

# $e^+e^-$ PHYSICS WITH THE PLUTO DETECTOR

**Lutz CRIEGEE and Gerhard KNIES**

*DESY, 2000 Hamburg 52, Germany*



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**Abstract:**

The contributions of the PLUTO experiment to  $e^+e^-$  physics at collision energies in the range of 3–32 GeV are reviewed. The review briefly sketches the storage rings DORIS and PETRA at DESY, and describes the most important features of the PLUTO detector, of data processing, and of the analysis methods. It covers the physics results in the fields of electroweak interactions, of the heavy lepton  $\tau$  and the search for still heavier leptons, of hadron production with evidence for quark and gluon jets, as well as for single and multiple gluon emission, of  $Y$  decays and their relation to QCD, and presents results in high-energy photon–photon interactions, including the first measurement of the photon structure function.

**1. Introduction**

With the discovery of the  $J/\psi$  particle in 1974  $e^+e^-$  storage rings became the focal point of interest in particle physics. Within a few years a series of exciting results concerning the constituents of matter and the forces between them was produced.

A beautiful confirmation of the weak isodoublet nature of quarks was provided by the study of open charm state decays, suggesting a close parallelism between quarks and leptons. The discovery of the  $\tau$  lepton and the determination of its sequential character was the first evidence for a third generation of lepton isodoublets and gave rise to speculations on a third quark isodoublet. Detailed measurements of the  $Y$  resonances unambiguously confirmed their nature as quark–antiquark bound states of a new quark flavour, with charge  $-1/3$ , fitting as the “bottom” partner into the expected third quark doublet.

$Y$  decays also confirmed fundamental properties of gluons as expected for QCD quanta. The spectroscopy of quarkonia, i.e. of the  $c\bar{c}$  and  $b\bar{b}$  bound states, disclosed beautiful positronium like level schemes and yielded data for precise tests of predictions based on the QCD picture of the forces between quarks. The observation of clear 2-jet events in the continuum was an impressive manifestation of the production of confined quarks as the underlying process of hadron production. The observation of clear 3-jet events at PETRA energies, confirmed expectations for hard bremsstrahlung of colour field quanta and furnished the most striking confirmation of a basic QCD process. In addition there is a growing amount of data on hadron production and jet properties which provide a challenge for a thorough understanding of the fragmentation process in terms of QCD.

The energy dependence of cross sections for lepton pair production and hadron production, in the energy range of  $10 < s < 1000 \text{ GeV}^2$  has verified the pointlike nature of the electric charge of partons and leptons down to the same limits, indicating their equally fundamental role as constituents of matter. Tests of validity of QED have been extended significantly up to four-momentum transfers of over  $1000 \text{ GeV}^2$ , and first tests of weak interactions at large  $q^2$ , in lepton-pair and hadron production are becoming feasible. Finally, a new type of reaction, hadron production in photon–photon collisions is opening a very promising field of physics.

The PLUTO detector started its first test run in late 1974, just in time to confirm the newly discovered  $J/\psi$  and  $\psi'$  resonances. It continued data taking in the years 1976 and 1978/79, at the storage rings DORIS and PETRA. With these data the PLUTO collaboration† could achieve significant

† The PLUTO collaboration started with 15 members (see section 7.8), and grew up to about 65 members in 1980. Until 1980 the following physicists have been working in the PLUTO collaboration:

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contributions to the  $e^+e^-$  physics over the CMS energy range from 3 to 32 GeV. The history of the PLUTO experiment as reported in this paper thus appears suitable to illustrate, in a coherent fashion, the exciting progress in this fruitful field of particle physics. At the same time with the PLUTO experiment, other experiments at DORIS, SPEAR and PETRA have produced important results in the same field of physics, in a sometimes hard but also fruitful competition. Wherever appropriate we give reference to related results, without trying to be comprehensive.

This report will first briefly introduce the storage rings DORIS I, DORIS II, and PETRA (section 2), and describe the PLUTO detector including data taking and analysis procedures (section 3). It will then expand on the physics results obtained in the fields of QED (section 4), of heavy lepton  $\tau$  (section 5), of hadron production in the continuum (section 6) and of  $c\bar{c}$  and  $b\bar{b}$  resonances (section 7), and conclude with interesting first results on photon-photon interactions (section 8).

## 2. The storage rings DORIS and PETRA

The  $e^+e^-$  storage ring DORIS (double orbit intersecting storage ring) was designed during the years 1966–1967 with the emphasis on exploring QED and hadronic physics in the 2–3 GeV c.m. energy range [201]. Since at these energies the luminosity is limited by the maximum bunch charge, the storage ring was built such as to store and collide a large number of electron (and positron) bunches. Fig. 2.1 shows the layout of the injection system and the storage ring. Electrons are first accelerated in the linear accelerator to 450 MeV, then in the synchrotron to the desired energy, and finally injected into one of the DORIS rings. The positrons are produced by electrons striking a converter in the middle of the linear accelerator, then focussed and accelerated in the second half and in the synchrotron as indicated, and are then stored in the second ring which is placed partly above and partly below the electron ring. Table 2.1 lists some important parameters.

Both rings have vertical bends such as to intersect in two interaction regions at a crossing angle of 24 mrad (beam-beam). The bunch cross section at the intersections is small. Typical values are 1 mm

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*Footnote continued from p. 153.*

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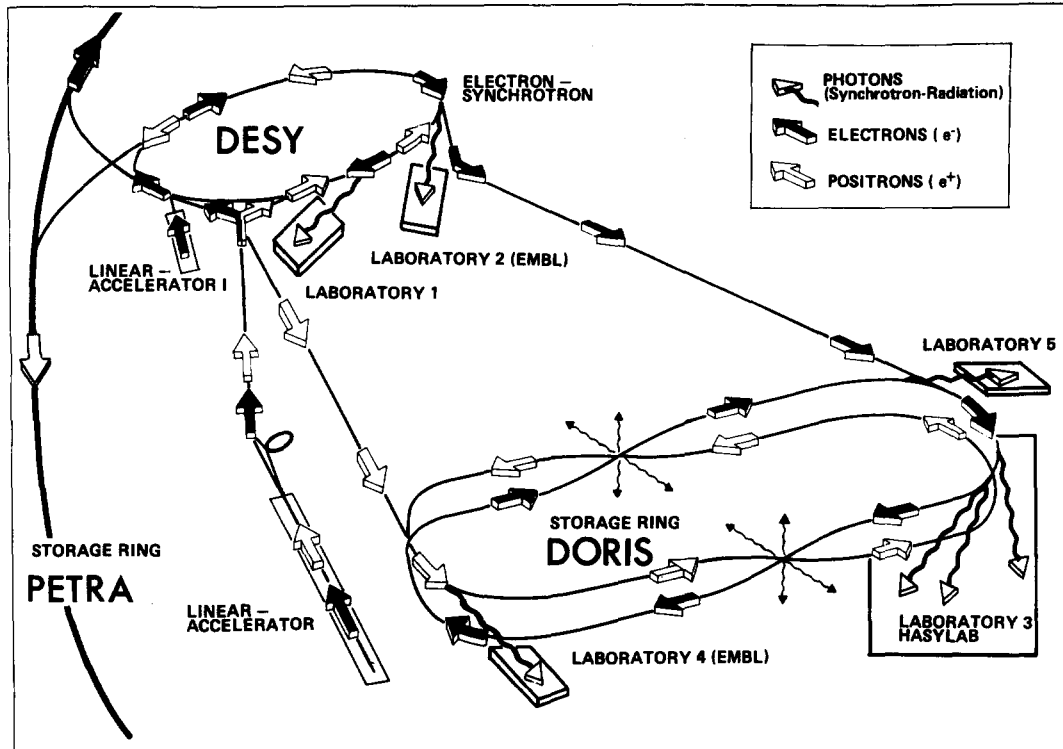


Fig. 2.1. Layout of the DORIS storage rings (2 ring operation), and of the injection system (DESY and LINAC II).

(rms) horizontally, 0.1 mm vertically and 1 cm along the beam. The time structure of the beam-beam interactions is quasi-continuous, namely one short ( $<0.2$  nsec) flash every 2 nsec. It is imposed by the 500 MHz acceleration which is needed to compensate for the power lost by synchrotron radiation. Peak luminosities of typically  $0.5 \times 10^{30} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ sec}^{-1}$  at 3 GeV and  $4 \times 10^{30} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ sec}^{-1}$  at 5 GeV c.m. energy have been achieved.

Table 2.1  
Storage ring parameters

	DORIS I	DORIS II	PETRA	
circumference	288	288	2304	m
max. beam energy	4.2	5.1	19	GeV
typical beam current	200	20	15	mA
typical peak luminosity	$2 \times 10^{30}$	$1 \times 10^{30}$	$1.5 \times 10^{31}$ *	$\text{cm}^{-2} \text{ sec}^{-1}$
width of c.m. energy	$(E_{\text{cm}}/3.4 \text{ GeV})^2$	$(E_{\text{cm}}/3.5 \text{ GeV})^2$	$(E_{\text{cm}}/6.6 \text{ GeV})^2$	MeV
number of bunches	480 (120)	1	2	per charge
typical bunch height ( $\sigma$ )	0.1	0.1	0.05	mm
width ( $\sigma$ )	0.8	0.8	0.5	mm
length ( $\sigma$ )	10	10	10	mm
typical beam lifetime	6	3	6	h
length of interaction region	5	5	9	m

\* At 17 + 17 GeV, with mini- $\beta$  optics.

The stored currents and therefore the luminosity are limited by interactions between successive bunches, and at high energies also by the available r.f. power. Here the luminosity can be increased by concentrating the same current onto fewer bunches. At 5 GeV DORIS was therefore operated with 120 instead of 480 circulating bunches.

In order to reach the  $Y$  region, DORIS had to be converted into a single-ring machine [202]. For this purpose the upper two half rings (fig. 2.1) were 'connected' by dipole magnets producing a vertical bend on both sides of the interaction regions. All available r.f. and magnet power was concentrated into this new single ring. The time schedule and the success of this changeover were impressive: In summer 1977, shortly after the discovery of the  $Y$  at FNAL [203], a proposal was forwarded by the PLUTO and the machine group. Already in November the new system produced luminosity at 7.7 GeV. In early 1978, more r.f. cavities – borrowed from PETRA, which was nearing completion – were installed. The magnet control was extended such as to account for different saturation properties of various magnet elements. In early April the machine delivered the first luminosity at energies above 9.2 GeV for the search for the  $Y$  resonances (see section 7). In 1982 the DORIS storage ring will be upgraded once more, in order to allow routine operation up to 10.6 GeV [204].

The storage ring PETRA (positron-electron-tandem-ring-accelerator) was built during the years 1976–1978, with the aim of covering the energy region up to about 40 GeV [205]. The layout is shown in fig. 2.2. (See also table 2.1.) The injection energy is usually 7 GeV, except for operations below

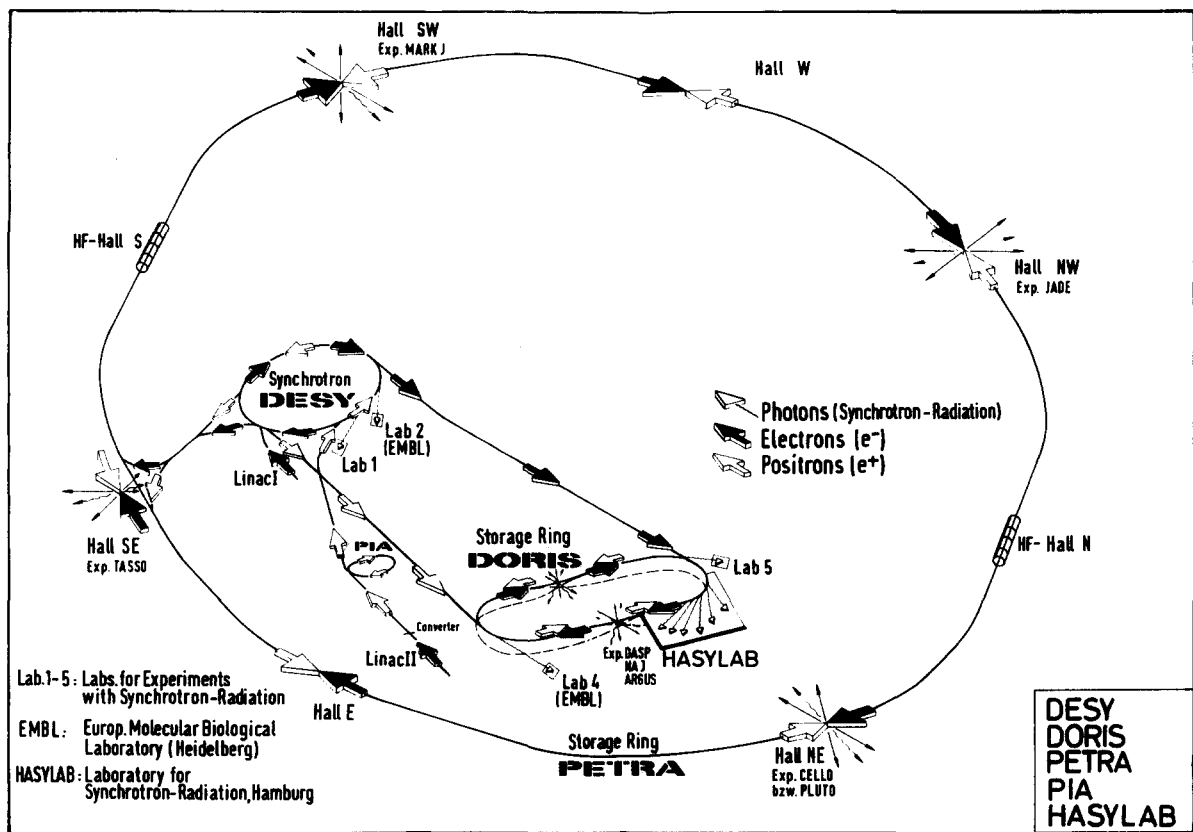


Fig. 2.2. Layout of the PETRA storage ring, and of the injection system.

14 GeV c.m. energies. Electrons are directly injected from the synchrotron, while positrons, because of their weaker current, have to be accumulated before. During the first year of operation the positrons were stored in DORIS at 2 GeV, then reinjected into the synchrotron and accelerated up to the PETRA injection energy. Since this application more or less paralysed DORIS' operation in the  $Y$  range, a small (450 MeV) intermediate storage ring PIA (positron-intensity-accumulator) was built and completed in 1979 [206]. It accumulates  $\sim 10^{10}$  positrons at a time and compresses them into one short bunch, which is then accelerated in the synchrotron and added onto one of the circulating PETRA bunches.

Luminosity runs for the experiments (PLUTO, MARK J and TASSO first, then JADE, and later CELLO) started in November 1978. The maximum c.m. energy was first 17 GeV, and raised to 31.6 GeV in July 1979, and to 36.6 GeV in 1980. In 1980 the luminosity was substantially improved with the so-called mini- $\beta$  optics, which provided a stronger focussing of the beams for the interaction regions (thereby reducing their length from 15 to 9 m). The energy can still be raised by increasing the r.f. power and number of cavities. Although quite expensive, such a program is well justified by the chance of finding and investigating the toponium family [207], and also by larger electroweak effects (section 4). As the next step, an increase to 41 GeV is scheduled for summer 1982.

### 3. The PLUTO detector

PLUTO was designed as a magnetic detector in which charged particles could be analysed over a large fraction of the full solid angle. Fig. 3.1 shows a sketch of the 1976 setup.

The magnet produces a roughly uniform field of 20 kGauss (see section 3.1), oriented parallel to the beams. The field volume is filled with cylindrical track chambers (see section 3.2). The iron return yoke serves as an absorber to distinguish muons from hadrons. Fig. 3.2 gives a side view of the extended detector

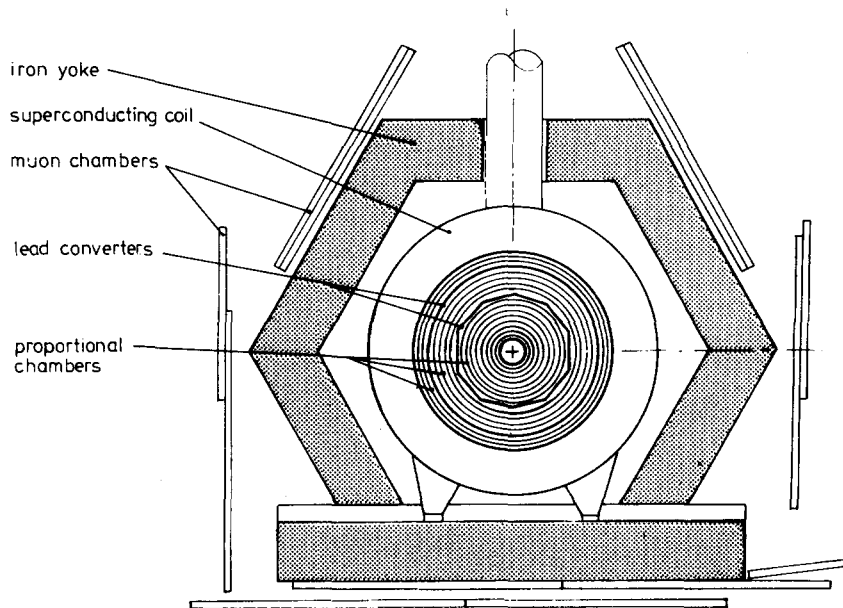


Fig. 3.1. PLUTO (1976) viewed along the beam.

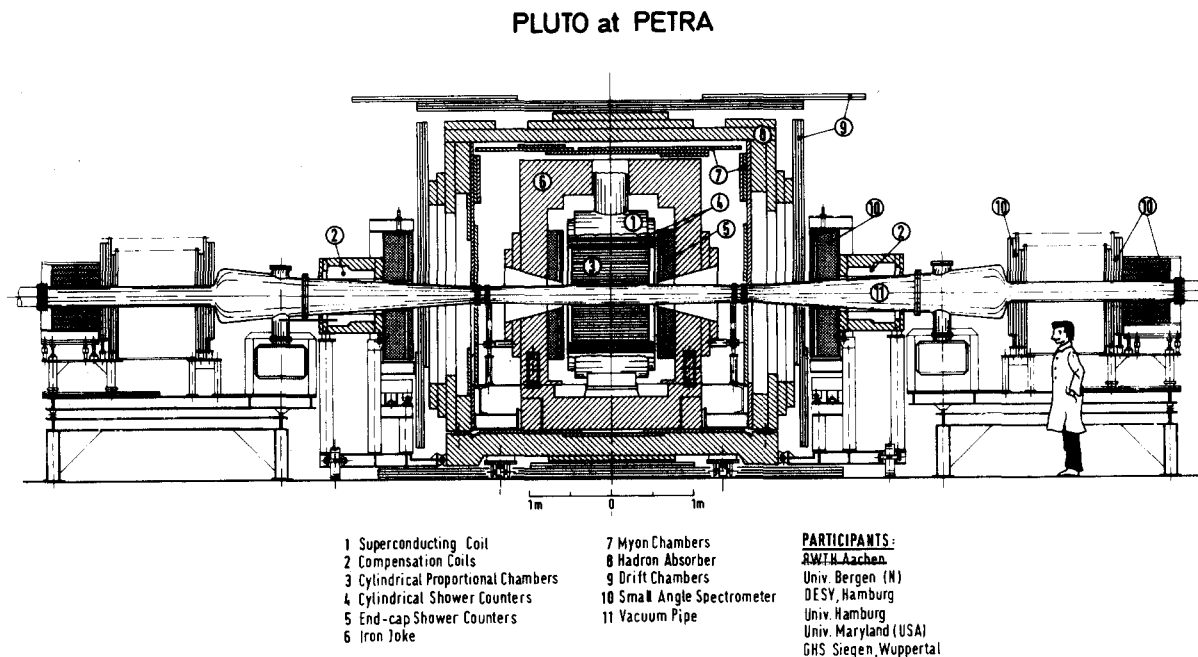


Fig. 3.2. PLUTO (1979), side view.

as used in the PETRA experiments. The track detector has now been completely surrounded by shower counters. The forward and backward small-angle regions,  $1^\circ$ – $15^\circ$ , have been covered by spectrometers for detecting electrons degraded in  $\gamma\gamma$  scattering. The iron yoke has been backed up by an additional absorber to allow muon-hadron separation at higher momenta.

### 3.1. The magnet

A superconducting coil of copper-stabilized Nb-Ti wires, operated at 4.5°K, produces the magnetic field. Fig. 3.3 shows a picture of the magnet, with the cryostat containing the coil. The usable magnetic volume is given by the diameter of the cryostat, 1.4 m, and by the distance of the pole faces, 1.05 m. The field strength was 20 kGauss during the 1976 run period, and 16.5 kGauss after the pole faces had been carved out to accommodate the endcap shower counters. The non-uniformity of the axial field component is less than 10% over most of the volume, as shown in fig. 3.4. It is small enough to be neglected in the first step of the track analysis, thus saving considerable amounts of computer time, and is then only applied to the refined analysis of selected events (section 3.8). The influence of the axial field on the storage ring, an undesired coupling of horizontal and vertical beam oscillations, is compensated by a pair of superconducting coils with opposite field. All coils together require a cryogenic power of 150 W, and a total power of about 250 kW, to be compared to 2 MW for a normally conducting version.

### 3.2. Track chambers

The tracking system was designed to give a good topological resolution of multitrack events, both perpendicular ( $x, y$ ) and parallel ( $z$ ) to the beam, and a good momentum resolution for kinematical



Fig. 3.3. Magnet with cryostat of superconductive coil and separated iron yokes.

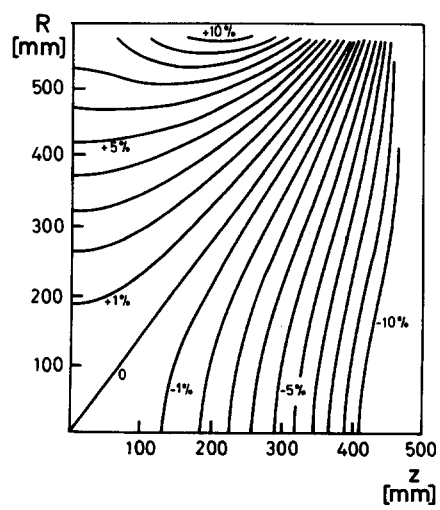


Fig. 3.4. Lines of constant magnetic field  $B_z$ , labelled by relative deviation from center field.

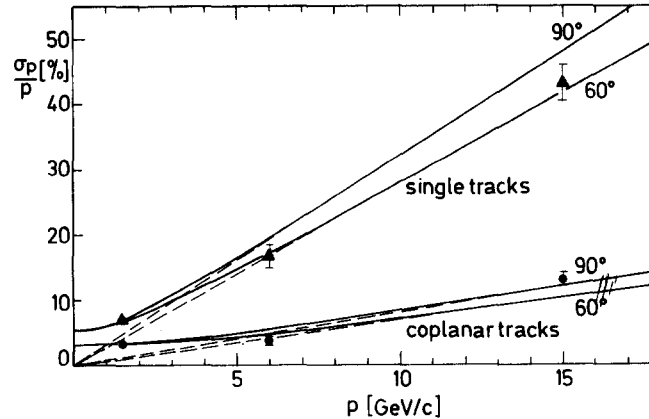


Fig. 3.5. Relative momentum resolution as a function of momentum. Upper curves: single particles at 60° and 90° (to beam axis), plus measurements from  $\mu^+\mu^-$  (triangles, averaged over angles. The 1.5 GeV/c points have been scaled from 20 to 16.5 kGauss). Lower curves and points: same for two-particle fit. Dashed lines would result from coordinate errors only, with no multiple scattering.

analysis. It had also to allow for a complex trigger, to meet the anticipated background. Proportional chambers with wires parallel to the beam offered, at the time, the easiest solution. The cathodes are built of fibreglass, coated with 35  $\mu\text{m}$  of copper. The coating is segmented into stripes which are tilted  $\pm 45^\circ$  to the wires (a few layers also at 90°, see [301]). For every discharge a wire signal plus two pulses influenced on the stripes are read out, thus giving a 1-constrained point in space. The layout produces a high density of space coordinates along a track, at the price of multiple scattering affecting the resolution for low momentum particles. The momentum resolution for pions which are constrained to the beam line ( $\sigma_R = 2\text{ mm}$ ) is shown in fig. 3.5. At high momenta the resolution is given by  $\sigma_p/p = 3\% \cdot p$  (GeV). The resolution is about constant over 60% of the solid angle, but deteriorates rapidly towards the forward and backward direction. The lower line gives the momentum resolution for elastic two-prongs like  $\mu^+\mu^-$ .

### 3.3. Shower counters

In the first version of the PLUTO detector photon detection was accomplished by two lead rings of 0.4 and 2.0 radiation lengths, inserted in between the track chambers (fig. 3.1). They were useful for enhancing the trigger efficiency for low-multiplicity events, for the detection and direction measurement of photons, and for  $\pi$ - $e$ -separation. As an example the separation of  $\tau$ -decays from  $\mu\mu\gamma$  events is shown in fig. 3.6:  $\tau$  candidates having one identified  $\mu$  and one converted photon are plotted vs. the square of the missing mass. The entry is shaded if the photon direction is consistent with the missing momentum. These identified  $\mu\mu\gamma$  events thus check the efficiency of the missing mass cut used for the separation. Electrons are recognized for  $|\cos\theta| < 0.55$  from the shower patterns they produce behind the lead plates. The detection probability depends on the level of the  $\pi$ - $e$  misidentification tolerated. For a clean method with a  $(1.2 \pm 0.2)\%$  probability of taking a hadron as an electron, the detection efficiency was determined as 30% for electron momenta of 440 MeV/c and 65% above 1 GeV/c.

As the importance of measuring the neutral energy became more and more apparent, PLUTO was modified in 1977 such that almost the complete solid angle (96%) was covered with lead-scintillator shower counters. The two outmost cylindrical wire chambers were replaced by the barrel counter, sketched in fig. 3.7. It consists of 60 modules of lead-scintillator sandwiches arranged in two layers with

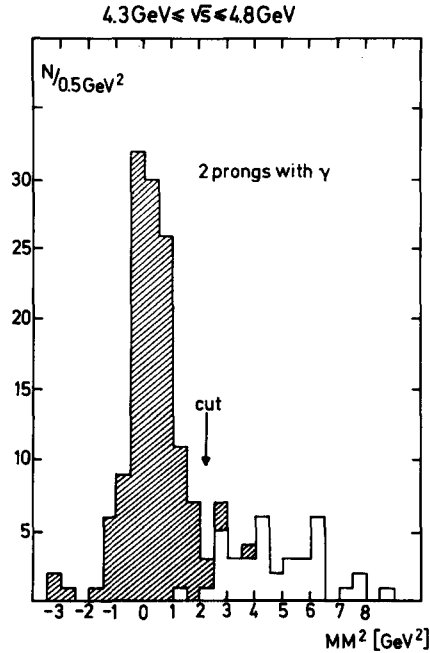


Fig. 3.6. Separation of  $\tau\bar{\tau}$  from  $\mu\bar{\mu}\gamma$  events through photon detection (see text).

a total thickness of 8.6 radiation lengths. This thickness is marginal for sampling the showers of  $\geq 10$  GeV photons and electrons, but does give a fair measure of the neutral energy of hadronic events which is predominantly emitted via low energy ( $E < 5$  GeV) photons. The relative energy resolution is roughly constant,  $\sigma_E/E \approx 25\%$  for  $E < 7$  GeV, but deteriorates above due to leakage effects.

Spatial resolution within the barrel counters is achieved by a double layer of helix-tubes [302]. They provide an angular resolution of  $\sigma_\phi = 1.3^\circ$  and  $\sigma_\theta = 1.4^\circ$  for isolated showers. The time resolution of the barrel,  $\sigma_t \approx 0.7$  ns, is sufficient to separate  $\mu^+\mu^-$  pairs from cosmic muons (section 4B.3, fig. 4.12).

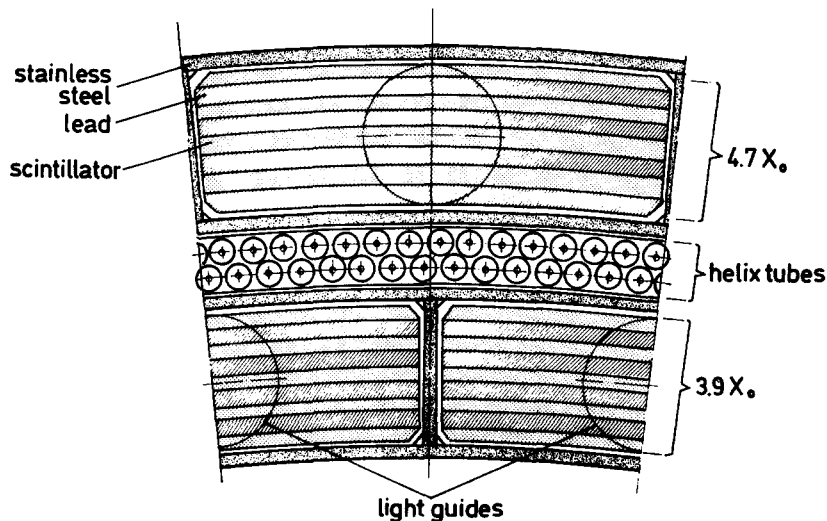


Fig. 3.7. Cross section through barrel shower counter with lead-scintillator sandwiches and helix tubes.

The end faces of the tracking volume are covered each by a lead-scintillator sandwich of 10.3 radiation lengths, segmented into 30 azimuthal sectors. The energy resolution of this end cap shower counter is  $\sigma_E/E \approx 23\%/\sqrt{E}$ . One layer of multiwire proportional chambers is inserted in the sandwich, providing a measurement of the polar angle with a resolution  $\sigma_\theta = 1^\circ$  [303].

### 3.4. Muon detection

$e^+e^-$  annihilation is a very efficient reaction for the pair production of hadrons and leptons with new quantum numbers. Conservation of these quantum numbers (see section 6.2) leads to stable particles which can only decay through weak interactions. Since part of the weak decays leads to leptons, muon and electron detection are particularly powerful tools for detecting the production of new quantum numbers.

The separation of muons from hadrons requires a thick hadron absorber and a short flight path before, in order to suppress the decay-in-flight of pions and kaons. The average flight path in PLUTO is about 60 cm. The coil and flux return yoke provide an absorber with an average thickness equivalent to 70 cm of iron. The momentum cutoff varies between 0.9 and 1.4 GeV/c. Outside of the absorber 49% of the solid angle is covered with proportional tube chambers. Particles are identified as muons if they hit the expected position within  $\pm 15$  cm. The probability that hadrons of 1–1.5 GeV/c were identified as muons (punch through) was determined from multihadron events collected at the  $J/\psi$  resonance as  $(2.8 \pm 0.7)\%$ .

For the higher momentum muons expected at PETRA the iron yoke was complemented by an extra hadron absorber such as to obtain a uniform, position-independent thickness of 100 cm iron (equivalent), corresponding to a muon energy of 1.4 GeV. The outside is covered with two layers of drift chambers, allowing a two-coordinate measurement over 80% of the full solid angle. The punch-through probability for hadrons has been calculated from published data [304] as  $2.4^{+1}_{-0.4}\%$  per event at 30 GeV [305].

### 3.5. Luminosity monitor

The luminosity  $L$  measures the product of  $e^\pm$  flux and  $e^\mp$  ‘target’ density and gives the reaction rate from a cross section  $\sigma$  as

$$dN/dt = L \cdot \sigma.$$

Since no methods are available to measure the beam density profile directly, the luminosity is determined from Bhabha scattering as a gauge reaction. The cross section is known to agree with the QED prediction up to momentum transfers of  $10^3$  GeV<sup>2</sup> and c.m. energies up to 30 GeV [306], if the lowest order diagram and a calculable [307–309] 2–10% radiative correction are taken into account.

Bhabha scattering at small angles gives high rates suitable for instantaneous monitoring. It was measured at DORIS with a system of four telescopes, which will be described in this section, and at PETRA with the forward spectrometers (section 3.6) of PLUTO. After the barrel and end cap shower counters (section 3.4) had been installed, Bhabha scattering was also measured in the central detector. Although the latter rate was too small for instantaneous monitoring, it still exceeded those of the hadronic events by more than a factor of 20, thus providing a statistically significant normalization.

The small angle monitoring system used at DORIS is sketched in fig. 3.8. The four telescopes are



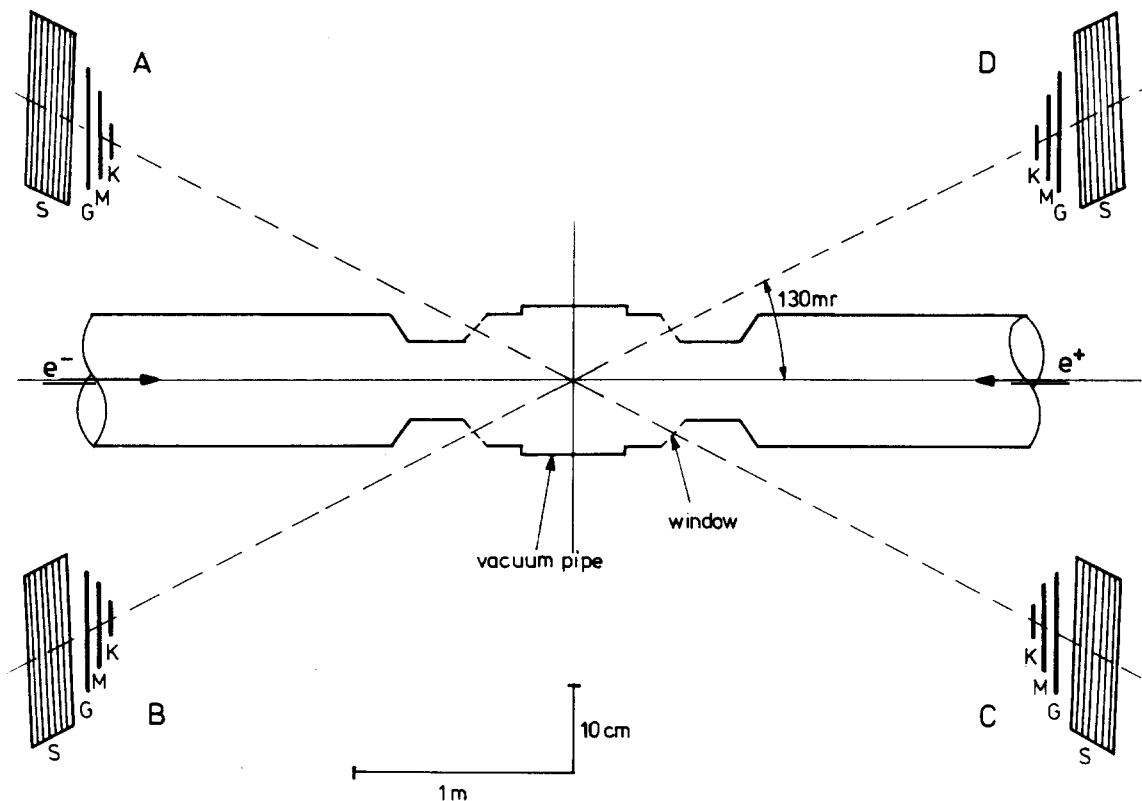


Fig. 3.8. Luminosity monitor as used at DORIS, with small (K), medium (M) and large (G) scintillation counters, and shower counters (S) (top view).

positioned horizontally at 130 mrad with respect to the beam, and vertically at the crossing angle (12 mrad in 1976,  $0^\circ$  later). Each consists of three scintillation counters of increasing size, backed by a lead-scintillator shower counter. A Bhabha count is defined as a coincidence between one medium and the opposite large scintillator, together with the corresponding shower counters. Because of the  $\theta^{-4}$ -dependence of the cross section the individual rates of the four telescopes are extremely sensitive to small displacements of the interaction point. However, the sum of the rates (which contains the medium-medium coincidences twice) varies less than 1% if the interaction point moves by 5 cm along or 2 cm perpendicular to the beam direction. The systematic error of the luminosity measurements, arising mainly from the knowledge of the geometry and the rejection of electron showers scattered into the acceptance, is estimated to be less than 5%. This estimate was verified by a comparison with the wide-angle Bhabha scattering measured at 7.7 and 9.4 GeV.

### 3.6. The forward spectrometers

Whereas the cross section for  $e^+e^-$  annihilation falls with the 2nd power of the energy, the hadron production via two photons

$$e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^- + X$$

is expected to rise logarithmically. At PETRA energies the two-photon cross section is sufficiently large

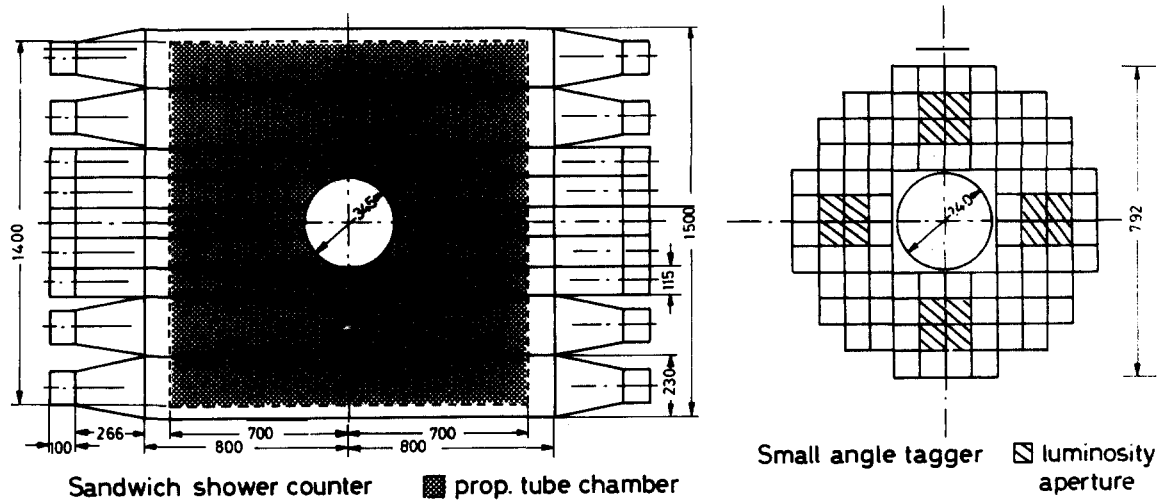


Fig. 3.9. Cross section of forward spectrometer with small angle (SAT) and large angle tagger (LAT). The acceptance for the luminosity measurements is defined by the  $4 \times 4$  'center' blocks of the SAT (hatched), in coincidence with any one of the opposite ones. (Dimensions in mm.)

to be studied both in its own right and as a non-negligible 'background' to be separated from the annihilation.

The  $\gamma\gamma$  reactions can be 'tagged' by measuring one or two of the final state electrons. For this purpose the PLUTO detector was equipped with two spectrometers each in the forward and backward direction. The so-called small-angle tagger (SAT) covers an angular range from 23 to 70 mrad, while the large-angle tagger (LAT) extends from 70 to 260 mrad and smoothly joins the range subtended by the end cap shower counter [310].

The setup is shown in fig. 3.9. Each of the SAT's consists of 96 blocks of lead glass, 12.5 radiation length thick. The energy resolution has been determined in a test beam, as well with Bhabha events at

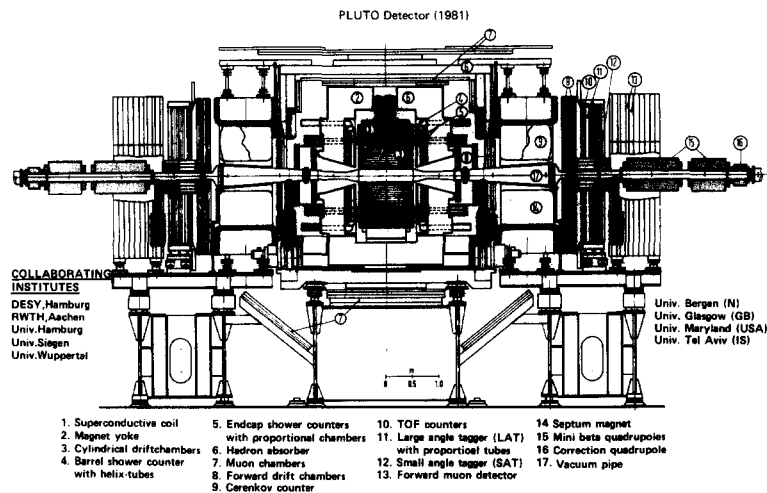


Fig. 3.10. PLUTO detector with magnetic forward spectrometers and mini- $\beta$  beam optics.

PETRA. Both give consistently

$$\sigma_E/E = 8.5\%/\sqrt{E} \text{ (GeV)}.$$

Charged particles are tracked by 4 planes of proportional wire chambers in front of each SAT.

The LAT consists of 18 lead-scintillator sandwiches, 14.5 radiation length thick. The energy resolution is  $11\%/\sqrt{E}$ , also checked with Bhabha events. Charged particle and shower localization is achieved by 4 layers of proportional tube chambers, 2 in front and 2 inside the shower counter.

The LAT and in particular the SAT are also used for monitoring the luminosity. The total luminosity integrated over the 12–32 GeV runs has been cross-checked against the one obtained from Bhabha events observed in the end cap shower counters. The ratio of the two,  $1.026 \pm 0.012$ , indicates that the systematic error of the luminosity measurements is smaller than 3% [311]. For the data taking of 1981 the forward spectrometers were upgraded as to allow a momentum measurement and particle identification (fig. 3.10), and therefore a better acceptance for the hadrons produced in  $\gamma\gamma$  interactions.

### 3.7. The trigger

The rate of  $e^+e^-$  annihilation which is obtained from the available luminosities and the small cross sections is low, of the order of a few events per hour. The trigger should therefore be soft enough to accept a large fraction of these events, and also to respond to known (and unknown) channels with a weak signature, like  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \tau^+\tau^- \rightarrow \pi e \nu\nu\nu$ . At the same time it has to prevent excessive background rates from beam-gas interactions, lost beam particles, cosmic rays and synchrotron radiation. The trigger conditions should be easily changeable and adaptable to varying background conditions, which sometimes depend critically on the energy and operating conditions of the storage ring.

To meet these conditions, a pattern logic was built in 1973 [312, 301] (see section 3.7.1) which was capable of recognizing and counting charged tracks in the proportional wire chambers, and to trigger on a preset number of tracks. With the installation of the shower counters the trigger could respond to neutral energy, too (section 3.7.2). More complex decisions involving the neutral energy were enforced through the anticipated high background at PETRA (partly due to the open small-angle regions which had been heavily shielded before).

In order to keep this complex trigger flexible enough, a programmable master logic was developed which could be changed from a computer terminal without any other hardware being touched ('RAM' logic, section 3.7.3).

#### 3.7.1. The wire logic

The proportional wire logic consists of two stages, (i) a pretrigger which has to make a first decision within 300 nsec, and (ii) the so-called sequential logic which performs a more sophisticated, but slower search for track patterns within 40  $\mu$ s.

The pretrigger (i) uses 10 cylindrical chambers grouped into 5 pairs, called 'rings'. The minimal pattern recognized is one wire signal in each chamber of the same ring, spaced by less than  $9^\circ$  in azimuth. The typical pretrigger, used most of the time, requires two such minimal patterns, either in one inner and one outer ring, or in two non-adjacent octants of the same ring. The condition is equivalent to one longer or two shorter tracks with momenta above 180 MeV/c. At the higher PETRA energies the pretrigger requirement had to be raised to two inner rings showing two minimal patterns each, spaced as above.

The sequential logic (ii) was designed to detect more complicated wire patterns. For this purpose, the wire signals of 10 chambers are mapped onto 10 'circular' 120-bit shift registers. A pattern unit is attached to one azimuthal sector, and the whole event is rotated one full turn in 120 steps. During the rotation, the pattern unit recognizes tracks in several different combinations of chambers, and counts them. In addition, the number of coplanar track pairs is counted. The standard trigger used at DORIS demanded two tracks with  $|\cos \theta| < 0.87$ , and  $p \cdot \sin \theta \geq 240$  MeV/c. The acceptance for hadronic events was enhanced by also triggering on  $\geq 3$  track elements observed behind the lead plates. Typical values determined by a Monte-Carlo simulation were 87% (92%, 99%) for  $\pi^+ \pi^- 2\pi^0$  ( $2\pi^+ 2\pi^-$ ,  $2\pi^+ 2\pi^- \pi^0$ ) events at 5 GeV.

The track trigger at PETRA responded to  $\geq 2$  tracks with  $|\cos \theta| < 0.67$  which were spaced by more than  $94^\circ$  in azimuth. The condition was relieved depending on the detected neutral energy. The sequential logic usually produced less than 5% dead time.

### 3.7.2. Neutral energy trigger

With the installation of the active shower counters a number of very useful trigger conditions was added, as well for electromagnetic as hadronic processes. The 'low' signal of barrel or end cap which responded to minimum ionizing particles served as a pretrigger and was used to gate all ADC's. Analog sums of the barrel (resp. end cap) counters provided a 'medium' (800 MeV) and 'high' (1.5, resp. 3 GeV) signal, plus special QED ( $e^+e^-$ ,  $\gamma\gamma$ ) triggers requiring  $2 \times 0.6$  GeV (resp.  $2 \times 1.2$ ) deposited in opposite sides. The experiment was triggered on the 'high' and QED signals. The RAM master logic (3.7.3) also allowed triggers requiring medium or low shower signals with low multiplicity track signatures. With increasing beam energy of PETRA, the 'medium' and QED thresholds were raised to 3, 6 and  $2 \times 2.5$  GeV respectively. The forward spectrometer provided 'low' and 'high' signals for each of the two SAT and LAT shower counters, corresponding to 1.5 and 4 GeV of neutral energy [303].

### 3.7.3. The RAM master logic

The need for a flexible and well documented master trigger demanded computer-controlled switching of the conditions. The most general solution is a computer memory, which associates with every possible combination of input signals one 1-bit cell, loaded with '1' for accepting or '0' for rejecting the event. Fast memory chips which make such a scheme applicable for a fast trigger have become available in recent years. For reasons of economy the trigger has been cascaded as shown in fig. 3.11 [313]. The basic unit is a random access memory ('RAM') of 1024 four-bit cells, each one addressed by one particular combination of ten input signals, and responding in less than 50 nsec. Three of the output bits are interpreted as a 'level' describing the significance of the input (0 = nothing, 7 = maximum). The fourth bit is used for a permanent parity check. RAM0, RAM1, and RAM2 act as encoders, that is assign a level of significance to the signal of the respective subdetector. RAM3 assigns a level to the combined information. For level zero a reset is issued in time to make the detector ready for the next bunch crossing. Otherwise, the sequential logic is started, its output assessed through RAM4, and the complete information used for the final yes-no decision of RAM5.

The RAM contents that control the trigger, about 14000 significant bits, are prepared at a terminal of the DESY central computer in a symbolic language, and decoded and loaded by the experimental computer (PDP11). Both the symbolic coding and the actual loading (reread) are stored for on- and off-line checks and documentation. In addition, the input and output status of all RAMs is recorded together with every event, so that every trigger decision can be reproduced afterwards. Apart from some rare cases of faulty RAM loading procedures which were immediately recognized by an on-line check, no failures of the operation were observed.

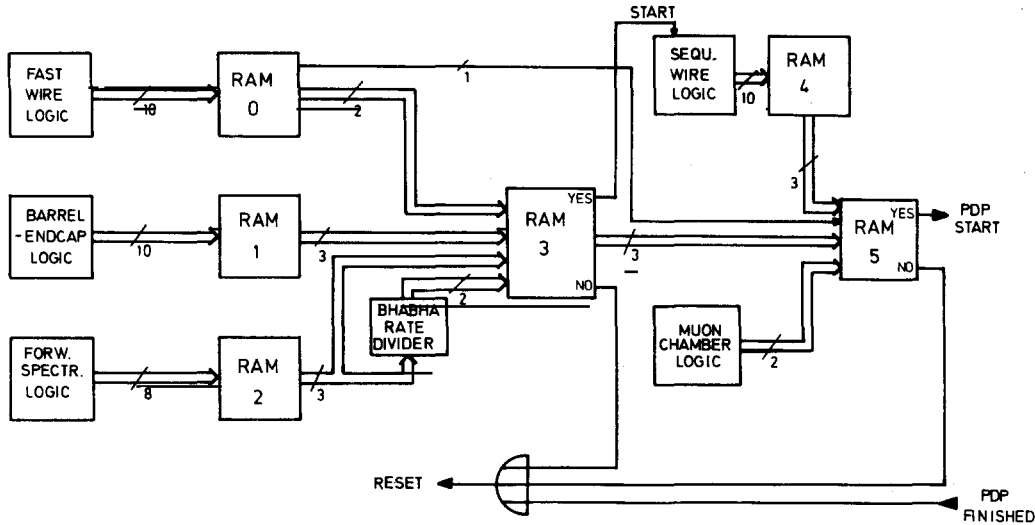


Fig. 3.11. Block diagram of RAM master trigger as explained in text. The undesiredly high rate of Bhabha events is divided by a factor of typically 8. If however a Bhabha signal is accompanied by a signal of the central detector, the event is kept as a  $\gamma\gamma$  candidate.

### 3.8. Data analysis procedures

#### 3.8.1. Data flow

Once an event has been accepted by the trigger, all information is transferred via an on-line 'PDP' (11/45), a fast link, and an intermediate disk storage of the 'IBM' (370/168) to magnetic tape. While the PDP mainly organizes the data collection and transfer, the IBM online program does extensive checking and bookkeeping. Sometimes the PDP was also used to reject cosmic rays and obvious beam-gas events. The real data analysis and reduction starts from the tapes and proceeds through a prefilter, the track finding, and a main event filter, leading to a condensed general event tape. From here the procedure branches into a preselection of QED, of  $\gamma\gamma$ , and of hadronic annihilation events, each yielding a special event tape. These event tapes contain, in addition to track and shower parameters, all the original data like wire signals, ADC and TDC contents. It is thus possible to apply improved calibrations and analysis procedures just to the condensed event tapes, without having to start from the much larger original tape volumes.

#### 3.8.2. Track analysis

The prefilter first eliminates part of cosmic and beam-gas events by simple criteria, thus saving computer time. The main track routine searches for patterns of wire coordinates compatible with a circle in the  $r$ - $\phi$  plane, and determines the track parameters and their covariance matrices. In order not to lose tracks from decaying kaons and converted photons, the interaction point is not used in the search and the fits. The 'z'-routine then searches for cathode signals which are compatible with a helix, and determines the complete track parameters. Events which have at least one track ( $\geq 2$  tracks for  $E_{cm} < 5.2$  GeV) from the vicinity of the nominal interaction point are copied to a general event tape.

#### 3.8.3. Event selection

The  $e^+e^-$  interaction point is determined, as a function of time, from Bhabha events. This then allows a narrower selection of tracks originating from the interaction point. In order to be selected as a hadron

candidate, an event must have at least two such tracks. QED events are suppressed by demanding for 2-prongs as azimuthal difference  $|\Delta\phi_{12}| < 150^\circ$ , and for 3-prongs at least two of the differences  $|\Delta\phi_{ij}| < 150^\circ$ .<sup>†</sup> The hadron candidates are copied to the 'hadron' tape. A refined version is produced later which is based on an improved track fit accounting for field non-uniformities, energy loss and coordinate correlations from multiple scattering.

Special event selections are made for the study of QED (section 4), heavy leptons (section 5), and  $\gamma\gamma$  processes (section 8).

