

The QCD Critical Point and Heavy-Ion Collisions

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- 1 Introduction.
 - Critical point. History.
 - QCD Critical point
 - Heavy-Ion Collisions vs Cosmology

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2 Equilibrium physics of the QCD critical point

- Critical fluctuations
- Mapping to QCD and observables
- Intriguing data from RHIC BES I

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4 Summary

History

Cagniard de la Tour (1822): discovered continuous transition from liquid to vapour by heating alcohol, water, etc. in a gun barrel, glass tubes.



Faraday (1844) – liquefying gases:

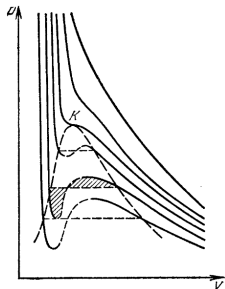
“Cagniard de la Tour made an experiment some years ago which gave me occasion to want a new word.”

Mendeleev (1860) – measured vanishing of liquid-vapour surface tension: “Absolute boiling temperature”.

Andrews (1869) – systematic studies of many substances established continuity of vapour-liquid phases. Coined the name “critical point”.

Theory

van der Waals (1879) –
in “On the continuity of the gas and liquid state”
(PhD thesis) wrote e.o.s. with a critical point.



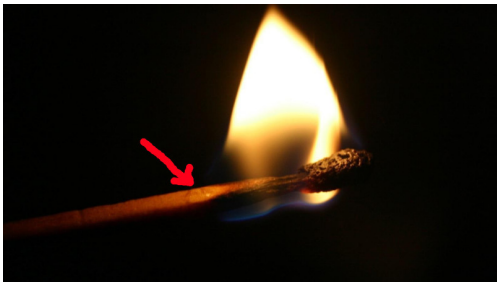
Smoluchowski, Einstein (1908,1910) – explained critical opalescence.

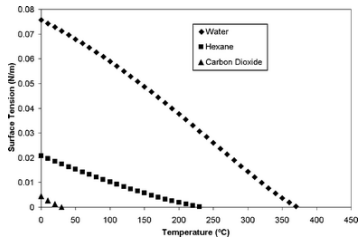
Landau – classical theory of critical phenomena

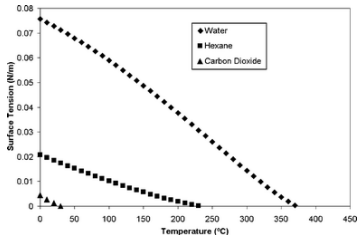
Fisher, Kadanoff, Wilson – scaling, full fluctuation theory based on RG.











Among applications: integrated circuit manufacturing – deposition, cleaning, etc. (efficient and environmentally friendly).

