The International Linear Collider Leif Jönsson Lund University



Introduction The physics case; some examples The accelerator The detector

- the vertex detector
- the TPC
- the calorimeter

Introduction

1995: 1st DESY/ECFA Workshop series on future e⁺e⁻-colliders.

Uppsala, April 25-26, 1996: a symposium on Future Electron Accelerators and Free Electron Lasers

Lund, June 28-30, 1998 a workshop meeting in the series '2nd ECFA/DESY Study on Physics and Detectors'

2004: Important decisions:

Scientists from throughout the worldwide particle physics community have endorsed an electron-positron linear collider as the next high-energy particle accelerator.

The 12-member International Technology Recommendation Panel, chaired by Barry Barish of the California Institute of Technology, recommended that the world particle physics community adopt superconducting accelerating structures that operate at 2 Kelvin, rather than "X-band" accelerating structures operating at room temperature, as the technology choice for the internationally-federated design of a new electron-positron linear collider to operate at an energy between 0.5 and 1 TeV.

"A linear collider is the logical next step to complement the discoveries that will be made at the LHC," Aymar said. "The technology choice is an important step in the path towards an efficient development of the international TeV linear collider design, in which CERN will participate."

2004: EuroTeV, 2006: EURODET, 2009: DevDet?



The physics agenda for the ILC

- Higgs
 - The Standard Model Higgs
 - SUSY Higgs
- Non-SUSY extensions of SM
- SUSY
 - Minimal Supersymmetric Standard Model (MSSM)
 - The Minimal Supergravity model (mSUGRA)
 - Gauge-Mediated SUSY Breaking (GSMB)
 - Anomaly-Mediated SUSY Breaking (AMSB)
- Alternative theories
 - Extra Dimensions
 - Strong electroweak symmetry breaking
 - Compositness
- Precision measurements
 - Electroweak Gauge bosons
 - Extended Gauge theories
 - Top quark physics
 - Quantum Chromodynamics
 - 11/03/2008

- J.A. Aguilar-Saavedra et al., hepph/0106315
- T. Abe et al., hep-ex/0106055
- K. Abe et al., hep-ph/0109166
- G. Weiglein et al., hep-ph/0410364

Very much the same as LHC Why do we need the ILC? Key words:

- Complementarity
- Precision

General remarks

LHC:

- Large mass range for direct searches (6-7 TeV for singly produced particles, 2-3 TeV for pair produced)
- + High luminosity (10³⁴)
- + Access to coloured particles (squarks and gluinos)
- Huge QCD-background (irreducable)
- High collision frequency (25 MHz \rightarrow pile-up of events)

ILC:

- + Cleaner experimental environment
- + Initial state well defined (important for precision measurements)
- + Precision measurements give indirect sensitivity to new physics beyond LHC (typically 10 TeV)
- + High luminosity (5.10³⁴)
- + Favourable signal/background situation (reducable background)
- + Low collision frequency (can run 'triggerless')
- Beamstrahlung background

Higgs

- LHC: Direct measurement of heavier Higgs (provided the bgr is manageable) If $h \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$ accesible then $\Delta m_h \approx 200 \text{ MeV}$ Other decay channels give Δm_h much worse
- ILC: Precise measurements on light Higgs bosons



Theory: The prediction of m_h is sensitive to radiative corrections from top \Rightarrow needs Δm_t < 0.1 GeV from ILC

Higgs couplings

- Important to measure the couplings to as many particles as possible.
- Some couplings can be determined independently from different observables whereas others are partially correlated
- ⇒ Extract Higgs couplings from a global fit to the measured observables $(\sigma_{HZ}, \sigma_{Hvv}, BR(H^0 \rightarrow WW), BR(H^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma), BR(H^0 \rightarrow bb), BR(H^0 \rightarrow \tau\tau), BR(H^0 \rightarrow gg), BR(H^0 \rightarrow cc), \sigma_{ttH})$



Coupling	$M_H = 120 \mathrm{GeV}$	$140{ m GeV}$
g_{HWW}	± 0.012	± 0.020
<i>g</i> _H zz	± 0.012	± 0.013
g_{Htt}	± 0.030	± 0.061
g_{Hbb}	± 0.022	± 0.022
g_{Hcc}	± 0.037	± 0.102
$g_{H\tau\tau}$	± 0.033	± 0.048

Accuracy $\delta(X)/X$ in the measurements of Higgs couplings

The Yukawa coupling

 Since the top quark decays much faster than the typical time for top hadron formation, it provides a clean source of fundamental information. Accurate measurements of m_t, couplings (to gauge bosons and Higgs) and BR's probe possible deviations to the SM.



