

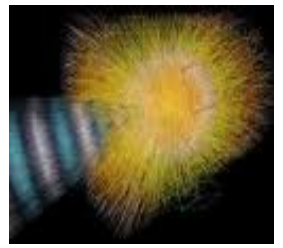
Statistical Methods in Particle Physics

Lecture 5

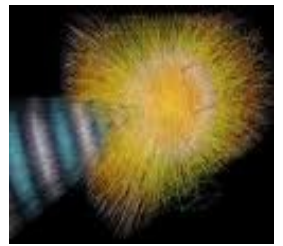
November 7, 2011

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Winter Semester 2011 / 12



- Monte Carlo methods
 - Transformation method
 - Integration
- Event generators
- Detector simulation

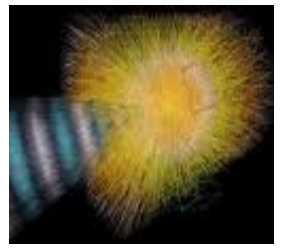


Monte Carlo methods are a class of computational algorithms that rely on repeated random sampling to compute their results.

Monte Carlo methods are often used in computer simulations of physical and mathematical systems.

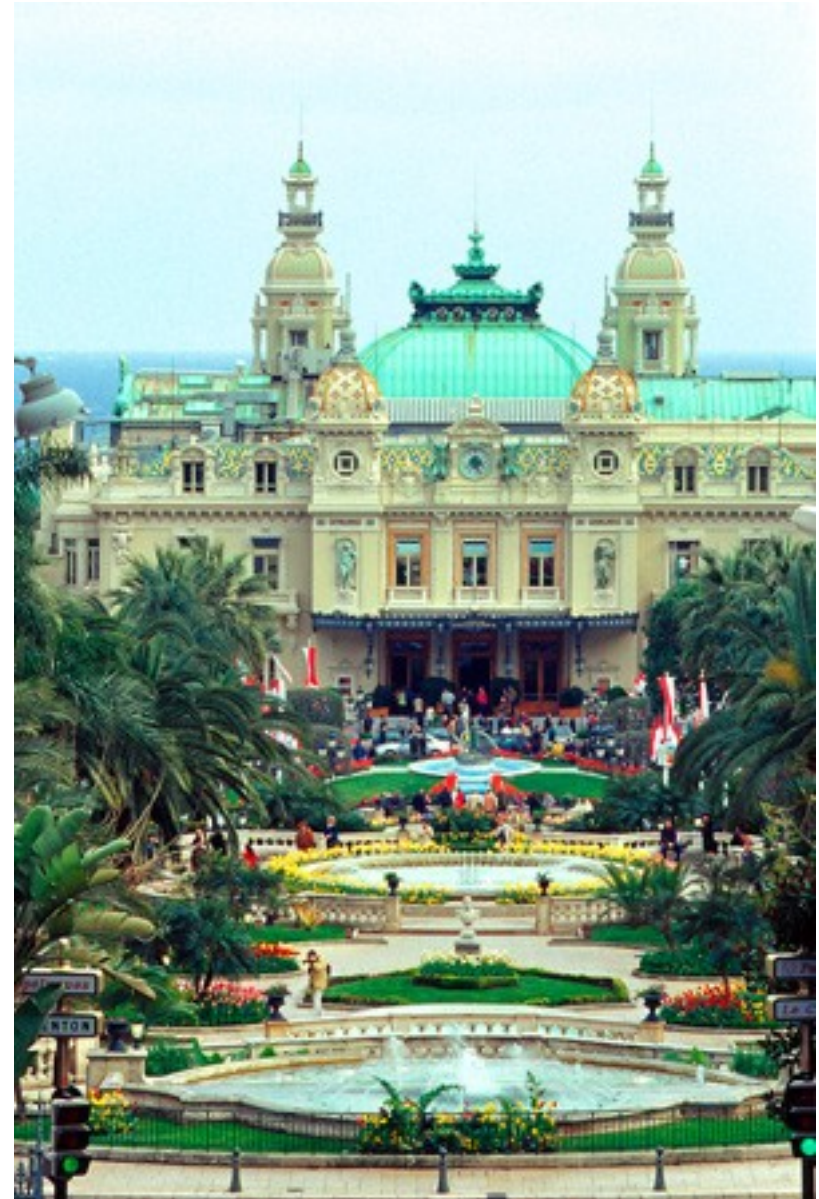
These methods are most suited to calculation by a computer and tend to be used when it is infeasible to compute an exact result with a deterministic algorithm

The name

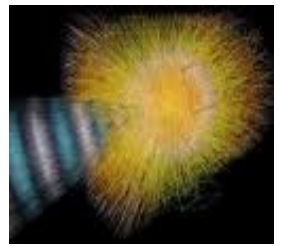


The Monte Carlo method was coined in the **1940s** by John von Neumann, Stanislaw Ulam and Nicholas Metropolis, while they were working on **nuclear weapon projects (Manhattan Project)** in the Los Alamos National Laboratory. It was named in homage to the **Monte Carlo Casino**, a famous casino, where Ulam's uncle would often gamble away his money

Random processes were used extensively for the first time to predict theoretically the interaction of neutrons with matter



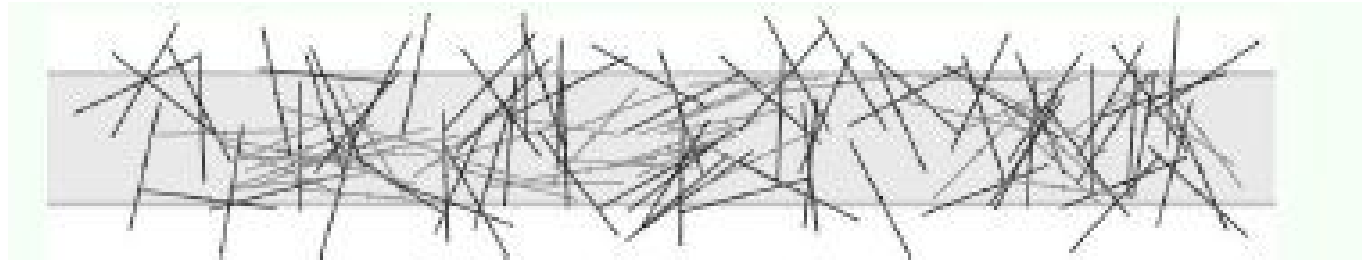
History - 1



An early variant of the Monte Carlo method can be seen in the

Buffon's needle experiment

in which π can be estimated by dropping needles on a floor made of parallel strips of wood.

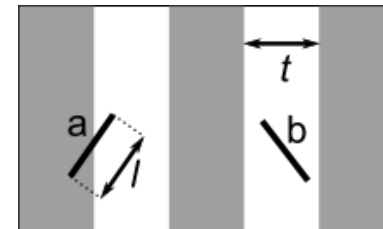


In more mathematical terms:

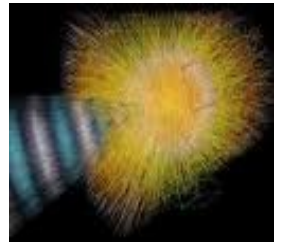
Given a needle of length l dropped on a plane ruled with parallel lines t units apart, what is the probability that the needle will cross a line?

If $l \leq t$ then:
$$P = \frac{2l}{t\pi}$$

Use this to estimate π !

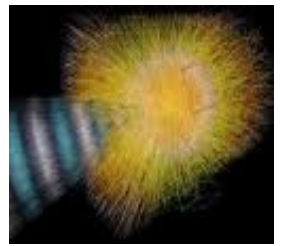


History - 2



- In the 1930s, Enrico Fermi first experimented with the Monte Carlo method while studying neutron diffusion, but did not publish anything on it
- In 1946, physicists at Los Alamos Scientific Laboratory were investigating radiation shielding and the distance that neutrons would likely travel through various materials. Despite having most of the necessary data, such as the average distance a neutron would travel in a substance before it collided with an atomic nucleus or how much energy the neutron was likely to give off following a collision, the problem **could not be solved with analytical calculations**. Stanisław Ulam had the idea of using random experiments.

Monte Carlo and simulation



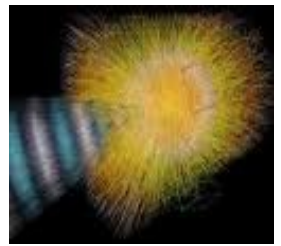
A bit subjective. Sawilowsky:

a simulation is a fictitious representation of reality, a Monte Carlo method is a technique that can be used to solve a mathematical or statistical problem, and a Monte Carlo simulation uses repeated sampling to determine the properties of some phenomenon (or behavior). Examples:

- Simulation: Drawing one pseudo-random uniform variable from the interval $[0, 1]$ can be used to simulate the tossing of a coin: If the value is less than or equal to 0.50 designate the outcome as heads, but if the value is greater than 0.50 designate the outcome as tails. This is a simulation, but not a Monte Carlo simulation.
- Monte Carlo method: The area of an irregular figure inscribed in a unit square can be determined by throwing darts at the square and computing the ratio of hits within the irregular figure to the total number of darts thrown. This is a Monte Carlo method of determining area, but not a simulation.
- Monte Carlo simulation: Drawing a large number of pseudo-random uniform variables from the interval $[0, 1]$, and assigning values less than or equal to 0.50 as heads and greater than 0.50 as tails, is a Monte Carlo simulation of the behavior of repeatedly tossing a coin.

