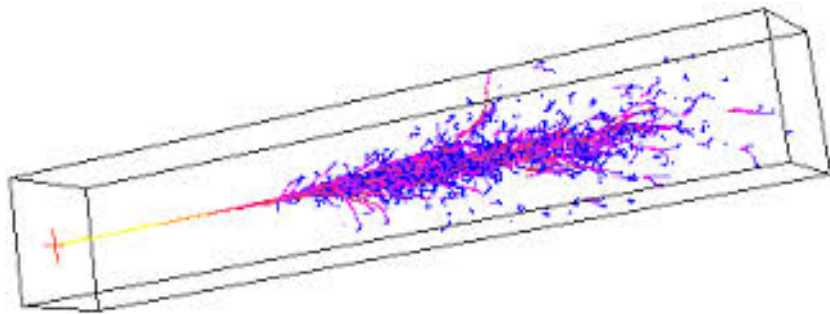


Calorimetry – part 1



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INFN Roma

Joint Belgian Dutch
German Graduate School

Kerkrade – 3rd September 2014

Outline of the lectures

■ Part 1 (today)

- Particle interaction with matter
- Electromagnetic and hadronic showers
- Homogeneous and sampling calorimeters
- Compensation
- Energy detection mechanisms and scintillators
- Energy resolution

Outline of the lectures

- **Part2 (tomorrow morning):** introduction to electromagnetic and hadron calorimeters at LHC and their performance during LHC run1
- **Part3 (tomorrow afternoon):** R&D for future calorimeters and upgrade for High Luminosity LHC

Suggested readings

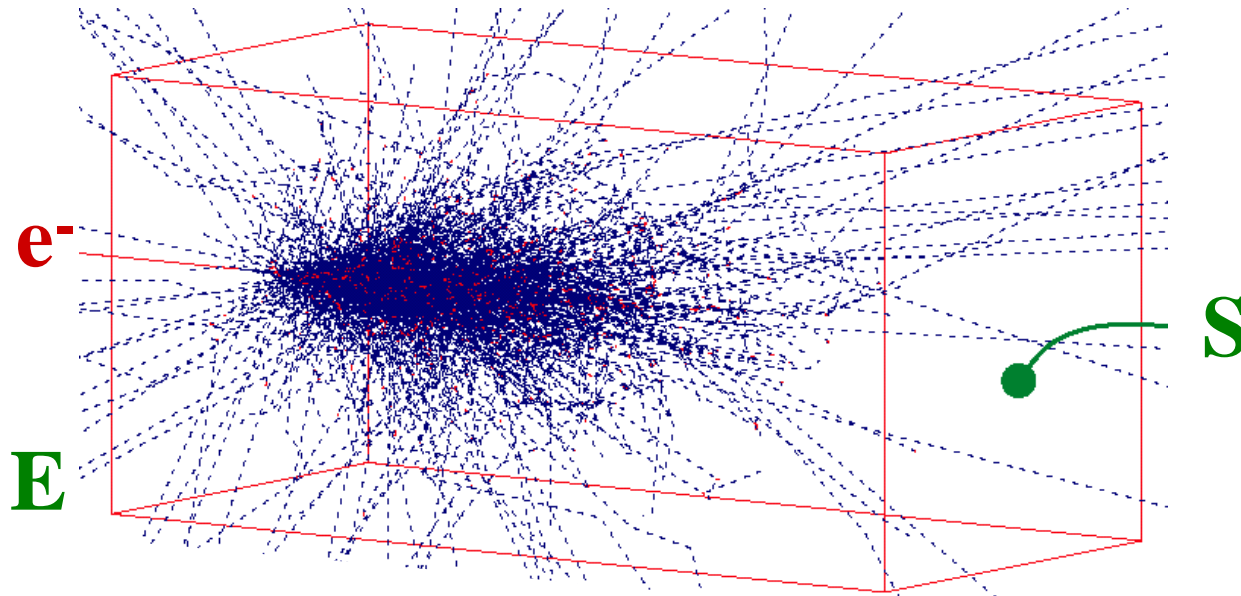
■ Part 1

- R. Wigmans, “Calorimetry - Energy Measurement in Particle Physics”, Oxford University Press, 2000
 - many plots taken from this excellent book
- W. R. Leo, Techniques for Nuclear and Particle Physics Experiments, Springer, 1994
- Particle Data Book, J. Beringer *et al.* (Particle Data Group), Phys. Rev. **D86**, 010001 (2012) <http://pdg.lbl.gov/pdg.html>

■ Part 2

- CMS Collaboration, “Energy calibration and resolution of the CMS electromagnetic calorimeter in pp collisions at $\sqrt{s} = 7$ TeV”, JINST 8 (2013) P09009
- ATLAS Collaboration, “Electron and photon energy calibration with the ATLAS detector using LHC Run 1 data”, arXiv:1407.5063v1 (submitted to EPJC)

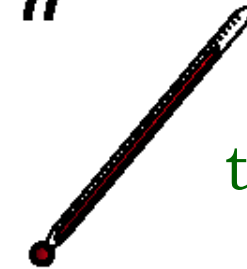
Calorimeters: a simple concept



electric



optical



thermal



acoustic

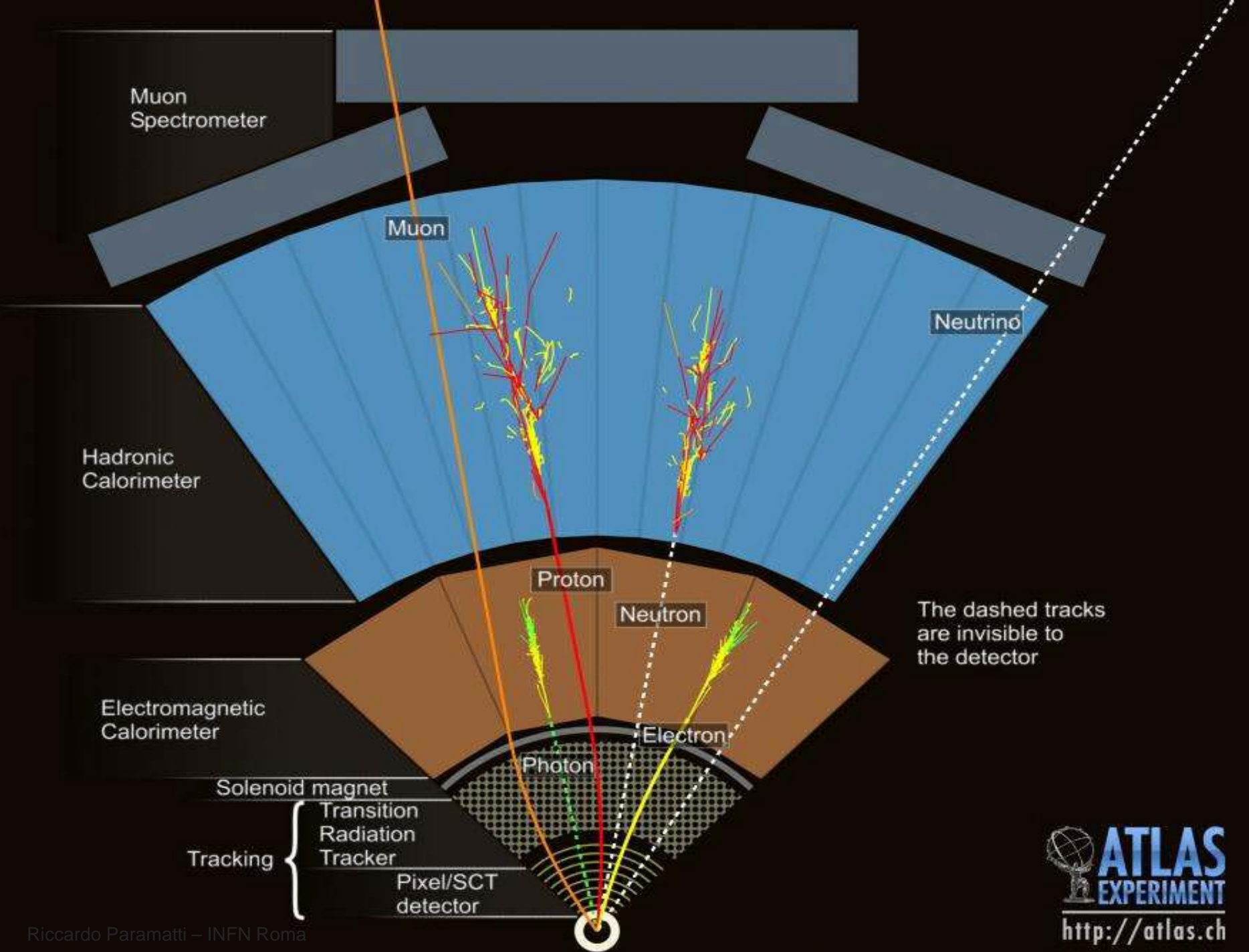
Convert energy **E** of incident particle
to detector response **S**: $S \propto E$

The temperature effect of a 100 GeV particle in
1 liter of water (at 20 °C) is: $\Delta T = 3.8 \cdot 10^{-12} K$

Calorimeters: some features

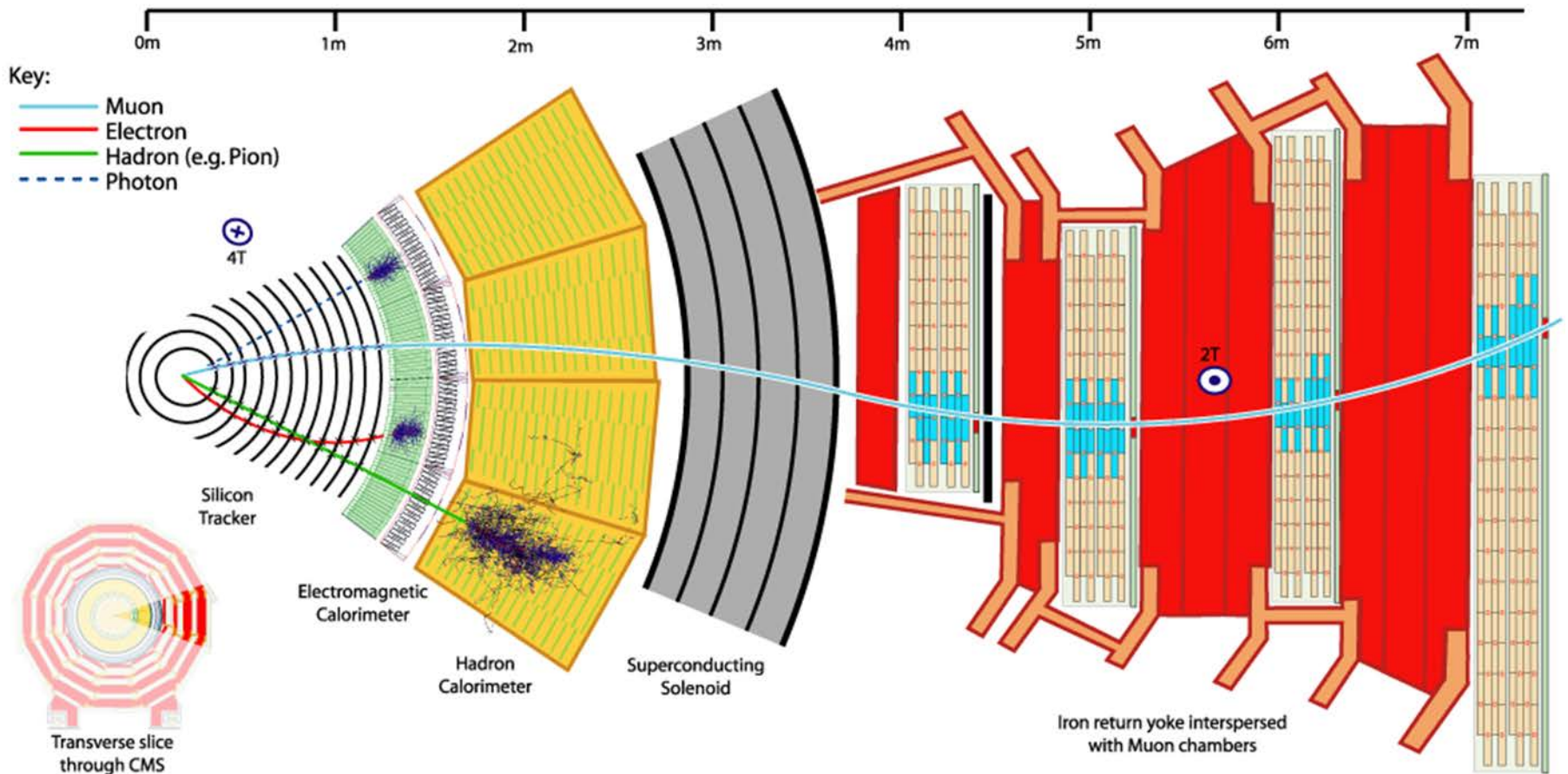
- Detection of both charged and neutral particles
only means to measure energy of neutrals
- Particle identification by «simple» topological algorithms
- Detection based on stochastic processes →
precision increases with E
- Dimensions necessary to containment $\propto \ln E$ →
compactness
- Segmentation → measure of position and direction
- Fast → high rate capability, trigger

Calorimetry is a “destructive” method.
Energy and particle get absorbed !



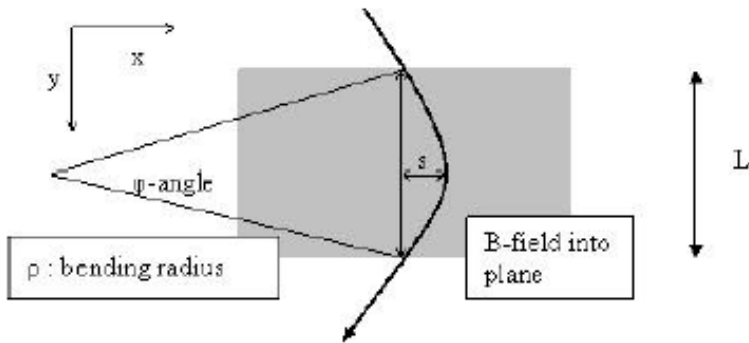
Particles in HEP detectors

CMS @ LHC



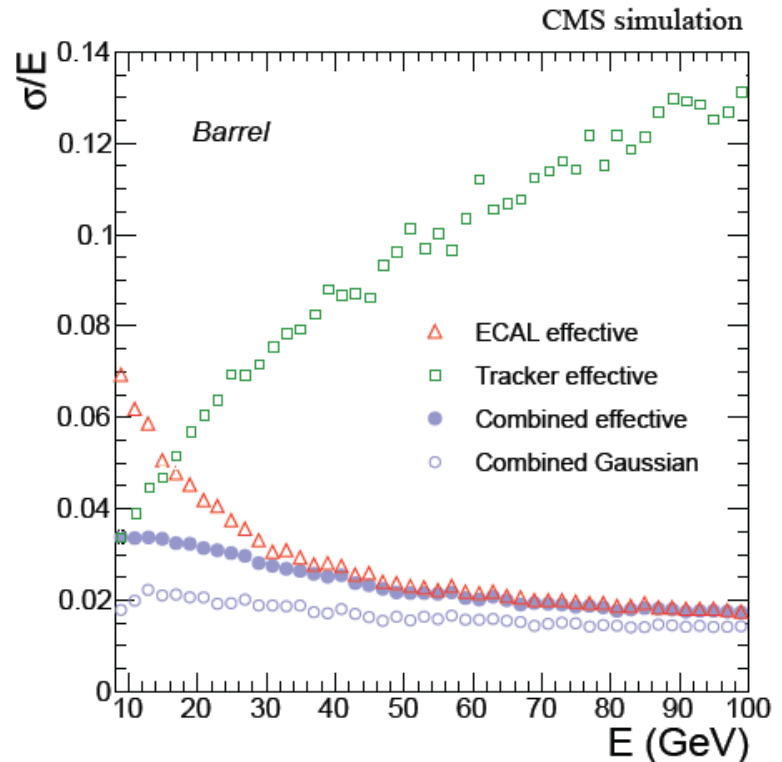
Resolution: calorimeter vs tracker

tracker momentum measurement with the sagitta method

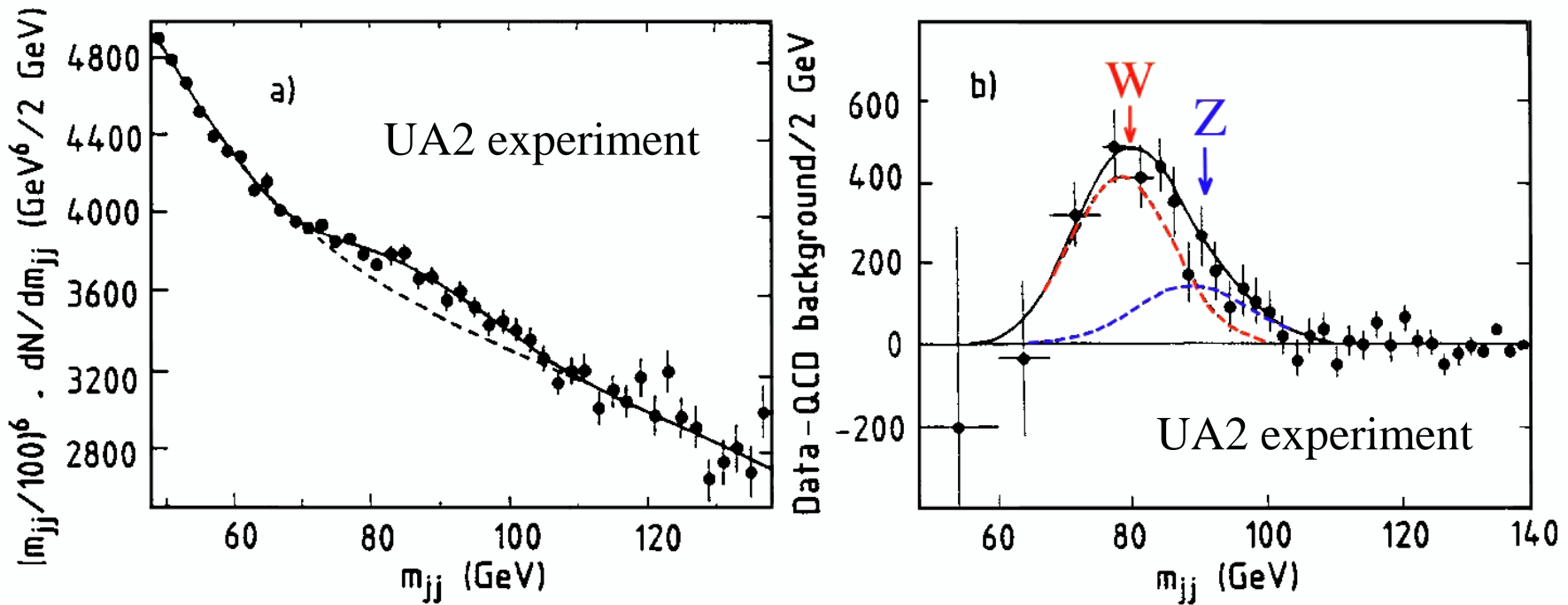


$$\frac{\sigma(p_T)}{p_T} = \frac{\sigma(x) p_T}{0.3BL^2} \sqrt{720/(N + 4)}$$

The contribution to the electron energy measurement from the tracker is relevant only at low energy (for instance below ~20 GeV in CMS).



