Measurement of the Deep-Inelastic ep Scattering Cross Section using the Backward Silicon Tracker at the H1 Detector at HERA

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Abstract

A measurements of the inclusive cross section for the deep-inelastic scattering of positrons off protons is presented at four momentum transfers squared $1.5 \leq Q^2 \leq 15$ GeV^2 in the Bjorken x range between 0.000024 and 0.075. The analysis is based on data collected by the H1 experiment at HERA in the year 1997 taken during a special minimum bias run for low Q^2 values. A Backward Silicon Tracker (BST) has been used in this measurement for the first time. Use of this new detector component, as presented in this thesis, led to an extension of the kinematical region of the measurement towards high values of inelasticity y at low Q^2 as well as towards the low y region which overlaps with fixed target experiments. The precision of the measurement is for the first time dominated by the systematic uncertainties. These are of the order of 3% as compared to typically 1-2% statistical accuracy. Part of the results presented in this analysis has been included into an H1 publication.

Zusammenfassung

In der vorliegenden Arbeit wird die Messung des inklusiven tief-inelastischen Streuquerschnitts von Positronen an Protonen für Viererimpulsüberträge Q^2 zwischen 1.5 und 15 GeV^2 und Werte der Bjorken-x Variable zwischen 0.000024 und 0.075 beschrieben. Die Messung beruht auf speziellen Daten, die im Herbst des Jahres 1997 mit dem H1-Experiment am Beschleuniger HERA aufgezeichnet wurden. Zum ersten Mal wird der rückwärtige Silizium-Streifendetektor (BST) des H1-Experimentes für diese Messung verwendet. Die hier dargestellten Untersuchungen mit dieser neuen Detektorkomponente führen zu einer Erweiterung des kinematischen Meßbereiches, der nun sowohl große Inelastizitätswerte von $y > 0.6$ bei niedrigen Q^2 als auch eine Überlappung mit Daten von "Fixed Target"- Müon-Proton- Streuexperimenten erreicht. Erstmalig wird die Präzision dieser Messung von den systematischen Fehlern von etwa 3% dominiert, im Vergleich zu statistischen Fehlern von 1-2%. Die Resultate der Analyse wurden teilweise in eine Publikation der H1-Kollaboration aufgenommen.

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

A measurement of the inclusive deep-inelastic electron-proton scattering (DIS) differential cross section is presented using the H1 detector at HERA and, for the first time, the Backward Silicon Tracker (BST). The BST was fabricated by the H1 group in Zeuthen and installed in 1996. Its installation completed the upgrade of the backward apparatus of the H1 detector which consisted of replacing a Pb-Scintillator calorimeter (BEMC) by a Pb-fiber calorimeter (SpaCal) of high granularity and a multiwire proportional chamber (BPC) by a planar drift chamber (BDC). The analysis of the DIS cross section benefits from the high resolution of the angular measurement with the silicon tracker allowing also for electron identification and, thus, suppression of the neutral component of the photoproduction background. The latter is essential to extend the cross section measurement towards the kinematic region of large inelasticity y which permits the longitudinal structure function F_L to be accessed. At low y the event vertex is reconstructed using the scattered electron track measured with the BST. Thus, DIS events are identified and the kinematic region of the DIS fixed target experiments is reached.

The data used here were collected in September and October 1997 during a special data taking period dedicated to the region of low momentum transfers Q^2. The data set corresponds to an integrated luminosity of about 2 pb^{-1} resulting in typically $1-2\%$ statistical errors. The high statistics of the data and new backward instrumentation allowed to understand systematic effects better than in previous DIS cross section analyses at low Q^2.

This thesis is organized as follows:

- The second chapter gives an introduction to the theory of deep inelastic scattering. Theoretical predictions for the evolution of the DIS cross section and the proton structure functions are discussed.

- The third chapter overviews the HERA accelerator and the H1 detector. The chapter proceeds with a description of methods for reconstruction of the kinematic variables with the H1 detector. A presentation of the analyzed data and their selection concludes the chapter.

- Chapter 4 introduces the Backward Silicon Tracker, the presented work is essentially based on. The systematic study of the detector response as well as its alignment with respect to the H1 coordinate system are discussed.

- The calibration of the electromagnetic and hadronic energy scales of the backward calorimeter is shortly described in the fifth chapter. Here, the main focus is on aspects of the hadronic energy scale calibration of the liquid argon calorimeter.

- The sixth chapter incorporates all necessary aspects of the double differential DIS cross section measurement. Special attention is paid to the role of the BST event validation in the cross section measurement. The double differential DIS cross section is measured with two different kinematic reconstruction methods which allowed to cross check the correctness of the systematic uncertainties. The chapter concludes with the results for the DIS cross section combined from the two methods depending on their resolutions. Also presented is the structure function $F_2(x, Q^2)$ extracted from the measured cross section and a discussion of the obtained results.

This work used the BST and the SpaCal calorimeter to derive a cross section measurement. The points at high y entered the official release of structure function data by the H1 collaboration. The systematic work on the BST has been part of further analyses on the inclusive DIS and exclusive processes.

The thesis has one appendix devoted to an electron finding procedure developed for the DIS cross section measurement with the backward silicon tracker.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Basics of Deep Inelastic Scattering

2.1 A Bit of History

In 1911, Rutherford used α-particles to resolve the structure of gold atoms by measuring the angles of the scattered particles [1]. This experiment was done before the Quantum Mechanics was developed which confirmed the cross section formula Rutherford did empirically establish in the non-relativistic case:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{\alpha^2}{4(p\beta)^2 \sin^4(\theta/2)}. \tag{2.1}$$

Here, $\alpha \approx 1/137$ and β denote a fine structure constant and velocity of the projectile, respectively. p is the momentum of the projectile and θ its scattering angle in the laboratory frame where the target is fixed. Eq. 2.1 is written in the case of *ep* scattering when both projectile and the target have charge $Z = 1$.