### 3.8.4. The total hadronic cross section

Starting from the hadron tapes (section 3.8.3), the final cuts for the annihilation cross section are optimized and applied. They are aimed at a further suppression of beam-gas and QED background. Their details depend on the version of the detector and the storage ring. Beam-gas background was reduced at DORIS by omitting  $\leq 4$  prongs with net positive charge, and counting the charge conjugate events twice. After the shower counters had been installed, and PLUTO worked as a calorimeter, beam-gas background was almost completely eliminated by a cut in the total energy (typically  $0.5 \cdot E_{\text{cm}}$ )<sup>††</sup>. After these cuts, the event sample still contains contaminations from higher order QED processes, in particular from  $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-\gamma$ . In the first version of PLUTO, such events were visually recognized by the showers they produce behind the lead plates, and accounted for by a global subtraction of  $1 \pm 0.1$  nb. After the installation of the shower counters the QED background could be eliminated event by event.

The remaining beam-gas and cosmic background, amounting to 29% in data without shower counters and to  $\leq 3\%$  in data with shower counters (and the one bunch machine operation), was determined from the vertex distribution along the beam (fig. 3.12), and was statistically subtracted.

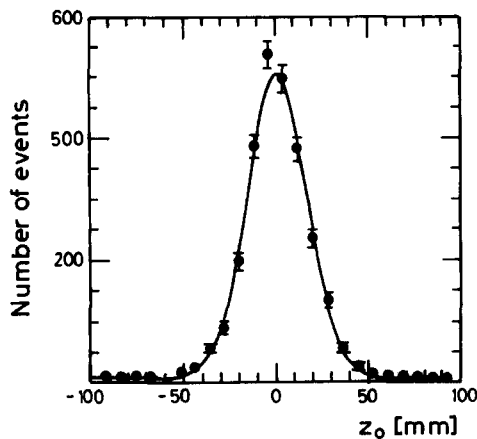


Fig. 3.12. Vertex distribution of candidates for hadronic events along the beam. ( $E_{\text{cm}} = 9.4$  GeV; see also figs. 8.2, 8.3.)

<sup>†</sup> For  $\leq 5$  GeV. For part of the high energy data the cuts were relaxed to  $< 165^\circ$ .

<sup>††</sup> The influence of the energy and other cuts has been systematically investigated in [615].

### 3.9. Acceptance calculations

The acceptance of the detector depends in a complicated way on angular and energy cuts and other inefficiencies introduced by the trigger, various detector parts and by the analysis. A reliable calculation of the acceptance therefore requires a complete Monte Carlo simulation of the process, including event generation, detector response, and analysis. Unfortunately, the first step is a priori unknown, in particular the total production of hadrons. The simulation has to start from models of the production, and proceed by adjusting the parameters of the models such that the results agree with all relevant features of the data. The model dependence leaves an uncertainty of order 5% in the total hadronic cross section. Radiative corrections [314, 307–309] were partly accounted for by including radiative processes in the simulation, and partly applied directly to ‘uncorrected’ cross sections.

#### 3.9.1. Phase space event simulation

The phase space model was mainly applied to the data below 5 GeV, and as a test model for deciding how far the decay features of the  $Y$  could be explained without assuming specific dynamical structures.

Pions and kaons are generated in a 5:1 ratio, consistent with the measurements of the  $K_S^0$  production (see section 6.2.1). The influence of this ratio on the acceptance is very small (<1%). The charged and neutral multiplicity are generated according to a Poisson distribution, each with a mean of 4 at 4.5 GeV, as a first approximation. For a fine adjustment the generated events are processed through the full detection simulation and analysis chain (see below), resulting in a spectrum of degraded classes for each initial charged multiplicity ((++--) $\rightarrow$ (++--), (++-), (+--), (++) , (+-), (--)). The initial distribution is then adjusted such as to give the best fit of the degraded classes to the data. The fraction of charged/total energy is adjusted similarly such as to agree with the observed fraction.

#### 3.9.2. Jets

Two-jet production at low energies, <5 GeV, is simulated by introducing limited  $\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$  via different weighting of phase-space events.

At higher energies, a genuine two-jet structure is produced according to the quark fragmentation model of Field and Feynman [315]: The original quark creates a  $q\bar{q}$  pair out of the vacuum, and then combines with the  $\bar{q}$  to a meson. The remaining quark retains the fraction  $\eta$  of the original energy and parallel momentum ( $E + p_{\parallel}$ ), with a distribution  $f(\eta) = 1 - a + a\eta^2$  ( $a = 0.77$ ). It creates a new pair, and so forth, until all of the original ( $E + p_{\parallel}$ ) is used up. The vector/pseudoscalar ratio 1/1, the strange/nonstrange ratio 1/4, and the mean transverse momentum of the generated quarks ( $\sigma_q = 247$  MeV/c) are taken as suggested by the authors<sup>†</sup>.

Unstable particles decay according to their known properties. For the application at PETRA energies, heavy quarks are added to the original light ones, with a partition function  $f(\eta) = 1$ , and also the decays of heavy quarks according to ref. [316].

Events with hard gluon emission are created according to refs. [317, 318]. The gluon is treated as a pair of quarks which then fragment into one jet.

A special generator for three-gluon events was constructed for evaluating the decay of the  $Y$ . The matrix element of the positronium decay into three photons is used to generate the initial gluon state. Each gluon is assumed to fragment like a quark. The total fragmentation is described by a function

<sup>†</sup> Recent investigations of jet topologies [661, 6909] and of inclusive  $K_S^0$  spectra [6908] have led to slightly different values, namely  $\sigma_q = 290 \pm 20$  MeV/c and a strange/nonstrange ratio of 1/9.

which includes constant  $\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$ , constant density in rapidity and a logarithmically rising multiplicity. The parameters are adjusted such that the events approach all two-jet features in the limit of one gluon approaching zero energy.

### 3.9.3. Two-photon interactions

The generator for hadron production in photon-photon interactions was built, in close analogy to hadron-hadron interactions (VDM), as a multipion phase space with limited  $p_{\perp}$ .<sup>†</sup> The mean multiplicity was taken from  $e^+e^-$  annihilation data, parameterized as  $\langle n_{\text{ch}} \rangle = \max(3.0, 2.0 + 0.7 \ln W^2)$ , the charged to neutral ratio as 2:1. The  $p_{\perp}$  generator was adjusted to the data. The observed  $p_{\perp}^2$  distribution (fig. 3.13) was well reproduced by generating 75% of the events according to  $\exp - 5.0 p_{\perp}^2$ , and 25% acc. to  $\exp - p_{\perp}^2$  [319]. The distribution of the photon-photon invariant masses was generated according to the photon flux factors described in section 8.1.

### 3.9.4. QED reactions

Monte Carlo simulations of the reactions  $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^- (+\gamma)$ ,  $\mu^+\mu^- (+\gamma)$  and  $\gamma\gamma (+\gamma)$  were performed firstly to determine the small fraction of events in which the detector response produced a wrong signature, and secondly to check the contribution of radiative events (' $+\gamma$ ' acc. to [307-309]) which

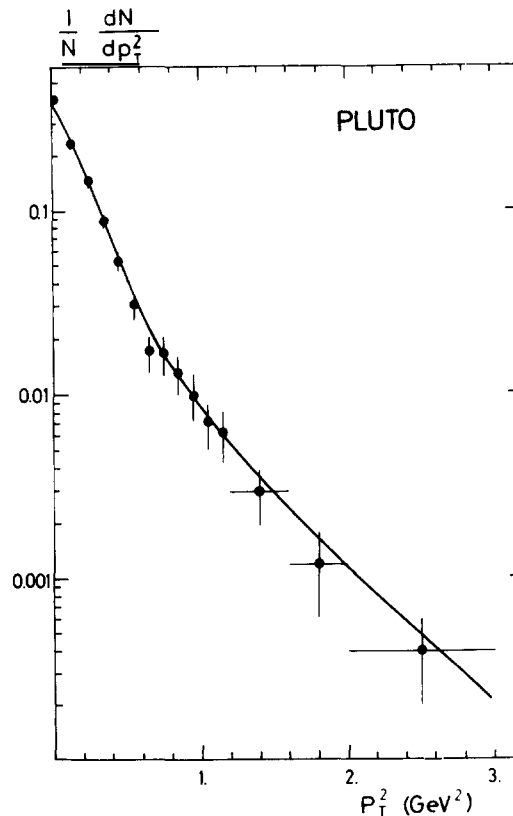


Fig. 3.13. Distribution of transverse particle momenta (w.r.t. the  $e^+e^-$  beam line) as observed and simulated (full curve) in photon-photon interactions.

<sup>†</sup> In the  $\gamma\gamma$  c.m. system.



were accepted within the given (acoplanarity) cuts. The latter contributions were always found to be consistent with the ones calculated from the matrix elements for an ideal detection.

The reactions  $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-e^+e^-$ ,  $e^+e^- \mu^+\mu^-$  which produce the majority of the two prongs in  $\gamma\gamma$  reaction were simulated with a program written by J. Vermaeseren [320, 321].

### 3.9.5. Heavy leptons

The reaction  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \tau^+\tau^-$  was generated assuming zero neutrino mass and a (V - A) decay matrix element, with the known branching ratios [322] and an estimate for  $\tau \rightarrow \nu 4\pi$ . Spin correlations between the  $\tau^+$  and  $\tau^-$  were ignored.

In addition, hypothetical heavier leptons were simulated [323] with the same universal weak current producing an equal number of  $e\bar{\nu}$ ,  $\mu\bar{\nu}$ ,  $\tau\bar{\nu}$ ,  $\bar{u}d$  and  $\bar{c}s$  pairs, with the quarks fragmenting into standard hadron jets [315].

### 3.9.6. Detector response and analysis chain

The generated particles are all traced through the detectors. Multiple Coulomb-scattering and energy loss are included in the simulation, also particle decays, and the evolution of electron-photon showers. For every charged particle passing a track chamber, the number of wire and cathode signals is generated such as to agree with the observed distributions and efficiencies. The complete track chamber information, including the trigger response, and the shower information is passed through all stages of the analysis program that processes the real data. In this way the analysis procedure and the effect of various selection criteria can be studied in great detail. The Monte Carlo simulation also allows a detailed check of kinematical fit procedures.

### 3.9.7. Radiative corrections

Photon emission in the initial state causes the  $e^+e^-$  annihilation to be measured at a lower than the nominal c.m. energy. It amounts to a folding of the true cross section and will lead to an increase or decrease of the observed rate, depending on whether the cross section at the degraded energies is lower than at the nominal energy (for instance on top of a resonance) or higher (above resonances and in the continuum).

The basic formulae expressing this folding, together with small vertex corrections were taken from refs. [314, 324] for the  $J/\psi$ ,  $\psi'$ , and the continuum, and from ref. [325] for fitting the  $Y$  resonance and the nearby continuum cross section. The true non-resonant cross section, and the integral over the true resonant cross section are obtained as fit parameters.

The initial state radiation generally leads to an observed cross section with smoothed structures. Unfolding this effect will enhance the observed structures and exaggerate statistical fluctuations. For unfolding the 'wiggly' cross section between 4 and 4.5 GeV, an iterative correction procedure was used which tends to avoid such exaggerations [301]. In fact, the additional fine structure produced by the correction is less than  $\pm 5\%$ . For the analysis of the data taken at PETRA the effects of the initial state radiation were already included in the Monte Carlo acceptance calculation and automatically corrected for.

Radiative corrections to the small-angle monitor are calculated according to ref. [307]. They depend only weakly on the energy, and amount to typically 5% (2%) for the monitors used at DORIS (PETRA).

## 4. QED Tests. Limits on cut-off parameters and electroweak effects

### 4.1. Introduction

Quantum electrodynamics (QED) is known to describe a vast amount of electromagnetic phenomena to a high precision. It has evolved from an understanding of macroscopic electromagnetic phenomena, in terms of charges and electromagnetic fields, leading to Maxwell's equations. Field quantization together with the Dirac equation for fermions then yielded QED which allows for predictions of the interaction of photons with particles having point-like charges, also at microscopic distances – or large momentum transfers – including the creation of particle–antiparticle pairs. Since the early days of QED it has therefore been of great interest [401] to find out whether below some very short distances – or beyond some very large momentum transfers – nature is different from the picture QED is based on. The high energies of PETRA allowed for a further step in testing the validity of QED, namely up to momentum transfers of  $\sim 1000 \text{ GeV}^2$ , or down to distances of  $< 10^{-15} \text{ cm}$ .

Deviations from pure QED are expected

- (i) from the hadronic vacuum polarization [402],
- (ii) from weak neutral current interactions [403],
- (iii) as a general breakdown at large space-like ( $q^2 < 0$ ) or time-like ( $q^2 = s > 0$ ) momentum transfers, or short distances, e.g. as a consequence of a non point-like nature of the charges involved or from excited heavy states of the leptons [404].

In  $e^+e^-$  storage ring experiments such deviations from QED can be looked for in the following reactions:

$$e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^- \tag{4.1}$$

$$\mu^+\mu^- \tag{4.2}$$

$$\tau^+\tau^- \tag{4.3}$$

$$\gamma\gamma \tag{4.4}$$

and in final states containing additional photons or lepton pairs. The hadronic vacuum polarization has been most clearly observed, and measured quantitatively as a sizeable effect in reactions (4.1) and (4.2) at the energies of the  $\rho$ ,  $\omega$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $J/\psi$  and  $Y$  resonances [405], and will not be pursued further here. As a 'trivial' modification of QED it is included in the radiative corrections (see below). No other deviations from pure QED have been observed so far in these reactions<sup>†</sup> [401]. But since relative deviations due to (ii) and (iii) are expected to grow like  $s$  or even faster, experiments at PETRA are 10 times more sensitive than the best previous tests [408]. In processes with time-like photon propagators, interference with the weak neutral current grows proportional to  $s$  and produces deviations from pure QED cross sections of up to a few percent at  $s \approx 1000 \text{ GeV}^2$ . These effects show up in the reactions (4.1–4.3). Effects from other modifications (iii), parameterized by so called QED cut-off parameters  $\Lambda$ , can also be studied in reactions (4.1–4.3), and in addition in reaction (4.4). This latter reaction has no first order weak interaction contribution.

In the following subsection we describe the nomenclature of writing QED cross sections, and of

<sup>†</sup> Electroweak interference effects have been measured with high precision in polarized electron nucleon scattering at SLAC at low momentum transfers [406], and also in optical rotation of linearly polarized laser light at Novosibirsk [407].

incorporating modifications. Then we present the corresponding experimental results. Their implications for the QED cutoff parameters, and for electroweak effects are discussed in sections 4.4 and 4.5, respectively. In appendix 4A we give a compilation of formulae used to describe these deviations. Finally, in appendix 4B we include an account of the data analysis of the four QED reactions.

### 4.2. Radiative corrections and QED modifications

For a comparison of QED predictions with the data of reactions (4.1–4.4), the theoretical predictions are usually given in terms of first order QED cross sections,  $\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}$  (see diagrams in figs. 4.1 and 4.2) and, to account for effects from higher order QED diagrams and from hadronic vacuum polarization (figs. 4.3 and 4.4), by the so called radiative corrections  $\delta_{\text{RAD}}$ :

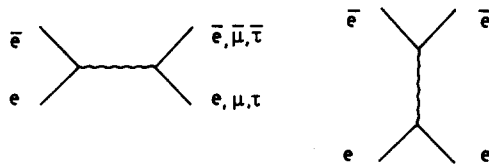


Fig. 4.1. First order QED diagrams for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \ell^+\ell^-$ .

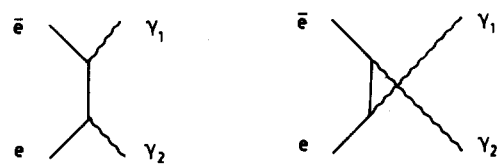


Fig. 4.2. First order QED diagrams for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ .

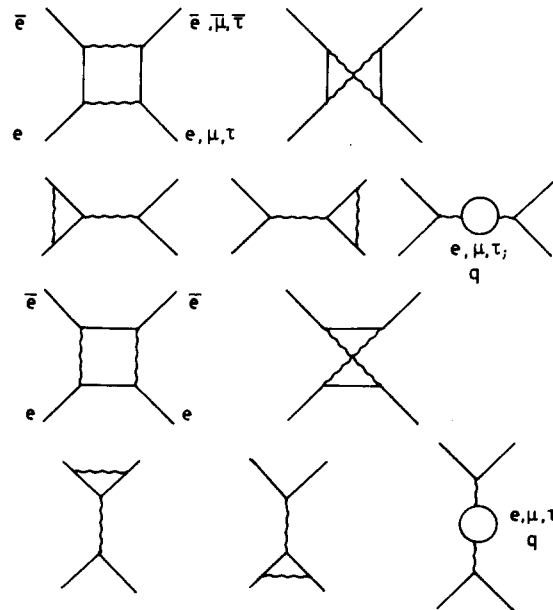
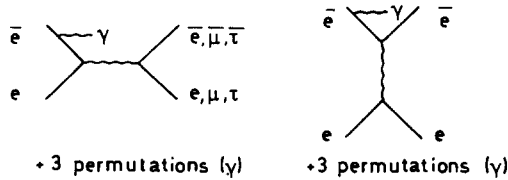


Fig. 4.3. Diagrams contributing to radiative corrections of order  $\alpha^3$ , for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \ell^+\ell^-$ .

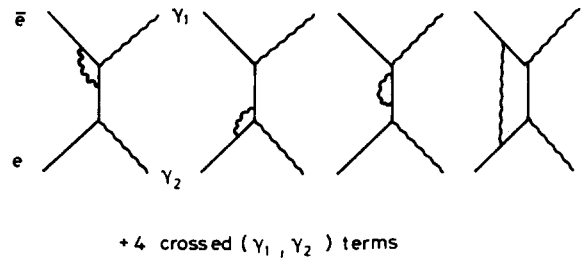
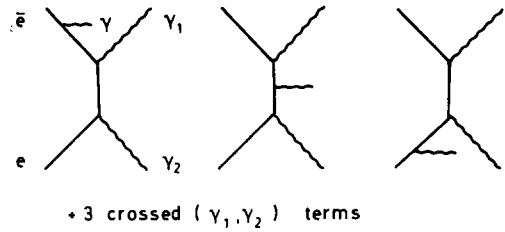


Fig. 4.4. Diagrams contributing to radiative corrections of order  $\alpha^3$ , for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ .

$$\sigma^{\text{QED}} = \sigma_1^{\text{QED}}(1 + \delta_{\text{RAD}}). \quad (4.5)$$

On the r.h.s.  $\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}$  is a purely theoretical quantity whereas the radiative corrections depend on the detector resolution and on acceptance cuts for events in reactions (4.1–4.4). Therefore one usually corrects (using QED) the experimental cross section  $\sigma^{\text{EXP}}$ , which is already corrected for acceptance, with  $\delta_{\text{RAD}}$  such that it can be compared directly to  $\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}$  (if  $\delta_{\text{RAD}} \ll 1$ ):

$$\sigma^{\text{CORR}} = \sigma^{\text{EXP}}(1 - \delta_{\text{RAD}}). \quad (4.6)$$

The radiative and the hadronic vacuum polarization corrections  $\delta_{\text{RAD}}$  have been calculated up to order  $\alpha^3$  by refs. [409, 410] (see diagrams in figs. 4.3 and 4.4). Since the deviations we are looking for are of similar size as the calculated radiative corrections it is important to check the radiative corrections independently. This is possible in radiative Bhabha scatters with hard photons (i.e.  $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-\gamma$ ) which are partly accepted by the criteria for the Bhabha sample. Because of the – unobserved or unresolved – photon the final state  $e^+$  and  $e^-$  particles are in general no longer coplanar with the beams. In fig. 4.5 we show the predicted acoplanarity angle distribution. It has a large angle tail from hard photon radiation, mainly in the initial state, and agrees very well with the observed acoplanarity distribution. The width of the peak at small angles reflects the angular resolution.

The QED predictions also depend on beam polarization. All cross section predictions given here are

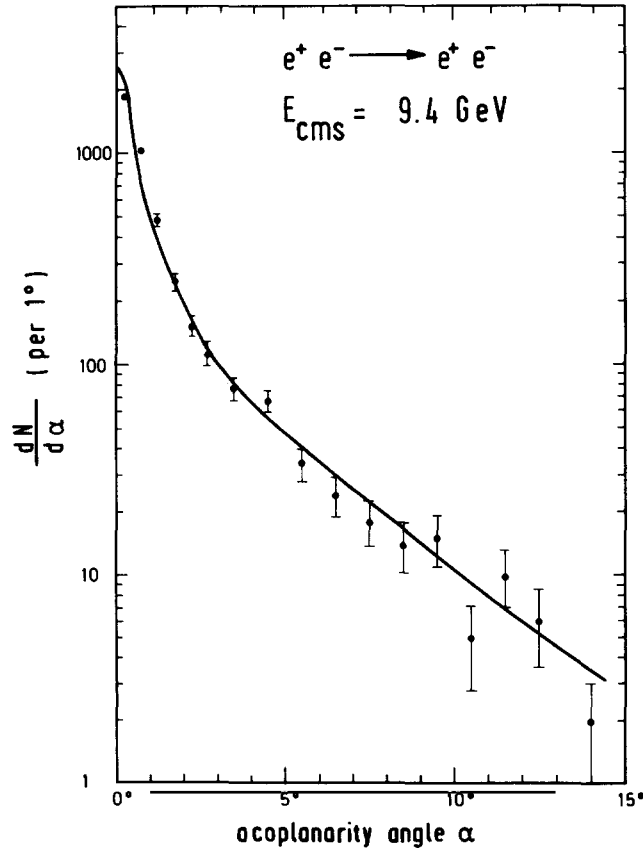


Fig. 4.5. Distribution of the acoplanarity angle  $\alpha$  from the Bhabha event sample, at  $W = 9.4$  GeV.

assuming no beam polarization. A transverse beam polarization which is expected for  $e^+e^-$  storage rings [424] does not affect the analysis described here since we have a uniform acceptance in the azimuthal angle. No longitudinal polarization is expected since there are no horizontal fields strong enough to rotate a possible transverse polarization.

The first order predictions of modified versions of QED can be written in terms of first order pure QED predictions as

$$\sigma_1^{\text{MOD}} \equiv \sigma_1^{\text{QED}}(1 + \delta_A + \delta_w) \quad (4.7)$$

with  $\delta_A$  for general large  $q^2$  QED breakdown effects and  $\delta_w$  for electroweak interference effects.

If we assume that radiative corrections for  $\sigma_1^{\text{MOD}}$  are similar to those for  $\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}$  we can determine  $\delta_A$  and  $\delta_w$  from the data through

$$\sigma^{\text{CORR}} = \sigma_1^{\text{QED}}(1 + \delta_A + \delta_w). \quad (4.8)$$

Since later we find  $\sigma^{\text{CORR}} = \sigma_1^{\text{QED}}$  within the accuracy of the data, we determine limits on possible modifications, by setting  $\delta_w = 0$  for limits on  $\delta_A$ , and vice versa.

Explicit expressions for  $\delta_A$  and  $\delta_w$  can be given in specific models, and limits on  $\delta_A$  and  $\delta_w$  can then be translated into limits on parameters of these models. In appendix 4A we summarize expressions for these QED modifications.

The electroweak deviations  $\delta_w$  are calculated by adding  $Z^0$  exchange diagrams to the one photon exchange diagrams in fig. 4.1. The electroweak effects then depend on 3 free parameters:  $v^2$ ,  $a^2$  and  $M_Z$ , which are related to the electroweak ('Salam–Weinberg') mixing angle  $\theta_w$  in the GSW theory [403]. The total cross section modifications depend mainly on the vector current coupling  $v^2$ , while the  $\mu$  pair charge asymmetry [411] depends mainly on the axial current coupling  $a^2$ . The mass  $M_Z$  affects the energy dependence of electroweak effects.

The deviations  $\delta_A$  from breakdowns of QED at large momentum transfers are expressed as modifications of lepton–photon vertex functions or propagators [404]. In the first order amplitudes for  $ee \rightarrow ee$ ,  $\mu\mu$  and  $\tau\tau^\dagger$  the two lepton–photon–lepton vertices and the photon propagator are multiplied by momentum transfer dependent factors  $V(q^2)$  (for the vertex) and  $D(q^2)$  (for the propagator). They can be combined into one overall form factor  $F$  for the scattering amplitude:

$$V_T^2(s) \cdot D_T(s) = F_T(s) \quad \text{for the time-like amplitude} \quad (4.9a)$$

$$V_S^2(q^2) \cdot D_S(q^2) = F_S(q^2) \quad \text{for the space-like amplitude.} \quad (4.9b)$$

The modifications can be different at space-like and at time-like momentum transfers, and also different for the  $e$ ,  $\mu$  and  $\tau$  leptons. Since no deviations from QED are observed in any of the four reactions (4.1–4.4) we assume (i) electromagnetic lepton universality, i.e. the same vertex function for different leptons, and (ii) the same form factor parameterizations for time-like and space-like momentum transfers, and (iii) we consider only the lowest possible orders in  $q^2$  for the form factors.

For the lepton pair channels (reactions (4.1–4.3)) we use the form factor parameterization

$$F(q^2) = 1 \pm q^2/\Lambda_\pm^2 \quad (4.10)$$

† For brevity the lepton–antilepton notation is omitted in most places.

which can be considered the first order approximation in  $q^2/\Lambda^2$  for the form factor  $F = \Lambda_{\pm}^2/(\Lambda_{\pm}^2 \mp q^2)$  proposed in the literature [404]. Two cut-off parameters,  $\Lambda_+$  and  $\Lambda_-$ , are introduced to allow for  $F \geq 1$  and  $F \leq 1$ .  $\Lambda = \infty$  restores pure QED.  $\Lambda_+$  can be related in the static limit to the charge radius of leptons. If  $e$  and  $\gamma$  are pointlike particles, but  $\mu$  or  $\tau$  leptons were independently extended we would measure their charge radius in reactions (4.2) and (4.3) as [401]

$$\langle r^2 \rangle = \frac{6\hbar^2 c^2}{\Lambda_+^2} = \frac{3\hbar^2 c^2}{s} \left( \frac{\sigma^{\text{CORR}}}{\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}} - 1 \right). \quad (4.11)$$

Finite values of  $\Lambda_-$  can arise from a heavy neutral particle interfering with the photon in reactions (4.1–4.3).

In the  $\gamma$  pair channel (reaction (4.4)) the OED violations as discussed for the lepton pair channels cannot produce deviations proportional to  $q^2$  because of the cancellations due to current conservation [404e, 404g, 412]. In this case, the so called ‘‘sea gull’’ graph [404g, i] gives rise to a  $q^4/\Lambda^4$  term in the form factor:

$$F(q^2) = 1 \pm q^4/\Lambda_{\pm}^4. \quad (4.12)$$

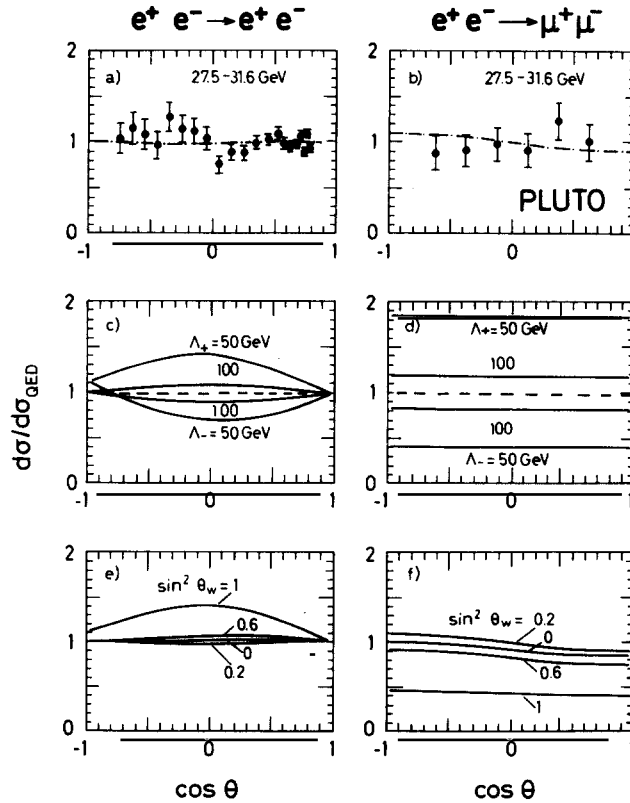


Fig. 4.6. Differential cross section  $d\sigma^{\text{CORR}}/d\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}$  for (a)  $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-$  and (b)  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ ;  $d\sigma_1^{\text{MOD}}/d\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}$  for QED modifications by form factors (c, d) and by electroweak interference (e, f).

A slightly different cross section modification for  $ee \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$  arises from the exchange of a virtual excited (heavy) electron [404h].

To illustrate the effect of the modifications, we show in figs. 4.6 c–f how the modified QED predictions for reactions (4.1–4.3) depend on different values of the cut-off parameters  $\Lambda_{\pm}$ , and of the Salam–Weinberg angle  $\theta_w$ . In Bhabha scattering the cross sections at small angles (mainly space-like contributions, small  $|q^2|$ ) are almost unaffected. Only the large angle part is sensitive. Both modifications have much stronger effects (by a factor  $\sim 3$ ) in lepton pair production, than in Bhabha scattering, since there all contributions come from the time-like diagram with a high value of  $q^2 = s$ .<sup>†</sup> The forward/backward (or: charge) asymmetry  $A$  in the lepton pair production reactions (4.2) and (4.3):

$$A = \frac{\sigma(1 \geq \cos \theta > 0) - \sigma(0 > \cos \theta \geq -1)}{\sigma(1 \geq \cos \theta > 0) + \sigma(0 > \cos \theta \geq -1)} \quad (4.13)$$

is still rather small at  $s \approx 1000 \text{ GeV}^2$  ( $\sim -7\%$ ) if  $M_Z \geq 90 \text{ GeV}$ , and requires a high statistics measurement.

In photon pair production (4.4) the high  $q^2$  QED modifications affect the size and the shape of differential cross sections. Since deviations here are proportional to  $q^4/\Lambda^4$  the expected cross sections modifications are much smaller than in lepton pair production, at comparable values of  $\Lambda$ .

### 4.3. The data

Reactions (4.1–4.4) have been measured with PLUTO [413] and also in other PETRA experiments [414]. In table 4.1 we summarize the event numbers observed in the PLUTO experiment, and the acceptance cuts in the four channels. Further details on the data analysis are given in appendix 4B.

The luminosities needed for calculating cross sections are determined from Bhabha scattering at small forward angles ( $0.7 < \cos \theta < 0.8$ ) where  $|q^2|$  is much smaller than  $s$  ( $|q^2| \approx 0.1s$ ). Therefore the effect of any QED modification on luminosity determination is negligible as compared to its effect on the lepton pair production cross section at  $q^2 = s$ , as can be seen in figs. 4.6 c–f.

The total cross sections for  $\mu$ ,  $\tau$  and  $\gamma$  pair production are shown in figs. 4.7a, b and c, as a function of  $s$ . They show the expected  $1/s$  dependence and agree with the QED cross section. In figs. 4.6 (a and b) we show the ratio  $d\sigma^{\text{CORR}}/d\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}$  versus  $\cos \theta$  for  $ee$  and  $\mu\mu$ , averaged over data of  $27.5 < W <$

Table 4.1  
Acceptance cuts and event numbers in the QED reactions

Reaction	# of events	Production angle $ \cos \theta  <$	Acollinearity angle $\alpha <$
$e^+e^-$	5700	0.8	$15^\circ$
$\mu^+\mu^-$	228	0.75	$10^\circ$
$\tau^+\tau^-$	139	<sup>1)</sup>	–
$\gamma\gamma$	1020	0.75	$20^\circ$

<sup>1)</sup> In 2 prongs  $|\cos \theta| < 0.6$  for each track, and in 4 prongs  $|\cos \theta| < 0.75$  for each track.

<sup>†</sup> The better statistical accuracy in the  $e^+e^-$  channel leads however to a similar sensitivity for QED violations in reaction (4.1).

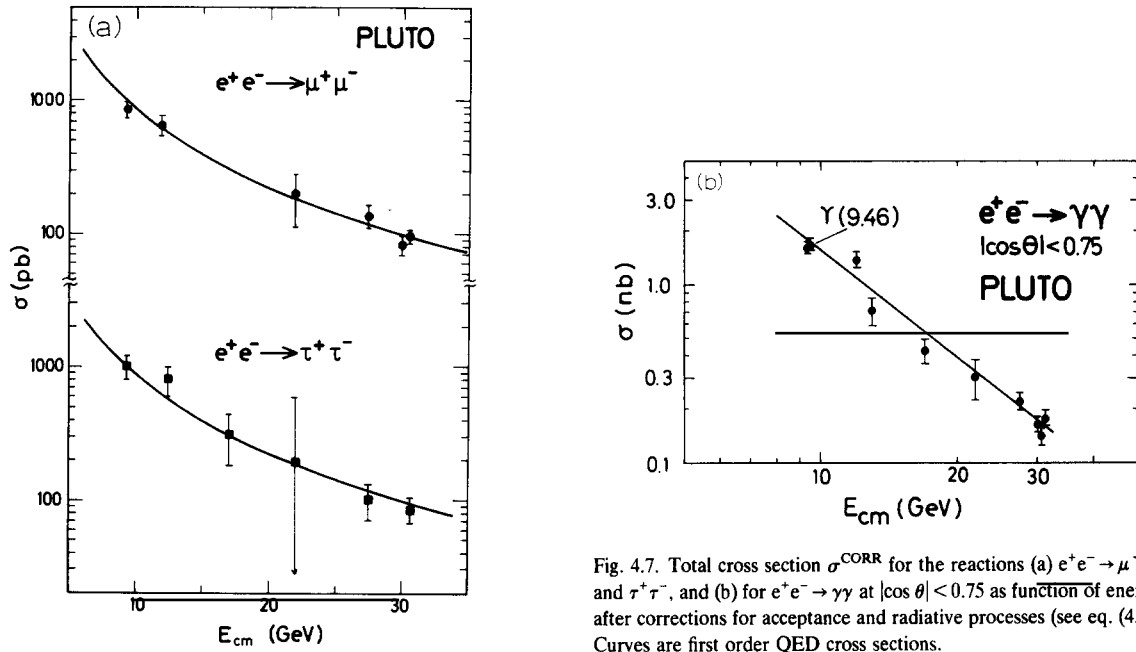


Fig. 4.7. Total cross section  $\sigma^{\text{CORR}}$  for the reactions (a)  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$  and  $\tau^+\tau^-$ , and (b) for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$  at  $|\cos\theta| < 0.75$  as function of energy, after corrections for acceptance and radiative processes (see eq. (4.6)). Curves are first order QED cross sections.

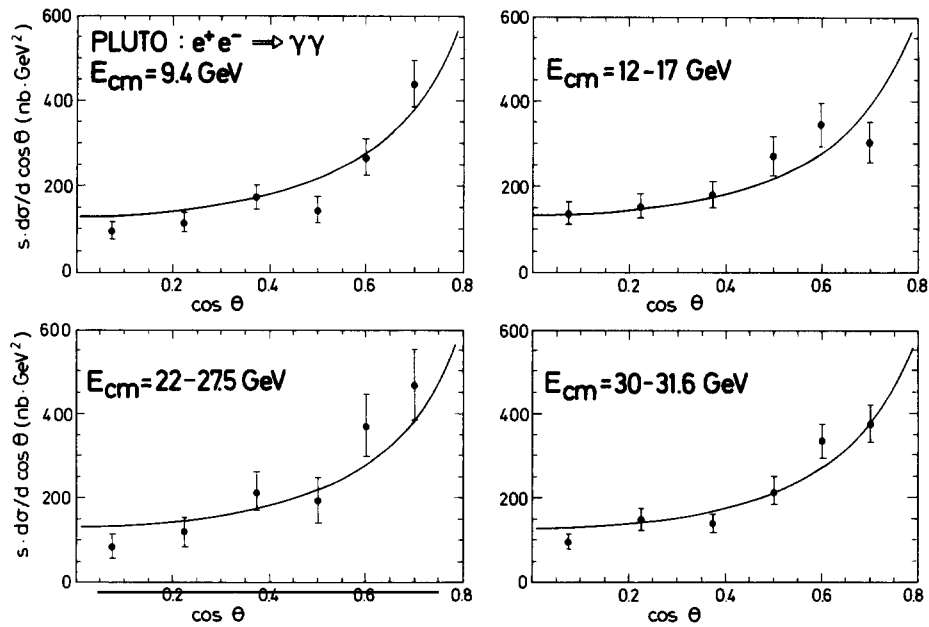


Fig. 4.8. Differential cross sections  $s \cdot d\sigma/d\cos\theta$  for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ , at 4 energies, not corrected for radiative effects and angular resolution. The curves are the corresponding QED prediction, with radiative corrections up to order  $\alpha^3$ .



31.6 GeV. At all data points this ratio is consistent with 1. The ratio is trivially equal to 1 for forward Bhabha scattering ( $0.7 < \cos \theta < 0.8$ ) which has been used to determine the luminosity<sup>†</sup>. The  $\mu$  pair asymmetry, derived from fig. 4.6b (for  $|s| = 911 \text{ GeV}^2$ ) and corrected for acceptance with (4A.7) is

$$A = 8\% \pm 10\% (\text{stat.}) \pm 2\% (\text{syst.}) \quad (4.14)$$

compared to  $-6.9\%$  expected in the standard electroweak model [403] for  $\sin^2 \theta_w = 0.23$ . Finally the differential cross section for  $ee \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$  is shown in fig. 4.8. In the latter figure the data is not corrected for  $\delta_{\text{RAD}}$  and resolution. These effects are included here in the theoretical curves.

There is no evidence in any of the distributions for a deviation from pure QED. This null result – together with the errors – will be expressed in the two following sections in terms of limits on parameters describing possible deviations.

#### 4.4. QED cut-off parameters

From the data shown in the previous section we can infer limits on the cutoff parameters  $\Lambda$  in the form factors (eqs. (4.10) and (4.12)). The limits given in table 4.2 have been determined separately from each of the reactions (4.1–4.4) with the assumptions discussed in section 4.2.

More detailed cut-off parameters  $\Lambda$  can be introduced in the lepton pair channels by dropping the assumption of electromagnetic lepton universality and by allowing for independent space-like and time-like cut-off parameters,  $\Lambda_S$  and  $\Lambda_T$ , in eq. (4.10). Results along these lines are given in ref. [413a].

The limits on  $\Lambda$  (table 4.2) from the  $\gamma\gamma$  channel are weaker since the form factor here depends on  $(1/\Lambda)^4$  rather than  $(1/\Lambda)^2$ . In column  $\gamma\gamma$ (a)  $\Lambda$  is the QED cut-off parameter of the form factor (4.12) which multiplies the first order amplitudes for reactions (4.4). In column  $\gamma\gamma$ (b) the parameter  $\Lambda_+$  is related to the mass of an exchanged (hypothetic) excited electron. Here the limit for  $\Lambda_+$  can be interpreted as a lower mass limit for the excited electron, if it has a magnetic coupling to the electron with a ‘natural’ strength [404h]. There is no physics motivation for a corresponding  $\Lambda_-$  parameter.

#### 4.5. Electroweak effects

Assuming that there are no other modifications of QED ( $\delta_\Lambda = 0$ ) we can use the combined data in figs. 4.6a, b from reactions (4.1–4.2) to place limits on the electroweak parameters<sup>††</sup>. First we evaluate

Table 4.2  
Lower limits (95% c.l.) on QED cutoff parameters  $\Lambda$ , in GeV, as determined in the reactions (4.1–4.4). Cases  $\gamma\gamma$  (a) and  $\gamma\gamma$  (b) are explained in the text

	ee	$\mu\mu$	$\tau\tau$	$\gamma\gamma$ (a)	$\gamma\gamma$ (b)
$\Lambda_+$	234	107	79	46	46
$\Lambda_-$	80	101	63	36	–

<sup>†</sup> Actually we used the electroweak cross section  $\sigma^{\text{EW}}$  for Bhabha scattering with  $\sin^2 \theta_w = 0.23$  (see appendix 4A) instead of  $\sigma^{\text{QED}}$  to determine the luminosity. The difference is  $<1\%$  at these angles.

<sup>††</sup> Reaction (4.3) – which in principle carries also the information provided by reaction (4.2) – is not used in this analysis since (i) the detection efficiency is only  $\sim 20\%$ , and (ii) the production angle of  $\tau$  pairs is not measured.

for a single neutral boson model the limits on the vector and the axial current couplings,  $v^2$  and  $a^2$ , and on  $M_Z$  as independent quantities. Then we link these parameters through the Salam–Weinberg angle  $\theta_w$  and determine an upper limit on  $\sin^2 \theta_w$ . Finally we infer limits on boson masses for models with 2 neutral gauge bosons. For definitions and formulae we refer to appendix 4A.

#### 4.5.1. Limits on $v^2$ , $a^2$ and $M_Z$

As a first step we set  $M_Z = \infty$  which gives the weakest constraints on  $v^2$  and  $a^2$  in a fit to our data:

$$v^2 = -0.09 \pm 0.60 \text{ (stat.)} \pm 0.29 \text{ (syst.)} \quad (4.15a)$$

$$a^2 = -0.77 \pm 0.96 \text{ (stat.)} \pm 0.09 \text{ (syst.)} . \quad (4.15b)$$

These numbers are consistent with  $v^2 = a^2 = 0$ , i.e. with the absence of any weak interaction effects, but also with the standard electroweak model [403]:

$$a^2 = 1, \quad v^2 = 0.0064 \quad \text{for } \sin^2 \theta_w = 0.23 .$$

The results on  $v^2$  and  $a^2$  (4.15) are correlated (see appendix 4A, eqs. (4A.5) and (4A.6)). Fig. 4.9 shows the 95% c.l. contour from the  $ee$  and  $\mu\mu$  data in the  $a^2, v^2$  plane, both for  $M_Z = \infty$ , and for  $M_Z = 80, 60, 40$  GeV. In combination with the 2 (ambiguous) results for  $a^2$  and  $v^2$  from elastic  $\nu e$  scattering data

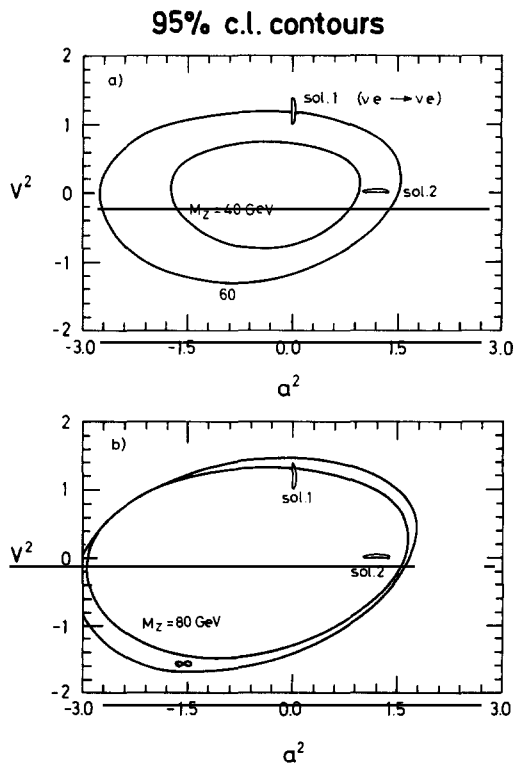


Fig. 4.9. 95% c.l. contour plots from fits of  $v^2$  and  $a^2$  to the data of figs. 4.7a, b, (a) assuming  $Z^0$  masses of 40 and 60 GeV, (b) assuming  $Z^0$  masses of 80 and  $\infty$  GeV. Also shown are the two solutions for  $v^2$  and  $a^2$  as derived from elastic neutrino electron scattering [415].

[415] we can exclude  $Z^0$  masses  $<40$  GeV. Furthermore, our data slightly favour the  $\nu e$  solution with small  $v^2$  and dominating  $a^2$ .

The lower limits for  $\Lambda_-$  (table 4.2) cannot be trivially converted into a limit on  $M_Z$ . Although the electroweak and the cut-off parameterization have (first order) poles at  $s = M_Z^2$  and  $s = \Lambda_-^2$ , respectively, their functional dependences on  $s/M_Z^2$  and  $s/\Lambda_-^2$ , respectively, are different.

#### 4.5.2. Limits on the Salam–Weinberg angle $\theta_w$

In the standard electroweak model [403]  $\sin^2 \theta_w$  is the only parameter, and we have the relations

$$a^2 = 1, \quad v^2 = (1 - 4 \sin^2 \theta_w)^2 \quad (4.16a, b)$$

$$M_Z^2 = \left( \frac{37.4 \text{ GeV}}{\sin \theta_w \cos \theta_w} \right)^2. \quad (4.16c)$$

With these constraints a fit to our data yields

$$\sin^2 \theta_w = 0.22 \pm 0.22 \quad (4.17a)$$

or

$$\sin^2 \theta_w < 0.52 \quad \text{at 95\% c.l.} \quad (4.17b)$$

The result is consistent with the world average of  $\sin^2 \theta_w = 0.228 \pm 0.010$  [416], obtained from  $\gamma$ - $Z_0$  interference at much lower momentum transfers.

#### 4.5.3. Models with 2 neutral gauge bosons

There are extensions of the standard model by a further symmetry group  $G$  to  $SU_L(2) \times U(1) \times G$  in such a way that the predictions of the  $SU_L(2) \times U(1)$  model are reproduced for neutrino cross sections [415] and for polarized electron–nucleon scattering [406] at low momentum transfers. In such extensions [417, 418] two neutral bosons occur with masses  $M_1 \leq M_Z \leq M_2$ , and the parameter  $v^2$  is changed to

$$v^2 = (1 - 4 \sin^2 \theta_w)^2 + 16C, \quad C \geq 0 \quad (4.18a)$$

where  $C$  is related to the gauge boson masses and couplings by

$$C = \gamma \cdot (M_1^2 - M_Z^2)(M_Z^2 - M_2^2)/(M_1 M_2)^2; \quad (4.18b)$$

$\gamma$  has the value  $\cos^4 \theta_w$  in  $G = \tilde{U}(1)$  (de Groot and Schildknecht [417]) and  $\sin^4 \theta_w$  in  $G = SU(2)$  (Barger et al. [418]).

Using  $\sin^2 \theta_w = 0.23$  the limit on  $v^2$  is then essentially a limit on  $C$ . The PLUTO data yield

$$C < 0.06 \quad (95\% \text{ c.l.}). \quad (4.19)$$

This imposes correlated bounds on  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  as shown in fig. 4.10. We find that for the stronger coupling model ( $\gamma = \cos^4 \theta_w$ , [417]) the mass of one of the two vector bosons can deviate from the  $Z_0$  mass by at most 16%.

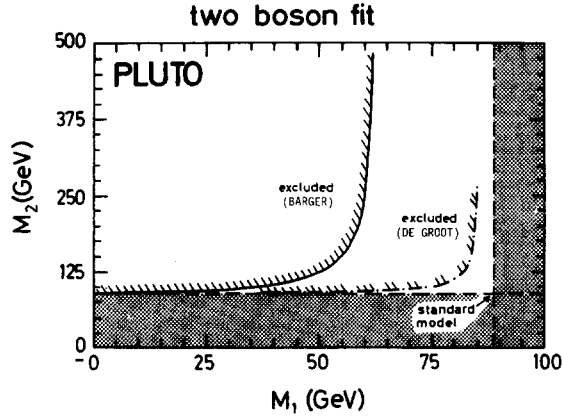


Fig. 4.10. 95% c.l. limits on the masses in the two neutral vector boson models of refs. [417] (de Groot and Schildknecht) and [418] (Berger et al.). The dotted area is excluded by the models ( $M_1 < M_Z < M_2$ ).

#### 4.6. Summary and conclusion

In summary the PLUTO experiment has found

(i) that QED is confirmed up to  $s = 1000 \text{ GeV}^2$  and  $q^2 = -850 \text{ GeV}^2$ . The cut-off parameters correspond to distances of  $1/\Lambda_+ \approx 2 \times 10^{-16} \text{ cm}$  down to which the validity of QED has been probed. This is an improvement by a factor 3 as compared to pre-PETRA experiments;

(ii) no significant weak interaction effects at energies of  $W \sim 30 \text{ GeV}$ , with an integrated luminosity of  $2900 \text{ nb}^{-1}$ ;

(iii) non-trivial limits on the strength of weak interactions in purely leptonic reactions.

Similar conclusions have been drawn from the JADE, MARK J, and TASSO experiments [414a,b,c]. A recent compilation of all PETRA experiments (as of August 1981) [414e] however yielded for the first time a significant asymmetry of

$$A = -(7.7 \pm 2.4)\% \quad (4.14a)$$

in disagreement with QED ( $A = 0$ , after radiative corrections), and in agreement with electroweak interference ( $A = -7.8\%$ ) [403] at  $\langle s \rangle = 1100 \text{ GeV}^2$ .

#### Appendix 4A. Formulae for QED modifications

##### 4A.1. Cut-off parameterization

The modified Bhabha cross section, with  $q^2 = -s \sin^2(\theta/2)$ , and  $q'^2 = -s \cos^2(\theta/2)$ , reads

$$\frac{d\sigma_1^{\text{MOD}}}{d\Omega} = \frac{\alpha^2}{2s} \left\{ \frac{q'^4 + s^2}{q^4} |F_S(q^2)|^2 + \frac{2q'^4}{q^2 s} \text{Re}(F_S F_T^*) + \frac{q'^4 + q^4}{s^2} |F_T(s)|^2 \right\} \quad (4A.1a)$$

$$= \frac{d\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}}{d\Omega} (1 + \delta_\lambda(s, \theta)) \quad (4A.1b)$$

with

$$\delta_{\Lambda_{\pm}}(s, \theta) = \frac{3s}{\Lambda_{\pm}^2} \frac{1 - \cos^2 \theta}{3 + \cos^2 \theta} + O(s^2/\Lambda^4).$$

For  $\Lambda = 100$  GeV,  $\sqrt{s} = 31$  GeV:  $\delta_{\Lambda} \sim 10\%$  at  $90^\circ$  and zero at  $0^\circ$ . The  $\mu^+\mu^-$  and  $\tau^+\tau^-$  cross sections which have contributions from time-like photons only, read for  $\sqrt{s} \gg m_\tau, m_\mu$ :

$$\frac{d\sigma_1^{\text{MOD}}}{d\Omega} = \frac{\alpha^2}{4s} (1 + \cos^2 \theta) |F_T(s)|^2 \quad (4A.2a)$$

$$= \frac{d\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}}{d\Omega} (1 + \delta_{\Lambda}(s)) \quad (4A.2b)$$

with

$$\delta_{\Lambda_{\pm}}(s) = \pm 2s/\Lambda_{\pm}^2 + O(s^2/\Lambda^4).$$

In this case  $\delta_{\Lambda}$  is independent of  $\theta$ ; for  $\Lambda = 100$  GeV,  $\sqrt{s} = 31$  GeV:  $\delta_{\Lambda} \sim 20\%$ .

For  $ee \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$  two different modifications have been considered in the literature.