Calorimeters and discoveries: a long relationship (J/Ψ, W & Z...)



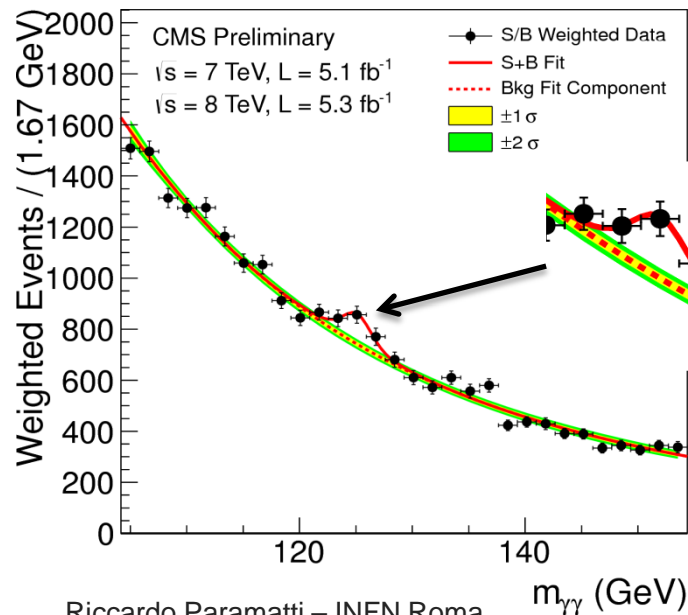
Final states with electrons, photons and jets also fundamental in new physics.

François Englert Peter W. Higgs

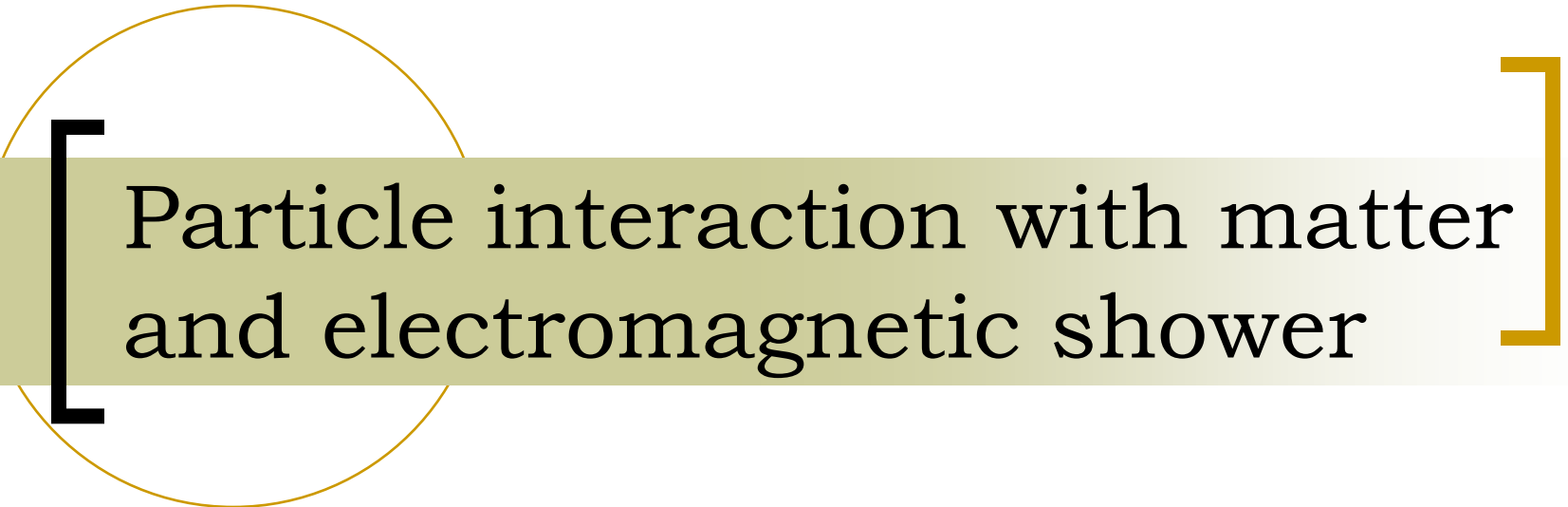


Calorimeters and discoveries: a long relationship

Plot from the CMS 4th July 2012
Higgs search presentation



CMS Experiment at LHC, CERN
Data recorded: Sat May 26 08:58:34 2012 CEST
Run/Event: 195013 / 191541168
Lumi section: 466



Particle interaction with matter
and electromagnetic shower

Electron and photon energy loss in matter

- In matter electrons and photons lose energy interacting with nuclei and atomic electrons
- Electrons and positrons
 - ionization (atomic electrons)
 - bremsstrahlung (interaction with nuclei)
- Photons
 - photoelectric effect (atomic electrons)
 - Compton scattering (atomic electrons)
 - pair production (interaction with nuclei)

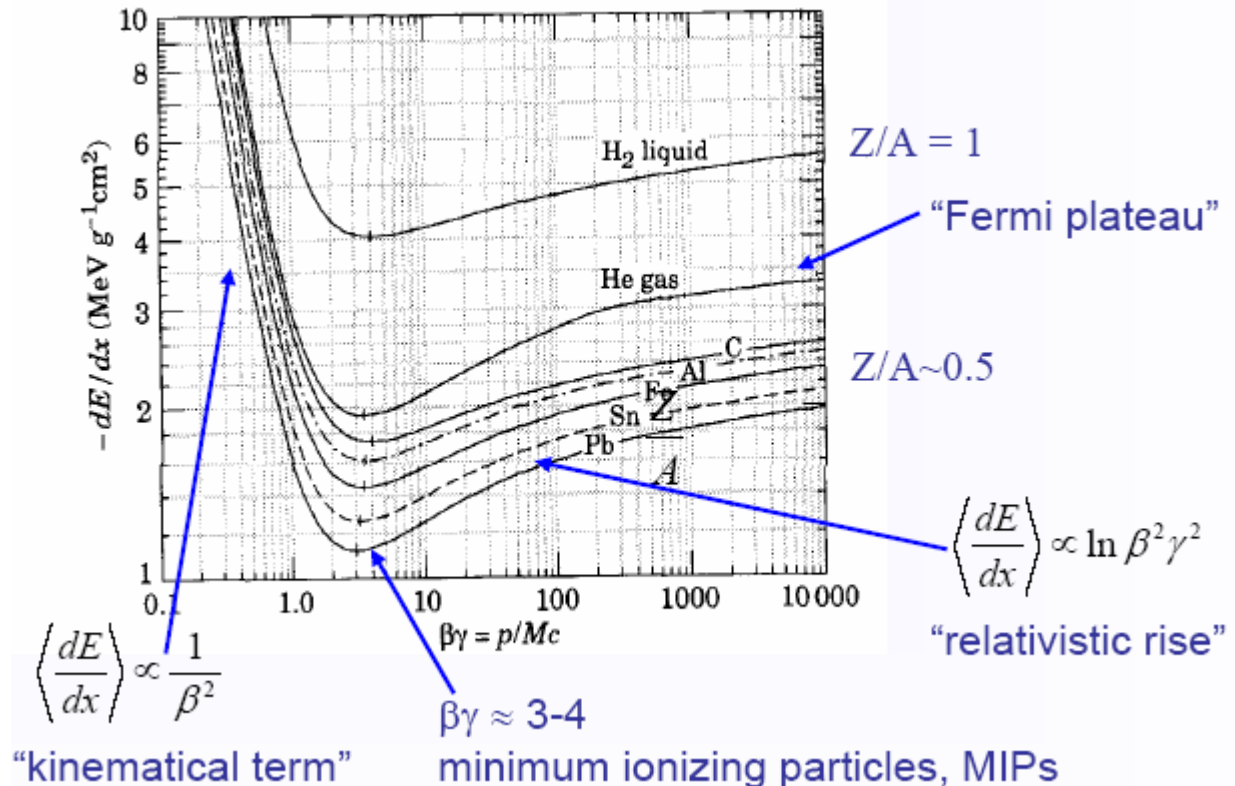
Energy loss: ionization

- Charged particles: continuous energy loss due to excitation and ionization of the medium atoms

$\beta\gamma$ dependence

Proportional to the square of the particle charge ($z=1$ in the figure)

MIP (minimum ionizing particle) energy loss is 1-2 MeV/(g/cm²)

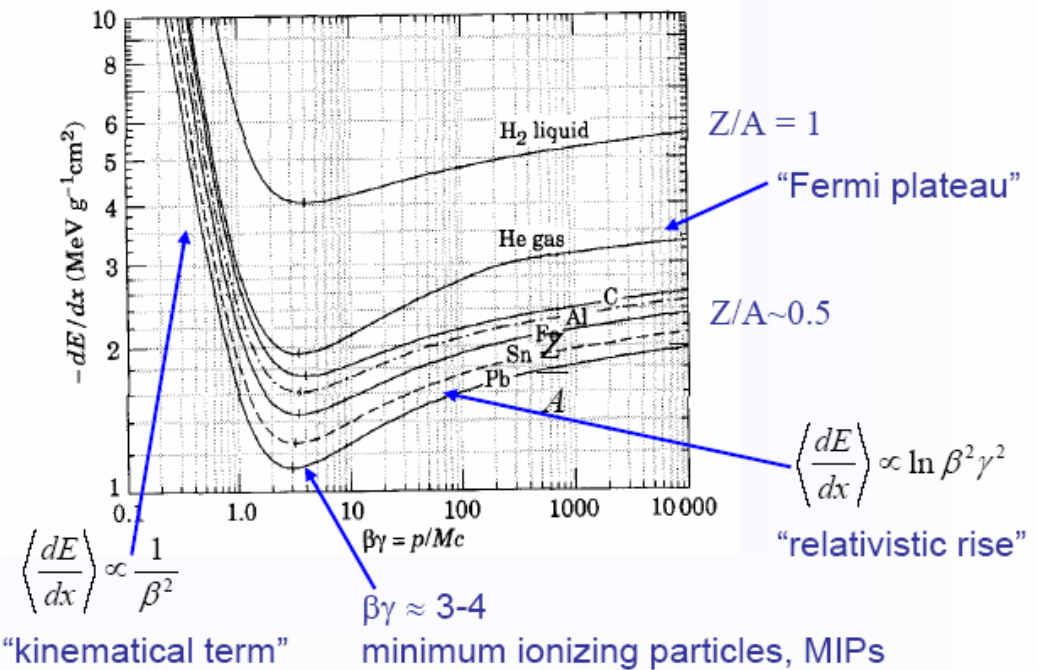


Energy loss: ionization (2)

- Average energy loss: Bethe-Block

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = 4\pi N_A \cdot r_e \cdot m_e c^2 z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left[\ln \left(\frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2}{I} \right) - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta}{2} \right]$$

Electrons require some corrections due to their small mass and Pauli principle.



Energy loss: Bremsstrahlung

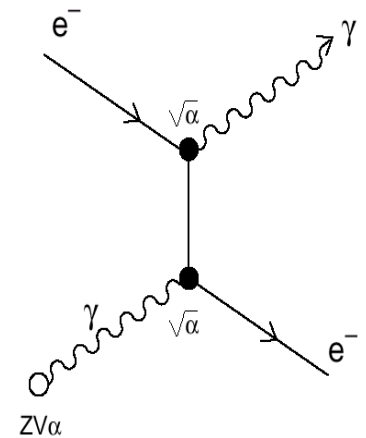
- Electromagnetic interaction of the charged particle with the nucleus: continuous emission of photons.

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = 4\alpha N_A \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{mc^2} \right)^2 z^2 \frac{Z^2}{A} E \cdot \ln \frac{183}{Z^{1/3}}$$

Important for light particles

Dominant at high energies

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} \Big|_{\mu} \approx \frac{1}{40000} \frac{dE}{dx} \Big|_e$$



Photon energy spectrum $\propto 1/E$

Emission angle $\langle \Theta \rangle = \frac{1}{\gamma_e}$

Radiation length X_0

- For high energy electrons: $-\frac{dE}{dx}\Big|_{Brem} = \frac{E}{X_0}$
 $E = E_0 \cdot e^{-x/X_0}$
- Radiation length:
 thickness of material that reduces the mean energy of a (high energy) electron to $1/e$ of initial energy.

$$X_0 = \frac{716.4 \cdot A}{Z(Z+1) \ln(287 / \sqrt{Z})} \left[\frac{g}{cm^2} \right]$$

air: 300 m plastic scintillator: 40 cm aluminium: 18.8 cm iron: 1.76 cm lead: 0.56 cm

Critical energy

Critical energy E_c :
 same energy loss due to
 ionization and Bremsstrahlung

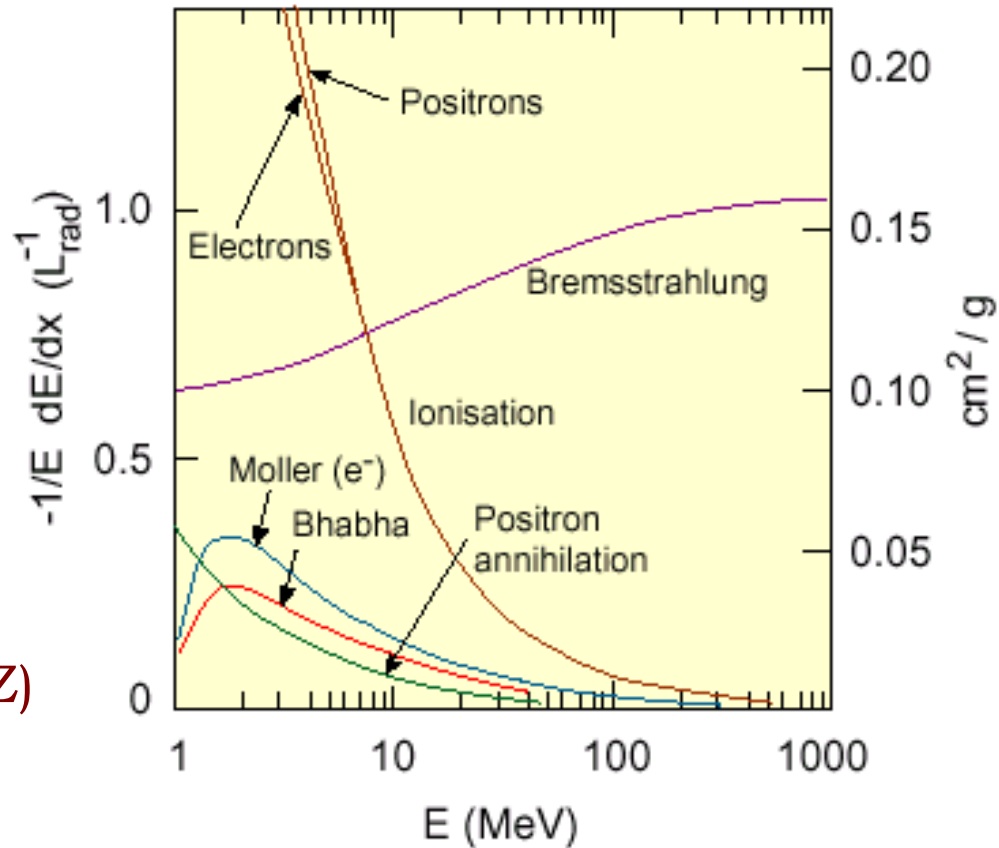
$$\frac{(dE/dx)_{rad}}{(dE/dx)_{ion}} = 1$$

$$E_c \approx \frac{610 \text{ MeV}}{Z + 1.24}$$

(solids, liquids)

Strongly material dependent ($1/Z$)
 (eg. 7 MeV for lead, 20 MeV for
 copper, 95 MeV for carbon;
 1 TeV for muons in copper !)

Fractional Energy Loss by Electrons



Photon energy loss

- photo-electric effect

$$\sigma_{pe} \approx Z^5 \alpha^4 \left(\frac{m_e c^2}{E_\gamma} \right)^{\frac{7}{2}} \quad \sigma \propto Z^5, E^{-3.5}$$

- compton scattering

$$\sigma_c \approx Z \frac{\ln E_\gamma}{E_\gamma} \quad \sigma \propto Z, E^{-1}$$