Not always so easy to distinguish

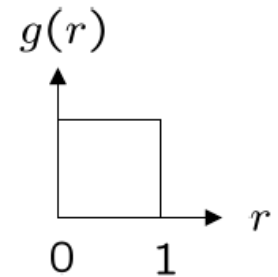
The Monte Carlo method



A numerical technique for calculating probabilities and related quantities using sequences of random numbers

The usual steps:

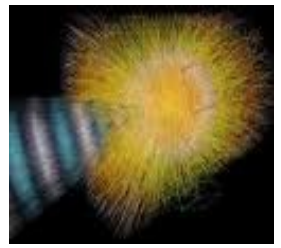
- Generate sequence r_1, r_2, \dots, r_m uniform in $[0,1]$
- Use this to produce another sequence x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m distributed according to some pdf $f(x)$ in which we are interested (x can be a vector)
- Use the x values to estimate some property of $f(x)$
e.g., fraction of x values with $a < x < b$ gives $\int_a^b f(x) dx$



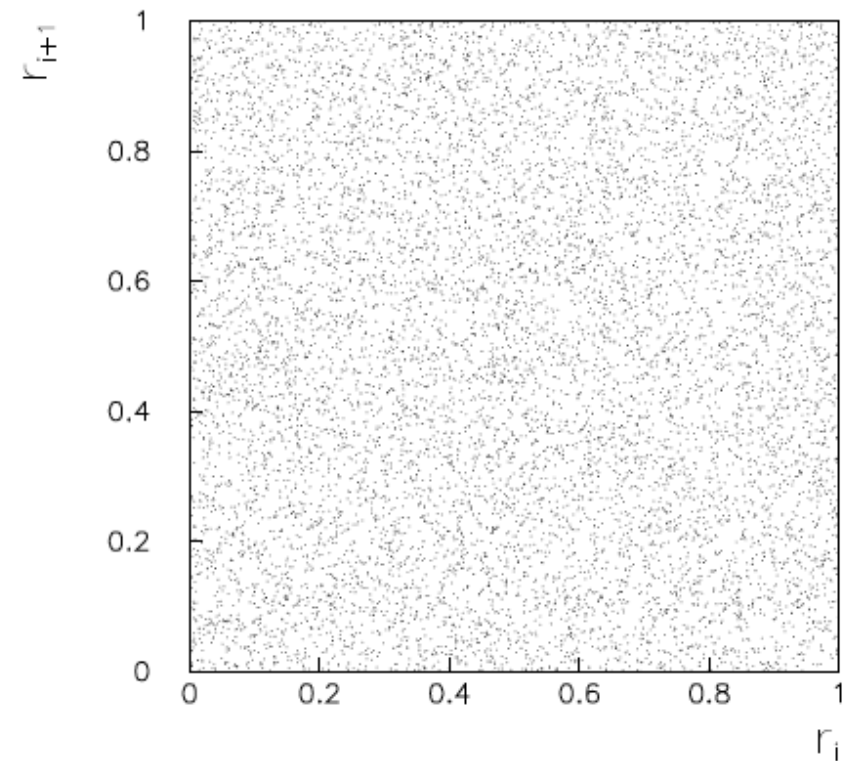
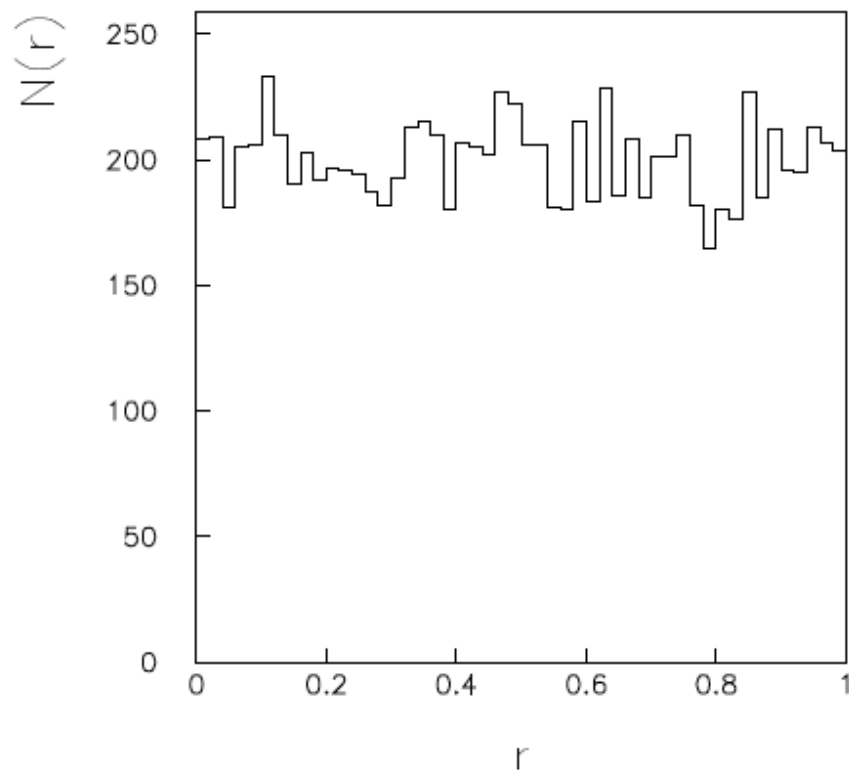
Applications:

- MC calculation for integration
- Simulation to test statistical procedures

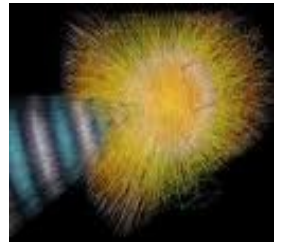
Random numbers



- Extensively appreciated with Nik



Transformation method



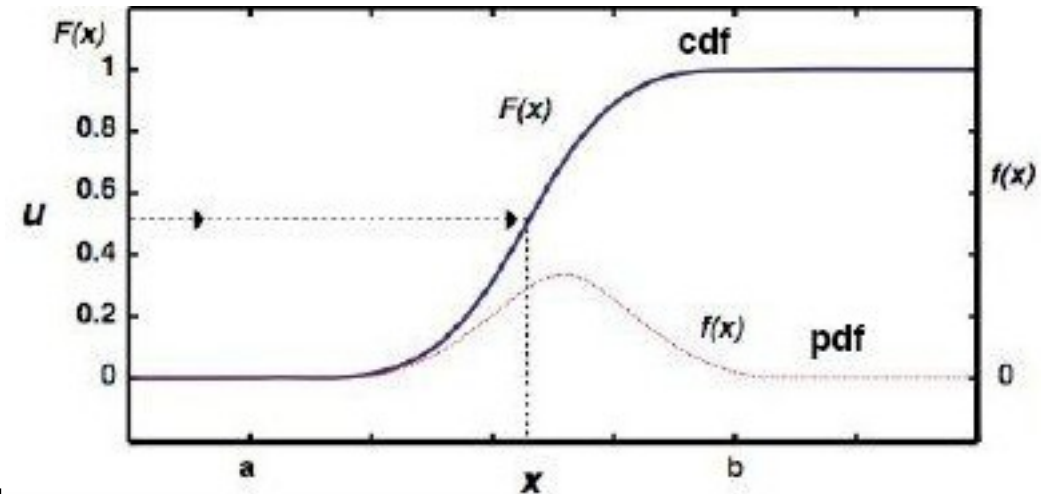
- Random variable x
- Pdf $f(x)$
- cumulative distribution function

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt$$

- Case of $F(x)$ analytically invertible:

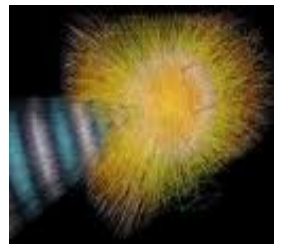
$$x = F^{-1}(u)$$

- If u_i uniform in $[0, 1]$, then $x_i = F^{-1}(u_i)$ follow pdf $f(x)$



Method is applicable if $F(x)$ and $F^{-1}(u)$ are analytically solvable

Example: exponential distribution



Consider random numbers according to:

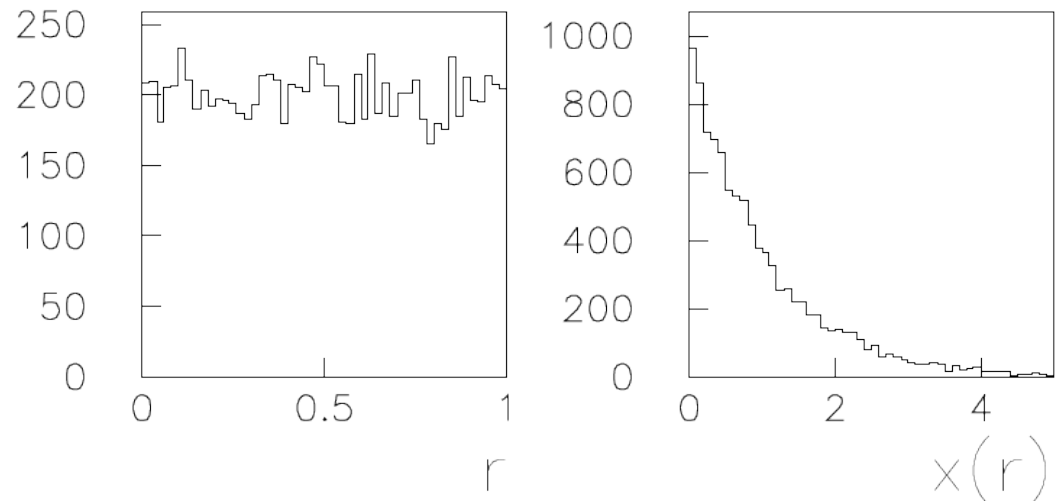
$$f(x, \lambda) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

Computation of the inverse pdf:

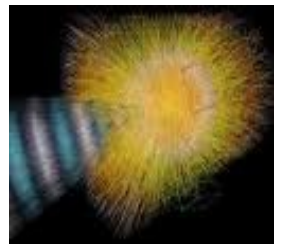
$$\int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt = \int_0^x \lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt = [e^{-\lambda t}]_0^x = 1 - e^{-\lambda x} = r(x)$$

And solve for $x(r)$.

$$\rightarrow x(r) = -1/\lambda \ln(1-r)$$



Hit and miss method (von Neumann)



If $F^{-1}(u)$ is not computable, then use “hit and miss” method (also called acceptance-rejection method)

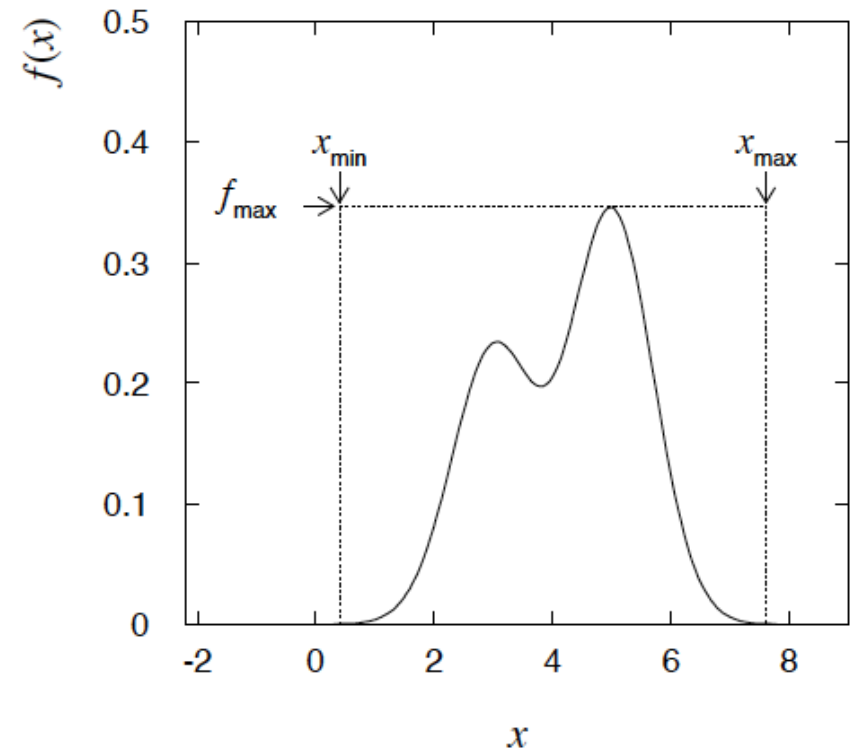
Enclose the pdf in a box:

- Generate a random number x , uniform in $[x_{\min}, x_{\max}]$, i.e.

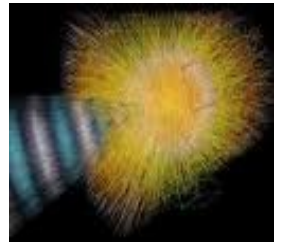
$$x = x_{\min} + r_1(x_{\max} - x_{\min})$$

r_1 uniform in $[0, 1]$

- Generate a second independent random number uniformly distributed between 0 and f_{\max} , i.e. $u = r_2 f_{\max}$
- If $u < f(x)$, then accept x
if not, reject x and repeat



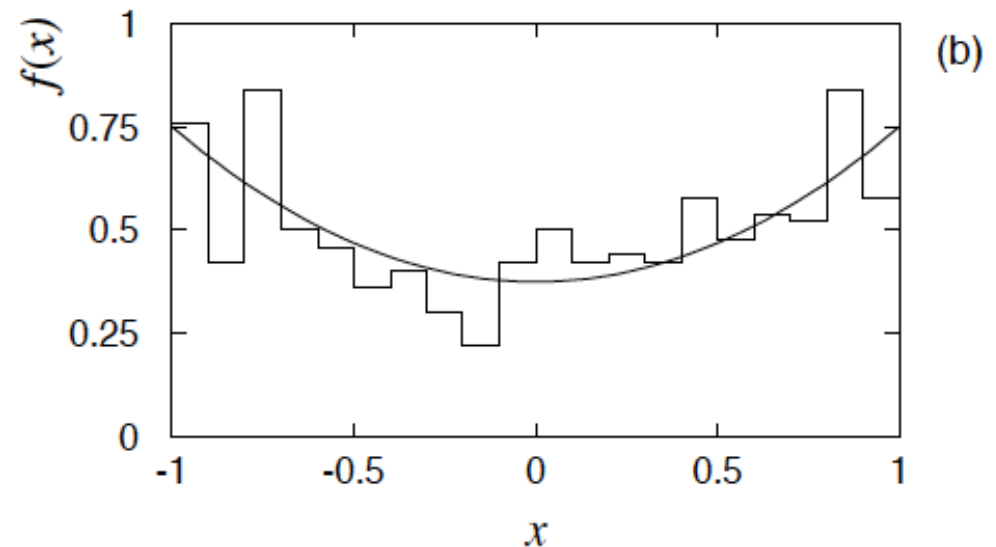
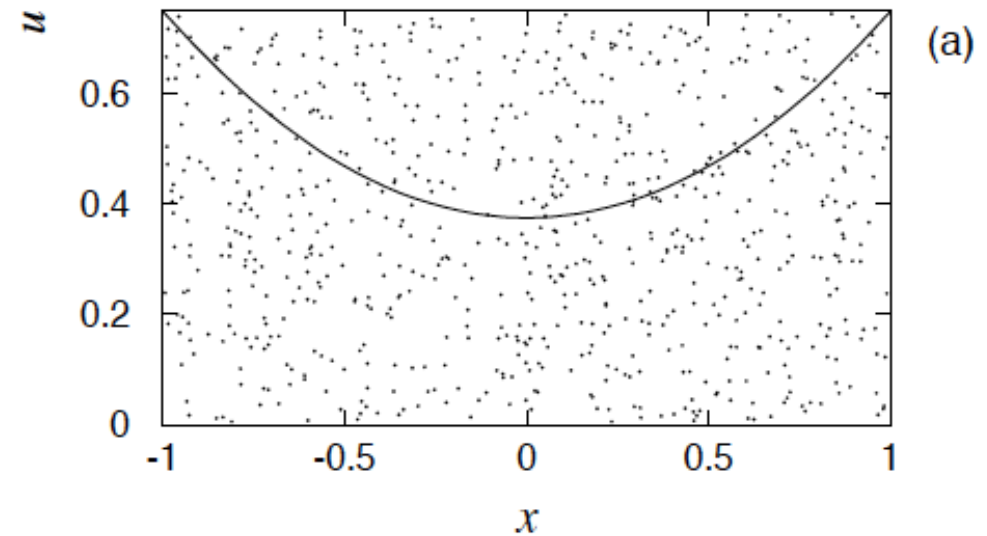
Example



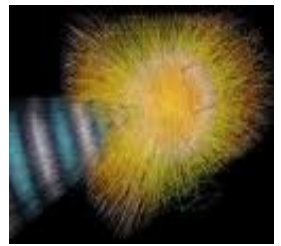
$$f(x) = \frac{3}{8}(1 + x^2)$$

$$(-1 \leq x \leq 1)$$

If dot below curve, use
 x value in histogram.



