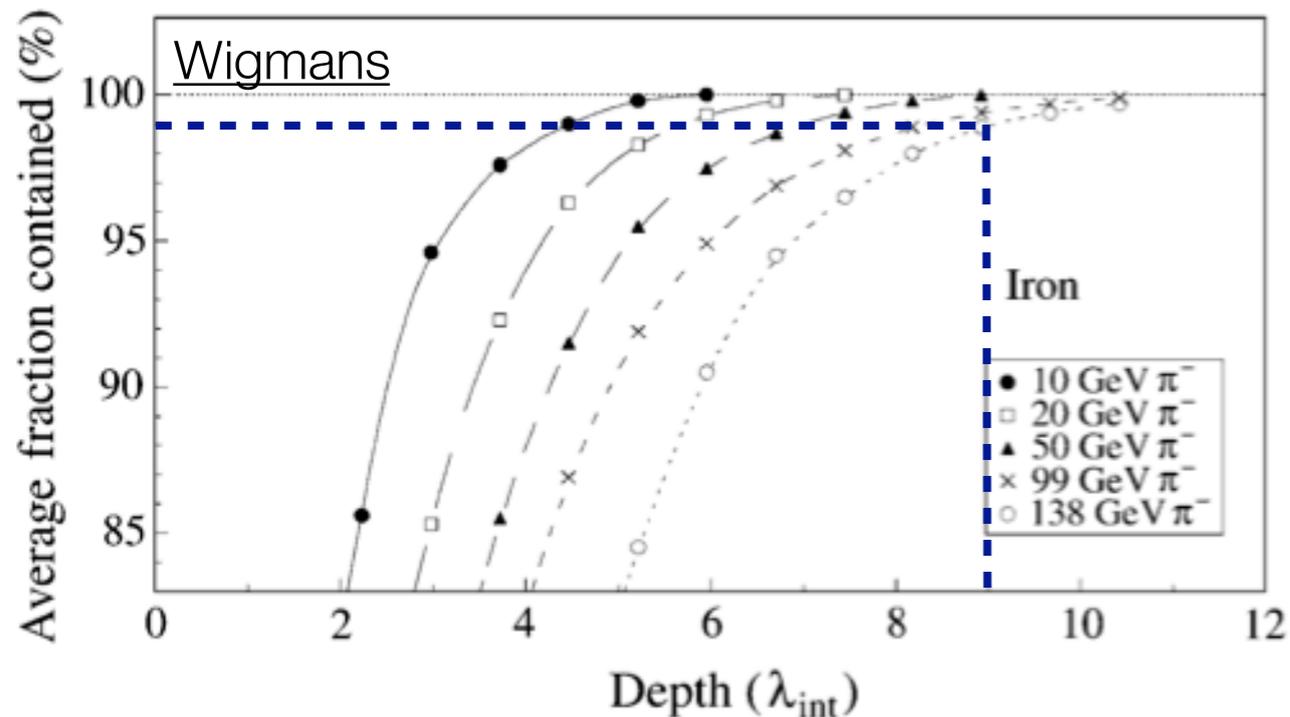
- Equivalent of radiation length is *interaction length*  $\lambda_{\text{int}}$
- Hadronic shower 95% contained within **9  $\lambda_{\text{int}}$  longitudinally** and 1  $\lambda_{\text{int}}$  transversely

$$\sigma_{\text{tot}} = \sigma_{\text{el}} + \sigma_{\text{inel}}$$

$$\sim \sigma_{pp} \cdot A^{2/3}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{int}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{\text{tot}} \cdot n} \approx \frac{A}{\sigma_{pp} A^{2/3} \cdot N_A \rho}$$

$$\sim 35 \text{ g/cm}^2 \cdot A^{1/3} \quad \text{for high } Z$$



# Size of a hadronic shower

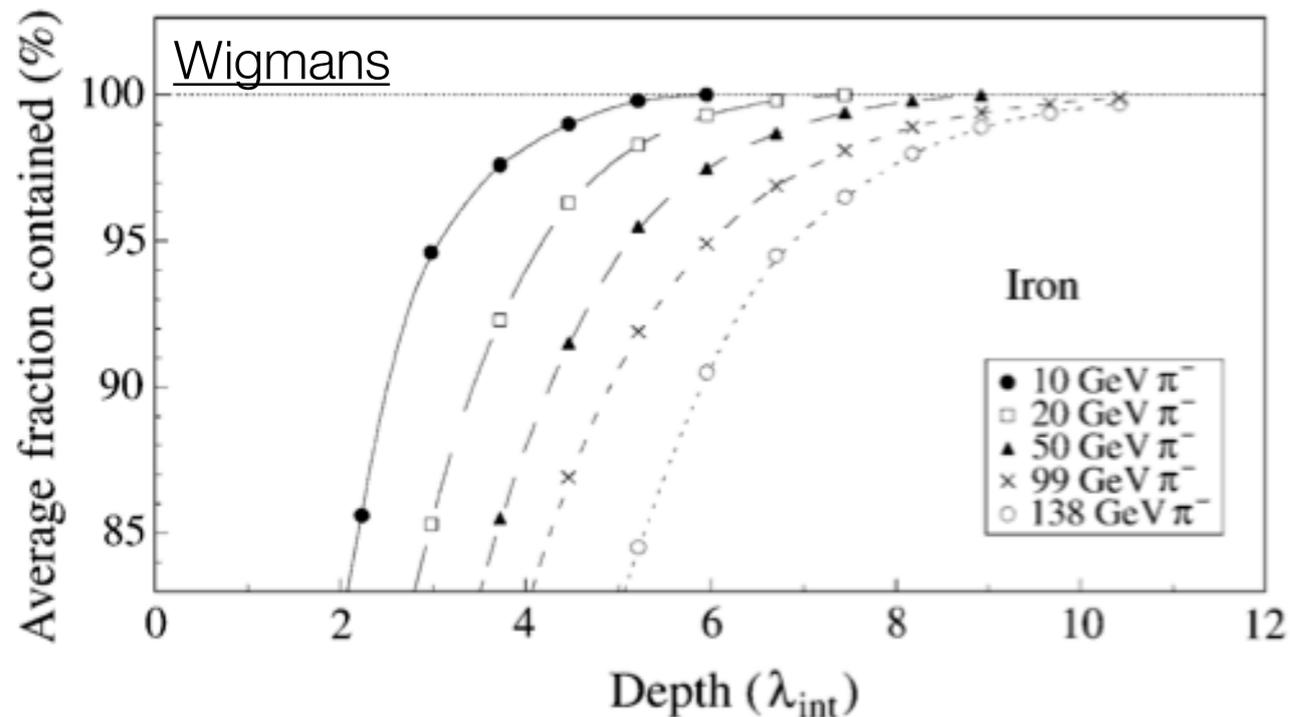
- Equivalent of radiation length is *interaction length*  $\lambda_{\text{int}}$
- Hadronic shower 95% contained within **9  $\lambda_{\text{int}}$  longitudinally** and 1  $\lambda_{\text{int}}$  transversely

$$\sigma_{\text{tot}} = \sigma_{\text{el}} + \sigma_{\text{inel}}$$

$$\sim \sigma_{pp} \cdot A^{2/3}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{int}} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{\text{tot}} \cdot n} \approx \frac{A}{\sigma_{pp} A^{2/3} \cdot N_A \rho}$$

$$\sim 35 \text{ g/cm}^2 \cdot A^{1/3} \quad \text{for high } Z$$



If  $X_0 \propto 1/A$  and  $\lambda_{\text{int}} \propto A^{1/3}$ , then

$$\lambda_{\text{int}}/X_0 \propto A^{4/3}$$

→ Interaction length is a lot longer than  $X_0$  for most materials!

Material	C	Al	Fe	Pb
$X_0$ (cm)	18.9	8.9	1.8	0.56
$\lambda_{\text{int}}$ (cm)	26.1	25.8	10.4	10.1

# Size of a hadronic shower

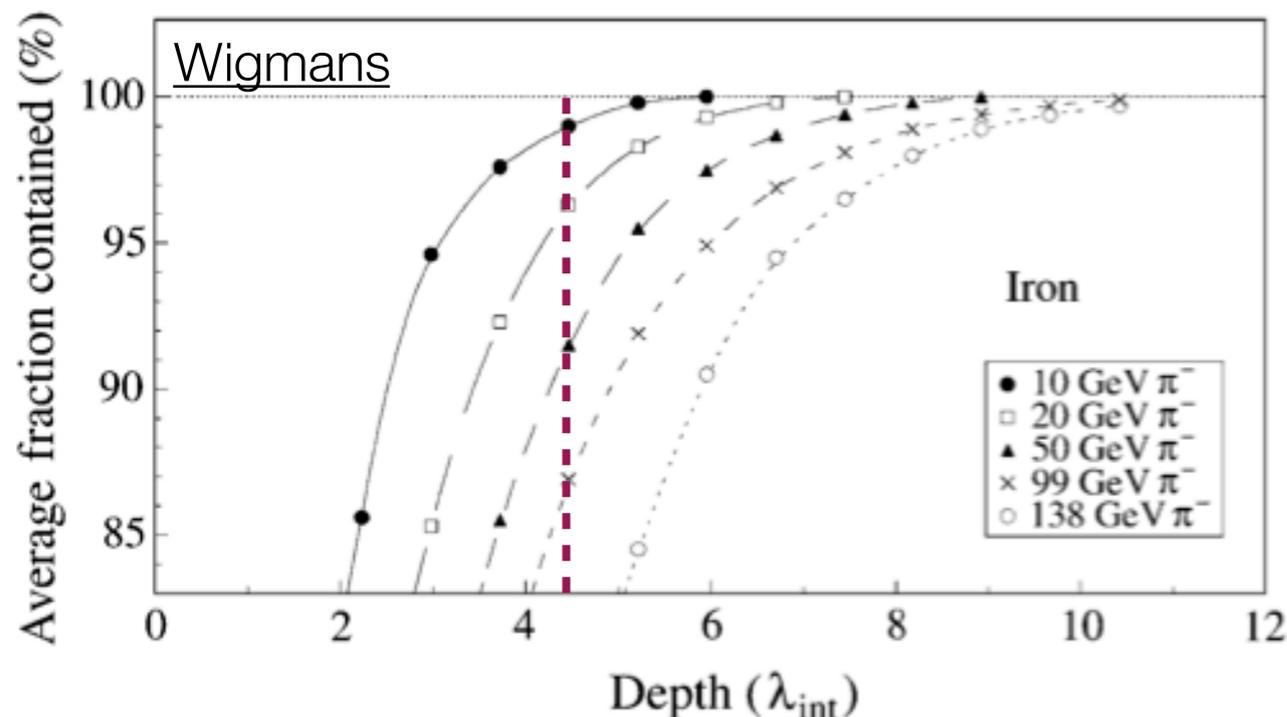
- Equivalent of radiation length is *interaction length*  $\lambda_{int}$
- Hadronic shower 95% contained within **9  $\lambda_{int}$  longitudinally** and 1  $\lambda_{int}$  transversely

$$\sigma_{tot} = \sigma_{el} + \sigma_{inel}$$

$$\sim \sigma_{pp} \cdot A^{2/3}$$

$$\lambda_{int} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{tot} \cdot n} \approx \frac{A}{\sigma_{pp} A^{2/3} \cdot N_A \rho}$$

$$\sim 35 \text{ g/cm}^2 \cdot A^{1/3} \quad \text{for high } Z$$



25  $X_0$ : EM shower fully contained by here

If  $X_0 \propto 1/A$  and  $\lambda_{int} \propto A^{1/3}$ , then

$$\lambda_{int}/X_0 \propto A^{4/3}$$

→ Interaction length is a lot longer than  $X_0$  for most materials!

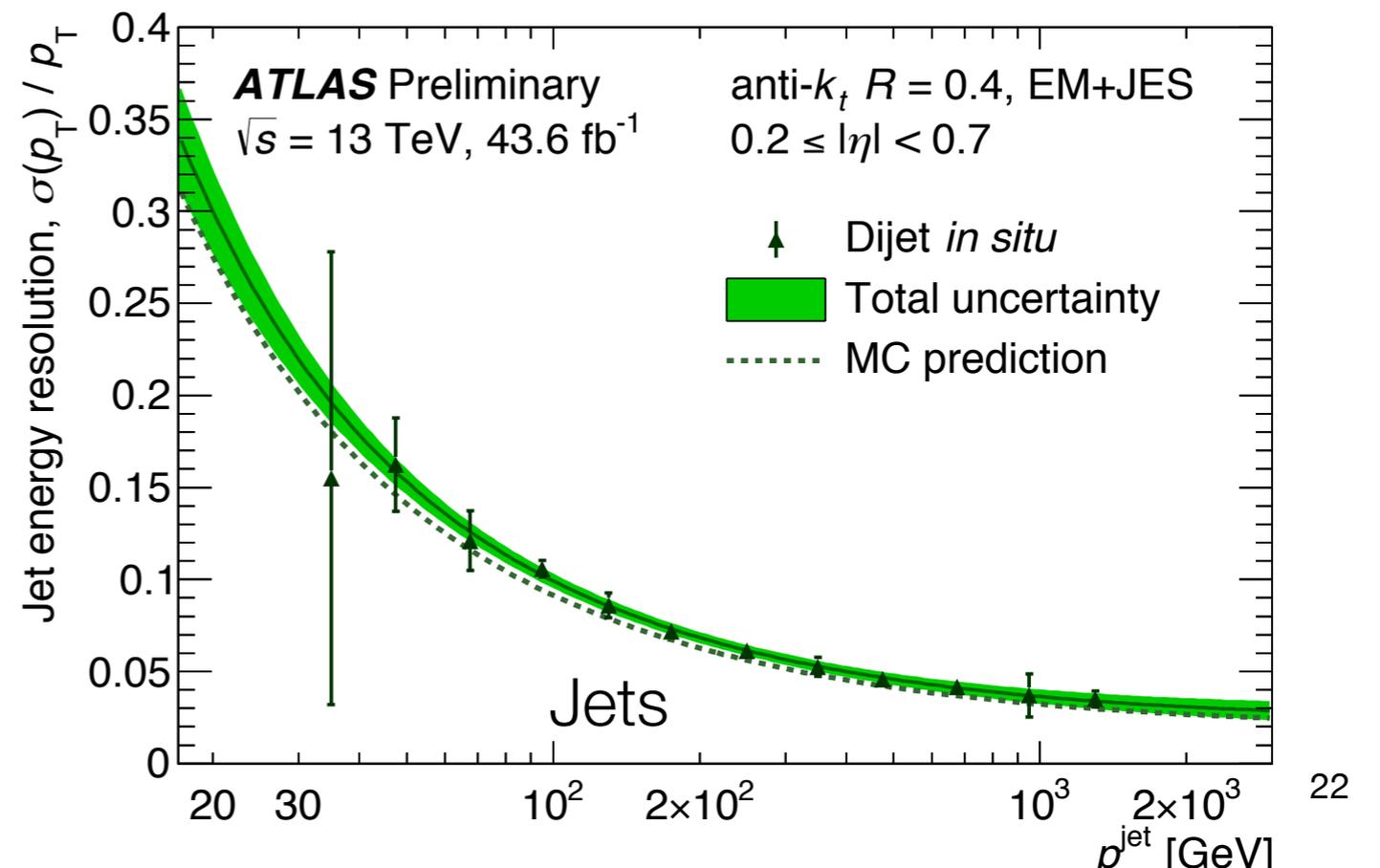
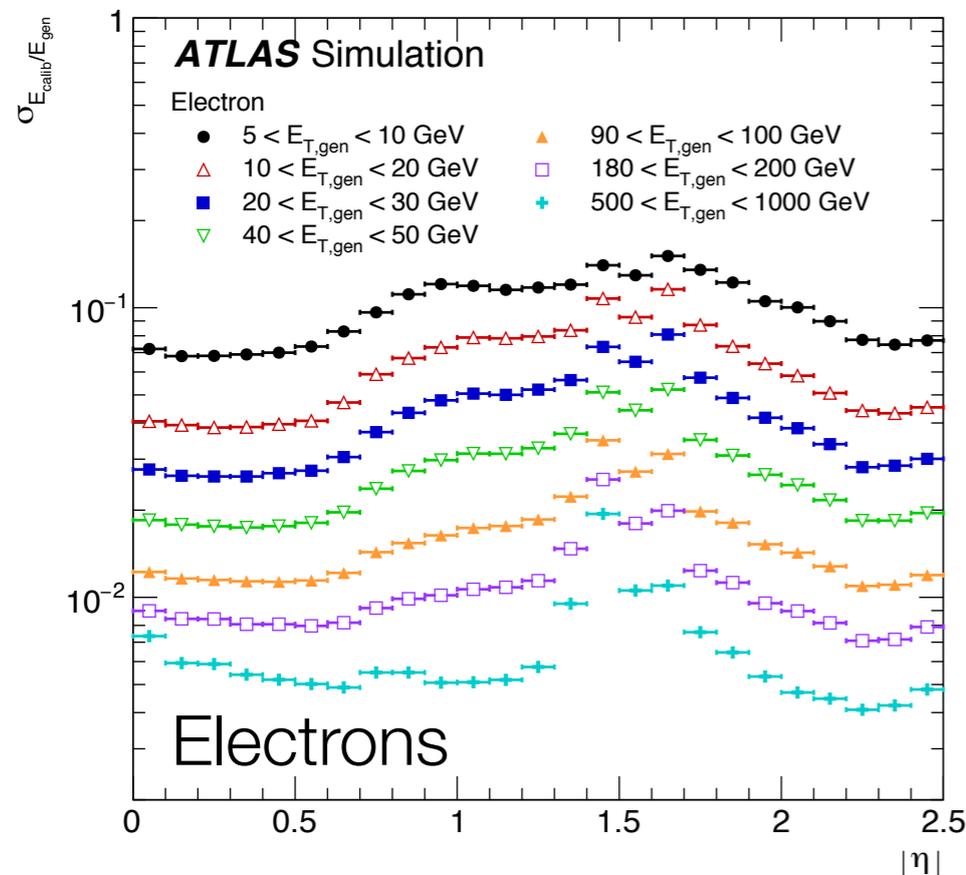
Material	C	Al	Fe	Pb
$X_0$ (cm)	18.9	8.9	1.8	0.56
$\lambda_{int}$ (cm)	26.1	25.8	10.4	10.1

# Hadronic calorimeter resolution

- Resolution worse for hadronic showers due to:
  - Fluctuations in amount of lost energy (neutrinos, muons, neutral hadrons, nuclear excitation energy, ...)
  - Fluctuations in EM fraction of showers
  - Varying degrees of shower leakage

0.5 - 1.0      ~4%, 2nd Largest now

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus \frac{b}{E} \oplus c$$

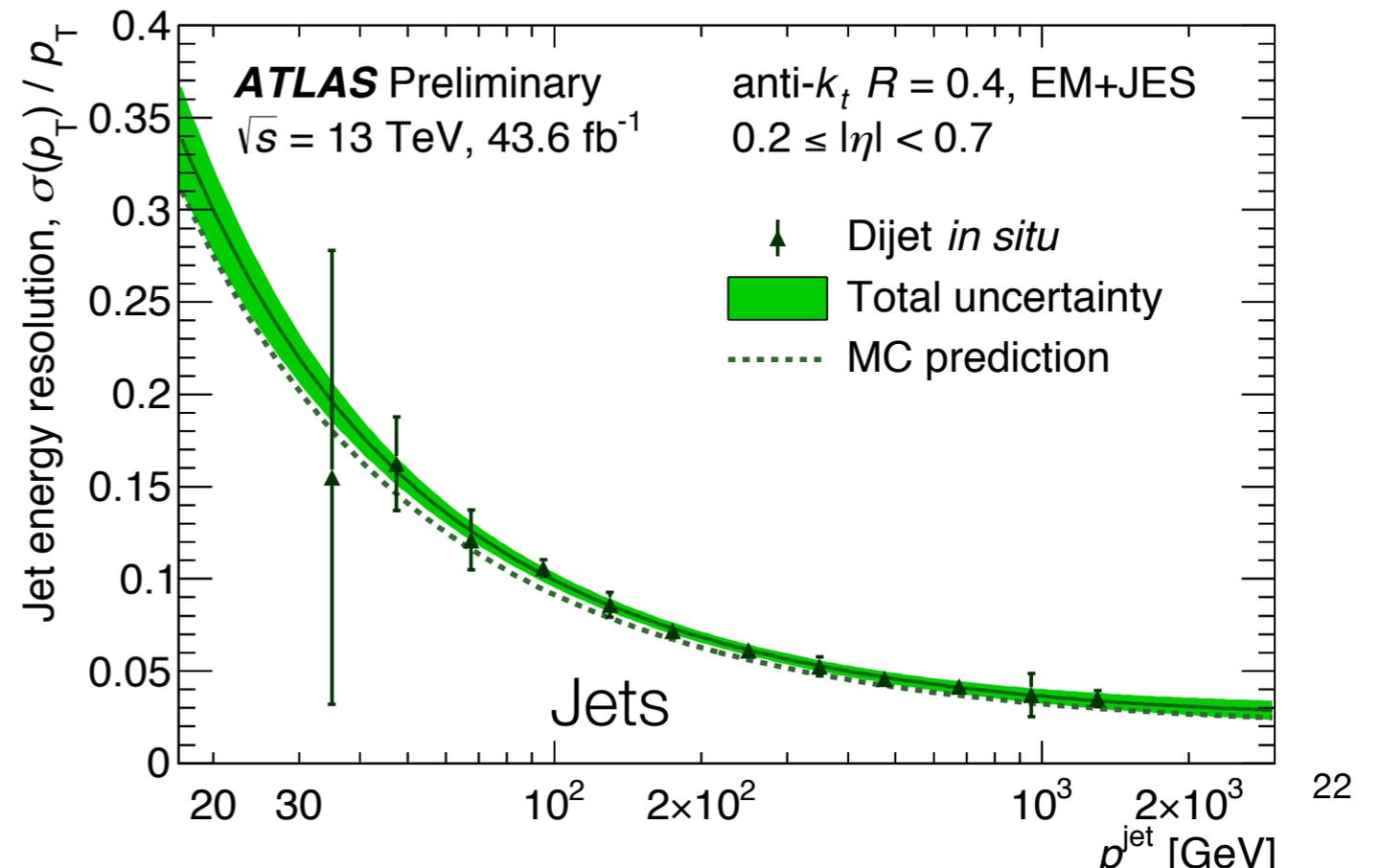
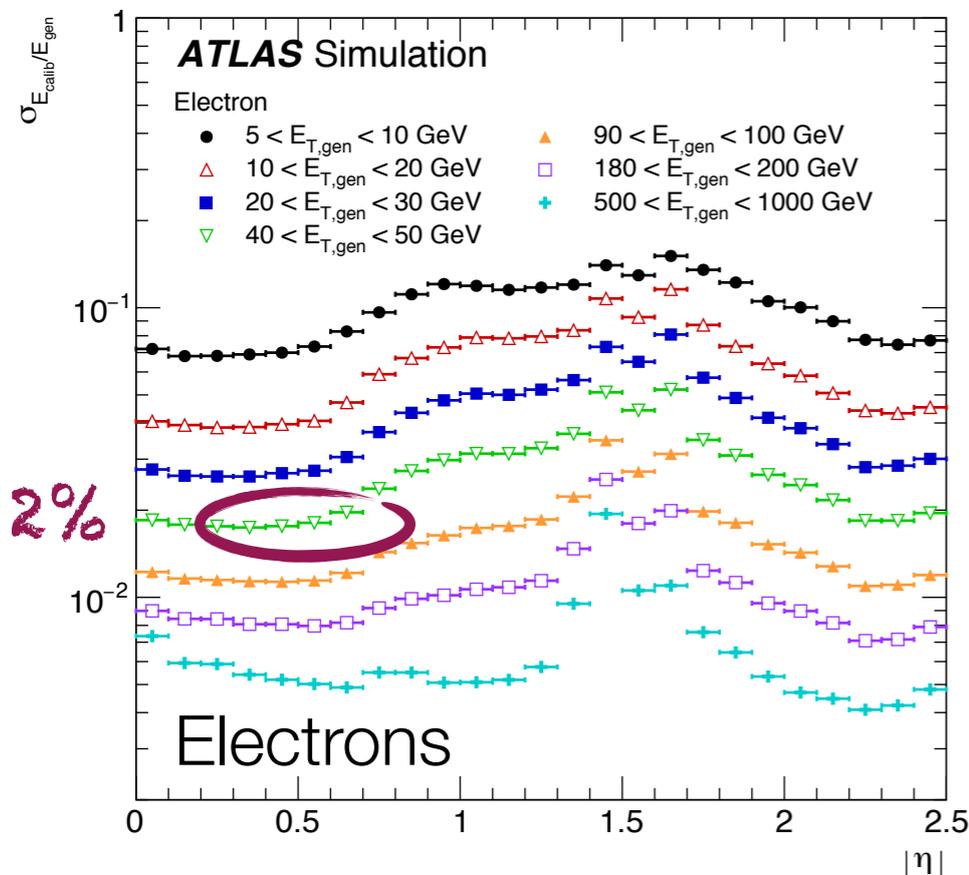


# Hadronic calorimeter resolution

- Resolution worse for hadronic showers due to:
  - Fluctuations in amount of lost energy (neutrinos, muons, neutral hadrons, nuclear excitation energy, ...)
  - Fluctuations in EM fraction of showers
  - Varying degrees of shower leakage