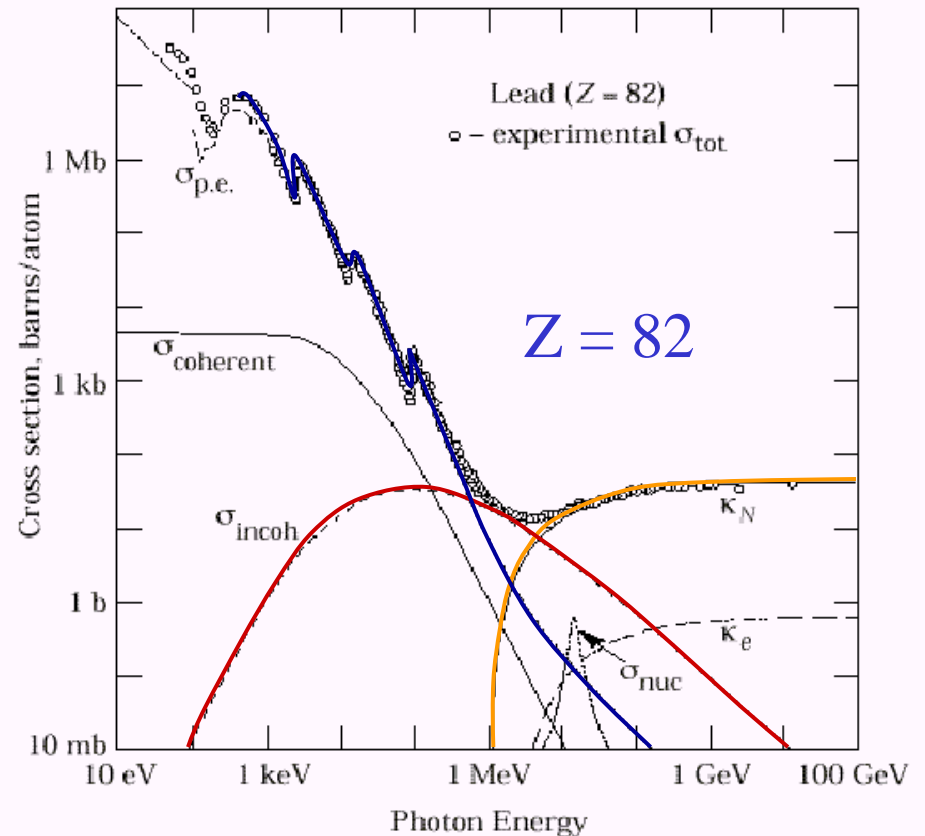
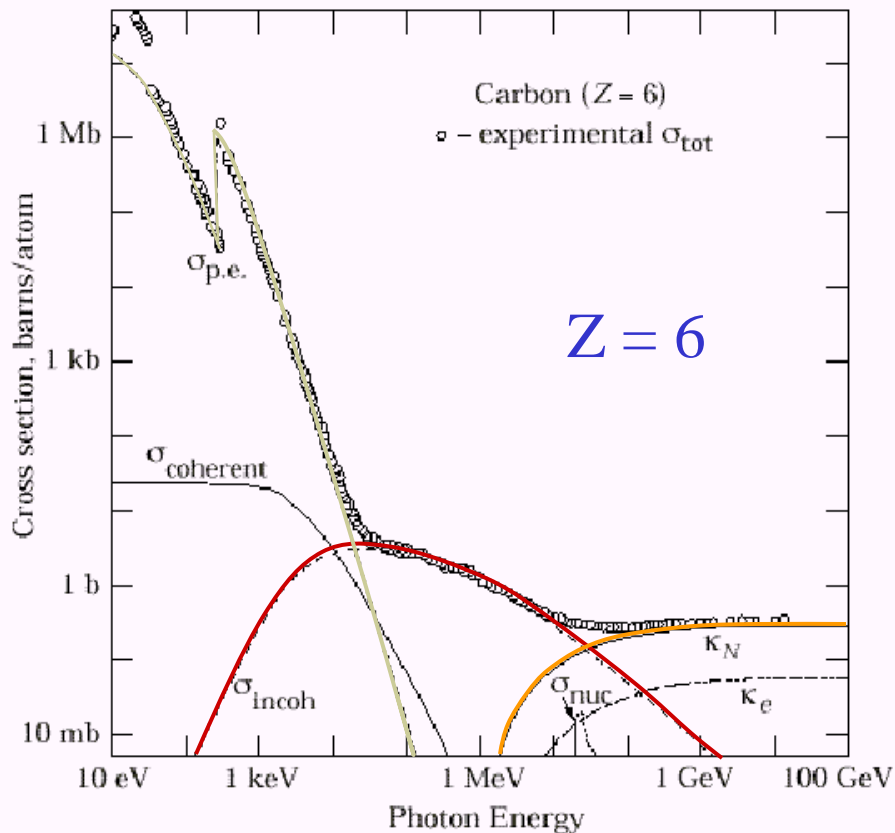
- pair production only occurs if $E_\gamma > 2m_e c^2$

$$\sigma_{pair} \approx \frac{7}{9} \frac{A}{N_A} \frac{1}{X_0}$$

- $\sigma \propto Z(Z+1)$; $\propto \ln E/m_e$ for $E < 1\text{ GeV}$
independent of energy above 1 GeV
- intensity of the beam: $I(x) = I_0 \exp(-x/L_{pair})$
- Mean free path $L_{pair} = 9/7 X_0$ (γ disappears)

Photon energy loss (2)

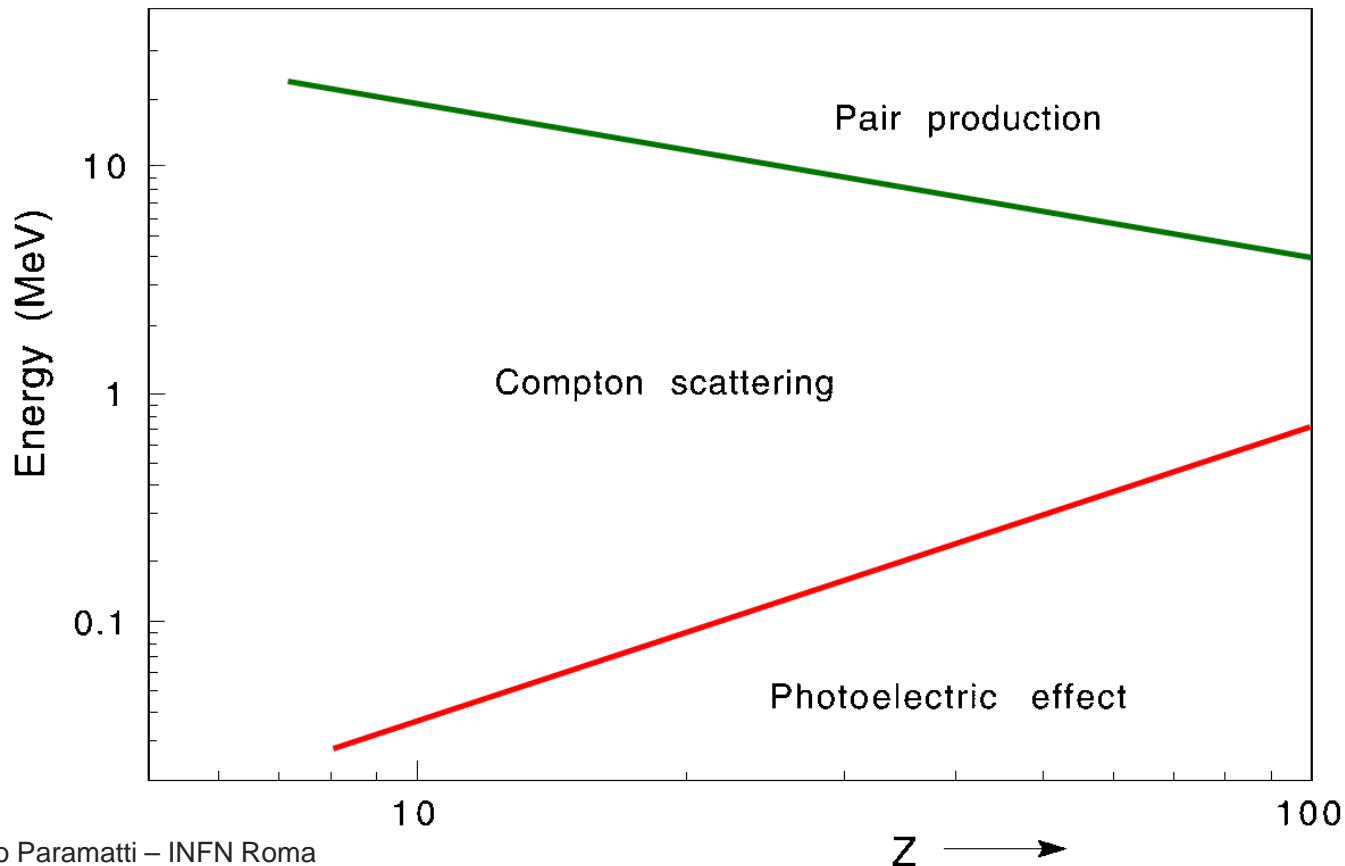
Contributions to Photon Cross Section in Carbon and Lead



Cross section in right plot: more lead is needed to absorb a photon with 3 MeV energy than a 20 MeV photon !

[Photon energy loss (3)]

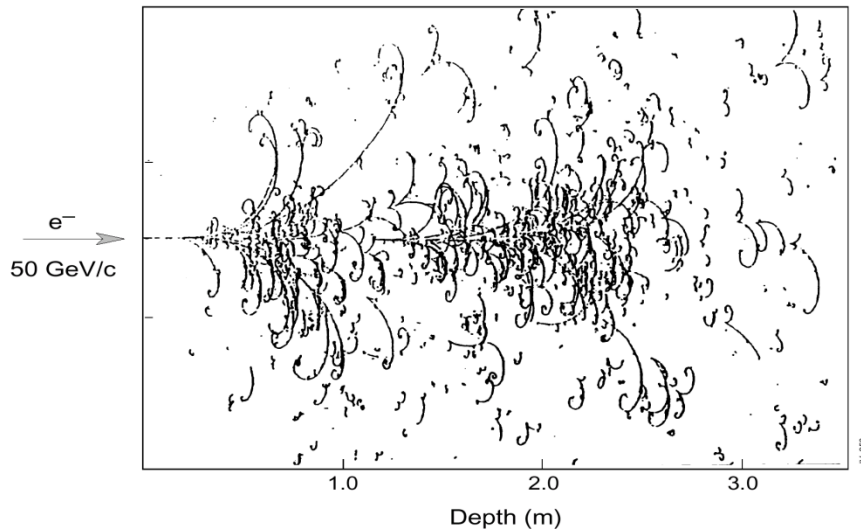
Main contribution to cross section vs photon energy and Z of the medium



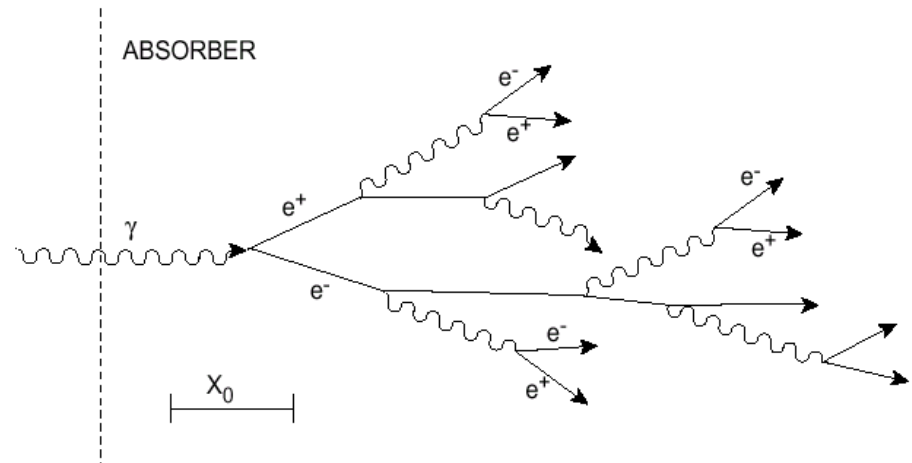
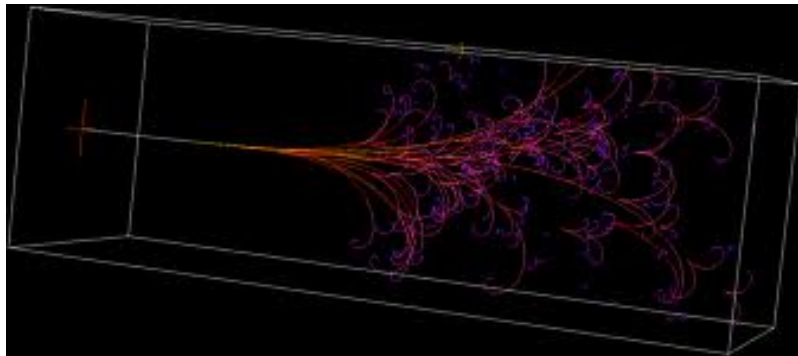
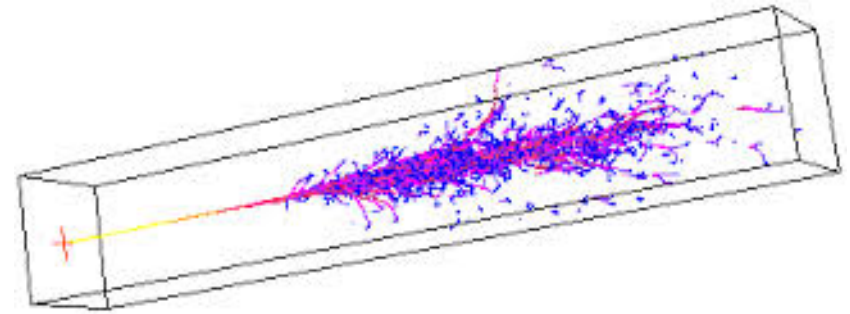
Electromagnetic shower

- Above 1 GeV the dominant processes, bremsstrahlung for e^+ and e^- and pair production for photons, become energy independent.
- Trough a succession of these energy loss mechanisms an electromagnetic cascade is propagated until the energy of charged secondaries has been degraded to the regime dominated by ionization loss (below E_c)
- Below E_c a slow decrease in number of particles occurs as electrons are stopped and photons absorbed.

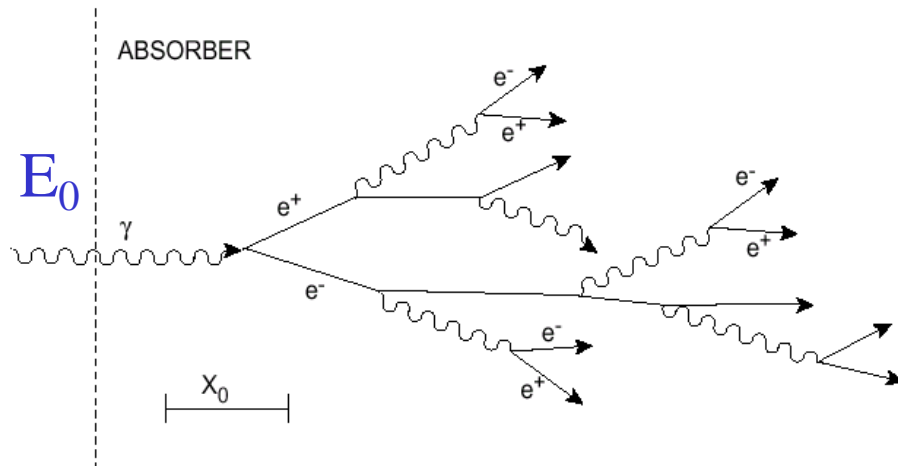
Electromagnetic shower (2)



Big European Bubble Chamber filled with Ne:H₂ = 70%:30%,
3T Field, L=3.5 m, X₀≈34 cm, 50 GeV incident electron



[Electromagnetic shower (3)]



Above the critical energy, in $1X_0$:

- an **electron** loses $\sim 65\%$ of its energy via Bremsstrahlung
- a **photon** has a probability of $\sim 55\%$ of pair conversion.

Simple model: assume X_0 as a generation length:

in each generation the number of particle increases by a factor 2

$$\text{at } \Delta x = tX_0 \quad N(t) = 2^t \quad E(t) = E_0 / 2^t$$

$$\text{at } \Delta x = t_{\max}X_0 \text{ (shower max)} \quad E(t_{\max}) = E_0 / 2^{t_{\max}} = E_c$$

$$t_{\max} = \ln(E_0/E_c)/\ln(2) \propto \ln(E_0)$$

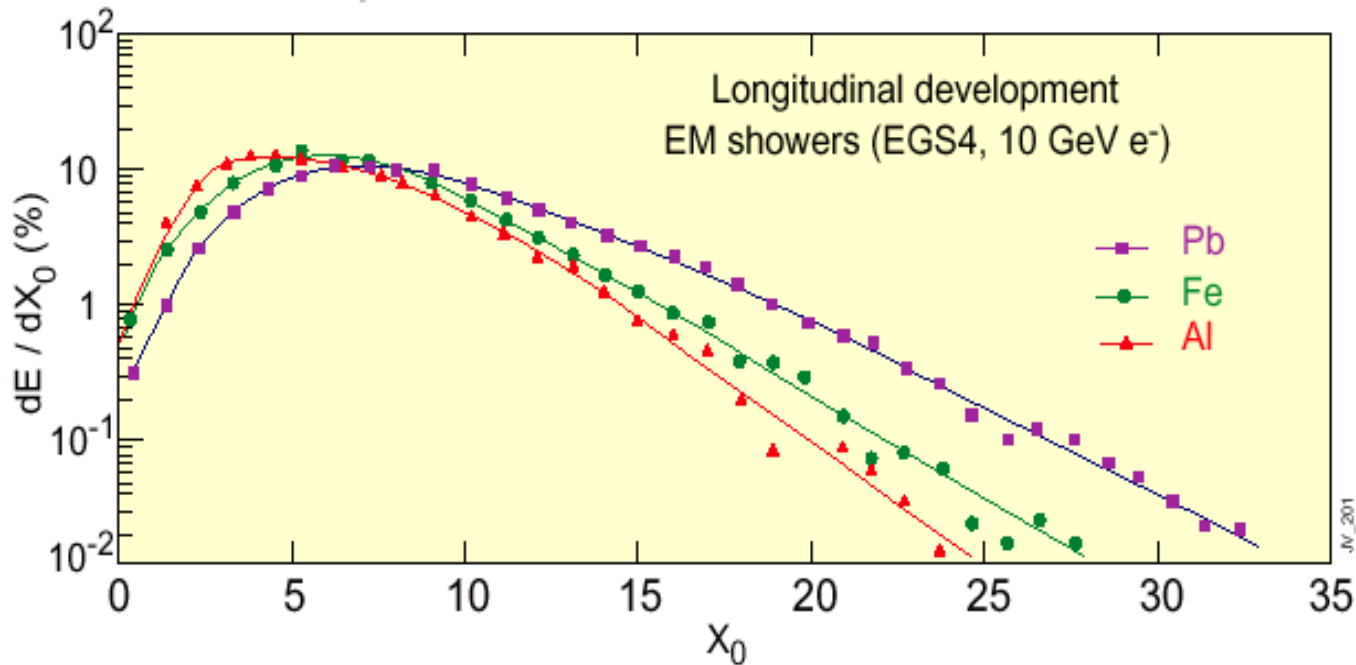
$$N(t_{\max}) \sim E_0/E_c$$

Longitudinal profile of electromagnetic shower

$$E_c \propto 1/Z$$



shower max shifted for high Z
shower tail extended for high Z

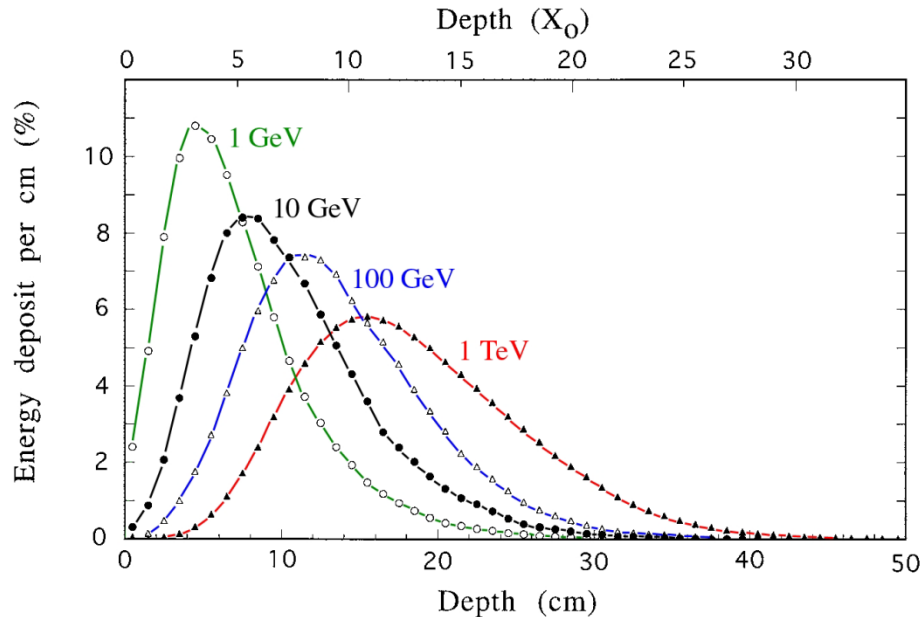


$$\frac{dE}{dt} \propto t^\alpha e^{-\beta t}$$

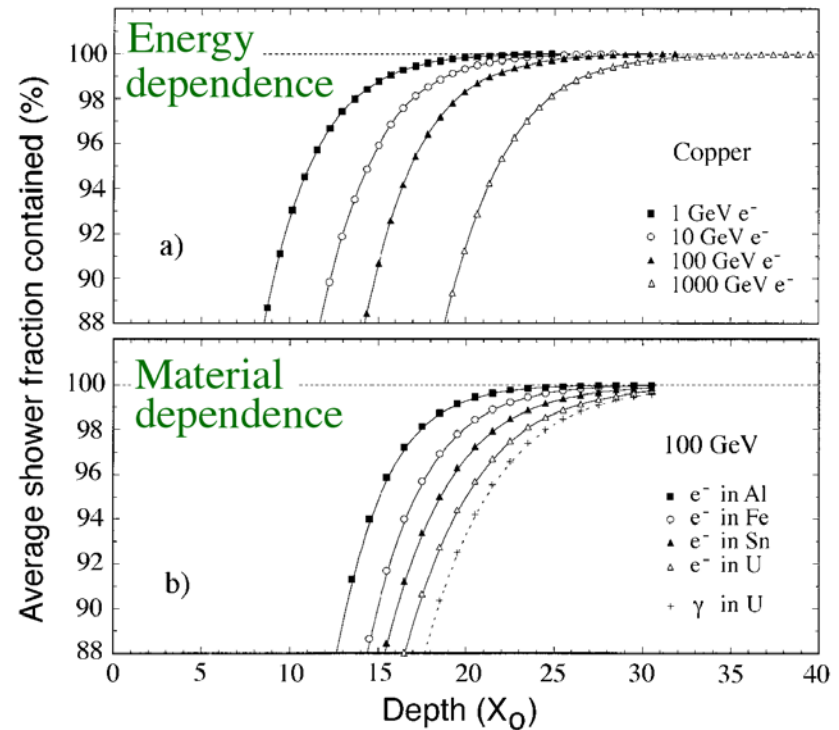
Energy is deposited by electrons and positrons of the shower. Electrons are largely dominant in population but positrons are in average more energetic.

