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Measurement of the Proton Structure Function $F_2(x, Q^2)$ with the H1 Detector at HERA

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Abstract

In this thesis a measurement is presented of the proton structure function $F_2(x, Q^2)$ for momentum transfers squared Q^2 between 1.5 GeV^2 and 120 GeV^2 and for Bjorken x between $3 \cdot 10^{-5}$ and 0.32, using data collected by the H1 experiment at HERA during the year 1994. The integrated luminosity is 2.7 pb^{-1}, which represents a tenfold increase in statistics compared to the previous analysis, based on the 1993 data. Low Q^2 values are reached using data with the *ep* interaction vertex shifted from the nominal position during special data taking period (SV data), and with the "satellite bunch" data sample. The systematic effects affecting the F_2 measurement are in the focus of the present analysis, since statistical uncertainties become insignificant. A measurement precision of the order of 10% is achieved, which is a factor two better than in 1993. The structure function is found to increase significantly with decreasing x, even in the lowest accessible Q^2 region, $Q^2 \sim 1.5$ GeV^2. The data are well described by a Next to Leading Order QCD fit.

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

Since 1991, the electron-proton collider HERA delivers collisions between 27.5 GeV electrons (positrons) and 820 GeV protons. The centre of mass energy of the ep collision $\sqrt{s}$ was 296 GeV in 1994, which is an order of magnitude higher than the energy available in fixed target experiments. The high centre of mass energy allows on one side for a very high momentum transfer[1] Q^2, making possible to resolve structures down to 10^{-18} m, and on the other side to study a region of high parton density in the momentum space (low x)[2]. We are thus entering a kinematic region of special significance for QCD effects.

Deep Inelastic Scattering (DIS) is a fundamental process for measuring quark and gluon densities in the proton and to make quantitative tests of perturbative QCD [1, 2, 3]. One of the first analyses based on the HERA data was the determination in 1992 of the proton structure function in the previously unexplored region of low $x < 10^{-2}$. Although affected by large errors, this first measurement [4, 5] showed a fast rise of F_2 with decreasing x at low Q^2, being an indication for a fast growing of the gluon density in the proton towards low x. This result was confirmed with larger statistics for Q^2 down to 4 GeV^2 in 1993 [6, 7].

In this thesis an analysis is presented of inclusive deep inelastic data taken by the H1 collaboration in 1994. To reach lower x values and correspondingly lower Q^2 values, special samples were analysed here of events with the ep interaction vertex shifted from the nominal position in special data taking period (SV data), and with the "satellite bunch" data sample. The accessible kinematic range has been extended down $Q^2 \sim 1.5$ GeV^2 and $x \sim 3 \cdot 10^{-5}$ and the structure function F_2 has been measured at a new level of precision compared to previous H1 measurements. The understanding of systematic effects affecting the F_2 measurement is of special importance as the statistical errors become negligible. Numerous technical studies presented here are intended to provide a detailed coverage of the F_2 measurement analysis, as recently published by H1 in [8].

Theoretical overview

In addition to Q^2 and x the following kinematic quantities are used in DIS studies: W is the $(\gamma^* p)$ invariant mass and y is the inelasticity parameter $(Q^2 = xys)$.

In DIS the measured quantity is a differential cross section in x and Q^2. The differential Born cross section of a charged lepton off a proton can be parametrised in the following

[1] Q^2 is minus the square of momentum transferred from the electron to the proton.

[2] Bjorken x is, in a frame rapidly moving with respect to the proton, the fraction of the proton momentum carried by the struck quark.

way (neglecting the incoming proton and lepton masses):

$$\frac{d^2\sigma(l^\pm)}{dxdQ^2} = \frac{2\pi\alpha_{em}^2}{Q^4 x}\left[\left(2(1-y)+\frac{y^2}{1+R(x,Q^2)}\right)F_2(x,Q^2) \mp \left(2y-\frac{y^2}{2}\right)xF_3(x,Q^2)\right], \tag{1.1}$$

with

$$R(x,Q^2) = \frac{F_2(x,Q^2)}{2xF_1(x,Q^2)} - 1 = \frac{\sigma_L}{\sigma_T}, \tag{1.2}$$

where F_1, F_2 and F_3 are the proton structure functions and R accounts for the longitudinal component in the total $(\gamma^* p)$ cross section. $R(x,Q^2)$ has so far been measured only in fixed-target experiments, but even here information is scarce. The value of $R(x,Q^2)$ used for the measurement presented here is that predicted by QCD. Even in the highest Q^2 range accessed by the present data ($Q^2 \sim 5000$ GeV^2) the contribution of the structure function xF_3 is still a small correction.

In the leading order approximation (LO) of perturbative QCD[3], the structure function $F_2(x,Q^2)$ is directly related to the quark and antiquark momentum distributions $q_i(x,Q^2)$ and $\bar{q}_i(x,Q^2)$:

$$F_2(x,Q^2) = \sum_{flavours} e_i^2 x[q_i(x,Q^2) + \bar{q}_i(x,Q^2)], \tag{1.6}$$

where i labels the quark flavours and e_i are the quark charges. For large values of Q^2 the quark and the antiquark distributions exhibit approximate Bjorken scaling mildly violated by the QCD corrections. Relation 1.6 acquires corrections proportional to $\alpha_s(Q^2)$ in the next-to-leading order approximation.

In dealing with low Q^2 data one needs to introduce the concept of "higher twists". The Wilson operator product expansion (OPE: see for example [9])[4], exploiting the renormal-

[3] In the renormalisation group formalism, the scheme-dependent renormalisation group functions β (Gell-Mann-Low) and γ (anomalous dimension) are calculated perturbatively using a power series expansion in g (QCD coupling constant):

$$\begin{aligned} \beta(g) &= -\beta_0 g^3 - \beta_1 g^5 + \mathcal{O}(g^7), & (1.3)\\ \gamma(g) &= \gamma_0 g^2 + \gamma_1 g^4 + \mathcal{O}(g^6), & (1.4) \end{aligned}$$

where one-loop, two-loop, ... diagrams are relevant to determine (β_0, γ_0), (β_1, γ_1), etc. Renormalised physical quantities are expressed in terms of power series in $1/\ln(Q^2/\Lambda)$, where Λ is the QCD *scale parameter*. For example, the running coupling constant writes:

$$\frac{\alpha_s(Q^2)}{4\pi} = \frac{1}{\beta_0 \ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2)} - \frac{\beta_1 \ln\ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2)}{\beta_0^3 \ln^2(Q^2/\Lambda^2)} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{\ln^3(Q^2/\Lambda^2)}\right). \tag{1.5}$$

Retaining the first term of the expansion corresponds to the leading order approximation. The second term represents the next-to-leading correction which corresponds to the two-loop effects [9].

[4] The inclusive cross section for DIS scattering is expressed in terms of the Fourier transform of the expectation value of the electromagnetic current product $J_\mu(x)J_\nu(0)$

$$W_{\mu\nu} \sim \frac{1}{2\pi}\int d^4x e^{iq\cdot x} < p|[J_\mu(x), J_\nu(0)]|p > . \tag{1.7}$$

This expression is not well defined since the integral is divergent for $x = 0$. The Wilson technics consists in expanding the product of currents $J_\mu(x)J_\nu(y)$ in a series of well-defined local operator $\mathcal{O}(x)$ with singular isation group properties of scattering amplitude, leads to the representation:

$$F_2(x,Q^2) \propto \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{C_n(x,Q^2)}{(Q^2)^n}, \tag{1.9}$$

where the functions $C_n(x,Q^2)$ depend weakly (i.e. logarithmically) on Q^2. The various terms in this expansion are referred to as leading ($n = 0$) and higher ($n \geq 1$) twists. Physically the higher twist effects arise from the struck parton's interaction with target remnants, thus reflecting confinement. For Q^2 of the order of 1 GeV^2, contributions of the "higher twists" may become detectable.

Thus, one can express the structure functions either in terms of the parton model where the leptons scatter off the quark in the target, or in terms of a bilocal product of quark operators

$$\int_0^1 d\xi \xi^{m-2} F_2(\xi,Q^2) = \int_0^1 d\xi \xi^{m-1} \sum_f e_f^2 [q_f + \bar{q}_f] = \sum_i C_{2,m}^{(i)}(Q^2) A_{2,m}^{(i)}, \tag{1.10}$$

where coefficient functions $C_{2,m}^{(i)}$ are of short-distance nature and are calculable by QCD, while the constants $A_{2,m}^{(i)}$ are related to the matrix elements of the long-distance operator and have to be determined experimentally. Relation 1.10 is known as the moment sum rule of order m for the structure function F_2. The parton model interpretation is equivalent to the OPE only at the leading twist level. Beyond leading twist more general quantities – parton correlation functions – emerge.

The low Q^2 region should join smoothly onto the non-perturbative photoproduction limit, $Q^2 \to 0$, successfully described by the Regge-inspired models. F_2 can be related at low x for finite Q^2 ($W \simeq \sqrt{Q^2/x}$) to the total cross-section of the proton-virtual photon interaction $\sigma_{tot}(\gamma^* p)$ via

$$F_2(W,Q^2) \simeq \frac{Q^2}{4\pi^2 \alpha_{em}} \sigma_{tot}(\gamma^* p). \tag{1.11}$$

The Regge-type expectation has an essentially flat in x behaviour of the form $x^{-0.08}$, while the present surprise is that the strong rise of F_2 with decreasing x is still quite prominent even at values of Q^2 as low as 1.5 - 2.0 GeV^2. The transition from the "soft" to the "hard" regime thus appears to be rapid.

Small x physics

The behaviour of the proton structure function $F_2(x,Q^2)$ at small x reflects the behaviour of the gluon distribution, since the gluon is by far the dominant parton in this regime. A

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complex coefficients $C_i(x)$:

$$J_\mu(x) J_\nu(y) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} C^{(i)}(x-y) \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \tag{1.8}$$

where the choice of $(x+y)/2$ is arbitrary. The local operator is regular in the sense that the singularity of the product $J_\mu(x) J_\nu(y)$ for $x = y$ is fully contained in the coefficient functions $C^{(i)}(x-y)$. This enables us to extract a short distance piece in the scattering cross section, characterised by the singular c-numbers calculable in the framework of perturbative QCD, while the regular local operators include full information on the long distance properties (hadronisation) of the theory and are unimportant in the short distance region [9].

growth of the gluon density is transmitted via quark pair production $g \to q\bar{q}$ to the sea quarks probed by the photon. Perturbative QCD does not predict the absolute value of the parton distributions, but rather determines how they vary from a given input. For instance from given initial distributions at some scale Q_0^2, we may evolve up to large Q^2 using the Altarelli-Parisi (DGLAP) [10] equations which are typically of the form

$$\frac{\delta g}{\delta \log Q^2} = P_{gg} \otimes g + ... \tag{1.12}$$

where the convolution is over the longitudinal momentum fraction or x. The splitting function P_{gg} has the perturbative expansion in α_s

$$P_{gg} = \alpha_s P_{gg}^{(1)} + \alpha_s^2 P_{gg}^{(2)} + ... \tag{1.13}$$

where $P_{gg}^{(i)}$ are in principle, calculable functions, though, to date, only $i \leq 2$ terms are known. In Leading Logarithmic Approximation (LLA: see for example [11]) the DGLAP evolution resums the $\alpha_s \ln Q^2$ terms to all orders of perturbative QCD expansion

$$P_{gg}^{(1)} \propto \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x) \left(\alpha_s \ln Q^2\right)^n . \tag{1.14}$$

In the *axial* gauge, the $\alpha_s^n \ln^n Q^2$ contribution is associated with a chain of n gluon emissions in which the successive gluon transverse momenta are strongly ordered along the chain, that is

$$q_{\perp 1} \ll q_{\perp 2} \ll \cdots \ll q_{\perp n-1} \ll q_{\perp n} \ll Q^2. \tag{1.15}$$

Physically this means that partons of the (logarithmic) field theory are not point-like particles: an attempt to localise the parton of the i^{th} generation, which has typical transverse size $\Delta\rho_\perp^i \sim 1/k_{\perp i}$, reveals its substructure at smaller distances $\Delta\rho_\perp \sim 1/k_\perp \ll \Delta\rho_\perp^i$. In the next-to-leading order (NLO) logarithmic correction a logarithm is lost and $P_{gg}^{(2)}$ resums the $\alpha_s^n(\ln Q^2)^{n-1}$ terms. The DGLAP predictions in the HERA range depend on the shape of the starting distributions and on the starting scale. If started at a very low scale $Q_0^2 \leq 0.4$ GeV^2, the evolution is sufficiently long for the gluon, quark and F_2 to develop a steep x behaviour in the HERA regime. In this case the distributions mimic an $x^{-\lambda}$ behaviour with $\lambda \sim \lambda(Q^2)$ and $\langle\lambda\rangle \sim 0.33$ in the HERA regime.

At sufficiently high electron-proton c.m. energy a second large variable, $1/x \sim s/Q^2$, is encountered. In leading order the resummation of $\alpha_s \ln 1/x$ terms is accomplished by the BFKL equations [12] and

$$xg(x, Q^2) \propto \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(Q^2) \left(\alpha_s \ln \frac{1}{x}\right)^n . \tag{1.16}$$

In contrast with the DGLAP evolution there is no restriction on transverse momentum in the summation but rather a strong ordering in longitudinal momenta or x:

$$x_1 \ll x_2 \ll \cdots \ll x_{n-1} \ll x_n \ll x. \tag{1.17}$$

The singular $x^{-\lambda}$ growth with fixed λ is characteristic of the BFKL evolution, at variance with the DGLAP evolution, where it is incorporated in the starting distributions or generated by the evolution from a low scale and λ varying with Q^2.

Ciafaloni, Catani, Fiorani and Marchesini [13] have proposed a unified evolution equations which embodies the BFKL evolution at small x and the DGLAP evolution at larger x. The CCFM equation is based on the coherent radiation of gluons, which leads to an angular ordering of gluon emissions. Outside the ordered region there is destructive interference between the emissions.

Finally one should mention that the rise of the gluon density at small x has to be damped at some sufficiently small values of x by saturation effects when the parton density is so large that the partons can no longer be considered as independent. The Gribov Levin Ryskin (GLR) equation is the first attempt to describe the saturation corrections to the BFKL evolution equations. Saturation effects are however expected to be relatively weak in the HERA kinematic domain.

