

Space-time picture of ultrarelativistic nuclear collisions

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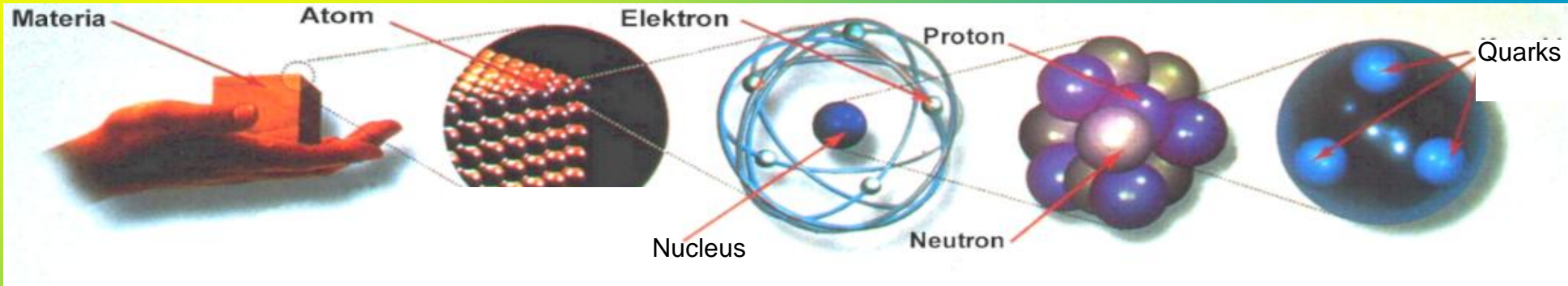
I. Elementary Introduction to relativistic nuclear physics

**School "The basic ideas and concepts behind the modern
High-Energy Physics and Cosmology«
5 - 16 October 2018, Truskavetz, Ukraine**

Part 1

Elementary Introduction

The structure of the matter and spatial scales



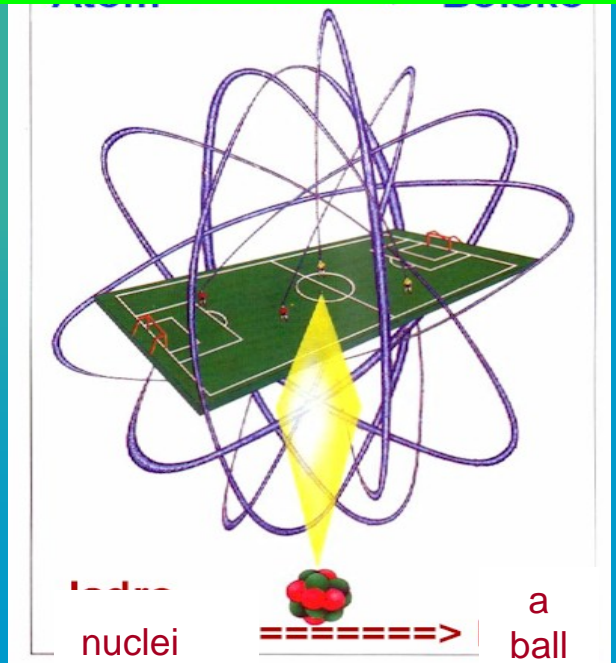
$\sim 10^{-1}$ m

$\sim 10^{-9}$ m (Nanophysics)

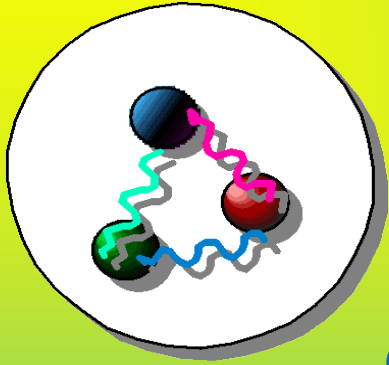
$\sim 10^{-15}$ m = 1 fm = 1 Fm
Femtophysics

Seed \implies the Earth

Atom \implies the seed



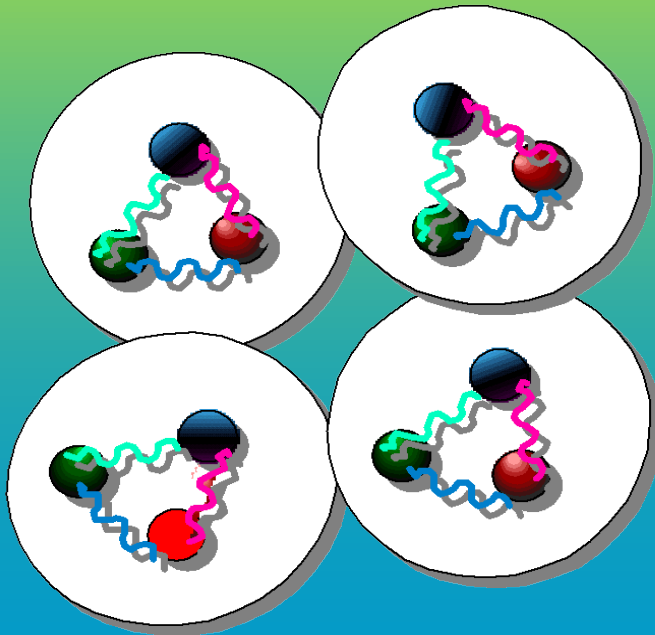
Nucleon (baryon)



«Confinement» of quarks in hadrons

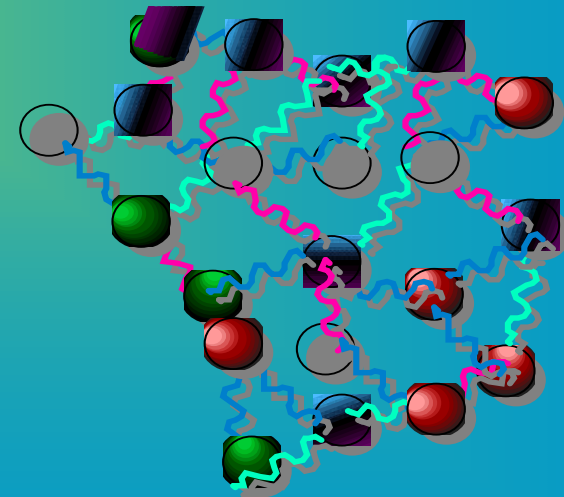
confinement

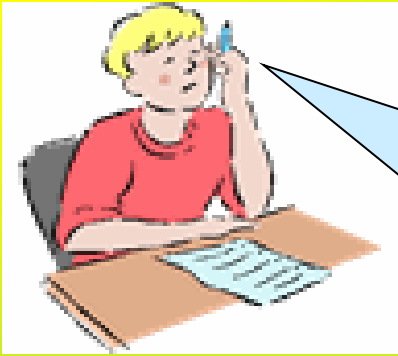
Hadronic matter



deconfinement

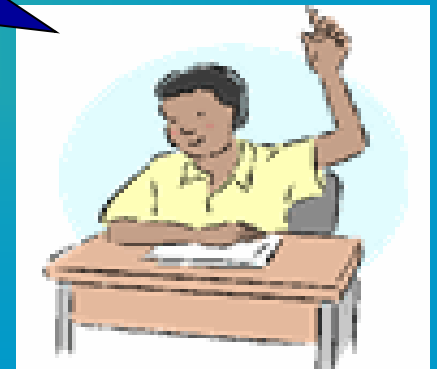
Quark-gluon matter (QGP)

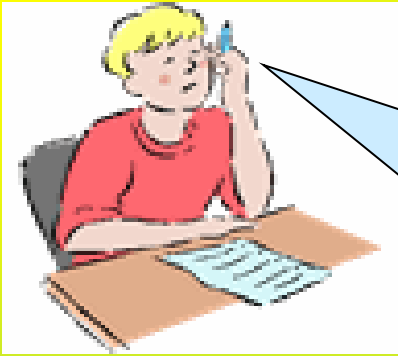




Why does the confinement happen?...
What is the difference between QCD and QED?

Electrons \rightarrow quarks,
Photons \rightarrow gluons.
But gluons carries
color charge.
This is the essence!