0.5 - 1.0      ~4%, 2nd Largest now

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus \frac{b}{E} \oplus c$$

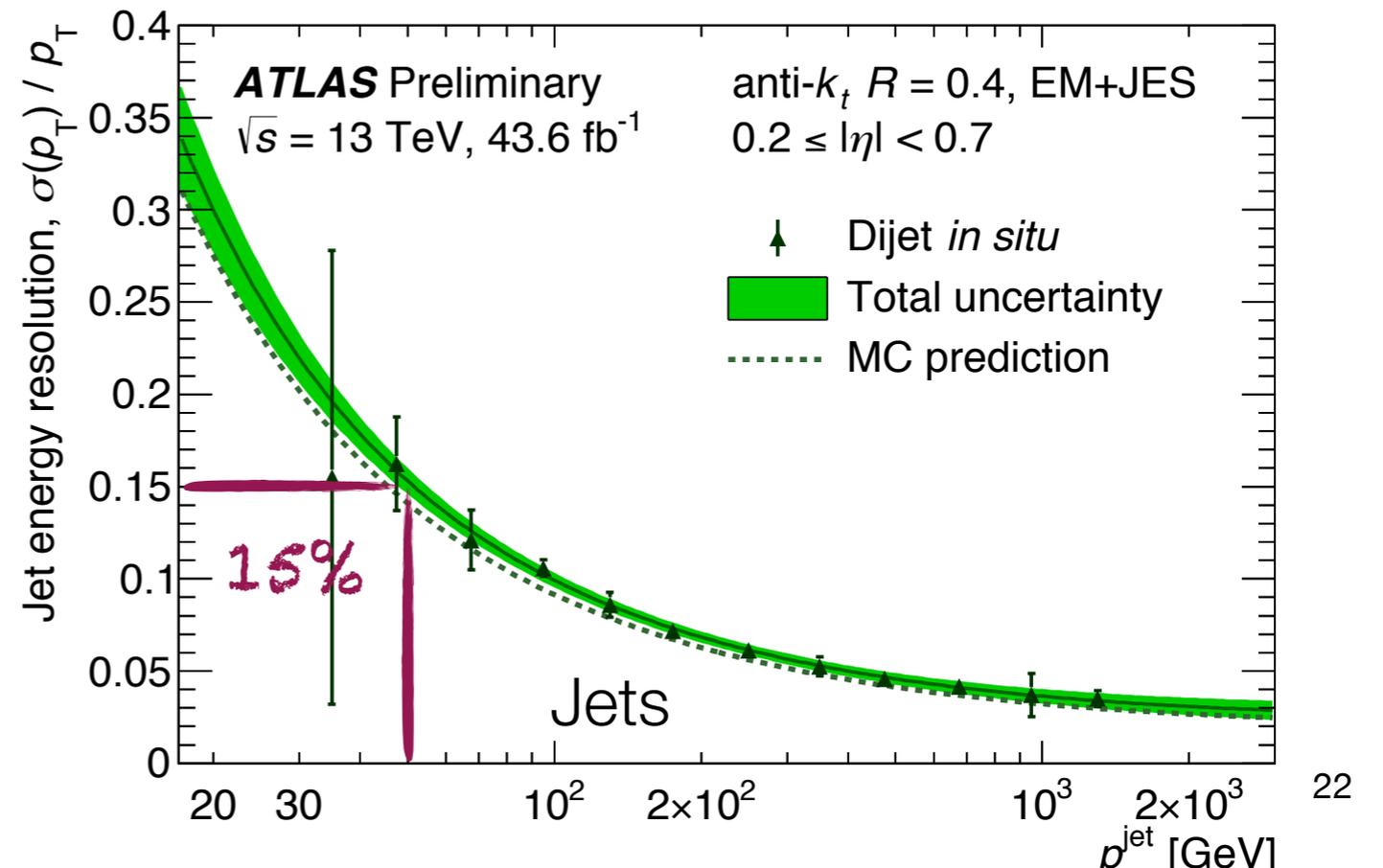
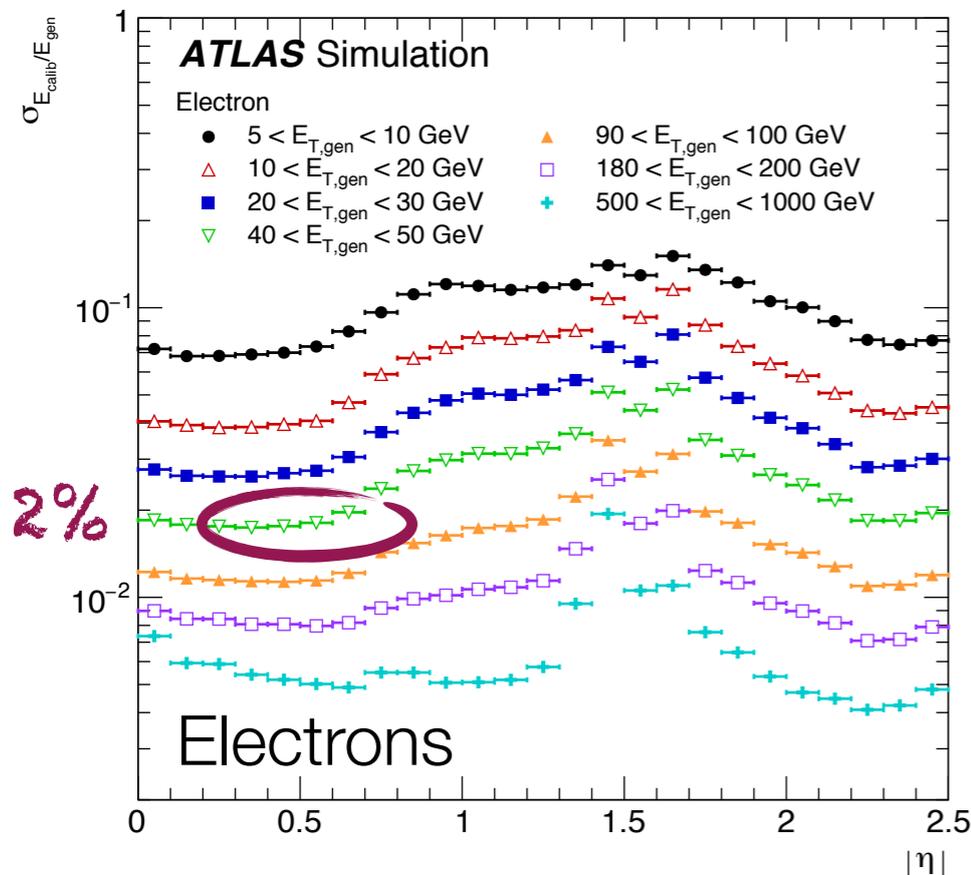


# Hadronic calorimeter resolution

- Resolution worse for hadronic showers due to:
  - Fluctuations in amount of lost energy (neutrinos, muons, neutral hadrons, nuclear excitation energy, ...)
  - Fluctuations in EM fraction of showers
  - Varying degrees of shower leakage

0.5 - 1.0      ~4%, 2nd Largest now

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus \frac{b}{E} \oplus c$$



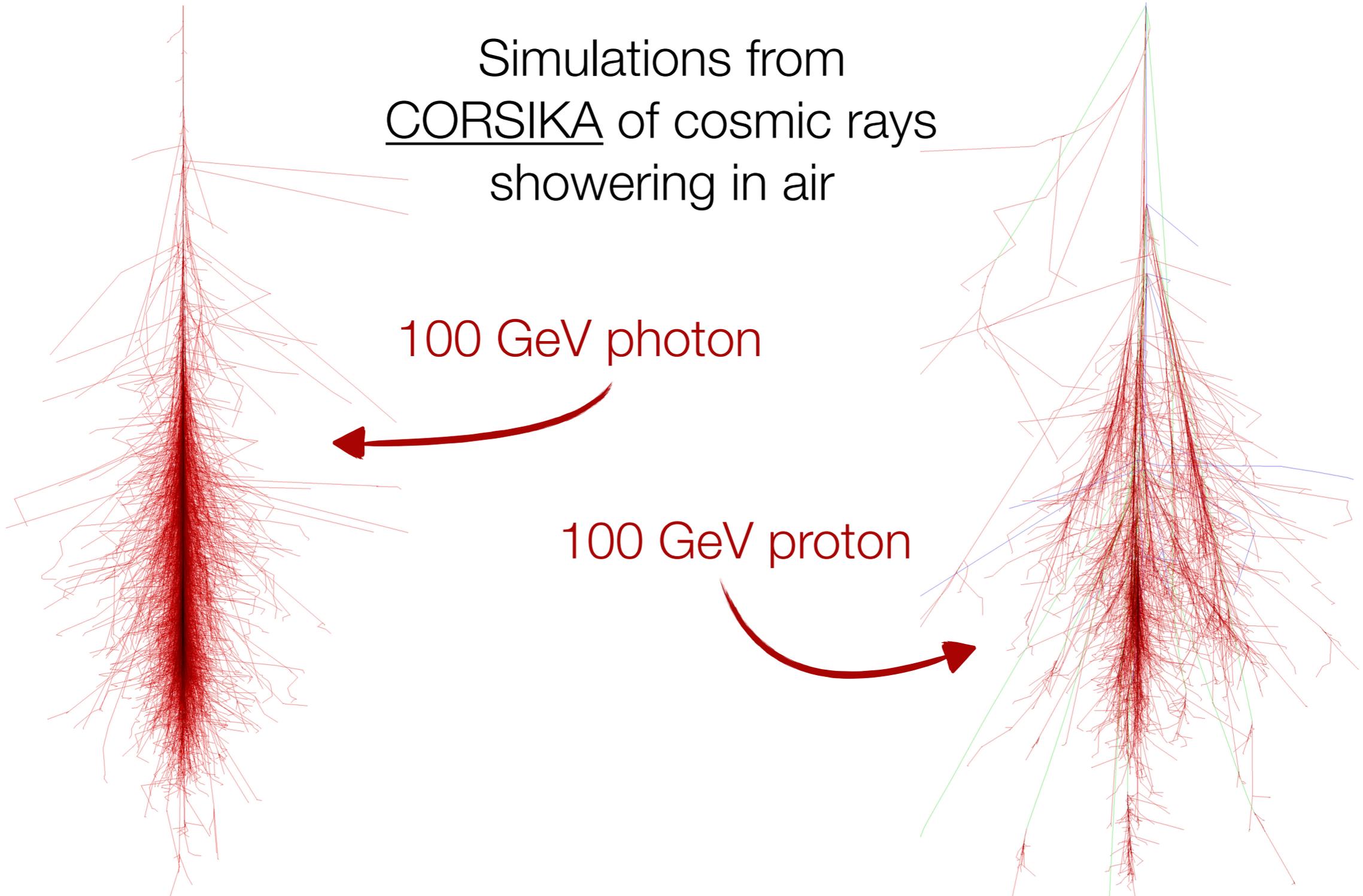
# Hadronic versus electromagnetic showers

---

Simulations from  
CORSIKA of cosmic rays  
showering in air

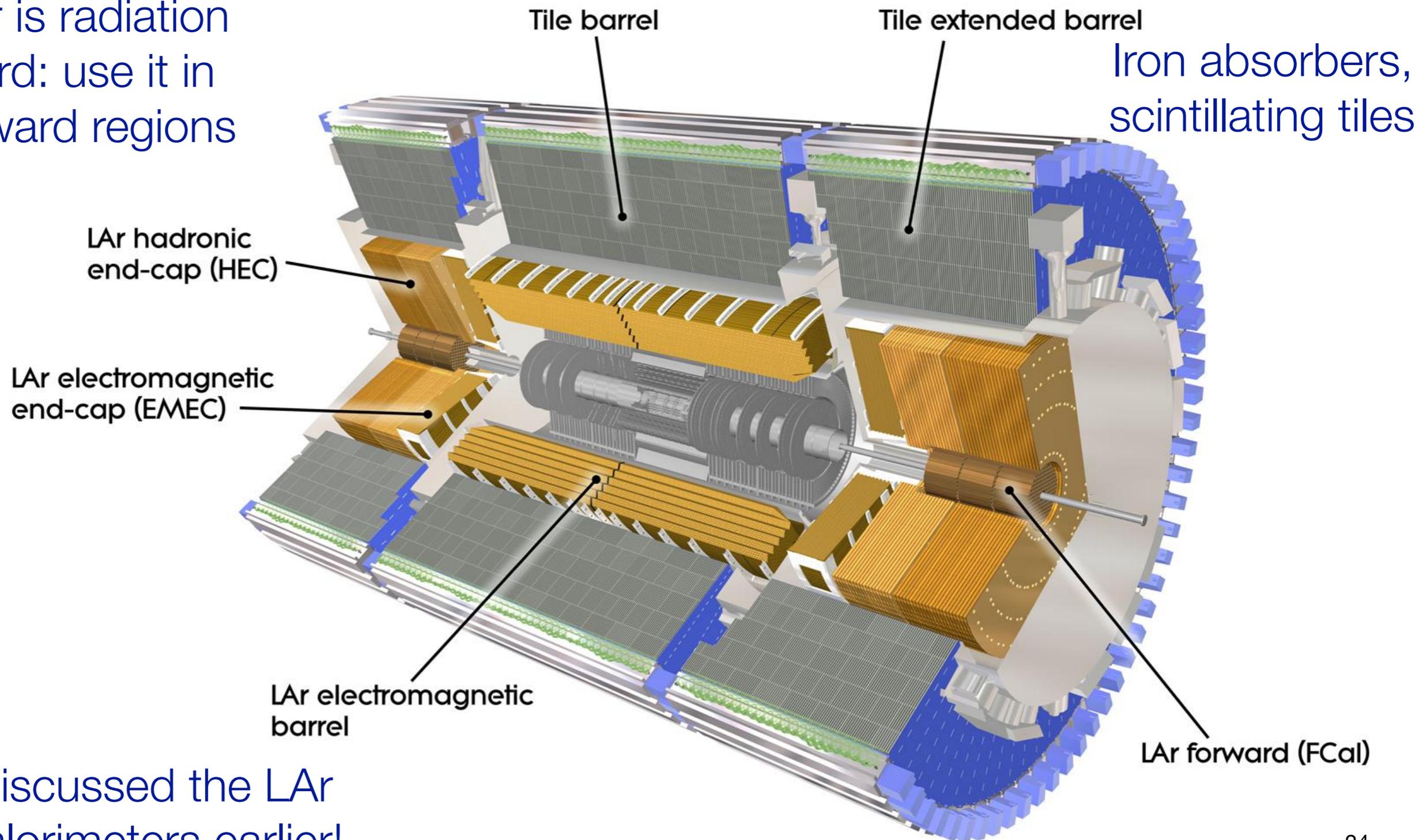
100 GeV photon

100 GeV proton



# Two layered calorimeters, EM then hadronic

LAr is radiation hard: use it in forward regions



Discussed the LAr calorimeters earlier!

# Two layered calorimeters, EM then hadronic

## CMS DETECTOR

Total weight : 14,000 tonnes  
 Overall diameter : 15.0 m  
 Overall length : 28.7 m  
 Magnetic field : 3.8 T

STEEL RETURN YOKE  
 12,500 tonnes

SILICON TRACKERS  
 Pixel ( $100 \times 150 \mu\text{m}$ )  $\sim 16\text{m}^2 \sim 66\text{M}$  channels  
 Microstrips ( $80 \times 180 \mu\text{m}$ )  $\sim 200\text{m}^2 \sim 9.6\text{M}$  channels

SUPERCONDUCTING SOLENOID  
 Niobium titanium coil carrying  $\sim 18,000\text{A}$

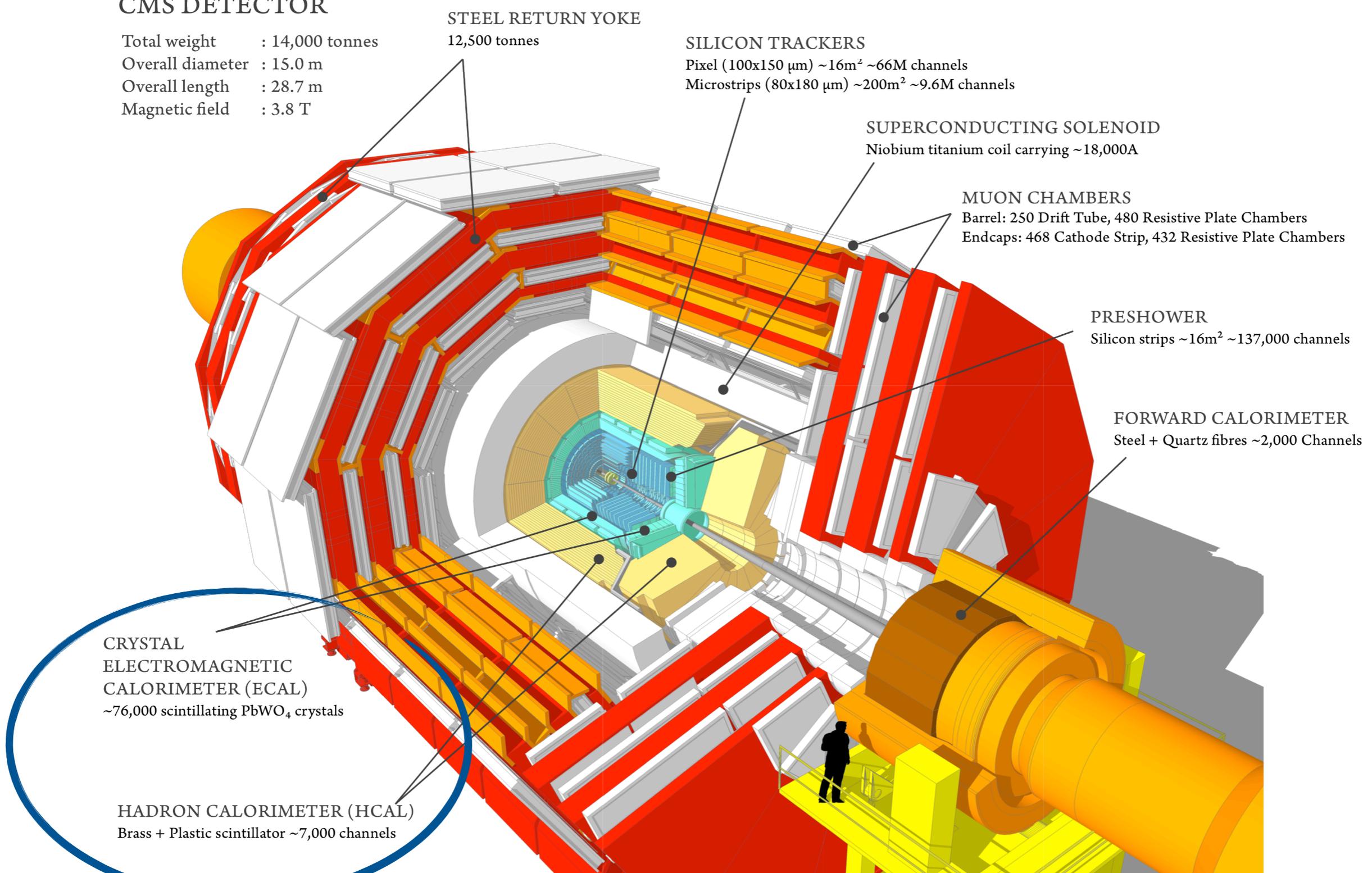
MUON CHAMBERS  
 Barrel: 250 Drift Tube, 480 Resistive Plate Chambers  
 Endcaps: 468 Cathode Strip, 432 Resistive Plate Chambers

PRESHOWER  
 Silicon strips  $\sim 16\text{m}^2 \sim 137,000$  channels

FORWARD CALORIMETER  
 Steel + Quartz fibres  $\sim 2,000$  Channels

CRYSTAL  
 ELECTROMAGNETIC  
 CALORIMETER (ECAL)  
 $\sim 76,000$  scintillating  $\text{PbWO}_4$  crystals

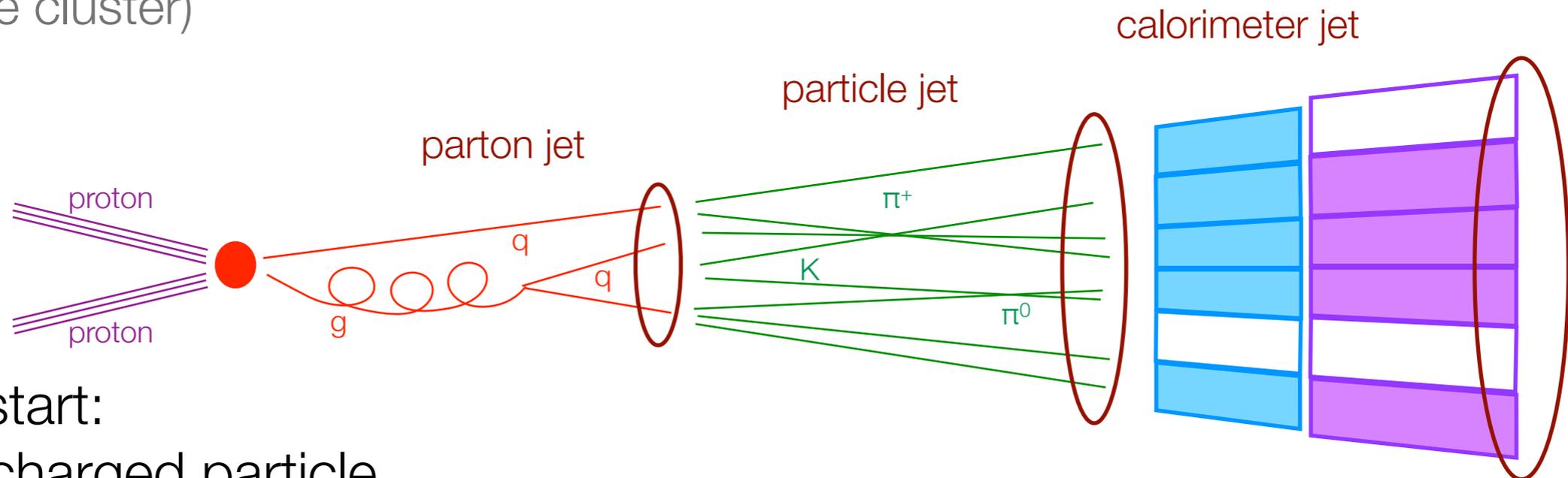
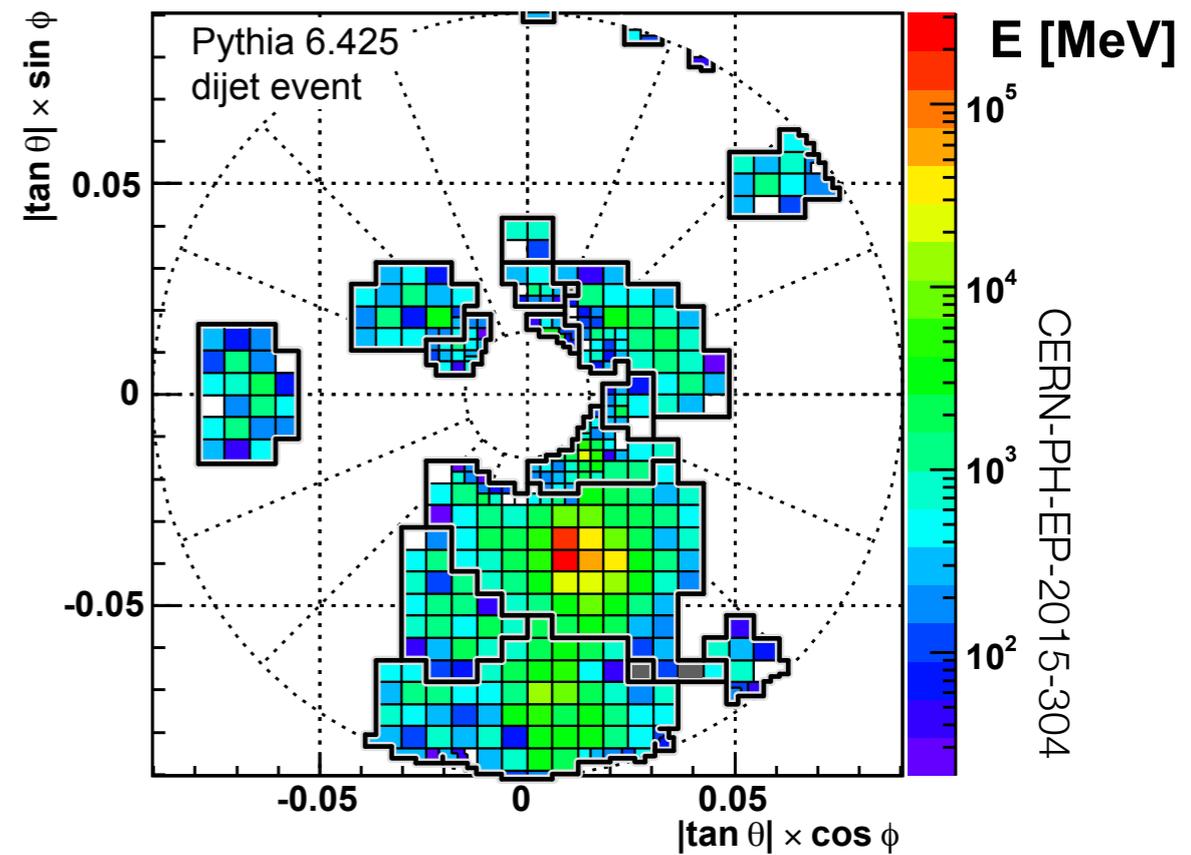
HADRON CALORIMETER (HCAL)  
 Brass + Plastic scintillator  $\sim 7,000$  channels



# Topoclusters and jets

- What we have in the calorimeter is a bunch of energy deposits at various positions and depths
- What we want is a single unified statement about the incident particle
- Make an “object” we can talk about: from energy depositions reclusters to get jets (electrons and photons expect to have only one cluster)

