

# Studies of granularity of a hadronic calorimeter for tens-of-TeV jets at a 100 TeV $pp$ collider

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## Abstract

Jet substructure variables for hadronic jets with transverse momenta in the range from 2.5 TeV to 20 TeV were studied using several designs for the spatial size of calorimeter cells. The studies used the full Geant4 simulation of calorimeter response combined with realistic reconstruction of calorimeter clusters. In most cases, the results indicate that the performance of jet-substructure reconstruction improves with reducing cell size of a hadronic calorimeter from  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.087 \times 0.087$  to  $0.022 \times 0.022$ .

*Keywords:* multi-TeV physics,  $pp$  collider, future hadron colliders, FCC, SppC

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## 1. Introduction

Particle collisions at energies beyond those attained at the LHC will lead to many challenges for detector technologies. Future circular  $pp$  colliders such as the European initiatives, high-energy LHC (HE-LHC) and FCC-hh [1] and the Chinese initiative, SppC [2] will measure high-momentum bosons ( $W$ ,  $Z$ ,  $H$ ) and top quarks with highly-collimated decay products that form jets. Jet substructure techniques are used to identify such boosted particles, and thus can maximize the physics potential of the future colliders.

The reconstruction of jet substructure variables for collimated jets with transverse momenta above 10 TeV requires an appropriate detector design. The most important detector systems for reconstruction of such jets are tracking and calorimetry. Recently, a number of studies [3, 4, 5] have been discussed using various fast simulation tools, such as Delphes [6], in which momenta of particles are smeared to mimic detector response.

A major step towards the usage of full Geant4 simulation to verify the granularity requirements for calorimeters was made in [7]. These studies have illustrated a significant

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16 impact of granularity of electromagnetic (ECAL) and hadronic (HCAL) calorimeters  
 17 on the cluster separation between two particles. It was concluded that high granularity  
 18 is essential in resolving two close-by particles for energies above 100 GeV.

19 This paper takes the next step in understanding this problem in terms of high-level  
 20 quantities typically used in physics analyses. Similar to the studies presented in [7],  
 21 this paper is based on a full Geant4 simulation with realistic jet reconstruction.

## 22 2. Simulation of detector response

23 The description of the detector and software used for this study is discussed in [7].  
 24 We use the SiFCC detector geometry with a software package that provides a versatile  
 25 environment for simulations of detector performance, testing new technology options,  
 26 and event reconstruction techniques for future 100 TeV colliders.

27 The baseline detector discussed in [7] uses a steel-scintillator hadronic calorimeter  
 28 with a transverse cell size of  $5 \times 5 \text{ cm}^2$ , which corresponds to  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.022 \times 0.022$ ,  
 29 where  $\eta$  is the pseudorapidity,  $\eta \equiv -\ln \tan(\theta/2)$ , and  $\phi$  is the azimuthal angle. The  
 30 depth of the HCAL in the barrel region is 11.25 interaction lengths ( $\lambda_I$ ). The HCAL  
 31 has 64 longitudinal layers in the barrel and the endcap regions.

32 In addition to the baseline HCAL geometry, several geometry variations were con-  
 33 sidered. We used the HCAL with transverse cell size of  $20 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$ ,  $2 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2$  and  
 34  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ . In the terms of  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi$ , such cell sizes correspond to  $0.087 \times 0.087$ ,  
 35  $0.0087 \times 0.0087$  and  $0.0043 \times 0.0043$ , respectively.

36 The GEANT4 (version 10.3) [8] simulation of calorimeter response was followed by  
 37 the full reconstruction of calorimeter clusters formed by the Pandora algorithm [9,  
 38 10]. Calorimeter clusters were built from calorimeter hits in the ECAL and HCAL  
 39 after applying the corresponding sampling fractions. No other corrections are applied.  
 40 Hadronic jets were reconstructed with the FASTJET package [11] using the anti- $k_T$   
 41 algorithm [12] with a distance parameter of 0.5.

42 In the following discussion, we use the simulations of a heavy  $Z'$  boson, a hypo-  
 43 theoretical gauge boson that arises from extensions of the electroweak symmetry of the  
 44 Standard Model. The  $Z'$  bosons were simulated with the masses  $M = 5, 10, 20$  and  
 45 40 TeV. The lowest value represents a typical mass that is within the reach of the LHC  
 46 experiments. The resonance mass of 40 TeV represents the physics reach for a 100 TeV  
 47 collider. The  $Z'$  bosons are forced to decay to two light-flavor quark ( $q\bar{q}$ ),  $W^+W^-$   
 48 or  $t\bar{t}$  final states, where the  $W$  bosons and  $t$  quarks decay hadronically. In these sce-  
 49 narios, two highly-boosted jets are produced, which are typically back-to-back in the  
 50 laboratory frame. The typical transverse momenta of the jets are  $\simeq M/2$ . The main  
 51 difference between the considered decay modes lies in the different jet substructures.  
 52 In the case of the  $q\bar{q}$  decays, jets do not have any internal structure. In the case of the  
 53  $W^+W^-$  final state, each jet has two subjets because of the decay  $W \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ . In the case  
 54 of hadronic top decays, jets have three subjets due to the decay  $t \rightarrow W^+ b \rightarrow q\bar{q}b$ . The  
 55 signal events were generated using the PYTHIA8 generator with the default settings,  
 56 ignoring interference with SM processes. The event samples used in this paper are  
 57 available from the HepSim database [13].

### 58 3. Studies of jet properties

59 We consider several variables that characterize jet substructure using different  
60 calorimeter granularities. The question we want to answer is, how closely the re-  
61 constructed jet substructure variables reflect the input “truth” values that are recon-  
62 structed using particles directly from the PYTHIA8 generator.

63 In this study we use the jet effective radius and jet splitting scales as benchmark  
64 variables to study jet substructure properties. The effective radius is the average of the  
65 energy-weighted radial distance  $\delta R_i$  in  $\eta - \phi$  space of jet constituents. It is defined as  
66  $(1/E) \sum_i e_i \delta R_i$ , where  $E$  is the energy of the jet and  $e_i$  is the energy of a calorimeter  
67 constituent cluster  $i$  at the distance  $\delta R_i$  from the jet center. The sum runs over all  
68 constituents of the jet. This variable has been studied for multi-TeV jets in Ref. [14].  
69 A jet  $k_T$  splitting scale [15] is defined as a distance measure used to form jets by the  
70  $k_T$  recombination algorithm [16, 17]. This variable has been studied by ATLAS [18],  
71 and more recently in the context of 100 TeV physics [14]. The splitting scale is defined  
72 as  $\sqrt{d_{12}} = \min(p_T^1, p_T^2) \times \delta R_{12}$  [18] at the final stage of the  $k_T$  clustering, where two  
73 subjects are merged into the final jet.

74 Figures 1 and 2 show the distributions of the jet effective radius and jet splitting  
75 scale for different jet transverse momenta and HCAL granularities. The reconstructed-  
76 level distributions disagree significantly with the distributions reconstructed using truth-  
77 level particles. The distributions reconstructed with cell size  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$  are closest to the  
78 truth-level variables. The distributions reconstructed using the cell size of  $20 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$ ,  
79 show the largest discrepancy with the truth-level variables. Note that, in terms of  
80 similarity of reconstructed distributions to the truth-level distributions, there is no  
81 significant difference between  $5 \times 5 \text{ cm}^2$ ,  $2 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2$  and  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$  cell sizes.

