Measurement of the Cross Section for the Elastic Photoproduction of the J/ψ Meson at HERA

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Contents

Abstract

This thesis presents results on diffractive J/ψ photoproduction at the H1 experiment at HERA, using the decay channel $\mathrm{J}/\psi \longrightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$. The data sample was taken in 1995 and corresponds to an integrated luminosity of $4.9\,\mathrm{pb}^{-1}$. The γp cross section for elastic J/ψ production is found to increase steeply with centre-of-mass energy which is best described using perturbative QCD calculations developed by Ryskin. The γp cross section for proton-dissociative J/ψ production is also measured and shows a similar energy dependence to the elastic process. The t dependence of the cross sections is studied and is found to be exponential in accordance with a diffractive production mechanism. However, within the experimental errors on the slope parameters for each process, shrinkage is not observed. The decay angular distribution for the diffractive J/ψ sample is measured and found to be compatible with the assumption of s-channel helicity conservation made by both the soft and hard models of J/ψ production.

Chapter 1

Introduction

The study of high-energy lepton-proton collisions provides information about the structure of the proton and the nature of the force which binds it together. Historically, deep-inelastic scattering experiments of this kind have played a crucial role in the development and the experimental justification of the Quark Parton Model and Quantum Chromodynamics, which describe hadrons and their strong interactions. At HERA collisions occur between positrons and protons with a centre-of-mass energy of approximately 300 GeV, a factor of 10 larger than previous fixed target experiments. This opens a previously inaccessible kinematic domain which allows the structure of the proton to be probed using deep-inelastic scattering down to distances of about 10^{-18} m, providing a more accurate test of Quantum Chromodynamics. There is another group of events at HERA called photoproduction where the incoming positron emits an almost real photon which interacts with the proton. This category of events dominates the ep cross section.

In photoproduction J/ψ mesons are produced elastically by diffractive processes which describe the γp interaction as taking place via the exchange of a colourless object. Similar processes have been observed in hadron-hadron collisions and are described using Regge theory. Applications of this model of soft-hadronic interactions to diffractive events at HERA have been successful in describing the energy dependence of the total cross section and the production of the light vector mesons providing the colourless exchange is dominated at high energies by the pomeron, an object with the quantum numbers of the vacuum. However, despite these successes the pomeron has not yet been described in terms of Quantum Chromodynamics.

The study of elastic J/ψ production at HERA promises to provide information about the nature of the pomeron. Soft models have been extended to describe the production of this heavier vector meson; however these at present seem unable to describe the energy dependence of its cross section. The large mass of the charm quark, however, provides a hard scale allowing alternative calculations of the elastic J/ψ cross section to be made using perturbative QCD. These calculations are strongly dependent on the gluon distribution of the proton. The elastic production of the J/ψ meson thus lies in a region where both soft and hard models have been developed, perhaps making it possible to dispense with the traditional delineation.

A general description of ep interactions at HERA is given in chapter 2 before the production mechanisms and theoretical models of the J/ψ meson are discussed in detail. A description of the H1 detector at HERA follows in Chapter 3. The selection of a sample of elastic J/ψ candidates is discussed in chapter 4 before the measurement of the cross section is presented in chapter 5. Chapter 6 goes on to interpret these results in the context of the available theoretical predictions.

Chapter 2

HERA Physics

2.1 Introduction

HERA stands in a long line of experiments which use leptons, which are themselves thought to be structure-less, to probe the substructure of protons and neutrons. Where HERA is innovative, however, is in its achievement of centre-of-mass energies an order of magnitude larger than its predecessors. This is possible because of the colliding nature of the experiment where high momentum beams of positrons and protons take part in head on collisions. It is the first case of an $e^{\pm}p$[1] collider; previously experiments were of the fixed target kind where high energy beams of leptons were incident on stationary nucleon targets.

Deep-inelastic scattering (DIS), where the positron penetrates inside the proton, makes it possible to study the constituent parts of the nucleon. At HERA's high energies structure can be probed to scales ten times smaller than previously possible, making a more accurate test of the theory of strong interactions, namely Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD), possible. To give context to the analysis described in this thesis, the models of proton structure which have come about with the help of DIS are briefly reviewed at the start of this chapter. Generally, this theory is dealt with in increasing complexity in [1], [2] and [3], while topics specific to HERA are discussed in [4]. The theory more directly relevant to this thesis, however, includes that of photoproduction and vector meson production. These areas are covered in more depth in the second part of the chapter.

[1] Since June 1994 HERA has used positron beams, however the use of 'positron' or the generic 'e' applies equally to electrons except where stated otherwise.

2.2 Deep-inelastic Scattering

The proton and neutron ceased to be unique with the discovery of the pion in 1947 and a number of other strongly interacting particles in the years thereafter. The patterns between these particles were eventually expressed in 1964 in terms of an SU(3) symmetry, which seemed to be justified when the Ω^-, which was predicted by the model, was discovered three years later. This mathematical classification hinted at the existence of a hadronic substructure which was first formalised, also in 1964, in the quark models of Gell-Mann [5] and Zweig. These hypothesised that three types or flavours of spin $\frac{1}{2}$ particles called the up (u), down (d) and strange (s) quarks were the building blocks of all the hadrons.

This model was not proposed by Gell-Mann and Zweig as a physical reality. However, DIS experiments in the late 1960s suggested that the lepton probes were indeed scattering off pointlike constituents (partons). These partons were later identified with the postulated quarks. Since then, lepton-nucleon experiments have played an essential part in understanding this substructure and in elucidating the nature of the strong force that binds it together.

The fourth quark flavour, called charm (c), was predicted by Glashow, Iliopoulos and Maiani, and its existence was confirmed with the discovery of the J/ψ [6] [7] and ψ' [8] mesons at SLAC and Brookhaven in 1974. Later, in 1977, the heavier quark flavour, bottom (b), was identified with the discovery of the Υ at FNAL [9] [10]. This discovery was wholly unexpected and in order to preserve symmetry a sixth flavour called top (t) was then predicted. The discovery of the top quark took many years; however, in 1995, experiments at the Tevatron collider finally confirmed its existence [11] [12].

2.2.1 Kinematics

At HERA 27.5 GeV positrons are used to probe protons with energies of 820 GeV. Where DIS occurs the process can be represented diagrammatically as shown in figure 2.1, where the particles are labelled with their defining four-momenta. As can be seen, the positron and proton interact via the exchange of an electroweak boson: in the case of the neutral current process (NC), $ep \longrightarrow eY$, the mediating particle is a photon or Z^0, while for the charged current process (CC), $ep \longrightarrow \bar{\nu}Y$, a W^+ is exchanged.