Detector start:  
energy deposits

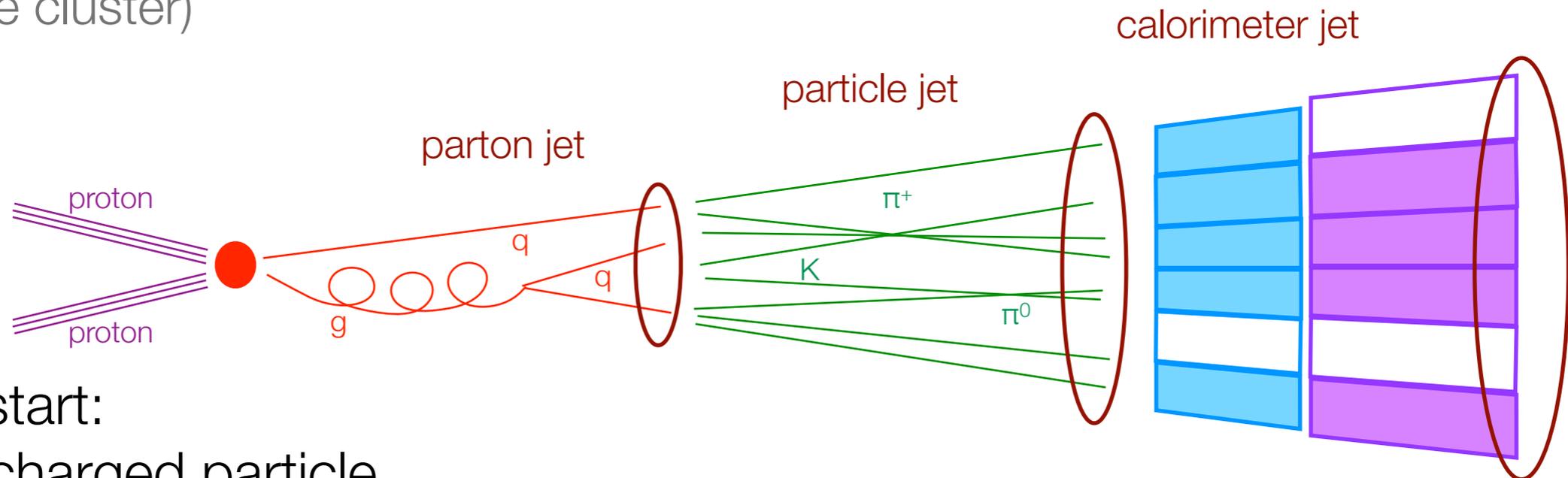
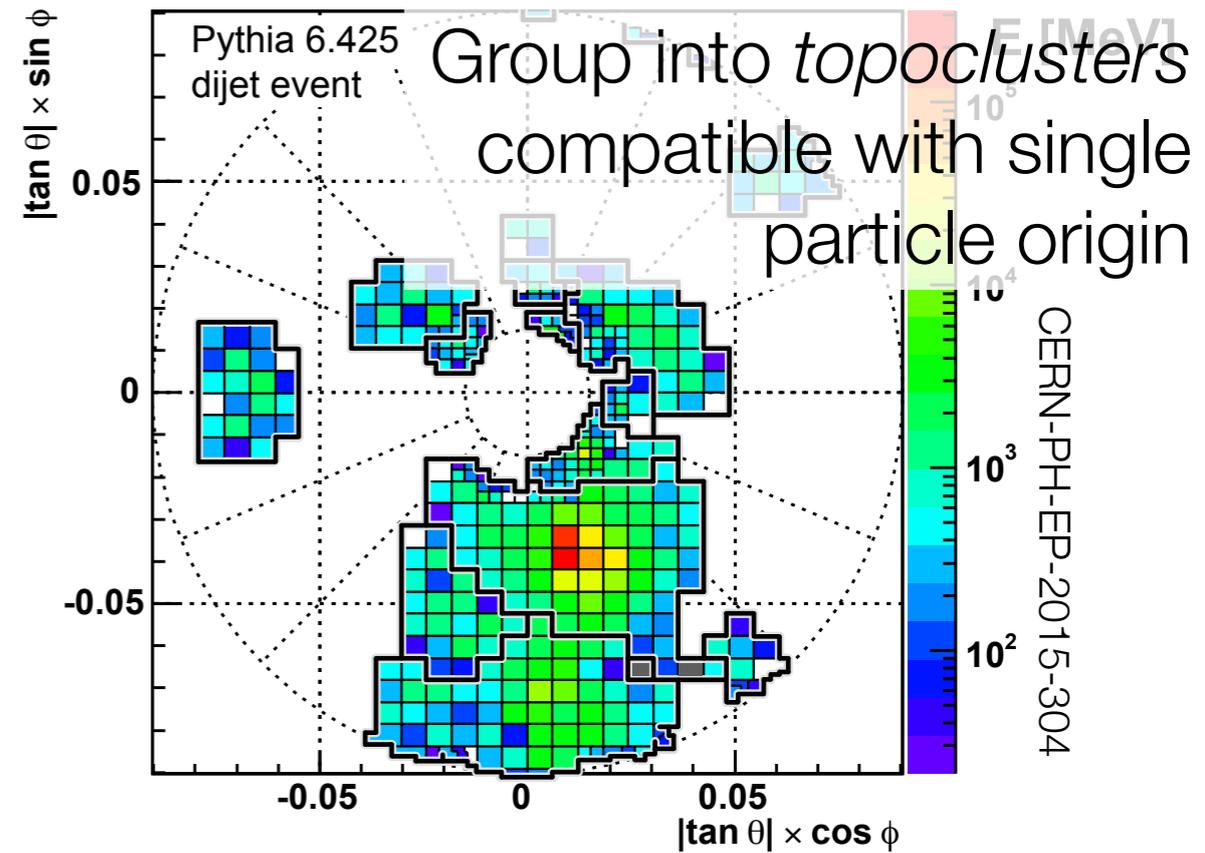


Physics start:  
strongly charged particle

# Topoclusters and jets

- What we have in the calorimeter is a bunch of energy deposits at various positions and depths
- What we want is a single unified statement about the incident particle
- Make an “object” we can talk about: from energy depositions reclusters to get jets (electrons and photons expect to have only one cluster)

Detector start:  
energy deposits

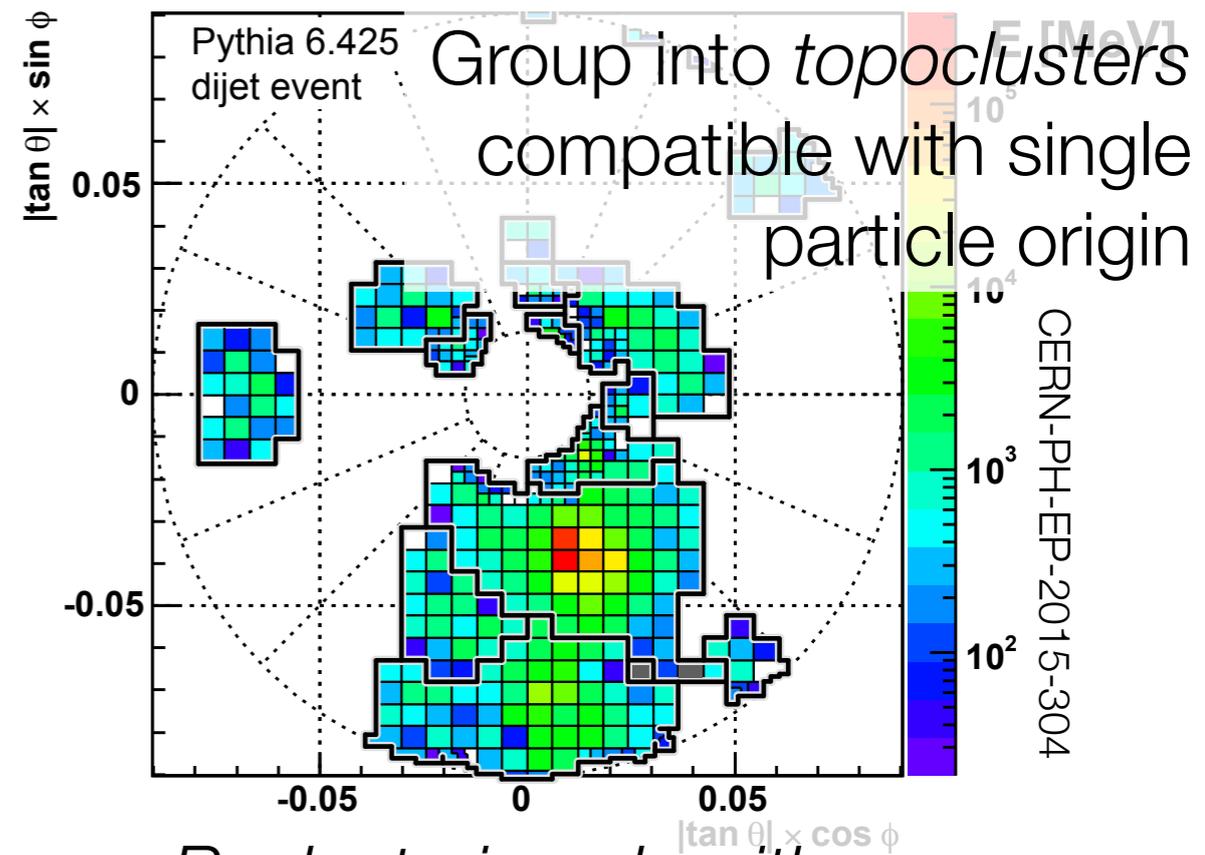


Physics start:  
strongly charged particle

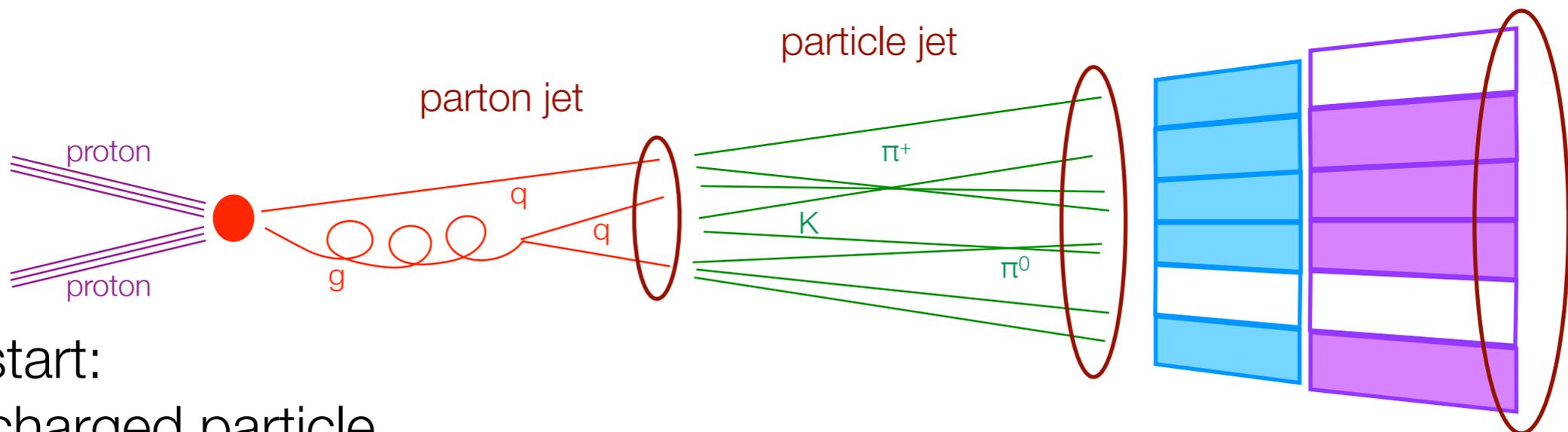
# Topoclusters and jets

- What we have in the calorimeter is a bunch of energy deposits at various positions and depths
- What we want is a single unified statement about the incident particle
- Make an “object” we can talk about: from energy depositions reclusters to get jets (electrons and photons expect to have only one cluster)

Detector start:  
energy deposits



Reclustering algorithm groups topoclusters into jets  
calorimeter jet

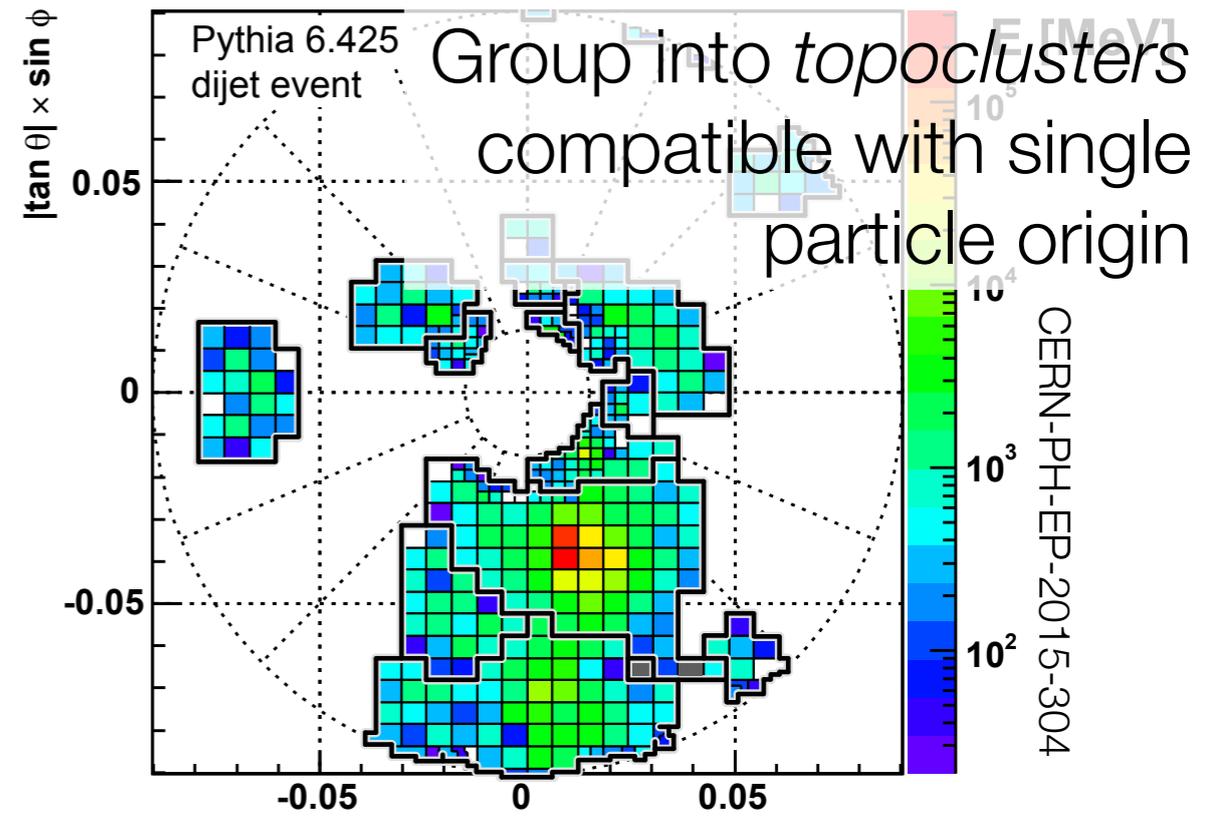


Physics start:  
strongly charged particle

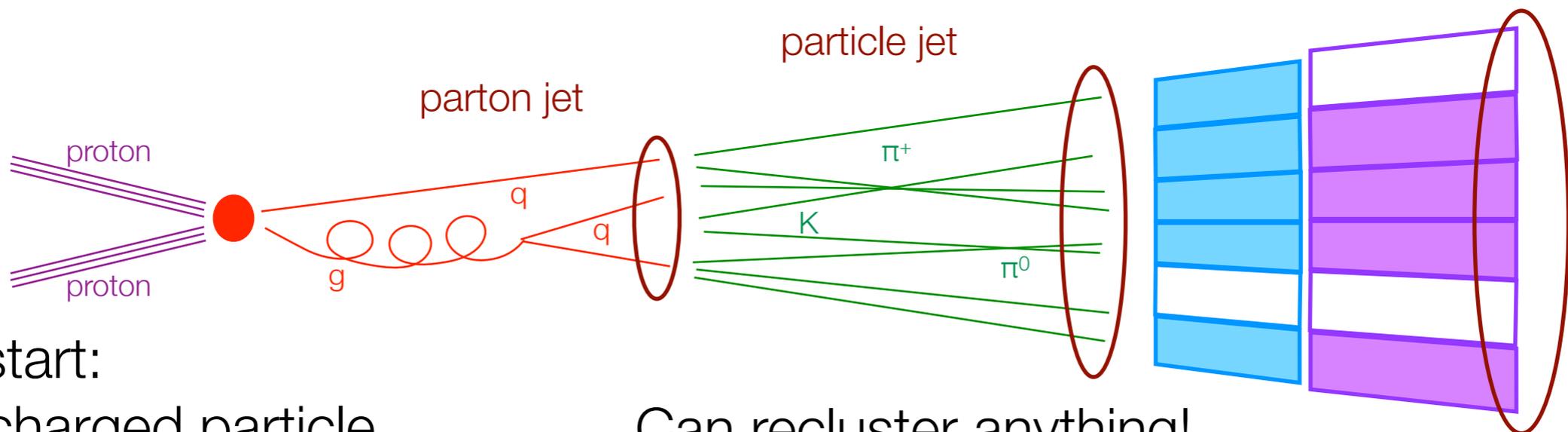
# Topoclusters and jets

- What we have in the calorimeter is a bunch of energy deposits at various positions and depths
- What we want is a single unified statement about the incident particle
- Make an “object” we can talk about: from energy depositions reclusters to get jets (electrons and photons expect to have only one cluster)

Detector start:  
energy deposits



Reclustering algorithm groups topoclusters into jets  
calorimeter jet



Physics start:  
strongly charged particle

Can recluster anything!

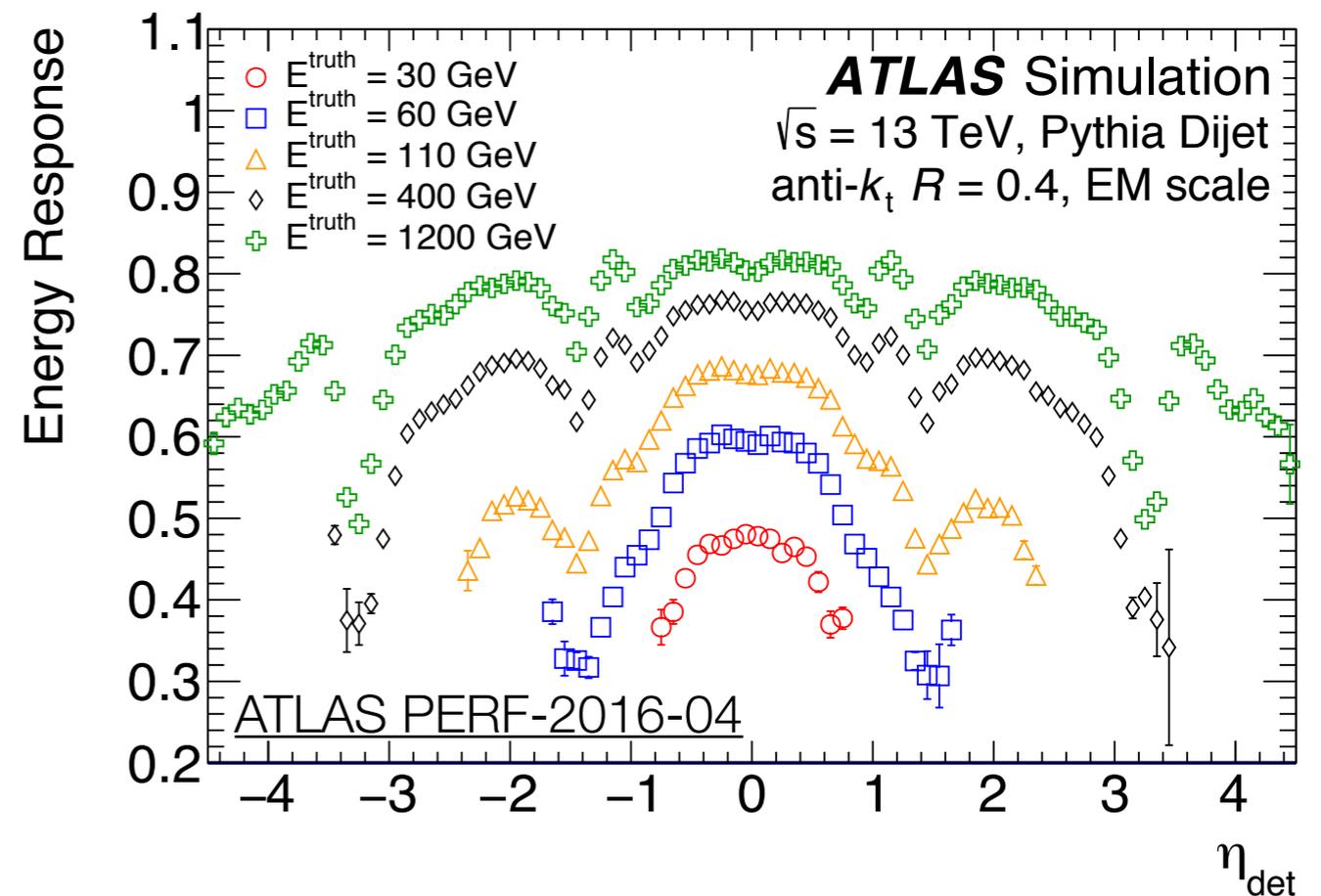
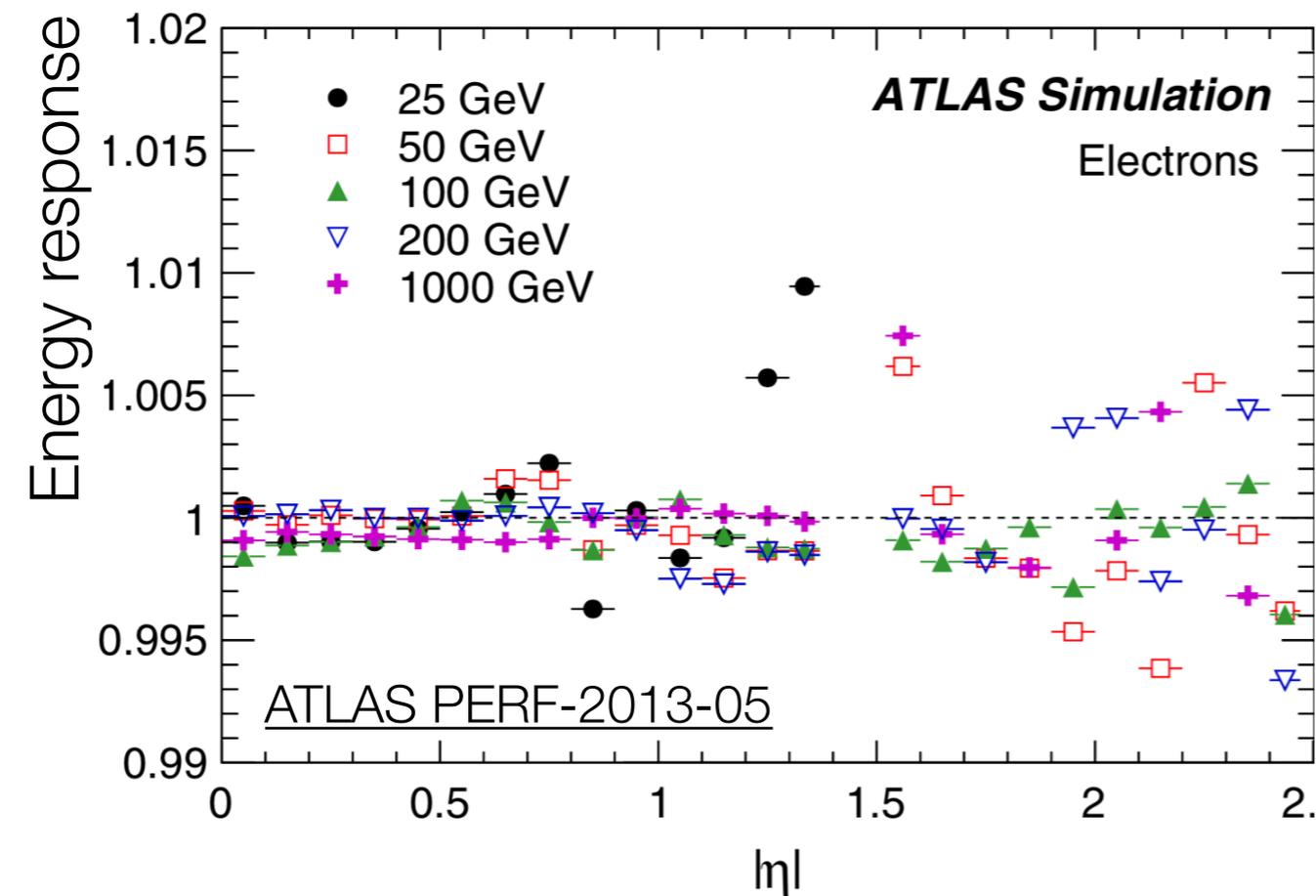
# Calibration of energy

---

- List of factors we've discussed that calibration needs to account for:
  - Sampling nature of calorimeter: energy deposited in absorber layers not exactly known
  - Non-compensation of calorimeter: smaller fraction of energy from hadronic interactions recorded than from EM
  - Dead material and particles leaking out of calorimeter
  - Truth particles falling outside the reconstructed jet
  - Noise thresholds/reconstruction efficiency
- Can calibrate at calorimeter cluster level or at level of reconstructed object

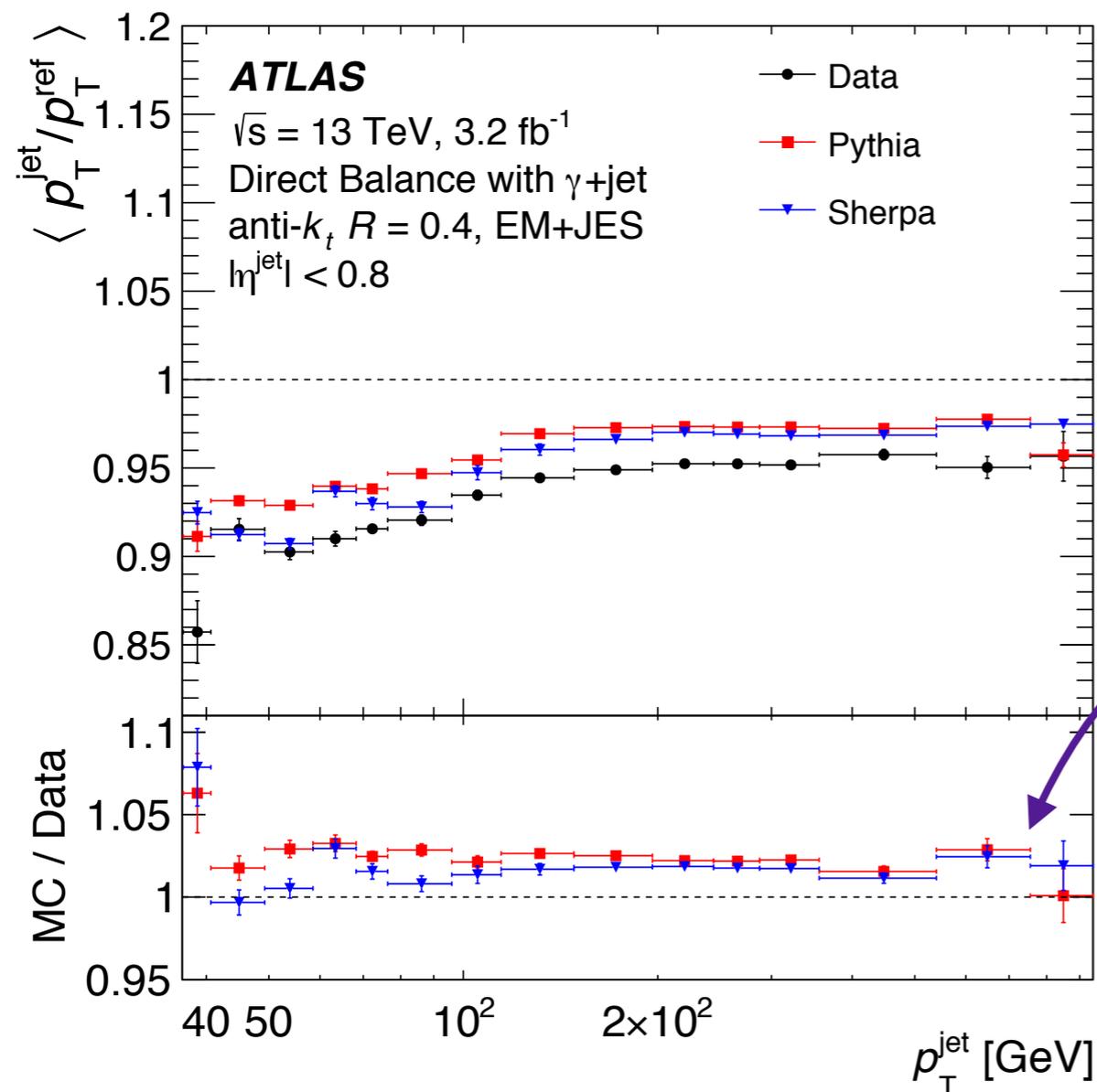
# Simulation-based calibration

- First step in e/ $\gamma$ /jet calibration uses ratio of reconstructed energy to particle-level energy taken from simulations
- Goal is to return measured object energy in data to the “true” scale represented to the best of our knowledge by the MC



