Measurement of Event Shape Variables in Deep Inelastic ep Scattering with the ZEUS Detector at HERA and a Study of Power Corrections

DISSERTATION

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Abstract

A measurement of event shape variables has been made with the ZEUS detector at the HERA electron-proton collider using the 1996 and 1997 datasets, corresponding to an integrated luminosity of $35.4\,\mathrm{pb}^{-1}$.

The analysis is performed in the Breit frame of reference, which is convenient for comparisons with results from e^+e^- experiments. The differential distributions of Thrust, C-parameter, Jet Mass, Jet Broadening and their mean values are shown. The mean values are further analysed using the method of "power corrections" and the universality assumption of the power correction parameter $\overline{\alpha_0}$ is tested. The obtained values show a spread of $\pm 4\%$ which is within the theoretical uncertainty and is also in agreement with the results of e^+e^- experiments. Thus good supporting evidence for the applicability of this phenomenological model is found.

A value of α_s is extracted for each of the four event shape variables. A combined value of $\alpha_s = 0.1201 \pm 0.0006(stat)^{+0.0143}_{-0.0108}(tot)$. This is in good agreement with the current world average value.

Zusammenfassung

Mit dem ZEUS-Detektor, der am Elektron-Proton Speicherring HERA in Betrieb ist, wurde eine Messung von Ereignis-charakterisierenden Observablen (engl.: *event shapes*) durchgeführt. Hierzu wurden die Datensätze der Datennahmeperioden 1996 und 1997 verwendet, die sich auf eine Gesamtluminosität von $35.4\,\mathrm{pb}^{-1}$ belaufen.

Die Datenanalyse erfolgte im Breit-System, das einen einfachen Vergleich mit Ergebnissen von e^+e^- Experimenten ermöglicht. Es werden die differentiellen Verteilungen der Variablen Thrust, C-Parameter, Jet Masse und Jet Breite sowie die Mittelwerte dieser Verteilungen gezeigt. Die Mittelwerte werden dann verwendet, um die Methode der "power corrections" und vor allem die ihr zugrunde liegende Universalitätsannahme des Parameters $\overline{\alpha_0}$ zu testen. Die erhaltenen $\overline{\alpha_0}$ -Werte haben eine Streuung von $\pm 4\%$ und liegen damit innerhalb der theoretischen Unsicherheit. Ausserdem stimmen sie mit den von e^+e^- -Experimenten erhaltenen Werten überein. Diese Beobachtungen unterstützen die Anwendbarkeit des phenomenologischen Modells.

Für jede der vier Observablen wurde ein Wert für die starke Kopplungskonstante α_s extrahiert. Der gewichtete Mittelwert ist $\alpha_s = 0.1201 \pm 0.0006(stat)^{+0.0143}_{-0.0108}(tot)$. Er liegt in guter Übereinstimmung mit dem derzeitigen Weltmittelwert.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

The wish to understand what nature in general – and what matter in particular – is made of and which underlying forces govern its behaviour has stimulated generations of physicists. Research in the 20th century has led to a remarkable gain in the understanding of the fundamentals of our world, yet many open questions remain.

With ever-increasing resolution scattering experiments in the past have led to the subsequent discoveries of atoms, nuclei and nucleons. This chain of experiments culminated in the discovery of partonic substructure of the nucleons and thus gave birth to modern particle physics. This birth can be dated at around 1950 with the discovery of the pion and other mesons. The developmen tof high energy accelerators had started in the 1940's and consequently, further motivated by the discoveries, study of the substructure of nucleons became a vigorous field of activity. Experimentalists and theorists have since worked hand in hand in order to push the limits of our knowledge ever further – the former building ever more powerful machines for "seeing" the constituents of matter and the latter providing an ever more elegant and predictive theoretical understanding.

The process of building, refining and rejecting theoretical models has culminated in the formulation of the Standard Model, which, with the exception of gravity, embodies our present understanding of the microscopic physical world. Within the Standard Model the phenomena of the strong interaction are described by Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD), a renormalizable, non-abelian quantum field theory with the two striking features of asymptotic freedom and confinement. To date no significant deviation between QCD predictions and experimental results has been seen.

Matter is described as being built of pointlike quarks and gluons, and the gauge bosons which mediate the strong force between them. The strength of the coupling between the quarks and the gluons is denoted α_s. It is a "running coupling" in the sense that it changes its value with the process scale – i.e. the momentum transfer Q^2 in deep inelastic scattering or the centre of mass energy in e^+e^- annihilation. If the process scale is large enough the perturbation technique of calculating Feynman diagrams, well-known from QED, can be applied.

The functional dependence of the strength of the coupling α_s is predicted by the theory. However, the actual value at least at one scale must be determined experimentally. This is done by measuring a dimensionless observable F which has a perturbative expansion in terms of α_s: $F(Q^2) = A_0 + A_1\alpha_s(\mu^2) + A_2(Q^2/\mu^2)\alpha_s^2(\mu^2) + \ldots$ Here μ^2 denotes the renormalization scale. The coefficients A_i are calculable in the theory and α_s is extracted from the normalisation of the measurement result.

Event shape variables are a set of such dimensionless observables. They are defined as sums of particle momenta and are a means of describing the shape of the hadronic final state of an event, for example whether the distribution of particles is jet-like or more isotropic. They were first defined for e^+e^- annihilation and have proven useful for testing QCD predictions. In fact studies of event shapes provided the first indications that gluons are *vector* particles in accordance with QCD assumptions.

In addition to studies of event shape variables, α_s has been extracted from a wide range of experimentally-observable quantities such as jet production rates, the total e^+e^- cross section or scaling violations in deep inelastic scattering (DIS) and many other. These complementary methods give broadly consistent results and thus have provided a thorough test of QCD. The different results have been combined into a *world average* value, which is quoted at the mass of the Z^0 [Bet98]:

$$\alpha_s(M_Z^2) = 0.119 \pm 0.004$$

There is very good agreement between the values of α_s measured at different experiments. However, deviations are observed between certain measured quantities and the QCD predictions, that is the next-to-leading order calculations to be more precise. In the case of event shape variables, these deviations are very large – in the order of 20 % – and furthermore they vary with the inverse of the process scale Q. By contrast Monte Carlo programs incorporating phenomenological models of the hadronisation process succeed in describing the data well. Thus the deviations have been explained away as poorly-understood non-perturbative (long-distance) phenomena or *hadronisation corrections* and swallowed into the "black boxes" of event generators. Consequently, model-dependence has been found to be a source of large systematic errors.

A more satisfying explanation would be one obtained from a theoretical approach which makes use of well-established perturbative techniques. The QCD series is divergent and calculating QCD observables to next-to-leading order may neglect large contributions from higher orders. A particular set of Feynman diagrams, the so-called *bubble diagrams* (see Chapter 2), leads to sets of unsummable, factorially-divergent contributions which are identified as *infrared renormalons.* If the contributions from these diagrams are included in the calculations of various quantities, they give rise to $(1/Q)^p$-dependent corrections – and this offers the hope that they can explain the $(1/Q)$-dependent hadronisation corrections.

In order to make numerical predictions an additional universality assumption has to be made. It is assumed that a meaningful and universal coupling exists down to very low scales. Although the functional dependence of this coupling is unknown, it is sufficient to use its first moment in the calculations. The value of the first moment, $\overline{\alpha_0}$, is extracted from the measurement results together with the value of α_s.