The low energetic α-particles were supposed to be point-like at that time compared to gold atoms. Later the α-particles were identified with the *He* nucleus. To improve the experiment one has thus to take point-like projectiles such as the leptons. When using the spin-1/2 particles, like electrons, the Rutherford formula for scattering cross section receives corrections, which were calculated by Mott [2] in 1932:

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{Mott} = \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right) \cdot \frac{\cos^2(\theta/2)}{1 + \frac{2E}{M}\sin^2(\theta/2)}, \tag{2.2}$$

where $\cos^2(\theta/2)$ and $\left[1 + \frac{2E}{M}\sin^2(\theta/2)\right]^{-1}$ arise from the spin-1/2 of the electron and the target recoil, respectively. E corresponds to the energy of the electron and M is the target mass.

According to the Heisenberg principle ($\Delta p \cdot \Delta x \sim \hbar$), with increasing energy the structure of the proton can be resolved deeper. It was Rosenbluth [3], who proposed in 1950 to involve the proton electric and magnetic form factors characterizing the deviations from a point-like behavior of the proton. Assuming the proton to have spin 1/2, it gave the Rosenbluth expression for elastic *ep* scattering:

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{ep\to ep} = \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{Mott}\left[\frac{G_E^2+\tau G_M^2}{1+\tau}\cos^2(\theta/2)+2\tau G_M^2\sin^2(\theta/2)\right], \tag{2.3}$$

where $\tau \equiv -q^2/4M^2$ and G_E, G_M are the electric and magnetic form factors of the proton, respectively.

In 1953, Hofstadter et al. [4] confirmed the correctness of Rosenbluth's approach. The proton form factors were found to drop sharply with increasing momentum transfer. That was the first evidence for a distributed structure of the proton within the sphere with an estimated radius of (0.85 ± 0.1) fm [5]. The success of these early results with the elastic *ep* scattering led to the proposal to build a new accelerator at the Stanford Linear Accelerator Center (SLAC).

Meanwhile, theoreticians thought about the description of inelastic electron-proton scattering. At that time Quantum Electrodynamics (QED) was established already as a precise theory, so that the electromagnetic part of cross section description could be accurately calculated. As the basis for inelastic *ep* scattering cross section calculation, the result for electron-muon scattering was taken [6]. Then the following result for inelastic *ep* scattering cross section was obtained taking into account the unknown structure of the proton parameterized in terms of two structure functions W_1 and W_2 [7]:

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{dE'd\Omega}\right)_{ep\to eX} = \frac{\alpha^2}{4E^2\sin^4(\theta/2)}\left(W_2(\nu,Q^2)\cos^2(\theta/2)+2W_1(\nu,Q^2)\sin^2(\theta/2)\right). \tag{2.4}$$

Here, the structure functions W_1 and W_2 are related to their elastic counterparts G_E and G_M. They are functions of two independent variables ν and Q^2 which correspond to the energy and momentum transfer in the rest frame of the target proton.

$$\nu = E - E', \tag{2.5}$$

$$Q^2 = -q^2 = 4EE'\sin^2(\theta/2). \tag{2.6}$$

The structure functions W_1 and W_2 are underivable from the theory of strong interactions. These must be obtained from the experiment.

The rapidly increasing number of "elementary" particles had suggested that there exist more fundamental constituents of matter than the hadrons. In 1961, Gell-Mann and Ne'eman [8] independently proposed the *Eightfold Way* to classify the known baryons and mesons with the same spin, according to their charge and strangeness, using the SU(3) symmetry. The confirmation of SU(3) group by the discovery of the Ω^- baryon in 1963 led to wide acceptance of the "Eightfold Way". This classification scheme could then be explained with elementary particle constituents, called *quarks*. This approach was independently proposed by Gell-Mann [9] and Zweig [10] in 1964.

In 1967, the Stanford linear accelerator started to operate. It was Bjorken [11], who proposed to investigate the structure functions in the limit $Q^2 \longrightarrow \infty$ and $\nu \longrightarrow \infty$ but ν/Q^2 fixed. He thus introduced a new variable $x = Q^2/2M\nu$ which had to be kept constant. The most famous result of this pioneering inelastic *ep* scattering experiment was the evidence of so called *scaling invariance* of the proton structure functions $W_1(x, Q^2)$ and $W_2(x, Q^2)$, i.e. there was no Q^2 dependence of these functions found [12], i.e. in this Bjorken limit the structure functions tend to depend on the ratio x only:

$$\lim_{Bj} MW_1(\nu, Q^2) = F_1(x) + O(1/Q^2), \tag{2.7}$$

$$\lim_{Bj} \nu W_2(\nu, Q^2) = F_2(x) + O(1/Q^2). \tag{2.8}$$

This surprising feature was predicted by Bjorken in 1968 and is expected for scattering from a point-like object.

In 1968, Feynman [13] interpreted the SLAC results by applying his parton model. According to this model, the proton is constructed of free partons and the electrons scatter from the partons incoherently. Callan and Gross proposed then to investigate the spin of the partons, predicting that for spin-1/2 partons the equation

$$F_L(x) = 2xF_1(x) - F_2(x) = 0 \tag{2.9}$$

must be valid [14]. SLAC experiments confirmed this expectation. Partons were identified with quarks by Bjorken and Paschos [15] in 1969. The Bjorken x variable was interpreted as the fraction of parton momentum with $0 < x < 1$, where $x = 1$ corresponds to elastic scattering.