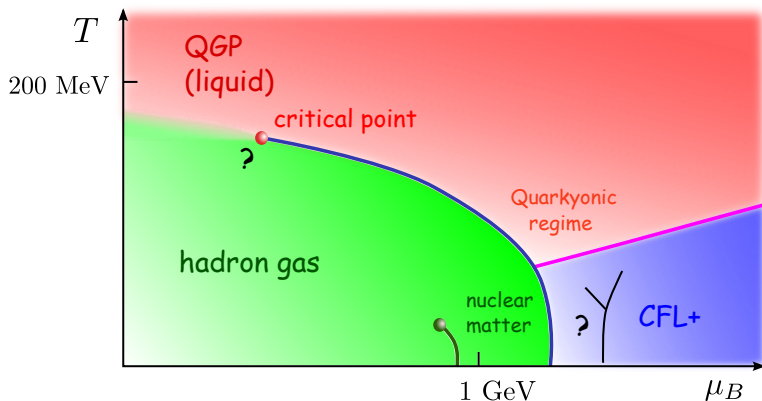
Substance ^{[13][14]} †	Critical temperature †	Critical pressure (absolute) †
Argon	-122.4 °C (150.8 K)	48.1 atm (4,870 kPa)
Ammonia ^[15]	132.4 °C (405.5 K)	111.3 atm (11,280 kPa)
Bromine	310.8 °C (584.0 K)	102 atm (10,300 kPa)
Caesium	1,664.85 °C (1,938.00 K)	94 atm (9,500 kPa)
Chlorine	143.8 °C (416.9 K)	76.0 atm (7,700 kPa)
Ethanol	241 °C (514 K)	62.18 atm (6,300 kPa)
Fluorine	-128.85 °C (144.30 K)	51.5 atm (5,220 kPa)
Helium	-267.96 °C (5.19 K)	2.24 atm (227 kPa)
Hydrogen	-239.95 °C (33.20 K)	12.8 atm (1,300 kPa)
Krypton	-63.8 °C (209.3 K)	54.3 atm (5,500 kPa)
CH ₄ (methane)	-82.3 °C (190.8 K)	45.79 atm (4,640 kPa)
Neon	-228.75 °C (44.40 K)	27.2 atm (2,760 kPa)
Nitrogen	-146.9 °C (126.2 K)	33.5 atm (3,390 kPa)
Oxygen	-118.6 °C (154.6 K)	49.8 atm (5,050 kPa)
CO ₂	31.04 °C (304.19 K)	72.8 atm (7,380 kPa)
N ₂ O	36.4 °C (309.5 K)	71.5 atm (7,240 kPa)
H ₂ SO ₄	654 °C (927 K)	45.4 atm (4,600 kPa)
Xenon	16.6 °C (289.8 K)	57.6 atm (5,840 kPa)
Lithium	2,950 °C (3,220 K)	652 atm (66,100 kPa)
Mercury	1,476.9 °C (1,750.1 K)	1,720 atm (174,000 kPa)
Sulfur	1,040.85 °C (1,314.00 K)	207 atm (21,000 kPa)
Iron	8,227 °C (8,500 K)	
Gold	6,977 °C (7,250 K)	5,000 atm (510,000 kPa)
Water ^{[2][16]}	373.946 °C (647.096 K)	217.7 atm (22.06 MPa)

Critical point is a ubiquitous phenomenon

Critical point between the QGP and hadron gas phases?

QCD is a relativistic theory of a fundamental force.

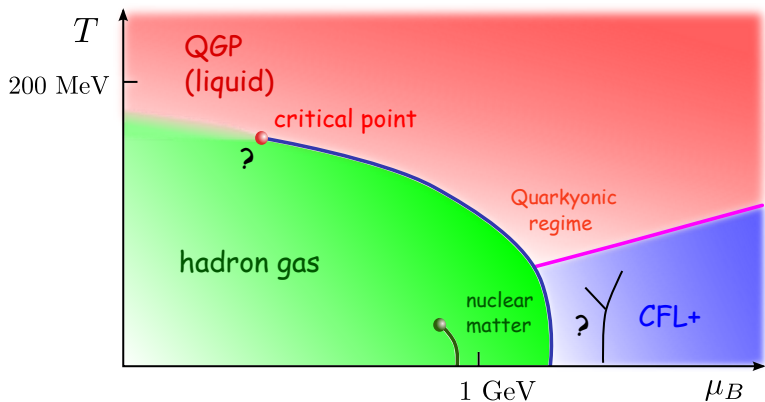
CP is a singularity of EOS, anchors the 1st order transition.



Critical point between the QGP and hadron gas phases?

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CP is a singularity of EOS, anchors the 1st order transition.



Lattice QCD at $\mu_B \lesssim 2T$ – a crossover.

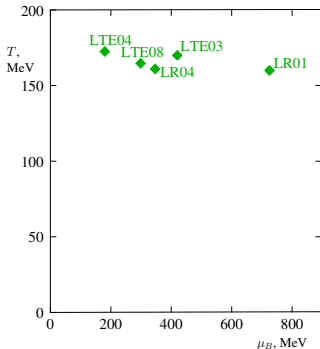
C.P. is ubiquitous in models (NJL, RM, Holog., Strong coupl. LQCD, ...)

