Calorimetry Peter Križan

- Basic principles
- Interaction of charged particles and photons
- Electromagnetic cascades
- Nuclear interactions
- Hadronic cascades
- Homogeneous calorimeters
- Sampling calorimeters

Calorimetry:

Energy measurement by total absorption, combined with spatial reconstruction.

Calorimetry is a "destructive" method

Detector response α E

Calorimetry works both for

- charged (e± and hadrons) and
- neutral particles (n,γ)

Basic mechanism: formation of electromagnetic or hadronic showers.

Finally, the energy is converted into ionization or excitation of the matter.

Generic LHC Detector for all Particles





Mean energy loss by ionisation

108 6 dE/dx (MeV g⁻¹cm²) H₂ liquid $\mathbf{5}$ 4 He gas 3 Fe $\mathbf{2}$ Sn Pb 0.11.0101001000 $10\,000$ $\beta \gamma = p/Mc$ uul 0.11.010 1001000Muon momentum (GeV/c) 0.11.010 1001000Pion momentum (GeV/c) 1 1 1 11 100000.11.01000 10100Proton momentum (GeV/c)

Figure 27.3: Mean energy loss rate in liquid (bubble chamber) hydrogen, gaseous helium, carbon, aluminum, iron, tin, and lead. Radiative effects, relevant for muons and pions, are not included. These become significant for muons in iron for $\beta \gamma \gtrsim 1000$, and at lower momenta for muons in higher-Z absorbers. See Fig. 27.21.

Bethe-Bloch formula For different materials

Energy loss by Bremsstrahlung

Radiation of real photons in the

Coulomb field of the nuclei of the absorber

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = 4\alpha N_A \frac{Z^2}{A} z^2 \left(\frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{mc^2}\right)^2 E \ln\frac{183}{Z^{\frac{1}{3}}} \propto \frac{E}{m^2}$$

Effect plays a role only for e[±] and ultra-relativistic μ (>1000 GeV)

For electrons:

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

radiation length [g/cm²]

 \sim

Z,A

e

Material	Ζ	А	ρ [g/cm³]	X ₀ [g/cm ²]	$\lambda_a [g/cm^2]$
Hydrogen (gas)	1	1.01	0.0899 (g/l)	63	50.8
Helium (gas)	2	4.00	0.1786 (g/l)	94	65.1
Beryllium	4	9.01	1.848	65.19	75.2
Carbon	6	12.01	2.265	43	86.3
Nitrogen (gas)	7	14.01	1.25 (g/l)	38	87.8
Oxygen (gas)	8	16.00	1.428 (g/l)	34	91.0
Aluminium	13	26.98	2.7	24	106.4
Silicon	14	28.09	2.33	22	106.0
Iron	26	55.85	7.87	13.9	131.9
Copper	29	63.55	8.96	12.9	134.9
Tungsten	74	183.85	19.3	6.8	185.0
Lead	82	207.19	11.35	6.4	194.0
Uranium	92	238.03	18.95	6.0	199.0

For Z > 6: $\lambda_a > X_0$



Electrons: fractional energy loss, 1/E dE/dx



Figure 27.10: Fractional energy loss per radiation length in lead as a function of electron or positron energy. Electron (positron) scattering is considered as ionization when the energy loss per collision is below 0.255 MeV, and as Møller (Bhabha) scattering when it is above. Adapted from Fig. 3.2 from Messel and Crawford, *Electron-Photon Shower Distribution Function Tables for Lead, Copper, and Air Absorbers*, Pergamon Press, 1970. Messel and Crawford use $X_0(Pb) = 5.82 \text{ g/cm}^2$, but we have modified the figures to reflect the value given in the Table of Atomic and Nuclear Properties of Materials ($X_0(Pb) = 6.37 \text{ g/cm}^2$).



For electrons one finds approximately:

 $E_c^{solid+liq} = \frac{610MeV}{Z+1.24}$ $E_c^{gas} = \frac{710MeV}{Z+1.24}$ density effect of dE/dx(ionisation)!

 $E_{c}(e^{-})$ in Fe(Z=26) = 22.4 MeV

For muons $E_c \approx E_c^{elec} \left(\frac{m_{\mu}}{m_e}\right)^2$

 $E_c(\mu) \text{ in Fe}(Z\text{=}26) \approx ~1~\text{TeV}$

Interaction of photons with matter



Figure 27.14: Photon total cross sections as a function of energy in carbon and lead, showing the contributions of different processes:

 $\sigma_{p.e.}$ = Atomic photoelectric effect (electron ejection, photon absorption)

 $\sigma_{\text{Rayleigh}} = \text{Rayleigh}$ (coherent) scattering-atom neither ionized nor excited

 $\sigma_{\text{Compton}} = \text{Incoherent scattering (Compton scattering off an electron)}$

 $\kappa_{\rm nuc} =$ Pair production, nuclear field

 κ_e = Pair production, electron field

 $\sigma_{\text{g.d.r.}}$ = Photonuclear interactions, most notably the Giant Dipole Resonance [46]. In these interactions, the target nucleus is broken up.

