

# Introduction to Hadronic Final State Reconstruction in Collider Experiments (Part II)

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## Detector needs for multi-purpose collider experiments

Tracking for charged particle momentum measurement

Calorimeters for charged and neutral particle energy measurement

Muon spectrometers (tracking) for muon momentum measurements

## Underlying physics for calorimetry: particle interaction with matter

Electromagnetic cascades

Hadronic cascades

Muon energy loss

## Calorimetric principles in particle detection

Conversion of deposited energy into an extractable signal in homogeneous and sampling calorimeters

Minimum ionizing particles and muons

General signal features of electromagnetic and hadronic showers

## Calorimeter characteristics in sampling calorimeters

Sampling fraction

Signal linearity and relative resolution

Non-compensation

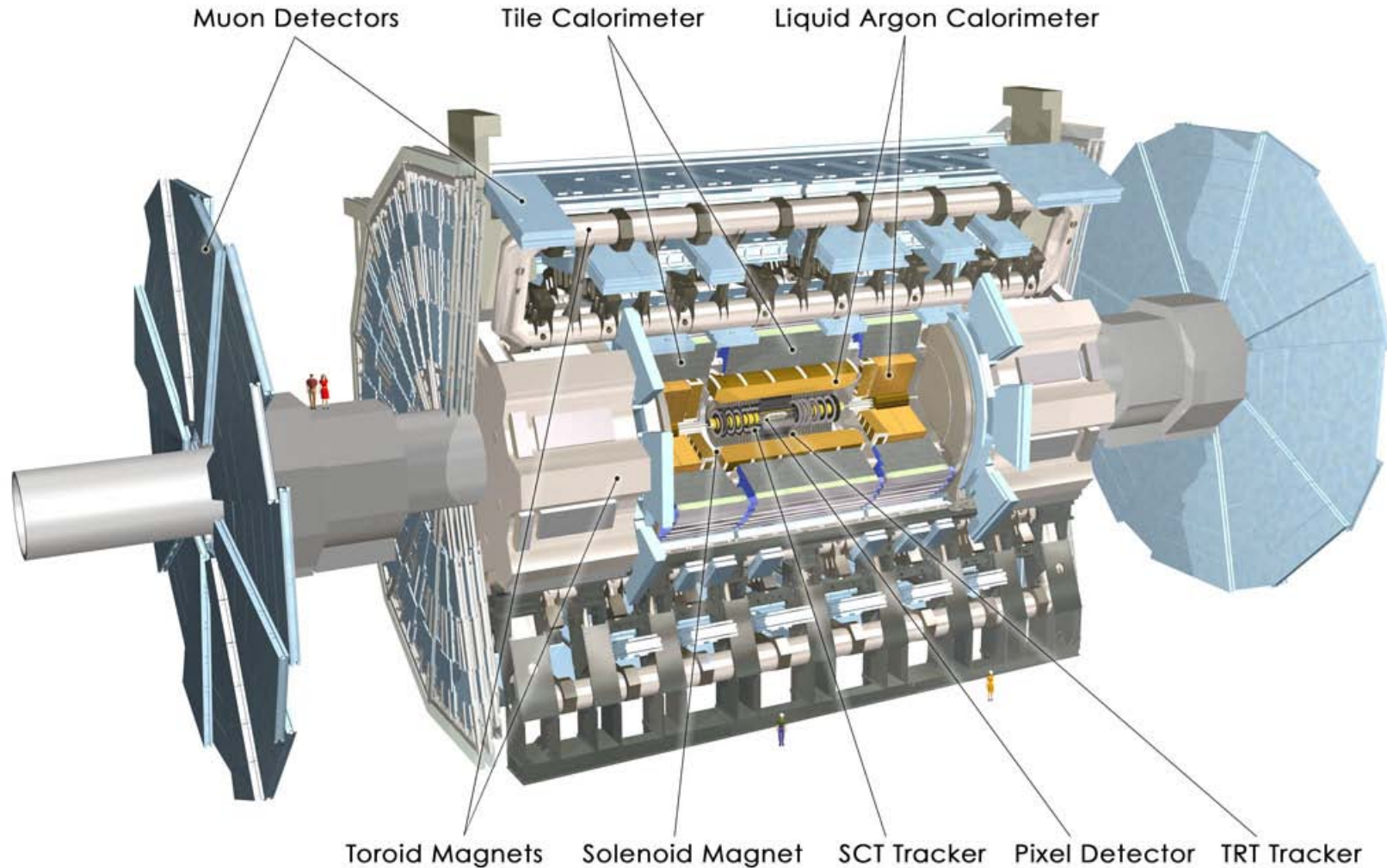
## Signal extraction

Charge collection

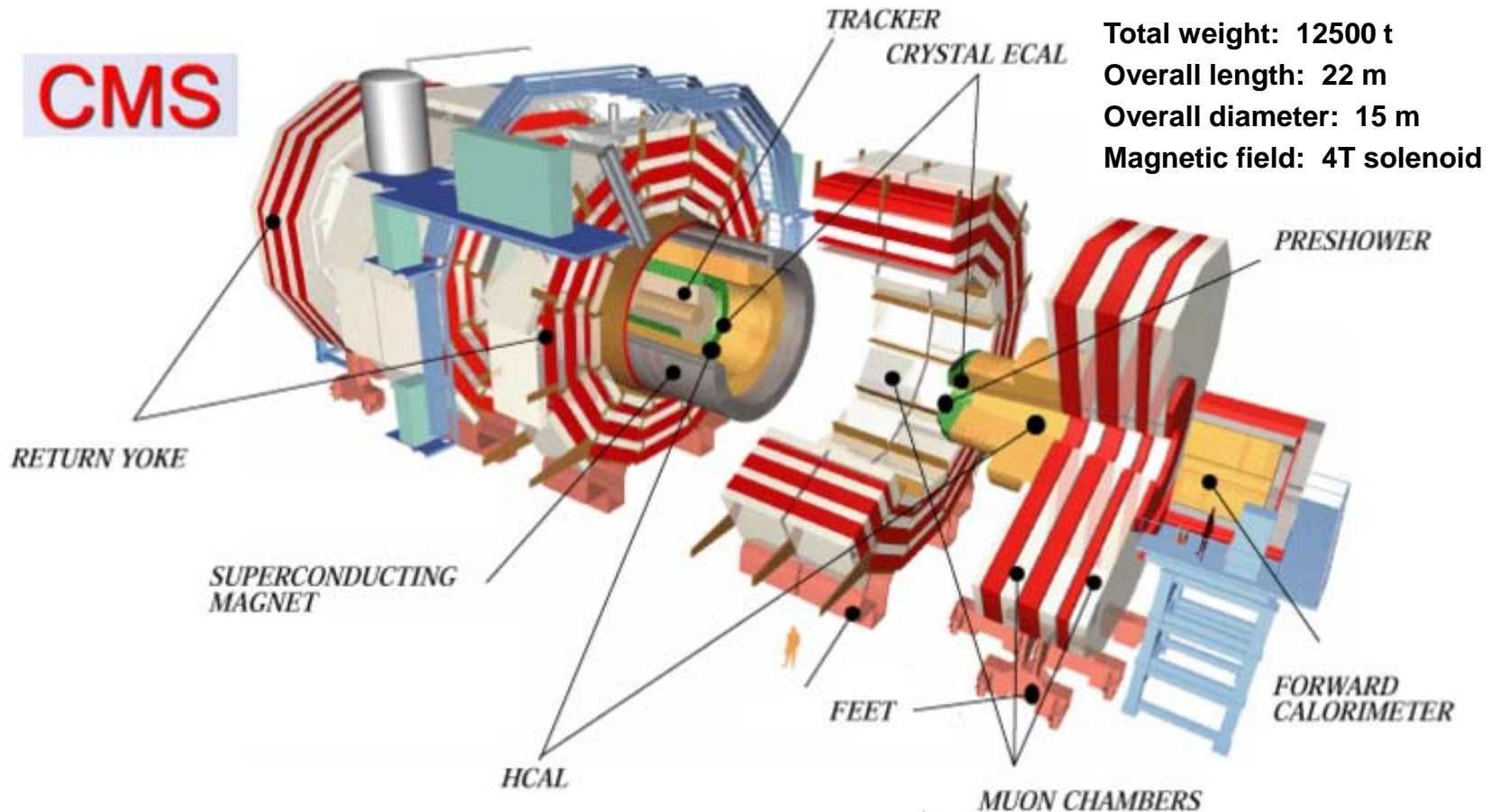
Current measurement

Pulse shapes





**Total weight : 7000 t**  
**Overall length: 46 m**  
**Overall diameter: 23 m**  
**Magnetic field: 2T solenoid**  
**+ toroid**