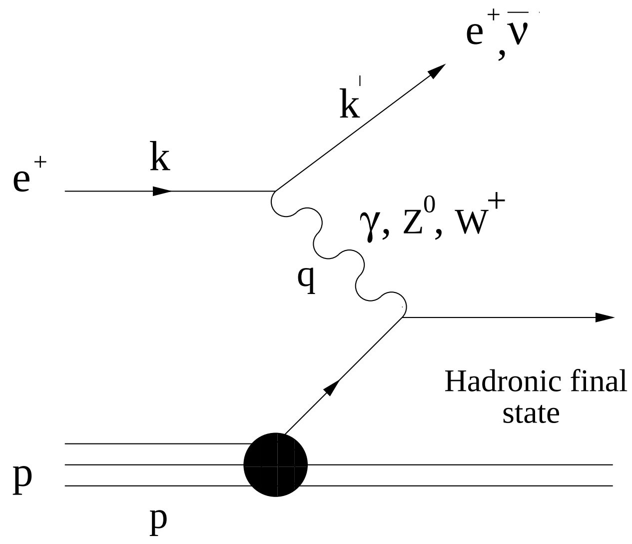

Figure 2.1: Diagram showing the DIS process for *ep* interactions. The four-momenta used to describe the kinematics of the process are defined.

Conventionally the kinematics of the DIS process are described by the two Lorentz invariant quantities:

$$Q^2 = -q^2 = -(k - k')^2 \tag{2.1}$$

$$x = \frac{Q^2}{2p \cdot q}. \tag{2.2}$$

The first variable, Q^2, represents the virtuality of the exchange boson and also determines the distance scale, $\lambda \sim 1/\sqrt{Q^2}$, to which the proton can be probed. The second quantity, x, often called the Bjorken scaling variable, can be interpreted in terms of the Quark Parton Model (QPM) which is discussed later. In this case x represents the fraction of the proton's momentum carried by the struck quark as measured in a frame where the proton's momentum is infinite. Another scaling variable, y, also proves useful in the study of *ep* interactions. This is defined as:

$$y = \frac{q \cdot p}{k \cdot p} \tag{2.3}$$

and can be interpreted as the fraction of the positron's energy which is transferred to the boson, measured in the proton rest frame. The quantities Q^2, x and y, as defined above, are all related via the simple equation:

$$Q^2 = xys, \tag{2.4}$$

where the positron and proton masses have been neglected. The extra variable s introduced here is defined as the square of the centre-of-mass energy of the ep system so that:

$$s = (k+p)^2. \tag{2.5}$$

At HERA the centre of mass energies achieved are around $\sqrt{s} = 300\,\mathrm{GeV}$. Finally, a variable important to this analysis is W, which represents the centre of mass energy of the boson-proton system. It can be related to the Q^2 and x variables already defined and is given by:

$$W^2 = (p+q)^2 \simeq Q^2\left(\frac{1-x}{x}\right). \tag{2.6}$$

Since these kinematic quantities are all interrelated, once two are known the others can be evaluated. The reconstruction of the kinematics of the event is possible in DIS events due to the identification and the measurement of the scattered positron. Providing the angle, θ and the energy, E', of the scattered positron are known then Q^2 and y are given by:

$$Q^2 = 4EE'\cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \tag{2.7}$$

$$y = 1 - \frac{E'}{E}\sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right), \tag{2.8}$$

where E is the beam energy of the incident positrons. The reconstruction of these quantities enable x and then W to be determined from equations 2.2 and 2.6.

The exchange of the electroweak boson, with a mass M, introduces a propagator term to the scattering amplitude of the form:

$$\frac{1}{Q^2 + M^2}. \tag{2.9}$$

This means that the mass-less photon is favoured as an exchange particle at low Q^2 and the heavier Z^0 and W^+ only contribute significantly when Q^2 is of the order of their masses. For the most part the Z^0 and W^+ only make small contributions to the total cross section when measured in the kinematic domain of HERA.

2.2.2 Proton Structure

The differential cross section for the NC DIS process can be expressed in terms of the structure functions, $F_1(x, Q^2)$, $F_2(x, Q^2)$ and $F_3(x, Q^2)$, so that:

$$\frac{d^2\sigma_{NC}}{dxdQ^2} = \frac{4\pi\alpha_{em}^2}{xQ^4}\left[xy^2F_1(x,Q^2) + (1-y)F_2(x,Q^2) + \left(y - \frac{y^2}{2}\right)xF_3(x,Q^2)\right] \tag{2.10}$$

The final term, involving $F_3(x, Q^2)$, remains negligible however, until Q^2 is of the order of the Z^0 mass. The remaining structure functions $F_1(x, Q^2)$ and $F_2(x, Q^2)$ are related by the Callan-Gross relation [13] as a consequence of the spin $\frac{1}{2}$ nature of the partons in the proton. This states that:

$$2xF_1 = F_2, \tag{2.11}$$

so that the determination of $F_2(x, Q^2)$ is the essential factor in the understanding and modelling of the proton's internal structure. Due to this, F_2 has been extensively measured and the results from some of these analyses are shown in figure 2.2 [14] as a function of x and Q^2. The features of these plots require explanations from the Quark Parton Model and QCD.

The Quark Parton Model [15] [16] assumes that the quarks inside the proton are pointlike. With this restriction it can be shown that, at fixed values of x, $F_2(x, Q^2)$ remains constant as a function of Q^2. This phenomenon, called scale invariance [17], was seen in the early DIS experiments, so that the point-like nature of the quarks

a) b)