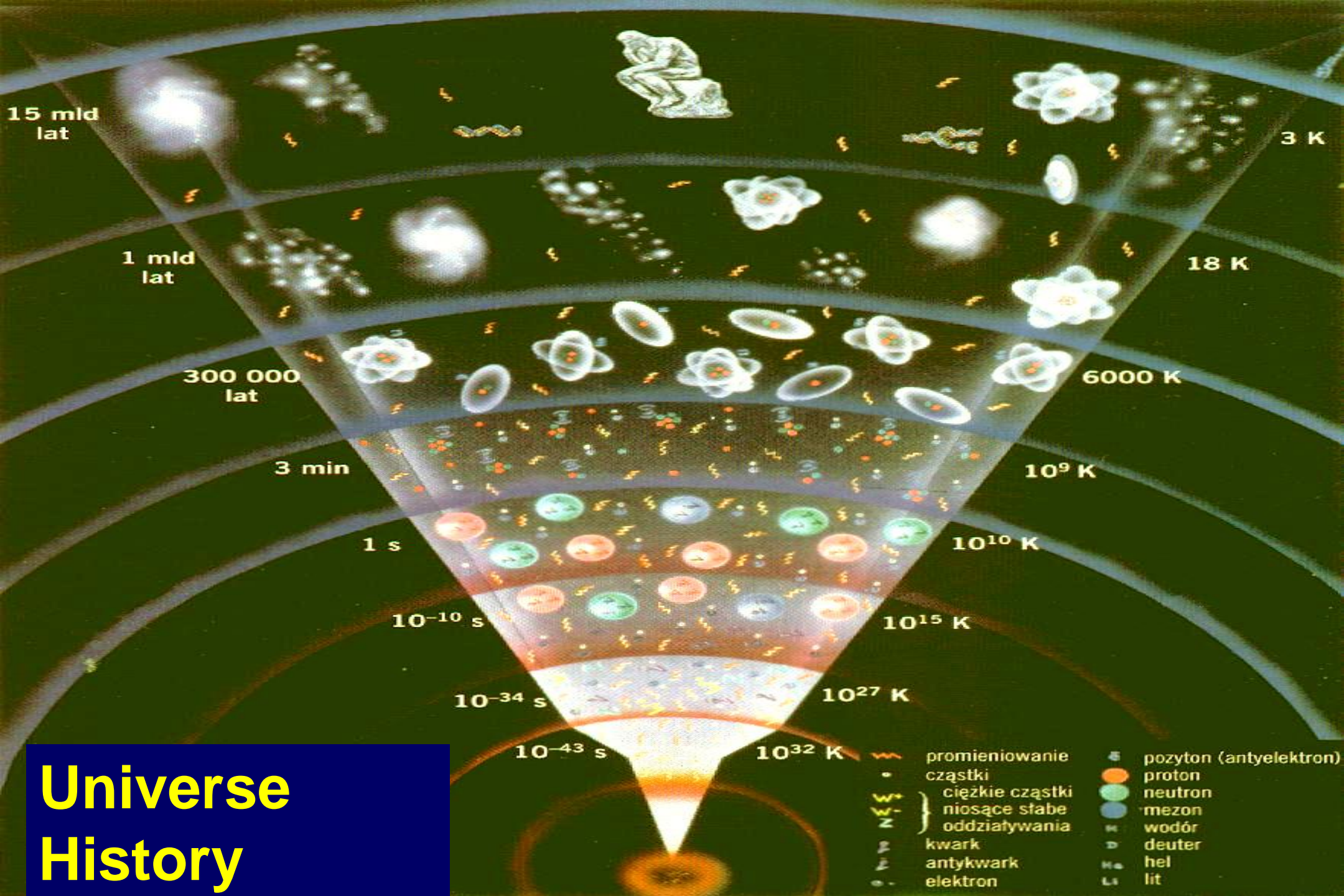




Is it possible to observe free quarks?

Such
happened in the Early
Universe!

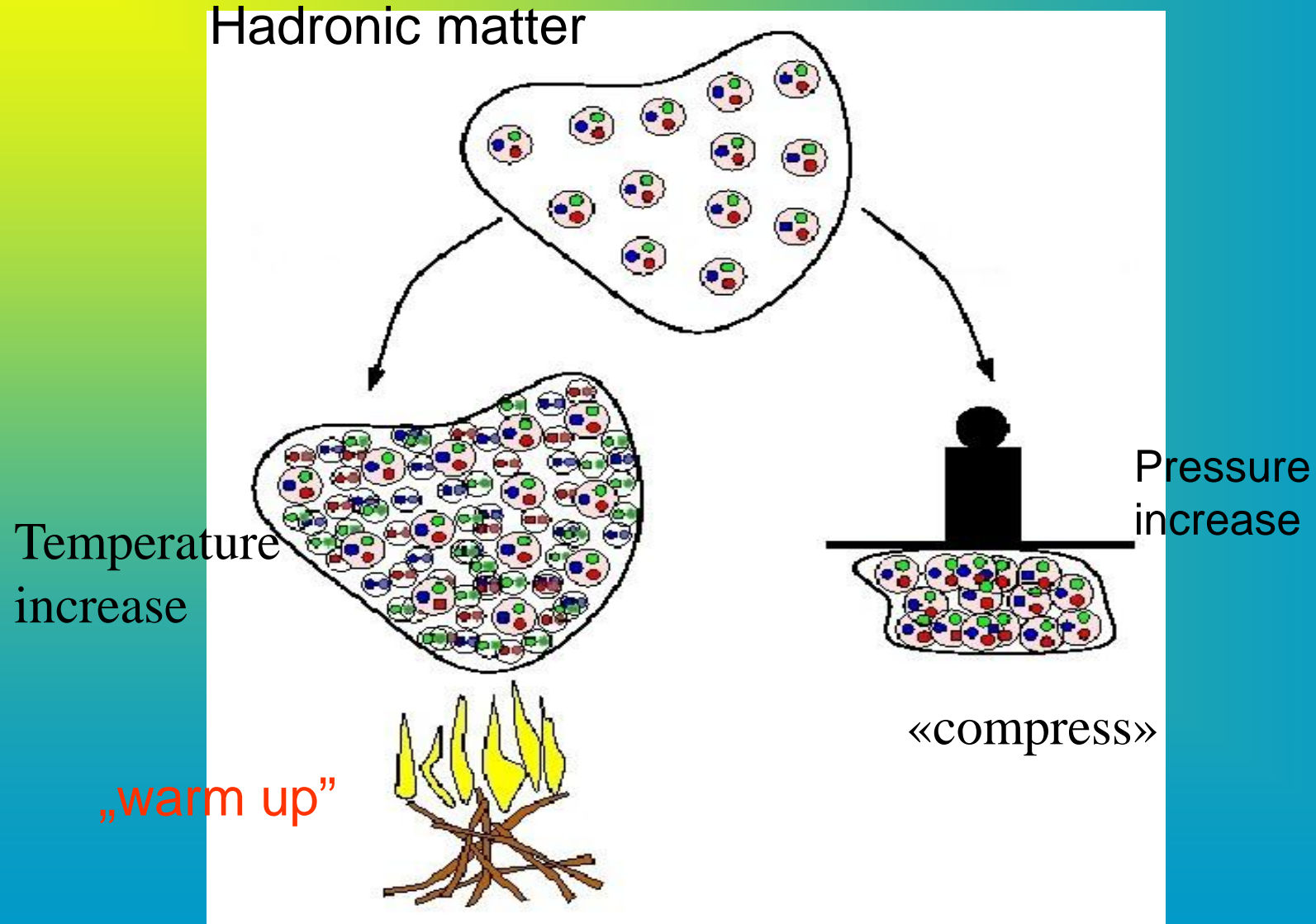




Universe History

- | | | | |
|--|-----------------|--|------------------------|
| | promieniowanie | | pozyton (antyelektron) |
| | cząstki | | proton |
| | ciężkie cząstki | | neutron |
| | niosące słabe | | mezon |
| | oddziaływania | | wodór |
| | kwark | | deuter |
| | antykwarek | | hel |
| | elektron | | lit |

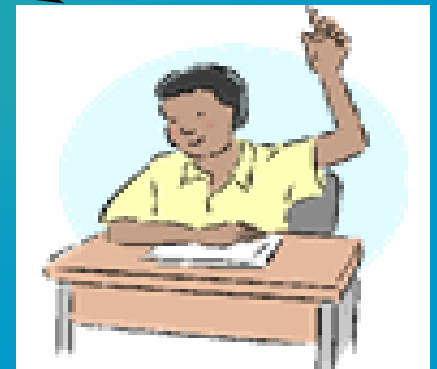
Is it possible to get Quark-Gluon Plasma in experiment?

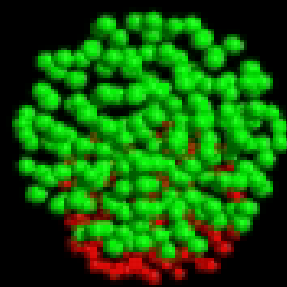




How does it possible to “compress” and “warm up” hadrons: protons and neutrons”?

Really, how do create the pressure higher than in the neutron stars, and temperature in billion times higher than inside the Sun?



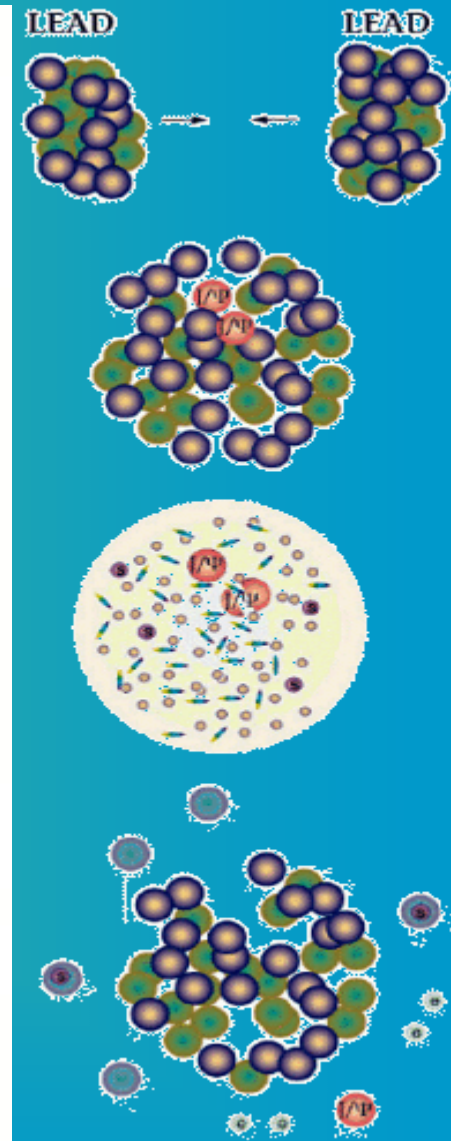
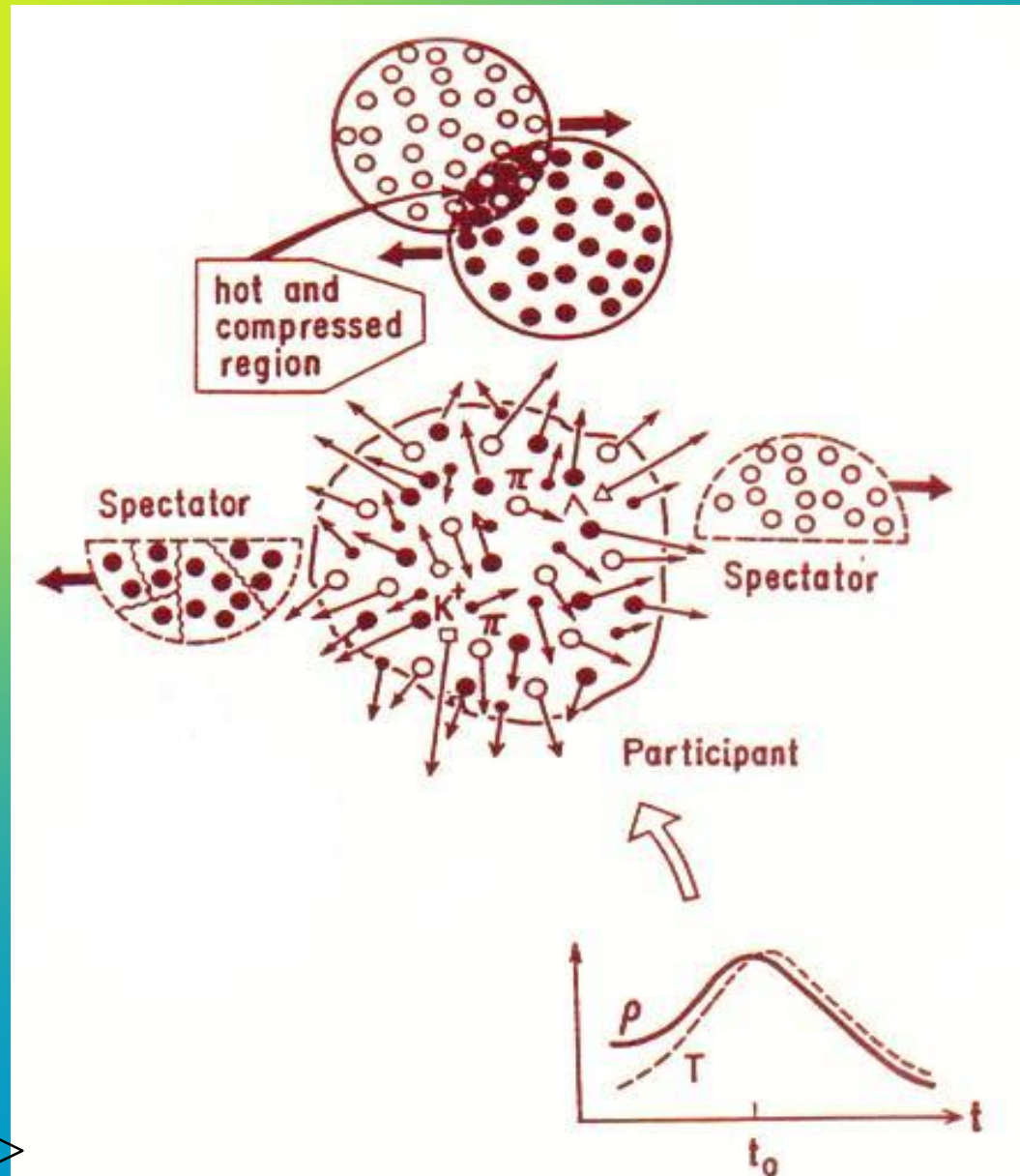