The results of these new calculations are corrections to the next-to-leading order calculations of QCD observables. They have become known as *power corrections* and are available for various observables such as DIS structure functions [Da96, Li98], and both DIS and e^+e^- fragmentation functions [Da97b] and event shape variables (see the references in Chapter 2). Event shapes – both in DIS and in e^+e^- – may be regarded as the prime testing ground since the encountered hadronisation corrections are largest in this case. The goal of this thesis is thus to apply power correction fits to experimentally-obtained values of event shape variables. The extracted values of α_s and $\overline{\alpha_0}$ are then used to test the validity of this method. It is particularly compelling to investigate the usefulness of a universal low-energy effective coupling as a phenomenological concept. If valid, this would allow independence from hadronisation models tuned to experimental data.

The layout of this thesis is as follows. Some theoretical background is given in Chapter 2. The main concepts and features of QCD and the running coupling are recalled. The event shape variables under study are defined and the dispersive method leading to the calculation of the power corrections is explained. The HERA machine and the ZEUS detector are described in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 describes the selection of the data sample, followed by Chapter 5 with details on tracking, clustering and matching. Chapter 6 presents the measurement results of the event shape mean values and a study of systematic effects. In Chapter 7 the measurement results are analysed in terms of QCD and power corrections. Extracted values of α_s and the power correction parameter $\overline{\alpha_0}$ are presented. They are compared to the results from e^+e^- experiments. The question of whether the assumed universality of the power corrections actually holds is raised here. The main results are summarized in Chapter 8. An Appendix is provided which contains further items of relevance to the thesis, including the differential event shape distributions.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Background

This chapter provides the necessary theoretical background for the investigations made in this thesis. The main characteristics of QCD and deep inelastic scattering are summarised in Section 2.1 and Section 2.2. Definitions are given for the Breit frame of reference in which the analysis is performed (Section 2.3) and for the event shape variables under study (Section 2.4). Section 2.5 contains a discussion of α_s. In Section 2.6 information is given on the event generators which have been used in this analysis. The dispersive method leading to the formulation of *power corrections* to perturbative calculations of final state observables is explained in Section 2.7.

2.1 Quantum Chromodynamics

Quantum chromodynamics (QCD) [Ha84] is our current best theoretical model of the force acting between the constituents of baryons and mesons. Its formulation was triggered by the apparent violation of Pauli's principle in the Δ^{++} baryons. A new degree of freedom – *colour* – was introduced, and the fermions of the theory, the quarks, carry not only electromagnetic charge but also one of the three possible colour charges red, blue or green.

QCD is a renormalizable quantum field theory which was constructed in close analogy to quantum electrodynamics (QED), the extraordinarily successful theory of electromagnetic interactions.

The three-colour model of quarks has local SU(3) symmetry. Eight different *gluons* are the carriers of the strong force between the quarks. The gluons themselves also carry colour charge and can thus interact with each other – a feature of so-called *non-abelian* gauge theories. To lowest order, attractive forces are found for the qqq and the $q\overline{q}$ systems and repulsive forces for the qq system respectively.

Two significant properties of QCD are the phenomena of *asymptotic freedom* and *confinement*. The interaction strength α_s is asymptotically small at short distances – or equivalently *at large scale* since momentum transfer and spacial resolution are in reciprocal relation to each other, according to the uncertainty principle.

Thus short-distance interactions can be computed using the well-known *perturbative* techniques from QED. The interaction strength increases for larger distances, binding quarks

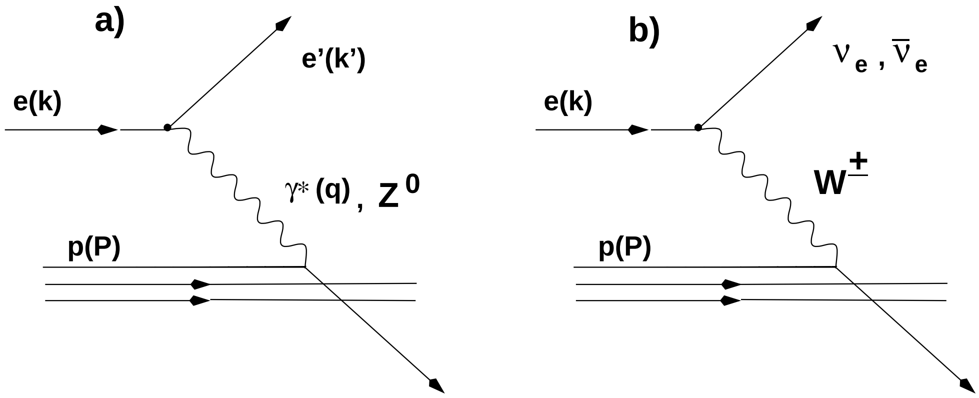

Figure 2.1: *The two leading Feynman diagrams for deep-inelastic electron-proton scattering: a) neutral current (NC), b) charged current (CC). Note that these diagrams are of zeroth order in* α_s .

and gluons together in colour-neutral objects. Unfortunately for experimenters, this confinement means that quarks and gluons are not observable as free particles.

2.2 Deep Inelastic Scattering

The term *deep inelastic scattering* (DIS) [El96] refers to lepton-nucleon scattering experiments where the (in general off-shell) momentum transfer from the lepton (e^+, e^-, ν, $\overline{\nu}$) to the nucleon (p, n) is sufficiently large that the nucleon fragments. The measured cross sections provide insight into the substructure of the nucleon.

The two leading order Feynman diagrams of deep inelastic electron-proton scattering are shown in Figure 2.1. Both the graph for neutral current (NC) and for charged current (CC) are shown. k and k' denote the four-momenta of the incoming and scattered electron/positron (neutrino/antineutrino) respectively, P denotes the four-momentum of the proton. In the neutral current process the momentum transfer from the electron to the proton is mediated via a virtual photon γ^* with four-momentum $q = k - k'$. If the momentum transfer Q^2 is large enough, the exchange of Z^0 or $W^\pm$ in charged current processes respectively is also important. The kinematics of the process is described by the variables Q^2, x_{bj} and y, which are derived from the four-momenta of the involved particles:

$$Q^2 = -q^2 \tag{2.1}$$

$$x_{bj} = \frac{Q^2}{2\nu} = \frac{Q^2}{2M(E-E')} \tag{2.2}$$

$$y = \frac{q \cdot P}{k \cdot P} = 1 - \frac{E'}{E} \tag{2.3}$$

where M is the proton mass, and E and E' are the energies of the incident and scattered electron respectively. Only two of the three variables Q^2, x_{bj} and y are independent since

