

Calorimeters - Part I -

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Outline

- Lecture 1 – Basics of calorimetry for HEP
 - Signal generation
 - Electromagnetic and hadronic processes
 - Sampling vs homogeneous calorimeters
 - 4D shower development
 - Signal detection
 - Response linearity and energy resolution
- Lecture 2 – Modern calorimeter systems (Martin Aleksa)
- Lecture 3 – Particle flow calorimeters (Katja Krüger)

Key questions:

- What is a calorimeter used for (in HEP)?

Measure particle energy

- Of which particles is possible to measure the energy ?

Stable charged and neutral particles with sufficiently long lifetime of $c\tau > 500\mu\text{m}$:

$e^\pm, \mu^\pm, \pi^\pm, K^\pm, p^\pm, K^0, n, \gamma$

- How is the energy of a particle measured?

Total absorption (destructive process) / conversion into measurable signal

(NB. issue of muons)

- What is the basic assumption in this method?

$$S = aE$$



why calorimeters?

- Measure *charged + neutral* particles
- Performance of calorimeters *improves with energy* and is \sim constant over 4π (Magn. Spectr. anisotropy due to B field)

Calorimeter: $\frac{\sigma_E}{E} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{E}}$

e.g. ATLAS:

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} \approx \frac{0.1}{\sqrt{E}}$$

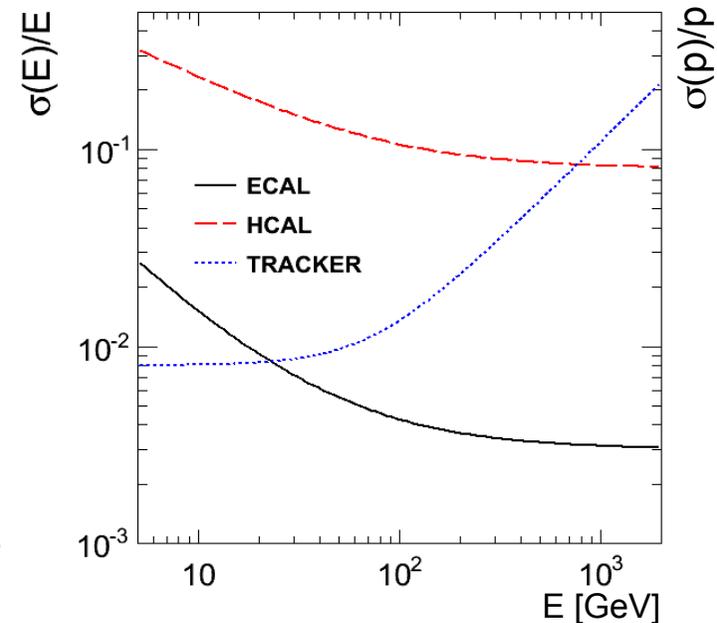
i.e. $\sigma_E/E = 1\% @ 100 \text{ GeV}$

Gas detector: $\frac{\sigma_p}{p} \sim p$

e.g. ATLAS:

$$\frac{\sigma_p}{p} \approx 5 \cdot 10^{-4} \cdot p_t$$

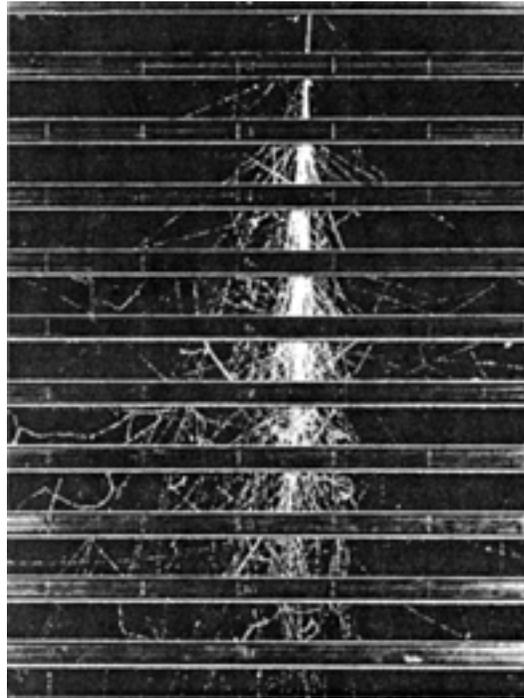
i.e. $\sigma_p/p = 5\% @ 100 \text{ GeV}$



- Obtain information *fast* (<100ns feasible) recognise and select interesting events in real time (*trigger*)

Signal generation

1. A particle deposits its **full energy** in the calorimeter media
2. The energy is converted into a **measurable signal**



Signal generation

1. A particle deposits its **full energy** in the calorimeter media

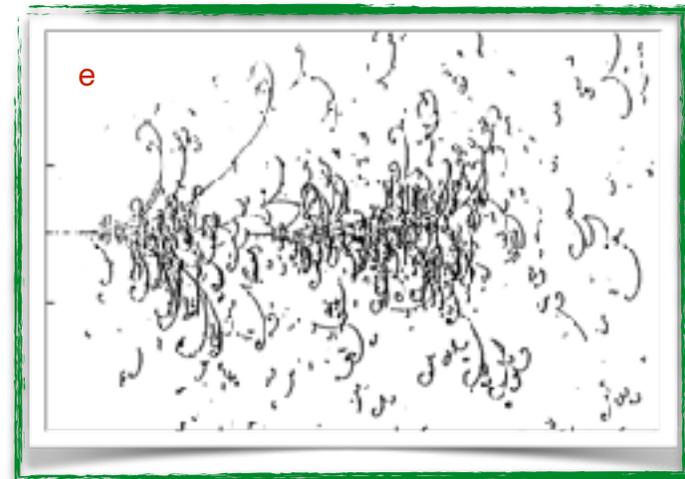
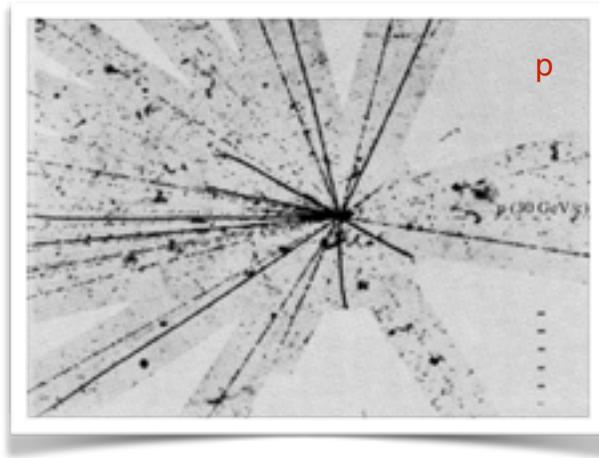


Interaction of particles & matter:

Processes are particle & energy dependent

It depends on the kind of material the calorimeter is made of

Analytical description exists for electromagnetic (EM) processes but **not** for hadronic (HAD) processes



Electromagnetic Showers

Dominant processes at high energies ($E > \text{few MeV}$) :

Photons : Pair production

Electrons : Bremsstrahlung

$$\sigma_{\text{pair}} \approx \frac{7}{9} \left(4\alpha r_e^2 Z^2 \ln \frac{183}{Z^{1/3}} \right)$$

$$= \frac{7}{9} \frac{A}{N_A X_0} \quad \begin{array}{l} [X_0: \text{radiation length}] \\ [\text{in cm or g/cm}^2] \end{array}$$

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = 4\alpha N_A \frac{Z^2}{A} r_e^2 \cdot E \ln \frac{183}{Z^{1/3}} = \frac{E}{X_0}$$

$$\rightarrow E = E_0 e^{-x/X_0}$$

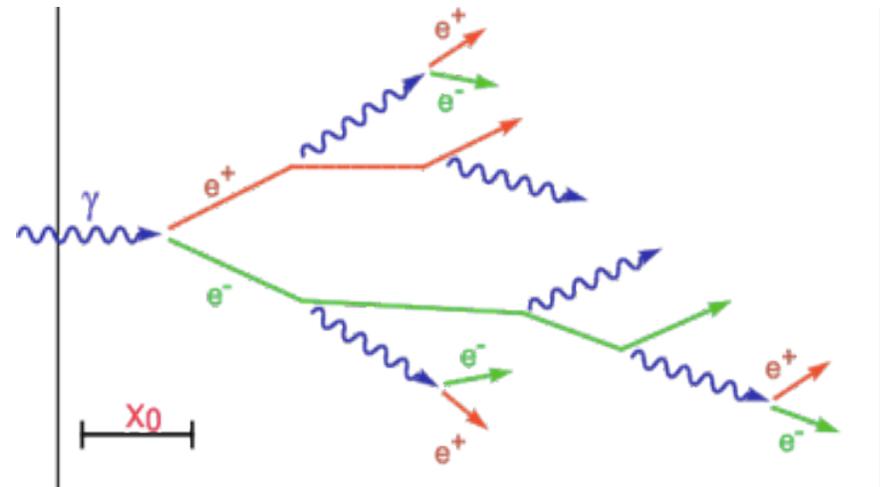
Absorption coefficient:

After passage of one X_0 electron has only $(1/e)^{\text{th}}$ of its primary energy ...
[i.e. 37%]

$$\mu = n\sigma = \rho \frac{N_A}{A} \cdot \sigma_{\text{pair}} = \frac{7}{9} \frac{\rho}{X_0}$$

$X_0 = \text{radiation length in [g/cm}^2]$

$$X_0 = \frac{A}{4\alpha N_A Z^2 r_e^2 \ln \frac{183}{Z^{1/3}}}$$



Electromagnetic Showers

An alternating sequence of interactions leads to a cascade

Simplified shower model [Heitler]

