CALORIMETRY

A critical analysis from past to future techniques

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A critical analysis from past to future techniques in calorimetry

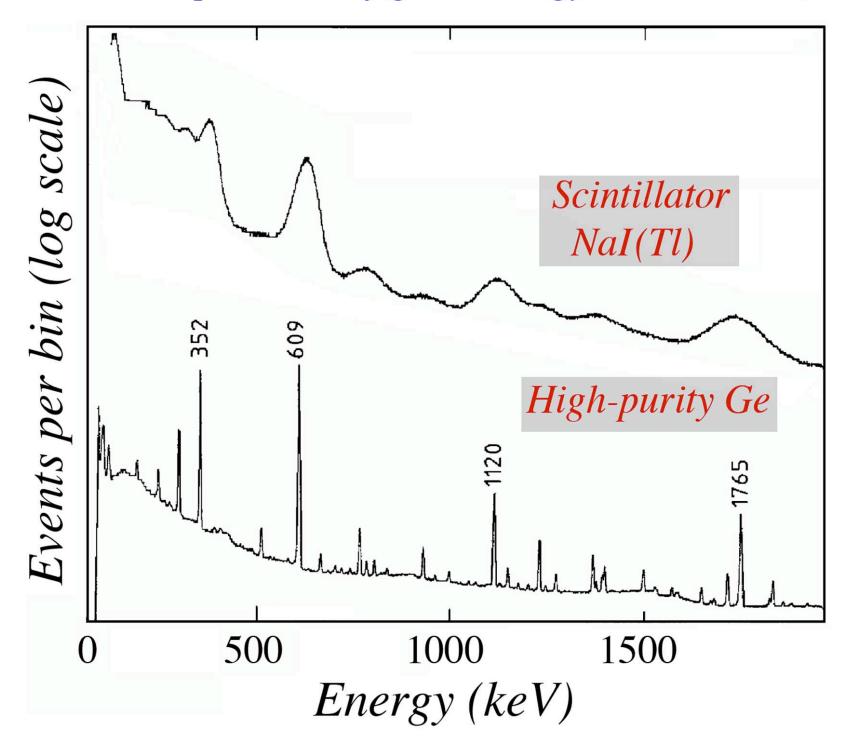
Outline:

- A brief history
- Failing Monte Carlos
- Calibration misery
- The future: A dream or a nightmare?
- Conclusions

A brief history of calorimetry (used as a particle detection technique)

- In the 1960s, particle physics started to make the transition from the bubble chamber era to experiments based on electronic counters
- For the detction of the neutral reaction products (overwhelmingly γ s from π° decay), one used scintillating crystals, developed in the 1950s for nuclear spectroscopy, and called these "shower counters"
- Using properly chosen materials (high Z!), even very-high-energy γs can be fully absorbed in detectors of limited length (<30 cm), and be measured with spectacularly good energy resolution

The importance of good energy resolution (1)



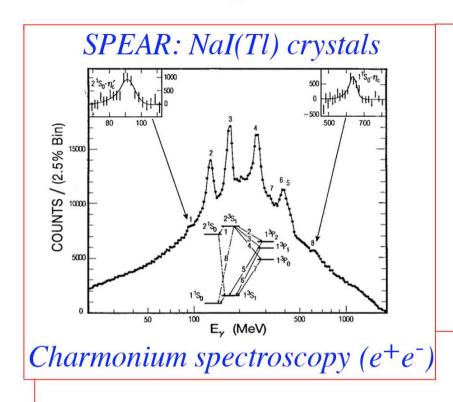
A brief history of calorimetry (2)

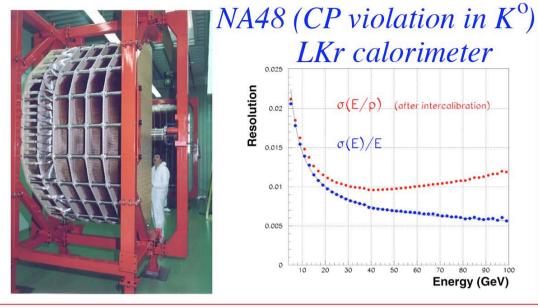
- To save money, large calorimeters were built as sampling devices (functions of absorption and signal generation carried out by different materials).
- For active material, one originally used plastic scintillator plates or wire chambers. Later, liquid argon or krypton, scintillating fibers and semiconductor pads were introduced as active material Typically, lead was used as absorber material (short radiation length)
- Some of these devices also achieved sub-1% energy resolutions for e,γ Examples: NA48 (Pb-LKr), KLOE (Pb-fibers)
- Other particles also generated signals in these calorimeters.

 However, the energy resolution was considerably worse

 Even at the highest energies, resolutions better than 10% were hard to achieve. Worse, the detectors were non-linear, and the response also depended on the type of particle (pion, proton)

Electromagnetic shower detection in Particle Physics

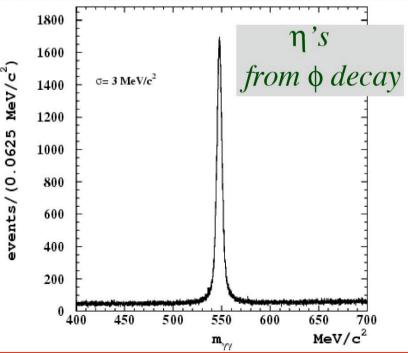




KLOE @
DAPHNE
(\$\phi factory)

Pb-scifi calorimeter

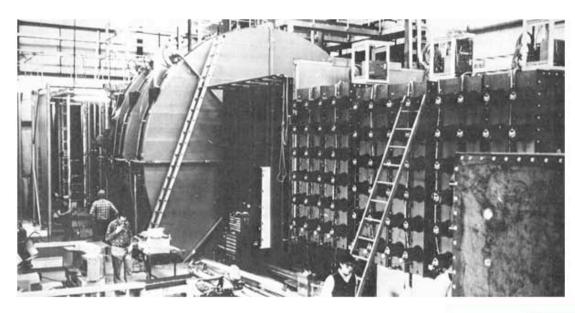




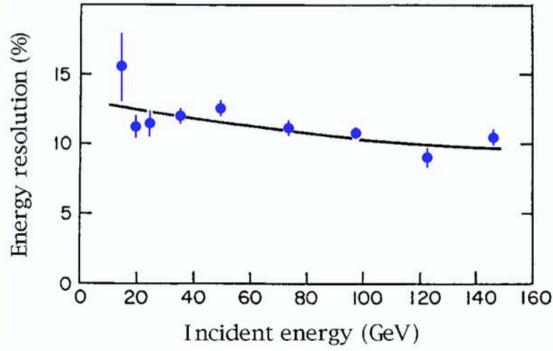
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Energy resolution of a homogeneous hadron calorimeter (60 tonnes of liquid scintillator)



From: NIM 125 (1975) 447



Hadron calorimetry in practice Energy resolution for a non-compensating calorimeter

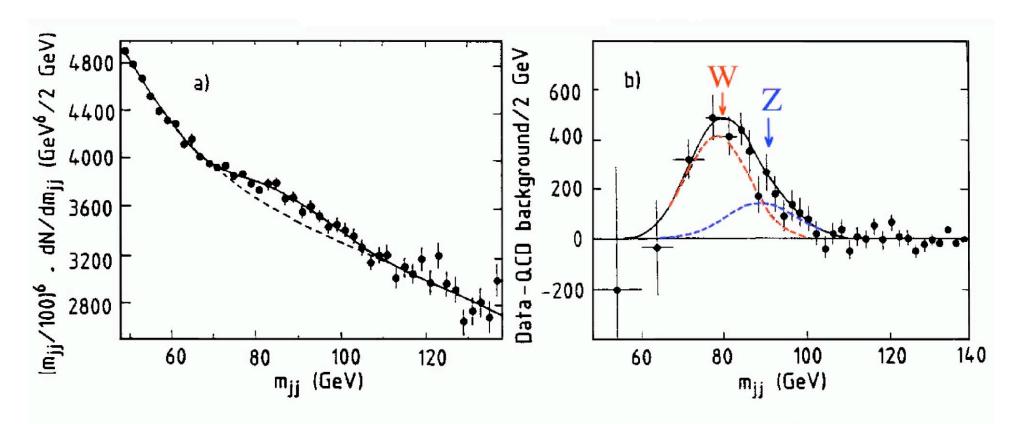


FIG. 7.50. Two-jet invariant mass distributions from the UA2 experiment [Alit 91]. Diagram a) shows the measured data points, together with the results of the best fits to the QCD background alone ($dashed\ curve$), or including the sum of two Gaussian functions describing $W, Z \to q\bar{q}$ decays. Diagram b) shows the same data after subtracting the QCD background. The data are compatible with peaks at $m_W = 80$ GeV and $m_Z = 90$ GeV. The measured width of the bump, or rather the standard deviation of the mass distribution, was 8 GeV, of which 5 GeV could be attributed to non-ideal calorimeter performance [Jen 88].

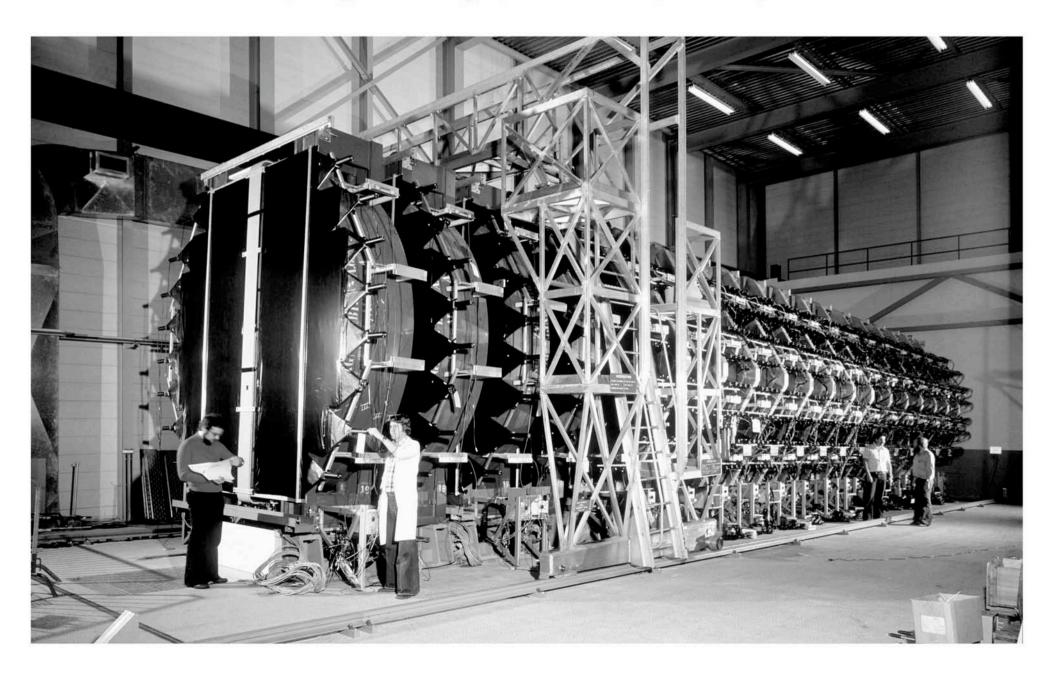
A brief history of calorimetry (3)

- In the 1970s, calorimeters took on new tasks.
 - → High-energy neutrino experiments: Target + trigger (total energy)
 - \longrightarrow Collider experiments (ISR, PETRA): Energy flow (missing E_T , jets)
 - \longrightarrow General: Particle ID (e,γ,μ,ν)
- Calorimeters turned out to be extremely suitable for such tasks.