The theory cannot predict so far the precise domains of validity of the different approaches since there is no scale in the $\ln Q^2 - \ln 1/x$ plane of evolution mechanisms. This is the task of experiments.

In deep inelastic experiments the low x region is correlated with low values of Q^2. Thus a completely satisfying explanation of the observed rise at small x cannot avoid investigating the transition at high energies from the DIS structure function F_2 at small x to the photoproduction cross section. The interest is on the W-dependence at low Q^2, since on one side for $Q^2 \sim 0$ the non-perturbative regime is successfully described by the Regge-inspired models, and on the other side for finite Q^2, perturbative QCD predictions are given by the evolution equations. It remains also to see if a singular F_2 growth with decreasing x is evidence for the singular BFKL behaviour of the gluon or just evidence of the need for a different input parameterisation in the conventional DGLAP evolution. Acceptable DGLAP-based description (including next-to-leading order $\ln Q^2$ terms) are possible down to at least $Q^2 \sim 1$ GeV^2. Within the current F_2 measurement precision the small x data can equally well be described by the BFKL leading order evolution. Last but not least, the DGLAP analysis is constrained to leading twist only, and for large Q^2 this approximation is well justified. However, once we are approaching the low-Q^2 region, the neglect of higher-twist contribution becomes more and more questionable.

Thesis organisation

This thesis is organised as follows.

In chapter 2, we introduce the layout of the HERA machine. The longitudinal structure of the proton beam is then discussed and a qualitative overview of the phenomena leading to the creation of the so-called "proton satellite bunch" is presented. One of the satellite bunches is observed in the H1 detector at $\approx +70$ cm with respect to the nominal interaction point and can be used for the measurement of the proton structure function F_2 at low Q^2. An estimate of the integrated luminosity originating from the satellite bunch is performed, and a correction to the H1 luminosity is provided.

The H1 detector is shortly described in chapter 3, with an emphasis on the detector components used for this analysis.

In chapter 4 the experimental method used for measurement of the DIS cross-section and the structure function $F_2(x, Q^2)$ is introduced first. Next are briefly presented different ways of measuring the DIS event kinematics used in the present analysis. Then, after a short discussion of backgrounds, the DIS event selection is described.

Systematic effects affecting the measurements of the scattered electron energy and angle and of the hadronic final state are studied in detail in chapter 5.

The event losses are discussed in chapter 6. Particular attention is paid to the efficiency of reconstructing the event interaction vertex.

Finally, after a careful study of the accessible kinematic range using different methods of reconstructing the DIS event kinematics, chapter 7 presents the measurement of the structure function F_2.

The thesis is summarised in the last chapter.

Chapter 2

Accelerator, beams and luminosity measurement

In this chapter, the layout of the HERA machine is first introduced. The longitudinal structure of the proton beam is then discussed and a qualitative overview of the phenomena leading to the creation of the so-called "proton satellite bunch" is presented. One of the satellite bunches is observed in the H1 detector. An estimate of the integrated luminosity originating from this satellite bunch is performed, based on the analysis of the distribution of the reconstructed z-vertex position. This allows this data sample to be used for the measurement of the proton structure function F_2, which is the main topic of the present thesis. Finally, combining this satellite luminosity estimate with an analysis of the Forward Time of Flight (FToF) scintillator data, a correction to the H1 luminosity accounting for the total satellite bunch effect is provided.

2.1 Accelerator

The Hadron Elektron Ring Anlage (HERA) [15] consists of two separate 6.3 km long storage rings, designed to accelerate respectively 820 GeV protons and 30 GeV electrons (or positrons). The collisions take place in four interaction points from which three are actually occupied by the H1 (North Hall), ZEUS (South Hall) and HERMES (East Hall) detectors. The layout of the HERA machine together with its injection system is shown in Fig 2.1.

Injection system

The electrons[1] from a 500 MeV linear accelerator are injected into a small storage ring where they are accumulated into a $\sim$ 60 mA single bunch. They are then injected into the DESY II synchrotron which brings the energy up to 7 GeV. From DESY II they are transferred to the PETRA ring where the energy is ramped up to 14 GeV after accumulating up to 70 bunches. At this energy the bunches are transferred to HERA. This is repeated until HERA has been filled with 210 (170 in 1994) bunches.

A whole new chain of preaccelerators has been built in order to inject protons into HERA. A linear accelerator delivers a 50 MeV negatively charged hydrogen ion beam which is stripped upon entering into the DESY III synchrotron. Inside DESY III the protons are captured into 11 radio frequency (rf) buckets with the final bunch spacing and the final total number of particles per bunch, unless losses happen during transfers

[1] In this chapter, "electron" refers to electron and positron: in 1994 HERA has collided e^+ against protons for most of the time.

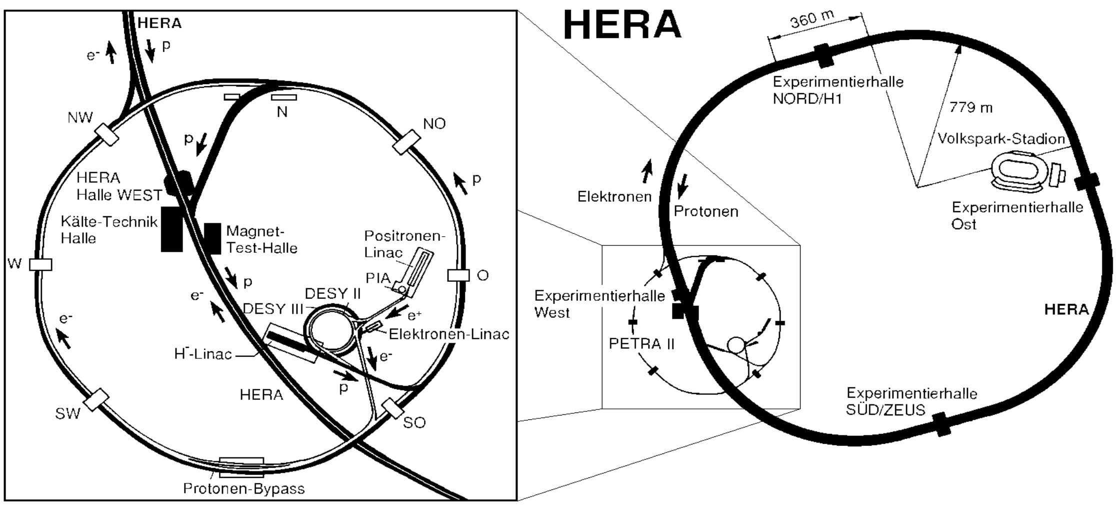

Figure 2.1: *Layout of HERA and injection system.*

and ramping. The protons are then accelerated up to 7.5 GeV and transferred to PETRA which can accumulate up to 70 bunches and accelerate them up to 40 GeV. They are finally transferred to the HERA proton ring.

HERA collider

In HERA, eight super-conducting cavities are necessary to accelerate the electrons up to 30 GeV energy. Electrons are bend inside the ring by a modest field of 0.165 T which is achieved with conventional magnets. The synchrotron energy loss is compensated by 500 MHz rf cavities.

Conventional rf cavities are used to accelerate the protons from 40 GeV to 820 GeV and to maintain them at this energy. A much higher 4.68 T bending field is required to keep the 820 GeV protons on orbit. The proton ring is equipped with a total of 1819 super-conducting magnets and correction coils. The quality of the magnets is such that it is possible to rise the strength of the magnetic field up to 5.8 T, which would correspond to 1 TeV proton beam.

The main nominal parameters of the HERA rings are listed in Table 2.1. In 1994, the third year of HERA operation, the lepton beam energy was fixed at 27.5 GeV. At this energy, the ep centre of mass energy is

$$\sqrt{s} \simeq \sqrt{4E_eE_p} = 296 \text{ GeV}.$$

The maximum number of bunches was 170 for the electrons (or positrons) and 168 for protons instead of the designed number of 210 bunches. Among them, 17 lepton bunches and 15 proton bunches are unpaired, so that they do not collide. They are commonly called

	p-ring	e-ring	units
Nominal energy	820	30	GeV
Beam polarisation	(70% ?)	70%	
Polarisation time		28	minutes
Magnetic field	4.68	0.165	T
Total number of particles	2.1	0.8	10^{13}
Number of bunches	210	210	
Injection energy	40	14	GeV
Filling time	20	15	minutes
σ_x/σ_y at I.P.	0.29/0.07	0.26/0.02	mm
σ_z	110	8.0	mm
Energy loss/turn	6.26×10^{-6}	127	MeV
RF-frequency	52.033/208	499.776	MHz
RF-power	1	13.1	MW
Luminosity	1.5×10^{31} cm^{-2} s^{-1}		
Integrated Luminosity	50 pb^{-1}		

Table 2.1: *Nominal (design) HERA parameters (from [15]).*

"pilot bunches" and permit to measure the rate of beam interactions with the beam-pipe walls and with the residual gas inside the beam-pipe. The performance of the HERA proton acceleration system in 1994 is listed in Table 2.2 and compared to the average performance during the two preceding years since HERA commission in 1992 [16].

	Average 1992	Average 1993	Average 1994	Best 1994	Design Goal
Beam energy [GeV]	820	820	820	820	820
Beam current [mA]	1.4	12.5	40	60	159
Number of bunches	10	90	170	170	210
Particles per bunch/10^{10}	1.8	1.8	3.1	4.7	10
Bunch length [ns]	1.27	0.46	0.42	0.34	0.5
Beam loss (ramping)	30%	7%	7%	1%	0%
Beam lifetime [h]	100	100	200	1000	20

Table 2.2: *HERA proton acceleration system performance (from [16]).*

An upgrade is envisaged which will allow for a 4 times increase of luminosity resulting in $\sim$ 180 pb^{-1}/year of total integrated luminosity.

2.2 Longitudinal structure of the proton beam

In HERA, proton and electron beams are composed of packets of particles, spaced by 96 ns (28.8 m) in the longitudinal direction. Electron packets are composed of a short single bunch with an approximately Gaussian shape, and length $\approx$ 2.5 cm (0.08 ns). Proton packets have a more complex structure with a central (main) bunch of high intensity,

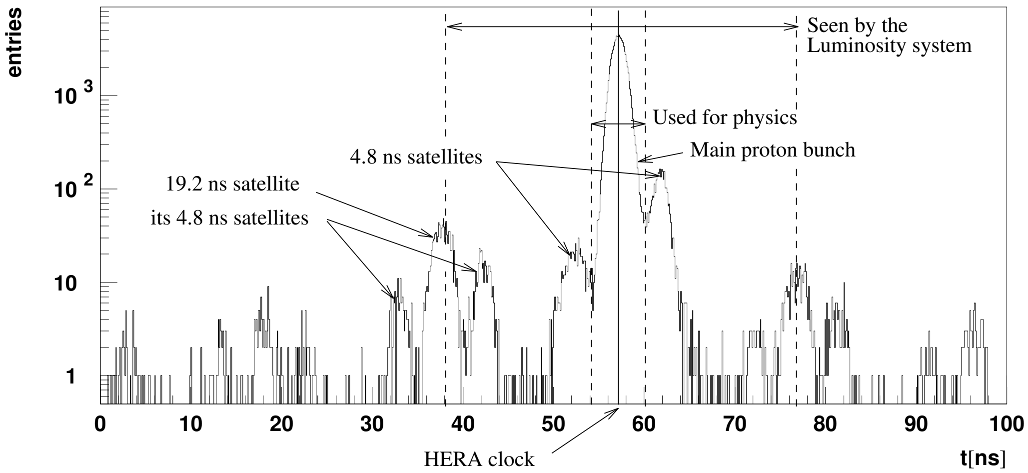

Figure 2.2: *Longitudinal profile of a proton bunch as observed in the forward time of flight scintillator FToF.*

surrounded by several extra (satellite) bunches of much less intensity, at ± 4.8 ns and ± 19.2 ns, thus filling the 96 ns interval between interactions. Fig 2.2 illustrates the longitudinal profile of a proton packet as observed in the forward time of flight scintillator FToF (see section 2.3.1 for details on the FToF data analysis). The HERA clock is synchronised with the arrival of the main proton bunch and the positron bunch in the nominal interaction point (IP) of the detector (H1, ZEUS and HERMES).

The distribution of the interaction position along the z-axis observed with the H1 detector (see section 2.3.1) reflects roughly the longitudinal structure of the proton beam, resolved by the much shorter electron bunch. The distribution of the observed interaction z-vertex position (see Fig 2.8-a) due to collisions between the main proton bunch and the electron beam has a width of ≈ 10 cm. It is essentially half the length of the proton bunch.

Another peak in the vertex distribution appears at $\approx +70$ cm from the main peak and corresponds to the satellite bunch arriving 4.8 ns before the main bunch. Other satellite bunches are not observed in the detector due to acceptance effects.

Only interactions corresponding to the main proton bunch are usually used for physics analysis. However, the H1 luminosity system, based on the detection of bremsstrahlung events ($ep \to ep\gamma$) (see section 2.3), is sensitive to the total amount of protons contained within ± 19.3 ns of the main bunch centre. As a consequence, the integrated luminosity $\mathcal{L}$ should be corrected to account for the satellite bunch effect.

The rest of this section is dedicated to a qualitative overview of the phenomena leading to the occurrence of this complicated proton bunch structure.

The next section is devoted to an analysis of the available data and to the determination of the integrated luminosity originating from the satellite bunch, and thus to the correction

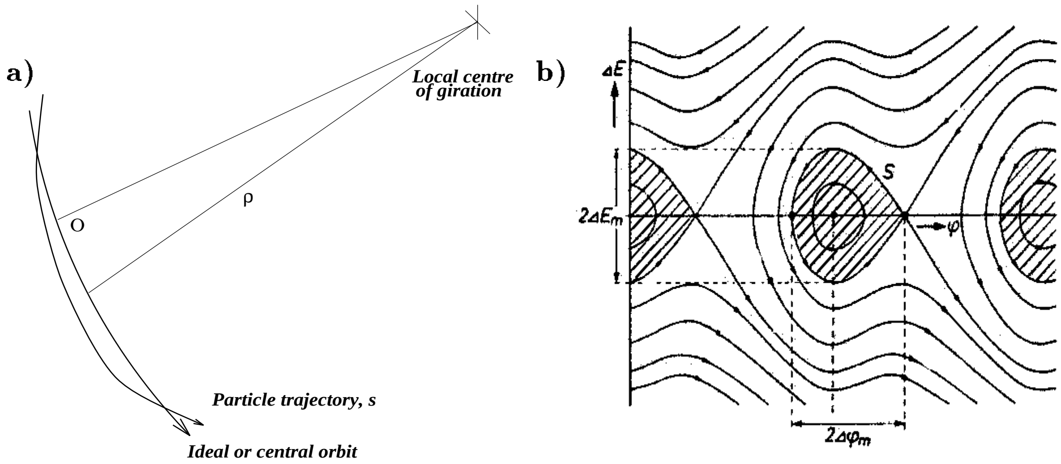

Figure 2.3: *a) Curvilinear coordinate system following the beam through the accelerator; b) particle trajectories in the longitudinal phase space representation (from [17]).*

to the integrated luminosity used for the physics analysis.