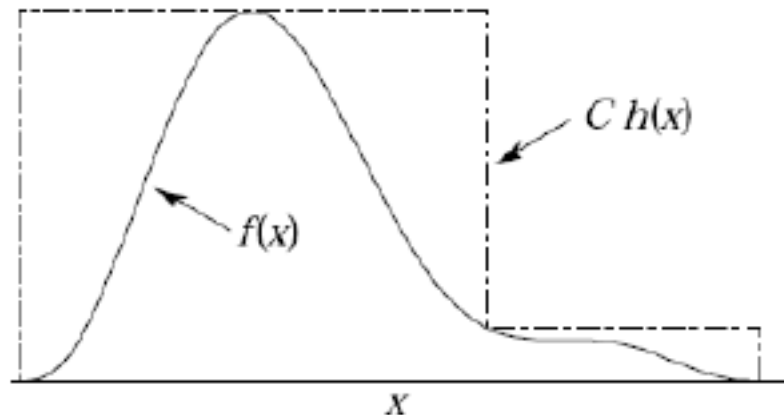
Improve efficiency of hit and miss



The fraction of accepted points is equal to the fraction of the box's area under the curve.

For very peaked distributions, this may be very low and thus the algorithm may be slow.

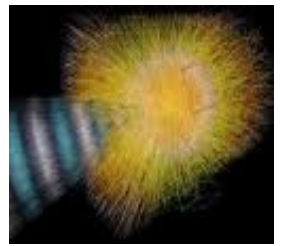
Improve by enclosing the pdf $f(x)$ in a curve $C h(x)$ that conforms to $f(x)$ more closely, where $h(x)$ is a pdf from which we can generate random values and C is a constant.



Generate points uniformly over $C h(x)$.

If point is below $f(x)$, accept x .

Monte Carlo integration

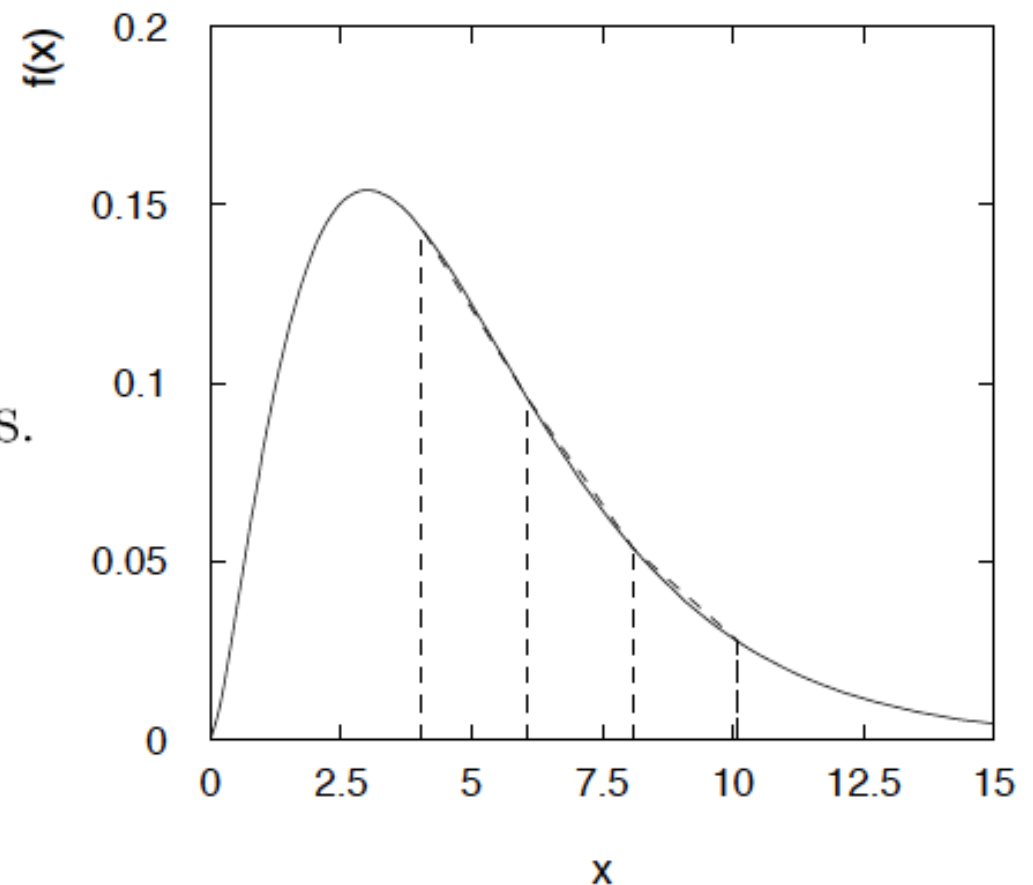


Check accuracy of the method:

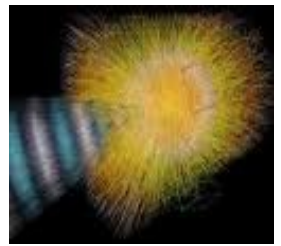
MC calculation = integration.

Compare to trapezoidal rule,

n = number of computing steps.



Accuracy of Monte Carlo integration



For 1-dimensional integral:

MC: $n \propto$ number of random values generated
accuracy $\propto 1/\sqrt{n}$

Trapezoid: $n \propto$ number of subdivisions
accuracy $\propto 1/n^2$

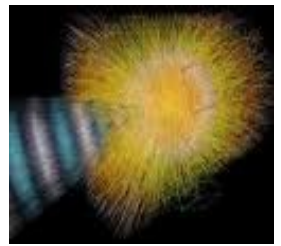
Trapezoid wins! But in d dimensions this becomes

MC: accuracy $\propto 1/\sqrt{n}$ \leftarrow independent of d !

Trapezoid: accuracy $\propto 1/n^{2/d}$

For high enough d ($d > 4$), MC always wins

Monte Carlo: statistical experiments



Often an analytical treatment of physical problems is either difficult or impossible. Therefore we do either an approximation or use a statistical description (via Monte Carlo)

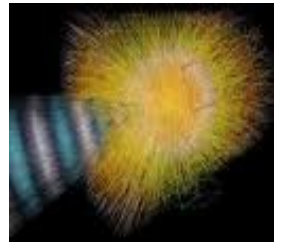
APPLICATIONS:

- High energy and nuclear physics
- Numerical calculations (integration, differentiation)
- Coding/encoding (e.g. secure connections, like ssh)
- Reliability tests
- Investment banking
- Earth sciences

METHODS:

- Find a statistic model
- Produce random numbers properly
- Calculate estimators from random quantities

Monte Carlo: statistical experiments



Qualitatively:

Scattering experiment:

Measure the angular distribution of particles scattered from protons in a fixed target

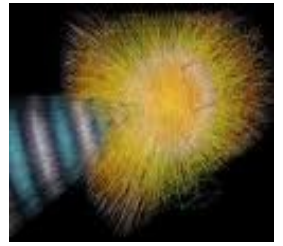
Ingredients:

- Magnitude and direction of the momentum vector of the incident particles
- Probability that a particle will collide with a proton in the target
- Resulting momentum vectors of the scattered particles

All are described in terms of probability distributions !

The final experimental result can be treated in terms of a **multiple integration over all these probability distributions !!**

A very simple example: K_S^0

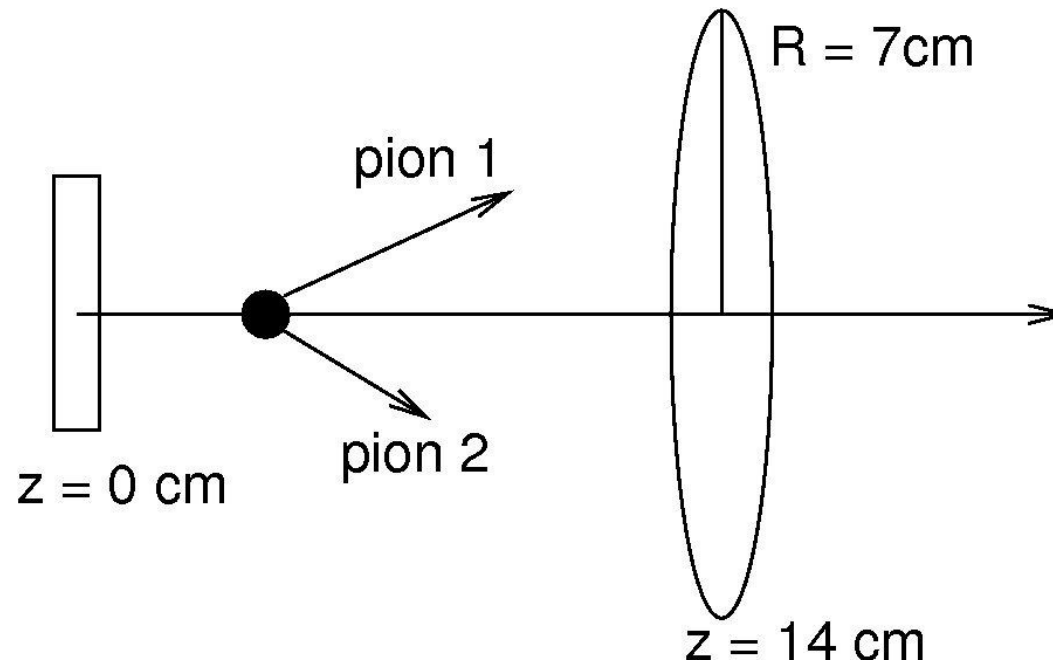
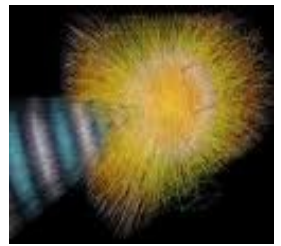


