

Ultra-Relativistic Nuclear Collisions

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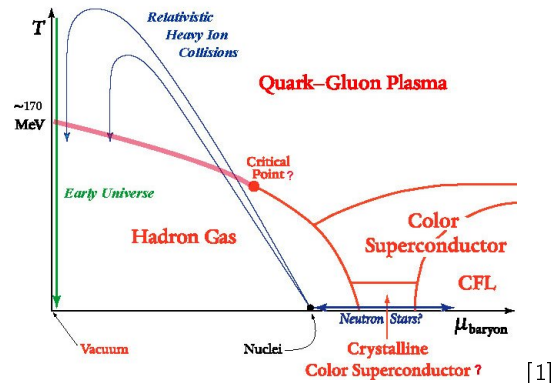
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1 Introduction

1.1 A QGP-Reminder

- QGP $\simeq$ state of deconfined quarks and gluons
- can be produced by heating and/or compressing hadronic matter $\rightarrow$ relativistic nuclear collisions



1.2 A Comment on Theoretical Tools

QCD

- correct theory of strong interaction
- but: perturbation theory only applicable at high energies/short distances (running coupling)
- in QGP at non-asymptotic temperatures coupling relatively large

Thermal field theory

- QCD in thermal systems
- but: perturbative expansion (HTL) doesn't converge very well
- application to heavy ion collisions questionable

AdS/CFT correspondence (Maldacena conjecture)

- relates strongly coupled conformal field theory to a weakly coupled type IIB string theory (supergravity)
- pro: many quantities become calculable
- con: QCD is not a conformal theory
- exciting but remains to be proven

2 Setting the Stage

2.1 Natural Units

$$\hbar = c = k_B = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow [E] = [p] = [m] = [T] = [l^{-1}] = [t^{-1}] = \text{GeV}$$

$$\text{usually: } [E] = [p] = [m] = [T] = \text{GeV}$$

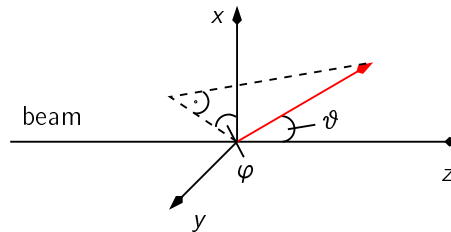
$$[l] = [t] = \text{fm} = 10^{-15} \text{ m}$$

$$\text{extremely useful: } \hbar c = 0.2 \text{ GeVfm} = 1$$

	J	eV	g	m^{-1}	K
J	1	$6.2 \cdot 10^{18}$	$1.1 \cdot 10^{-14}$	$3.2 \cdot 10^{25}$	$7.2 \cdot 10^{22}$
eV	$1.6 \cdot 10^{-19}$	1	$1.8 \cdot 10^{-33}$	$5.1 \cdot 10^6$	$1.2 \cdot 10^4$
g	$9.0 \cdot 10^{13}$	$5.6 \cdot 10^{32}$	1	$2.8 \cdot 10^{39}$	$6.5 \cdot 10^{36}$
m^{-1}	$3.2 \cdot 10^{-26}$	$2.0 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$3.5 \cdot 10^{-40}$	1	$2.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$
K	$1.4 \cdot 10^{-23}$	$8.6 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$1.5 \cdot 10^{-37}$	$4.4 \cdot 10^2$	1

2.2 Coordinates and Useful Quantities

Coordinates and Useful Quantities



1-Particle Observables

$$\text{longitudinal momentum: } p_{\parallel} = |\vec{p}| \cos \vartheta$$

$$\text{transverse momentum: } p_{\perp} = |\vec{p}| \sin \vartheta$$

$$\text{transverse mass: } m_{\perp} = \sqrt{p_{\perp}^2 + m^2}$$

$$\text{rapidity: } y = \tanh^{-1}(\beta_{\parallel}) = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{E + p_{\parallel}}{E - p_{\parallel}} \right)$$

$$\text{pseudo-rapidity: } \eta = -\ln \left(\tan \frac{\vartheta}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{p + p_{\parallel}}{p - p_{\parallel}} \right)$$