$E > E_c$: shower development governed by X_0

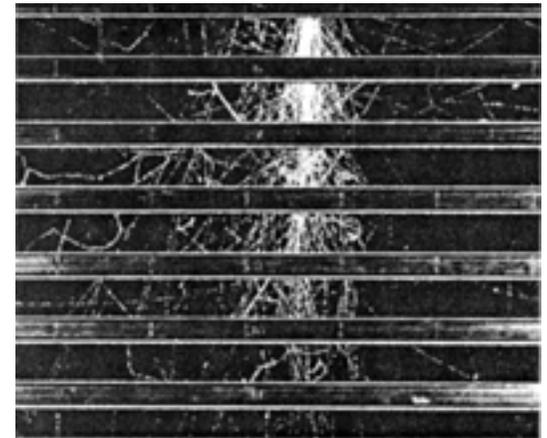
e^- loses energy via Bremsstrahlung

γ pair production with mean free path $9/7 X_0$

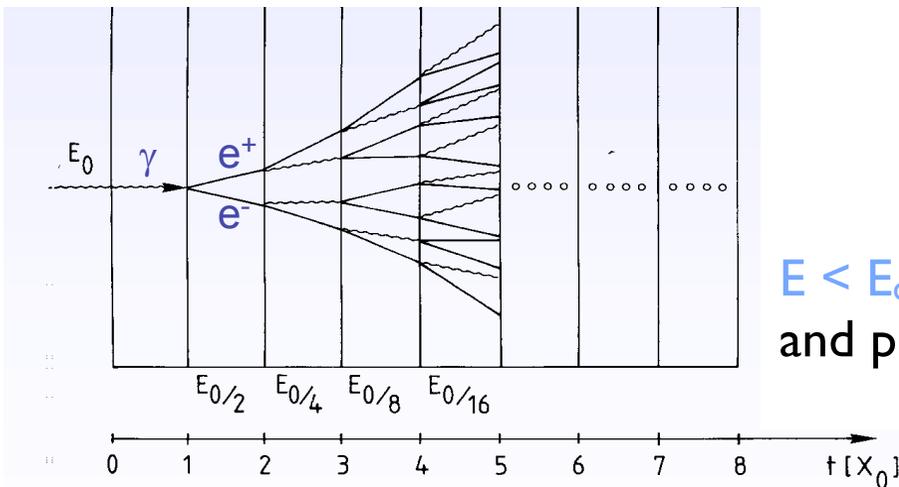
Number of particles doubles every X_0 of material,
till the particles energy reaches E_c



Cloud chamber photo of electromagnetic cascade between spaced lead plates.



Pic: MIT cosmic ray group



$$N_{\max} = 2^{t_{\max}} = \frac{E_0}{E_c}$$

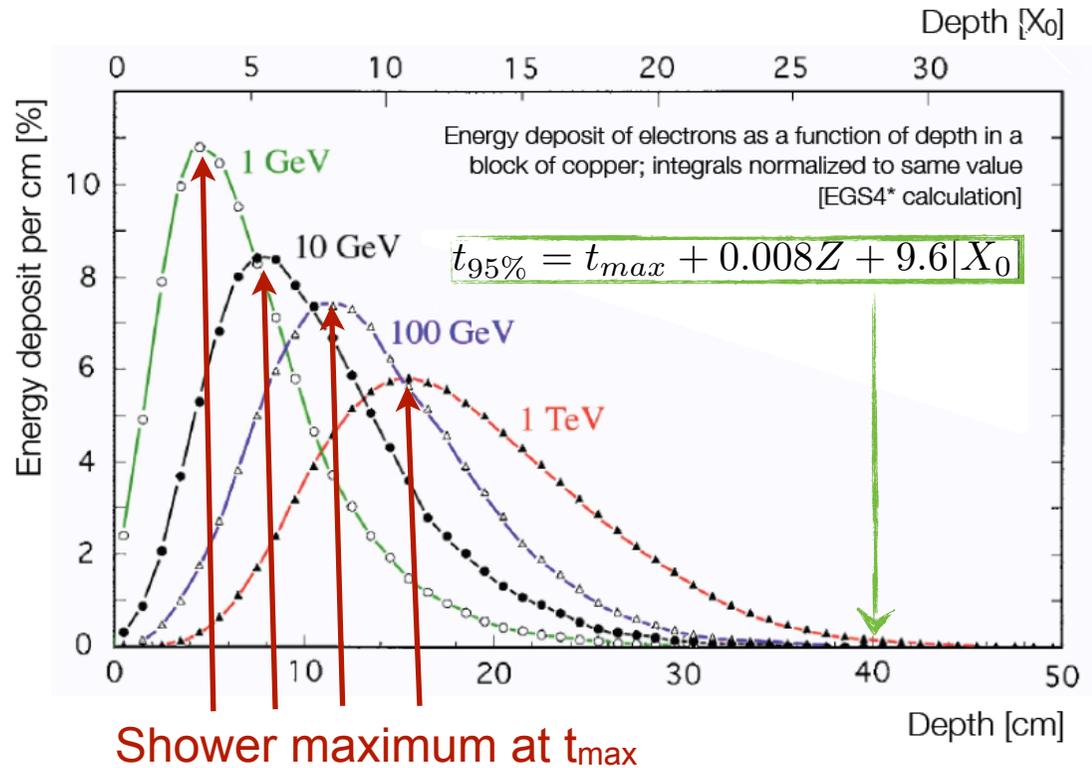
$E < E_c$: energy loss **only** via ionization/excitation and photo-absorption

EM Shower Properties

- Shower continues until energy of particles below critical energy

$$t_{max} = \frac{\ln \frac{E_0}{E_c}}{\ln 2} \quad N_{max} \simeq \frac{E_0}{E_c}$$

Key feature in calorimetry:
 Shower increases longitudinally with the **logarithm** of the incident particle energy
 → Calorimeters can be compact



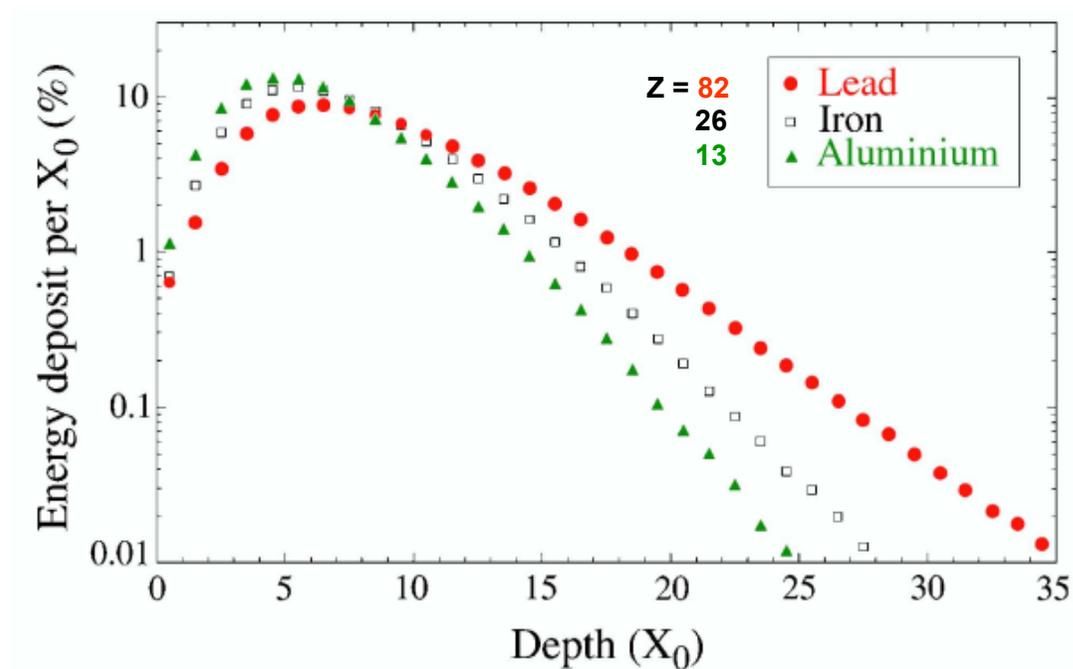
Some numbers: $E_c \approx 10 \text{ MeV}$, $E_0 = 1 \text{ GeV}$ → $t_{max} = \ln 100 \approx 4.5$; $N_{max} = 100$ $t_{95\%} \sim 10 X_0$
 $E_0 = 100 \text{ GeV}$ → $t_{max} = \ln 10000 \approx 9.2$; $N_{max} = 10000$ $t_{95\%} \sim 20 X_0$

	Szint.	LAr	Fe	Pb	W
$X_0(\text{cm})$	34	14	1.76	0.56	0.35

→ 100 GeV electron contained in 16 cm Fe or 5 cm Pb

EM shower - a more complex reality

- Shower maximum depends slightly on material
- After maximum the shower decays via ionization and Compton scattering
- The process is slower for high-Z materials NOT proportional to X_0



EM Shower Properties

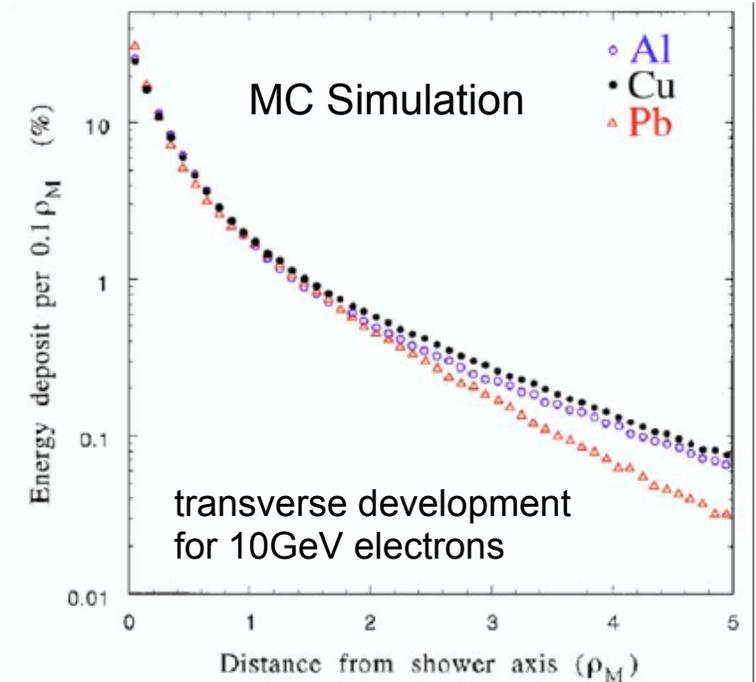
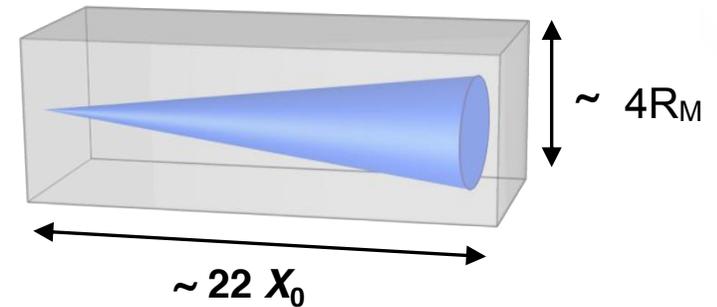
- Longitudinal development governed by the radiation length X_0
- **Lateral spread** due to electron undergoing multiple Coulomb scattering [Molière theory]: 95% of the shower cone is located in a cylinder with radius $2 R_M$

$$R_M = \frac{E_s}{E_c} X_0 \approx \frac{21 \text{ MeV}}{E_c} X_0$$

$$E_s = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{\alpha}} (m_e c^2) = 21.2 \text{ MeV}$$