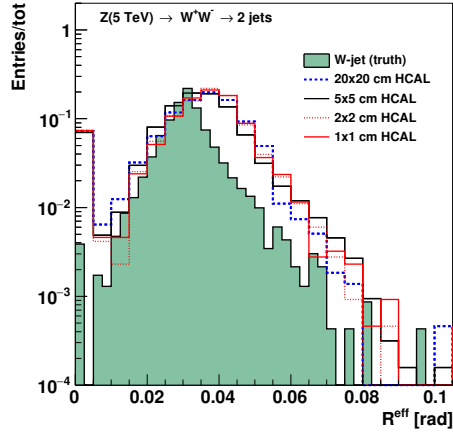
82 This study confirms the baseline SiFCC detector geometry [7] that uses  $5 \times 5 \text{ cm}^2$   
83 HCAL cells, corresponding to  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.022 \times 0.022$ . Similar HCAL cell sizes,  
84  $0.025 \times 0.025$ , were recently adopted for the baseline FCC-hh detector [19, 20] planned  
85 at CERN. Before the publication [7], such a choice for the HCAL cells was motivated  
86 by the studies of jet substructure using a fast detector simulation of boosted jets. In  
87 addition to the improvements in physics performance, the smaller HCAL cells reduce  
88 the required dynamic range for signal reconstruction [4], and thus can simplify the  
89 calorimeter readout.

90 It should be noted that the ATLAS and CMS detectors use the HCAL cell sizes in  
91 the barrel region which are close to  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.087 \times 0.087$ . According to this study,  
92 such HCAL cell sizes are not optimal in terms of performance for tens-of-TeV jets.

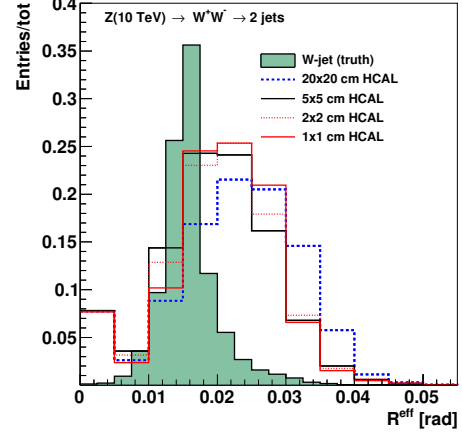
93 In the following sections we consider several other physics-motivated variables that  
94 can shed light on the performance of the HCAL for tens-of-TeV jets.

### 95 4. Detector performance with soft drop mass

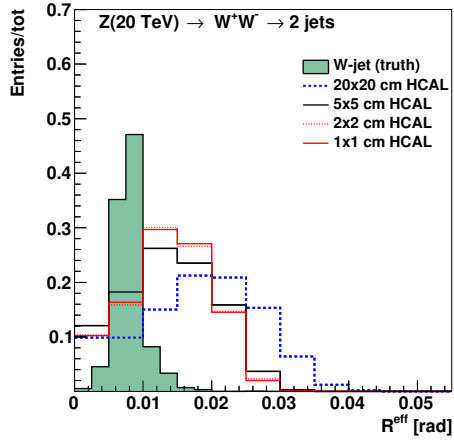
96 In this section, we use the jet mass computed with a specific algorithm, soft drop  
97 declustering, to study the performance with various detector cell sizes and resonance  
98 masses.



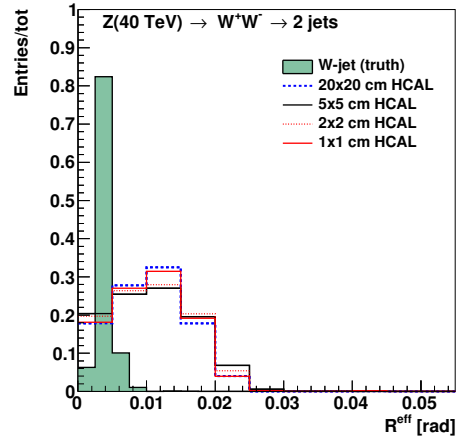
(a) 5 TeV



(b) 10 TeV

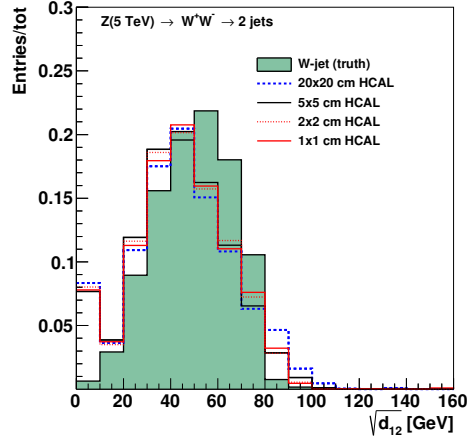


(c) 20 TeV

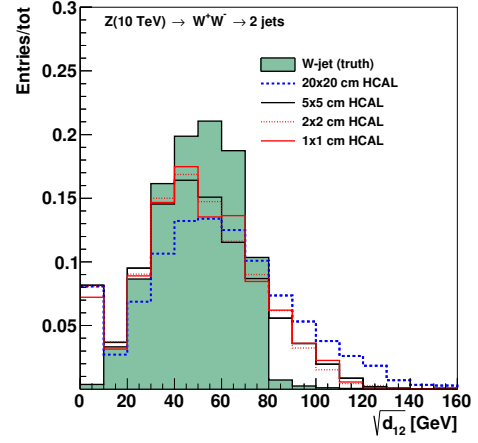


(d) 40 TeV

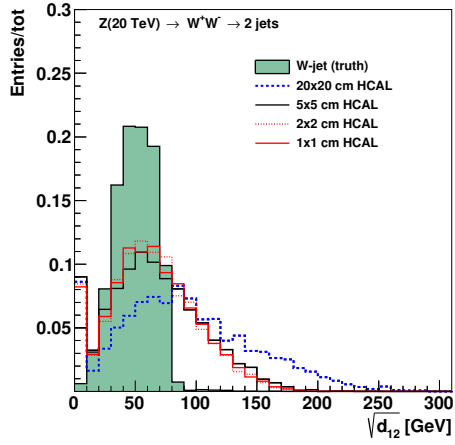
Figure 1: Jet effective radius for different jet transverse momenta and HCAL granularities.



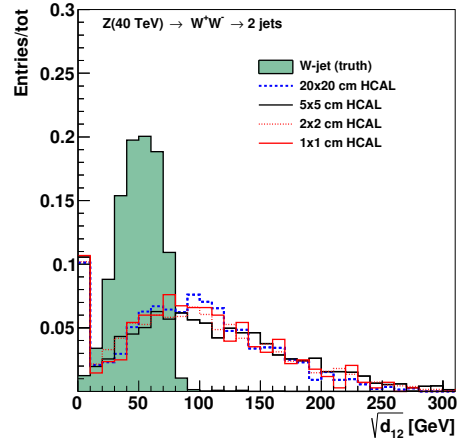
(a) 5 TeV



(b) 10 TeV



(c) 20 TeV



(d) 40 TeV

Figure 2: Jet splitting scale for different jet transverse momenta and HCAL granularity.