 This is the main reason why they have become the central component of any detector system at accelerator based HEP experiments
- However, detailed understanding of the hadronic calorimeter performance was still lacking. Monte Carlo simulations provided little or no guidance.
- In many experiments, good hadronic performance was not considered a top priority. Detector choice was therefore determined by other considerations (money, radiation hardness, personal hobbyism)

The WA1 neutrino experiment (1976)

(integrated target, calorimeter, tracker)

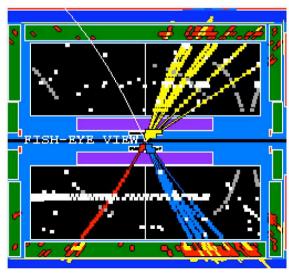


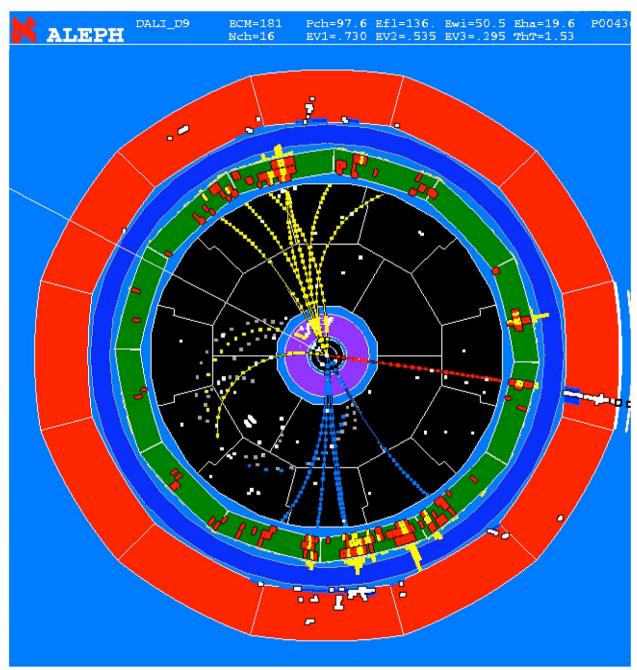
Example of energy flow information

 $e^+e^- \rightarrow W^+W^ (\sqrt{s} = 181 \text{ GeV})$

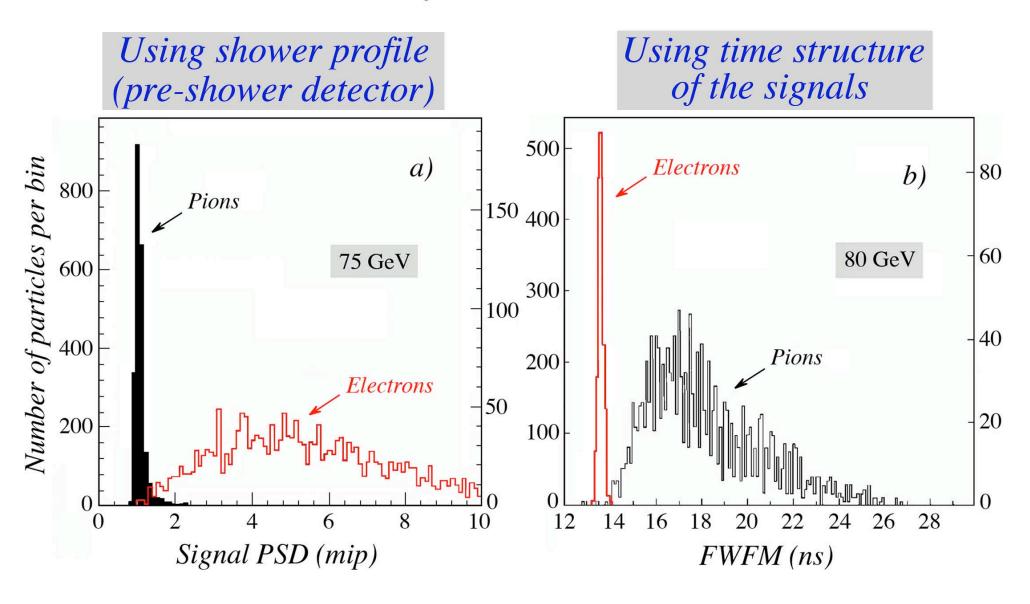
 $WW \rightarrow qq \mu \nu_{\mu}$

In final state: 2 hadronic jets 1 energetic muon missing $E_T(v_\mu)$





Particle identification with calorimeters



A brief history of calorimetry (3)

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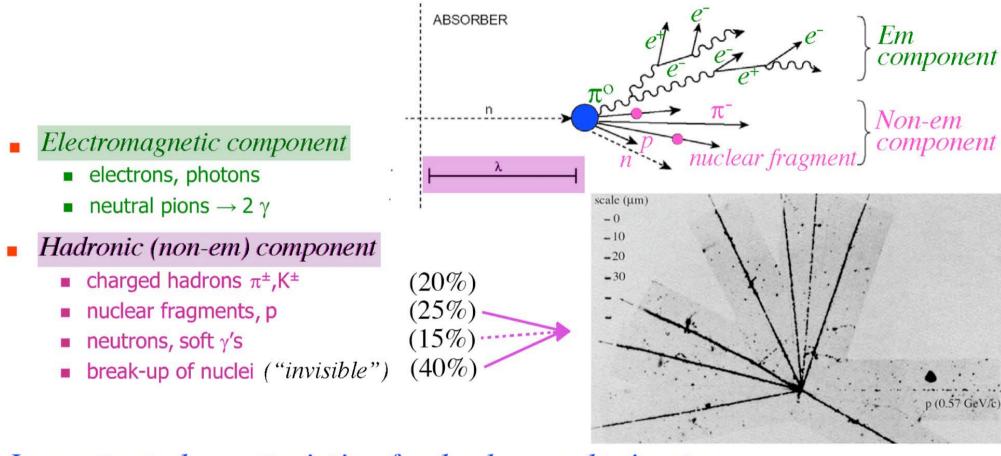
A brief history of calorimetry (4)

- Since ~1985, separate efforts have been undertaken to understand (and thus improve!) the performance of hadron calorimeters, both experimentally and at the Monte Carlo level
- What has been learned in this respect is almost entirely due to experimental efforts
- MC simulations are still not in a state in which they can be considered a useful tool for design and optimization of detectors
- As a result, the development of calorimeters for the LHC experiments has proceeded without meaningful guidance from MC simulations.

 And the experiments pay the price for that.

The physics of hadronic shower development

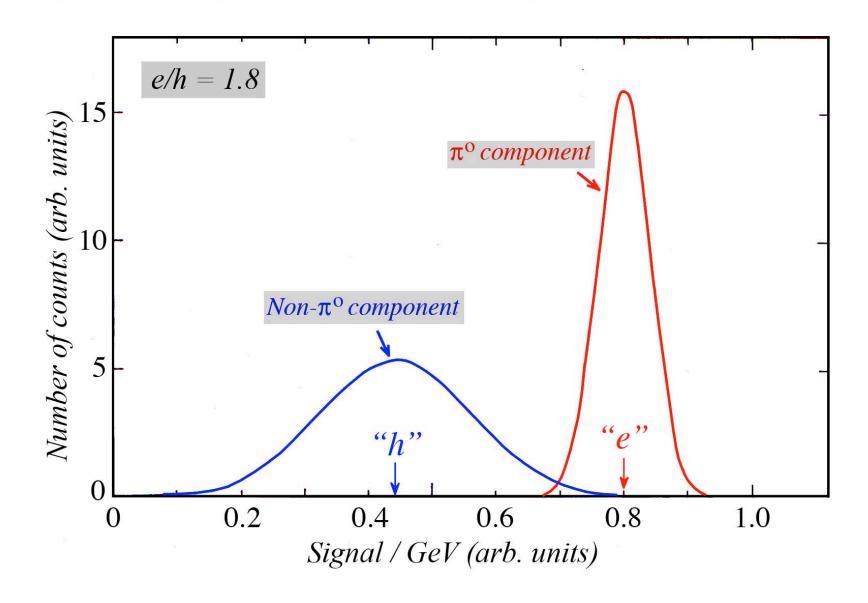
A hadronic shower consists of two components



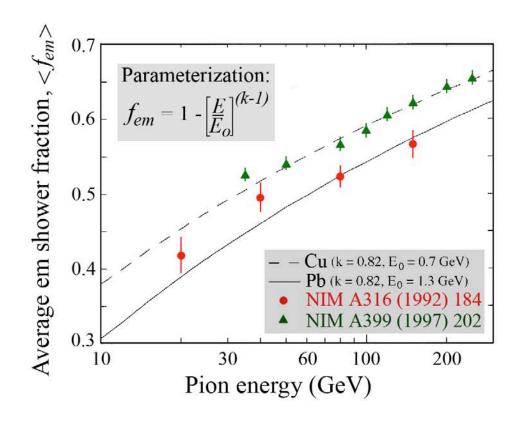
- Important characteristics for hadron calorimetry:
 - Large, non-Gaussian fluctuations in energy sharing em/non-em
 - Large, non-Gaussian fluctuations in "invisible" energy losses

The calorimeter response to the two shower components is NOT the same

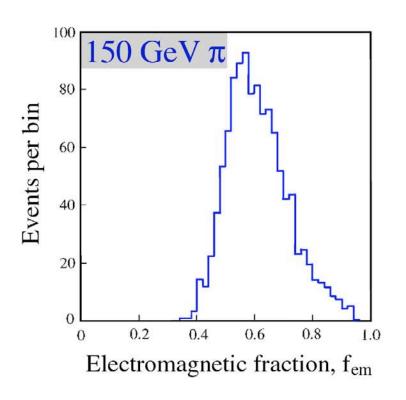
(mainly because of nuclear breakup energy losses in non- π^{o} component)



(Fluctuations in) the electromagnetic shower fraction, f_{em} i.e. the fraction of the shower energy deposited by $\pi^{o}s$



The em fraction is, on average, large and energy dependent



Fluctuations in f_{em} are large and non-Poissonian

Fluctuations in the em shower component (f_{em})

- Why are these important?
 - Electromagnetic calorimeter response \neq non-em response $(e/h \neq 1)$
 - Event-to-event fluctuations are large and non-Gaussian
 - $\langle f_{em} \rangle$ depends on shower energy and age
- Cause of all common problems in hadron calorimeters
 - Energy scale different from electrons, in energy-dependent way
 - Hadronic *non-linearity*
 - Non-Gaussian response function
 - Poor energy *resolution*
 - Calibration of the sections of a longitudinally segmented detector

The Uranium remedy!!

- Around 1985, the idea came up (W. Willis) to use depleted uranium (²³⁸U) as absorber material. Nuclear fission in the non-em shower component would (by chance, just) COMPENSATE for the losses in nuclear binding energy.
- Calorimeters with e/h = 1 would from now on be known as "compensating" Willis' group built the first such calorimeter for an ISR experiment ($^{238}U/plastic$ scintillator): Linear response, good energy resolution
- However, other attempts were less successful.
 One uranium calorimeter even gave e/h ~ 0.8 ("overcompensating")
 Others were approximately compensating, but gave poor resolution (e.g. L3)
- Around 1985, there was a lot of confusion about the possible merits (or absence thereof) of uranium absorber
- L3 data gave a clue to the solution

Hadronic signal (non-)linearity: Dependence on e/h

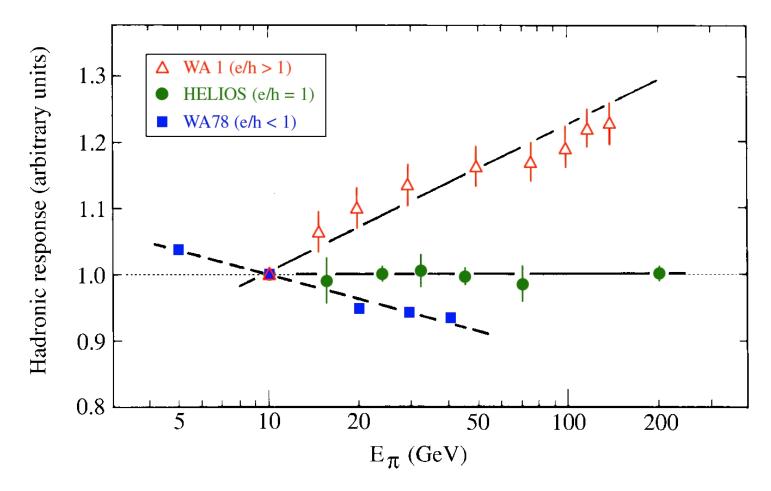
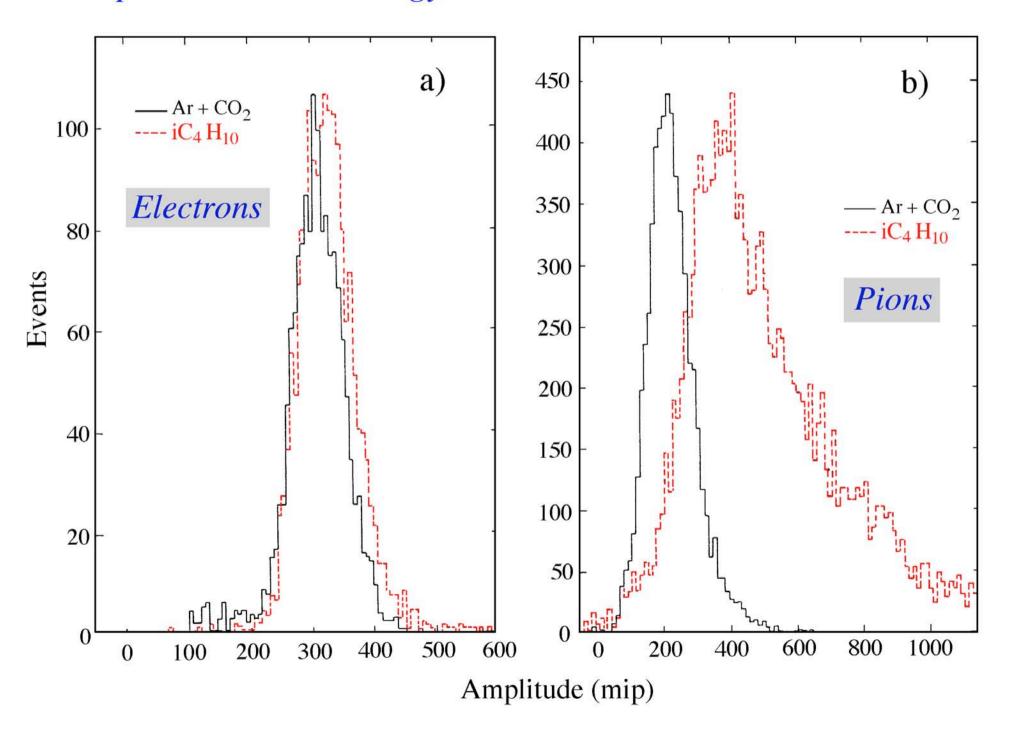


FIG. 3.14. The response to pions as a function of energy for three calorimeters with different e/h values: the WA1 calorimeter (e/h > 1, [Abr 81]), the HELIOS calorimeter $(e/h \approx 1$, [Ake 87]) and the WA78 calorimeter (e/h < 1, [Dev 86, Cat 87]). All data are normalized to the results for 10 GeV.