Later, in different regions of x than originally measured, the violation of the scaling law was found in μN scattering [16]. The scaling violation was explained by gluon bremsstrahlung and pair production. This observation helped to establish a new theory of strong interaction, Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) which predicted the existence of electrically neutral *gluons*. Experimental evidence of the gluons was observed at DESY by three jets events [17, 18]. QCD in conjunction with the electroweak theory constitute the *Standard Model* of elementary particle physics.

On October 19th, 1991, the first electron-proton colliding facility HERA started to operate at DESY in Hamburg. It greatly extended the kinematic range of DIS experiments towards high Q^2 and low x since the center of mass energy was enlarged by about three orders of magnitude. The first measurements of F_2 by the H1 [19] and the ZEUS Collaborations [20] discovered a steep rise of $F_2(x, Q^2)$ towards low x at fixed Q^2 (see Fig. 2.1). According to present understanding, this rise is due to the dominance of gluons at low x. A rising behavior was expected by Glück, Reya and Vogt [21]. Results for inclusive *ep* DIS cross section obtained at HERA during many years of successful operation yield new deep insight into the structure of the proton allowing for testing the underlying strong interaction theory in unprecedented details. This continues the long tradition of DIS experiments.

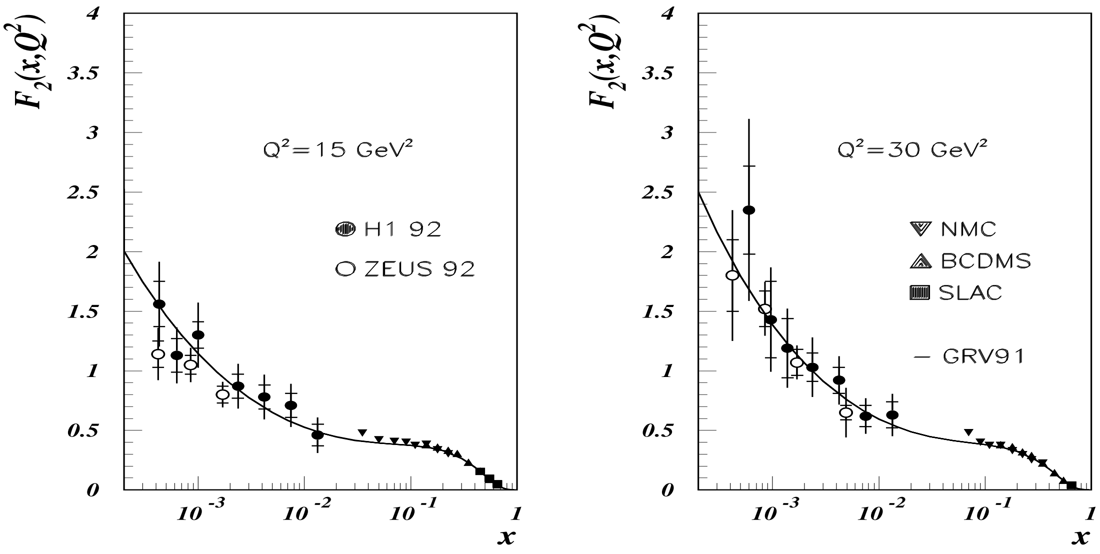

Figure 2.1: Measurements of the proton structure function $F_2(x, Q^2)$ by the fixed target experiments SLAC, NMC and BCDMS and their extension towards low x represented by the first HERA data on F_2. The curve represents the expectation of this rising behavior by GRV'91 [21].

2.2 Cross Section Calculation

2.2.1 The DIS Kinematics

In inclusive deep inelastic scattering at low Q^2, the electron scatters off the proton by the exchange of a virtual photon. The diagram of this process, $ep \to eX$, is shown in Fig. 2.2. The four-momentum transfer squared Q^2 and the Bjorken x variables can be defined by the four momenta of the incident and of the scattered electron and those of the proton:

$$Q^2 = -q^2 = -(k - k'), \qquad x = \frac{Q^2}{2Pq}. \tag{2.10}$$

The inelasticity of the reaction is defined by the variable

$$y = \frac{Pq}{Pk}. \tag{2.11}$$

In the rest frame of the proton it corresponds to the relative energy transfer $y = \nu/E$. Another important variable of the DIS process is the invariant mass squared of the hadronic final state:

$$W^2 = (p')^2 = (P + q)^2 = Q^2(1 - x)/x + M_P^2. \tag{2.12}$$

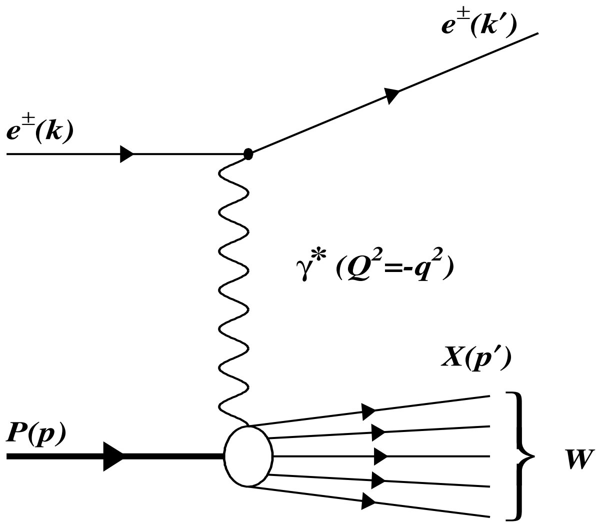

Figure 2.2: Schematic representation of inclusive electron proton scattering $e^{\pm}p \rightarrow e^{\pm}X$ at low Q^2 with the single photon exchange approximation. The four-momenta of the incoming and scattered lepton are k and k', respectively. The four-momentum of the incident proton is p and p' denotes the four-momentum of the hadronic final state X with the invariant mass W.