Longitudinal profile of electromagnetic shower (2)

$$t_{\max} = 1.45 \ln(E_0/E_c)$$



Electron shower in a block of copper



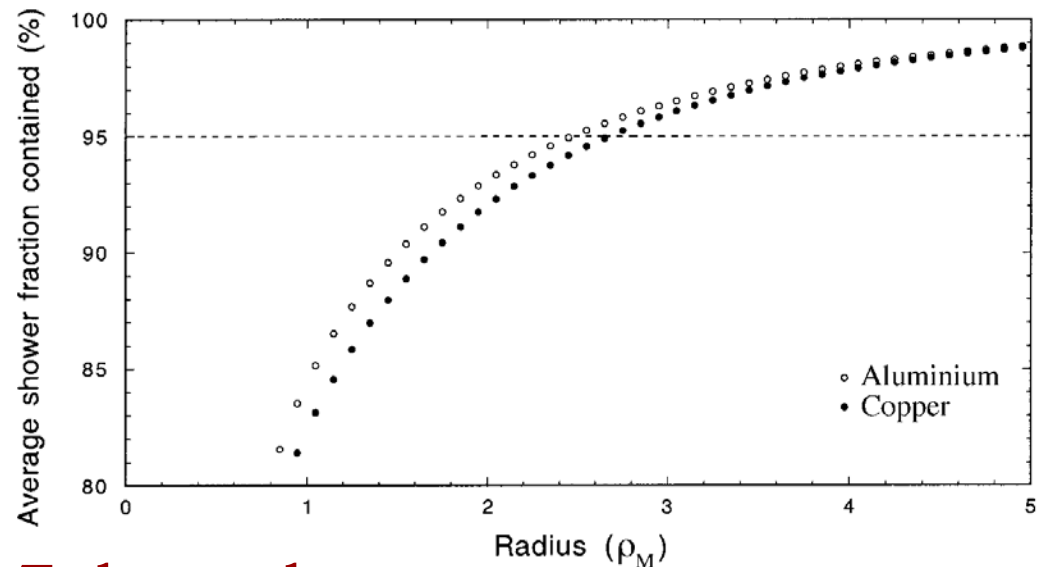
1 GeV electron in copper:
95% in 11 X_0 and 99% in 16 X_0
1 TeV electron in copper:
95% in 22 X_0 and 99% in 27 X_0

Transversal profile of electromagnetic shower

- Angle emission and multiple scattering make photons and electrons travelling away from shower axis.
- Molière radius (R_M) sets transverse shower size; on average 90% of the shower is contained within cylinder of radius R_M around the shower axis.

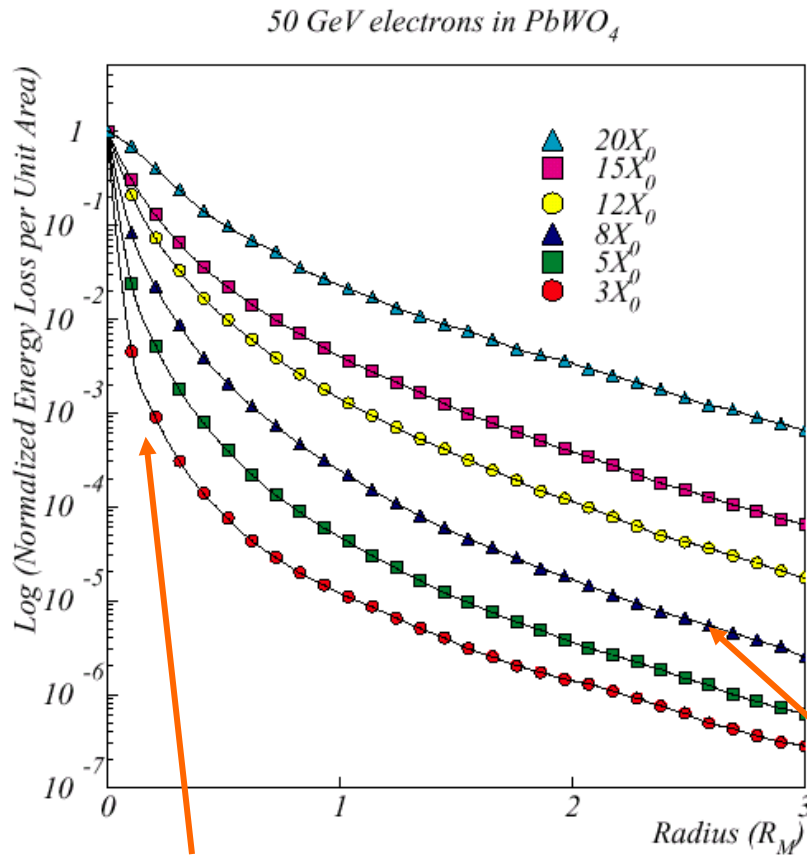
$$R_M = \frac{21 \text{ MeV}}{E_C} X_0$$

$$R_M \propto \frac{X_0}{E_C} \propto \frac{A}{Z} (Z \gg 1)$$



R_M : very small Z dependence

Transversal profile of electromagnetic shower (2)



- The energy carried by particles falls exponentially with respect to the shower axis.
- The width depends on the shower depth.

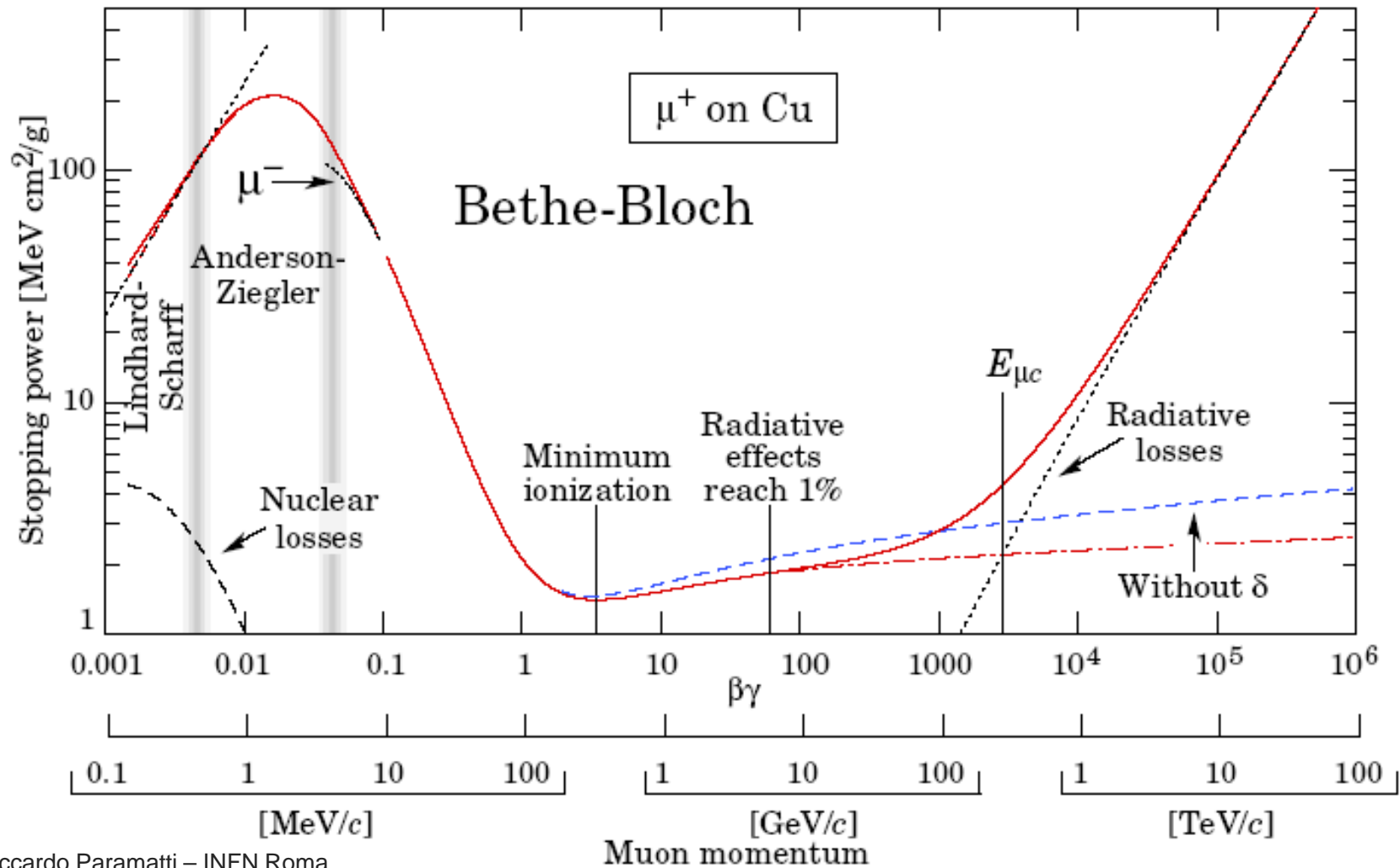
Central core: multiple scattering

Peripheral halo:
propagation of less attenuated photons,
widens with depth of the shower

[Muon energy loss]

- Energy loss of up to 100 GeV muons is entirely due to ionization.
- In modern accelerators final state muons are close to minimal ionizing (mip). Energy loss is about 1 GeV/m in iron or lead → **need for underground laboratory (e.g. Gran Sasso) for mitigation of cosmic ray background**
- Muon energy is not measureable in calorimeters with limited size → **need for muon spectrometer**
- **At very high energies Bremsstrahlung get important. Critical energy > 100 GeV.**

[Muon energy loss (2)]



[Muon energy loss (3)]

Measurement of the Muon Stopping Power in Lead Tungstate during CMS commissioning with cosmic rays.

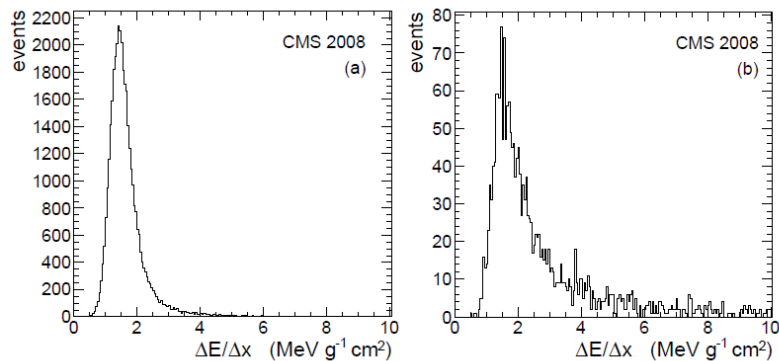
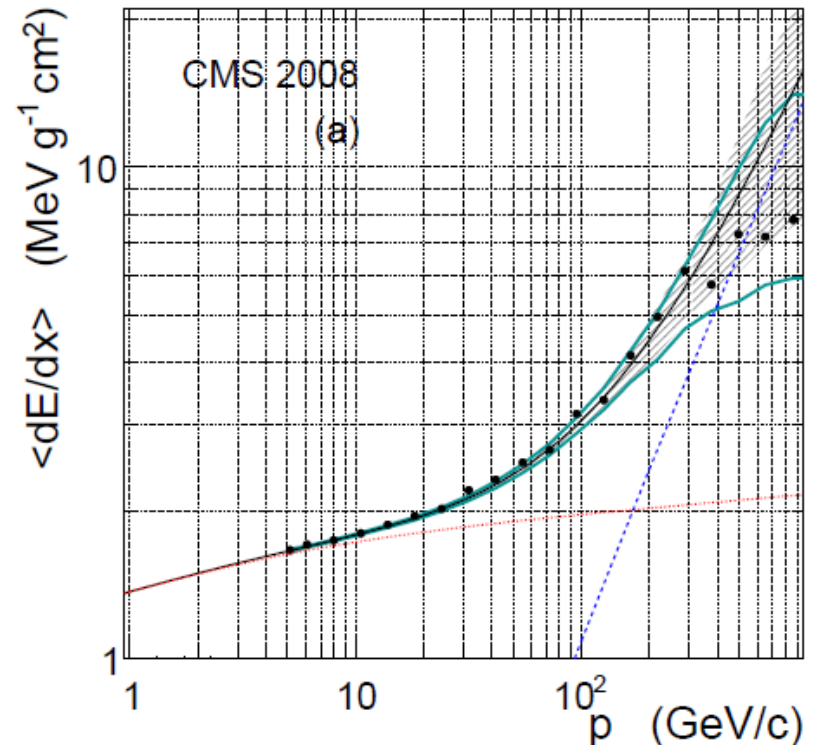
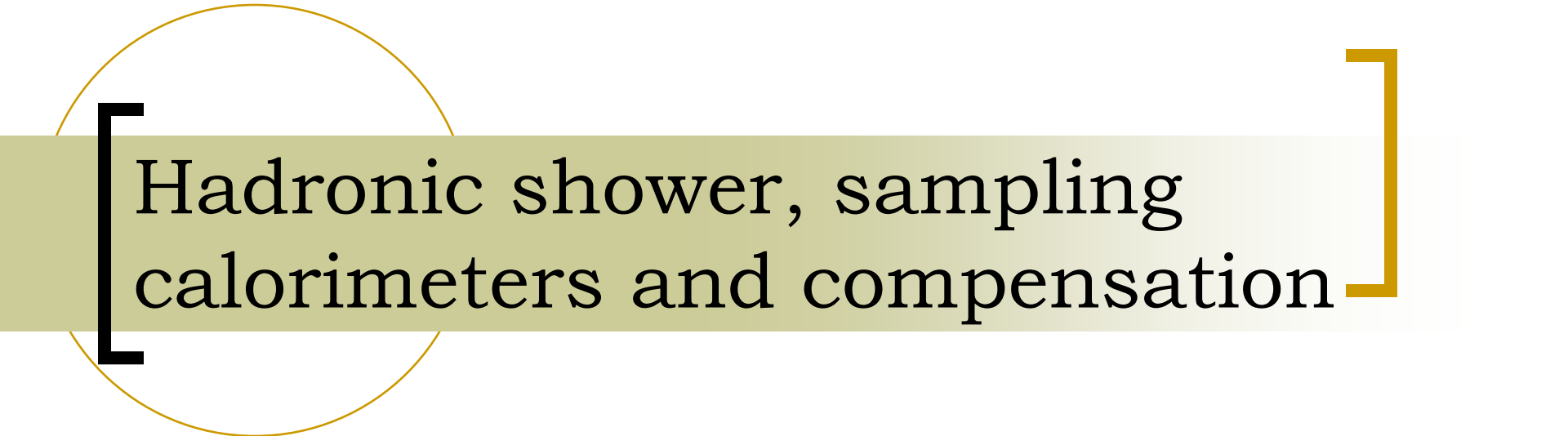


Figure 3. Measured distributions of $\Delta E/\Delta x$ in ECAL; (a) for muon momenta below 10 GeV/c; (b) for muon momenta above 300 GeV/c; the fraction of events with $\Delta E/\Delta x > 10 \text{ MeV g}^{-1} \text{ cm}^2$ is 1.3×10^{-3} and 8×10^{-2} in (a) and (b) respectively.



