Study of deep–inelastic scattering events with a jet at high pseudorapidities

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To my parents.
To you.

Preface

The current understanding of the structure of matter is based on the marriage of the parton model, proposed in the late 1960's, with the idea of asymptotic freedom in nonabelian gauge theories from the early 1970's leading to the birth of quantum chromodynamics (QCD), which in the last two and a half decades has become a basic ingredient of the standard model of particle physics.

Deep–inelastic scattering (DIS) experiments where a high energetic electron (e) scatters off a proton (p) have played a key role in this development. At the beginning, they triggered the appearance of parton model ideas to explain the scaling behavior observed in the first DIS measurements done at SLAC in 1967 [1], and then, under the assumption that DIS processes factorize, allowing to test the predictions of perturbative QCD (pQCD), helping thus to establish it as the theory of the strong nuclear force [2].

Keeping up with this tradition the ep collider HERA has opened a new kinematic domain which makes it possible to test the limits of the standard pQCD evolution of partons (quarks and gluons) inside the proton (called DGLAP evolution) and offers exciting prospects in the search for processes which go beyond it. In this context A.H. Mueller proposed to look for DIS events at small x with an energetic jet at high rapidities – so called forward jet [13]. This signature was designed to mark the end of the applicability of DGLAP evolution and the set in of pQCD á la BFKL.

The present work is concerned with the measurement of this kind of events and with the analysis of their characteristics. In the first chapter the phenomenological differences between the BFKL and DGLAP approaches are introduced and used to define Mueller's proposal whose signature consist of an scattered electron at low x and a jet produced at high rapidities. Furthermore the observables measured in this work will be presented here. The second chapter describes the components of the H1 detector which are needed to measure these events. For the HERA reference frame the electron is scattered backward and the jet produced forward, allowing to measure them independently, so in this chapter and the next two, the issues related to the electron will be treated first and then those related to the forward jet. The cuts used to select the data and their experimental and/or phenomenological motivation will be explained in chapter 3. Chapter 4 deals with the understanding of the selected data, the subtraction of the background, the estimation of the errors and how the data is corrected for detectors effects. The corrected cross sections of the measured observables introduced in chapter 1 will be shown in chapter 5 and they will be confronted to expectations from Monte Carlo models and analytical calculations. A short summary concludes this work

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Chapter 1

Introduction

After a brief historical review, the idea of deep–inelastic scattering (DIS) experiments is presented along with the definition of some kinematic variables. Next, the main phenomenological features of leading log (LL) approximations of perturbative quantum chromodynamics (pQCD) are explained and used to discuss experimental signatures to look for at HERA; especially A.H. Mueller's proposal of DIS events with an energetic jet at high pseudorapidity – a so called forward jet, which are the subject of this work.

1.1 The quest for fundamental particles

The idea that matter is formed out of a few basic building blocks and forces which hold them together had its origin in philosophical speculations and has established itself through the history of modern science (see table 1.1) as a cornerstone of our understanding of the structure of matter.

The standard model, which is the current paradigm to explain nature at a fundamental level, is a quantum field theory where the view that two types of components – particles and forces – are enough to describe all the material world is realized through fermionic and bosonic fields respectively (see table 1.2).

There is an important difference between the fermionic fields for leptons and quarks: the former can be observed as free particles – for example electrons and positrons – but

Models	**Building Blocks**	**Forces**
Democritus	∞ Atoms	Mechanic
Aristotle	4 Elements	Mixture
Chemistry	$\mathcal{O}(100)$ Elements	Electricity
Standard Model	12 Fermions	13 Bosons

Table 1.1: Examples of fundamental forces and building blocks of matter through history. Neither Democritus nor Aristotle, had a concept for a force – at least not in today's sense – to hold the basic building blocks together. Nevertheless from our current perspective the idea that the atoms were held together via hooks (Democritus) corresponds to a mechanical force, while for Aristotle by mixing in different proportions and quantities of the basic elements the observed diversity of material objects was attained.

Fields		
Fermions		Bosons
Leptons	Quarks	
e, μ, τ	u, c, t	γ, Z^0, $W^\pm$
ν_e, ν_μ, ν_τ	d, s, b	8 gluons, H

Table 1.2: The fields of the Standard Model.

the latter, due to the nonabelian nature of the strong interaction, can not, i.e. they are *confined*, appearing only in the form of hadrons, which are bound states composed of two or three valence quark fields – for example the proton consists of one down and two up valence quark fields.

1.2 Deep–inelastic scattering experiments

What structure do hadrons have? How are their constituents distributed? What holds them together? Deep–inelastic scattering (DIS) experiments approach these questions using a leptonic probe on the hadron under study. They are made to collide at high energies such that the boson which mediates the interaction carries enough momentum to resolve the partonic structure of the hadron, kicking off one of its quarks, who due to confinement produces particles – this process is called hadronization – which are then detected.

Collider experiments have almost a 4π coverage in the laboratory reference frame and when looking for DIS events their task is first to find the scattered lepton (or lack of it in the case of neutrinos) used as a probe, and then to detect all other particles and use them to perform detail studies of the structure of the hadron.

The present analysis considers the case where the lepton is an electron or a positron[1], the hadron is a proton and the boson which mediates the interaction is a photon. Figure 1.1 shows an schematic representation of such DIS process.

In HERA there is a redundancy in the measurement of kinematic variables and they can be determined through different methods [3, 4, 5]. The present analysis used the electron method, because it offers the best resolution for the kinematic region studied here. In this method the measured energy E_e and polar angle θ_e of the scattered lepton are used along with the energies of the incoming proton p_0 and electron k_0 to determine the kinematic variables according to (*cf.* fig. 1.1):

- Total energy in the ep center of mass system:

$$\begin{aligned} s &= (k_\mu + p_\mu)^2 \\ &= 4k_0 p_0. \end{aligned} \tag{1.1}$$

[1]Both were used at HERA during 1994, but for this analysis there is no difference between them, so in the following the terms electron, positron and lepton will be used interchangeablely

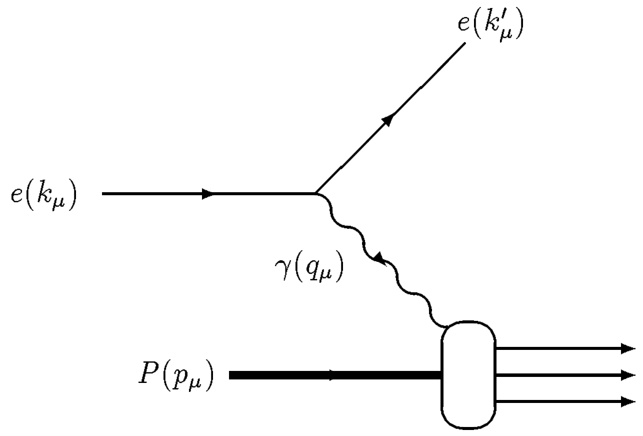


Figure 1.1: Schematic representation of a DIS process. The incoming lepton with momentum k_μ interacts with the hadron P(p_μ) through a boson $\gamma(q_\mu)$ and is scattered with momentum k'_μ.

- Square of the transferred four momentum:

$$\begin{aligned} Q^2 &= -q_\mu q^\mu \\ &= -(k_\mu - k'_\mu)^2 \\ &= 4E_e k_0 \cos^2(\frac{\theta_e}{2}). \end{aligned} \tag{1.2}$$

- Energy transferred in the proton rest frame:

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \frac{pq}{pk} \\ &= 1 - \frac{E_e}{k_0}\sin^2(\frac{\theta_e}{2}). \end{aligned} \tag{1.3}$$

- Fraction of the longitudinal momentum of the proton carried by the struck quark in the naive quark–parton model, normally called x–Bjorken:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \frac{Q^2}{2pq} \\ &= \frac{Q^2}{sy}. \end{aligned} \tag{1.4}$$

In equations (1.1) to (1.4) the masses of the electron and the proton have been neglected. The convention adopted here is to measure polar angles with respect to the proton direction which defines the z–axis. Small (big) polar angles define the forward (backward) direction. Given that at HERA s is fixed, only two of these variables are independent. It is common practice to choose x and Q^2 to describe DIS.