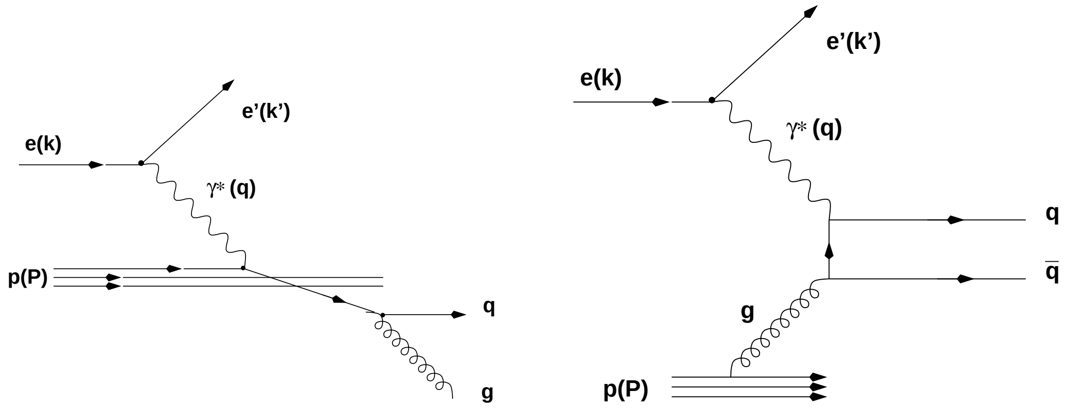

Figure 2.2: *Feynman diagrams for next-to-leading order DIS processes.* **left:** *QCD-compton process.* **right:** *Boson-gluon fusion.*

they are related to each other via the square of the centre-of-mass energy s of the electron-proton system:

$$Q^2 = x_{bj} \cdot y \cdot s \tag{2.4}$$

Figure 2.2 shows the two next-to-leading order Feynman diagrams for neutral current DIS. Shown is the diagram for gluon bremsstrahlung – the QCD-Compton process – and the diagram for boson-gluon fusion where the photon fluctuates into a quark-antiquark pair one of which then interacts with a gluon from the proton. Note that these processes are of first order in α_s ($\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s)$) since only one QCD vertex is involved.

Structure functions $F_i(x, Q^2)$ parametrize the structure of the target (as "seen" by the virtual photon). They represent the densities of partons in the nucleon, which are found at given values of x_{bj} and Q^2. They are used to formulate the double differential cross section:

$$\frac{d^2\sigma}{dxdQ^2} = \frac{4\pi\alpha^2}{Q^4}\left[[1+(1-y^2)]F_1 + \frac{(1-y)}{x}(F_2 - 2xF_1)\right] \tag{2.5}$$

In this equation the proton mass is neglected.

Early DIS experiments [SLAC] provided supporting evidence for QCD predictions. In particular it was discovered that only about 50% of the momentum fraction of the proton is carried by the charged partons. It was found that the remaining momentum fraction is carried by charge neutral, spin 1 partons, which were later identified with the gluons. The presence of gluons in the proton introduces a logarithmic dependence on Q^2 to $F_2(x, Q^2)$. This Q^2 dependence has become known as *scaling violation* and is predicted by QCD. Thus the original and still most powerful test of perturbative QCD is the experimental observation of the breaking of Bjorken scaling in deep inelastic lepton-hadron scattering.

2.3 The Breit frame

The Breit frame of reference [Fe72, St79] is defined to be the reference frame where the exchanged photon is completely space-like: the energy component of the photon is zero and

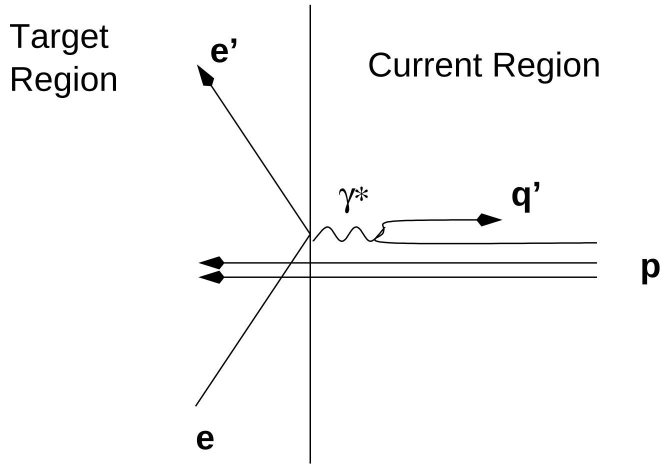

Figure 2.3: *The Breit frame of reference. One of the incoming quarks collides head-on with the exchanged – completely spacelike – photon and is scattered back by 180° . The direction of the exchanged photon divides the Breit frame into two hemispheres, the current hemisphere which contains the fragmentation products of the struck quark and the target hemisphere which contains the fragmentation products of the proton remnant.*

the momentum component is aligned along the negative z-direction: $q = (0, 0, 0, -Q/2)$. The exchanged photon collides head-on with one of the incoming quarks which carries the momentum fraction x of the proton momentum p. The struck quark in turn is scattered back by 180°, as is shown in Figure 2.3

The direction of the exchanged photon divides the Breit frame into two hemispheres. The hemisphere containing the scattered quark with momentum $p'_{\mathrm{quark}} = -xP$ is known as the *current region* and the hemisphere containing the proton remnant with momentum $p'_{\mathrm{remnant}} = (1-x)\,Q/2x$ is known as the *target region*. Particles are assigned to these regions according to their longitudinal momentum in the boosted frame: particles with $p'_z < 0$ are assigned to the current region, and particles with $p'_z > 0$ to the target region.

The current region of the Breit frame is similar to one of the hemispheres in e^+e^- annihilation. Thus the Breit frame is particularly convenient when comparing analysis results with results from e^+e^- experiments. However, the analogy is true only at leading order (which is zeroth order in α_s). At next-to-leading order (first order in α_s) there exists only gluon bremsstrahlung (QCD-Compton) in e^+e^-, whereas in DIS there is also the contribution from boson-gluon fusion.

At higher orders the invariant mass of the produced $q\overline{q}$ or qg pairs is no longer negligible. The incoming parton carries a fraction $p_p = \xi P$ of the protons momentum, and $\xi > x$ in order to allow for the emission of the parton pair. The cross-section for these $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s)$ processes depends on five variables, x, Q^2, x_p, z_p and ϕ^*. The variable ϕ^* is the azimuthal angle of the jet plane with respect to the virtual photon in the γ^*-parton centre of mass system (CMS). The scaling variables x_p and z_p are given by:

$$x_p = \frac{Q^2}{2p_p \cdot q} = \frac{Q^2}{m^2 + Q^2} \qquad (x \geq x_p \geq 1)$$

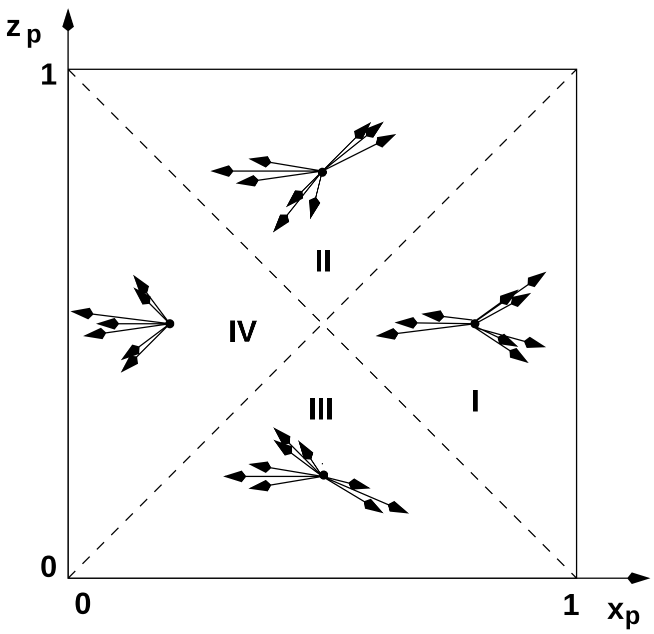

Figure 2.4: *Event topologies in the* (x_p, z_p) *plane. Region I shows two jets in the current region and one in the target region. In regions II and III there is one jet in the current region and two jets in the target region. In region IV the current region is depopulated and all three jets are in the target region.*

$$z_p = \frac{P \cdot p'_p}{P \cdot q} = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos\theta^*) \qquad (0 \geq z_p \geq 1)$$

where m is the invariant mass of the qg or $q\overline{q}$ system and p'_p is the momentum of the final state quark/gluon. Three different event topologies are observed which populate different regions in the (x_p, z_p) plane as shown in Figure 2.4.

