

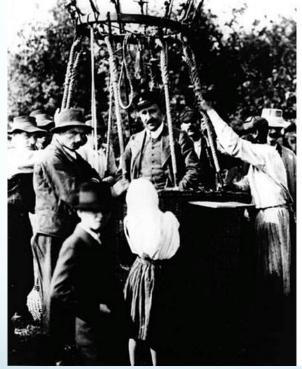
Introduction to Experiments

How to detect the Higgs

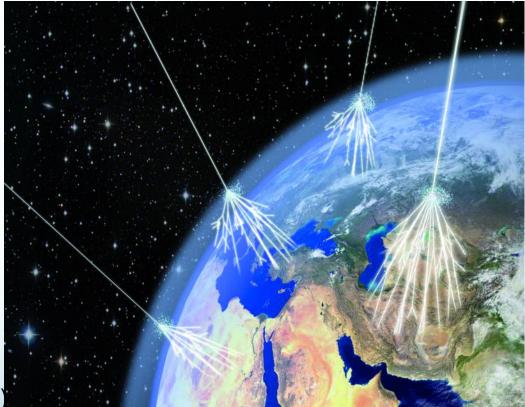
H. Danielsson, CERN

Teachers program, 2015

Cosmic rays are used to study the performance of the detector. Free of charge! ③



Hess received the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1936 for his discovery (1912)



2013 NOBEL PRIZE IN PHYSICS François Englert Peter W. Higgs



8 October 2013

@ @ The Nobel Foundation, Photo: Lovisa Engblor

The Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences has decided to award the Nobel Prize in Physics for 2013 to

François Englert and Peter Higgs

"for the theoretical discovery of a mechanism that contributes to our understanding of the origin of mass of subatomic particles, and which recently was confirmed through the discovery of the predicted fundamental particle, by the ATLAS and CMS experiments at CERN's Large Hadron Collider"



Outline

- Introduction
- CERN and the Large Hadron Collider (LHC)
 - The accelerator
 - The detectors
- The Higgs discovery
 - Spin and parity
 - Recent results on Higgs decaying to fermions

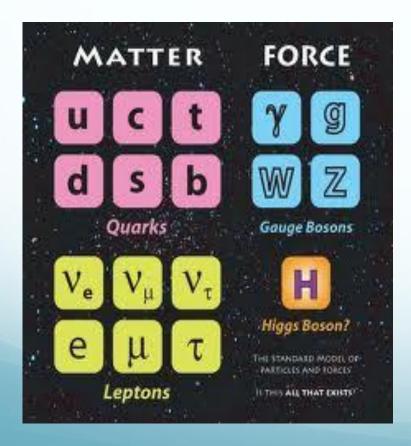


The Standard Model

- Is a very successful theory and describes the world around us.
- The Standard Model is a discovery in itself
- However, it explains only a fraction of the universe (~5%)
 - 95% is dark energy and dark matter. What is made of? The search is ongoing...
 - What about super symmetry (SUSY)

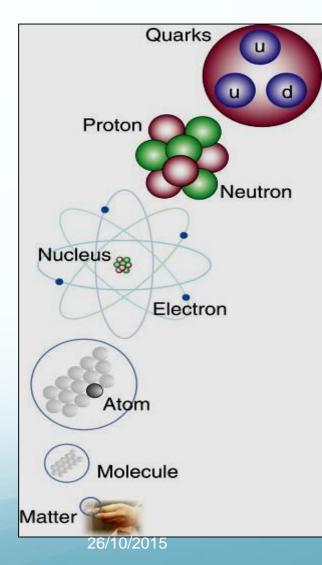
The Standard Model (1970-90s)

- Matter particles: fermions (1/2 integer spin)
- 'Force' particles: bosons (integer spin)
- Higgs field causes electro weak symmetry breaking and gives particles their masses

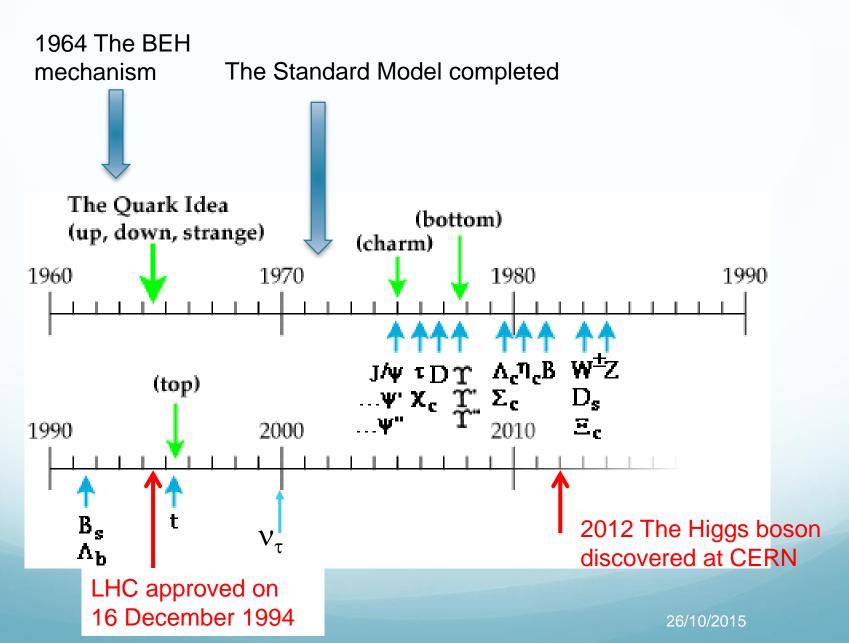


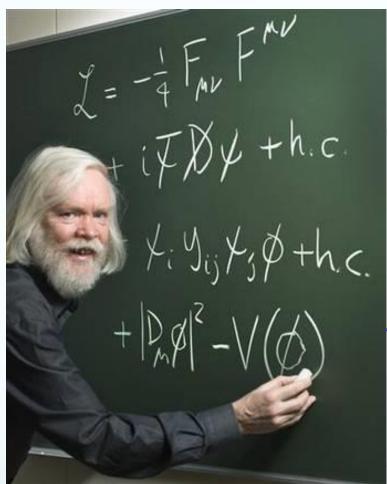
→ Nucleon level (partons) : binding energy ~98% of the mass

→ Most of the (luminous) mass in the universe comes from <u>QCD</u> <u>confinement</u> <u>energy</u>



A bit of history





In 1976:

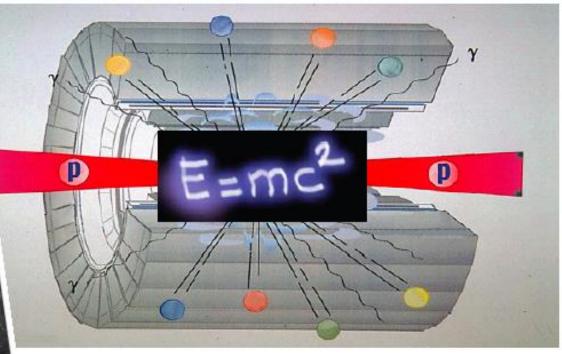
A PHENOMENOLOGICAL PROFILE OF THE HIGGS BOSON

John Ellis, Mary K. Gaillard ^{*)} and D.V. Nanopoulos ⁺⁾ CERN -- Geneva

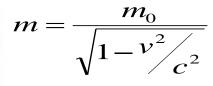
The Roadmap:

We should perhaps finish with an apology and a caution. We apologize to experimentalists for having no idea what is the mass of the <u>Higgs boson</u>, unlike the case with charm $^{3),4)}$ and for not being sure of its couplings to other particles, except that they are probably all very small. For these reasons we do not want to encourage big experimental searches for the Higgs boson, but we do feel that people performing experiments vulnerable to the Higgs boson should know how it may turn up.

How ?