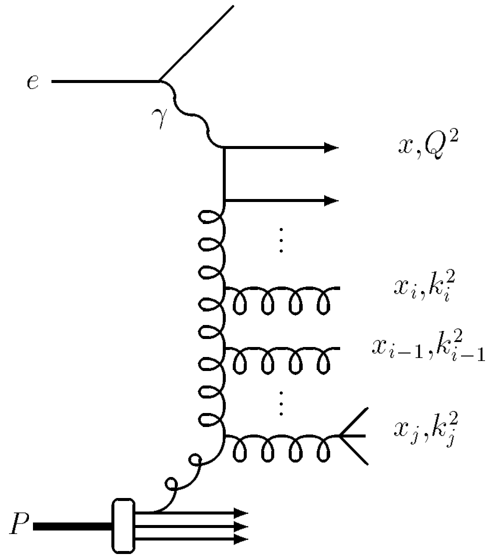


Figure 1.2: Ladder representation of a DIS process. The longitudinal and the square of the transverse momenta of parton i are labeled by x_i and k_i^2 respectively

1.3 Leading log approximations

To treat DIS from the theoretical point of view, its necessary to use a factorization theorem [6] to separate the nonperturbative part of the process which has to be provided by experiments in the form of parton distributions in x and Q^2, from the hard part which can be approximately calculated using pQCD either in the form of matrix elements (ME) obtained by operator product expansion (OPE) techniques [7] or parton showers (PS) from a parton evolution prescription [10, 11].

To date the ME can only be calculated to the first very few orders and they have to be completed with PS which sum all orders, but consider only (next to) leading logarithmic terms in the expansion variable. Using a physical gauge DIS process in a leading log (LL) approximation can be represented in pQCD by ladder diagrams like the one shown in figure 1.2 (see for example pages 32 to 34 in ref. [8]), where the quark box on top is calculated within the OPE formalism and the ladder itself comes from the evolution of the parton distributions inside the proton at a given initial scale x_0, Q_0^2 to the x and Q^2 of the interaction.

Summed Terms	DGLAP	BFKL
$(\alpha_s \ln \frac{1}{x} \ln Q^2)^n$	Yes	Yes
$(\alpha_s \ln Q^2)^n$	Yes	No
$(\alpha_s \ln \frac{1}{x})^n$	No	Yes

Table 1.3: Considered terms in LL resummations of pQCD.

There are two approaches to LL pQCD[2]: DGLAP[10] and BFKL [11]. They sum different terms of the perturbative series (see table 1.3), thus they are also often referred to as the LL Q^2 or LL $1/x$ approximations. Both are based on evolution equations of the general form

$$\frac{\partial f(a,b)}{\partial \log a} = \int da' \mathcal{K}(a,a') f(a',b), \tag{1.5}$$

where the kernel $\mathcal{K}$ gives the prescription to take the parton distribution f from the point (a', b) to (a, b). As any integro–differential equation they need a boundary condition. This boundary condition is not known from the theory and it has to be given by the experiment in a coordinate a_0 for the whole range in b. The problem is that experiments have only measured part of the available phase space, so extrapolations based on parameterizations or in some theoretically motivated *Ansatz* have to be used, introducing therefore an uncertainty on the pQCD predictions.

From the phenomenological point of view there is a characteristic behavior for each of these two formalisms that may allow to distinguish one from the other. The following differences between them [12, 13] will be used in the course of this investigation (*cf.* fig. 1.2):

- Ordering of the longitudinal momenta of the partons along the ladder.
  - DGLAP: $x_i < x_{i-1}$.
  - BFKL: $x_i \ll x_{i-1}$.
- Ordering of the square of the transverse momenta of the partons along the ladder.
  - DGLAP: $k_i^2 \gg k_{i-1}^2$.
  - BFKL: $k_i^2 \sim k_{i-1}^2$.
- Range of applicability.
  - DGLAP: medium to high x.
  - BFKL: very small x.

These differences are summarized in table 1.4. The numerical meaning of very small x is not precise, so its not clear when DGLAP should cease to be applied and BFKL effects would start to set in. Fixed target experiments have reached $x \sim \mathcal{O}(10^{-3})$ and calculations using the DGLAP equations have been quite successful in describing the measured data for a variety of observables. On the other hand HERA has opened a completely new kinematic domain reaching values of x several orders of magnitude smaller than in fixed target experiments (see figure 1.3). Therefore the natural question is if the onset of the BFKL paradigm can be detected at HERA.

[2]There is a third approach which in the appropriate limits reproduces the other two [9]. This third option will not be discussed here further, because this work concentrates on the phenomenological differences between the BFKL and the DGLAP approaches.

BFKL	DGLAP
$x_i \ll x_{i-1}$	$x_i < x_{i-1}$
$k_i^2 \sim k_{i-1}^2$	$k_i^2 \gg k_{i-1}^2$
$x \ll 1$	$x < 1$

Table 1.4: Phenomenological differences between the BFKL and the DGLAP approaches

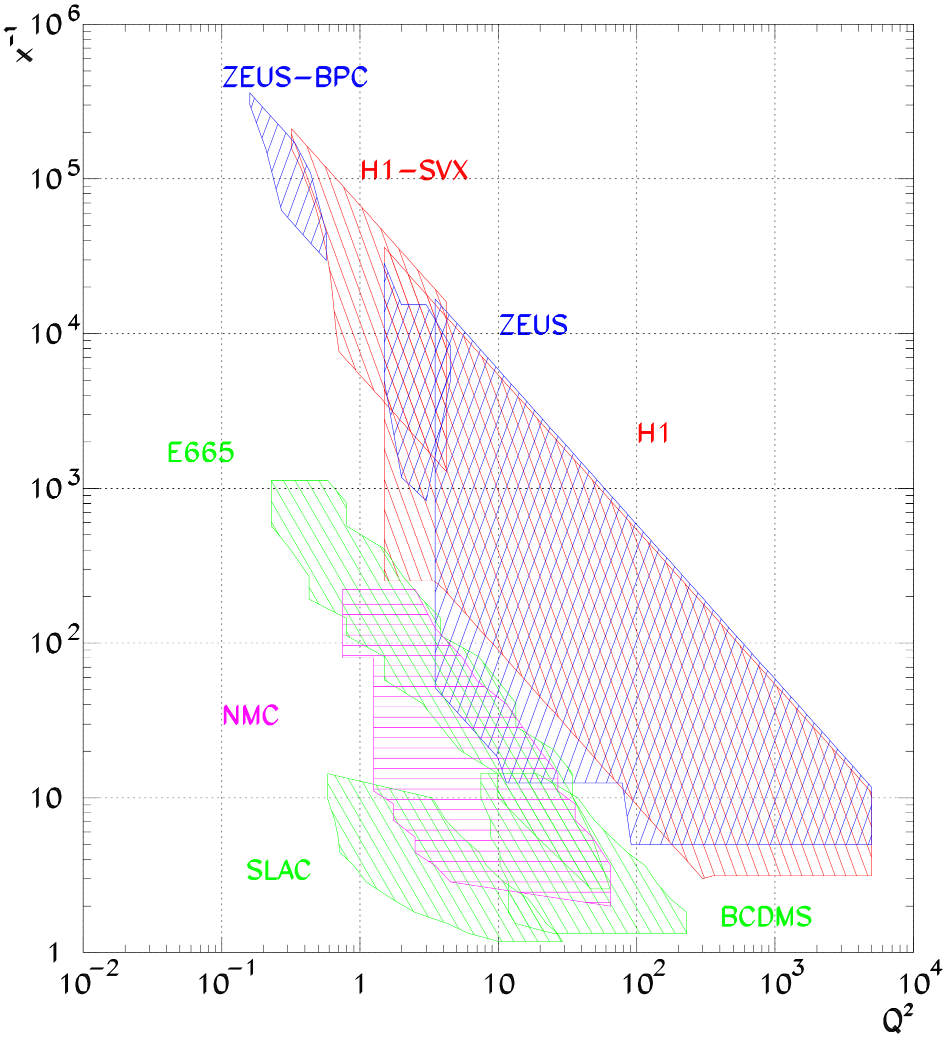


Figure 1.3: Kinematic reach of HERA experiments, H1 and ZEUS, compared to the fixed target experiments E665, NMC, SLAC and BCDMS. The labels H1–SVX and ZEUS–BPC stand for dedicated methods used by the H1, respectively ZEUS, collaborations to extend their kinematic reach.

1.4 Leading log $1/x$ signatures at HERA

Using the phenomenological behavior summarized in table 1.4, three footprints of BFKL dynamics will be discussed in the following subsections. The most inclusive one, corresponding to look only at the upper part of figure 1.2, is just to measure the dependence on x of the total cross section, or equivalent of F_2 (see for example [14, 15]). Another possibility is to look at the transverse energy (E_T) flow along the ladder and the third option is to perform an exclusive measurement selecting DIS events with a jet at high pseudorapidities.

1.4.1 Rise of F_2 at low x

At low x the most dominant parton distribution is that of the gluon $g(x, Q^2)$ which from the point of view of evolution equations is expected to have the following behavior:

BFKL Solving the evolution equation for fixed running coupling $\overline{\alpha_s}$ leads to

$$xg(x, Q^2) \sim x^{-\lambda} \tag{1.6}$$

where

$$\lambda = \frac{12 \ln(2)}{\pi} \overline{\alpha_s} \tag{1.7}$$

with a typical value of $\lambda = 0.5$. If the running coupling effects are taken into account the exponent λ has to be calculated numerically yielding slightly lower values which are dependent upon a infrared cutoff [16, 17, 18, 19].