The transformation from the HERA laboratory frame to the Breit frame is performed by a Lorentz boost followed by a rotation in order to align the virtual photon axis in the negative z' direction in the Breit frame. The Breit frame travels with velocity $\vec{\beta}c$ with respect to the laboratory frame. $\vec{\beta}$ is calculated from $q = (q_0, \vec{q})$ and $p = (p_0, \vec{p})$, the four-momenta of the virtual photon and the incident proton beam measured in the laboratory frame:

$$\vec{\beta} = \frac{\vec{q} + 2x\vec{p}}{q_0 + 2xp_0}. \tag{2.6}$$

$\vec{\beta}$ is used to derive γ_{boost}: $\gamma_{\text{boost}} = 1/\sqrt{1 - |\vec{\beta}|^2}$. When $\vec{\beta}$ and γ_{boost} have been determined, particles with energy E and momentum $\vec{P}$ in the laboratory frame may be boosted into the Breit frame according to the Lorentz transformation equations:

$$E' = \gamma_{\text{boost}} (E - \vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{P}) \tag{2.7}$$
$$\vec{P}' = \gamma_{\text{boost}} (\vec{P} - \vec{\beta} E) \tag{2.8}$$

2.4 Definitions of the Event Shape Variables

As the name suggests, event shape variables are a set of observables which describe the shape of the final state of an event. They are a means of measuring for example whether an event is more pencil-like or more isotropic. Event shapes were first defined for e^+e^- annihilation [El80, Ca92]. Due to the similarity between one hemisphere in e^+e^- and the current region of the Breit frame they are easily applicable in DIS as well [Da97a]. Actually the situation is a little simplified in DIS since the axis of the virtual photon in the Breit frame imposes a natural axis of reference. In e^+e^- the axis of reference, the *thrust axis* needs to be found first, which is defined as the axis $\vec{n}_T$ that maximises the Thrust T_c as defined as followes:

$$T_c = \max \frac{\sum_i |\vec{p}_i \cdot \vec{n}_T|}{\sum_i |\vec{p}_i|} \tag{2.9}$$

A particular characteristic of the event shape variables is *infrared safety*. That means that particle splitting of a particle p_i into two daughter particles $p_i \to p_j + p_k$ leaves the result virtually unchanged if one of the particles is *soft*, i.e. is emitted with only very small momentum perpendiular to the momentum direction of the particle p_i. Clearly it is the linear sums of particle momenta – as given in the definitions below – which guarantee infrared safety.

Four event shape variables are considered in this analysis. They are defined in the current region of the Breit frame as follows:

Thrust T_z with respect to the virtual photon axis $\vec{n}$:

$$T_z = \frac{\sum_i |\vec{p}_i \cdot \vec{n}|}{\sum_i |\vec{p}_i|} = \frac{\sum_i |\vec{p}_{z,i}|}{\sum_i |p_i|} \tag{2.10}$$

Note that $\tau_z = 1 - T_z$ is often used instead of T_z. **Jet broadening** J_b also with respect to the virtual photon axis $\vec{n}$:

$$J_b = \frac{\sum_i |\vec{p}_i \times \vec{n}|}{2\sum_i |\vec{p}_i|} = \frac{\sum_i |\vec{p}_{t,i}|}{2\sum_i |\vec{p}_i|} \tag{2.11}$$

Jet mass J_m:

$$J_m = \frac{M^2}{(2\sum_i E_i)^2} = \frac{(\sum_i E_i)^2 - |\sum_i \vec{p}_i|^2}{(2\sum_i E_i)^2} \tag{2.12}$$

and **C-parameter** C_p:

$$C_p = 3(\lambda_1\lambda_2 + \lambda_2\lambda_3 + \lambda_3\lambda_1) \tag{2.13}$$

where λ_i $(i = 1, 2, 3)$ are the eigenvalues of the momentum tensor $\theta^{\mu\nu}$ defined as

$$\theta^{\mu\nu} = \frac{\sum_i \vec{p}_i^{\,\mu}\, \vec{p}_i^{\,\nu} / |\vec{p}_i|}{\sum_i |\vec{p}_i|} \tag{2.14}$$

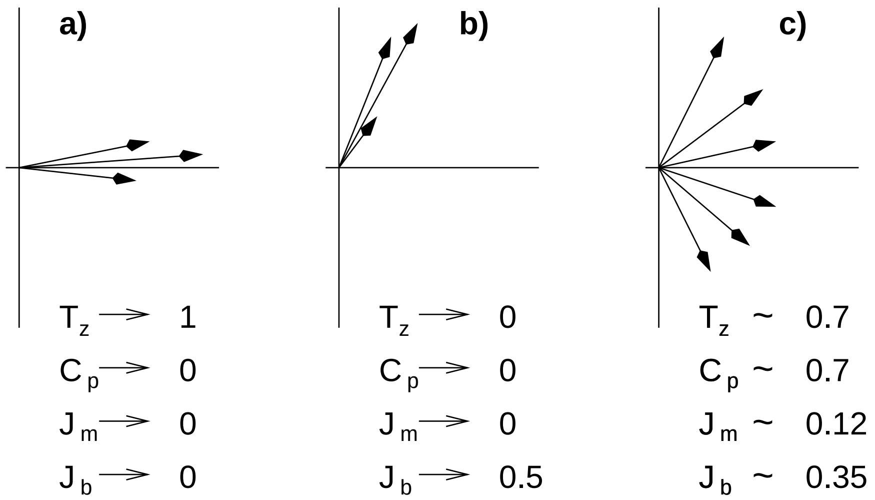

Figure 2.5: *Event shape values for different particle configurations in the current region of the Breit frame.* **a)**: *collimated particles along the photon axis.* **b)**: *event with a collimated jet which has large p_T with respect to the photon axis.* **c)**: *more isotropically distributed particles.*

An alternative definition of the C-parameter is:

$$C_p = \frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{(\sum_i E_i)^2} \sum_{a,b \in CR} |\vec{p_a}|\,|\vec{p_b}| \sin^2 \theta_{ab} \tag{2.15}$$

where the sum over p_a and p_b extends over all combinations of particles in the current region (CR) (each pair of particles is counted twice) and θ_{ab} is the three-dimensional angle between particle a and particle b.

The range of possible values extends over the interval $[0, 1]$ for T_z and C_p, over $[0, 0.5]$ for J_b and over $[0, 0.25]$ for J_m respectively. The variables are undefined if the current region is depopulated. Figure 2.5 shows some examples of particle configurations in the current region and the corresponding values of the four variables.