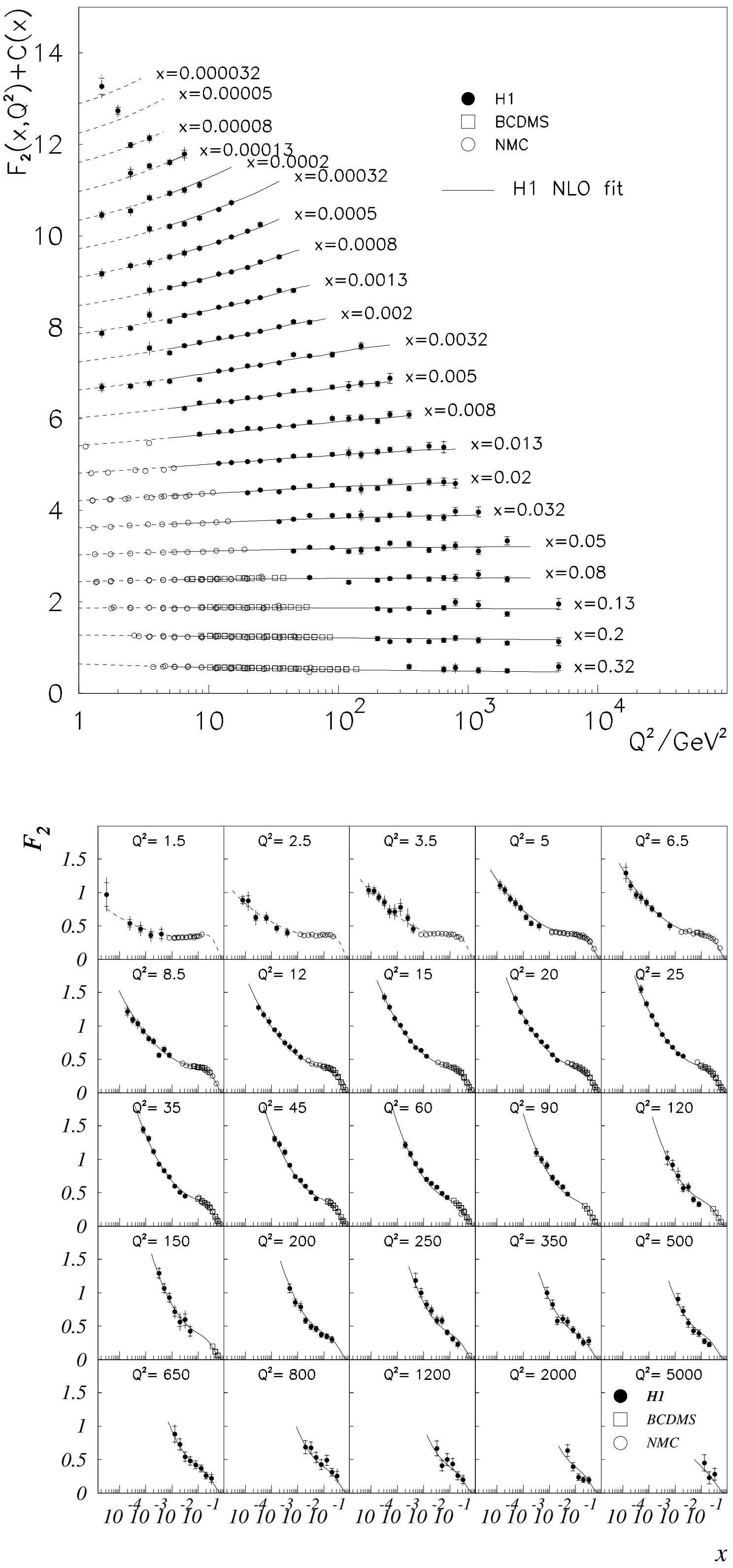

Figure 2.2: Plots showing the proton structure function, $F_2(x, Q^2)$, as a function of a) Q^2 and b) x. [14] The data is from H1 and the fixed target experiments: BCDMS and NMC. The fit shown is a NLO QCD fit.

was assumed to be true. There was also experimental evidence for the derived Callan-Gross relation, lending support to the idea that the quarks were spin $\frac{1}{2}$ particles. Therefore, the DIS process can be treated within the QPM as the elastic scattering of a highly virtual photon off a free point-like object inside the proton. However, free quarks are never observed in isolation due to a phenomenon called colour confinement. This means that after the photon-quark scattering a process called hadronisation occurs where the struck quark and the proton remnant form the bound quark units that make up the observed final state. The scattering and hadronisation are considered to be independent processes, so that DIS can be regarded in two stages.

The Quark Parton Model described above has several serious flaws that require a more detailed understanding of the proton's structure. Firstly, the measurement of $F_2(x, Q^2)$ over large regions of x, as shown in figure 2.2, demonstrates that the scale invariance is approximate and only holds in the region where $x \approx 0.1$. At lower values $F_2(x, Q^2)$ is seen to increase with Q^2 while at higher values it decreases. This behaviour is known as the scaling violation. Secondly, when the momentum distributions of the quarks in the proton are summed the total only accounts for approximately half of the proton's overall momentum. These factors can be accounted for in the QCD model which states that the strong force binding the quarks together inside the proton is carried by a neutral vector boson called the gluon. In this model the proton is made up of the three valence quarks which radiate gluons, which in turn can produce the quark-antiquark pairs which are called the 'sea' quarks.

Since the photon can couple to quarks and not gluons the quantity F_2 is a measurement of the number of quarks in the proton. However, within the QCD model the number of sea quarks is related to the gluon content of the proton so that the rise of F_2 at low x which is indicative of an increase of quarks in the proton is in fact driven by an increase in the number of gluons. The lower momentum sea quarks make increasingly significant contributions to $F_2(x, Q^2)$ at higher Q^2, when smaller distances are probed. As x tends towards low values, where the valence quarks carry less of the proton's momentum and the sea quarks are more prominent, $F_2(x, Q^2)$ is expected to rise. Conversely, when x is large and the momentum of the proton is held mostly by the valence quarks, $F_2(x, Q^2)$ is expected to fall. This is indeed seen in figure 2.2. In a more quantitative sense the equations of Dokshitzer, Gribov, Lipatov, Alterelli and Parisi (DGLAP) [18] [19] [20], which are based on the QCD model, describe the evolution of F_2 as a function of Q^2 very accurately over a very wide range of Q^2.

The coupling constant, α_s, of the strong force runs in the opposite direction to that of the electromagnetic force, α_{em}, due to the fact that the gluons, like quarks, carry the colour charge and can couple to themselves. The consequence of this is that at low Q^2 α_s is very large which means that the quarks are very strongly interacting. As Q^2 increases α_s falls off rapidly so that in the limit $Q^2 \rightarrow \infty$ the quarks are considered to be non-interacting or 'asymptotically free'. It is this that accounts for the success of the Quark Parton Model in this kinematic domain. When $\alpha_s \ll 1$ perturbation theory can be used to predict the cross section for a particular process. This is so when, for example, the Q^2 of the mediating boson is known to be sufficiently large or when the final state contains a lepton pair with a large invariant mass. These types of conditions are referred to as a 'hard scale' without which predictions can only be made using phenomenological methods. The behaviour of α_s also explains the fact that quarks are never seen in isolation since the energy required to separate the quark from the proton is far higher than the energy required to create a bound quark-antiquark state. This phenomenon is referred to as confinement and explains the colourless nature of any observed final state.

2.3 Photoproduction

As has been indicated, the dominant contribution to the NC ep cross section at HERA are events where the positron and proton interact via the exchange of a virtual photon. However, the term photoproduction is reserved for the category of events where this photon is almost real so that the positron is scattered through small angles and $Q^2 \sim 0$. The rate for this type of event gets increasingly large as $Q^2 \rightarrow 0$ due to the $1/\mathrm{Q}^4$ term in equation 2.10. The Q^2 boundary between DIS and photoproduction events is not a physical one, however, leaving it open for a multitude of definitions. At H1 photoproduction is usually referred to as an event whose scattered positron is not detected in the main body of the detector. In most cases this means that the scattered positron, which is required to have polar angles of greater than 179°, remains undetected, although a small number are detected in the electron tagger, which is situated close to the beam-pipe in the negative z direction. Applying this criterion to this analysis gives a sample of events with a range of $Q^2 < 1.2\,\mathrm{GeV}^2$.

The photoproduction process in an ep collision can be divided using the single photon approximation into two subprocesses: the radiation of the almost-real photon by the positron $\mathrm{e} \rightarrow \mathrm{e}\gamma$ and the physics process of the photon interacting with the proton $\gamma p \rightarrow \mathrm{Y}$. The former case can be regarded as an independent factor in the calculation of the γp cross section and is estimated using the Weizsäcker-Williams approximation (see section 5.8).