DGLAP Here there are two schools of thought: Parametrizations and dynamical generation.

Parametrization: These groups parameterize input parton distributions at a given scale, say $Q_0^2 = 4$ GeV^2 using all existing data[3] and then extrapolate to new kinematic domains. They expect the same functional form as in equation 1.6 with either $\lambda \approx 0$ or $\lambda \approx 0.5$ depending on the use of conventional ($xg(x, Q_0^2) \sim$constant) or BFKL inspired ($xg(x, Q_0^2) \sim x^{1/2}$) initial gluon distribution [22, 23].

Dynamical generation: This is the GRV approach which postulate theoretically motivated parton distributions at $Q_0^2 = 0.3$ GeV^2 [24]. Their gluon distribution for x tending to zero and Q^2 tending to infinity generates a form [25]

$$xg(x, Q^2) = \exp\left[\sqrt{\frac{144}{33 - 2N_f} \ln\left(\frac{\ln(Q^2/\Lambda_{QCD}^2)}{\ln(Q_0^2/\Lambda_{QCD}^2)}\right) \ln\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)}\right] \tag{1.8}$$

[3]The newest parameterizations of the CTEQ ($Q_0^2 = 0.5$ GeV^2) [20] and MRS ($Q_0^2 = 1$ GeV^2) [21] groups use a lower initial value of Q_0^2.

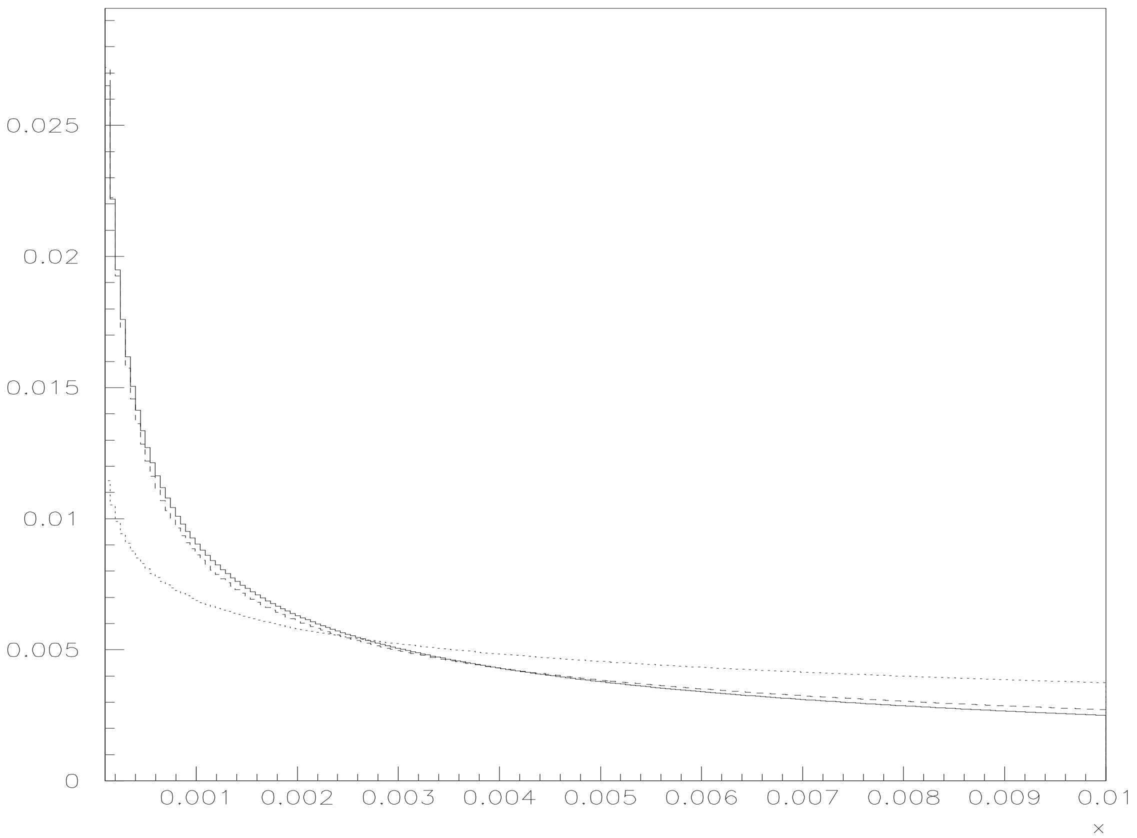


Figure 1.4: Shape of $xg(x,Q^2)$ at small x according to the GRV approach (equation 1.8) for $Q_0^2 = 0.3$ GeV^2 and $Q^2 = 20$ GeV^2 (solid line), and for $Q_0^2 = 5.0$ GeV^2 (dotted line) compared to the BFKL expectation (equation 1.6) for $\lambda = 0.5$ (dashed line). Each curve was normalized to one to compare their shapes. The values used are for N_f=5 and $\Lambda_{QCD} = 0.2$ GeV.

where N_f is the number of flavors involved in the process. Note that because the Q^2 evolution is started at so small scale Q_0^2, there is enough phase space to generate partons, and this equation produces within the HERA kinematic range a slope of the gluon distribution about that predicted by the BFKL scheme (equation 1.6) as shown in figure 1.4.

The first results from HERA [26, 27, 30] showed a rise of F_2 for decreasing x ruling out the extrapolations based on a $\lambda \sim 0$ and being consistent with BFKL inspired models and the DGLAP prediction á la GRV. The ZEUS and H1 collaborations have refined their results increasing their precision and the number of measured bins in the (x, Q^2) plane reporting an excellent agreement with expectations based on DGLAP [28, 29]. For example the H1 collaboration has produced a parameterization of its data plus fixed target experiment results [29], based on next to leading log DGLAP evolution which describes the measurements perfectly over several orders of magnitude in x and Q^2. Furthermore this fit was performed using only data with $Q^2 > 5$ GeV^2 and the backward evolution

