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# Inclusive charged and strange particle production at the CERN Sp $\bar{p}$ S collider

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**Lucas Taylor**

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## Abstract

The analysis presented herein is based on data collected during the autumn of 1987 by the UA1 experiment at the CERN  $S\bar{p}\bar{p}S$  collider, operating at a centre-of-mass energy of  $630\text{ GeV}$ . Approximately three million  $p\bar{p}$  interactions were recorded with minimal requirements on the physics content. Since the statistical errors of the data sample are small, emphasis has been placed on the understanding and the minimisation of the systematic errors. The inclusive production of charged hadrons has been studied. In addition, neutral  $K_S^0$  mesons were reconstructed via their weak decay to two charged pions. A sample of 91 000  $K_S^0$  candidates, with a purity of 86%, has been obtained enabling the inclusive  $K_S^0$  production cross-section to be measured up to a transverse momentum of  $6\text{ GeV}/c$ . A comparison with the charged pion cross-section, *i.e.* the  $K/\pi$  ratio, is made. Using a statistically-motivated additive quark model for soft hadron-production, the *strange* quark suppression factor has been evaluated.

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## Preface

The work described in this thesis was carried out at the Imperial College for Science, Technology and Medicine, London, England and at the European Centre for Nuclear Research (CERN) in Geneva, Switzerland. The data analysed were collected by the UA1 experiment <sup>1</sup> and comprise a vast amount of information on the decay products of high energy collisions in the Super Proton-Antiproton Synchrotron (Sp $\bar{p}$ S) collider at CERN operating at a centre-of-mass energy of 630GeV.

Chapter 1 introduces the Standard Model of high-energy nuclear interactions and outlines the theoretical ideas particular to this analysis. The Sp $\bar{p}$ S collider, the UA1 detector and the central tracking chamber (CD) are described in chapters 2 and 3. The calibration of the CD is discussed in chapter 4. The inclusive production properties of charged hadrons is presented in chapter 5. Attention is then focussed on the finding of neutral kaon decays (chapter 6), the calculation of their reconstruction efficiency (chapter 7). Finally, in chapter 8, the  $K^0$  results are presented and compared to the inclusive charged hadron production properties and theoretical predictions.

The analysis described in chapters 4 to 8 and the appendices is the author's own work apart from the following: §4.1 describes a standard calibration method, and §6.1 the UA1  $V^0$ -finding algorithm. The  $K_S^0$  reconstruction efficiency method described in chapter 7 was developed in a previous UA1 analysis, although much technical work on the software was needed. Appendix A is a description of the standard method for evaluating the acceptance of the central drift chamber.

I am indebted to all those members of the UA1 collaboration who helped me in this work, in particular to Aleandro Nisati for introducing me to this subject, to Veikko Karimäki for his excellent  $V^0$ -finding package, and to Igor Zacharov

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# 1. Introduction

All known matter is now thought to be built from a small number of elementary point-like particles whose interactions may be explained in terms of just four forces, namely the Gravitational, Weak, Electromagnetic and Strong interactions. Elementary matter particles (known as fermions since they obey Fermi-Dirac statistics) may be classified as quarks which interact via all four interactions and leptons which do not experience the Strong force. These may be further divided into three families, or generations, each with two members, as shown in table 1.1. <sup>1</sup> Each fundamental particle has an anti-particle with the same mass. Free quarks have not been seen in nature — instead they form  $q\bar{q}$  (meson) and  $qqq$  (baryon) <sup>2</sup> bound states of the Strong interaction, known collectively as hadrons. Quantum Field

	Generation			Electric charge, Q
	I	II	III	
Quarks	up ( $u$ )	charm ( $c$ )	top ( $t$ )	$+\frac{2}{3}$
	down ( $d$ )	strange ( $s$ )	bottom ( $b$ )	$-\frac{1}{3}$
Leptons	$e^-$	$\mu^-$	$\tau^-$	-1
	$\nu_e$	$\nu_\mu$	$\nu_\tau$	0

Table 1.1: Fundamental Particles

theories (see, for example, ref. [1]) have been developed to describe the Weak, Electromagnetic and Strong interactions in which the forces between fermions are explained in terms of the exchange of mediating particles (table 1.2). Axiomatic to these theories is the principle of *gauge-invariance* (“gauge” is an historical mis-

<sup>1</sup>The top quark and the tau-neutrino have yet to be experimentally observed.

<sup>2</sup>Here  $q$  and  $\bar{q}$  denote a quark and an antiquark respectively.

Interaction	Coupling strength	Range (m)	Mediating boson	Quantum number
Strong	$\alpha_S \sim 1$	$\sim 10^{-15}m$	Gluon, $g$	Colour
Electromagnetic	$\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\hbar c} = 1/137$	$\infty$	Photon, $\gamma$	Charge
Weak	$G_F m_p^2 \simeq 10^{-5}$	$\sim 10^{-18}m$	$W^+, W^-, Z^0$	Weak isospin
Gravitational	$G m_p^2 \simeq 6 \times 10^{-39}$	$\infty$	Graviton, $G$	Mass

Table 1.2: Properties of the four fundamental forces

nomer for “phase”). The global phase of the fermion fields may be arbitrarily chosen without changing any observable quantity. Associated with this internal symmetry is a conserved quantity.<sup>3</sup> The interactions between the matter fields arise naturally by demanding that the theory be not just globally but also *locally* gauge-invariant. Additional so-called gauge fields must then be introduced to compensate for the, otherwise observable, phase differences of different space-time points. The quanta of these gauge fields are the exchange particles mediating the force.

The Electromagnetic and Weak interactions are well described by a unified Electroweak theory (§1.1); Quantum-Chromodynamics (§1.2) is the theory of the Strong interaction. There is no satisfactory quantised theory of Gravity which is described by the classical theory of General Relativity. It is believed that all four forces may be different aspects of a single universal interaction but there is, as yet, no successful unification theory incorporating the Strong interaction and Gravity.

## 1.1 Electroweak theory

The theory of electromagnetism is invariant under global changes in the phase of the fermion fields. This invariance is equivalent to the conservation of the

<sup>3</sup>In a similar way, the laws of conservation of energy, momentum and angular momentum arise from the invariance of physical processes under displacements in time, and spatial translations and rotations.

electromagnetic current. If the phase is allowed to vary independently at each space-time point, then a new vector field which couples to the fermion must be introduced for the theory to remain locally gauge-invariant. This massless field is the photon field and the interacting theory is known as Quantum Electrodynamics (QED).

To construct a gauge-invariant field theory for the Weak interaction the electromagnetic interaction must be included. The symmetry group for this unified Electroweak theory [2] is  $SU(2)_L \times U(1)$ , where the subscript,  $L$ , indicates that only the left-handed spin components of the field interact weakly. The conserved quantities are Weak isospin  $t$  and Weak hypercharge  $y$ . The  $SU(2)_L$  gauge fields are a weak iso-triplet  $W_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, 3$ ); the  $U(1)$  field  $B$  is a weak hypercharge singlet. Both  $W_i$  and  $B$  are massless.

The experimentally observed mediators of the Weak interaction, the charged  $W^+$  and  $W^-$  and the neutral  $Z^0$ , are however massive. To give the  $SU(2)$  gauge fields mass in a gauge invariant way the existence of additional scalar particles, known as Higgs' bosons (see *e.g.* ref. [1]), is postulated which, in the minimal model, form a weak isospin doublet,  $\begin{pmatrix} \phi^+ \\ \phi^0 \end{pmatrix}$ . These interact with the massless gauge fields  $W_i$  and  $B$ , spontaneously breaking the gauge symmetry, to give three massive bosons, *i.e.*  $W^\pm$  and  $Z^0$ , and a massless photon field  $A$ . The  $W^\pm$  are given by

$$W^\pm = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(W_1 \pm iW_2) \quad (1.1)$$

The  $Z^0$  and photon are linear combinations of  $W_3$  and  $B$ :

$$Z^0 = W_3 \cos \theta_W - B \sin \theta_W \quad (1.2)$$

$$A = W_3 \sin \theta_W + B \cos \theta_W \quad (1.3)$$

The Weak mixing angle  $\theta_W$  must be determined by experiment.

The left-handed parts of the lepton fields are *Weak isospin* doublets  $\begin{pmatrix} e^- \\ \nu_e \end{pmatrix}_L$ ,  $\begin{pmatrix} \mu^- \\ \nu_\mu \end{pmatrix}_L$ , and  $\begin{pmatrix} \tau^- \\ \nu_\tau \end{pmatrix}_L$ . The right-handed components of massive lepton fields,  $e^-_R$ ,  $\mu^-_R$  and  $\tau^-_R$ , are weak isospin singlet states; right-handed neutrinos do not exist.

Decays between quark families (e.g.  $\Lambda^0 \rightarrow p\pi^-$  in which an  $s$  quark decays to a  $u$  quark and a  $W$  boson) show that  $\begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{pmatrix} c \\ s \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} t \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ , cannot be exact weak isospin doublets. The Strong eigenstates of the quarks are not the same as the Weak eigenstates. Choosing to fix  $u, c$  and  $t$ , the weak isospin doublets are  $\begin{pmatrix} u \\ d' \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\begin{pmatrix} c \\ s' \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} t \\ b' \end{pmatrix}$ , where  $d', s'$  and  $b'$  are superpositions of the Strong eigenstates  $d, s$  and  $b$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} d' \\ s' \\ b' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} U_{ud} & U_{us} & U_{ub} \\ U_{cd} & U_{cs} & U_{cb} \\ U_{td} & U_{ts} & U_{tb} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} d \\ s \\ b \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.4)$$

$U_{ij}$  is the unitary Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa matrix [3]. Thus, for example, the coupling for  $d \rightarrow u + W^-$  carries a factor  $U_{ud}$ ,  $s \rightarrow u + W^-$  a factor  $U_{us}$ , and so on. Since any superposition of neutrinos is a massless state, there is no mixing matrix for the leptons — *by definition*,  $\nu_e$  is the neutrino paired with the electron in Weak interactions, just as  $d'$  is the quark paired with  $u$ .

## 1.2 The Strong Interaction

Analogous to the electric charge in QED, strongly interacting particles have a strong charge known as colour. Quarks come in three colours, <sup>4</sup> say red( $r$ ), green( $g$ ) and blue( $b$ ) while antiquarks carry anti-colour ( $\bar{r}, \bar{g}$  and  $\bar{b}$ ). The quarks are combined to form colour singlet baryons (three quarks) and mesons (a quark and an antiquark), e.g.  $q_r q_g q_b$  and  $q_r \bar{q}_r$  respectively, which are known collectively as hadrons. The strong interactions of quarks are invariant under colour interchange *i.e.* each quark is a colour triplet state of the symmetry group  $SU(3)_C$ .

A theory of the Strong interaction is obtained using the principle of local gauge

<sup>4</sup>The total number of colours  $N_C$  is measured, for example, by the ratio of the inclusive cross-sections:

$$R = \frac{\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons})}{\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-)} = N_C \sum_{\text{flavours}} q_i^2$$

where  $q_i$  is the quark charge.



invariance, based on the  $SU(3)_C$  group of phase transformations of the quark colour fields. For the theory to be locally gauge invariant, eight massless gauge fields are needed. The quanta of these fields form an  $SU(3)_C$  octet of coloured vector *gluons* (carrying one colour and one anti-colour) which mediate the Strong interaction. Thus, for example, a red and a green quark may interact via the exchange of a  $r\bar{g}$  gluon.

Since gluons carry colour they are themselves subject to the colour field. As a result, the field surrounding a colour charge becomes polarised such that the strength of the strong force increases with distance.<sup>5</sup> The strong coupling constant,  $\alpha_S(q^2)$ , is given by [4]:

$$\alpha_S(q^2) = \frac{12\pi}{(33 - 2n_f) \ln(q^2/\Lambda^2)} + (\text{higher order terms}) \quad (1.5)$$

where  $n_f$  is the number of quark flavours with mass less than the energy scale  $q$  of the interaction, and  $\Lambda$  ( $\sim 200 \text{ MeV}$ ) is obtained from experiment. For large  $q^2$  the coupling constant is small. Such interactions are well described by the gauge-invariant perturbative field theory known as Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD). At low  $q^2$ , however,  $\alpha_s$  is large and higher order terms cannot be ignored. In this regime a more phenomenological approach is needed.

### 1.3 Inclusive hadron production

Soft hadronic collisions are responsible for most of the total  $p\bar{p}$  cross-section but, since the coupling constant is large, they cannot be treated by perturbative QCD. A low momentum transfer interaction is shown schematically in fig. 1.1. The interacting hadrons may be considered as *bags* or *clusters* of many quarks and gluons. A soft interaction takes place involving many of these partons, represented by the dashed lines in fig. 1.1, resulting in an excited state of low  $x_L$  partons which

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<sup>5</sup>This is to be contrasted with electromagnetism in which the virtual  $e^+e^-$  pairs produced in the *neutral* photon field surrounding an electrically charged particle, polarise to shield the 'bare' charge.

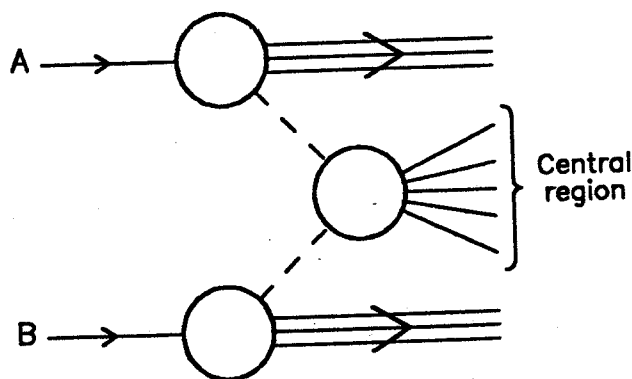


Figure 1.1: Schematic diagram of low  $q^2$  hadron scattering.

then combine to form hadrons in the so-called central region. For low  $\sqrt{s}$  (e.g. at the CERN ISR) the hadronic cross-section is completely dominated by soft multi-parton interactions. In this regime, the event multiplicity and the mean transverse momentum of the final-state particles increase approximately as  $\log(s)$ . The charged hadron  $p_t$  spectrum <sup>6</sup> for soft interactions involving many partons is predicted to follow a Boltzmann distribution,  $e^{-\beta E}$ , with  $E$  is the transverse mass:  $m_t \equiv \sqrt{p_t^2 + m_\pi^2}$  [5]. This form has been verified for inclusive pion production at the ISR [6,7] and is expected to hold for soft interactions at the Sp $\bar{p}$ S where the energy density (and hence the number of degrees of freedom of the system) is even greater.

An additive quark model has been developed to describe multi-particle production in the central region [8,9], in which the non-perturbative dynamics of the strong interaction are not considered. Based on statistical arguments it predicts the *relative* yields of different hadrons. The basic model has been extended to include the decay particles of short lived resonances [10]. The  $uds$   $SU(6)$  flavour-spin symmetry is assumed to be broken only by a relative suppression of strange particle production, due to the higher mass of the strange quark. This is quantified

<sup>6</sup>The transverse momentum,  $p_t$ , of a particle is the component of momentum perpendicular to the incoming hadrons.

by the parameter,  $\lambda$ , defined as:

$$\lambda = \frac{2\langle n_{s\bar{s}} \rangle}{\langle n_{u\bar{u}} \rangle + \langle n_{d\bar{d}} \rangle} \quad (1.6)$$

where  $\langle n_{s\bar{s}} \rangle$ ,  $\langle n_{u\bar{u}} \rangle$  and  $\langle n_{d\bar{d}} \rangle$  are the mean numbers of strange, up and down quarks and anti-quarks in the final state. The interaction is assumed to be of sufficiently high-energy to produce enough partons for the quantum numbers of the initial state hadrons,  $A$  and  $B$ , to have no effect on the final state. With this assumption,  $\lambda = 1$  in the absence of symmetry breaking. Each quark or antiquark is assumed to bind with another quark or antiquark with equal probability until a meson or baryon is formed. The spins of the partons are assumed to be uncorrelated and a factor of  $(2J + 1)$  is applied to the yield of a hadron with spin  $J$ . The relative fraction,  $C_i$ , of a particle type  $i$  in the final state has been evaluated in terms of  $\lambda$ . The coefficients  $C_i$ , calculated in ref. [10], are presented in table 1.3. By studying the relative production of hadrons which differ only by the replacement of a  $d$  quark by a  $s$  quark,  $\lambda$  may be measured. In chapter 8, the relative yields of neutral kaons to charged hadrons and pions are obtained. In the framework of this model the strange quark suppression factor,  $\lambda$ , has been evaluated.

At the Sp $\bar{p}$ S collider events with high  $p_t$  jets originating from the hard scattering of just two partons are observed. Such events are characterised by a relatively high charged particle multiplicity,  $\langle n_{ch} \rangle$ , and mean transverse momentum,  $\langle p_t \rangle$ , compared to the large background of soft events which have similar properties to those at lower  $\sqrt{s}$ . The high momentum transfer inclusive process,  $p\bar{p} \rightarrow C + X$  (where  $X$  represents all the final-state particles produced excluding  $C$ ), is illustrated schematically in fig. 1.2. The coupling constant,  $\alpha_s$ , is small so the underlying interaction can be approximately described as a hard scatter of just two constituent partons,  $a$  and  $b$  from the colliding hadrons  $A$  and  $B$ . The remaining partons in the hadrons  $A$  and  $B$  form jets of hadrons with large  $x_L = p_L/p$ , where  $p_L$  and  $p$  are the longitudinal and total hadron momenta. The nature of the hadrons produced in this so-called beam-fragmentation region depends on the

Particle type	Relative yield for direct production	Relative yield, $C_i$ , including resonance decays
$\pi^+, \pi^-$	3	$31 + 12\lambda + 3\lambda^2 + \gamma(\frac{16}{3} + 4\lambda + \frac{8}{3}\lambda^2)$
$\pi^0$	3	$34 + 12\lambda + 4\lambda^2 + \gamma(\frac{16}{3} + 4\lambda + \frac{8}{3}\lambda^2)$
$K^+, K^-$	$3\lambda$	$12\lambda + 4\lambda^2$
$K^0, \bar{K}^0$	$3\lambda$	$12\lambda + 3\lambda^2$
$\eta$	$1 + 2\lambda^2$	—
$\chi$	$2 + \lambda^2$	—
$\rho^+, \rho^0, \rho^-, \omega$	9	—
$\phi$	$9\lambda^2$	—
$K^{*+}, K^{*0}, \bar{K}^{*0}, K^{*-}$	$9\lambda$	—
$p, n, \bar{p}, \bar{n}$	$\gamma$	$5\gamma$
$\Lambda, \bar{\Lambda}$	$\gamma\lambda$	$8\gamma\lambda$
$\Sigma^+, \Sigma^-, \bar{\Sigma}^+, \bar{\Sigma}^-$	$\gamma\lambda$	$\gamma\lambda$
$\Sigma^0, \bar{\Sigma}^0$	$\gamma\lambda$	—
$\Xi^0, \Xi^-, \bar{\Xi}^0, \bar{\Xi}^-$	$\gamma\lambda^2$	$3\gamma\lambda^2$
$\Omega^-, \bar{\Omega}^-$	$3\gamma\lambda^3$	$3\gamma\lambda^3$

Table 1.3: Relative particle yields,  $C_i$ , in the central region including resonance decay products;  $\gamma = (4 + 4\lambda + 4\lambda^2)/(5 + 5\lambda + 3\lambda^2 + \lambda^3)$

quantum numbers of the colliding particles and any intermediate resonances produced. The scattered partons,  $a$  and  $b$ , may be valence quarks, sea quarks or gluons. The available energy of the collision depends on the momenta of the partons  $a$  and  $b$ . The structure function,  $f_A^a(x_a, q^2)$ , gives the probability that the parton  $a$  has a fraction  $x_a$  ( $0 \leq x_a \leq 1$ ) of the momentum of hadron  $A$ . Fig. 1.3 shows schematically the proton structure functions for  $u$ ,  $d$  and  $s$  quarks [11]. The  $u$  and  $d$  curves include both valence quarks (which determine the quantum numbers of the hadron) and sea quarks (which are virtual), whereas the  $s$  quarks can come only from the sea. The average fraction of the proton momentum carried by the quarks is 54%. The remaining 46% is distributed amongst the gluons.

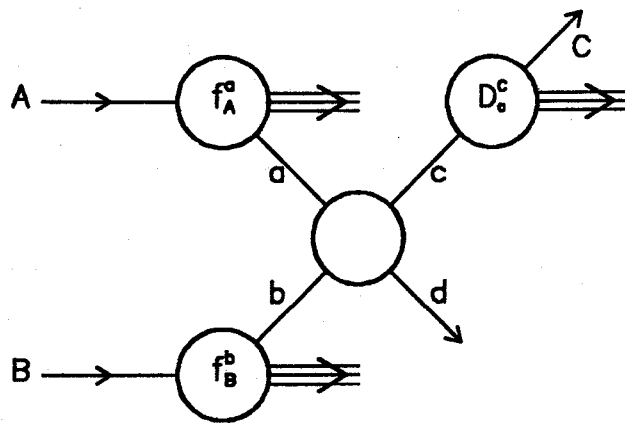


Figure 1.2: Schematic diagram of high  $q^2$  hadron scattering.

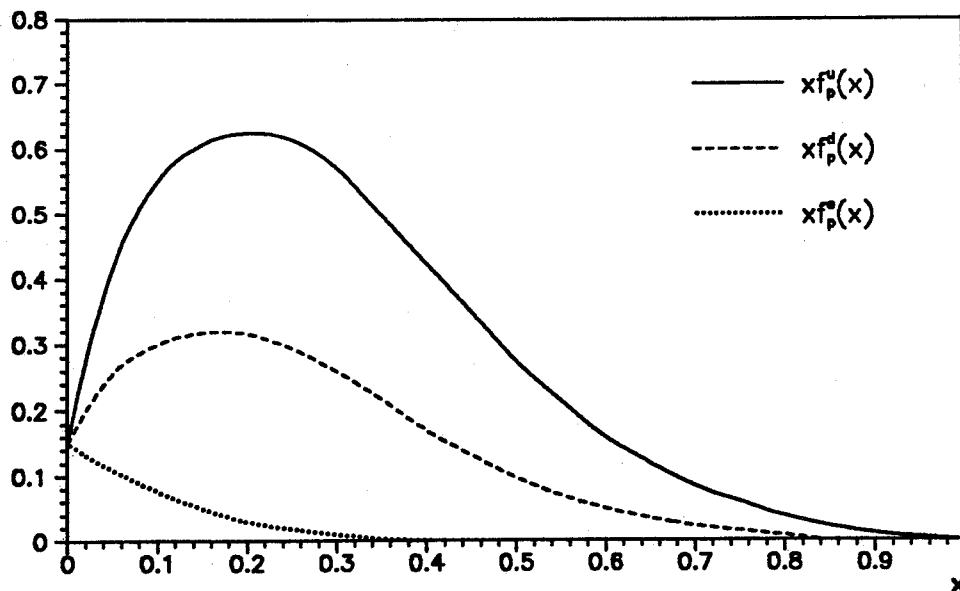


Figure 1.3: Schematic shape of the proton structure functions for  $u$ ,  $d$  and  $s$  quarks

The partons  $c$  and  $d$  produced by the hard scatter can have a large transverse momentum component,  $p_t$ , relative to the incoming hadrons. As  $c$  and  $d$  fly apart, the strong colour field between them increases until a quark-antiquark pair is produced from the vacuum. These combine, or *hadronise* to form jets of hadrons in the central region. The fragmentation functions,  $D_c^C(z_C, q^2)$  give the probability that the hadron,  $C$ , will be produced with momentum  $z_C p_c$  from a parton  $c$  with momentum  $p_c$ . The observation of high  $p_t$  tracks in an event is indicative of an underlying high  $q^2$  interaction.

For high  $q^2$  interactions, perturbative QCD has been used to calculate analytically the parton cross-sections for the processes  $q\bar{q} \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ ,  $gq \rightarrow gq$ ,  $gg \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ , *etc.*, where higher order effects such as gluon emission are neglected [12]. In the asymptotic limit ( $\sqrt{s}, q^2 \rightarrow \infty$ ), the quantity  $p_t^4 f(p_t)$  (where  $f(p_t)$  is the differential cross-section) is predicted to have a universal functional form independent of  $\sqrt{s}$ . This prediction, known as Feynmann scaling, is only predicted in the leading logarithm approximation of QCD, *i.e.* when  $q^2$  is large and hence  $\alpha_s$  is small. Higher order diagrams, involving multiple gluon exchange or the spectator partons (see *e.g.* fig. 1.4), introduce corrections terms which evolve as  $p_t^{-n}$ , where  $n > 4$ . Such corrections increase with decreasing  $q^2$  (since  $\alpha_s$  increases) until many

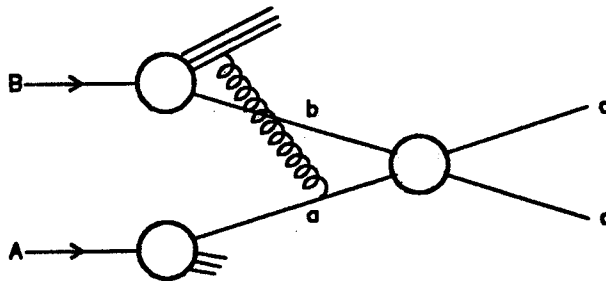


Figure 1.4: Higher twist diagram involving a spectator parton.

partons are involved. The soft regime discussed above is the extreme case where no hard scatter can be distinguished. There are a number of other effects which produce violations of Feynmann scaling and lead to increases in the power,  $n$ :

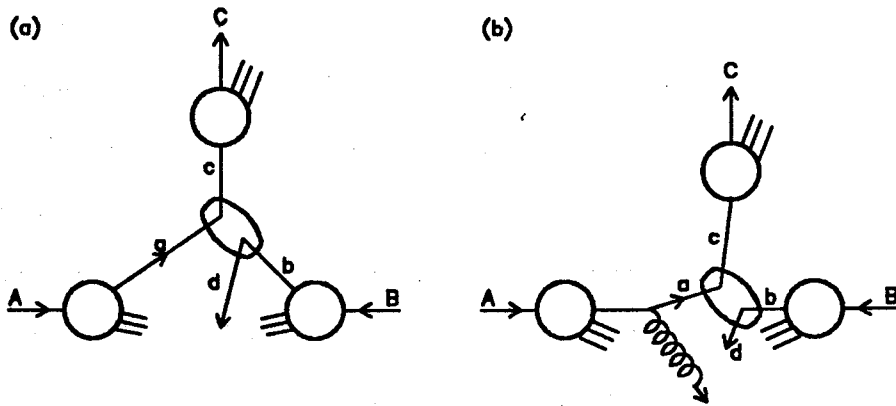


Figure 1.5: Intrinsic parton  $p_t$  from (a) Fermi motion and (b) gluon bremsstrahlung.

• **Intrinsic parton momentum.**

The partons have an intrinsic transverse momentum,  $k_t$ , within the hadron from two sources. Firstly, the parton is confined within the hadron and so, according to Heisenberg's uncertainty principle, it will have a transverse Fermi momentum, shown schematically in fig. 1.5(a), of  $\Delta p_t \sim \hbar/r \sim \hbar/(0.5fm) \simeq 0.4GeV/c$ . The second contribution to  $k_t$  is from the emission of gluons by the partons, a process known as initial state gluon bremsstrahlung (fig. 1.5(b)). The intrinsic transverse momentum can be measured experimentally using the Drell-Yan process  $AB \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^- X$ , where  $A$  and  $B$  are hadrons, and  $X$  represents the spectator system in the fragmentation domain. From the difference in the measured muon momenta it is found that the mean intrinsic momentum is  $\langle k_t \rangle \simeq 0.85GeV/c$ , almost independent of  $\sqrt{s}$  and  $q^2$  [11].

• **Running coupling constant.**

As discussed in §1.2 the strong coupling constant decreases with increasing  $q^2$ . This favours low  $p_t$  interactions and therefore increases the power  $n$ . It has been estimated that this may increase  $n$  by  $\sim 1$  [13].

• **Evolution of the Structure functions.**

As the momentum transfer increases the structure functions become softer as more

partons are “seen” to share the momentum of the hadron. Fig. 1.6 shows the evolution of the structure functions, expressed here as  $F_2(x, q^2) = x(f_q + f_{\bar{q}})$ , with  $q^2$  [14]. This results in a further suppression in the cross-section with increasing

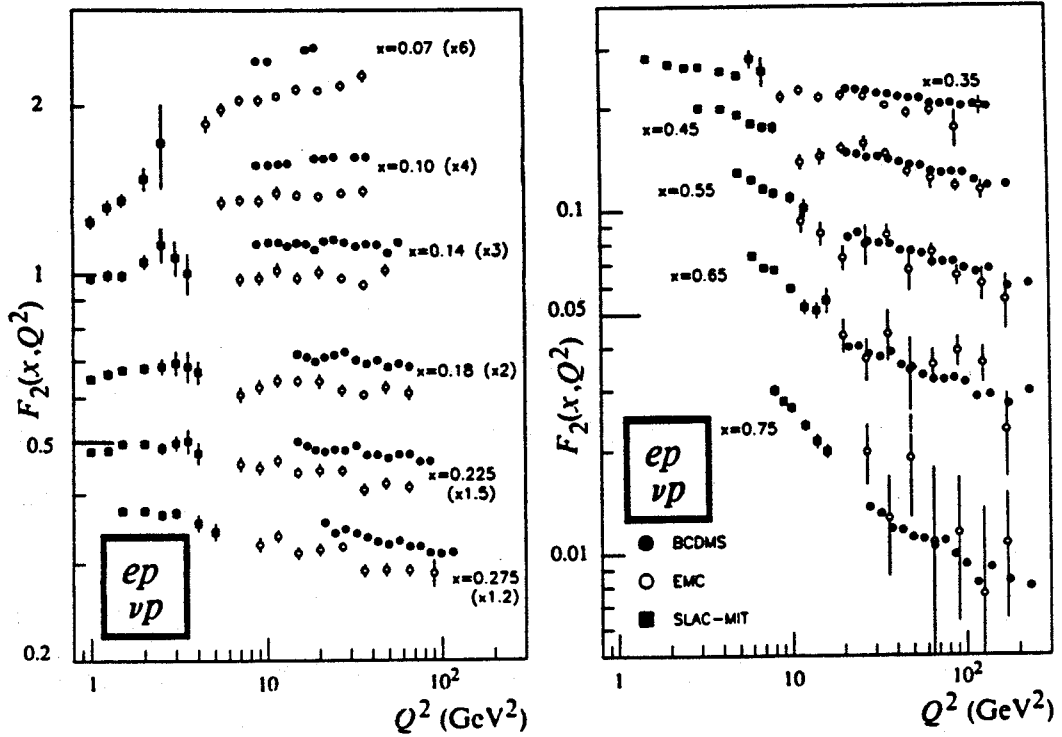


Figure 1.6: Evolution of the proton structure functions with  $q^2$

$p_t$ .

• **Fragmentation functions.**

The scale invariant fragmentation function  $D_c^C(z, q^2)$  gives the probability that a parton,  $c$ , from the collision will fragment to produce a hadron,  $C$ , having a fraction  $z$  of the momentum of  $c$ , where  $(0 \leq z \leq 1)$ . Scaling violations result from the emission of gluons by  $c$ , which if they are of sufficient momentum can themselves fragment to form  $q\bar{q}$  pairs. Together, the scaling violations from the structure and fragmentation functions add of the order of unity to the power,  $n$ .

At the collider,  $n \sim 8 - 9$  ( $p_t < 10\text{GeV}/c$ ) and shows a slow decrease with increasing  $\sqrt{s}$ , as discussed in chapter 5.



## 2. The Experiment

### 2.1 The CERN Sp $\bar{p}$ S Collider

The operation of the Sp $\bar{p}$ S during autumn 1987 is described. Since then many of the numbers quoted have been improved upon. Protons produced by electrical discharges in hydrogen gas are accelerated to 50MeV by a linear accelerator and are then transferred to the Proton-Synchrotron Booster ring (PSB). This injects the protons into the Proton-Synchrotron (PS) with 800MeV energy where they are further accelerated to 26*GeV* (Figure 2.1). These protons are mostly used in the production of anti-protons. They are directed onto a high density, water-cooled, iridium target where antiprotons are produced with a yield of about  $4 \times 10^{-6}$   $\bar{p}$  per incident proton [16,17]. The divergent  $\bar{p}$  beam produced is incident on the end of a 20mm diameter lithium rod carrying a current of 420kA which magnetically focusses the beam. The anti-protons then pass into the Anti-proton Collector (AC) via an RF de-bunching cavity. In the AC the spatial and momentum spreads of the beam are reduced by a factor of  $\sim 500$ , by Stochastic Cooling [18]. Beam pick-ups detect antiprotons with momenta different from the mean and send a signal to diametrically opposite compensation magnets which apply a correcting force. After re-bunching to facilitate efficient transfer, they pass to the Anti-proton Accumulator (AA) where the phase-space is further compressed giving a total reduction factor of  $10^8$ . Accumulation proceeds at a rate of up to  $1.5 \times 10^{10}$   $\bar{p}$ /hour, a factor of four below the design limit. By thus separating the collection and cooling of the antiprotons, a peak luminosity of  $\mathcal{L} \approx 5 \times 10^{29} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  was

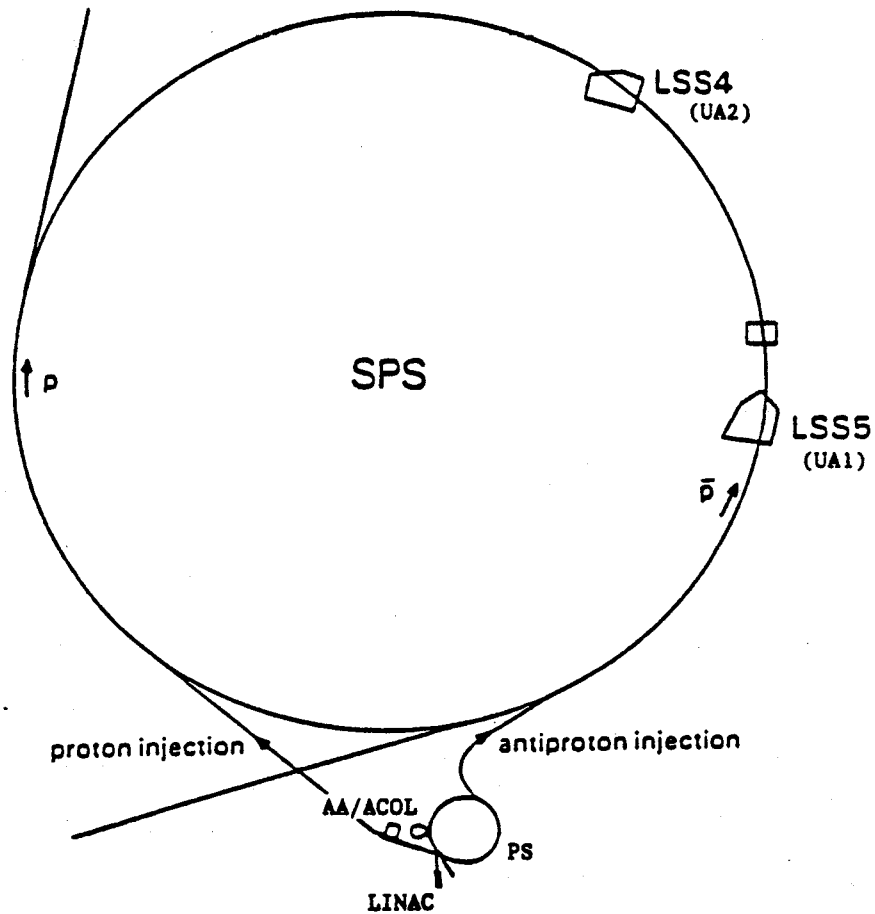


Figure 2.1: Layout of the CERN Sp̄pS accelerator complex

achieved in 1987 during the first run of the Sp̄pS with ACOL.<sup>1</sup> The maximum stack of  $\bar{p}$ 's in the AA is limited by intra-beam Coulomb scattering, so when  $\sim 2 \times 10^{11}$   $\bar{p}$ 's have been accumulated they are injected at  $3.5 \text{ GeV}$  into the PS where they are accelerated to  $26 \text{ GeV}$ . According to the mode of operation, either three or six  $\bar{p}$  bunches are then transferred to the Sp̄pS which already contains the same number of proton bunches. Acceleration of  $p$ 's and  $\bar{p}$ 's takes place simultaneously to the final energy of  $315 \text{ GeV}$ , corresponding to  $630 \text{ GeV}$  in the centre of mass frame, such that the bunch crossing time is  $7.6 \mu\text{s}$  (3 bunches) or  $3.8 \mu\text{s}$  (6 bunches).

<sup>1</sup>This figure reached  $2.5 \times 10^{30} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  in 1989 as the machine performance was improved.

The expected rate for a physical process with a cross-section,  $\sigma$  is given by

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = \sigma \mathcal{L} \quad (2.1)$$

where the luminosity,  $\mathcal{L}$ , is a property of the operating conditions of the collider, defined as

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{N_p N_{\bar{p}} f}{A} \quad (2.2)$$

$N_p$  and  $N_{\bar{p}}$  are the numbers of protons in each bunch,  $f$  is the bunch-crossing frequency, and  $A$  is the effective cross-sectional area of the beams. The luminosity decreases such that the Sp $\bar{p}$ S needs to be refilled approximately daily.

## 2.2 The UA1 Detector

Prior to a discussion of the UA1 experiment itself the coordinate system used should be clarified. The beam-pipe lies along the  $x$ -axis with antiprotons travelling in the positive  $x$  direction. Positive  $y$  is vertically upwards, and positive  $z$  is outwards from the centre of the ring. In addition, four angles are used (fig. 2.2): the dip-angle ( $-\pi/2 < \lambda < \pi/2$ ), azimuthal angle ( $-\pi < \phi < \pi$ ),  $x$ -axis polar angle ( $0 < \theta < \pi$ ) and the angle in the  $xy$  or projected plane ( $-\pi < \Phi < \pi$ ).

In order to measure accurately transverse momentum and missing energy the detector (fig. 2.3) was designed to be as hermetic as possible. The total energy and momentum are more difficult to measure since many of the particles produced in  $p\bar{p}$  interactions remain inside the beam-pipe. Charged particle tracking and momentum measurement is performed by a large cylindrical multiwire drift chamber, known as the Central Detector or CD. This is discussed in detail in subsequent chapters. A lead-scintillator electromagnetic calorimeter surrounding the CD was removed following the 1985 Sp $\bar{p}$ S run to make way for a fine-granularity Uranium-TMP calorimeter, currently under construction as part of the UA1 upgrade. Around the electromagnetic calorimeter a water-cooled aluminium coil produces a uniform dipole field of up to 0.7T in the  $z$  direction.

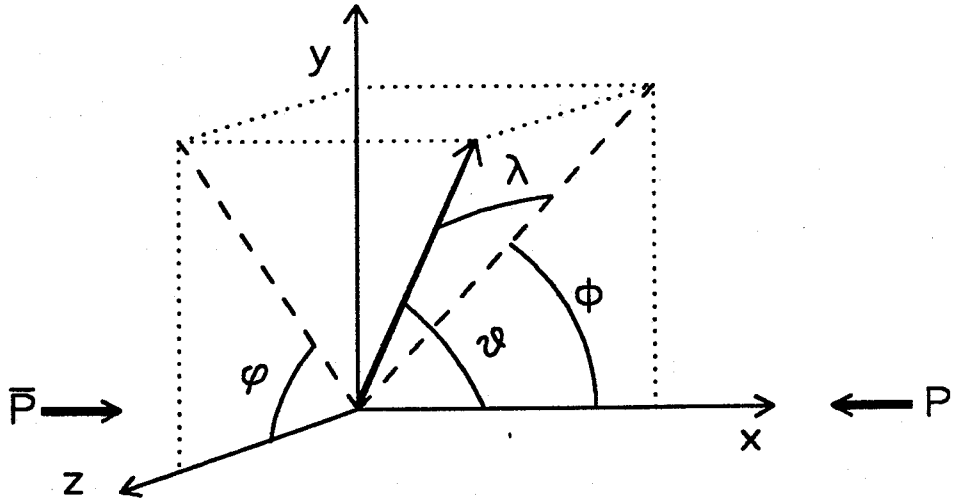


Figure 2.2: UA1 coordinate system

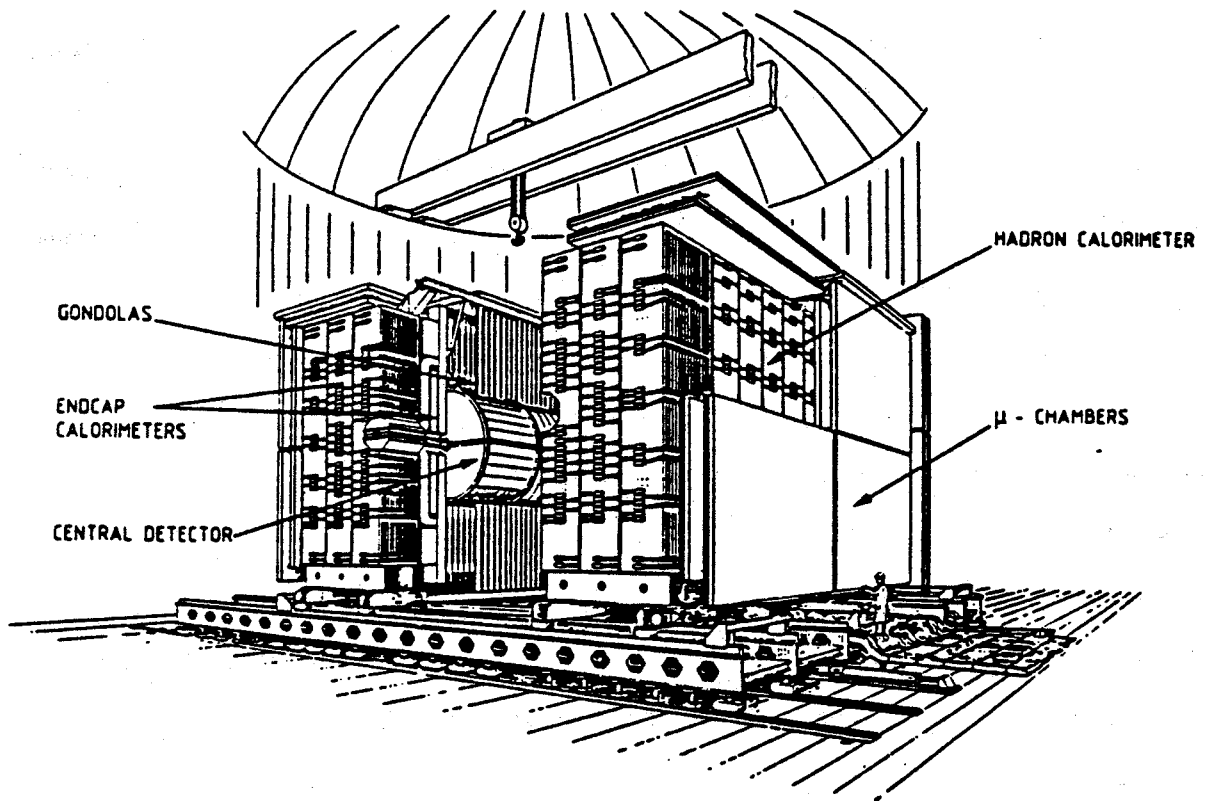


Figure 2.3: UA1 detector

To measure hadronic energy, UA1 has an iron-scintillator sampling calorimeter covering almost  $4\pi$  in solid angle [19], which also acts as the return yoke of the magnet. Surrounding the coil, twenty C-shaped modules cover the range  $25^\circ$ – $155^\circ$  in polar angle. Each module is subdivided into twelve cells in azimuth. These have two samplings in depth corresponding to a total thickness of iron of  $0.75m$  ( $5.0/\sin\theta$  absorption lengths). End caps in the form of  $8 \times 8$  arrays of thicker cells ( $1.1m$  or  $7.1/\cos\theta$  absorption lengths) extend the polar angle coverage to within  $5^\circ$  of the beam. The acrylic scintillator sheets of each sampling are readout by photomultiplier pairs via BBQ wavelength shifter bars and plexiglas light guides. The shower position may be determined by the method of light-division. The hadronic energy resolution is  $\Delta E/E = 80\%/\sqrt{E(\text{GeV})}$ .

Iron shielding, partially instrumented with limited-streamer or Iarocci tubes [20], lies between the Hadron Calorimeter and the muon chambers [21,22]) which surround the detector. The latter are gaseous drift chambers, of total area  $700m^2$ , designed to detect the penetrating muons from vector boson and heavy flavour decays. Each muon drift cell is a self-supporting extruded aluminium tube  $150mm \times 45mm$  in section and  $4$ – $6m$  long, containing a 40% argon, 60% ethane gas mixture. A single  $50\mu m$  stainless steel anode wire runs along the central axis of each tube while three copper strips form the cathode and also shape the field. The tubes are joined to form planes with four layers of chambers in mutually orthogonal pairs. These are staggered to help resolve left-right ambiguities and to minimise the dead space between cells. There are two planes separated by  $60cm$ . The spatial resolution of an individual chamber is between  $0.2mm$  and  $1.0mm$ . For high  $p_t$  muons, the angular resolution at the event vertex is  $\sim 4mrad$ , which is limited by multiple scattering in the iron.