Longitudinal phase space. Rf buckets

The operating principle of synchrotron acceleration consists in imparting higher and higher energies to particles as they move in a stable orbit of constant radius. The actual particle acceleration is accomplished with resonators (cavities) operating with radio-frequency (rf) voltage. Since particles attain velocities close to the velocity of light c at relatively small energies (especially electrons), their frequency of revolution is approximately constant. Hence the frequency of the accelerating voltage can also have a constant value.

The movement of particles inside an accelerator can be described in a multi-dimensional phase space. The longitudinal deviations (synchrotron oscillations) from the trajectory of the ideal (synchronous) particle crossing the cavity at the correct phase of the accelerating voltage can conveniently be represented in a *longitudinal phase space* in which the abscissa is the phase φ when a particle crosses a cavity ($\varphi = 0$ at a peak voltage) and the ordinate is the deviation ΔE from the synchronous particle energy E_0. The phase φ is related to the curvilinear particle coordinate along the accelerator. Similarly, the ordinate ΔE can be related to the deviation $\Delta\rho$ from the radius ρ_0 of the equilibrium orbit, perpendicular to the trajectory along the accelerator (see Fig 2.3-*a*). The trajectory of particles in this phase space is determined by the properties of the rf cavities.

For small deviations from the synchronous trajectory, a particle behaves as if it was submitted to a harmonic oscillator, and its trajectory is an ellipse in the longitudinal phase space representation. If, however, the deviations are not small, the trajectories are no longer elliptical. Fig. 2.3-*b* shows several trajectories. One of these is the critical trajectory, the *separatrix* S. In the hatched zone inside the separatrix loop, trajectories are closed and the acceleration is stable. The particles with trajectories outside the separatrix loop diverge indefinitely and get lost.

The loops within the separatrix can be considered as forming rf *buckets*. Particles with trajectories belonging to a bucket form a *bunch* circulating coherently around the ring.

The bucket length defines the maximum phase spread of the accelerated particles ($2\Delta\phi_m$) and, similarly, the bucket width is equal to their maximum energy spread ($2\Delta E_m$) [17].

PETRA–HERA transfer. The 19.2 ns satellites

The relative bucket height, $2\Delta E_m/E_0$ (see Fig 2.3-b), is a particularly important factor when particles are transferred from one accelerator to another, in our case from the PETRA preaccelerator to HERA.

In PETRA, the bunching is done using the rf cavities operating at 52.03295 MHz. At HERA, bunches are first trapped in buckets with almost the same length (phase spread) $2\Delta\phi_m$, created by the 52.03426 MHz rf cavities. However, due to a different design, the HERA 52 MHz rf system is operated at a much higher voltage. A bucket in HERA is thus ≈ 2.8 times as large (energy spread) as a bucket in PETRA. After injection from PETRA to HERA, particle bunches tend to fill the whole HERA bucket and are diluted in phase space. The beam appears to be unstable in this configuration [18].

A technical solution to this problem, used by the HERA crew, consists in imparting to the bunch a rotation in the PETRA bucket longitudinal phase space, and in injecting it into the HERA bucket when the rotation angle is 90° with respect to the initial position. This allows for a much better filling of the phase space of the HERA bucket and preservation of the bunch compactness. Fig 2.4 illustrates this bunch rotation technique used to inject protons from PETRA to HERA. The bunch is first pushed on the knot between two rf buckets ($a - b$). There it undergoes electromagnetic forces which tend to stretch it (c). Then it is returned back to the centre of the bucket and rotated ($d - f$). At this stage it is transferred to HERA ($g - j$) [18].

As a side effect, when the bunch is stretched on the knot between two buckets, some small fraction of the protons escapes to neighbouring buckets. These particles are transferred to HERA and accelerated together with the main proton bunch. They form the 19.2 ns satellites, this value being the delay between buckets created by the 52 MHz rf cavities [18].

Another way to inject efficiently protons from the PETRA to the HERA 52 MHz rf system is presently under study. It consists in inducing energy spread oscillations, so that the proton envelope in the phase space is modulated and oscillates between the initial state (Fig 2.4-a) and a state with reduced phase ϕ spread but stretched energy spread, corresponding roughly to Fig 2.4-f. This technique should avoid the 19.2 ns satellites [18].

Longitudinal bunch compression in HERA. The 4.8 ns satellites

When the beam has been transferred to HERA, it can be accelerated up to the designed energy of 820 GeV. However, the beam intensity is limited by the onset of *collective instabilities*. Such instabilities appear, for instance, when the mutual forces between the particles in the beam or between the two beams inside the collider become comparable to the focusing forces. These focusing forces are provided transversely by the beam optics and longitudinally by the rf bucket which insures the longitudinal stability.

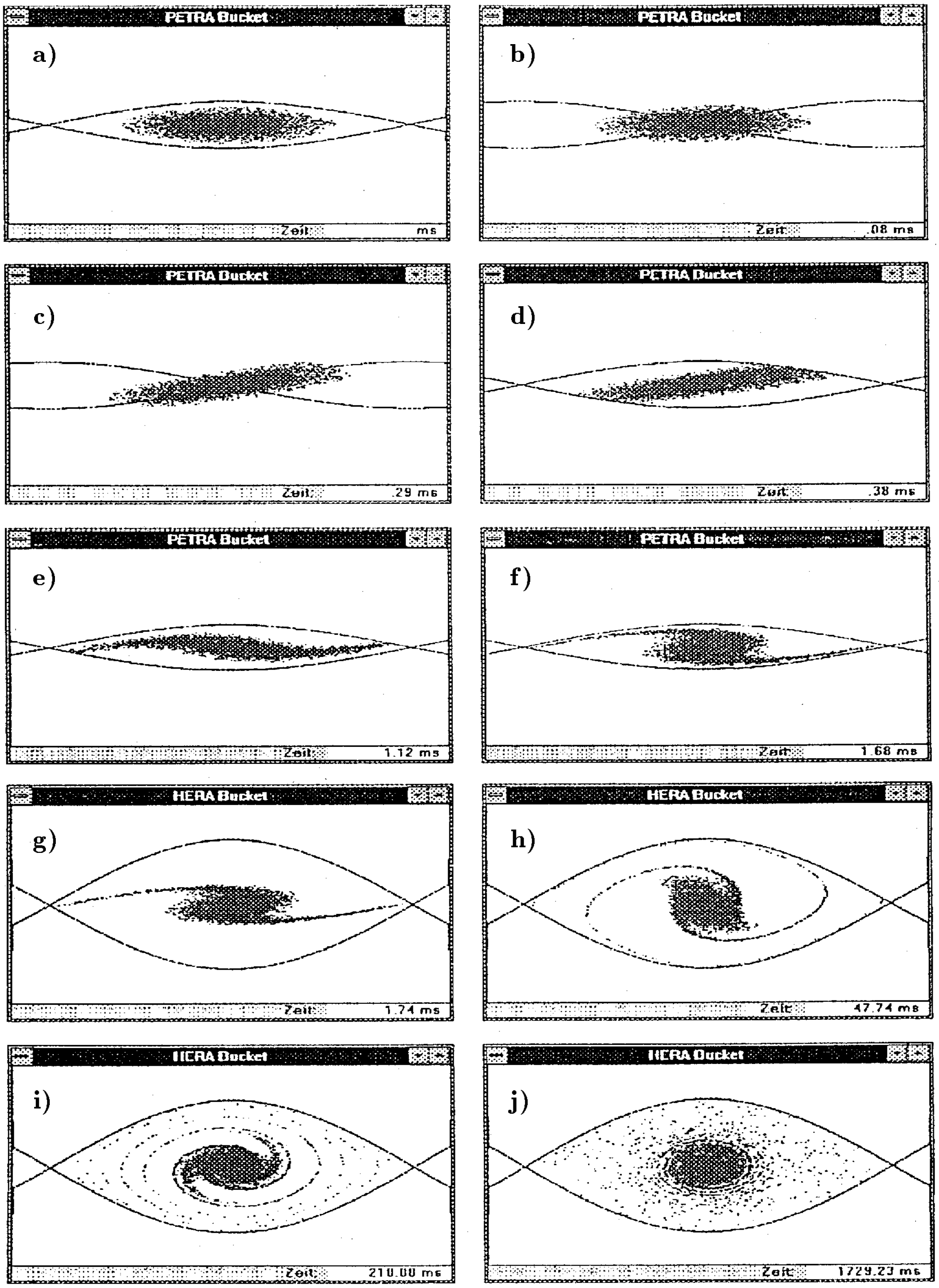

Figure 2.4: *Simulation of the bunch rotation technique in the longitudinal phase space representation (x-axis is the phase spread and y-axis is the energy spread), used to transfer protons from PETRA $(a-f)$ to HERA $(g-j)$; time ("Zeit") in ms; (from [19]).*

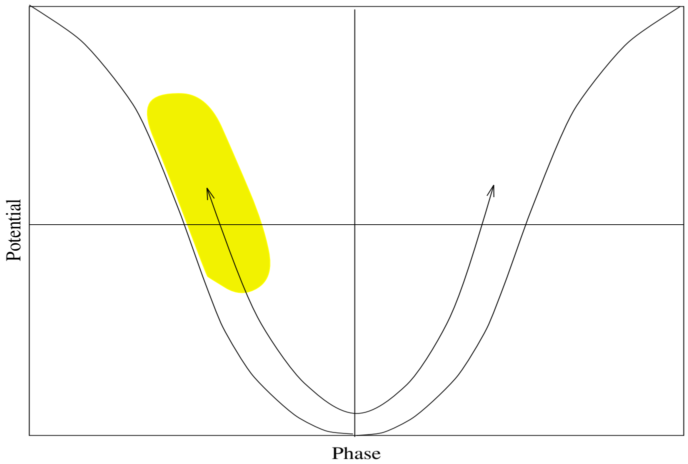

Figure 2.5: *Illustration of the longitudinal instability of a single bunch, provoked by collective oscillations of the bunch around the equilibrium position in the potential gap created by the rf-system and corresponding to a bucket.*

Another kind of collective instabilities is provoked by interactions between the beam and the electromagnetic waves it generates in the vacuum chambers. Since the vacuum chamber walls have a finite impedance, the electromagnetic image of the beam has a feedback effect on the beam itself. A resonance can appear under given conditions and at given frequencies. Fortunately, these resonance effects, which tend to destabilise the beam, are normally suppressed by the so-called *Landau damping*. A simple physical interpretation can be given to this damping mechanism. A proton beam has a natural energy spread. Thus only a very small fraction of the protons fall inside the exciting frequency ω of the feedback loop corresponding to the beam and its electromagnetic image. These protons are coupled to the external source and steadily absorb energy. Their oscillation amplitudes grow, but since the fraction of protons for which this happens decreases with time, the global response of the ensemble is limited and the feedback loop remains stable [17].

However, this natural damping mechanism breaks down in HERA during the ramping if the beam intensity is too high. In this case, the fraction of protons which fall inside the exciting frequency ω starts to increase. Thus, protons begin to oscillate coherently around the equilibrium position in the potential gap created by the rf system and corresponding to a bucket (Fig 2.5). The longitudinal bunch length grows and the whole system becomes unstable.

Here again, a procedure has been designed by the HERA crew in order to suppress this longitudinal bunch length grow and thus accelerate a high intensity beam. During ramping time (around 300 GeV), a longitudinal focusing system using 208 MHz rf cavities is progressively brought into operation, superimposed to the 52 MHz rf system. At some intermediate energy, the 208 MHz cavities take over completely the task of accelerating the beam and of insuring its longitudinal stability. The effect of this mixing is illustrated on Fig 2.6. A steep potential gap is created (see right column Fig 2.6), increasing the energy spread and thus reintroducing the Landau damping mechanism.

As a consequence, the length of the proton bunches is reduced. However, the tails of the bunches are trapped in neighbouring buckets (see Fig 2.6 $g-j$) of size 4.8 ns in the 208

MHz rf-system. Protons trapped inside these neighbouring buckets are therefore known as the 4.8 ns satellite bunches [18].

2.3 H1 luminosity measurement

Introduction

- The H1 luminosity measurement procedure is first presented in this section. The 1994 data samples are then presented.
- The H1 luminosity system does not allow for a separate luminosity measurement for *ep* interactions in the satellite bunches. Therefore, a procedure has been developed, in order to estimate the integrated luminosity accumulated in the so-called 'forward satellite bunch' observed in the H1 detector at $\approx +70$ cm with respect to the nominal interaction point. The achieved precision allows these data to be used for physics analysis. The measurement of the proton structure function F_2, based on these data, is presented in chapter 7.
- Combining the forward satellite bunch luminosity measurement with the analysis of FToF data, the luminosity correction accounting for the total satellite bunch effect is thus established. This correction corresponds to the total integrated luminosity for all satellites, including those which are not observed in the H1 detector but contribute to the H1 integrated luminosity measurement.

H1 online luminosity monitor

The luminosity[2] is measured online from the rate (typically a few kHz) of bremsstrahlung (or Bethe-Heitler, BH) interactions $ep \rightarrow ep\gamma$. A process which has a large and precisely known cross section.

Online, the luminosity measurement is based on the detection of the scattered electron and outgoing photon in coincidence. The luminosity system contains two arms: an electron tagger (ET) and a photon detector (PD), situated respectively at -33.4 m along the e-ring and -102.9 m in the direction tangent to the incoming e-beam from the nominal interaction point. Fig 2.7-a illustrates the position of the H1 luminosity monitor components.