#### 4.1. The technique of soft drop declustering

The soft drop declustering [21] is a grooming method that removes soft wide-angle radiation from a jet. The constituents of a jet  $j_0$  are first reclustered using the Cambridge-Aachen (C/A) algorithm [22, 23]. Then, the jet  $j_0$  is broken into two subjets  $j_1$  and  $j_2$  by undoing the last stage of C/A clustering. If the subjets pass the following soft drop condition, jet  $j_0$  is the final soft-drop jet. Otherwise, the algorithm redefines  $j_0$  to be the subjet with larger  $p_T$  (among  $j_1$  and  $j_2$ ) and iterates the procedure.

$$\frac{\min(p_{T1}, p_{T2})}{p_{T1} + p_{T2}} > z_{\text{cut}} \left( \frac{\Delta R_{12}}{R_0} \right)^\beta, \quad (1)$$

where  $p_{T1}$  and  $p_{T2}$  are the transverse momenta of the two subjets,  $z_{\text{cut}}$  is soft drop threshold,  $\Delta R_{12}$  is the distance between the two subjets in the rapidity-azimuthal plane ( $y$ - $\phi$ ),  $R_0$  is the characteristic radius of the original jet, and  $\beta$  is the angular exponent.

In our study, we compare the HCAL performance for the soft drop mass with  $\beta = 0$  and  $\beta = 2$ . For  $\beta = 0$ , the soft drop condition depends only on the  $z_{\text{cut}}$ . For  $\beta = 2$ , the condition depends on the angular distance between the two subjets and  $z_{\text{cut}}$  and the algorithm becomes infrared and collinear safe.

#### 4.2. Analysis method

We employ the following method to quantify the detector performance and determine the cell size that gives the best separation power to distinguish signal from background. For each configuration of detector and c.m. energy, we draw the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves in which the  $x$ -axis is the signal efficiency ( $\epsilon_{\text{sig}}$ ) and  $y$ -axis is the inverse of the background efficiency ( $1/\epsilon_{\text{bkg}}$ ). In order to scan the efficiencies of soft drop mass cuts, we vary the mass window as follows. We center the initial window on the median of the signal histogram, and increase its width symmetrically left and right in bins of 5 GeV. If one side of the mass window reaches the boundary of the mass histogram, we increase the width on the other side. For each mass window, the corresponding efficiencies  $\epsilon_{\text{sig}}$  and  $\epsilon_{\text{bkg}}$  give a point on the ROC curve.

#### 4.3. Results and conclusion

Figures 3-9 show the distributions for the soft drop mass for  $\beta = 0$  and  $\beta = 2$  with different resonance masses and detector cell sizes; the signals considered are the  $Z' \rightarrow WW$  and  $Z' \rightarrow t\bar{t}$  processes. Figures 4-10 show the ROC curves for different detector cell sizes and resonance masses.

These studies show that the reconstruction of soft drop mass improves with decrease of the HCAL cell sizes. Figures 4 and 6 show that for  $\beta = 0$  the smallest detector cell size,  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ , has the best separation power at  $\sqrt{s} = 5, 10$ , and 20 TeV when the signal is  $Z' \rightarrow WW$ , and at  $\sqrt{s} = 10$  and 20 TeV when the signal is  $Z' \rightarrow t\bar{t}$ . On the contrary, Figs. 8 and 10 show that for  $\beta = 2$  the smallest detector cell size does not have improvements in the separation power with respect to those with larger cell sizes. In fact, the performances of the three cell sizes are similar. In addition, sometimes bigger detector cell sizes,  $5 \times 5 \text{ cm}^2$  or even  $20 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$  have the best separation power.

Note that the separation between ROC curves depends on the physics variable and on the boost of top-quarks (or  $W$ ). For example, the absence of difference between

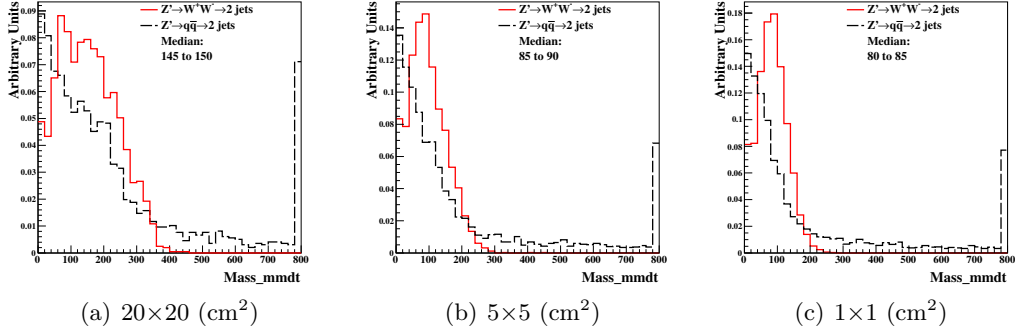


Figure 3: Distributions of soft drop mass for  $\beta=0$ , with  $M(Z') = 20$  TeV and three different detector cell sizes:  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$  and  $1 \times 1$   $\text{cm}^2$ . The signal (background) process is  $Z' \rightarrow WW$  ( $Z' \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ ).

the ROC curves shown in Fig. 6(a) is due to the insufficient boost of the top quarks. From the other hand, Fig. 6(d) does not show a separation between the ROC lines since the boost is too high, therefore, all the considered detector geometries show the same performance.

We also find that the soft drop mass with  $\beta = 0$  has better performance for distinguishing signal from background than for  $\beta = 2$ . Therefore, we will apply requirements on this variable when studying the other jet substructure variables.

## 5. Detector performance with jet substructure variables

In this section, we use several jet substructure variables to study the performance with various detector cell sizes and resonance masses.

### 5.1. $N$ -subjettiness

The variable  $N$ -subjettiness [24], denoted by  $\tau_N$ , is designed to “count” the number of subjet(s) in a large radius jet in order to separate signal jets from decays of heavy bosons and background jets from QCD processes. The  $\tau_N$  is the  $p_T$ -weighted angular distance between each jet constituent and the closest subjet axis:

$$\tau_N = \frac{1}{d_0} \sum_k p_{T,k} \min\{\Delta R_{1,k}, \Delta R_{2,k}, \dots, \Delta R_{N,k}\}, \quad (2)$$

with a normalization factor  $d_0$ :

$$d_0 = \sum_k p_{T,k} R_0.$$

The  $k$  index runs over all constituent particles in a given large radius jet,  $p_{T,k}$  is the transverse momentum of each individual constituent,  $\Delta R_{j,k} = \sqrt{(\Delta y)^2 + (\Delta \phi)^2}$  is the distance between the constituent  $k$  and the candidate subjet axis  $j$  in the  $y - \phi$  plane.  $R_0$  is the characteristic jet radius used in the anti- $k_t$  jet algorithm.