Essentially two approaches to discovering the QCD critical point. Each with its own challenges.

● Lattice simulations.

The *sign problem* restricts reliable lattice calculations to $\mu_B = 0$.

Under different assumptions one can estimate the position of the critical point, assuming it exists, by extrapolation from $\mu = 0$.



● Heavy-ion collisions.

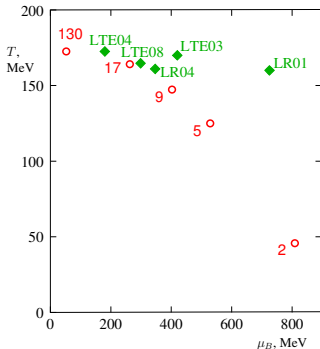
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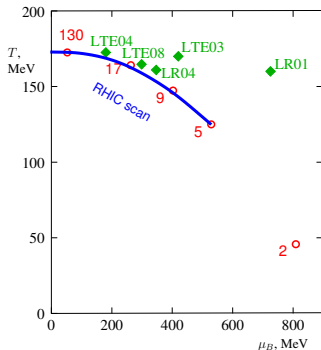


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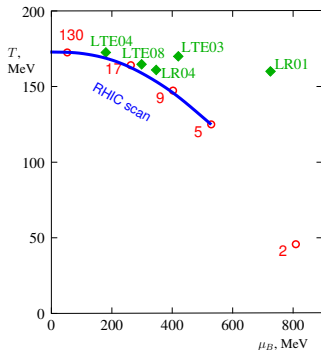
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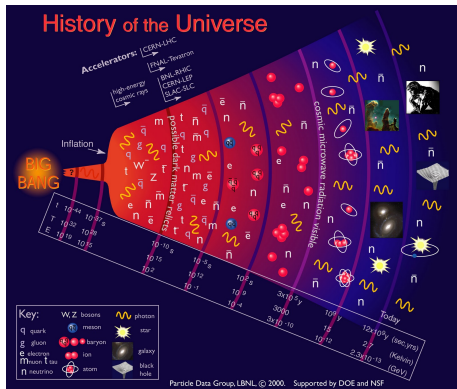
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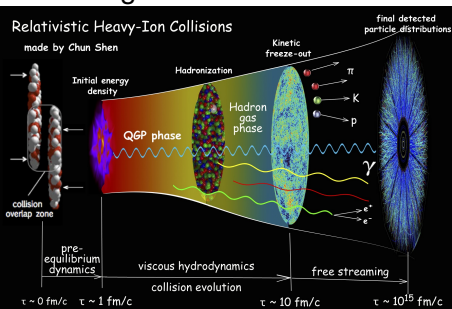


● Heavy-ion collisions. *Non-equilibrium*.

Big Bang vs little bangs



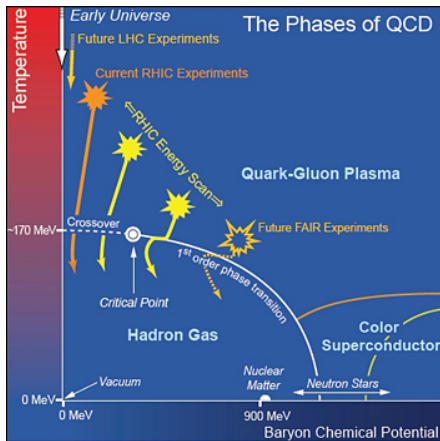
Little Bang



Expanding systems.

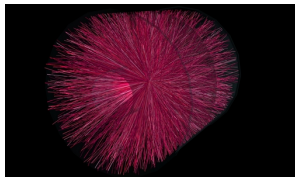
Difference: space not expanding.