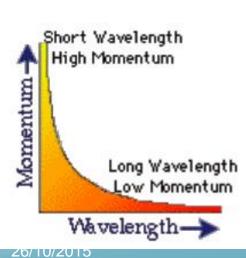


E=3.5TeV → V=99.999996% of c





Energy = Matter $E^2 = (m_0c^2)^2 + (pc)^2$



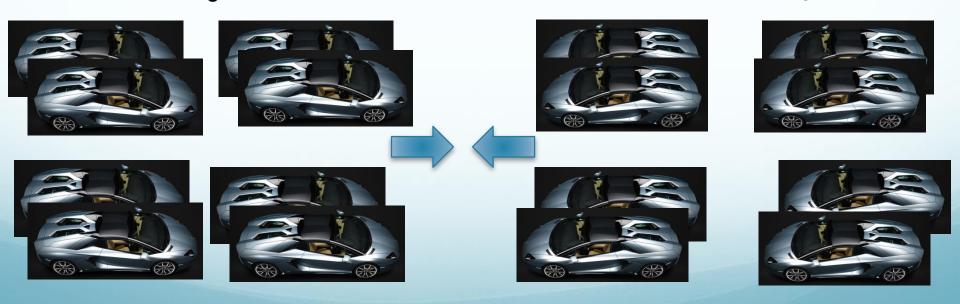
LHC (2012) 2x4 TeV How much energy?

- 1.9*10¹⁴ protons per beam at 4 TeV
- How much energy in the two beams

8 Lamborgini

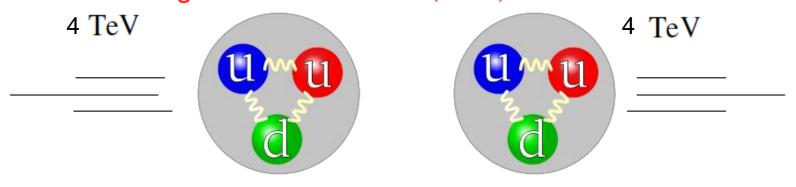
speed=350 km/h

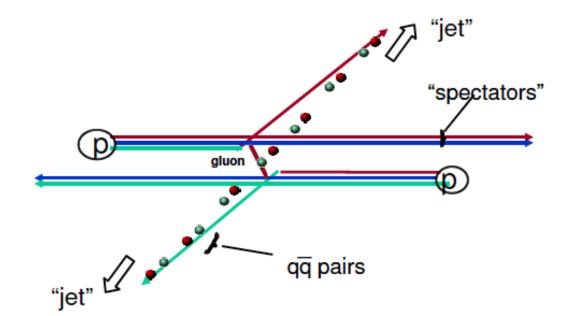
8 Lamborgini



Experimental High Energy Physics – detecting particles

Two Protons collide at high energy Large Hadron Collider (LHC) at CERN





Center-of-Mass Energy (Nominal) 14 TeV ? Restart in 2015 Center-of-Mass Energy (close to nominal) 13TeV LHCb

and the second sec

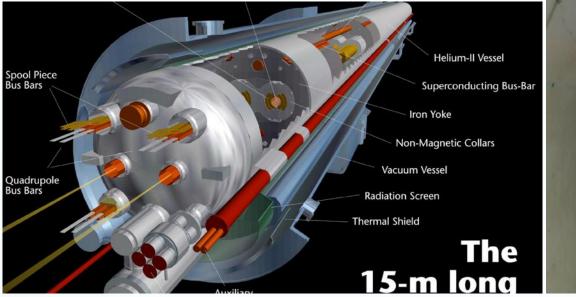
CMS

Center-of-Mass Energy (2012) 8 TeV **ATLAS**

ALICE

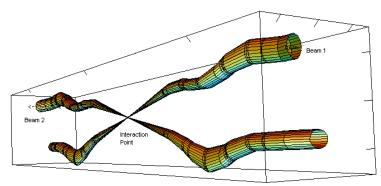
Center-of-Mass Energy (2010-2011) **7 TeV**

Large Hadron Collider (LHC)





- The Accelerator
 - 100 150 m below surface at 1.9 Kelvin in a tunnel 27 km long.
 - The protons circulate at a speed of ~ 11000 turns/sec
 - There are 2808 bunches
 - Collisions at 40 MHz (every 25 ns)
 - 600 000 000 collisions per second !