Thrust T_z is a measure of how strongly the particles in the current region are collimated with respect to the virtual photon axis. It takes the maximal value of 1 for highly collimated events pointing in the photon direction (see Figure 2.5a). Events which are more isotropic, i.e. where the particles in a jet show a broader distribution, Figure 2.5c, take lower values. The lowest values of $T_z \to 0$ are taken for events with collimated jet almost perpendicular to the photon axis (2.5b). This in particular is different to e^+e^- annihilation where thrust is defined with respect to the thrust axis only and consequently takes values only between 0.5 and 1.

Analogously, *Jet broadening* as defined in Equation 2.11, is for DIS a measure of the transverse broadening of the particles with respect to the photon axis. Thus J_b takes values of $\to 0$ for events with particles collimated along the photon axis (Figure 2.5a). If the same collimated particles have a large angle to the photon axis (Figure 2.5b), J_b takes on its maximal values of $J_b \to 0.5$.

The calculation of *C-parameter* and *Jet mass* – both are measures of the broadening of particles – does not require an axis of reference. For events with collimated particles, regardless of their direction (compare (a) and (b)), both variables take very small values: C_p, $J_m \to 0$, increasing for less collimated particle configurations (c).

2.5 The Running Coupling α_s

The strength of the QCD coupling between quarks and gluons is denoted α_s. It is said to be a running coupling since it varies with the process scale Q. The functional dependence of α_s on the process scale Q is predicted by QCD. However the actual value, or normalisation, at at least one scale value must be determined experimentally.

As a consequence of the non-abelian character of QCD the value of α_s is large at small scales – i.e. large distances – and decreases for increasing values of the scale. In a region where α_s is sufficiently small, perturbation techniques may be applied for predicting measurement results. The perturbative domain extends down to values of $Q^2 \approx 4$ - $5\,\mathrm{GeV}^2$. Cross section measurements at HERA [ZEUS97] have shown that the perturbative predictions still hold for even lower values (down to around $1.5\,\mathrm{GeV}^2$), although the theoretical justification for such an extension remains unclear.

Since the functional dependence of α_s on Q is given by the theory, a measurement result obtained at any scale may be extrapolated to a reference scale value. It has become convention to use the mass of the Z^0 boson (91.2 GeV) for this purpose. Extrapolated to the Z^0 mass the results of different measurements are easily compared. Figure 2.6, taken from reference [Bet98], shows measurement results from a wide variety of processes. They combine to an average value of $\alpha_s(Z^0) = 0.119 \pm 0.004$. The broad agreement of the various values is strong supporting evidence for QCD.

The β function

The running of the coupling constant α_s with Q^2 is given by the renormalisation group equation:

$$Q^2 \frac{\partial \alpha_s}{\partial Q^2} = \beta(\alpha_s). \tag{2.16}$$

where the β function has the following perturbative expansion:

$$\beta(\alpha_s) = -b\alpha_s^2(1 + b^{'}\alpha_s + b^{''}\alpha_s^2 + \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^3)) \tag{2.17}$$

and the coefficients b and b' are given as follows:

$$b = \frac{(11C_A - 2n_f)}{12\pi} = \frac{(33 - 2n_f)}{12\pi} \tag{2.18}$$

$$b^{'} = \frac{(17C_a^2 - 5C_A n_f - C_F n_f)}{2\pi(11C_A - 2n_f)} = \frac{(153 - 19n_f)}{2\pi(33 - 2n_f)} \tag{2.19}$$

where n_f denotes the number of active light flavours.
An alternative notation is:

$$\beta(\alpha_s) = -\alpha_s \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \beta_n \left(\frac{\alpha_s}{4\pi}\right)^{n+1}$$

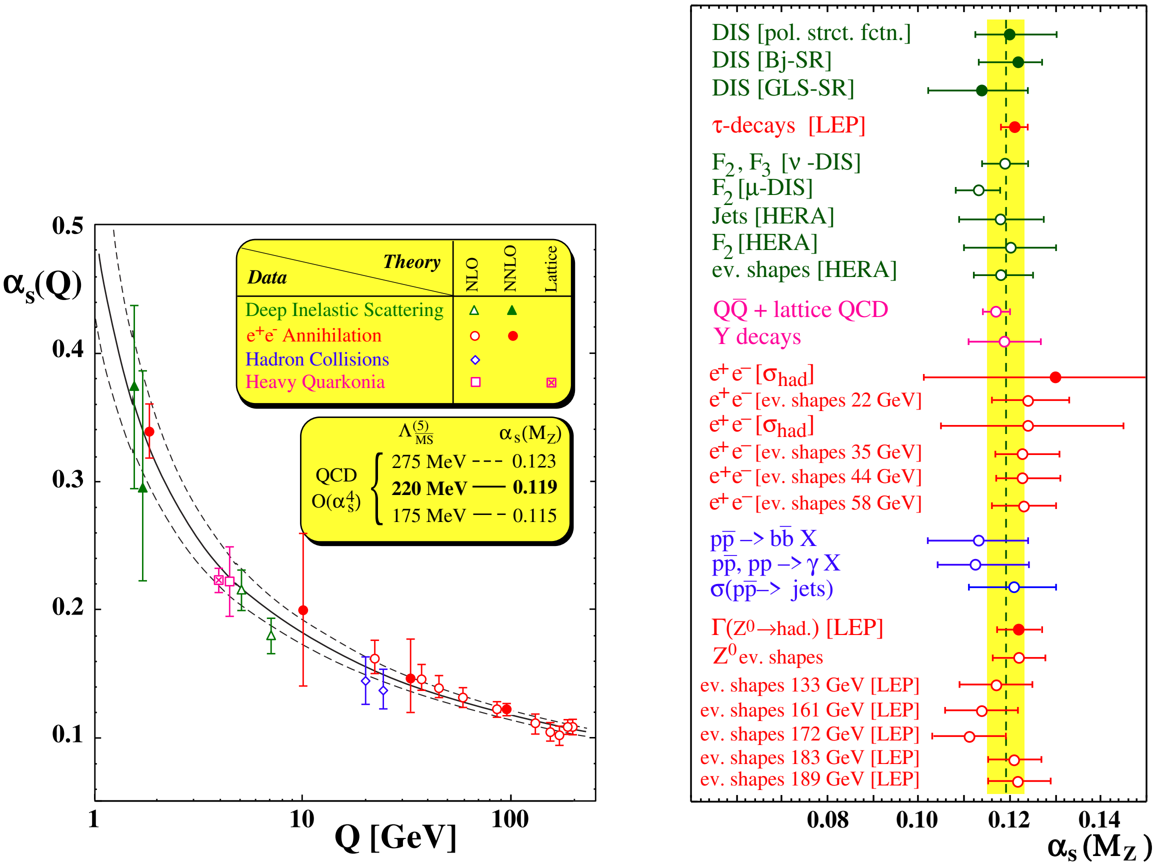

Figure 2.6: Overview of various α_s measurements. **left:** The functional dependence of α_s on Q. **right:** Comparison of the measurement results after extrapolation to the mass of the Z^0. The results are combined to an average values of $\alpha_s = 0.119 \pm 0.004$ as quoted in [Bet98].