- K_S^0 mesons: mass $M=0.489$ GeV
- A source produces narrow, mono-energetic beam, with $E=0.886$ GeV
- K_S^0 have lifetime $\tau = 8,934 \times 10^{-10}$ sec, $c\tau = 2.68$ cm. Most K_S^0 decay into $\pi^+\pi^-$ (BR= 69.2%, Data Particle Group)
- In the rest system of the K_S^0 , the decay is isotropic

EXPERIMENT

- At a distance of 14 cm behind the source, there is a silicon detector to register the decay pions
- The detector is a circular disk, with radius $R=7$ cm, centered on the kaon beam
- Determine the probability that both pions from the decay $K_S^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$ hit the detector

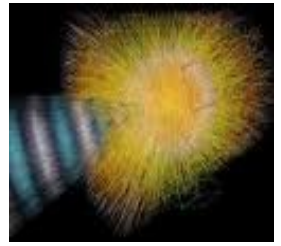
K_S^0 mesons



Determine the probability that both pions from the decay $K_S^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$ hit the detector

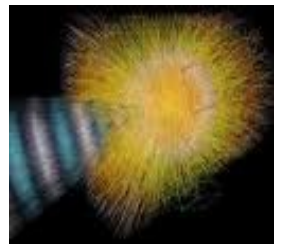
- A. Analytical calculation
- B. Direct simulation

K_S^0 mesons: analytical calculation - 1



- Parametrize the decay in the K_S^0 rest frame:
 - Uniform in φ around the beam direction
 - Cosine of the polar angle to the beam is uniform: $0 < \cos\theta < 1$
- Perform Lorentz boost of the decay pions to the laboratory system
 - Boost parameter is $\gamma = E/M$
- Describe the flight distance z as an exponential distribution:
 - Probability density:
$$\rho(z) = \frac{1}{\langle z \rangle} e^{-\frac{z}{\langle z \rangle}}$$
 - In the lab system:
$$\langle z \rangle = \langle c\tau \rangle \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} \approx 4.07 \text{ cm}$$
- Determine the allowed z range from which both pions reach the detector as a function of the decay configuration, and from there compute the answer ...

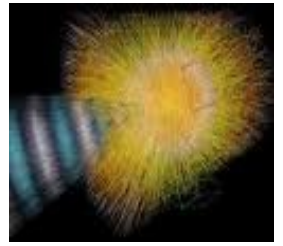
K_S^0 mesons: analytical calculation - 2



$$z_{min} = D - R\gamma \sqrt{\frac{1 - \cos \theta}{1 + \cos \theta}} \leq z \leq D = z_{max}$$

$$A = \int_0^1 d \cos \theta \int_{z_{min}}^{z_{max}} dz \rho(z) \approx 0.207016$$

K_S^0 mesons: direct simulation - 1

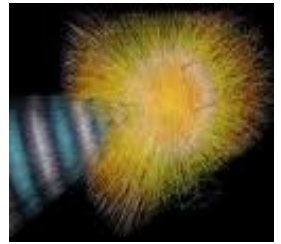


- Generate decay position according to $\rho(z)$
- Generate isotropic decays in the K_S^0 rest frame
- Perform Lorentz transformation to the lab system
- Analyze the events, check whether the pions hit the detector
 - Count as “success” cases where both pions hit the detector (n)
 - Count as “failure” if at least one particle misses
- Repeat N times. Probability $p = n/N$

$$A = \frac{n}{N} \pm \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{N}}$$

- Example: $N = 106$, successes $n = 207311$
 $A = 0.207311 \pm 0.000405$ versus the analytical result $A = 0.207016$

K_S^0 mesons: direct simulation - 2

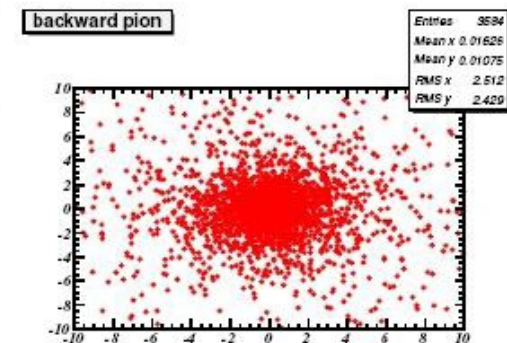
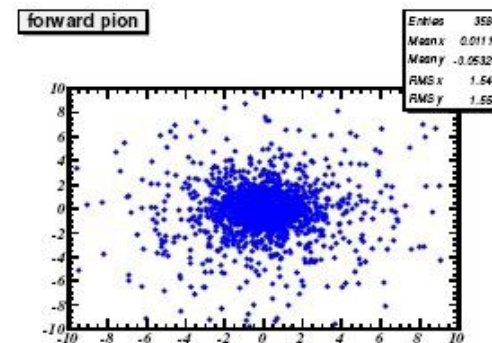
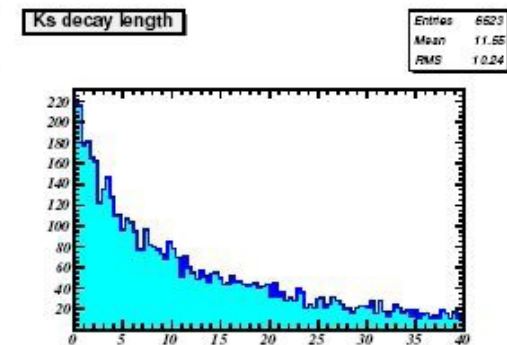
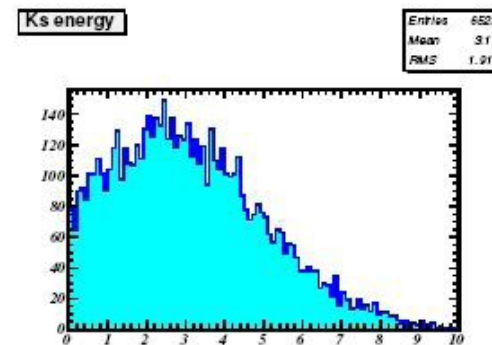


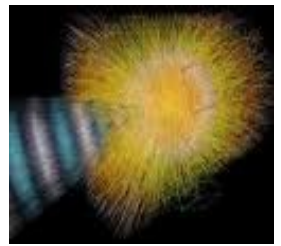
Easy to adapt to more complex cases:

- Other kaon energies
- An energy spectrum
- Rectangular detectors
 - Φ dependence
- Finite efficiency of detector

Direct simulation allows detailed studies

Although with finite statistical precision

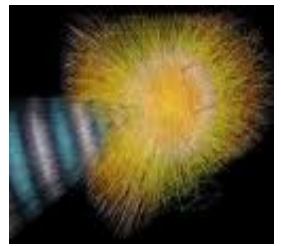




Several stages:

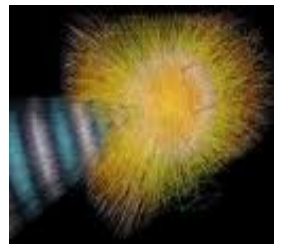
- **Event generator:**
 - Simulation of the PHYSICS process
 - Colliding particles
 - Cross section, processes involved, fragmentation ...
- **Detector simulation:**
 - Interaction of the produced particles with the material
 - Realistic description of the experimental apparatus
 - efficiencies
 - defects (dead channels, etc)
 - misalignment

Event generators



- $e^+e^- \rightarrow$ hadrons
 - JETSET (PYTHIA)
 - HERWIG
 - ARIADNE
- $e^+e^- \rightarrow WW$
 - KORALW
 - EXCALIBUR
 - ERATO
- $pp \rightarrow$ hadrons
 - ISAJET
 - PYTHIA
 - HERWIG
- $PbPb \rightarrow$ hadrons
 - HIJING