(a) *Propagator and vertex modifications:*

Here it can be shown [404e, 404g, 415] that all contributions of the order  $(q^2/\Lambda^2)$  cancel and that the amplitude modification can be parameterized by form factors:

$$F(q^4) = 1 \pm q^4/\Lambda_{\pm}^4. \quad (4A.3)$$

Hence:

$$\frac{d\sigma_1^{\text{MOD}}}{d\Omega} = \frac{\alpha^2}{2s} \left\{ \frac{q'^2}{q^2} |F(q^4)|^2 + \frac{q^2}{q'^2} |F(q'^4)|^2 \right\} \quad (4A.4a)$$

$$= \frac{d\sigma_1^{\text{QED}}}{d\Omega} (1 + \delta_{\Lambda}(s, \theta)) \quad (4A.4b)$$

with

$$\delta_{\Lambda_{\pm}}(s, \theta) = \pm \frac{s^2}{2\Lambda_{\pm}^4} \frac{\sin^4 \theta}{1 + \cos^2 \theta} + O(s^4/\Lambda^8).$$

(b) *Heavy electron ( $E^*$ ) exchange:*

Here the interference of the normal (e) and heavy electron ( $E^*$ ) is considered:



Current conservation allows only for a magnetic moment coupling between  $e$ ,  $E^*$  and  $\gamma$ . A quantitative calculation [404h] yields:

$$\delta_\Lambda = \frac{s^2}{2\Lambda^4} \cdot \sin^2 \theta + O(s^4/\Lambda^8). \quad (4.A.4c)$$

The parameter  $\Lambda$  is related to the mass  $M_E$  and to the coupling constant  $\lambda$  of the excited electron by  $\Lambda^2 = M_E^2/\lambda^2$ .

In both cases (a) and (b) the modifications are maximum at  $\theta = 90^\circ$ . They are numerically smaller than in the case of Bhabha scattering or lepton pair production (e.g.  $\Lambda = 100$  GeV,  $\sqrt{s} = 31$  GeV:  $\delta \sim 0.4\%$  at  $\theta = 90^\circ$ ) which is reflected in correspondingly lower experimental limits on  $\Lambda$ .

A more detailed presentation can be found in refs. [404h, 419].

#### 4A.2. Electroweak cross sections

From the standard 1st order Hamiltonian of the electroweak neutral current one can derive [420] the following differential cross sections (neglecting terms of the order  $m_e^2/s$ ):

(a)  $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{4s}{\alpha^2} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = & \left\{ \frac{3+x^2}{1-x} \right\}^2 + 2 \frac{3+x^2}{(1-x)^2} \{(3+x)Q - x(1-x)R\}v^2 \\ & - \frac{2}{1-x} \{(7+4x+x^2)Q + (1+3x^2)R\}a^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{16}{(1-x)^2} Q^2 + (1-x)^2 R^2 \right\} (v^2 - a^2)^2 \\ & + \frac{1}{2} (1+x)^2 \left\{ \frac{2}{1-x} Q - R \right\}^2 (v^4 + 6v^2a^2 + a^4) \end{aligned} \quad (4A.5)$$

with  $x = \cos \theta$ ,  $\theta$  being the polar angle with respect to the beam axis

$$Q = gM_Z^2 \frac{q^2}{q^2 - M_Z^2} \rightarrow -gq^2 = g \cdot s \frac{1}{2}(1-x) \quad (M_Z^2 \gg |q^2|)$$

$$R = gM_Z^2 \frac{s}{s - M_Z^2} \rightarrow -gs \quad (M_Z^2 \gg s)$$

$$g = \frac{G_F}{8\sqrt{2}\pi\alpha} = 4.49 \times 10^{-5} (\text{GeV}^{-2})$$

$\alpha = 1/137$ , fine structure constant,  $G_F =$  Fermi coupling constant

$M_Z =$  mass of the  $Z^0$  boson

$$q^2 = -\frac{1}{2}s(1 - \cos \theta) = -\frac{1}{2}s(1-x).$$

The coupling strengths of the vector and the axial weak current are expressed by  $v$  and  $a$ . Their normalization is such that

$$a^2 = 1, \quad v^2 = (1 - 4 \sin^2 \theta_w)^2$$

in the standard electroweak model [403].

(b)  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$ :

$$\frac{4s}{\alpha^2} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = (1+x^2)\{1+2v^2R+(v^2+a^2)^2R^2\} + 4x\{a^2R+2v^2a^2R^2\} \quad (4A.6a)$$

$$\sigma = \frac{4\pi\alpha^2}{3s} \{1+2v^2R+(v^2+a^2)^2R^2\}. \quad (4A.6b)$$

In equations (4A.5) and (4A.6) the terms independent of  $Q$  and  $R$  correspond to the pure QED contributions, the terms linear in  $Q$ ,  $R$  describe the electroweak interference and the terms in  $Q^2$ ,  $R^2$  are pure weak contributions.

The interference term in  $ee \rightarrow \mu\mu$  produces a forward-backward asymmetry  $A$ , which is sensitive to  $a^2$ . If  $\mu$  pairs are measured at production angles  $|\cos \theta| < x_1$  eq. (4A.6) yields

$$A'(x_1) = \frac{6x_1}{3+x_1^2} \frac{a^2R(1+2v^2R)}{1+2v^2R+(v^2+a^2)^2R^2} = \frac{4x_1}{3+x_1^2} \cdot A. \quad (4A.7)$$

#### Appendix 4B. Data analysis in QED reactions

In this appendix we give details on the event selection—at the trigger level and in the off-line analysis—for the four QED reactions (4.1–4.4), and also on how the main background sources were removed. A few QED event pictures are shown in fig. 4.11.

##### 4B.1. $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-$

At runs below 22 GeV, Bhabha events [413a, 421] were triggered by a coincidence of two opposite shower counters if more than 1.2 GeV was observed in each, or by a trigger sensitive to more than 3 GeV in the full shower counter. For runs at 27–31 GeV these threshold values were doubled. The efficiency of these triggers for Bhabha events was as high as  $99.9 \pm 0.1\%$ . This could be measured by an independent track trigger for Bhabha events.

After shower reconstruction events with (at least) 2 showers with energies  $E_{SH} > E_B/3$  each were accepted for the further analysis. The tracks were reconstructed and matched with the shower position. Events with no tracks pointing to the showers or with more than 4 tracks from a common vertex were rejected. Allowing for more than 2 tracks is necessary because some events start showering in the track detector. The sample now consisted of 2-prongs if both showers were associated with tracks, and of a few ( $\sim 4\%$ ) 1-prongs. Within the acceptance (table 4.1) the efficiency for recognizing an  $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-$  event was determined to be  $99.3 \pm 0.4\%$ . The resolution of the scattering angle is  $\sigma(\cos \theta) = 0.01$ , independent of  $\cos \theta$ .

The main *background* source was the reaction  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ , where one or both  $\gamma$ 's started showering in the track detector. The 1-prong sample was cleared from this background in a visual scan. From the analysis of the reaction  $ee \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ , and the number of  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$  with  $1\gamma$  converted, the contamination of the 2-prong Bhabha sample from this source was calculated to be  $0.3 \pm 0.03\%$ . All other backgrounds (beam gas, cosmic rays,  $ee \rightarrow \tau\tau$ ,  $ee \rightarrow ee + ee$ ,  $ee + \mu\mu$ ) were less than 1% together.

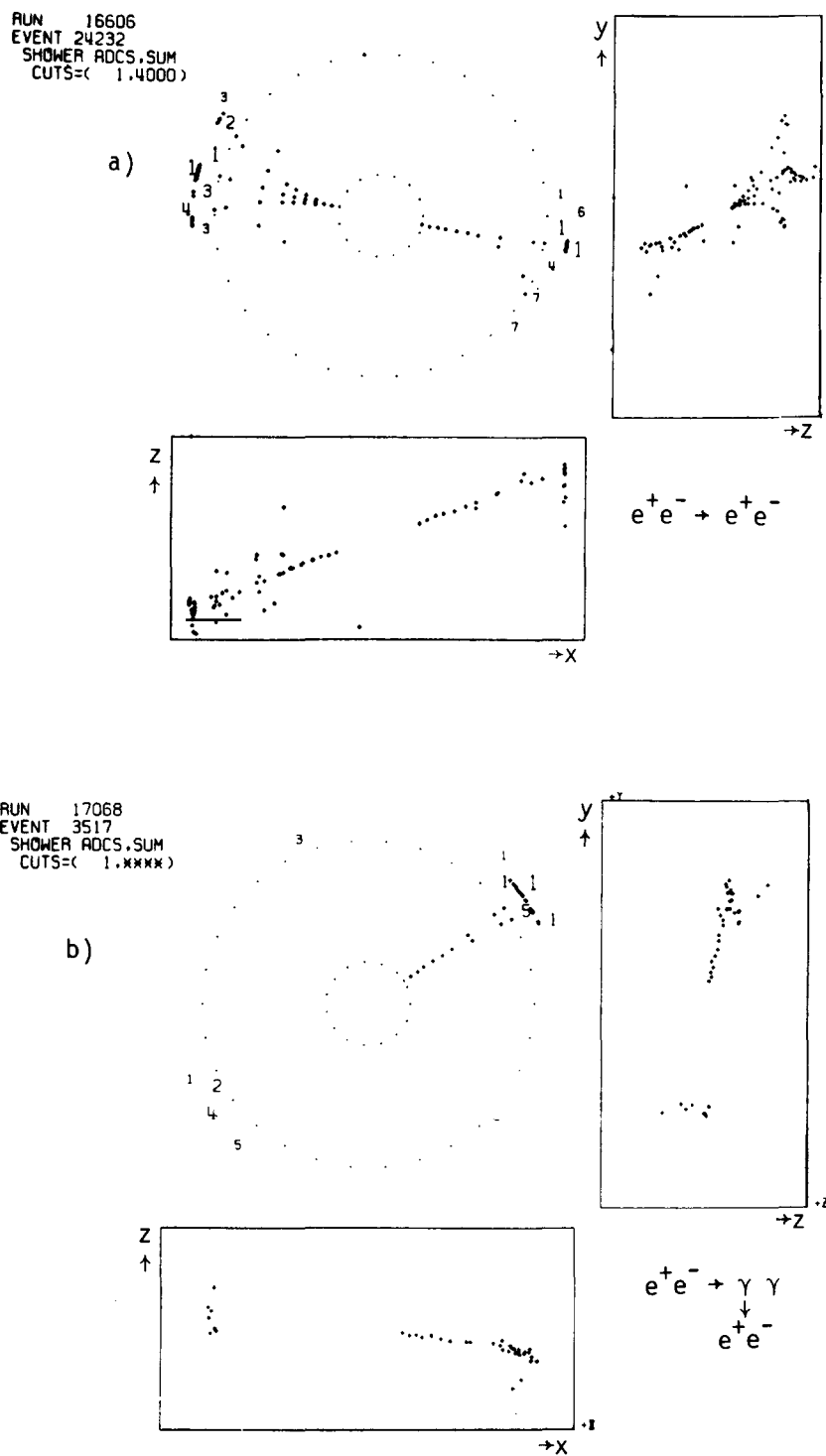


Fig. 4.11(a), (b).



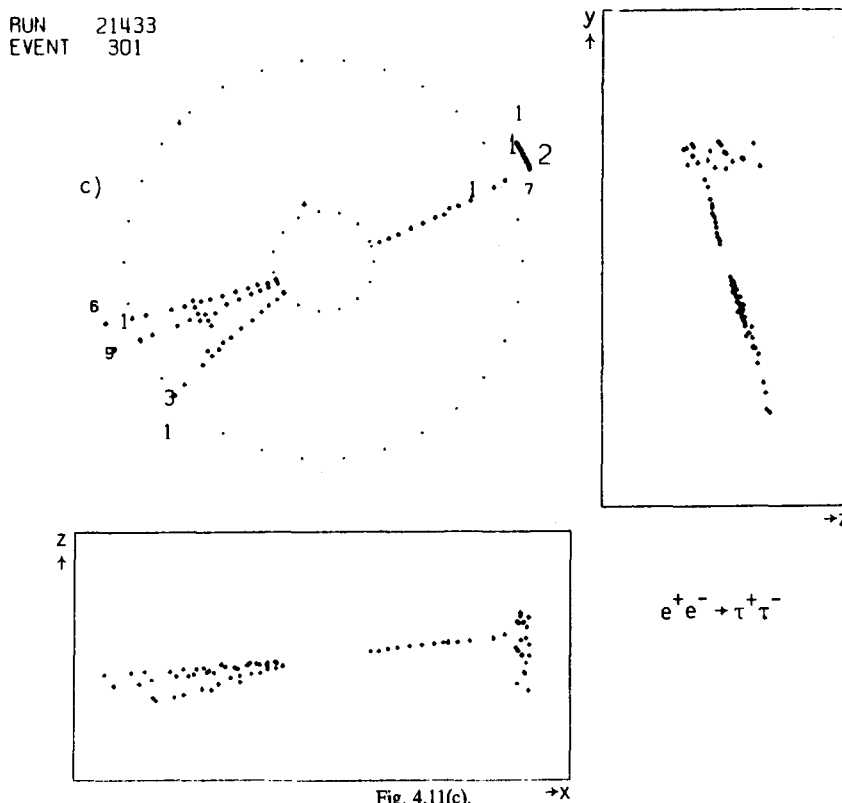


Fig. 4.11. Event pictures in PLUTO; (a) for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-$  with pair production in the beam pipe by one outgoing track, (b) for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$  with one photon conversion in the beam pipe, and (c) for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \tau^+\tau^-$  in a 4-prong final state. The pictures show a view along the beam (circular graph), and two orthogonal projections perpendicular to the beam.

The reliability of charge identification could be checked in the 2-prong Bhabha sample which contained a small fraction ( $\sim 5\%$ ) of events with two same charge tracks. From this number we have determined the number of events with two wrong curvature tracks at each energy and  $\cos \theta$  interval for corrections. The same charge 2-prong events were divided according to the ratio of forward/backward scatters. Corrections of the few 1-prong Bhabhas could be neglected. In addition all backward scatters were checked in a visual scan. The separation of forward-backward Bhabha scattering does not affect the determination of the cut-off parameters  $\Lambda$  (eq. (4A.1b)), but is useful for the analysis of electroweak effects. Also it allowed a measurement of the modification of the photon propagator by hadronic vacuum polarization at the  $Y$  resonance (see section 7).

#### 4B.2. $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$

Trigger and event preselection were similar as for Bhabha events (section 4B.1) with slightly different acceptance and acollinearity cuts (see table 4.1) and by requiring  $E_{\text{sh}} \geq \frac{1}{4}E_B$  [413b, 421]. In this sample  $\gamma\gamma$  final states were separated from  $ee$ ,  $ee\gamma$  and hadronic final states mainly by rejecting events where

- (a) both clusters were associated with tracks
- (b) more than 5 tracks were observed in the track detector
- (c) the angle between any two reconstructed tracks exceeded  $50^\circ$ .

The  $\gamma\gamma$  candidates were then scanned visually. Among the events with no tracks in the track detector

( $\sim 60\%$  of the total sample) practically no background was found, in agreement with a Monte Carlo study. The remaining events could be separated into (i)  $\gamma\gamma$  final states with one converted photon ( $\sim 30\%$  of the total  $\gamma\gamma$  rate), and (ii) Bhabha scatters with one shower in the track detector without reconstructed tracks,  $ee\gamma$  final states and a small number of hadronic final states. The events from (ii) were rejected.

A total of 1034 events was accepted, with an estimated background of  $(1 \pm 1)\%$ . Losses came from the selection cuts ( $5.5 \pm 1.1\%$ ) and incorrectly analysed shower patterns ( $1.3\%$ ), leading to an overall efficiency of  $93 \pm 2\%$ .

#### 4B.3. $e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$

The events were triggered by a track trigger sensitive to two coplanar tracks. In selecting this final state [413d, 422] the main problem is the rejection of cosmic ray background. All other backgrounds from  $ee \rightarrow$  hadrons,  $ee \rightarrow ee$ ,  $ee \rightarrow ee + \mu\mu$  are negligible, or small ( $2\%$  from  $ee \rightarrow \tau\tau$ ) in 2 prong events which passed the following cuts:

- (i) two tracks with  $|\cos \theta| < 0.75$ ,
- (ii) collinear within  $10^\circ$ ,
- (iii) track momenta  $p > 0.5 (0.67) \cdot E_B$  for  $E_B > 10 (< 10)$  GeV (for collinear tracks we find a momentum resolution of  $\sigma_p \leq 0.01p^2$ , see fig. 3.5),
- (iv) distance of tracks to the interaction point small:  $\Delta r(x, y) < 1.5$  mm,  $\Delta z < 40$  mm,
- (v) total energy in shower counters  $E_{SH} < 1$  GeV,
- (vi) time difference of  $< 20 (60)$  nsec between event time from barrel (end cap) and beam crossing.

After these cuts the cosmic ray background in the end cap region was  $40\%$  of the  $\mu$  pair signal and was subtracted, using a side band in event time. In the barrel region ( $|\cos \theta| < 0.6$ ) a time of flight separation was possible. Fig. 4.12 shows the time difference of the 2 back-to-back tracks normalized to incidence perpendicular to the beam. Cosmic rays and  $\mu$ -pairs are clearly separated by a cut at  $2$  nsec, leaving a cosmic ray background of less than  $1.4\%$ . After background subtractions we obtain 228  $\mu$ -pair events. The trigger efficiency is  $98\%$ , and the event selection cuts are associated with losses of  $1.5\%$ .

At the present level of statistics, errors in the asymmetry from uncertainties in charge sign identification are completely negligible. For  $W = 30$  GeV, the sagitta in a collinear 2-track fit is different from zero by  $\sim 7$  standard deviations.

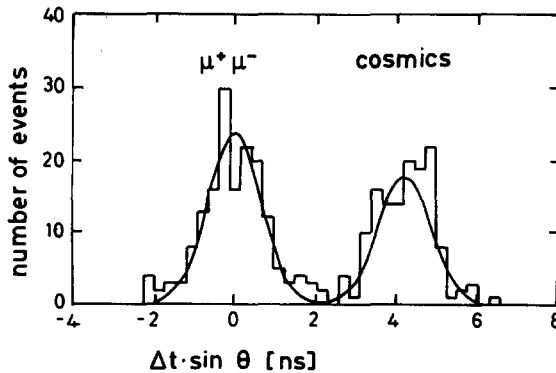


Fig. 4.12. TOF difference for  $\mu$  pairs and cosmic.

#### 4B.4. $e^+e^- \rightarrow \tau^+\tau^-$

This reaction is new in the context of testing QED. In principle it provides the same information as  $ee \rightarrow \mu\mu$ , but in practice there are several drawbacks from the fact that  $\tau$ 's are not observed before they decay: cross sections have to be determined from decay channels using branching ratios which are known with a limited accuracy, and the production angle of  $\tau$ 's cannot exactly be reconstructed from the decay products.

On the other hand, at energies  $W \gg 2 \cdot m_\tau$  the signature of  $\tau$  pair events becomes much clearer than at the low energies ( $E_B \sim 2 \text{ GeV}$ ), where the  $\tau$  lepton was discovered (see section 5). The most distinctive features of  $\tau$  pair events at PETRA energies are a low multiplicity (2-, 4- and a few 6-prongs, as compared to  $\langle n_{\text{CH}} \rangle \sim 10$  for hadronic annihilation, see fig. 6.24), and two almost collinear sets of decay products contained in very small solid angles (see figs. 4.11c and 4.13). We have used final states in which at least one  $\tau$  lepton decays into only one charged particle ( $e, \mu, \pi$ ) plus neutrals [413d, 423]. This way we accept  $\sim 90\%$  of all decay modes [416]. The accepted events then consist of 2 prongs ( $\sim 50\%$  of all) and 4 prongs ( $\sim 40\%$ ) which require different additional cuts for background rejection.

The main background problem in the 2-prong events is due to  $ee \rightarrow ee$ ,  $\mu\mu$ , and to cosmic rays, and to  $\gamma\gamma$  reactions. 2-prong  $\tau$  events were selected by applying the following selection criteria:

- (1) 2 oppositely charged tracks, originating from the interaction point,
- (2) one momentum  $p > 0.8 \text{ GeV}/c$ , the other  $p > 0.5 \text{ GeV}/c$  (mainly against beam gas),

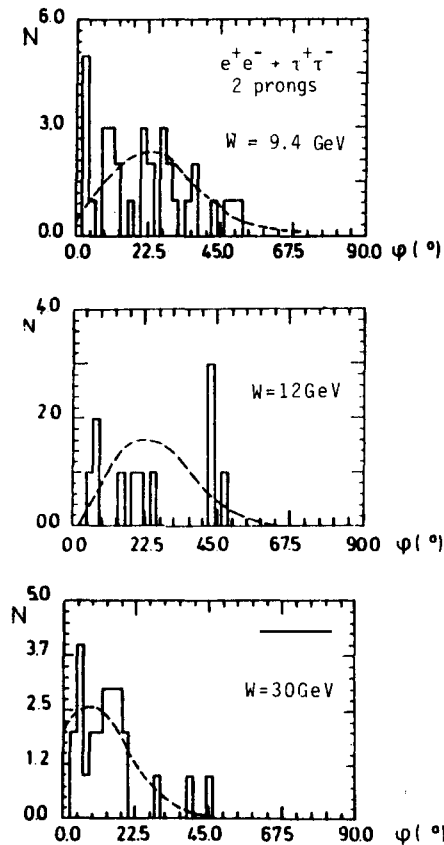
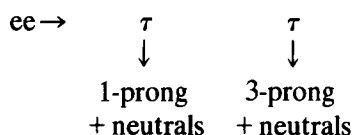


Fig. 4.13. Acolinearity angle distribution in  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \tau^+\tau^-$  2 prong events, at  $W = 9.4, 12,$  and  $30 \text{ GeV}$ .

- (3) production angle of each track  $|\cos \theta| < 0.6$  (to have time of flight rejection of cosmic rays),
- (4) no collinear fit possible (against  $\mu$ -pairs and remaining cospics),
- (5) missing mass  $> 0.5 E_{\text{beam}}$  (against  $\mu\mu\gamma$ ,  $ee\gamma$ ),
- (6) an acoplanarity angle  $\alpha > 18^\circ$ , if both tracks are associated with showers of energies  $E > 0.25 E_{\text{beam}}$  (against radiative Bhabhas, see also fig. 4.5 for  $\alpha$  distribution of Bhabha events),
- (7) 2-prong effective mass  $M > 2$  (3) GeV at  $E_{\text{cm}} \leq 13$  ( $\geq 17$ ) GeV, and net momentum transverse to the beam  $> 0.5$  GeV/c (against  $\gamma\gamma$  events).

According to a simulation of reaction (4.4) 17% of all 2-prong events passed these criteria [423]. 4-prong events are of the following type



with the 1- and 3-prong parts almost back to back. The main background in this topology is from  $\gamma\gamma$  reactions and from degraded Bhabha events. To select  $\tau$  events we required

- (1)  $\leq 6$  observed charged tracks (to allow for one  $\gamma \rightarrow e^+e^-$  conversion) with no charge excess,
- (2) all tracks with  $|\cos \theta| < 0.75$ ,
- (3) at least 1 track with  $p > 0.4$  (0.5) GeV at  $E_{\text{cm}} \leq 13$  ( $\geq 17$ ) GeV, and with no other tracks within  $\Delta\phi = \pm 90^\circ$  ('1-prong'),
- (4) the 3-prong mass consistent with  $\tau$  decay,
- (5) cut (7) of 2-prongs with appropriate modifications to reject  $\gamma\gamma$  events (in particular  $\gamma\gamma \rightarrow \pi\pi$ ; to clear examples of such events have been observed).

20% of all 4-prongs passed these criteria.

After these cuts we find 73 2-prong events and 78 4-prong events. The remaining background (3 2-prong and 9 4-prong events), due to  $\gamma\gamma$  processes and multihadron events, was estimated by Monte Carlo simulations of these processes.

The efficiency of triggering and event selection, as well as the radiative corrections were determined from a Monte Carlo simulation which includes radiation in the initial state and  $\tau$  production and decay into the various channels in the detector. We have checked [423] that the relative ratios of various subchannels with identified particles like  $e$ ,  $\mu$ ,  $\pi$ ,  $\rho$ , and the 2- and 4-prong ratio are consistent with the  $\tau$  decay branching ratios [416].

## 5. The heavy lepton $\tau$

### 5.1. Introduction

It has been a long standing puzzle 'why' the muon existed as a second charged lepton without any apparent difference to the electron except for the mass and the lepton quantum number. The discovery of the  $\tau$  particle by Perl and his collaborators in the SLAC-LBL collaboration [501, 502a] established the existence of a further charged lepton. The most interesting question concerning the nature of this new particle, and of the leptons in general was: is the  $\tau$  related to the leptons  $e$  and  $\mu$  in the same way as these two are related among each other, i.e. are their weak and electromagnetic interactions

identical, and is the  $\tau$  separated only by a new, third lepton quantum number ( $e$ - $\mu$ - $\tau$  universality)? Such a sequential heavy lepton would also have its own neutrino,  $\nu_\tau$ , to make up for a weak isodoublet. Furthermore, the  $\tau$  gave rise to speculations on the existence of a third generation of quarks beyond the known (d, u) and (s, c) doublets, since there are good reasons to believe that there are equal numbers of quarks and leptons [503]. The experimental verification of this speculation is described in section 7.

As an implication of the sequential nature of the  $\tau$  lepton its decay fractions are essentially determined by the universal weak current, depending mainly on its mass and open channels, and were largely predicted [504] as shown in table 5.1. The most characteristic final state from the decay of a  $\tau$  pair event was due to its leptonic decay modes  $\tau \rightarrow \nu e \nu$ ,  $\nu \mu \nu$ ,<sup>†</sup> leading to final states containing a muon and an electron as the only observable particles:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 e^+e^- \rightarrow \tau^+ + \tau^- \\
 \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \\
 e^+ \nu_e \bar{\nu}_\tau + \mu^- \bar{\nu}_\mu \nu_\tau \\
 \text{or } \mu^+ \nu_\mu \bar{\nu}_\tau + e^- \bar{\nu}_e \nu_\tau.
 \end{array} \tag{5.1}$$

In fact, first evidence for the  $\tau$  particle was already obtained in 1975 [502a] by the observation of so called ' $\mu e$  events', and was supported by the 'anomalous muons' observed by the MPP collaboration [502b]. One year later improved statistics and the detailed kinematic properties of the  $\mu e$  events were sufficient to claim the discovery of a new heavy lepton [501].

To put the contribution of the PLUTO experiment to the confirmation of this discovery, and to the further verification of the  $\tau$  particle as a sequential lepton, into perspectives we briefly review the experimental evidence for the  $\tau$  as of the end of 1976.

The heavy lepton interpretation of the  $\mu e$  events was mainly based on the following two facts: (i) the momentum distribution of the  $\mu$  and  $e$  tracks agreed with a 3-body weak decay of the parent particle [504], which was produced in pairs (with a point-like QED cross section), and disagreed with a 2-body decay; and (ii) no other particles were observed even though (at least) 4 particles were missing per event. This pointed towards neutrinos as the 4 missing particles. Statement (ii) was important to exclude the hypothesis of charm production where only 2 neutrinos were expected per event. But it was not absolutely strict because of background problems. They came from a rather high hadron-lepton misidentification probability ( $P_{h \rightarrow \mu}$  and  $P_{h \rightarrow e}$  up to 20%) and from a gap of 36% of  $4\pi$  in the solid angle

Table 5.1  
Predictions for  $\tau$  decays, with  $\tan^2 \theta_c = 0.05$  and  $M_\tau = 1.784$  GeV

	$\Gamma/\Gamma(e\nu\nu)$	$B[\%]$	Input
$\nu e \nu$	1	16.1	
$\nu \mu \nu$	0.98	15.8	
$\nu \pi$	0.58	9.4	$\Gamma(\pi \rightarrow \nu \mu)$
$\nu K$	0.025	0.4	$\Gamma(\pi \rightarrow \nu \mu) + \text{Cabbibo angle } \theta_c$
$\nu p^-$	1.54	24.8	CVC
$\nu K^{*-}$	0.10	1.6	CVC + Cabbibo angle $\theta_c$
$\nu A_1(1100)$	0.58	9.4	Weinberg sum rules
$\nu$ continuum ( $M > 1.1$ GeV)	$\sim 1.4$	23	$\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons})$

<sup>†</sup> For brevity the lepton-antilepton notations and the neutrino flavour indices are omitted in most places.

coverage for charged particle and photon detection. As a result up to 39% of the  $\mu e$  events in the subtracted sample could still contain additional undetected photons or charged particles, at a confidence level of 90%. Such kind of events would rather hint towards charm production as the source of the  $\mu e$  events.

It was therefore very urgent to confirm this important discovery and to remove possible doubts by an independent experiment. Data taken by the PLUTO collaboration at DORIS were qualitatively complementary in their nature because of different features of the PLUTO detector, like

(1) the hadron absorbing iron was thicker (68 cm) leading to

$$P_{h \rightarrow \mu} = 2.8 \pm 0.7\%$$

$$\text{for } p(\mu) \geq 1.0 \text{ GeV}/c,$$

(2) the electron identification method was different, leading to

$$P_{h \rightarrow e} = 3.5 \pm 0.7\%$$

$$\text{for } p(e) \geq 0.3 \text{ GeV}/c,$$

(3) the solid angle not covered for charged particle and photon detection was 13% of  $4\pi$ , only. The photon detection efficiency was 80% for  $|\cos \theta| < 0.55$ , and dropped to  $\approx 50\%$  at  $|\cos \theta| = 0.87$ .

Therefore background problems were considerably smaller. This made it possible to arrive at conclusive results even with a much smaller – but cleaner – sample of events [505, 507]. Thus the PLUTO experiment at DORIS could make important contributions to the confirmation of the  $\tau$  discovery and to the measurement of its properties. Here in particular measurements of the leptonic decay modes, and of the semihadronic decays induced by the axial weak current, i.e. the decays  $\tau \rightarrow \nu\pi$  and  $\tau \rightarrow \nu\rho\pi$  were significant steps in verifying the sequential character of the  $\tau$  lepton. The point-like nature was then established by the PETRA experiments. The various results concerning the  $\tau$  lepton are presented in sections 5.2–5.4. In section 5.5 we report the search for leptons heavier than the  $\tau$ , at the PETRA storage ring.

## 5.2. Evidence for heavy lepton production

### 5.2.1. Search for heavy lepton events

In data taken in 1976 at CMS energies of  $3.6 \leq W \leq 5.0 \text{ GeV}$  the PLUTO collaboration started searching for heavy lepton production by looking for events with a muon. For this purpose, all events with a muon candidate track ( $p > 1.0 \text{ GeV}/c$ ,  $|\cos \theta| \leq 0.752$ ) and at least one further track with  $p > 0.2 \text{ GeV}/c$ ,  $|\cos \theta| < 0.87$  were examined. First the events were required to pass kinematic cuts which removed contributions from several background sources for muons:

event type	cut	background source
2-prongs	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \Delta\phi > 10^\circ \\ \text{missing mass } M^2 > 0.11 \text{ s} \end{array} \right.$	cosmics, $ee \rightarrow \mu\mu$
multi-prongs		$ee \rightarrow \mu\mu\gamma$ (see fig. 3.6)
	$M(\mu + 1 \text{ track}) \neq M(J/\psi)$	$ee \rightarrow J/\psi + X$ $\quad \quad \quad \downarrow$ $\quad \quad \quad \mu\mu$

Table 5.2  
Events found in the  $\mu$ -search, and the expected background contributions

Channel	Events	Background
(5.1) $\mu^+ + e^+ + \text{'nothing'}$	22	1.9
(5.2) $\mu + 1 \text{ prong} + \text{any neutrals}$	273	52
(5.3) $\mu + \geq 2 \text{ prong} + \text{any neutrals}$	317	207

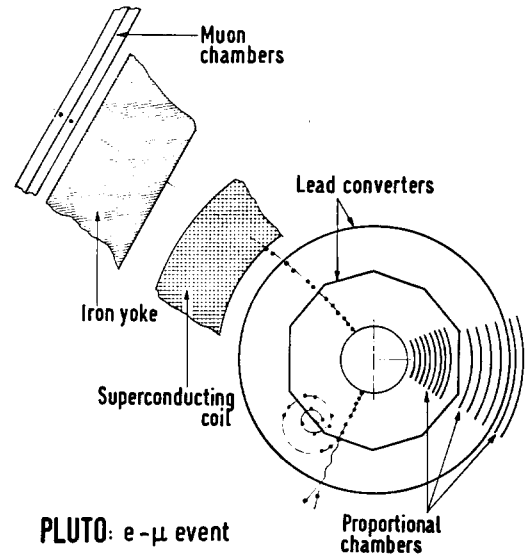


Fig. 5.1.  $\mu e$  event in the PLUTO detector.

Muon events were observed in the channels listed in table 5.2. Channel (5.2) includes the events of (5.1). Fig. 5.1 shows a  $\mu e$  event in the PLUTO detector. The background comes from (i) hadron-lepton misidentification, in all three reactions, (ii) from  $ee \rightarrow \mu\mu\gamma\gamma$  in reaction (5.2), (iii) from  $ee \rightarrow ee\mu\mu$  in reactions (5.1) and (5.3). The 'hadron' background (i) has been determined experimentally from corresponding hadronic events using the hadron-lepton misidentification probabilities [507]. The higher

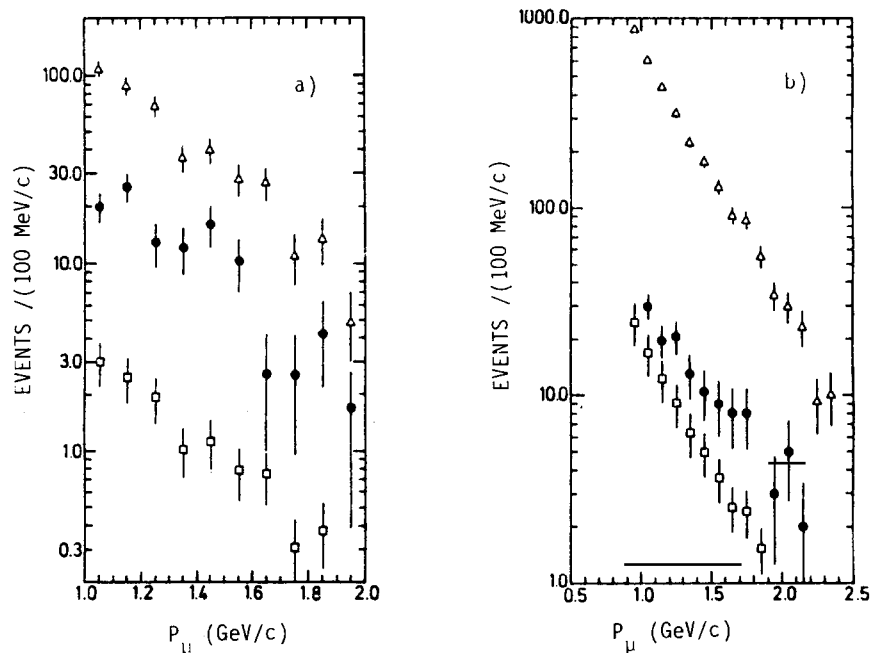


Fig. 5.2. Momentum distribution of muons (dots), hadrons (triangles) and the hadron punch through (squares) at  $W = 5 \text{ GeV}$ ; (a) from 2-prong and (b) from multiprong events.

order QED background (ii and iii) has been calculated [508]. The QED background is smaller, typically less than half the 'hadron' background.

In fig. 5.2 we show the observed inclusive  $\mu$  momentum distribution at  $W = 5$  GeV, for the 2-prong and the multiprong events, together with the expected background from hadron-muon misidentification. This figure shows that the (expected) background is substantially smaller than the observed numbers, typically 15%. Out of the 22  $\mu e$  events in reaction (5.1) only  $1.9 \pm 0.5$  are expected to be background due to hadron lepton misidentification.

Fig. 5.3 shows the differential cross section  $d\sigma/dp_\mu$  after all background subtractions and acceptance corrections. The curves will be discussed in section 5.2.3. In fig. 5.4 the electron momentum distribution of the  $\mu e$  events from all CMS energies is shown. The corrected total cross section, at  $p_\mu > 1.0$  GeV/c, is shown in fig. 5.5 for reactions (5.1–5.3). All 3 channels show a threshold behavior consistent with the pair production of a heavy spin 1/2 particle.

### 5.2.2. $\mu e$ events from charm?

Can the  $\mu e$  events be explained 'conventionally' by charmed meson production and decay? Real ' $\mu e + \text{nothing}$ ' events may come from  $D^+D^- \rightarrow \mu^+(e^+)\nu + e^-(\mu^-)\bar{\nu}$ . This decay mode can safely be ruled out from the numbers in table 5.2. As in the leptonic decays of  $\pi^\pm$  and  $K^\pm$ , the  $D \rightarrow e\nu$  decay is severely suppressed relative to the  $D \rightarrow \mu\nu$  decay, leading to  $B(e\nu) = 2 \times 10^{-5} \cdot B(\mu\nu)$ . Therefore we would expect many more ' $\mu\mu + \text{nothing}$ ' events which would contribute to channel (5.2). The 273 events observed in channel (5.2) imply a conservative upper limit of 0.01 real ' $\mu e + \text{nothing}$ ' events from charm.

Apparent ' $\mu e + \text{nothing}$ ' events can come as contamination from charm events where the electron

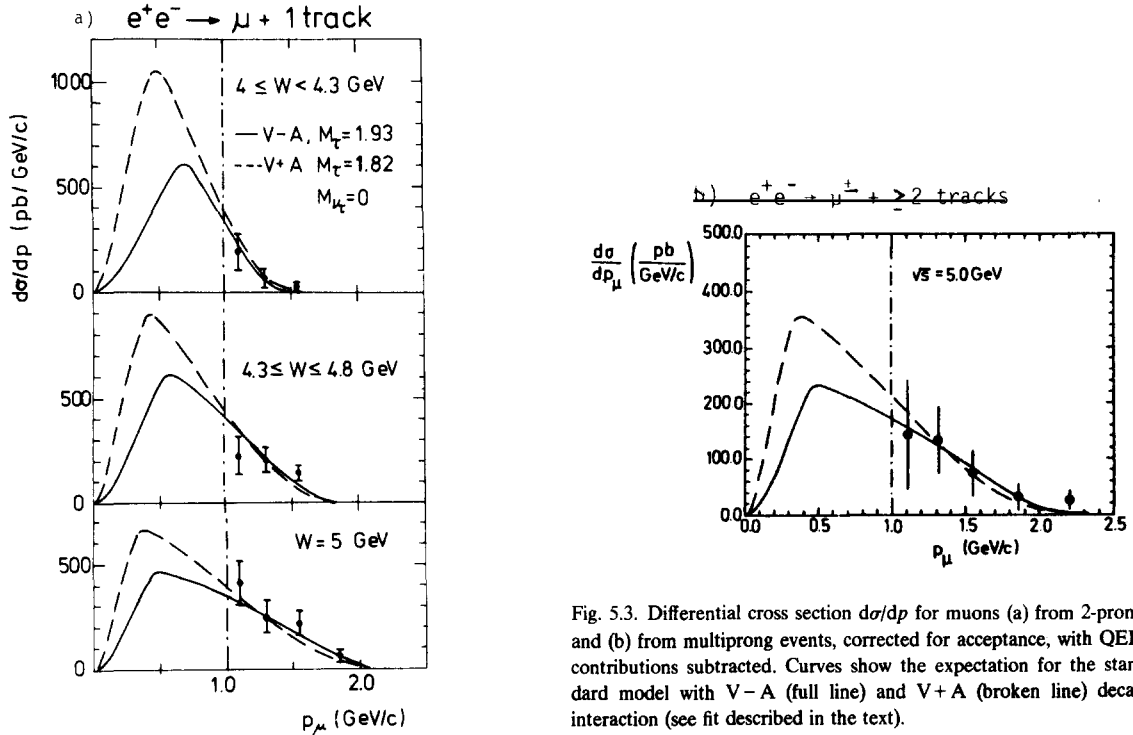


Fig. 5.3. Differential cross section  $d\sigma/dp$  for muons (a) from 2-prong and (b) from multiprong events, corrected for acceptance, with QED contributions subtracted. Curves show the expectation for the standard model with V-A (full line) and V+A (broken line) decay interaction (see fit described in the text).



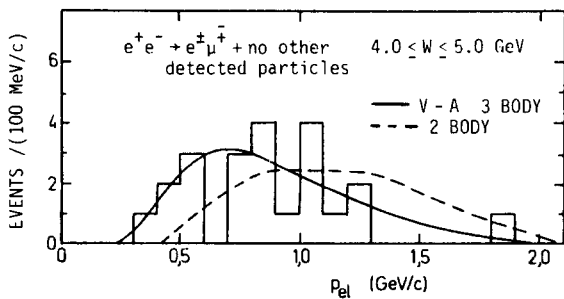


Fig. 5.4. Momentum distribution of electrons from  $\mu e$  events. Curves show the expectation for a V-A 3-body decay (full line) and for a 2-body decay (broken line) of a 1.9 GeV particle, including detection efficiency.

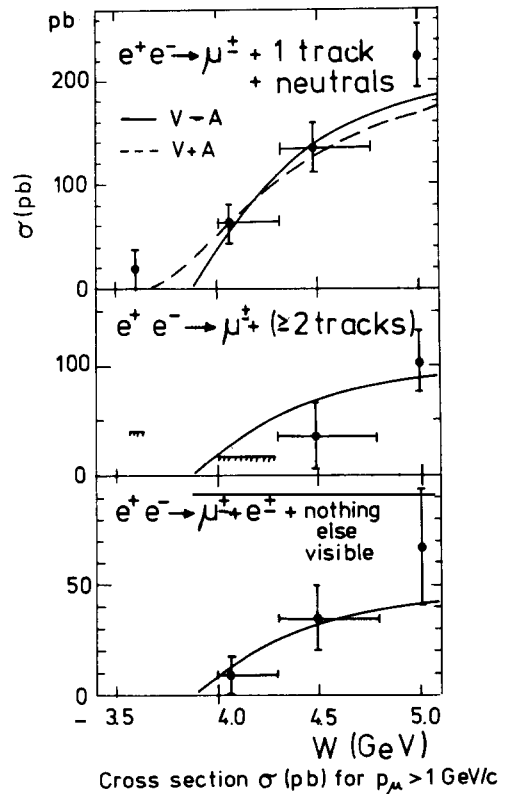


Fig. 5.5. Cross section for production of muons with momenta  $p > 1$  GeV/c, at various CMS energies, in (a) 2-prong events, (b) multiprong events and (c)  $\mu e$  events. Cross sections are corrected for acceptance and particle identification efficiencies. QED expectations are subtracted. Curves are from the fit described in text.

and the muon $^\dagger$  originate from semileptonic decays. These events have additional photons or charged tracks.  $2 \pm 3$   $\mu e$  events of this type were found. They can be used to determine an upper limit on the amount of charm  $\mu e$  events where the additional photons or charged particles escaped detection. The result depends on the number of additional particles involved. The most conservative limit is achieved for the charm channel with the smallest number of additional observable particles. Assuming the 'elastic' production reaction  $e^+e^- \rightarrow D^+D^-$  with the decay  $D \rightarrow e(\mu)K^0\nu$  we expect to observe less than 2 ' $\mu e$  + nothing' events as partners of the observed ' $\mu e$  + something' events, at 95% c.l.

Therefore charm production was clearly ruled out to explain the 20.1  $\mu e$  events. This was the cleanest evidence at that time that a new phenomenon different from charm production was observed in the  $\mu e$  events. Later, the observation of  $\tau$  production below charm threshold [510, 512] confirmed this result in a particularly obvious way.

### 5.2.3. Results on heavy lepton parameters

The data obtained in the analysis of reactions (5.1–5.3) can consistently be described in terms of the production and decay of a pair of sequential heavy leptons. For determining branching ratios the  $\tau$

$^\dagger$  The leptonic width  $\Gamma(D \rightarrow \mu\nu)$  is much smaller than the semileptonic width, by almost 2 orders in magnitude, for D-masses of  $\sim 1.8$  GeV [509].

production cross section and acceptance corrections were calculated with the following assumptions:  $\tau$  pairs are produced like point-like spin 1/2 particles, and they decay leptonically ( $\tau \rightarrow \nu_\tau \ell \bar{\nu}_\ell$ ) by the standard V - A (or V + A) weak interaction, with a massless  $\tau$  neutrino  $\nu_\tau$ . The following results were found [505, 506, 507] by a fit (see curves in figs. 5.2–5.5):

$$\begin{array}{cc} \text{V - A} & \text{V + A} \\ M_\tau = 1.93 \pm 0.05 & 1.82 \pm 0.08 \text{ GeV} \end{array} \quad (5.4a)$$

$$B(\tau \rightarrow 1 \text{ prong}) = 70 \pm 10\% \quad (5.5a)$$

$$B(\tau \rightarrow \text{multiprong}) = 30 \pm 10\% \quad (5.5b)$$

$$B_\mu(\tau \rightarrow \mu \nu \nu) = 15 \pm 3\% \quad 19 \pm 4\% \quad (5.6)$$

$$B_e(\tau \rightarrow e \nu \nu) = 15 \pm 5\% \quad 12 \pm 5\% \quad (5.7)$$

$$\chi^2/\text{ND} = 7.5/8 \quad 11.7/8.$$

All branching ratios agree well with the predictions for a sequential heavy lepton of this mass range [504] as listed in table 5.1. In particular the values of  $B(\mu \nu \nu)$  and  $B(e \nu \nu)$  were a further confirmation of the sequential lepton hypothesis which predicts both to be equal, in contrast to the paralepton picture [511], where the  $\tau^+$  has the lepton quantum number of  $e^-(\mu^-)$  and requires no  $\tau$  neutrino. Here the decay  $\tau^- \rightarrow \nu \nu e^-(\mu^-)$  is larger by a factor of 2 relative to the other modes. Also the possibility of a  $\tau$  neutrino with neutron mass ('baryonic'  $\tau$ ) is inconsistent with the data. A V - A weak interaction is favoured, but a V + A type is not excluded.

The  $\tau$  mass (5.4a) was determined from the threshold behaviour of the  $\tau$  pair production cross section (fig. 5.5). Unfortunately the acceptance for  $\tau$  events drops to zero for the muon channels (5.1–5.3) at  $W \approx 4 \text{ GeV}$ , i.e. above the threshold energy, because of the momentum cut of  $p \geq 1.0 \text{ GeV}/c$  for muon identification. By using identified electrons [512, 513] as a handle to select  $\tau$  events also the data at  $W = 3.6 \text{ GeV}$  could be used to search for  $\tau$  events. In a later analysis [512] 6  $\tau\bar{\tau}$  events were found at  $W = 3.6 \text{ GeV}$ . Fig. 5.6 shows the cross section for 2-prong events without photons. A

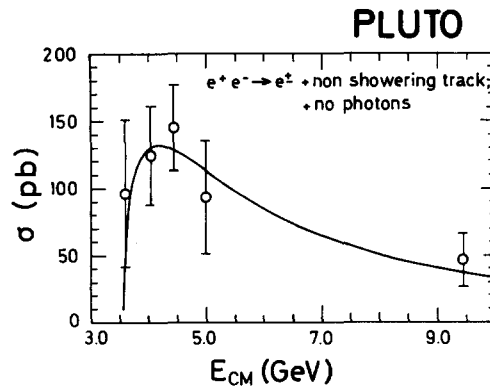


Fig. 5.6. Cross section for 2-prong events with one electron and no photons, at various energies, corrected for acceptance and efficiency. The curve shows  $\sigma_{\tau\tau} \cdot B(e\nu\nu)$ .  $B(1 \text{ prong (not electron), no photons}) = \sigma_{\tau\tau} \cdot 0.039$  (see text), for  $M_\tau = 1.782 \text{ GeV}$ .

determination of the  $\tau$  mass from this data yields

$$M_\tau = 1.75 \pm 0.05 \text{ GeV} \quad (5.4b)$$

in good agreement with the present world average of  $M_\tau = 1.784 \pm 0.004 \text{ GeV}$  [514]. From data taken after installation of the shower counters the branching ratio for a subchannel of eq. (5.5a) could be determined (using  $B(\tau \rightarrow \nu e \nu) = 17.5\%$ ):

$$B(\tau \rightarrow 1 \text{ prong (not electron) + no photons}) = 22.3 \pm 4.3\% \quad (5.8)$$

which agrees with the predictions [504] for the combined branching ratios of the  $\tau \rightarrow \nu \pi$  and  $\tau \rightarrow \nu \mu \nu$  decay modes, as given in table 5.1. The latter decay fraction was also determined from the PETRA data [528, 529] to

$$B(\tau \rightarrow \mu \nu \nu) = 17.8 \pm 2.0 \text{ (stat.)} \pm 1.8 \text{ (syst.)} . \quad (5.6b)$$

### 5.3. The hadronic decay modes of the $\tau$

The sequential lepton hypothesis implies several (semi-) hadronic decay modes for the  $\tau$  particle. The decay  $\tau^- \rightarrow \pi^- \nu_\tau$  is an inversion of the decay  $\pi^- \rightarrow \mu^- \nu_\mu$ , and can be predicted without further assumptions. Using the CVC hypothesis the decay  $\tau^- \rightarrow \nu \rho^-$  can be calculated, and with Weinberg sum rules the decay mode  $\tau^- \rightarrow \nu A_1^-$  was evaluated. The predicted branching ratios as evaluated for a  $\tau$  mass of  $m = 1.784 \text{ GeV}$  [514] are listed in table 5.1. Also the widths relative to  $\Gamma(e \nu \nu)$  are included since these ratios are not affected by changes in other decay channels.

The Cabbibo allowed semi-hadronic decay modes are sizeable and have, apart from the ‘‘continuum mode’’, clear final state signatures. The first specific hadronic decay mode identified at all was the  $\tau \rightarrow \nu \rho \pi$  decay as reported by the PLUTO collaboration [515] in 1977. The ‘crucial’ decay  $\tau \rightarrow \nu \pi$  was found in 1978 [516, 517].

#### 5.3.1. The decay $\tau \rightarrow \nu \pi$

The width of this decay mode is uniquely given by the width of the  $\pi \rightarrow \mu \nu$  decay [504]:

$$\Gamma(\tau \rightarrow \nu \pi) = \Gamma(\pi \rightarrow \mu \nu) \cdot \frac{M_\tau^3}{2M_\pi M_\mu^2} \left(1 - \frac{M_\pi^2}{M_\tau^2}\right)^2 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{M_\mu^2}{M_\pi^2}\right)^{-2} . \quad (5.9)$$

The first preliminary result on a search for this decay was communicated by the DASP collaboration in summer 1977 [518] and indicated a substantial suppression of this decay mode. It was not before summer 1978 that this decay could be established and quantitatively measured. The measurement was first published by the PLUTO collaboration [516], and briefly later by the DELCO [517] collaboration.

5.3.1.1. *Event selection.* The  $\tau \rightarrow \nu \pi$  decay was looked for in events of the type

$$e^+e^- \rightarrow \tau \tau \begin{cases} \rightarrow \nu + \pi \\ \rightarrow \nu + (\nu e, \nu \mu, \pi) . \end{cases} \quad (5.10)$$

For this purpose we selected 2-prong events with no converted photons, a large missing mass, and one track being a hadron candidate. A track was a hadron candidate if it was in the acceptance for electron and muon identification. It was accepted as hadron if neither the electron nor the muon criteria (see section 3) were met. The inefficiency for electron identification was  $(15 \pm 5)\%$ , and for  $\mu$  identification 2%.

To suppress background from  $ee$ ,  $ee\gamma$ ,  $\mu\mu\gamma$ ,  $\pi^+\pi^-\pi^0$ ,  $\pi^+\pi^-\gamma$  final states, candidate events were required to have a missing mass of  $MM^2 > 0.11 \cdot s$ , an azimuthal angle difference between the two tracks of  $10^\circ < \Delta\phi < 170^\circ$  (acoplanar events), and an opening angle of  $\cos\theta_{12} > -0.70$  (acolinear events).

The hadron candidate sample was split into 3 subsamples:

- (a)  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadron} + \text{charged track} + \text{no photon}$
- (b)  $\quad \quad \rightarrow \text{electron} + \text{charged track} + \text{no photon}$  (5.11)
- (c)  $\quad \quad \rightarrow \text{muon} + \text{charged track} + \text{no photon}$  .