$$\beta_0 = 4\pi b = 11 - \frac{2}{3} n_f$$

$$\beta_1 = 16\pi^2 bb' = 102 - \frac{38}{3} n_f$$

The $\Lambda^{[4]}$ parameter

By convention a dimensionful parameter is used in the definition of $\alpha_s(Q^2)$. This parameter is called $\Lambda^{[4]}$ and is defined as the constant of integration over the β function:

$$\ln \frac{Q^2}{\Lambda^2} = -\int_{\alpha_s(Q^2)}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{\beta(x)} = \int_{\alpha_s(Q^2)}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{bx^2(1 + b'x + \ldots)} \tag{2.20}$$

The value of $\Lambda^{[4]}$ lies in the neighbourhood of 200 MeV. It depends on the choice of renormalisation scale, the number of quarks included in the calculation and the assumed values for the masses of the heavy quarks. $\Lambda^{[4]}$ has the dimensions of energy squared and is regarded as the scale at which the coupling diverges if it is extrapolated towards the border of the perturbative domain. Within the perturbative region, α_s can be written in terms of $\Lambda^{[4]}$. At leading order (LO) solving of Equation 2.20 yields:

$$\alpha_s(Q^2) = \frac{1}{b\ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2)} \tag{2.21}$$

If the definition for $\Lambda^{[4]}$ is extended to next-to-leading order, the next coefficient in the β function is included in the integral and one obtains:

$$\frac{1}{\alpha_s(Q^2)} + b'\ln\left(\frac{b'\alpha_s(Q^2)}{1+b'\alpha_s(Q^2)}\right) = b\ln\left(\frac{Q^2}{\Lambda^2}\right) \tag{2.22}$$

Alternatively, one can approximate the solution of this equation in terms of inverse powers of $\ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2)$:

$$\alpha_s(Q^2) = \frac{1}{b\ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2)}\left[1 - \frac{b'}{b}\frac{\ln\ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2)}{\ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2)} + \ldots\right] \tag{2.23}$$

To this order, the two equivalent definitions presented in the Equations 2.22 and 2.23 differ by a constant factor, since the *true* expansion of $\alpha_s(Q^2)$ in inverse powers of $\ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2)$ would contain a term of order $k/\ln^2(Q^2/\Lambda^2)$ with a constant k.

2.6 Monte Carlo Event Generation

Three different generators were used in this analysis. Two of them, ARIADNE [Lo] and HERWIG [Ma91], were used for generating full events, which were then passed to a simulation of the detector response. DISENT [Ca96a, Ca97a] was used only for generating events at the hard process level. The results obtained with DISENT were used for the power correction fits described in Chapter 7.

Event generation may be divided into three steps. The first is the generation of the underlying hard process. This followed by modelling of parton showering, leading to what is referred to as the *parton level.* The third stage is the hadronisation of these partons into hadrons. At this point one is at the *hadron level.* Following this, the hadrons may be fed into a detector simulation program (see Section 3.2), at which point one is at the so-called *detector level.*

The hard process is calculable directly from scattering matrix elements derived from the underlying theory. The processes of parton showering and hadronisation are implementations of phenomenolgical models. They are in general based on the hypothesis of *local parton-hadron duality* [Az85] where it is assumed that the flow of momentum and quantum numbers at the hadron level tends to follow the flow established at the parton level. Brief descriptions of the string model (used in JETSET), the colour dipole model (used in ARIADNE) and the low-mass cluster model (used in HERWIG) are given below.

In the string model [Ar74, Bo81, An86, An83] the quark and antiquark from a produced $q\overline{q}$ pair separate in opposite directions, losing energy to the colour field, which is supposed to collapse into a stringlike configuration between them. The string has a uniform energy per unit length and later breaks up into hadron-sized pieces through spontaneous $q\overline{q}$ pair production in its intense colour field. The string may be broken up starting at either the quark or the antiquark end, or both simultaneously, and it proceeds iteratively by $q\overline{q}$ pair creation. The presence of gluons leads to the production of kinks on the string, each initially carrying localized energy and momentum equal to that of its parent gluon. Eventually all of the coloured partons are associated by strings into colour singlet states which do not have sufficient invariant mass to further break apart.

The string model is implemented in the JETSET simulation program [SJ86] for final-state parton showering as well as hadronisation. JETSET itself is an e^+e^- generator, but it is used by ARIADNE for the hadronisation. ARIADNE models the parton shower in terms of colour dipole splitting.

The colour dipole model CDM [Gu88] uses a slightly different approach. Here the combination of struck quark and the proton remnant is modelled as a colour dipole. When this dipole radiates a gluon, it splits into two radiating dipoles: one between the struck quark and the gluon and the other between the gluon and the proton remnant. This procedure is repeated and thus generates a chain of such dipoles. The proton remnant in this appoach must be treated as an extended object.

The program HERWIG uses a low-mass cluster hadronisation model in conjunction with initial- and final-state cascades. Colour-singlet clusters of partons are formed after the perturbative phase of jet development and then decay into the observed hadrons. The colour-singlet clusters form through splitting of gluons into $q\overline{q}$ pairs. Neighbouring colour-connected quarks and antiquarks can then combine into singlet clusters.

DISENT

The DISENT [Ca96a, Ca97a] program is a general-purpose Monte Carlo program for carrying out arbitrary QCD calculations for deep inelastic scattering in next-to-leading order accuracy. The program implements a generalised version of the subtraction algorithm [El81], which is an established method. The generalisation was made possible after new improved factorisation formulae, called *dipole factorisation formulae* were derived. Contrary to analytic calculations, only contributions giving rise to singularities are treated analytically, the remaining part is calculated using numerical integration techniques (Monte Carlo methods).

2.7 The Dispersive Method

α_s at a particular scale may be extracted from a measurement of the mean value F of an event shape distribution. In perturbation theory F can be expressed as an expansion in terms of α_s as follows. $F(Q^2) = A_0 + A_1\alpha_s(\mu_R^2) + A_2(Q^2/\mu_R^2)\alpha_s^2(\mu_R^2) + \ldots$ In this equation μ_R^2 denotes the renormalisation scale. The functional dependence of α_s on the scale and the coefficients A_i are predicted by the theory, but the actual value at least at one scale must be determined from the normalisation of the measurement result.

Perturbative calculations of event shapes are available at next-to-leading order accuracy. However, when the predictions are compared with experimental results, large deviations are observed between the two. Figure 2.7 shows measurement results for $< 1-$ Thrust$>$ from several e^+e^- experiments at different centre-of-mass energies E_{CM} which is conveniently chosen to be the scale. The difference between the data points and the $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$