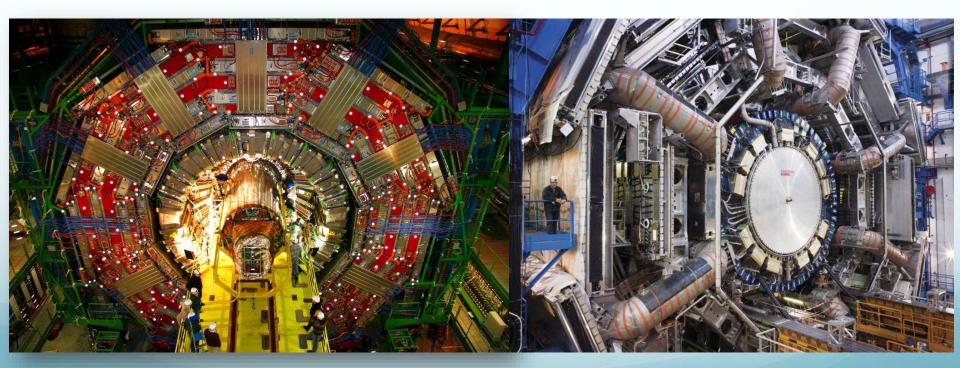


Relative beam sizes around IP1 (Atlas) in collision

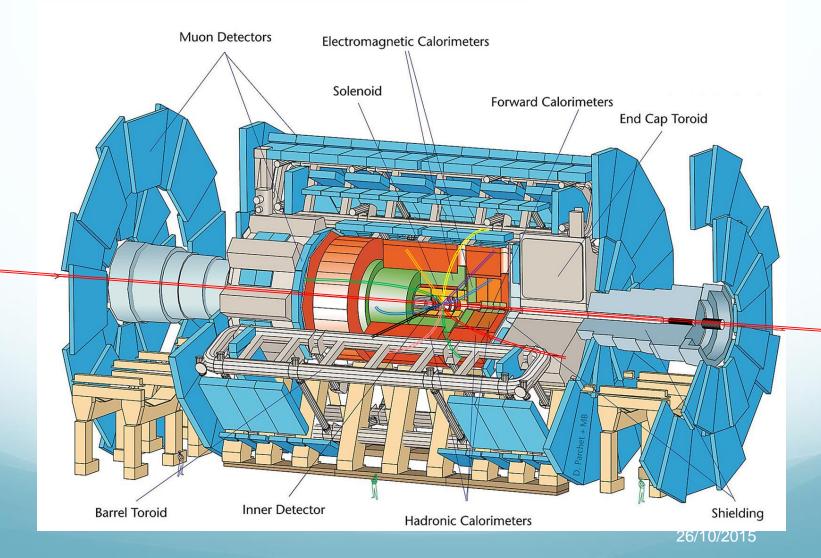


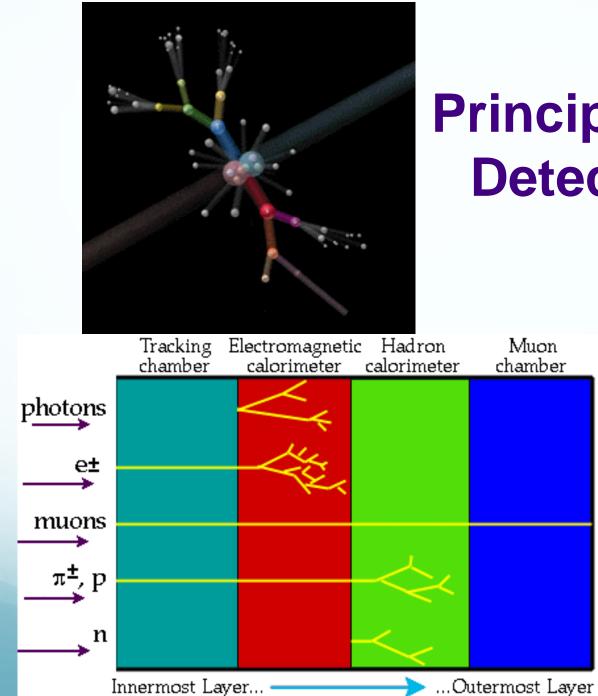
The experiments

CMS: heavier thanATLAS: as big as athe Eiffel Tower5 storey building



Största och mest sofistikerade detektorer





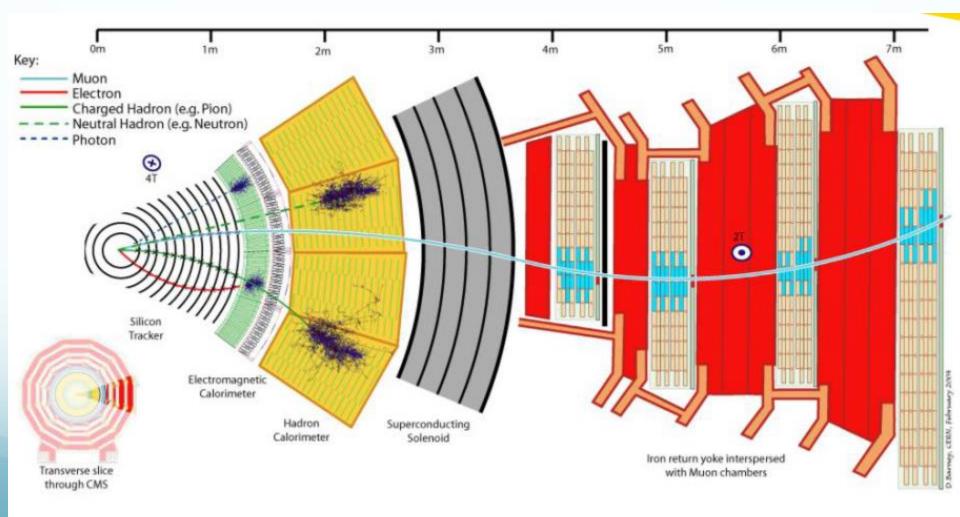
Principles of Detection



The collision energy condenses into particles (e, p, π , μ , γ K...)

Detectors surrounding the collision point (or after in case of fixed target) are sensitive to the passage of energetic particles.

Partikeldetektorer



Interaction of Particles with Matter

In order to detect a particle it must interact with matter! The most important interaction processes are electromagnetic:

Charged Particles:

- Energy loss due to ionization (e.g. charged track in straw detector) heavy particles (*not* electrons/positrons!)
- Energy loss due to photon emission (electrons, positrons) bremsstrahlung *Photons:*

Interaction of photons with matter (e.g. EM calorimetry)

Photoelectric effect

Compton effect

Pair production

Other important electromagnetic processes:

Multiple Scattering (Coulomb scattering) scintillation light (e.g. TOF systems) Cherenkov radiation Transition Radiation (e.g. particle id normally electrons)

Can calculate the above effects with a combo of classical E&M and QED. In most cases calculate approximate results, exact calculations very difficult.

Bethe-Bloch Formula for Energy Loss

Average energy loss for <u>heavy</u> charged particles Energy loss due to ionization and excitation Valid for energies <100' s GeV and $\beta >> z\alpha$ ($\approx z/137$)

heavy= $m_{\text{incident}} \gg m_e$ proton, k, π , μ

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = 2\pi N_a r_e^2 m_e c^2 \rho \frac{Z}{A} \frac{z^2}{\beta^2} \left[\ln(\frac{2m_e \gamma^2 v^2 W_{\text{max}}}{I^2}) - 2\beta^2 \right]$$

Fundamental constants r_e =classical radius of electron m_e =mass of electron N_a =Avogadro' s number c=speed of light

Incident particle z=charge of incident particle $\beta=v/c$ of incident particle $\gamma=(1-\beta^2)^{-1/2}$ $W_{max}=max.$ energy transfer in one collision $W_{max} = \frac{2m_e(c\beta\gamma)^2}{1+m_e/M\sqrt{1+(\beta\gamma)^2+(m_e/M)^2}} \approx 2m_e(c\beta\gamma)^2$

=0.1535MeV-cm²/g

Absorber medium I=mean ionization potential Z= atomic number of absorber A=atomic weight of absorber ρ=density of absorber δ=density correction C=shell correction

Note: the classical dE/dx formula contains many of the same features as the QM version: $(z/\beta)^2$, & ln[]

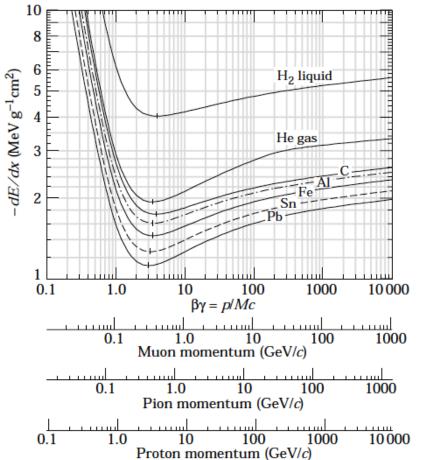
$$-dE/dx = \frac{4\pi z^{2} r_{e}^{2} m_{e} c^{2} N_{e}}{\beta^{2}} \ln \frac{b_{\max}}{b_{\min}}$$

Bethe-Bloch Energy Loss

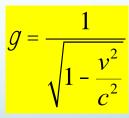
 $-\frac{dE}{dx} = 2\rho N_a r_e^2 m_e c^2 \Gamma \frac{Z}{A} \frac{z^2 \hat{\theta}}{b^2 \hat{\theta}} \ln(\frac{2m_e g^2 v^2 W_{\text{max}}}{I^2}) - 2b^2 \hat{\psi}$



http://pdg.lbl.gov/index.html

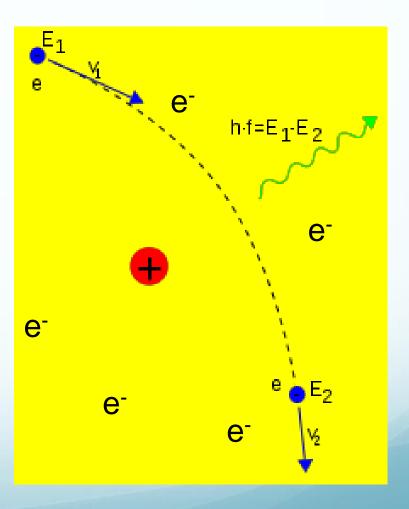


Calculated

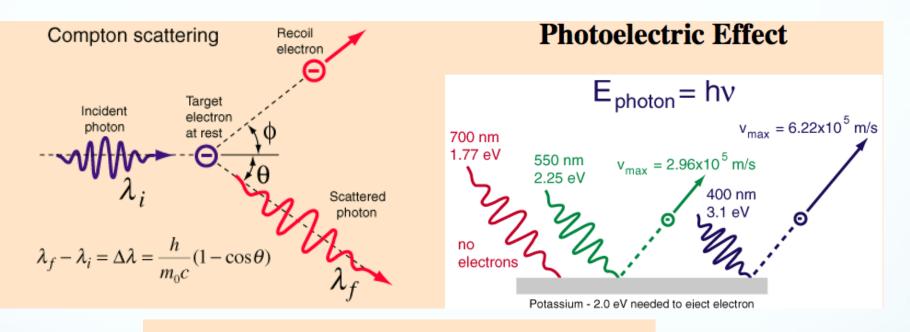


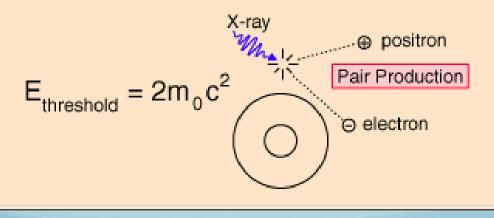
Bremsstrahlung (braking radiation)