Relativistic heavy ion collisions

At the start =====>

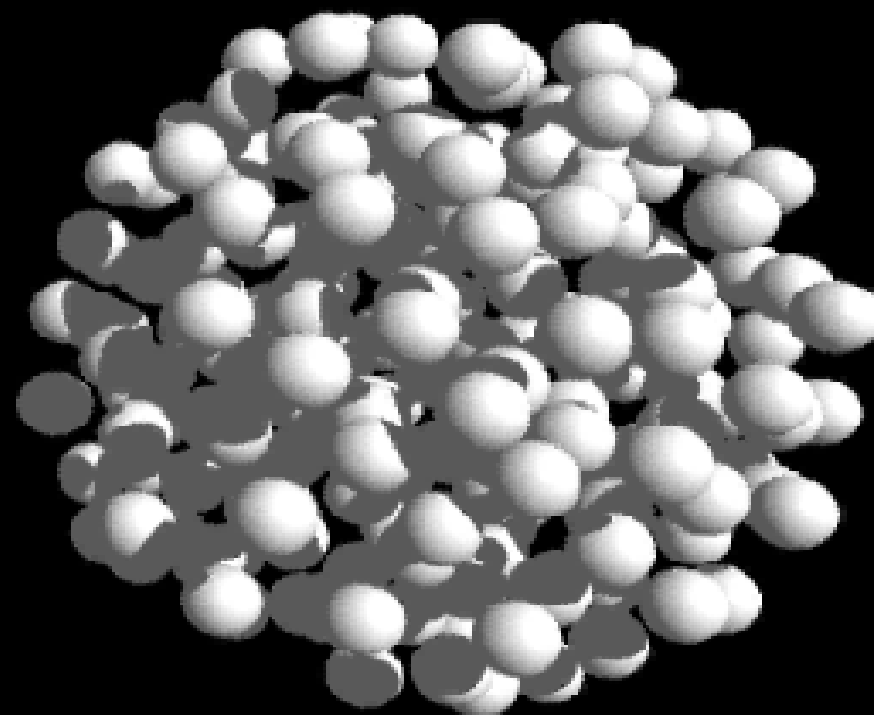
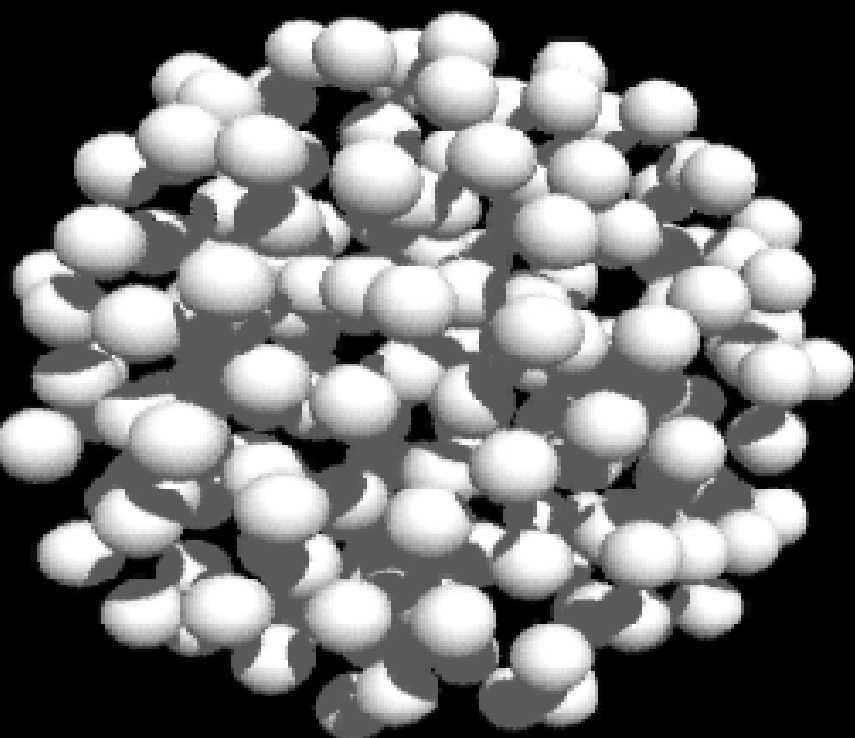
At the end =====>

Temporal dependence
of the pressure and
temperature =====>



60 GeV/A

$t = -0.22$ fm/c



Computer simulation of A+A collisions



How does it become possible to create the Universe using a few hundreds colliding protons ?

