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Part 1

Experimental setup: Collider, detector and algorithms

1.1 The Large Hadron Collider

The Large Hadron Collider (LHC) [1, 2] is a particle accelerator installed in the former LEP [3] tunnel at CERN [4]. It is 26.7 km in circumference and consists out of two separate rings, which are, in periods of operation, inhabited by two counter-circulating beams. At the interaction points of the two beams, either proton-proton collisions or heavy ion collisions take place. In this thesis, only collision data from the year 2012 is analysed. Thus all machine values cited in the following chapters and paragraphs refer to the setup in 2012 (if not stated otherwise).

The beams are separated into bunches which rotate with a bunch spacing of 50 ns corresponding to a collision frequency of 20 MHz. Before the bunches are actually filled into the LHC rings they are pre-accelerated in other accelerators, which are (in the order they are actually passed by the protons) Linac2, Proton Synchrotron Booster (PSB), Proton Synchrotron (PS), Super Proton Synchrotron (SPS). The injector chain and the LHC ring with its experiments is visualised in Fig 1.1.

In the LHC, the beams are kept on the circuit with the help of a magnetic field of 4.76 T. Further quadrupole and sextupole magnets squeeze and focus the bunches. They have a spread of roughly 8 cm length and a Gaussian shape radius of 20 μm RMS at the

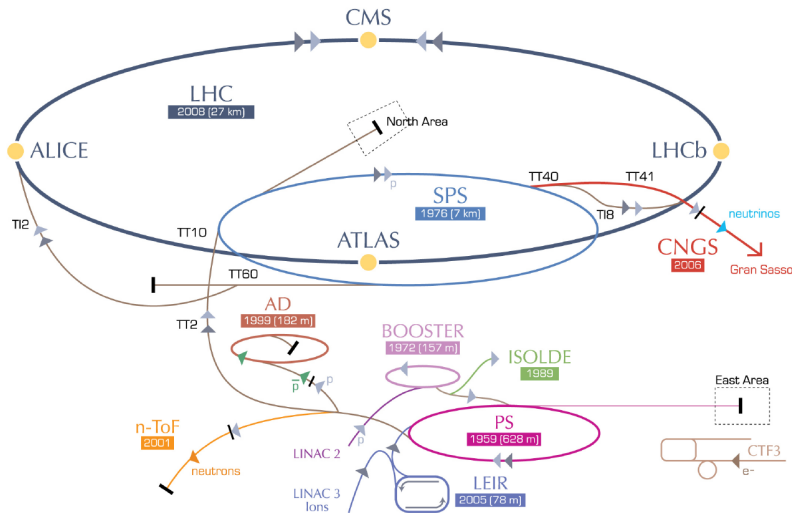


Figure 1.1: Visualisation of the LHC with its experiments and the injector chain. Taken from [5].

interaction point. The number of contained protons in each bunch is of the order 10^{11} . The LHC has eight different insertion region, where four of them are dedicated to the four main experiments of the LHC, the CMS, ATLAS, LHCb and ALICE experiments. The CMS [6,7] and ATLAS [8–10] experiments are so-called “general purpose experiments”, not designed for one specific task. In contrary, the LHCb [11] and the ALICE [12] experiment are designed with an emphasis on CP-violation measurements and heavy ion collisions, respectively. Each experiment is interested thus in different processes to happen at the beam collision points. The number of expected event for a given process can be expressed in terms of the corresponding cross section σ times the integrated luminosity.

$$N = L \cdot \sigma, \quad (1.1)$$

with an integrated luminosity of $L = \int \mathcal{L} dt$, where \mathcal{L} is the instantaneous luminosity (which can change over time).

The instantaneous luminosity \mathcal{L} depends on the several machine parameters, such as the collision frequency f , the number of particles in the bunches n_1 and n_2 , the spread in the transverse plane of the bunches σ_x and σ_y and a geometrical correction parameter F due to the crossing angle of the two bunches at the interaction point

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{f n_1 n_2}{4\pi \sigma_x \sigma_y} \cdot F. \quad (1.2)$$

In 2012, the peak luminosity was $7.7 \cdot 10^{33} \frac{1}{\text{cm}^2 \text{s}}$. The total integrated luminosity over time recorded at the CMS experiment is shown in Fig. 1.2.