$$\text{for } E \gg m: y \simeq \eta$$

Global Observables

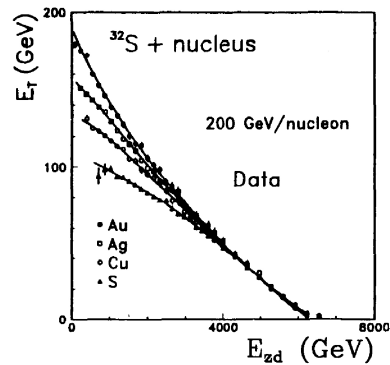
$$\text{transverse energy: } E_{\perp} = \sum_i E_i \sin \vartheta_i$$

excitation energy: $E^* = E_{\text{cm}} - N_{\text{part}} m_N = (\gamma_{\text{beam}} N_{\text{part,beam}} + \gamma_{\text{target}} N_{\text{part,target}}) m_N - N_{\text{part}} m_N$ kinetic energy of participating nucleons $\rightarrow$ energy of the produced matter

isotropic source: $E_{\perp} = \frac{\pi}{4} E^*$

zero-degree energy: E_{ZD} : energy deposited in small solid angle around beam axis $\rightarrow$ sensitive to number of projectile spectator nucleons ideally: $\frac{E_{\text{ZD}}}{E_{\text{beam}}} = \frac{N_{\text{spec}}}{A}$

$\Rightarrow E_{\perp}$ and E_{ZD} (E^*) complementary

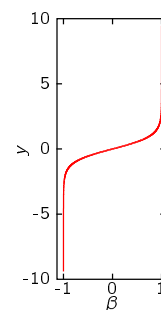


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Rapidity

rapidity: relativistic analogue of (longitudinal) velocity

$$\begin{aligned} \beta &= \frac{\beta_1 + \beta_2}{1 + \beta_1 \beta_2} \\ y &= \tanh^{-1} \beta \\ &= \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\beta_1 + \beta_2}{1 + \beta_1 \beta_2} \right) \\ &= \tanh^{-1} \beta_1 + \tanh^{-1} \beta_2 \\ &= y_1 + y_2 \end{aligned}$$



$\Rightarrow$ The shape of rapidity distributions is invariant under Lorentz-transformations.

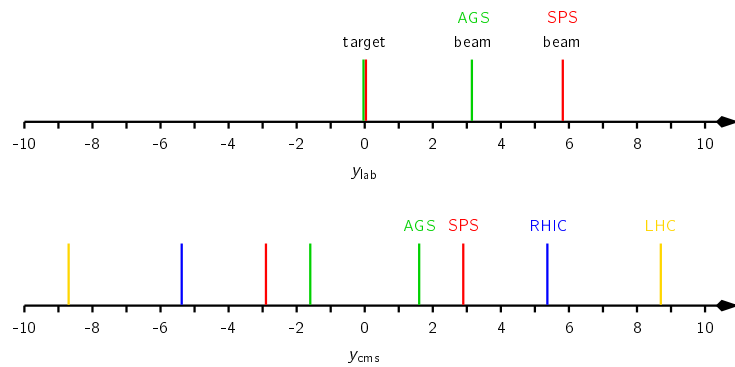
Accelerators and Beam Rapidity

AGS: $E_{\text{beam}} = 11 A \text{ GeV}$ Au+Au fixed target

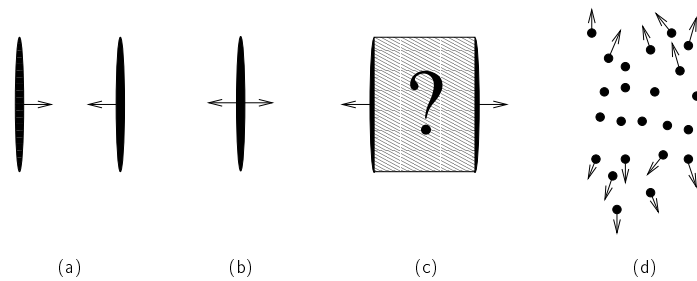
SPS: $E_{\text{beam}} = 158 A \text{ GeV}$ Pb+Pb fixed target

RHIC: $\sqrt{s_{\text{NN}}} = 200 \text{ GeV}$ Au+Au collider

LHC: $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 5.5 \text{ TeV}$ Pb+Pb collider