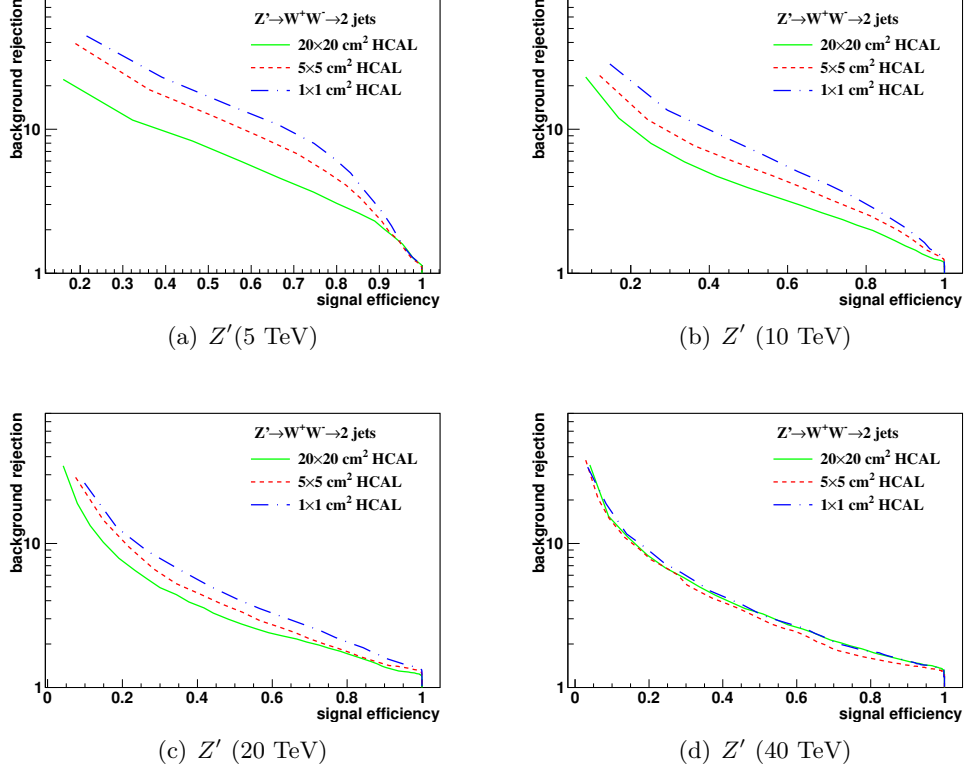


Figure 4: The ROC curves of soft drop mass selection for  $\beta=0$  with resonance masses of 5, 10, 20 and 40 TeV. Three different detector cell sizes are compared:  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$ , and  $1 \times 1$   $\text{cm}^2$ . The signal (background) process is  $Z' \rightarrow WW$  ( $Z' \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ ).

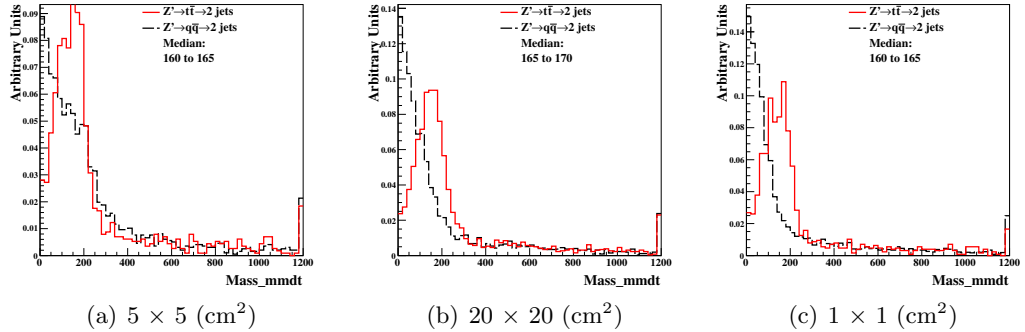


Figure 5: Distributions of soft drop mass for  $\beta=0$ , with  $M(Z') = 20$  TeV and three different detector cell sizes:  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$ , and  $1 \times 1$   $\text{cm}^2$ . The signal (background) process is  $Z' \rightarrow t\bar{t}$  ( $Z' \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ ).



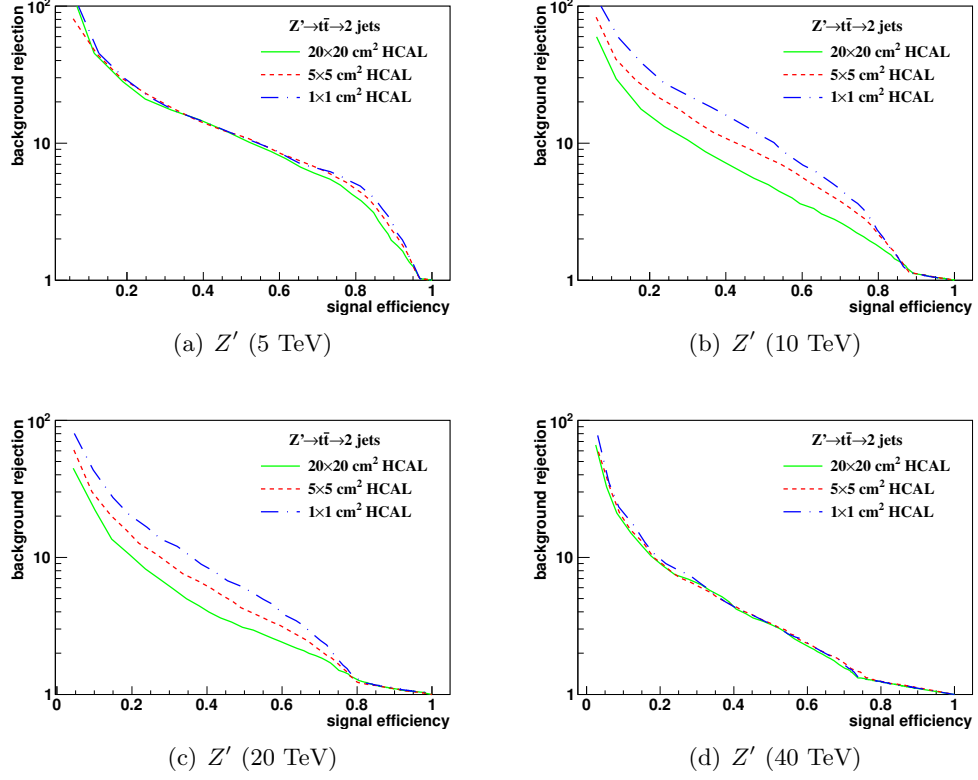


Figure 6: The ROC curves of soft drop mass selection for  $\beta=0$  with resonance masses of 5, 10, 20 and 40 TeV. Three different detector cell sizes are compared:  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$ , and  $1 \times 1$   $\text{cm}^2$ . The signal (background) process is  $Z' \rightarrow t\bar{t}$  ( $Z' \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ ).