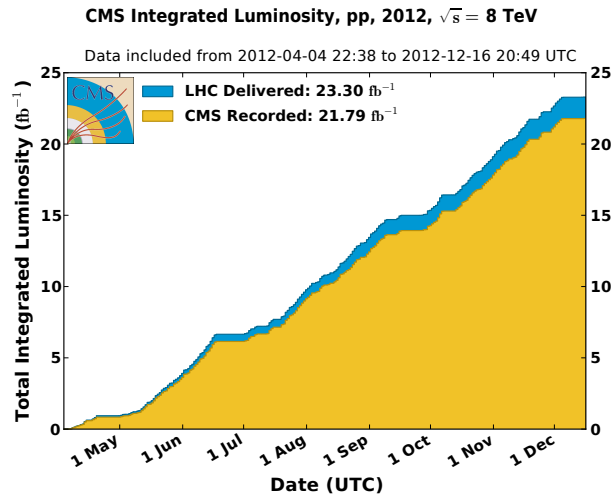


Figure 1.2: Integrated luminosity delivered by LHC (blue) and recorded by CMS (orange) in the year 2012. Taken from [13].

1.2 CMS detector

The Compact Muon Solenoid (CMS) detector [6, 7] is a general purpose detector, designed to explore particle physics phenomena up to the multi-TeV scale. The detector concept is an onion-like structure of different layers, each one made up with a different type of detector. In Fig. 1.3, a perspective view of the CMS detector is depicted. The used coordinate system at the CMS experiment consists of the pseudorapidity $\eta = -\ln \tan \frac{\theta}{2}$ and the azimuthal angle ϕ . The advantage of the pseudorapidity η is the Lorentz invariance with respect to the z-axis (beam axis). The angle ϕ covers the direction in the $x - y$ plane (orthogonal to the beam axis).

In order to measure the momentum of charged particles a superconducting solenoid is incorporated between the calorimeter system and the muon system providing a uniform axial magnet field of 3.8 T. Incorporated iron yokes contained within the muon system