Large sheets of scintillator partially cover the muon chambers. These are used for triggering on cosmic-ray muons which are used to calibrate the hadron calorimeter and study systematic effects in the Central Detector.

### 2.3 The Trigger

The UA1 trigger selects  $p\bar{p}$  interactions according to their physics content and rejects such backgrounds as beam-halo or beam-gas interactions. It comprises a pre-trigger and three further levels of increasing selectivity. The first, second and third level triggers were not used in this analysis. The Pre-Trigger [23] provides a reference time for all UA1 systems. Passive pick-up coils, known as SPS directional couplers, are placed close to the beam about 20m from the beam intersection point to detect the incoming beams. These signals are sent to the counting room via air-dielectric coaxial cables, where they are used to define the zero time (machine crossing) signal for the experiment. The pre-trigger also signals inelastic  $p\bar{p}$  interactions using precise timing information from the SPS and Very Forward (VF) hodoscopes. The former consist of two 10-element arrays of scintillator at  $x=\pm 6m$  covering a rapidity <sup>2</sup> range of approximately  $\pm(3.5-5.3)$ ; the latter, at  $\pm 12m$ , have four elements covering  $\pm(4.3-6.6)$  in rapidity (fig. 2.4). Events are vetoed in which hits are recorded early in the hodoscopes (with respect to the minimum possible time for particles coming from the interaction point). Thus, beam-gas interactions upstream or beam halo particles which trigger the hodoscopes on the way in are rejected. Hits in the hodoscopes consistent, within  $\pm 20ns$ , with particles coming from the interaction point are said to be in-time.

The SPS and VF counters provide a minimum-bias (also called non-single diffractive) trigger by requiring an in-time hit in either the SPS or the VF hodoscopes on *both* the  $p$  and the  $\bar{p}$  sides. The minimum-bias cross-section may be written:

$$\sigma_{MB} = \sigma_{p\bar{p}}^{tot} - \epsilon_{SD}\sigma_{SD} - \epsilon_{DD}\sigma_{DD} - \sigma_{EL} \quad (2.3)$$

---

<sup>2</sup>The rapidity,  $y$ , of a particle is defined as

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{E + p_L}{E - p_L}$$

where  $E$  and  $p_L$  are the energy and longitudinal momentum respectively.

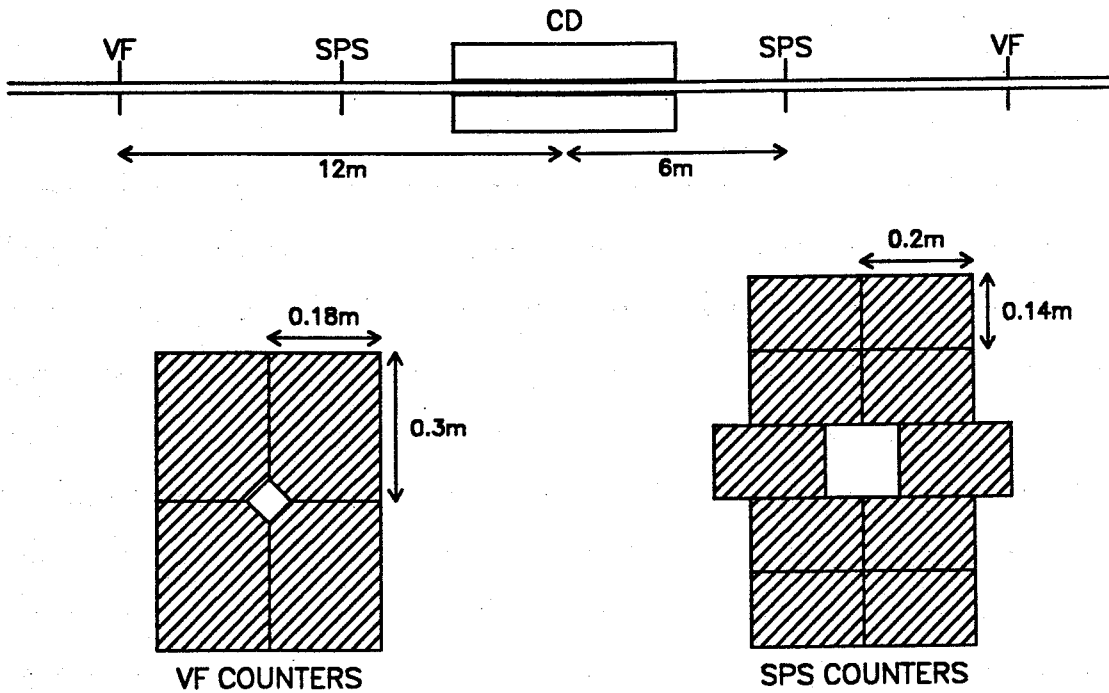


Figure 2.4: Pre-trigger hodoscopes

where  $\sigma_{SD}$ ,  $\sigma_{DD}$  and  $\sigma_{EL}$  are the single-diffractive, double-diffractive and elastic cross-sections and  $\epsilon_i$  are the trigger inefficiencies for each process. Very few single-diffractive interactions satisfy this trigger ( $\epsilon_{SD} > 99\%$ ) and only a small proportion of double-diffractive events are completely contained within the beam-pipe ( $\epsilon_{DD} \sim 8\%$ ). Using the measured cross-sections of UA4 and UA5 [24,25], and allowing for the hodoscope efficiencies [26], the minimum-bias cross-section is found to be

$$\sigma_{MB} = (37.1 \pm 2.6)mb \quad (2.4)$$

The mean number of interactions per bunch crossing, given by eq. 2.1 with  $\Delta t = 3.8\mu s$ , is  $\sim 0.05$  for the luminosities in 1987 (typically,  $\mathcal{L} \sim 5 \times 10^{29} cm^{-2}s^{-1}$ ), from which the fraction of events containing a double interaction [27] is less than 0.3%.

## 2.4 Data quality

Beam-scrappers are used to remove those particles travelling on slightly different orbits from the main bunches. At the start of 1987, the aperture of the Sp $\bar{p}$ S beam-scrappers at the injection point was increased to improve the transfer efficiency from the PS. This resulted in poor beam conditions with large amounts of out-of-time beam-halo accompanying the proton bunches, producing hits in the trigger hodoscopes and unassociated tracks in the CD. The problem was exacerbated by interactions in a narrow section of beam-pipe which was installed in preparation for the Uranium-TMP Very-Forward calorimeter.

Timing information from the SPS hodoscopes reveals contamination from false triggers. The recorded time of the hits in the  $p$ -side SPS hodoscope with respect to the hit in the  $\bar{p}$ -side hodoscope is shown in fig.2.5 for (a) noisy, and (b) clean beam conditions. The peak at zero corresponds to in-time hits on both sides due to

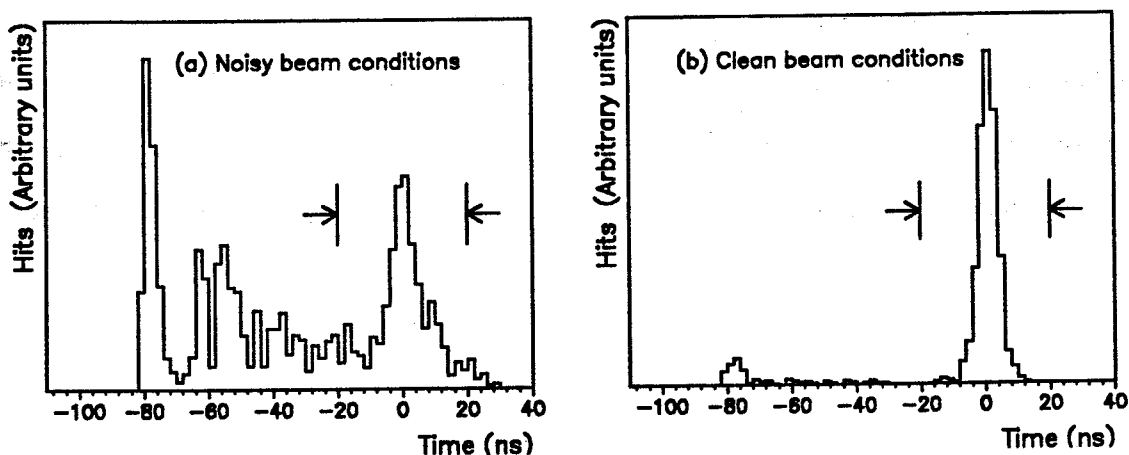


Figure 2.5: Timing of SPS hodoscope hits on the incoming  $p$ -side.

particles coming from the interaction point (the arrows show the timing acceptance window). The second peak at  $-80\text{ns}$  is due to proton beam-gas interactions, which give an early hit in the  $p$  side hodoscope. The background before and under the in-time peak in fig.2.5(a) is due to either late hits on the  $\bar{p}$  side or early hits on the  $p$  side, which are both caused by stray particles following the main proton



bunches. In many cases these triggers were rejected offline by the CD primary vertex requirement. A residual contamination, however, is possible when a single-diffractive event produces a hit on one side simultaneous with a false in-time hit on the other.

In addition to these false triggers, a background of unassociated tracks and electrical pick-up from the beam [28] makes the track-finding in the CD more difficult. Noise in the CD also results in systematic shifts of the tracks in  $z$ . At worst, the mean charged track multiplicity is reduced by almost 20%, with 25% more tracks found in  $-z$  than in  $+z$ , compared to clean beam conditions.<sup>3</sup> A systematic study of the reconstructed tracks and the SPS hodoscope timing plots covering the whole data sample, showed that the problems were concentrated at the beginning of the 1987 run after which time the beam conditions improved considerably. Therefore, no data taken prior to 26.11.1987 (run number 20305), consisting of  $2.8 \times 10^5$  events, were used in this analysis. The systematic  $z$  asymmetry was, however, present throughout the run though it was considerably smaller when the beam was clean. A fiducial cut was therefore applied to all charged tracks, removing the most affected region close to the beam. For the remaining tracks, a phenomenological correction was possible. This is described in more detail in chap. 4.

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<sup>3</sup>With good beam conditions, the charged track multiplicity, transverse momentum,  $\phi$  and  $\eta$  distributions were consistent with the pre-ACOL data of 1985.

## 3. The Central Detector

### 3.1 Construction of the Central detector

The Central Detector, or CD, is a cylindrical multiwire drift chamber 5.8m long and 2.2m in diameter with a polar-angle coverage of  $5^\circ$  to  $175^\circ$  [29,30]. The gas mixture is 40% argon and 60% ethane, which was doped at times with 1ppb of Tetra-Methyl-Phenylene-Diamine (TMPD) to increase the electron yield from the light of the calibration lasers. The CD is divided into six self-supporting half-cylindrical chambers 1.93m in length. The outer shell consists of a honeycomb structure sandwiched between two layers of Vetronite and strengthened with Stesalit bars. The rectangular central plane and semi-circular end planes are made from Plexiglass foam. This design maximises the rigidity while minimising the number of radiation lengths of the chamber walls. The wires, between 0.8m and 2.2m long, run parallel with the magnetic field direction. They are arranged in planes 18cm apart held at alternately high and low electrical potential. The region between two planes is known as a drift volume. In each central chamber there are five vertical drift volumes and a single horizontal volume, known as a "green" chamber, adjacent to the beam-pipe. The four forward chambers have six horizontal drift volumes. For a typical  $p\bar{p}$  event this configuration gives, throughout the detector, a roughly constant density of points along each track. The cathode plane is common to adjacent drift volumes, and comprises  $150\mu\text{m}$  gold-plated Cu-Be wires at 5mm intervals, held at typically  $-28\text{kV}$ . Three wire planes, 6mm apart, constitute the anode. The outer layers are alternately  $100\mu\text{m}$  gold-plated Cu-Be field-shaping wires at  $-2\text{kV}$ , and  $35\mu\text{m}$  Ni-Cr sense wires at zero potential,

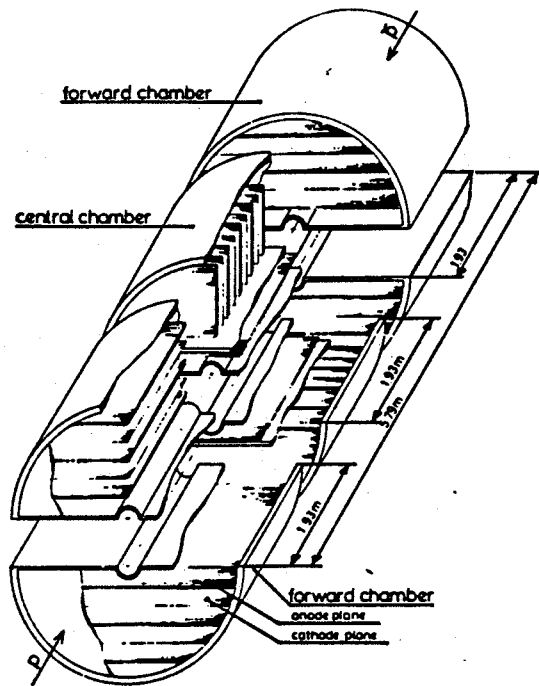


Figure 3.1: The UA1 Central Detector

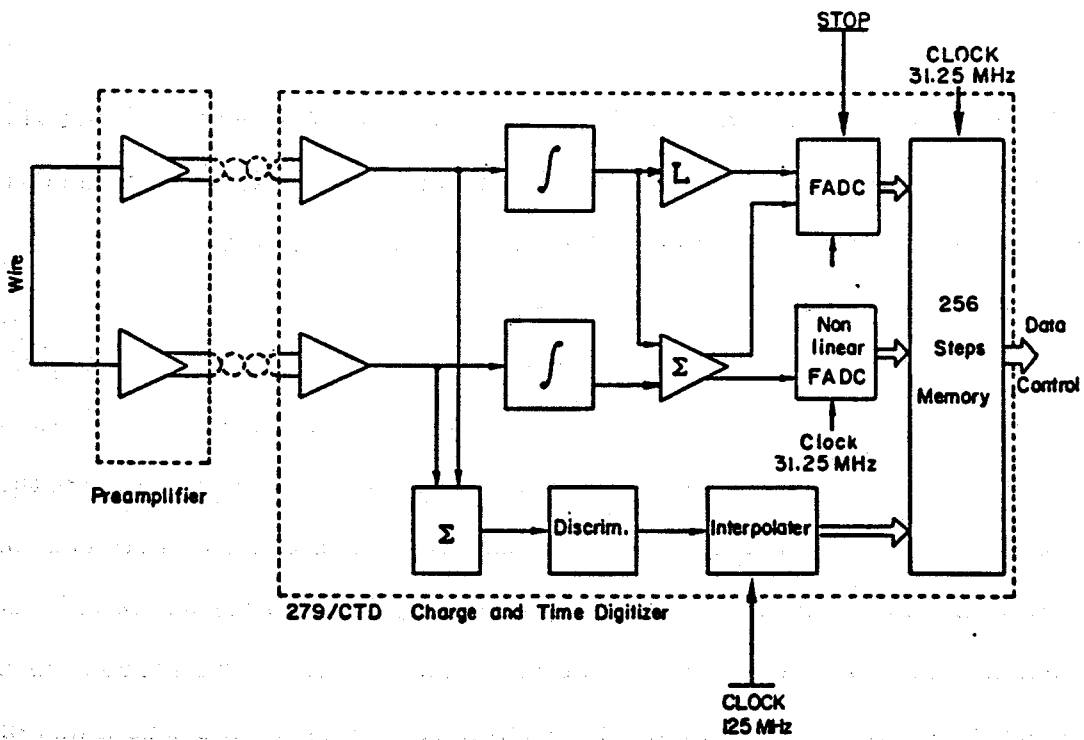


Figure 3.2: CD Readout System

spaced  $5\text{mm}$  apart. The position of an individual sense wire in a plane is known to within  $50\mu\text{m}$ . The intermediate field plane is made from  $150\mu\text{m}$  gold-plated Cu-Be wires at  $-2.5\text{kV}$ . These control the gas gain and compensate for the electrostatic deflection of the field and sense wires in the drift field. Electric field edge effects are minimised by arrays of conductive strips on the chamber walls, set at a uniformly graded potential by means of resistive voltage dividers. The magnetic field is constant throughout the detector to better than 1%.

The readout electronics chain is shown in figure 3.2. The sense wires are instrumented at both ends. The signals pass through pre-amplifiers mounted on the chamber before travelling along approximately  $50\text{m}$  of cable to the counting room. An integrating unit, clocked at  $31.25\text{MHz}$ , records the incoming charge in  $32\text{nsec}$  time intervals. The sum,  $(Q_L + Q_R)_i$ , of the charges from the left and right ends of the wire, and from the left side alone  $(Q_L)_i$  are formed (where  $i$  denotes the sampling period), and fed as input to a linear-response Fast Analogue to Digital Converter (FADC) designed to produce as output:

$$z_i = \frac{(Q_L)_i}{(Q_L + Q_R)_i} \quad (3.1)$$

which is the  $z$ -coordinate expressed as a fraction of the wire length. Since the error in the  $z_i$  measurement is larger in the tails of the pulse, the final value of  $z$  is taken as the energy-weighted average of the individual samplings:

$$z = \frac{\sum z_i E_i}{\sum E_i} \quad (3.2)$$

Five time periods, corresponding to a total of  $160\text{nsec}$ , are used to measure  $z$  with a resolution of  $\geq 1.6\%$  of the wire length, which is limited by the 6-bit precision of the FADC. A single non-linear FADC measures the summed charge from both ends of the wire to give the total charge (ultimately the energy loss  $dE/dx$ ) accurately over a wide range. In parallel with the integrators, the left and right signals are summed and discriminated. A Time to Digital Converter (TDC) on the discriminator output is strobed at  $125\text{MHz}$ , measuring the time of arrival of the pulse to an

accuracy of  $4nsec$ . The vast amount of data ( $\sim 160MBytes/event$ ) from the CD is reduced to a manageable amount by dedicated Readout-Processors (ROP's). Each reads the data from sixty wires and passes the hit information to the data-acquisition system.

### 3.2 Operation of the Central Detector

Particles traversing the detector release electrons by primary ionisation of the gas, which drift at a uniform velocity  $v_d$  in the electric field towards the anode plane. The magnetic field deflects the electrons by an angle  $\alpha$ , which increases the drift time slightly. The drift gap of  $18cm$  allows the total charge to be collected in  $3.6\mu s$  (for  $B=0.7T$ ) — less than the beam-crossing time of  $3.8\mu s$  for six bunch operation. In the high field close to the sense wire the electrons accelerate creating an avalanche of electrons by secondary ionisation, with a gas gain of  $10^5$ , producing a signal or “hit” on the wire. The positive ions drift slowly to the cathode where they are neutralised. Space charge of low-mobility positive ions near the sense wires can accumulate from previous events resulting in local changes in  $v_d$ ,  $\alpha$  and the gas gain [35]. These are collected on the intermediate field plane and create no problem at 1987 luminosities. Ultra-violet photons produced by recombining argon ions are prevented from creating spurious showers elsewhere in the CD by the quenching properties of the ethane. The  $(x, y)$  hit coordinates are given by the wire position and the drift time and the  $z$ -coordinate by charge division (see §3.1). The position resolution of individual hits is  $\sim 300\mu m$  in the  $xy$ -plane and 1.7% of the wire length in  $z$ .

Radiation damage to the CD can result in a degraded chamber performance. Ageing effects, due to field distortions caused by organic depositions on, and damage to, the wire surfaces, are expected to occur when the integrated charge collected on a wire reaches about  $1Cm^{-1}$  [36]. At the start of the 1987 run, the wires in the Green chambers and those close to the beam-pipe were approaching

this figure. The first symptom of ageing is a drop in the pulse-height, followed by the onset of a continuous corona discharge ultimately leading to complete breakdown, or sparking, whereupon the chamber is unusable. In anticipation, the gas gain of the chamber was reduced fourfold and the pre-amplifier gain was increased correspondingly to keep the signal optimally in the range of the FADC's. This unfortunately increased the noise contribution to the pulse. Fig. 3.3 shows a comparison of the single hit pulse-height for data taken before and after the 1987 run. No decrease is seen in the pulse size. The long tail for the 1988 data is due to the increased noise relative to 1985. Comparisons of regions of high and low irradiation

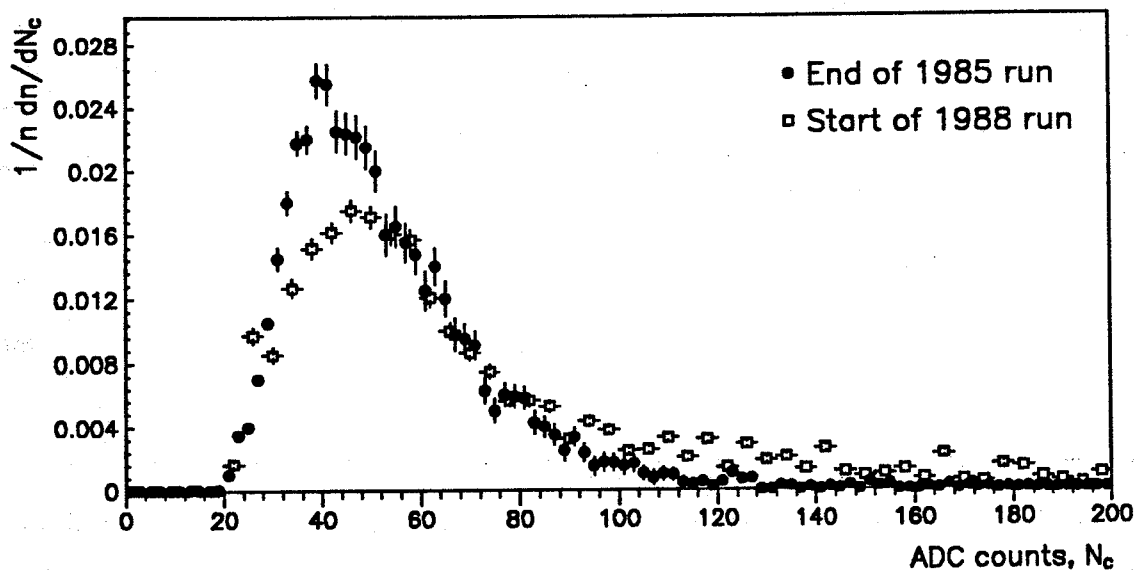


Figure 3.3: Single hit  $dE/dx$  in ADC counts

tion, and of data with positive and negative polarity magnetic field, revealed no systematic differences in the pulse-height spectra. Furthermore, no increase in the dark current of the chamber was observed up to the end of the 1987 run. Thus, although the CD did not noticeably suffer from ageing during the 1987 run the reduction in the gas gain reduced the signal to noise ratio of the hits.

### 3.3 Charged Track Reconstruction

The charged track reconstruction comprises two distinct operations — track-finding and track-fitting. The former uses  $xy$  information only and proceeds by associating sets of up to eight hits in short track segments which are then combined to form full length tracks [34]. Unassociated hits are flagged as background due to detector noise. The track fitting assumes that the particle has a helical trajectory which, projected in the bending plane, forms the arc of a circle of radius

$$R_{xy} = \frac{p \cdot \cos \lambda}{0.2998B} \quad (3.3)$$

where  $p$  is the momentum in  $GeV/c$ ,  $\lambda$  is the dip angle of the helix with respect to the  $xy$ -plane (fig.2.2), and  $B$  is the magnetic field in Tesla. The component in the direction of the field is expressed as

$$z = c_1 s + c_2 \quad (3.4)$$

where  $s$  is the track length in the  $xy$ -projection;  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are constants to be determined. The track fit may be factorised due to the two orders of magnitude difference in the relative accuracies of  $xy$  and the  $z$  measurements. Thus, the problem is reduced to two independent fits with three free parameters (*e.g.* the circle centre and radius) in the  $xy$ -plane and two ( $c_1$  and  $c_2$ ) in  $sz$ -space. Both fits use the method of least squares, combining the statistical errors (from studies of the track residuals) and systematic errors (from studies of cosmic rays) of each hit in quadrature. The typical momentum resolution is  $\Delta p/p = 0.01p(GeV/c)$  with a two-track resolution of  $\sim 5mm$ .

Fig. 3.4 is a graphical representation, in the  $xy$  plane, of an event in the CD showing the raw hits (above) and the acceptable reconstructed tracks (below).

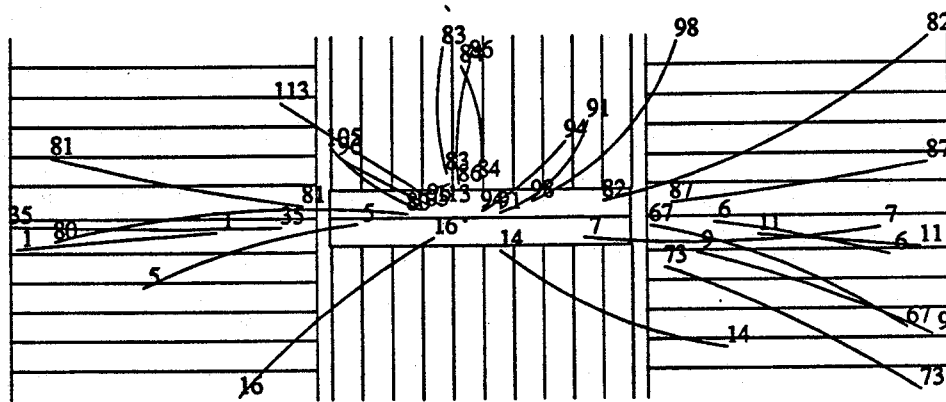
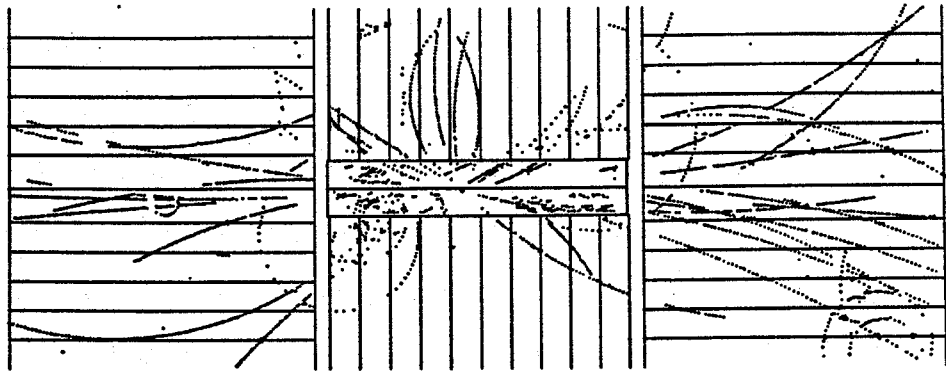


Figure 3.4: Event display of the CD showing raw hits and reconstructed tracks in the  $xy$ -plane.



### 3.4 Vertex Finding

The  $V^0$ -finding method used requires the primary event vertex and the  $V^0$  decay point to be carefully measured. Since the beam position is well defined the primary interaction vertex is accurately known in the transverse plane. The length of the  $p$  and  $\bar{p}$  bunches in the  $x$ -coordinate results in a large spread in the  $x$  coordinate of the primary vertex. The primary  $p\bar{p}$  interaction vertex and secondary vertices from particle decays and interactions in the chamber are found using the reconstructed track information [33]. If a clear peak is seen in the  $x$ -coordinate distribution of the extrapolated tracks, evaluated on the beam axis, then its mean is used for the  $x$  position of the primary vertex. A double peak is indicative of two  $p\bar{p}$  interactions in the same event. If no vertex candidates are forthcoming a bubble-method is used. For each track, the number of tracks passing within a bubble of radius  $5mm$  centred at the  $x$  crossing point of the track with the beam-line are counted. If a bubble has more than five tracks passing through it then it is considered to be a vertex. If no vertex is found then the number of tracks required is reduced to three and, if still no candidates result, the bubble size is increased to  $10mm$ . The  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates of the vertex(ices) found are then accurately fitted using all the associated tracks. The  $x$  and  $y$  vertex distributions are shown in figure 3.5. The  $z$  coordinate of the vertex is  $z = 0$ , by definition, since no improvement on the nominal beam-position is possible using the charge-division coordinate.

A secondary vertex search is made within  $10mm$  in the  $xy$ -plane of the end points of tracks from the primary vertex which terminate in the CD. A successful vertex candidate must have three or more associated tracks each with a radius of curvature  $R_{xy} > 1.0m$  ( $p_{xy} > 210MeV/c$ ). Similarly, an attempt is made to find secondary vertices by examining the starting points of all the unassociated tracks. These tracks must have  $R_{xy} > 0.5m$  ( $p_{xy} > 105MeV/c$ ). As many as six tracks may be demanded if the secondary vertex candidate is close to an established vertex or the beam-line.

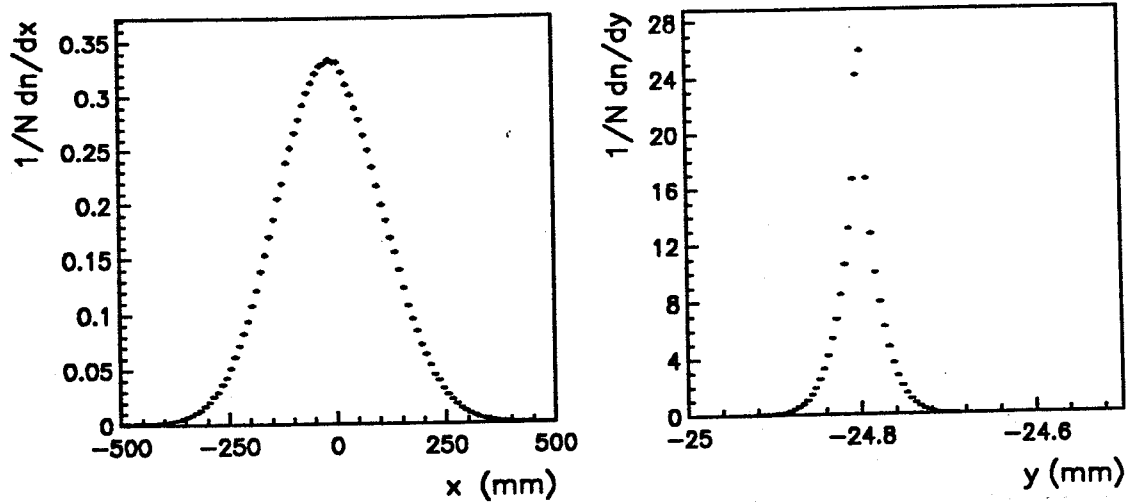


Figure 3.5: Primary vertex distributions in  $x$  and  $y$

Finally, a search is made for two-track vertices from the decays of neutral  $V^0$  particles. The method used is discussed in detail in chapter 6. There may still be unassociated tracks from, for example, beam-halo, cosmic rays, or split low-energy tracks such as electron spirals. All tracks are written in data banks according to whether they are associated to a primary vertex, a secondary vertex, a  $V^0$  vertex, or no vertex at all.

## 4. Calibration of the Central Detector

### 4.1 Standard calibration procedure

The task of maintaining a good calibration of the CD is a difficult one because the number of channels is large and since it is sensitive to systematic effects on a short timescale. Slight changes in the field or gas composition, if not carefully monitored, can easily lead to large errors during track reconstruction.

The statistical errors in the CD are found by studying the residuals of the fitted tracks with respect to the raw data points, in the  $xy$ -plane and the  $z$ -coordinate. These tend to be relatively stable in time. The systematic errors are less accessible but may be minimised through continuous monitoring and re-calibration. The voltages applied to the wires and the field-shaping copper strips are monitored, ensuring that they are kept at the values originally selected to give a uniform field in the CD. Calibration is performed at two levels: chamber by chamber on a daily basis and wire by wire, typically twice weekly. The former monitors the effects of global changes, such as gas composition and pressure, and magnetic field, which affect the re-measurement of the drift velocity  $v_d$ , the drift angle  $\alpha$ , and the drift reference time  $t_0$ . Real data tracks are used, fitted as usual but with  $v_d$ ,  $\alpha$  and  $t_0$  as additional free parameters. In each chamber many tracks at different orientations are used. The fact that the drift directions are opposite in adjacent drift gaps is exploited to provide constraints for the fit.

Close to the sense-wire the shower no longer moves with constant  $v_d$  and  $\alpha$ , but accelerates directly towards the wire. Since the drift-time is measured from the start of the pulse, tracks with different orientations will have slight systematic

differences in their measured  $xy$ -positions. An angular correction factor is calculated to account for this effect. A time-slewing correction is also calculated to account for a slight dependence of the drift-time measurement on the  $dE/dx$  or signal size. Smaller signals will tend to be shifted to slightly later times as a result of the ADC threshold, which cuts above the pedestal. This correction is applied hit-by-hit depending on the total signal size above threshold.

The channel by channel calibration, also using real tracks, exploits the expected symmetries of the event. The measured  $z$ , and  $dE/dx$  distributions for all wires are compared, enabling wire-by-wire corrections to be made for gain differences and charge-division offsets. A good  $xy$  measurement requires a well calibrated  $t_0$ , corresponding to the limit of zero drift length. For each wire the time spectrum of all hits is plotted. The spectrum is flat for the bulk of the drift volume with a small enhancement for tracks passing close to the wire but on the opposite side to the drift volume. The  $t_0$  is defined as the time half way up the rising edge of the spectrum thereby giving the same relative timing for all channels.

A laser calibration system was installed and successfully tested in the 1987 run [37]. Four nitrogen lasers were used to produce straight tracks in one module of the CD for the study of systematic space charge distortions occurring at high luminosities. An ionisation seed, TMPD (Tetra-Methyl-Phenylene-Diamine), was introduced to the gas at the ppb level which is an insufficient concentration to cause ageing. The luminosities achieved in 1987 were, however, too low to cause space-charge problems so no laser corrections were applied to the data.

## 4.2 Charge division asymmetry

The  $z$ -coordinate is obtained using the method of charge division by measuring the total charge,  $q_T$ , collected and that on the left ( $-z$ ) side,  $q_L$ . The full expressions for the left signal,  $Q_L$ , and the total,  $Q_T$ , input to the FADC's are then

$$Q_L = g_L q_L + \delta_L + \sigma_1 \quad (4.1)$$

$$Q_T = (g_R q_R + \delta_R) + (g_L q_L + \delta_L) + \sigma_2 \quad (4.2)$$

where  $g_L$  and  $g_R$  are the left and right gains,  $\delta_L$  and  $\delta_R$  represent the random noise in the chamber and the electronics and  $\sigma_1 \approx \sigma_2$  is the D.C. offset of the FADC input. The measured distance  $\xi$ , normalised to the wire length  $2w$ , of the hit from the right (+z) side of the chamber is then

$$\frac{\xi}{2w} = \frac{Q_L}{Q_T} = \frac{(g_L q_L + \delta_L) + \sigma_1}{(g_R q_R + \delta_R) + (g_L q_L + \delta_L) + \sigma_2} \quad (4.3)$$

The pre-amplifier gains, set by Digital to Analogue Converters or DAC's under software control, are balanced to give a symmetrical response to large  $dE/dx$  hits for which the noise is negligible. The D.C. levels,  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$ , of the FADC inputs may also be adjusted via DAC's. Due to technical difficulties in calibrating these DAC settings they were set to a nominal value close to zero for all channels. With the introduction of ACOL the gas gain of the chamber was reduced by a factor of four, to prevent ageing in the chamber [36]. The gains of the pre-amplifiers were increased correspondingly in order to maintain the original FADC accuracy with the result that intrinsic chamber noise increased fourfold compared to the signal.

Expressing eq. 4.3 in terms of the standard UA1 coordinate,  $z = w - \xi$ , gives the measured  $z$  value:

$$\frac{z_{\text{meas}}}{w} = \frac{(g_R q_R - g_L q_L) + (\delta_R - \delta_L) + (\sigma_2 - 2\sigma_1)}{(g_R q_R + g_L q_L) + (\delta_R + \delta_L) + \sigma_2} \quad (4.4)$$

With neither noise nor D.C. offsets, this expression gives the true position of the hit:

$$\frac{z_{\text{true}}}{w} = \frac{g_R q_R - g_L q_L}{g_R q_R + g_L q_L} \quad (4.5)$$

Equations 4.4 and 4.5 may be combined to yield an expression for the measured  $z$  value in terms of the true value:

$$z_{\text{meas}} = z_{\text{true}} - \Delta z \quad (4.6)$$

where the shift,  $\Delta z$ , is given by

$$\Delta z = \left( \frac{2\sigma_1 - \sigma_2}{Q_T} \right) w + \left( \frac{\delta_L - \delta_R}{Q_T} \right) w + \left( \frac{\delta_R + \delta_L + \sigma_2}{Q_T} \right) z_{\text{true}} + \mathcal{O}\left( \frac{\delta}{Q_T} \right)^2 \quad (4.7)$$

The first and third terms result in a systematic shift in the  $-z$  direction while the second term simply degrades the resolution.

Figure 4.1 shows the measured distribution of hits for three bands of  $dE/dX$ . Only hits used in the  $xy$  track fit and on “good” wires are shown. The curve for

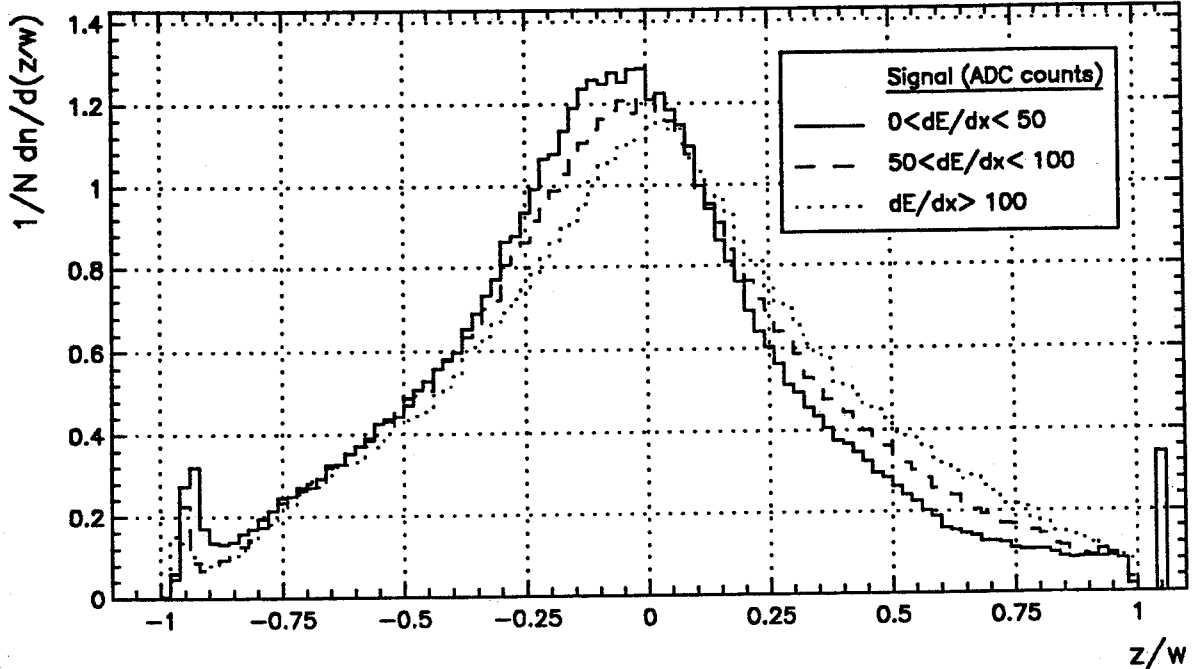


Figure 4.1: Measured  $z$ -distribution of single wire hits as function of  $dE/dx$

large  $dE/dx$  hits is seen to be almost symmetric, with  $z_{\text{meas}} \approx z_{\text{true}}$ . The lower  $dE/dx$  curves, however, show the predicted systematic shift in the  $-z$  direction and are slightly skewed.

No correction to the data could be made at the level of single wires (*i.e.* using the  $z$ -hit information) since, to reduce the event size, the raw hit data banks were not retained when the initial event processing was carried out.<sup>1</sup> Only the affected reconstructed tracks parameters, namely the momentum and the dip angle, could be corrected.

The track-finding is unaffected by this shift since only  $xy$  information is used.

<sup>1</sup>Fig. 4.1 comes from a small sample of re-processed events for which the raw hit banks were kept.

The track fitting, however, uses the  $z$  information to evaluate the dip angle  $\lambda$ , and the track momentum,  $p = p_{xy}/\cos\lambda$ . The measured dip angle distribution is shown in fig. 4.2. The data exhibit a systematic shift of about  $20\text{mrad}$  in the direction

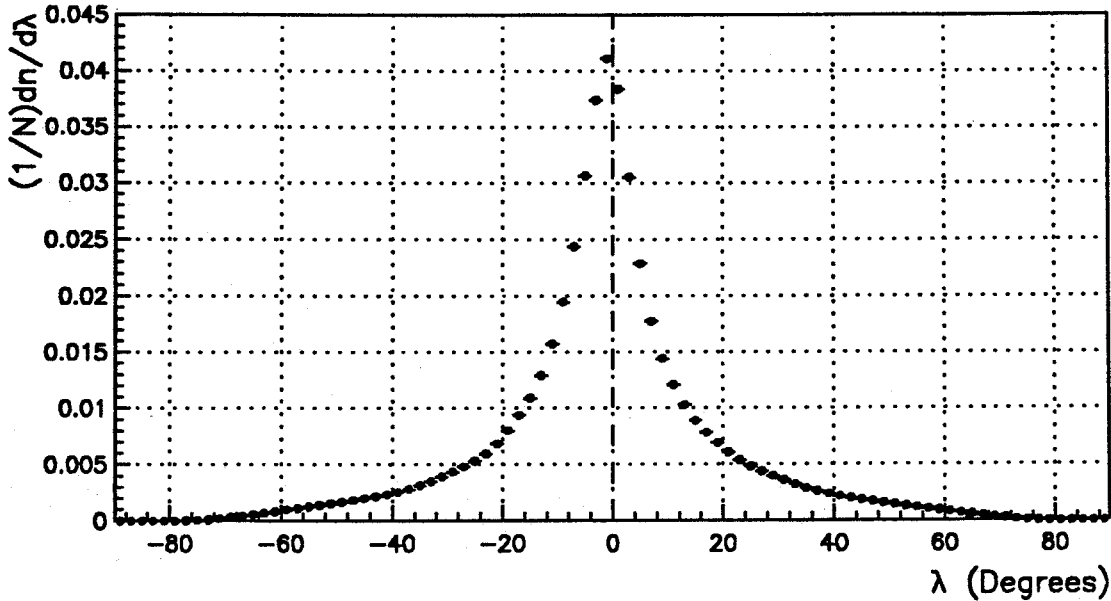


Figure 4.2: Charged track dip angle (uncorrected)

of  $-\lambda$ . The systematic shift in  $z$  causes an excess of tracks for  $\phi \approx \pm 180^\circ$  and the depletion for  $\phi \approx 0$ .

The shift in the dip angle is small but since the  $p_t$  distribution is rapidly falling it is particularly sensitive to slight miscalibrations. Tracks with negative dip angle are shifted away from the bending-plane so that  $p_t$  is systematically too high; the converse is true for positive dip angles. Fig. 4.3 shows the  $p_t$  distributions for all charged tracks satisfying the basic track quality requirements (table A.1), separately for  $+\lambda$  and  $-\lambda$ . The upward shift in the  $p_t$  for tracks with negative  $\lambda$  is clearly seen.