Compensation and energy resolution in L3 hadron calorimeter

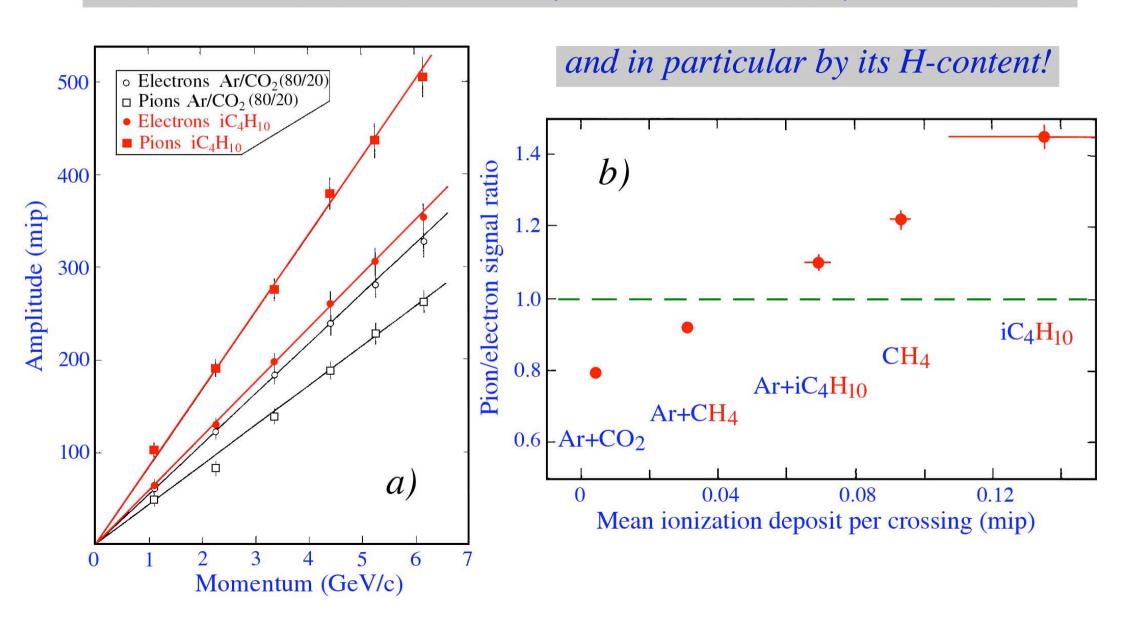


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The compensation puzzle solved!

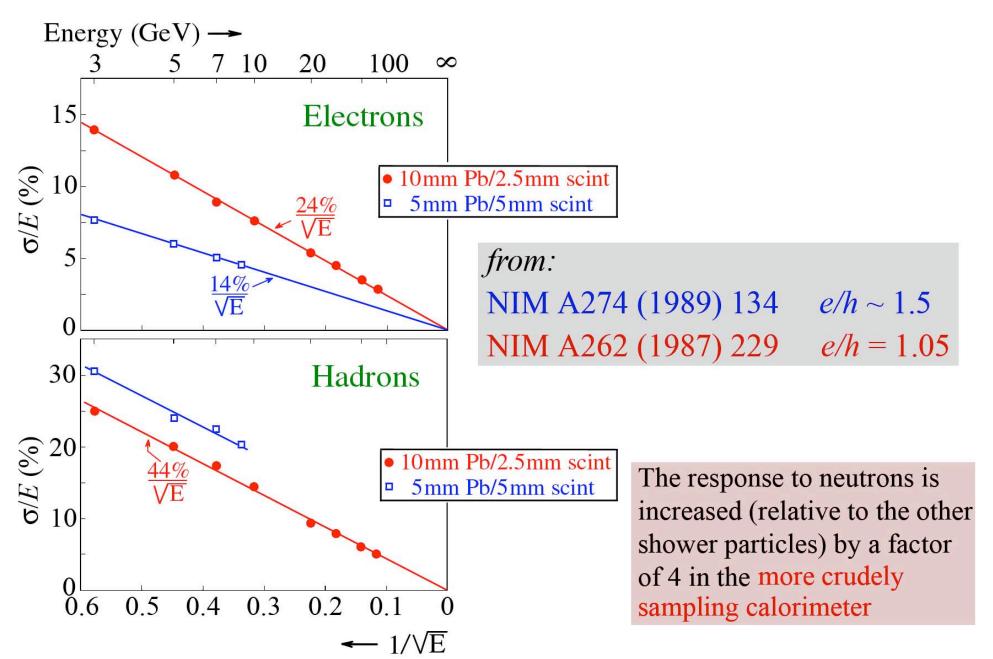
The e/h value is not determined by the absorber, but by active medium



The secrets of compensation unraveled

- Calorimeter signal is the sum of all the signals from the shower particles produced in the absorption process.
- Crucial shower particles are sampled in very different ways, depending on the calorimeter structure. Compared to a mip,
 - electrons and γs are sampled less efficiently when using high-Z absorber
 - -neutrons can be sampled much more efficiently with H-rich active material
- By choosing the optimal sampling fraction, these factors can be tuned to to achieve e/h = 1
- Efficient neutron detection also reduces the effects of fluctuations in nuclear binding energy loss on the energy resolution (correlated!)
- The use of uranium absorber is neither necessary nor sufficient In fact, the best energy resolutions have been obtained with Pb absorber

Calorimetric effects of efficient neutron sampling



Monte Carlo simulations of hadronic shower development

- Reliable simulations are of crucial importance for detector development, optimization and understanding
- Simulations based on incorrect/incomplete input of the important physics processes cannot be expected to produce meaningful results (regardless of your computing power!)
- In shower development, most of the energy is deposited in the very last stages. In multi-GeV electromagnetic showers, a large fraction of the energy is deposited by electrons with energies in the keV range. As we will see later, this has important consequences for em calorimetry

In multi-GeV hadronic showers, most of the energy is deposit in the nuclear stage: MeV-type nuclear reactions, nuclear deexcitation, transport of p.n.

Therefore, it is crucial to simulate that part correctly.

The crucial elements of hadronic shower simulations

The non-electromagnetic shower component

A very large fraction (> 80%) of the calorimeter signal from this component is caused by *protons* and other nuclear fragments. Pions and other mips play, at best, only a minor role.

It is, therefore, crucial to simulate the processes in which these protons are being produced, as accurately as possible.

→ *Nuclear breakup* processes determine many aspects of the hadronic calorimeter performance

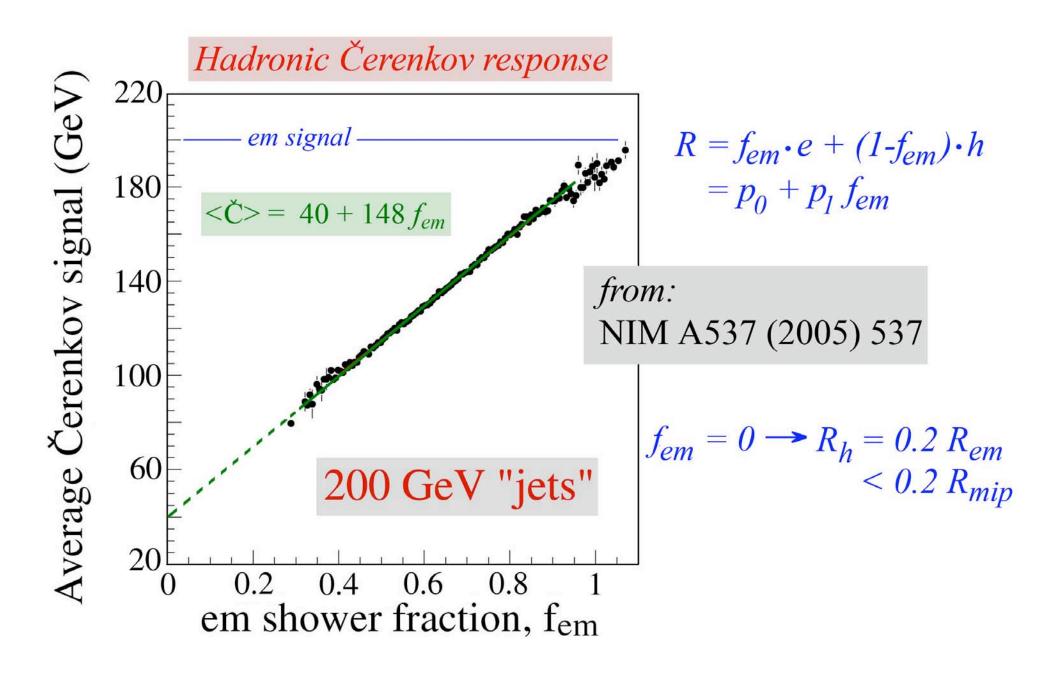
The non-electromagnetic shower component (1)

How do we know that protons dominate non-em signal?

1) Because of the small hadronic signals (i.e. large e/h values) of calorimeters that are blind to these protons.

In quartz-fiber calorimeters (n = 1.46), only particles with $\beta > 0.69$ emit Čerenkov light, i.e. $E_{kin} > 0.2$ MeV for electrons and > 350 MeV for protons

DREAM: Measure f_{em} event-by-event



The non-electromagnetic shower component (2)

How do we know that protons dominate non-em signal?

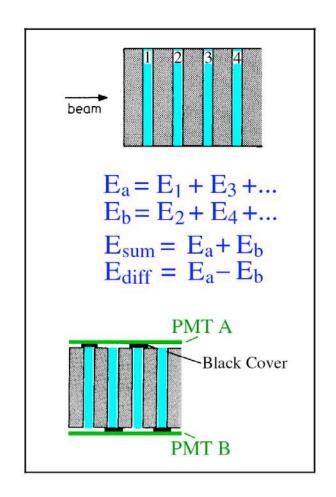
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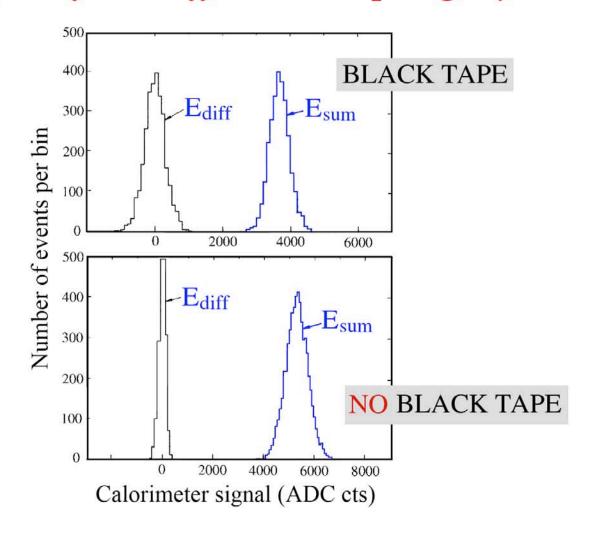
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2) Because of the absence of correlations between the signals from adjacent active layers in fine-sampling hadron calorimeters

The calorimeter from the example had 0.06 λ_{int} thick sampling layers. A mip would lose on average 12.7 MeV traversing these layers.

Correlations between signals from different sampling layers





Fluctuations	10 mm lead	/ 2.5 mm plastic
(%)	Electrons	Pions
$\sigma_{\mathrm{A}}, \sigma_{\mathrm{B}}$	36.0±1.0	60.5±1.0
$\sigma_{ m sum}$	24.5±1.0	43.5 ± 1.0
$\sigma_{ m diff}$	25.8±1.0	42.3 ± 1.0

from: NIM A290 (1990) 335

The crucial elements of hadronic shower simulations (2)

Where do these protons come from?

1) Nuclear spallation.

Spallation protons typically carry ~ 100 MeV kinetic energy. Their range is typically of the order of the thickness of sampling layers in hadron calorimeters.