- A fast moving particle is decelerated in the electrical field of the nuclei.
- Above a few tens MeV, bremsstrahlung is the most dominated process for electrons and positrons
- It becomes important to muons (and pions) at a few hundred GeV
- What about the atomic electrons? Yes, the electron cloud gives and additional contribution to the bremsstrahlung
- Let's see how this is used in the detector layout later

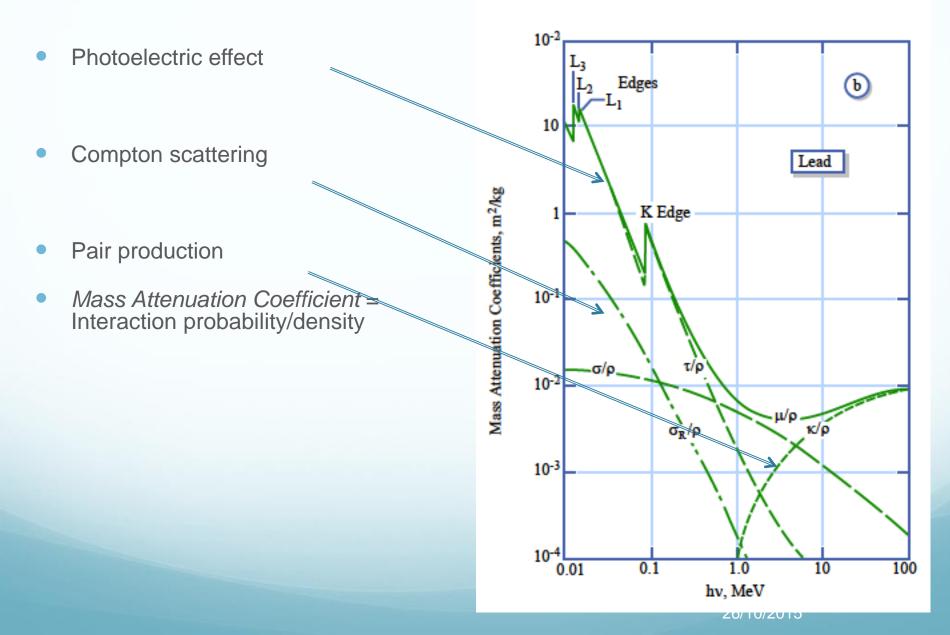


Photons - 3 interactions





Photons interacting with matter



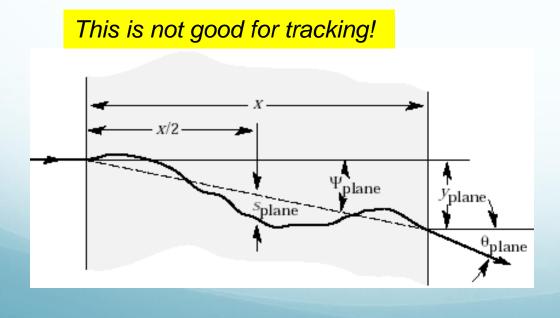
Multiple Scattering

A charged particle traversing a medium is deflected by many small angle scatterings. These scattering are due to the **coulomb field of atoms** and are **assumed to be elastic**. In each scattering the energy of **the particle is constant but the particle direction changes**.

In the simplest model of multiple scattering we ignore large angle scatters. In this approximation, the distribution of scattering angle θ_{plane} after traveling a distance x through a material with radiation length =L_r is approximately gaussian:

$$\frac{dP(\theta_{plane})}{d\theta_{plane}} = \frac{1}{\theta_0 \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{\theta_{plane}^2}{2\theta_0^2}\right] \quad \text{with} \quad \theta_0 = \frac{13.6 \text{MeV}}{\beta pc} z \sqrt{x/L_r} (1 + 0.038 \ln\{x/L_r\})$$

In the above equation $\beta = v/c$, and p=momentum of incident particle





Cherenkov light

- Named after the Russian scientist P. Cherenkov who was the first to study the effect in depth (he won the Nobel Prize for it in 1958)
- From Relativity, nothing can go faster than the speed of light *c* (in vacuum)
- However, due to the refractive index *n* of a material, a particle *can* go faster than the *local* speed of light in the medium $c_p = c/n$
- Fast electrons in a reactor emitting blue light (Cherenkov radiation)
- This is analogous to the bow wave of a boat travelling over water or the sonic boom of an aeroplane travelling faster than the speed of sound

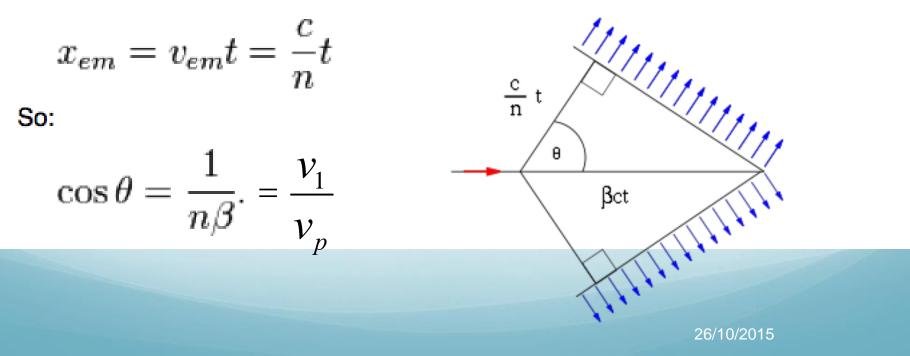


Cherenkov radiation

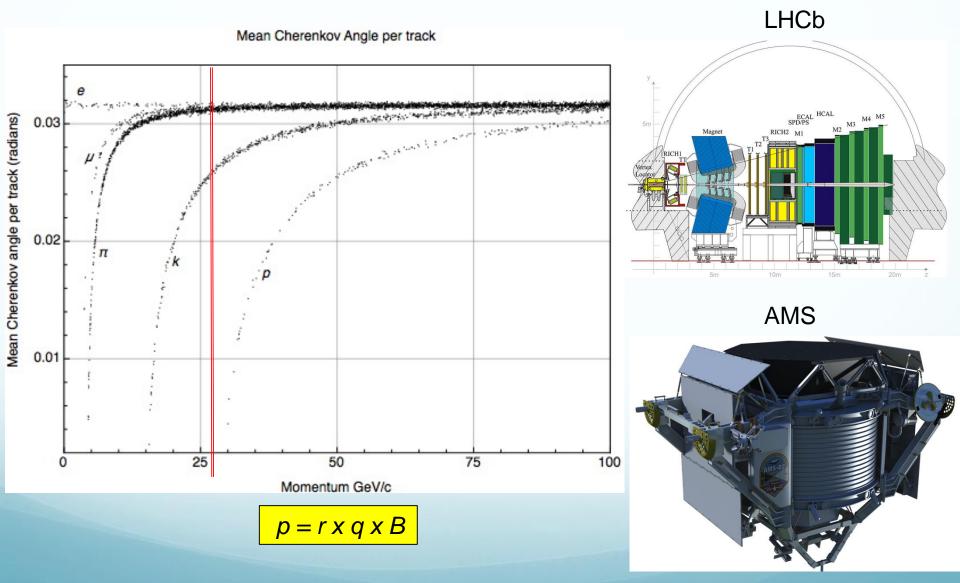
The left corner of the triangle represents the location of the superluminal particle at some initial moment (t=0). The right corner of the triangle is the location of the particle at some later time t. In the given time t, the particle travels the distance

$$x_p = v_p t = \beta \, ct$$

whereas the emitted electromagnetic waves are constricted to travel the distance

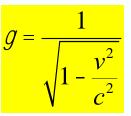


Cherenkov Detector

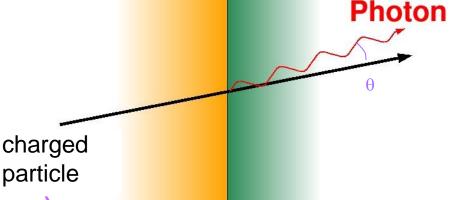


Transition Radiation (Particle ID)

- Transition Radiation: photon emitted by a charged particle when traversing the boundary between materials with different dielectrical constants ($\epsilon_1 \epsilon_2$) $\epsilon_1, \omega_1 < \epsilon_2, \omega_2$
- γ > **1000**



- Intensity: I ~ γ = E/m, θ ~ 1/ γ
 - → Identification of transition radiation charge photons used for particle identification (mostly electrons) of particles with momenta between 1 and few 100 GeV



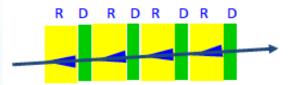
Transition radiation

(particle identification)

→ Number of emitted photons per boundary $N_{ph} \approx \frac{W}{\hbar \omega_p} \propto \alpha$ is very small. → Need many transitions to produce a sizable signal.