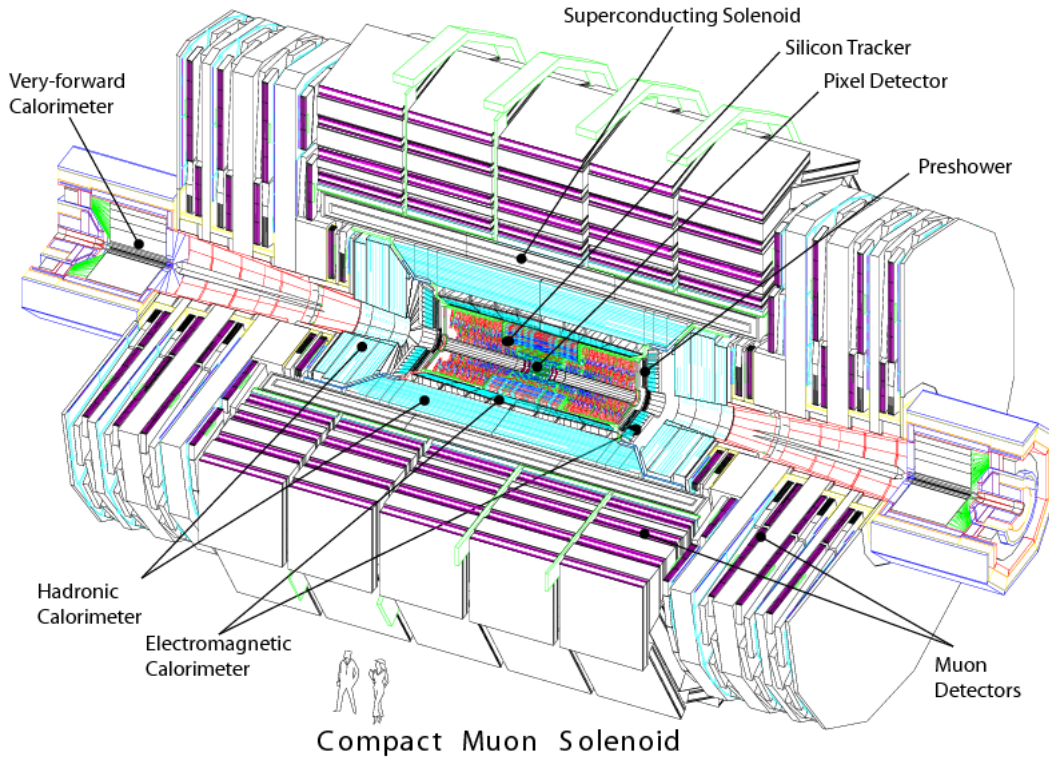


Figure 1.3: A perspective view of the CMS detector. Taken from [6]

ensure the return of the magnetic flux.

In the following, the various detector components of the CMS detector from the inside to the outside as well as the trigger system will be explained.

1.2.1 The tracking system

The tracking detector [14, 15] is the innermost detector of the CMS experiment. It is a silicon semiconductor detector and is included for the tasks of vertex and track reconstruction by the measurement of particles' energy losses. A schematic sketch of the tracker at CMS is depicted in Fig. 1.4. The tracking system is divided into two parts, the innermost tracker is a silicon pixel detector surrounded by a silicon strip detector. Both parts will be explained in detail in the following sections. As a calibration of the silicon pixel detector was performed within this PhD thesis (see Section ??), an emphasis will be put on the pixel detector.

The silicon pixel tracker

The silicon pixel detector is based on silicon semiconductor technology. How do semi-conductors work sensors The silicon pixel detector consists of three different cylindrical layers in the barrel region (at radii of 4.4 cm, 7.3 cm and 10.2 cm) and two discs in the endcaps (at z -distances of 34.5 cm and 46.5 cm) (cf. Fig. 1.4). It is made up of 1440 modules in total (barrel + endcap), each module containing 8 or 16 read-out-chips (ROCs). Each read-out-chip is bump bonded [?] to a pixel system of 52×80 pixels, that are read out in

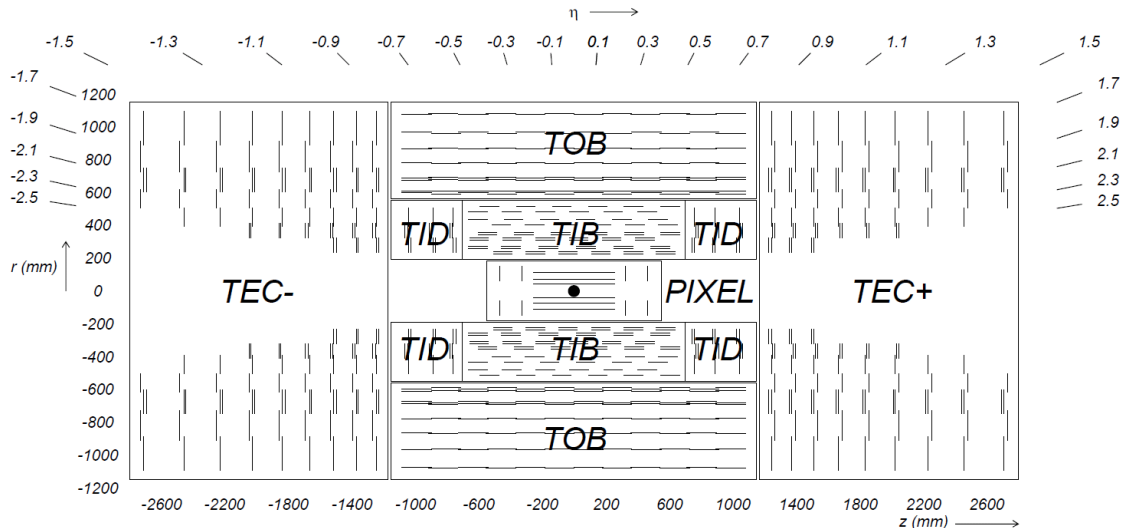


Figure 1.4: Schematic sketch of the silicon tracker at CMS in the $z - \phi$ plane. Taken from [16].

