INSTRUMENTATION &

ETECTOR

HIGHENERGY PLYSICS

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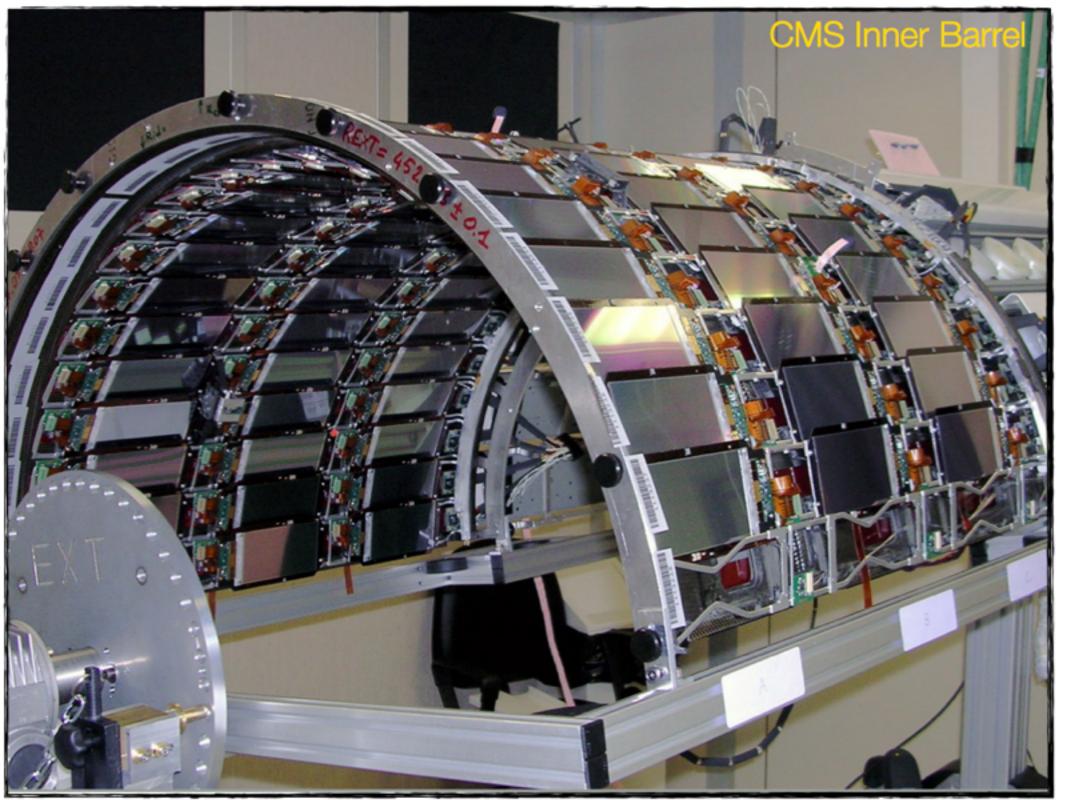
DETECTOR: LECTURE III QUIZZ

Gas vs solid state ionisation detector ?

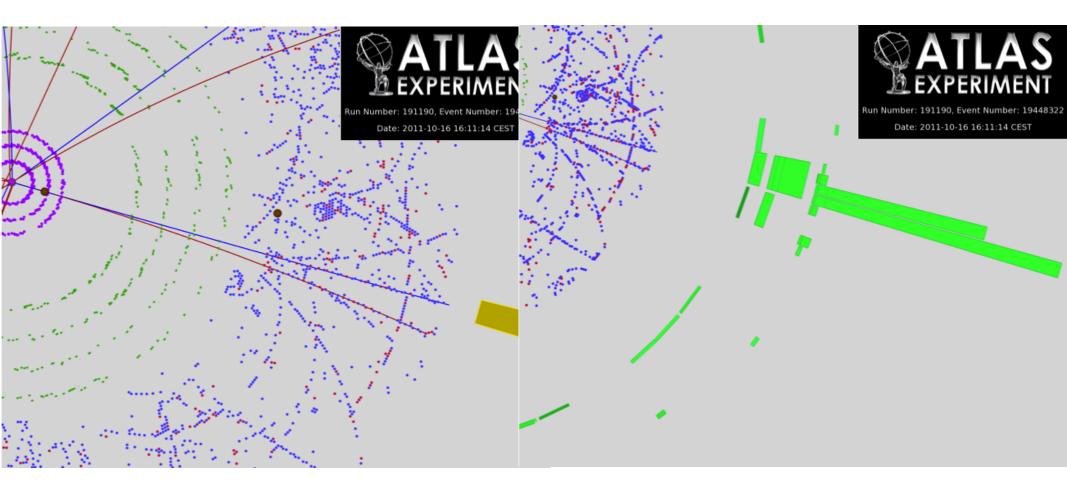
Typical size of a cell in a silicium detector

Why do experimentalists like small cell size ?

What is the consequence of small cell size ?

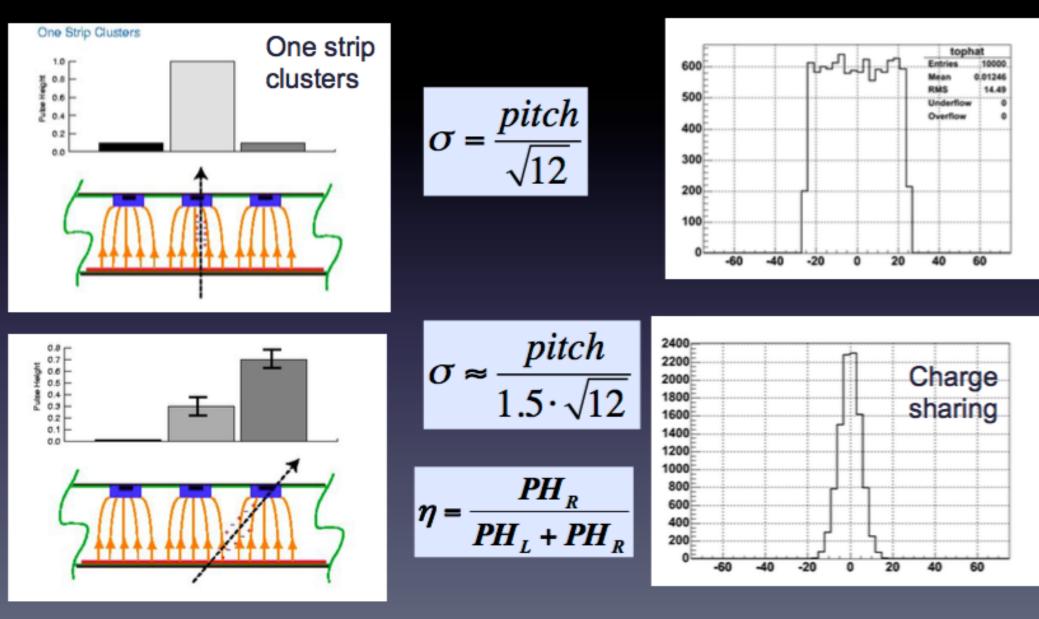


PHOTON CONVERSION



CHARGE SHARING

Resolution is the spread of the reconstructed position minus the true position

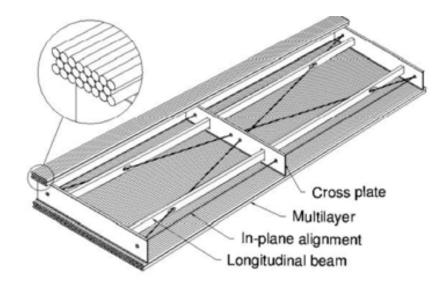


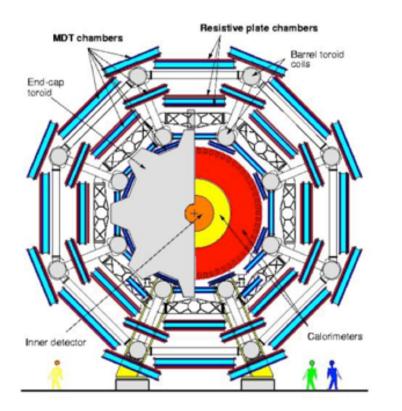
D. Bortoletto Lecture 4

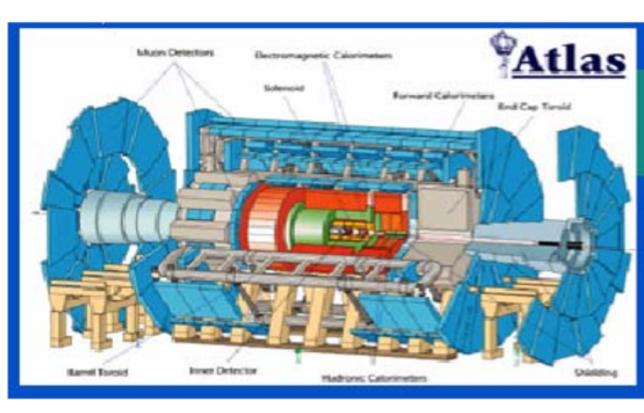
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ATLAS MUON SYSTEM

Atlas Muon Spectrometer, 44m long, from r=5 to11m. 1200 Chambers 6 layers of 3cm tubes per chamber. Length of the chambers 1-6m ! Position resolution: 80μm/tube, <50μm/chamber (3 bar) Maximum drift time ≈700ns Gas Ar/CO₂ 93/7







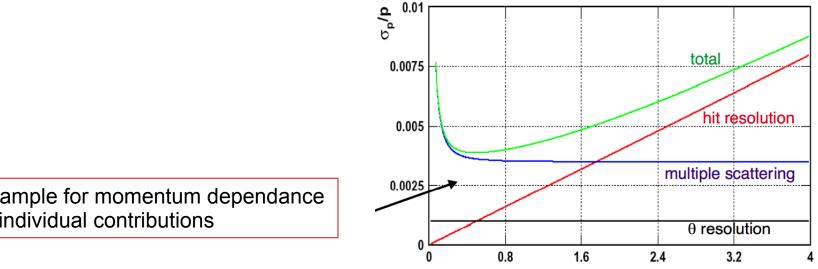
MOMENTUM RESOLUTION

The contribution to the momentum error from MS is given by

$$\frac{\sigma(p_T)}{p_T}\Big|_{MS} = \frac{\sigma^{MS}(s)}{s} = \frac{\frac{L'}{\sqrt{3}} \frac{13.6 \times 10^{-3}}{p\beta} z \sqrt{\frac{L'}{X_0}}}{0.3BL^2 z/(8p_T)} = \frac{0.2}{\beta B \sqrt{LX_0 \sin\theta}} \quad \text{with} \quad \begin{array}{l} L' = L/\sin\theta \\ p_T = p\sin\theta \\ p_T = p\sin\theta \end{array}$$
For $\beta \rightarrow 1$ this part is momentum independent.

The combined total momentum error is:

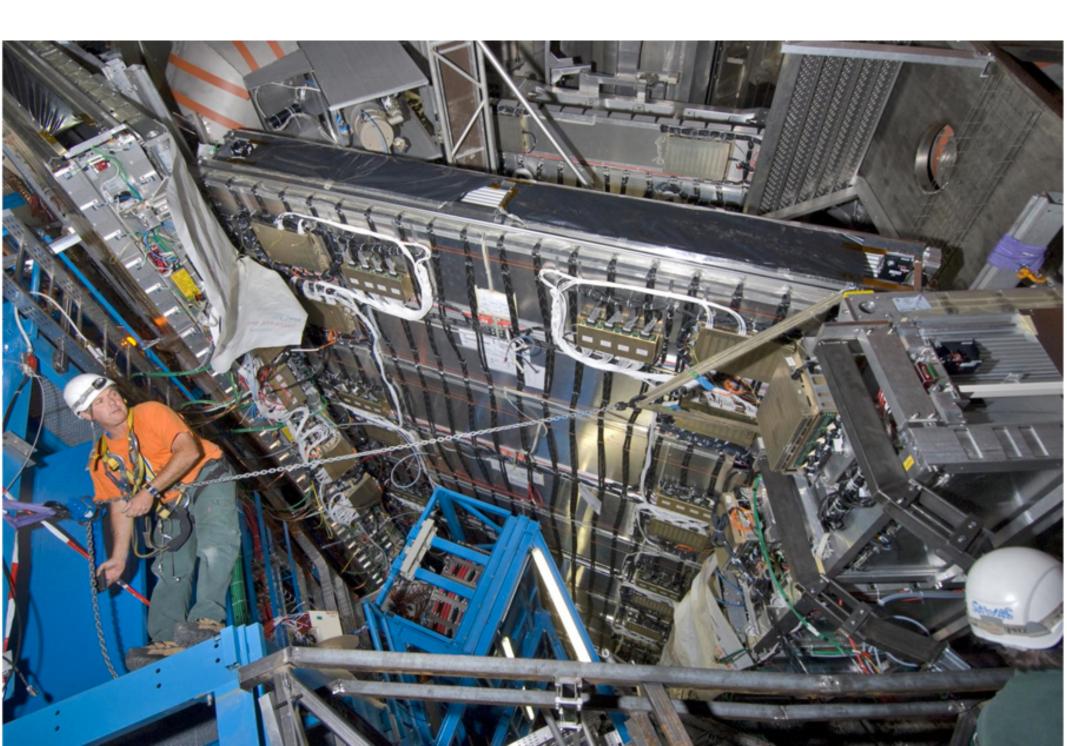
$$\left(\frac{\sigma_p}{p}\right)^2 = \left(\sqrt{\frac{720}{N+4}}\frac{\sigma_x p \sin\theta}{0.3BL^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{0.2}{\beta B \sqrt{LX_0 \sin\theta}}\right)^2$$



p (GeV/c)