2) Nuclear reactions induced by neutrons, e.g. (n,p) reactions

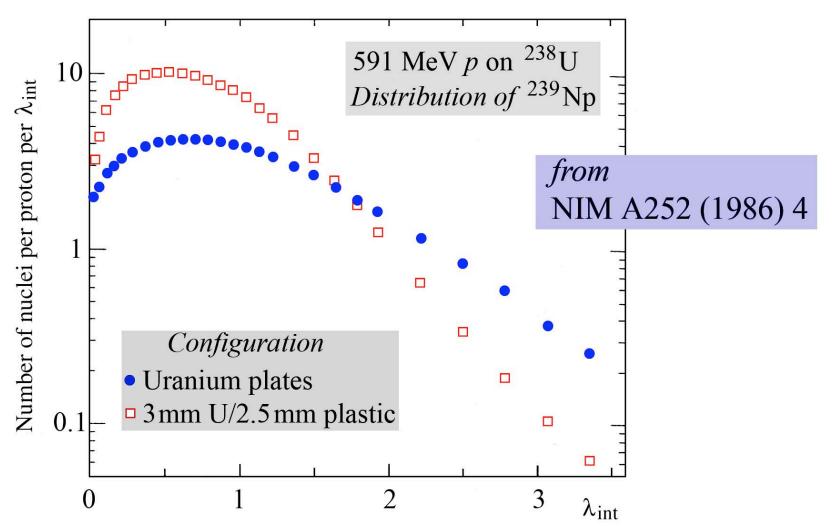
These protons have kinetic energies comparable to those of the (evaporation) neutrons that generated them (< 10 MeV)

These neutrons outnumber spallation protons by an order of magnitude

Measurements of neutron production in hadronic showers:

> 40 per GeV in some materials (NIM A252 (1986) 4)

The importance of hydrogen in the absorbing structure



(Nuclear evaporation) neutrons are typically produced with $E_{kin} \sim$ few MeV. Elastic n-p scattering slows these neutrons down.

²³⁹Np is produced by thermal neutron capture in uranium

The special role of neutrons in calorimetry

In calorimeters with hydrogenous active material, neutrons lose a major fraction of their kinetic energy through elastic *n-p* scattering in that material.

The recoil protons may contribute to the signals.

Therefore, the *neutron component may be very efficiently sampled* in such calorimeters. The sampling fraction may be much larger than for the other shower particles.

This is the key element of *compensation*.

A brief history of calorimetry (4)

- Since ~1985, separate efforts have been undertaken to understand (and thus improve!) the performance of hadron calorimeters, both experimentally ad at the Monte Carlo level
- What has been learned in this respect is almost entirely due to experimental efforts
- MC simulations are still not in a state in which they can be considered a
 useful tool for design and optimization of detectors
 Crucial experimental data sets (ZEUS-Pb, ZEUS-noncorrelation, U-plastic)
 have never been (even approximately) reproduced by GEANT and
 (therefore) tend to be ignored by GEANT developers
- As a result, the development of calorimeters for the LHC experiments has proceeded without meaningful guidance from MC simulations.

 And the experiments pay the price for that.

GEANT4 simulations of hadron showers

A few recent quotes from the published literature:

On pion detection in ATLAS: NIM A607 (2010) 372

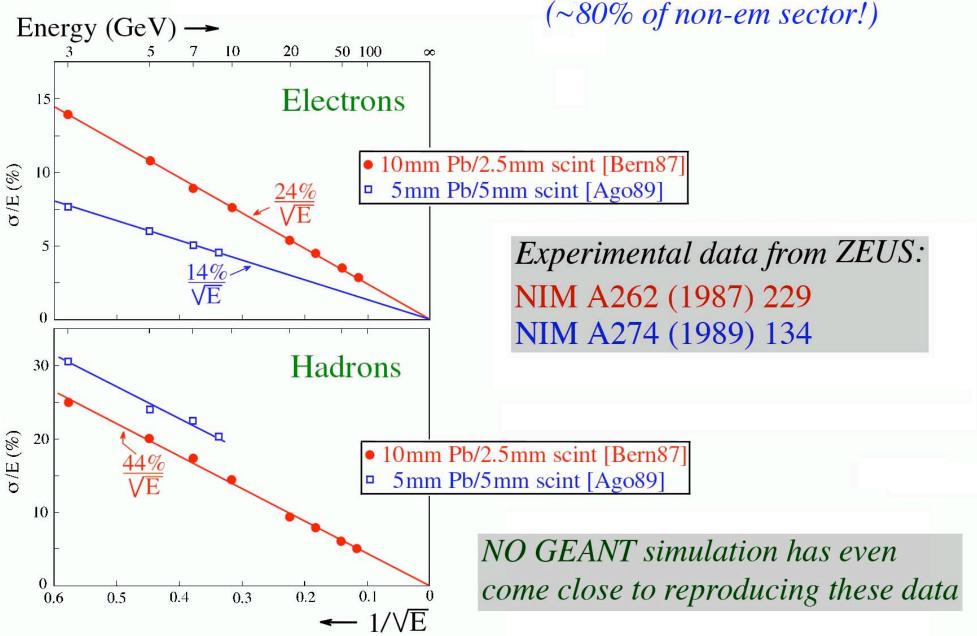
The measurements were compared to simulated results obtained using Geant 4. The simulation predicts a larger response and a lower energy resolution than what was measured.

On hadronic shower profiles (ATLAS): NIM A615 (2010) 158

The experimental data have been compared with the results of GEANT4 simulation, using two basic physics lists, LHEP and QGSP, as well as extensions where the Bertini intra-nuclear cascade is used. Neither of these physics lists is able to reproduce the data in the whole energy range satisfactorily,

Benchmark data for hadronic shower MC simulations

Sensitive test for correct implementation of nuclear effects (~80% of non-em sector!)



A brief history of calorimetry (4)

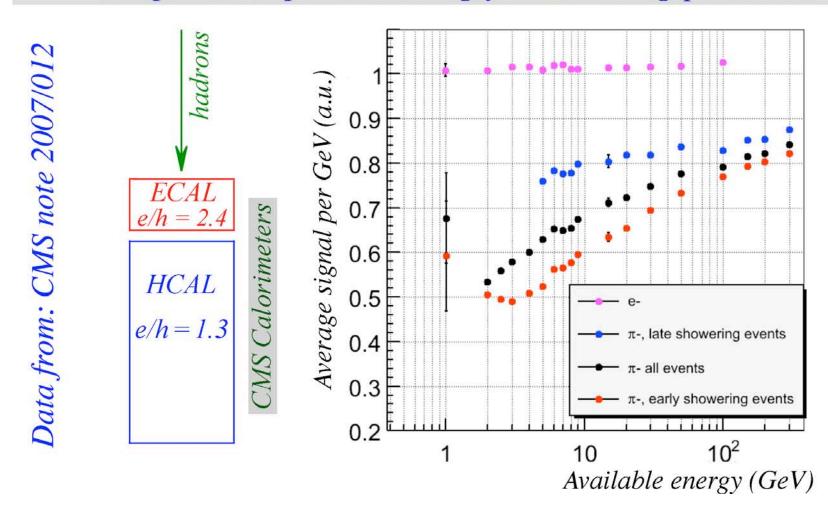
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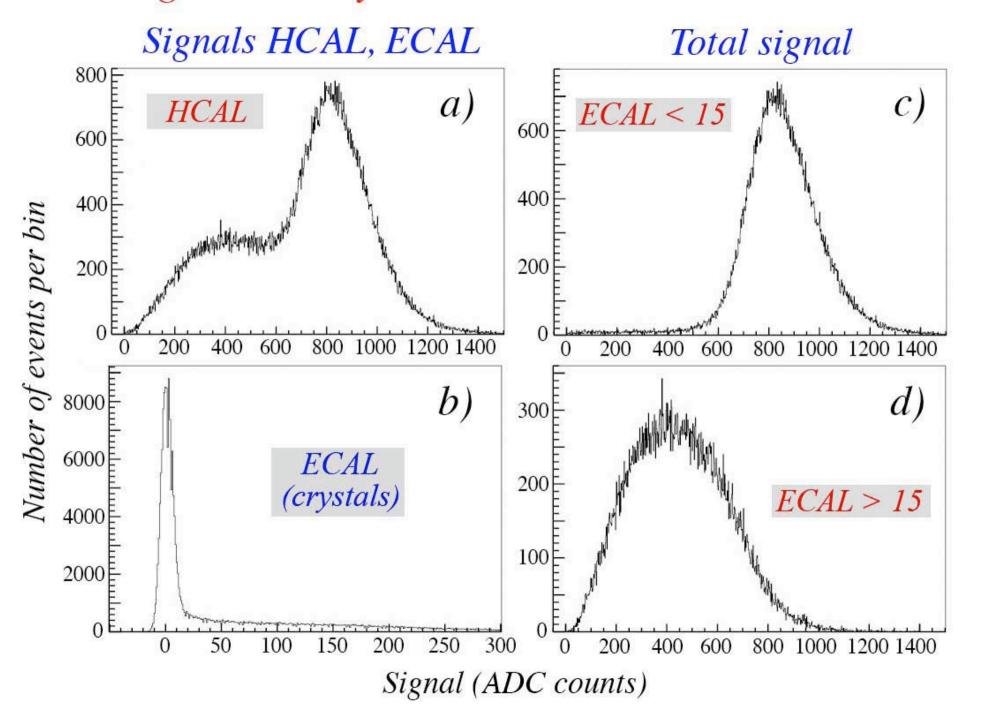
Consequences for LHC calorimeters Hadronic response and signal linearity (CMS)

CMS pays a price for its focus on em energy resolution ECAL has e/h = 2.4, while HCAL has e/h = 1.3

-> Response depends strongly on starting point shower



Pion signals in crystal ECAL + scintillator HCAL



One area where RELIABLE MC is badly needed: Calibration

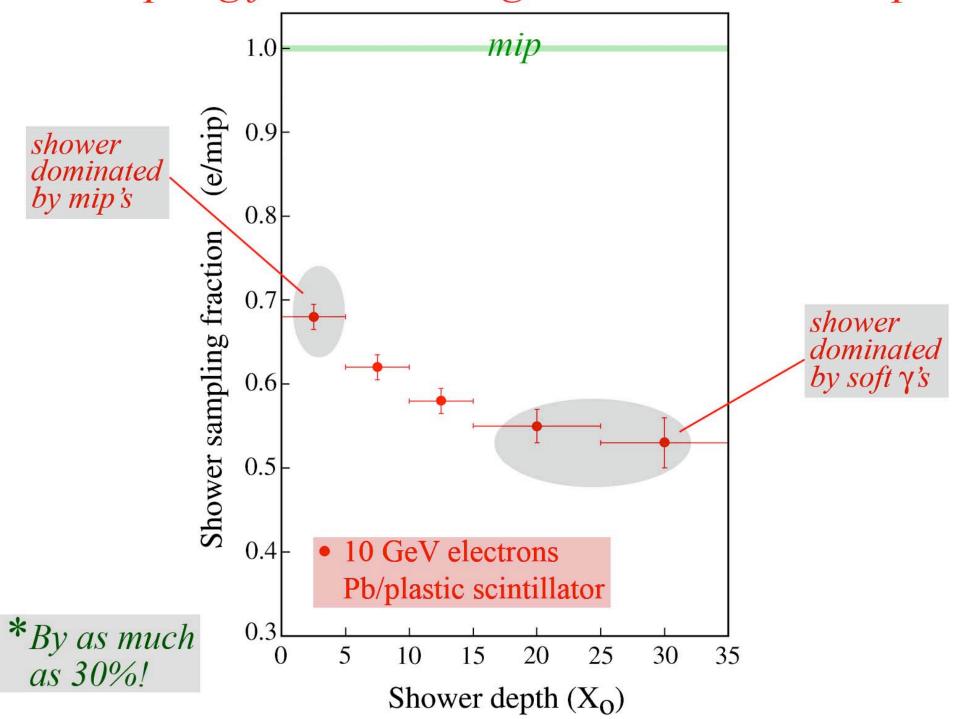
The enormous complications that arise when calibrating a longitudinally segmented (sampling) calorimeter

The problem:

- In the absorption process, the energy is deposited by
 - electrons, positrons, photons (em)
 - electrons, positrons, photons, pions, protons, neutrons (had)
- In a given sampling calorimeter, the sampling fraction is typically very different for these different particles

 Also, the composition of the shower changes as the shower develops
- As a result, the relationship between measured signal and deposited energy (calibration constant) varies with depth, and is especially for hadrons in a given detector segment different for each event

The sampling fraction changes as shower develops*



The importance of reliable simulations for calorimetry (2)

- In most sampling calorimeters, the electromagnetic sampling fraction *decreases* as the shower develops
- In practice, this may have important consequences, e.g.:

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Systematic mismeasurement of energy - NIM A490 (2002) 132 Electromagnetic signal non-linearity - NIM A262 (1987) 243 Differences in response to e, \gamma, \pi^{o} - NIM A485 (2002) 385 etc.
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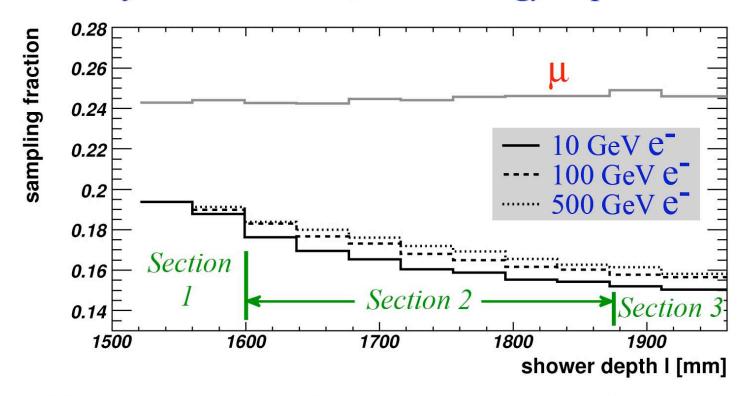
• These issues are especially relevant in *longitudinally segmented* devices. To avoid them, one has to solve the non-trivial problem of *intercalibrating* the segments.