# Data-based calibration

Second stage corrects for residual differences between data and simulation: object in data after MC calibration is momentum-balanced against a well-calibrated standard candle



Ratio of jet momentum to reference object (photon) momentum after calibration

Ratio between blue and black is data/MC difference

→ this defines the residual calibration

Particle ID

... with a calorimeter bias

# Particle ID: what and why?

---

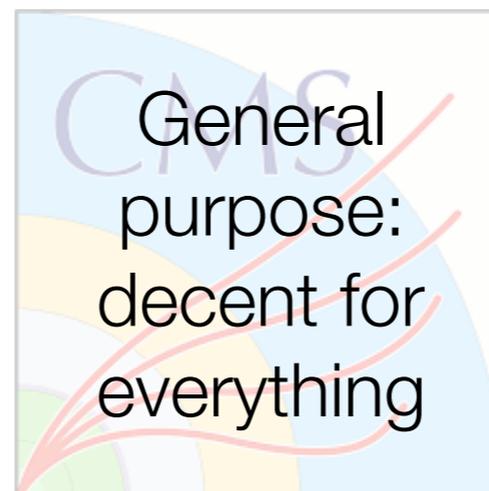
- If our detector observes an interaction, critical to be able to identify the particles involved to understand the processes
- Long-lived particles (on the timescale of the detector) are identified by their unique properties: mass, charge, interaction types, etc
- Promptly decaying particles (W, Z, Higgs, etc) are identified by their decay products
- Calorimeters can tell us a lot about particle ID, but (for more than 1 type of expected particle) need trackers for a full picture! PID is a full detector project.
- Different experiments specialise in different physics, so detectors designed for range of PID specialties



# Particle ID: what and why?

---

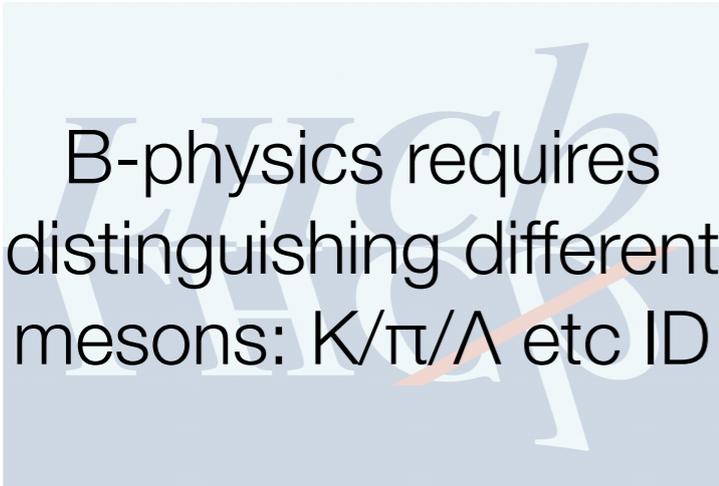
- If our detector observes an interaction, critical to be able to identify the particles involved to understand the processes
- Long-lived particles (on the timescale of the detector) are identified by their unique properties: mass, charge, interaction types, etc
- Promptly decaying particles (W, Z, Higgs, etc) are identified by their decay products
- Calorimeters can tell us a lot about particle ID, but (for more than 1 type of expected particle) need trackers for a full picture! PID is a full detector project.
- Different experiments specialise in different physics, so detectors designed for range of PID specialties



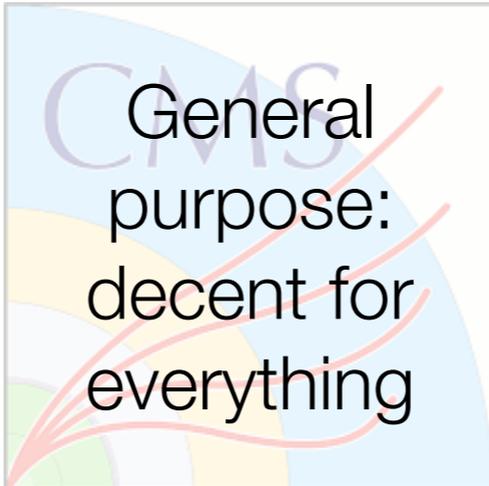
# Particle ID: what and why?

---

- If our detector observes an interaction, critical to be able to identify the particles involved to understand the processes
- Long-lived particles (on the timescale of the detector) are identified by their unique properties: mass, charge, interaction types, etc
- Promptly decaying particles (W, Z, Higgs, etc) are identified by their decay products
- Calorimeters can tell us a lot about particle ID, but (for more than 1 type of expected particle) need trackers for a full picture! PID is a full detector project.
- Different experiments specialise in different physics, so detectors designed for range of PID specialties



B-physics requires distinguishing different mesons:  $K/\pi/\Lambda$  etc ID



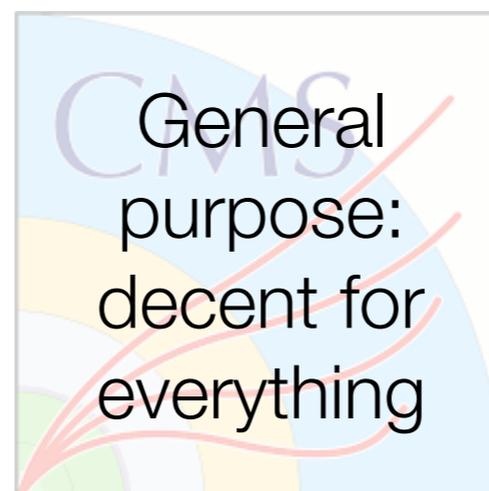
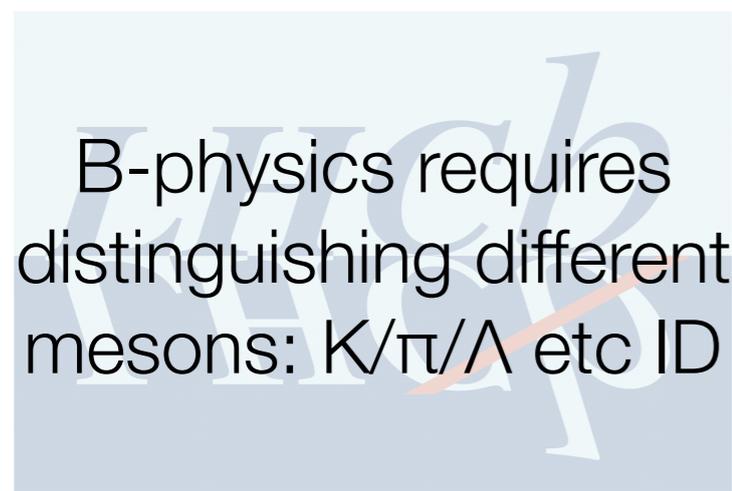
General purpose: decent for everything



# Particle ID: what and why?

---

- If our detector observes an interaction, critical to be able to identify the particles involved to understand the processes
- Long-lived particles (on the timescale of the detector) are identified by their unique properties: mass, charge, interaction types, etc
- Promptly decaying particles (W, Z, Higgs, etc) are identified by their decay products
- Calorimeters can tell us a lot about particle ID, but (for more than 1 type of expected particle) need trackers for a full picture! PID is a full detector project.
- Different experiments specialise in different physics, so detectors designed for range of PID specialties



# Overview of physics objects

Muon Spectrometer

Hadronic Calorimeter

Electromagnetic Calorimeter

Solenoid magnet

Tracking

Transition Radiation Tracker

Pixel/SCT detector

Proton

Neutron

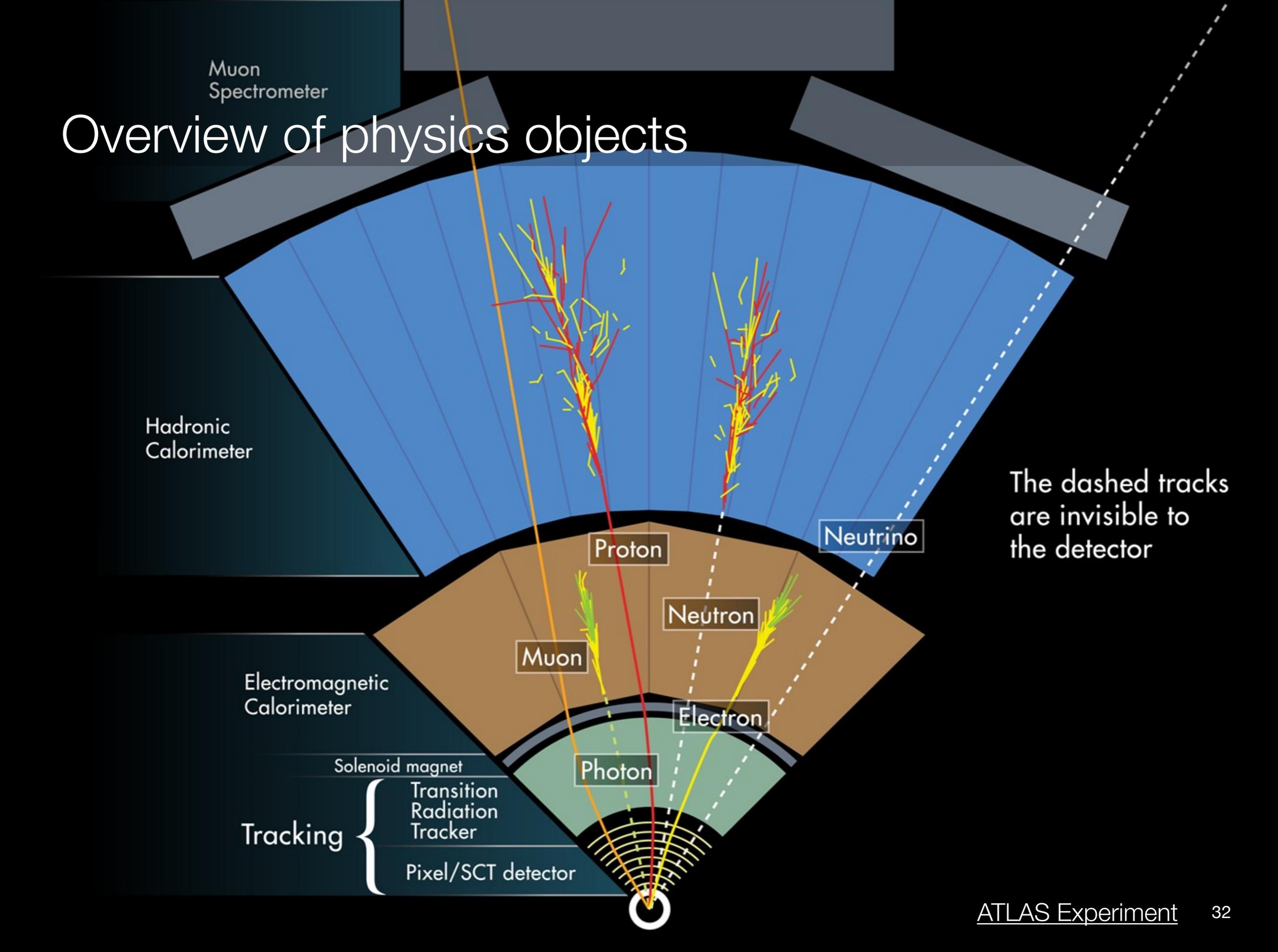
Muon

Electron

Photon

Neutrino

The dashed tracks are invisible to the detector



# Overview of physics objects

Muon Spectrometer

Hadronic Calorimeter

Electromagnetic Calorimeter

Solenoid magnet

Tracking

Transition Radiation Tracker

Pixel/SCT detector

Proton

Neutron

Muon

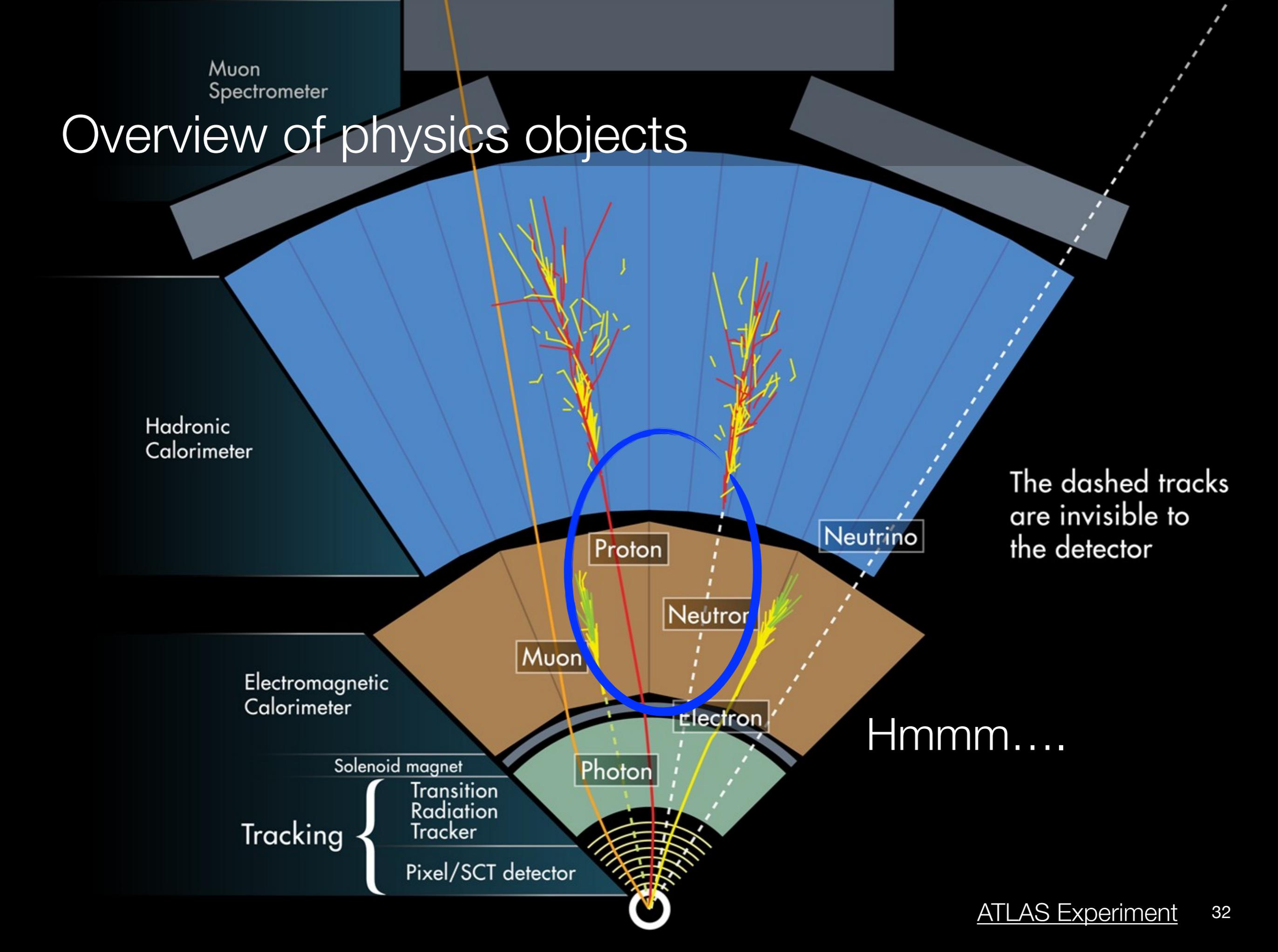
Electron

Photon

Neutrino

The dashed tracks are invisible to the detector

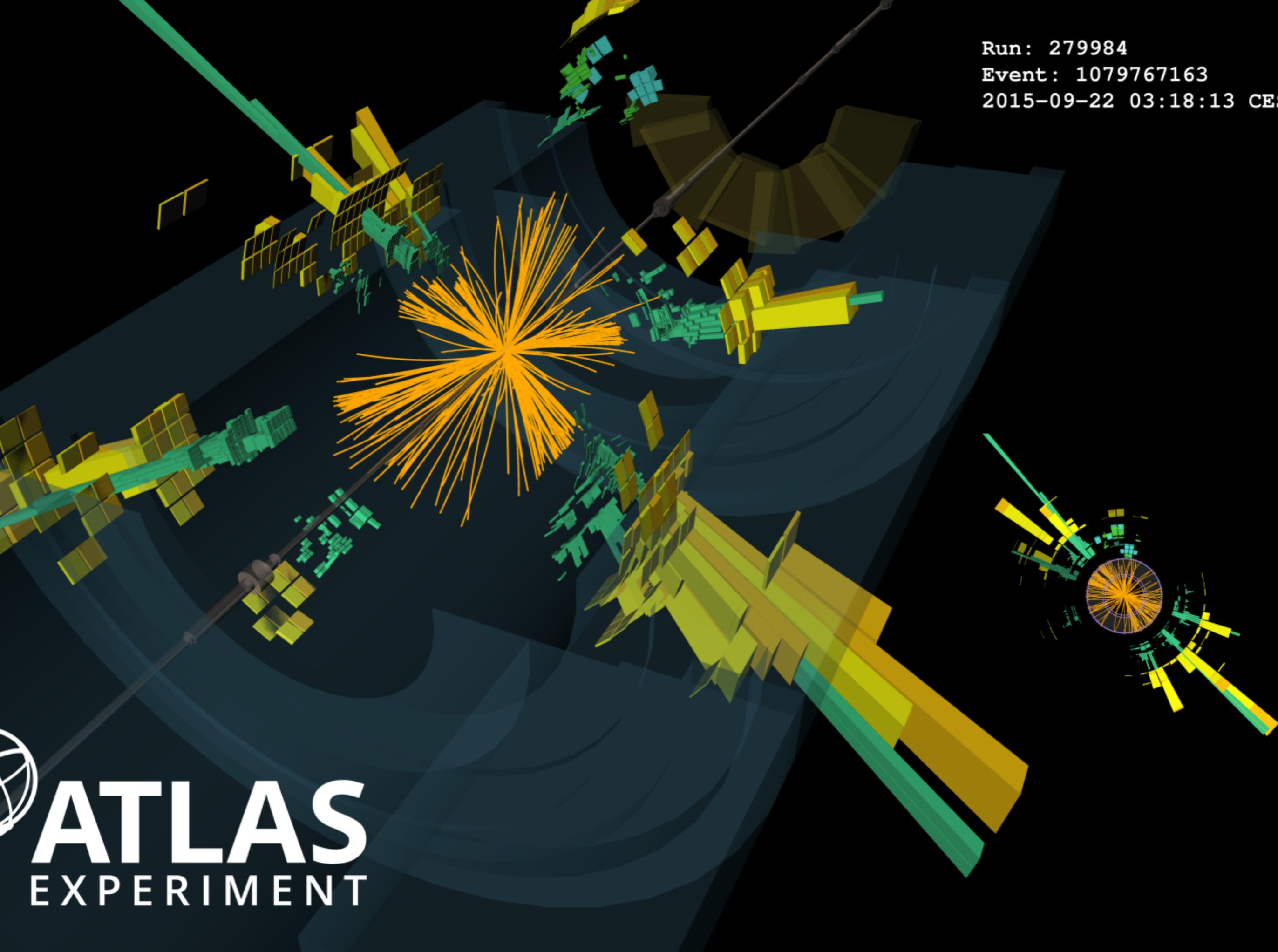
Hmmm....