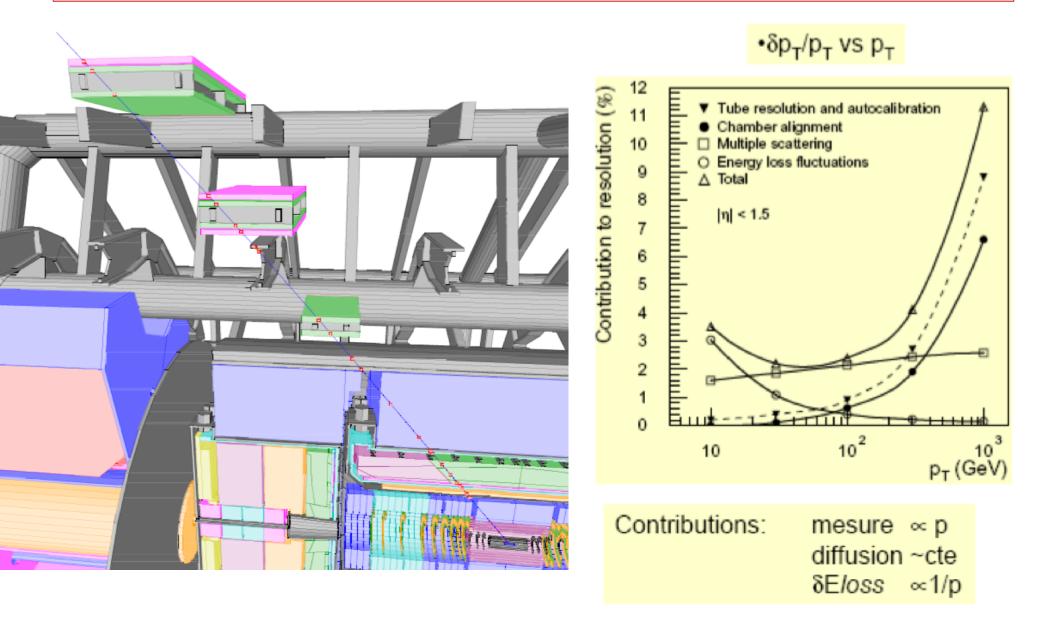
Example for momentum dependance of individual contributions

ATLAS RPC



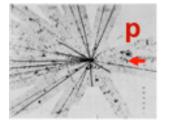
MUON MOMENTUM RESOLUTION

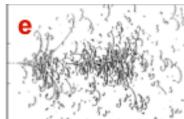
COMBINE Measurement from the tracker and the muon chambers

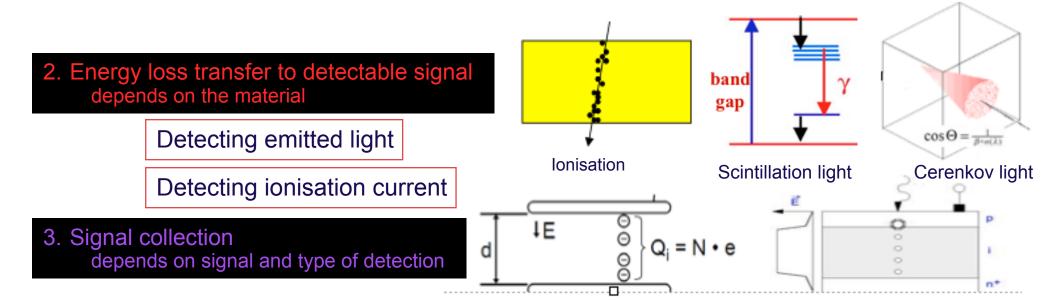


FROM INTERACTIONS to DETECTOR

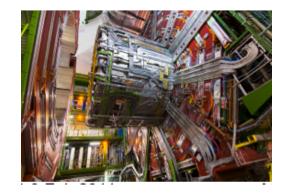
1. Particles interact with matter depends on particle and material

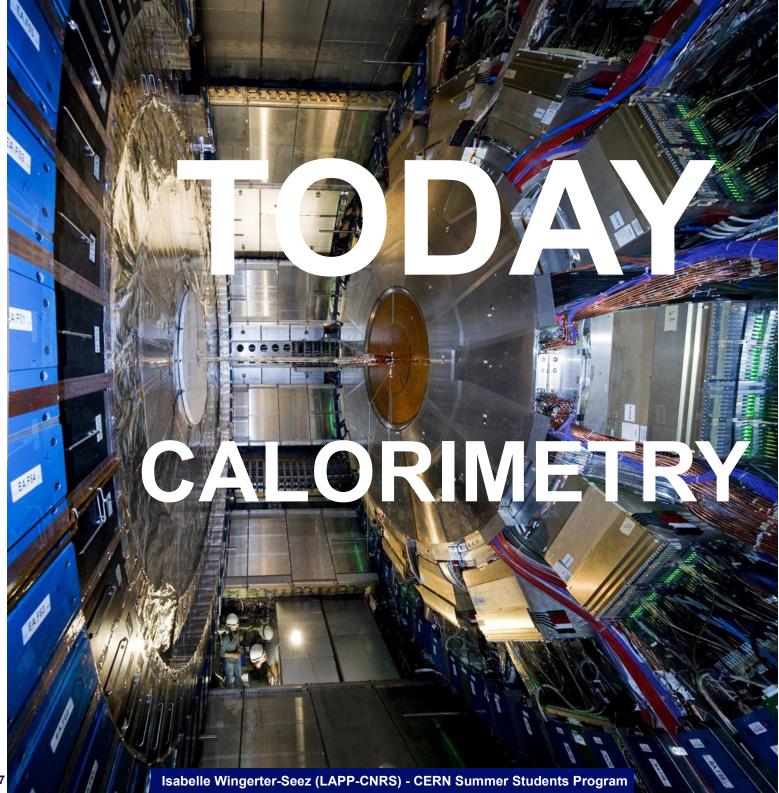




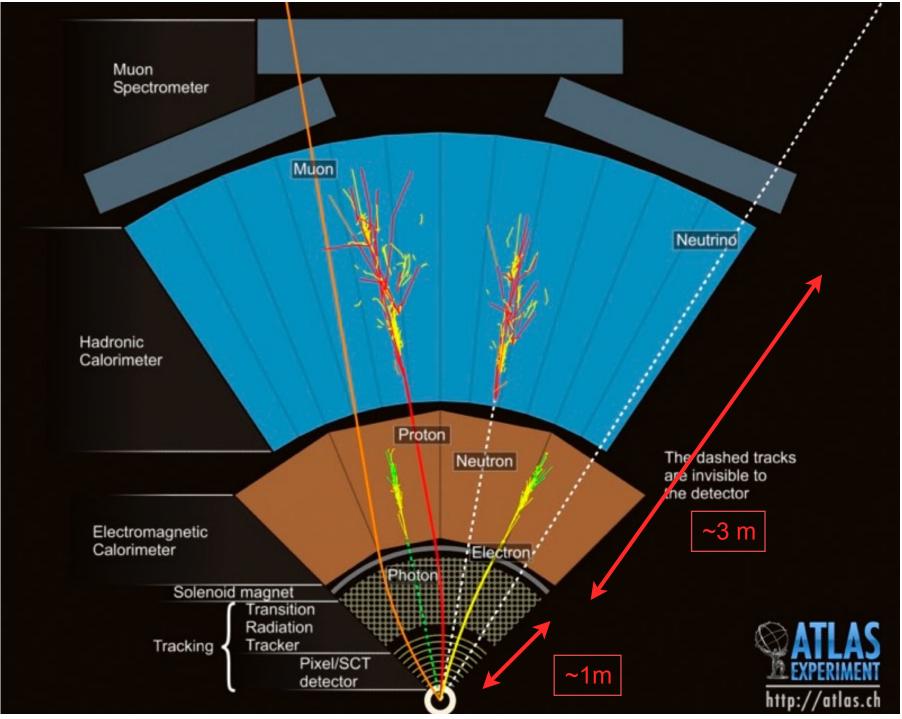


4. BUILD a SYSTEM depends on physics, experimental conditions,....





CALORIMETERS



CALORIMETER

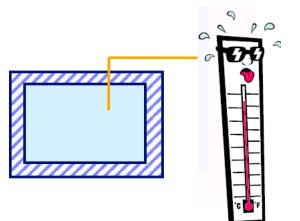
Concept comes from thermo-dynamics: A leak-proof closed box containing a substance which temperature is to be measured.

Temperature scale:

1 calorie (4.185J) is the necessary energy to increase the temperature of 1 g of water at 15°C by one degree

At hadron colliders we measure GeV (0.1 - 1000) $1 \text{ GeV} = 10^9 \text{ eV} \approx 10^9 * 10^{-19} \text{J} = 10^{-10} \text{ J} = 2.4 \ 10^{-9} \text{ cal}$ 1 TeV = 1000 GeV : kinetic energy of a flying mosquito

> Required sensitivity for our calorimeters is ~ a thousand million time larger than to measure the increase of temperature by 1°C of 1 g of water



WHY CALORIMETERS ?

First calorimeters appeared in the 70's: need to measure the energy of all particles, charged and neutral.

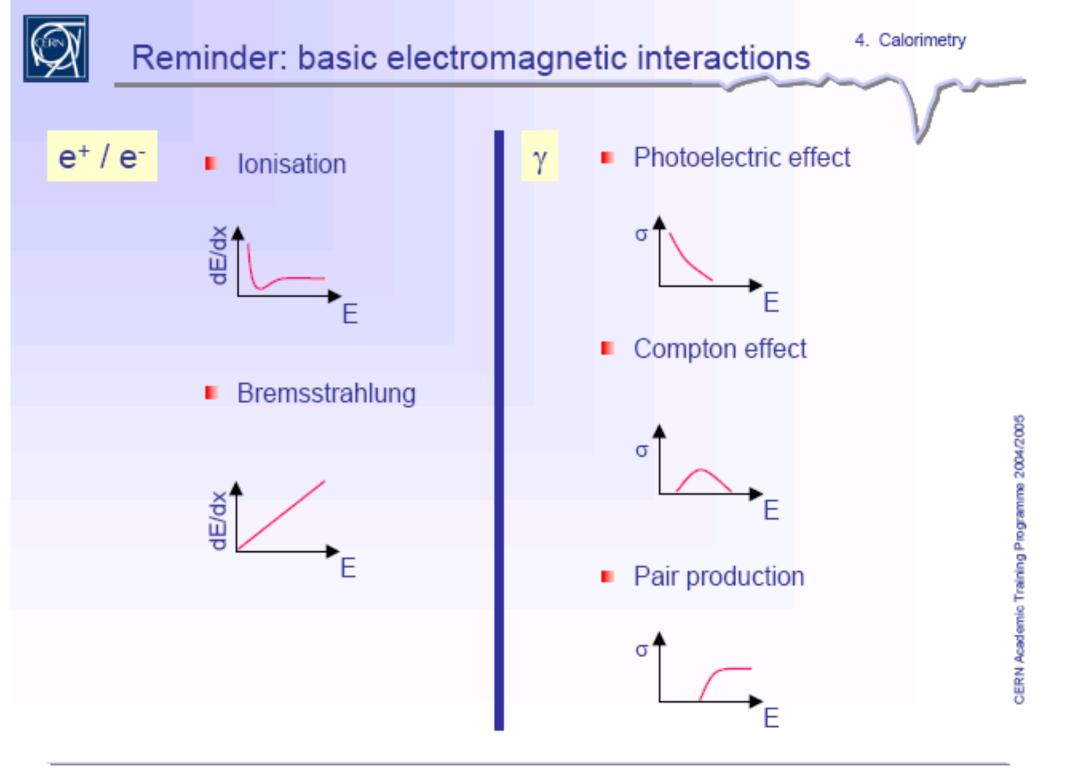
Until then, only the momentum of charged particles was measured using magnetic analysis.

The measurement with a calorimeter is destructive e.g.

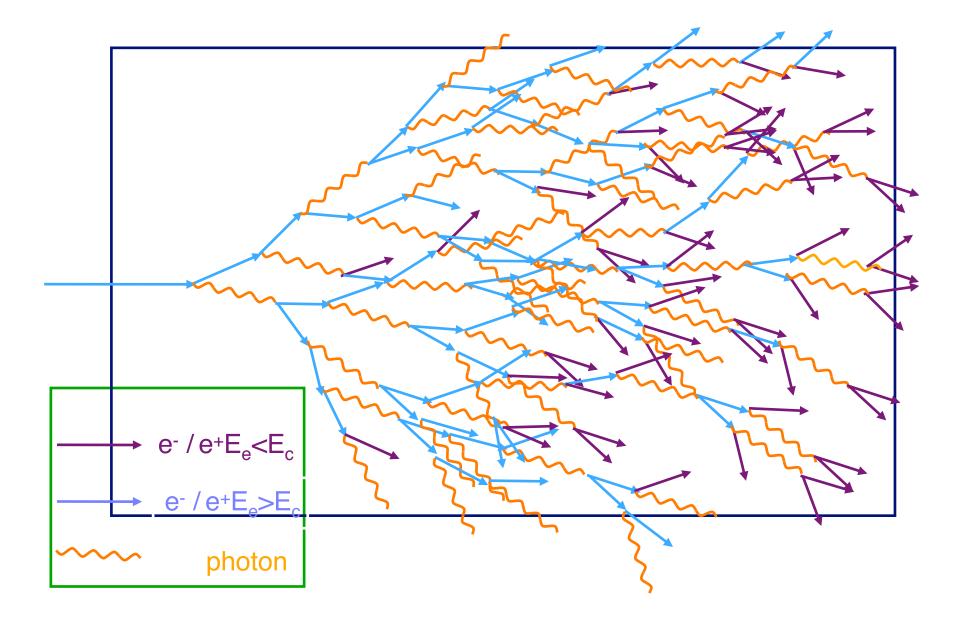
Magnetic
analysis
$$\frac{\sigma(p)}{p} = ap \oplus b$$
$$\int_{D} \int_{D} \int$$

$$\pi^- + p \rightarrow \pi^0 + n$$

Particles (but μ and ν) do not come out alive of a calorimeter



ELECTROMAGNETIC SHOWER



ELECTROMAGNETIC SHOWER DEVELOPMENT

The shower develops as a cascade by energy transfer from the incident particle to a multitude of particles (e^{\pm} and γ).