[2] In this section, the term *luminosity* refers to the *instantaneous* luminosity measurement $\mathcal{L}_{inst}$ expressed in cm^{-2}s^{-1}. The *specific luminosity* is the instantaneous luminosity normalised to the beam currents (or number of colliding particles): $\mathcal{L}_{sp} = \mathcal{L}_{inst}/I_e I_p$. It describes purely geometrical properties of the beams. The *integrated luminosity* is defined as: $\mathcal{L}_{integrated} = \int \mathcal{L}_{inst} dt$. It is typically integrated over a detector *run* period, characterised by uniform detector and beam conditions. A short run can last only a few seconds and a long run a few hours. The luminosity defined in this way represents the HERA-*delivered* luminosity. It has to be corrected for the H1 trigger dead-time effect, defining the H1-*gated* luminosity. Each individual H1-run is classified according to the detector and the beam conditions as *poor*, *medium* or *good* quality run. The H1-*collected* luminosity usually corresponds to the fraction of the H1-gated luminosity with *medium* or *good* run quality. Finally, one has to take into account that during part of the run some subdetectors can be out of operation, reducing the data taking efficiency. After correcting the H1-gated luminosity for the requested detector status, one obtains the H1-*physics* luminosity, used for physics analysis. The last number depends on the choice of the subdetectors that are requested to be operating.

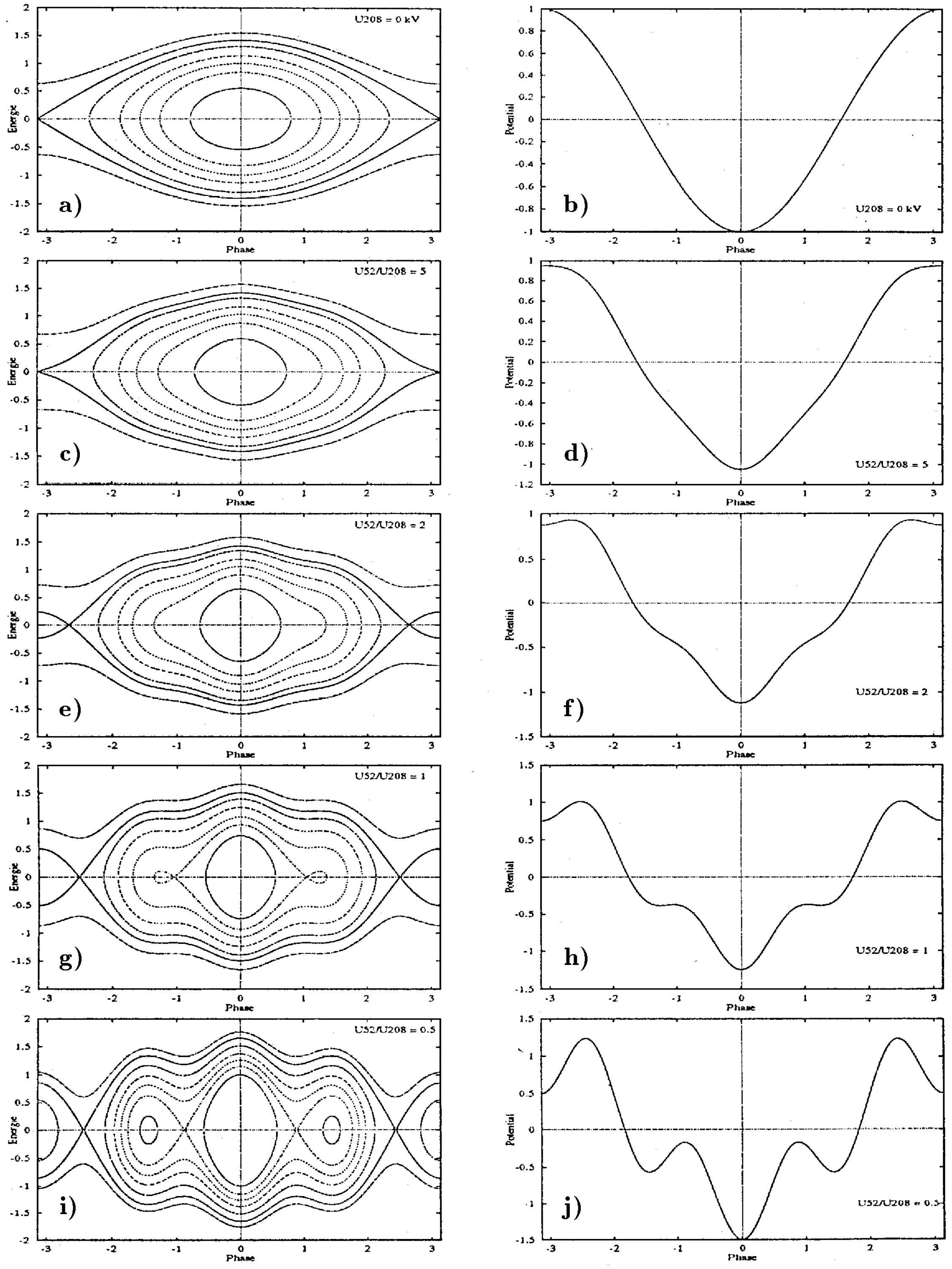

Figure 2.6: *Evolution of the bucket (left column) and the potential gap (right column) shapes, created by mixing the 52 and 208 rf systems in HERA. Note the change of the scale of the ordinate in the right column (from [19]).*

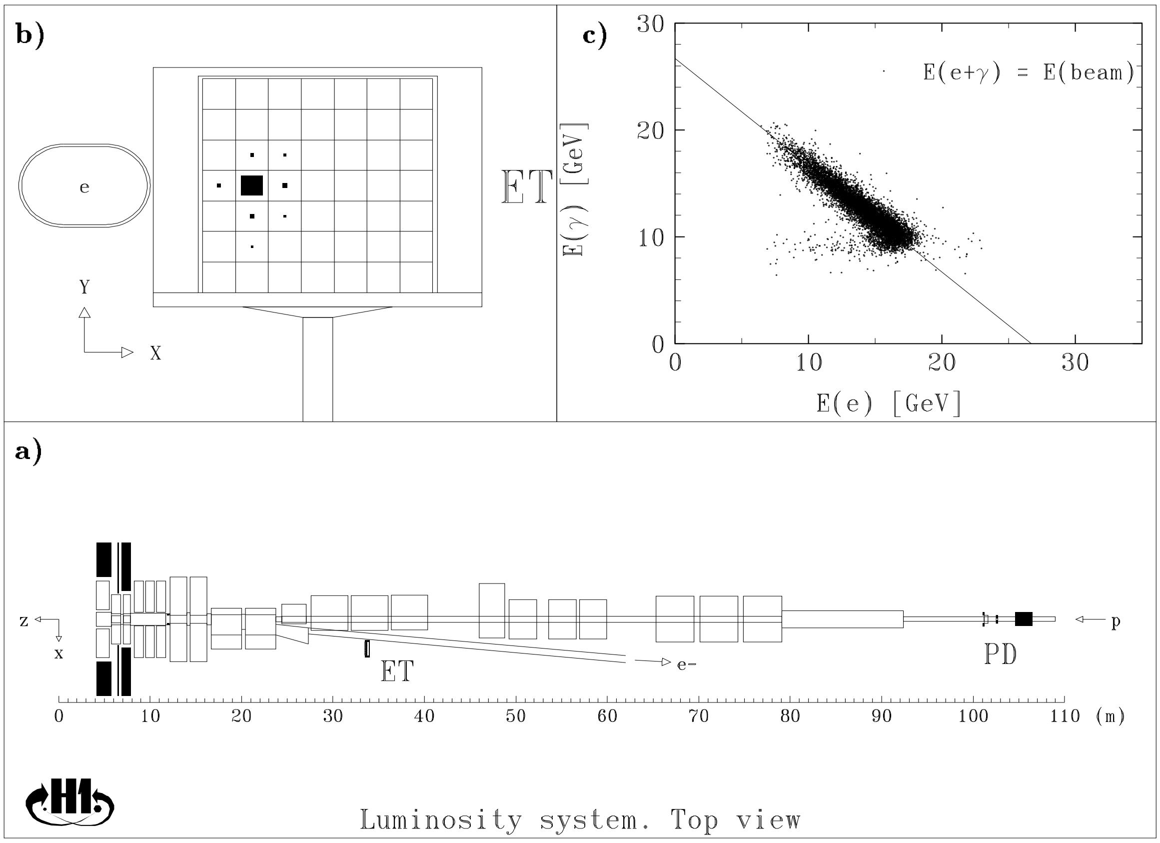

Figure 2.7: *Sketch of the H1 luminosity system: a) general view of the luminosity system (z=0 corresponds to the nominal interaction point IP); b) example of a reconstructed energy deposition in the ET detector; c) energy correlation between the e and γ arms (from [20]).*

The electron tagger (ET) electromagnetic calorimeter consists of 7×7 cells with a total area of 154×154 mm^2. Electrons scattered with an energy different from the beam energy are deviated in the spectrometer-like electromagnetic field created by the focusing magnets. They leave the beam-pipe and are detected in the electron tagger if their energy is between 10 and 20 GeV (for emission angle $\rightarrow 0$). An example of reconstructed energy deposition in the ET detector is shown in the transverse view (Fig 2.7-*b*). The photon detector (PD) consists in a synchrotron radiation filter, followed by a Čerenkov water counter and an electromagnetic calorimeter. The PD calorimeter is made of 5×5 cells with transverse total area of 100×100 mm^2.

Both the ET and PD calorimeters are permanently calibrated during data taking, using the energy constraint for the selected events: $E_{ET} + E_{PD} = E_{e-beam}$. Fig 2.7-*c* illustrates the energy correlation between the e and γ arms. The energy resolution obtained for the ET and PD is $\sigma/E = 10\%/\sqrt{E} \oplus 1\%$.

The luminosity is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{inst} = \frac{N^{total} - (I_e^{total}/I_e^{pilot}) \times N^{pilot}}{\sigma_{visible}}(1+\delta), \tag{2.1}$$

where N^{total} is the total number of detected bremsstrahlung events, N^{pilot} is the number of bremsstrahlung events originating from the beam-gas interactions; I_e^{total} and I_e^{pilot} are respectively the total electron beam current and the electron pilot bunch current, and $\sigma_{visible}$ is an estimate of the total $ep \rightarrow ep\gamma$ cross-section, taking into account the electron arm acceptance and the trigger efficiency. A small correction term δ is applied in order to take into account the superposition of several bremsstrahlung interactions occurring in the same bunch crossing.

The systematic error in this luminosity measurement is dominated by the uncertainty on the electron tagger acceptance, which depends strongly on the precise knowledge of the electron trajectory in the HERA magnetic fields, up to the entry of the electron tagger. The overall normalisation error can reach 10% in extreme cases of large variations of the beam optics. However, the precision achieved using this method can be improved offline by verifying the time dependence of the electron tagger acceptance and correcting the overall normalisation used in the online measurement.

Offline luminosity measurements

A different selection of the bremsstrahlung events detected by the luminosity monitor is used for the offline luminosity measurement. The luminosity is computed using the so-called *hard γ sample* [20], i.e. high energy photons ($E_\gamma > 10$ GeV), detected in the photon arm. The main advantage of this method over the coincidence method used for the online luminosity measurement is that the selection efficiency is insensitive to possible variations of the beam optics. On the other hand, it requires a precise absolute energy calibration and detailed understanding of the resolution of the photon detector, and therefore must be performed offline.

The luminosity is defined in the same way as for the coincidence sample (using eq. 2.1). The dominant contribution to the systematic error is the absolute energy calibration and resolution of the γ-arm. The total uncertainty in the measured integrated luminosity with the hard γ method for e^+p interactions in 1994 is 1.40%. This method provides the most precise estimate of the integrated luminosity and is used for the final measurement for the 1994 run period.

The total integrated luminosity can also be measured from the rate of *QED Compton events* [22]. The cross-section is precisely predicted by the QED theory, but is small compared to the bremsstrahlung cross-section. This method is however an important cross-check of the methods described above since it does not rely on the luminosity system detectors, the event selection being based on the central detector alone. The precision of this method was limited by statistics.

Another cross-check of the integrated luminosity measurement is provided by the so-called *random coincidence method* [23]. The integrated luminosity is determined from the rate of bremsstrahlung events superimposed with an independent class of events, for instance DIS events. The selection is independent of the electron tagger and photon arm triggers, providing a cross-check of their efficiencies.

Integrated luminosity in 1994

In 1994, HERA delivered a total of $\approx$ 6 pb^{-1} of luminosity for lepton-proton collisions. Part of this luminosity corresponds to e^-p collisions. However, after 2 months of operation it was decided to use positrons instead of electrons. This allowed for a significant decrease of the background rate and thus an increase of the data taking efficiency[3]. Therefore, most of the 1994 luminosity was collected with e^+p interactions. During the last days of HERA running in 1994 data were also taken with the nominal interaction point shifted by $\approx$ 65 cm downstream the proton beam. In what follows, these data are referred to as the *shifted vertex* (SV) data.

Table 2.3 summarises the total collected luminosities for these three different HERA configurations, together with the different sources of errors contributing to the uncertainty in the absolute luminosity measurement using the hard γ sample events.

2.3.1 Luminosity in the satellite bunches

Introduction

Different methods can be used to estimate the satellite bunch contribution to the measured integrated luminosity. A straightforward method would be based on a direct measurement of the proton current I_p in the satellite bunches, $\mathcal{L}_{sat}$ being extracted using the theoretically expected specific luminosity $\mathcal{L}_{sp}(z)$ according to:

$$\mathcal{L}_{sat} = \mathcal{L}_{sp}(z) \sum (I_e I_p) \qquad (2.2)$$

[3]The difference between e^+ and e^- has a purely technical origin: it is related to the presence of ionised (i.e. positively charged) micro-dust particle "clouds" inside the beam-pipe. Thus, the negative e^- beam gas attracted and scattered on them to much more extent than the positive e^+ beam. At HERA the effect is particularly large since the pumping system heavily ionises the rest gas. It is now claimed to be improved, but even in an ideal case, e^+ will always behave better than e^- (this is experimentally proved at all e^+e^- machines) since the rest gas gets ionised in any case by the beam itself [21].

[4]Total integrated luminosity for *good* and *medium* quality runs. No subdetector operation status correction is applied.

[5]Statistical error on the selected bremsstrahlung events and statistical error on the e-gas background subtraction using the pilot bunch events.