## Tracking (inner detector)

Closest to the interaction vertex

Reconstructs charged particle tracks in magnetic field

Charged particles generate current Silicon pixel elements → fit tracks to (x,y,z) space points defined by hit sensor location

Collect secondary charges from gas ionizations by passing charged particles on wires in electric fields → fit tracks to space point in (x,y) plane and z from pulse timing

Solenoid field allows very precise p<sub>T</sub> reconstruction and less precise p reconstruction

Reconstructs interaction vertices

Vertex reconstructed from track fits

More than one vertex possible

B-decays

Multiple proton interaction (pile-up)

Primary vertex defined by  $\sum_{\text{tracks}} p_T = \max$  or  $\sum_{\text{tracks}} p_T^2 = \max$

Advantages and limitations

Very precise for low p<sub>T</sub> measurements  $\frac{\Delta p_T}{p_T} \sim p_T$

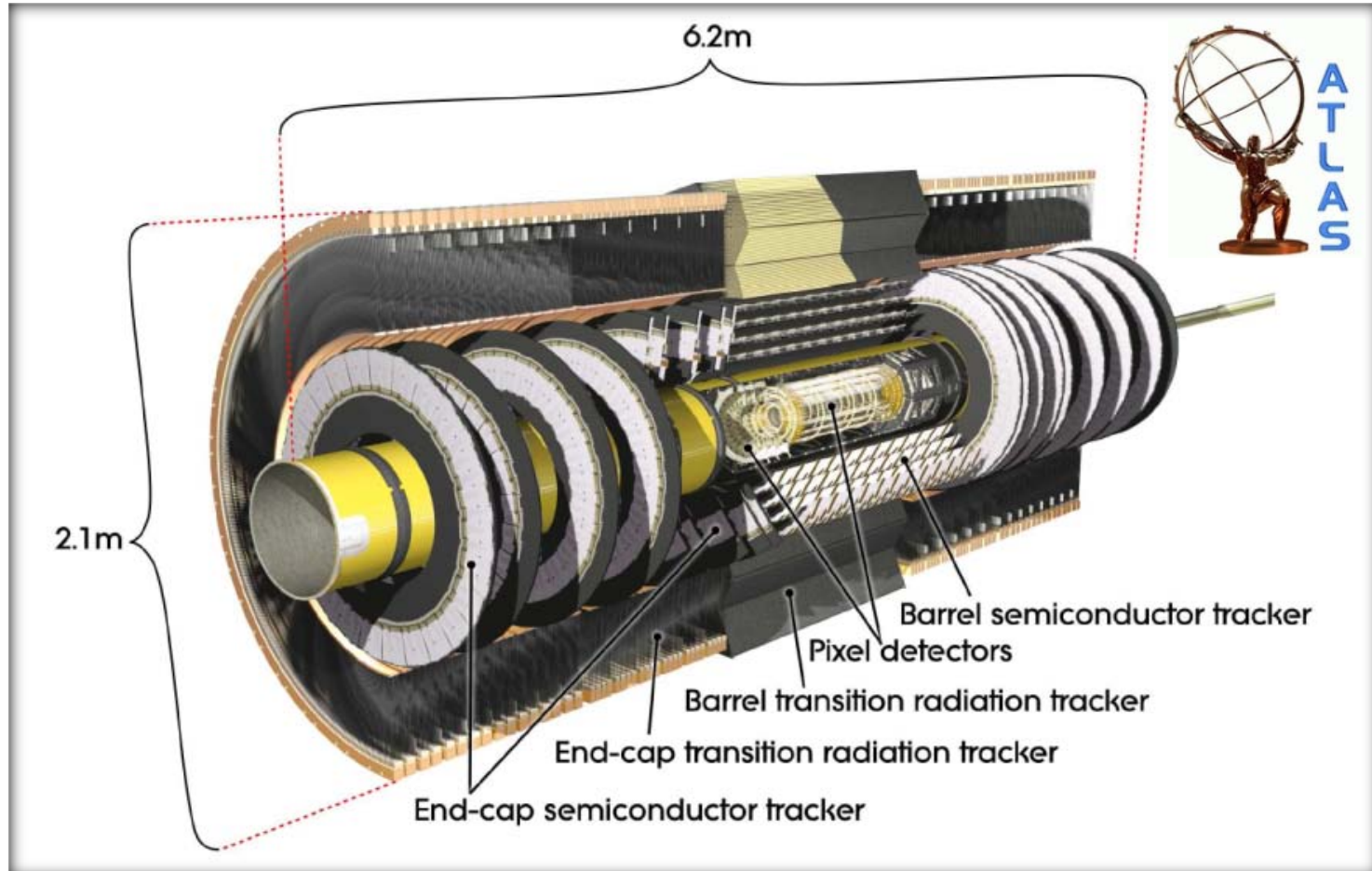
Only sensitive to charged particles

Limited polar angle coverage

Forward region in experiment excluded



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(x,y,z)  
sensitive on  
pulse



## Calorimeters

Usually wrapped around inner detector

Measures the energy of charged and neutral particles

Uses the energy deposited by particles to generate signal

Collects light or electric charges/current from this energy deposit in relatively small volumes

Only works if particle energy can be fully absorbed

Signals are space points with energy

Reconstructs direction and energy from known position of energy deposit

Needs assumption for “mass” to convert signal to full four momentum

ATLAS:  $m = 0$

Advantages and limitations

Gets more precise with increasing particle energy

Gives good energy measure for all particles except muons and neutrinos

Muons not fully absorbed!