Sample (a) contains the events of the reaction in question (5.10). Samples (b) and (c) were used to measure the background in sample (a) from  $e$ ,  $\mu$  identification inefficiency. Also events of the type

- (d)  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadron} + \text{charged track} + \text{photons}$  (5.11)

were selected to measure the contribution from events with unobserved photons in channel (a). Since sample (d) had sizeable contributions at  $\cos\theta_{12} > 0.3$ , this interval was also removed in all samples. Channels (b, c, d) contaminate sample (a) with  $6.6 \pm 0.7$  events. In addition we expect  $2.3 \pm 0.7$  events from  $\tau \rightarrow \nu\rho$  decays without observed photons. Other contributions to sample (a) from 4-prong events, or from  $\tau \rightarrow \nu(\pi\rho)$  1-prong decays or from  $\tau \rightarrow \nu K$  are negligible.

**5.3.1.2. Evidence for  $\tau \rightarrow \nu\pi$ .** In total 32 events were found in sample (a) after all cuts, and  $8.9 \pm 1.0$  events were expected as background. The 32 events represent an excess of more than 5 s.d. The kinematic properties of the hadrons in sample (a) are consistent with reaction (5.10). The hadron momentum distribution agrees with the expectation for this process, as shown in fig. 5.7 for the 5 GeV

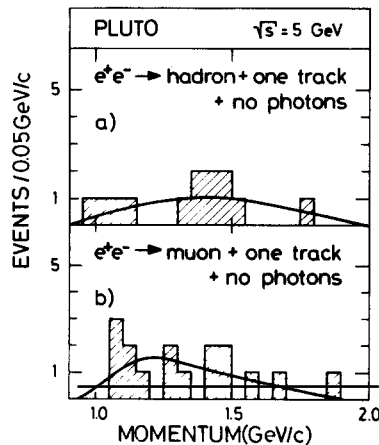


Fig. 5.7. Momentum distribution of hadrons (a) from events of sample (5.11a), the candidates for  $\tau + \pi\nu$  decay and of muons (b) in the control sample (5.11c). The curves show the spectra expected for  $V-A$  coupling.

data. Also, the momentum cut for hadron selection does not accept  $\tau$  pair events produced at  $W = 3.6$  GeV, and no candidate events were found at this energy. The  $\tau \rightarrow \nu\pi$  decay mode has thus been established.

**5.3.1.3. Branching ratio.** The detection efficiency of our event selection for reaction (5.10) has been determined under the assumption of V-A weak decay interaction and  $m_\tau = 1.8$  GeV and  $m_\nu = 0$ . We find an average of the product branching ratio

$$B(\tau \rightarrow \nu\pi) \cdot B(\nu + 1 \text{ prong}) = 0.043 \pm 0.012. \quad (5.12)$$

The 1-prong class contains  $\nu\pi$ ,  $\nu\mu$ ,  $\nu e$  events and a fraction of  $\nu\rho^-(\pi^-\pi^0)$  where the  $\pi^0$  induced no showers. This fraction was determined from simulated events to amount to  $B(\nu e\nu)/3$  giving  $B(\nu + 1 \text{ prong}) = 2.33 B(\nu e\nu) + B(\nu\pi)$ . With this value eq. (5.12) leads to

$$B(\nu\pi) = (9.0 \pm 2.9 \pm 2.5)\% \quad (5.13)$$

in agreement with the value of 9.4% derived from eq. (5.9). The second error is for systematic uncertainties.

### 5.3.2. The decay $\tau \rightarrow \nu\rho^0\pi$

As a further manifestation of the axial weak current the decay  $\tau \rightarrow \nu A_1$  was predicted [504]. The PLUTO experiment indeed observed  $\tau \rightarrow \nu\rho\pi$  decays with the  $\rho\pi$  system having the spin parity quantum numbers and other properties of the  $A_1$  meson.

**5.3.2.1. Event selection.** This decay mode was identified in 4-prong events with a lepton and without converted photons [515, 519]:

$$e^+e^- \rightarrow \tau\tau \begin{cases} \rightarrow \nu e\nu, \nu\mu\nu \\ \rightarrow \nu + 3 \text{ charged pions.} \end{cases} \quad (5.14)$$

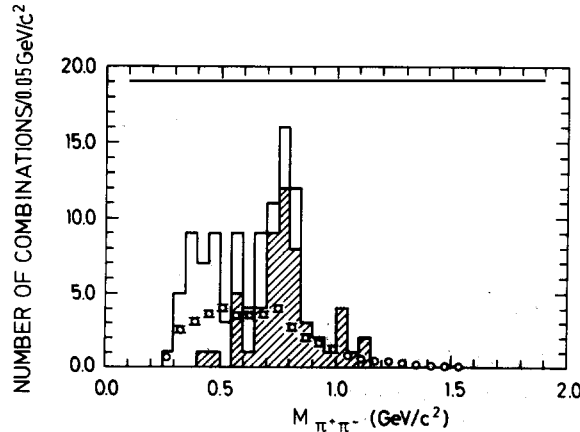


Fig. 5.8. Distribution of the  $\pi^+\pi^-$  masses (2 combinations per event) from the events of reaction (5.14). The shaded region gives the distribution of the higher mass combination. The circles represent the expected background from hadron-lepton misidentification.

54 events were found in which the 3 pion four-momentum was consistent with reaction (5.14), of which 24.5 events were estimated to be background: 18 from hadron-lepton misidentification and 6.5 from events with additional but unconverted photons. The hadron-electron misidentification probability in this analysis [512, 513] was as low as 1.1%, for momenta of  $p > 0.4$  GeV and the electron identification efficiency was near 50%.

The  $\pi^+\pi^-$  mass distribution shows a clear  $\rho$  signal. Fig. 5.8 shows the distribution of both mass combinations possible in each event (open histogram), as well as the distribution of the higher mass combination. The circles indicate the expected background in the open histogram, due to hadron lepton misidentification. Out of 54 events, 40 events had at least one  $\pi^+\pi^-$  mass combination in the  $\rho$  mass range ( $0.68 < M(\pi\pi) < 0.86$  GeV). Only 13 were expected as background. The remaining sample of 'no  $\rho$ ' events did not have more events than expected as background from hadron-lepton misidentification. In summary we found 27  $e(\mu) + \rho\pi$  events after background subtraction of 13 events.

The hypothesis that the  $\rho\pi$  events are due to  $\tau$  pair production has several further kinematic implications, which we have checked:

- (1) The electron momentum distribution (fig. 5.9) is hard and compares well with the expectation for a V-A decay interaction.
- (2) The  $3\pi$  system has a laboratory energy distribution which is consistent with the expected uniformity between the limits (fig. 5.10) for reaction (5.14).
- (3) The invariant  $3\pi$  mass (fig. 5.11) is not correlated with the momentum of the lepton, which comes from the decay of the other  $\tau$  [515].

**5.3.2.2. The branching ratio  $\tau \rightarrow \nu\rho\pi$ .** The observed event numbers with mass combinations inside and outside the  $\rho$  mass band are consistent with 100%  $\tau \rightarrow \nu\rho\pi$  decay mode. Using the QED production cross section for  $\tau$  pairs with a  $\tau$  mass of 1.80 GeV we find the following product branching ratio [519]

$$B(\tau^+ \rightarrow \ell^+ \nu\nu) \cdot B(\tau^- \rightarrow \nu\pi^-\rho^0) = 0.0093 \pm 0.0023. \quad (5.15)$$

There is an additional relative systematic error of 16%. With an averaged leptonic branching ratio of  $B(\tau \rightarrow \ell\nu\nu) = 0.173 \pm 0.013$ , and assuming  $B(\tau \rightarrow \nu\pi^-\rho) = B(\tau \rightarrow \nu\pi^0\rho^-)$  we find

$$B(\tau \rightarrow \nu\pi\rho) = (0.108 \pm 0.026 \pm 0.021). \quad (5.16)$$

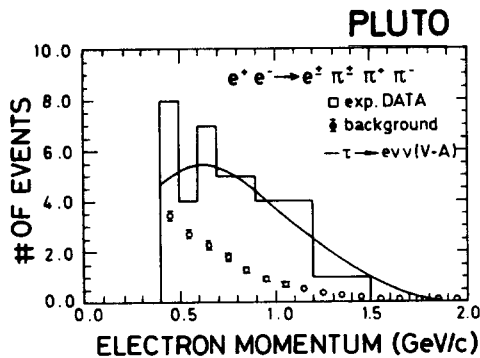


Fig. 5.9. Momentum distribution of electrons from events of reaction (5.14). The curve shows the expectation for a sequential lepton, added to the expected background (circles).

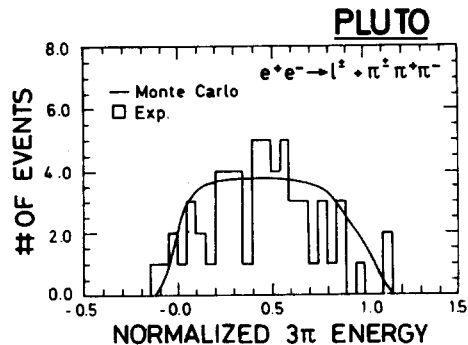


Fig. 5.10. Distribution of the normalized energy,  $E_3 = (E_{3\pi} - E_{\min})/(E_{\max} - E_{\min})$  for events of reaction (5.14). The curve shows the expectation for a sequential lepton, including resolution effects.

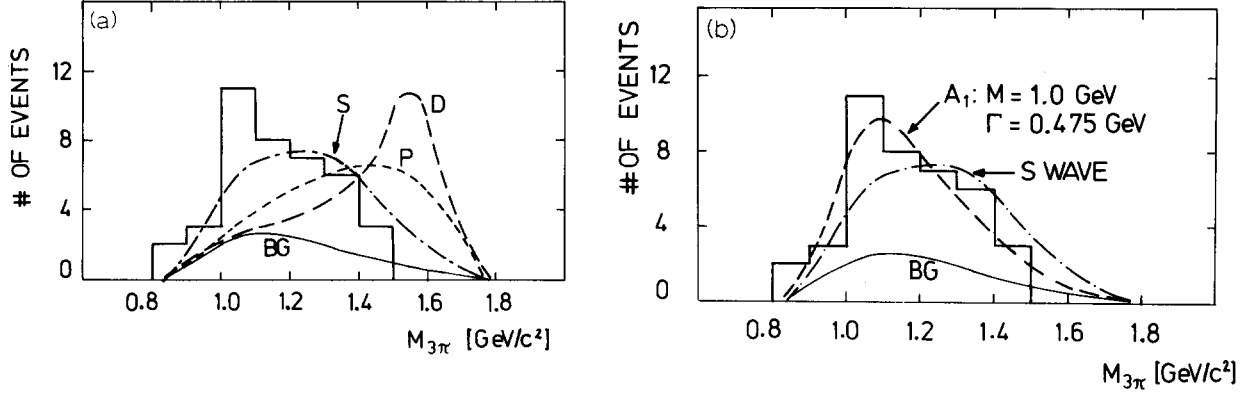


Fig. 5.11. Invariant  $3\pi$  mass distribution from events of reaction (5.14), after  $\rho$ -cut. Curves in (a) show the expectation for different partial waves of the  $\rho\pi$  system, as indicated. Curves in (b) show the effect of an  $A_1$  Breit-Wigner resonance. All curves are added to the expected background and normalized to the data.

The second error accounts for the systematic uncertainties.

The theoretical prediction [504] for the  $\nu A_1$  decay of a sequential heavy lepton, of  $B(\tau \rightarrow \nu A_1) = 0.094$ , is in good agreement with the observed  $\nu\rho\pi$  decay fraction.

We can determine an upper limit for a decay into 3 uncorrelated pions

$$\tau \rightarrow \nu\pi\pi\pi$$

from the fraction of events with no  $\rho$  combination. We find at 95% c.l.

$$\frac{\Gamma(\tau \rightarrow \nu + (3\pi \text{ uncorrelated}))}{\Gamma(\tau \rightarrow \nu + \pi\rho) + \Gamma(\tau \rightarrow \nu + (3\pi \text{ uncorrelated}))} < 0.20. \quad (5.17)$$

This result rules out the hypothesis that the decay  $\tau \rightarrow \nu 3\pi$  may be dominated by a contact term type diagram in the  $\tau$  decay leading to 3 direct pions [520].

**5.3.2.3. Spin parity of the  $\rho\pi$  system.** If the  $\rho\pi$  system emerges from a weak decay it can carry the spin parity quantum numbers  $J^P = 1^+$  (axial current) or  $0^-$  (divergence of the axial current). The quantum numbers  $2^-$  and  $2^+$  do not agree with the sequential nature of the  $\tau$ , since they cannot emerge from a  $V-A$  decay. The state  $1^-$  in  $(\rho\pi)^\pm$  violates Bose statistics in an isospin  $I = 1$  state and is therefore quite generally forbidden [521]. All these quantum numbers can be checked since the expected density distribution in the  $3\pi$  Dalitz plot (fig. 5.12) is different for various  $J^Pl$  assignments ( $l =$  orbital angular momentum of the  $\rho\pi$  system,  $P = (-1)^l$ ). We have determined the probabilities to expect the observed Dalitz plot distribution, for several  $J^Pl$  states, by a likelihood analysis. The likelihood analysis of the Dalitz plot took into consideration the formation of a  $\rho^0$  resonance, and eliminated all influences from the large spread of the  $M(3\pi)$  distribution (see fig. 5.11). This way only the symmetry properties of the different  $J^Pl$  densities [522] were exploited. The background distribution was determined from appropriate background source samples and subtracted from the Dalitz plot. For each  $J^Pl$  assignment we have evaluated the probability that the expected likelihood can be smaller than the measured value [513, 519]. The expected likelihood distributions were determined from event samples simulated for each  $J^Pl$  assignment. The results are given in table 5.3.

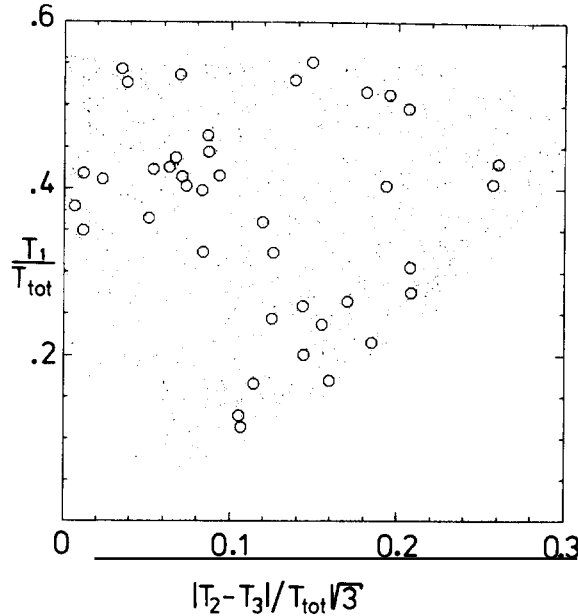


Fig. 5.12. Triangle Dalitz plot  $T_1/T_{\text{tot}}$  vs.  $|T_2 - T_3|/(\sqrt{3} \cdot T_{\text{tot}})$  for events of reaction (5.14) after  $\rho$ -cut (circles), and for simulated events with  $J^{P}l = 1^+1$  (points).  $T_i$  are the kinetic energies of the pions, in the  $3\pi$  rest frame.  $T_{\text{tot}}$  is the total kinetic energy.

In fig. 5.13 we show the projection of the Dalitz plot distribution on the (normalized) distance from the center ( $T_1 = T_2 = T_3$ ), the so called  $\lambda$  distribution [523], with  $\lambda = 0$  at the center and  $\lambda = 1$  at the boundary, for any  $M(3\pi)$ . It is compared to the expectation for the various  $J^{P}l$  assignments, with the background expectation added. Table 5.3 gives the probabilities for agreement [512]. Only the axial current signature,  $J^{P}l = 1^+0$ , and the  $2^-1$  state are consistent with the Dalitz plot.

A further handle on the  $l$  quantum number of the  $\rho\pi$  system is provided by the  $\rho\pi$  mass spectrum. The expected mass spectra for S, P and D waves [522] are shown as curves in fig. 5.11a. The P and D waves show significant deviations. For a P-wave  $\rho\pi$  system ( $J^{P}l = 0^-1$ , or  $1^-1$ ) in the  $\tau$  decay we find an upper limit (95% c.l.) of

$$B(\tau \rightarrow \nu\rho^0\pi, l = 1) < 1.6\% . \quad (5.18)$$

Only the S-wave resembles the experimental distribution.

In conclusion only the  $J^{P}l = 1^+0$  assignment for the  $\rho\pi$  system is consistent with the data.

Table 5.3  
Probability to observe the measured distributions for several  $J^{P}l$  assignments

Probability (%)	$J^{P}l = 0^-1$	$1^+0$	$1^+2$	$1^-1$	$2^-1$	$2^+2$
3-dim Dalitz plot	<0.3	8.9	<0.7	0.6	3.7	<0.3
$\lambda$ -distribution	1.6	16.2	<0.6	1.0	18.0	<0.6



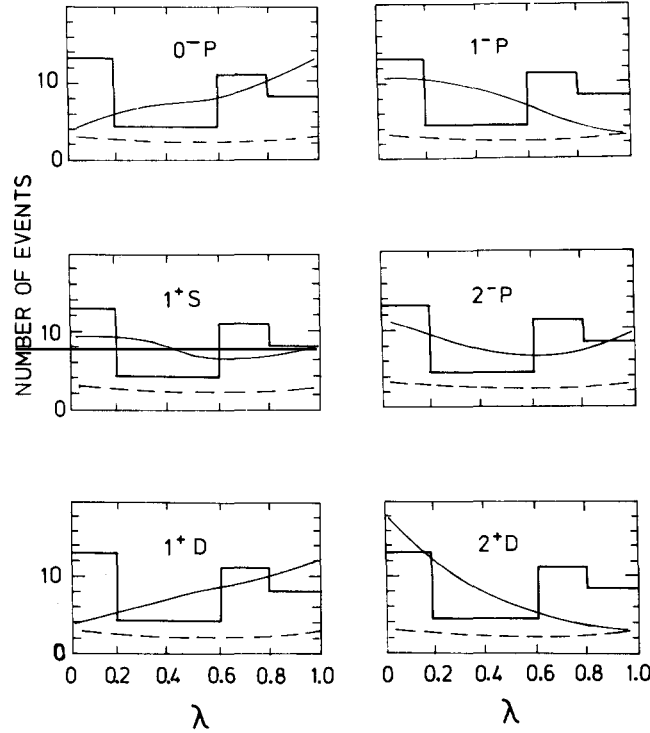


Fig. 5.13. Distribution of the relative distance from the Dalitz plot center

$$\lambda = 1 - (\mathbf{P}_1 \times \mathbf{P}_2)^2 / \left( \frac{3}{4} (M_{3\pi}^2 - m_\pi^2) \right)$$

with  $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$ . Experimental events (histograms), expected background (dashed line), and the distribution of various spin-parity states (solid lines) added to the background.

**5.3.2.4. Is there evidence for  $\tau \rightarrow \nu A_1$ ?** The  $\rho\pi$  mass spectrum (fig. 5.11) is only marginally described by a  $\tau$  decay into a non-resonating  $\rho\pi$  s-wave state ( $\chi^2$  probability = 1%). In particular the peak which is shown by the data at  $M(\rho\pi) \approx 1.1$  GeV is not reproduced. If however a Breit-Wigner resonance is assumed the peak can be well reproduced for parameters like  $0.9 \lesssim M \lesssim 1.2$  GeV and  $0.4 \lesssim \Gamma \lesssim 0.5$  GeV, consistent with the somewhat uncertain  $A_1$  resonance parameters [514]. In fig. 5.11b we show the curve for  $M = 1.0$  GeV and  $\Gamma = 0.475$  GeV, which has a  $\chi^2$  probability of 44%. The  $\rho\pi$  system therefore provides two independent pieces of evidence for an  $A_1$  resonance: the mass spectrum and the spin parity state.

#### 5.4. Some limits on $\tau$ parameters

##### 5.4.1. Limit on the lifetime

Since in  $\tau$  pair production by colliding beams the laboratory momenta of the  $\tau$ 's are known, in each event a finite lifetime  $T$  can be converted into a decay length  $d$

$$d = T \cdot (P_\tau / M_\tau) \cdot c. \quad (5.19)$$

A finite decay length can be directly observed as a deviation of the intersection point of the 3 pions in

$\tau \rightarrow \nu 3\pi$ , from the  $e^+e^-$  beam collision point, or indirectly as a broadening of the origin of single  $\mu$  tracks from  $\tau \rightarrow \mu\nu\nu$  decays, in the  $r$ - $\phi$  plane.

If the  $\tau$  is a sequential lepton its lifetime  $T_\tau^s$  is related to the  $\mu$  lifetime  $T_\mu$  by [504]

$$T_\tau^s = B(\tau \rightarrow \ell\nu\nu) \cdot (M_\mu/M_\tau)^5 \cdot T_\mu \quad (5.20a)$$

which yields  $T_\tau^s = 2.6 \times 10^{-13}$  sec.

In the PLUTO experiment we have  $\langle E_\tau \rangle = 2.25$  GeV and expect an average decay length of 0.07 mm. This is clearly below the resolution. The average minimal distance of single direct tracks from the beam line is  $\sigma(r_{\min}) = 2.8$  mm in the  $r$ - $\phi$  plane, because of beam width, multiple scattering and tracking resolution. From our 2-prong and 4-prong  $\tau$  pair events we have determined [524] an upper limit of the  $\tau$  lifetime of

$$T_\tau < 9 \times 10^{-12} \text{ sec} = 35 \cdot T_\tau^s \quad [95\% \text{ c.l.}] \quad (5.20b)$$

The result excludes models where the  $\tau$  neutrino is heavier than the  $\tau$  and the  $\tau$  decays through mixing of  $\nu_\tau$  with  $\mu$  and  $e$  neutrinos, since from experimental limits on violation of  $\mu$ - $e$  universality, limits on the mixing parameters can be inferred leading to a predicted lifetime of  $T_\tau > 50 T_\tau^s$  [525]. Very recently the first non-trivial measurement of the  $\tau$  lifetime has been reported by the MARK-2 collaboration [533] as  $T_\tau = (4.6 \pm 1.9) \times 10^{-13} \text{ sec} = (1.7 \pm 0.7) T_\tau^s$ .

#### 5.4.2. Limit on the $\tau$ neutrino mass

The best value that can be inferred from the PLUTO data came from the decay mode  $\tau \rightarrow \nu + 3\pi$ :

$$M_\nu^2 = (E_\tau - E_{3\pi})^2 - (P_\tau^2 + P_{3\pi}^2) + 2P_\tau P_{3\pi} \cdot \cos \theta_{\tau,3\pi} \quad (5.21)$$

The only unknown quantity here is the decay angle  $\theta_{\tau,3\pi}$ . Choosing the maximum value  $\cos \theta = 1$  in each event we find [526]

$$M_\nu < 360 \text{ MeV} \quad (5.22)$$

at 95% c.l.

#### 5.4.3. Limit on the $\tau$ charge radius

The energy dependence of the  $\tau$  cross section measured from threshold to  $s = 1000 \text{ GeV}^2$  (see figs. 5.6 and 4.6) excludes spin values of  $j = 0, 1$ , and  $\frac{3}{2}$  [504a], and agrees very well with  $j = \frac{1}{2}$ . Using QED production cross section for spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  pairs (see section 4), and allowing for extended  $\tau$  leptons in the QED formulae, we find from the total  $\tau$  pair cross section at  $W \approx 31 \text{ GeV}$  an upper limit on the  $\tau$  charge radius of

$$\langle r^2 \rangle^{1/2} < 6 \times 10^{-16} \text{ cm} \quad [95\% \text{ c.l.}] \quad (5.23)$$

This limit is of the same magnitude as the present limits for  $\mu$  and  $e$  leptons (see section 4.4).

### 5.5. Search for leptons heavier than the $\tau$

Since the QED cross section for the pair production of point-like spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  heavy leptons L in  $e^+e^-$  annihilation is well known to be

$$\frac{\sigma(L\bar{L})}{\sigma(\mu\bar{\mu})} = R(L\bar{L}) = \sqrt{1 - \frac{M_L^2}{E^2}} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{M_L^2}{2E^2}\right) \quad (5.24)$$

we can perform a clear cut investigation on the existence of a heavy lepton with a mass  $M_L$  heavier than the  $\tau$  mass, up to some mass limit very close to the maximum beam energy.

There are no firm predictions on the existence of a fourth lepton doublet, or on a fourth quark-lepton generation, but there are some speculations on its mass value [527], in the range of  $\sim 10$  to 22 GeV. With the data from PETRA some of these speculations can be ruled out.

Here we describe our search [528, 529] for such a new heavy lepton in the mass range  $M_\tau < M_L < 15$  GeV, assuming decays mediated by the standard weak current. For a mass of  $M_L \sim 14$  GeV we expect [504] branching ratios of 10% for each  $e\bar{\nu}$ ,  $\mu\bar{\nu}$  and  $\tau\bar{\nu}$ , and of 35% for  $\bar{u}d$ , and for  $\bar{c}s$  current transitions.† Appropriate event selection criteria, and their respective efficiencies in the 2 steps of the search described below have been determined from simulated heavy lepton events, with masses of  $M_L = 4, 6, 10, 12, 14$  and 14.5 GeV, at  $W = 30$  GeV. The fragmentation of the quarks was treated according to the prescription of Feynman and Field [530], with an appropriate inclusion of c-quarks. The search was done separately for the ‘low’ mass range ( $M_\tau < M_L < 10$  GeV) and for the ‘high’ mass range ( $10 \text{ GeV} < M_L < E_B$ ) making use of different topological properties. For the search we used the data taken in the energy range of  $30 \leq W \leq 31.6$  GeV.

#### 5.5.1. Search for ‘low’ mass leptons: $M_\tau < M_L < 10$ GeV

The  $\tau$  event selection chain (see section 4B.4) has an acceptance for heavy leptons in this mass range through the multiprong category which is similar in size as for the  $\tau$  itself. Fig. 5.14 shows as a function of  $M_L$  the ratio of expected heavy lepton multiprongs relative to the observed  $\tau$  multiprongs.†† The number of observed  $\tau$  multiprongs,  $(20 \pm 4.8)$ , agrees with the expected QED rate of 21 events. For a heavy lepton with  $m_L \leq 10$  GeV we would expect an excess of events beyond the observed  $\tau$  yield by more than 2 s.d. This excludes the production of a new heavy lepton pair with a mass  $m_L < 10$  GeV at the 95% confidence level, or better.

#### 5.5.2. Search for ‘high’ mass leptons: $10 \text{ GeV} < M_L < E_B$

At these high masses heavy lepton pairs will be accepted by the criteria for multihadron events from  $e^+e^-$  annihilation into quark pairs, if at least one of the two leptons has a hadronic decay mode ( $\sim 90\%$  of all events). Their topology, however, will be different from  $q\bar{q}$  multihadron events in the following respects:

- (i) because of the high mass  $M_L$  the velocity of the new lepton is small, and the thrust  $T$  of these events will be lower;
- (ii) because of missing neutrinos there is a larger momentum imbalance. To account for track’s lost near the beam direction, we consider the missing momentum perpendicular to the beam, normalized to the sum of all measured momenta:  $x_\perp = |\sum \mathbf{p}_\perp| / |\sum \mathbf{p}|$ ;

† For simplification we included the small contributions from currents which mix quark generations, into the  $\bar{u}d$  and  $\bar{c}s$  branching ratio.

†† For  $M_L > M_\tau$ , this ratio even rises beyond 100%, due to the increasing branching ratio into 3-prongs. For high  $M_L$  it decreases due to the competing higher multiplicities which are rejected by the selection criteria.

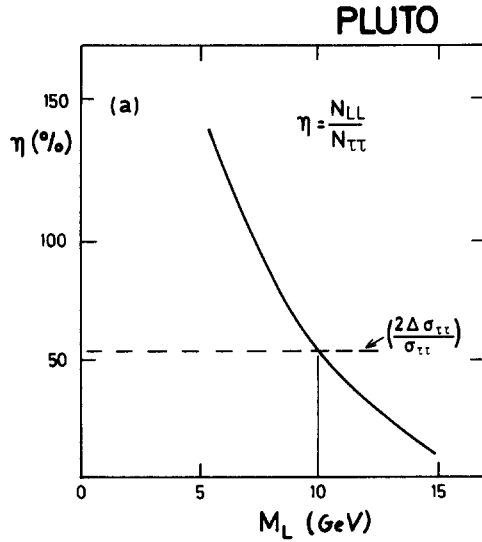
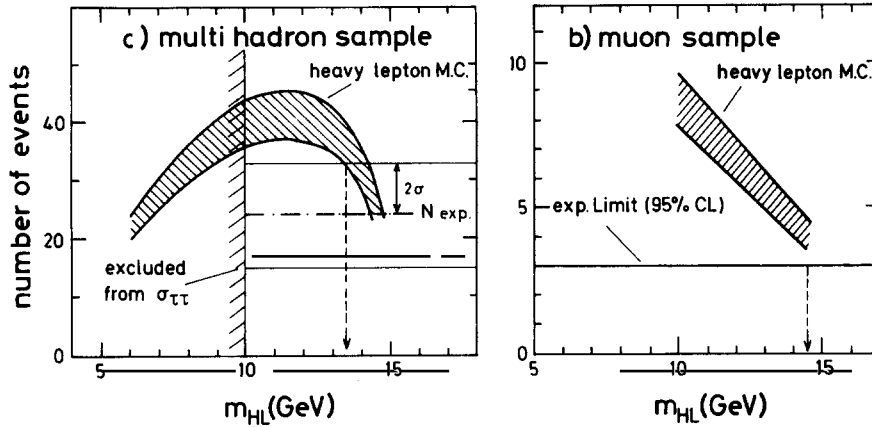


Fig. 5.14. Limits on the mass  $M_L$  of a new sequential heavy lepton  $L$  with standard coupling to leptons and quarks; (a) expected ratio for ('observed') 4-prong events,  $N_{LL}/N_{\tau\tau}$ , as solid curve. The dashed line indicates the 2 standard deviation limit of this ratio from a statistical fluctuation in the  $\tau$  yield,  $2 \cdot \Delta N_{\tau\tau}/N_{\tau\tau}$ , with  $N_{\tau\tau}$  the QED expectation. (b) 95% c.l. upper limit of the number of heavy lepton events with at least one detectable muon (solid line). The shaded band is the expected signal as a function of heavy lepton mass from the Monte Carlo program. The event selection cuts are described in the text. (c) Potential lepton signal with multihadronic decays (dash-dotted line with  $2\sigma$  error limits); the shaded band is the expected signal as a function of heavy lepton mass from the Monte Carlo program. The width of the band indicates the statistical error plus the systematic uncertainty of the Monte Carlo simulation.

### heavy lepton mass limits



(iii) in a subset of  $\sim 20\%$  of  $L\bar{L}$  events we expect a final state of the type

$$(\mu\nu\nu) + (\nu + \text{hadrons}) \quad (5.25)$$

with an isolated high momentum muon;

(iv) in subset (iii) the multiplicity will be lower.

We have searched for  $L\bar{L}$  events by requiring (i)  $T < 0.95$ , (ii)  $x_{\perp} > 0.3$ , (iii) a muon with momentum  $p > 1.4 \text{ GeV}/c$  and no other track nearer than  $20^\circ$ , and (iv) the number of charged tracks in the range  $2 \leq n_{\text{CH}} \leq 12$ .

The discriminating effect of cuts (i) and (ii) is shown in fig. 5.15, where we plot  $x_{\perp}$  vs.  $T$  for simulated heavy lepton and real (multihadron) events. We found no real event passing the criteria (i–iv). The number of heavy lepton events expected to pass these criteria is shown in fig. 5.14b, as a function of  $M_L$ . At  $M_L = 14.5 \text{ GeV}$  we expect  $4 \pm 0.5$  such events. Therefore we can exclude the existence of heavy

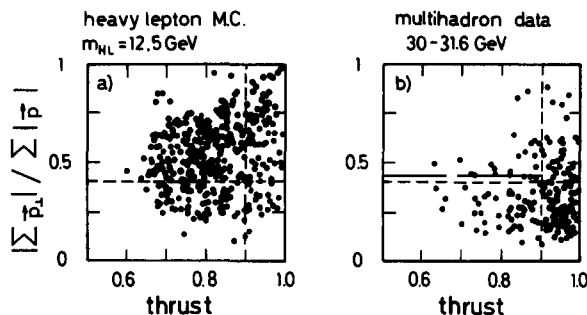


Fig. 5.15. Sum of the normalized transverse momenta vs. the thrust for charged particles from multiparticle final states. (a) Heavy lepton Monte Carlo ( $M_L = 12.5$  GeV); (b) data at  $E_{cm} = 30$ – $31.6$  GeV.  $p_{\perp}$  is measured relative to the beam axis. The events were selected with the excess of positive charged tracks  $< 3$  and the total energy  $> 3$  GeV.

### sequential leptons with masses

$$M_L \leq 14.5 \text{ GeV} \quad (5.26)$$

at a confidence level of 95%.

A similar analysis was performed with a larger sample of events which was selected without asking for a muon, but by stronger cuts on thrust ( $T < 0.90$ ) and missing transverse momentum ( $x_{\perp} > 0.4$ ), excluding all  $M_L < 13.5$  GeV. Therefore, our conclusions change little if the ratio of leptonic to hadronic decay fractions of the heavy lepton  $L$  changes. Similar limits have been found in the other PETRA experiments [531].

### 5.6. Summary on heavy leptons†

- (1) The PLUTO experiment has confirmed the evidence for the new heavy lepton  $\tau$  through the observation of a very clean sample of  $\mu$ -e events, for which an explanation by charm production was definitely ruled out.
- (2) Significant evidence for the sequential nature of the  $\tau$  lepton was provided by
  - (i) measuring both of the leptonic branching ratios, in agreement with the prediction and confirming their equality,
  - (ii) the first observation and measurement of a specific hadronic decay mode,  $\tau \rightarrow \nu \rho^0 \pi$ , the rate and kinematic properties of which agree with the predicted decay  $\tau \rightarrow \nu A_1$ , and finally by
  - (iii) the measurement of the decay mode  $\tau \rightarrow \nu \pi$ , with a coupling strength in agreement with the inverse decay  $\pi \rightarrow \nu \mu$ .

None of the many details of the observed decay modes deviates from the sequential lepton picture.

- (3) The point-like nature of the electric charge of the  $\tau$  lepton was probed to be valid down to  $< 6 \times 10^{-16}$  cm, comparable to the respective limits of  $\mu$  and e leptons.
- (4) There is no further sequential heavy lepton in the mass range  $M_{\tau} < M_L \leq 14.5$  GeV.

† For a complete summary on the present knowledge on the  $\tau$  we refer to recent review papers [532], to the compilations of the particle data group [514], and to [533].

## 6. Hadron production in the continuum

Hadron production in  $e^+e^-$  annihilation is a direct and beautifully simple means of looking for partons, that is for point-like constituents of the hadrons. The existence of such partons reduces hadron production to the creation of parton–antiparton pairs, and their subsequent fragmentation into hadrons [601, 602]. The parton pair creation is, to lowest order in the fine structure constant  $\alpha$ , proportional to the asymptotic muon pair cross section,

$$\sigma_{\mu\mu} = 4\pi\alpha^2\hbar^2c^2/3E_{\text{CM}}^2, \quad (6.1)$$

multiplied with the square of the parton charge,  $e_q^2$ , and a spin factor which at high energies approaches 1 for spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  partons, or  $\frac{1}{4}$  if they have spin zero.

In the limit of these asymptotic spin factors the ratio  $R$  between the total hadronic and the muon cross section is therefore simply given by the number and charges of the partons as:

$$R = \frac{\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons})}{\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-)} = \sum_q e_q^2 + \frac{1}{4} \sum_{q'} e_{q'}^2, \quad (6.2)$$

where the sum extends over all possible kinds  $q$  (flavour, colour) of spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  partons (or  $q'$  in case of spin zero) that contribute to the hadronic final state.

An energy independent ratio  $R$  will thus verify that the partons behave indeed point-like. The value of  $R$  provides a test of their multiplet structure.

The following sections will describe the measurement and interpretation of the total hadronic cross section, some effects of a new parton threshold ('charm'), and deal extensively with hadron jets as a particularly impressive manifestation of the underlying parton dynamics.

### 6.1. The total hadronic cross section

According to the quark-parton model the hadron constituents are fractionally charged spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  quarks occurring in  $n_F$  flavours and 3 (suggested by QCD) colours. The corresponding prediction for  $R$  is given in table 6.1. QCD adds a small (5–10%) correction to the quark-parton model prediction. In the  $\overline{\text{MS}}$  renormalization scheme the correction factor is [603–607]

$$1 + \alpha_s/\pi + (1.98 - 0.115n_F)(\alpha_s/\pi)^2. \quad (6.3)$$

Table 6.1  
 $R$  as predicted by the quark-parton model for different numbers  
 $n_F$  of quark flavours

$n_F$	3	4	5	6
quarks	u, d, s	u, d, s, c	u, d, s, c, b	u, d, s, c, b, t
$R$	2	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{2}{3}$	5

Table 6.2  
 $R_{\text{HAD}}$  after radiative corrections, with statistical errors

$E_{\text{cm}}$ (GeV)	$R$	$\Delta R$	$E_{\text{cm}}$ (GeV)	$R$	$\Delta R$	$E_{\text{cm}}$ (GeV)	$R$	$\Delta R$
3.60	2.29	0.03	4.28	3.21	0.29	7.70	3.92	0.26
3.63	2.07	0.08	4.30	3.15	0.28	9.30	3.45	0.62
3.66	2.13	0.09	4.31	3.34	0.15	9.35	3.82	0.75
4.00	3.38	0.08	4.33	3.66	0.16	9.37	4.68	0.82
4.02	4.52	0.05	4.35	3.35	0.13	9.38	5.04	0.89
4.03	4.54	0.09	4.38	4.19	0.21	9.39	3.88	0.47
4.05	3.88	0.11	4.39	4.43	0.14	9.40	3.16	0.63
4.07	3.42	0.11	4.41	4.10	0.06	9.41	3.58	0.70
4.09	3.83	0.11	4.44	3.97	0.17	9.42	3.93	0.64
4.11	3.50	0.13	4.46	3.54	0.16	9.43	4.05	0.64
4.13	4.40	0.15	4.50	3.72	0.07	9.44	2.92	0.82
4.15	4.19	0.17	4.54	3.90	0.15	12.0	4.29	0.29
4.18	3.57	0.20	4.57	3.66	0.13	13.0	4.10	0.45
4.19	3.22	0.23	4.62	3.55	0.11	17.0	3.60	0.37
4.22	3.12	0.16	4.66	3.91	0.14	22.0	3.47	0.60
4.24	2.92	0.18	4.71	3.73	0.16	27.6	4.07	0.29
4.25	2.32	0.17	4.98	3.85	0.04	30.0–31.6	4.10	0.13

The ‘running’ strong coupling constant  $\alpha_s$  is given by

$$\alpha_s(Q^2) = \frac{4\pi}{\beta_0 \ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2) + (\beta_1/\beta_0) \ln \ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2)}, \quad (6.4)$$

evaluated at  $Q^2 = E_{\text{cm}}^2$  with  $3\beta_0 = 33 - 2n_F$ ,  $3\beta_1 = 306 - 38n_F$ , and the QCD scale constant  $\Lambda$ .<sup>†</sup>

Table 6.2 gives  $R$  as measured by PLUTO<sup>††</sup> between 3.6 and 31.6 GeV [608–615]. The contribution of the heavy lepton  $\tau$  (see section 5) is excluded. Fig. 6.1 displays the data in the low and fig. 6.2 in the high energy range.

We observe a step in  $R$  around 4 GeV, and, after some oscillations, an almost constant level up to the highest energies. The level extends over a range where the reference cross section  $\sigma_{\mu\mu}$  falls by a factor of 50, and thus beautifully demonstrates the point-like nature of the constituents. The quantitative prediction of the quark-parton model is given by the dashed and the QCD corrected one by the solid curves. The agreement is excellent, and argues against different constituents like colourless quarks or integer-charged partons.

For energies above 10 GeV the average  $R$  values of PLUTO and the other PETRA experiments [615–618] all lie above the value  $3\frac{2}{3}$  predicted by the quark-parton model, and are in fact closer to the QCD prediction (solid curve in fig. 6.2). While the estimated systematic errors of typically 10–15% have so far prevented quantitative conclusions, a recent detailed investigation of all uncertainties in acceptance,  $\gamma\gamma$  background, monitoring, and radiative corrections, has reduced the systematic un-

<sup>†</sup>  $\Lambda$  is chosen such as to yield  $\alpha_s(900 \text{ GeV}^2) \approx 0.15$  (6.16), which in first order ( $\beta_1 = 0$ ) gives  $\approx 200 \text{ MeV}$ .

<sup>††</sup> The analysis procedure is described in section 3.8.4. Radiative corrections include the  $\tau$  and quark loops.

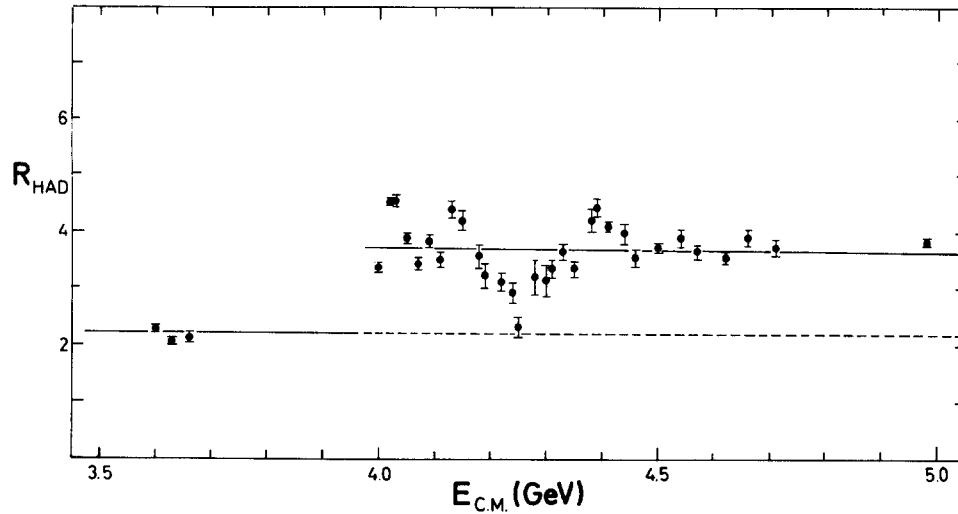


Fig. 6.1.  $R(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons})$  vs. c.m. energy acc. to refs. [608, 609]. Full line: asymptotic prediction of quark model including QCD correction. Dashed line: 3 quarks only.

certainty of PLUTO cross sections below 6%, and thus established a  $2.5\sigma$  deviation from the quark-parton model in the direction predicted by QCD [615].

The contribution of a 6th quark of (top,  $t$ ) charge  $\frac{2}{3}$ , as indicated by the upper lines in fig. 6.2, can safely be excluded. Also the rate of inclusive muons observed [619], and in particular the investigations of the final state topology (see sections 6.3.2, 6.3.3) argue against a new threshold. Between 30.0 and 31.6 GeV the cross section was 'scanned' in small steps of 20 MeV, in order to check for a narrow  $t\bar{t}$  resonance [614]. The data are shown in fig. 6.3. If the  $t\bar{t}$  ground state lies in the scan range, one expects a resonance signal of about 12 units in  $R$  with an rms width of 20 MeV as indicated by the dashed curve. This expectation is based on the energy width of the stored  $e^+$  and  $e^-$  beams (calculated from quantum

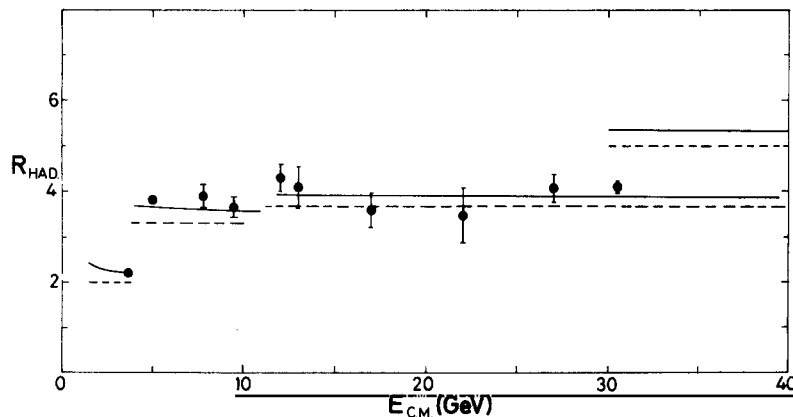


Fig. 6.2.  $R(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons})$  vs. c.m. energy acc. to refs. [610-615]. Dashed and full lines give quark model predictions without and with QCD correction.



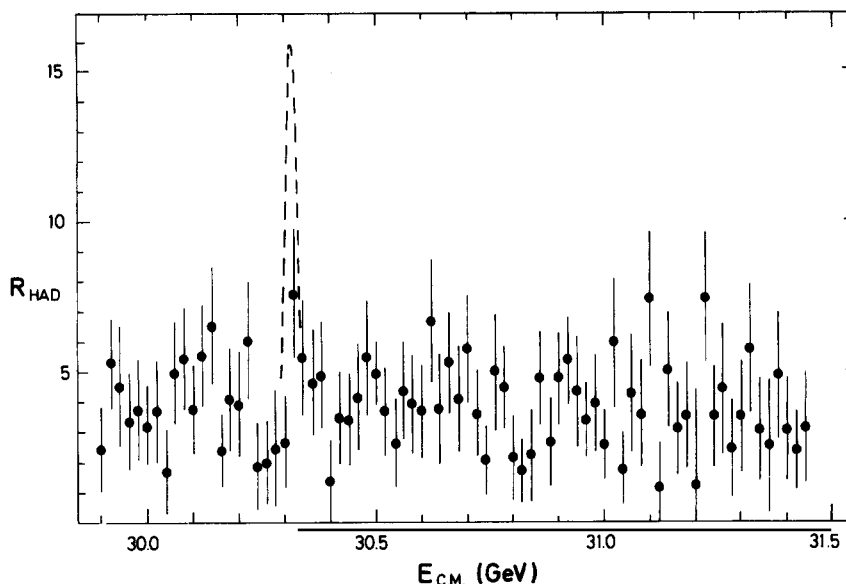


Fig. 6.3.  $R$  ( $e^+e^- \rightarrow$  hadrons) in the scan range 30–31.6 GeV. The dashed line indicates the resonance signal expected for a  $t\bar{t}$  ground state.

fluctuations in the synchrotron radiation, and verified at several resonances and storage rings) and an empirical relation (also suggested by generalized vector dominance [620–624]) which connects the leptonic branching ratios of the vector mesons to the squares of their average quark charges like

$$\Gamma_{ee}(\rho) : \Gamma_{ee}(\omega) : \Gamma_{ee}(\phi) : \Gamma_{ee}(J/\psi) : \Gamma_{ee}(Y) = \frac{1}{2} : \frac{1}{18} : \frac{1}{9} : \frac{4}{9} : \frac{1}{9}. \quad (6.5)$$

This sequence ‘predicts’ for the  $t$  quark of charge  $\frac{2}{3}$ :

$$\Gamma_{ee}(t\bar{t}) \approx 5 \text{ keV}. \quad (6.6)$$

The PLUTO data, on the other hand, result in an upper limit of

$$\Gamma_{ee} < 2.0 \text{ keV at 95\% c.l.}, \quad (6.7)$$

and therefore exclude existence of a  $t\bar{t}$  ground state between 30 and 31.6 GeV.

## 6.2. Charm effects

Figs. 6.1 and 6.2 show a higher level of  $R$  above 4 GeV, as compared to 3.6 GeV (in agreement with the data of other experiments [625–627]). This is quite naturally attributed to the production of ‘open charm’, that is pairs of mesons containing one charmed and one light quark [628–630]. Since the charm quantum number is conserved in strong and electromagnetic interactions the charmed states have to decay via weak interactions. According to the GIM scheme [631] these decays will predominantly lead to strange quarks and therefore to kaons. This enhanced kaon production as well as the possibility of Zweig – forbidden [632–634] charm–anticharm annihilation will be discussed in the following sections.

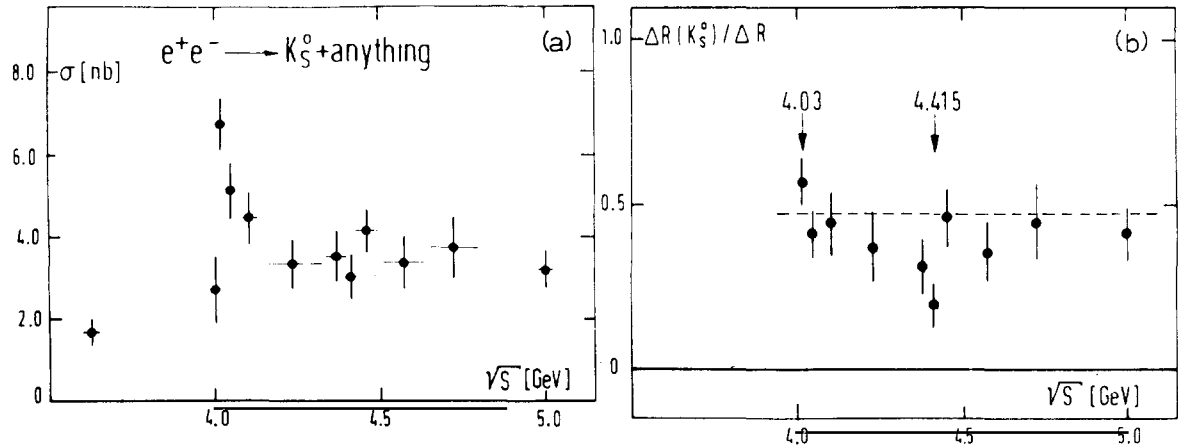


Fig. 6.4. (a) Total  $K_S^0$  production [638] vs. c.m. energy. (b) Ratio of charm induced  $K_S^0$  to charm induced hadron production [638].

### 6.2.1. Inclusive $K^0$ production

The charmed quark  $c$  had originally been postulated in order to explain the absence of the strangeness-changing neutral transition  $s \rightarrow d \rightarrow u$ , which originates from the product of two charged currents, through a destructive interference with the amplitude for  $s \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$  [631]. This scheme uniquely connects the weak coupling of the charmed quark with the Cabbibo angle [635, 636]  $\theta_c$ , such as to produce  $2 \cos^2 \theta_c = 1.9$  kaons for every  $D$  ( $D^*$ ) pair event. One quarter of these will appear as  $K_S^0$  mesons and can be identified in the PLUTO detector.

PLUTO's first evidence for charm was a suggestive but statistically marginal signal of  $K_S^0$  mesons associated with prompt electrons [637], as expected from the simultaneous non- and semileptonic decay of a pair of charmed particles.

More quantitative evidence for charm was subsequently obtained from the cross section for inclusive  $K_S^0$  production [638a] as shown in fig. 6.4a.† Above 4 GeV the cross section is clearly higher than the reference value at 3.6 GeV. If the difference is divided by the corresponding difference of the total hadronic cross section, one obtains the number of 'new' kaons per 'new' event. It is consistent with the expected number, as shown in fig. 6.4b, and demonstrates that the identification of the new quantum number with the GIM-charm is correct. Similar evidence was obtained by [638b, c].