LHC ~ 10-30%

- ILC: the Yukawa coupling htt can only be measured with limited precision at √s = 500 GeV for a light Higgs boson (few events). At √s = 800 GeV ILC will do a good job (4-5 % accuracy)
- LHC: provides the tth production cross section ~ $g_{ttH} \times BR(h \rightarrow bb$ or $h \rightarrow W^+W^-$)
- ILC: provides precision measurements of BR's Combine LHC and ILC ⇒ Precision measurement

Higgs self-coupling

• The maybe most important measurement, after the Higgs has been established, is the Higgs-boson self coupling, which is needed for the reconstruction of the Higgs potential. Directly probed by multi-Higgs production.



 η_{H} is the physical Higgs field λ is the Higgs boson couplings



т_н < 160 GeV

LHC: Higgs pair production dominated by gluon fusion Serious background problems \Rightarrow low sensitivity ILC: $e^+e^- \rightarrow ZHH \Rightarrow$ precision on $\lambda \sim 23\%$ for a lumi of 1 ab⁻¹ $\int s = 500 \text{ GeV}$

 $m_{H} > 160 \text{ GeV}$

LHC: Higgs decay into W-pairs, SLHC gives a 20-30% measurement of λ However, to control systematic uncertainties associated with Higgs BR's and the top Yukawa coupling, information from the **ILC** is needed.

Sparticle mass spectrum



Mass determination



Mass determination

a) Edge effects:
$$\tilde{\mu}_R \to \mu + \tilde{\chi}_1^0$$

 $m_{\tilde{\ell}} = \sqrt{s} \sqrt{E_+E_-}/(E_+ + E_-)$
 $m_{\tilde{\chi}_1^0} = m_{\tilde{\ell}} \sqrt{1-2(E_+ + E_-)/\sqrt{s}}$
precision on χ_1^0 increased by $\sim 10^2$
where E₊ and E₋ are the end point energies
b) threshold excitations:
 $e^+e^- \to \tilde{\mu}_R^+ + \tilde{\mu}_R^- \to \mu^+\mu^- + E_{miss}$
 P -wave: slow β^3 rise
 $e^-e^- \to \tilde{e}_R^- + \tilde{e}_R^- \to e^-e^- + E_{miss}$
S-wave: fast β rise



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Supersymmetry

SPS1a input parameters: $M_{1/2} = 250 \text{ GeV}$, $M_0 = 100 \text{ GeV}$, $A_0 = -100 \text{ GeV}$, sign(μ) = +, tan β = 10

	$m_{\rm SPS1a}$	LHC	LC	LHC+LC		$m_{ m SPS1a}$	LHC	LC	LHC+LC
h	111.6	0.25	0.05	0.05	H	399.6		1.5	1.5
A	399.1		1.5	1.5	H+	407.1		1.5	1.5
χ_1^0	97.03	4.8	0.05	0.05	χ_2^0	182.9	4.7	1.2	0.08
χ_3^0	349.2		4.0	4.0	χ_4^0	370.3	5.1	4.0	2.3
χ_1^{\pm}	182.3		0.55	0.55	χ_2^{\pm}	370.6		3.0	3.0
\widetilde{g}	615.7	8.0		6.5					
\tilde{t}_1	411.8		2.0	2.0					
\tilde{b}_1	520.8	7.5		5.7	\tilde{b}_2	550.4	7.9		6.2
\tilde{u}_1	551.0	19.0		16.0	\tilde{u}_2	570.8	17.4		9.8
\widetilde{d}_1	549.9	19.0		16.0	\tilde{d}_2	576.4	17.4		9.8
\tilde{s}_1	549.9	19.0		16.0	\tilde{s}_2	576.4	17.4		9.8
\tilde{c}_1	551.0	19.0		16.0	\tilde{c}_2	570.8	17.4		9.8
\tilde{e}_1	144.9	4.8	0.05	0.05	\tilde{e}_2	204.2	5.0	0.2	0.2
$\widetilde{\mu}_1$	144.9	4.8	0.2	0.2	$\tilde{\mu}_2$	204.2	5.0	0.5	0.5
$\tilde{\tau}_1$	135.5	6.5	0.3	0.3	$ ilde{ au}_2$	207.9		1.1	1.1
$\tilde{\nu}_e$	188.2		1.2	1.2					