2.3 Stages of a Nuclear Collision



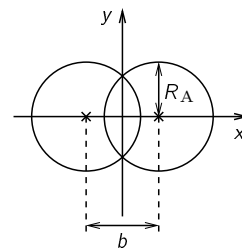
- (a) Lorentz-contracted nuclei
- (b) nuclei overlap, scatterings occur
- (c) nucleus remnants recede from interaction region leaving a dense and hot system behind
- (d) system expands, cools and hadronises, hadrons scatter and resonances decay

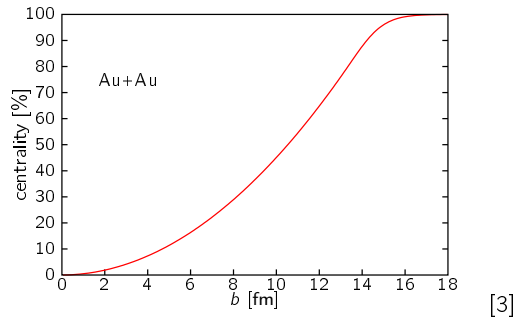
2.4 Geometry

Centrality

b : impact parameter

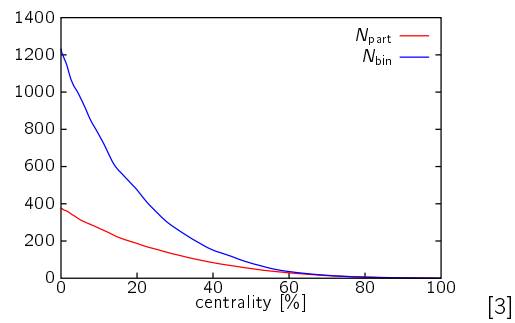
$$\text{centrality} = \frac{\sigma}{\sigma_{\text{geo}}} \simeq \frac{\int_0^b b' db'}{\int_0^{2R_A} b' db'} \propto b^2$$





Glauber-models

- characterise collision by
 - number of participating nucleons ($N_{\text{part}}(b)$)
 - number of binary nucleon-nucleon collisions ($N_{\text{bin}}(b)$)
- rule of thumb:
 - soft (low momenta) particle production scales with N_{part}
 - hard (high momentum transfer) processes scale with N_{bin}



3 An Example of an Experiment

3.1 Challenges

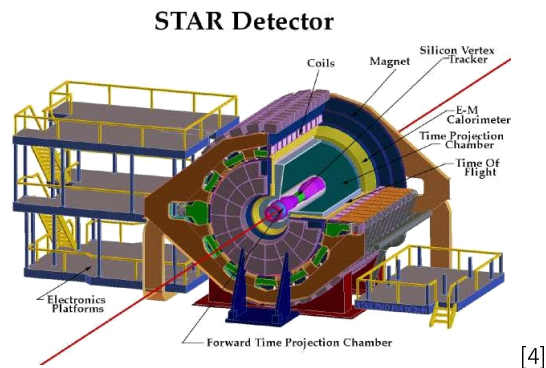
General Complications

- QGP not directly observable
- have to infer QGP properties from hadronic final state
- complicated space-time evolution
- complex multi-particle dynamics

Experimental Challenges

- high multiplicity (RHIC: up to ~ 4000 charged particles)
- many measurements have huge background
- this background contains structures and correlations
- it fluctuates

3.2 An Example for an Experiment: STAR



Silicon Vertex Tracker: position and momentum

Time Projection Chamber: momentum and position

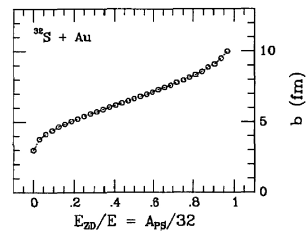
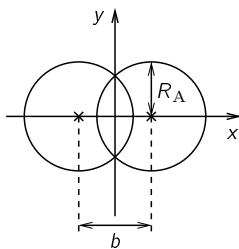
Time Of Flight: velocity

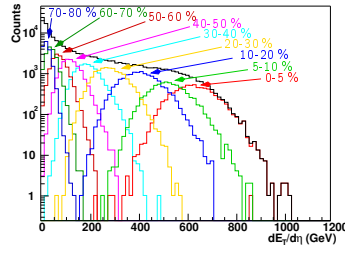
E-M Calorimeter: energy

⇒ combining information from different subdetectors allows for particle identification