A kinematical check that the kaons are indeed due to the opening of a new threshold is given by their energy spectrum as shown in fig. 6.5, for 3.6 and  $\geq 4.03$  GeV. Since at threshold the charmed mesons are produced at rest, their decay particles will be mostly below half the beam energy. Indeed, all the 'new' kaons are found at  $x_E = E_K/E_B < 0.5$ , while the cross section for higher  $x_E$  appears to scale. A similar behavior is observed [609] in the inclusive momentum spectra of *all* charged particles in fig. 6.6: a threshold effect at low and scaling at high values of  $x_p = p/E_B$ .

### 6.2.2. Inclusive $J/\psi$ production

In order to explain the resonance structure of the cross section between 4 and 4.5 GeV, the production of 'charm molecules', consisting of two charmed and two light quarks, has been proposed [639–641]. Within such molecules, rearrangements should lead to a sizeable branching into a  $c\bar{c}$  state

† The measurements have recently been extended up to 32 GeV [6908].

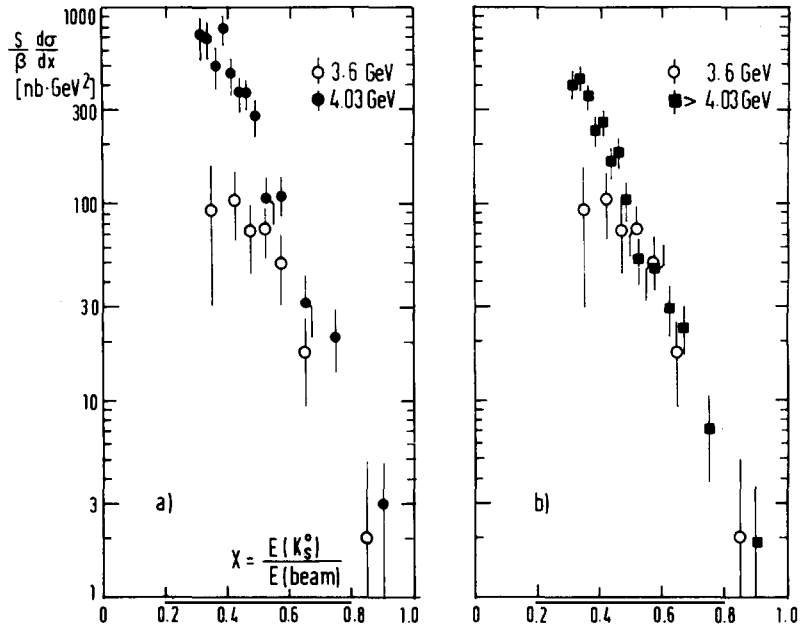


Fig. 6.5. Invariant cross section for  $K_s^0$  production  $(s/\beta) d\sigma/dx$  vs.  $x$  above and below charm threshold.

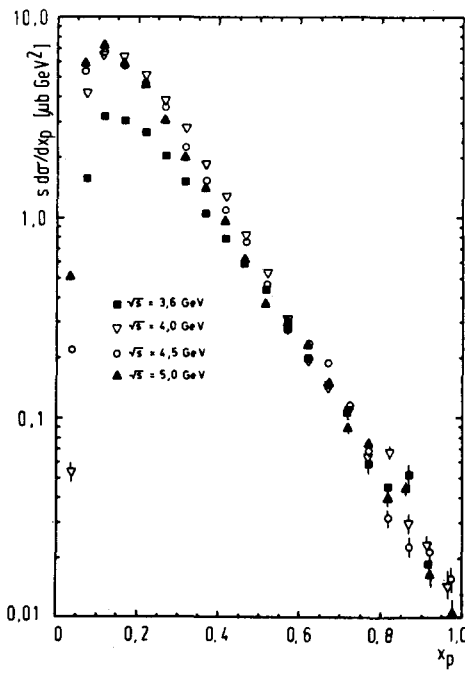


Fig. 6.6. Invariant cross section for hadron production  $s d\sigma/dx$  vs.  $x_p = p/E_{\text{cm}}$  for different c.m. energies.

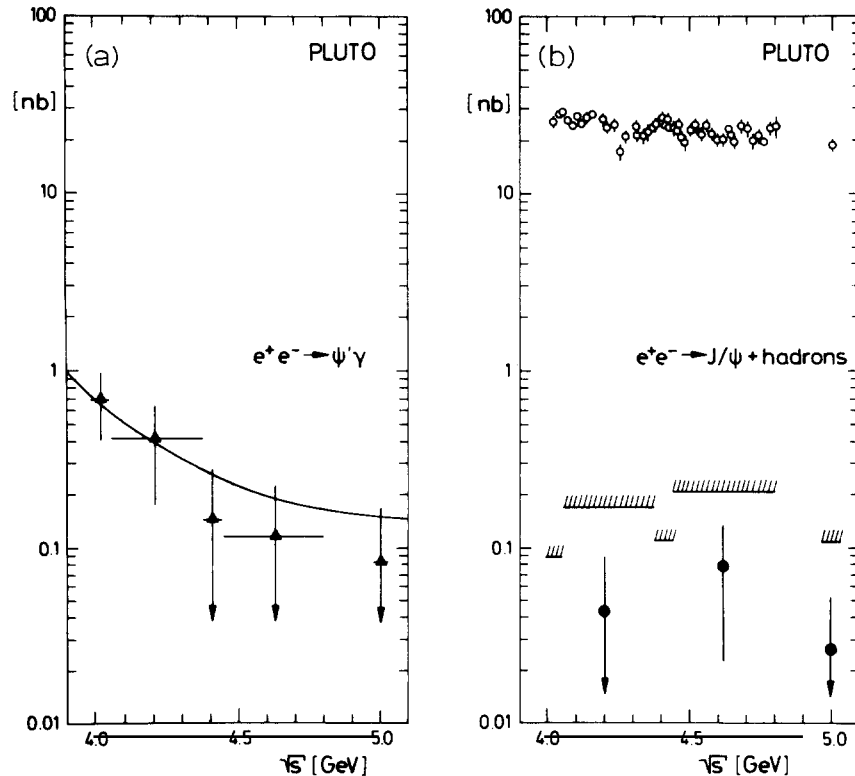


Fig. 6.7. (a) Cross section for radiative  $\psi(3.7)$  production (triangles) together with expectation (full line). (b) Cross section for direct  $J/\psi$  production (full circles) and upper limits (90% c.l.), together with total hadronic cross section (open circles (not corrected for radiation)).

and a light meson. This ‘charm burning’ process would be visible not only in a reduction of the inclusive K yield above, but more distinctly also as a sizeable signal of inclusive  $J/\psi$  mesons.

Inclusive  $J/\psi$  mesons were indeed observed in the PLUTO detector [642]. Most of these events were identified as originating from the decay of the  $\psi'$  (3.7) resonance which was formed after a hard radiation in the initial state. Their cross section, as shown in the left part of fig. 6.7, agrees with the expectation. The remaining ‘direct’  $J/\psi$  production, shown in the right part of the figure, amounts to 0.13% of the total cross section, as expected from small violations of the OZI rule [632–634]. No indication of enhanced production due to charm molecules is observed, in particular no single event at the position of the 4.03 and 4.44 resonances.

### 6.3. Jets

As shown in section 6.1, the quark-parton model successfully describes the total hadronic cross section by reducing hadron production to the electromagnetic creation of quark pairs. These quarks should therefore be considered the ‘elementary’ particles of the reaction. Although not directly observable, they are expected to manifest themselves through a jet of hadrons into which each of them fragments [601, 602], so that the elementary reaction can be investigated by identifying and measuring the hadron jets.

Section 6.3.1 will describe some methods of the jet analysis, section 6.3.2 will deal with the dominant

two-jet final state, and section 6.3.3 will present the evidence for the emission of a third jet which is attributed to the gluon, the field quantum of the strong interactions [603, 604]. Section 6.3.4 deals with descriptions of the jet formation as such in terms of quark-gluon cascades, and with tests of some resulting predictions.

### 6.3.1. Jet analysis

The event analysis should ideally characterize a given system of  $N$  particles by the number of jets it contains, and associate each particle with one of the jets. If the jets are well collimated and separated, this can be achieved by a cluster finding mechanism as described below.

For the general case in which the jets may be wide and even overlap, no general method exists. Instead one defines one or several observables which specify the deviations from a predefined simple topology, like for instance from two very narrow collinear jets. In case of the popular observable, sphericity  $S$ , such a needle-shaped state gives  $S = 0$  (see below). However,  $S > 0$  specifies no unique topology, but may be due to the width or acollinearity of two jets, to additional jets, or to a combination of several effects. Additional observables are then needed for describing such characteristics of the reaction.

'Sphericity'  $S$  [602] and the corresponding 'sphericity axis'  $\hat{n}_3$  are obtained from the momenta  $p_j$  of  $N$  particles by maximizing the quadratic sum of the parallel momenta  $p_{\parallel j} = (p_j, \hat{n}_3)$ , or by minimizing it for the transverse momenta  $p_{\perp j}$ :

$$S = \frac{3}{2} \min \left( \sum_{j=1}^N p_{\perp j}^2 \right) / \left( \sum_{j=1}^N p_j^2 \right) = \frac{3}{2} \left\{ 1 - \max \left( \sum_{j=1}^N p_{\parallel j}^2 \right) / \left( \sum_{j=1}^N p_j^2 \right) \right\}. \quad (6.8)$$

The problem and its solution are equivalent to finding the axes and moments of inertia in a mechanical system:

Diagonalizing the tensor  $T_{LM} = \sum_{j=1}^N p_{Lj} p_{Mj}$  ( $L, M = x, y, z$ ) yields three principal axes  $\hat{n}_K$  ( $K = 1, 2, 3$ ) which give the orientation of the system, together with three normalized eigenvalues  $Q_K$

$$Q_K = \sum_{j=1}^N (p_j \cdot \hat{n}_K)^2 / \sum_{j=1}^N p_j^2 \quad (K = 1, 2, 3) \quad (6.9a)$$

which describe its shape [643, 644]. Distributions of event shapes are commonly given as scatter plots in two linear independent combinations of the  $Q_K$ . If the  $Q_K$  are ordered as

$$Q_1 \leq Q_2 \leq Q_3, \quad (6.9a)$$

$\hat{n}_3$  becomes the sphericity axis, with

$$S = \frac{3}{2}(1 - Q_3). \quad (6.9c)$$

If this formalism is used to describe planar event shapes,  $Q_2$  and  $Q_1$  are measures of the relative transverse momenta "in" and "out of" the plane, and  $Q_2 - Q_1$  or  $Q_1/Q_2$  measures the 'flatness' of the events.

While the sphericity  $S$  and the event shape parameters  $Q_K$  are very convenient measures obtained by a straightforward algorithm, they suffer from a basic shortcoming. The squared momenta used in the

calculation are sensitive to the dissociation of particles in the jet: A  $\pi^0$  measured in shower counters will contribute differently depending on whether the two decay photons are separated or not. Likewise, QCD predictions for sphericity are sensitive to the emission of collinear gluons, and actually diverge [647]. Therefore, several measures have been proposed which depend only on linear sums of momenta, and are therefore insensitive to collinear dissociations. The most popular one is ‘thrust’, defined as [645–647]

$$T = \max \sum_{j=1}^N |p_{\parallel j}| / \sum_{j=1}^N |p_j| \quad (6.10)$$

with the maximizing direction called ‘thrust axis’. The computation of  $T$  is less straightforward than that of  $S$ , because the derivative of  $T$  has discontinuities. Ref. [648] discusses the problems of finding the axis and presents a general solution.

A generalization of thrust to a 3-jet measure is ‘triplicity’  $T_3$  [648]. It is obtained by subdividing the particles of an event in three non-empty classes,  $C_K$ , calculating the total momentum

$$\mathbf{P}_K = \sum_{j \in C_K} \mathbf{p}_j \quad (6.11)$$

for each class and finding that particular partition for which the sum of the three linear momenta is maximal. This defines triplicity as

$$T_3 = \max(|\mathbf{P}_1| + |\mathbf{P}_2| + |\mathbf{P}_3|) / \sum_{j=1}^N |p_j|. \quad (6.12a)$$

One obtains  $T_3 = \sqrt{27/8} \approx 0.65$  for a completely spherical event, and  $T_3 = 1$  for any configuration of three very narrow jets. The jet configuration itself is then specified by two additional variables: either two of the angles  $\theta_K$  between the jet momenta  $\mathbf{P}_K$  (convention:  $\theta_1$  is measured between  $\mathbf{P}_2$  and  $\mathbf{P}_3$ ;  $\theta_1 \leq \theta_2 \leq \theta_3$ ) or two of the normalized jet momenta

$$x_K = 2|\mathbf{P}_K| / \sum_{j=1}^3 |p_j| = \frac{2 \sin \theta_K}{\sum_j \sin \theta_j} \quad (6.12b)$$

with  $x_1 \geq x_2 \geq x_3$ . For the case of real hadron jets with internal transverse momenta one obtains  $T_3 < 1$ , but can hope – and partly verify in Monte Carlo studies – that the measured  $x_K$  and  $\theta_K$  still reproduce the kinematics of the original partons, thus unfolding the fragmentation process. The dynamics of the parton system can then be represented by scatter plots in the  $\theta_K$  or  $x_K$  (Dalitz plot).

Several authors [649–652] have proposed more general measures of the event shape which do not depend on imposing an assumed structure and axis upon the event. Fox and Wolfram [652] suggest spherical moments  $H_i$  defined as

$$H_i = \sum_{i,j} \frac{|\mathbf{p}_i| \cdot |\mathbf{p}_j|}{E_{cm}^2} \cdot P_i(\cos \theta_{ij}) \quad (6.13)$$

where the  $P_i$  are Legendre polynomials, and  $\theta_{ij}$  is the angle between particles  $i$  and  $j$ . Due to the

weighting with the particle momenta the  $H_i$  are insensitive to collinear dissociations of particles. While  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  are constants for a completely measured event,  $H_2$  is sensitive to a collinear two-jet structure.

A related quantity which is important for studying the shape of jets is the two-particle or energy–energy correlation [650–651]. It is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} f(\theta) &= \frac{d\Sigma}{d\theta} = 2 \sum_{ij}^N \frac{d^3\sigma}{dz_i dz_j d\theta_{ij}} z_i z_j dz_i dz_j \Big|_{\theta=\theta_{ij}} \\ &= \left\langle 2 \sum_{ij}^N z_i z_j \delta(\theta - \theta_{ij}) \right\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (6.14)$$

where  $z_i = E_i/E_{\text{cm}}$  and  $z_j$  are the fractional energies of particles  $i$  and  $j$ , and  $\theta_{ij}$  is the angle between them.†  $f(\theta)$  can be considered as the product of the energy flows seen by two spectrometers with fixed spacing  $\theta$ , averaged over all orientations. For a collinear two-jet structure  $f(\theta)$  is large if the spacing  $\theta$  is either small, or close to  $180^\circ$ .††

The correlation again is insensitive to collinear particle dissociations. In the case of two-jet topologies, the correlation may be separated into a ‘same-side’ correlation, where particles  $i$  and  $j$  belong to the same jet, and an ‘opposite-side’ one where they are taken from different jets. In this case the jets have to be artificially separated by a plane perpendicular to the jet axis, which complicates the interpretation of the  $\theta \approx 90^\circ$  region as compared to the full correlation (6.14).

In the jet analysis methods described so far the multi-jet states are largely parameterized as deviations from an assumed ideal geometry, like two or three narrow jets. These parameterizations are insensitive to the nature of the deviations and not very useful for an investigation of general multi-jet topologies.

On the other hand, it is possible to recognize high-energy jets visually just from the clustering of the particle flight directions. Starting from this experience, members of the PLUTO group have recently succeeded in developing, testing and applying a simple effective jet-finding algorithm [653]. In a first step, the particles††† are grouped into ‘preclusters’ in which each particle has at least one neighbour closer than  $\alpha_{\text{max}}$  (typically  $30^\circ$ ), or which consists of a single particle without such neighbour. Energy  $E$  and direction  $\hat{n}$  of a precluster are obtained by summing energies and momenta of the particles.

By the same procedure preclusters are grouped to ‘clusters’, defined by a corresponding collecting angle  $\beta_{\text{max}}$  (typically  $45^\circ$ ) between the directions of the preclusters. This and the following steps are necessary to minimize spurious results arising from particle fluctuations in the jets. The least energetic clusters are removed up to a maximum fraction  $\varepsilon$  (typically 10%) of the total observed energy. All remaining clusters whose energy exceeds a given threshold, typically 2 GeV, are then called jets. The momentum vector of a jet is defined as  $E_{\text{JET}} \cdot \hat{n}_{\text{JET}}$  (zero mass kinematics!). The algorithm was optimized with the help of a Monte Carlo simulation of typical reactions at 30 GeV, including fragmentation [656, 657].

Figs. 6.8 a–c give the Monte Carlo simulated distributions of  $n_J$ , the resulting number of jets, for different two- and three-parton mechanisms. The probability is highest for detecting the same number

† In order to have a normalization which is independent of collinear particle dissociations, the self-correlation terms  $j = i$  cannot be omitted in eq. (6.14). The normalization to 2 (instead of unity) is maintained for historical reasons.

†† The variable  $\theta$  appears most appropriate to present the complete function of such a structure, while  $\cos \theta$  would grossly contract the interesting forward and backward peaks, and  $\ln(\tan \theta/2)$  [650] spreads them very much.

††† Charged as well as neutral ones.

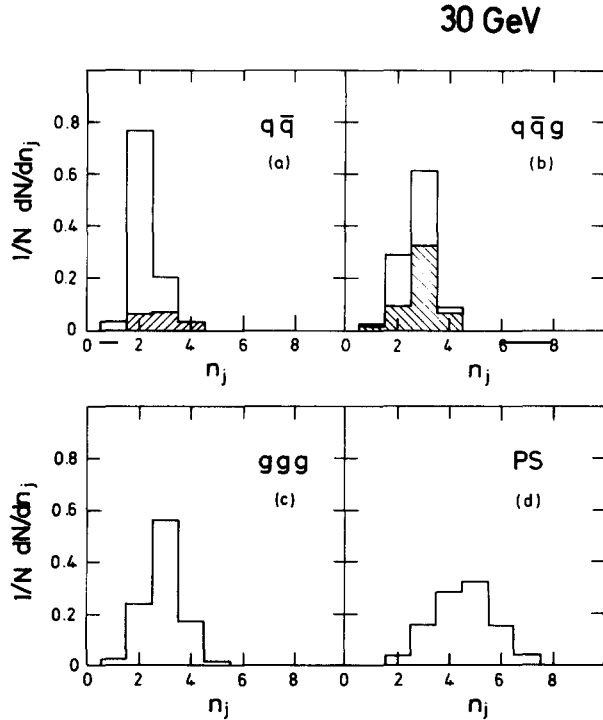


Fig. 6.8. Expected number of jets as reconstructed by the cluster algorithm for different production mechanisms: (a)  $q\bar{q} = u\bar{u} + d\bar{d} + s\bar{s} + c\bar{c} + b\bar{b}$ . Shaded area:  $b\bar{b}$  contribution. (b)  $q\bar{q}g$  (gluon). Shaded area: events selected with thrust cut ( $T < 0.90$ ). (c) 3-gluon. (d) Phase space.

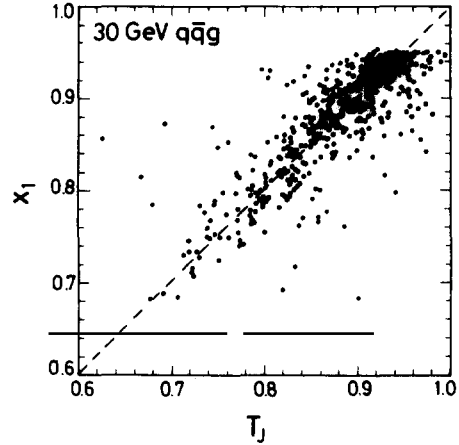


Fig. 6.9. Correlation between 'jet thrust'  $T_J$  and parton thrust  $x_1$ .

of jets as partons, and drops considerably for smaller  $n_j$ , as produced by merging jets, and for larger  $n_j$  as resulting from fluctuations and heavy quark decays (shaded area in fig. 6.8a). An observed  $n_j$ -distribution can therefore efficiently be decomposed into the contributions from different parton reactions. Monte Carlo simulations of the  $q\bar{q}g$  reaction show in the subsample of reconstructed 3-jet events strong correlations between the kinematics of the jets and the partons [653]. Fig. 6.9 shows the close correspondence between the thrust  $T_J = \max \sum_{i=1}^3 E_i \hat{n}_i / \sum E_i$  of the three jets and the parton thrust  $x_1$  which is just the fractional energy of the most energetic parton.†

When applied to phase space events the algorithm produces a broad distribution (fig. 6.8d) extending to large  $n_j$ , which (although the  $n_j$  themselves are artifacts) provides a sensitive handle for detecting small isotropic contributions to the cross section, like expected at new particle thresholds.

### 6.3.2. Two-jet topologies

The first evidence for two-jet production in  $e^+e^-$  annihilation was presented by the SLAC-LBL collaboration [654]. While at their energies the jet structure of the hadronic events was not visible event by event, but had to be inferred from a comparison of the observed and the Monte Carlo simulated sphericity distributions [654], it becomes more and more striking as the energy increases. Fig. 6.10 displays the reconstructed charged and neutral particles (full and dashed, resp.) of a typical event

† The corresponding error made by setting  $x_1 = T_J$  is  $\sigma(x_1)/x_1 = 0.03$  (at  $E_{cm} = 30$  GeV,  $T_J < 0.95$ ; detector effects included). It should be noted that the triplicity method acc. to eq. (6.12b) leads to an even better reconstruction of the 3-parton kinematics.



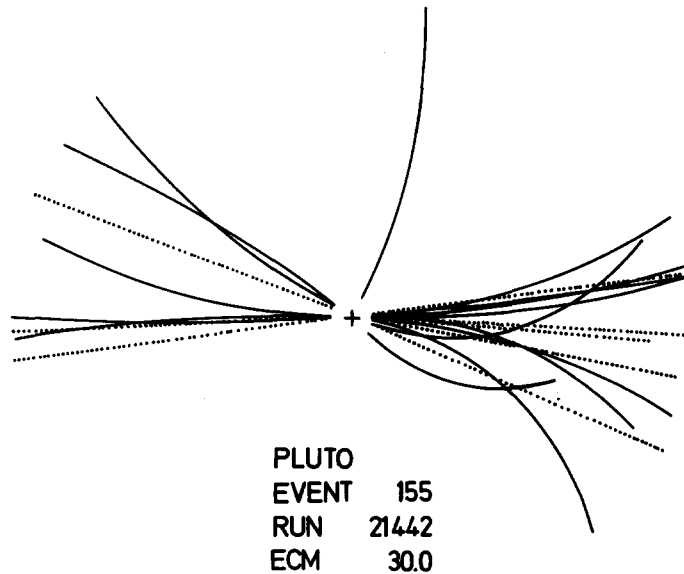


Fig. 6.10. Typical event observed at 30 GeV with reconstructed charged (full lines) and neutral particles (dashed). The single particle emitted at right angle to the jets has a momentum of only 0.6 GeV/c, compatible with fluctuations in the two-jet formation.

observed at 30 GeV c.m. energy. The PLUTO detector could demonstrate for the first time that the neutral energy flow is collimated in the same direction as the charged particles [655]. Fig. 6.11 shows that the angular distributions of the charged (histogram) and of the neutral energy (full points) around the thrust axis are quite similar. (As the charged particles have been used to determine the axis, they appear to cluster somewhat closer.) So both the charged and neutral energy consistently indicate the origin of all hadrons from just two parent particles. The spin of the parent particles can be read off the angular distribution of the jet axis with respect to the beam line: it should be  $\sim 1 + a \cos^2 \theta$  with  $a = +1$  or  $-1$  for spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  or 0. Fig. 6.12 clearly verifies spin  $\frac{1}{2}$ , as expected from the quark-parton model.

$e^+e^-$  annihilation thus constitutes a source of quark jets which, in contrast to inelastic lepton hadron scattering, is free of the problems of spectator particles. It can be used to study various aspects of the quark fragmentation, in particular anomalies which are expected at new particle thresholds and through hard gluon bremsstrahlung as predicted by QCD. An invaluable help for these investigations is the quark fragmentation model of Field and Feynman [656] (see section 3.8.5.1) which allows a Monte Carlo computation of all observables with full account of detector biases. The  $q\bar{q}$  model has been extended by including hard gluon emission to first ( $q\bar{q}g$ ) [657] and second order ( $q\bar{q}gg + q\bar{q}q\bar{q}$ ) [658] in QCD, as well as the production and weak decays of new mesons [659], and will be used to search for these effects<sup>†</sup>.

Fig. 6.13 shows the energy dependence of the mean sphericity [643, 6925]. Apart from the values at the resonances (open symbols, see section 7), the sphericity falls very rapidly with increasing energy, and is distinctly different from the large, slowly rising one that would be expected from an uncorrelated particle emission ('phase space'). The fragmentation model ( $q\bar{q}g$  acc. to [657]), on the other hand, describes the

<sup>†</sup> Quite recently the 'Lund' model [6901] which relates the hadron production to colour flow rather than the parton flight directions has also been applied. Within the present measurement errors its predicted hadron distributions are consistent with those of the 'standard'  $q\bar{q}g$  [657] and the  $q\bar{q}gg$  [658] model. In a recent higher statistics experiment the JADE collaboration has observed small deviations from the prediction of the 'standard' in favour of the Lund model [6926].

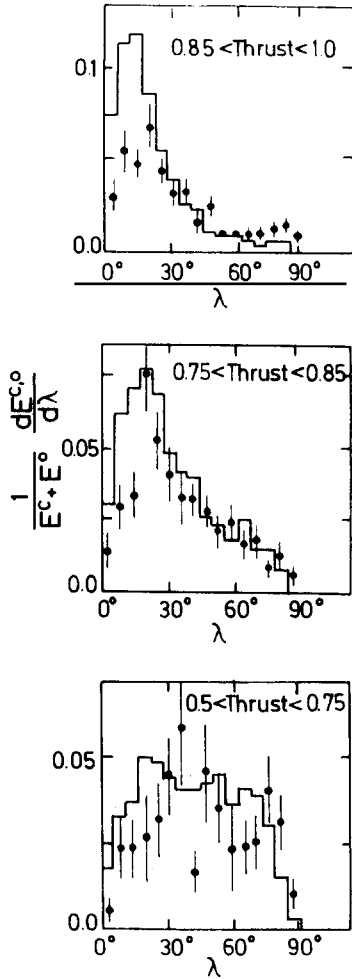


Fig. 6.11. Distribution of the charged (histogram) and neutral (full points) energy flow vs.  $\lambda$ , the angle to the thrust axis, as observed at 9.4 GeV in different thrust bins.

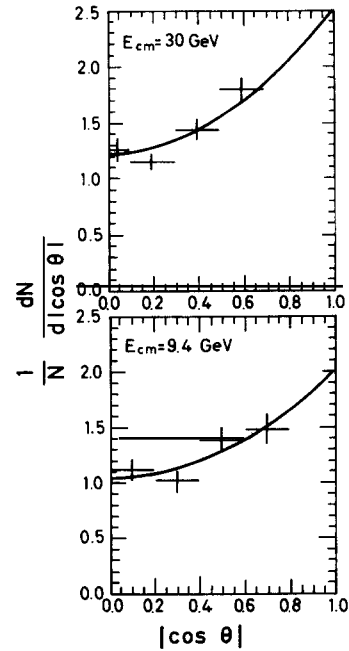


Fig. 6.12. Angular distribution of the thrust axis with respect to the  $e^+e^-$  beam. Full line is  $\sim 1 + \cos^2 \theta$ , the quark model prediction.

trend of the non-resonance data very well. No increase indicating the production of slow heavy particles is observed at high energies, thus excluding a 'top' meson threshold up to 31 GeV, provided the top quark has charge  $\frac{2}{3}$ . The effect of the 'bottom' (quark charge  $-\frac{1}{3}$ ) threshold around 10.5 GeV is too small to be visible within present statistics.

The decrease of  $\langle S \rangle$  corresponds to an almost constant momentum  $\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$  transverse to the jet axis [660], as shown in fig. 6.14a. Most of  $\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$  can be accounted for by the  $q\bar{q}$  model which parameterizes the transverse momenta by one energy-independent constant  $\sigma_q$  (see section 3.9.2). Using the cluster algorithm described above, this constant has been determined from a clean sample of  $q\bar{q}$  events (corrected for  $q\bar{q}g$  admixtures) as [661]

$$\sigma_q = (290 \pm 20) \text{ MeV}/c. \quad (6.15)$$

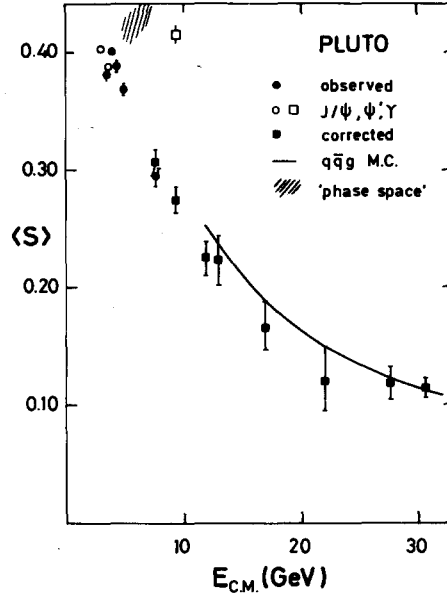


Fig. 6.13. Mean sphericity as observed from charged particles (dots), and corrected for all missing particles, detector effects and initial state radiation (squares). Open symbols show resonance values.

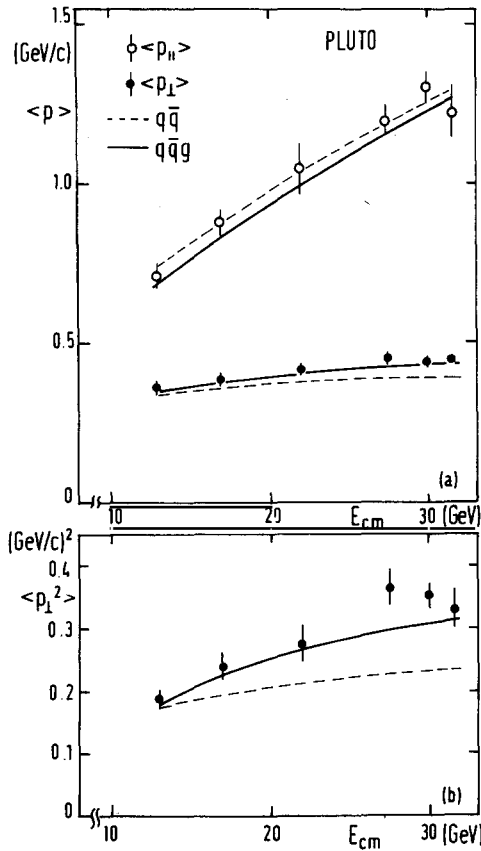


Fig. 6.14. Average particle momenta parallel and perpendicular to the jet axis vs. c.m. energy (a)  $\langle p_{\parallel} \rangle$  and  $\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$ . (b)  $\langle p_{\perp}^2 \rangle$ .

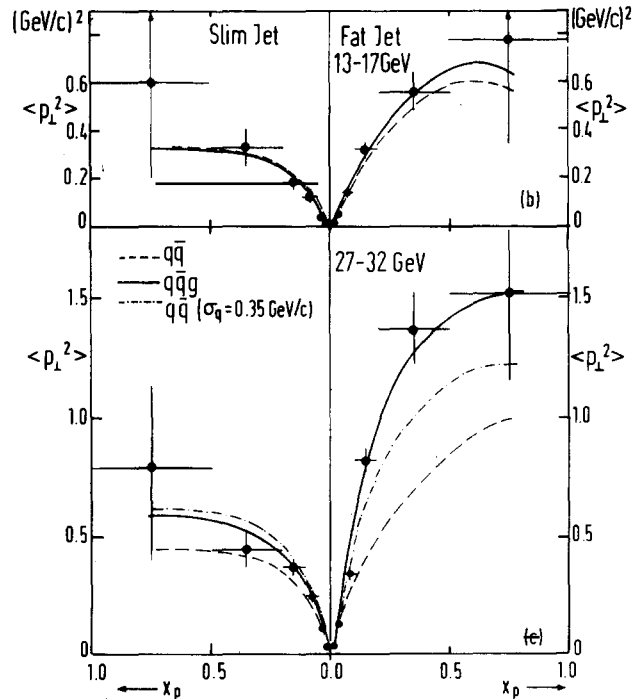


Fig. 6.15. 'Seagull' plot: Average  $p_{\perp}^2$  of charged particles vs. scaled momentum  $x_p = 2p/E_{cm}$  for different c.m. energies, separated into 'slim' jet (left) and 'fat' jet (right). Dashed and solid curves show  $q\bar{q}$  and  $q\bar{q}g$  expectations.

### 6.3.3. Evidence for hard gluons

QCD predicts deviations from the quark-parton model ( $q\bar{q}$ ) due to the emission of a single hard gluon ( $q\bar{q}g$ ). While at PETRA energies this has little influence on the average linear momenta  $\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$  and  $\langle p_{\parallel} \rangle$ , a large effect can be seen in the average *squared* transverse momentum  $\langle p_{\perp}^2 \rangle$  (fig. 6.14b). The gluon emission in the  $q\bar{q}g$  models can describe this deviation very well. However, a thorough check is required on whether it explains other, more crucial features of the data as well, and on how far alternative explanations like a general broadening of quark jets can be excluded.

QCD predicts that the probability for hard large-angle gluon emission is small ( $\sim \alpha_s$ ), and decreases with increasing gluon energy and emission angle. Three striking phenomena should therefore be observed [657–659, 663–665]

- (i) asymmetric 2-jet configurations in which one jet, originating from a quark plus a gluon, is wider than the other,
- (ii) ‘clear’ 3-jet events in which the gluon energy and emission angle are large enough that a separated third jet can be created, and
- (iii) planar event structures due to the underlying three-body kinematics.

Once the PETRA energy was raised above 27 GeV in summer 1979, such signatures for hard gluon radiation were observed by all PETRA experiments [660, 666–668]. The asymmetry of the jets (i) is studied as a function of the scaled particle momentum  $x_p = 2 \cdot p/E_{cm}$  in the so-called ‘seagull’ plot (fig. 6.15). Every event is divided into a ‘fat’ and a ‘slim’ jet depending on the average  $p_{\perp}$  [660]. The average  $p_{\perp}^2$  of the charged particles are then plotted separately, with the  $x_p$  axis pointing right (left) for the particles of the fat (slim) jet.

Due to statistical fluctuations in the transverse momenta even the symmetric Field–Feynman-model predicts some asymmetry. It is too small, however, to fit the data, even if the transverse momentum parameter of the model is taken as high as  $\sigma_q = 350$  MeV (compare to (6.15)). The inclusion of gluon bremsstrahlung, on the other hand, quantitatively reproduces the observed asymmetry.

The second evidence is given by the events with a clear three-jet topology. One example is shown in fig. 6.16. The neutral particles, indicated by the dotted lines, are aligned with the direction of the

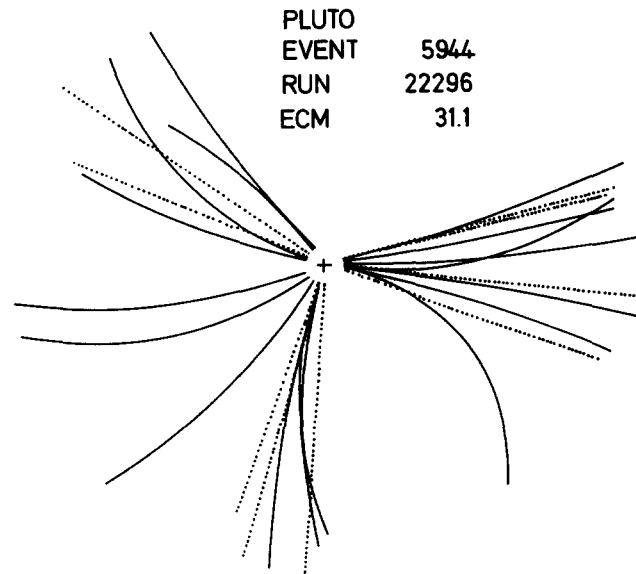


Fig. 6.16. Three-jet event observed at 31.1 GeV with reconstructed charged and neutral particles (full and dashed lines).

Table 6.3  
Observed and expected numbers of events obeying different selection criteria [660]

$E_{cm}$ (GeV)	Selected region	Events observed	Events expected ( $\sigma_q = 250$ MeV)		Events expected ( $\sigma_q = 300$ MeV)		Events expected ( $\sigma_q = 350$ MeV)
			$q\bar{q}$	$q\bar{q}g$	$q\bar{q}$	$q\bar{q}g$	
13-17	$T_3 > 0.9, T < 0.8$ (3-jet events)	24	11	15	15.5	17.5	20
	$\theta_3 < 150^\circ$	32	25	32	27	33	29
	$\langle p_{\perp in}^2 \rangle > 0.5 \text{ GeV}^2/c^2$	5	5	5	7	10	9
	$S > 0.25, Q_1 < 0.03$ (planar events)	7	8	8	9	9	11
27-32	$T_3 > 0.9, T < 0.8$ (3-jet events)	48	11	43	23.5	48.5	36
	$\theta_3 < 150^\circ$	52	19	51	25	50	31
	$\langle p_{\perp in}^2 \rangle > 0.5 \text{ GeV}^2/c^2$	68	23	56	30	61	37
	$S > 0.25, Q_1 < 0.03$ (planar events)	35	12	30	17	30	22

charged particle jets. Such a correlation strongly supports the idea that the structure originates from three and only three parent particles.

A quantitative analysis has been based on the triplicity method as described in section 6.3.1. Thrust  $T$  and triplicity  $T_3$  are calculated using both charged and neutral particles. Three-jet structures are characterized by low  $T$  and high  $T_3$ . Requiring  $T < 0.8$  and  $T_3 > 0.9$  leaves 48 three-jet candidates (out of 462 events), very close to the 43 expected from the  $q\bar{q}g$  model.

The 48 events observed at 30 GeV are incompatible, on the other hand, with the 11 expected from a standard  $q\bar{q}$  model, and also, as shown in table 6.3 with modified  $q\bar{q}$  models. At 13 and 19 GeV the data favour the  $q\bar{q}g$  model, too, although the difference to the  $q\bar{q}$  prediction is smaller. The table also presents the evidence that can be obtained with different selection criteria. The second method identifies the triple structure by demanding that the largest of the separation angles between the three axes be smaller than  $150^\circ$ , with no cut in thrust nor triplicity. The event numbers satisfying this condition (6th line) again are consistent with the expectations of the  $q\bar{q}g$  and inconsistent with various  $q\bar{q}$  models.

The same is true for two selections based on the expected planar event shape. The analysis uses the momentum components along the three ordered orthogonal directions found by the sphericity method,  $\hat{n}_1, \hat{n}_2, \hat{n}_3$ , of which the last two define the event plane. Planar events are characterized by a large squared average momentum component *in* the plane,  $\langle p_{\perp in}^2 \rangle = \langle (\mathbf{p} \cdot \hat{n}_2)^2 \rangle$ , and a small one  $\langle p_{\perp out}^2 \rangle = \langle (\mathbf{p} \cdot \hat{n}_1)^2 \rangle$  *out* of the plane. A similar condition in terms of the normalized shape parameters is  $Q_2 \gg Q_1$ . The third line of table 6.3 shows the results of a selection requiring  $\langle p_{\perp in}^2 \rangle \geq 0.5 \text{ GeV}^2/c^2$  while the last one is based on  $S = \frac{3}{2}(Q_1 + Q_2) < 0.25$ , and  $Q_1 < 0.03$ . For both selections the data agree with expectations from the  $q\bar{q}g$  model, and cannot be explained by  $q\bar{q}$  alone.

The third evidence rests on a comparison of the distributions of  $\langle p_{\perp in}^2 \rangle$  and  $\langle p_{\perp out}^2 \rangle$ , as displayed in fig. 6.17. While between 13 and 30 GeV the  $\langle p_{\perp out}^2 \rangle$  distribution does not broaden by a large amount, the average momenta *in* the plane  $\langle p_{\perp in}^2 \rangle$  develop a long tail up to  $1.5 \text{ GeV}^2/c^2$ , corresponding to distinct planar structures. All distributions are well described by the  $q\bar{q}g$  model (solid curve), both in the average values and in magnitude of the tail, and cannot be explained by any of the  $q\bar{q}$  models considered.

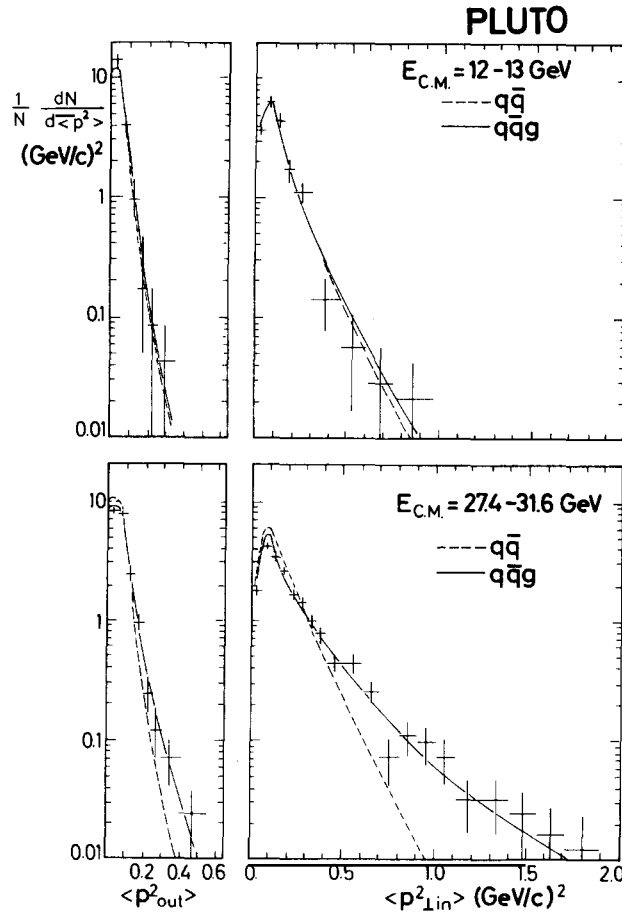


Fig. 6.17. Distribution of the average squared momentum components perpendicular to the jet axis. Left: *out* of the event plane ( $p_{\perp out}^2$ ). Right: *in* the event plane ( $p_{\perp in}^2$ ). Dashed and solid curves give expectation from  $q\bar{q}$  and  $q\bar{q}g$  model.

As an independent approach, the PLUTO group has recently analysed all hadronic events in terms of separated hadron jets as obtained by the cluster method [653], and used the jets to reconstruct the number and kinematics of the hard parent partons [661, 6909]. This procedure appears to be quite insensitive to details of the fragmentation process, in particular to the mean transverse momentum of the jets ( $\sigma_q$ ).

The cluster method uniquely assigns a ‘number of jets’,  $n_j$ , to every event. The observed distribution in  $n_j$ , as given in fig. 6.18 for the combined 27–32 GeV data, can then be decomposed into the (Monte Carlo determined) contributions of several competing reactions, as shown in table 6.4. The observed distribution is clearly dominated by the 2-jet topology, but contains too many multi-jet events as to be explained by the  $q\bar{q}$  model alone, even if the primordial transverse momentum  $\sigma_q$  is raised as high as 350 MeV (compare to (6.15)). The distribution can be saturated, however, by adding the amount of ‘hard  $q\bar{q}g$ ’ which corresponds to  $\alpha_s = 0.16$ . The value of the strong coupling constant is consistent with the results of other PETRA [666–668] and also lepton scattering experiments [669–672], and in particular agrees with the result of the refined determination as outlined below.

The  $q\bar{q}g = 'q\bar{q} + \text{hard } q\bar{q}g'$  prediction also accounts for most of the events with  $n_j = 4$ , allowing only

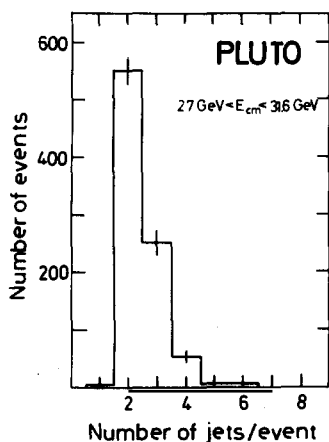


Fig. 6.18. Distribution of number of jets as reconstructed by the cluster algorithm from the combined 27–32 GeV data.

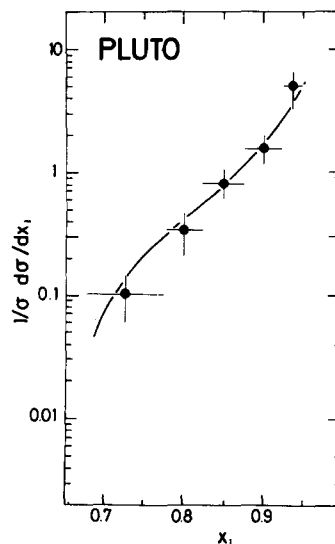


Fig. 6.19. Distribution of parton thrust  $x_1$  for the 3-jet event class. Solid curve gives expectation from 1st order QCD.

for a very few events originating from four separated hard partons, in agreement with recent QCD calculations to order  $\alpha_s^2$  [673]. The absence of events with  $n_J = 6, 7$  limits an isotropic component which may arise from the threshold production and isotropic decay of new heavy particles to less than 3% of the total cross section (99% c.l.).

The 3-jet class can now be used for investigating the dynamics of the  $q\bar{q}g$  system. In order to reduce the contamination of  $q\bar{q}$  events, the three jets are required (i) to have two or more particles each, (ii) to contain together more than 90% of the visible energy, (iii) to be spaced by less than  $165^\circ$ , and (iv) to be planar within  $45^\circ$  (see [661]). Fig. 6.19 gives the distribution of the jet thrust  $T_J$  (see section 6.3.1), corrected for the estimated contribution of  $q\bar{q}$  events.

Because of the close correspondence between  $T_J$  and  $x_1$ , the scaled energy of the most energetic parton (fig. 6.9), the  $T_J$ -distribution can be directly compared to theoretical predictions in  $x_1$ . With  $\alpha_s = 0.16$  as given below, the data agree well with the first order QCD curve [662] over the full range

Table 6.4

Distributions of the observed numbers of jets per event ( $n_J$ ) for data and different models, all normalized to the number of observed events. For the  $q\bar{q} + q\bar{q}g$  model  $\alpha_s = 0.15$  is assumed

$n_J =$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Data	2	551	249	53	3	1	
$q\bar{q}$	3	680	152	23	1		
$q\bar{q}g$	2	229	509	113	5	1	
$q\bar{q} + q\bar{q}g$	3	567	247	46	2		
PS	1	30	154	306	268	86	14

$0.7 \leq x_1 \leq 0.95$ . Second order QCD corrections to the 3 jet cross sections are discussed by several authors [674, 675], with controversial conclusions at present.

It is pointed out in [661] that the data are not consistent with the distribution predicted from scalar gluons [662], and also disagree with the prediction of the constituent interchange model CIM [663].

By adjusting the first order QCD prediction to the data in the restricted range  $x_1 < 0.925$  one obtains the strong coupling constant at 30 GeV as [6909]

$$\alpha_s = 0.16 \pm 0.02 \text{ (stat.)} \pm 0.02 \text{ (syst.)} . \quad (6.16)$$

The systematic error resulting from the fragmentation parameter  $\sigma_q$  is particularly small in this method, namely less than 0.01 for  $250 \leq \sigma_q \leq 350 \text{ MeV}/c$ .

In conclusion, with the help of the cluster method 3-parton events can efficiently be selected, and the parton kinematics be reconstructed. The QCD predicted energy distribution of the partons in the process  $e^+e^- \rightarrow q\bar{q}g$  has been verified, and the strong coupling constant has been determined (within the framework of first order QCD) with a small systematic error.

#### 6.4. Multiparton effects

As demonstrated in the previous section the fragmentation model [656] with single gluon emission added [657] is quite successful in describing the observed 2- and 3-jet topologies in great detail, and can be used to clearly establish effects of hard gluons. In this description the fragmentation part as determined by the empirical constant  $\sigma_q$  dominates most of the global jet properties like  $\langle p_{||} \rangle$  and  $\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$  (fig. 6.14), at least up to 30 GeV.

Several authors [650, 676–678] have developed an alternative description in which not just a small correction, but the dominant part of the jet formation is predicted from first principles of QCD. The process is split in two steps, as sketched in fig. 6.20: First the evolution of a cascade of partons (quarks and gluons) out of the initial quarks, and then the conversion of the partons into hadrons. The cascade part is described by perturbative QCD. Since the probability for the emission of soft gluons is not small

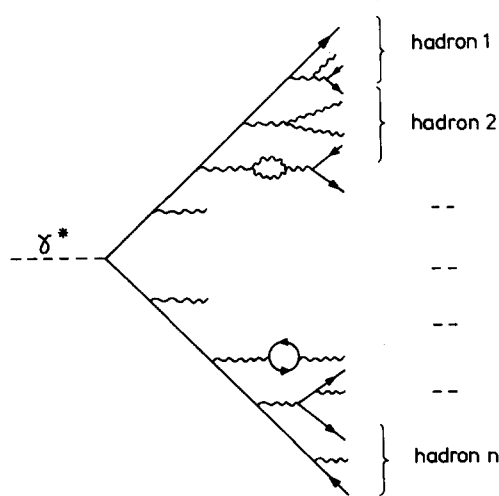


Fig. 6.20. Quark-gluon cascade.



at all, higher order diagrams cannot be neglected here. They are summed up in the 'leading log approximation' (LLA). The underlying hope is that the second step, the conversion of the final partons into hadrons, has little effect on the calculated observables ('soft hadronization'), so that at sufficiently high energies these parton predictions can be directly compared to the hadron data. In the following sections LLA predictions on energy–energy correlations, transverse momenta, and multiplicity distributions will be confronted with PLUTO data taken in the energy range from 7 to 32 GeV.

#### 6.4.1. Energy–energy correlations

The first LLA calculations predicted the energy–energy correlation (6.14) for angles close to  $180^\circ$  [650], as well as close to  $0^\circ$  [678]. Later papers basically confirmed the early predictions, but also introduced corrections and modifications [679–686]. For angles around  $90^\circ$ , the correlation was predicted from first order QCD [651].