Difference: One Event vs many events
(cosmic variance vs e.b.e. fluctuations)



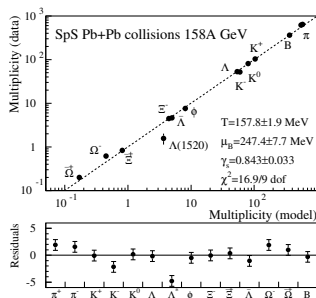
- Expansion accompanied by cooling, followed by freezeout.
Difference: tunable parameter μ_B via \sqrt{s} .
- Critical slowing down near CP determines ξ via KZ mechanism.

Heavy-Ion Collisions. Thermalization.



“Little Bang”

- The final state looks thermal.
- Similar to CMB.
- Flow – looks hydrodynamic. Initial anisotropy fluctuations are propagated to final state hydrodynamically.
- Why and when this thermalization occurs – an open question.



(Becattini et al)

Assumption for this talk

H.I.C. are sufficiently close to equilibrium that we can study thermodynamics at freezeout T and μ_B — as a first approximation.

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Why fluctuations are large at a critical point?

• The key equation:

$$P(X) \sim e^{S(X)} \quad (\text{Einstein 1910})$$

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$$\langle (\delta X)^2 \rangle_c = - (S''')^{-1} = VT\chi$$

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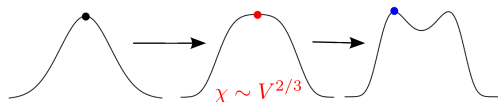


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CLT?

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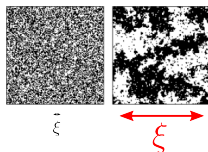
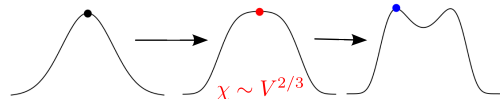


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CLT? X is not a sum of ∞ many *uncorrelated* contributions: $\xi \rightarrow \infty$

Fluctuations of order parameter and ξ

- Fluctuations at CP – conformal field theory.

Parameter-free \rightarrow universality. Only one scale $\xi = m_\sigma^{-1} < \infty$,

$$P[\sigma] \sim \exp \{ -\Omega[\sigma]/T \},$$

$$\Omega = \int d^3x \left[\frac{1}{2} (\nabla\sigma)^2 + \frac{m_\sigma^2}{2} \sigma^2 + \frac{\lambda_3}{3} \sigma^3 + \frac{\lambda_4}{4} \sigma^4 + \dots \right].$$

- Width/shape of $P(\sigma_0 \equiv \int_x \sigma)$ best expressed via cumulants:



- Higher cumulants (shape of $P(\sigma_0)$) depend stronger on ξ .

Universal: $\langle \sigma_0^k \rangle_c \sim V \xi^p$, $p = k(3 - [\sigma]) - 3$, $[\sigma] = \beta/\nu \approx 1/2$.

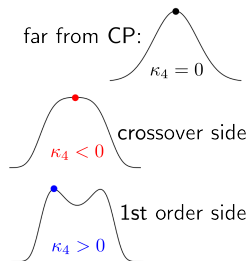
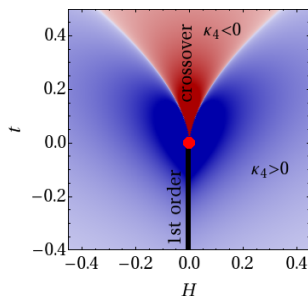
E.g., $p \approx 2$ for $k = 2$, but $p \approx 7$ for $k = 4$.

- Higher moments also depend on which **side** of the CP we are

$$\kappa_3[\sigma] = 2VT^{3/2} \tilde{\lambda}_3 \xi^{4.5}; \quad \kappa_4[\sigma] = 6VT^2 [2(\tilde{\lambda}_3)^2 - \tilde{\lambda}_4] \xi^7.$$

This dependence is also universal.