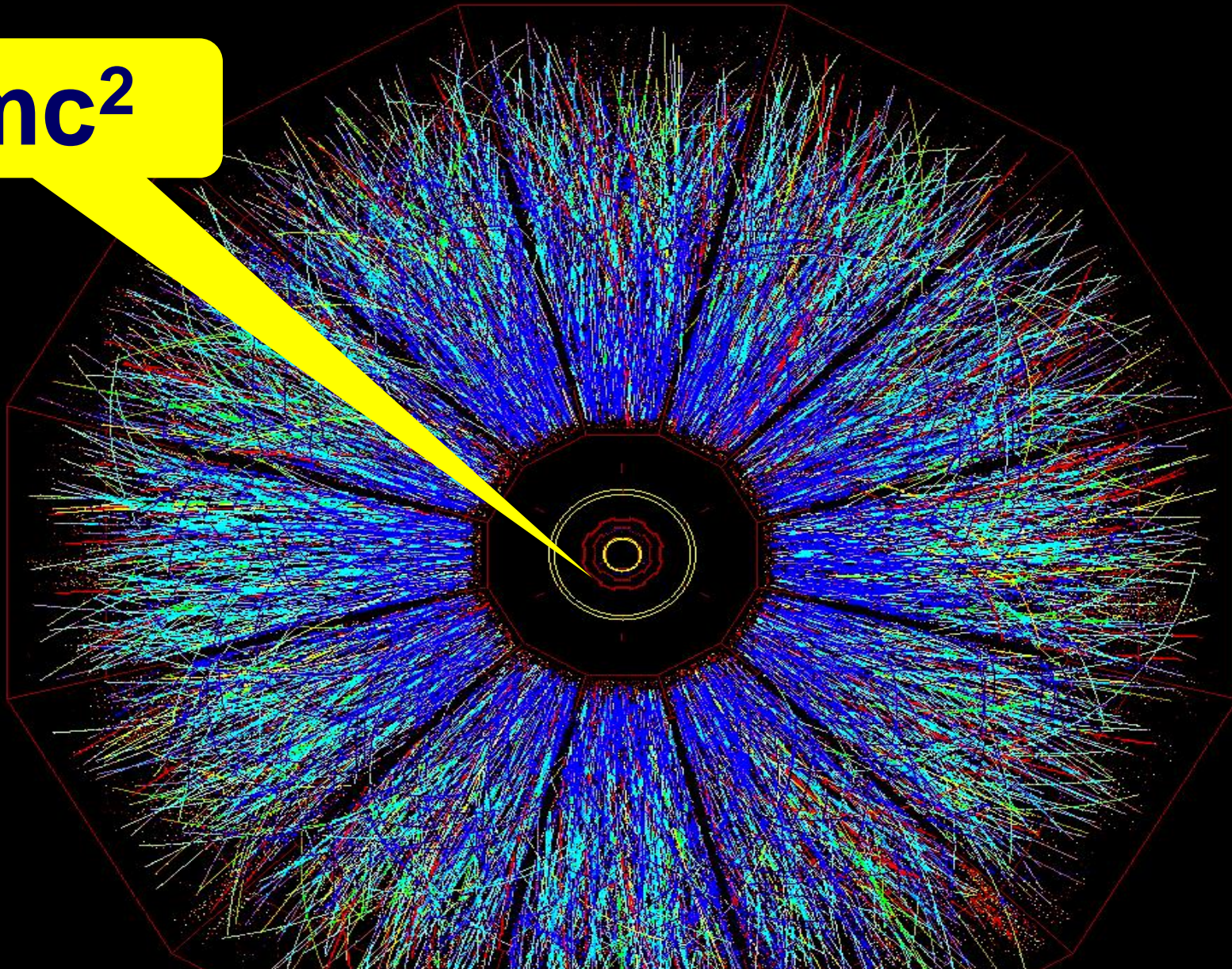
$$E=mc^2 !$$

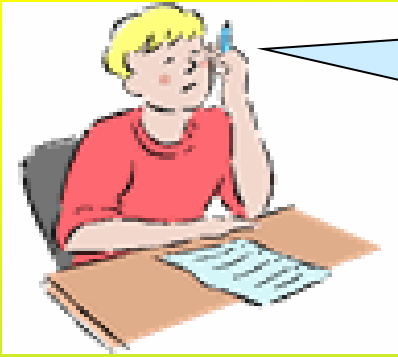


The result of collision ($^{197}\text{Au} + ^{197}\text{Au}$) at the CMS energy : 200 GeV per nucleon pair , experiment BNL STAR

400 \rightarrow 4000

$$E=mc^2$$





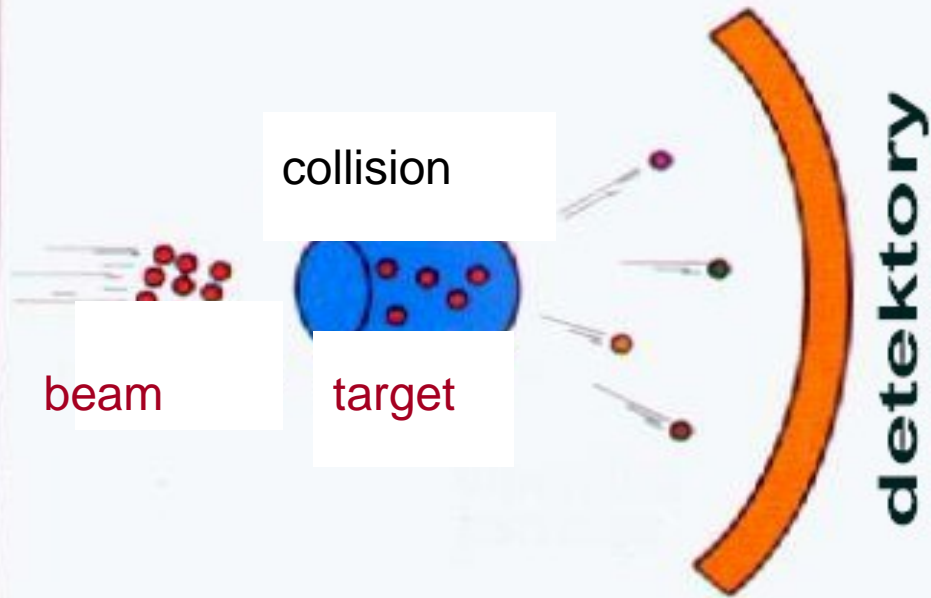
How does it work in practice?

The two things are necessary:
1. Accelerator (Collider)
2. Detector.



The two ways to realize A+A collisions

Collision beam - target



beam

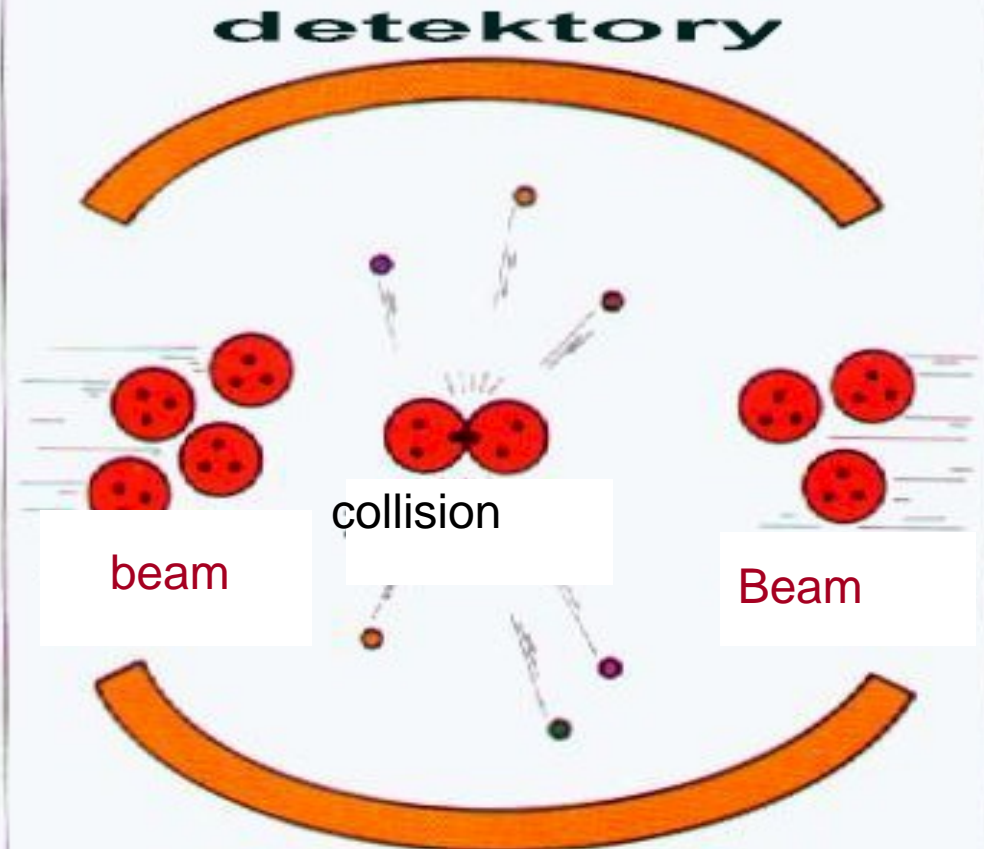
collision

target

detektor

Accelerator

Beam-beam collisions



detektor

beam

collision

Beam

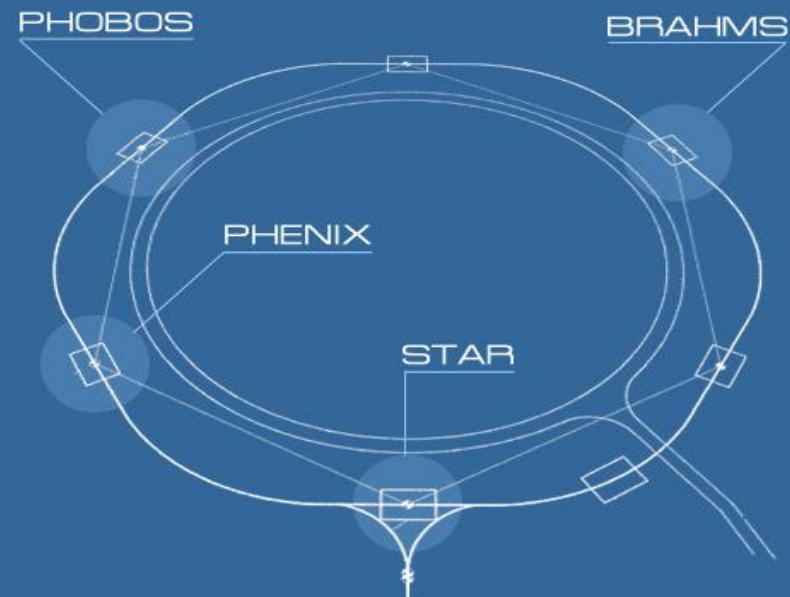
Collider

Brookhaven National Laboratory, Long Island (USA)