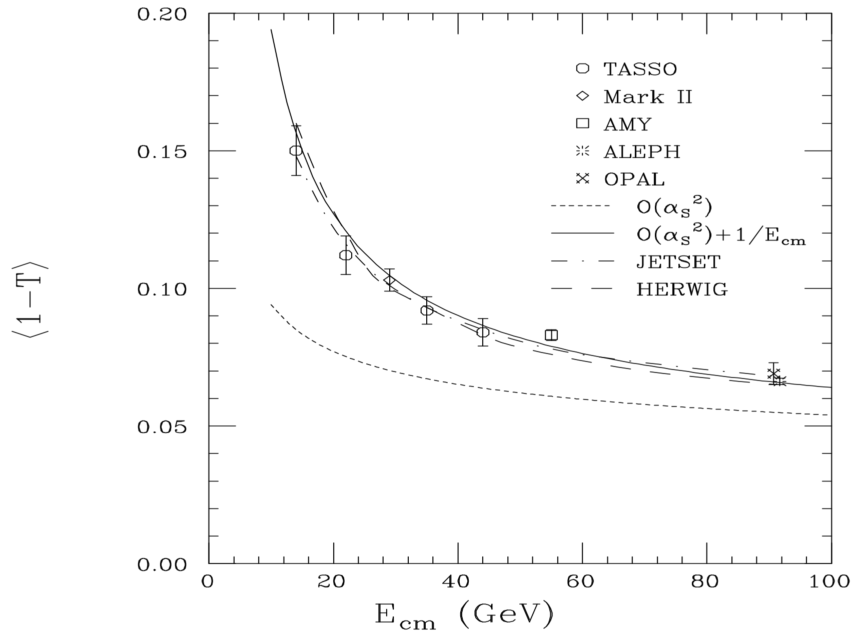

Figure 2.7: $\langle 1-$ *Thrust*$\rangle$ *measured by several* e^+e^- *experiments at different centre-of-mass energies* $E_{\rm CM}$*, which is also taken to be the process scale. Substantial deviations are present between the data and* $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ *calculations. The Monte Carlo generators JETSET or HERWIG describe the data, as well as a fit of* $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2) + A/E_{\rm CM}$*, where* A *is a constant. (The figure was taken from [Do97].)*

predictions is significant. Figure 2.7 also shows that a fit of $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2) + A/E_{\rm CM}$ (where A is a constant) describes the data points well. It can thus be derived that deviations between data and NLO show a functional $1/E_{\rm CM}$ dependence.

Figure 2.7 also shows that the Monte Carlo generators JETSET and HERWIG succeed in describing the data. Thus the differences between the perturbative calculations and the data are named *hadronisation corrections*, which account for effects in the hadronisation process during which hadrons are formed from the underlying partons.

The Ansatz of the *dispersive method* [Do96] is an attempt to overcome this rather unsatisfying situation. It is based on renormalon theory, but in addition certain universality assumptions are made in order to make numerical predictions for specific observables. The existence of a universal coupling $\alpha_s^{\rm DM}$ is postulated which is meaningful down to very low scales – in contrast to the perturbatve coupling α_s whose functional dependence diverges near the $\Lambda^{[4]}$ pole.

The Renormalon Background

During the search for a more satisfying explanation of the origin of the $1/Q$ deviations shown in Figure 2.7, theoreticians came across a certain set of Feynman diagrams – so-called *bubble diagrams* as shown in Figure 2.8. The bubble diagrams lead to singularities in the complex plane of Borel transformations [Za92, Mu92]. The singularities which lie on the integration contour of the Borel variable are identified as *renormalons*, which

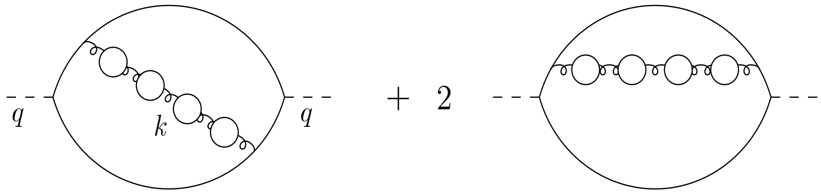

Figure 2.8: *Bubble Diagrams. Shown are two Feynman diagrams with chains of gluon loops which are identified as renormalons.*

give rise to terms proportional to $1/Q$ which are to be added to the result of the plain NLO calculation [Ko95, Ak96]. A very extensive description of all phenomena related to renormalons – history, theoretical explanation and comparison with experimental results – is presented in the habilitation thesis of M. Beneke [Bene99] and references therein.

Despite the exciting prospect that renormalons may account for the so-called "non-perturbative effects", it has to be said that without any further assumptions the renormalon answers are ambiguous [Bene99]. The universality assumption made in the dispersive method (see below) is just one of several possible assumptions. (For more, see Beneke's thesis.)

A Universal Coupling at Low Scales

One of the main features of the dispersive method is the assumed existence of a universal coupling $\alpha_s^{\mathrm{DM}}(\mu^2)$ which is defined down to arbitrarily low values of the (general) scale μ^2. In the following it is denoted $\alpha_s^{\mathrm{DM}}(\mu^2)$ in order to distinguish it from the perturbative QCD coupling $\alpha_s = \alpha_s^{\mathrm{PT}}(\mu^2)$.

For a perturbative calculation of α_s^{PT} carried out to second order in the $\overline{MS}$ renormalisation scheme with the renormalisation scale μ_R^2 one has the following functional description:

$$\alpha_s^{\mathrm{PT}}(\mu^2) = \alpha_s(\mu_R^2) + \left[b \ln\left(\frac{\mu_R^2}{\mu^2}\right) + k \right] \alpha_s^2(\mu_R^2) \tag{2.24}$$

$$\text{with} \quad b = \frac{11C_A - 2N_f}{12\pi} \tag{2.25}$$

$$k = \frac{(67 - 3\pi^2)C_A - 10N_f}{36\pi} \tag{2.26}$$

where $C_A = 3$ and $C_F = 4/3$ are the colour factors for three active flavours, and b is the coefficient of the β function as described in Equation 2.17. The constant term k reflects a change of renormalisation scheme from the $\overline{MS}$ scheme for the perturbative calculation to the more physical CMW scheme where dispersive calculations are performed.

It is assumed to have reasonable analytic properties – in particular it is assumed that it has no singularities as $\mu^2 \to 0$ other than a cut along the negative real axis.

In the perturbative region at medium and large scales, $\alpha_s^{\rm DM}$ is virtually identical to the perturbative description $\alpha_s^{\rm PT}$ of the strong coupling. However at low scales the two may differ substantially from each other. The difference between the dispersive (and assumed to be true) coupling $\alpha_s^{\rm DM}$ and the perturbative coupling $\alpha_s^{\rm PT}$ is denoted $\delta\alpha_s$ or alternatively $\alpha_s^{\rm NP}$:

$$\delta\alpha_s(\mu^2) \simeq \alpha_s^{\rm DM}(\mu^2) - \alpha_s^{\rm PT}(\mu^2)$$

The running of the coupling may be written as a formal dispersion relation [Do96]:

$$\alpha_s^{\rm DM}(\mu^2) = -\int_0^\infty \frac{dm^2}{m^2+\mu^2}\rho_s(m^2) \tag{2.27}$$

where m denotes a finite gluon mass (see below), and the quantity $\rho_s(m^2)$ is the so-called *spectral function*. It represents the discontinuity of $\alpha_s^{\rm DM}(\mu^2)$ across the cut:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_s(m^2) &= \frac{1}{2\pi i}\mathrm{Disc}\left\{\alpha_s(-m^2)\right\} \\ &\simeq \frac{2}{2\pi i}\left\{\alpha_s(m^2\mathrm{e}^{i\pi}) - \alpha_s(m^2\mathrm{e}^{-i\pi})\right\} \end{aligned} \tag{2.28}$$

The Characteristic Functions

In the following V denotes the mean value of an event shape variable. The power corrections are calculated from a *characteristic function* $\mathcal{F}$, which is process-dependent and specific to a given observable. It is derived using the technique of Feynman diagrams with a non-zero gluon mass m[1]. Illustratively the gluon mass can be understood as the virtuality of a gluon which then decays into two partons. As a consequence $\mathcal{F}$ is a function of the ratio $\epsilon = m^2/Q^2$. Numerical predictions are determined from the leading non-analytic term in the asymptotic behaviour of $\mathcal{F}$ as $\epsilon \to 0$ [Do98a].