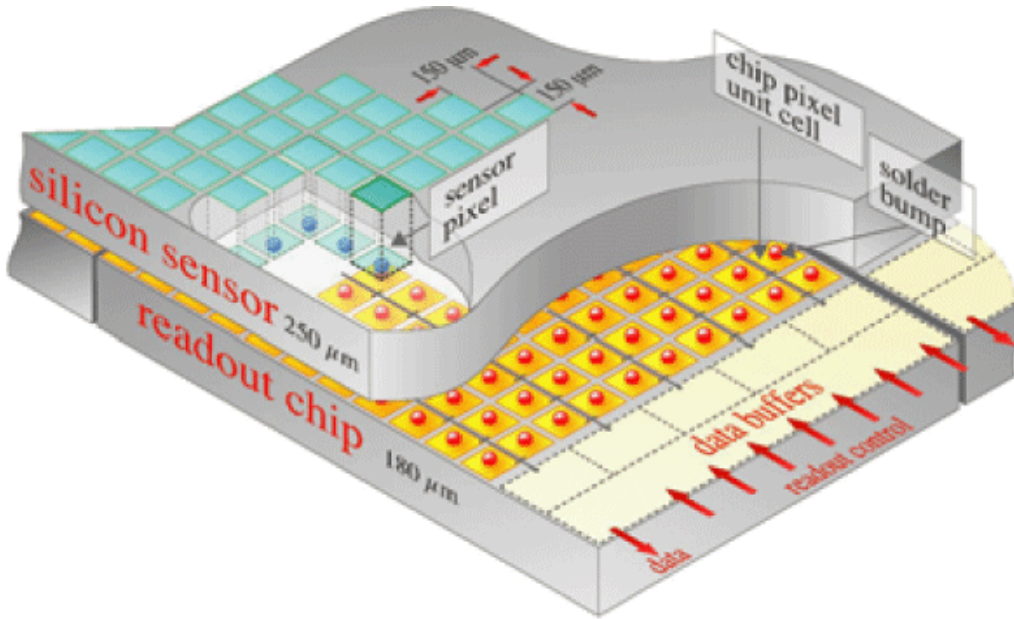


Figure 1.5: Schematic sketch of a part of a silicon pixel tracker module including the silicon sensors and the read-out-chip (ROC). Taken from [16].

double columns. A visualisation of the pixel system is shown in Fig. 1.5.

The silicon pixel detector is very important for the reconstruction of primary and secondary vertices as well as the reconstruction of particles' tracks. Therefore a high spatial resolution is needed. This is achieved by the small size of the pixels ($150 \times 100 \mu\text{m}^2$) and the exploitation of the spread of the energy deposition across several pixels (in average the energy is deposited across 2-4 pixels FIXME). Exploiting this spread across pixels, a spatial resolution of $13 \times 14 \mu\text{m}^2$ in the barrel region and $10 \times 17 \mu\text{m}^2$ in the endcaps can be achieved [?]. The high spatial resolution makes the pixel detector perfectly suited for the reconstruction of vertices and tracks.

occupancy

The reader is referred to [?] for information about the read-out electronics of the silicon pixel detector.

The silicon strip tracker

The silicon strip tracker is the next to innermost detector of the CMS experiment. It is divided into strips

Energy measurements in the tracking system

A charged particle traversing the above mentioned silicon detectors produce electron-hole pairs in the semiconducting material and thus loose energy due to ionisation. For silicon, the mean energy to create an electron-hole pair is 3.61 eV at -10°C . As minimally ionising particle loose in average an energy of about 3MeV, they release in average about 22000 electrons. Because of the applied bias voltage at the sensors in order to create a depletion zone, the released electrons travel to the The average number of electron ionised by a minimally ionising particles is about 22000 [17]. If there is a hard collision with the Huellenelektronen, These electrons reissen weitere elektronen reau and lead therefore to much more freed electron and to a tail of the. These are called delta=rays.

1.2.2 The calorimeters

The electromagnet calorimeter

The hadronic calorimeter

1.2.3 The muon system

1.2.4 The trigger system

- Tracker (Pixel tracker - silicon strip tracker - energy measurements in the tracker)
- Calorimeter - eCAL and HCAL
- Muon system
- Trigger system
- 10 pages

1.3 Event reconstruction and particle identification

Event reconstruction relies on very complicated algorithms bla

1.4 Event simulation

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