RHIC Relativistic Heavy-Ion Collider

RHIC

relativistic heavy ion collider

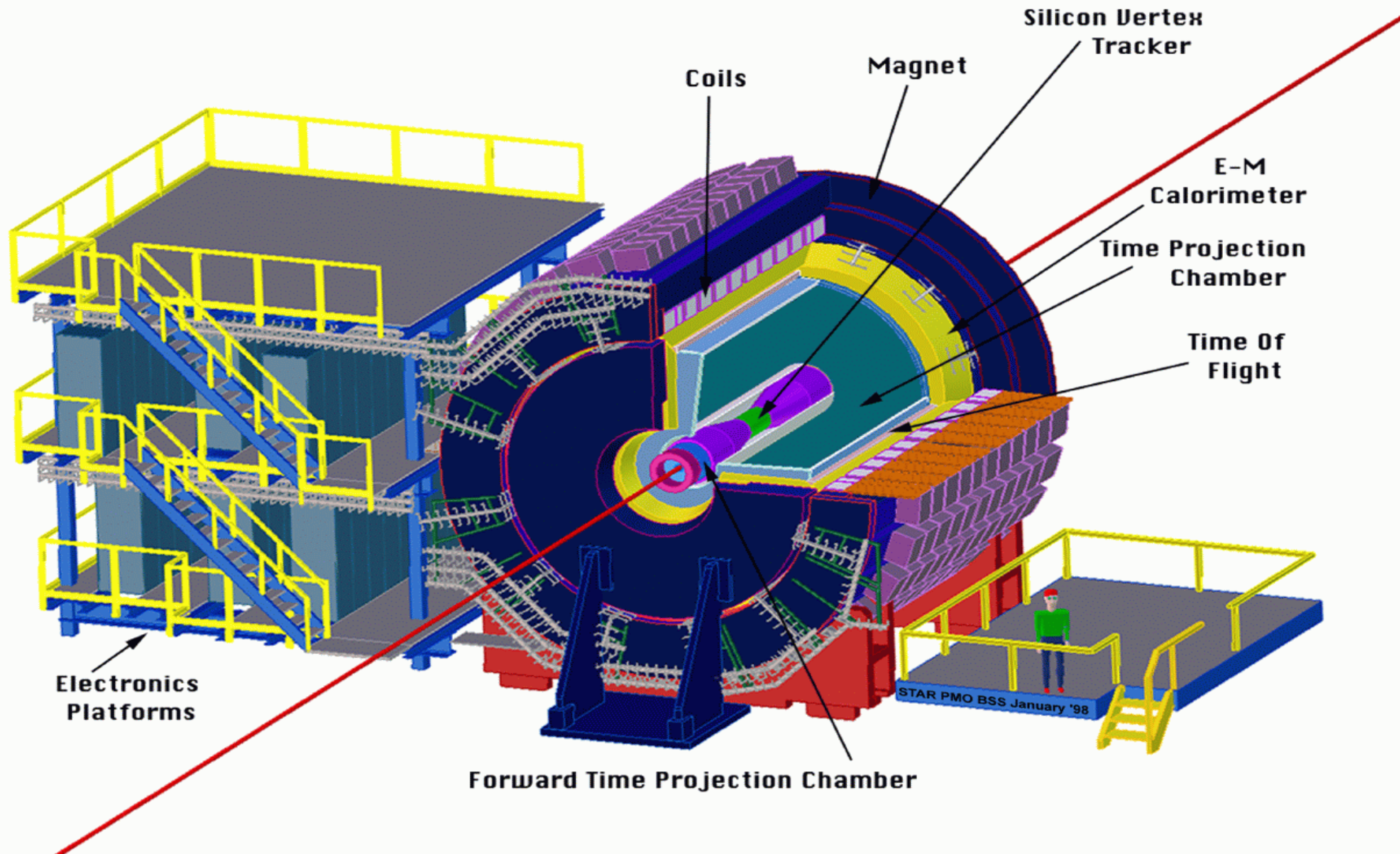


The Experiments

RHIC's 2.4 mile ring has six intersection points where its two rings of accelerating magnets cross, allowing the particle beams to collide. The collisions produce the fleeting signals that, when captured by one of RHIC's experimental detectors, provide physicists with information about the most fundamental workings of nature.

If RHIC's ring is thought of as a clock face, the four current experiments are at 6 o'clock (STAR), 8 o'clock (PHENIX), 10 o'clock (PHOBOS) and 2 o'clock (BRAHMS). There are two additional intersection points at 12 and 4 o'clock where future experiments may be placed. Visit any experiment by clicking on it.