Run: 279984

Event: 1079767163

2015-09-22 03:18:13 CE

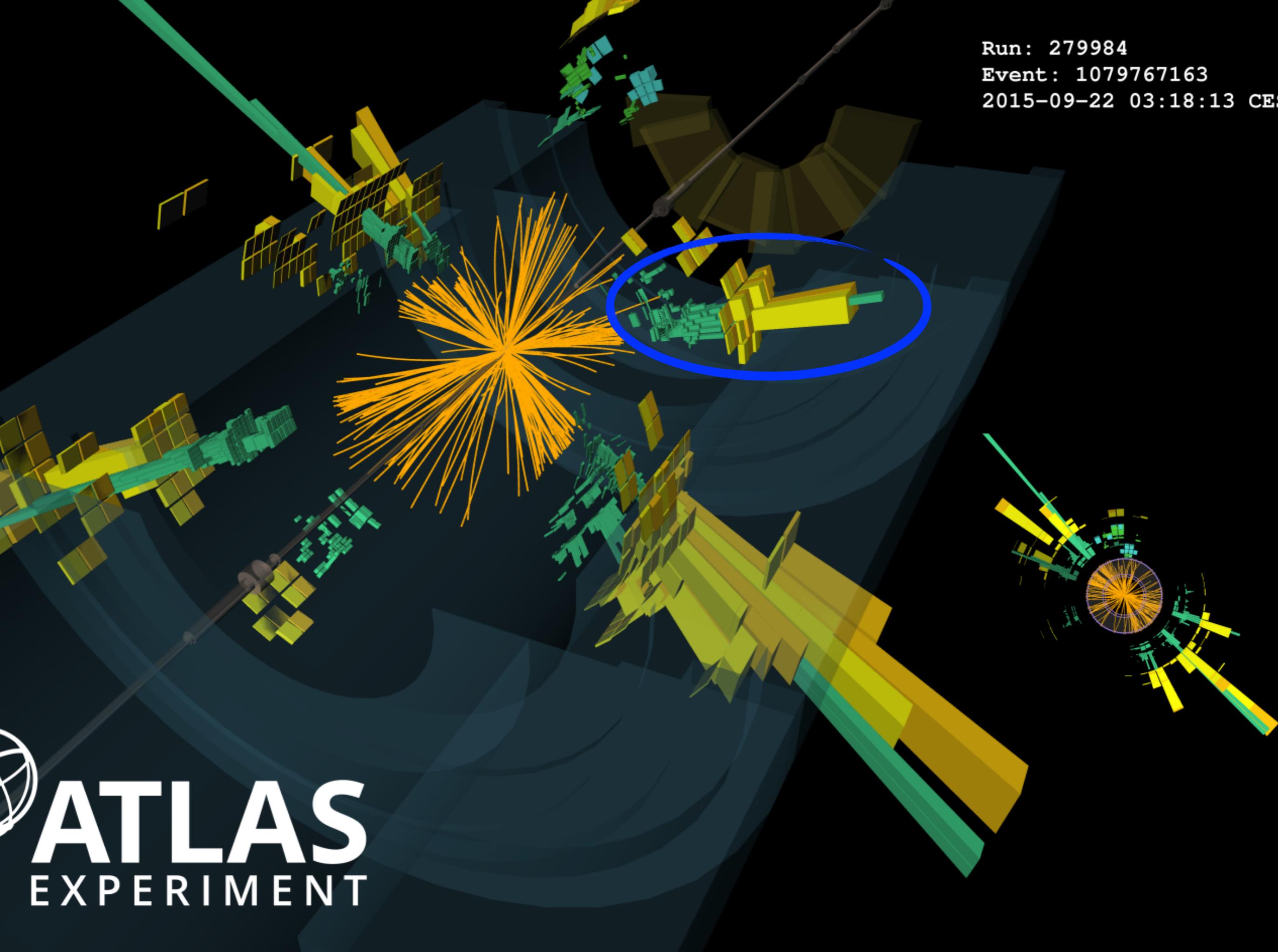


**ATLAS**  
EXPERIMENT

Run: 279984

Event: 1079767163

2015-09-22 03:18:13 CE



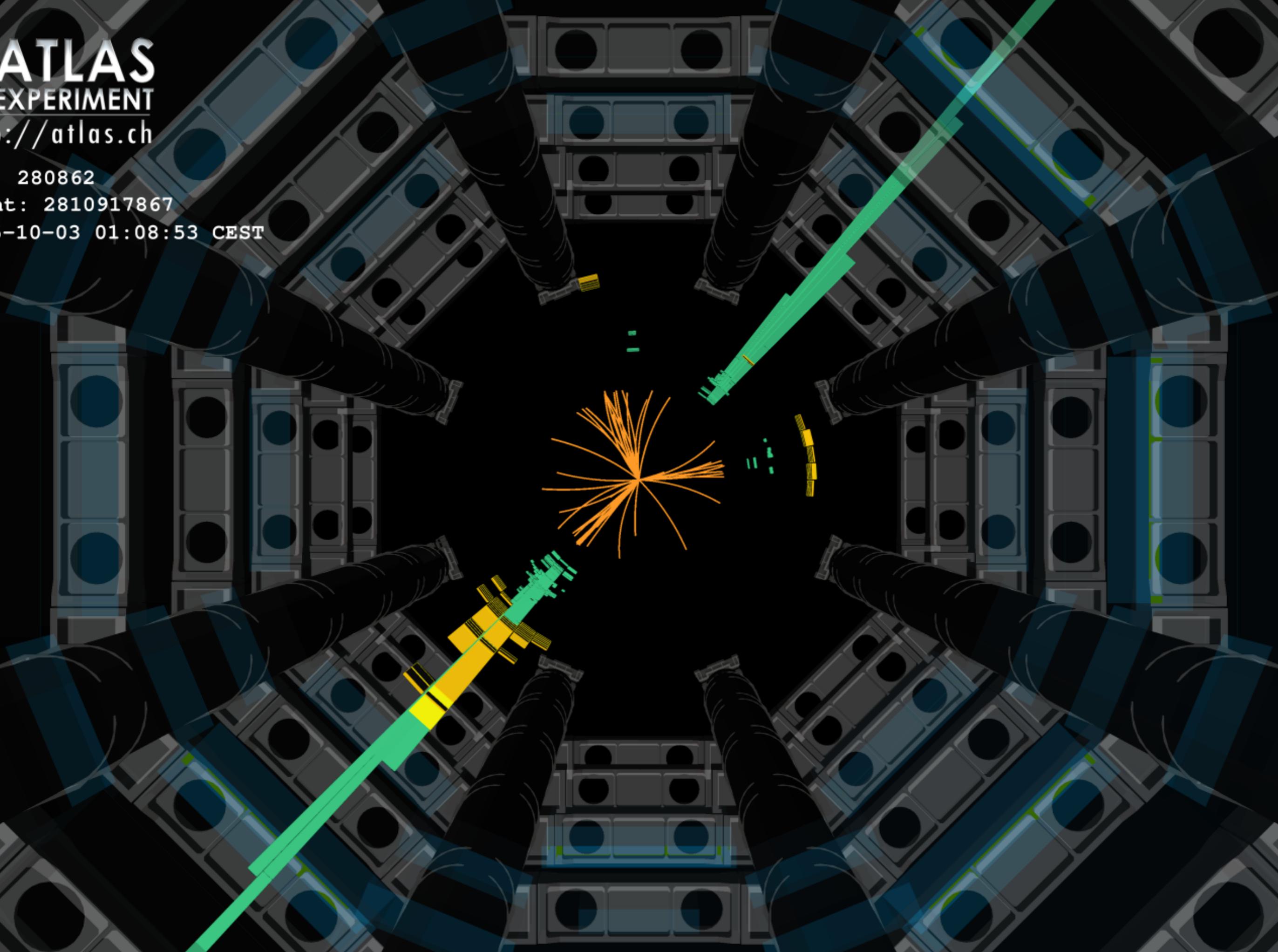
 **ATLAS**  
EXPERIMENT

# ATLAS

EXPERIMENT

<http://atlas.ch>

280862  
t: 2810917867  
-10-03 01:08:53 CEST

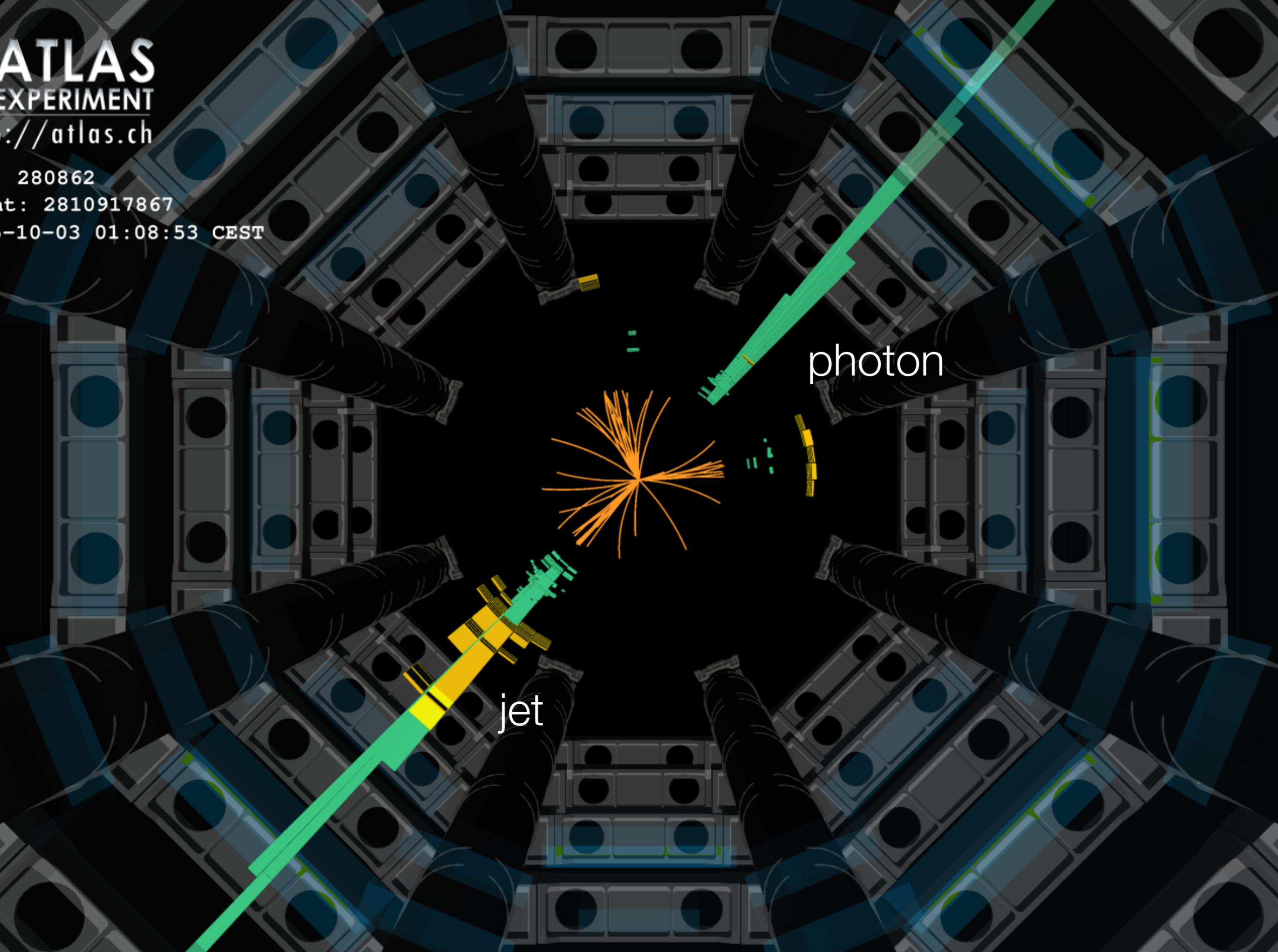


# ATLAS

EXPERIMENT

<http://atlas.ch>

280862  
t: 2810917867  
-10-03 01:08:53 CEST



photon

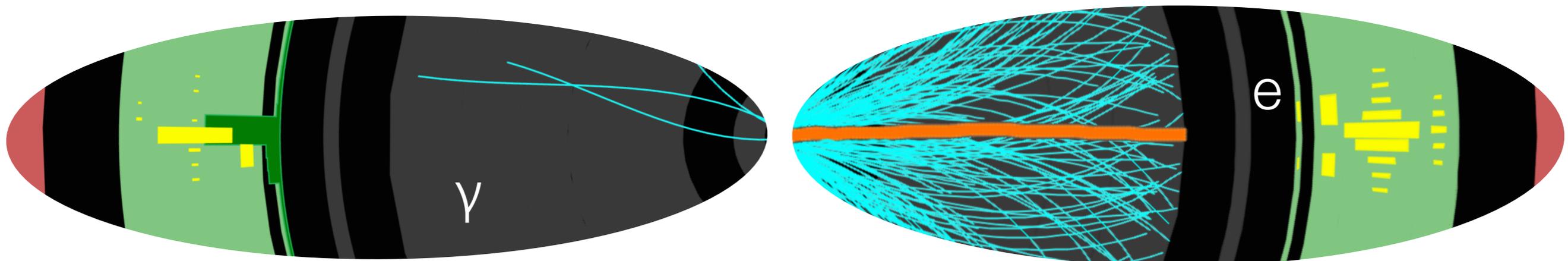
jet

jet

# Electrons and photons

---

- Expect only one energy deposit in EM calorimeter in electrons and photons: no jet-like parton shower
- Distinguish between the two by matching to a track
- But discrimination against backgrounds still tricky
  - e ID backgrounds: mis-ID'd hadrons, non-prompt production, heavy flavour decays
  - $\gamma$  ID backgrounds: jets with large EM fraction,  $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$
- Use shower shape and width, energy ratios in layers, track to cluster matching information, track details to further discriminate



# Electrons and photons

- Expect only one energy deposit in EM calorimeter in electrons and photons: no jet-like parton showers

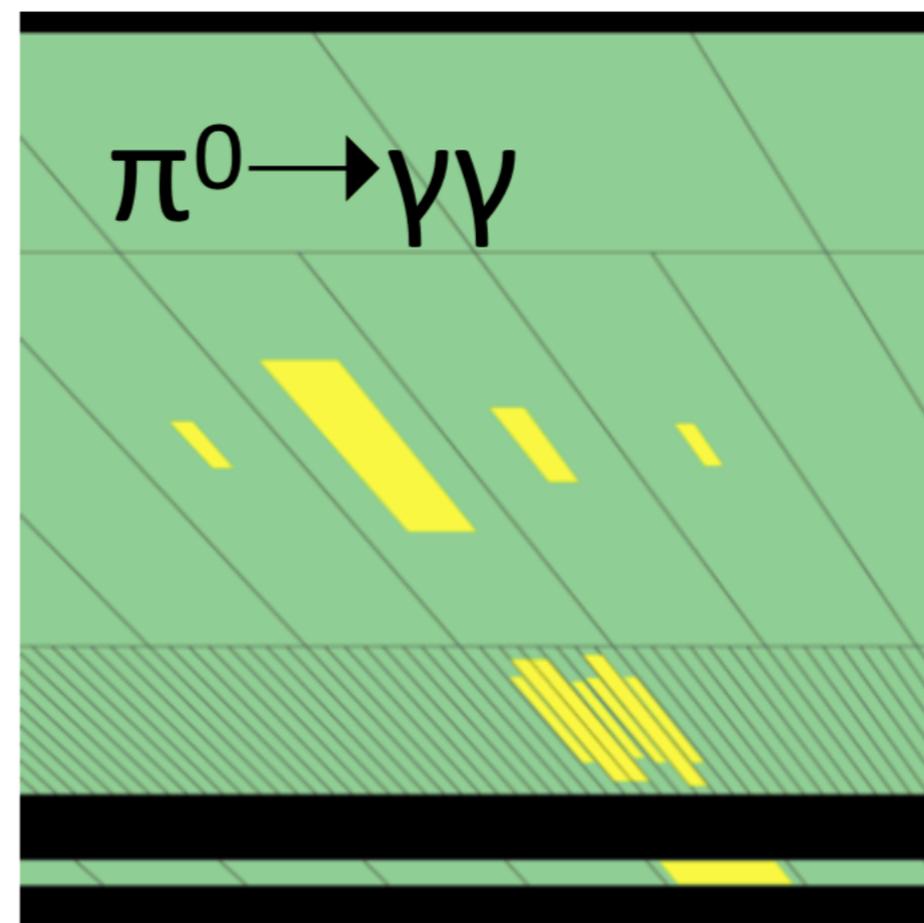
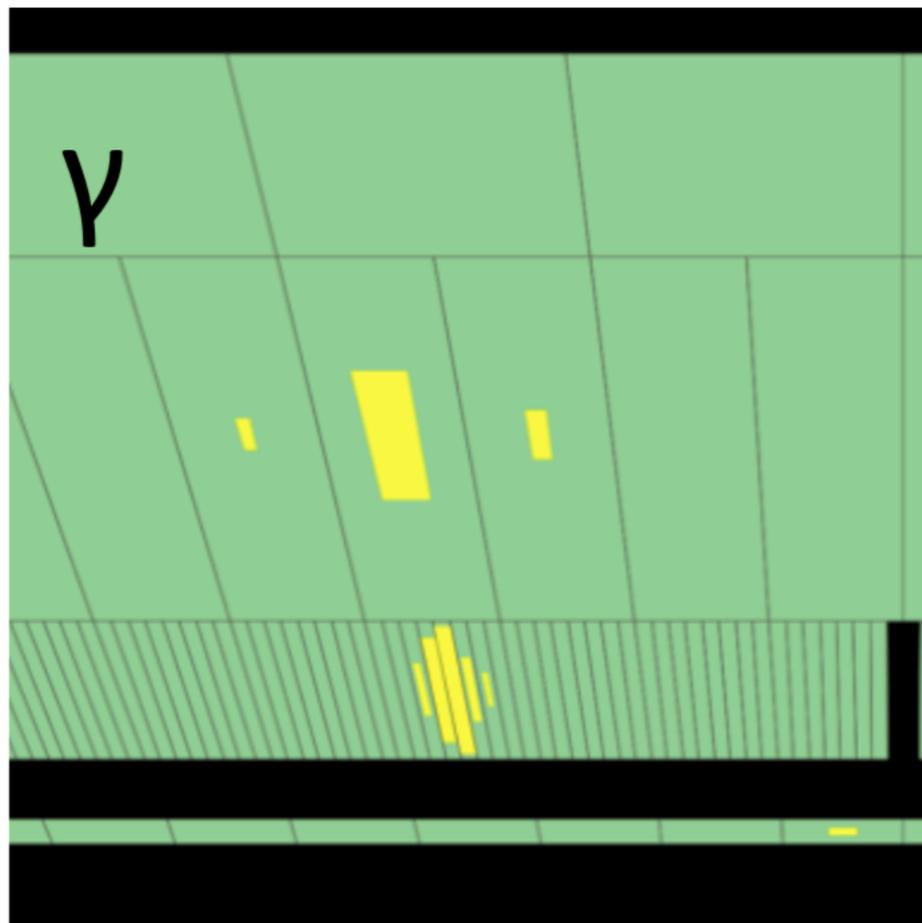
- Distinguish

- But disc

- e ID

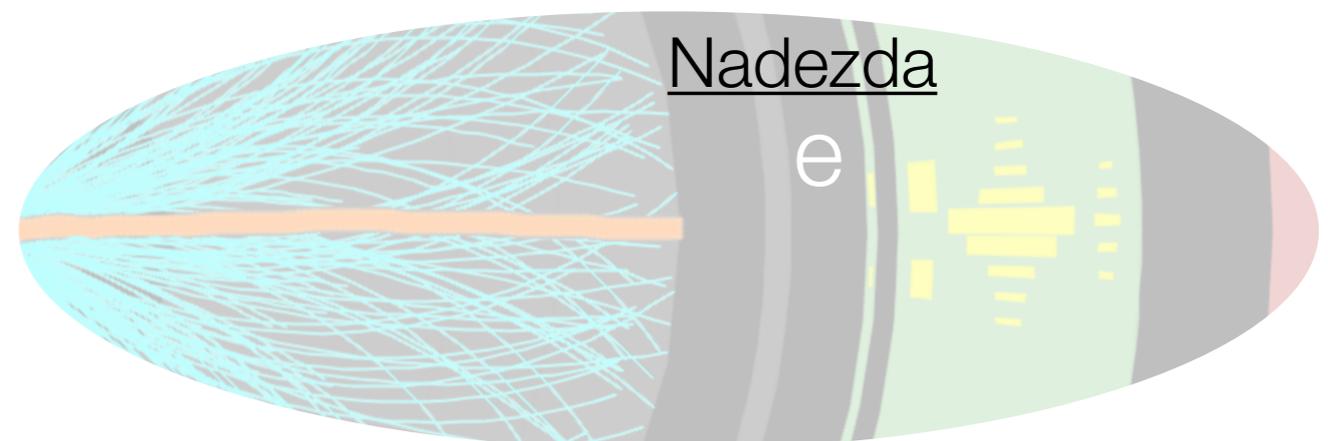
- $\gamma$  ID

- Use shower information



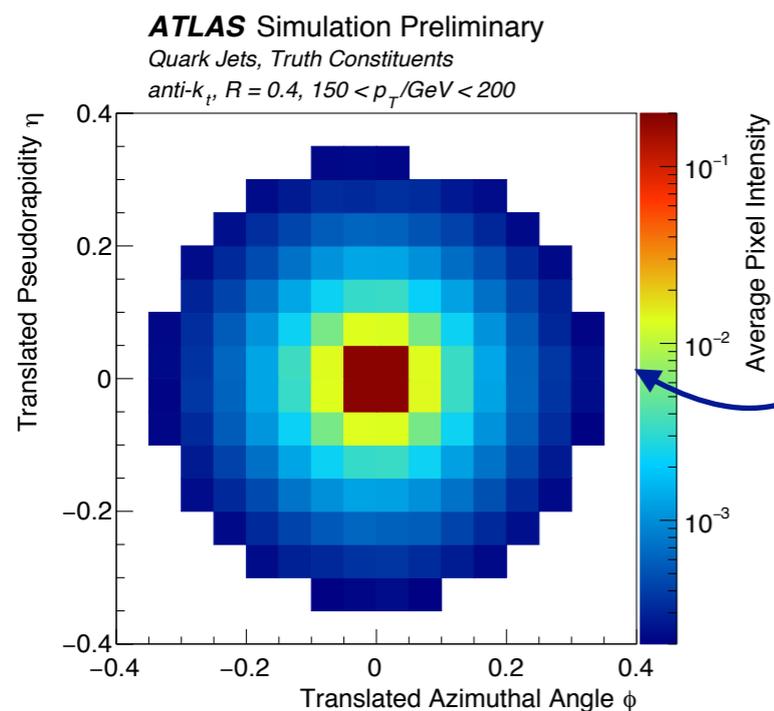
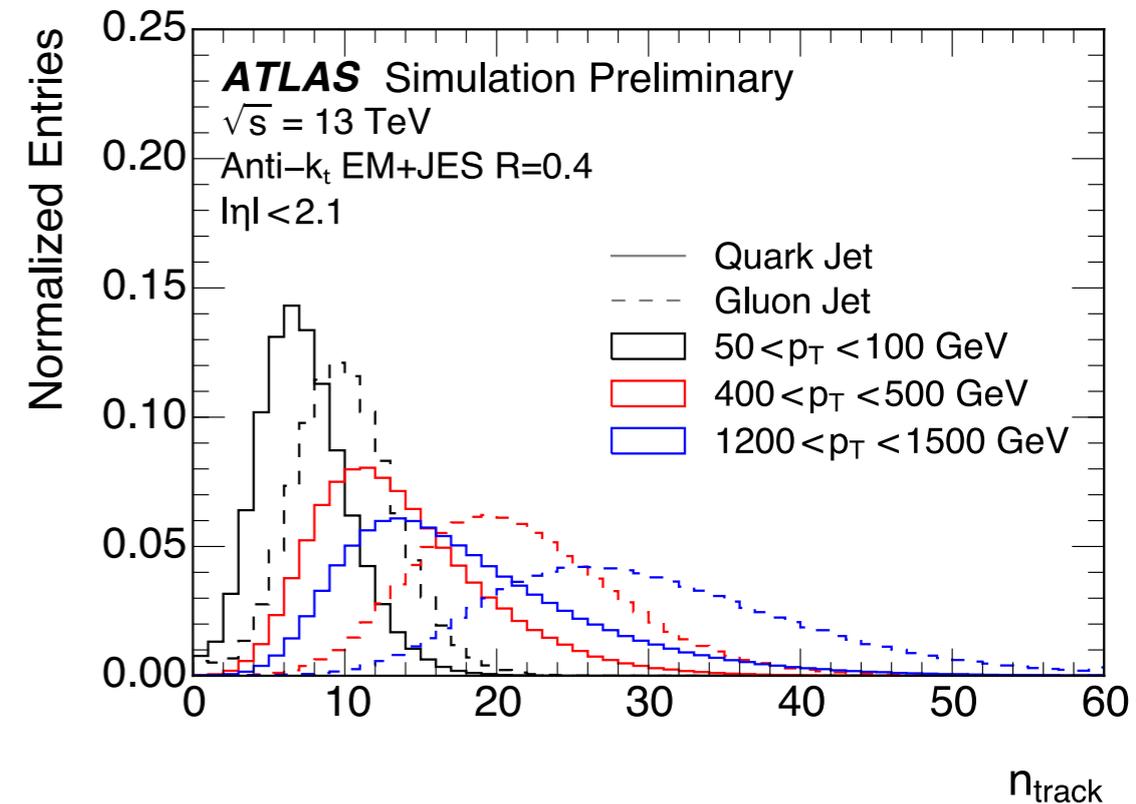
our decays

g



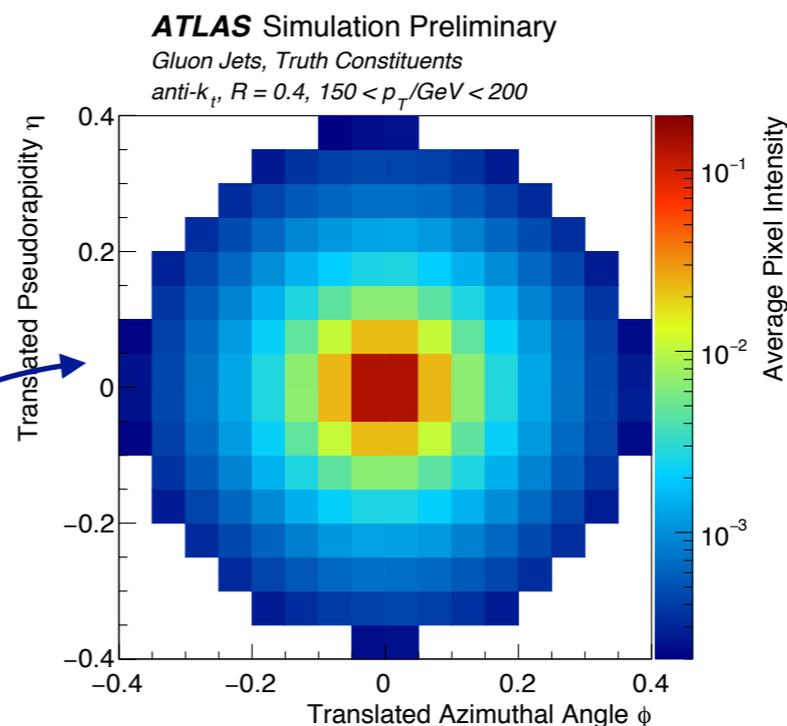
# Quarks and gluons

- Quarks and gluons showering immediately and hadronize shortly afterwards
- Once anything reaches the detector, there's no longer just one particle: track multiplicity  $\sim 6$  to  $10$
- Hard to tell quark and gluon jets apart! Gluon jets are a little wider and tend to include more particles. Ongoing q/g tagging efforts in ATLAS & CMS



Average quark jet

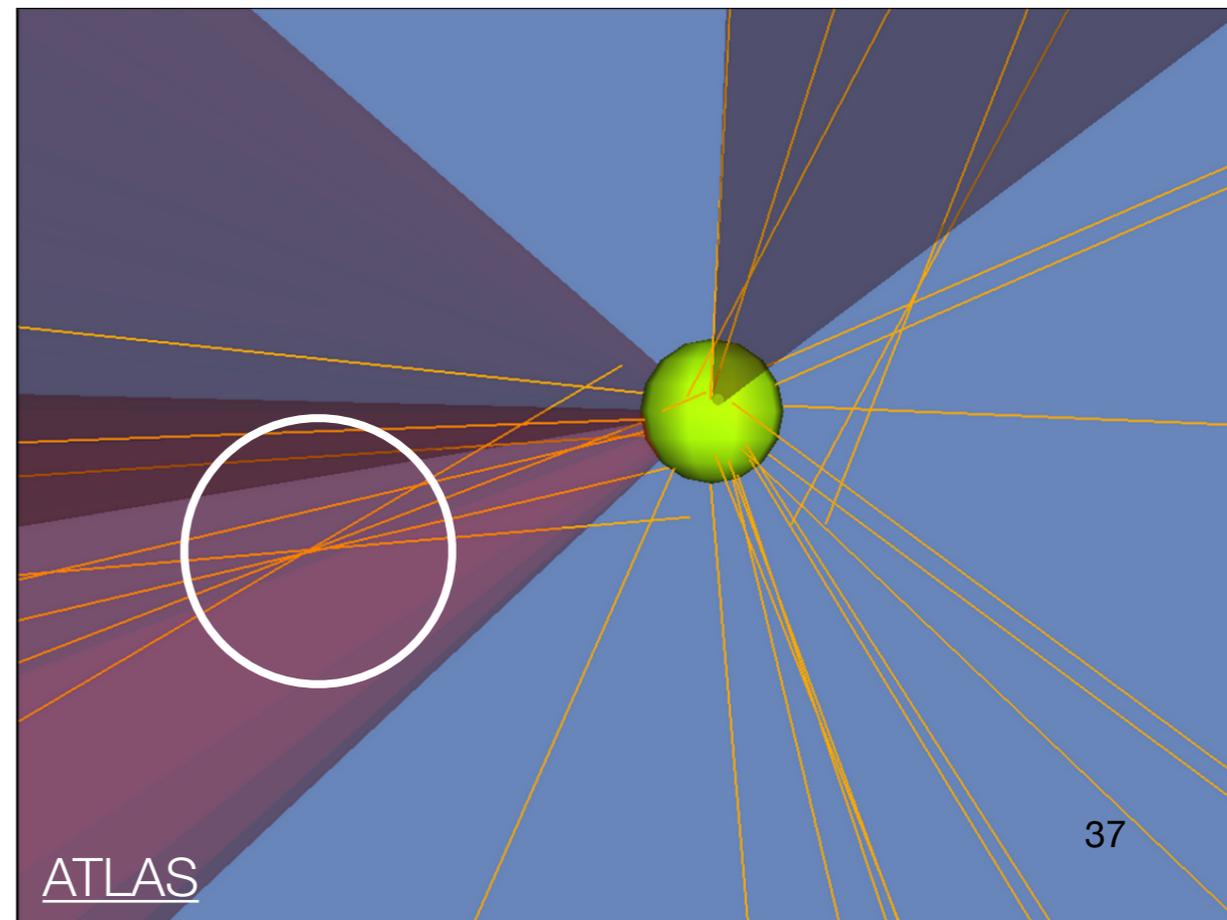
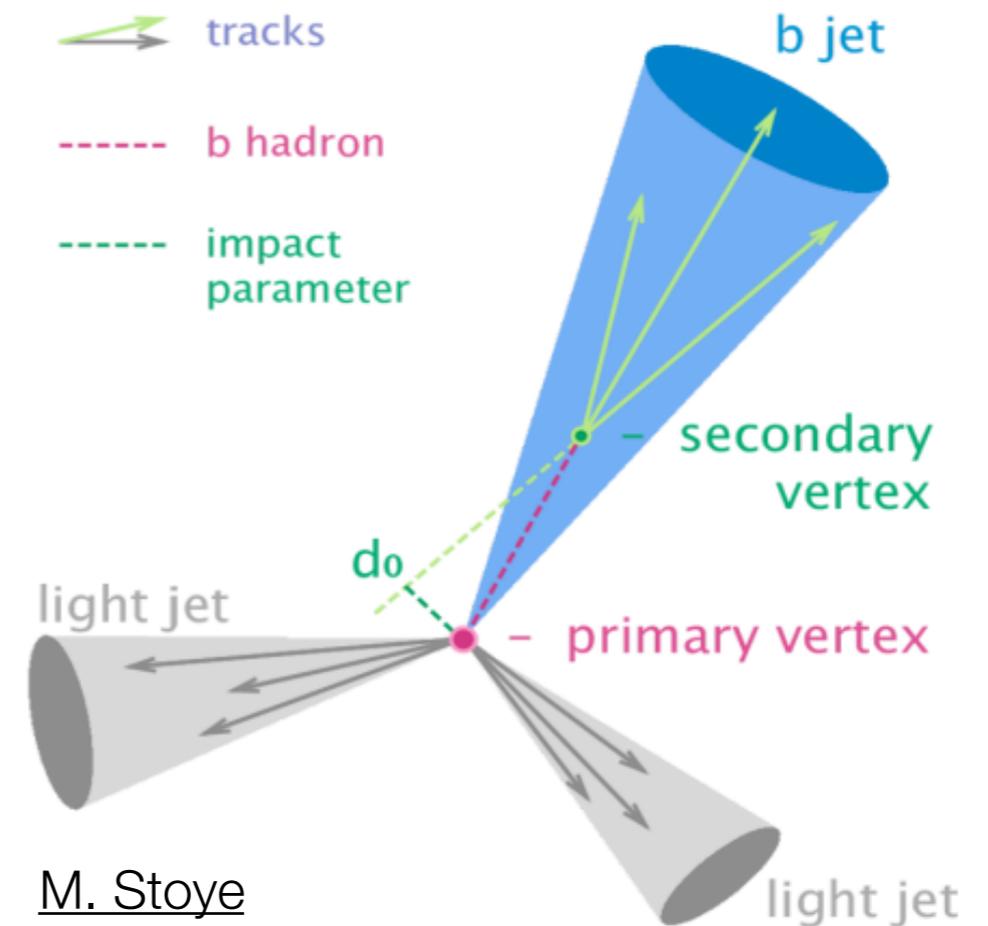
Average gluon jet



Example:  
use jet image in calorimeter to train NN

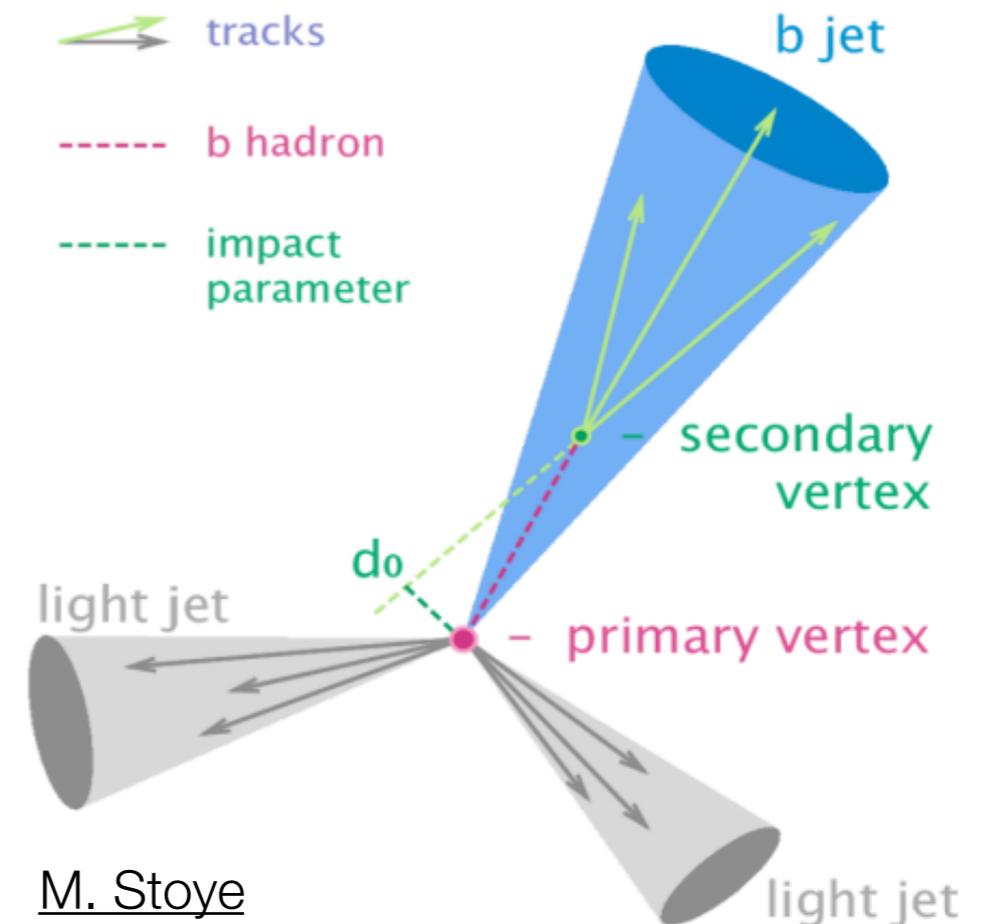
# B-jets

- Exception to the above: hadrons containing b-quarks have a longer lifetime and can travel a non-negligible distance before decaying
- Presence of *secondary vertex* used to identify these jets → calorimetry not enough; tracking is critical!
- Other distinguishing features: jets are usually wider with more constituent particles (tracks) than light jets
- Strong machine learning use case!