Event generators



The output are so-called “events”, namely for each collision the programs give a list of final state particles, with their momentum vectors, types, angular distribution, etc

Event listing (summary)

I	particle/jet KS	KF	orig	p_x	p_y	p_z	E	n	
1	p+	21	2212	0	0,000	0,000	7000,000	7000,000	0,938
2	p+	21	2212	0	0,000	0,000-7000,000	7000,000	0,938	
3	g	21	21	1	0,853	-0,223	1739,862	1739,862	0,000
4	lubar	21	-2	2	-0,621	-0,163	-777,415	777,415	0,000
5	g	21	21	3	-2,427	5,486	1487,857	1487,857	0,000
6	g	21	21	4	-62,910	63,257	-453,274	471	0,000
7	g	21	1000021	0	314,353	544,843	498,897	979	0,000
8	g	21	1000021	0	-379,700	-475,000	525,685	980	0,000
9	chi_1-	21-1000024	7	130,058	112,247	129,860	263	399	0,000
10	lubar	21	-3	7	259,400	187,468	83,100	330	0,000
11	l	21	4	7	-79,403	242,409	283,025	381	0,000
12	chi_20	21	1000023	8	-326,241	-80,571	113,712	385	0,000
13	l	21	5	8	-51,841	-294,077	388,853	491	0,000
14	lubar	21	-5	8	-0,597	-99,577	21,298	101	0,000
15	chi_10	21	1000022	9	105,352	81,316	83,457	175	0,000
16	l	21	3	9	5,451	38,374	52,302	65	0,000
17	lubar	21	-4	9	20,839	-7,250	-5,938	22	0,000
18	chi_10	21	1000022	12	-136,268	-72,961	53,246	181	0,000
19	nu_nu	21	14	12	-78,263	-24,757	21,719	84	0,000
20	nu_nubar	21	-14	12	-107,801	16,901	38,225	115	0,000
21	gamma	1	22	4	2,636	1,357	0,125	2	0,000
22	chi_1-	11-1000024	9	129,643	112,440	129,820	262	413	0,000
23	chi_20	11	1000023	12	-322,330	-80,897	113,191	382	0,000
24	chi_10	1	1000022	15	97,944	77,819	80,917	169	0,000
25	chi_10	1	1000022	18	-136,268	-72,961	53,246	181	0,000
26	nu_nu	1	14	19	-78,263	-24,757	21,719	84	0,000
27	nu_nubar	1	-14	20	-107,801	16,901	38,225	115	0,000
28	Delta++	11	2224	2	0,222	0,012-2734,287	2734		

A simulated event

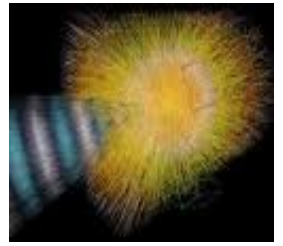
⋮

397	pi+	1	211	209	0,006	0,398	-308,295	308,297	0,140
398	gamma	1	22	221	0,407	0,087	-1635,458	1695,458	0,000
399	gamma	1	22	221	0,113	-0,029	-314,822	314,822	0,000
400	pi0	11	111	212	0,021	0,122	-103,709	103,709	0,135
401	pi0	11	111	212	0,094	-0,068	-94,276	94,276	0,135
402	pi0	11	111	212	0,267	-0,052	-144,673	144,674	0,135
403	gamma	1	22	215	-1,581	2,473	3,305	4,421	0,000
404	gamma	1	22	215	-1,494	2,143	3,051	4,016	0,000
405	pi-	1	-211	216	0,007	0,738	4,015	4,035	0,140
406	pi+	1	211	216	-0,024	0,293	0,485	0,535	0,140
407	K+	1	321	218	4,382	-1,412	-1,793	4,938	0,494
408	pi-	1	-211	218	1,188	-0,894	-0,176	1,500	0,140
409	pi0	11	111	218	0,956	-0,459	-0,590	1,221	0,135
410	pi0	11	111	218	2,349	-1,105	-1,181	2,855	0,135
411	Kbar0	11	-311	219	1,441	-0,247	-0,472	1,615	0,498
412	pi-	1	-211	219	2,232	-0,400	-0,248	2,235	0,140
413	K+	1	321	220	1,380	-0,652	-0,361	1,644	0,494
414	pi0	11	111	220	1,078	-0,265	0,175	1,132	0,135
415	K_s0	11	310	222	1,841	0,111	0,894	2,109	0,498
416	K+	1	321	223	0,307	0,107	0,252	0,642	0,494
417	pi-	1	-211	223	0,266	0,316	-0,201	0,430	0,140
418	nbare0	1	-2112	226	1,335	1,641	2,078	3,111	0,940
419	pi0	11	111	226	0,895	1,046	1,311	1,908	0,135
420	pi+	1	211	227	0,217	1,407	1,356	1,971	0,140
421	pi0	11	111	227	1,207	2,336	2,767	3,820	0,135
422	n0	1	2112	228	3,475	5,324	5,702	8,592	0,940
423	pi-	1	-211	228	1,856	2,606	2,808	4,239	0,140
424	gamma	1	22	229	-0,012	0,247	0,421	0,489	0,000
425	gamma	1	22	229	0,025	0,034	0,008	0,045	0,000
426	pi+	1	211	230	2,718	5,229	6,403	8,703	0,140
427	pi0	11	111	230	4,109	6,747	7,597	10,921	0,135
428	pi-	1	-211	231	0,551	1,233	1,945	2,372	0,140
429	pi0	11	111	231	0,645	1,141	0,922	1,628	0,135
430	gamma	1	22	232	-0,383	1,169	1,208	1,724	0,000
431	gamma	1	22	232	-0,201	0,070	0,060	0,221	0,000

⋮

PYTHIA Monte Carlo
pp → gluino-gluino

Detector simulation



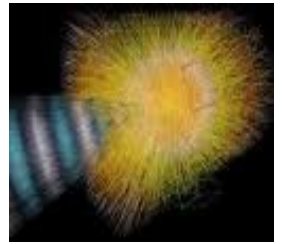
INPUT: particle list (with their species and momenta) from the event generator

Simulate the detector response taking into account:

- Multiple Coulomb scattering (generate scattering angle)
- Particle decays (generate lifetime), nuclear knock-out
- Ionization energy loss (generate Δ , Landau)
- Bremsstrahlung
- Electromagnetic / hadronic showers



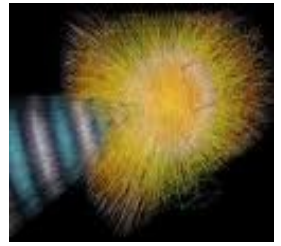
GEANT



GEANT

- First version ~ 1974
- Till GEANT 3.21, in FORTRAN
- Since ~ 2000, FORTRAN version no longer developed, bug fixes
- Geant4: in C++, with a modern object-oriented design
- Next ... Geant 5

Detector simulation

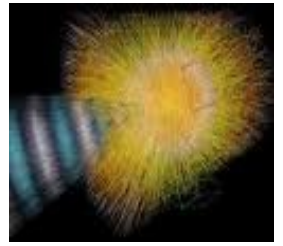


The detector simulation takes into account many more things:

- Production of the signals (electronics response)
- Addition of detector noise
- Description of the detection **efficiency** for each detector component (experiment specific)
- Position and energy **resolution** of each detector component (experiment specific)

The output is a list of digitized signals from all detector components, exactly like real data!! (or data format input for the reconstruction)

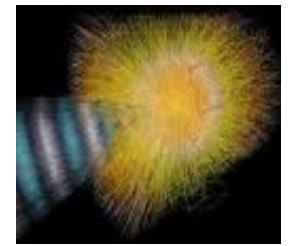
Use of simulations



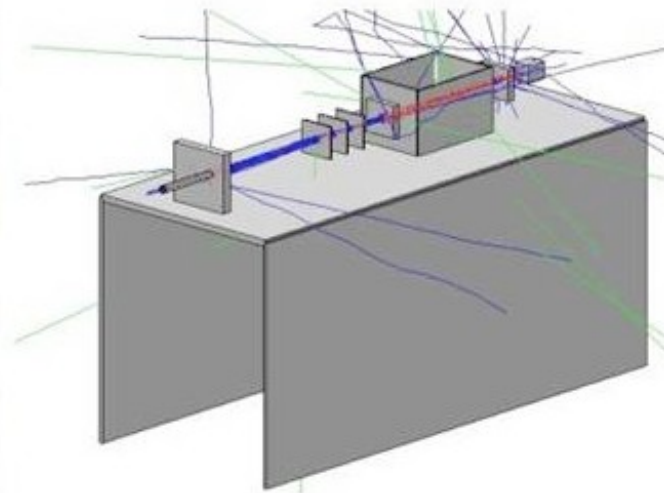
- Develop reconstruction algorithms
(particle trajectories in the tracking detectors, showers in the calorimeters)
- Optimize trigger selection
- Identify the best signal signature
- Compute efficiency of selections in real data analysis
- During design of an experiment: define the detector acceptance, etc