[Scale Energy]

- Lateral width scales with the **Molière radius** R_M
- Important parameter for shower separation



Example

electron with $E_0 = 100 \text{ GeV}$
in lead glass $E_c = 11.8 \text{ MeV}$
 $X_0 \approx 2 \text{ cm}$

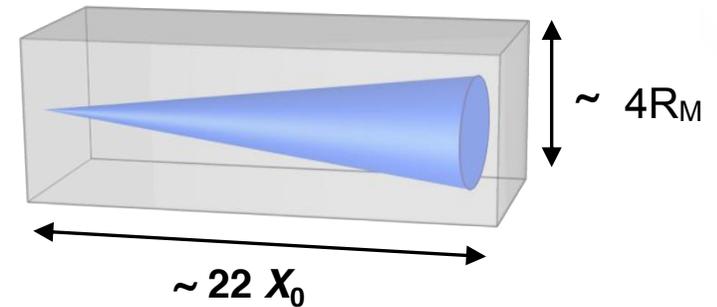
$$t_{max} = \frac{\ln \frac{E_0}{E_c}}{\ln 2}$$

$$t_{95\%} = t_{max} + 0.008Z + 9.6[X_0]$$

$$N_{max} = 2^{t_{max}} = \frac{E_0}{E_c}$$

$$R_M = \frac{E_s}{E_c} X_0 \approx \frac{21 \text{ MeV}}{E_c} X_0$$

$$R(95\%) = 2 R_M$$



$$\sim 13 X_0 = 26 \text{ cm}$$

$$\sim 23 X_0 = 46 \text{ cm}$$

$$\sim 8000$$

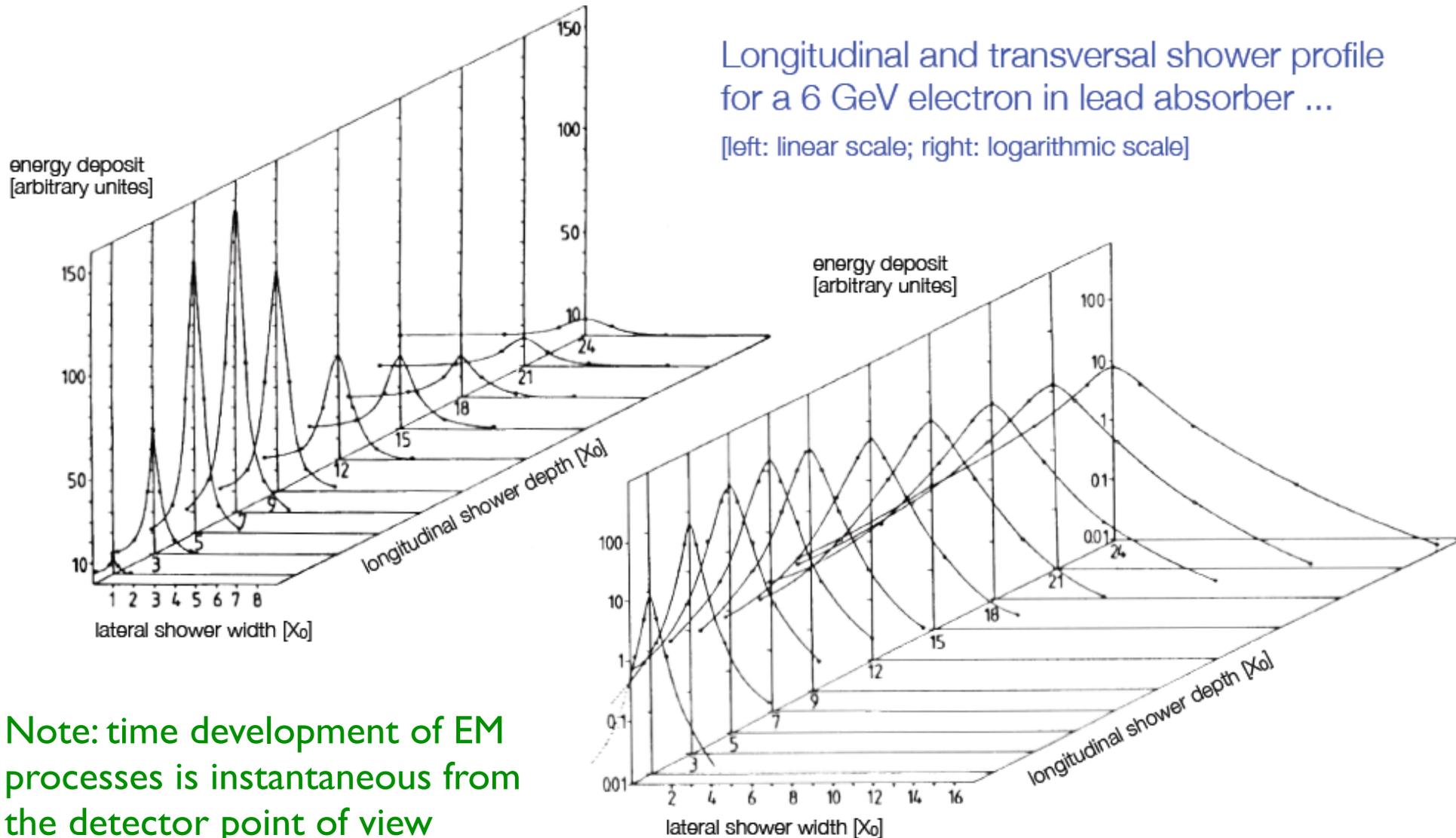
$$\sim 3.6 \text{ cm}$$

$$\sim 7.2 \text{ cm}$$

3D development of EM showers

Longitudinal and transversal shower profile for a 6 GeV electron in lead absorber ...

[left: linear scale; right: logarithmic scale]



Note: time development of EM processes is instantaneous from the detector point of view

Signal generation

1. A particle deposits its **full energy** in the calorimeter media
2. The energy is converted into a **measurable signal** (charge / light / sound / heat)



- The most used materials:
 - gases / semiconductors / scintillators
- ... but also:
 - Cherenkov radiators / water - ice / antennas / metals or liquids ...

Principle of energy conversion

- | | COST: |
|---|-------------------------|
| ● semiconductors: dE/dx or photo-absorption
+ drift of e-h | eV per e-hole pair |
| ● gases: dE/dx or photo-absorption
+ charge diffusion | 20-40 eV per e-ion pair |
| ● scintillators: dE/dx or photo-absorption
+ light emission | 400-1000 eV per photon |



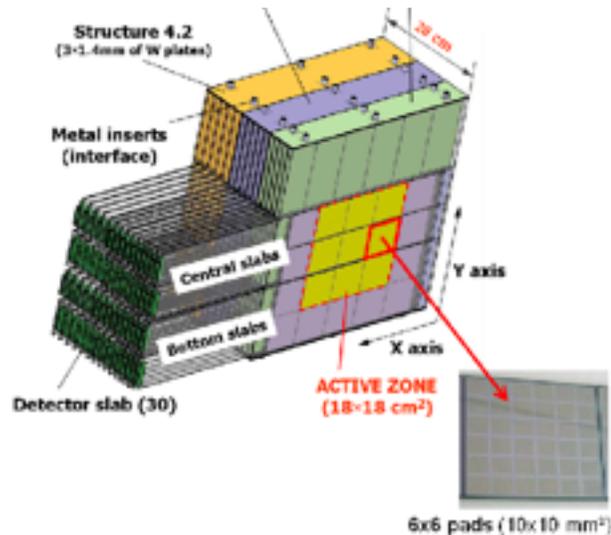
generated charges or photons yield the measurable signal:
statistical process = the more the better !

Historically

- **semiconductors** & **gas** mainly used in tracker detectors
→ p measurement (+ dE/dx)
- **scintillators** (organic/inorganic) mainly used in calorimeters
→ E measurement
- ... but exceptions exist

as detector developer be open minded and daring !

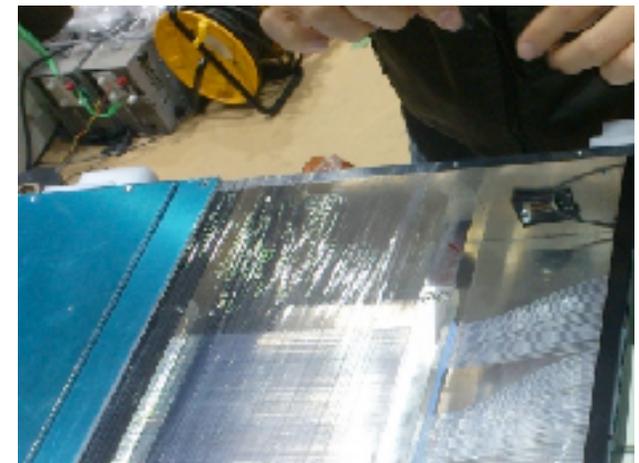
Silicon - ECAL



Gas readout for HCAL



Fiber tracker

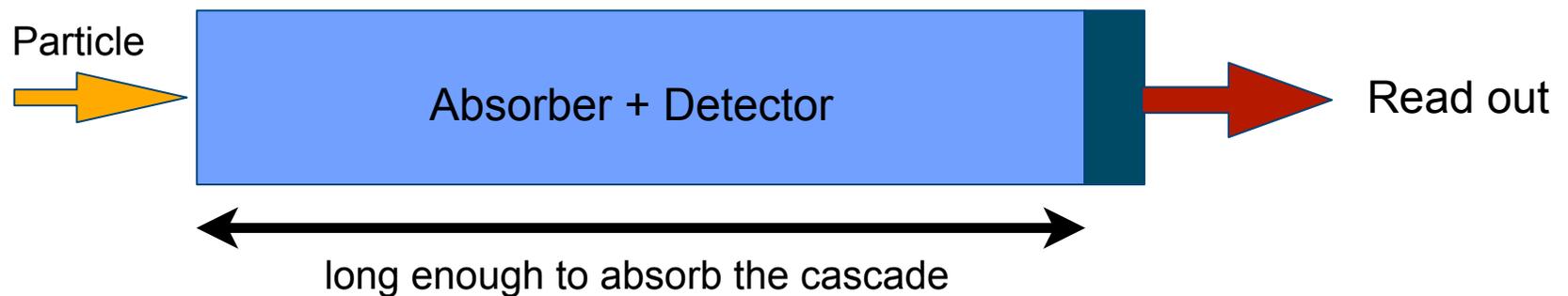


Calorimeter Types

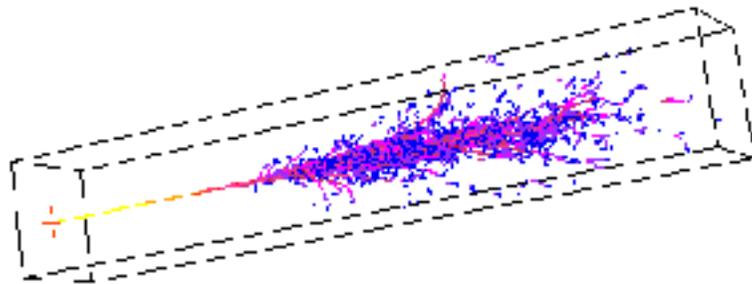
- Most commonly used: Homogeneous and Sampling Calorimeter