Grand Unification in mSUGRA

SPS1a input parameters: $M_{1/2}$ = 250 GeV, M_0 = 100 GeV, A_0 = -100 GeV, sign(μ) = +, tan β = 10 \Rightarrow unification at M_U = 2·10¹⁶ GeV



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Grand Unification in mSUGRA

EXC	LHC	LC	LHC+LC	SPS1a
M_1	102.5 ± 5.3	102.3 ± 0.1	102.2 ± 0.1	102.2
M_2	191.8 ± 7.3	192.5 ± 0.7	$191.8 {\pm} 0.2$	191.8
M_3	$578. \pm 15.$	\rightarrow	$588. \pm 11.$	589.4
$M_{\tilde{e}_L}$	198.7 ± 5.1	$198.7 {\pm} 0.2$	198.7 ± 0.2	198.7
$M_{\tilde{e}_R}$	138.2 ± 5.0	138.2 ± 0.05	138.2 ± 0.05	138.2
$M_{\tilde{q}_L}$	$550.\pm 13.$	\rightarrow	553.3 ± 6.5	553.7
$M_{\tilde{u}_R}$	$529.\pm 20.$	\rightarrow	$532.\pm 15.$	532.1
$M_{\tilde{d}_R}$	$526.\pm 20.$	\rightarrow	$529. \pm 15.$	529.3
A_t	$-507.\pm91.$	-501.9 ± 2.7	-505.2 ± 3.3	-504.9
μ	345.2 ± 7.3	344.3 ± 2.3	344.4 ± 1.0	344.3
aneta	10.2 ± 9.1	10.3 ± 0.3	10.06 ± 0.2	10

Accelerator

Why a linear collider ?

Energy loss per turn of a machine with an average bending radius r:

$$\Delta E/rev = \frac{C_{\gamma}E^4}{\rho}$$

Linear Collider: no bends, but lots of RF!

For a E_{cm} = 1 TeV machine: Effective gradient G = 500 GV / 15 km = 34 MV/m



Why Super Conducting RF?

- Low RF losses in resonator walls
 - (The quality factor: $Q_0 \sim RF$ power stored/RF power lost) ($Q_0 \approx 10^{10}$ compared to Cu $\approx 10^4$)
 - high efficiency $\eta_{\text{AC}} \rightarrow \text{beam}$
 - long beam pulses (many bunches) \rightarrow low RF peak power
 - large bunch spacing allowing feedback correction within bunch train.
- Low-frequency accelerating structures (1.3 GHz, for Cu 6-30 GHz) very small *wakefields* relaxed alignment tolerances -high beam stability



Wakefield: a particle going through an aperture induces charges and currents which produce electromagnetic fields (wake fields) that act on later particles

Compare to a boat travelling in a canal; waves reflected against the boarders of the canal

- Resistive wall wakefield:

due to finite conductivity of cavities

11/03/2008 Geometric wakefield: Leif Jönsson due to changes in vacuum chamber X-section

TESLA Nine-Cell 1.3GHz Cavity

1 meter length



9-cell 1.3GHz Niobium Cavity

ILC Technology Status Accelerating Structures



Possible Minor Enhancement

Low Loss Design

Small modification to cavity shape reduces peak B field.

Increase operation margin.

Increases peak E field ⊗ (field emission)

Mechanical stability ?? (Lorentz force detuning)



KEK currently producing prototypes

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Gradient versus Length

Higher gradient gives shorter linac 🙂

- cheaper tunnel / civil engineering
- less cavities
- (but still need same # klystrons)

Higher gradient needs more refrigeration 😕

- 'cryo-power' per unit length scales as G^2/Q_0
- cost of cryoplants goes up!

Simple Cost Scaling



general consensus that 35MV/m is close to optimum

However Japanese are still pushing for 40-45MV/m

30 MV/m would give safety margin

Gradient MV/m

Cryo modules





The Main Linac



10MW klystron

- 36 9-cell 1.3 GHz Niobium Cavity
- 3 Cryomodules
- 1 10 MW Multi-Beam Klystron





The ILC schematic



SCRF Linear Collider



Each linac will have: ~10,000 SCRF cavities ~830 Cryomodules ~280 10MW Klystrons ~280 Modulators ~280 LLRF modules ~350 SC Quadrupoles ~900 power supplies \sim 350 BPMs + elect. ~3 Large Cryoplants

×2!