Data	e^-p	e^+p	SV
HERA delivered luminosity (nb^{-1})	846	4665	78
H1 collected luminosity (nb^{-1}) [4]	494	3424	65
H1 efficiency (%)	58	73	83
Errors			
Theoretical value for σ_{BH}	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%
Trigger efficiency	0.3%	0.3%	0.3%
Statistics, e-gas bgr. subtraction [5]	1.3%	0.4%	3.3%
γ-arm energy scale (calib. & resol.)	1.1%	0.9%	1.7%
Geometrical acceptance of γ-arm	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%
Multiple photon pile-up	0.3%	0.4%	0.3%
Counting and rounding errors	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%
Total error from lumi. system	1.96%	1.4%	3.84%
Satellite bunch correction (see section 2.3.1)	0.34%	0.38%	0.66%
Overall error	1.99%	1.48%	3.90%

Table 2.3: *Total integrated luminosities delivered by HERA and contributions to the experimental error on luminosity. (Final values for the 1994 run period [20].)*

where the sum is taken over all pairs of colliding bunches, the specific luminosity $\mathcal{L}_{sp}(z)$ describing purely geometrical properties of the beams: beam sizes and their matching [6].

Unfortunately this direct measurement was not possible during the 1994 data taking period due to the absence of an adequate hardware device. An indirect measurement of the longitudinal structure of the proton beam could be provided by the Forward Time of Flight scintillator detector. But, for reasons that will be given later (see section "FToF data analysis"), the extraction of the proton current in the satellite bunch using the FToF data alone is affected by a systematic error of the order $20-50\%$. However, an estimate of the *relative intensities* $I_p^{-4.8}/I_p^{+4.8}$ or $I_p^{-19.2}/I_p^{+19.2}$ can be reliably obtained using the FToF data.

On the other hand, the -4.8 ns satellite is observed in the H1 detector and its contribution to the global luminosity can be estimated directly by analysing the z_{vertex} distribution of selected classes of events.

A combined approach is thus used to estimate the satellite luminosity.

- The z_{vertex} distribution of the low Q^2 DIS events is used to estimate the integrated luminosity for the forward (-4.8 ns) satellite. This satellite is observed in the H1 detector with a z_{vertex} distribution centred around $\approx +69$ cm in the H1 coordinate system[7].

[6] The specific luminosity as a function of z for head-on collisions of beams with a Gaussian spatial shape (which is a good approximation for HERA), can be written as

$$\mathcal{L}_{\rm sp}(z) = \left[2\pi e^2 f_H \sigma_x(z)\sigma_y(z)\right]^{-1} = \frac{13.1\times10^{25}}{\sigma_x(z)\sigma_y(z)} \mathrm{cm}^{-2}\mathrm{s}^{-1}\mathrm{mA}^{-2}, \qquad (2.3)$$

where e is the electron charge and $f_H = 1/(220\cdot 96\text{ ns}) \approx 47.35$ kHz is the HERA revolution frequency. The definition of the transverse beam sizes $\sigma_x(z)$ and $\sigma_y(z)$ relies on the optical parameters of the beams at the IP with coordinate z: the emittance ϵ and the beta function β^* [24].

[7] It can be noted that this value does not correspond to the expected $\approx +75$ cm for the mean position

This distribution is similar to the one from the shifted vertex data sample with the nominal interaction point shifted to $\approx +67$ cm. Therefore, detector effects are expected to be similar for both samples. If there was no shifted vertex data sample, it would be necessary to compare the satellite bunch z_{vertex} distribution to the one of the main bunch and this analysis would be less reliable since one would have to take into account different detector acceptances for the two data samples.

The integrated luminosity corresponding to the forward satellite bunch can thus be measured in a straightforward way by comparing the numbers of selected events in the forward satellite and in the shifted vertex sample:

$$\mathcal{L}_{fw\ sat} = \mathcal{L}_{sv} \cdot N_{fw\ sat}/N_{sv} \tag{2.4}$$

where identical criteria were used to select low Q^2 DIS events and $\mathcal{L}_{sv}$ is measured with the H1 luminosity system.

- From the known ratio R_{tof} between the FToF signals from forward and backward p-satellites allows to compute their relative luminosities. Thus,

$$\mathcal{L}_{sat} = \mathcal{L}_{fw\ sat} \cdot (1 + R_{tof}) \tag{2.5}$$

- Finally, a second order correction for the small luminosity tail from $\pm$ 19.2 ns satellites is made using equation 2.2. The absolute contribution of this satellite bunch to the overall luminosity error is small, because the specific luminosity $\mathcal{L}_{sp}$, entering equation 2.2, drops fast outside the interaction region [24].

Analysis of the z-vertex distributions

Low Q^2 DIS events are used in order to determine the fraction of the total integrated luminosity corresponding to electron collisions with the early (-4.8 ns) p-bunch satellite.

The criteria used to select a clean DIS sample will be described in details in section 4.4. Fig 2.8 shows the z-vertex distribution for the low Q^2 ($Q^2 < 5.5$ GeV^2) e^+p events. Q^2 is estimated from the polar angle θ_e and the energy $E_e^{'}$ of the scattered electron. In Fig 2.8-a, 'forward' satellite events are clearly visible in addition to the main bunch events. It should be noted that the $Q^2 < 5.5$ GeV^2 cut strongly favorises satellite bunch events, because their θ_e angular acceptance and thus their Q^2 acceptance ($Q^2 \sim \theta_e$) is increased[8] compared to that of the main bunch events.

Fig 2.8-b presents the z-vertex distribution for the shifted vertex events, obtained by applying the same criteria as for the nominal vertex sample selection. The results of Gaussian fits to the central part of the peaks are shown on Fig 2.8-a for the satellite bunch and in Fig 2.8-b for the shifted vertex data. Note again that the average z-vertex position

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of this satellite ($z_{sat} - z_{IP} = c\tau_{sat}/2 = \pm 72$ cm). We think that since the satellite bunch appears from the tails of the main bunch during ramping (see previous section), it does not necessarily sit in the bottom of the rf bucket, and therefore, it can be observed in a position slightly different from that corresponding to the centre of the bucket.

[8] The angular acceptance in the backward region is limited by the size of the beam-pipe. Satellite bunch interactions take place further away from the backward electromagnetic calorimeter BEMC than the main bunch events. Therefore lower polar angles θ_e can be reached for these interactions.

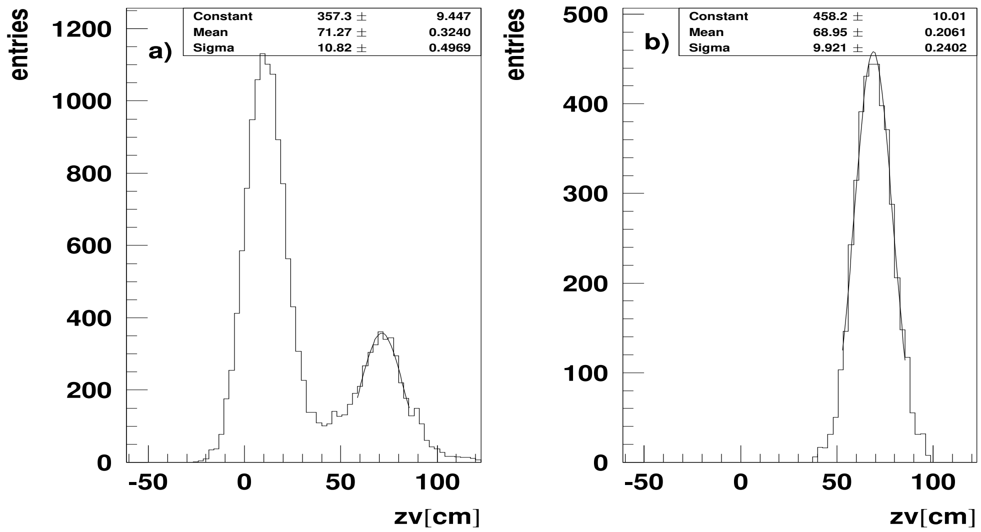

Figure 2.8: *z-vertex distribution for low Q^2 DIS events ($Q^2 < 5.5$ GeV^2) for the a) nominal vertex sample; b) shifted vertex sample.*

of this last sample is approximately the same as for the satellite bunch sample. The mean positions for both peaks is slightly shifted compared to the values quoted before (by ≈ 2 cm) due to the particular Q^2 selection in the present case. Note also that the satellite bunch z-vertex distribution is slightly wider than the shifted vertex sample distribution. This widening is due to the fact that the nominal interaction point position has moved with time by a few centimetres in the case of the nominal vertex interaction runs (see Table 7.1).

An absolute estimate of the integrated luminosity corresponding to the forward satellite bunch is determined by comparing the numbers of events obtained by applying identical selection criteria[9] to the satellite and the shifted vertex samples. In addition, special cuts were applied in order to take into account the slightly different trigger configuration in the

[9] The following selection criteria were applied to both samples:

- run selection:
  - run quality: Good or Medium
  - trigger phase: 3, 4
  - detector status: correction to the run luminosity $< 20\%$ when the following subdetectors are required to be on: BEMC, BPC, CIP, CJC, COP, LAC, ToF.
- event selection:
  - z-vertex reconstructed within 20 cm from the average $< z_{vertex} >$ value for the given run range
  - error on reconstructed z-vertex position < 5 cm
  - standard identification criteria for the scattered electron in the backward electromagnetic calorimeter (see section 4.4).

shifted vertex sample versus the nominal vertex satellite bunch sample (trigger configurations: see subsection "Trigger performance", page 46; event selection: see section 4.4).

The systematic uncertainty was estimated by varying the selection criteria. In addition, the integrated luminosity of the SV sample itself is corrected for the satellite bunch effect, thus leading to an extra systematic error for the satellite bunch luminosity normalisation. A special minimum bias γp sample was used in order to determine the contribution $\Delta\mathcal{L}_{sat}$ of the satellite bunch in the shifted vertex sample. This contribution was estimated to be [25]:

$$\Delta\mathcal{L}_{sat} = 2.26 \pm 0.66\% \tag{2.6}$$

Finally, the integrated luminosity $L_{sv} = (59.6 \pm 2.3)\ \mathrm{nb}^{-1}$ was obtained as a normalisation value for equation 2.4.

For 1994 e^+p collisions, the total integrated luminosity for the forward (-4.8 ns) satellite is

$$\mathcal{L}_{fw\ sat} = (73.8 \pm 5.2)\ nb^{-1} \tag{2.7}$$

corresponding to a total luminosity of 2592 nb^{-1}. The luminosities quoted above are obtained after applying run selection and correcting the run luminosity for the detector status. Table 2.4 summarises the sources of uncertainties.

a) event selection	5.7%
b) luminosity error in the SV sample $\delta\mathcal{L}_{sv}$	3.9%
c) error on satellite correction for the SV sample	0.7%
d) statistics	1.2%
Total error	7.1%

Table 2.4: *Contributions to the experimental error for the 'forward' satellite luminosity measurement (from [24]).*

FToF data analysis

The forward time of flight detector FToF is a pair of scintillators situated at $z = +7.0$ m downstream the proton beam from the nominal IP. Collected signals are proportional to the number of secondary charged particles hitting the FToF scintillators. They originate primarily from the proton remnant of ep interactions, but also from p-gas or p-wall interactions and e-beam related background.

To obtain informations on the p-beam structure, it is first of all necessary to separate signals due to the p-beam from signals related to the e-beam or to ep collisions. This is done by using a high threshold readout, which selects p-gas or p-wall interactions characterised by very high secondary particle densities and discriminates them from other types of interactions.

If the thus selected FToF events were originating from the p-gas contribution alone, the FToF response would be proportional to the proton beam current and the FToF data

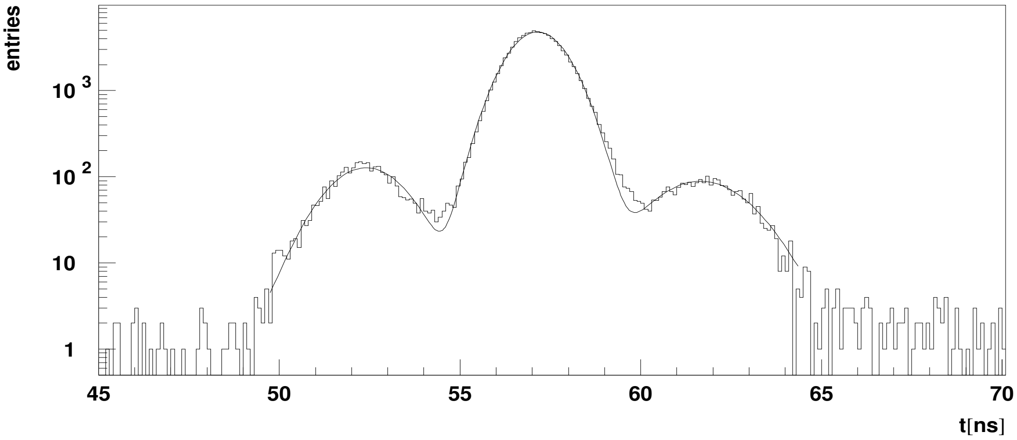

Figure 2.9: *Example of a fit to the central part of the FToF spectra. The fit is a superposition of 3 Gaussian distributions over a constant background.*

could be directly used to measure the longitudinal p-beam structure. However, there is always some p-wall contribution to the FToF signal caused by protons leaving the bunch. The problem is that the amount of protons per unit current leaving the beam is in general different for the main proton bunch and its satellites. The number of FToF counts is thus also related to the *a priori* unknown behaviour for each particular bunch. Therefore, we can not deduce directly the proton current in the satellite bunches using the FToF data.

However, since the beam optics are in a good approximation symmetric in z around IP, this behaviour should be similar for the forward and backward satellites. It is thus possible, using the FToF data to measure reliably the ratio of the currents in the forward and backward satellites.

High threshold FToF signals are stored in the so-called FToF ‘qvt’ histograms [26] and written together with non-event data in a special ‘KEEP’ event file. A typical example of an accumulated FToF ‘qvt’ spectrum is presented on Fig 2.2.

In order to estimate the ratio R_{tof} between the -4.8 ns and +4.8 ns satellites[10], to be used in relation (2.4), the central parts of the FToF spectra were fitted as the superposition of 3 Gaussian distributions over a constant background. An example of a FToF spectrum accumulated during $\approx$ 20 min of data taking is shown in Fig 2.9. It should be noted that the tails of the bunches are not fully described by a Gaussian fit. This is a known feature and a second order effect for our purpose.