The number of cascade particles is proportional to the energy deposited by the incident particle

The role of the calorimeter is to **count** these cascade particles

The relative occurrence of the various processes briefly described is a function of the material (Z)

The radiation length (X_0) allows to universally describe the shower development

CRITICAL ENERGY

Critical energy:

 $\left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{\rm Tot} = \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{\rm Ion} + \left(\frac{dE}{dx}\right)_{\rm Brems}$ $\left. rac{dE}{dx}(E_c)
ight|_{
m Brems} = \left. rac{dE}{dx}(E_c)
ight|_{
m Brems}$ 200 Copper $X_0 = 12.86 \text{ g cm}^{-2}$ $E_c = 19.63 \text{ MeV}$ Approximation: 100 $dE/dx \times X_0$ (MeV) 70 Etact Drennistrat $E_c^{\rm Gas} = \frac{710 \text{ MeV}}{Z + 0.92}$ Rossi: 50 Ionization per X_0 Stolle" 40 = electron energy 30 $E_c^{\rm Sol/Liq} = \frac{610 \text{ MeV}}{Z+1.24}$ Ionization 20 Brems = ionization Example Copper: 10 20 2 100 200 5 10 50 $E_c \approx 610/30 \text{ MeV} \approx 20 \text{ MeV}$ Electron energy (MeV)

EM SHOWER DEVELOPMENT: SIMPLE MODEL

The multiplication of the shower continues until the energies fall below the critical energy, E_{c}

A simple model of the shower uses variables scaled to X_0 and E_c

$$t = \frac{x}{X_0}, y = \frac{E}{E_c}$$

Electrons loose about 2/3 of their energy in $1X_0$, and the

photons have a probability of 7/9 for conversion: $X_0 \sim$ generation length

After distance t:

number of particles, $n(t) = 2^t$ en

$$E(t) \approx \frac{E}{2^t}$$

When $E \sim E_c$ shower maximum:

$$n(t_{\max}) \approx \frac{E}{E_c} = y$$
$$t_{\max} \approx \ln\left(\frac{E}{E_c}\right) = \ln y$$

EM LONGITUDINAL DEVELOPMENT

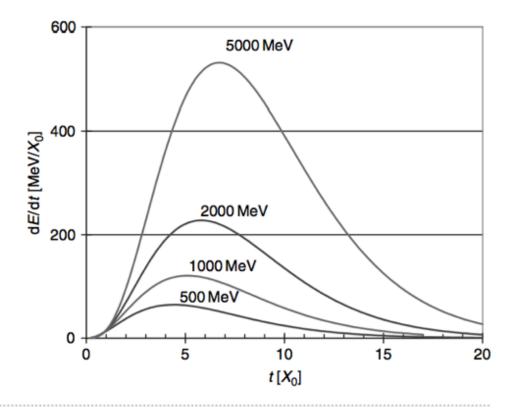
Longitudinal profile

Parametrization: [Longo 1975]

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = E_0 \ t^{\alpha} e^{-\beta t}$$

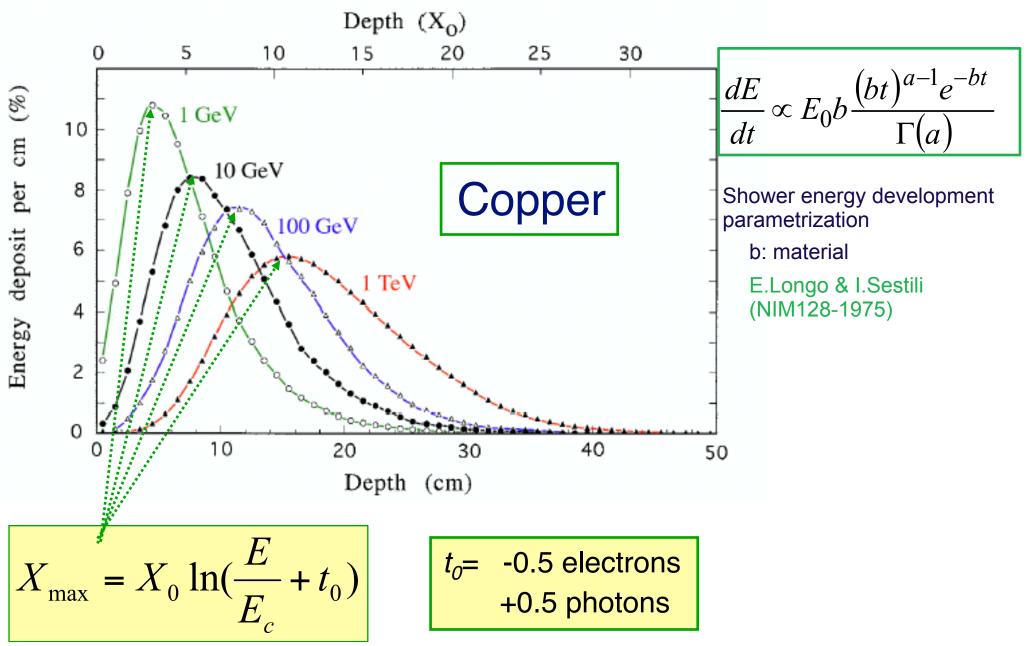
- α,β : free parameters
- t^α : at small depth number of secondaries increases ...
- $e^{-\beta t}$: at larger depth absorption dominates ...

Numbers for E = 2 GeV (approximate): α = 2, β = 0.5, $t_{max} = \alpha/\beta$

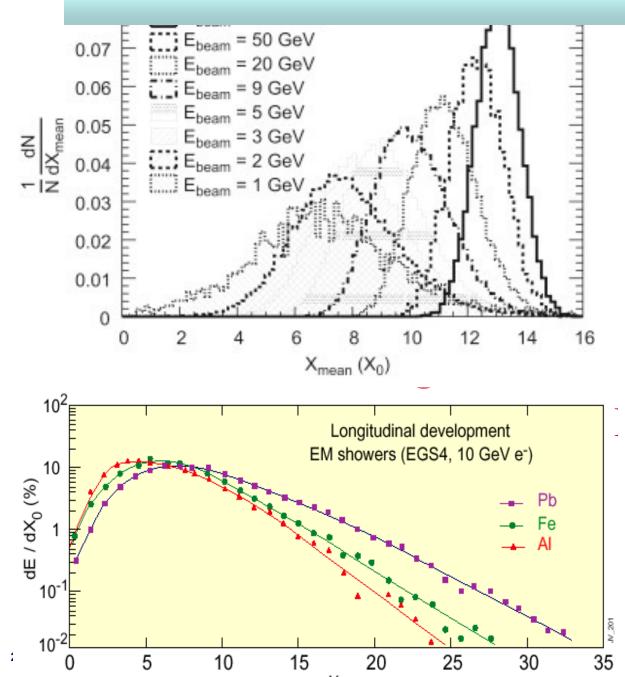


More exact [Longo 1985]

EM SHOWERS LONGITUDINAL DEVELOPMENT



EM SHOWERS LONGITUDINAL DEVELOPMENT



ATLAS combined testbeam 2004 setup

Electrons shower mean depth in X_0 (MC) 1,2,3,5,9,20,50, 100 GeV



SEARCH FOR DECAYS OF THE Z⁰ INTO A PHOTON AND A PSEUDOSCALAR MESON

ALEPH Collaboration

D. DECAMP, B. DESCHIZEAUX, C. GOY, J.-P. LEES, M.-N. MINARD

Laboratoire de Physique des Particules (LAPP), IN2P3-CNRS, F-74019 Annecy-le-Vieux Cedex, France

Measurement made by ALEPH $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^$ $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$

Electron/Photon longitudinal development: different

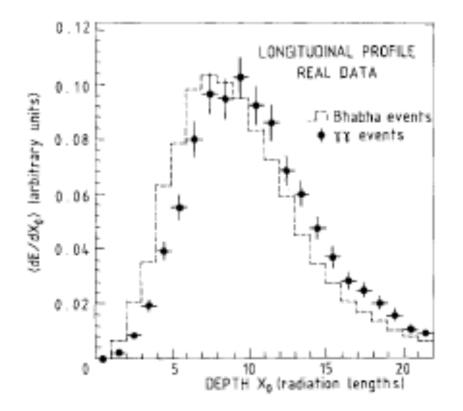


Fig. 1. Longitudinal profile of electromagnetic showers, both for electrons from $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-$ and for the $\gamma\gamma$ candidates. Both samples are real data. There is a clear shift by about 1 radiation length of the photon showers with respect to electron showers, as expected.

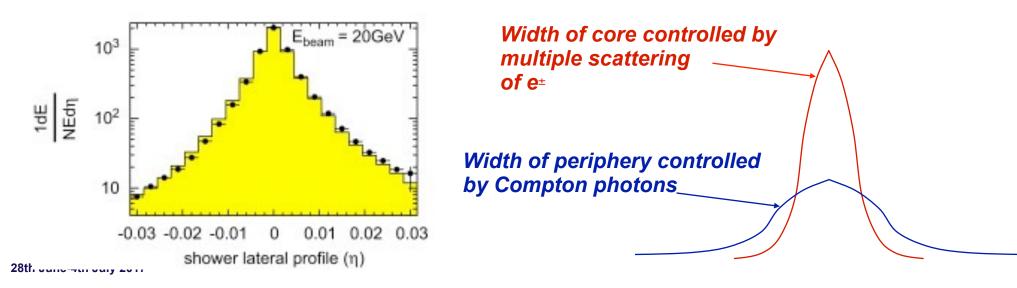
EM shower lateral development

Molière radius, R_m, scaling factor for lateral extent, defined by:

$$R_{M} = \frac{21MeV \times X_{0}}{E_{c}} \approx \frac{7A}{Z}g \times cm^{-2}$$

Gives the average lateral deflection of electrons of critical energy after 1X₀

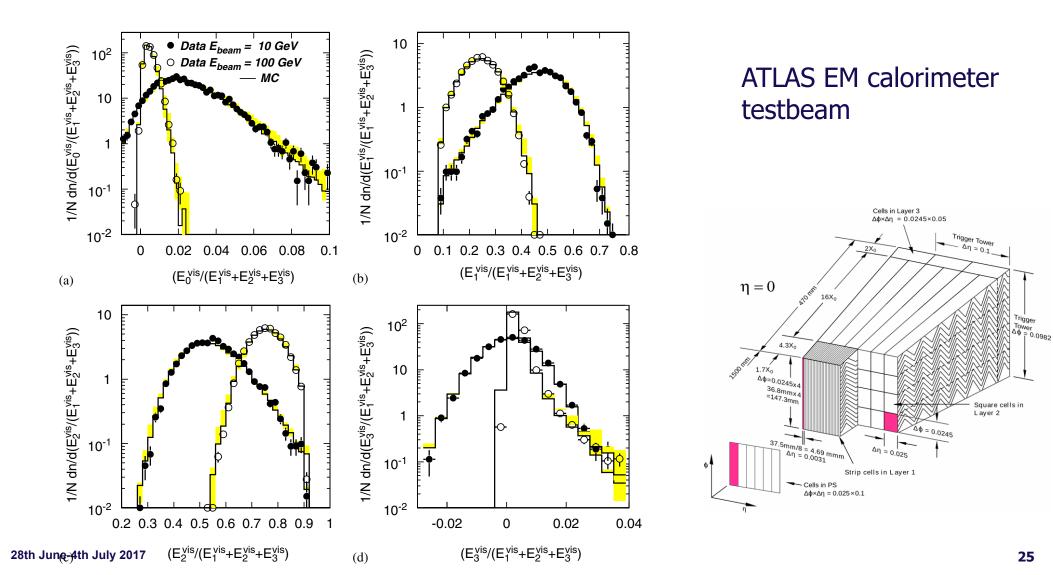
- 90% of shower energy contained in a cylinder of 1R_m
- 95% of shower energy contained in a cylinder of 2R_m
- 99% of shower energy contained in a cylinder of 3.5R_m



EM shower simulations

Electromagnetic processes are well understood and can be very well reproduced by MC simulation:

A key element in understanding detector performance



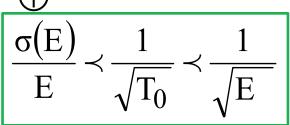
PROPERTIES of ELECTROMAGNETIC CALORIMETERS