A modern example: The ATLAS ECAL

The importance of reliable simulations for calorimetry (3)

The ATLAS electromagnetic calorimeter (Pb/LAr)

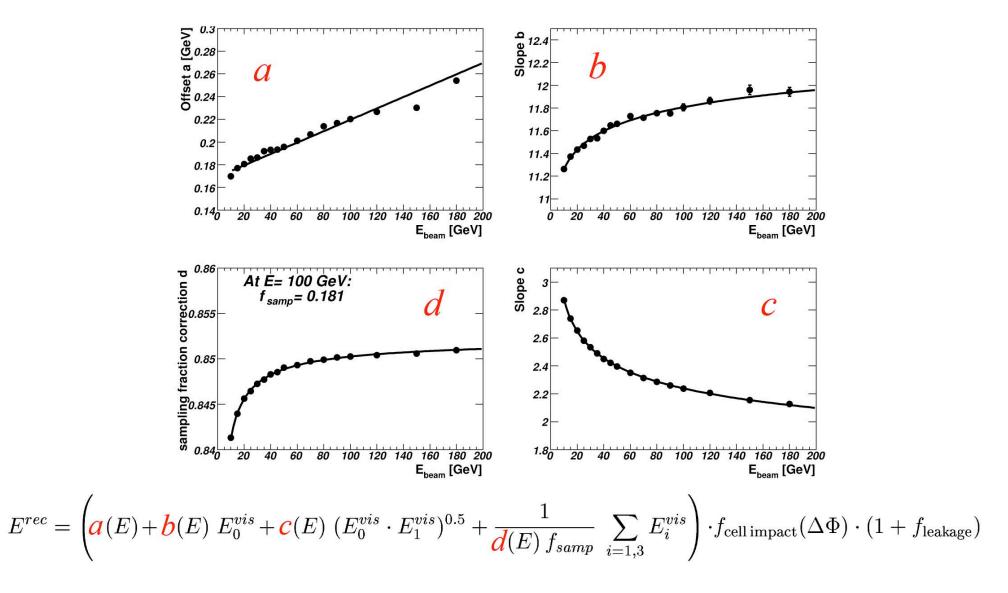
The relationship between signal and energy is different for each of the 3 sections, in an energy dependent way!!



→ How to (inter)calibrate these sections?

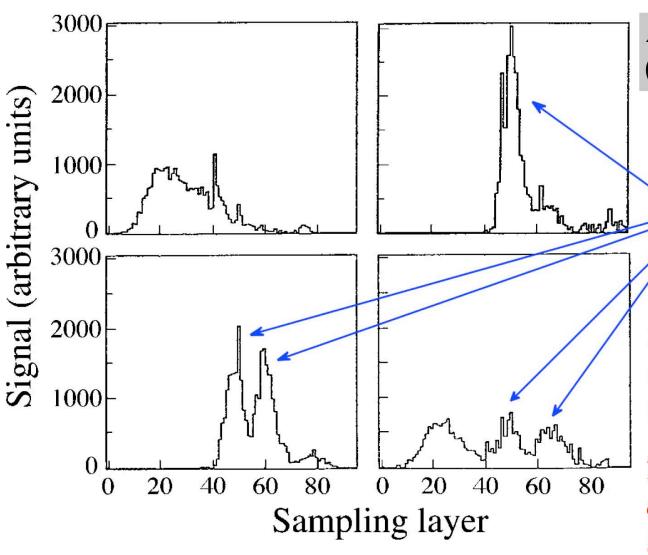
How to achieve good linearity/energy resolution?

ATLAS: Energy reconstruction ECAL (developed & optimized with MC simulations)



Calibration problems for hadronic shower detection

 π^{o} production may take place anywhere in the absorber



- depth $(0-6 \lambda)$

270 GeV π in Pb/Fe/scint. (hanging-file calorimeter)

π^o production in HAD section

The em shower component is sampled more efficiently than the non-em one

The calibration constant of each individual sampling layer thus depends on the type of event.

How do we know calibration is correct?

• Check with a "known" energy deposit

em calorimeter: Use electrons whose momenta are measured with tracker

hadronic section: Use hadrons whose momenta are measured with tracker and which penetrate em section before starting shower

Problem: Using these calibration constants, energy of hadrons that start shower in the em section will be systematically mismeasured

• The ultimate check is the correct reconstruction of physics objects

$$Z \rightarrow e^{+}e^{-}$$
 $J/\psi \rightarrow e^{+}e^{-}$ $Y \rightarrow e^{+}e^{-}$ (91.2 GeV/c²) (3.10 GeV/c²) (9.46 GeV/c²)

(cf. the "self-calibrating" D0 calorimeter)

How do we know calibration is correct? (2)

• For hadron calorimeter, there is no such "easy" calibration object Since UA2 (1983), no experiment has observed W,Z in jet/jet invariant mass distributions.

Argument: QCD background is too high.

- However, how about $Z \longrightarrow b \bar{b}$?

 CDF, D0, ATLAS, CMS should have samples comparable in size to $Z \longrightarrow e^+e^-$ Why isn't the Z seen in invariant mass distributions of b jets?

 QCD background should be very small.
- General problem with calibration of "jet energy scale": Any method is only valid for a specific class of events, and gives wrong results for other types of events

The future of calorimetry

- Hadronic calorimetry will become increasingly important, especially if a machine such as CLIC will ever be built. Jet spectroscopy will replace particle spectroscopy, e.g. to distinguish final-state W/Z bosons
- Different approaches are followed to develop calorimeter systems that are up to that task:
 - Compensating calorimeters
 Proven technology, current holders of all performance records
 - Dual-readout calorimeters

 Try to improve on the performance of compensating calorimeters
 by eliminating the weak points of the latter

 Many experimental successes have been achieved, goals within reach
 - Systems based on Particle Flow Analysis

 Combine the information from a tracking system and a fine-grained calorimeter

Compensating calorimetry

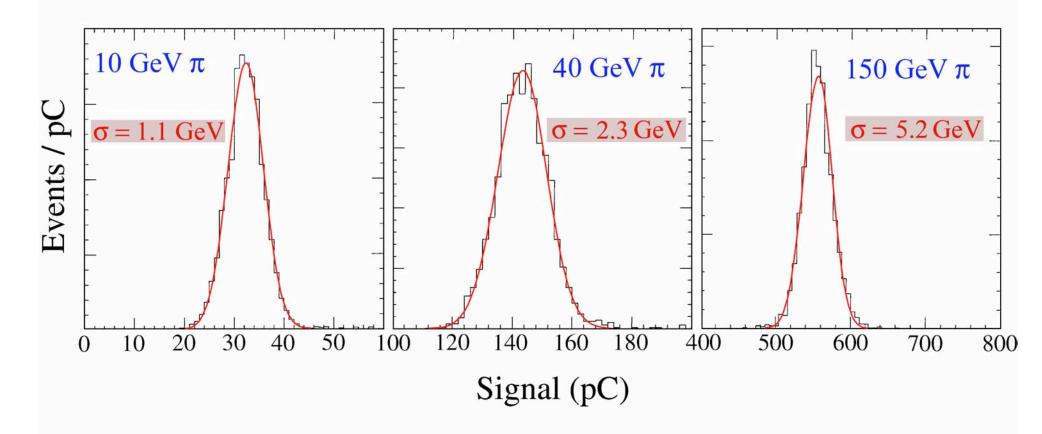
 Reasons for poor hadronic performance of non-compensating calorimeters understood

Compensation mechanisms fully understood

²³⁸U absorber (fission → compensation for invisible energy loss) is neither needed nor sufficient

Experimentally demonstrated with Pb/scintillator calorimeters (ZEUS, SPACAL)

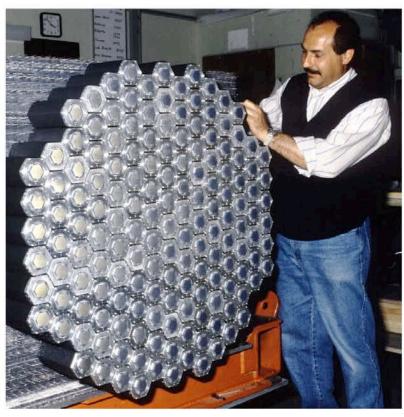
Hadronic signal distributions in a compensating calorimeter



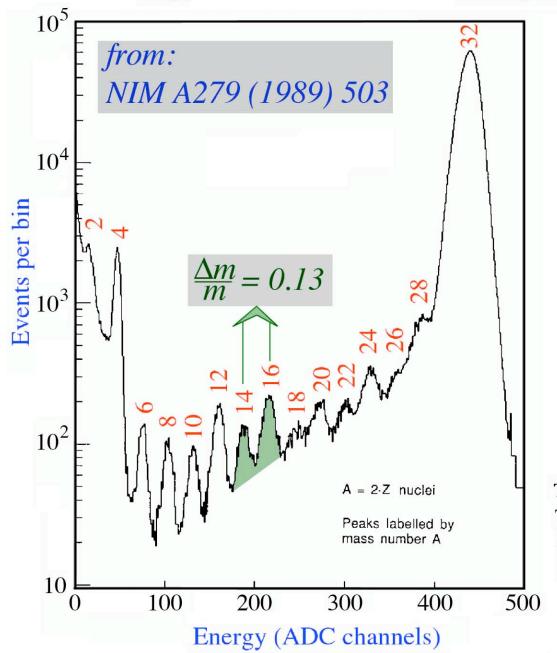
from: NIM A308 (1991) 481

SPACAL 1989





Hadron calorimetry in practice Energy resolution in a compensating calorimeter



W/Z separation: $\frac{\Delta m}{m} \sim 0.11$

The WA80 calorimeter as high-resolution spectrometer. Total energy measured with the calorimeter for minimum-bias events revealed the composition of the momentum-selected CERN heavy-ion beam

Pros & Cons of Compensating Calorimeters

Pros

- Same *energy scale* for electrons, hadrons and jets. No ifs, ands or buts.
- *Calibrate* with electrons and you are done.
- Excellent hadronic *energy resolution* (SPACAL: $30\%/\sqrt{E}$).
- Linearity, Gaussian response function and all that good stuff.
- Compensation fully understood.

 We know how to build these things, even though GEANT doesn't

Cons

- Small sampling fraction (2.4% in Pb/plastic)
 - \rightarrow em energy resolution limited (SPACAL: 13%/ \sqrt{E} , ZEUS: 18%/ \sqrt{E})
- Compensation relies on detecting neutrons
 - → Large *integration volume*
 - \rightarrow Long *integration time* (~50 ns)

Elements needed to improve the excellent ZEUS/SPACAL performance:

- 1) Reduce the contribution of sampling fluctuations to energy resolution (THE limiting factor in SPACAL/ZEUS)
- 2) Eliminate/reduce effects of fluctuations in "invisible energy"
 - → calorimeter needs to be efficient in detecting the "nuclear" fraction of the non-em shower component
- 3) Eliminate the effects of fluctuations in the em shower fraction, f_{em} in a way that does NOT prevent 1), 2)

An attractive option for improving the quality of hadron calorimetry: Use Čerenkov light!! Why?

Hadron showers $< \frac{em}{non-em}$ component (π^0)

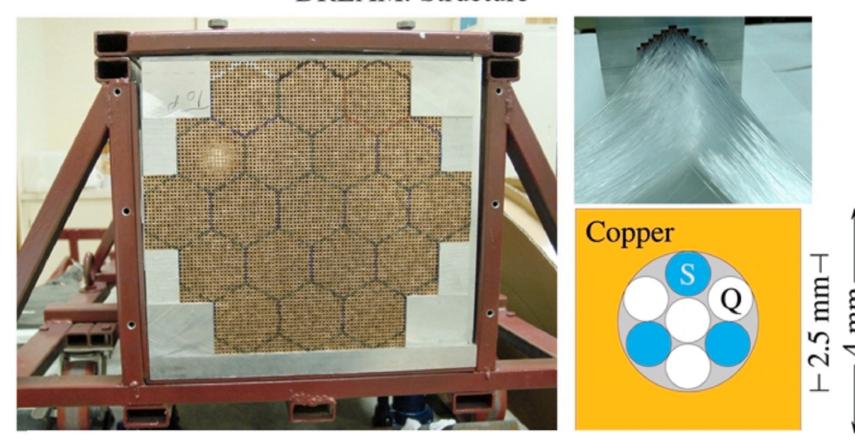
Calorimeter response to these components not the same $(e/h \neq 1)$

Čerenkov light almost exclusively produced by em component (~80% of non-em energy deposited by non-relativistic particles)

→ DREAM (Dual REAdout Method) principle:

Measure f_{em} event by event by comparing \check{C} and dE/dx signals

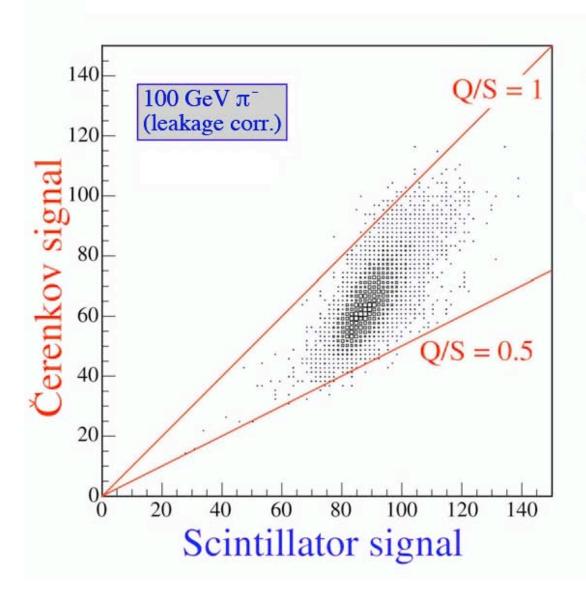
DREAM: Structure



• Some characteristics of the DREAM detector

- Depth 200 cm (10.0 $\lambda_{\rm int}$)
- Effective radius 16.2 cm (0.81 λ_{int} , 8.0 ρ_M)
- Mass instrumented volume 1030 kg
- Number of fibers 35910, diameter 0.8 mm, total length ≈ 90 km
- Hexagonal towers (19), each read out by 2 PMTs

DREAM: How to determine f_{em} and E?



$$S = E \left[f_{\text{em}} + \frac{1}{(e/h)_{\text{S}}} (1 - f_{\text{em}}) \right]$$

$$Q = E \left[f_{\text{em}} + \frac{1}{(e/h)_{\text{Q}}} (1 - f_{\text{em}}) \right]$$

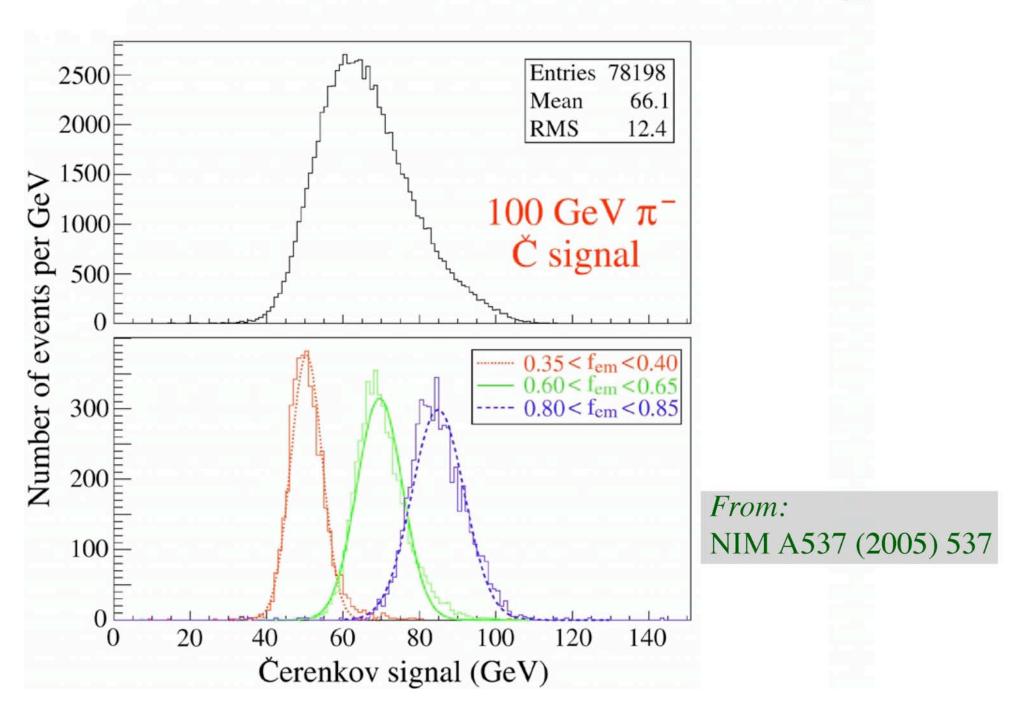
e.g. If
$$e/h = 1.3$$
 (S), 4.7 (Q)

$$\frac{Q}{S} = \frac{f_{\rm em} + 0.21 (1 - f_{\rm em})}{f_{\rm em} + 0.77 (1 - f_{\rm em})}$$

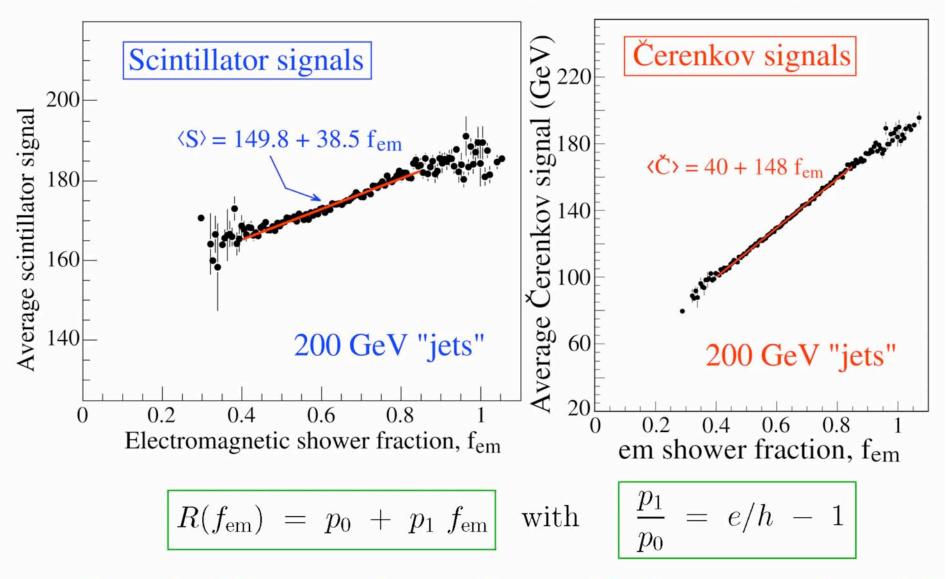
$$E = \frac{S - \chi Q}{1 - \chi}$$

with
$$\chi = \frac{1 - (h/e)_S}{1 - (h/e)_Q} \sim 0.3$$

DREAM: Effect of event selection based on f_{em}



DREAM: Signal dependence on fem



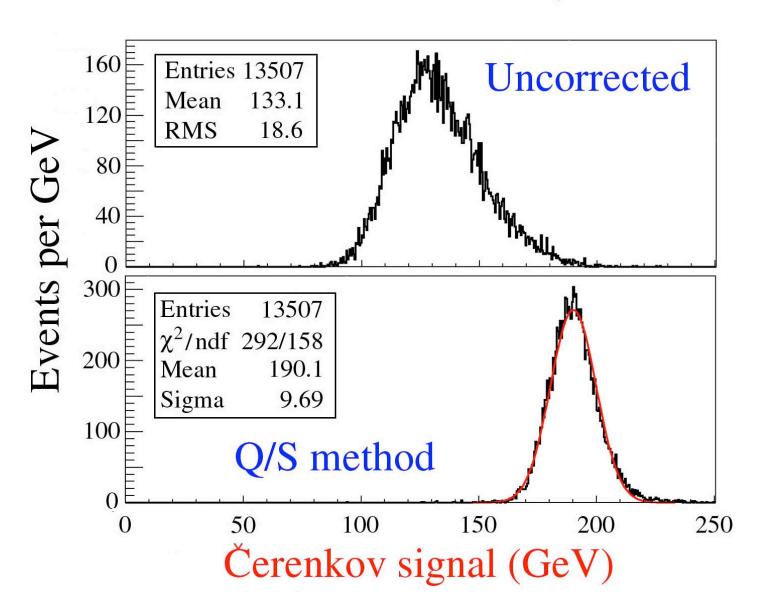
Cu/scintillator e/h = 1.3

Cu/quartz e/h = 4.7

From:

NIM A537 (2005) 537

DREAM: Effect of corrections (200 GeV "jets")



Effects of Q/S corrections on

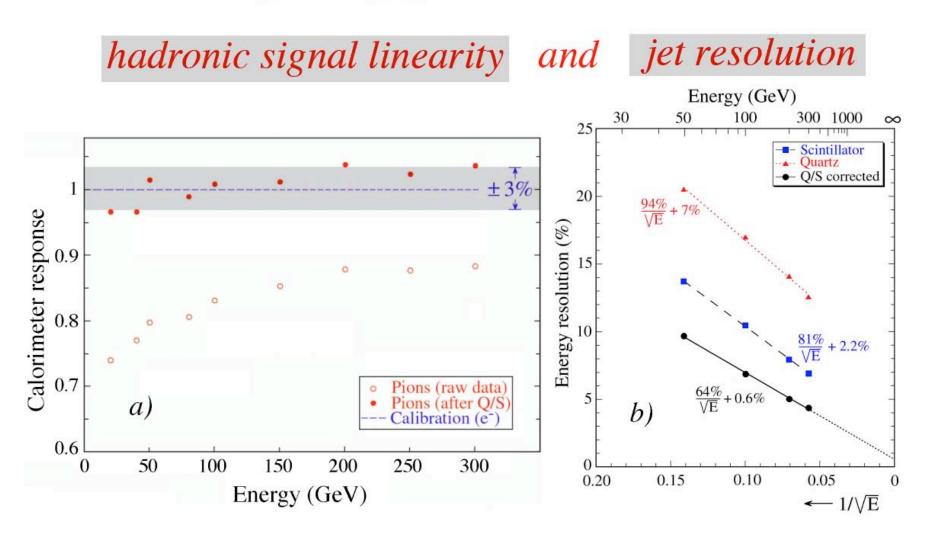


Figure 9: The scintillator response of the DREAM calorimeter to single pions (a) and the energy resolution for "jets" (b), before and after the dual-readout correction procedures were applied to the signals [5].

CONCLUSIONS from tests of fiber prototype

- DREAM offers a powerful technique to improve hadronic calorimeter performance:
 - Correct hadronic energy reconstruction, in an instrument calibrated with electrons!
 - Linearity for hadrons and jets
 - Gaussian response functions
 - Energy resolution scales with $1/\sqrt{E}$
 - σ/E < 5% for high-energy "jets", in a detector with a mass of only 1 ton! dominated by fluctuations in shower leakage

In other words:

The same advantages as intrinsically compensating calorimeters (e/h = 1) WITHOUT the limitations (sampling fraction, integration volume, time)

How to improve DREAM performance

• Build a larger detector —> reduce effects side leakage

Expected effect of full shower containment

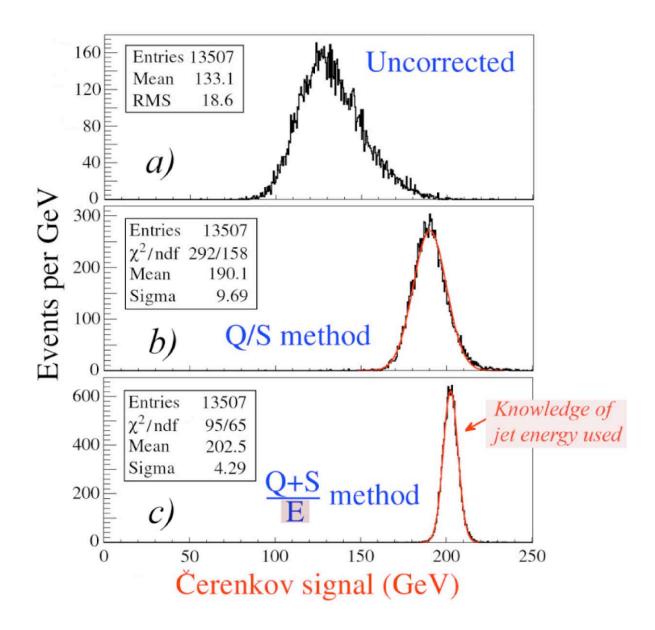


Figure 2: Čerenkov signal distributions for 200 GeV multi-particle events. Shown are the raw data (a), and the signal distributions obtained after application of the corrections based on the measured em shower content, with (c) or without (b) using knowledge about the total "jet" energy [5].

How to improve DREAM performance

- Build a larger detector —> reduce effects side leakage
- Increase Čerenkov light yield
 DREAM: 8 p.e./GeV → fluctuations contribute 35%/√E
- Reduce sampling fluctuations

 These contributed $\sim 40\%/\sqrt{E}$ to hadronic resolution in DREAM

Homogeneous calorimeters (crystals)

- No reason why DREAM principle should be limited to fiber calorimeters
- *Crystals* have the potential to solve light yield + sampling fluctuations problem
- **HOWEVER**: Need to separate the light into its Č, S components OPTIONS:
 - 1) Directionality. S light is isotropic, Č light directional
 - 2) Time structure. Č light is prompt, S light has decay constant(s)
 - 3) Spectral characteristics. Č light λ^{-2} , S light depends on scintillator
 - 4) Polarization. Č light polarized, S light not.