The deep inelastic region is then defined by $Q^2 > M^2_{proton} \approx 1$ GeV^2 and $W^2 > M^2_{proton}$ requirement.

The Q^2 values vary within the range $0 < Q^2 < s$, where

$$s = 2Pk = 4E_pE_e \tag{2.13}$$

denotes the energy in the center of mass system.

2.2.2 Cross Section in Born Approximation

To lowest QED order (Born Approximation) the DIS cross section calculation is based on separation between interactions of the virtual boson with the lepton and the proton which can be expressed in terms of corresponding tensors:

$$d\sigma \sim L_{\nu\mu}W^{\nu\mu}, \tag{2.14}$$

where $L_{\nu\mu}$ is the leptonic tensor describing the interaction between electron and virtual photon. This part can be precisely calculated in QED, where the electron is treated as a point-like Dirac particle.

The $W^{\nu\mu}$ parameterizes the hadronic current in terms of the metric tensor $g_{\nu\mu}$, four-momenta P and q and unknown scalar functions. Using Lorenz invariance and hadronic current conservation, this tensor can be reduced to two structure functions:

$$W^{\nu\mu} = W_1\left(-g^{\nu\mu} + \frac{q^\nu q^\mu}{q^2}\right) + W_2\frac{1}{M^2}\left(p^\nu - \frac{P\cdot q}{q^2}q^\nu\right)\left(p^\mu - \frac{P\cdot q}{q^2}q^\mu\right). \tag{2.15}$$

By including the photon flux factor and the phase space factor for outgoing electron, one obtains the following double differential inclusive ep scattering cross section, neglecting the mass of the electron:

$$\left(\frac{d^2\sigma}{dydQ^2}\right)_{ep\to eX} = \frac{4\pi\alpha^2}{sQ^4}\left(Q^2\cdot MW_1 + \frac{1}{ys}\Big[(1-y)s^2 - M^2Q^2\Big](\nu W_2)\right). \tag{2.16}$$

After involving the functional determinant $\frac{EE\prime}{\pi}\frac{d^2\sigma}{dQ^2d\nu} = \frac{d^2\sigma}{dE'd\Omega}$, Eq. 2.16 yields the famous Rosenbluth formula (see Eq. 2.3).

Since the interaction between electron and proton is defined by the exchange of the virtual photon, its polarization states must be taken into account. One can consider the total cross section of the ep scattering as a sum over total absorption cross sections for transversely and longitudinally polarized virtual photons

$$\sigma^{tot} = \sum_\lambda \frac{4\pi\alpha^2}{K}\epsilon_\lambda^{\mu*}\epsilon_\lambda^\nu W_{\nu\mu}, \tag{2.17}$$

where K is a photon flux factor[1] and ϵ_λ^μ are the polarization vectors of virtual photons specified by the helicity λ [24]. The helicity $\lambda = \pm 1$ and $\lambda = 0$ correspond to the longitudinally and transversely polarized virtual photon, respectively. And the double differential DIS cross section can be written as

$$\frac{d^2\sigma}{dE'd\Omega} = \Gamma\left(\sigma_T + \epsilon\sigma_L\right), \tag{2.18}$$

where

$$\sigma_T = \frac{4\pi\alpha^2}{K}W_1 \tag{2.19}$$

and

$$\sigma_L = \frac{4\pi\alpha^2}{K}W_L = \frac{4\pi\alpha^2}{K}\left[\left(1-\frac{\nu^2}{q^2}\right)W_2 - W_1\right] \tag{2.20}$$

are the cross sections of the interaction with the transverse and longitudinally polarized virtual photon. Γ is the virtual photon flux defined as

$$\Gamma = \frac{K}{4\pi\alpha^2}\frac{2E'}{\epsilon q^2(\epsilon-1)}, \tag{2.21}$$

where $\epsilon = \left[1 + 2(1-\nu^2/q^2)\tan^2(\theta_e/2)\right]^{-1}$ defines the photon polarization.

A function often used to measure the behavior of the probability of longitudinal photon absorption to the transversal one is defined by the ratio

$$R(\nu, Q^2) = \frac{\sigma_L(\nu, Q^2)}{\sigma_T(\nu, Q^2)} = \frac{W_L(\nu, Q^2)}{W_1(\nu, Q^2)} = \frac{F_L(\nu, Q^2)}{F_2(\nu, Q^2) - F_L(\nu, Q^2)}, \tag{2.22}$$

where the denominator in the last term originates from the following relation: $F_L(\nu, Q^2) = 2xF_1(\nu, Q^2) - F_2(\nu, Q^2)$.

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[1]The definition of the flux factor is somewhat arbitrary. Here, the virtual photon flux is defined as in [23]. It involves the constraint on the total $\gamma^* p$ cross section in the photoproduction limit ($Q^2 \to 0$) to coincide with the one of the real photon exchange, i.e. $\lim_{Q^2\to 0}\sigma_{\gamma^* p}^{tot}(Q^2, \nu) = \sigma_{\gamma p}^{tot}(\nu)$ must be satisfied.