Experimentally, photoproduction events can be categorised into two classes in terms of the transverse momentum, p_t, of their final states. The smaller class is where there is a sufficiently large p_t in the final state to indicate a 'hard' subprocess, thereby justifying the use of perturbative QCD in calculations. The alternative is where the final state has a low p_t confining the event to the 'soft' category where perturbative QCD calculations can not be used. To model the behaviour of these events phenomenological models are used. Again, the boundary between these two classes is somewhat loose, however as a rough guide a $p_t > 1$ GeV should be expected for a hard interaction while a soft process would only have a few hundred MeV associated with it. HERA's kinematic range straddles both of these cases so that the study of the transition region between hard and soft processes is possible.

The hard process can be further categorised into 'direct' and 'resolved' processes, examples of which are represented by the diagrams in figure 2.3. In the direct process the photon acts as a point-like particle which couples directly to a quark in the proton and is effectively absorbed during the hard subprocess. An example of this type of process is boson-gluon-fusion (BGF), which is sensitive to the gluon distribution in the proton. BGF happens to be one of the mechanisms by which the J/ψ meson is produced and hence is discussed further in section 2.4.1. It is also possible for the photon to contribute only a fraction of its momentum to the hard photon-proton interaction. This is referred to as the resolved process where a photon remnant is apparent in the final state, though often with a low transverse momentum. In this case the photon is believed not to be point-like but to exhibit some kind of hadronic structure, making the resolved process an important area of study. The photon structure function has been measured for real and virtual photons by H1 [21] [22] and for photons with small virtualities by Zeus [23].

2.3.1 Vector Meson Dominance

Modelling the hadronic nature of the photon is of course important to the study of the resolved process but in fact it also proves useful in the description of the soft category of interactions where QCD can not be used. The point-like photon can display a hadronic structure via the process $\gamma \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ so that the photon-proton interaction can in many ways be likened to that of a hadron-hadron collision. On this basis the Vector-Meson-Dominance Model (VMD) describes the photon in terms

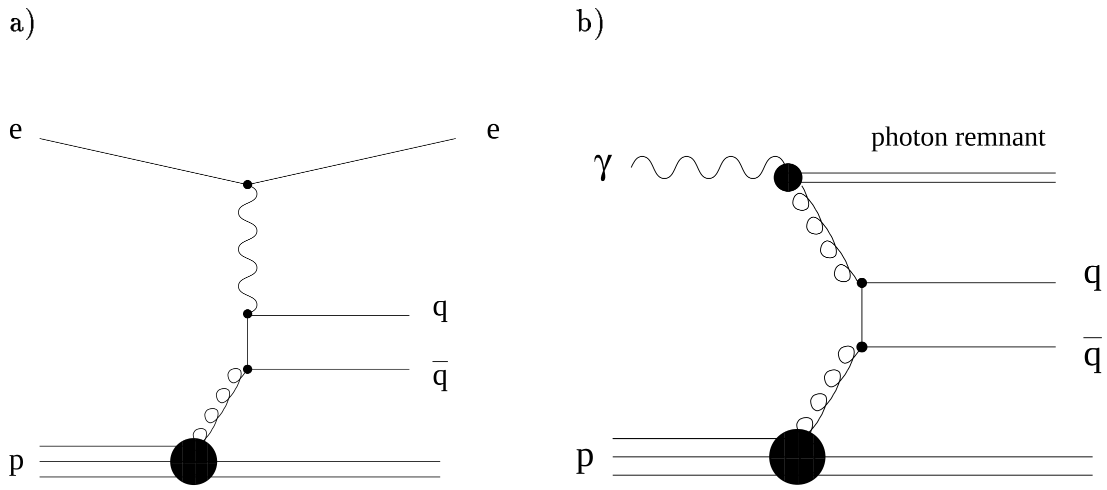

Figure 2.3: Diagram demonstrating the difference between direct and resolved processes. (a) shows the Boson-Gluon-Fusion (BGF) process where the photon behaves as a point-like object. (b) shows an example of a resolved process where only a fraction of the photon's momentum contributes to the hard process, the remaining fraction producing the photon remnant.

of a superposition of the bare photon component and a hadronic component. The largest contribution to the hadronic component comes from the lightest bound quark states of the ρ, ω and ϕ vector mesons which necessarily share the same quantum numbers as the photon. These are taken into account in the simplest version of the VMD [24] where each meson contributes according to its mass and its effective coupling to the photon. The generalised VMD [25] adds to the simpler model by including contributions from the heavier vector mesons (ρ', J/ψ , ψ', Υ) while the extended version of the VMD [26] goes even further and includes a spectrum of unbound quark states with the appropriate quantum numbers.

2.3.2 Regge Theory

A phenomenological method which successfully explained the hadron-hadron scattering cross sections was introduced by Regge in 1959 [27]. This theory models the strong interaction between hadrons as being mediated by a series of colourless objects called 'reggeons', which result in there being no exchange of the colour charge between the incident particles. This was used to explain a group of events which displayed a large angular (rapidity) gap between the remnants of each of the hadrons.

Similar events are also observed in DIS and photoproduction at HERA where a gap, free of hadrons, is seen between the proton remnant and the current region. These events which are thought, at HERA, to be due to the exchange of a colourless object called the pomeron, are referred to as diffraction. Treating the photon as a hadronic state described by VMD, models based on Regge theory have been used to describe soft diffractive processes where perturbative QCD is not applicable. By studying diffractive photoproduction this model can be experimentally tested giving information about the nature of the exchange particle. In diffractive DIS, where there is a hard scale, it is possible to go further and actually probe its partonic structure.

In 1935 Yukawa [28] predicted the existence of the π^0 meson as a way of explaining the finite range of the strong force in terms of the exchange of a massive particle. Using the uncertainty principle which relates the range of a force to the mass of the exchange particle he managed to estimate the mass of the π^0 before its discovery. Now however it is understood that the π^0 is only the lightest of the possible exchange states. The heavier the meson exchanged the shorter the range of influence so that when considering high energy interactions between nucleons all the contributions to the strong force need to be considered. Obviously this is extremely complicated given the large number of known mesons and this is the problem addressed by Regge theory. A full description of how the theory was formulated is contained in [29] and [30].

The key to the solution was recognising that the meson resonances followed a pattern which can be seen when their spin, α, is plotted against the square of their masses, M^2. Mesons which share the same quantum numbers other than that of spin are found to sit on approximately straight lines called Regge trajectories which describe the exchange. Observed resonances sit at values of $\mathrm{M}^2 > 0$ so that t, the four momentum squared of the exchange defined by:

$$t = (p - p')^2, \tag{2.12}$$

is positive. Conversely, the virtual mesons which have values of $\mathrm{M}^2 < 0$ have negative values of t. In this thesis the use of t now refers to the positive value $|t|$. The relationship between the spin of mesons and t can now be described using the equation for a straight line so that:

$$\alpha(t) = \alpha(0) + \alpha' t, \tag{2.13}$$

where $\alpha(0)$ and α' represent the intercept and gradient of the trajectory.