Large coverage around interaction region

“ $4\pi$ ” detector – except for holes for beam pipes

Relation of incoming (deposited) energy and signal is particle type dependent

Also need to absorb all energy – large detector system

Does not work well for low energies

Particles have to reach calorimeter

Noise in readout

Slow signal formation in LHC environment



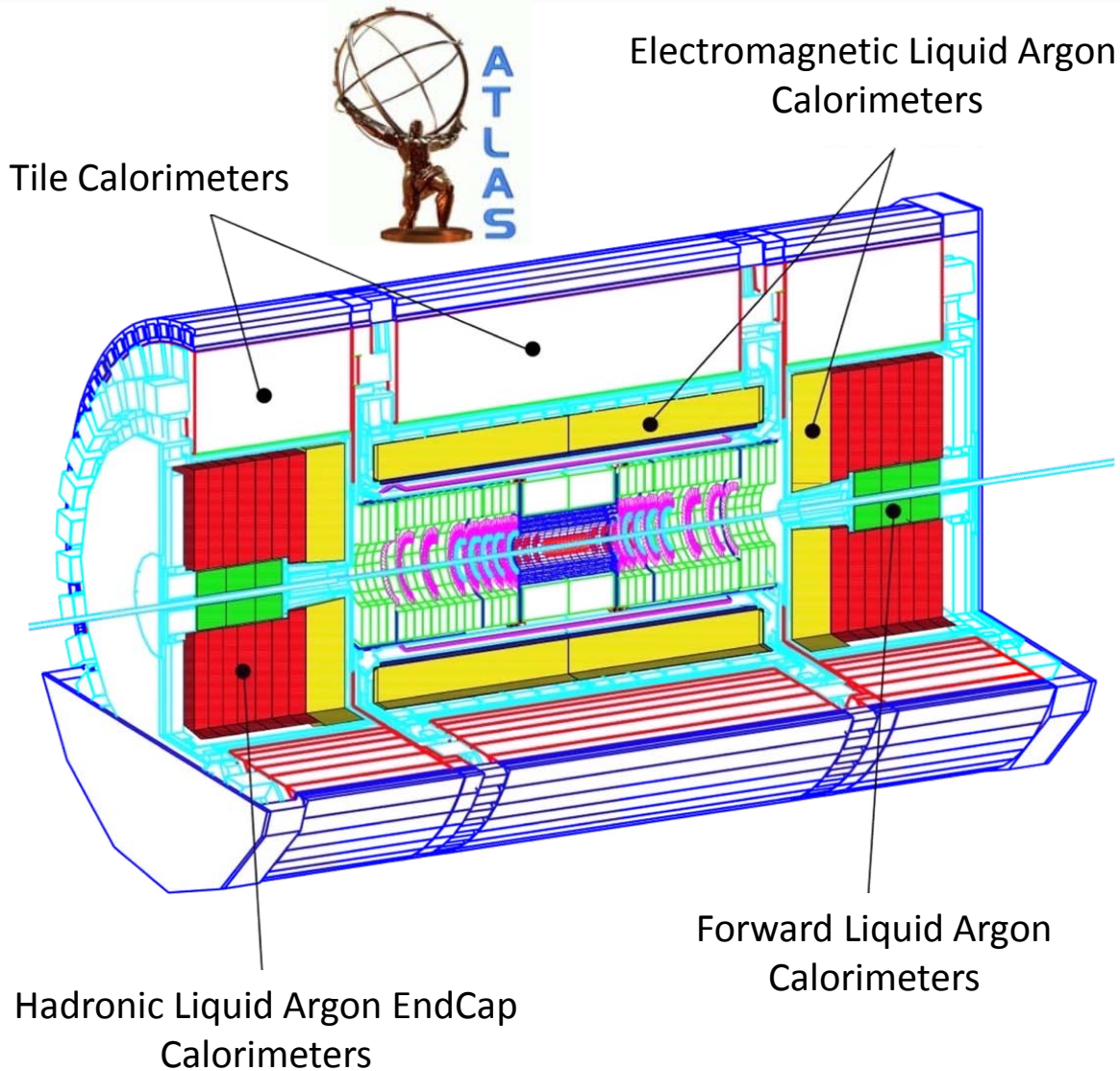
## Calorim

Us

M

Si

Ac



all volumes





## Cascades or showers

Most particles entering matter start a shower of secondary particles

Exception: muons and neutrinos

The character of these cascades depends on the nature of the particle

Electrons, photons: cascades are formed by QED processes

Hadrons: cascades are dominantly formed by QCD processes

Extensions/size of these showers

Again depends on particle type

Electromagnetic showers typically small and compact

Hadronic showers much larger

Common feature: shower depths scales approximately as  $\log(E)$

Higher energies do not require much deeper detectors!

## Shower development and age

Shower maximum

Depth at which energy of shower particles is too small to continue production of secondaries

Age of shower

Depth of shower

Shower width

Extend of shower perpendicular to direction of flight of incoming particle



## QED drives cascade development

High energetic electrons entering material emit photons in the electric field of the nuclei

Bremsstrahlung

High energetic photons produce e<sup>+</sup>e<sup>-</sup> pairs in the electric field of the nuclei

Pair production

## Rossi's shower model (1952!)

Simple model of interplay of electron energy loss and photon pair production

Uses critical energy as cutoff for shower development

Electron energy loss through bremsstrahlung after 1 radiation length ( $X_0$ ) in matter:  $E_0/2$

Assume this energy is taken by 1 photon, meaning the energy of each shower particle after  $t X_0$  is:  $E(t) = E_0/2^{N(t)}$ , with  $N(t) = 2^t$

The shower develops until  $E(t) = E_c$  (critical energy - ionization loss becomes large and suppresses further radiation) at