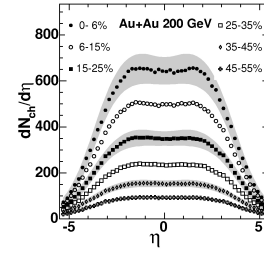
4 Aspects of Relativistic Nuclear Collisions

4.1 Centrality

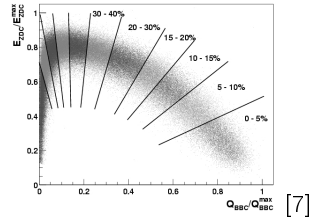




[5]



[6]



[7]

- Q_{BBC} : charge in Beam Beam Counter (detector at $3 < |\eta| < 4$ measuring number of charged particles)

- complication: incomplete measurement of spectators

Collisions with increasing centrality have

- increasing activity away from beam rapidity (transverse energy, number of produced particles, total charge etc.).
- decreasing activity near beam rapidity, i.e. decreasing number of spectator nucleons.

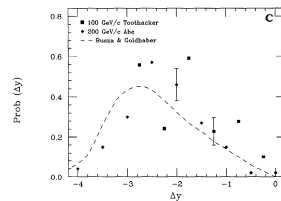
⇒ use a combination of the two to experimentally determine centrality

4.2 Particle Production

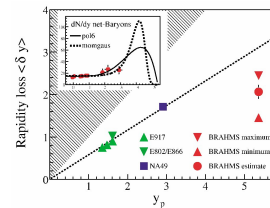
Stopping

nuclear stopping power: amount of kinetic energy lost by projectiles

⇒ stopping means that protons get shifted to midrapidity

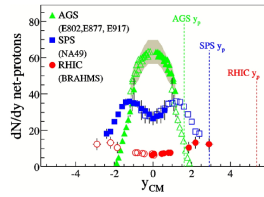


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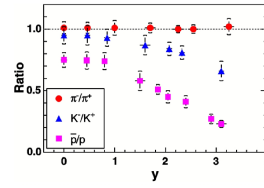


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⇒ mean rapidity shift of projectiles: $\Delta y \simeq 2$



[10]



[10]

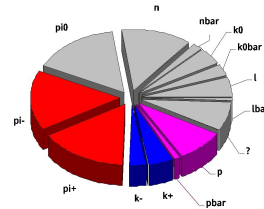
⇒ increasing beam energy we go from stopping to transparency

- valence quark part of wave function gets more and more Lorentz-contracted while sea cannot become smaller than ~ 1 fm (uncertainty principle) → collisions at high energy dominated by sea-sea interactions

Total Energy

$$E = m_{\perp} \cosh y \Rightarrow E_{\text{tot}} = \sum_{\text{species}} \int dy \frac{dN}{dy} \langle m_{\perp} \rangle \cosh y$$

particle	energy [GeV]
p	3108
$\bar{p}$	428
K^+	1628
K^-	1093
π^+	5888
π^-	6117
π^0	6004
n	3729
$\bar{n}$	513
K^0	1628
$\bar{K}^0$	1093
Λ	1879
$\bar{\Lambda}$	342



[12]

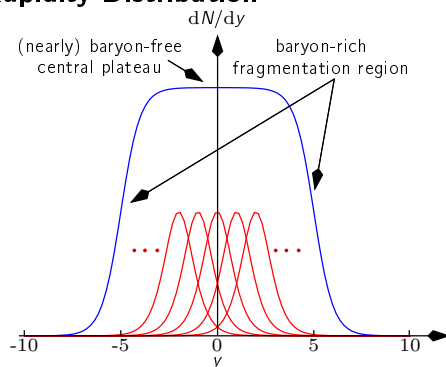
total: 33.4 TeV

$E_{\text{beam}} \cdot N_{\text{part}} = 35 \text{ TeV}$

produced: 24.8 TeV

⇒ 74 % of beam energy goes into particle production

Rapidity Distribution



- isotropic particle source at rest: $\frac{dN_1}{d \cos \vartheta} = \frac{N_{1,\text{tot}}}{2}$

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{E + p \cos \vartheta}{E - p \cos \vartheta} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \cos \vartheta = \frac{E}{p} \tanh y$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \frac{dN_1}{dy} &= \frac{dN_1}{d \cos \vartheta} \frac{d \cos \vartheta}{dy} \\ &= \frac{N_{1,\text{tot}}}{2} \frac{E}{p} \text{sech}^2 y \end{aligned}$$