Electromagnetic Cascades (showers)



Simple qualitative model



Process continues until $E(t) \le E_c$

$$t_{\max} = \frac{\ln E_0 / E_c}{\ln 2} \qquad N^{total} = \sum_{t=0}^{t_{\max}} 2^t = 2^{(t_{\max}+1)} - 1 \approx 2 \cdot 2^{t_{\max}} = 2\frac{E_0}{E_c}$$

After $t = t_{max}$ the dominating processes are ionization, Compton effect and photo effect \rightarrow absorption.



 \rightarrow Calorimeter size depends only logarithmically on E_0

Longitudinal shower development:

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

Shower maximum at $t_{\text{max}} = \ln \frac{E_0}{E_c} \frac{1}{\ln 2}$ 95% containment $t_{95\%} \approx t_{\text{max}} + 0.08Z + 9.6$ Detailed model: "Rossi aproximaton B"

Size of a calorimeter grows only logarithmically with E₀

<u>Transverse</u> shower development: 95% of the shower cone is located in a cylinder with radius 2 R_M



Determined mainly by multiple scattering of shower particles

Energy resolution of a calorimeter (intrinsic limit)

$$N^{total} \propto \frac{E_0}{E_c}$$
 total number of track segments
 $\frac{\sigma(E)}{E} \propto \frac{\sigma(N)}{N} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{E_0}}$ holds also for hadron calorimeters

Also spatial and angular resolution scale like $1/\sqrt{E}$

Relative energy resolution of a calorimeter improves with E_0

More general:



Calorimeter types

<u>Homogeneous calorimeters:</u>

- Detector = absorber
- ⇒ good energy resolution
- Iimited spatial resolution (particularly in longitudinal direction)
- ⇒ only used for electromagnetic calorimetry

- <u>Sampling calorimeters:</u>
 - ⇒ Detectors and absorber separated → only part of the energy is sampled.
 - ⇒ limited energy resolution
 - ⇒ good spatial resolution
 - used both for electromagnetic and hadron calorimetry

Homogeneous calorimeters

Two main types: Scintillator crystals or "glass" blocks (Cherenkov radiation).

 \rightarrow photons. Readout via photomultiplier, -diode/triode

Scintillators (crystals)

Scintillator	Density [g/cm³]	X ₀ [cm]	Light Yield γ/MeV (rel. yield)	τ ₁ [ns]	λ ₁ [nm]	Rad. Dam. [Gy]	Comments
NaI (TI)	3.67	2.59	4×10 ⁴	230	415	≥10	hydroscopic, fragile
CsI (Tl)	4.51	1.86	5×10 ⁴ (0.49)	1005	565	≥10	Slightly hygroscopic
CSI pure	4.51	1.86	4×10 ⁴ (0.04)	10 36	310 310	10 ³	Slightly hygroscopic
BaF ₂	4.87	2.03	10 ⁴ (0.13)	0.6 620	220 310	10 ⁵	
BGO	7.13	1.13	8×103	300	480	10	
PbW04	8.28	0.89	≈100	10 10	≈440 ≈530	104	light yield =f(T)

Relative light yield: rel. to Nal(TI) readout with PM (bialkali PC)

Cherenkov radiators

Material	Density	X ₀ [cm]	n	Light yield	λ _{cut} [nm]	Rad.	Comments
	[g/cm ³]			[p.e./GeV]		Dam.	
				(rel. p.e.)		[Gy]	
SF-5	4.08	2.54	1.67	600	350	10 ²	
Lead glass				(1.5×10 ⁻⁴)			
SF-6	5.20	1.69	1.81	900	350	10 ²	
Lead glass				(2.3×10 ⁻⁴)			
PbF ₂	7.66	0.95	1.82	2000		10 ³	Not available
				(5×10 ⁻⁴)			in quantity

Relative light yield: rel. to Nal(TI) readout with PM (bialkali PC)

Examples

OPAL Barrel + end-cap: lead glass + pre-sampler



(OPAL collab. NIM A 305 (1991) 275)

2 cm light output -1.55% / °C 6 24 cm Ph oto dio de 5ŀ $\sigma_F/E < 1\%$ for E > 1 GeV σ/E(%) spatial resolution < 2 mm зŀ (E >2 GeV) 21 Partly test beam results ! 0.1 0.2 0.4 2 ю 20 40 -1 4 E(GeV)

NA48: LKr Ionisation chamber (T = 120 K) no metal absorbers → quasi homogenous !



