

Experimental methods for physics at the LHC

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Particle Physics

What are the fundamental constituents of our universe?

How do these fundamental constituents interact with each other?

Particle Physics

What are the fundamental constituents of our universe?

How do these fundamental constituents interact with each other?

Experimentally, how do we do it at the LHC?

Outline

Lecture 1: Colliders and LHC

Lecture 2 & 3: Detectors, subdetectors, object reconstruction

Lecture 4: Analysing the collision data

Lecture 5 & 6: Some discrete items of interest

Outline

Linear/Circular, LHC, Luminosity

Typical detector, basic

Lecture 1: Colliders and LHC

Lecture 2 & 3: Detectors, subdetectors, object reconstruction

Lecture 4: Analysing the collision data

Lecture 5 & 6: Some discrete items of interest

Performing a data analysis to answer a physics question

Electrons, photons,

quarks, gauge

bosons

Backgrounds, fakes, substructure

Disclaimer

I will show material stolen shamelessly from many people and sources over the years... (that is how understanding builds)

I will try to give sources as much as possible, but if not, then big thank you to so many people over the years for their content.

I may focus more on CMS (and a little bit of ATLAS) because of my experience.

We have much to cover ... so I will try to focus on concepts and ideas (rather than facts that you can look up).

Ask lots of questions! If I don't know, I promise to try to find answers.

I will try to give short exercises, and some paper-reading. We can talk about those over lunch/dinner. The more papers you look at, the more you know!

Lecture 1: Colliders

Why collide?



foil experiment

Why collide?





Accelerators/Colliders



- What particles should I collide? At what energy?
- What particles will be ejected? How do I identify them? What are their properties and how do I measure them?

Accelerators/Colliders



We can be adventurous.. but primary constraints are

- 1. Are these particles easily available?
- 2. Can I manipulate them readily?

Two particles fit the bill – electrons and protons.

Almost all experiments start from these (and if needed go on to produce other particles)

Some numbers

We have the de Broglie relation

 $\lambda = h/p = hc/E$ And $hc = 1.24 \text{ eV}.\mu m$ Typical energy of α particle is 5 MeV So we can probe ~ 250 fm

(Atom is 10⁻¹⁰ m, so certainly we could see inside it.)

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Proton is ~ 1 fm, thus we need energy of ~ 1.24 GeV to "peek inside" a proton.

Higher energy probes smaller distance scales.

Some numbers

We also have $E = mc^2$

A Higgs boson has a mass of 125 GeV, to produce it we would need collisions at COM energy of at least 125 GeV

Higher energy allows us to produce higher mass particles.



Colliders



For a fixed particle q/m is constant, for a given collider radius R is constant. So magnetic field B must increase with velocity v.



eg. Stanford Linear Accelerator, 3.2km long, accelerating ele to 50 GeV



Linear vs Circular?

Linear vs Circular?

Charged particles radiate in circular motion. Circular colliders lose energy to bremsstrahlung. (Need bigger rings and/or heavier particles). Superconducting magnets for bending is harder (expensive, more maintenance)

Circular colliders can accelerate to higher energies (particles come around) Can reuse particles (particles come around) Can have multiple collision points/detectors

Collider parameters

TT . 1												
Hadron	HERA		TEV	EVATRON* RHIC			LHC					
		(DESY)	(Fe	ermilab)	Brookhaven		(CERN)					
Physics start date		1992	1987		2001		2009		2015	2026 (HL-LHC)		
Physics end date		2007		2011 —						i		
Particles collided		ep		$p\overline{p}$	pp (polarized)		pp					
Maximum beam energy (TeV)		e: 0.030 p: 0.92		0.980	0.255 55% polarization		4.0		6.5		7.0	
Max. delivered integrated luminosity per exp. (fb^{-1})	0.8			12	$\begin{array}{c} 0.38 \ {\rm at} \ 100 \ {\rm GeV} \\ 1.3 \ {\rm at} \ 250/255 \ {\rm GeV} \end{array}$			3.3 at 4.0 TeV 5.1 at 3.5 TeV		250/y		
e⁺e⁻	CESR (Cornell)			CESR-C (Cornell)			LEP (CERN)			SLC (SLAC)		
		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			/		· /					
Physics start date		1979		2002			1989			1989		
Physics end date		2002		2008			2000			1998		
Maximum beam energy (O	kimum beam energy (GeV)			6			100 - 104.6			50		
Delivered integrated luminosity per experiment (fb^{-1})		41.5		2.0		($\begin{array}{c} 0.221 \ {\rm at} \ {\rm Z} \ {\rm peak} \\ 0.501 \ {\rm at} \ 65 - 100 \ {\rm GeV} \\ 0.275 \ {\rm at} \ {>}100 \ {\rm GeV} \end{array}$			0.022		
Heavy Ions	RHIC (Brookhaven)					LHC (CERN)						
Physics start date				/ 2018 / 2018 / 2012 / 2004 014 / 2002 / 2015 / 2015		2	2010		2012	2017	$\frac{\geq 2021}{(\text{high lum.})^*}$	
Physics end date												
Particles collided	Au		,	J / Zr Zr / Ru Ru / Cu Au u / h Au d Au / p Au / p Al		Р	b Pb]	p Pb	Xe Xe	Pb Pb	