- 2 relevant directions/parameters. Using Ising model variables:



Experiments do not measure σ .

Experimental observables: simple model

Consider statistical fluctuations in a gas of particles without interaction:

$$\langle (\delta n_{\mathbf{p}}^{\text{free}})^2 \rangle = \langle n_{\mathbf{p}} \rangle$$

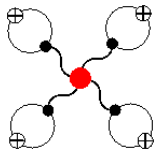
Think of a collective mode described by field σ such that $m = m(\sigma)$:

$$\delta n_{\mathbf{p}} = \delta n_{\mathbf{p}}^{\text{free}} + \frac{\partial \langle n_{\mathbf{p}} \rangle}{\partial \sigma} \times \delta \sigma$$

• The cumulants of multiplicity $M \equiv \int_{\mathbf{p}} n_{\mathbf{p}}$:

$$\kappa_k[M] = \underbrace{\langle M \rangle}_{\text{Poisson}} + \kappa_k[\sigma_0] \times g^k \left(\text{diagram} \right)^k + \dots,$$

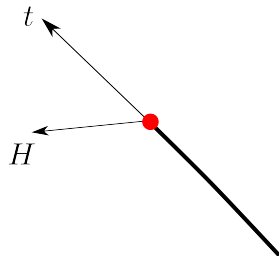
g – coupling of the critical mode ($g = dm/d\sigma$).



(diagrammatically: PRD65(2002)096008)

Mapping Ising to QCD phase diagram

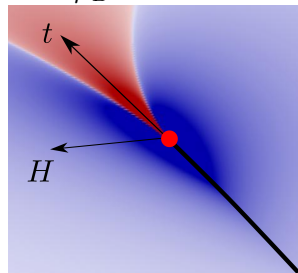
T vs μ_B :



● In QCD $(t, H) \rightarrow (\mu - \mu_{\text{CP}}, T - T_{\text{CP}})$

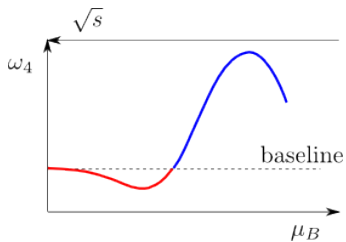
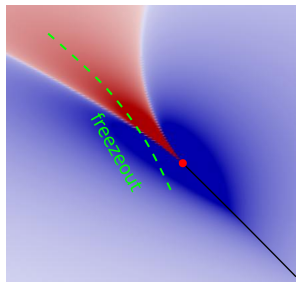
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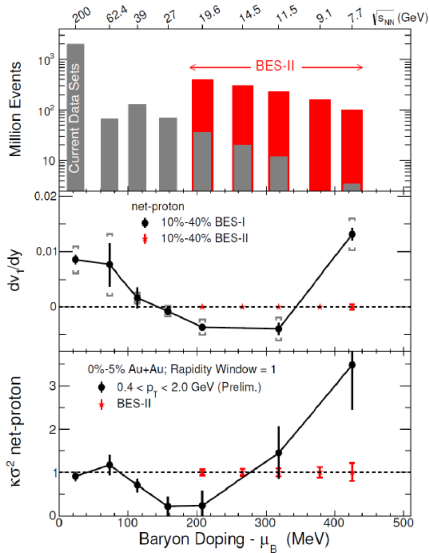
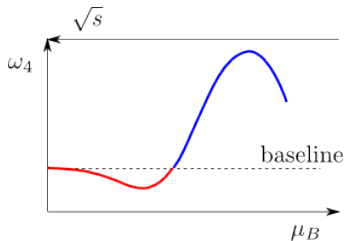
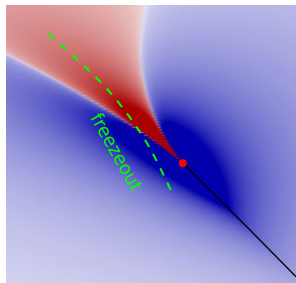