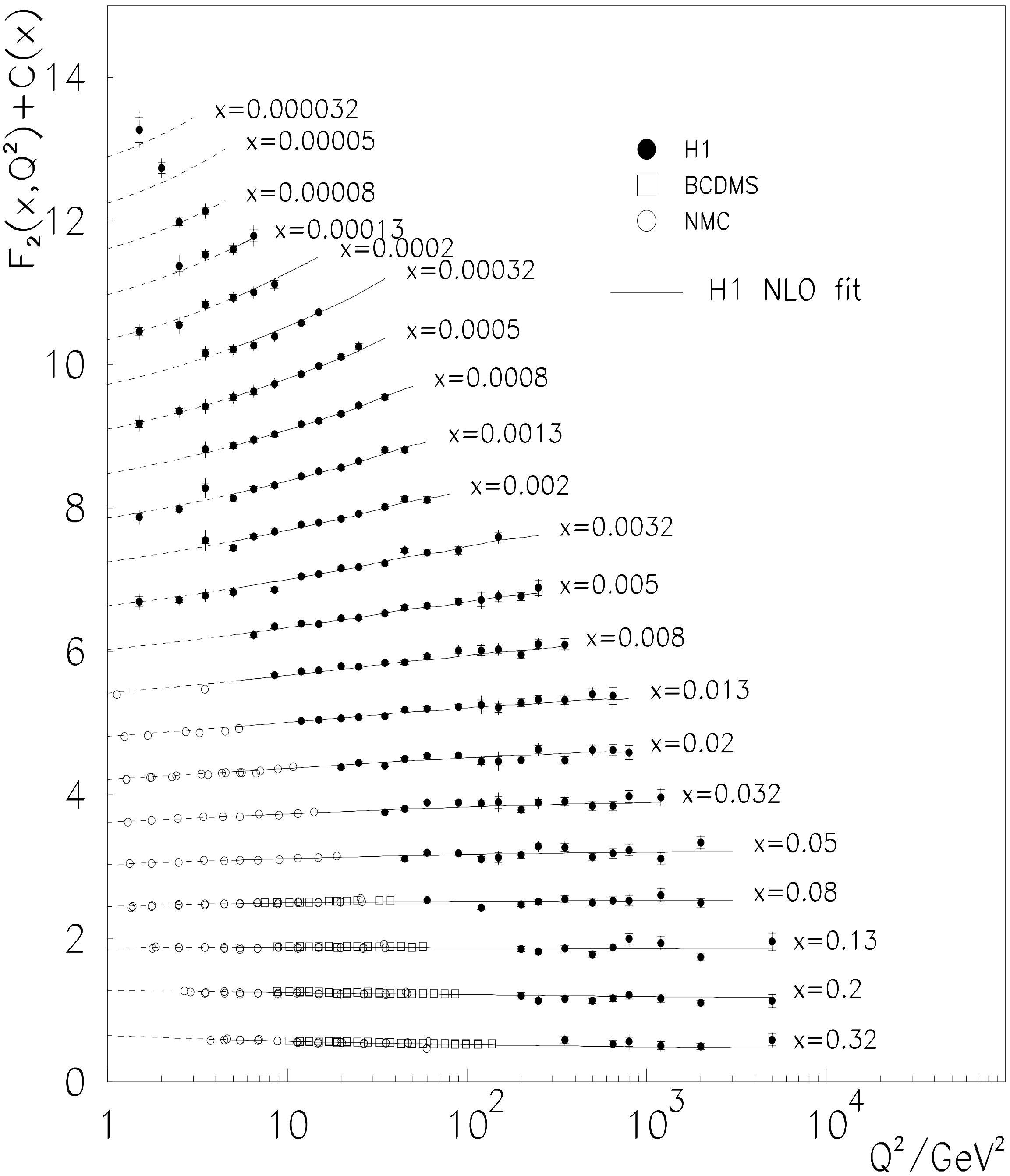


Figure 1.5: H1 and fixed target data on F_2. The full line corresponds to the H1 fit based on next to leading order DGLAP equations. The extension of the curves below 5 GeV^2 (dashed line) represents the backward evolution of the fit. The F_2 values are plotted in a linear scale adding a constant $c(x) = 0.6(i - 0.4)$ where i is the x bin number starting at $i = 1$ from $x = 0.32$. [29].

from this scale describes perfectly the data below $Q^2 = 5$ GeV^2 as shown in figure 1.5.

It has recently been shown that a pure BFKL approach is not enough to describe the new HERA data [31]. So in spite of the success of BFKL inspired models to reproduce the first HERA results, given the current error bars only the DGLAP approach describes the behavior of F_2.

1.4.2 E_T flow

Due to the difference between the ordering of the square of the transverse momenta along the ladder in the DGLAP and BFKL cases (see table 1.4) the measurement of the E_T flow between the struck quark and the remnant was thought to be a good candidate to discriminate between both formalisms. There were two observables proposed. The pure E_T flow, i.e. the measurement of the amount of transverse energy per unit of pseudorapidity η, defined for a four vector p_μ as[4]

$$\begin{aligned}\eta &= \frac{1}{2}\ln\left(\frac{|p|+p_z}{|p|-p_z}\right)\\ &= -\ln\left(\tan\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)\right), \end{aligned} \tag{1.9}$$

where θ is the polar angle of the object having momentum p_μ. As the pseudorapidity is related to the longitudinal momentum of the parton i in the ladder (for large pseudorapidity $\eta_i = \ln(x_i/x)$) it was expected that for large x_i and small x the total E_T would be larger for the BFKL than for the DGLAP case [36]. The other observable consisted in averaging the E_T in a central bin in pseudorapidity in the hadronic center of mass system (corresponding to the forward direction – large pseudorapidities – in the HERA frame) and looking at its x dependence for fixed Q^2: the bigger x is, the less remaining phase space for BFKL evolution and thus the less E_T, meanwhile for the DGLAP case there is not much change (the ordering in the longitudinal momentum along the ladder is softer; see table 1.4) and analytical calculations show that indeed, for the DGLAP case the average E_T for fixed Q^2, in contrast to the BFKL behavior, increases slightly with increasing x [36].

In 1994 the H1 collaboration published its measurement of E_T flows as a function of pseudorapidity η [32]. The data were presented for two ranges in x (see figure 1.6) and compared to different Monte Carlo (MC) generators (see section 4.1) with the conclusion that the DGLAP based MCs (labels MEPS and HERWIG in the figure) do not describe the data especially for the lowest x bin and the only MC which followed the data was ARIADNE [33] (label CDM) which it is based on a color dipole model (CDM). This model has been claimed to be a kind of effective BFKL model [34, 35], because it does not have a strong ordering in the square of the transverse momenta of the radiated partons.

[4] The rapidity $y = \frac{1}{2}\ln((E+p_z)/(E-p_z))$ has the property that it changes only in a constant factor when a Lorenz transformation along the z axis is applied to it. Thus differences of rapidities are in this case invariant. For massless objects rapidity and pseudorapidity are equivalent.

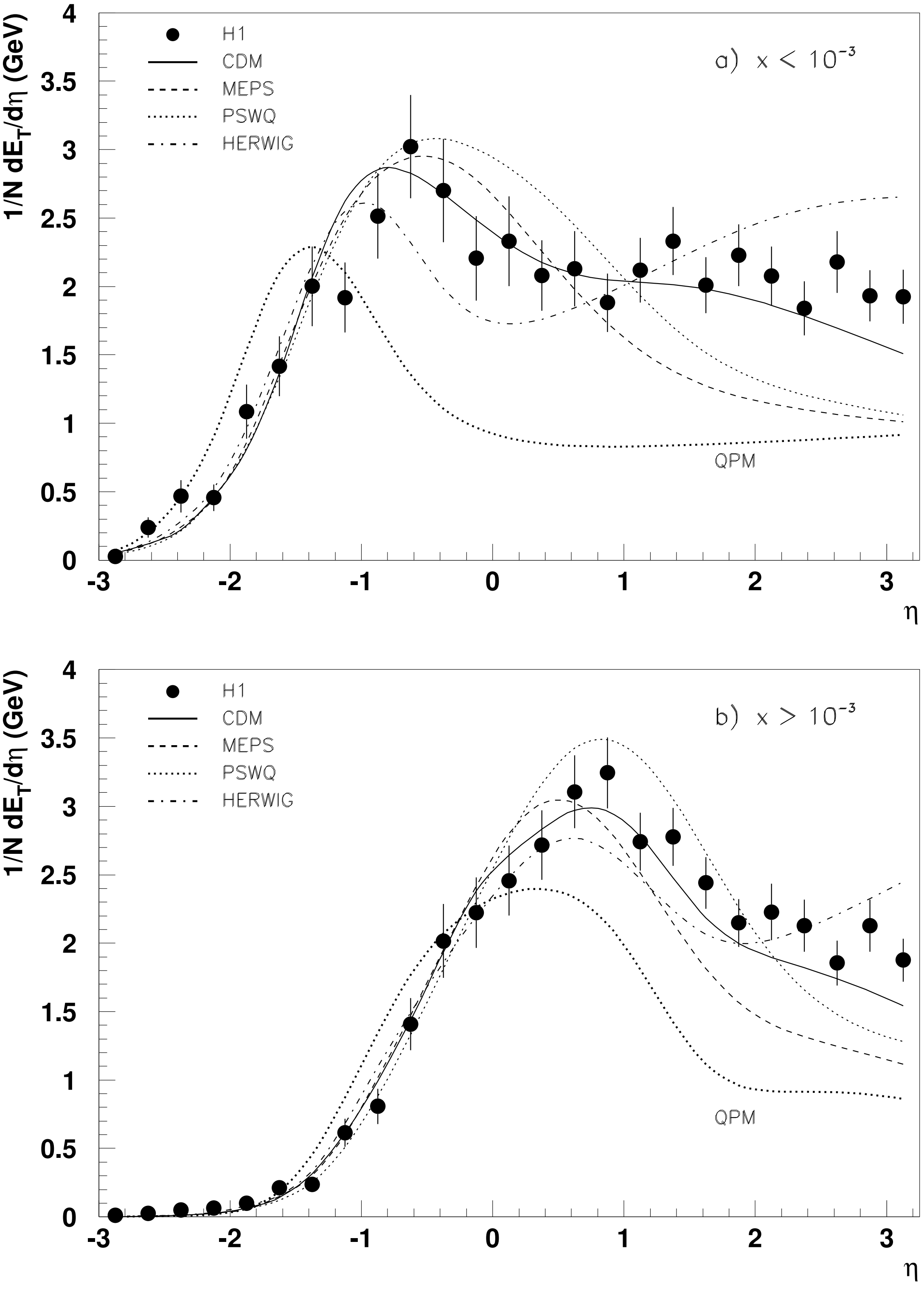
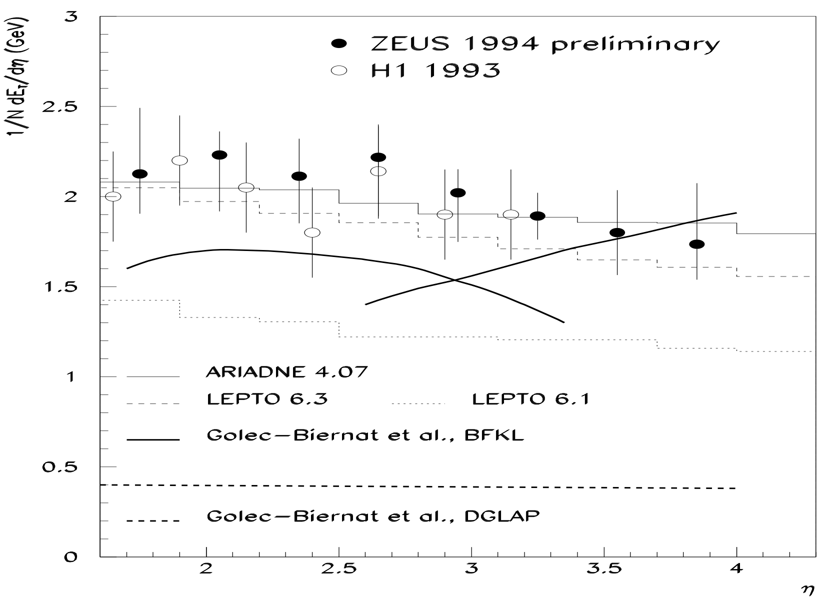


Figure 1.6: E_T flow as a function of pseudorapidity for two ranges in x measured by the H1 collaboration [32] compared to different MC predictions: CDM [33], MEPS, PSWQ [39] and HERWIG [83].