- moving isotropic source: $\frac{dN_1}{dy} = \frac{N_{1,\text{tot}}}{2} \frac{E}{p} \text{sech}^2(y + y_s)$
- picture of nuclear collision: particles need proper time τ_{de} to form $\rightarrow$ time-dilated in lab frame $\gamma\tau_{\text{de}} \rightarrow$ superposition if independent moving sources
- $\frac{dN}{dy} = \int_{-y_{\text{max}}}^{y_{\text{max}}} dy' \frac{dN_1}{dy}(y + y') \propto \tanh(y + y_{\text{max}}) - \tanh(y - y_{\text{max}})$

Space-Time Picture

- particle formation time: $t = \gamma\tau_{\text{de}}$ from moment of projectile overlap at $t = 0$ and $z = 0$
- particles at rest ($\gamma = 1$) are formed at midrapidity and at $z = 0$
- moving particles are formed at higher rapidity and travel a distance $\beta/\gamma\tau_{\text{de}}$ before formation

$\Rightarrow$ Particles with high rapidity are produced at high z

$\Rightarrow$ *The rapidity is related to the point of particle emission (in coordinate space).*

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{E + p_{\parallel}}{E - p_{\parallel}} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{\gamma m + \gamma m v}{\gamma m - \gamma m v} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{t + z}{t - z} \right) = Y$$

Y : space-time rapidity

NB: We have ignored the transverse expansion.

4.3 Density

$$\text{Bjorken's density estimate: } \epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{\pi R^2 \tau_0} \left. \frac{dE_{\perp}}{d\eta} \right|_{\eta \simeq 0}$$

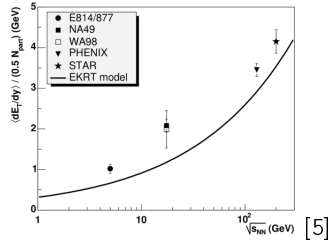
$\tau = \sqrt{t^2 - z^2}$: proper time

τ_0 : equilibration time ($\tau_0 \simeq 0.2 \dots 1 \text{ fm}$)

$\epsilon_0 = \epsilon(\tau_0)$: early energy density

$$\left. \frac{dE_{\perp}}{d\eta} \right|_{\eta=0} \simeq \left. \frac{dE_{\perp}}{dy} \right|_{y=0} = \pi R^2 \epsilon(\tau) \left. \frac{dz}{dy} \right|_{y=0} = \pi R^2 \epsilon(\tau) \tau$$

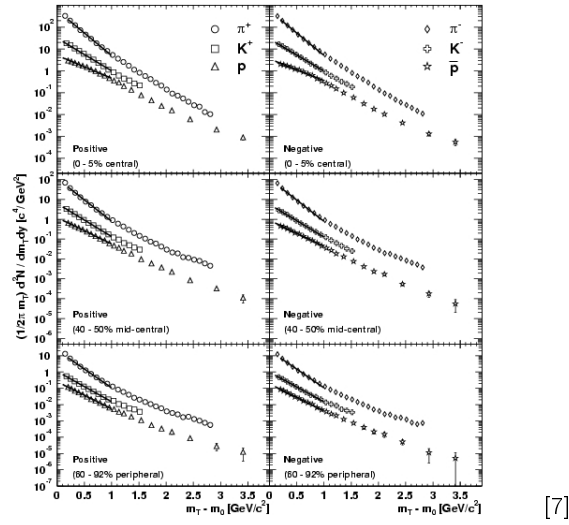
$$\epsilon \tau = \epsilon_0 \tau_0 \text{ from entropy conservation}$$



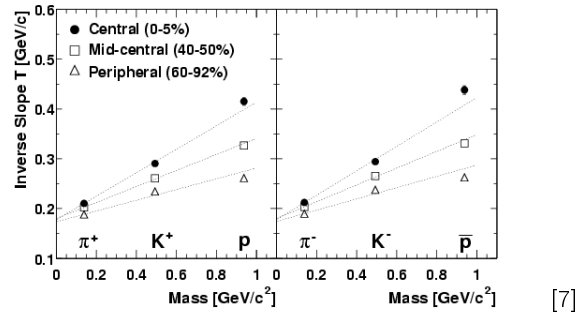
- for $\tau_0 = 1$ fm
 - AGS: $\epsilon_0 = 1.4 \text{ GeV fm}^{-3}$
 - SPS: $\epsilon_0 = 3 \text{ GeV fm}^{-3}$
 - RHIC: $\epsilon_0 = 5 \text{ GeV fm}^{-3}$
- estimated density needed to form QGP 1 GeV fm^{-3}