Measurements of the correlation were presented by the PLUTO group first for both angular regimes separately [687], and then with improved statistics for the full angular range [688]. Fig. 6.21 shows the

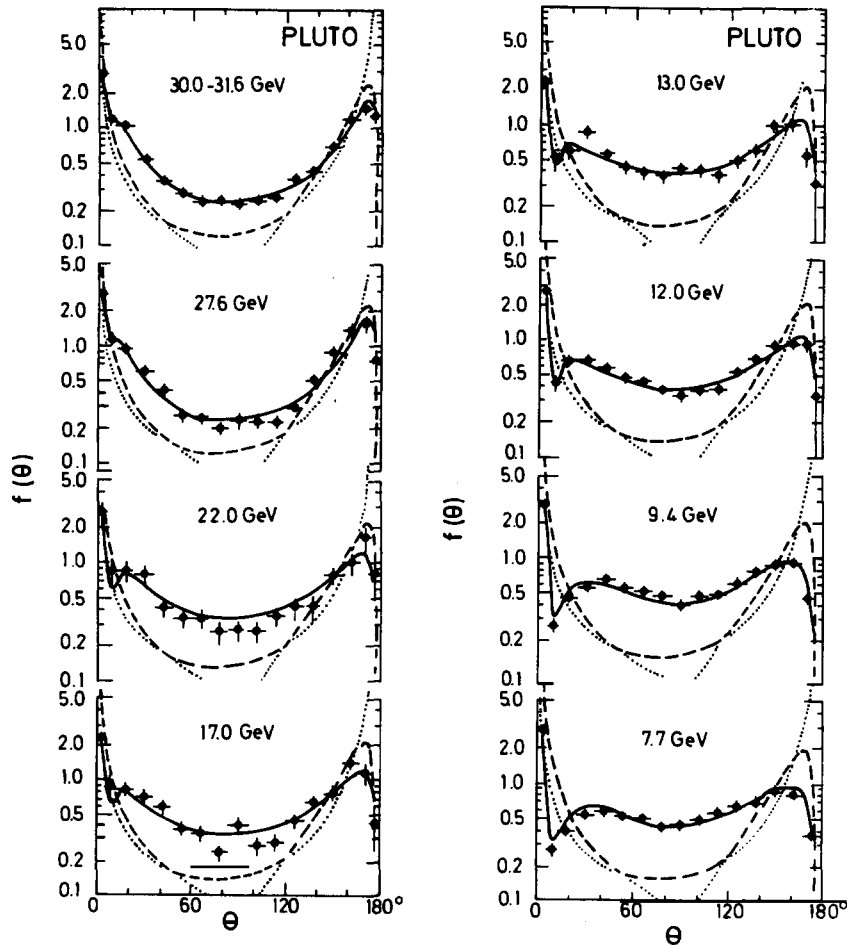


Fig. 6.21. Energy–energy correlation vs. particle–particle angle for different c.m. energies. Full line shows fragmentation model ( $q\bar{q}$  below 10 GeV,  $q\bar{q}g$  above). Dashed lines give pure QCD predictions acc. to ref. [678] ( $0^\circ$ – $50^\circ$ ), ref. [651] ( $50^\circ$ – $120^\circ$ ), and ref. [679] ( $120^\circ$ – $180^\circ$ ), all with  $\Lambda = 200$  MeV. Dotted lines indicate continuation of QCD predictions.

data over the full range, corrected for initial state radiation, particle losses, and detector resolution. At low energies the distribution is flat, corresponding to a weakly visible two-jet structure. (Isotropy would lead to  $f(\theta) \sim \sin \theta$ .) With increasing energy the two-jet structure becomes more pronounced in form of two peaks at particle-particle angles close to zero and to 180 degrees. All these features are very well reproduced by the  $q\bar{q}$  fragmentation model, with hard gluons added at the higher energies ( $q\bar{q}g$ ). (Full lines in fig. 6.21.)

A 'pure QCD' prediction (dashed lines in fig. 6.21) can be constructed by smoothly connecting the results of 'KUV' [678], 'BBEL' [651], and 'PP' [679] at  $50^\circ$  and  $120^\circ$ . As a typical feature of QCD, this prediction varies only slowly with the energy. It completely fails at low energies, but approaches the data with increasing energy. Good qualitative agreement is reached in the backward direction.

In contrast, most of the forward and central region is predicted about a factor two too low. This discrepancy could be cured by inserting a larger coupling constant  $\alpha_s$  into the QCD expressions, but is more naturally attributed to the final conversion of the partons into hadrons. With increasing energy such 'non-perturbative' effects should die away like powers of  $1/E_{cm}$ . As an example, the energy dependence in the central region can be written as [651]

$$f(\theta, E_{cm}) = \alpha_s(E_{cm}^2) \cdot g(\theta) + \frac{\langle p_\perp \rangle \cdot C}{E_{cm}} \sin^{-2} \theta. \quad (6.17)$$

The first term is the first order QCD result shown in fig. 6.21, and the second one (with  $C \cdot \langle p_\perp \rangle \sim 1$  GeV) accounts for the spillover of the fragmentation from the forward and backward region. Fig. 6.22 demonstrates that the correlation integrated over the central region indeed follows the expected energy dependence. At 30 GeV the QCD term (dashed curve, with  $\Lambda = 200$  MeV) accounts for more than half of the correlation, but still does not dominate.

A different method of separating the QCD effect consists in looking at the asymmetry  $f(\pi - \theta) - f(\theta)$ , thereby eliminating the fragmentation term [651]. Ref. [688] shows that one can indeed observe a fragmentation-free asymmetry at 30 GeV (not at 9.4), however with too poor statistics to exploit it. Fig. 6.23 shows the backward region of the 30 GeV data, plotted as  $d\Sigma/d \cos \theta$ , because  $f(-\pi)$  is zero from

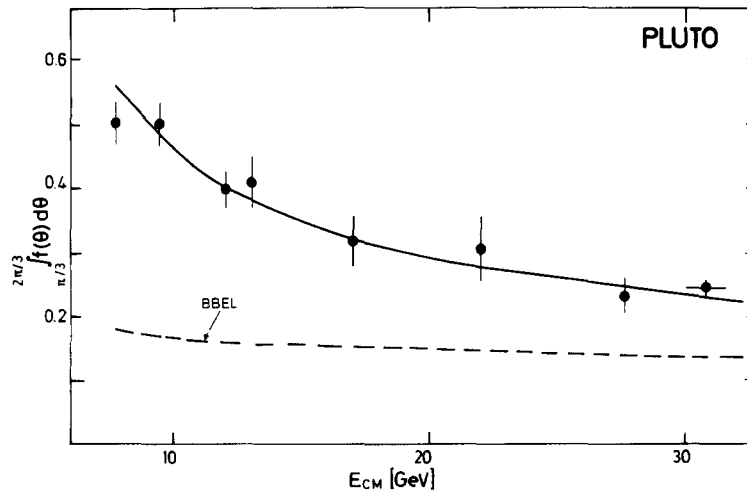


Fig. 6.22. Central ( $60\text{--}120^\circ$ ) energy-energy correlation vs. c.m. energy. Dashed line: pure QCD. Full line: fragmentation added.

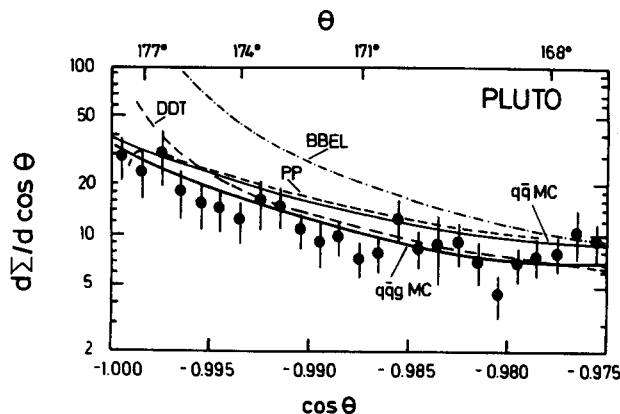


Fig. 6.23. Energy-energy correlation in extreme backward directions as measured between 27 and 32 GeV. Fragmentation models: upper full line  $q\bar{q}$ , lower full line  $q\bar{q}g$ . Pure QCD predictions are labelled: DDT [650], BBEL [651], and PP [679].

phase space. The data approach a non-zero limit for  $\cos\theta \rightarrow -1$ , in accordance with the  $q\bar{q}g$  fragmentation model. The LLA calculations (DDT, PP) successfully reproduce the data over most of the range.<sup>†</sup> This means that the back-to-back correlation of hadrons can qualitatively be understood as dominated by parton branching process (fig. 6.20), calculable from perturbative QCD alone.

It thus appears that energy-energy correlations are indeed, as proposed, a sensitive measure for QCD effects.<sup>††</sup> First order effects can be separated in the central region, and agree with expectations. The description of the forward and backward peaks in terms of high-order parton cascades (LLA) improves with increasing energy. At 30 GeV it qualitatively reproduces the backward data, while the prediction in the forward region still stays a factor of 1.5 too low. There are several proposals to improve the leading-log order of the jet calculus by next-to-leading orders [689–690], by better accounting for finite energy kinematics in Monte Carlo calculations [6902–6905], and by phenomenologically accounting for effects of the parton-hadron conversion [679, 686]. It will be interesting to see whether these efforts succeed, or whether the hope of describing the jet features at present energies by QCD alone is altogether premature.

#### 6.4.2. Multiplicity distributions

Additional insight into the mechanism of hadron production may be obtained from a study of the average and the distribution of multiplicity. General scaling arguments [6910] as well as specific fragmentation models [656, 657] lead to a logarithmic increase of the average multiplicity  $\langle n \rangle$  with the energy like

$$\langle n \rangle = a + b \ln s. \quad (6.18)$$

A stronger rise with  $s$  is suggested by perturbative QCD calculations of a parton cascade, namely

<sup>†</sup> One should note that the limit  $\cos\theta \rightarrow 1$  cannot be covered by perturbative QCD, because the expansion parameter  $\alpha_s$  diverges at  $\sin(\theta/2) = \Lambda/E_{cm}$ . Refs. [679, 686] propose to treat this region by exponentiating the gluon emission in impact space.

<sup>††</sup> Basically, the same information is contained in the Fox-Wolfram moments which according to (6.13) are just the Legendre coefficients of the correlation function. A detailed investigation of the different angular regions, however, would have to resort to a fairly large number of such moments.

[6911–6914]

$$\langle n \rangle = A + B \exp(C\sqrt{\ln(s/\Lambda^2)}) \quad (6.19)$$

with  $C = 2.4$  for  $n_F = 4$  flavours. In addition, the QCD calculations yield two interesting predictions about the distribution of the multiplicities, namely

(i) KNO-scaling, meaning an energy-independent distribution which depends only on the ratio  $n/\langle n \rangle$  [6915] and

(ii) a large relative dispersion, namely

$$D/\langle n \rangle = \sqrt{\langle n^2 \rangle / \langle n \rangle^2 - 1} \equiv \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}} \quad (6.20)$$

for one quark-initiated jet.

An even stronger asymptotic rise like  $s^{0.25}$  is expected in the thermodynamic model [6916]. Still higher power laws up to  $s^{1/2}$  occur in statistical models [602].

The energy dependence of the corrected average charged multiplicity [615] for detector effects, is shown in fig. 6.24.† For comparison with the data from ADONE [6918], SPEAR [625], and the JADE [618] and TASSO [6919] experiments at PETRA, the pions from the decay  $K_s^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$  ( $\approx 0.6$  units around 10 and  $\approx 1.0$  units around 30 GeV) have been included in the figure. Recent results of the LENA experiment [6907] at DORIS are also shown. The data points scatter by about 10%, consistent with the estimated systematic errors from track recognition in dense jets and unfolding detector effects. The general conclusions, however, are independent of these differences.

The multiplicity appears to follow one straight line (6.18) at low energies (fitted by [6918]), and then

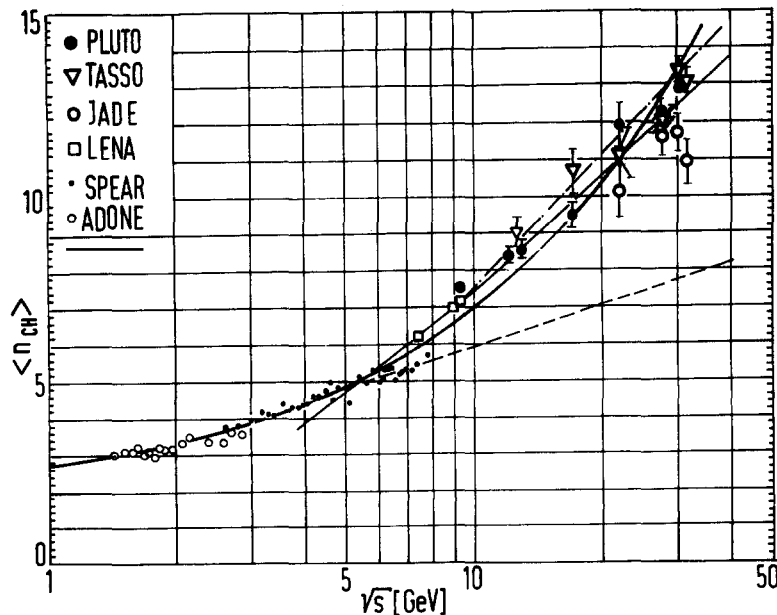


Fig. 6.24. Average charged multiplicity for  $e^+e^-$  annihilations,  $K_s^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^-$  included, with statistical errors (omitted for the SPEAR data). Dashed line: fit to low energy data [6918]. Full and dashed-dotted straight lines: fits to Feynman-Field and Hoyer et al. Monte Carlo. Solid curved line: QCD (LLA) fit to all data.

† The multiplicity values published earlier [6917] were corrected only for detector effects, but not for initial state radiation.

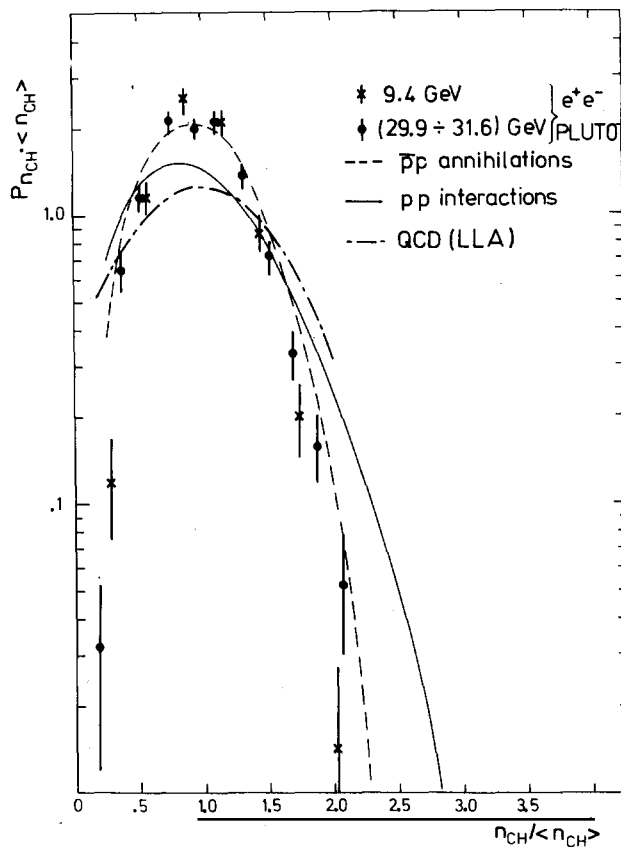


Fig. 6.25. KNO plot for  $e^+e^-$  PLUTO data [6917]. The dashed-dotted curve gives the analytic QCD prediction as explained in the text.

to rise much more rapidly above 10 GeV. This rapid rise agrees with the one expected from the quark fragmentation models [656, 657], indicated by the two steeper straight lines. The difference between the two shows that the contribution of the gluon jet is still very small at these energies.

Smooth curves describing the multiplicity over a larger energy range are given by the thermodynamic model with  $\langle n \rangle = (2.2 \pm 0.1)s^{(0.25 \pm 0.01)}$ , and by the QCD cascade predictions (6.19) with  $\Lambda = 200$  MeV,  $A = 2.24 \pm 0.15$ ,  $B = 0.007 \pm 0.002$ , and  $C = 2.33 \pm 0.11$ .<sup>†</sup> The data on  $\langle n_{CH} \rangle$  thus cannot distinguish between general cascading models and the special dynamics of QCD, but only exclude models with higher powers of  $s$ .

A special prediction of QCD, KNO scaling of the multiplicity distribution, works well for 9.4 and 30 GeV, as shown in fig. 6.25. The observed dispersion of  $D/\langle n \rangle \approx 0.36 \pm 0.02$ , however, is much smaller than the value 0.61 predicted in the LLA (for two quark jets, dashed-dotted line). The discrepancy in the dispersion indicates that the analytic LLA expression (6.19) should only be applied, if at all, at much higher energies.

On the other hand, the  $q\bar{q}g$  fragmentation model [657] gives a relative dispersion  $D/\langle n \rangle$  which varies slowly from 0.38 to 0.32 between 10 and 30 GeV, quite consistent with the data. Similarly, LLA Monte

<sup>†</sup> As the data with their quoted statistical errors only are inconsistent with any smooth energy dependence, a systematic error of 5% has been added in quadrature to every point, resulting in a good probability for the fit ( $\sim 70\%$ ). Similarly good fits are obtained with  $\Lambda = 500$ , and also with  $C$  fixed to 2.4.

Carlo calculations which, after a very few hard parton branchings [6906], also resort to the Field-Feynman fragmentation algorithm, or alternatively to experimental fragmentation data directly [6902], lead to approximate KNO scaling and to dispersions consistent with the data [6906, 6920].

It thus appears that the measured hadron multiplicities cannot be calculated yet in perturbative QCD, but are dominated by the (at present uncalculable) fragmentation processes.

### 6.4.3. Transverse momenta

The transverse hadron momenta relative to the flight direction of the initial quark can either be parameterized by the fragmentation constant  $\sigma_q$ , or perhaps be understood as the result of multiple gluon emission, leading to a quark-gluon cascade. As a variable which can be calculated from perturbative QCD the transverse momentum  $K_\perp$  has been proposed [6921]. It is obtained by summing the transverse momentum vectors within one hemisphere like:

$$K_\perp = \left| \sum_{\text{one jet}} \mathbf{p}_{i\perp} \cdot \Theta(\mathbf{p}_i \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}_\perp) \right|, \quad (6.21)$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}_\perp$  is an arbitrary vector perpendicular to the jet axis, and  $\Theta(x) = 0, 1$  for  $x \leq 0, >0$ .

A QCD prediction for the probability distribution  $P(K_\perp)$  [6921, 6922] has been obtained from a LLA summation of multiple soft gluon emission. This summation extends over gluon momenta  $K_\perp$  down to zero, clearly outside the range of perturbative QCD. This non-perturbative region which contributes the major part of the prediction is globally treated by replacing the 'running' coupling constants  $\alpha_s$  by a fixed value  $\alpha_{\text{eff}} \approx 0.48$  [6923]. The resulting formula gives an interesting scaling distribution which depends only on the ratio  $K_\perp/\langle K_\perp \rangle$  [6921, 6924].

The data were evaluated by summing (6.21) over charged particles only, and were corrected for the detector acceptance and resolution, and for initial state radiation.

Fig. 6.26 shows that the measured distributions indeed scale, not only for the reduced summed

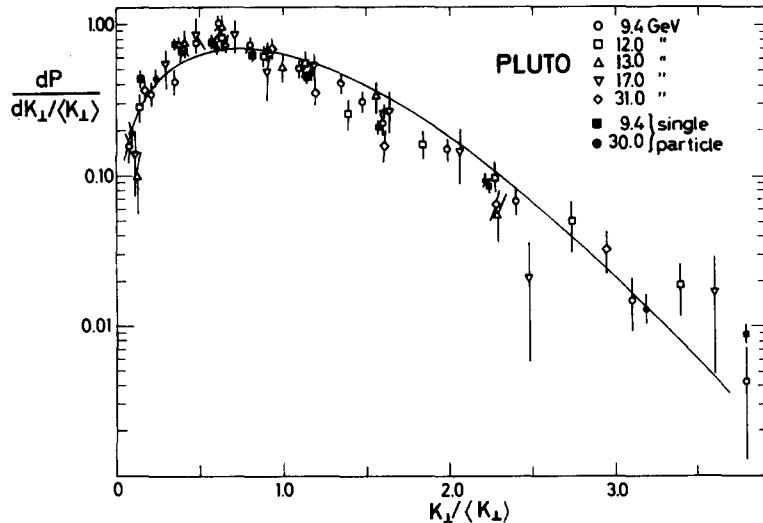


Fig. 6.26. Distributions of the reduced variable  $K_\perp/\langle K_\perp \rangle$  at the quoted c.m. energies. The full line is the theoretical expectation computed at 9.4 GeV. Also shown (full points) are the experimental distributions of the corresponding single particle reduced variable  $p_\perp/\langle p_\perp \rangle$  at 9.4 and 30 GeV.

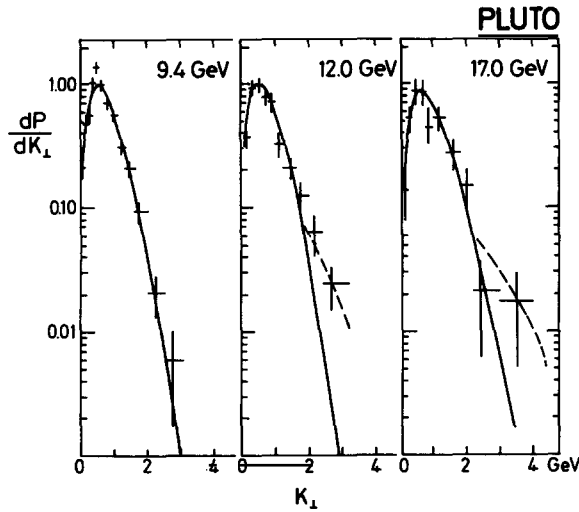


Fig. 6.27. Distributions of the jet transverse momentum  $K_{\perp}$  at 9.4, 12, 17 GeV compared with QCD expectation (see text).

momenta  $K_{\perp}/\langle K_{\perp} \rangle$ , but surprisingly also for the reduced single particle momenta  $p_{\perp}/\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$ . Figs. 6.27 and 6.28 show the data separately for different c.m. energies. The LLA prediction (solid curves, scaled from  $K_{\perp}/\langle K_{\perp} \rangle$  to  $K_{\perp}$ ) fits the major part of the distributions very well. At the highest  $K_{\perp}$ , however, the data show an excess which strongly grows with increasing c.m. energy. It is attributed to the emission of single hard gluons, and very well described by 1st order QCD [663, 664] (dashed curves).

The LLA summation of soft gluon emission can thus reproduce the major part of the  $K_{\perp}$  distributions very well, including the scaling property. In addition, the distributions show clear evidence for hard gluon emission in form of a pronounced large  $K_{\perp}$  tail.

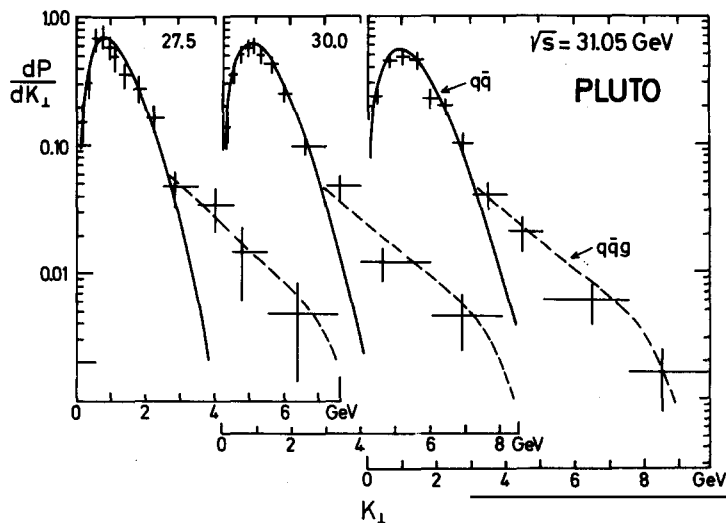


Fig. 6.28. Same as fig. 6.27 for 27.5, 30 and 31.05 GeV average c.m. energies. (The two last points for 30 GeV do not appear in fig. 6.26, being out of range.)

## 6.5. Conclusions

As general conclusions to be derived from the  $e^+e^-$  induced hadron production both the total cross section and particularly the formation of 2-jet final states demonstrate very clearly the role of quarks as the underlying ‘elementary’ particles.

All observed features are well consistent with the emission of gluons as postulated by QCD. These first order QCD effects have been isolated in energy–energy correlations and particularly well in three-jet studies, and have been used to confirm the QCD predicted dynamics of the  $q\bar{q}g$  system and to determine the strong coupling constant  $\alpha_s$ .

LLA predictions of the jet evolution are successful in opposite-side energy–energy correlations, but less so in same-side correlations and multiplicity distributions, and appear to need some more refinements, at least for applications at presently available energies.

## 7. The $Y$ and $J/\psi$ resonances

The production and decay of  $q\bar{q}$  resonances below  $q\bar{q}$  threshold (‘quarkonia’) in  $e^+e^-$  annihilation has provided a rich spectroscopy of  $q\bar{q}$  bound states. These states allow (i) for studies of the dynamics of the  $q\bar{q}$  bound system, e.g. in terms of a  $q\bar{q}$  potential, via the level spacing and the electromagnetic (cascade-) decays of excited states, and (ii) for an investigation of the strong (gluonic)  $q\bar{q}$  annihilation in decays of the ground states. In addition, after the discovery of the  $Y$  [701] its verification as a quarkonium state of a new heavy quark, and the measurement of the quark charge was of considerable interest. Since the observation of the  $\tau$  as a third lepton the identification of the first member of a third quark doublet was of great significance for our present understanding of the fundamental fermions (quark–lepton symmetry, see also section 5.1).

The main work of the PLUTO experiment on quarkonium physics is the measurement and analysis of the  $Y$  ground state production and decay properties. The analysis is focussed on the determination of the constituents, and on a search for evidence for a 3-gluon decay mode in the topology of events. In sections 7.1–7.7 we give a full account of the PLUTO work on the  $Y$  resonance. At the  $J/\psi$  and  $\psi'$  most of the physics came from the study of exclusive decay modes, and from the single photon spectroscopy of  $\psi'$  cascade decays. Data on these resonances were taken by PLUTO before shower counters were installed, without particle identification, later than by other experiments at SPEAR and DORIS, and with a modest integrated luminosity. For these reasons, only a few interesting results were achieved. They are described in section 7.8.

### 7.1. $Y$ discovery and open questions

The  $Y$  was discovered in summer 1977 at Fermilab [701a] as a broad bump at 9.5 GeV in the mass spectrum of  $\mu^+\mu^-$  pairs produced in proton–nucleus collisions. Briefly later [701b] the bump was resolved into two peaks (fig. 7.1) whose widths were consistent with the resolution of 200 MeV/ $c^2$  (rms). The  $Y$  states appeared to be hadrons because of their production process. The fact that they were observed in an electromagnetic decay mode indicated that their hadronic decay widths were much smaller than a few hundred MeV as expected for Zweig-allowed strong decays. the Fermilab experiment left open many questions, like



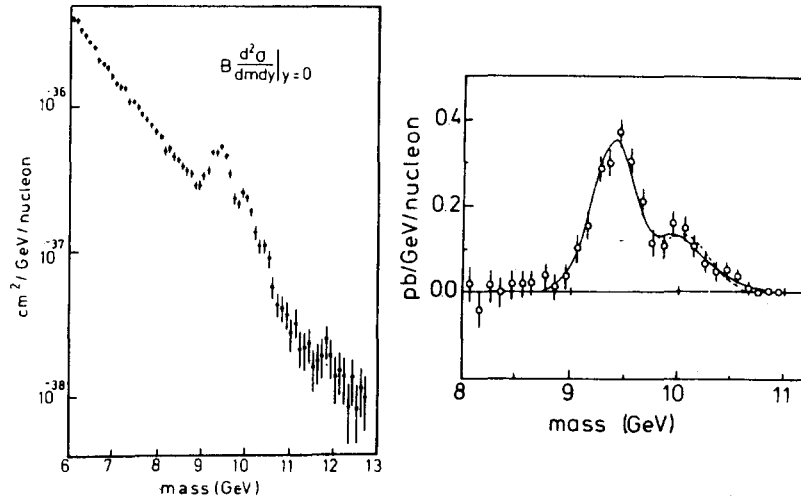


Fig. 7.1. Columbia-Fermilab-Stony Brook: invariant mass distribution of  $\mu^+\mu^-$  from  $p + Be \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^- + X$ : evidence for  $Y$  and  $Y'$  [701].

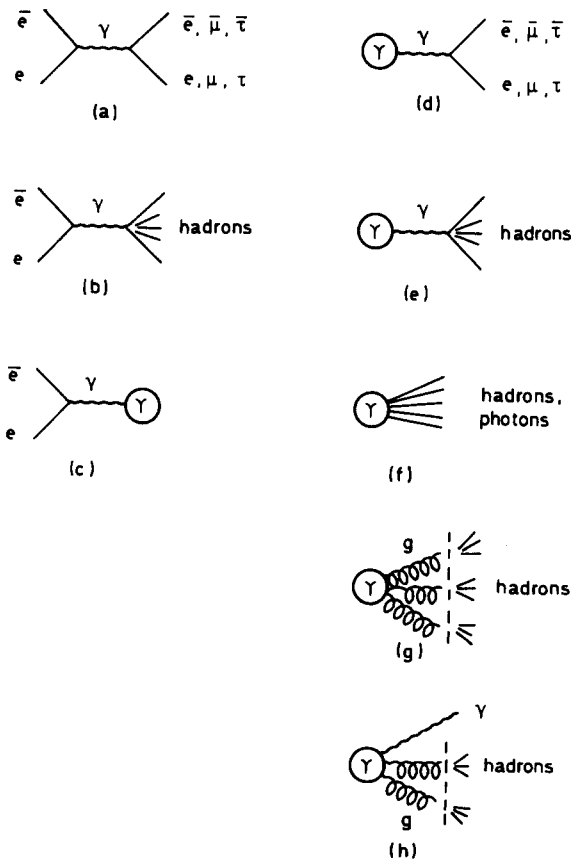


Fig. 7.2. Diagrams for lepton pair (a) and hadron (b) and  $Y$  (c) production in  $e^+e^-$  annihilation. Diagrams for electromagnetic (d, e) and direct (f)  $Y$  decays. QCD diagrams for  $Y$  decays (g, h).

- (1) Is its width similar to the charmonium ground state, the  $J/\psi$ ?
- (2) Are there two or more narrow resonance states observed? The  $\mu$  pair mass spectrum was suggestive for 2 or 3 states (fig. 7.1).
- (3) Does the electronic width  $\Gamma_{ee}$  (fig. 7.2c) conform with the expectations [702] for a  $q\bar{q}$  bound state? Does  $\Gamma_{ee}$  correspond to the charge of a bottom quark  $b$  ( $e_b = -\frac{1}{3}$ ) or to a top quark  $t$  ( $e_t = \frac{2}{3}$ )? Because the mass of the  $Y$  was high enough for jet formation in hadronic final states it was of great interest to learn whether the topological properties of non-electromagnetic ('direct') decays (fig. 7.2f)
- (4) exclude a dominant (one gluon-) annihilation into a light  $q\bar{q}$  pair? A one gluon decay mechanism is forbidden by the colour octet nature of gluons or, in other words, by the non-Abelian character of QCD;
- (5) exclude a dominant 2-gluon decay? This mode is forbidden by the vector nature (or  $C$ -parity) of the gluon quanta;
- (6) confirm the expected [703, 704] 3 gluon decay (fig. 7.2g) to be dominant? This is the strong decay mechanism with the lowest possible order in  $\alpha_s$ .

Sensitive topological properties relevant for these questions are the jet character of the direct decays, the angular distribution of the thrust (or sphericity) axis, and also the particle multiplicity.

All of these questions could be checked with measurements at  $e^+e^-$  storage rings, but there was no one that could be operated at the  $Y$  energy. The storage rings SPEAR and DORIS were not designed for energies of 9.5 GeV, and PETRA, CESR and PEP construction schedules were 2 years or more away from completion.

## 7.2. The $Y$ search at DORIS

Even though the original DORIS proposal foresaw a 3 GeV storage ring, the magnets were designed to allow for a later extension of the beam energy to 4.5 GeV. For higher beam energies the iron begins to saturate. Since DORIS was already in the process of being converted to a single ring machine, which allowed for higher energies than the double ring scheme by concentrating all magnet and RF power to one ring, the PLUTO collaboration immediately made the proposal to push the DORIS energies beyond the planned 8.6 GeV into the  $Y$  region. The DORIS machine physics group [705] was daring enough to embark on this proposal.

On April 12, 1978, the conversion and upgrading process was completed, and an energy scan for a narrow resonance was started. The FNAL group had reevaluated their estimate for the mass as 9.45 GeV, with an uncertainty of  $\pm 0.10$  GeV [701c]. The scan started at 9.35 GeV and proceeded in steps of 5 or 10 MeV, with integrated luminosities of  $\sim 20$  nb $^{-1}$  per 10 MeV. A fast analysis chain, based on events with an energy signal of more than 2 GeV in the shower counters, returned cross section results within a day. On April 29 a narrow resonance was hit and completely established on May 2 by the PLUTO [706a] and the DASP II [706b] experiment. Fig. 7.3a shows the cross section from the PLUTO fast analysis chain. The DORIS machine group [705a] deserves high credit for its enthusiasm and hard work that made this result possible.

PLUTO continued to take data at and around the  $Y$  peak until May 15 when it was scheduled to be removed from DORIS for getting transferred to PETRA. During the  $Y$  experiment integrated luminosities of 177 nb $^{-1}$  below ("off") the resonance ( $9.30 < W < 9.44$  GeV) and 190 nb $^{-1}$  on the resonance ( $9.45 < W < 9.47$  GeV) were accumulated.

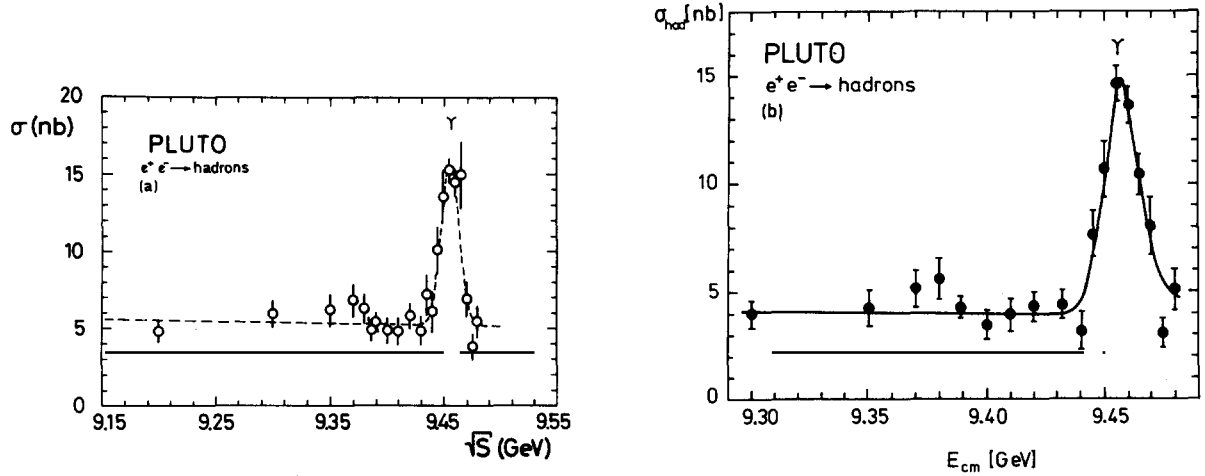


Fig. 7.3. Total cross section for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$  at  $Y$  energies, (a) as from the fast analysis chain used during the  $Y$  search and (b) after final evaluation. The curves are a fit of the continuum and the  $Y$  cross section, to the data. They include the radiative corrections and the machine energy width.

### 7.3. Parameters of the $Y$ resonance

From the cross section curve in fig. 7.3 the values for the  $Y$  mass and the upper limit of the width could be considerably improved, and from this and other data the electric charge of the constituents could be determined.

#### 7.3.1. Mass and width of the $Y$

The  $Y$  excitation curves in fig. 7.3a had three immediate implications:

- (i) The precise mass value of the  $Y$  resonance is

$$M(Y) = 9456 \pm 10 \text{ MeV} \quad (7.1)$$

where the error comes completely from the absolute energy calibration in the DORIS storage ring.

- (ii) The “resonance” curve is a Gaussian with the width

$$\Delta = 7.3 \pm 0.1 \text{ MeV} \quad (7.2)$$

which is quantitatively in agreement with the expectations for the energy spread of the DORIS beams at this central energy [705b]. This implies that the width of the  $Y$  is small, actually

$$\Gamma_{\text{tot}}^Y < 18 \text{ MeV (95\% c.l.)}. \quad (7.3)$$

This limit is significantly smaller than the usual widths of hundred MeV and more, found for resonances with Zweig allowed strong decays and large  $Q$  values. Thus the hypothesis of a  $q\bar{q}$  bound state is strongly supported by this result. We will come back to the determination of  $\Gamma_{\text{tot}}$  in section 7.4.

(iii) These results on  $M_Y$  and  $\Gamma_Y$  confirmed the interpretation that the broad  $Y$  bump in hadronic  $\mu$ -pair production was due to at least three narrow resonance states [701].

Within potential models for  $q\bar{q}$  bound states, masses of the constituent quarks can be defined and related to the bound state masses. For instance the Richardson potential [707], which yields an excellent description of the mass levels of the  $J/\psi$  and  $Y$  family, leads to a constituent quark mass of

$$m_b = 4883 \text{ MeV} . \quad (7.4)$$

### 7.3.2. Production cross section, electronic width and constituent charge

The electronic width of the  $Y$ ,  $\Gamma_{ee}$ , is proportional to the squares of the constituent quark electric charges  $e_q$ . It can be measured by the  $Y$  production cross section in  $e^+e^-$  collisions. There are two approaches for a quantitative relation of the electronic width of vector mesons to the quark charges. The first one is the Matveev, Shuminskii and Tavkhelidze formula [702]:

$$\Gamma_{ee} = \frac{16\pi\alpha^2}{M^2(Y)} |\psi(0)|^2 e_q^2 . \quad (7.5)$$

There are 2 unknown quantities in (7.5), the quark charge in question, and the  $q\bar{q}$  bound state wave function at the origin,  $|\psi(0)|^2$ . The latter can be calculated in potential models. There are, however, uncertainties in extrapolating the potential to the origin, and also substantial QCD radiative corrections, as pointed out by Celmaster [708] and Barbieri et al. [709]. The first order term (in  $\alpha_s$ ) modifies the r.h.s. of (7.5) by the factor  $(1 - 16 \cdot \alpha_s / 3\pi) \approx \frac{2}{3}$ . To some extent, one can avoid these problems by comparing the widths of the  $Y$  and of the  $J/\psi$  state, and by using a relation between their wave functions valid for a large class of potentials [710]. This yields the inequality

$$\Gamma_{ee}(Y) \geq \frac{e_q^2}{e_c^2} \cdot \frac{m_q}{m_c} \cdot \frac{M^2(J/\psi)}{M^2(Y)} \cdot \Gamma_{ee}(J/\psi) . \quad (7.6)$$

Another quantitative relation between  $e_q$  and  $\Gamma_{ee}$  of vector mesons has been derived from the conjecture of ‘new duality’ [711], according to which the ratio  $\Gamma_{ee}/e_q^2$  has the same value for all  $q\bar{q}$  ground states:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{e_q^2} \Gamma_{ee}(Y) &= \frac{9}{4} \Gamma_{ee}(J/\psi) = 9 \Gamma_{ee}(\phi) = 18 \Gamma_{ee}(\omega) = \frac{8}{4} \Gamma_{ee}(\rho) \\ &\simeq 12.2 \text{ keV} \quad (\text{average [722]}) . \end{aligned} \quad (7.7)$$

The electronic width was determined from the  $Y$  excitation cross section as plotted in fig. 7.3b versus the nominal machine energy. The cross section points are corrected for losses due to trigger conditions and off-line cuts which remove beam gas and QED background. These cuts are described in detail elsewhere [712, 713]. The most important cuts are that at least 60% of the CMS-energy is observed, and that events with more than 2 (observed) charged particles have at least 2 negative particles. The efficiencies  $\varepsilon$  have been determined using  $q\bar{q}$  simulated events for the continuum and electromagnetic decays of the  $Y$  ( $\varepsilon = 72\%$ ), and 3-gluon simulated events for the  $Y$  direct decays ( $\varepsilon = 89\%$ ). The difference in efficiencies, together with the uncertainties in the ratio of the electromagnetic to direct decays of the  $Y$  (determined from  $\sigma^{\text{on}}(e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-)$ , see section 7.4.1), add 7.5% to the systematic error of  $\Gamma_{ee}$ , which otherwise is dominated by the 5% uncertainty in the luminosity.

The excitation curve shown in fig. 7.3b is calculated from a superposition of the  $Y$  production cross section

$$\sigma_{\text{RES}}(e^+e^- \rightarrow Y \rightarrow \text{hadrons}) = \frac{12\pi M^2}{s} \cdot \frac{\Gamma_{ee} \cdot \Gamma_{\text{had}}}{(M^2 - s)^2 + \Gamma_{\text{tot}}^2 M^2} \quad (7.8a)$$

and the continuum cross section

$$\sigma_{\text{cont}}(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}) = R \cdot \sigma_{\mu\mu} \quad (7.8b)$$

by allowing for a beam energy spread according to eq. (7.2) and for radiation in the initial state [714]. In the fit of the resonance parameters of eqs. (7.8) to the cross section we eliminated the ratio  $\Gamma_{\text{had}}/\Gamma_{\text{tot}} = 1 - 3 \cdot B_{ee}$  by using  $B_{ee} = 2.2\%$  (see section 7.4). This leads to

$$\Gamma_{ee} = 1.33 \pm 0.14 \text{ keV} \quad (7.9)$$

together with  $R = 3.7 \pm 0.4$ .

Combining (7.9) and (7.7) we find

$$e_q^2 = 1/9.2 \quad (7.10)$$

with an uncertainty of  $\approx 25\%$ , in perfect agreement with the bottom charge  $e_b = -\frac{1}{3}$  (see also fig. 7.4a), and in clear disagreement with the top charge  $e_t = \frac{2}{3}$ . The inequality (7.6) leaves both charge values acceptable, even though  $e_q = \frac{2}{3}$  is marginal. Applying (7.6) to the electronic widths of  $\psi'$  [722] and  $Y'$ , as measured by the DHHM [715a] and the DASP II [715b] collaborations at DORIS, clearly rules out  $e_q = \frac{2}{3}$ . Fig. 7.4b shows  $\Gamma_{ee}(Y)$  vs.  $\Gamma_{ee}(Y')$  together with the lower bounds from (7.6).

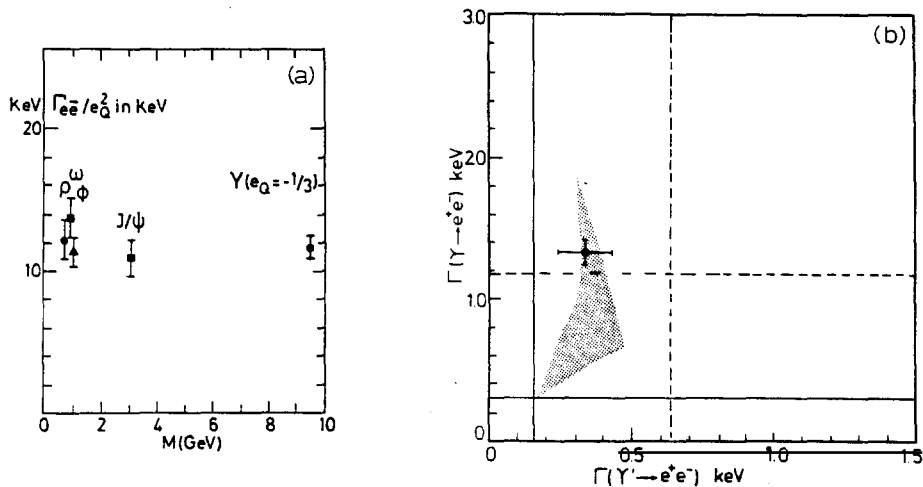


Fig. 7.4. (a) Reduced leptonic width  $\Gamma_{ee}/Q_q^2$  for vector meson ground states as a function of mass. (b) Lower bounds on  $\Gamma_{ee}$  for  $Y$  and  $Y'$  for quark charges 1/3 (full lines) and 2/3 (dashed). The shaded area indicates the charge 1/3 predictions of 20 different potential models. A comparison with the DORIS data shows good agreement with charge 1/3 and excludes 2/3.

In a completely model independent way the toponium hypothesis is finally ruled out by the total cross section in the continuum above the  $Y$  resonance region (see section 6.1), which excludes the threshold of  $\Delta R = \frac{4}{3}$  connected with open top production.

#### 7.4. Decay modes of the $Y$ , and the total width

From the previous discussion it is clear that the  $Y$  is produced in electromagnetic and in strong interactions. Correspondingly there will be strong ('direct') decays into hadrons ( $\Gamma_{\text{dir}}$ , fig. 7.2f) and electromagnetic decays into lepton pairs ( $\Gamma_\gamma(e, \mu, \tau)$ , fig. 7.2d) and into hadrons as well ( $\Gamma_\gamma(\text{hadrons})$ , fig. 7.2e). The events from electromagnetic  $Y$  decays have the same properties as those produced by  $e^+e^-$  annihilation outside the  $Y$  resonance (see fig. 7.2), and we have the relation  $\Gamma_\gamma^Y(\text{hadrons})/\Gamma_\gamma^Y(\mu\bar{\mu}) = \sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons})/\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu\bar{\mu}) \equiv R$ . The total width is then composed as follows

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma_{\text{tot}} &= \Gamma_\gamma(e, \mu, \tau) + \Gamma_\gamma(\text{hadrons}) + \Gamma_{\text{dir}}(\text{hadrons}) \\ &= 3 \cdot \Gamma_{ee} + R \cdot \Gamma_{ee} + \Gamma_{\text{dir}}.\end{aligned}\tag{7.11}$$

Supporting evidence for direct  $Y$  decays comes also from the fact that multihadron final states at  $Y$  energies show topological properties different from the nearby continuum (see section 7.5). A quantitative determination of  $\Gamma_{\text{dir}}$  (or  $\Gamma_{\text{tot}}$ ) is possible by a measurement of the electronic ( $B_{ee}$ ) or generally the leptonic branching ratio  $B_{\ell\ell}$  (we assume  $B_{ee} = B_{\mu\mu}$ ) which yields

$$\Gamma_{\text{tot}} = \Gamma_{ee}/B_{ee}\tag{7.12a}$$

$$\Gamma_{\text{dir}} = \Gamma_{ee}(B_{ee}^{-1} - (3 - R)).\tag{7.12b}$$

A measurement of the leptonic branching ratio  $B_{ee}$  is the key to  $\Gamma_{\text{dir}}$  and  $\Gamma_{\text{tot}}$ .

##### 7.4.1. The leptonic branching ratio

In the PLUTO experiment the branching ratio  $B_{ee}$  has been determined from the decays  $Y \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$  [716] and  $Y \rightarrow e^+e^-$  [717]. Details of the event analysis are given in section 4 and in [716, 717, 718]. In both reactions, the difference between the lepton pair cross section on the  $Y$  and the QED expectation was used to determine the  $Y$  contribution for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \ell^+\ell^-$ . The corresponding measurements in the nearby continuum with the same detector, under the same running conditions and with the same analysis chain were used to check and ensure agreement with the QED prediction. This is important since the difference between "on"  $Y$  and QED cross sections is marginal.

The  $\mu$  pair sample contains a total of 155 events, from which 9.5 events as due to cosmic background are statistically subtracted. The production angle distribution is shown in fig. 7.5. It agrees with the expected  $1 + \cos^2 \theta$  shape. The number of  $e^+e^-$  pairs from  $e^+e^- \rightarrow Y \rightarrow e^+e^+$  is very small as compared to the number of Bhabha events (2953 events in total, on the  $Y$ ). However in the backward direction an excess over the QED cross section is observed in the "on"  $Y$  range (fig. 7.6). The full curve is the first order QED cross section, modified by radiative corrections [719] and angular resolution. No such excess is observed in Bhabha scattering outside the  $Y$  (fig. 4.7a). The excess has been determined by fitting a  $1 + \cos^2 \theta$  term and the Bhabha shape to the data of fig. 7.6.

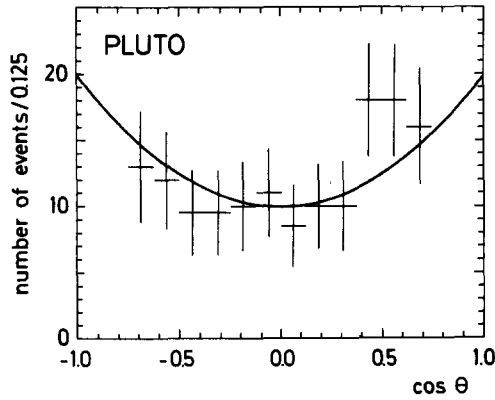


Fig. 7.5. Angular distribution for muon pairs produced in the upsilon region. Data on and off resonance are combined. The curve is proportional to  $1 + \cos^2 \theta$ .

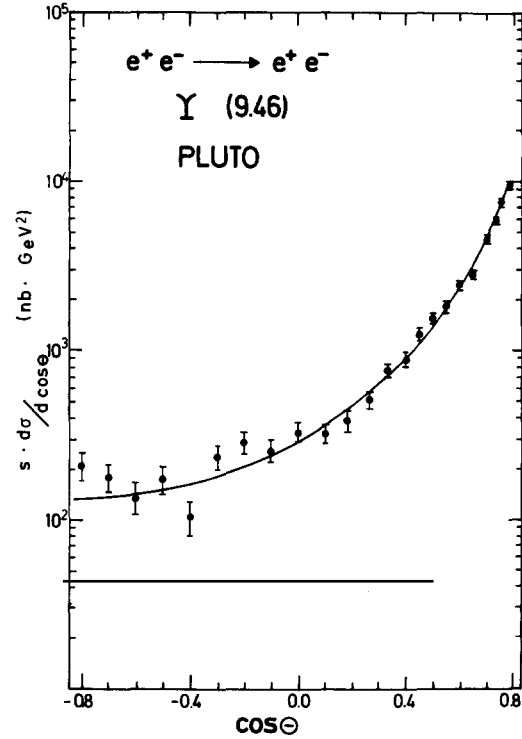


Fig. 7.6. The differential cross section  $s \, d\sigma/(d \cos \theta)$  for reaction  $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-$  on the resonance ( $9.45 \leq E_{\text{cm}} \leq 9.465$ ). The full curve is the QED part including the effects of radiation and of finite angular resolution. The dashed curve also includes the direct decay  $Y \rightarrow e^+e^-$ .

In an energy interval from 9.450 to 9.465 GeV, which corresponds to  $2 \cdot \Delta$  according to eq. (7.2), the average excess cross sections are

$$\sigma(ee \rightarrow Y \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-) = (0.25 \pm 0.22) \text{ nb} \quad (7.13a)$$

$$\sigma(ee \rightarrow Y \rightarrow e^+ e^-) = (0.59 \pm 0.34) \text{ nb} . \quad (7.13b)$$

Dividing by the average excess total cross section  $\bar{\sigma}_{\text{tot}}^Y = \bar{\sigma}_{\text{had}}^Y + 3 \cdot \bar{\sigma}_{ee}^Y$ , where  $\sigma_{\text{had}}$  is shown in fig. 7.3b, we find the branching ratios

$$B_{\mu\mu} = (2.2 \pm 2.0)\% \quad (7.14a)$$

$$B_{ee} = (5.1 \pm 3.0)\% \quad (7.14b)$$

or the average leptonic branching ratio

$$B_{\ell\ell} = (3.1 \pm 1.7)\% . \quad (7.14)$$

#### 7.4.2. The fraction of direct hadronic decays

Even though the result for  $B_{ee}$  is only marginally different from zero, it allows safe conclusions on the

existence of direct  $Y$  decays. The relative share of direct decays in the observed hadronic decay modes is

$$\frac{\Gamma_{\text{dir}}}{\Gamma_{\text{had}}} = \frac{1 - (3 + R)B_{\ell\ell}}{1 - 3B_{\ell\ell}} = 0.87 \pm 0.05 \quad (7.15)$$

when using  $R = 3.7$ .

The multihadron final states, the details of which we will describe in section 7.5, are thus dominated by direct decays.