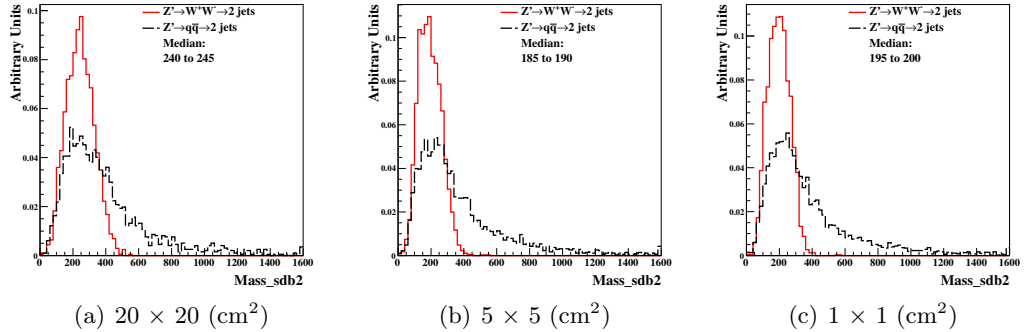


Figure 7: Distributions of soft drop mass for  $\beta = 2$ , with  $M(Z') = 20$  TeV and three different detector cell sizes:  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$  and  $1 \times 1$   $\text{cm}^2$ . The signal (background) process is  $Z' \rightarrow WW$  ( $Z' \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ ).

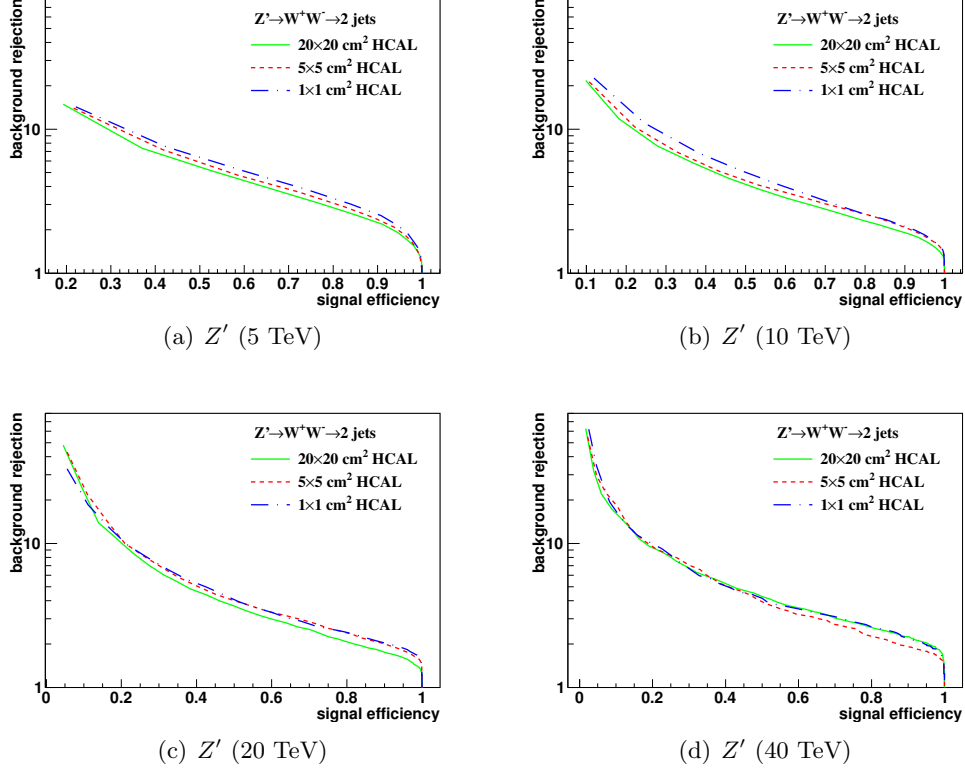


Figure 8: The ROC curves of soft drop mass selection for  $\beta = 2$  with resonance masses of 5, 10, 20 and 40 TeV. Three different detector cell sizes are compared:  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$ , and  $1 \times 1$   $\text{cm}^2$ . The signal (background) process is  $Z' \rightarrow WW$  ( $Z' \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ ).

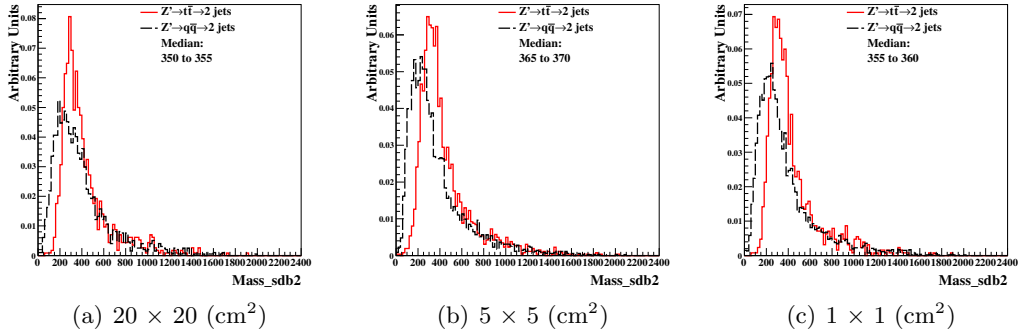


Figure 9: Distributions of soft drop mass for  $\beta = 2$ , with  $M(Z') = 20$  TeV and three different detector cell sizes:  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$ , and  $1 \times 1$   $\text{cm}^2$ . The signal (background) process is  $Z' \rightarrow t\bar{t}$  ( $Z' \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ ).

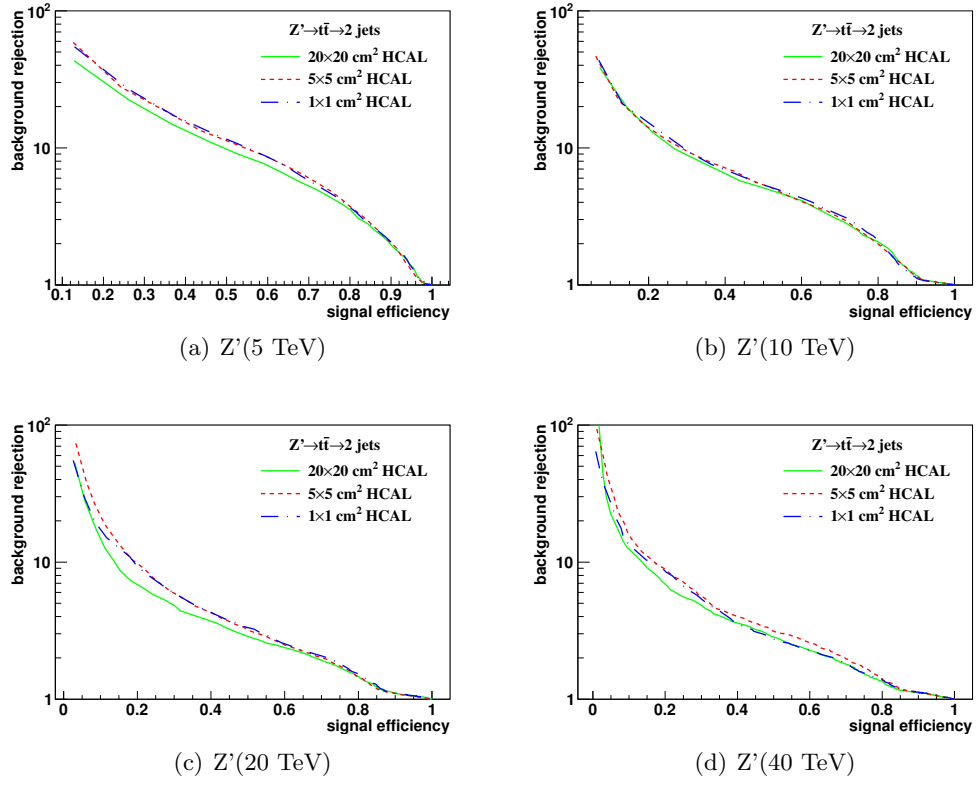


Figure 10: The ROC curves of soft drop mass selection for  $\beta = 2$  with resonance masses of 5, 10, 20 and 40 TeV. Three different detector cell sizes are compared:  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$  and  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ . The signal (background) process is  $Z' \rightarrow t\bar{t}$  ( $Z' \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ ).