the shower maximum  $t_{\max} = \frac{\ln(E_0/E_c)}{\ln 2}$



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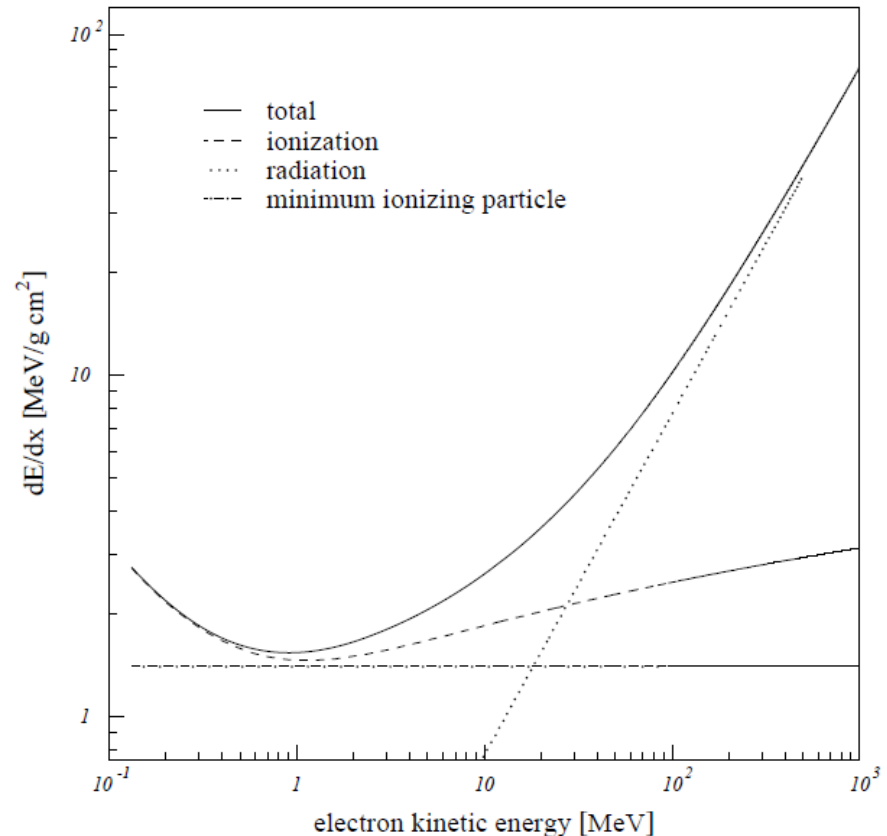
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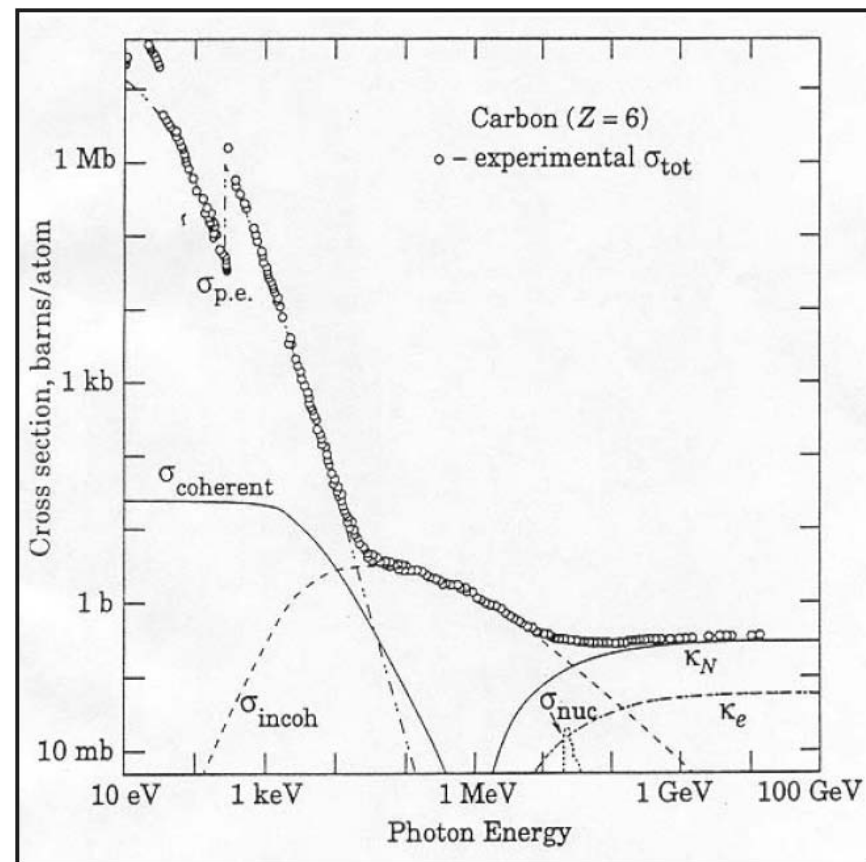
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## QCD drives fast shower development

Hadron interacts with nucleon in nuclei

Like a fixed target collision

Develops intra-nuclear cascade (fast)