Sampling calorimeters

Absorber + detector separated \rightarrow additional sampling fluctuations



ATLAS electromagnetic Calorimeter

Accordion geometry absorbers immersed in Liquid Argon



(RD3 / ATLAS)

Liquid Argon (90K)

- + lead-steal absorbers (1-2 mm)
- + multilayer copper-polyimide readout boards
- → lonization chamber.
- 1 GeV E-deposit \rightarrow 5 x10⁶ e⁻



- Accordion geometry minimizes dead zones.
- Liquid Ar is intrinsically radiation hard.
- Readout board allows fine segmentation (azimuth, pseudo-rapidity and longitudinal) acc. to physics needs

Test beam results, e- 300 GeV (ATLAS TDR)



Material in front of calorimeter

Showers start in 'dead' material in front of calorimeter (other detectors, solenoid, support structure)

Install a highly segmented pre-shower detector in front of calorimeter

- recover lost energy 0.10 improved background 0.08 rejection due to good يٍ 0.06 spatial resolution
- improve angular resolution



Nuclear Interactions

The interaction of energetic hadrons (charged or neutral) is determined by inelastic nuclear processes.



Excitation and finally breakup up nucleus \rightarrow 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 (p, π , K...).

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

In analogy to X₀ a <u>hadronic absorption length</u> can be defined $\lambda_a = \frac{A}{N_A \sigma_{inel}} \propto A^{\frac{1}{4}}$ because $\sigma_{inel} \approx \sigma_0 A^{0.7}$ similarly a <u>hadronic interaction length</u> $\lambda_I = \frac{A}{N_A \sigma_{total}} \propto A^{\frac{1}{3}} \qquad \lambda_I < \lambda_a$

Material	Ζ	А	ρ [g/cm³]	X ₀ [g/cm ²]	$\lambda_a [g/cm^2]$
Hydrogen (gas)	1	1.01	0.0899 (g/l)	63	50.8
Helium (gas)	2	4.00	0.1786 (g/l)	94	65.1
Beryllium	4	9.01	1.848	65.19	75.2
Carbon	6	12.01	2.265	43	86.3
Nitrogen (gas)	7	14.01	1.25 (g/l)	38	87.8
Oxygen (gas)	8	16.00	1.428 (g/l)	34	91.0
Aluminium	13	26.98	2.7	24	106.4
Silicon	14	28.09	2.33	22	106.0
Iron	26	55.85	7.87	13.9	131.9
Copper	29	63.55	8.96	12.9	134.9
Tungsten	74	183.85	19.3	6.8	185.0
Lead	82	207.19	11.35	6.4	194.0
Uranium	92	238.03	18.95	6.0	199.0

For Z > 6: $\lambda_a > X_0$



Interaction of neutrons

Neutrons have no charge, i.e. their interaction is based only on strong (and weak) nuclear force.

To detect neutrons, we have to create charged particles.

Possible neutron conversion and elastic reactions



In addition there are

- neutron induced fission
- hadronic cascades (see below)

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{E}_{n}\approx\mathsf{E}_{th}\approx\frac{1}{40}\mathsf{eV}\\ \mathsf{E}_{n}>1\;\mathsf{GeV} \end{array}$$

Hadronic casacdes

Various processes involved. Much more complex than electromagnetic cascades.



Large energy fluctuations \rightarrow limited energy resolution

Longitudinal shower development







4 scintillating tiles of the CMS Hadron calorimeter



Atmosphere as a calorimeter

Need:

- detect high energy cosmic rays
- Measure their energy
- Determine the identity (gamma or hadron, which hadron)

Idea: use atmosphere as a detector + calorimeter

Virtues:

- A lot of material
- Transparent

Use Cherenkov light emitted by charged particles to determine the energy of the incoming cosmic ray.



Detection of high-energy gamma rays

using Cherenkov telescopes

Shower mainly E-M. Thousands of relativistic particles give Čerenkov light in upper atmosphere

HESS 1 UHE Gamma Ray Telescope Stereoscopic Quartet

Khomas Highland, Namibia, (23°16'S, 16°30'E, elev. 1800m) Four $\emptyset = 12$ m Telescopes (since 12/2003) $E_{th} \sim 100$ GeV

108 m²/mirror [382 x Ø=60cm individually steerable (2-motor) facets] aluminized glass + quartz overcoating R > 80% (300<λ<600 nm)

Focal plane: 960 * 29 mm Photonis XP-2920 PMTs (8 stage, 2 x 10⁵ gain) Bi-alkali photocathode: λ_{peak} =420 nm + Winston Cones