		Density	Ec	X_0	$ ho_{M}$	λ_{int}	(dE/dx) _{mip}
Material	Z	[g cm]	[MeV]	[mm]	[mm]	[mm]	$[MeV cm^{-1}]$
С	6	2.27	83	188	48	381	3.95
Al	13	2.70	43	89	44	390	4.36
Fe	26	7.87	22	17.6	16.9	168	11.4
Cu	29	8.96	20	14.3	15.2	151	12.6
Sn	50	7.31	12	12.1	21.6	223	9.24
W	74	19.3	8.0	3.5	9.3	96	22.1
Pb	82	11.3	7.4	5.6	16.0	170	12.7
²³⁸ U	92	18.95	6.8	3.2	10.0	105	20.5
Concrete	-	2.5	55	107	41	400	4.28
Glass	-	2.23	51	127	53	438	3.78
Marble	-	2.93	56	96	36	362	4.77
Si	14	2.33	41	93.6	48	455	3.88
Ge	32	5.32	17	23	29	264	7.29
Ar (liquid)	18	1.40	37	140	80	837	2.13
Kr (liquid)	36	2.41	18	47	55	607	3.23
Polystyrene	-	1.032	94	424	96	795	2.00
Plexiglas	-	1.18	86	344	85	708	2.28
Quartz	-	2.32	51	117	49	428	3.94
Lead-glass	-	4.06	15	25.1	35	330	5.45
Air 20°, 1 atm	-	0.0012	87	304 m	74 m	747 m	0.0022
Water	-	1.00	83	361	92	849	1.99

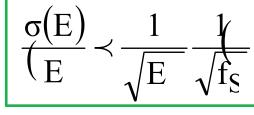
TOWARDS ELEC

Detectable signal is proportional to the number of potentially detectable particles in the shower $N_{tot} \prec E_0/E_c$

Total track length $T_0 = N_{tot} \cdot X_0 \sim E_0/E_c \cdot X_0$



Detectable track length $T_r = f_s$. T_0 where f_s is the fraction of N_{tot} which can be detected by the involved detection process (Cerenkov light, scintillation light, ionization) $E_{kin} > E_{th}$



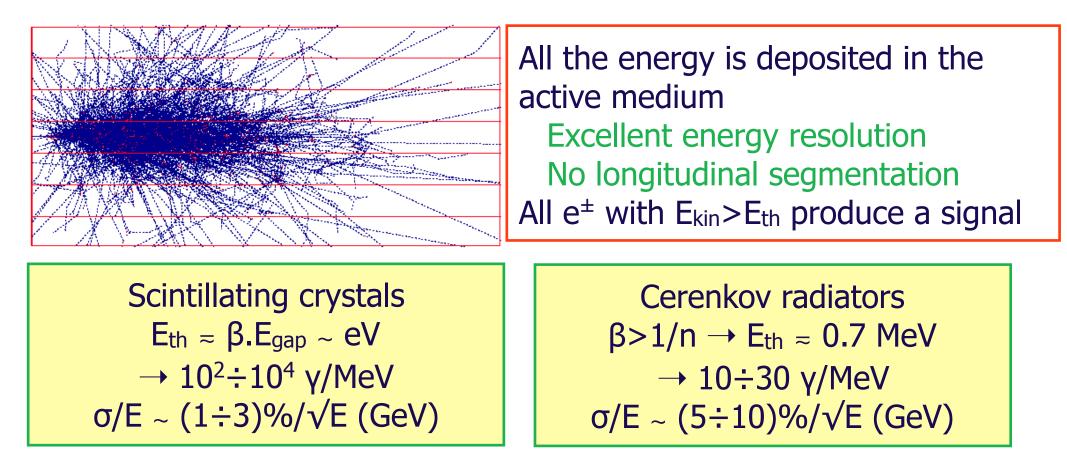
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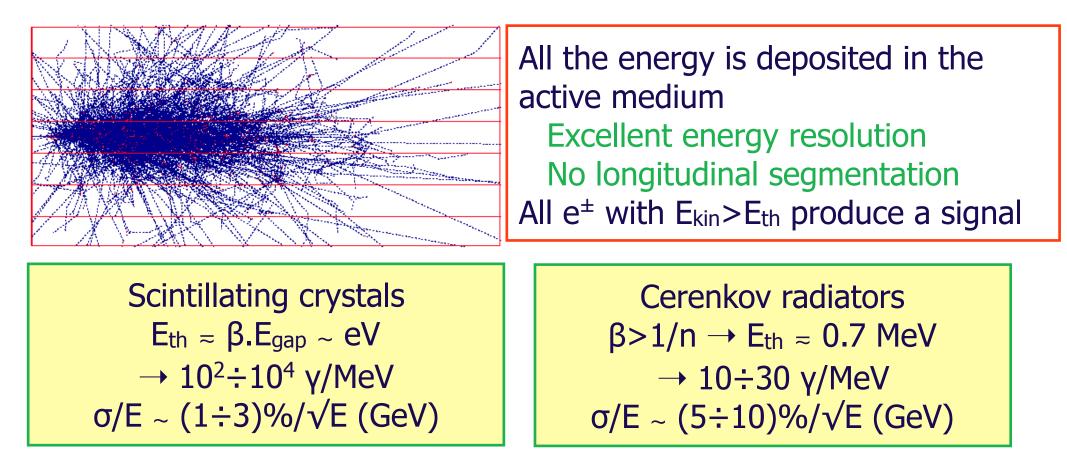
Converting back to materials (X₀ \prec A/Z², E_c \prec 1/Z) and fixing E

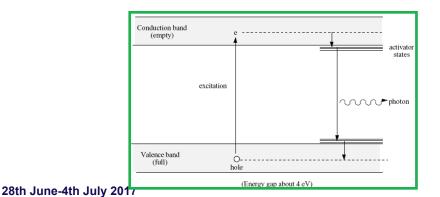
Maximize detection f_s Minimize Z/A

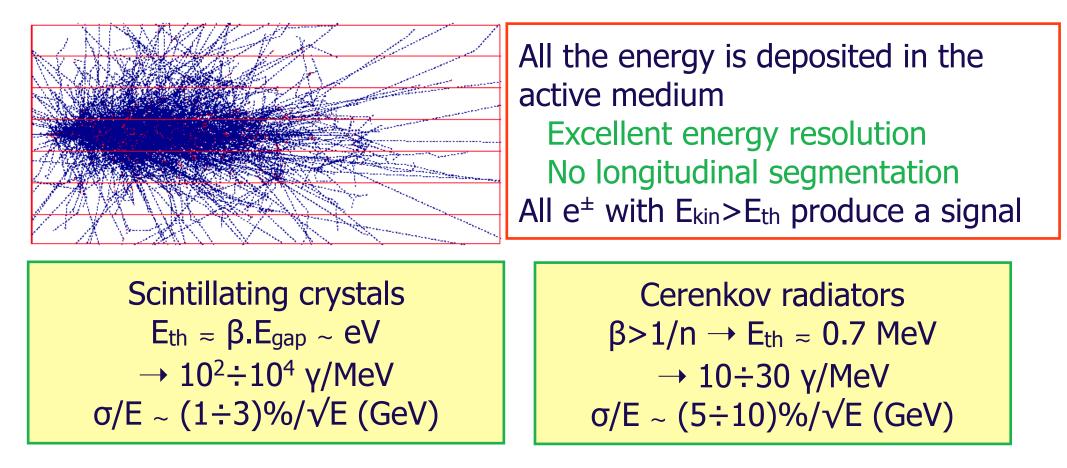
 $\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} \propto -$

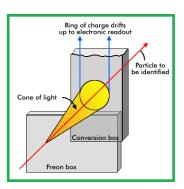
$$\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{f_s}} \sqrt{\frac{E_c}{X_0}} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{f_s}} \sqrt{\frac{Z}{A}}$$

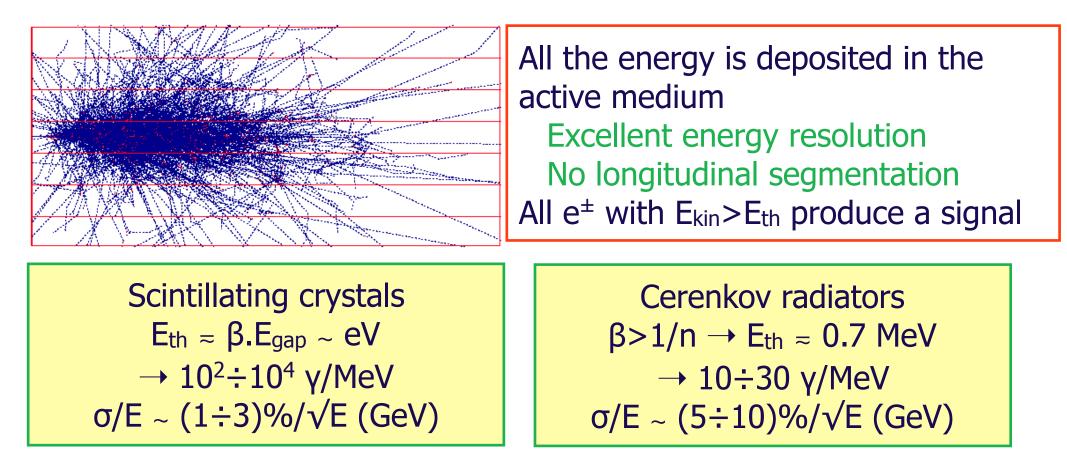










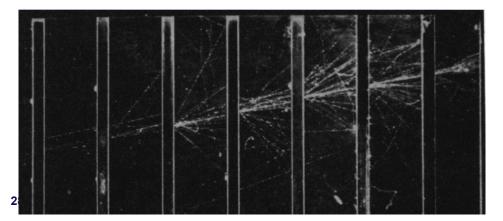


SAMPLING CALORIMETERS



Absorber (high Z): typically Lead, Uranium Active medium (low Z): typically Scinillators, Liquid Argon, Wire chamber

Energy resolution of sampling calorimeter dominated by fluctuations in energy deposited in the active layers



 $\sigma(E)/E \sim (10 \div 20)\%/\sqrt{E} (GeV)$

SAMPLING FLUCTUATIONS d/2

Most of detectable particles are produced in the absorber layers

Need to enter the active material to be counted/measured

Using the model of the track length

$$T_r$$
 = $f_s T_0 \sim f_s$.
 E/E_c^{abs} .
 X_0^{abs}

fs: sampling fraction

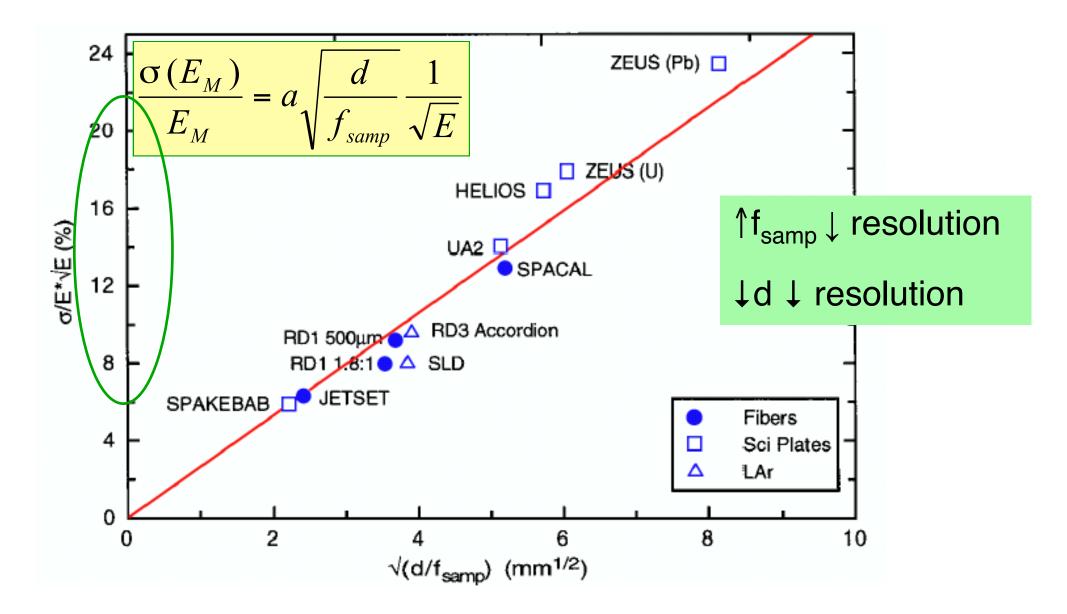
Number of detectable particles in active layer

 $N_r = T_r/d = f_s \cdot E/E_c^{abs} \cdot X_0^{abs}/d$

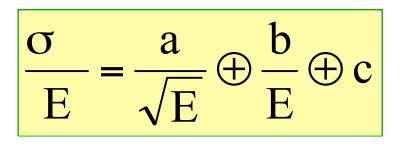
Resolution scales like

$$\frac{\sigma(E_M)}{E_M} = a \sqrt{\frac{d}{f_{samp}}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{E}}$$

RESOLUTION FOR SAMPLING CALORIMETERS



ENERGY RESOLUTION



- a the stochastic term accounts for Poisson-like fluctuations
 - naturally small for homogeneous calorimeters
 - takes into account sampling fluctuations for sampling calorimeters

b the noise term (hits at low energy)

- mainly the energy equivalent of the electronics noise
- at LHC in particular: includes fluctuation from non primary interaction (pile-up noise)
- c the constant term (hits at high energy)
 - Essentially detector non homogeneities like intrinsic geometry, calibration but also energy leakage