■ $E_C = 160_{-6}^{+5} \text{ (stat.)} \pm 8 \text{ (syst.) GeV}$



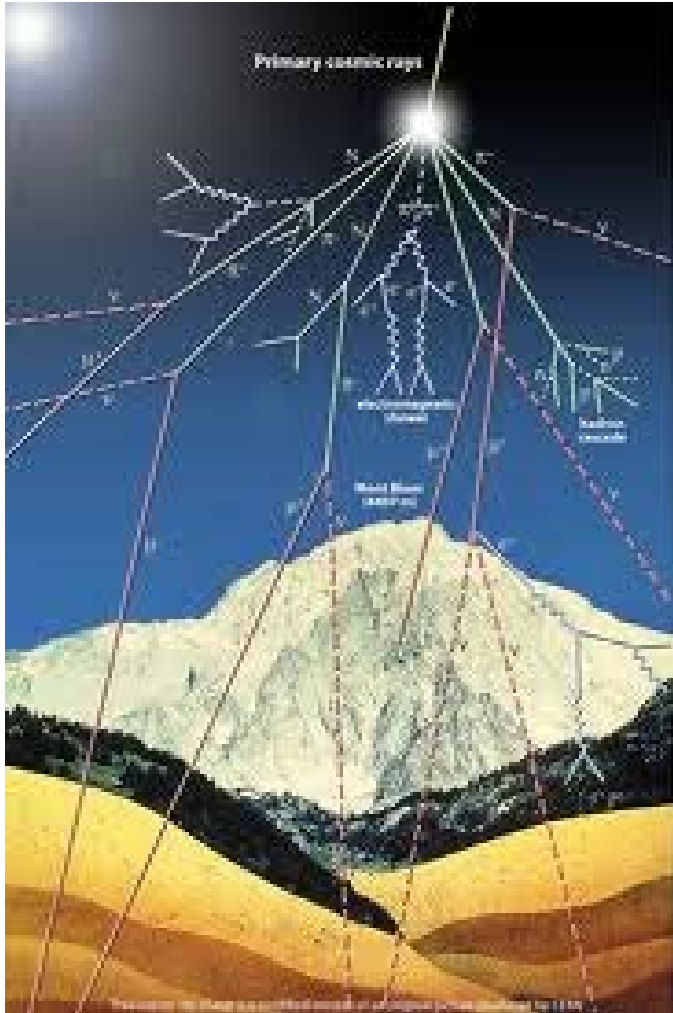
Hadronic shower, sampling
calorimeters and compensation

Nuclear interactions

- Charged hadrons lose energy continuously due to ionization/excitation of atoms.
- The interaction of energetic hadrons (charged or neutral) with matter is mainly determined by inelastic nuclear processes.
- Excitation and finally break-up of nucleus → nucleus fragments + production of secondary particles.
- For high energies (>1 GeV) the cross-sections depend only little on the energy and on the type of the incident particle (π , p , K ...).

$$\sigma_{inel} \approx \sigma_0 A^{0.7} \quad \sigma_0 \approx 35 \text{ mb}$$

[Hadronic Showers]

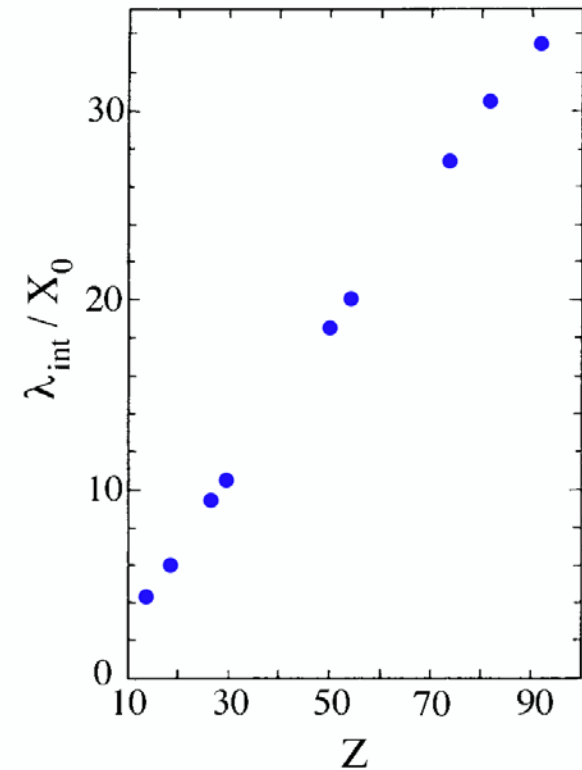
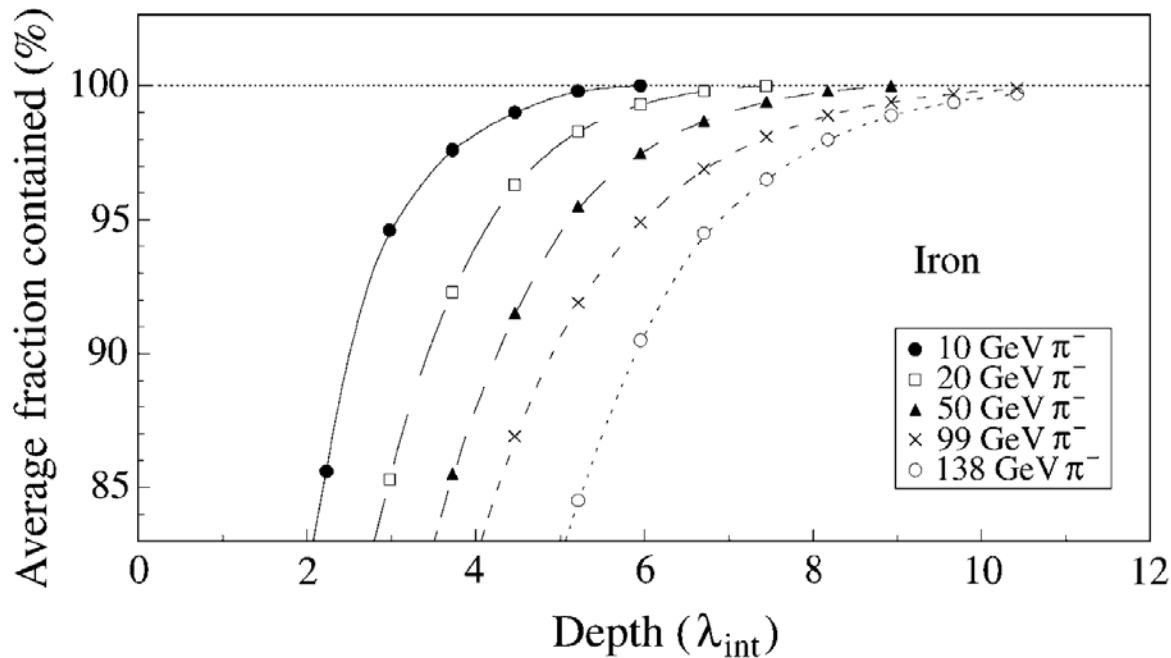


- A very common hadronic shower.

Hadronic Showers

- Typical scale is the interaction length λ
- Good containment in $\sim 10 \lambda$ but $\lambda > X_0$ (or $\lambda \gg X_0$)
- Larger size of the calorimeters drives the choice of sampling HCAL

	X_0 (cm)	λ_{int} (cm)
Pb	0.56	17.0
PbWO ₄	0.89	18.0
Fe	1.76	16.8
Cu	1.43	15.1

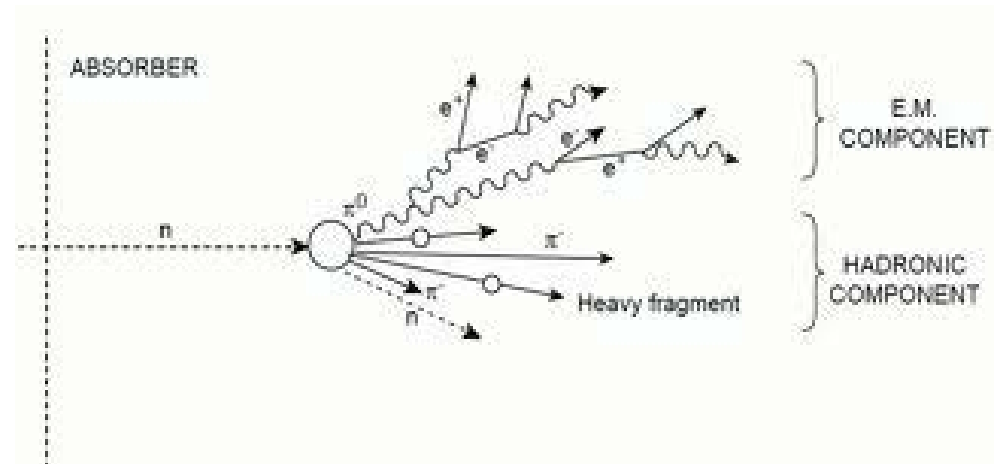


- Lateral containment: $\sim 95\%$ of the shower contained in a cylinder of radius λ_{int} .

[Hadronic Showers]

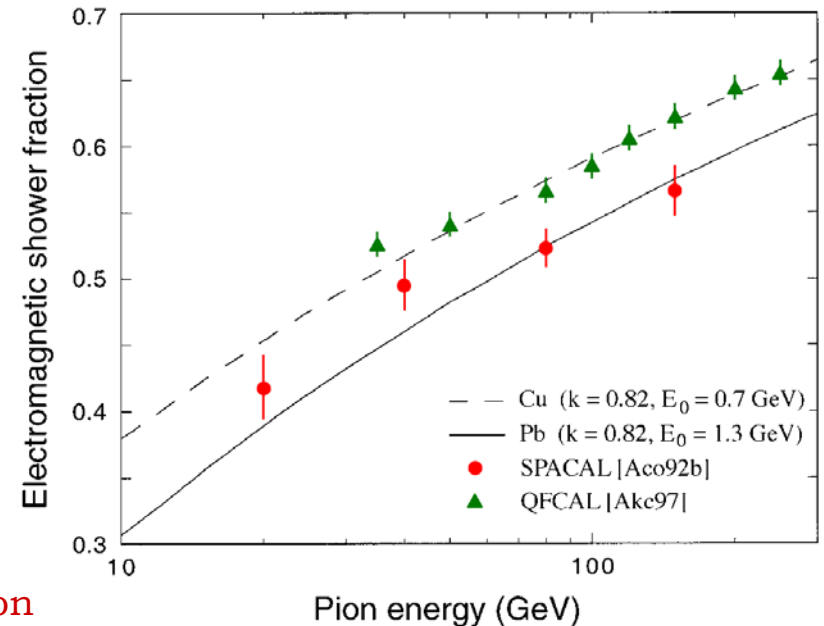
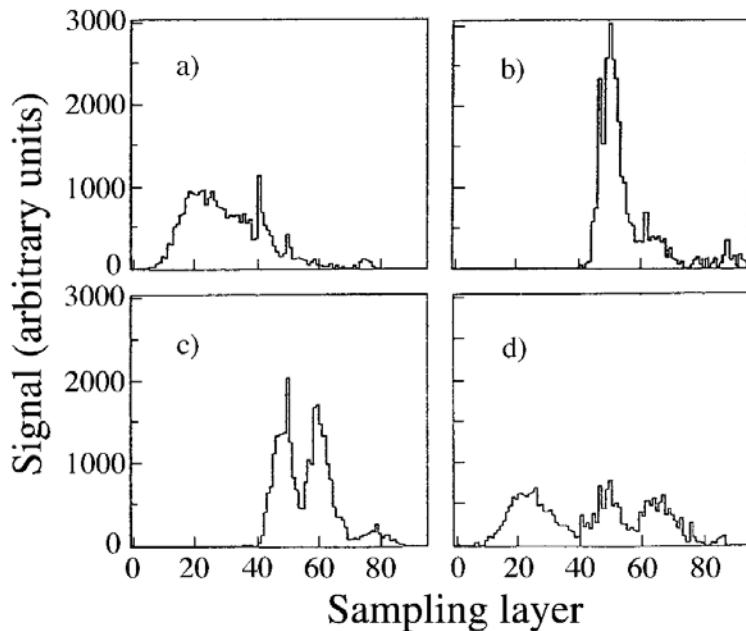
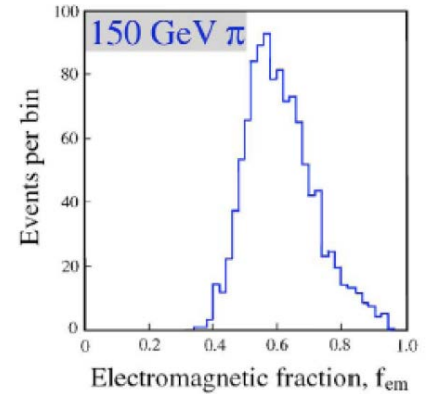
- More complicated than em shower due to the presence of strong interaction.
- Pions (charged and neutral) are by far the most important contribution in the hadronic shower composition but a lot of energy is deposited through protons and neutrons.

Neutral pions decay in photons before to interact
 → electromagnetic component in the hadronic shower



Hadronic Showers

- Big fluctuation in the hadronic shower profile (bottom left plot) and in the electromagnetic shower fraction (top right plot).
- Energy dependence of electromagnetic component (bottom right plot)



[Hadronic Showers]

- A not negligible fraction of hadronic energy does not contribute to the calorimeter signal ($e/h > 1$):
 - energy to release nucleons from nuclei (binding energy)
 - muons and neutrinos from π/K decays
- The calorimeter response to hadrons is generally smaller than to electrons of the same energy ($\pi/e < 1$).
- Degradation in energy resolution (the energy sharing between em and non-em components varies from one event to another) and linearity (the em fraction of hadron-induced showers increases with energy, so π/e does).

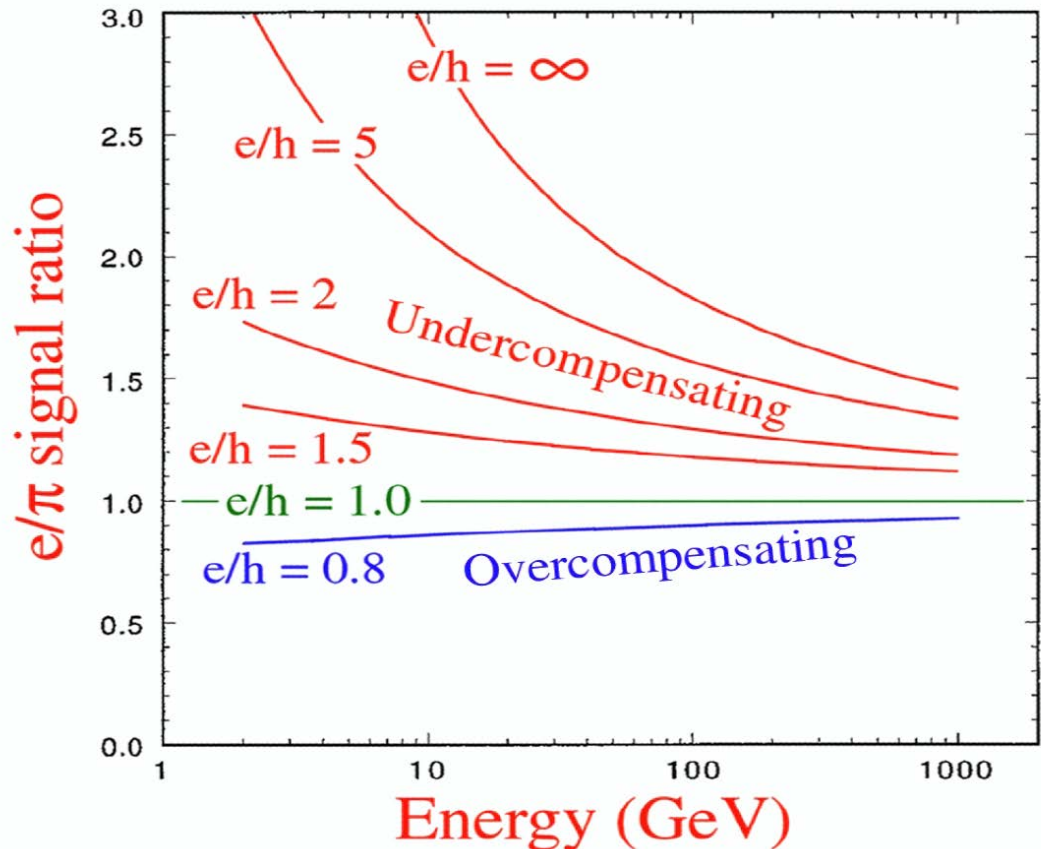
[Non-linear response]

Calorimeter response →

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

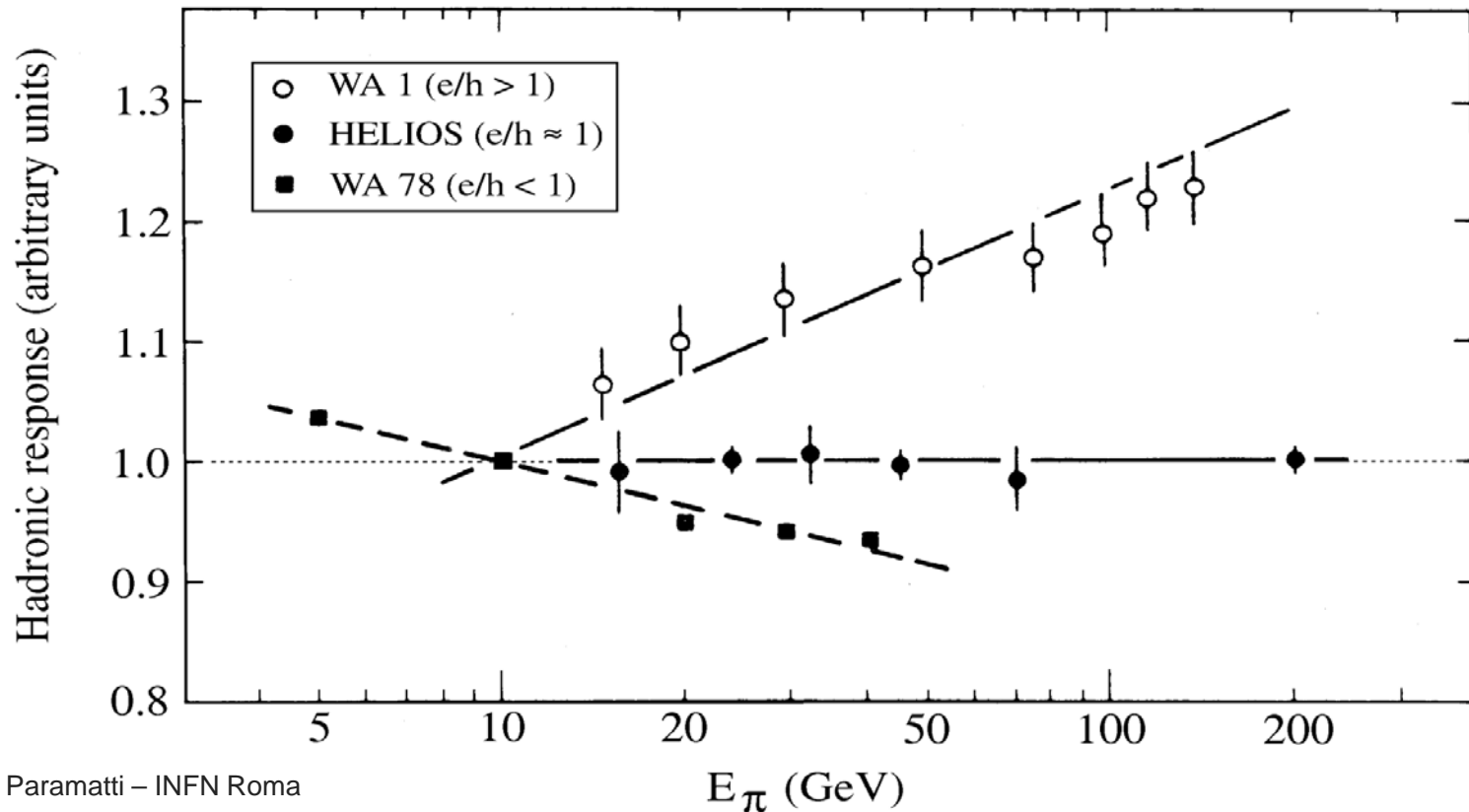
$$\frac{e}{\pi} = \frac{e/h}{1 - f_{em}(1 - e/h)}$$

Compensation:
equalization of the
response to the
electromagnetic and
non-em shower
components ($e/h = 1$).