Hadron production

Secondary hadrons escape nucleus

Neutral pions decay immediately into 2 photons → electromagnetic cascade

Other hadrons can hit other nucleons → internuclear cascade

## Slow de-excitation of nuclei

Remaining nucleus in excited state

Evaporates energy to reach stable (ground) state

Fission and spallation possible

Binding energy and low energetic photons

## Large process fluctuations

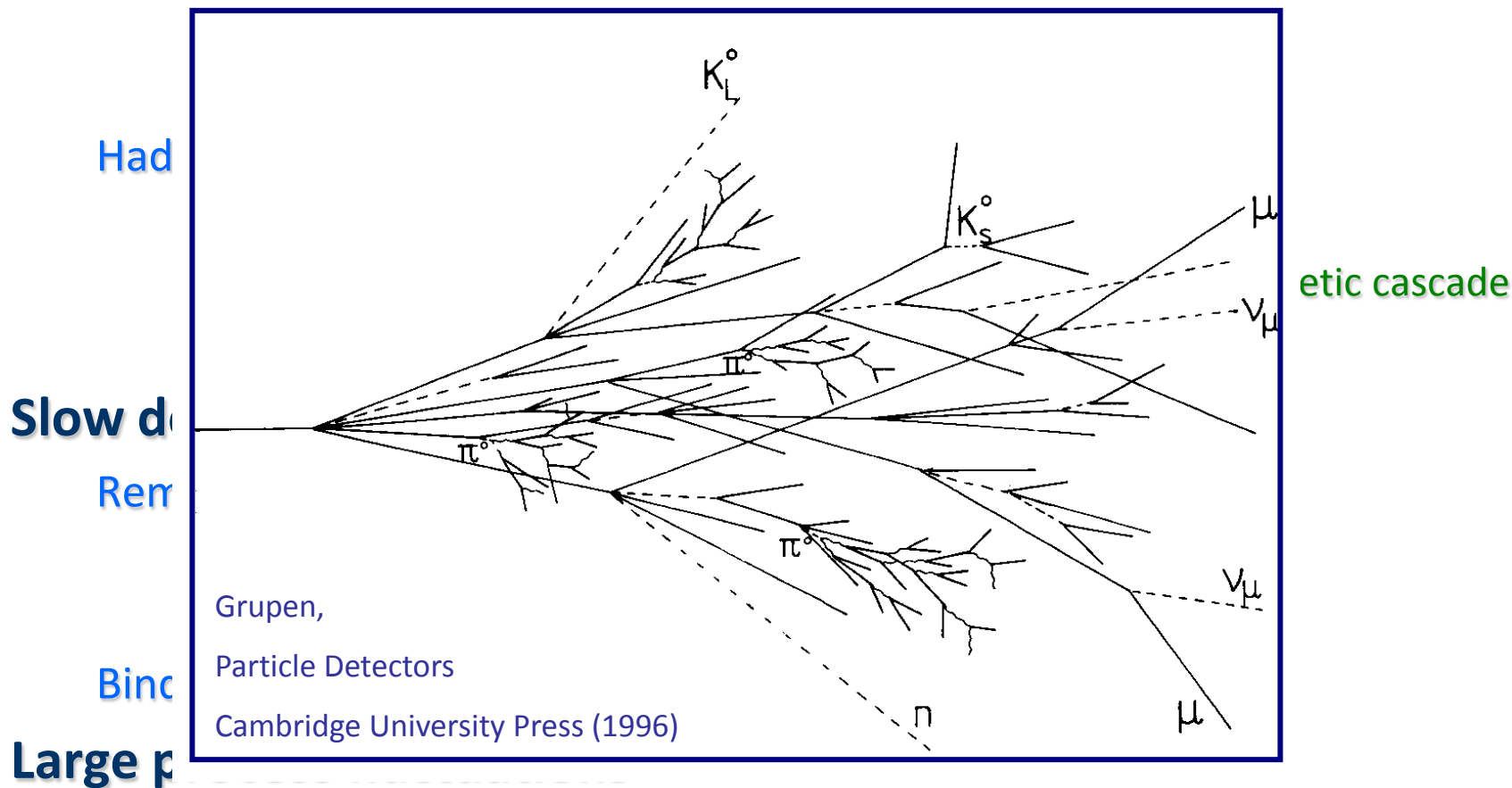
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