TR Radiators:

- stacks of thin foils made out of CH_2 (polyethylene), $C_5H_4O_2$ (Mylar)
- hydrocarbon foam and fiber materials. Low Z material preferred to keep reabsorption small (∝Z⁵)

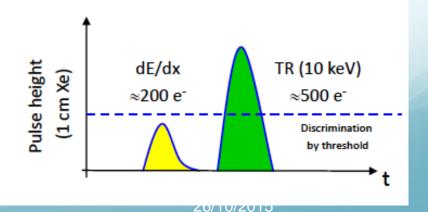


alternating arrangement of radiators stacks and detectors → minimizes re-absorption

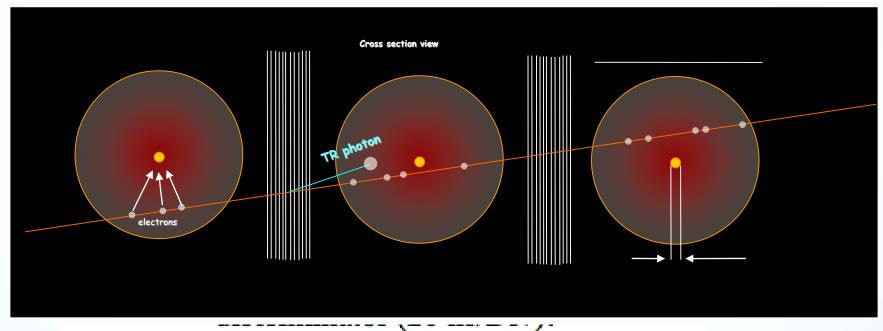
TR X-ray detectors:

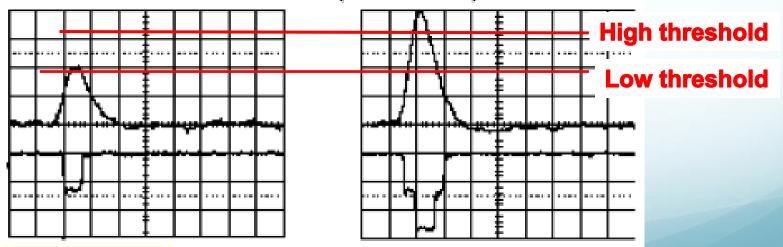
- Detector should be sensitive for $3 \le E_{\gamma} \le 30$ keV.
- Mainly used: Gas detectors: MWPC, drift chamber, straw tubes...
- Detector gas: $\sigma_{\rm photo\; effect} \propto Z^5$

 \rightarrow gas with high Z required, e.g. Xenon (Z=54)

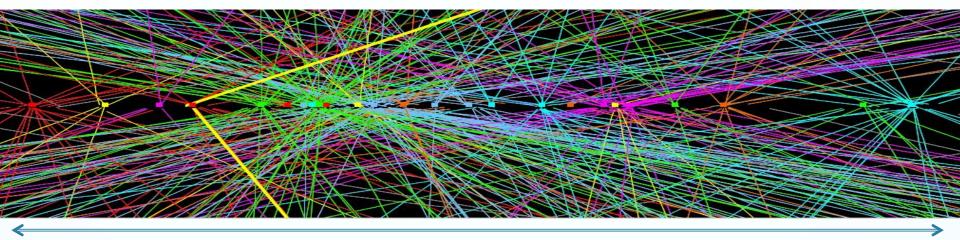


TRT (ATLAS): 3 straws and radiators





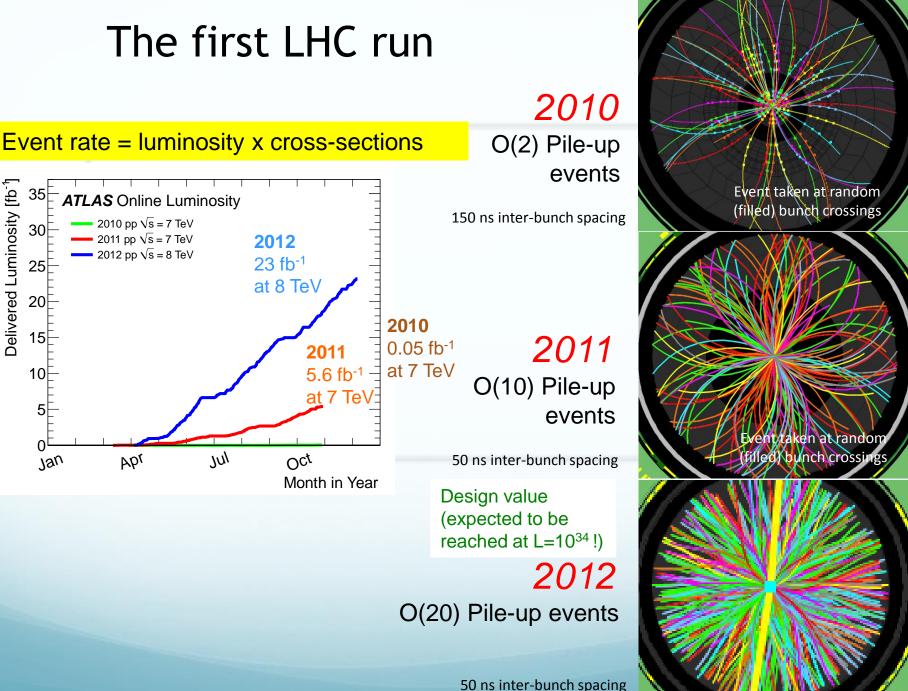
Detector Challenges (Highlights)



10 cm

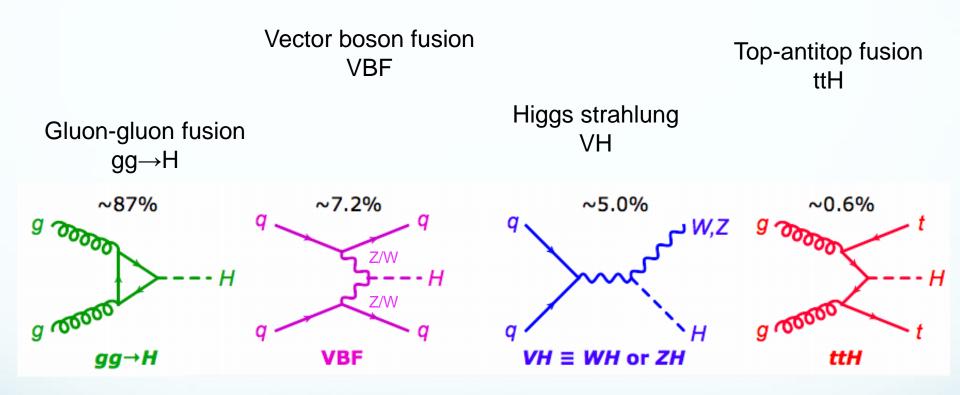
- Trigger Challenge : How to select 400 out of 20x10⁶ events per second while keeping the interesting (including unknown) physics

- Computing Challenge : How to reconstruct, store and distribute 400 increasingly complex events per second (over 100 Petabite per experiment)