### 4.3 Fiducial cut in $\Phi$

For a given  $p_t$ , the measured  $\lambda$  and  $p_t$  are most affected in the horizontal plane where the  $z$  coordinate is most important. Furthermore, noise associated with the

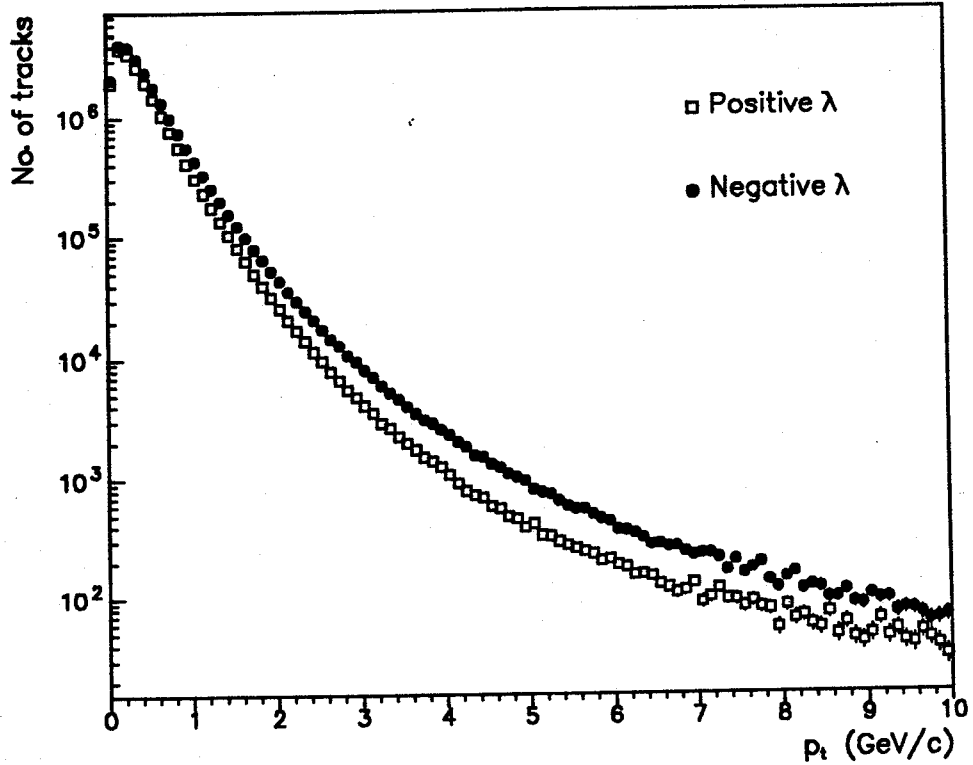


Figure 4.3: Charged track  $p_t$  spectra for  $+\lambda$  and  $-\lambda$  (uncorrected)

beam is greater at small  $\Phi$  angles. The differences in the  $p_t$  spectra,  $f^+(p_t)$  and  $f^-(p_t)$  for positive and negative dip angles respectively, were studied for different regions of  $\Phi_{\text{wrtb}}$  (angle in projected plane with respect to the beam). The ratio  $f^+(p_t)/f^-(p_t)$  was formed to show more clearly the asymmetry. Figure 4.4 shows this ratio for (a)  $0 < \Phi_{\text{wrtb}} < 5^\circ$ , (b)  $5^\circ < \Phi_{\text{wrtb}} < 10^\circ$ , (c)  $10^\circ < \Phi_{\text{wrtb}} < 20^\circ$ , and (d)  $\Phi_{\text{wrtb}} > 20^\circ$ . The large discrepancy between the  $+\lambda$  and  $-\lambda$  regions for small  $\Phi_{\text{wrtb}}$  suggests the application of a fiducial cut on low angle tracks. It is appropriate to cut a *wedge* in  $\Phi$  since this removes noisy *wires* which pass close to the beam. Cutting in rapidity removes a *cone* around the beam-pipe so tracks at low  $\phi$  can still cause hits on noisy wires. Furthermore, the cut in  $\Phi$  does not completely cut the acceptance at high rapidity since tracks largely in the bending plane are retained. Fig. 4.5 shows the effects of different  $\Phi$  cuts on the acceptance in the  $\eta - \phi$  plane. Cutting at  $\Phi_{\text{wrtb}}=5^\circ$  removes 10% of all tracks in the region  $\eta < 2.5$ ,



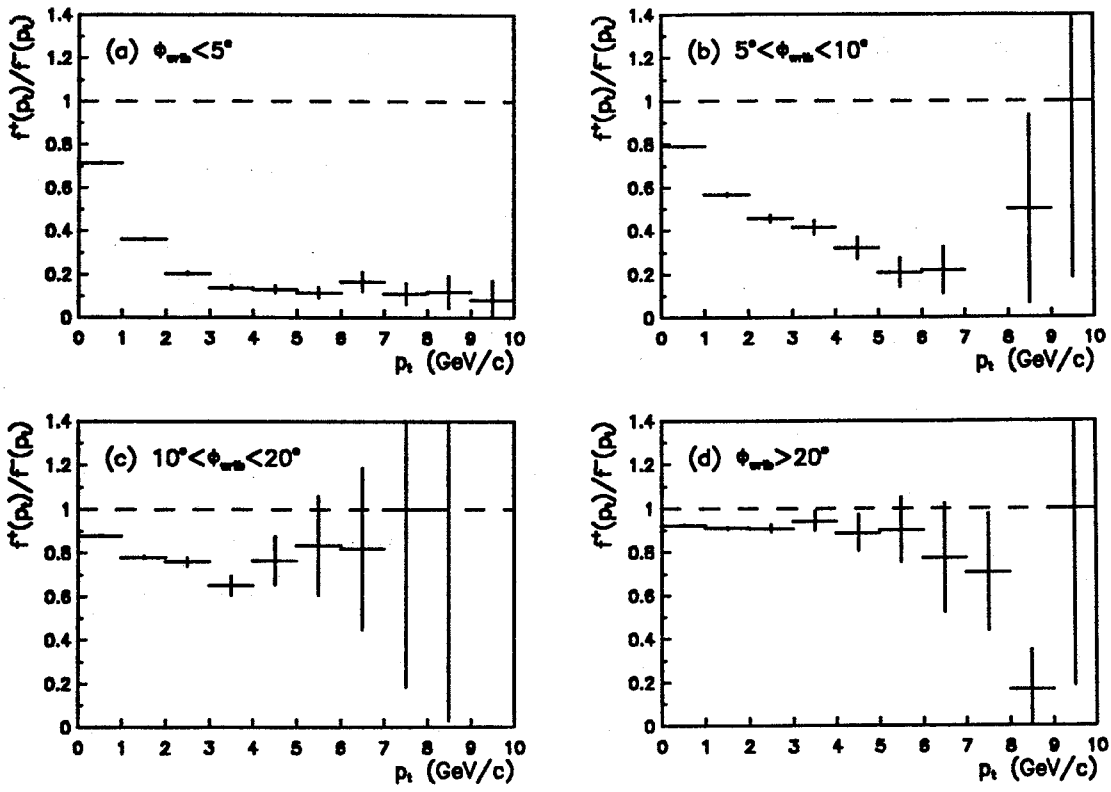


Figure 4.4:  $f^+(p_t)/f^-(p_t)$  as a function of  $\Phi_{\text{wrtb}}$  (uncorrected)

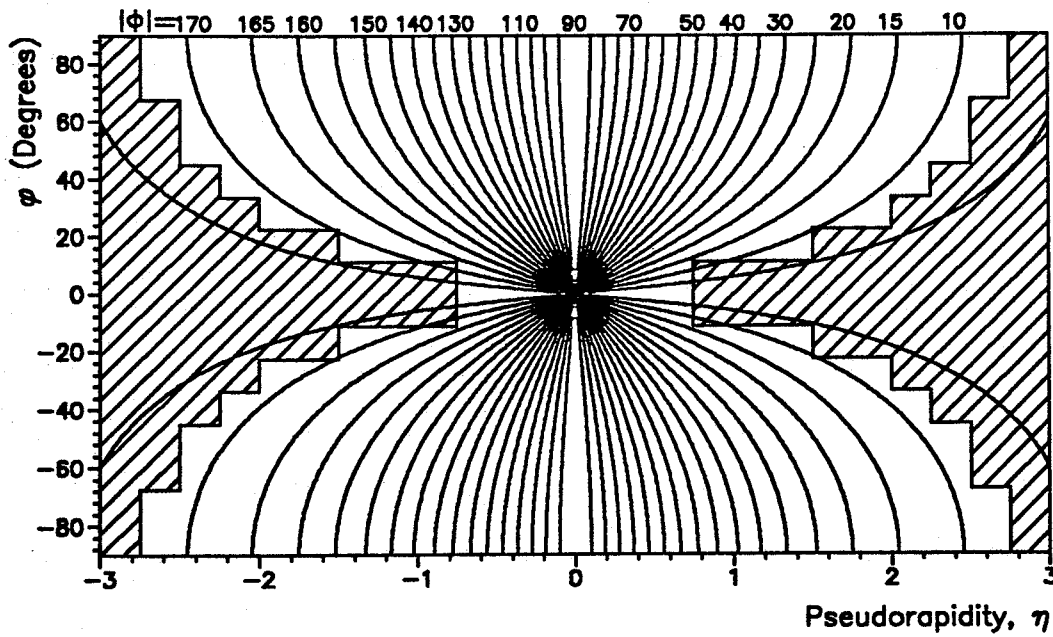


Figure 4.5: Fiducial  $\Phi$  cut in the  $\eta - \phi$  plane

which increases to 17.5% for  $\Phi_{\text{wrth}}=7.5^\circ$  and to 25% for  $\Phi_{\text{wrth}}=10^\circ$ . The drop in the  $V^0$  reconstruction efficiency is more dramatic since the  $V^0$  is rejected if either of the two decay tracks is within  $\Phi_{\text{wrth}}$  of the beam. A fiducial cut was therefore applied to all charged tracks by setting the CD acceptance of all those  $\eta\phi$  bins to zero whose central value of  $\Phi_{\text{wrth}}$  was less than  $7.5^\circ$  and then renormalising the other  $\eta\phi$  bins in the same  $p_t$  interval (see appendix A). The hatched region of fig. 4.5 shows the effect of this cut in the  $\eta\phi$  plane.

The systematic asymmetry is greatest for small  $\Phi_{\text{wrth}}$  but is present for all  $\Phi$  due to beam noise at low angles and electronics noise and offsets affecting the whole chamber. In the next section a correction to the track dip angle and momentum is discussed which is used in conjunction with this fiducial  $\Phi$  cut.

#### 4.4 Dip angle correction

Given that  $s$  measures the arc length of the track in the projected plane, the dip angle is calculated from the gradient of the track fit in  $sz$ -space:

$$\tan \lambda = \frac{z}{s} \quad (4.8)$$

which, by differentiation, gives the shift,  $\Delta\lambda$ , in the dip angle in terms of  $\Delta z$ :

$$\Delta\lambda = \frac{\Delta z}{s} \cos^2 \lambda \quad (4.9)$$

The interpretation of  $\Delta\lambda$  and  $\Delta z$  in this equation is not straightforward. For a single *hit*,  $\Delta z$  may be calculated from eq. 4.7 to predict the shift in the dip angle  $\Delta\lambda_{\text{hit}}$  using eq. 4.9. The  $\lambda$  measured in the  $sz$  fit is, however, the dip angle of a *track* coming from a fit including many hits. Since it is not possible to propagate the combined effects of many different hit corrections to predict the effect on the dip angle and track momentum, a more empirical method was used.

Eq. 4.7 gives the shift  $\Delta z$  of a single hit to be a linear function of  $z$ . From eq. 4.9 a reasonable ansatz for the shift in the dip angle is therefore

$$\Delta\lambda = \alpha(1 + \beta\lambda) \cos^2 \lambda \quad (4.10)$$

Since the dip distribution is peaked around  $\lambda = 0$ , the transformation of the  $z$  dependence may be seen as a polynomial expansion of  $\tan\lambda$ , in which quadratic and higher order terms are neglected, with the parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  implicitly averaged over  $\delta$ ,  $w$  and  $dE/dx$  for many hits.

To allow for variations in the systematics for different parts of the chamber the CD is divided into 36 wedges each subtending  $10^\circ$  in  $\Phi$  at the origin. A track is defined to lie in a given wedge if  $\Phi_C$ , defined as the  $\Phi$  angle of the chord joining the primary vertex and the track end-point, is within the limits of the wedge. With this definition, more hits on the track are contained within the wedge than if the standard  $\Phi$  of the track is used.

The parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  must be extracted from the experimental dip distributions. Since the effect is small, great care must be taken to ensure that the extracted parameters are not dependent on the method used to obtain them. Symmetrisation of the dip distribution must not change its underlying form. For example, an ansatz to order  $\lambda^2$  could not be used since the width of the corrected dip distribution would not be unique. Three methods of obtaining of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  have been studied:

- **Method 1: Fit to predicted dip distribution**

The expected dip distribution of tracks,  $f(\Phi, \lambda)$  may be calculated analytically (see appendix B). Assuming that the charged particle  $p_t$  distribution is flat in pseudorapidity and azimuth:

$$f(\Phi, \lambda) = A \left( \frac{\cos \lambda}{1 - \cos^2 \Phi \cos^2 \lambda} \right) \quad (4.11)$$

Using equation 4.10 to define  $\Delta\lambda$  a fit of the form  $f(\Phi, \lambda = \lambda_{\text{meas}} - \Delta\lambda)$  was made to the data. The distribution for each  $\Phi$  wedge is implicitly averaged over  $\Phi$  so, in addition to  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ,  $\Phi$  (in eq. 4.11) was allowed to vary slightly. The dip distributions must be corrected for the CD acceptance (see appendix A) for this method to make sense.

• **Method 2: Minimisation of mean and skewness**

This method aims to symmetrise the dip distributions irrespective of their functional form. Allowing the constants  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  to vary freely,  $\lambda = \lambda_{\text{meas}} - \Delta\lambda$  was calculated for each  $\lambda_{\text{meas}}$  bin. The bins used were of width  $1\text{mrad}$  to ensure sufficient accuracy in the measurement of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . The “corrected” mean  $\mu_1$ , and coefficient of skewness,  $\gamma_1 = \mu_3/\mu_2^{3/2}$  are evaluated, where the  $n^{\text{th}}$  moment,  $\mu_n$ , of the dip distribution is defined as

$$\mu_n(\Phi) = \frac{\sum f(\Phi, \lambda)\lambda^n}{\sum f(\Phi, \lambda)} \quad (4.12)$$

where  $f(\Phi, \lambda = \lambda_{\text{meas}} - \Delta\lambda)$  is the measured dip distribution and  $\Delta\lambda$  comes from eq. 4.10. Final values for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are obtained by simultaneously minimising  $|\mu_1|$  and  $|\gamma_1|$ .

• **Method 3: Symmetrisation  $\chi^2$**

This method is similar to the previous one but instead of the skewness an asymmetry parameter  $\epsilon$  is used to measure the asymmetry:

$$\epsilon^2 = \left( \frac{1}{N_{\text{bins}}} \right) \sum_{\text{bins}} \left( \frac{(f(\Phi, +\lambda) - f(\Phi, -\lambda))^2}{\sigma_{f(\Phi, +\lambda)}^2 + \sigma_{f(\Phi, -\lambda)}^2} \right) \quad (4.13)$$

where again  $f(\Phi, \lambda = \lambda_{\text{meas}} - \Delta\lambda)$  is the measured dip distribution,  $\sigma$  is the statistical error, and  $N_{\text{bins}}$  is the number of bins in the histogram. For a symmetrical distribution,  $\epsilon^2 \rightarrow 1$ . To obtain  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , the mean dip angle,  $\langle\lambda\rangle$ , is normalised to its statistical error,  $\sigma_{\langle\lambda\rangle}$ , and the function

$$\chi_{\text{symm}}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\langle\lambda\rangle^2}{\sigma_{\langle\lambda\rangle}^2} + \epsilon^2 \right) \quad (4.14)$$

is minimised. In principle, the  $\epsilon^2$  term is sufficient but the first term more explicitly requires the corrected distribution to be centered about  $\lambda = 0$ .

Method 1 is attractive since the fit is dominated by the high statistics region around  $\lambda = 0$ . The acceptance correction method does not, however, produce a flat  $\phi$  distribution since the acceptance of particularly poor regions of the detector is necessarily set to zero and the other bins in  $\phi$  (same  $p_t$  and  $\eta$ ) are scaled to compensate (see appendix A). Thus, the predicted form given by eq. 4.11 is not strictly valid. The fit  $\chi^2$ 's were too large for this method to be used, although the values obtained for  $\alpha$  were similar to those of the other two methods which gave consistent results for both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . Methods 2. and 3. do not require the data to be acceptance-corrected. In using the skewness, the second method is particularly sensitive to the high  $\lambda$  tails where the statistics are poor, so the third method was finally used.

The dip correction parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  obtained using method 3. are presented in table 4.1. To apply this correction to a given track the dip angle is modified using eq. 4.10. From eq. 3.3, the corrected momentum is then given by

$$p_{corr} = p \frac{\cos \lambda_{meas}}{\cos(\lambda_{meas} - \Delta\lambda)} \quad (4.15)$$

The charged track  $p_t$  distributions, for  $+\lambda$  and  $-\lambda$  are presented in fig. 4.6, after application of the fiducial cut in  $\Phi$  and the dip correction. Comparison with fig. 4.3 shows that that the data are greatly improved.

The ratios of the corrected  $p_t$  spectra, for  $+\lambda$  and  $-\lambda$ , are shown in fig. 4.7 for (a)  $\Phi_{wrtb} < 7.5^\circ$  and (b)  $\Phi_{wrtb} > 7.5^\circ$ . Even after dip correction the fiducial cut in  $\Phi$  is clearly necessary. For  $\Phi_{wrtb} > 7.5^\circ$ , the ratio is approximately flat for all  $p_t$ . Since the dip distribution is sharply peaked at  $\lambda=0$ , only a small systematic error in  $\lambda$  is needed for the dip angle of many tracks to change sign, resulting in  $f^+(p_t)/f^-(p_t) < 1.0$ . The measured value of  $p_t$  is, however, relatively insensitive to this residual error. An *upper* limit on the error in the measurement of  $p_t$  is estimated by making the extreme assumptions that the departure from the expected result  $f^+(p_t)/f^-(p_t) = 1.0$  is due solely to the mis-measurement of  $p_t$  and that the sign of  $\lambda$  is always correct. The two curves were fitted with a power

$\Phi$ range	$\alpha$	$\beta$
-180 $\rightarrow$ -170	-0.0237	0.66
-170 $\rightarrow$ -160	-0.0153	2.46
-160 $\rightarrow$ -150	-0.0124	8.08
-150 $\rightarrow$ -140	-0.0053	0.31
-140 $\rightarrow$ -130	-0.0081	2.41
-130 $\rightarrow$ -120	-0.0030	2.99
-120 $\rightarrow$ -110	-0.0061	0.16
-110 $\rightarrow$ -100	-0.0041	5.49
-100 $\rightarrow$ -90	-0.0127	7.16
-90 $\rightarrow$ -80	-0.0080	-0.43
-80 $\rightarrow$ -70	-0.0214	0.19
-70 $\rightarrow$ -60	-0.0135	8.91
-60 $\rightarrow$ -50	-0.0215	0.69
-50 $\rightarrow$ -40	-0.0130	7.61
-40 $\rightarrow$ -30	-0.0167	7.70
-30 $\rightarrow$ -20	-0.0100	-0.26
-20 $\rightarrow$ -10	-0.0154	9.50
-10 $\rightarrow$ 0	-0.0181	-0.25

$\Phi$ range	$\alpha$	$\beta$
0 $\rightarrow$ 10	-0.0173	0.70
10 $\rightarrow$ 20	-0.0163	0.10
20 $\rightarrow$ 30	-0.0145	7.03
30 $\rightarrow$ 40	-0.0162	9.44
40 $\rightarrow$ 50	-0.0122	8.47
50 $\rightarrow$ 60	-0.0035	2.70
60 $\rightarrow$ 70	-0.0098	0.76
70 $\rightarrow$ 80	-0.0181	1.07
80 $\rightarrow$ 90	-0.0248	0.76
90 $\rightarrow$ 100	-0.0160	1.02
100 $\rightarrow$ 110	-0.0068	3.64
110 $\rightarrow$ 120	-0.0075	0.72
120 $\rightarrow$ 130	-0.0088	1.71
130 $\rightarrow$ 140	-0.0073	1.68
140 $\rightarrow$ 150	-0.0023	0.66
150 $\rightarrow$ 160	-0.0117	7.52
160 $\rightarrow$ 170	-0.0106	4.94
170 $\rightarrow$ 180	-0.0256	-0.10

Table 4.1: Dip correction constants

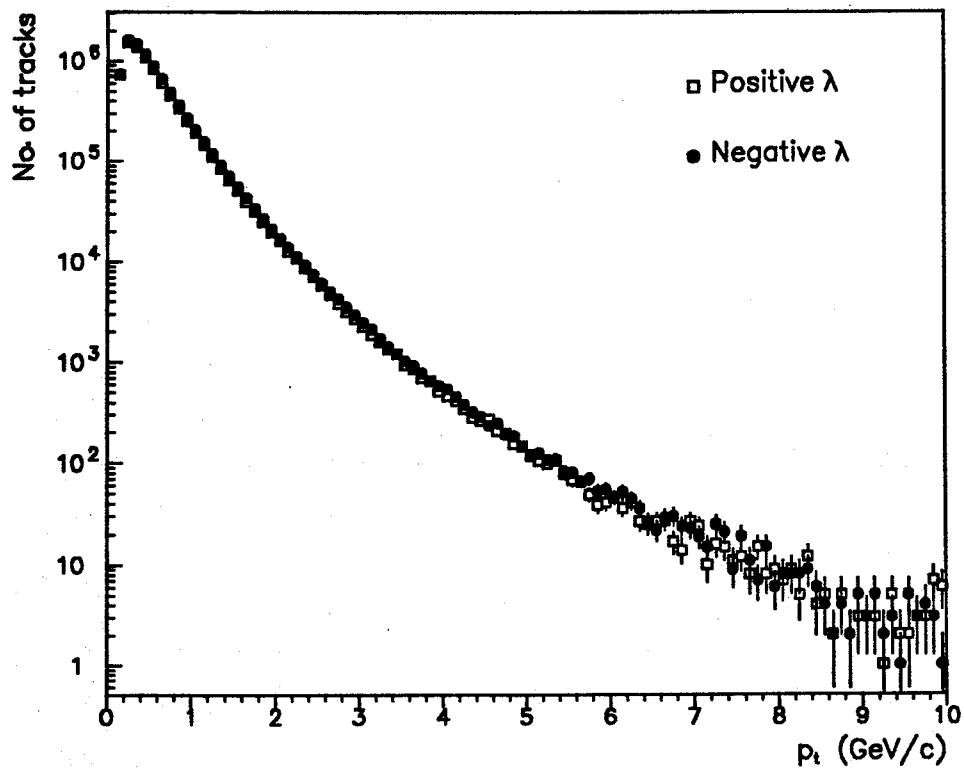


Figure 4.6: Charged track  $p_t$  spectra for  $+\lambda$  and  $-\lambda$  (corrected)

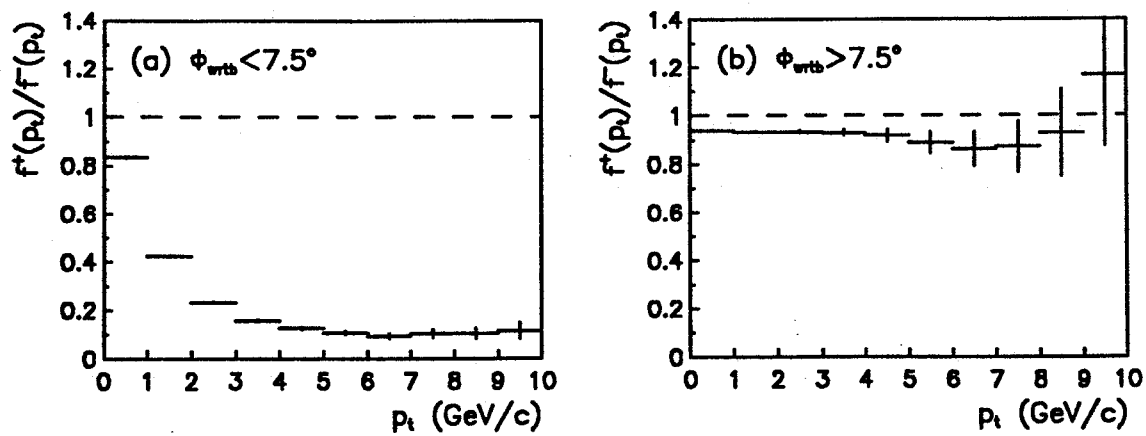


Figure 4.7:  $f^+(p_t)/f^-(p_t)$  after dip correction. (a)  $\Phi_{\text{wrtb}} < 7.5^\circ$  and (b)  $\Phi_{\text{wrtb}} > 7.5^\circ$

law (eq. 5.2 with  $p_0=1.42\text{GeV}/c$ ). The  $p_t$  of the plot entries was scaled by a factor  $(1 + \delta)$  for  $+\lambda$  and  $(1 - \delta)$  for  $-\lambda$  and then the curves were re-fitted. By requiring  $f^+(p_t)/f^-(p_t)$  to be unity for the fits,  $\delta$  was estimated to be  $\delta \approx 0.005$ . The systematic  $p_t$  error due to the  $z$  asymmetry, therefore, is estimated to be less than 0.5%.

#### 4.5 Magnetic field correction

The measurement of track momenta in the CD uses a parametrisation of the magnetic field derived from detailed measurements at many points in  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$ . Since the original survey, the separation of the magnetic yokes was increased slightly thereby reducing the magnetic field slightly. This effect is not taken into account by the standard track reconstruction program, resulting in a systematic overestimate of the track momenta. The field is predicted [38] to be globally lower than the nominal value by a factor:

$$f_B = 99.465\% \quad (4.16)$$

In this analysis, therefore, the momenta of all reconstructed tracks have been scaled by a factor  $f_B$ .



## 5. Charged Particle Production

### 5.1 Inclusive charged particle cross-section

The inclusive charged particle cross-section,  $\sigma = 1/2((\sigma(p\bar{p} \rightarrow h^+ X) + \sigma(p\bar{p} \rightarrow h^- X)))$ , has been measured for  $|\eta| < 2.5$  and  $p_t > 0.15 \text{ GeV}/c$ . The dip angle and the momentum of all tracks have been corrected for the systematic error in the  $z$  coordinate using the procedure described in chap.4. The magnetic field correction factor, described in §4.5, was used to correct the momenta of all charged particles. The data have been corrected for the acceptance of the CD using the method described in appendix A. A correction has been made for the track-finding efficiency of 96% [34], which is approximately independent of  $p_t$ ,  $\eta$  and  $\phi$ . The contamination from strange particle decays, gamma conversions and secondary interactions in the beam-pipe and chamber walls has been studied using the Isajet Monte-Carlo [39] and the standard UA1 detector simulation program. These are found to increase the number of tracks associated to the primary vertex by 1.5% [40]. A global factor of 1/1.015 has therefore been applied to the measured cross-section. The ratio of the  $p_t$  distributions for positive and negative charged particles separately was checked and found to be consistent, within errors, with unity for the full range of  $p_t$ .

The invariant inclusive cross-section may be expressed:

$$E \frac{d^3\sigma}{dp^3} \approx \frac{1}{\Delta\phi\Delta\eta} \frac{d\sigma}{p_t dp_t} \quad (5.1)$$

where  $\Delta\phi = 2\pi$  and  $\Delta\eta=5$  in this analysis.

The distribution has been corrected for the smearing effect of the CD resolution

(see appendix D). The inclusive invariant cross-section for charged particle production within the pseudo-rapidity region,  $|\eta| < 2.5$ , is shown in fig. 5.1, together with previous UA1 results [41] for  $\sqrt{s}=200, 500$  and  $900\text{GeV}$ . The minimum-bias cross-sections used in the 1985 analysis were  $40.3\text{mb}$  and  $44.6\text{mb}$  at  $\sqrt{s} = 500\text{GeV}$  and  $\sqrt{s} = 900\text{GeV}$  which, assuming a logarithmic dependence on  $\sqrt{s}$ , gives  $42.0\text{mb}$  at  $630\text{GeV}$ . Following improved measurements of the total, elastic and single-diffractive cross-sections by UA4 and UA5 [24,25], the UA1 trigger was recalibrated [26,27]. The resulting minimum-bias cross-section for 1987 was ( $\sigma_{\text{MB}} = 37.1 \pm 2.6$ ) $\text{mb}$ . For comparison with this analysis, the 1985 data have therefore been scaled by a factor  $37.1/42.0=0.88$ . It is likely that a similar correction should be applied to the pre-1987 cross-sections of UA4 and UA5. The solid line is the result of a hybrid fit described in §5.2. The systematic error on the normalisation from the uncertainty in the minimum-bias trigger cross-section is, from eq. 2.4, 7.0%.

## 5.2 Charged multiplicity and mean $p_t$

In previous analyses [42,41,43], the invariant cross section was fitted with the semi-empirical function:

$$E \frac{d^3\sigma}{dp^3} = A \left( \frac{p_0}{p_t + p_0} \right)^n \quad (5.2)$$

A summary of the fit parameters from these analyses is shown in table 5.1, where the errors quoted are statistical only. The CDF collaboration requires a minimum  $p_t$  value of  $0.4\text{GeV}$  to ensure high and uniform reconstruction efficiency, since charged particles with  $p_t$  below  $0.33\text{GeV}/c$  spiral in the solenoidal field. The hardening of the  $p_t$  spectrum with increasing centre-of-mass energy is apparent in the decreasing power  $n$ .

To evaluate the mean charged track multiplicity,  $\langle n_{ch} \rangle$ , and the mean transverse momentum,  $\langle p_t \rangle$ , it is necessary to integrate the  $p_t$  spectrum. A correction must then be applied to correct for the  $p_t < 0.15\text{GeV}/c$  cut by extrapolating the fit to

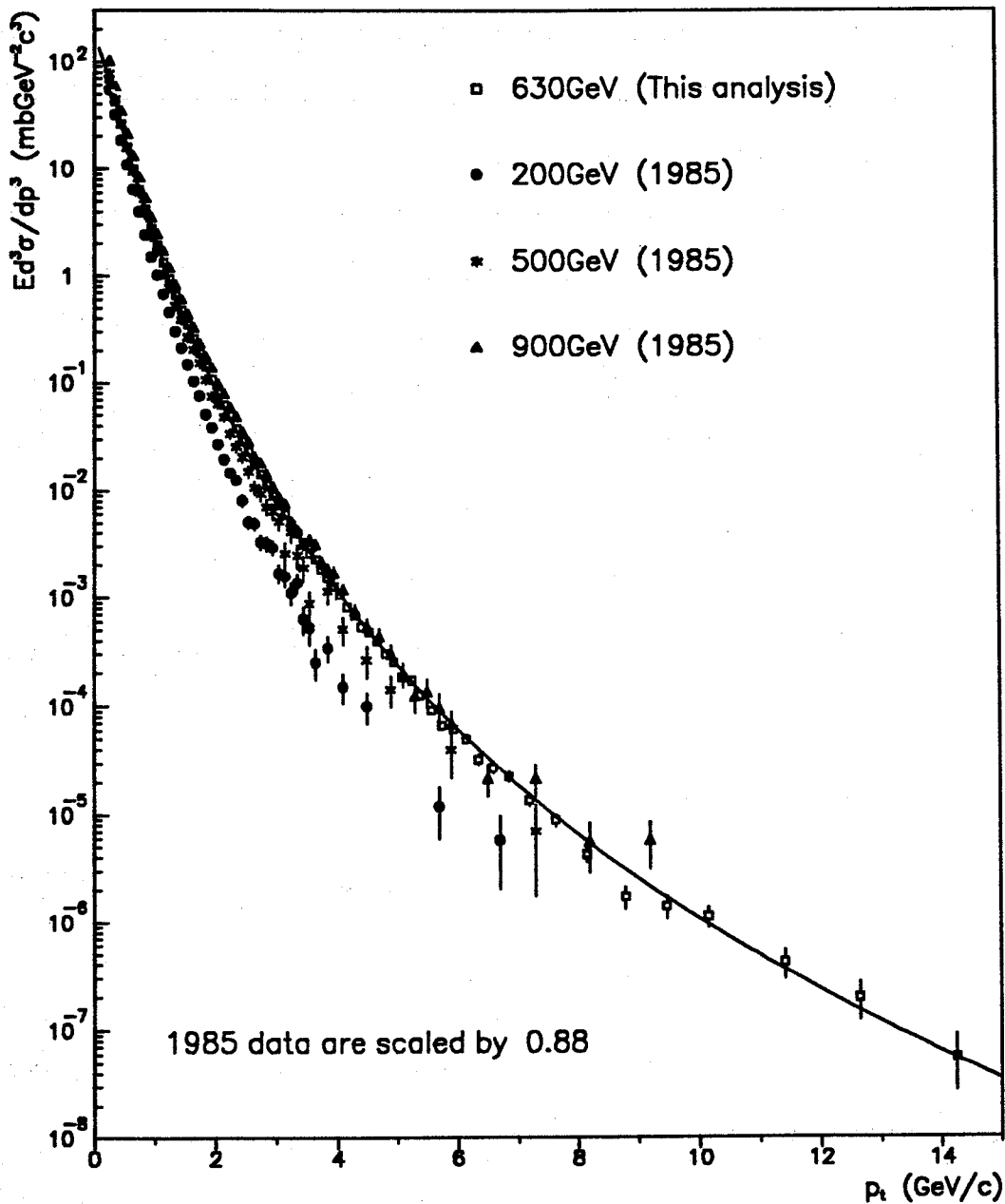


Figure 5.1: Inclusive charged particle invariant cross-section for  $|\eta| < 2.5$  (the 1985 UA1 data is from ref. [41]).

	$\sqrt{s}$ (GeV)	Fit range (GeV/c)	A (mbGeV <sup>-2</sup> c <sup>3</sup> )	$p_0$ (GeV/c)	n
UA1 [42]	546	0.3 - 2.0	460 ± 10	1.30 fixed	9.14 ± 0.02
UA1 [41]	200	0.2 - 10.0	286 ± 17	1.80 ± 0.10	12.14 ± 0.39
	500	0.2 - 10.0	408 ± 24	1.61 ± 0.08	10.64 ± 0.31
	900	0.2 - 10.0	382 ± 20	1.56 ± 0.05	9.96 ± 0.17
CDF [43] ( $ \eta  < 1.0$ )	630	0.4 - 10.0	330 ± 10	1.30 fixed	8.89 ± 0.06
		0.4 - 10.0	270 ± 10	1.63 ± 0.13	10.20 ± 0.56
	1800	0.4 - 10.0	450 ± 10	1.30 fixed	8.28 ± 0.02
		0.4 - 10.0	450 ± 10	1.29 ± 0.02	8.26 ± 0.08

Table 5.1: Previous fit results to the inclusive charged particle cross-section, of the form  $E d^3\sigma/dp^3 = Ap_0^n/(p_t + p_0)^n$

$p_t=0$ . Since the  $p_t$  distribution is falling so rapidly, the calculation of  $\langle n_{ch} \rangle$  and  $\langle p_t \rangle$  is particularly sensitive to this extrapolation. In this analysis a hybrid expression [5] has been used to fit the invariant cross-section:

$$E \frac{d^3\sigma}{dp^3} = \begin{cases} B e^{-\beta m_t} & ; \text{ if } p_t < p_1 \\ A \left( \frac{p_0}{p_t + p_0} \right)^n & ; \text{ if } p_t \geq p_1 \end{cases} \quad (5.3)$$

where the transverse mass,  $m_t$ , is defined according to

$$m_t^2 c^4 = m_\pi^2 c^4 + p_t^2 c^2 \quad (5.4)$$

The Boltzmann form of this expression at low  $p_t$  is predicted qualitatively by thermodynamics ( $\beta \equiv (k_B T)^{-1}$ , where  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant, may be used to define the temperature,  $T$ , of the interaction). The parameters  $B$  and  $\beta$  are constrained by  $A$ ,  $p_0$ ,  $n$  and  $p_1$  (see eqs. C.4 and C.5 in appendix C) by requiring continuity of the cross-section and its first derivative at  $p_t = p_1$ .

Averaging over  $\eta$  and  $\phi$ , the acceptance error is  $\sigma(A) \approx 0.3\%$  for each of the five  $p_t$  bins used (see appendix A). At low  $p_t$  this error is larger than the statistical error. Therefore, to ensure that the fit was reliable, the data points falling within

each acceptance bin were allowed to vary by a common factor,  $f_i = 1 \pm 3\sigma(\mathcal{A})_i$ , with  $i = 1, 5$ . Non-uniqueness in the overall normalisation was avoided by constraining  $f_3 \equiv 1.0$ , this being the bin with the smallest acceptance error. The uncertainty in the normalisation, due to the error in the acceptance, is therefore given by  $\sigma(\mathcal{A})_3 = 0.15\%$ .

The solid line of fig. 5.1 shows the hybrid fit (using the full  $p_t$  range) to the inclusive charged particle cross-section. The fit parameters are given in table 5.2. The results for  $p_1 \equiv 0.0$  are included to allow for comparison with the fit

Fit range (GeV/c)	A (mbGeV <sup>-2</sup> c <sup>3</sup> )	$p_0$ (GeV/c)	n	$p_1$ (GeV/c)
0.2 - 15.0	$343.1 \pm 2.9$	$1.42 \pm 0.02$	$9.40 \pm 0.08$	0.44
0.2 - 15.0	$330.1 \pm 2.4$	$1.47 \pm 0.02$	$9.54 \pm 0.07$	0.0 (fixed)

Table 5.2: Results of the fits to the inclusive charged particle cross-section.

parameters given in table 5.1. The mean multiplicity and transverse momentum are calculated from the fit parameters using the method described in appendix C. From eqs. C.10 and C.12, the hybrid fit yields

$$\langle n_{ch} \rangle = 17.2 \pm 0.4 \quad (|\eta| < 2.5) \quad (5.5)$$

$$\langle p_t \rangle = (0.477 \pm 0.005) \text{GeV}/c \quad (5.6)$$

The choice of the function used to extrapolate to  $p_t = 0$  introduces a significant systematic error. Fig. 5.2 shows the fits for the power law (*i.e.*  $p_1 \equiv 0$ ) and hybrid parametrisations at low  $p_t$ . No real distinction can be made between the power law and the hybrid fits on the basis of the fit  $\chi^2$  although the hybrid fit has more physical justification. Using the results of the pure power law fit, the values obtained are  $\langle n_{ch} \rangle = 18.7 \pm 0.4$  and  $\langle p_t \rangle = (0.449 \pm 0.005) \text{GeV}/c$ , which are respectively 9% higher and 6% lower than for the hybrid fit due to the increased

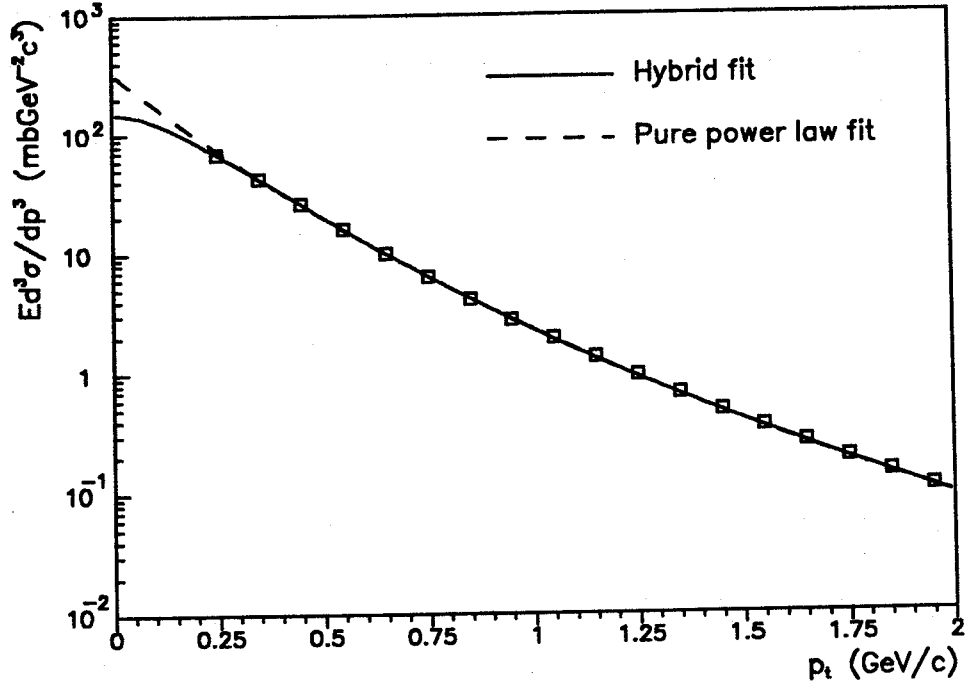


Figure 5.2: Hybrid and power-law extrapolations to  $p_t = 0$  of the inclusive charged particle cross-section.

bias from the low  $p_t$  region. The 7.0% error in the minimum-bias cross-section (eq. 2.4) does not affect the calculation of  $\langle n_{ch} \rangle$  or  $\langle p_t \rangle$ .

The value of  $\langle n_{ch} \rangle$  obtained in this analysis is seen to be in excellent agreement with previous analyses, shown in fig. 5.3 as a function of  $\sqrt{s}$ . The UA1 (1985), UA5 and NA22 data are taken from refs. [41,44,45,46]. Purely phase-space arguments predict a logarithmic growth of  $\langle n_{ch} \rangle$  with  $\sqrt{s}$  which seems to fit the data well. Measurements over the full rapidity range [47] indicate, however, that the increase is slightly faster with  $\sqrt{s}$  (a term in  $(\log s)^2$  is added) due to the onset of hard QCD processes. The evolution of  $\langle p_t \rangle$  with  $\sqrt{s}$  is shown in fig. 5.4 [41]. The increase in the hard scattering component is clearly indicated by the increase in the mean transverse momentum with increasing  $\sqrt{s}$ . The increases in  $\langle n_{ch} \rangle$  and  $\langle p_t \rangle$  with  $\sqrt{s}$  are, as expected, highly correlated. Fig. 5.5 shows the invariant charged track cross-section for three ranges of the charged multiplicity,  $n_{ch}$ : 4–20, 20–40 and

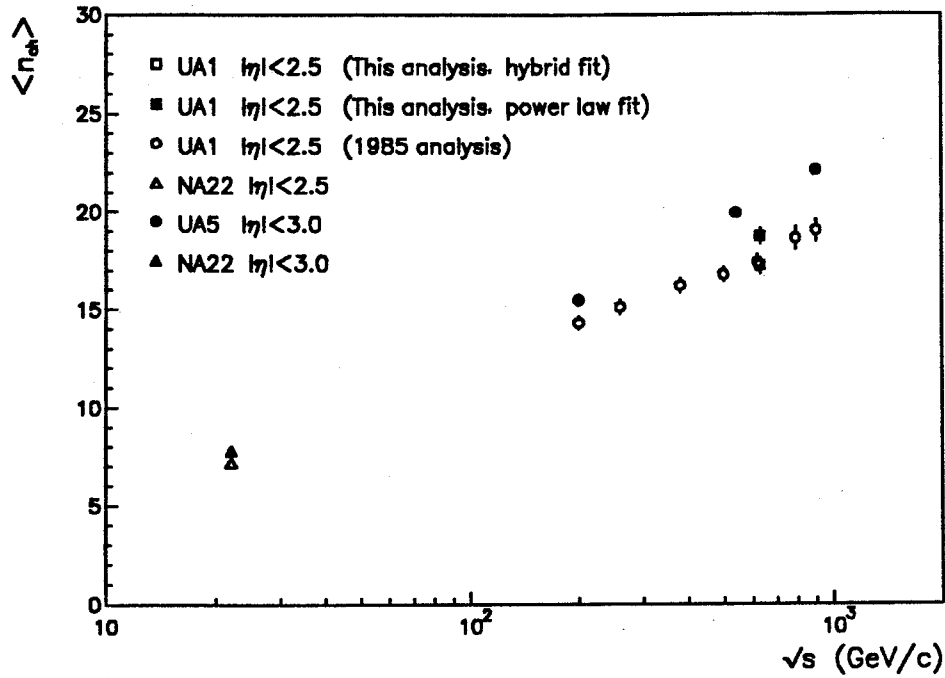


Figure 5.3: Variation of charged particle  $\langle n_{ch} \rangle$  with  $\sqrt{s}$  (the UA1, UA5 and NA22 data are taken from refs. [41,44,45,46]).

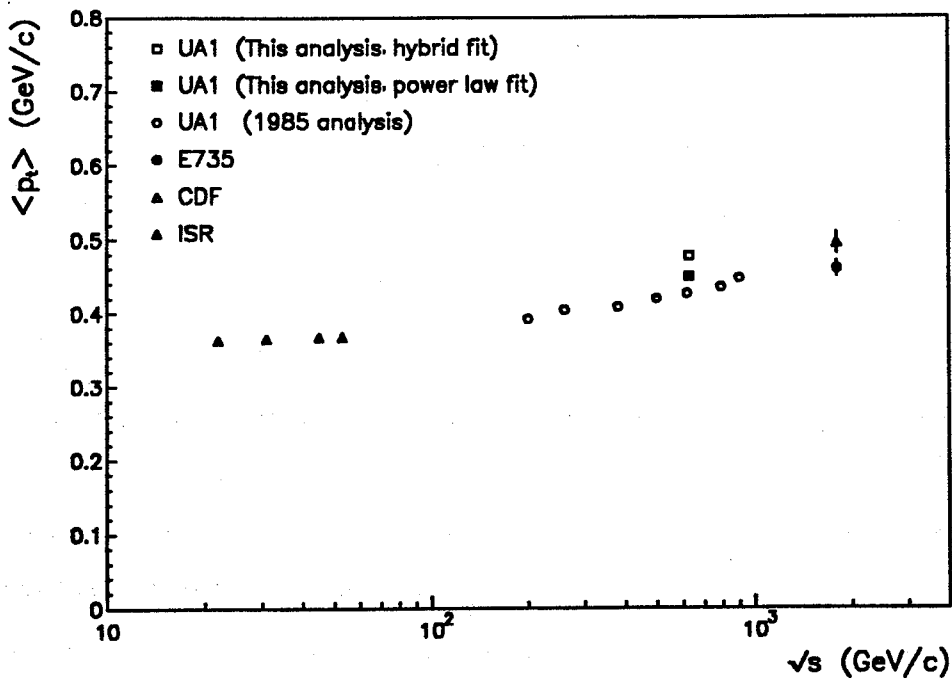


Figure 5.4: Variation of  $\langle p_t \rangle$  for charged particles with  $\sqrt{s}$  (ref. [41, and references therein]).