EXAMPLE

Take a Lead Glass crystal E_c = 15 MeV produces Cerenkov light Cerenkov radiation is produced par e[±] with β > 1/n, i.e E > 0.7MeV

Take a 1 GeV electron At maximum 1000 MeV/0.7 MeV e[±] will produce light Fluctuation $1/\sqrt{1400} = 3\%$

One then has to take into account the photon detection efficiency which is typically 1000 photo-electrons/GeV: $1/\sqrt{1000} \sim 3\%$

Final resolution $\sigma/E \sim 5\%/\sqrt{E}$

CMS crystals: PbWO₄

Excellent energy resolution

- $X_0 = 0.89$ compact calorimeter (23cm for 26 X_0)
- $R_{M} = 2.2 \text{ cm} \rightarrow \text{compact shower development}$

Fast light emission (80% in less than 15 ns) Radiation hard (10⁵Gy)

But

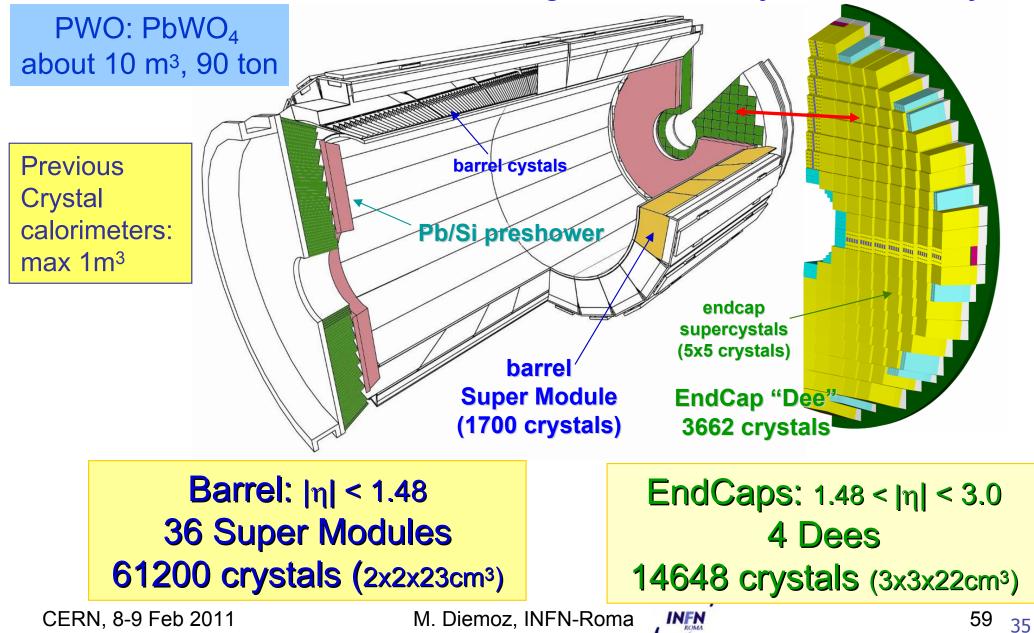
Low light yield (150 γ /MeV)

Response varies with dose

Response temperature dependance

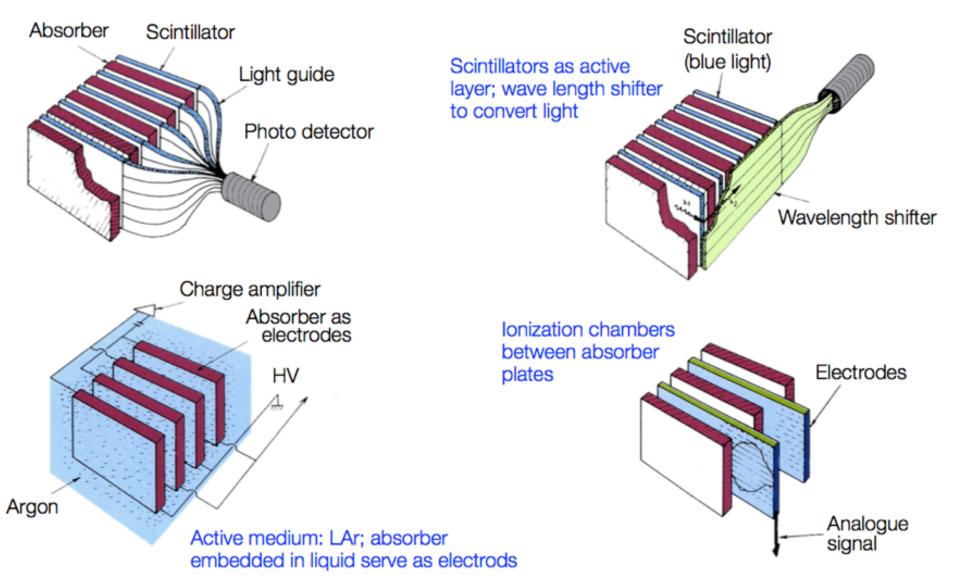
ECAL @ CMS

Precision electromagnetic calorimetry: 75848 PWO crystals



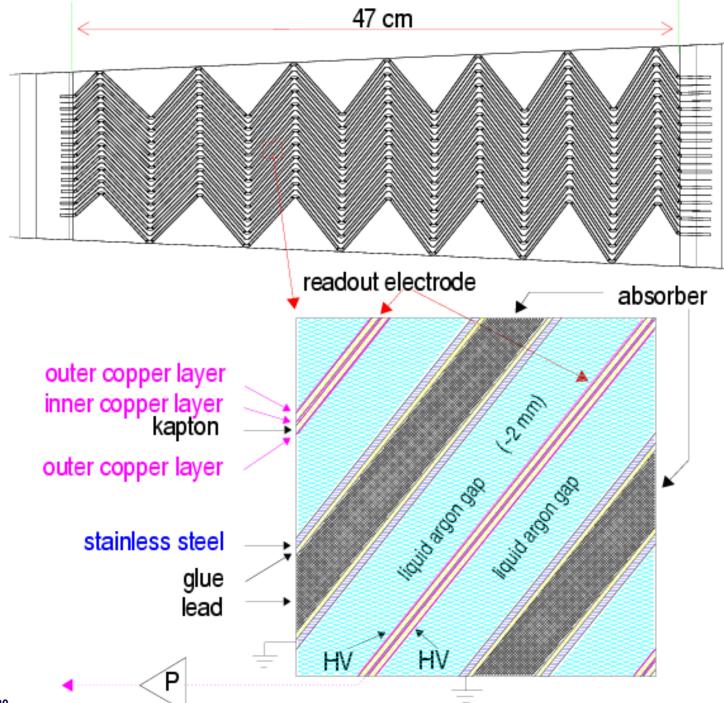
SAMPLING CALORIMETER

Scintillators as active layer; signal readout via photo multipliers

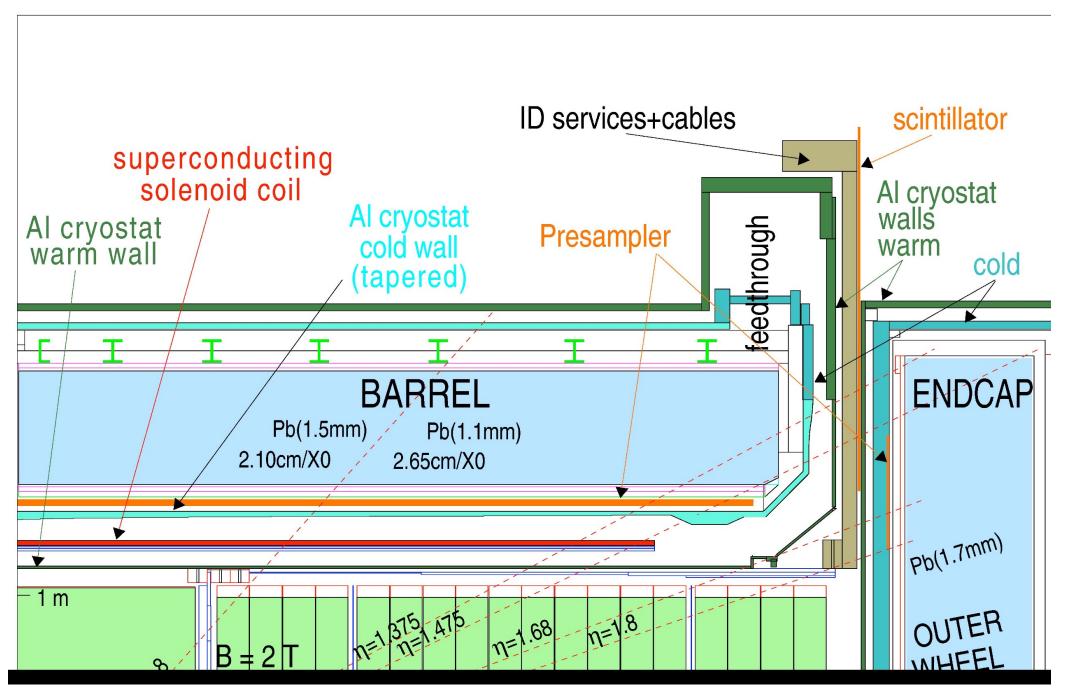


Possible setups

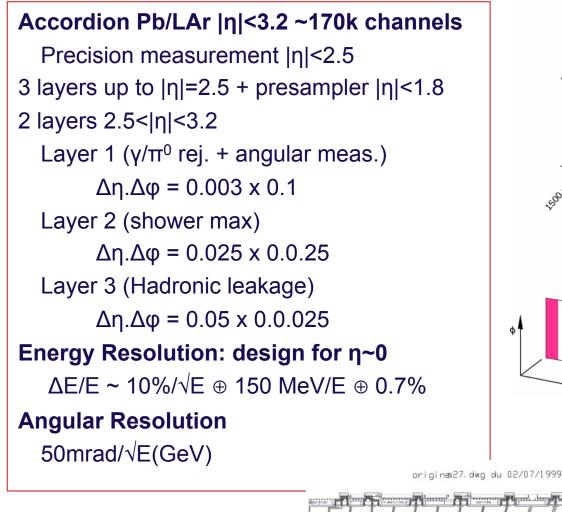
ATLAS LIQUID ARGON EM CALORIMETER

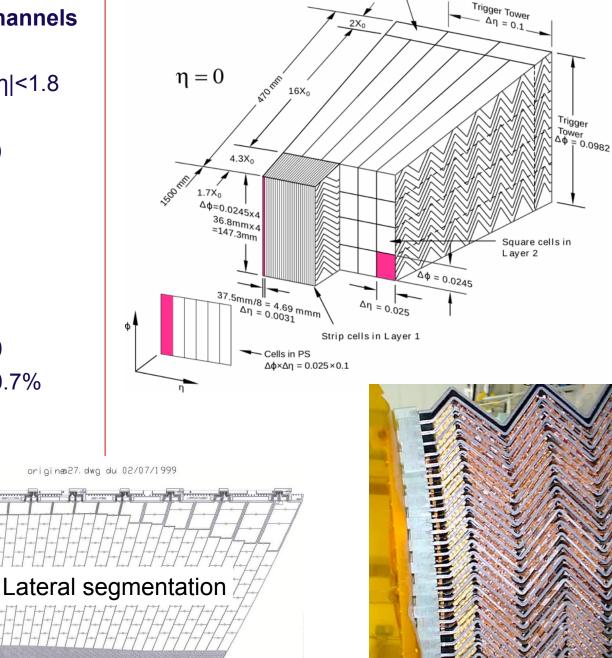


THE ATLAS CALORIMETER STRUCTURE



ATLAS ELECTROMAGNETIC CALORIMETER





Cells in Layer 3 $\Delta \phi \times \Delta n = 0.0245 \times 0.05$

170k channels

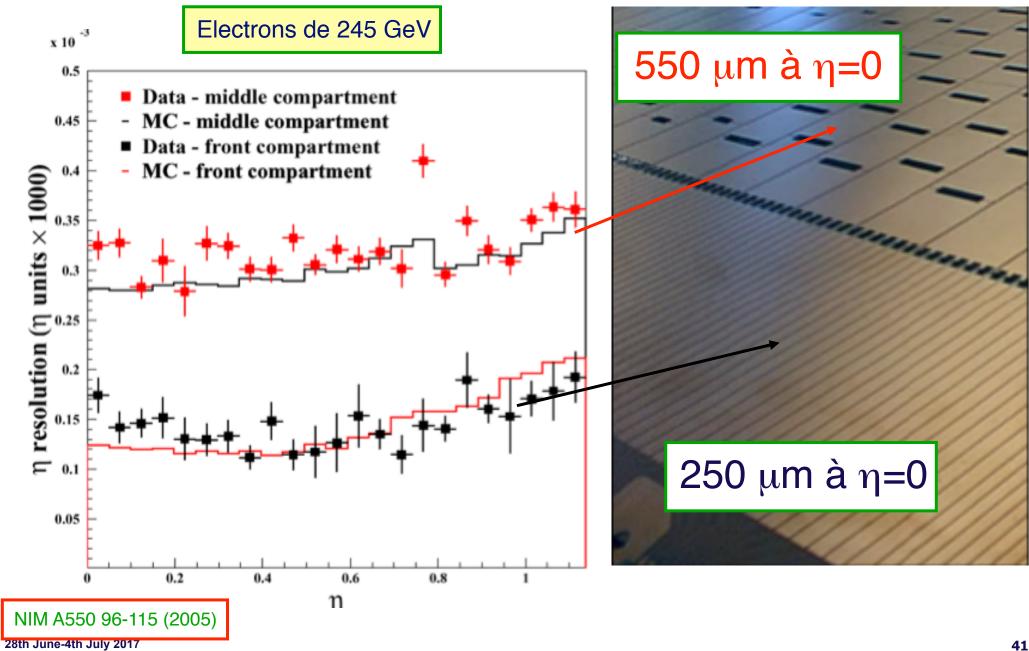
POSITION-ANGULAR RESOLUTION

Higgs Boson in ATLAS For $M_H \sim 120$ GeV, in the channel $H \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$ $\sigma (M_H) / M_H = \frac{1}{2} [\sigma(E_{\gamma 1})/E_{\gamma 1} \oplus \sigma(E_{\gamma 2})/E_{\gamma 2} \oplus \cot(\theta/2) \sigma(\theta)]$