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The Baseline Machine (500GeV)

January 2006



not to scale

ILC Reference Design - Feb 2007



Schematic Layout of the 500 GeV Machine

- Centralized injector incl. damping rings
- Single IR with 14 mrad crossing angle
- 500 GeV center of mass energy
- Dual tunnel configuration for safety and availability

Generic LC Polarized e- Source



(GaAs derivative)

SHB: Subharmonic prebunching cavities L-band: 0.5 – 1.5 GHz S-band: 2 - 4 GHz

Positron Source

- Large amount of charge to produce
- Three concepts:
 - undulator-based (TESLA TDR baseline)
 - `conventional'
 - laser Compton based

Hotly debated subject.

Undulator-Based



6D e+ emittance small enough that (probably) no pre-DR needed [shifts emphasis/challenge to DR acceptance]

Lower *n* production rates (radiation damage)

Need high-energy e- to make e+ (coupled operation) Makes commissioning more difficult

Polarised positrons (almost) for free ③

¹¹/93/2008 ensional cooling based on solendia find against surrounding RF cavities *Emittance: the spread in space and momentum space of a beam

Compton Source (KEK)



Damping ring

Radiation damping

Principle: - force the electrons to radiate synchrotron radiation, which reduces the momentum spread in all directions

- accelerate the electrons in the desired direction



Wiggler magnets: causes the electrons to oscillate transversely



Damping ring

1 ms bunch train \rightarrow 10⁻³s x 3·10⁸m/s = 300 km ring

DR Design Approaches: Example #1, the TESLA TDR lattice

5 GeV, 17 km lattice (arcs 1 km each, straights 15 km total).

Bunches spaced by 20 ns, injected and extracted individually.

Positron damping ring requires 440 m of wiggler to achieve damping time of 27 ms.



Schematic of Dogbone Damping Ring from TESLA TDR

Strengths:

- Relatively small amount of extra tunnel required.
- Large circumference reduces average current, and helps mitigate some instabilities.
- Flexibility in modes of operation (e.g. could double number of bunches)

Weaknesses:

- Large space-charge tune shift needs to be corrected using coupling-bumps.
- Sensitive to stray magnetic fields.

Fast feedback

Long bunch train ~ 3000 bunches over 1 ms \Rightarrow 337 ns between bunches Multiple feed back system will be mandatory to maintain the nanobeams in collisions



TESLA IP Feedback



Data aquisition





The Global Design Effort GDE



- 3 Regional Design Teams
- Central Group with Director
- Goal: Produce an internal full costed ILC Technical Design Report by 2008

Detector

The detector



One quadrant side view



The vertex detector

• vertexing: $\sigma_{r\phi,z}(ip) \leq 5 \,\mu \mathrm{m} \oplus \frac{10 \,\mu \mathrm{m} \,\mathrm{GeV/c}}{p \sin^{3/2} \theta}$, (1/5 r_{beampipe} , 1/30 pixel size, 1/30 thin w.r.t LHC)

Precision measurements require:

- > good angular coverage (cos θ = 0.96)
- proximity to IP, large lever arm:5 layers, radii from 15 mm to 60 mm
- > minimal layer thickness (< 0.1% X₀) to minimise multiple scattering
- mechanically stable, low mass support
- Iow power consumption



High hit density near interaction point requires:

- \succ small pixel size: 20 μ m \times 20 μ m
- Fast readout:

1. Vertex Detector

Occupancy \rightarrow pixel devices needed.

- Pixel size $\sim 20 \times 20 \mu m^2$.
- Occuancy \sim 0.3% for track matching.
- One should be able to read it out (non-trivial, as it turns out).

Candidates :

- CCD (Charge-Coupled Device)
- HAPS (Hybrid Pixel Sensors)
- MAPS (Monolithic Active Pixel Sensor), FAPS (Flexible -), Small-pixel MAPS $(5 \times 5 \mu m^2)$
- DEPFET (DEPleted Feild-Effect Transistor) SOI (Silicon On Insulator)
- ISIS (Image Sensor with In-situ Storage)

The TPC



 $rac{\sigma_p}{p^2}\sim 5 imes 10^{-5}$ is 'necessay'.