#### 7.4.3. The total width of the $Y$

The total width  $\Gamma_{\text{tot}}$  depends critically on the leptonic branching ratio (7.12a), and only if  $B_{\ell\ell}$  is significantly different from zero, a finite value for  $\Gamma_{\text{tot}}$  can be inferred. For this purpose we combine the PLUTO result (7.14) with the two other DORIS results which are close to a 2 s.d. significance, from the DASP II [720] and the LENA [721] experiment to  $B_{\ell\ell} = (3.25 \pm 0.90)\%$ , and similarly the leptonic widths to  $\Gamma_{\ell\ell} = 1.30 \pm 0.10$  keV. The very recent results from CESR [753] ( $B_{\ell\ell} = (3.5 \pm 0.8)\%$ ) lead to a world average of  $B_{\ell\ell} = (3.4 \pm 0.6)\%$ . These values yield

$$1/\Gamma_{\text{tot}} = 0.026 \pm 0.005 \text{ keV}^{-1} \quad (7.16a)$$

$$\Gamma_{\text{tot}} = 38_{-6}^{+10} \text{ keV} \quad (7.16b)$$

$$\Gamma_{\text{dir}} = 30_{-6}^{+10} \text{ keV} . \quad (7.16c)$$

This shows that the  $Y$  is indeed a narrow state with a total width comparable to the  $63 \pm 9$  keV [722] of the  $J/\psi$ .

#### 7.4.4. $\Gamma_{\text{dir}}$ and the QCD scale parameter $\Lambda$

Direct  $Y$  decays proceed through the emission of gluons, as indicated for instance in fig. 7.2, g and h. Their widths are therefore directly proportional to some power of  $\alpha_s$  given by the number of hard gluons involved in the  $b\bar{b}$  annihilation step. Non-perturbative effects which originate from the confinement of the initial  $b\bar{b}$  state are described by the – unknown –  $b\bar{b}$  ground state wave function,  $\psi(0)$ , as in (7.5). In the ratio of different decay widths, however,  $\psi(0)$  cancels. If the decays involve different numbers of gluons their ratio allows for a very clean and sensitive determination of  $\alpha_s$  or  $\Lambda$ , respectively.

In lowest order QCD the ratio (see fig. 7.2, g and h)

$$\frac{\Gamma_{3g}}{\Gamma_{\gamma gg}} = \frac{5}{36} \frac{\alpha_s(M^2)}{\alpha e_b^2} \quad (7.17)$$

has been calculated [704a, f, g]. This relation cannot be used here, however, since no evidence for the  $\gamma gg$  transition has been found [712], in consistency with the expected small value of 0.03 for  $\Gamma_{\gamma gg}/\Gamma_{3g}$ . Furthermore, the method by which  $\Gamma_{\text{dir}}$  has been measured does not render any evidence that  $\Gamma_{\text{dir}}$  can be identified with  $\Gamma_{3g}$ .<sup>†</sup> As we will see in section 7.5 the topological properties of the observed events are

<sup>†</sup> The width  $\Gamma_{\gamma gg}$  is also part of  $\Gamma_{\text{dir}}$ , but is small enough to be completely ignored in this discussion.



completely consistent with the 3 gluon decay mode (fig. 7.2g), but experimentally we cannot exclude substantial contributions from other decays, e.g. through more than 3 gluons.

This latter uncertainty is less relevant once the next to leading order calculation of the ratio [723a, 708, 709]

$$\frac{\Gamma_{\text{dir}}(\alpha_s^4)}{\Gamma_{ee}(\alpha_s)} = \frac{10}{81} \frac{\pi^2 - q}{\pi e_b^2 \alpha^2} \cdot \alpha_s^3(M^2) \left[ 1 + \frac{\alpha_s(M^2)}{\pi} \left\{ -14.0 + \frac{3}{2} \beta_0 \left( 1.85 + \ln \frac{M}{M_Y} \right) \right\} \right]_{\overline{\text{MS}}} \quad (7.18)$$

with  $\alpha_s$  and  $\beta_0$  as given by (6.4) is used, where  $\Gamma_{\text{dir}}(\alpha_s^4)$  includes decays into 3 and into 4 gluons. The correction to the leading order prediction as given in the  $\overline{\text{MS}}$  scheme amounts to  $\sim 40\%$  for  $M = M_Y$  and 4 flavours. The coefficient, however, depends on the choice of the mass scale  $M$ , and happens to vanish for  $M = 0.48M_Y$  [723a]. The results on  $\alpha_s$  and  $\Lambda$ , however, depend only weakly on the choice of  $M$ , as we will see below. Assuming that even higher order corrections are not larger than present experimental errors we can use the measured value

$$\Gamma_{\text{dir}}/\Gamma_{ee} = 23_{-5}^{+8} \quad (7.19)$$

as derived from (7.16c) and (7.9) to determine  $\alpha_s$  from (7.18), and  $\Lambda$  through (6.4). Using  $M = M_Y$  and  $M = M_Y/3$  [723b] as extreme choices for the relevant mass scale we find

$$\alpha_s(M_Y^2) = 0.142_{-0.011}^{+0.013} \quad \Lambda = 125_{-45}^{+60} \text{ MeV} \quad (7.20a)$$

$$\alpha_s((M_Y/3)^2) = 0.175_{-0.015}^{+0.020} \quad \Lambda = 100_{-30}^{+50} \text{ MeV}. \quad (7.20b)$$

The values for  $\alpha_s$  found here in the  $Y$  decay are in remarkable agreement with those found from the 3-jet cross section in  $e^+e^-$  annihilation (see section 6.3.3). The value of the QCD scale parameter  $\Lambda$  is rather insensitive to the choice of the mass scale  $M$  already in the next to leading order expression, and is in good agreement with an average value from deep inelastic lepton hadron scattering ( $\Lambda = 160_{-60}^{+100}$  MeV [755]), and is also consistent with the first measurement of the photon structure function  $F_2^{\gamma}$  [852] as described in section 8.7.

#### 7.4.5. The $C$ -parity forbidden decay $Y \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$

From the analysis described in section 4, and the data shown in fig. 4.6c we can infer an upper limit on the branching ratio of this forbidden decay of

$$B_{\gamma\gamma}^Y < 1.4\% \quad (95\% \text{ c.l.}). \quad (7.21)$$

### 7.5. Topological properties of direct $Y$ decays – Search for 3-gluon decay

A visual inspection of  $Y$  events makes clear that 3-jet events are not the dominant topological pattern. This is not really surprising since already more than 3 GeV per jet are necessary to make “visible” 2-jet events in  $e^+e^-$  annihilation. At  $Y$  energies therefore the lowest energetic jet in general will not be energetic enough to form a visible jet.

The distribution of the gluon energies, and of the angles between them can be calculated from the matrix element for  $Y \rightarrow 3g$  [704]. The notation for the massless gluon kinematics is explained in figs. 7.7a, b, and also the 3-gluon Dalitz plot. The expected distributions of the 3 ordered relative gluon energies ( $x_1 \geq x_2 \geq x_3$ ) are shown in fig. 7.7d. On the average we expect  $\langle x_3 \rangle = 0.39$ , corresponding to  $k_3 = 1.84$  GeV, which is clearly below the threshold for jet formation. Also, the opening angle  $\theta_1$  between the 2 lower energetic gluons is not always large enough to allow for a spatial separation of two jets.

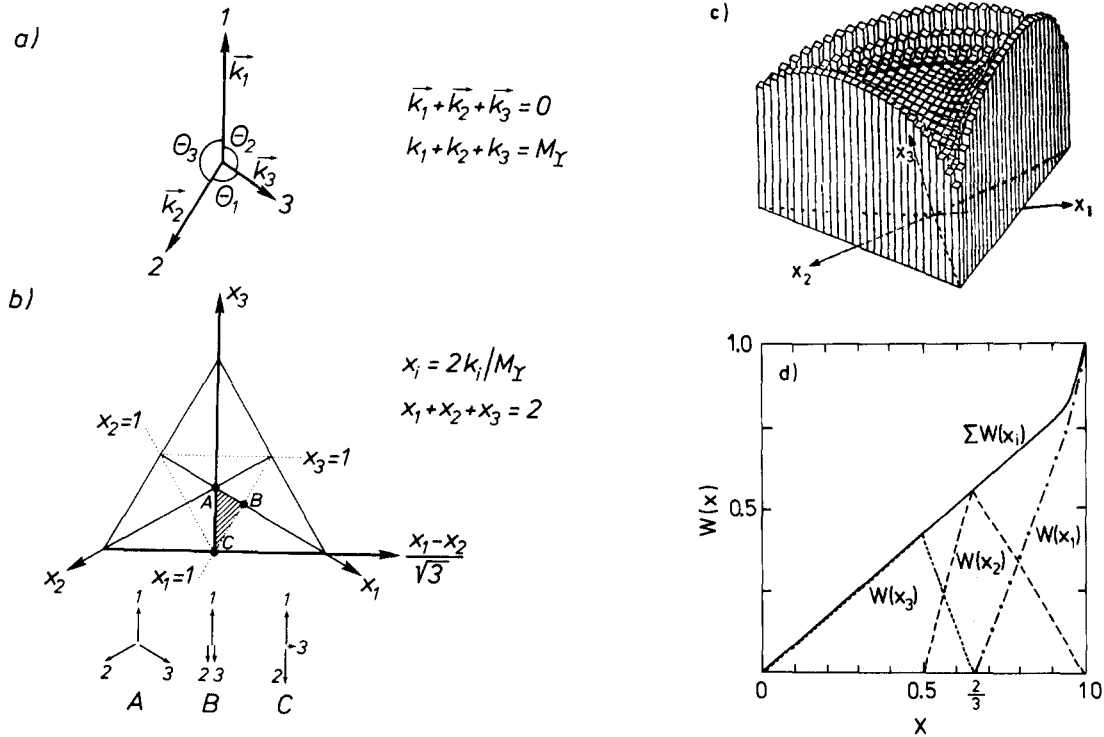


Fig. 7.7. (a) Quantities used to describe the  $Y$  decay into 3 massless quanta in the  $Y$  rest frame. (b) Dalitz plot of the gluon energies. Momentum conservation limits the populations to the dotted triangle. By ordering  $x_1 \geq x_2 \geq x_3$  they are further restricted to the shaded area. (c) Dalitz plot density for the  $Y$ -decay into 3 vector gluons (or a photon and 2 vector gluons), before ordering of  $x_i$ . (d) Ordered energy distribution of the individual gluons in  $Y \rightarrow ggg$ .

The average value  $\langle \cos \theta_1 \rangle = 0.26$  corresponds to  $75^\circ$ . For both of these reasons, a potential 3-jet pattern can degrade to a ‘soft’ 2-jet pattern. The kinematic situation which is most favourable for the formation of 3 jets, namely that all 3 gluons emerge with about the same energy ( $x_1 \sim x_2 \sim x_3 \sim \frac{2}{3}$ ,  $\theta_1 \sim \theta_2 \sim \theta_3 \sim 120^\circ$  at the Dalitz plot center) is expected for only a very small fraction of the events (see fig. 7.7c, d).

Therefore, in searching for evidence for a 3-gluon decay of the  $Y$ , we look for 3 and 2 jet structures, and for coplanar and collinear event shape properties, respectively. To this end we compare the measured  $Y$  direct decays with simulated 3-gluon (“3G”) decays<sup>†</sup>, with phase space (“PS”) events as to give the reference points for events without any topological structure, and with  $q\bar{q}$  2-jet events measured in the nearby continuum (“9.4 GeV”) or simulated (“FF”).

We use the eigenvalues  $Q_i$  of the momentum tensor (see section 6.3.1) to measure collinear (2-jet) and coplanar (3-jet) correlations (section 7.5.2) and also the linear jet measures thrust and triplicity to search for 2-jet and 3-jet pattern in the direct  $Y$  decays (section 7.5.3). The results reported here come from an analysis which included charged particles, and neutral particles with an electromagnetic shower [712, 724]. Results from a previous analysis of charged particles only can be found in ref. [725].

### 7.5.1. The direct decay sample

To follow up this program, we have prepared a sample of events representing the  $Y$  direct decays. The sample of hadron events “on” the  $Y$  has contributions from the continuum (fig. 7.2b) and from the

<sup>†</sup> The gluons were fragmented like quarks in this simulation (see section 3.9.2).

$Y$  (fig. 7.2c), via its electromagnetic (fig. 7.2e) and direct (fig. 7.2f) decays. The two former contributions are monitored by the  $\mu$  pair production rate, “on” (figs. 7.2a and 7.2d) and “off” (fig. 7.2a) the  $Y$  energy, through the relation  $N_{\gamma}^{\text{had}} = b N^{\mu\mu}$  with the same factor  $b$  on and off the resonance ( $b = R$  if acceptance is corrected for). The number of direct decays  $N_{\text{dir}}^{\text{had}}$  can then be obtained from the number “on” the  $Y(N_{\text{on}}^{\text{had}})$  and from events measured “off” the  $Y(N_{\text{off}}^{\text{had}})$  by the relation

$$N_{\text{dir}}^{\text{had}} = N_{\text{on}}^{\text{had}} - \frac{N_{\text{on}}^{\mu\mu}}{N_{\text{off}}^{\mu\mu}} N_{\text{off}}^{\text{had}}. \quad (7.22)$$

In the PLUTO data  $N_{\text{on}}^{\mu\mu}/N_{\text{off}}^{\mu\mu} = 1.32 \pm 0.24$  was measured. Since hadronic final states from the continuum and from the electromagnetic  $Y$  decays have identical properties, eq. (7.22) can also be used to produce subtracted distributions representing the direct decays.

In the following analysis, only events with at least 4 charged tracks were used. This additional cut (see section 7.3.2) leaves  $N_{\text{on}} = 1781$  events ( $9.450 < W < 9.466$  GeV), and  $N_{\text{off}} = 442$  events ( $9.25 < W < 9.422$  GeV), yielding

$$N_{\text{dir}}^Y = 1198 \text{ events}. \quad (7.23)$$

In other words, 2 out of 3 hadron events of our data sample on the  $Y$  are due to direct  $Y$  decays.

### 7.5.2. Event shape in momentum space

Using the eigenvalues  $Q_i$  derived from the momentum tensor (section 6.3.1), we can describe the deviation from extreme collinear jet shapes ( $Q_1 = Q_2 = 0$ ) by sphericity  $S$ , and the deviation from extreme planarity ( $Q_1 = 0$ ) by flatness  $F$  [726] which is the excentricity of the momentum components perpendicular to the sphericity axis:

$$F = \frac{Q_2 - Q_1}{Q_2} = 1 - \frac{\sum p_{\perp\text{out}}^2}{\sum p_{\perp\text{in}}^2}. \quad (7.24)$$

Here the sum runs over all tracks of an event. The index ‘out’ labels the direction out of the (2,3)-plane, and the index ‘in’ labels the direction in that plane and perpendicular to the sphericity ( $i = 3$ ) axis. We also consider the ratio of the linear sums  $\sum |p_{\perp\text{out}}| / \sum |p_{\perp\text{in}}|$  ( $= p_{\text{out}}/p_{\text{in}}$ , in short), in this case with respect to the triplicity plane, and the most energetic triplicity vector. Table 7.1 summarizes the results for the

Table 7.1  
Observed mean values for topological measures relating to  $Y$  direct decays, from 9.4 GeV continuum data, and from various MC models. The errors of the data are statistical, while those of the models indicate the systematic uncertainties

Event type	Sphericity $S$	Flatness $F$	$p_{\text{out}}/p_{\text{in}}$	Thrust $T$	Triplicity $T_3$	$x_1$	$\theta_3$ (degree)
PS (MC)	0.50	0.60	0.56	0.69	0.84	0.83	146
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
3G (MC)	0.39	0.63	0.55	0.72	0.86	0.86	151
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
$Y$ (data)	0.415	0.632	0.548	0.732	0.870	0.862	151.0
	8	9	7	4	1	2	0.5
9.4 GeV (data)	0.277	0.673	0.498	0.808	0.910	0.909	158.5
	8	9	8	4	2	3	0.6
FF (MC)	0.28	0.65	0.52	0.80	0.90	0.90	159
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Table 7.2  
Average observed flatness in several sphericity intervals

Sphericity	Flatness		
	PS	Y	3G
0.9-0.6	$0.58 \pm 0.01$	$0.60 \pm 0.02$	$0.62 \pm 0.01$
0.6-0.3	$0.61 \pm 0.01$	$0.62 \pm 0.01$	$0.64 \pm 0.01$
0.3-0.0	$0.63 \pm 0.01$	$0.67 \pm 0.02$	$0.63 \pm 0.01$

respective average values, from  $Y$  direct decays and continuum data, and from the 3 models. Note that the PS and 3G events are generated with the same (charged) multiplicity as the direct  $Y$  decays, and FF events and 9.4 GeV data have a lower multiplicity (see section 7.6.1).

The sphericity of the  $Y$  decays shows a significant collinear correlation effect, i.e. a clear difference to the phase space value. The associated 2-jet character is softer, however, than in  $q\bar{q}$  events. There is good agreement between the sphericity values from the 3G model events and the  $Y$  decays.

The flatness of the  $Y$  decay is only slightly larger than the PS value, indicating at most a very small planar correlation. The linear ratio of  $p_{\text{out}}/p_{\text{in}}$  is even closer to the PS value. Whether this indication is real can be checked further by looking at events with large sphericity since 3-jet events, if they exist, should concentrate at larger sphericity than 2-jet events. In table 7.2 we show the flatness in three sphericity intervals, for  $Y$  decays, 3G and PS events. The flatness of  $Y$  events, however, does not grow significantly, relative to the PS values, when going from small to large sphericities.

A larger flatness than in phase space events, is a necessity for a 3-jet pattern. The obvious lack of such a correlation in  $Y$  decays, however, cannot be considered as evidence against the 3-gluon decay mode. This can be seen from the flatness values of the simulated 3G events. They agree perfectly with the  $Y$  decay data.

The event shape analysis of the  $Y$  direct decays in terms of the  $Q_i$  eigenvalues thus renders clear evidence for a 2-jet character which is weaker than for off resonance events. No planar correlations are observed in  $Y$  decays. The topological features can however be well understood as the result of a 3-gluon decay mode with subsequent fragmentation.

### 7.5.3. Jet formation: Thrust and triplicity analysis

A possible 3-jet character of the  $Y$  decays can also be investigated by attempting to reconstruct jets directly. We use thrust ( $T$ ) and triplicity ( $T_3$ ) maximization for 2-jet and 3-jet construction, respectively. The values of  $T$  and  $T_3$  (with  $T \leq T_3$  by definition) then allow, in principle, to separate 2-jet and 3-jet and other (e.g. spherical) events as sketched in fig. 7.8a. The separation is efficient at energies high enough for 2-jet and 3-jet formation, as can be seen in fig. 7.8c which shows the  $T_3$  vs.  $T$  scatter plot for  $q\bar{q}$ , 3G and PS events generated at  $W = 30$  GeV. At  $Y$  energies, unfortunately, 3G events do not populate areas different from PS or  $q\bar{q}$  events (fig. 7.8b). The loss of separability is not due to imperfections of the detector since in these plots we used MC events before submission to the detector. It is rather due to the strength of the fragmentation effects. In fig. 7.9 we compare the  $T_3$ - $T$  correlation from  $Y$  decays to PS and 3G simulated events after detector. To ease a quantitative evaluation we show  $\langle T_3 \rangle$  vs.  $\langle T \rangle$ , in several thrust intervals. The  $Y$ , PS and 3G points fall on a common curve. This means that no 3-jet structure is revealed by the triplicity method in our data from the  $Y$  decay.

The only jet structure that is observed in this analysis is a collinear 2-jet structure. In fig. 7.10 we show the (observed) thrust distributions (a) for  $Y$  decays, 3G and PS, and (b) for 9.4 data and  $q\bar{q}$  MC. The  $Y$  thrust distribution lies “between” the respective continuum and phase space distributions, and is

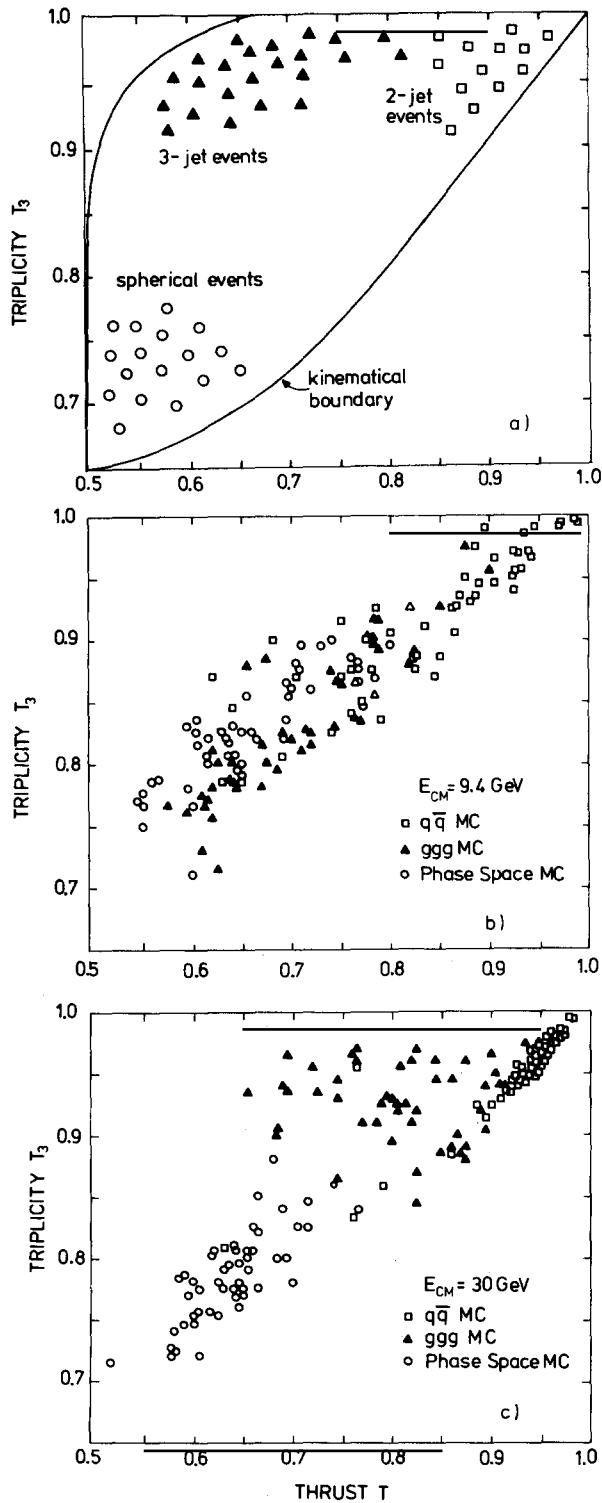


Fig. 7.8. Scatter diagrams of triplicity ( $T_3$ ) versus thrust ( $T$ ). (a) schematic, and from MC simulations at  $W = 9.4$  GeV (b), and at  $W = 30$  GeV (c).

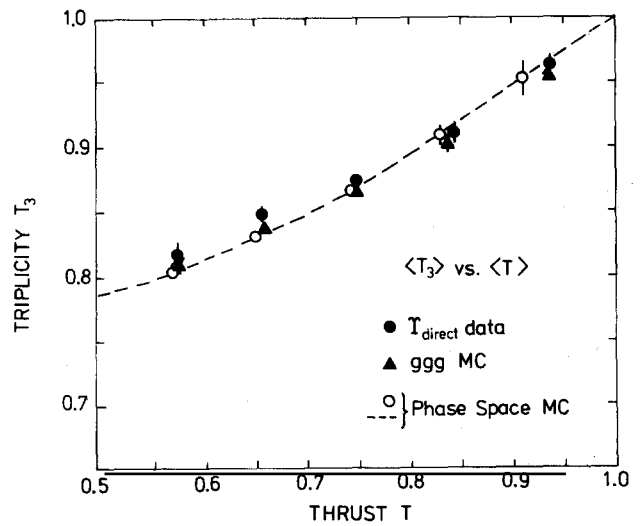


Fig. 7.9. Scatter diagram of average triplicity versus average thrust for the  $\Upsilon$  direct decay data and various models.

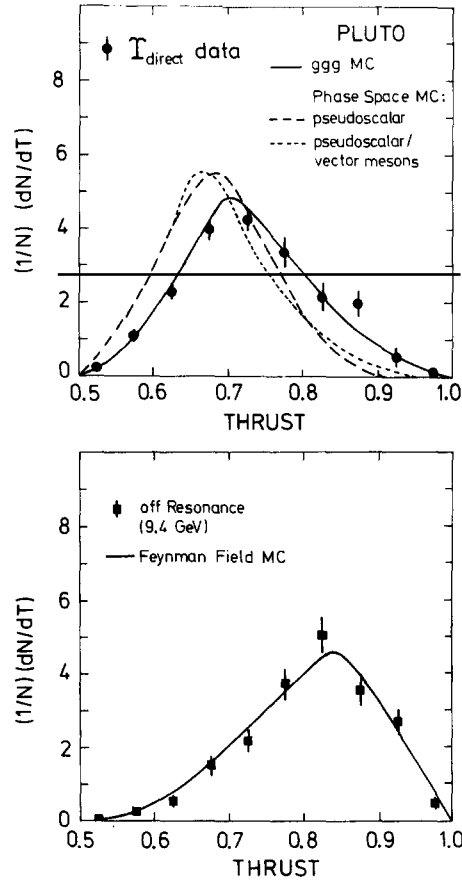


Fig. 7.10. Distributions of observed thrust for  $Y$ -direct (a) and off-resonance events (b) compared to various Monte Carlo models.

significantly different from either one as is evident from the thrust average values in table 7.1. This clearly demonstrates that the  $Y$  direct decay mechanism does not proceed through a  $q\bar{q}$  intermediate state, but still imposes a non-trivial kinematic correlation on the final state topology. In fig. 7.10a we observe a perfect agreement with the three-gluon decay mechanism.

Because of the good agreement between  $Y$  decay data and 3G model we can use the model events to study the effects of hadronization and detector resolution and acceptance on the correlation between original gluon kinematics and reconstructed jet quantities. These studies show [712, 724], that the measured thrust distribution (fig. 7.10) can be corrected for detector effects, but not for hadronization, and that the thrust direction is close enough to the original most energetic gluon such that the thrust angular distribution can be corrected for both, detector and hadronization effects. Fig. 7.11 shows the corrected experimental thrust distribution. The dotted line indicates the thrust prediction at the parton (3-gluon) level, where  $T = x_1$  (see fig. 7.7d). If the  $Y$  decays entirely via the 3-gluon mode the difference between the data points and the curve comes from gluon hadronization. Hadronization at  $Y$  energies obviously deforms the original parton structure considerably. The average thrust corrected for detector effects is

$$\langle T \rangle = 0.73 \pm 0.01. \quad (7.25)$$

Fig. 7.12 shows the angular distribution of the thrust axis corrected for detector *and* hadronization effects. It is consistent with the prediction for vector gluons (solid line), and is inconsistent with the

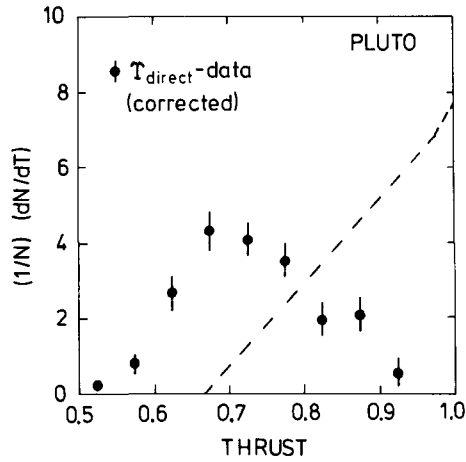


Fig. 7.11. Corrected thrust distribution for the  $Y$  direct decay. The dotted curve indicates the thrust predicted at the 3-gluon level.

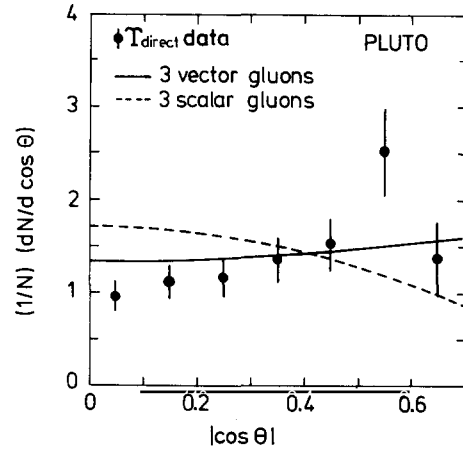


Fig. 7.12. Distribution of  $|\cos \theta|$ , corrected for detector and hadronization effects.  $\theta$  is the angle between the thrust axis and the beam axis. The curves are predicted for  $Y$ -decay into 3 vector or 3 scalar gluons, resp.

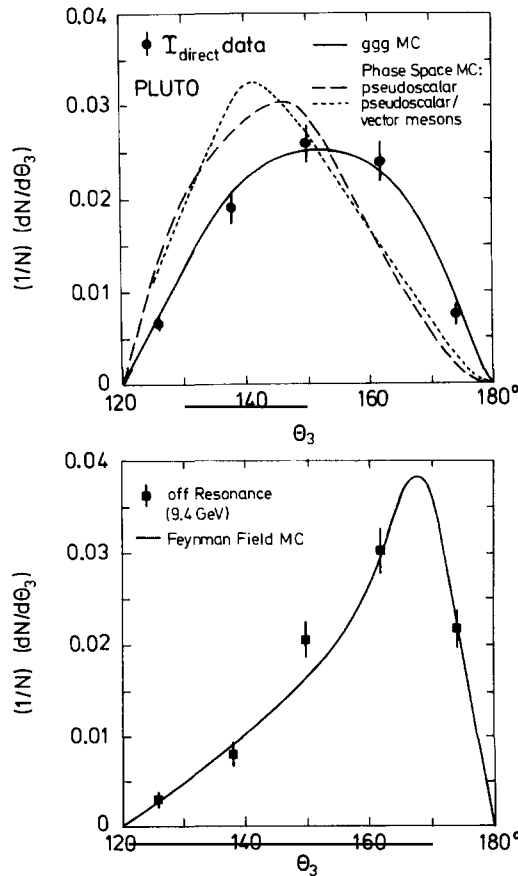


Fig. 7.13. Distribution of the reconstructed angle  $\theta_3$  between the two most energetic triplicity jets for  $Y$ -direct and off-resonance data compared to various Monte Carlo models (uncorrected).

prediction of scalar gluons [727] (dashed line). This result provides clear evidence against scalar gluons.

Also, the parton quantities  $x_1$  and  $\theta_3$  (see fig. 7.7a) on the average are clearly correlated with the corresponding values determined from the triplicity vectors. Table 7.1 gives the average values from data and model expectations. In fig. 7.13 we show the  $\theta_3$  distribution. Again, the data and the three gluon decay model agree very well. Further distributions of triplicity related variables are given in refs. [724, 728].

The 3-gluon Monte Carlo studies also show that at  $Y$  energies hadronization destroys the information of the 3-gluon plane such that in general it cannot be recovered from the triplicity vectors. Therefore the orientation of the triplicity plane cannot be used to check the gluon spin assignment [729].

## 7.6. Inclusive single particle properties

Here we describe some differences of  $Y$  and continuum events in terms of properties of single charged tracks<sup>†</sup> [730] and neutral short lived kaons.

### 7.6.1. Multiplicity of charged tracks

According to predictions [704a, e, h, j] one expects from 3-gluon hadronization a higher charged track multiplicity than from  $q\bar{q}$  hadronization, because 3 jets should give more hadrons than 2 jets (at same total energy), and also since gluons have larger colour charge than quarks (by factor 9/4) gluons should produce jets with more hadrons, than quarks do at the same jet energy. Using the formulae of [704a] to extrapolate the measured continuum multiplicities of fig. 6.24 to the  $Y$  decay kinematics we obtain

$$\langle n_{\text{CH}} \rangle_{\text{ggg}}^Y \sim 8-12. \quad (7.26a)$$

The average charged multiplicity for  $Y$  direct decays measured by PLUTO [712] is

$$\langle n_{\text{CH}} \rangle_{\text{dir}}^Y = 8.2 \pm 0.1 \quad (7.26b)$$

close to the lower margin of the expectations which corresponds to the assumption that gluons fragment like quarks. The rise with respect to the nearby continuum value,  $\langle n_{\text{CH}} \rangle^{\text{off } Y} = 7.5 \pm 0.1$  (see section 6.4.2) is

$$\Delta n = 0.7 \pm 0.2. \quad (7.26c)$$

The LENA experiment [754] observed a rise of  $\Delta n = 0.55 \pm 0.19$ . The much larger rise of  $\Delta n \sim 5$  corresponding to the upper margin in (7.26a) is expected if parton energies were sufficient for clear 3-jet formation.

### 7.6.2. Momentum distributions

A change in multiplicity implies a change in the average particle momenta. In table 7.3 we compare the average values of continuum and  $Y$  events [725, 726] for  $p_{\perp}$ ,  $p_{\parallel}$  (w.r.t. thrust), and  $p_{\text{out}}$  (w.r.t. the acoplanarity plane), and the slope parameter  $B$  of a fit [713] to the inclusive charged particle momentum spectrum by

$$d\sigma/dx = A \cdot \exp\{-B \cdot x_p\}. \quad (7.27)$$

<sup>†</sup> Neutral pions are not included since resolving of single neutral pions is difficult to achieve.



Table 7.3  
Properties of charged particle momenta (observed) with  
statistical errors

data type	$B$	$\langle p_{\parallel} \rangle$ MeV/c	$\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$ MeV/c	$\langle p_{\text{OUT}} \rangle$ MeV/c
PS (MC)	10.7	0.58	0.47	0.177
	1	1	1	6
3G (MC)	8.9	0.55	0.38	0.140
	2	1	1	6
$Y$ data	10.9	0.49	0.34	0.129
	3	1	1	3
9.4 GeV data	7.8	0.62	0.33	0.118
	2	2	1	3
FF (MC)	7.8	0.72	0.32	0.115
	1	1	1	2

The average values in table 7.3 are not corrected for detector and event selection effects. Also, the values for  $B$  come from an event sample selected differently than the one used for  $\langle p_{\parallel} \rangle$ ,  $\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$  and  $\langle p_{\text{OUT}} \rangle$ . Nevertheless these quantities allow an interesting comparison of  $q\bar{q}$  continuum events and direct  $Y$  decays:

(i)  $\langle p_{\perp} \rangle$  with respect to the thrust axis in  $Y$  direct decays is not larger than in continuum events, and  $\langle p_{\text{out}} \rangle$  is not smaller than in the continuum. This reflects the result from the topological investigations (see section 7.5) that no planar  $Y$  decays are observed.

(ii)  $\langle p_{\parallel} \rangle$  in  $Y$  decays is significantly smaller than in continuum, and similarly the momentum distribution slope parameter  $B$  in (7.27) is significantly larger. The smaller single particle momenta, together with an unchanged  $p_{\perp}$ , are the reason for the softer 2-jet  $Y$  topology observed in section 7.5.

For completeness we also include the corresponding values from the three models in table 7.3. It is obvious that the single charged particle properties of the  $Y$  are less well reproduced than the topological event quantities in table 7.1, by the 3G model used here.

### 7.6.3. Inclusive $K_s^0$ production

Since the  $Y$  direct decays proceed through a mechanism for hadronization different from  $q\bar{q}$  fragmentation it is interesting to compare the flavour content of  $Y$  decays with continuum events and with  $Y$  hadronization models. The PLUTO experiment has measured the  $K_s^0$  production [731]. Fig. 7.14 shows the  $K^0$  momentum distribution, corrected for  $K^0$  detection efficiency, off the  $Y$  (a) and for  $Y$  direct decays (b). The  $Y$  direct distribution falls off faster than the continuum. Either  $K^0$  distribution has a shape similar to the respective inclusive distributions of charged particles. Also for charged particles the inclusive momentum distribution is steeper for  $Y$  direct decays than in the continuum, as indicated by the slope parameters  $B$  in table 7.3. For the  $K^0$  yield we find the ratios

	$Y$ direct	continuum	
$K_s^0$ per event	$0.97 \pm 0.22$	$0.73 \pm 0.16$	(7.28)
$K_s^0$ per charged track	$0.12 \pm 0.03$	$0.10 \pm 0.02$	

The share of  $K$ 's among final state particles obviously is very similar in direct  $Y$  decays and in  $q\bar{q}$  jets at  $Y$  energy, even though the parton processes are very different. The expectation for the inclusive  $K^0$

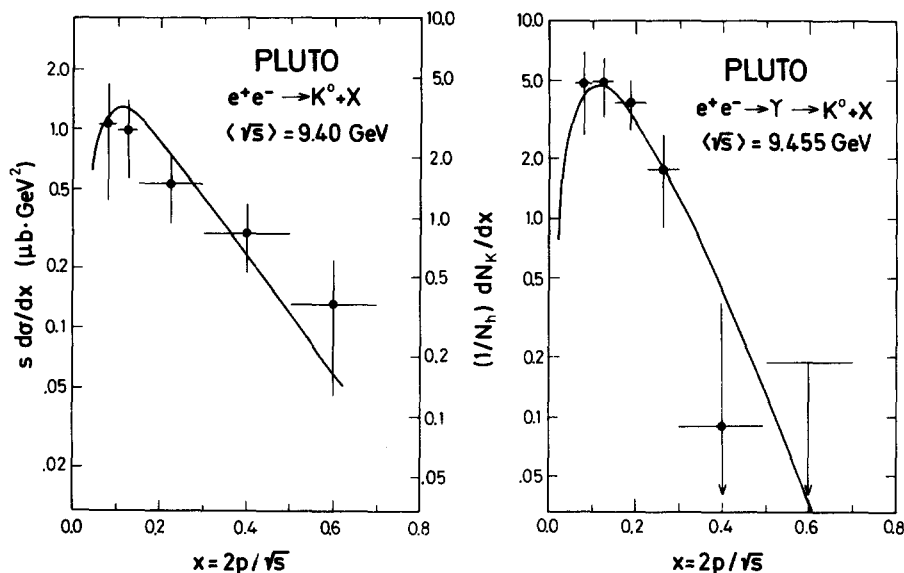


Fig. 7.14. (a) Inclusive  $K^0$  production in the continuum at  $\sqrt{s} = 9.4$  GeV with  $\sigma(K^0) = 2\sigma(K^*_0)$ . The right scale shows the  $K^0$  yield per hadronic event  $(1/N_h)(dN_K/dx)$ . The curve indicates the Lund model prediction [732]. (b) Yield per  $Y$ -event,  $(1/N_\gamma)(dN_K/dx)$  for the  $Y$ -direct decays after background subtraction. The curve represents the Lund model prediction of a  $Y \rightarrow 3$ -gluon decay model.

distribution from the Lund model [732] for a 3-gluon hadronization is shown as solid curve in fig. 7.14b. It agrees in shape and rate with the experimental result.

### 7.7. Summary and conclusions for $Y$ (9.46)

- (1) The charge of the  $Y$  constituent quarks is  $|e_b| = \frac{1}{3}$ .
- (2) The  $Y$  is a narrow state, with  $\Gamma_{\text{tot}} = 38^{+10}_{-6}$  keV.
- (3)  $87 \pm 5\%$  of the hadronic  $Y$  decays are due to non-electromagnetic ('direct') decays.
- (4) The topology of the direct decays is significantly different from  $q\bar{q}$  final states. A decay through colourless gluons  $b\bar{b} \rightarrow g \rightarrow q\bar{q}$  is ruled out.
- (5) The  $Y$  topology is also significantly different from a structureless topology as simulated by phase space.
- (6) The direct decays show a soft 2-jet character, but neither a distinct 3-jet pattern nor a planar topology. This is expected from a study of simulated  $Y$  decays as the consequence of a 3-gluon decay mechanism with a subsequent quark-like hadronization of the gluons. At the  $Y$ , energies are too low for the formation of three separated jets.
- (7) The angular distribution of the thrust axis agrees with the expectation for a decay into 3 vector gluons, and clearly rules out the possibility of a decay into 3 scalar gluons.
- (8) The observed increase in charged track multiplicity of  $\Delta n = 0.7 \pm 0.2$  for the  $Y$  is lower than expectations from QCD.
- (9)  $K^0$ 's are produced with the same fraction relative to charged particles in  $Y$  direct decays and in continuum events. Inclusive  $K^0$  and charged particle momentum distributions are similar in shape for  $Y$  direct decays.

### 7.8. $J/\psi$ and $\psi'$ resonances

Briefly after the discovery of the  $J/\psi$  [733] and the  $\psi'$  [734] resonances in 1974, their excitation was also measured by experiments [735, 736] at the DORIS storage ring which was just brought into operation. Fig. 7.15 shows the increase of multiprong counts in the PLUTO hardware trigger, from the first measurements made at all with the PLUTO detector, in late fall 1974. From later measurements of the cross section for  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$  (see fig. 7.16), the masses  $M$  and the electronic widths  $\Gamma_{ee}$  have been determined [737], using eq. (7.7) and the ratios  $\Gamma_{\text{had}}/\Gamma_{\text{tot}}$  [722]:

	$M$ (MeV)	$\Gamma_{ee}$ (keV)	
$J/\psi$	$3091 \pm 3$	$5.3 \pm 0.6$	(7.29)
$\psi'$	$3686 \pm 4$	$1.9 \pm 0.2$	

The error in the masses comes from the uncertainty in the DORIS absolute energy calibration of 0.1% at  $J/\psi$  and  $\psi'$  energies. Mass and width values are consistent with results from SPEAR [738], and the masses agree with the DASP measurement [739]. The electronic width  $\Gamma_{ee}(J/\psi)$  corresponds to an electric charge of  $e_q = \frac{2}{3}$  for the constituent quarks (see fig. 7.4a) in agreement with the charm flavour assignment.

There is an impressive amount of results on  $J/\psi$  and  $\psi'$  multiprong decay modes [722], mainly from the SLAC-LBL (MARK I) and the Crystal Ball collaboration. The PLUTO experiment has contributed one new decay mode, the radiative decay  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f$  [740]. In the following subsections we briefly review the topological properties of  $J/\psi$  and  $\psi'$  multiprong decays, and describe the analysis of the decay  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f$ . Other PLUTO results on  $J/\psi$  decays can be found in [740, 741].

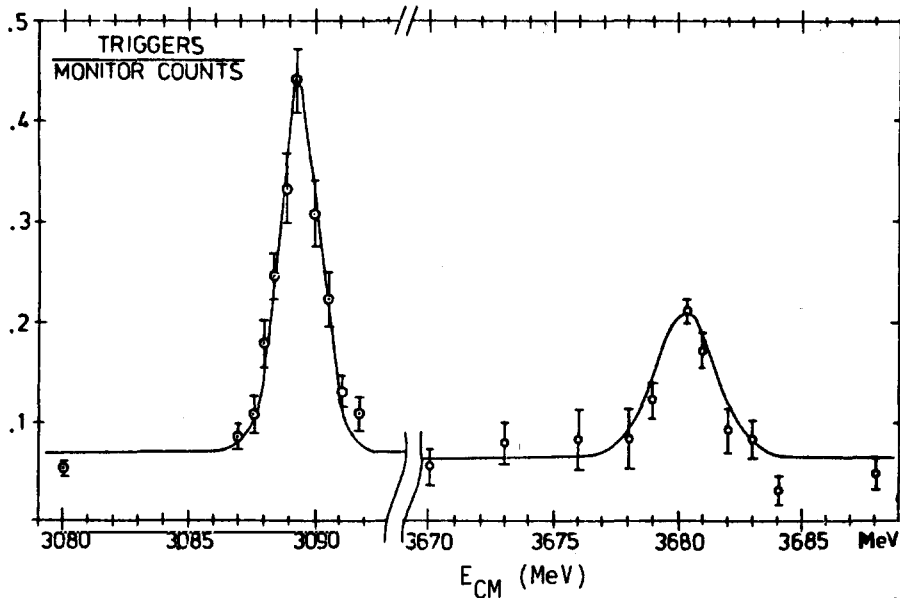


Fig. 7.15. Excitation of  $J/\psi$  and  $\psi'$  resonances as of December 1974. Curves indicate the resolution of beam energies.

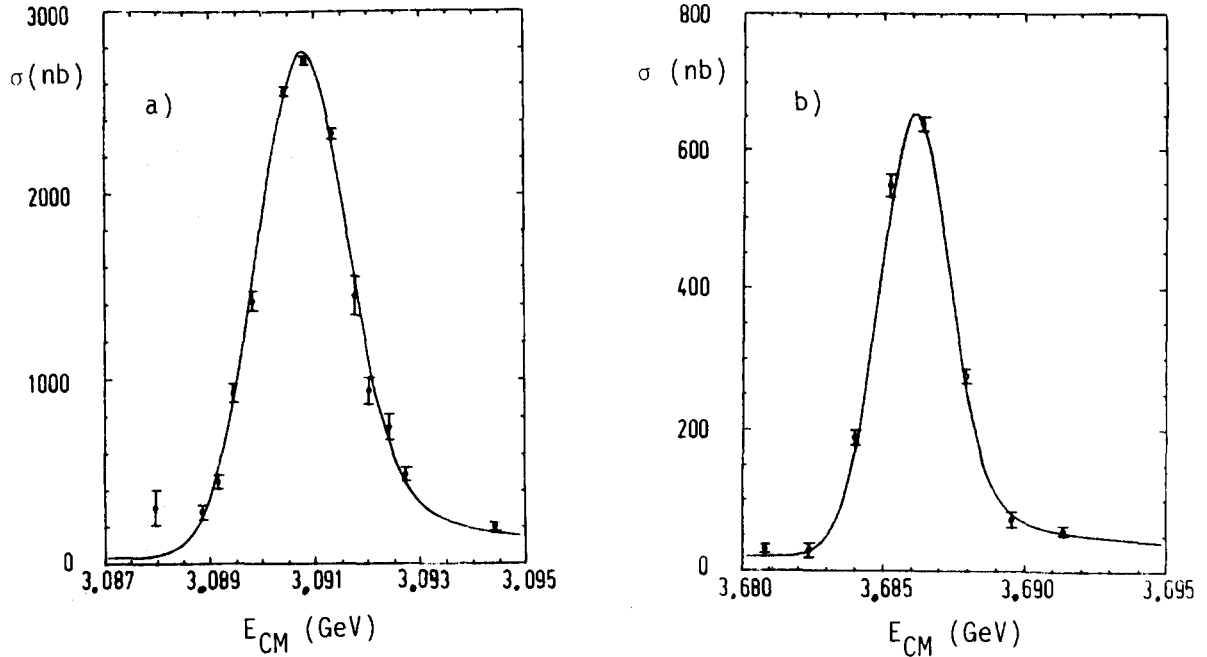


Fig. 7.16. Cross section for  $J/\psi$  (a) and  $\psi'$  (b) excitation, corrected for acceptance. For resonance parameters see eq. (7.30).

### 7.8.1. Topological decay properties

The  $J/\psi$  decays into hadrons proceed mainly (83%) in a non-electromagnetic (direct) mode as can be inferred from the leptonic branching ratio  $B_{ee}$  [722]. The  $J/\psi$  hadronic multiprong decays however show no jet structure at all. The average thrust and sphericity values agree with the phase space expectation (see fig. 6.13), and also with the continuum data at these energies. Also the average charged track multiplicity shows no difference on and off  $J/\psi$ , whereas for  $\psi'$  it is slightly larger [737]:

$\langle n_{CH} \rangle$	$J/\psi$	$\psi'$
on	$3.6 \pm 0.1$	$4.3 \pm 0.1$
off	$3.6 \pm 0.1$	$3.7 \pm 0.1$

(7.30)

The increase on the  $\psi'$  can be understood quantitatively as an effect of the large branching ratio for the decay mode  $\psi' \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^- J/\psi$  (BR = 33%). Therefore it is clear that global topological quantities do not provide a handle for tests on  $J/\psi$  decay mechanisms, e.g. like the 3-gluon or the radiative 2-gluon decay as expected by QCD (see fig. 7.2). Exclusive channels, however, can allow for some checks of QCD expectations, as described in the next subsection.

### 7.8.2. The decay rate $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f$

This radiative decay was found in the PLUTO experiment [740], and also measured by DASP [742]. It has a surprisingly large branching ratio of  $0.20 \pm 0.07\%$ , similar in size to the 0.3% for the branching ratio of the hadronic decay  $J/\psi \rightarrow \omega f$  [722, 741b]. Events of the type  $\pi^+ \pi^- \gamma$  were searched for in a total of 84000 hadronic  $J/\psi$  decays by selecting charge balanced 2-prong events with photon conversion

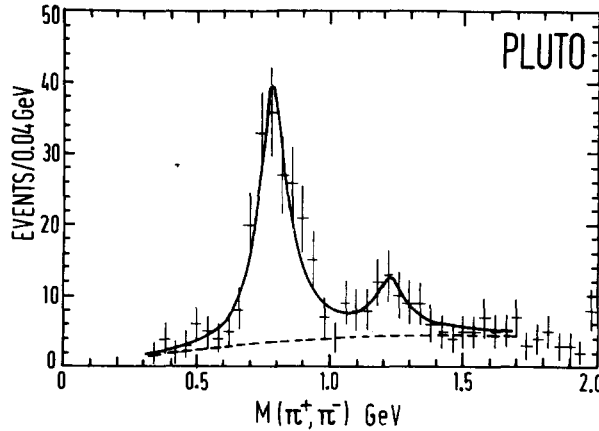


Fig. 7.17.  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f$  decay. The  $M(\pi^+\pi^-)$  distribution, excluding events lying in the  $\rho^\pm$  mass bands. The solid line represents the best fit to the data and the dashed curve is the estimated background.

visible in the track chambers, and passing a 3 constraints fit to the hypothesis  $e^+e^- \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\gamma$ . According to MC studies a fraction (21%) of the decays  $J/\psi \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\pi^0$  is accepted by these criteria, and the majority of the accepted events is on that account. The effective  $\pi^+\pi^-$  mass distribution (fig. 7.17) shows a prominent  $\rho^0$  peak, and a clear  $f(1270)$  peak. Since C parity conservation does not allow for  $\rho^0\gamma$  and  $f\pi^0$  final states we observed  $J/\psi \rightarrow \rho^0\pi^0$  and  $\gamma f$  decays in these events, with the following branching ratios:

	Events	BR (%) (corrected for other decay modes)	
$J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f$	$35 \pm 10$	$0.20 \pm 0.07$	(7.31)
$\gamma f'$		$< 0.023$ (90% c.l.)	
$\rho^0\pi^0$	$183 \pm 16$	$1.6 \pm 0.4$	

The large branching ratio for  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f$  fits nicely into the QCD picture for radiative decays as indicated in the diagrams in fig. 7.18. Lacking a quantitative prediction for the width due to diagram (a) when 2 gluons mediate the transition  $c\bar{c} \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ , one expects here a larger contribution than from diagrams (b) and (c), where either (b) 3 gluons (strong decay) or (c) one photon (electromagnetic decay) are required. In fact the branching ratios for the latter two mechanisms, where the photon is radiated from the  $q\bar{q}$  quarks can be estimated by vector meson dominance relations. For the isospin conserving 3-gluon

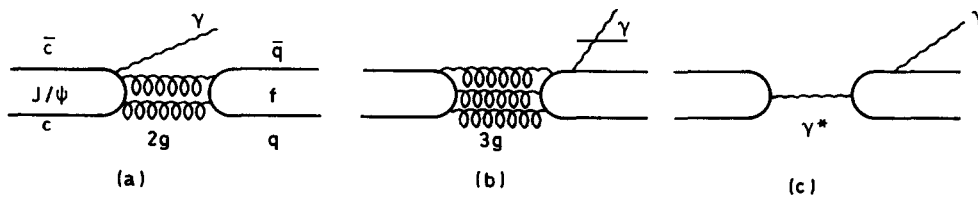


Fig. 7.18. Diagrams for the  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f$  decay, with photon emission before (a) and after the  $c\bar{c} \rightarrow q\bar{q}$  transition (b, c).

model (fig. 7.18b) we use  $B(J/\psi \rightarrow \omega f) = 0.29 \pm 0.07\%$  [722] to get

$$B(J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f, "3g") = 4 \times 10^{-6} \quad (7.32a)$$

and for the isospin not conserving electromagnetic (fig. 7.18c) mode we use  $B(J/\psi \rightarrow \rho f) < B(J/\psi \rightarrow 4\pi) = 0.4 \pm 0.1\%$  [743] to get

$$B(J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f, "\gamma") \leq 2 \times 10^{-5} . \quad (7.32b)$$

The observed rate is more than 100 times larger than the estimates for these mechanisms, confirming qualitatively the expectation based on gluon counting. The observed branching ratio is similar to those found for the radiative decays  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma\eta, \gamma\eta'$  [722] which may proceed in an analogous way.