Simulation is absolutely crucial in the planning phase of experiments, for preparation of data taking, to optimize analyses, to evaluate the significance of the results

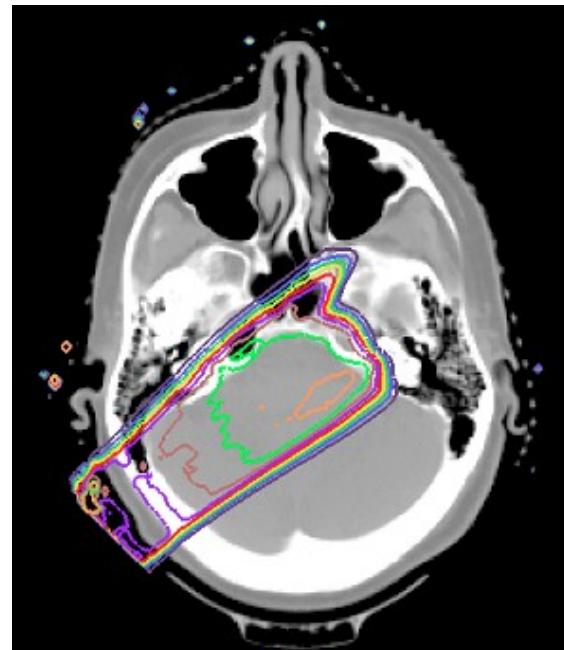
Geant – other applications



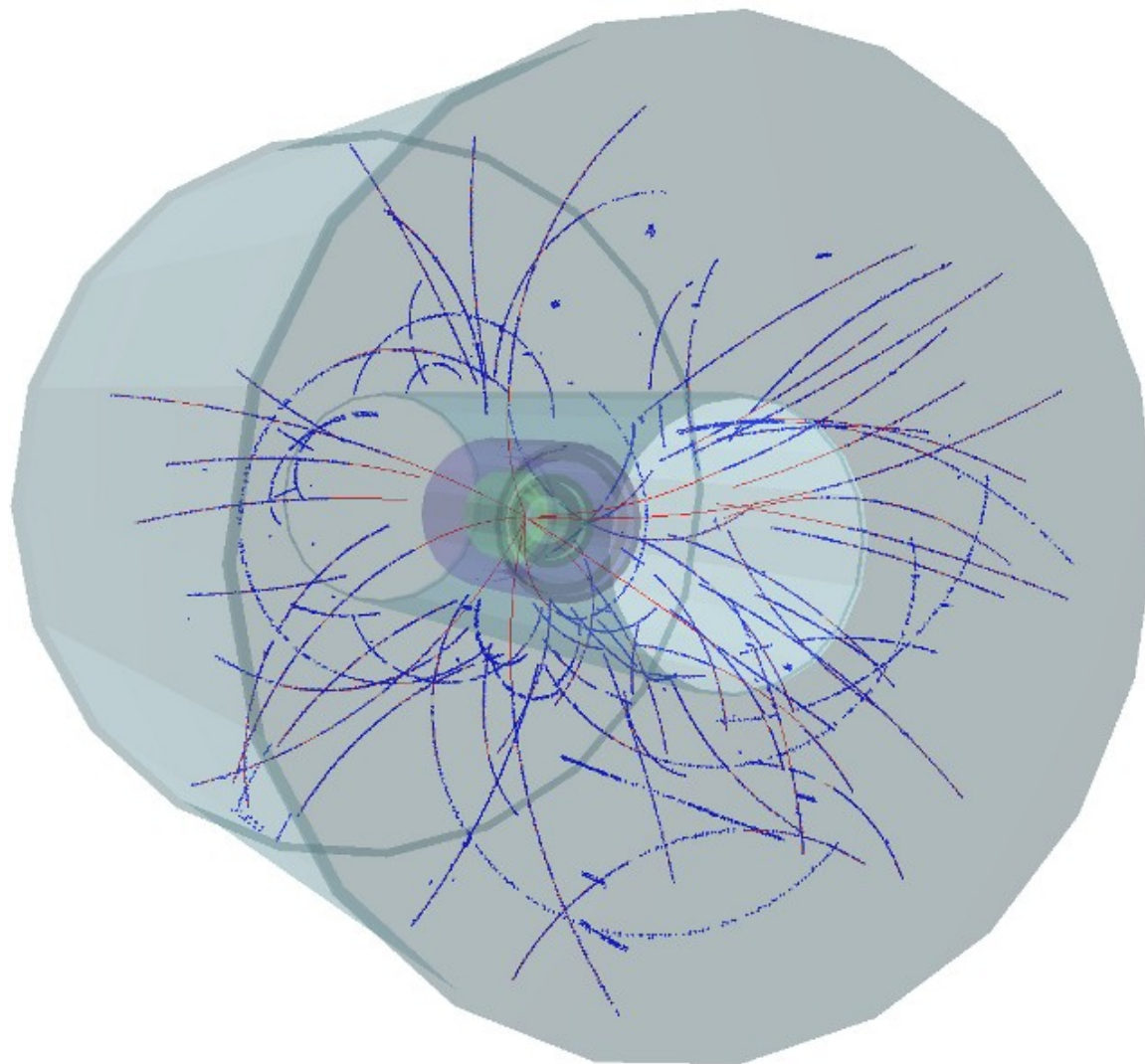
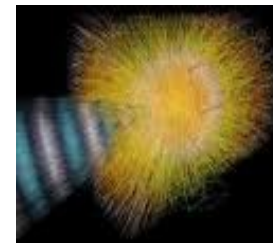
Proton beam eye therapy unit at the Laboratori Nazionali del Sud (INFN) in Catania (left) and a display from the Geant4 advanced example for the simulation of the same beam line (right).



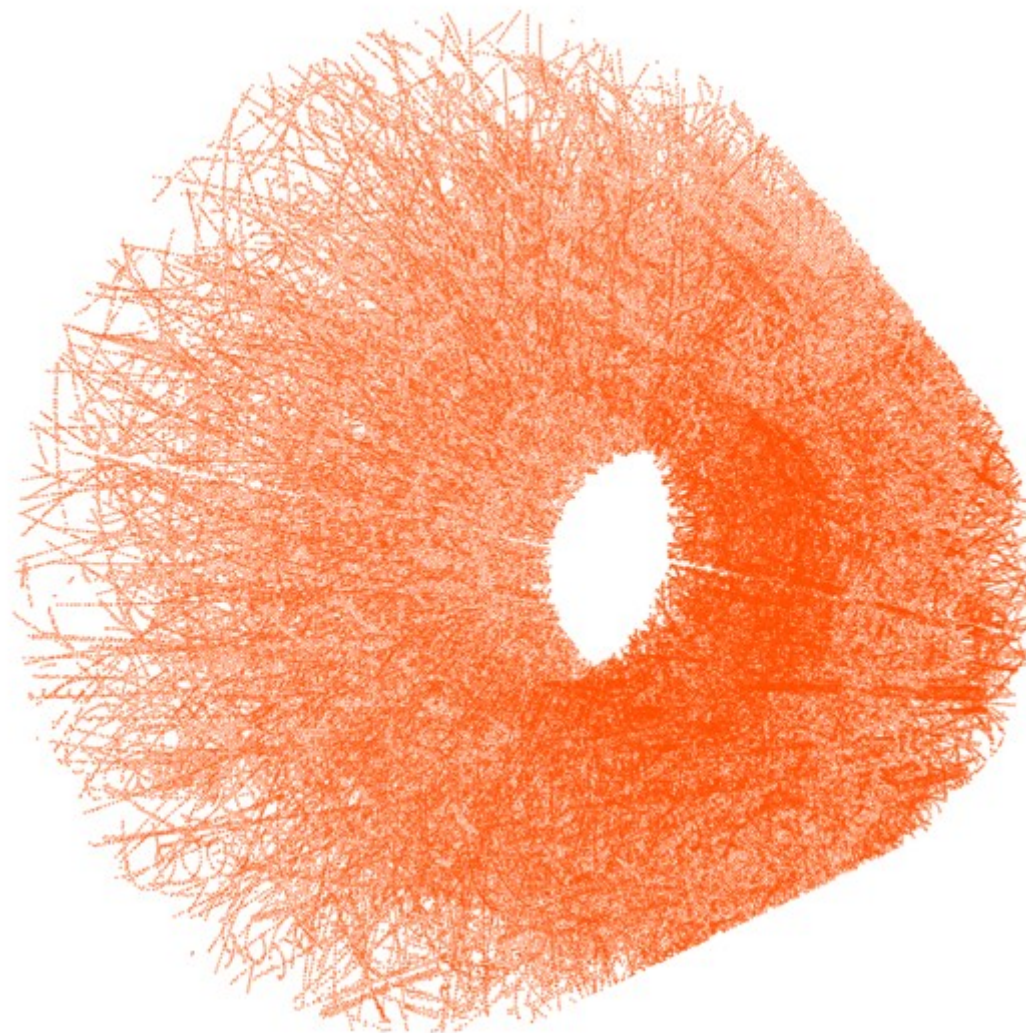
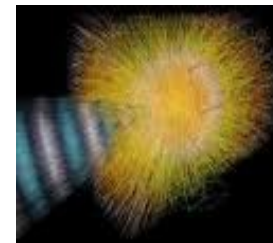
Geant4 simulated dose contours in a human brain with a proton beam.