This analysis uses the jet reconstruction described in Sect. 2. The subjet axes are obtained by running the exclusive  $k_t$  algorithm [25] and reversing the last  $N$  clustering steps. Namely, when  $\tau_N$  is computed, the  $k_t$  algorithm is forced to return exactly  $N$  jets. If a large radius jet has  $N$  subjet(s), its  $\tau_N$  is smaller than  $\tau_{N-1}$ . Therefore, in our analysis, the ratios  $\tau_{21} \equiv \tau_2/\tau_1$  and  $\tau_{32} \equiv \tau_3/\tau_2$  are used to distinguish the one-prong background jets and the two-prong jets from  $W$  boson decays or the three-prong jets from top quark decays.

We use the ROC curves described in Sect. 4.2 to analyze the detector performance and determine the cell size that gives the best separation between signal and background processes. Following the suggestion of Ref. [26], the requirement on the soft drop mass with  $\beta = 0$  is applied before the study of  $N$ -subjettiness. For each detector configuration and resonance mass, the soft drop mass selection window is determined as follows. The selection window is initialized by the median bin of the soft drop mass histogram from simulated signal events as described in Sect. 4.2. Comparing the adjacent bins, the bin with the larger number of events is included to extend the mass window. The procedure is repeated until the mass window cut reaches a signal efficiency of 75%.

With this priori mass window pre-selection, the signal and background efficiencies of various  $\tau_{21}$  and  $\tau_{32}$  window cuts are scanned. Since some of the background distributions have long tails and leak into the signal-dominated region, we use the following method based on the Neyman-Pearson lemma to determine the  $\tau$  windows. First, we take the ratio of the signal to background  $\tau_{21}$  (or  $\tau_{32}$ ) histograms. The window is initialized by the bin with the maximum signal to background ratio (S/N). Comparing the adjacent bins, the bin with the larger S/N is included to extend the  $\tau_{21}$  (or  $\tau_{32}$ ) selection window. Every window has its corresponding  $\epsilon_{\text{sig}}$  and  $1/\epsilon_{\text{bkg}}$  and an ROC curve is mapped out.

In addition to the ROC curves, we use the so-called ‘‘Mann-Whitney’’ test [27] to quantify the detector performance. The value of the Mann-Whitney  $U$  variable is related to the area under the ROC curve: if the  $U$  value is bigger, it indicates the signal and background distributions have similar shapes and cannot be well-separated from each other. Vice versa, if the  $U$  value is smaller, we can achieve better signal and background separation.

Figures 11 and 13 show the distributions of  $\tau_{21}$  and  $\tau_{32}$  for  $\sqrt{s} = 20$  TeV after applying the requirement on the soft drop mass. The signals considered are  $Z' \rightarrow WW$  (for  $\tau_{21}$ ) and  $Z' \rightarrow t\bar{t}$  (for  $\tau_{32}$ ). Figures 12 and 14 present the ROC curves from different detector cell sizes and resonance masses, respectively. The smallest detector cell size ( $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ ) does not have the best separation power. In fact, in some cases, the best separation power comes from a detector with bigger cell sizes ( $5 \times 5 \text{ cm}^2$  and  $20 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$ ).

Figure 17 presents the summary plots of  $\tau_{21}$  and  $\tau_{32}$  with various detector cell sizes and resonance masses using the Mann-Whitney test. For  $\tau_{21}$  at smaller resonance masses, the detector performance improves when cell size is reduced. However, when the resonance mass increases, no improvement is observed using the smallest detector cell size ( $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ ). The case for  $\tau_{32}$  is similar to  $\tau_{21}$ . It is interesting to note that at very large resonance masses, the large detector cell sizes ( $5 \times 5 \text{ cm}^2$  and  $20 \times 20 \text{ cm}^2$ ) have a better separation power than the smallest cell size considered in this analysis.

206 *5.2. Energy correlation function*

207 The energy correlation function (ECF) [28] is defined as follows:

$$ECF(N, \beta) = \sum_{i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_N \in J} \left( \prod_{a=1}^N p_{Tia} \right) \left( \prod_{b=1}^{N-1} \prod_{c=b+1}^N R_{i_b i_c} \right)^\beta, \quad (3)$$

208 where the sum is over all constituents in jet  $J$ ,  $p_T$  is the transverse momentum of each  
 209 constituent, and  $R$  is the distance between two constituents in the  $y$ - $\phi$  plane. In order  
 210 to use a dimensionless variable, a parameter  $r_N$  is defined:

$$r_N^{(\beta)} \equiv \frac{ECF(N+1, \beta)}{ECF(N, \beta)}. \quad (4)$$

211 The idea of  $r_N$  comes from  $N$ -subjettiness  $\tau_N$ . Both  $r_N$  and  $\tau_N$  are linear in  
 212 the energy of the soft radiation for a system of  $N$  partons with soft radiation. In  
 213 general, if the system has  $N$  subjets,  $ECF(N+1, \beta)$  should be significantly smaller  
 214 than  $ECF(N, \beta)$ . Therefore, we can use this feature to distinguish jets with different  
 215 numbers of subjets. As in Sect. 5.1, the ratio  $r_N/r_{N-1}$ , denoted by  $C_N$ , (double-ratios  
 216 of ECFs) is used to study the detector performance:

$$C_N^{(\beta)} \equiv \frac{r_N^{(\beta)}}{r_{N-1}^{(\beta)}} = \frac{ECF(N-1, \beta) ECF(N+1, \beta)}{ECF(N, \beta)^2}. \quad (5)$$

217 In our analysis, we set  $N = 2$  and  $\beta = 1$  ( $C_2^1$ ).

218 Figure 15 presents the histograms of  $C_2^1$  with  $M(Z') = 20$  TeV after making the  
 219 requirement on the soft drop mass. The signal considered is the  $Z' \rightarrow WW$  process.  
 220 Figure 16 shows the ROC curves from different detector cell sizes for each resonance  
 221 mass. One can see that the smallest detector cell size ( $1 \times 1$  cm<sup>2</sup>) does not have the  
 222 best signal-to-background separation power. Figure 17 summarizes the result of the  
 223 Mann-Whitney test for  $C_2^1$ . When the resonance mass increases, no improvement is  
 224 observed with the smallest cell size.