The time evolution of the fit parameters is illustrated on Fig 2.10 for $\approx$ 3.7 days of data taking. On Fig 2.10-a and b are shown respectively the total positron and proton currents as measured by HERA. The intensity of the e-beam drops rapidly due to synchrotron radiation. The e-beam was injected and accelerated eight times in HERA, corresponding to 8 *luminosity runs* (a). During the same time period, the p-beam was injected only 3 times (b).

[10] The -4.8 ns and +4.8 ns satellites are created by mixing the 208 MHz rf system to the 52 MHz rf system (see section 2.2). Their relative size depends on the phase-shift between these two rf systems and varies from one proton fill to another.

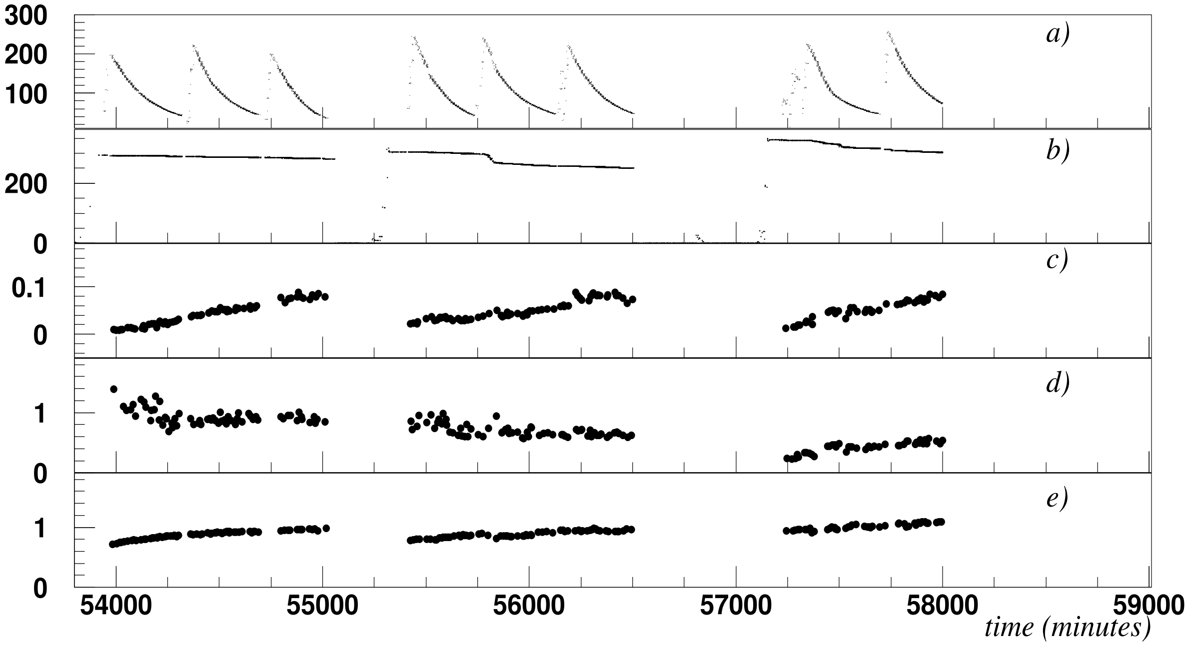

Figure 2.10: *Time evolution (in minutes), of the: a) electron beam current b) total proton beam current c) ratio of the -4.8 ns satellite current to the main bunch current (see text) d) ratio of the -4.8 ns to the +4.8 ns satellite currents e) half-width of the Gaussian fit to the main bunch.*

Fig 2.10-*c* shows the ratio of the -4.8 ns satellite current to the main bunch current defined as the ratio of the areas below the Gaussian fits to the corresponding peaks on the FToF 'qvt' histograms. The ratio increases slowly during each proton fill until the proton beam is dumped. It is difficult to make a reliable interpretation of this phenomenon [27]. We think that this grow is due to the faster increase of the p-wall contribution to the FToF signals in the satellite bunch than in the main bunch. In other words, we think that the amount of protons per unit current leaving the satellite bunch and contributing to the FToF 'qvt' spectra increases faster for the satellite bunch than for the main bunch.

An alternative hypothesis would be that of a real growth of the satellite bunch intensity with time, due to protons escaping from the main bunch and trapped in the satellites, thus increasing their population. This hypothesis would be supported by a growing longitudinal size of the main bunch, as can be observed in Fig 2.10-*e*. However, this phenomenon is unlikely to provide a significant increase of the satellite current [18].

The small value of the satellite current just after the proton beam ramp is probably due to the small phase and energy dispersion of protons inside the satellite bunch immediately after their creation. Thus few of them can leave the bunch phase space and be detected by the FToF.

Fig 2.10-*d* shows the ratio of the -4.8 ns to the +4.8 ns satellite currents obtained in the same way as for Fig 2.10-*c*. The ratio is relatively stable during each proton fill, tending to confirm the hypothesis that the background conditions are symmetric in z around the IP. It can however vary significantly from one proton fill to another. The ratio R_{tof} between the -4.8 ns and +4.8 ns satellites, to be used in relation 2.5, is finally obtained by adding up FToF 'qvt' histograms for each luminosity run. The result is shown in Fig 2.11 as a function of the luminosity run number.

The systematic uncertainty on R_{tof} is estimated by varying the fitting procedure and, for instance, by using a polynomial representation for the background in place of the constant value. The uncertainty corresponds to $\delta R_{tof} = 5,5\%$ [24].

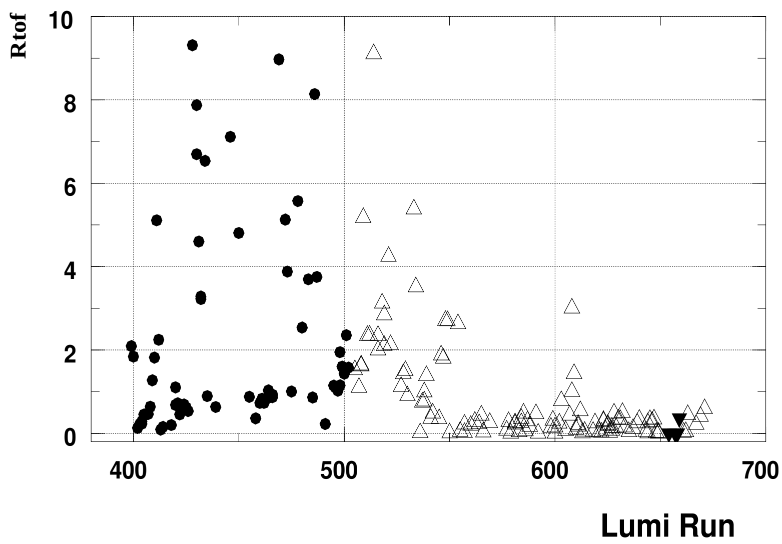

Figure 2.11: *Ratio R_{tof} of the 4.8 ns to the +4.8 ns satellite currents as obtained from the FToF data in function of the luminosity run number (see text). Full points correspond to the e^-p data, open triangles to e^+p and full triangles to the SV data (from [24]).*

Results

The total satellite bunch luminosity is obtained by multiplying the forward satellite luminosity $\mathcal{L}_{fw\ sat}$ with the forward to backward satellites ratio $R_{tof} = I_p^{-4.8}/I_p^{+4.8}$ and by adding a second order correction to account for the ±19.2 ns satellites. The final values for the luminosity correction for the proton satellite bunch is shown in Fig 2.12. The total error determination for the full e^+p data sample is presented in Table 2.5. The errors

a) forward satellite luminosity	7.1%
b) backward/forward satellite ratio (FToF data) δR_{tof}	5.5%
Total error	9.0%

Table 2.5: *Contributions to the experimental error in the total satellite luminosity determination (from [24]).*

in Fig 2.12 also account for an extra statistical uncertainty coming from dividing the full data into subsamples with similar beam conditions and thus with similar satellite bunch corrections. On average, the corrections amount to:

$$\mathcal{L}_{sat}(e^-p - 1994) = (3.90 \pm 0.34)\% \tag{2.8}$$
$$\mathcal{L}_{sat}(e^+p - 1994) = (4.22 \pm 0.38)\% \tag{2.9}$$

In both cases the effect is larger than the total error from the luminosity system: 1.96% and 1.4% in e^-p and e^+p collisions respectively (see Table 2.3). Therefore, it definitely cannot be neglected. The period with high satellite level, emphasised as the shaded area in Fig 2.12, was found to be in direct correlation with the time (17-31/08/94) when a proton transmitter was not operational.

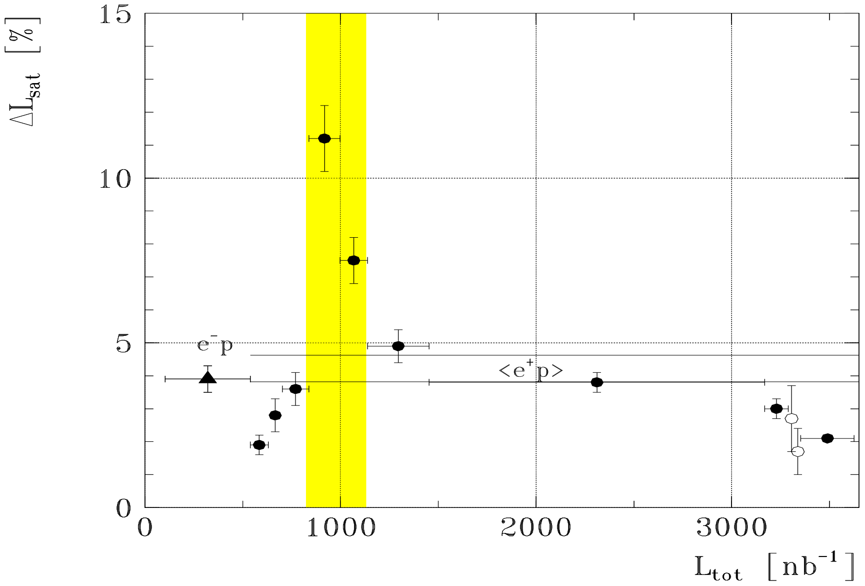

Figure 2.12: *Satellite bunch correction to the measured luminosity in the H1 interaction region for different periods of 1994, presented as function of the total integrated luminosity. Empty points correspond to the shifted vertex data. The shaded area corresponds to the period with a broken transmitter (from [24]).*

A special tool was provided to the H1 collaboration which allows the satellite bunch luminosity correction to be applied for physics analysis [24]. It provides integrated luminosity as a function of a fiducial cut along the z-axis in a run dependent way.

The relatively small error of the integrated luminosity measurement for the forward satellite ($\delta\mathcal{L}_{fw\ sat} = 7.1\%$, compared to $\delta\mathcal{L}_{sv} = 3.9\%$) makes possible to use these events for physics analysis on a comparable basis as the SV data sample.

Chapter 3

The H1 detector

The H1 detector [28] was designed in order to investigate high-energy interactions of electrons and protons at HERA. The structure function measurement presented in this thesis relies essentially on the central and backward tracker chamber systems and on the backward electromagnetic calorimeter which will be described hereafter in some detail. A brief description of the other H1 components will also be provided. At the end of this section the H1 trigger system will be introduced with a particular attention to the low Q^2 DIS trigger of prime importance for this analysis.

General description

The H1 detector is cylindrically symmetric around the beam axis. The imbalance in energy of the two colliding beams implies that the detector is more instrumented in the outgoing proton direction. In the H1 conventional reference system this direction defines the positive z-axis. The components of the detector situated on the positive side of this axis (relative to the interaction region) are referred to as the "forward" detector. The negative side, corresponding to the outgoing electron direction, is referred to as the "backward direction".

Starting the description from the interaction region, the detector (Fig 3.1) is composed of a central and a forward tracker (section 3.1), containing in turn several layers of drift and proportional chambers. The tracker is surrounded by a calorimetric system (section 3.2), composed of a liquid argon calorimeter (LAC-section 3.2.2) in the central and the forward directions and of a conventional electromagnetic lead-scintillator sandwich calorimeter (BEMC-section 3.2.1) in the backward part. A superconducting coil outside the liquid argon calorimeter provides an uniform magnetic field of 1.15 T. The iron return yoke surrounding the whole detector is laminated into several layers of streamer tubes used for the measurement of the hadronic shower tails by means of an analog readout system, and for muon tracking by means of a digital readout system. The latter is complemented with additional wire chambers inside and outside the iron. This allows measurement of muons with momenta greater than 1.5 GeV/c. A muon spectrometer is placed outside the iron in the forward direction ($3 < \theta < 17^\circ$), where the particle density is highest. The aim of the spectrometer is to measure the muon momentum between 5 GeV/c and 200 GeV/c. Two scintillator planes, located behind the backward calorimeter, are used to reject the background produced outside the H1 interaction region (section 3.3). A small scattered electron angle calorimeter, the "electron tagger", is situated at z = -33 m from the interaction point. Lastly a photon detector at z = -103 m, operating in coincidence with the electron tagger, monitors the luminosity by the bremsstrahlung process (section 2.3).

A more detailed description is provided in the rest of this section.