40-∞. To facilitate comparison of the relative shapes the two higher multiplicity

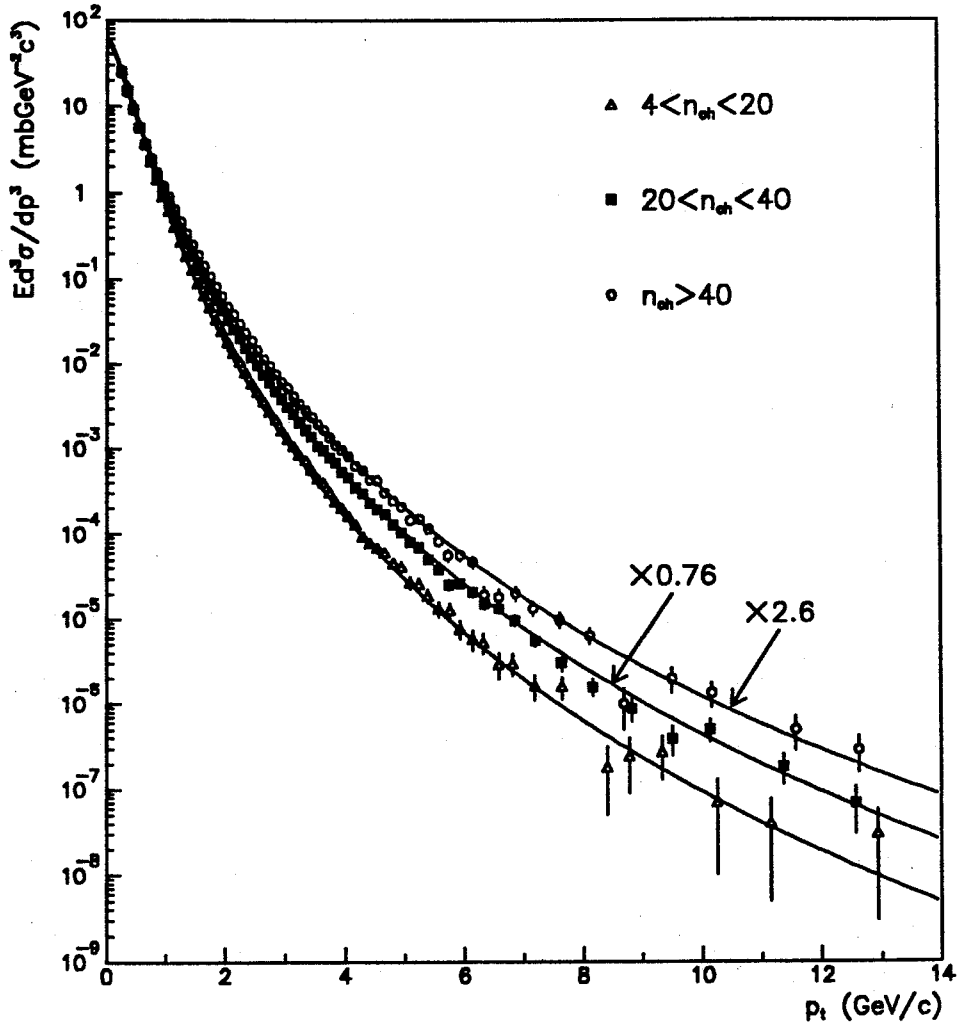


Figure 5.5: Invariant charged particle cross-section for different  $n_{ch}$  intervals.

curves have been normalised to the first data point of the lowest multiplicity curve. To extract the mean transverse momentum for the three curves, the data were fitted with the hybrid form of eq.5.3. The fit parameters are presented in table 5.3 and the resulting curves by the solid lines of fig. 5.5. The behaviour at low  $p_t$  is similar for each interval of  $n_{ch}$  but the high multiplicity events contain more high  $p_t$  particles, leading to a difference in  $\langle p_t \rangle$  of  $75 \text{ MeV}/c$  between the low



and high multiplicity curves.

$n_{ch}$	A ( $mbGeV^{-2}c^3$ )	$p_0$ ( $GeV/c$ )	n	$p_1$ ( $GeV/c$ )	$\langle p_t \rangle$ ( $GeV/c$ )	$\kappa$
4-20	251±11	1.21±0.05	9.74±0.25	0.71	0.439±0.013	1.182
20-40	141±3	1.54±0.04	9.60±0.16	0.36	0.489±0.011	1.153
40-∞	36.0±1.0	1.51±0.06	8.95±0.22	0.17	0.514±0.019	1.136

Table 5.3: Fit results of  $Ed^3\sigma/dp^3$  for different  $n_{ch}$  intervals.

The results presented so far have been corrected for the  $p_t$  cut of  $0.15GeV/c$  by extrapolation of cross-section to  $p_t = 0$ . Fig. 5.5 clearly shows that the multiplicity dependence of this correction must be considered when evaluating the topological cross-section  $d\sigma/dn_{ch}$ . The final column of table 5.3 gives three values for the multiplicative factor,  $\kappa(n_{ch})$ , required to correct  $n_{ch}$  for the  $p_t$  cut. The values for  $\kappa$  are constant within 4% for the full range of  $n_{ch}$ , so  $n_{ch}$  is corrected assuming a linear dependence of  $\kappa$  on  $n_{ch}$ . The corrected inclusive charged track multiplicity, for the pseudorapidity region  $|\eta| < 2.5$ , is presented in fig.5.6.

As discussed above, the 1985 data have been scaled by a factor of 0.88 to correct for the different minimum-bias cross-section used in the 1985 analysis. The good agreement of the curves for low multiplicity events reflects the slow variation with  $\sqrt{s}$  of the soft-hadronic part of the total cross-section. The increase with  $\sqrt{s}$  in the number of high multiplicity events is due to the hard QCD component.

The KNO-scaling hypothesis [48] predicts that the normalised multiplicity distribution,  $(\langle n \rangle / \sigma_{MB}) d\sigma_n / dn_{ch}$ , behaves as a universal function of the variable,  $z = n / \langle n_{ch} \rangle$ , in the asymptotic limit ( $\sqrt{s} \rightarrow \infty$ ). That is, that the shape of the KNO distribution is independent of  $\sqrt{s}$ . The UA5 collaboration has observed KNO scaling violations in non-single diffractive events (all  $\eta$ ) due mainly to very high multiplicity events ( $z > 4$ ) [49]. The KNO multiplicity distributions are pre-

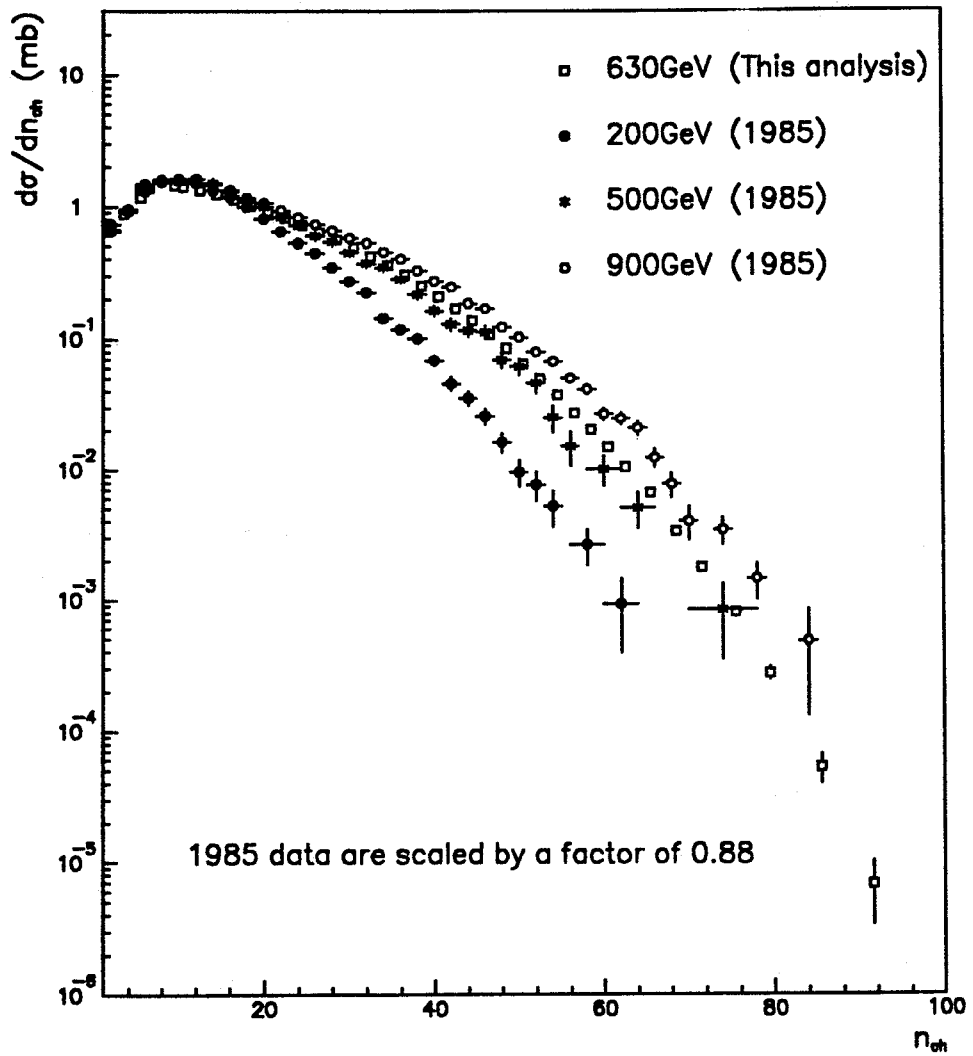


Figure 5.6: Topological cross-section,  $d\sigma/dn_{ch}$ , for  $|\eta| < 2.5$  (1985 UA1 data are from ref. [41]).

sented in fig. 5.7 in terms of the KNO-scaling variables. The data are consistent

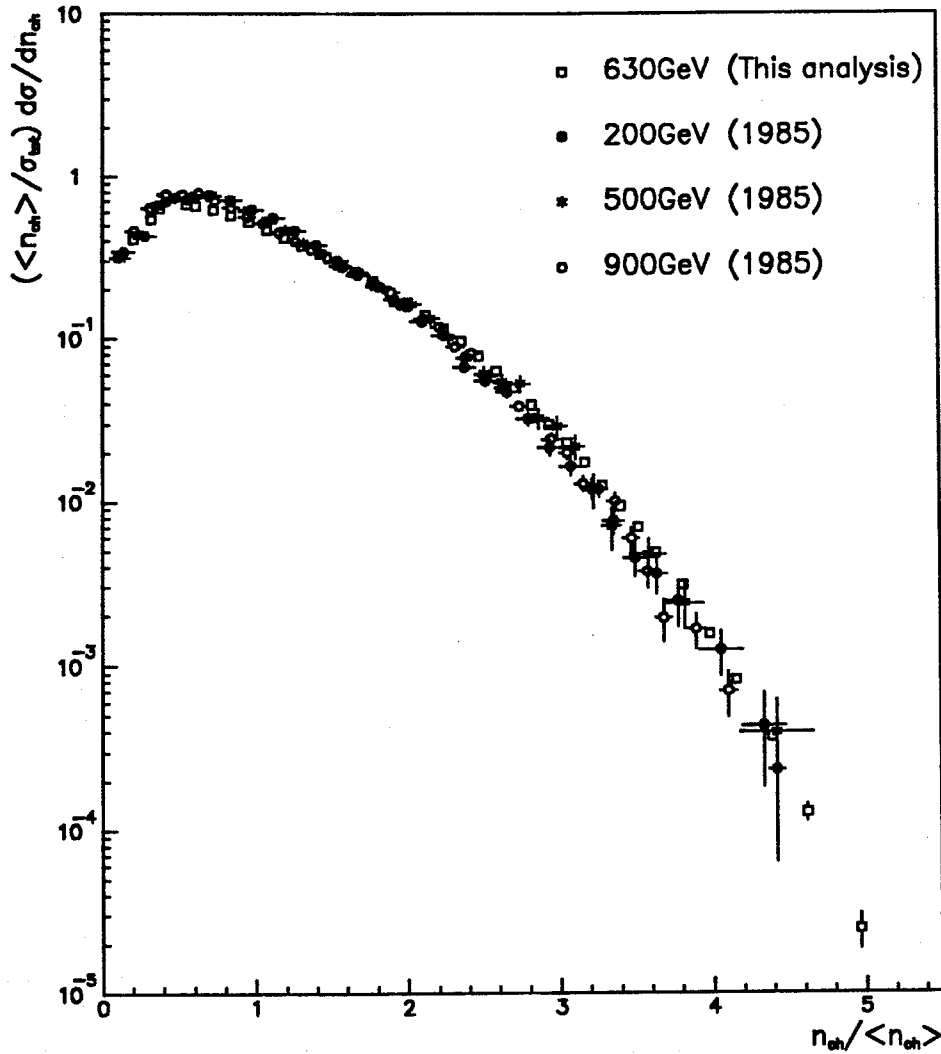


Figure 5.7: KNO multiplicity distributions  $|\eta| < 2.5$  (1985 UA1 data are from ref. [41]).

with a unique distribution.

The detailed variation of the mean transverse momentum with charged track multiplicity has been measured. A multiplicity-dependent correction factor for the  $p_t$  cut has been applied to the mean transverse momentum in a similar way to the  $\kappa$  correction of  $n_{ch}$ . The variation of  $\langle p_t \rangle$  with  $n_{ch}$  is shown in fig. 5.8. For low multiplicities the mean  $p_t$  is particularly sensitive to whether a power

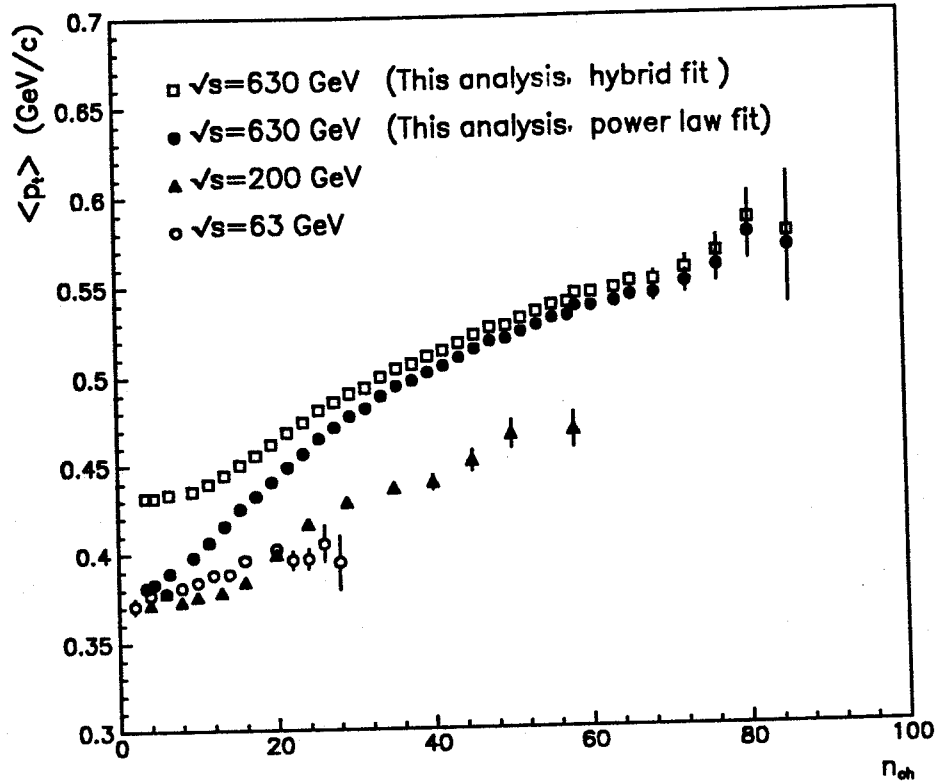


Figure 5.8: Mean  $p_t$  as a function of the charged particle multiplicity (the lower energy data are from ref. [41]).

law or a hybrid form is used in the extrapolation to  $p_t = 0$  so corrected curves for both assumptions are shown. Lower energy  $p\bar{p}$  data [41] at  $\sqrt{s} = 63\text{GeV}$  and  $\sqrt{s} = 200\text{GeV}$  are shown for comparison. For low multiplicity events the mean  $p_t$  is almost independent of  $\sqrt{s}$ . The strong correlation between  $\langle p_t \rangle$  and  $n_{ch}$  may be a result of the increased gluon radiation in high  $q^2$  interactions. At large multiplicities, the mean  $p_t$  reaches a value comparable with the mean  $p_t$  measured in events containing jets with large transverse energy [50].

## 6. $V^0$ reconstruction

A  $V^0$  may be defined as any electrically neutral particle which decays into two charged particles with a V-like topology. Two tracks are seen in the drift chamber originating from the same point in space. There is no incoming track since the neutral parent causes no ionisation in the gas. By searching for track pairs with this characteristic shape, the following decays:

$$K_S^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^- \quad (6.1)$$

$$\Lambda^0 \rightarrow p \pi^- \quad (6.2)$$

$$\bar{\Lambda}^0 \rightarrow \bar{p} \pi^+ \quad (6.3)$$

may be reconstructed. Neutral pions are abundantly produced which decay to gamma pairs with  $B = 98.8\%$ . In the electric field of a nucleus, for example in the beam-pipe or the chamber walls, these may subsequently convert to  $e^+e^-$  pairs [51], which are also reconstructed as  $V^0$ 's.

The decay:  $K_L^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^- \pi^0$  has a branching fraction of 12.4% and a mean decay length of  $c\tau = 15.54m$ . A small fraction of these decays occur within the chamber, and since the  $\pi^0$  is not observed they have a  $V^0$  topology. The reconstructed  $V^0$  momentum vector does not, however, account for the unseen  $\pi^0$  so the  $V^0$  will not be associated to the primary vertex.

### 6.1 $V^0$ finding

The standard UA1 event processing software includes routines for the identification of  $K_S^0$ ,  $\Lambda^0$  and  $\bar{\Lambda}^0$  decays and  $\gamma$ -conversions [52,53,54]. The output from the

$V^0$	Mass (MeV)	Lifetime (sec)	Decay length (cm)
$\gamma$	—	—	—
$K_S^0$	497.67	$(0.8922 \pm 0.0020) \times 10^{-10}$	2.675
$\Lambda^0/\bar{\Lambda}^0$	1115.63	$(2.631 \pm 0.020) \times 10^{-10}$	7.89

Table 6.1: Properties of  $V^0$  particles

production includes  $V^0$  data banks with very loose selection criteria eliminating the need for repetitive and time-consuming computation each time  $V^0$  studies are made on a particular data-set.

All pairs of positive and a negative tracks are considered as the possible products of a  $V^0$  decay, provided the tracks pass the basic track quality cuts (table A.1). To ensure that the momentum is well measured, the track must also satisfy  $\sigma_p/p < 20\%$ . Each of the decay tracks is required to have  $p > 100 \text{ MeV}/c$ , since very low momentum tracks suffer from multiple scattering. Those  $V^0$  candidates with  $p_t < 200 \text{ MeV}/c$  or rapidity  $y > 3.0$  are rejected. Unlike the combinatorial background, the tracks of the  $V^0$  decay products do not, in general, point back to the primary vertex. A track association  $\chi^2$  is defined:

$$\chi_{i,ass}^2 = (b_i/\sigma_{b_i})^2 \quad (6.4)$$

where  $b_i$  is the impact parameter of track  $i$  (fig. 6.1) with an error  $\sigma_{b_i}$ . Cutting at  $2\sigma_{b_i}$ , by requiring  $\chi_{i,ass}^2 > 4.0$  for both decay tracks, greatly reduces the background of random pairs from the primary vertex which fake a  $V^0$  decay. The association of the  $V^0$  to the primary vertex is required by rejecting those candidates with  $b(V^0) > 3 \text{ mm}$ . This cut reduces the efficiency for  $V^0$ 's coming from secondary decays, for example  $\Xi^- \rightarrow \Lambda \pi^-$  with a branching fraction  $B \simeq 100\%$  and a decay length of  $c\tau = 4.91 \text{ cm}$ . In addition, candidates with  $b(V^0)/\sigma_{b(V^0)} > 3.0$  are rejected.

The two tracks must cross within a tolerance of  $3 \text{ mm}$  in the  $xy$ -plane and  $30 \text{ cm}$  in  $z$  — the latter being a very weak requirement. Depending on where the wire

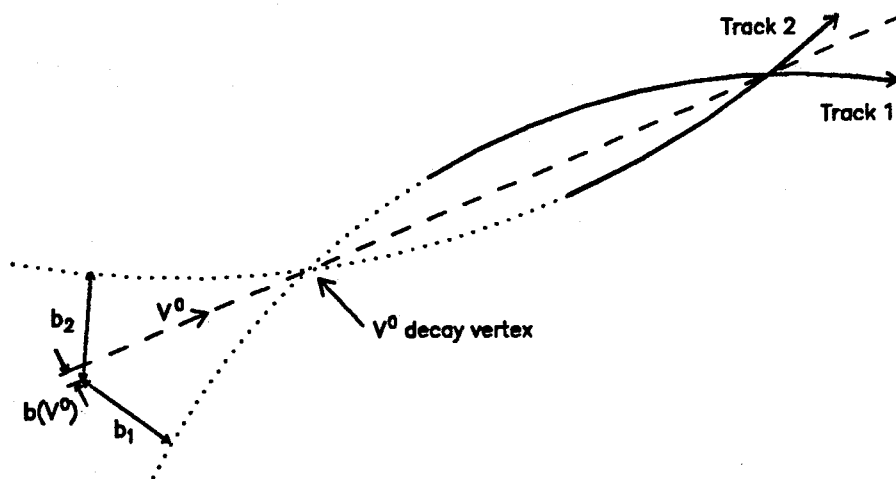


Figure 6.1:  $V^0$  decay topology

hits start there are either one or two possible  $V^0$  vertices. Candidates are rejected if the decay distance of the  $V^0$  is negative, or if the digitisings start before the first crossing point from the vertex, thereby violating causality. There is a tolerance on the latter condition of  $10\text{mm}$ , corresponding to the separation of adjacent sense wires. The two tracks are then fitted in the  $sz$ -plane constraining each track to start at the same point. If there are still two possible crossing-points then that with the smaller  $\chi^2$  is selected.

The invariant mass,  $M$ , in a 2-body decay may be written

$$M = \sqrt{(p_1^2 + m_1^2) + (p_2^2 + m_2^2) + 2\sqrt{p_1^2 + m_1^2}\sqrt{p_2^2 + m_2^2} - P^2} \quad (6.5)$$

where  $M$ ,  $P$  and  $p_i$ ,  $m_i$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ) are the masses and momenta of the initial and final state particles. The invariant mass spectra of the  $V^0$ , evaluated assuming each of the hypotheses (eqs.6.1–6.3) in turn, are presented in fig. 6.2. Broad mass windows (table 6.2) were defined for each hypothesis and the  $V^0$  candidate was rejected if, for no hypothesis, did it fall within the appropriate mass window. The mass cut reduces the size of the sample with negligible loss of  $K_S^0$ 's ( $< 0.1\%$ ). At this stage, it is possible for candidates to satisfy more than one mass hypothesis.

For the 1987 data sample, no cuts were made on the  $V^0$  decay length nor on

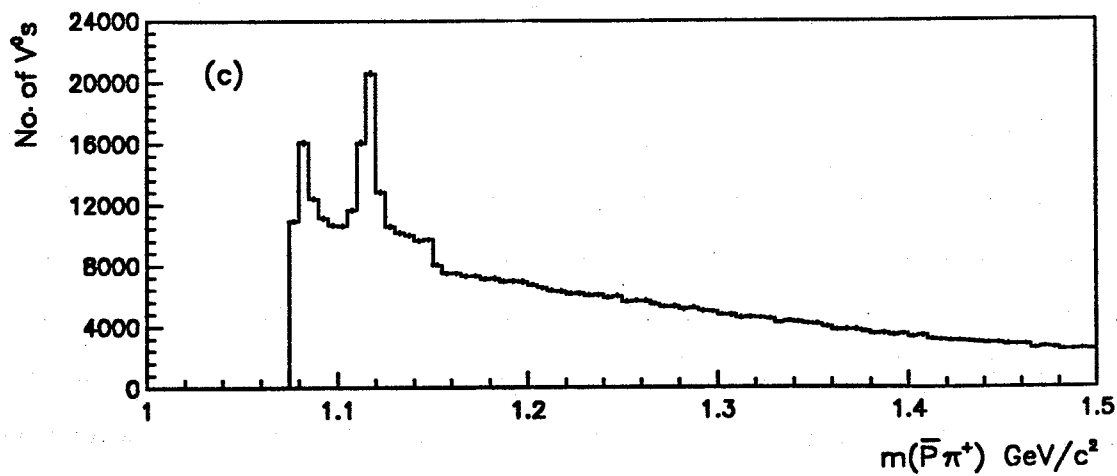
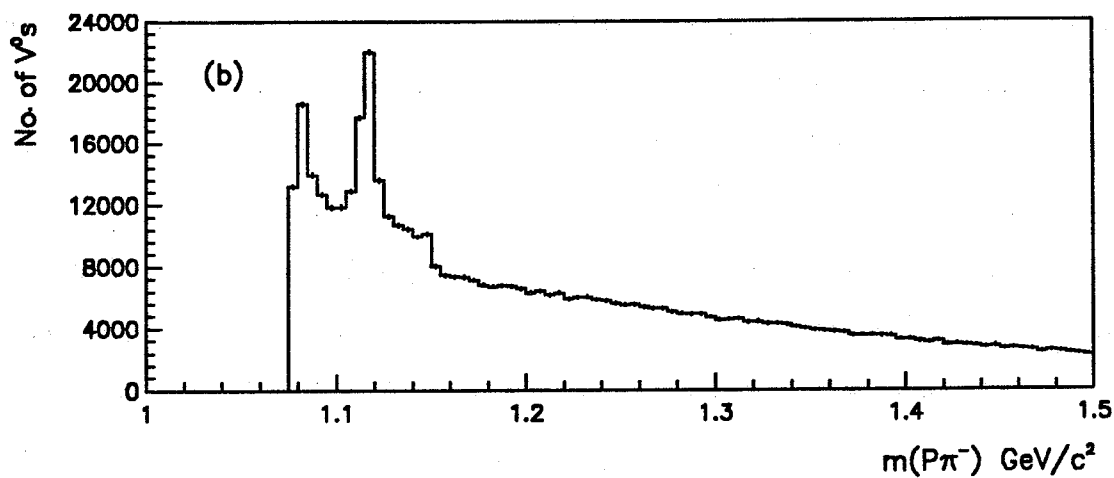
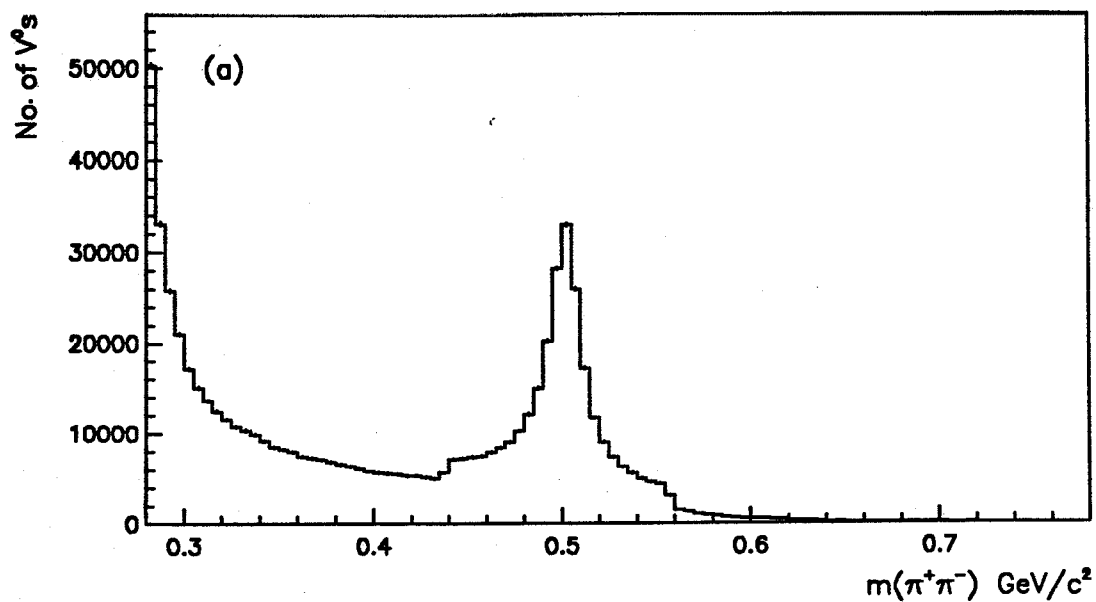


Figure 6.2:  $V^0$  mass spectra (production cuts): (a)  $K_S^0$ , (b)  $\Lambda$ , and (c)  $\bar{\Lambda}$



$V^0$	Production Mass Window (MeV)	Tight mass window (MeV)
$\gamma$	0 – 70	—
$K_S^0$	438 – 558	477.7 – 517.7
$\Lambda^0/\bar{\Lambda}^0$	1081 – 1151	1110.6 – 1120.6

Table 6.2: Mass Windows  $V^0$  selection

the  $p_t$  of the decay products relative to the  $V^0$ .

For all track pairs surviving these cuts, a  $V^0$  data structure was created to store basic information on the candidate, including reference links to the data banks describing the daughter tracks, the decay vertex, and their associated errors. From these the kinematic variables of the  $V^0$  may easily be calculated, so such information was not stored. Track-sharing may occur at this stage where the same track is used by more than one  $V^0$  candidate.

The cuts described so far are referred to as the “production cuts”. From fig 6.2 it can be seen that there is still a large background in the  $V^0$  samples. In particular, the  $K_S^0$  is contaminated by  $\gamma$ -conversions, the random selection of track pairs with a similar topology to the decay products of the  $K_S^0$ , and the  $\Lambda/\bar{\Lambda}$  reflection.

To help understand the characteristics of these backgrounds, a sample of 5000 minimum-bias events was generated using the Isajet Monte-Carlo [39], passed through the detector simulation and fully reconstructed. Neutral pions were permitted to decay to two photons which could then convert to an  $e^+e^-$  pair in the beam-pipe, CD walls and the chamber gas. The production of  $K_S^0$  and  $\Lambda/\bar{\Lambda}$  was simulated and these decayed to hadrons according to the appropriate lifetimes and branching fractions. Furthermore, their secondary production through hadronic interactions in the detector material was simulated. These events were analysed in the same way as the real data with the advantage that the generated and reconstructed events could be compared. In particular the particle identities of the reconstructed tracks were considered known if the majority of the points used

corresponded to the simulated digitisings of a single Monte-Carlo track.

Figure 6.3 shows the mass spectrum, for the  $K_S^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$  hypothesis, of all reconstructed  $V^0$  decays. The dominant source of background is from  $\gamma$ -conversions, shown by the hatched region. The remaining background is from track combinatorials with an almost negligible contamination from  $\Lambda$  decays. In the following

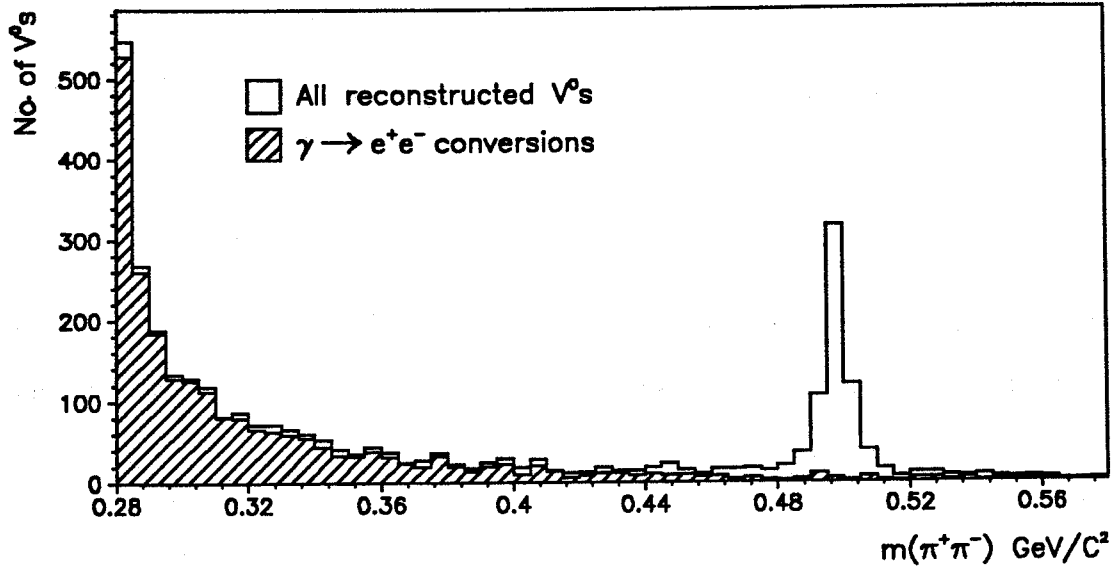


Figure 6.3: Simulation of  $\gamma \rightarrow e^+e^-$  background to  $K_S^0$  signal

sections the *real data* is considered, and additional cuts for reducing the  $K_S^0$  background in the  $K_S^0$  sample are described; the Monte-Carlo data are used to predict some of the topological features of the background processes.

## 6.2 Decay time probability

Fig. 6.4 shows the  $V^0$  decay length distribution (a) in the  $xy$  and (b) in the  $yz$  plane, for the production cuts only. In fig. 6.4(a) a peak is seen due to photon conversions in the CD chamber wall at  $x \simeq \pm 1m$ . Similarly, in fig. 6.4(b) a peak at  $r \simeq 10cm$ , corresponding to the beam-pipe and the CD inner wall, is apparent. In the  $xy$ -plane fiducial cuts could be applied to remove some  $V^0$ s with vertices in material boundaries but for most of the detector this is not practical due to

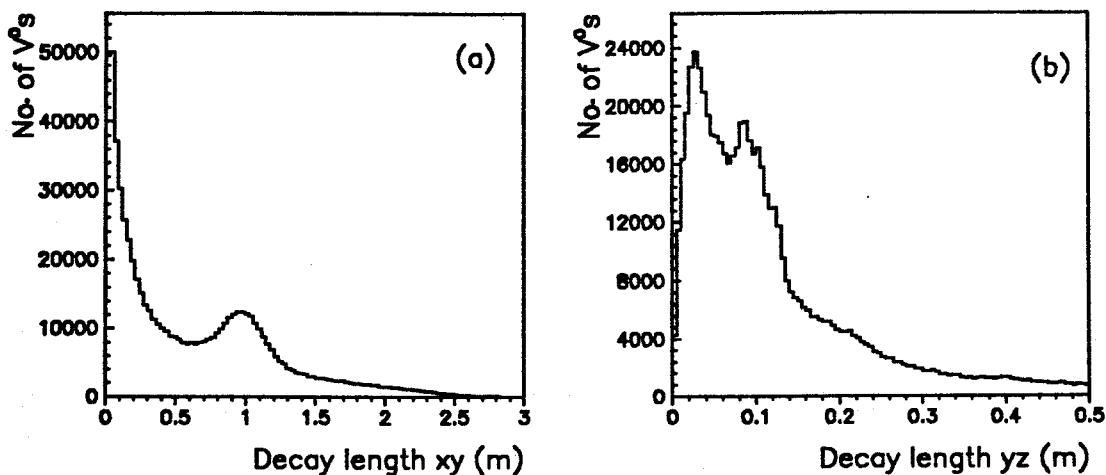


Figure 6.4:  $V^0$  decay length in (a) the  $xy$  plane and (b) the  $yz$  plane.

the poorer resolution of the CD in the  $z$  coordinate. Cutting the decay length is also undesirable since this removes high transverse momentum  $V^0$ s decaying some distance from the vertex.

Since the  $K_S^0$  lifetime distribution is decreasing exponentially with time, the probability  $P_d$  that a particular  $K_S^0$  of momentum,  $p$ , decays within a decay length  $d$  is given by

$$P_d = 1 - e^{-d/c\tau\beta\gamma} \quad (6.6)$$

where  $c\tau = 2.675\text{cm}$  for  $K_S^0$ , and  $\beta\gamma = p/m_{K^0}$  is the time dilation factor. Equal bins of  $P_d$  should contain the same number of  $V^0$ s, so the  $dn/dP_d$  distribution should be flat in  $P_d$ .

The experimental decay probability distribution is shown in fig. 6.5(a). The drop in the distribution at low values of  $P_d$  is due to the loss of efficiency for short decay lengths when the decay products tend to be associated to the primary vertex. For example, for a  $K_S^0$  with  $p = 500\text{MeV}/c$ , the region  $P_d < 0.2$  corresponds to a decay length of less than  $6\text{mm}$ . The spikes at  $P_d \approx 1$  correspond to  $V^0$  candidates which are anomalously long compared to the  $K_S^0$  lifetime. Fig. 6.5 also shows (inset) the Monte-Carlo decay lifetime probability distributions for (b) gamma conversions, and (c) the combinatorial background, assuming the  $K_S^0$  hypothesis;

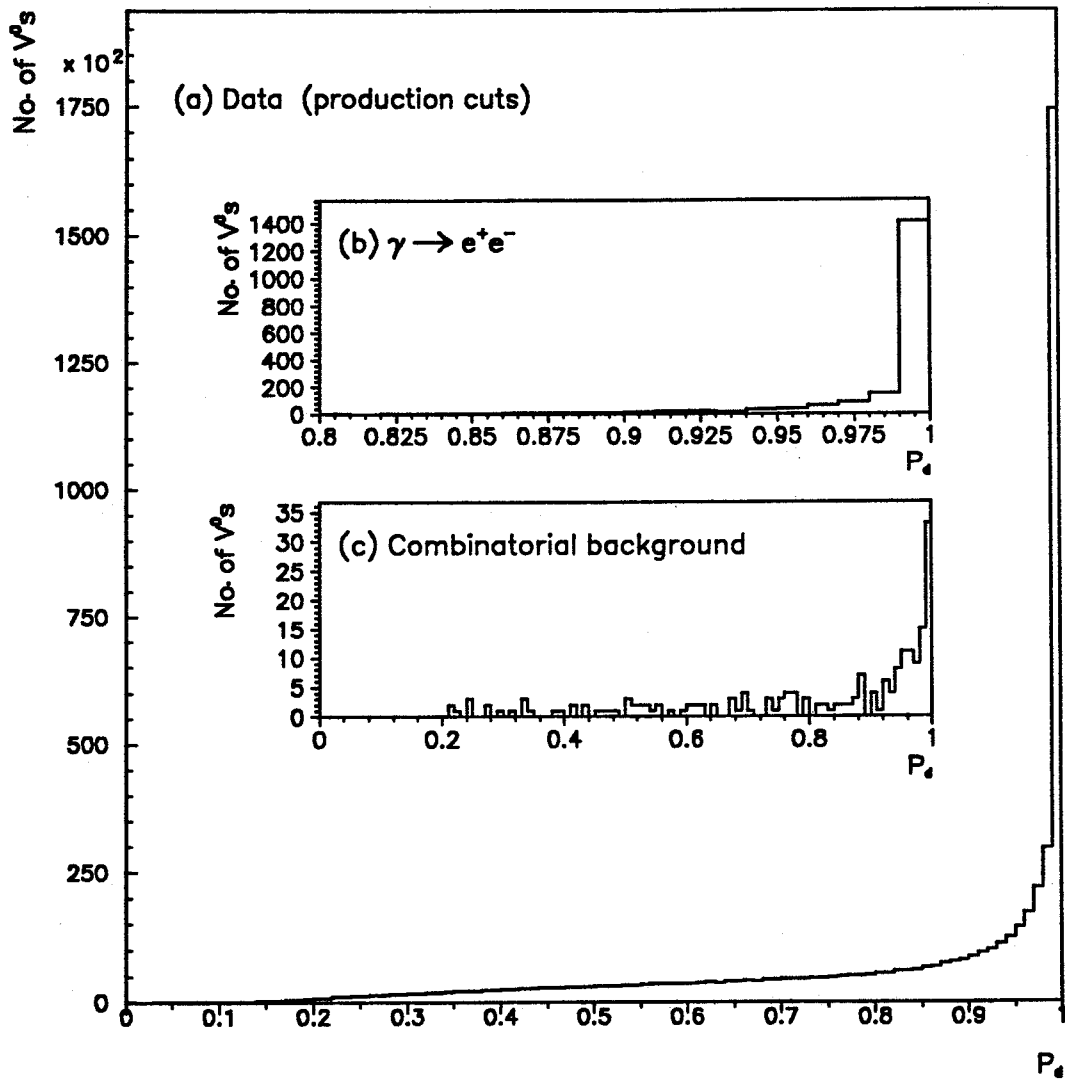


Figure 6.5: Decay probability,  $P_d$ : (a) Data (production cuts), and Monte-Carlo, (b)  $\gamma \rightarrow e^+e^-$  and (c) combinatorial background.

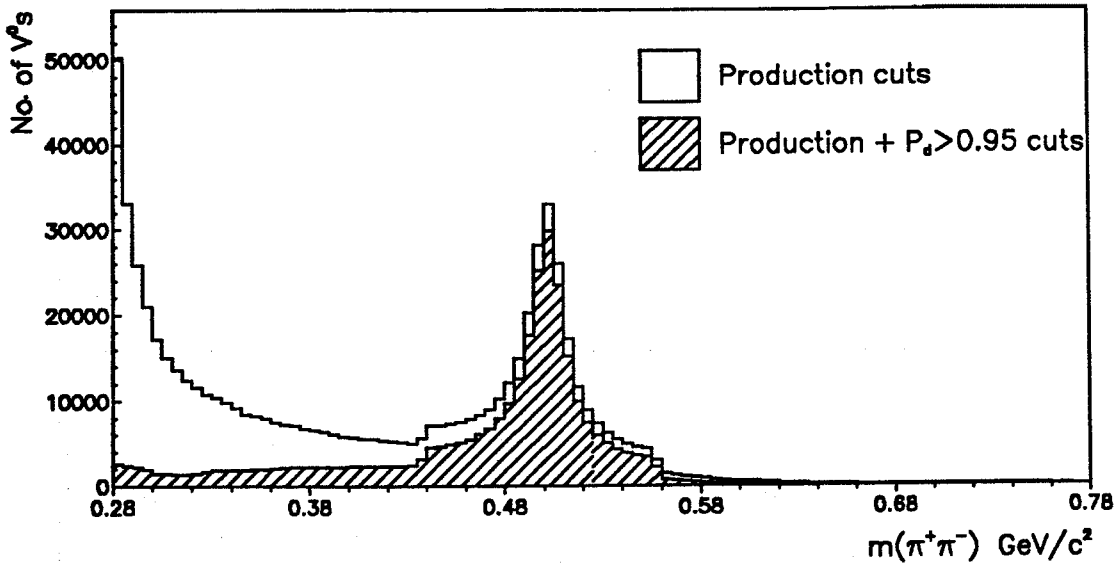


Figure 6.6: Mass for  $K_S^0$  hypothesis showing the effect of the  $P_d > 0.95$  cut.

note the different horizontal scales. The Monte-Carlo gamma data is strongly peaked at  $P_d \simeq 1$ , which is expected for low momentum photons converting some distance from the primary vertex. There may also be a small contribution to the combinatorial background from the secondary interactions of hadrons in the beam-pipe and the chamber walls.

Fig. 6.6 shows the effect on the  $K_S^0$  mass spectrum of applying a cut of  $P_d > 0.95$  in addition to the production cuts. The hatched region corresponds to those candidates surviving the  $P_d$  cut. There is no  $p_t$  bias with this cut; the  $K_S^0$  reconstruction efficiency (chap. 7) decreased by a factor of only  $0.97 \pm 0.07$  at  $p_t = 5 \text{ GeV}/c$ . Thus, all  $V^0$  candidates with a decay lifetime probability of  $P_d > 0.95$  were rejected.

### 6.3 $\text{Cos}\theta^*$

From Monte-Carlo it was found that 97% of gamma conversions have an opening angle in the projected plane of less than  $2^\circ$ , suggesting this as a powerful cut to reduce the  $K_S^0$  background. High transverse momentum  $K_S^0$ 's, however, also tend to have small opening angles so such a cut is hardest on that part of the sample with lowest statistics. By considering the angular distribution of the decay in the

rest-frame of the  $V^0$  a less biased and equally effective cut is possible.