Unfortunately, all the known meson trajectories give values of $\alpha(0)$ <0.6, which fail to model the data obtained from HERA. If the exchange in strong interactions occurs purely by the exchange of mesons then the total and elastic cross sections are expected to decrease as a function of the centre of mass energy of the interaction. This does indeed occur in low energy experiments where $\sqrt{s}$ <10 GeV but at HERA's high energies an increase of the cross sections is seen. To reconcile this with Regge theory a new trajectory representing the pomeron, $I\!P$, is introduced. The pomeron has the quantum numbers of the vacuum and dominates the exchange at high energies so that at HERA the differential cross section, at fixed t, of soft diffractive processes is found to be:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dt} \propto \left(\frac{W^2}{W_0^2}\right)^{2\alpha_{I\!P}(t)-2}. \tag{2.14}$$

where $\alpha_{I\!P}$ represents the pomeron trajectory and W=$W_{\gamma p}$, measured relative to the arbitrary value of $W_{\gamma p} = W_0$. The cross sections of soft diffractive processes are found to be enhanced at low values of t. This strong forward peaking is described well by an exponential function so that the variation of the differential cross section as a function of t and at fixed W can be expressed as:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dt} \propto e^{-b_0 t} \tag{2.15}$$

The constant b_0 can be related, via the optical theorem, to the radii squared of the two objects participating in the elastic scatter. Combining these two relationships gives the general expression of the cross section:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dt} \propto \left(\frac{W^2}{W_0^2}\right)^{2\alpha_{I\!P}(0)-2} e^{-bt} \tag{2.16}$$

where b is referred to as the slope parameter and is defined as:

$$b = b_0 + 4\alpha'_{I\!P} \ln\left(\frac{W}{W_0}\right). \tag{2.17}$$

Equation 2.16 shows that the essential parameters modelling the behaviour of the cross section of soft diffractive processes are the pomeron intercept, $\alpha_{I\!P}(0)$, and the slope parameter, b. Measurements made of the energy dependence of the differential cross section can give experimental information on the nature of the pomeron. Likewise, a test of Regge theory can be made by determining the value of b from experiment. Equation 2.17 shows that b has a $W_{\gamma p}$ dependence which, providing $\alpha'_{I\!P}$ is greater than zero, causes the forward peak of the distribution relating the differential cross section to t to narrow as the energy increases. This effect is called 'shrinkage' and has been observed in hadron-hadron scattering [31].

Regge theory can also predict the energy dependence of the total cross section. Using the optical theorem the imaginary part of the of the forward (t=0) scattering amplitude can be related to the total cross section. The real part is assumed to be zero for soft diffractive events. Thus, for a general elastic collision

$$\sigma_{tot}(AB) \sim \left(\frac{s}{s_0}\right)^{\alpha(0)-1} \qquad (2.18)$$

where s is the centre-of-mass energy squared and α represents the trajectory intercept of the exchange. Donnachie and Landshoff [32] found that it was possible to achieve good fits to the total cross section data from pp, πp and γp experiments using a single function for α. This fit is marked in figure 2.4 [33] which shows the HERA data along with low energy results. The function takes into account contributions from meson and pomeron exchange. The meson contribution, which is referred to as a reggeon, dominates at low energies due to its larger coupling to the hadrons. However, this coupling reduces with energy so that at high energies the pomeron term is most significant. From this fitting of the data, universal values for the reggeon and pomeron intercepts have been found so that $\alpha_{I\!R}(0)$=0.55 and $\alpha_{I\!P}(0)$=1.080. These can be used in the predictions for elastic scattering.

Regge theory has been found to be successful in describing soft diffractive processes in hadron-hadron scattering and in photoproduction. The introduction of the soft Donnachie-Landshoff pomeron has allowed the total cross sections of a variety of experiments to be understood using a single parameterisation and the diffractive production of the light vector mesons at HERA is also well described using this model. However, the same parameterisation seems unable to describe the diffractive processes which contain a hard scale, such as DIS and the diffractive production of the J/ψ meson. These demonstrate much steeper energy dependences than those predicted by Regge theory and a soft pomeron. In these cases models have been developed using perturbative QCD to describe diffraction in terms of a hard subprocess. Some of these models are discussed in relation to the production of the J/ψ meson in the next section.

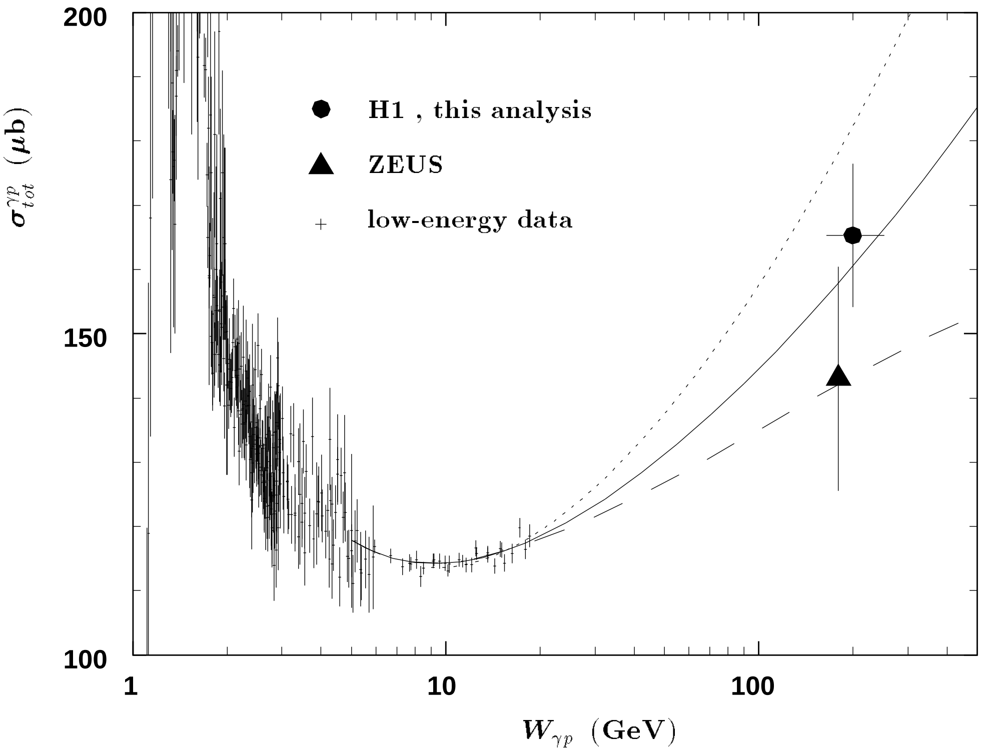

Figure 2.4: Figure showing the total cross section from a variety of experiments as a function of $W_{\gamma p}$. The solid line shows the Donnachie and Landshoff fit described in the text. Figure is taken from [33].