TPC as the central tracker at TESLA: Gas amplification: wires

For the drifting electron amplification several solutions are considered:



Advantages

- known technology (e.g. TOPAZ, ALEPH, DELPHI, etc...)

But

- high magnetic field
- ion feedback needs gating after every bunch crossing?
- E x B effects





The electromagnetic calorimeter

- Si-W calorimeter: (tracking calorimeter)
- Tile fibre calorimeter:

• Shashlik calorimeter:

• Scintillator strip calo:

High granularity (~ 1x1 cm²) Expensive Segmentation optimization (cost reduction)

- Modest granularity (4x4 cm²) Segmentation optimization? Fibre configuration?
- Fibres run longitudinally Longitudinal segmentation? Scintillating fibre type?
- : Orthogonally arranged
- Typical energy resolution: $\Delta E/E = 10 15\%/JE$

One of the jets in a 2-jet event at 91 GeV



The hadron calorimeter

Jet energy:
$$\frac{\sigma_E}{E} \simeq 0.30 \frac{1}{\sqrt{E(\text{GeV})}}$$

(1/200 calorimeter granularity w.r.t. LHC)

e.g: Separation of WW and ZZ

 $e^+e^- \rightarrow \nu \bar{\nu} W^+ W^-, \nu \bar{\nu} Z Z, \quad W, Z \rightarrow 2 \text{jets}$









Granularity is essential ('Imaging calorimeter') On/off read-out Digital HCAL?

 $rac{\sigma_E}{E}\simrac{0.3}{\sqrt{E}}$ is 'needed'.

The Hadron Calorimeter

Tile-fibre calorimeter



Light yield for MIP's (used for calibration): 18-25 ph.e. on photo-cathode

β -source with 1 mm collimator





Max amplitude variance ~5% for scanning along the median line (3 * 3 cm² tile)



Scanning with β -source over 6 * 6 cm² tile

Light Yield uniformity is ~ 3% except of boundaries

Test of 3 types of Photo-Detector

MA-PM -16 channels (Hamamatzu):

- best photo-detector
- cannot be operated in magnetic field.
- single tile or cell read out

Silicon photo-multiplier (SiPM):

- new detector concept, first test with beam
- sizes: 1x1mm², 1024 pixels/mm²
- gain ~ 1*10⁶ → No preamplifier needed
- quantum eff. ~ 15-20%
- single tile read out / mounted directly on tile

Avalanche photo-diode (APD,Hamamatzu S8664-55spl):

- different from those used by CERN experiments
- 3x3mm² low capacity
- · gain ~ 200 → various preamp board tested @ DESY
- quantum eff. ~ 75%
- cell read out: 3 tiles

Only for reference





SiPM

Pixels of the SiPM



Fragment of Scintillator - WLS - SiPM readout cell



MIP Calibration

→ Obtained using 3 GeV electron beam on single tile, w/o absorber in front



Energy Resolution



→ Very good agreement between PM and SiPM on the whole range 1 - 6 GeV

→Low sensitivity to constant term due to limited energy range

 → MC tuning still in progress include more effects:
 -beam energy spread
 -steal thickness tolerances

The digital hadron calorimeter

Very high granularity (~1cm²) with 1-bit read-out





Uniformity within cell 3%

Analogue/digital response for hadrons



Analogue calorimeter sum energy whereas digital calorimeter sum hits Digital calorimeter: sampling fluctuations are fluctuations in the total number of tracks crossing the sensitive planes.

Analog vs Digital Energy Resolution

GEANT 4 Simulation of SD Detector (5 GeV π⁺) -> sum of ECAL and HCAL analog signals - Analog

-> number of hits with 10 MeV threshold in HCAL - Digital



Summary

- The physics programme of both the LHC and the ILC will be very rich
- The high energy of the LHC leads to a large mass reach for the discovery of heavy new particles
- The clean experimental environment of the ILC allows detailed studies of directly acceptible new particle and gives rise to a high sensitivity to indirect effects of new physics.
- The physics at LHC and ILC is complementary in many respects

Why Super Conducting RF?

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 - high efficiency $\eta_{\text{AC}} \rightarrow \text{beam}$
 - long beam pulses (many bunches) \rightarrow low RF peak power
 - large bunch spacing allowing feedback correction within bunch train.
- Low-frequency accelerating structures (1.3 GHz, for Cu 6-30 GHz)
 - very small wakefields
 - relaxed alignment tolerances
 - high beam stability

The positron source



ILC Projected Time Line