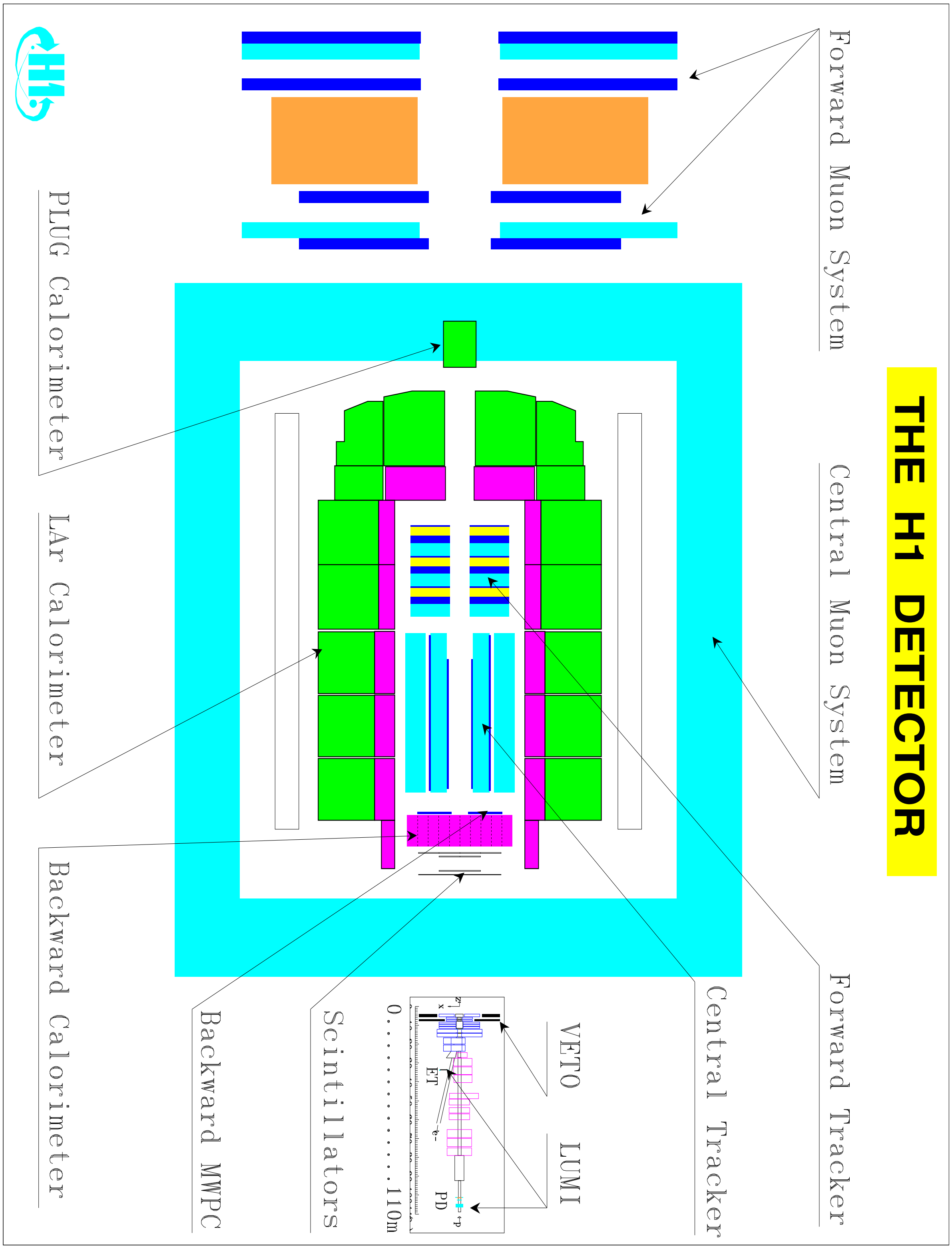

Figure 3.1: *Longitudinal cut through the H1 detector along the beam line.*

3.1 Tracking system

The H1 tracking system has been designed in order to provide charged particle track triggering, reconstruction and momentum measurement. The latter is made possible by the bending of particle trajectories in the magnetic field. Because of the asymmetry between the electron and proton beam energies, charged particles are mainly produced at small angles θ to the incident proton (forward) direction. To maintain good efficiency for triggering and reconstruction over the whole solid angle, two mechanically distinct detectors have been constructed, the central (CTD) and forward (FTD) trackers, respectively. Each is optimised for tracking and triggering in its angular region. The main parameters of the H1 tracking detectors are listed in table 3.1.

Central tracking		
Angular - radial coverage	$25 < \theta < 155°$	$150 < r < 850$ mm
Jet chamber: spatial resolution	$\sigma_{r\phi} = 170\ \mu$m	$\sigma_z = 22.0$ mm
z-chambers: spatial resolution	$\sigma_{r\phi} = 25$ and $58\ \mu$m	$\sigma_z \approx 350\mu$m
Momentum - dE/dx resolution	$\sigma_p/p^2 < 0.01$ GeV^{-1}	$\sigma(dE)/dE = 10$ %
Forward tracking		
Angular - radial coverage	$7 < \theta < 25°$	$120 < r < 800$ mm
Spatial resolution	$\sigma_{r\phi} = 170\ \mu$m	$\sigma_{x,y} = 210\mu$m
Backward tracking		
Angular - radial coverage	$155.5 < \theta < 174.5°$	$135 < r < 650$ mm
Spatial resolution	$\sigma_{x,y} = 1$ mm	
Trigger proportional chambers		
Angular coverage - channels	$7 < \theta < 175°$	3936

Table 3.1: *Summary of the H1-tracking detector parameters (from [28]).*

3.1.1 Central tracker

- **Central jet chambers: CJC1 and CJC2**

  Track reconstruction in the central region is based on two large cylindrical coaxial drift chambers, CJC1 and CJC2. The active length of these chambers is 2200 mm. The active radial length is 224 mm for CJC1 and 296 mm for CJC2. The wires are oriented parallel to the beam axis (z-direction). The drift cells are inclined with respect to the radial direction by about 30°, such that in the presence of the magnetic field the ionisation electrons drift approximately perpendicular to stiff, high momentum tracks originating at the nominal interaction point. This gives optimum track resolution. A space point is measured with a resolution of 170 μm in the drift coordinate ($r\phi$ plane). By comparing the signal amplitudes readout at both wire ends, a resolution of one percent of the wire length is achieved in z. These chambers allow the measurement of the transverse particle momentum with precision $\sigma_p/p^2 < 0.01$ GeV^{-1}. The specific energy loss dE/dx is used to improve particle identification. The event interaction vertex determination relies essentially on CJC reconstructed tracks.

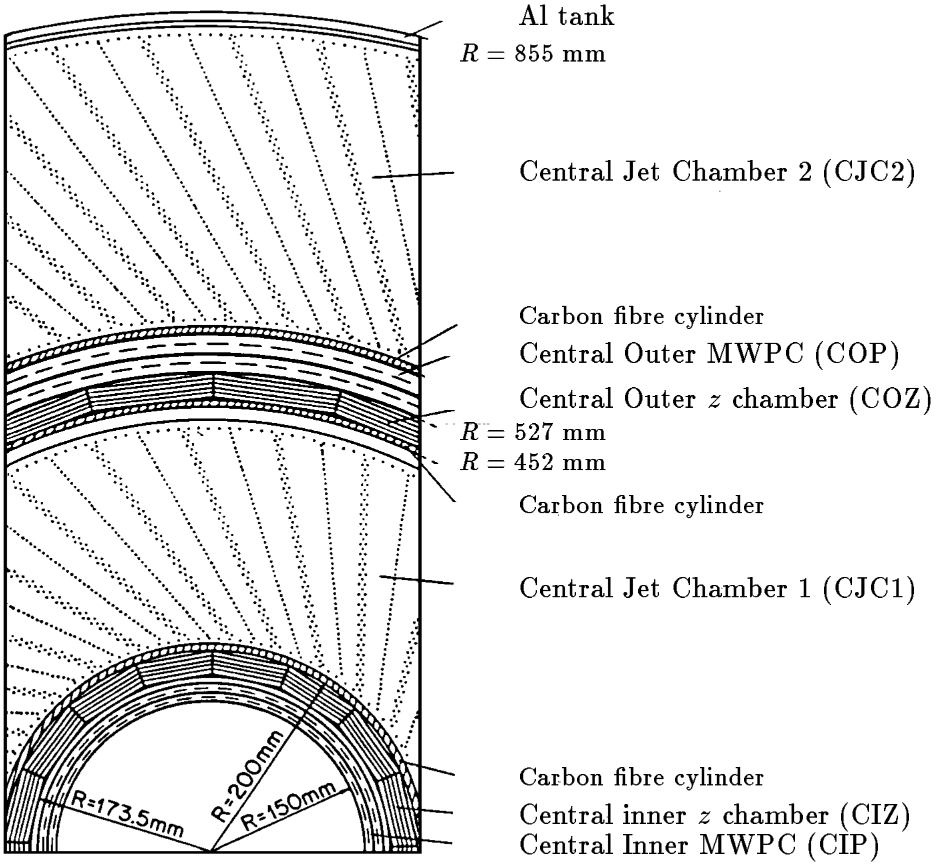

Figure 3.2: *Radial view of the H1 central tracker (from [28]).*

- **Central $z-$chambers: CIZ and COZ**

  Two thin drift chambers, the central inner and outer $z-$chambers, surround the inner half of the jet chamber and complement the measurement of charged tracks in the latter chamber. In these chambers, the drift direction is parallel to the beam axis, the sense wires being perpendicular to the latter. The tracks elements are measured with a resolution of 300 μm in z and 1 to 2 % of 2π in ϕ.

  Linking these track elements to those obtained from the jet chambers with accurate $r\phi$ and moderate z-measurement gives the final accuracy on both longitudinal and transverse momentum components. Finally it allows an improved z-determination of the event interaction vertex position.

- **Central proportional chambers: CIP and COP**

  The inner multiwire proportional chamber (CIP) is closest to the interaction region (average R = 161 mm) and covers the largest solid angle ($8 < \theta < 172°$). It is composed of 60 sectors in the z-direction (ΔZ = 3.65 cm) and of 8 sectors in ϕ ($\Delta\phi$ = 45 °).

The COP chamber [29] (average $R = 507$ mm) has an angular acceptance of ($25 < \theta < 156°$). It is composed of 18 sectors in the z-direction ($\Delta Z = 12.1$ cm) and of 16 sectors in ϕ ($\Delta\phi = 22.5$ °).

Both chambers deliver a fast timing signal with a time resolution better than the separation between two successive HERA bunch crossings (75 ns for CIP and 60 ns for COP). In addition, in the central and forward regions, the combinations of pad hits in CIP and COP and in the forward proportional chambers (FWPC) are used to trigger on particles coming from the nominal interaction vertex region.

3.1.2 Backward proportional chamber (BPC)

The backward multiwire proportional chamber is situated right in front of the backward electromagnetic calorimeter (BEMC) and is of a great importance for this analysis since it allows the precise measurement of the impact point of the scattered electron entering the BEMC, and thus of the electron emission angle in the low Q^2 kinematic region studied here. It is made of four planes of wires with vertical, horizontal and $\pm 45°$ orientations. The wires are strung every 2.5 mm, but signals from two wires are fed to one preamplifier.

For high energy electrons an efficiency of 87% per plane was measured from extrapolated jet chamber tracks. Three out of four planes are required in coincidence in order to reconstruct a space point with ≈ 1 mrad θ angular resolution. However, several hits are reconstructed in case of preshowering in material in front of the BPC, degradating significantly the θ angular resolution.

The intrinsic plane efficiency and the quoted single hit resolution cannot be used for the structure function analysis without further investigations, since effects as preshowering in the dead material are not correctly taken into account in the detector simulation. An analysis of the BPC resolution and efficiency for the ep data will be presented respectively in sections 5.3.1 and 6.2.

3.1.3 Forward tracker

The forward tracking detector consists of an integrated system of three identical supermodules. Each supermodule includes, in increasing z: three planar wire drift chambers, rotated by 60° to each other in azimuth, designed to provide accurate θ measurements, a multiwire proportional chamber (FWPC) for fast triggering (the time resolution is ~ 20 ns), a passive transition radiator and a radial wire drift chamber which provides accurate $r\phi$ (drift coordinate) information, moderate radius measurement by charge division and limited particle identification by measuring the transition radiation produced immediately upstream (see Tab 3.1).

3.2 Calorimetric system

The H1 calorimetric system consists of a liquid argon calorimeter (LAC) covering the polar angular range ($3 \leq \theta \leq 153°$) and a backward electromagnetic calorimeter (BEMC) located in the electron direction and covering ($151 \leq \theta \leq 177°$). The calorimetric coverage is complemented with a small calorimeter in the proton direction (PLUG), covering the region between the beam-pipe and the liquid argon cryostat ($0.6 \leq \theta \leq 3°$) and by the tail-catcher system (TC). The latter is used to provide a rough calorimetric measurement ($\sigma/E \simeq 100\%/\sqrt{E}$) of hadronic particles leaking out of the main calorimeter and is based on the analog readout of the pads of the limited streamer tubes that instrument the iron yoke.

3.2.1 The backward electromagnetic calorimeter (BEMC)

BEMC is a conventional electromagnetic lead-scintillator sandwich calorimeter [31].

The calorimeter is composed of 88 stacks aligned parallel to the beam pipe and mounted in an aluminium barrel of diameter 162 cm. The calorimeter front face is located at a distance of 144 cm from the nominal interaction point. The transverse structure can be seen in Fig 3.3-*a*. 56 stacks have a $\sim 16 \times 16$ cm^2 quadratic cross-section. The remaining stacks have trapezoidal and triangular shapes in order to provide an approximation to the annular shape of the barrel support.

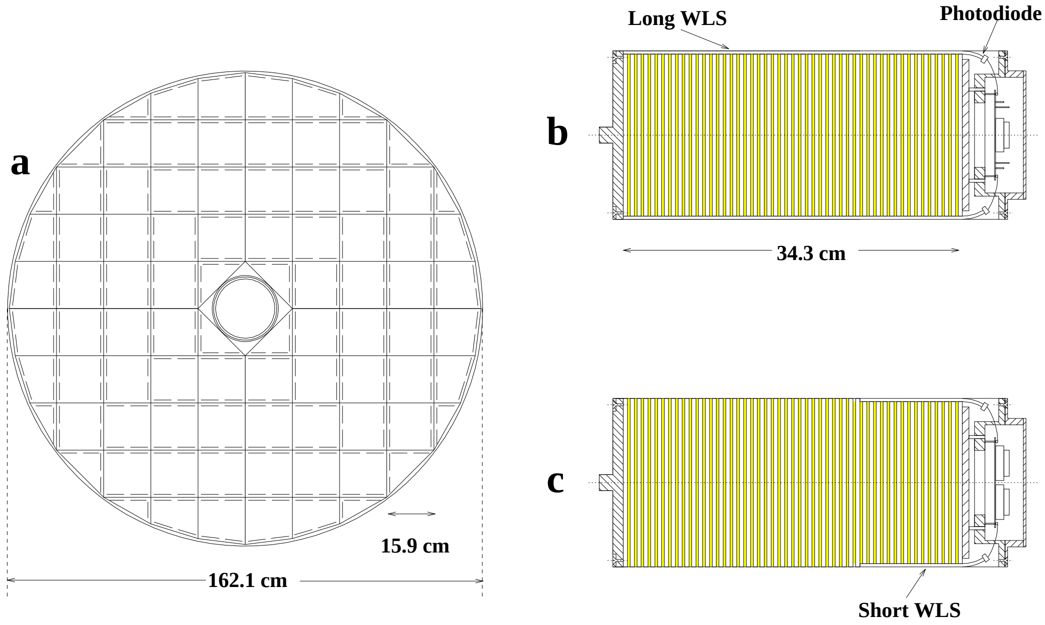

Figure 3.3: *a) Transverse view of the backward electromagnetic calorimeter (BEMC). The orientation of long wavelength shifters is indicated by horizontal and vertical lines; b),c) longitudinal views of BEMC stacks in two perpendicular planes. The scintillating light is read out transversely via long WLS covering the full length of BEMC stacks (b). In square and trapezoidal stacks the last 15 sampling layers are also read out via short WLS (c) (from [31]).*

The stacks are multilayer lead-scintillator sandwich structures with 50 active sampling layers made of plastic scintillator of 4 mm thickness (Fig 3.3-*b*, *c*). The active layers are interleaved with 49 layers of 2.5 mm lead. The entire structure corresponds to an average of 22.5 radiation length or 0.97 hadronic interaction length.