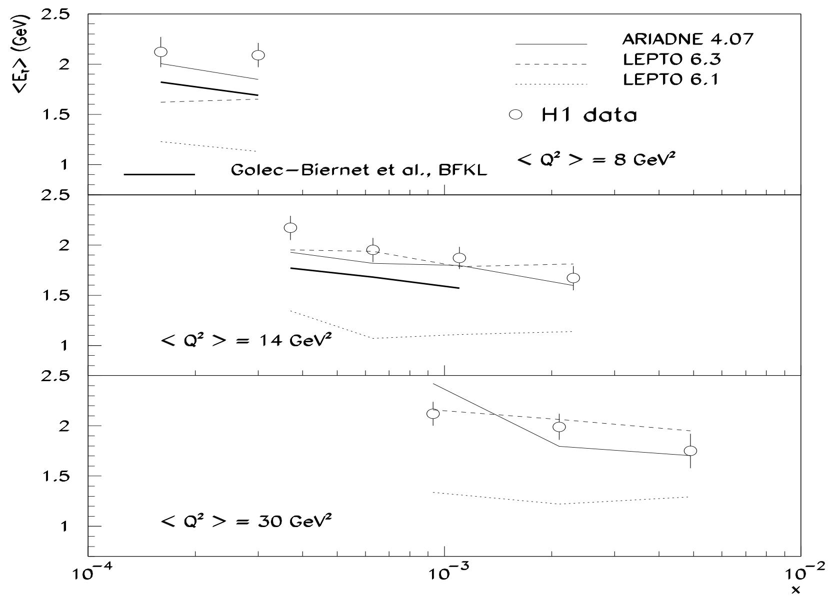


Figure 1.7: The two E_T flow observables defined in the text measured by the H1 collaboration against different MC predictions in particle level and analytical calculations in parton level [36, 37, 38].

Simultaneously analytical calculations for both cases were presented [36] supporting a BFKL explanation of the measured E_T flow. Here should be stressed that these calculations are done at parton level, i.e. don't include hadronization effects, so to compare them directly to the measured data which are corrected only for detector effects, is somewhat arbitrary and prevents drawing strong conclusions. Another point to stress is that these calculations are only valid in the middle of the ladder, and can be performed approaching from the remnant side or from the struck quark side, causing an uncertainty in the prediction (see solid line in the upper plot of figure 1.7). The results for the second observable mentioned above (the measurement of the x dependance of the average transversal energy in a pseudorapidity between -0.5 and 0.5 in the hadronic center of mass system) also showed (see lower plot of figure 1.7) that the CDM and BFKL calculations followed the data, whereas the DGLAP based MCs did not [36, 37, 38].

But there have been developments in the area of MCs which allowed a better description of the measured data. An example is the DGLAP based LEPTO MC [39] (also labeled MEPS in figure 1.6) which shows a greatly improved behavior from version 6.1 to 6.3 [40]. The behavior of both versions of LEPTO, the analytical calculations and the data are depicted in figure 1.7. The change in the predictions of LEPTO from version 6.1 to version 6.3 are mainly due to the new sea quark treatment (see section 4.1).

The fact that MCs could show such a dramatic change in its predictions of E_T flows without touching their implementation of the DGLAP equations weakened the implications of the analytical calculations and posed the question of the suitability of this observable to discriminate between the BFKL and DGLAP approaches.

1.4.3 Forward jets in DIS events

Sometime ago A.H.Mueller proposed [13] to look at DIS events with one jet (which should not be the current jet coming from the struck quark) fulfilling the following characteristics (*cf.* fig. 1.2):

- x_j large: This requirement enables the use of parton distribution in a domain where they have already been experimentally measured, reducing thus one of the biggest theoretical sources of uncertainty from the measurement. For the HERA reference frame this requirement also means that the jet is produced forward, hence the name for these events.
- x small: Selecting the smallest x–Bjorken experimentally possible helps in going away from the DGLAP regime and trying to come close to the range of BFKL applicability. Also together with the previous requirement makes available enough phase space for BFKL evolution.
- $k_j^2 \sim Q^2$: This selection suppresses DGLAP ladders because of the strong ordering, $k_i^2 \gg k_{i-1}^2$, without affecting the BFKL condition $k_i^2 \sim k_{i-1}^2$. It also keeps the theoretical calculations outside the dangerous infrared zone, providing cut off independent predictions.

As both formalisms require an ordering in longitudinal momenta, these criteria select events with one hard scale at the top of the ladder (Q^2), a hard scale at the bottom (k_j^2), and a big longitudinal phase space ($x \ll x_j$), providing a well defined experimental signature and a clear perturbative process for the calculation of theoretical predictions [41, 42, 43, 44, 45]. In particular the authors of [45] have performed their calculations precisely taking into account the selection criteria used in this analysis.

1.5 Measurements presented in this work

Here the following observables will be studied in the frame of the forward jet proposal of A. H. Mueller:

- As already pointed out the smaller the x reached the closer to the region where BFKL effects are expected and the farther away from the range of validity of the DGLAP approach (see table 1.4). The first measurement here presented consists thus in studying the behavior of the cross section as x varies. Due to the suppressed phase space in DGLAP with respect to BFKL a difference in rate between both cases is expected [45]. The H1 collaboration has already published the first measurement of this observable [38] using data taken in 1993 and preliminary results of the analysis using data taken in 1994 [46]. The present study continues this effort with increased statistics which allowed the selection of cuts closer to the philosophy of Mueller's proposal and also permitted to have a finer binning in x. Furthermore this observable is presented for the first time for different bins in the jet energy – equivalent to x_j – and in the amount of energy between the scattered lepton and the forward jet. The stability of the result for different hardness of the forward jets is also presented.

- Due to the different ordering of the squared of the transverse momentum of the radiation along the ladder for the DGLAP and BFKL cases, it is expected that the naive quark–parton model correlation between the azimuthal angles of the scattered lepton and the forward jet is weaker for the latter evolution prescription than for the former [45]. The measurement of this observable is here for the first time presented. Also studies of its dependence on the amount of energy between the scattered lepton and the forward jet and its dependence on x are shown.

- Finally and also for the first time the cross section for events having two forward jets is presented along with some comments on the behavior of such events.

Chapter 2

The H1 detector

The signature proposed by Mueller consist first of a neutral current (NC) DIS event at low x, that means an scattered electron at high polar angles (*cf.* eqs. 1.2, 1.4), and second, of a jet at high pseudorapidity i.e. small polar angles (*cf.* eq. 1.9). These conditions define the sub detectors of H1 to be used to perform the measurement: first the time of flight system (ToF) and the central jet chambers (CJC) to select an event, then the backward proportional chamber (BPC) and the backward electromagnetic calorimeter (BEMC) to measure the scattered lepton and finally the liquid argon calorimeter (LAr) to identify the forward jet. After a short introduction to HERA and the triggering scheme of H1, these sub detectors will be briefly discussed in this chapter along with a short description of the H1 luminosity system needed to normalize the measured rate to the cross section. The next two chapters explain how they are used to select the data and discuss their responses to the events.

2.1 HERA

The HERA facility [47] is the first electron–proton (ep) collider ever built. It has a circumference of 6336 m where independent accelerators store 820 GeV protons using superconducting magnets, and electrons or positrons with an energy of 27.5 GeV in 1994. It is supported by an injection complex which includes a 500 MeV linac, DESY II and the modified PETRA II ring as preaccelerators for the leptons and a 50 MeV linac, DESY III and PETRA II for the protons. Some of HERA parameters during 1994 are listed in table 2.1.

There are four interaction regions in HERA where two general purpose detectors, H1 [49] and ZEUS [50], and two dedicated experiments, HERA–B [51] for the study of CP–violation and HERMES [52] to investigate polarized structure functions are installed. In what follows only the H1 detector will be discussed.