In the  $V^0$  rest-frame,  $\theta^*$  is defined to be the angle between the positive decay track and the  $V^0$  line of flight. Since the  $K_S^0$  has zero spin it decays isotropically in its rest-frame. A uniform decay distribution in solid angle,  $d\Omega^* = \sin\theta^*d\theta^*$ , corresponds a flat differential distribution in  $\cos\theta^*$ . The experimental  $\cos\theta^*$  distribution for the  $K_S^0$  hypothesis is shown in fig. 6.7(a). For gamma conversions,

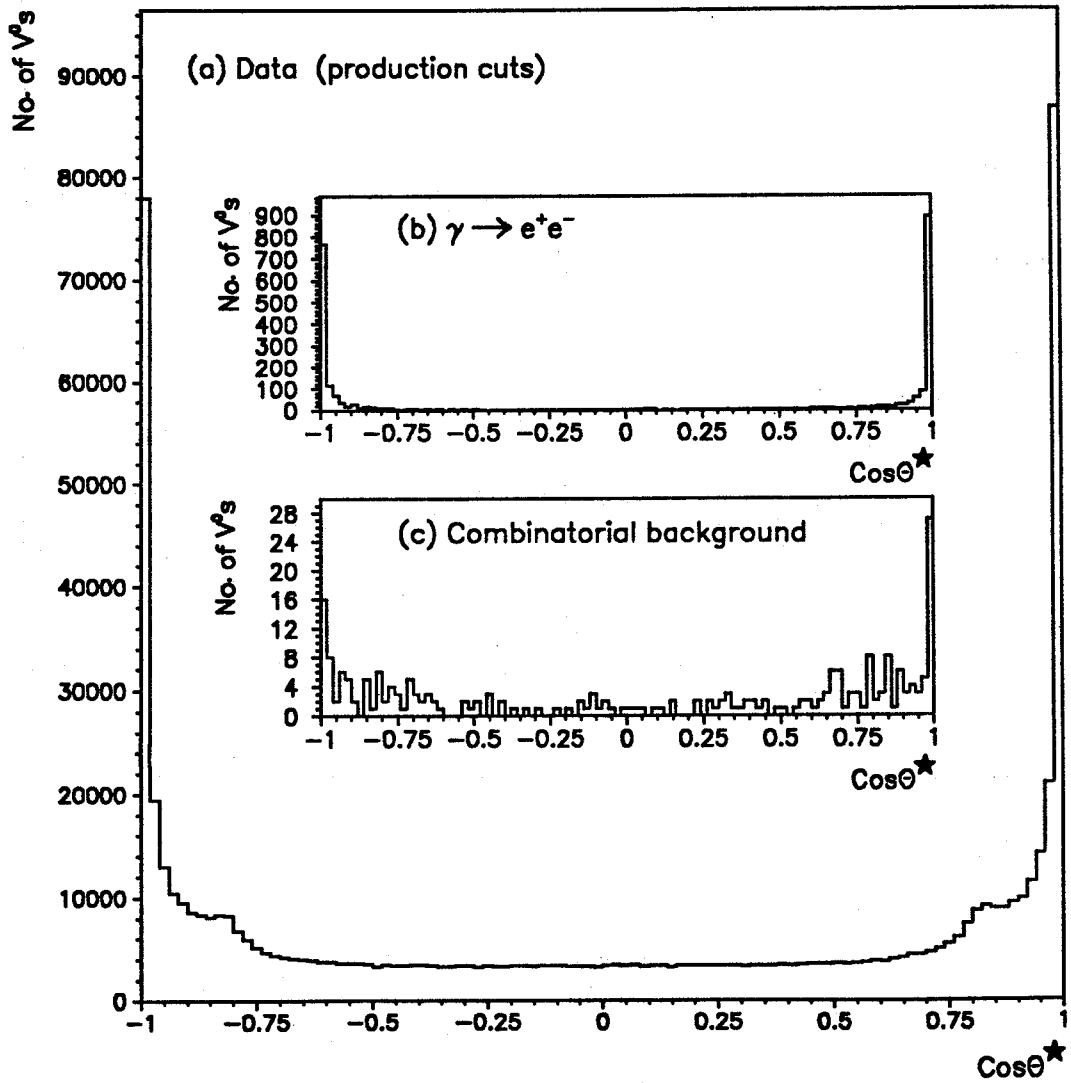


Figure 6.7:  $K_S^0$  hypothesis:  $\cos\theta^*$  for (a) data (production cuts) and Monte-Carlo, (b)  $\gamma \rightarrow e^+e^-$  and (c) combinatorial background.

the incorrect Lorentz boost of the two electrons under the  $K_S^0$  decay hypothesis, results in sharp peaks at  $\cos\theta^* \simeq \pm 1$ , as shown in fig. 6.7(b) for the Monte-Carlo

sample. Fig. 6.7(c) shows the  $\cos\theta^*$  distribution for the random background. This is also biased towards  $|\cos\theta^*| \simeq 1$ , with the untagged  $K_S^0$ 's populating the whole spectrum.

The mass spectrum under the  $K_S^0$  hypothesis with the production cuts is shown in figure 6.8. The hatched region shows the effect of adding a cut of  $|\cos\theta^*| > 0.75$ . From single  $K_S^0$  Monte-Carlo studies (chap. 7) this reduction factor was found to

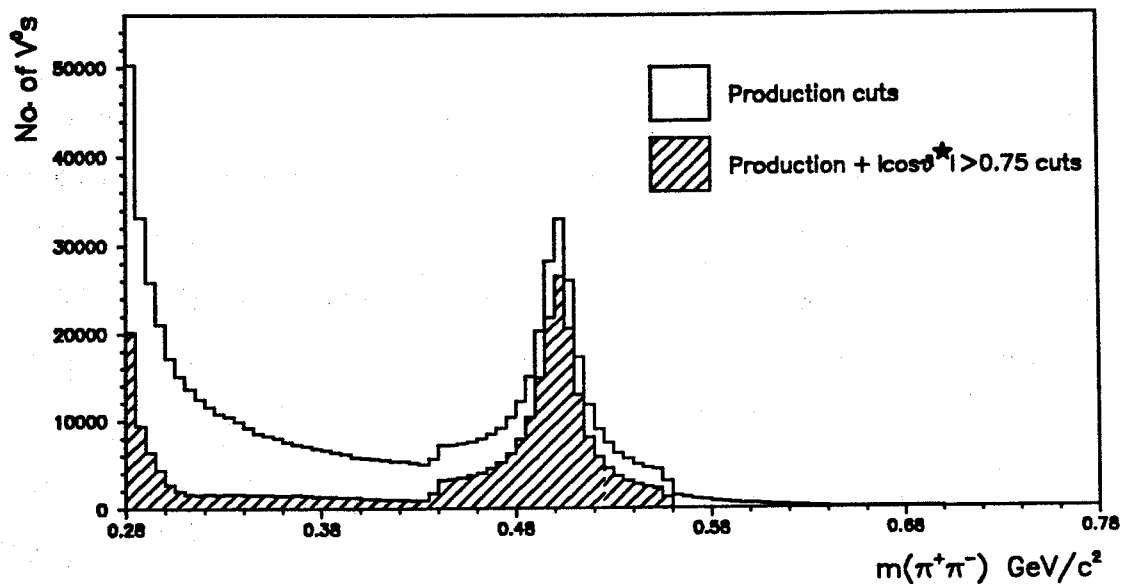


Figure 6.8: Mass for  $K_S^0$  hypothesis showing the effect of the  $\cos\theta^* > 0.75$  cut.

be independent of  $p_t$ , as expected. Thus, a cut was made in  $\cos\theta^*$ , under the  $K_S^0$  hypothesis, if  $|\cos\theta^*| > 0.75$ .

#### 6.4 Fiducial $\Phi$ and decay plane orientation cuts

Prior to analysis, the dip-angle correction described in §4.4 was applied to all the tracks in the event, including the  $V^0$  decay tracks. As discussed in §4.3, the wires close to the beam are particularly affected by noise. In line with the charged particle analysis, a fiducial cut was made whereby all  $V^0$ 's having either decay track within  $7.5^\circ$ , in the projected plane, of the  $x$ -axis were removed from the sample.

The poor resolution in the charge-division coordinate adversely affects the  $V^0$  reconstruction, especially in the horizontal plane. The track-fitting of the event requires that the tracks of the  $V^0$  be coplanar, within errors, with the primary event vertex. A unit vector normal to this decay plane is then defined:

$$\vec{n} = (n_1, n_2, n_3) = \frac{\vec{p}_{pos} \times \vec{p}_{neg}}{|\vec{p}_{pos}| |\vec{p}_{neg}|} \quad (6.7)$$

where the components,  $n_i$ , are the direction cosines of the normal vector, and  $\vec{p}_{pos}$  and  $\vec{p}_{neg}$  are the momentum vectors of the decay products. For  $n_3 \simeq \pm 1$  the decay plane of the  $V^0$  coincides with the bending plane so the tracks are well measured. For small values of  $|n_3|$  the momenta of the decay tracks have large  $z$  components and so suffer from the poor resolution in the charge division coordinate. Furthermore, the tracks tend to have fewer hits and, being largely in the direction of the magnetic field, they have little curvature. This results in a less accurate measurement of the momentum.

Fig. 6.9 shows the  $K_S^0$  mass spectrum for different ranges of  $|n_3|$ . A loss in reconstruction efficiency is seen as  $|n_3| \rightarrow 0$ , so all  $V^0$ 's with  $|n_3| < 0.3$  were rejected. The decay plane normal is ill-defined for  $V^0$ 's with very small opening angles such as gamma conversions. These, however, are efficiently removed by the  $p_d$  and  $\cos\theta^*$  cuts. The width of the distributions shown in fig. 6.9 is seen to increase with decreasing  $n_3$  as the track parameters become less well measured. The  $\pi^+\pi^-$  invariant mass spectra are shown in fig. 6.10 for different ranges of the mass error,  $\sigma_m$ . There is no  $\gamma$  component in the region  $\sigma_m < 10 MeV/c^2$  because in the production, a nominal  $10 MeV/c^2$  was added to  $\sigma_m$  for all  $V^0$ 's satisfying the  $\gamma$  mass hypothesis, to allow for the large uncertainty in  $\sigma_m$  for almost co-linear tracks. For  $\sigma_m > 40 MeV/c^2$  the  $K_S^0$  signal is small compared to the background but these tend to be the higher transverse momentum  $K_S^0$ 's with small opening angles. Adding a cut of  $\sigma_m > 40 MeV/c^2$  to the production cuts reduces the  $K_S^0$  reconstruction efficiency (calculated as described in chap. 7) by a factor of  $1.8 \pm 0.2$  at  $p_t = 5 GeV/c$ , so to maintain statistics at high  $p_t$  no cut was made on  $\sigma_m$ .



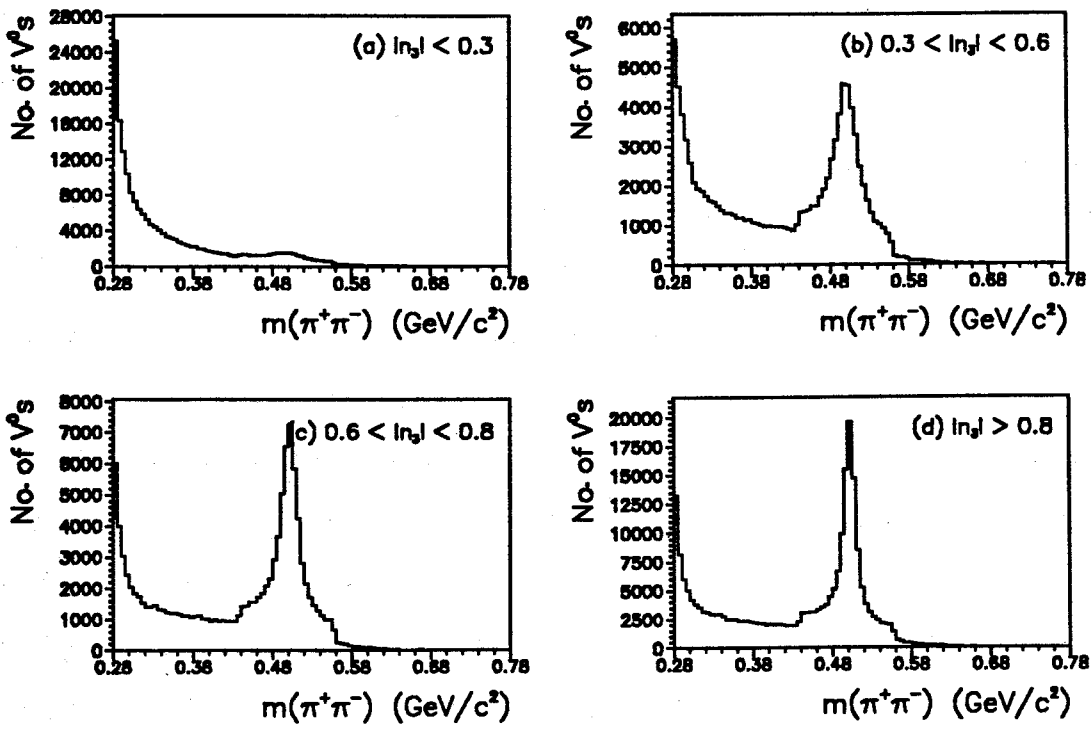


Figure 6.9: Mass spectra for  $K_S^0$  hypothesis as a function of  $n_3$ .

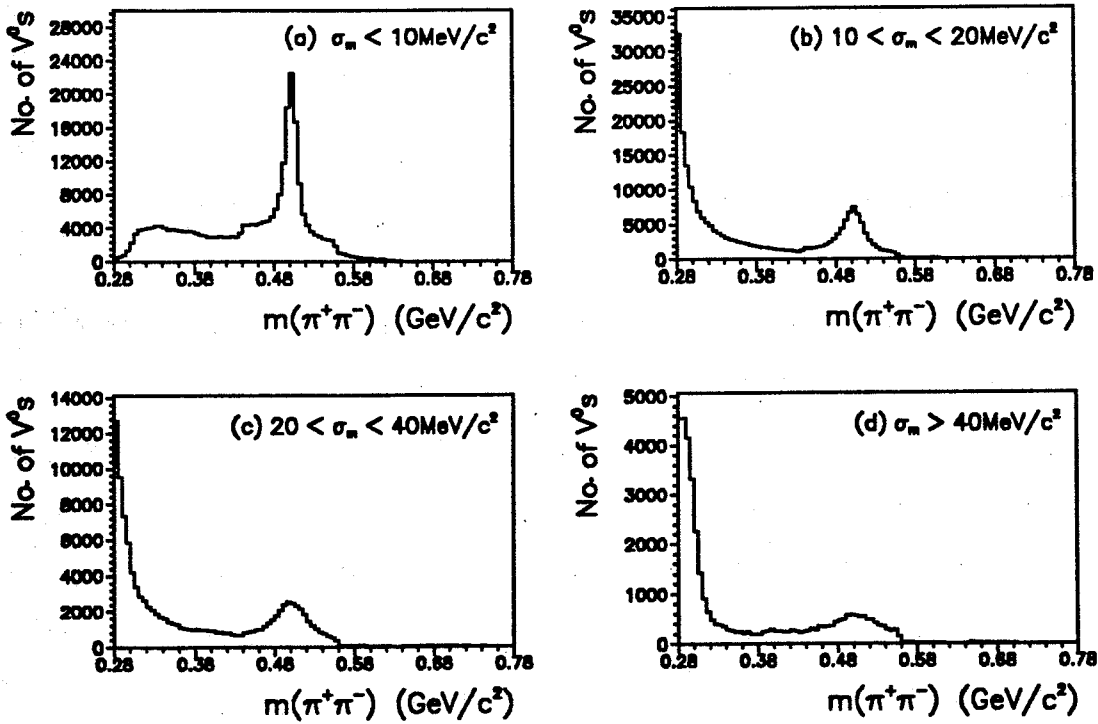


Figure 6.10: Mass spectra for the  $K_S^0$  hypothesis as a function of the mass error.

## 6.5 $K_S^0/\Lambda$ ambiguities

It is possible for  $V^0$  candidates to have a sensible reconstructed mass for both the  $K_S^0$  and the  $\Lambda/\bar{\Lambda}$  hypotheses. Due to the low  $Q$ -value for the  $\Lambda \rightarrow p\pi$  decay, and since the proton is much heavier than the pion,  $\Lambda$  decays are asymmetric in the laboratory frame with the proton emitted forwards in the  $\Lambda$  direction. Misidentification of  $\Lambda$  decays can occur with the momentum imbalance of the pion and proton being absorbed by the Lorentz boost to the (assumed)  $K_S^0$  rest-frame in which the decay tracks will be at small angles with respect to the  $K_S^0$  line of flight. The  $\cos\theta^*$  distribution is therefore peaked at +1 due to mis-assigned  $\Lambda \rightarrow p\pi^-$  decays and at -1 due to  $\bar{\Lambda} \rightarrow \bar{p}\pi^+$ . The  $\cos\theta^*$  cut described above removes the  $\Lambda$  decays which contaminate the  $K_S^0$  sample. Fig. 6.11 is the Dalitz plot for the  $K_S^0$  and  $\Lambda/\bar{\Lambda}$  hypotheses for the production cuts only, which is to be compared with fig. 6.12 which has in addition the cut  $|\cos\theta^*| > 0.75$ . With the  $\cos\theta^*$  cut,

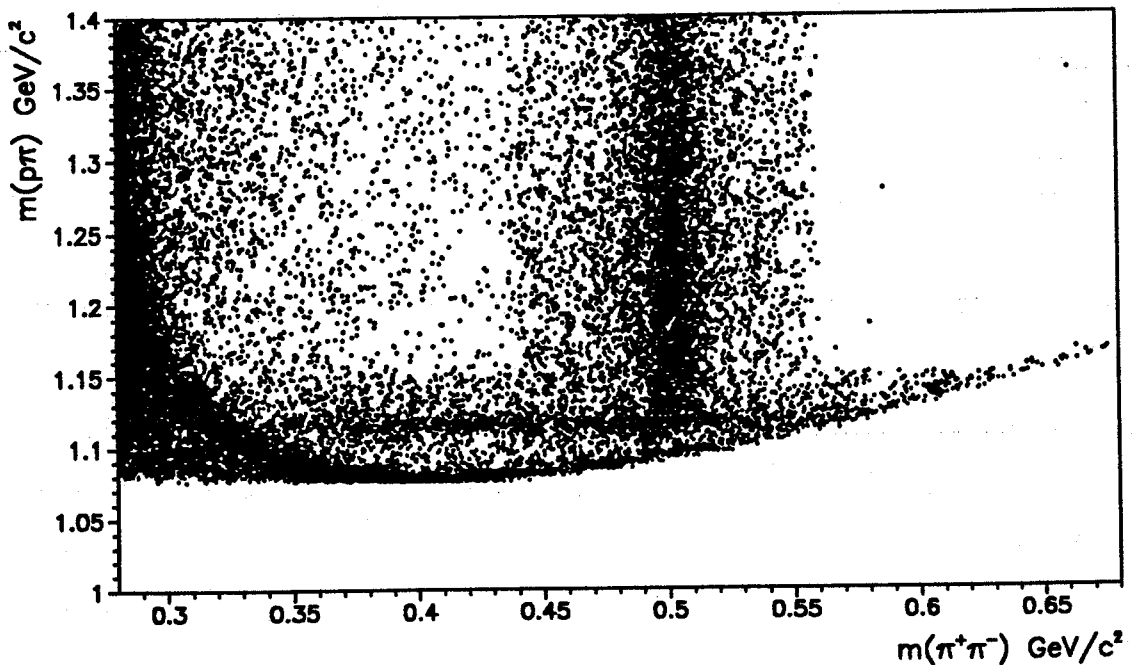


Figure 6.11:  $K_S^0 - \Lambda/\bar{\Lambda}$  Dalitz plot (production cuts)

no  $\Lambda$  or  $\bar{\Lambda}$  signal is seen for candidates falling in the loose mass window of the  $K_S^0$

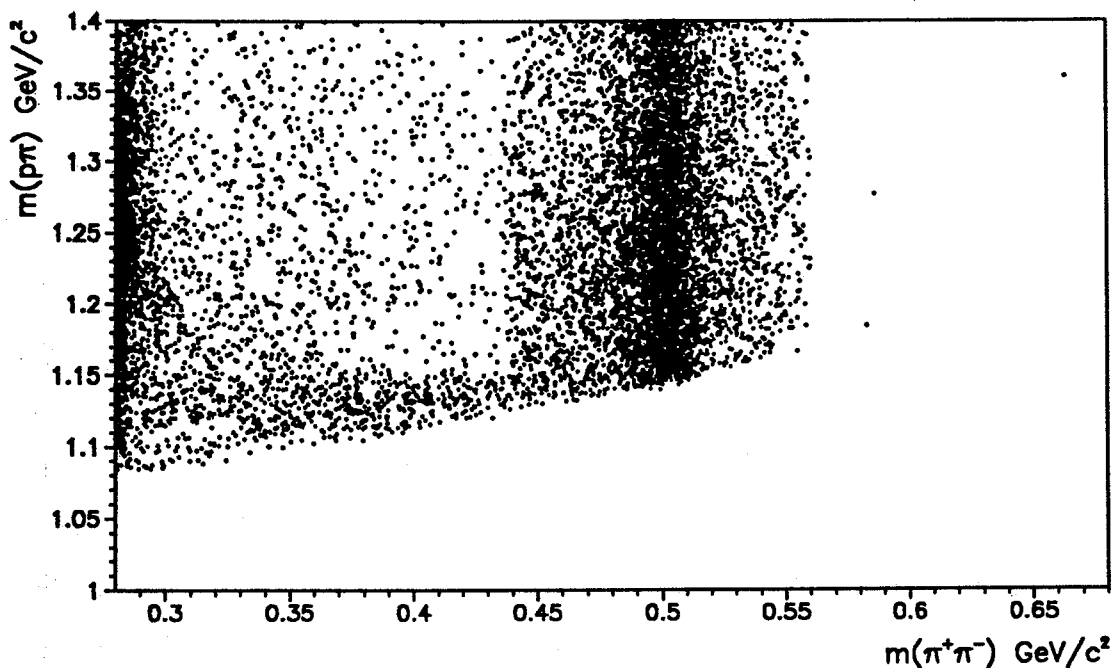


Figure 6.12:  $K_S^0 - \Lambda/\bar{\Lambda}$  Dalitz plot (production and  $|\cos\theta^*| > 0.75$  cuts)

hypothesis. By cutting all  $V^0$ s with  $|\cos\theta^*| > 0.75$  under the  $K_S^0$  hypothesis, no cut was needed on the  $V^0$  invariant mass for the  $\Lambda/\bar{\Lambda}$  hypotheses.

## 6.6 Track-sharing ambiguities

It is possible for two or more  $V^0$  candidates to share common tracks although after the application of the cuts described less than 1% of the candidates in the tight mass window were ambiguous. These ambiguities were resolved by taking the  $V^0$  candidate with the smallest impact parameter and rejecting any other  $V^0$ s sharing a track with it.

## 6.7 $K_S^0$ mass spectrum and signal/background ratio.

Fig. 6.13 shows the invariant mass spectrum for the  $K_S^0$  hypothesis after all the cuts described have been applied to the  $V^0$  sample (the horizontal scale is chosen for

compatibility with fig. 6.14). The effect of the production mass window (shown by the arrows in fig. 6.13) is clearly seen. There is clearly still a significant

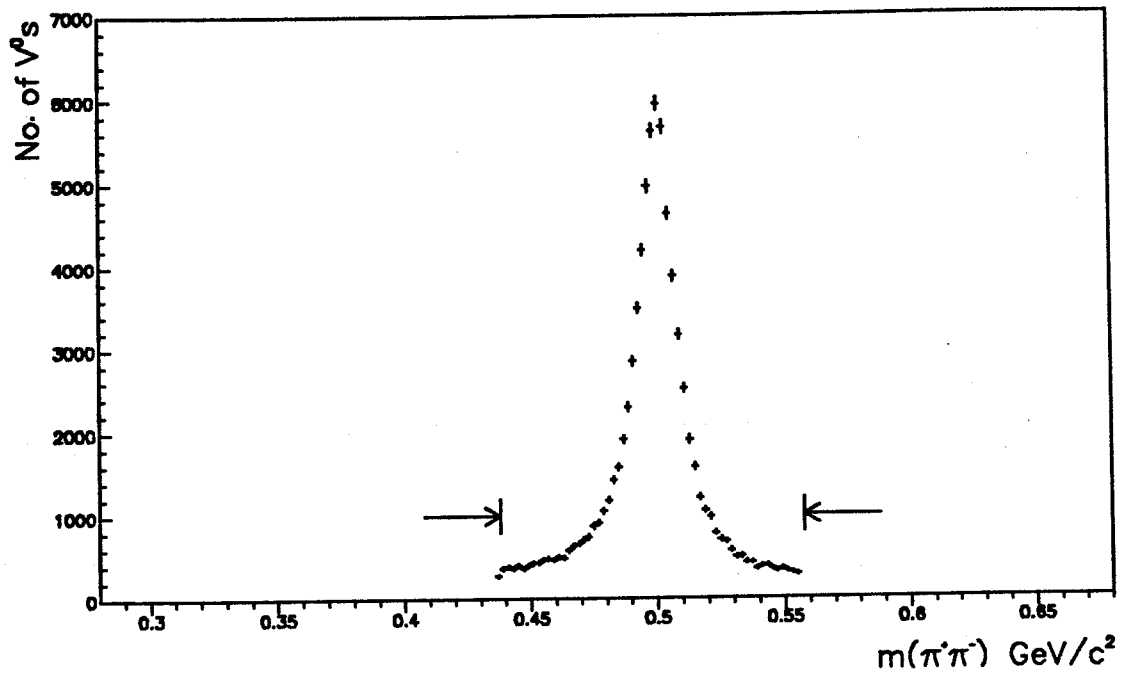


Figure 6.13: Mass spectrum for  $K_S^0$  hypothesis (all cuts).

background. The spectrum is, however, not wide enough for the background under the peak to be estimated by interpolation from the signal-free regions on either side. It was not possible to simply re-run the  $V^0$  finding algorithm using a wider mass window since the raw hit information, which is needed for the track-fitting, was not retained after the original event processing. A sample of over 80000 raw events was therefore re-processed with the mass window, for the  $K_S^0$  hypothesis, widened to  $m_{K^0} \pm 200 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ . The  $K_S^0$  mass spectrum for this sample is shown in fig. 6.14. The shape of the  $K_S^0$  background is now more apparent.

As discussed in appendix D,  $1/p$  has a gaussian error distribution. Thus, the momentum and the invariant  $K_S^0$  mass errors are non-gaussian. Apart from the slightly wider tails, however, the mass peak is reasonably approximated by a gaussian. The mass peak has therefore been fitted with the sum of two gaussians with

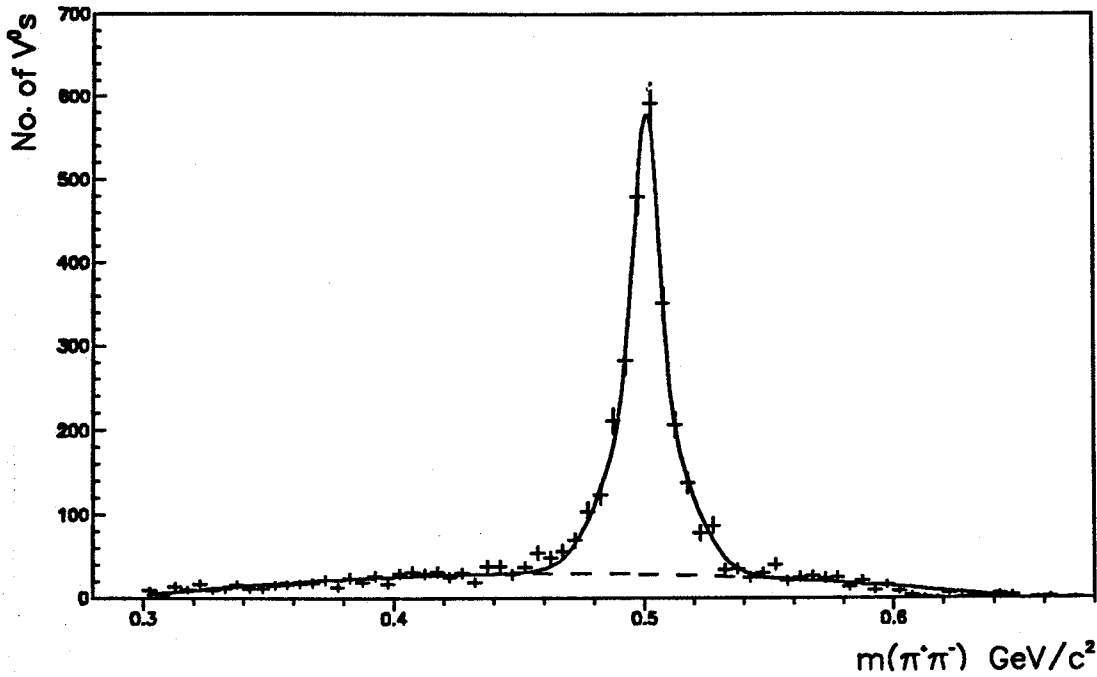


Figure 6.14: Mass spectrum for  $K_S^0$  hypothesis (all cuts and mass window of  $m_{K^0} \pm 200 \text{ MeV}/c$ ).

different widths but constrained to have the same mean value.<sup>1</sup> The background has been approximated by a second order polynomial. The solid line of fig. 6.14 shows the result of a fit of the form

$$f(m) = (A + Bm + Cm^2) + \frac{De^{-(m-\bar{m})^2/2\sigma_1^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_1} + \frac{Ee^{-(m-\bar{m})^2/2\sigma_2^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_2} \quad (6.8)$$

The dashed line shows the polynomial background under the  $K_S^0$  mass peak.

In order to obtain the final  $K_S^0$  mass and the signal:background ratio, a fit was made to the mass spectrum for the full  $K_S^0$  sample. The shape of the background, obtained from the fit of the wide mass window sample, was imposed by allowing  $A$  to vary and constraining the ratios  $B:A$  and  $C:A$ . The resulting fit is shown in fig. 6.15. The  $K_S^0$  mass, obtained from the full data sample was

<sup>1</sup>This form has been checked using a Monte-Carlo sample of 24000 single  $K_S^0$ 's generated with the experimentally measured  $p_t$  spectrum. The simulated decay track digitisations were mixed with those of a real event and the standard reconstruction algorithm was applied. The reconstructed and the Monte-Carlo decay tracks were then matched to give a background-free  $K_S^0$  sample (see chapter 7 for a detailed discussion of this technique).

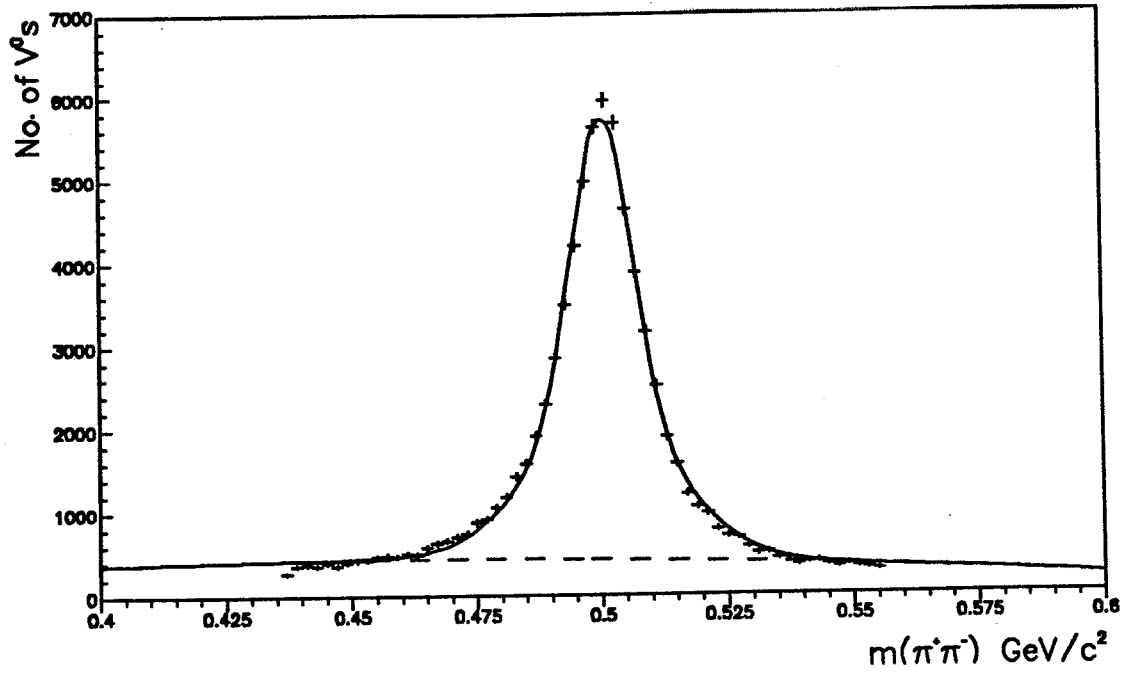


Figure 6.15: Fit to  $K_S^0$  mass spectrum (all cuts)

$$m(K_S^0) = (500.3 \pm 0.3) \text{MeV}/c^2 \quad (6.9)$$

The full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the gaussian (measured with the background subtracted) is  $17.2 \text{GeV}/c^2$ . The mass is in excellent agreement with the accepted value [14] of  $m(K_S^0) = (497.671 \pm 0.030) \text{MeV}/c^2$ . The 0.5% discrepancy could be attributed to a systematic error in  $p_{xy}$  arising from the uncertainty in the magnetic field. It could, however, also be due to the residual error in the dip angle (see §4.4). The use of the  $K_S^0$  mass measurement to make a *global* correction to the momentum of each track is therefore not justifiable.

The  $K_S^0$ 's used to obtain the cross-section are required to be within the tight mass window of  $m_{K_S^0} \pm 20 \text{MeV}/c^2$ . From the fit to the  $K_S^0$  mass spectrum, the signal to background ratio is  $S/B = 6.16$ , corresponding to  $K_S^0$  purity of  $\mathcal{P} = S/(S + B) = 86.0\%$ .

To obtain a final cross-section a correction has to be made for the  $K_S^0$ 's excluded by the tight mass window requirement. From the fit to the mass-spectrum, the fraction of genuine  $K_S^0$ 's with a reconstructed mass inside this window was found to

be  $f_W = 91.1\%$ . The  $K_S^0$  data were corrected by scaling the measured cross-section, within the tight mass window, as follows:

$$\partial\sigma(p_t, \phi, \eta) \rightarrow \partial\sigma(p_t, \phi, \eta) \times \frac{\mathcal{P}}{f_W} \quad (6.10)$$

## 7. $K_S^0$ reconstruction efficiency

In order to calculate the  $K_S^0$  production cross-section it is necessary to know, for all regions of phase-space, the efficiency of the  $K_S^0$ -finding method described in Chapter 6. A previous study [55] used a sample of 50000 Isajet Monte-Carlo [39] events. These were passed through the UA1 detector simulation program and fully reconstructed. The  $V^0$ -finding algorithm, described in §6.1, was then applied to yield a  $K_S^0$  efficiency:

$$\epsilon_{MC}(p_t, \phi, \eta) = \frac{\text{No. of } K_S^0 \text{ found}}{\text{No. of } K_S^0 \text{ generated}} \quad (7.1)$$

To achieve high statistics for all momentum ranges, a similar study was made [56] in which single  $K_S^0$ 's were generated. These were forced to decay to a pair of charged pions in an otherwise empty detector. After detector simulation and event reconstruction, the efficiency is also given by equation 7.1. These two methods were consistent within errors, showing the independence of the efficiency on the surrounding tracks, at least for simulated events. The efficiencies obtained by these purely Monte-Carlo methods prove to be over-optimistic.

A method has been developed [54] for evaluating the efficiency of reconstructing  $K_S^0$  decays which relies less on the detector simulation by using information from real events. A single  $K_S^0$  is generated, with some chosen  $p_t$ ,  $\eta$ , and  $\phi$  and its decay is simulated in an empty detector. The raw hits on the CD wires, caused by the two charged pions from the  $K_S^0$  are then combined with those from a *real* event. Noise and systematic effects in the real events make the track reconstruction more difficult resulting in a lower, and more realistic, efficiency compared to the single  $K_S^0$  method. The *single*  $K_S^0$  efficiency was evaluated for five  $p_t$  and twenty  $\eta\phi$  bins.



A correction was then made, to allow for the coarseness of the  $p_t$  binning, using the detailed  $p_t$  variation of a single "average"  $\eta\phi$  bin. The efficiency for  $K_S^0$ -finding in mixed events was evaluated for five bins in  $p_t$  and applied to the single  $K_S^0$  result to account for the relative ease of reconstructing an isolated Monte-Carlo  $K_S^0$  compared to one in real event.

In this analysis, the single and mixed efficiency methods are also combined since the CPU time required for full event reconstruction precluded the use of solely mixed events. The high statistics of the sample, however, necessitated a more complete treatment. In particular, the detailed variation of the efficiency with  $p_t$  has been measured and the dependence of the mixed  $K_S^0$  efficiency on  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  taken into account. In mixing a Monte-Carlo generated  $K_S^0$  with a real event, the correct treatment of the primary vertex is important since a major requirement in the  $V^0$  reconstruction is the association of the  $V^0$  and the non-association of its decay products to the primary vertex. The treatment of the  $K_S^0$  at the primary vertex is discussed in §7.1. The multiple scattering of the charged pions in the beam-pipe and CD chamber walls affects the impact parameter of the reconstructed  $K_S^0$ . This effect has been included in the standard detector simulation (see §7.2).

## 7.1 $K_S^0$ primary vertex

The  $K_S^0$  is initially generated at  $(0, -15mm, 0)$ <sup>1</sup> while the primary vertex of the real event in which it is merged may be some distance away (fig. 3.5). The  $K_S^0$  starting point is therefore redefined, prior to simulation, to be the measured vertex coordinates,  $(x_{vtz}^{cut}, y_{vtz}^{cut}, 0)$ , smeared according to the associated errors,  $\sigma_x$  and  $\sigma_y$ .

The vertex error distribution, shown in fig. 7.1, is derived by the track fit to the vertex, as described in §3.4. The large spread of the vertex position in  $x$  is

<sup>1</sup>The nominal beam position in  $y$  is at  $-15mm$  so this is the standard number used in the Monte-Carlo. In 1987 the real position was at  $y \approx -24.8mm$  (fig.3.5).

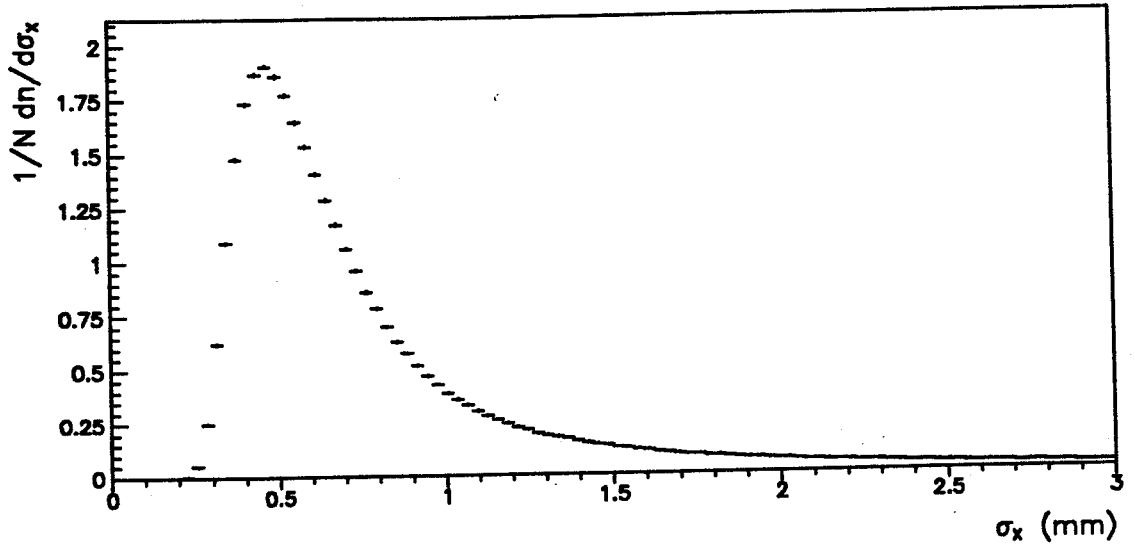


Figure 7.1: Primary vertex error distribution in  $x$

due to the length of the  $p$  and  $\bar{p}$  bunches. As a result, the error,  $\sigma_x$ , on the vertex position in  $x$  is considerably larger than the error,  $\sigma_y$ , in  $y$ . In minimum-bias events this is exacerbated by low track multiplicities particularly transverse to the beam direction which make the  $x$  measurement more difficult. The  $x$  coordinate of the  $K_S^0$  at the event vertex was defined to be

$$x_{z=0}^{K^0} = x_{vtx}^{evt} + \sigma_x \mathcal{G}_x \quad (7.2)$$

where  $\mathcal{G}$  is a random number selected from a gaussian distribution of unit  $\sigma$  centered at zero, and  $\sigma_x$  is the  $x$  vertex error for the event.

To maintain luminosity, the beam position must be known to within about  $100\mu m$  in  $y$ . Since this is used as a constraint in the vertex finding (§3.4),  $\sigma_y$  was taken to be  $100\mu m$ , from the width of the  $y_{vtx}$  distribution (fig. 3.5 (b)), so that:

$$y_{z=0}^{K^0} = y_{vtx}^{evt} + \sigma_y \mathcal{G}_y \quad (7.3)$$

Both the  $K_S^0$  and the real event vertices are at  $z = 0$  by definition.

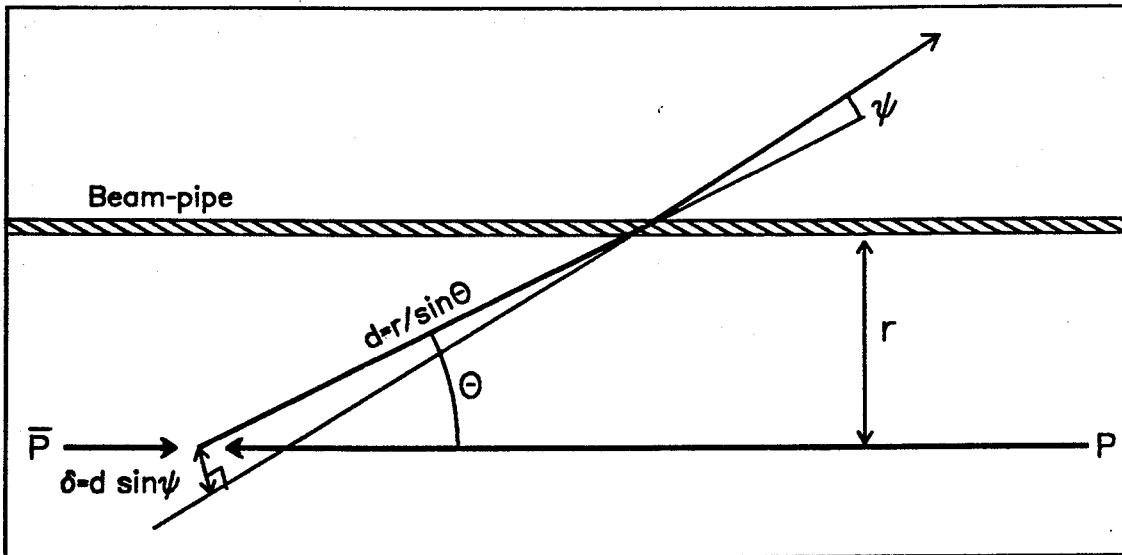


Figure 7.2: Geometry of multiple scattering

## 7.2 Simulation of Multiple Scattering

The multiple Coulomb scattering of charged particles in the beam-pipe and CD chamber walls does not greatly alter the measured track parameters. It can, however, have a significant effect on the impact parameters of the pions and the  $K_S^0$ , and hence on the reconstruction efficiency. The detector simulation allows charged particles to proceed through the detector in small steps correcting the track parameters for energy loss in the material but not for multiple scattering.

The angular deviation  $\psi$  (fig. 7.2) of a track of energy  $E$  and momentum  $p$ , passing through  $L/L_R$  radiation lengths of material, may be parametrised [57] by a gaussian distribution of width

$$\sigma_\psi = 14.1 \text{ MeV}/c \times \frac{E}{p^2} \sqrt{\frac{L}{L_R}} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{9} \log_{10}(L/L_R) \right) \text{ radians} \quad (7.4)$$

This expression was used to simulate the multiple scattering of the  $K_S^0$  decay products in the beam-pipe and CD walls. The correction  $\psi$  to the track was chosen randomly from a normal distribution of width  $\sigma_\psi$ . The azimuthal angle of the shift about the unscattered track direction was randomly chosen assuming a flat distribution. The multiple scattering in the beam-pipe was found to be the

dominant contribution to the uncertainty in the impact parameter. The beam-pipe is corrugated to prevent low angle tracks from passing through a large thickness of material so the number of radiation lengths was approximated by a constant  $L/L_R = 0.025$ .

The displacement,  $\delta = r \sin \psi / \sin \theta$ , of the track at the primary vertex corresponds to a mean shift in each vertex coordinate of

$$\delta_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left( \frac{r \sin \psi}{\sin \theta} \right) \quad (i = x, y, z) \quad (7.5)$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle of the track with respect to the beam (fig. 7.2). For example, for a 0.5 GeV pion passing through a beam-pipe of radius  $r = 10 \text{ cm}$ ,  $\sigma_\psi \approx 5 \text{ mrad}$  which gives, for  $\theta = 45^\circ$ , a displacement in  $x$ ,  $y$ , or  $z$  of  $\delta_i \approx 0.37 \text{ mm}$  at the vertex, corresponding to  $0.53 \text{ mm}$  in the bending plane.

### 7.3 Single $K_S^0$ efficiency

A single  $K_S^0$  is generated at a specific  $p_t$ , with  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  randomised within specified intervals of  $\Delta\eta$  and  $\Delta\phi$ . The fourfold  $\phi$  symmetry of the detector is exploited by only generating  $K_S^0$ 's in the first quadrant, which is subdivided into four intervals:  $[0, 22.5^\circ]$ ,  $[22.5^\circ, 45^\circ]$ ,  $[45^\circ, 62.5^\circ]$ , and  $[62.5^\circ, 90^\circ]$ . Similarly, the rapidity is assumed to be symmetric about the  $x = 0$  plane and divided into five bins:  $[0, 0.5]$ ,  $[0.5, 1.0]$ ,  $[1.0, 1.5]$ ,  $[1.5, 2.0]$ , and  $[2.0, 2.5]$ . For each  $\eta\phi$  bin, the efficiency is calculated for nineteen non-equidistant values of  $p_t$  (see figs. 7.3-7.6). The generated  $K_S^0$  is allowed to decay in the detector, with an exponential lifetime distribution, under the constraint that the two pions produced are charged. These are then tracked through the CD and the hits on the wires are simulated. The event is reconstructed and the  $V^0$ -finding software attempts to find the  $K_S^0$  in the otherwise empty detector. A new  $K_S^0$  is then generated at the next value of  $p_t$  and the procedure is repeated. This method is applicable for an arbitrary set of values of the cuts described in chapter 6, since the  $V^0$ -finding software used is identical to

that used for real data.