2.4 The J/ψ Meson

The discovery of the J/ψ meson at SLAC and Brookhaven in 1974 was interpreted as a bound state of a new and heavier quark called charm (c) and its antiparticle ($\bar{c}$). It was also suggested at the time that these charmed mesons carried a new quantum number called charm which was conserved, like strangeness, in strong and electromagnetic interactions. This turned out to be accurate as in the years following a whole spectrum of bound charmed states were identified which fell neatly into this scheme. These mesons are generically called charmonium and a list of those that have been identified to date, along with their quantum numbers and masses is included in table 2.1. These particles are also described as 'hidden charm' states since the net charm of the system is zero. Apart from charmonium there is another category of mesons where only one of the constituent quarks is of the charm variety. These mesons, for example $\mathrm{D}^0(c\bar{u})$, are referred to as 'open charm' due to their possessing net charm.

Name	J^{PC}	Mass (MeV)
$\eta_c(1S)$	0^{-+}	2.98
J/ψ (1S)	1^{--}	3.10
$\chi_{c0}(1P)$	0^{++}	3.42
$\chi_{c1}(1P)$	1^{++}	3.51
$h_c(1P)^2$	$?^{??}$	~3.5
$\chi_{c2}(1P)$	2^{++}	3.56
$\eta_c(2S)^2$	$?^{?+}$	3.59
$\psi(2S)^3$	1^{--}	3.69
$\psi(3770)$	1^{--}	3.77
$\psi(4040)$	1^{--}	4.04
$\psi(4160)$	1^{--}	4.16
$\psi(4160)$	1^{--}	4.16
$\psi(4415)$	1^{--}	4.42

Table 2.1: A list of known charmonium states. The quantum numbers J^{PC} refer respectively to the orbital angular momentum, the parity and the C-parity (=$(-1)^{L+S}$) of the state. Data taken from [34].

The fact that the ψ mesons share the same quantum numbers as the photon means that they can be produced directly in e^+e^- and ep interactions where the mediating particle is the virtual photon. This makes it a convenient system in which to study hidden charm. The heaviness of the charm mass ($\approx \frac{M(J/\psi)}{2} \approx 1.5\,\text{GeV}$) allows the combined object to be treated as a non-relativistic system. In this way the potential between the c and $\bar{c}$ quarks can be approximated with a simple Coulomb-like potential at short range and a confining potential proportional to r at longer distances. This means that the function describing the potential as a function of distance r can be written as:

$$V(r) = \frac{4\alpha_s}{3r} + ar, \tag{2.19}$$

where the $\frac{4}{3}$ is the colour factor associated with the strong coupling, α_s, and a is a constant. This simple model is successful in describing the spin, orbital angular momentum and total angular momentum states of the charmonium spectrum. The mass of the charm quark also makes it possible to apply perturbative QCD to the production of the J/ψ meson even in photoproduction. Since it then sits in

[2] The discovery of this state has not been confirmed.
[3] This state is also referred to as ψ'

the transition region between the definitively hard and soft processes, the study of J/ψ production should throw light on the pomeron in this ambiguous region.

A noteworthy characteristic of the J/ψ resonance is that it is very narrow. This is now understood as being due to Zweig suppression and in fact applies to all the charmonium states with masses below 3.73 MeV. This energy cut-off is significant due to its being twice the mass of the lightest charmed mesons called the D-mesons. If a bound charmed state lies below this energy cut-off it can only decay strongly to non-charmed mesons due to the restriction imposed by energy conservation. When colour and parity are conserved the coupling between the charmed J/ψ and its uncharmed hadronic decay can only be achieved with a minimum of three gluons as shown in figure 2.5(a). This process is heavily suppressed allowing the electromagnetic decay of the J/ψ to a lepton pair to take a larger proportion of the branching ratio. This suppression of the strong decay also applies to the ψ' resonance which lies above the J/ψ . The next meson in the spectrum is the $\psi(3770)$ meson with a mass of 3.77 Mev; this is permitted to decay to charmed mesons as shown in figure 2.5(b) and thus displays a broader resonance more in keeping with a hadronic decay. These broader resonances are more difficult to identify experimentally making the higher mass states less well measured.

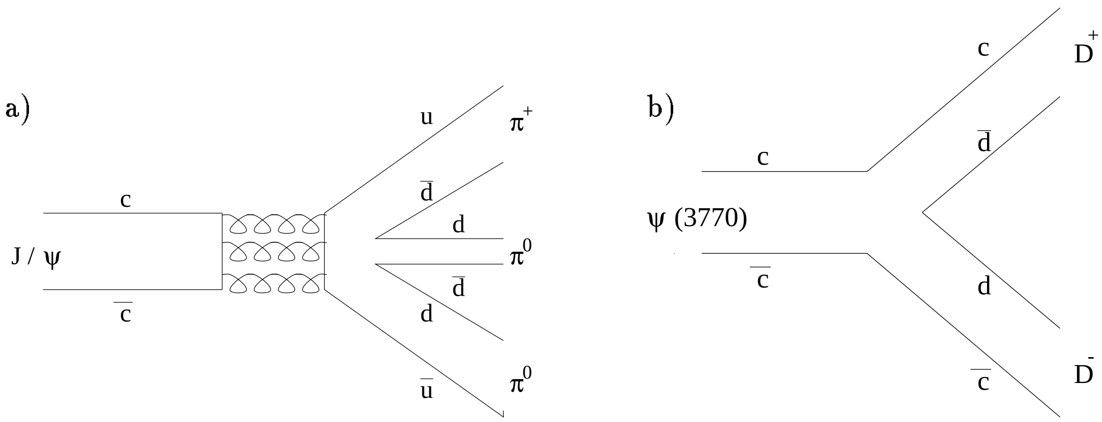

Figure 2.5: Diagrams demonstrating Zweig suppression in the decay of charmonium via the strong interaction. (a) shows how the J/ψ is forced to decay to non-charm hadrons via three gluons. This decay is suppressed making the electromagnetic decay to lepton pairs more significant than for higher charmonium states. (b) shows how the $\psi(3770)$ state is heavy enough to decay to a pair of D mesons so that the suppression isn't apparent.

It is possible for the ψ mesons to be produced in both inelastic and elastic collisions at HERA and these are discussed in general in [35]. Where they are produced in-elastically colour charge is transferred between the proton and the final charm state so that the proton breaks up leaving a hadronic final state along with the decay products of the meson. Alternatively, they can be produced elastically through the so called diffractive process where the proton remains intact or at most dissociates into fragments with low transverse momenta. In this case the final state consists only of the decay products of the meson. When discussing the elasticity of a process it is useful to introduce the scaling variable z which is defined as:

$$z = \frac{p \cdot p_\psi}{p \cdot q}, \tag{2.20}$$

where p and q represent the four-momenta of the proton and photon as shown in figure 2.1 and p_ψ is the four-momentum of the produced meson. In the rest frame of the proton $z = \frac{E_\psi}{E_\gamma}$ so that it runs between $0 < z < 1$ and at the extreme where the meson retains all the photon energy $z \approx 1$ and the process is described as elastic.