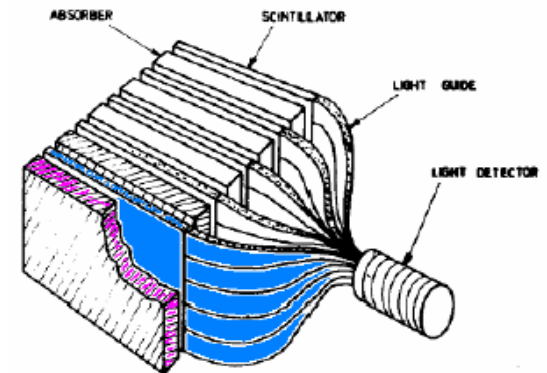
[Non-linear response]

$$\frac{\pi(E_1)}{\pi(E_2)} = \frac{f_{em}(E_1) + h/e \cdot (1 - f_{em}(E_1))}{f_{em}(E_2) + h/e \cdot (1 - f_{em}(E_2))} \neq 1$$

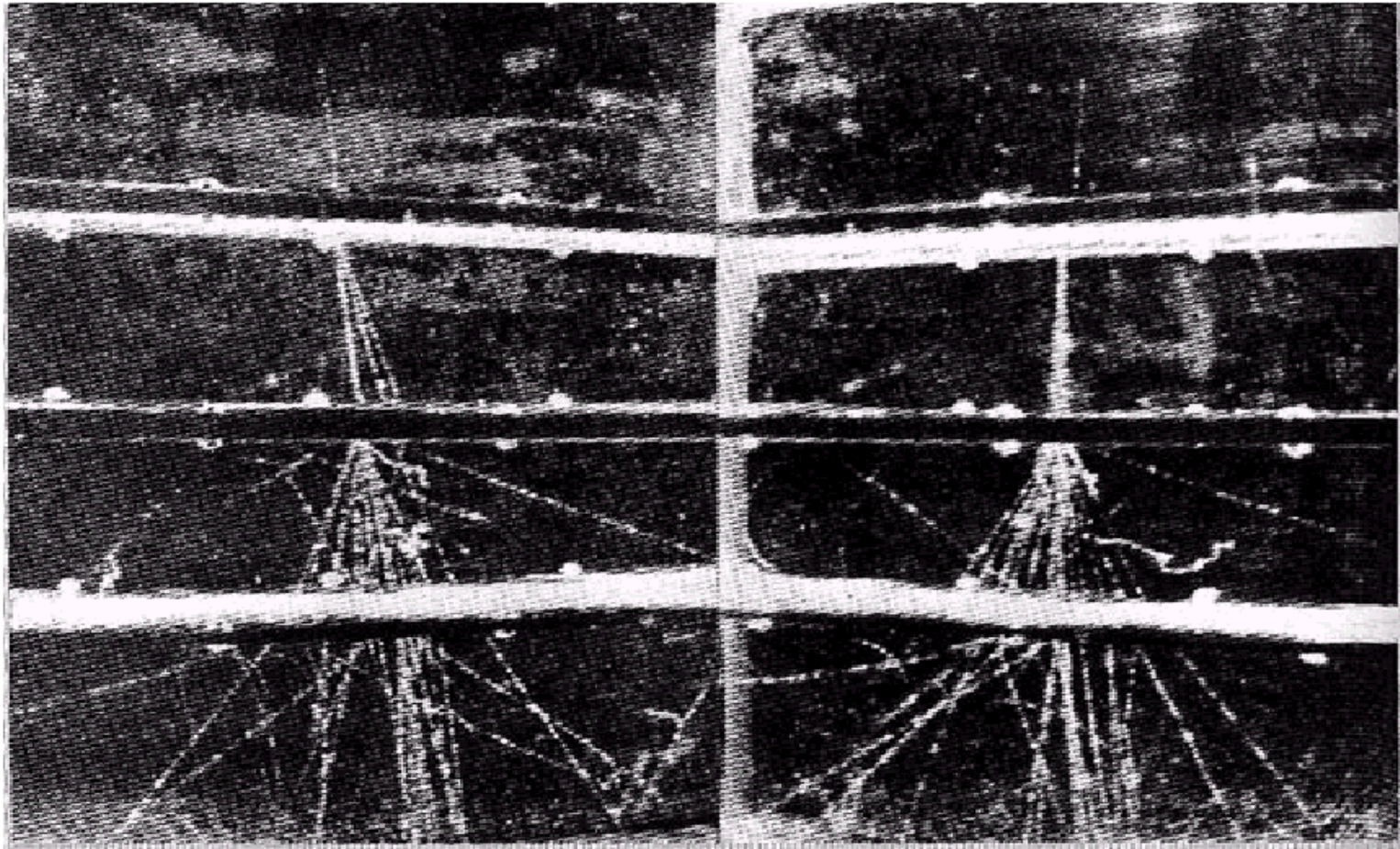


Homogeneous and sampling calorimeters

- In homogeneous calorimeters the absorber and the active medium are the same (e.g. ECAL in Opal, L3, Babar and CMS)
- In sampling calorimeters the two roles are played by two different media (e.g. ECAL in Delphi and Atlas, most of the HCAL in HEP).
 - Shower is sampled by layers of active medium (low-Z) alternated with dense radiator (high-Z) material.
 - **Limited energy resolution**
 - Detailed shower shape information
 - Reduced cost



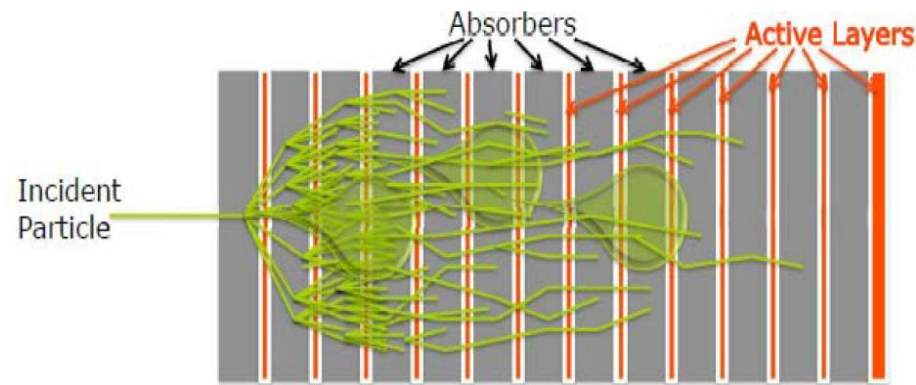
Electromagnetic shower in sampling calorimeter



Cloud chamber photograph of electromagnetic shower developing in lead plates exposed to cosmic radiation

[Sampling calorimeters]

- Sampling fraction = (energy deposited in the active medium) / (total deposited energy)
- The sampling fraction directly affects the energy resolution
- Active layer. Detection of ionization/excitation:
 - Gas (example L3's Uranium/gas hcal)
 - Noble liquid (eg LAr, LKr)
 - Scintillators (fibers, tiles)
 - Cherenkov radiating fibers



[The sampling fraction]

- Example: a MIP in 20 layers of (5 cm of iron + 1 cm of plastic scintillator)

$$dE_{Fe} = 1.451 \frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{g / cm}^2} \cdot 7.8 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3} \cdot 5 \text{cm} \cdot 20 = 1131.8 \text{MeV}$$

$$dE_{sci} = 1.936 \frac{\text{MeV}}{\text{g / cm}^2} \cdot 1.03 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3} \cdot 1 \text{cm} \cdot 20 = 39.9 \text{MeV}$$

$$f_{samp} = \frac{39.9}{1131.8 + 39.9} = 3.4\%$$

- Only 3.4% of the MIP energy is visible (measured in the scintillator) → calibration factor for MIP = 1/0.034

[Compensation (1)]

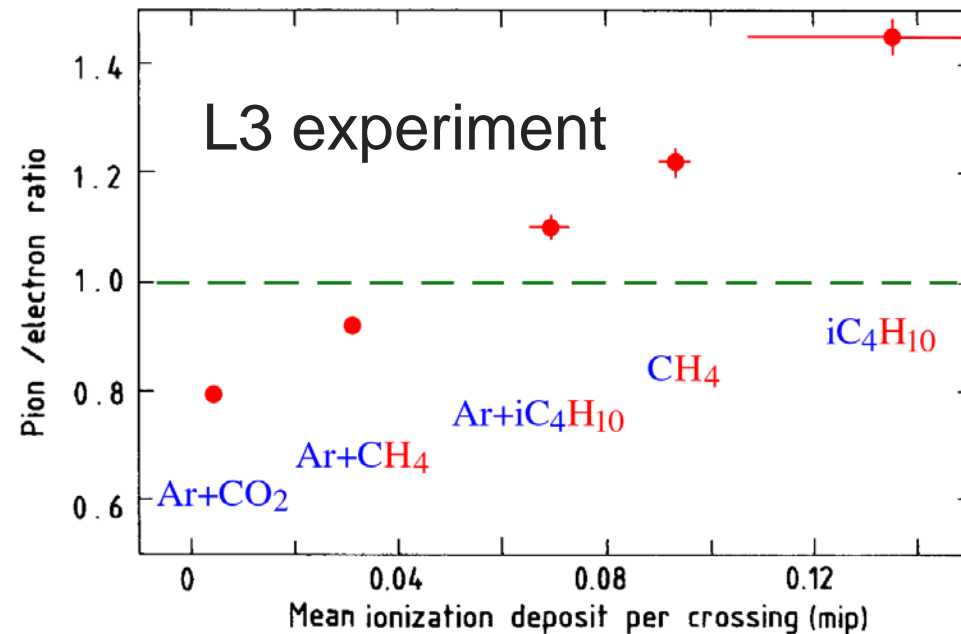
Compensation: equalization of the response to the electromagnetic and non-em shower components ($e/h = 1$).

Options:

- Tune (increase) the hadronic response:
 - hydrogen in the active layer
 - absorber with high neutron yield (Pb, U)
 - extend the integration time of the readout
- Tune (decrease) the electron response:
 - enlarge the thickness of absorber layer
 - higher Z material as absorber
- Software compensation
- **Dual read-out**

[Compensation (2)]

- Low energy neutrons contribute to the calorimeter signal through elastic scattering with nuclei.
- The energy transfer is strongly Z dependent and much larger in active material (low Z) than in passive material (high Z)
- Tuning the hydrogen presence in the active layer allows to tune the e/h ratio.

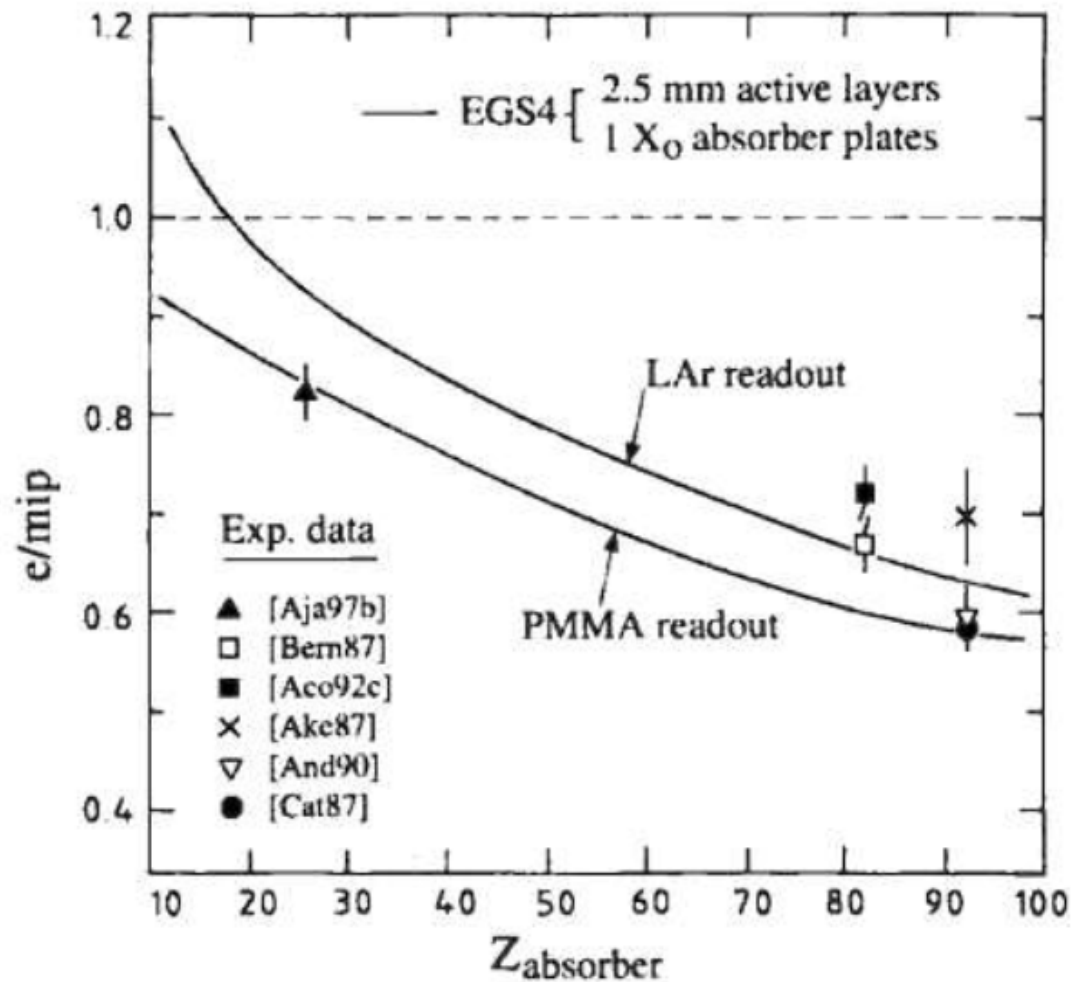


- Signals from neutrons come late due to the required thermalization, capture and photon emission (~200 ns). e/h can be reduced by extending the integration time of the readout. (ZEUS calorimeters). Not possible at LHC !

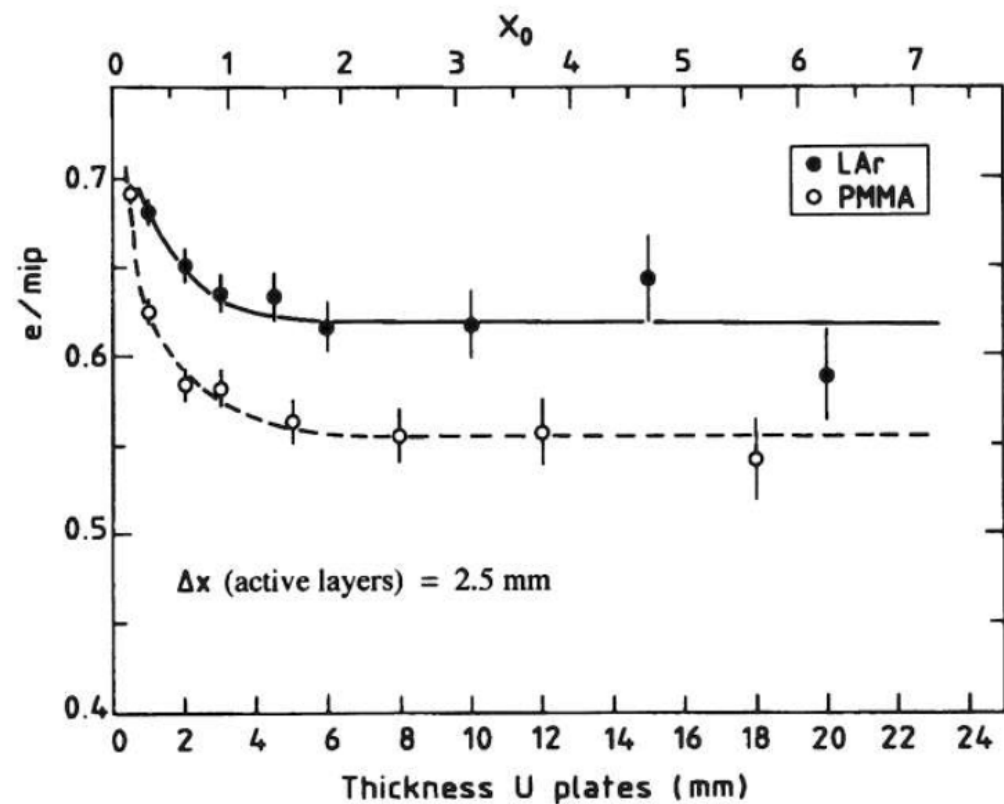
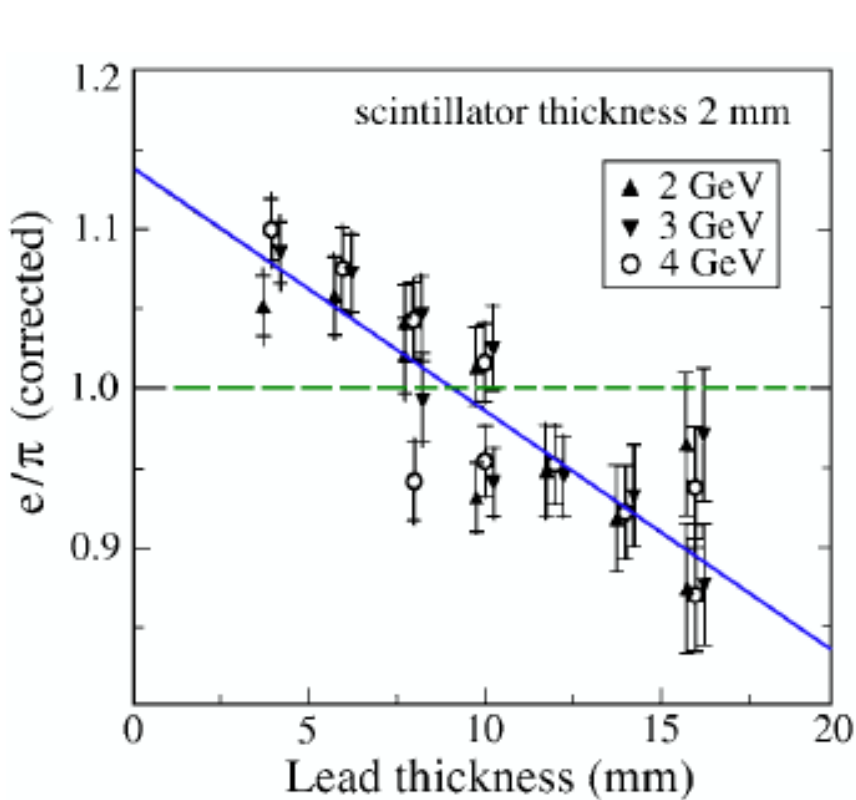
[Compensation (3)]

- Electromagnetic particles are mainly produced with low energy in high Z absorber (for instance photo-electric goes as Z^5).
- Range of soft particles is smaller than the thickness of the absorber layer \rightarrow a fraction of e.m. particles do not reach the active layer.
- e/h ratio can be tuned with the Z and with the thickness of the absorber
- Drawback: sampling fraction is reduced; energy resolution get worse

[Compensation (4)]



[Compensation (5)]



[Compensation (6)]

Software compensation: high granularity calorimeter to locate the electromagnetic component of the shower

- e.m. component is very localized in the first layers (shower maximum inside $10X_0$) and in the central core ($1 R_M$)
- Apply different weights to the cells of the calorimeters to tune e/h

Compensation with dual readout: ideally the best would be to measure the e.m. fraction event by event and correct offline.