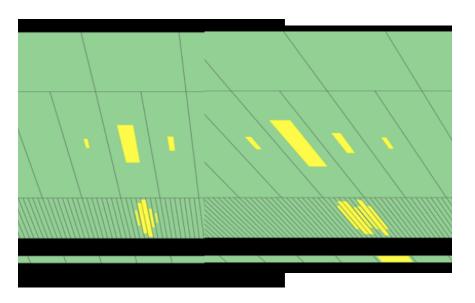
 $P \rightarrow H + x \rightarrow \gamma \gamma + x$

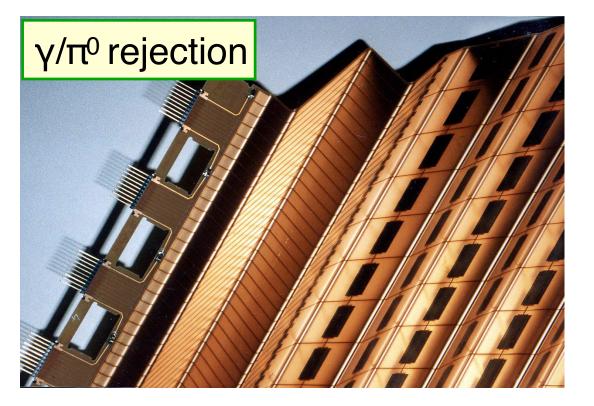
SPATIAL RESOLUTION

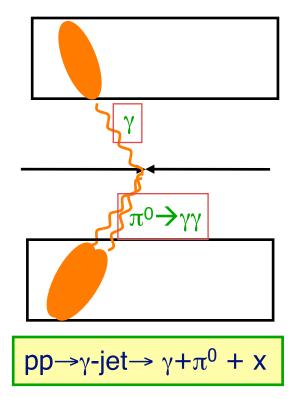


PIONS REJECTION

Higgs boson in ATLAS With $M_H \sim 125$ GeV in the channel $H \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$ Background: π^0 looking like a γ







HOMOGENEOUS vs SAMPLING CALORIMETERS

Technology (Experiment)	Depth	Energy resolution	Date
NaI(Tl) (Crystal Ball)	$20X_{0}$	$2.7\%/E^{1/4}$	1983
Bi ₄ Ge ₃ O ₁₂ (BGO) (L3)	$22X_0$	$2\%/\sqrt{E}\oplus 0.7\%$	1993
CsI (KTeV)	$27X_0$	$2\%/\sqrt{E} \oplus 0.45\%$	1996
CsI(Tl) (BaBar)	16–18X ₀	$2.3\%/E^{1/4} \oplus 1.4\%$	1999
CsI(Tl) (BELLE)	$16X_0$	1.7% for $E_{\gamma} > 3.5~{\rm GeV}$	1998
PbWO ₄ (PWO) (CMS)	$25X_0$	$3\%/\sqrt{E}\oplus 0.5\%\oplus 0.2/E$	1997
Lead glass (OPAL)	$20.5X_0$	$5\%/\sqrt{E}$	1990
Liquid Kr (NA48)	$27X_0$	$3.2\%/\sqrt{E} \oplus \ 0.42\% \oplus 0.09/E$	1998
Scintillator/depleted U (ZEUS)	$20 - 30X_0$	$18\%/\sqrt{E}$	1988
Scintillator/Pb (CDF)	$18X_0$	$13.5\%/\sqrt{E}$	1988
Scintillator fiber/Pb spaghetti (KLOE)	$15X_{0}$	$5.7\%/\sqrt{E} \oplus 0.6\%$	1995
Liquid Ar/Pb (NA31)	$27X_0$	$7.5\%/\sqrt{E}\oplus 0.5\%\oplus 0.1/E$	1988
Liquid Ar/Pb (SLD)	$21X_0$	$8\%/\sqrt{E}$	1993
Liquid Ar/Pb (H1)	$20 - 30X_0$	$12\%/\sqrt{E}\oplus1\%$	1998
Liquid Ar/depl. U (DØ)	$20.5X_0$	$16\%/\sqrt{E}\oplus 0.3\%\oplus 0.3/E$	1993
Liquid Ar/Pb accordion (ATLAS)	$25X_0$	$10\%/\sqrt{E}\oplus 0.4\%\oplus 0.3/E$	1996

Resolution of typical electromagnetic calorimeter [E is in GeV]

Sampling

Homogeneous

HADRONIC SHOWERS

Hadronic cascades develop in an analogous way to e.m. showers

- Strong interaction controls overall development
- High energy hadron interacts with material, leading to multi-particle production of more hadrons
- These in turn interact with further nuclei

Nuclear breakup and spallation neutrons

Multiplication continues down to the pion production threshold

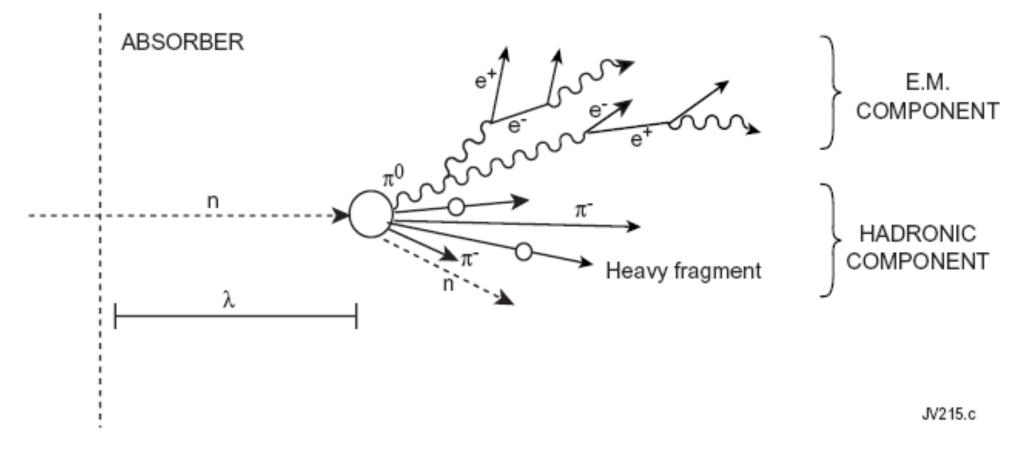
 $E \sim 2m_{\pi} = 0.28 \text{ GeV/c}^2$

Neutral pions result in an electromagnetic component (immediate decay: $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$) (also: $\eta \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$)

Energy deposited by:

- Electromagnetic component (i.e. as for e.m. showers)
- Charged pions or protons
- Low energy neutrons
- Energy lost in breaking nuclei (nuclear binding energy)

HADRONIC CASCADE



As compared to electromagnetic showers, hadron showers are:

- Larger/more penetrating
- Subject to larger fluctuations more erratic and varied

HADRONIC SHOWERS: WHERE DOES THE ENERGY GO ?

	Lead	Iron
Ionization by pions	19%	21%
Ionization by protons	37%	53%
Total ionization	56%	74%
Nuclear binding energy loss	32%	16%
Target recoil	2%	5%
Total invisible energy	34%	21%
Kinetic energy evaporation neutrons	10%	5%
Number of charged pions	0.77	1.4
Number of protons	3.5	8
Number of cascade neutrons	5.4	5
Number of evaporation neutrons	31.5	5
Total number of neutrons	36.9	10
Neutrons/protons	10.5/1	1.3/1

HADRONIC INTERACTION

Simple model of interaction on a disk of radius R: $\sigma_{int} = \pi R^2 \propto A^{2/3}$

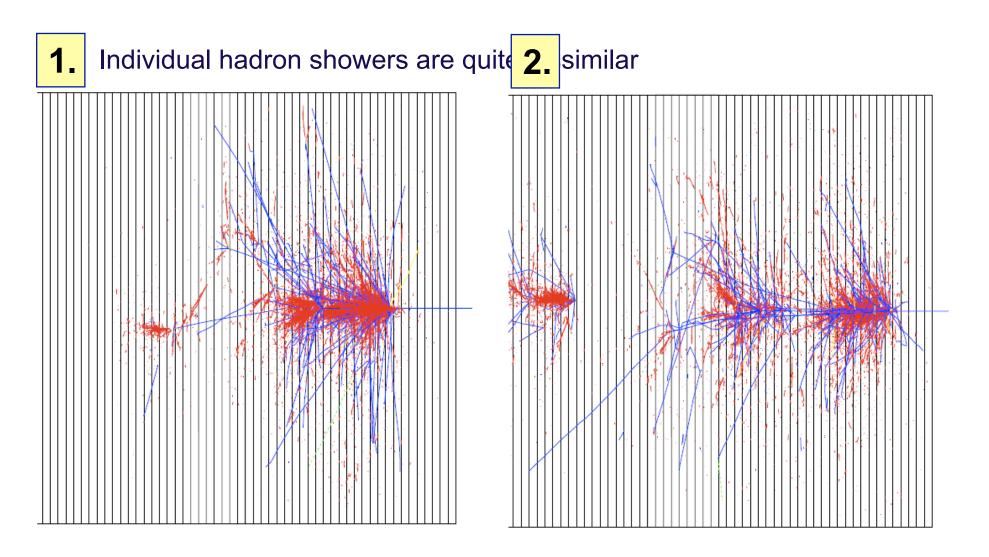
 $\sigma_{\rm inel} \approx \sigma_0 A^{0.7}$, σ_0 = 35 mb

Nuclear interaction length: mean free path before inelastic interaction

$$\lambda_{\text{int}} \approx \frac{A}{N_A \sigma_{\text{int}}} \approx 35 A^{1/3} g \times cm^{-2}$$

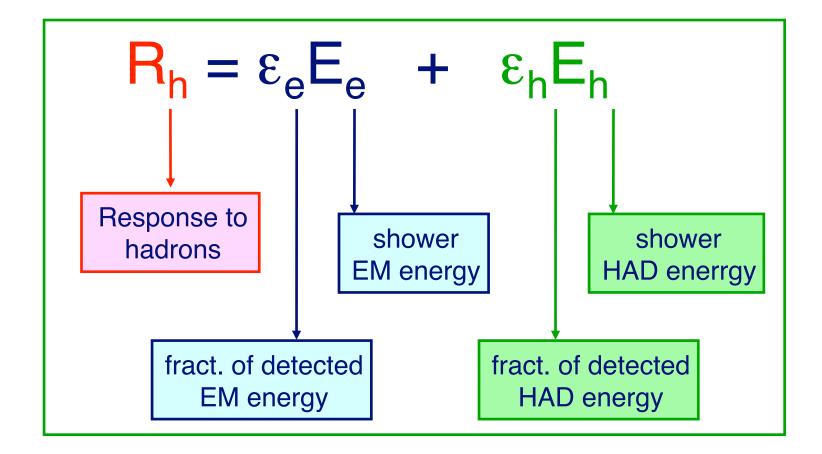
	Z	ρ (g.cm ⁻³)	E _c (MeV)	X ₀ (cm)	λ _{int} (cm)
Air				30 420	~70 000
Water				36	84
PbWO ₄		8.28		0.89	22.4
С	6	2.3	103	18.8	38.1
AI	13	2.7	47	8.9	39.4
L Ar	18	1.4		14	84
Fe	26	7.9	24	1.76	16.8
Cu	29	9	20	1.43	15.1
W	74	19.3	8.1	0.35	9.6
Pb	82	11.3	6.9	0.56	17.1
U	92	19	6.2	0.32	10.5

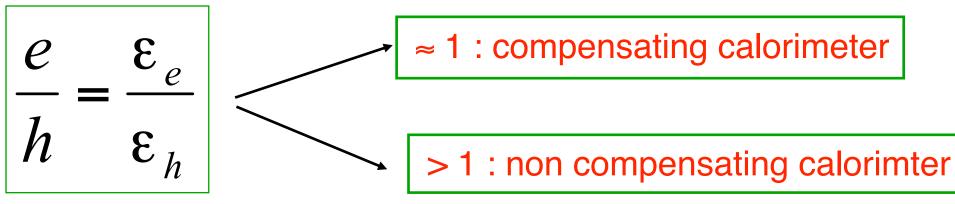
HADRONIC SHOWERS



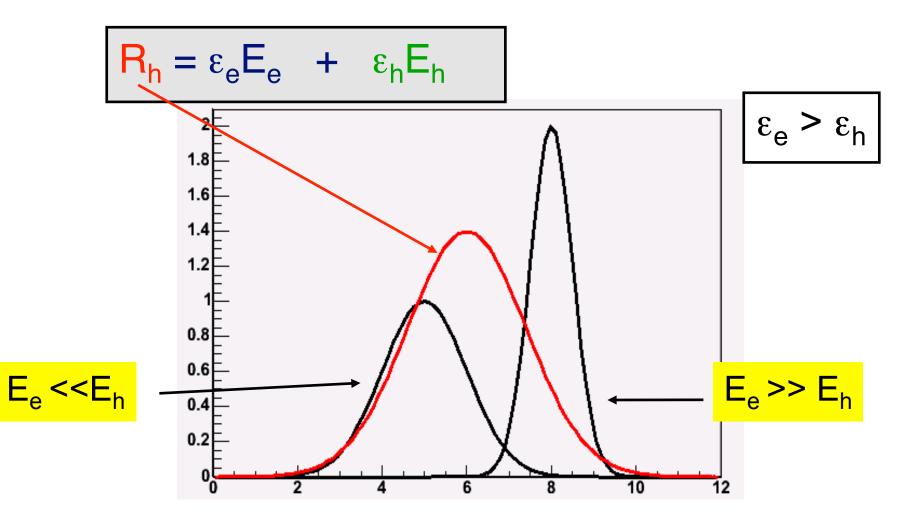
red - e.m. component blue - charged hadrons