2.2.3 Quark Parton Model

Feynman proposed a model, where the proton consists of quasi-free point-like partons in the frame, where the proton is moving with infinite momentum. The cross section of deep inelastic *ep* scattering is then the incoherent sum over all electron-parton scattering cross sections:

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{dxdQ^2}\right)_{ep\to eX} = \sum_i \int dx\ e_i^2 q_i(x) \left(\frac{d\sigma}{dxdQ^2}\right)_{eq_i\to eq_i}, \tag{2.23}$$

where $q_i(x)$ is the parton momentum density of the parton i with the charge e_i inside the proton. The four momentum transfer Q^2 and x correspond to the mass of the virtual photon and the fraction of the proton momentum carried by the parton which is hit by the exchanged virtual photon, respectively.

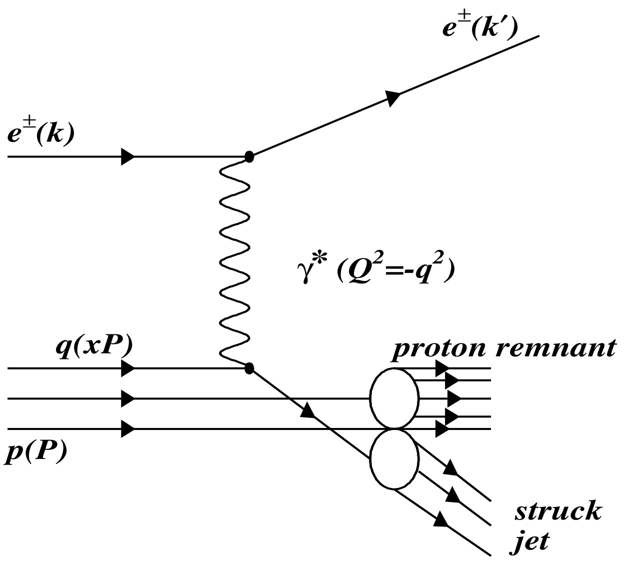

Figure 2.3: Schematic representation of deep inelastic *ep* scattering in the Quark Parton Model. The virtual photon interacts with a free, point-like charged parton carrying a fraction xP of the proton momentum. The interaction proceeds with hadronization resulting in a "proton remnant" jet and a "struck jet" emitted along the direction of the struck quark.

The first deep inelastic scattering experiments [25] on the measurement of $R = \sigma_L/\sigma_T$ showed that the Callan-Gross relation (Eq. 2.9) holds. The partons of the proton are Dirac particles, since

$$\sigma_T = 0 \text{ for spin-0 partons,} \tag{2.24}$$

$$\sigma_L = 0 \text{ for spin-1/2 partons.} \tag{2.25}$$

Study of quantum numbers of the Feynman's partons allowed to identify them with Gell-Man's and Zweig's quarks (see Section 2.1).

In the naive Quark-Parton-Model the proton structure functions can be expressed as a sum of the (anti)quarks momentum density distributions $q_i(x)$ weighted with their electric charge e_i squared

$$F_2 = \sum_i e_i^2 x[q_i(x) + \overline{q}_i(x)]. \tag{2.26}$$

Since the proton consists of two u and one d valence quarks, the following counting rules must be satisfied:

$$\int_0^1 dx\,(u(x) - \overline{u}(x)) = 2, \qquad \int_0^1 dx\,\left(d(x) - \overline{d}(x)\right) = 1. \tag{2.27}$$

Various combinations of structure functions in charged lepton and in neutrino-nucleon scattering were intensively studied and a number of counting rules was postulated. For example, the difference of the structure function F_2 measured in neutrino- and antineutrino-proton scattering obeys the "Adler" sum rule:

$$\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{2x}[F_2^{\overline{\nu}p} - F_2^{\nu p}] = 2 \tag{2.28}$$

which describes the difference of the valence quarks in the proton. The analog of the "Adler" counting rule in case of charged lepton-proton neutral current scattering is provided by the "Gottfried" sum rule:

$$\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{2x}[F_2^{\mu p} - F_2^{\mu n}] = 1/3 + 2/3 \int_0^1 dx[\overline{u}(x) - \overline{d}(x)] = 1/3 \tag{2.29}$$

which describes the asymmetry between the sea quarks $\overline{u}$ and $\overline{d}$ by deviation of the integral from its predicted value of 1/3.

Conservation of the total proton momentum leads to the expectation

$$\sum_i \int_0^1 dx x[q_i(x) + \bar{q}_i(x)] = 1. \tag{2.30}$$

Yet, a surprising result was that integration over the experimental data on $F_2^{\nu p,\nu n}(x)$ gave $\epsilon \approx 0.5$ [26]. Thus, a substantial part of the proton's momentum is carried by the neutral constituents. These are the gluons of QCD.

2.2.4 Quantum Chromodynamics and DIS

Violation of the scaling hypothesis observed by all lepton and neutrino nucleon scattering experiments was consistent with the presence of gluons inside the proton. The simple Quark Model could not explain the following paradoxa: inability to observe free quarks, existence of only $q\bar{q}$ and qqq type bound states and the violation of the Fermi statistics by the Δ^{++} state with uuu structure. The last point was resolved by the introduction of a new quantum number which later was called "color" [27]. It was postulated that each quark had one of 3 colors: red, blue or green and the observed hadrons were color singlet states. The interaction between quarks happened by color exchange mediated by gluons. Consequently, gluons carried combinations of color mixing, such as rg, gb, and so on. Since the physical observables must be colorless, neither quarks, nor gluons are observed. This effect was called "confinement" and up to now cannot be fully explained by the theory.