- Production of Cherenkov light in hadron showers is mainly due to e.m. component.
- Comparing the amounts of Cherenkov light with the scintillation light allow to estimate the e.m. fraction.
- Measure the two component independently.

More on dual readout in part 3 tomorrow.



Energy detection

Energy loss detection

The energy deposited in the calorimeters is converted to active detector response

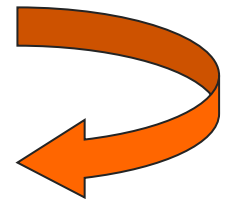
$$\bullet E_{\text{vis}} \leq E_{\text{dep}} \leq E_0$$

Main conversion mechanism

- Cerenkov radiation from e^\pm
- Scintillation light
- Ionization of the detection medium

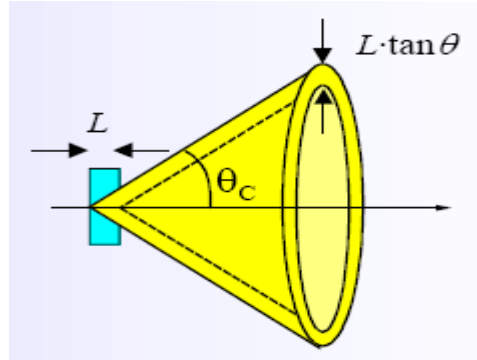
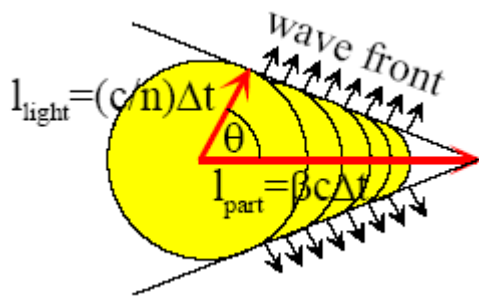
response \propto total track length

Different energy threshold E_s
for signal detectability



Cherenkov Light

- A charged particle traveling in matter with speed greater than c/n (the speed of the light in the same material) emits photons in the visible (mainly in the blue).



Maximum value for the emission angle ($v=c$)

$$\theta_{\max} = \arccos \frac{1}{n}$$

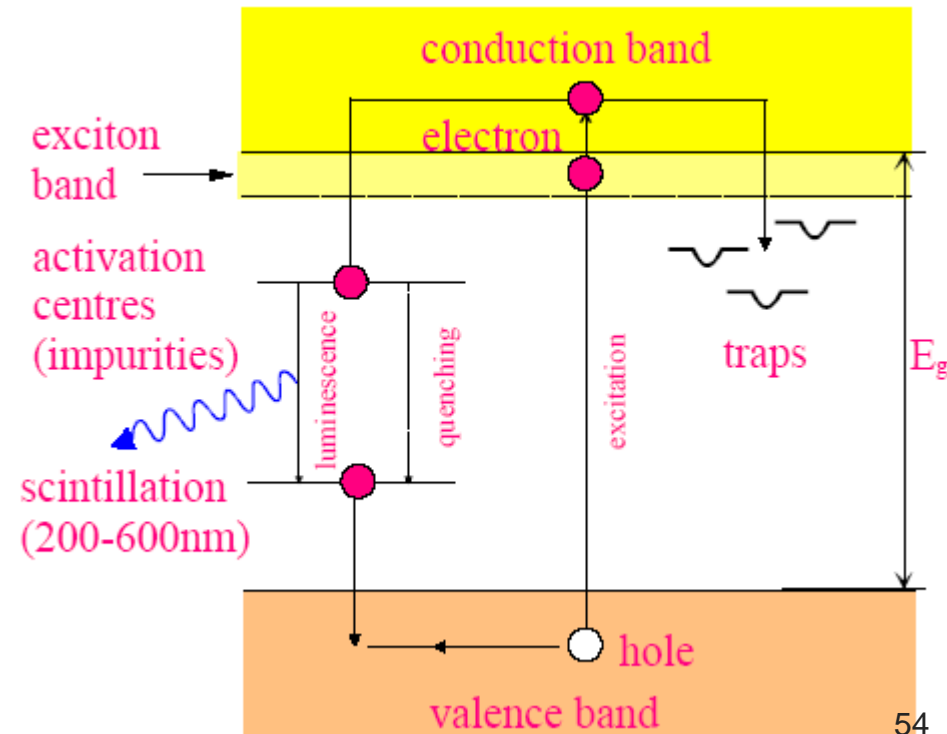
- The energy loss by Cherenkov effect is much smaller than the energy loss by ionization: high gain photodetector is needed (e.g. PMTs)

Scintillation mechanism

Luminescent materials emit light when stimulated with light and heat (photo-luminescence) and radiation (scintillation). Scintillators need impurities (dopant) in order to emit at a different wavelength and not reabsorb the light.

The centers are of three main types:

- **Luminescence centers**
photon emission
- **Quenching centers**
thermal dissipation of the excited energy
- **Traps**
metastable levels, from where electrons may subsequently go to
 - conduction band by thermal energy
 - valence band by a radiation-less transition



[Scintillators]

Two scintillator classes: organic and inorganic.

Inorganic (crystalline structure)

Up to 40000 photons per MeV
 High Z
 Large variety of Z and ρ
 Undoped and doped
 ns to μ s decay times
 Expensive

E.m. calorimetry (e, γ)
 Medical imaging
 Fairly Rad. Hard (100 kGy/year)

Organic (plastics or liquid solutions)

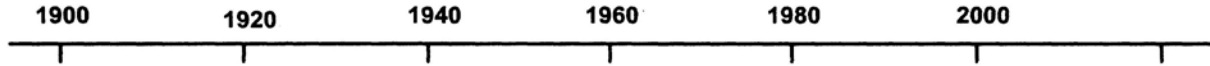
Up to 10000 photons per MeV
 Low Z
 $\rho \sim 1 \text{ gr/cm}^3$
 Doped, large choice of emission wavelength
 ns decay times
 Relatively inexpensive

Tracking, TOF, trigger, veto counters,
 sampling calorimeters.
 Medium Rad. Hard (10 kGy/year)

Inorganic scintillators

Scintillator composition	Density (g/cm ³)	Index of refraction	Wavelength of max.Em. (nm)	Decay time Constant (μs)	Scinti Pulse height ¹⁾
NaI(Tl)	3.67	1.9	410	0.25	100
CsI	4.51	1.8	310	0.01	6
CsI(Tl)	4.51	1.8	565	1.0	45
CaF ₂ (Eu)	3.19	1.4	435	0.9	50
BaF ₂	4.88	1.5	190/220 310	0,0006 0.63	5 15
BGO	7.13	2.2	480	0.30	10
CdWO ₄	7.90	2.3	540	5.0	40
PbWO ₄	8.28	2.1	440	0.020	0.1
CeF ₃	6.16	1.7	300 340	0.005 0.020	5
GSO	6.71	1.9	430	0.060	40
LSO	7	1.8	420	0.040	75
YAP	5.50	1.9	370	0.030	70

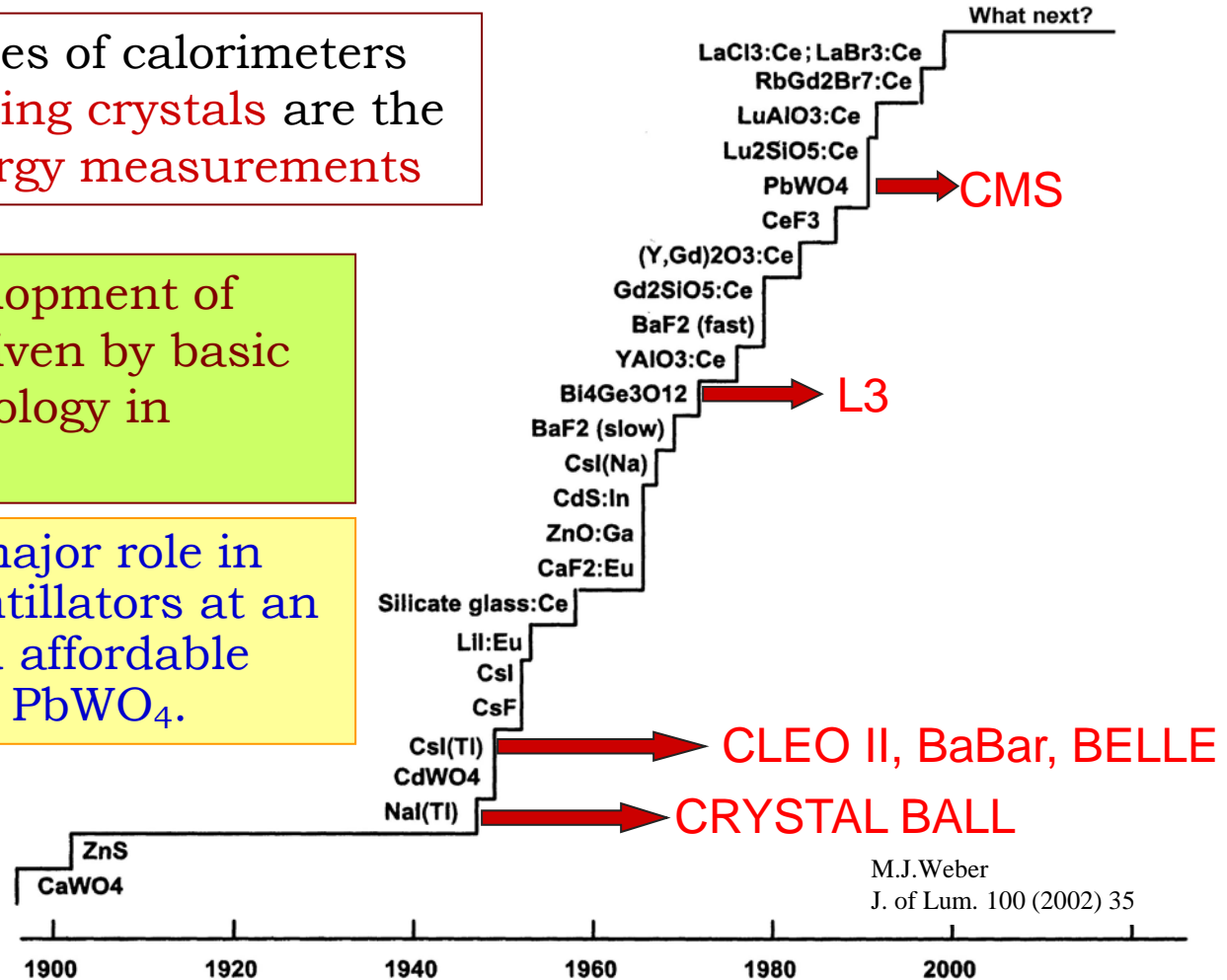
Scintillating Crystal History



Among different types of calorimeters those with **scintillating crystals** are the **most precise in energy measurements**

Discovery and development of new scintillators driven by basic research and technology in physics

HEP has played a major role in developing new scintillators at an industrial scale and affordable cost, e.g. BGO, CsI, PbWO₄.



M.J.Weber
J. of Lum. 100 (2002) 35



Energy resolution

Energy resolution

$$\Gamma_H (m_H \sim 100 \text{ GeV}) < 100 \text{ MeV}$$

$$\Gamma_H / m_H \leq 10^{-3}$$

The discovery potential of an intermediate mass Higgs boson via the two photon decay channel is strongly dependent on the energy resolution.

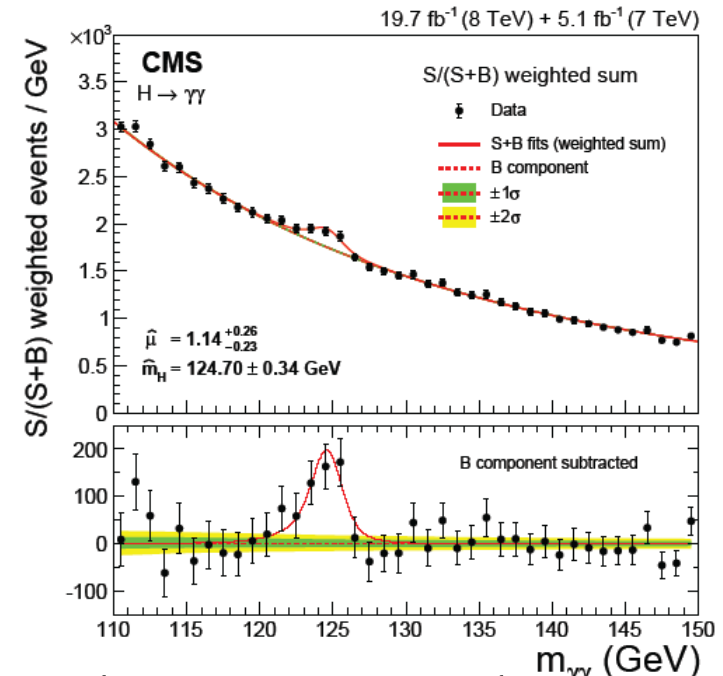
$$m_{\gamma\gamma} = \sqrt{2E_{\gamma 1}E_{\gamma 2}(1 - \cos\theta_{\gamma 1, \gamma 2})}$$



$$\frac{\Delta m_{\gamma\gamma}}{m_{\gamma\gamma}} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\Delta E_{\gamma 1}}{E_{\gamma 1}} \oplus \frac{\Delta E_{\gamma 2}}{E_{\gamma 2}} \oplus \frac{\Delta\theta_{\gamma\gamma}}{\tan(\theta_{\gamma\gamma}/2)} \right]$$

⊕ represents the quadratic sum

need energy resolution:
 $\Delta E/E < 1\%$
 for $E \sim 50 \text{ GeV}$



[Energy resolution (2)]

■ **Intrinsic fluctuations**

- Signal in the active medium
 - photo statistics, charge fluctuations
 - saturation effects, recombination
- Shower composition (hadrons)
- $e/h \neq 1$ in conjunction with the fluctuation of f_{em} (hadrons)

■ **Sampling calorimeters**

- Fluctuation of the visible signal (sampling fluctuations)

■ **Instrumental effects**

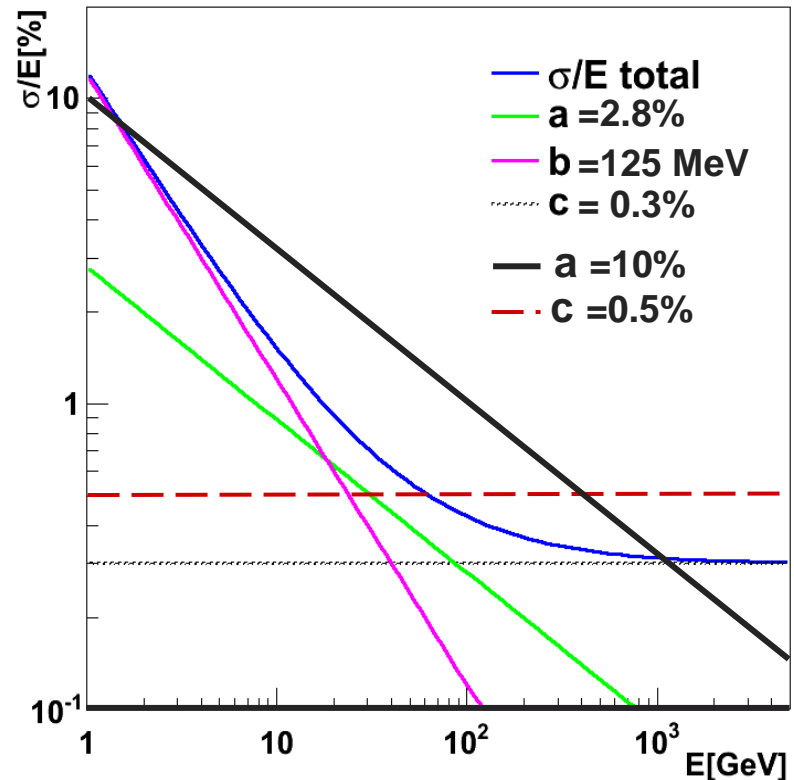
- Inhomogeneities (e.g. variation of plate thickness)
- Incorrect calibrations of different channels (intercalibration)
- Electronic noise

[Energy resolution (3)]

$$\frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus \frac{b}{E} \oplus c \quad \oplus \text{ represents the quadratic sum}$$

- **a: stochastic term from Poisson-like fluctuations**
 - sampling contribution dominant in sampling calorimeters (f_{samp})
- **b: noise term from electronic and pile-up**
 - relevant at low energy
- **c: constant term**
 - dangerous limitation to high energy resolution
 - important contribution from inter-calibration constants

When do you have to worry about c ?