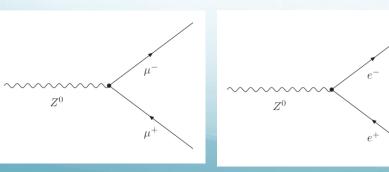
The detection of the Higgs boson

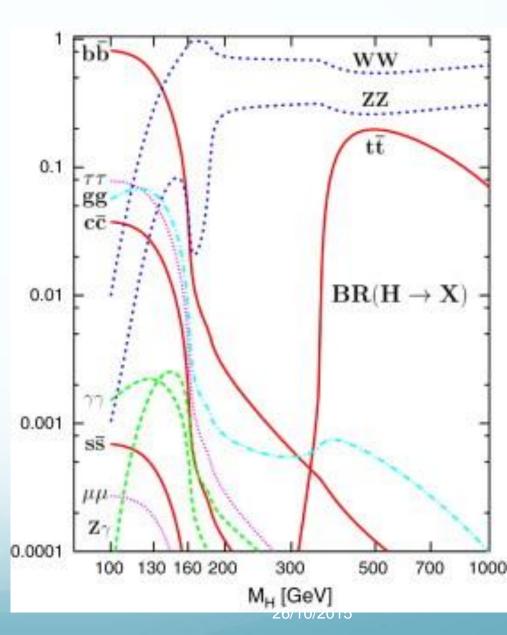
Higgs production



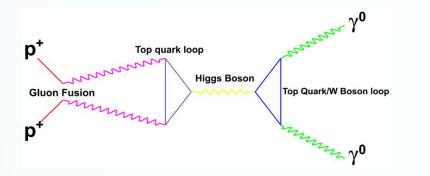
Detect Higgs by decay products

- <u>Variety of decay channels</u>
- Massive particles more likely
- Difficult to detect from background
- Life time is 1.56×10^{-22} s (!) (predicted in the Standard Model)
- γγ is clean, but rare

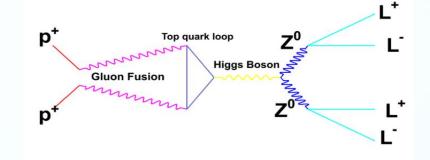




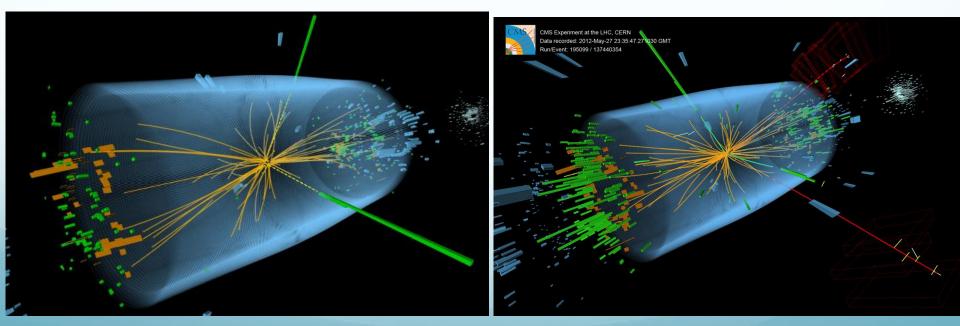
April-July 2012: 8 TeV, 5.8 fb⁻¹



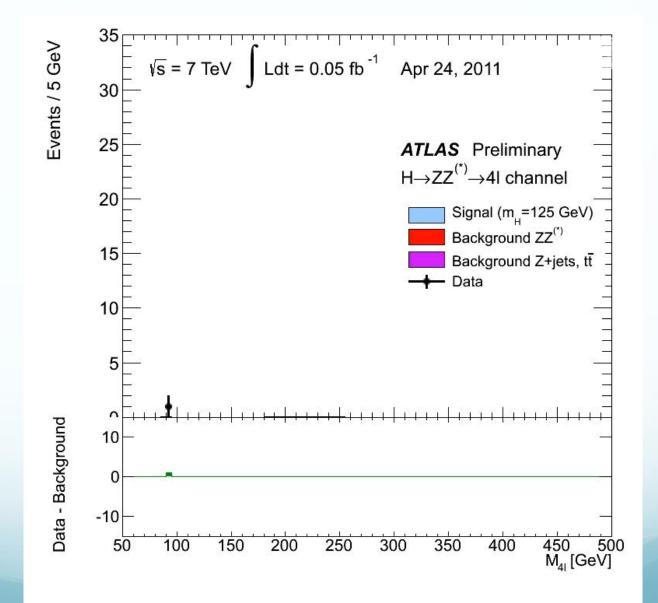
Measure energy of photons emitted



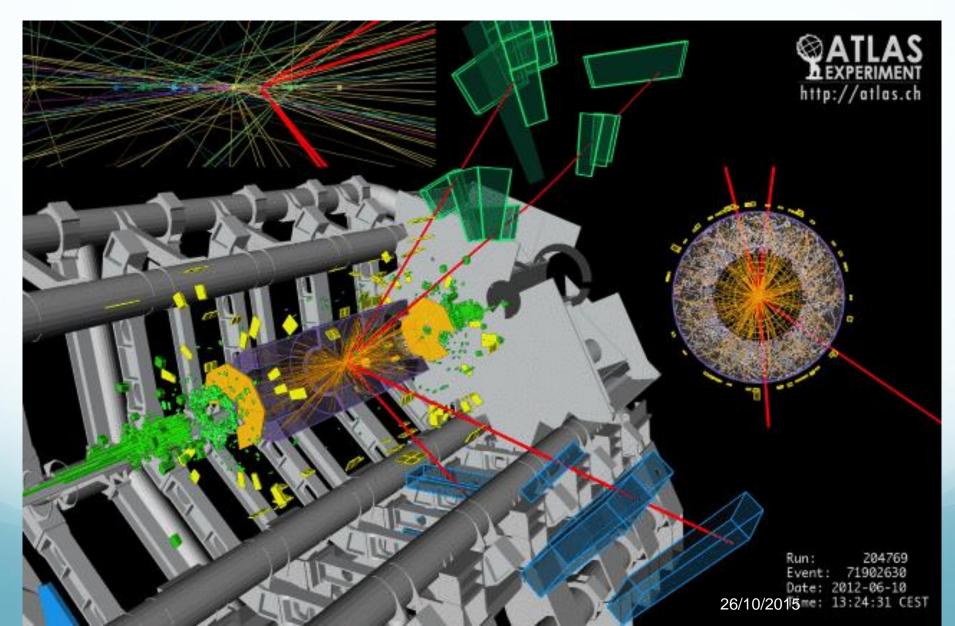
Measure decay products of <u>Z bosons</u>

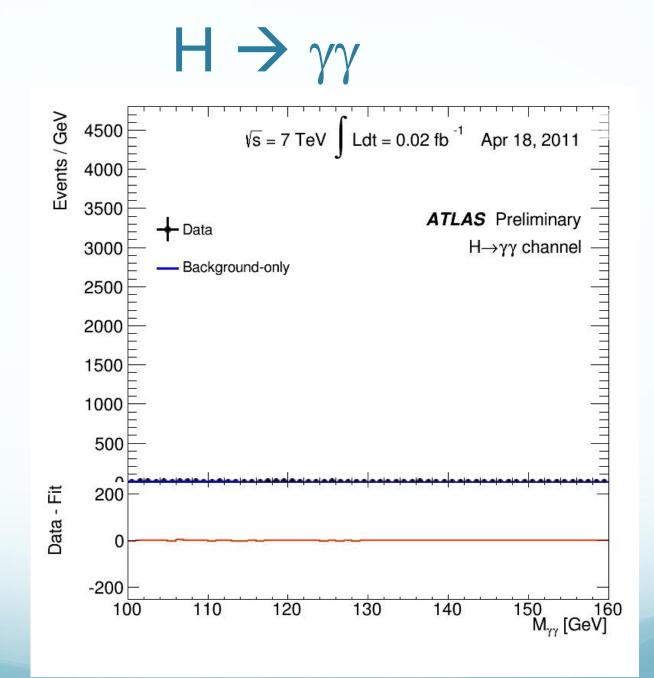


$H \rightarrow 4I$



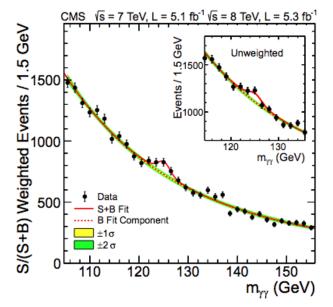
Higgs events $H \rightarrow 4I$ (muons)