HADRONIC SHOWERS and NON-COMPENSATION





HADRONIC SHOWERS and NON-COMPENSATION



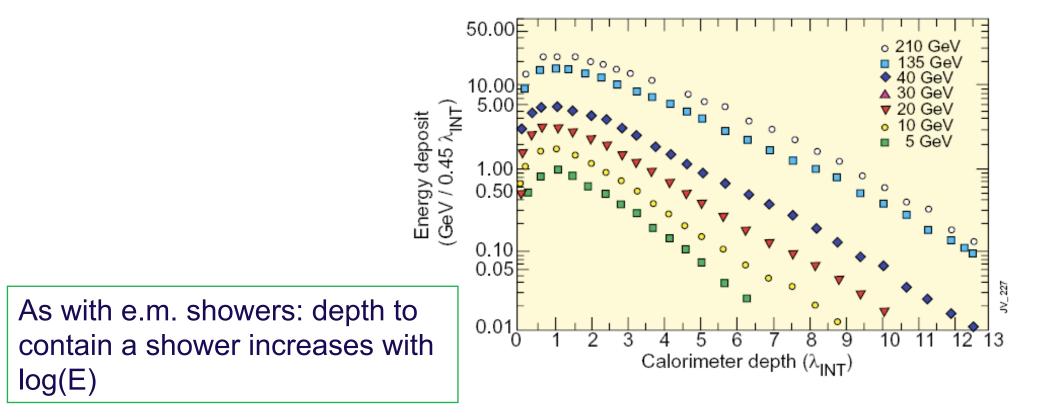
HADRONIC SHOWER LONGITUDINAL DEVELOPMENT

Longitudinal profile

Initial peak from π^0 s produced in the first interaction length

Gradual falloff characterised by the nuclear interaction length, λ_{int}

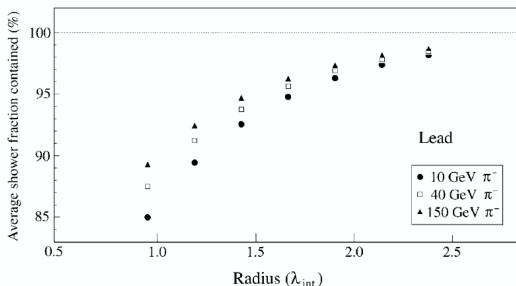
WA78 : 5.4 λ of 10mm U / 5mm Scint + 8 λ of 25mm Fe / 5mm Scint

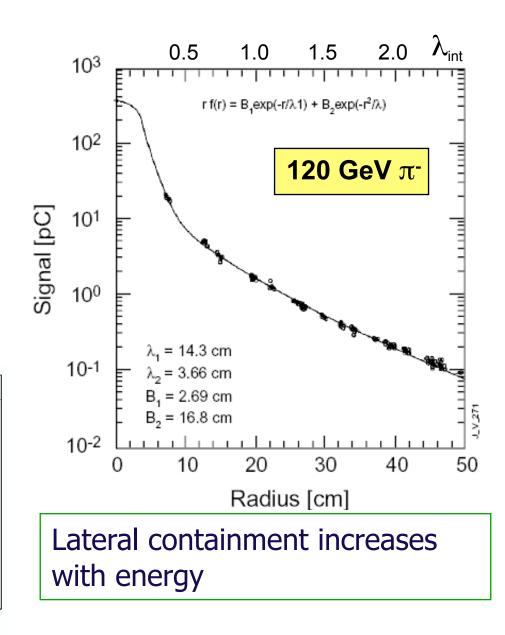


HADRONIC SHOWERS TRANSVERSE PROFILE

Mean transverse momentum from interactions, $<p_T> \sim 300$ MeV, is about the same magnitude as the energy lost traversing 1λ for many materials So radial extent of the cascade is well characterized by λ

The π^0 component of the cascade results in an electromagnetic core



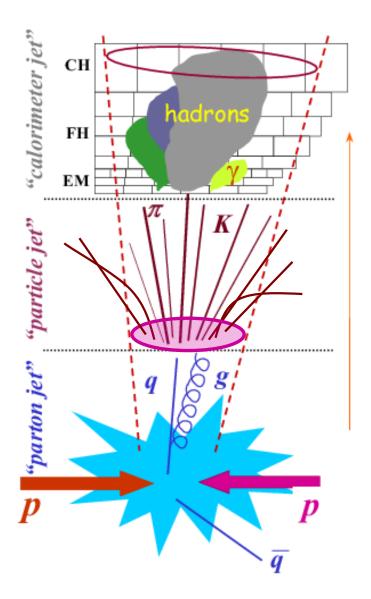


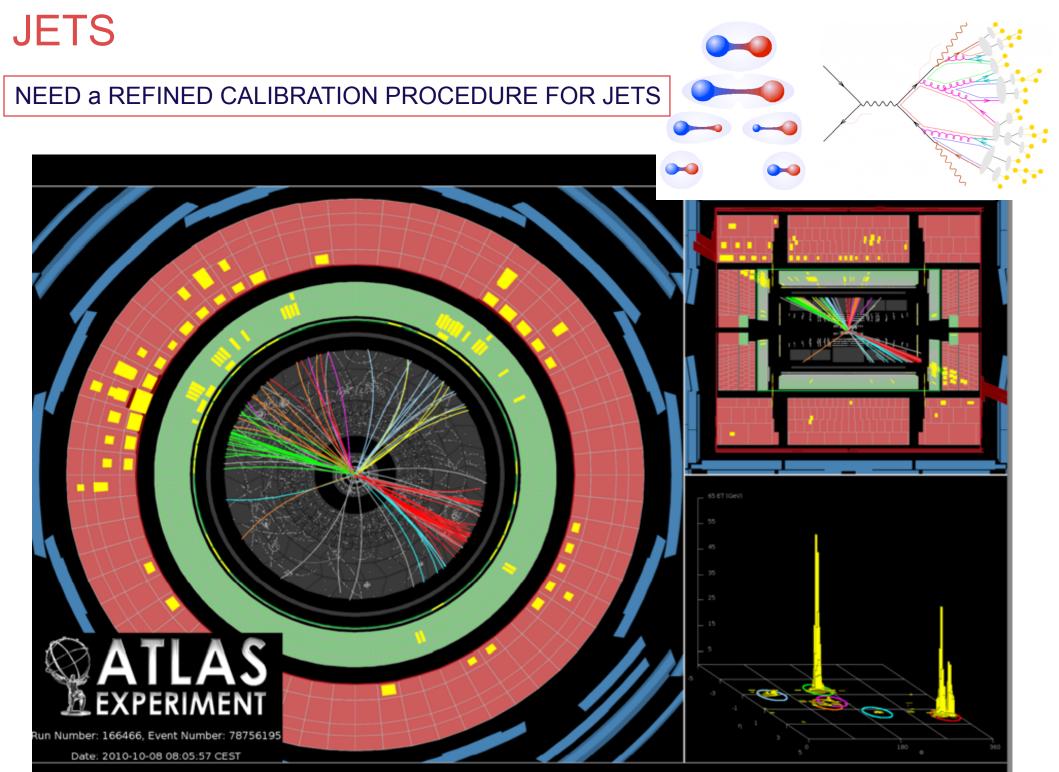
28th

At Hadronic Colliders, quarks & gluons produced, evolves (parton shower, hadronisation) to become jets

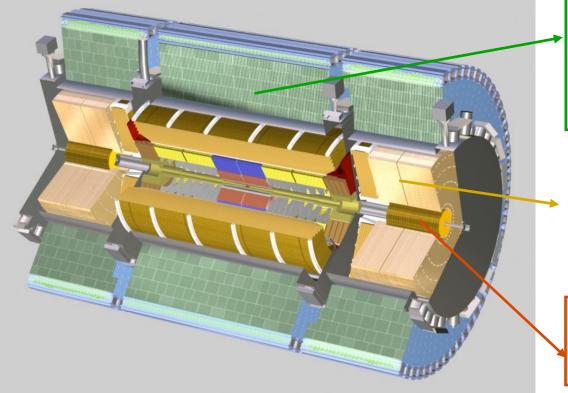
- In a cone around the initial parton: high density of hadrons
- LHC calorimeters cannot separate all the incoming hadrons
 - Use dedicated calibration schemes (based on simulation in ATLAS)
 - Use tracking system to identify charged hadrons (Particle Flow in CMS)

In the future, very highly segmented calorimeters





ATLAS HADRON CALORIMETER



Tiles Calorimeter lηl < 1.7 Fe / Scintillator 3 layers in depth

LAr/Cu 1.7 < $|\eta| < 3.2$

4 layers in depth

Forward: 1 layer EM, 2 HAD LAr/Cu or W 3.2 < $|\eta| < 4.9$

Total thickness: ~ 8 -10 λ Use of different technics: cope with radiations in forward region

Scintillator tile calorimeter			
	Barrel	Extended barrel	
$ \eta $ coverage	$ \eta < 1.0$	$0.8 < \eta < 1.7$	
Number of layers	3	3	
Granularity $\Delta \eta \times \Delta \phi$	0.1×0.1	0.1×0.1	
Last layer	0.2 imes 0.1	0.2×0.1	
Readout channels	5760	4092 (both sides)	

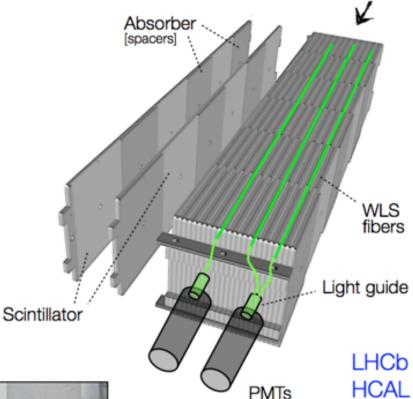
HADRONIC CALORIMETER

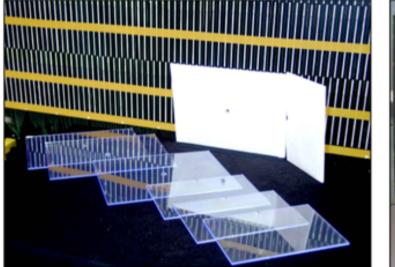
Most common realization: Sampling Calorimeter

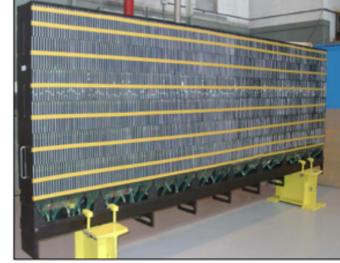
Utilization of homogenous calorimeters unnecessary (and thus too expensive) due to fluctuations of invisible shower components ...

Typical absorbers : Fe, Pb, U ... Sampling elements : Scintillators, LAr, MWPCs ...