The efficiencies for reconstructing a single  $K_S^0$ , as a function of  $p_t$  and for all  $\phi - \eta$  bins, are shown in figs. 7.3-7.6. The efficiency is small at low  $p_t$  due to the cut in the decay track  $p_t$  of  $100 MeV$  and because these  $K_S^0$ 's do not benefit from the time-dilation factor so the decay tracks tend to be associated to the primary vertex. The greater multiple scattering for low momentum particles also reduces the probability of reconstructing the  $K_S^0$ . The efficiency decreases at high  $p_t$  since the decays occur further into the CD resulting in shorter measured pion tracks. Such decays have smaller opening angles which can result in losses due to the non-association requirement of the cut  $\chi_{i,ass}^2 < 4$  applied to both tracks.

The efficiency as a function of  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  is shown in fig. 7.7, for three values of  $p_t$ . The efficiency increases with  $\phi$  since decay tracks are better measured in the bending plane. This effect is enhanced by the decay plane cut described in §6.4. At high  $\eta$  the efficiency is low, largely due to the fiducial cut in  $\Phi$  while at low  $\eta$  the reduced track length (and hence number of points) reduces the efficiency.

#### 7.4 Mixed $K_S^0$ efficiency

The mixed  $K_S^0$  efficiency has been evaluated for five ranges of  $p_t$  ( $[0.2, 0.5]$ ,  $[0.5, 1.0]$ ,  $[1.0, 3.0]$ ,  $[3.0, 5.0]$  and  $[5.0, 10.0]$ ), with two bins in  $\phi$  ( $[0, 45^\circ]$  and  $[45^\circ, 90^\circ]$ ) and two in  $\eta$  ( $[0, 1.25]$  and  $[1.25, 2.5]$ ).

First, a real minimum-bias event, including the CD raw hit information, is read from cassette and held in memory. As for the single  $K_S^0$  case, a Monte-Carlo  $K_S^0$  is generated and its decay in the detector is simulated. If the  $K_S^0$  is successfully reconstructed in the empty detector, then the simulated raw hits are merged with those of the real event. All the digitisings are then passed through the standard track-reconstruction. If greater than 50% of the hits of a given track originate from the Monte-Carlo then that track is flagged with its Monte-Carlo track code. The  $V^0$ -finding algorithm is then applied to these tracks alone. The procedure is

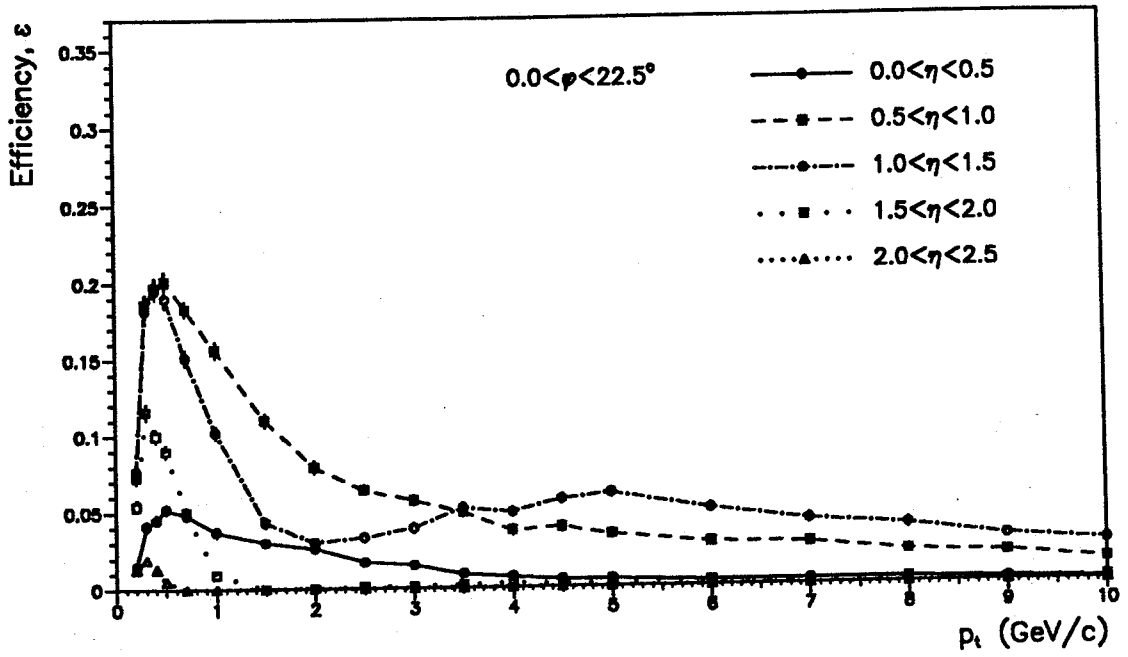


Figure 7.3: Single  $K_S^0$  efficiency vs.  $p_t$  ( $0 \leq \phi < 22.5^\circ$ )

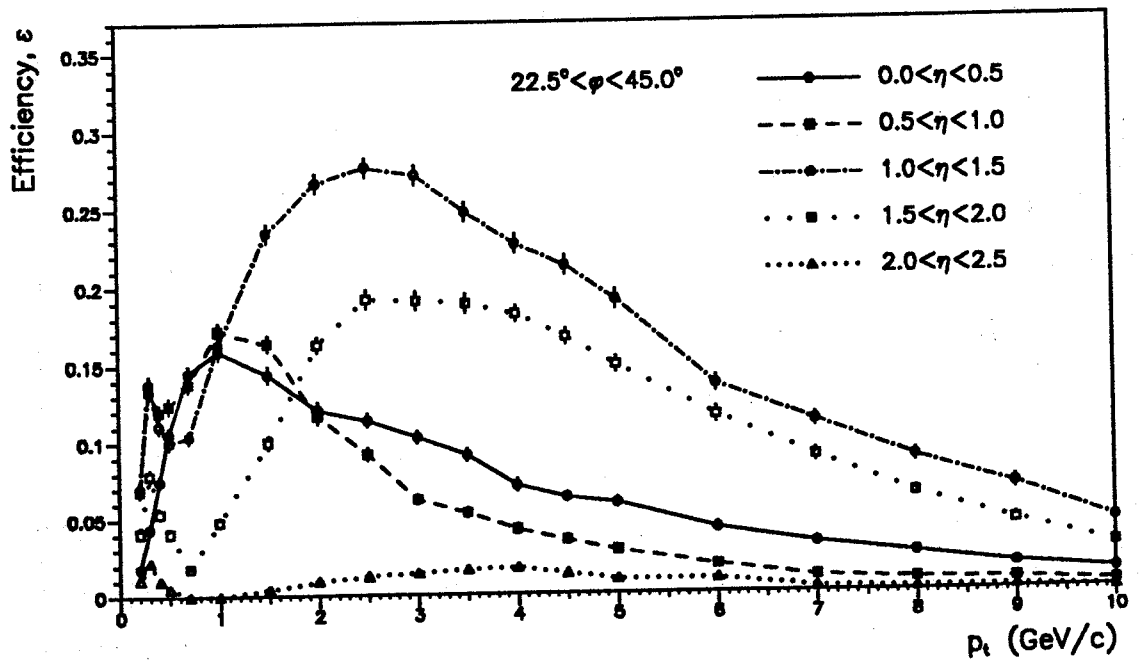


Figure 7.4: Single  $K_S^0$  efficiency vs.  $p_t$  ( $22.5^\circ \leq \phi < 45.0^\circ$ )

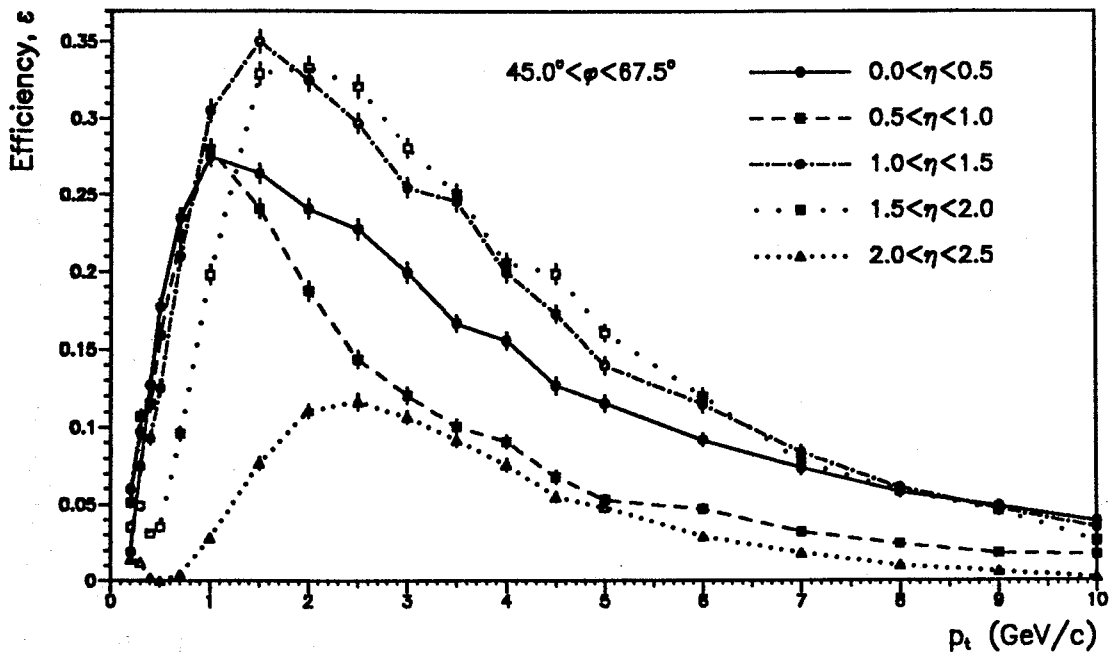


Figure 7.5: Single  $K_S^0$  efficiency vs.  $p_t$  ( $45.0^\circ \leq \phi < 67.5^\circ$ )

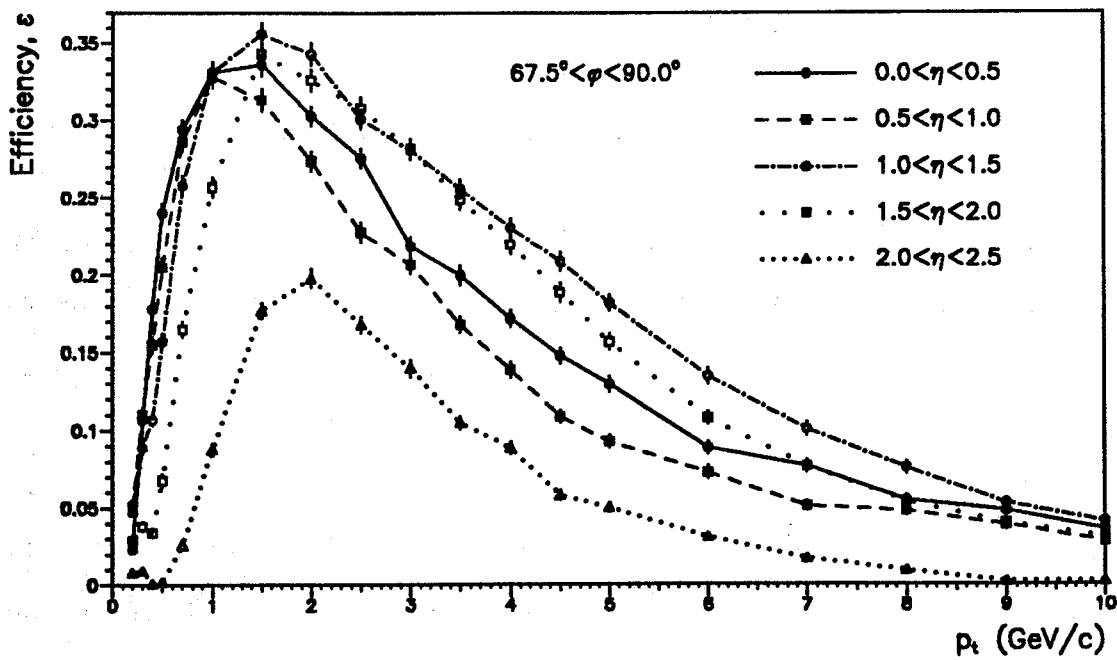


Figure 7.6: Single  $K_S^0$  efficiency vs.  $p_t$  ( $67.5^\circ \leq \phi < 90.0^\circ$ )

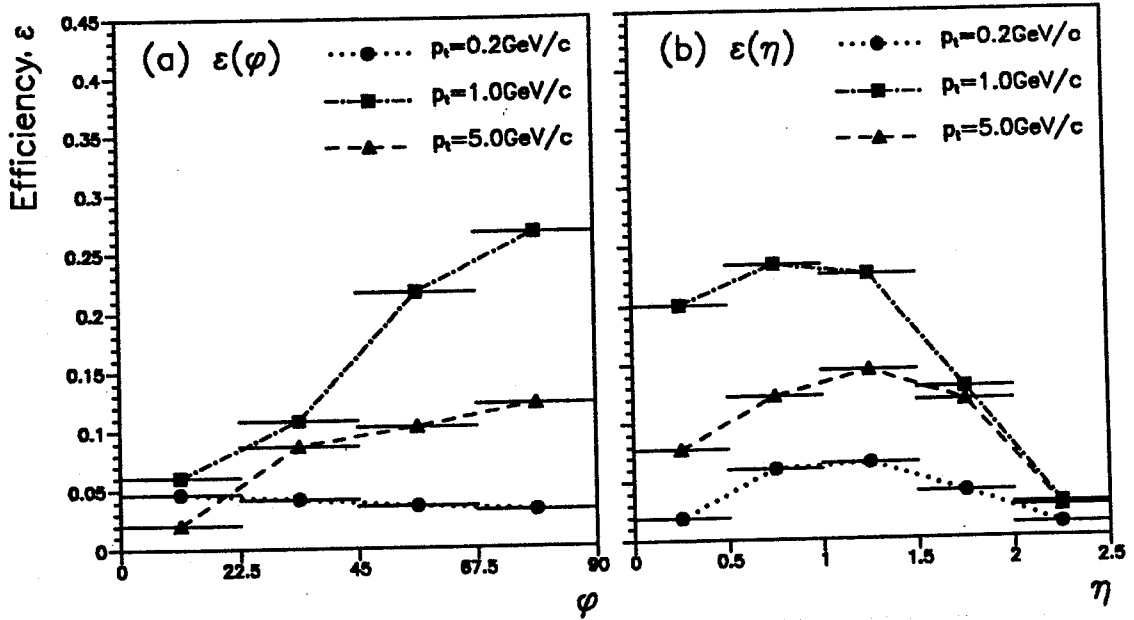


Figure 7.7: Single  $K_S^0$  reconstruction efficiency vs. (a)  $\phi$  and (b)  $\eta$ .

repeated for the next value of  $p_t$ , until the maximum value ( $10 \text{ GeV}/c$ ) is reached whereupon the real event is dropped and another is read in. A correction factor,  $C_e(p_t, \phi, \eta)$ , which measures the relative probability of finding the  $K_S^0$  after and before mixing with a real event, is therefore defined as

$$C_e(p_t, \phi, \eta) = \frac{\text{No. of } K_S^0 \text{ found after mixing}}{\text{No. of } K_S^0 \text{ found before mixing}} \quad (7.6)$$

Table 7.1 gives  $C_e(p_t, \phi, \eta)$ , expressed as a percentage. The values of  $C_e$  vary by only 20% within a given  $\eta\phi$  bin and by 30% over all phase-space. The difference between the single and mixed efficiencies is greatest for  $0 \leq \phi < 45^\circ$  and  $0 \leq \eta < 1.25$  where the track parameters depend more on the  $z$  coordinate.

The finite resolution of the CD results in a spread of the reconstructed  $K_S^0$  track parameters with respect to those of the generated  $K_S^0$ . As discussed in app. D this can result in significant smearing of rapidly changing distributions. For the efficiency this introduces the question of whether a  $K_S^0$  generated with particular values of  $p_t$ ,  $\phi$  and  $\eta$  is reconstructed with very different values. If this is the case then the differences between the efficiency as a function of the generated



	$0 \leq \phi < 45^\circ$		$45^\circ \leq \phi < 90^\circ$	
	$0 \leq \eta < 1.25$	$1.25 \leq \eta < 2.5$	$0 \leq \eta < 1.25$	$1.25 \leq \eta < 2.5$
$0.2 \leq p_t < 0.5$	$77.1 \pm 1.2$	$82.8 \pm 1.5$	$78.0 \pm 1.2$	$77.5 \pm 2.1$
$0.5 \leq p_t < 1.0$	$69.5 \pm 1.5$	$89.1 \pm 1.7$	$82.6 \pm 0.7$	$86.5 \pm 1.0$
$1.0 \leq p_t < 3.0$	$63.5 \pm 1.5$	$88.1 \pm 1.3$	$83.2 \pm 0.7$	$86.7 \pm 0.7$
$3.0 \leq p_t < 5.0$	$61.3 \pm 2.0$	$84.1 \pm 1.4$	$79.7 \pm 1.0$	$83.5 \pm 0.9$
$5.0 \leq p_t < 10.0$	$61.8 \pm 2.7$	$70.6 \pm 2.4$	$75.0 \pm 1.7$	$75.4 \pm 1.8$

Table 7.1: Mixing correction factor,  $C_e(p_t, \phi, \eta)$  (%)

and reconstructed parameters must be considered. To address this question, the changes in the  $K_S^0$  parameters due to the reconstruction of the mixed event have been studied. The difference,  $(p_t^{gen} - p_t^{rec})$ , in the generated and reconstructed transverse momenta is shown in fig. 7.8 for different ranges of  $p_t$ . As expected the difference is larger at high  $p_t$  where the resolution is worse, but the widths of the distributions are in all cases much smaller than the distance between the points at which the efficiency is evaluated. The shift in  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  is measured by the quadratic combination of the individual shifts, *i.e.*  $\Delta R = \sqrt{(\Delta\eta)^2 + (\Delta\phi)^2}$ , where  $\Delta\phi$  is measured in radians. Fig. 7.9 shows that  $\Delta R$ , for all  $p_t$ , is small compared to each bin which measures  $\Delta\eta \times \Delta\phi = 0.5 \times 0.39$ . The efficiency is therefore assumed to be the same as a function of the reconstructed and the generated  $K_S^0$  parameters.

## 7.5 Full $K_S^0$ efficiency

Since the single  $K_S^0$  efficiency is evaluated at discrete  $p_t$  values, and is quite rapidly changing with  $p_t$ , a way of obtaining it for an arbitrary  $p_t$  is needed. For a given  $\eta\phi$  bin, an empirical fit of the form  $\epsilon_S(p_t) = Ap_t^\alpha(1 - e^{\beta p_t + \gamma p_t^2})$  reproduced the efficiency distributions well apart from a slight systematic difference in the region

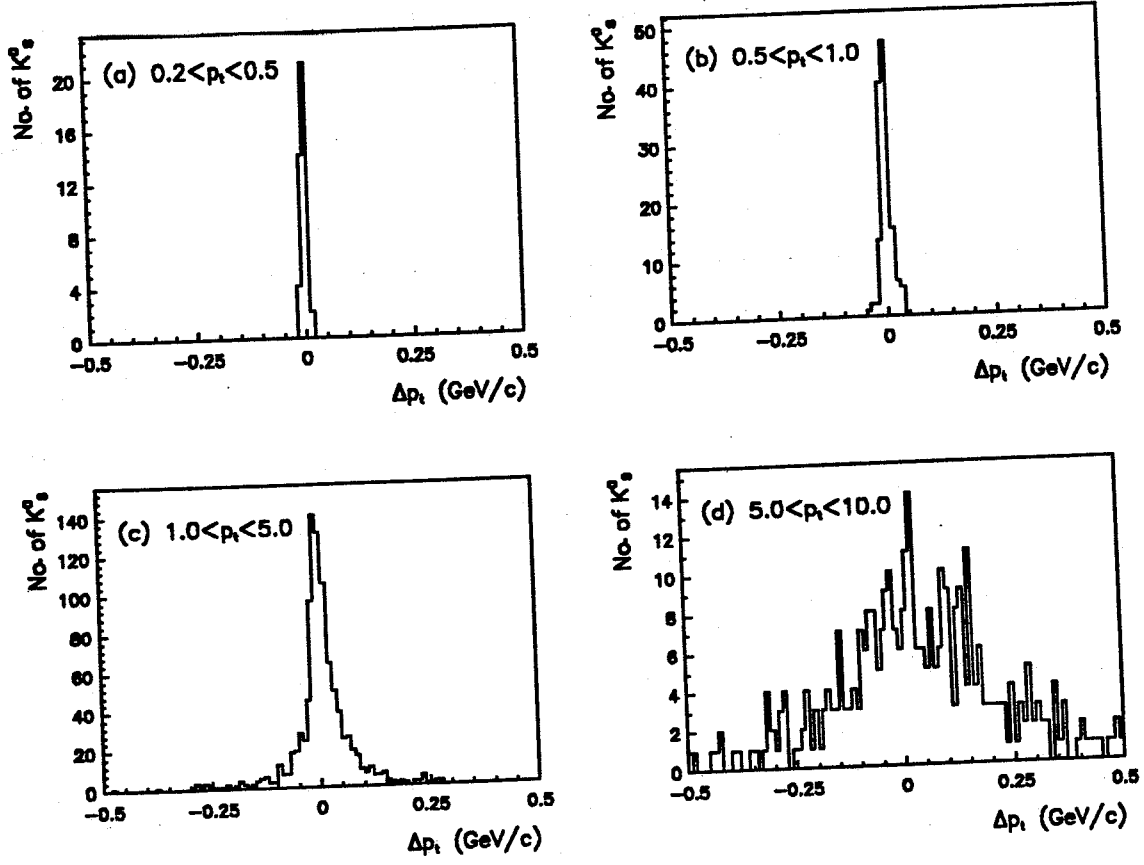


Figure 7.8: Change in  $K_S^0 p_t$  after reconstruction

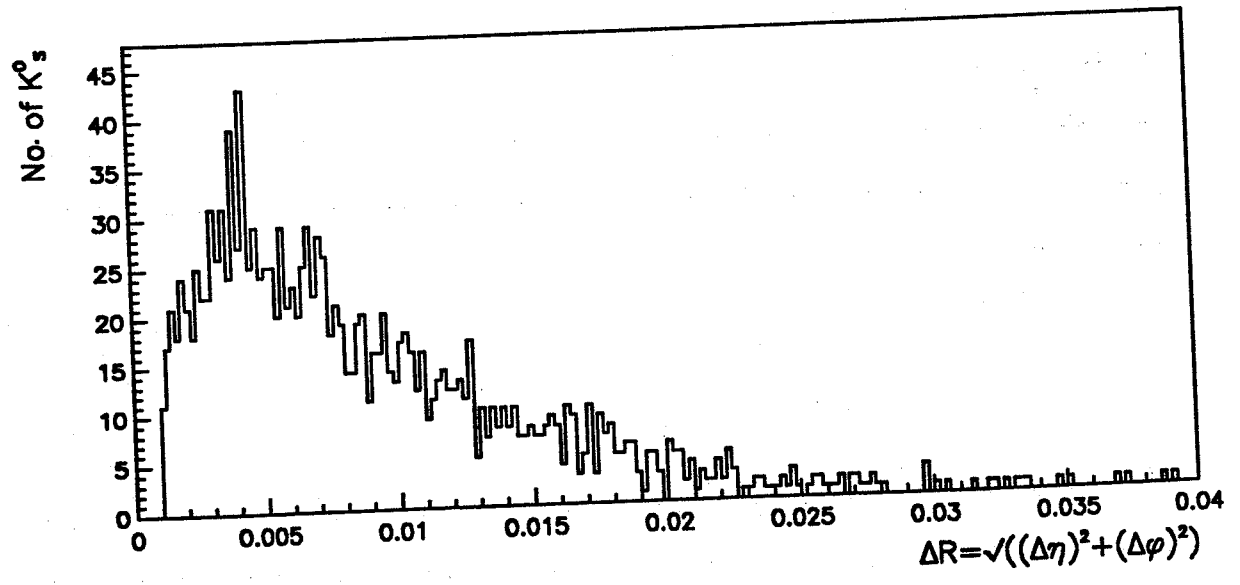


Figure 7.9:  $\Delta R$  of reconstructed  $K_S^0$  c.f. generated  $K_S^0$ .

1-3GeV/c. The interpretation of the error on  $\epsilon_S$  from such a fit is, however, difficult unless there is an underlying physical reason for the functional form. Therefore, to preserve generality, both the efficiency and its associated error were obtained at an arbitrary  $p_t$  by interpolation.

It can be seen from figs. 7.3-7.6 that the single  $K_S^0$  efficiency is close to zero for some regions of phase-space, particularly at high rapidity as a result of the fiducial  $\Phi$  cut described in §6.4. For such regions, the error on the corrected number of  $K_S^0$ 's is large. A threshold efficiency of  $\epsilon_t$  has therefore been applied. It is desirable to choose a value of  $\epsilon_t$  such that for  $\epsilon_S(\eta, p_t) > \epsilon_t$  for at least one of the four  $\phi$  ranges, for all the  $\eta$  and  $p_t$  regions. Then, setting  $\epsilon_S = 0$  if it is below  $\epsilon_t$  and assuming the cross-section is flat in  $\phi$ , the efficiencies above  $\epsilon_t$  for a given  $\eta$  and  $p_t$  and different  $\phi$  can re-scaled and both the  $\eta$  and  $p_t$  distributions can be evaluated. The efficiency at high rapidity and low  $p_t$  is, however, close to zero for *all*  $\phi$  bins. The  $K_S^0$  cross-section is therefore assumed to be flat in both  $\phi$  and  $\eta$ , and for fixed  $p_t$  the threshold is applied such that

$$\epsilon_S(\phi, \eta) = \begin{cases} \epsilon_S(\phi, \eta) \times \left( \frac{N_{\text{bins}}}{N_{\text{bins}}(\epsilon_S(\phi, \eta) \geq \epsilon_t)} \right) & ; \text{ if } \epsilon(\eta, \phi) \geq \epsilon_t \\ 0.0 & ; \text{ if } \epsilon(\eta, \phi) < \epsilon_t \end{cases} \quad (7.7)$$

where  $N_{\text{bins}}$  is the number of bins in  $\phi$  and  $\eta$ . A threshold of  $\epsilon_t = 3\%$  was chosen with the result that for  $p_t < 6\text{GeV}/c$ , 63 of the efficiency values (from a total of 280) were set to zero. For no value of  $p_t$  were all the efficiencies in  $\phi$  and  $\eta$  below threshold.

The full  $K_S^0$ -finding efficiency, as a function of  $p_t$ ,  $\phi$  and  $\eta$ , is given by

$$\epsilon(p_t, \phi, \eta) = \epsilon_S(p_t, \phi, \eta) \times C_\epsilon(p_t, \phi, \eta) \quad (7.8)$$

The efficiency correction is applied by scaling the number of reconstructed  $K_S^0$ 's by a factor  $1/\epsilon(p_t, \phi, \eta)$ . The error on the  $K_S^0$   $p_t$  distribution due to the efficiency is 4% almost independently of  $p_t$ .

## 8. Inclusive $K_S^0$ cross-section and $K/\pi$ ratio

The inclusive production of  $K_S^0$  mesons has been studied by reconstructing the decay  $K_S^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$  in the region  $-2.5 < y < 2.5$  and  $0 < \phi < 2\pi$ . A total of 2 031 800 minimum-bias events have been analysed, yielding a sample of more than 91 000  $K_S^0$  candidates satisfying the cuts described in chapter 6.

### 8.1 Lifetime

The  $K_S^0$  lifetime provides a check on the validity of the  $V^0$  analysis. The lifetime,  $t$ , is related to the decay length,  $d$  by

$$ct = \frac{d}{\beta\gamma} \quad (8.1)$$

where  $\beta\gamma = p/m$  is the time-dilation factor. Since the  $z$  resolution of the CD is comparable with a typical decay length the error on  $ct$  is considerable. The vectors describing the decay length and the  $V^0$  momentum are, however, co-linear so the  $z$ -dependence may be factorised out and the lifetime written

$$ct = \frac{d_{xy}m}{p_{xy}} \quad (8.2)$$

Since this expression relies only on information from the track fit in the bending-plane the error on  $ct$  is a factor of  $\sim 100$  times smaller. The  $K_S^0$  lifetime is presented in fig. 8.1, where the errors shown are statistical. The distribution has been corrected for the reconstruction efficiency, calculated as a function of  $p_t$ ,  $\eta$  and  $\phi$ , using the method described in chapter 7. The drop in the distribution for short lifetimes is a result of the decay tracks being associated to the primary vertex. The distribution is truncated above three lifetimes ( $ct > 8\text{cm}$ ) as a result of the cut in the decay

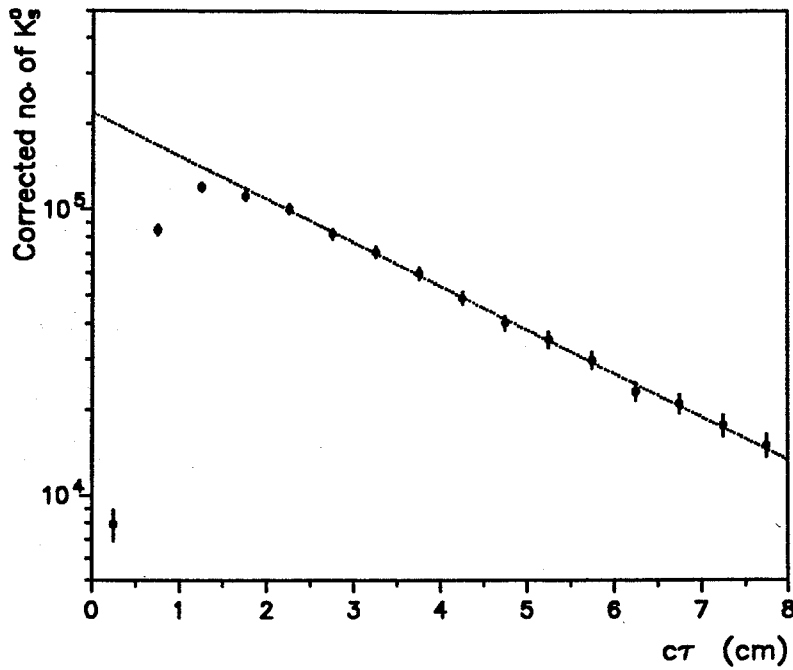


Figure 8.1:  $K_S^0$  lifetime (all cuts)

probability (defined in eq. 6.6) of  $P_d > 0.95$ . The distribution has been fitted with an exponential distribution (shown by the dotted line in fig. 8.1), excluding the region  $ct < 2\text{cm}$ , yielding  $ct_{meas} = (2.86 \pm 0.01)\text{cm}$  or  $\tau_{meas} = (9.56 \pm 0.03) \times 10^{-11}\text{s}$ . The lifetime is in reasonable agreement with the current world average value [14] of  $ct = (2.675 \pm 0.006)\text{cm}$  or  $\tau = (8.92 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-11}\text{s}$ . The reconstruction efficiency increases with increasing decay length. If the  $K_S^0$  sample were corrected with an efficiency depending explicitly on the decay length then the measured lifetime would decrease. The CPU time required prohibited such a study.

## 8.2 $K_S^0$ cross-section

The invariant  $K_S^0$  cross-section as a function of  $p_t$  is shown in fig. 8.2 and listed in table 8.1. The statistical errors and the  $p_t$ -dependent errors in the  $K_S^0$  reconstruction efficiency have been combined in quadrature. The systematic error from the uncertainty in the minimum-bias cross-section is 7% (eq. 2.4). The data

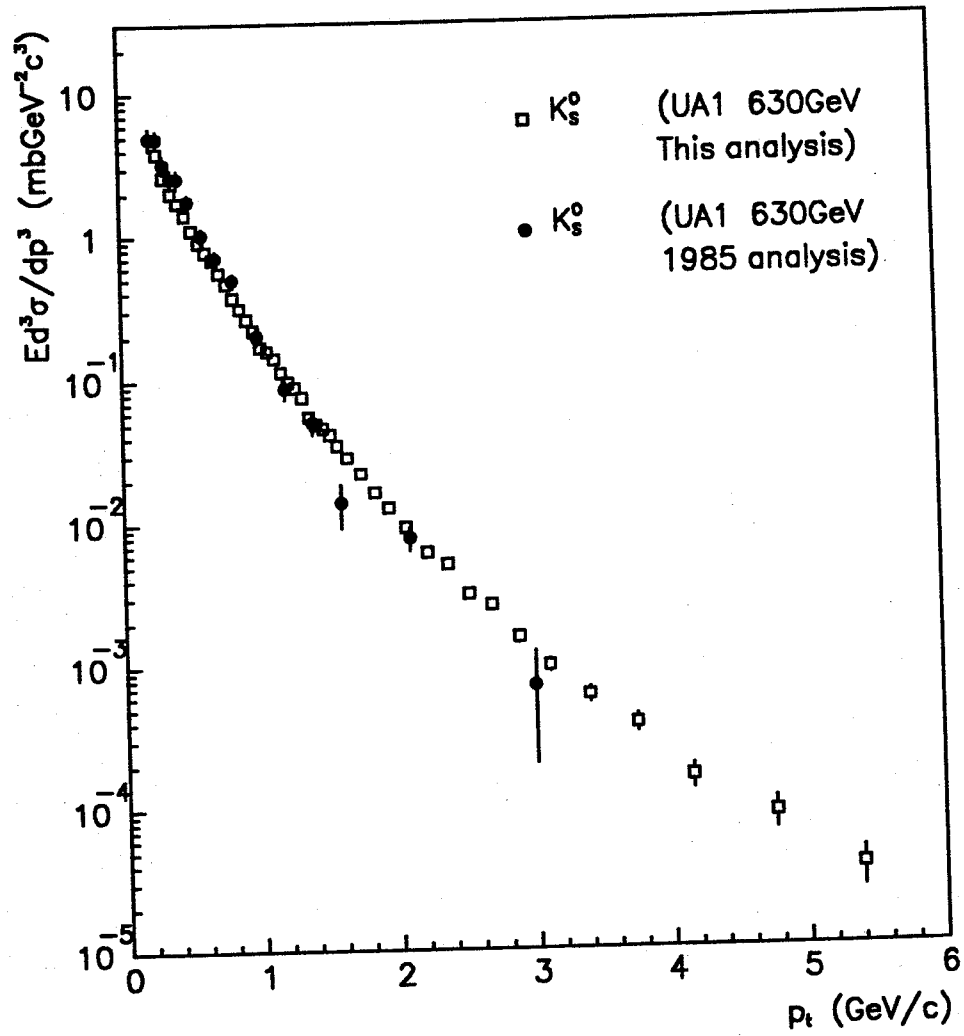


Figure 8.2: Inclusive  $K_S^0$  cross-section measured by UA1 (the 1985 data are from ref. [58]).

$p_t$ (GeV/c)	$Ed^3\sigma/dp^3$ (mbGeV <sup>-2</sup> c <sup>3</sup> )	$p_t$ (GeV/c)	$Ed^3\sigma/dp^3$ (mbGeV <sup>-2</sup> c <sup>3</sup> )
0.225	6.425 ±0.127	1.325	0.0758 ±0.0025
0.275	3.866 ±0.066	1.375	0.0553 ±0.0020
0.325	2.631 ±0.046	1.425	0.0490 ±0.0018
0.375	2.031 ±0.036	1.475	0.0459 ±0.0018
0.425	1.731 ±0.030	1.525	0.0417 ±0.0017
0.475	1.408 ±0.025	1.575	0.0345 ±0.0015
0.525	1.114 ±0.020	1.649	0.02839 ±0.00097
0.575	0.9038 ±0.0163	1.749	0.02204 ±0.00083
0.625	0.7796 ±0.0142	1.850	0.01619 ±0.00069
0.675	0.6841 ±0.0126	1.948	0.01265 ±0.00061
0.725	0.5531 ±0.0105	2.072	0.00914 ±0.00041
0.775	0.4631 ±0.0090	2.225	0.00608 ±0.00032
0.825	0.3684 ±0.0076	2.370	0.00502 ±0.00029
0.875	0.3113 ±0.0067	2.524	0.00310 ±0.00024
0.925	0.2615 ±0.0058	2.689	0.00258 ±0.00019
0.975	0.2183 ±0.0050	2.888	0.00152 ±0.00014
1.025	0.1681 ±0.0042	3.108	0.000963±0.000099
1.075	0.1581 ±0.0040	3.400	0.000596±0.000072
1.125	0.1406 ±0.0037	3.749	0.000375±0.000051
1.175	0.1134 ±0.0032	4.153	0.000158±0.000029
1.225	0.0967 ±0.0029	4.763	0.000087±0.000021
1.275	0.0879 ±0.0027	5.399	0.000036±0.000011

Table 8.1: Inclusive  $K_S^0$  cross section,  $Ed^3\sigma/dp^3(p\bar{p} \rightarrow K_S^0 X)$

have been corrected for the  $K_S^0$  reconstruction efficiency and the branching ratio  $B(K_S^0 \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-) = 68.6\%$ . The purity and mass window correction factors have been applied. The  $p_t$  value of each data point is the average of the  $p_t$  values of the individual  $K_S^0$ 's within the bin *not* the value at the centre of the bin. The data are seen to be in good agreement with an independent UA1 analysis [58] of 3180  $K_S^0$ 's obtained from the 1985 minimum-bias data sample.

In fig. 8.3, the data are compared with the charged and neutral kaon inclusive cross-sections measured by the UA5 Collaboration [59] at  $\sqrt{s} = 546\text{GeV}$ , and the charged kaon cross-section of UA2 at  $\sqrt{s} = 540\text{GeV}$  [60]. The data agree well within an overall normalisation factor which is due to a number of reasons: The UA2 trigger is more demanding than the minimum-bias trigger of UA1. In addition to a coincidence of hits in the up-stream and down-stream luminosity hodoscopes, hits are also required in hodoscopes covering the range  $|\eta| < 0.7$ . This extra requirement tends to bias towards higher activity events which populate the central region. UA2 estimates a overall systematic error on the kaon cross-section of  $\pm 8\%$  due to contamination from pions which could not be removed using the time-of-flight measurement. There is an additional systematic error of 17% in the overall normalisation due to the uncertainty in the trigger cross-section. The UA5 trigger is similar to the UA1 minimum-bias trigger so no appreciable difference is expected in the average physics content of the events. The non-single-diffractive cross-section assumed by UA5 was  $\sigma_{\text{NSD}} = 43.2 \pm 1.8\text{mb}$ . As discussed in chapter 5, the value of  $\sigma_{\text{NSD}}$  used in 1985 was reduced by 13% following a recalibration of the UA1 luminosity monitors [26,27]. Probably, a similar correction should also be applied to the UA5 value of  $\sigma_{\text{NSD}}$ . Since UA5 has no magnetic field, the mass of the  $K_S^0$  must be used as a constraint in the calculation of the  $p_t$  of the  $K_S^0$ . Thus, no subtraction of the background can be done using the mass spectrum from the *real* data. Instead they rely entirely on Monte-Carlo simulations which may underestimate the background. Furthermore, the UA5 geometrical efficiency for



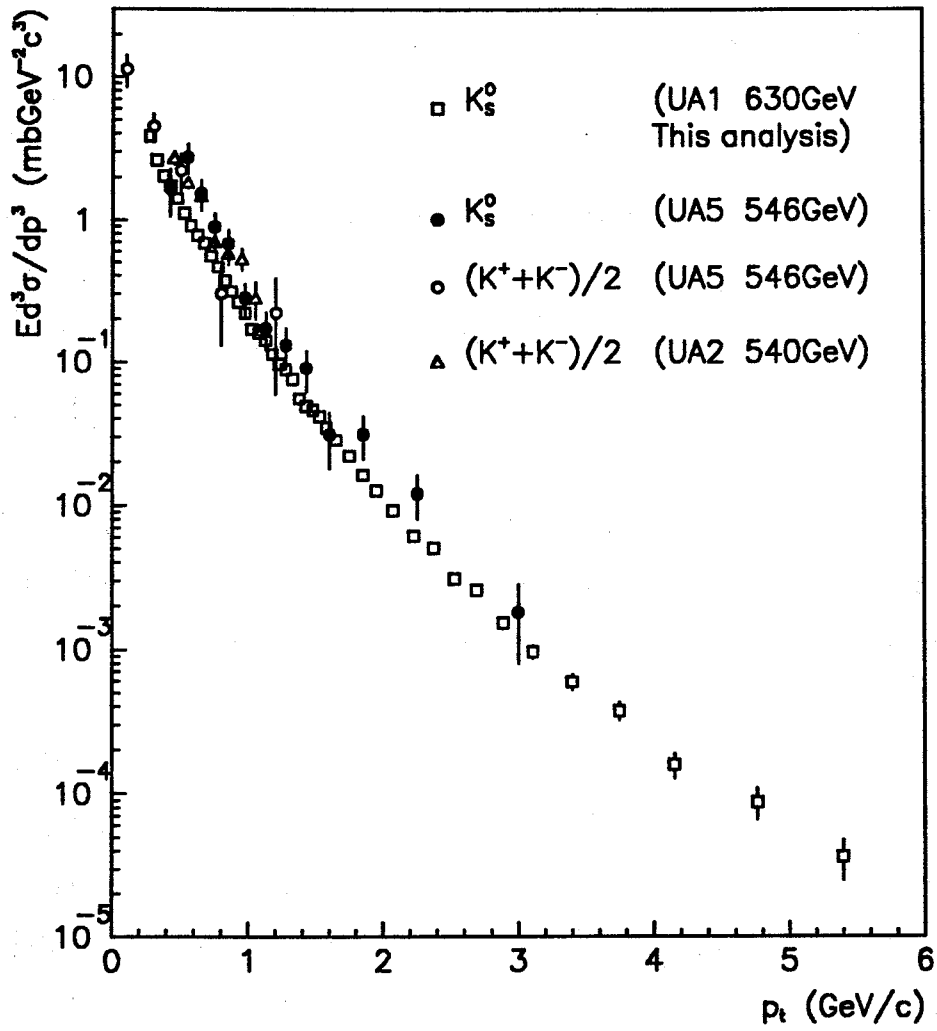


Figure 8.3: Inclusive  $K_S^0$  cross-section compared with UA5 [59] and UA2 [60]  $K_S^0$  and  $K^\pm$  data.

$K_S^0$  reconstruction is low ( $\sim 4\%$ ) and therefore sensitive to systematic errors. For example, the efficiency increases by 30% if the mean  $K_S^0$  transverse momentum used in their Monte-Carlo is changed from  $500\text{MeV}/c$  to  $600\text{MeV}/c$ . The statistical errors in the UA5 sample of 171  $K_S^0$ 's are also large, especially in the tail of their  $p_t$  distribution.

As discussed in chapter 5, the charged particle cross-section may be parametrised by an exponential in transverse mass at low  $p_t$  and by a power law for higher  $p_t$  (eq.5.3). Fig. 8.4 shows the result of this hybrid fit to the inclusive  $K_S^0$  cross-section. The fit parameters are given in table 8.2. The parameter  $A$  is constrained

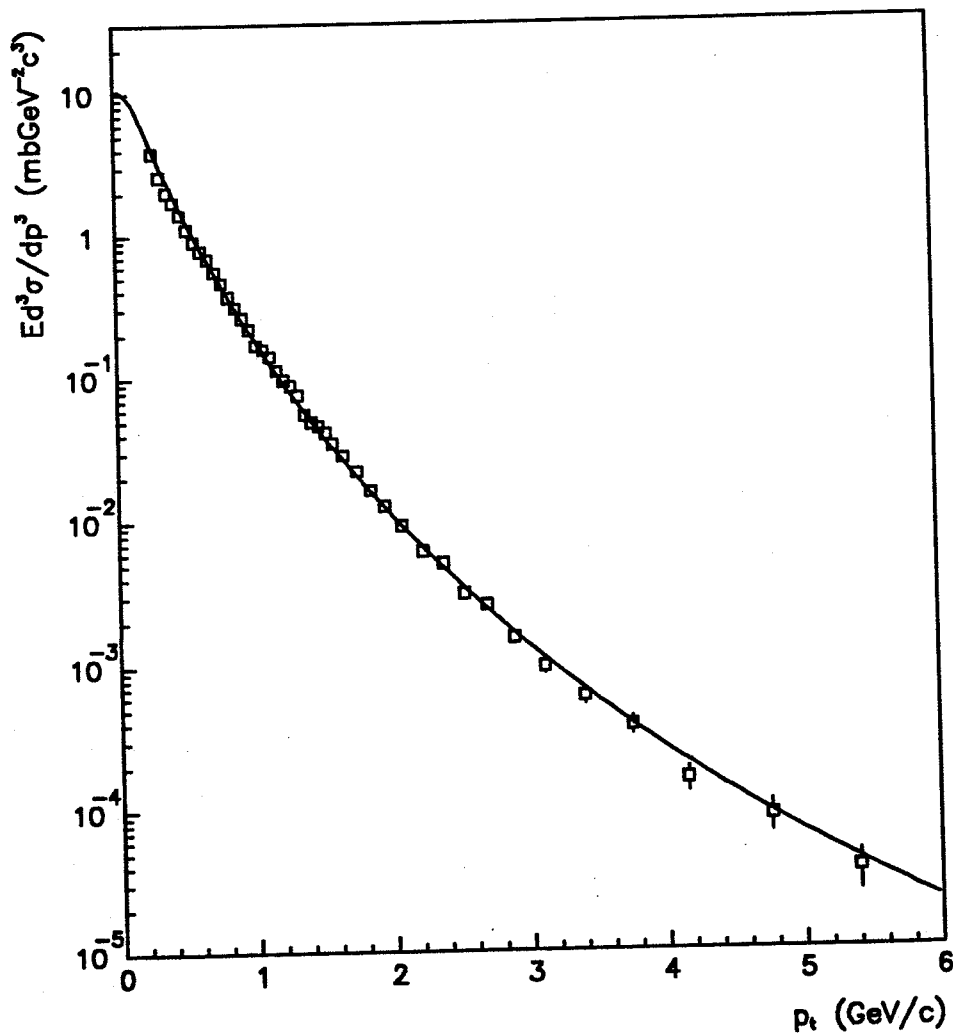


Figure 8.4: Hybrid fit to the inclusive  $K_S^0$  cross-section.