The naive QPM was modified in order to describe the more complex proton structure and interactions. All the phenomena mentioned above were explained in terms of Quantum Chromodynamics, the theory of strong interactions between quarks by the gluon exchange[2]. These interactions are similar to the Coulomb ones, yet color plays the role of the charge. Since the gluons are also "colored", contrary to virtual photons, they may interact with each other. The quarks obey SU(3) internal "color" symmetry, which gives rise to eight additional self-coupling zero mass vector bosons, namely gluons. Due to self-coupling of the gluons, contrary to QED, where a screening effect makes the α coupling constant decreasing with increasing Q^2, the strong coupling constant α_s vanishes logarithmically with increasing Q^2 because of anti-screening effect. This behavior is called "asymptotic freedom". In the leading order approximation the strong coupling constant α_s is given by the equation:

$$\alpha_s(Q^2) = \frac{4\pi}{\beta_0 \ln \frac{Q^2}{\Lambda^2}} \quad \text{with} \quad \beta_0 = 11 - \frac{2}{3} n_f, \tag{2.31}$$

where n_f is the number of quark flavors and Λ characterizes the energy scale at which the strong coupling constant becomes large. This is also a sign of the breakdown of the perturbative calculations at $Q^2 \approx \Lambda^2$. The value of Λ can be deduced from experimentally measurable α_s. The latter value is, by convention, represented at $Q^2 = M_Z^2$ where M_Z is the mass of the Z_0 boson. The world average value is $\alpha_s(M_Z^2) = 0.118 \pm 0.003$ [30]. The corresponding Λ value is about 200 MeV for n_f=4.

According to the QCD *factorization theorem* [31] the structure functions can be expressed as a convolution of coefficient functions $C_a^{V,i}$, given by pQCD for a particular exchanged boson V, parton i and a structure function a with parton distributions $f_{i/h}$. These are specific to the hadron h but universal for V and a as schematically presented in Fig. 2.4. The factorization theorem allows to write the following equation for structure function F_2:

$$F_2^{V,h}(x, Q^2) = \sum_{i=f,\bar{f},g} \int_x^1 dz C_2^{V,i}\left(\frac{x}{z}, \frac{Q^2}{\mu^2}, \frac{\mu_F^2}{\mu^2} \alpha_s(\mu^2)\right) f_{i/h}(z, \mu_F, \mu^2), \tag{2.32}$$

[2] A review about the present status of the QCD as the asymptotically free field theory of quark-gluon interactions and its foundation can be found in [28] and [29], respectively.

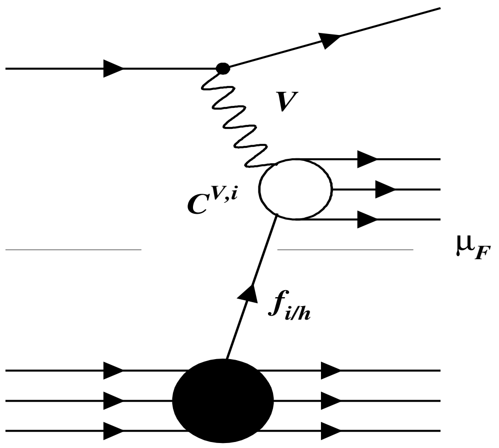

Figure 2.4: Schematic representation of the factorization theorem. Explanation see in the text.

where the summation is performed over all hadron constituents (quarks, antiquarks, gluons). The structure function F_2 is composed of two components, namely a probability density $f_{i/h}$ of finding a parton with fractional proton momentum z in the proton and a coefficient term $C_2^{V,i}(x/z)$. The last term is computable and describes a "history" of the interacting parton, i.e. evolving from radiative process off the initial parton. There are two mass scales in the theorem. The renormalization scale μ defines the separation between the finite and the divergent contributions in the renormalization procedure. The factorization scale μ_F defines the boundary between the perturbative and non-perturbative regions. Both scales μ and μ_F are arbitrary and serve to absorb infrared (ultraviolet) divergences in pQCD. One has certain freedom to choose a renormalization scheme. The most convenient scheme in deep-inelastic scattering is the DIS scheme in which the structure function F_2 is given by the parton model formula 2.26 also in NLO. All orders of perturbation theory are absorbed into the distribution functions q and $\bar{q}$ for $\mu = \mu_F = Q$. For theoretical calculations one often uses the modified minimal subtraction scheme ($\overline{MS}$) which follows the idea of dimensional regularization by t' Hooft and Veltman [32]. Here, only the divergent part of the coefficient functions is absorbed into the renormalized quark distributions for $\mu = \mu_F$.

Another important outcome of the factorization theorem is the possibility to evolve the parton densities from a certain Q_0^2 to any other Q^2 value. Since F_2 is a measurable quantity and therefore can not depend on μ_F, the following equation holds:

$$\mu_F^2 \frac{dF_2(x, Q^2)}{d\mu_F^2} = 0. \tag{2.33}$$

This leads to a set of integro-differential equations named DGLAP [33] after Dokshitzer, Gribov, Lipatov, Altarelli and Parisi. In terms of gluon ($g(x, Q^2)$), singlet