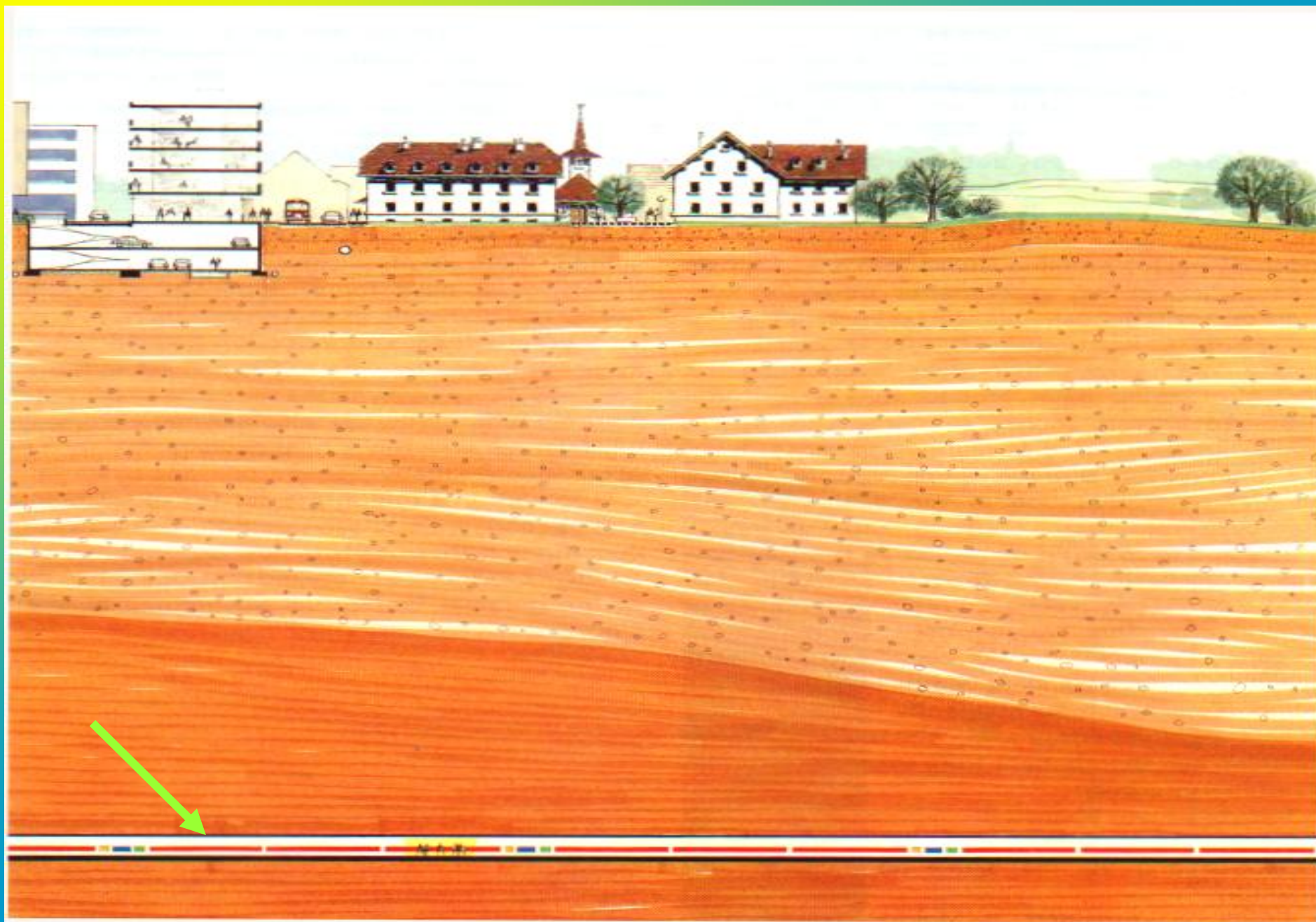
STAR Detector



CERN

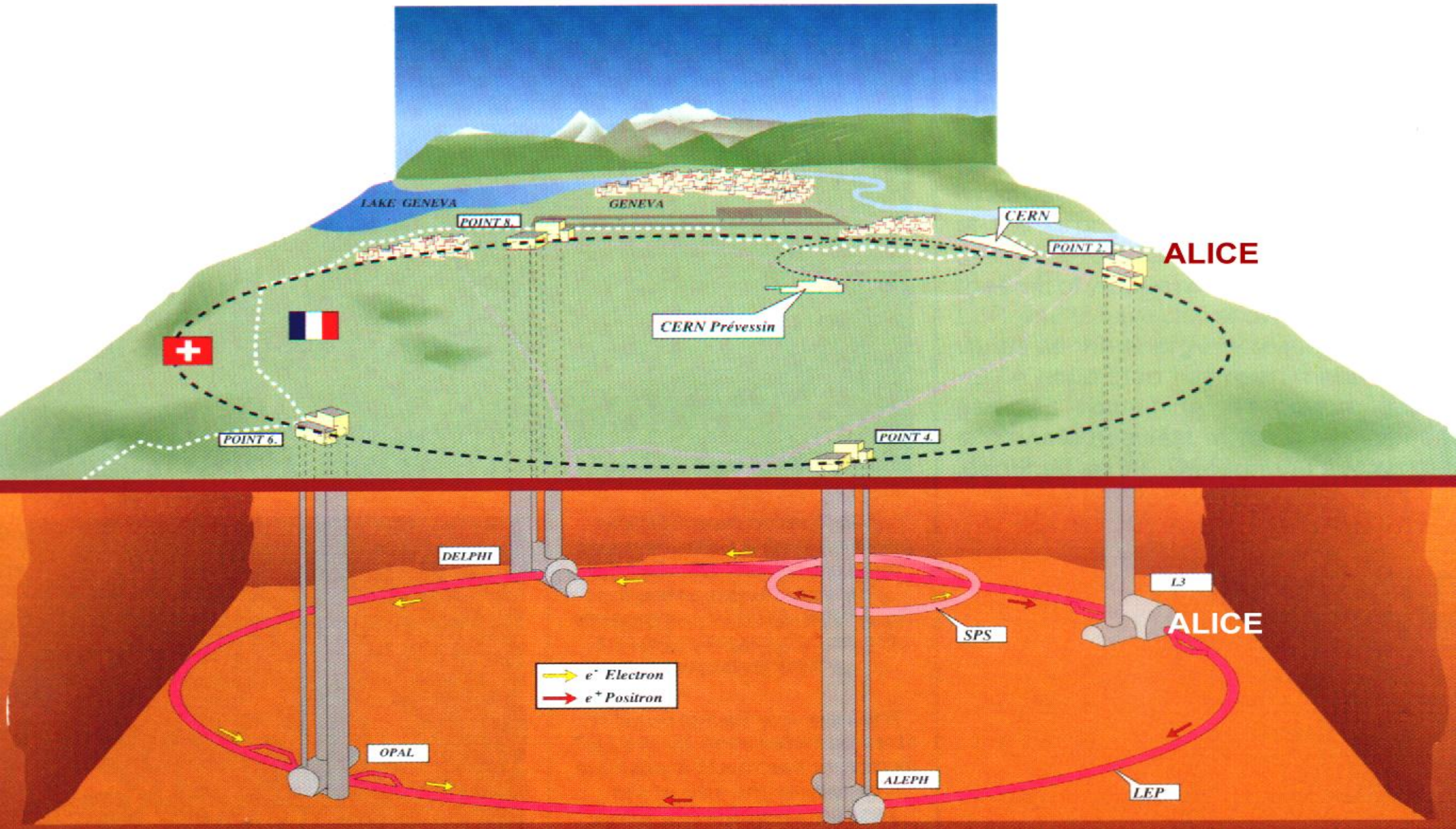


CERN: on- ... and under- ground



ok. 100m

CERN – underground tunnel LEP/LHC



Large Hardon Collider

L=27km

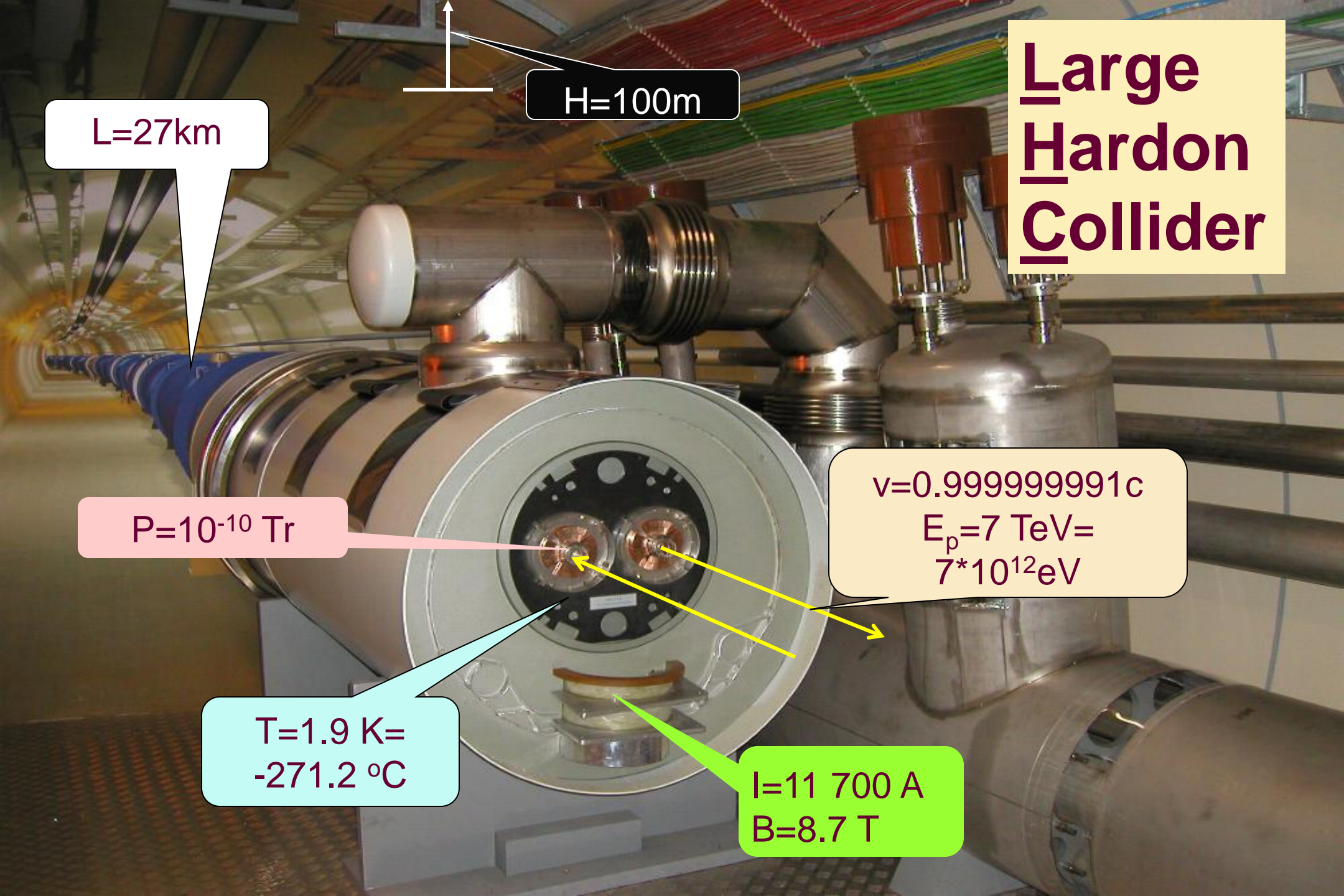
H=100m

$P=10^{-10}$ Tr

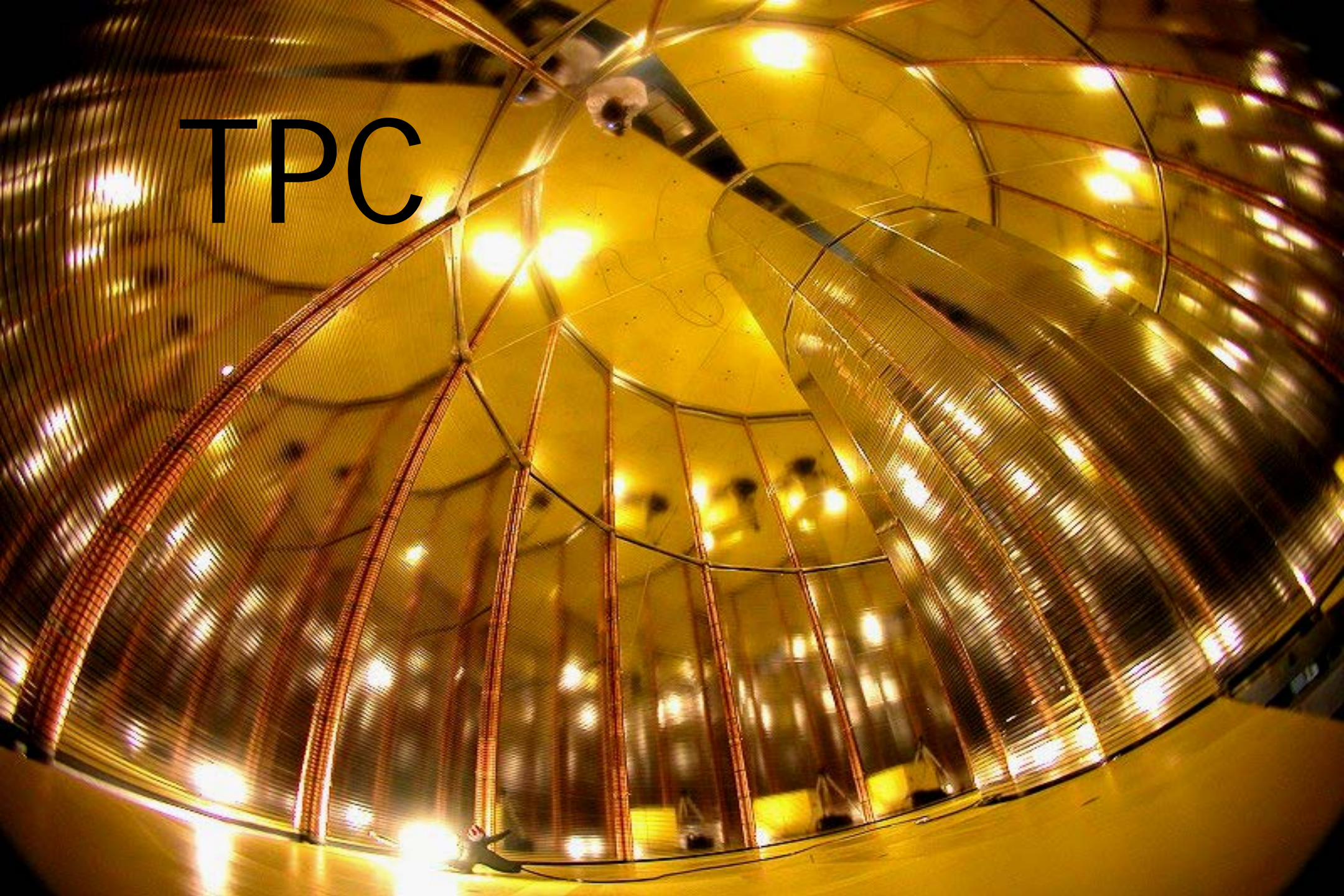
T=1.9 K=
-271.2 °C

$v=0.9999999991c$
 $E_p=7$ TeV=
 $7 \cdot 10^{12}$ eV

I=11 700 A
B=8.7 T



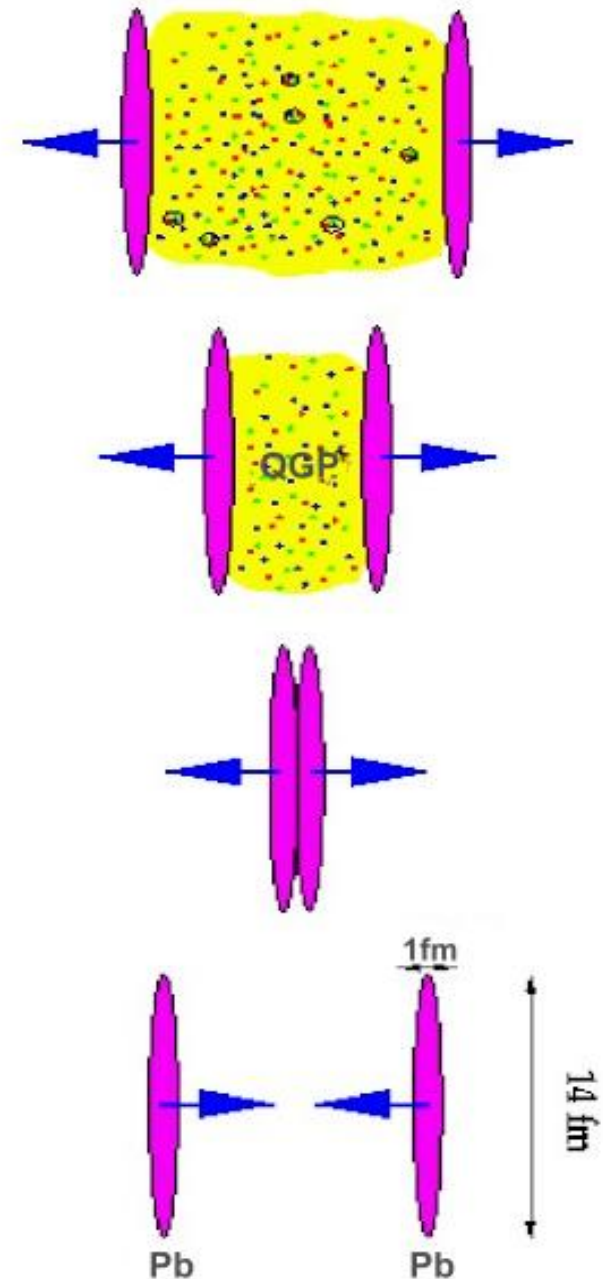