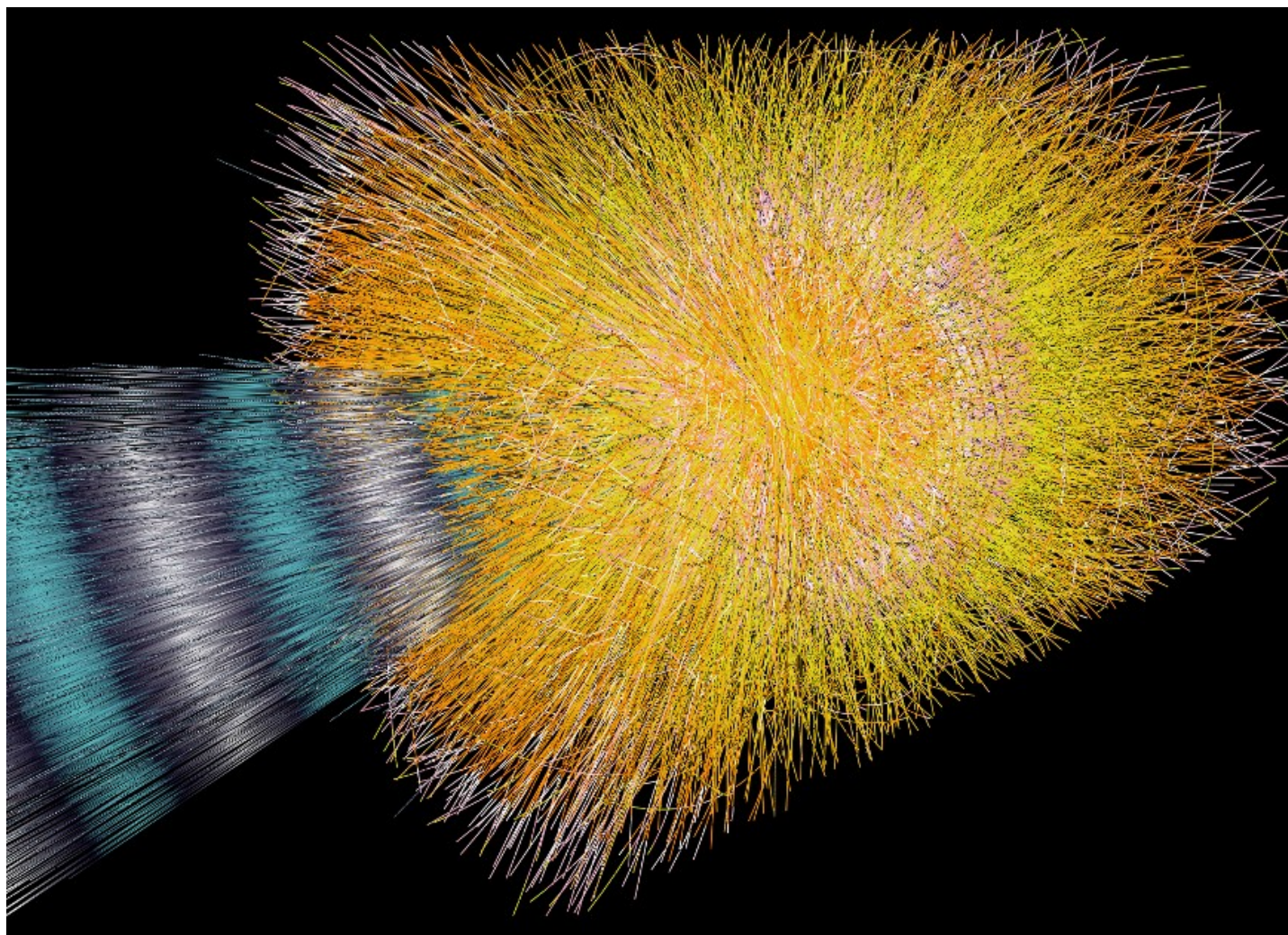
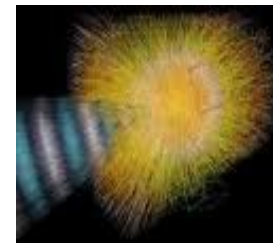
ALICE (TPC) simulation: proton-proton



ALICE (TPC) simulation: Pb-Pb

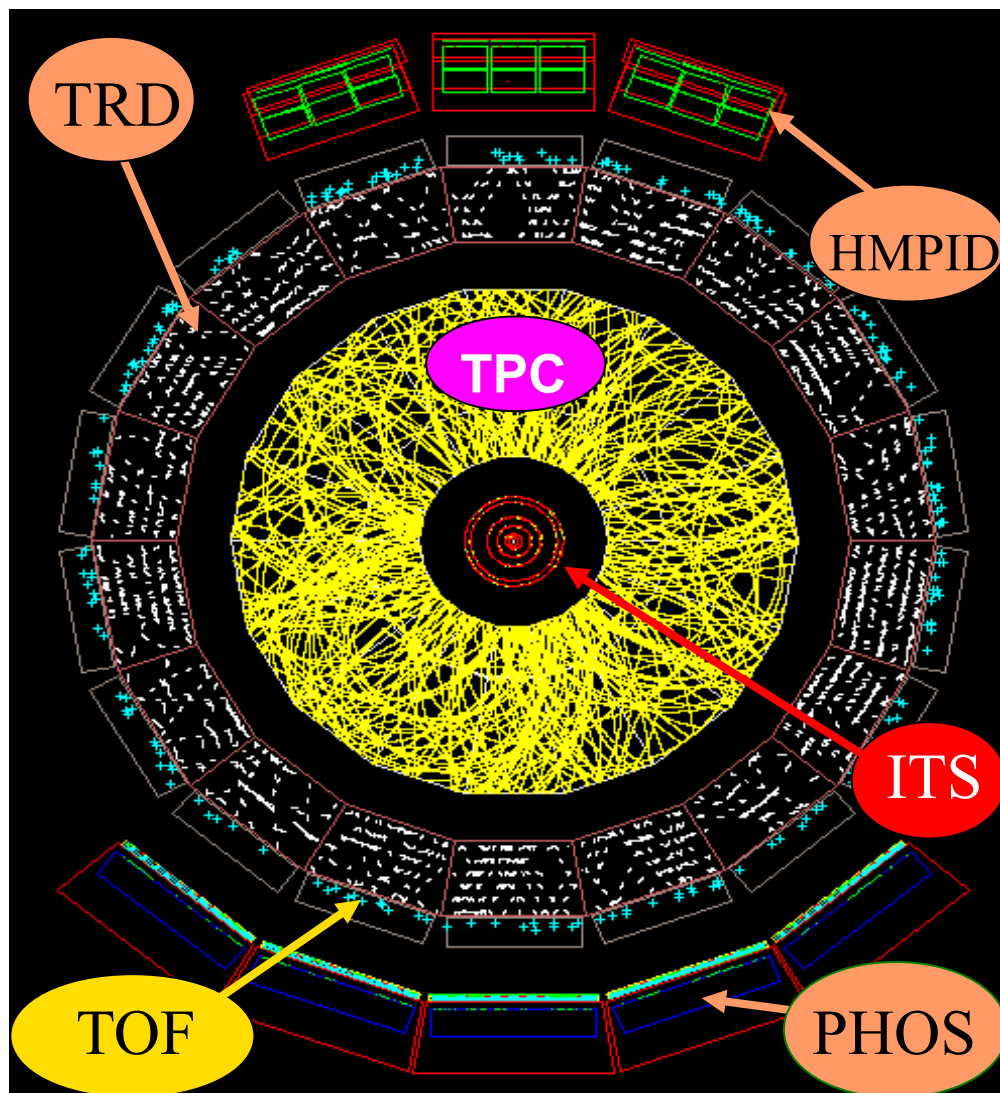
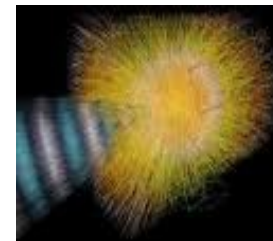


ALICE simulation: Pb-Pb



$dN/dy \sim 8000$
Particles per
unit rapidity

ALICE simulation: Pb-Pb



2 degree slice
ONLY!!

(~ 500 tracks)

(a bit old ...)