The scintillation light is coupled to wavelength shifter bars. Two pairs of 8 cm wide bars cover two opposite sides of a quadratic stack extending over the full active length.

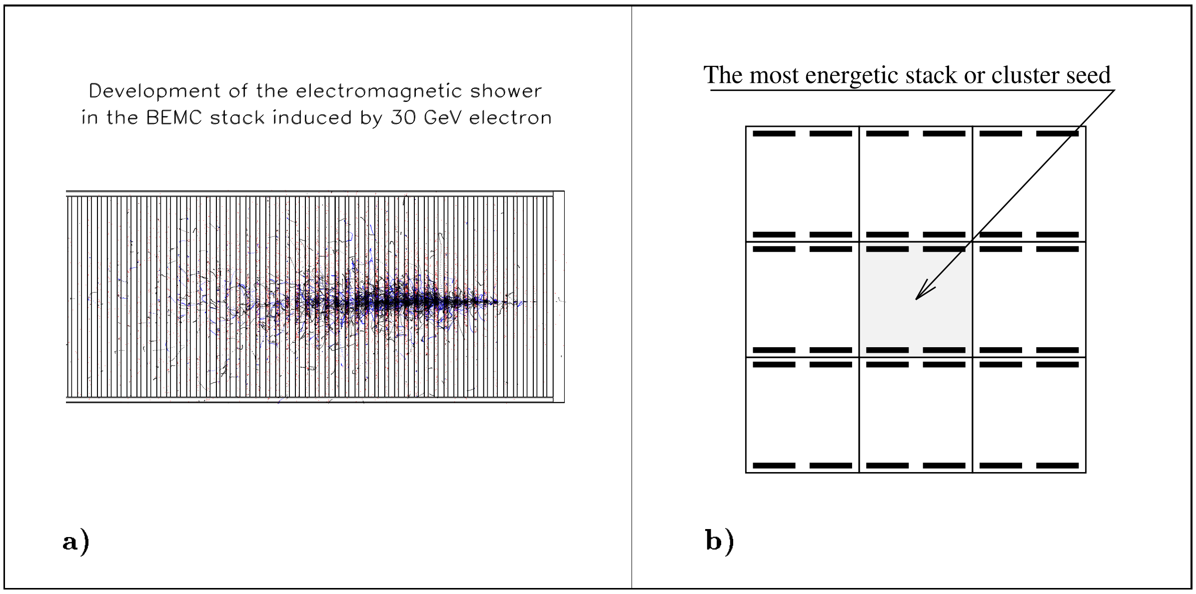

Figure 3.4: *a) Development of the electromagnetic shower in the BEMC (Monte Carlo simulation) induced by a 30 GeV electron; b) typical BEMC cluster composed of the most energetic stack (cluster seed) and its eight neighbouring stacks.*

The remaining two sides are covered with 16 cm wide bars extending only over the last 15 sampling layers in the stack.

The light emitted in the wavelength shifters is detected by photodiodes. Each long bar is equipped with one diode connected to a charge sensitive preamplifier. The short bars are connected to a pair of diodes, because of their double width. In total there are 472 read-out channels in the BEMC. The stack energy deposition is defined from the average signal of the four long wavelength shifters:

$$E_{stack} = \sum_{i=1}^{4} WLS_i/4. \tag{3.1}$$

The electromagnetic shower induced by a scattered electron (see Fig 3.4-a) is normally confined inside one stack[1], which is called the most energetic stack, with a small energy leakage in the neighbouring stacks. The scattered electron cluster energy is therefore defined as the energy sum of the most energetic stack with its neighbour stacks:

$$E_{cluster} = \sum_{stack=1}^{n} E_{stack}. \tag{3.2}$$

[1]The Molière-radius of an electromagnetic shower ($\rho_M = 21X_o/\epsilon_c$; describes the average lateral deflection of electrons after traversing one radiation length; ϵ_c is the critical shower energy; the maximum shower radius is $R \approx 2\rho_M$) in the BEMC is 3.4 cm, while the stack size is $\sim 15.9 \times 15.9$ cm.

A typical BEMC cluster is composed of the energy deposition in 9 stacks: the most energetic stack or cluster seed and its 8 neighbours (see Fig 3.4-*b*). Depending on the most energetic stack position the total number of stacks in the cluster can be less than 9.

BEMC Calibration

For the measurement of the structure function $F_2(x, Q^2)$ presented in this work, the determination of the kinematic variables x and Q^2 relies on the measurement of the scattered electron energy and polar angle θ_e. The electron energy is measured in the BEMC and the polar angle θ_e is measured using the backward proportional chamber BPC situated right in front of it.

A precise energy calibration of the BEMC is crucial. It was performed in two steps: initial calibration in test beams, improved calibration using *ep* data.

The initial BEMC energy calibration is based on 3 different methods:

1. electron beam data obtained at DESY;
2. electron, pion and muon beam runs at the CERN SPS;
3. high statistics cosmic muon data.

During the transfer of the initial electron energy scale into the H1 environment a calibration precision better than 10% was achieved. More details on the energy calibration at this stage can be found in [32].

For the next step three methods using *ep* data were used to improve the BEMC energy calibration:

1. the kinematic peak method, using the pronounced peak of quasi-elastically scattered electrons in the region close to the beam energy [33, 34];

   The individual stacks absolute energy scale calibration is performed using this method. For the total cluster energy scale, the effects of the presence of dead material in front of the BEMC (up to two radiation lengths) and of cracks between the BEMC stacks are taken into account by a Monte Carlo simulation.

2. the double angle method, using an indirect energy estimate obtained from the measured polar angles of the scattered electron θ_e and the hadronic final state θ_{jet} (see section 5.2);

   It provides an independent cross check of the total cluster energy scale and of its uniformity over the whole BEMC and allows to perform additional corrections in the crack region, which is difficult to calibrate with sufficient precision.

3. the QED Compton method. The physical process corresponds to the Compton scattering of a quasi-real photon on an incident electron, with the dominant contribution due to the elastic channel ($ep \rightarrow ep\gamma$). The energy and the angle of the scattered electron and of the photon are constrained by the QED theory, making this process well suited for calibration of the BEMC [22, 25].

This method allows to test the energy scale over the whole range of electron energies detected in the BEMC. The cross section of the elastic QED Compton process is approximately two orders of magnitude smaller than the DIS cross section, which is a drawback of this method in comparison with both the previous ones.

Energy scale

For the 1994 luminosity period it was possible to achieve, using the kinematic peak method, an average precision of 1% [31] for the global BEMC energy scale for electrons in DIS.

In the meantime, the local miscalibrations due to the effects of dead material and of cracks were improved using the double angle method in the most inner and outer BEMC parts (see section 5.2). With this improved energy reconstruction, the geometrical nonuniformity of the energy scale for the 1994 luminosity period is found to be less than 1% [31].

Using the QED Compton events the linearity of the BEMC response is determined to be better than 1% [31].

Energy resolution

A single quadratic[2] stack BEMC energy resolution has been measured at CERN and DESY test beams (Fig 3.5). Three terms determine the characteristics of the energy resolution. The readout by photodiodes and preamplifiers leads to a constant noise term (93 MeV for a single stack). Sampling fluctuations are proportional to $\sqrt{E}$. The leakage out of the stack contributes to the resolution with a term proportional to E. A fit to the measured points gives the resolution function to be: $\sigma/E = 0.097(6)/E \oplus 0.100(3)/\sqrt{E} \oplus 0.010(3)$ (E in GeV) [31].

In the H1 environment the energy of an electromagnetic cluster is reconstructed on basis of the energy measurement in the hottest stack and its eight neighbours. This increases the noise term by a factor 3 with respect to a single stack. In addition, it was found that single stack contributions are slightly higher compared to the one measured in the beam tests (130 MeV). Therefore the noise contribution term is 390 MeV. Stack-by-stack variations of the calibration and inhomogeneities of the energy response near the stack borders deteriorate the resolution and increase the constant term. Finally, the energy resolution function for the BEMC energy response is $\sigma/E = 0.39/E \oplus 0.1/\sqrt{E} \oplus 0.017$ (E in GeV) [31]. The corresponding curve is shown (dashed line) on Fig 3.5.

A measurement of the resolution performed directly from ep data at the electron beam energy using the double angle method (see section 5.2). is in a good agreement with this prediction, as shown on Fig 3.5.

Space point reconstruction

The energy deposited in each stack is reconstructed from the light collected by the four photodiodes, which, due to light attenuation, depends strongly on the position of the shower inside the stack. This dependence of light collection on the electron impact point

[2]The BEMC stacks have several basic transverse geometries: most of them are quadratic but there are few triangular and trapezoidal stacks in the most inner and outer BEMC parts (see Fig 3.3).

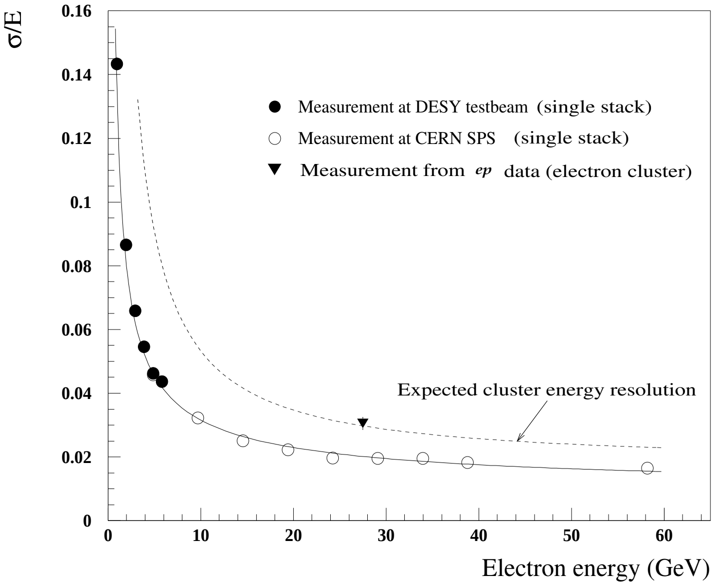

Figure 3.5: *Energy resolution measured at the DESY test beam and at the CERN SPS for a single quadratic stack and direct measurement of an average cluster energy resolution from ep data using the double angle method. The solid curve is a fit to the test beam single stack energy resolution measurements. The dashed curve indicates the electromagnetic cluster energy resolution as extrapolated from the single stack energy resolution measurement.*

has been studied and parameterised. The energy weighted average of the energy deposition in each stack of a cluster defines the centre of gravity of the cluster. The space point resolution obtained with this method is shown in Fig 3.6 [31]. A dedicated study will be presented in section 5.1.

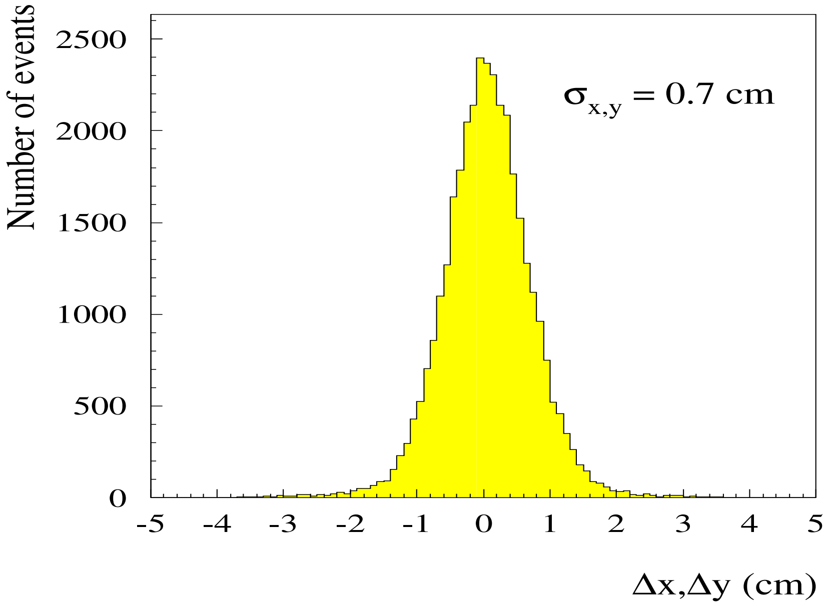

Figure 3.6: *Space point reconstruction resolution for electrons scattered into the BEMC (from [31]).*

Response to hadronic particles

The depth of the BEMC is approximately 1 hadronic interaction length λ_{int}. In Fig 3.7 the BEMC response to 30 GeV pions is shown. The data were measured at the CERN SPS and compared to a Monte Carlo simulation based on the GEANT package [36]. The simulation is normalised to data at the minimal ionising particle response peak (left peak on Fig 3.7). 40% of the charged pions traverse the BEMC as minimal ionising particles. In average, pions deposit $\approx$ 45% of their energy in the BEMC. The good agreement between the test beam data and the shower simulation justifies the use of the BEMC in measurements of the backward hadronic energy flow.

Summary

The main parameters of the BEMC calorimeter are listed in table 3.2.

[3] Since the space point measurement provided by the BEMC is rather approximative, the impact point of the scattered electron is always measured in the backward proportional chamber BPC situated right in front of the BEMC.