2.2 Overview of the H1 Detector

A diagram of the H1 detector showing the relative position of each sub detector is found in figure 2.1, and a close up of the backward part is shown in figure 2.2. Note that sub detectors which play no role in the present analysis will not be discussed here; information

Parameter	$e^{\pm}$ beam	p beam
Beam energie (GeV)	27.5	820.0
Number of colliding bunches	153	153
Number of pilot bunches	15	17
Number of empty bunches	42	40
Average current (mA)	17.1	41.0
Maximal luminosity (10^{30}cm^{-2}s^{-1})	3.2	
Distance between bunches (ns/m)	96/28.8	

Table 2.1: Some HERA parameters during 1994 [48]. Pilot bunches are those which do not have a partner to collide with.

about them along with more details of the components of H1 which are described in this chapter can be found in [49] and references therein.

The H1 detector is a complex conglomerate of subdetectors built around the point IP (see figures 2.1 and 2.2) where the electron and positron beams are brought into collision. All values for polar acceptance of the detectors given in this chapter are calculated for an interaction originating precisely at the IP, and will vary a little bit when taking into account that the actual interactions happen in an interval around the IP. The clear asymmetry seen in the design of the detector is due to the boost caused by the different energies of the colliding beams. Going from the IP outwards there is first a layer of trackers (important for this analysis are CJC and BPC). The next layer consist of calorimeters: BEMC and the inner most part of the LAr calorimeter are designed to measure the energy of electromagnetic showers, while the PLUG calorimeter and the outer part of the LAr calorimeter measure hadronic deposition of energy. All this is surrounded by a superconducting solenoid producing an almost uniform magnetic field of 1.15 T parallel to the HERA beams. The return iron yoke is instrumented and forms the central muon system. Between BEMC and the return yoke a time of flight system (ToF) is located. These subdetectors are complemented by the luminosity system formed by two arms: the electron tagger placed 33 m from the IP in the direction of the electron beam and the photon arm situated 103 m from the IP in the same direction.

2.3 The H1 trigger system.

Due to the smallness of potentially interesting cross sections and the need of high statistics data to do proper studies, high luminosities are required from the accelerator. The approach taken is to have a large number of bunches in the machine, which for the design values of HERA corresponds to have 210 bunches for a total of 2.1(0.8)x10^{13} particles in the proton(electron) ring. There is a collision at the IP every 96 ns.

Problems arise once the following two factors are considered:

- The rate for DIS events was about 5 Hz in 1994, but the most common sources of background, namely the interaction of protons with parts of the accelerator (p–wall

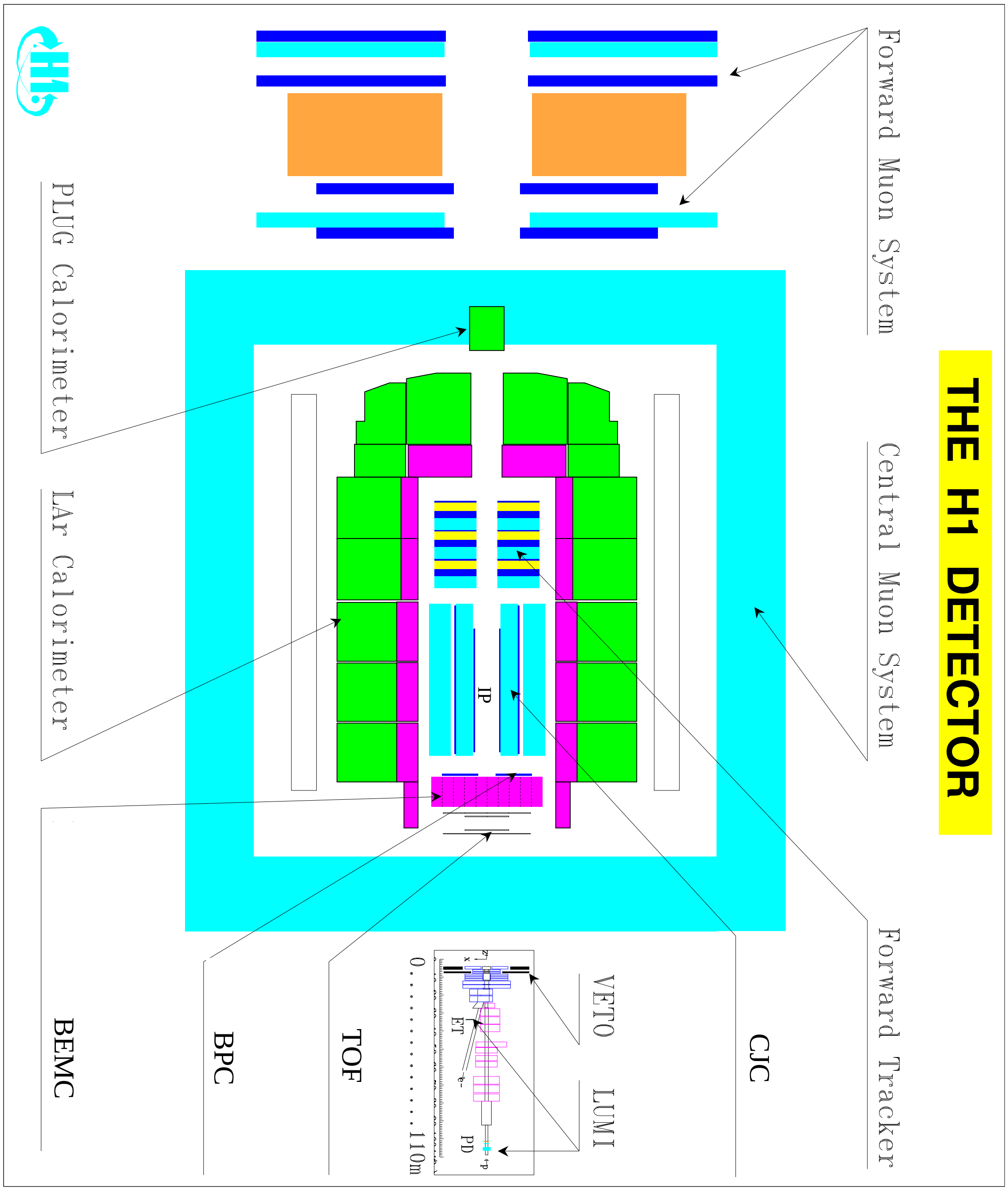


Figure 2.1: The H1 detector. The protons come from the right, the electrons from the left and the collision takes place at the point labeled IP (short for interaction point). Important for this analysis are the time of flight system (ToF), the central jet chambers (CJC), the backward multiwire proportional chamber (BPC), the backward electromagnetic calorimeter (BEMC) and the LAr calorimeter. The luminosity system, shown to the right in the inserted rectangle with a different scale, is used to normalize the rate to a cross section.

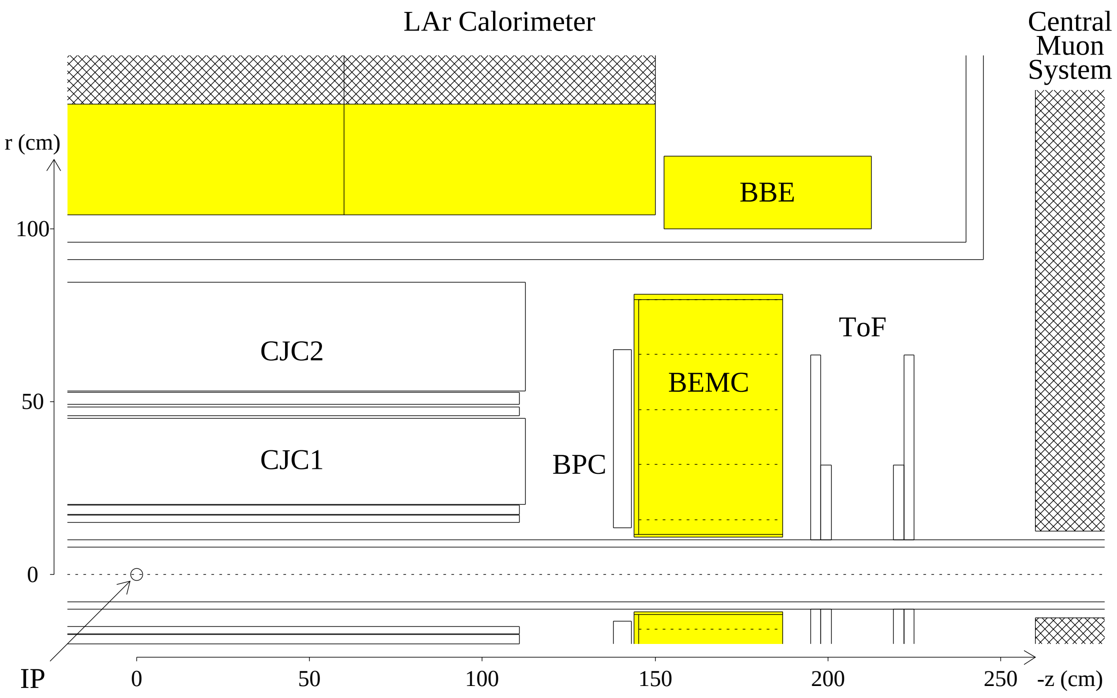


Figure 2.2: View of the backward region of H1. The label IP stands for interaction point and signals the place where the proton (coming from the right) and electron (from the left) beams are brought into collision. Important for this analysis are the time of flight system, the central jet chambers (CJC), the backward multiwire proportional chamber (BPC), the backward electromagnetic calorimeter and the liquid argon calorimeter. Figure from ref. [57].

events) and with the gas remaining in the beam pipe "vacuum" of about 10^{-9} hPa (p–gas events), have rates of $\mathcal{O}(50)$ kHz.