Particles collided	Au Au	Cu Cu / h Au d Au / p Au / p Al	Pb Pb	p Pb	Xe Xe	Pb Pb
Max. beam energy (TeV/n)	0.1	0.1	2.51	p:6.5 Pb:2.56	2.72	2.76
$\sqrt{s_{NN}}$ (TeV)	0.2	0.2	5.02	8.16	5.44	5.5
Max. delivered int. nucleon- pair lumin. per exp. (pb^{-1})	2639 (at 100 GeV/n)	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	77.8	194	0.05	pprox 121/y

Timeline of discoveries:

1897 : Electron – Cathode ray 1932 : Positron – Cloud chamber 1937 : Muon – Cloud chamber 1956 : Electron neutrino – Scintillator 1962 : Muon neutrino 1968 : u, d, s quarks – SLAC 1974 : c quark - SLAC 1975 : Tau – SLAC, LBNL 1977 : b quark – Fermilab 1979 : gluons - DESY 1983 : W and Z – UA1, UA2 (CERN) 1995 : t quark - Fermilab 2000 : Tau neutrino – DONUT collaboration

2012 : Higgs boson – LHC (CERN)



Overall view of the LHC experiments.

The LHC

100 m underground Circumference = 26.659 km





LHC complex



LHC complex

Beam consists of proton bunches

Each bunch has 10^{11} protons

There are ~2000 bunches in the beam, separated by 7.5m (25ns)

These bunches cross each other at specific points at 40 MHz (these specific points are the detectors, where collisions happen each time a bunch crosses)



Thus, a collision = a bunch crossing



Acceleration



Primarily through RF cavities







Magnets

Dipoles used for bending



Sonnemann, Florian. (2022). Resistive Transition and Protection of LHC Superconducting Cables and Magnets.

Quadrupoles and higher poles for focusing





Relative beam sizes around IP1 (Atlas) in collision

$Luminosity \text{ instantaneous (L_{inst}) and integrated (\mathcal{L})}$

$$L_{\rm inst} = \frac{N_1 N_2}{4\pi \sigma_x \sigma_y} \times f_0 n_b \times \text{ Correction factors}$$

 N_i =number of particles in bunch, f_0 =beam revolution frequency, n_b =number of bunches, $\sigma_{x,y}$ =transverse beam size; depends on beam emittance, and beam squeezing parameters.

LHC peak $L_{inst} \sim 2x10^{34}$ cm⁻²s⁻¹



De Maria, Riccardo & Brüning, Oliver & Leonid, Rivkin. (2008). LHC Interaction region upgrade.

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$$\mathcal{L} = \int L_{\text{inst}} dt$$

Integrated luminosity



De Maria, Riccardo & Brüning, Oliver & Leonid, Rivkin. (2008). LHC Interaction region upgrade.

Effectively, the integrated luminosity is a measure of the total number of collisions.... more on that in just a bit....



Youtube link

31

Quick aside: cross section

From classical scattering, the "rate" at which an interaction will happen is proportional to the "area" of overlap between incident particle and target.

For us, the cross section (denoted by σ) quantifies the "rate" or "probability" of a certain interaction taking place.



This rate depends on the incoming particle 4-vectors, the type of interaction [which particles are interacting]

Cross section is measured in dimensions of area, in units of barns: 1 barn = 10^{-28} m² Typical cross sections are in picobarns or femtobarns. 1 pb = 10^3 fb

Integrated Luminosity

 \mathcal{L} has dimensions of inverse area.

1 barn = 10⁻²⁸ m²

Measured in inverse barns, inverse millibarns, inverse picobarns, inverse femtobarns

 $1 \text{ fb}^{-1} = 10^3 \text{ pb}^{-1}$ $1 \text{ pb}^{-1} = 10^6 \text{ mb}^{-1}$

CMS Integrated Luminosity, pp, $\sqrt{s} =$ 7, 8, 13 TeV



Event Counts

 $N = \mathcal{L} \sigma$

The number of produced events for a process is the integrated luminosity times the cross section of that process ("amount of data" times the "rate")



Next?

So we can now collide protons and produce a lot of data.

How do we observe and study the collisions?

Particle detection

Particles can only be detected, if they interact with something.

Conversely, the primary interactions of particles can be used to detect them. (eg. photons through EM interactions, hadrons through strong and EM interactions)

Before we get into material interactions, we have to cover two quick things

- right picture of proton collisions
- hadronization

Electron-positron collisions

4-vector (E,p) of electron/positron known well





Messy... very messy.

Proton-proton collisions



Messy... very messy.

When a pair of protons interact, it could easily be gluon from one and strange quark from another. This information is quantified in parton distribution functions (PDFs)



Used the CT10 PDF, and APFEL for visualization https://apfel.mi.infn.it/home



40

Typically, the interactions or processes that interest us, start from quarks or gluons.

These incoming quarks/gluons will carry a fraction of the total energy/momentum of the proton...

Effectively our collisions/processes occur at a range of energies

 $\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\$



A colored particle (quark and gluon) that is produced, cannot exist/escape by itself. Part of the production energy/momentum is used to produce additional quark/antiquark pairs – which then form hadrons. It is the hadrons that exist/escape from the collision.

Proton-proton collision

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Proton-proton collision A manifested hadrons are what actually escape, and will be detected. Both baryons/mesons produced, both stable/unstable produced. Unstable hadrons undergo decays, of course.

(Different ways to hadronize 'same' initial state)

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More on jet clustering algorithms later...