4.4 Transverse Expansion Velocity

thermal source: $\frac{dN}{m_\perp dm_\perp} \propto \exp\left(\frac{m_\perp - m_0}{T_{kin}}\right)$



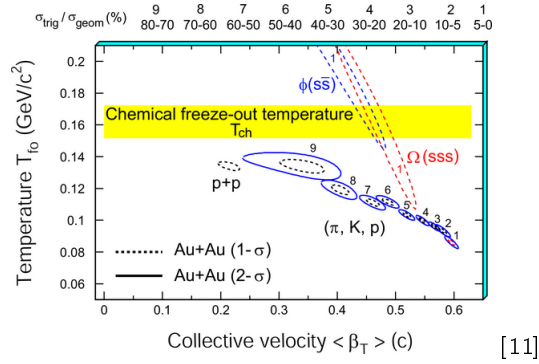
- T_{kin} : kinetic freeze-out temperature ('temperature at last interaction')
 - spectrum is exactly exponential
 - inverse slope T_{kin} depends on particle mass
- $\Rightarrow$ characteristic of transverse flow: $T_{kin}^{eff} \simeq T_{kin} + m_0 \beta_r^2 / 2$
- $\Rightarrow$ need a hydrodynamic calculation



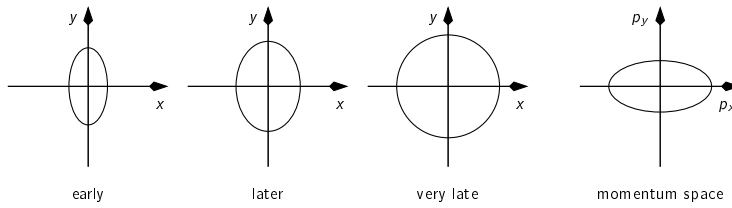
$$\frac{dN}{m_{\perp} dm_{\perp}} \propto \int_0^R r dr m_{\perp} l_0 \left(\frac{p_{\perp} \sinh \rho}{T_{kin}} \right) K_1 \left(\frac{p_{\perp} \cosh \rho}{T_{kin}} \right)$$

$$\text{with } \rho = \tanh^{-1} \beta_r \text{ and } \beta_r(r) = \beta_s \left(\frac{r}{R} \right)^n ; 0 \leq r \leq R$$

$n \approx 1$ — analogous to Hubble expansion



4.5 Equation of State

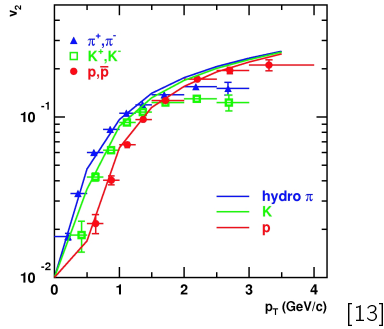


- mean free path $\ll$ system size $\rightarrow$ hydrodynamical description
- pressure gradient steeper in x -direction
- collective flow develops preferentially in x -direction
- particle distribution shows azimuthal anisotropy

- anisotropy directly sensitive to equation of state
- mostly sensitive to early times, when eccentricity is largest

$$E \frac{d^3 N}{d^3 p} = \frac{d^2 N}{2\pi p_\perp dp_\perp dy} \left(1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2v_n \cos(n\phi) \right)$$

elliptic flow: $v_2 = \langle \cos(2\phi) \rangle$

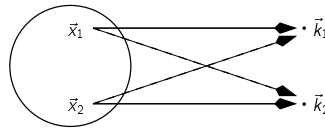


- hydrodynamic calculations with QGP EOS do good job at top SPS energies and RHIC
- suggests thermalisation and QGP formation