[Energy resolution (4)]

- a: stochastic term from Poisson-like fluctuations

(natural advantage of homogenous calorimeters; s can be ~ 2%-3%)

- photo-statistics contribution:
 - light yield
 - geometrical efficiency of the photo-detector
 - photo-cathode quantum efficiency
- electron current multiplication in photo-detector
- lateral containment of the shower
- material in front of the calorimeter

$$E \propto N_{\text{p.e.}}$$

$$\sigma(N_{\text{p.e.}}) \propto \sqrt{N_{\text{p.e.}}}$$

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

Including gain fluctuations of photo-detector (F):

$$\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} = \sqrt{\frac{F}{N_{\text{p.e.}} \cdot E}}$$

$F = 2 - 3; N_{\text{p.e.}} \geq 4000/\text{GeV}$



[Energy resolution (5)]

Compare processes with different energy threshold

Scintillating crystals

$$E_s \cong \beta E_{\text{gap}} \sim \text{eV}$$

$$\approx 10^2 \div 10^4 \gamma / \text{MeV}$$

$$\sigma / E \sim (1 \div 3)\% / \sqrt{E(\text{GeV})}$$



Lowest possible limit

Cherenkov radiators

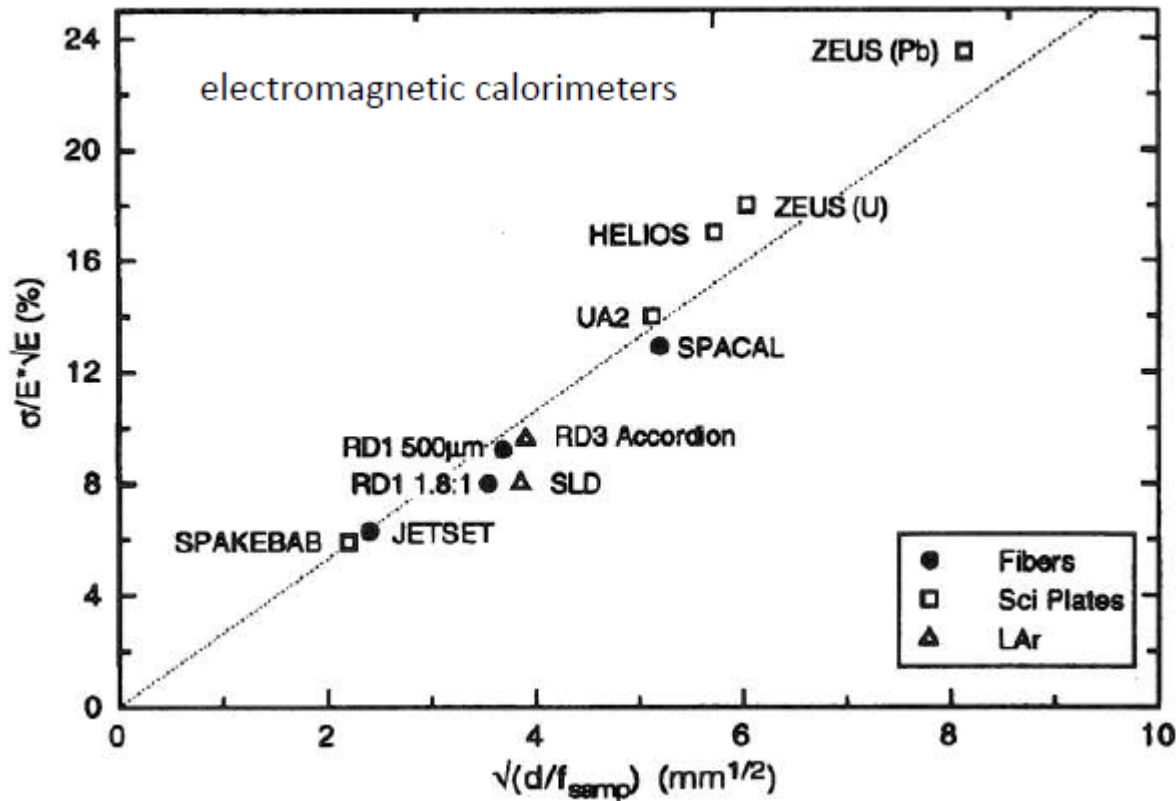
$$\beta > \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow E_s \sim 0.7 \text{MeV}$$

$$\approx 10 \div 30 \gamma / \text{MeV}$$

$$\sigma / E \sim (10 \div 5)\% / \sqrt{E(\text{GeV})}$$

[Energy resolution (6)]

stochastic term in sampling calorimeters



empirical formula

$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} = 2.7\% \frac{\sqrt{d/f_{smp}}}{\sqrt{E}}$$

d: thickness of the active layers (in mm)

[Energy resolution (7)]

- Calorimeter stochastic term

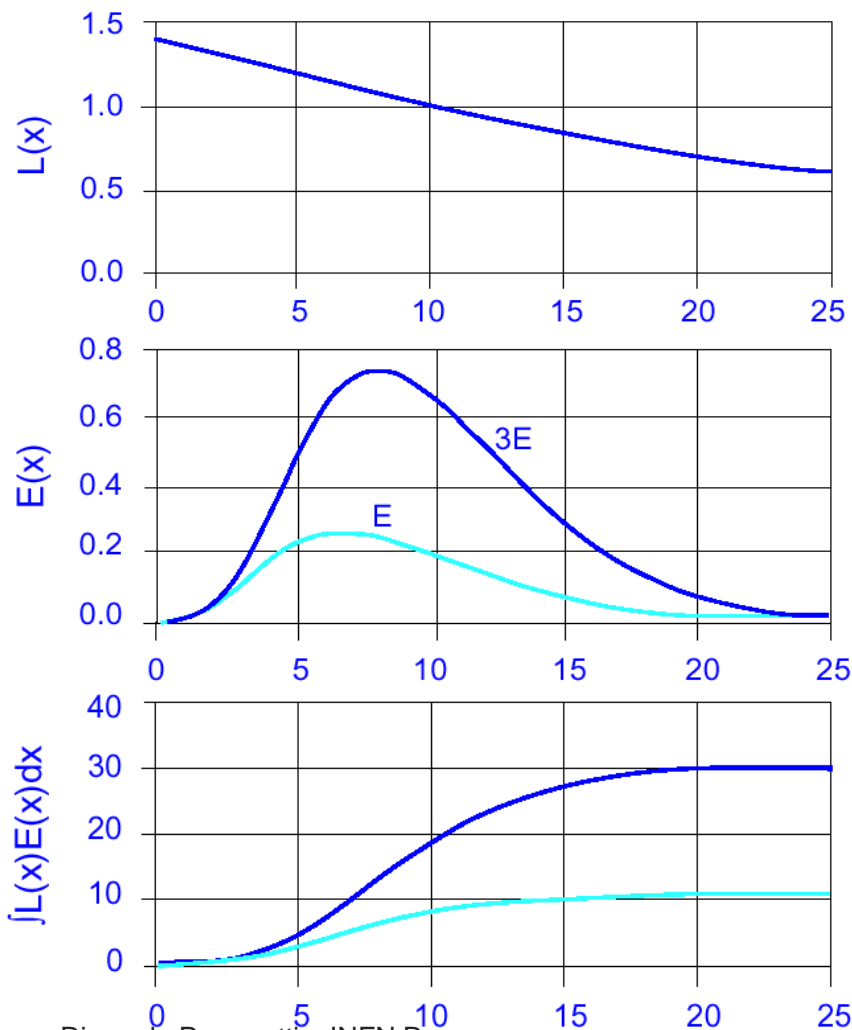
Experiment		absorber	active	resolution	type
CMS	em	PbWO ₄	Scint.	2.8%/√E	homogeneous
CMS	had.	Fe	Scint.	77%/√E	sampling
ATLAS	em	Pb	LAr	10%/√E	sampling
ATLAS	had.	Cu	LAr	66%/√E	sampling
NA48	em	LKr	LKr	3.5%/√E	homogeneous
BaBar	em	CsI	CsI	2.3%/E ^{1/4}	homogeneous

[Energy resolution (8)]

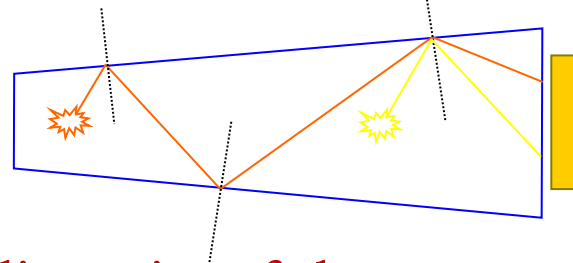
Constant term contributions (dominant at high energy):

- temperature stability (temperature dependence of light yield in inorganic scintillator)
- photo-detector bias stability
- longitudinal uniformity
- channel inter-calibration
- leakage (front, rear, dead material)
- transparency loss due to ageing
- ...

A practical example concerning the CMS ECAL construction.



Light Collection Uniformity



- **non linearity of the response** (can be corrected)
- **smearing of the response at fixed energy due to shower fluctuations** (can not be corrected)

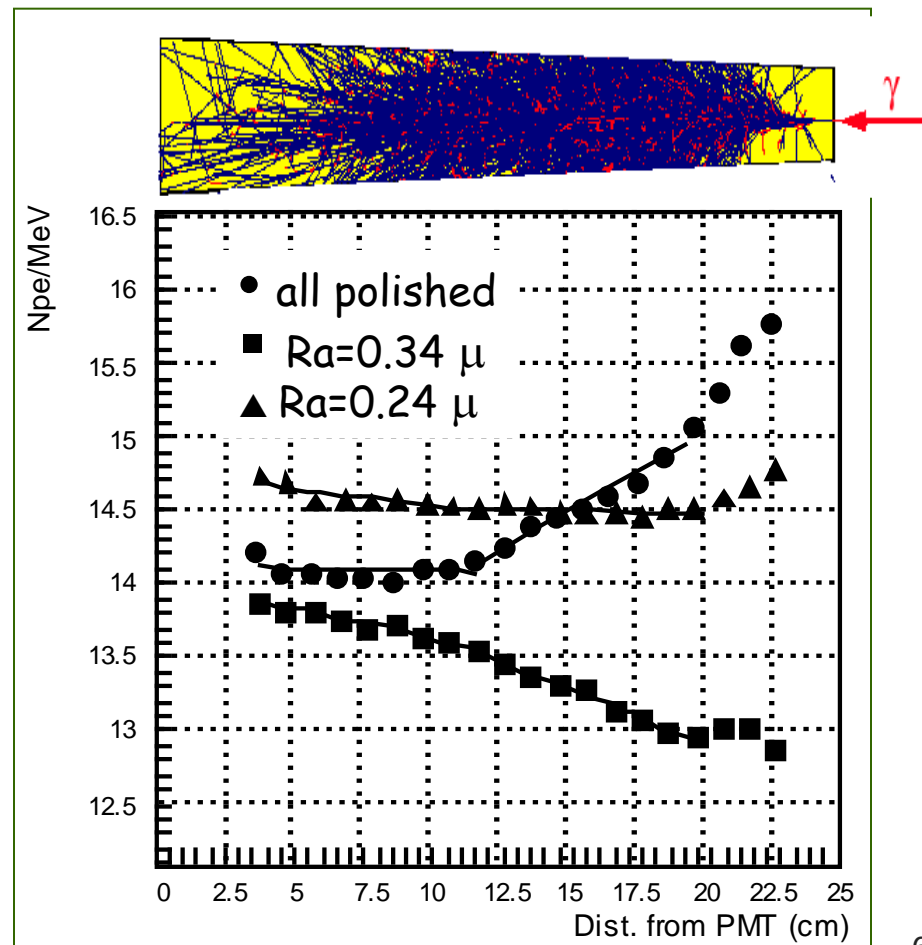
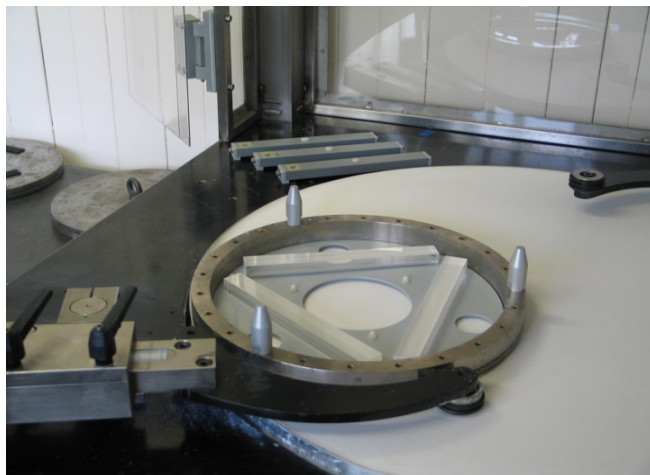
$$\int_0^x L(x)E(x)dx$$

ratio 2.89
(instead of 3)

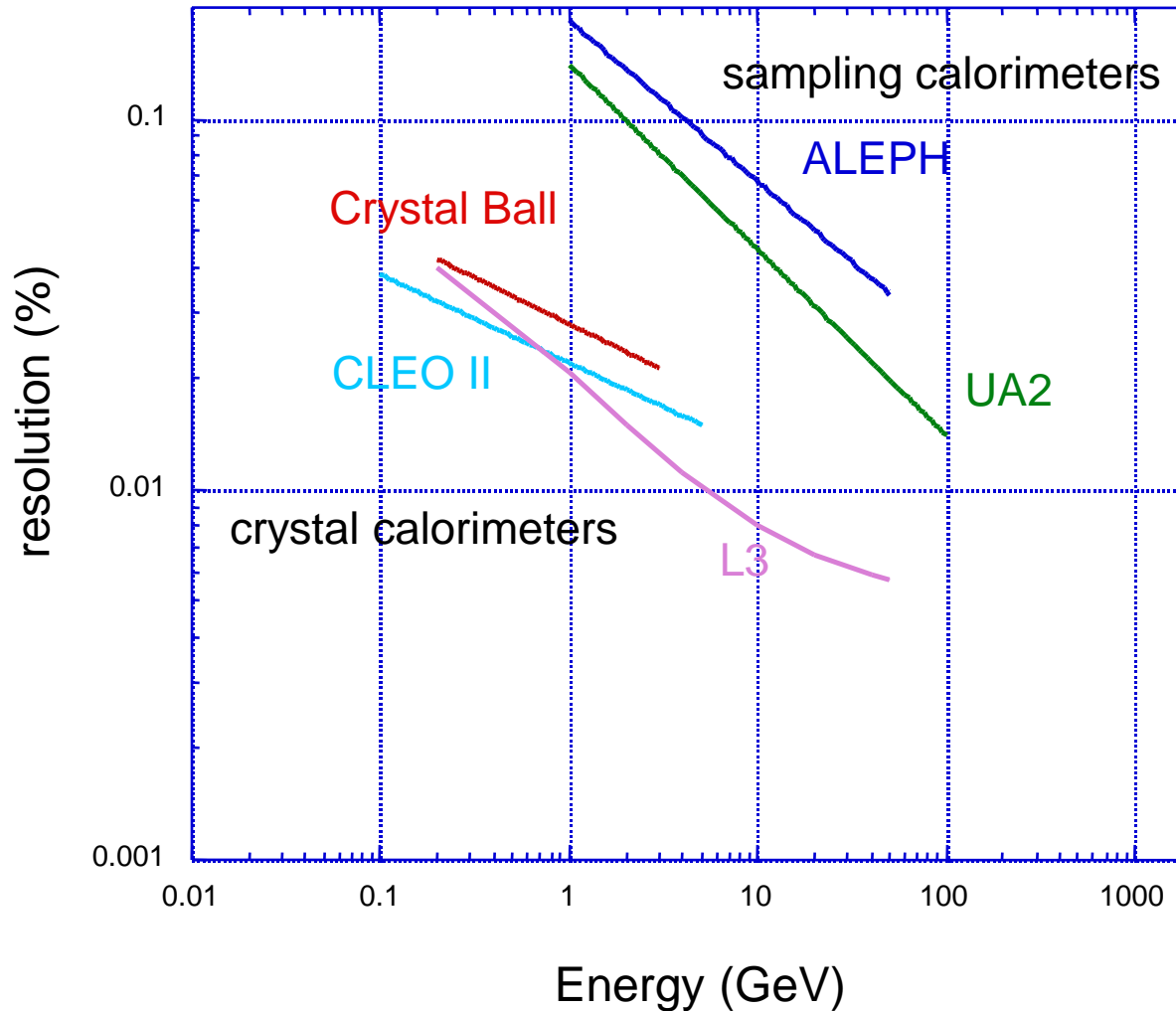
A practical example concerning the CMS ECAL construction.

- High refractive index make light collection difficult
- Focusing effect due to tapered shape of barrel crystals
- Uniformity can be controlled by depolishing one lateral face with a given roughness

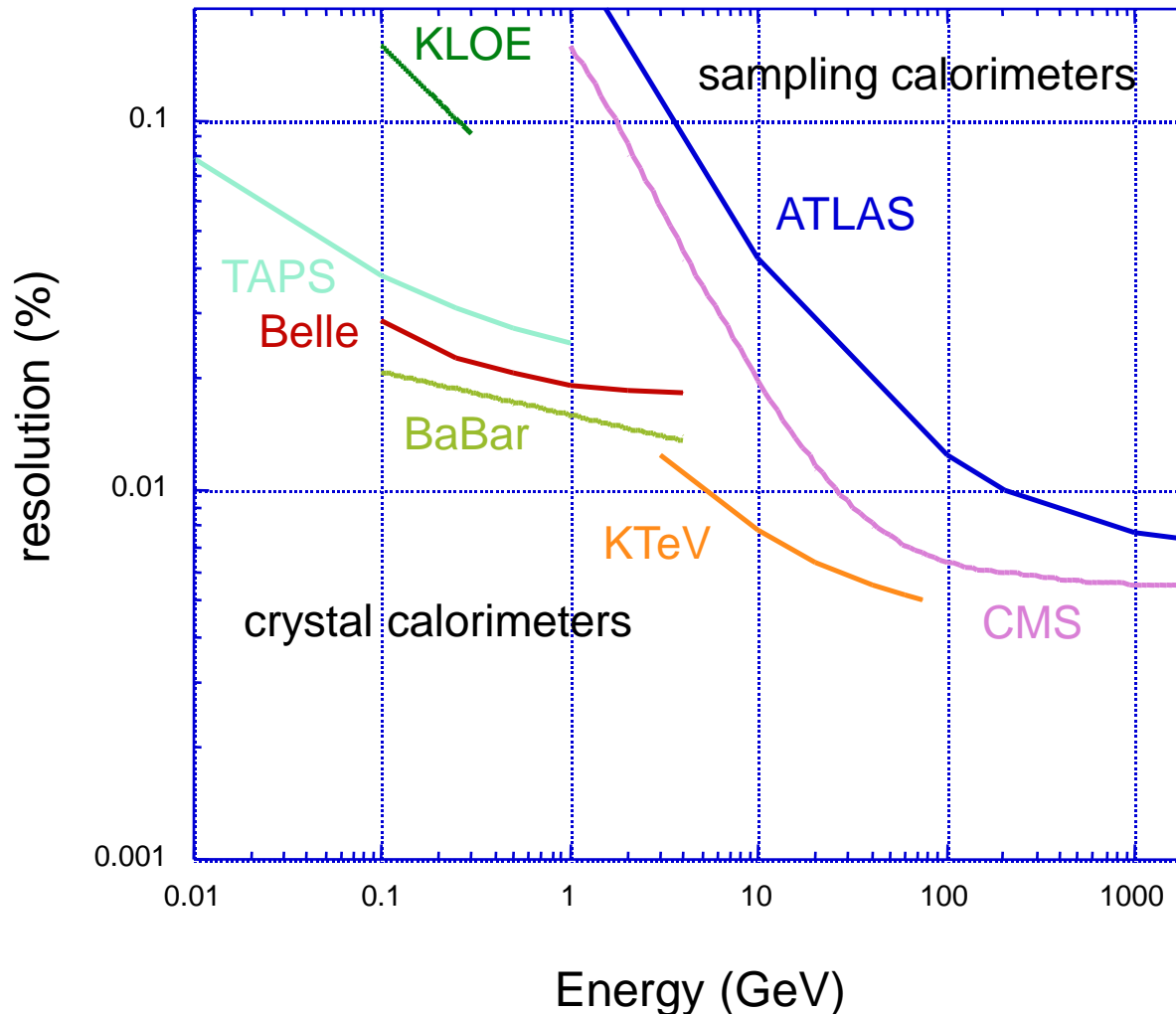
Uniformity treatment



Energy resolution of past e.m. calorimeters



Energy resolution of recent e.m. calorimeters



Resolution summary

- **Electromagnetic calorimetry**
 - homogeneous, if well done → $a \sim 3\%$ (take care of constant term !)
 - sampling, if well done → $a \sim 10\%$
- **Hadron calorimetry**
 - non compensating → $a \sim 50\%-100\%$
 - compensating → $a \sim 35\%$
- **Future calorimetry (R&D) → in part3**
 - $a \sim 15\%$ is the goal for the e.m. part
 - $a \sim 25\%-30\%$ is the goal for the had. part