Homogeneous Calorimeter

- The absorber material is active; all deposited energy is converted into signal
- **Pro:** very good energy resolution
- **Contra:** segmentation difficult, selection of material is limited, expensive



Pic: Cornell

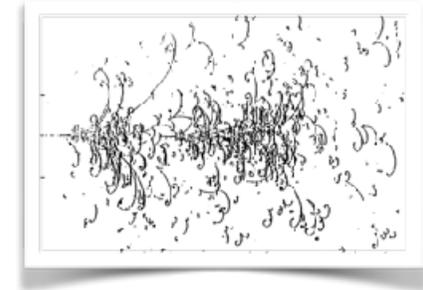


Example: CMS electromagnetic calorimeter

design not suitable for hadronic calorimeters

Calorimeter Types

- Most commonly used: Homogeneous and Sampling Calorimeter



Homogeneous Calorimeter

Pro: very good energy resolution - **why ?**

- Detectable signal is proportional to the total track length of e⁺ and e⁻ in the active material
- **Intrinsic limit** on $\sigma(E)/E$ due to **fluctuations** in the fraction (f_s) of initial energy that generates detectable signal, or the detectable portion of track

$$\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} \propto \frac{\sigma(T_r)}{T_r} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{T_r}}$$

$$T_r = f_s T_0$$

$$T_0 = N_{tot} X_0 \approx \frac{E_0}{E_c} X_0$$

E_c = critical energy (ionization = Bremsstrahlung)

$$\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{f_s}} \sqrt{\frac{E_c}{X_0}} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{f_s}} \sqrt{\frac{Z}{A}}$$

- minimize Z/A

- maximize f_s

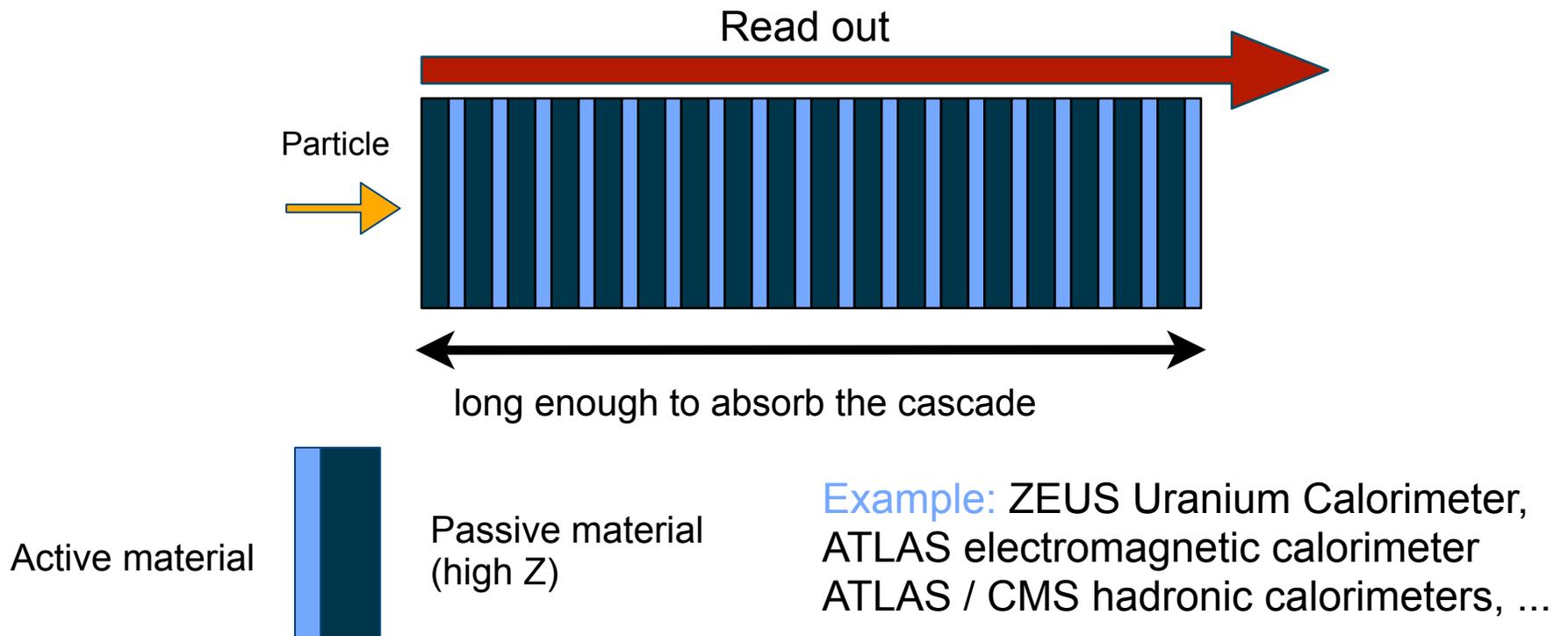
$$f_s = \frac{E_0 - N_{max} E_{th}}{E_0}$$

- Homogeneous calorimeter **all e⁺e⁻ over threshold produce signal**
i.e. scintillating crystals $E_s \sim eV$, $10^2 - 10^4 \gamma/MeV \rightarrow \sigma(E)/E \sim 1-3\% / \sqrt{E}$

Calorimeter Types

Sampling Calorimeter

- A structure of passive and active material; a fraction (**Sampling Fraction, f_s**) of the deposited energy is detected (1-5%)
- **Pro:** Segmentation, compact detectors by the usage of dense materials (W, U)
- **Contra:** Energy resolution is limited by fluctuations



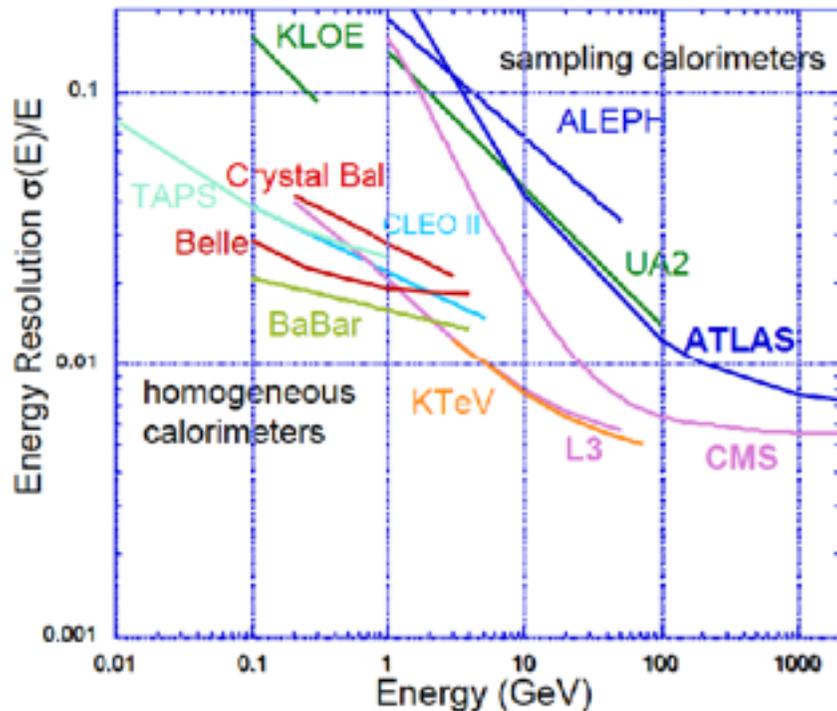
Calorimeter Types

Sampling Calorimeter

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$$\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} \propto \frac{\sigma(T_r)}{T_r} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{T_r}}$$

$$T_r = f_s T_0 = f_s N_{\text{tot}} X_0^{\text{abs}} \approx f_s \frac{E}{E_C^{\text{abs}}} X_0^{\text{abs}}$$



Resolution scales with absorber thickness

$$t_{\text{abs}} = d/X_0$$

$$\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_r}} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{f_s}} \sqrt{\frac{E_C t_{\text{abs}}}{E}}$$

$$\sigma(E)/E \sim 10\text{-}20\% / \sqrt{E}$$

→ Each system optimised to the energy range & physics of interest for the experiment

Energy resolution

- The **energy resolution** is parametrized as:

$$\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{E}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{b}{E}\right)^2 + c^2}$$

or

$$\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus \frac{b}{E} \oplus c$$

- Stochastic term **a**

- $E \propto N \rightarrow \sigma \propto 1/\sqrt{N}$: all statistical effects contribute

i.e. intrinsic and sampling fluctuations, photoelectron statistics

- Noise term **b** (energy independent term)