Separation of PbWO4:1%Mo signals into S, Č components

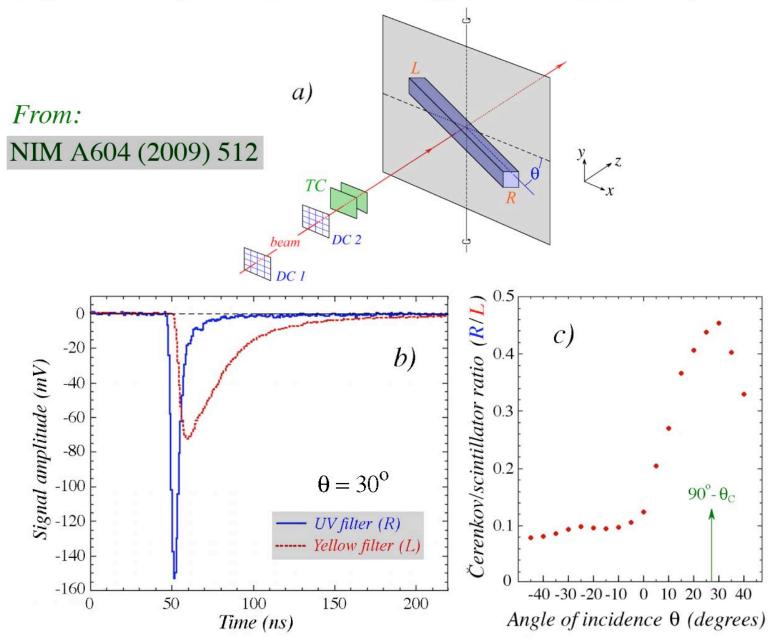
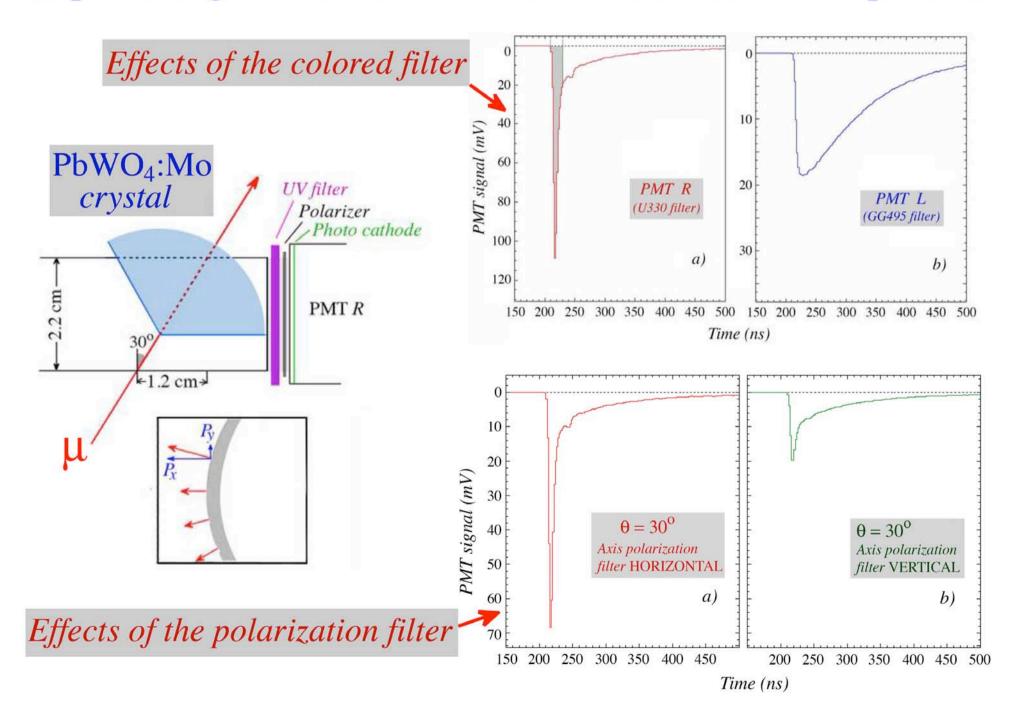


Figure 3: Unraveling of the signals from a Mo-doped PbWO₄ crystal into Čerenkov and scintillation components. The experimental setup is shown in diagram a. The two sides of the crystal were equipped with a UV filter (side R) and a yellow filter (side L), respectively. The signals from 50 GeV electrons traversing the crystal are shown in diagram b, and the angular dependence of the ratio of these two signals is shown in diagram c.

Separating the Čerenkov and scintillation components



Čerenkov and Scintillator information from one signal!

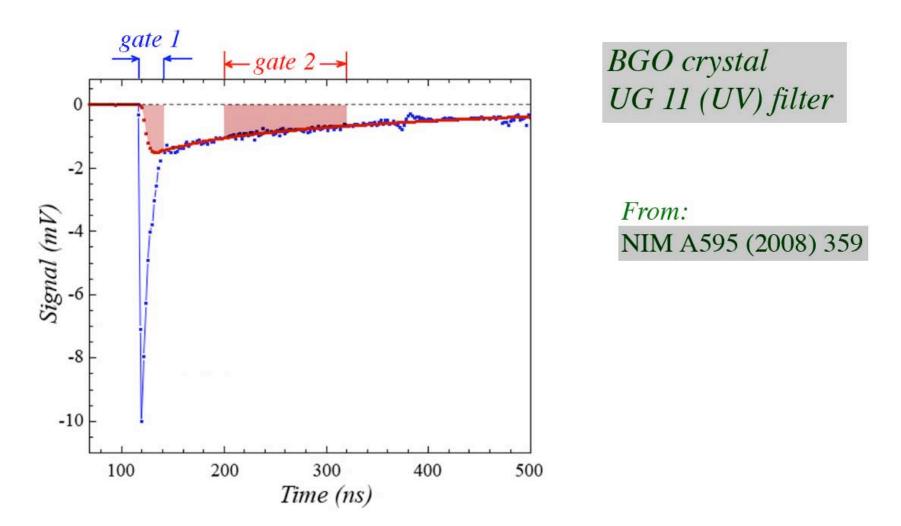


Figure 14: The time structure of a typical shower signal measured in the BGO em calorimeter equipped with a UV filter. These signals were measured with a sampling oscilloscope, which took a sample every 0.8 ns. The UV BGO signals were used to measure the relative contributions of scintillation light (gate 2) and Čerenkov light (gate 1)

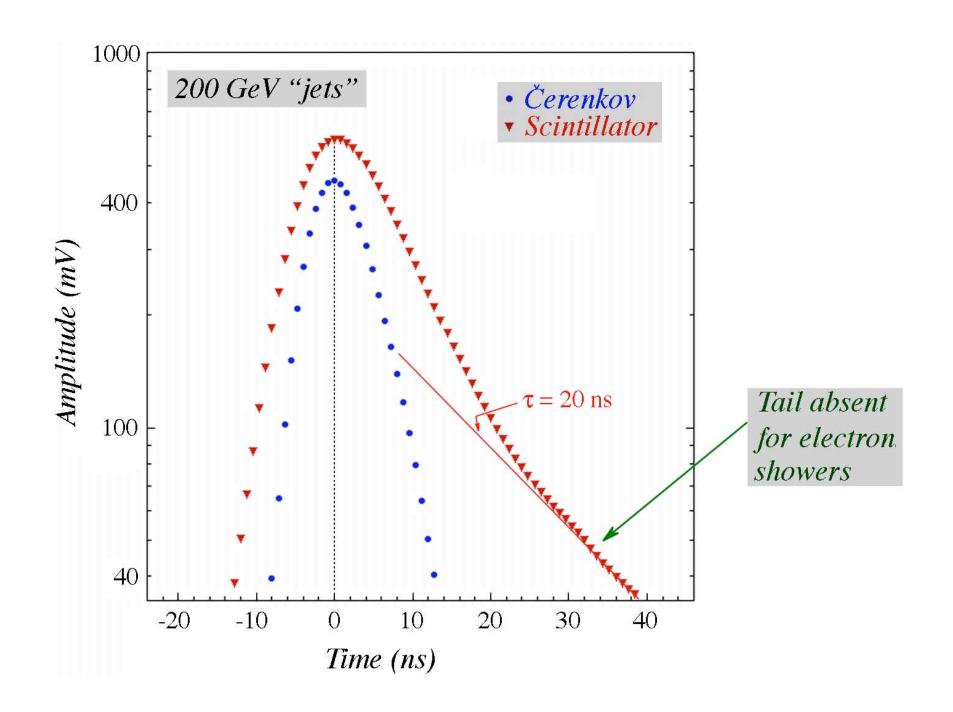
How to improve DREAM performance

- Build a larger detector —> reduce effects side leakage
- *Increase Čerenkov light yield*DREAM: 8 p.e./GeV → fluctuations contribute 35%/√E
- Reduce sampling fluctuations

 These contributed $\sim 40\%/\sqrt{E}$ to hadronic resolution in DREAM
- For ultimate hadron calorimetry (15%/ \sqrt{E}): *Measure E_{kin} (neutrons)* Is correlated to nuclear binding energy loss (invisible energy)

Can be inferred from the time structure of the signals

Time structure of the DREAM signals: the neutron tail



Probing the total signal distribution with the neutron fraction

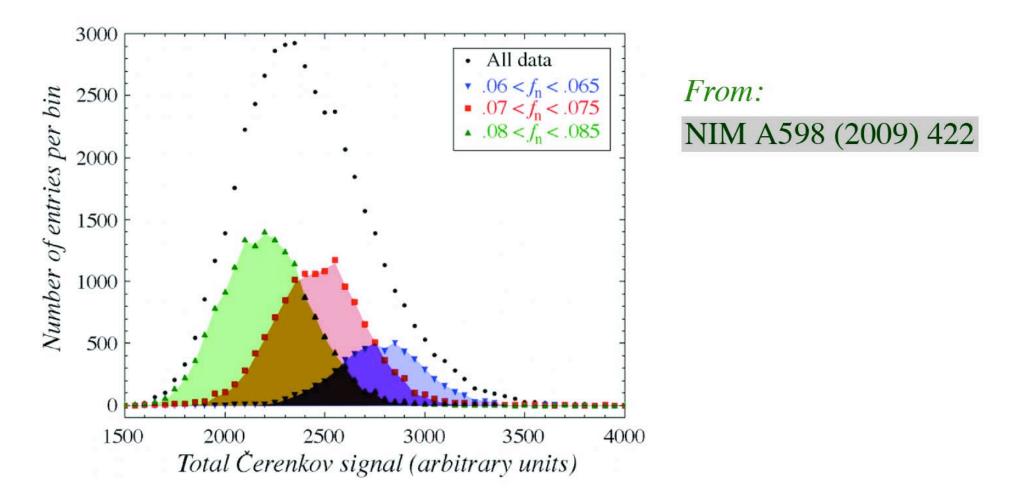


Figure 18: Distribution of the total Čerenkov signal for 200 GeV "jets" and the distributions for three subsets of events selected on the basis of the fractional contribution of neutrons to the scintillator signal.

Particle Flow Analysis

• The basic idea

Combine the information of the tracker and the calorimeter system to determine the jet energy

Momenta of charged jet fragments are determined with the tracker Energies of the neutral jet fragments come from the calorimeter

• This principle has been used successfully to improve the hadronic performance of experiments with poor hadronic calorimetry However, the improvements are fundamentally limited In particular, no one has ever come close to separating W/Z this way

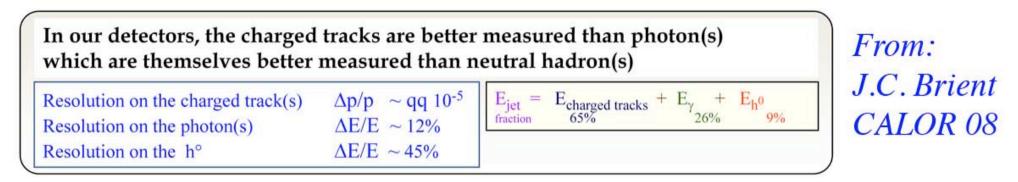
• The problem

The calorimeters do not know that the charged jet fragments have already been measured by the tracker. These fragments are also absorbed in the calorimeter. Confusion: Which part of the calorimeter signals comes from the neutral jet fragments?

• Advocates of this method claim that a fine detector granularity will help solve this problem. Others believe it would only create more confusion. Like with all other issues in calorimetry, this issue has to be settled by means of experiments, NOT by Monte Carlo simulations!!

A critical look at PFA

• The fact that 65% of the jet energy is measured with excellent precision in the tracker is irrelevant



What matters for the jet energy resolution are the fluctuations in this 65%.

In the absence of a calorimeter, one should therefore not expect to be able to measure jet energy resolutions better than 25–30% on the basis of tracker information alone, at any energy. And

From: NIM A495 (2002) 107

A critical look at PFA (2)

• The crucial issue is if one can eliminate the contributions from showering charged hadrons in the calorimeter system, i.e. avoid double counting

All claims in this respect are based on GEANT4 MC simulations, which

- a) have never predicted anything correctly concerning hadron calorimetry
- b) are especially wrong in predicting lateral shower shapes (too narrow)

and since the advocates still don't like the results (tails in distribitions), they

c) resort to phony statistics to make them look better

resolution over-emphasises the importance of these tails. In this paper, performance is quoted in terms of rms₉₀, which is defined as the rms in the smallest range of reconstructed energy which contains 90% of the events.