Typical setup: Alternating layers of active and passive material [also: 'spaghetti' or 'shashlik' calorimeter]



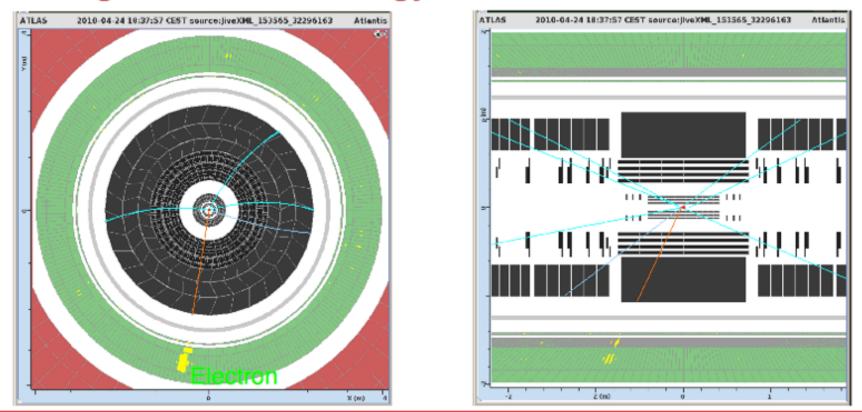




Example: LHCb Hadron Calorimeter

MISSING TRANSVERSE ENERGY

Missing transverse energy : $W \rightarrow e \nu$ candidate



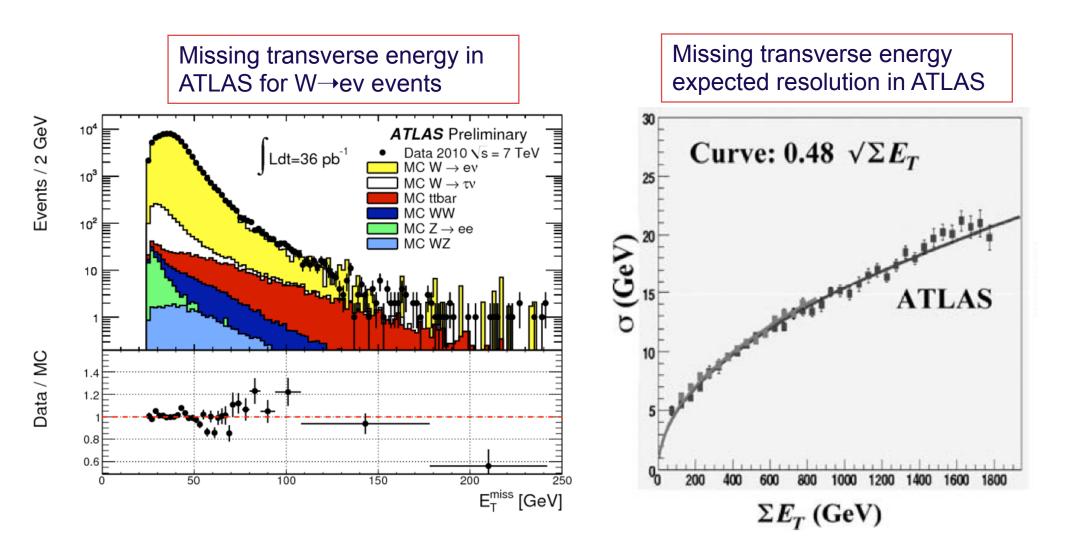
For a pp collision, for instance, and in the absence of escaping particles (neutrinos, neutralinos, DM,..) the transverse energy is ~balanced.

Missing transverse energy is interpreted as the presence of a neutrino.

$$\vec{E}_T^{miss} = -\sum_i^{cells} \vec{E}_T$$

ET^{miss} is the modulus of the vectorial sum of energy deposited in each calorimeter cell

MISSING TRANSVERSE ENERGY: CALIBRATION



A FEW SUMMARY WORDS on CALORIMETERS

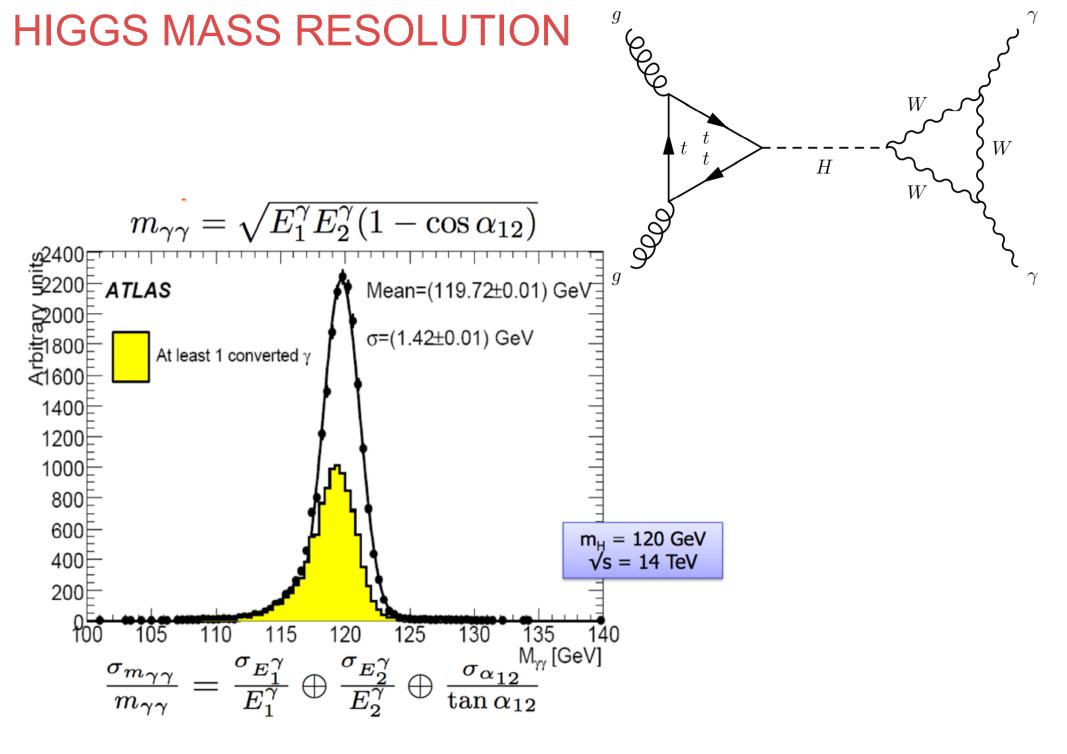
Calorimeters are attractive in our field for various reasons:

In contrast with magnet spectrometers, in which the momentum resolution deteriorates linearly with the particle momentum, on most cases the calorimeter energy resolution improves as 1/Sqrt(E), where E is the energy of the incident particle. Therefore calorimeters are very well suited for high-energy physics experiments.

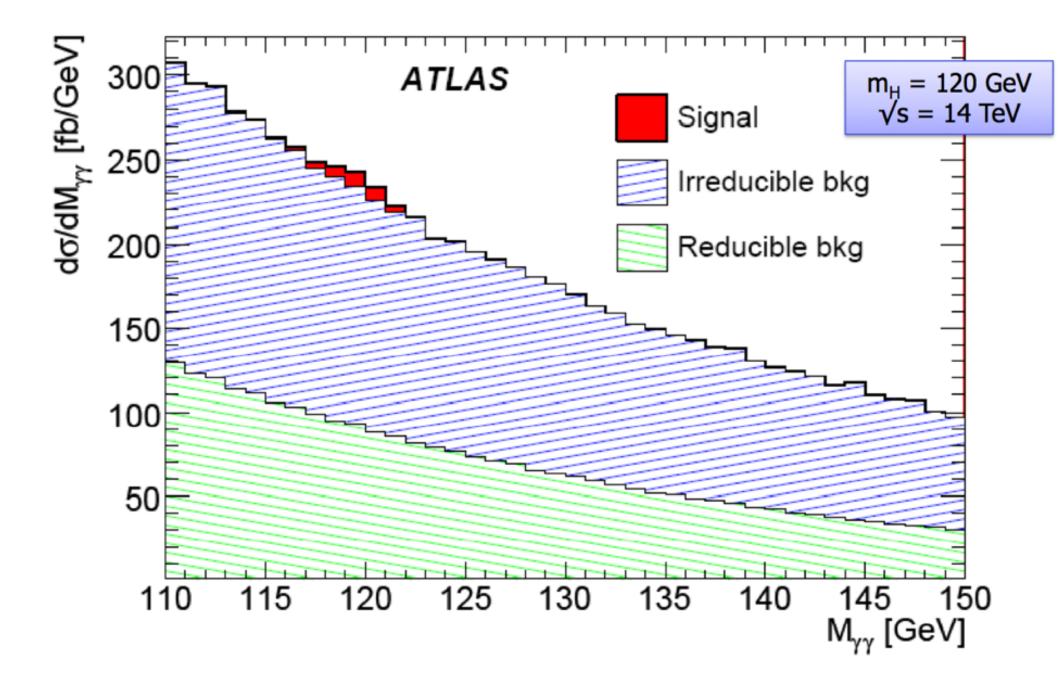
In contrast to magnet spectrometers, calorimeters are sensitive to all types of particles, charged and neutral. They can even provide indirect detection of neutrinos and their energy through a measurement of the event missing energy.

Calorimeters are commonly used for trigger purposes since they can provide fast signals that are easy to process and interpret.

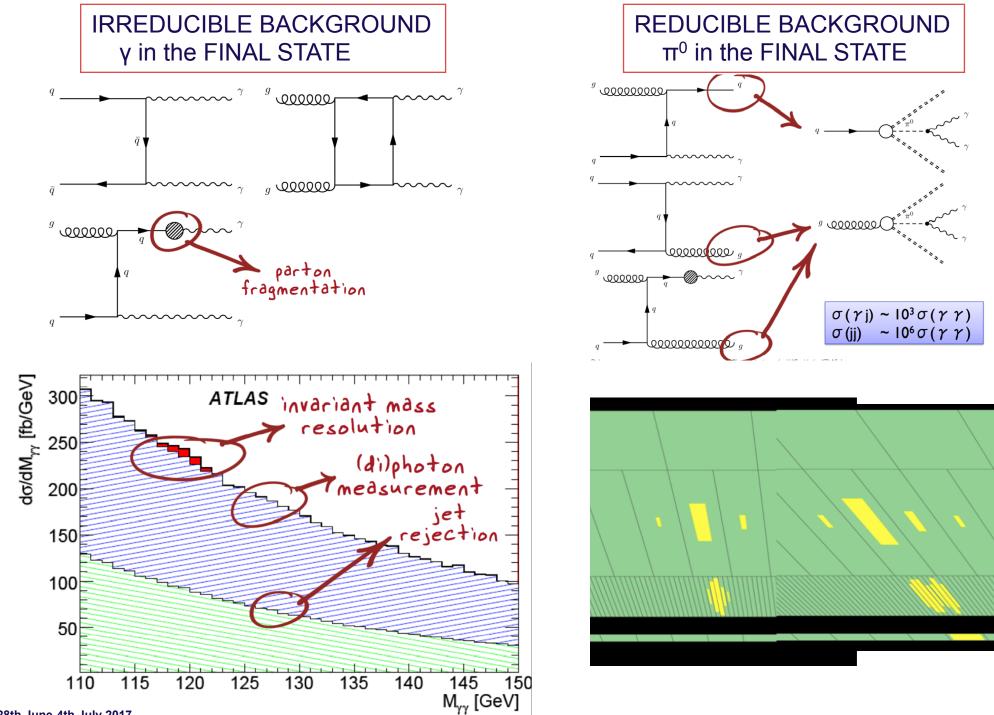
They are space and therefore cost effective. Because the shower length increases only logarithmically with energy, the detector thickness needs to increase only logarithmically with the energy of the particles. In contrast for a fixed momentum resolution, the bending power BL² of a magnetic spectrometer must increase linearly with the particle momentum.



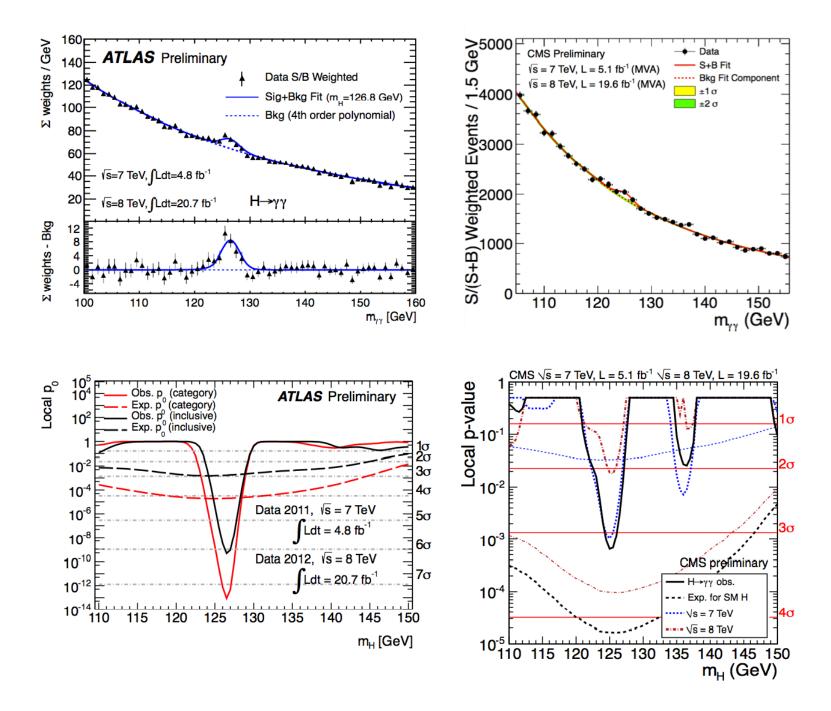
SIGNAL on a LARGE BACKGROUND



SIGNAL on a LARGE BACKGROUND



H→γγ MASS SPECTRA & SIGNAL OBSERVATION



CONSTANT TERM

The constant term describes the level of uniformity of response of the calorimeter as a function of position, time, temperature and which are not corrected for.

Geometry non uniformity

Non uniformity in electronics response

Signal reconstruction

Energy leakage

Dominant term at high energy

Correlated contributions	Impact on uniformity	ATLAS LAr EMB testbeam
Calibration Readout electronics	0.23%	
Signal reconstruction	0.25%	
Monte Carlo	0.08%	
Energy scheme	0.09%	
Overall (data)	0.38% (0.34%)	
Uncorrelated contribution	P13	P15
Lead thickness	0.09%	0.14%
Gap dispersion	0.18%	0.12%
Energy modulation	0.14%	0.10%
Time stability	0.09%	0.15%
Overall (data)	0.26% (0.26%)	0.25% (0.23%)

The Beam Line for Schools competition

A competition for teams of high school students (age 16 and up)

- Teams can propose a physics experiment
- CERN provides 1 week of proton beam at the PS accelerator
- Two winning teams will be invited to CERN to carry out their experiment together with CERN scientists
- Registration closes 31 March 2018



Video: http://cds.cern.ch/record/1757251

http://cern.ch/bl4s