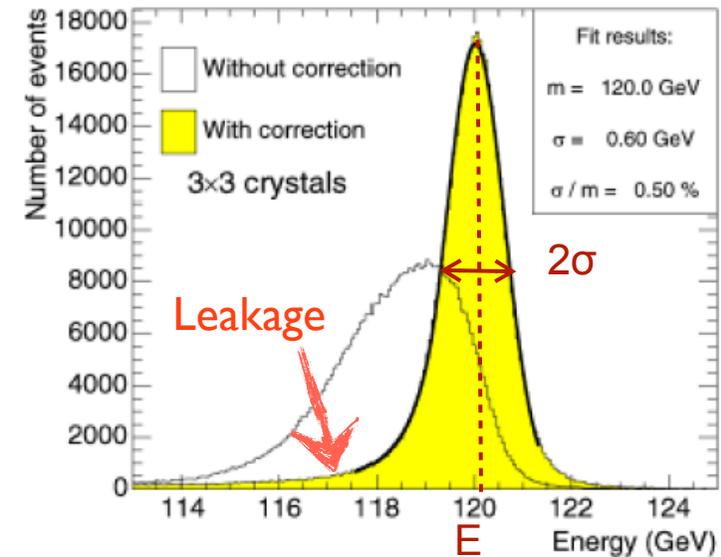
relevant at low E

- Electronic noise, radioactivity

- Constant term **c** (linearly dependent of energy)

dominates at high E

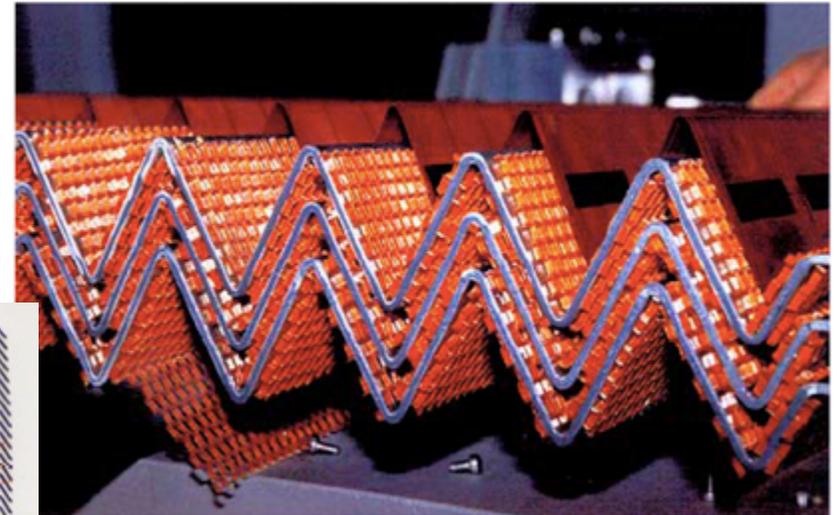
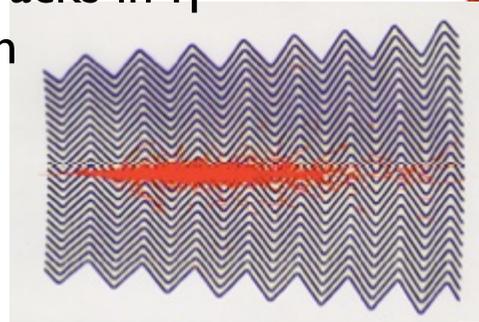
- inhomogeneities, calibration uncertainties, radiation damage, (leakage), ...



Examples of electromagnetic calorimeters

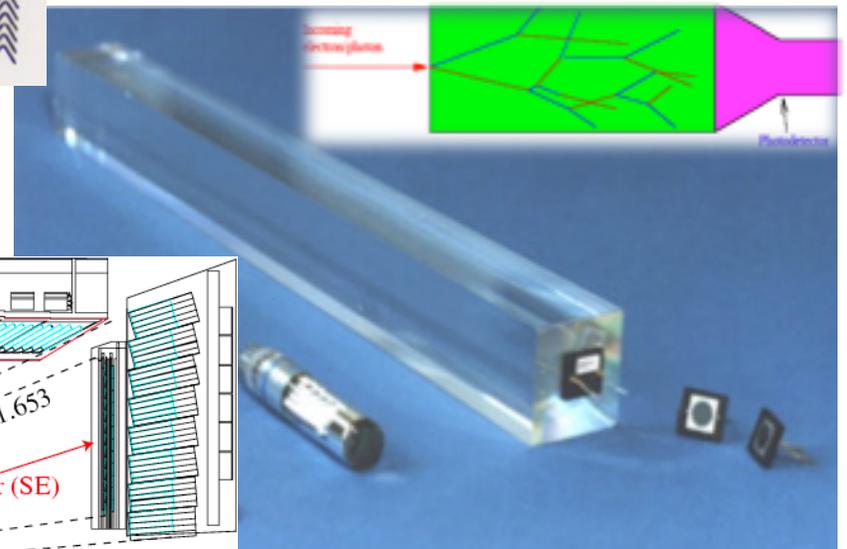
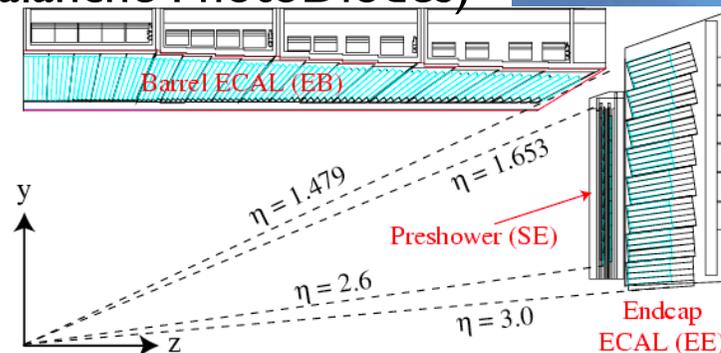
ATLAS EM barrel calorimeter

- Honeycomb spacers position the electrodes between the lead absorber plates
- Liquid Argon at 90°K flows through.
- Radiation resistant, no cracks in η
- Accordion structure with Pb-LAr sampling

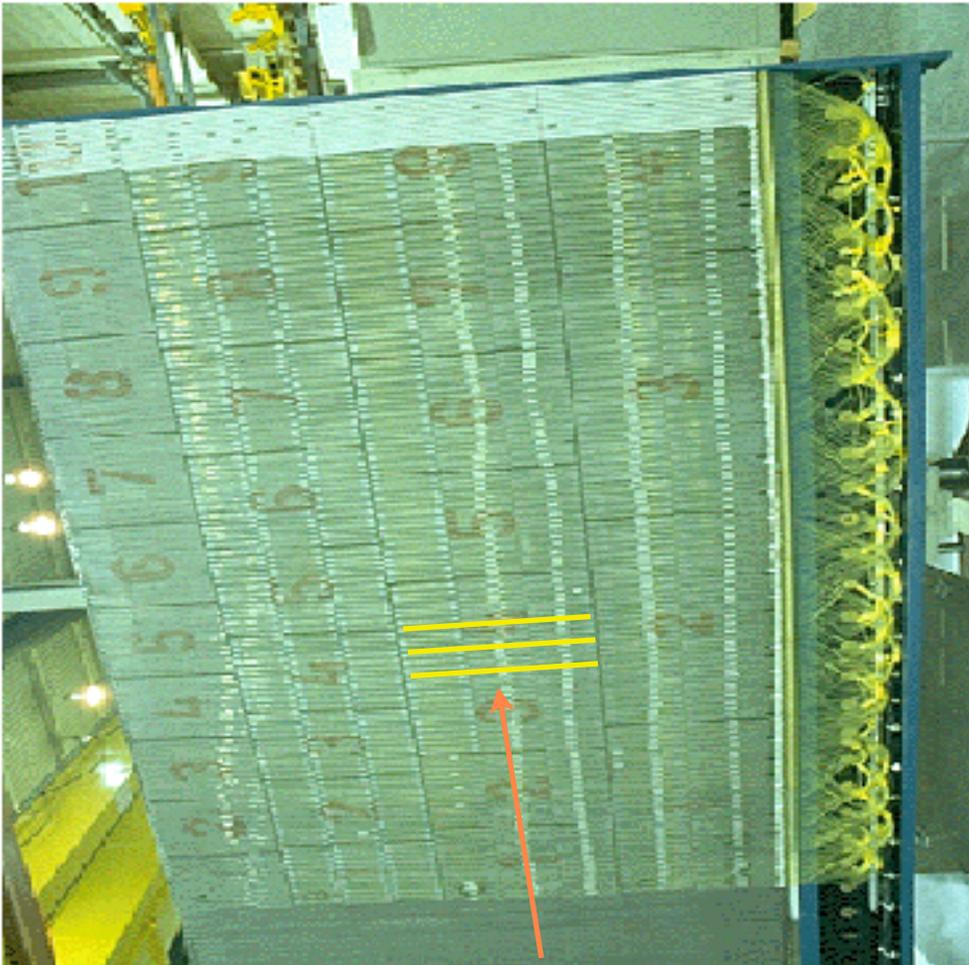


CMS EM barrel calorimeter

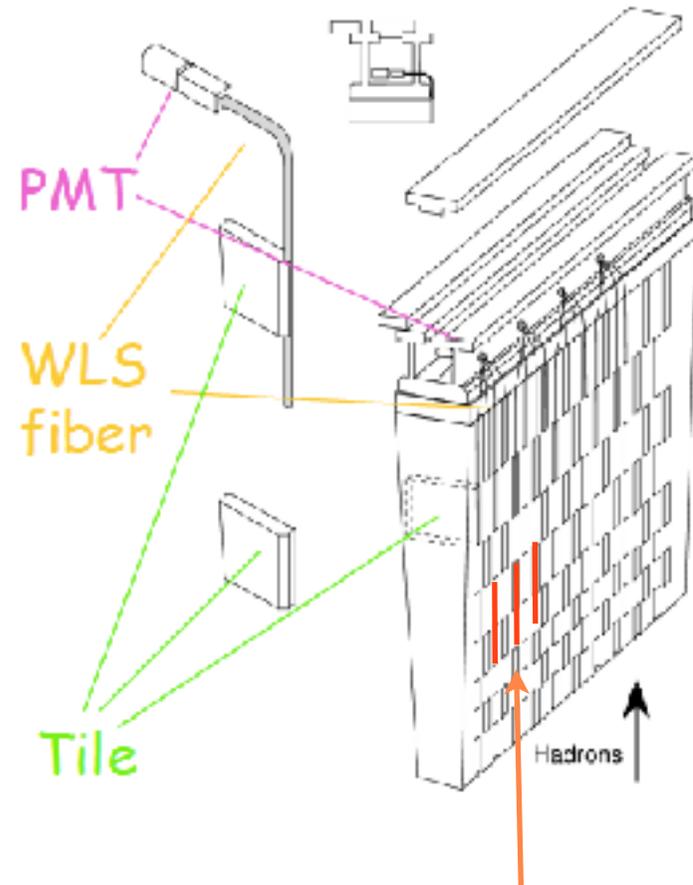
- PbWO₄ crystals (230x22x22 mm³)
- Read out by APD (Avalanche PhotoDiodes)
- Homogeneous