A ( $mbGeV^{-2}c^3$ )	$p_0$ ( $GeV/c$ )	n	$p_1$ ( $GeV/c$ )
15.53	$1.65 \pm 0.03$	$9.00 \pm 0.12$	0.2 (fixed)

Table 8.2: Parameters of the hybrid fit to the inclusive  $K_S^0$  cross section.

by the overall normalisation of the data. The fit converged with  $p_1 < 0.2 GeV/c$  so this parameter could not be determined from the data. Since the exponential in transverse mass is physically more justifiable than the power law at low  $p_t$ , the value of  $p_1$  was set to  $0.2 GeV/c$ . Following the procedure described in appendix C, the mean number of  $K_S^0$  per event,  $\langle n_{K_S^0} \rangle$ , is obtained from the parameters of the fit:

$$\langle n_{K_S^0} \rangle = 0.62 \pm 0.02 \quad (|\eta| < 2.5) \quad (8.3)$$

If a pure power law is used to extrapolate to  $p_t=0$ , then  $\langle n_{K_S^0} \rangle$  increases by 0.01. This result is consistent with the 1985 UA1 analysis [58] which found  $\langle n_{K_S^0} \rangle = 0.64 \pm 0.02_{stat} \pm 0.04_{sys}$  for  $|\eta| < 2.5$ , and with the UA5 result [59], obtained from combined  $K^\pm$  and  $K_S^0$  data, of  $\langle n_K \rangle = 0.69 \pm 0.06$ .

The mean transverse momentum,  $\langle p_t \rangle_{K_S^0}$ , is evaluated from the fit parameters as described in appendix C. Using eq. C.12:

$$\langle p_t \rangle_{K_S^0} = 0.55 \pm 0.01 GeV/c \quad (8.4)$$

This value decreases by  $0.02 GeV/c$  if the power law extrapolation is used. The variation of  $\langle p_t \rangle_{K_S^0}$  with  $\sqrt{s}$  is shown in fig. 8.5 [59,61, and references therein]. At the ISR ( $\sqrt{s} < 63 GeV$ ) the mean  $\langle p_t \rangle$  slowly increases (approximately logarithmically) with  $\sqrt{s}$ . At the energies of the Sp $\bar{p}$ S, the more rapid rise in  $\langle p_t \rangle$  with  $\sqrt{s}$  may be attributed to the increasing fraction of events containing high  $q^2$  parton-parton interactions. The  $\langle p_t \rangle$  for kaons is seen to be greater than the value measured for charged particles, which are predominantly pions, of  $\langle p_t \rangle_{ch} = 0.477 \pm 0.005$ . Fig. 8.6 shows the  $\langle p_t \rangle$  for pions, kaons and protons as a function of  $\sqrt{s}$ .

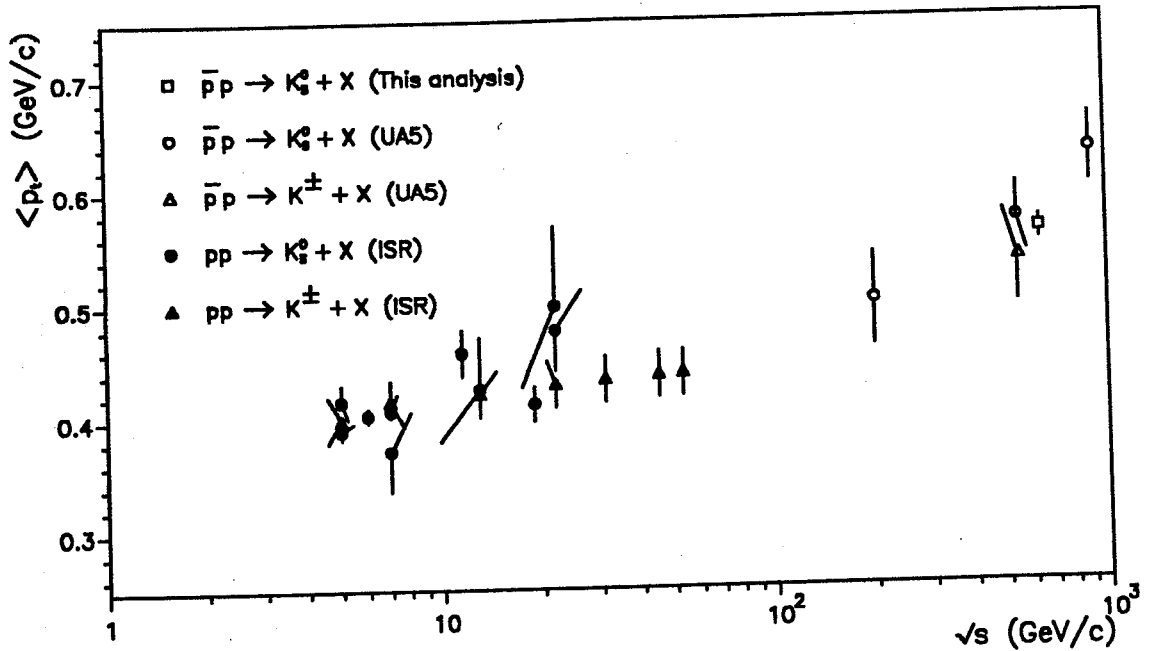


Figure 8.5: Mean  $p_t$  of kaons as a function of  $\sqrt{s}$  [59,61].

At any given  $\sqrt{s}$ , protons have a larger  $\langle p_t \rangle$  than kaons which themselves have a larger  $\langle p_t \rangle$  than pions, since in resonance decays and jet fragmentation the higher mass particles take a larger fraction of the parent particle momentum.

Fig. 8.7 shows the inclusive  $K_S^0$  cross-section for three bands of charged track multiplicity. The data have been normalised to the first point of the graph for  $4 < n_{ch} < 20$  to facilitate comparison of the three spectra. The solid lines show the hybrid fits to the three curves, the parameters of which are listed in table 8.3. As with the charged particle data shown in fig. 5.5, the  $p_t$  spectrum is harder (the power  $n$  is smaller) for higher multiplicity events. Quantitatively, there is an increase in the  $K_S^0$  mean  $p_t$  of about  $100 MeV/c$  over the three multiplicity ranges.

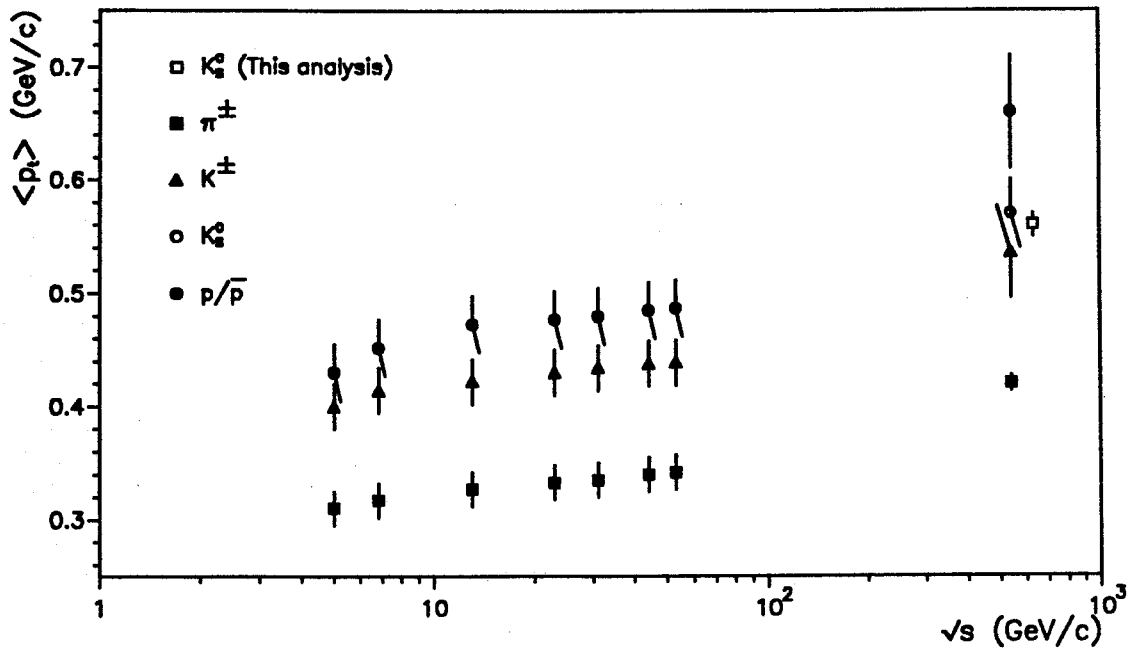


Figure 8.6: Mean  $p_t$  of pions, kaons and protons as a function of  $\sqrt{s}$  [59,61].

$A$ ( $mbGeV^{-2}c^3$ )	$p_0$ ( $GeV/c$ )	$n$	$p_1$ ( $GeV/c$ )	$\langle p_t \rangle$ ( $GeV/c$ )
5.90	$2.28 \pm 0.08$	$11.83 \pm 0.37$	0.2 (fixed)	$0.525 \pm 0.03$
5.79	$1.71 \pm 0.06$	$8.93 \pm 0.24$	0.2 (fixed)	$0.585 \pm 0.02$
1.27	$1.38 \pm 0.09$	$7.42 \pm 0.33$	0.2 (fixed)	$0.630 \pm 0.04$

Table 8.3: Parameters of the hybrid fit to the inclusive  $K_S^0$  cross section for different  $n_{ch}$  intervals.

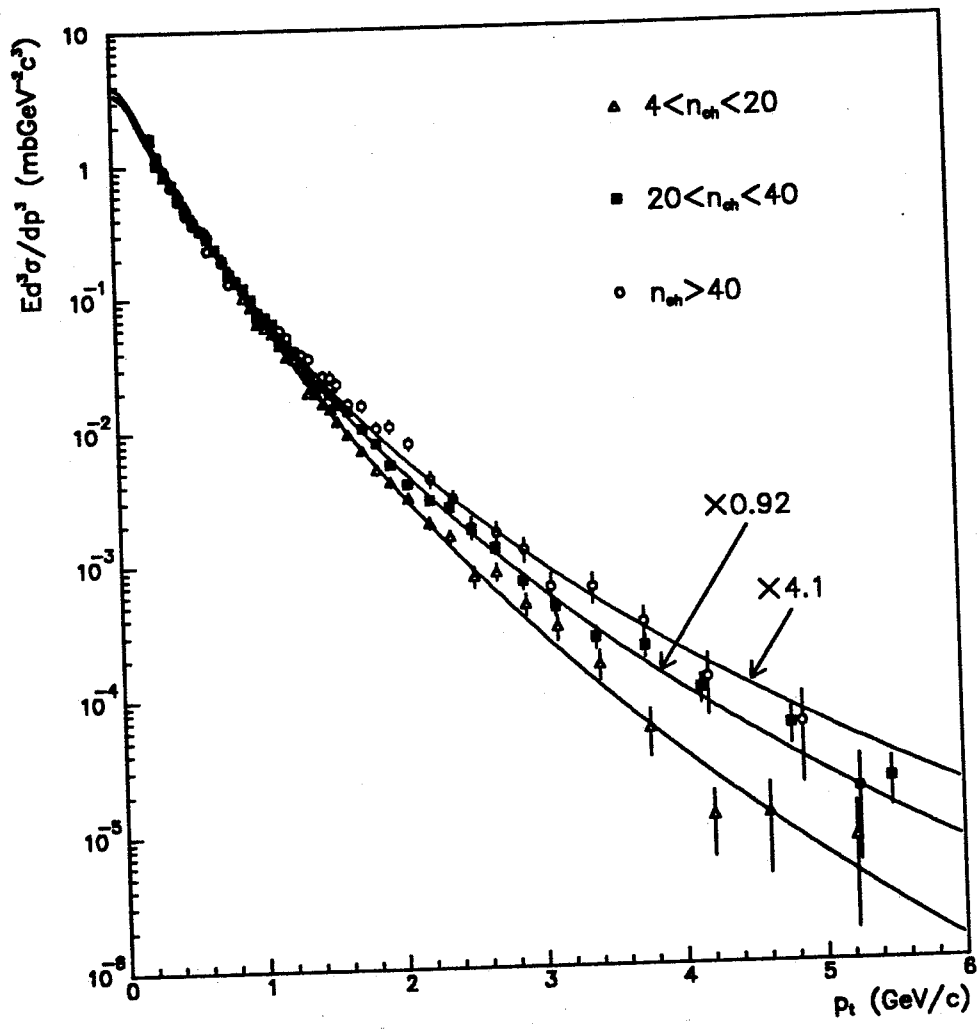


Figure 8.7: Invariant  $K_S^0$  cross-section as a function of  $n_{ch}$ .

### 8.3 $K/\pi$ ratio and strangeness suppression

From the inclusive charged hadron and  $K_S^0$  cross-sections measured in this analysis the  $K_S^0/h^\pm$  ratio<sup>1</sup> has been evaluated. The average  $K_S^0/h^\pm$  ratio has been evaluated from the mean number of  $K_S^0$ 's per event and the mean charged particle multiplicity. Using eqs. 5.5 and 8.3,

$$K_S^0/h^\pm = 0.072 \pm 0.003 \quad (8.5)$$

Systematic errors from the uncertainty in the minimum-bias cross-section cancel. Fig. 8.8 shows the variation of the  $K_S^0/h^\pm$  ratio with transverse momentum, obtained by taking the ratio of the invariant  $K_S^0$  and charged particle cross-sections. The UA2 results for  $K^\pm/h^\pm$  at  $\sqrt{s} = 540\text{GeV}$  [60] are also shown. The UA2  $K^\pm/h^\pm$

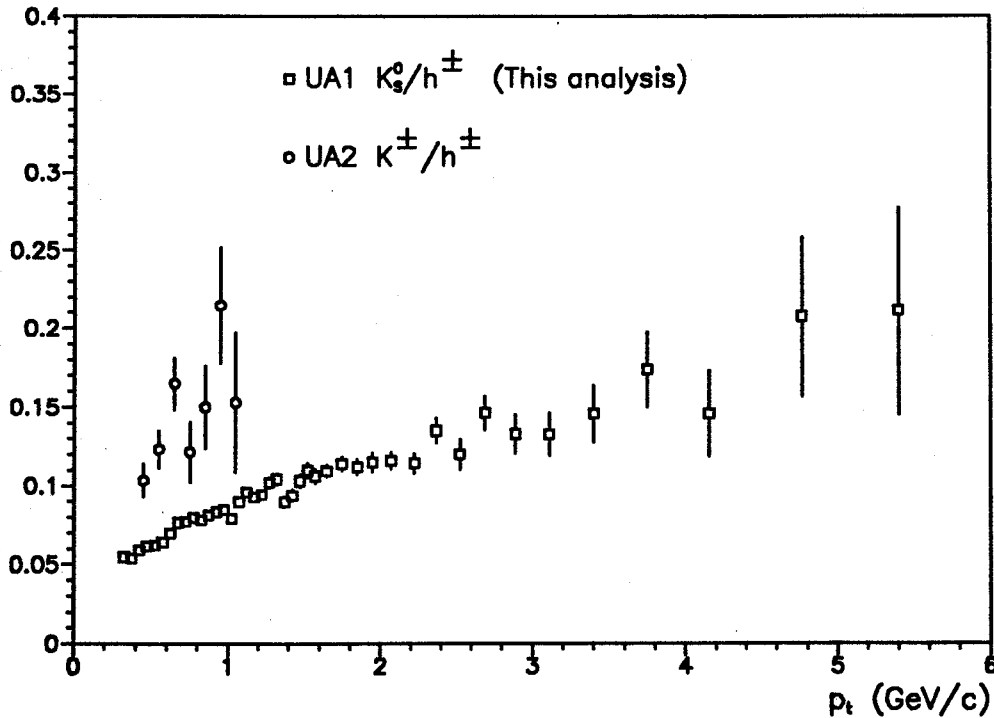


Figure 8.8:  $K_S^0/h^\pm$  ratio vs.  $p_t$  (UA2 data are from ref. [60]).

ratio is systematically higher than the  $K_S^0/h^\pm$  ratio measured in this analysis. This is probably due to the different trigger requirements of the two experiments and

<sup>1</sup>Throughout this chapter, the superscript “ $\pm$ ” indicates the *average* cross-section for the two charges, not the *sum*. Similarly, “ $p\bar{p}$ ” is used to denote  $(p + \bar{p})/2$ .

some residual pion contamination of the UA2 kaon sample as discussed above. The  $K_S^0/h^\pm$  ratio at low  $p_t$  is suppressed due to the heavier mass of the strange quark.

The inclusive hadron cross-section has contributions from both baryons and mesons. The suppression in the production of strange hadrons is, therefore, more clearly seen by comparing the pion and kaon cross-sections since kaons differ from pions only in the replacement of a  $d$  quark by an  $s$  quark. The average charged pion fraction, obtained from UA2 and UA5 data at  $\sqrt{s} = 546\text{GeV}$ , is  $\pi^\pm/h^\pm = 81.3 \pm 1.6\%$  [47]. The average  $K_S^0/\pi^\pm$  ratio can be obtained by writing:

$$\frac{K_S^0}{\pi^\pm} \approx \frac{\langle n_{K_S^0} \rangle_{630}}{\langle n_{h^\pm} \rangle_{630}} \times \frac{\langle n_{h^\pm} \rangle_{540}}{\langle n_{\pi^\pm} \rangle_{540}} = 8.9 \pm 0.4\% \quad (8.6)$$

The variation of the  $K/\pi$  ratio with  $\sqrt{s}$  is shown in fig. 8.9 [59,61]. There is a

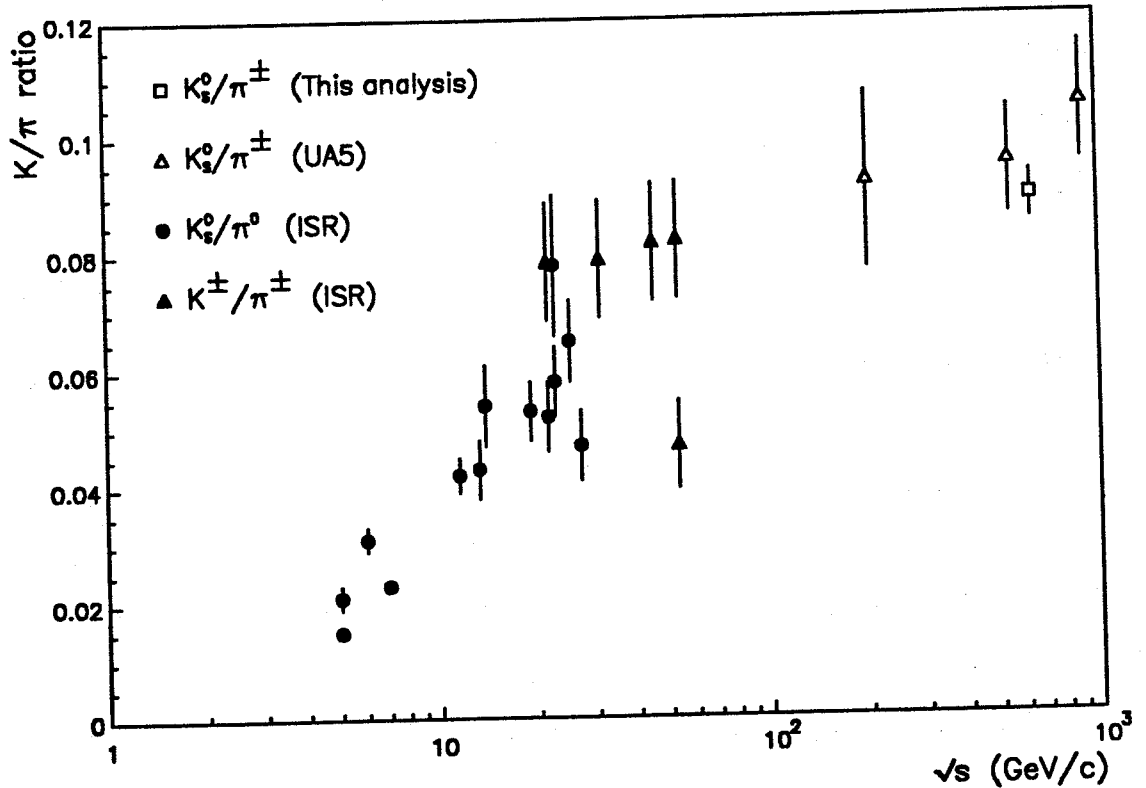


Figure 8.9:  $K/\pi$  ratio as a function of  $\sqrt{s}$  [59,61].

strong threshold effect at low  $\sqrt{s}$ , due to the higher mass of the strange quark compared to  $u$  or  $d$  quarks, leading to a suppression in the production of kaons



compared to pions. At high  $\sqrt{s}$  the  $K/\pi$  ratio seems to reach a constant value of approximately 9%. In the quark model, stable particles such as pions, kaons, nucleons, and  $\Lambda$ -hyperons may be produced directly from quarks in the colliding beam particles or and indirectly from the decays of short-lived resonances. The suppression, at large  $\sqrt{s}$ , of kaons relative to pions is due to the reduced phase-space available in resonance decays to heavier particles.

The suppression in the production of strange particles may be quantified by the parameter,  $\lambda$ , (defined in eq. 1.6) which measures the relative probability for producing an  $s$  quark compared to a  $u$  or  $d$  quark. The statistical quark model [10] discussed in §1.3, which includes the contributions from resonance decays, predicts the  $K/\pi$  ratio in terms of  $\lambda$ . From table 1.3:

$$K_S^0/\pi^\pm = \frac{12\lambda + 3\lambda^2}{31 + 12\lambda + 3\lambda^2 + \gamma(\frac{16}{3} + 4\lambda + \frac{8}{3}\lambda^2)} \quad (8.7)$$

where  $\gamma$  is defined as

$$\gamma = \frac{4 + 4\lambda + \lambda^2}{5 + 5\lambda + 3\lambda^2 + \lambda^3} \quad (8.8)$$

From eq. 8.6,  $K_S^0/\pi^\pm = 8.9 \pm 0.4\%$ , which yields a value:

$$\lambda = 0.28 \pm 0.01 \quad (8.9)$$

This is in good agreement with the value obtained by UA5 of  $\lambda = 0.30 \pm 0.03 \pm 0.03$  at  $\sqrt{s} = 540\text{GeV}$ .

The  $K_S^0/\pi$  ratio has been evaluated as a function of transverse momentum up to  $p_t = 6\text{GeV}/c$  by taking the ratio of the  $K_S^0$  cross-section measured in this analysis and the combined UA2 charged and neutral pion cross-sections at  $\sqrt{s} = 540\text{GeV}$ . The charged pion cross-section has been measured for  $0.4 < p_t < 1.4\text{GeV}/c$  using time-of-flight information to identify the pions [60]. The neutral pion cross-section [62] was obtained by reconstructing the decay:  $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ , over the higher  $p_t$  range,  $1.5 < p_t < 4.5\text{GeV}/c$ . The UA2 inclusive pion cross-sections are shown in fig. 8.10. The binning of the UA2 data is inconsistent with the binning of  $K_S^0$  data from this analysis. A fit of the hybrid form (eq. 5.3) was therefore made to the

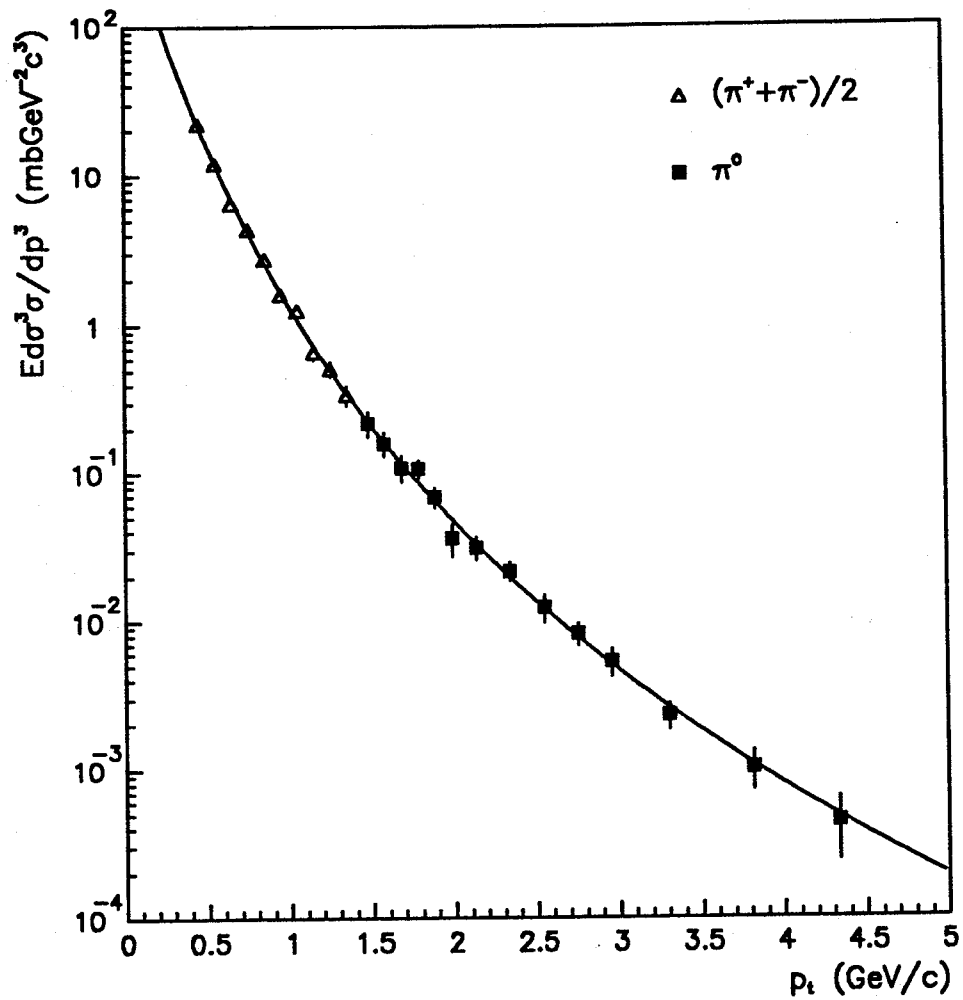


Figure 8.10: UA2 charged and neutral pion inclusive cross-sections, from refs. [60] and [62].

charged and neutral pion cross-sections and the result used to determine the pion cross-section at an arbitrary  $p_t$ . There is a 4% error in the measurement of the  $p_t$  of the  $\pi^0$ 's so the  $p_t$  values of the  $\pi^0$  data points were allowed to vary by a common factor in the fit, *i.e.*  $p_t \rightarrow fp_t$ . A value of  $f = 0.98$  was obtained. The result of the fit is shown by the solid line in fig. 8.10. In order to minimise the effect of the different centre-of-mass energies and to cancel the systematic errors in the luminosity calibrations of the two experiments the  $K_S^0$  and pion cross-sections were normalised to the appropriate inclusive hadron cross-sections, *i.e.*

$$\frac{K_S^0}{\pi} = \left[ \frac{f(K_S^0)}{f(h^\pm)} \right]_{630} \times \left[ \frac{f(h^\pm)_{\text{UA2}}}{f(\pi)_{\text{UA2}}} \right]_{540} \quad (8.10)$$

where  $f(p_t)$  is the inclusive invariant cross-section,  $Ed^3\sigma/dp^3$ , for the production of the appropriate particle type. Unfortunately, UA2 has only measured the inclusive charged hadron cross-section up to  $p_t = 2\text{GeV}/c$ . Extrapolation of a fit to this data to  $p_t = 6\text{GeV}$  introduces a large systematic uncertainty. UA1 has measured the inclusive charged hadron cross-section at  $\sqrt{s} = 540\text{GeV}/c$  to  $p_t = 10\text{GeV}/c$  [63]. A fit to this UA1 data, normalised to the UA2 total charged hadron cross-section, has therefore been used. Thus, the  $K_S^0/\pi$  ratio, as a function of  $p_t$  was calculated using the following expression:

$$\frac{K_S^0}{\pi} = \left[ \frac{f(K_S^0)}{f(h^\pm)} \right]_{630} \times \left[ \frac{f(h^\pm)_{\text{UA1}}}{f(\pi)_{\text{UA2}}} \right]_{540} \times \left[ \frac{\sigma_{\text{tot}}(h^\pm)_{\text{UA2}}}{\sigma_{\text{tot}}(h^\pm)_{\text{UA1}}} \right]_{540} \quad (8.11)$$

Fig. 8.11 shows the  $K_S^0/\pi$  ratio, as a function of  $p_t$ . Also shown are results from UA2 at  $\sqrt{s} = 540\text{GeV}$  [60] and from UA5 at  $\sqrt{s} = 546\text{GeV}/c$  [59]. At low  $p_t$  the higher mass of the  $s$  quark compared to  $u$  or  $d$  quarks suppresses the production of kaons compared to pions. For transverse momenta greater than about  $2\text{GeV}/c$  the  $K_S^0/\pi$  ratio becomes flatter as the strange quark mass becomes insignificant. This threshold effect may be removed by plotting the  $K/\pi$  ratio as a function of transverse mass,  $m_t = \sqrt{p_t^2 + m^2}$  ( $m$  is the kaon or pion mass) as shown in fig. 8.12. The  $K/\pi$  ratio as a function of  $m_t$  is approximately flat.

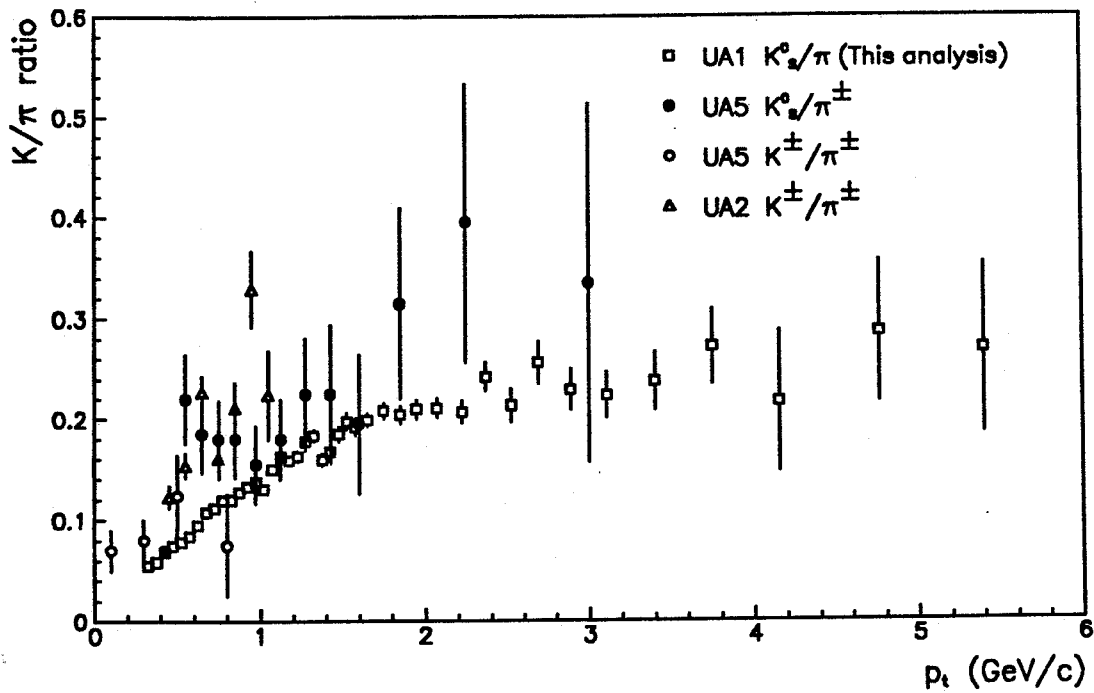


Figure 8.11:  $K/\pi$  ratio as a function of  $p_t$  compared with data from UA5 [59] and UA2 [60].

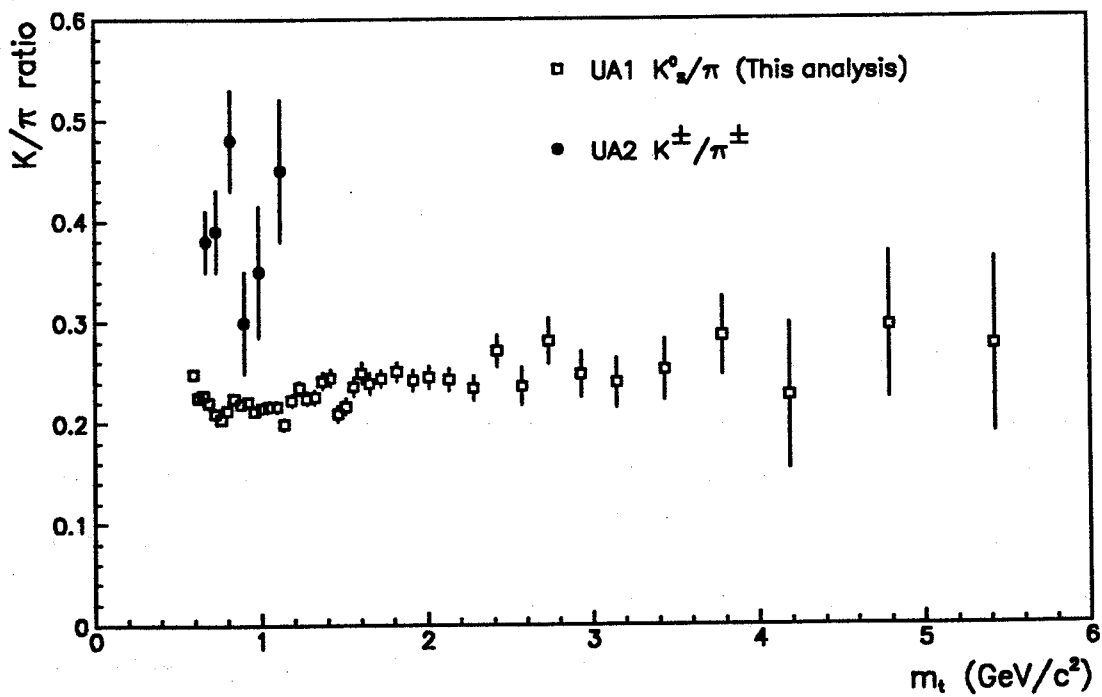


Figure 8.12:  $K/\pi$  ratio as a function of  $m_t$  (UA2 data is from ref. [60]).

## 9. Conclusions

The analysis presented herein is based on approximately two million minimum-bias events collected by the UA1 experiment during the 1987 Sp $\bar{p}$ S collider run. The very high statistics of this sample has enabled a detailed and accurate study of hadron production to be made. The results are based on data from the central drift chamber and great care has been taken to eliminate detector-dependent effects.

The inclusive charged particle cross-section has been measured up to a transverse momentum of  $15\text{GeV}/c$ . By extrapolating the  $p_t$  spectrum to  $p_t = 0$ , the mean charged particle multiplicity, and the mean transverse momentum have been evaluated. Comparison of these data with lower energy results shows that the mean multiplicity increases logarithmically with the centre-of-mass energy. The charged multiplicity distribution has been shown to be consistent with the KNO scaling hypothesis. The mean charged particle transverse momentum is strongly correlated with the multiplicity due to a significant number of events with an underlying hard scatter.

A search for secondary vertices arising from the decay:  $K_S^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$  was made. The large background from photon conversions, random track combinations and  $\Lambda$ -hyperon decays was drastically reduced by exploiting the differences in their decay topologies compared to kaons. A sample of 91 000  $K_S^0$  decays with a purity of 86% was obtained. The only previously published results on  $K_S^0$  production at the energies of the Sp $\bar{p}$ S collider come from the UA5 collaboration and are based on just 171  $K_S^0$  decays (in the same rapidity range of  $|\eta| < 2.5$ ). The efficiency for  $K_S^0$  reconstruction was evaluated as a function of  $p_t$ ,  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  by mixing simulated

$K_S^0$  decays with real events.

The inclusive cross-section for  $K_S^0$  production has been evaluated up to  $p_t = 6\text{GeV}/c$ . The mean number of  $K_S^0$  mesons produced per event was found to be:  $\langle n_{K_S^0} \rangle = 0.62 \pm 0.02$  ( $|\eta| < 2.5$ ). The mean  $K_S^0$  transverse momentum measured is  $\langle p_t \rangle_{K_S^0} = 0.55 \pm 0.01\text{GeV}/c$ . The more rapid increase in  $\langle p_t \rangle_{K_S^0}$  at the Sp $\bar{p}$ S energies compared with data at lower  $\sqrt{s}$  and the hardening of the  $K_S^0 p_t$  spectrum with increasing charged multiplicity is attributed to a significant fraction of events containing jets.

The ratio of the  $K_S^0$  cross-section from this analysis and the charged and neutral pion cross-sections of UA2 has been calculated. Using a statistical quark model, the production of strange quarks compared to either  $u$  or  $d$  quarks is found to be suppressed by an average factor of  $\lambda = 0.28 \pm 0.01$ .

## A. Central Detector Acceptance

A detailed knowledge of the charged track reconstruction efficiency (or acceptance) of the CD is necessary before any physical conclusions may be drawn. The acceptance is a function of  $p_t$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\phi$  and the charge of the particle. Contributions to the CD acceptance come from the geometry of the chamber, its performance and the efficiency of the track-finding algorithm. It is important to re-evaluate the acceptance periodically as the operating conditions of the chamber change. While the track-finding techniques were largely developed using Monte-Carlo generated tracks [34], evaluation of the acceptance using simulated data will give over-optimistic values. This is because it is impossible to model, with sufficient local detail, the behavior of the chamber — in particular the two-track resolution, the angular dependence of the pulse and the systematic errors. The CD acceptance is therefore evaluated using real minimum-bias data [64,65] from the appropriate data-taking period.

Figures A.1 to A.4 shows the charged track distribution for positive and negative particles for two  $p_t$  intervals. Exploiting the  $z$  symmetry of the CD, the data from the region  $90^\circ < |\phi| < 180^\circ$  have been folded with those within  $0^\circ < |\phi| < 90^\circ$  in order to improve the statistics. A lower statistics study showed that the

acceptance was symmetric within errors and unaffected by the small correction to the dip angle described in section 4.4. Particles in the region around  $\eta = 0$  and  $\phi = 0$  are moving in the direction of the field. Here the acceptance is poor since the the tracks have few points and very little curvature. The loss of tracks at large

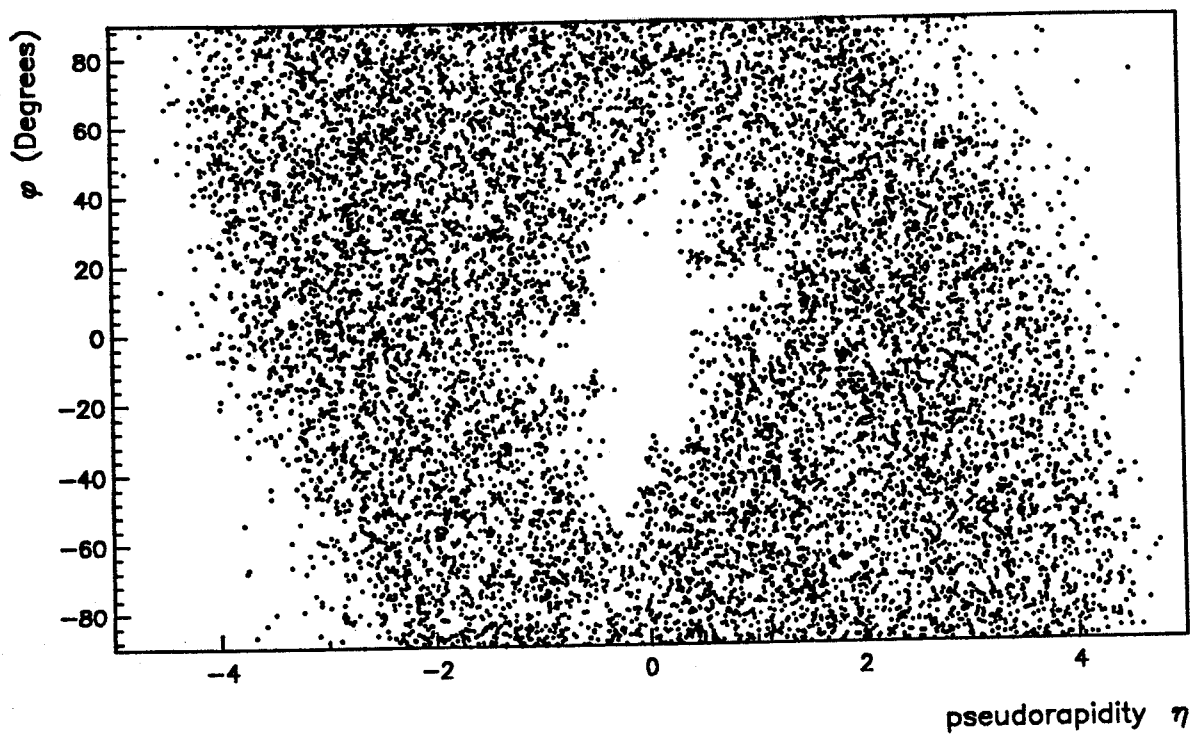


Figure A.1: Positive charged track distribution ( $0.2 < p_t < 0.3 \text{ GeV}/c$ )

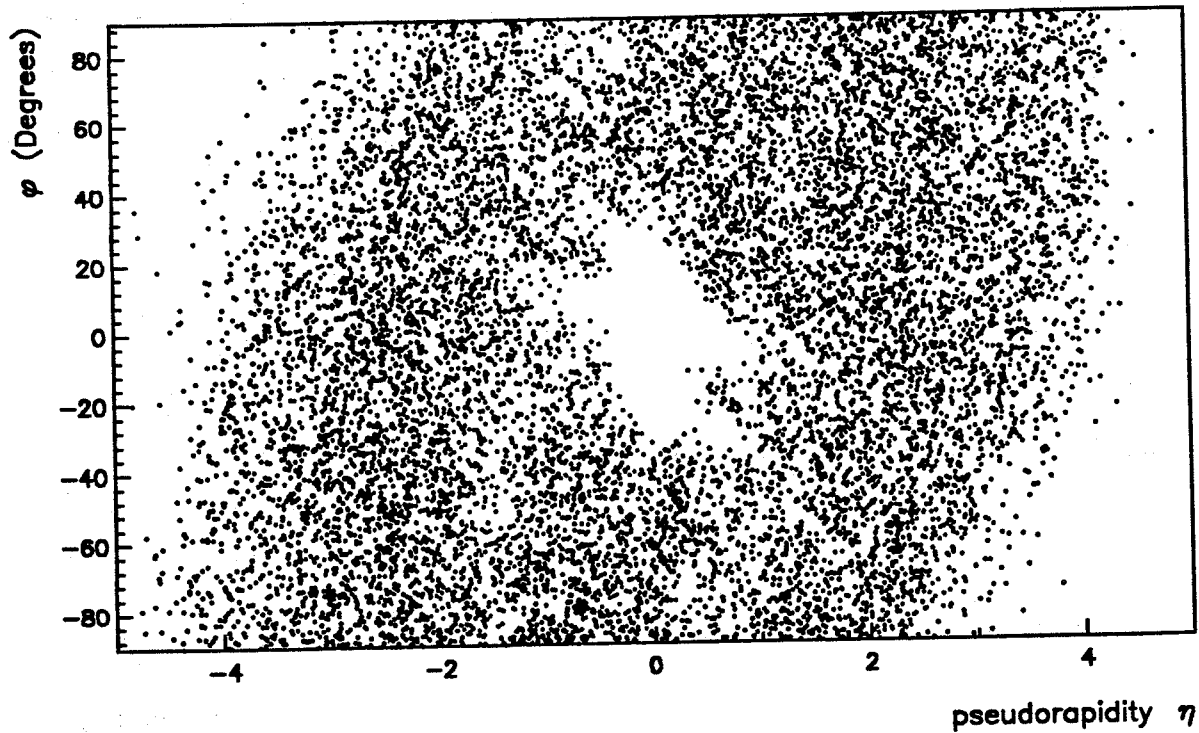


Figure A.2: Negative charged track distribution ( $0.2 < p_t < 0.3 \text{ GeV}/c$ )



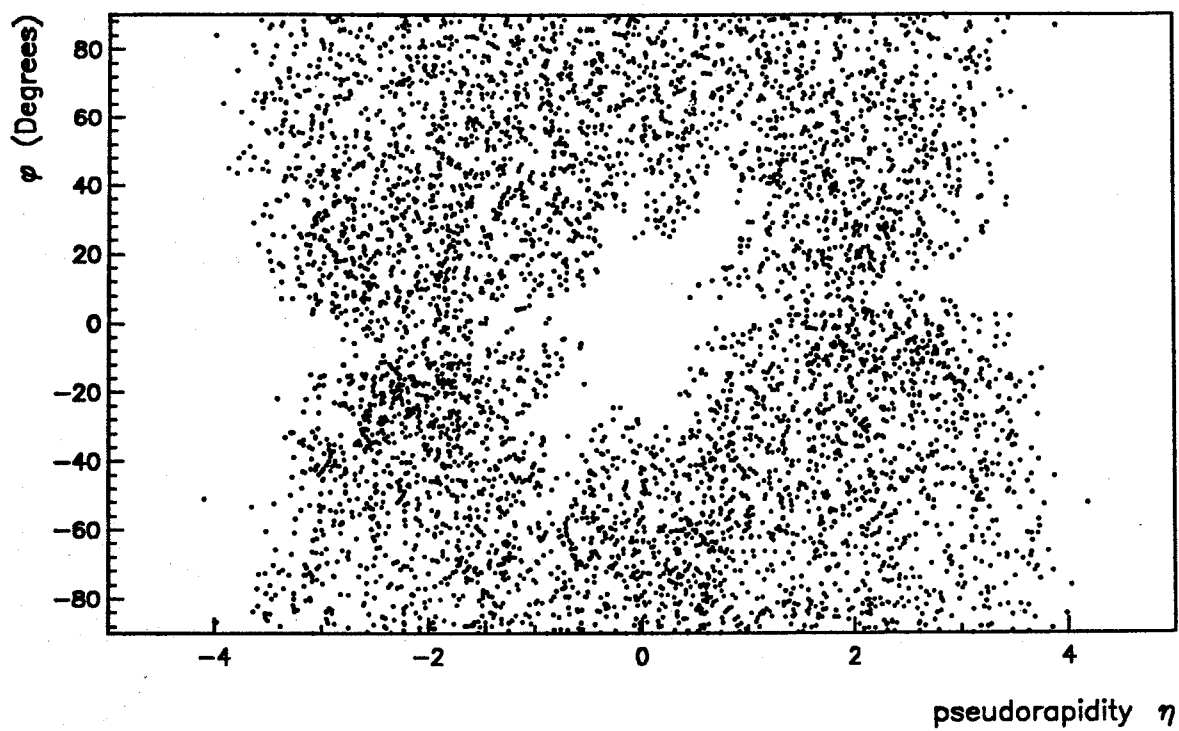


Figure A.3: Positive charged track distribution ( $1.0 < p_t < \infty$  GeV/c)

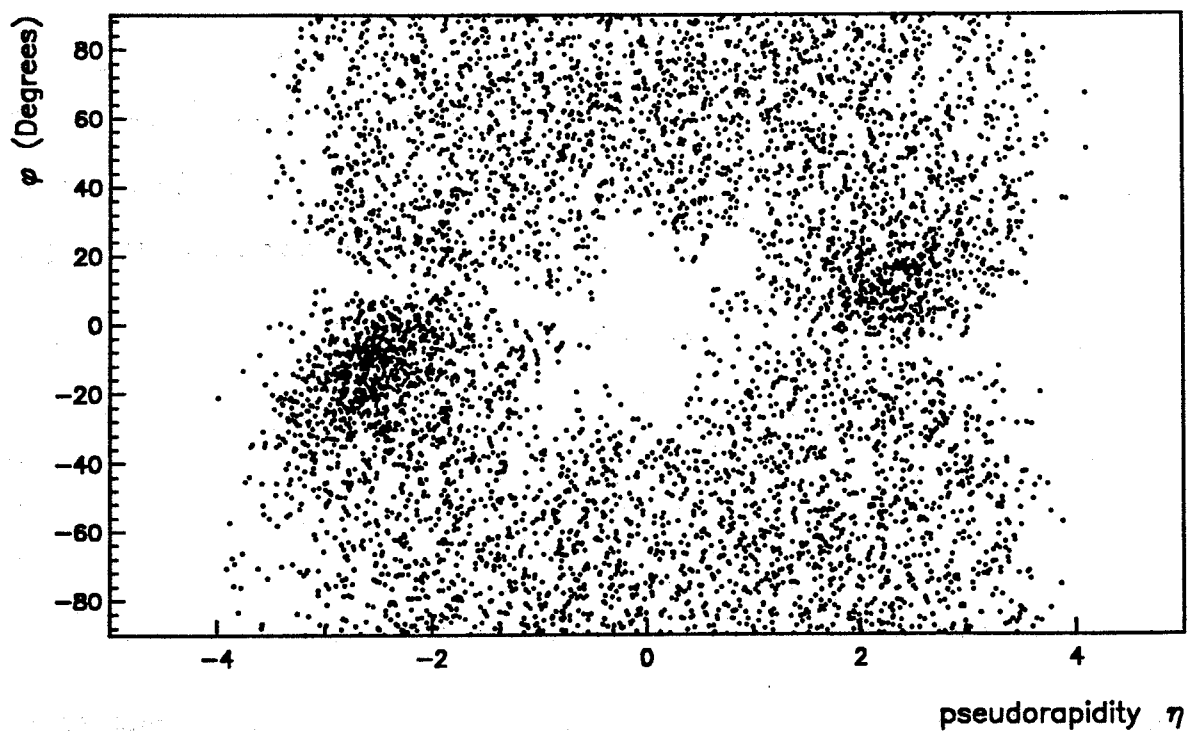


Figure A.4: Negative charged track distribution ( $1.0 < p_t < \infty$  GeV/c)

rapidities is charge-dependent since the particles are either deflected into or out of the beam-pipe by the magnetic field. This results in a loss of positive particles for  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  large and of the same sign, and a loss of negative particles for  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  large and of the opposite sign. Tracks with a large curvature are most affected since the starting point of a track is defined as the point of closest approach to the horizontal plane containing the beam. Hence, if a track curves through this plane it is split into two separate tracks each having fewer points and poor vertex association. The gap between the chambers ( $|\phi| \sim 0^\circ$  and all rapidity) is also seen, particularly at high  $p_t$ .