# B-jets

- Exception to the above: hadrons containing b-quarks have a longer lifetime and can travel a non-negligible distance before decaying
- Presence of *secondary vertex* used to identify these jets → calorimetry not enough; tracking is critical!
- Other distinguishing features: jets are usually wider with more constituent particles (tracks) than light jets
- Strong machine learning use case!

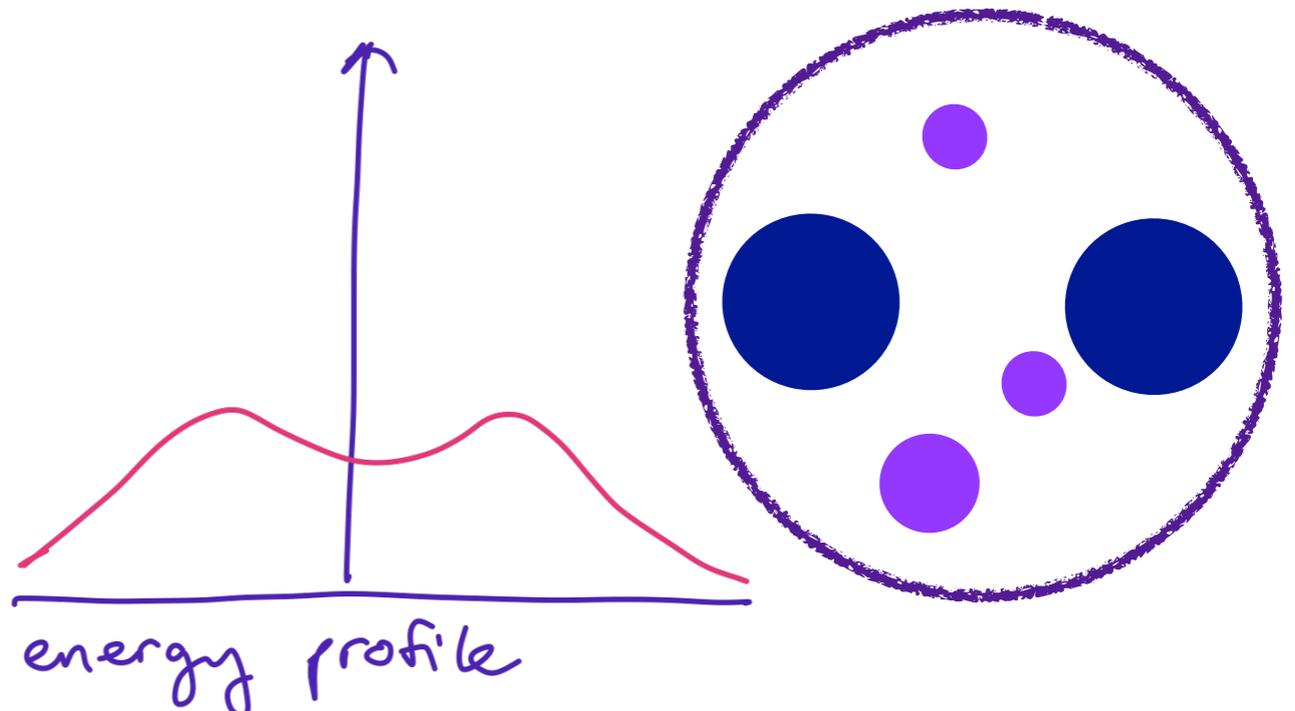
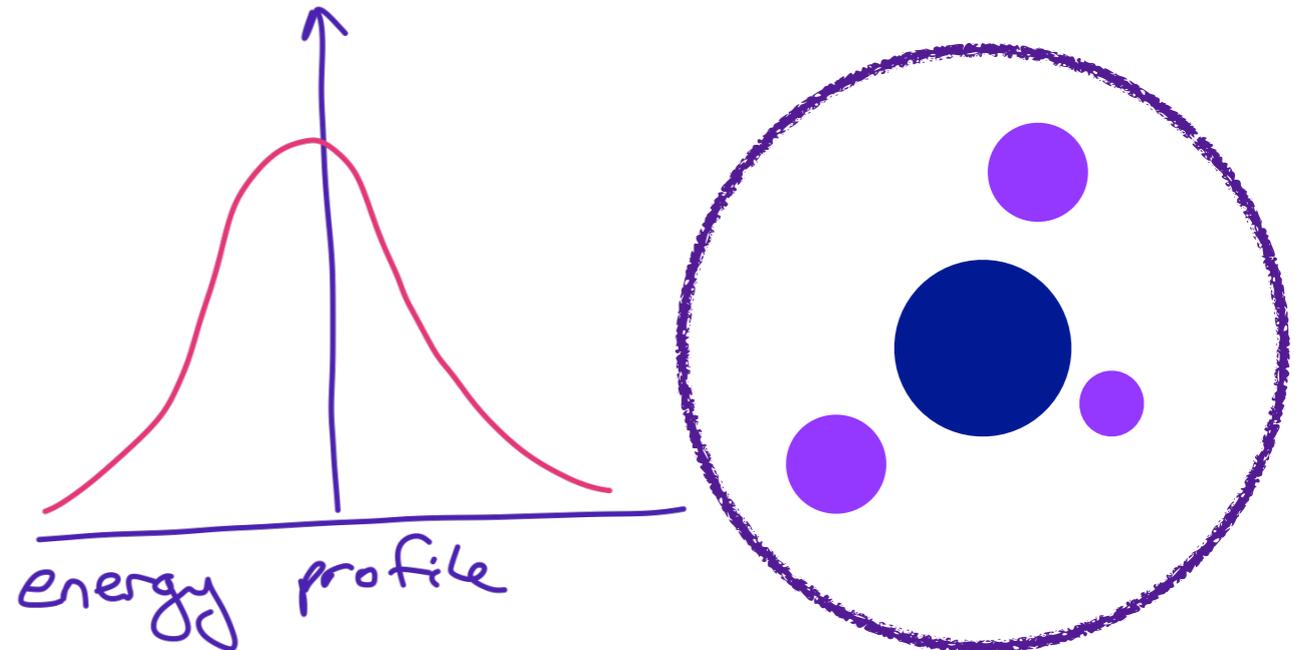


## Why do we care?

- Heavy flavours could couple preferentially to new physics
- Needed for identifying top quark events
- Highest rate decay of the Higgs!

# Jet substructure

- Distribution of energy within a jet is a useful source of information!
- Light jets: expect energy distribution in calorimeter to peak at centre, Gaussian-like
- What if we had a boosted initial particle which split into two strongly charged particles, and each initiated its own sub-jet?
- This can help us identify jets which came from the decays of particular parent particles



# Heavy bosons

---

<b><math>W^+</math> DECAY MODES</b>	Fraction ( $\Gamma_i/\Gamma$ )	Confidence level (MeV/c)	PDG
$\ell^+ \nu$	[ <i>b</i> ] $(10.86 \pm 0.09) \%$	—	
$e^+ \nu$	$(10.71 \pm 0.16) \%$	40189	
$\mu^+ \nu$	$(10.63 \pm 0.15) \%$	40189	
$\tau^+ \nu$	$(11.38 \pm 0.21) \%$	40170	
<b>hadrons</b>	<b><math>(67.41 \pm 0.27) \%</math></b>	—	

- $W$  and  $Z$  decay to  $qq$  most of the time! Need to be able to identify these cases to do effective physics with them.

# Heavy bosons

<b>Z DECAY MODES</b>	Fraction ( $\Gamma_i/\Gamma$ )	Confidence level (MeV/c)
$e^+ e^-$	[h] ( 3.3632 ± 0.0042 ) %	45594
$\mu^+ \mu^-$	[h] ( 3.3662 ± 0.0066 ) %	45594
$\tau^+ \tau^-$	[h] ( 3.3696 ± 0.0083 ) %	45559
$l^+ l^-$	[b,h] ( 3.3658 ± 0.0023 ) %	—
$l^+ l^- l^+ l^-$	[i] ( 4.58 ± 0.26 ) × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	45594
invisible	[h] ( 20.000 ± 0.055 ) %	—
hadrons	[h] ( 69.911 ± 0.056 ) %	—

PDG

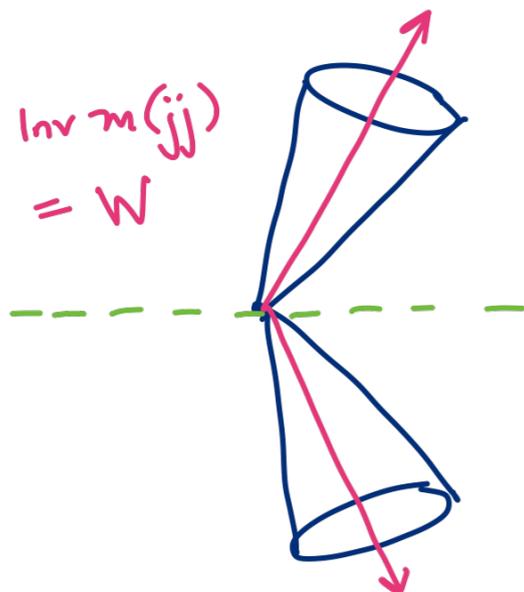
- W and Z decay to qq most of the time! Need to be able to identify these cases to do effective physics with them.

# Heavy bosons

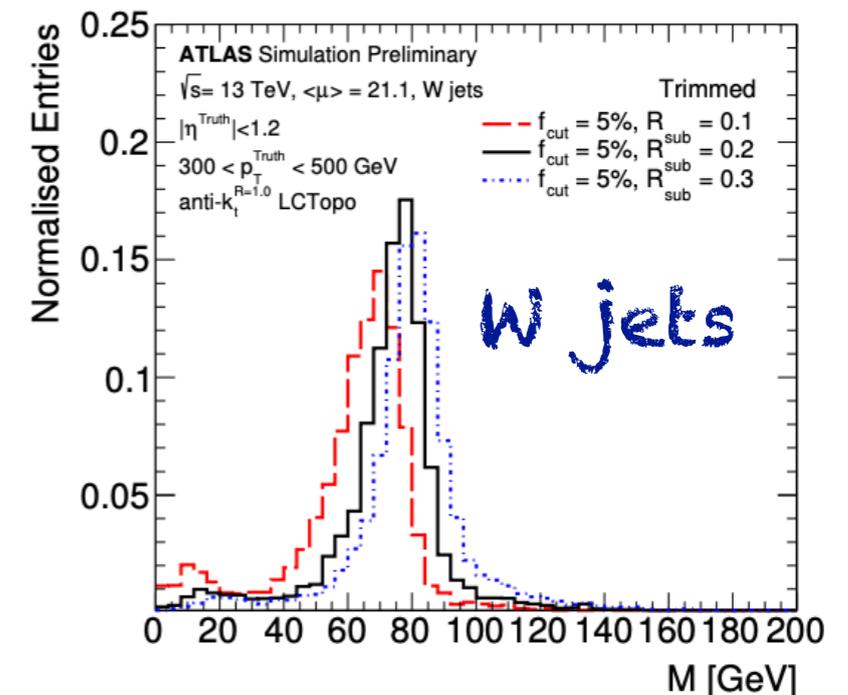
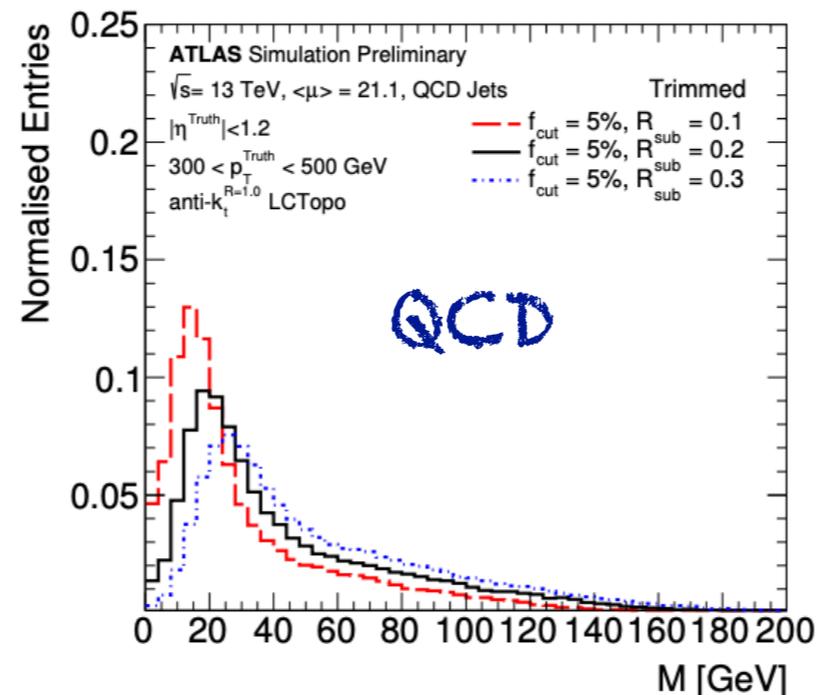
Z DECAY MODES	Fraction ( $\Gamma_i/\Gamma$ )	Confidence level (MeV/c)
$e^+ e^-$	[h] ( 3.3632 ± 0.0042 ) %	45594
$\mu^+ \mu^-$	[h] ( 3.3662 ± 0.0066 ) %	45594
$\tau^+ \tau^-$	[h] ( 3.3696 ± 0.0083 ) %	45559
$l^+ l^-$	[b,h] ( 3.3658 ± 0.0023 ) %	—
$l^+ l^- l^+ l^-$	[i] ( 4.58 ± 0.26 ) × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	45594
invisible	[h] ( 20.000 ± 0.055 ) %	—
hadrons	[h] ( 69.911 ± 0.056 ) %	—

PDG

- Best identifying feature: mass. Treat constituents of large-radius jet as 4 vectors and add to find their invariant mass

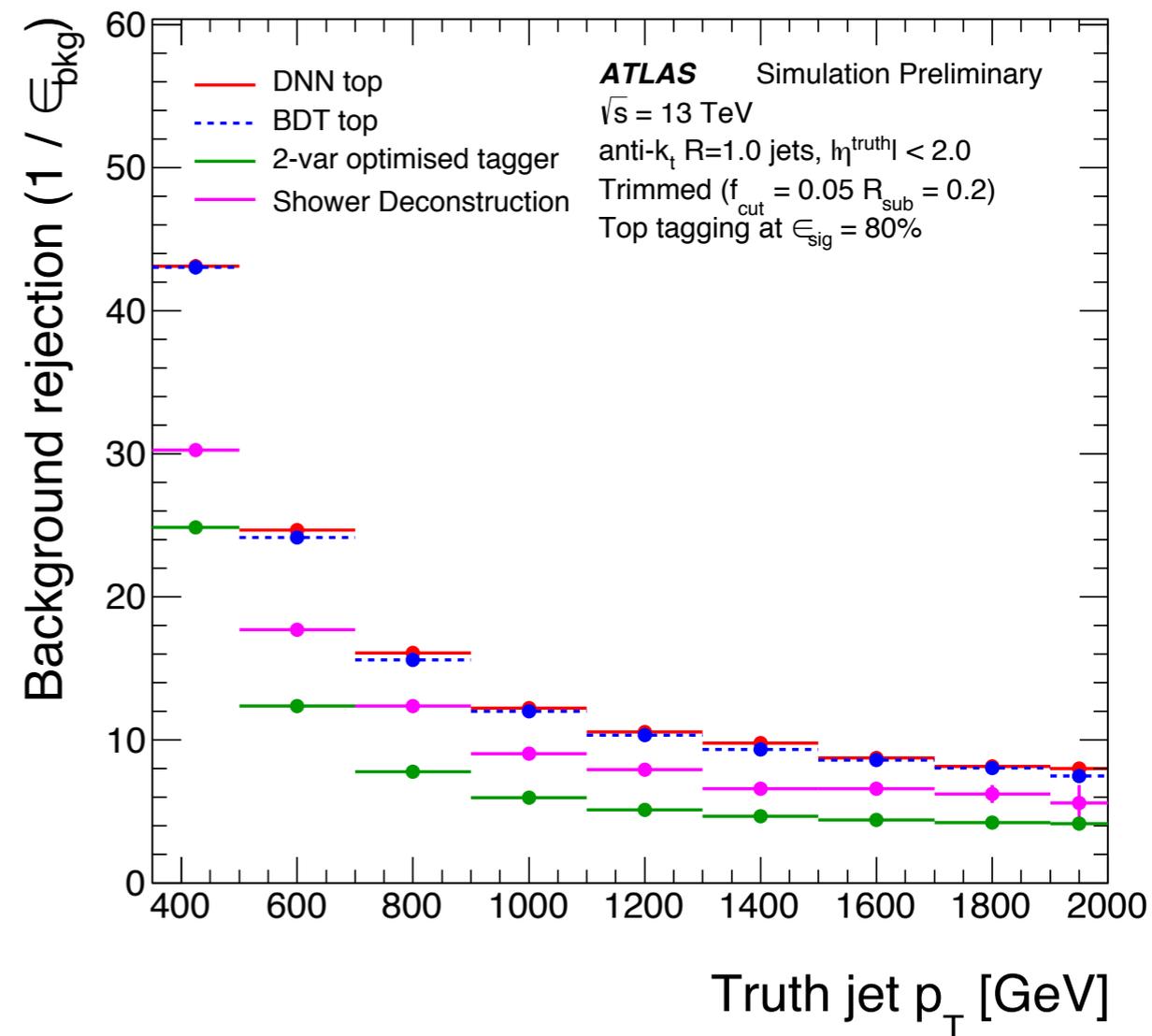
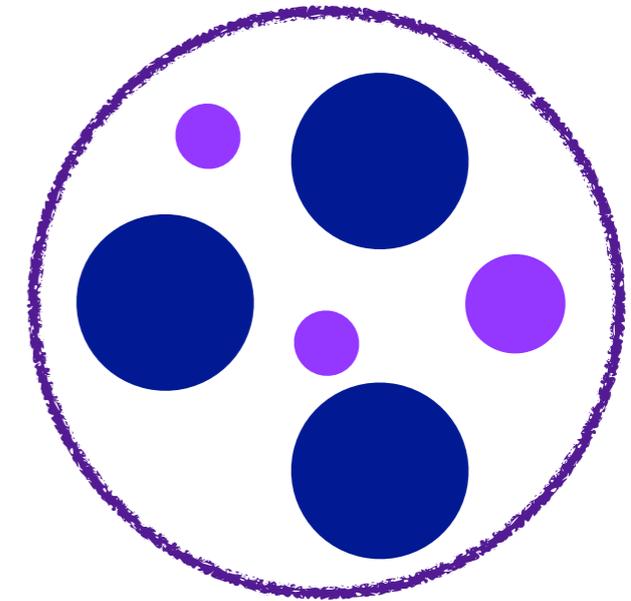


or



# Top tagging

- Like with  $W$  and  $Z$ , mass and distribution of energy inside the jet are the strongest discriminants
- With hadronic tops, expect  $\sim$ three energy groups. Basic selection with mass and “ $n$ -subjettiness” does well, but adding extra substructure variables in a BDT or DNN can do better still
- Extra useful: one of the decay products should be a  $b$ -jet!