4.6 Spatial Extension

- Hanbury Brown - Twiss interferometry: interferometry of identical particles (originally used to determine size of stars)
- measure momenta $\vec{k}_1$ and $\vec{k}_2$ of two pions emitted from $\vec{x}_1$ and $\vec{x}_2$, respectively, at different positions
- indistinguishable particles $\rightarrow$ interference
- transition probability:

$$\begin{aligned} |\Psi_{12}|^2 &= \frac{1}{2V^2} \left| e^{-i\vec{k}_1 \cdot \vec{x}_1} e^{-i\vec{k}_2 \cdot \vec{x}_2} + e^{-i\vec{k}_1 \cdot \vec{x}_2} e^{-i\vec{k}_2 \cdot \vec{x}_1} \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{V^2} \left(1 + \cos(\Delta\vec{k} \cdot \Delta\vec{x}) \right) \end{aligned}$$



- probability of observing $\vec{k}_1$ and $\vec{k}_2$ in emission from continuous source

$$P(\vec{k}_1, \vec{k}_2) = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3 x_1 d^3 x_2 \rho(\vec{x}_1) \rho(\vec{x}_2) |\Psi_{12}|^2$$

- probability of observing a single particle with $\vec{k}_i$

$$P(\vec{k}_i) = \int d^3x_i \rho(\vec{x}_i) |\langle \vec{k}_i | \vec{x}_i \rangle|^2$$

- correlation function

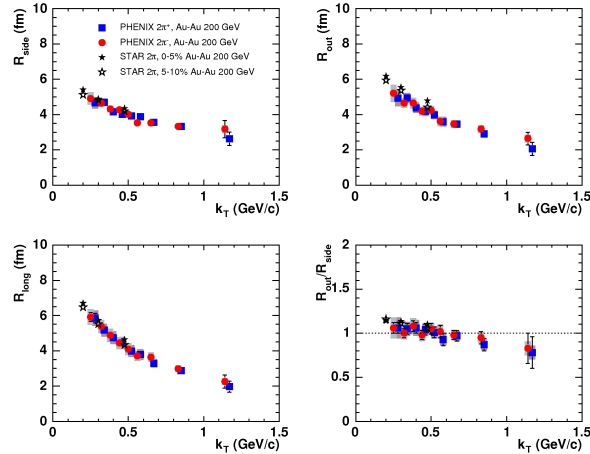
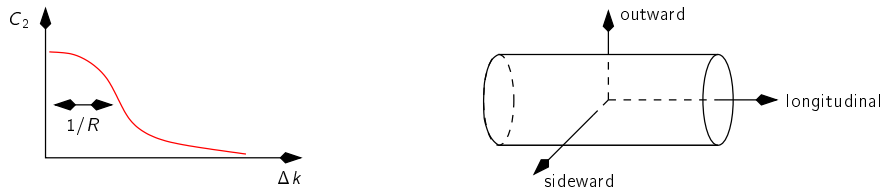
$$C_2 \equiv \frac{d^6 N}{d^3 k_1 d^3 k_2} \left(\frac{d^3 N}{d^3 k_1} \frac{d^3 N}{d^3 k_2} \right)^{-1} = \frac{2P(\vec{k}_1, \vec{k}_2)}{P(\vec{k}_1)P(\vec{k}_2)}$$

$$= 1 + |\tilde{\rho}(\Delta \vec{k})|^2$$

where $\tilde{\rho}$ is the Fourier transform of the density distribution

⇒ can infer size of source from correlation function

- in practice: fit a 3d Gaussian to data
- life is more complicated and more interesting with an expanding source
 - radii depend on transverse momentum of pair
 - $R_{\text{out}}/R_{\text{side}} > 1$ for long duration of hadron emission



[13]

- transverse rms radii larger than nuclei
 - radii decrease with pair transverse momentum
- ⇒ extended, expanding source (β_r consistent with $m_\perp$ spectra)
- $R_{\text{out}}/R_{\text{side}} \sim 1$

5 Summary

What we have learned about the properties of the hot and dense matter produced in relativistic nuclear collisions:

- low beam energies: stopping; high beam energies: transparency (proton & antiproton rapidity distributions)
- longitudinal expansion (rapidity distribution of charged particles)
- transverse expansion ($m_{\perp}$ -spectra, HBT radii, elliptic flow)
- at top SPS energies and RHIC: QGP formation (density, elliptic flow)
- early thermalisation (elliptic flow)

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