The CD acceptance is calculated as follows. For positive and negative particles separately, phase-space is divided into bins of equal size in  $\eta$  ( $\Delta\eta = 0.25$ ) and  $\phi$  ( $\Delta\phi = 11.25^\circ$ ), and of non-equal size in  $p_t$  (0.15–0.2–0.3–0.5–1.0– $\infty$  GeV/c). The variable binning in  $p_t$  maintains sufficient statistics in the high  $p_t$  region, and since the tracks become straighter with increasing  $p_t$ , the acceptance calculation does not suffer as a result. A sample of  $10^5$  events was used to calculate the acceptance.

The acceptance is calculated assuming that the  $\eta$  and  $\phi$  distributions are flat which is a reasonable assumption for the range,  $\eta < 2.5$ , used for this analysis. For each charge and  $p_t$ , the number of tracks satisfying some minimal standard track quality cuts (table A.1) is evaluated for each bin in  $\eta\phi$  space. The resulting

Projected length, $l_{xy}$	$> 40cm$
Number of points in $xy$ fit, $n_{pts}$	$> 20$
Goodness of $xy$ -fit, $\chi^2_{xy}$	$< 6.0$
Goodness of $z$ -fit, $\chi^2_z$	$< 9.0$

Table A.1: Track-quality cuts

population distribution is formed, as shown in fig. A.5, where the horizontal axis is the number of tracks in the  $\eta\phi$  bin and the vertical axis is the number of  $\eta\phi$  bins which contain this number of tracks. The distribution may be described by

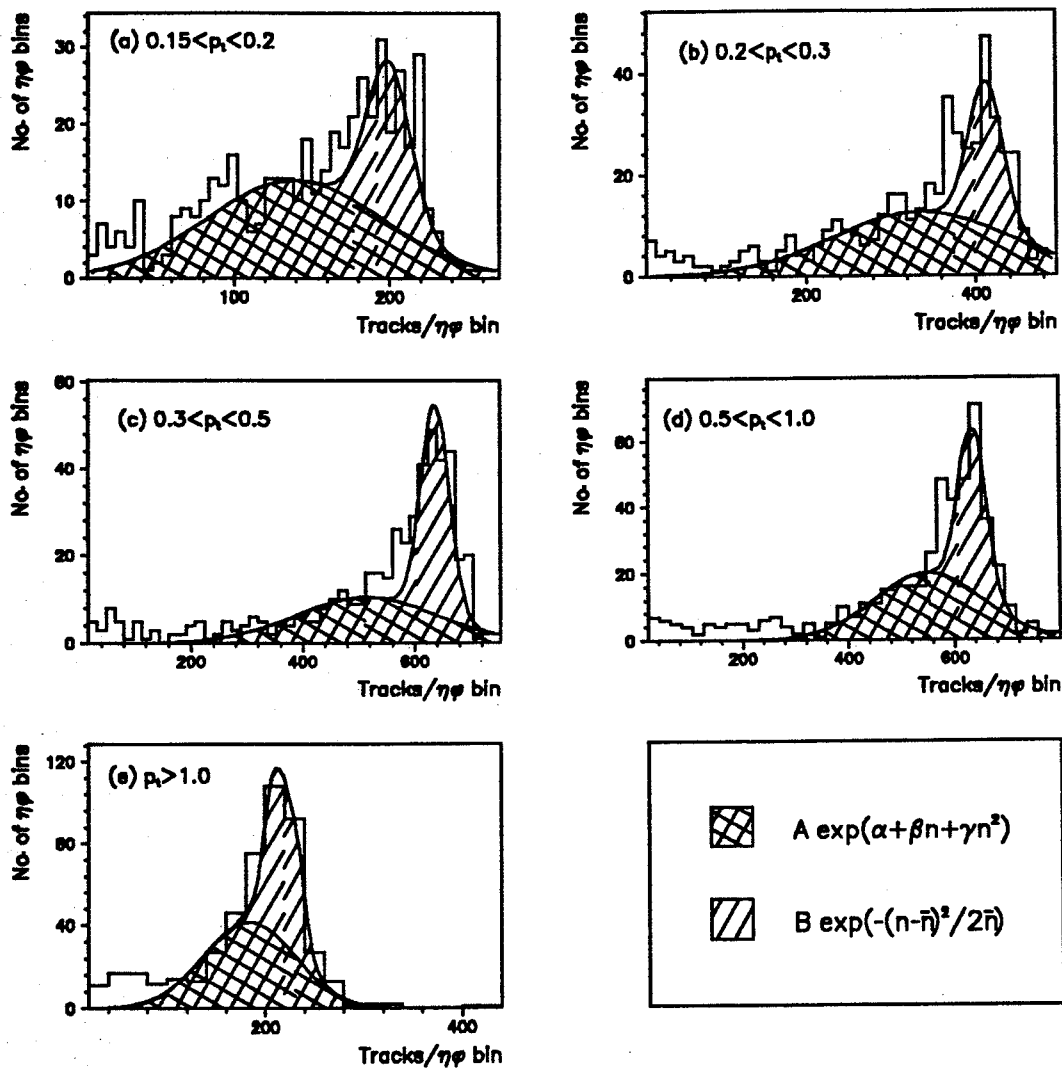


Figure A.5: Track population distributions vs.  $p_t$

a gaussian centred at  $\bar{n}$  with  $\sigma = \sqrt{\bar{n}}$  corresponding to bins of  $\sim 100\%$  efficiency,<sup>1</sup> plus a lower tail coming from the areas of poor acceptance. To improve the determination of  $\bar{n}$ , positive and negative tracks have been included in the same plot. The rejection of tracks by the track quality cuts is incorporated in the acceptance and does not bias the result provided no genuine tracks are rejected in the good regions of the CD. A fit of the form:

$$f(n) = Ae^{\alpha + \beta n + \gamma n^2} + Be^{-(n - \bar{n})^2 / 2\bar{n}} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

<sup>1</sup>The track-finding efficiency is in fact 96% [34], approximately independent of  $p_t$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\phi$  and multiplicity. The data have been corrected accordingly (see chapter 5).

is made to the distribution. The first term describes empirically the poorer regions of the CD and the second those regions with  $\sim 100\%$  efficiency and a gaussian measurement error. To avoid having  $\mathcal{A} > 1$  for any region, a cut-off  $n_{\text{cut}}$  is defined according to:

$$\int_0^{n_{\text{cut}}} B e^{-(n-\bar{n})^2/2\bar{n}} = \int_{n_{\text{cut}}}^{\infty} A e^{\alpha+\beta n+\gamma n^2} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

The gaussian component below  $n_{\text{cut}}$  is therefore balanced by the polynomial component above  $n_{\text{cut}}$ , so all bins with  $n \geq n_{\text{cut}}$  may be assumed to have 100% acceptance without introducing a systematic bias. The acceptance for each bin in  $\eta$ - $\phi$  is then given by:

$$\mathcal{A} = \begin{cases} 1.0, & \text{if } n \geq n_{\text{cut}} \\ n/\bar{n}, & \text{if } n < n_{\text{cut}} \end{cases} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

Although  $\bar{n}$  is determined by combining the data from positive and negative tracks, the acceptance is calculated separately for each. Acceptance-corrected physical distributions are then obtained by weighting each track by a factor  $1/\mathcal{A}$  interpolating in  $1/p_t$ .

The corrected number of tracks is subject to the statistical fluctuations as  $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow 0$ , so if the acceptance for any bin was less than a certain threshold value,  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{min}}$ , then it was set to zero and all other bins in  $\phi$  with the same  $\eta$  and  $p_t$  were scaled by

$$f(p_t, \eta) = \frac{\text{No. of bins in } \phi \text{ with } \mathcal{A} > 0}{\text{No. of bins in } \phi \text{ with } \mathcal{A} > \mathcal{A}_{\text{min}}} \quad (\text{A.4})$$

While this does not affect the  $p_t$  and  $\eta$  distributions, the  $\phi$  distribution becomes non-physical. In this analysis, a value  $\mathcal{A}_{\text{min}}=10\%$  was used.

A fiducial cut in projected  $\Phi$  was necessary due to noise in the CD close to the beam (section 4.3). This was implemented by setting the acceptance of all the  $\eta$ - $\phi$  bins falling within the region of the cut to zero (fig. 4.5). The other bins in  $\phi$  for the same  $\eta$  and  $p_t$  were then re-scaled in the same way as described above.

The systematic error in the differential charged particle cross-section, integrating over  $\phi$ ,  $\eta$  and taking both positive and negative charged particles, is less than 0.3% for each of the five  $p_t$  ranges considered.

## B. Charged track distribution in $\Phi$ and $\lambda$ .

In this appendix, the expected form of charged particle distribution, as a function of the projected angle  $\Phi$  and the dip angle  $\lambda$ , is evaluated assuming a flat distribution in azimuthal angle  $\phi$  and pseudo-rapidity  $\eta$ , *i.e.*

$$\frac{d^2 f}{d\phi d\eta} = A \quad (\text{B.1})$$

where  $A$  is constant. Making a Jacobian transformation of variables, this may be written

$$\frac{d^2 f}{d\Phi d\lambda} = \frac{d^2 f}{d\phi d\eta} \frac{\partial(\phi, \eta)}{\partial(\Phi, \lambda)} = A \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial\Phi} & \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial\lambda} \\ \frac{\partial\eta}{\partial\Phi} & \frac{\partial\eta}{\partial\lambda} \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{B.2})$$

$$= A \left( \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial\Phi} \frac{\partial\eta}{\partial\lambda} - \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial\lambda} \frac{\partial\eta}{\partial\Phi} \right) \quad (\text{B.3})$$

From fig.B.1,  $\phi$  and  $\theta = \theta(\eta)$  may be written in terms of  $\Phi$  and  $\lambda$ :

$$\tan \phi = \frac{y}{z} = \frac{y t r}{t r z} = \frac{\sin \Phi \cos \lambda}{\sin \lambda} \quad (\text{B.4})$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r} = \frac{x t}{t r} = \cos \Phi \cos \lambda \quad (\text{B.5})$$

The individual partial derivatives are determined by differentiation of eqs. B.4 and B.5:

$$\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial\Phi} = \frac{\cos \lambda \cos \Phi}{\sin \lambda} \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{\sin \Phi \cos \lambda}{\sin \lambda} \right)^2 \right]^{-1} \quad (\text{B.6})$$

$$\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial\lambda} = -\frac{\sin \Phi}{\sin^2 \lambda} \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{\sin \Phi \cos \lambda}{\sin \lambda} \right)^2 \right]^{-1} \quad (\text{B.7})$$

and, using the definition of pseudo-rapidity,  $\eta = -\ln(\tan(\theta/2))$ :

$$\frac{\partial\eta}{\partial\Phi} = \frac{\partial\eta}{\partial\theta} \frac{\partial\theta}{\partial\Phi} = \left( \frac{-1}{\sin \theta} \right) \left( \frac{\sin \Phi \cos \lambda}{\sin \theta} \right) \quad (\text{B.8})$$

$$= -\sin \Phi \cos \lambda \left( 1 - \cos^2 \Phi \cos^2 \lambda \right)^{-1} \quad (\text{B.9})$$

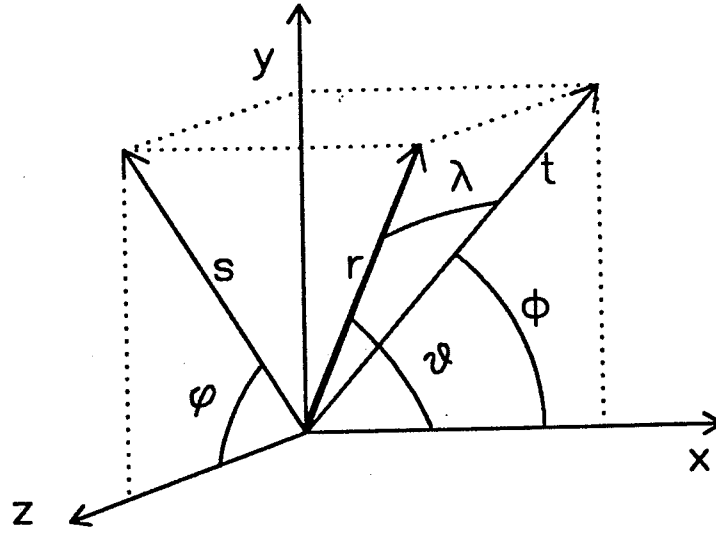


Figure B.1: Charged track distribution geometry.

$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \lambda} = \left( \frac{-1}{\sin \theta} \right) \left( \frac{\cos \Phi \sin \lambda}{\sin \theta} \right) \quad (\text{B.10})$$

$$= -\cos \Phi \sin \lambda \left( 1 - \cos^2 \Phi \cos^2 \lambda \right)^{-1} \quad (\text{B.11})$$

Substituting eqs.B.6 B.7, B.9 and B.11 in eq.B.3, yields after some reduction:

$$f(\Phi, \lambda) = \frac{A \cos \lambda}{1 - \cos^2 \lambda \cos^2 \Phi} \quad (\text{B.12})$$

## C. Fitting the $p_t$ spectra

As discussed in chapter 1 the inclusive charged hadron cross-section is predicted to behave as an exponential in transverse mass,  $m_t = \sqrt{p_t^2 + m_\pi^2}$ , at low  $p_t$  and as a power law at higher  $p_t$ , as given by eq. 5.3. In this appendix the procedure for extracting the total cross-section and mean transverse momentum from the hybrid fit parameters is outlined.

The invariant cross-section has been fitted with a hybrid function:

$$E \frac{d^3\sigma}{dp^3} = \begin{cases} f(p_t) = B e^{-\beta m_t} & ; \text{ if } p_t < p_1 \\ g(p_t) = A \left( \frac{p_0}{p_t + p_0} \right)^n & ; \text{ if } p_t \geq p_1 \end{cases} \quad (\text{C.1})$$

The parameters  $B$  and  $\beta$  are constrained by requiring continuity of the functions and their first derivatives at the crossover point  $p_t = p_1$ . The first constraint,  $f(p_1) = g(p_1)$ , gives

$$B e^{-\beta(p_1^2 + m_\pi^2)^{1/2}} = A \left( \frac{p_0}{p_0 + p_1} \right)^n \quad (\text{C.2})$$

The second constraint,  $df(p_1)/dp_t = dg(p_1)/dp_t$ , results in

$$B \beta p_t \frac{e^{-\beta(p_1^2 + m_\pi^2)^{1/2}}}{(p_1^2 + m_\pi^2)^{1/2}} = \frac{A n}{p_0} \left( \frac{p_0}{p_0 + p_1} \right)^{n+1} \quad (\text{C.3})$$

These are then solved to yield expressions in terms of  $A$ ,  $n$ ,  $p_0$  and  $p_1$  for  $B$

$$B = A \left( \frac{p_0}{p_0 + p_1} \right)^n e^{\beta(p_1^2 + m_\pi^2)^{1/2}} \quad (\text{C.4})$$

and for the exponential factor,  $\beta$

$$\beta = \left( \frac{n}{p_0 + p_1} \right) \frac{(p_1^2 + m_\pi^2)^{1/2}}{p_1} \quad (\text{C.5})$$

For the fit, only  $A$ ,  $n$  and  $p_0$  are allowed to vary and, for a given  $p_1$ , the parameters  $B$  and  $\beta$  are given by eqs. C.4 and C.5.

## C.1 Total cross-section and mean multiplicity

The total inclusive cross-section,  $\sigma_t$ , is given by the integral:

$$\sigma_t = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial p_t} dp_t \approx 2\pi \Delta \eta \int_0^{\infty} p_t \left( E \frac{d^3 \sigma}{dp^3} \right) dp_t \quad (\text{C.6})$$

where  $E d^3 \sigma / dp^3$  is given by eq. C.1. This expression is evaluated analytically from the fit parameters,  $A$ ,  $n$  and  $p_0$ , automatically including the extrapolation to  $p_t = 0$  necessary as a result of the  $p_t < 0.15 \text{ GeV}/c$ . The integral for the exponential function,  $f(p_t)$ , over the range  $[p_{t,1}, p_{t,2}]$  is

$$I_f \Big|_{p_{t,1}}^{p_{t,2}} = 2\pi \Delta \eta \left[ \frac{-B}{\beta^2} e^{-\beta m_t} (1 + \beta m_t) \right]_{p_{t,1}}^{p_{t,2}} \quad (\text{C.7})$$

where  $p_{t,1} < p_{t,2} < p_1$ . For the power law function,  $g(p_t)$ , the integral (valid for  $p_1 < p_{t,1} < p_{t,2}$ ) is

$$I_g \Big|_{p_{t,1}}^{p_{t,2}} = 2\pi \Delta \eta \left[ C \left( \frac{p_0}{p_0 + p_t} \right)^n \frac{(p_0 + p_t)}{(n-2)(n-1)} \left( (1-n)p_t - p_0 \right) \right]_{p_{t,1}}^{p_{t,2}} \quad (\text{C.8})$$

The total cross-section is then given by the sum of  $I_f$  and  $I_g$  for the full  $p_t$  range, *i.e.*

$$\sigma_t = I_f \Big|_0^{p_1} + I_g \Big|_{p_1}^{\infty} \quad (\text{C.9})$$

This analytic form has been verified by a numerical calculation of the integral.

The mean charged track multiplicity in minimum-bias events is then simply

$$\langle n_{ch} \rangle = \frac{\sigma_t}{\sigma_{MB}} \quad (\text{C.10})$$

where  $\sigma_{MB}$ , the minimum-bias trigger cross-section, is given by eq. 2.4.

## C.2 Mean $p_t$

The mean transverse momentum,  $\langle p_t \rangle$ , is calculated from the fit parameters in a similar way to the total cross-section:

$$\langle p_t \rangle = \frac{1}{\sigma_t} \int_0^{\infty} p_t \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial p_t} dp_t \approx \frac{2\pi \Delta \eta}{\sigma_t} \int_0^{\infty} p_t^2 \left( E \frac{d^3 \sigma}{dp^3} \right) dp_t \quad (\text{C.11})$$



where the invariant cross-section is given by eq. C.1. The two resulting integrals do not have trivial analytic solutions and so have been evaluated numerically for given values of the fit parameters. In the limit  $\delta p_t \rightarrow 0$ , eq. C.11 may be written

$$\langle p_t \rangle = \sum_{p_t} \left[ \frac{2\pi\Delta\eta}{\sigma_t} p_t^2 \left( E \frac{d^3\sigma}{dp^3} \right) \delta p_t \right] \quad (\text{C.12})$$

which gives  $\langle p_t \rangle$  to arbitrary accuracy.

## D. Effect of the CD resolution on the $p_t$ -spectrum

### D.1 Evaluation of the $p_t$ resolution

In the drift-plane the spatial resolution is determined by the time-spread of the arrival of the first electrons. By studying the residuals of many fitted tracks, the single hit measurement error is found to be distributed according to a gaussian of width  $\sigma_{xy} \approx 250 \mu m$ . Similarly, in the charge division coordinate  $\sigma_z \approx 1.7\% \times l_{wire}$ . For a track of length  $l$  and sagitta  $s$ , subtending an angle  $2\alpha$  at the origin of the track circle, radius  $R$ , the sagitta may be written as

$$s = R(1 - \cos\alpha) \quad (D.1)$$

Expanding in terms of  $\alpha = l/2R$  gives

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{8s}{l^2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{l}{R} \right)^2 + \dots \right) \quad (D.2)$$

The error on the sagitta is gaussian and dominates since the track length is well measured, therefore  $1/p \propto 1/R$  has, to first order, a gaussian error. The track length is not constant, depending mainly on the geometry of the chamber, however it is found that  $\sigma_{1/p}$  is roughly constant. Hence, using the relation  $p_t = p\sqrt{1 - \cos^2 \lambda \cos^2 \Phi}$ , by standard propagation of errors:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sigma_{p_t}^2}{p_t^2} &= \frac{\sigma_p^2}{p^2} + \left( \frac{\cos \lambda \sin \lambda \cos^2 \Phi}{1 - \cos^2 \lambda \cos^2 \Phi} \right)^2 \sigma_\lambda^2 + \left( \frac{\cos \Phi \sin \Phi \cos^2 \lambda}{1 - \cos^2 \Phi \cos^2 \lambda} \right)^2 \sigma_\Phi^2 \\ &+ \frac{2}{p} \left( \frac{\cos \lambda \sin \lambda \cos^2 \Phi}{1 - \cos^2 \Phi \cos^2 \lambda} \right) \sigma_{p,\lambda} + \frac{2}{p} \left( \frac{\cos \Phi \sin \Phi \cos^2 \lambda}{1 - \cos^2 \Phi \cos^2 \lambda} \right) \sigma_{p,\Phi} \end{aligned} \quad (D.3)$$

There is no correlation in the  $\lambda$  and  $\Phi$  measurements. The momentum may be expressed in terms of the projected momentum,  $p_{xy}$ , and the dip angle,  $\lambda$ , since  $p_{xy} = p \cos \lambda$ . The correlation term,  $\sigma_{p,\lambda}$ , then becomes

$$\sigma_{p,\lambda}^2 = \langle \delta p \delta \lambda \rangle = (p \tan \lambda) \sigma_\lambda^2 \quad (D.4)$$

The errors in the measured track parameters, namely  $\sigma_{1/p}^2$ ,  $\sigma_\lambda^2$ ,  $\sigma_\Phi^2$  and  $\sigma_{p,\Phi}$ , are evaluated for each reconstructed track. Using eq. D.3  $\sigma_{1/p_t}$  may be obtained (fig. D.1). The dominance of the momentum error is apparent in the flatness of this

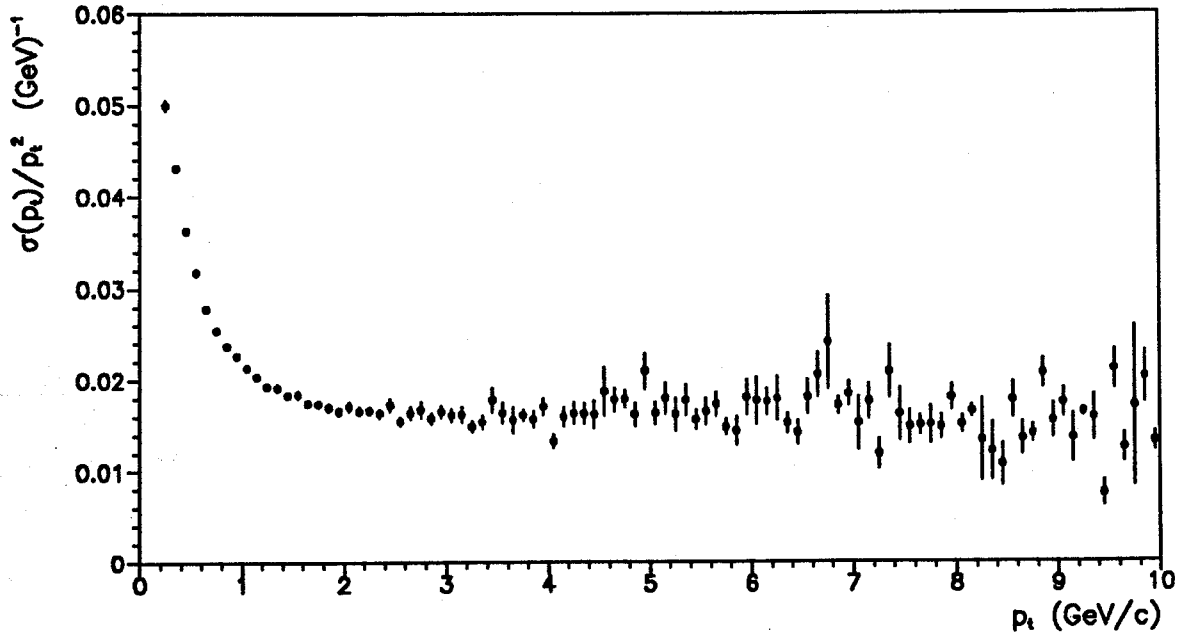


Figure D.1: Inclusive charged track  $p_t$  resolution.

plot. The rise at low  $p_t$  is due to increased multiple scattering and reconstruction problems. Since the resolution is good at low  $p_t$  it has little effect on the  $p_t$  distribution, therefore a constant  $\sigma_{1/p_t} = 0.017(\text{GeV}/c)^{-1}$  was assumed.

In order to evaluate the effect of the resolution on a physical distribution, the form of the error in  $1/p_t$  (in addition to its mean value) must be known. From eq. D.3 a gaussian distribution may not be automatically assumed, although the dominant term  $(\sigma_p/p)^2$ , is gaussian in  $1/p$ . A sample of 5000 minimum-bias events was generated using the Isajet Monte-Carlo [39] and passed through the standard detector simulation and event reconstruction software. The reconstructed and generated transverse momenta are compared by plotting the quantity  $(1/p_t^{rec} - 1/p_t^{gen})/\sigma_{1/p_t}$ , where  $\sigma_{1/p_t}$ , the reconstruction error, has no systematic contribution. The mean of the data for  $p_t > 0.2 \text{ GeV}/c$ , shown in fig. D.2(a), is approximately zero with an r.m.s. of  $(1.02 \pm 0.01)$  as expected in this representation. A rather poor gaussian fit to the data yields a width of  $\sigma_{fit} = 0.72 \pm 0.03$ . This plot

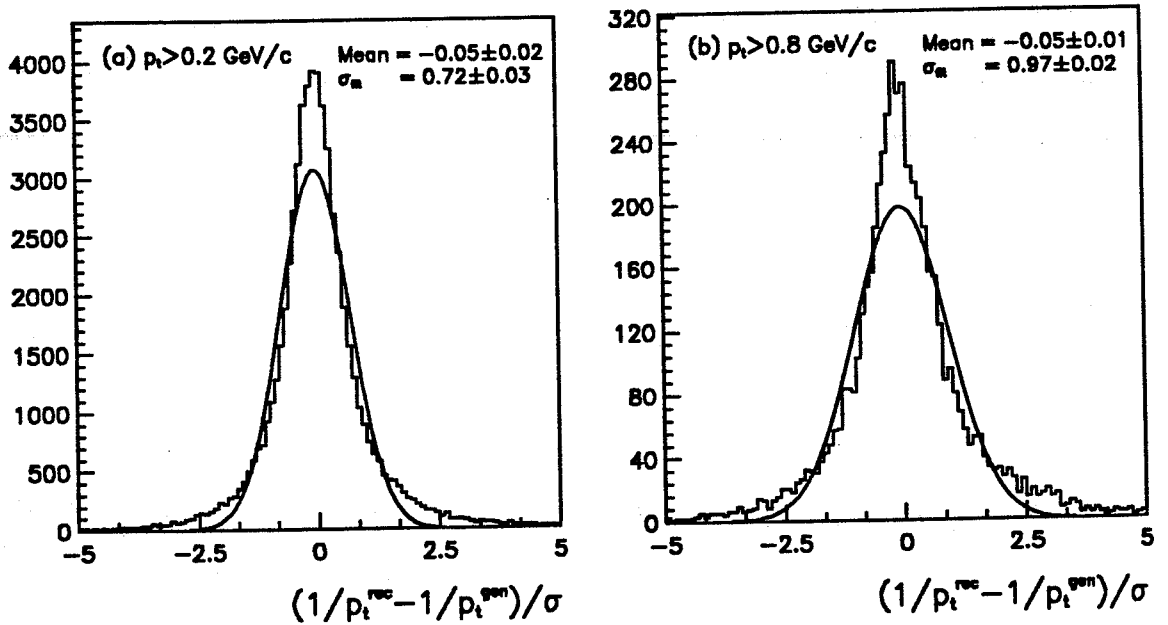


Figure D.2: Normalised error distribution in  $1/p_t$

is, however, dominated by the low  $p_t$  particles for which  $\sigma_{1/p_t}$  is not constant, so a superposition of gaussians would be more reasonable. At low  $p_t$ , however, the effect of the resolution on the momentum spectrum is small. As  $p_t$  increases the tracks become straighter so  $\Phi$  and  $\lambda$  are more accurately determined such that the momentum measurement error dominates. Fig. D.2(b) shows the same dis-

tribution for  $p_t > 0.8 \text{ GeV}/c$ . A gaussian fit yields  $\sigma_{fit} = 0.97 \pm 0.02$ . The difference in test  $p_t$  distributions smeared with pure gaussian or slightly non-gaussian (as in fig. D.2) error distributions was found to be small compared to the difference between the smeared and unsmeared distributions. The error in  $1/p_t$  was therefore parametrised by a gaussian for all  $p_t$ .

## D.2 Deconvolution of the $p_t$ spectrum

The differential cross-section must be corrected for the resolution of the CD. Since it is a steeply-falling distribution, the spectrum tends to become harder due to the smearing to higher  $p_t$  of lower momentum tracks. In order to deconvolute the true distribution from the measured one, an iterative procedure has been used. It is assumed that the measured and the true invariant cross-sections may be parametrised according to eq. 5.3. The smearing correction is, however, applied to the distribution,  $f(p_t)$ , defined using eq. 5.1 to be:

$$f(p_t) = \frac{d\sigma}{dp_t} \approx \Delta\phi \Delta\eta p_t E \frac{d^3\sigma}{dp^3} \quad (\text{D.5})$$

since it is this distribution (within constant factors) which is primarily affected by the CD resolution.

A track having a true value  $x = 1/p_t$ <sup>1</sup> will yield a measured value  $\tilde{x}$  with a certain probability density, or resolution function  $\rho(x, \tilde{x})$ . Thus, if the true distribution of  $x$  is  $g(x)$  then the measured distribution  $\tilde{g}(\tilde{x})$  will be

$$\tilde{g}(\tilde{x}) = \int_0^\infty dx \rho(x, \tilde{x}) g(x) \quad (\text{D.6})$$

The normalised gaussian resolution function,  $\rho(x, \tilde{x})$ , is given by

$$\rho(x, \tilde{x}) = \frac{e^{-(x-\tilde{x})^2/2\sigma_x^2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_x} \quad (\text{D.7})$$

---

<sup>1</sup>The distribution of interest is the  $p_t$  spectrum but since the CD error is gaussian in  $1/p_t$ , it is more natural to work with  $x = 1/p_t$ . Throughout this section,  $f$  denotes the  $p_t$  distribution and  $g$  denotes the corresponding  $x$  distribution, given by  $g(x) = -f(p_t)/p_t^2$ . A tilde is used to distinguish experimentally determined quantities.

The deconvolution of the  $p_t$  spectrum proceeds as follows: firstly, a sensible guess  $f^0(p_t)$  is made for the form of the true distribution  $f(p_t)$ . The initial choice of  $f^0(p_t)$  is a fit to the measured data, which is justified since the measured and the true distributions are sufficiently close. Next,  $g^0(x) = -f^0(p_t)/p_t^2$  is smeared according to eq. D.6, resulting in a new distribution  $g'(x)$ , from which  $f'(p_t) = -p_t^2 g'(x)$ . Provided the trial function is reasonably close to the true distribution, the ratio of the true distribution to the measured distribution is approximately equal to the ratio of the trial function to the smeared trial function, *i.e.*

$$\frac{f(p_t)}{\tilde{f}(p_t)} \approx \frac{f^0(p_t)}{f'(p_t)} \quad (\text{D.8})$$

The true distribution is then given approximately by

$$f(p_t) \approx f^0(p_t) \mathcal{W}(p_t) \quad \text{where: } \mathcal{W}(p_t) = \frac{\tilde{f}(p_t)}{f'(p_t)} \quad (\text{D.9})$$

The correction function  $\mathcal{W}(p_t)$  is a measure of the goodness of the trial function  $f^0(p_t)$  and is consistent, within statistics, with unity when the trial function corresponds to the true function.

The correction  $\mathcal{W}(p_t)$  is applied to the data points, the errors are recalculated, and the points are re-fitted to yield another trial function  $f^1(p_t)$ , which is closer to the true distribution,  $f(p_t)$  than the first approximation  $f^0(p_t)$ . The procedure is then repeated using  $f^1(p_t)$ ,  $f^2(p_t)$ , etc. as trial distributions until smearing of the trial distribution reproduces the experimental data, *i.e.*  $\mathcal{W}(p_t) \simeq 1.0, \forall p_t$ . Fig. D.3 shows the values of the fit parameters of corrected  $p_t$  spectrum as a function of the number of iterations of the deconvolution procedure. All the parameters are seen to converge rapidly to stable values. Fig. D.4 shows the inclusive charged particle cross-section before and after the smearing correction has been applied.

A test  $\tilde{f}(p_t)$  distribution was produced using eq. D.5 by allowing the binned test function to fluctuate within Poisson statistics. These "data" were then smeared according to eq. D.3 and the deconvolution procedure is applied. The parameters from the fit after the final iteration were compared to those of the generated

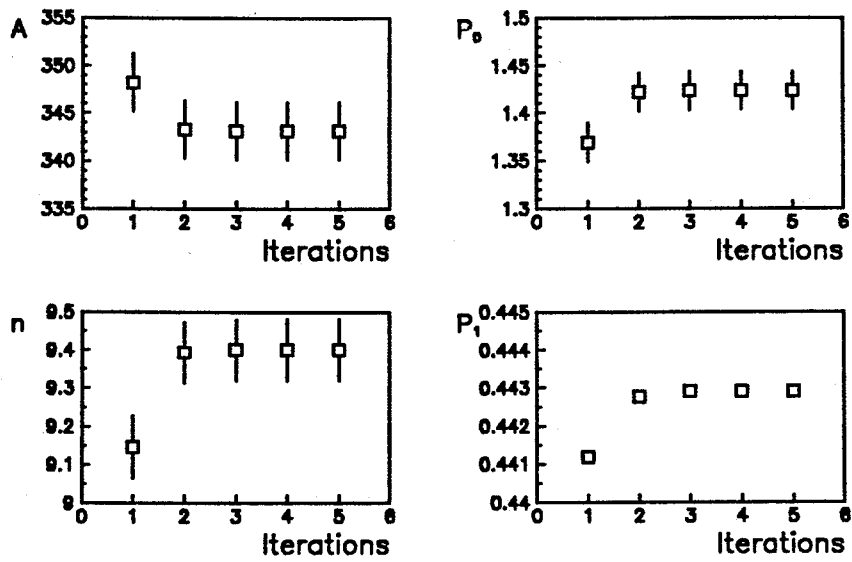


Figure D.3: Convergence of the  $p_t$  spectrum fit parameters.

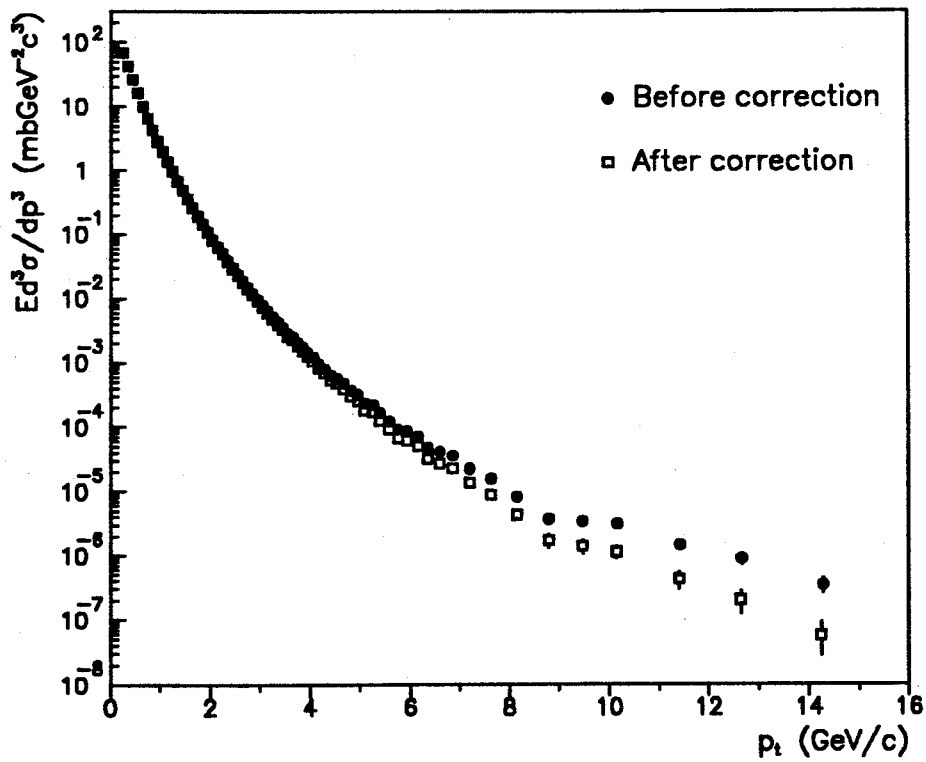


Figure D.4: Charged particle inclusive cross-section (a) Before smear correction  
(b) After smear correction.

function and were found to agree, within the errors of the fit.

In principle, the  $p_t$  spectrum for the  $K_S^0$  should also be corrected for the resolution. The  $K_S^0 p_t$  resolution has been calculated for each candidate using the errors on the pion track properties and the primary vertex measurement. The cuts used to purify the  $K_S^0$  sample tend to select well measured  $K_S^0$ 's. Furthermore, as can be seen in fig. 7.7, the efficiency is greatest in the bending-plane where the track momenta have the smallest errors. The  $K_S^0 p_t$  resolution,  $\sigma_{1/p_t}(K_S^0) = \sigma_{p_t}(K_S^0)/p_t^2$ , shown in fig. D.5, is seen to be extremely good for all  $p_t$ . The effect of the CD

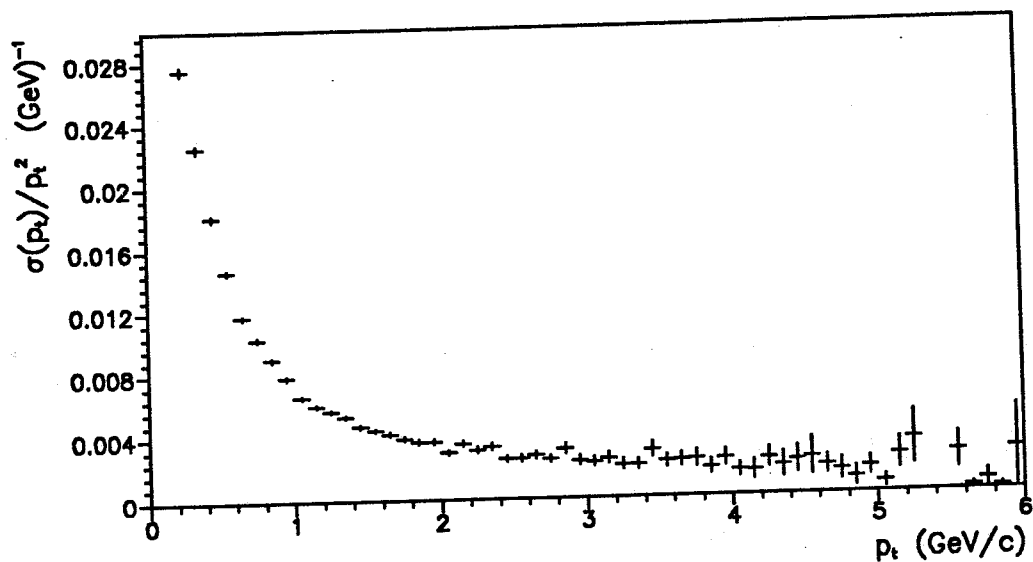


Figure D.5:  $K_S^0 p_t$  resolution.

smearing is therefore negligible compared to the statistical and other systematic errors, so no correction was applied to the  $p_t$  spectrum of the  $K_S^0$ .



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