# Stop talking about calorimeters!

<b><math>W^+</math> DECAY MODES</b>	Fraction ( $\Gamma_i/\Gamma$ )	Confidence level (MeV/c)	PDG
$\ell^+ \nu$	[b] $(10.86 \pm 0.09) \%$	—	
$e^+ \nu$	$(10.71 \pm 0.16) \%$	40189	
$\mu^+ \nu$	$(10.63 \pm 0.15) \%$	40189	
$\tau^+ \nu$	$(11.38 \pm 0.21) \%$	40170	
hadrons	$(67.41 \pm 0.27) \%$	—	

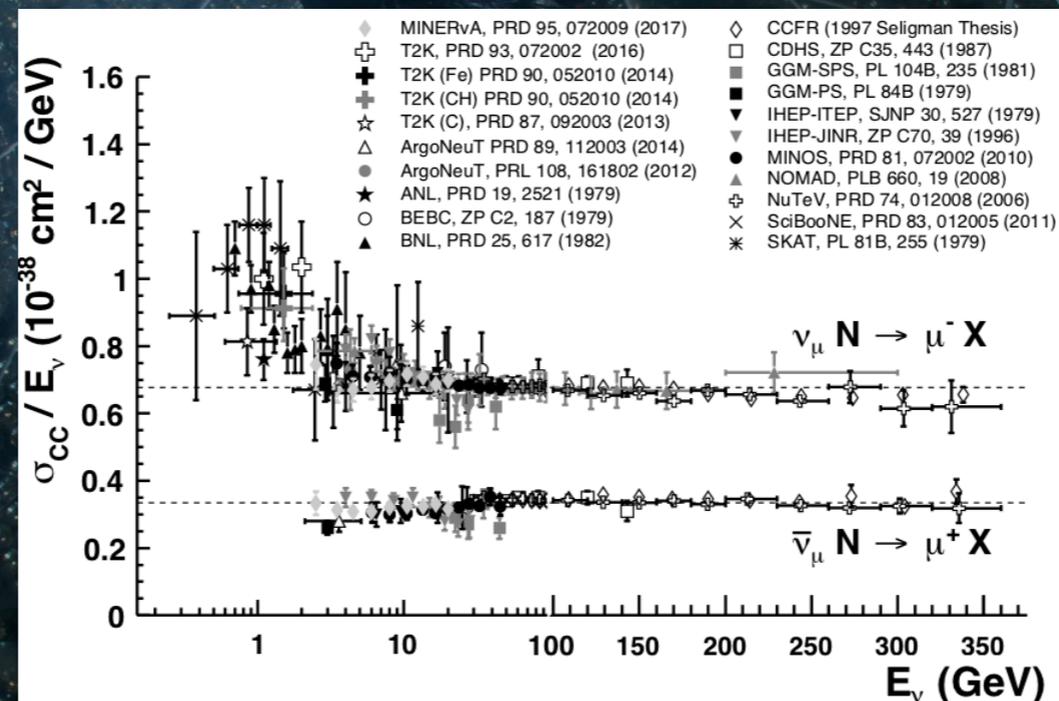
- Z decays to leptons are easy because resolution for leptons is good: if the invariant mass matches a Z, it's probably a Z
- W decays are harder: the  $\nu$  escapes the detector, leaving missing energy.
- Missing energy is transverse  $p_T$  imbalance and is a 3-vector. If you have only 1 neutrino in your event, can reconstruct  $W$  *transverse mass*:

$$m_T = \sqrt{2p_T^\ell p_T^{\text{miss}} (1 - \cos \Delta\phi)}$$

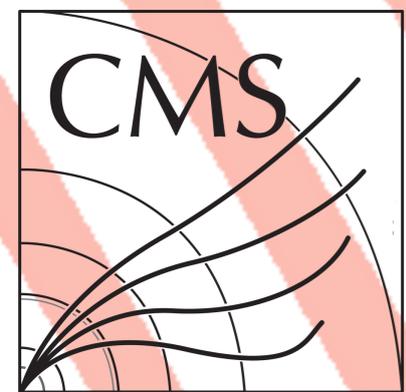
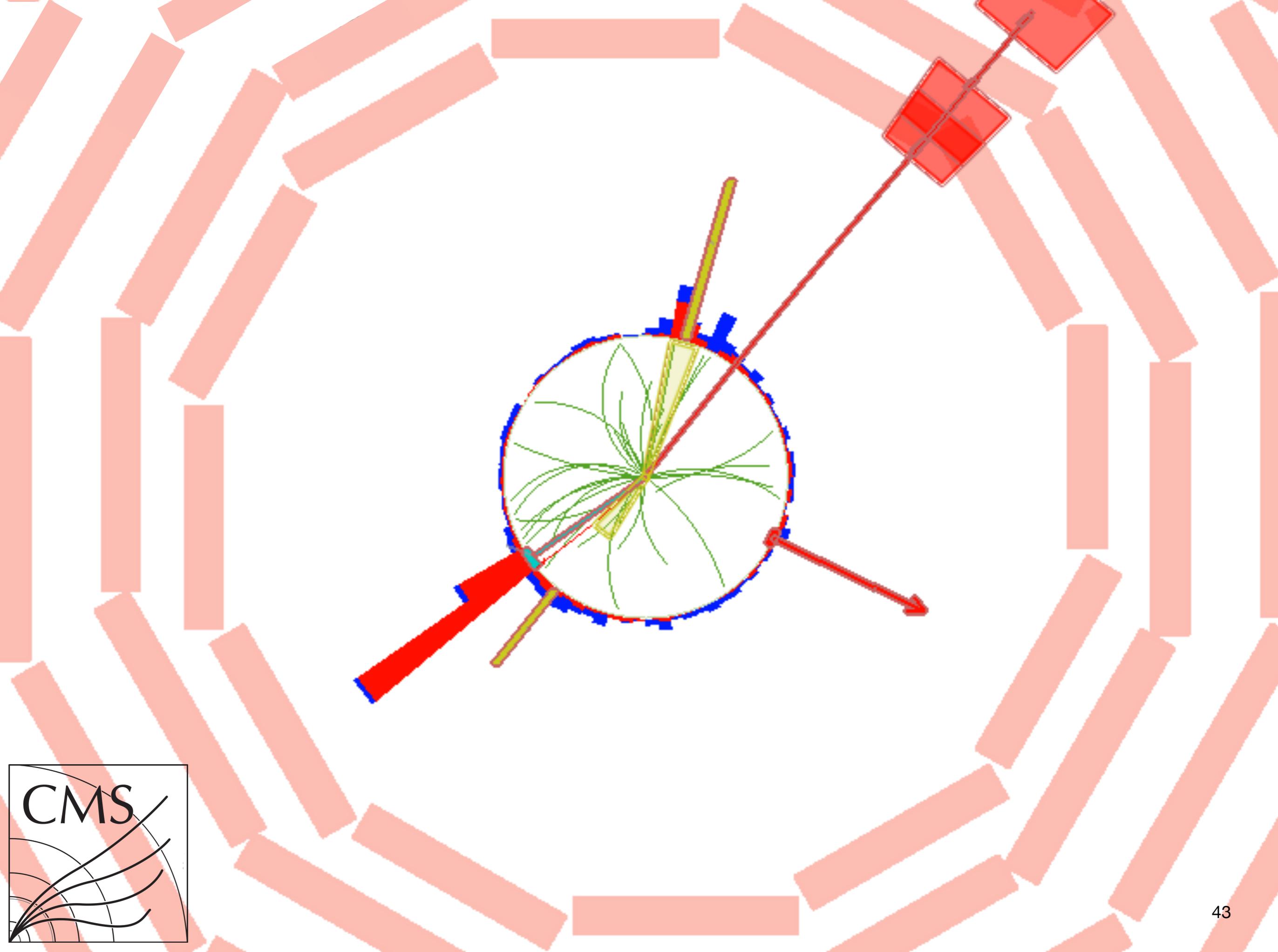
Sno+: 800 tonnes  
of scintillator

# Neutrino ID

- Neutrino interaction cross section is ridiculously small

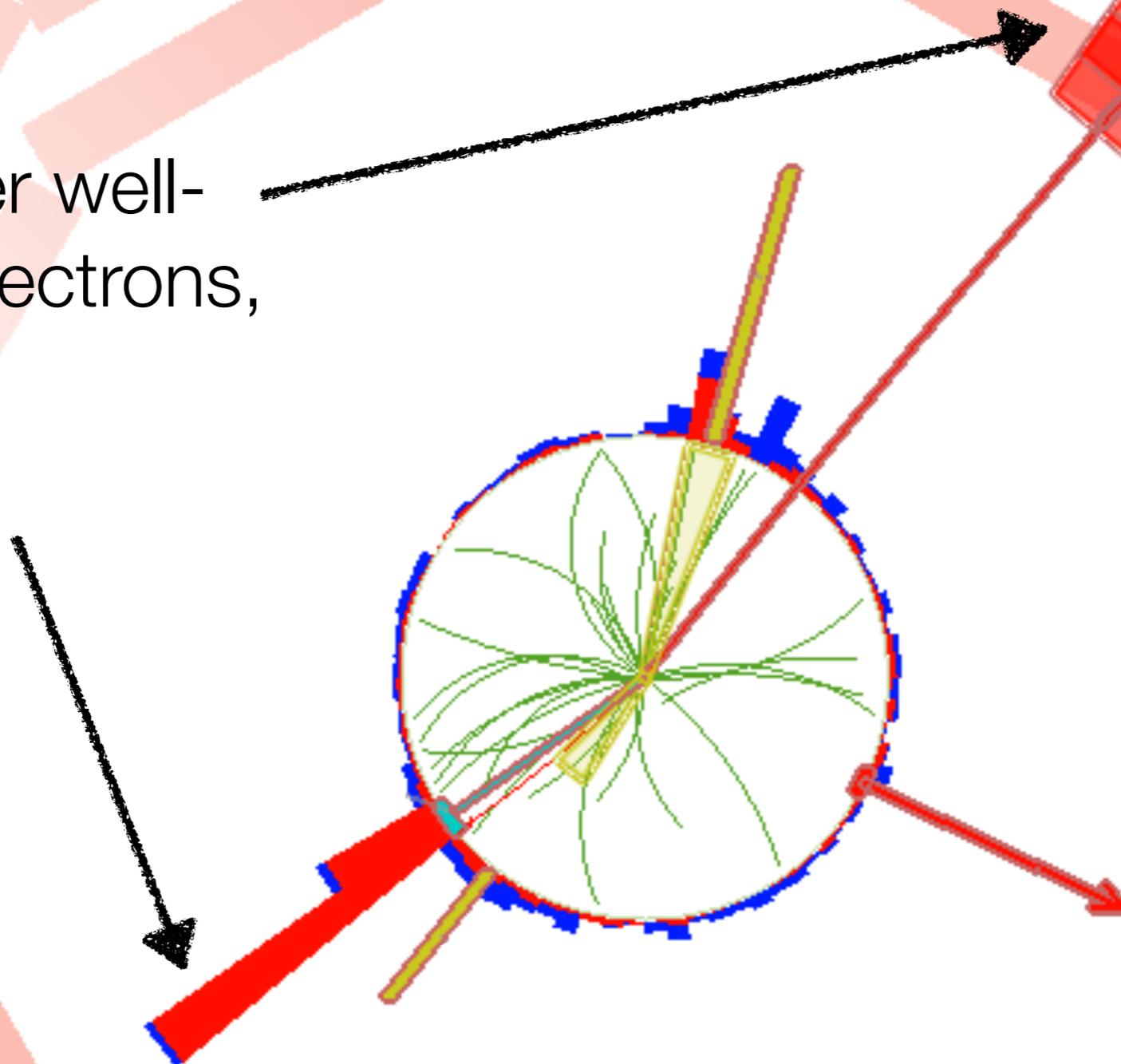


- If you are a dedicated neutrino experiment, get as large a volume as possible for the neutrinos to interact in to arrive at a visible rate
- If you're a collider experiment, you are out of luck! Neutrinos will pass all the way through the detector leaving no trace.
- However, neutrinos carry momentum: p imbalance in transverse plane tells you some particle was not reconstructed



# MET

Add together well-calibrated electrons, muons, ...

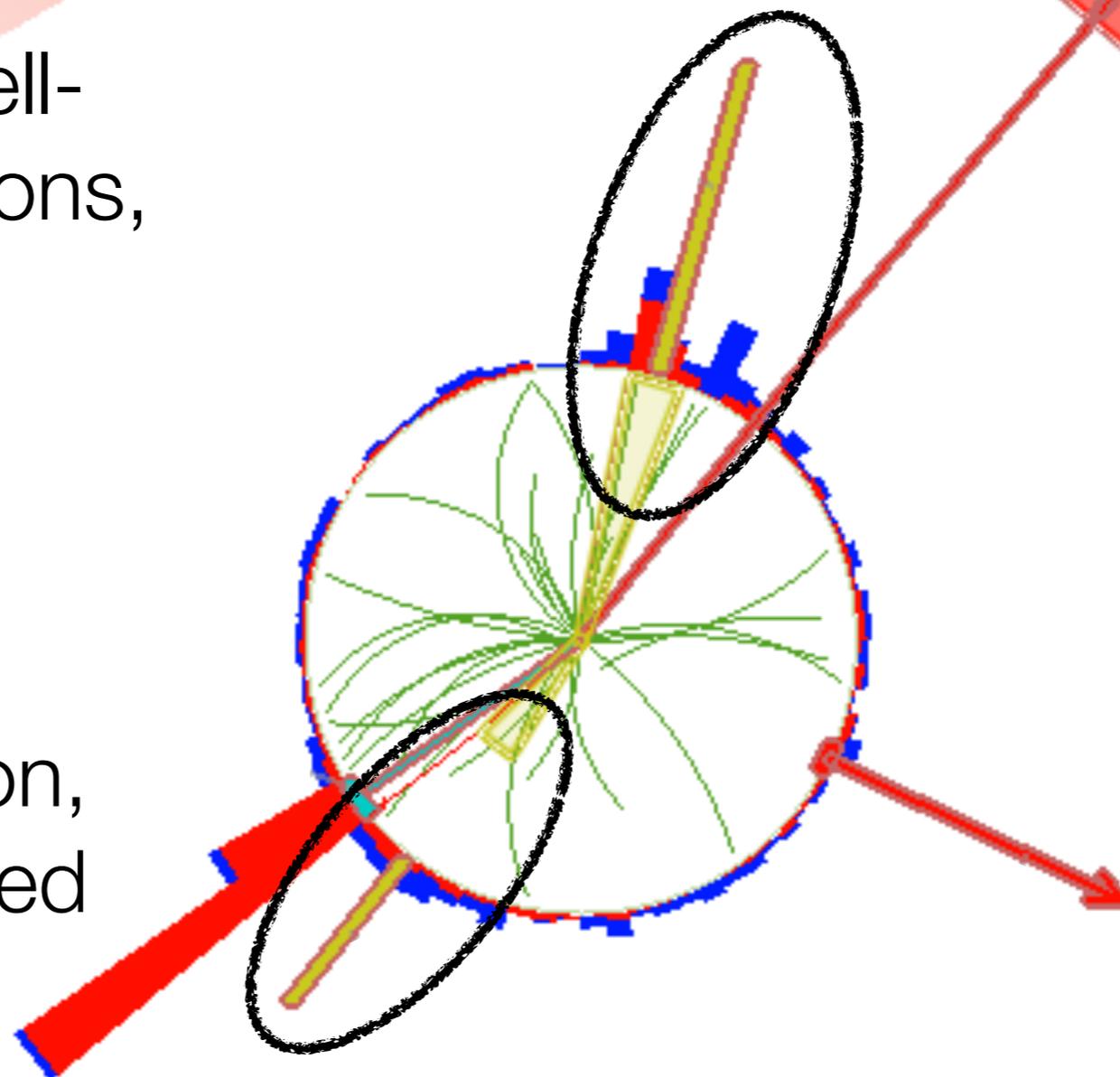


CMS

# MET

Add together well-calibrated electrons, muons, ...

Add all jets passing some threshold criterion, properly calibrated

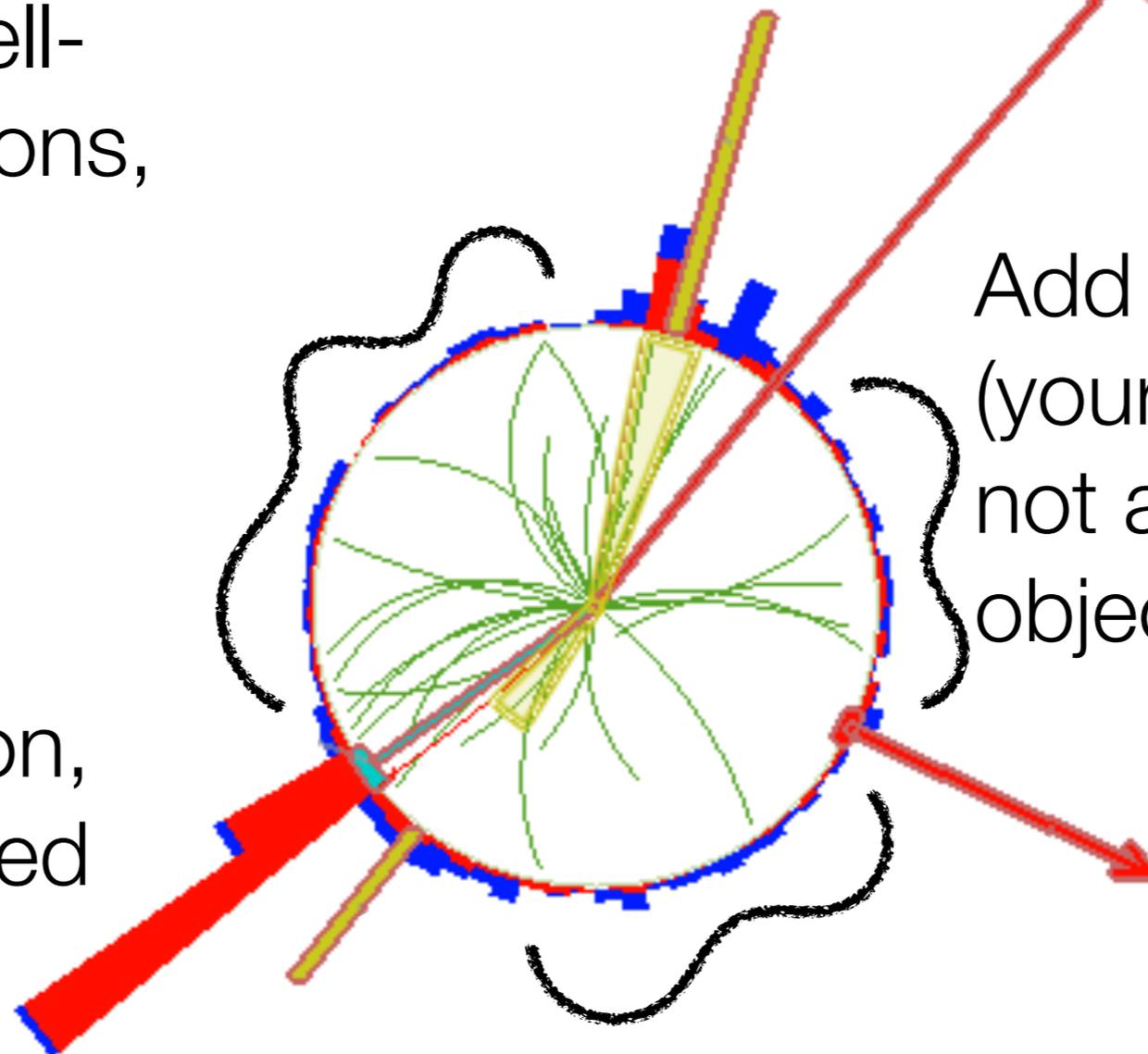


CMS

# MET

Add together well-calibrated electrons, muons, ...

Add all jets passing some threshold criterion, properly calibrated



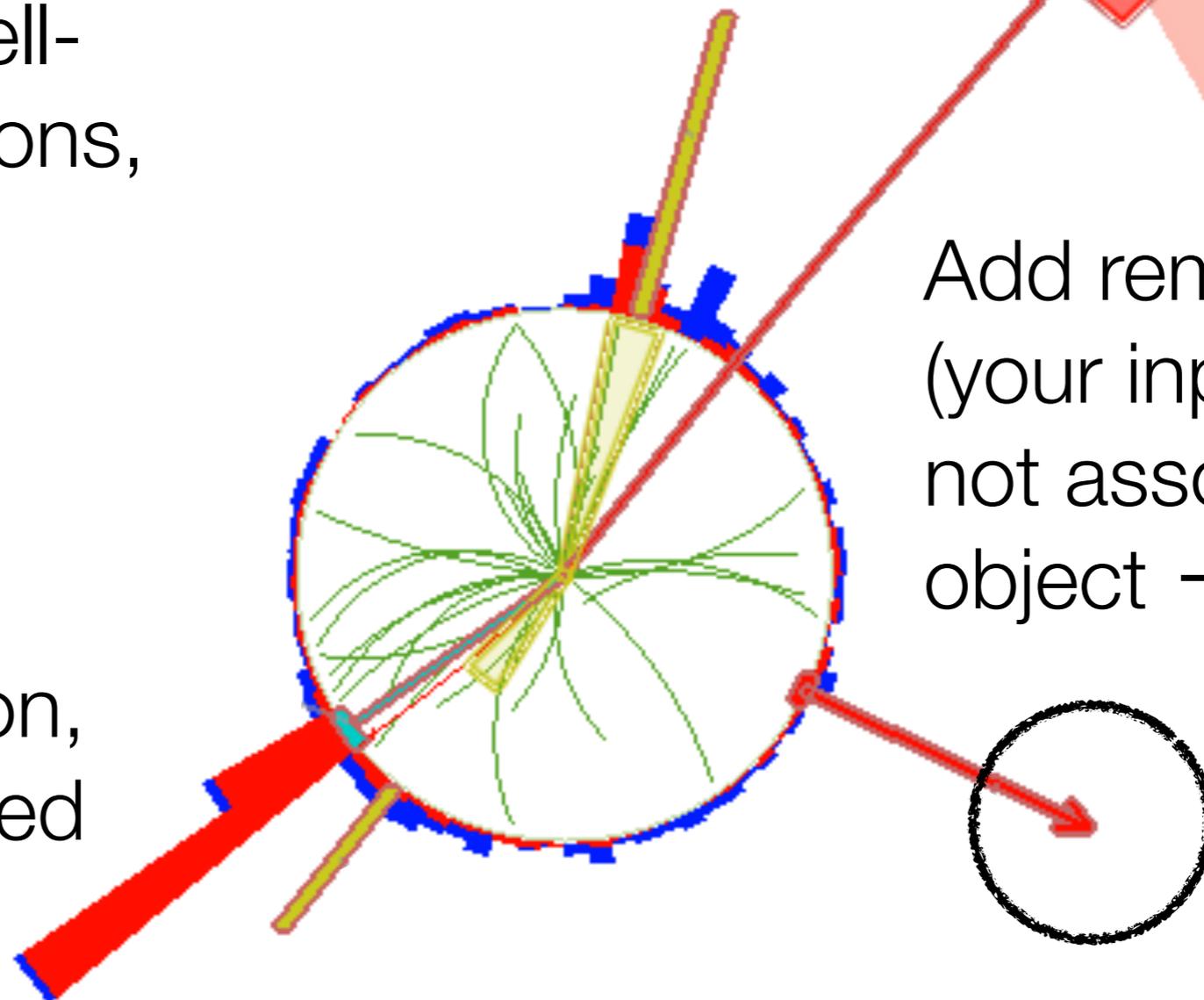
Add remaining activity (your input of choice) not associated to an object → “soft term”

CMS

# MET

Add together well-calibrated electrons, muons, ...

Add all jets passing some threshold criterion, properly calibrated



Add remaining activity (your input of choice) not associated to an object  $\rightarrow$  "soft term"

Vector needed for sum to equal zero is the missing transverse momentum (MET)

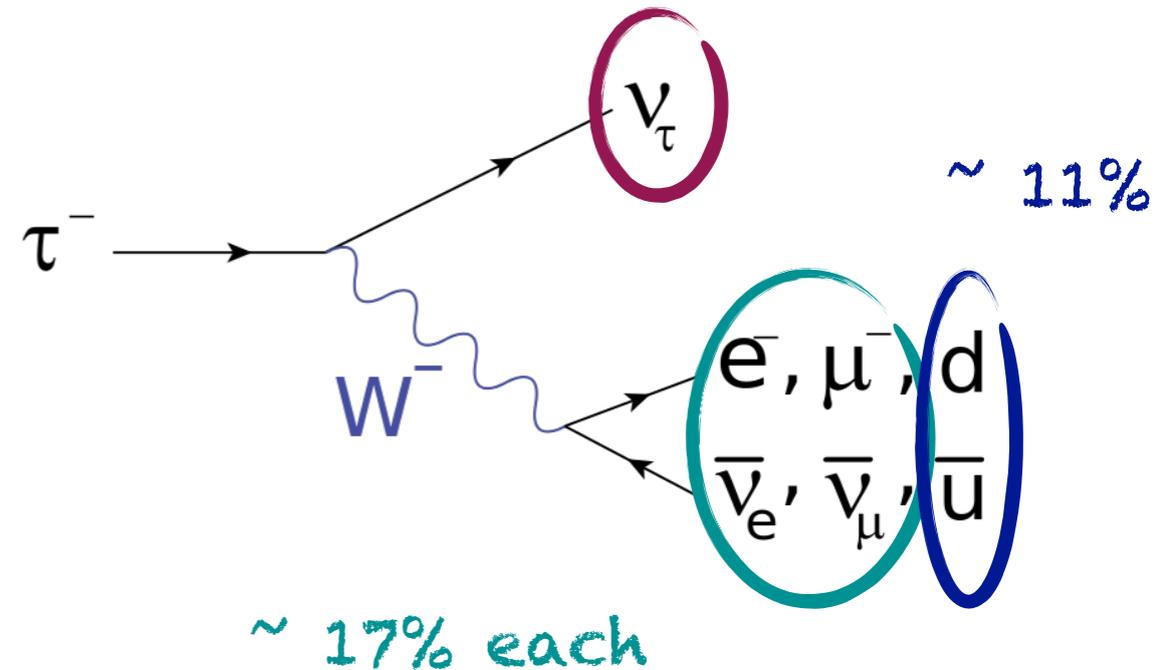
CMS

# Taus

- Taus are heavy enough to have a huge number of available decays!
- Short lifetime: have to ID by decay products, not directly (though secondary vertex may be visible)
- Two and three charged pion decay modes resemble low- $n_{\text{trk}}$  jets
- One-charged-pion decay mode resembles an electron
- Use cluster width and radius, EM to hadronic fraction,  $n_{\text{trk}}$ , degree of isolation to identify taus

I would paste the PDG decay modes table, but it's 6 pages long!