From CMS Higgs $\rightarrow \gamma \gamma$





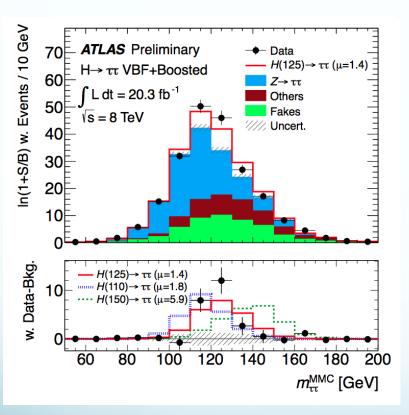
Higgs to Fermions

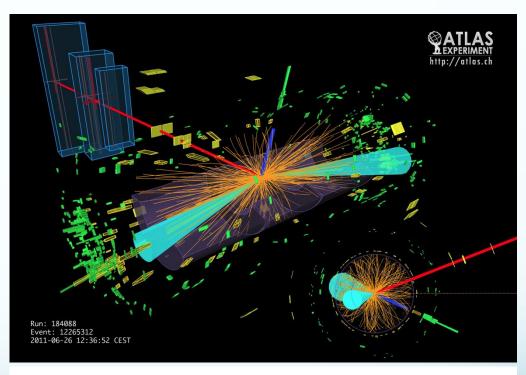
- Higgs boson decay to fermions (leptons or quarks).
- It is important to measure this decay in order to show *direct* coupling to the Higgs boson (i.e., leptons and quarks acquire their masses from the Higgs field)
- Difficult due to high background

BR related to mass. High mass fermions preferred (τ,b)

http://www.nature.com/nphys/journal/v10/n8/full/nphys3005.
html

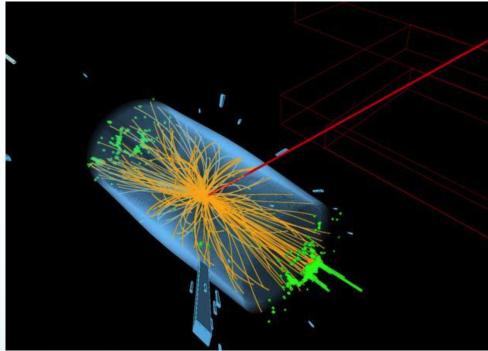
Higgs decays to fermions (ττ) in ATLAS (26 Nov 2013)



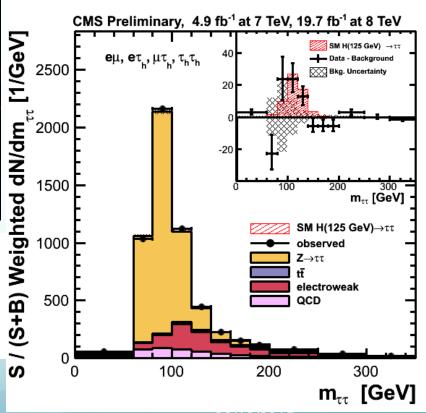


The taus decay into an electron (blue line) and a muon (red line)

Higgs decays to fermions (ττ) in CMS (3 Dec. 2013)



One tau decays to neutrinos and a muon (red lines on the right), while the other decays into a charged hadron (blue towers) and a neutrino



Literature

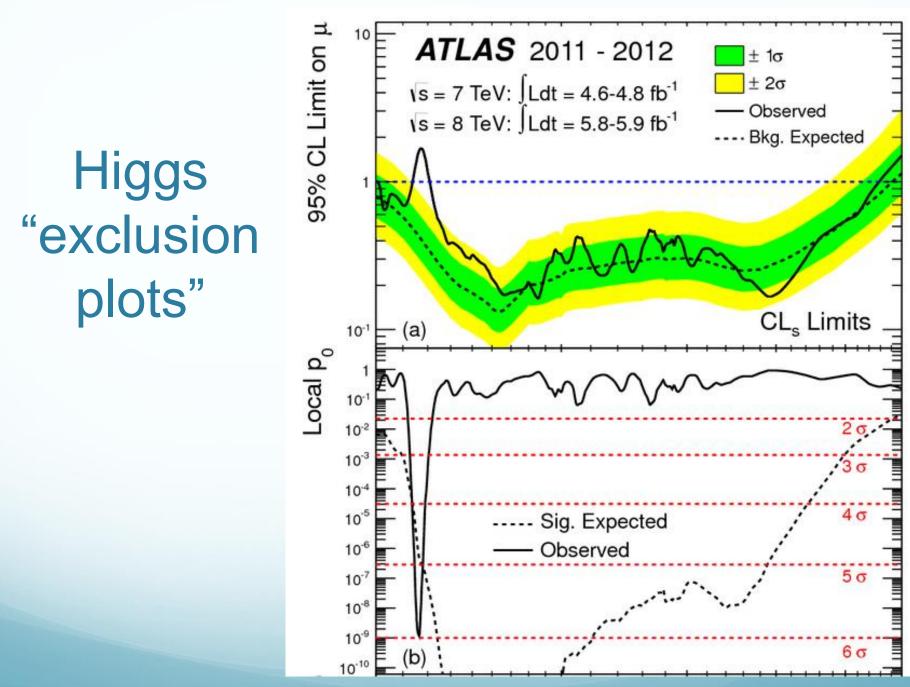
• CERN Academic Training

http://indico.cern.ch/conferenceDisplay.py?confld=266737

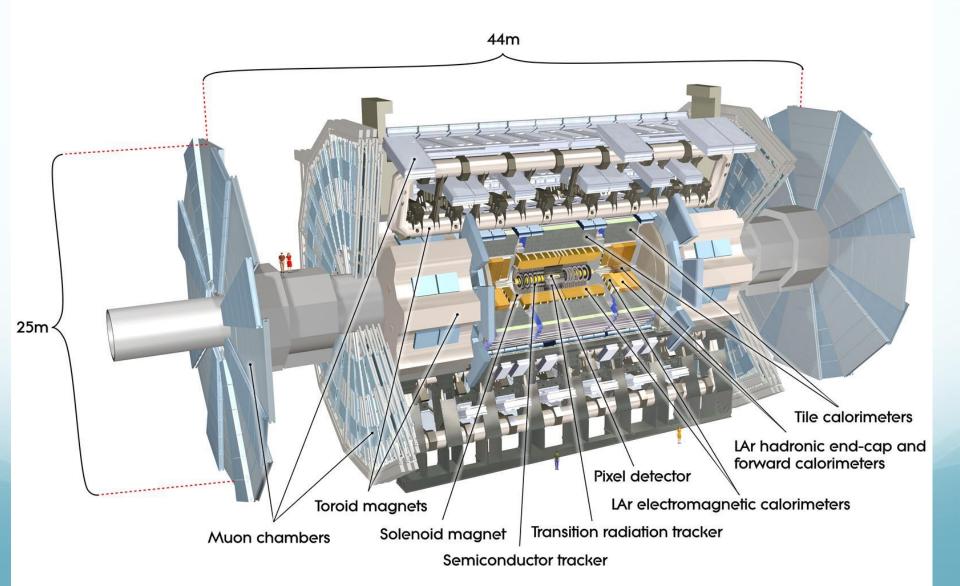
• CERN ATLAS

http://www.atlas.ch/HiggsResources/



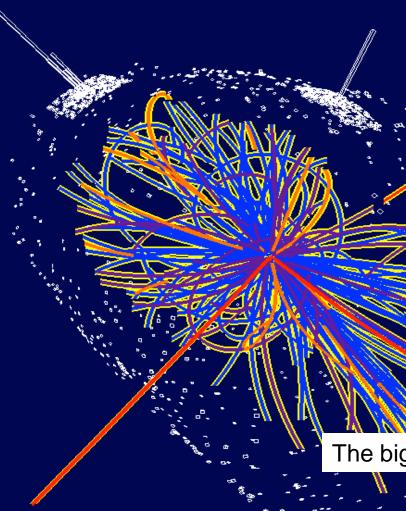


The ATLAS experiment



LHC

20 Years, projecting, constructing and Simulating...



1. Accelerators:

Powerful machines capable of accelerating particles to very high energies before being collided with other particles