225 **6. Conclusions**

226 The studies presented in this paper show that the reconstruction of jet substructure  
 227 variables for future particle colliders will benefit from small cell sizes of the hadronic  
 228 calorimeters. This conclusion was obtained using the realistic GEANT4simulation of  
 229 calorimeter response combined with reconstruction of calorimeter clusters used as in-  
 230 puts for jet reconstruction. Hadronic calorimeters that use the cell sizes of  $20 \times 20$  cm<sup>2</sup>  
 231 ( $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.087 \times 0.087$ ) are least performant for almost every substructure variable  
 232 considered in this analysis, for jet transverse momenta between 2.5 and 10 TeV. Such  
 233 cell sizes are similar to those used for the ATLAS and CMS detectors at the LHC. In  
 234 terms of reconstruction of physics-motivated quantities used for jet substructure stud-  
 235 ies, the performance of a hadronic calorimeter with  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.022 \times 0.022$  is, in  
 236 most cases, better than for a detector with  $0.087 \times 0.087$  cells. The performance of the  
 237 HCAL with cells  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.0087 \times 0.0087$  and  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.0043 \times 0.0043$  was found  
 238 to be similar.

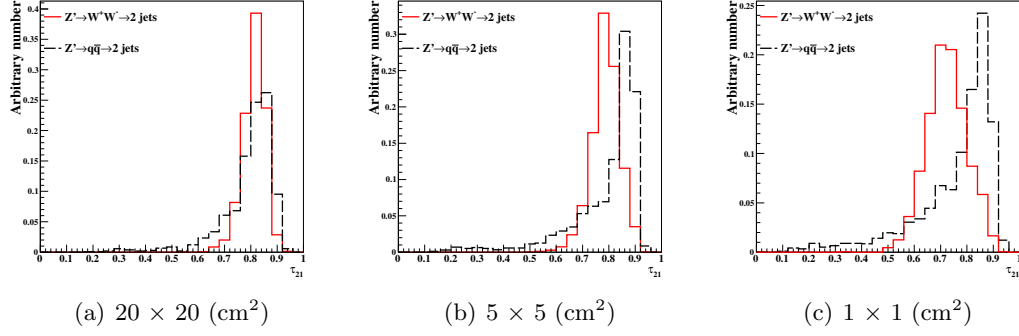


Figure 11: Distributions of  $\tau_{21}$  for  $M(Z') = 20 \text{ TeV}$  for different detector granularities. Cell sizes of  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$ , and  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$  are shown here.

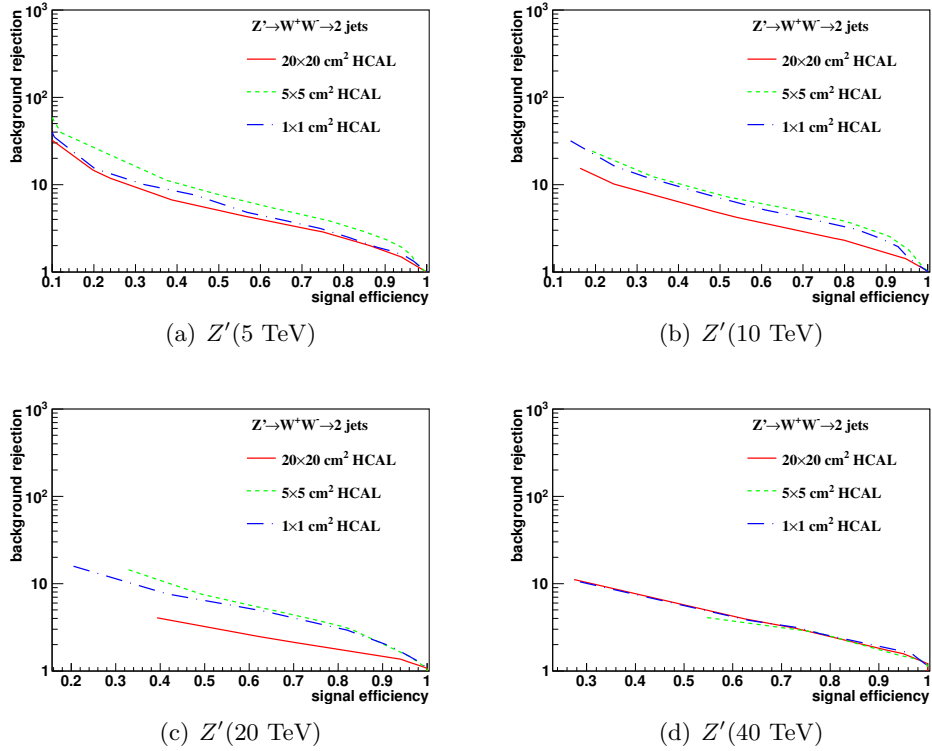


Figure 12: Signal efficiency versus background rejection rate using  $\tau_{21}$ . Resonance masses of (a) 5 TeV, (b) 10 TeV, (c) 20 TeV and (d) 40 TeV are shown here. In each figure, the three ROC curves correspond to different cell sizes.

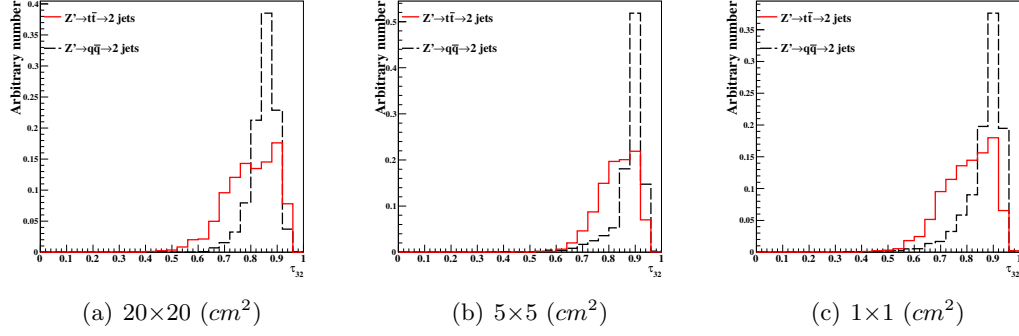


Figure 13: Distributions of  $\tau_{32}$  for  $M(Z') = 20$  TeV for different detector granularities. Cell sizes of  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$ , and  $1 \times 1$   $\text{cm}^2$  are shown here.