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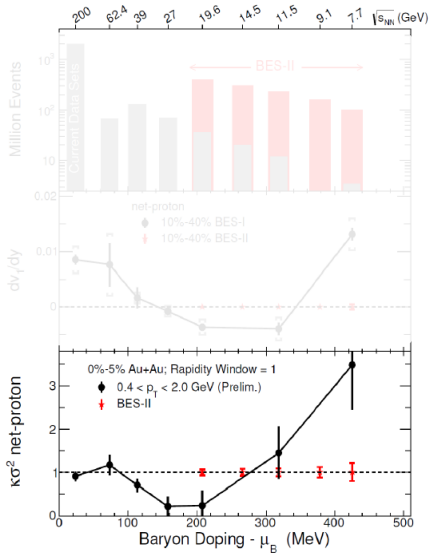
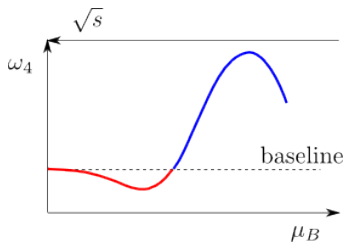
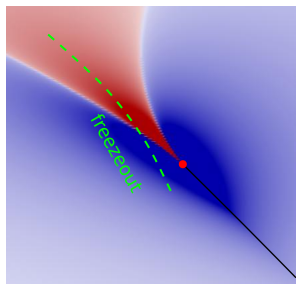
What should we see in the BES?



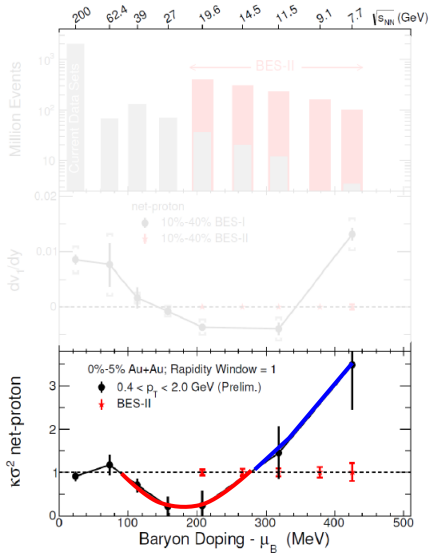
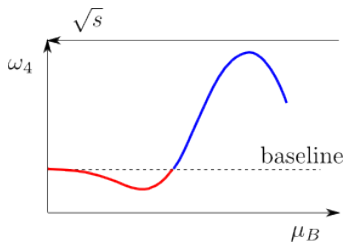
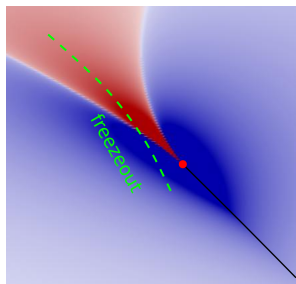
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"intriguing hint" (2015 LRPNS)

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Why ξ is finite

System expands and is *out of equilibrium*

Kibble-Zurek mechanism.

Critical slowing down means $\tau_{\text{relax}} \sim \xi^z$.

Given $\tau_{\text{relax}} \lesssim \tau$ (expansion time scale):

$$\xi \lesssim \tau^{1/z},$$

$z \approx 3$ (universal).

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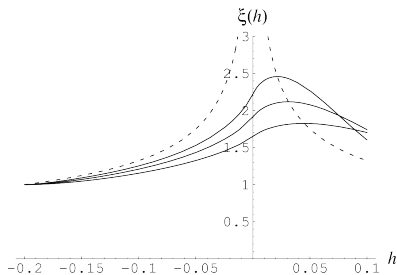
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Estimates: $\xi \sim 2 - 3$ fm
(Berdnikov-Rajagopal)

KZ scaling for $\xi(t)$
and cumulants
(Mukherjee-Venugopalan-Yin)



$$\kappa_n \sim \xi^p \quad \text{and} \quad \xi_{\max} \sim \tau^{1/z}$$

- Therefore, the magnitude of fluctuation signals is determined by non-equilibrium physics.
- Higher moments are more sensitive to ξ – good for detecting critical point. But harder to predict for the same reason.