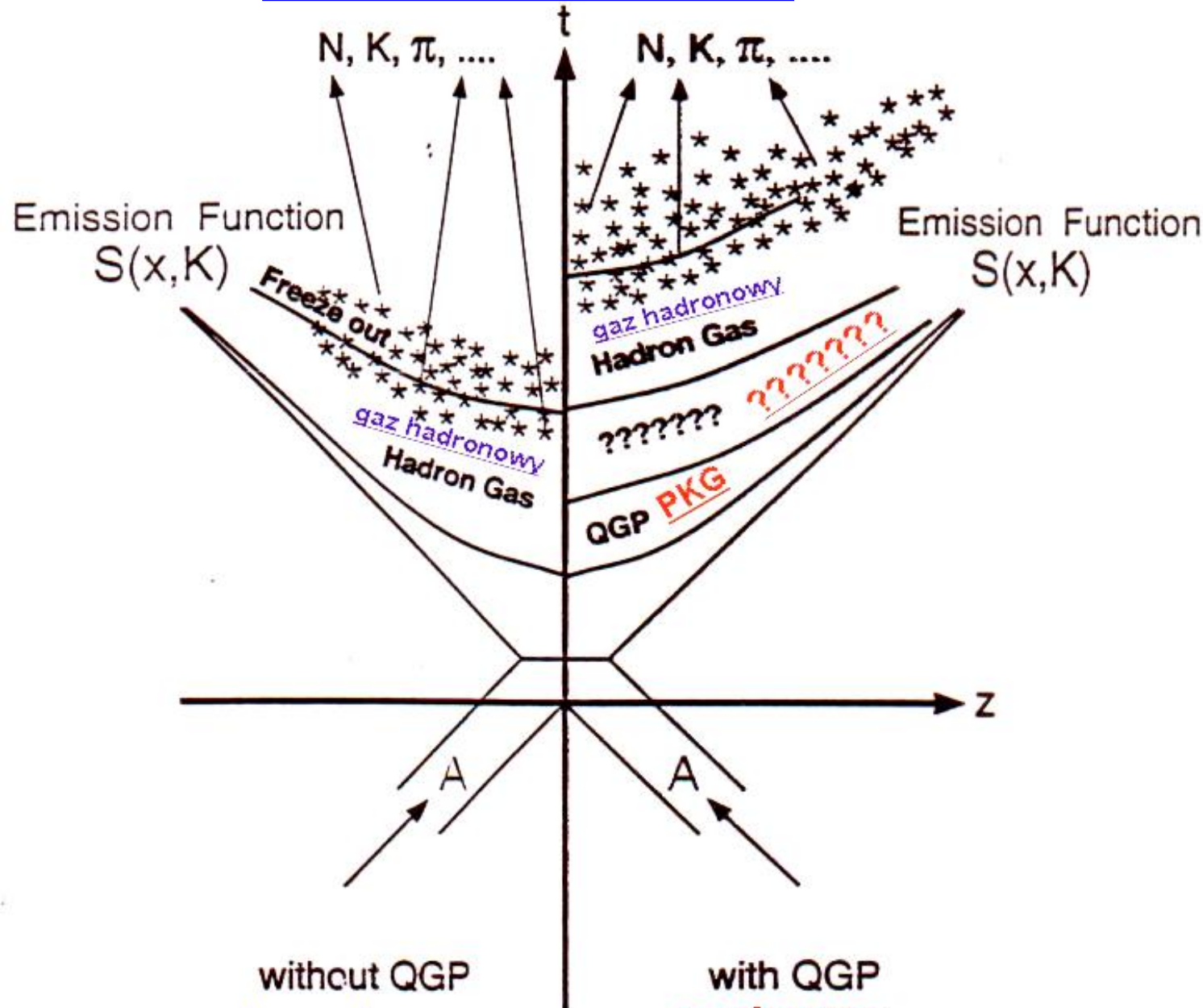
TPC





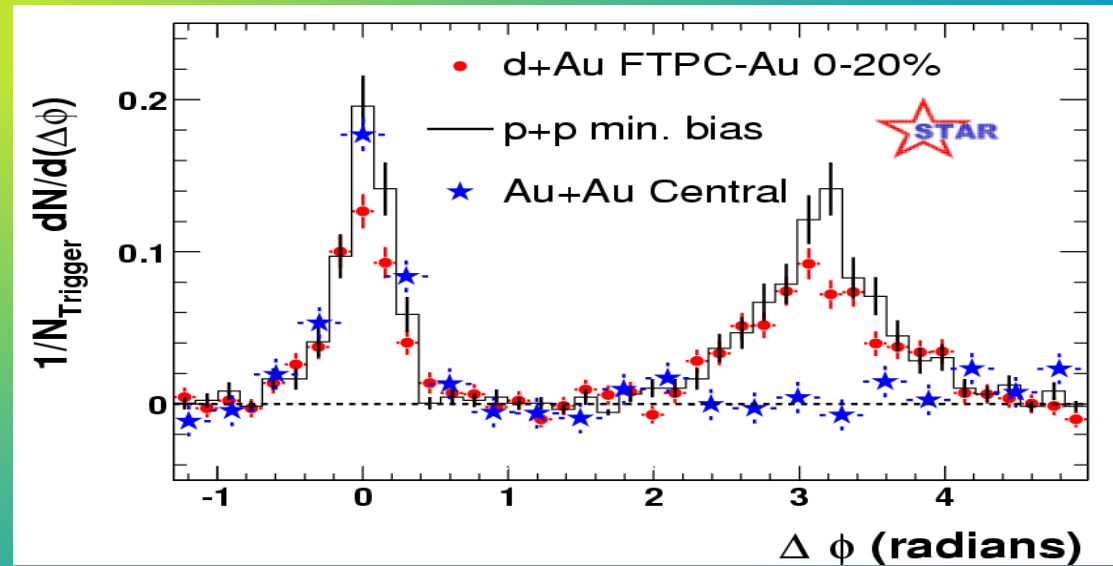
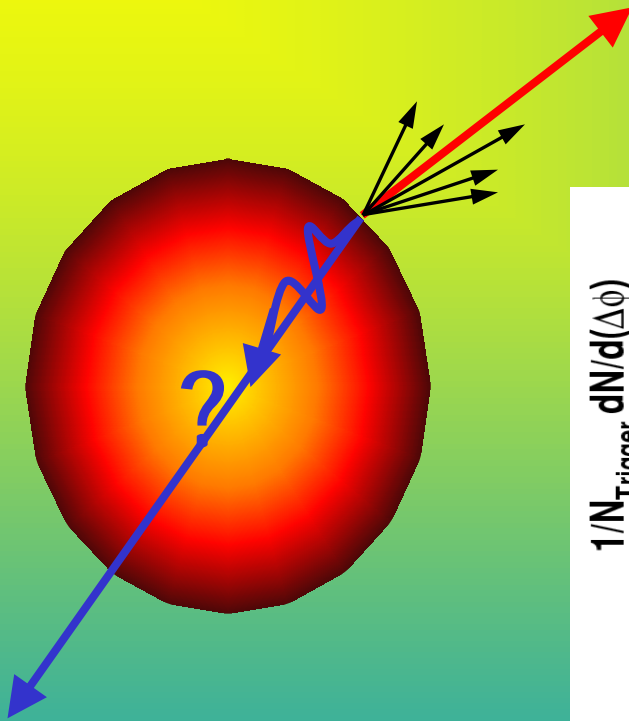
05.25.2007

Two scenarios



Jet quenching as a signature of very dense matter

Phys. Rev. Lett. 91, 072304 (2003).

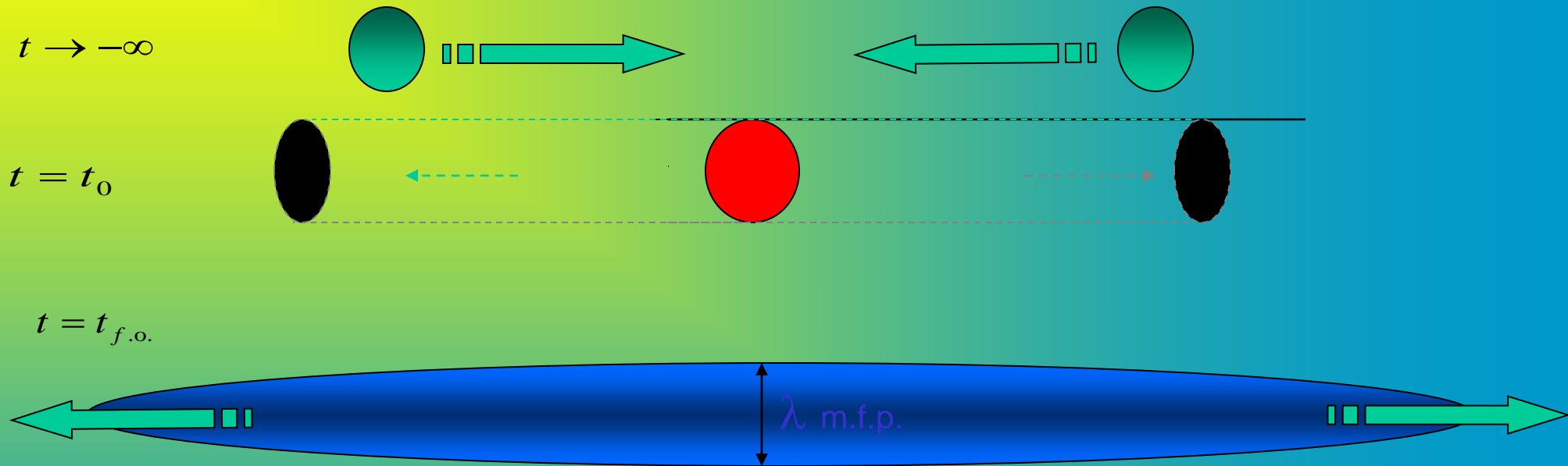


"... was observed *jet quenching* predicted to occur in a hot deconfined environment 100 times dense than ordinary nuclear matter" (BNL RHIC, June 2003).