Examples of hadronic calorimeters



CMS: Brass/scintillator
longitudinal orientation

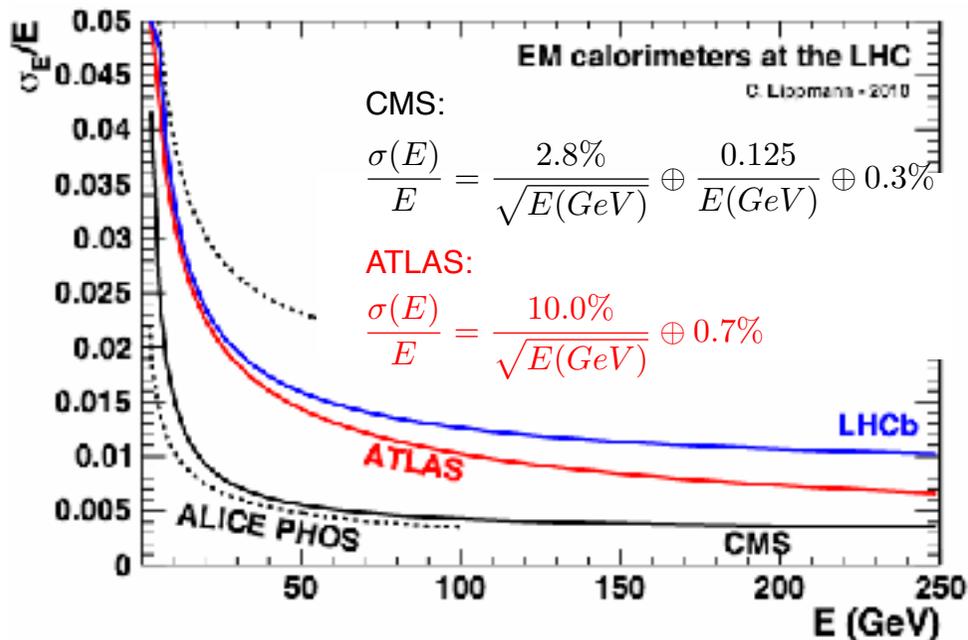


ATLAS: Fe/scintillator
vertical orientation

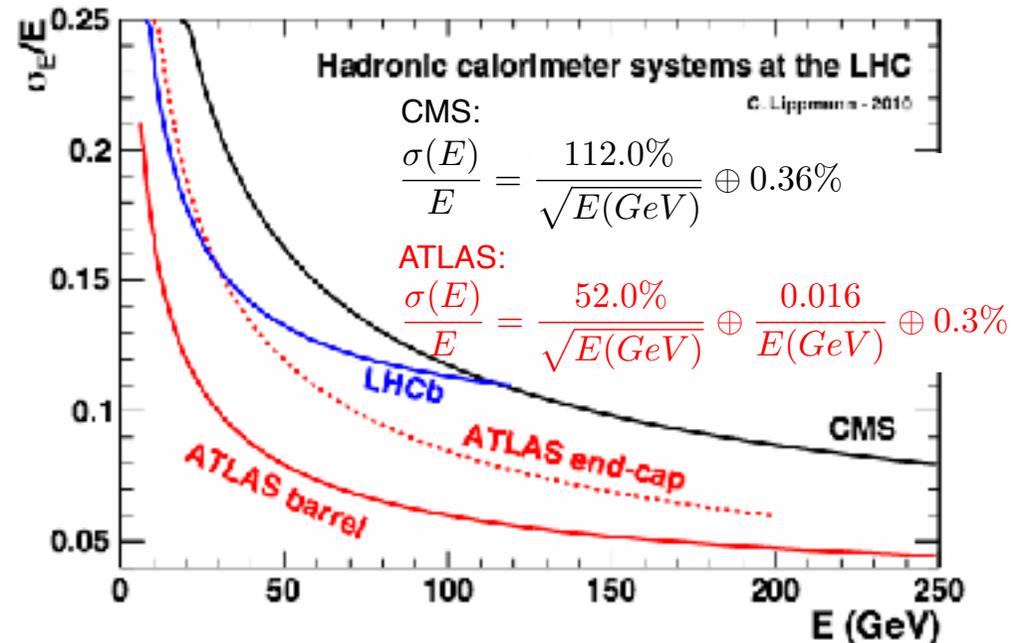
Resolution comparison

Reported energy resolutions for single particles from test beam measurements:

electrons



pions



Material upstream the calorimeter degrades E resolution performance:
 loss of energy in tracker / support structure / cables / cooling / readout electronics

Why are hadronic calorimeters worse than EM ones?

Signal generation

1. A particle deposits its **full energy** in the calorimeter media

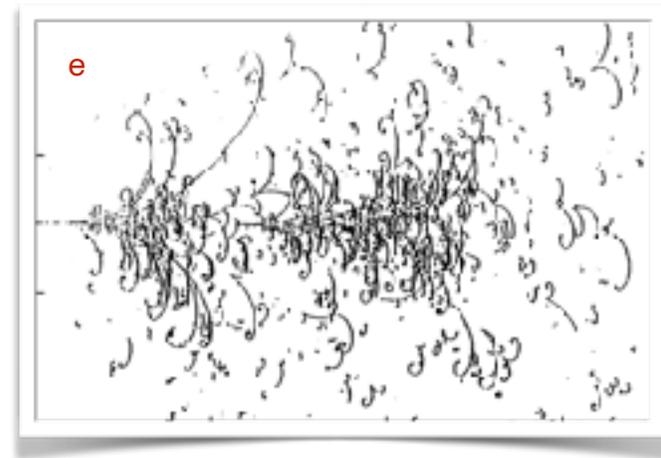
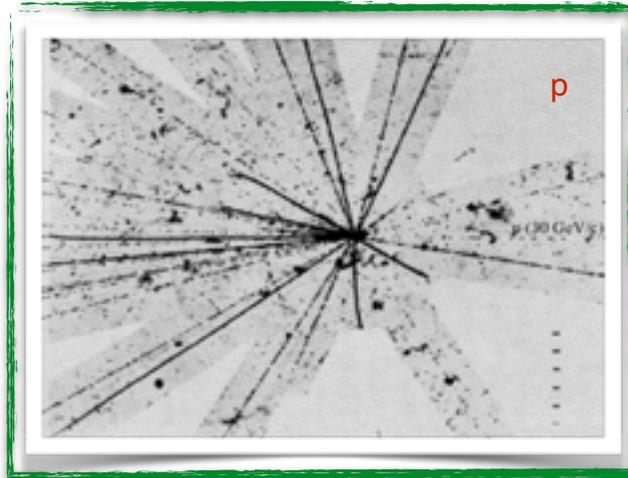


Interaction of particles & matter:

Processes are particle & energy dependent

It depends on the kind of material the calorimeter is made of

Analytical description exists for electromagnetic (EM) processes but **not** for hadronic (HAD) processes



Hadronic shower

Extra complication: **The strong interaction** with detector material.

Produced in nuclear collisions:

high energetic secondary hadrons [O(GeV)]

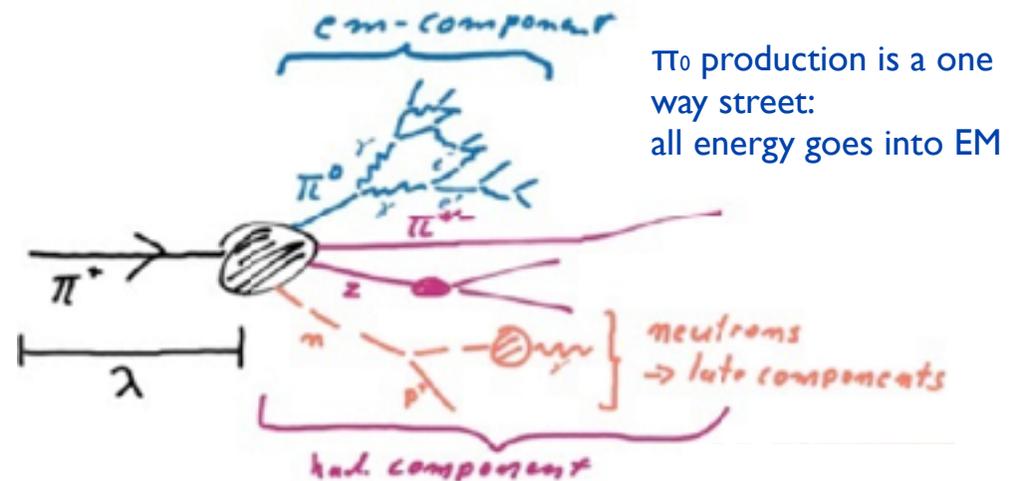
electromagnetically decaying particles (π_0, η) initiate EM showers

spallation p/n and nuclear excitation from soft nuclear processes [O(MeV)]

part of the energy is **invisible**: binding energy of nuclei, ν , μ , soft γ 's

Different scale: hadronic interaction length $\lambda_l = \frac{A}{N_A \sigma_{total}}$ σ_{tot} = total cross section for nuclear processes

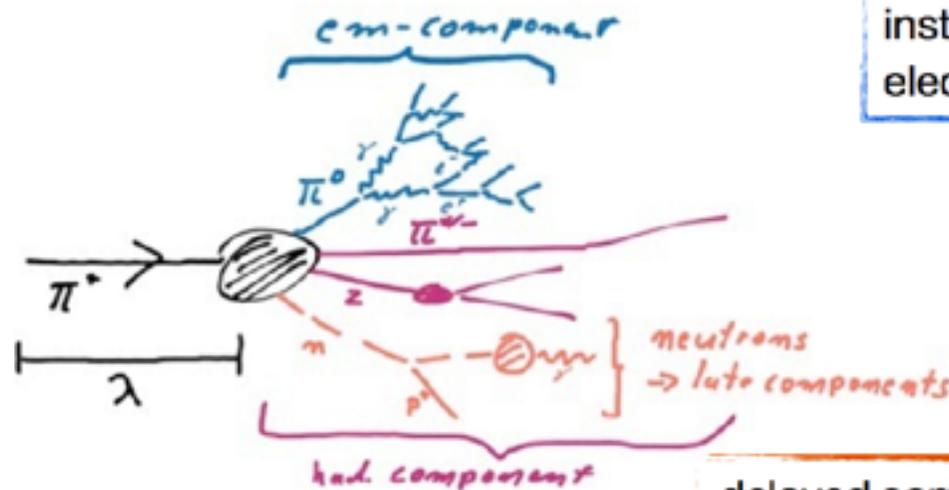
	λ_l	X_0
Polystyren	81.7 cm	43.8 cm
PbWO	20.2 cm	0.9 cm
Fe	16.7 cm	1.8 cm
W	9.9 cm	0.35 cm



Compare X_0 for high-Z materials, we see that the size needed for hadron calorimeters is large compared to EM calorimeters.