($\Sigma(x,Q^2) = \sum_i[q_i(x,Q^2) + \bar{q}_i(x,Q^2)]$) and nonsinglet ($q^{NS}(x,Q^2) = \sum_i[q_i(x,Q^2) - \bar{q}_i(x,Q^2)]$) density functions, the evolution equations can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{d\Sigma(x,Q^2)}{d\ln Q^2} &= \frac{\alpha_s(Q^2)}{2\pi}\int_x^1 \frac{dy}{y}\left[\Sigma(y,Q^2)P_{qq}(x/y) + g(y,Q^2)P_{qg}(x/y)\right], \\
\frac{dg(x,Q^2)}{d\ln Q^2} &= \frac{\alpha_s(Q^2)}{2\pi}\int_x^1 \frac{dy}{y}\left[\Sigma(y,Q^2)P_{gq}(x/y) + g(y,Q^2)P_{gg}(x/y)\right],
\end{aligned} \tag{2.34}$$

for the coupled pair of singlet-gluon equations, and as:

$$\frac{dq^{NS}(x,Q^2)}{d\ln Q^2} = \frac{\alpha_s(Q^2)}{2\pi}\int_x^1 \frac{dy}{y} q^{NS}(y,Q^2)P_{qq}(x/y) \tag{2.35}$$

for the nonsinglet distributions. Here the splitting functions $P_{ij}(z)$ represent the probability of a parton j emitting a parton i with momentum fraction z of the parent parton, when the scale changes from Q^2 to $Q^2 + d\ln Q^2$. The splitting functions are calculable by perturbative expansion:

$$P_{ij}(z,\alpha_s(Q^2)) = \frac{\alpha_s}{2\pi}P_{ij}^{(0)}(z) + \left(\frac{\alpha_s}{2\pi}\right)^2 P_{ij}^{(1)}(z) + ... \tag{2.36}$$

At the moment the splitting functions are calculated up to next to next to leading order of the pQCD [34].

Summarizing the information given above, one can consider the deep inelastic ep scattering process as an incoherent sum of the virtual photon-parton interaction cross sections. The double differential cross section at low Q^2 is defined by two structure functions $F_2(x,Q^2)$ and $F_L(x,Q^2)$:

$$\frac{d^2\sigma}{dxdQ^2} = \kappa\left(F_2(x,Q^2) - \frac{y^2}{Y_+}F_L(x,Q^2)\right), \qquad Y_+ = 1+(1-y)^2, \qquad \kappa = \frac{2\pi\alpha^2}{Q^4 x}Y_+. \tag{2.37}$$

In the DIS renormalization scheme, the structure function F_2 is given to all orders of perturbative theory by $F_2(x,Q^2) = x\sum_i e_i^2\left[q_i(x,Q^2) + \overline{q}_i(x,Q^2)\right]$, where the parton momentum density distribution functions evolve according to DGLAP Eqs. 2.34.

The longitudinal structure function $F_L(x,Q^2)$ differs from zero due to QCD radiative corrections proportional to α_s [28]:

$$\begin{aligned}
F_L(x,Q^2) &= x\sum_{i=f,\overline{f}} e_f^2 \int_x^1 \frac{dz}{z} f_i(z,Q^2)\left\{\frac{\alpha_S}{2\pi}\left[2C_F\frac{x}{z}\right] + \dots\right\} \\
&\quad + x\sum_{i=f,\overline{f}} e_f^2 \int_x^1 \frac{dz}{z} g(z,Q^2)\left\{\frac{\alpha_S}{2\pi}\left[4T_R\left(1-\frac{x}{z}\right)\right] + \dots\right\},
\end{aligned} \tag{2.38}$$

where $C_F = 4/3$ and $T_R = 1/2$.

Chapter 3

The H1 Detector at HERA

In this chapter the *Hadron-Elektron-Ring-Anlage* HERA, the first ep collider in the world, is introduced in Section 3.1. The H1 detector and its major components as well as their role in the analysis are described in Section 3.2. The standard kinematic reconstruction methods used in the present analysis are explained in Section 3.3. The chapter continues with a sketch of event simulation programs (Section 3.4) and concludes with the presentation of data used in this work.

3.1 The HERA Accelerator

HERA represents an important step in the development of the facilities for the study of the matter structure. It comprises a chain of preaccelerators, DESY-II ($e^{\pm}$), DESY-III (p) and PETRA are used as boosters. HERA consists of two independent accelerator storage rings accommodated in a 6.3 km long tunnel where 820 GeV protons collide with 27.6 GeV electrons. Since summer 1998 the proton energy is 920 GeV. A schematic view of the HERA machine together with the injection system is shown in Fig. 3.1.
PETRA accelerates and stores electrons up to 12 GeV and protons up to 40 GeV. The electron beam is then injected into HERA and guided by a warm magnet system of 0.165 T, while protons are injected into a ring with superconducting magnets of 4.68 T. The HERA accelerator was designed for 210 circulating bunches with 760 μA protons and 290 μA electrons each resulting in bunch crossing intervals of 96 ns corresponding to a rate of 10.4 MHz (see Table 3.1). The design luminosity was 1.5×10^{31} cm^{-1}s^{-1}. Since 1994, HERA operates with a positron beam [1]. The lifetime of positrons is longer than that of electrons due to repelling the remaining (positively charged) beam gas ions reducing the beam gas interactions and thus the loss of particles. Two big detectors (H1 and ZEUS) are operated at HERA using its ep colliding mode. One of them, the H1 detector, will be described in the next section.

[1] Since the DIS cross section at low Q^2 is nearly independent of the lepton beam charge, in the following and throughout this thesis the incident and scattered lepton will be referred to as electrons.