Time evolution of cumulants (memory)

Mukherjee-Venugopalan-Yin

Relaxation to equilibrium

$$\frac{dP(\sigma_0)}{d\tau} = \mathcal{F}[P(\sigma_0)]$$

↓

$$\frac{d\kappa_n}{d\tau} = L[\kappa_n, \kappa_{n-1}, \dots]$$

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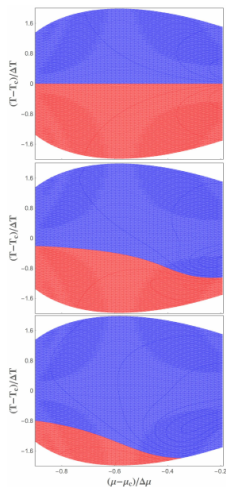
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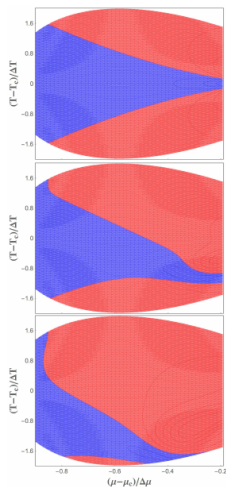
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κ_3



κ_4

Signs of cumulants also depend on off-equilibrium dynamics.

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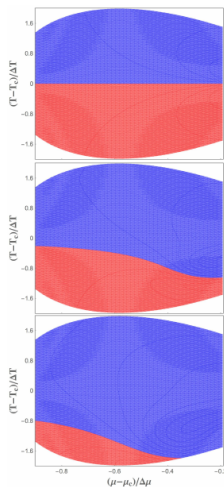
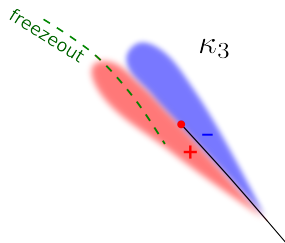
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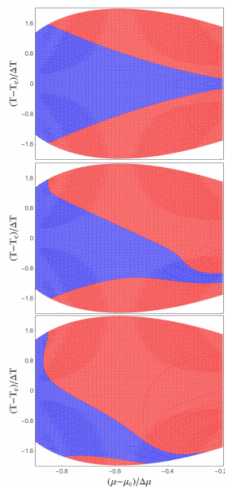
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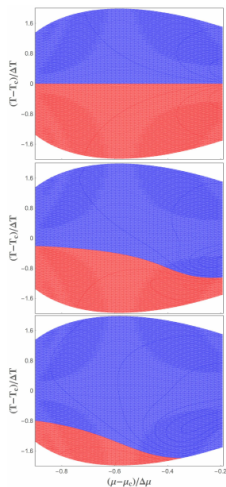
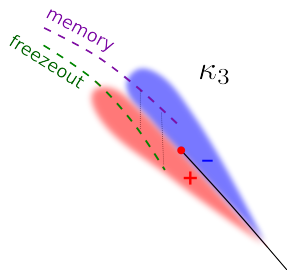
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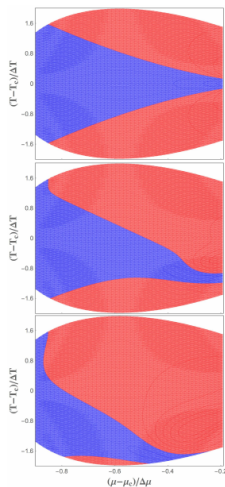
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Experiments do not measure σ .