- The time needed to process the signals in the different sub detectors spans from the 250 ns needed by the ToF to produce a signal for the trigger, to the 2.5 μs decision time of the calorimeter trigger chain, to be compared with the 10.4 MHz HERA collision rate.

The solution was to construct a trigger system with multiple layers (see [49, 53] and [54]). For the 1994 data taking period it had only two active levels:

Level 1 The emphasis is to have dead time free processing at this level. Taking into account that the signals from the trigger electronics are available to make a decision after about 2.1μs, a 24 event buffer was used. The system consist of 128 trigger elements, out of which more complicated triggers can be constructed to be used either in this or in other levels.

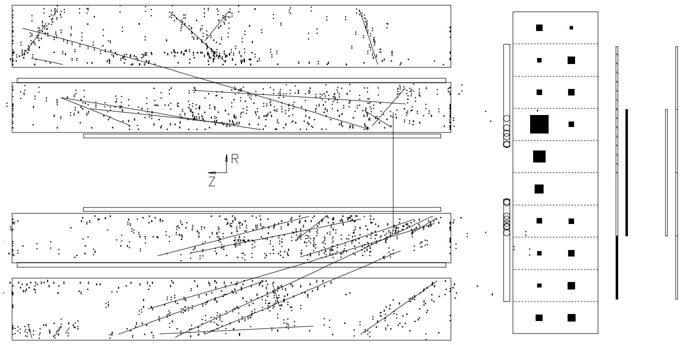


Figure 2.3: A typical background event in H1. It is clearly seen that the tracks reconstructed by the CJC point to a region just before BEMC. Figure from ref. [56].

Level 4 For this level all the information from the detector is available. The same programs used to reconstruct the data are applied at this stage to select or reject events according to the following three criteria:

- The decisions done by the first level trigger are checked using the full reconstructed information from H1. If the decision of the level 1 trigger is corroborated then the event is accepted, otherwise is rejected.
- Clear signals of interesting events, either to control the function of the detector or to select candidates for further analysis are accepted.
- Clear signals of background are rejected.
- 1% of all rejected events are accepted to study the efficiencies of the trigger.

2.4 Detecting a NC DIS event

As already mentioned the rate of background interactions is huge compared to those coming from ep collisions and it is necessary to distinguish between them. Due to the longitudinal momentum of the proton beam, p–wall and p–gas interactions are boosted forward as seen in figure 2.3. So they create a signal in BEMC which may fake the signal of a scattered lepton from an ep event, only when they happen before it. As H1 is built around IP, to cut away p–wall and p–gas background it is required that the extrapolated tracks of some of the particles in an event should join in a vertex around the IP and no vertex lying outside this region of the detector should be found (for the precise cut applied see section 3.2). The task of the CJC with respect to this analysis, is to reconstruct the main vertex of the event.

It can also happen that the p–wall and p–gas events produce a signal in BEMC without creating tracks which point outside H1. In these cases the ToF situated just before BEMC, is used (see figure 2.2). The HERA machine has a clock which gives a time window where the interaction should occur. If the energy deposited in BEMC coincides with a signal of ToF outside of the interaction window the event is rejected.

2.4.1 The central jet chamber (CJC)

The CJC [55] consists of two concentric drift chambers: CJC1 with 30 cells of 24 sense wires each, and an inner (outer) radius of 203(452) mm and CJC2 with 60 cells of 32 sense wires each, and an inner(outer) radius of 530(844) mm. Both have an active length of 2200 mm, cover the polar angle from 15^o to 165^o and have a resolution of 0.170 mm in the radial–azimuthal plane and 22 mm along z. They are immersed in an homogeneous magnetic field of 1.15 T and achieve a transverse momentum resolution of $\delta p_T/p_T < 0.01 \cdot p_T/\mathrm{GeV}$.

The ep interaction region at H1 is of the order of few hundred μm in the xy–plane and very stable over several runs[1], allowing the measurement of the position of the interaction vertex in this plane using high momentum tracks from a few hundred events. Given a known xy position of the vertex, its z coordinate is determined on an event by event basis from all tracks fitting to the xy–coordinates of the vertex.

2.4.2 The time of flight detector (ToF)

The ToF consist of two walls made up of a sandwich of scintillator and lead, which are mounted perpendicular to the beam pipe. They are situated just behind BEMC at $z = -1.95$ m and $z = -2.25$ m respectively. The first plane has 16 counters of 317x317 mm^2, while the second consist of only 8 measuring 317x634 mm^2 each. The ToF detector has a 4 ns resolution [49].

Signals produced by p–wall, p–gas interactions behind BEMC arrive to the ToF before those produced by ep collisions around the IP (see figure 2.4). This allows the definition of time windows to discriminate between physics processes and background events due to beam–gas or beam–wall interactions. If the time signal from the ToF is 6 or more ns earlier than expected for signals originating in the IP, the event is rejected.

2.5 Detecting the lepton at small x

The next step is to find the lepton in BEMC. The main background for this signal comes from photo production where a π^0 mimics the lepton. To reduce this background, a track in the BPC, spatially matching the energy deposition found in BEMC, is required.

2.5.1 The backward proportional chamber (BPC)

The BPC is a four plane multiwire proportional chamber. Each plane has a wire orientation differing in 45^o from the one before. It is attached to the front surface of BEMC and its active zone covers from 135 mm to 650 mm in the radial coordinate and the polar angle ranges from 155^o to 174.5^o. It has a spatial resolution of about 1.5 mm in the transverse plane.

[1] A run is a set of events sequentially registered under the same experimental conditions of H1

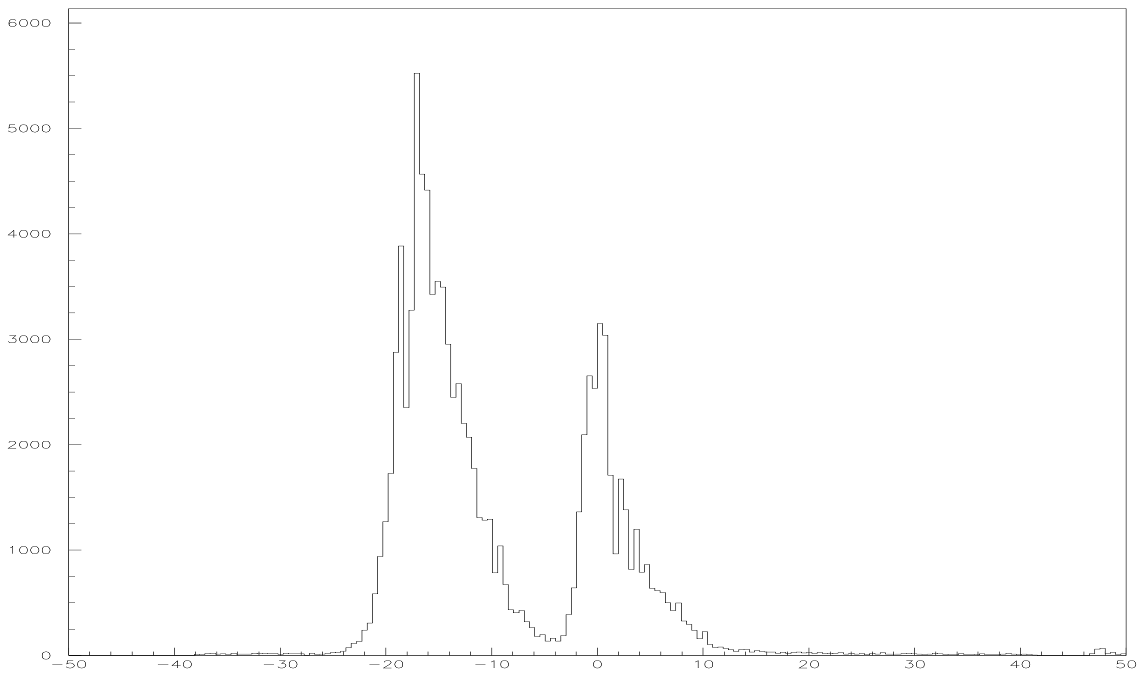


Figure 2.4: Time signals from the ToF system. Example of the time difference between signal in ToF produced by background or physics processes. The ordinate shows the time variable in ns, where the origin is defined for the expected arrival time of signals from the IP. The two clearly visible peaks originate from beam–gas or beam–wall interactions (peak to the left) or physics interactions (seen around zero). The scale of the abscissa is arbitrary. Figure from ref. [56].