From: NIM A611 (2009) 25

Even for a perfectly Gaussian distribution, $rms_{90} \ll \sigma_{fit}$

perform the first systematic study of the potential of high granularity PFlow calorimetry. For simulated events in the ILD detector concept, a jet energy resolution of $\sigma_E/E \lesssim 3.8\%$ is achieved for 40–400 GeV jets. This result, which demonstrates that high granularity PFlow calorimetry can meet the challenging

A critical look at PFA (3)

• Testing claims of how well PFA algorithms are capable of avoiding double counting should be straightforward for the CALICE Collaboration, who have pursued this technique experimentally in the last 10 years

A jet is a collection of particles, mainly pions and photons. If one has a data base of beam particles of different energies hitting the calorimeter system at different impact points, one could use these experimental data to construct the energy deposit profile for a given jet in many different ways. For each profile, one could apply one's favorite PFA algorithm to eliminate the contributions from charged hadrons and determine the remaining calorimeter energy, which could then be added to the (precisely known)

Example: Jet response function CMS 160 140 Vumber of events per bin 120 20 80 100 Calorimeter signal (GeV)

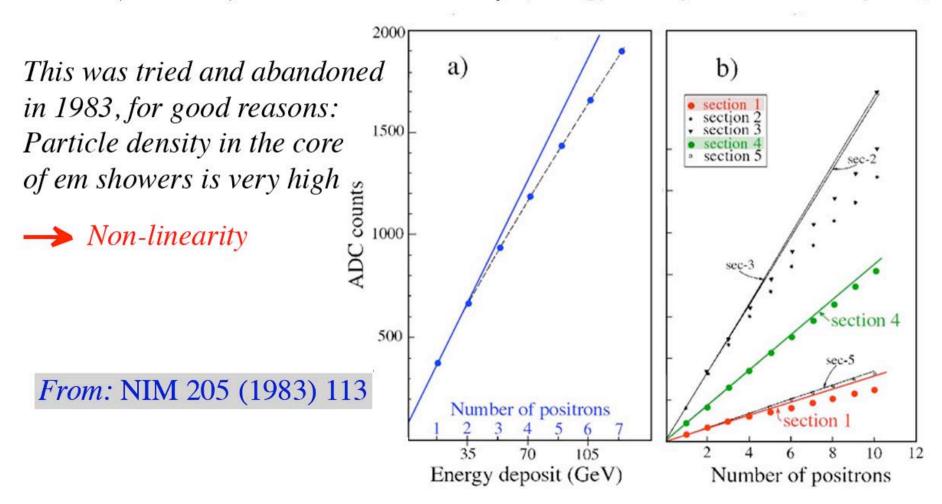
energy of the charged hadrons to give the jet energy -> Jet response function

A critical look at PFA (4)

• Proposed PFA systems consist of millions of readout channels (fine granularity!)

Question: How does one want to calibrate these calorimeters? (cf. problems discussed earlier)

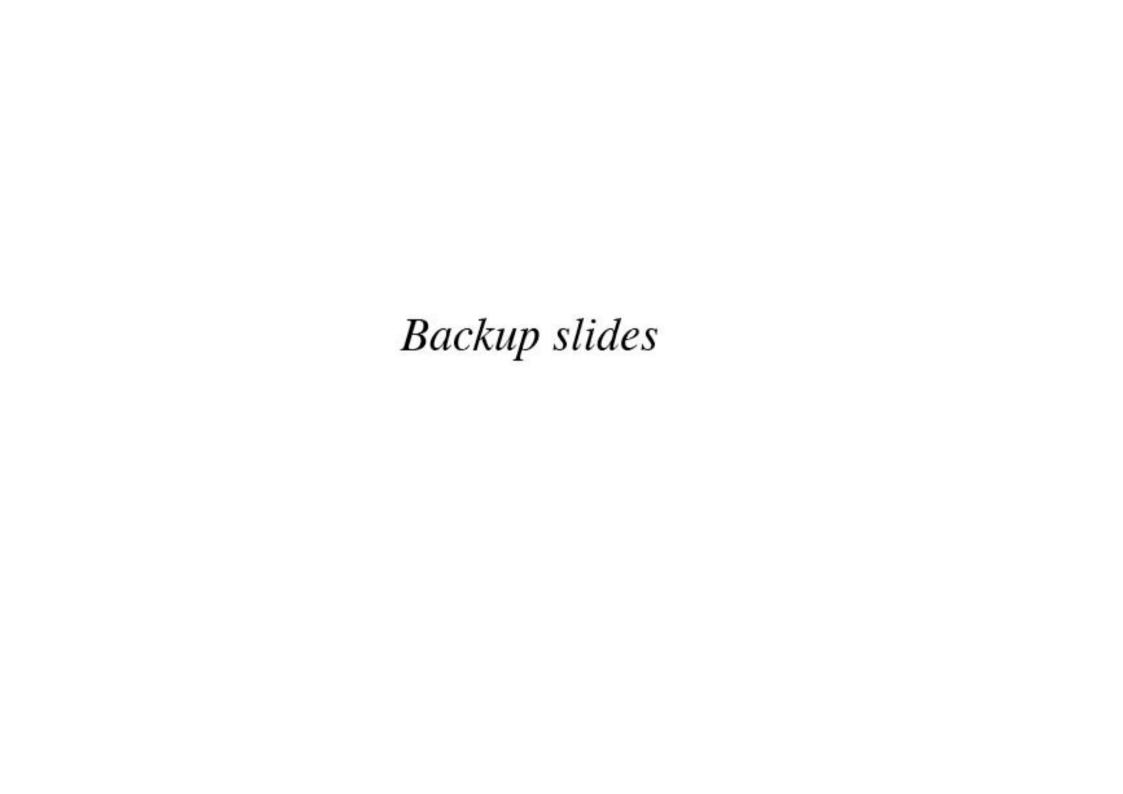
Answer (CALICE): DIGITAL calorimetry (energy ♥ # of channels that fired)



Conclusions

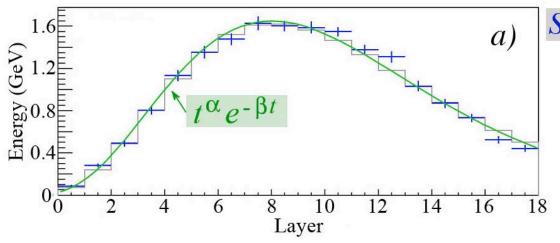
- In the past 30 years, calorimeters have become the heart and soul of almost any experiment in particle physics, for good reasons
- Electromagnetic calorimeters have become precision tools, in stark contrast with hadron calorimeters
- The quality of hadron calorimeters has decreased in the last 20 years, partly because of the lack of meaningful MC simulations.
- In longitudinally segmented calorimeters, the problem of the jet energy scale may be fundamentally unsolvable, especially when different segments have (very) different e/h values

 In general: Longitudinal segmentation = asking for (calibration) trouble
- In calorimeters, more information does not necessarily lead to better results, but instead to more confusion (cf. thermal calorimeters)
- There are major advantages in a calorimeter that has the same response (signal/GeV) to all particles, regardless their nature or energy, such as the one DREAM is developing



Calibration misery of longitudinally segmented devices

Example: AMS (em showers!)



Source: NIM A490 (2002) 132

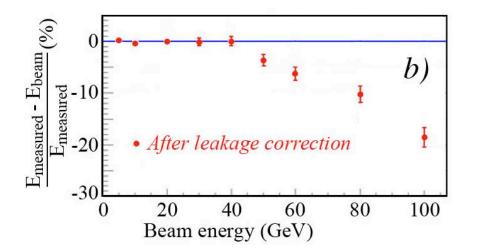
Pb/scintillating fiber (18 layers)
Calibrated with mip's:
11.7 MeV/layer

Leakage estimated from fit to measured shower profile

However:

In em shower, signal per GeV decreases as shower develops

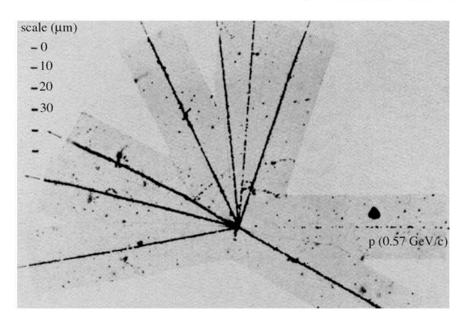
(leakage) energy based on measured signals underestimates reality



Required very elaborate MC simulations to solve, since effects depend on energy and direction incoming particle

Avoid repeating mistakes from the past

• Don't place readout elements that produce HUGE signals for one particular type of shower particle in the path of the developing shower ("Texas tower" effect)

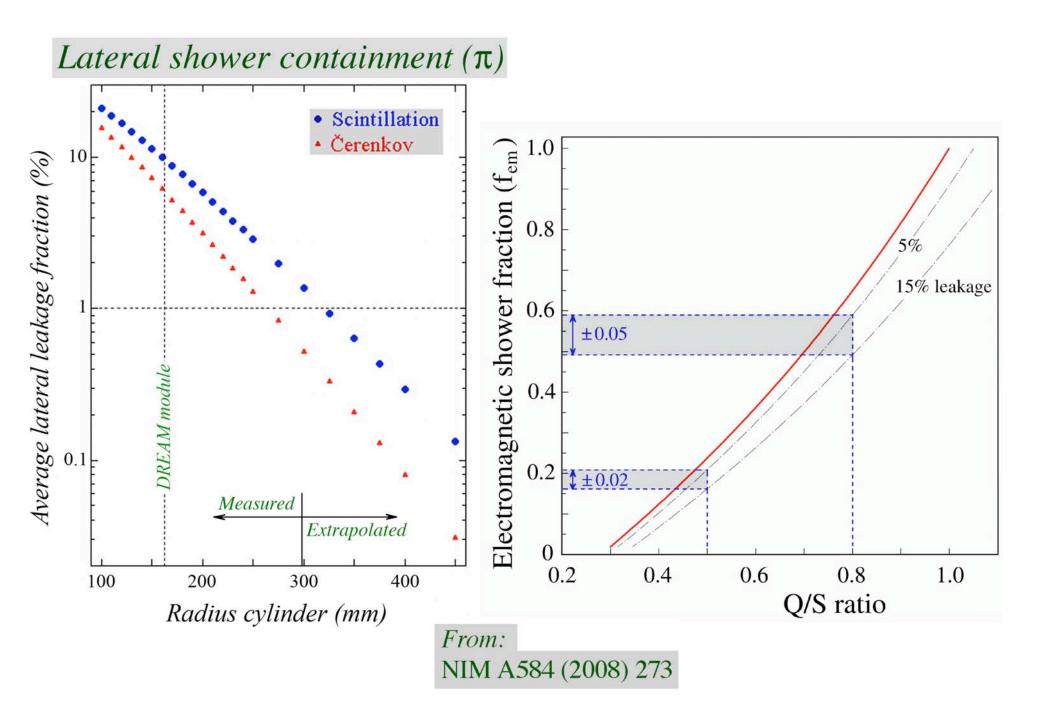


Charged nuclear fragments may be 100 - 1000 times minimum ionizing. When traversing an APD, they may create a signal 100,000 times larger than that from a scintillation photon.

Example: In CMS ECAL, such events may fake energy deposits of tens of GeV.

• "Digital" calorimetry was tried and abandoned for good reasons (1983)

DREAM: The importance of leakage and its fluctuations



Neutron information can be used to improve the response function and the energy resolution

From: NIM A598 (2009) 422

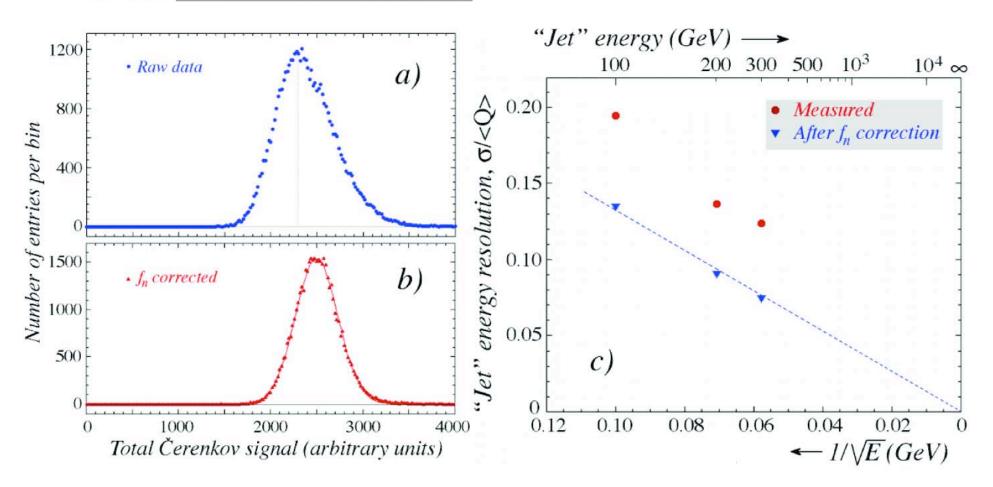


Figure 19: Distribution of the total Čerenkov signal for 200 GeV "jets" before (a) and after (b) applying the correction based on the measured value of f_n , described in the text. Relative width of the Čerenkov signal distribution for "jets" as a function of energy, before and after a correction that was applied on the basis of the relative contribution of neutrons to the scintillator signals (c).