Kinetic theory with critical mode

- Boltzmann equation, with collisions and noise:

$$\frac{p^\mu}{M} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^\mu} + \partial^\mu M \frac{\partial f}{\partial p^\mu} + \mathcal{C}[f] = \xi,$$

(Fox-Uhlenbeck) + field equation:

$$\partial^2 \sigma + dU/d\sigma + (dM/d\sigma) \int_{\mathbf{p}} f/\gamma + \Gamma_0 \dot{\sigma} = \eta.$$

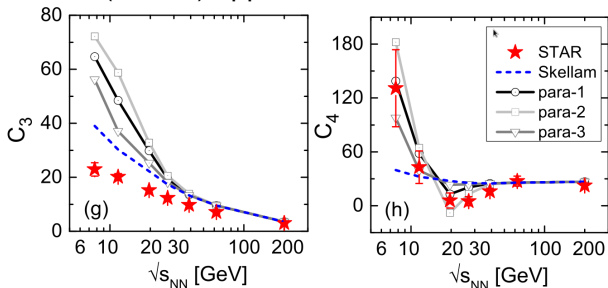
- Noise is fixed by fluctuation-dissipation relations.

Fluctuations in equilibrium are reproduced correctly.

We can now study non-equilibrium evolution of fluctuations.

E.g., memory effects can be described (PRD81:054012,2010)

Recent (limited) application of this model in Jiang-Song (2015)



Spatial dependence at freezeout is considered but not *time*-dependence. So, no memory effects accounted for, yet.

Critical slowing down and bulk viscosity

Bulk viscosity is the effect of system taking time to adjust to local equilibrium.

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$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}$ – expansion rate

$$\zeta \sim \tau_{\text{relaxation}} \sim \xi^z$$

(Onuki, Moore-Saremi,
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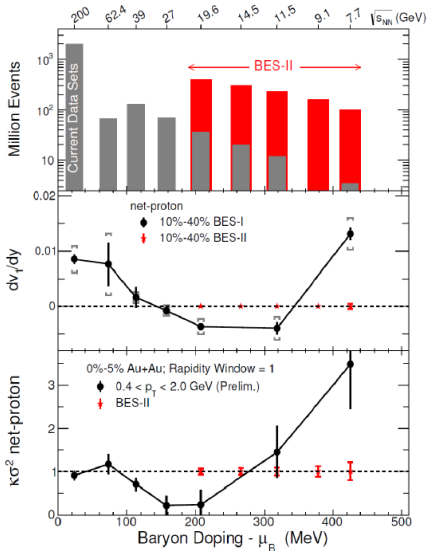
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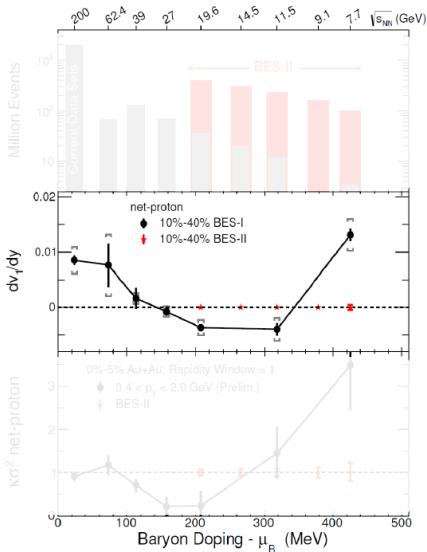
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- Non-linear case contains interesting challenges. E.g., multiplicative noise.
- Critical slowing down suggests adding additional slow, but not hydrodynamics mode.

Summary

- Is there a critical point between QGP and hadron gas phases?
Heavy-ion collision experiments may answer.
The quest for the QCD critical point challenges us to creatively apply existing concepts and develop new ideas.
- Large (non-gaussian) fluctuations – universal signature of a critical point.
- In H.I.C., the magnitude of the signatures is controlled by non-equilibrium effects. The interplay of critical phenomena and non-equilibrium dynamics opens interesting questions.