The structure of hadronic showers

- hadronic showers have a complex structure also in time



instantaneous, detected via energy loss of electrons and positrons in active medium

instantaneous component: charged hadrons detected via energy loss of charged hadrons in active medium

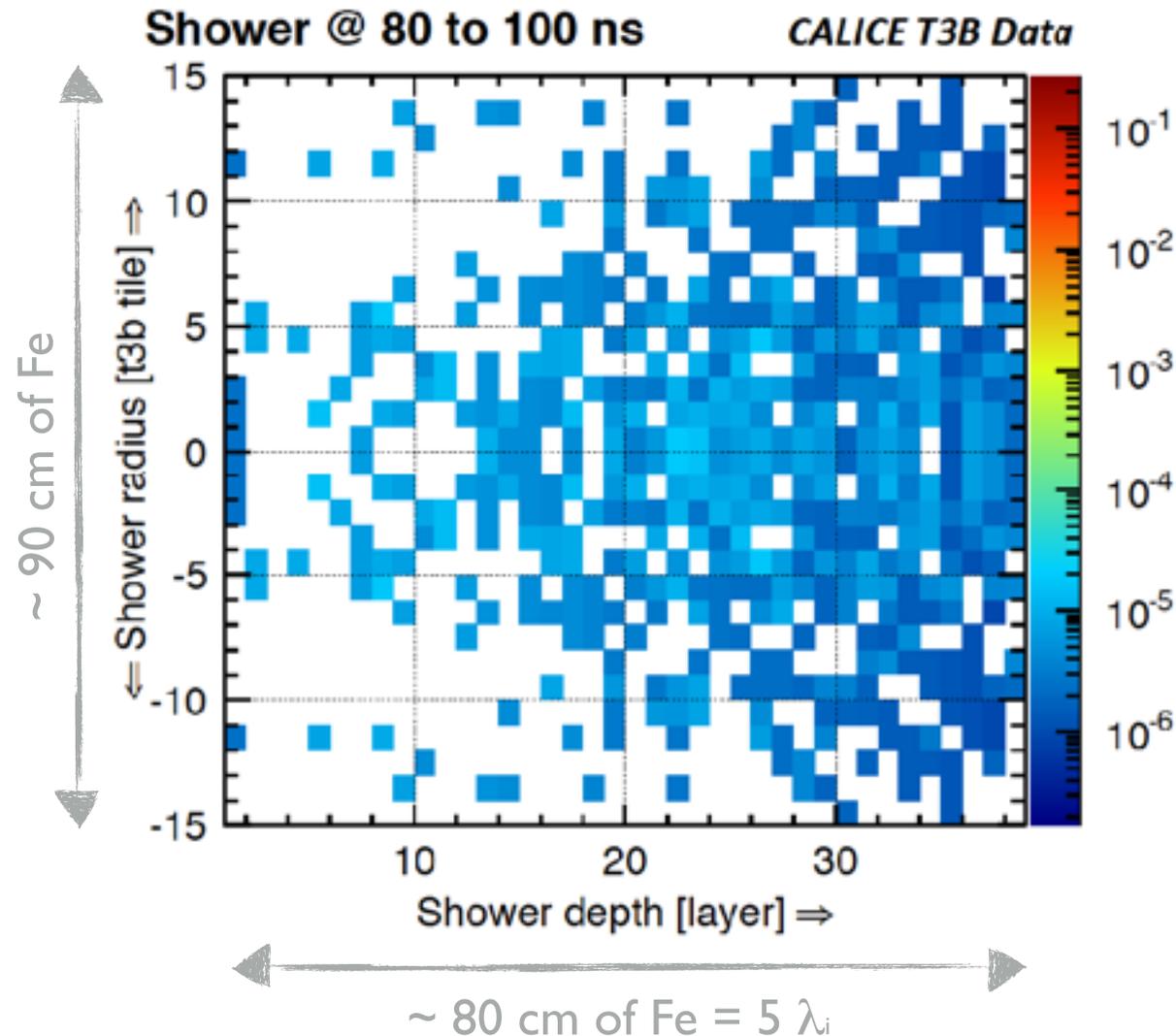
f_{EM} = fraction of primary hadron energy deposited via EM processes

delayed component:

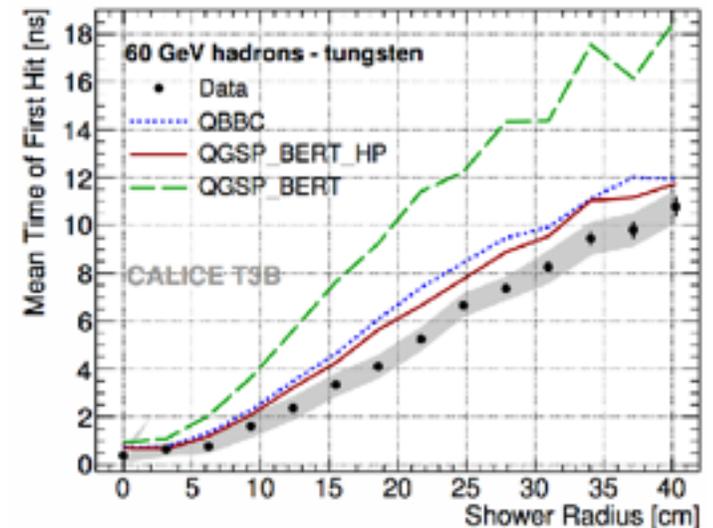
- ▶ neutrons from evaporation and spallation
- ▶ photons, neutrons, protons from nuclear de-excitation following neutron capture
- ▶ momentum transfer to protons in hydrogenous active medium from slow neutrons

- Importance of delayed component strongly depends on target nucleus
- Sensitivity to time structure depends on the choice of active medium

4D development of HAD showers



- 60 GeV pion shower in a highly segmented Fe/scint calo.
- $5 \lambda_i$ not sufficient for longitudinal containment ($\sim 11 \lambda_i$ necessary)
- Significant portion of energy deposited at $t > 25$ ns
- Not always well described in MC



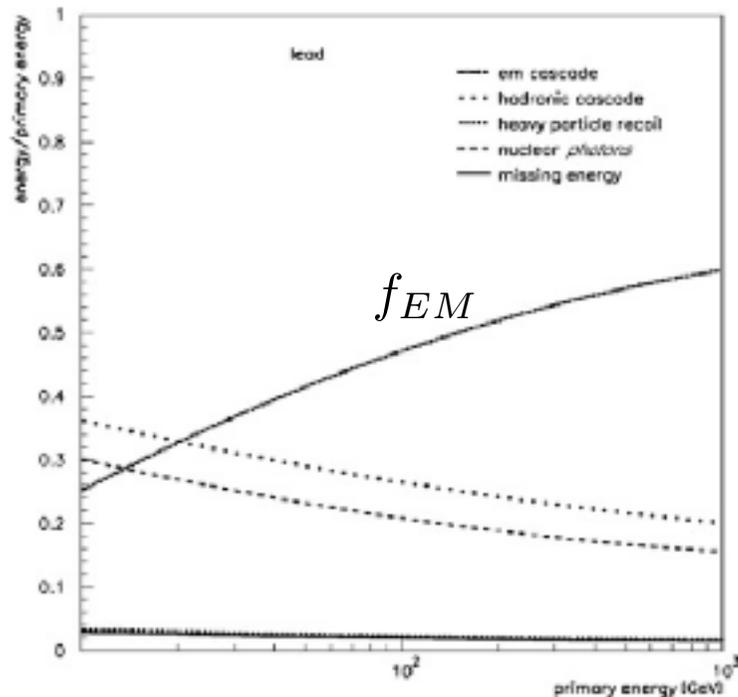
Hadronic calorimeter

The concept of compensation

- A hadron calorimeter shows in general different response to hadronic and electromagnetic shower components

$$R_h = eE_e + hE_h$$

- The fraction of the energy deposited hadronically depends on the energy



$$\frac{E_h}{E} = 1 - f_{EM} = 1 - k \ln E(\text{GeV}) \quad k \approx 0.1$$

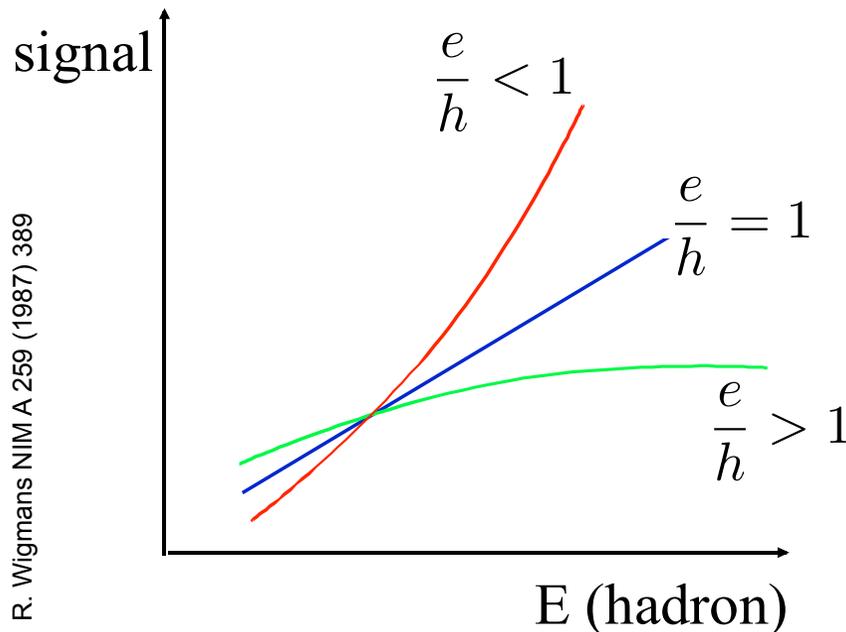
Hadronic calorimeter

The concept of compensation

- A hadron calorimeter shows in general different response to hadronic and electromagnetic shower components