2.4.1 Inelastic Production

The predominant in-elastic ($z \lesssim 0.9$) mechanism for the photoproduction of J/ψ mesons is BGF. This process, described diagrammatically in figure 2.3(a), involves the photon taking part in a hard interaction with a gluon in the proton to form a $c\bar{c}$ pair. The mass of the charm quark provides a hard scale so that this hard interaction, which is sensitive to the gluon content of the proton, can be calculated using perturbative QCD. The formation of the J/ψ meson from the $c\bar{c}$ pair is considered to be a separate process which takes place non-perturbatively.

In the colour-singlet (CS) model [36], shown in figure 2.6, a gluon is also produced in the hard interaction so that the $c\bar{c}$ pair is in a colourless state like the J/ψ into which it will be formed. Alternatively, it is proposed that the $c\bar{c}$ pair can be produced via the colour-octet model [37] where it retains its colour at the hard interaction stage and only sheds it by the emission of soft (non-perturbative) gluons before the formation of the J/ψ meson. The colour-octet model has been used to try and explain the excess rate of heavy flavour production at the Tevatron $p\bar{p}$ collider [38]; however, as yet, HERA has seen no evidence of a similar excess in their data [39]. The theoretical next-to-leading-order predictions arising from the colour-singlet model have been compared to low energy data from EMC and to HERA data and good agreement has been found providing a steep gluon density in the proton is used at low x [40] [41]. The measurement of the gluon distribution in the proton is very sensitive to the model of inelastic production used, so that any significant contribution from the colour-octet process needs to be recognised and understood.

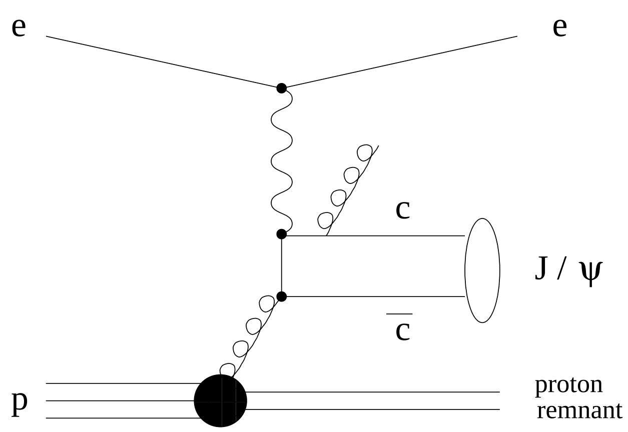

Figure 2.6: Diagram showing the colour-singlet mechanism for J/ψ production.

The photoproduction of the J/ψ meson can also occur in resolved processes where a parton from the photon couples with a parton from the proton. One example of this is gluon-gluon fusion where the the colour singlet process would look like:

$$\gamma p \rightarrow g_\gamma + g_p \rightarrow c\bar{c}(^3S_1) + g \rightarrow J/\psi + g \tag{2.21}$$

These contributions are found to be small at HERA only contributing significantly to the region z <0.4. Indirect mechanisms where the J/ψ is the decay product of a higher mass charmonium state or a B-meson are also possible but these contributions are considered to be small.

2.4.2 Elastic Production

The use of the term elastic at HERA is not an accurate one. Strictly, an elastic process is one where the rest mass of the final state is equal to that of the initial state and this is clearly not so for the exclusive reaction $\gamma p \longrightarrow J/\psi + p$. However, despite this, it is conventional to refer to this process as elastic since the required momentum transfer from the proton is considered negligible compared to the high centre-of-mass energies available at HERA. The elastic process has values of the elasticity variable z=1. There is another category of events which are not elastic but which have values of z close to one. Like the elastic process no colour is transferred from the proton to the charm final state and though the proton breaks up, its fragments have low transverse momenta. These cases are described as proton-dissociative and these together with the elastic process lie in the 'quasi-elastic' region where $z > 0.95$.

Elastic and proton-dissociative J/ψ production are generally described using phenomological models of soft-diffractive processes. Donnachie and Landshoff [42] have developed predictions for the exclusive production of vector mesons using Regge theory which was originally designed to model soft-hadronic interactions. However, by exploiting the hadronic behaviour of the photon described by VMD, the elastic process can be treated as a hadron-hadron interaction where the photon fluctuates into an off-shell J/ψ which is put on-shell by a small momentum transfer from the proton. In this way the HERA process $\gamma + p \longrightarrow J/\psi + p$ can be related to the truly elastic process $J/\psi + p \longrightarrow J/\psi + p$ which are found to share the same energy dependences of their cross sections. In the Donnachie-Landshoff model the interaction between the virtual J/ψ and the proton is mediated by the soft pomeron, which is conjectured to be two or more non-perturbative gluons, or possibly a glueball [43]. This diffractive mechanism is shown in figure 2.7 for the elastic and proton-dissociative processes.

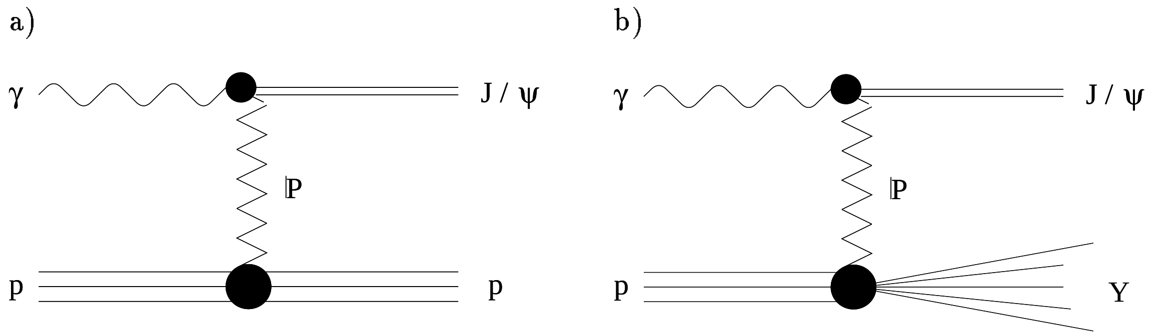

Figure 2.7: Diagrams showing the diffractive production mechanism for quasi-elastic J/ψ production. (a) shows the elastic process and (b) shows the proton-dissociative process.

Equation 2.16 shows how the cross section of an elastic process is related to $W_{\gamma p}$ within the constraints of Regge theory. Using the value of the pomeron intercept, extracted by Donnachie and Landshoff by fitting the total cross sections of γp and hadron-hadron experiments, the rise of the cross section as a function of $W_{\gamma p}$ can be evaluated. In this way the relationship is found to be:

$$\left.\frac{d\sigma_{el}}{dt}\right|_{t=0} \propto W_{\gamma p}^{4\epsilon} \tag{2.22}$$

where $\epsilon = \alpha_{I\!P}(t)-1$. Assuming that shrinkage exists, so that $\alpha'_{I\!P} > 0$, the Donnachie-Landshoff parameterisation predicts a slow rise of the elastic J/ψ cross section so that $\sigma_{el} \propto W_{\gamma p}^{0.22}$. Where no shrinkage exists and $\alpha'_{I\!P}$=0 equation 2.22 reduces to $\sigma_{el} \propto W_{\gamma p}^{0.32}$ so that a slightly steeper rise is expected.