Part 2

Matter evolution in ultrarelativistic
 $A+A$ collisions

Hydrodynamic approach to multiparticle production [Landau, 1953]



Studying of (one- and multi- particle) **spectra** versus **IC** and **EoS** one can get, in principle information about earlier partonic stage of evolution: possible formation of QGP or even type of the phase transition.

Quasi-inertial hydrodynamics

- Hydrodynamic equation

$$\partial_\mu T^{\mu\nu} = 0$$

$$T^{\mu\nu} = (\epsilon + p) u^\mu u^\nu - p g^{\mu\nu}$$

energy momentum tensor of perfect fluid

$$p = c_0^2 \epsilon, \quad (0 < c_0^2 = \text{const} < 1)$$

- Coordinates (t, x, y, z)

- Quasi-inertial flows

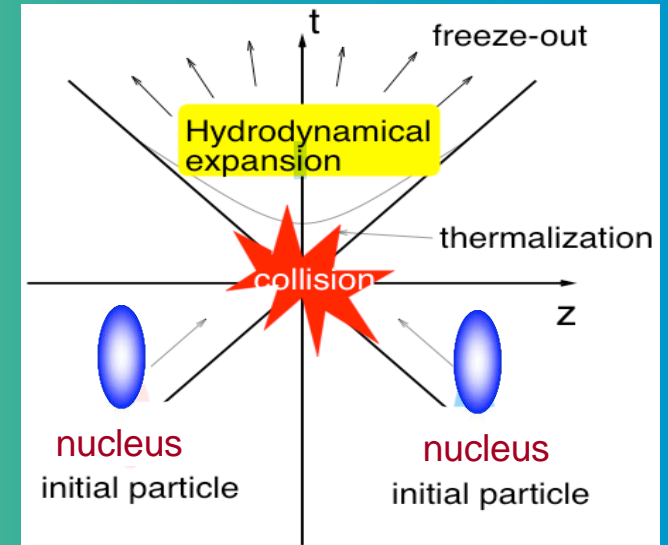
Projection of equation on the direction of 4-velocity

$$u^\nu \partial_\mu T^{\mu\nu}$$

$$u^\nu \partial_\nu u^\mu = 0$$

$$\frac{du^{*\mu}}{dt} = 0$$

$$(\epsilon + p) \partial_\nu u^\nu + u^\nu \partial_\nu \epsilon = 0$$



- Thermodynamic identities:

$$\epsilon + p = Ts + \mu n$$

$$d\epsilon = Tds + \mu dn$$

$$T \partial_k (su^k) + \mu \partial_k (nu^k) = 0$$

Entropy is conserved

$$\partial_k (su^k) \text{ if } \mu = 0$$

or particle number is conserved:

$$\partial_k (nu^k) = 0$$

(1+1)D boost-invariant hydrodynamic models

Quasi-inertial Hydrodynamic Equations

$$(\varepsilon + p)\partial_\nu u^\nu + u^\nu \partial_\nu \varepsilon = 0$$

$$u^\mu u^\nu \partial_\nu p - \partial^\mu p = 0$$

- New variables $(\tau, x, y, \eta) : \tau = \sqrt{t^2 - z^2}, \eta = \tanh^{-1}\left(\frac{z}{t}\right)$ $t = \tau \cosh \eta, z = \tau \sinh \eta$

- One dimensional boost-invariant approximation: $u_x = u_y = 0; \varepsilon = \varepsilon(\tau)$

Solution:

- Hydro-velocity: $v_z = \frac{z}{t}; (u_0 = \frac{t}{\sqrt{t^2 - z^2}}, u_x = 0, u_y = 0, u_z = \frac{z}{\sqrt{t^2 - z^2}})$ $\longrightarrow u^\nu \partial_\nu u^\mu = 0$

- Quasi-inertiality $(\varepsilon + p)\partial_\nu u^\nu + u^\nu \partial_\nu \varepsilon = 0$ $\longrightarrow \frac{d\varepsilon}{d\tau} = (1 + c_0^2)\varepsilon(\tau)$

$$\varepsilon(\tau) = \varepsilon(\tau_0) \left(\frac{\tau_0}{\tau}\right)^{(1+c_0^2)}$$

$$s(\tau) = s(\tau_0) \frac{\tau_0}{\tau}$$

It is so called “Bjorken solution”, in fact, invented by R. Hwa and C. Chiu

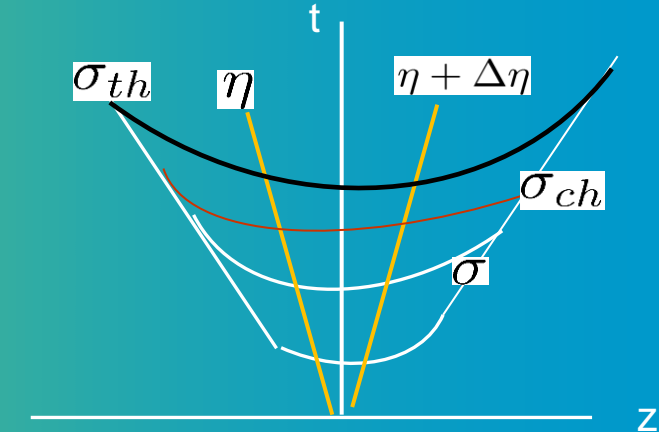
The basic properties of the boost-invariant solution

$$S(\Delta\eta) = \int_{\eta}^{\eta+\Delta\eta} s(\tau) u^{\mu} d\sigma_{\mu} = s(\tau_0) \tau_0 \Delta\eta \pi R^2$$

$$E(\Delta\eta) = \int_{\eta}^{\eta+\Delta\eta} T^{0\mu}(\tau, \eta) u^{\mu} d\sigma_{\mu} \xrightarrow{c_0^2 \rightarrow 0} \epsilon(\tau_0) \tau_0 2 \sinh(\Delta\eta/2) \pi R^2$$

$$\varepsilon_0 = \frac{\langle m_t \rangle}{(R^2 \pi) \tau_0} \frac{dn}{dy}$$

Conception of thermal freeze-out



Cooper-Frye formula for sudden thermal freeze-out $p^0 \frac{d^3 N}{d^3 p} = \int_{\sigma_{th}} d\sigma_{\mu} p^{\mu} f(x, p)$

Conception of chemical freeze-out

$$N_i = p^0 \frac{d^3 N}{d^3 p} = \int_p \int_{\sigma_{ch}} \frac{d^3 p}{p^0} d\sigma_{\mu} p^{\mu} f\left(\frac{p^{\mu} u_{\mu}(x)}{T_{ch}(x)}, \frac{\mu_{i,ch}(x)}{T_{ch}(x)}\right)$$

Generalization of sudden freeze-out to continuous one:
Hydro + Cascade models

$$p^0 \frac{d^3 N}{d^3 p} \approx \int_{\sigma(p)} d\sigma_{\mu} p^{\mu} f(x, p)$$

Where $\sigma(p)$ is piece of hypersurface where the particles with momentum near p has a maximal emission rate

Useful formulas 1

At relativistic energies, due to dominant longitudinal motion, it is convenient to substitute the Cartesian coordinates t, z by the Bjorken ones

$$\tau = (t^2 - z^2)^{1/2}, \quad \eta = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{t + z}{t - z}$$

and introduce the the radial vector $\vec{r} \equiv \{x, y\} = \{r \cos \phi, r \sin \phi\}$, i.e.:

$$x^\mu = \{\tau \cosh \eta, \vec{r}, \tau \sinh \eta\} = \{\tau \cosh \eta, r \cos \phi, r \sin \phi, \tau \sinh \eta\}.$$

Representing the freeze-out hypersurface by the equation $\tau = \tau(\eta, r, \phi)$, the

hypersurface element in terms of the coordinates η, r, ϕ becomes

$$d^3\sigma_\mu = \epsilon_{\mu\alpha\beta\gamma} \frac{dx^\alpha dx^\beta dx^\gamma}{d\eta dr d\phi} d\eta dr d\phi, \quad (32)$$

where $\epsilon_{\mu\alpha\beta\gamma}$ is the completely antisymmetric Levy-Civita tensor in four dimensions with $\epsilon^{0123} = -\epsilon_{0123} = 1$. Particulary, for azimuthally symmetric hypersurface $\tau = \tau(\eta, r)$, Eq. (32) yields [12]:

Useful formulas 2

$$u^\mu(r, \eta) = \gamma(\cosh \eta, v \cos \phi, v \sin \phi, \sinh \eta), \quad (7)$$

where $\gamma = (1 - v^2)^{-1/2}$. The element of the hypersurface $\sigma(x)$ takes the form

$$d\sigma_\mu = \tau(r, \eta) d\eta dr_x dr_y \times \left(\frac{1}{\tau} \frac{d\tau}{d\eta} \sinh \eta + \cosh \eta, -\frac{d\tau}{dr_x}, -\frac{d\tau}{dr_y}, -\frac{1}{\tau} \frac{d\tau}{d\eta} \cosh \eta - \sinh \eta \right). \quad (8)$$

$$p^\mu = (m_T \cosh y, p_T \cos \psi, p_T \sin \psi, m_T \sinh y)$$

$$m_T = \sqrt{m^2 + p_T^2}$$

In Bjorken 1+1 D model:

$$d\sigma_\mu p^\mu = \pi R_T^2 \tau dy \cosh(y - \eta)$$

$$u_\mu p^\mu = m_T \cosh(y - \eta)$$