$$R_h = eE_e + hE_h$$

- The fraction of the energy deposited hadronically depends on the energy



$$\frac{E_h}{E} = 1 - f_{EM} = 1 - k \ln E(\text{GeV}) \quad k \approx 0.1$$

Response of calorimeter to hadron shower becomes non-linear

Energy resolution degrades

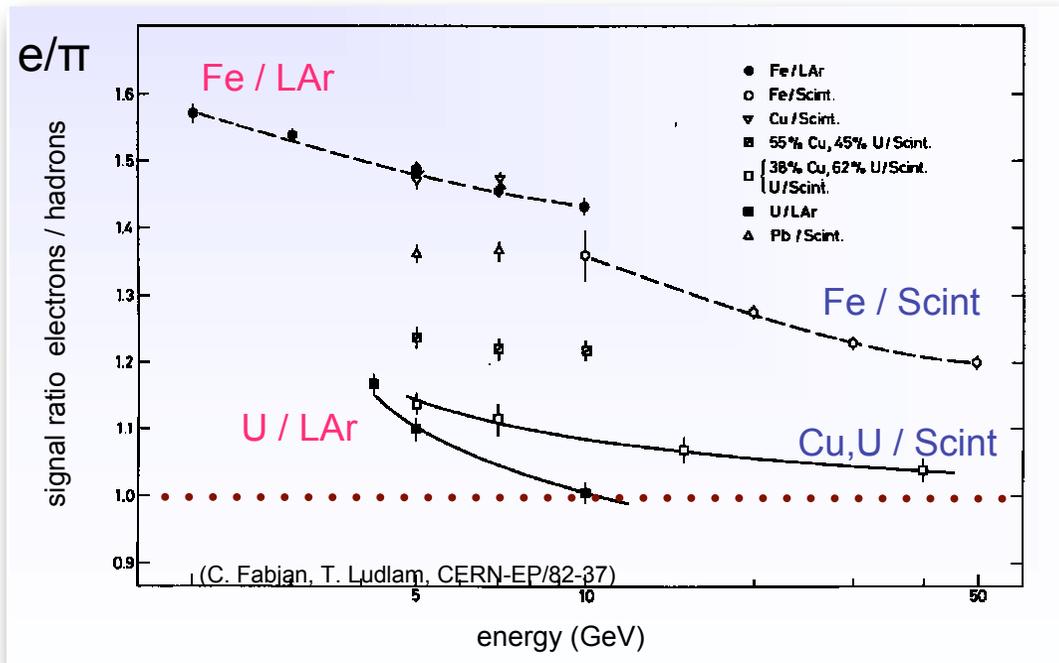
$$\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} + d \left(\frac{e}{h} - 1 \right)$$

Improved Energy Resolution: Compensation

- The detector parameter e/h is defined by geometry and material
- Typically to reach **compensation** ($e/h = 1$), the hadron signal has to be increased, by:
 - enhance sensitivity to slow neutrons, i.e. H-enriched scintillator, more $n + p \rightarrow n + p$
 - increasing of the neutron activity by use of a special absorber i.e. Uranium
 - choosing the right sampling-fraction ...

but:

careful with amount of material in front of calorimeter!



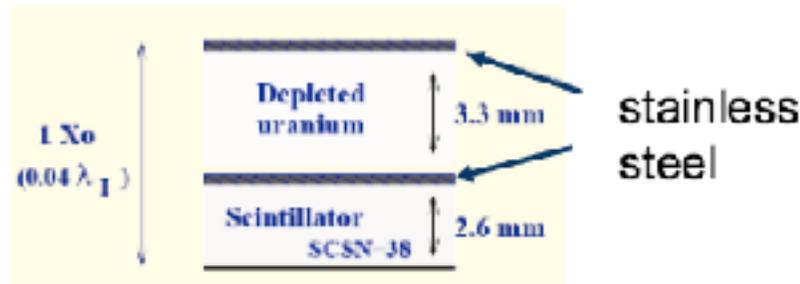
$$\frac{e}{\pi} = \frac{e}{h} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + f_{em}(e/h-1)}$$

Compensating calorimeters - The ZEUS example

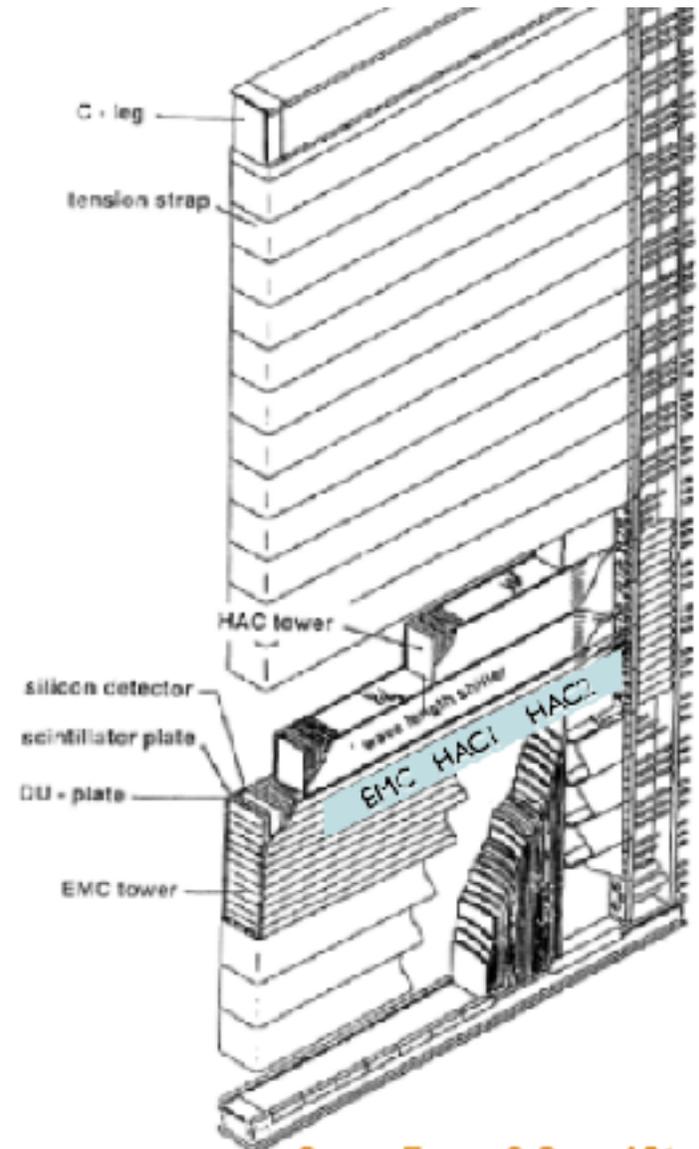
Highly-segmented, uranium scintillator sandwich calorimeter r/o by 12,000 photomultiplier tubes:

- compensation
- high Z material = compact size
- natural radioactivity provides means of calibration

Layers:



proper choice of active and passive thicknesses gives compensation ($e/h = 1.0$)



3m x 5m x 0.2m, 12tons
total of 80 modules

Compensating calorimeters - The ZEUS example

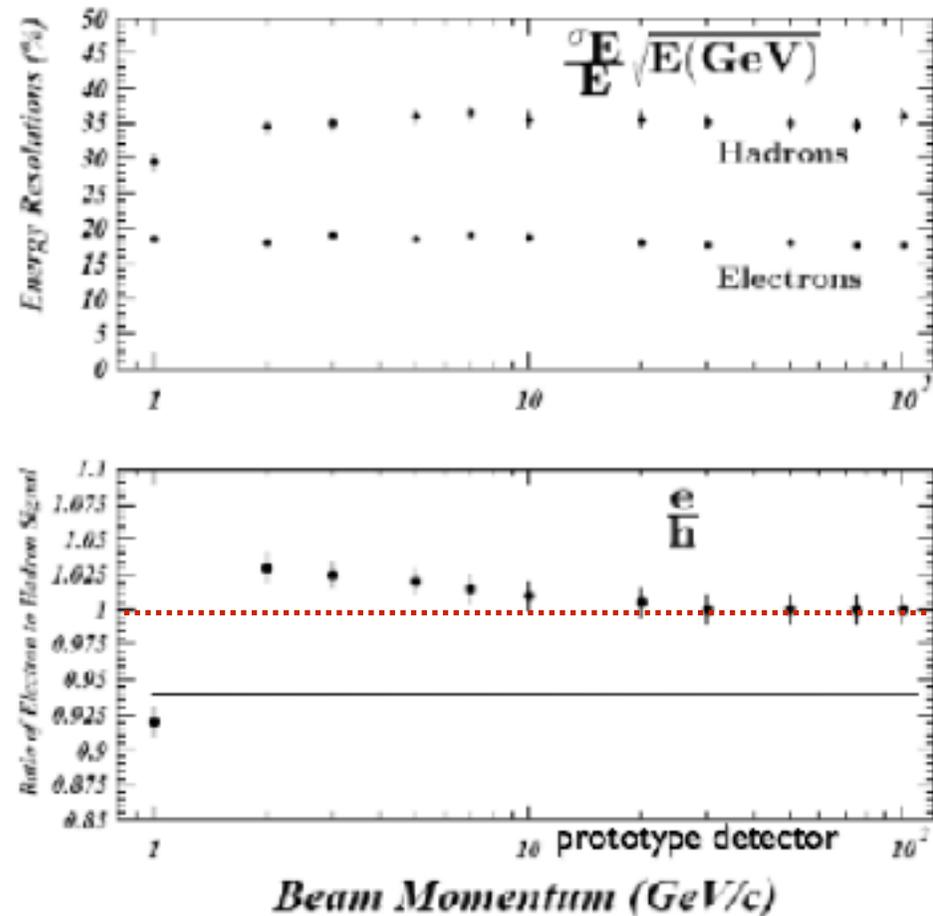
Highly-segmented, uranium scintillator sandwich calorimeter r/o by 12,000 photomultiplier tubes

Electrons: $\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} = \frac{18\%}{\sqrt{E(\text{GeV})}}$

Hadrons: $\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} = \frac{35\%}{\sqrt{E(\text{GeV})}}$

Best hadronic resolution ever !!

proper choice of active and passive thickness gives compensation (e/h = 1.0)



Summary

Calorimeters serve to measure the energy of **charged** and **neutral** particles

Electromagnetic Calorimeters

- to measure electrons and photons through their EM interactions.

Hadron Calorimeters

- to measure hadrons through their **strong and EM** interactions.

Two types of calorimeters classified into:

Homogeneous Calorimeters

- only one material for two tasks, energy degradation and signal generation.

Sampling Calorimeters

- alternating layers of absorber material to degrade the energy of the incident particle, and active material that provides the detectable signal.

Energy resolution

- dominated by fluctuations