	Design		1997		
	p-ring	e-ring	p-ring	e-ring	units
Nominal energy	820	30	820	27.6	GeV
Number of bunches	210	210	175+6	175+14	
<Current>	159	58	74	28	mA
σ_x/σ_y at I.P.	0.29/0.7	0.26/0.02	0.21/0.04		mm
σ_z	110	8.0	115		mm
Peak Luminosity	1.5×10^{31}		1.01×10^{31}		$\mathrm{cm}^{-2}\mathrm{s}^{-1}$
Integrated Luminosity	50		34		pb^{-1}/year

Table 3.1: HERA design parameters (from [35]) and its performance in the year 1997. $\sigma_{x,y,z}$ stand for the x, y and z spread of the beam at the interaction point (I.P.).

3.2 Detector Overview

The H1 detector is a general purpose apparatus designed for the investigation of high-energy interactions of electrons and protons at HERA. In the design of the H1 detector prime attention has been given to the clean identification of electrons and to their energy measurement. The sketch of the H1 detector is illustrated in Fig. 3.2.

The H1 detector is a nearly hermetic apparatus located concentrically around the beam pipe. Its acceptance for final states particles is limited only by the forward and backward beam pipe holes. Due to the imbalance in the energy of the colliding beams most of the scattered particles are boosted in the proton direction. Therefore, the detector is asymmetric and better instrumented in the outgoing proton direction, which defines, by convention, the positive z direction of the H1 coordinate system. The polar angle is defined with respect to this direction. Therefore, the components of the detector situated on the positive side from the interaction point are referred to as “forward” and those on the negative side as “backward”. The components placed around the interaction point are called “central”.

The major goal of this experiment is to measure precisely the angles and energies of the final state particles as well as to identify the scattered electron. To facilitate this the H1 detector is composed of a central and forward tracking system surrounded by liquid argon (LAr) electromagnetic and hadronic calorimeters. The backward part of the detector is supplemented by the backward drift chamber (BDC), the electromagnetic and hadronic Spaghetti calorimeter (SpaCal) and a new backward silicon tracker (BST). A superconducting cylindrical coil with a diameter of 6 m and a length of 5.75 m provides a uniform magnetic field of 1.15 T. The iron return yoke of the magnet is filled with limited streamer tubes surrounding the whole detector, which serves for measuring the tails of hadronic showers and the muon tracks.

This thesis concerns a low Q^2 deep inelastic scattering analysis, therefore a special focus is put on the description of the backward part of the detector. The description of the BST which is the main detector for this work will be presented in the next chapter.

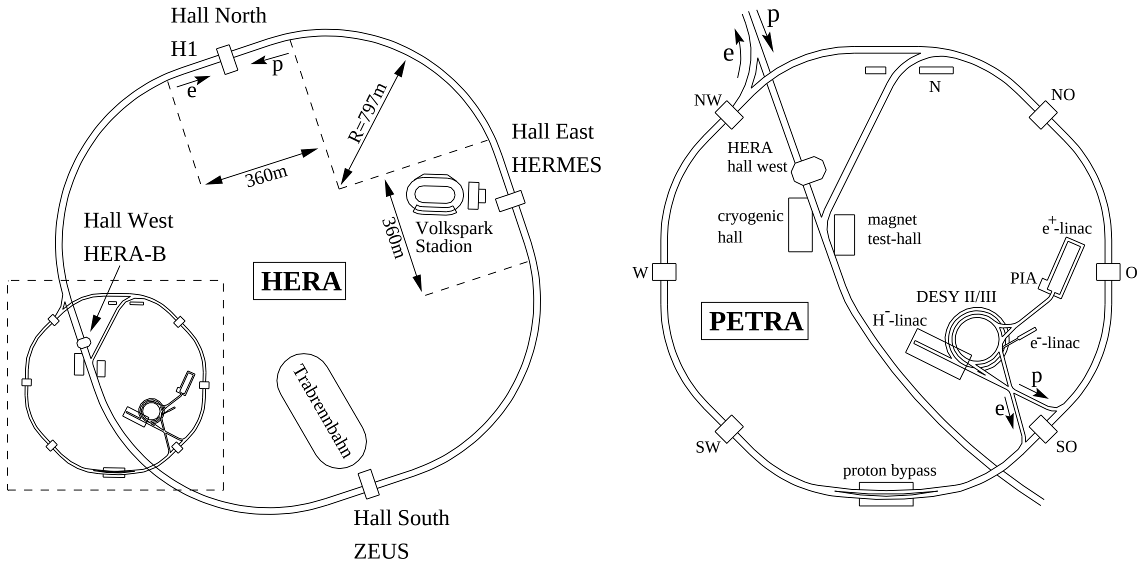

Figure 3.1: Schematic view of the ep storage ring HERA (left) together with the major experiments. The right figure presents a zoomed view of the HERA preaccelerator chain.

3.2.1 Luminosity System

The luminosity measurement is based on detecting the Bethe-Heitler bremsstrahlung events $ep \to ep\gamma$. Since this cross section is very large and well known, the luminosity can be calculated from the event rate taking into account the detector acceptance. The general view of the luminosity system is shown in Fig. 3.3. The luminosity system serves several purposes [36]:

- online luminosity measurement by the *coincidence* method when the e and γ in the final state are simultaneously detected;
- offline luminosity measurement by the *single-photon* method which counts the rate with the photon energy above a certain threshold;
- electron beam monitoring for the HERA machine;
- energy measurement for electrons scattered at $Q^2 < 0.01$ GeV^2 (tagging of photoproduction events) using the photon detector as a veto (see Section 6.4);
- measurement of photons from initial state radiation in DIS.

The luminosity system comprises two small electromagnetic calorimeters, the electron tagger (ET) and the photon detector (PD), situated in the HERA tunnel at z positions of -34.4 m and -102.9 m, respectively. The ET consists of 7×7 cells covering a total area of 154×154 mm^2. The electrons scattered with energy between 10