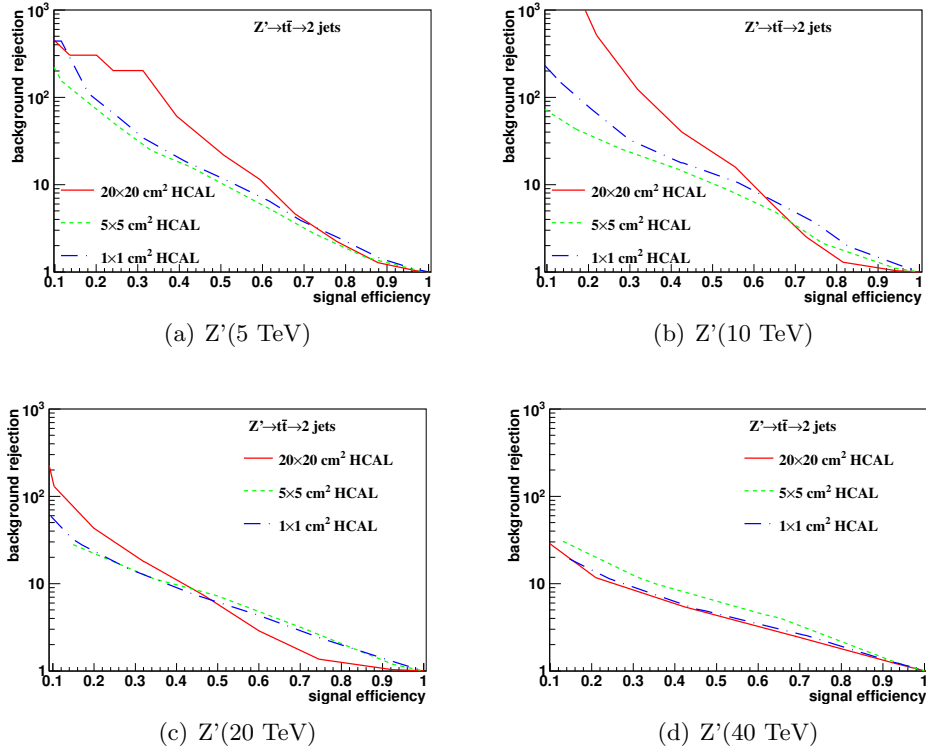


Figure 14: Signal efficiency versus background rejection rate using  $\tau_{32}$ . Resonance masses of (a) 5 TeV, (b) 10 TeV, (c) 20 TeV and (d) 40 TeV are shown here. In each figure, the three ROC curves correspond to different HCAL cell sizes.

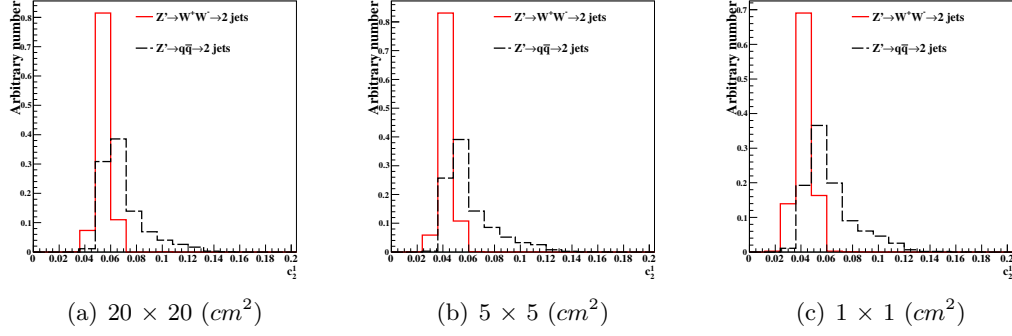


Figure 15: Distributions of  $C_2^1$  with  $M(Z') = 20 \text{ TeV}$  for different detector granularities. Cell sizes of  $20 \times 20$ ,  $5 \times 5$ , and  $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$  are shown here.

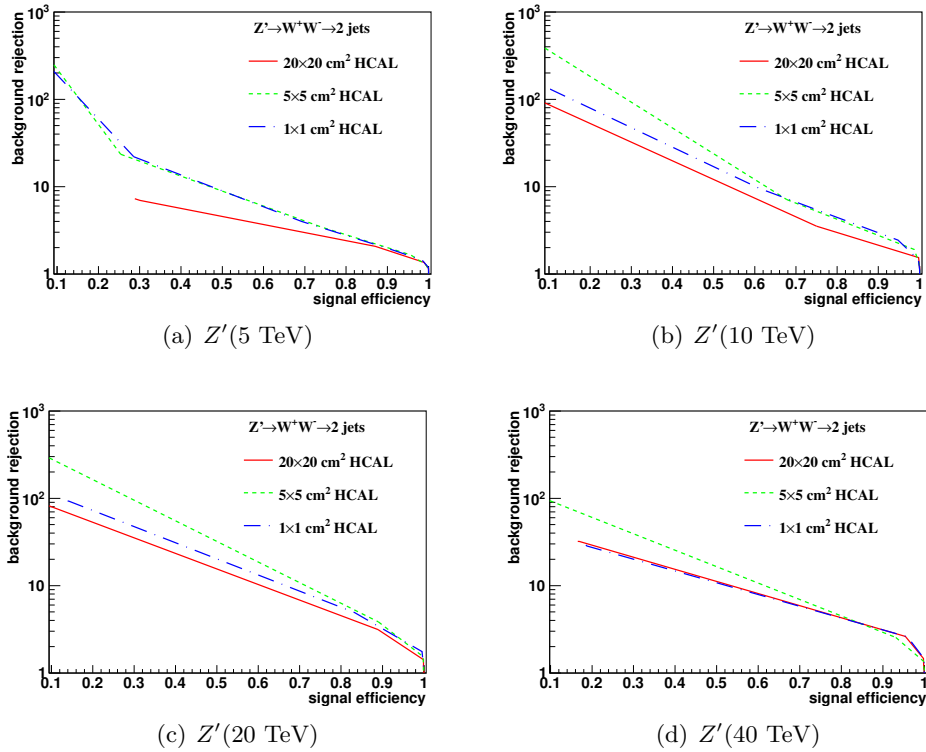


Figure 16: Signal efficiency versus background rejection rate using  $C_2^1$ . The resonance masses of (a) 5 TeV, (b) 10 TeV, (c) 20 TeV, and (d) 40 TeV are shown here. In each figure, the three ROC curves correspond to different detector sizes.



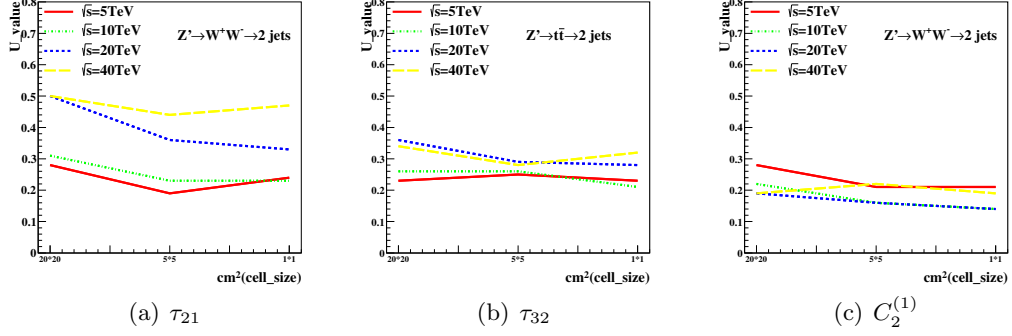


Figure 17: The Mann-Whitney  $U$  values for  $\tau_{21}$ ,  $\tau_{32}$ , and  $C_2^{(1)}$  reconstructed for different resonance masses and detector cell sizes.

Thus this study confirms the HCAL geometry of the SiFCC detector [7], with the  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.022 \times 0.022$  HCAL cells. It also confirms the HCAL design of the baseline FCC-hh [19, 20] detector with  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.025 \times 0.025$  HCAL cells.

It interesting to note that, for very boosted jets with transverse momenta close to 20 TeV, no significant improvement with the decrease of cell sizes was observed. This result needs to be understood in terms of various types of simulations and different options for reconstruction of the calorimeter clusters.

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