The t dependence of the differential cross section, as can be seen from equation 2.16, is assumed to be an exponential function, where the parameter b describes the slope. In the photoproduction region, where $Q^2 \approx 0$, t can be approximated to -$p_t^2(J/\psi)$ the negative transverse momentum squared of the J/ψ meson. This approximation is used to measure b in order to check whether the phenomenon of shrinkage, which is inherent to Regge based models, is observed.

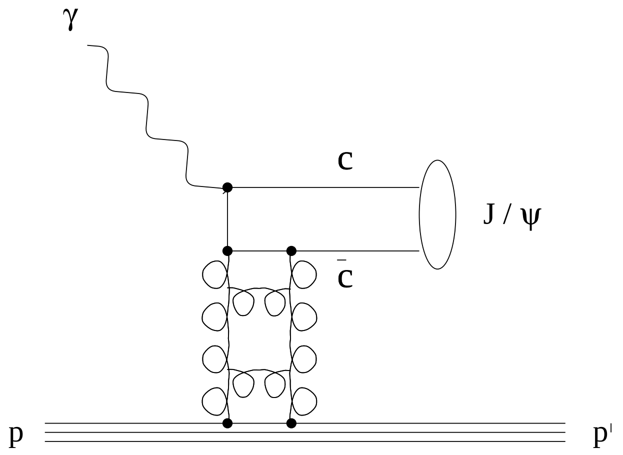

Figure 2.8: Diagram showing a QCD mechanism for the elastic production of J/ψ mesons. Here the exchange between the charm system and the proton occurs via a gluon ladder.

Lately, attempts have been made to describe the elastic production of the J/ψ in terms of perturbative QCD. This is thought to be possible due to the hard scale provided by the mass of the charm quark. A model by Ryskin [44] replaces the soft pomeron by a hard version which is constructed from gluons. In the simplest form the exchange particle can be formed from two gluons with higher orders creating more complicated structures such as the gluon ladder shown in figure 2.8. The model assumes that the elastic process can be factorised into three separate parts: the transition $\gamma \to c\bar{c}$; the scattering of the $c\bar{c}$ on the proton via a colourless exchange and then finally the formation of the J/ψ meson from the $c\bar{c}$ pair. The scattering of the quark pair off the proton takes place over a much shorter time-scale than the other two parts of the process. Ryskin has shown that the cross section of the process depends on the squared of the gluon distribution in the proton. The GRV [45] and MRSA′ [46] distributions, which show a gluon density increasing towards low values of x and have been found to describe the F_2 measurements at HERA, are used to model the energy dependence of the elastic J/ψ cross section. The use of these distributions, to differing degrees, results in a steeper rise in the J/ψ cross section than that predicted by soft pomeron exchange.

The nature of the pomeron in diffractive interactions is of great interest at HERA. The light vector mesons are well described by the soft pomeron, whereas high Q^2 interactions appear to be described by the hard BFKL pomeron which is developed using QCD. The transition between the hard and soft models is not yet understood and it is not clear whether the models should be used separately or whether they should be mixed, perhaps as a function of Q^2 [43]. The elastic production of J/ψ mesons at HERA promises to provide information on the pomeron in this transition region and distinguish between the hard and soft models that have been developed to describe its behaviour.

Chapter 3

HERA and the H1 Detector

3.1 Introduction

The HERA machine started producing data in 1992 and is the first and only ep collider that has been built to date. In 1995 it produced collisions between 27.5 GeV positrons and 820 GeV protons thereby accessing a centre-of-mass energy of 300 GeV - a factor of 10 larger than previous fixed target experiments. The electrons and protons are accelerated and kept in separate storage rings located side by side in a 6.3 km long tunnel. The positron and proton 'beams' each consist of 174 bunches of particles which are timed to pass through each other at two locations where the storage rings merge together. This is referred to as a 'bunch crossing' and these occur at 96 ns intervals. In addition to the colliding bunches there are 15 positron and 6 proton pilot bunches. These are non-colliding and are used to study and estimate the backgrounds produced when beam particles interact either with residual gas in the beam-pipe (beam gas) or the beam-pipe itself (beam-wall).

There are four experiments located around the HERA storage rings: H1(North), Zeus(South), HERMES(East) and HERA-B(West). H1 and Zeus are built around the two interaction points and are designed as general-purpose detectors to study all aspects of ep scattering. In contrast HERMES and HERA-B are dedicated experiments. HERMES [47] [48] only uses HERA's positron beam which is longitudinally polarised before it enters the experiment where it collides with a fixed, polarised gas target. It is designed to measure the spin distributions of the quarks in the nucleons and since taking data in 1995 has produced preliminary results for spin structure functions of the nucleon. HERA-B on the other hand plans to only use HERA's proton beam. This experiment is at present under construction; however, it will consist of wire targets being introduced to the beam-pipe in order to investigate CP violation in the B system.

The general-purpose objective of the H1 detector meant that its design needed to satisfy wide ranging physics specifications. To this end the detector has been constructed to detect as many of the products from the *ep* collision as possible using a mixture of tracking and calorimetry. In fact the hermeticity is almost complete apart from the space occupied by the beam-pipe. An asymmetric layout of the detector is necessary due to the large asymmetry in the beam energies which results in collision products being Lorentz boosted in the laboratory frame along the proton direction. Thus, the detector components concentrated in the forward region need to be able to cope with large track multiplicites and high momentum measurements. Good hermetic calorimetry over the whole detector is a another requirement of the design. This is necessary for the study of energy flow, particularly charged current events which are identified by a neutrino inferred from missing transverse energy. In the same way the tracking systems are built with specified resolutions to enable the study of high density jet events. Lepton identification and measurement is important for the study of the heavy quark resonances and new exotic particles as well as in locating the scattered positron. In the case of electrons and positrons calorimetry is used in combination with tracking systems; for the more penetrating muons a muon system is also employed.

Rejection of background interactions is also an essential feature of the H1 detector. An *ep* collision is only expected to happen once every 10^3 bunch crossings and these events have to be distinguished from the high backgrounds produced by synchrotron radiation conversions, cosmics and beam-gas and wall interactions. It is necessary to be selective about which events are recorded otherwise the data from the detector components would be too vast to store and the dead time that this storing would impose on the detector would mean that real physics events would be missed. H1 uses a multi-level triggering system which takes quick decisions on-line using information from the sub-detectors. One example is the use of the reconstructed event vertex to reject a substantial fraction of the background.

A diagram of the H1 detector is shown in figure 3.1 and described in detail in [49]. The main section of the detector includes the tracking system $\boxed{2}$ $\boxed{3}$; the calorimetry $\boxed{4}$ $\boxed{5}$ $\boxed{12}$ $\boxed{13}$; the super-conducting solenoid $\boxed{6}$ and lastly the muon system $\boxed{9}$ $\boxed{10}$. Not shown in the diagram are the proton and electron taggers and the photon detector. What follows in the remaining sections of this chapter is a general description of these sub-components.