2.5.2 The backward electromagnetic calorimeter (BEMC)

The BEMC [57] is a sandwich type lead–scintillator electromagnetic calorimeter consisting of 88 modules, with a wavelength shifter (WLS) optical readout (see figure 2.5). Its front end is placed at $z = -144$ cm, has a length of 34.3 cm, an inner radius of 10.8 cm and a diameter of 162.1 cm. It covers polar angles from 151^o to 176^o and has a 7 mm spatial resolution of the lateral shower position [57].

It has a depth of 21.7 radiation lengths, corresponding to about one hadronic interaction length and a resolution function given by [57]:

$$\frac{\sigma}{E} = \frac{0.039(2)}{E} \oplus \frac{0.100(3)}{\sqrt{E}} \oplus 0.017(5) \tag{2.1}$$

where E is given in GeV and leakage, sampling fluctuations and the readout by photo diodes and preamplifiers contribute to the resolution terms proportional to E, $\sqrt{E}$ and E^0 respectively. The absolute energy scale has been calibrated to a 1% using the kinematic peak – dominated by systematics – and has been globally cross checked using QED

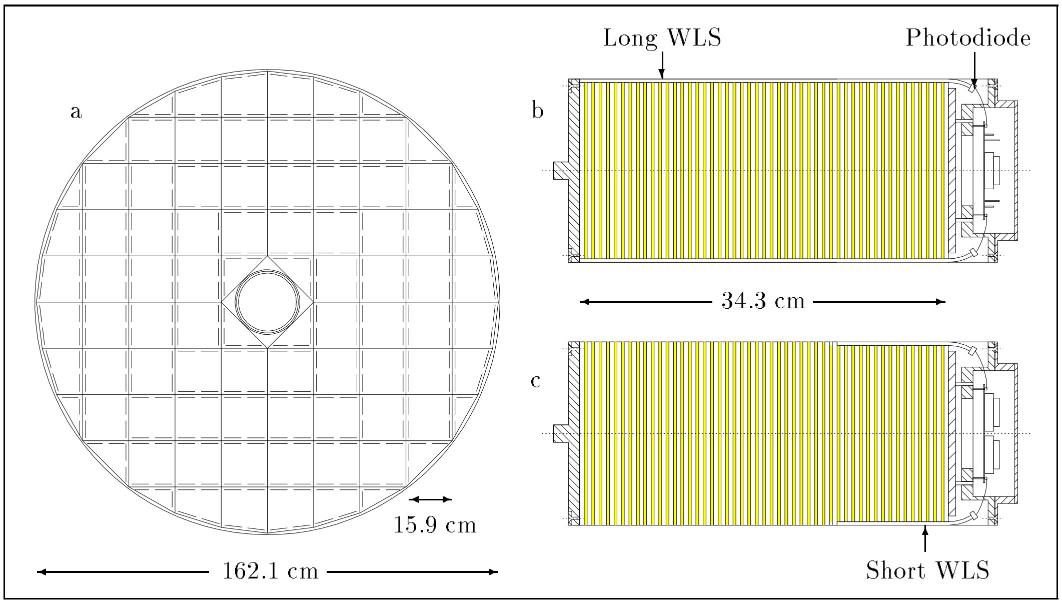


Figure 2.5: The BEMC readout scheme. There are two types of wavelength shifters (WLS) in the readout of BEMC: long and short. For every module there are four independent long WLS each connected to a photodiode (the outer triangular stacks have only three WLS). Their positions are shown in diagrams (a) and (b). For all square modules and for the big trapezoid stacks the last 15 sampling layers are read via short WLS as shown in diagram (c). Figure from ref. [57].

Compton events. The angular dependence of the calibration has been studied comparing the lepton energy to that calculated with the help of the double angle method [57].

The lepton candidates are defined via BEMC clusters [58]: the module with the highest energy is merged (clustered) with all the direct neighbors which present a signal, so there are maximal 9 BEMC modules contributing to one BEMC cluster. Requiring coincidences of three out of the four planes of the BPC and a spatially matching BEMC cluster allows to select with a great efficiency the scattered lepton (see section 3.3 for the precise cuts used in this analysis and 4.2.1 for their efficiencies).

2.6 Detecting the forward jet

The last part of the signature is a jet at high pseudorapidity. This jet consists of the particles produced through hadronization of the partons ejected out of the proton due to the interaction and it is measured in the liquid argon calorimeter of H1.

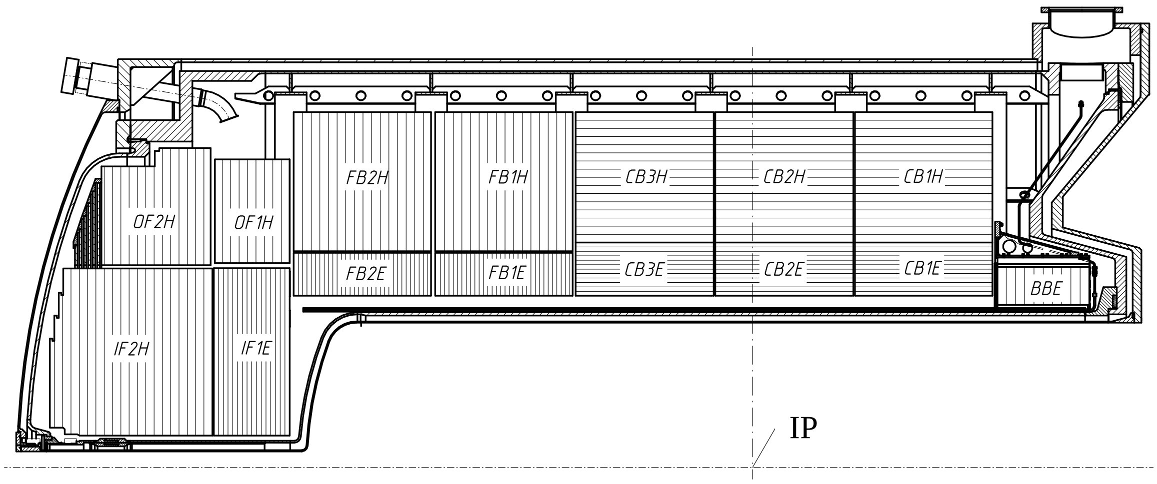


Figure 2.6: Transversal view of the LAr calorimeter. The letters H and E at the end of the labels in the figure refer, respectively, to the hadronic and electromagnetic parts of the calorimeter. The orientation of the absorber plates is indicated by the horizontal and vertical lines respectively. Figure from ref. [59].

2.6.1 The liquid argon (LAr) calorimeter

The LAr calorimeter [59] consist of eight rings of eight modules each, having an electromagnetic section with lead absorbers and a hadronic part made of stainless steel (see figure 2.6).

It is contained in a cryostat of stainless steel kept at a stable temperature of 90.2±0.1 K. It covers a polar angle from 3^o to 155^o, has a depth of 20–30 radiation lengths in the electromagnetic section and of 4.5–8 interaction lengths for the hadronic part (see figure 2.7).

A particle deposits its energy through showering producing a signal in several cells. The reconstruction of the deposited energy from this measured signal is done as follows (for further details see [60]). First a cut to suppress the influence of the electronic noise in the readout of the cells is applied. The cells are so calibrated that the mean value of the noise is zero in each cell. The standard deviation of the noise signal σ_{noise} varies from 15 MeV to 30 MeV as shown in figure 2.8. A given cell contributes to the measurement of the deposited energy if the absolute value of its signal is above the cut $f \cdot \sigma_{noise}$ where f is a factor which depends on the module of the LAr calorimeter according to table 2.2. The next step is to perform a topological noise cut. A cell will be used in the analysis only if its signal is smaller than $-4 \cdot \sigma_{noise}$ or if its signal or the signal of a direct neighbor cell is bigger than $4 \cdot \sigma_{noise}$. Note that this cut is not symmetric, and prefers cells with positive signals. Once the cells which will contribute to the measurement are thus selected they are merged into clusters. The clustering algorithm is fine tuned for electromagnetic showers [61], so a weighting algorithm is needed to obtain the energy of hadronic showers [62, 63]. It has been found that the description of jets in the forward region is better