2. Detectors:

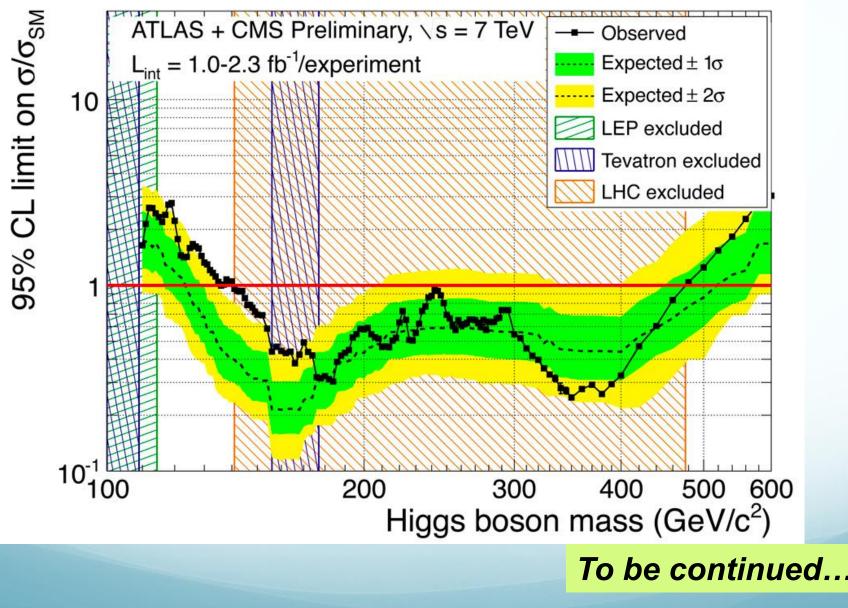
Gigantic instruments that record particle collisions

3. Computers:

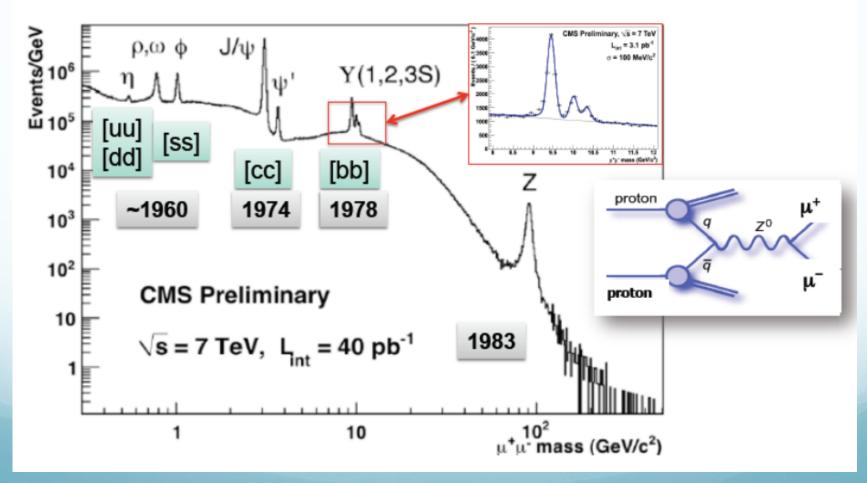
To collect, store, distribute and analyze enormous quantities of data generated by detectors

The biggest scientific instrument ever built

The Higgs search as of 18/11/2011 ③



After 10 min of LHC running: full history of SM



What LEP (CERN) and Tevatron (Fermilab)

Until year 2000

Until year 2011

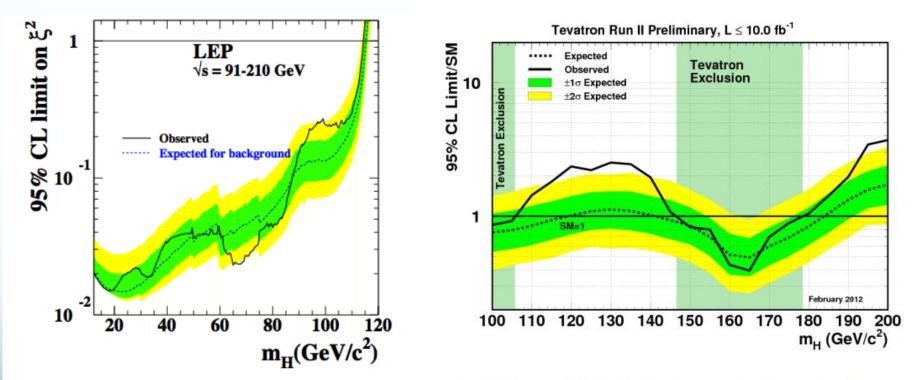
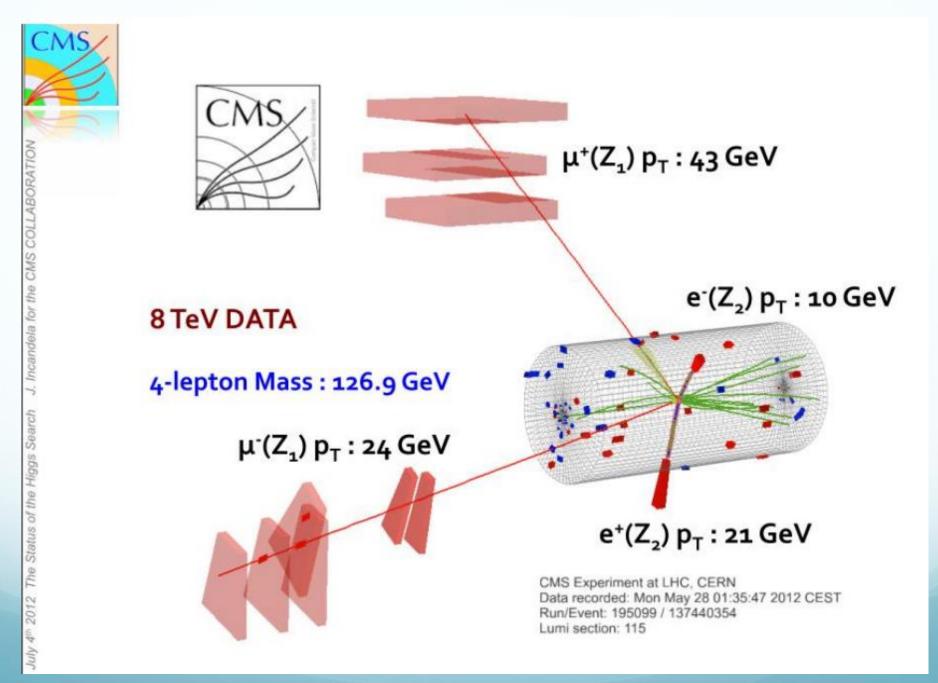


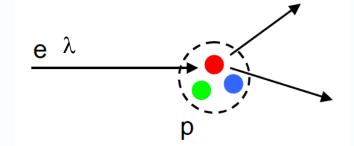
Figure 2.11: Combined Run II Higgs limits from the Tevatron experiments.

Figure 2.10: Higgs exclusion range from LEP experiments.



On example: the discovery of the quarks at SLAC in 1968

$$/ = \frac{h}{p}, P = 20 GeV \, \triangleright \, / \, \gg 10^{-17} m$$



- The quark model was independently proposed by physicists <u>Murray Gell-Mann</u> and <u>George Zweig</u> in 1964.
- Gell-Mann found the quarks in:

"Three quarks for Muster Mark! Sure he has not got much of a bark And sure any he has it's all beside the mark."

-James Joyce, Finnegans Wake