The symbol $\mathcal{V}$ in the following refers to the contribution to V from one or two soft partons. $\mathcal{V}$ can be expressed as the integral over m^2 of the product of the characteristic function $\mathcal{F}$ and the spectral function $\rho_s(m^2)$:

$$\mathcal{V} = \int \frac{dm^2}{m^2}\rho_s(m^2)\mathcal{F}(\epsilon) \tag{2.29}$$

α_s and ρ_s are related according to Equation 2.28. The correction $\delta\alpha_s$ leads to a corresponding correction term in the spectral function:

$$\delta\rho_s(m^2) = \frac{1}{2\pi i}\mathrm{Disc}\left\{\delta\alpha_s(-m^2)\right\}. \tag{2.30}$$

Inserting Equation 2.30 into Equation 2.29 and changing the integration contour separately in the two terms of the discontinuity gives the non-perturbative contribution to $\mathcal{V}$:

$$\delta\mathcal{V} = \int_0^\infty \frac{dm^2}{m^2}\delta\alpha_s(m^2)\mathcal{G}(\epsilon) \tag{2.31}$$

[1]It should be pointed out that using a massive gluon in the calculations is not intended to imply that the gluon has in any sense a real effective mass, merely that the dispersive representation can be expressed in this way.

$$\mathcal{G}(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{2\pi i}\text{Disc}\left\{\mathcal{F}(-\epsilon)\right\} \tag{2.32}$$

From Equation 2.32 it follows that terms analytic in ϵ (i.e. linear functions of ϵ) cannot contribute to $\delta\mathcal{V}$. If the functional progression of the true coupling α_s were known, $\delta\mathcal{V}$ could be evaluated directly.

Moment Integrals

However for the calculations it is sufficient to use the moments $\mathcal{A}_q$ of the strong coupling correction $\delta\alpha_s$:

$$\mathcal{A}_q \equiv \frac{C_F}{2\pi}\int_0^\infty \frac{dm^2}{m^2} m^q \delta\alpha_s(m^2) \tag{2.33}$$

One may then write $\delta\mathcal{V}$ in the following way:

$$\delta\mathcal{V} = \frac{a_V}{\pi}\frac{\mathcal{A}_1}{Q} \tag{2.34}$$

Since α_s and α_s^{PT} are assumed to coincide at moderate and large momentum scale ($>$ 2 GeV has been suggested by theoreticians), it is expected that $\delta\alpha_s(\mu^2)$ tends to zero very rapidly with increasing μ^2. Thus the moment integrals can be truncated at a so-called *infrared matching scale* μ_I. Using Equation 2.24 one obtains:

$$\mathcal{A}_1 \simeq \frac{C_F}{\pi}\int_0^{\mu_I} dm\left(\alpha_s^{\mathrm{DM}}(m^2) - \alpha_s^{\mathrm{PT}}(\mu_R^2) - \left[b\ln\left(\frac{\mu_R^2}{m^2}\right) + k\right]\alpha_s^{\mathrm{PT}^2}(\mu_R^2)\right) \tag{2.35}$$

$$= \frac{C_F}{\pi}\mu_I\left(\overline{\alpha_0}(\mu_I) - \alpha_s^{\mathrm{PT}}(\mu_R^2) - \left[b\ln\left(\frac{\mu_R^2}{\mu_I^2}\right) + k + 2b\right]\alpha_s^{\mathrm{PT}^2}(\mu_R^2)\right) \tag{2.36}$$

The parameter $\overline{\alpha_0}$, or "power correction parameter", is the integral from 0 to μ_I of the true, but unknown, coupling α_s. At present its numerical value cannot be calculated, and it has to be obtained by experiment.

$$\overline{\alpha_0} \equiv \frac{1}{\mu_I}\int_0^{\mu_I} \alpha_s^{\mathrm{DM}}(m^2)dm \tag{2.37}$$

As a consequnce of the assumption that α_s^{DM} is universal, $\overline{\alpha_0}$ should take on the same value for different observables (i.e. different event shape variables) and for different processes. The event shape analyses in e^+e^- experiments in particular should yield the same numerical value for $\overline{\alpha_0}$ as presented here, i.e. a DIS analysis. Providing a test of this universality assumption is one of the major goals of this thesis. The results of this test are shown and discussed in Chapter 7. The fitting method is also described there in detail.

The Milan factor

At first the calculations arising from the dispersive method were carried out with just 1-loop accuracy. However the 1-loop result generally suffers from ambiguities as was pointed out by Nason and Seymour in [Na95]. Some event shape variables were found in e^+e^- annihilation to be not sufficiently inclusive, i.e. the decay products of a gluon might go into two different hemispheres which would distort the result.

The calculations were then extended to 2 loops. The results have been published in [Do98a, Do98c] for e^+e^- and in [Da98] for DIS. In the 2-loop calculation an additional factor was needed, the so-called Milan factor. This is assumed to be universal. A change of scale is expected from $A \to A(1 + \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s/\pi))$. Higher order corrections are expected to be of the order of magnitude of $\approx 20\%$ [Sa98].

Chapter 3

The ZEUS Detector at the HERA Accelerator

This chapter introduces the ZEUS detector as one of the experiments at the HERA collider. The main characteristics of the HERA machine are listed below, wherever possible restricted to the performance during the years 1996 and 1997.

A detailed description of the ZEUS detector and its components can be found in the *Green Book* [ZEUS93a]. A general overview over the main components is presented here. More detailed information is provided about detector components used in this analysis, in particular about the inner tracking detector and the calorimeter. Components not relevant for the analysis are not discussed here.

3.1 The HERA Accelerator

The **H**adron **E**lectron **R**ing **A**ccelerator HERA situated at Deutsches Elektronen Synchrotron Laboratory, DESY at Hamburg, is the first electron-proton storage ring of its kind, allowing deeply-inelastic lepton proton scattering to be studied at much higher centre-of-mass energies than in previous fixed target experiments. The possible momentum transfer squared is raised by two orders of magnitude: an electron[1] beam energy of 27.5 GeV and a proton beam energy of (since 1998) 920 GeV allow observation of events at a centre-of-mass energy up to 320 GeV. The technical proposal for HERA was approved in April 1984, first collisions in the interaction regions were observed on Oct 19th 1991, and nominal data taking started in spring 1992 for the experiments H1 and ZEUS.

The HERA machine consists of two storage rings, for electrons and protons respectively. They both have a length of 6336 m and are situated at 15-30 m beneath the surface. Figure 3.1 shows the HERA ring and the accelerator complex on the DESY site. Older and smaller accelerators including the former e^+e^- storage ring PETRA are now being used as preaccelerators for HERA. Along the HERA ring are four experimental halls. The

[1]The term *electron* needs to be clarified: positrons were accelerated during the data taking periods 1994 - 1997 and electrons were accelerated in 1993, the beginning of the 1994 running period and since 1998. This thesis is based on the positron data taken in the running periods 1996 and 1997. The term *positrons* will be used wherever specification is necessary, the term *elctrons* will be used as general term refering to both electrons and positrons.