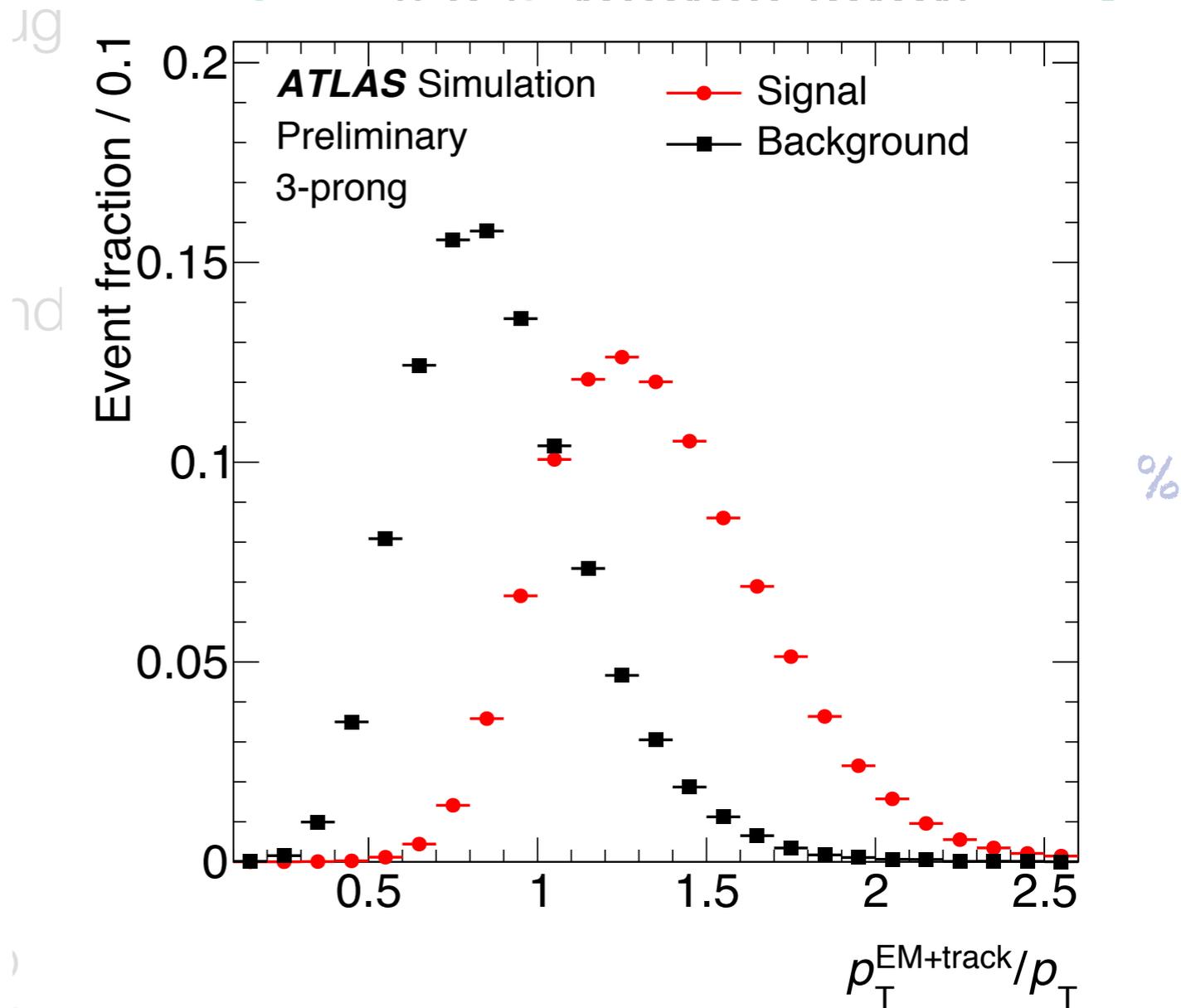
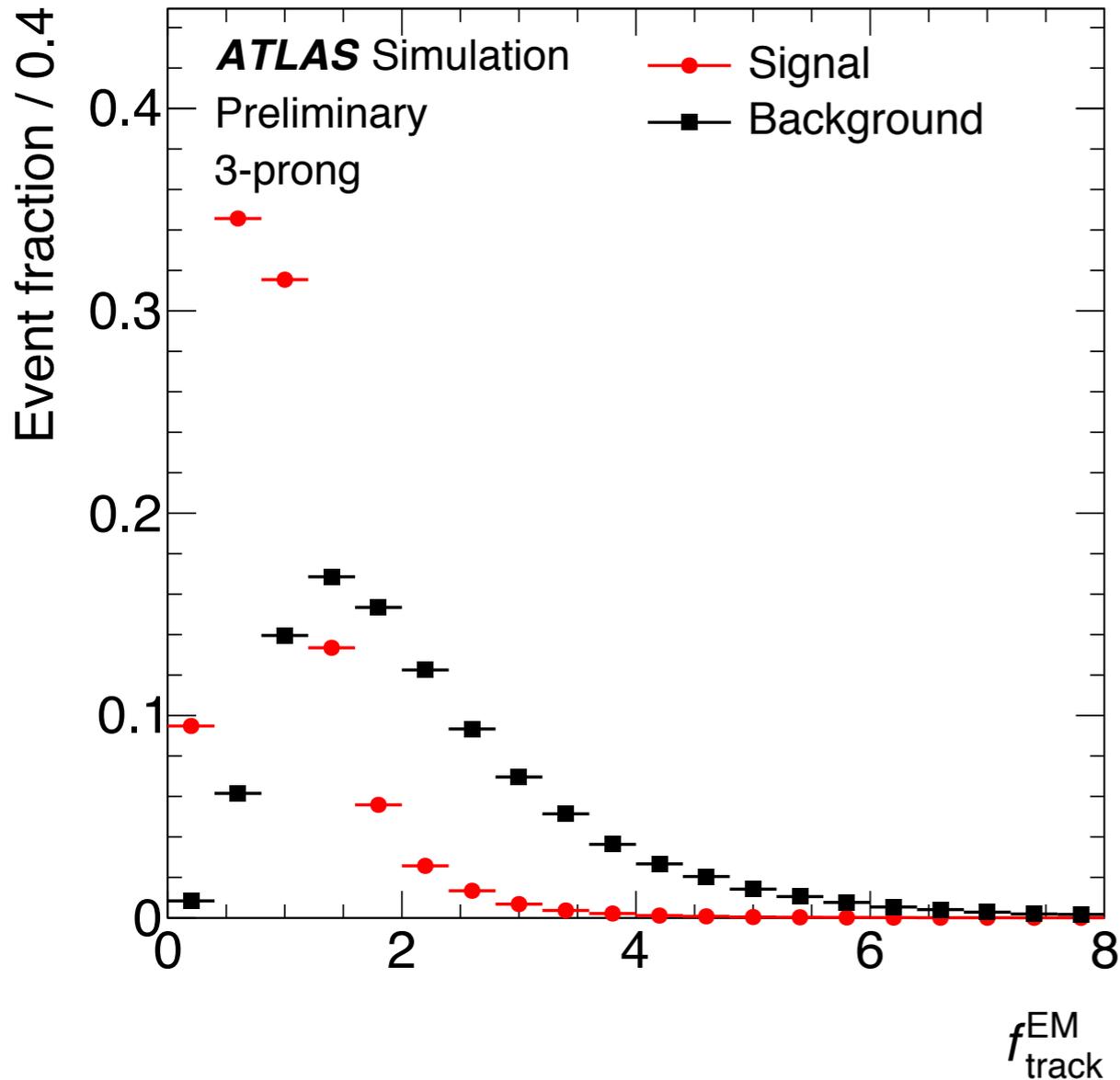
Lost energy from  $\nu$  complicates  $\tau$  energy reconstruction



- + 25%  $\tau \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^0 \nu_\tau$
- + 11%  $\tau \rightarrow 3 \text{ charged } \pi$
- + 9%  $\tau \rightarrow \pi^0 \pi^0 \pi^+ \nu_\tau$

# Taus

I would paste the PDG decay modes table, but



neutronic fraction,  $f_{\text{trk}}$ , degree of isolation

to identify taus

ATL-PHYS-PUB-2015-045

+ 11%  $\tau \rightarrow 3$  charged  $\pi$   
 + 9%  $\tau \rightarrow \pi^0 \pi^0 \pi^+ \nu_{\tau}$

# Longer-lived hadrons

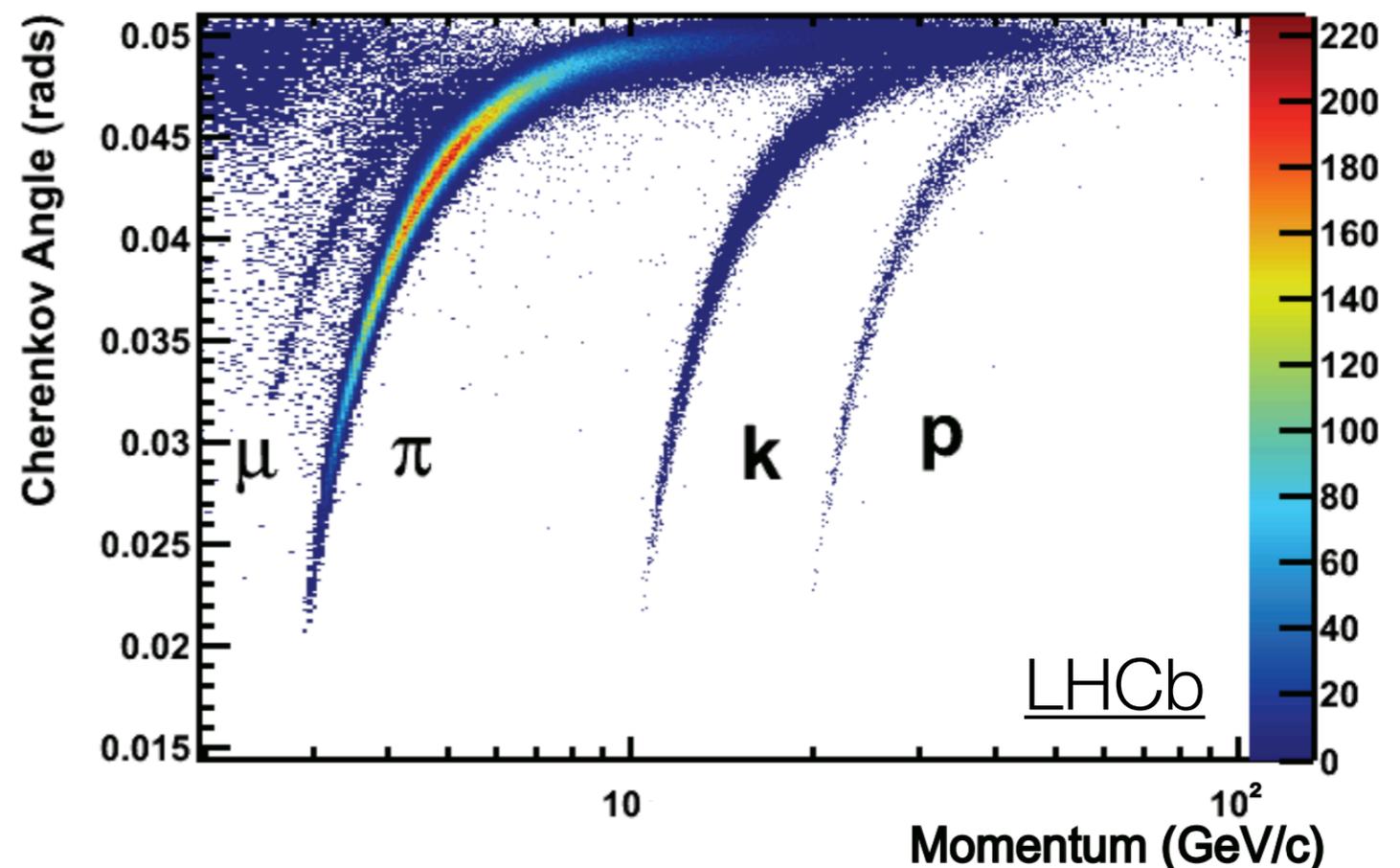
Total energy from calo can tell you about mass, but it isn't terribly precise

- If jets aren't enough info and you want to distinguish kaons, pions, and other longer lived mesons, you may need extra information to separate similar masses.
  - Sometimes make an entire dedicated detector (e.g. RICH Cherenkov detector in LHCb)

- For a relativistic particle,  $\beta = v/c$ ,  $\gamma = E/m = (1 - \beta^2)^{-1/2}$

- Cherenkov radiation is one of several ways to get extra information on  $\beta$  which can translate to mass information. Angle of radiated light directly related to  $\beta$ :

$$\cos \theta = 1/\beta n$$



# Longer-lived hadrons, cont'd

- Time of flight: if you have a very good timing detector, can resolve two particles of the same energy but different masses:

$$\text{tof} = d/\beta c \quad \text{Diff} \sim \text{picoseconds, but feasible!}$$

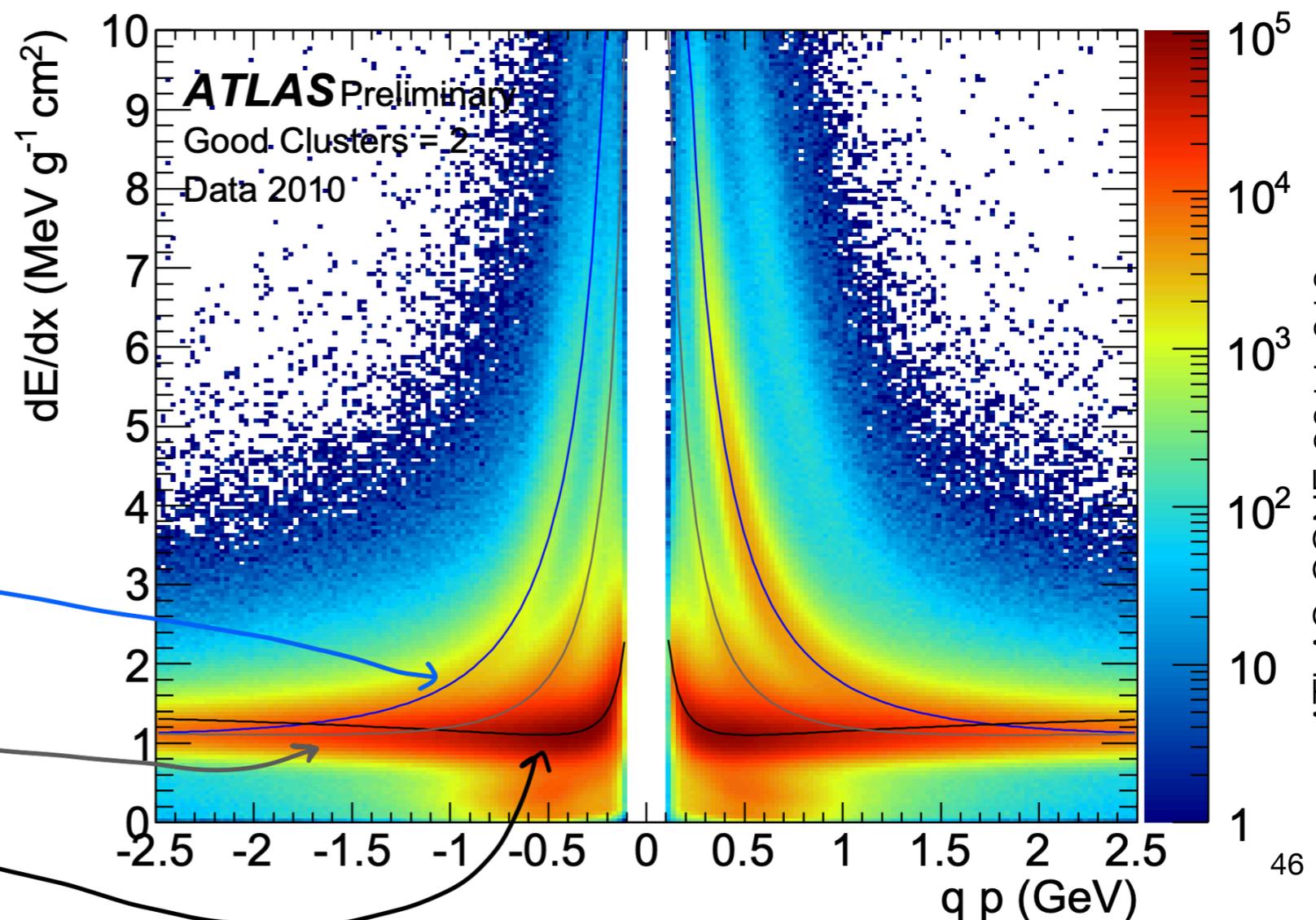
- Bethe-Bloch energy loss: recall Bethe-Bloch from previous lectures (I hope!)

$$dE/dx \propto \ln(\beta^2 \gamma^2) / \beta^2$$

PROTONS

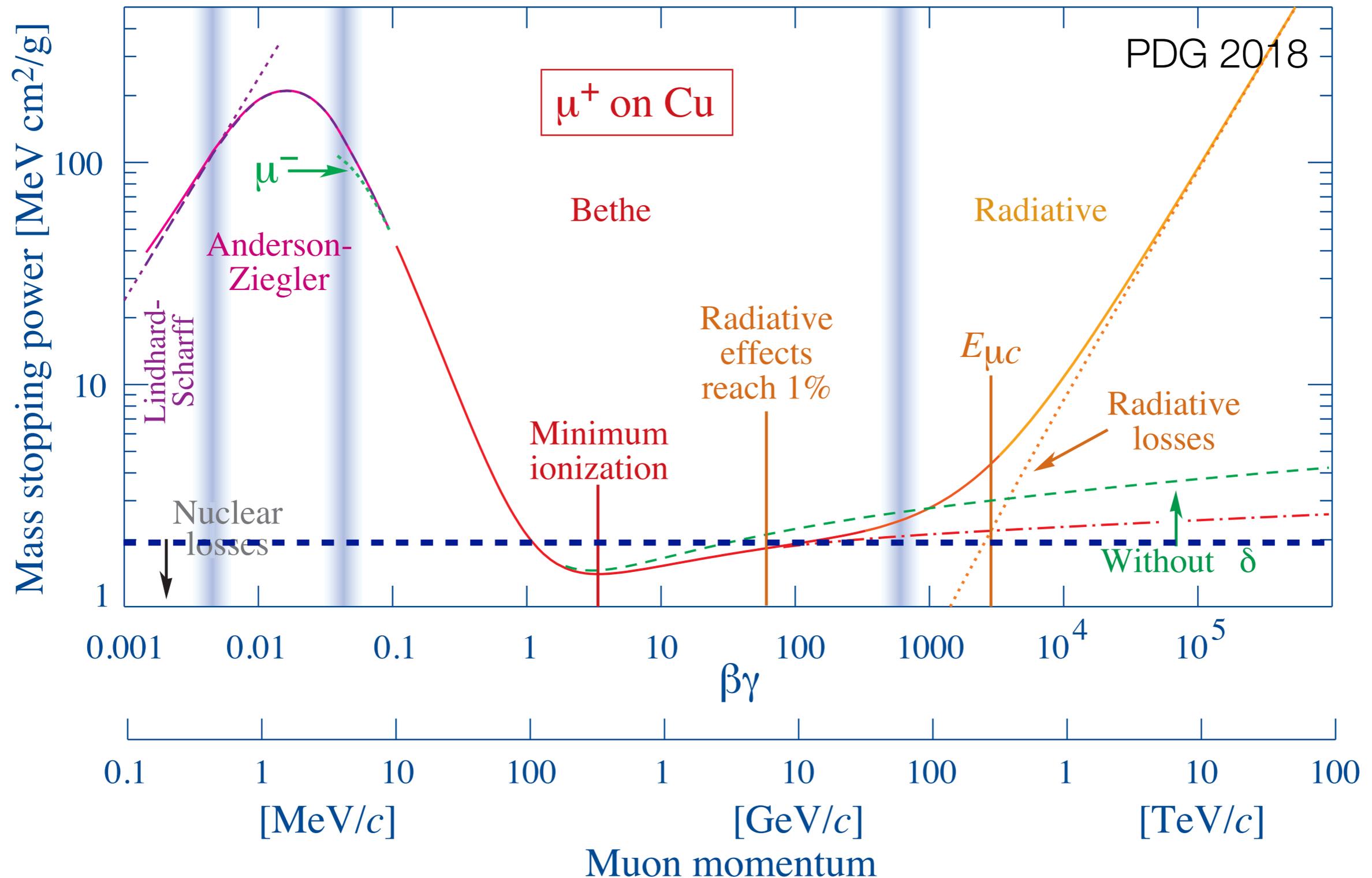
KAONS

PIONS



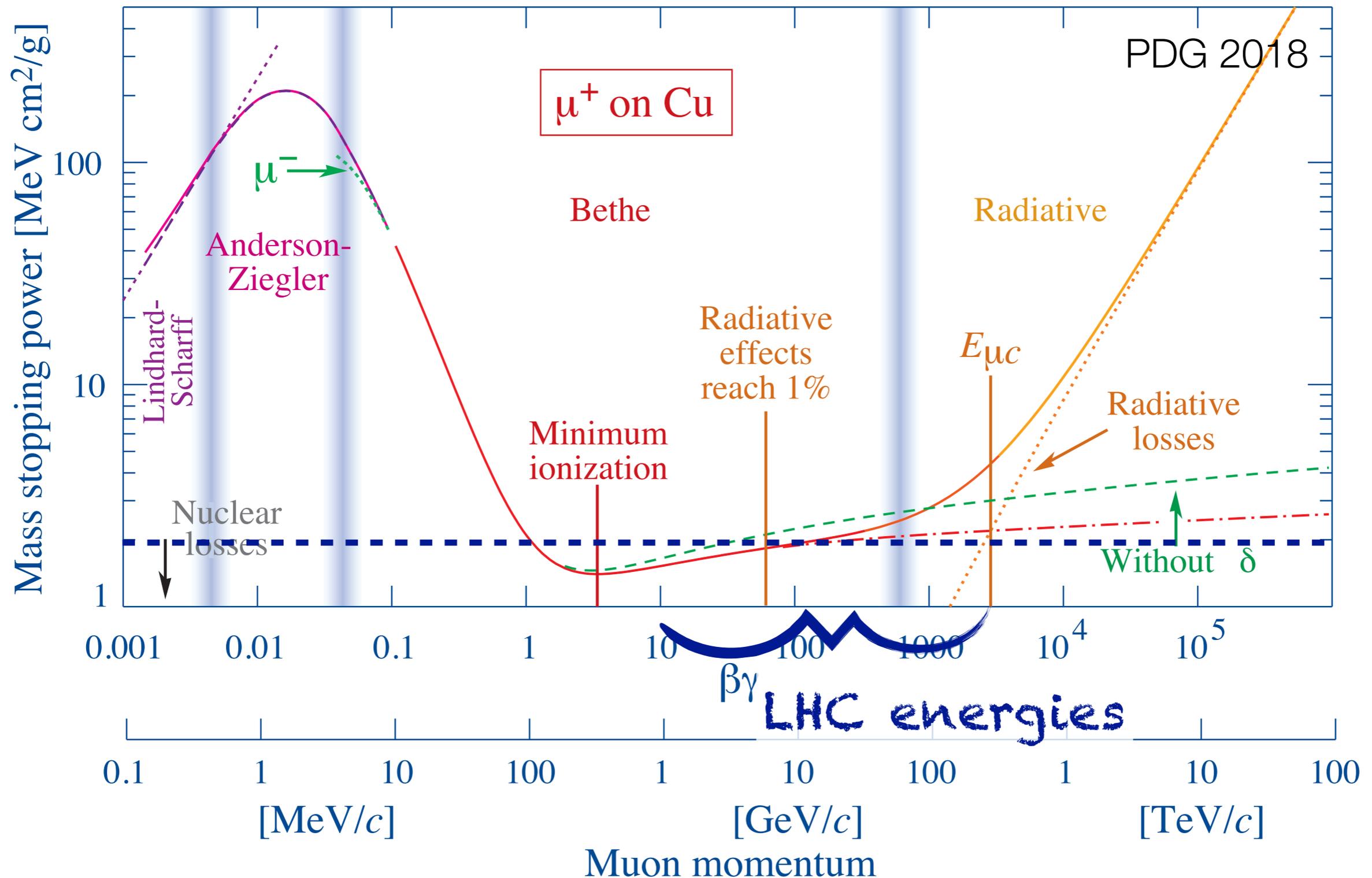
# Fun with muons

Reminder  
 $\beta\gamma = p/Mc$



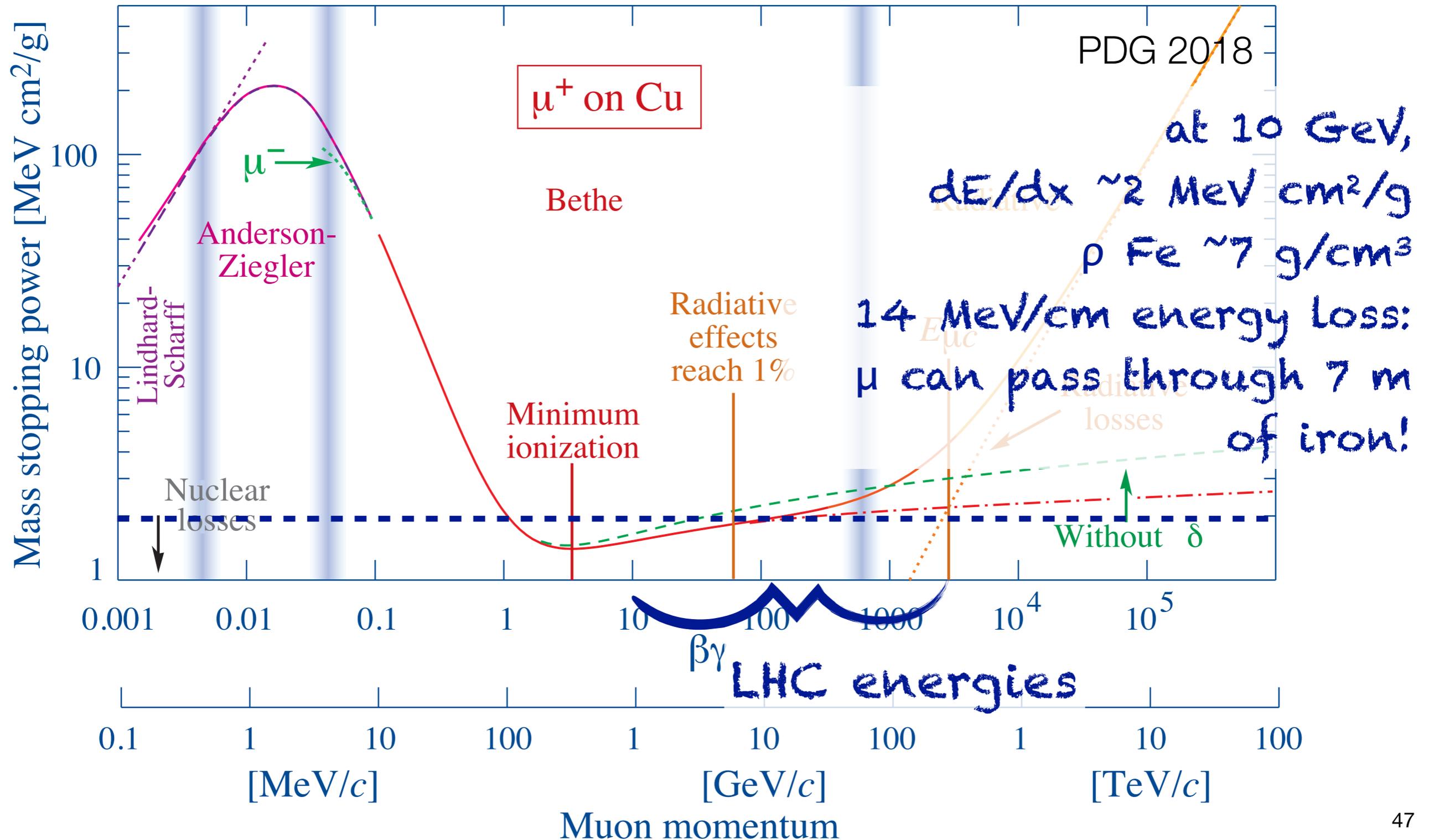
# Fun with muons

Reminder  
 $\beta\gamma = p/Mc$



# Fun with muons

Reminder  
 $\beta\gamma = p/Mc$



# Conclusions

# Conclusions

---

- Detectors need to do two things well:
  - Identify particles entering them
  - Tell us as much as possible about their properties: energy, momentum, charge, mass, ...
- Every part of a detector is necessary to get this information!
- We discussed calorimeters: for everything except muons and neutrinos, these give us a measure of the total energy carried by the particle
- Careful calorimeter design lets you balance resolution, size, and expense
- Calorimeters are key for particle identification at LHC energies!

Student problems

# Problems

---

- Which of these particles will undergo hadronic interactions in my calorimeter?  $K^0$ ,  $\pi^+$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\mu$ ,  $n$
- If I want to make a homogeneous electromagnetic calorimeter out of CsI scintillating crystals (density  $4.51 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ,  $X_0$  1.86) how thick does it have to be? If I want to instrument  $3 \text{ m}^2$  of surface area, how much will my detector weigh?
- Using the approximations on slide 12, what's the maximum number of particles in an electromagnetic shower?

Backup

# Sources and references

---

- Calorimeter material and explanations taken with many thanks from lectures by M. Vetterli, M. Delmastro, D. Markoff, S. Masciocchi, E. Garutti, P. Loch, G. Gaudio, C. Jessop, M. Battaglieri, M. Nessi,
- Most calorimeter related plots taken from the Particle Data Group or *Wigmans' Calorimetry*, as noted in slides
- Non-jetty PID information taken with thanks from N. Proklova, S. Morgenstern, A. Kalinowski, R. Forty
- Most particle ID plots and event displays taken from various ATLAS public results
- Some good quick reads on calorimeters and jets: Fabjan & Gianotti, Peter Loch's lectures, Webber

# Calorimetric properties of common materials

---

	$X_0$ [cm]	$E_c$ [MeV]	$R_M$ [cm]
Pb	0.56	7.2	1.6
Scintillator (Sz)	34.7	80	9.1
Fe	1.76	21	1.8
Ar (liquid)	14	31	9.5
BGO	1.12	10.1	2.3
Sz/Pb	3.1	12.6	5.2
PB glass (SF5)	2.4	11.8	4.3

Table from Marco Delmastro