Applying kaon masses to the 2-prong events we have also searched for the decay  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f' (K^+K^-)$ . No resonance signal was found. The upper limit on the branching ratio is included in (7.31). The ratio  $B(J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f')/B(J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f) < 0.12 \pm 0.05$  seems to deviate from a value of 0.5 expected for a  $SU_3$  pure singlet mixing of  $q\bar{q}$  with  $c\bar{c}$  states (diagram (a) of fig. 7.18) in an unbroken  $SU_3$  model [744]. This observation was confirmed by DASP [745] and has been discussed further in [746].

### 7.8.3. $f$ polarization

The process  $e^+e^- \rightarrow J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f$  has 3 independent  $f$  helicity amplitudes  $A_0, A_1$  and  $A_2$ . Their relative sizes, say  $x = A_1/A_0$  and  $y = A_2/A_0$ , fix the  $f$  polarization. They have been calculated for the 2-gluon transition (fig. 7.18a) [747], allowing for a further check of this mechanism. Very similar predictions follow, however, also from other assumptions, e.g. from a tensor meson dominance model (TMD) [748], which gives however no prediction for the rate, or from an electromagnetic transition [749] which conflicts with the observed rate. The predictions are shown in fig. 7.19.

The two quantities  $x, y$  can be measured from the  $f$  production and decay angular distribution [750]

$$\begin{aligned} W(\delta_P, \delta_M, \phi_M) \propto & 3x^2 \sin^2 \delta_P \sin^2 2\delta_M + (1 + \cos^2 \delta_P) [(3 \cos^2 \delta_M - 1)^2 + \frac{3}{2}y^2 \sin^4 \delta_M] \\ & - \sqrt{3}x \sin^2 2\delta_P \sin 2\delta_M (3 \cos^2 \delta_M - 1 - \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}y \sin^2 \delta_M) \cos \phi_M \\ & + \sqrt{6}y \sin^2 \delta_P \sin^2 \delta_M (3 \cos^2 \delta_M - 1) \cos 2\phi_M , \end{aligned} \quad (7.33)$$

$\delta_P = \angle(f, e^+)$  in  $e^+e^-$  CMS

$\delta_M, \phi_M =$  polar and azimuthal  $\pi^+$  angles in the helicity frame of the  $\pi^+\pi^-$  system.

The analysis is described in more detail in ref. [740b,c]. Fig. 7.19 shows a plot of constant  $\chi^2$  contours as determined from the one-dimensional projections  $W(\cos \delta_P)$ ,  $W(\cos \delta_M)$  and  $W(\phi_M)$ , in the  $x$ - $y$  plane. The minimum ( $\chi^2 = 26$  for 25 constraints) at

$$\begin{aligned} A_1/A_0 &= 0.6 \pm 0.3 \\ A_2/A_0 &= 0.3_{-1.6}^{+0.6} \end{aligned} \quad (7.34)$$

is in good agreement with the prediction for the 2-gluon transition.

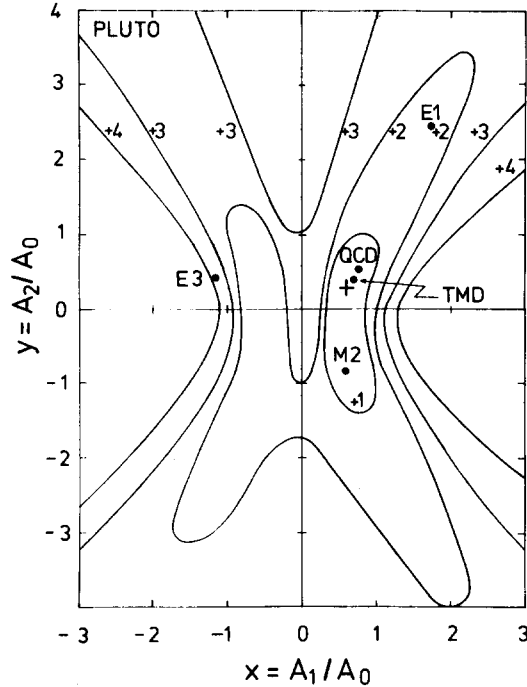


Fig. 7.19. Equal  $\chi^2$  contours drawn in the  $x = A_1/A_0$ ,  $y = A_2/A_0$  plane obtained from the fit to the  $e^+e^- \rightarrow J/\psi \rightarrow f\gamma \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-\gamma$  process. The crossed point is the minimum value. The predicted QCD and TMD points are taken from refs. [747] and [748]. The expected values for pure E1, M2 and E3 multipole radiation transitions are also shown.

In summary, the  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma gg$  decay mode provides a plausible explanation for the large  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f$  (1270) branching ratio, and is in agreement with the  $f$  polarization.<sup>†</sup> However, the branching ratio for  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma f'$  (1515) seems to be smaller than expected from simple  $SU_3$  arguments in this picture.

## 8. Photon-photon interactions

High energy  $e^+e^-$  storage rings provide an effective tool for studying photon-photon interactions [801–810]. The fast moving electrons are surrounded by a Lorentz-contracted Coulomb field, equivalent to a flux of photons (of energy  $\omega$ ) which rises with the energy  $E$  like [800]

$$N(\omega) d\omega = \frac{2\alpha}{\pi} \frac{d\omega}{\omega} \ln \frac{E}{m_e}. \quad (8.1)$$

At PETRA energies the photon fluxes are sufficiently large to produce a sizeable rate of hadronic events, which in fact is comparable to the one originating from the one-photon annihilations.

Compared to hadron-hadron interactions the photon-photon collisions show several interesting features:

<sup>†</sup> Evidence for the  $J/\psi \rightarrow \gamma gg$  transition has also been observed in the inclusive photon energy distribution by the SLAC-LBL MARK II collaboration [751], and very recently by the Crystal Ball experiment [752] in exclusive final states (glue ball candidates).

1. The  $C$ -parity of two photon system is positive, so that the production of  $C$ -even mesons (like the  $f^0$ ) can be studied free of background from  $C$ -odd states ( $\rho^0$ , etc.).
2. The linear polarization of both interacting photons can be varied by fixing the  $e^+$  and  $e^-$  scattering planes.
3. Most important, the ‘virtuality’  $Q^2$  of both photons can be varied with the electrons’ kinematics, thus allowing a more complete investigation of the  $\gamma\gamma$  dynamics than for other elementary particles.
4. Particle production in  $\gamma\gamma$  collisions can be viewed as the dissociation of one photon into a pair of charged particles like leptons, pions and, most interesting, quarks, and the investigation of the created particles with the help of the second photon. In the case of hadron production, the variation of the kinematics allows a continuous survey from the low- $Q^2$  regime, which is expected to be dominated by the scattering cross section between extended vector mesons (VDM), to the higher momentum transfers which first probe the structure of the vector mesons and eventually of quasi-free quark–antiquark states. The cross section in the latter regime is predictable from perturbative QCD [811, 813], and should therefore allow fundamental checks of the theory.

It should also be noted that the short-distance domain of partons and QCD is not only reachable with highly virtual photons, but also with quasi-real ones, provided high transverse momenta are selected in the final state [814, 815]. In contrast to high- $p_\perp$  hadron–hadron interactions such  $\gamma\gamma$  processes proceed in a ‘pure’ mode without any spectator particles present, again providing clean tests of QCD.

### 8.1. Kinematics

This section briefly describes the relation between the observed reaction,

$$e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-X, \quad (8.2a)$$

and the processes of interest, namely inelastic electron–photon scattering

$$e\gamma \rightarrow eX, \quad (8.2b)$$

and photon–photon interactions

$$\gamma\gamma \rightarrow X. \quad (8.2c)$$

The kinematical variables and the relevant diagram† are shown in fig. 8.1a. The incident  $e^+$  and  $e^-$  (all called ‘electrons’) are colliding head-on with equal (high relativistic) energies. ‘X’ is taken to be a hadronic state.

The squared mass  $q_i^2$  (virtuality) of the photons is given by

$$q_i^2 = (p_i - p'_i)^2 = -4EE'_i \sin^2 \theta_i/2 - m^2 \omega_i^2/EE'_i \quad (i = 1, 2) \quad (8.3a)$$

with

$$\omega_i = E - E'_i \quad (i = 1, 2) \quad (8.3b)$$

† Hadron production through one virtual photon (fig. 8.1b) is assumed to be suppressed by the kinematics, and neglected here.



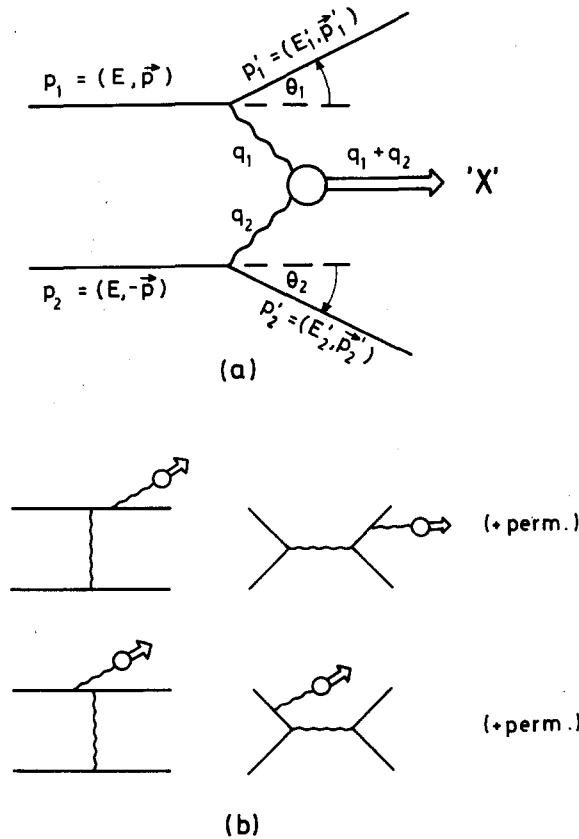


Fig. 8.1. (a) Photon photon diagram with notations for four vectors and laboratory variables. (b) 'Compton' or 'bremsstrahlung' diagrams.

the laboratory photon energies, and  $m$  the electron mass. The notation

$$Q^2 = -q_1^2 \tag{8.3c}$$

will be often used.

The invariant mass  $W$  of the hadron system  $X$  is given by

$$W^2 = (q_1 + q_2)^2 = 4\omega_1\omega_2 - 4E'_1E'_2 \sin^2(\theta_{12}/2) \tag{8.4}$$

with  $\theta_{12}$  being the angle between  $p'_1$  and  $-p'_2$ .

The inclusive cross section for reaction (8.2a) can either be expressed in terms of eight structure functions of the photon [808–810], or more conventionally through eight total cross sections for hadron production by two polarized virtual photons (8.2c), each multiplied with complicated kinematical factors (see [807] and appendix 8A). The extraction of the  $\gamma\gamma$  cross sections with the help of approximated kinematical factors has been extensively discussed in the literature [805–807, 809, 810, 812, 816–819]†.

† With unpolarized electrons only six cross sections can be separated.

It was first pointed out and exploited by the PLUTO group [820–822] that the analysis is particularly simple for experiments in which one of the scattered electrons is measured ('single tag'), and the other one confined to very small scattering angles† ('anti-tag'):

$$\theta_2 \leq \theta_2^{\max} \ll 1. \quad (8.5)$$

If  $\theta_2^{\max}$  is small enough, the anti-tag condition forces the second photon to be very close to real (eq. (8.3)), transverse, and on average unpolarized. Reaction (8.2a) can then be considered inelastic electron scattering off a beam of quasi-real photons (8.2b), with only *two* structure functions contributing.

Similar to Hand's electroproduction formula [824] the e–e cross section  $d\sigma_{ee}$  can be expressed in terms of the cross sections  $\sigma_t$  for transverse and  $\sigma_\ell$  for longitudinal virtual photons colliding with real ones:

$$d\sigma_{ee} = \Gamma_t dE'_1 d\Omega_1 \{\sigma_t + \varepsilon\sigma_\ell\} \cdot N(\omega_2, \theta_2^{\max}) d\omega_2. \quad (8.6)$$

Here  $\Gamma_t$  and  $\varepsilon$  are the flux and polarization of the first photon, and  $N(\omega_2, \theta_2^{\max})$  is the flux of the second one [812, 822]:

$$\Gamma_t dE'_1 d\Omega_1 = \frac{\alpha}{2\pi^2} \frac{1}{|q_1^2|} \frac{E'_1}{E} \left( \frac{E^2 + E_1'^2 \cos^4(\theta_1/2)}{E - E_1' \cos^2(\theta_1/2)} - \frac{2m^2\omega_1}{|q_1^2|} \right) dE'_1 d\Omega_1 \quad (8.7)$$

$$\varepsilon = 2EE'_1 \cos^2(\theta_1/2) / (E^2 + E_1'^2 \cos^4(\theta_1/2)) \quad (8.8)$$

$$N(\omega_2, \theta_2^{\max}) d\omega_2 = \frac{\alpha}{\pi} \frac{d\omega_2}{\omega_2} \left( \frac{E^2 + E_2'^2}{E^2} \ln \frac{2EE_2' \sin(\theta_2^{\max}/2)}{m\omega_2} - \frac{E_2'}{E} \right). \quad (8.9)$$

Equations (8.6–8.9) are valid not only for small angles  $\theta_1$  of the first electron [819], but for *all*  $\theta_1$ , provided the condition

$$|q_2^2| \ll W^2 \quad (8.10)$$

is fulfilled. Appendix 8A will give a short derivation†† and an estimate showing that, within plausible dynamical assumptions, the neglected longitudinal contributions are indeed very small.

A straightforward integration of (8.6) over  $\theta_1$  leads to the important case of 'double anti-tagging'†††

$$d\sigma_{ee} = \sigma_t \cdot N(\omega_1, \theta_1^{\max}) d\omega_1 \cdot N(\omega_2, \theta_2^{\max}) d\omega_2 \quad (8.11)$$

with the spectra of the two colliding quasi-real photon beams given by (8.9).

If the final state consists of a resonance of mass  $M$ , spin  $J$ , and the widths  $\Gamma_t$ ,  $\Gamma_{\gamma\gamma}$  and  $\Gamma$  respectively for the decay into the detected final state, two photons, and all final states, the cross section is given by [825]

† By covering *all* angles  $> \theta_2^{\max}$  with electron detectors.

†† The more complicated two-term formula for differential cross sections has been derived in ref. [823].

††† For simplicity the notations 'untagged' and 'no-tag' will also be used for the double anti-tagged events.

$$\sigma_t = 8\pi (2J + 1) \frac{\Gamma_{\gamma\gamma} \cdot \Gamma_t}{(W^2 - M^2)^2 + \Gamma^2 M^2}. \quad (8.12)$$

For investigations of deep inelastic  $e\gamma$  scattering it is more convenient to express the cross section in terms of the structure functions of the photon (see e.g. [826])

$$\begin{aligned} F_t(x, Q^2) &= \frac{Q^2}{8\pi^2\alpha} \frac{\sigma_t}{x}; & F_1 &= F_t \\ F_\ell(x, Q^2) &= \frac{Q^2}{4\pi^2\alpha} \sigma_\ell; & F_2 &= F_\ell + 2xF_t \end{aligned} \quad (8.13)$$

with the scaling variables

$$\begin{aligned} x &= -q_1^2/2(p_1q_2) = Q^2/(Q^2 + W^2) \\ y &= (q_1q_2)/(p_1q_2) = 1 - (E_1/E) \cos^2(\theta_1/2). \end{aligned} \quad (8.14)$$

The  $e\gamma$  cross section reads

$$\frac{d\sigma(e\gamma \rightarrow eX)}{dx dy} = \frac{16\pi\alpha^2 E\omega_2}{Q^4} \{(1-y) F_2(x, Q^2) + xy^2 F_1(x, Q^2)\}. \quad (8.15a)$$

For small  $y$  which dominate in the bremsstrahlung process one measures essentially  $F_2$ :

$$\frac{d\sigma(e\gamma \rightarrow eX)}{dx dy} \approx \frac{16\pi\alpha^2 E\omega_2}{Q^4} (1-y) F_2(x, Q^2). \quad (8.15b)$$

## 8.2. Selection of $\gamma\gamma$ events

The trigger acceptance for  $\gamma\gamma$  events includes the following classes

- (1) 'no-tags' (no signal  $\geq 4$  GeV in LAT or SAT) together with  $\geq 2$  'long opposite tracks' in the central detector ( $\cos \theta < 0.63$ ,  $|\Phi_1 - \Phi_2| > 94^\circ$ ,  $p_\perp > 350$  MeV/c);
- (2) 'single tags' ( $\geq 4$  GeV in LAT or SAT) together with  $\geq 1$  long (see above) and  $\geq 1$  'short' track ( $|\cos \theta| < 0.87$ ,  $p_\perp > 100$  MeV/c). In part of the experiment only one short track was required;
- (3) 'double tags' ( $\geq 4$  GeV for one and  $\geq 1.5$  GeV for the other scattered electron) together with  $\geq 1$  short track or a minimum shower signal in the barrel.

All events with  $\geq 2$  reconstructed tracks originating from the vicinity of the beam line ( $\pm 15$  mm) are considered  $\gamma\gamma$  candidates. The separation of  $\gamma\gamma$ , annihilation, and background events is based on the measurement of the vertex coordinate  $z$  along the beam ( $z = 0$  marks the interaction point as determined from Bhabha scattering), and the total (charged + neutral) energy  $E_{\text{vis}}$  measured in the calorimeter-like central detector. The  $z$  distribution of the candidates (fig. 8.2; 12 GeV data after cosmic rejection) shows a pronounced beam-beam signal on top of a flat background. The net beam-beam signal is obtained by subtracting from the central region the background as inferred from equivalent side bins. Fig. 8.3 gives the energy distribution of all events from the central  $z$  region, of the net

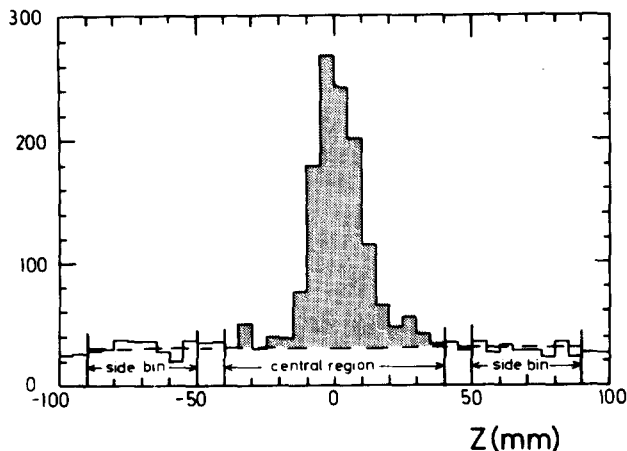


Fig. 8.2. Vertex distribution along the beam axis, showing the regions used for background subtraction. Shaded area is the net beam-beam signal.

beam-beam signal, and of the subsample of tagged events. At high energies the one-photon annihilation events produce a broad peak with negligible background. The low-energy peak consists partly of beam-gas background, but to a larger fraction of  $\gamma\gamma$  events (shaded area). The subsample of the tagged events (hatched) also peaks at low energies, in agreement with the interpretation.

Fig. 8.3 demonstrates that it is possible to analyse  $\gamma\gamma$  events even in the untagged mode. The main

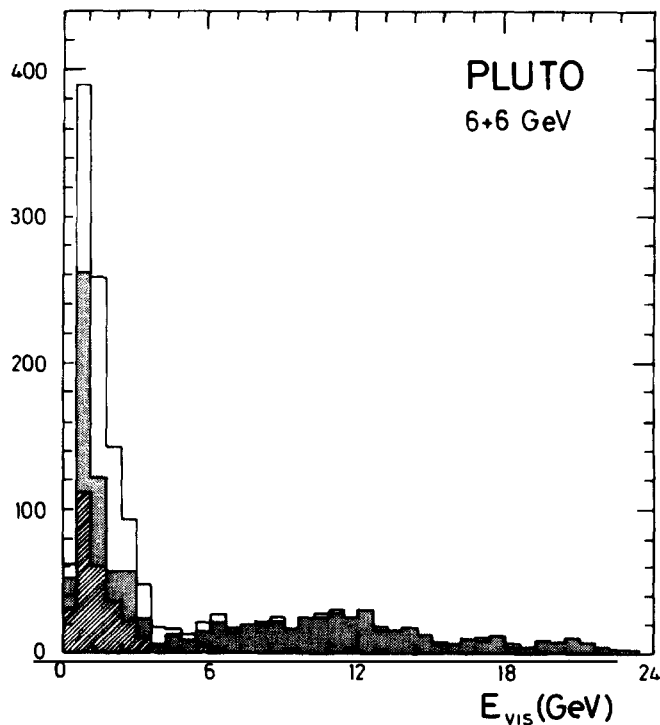


Fig. 8.3. Distribution of the observed energy for all events of the 'central region' (fig. 8.2), and the subclasses of all beam-beam events (shaded) and the tagged beam-beam events.

results for the two-prong class (section 8.3) have indeed been obtained from untagged (more precisely: from doubly anti-tagged) events. Hadron production, as described in sections 8.4 and 8.6, has been measured in the single tag (= 'single tag \* anti-tag') mode.

### 8.3. Production of lepton and hadron pairs

Two-particle production by two photons is interesting for several reasons:

1. The production of  $\mu^+\mu^-$  and  $e^+e^-$  pairs can be calculated in QED. The measurement checks QED calculations of order  $\alpha^4$ .

2. The reaction  $\gamma\gamma \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-$  sets the scale for 'point-like' particle production in the investigation of  $\gamma\gamma \rightarrow q\bar{q} \rightarrow 2$  jets. For high transverse momenta the quarks are expected to appear point-like, and the ratio of both cross sections to approach a constant [814].

3. The production of low-energy  $\pi^+\pi^-$  pairs is sensitive to  $\pi-\pi$  phase shifts in even angular momentum states [803], and in particular measures the  $\gamma\gamma$  coupling of  $C$ -even mesons like the  $f^0$ .

The dominant two-body channels are  $e^+e^-$  and  $\mu^+\mu^-$  pairs. Non-resonant pion pair production is expected to contribute less than 10% of the total muon yield [809]. The production of  $\pi^+\pi^-$  resonances however should show up as peaks above the smooth, QED predicted distribution of invariant two-body masses.

A clean sample of anti-tagged events was obtained from the data taken at  $E_B \approx 15$  GeV by selecting events with exactly two tracks and *no* neutral energy [828]. The two tracks were required to have  $p_\perp > 400$  MeV,  $\cos \theta < 0.56$ , and an acoplanarity angle  $> 15^\circ$ . These cuts strongly suppress events from  $e^+e^-$  annihilation, and cosmics. The beam-gas contamination was less than 10% on average, and subtracted separately for every data point. The distribution of the visible energy (fig. 8.4) and of the

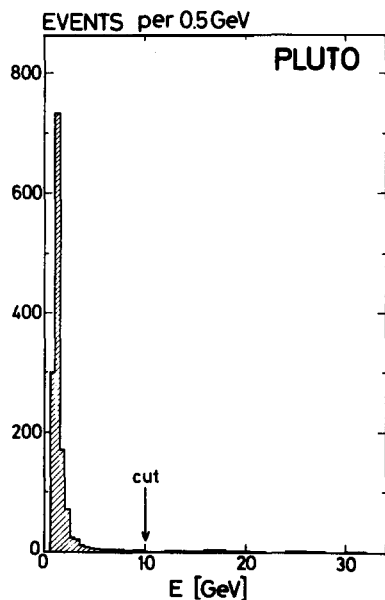


Fig. 8.4. Visible energy  $E_{vis}$  of acollinear two-prong events as observed in the central detector. Background has been subtracted in all of figs. 8.4–8.10.

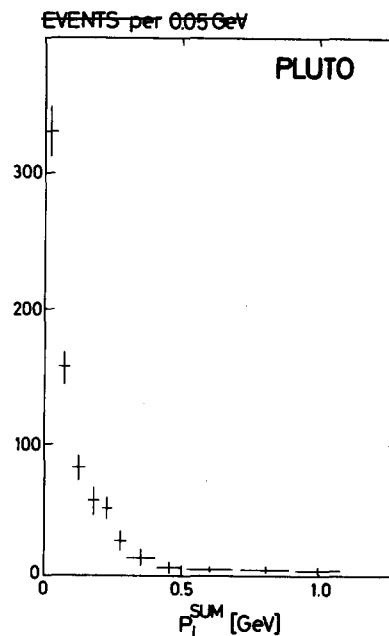


Fig. 8.5. Missing transverse momentum of two-prong events.

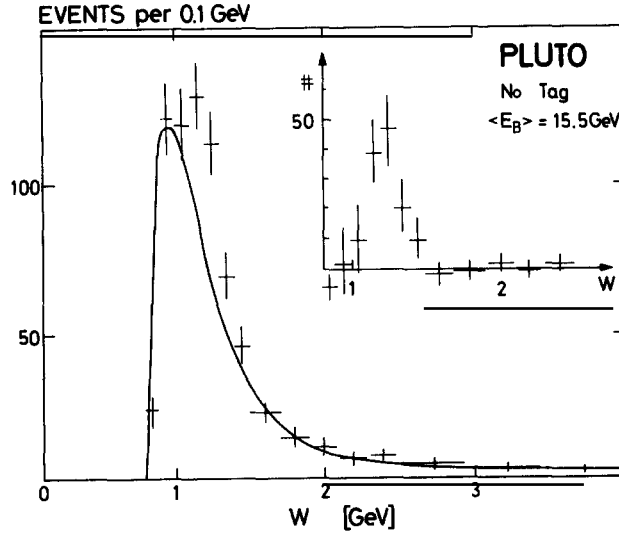


Fig. 8.6. Two-particle invariant mass distribution. Curve is absolute QED prediction for the production of lepton pairs ( $ee$ ,  $\mu\mu$ ). The insert shows the difference between the data and the QED prediction. Pion masses have been inserted for the display of the observed as well as the predicted invariant masses.

missing transverse momentum (fig. 8.5) show as the characteristic feature large missing energy combined with small missing transverse momentum, in complete agreement with the kinematics of the two-photon process. Events with  $E_{\text{vis}} > 10$  GeV were excluded as possible radiative annihilation events.

Fig. 8.6 gives the spectrum of the invariant masses, taking pion masses for both particles. The full curve is an absolute QED prediction for  $e^+e^-$ , and  $\mu^+\mu^-$  pairs [829, 830], with pion masses substituted for all. Radiative corrections [827], and non-resonant  $\pi\pi$  production, all believed to be effects of order 10%, are not included. Within these uncertainties the agreement is good, except for the interval between 1.0 and 1.5 GeV. Here one observes an excess which can be very well described by a resonance with position and width of the  $f^0$  meson. The signal as obtained from fitting both the non-resonant and the resonant part corresponds to  $(128 \pm 27)$   $f^0$  mesons. The experimental acceptance depends on the helicity state  $\lambda$  in which the  $f^0$  is produced. Assuming  $\lambda = 2$  to dominate one obtains with the help of eqs. (8.11) and (8.12):

$$\Gamma(f^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma) = (2.3 \pm 0.5(\text{stat.}) \pm 0.35(\text{syst.})) \text{ keV}. \quad (8.16)$$

More recent determinations by the TASSO, Mark II, and Crystal Ball collaborations [863–865] yield similar values ranging from 2.9 to 3.6 keV. The virtuality of both photons is so low,  $\langle |q_i^2| \rangle \approx 0.007 \text{ GeV}^2$ , that the result can be considered as the  $f^0$  width for the decay into two real photons. It can be compared to numerous theoretical predictions as listed in table 8.1.

The experimental width is close to the values obtained from a non-relativistic quark model with an oscillator potential. In judging other predictions one should note, however, that some of them were derived using old experimental input which should be updated. As an example, the prediction of ref. [836] should now read 3 keV [843].

In the same experiment [828] the considerably smaller sample of single-tag events was also analysed.

Table 8.1  
Predictions for the width  $\Gamma(f \rightarrow \gamma\gamma)$

Reference	$\Gamma_{\gamma\gamma}$ (keV)	Reference	$\Gamma_{\gamma\gamma}$ (keV)
831	0.8	837	8
832	>1	838	8
833	1.2-2.3	839	9.2
825	2.6	840	11.3
834	5.07	841	$21 \pm 6$
835	7	842	28
836	5.7	PLUTO	$2.3 \pm 0.5$ (stat.) $\pm 0.35$ (syst.)

The invariant mass distribution (fig. 8.7) shows, on top of the QED prediction [830] only a small enhancement at the  $f^0$  mass. It can be attributed to the  $f^0$  production via one quasi-real photon, as above, and one virtual one with  $\langle |q_{2i}^2| \rangle = 0.28 \text{ GeV}^2$ . Assuming again  $\lambda = 2$  production, the analysis acc. to eqs. (8.6) and (8.12) leads to an upper limit

$$\Gamma(f^0 \rightarrow \gamma^* \gamma) < 2.6 \text{ keV} \quad \text{at 95\% c.l.} \quad (8.17)$$

The analysis of particle pair production with  $W > 1.5 \text{ GeV}$  has thus demonstrated, within systematic uncertainties of typically 15%, a quantitative agreement with the lowest order QED prediction. A clear resonant enhancement has been observed at the  $f^0$  mass, and has been used to extract its  $\gamma\gamma$  width. This constitutes, via the inverse reaction, the first measurement of the very small branching ratio

$$B(f^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma) = (1.3 \pm 0.4) \times 10^{-5}. \quad (8.18)$$

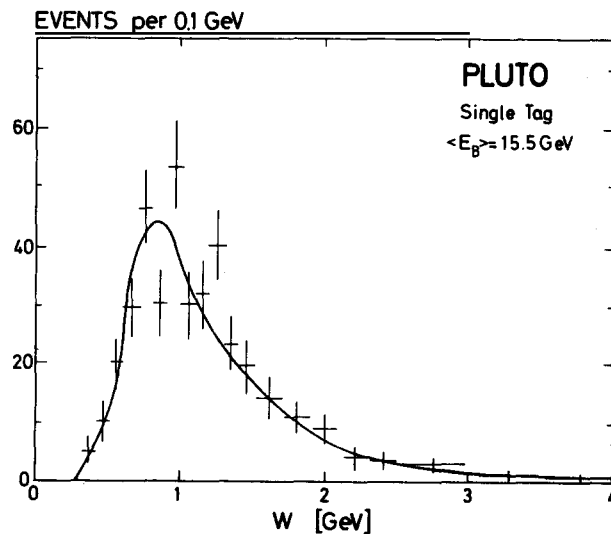


Fig. 8.7. Invariant mass distribution of the two-prong events with a single tag in the SAT, together with QED prediction.

#### 8.4. The total hadronic $\gamma\gamma$ cross section at low $Q^2$

The low  $Q^2$  cross section is expected to be dominated by hadronic diffraction and particle-exchange mechanisms, in accordance with the vector dominance model (VDM). The asymptotic diffraction cross section at  $Q^2 \approx 0$  is predicted by factorization:

$$\sigma_{\gamma\gamma}(\infty) = \sigma_{\gamma p}^2 / \sigma_{pp} \approx 240 \text{ nb} . \quad (8.19)$$

An extrapolation to the low-energy region by resonance-Regge duality, and to  $Q^2 \neq 0$  by a simple ansatz for the  $\rho$  form factor leads to [844, 845]

$$\sigma_t(W, Q^2) = (240 \text{ nb} + 270 \text{ nb} \cdot \text{GeV}/W + B/W^2)/(1 + Q^2/m_\rho^2)^2 . \quad (8.20)$$

The term  $B/W^2$  has been added here to describe possible deviations from the standard VDM parametrization [844, 845].

The low- and medium  $Q^2$  cross section has been measured by the PLUTO group at beam energies around 7 GeV [821] and 15 GeV [822, 851].† Events were required to have one photon tagged with the SAT, the other one anti-tagged, and to show either  $\geq 3$  tracks, or 2 tracks and  $\geq 1$  non associated photon or  $\pi^0$  in the central PLUTO detector. The tag and the observed invariant mass of the produced particles,  $W_{\text{vis}}$ , fix the kinematics (apart from losses  $W - W_{\text{vis}}$ ) and allow a measurement of  $\sigma_t + \varepsilon\sigma_\ell$  according to eq. (8.6).

The detection efficiency was calculated with the Monte Carlo simulation described in section 3.9.3. The simulation reproduces the observed charged and neutral multiplicities [851], as well as the transverse momentum distribution of the hadrons (fig. 3.13).

Fig. 8.8 gives the total cross section  $\sigma_t + \varepsilon\sigma_\ell$  as it appears at the observed hadronic energy  $W_{\text{vis}}$ . According to the simulation,  $W_{\text{vis}}$  is typically 15–20% lower than the true photon–photon c.m. energy  $W$ . The photon polarization parameter is close to one,  $\langle \varepsilon \rangle = 0.95$ . The energy dependence of the cross section is weak above 3 GeV, in agreement with the VDM prediction (eq. (8.20) with  $B = 0$ ). At lower energies, however, one observes a strong dependence on  $W_{\text{vis}}$ .

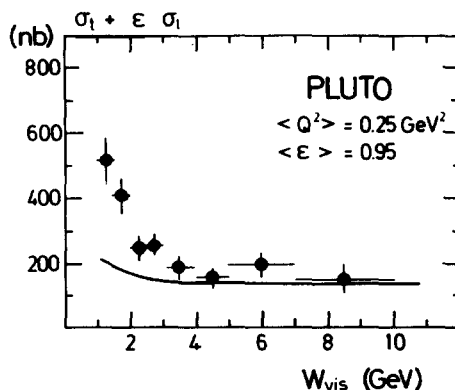


Fig. 8.8. Total cross section  $\sigma_t + \varepsilon\sigma_\ell$  as a function of the observed invariant mass  $W_{\text{vis}}$  of the hadron system. The solid line gives the prediction of the VMD model, folded with the energy response of the detector.

† Preliminary results have also been presented by the TASSO collaboration [860].



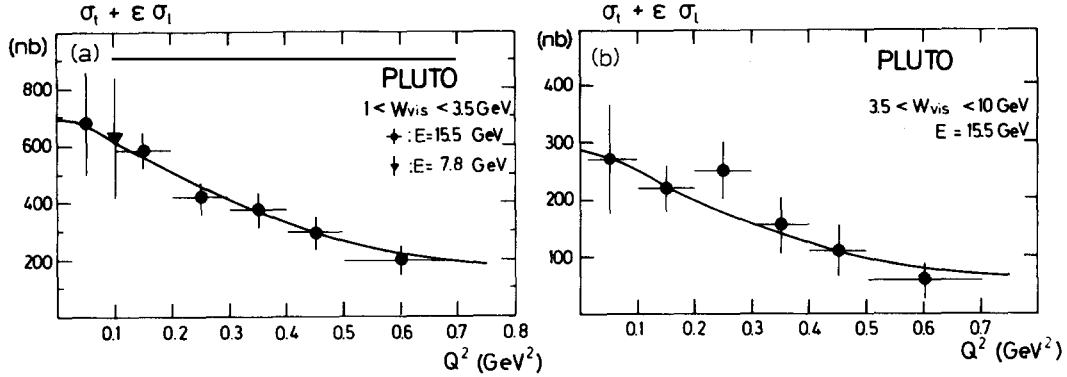


Fig. 8.9.  $Q^2$  dependence of the total hadronic cross section  $\sigma_t + \epsilon\sigma_l$  for (a) small and (b) large visible energies. The solid lines are the predictions from  $\rho$  meson dominance, folded with the detector resolution.

The  $Q^2$ -dependence of the cross section is given in figs. 8.9a and b separately for low and high  $W_{\text{vis}}$ . Both show a similar falloff consistent with the  $\rho$  form factor. Therefore, within the accuracy of the data the  $W$ - and  $Q^2$ -dependence of the cross section can be separated as formulated in (8.20). A fit gives  $B = (2250 \pm 500) \text{ nb} \cdot \text{GeV}^2$ , and leaves the other 'VDM' terms practically unchanged.

The cross section at  $Q^2 = 0$  as obtained from the fit is shown in fig. 8.10 as a function of the true  $W$ . The full lines represent the  $1\sigma$  error limits. The estimated systematic error, resulting mainly from the acceptance calculation, is  $\pm 20\%$ . The VDM expectation according to (8.20) with  $B = 0$  is shown as a dashed line.

The origin of the sizeable  $1/W^2$  term in the cross section is not clear. It seems not to be possible to explain the full  $1/W^2$  contribution in terms of Regge poles or cuts [847]. It has also been suggested [846] that a 'quark box diagram' may contribute:

$$\sigma_{\text{Box}} = \frac{4\pi\alpha^2}{W^2} \cdot 3 \sum_{\text{flavours}} e_q^4 \ln(W^2/m_q^2). \quad (8.21)$$

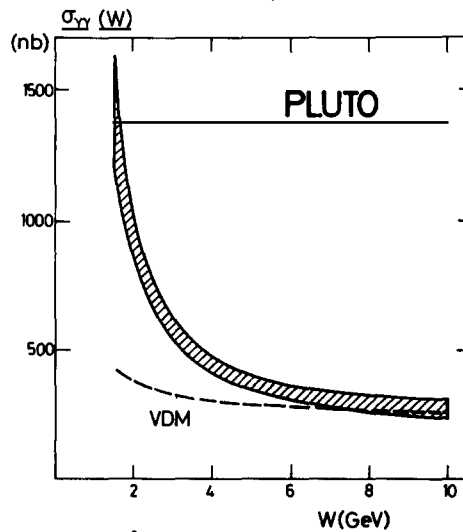


Fig. 8.10. Total hadronic cross section  $\sigma_t$  extrapolated to  $Q^2 = 0$ , versus the true photon-photon invariant mass. The hatched band shows the  $1 \text{ std.}$  limits as obtained from the fit. The VDM prediction is given by the dashed line.

While the  $W$ -dependence agrees, the magnitude as calculated with 3 flavours and an effective quark mass  $m_q = 100$  MeV is low by a factor of 2. Also, the  $Q^2$ -dependence is expected weaker than observed in fig. 8.9a.

Multihadron production definitely deviates from the (asymptotic) VDM extrapolation (eq. (8.20) with  $B = 0$ ) at  $W \leq 3$  GeV, and requires a substantial contribution consistent with a  $1/W^2$  dependence. In the range of  $5 < W < 10$  GeV the measured cross section and the VDM prediction agree. The  $Q^2$  dependence for  $Q^2 < 1$  GeV<sup>2</sup> is consistent with the  $\rho$  form factor at all values of  $W$ .

### 8.5. High $p_\perp$ jets

A direct way to observe point-like interactions of real photons with quarks is the reaction:

$$\gamma\gamma \rightarrow q\bar{q} \rightarrow 2 \text{ jets} \quad (8.22)$$

where the jets have large transverse momenta with respect to the beam. Refs. [814, 815] suggest that the 2-jet and inclusive 1-jet cross sections from this mechanism are much larger than those for high  $p_\perp$  jets produced via the VDM in  $\rho^0$ - $\rho^0$  scattering. The ratio  $R_{\gamma\gamma}$  of the quark to the muon cross section is given by the fourth power of the quark charges  $e_q$ :

$$R_{\gamma\gamma} = \frac{\sigma(\gamma\gamma \rightarrow 1 \text{ jet} + X)}{\sigma(\gamma\gamma \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-)} = 3 \sum_{q=u,d,s,c} e_q^4 = \frac{34}{27}. \quad (8.23)$$

First order QCD corrections are small for high  $p_\perp$  (of the jets) [814, 848, 849].

Fig. 8.11 shows one example of a two-jet event which is coplanar with the beam, but not collinear, and labelled as a  $\gamma\gamma$  reaction by a tag in the SAT. A small sample of such two-jet events has been collected and is being analysed. Preliminary results of this analysis [850], and also new results of the JADE [861] and TASSO [862] collaborations are consistent with the hard scattering mechanism (8.19).

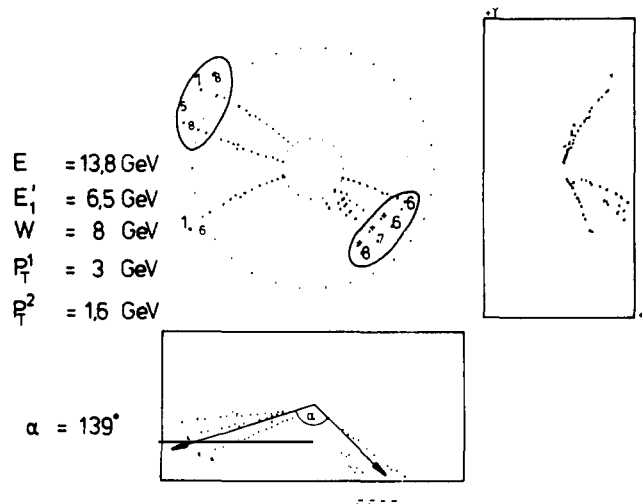


Fig. 8.11. Three projections of photon-photon produced two-jet event with kinematics as obtained from the tagging counter and the central detector. The figures in the  $x$ - $y$  projection show the neutral energy signal as observed in the barrel and end cap shower counters.

### 8.6. Deep inelastic electron–photon scattering

The most direct method to look for virtual constituents of the photon is inelastic  $e\text{-}\gamma$  scattering at high momentum transfers. This reaction has been observed in the large angle tagger (LAT) of PLUTO, with the probing photon in the range  $1 \leq Q^2 \leq 15 \text{ GeV}^2$  [852]. The virtuality of the target photon was kept very small ( $\langle |q_2^2| \rangle \approx 0.07 \text{ GeV}^2$ ) by virtue of the anti-tag condition, and the kinematics were determined from the tag and the hadronic energy  $W_{\text{vis}}$  observed in the inner detector.

The  $Q^2$  dependence of the cross section  $\sigma_t + \epsilon\sigma_\ell$  for high  $W_{\text{vis}}$  is shown in fig. 8.12. The low  $Q^2$  points (which were already shown in fig. 8.9b) are very well described by the  $\rho$  form factor. Above  $1 \text{ GeV}^2$ , however, the measured cross section is one order of magnitude larger than expected from the VDM description. The deviation demonstrates that the target photon has a substructure with a dimension much smaller than that of a normal hadron. The evidence is reminiscent of the excess of wide-angle scattering events observed at atomic targets which a long time ago led to the discovery of the atomic nucleus.

In the terminology of deep inelastic electron scattering this substructure of the target photon is expressed (both experimentally and theoretically, see below) in the photon structure functions  $F_i(x, Q^2)$  as defined in section 8.1. For the PLUTO data the region of deep inelastic  $e\gamma$  scattering is given as  $1 \leq Q^2 \leq 15 \text{ GeV}^2$ , and  $W > 1 \text{ GeV}$ . It contains, after subtraction of six estimated background events, the small but very clean sample of 111 genuine  $\gamma\gamma$  events. The contribution of bremsstrahlung diagrams (fig. 8.1b) was determined by a Monte Carlo simulation to be less than 0.3 events. The photon structure function  $F_2$  was evaluated using eq. (8.15b), and corrected for detector effects, but not for the supposedly small [853] radiative effects.

As shown in fig. 8.13, the measured  $F_2$  is almost flat over the full  $x$ -range, with an average  $\langle F_2/\alpha \rangle \approx 0.35$ . It is distinctly different from the structure functions of baryons and also of the pion [854], which peak at small  $x$  and rapidly vanish for  $x \rightarrow 1$ . Quantitatively, the contribution of the  $\rho$  meson component to the photon structure function can be derived from the measured quark momentum distribution in the pion,  $xq(x)$ , as [826, 854]

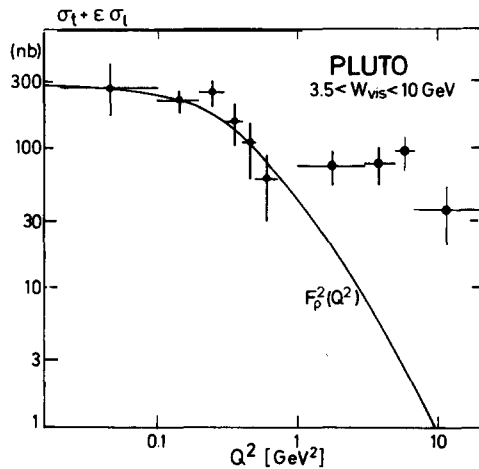


Fig. 8.12. Total  $\gamma\gamma$  cross section vs.  $Q^2$ . The solid line shows the VDM expectation.

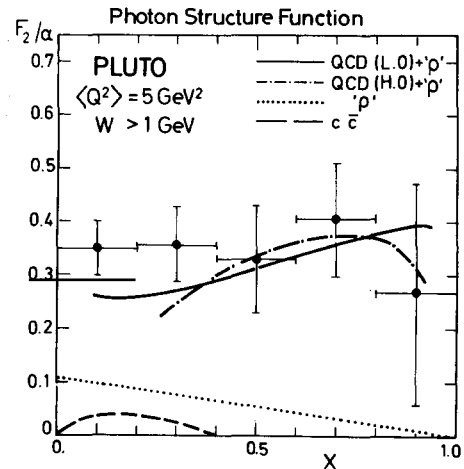


Fig. 8.13. Photon structure function in units of  $\alpha$ . Dotted curve: hadronic part acc. to VDM. Full and dot-dashed curves: QCD prediction ( $\Lambda = 0.2 \text{ GeV}$ ; u, d, s only) in leading and next-to-leading order, with hadronic part added. Dashed curve: contribution of c quark ( $m = 1.5 \text{ GeV}$ ).

$$F_{2,\rho}^\gamma = \left( \frac{\alpha}{f_\rho^2/4\pi} \right) (e_u^2 + e_d^2) x q(x), \quad (8.24)$$

shown as a dotted line in fig. 8.13. It is clearly much too small to describe the measurement.

The difference can be qualitatively understood as due to virtual ‘free’  $q\bar{q}$  pairs, described by the box diagram of the quark-parton model. For large  $Q^2$  the contribution of the quark box to  $F_2^\gamma$  grows like  $\ln Q^2$ , and dominates eq. (8.24) completely. In leading order of QCD the contribution of the light quarks behaves for large  $Q^2$  like [826]

$$F_{2,\text{QCD}}^\gamma = 3 \sum_{\text{flavours}} e_q^4 h(x) \ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2). \quad (8.25)$$

The QCD calculations of  $F_{2,\text{QCD}}^\gamma$  [813, 815, 826, 855–858] are based on perturbation theory only, and are free of the bound-state problems which affect the predictions of the structure functions of hadrons. Therefore measurements of  $F_2^\gamma$  allow unambiguous tests of the quark dynamics.

The full and the dashed-dotted curves in fig. 8.13 show the QCD calculations in leading [855] and next-to-leading order [858] (u, d, s;  $\Lambda = 200$  MeV), with the  $\rho$  part (8.24) added. Both of them describe the medium and high- $x$  measurements very well. The statistics are not good enough, however, to distinguish between the two, nor to discriminate against predictions of the standard quark model and the massive quark model [859] (with  $m_q \approx 300$  MeV, not shown). The contribution of  $c\bar{c}$  pairs (dashed curve) is small in the accepted kinematical range, but happens, if added, to improve the agreement at small  $x$ .

The measured photon structure function is consistent with the Gell-Mann–Tweig assignment of fractional quark charges, which appear in (8.25) in the fourth power, and also with the predicted  $Q^2$  dependence, if a  $\Lambda$  value of order 0.2 GeV is inserted [852]. Future high statistics experiments may in fact exploit the strong scale breaking indicated in (8.25) as a sensitive means of determining the QCD scale parameter  $\Lambda$ .

### 8.7. Conclusions

The results of the PLUTO group have for the first time demonstrated that hadron production in high energy photon–photon collisions can be clearly detected, and analysed in an unambiguous formalism, provided at least one of the photons is constrained to the mass shell by an ‘anti-tag’ condition. The decay width of the  $f^0$  meson into two real photons has been found to agree with expectations of the non-relativistic quark model. The total cross section for the scattering of low- $Q^2$  virtual photons on almost real ones follows the expectations of the VDM at high energies, but shows a so far unexplained deviation at low energies. The first measurement of the high- $Q^2$   $\gamma\gamma$  cross section and of the photon structure function demonstrates that the photon has, in addition to its well-known vector meson nature, a distinctly different component, corresponding to the short-distance  $q\bar{q}$  structure expected from the quark model and QCD.

While this report was being written, a new version of the PLUTO detector with substantially improved forward spectrometers has been built and installed in the interaction region (fig. 3.10). It will allow a new research program, which is different from those of the other storage ring detectors at PETRA, with heavy emphasis on high- $Q^2$  photon–photon reactions and photon structure functions as a very promising tool for detailed tests of the quark dynamics.

### Appendix 8A. Electron–electron and photon–photon cross sections

A general relation between the inelastic electron–electron and total photon–photon cross sections has first been given in ref. [807], and can also be found in refs. [810, 812]. Using variables as defined in fig. 8.1 it can be formulated as†

$$d\sigma_{ee} = (\Gamma_T^1 \sigma_{TT} \Gamma_T^2 + \Gamma_S^1 \sigma_{ST} \Gamma_T^2 + \Gamma_T^1 \sigma_{TS} \Gamma_S^2 + \Gamma_S^1 \sigma_{SS} \Gamma_S^2 + A \cos 2\phi + B \cos \phi) dE'_1 d\Omega_1 dE'_2 d\Omega_2. \quad (8A.1)$$

The  $\Gamma^i$  can be considered flux factors for transverse (T) and longitudinal (S) photons. They are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_T^i dE'_i d\Omega_i &= 2\rho_i^{++} C_i dE'_i d\Omega_i \\ \Gamma_S^i dE'_i d\Omega_i &= \rho_i^{\infty} C_i dE'_i d\Omega_i \end{aligned} \quad (8A.2)$$

where the  $\rho_i^{\lambda\lambda'}$  are photon density matrices in the helicity basis ( $\lambda = -, 0, +$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_i^{\infty} &= (2p_i q_{3-i} - q_1 q_2) / X - 1 \\ 2\rho_i^{++} &= \rho_i^{\infty} + 2 - 4m^2 / |q_i^2| \end{aligned} \quad (8A.3)$$

with

$$X = (q_1 q_2)^2 - q_1^2 q_2^2. \quad (8A.4)$$

The phase space and propagator factor has been artificially split into  $C_1 \cdot C_2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} C_1 &= \frac{\alpha}{4\pi^2} \frac{E'_1}{|q_1^2|} \frac{\sqrt{X}}{(p_1 + p_2) \cdot q_2} \\ C_2 &= \frac{\alpha}{4\pi^2} \frac{E'_2}{|q_2^2|} \frac{(p_1 + p_2) \cdot q_2}{p_1 p_2}. \end{aligned} \quad (8A.5)$$

$\phi$  is the azimuthal angle between the scattering planes, as seen in the photons' c.m. system.  $A$  and  $B$  have a similar structure as the other terms, but will disappear due to the azimuthal symmetry of the detection as discussed below.

Factorization of the relation (8A.1) means that the factors  $\Gamma_T^i$  and  $\Gamma_S^i$  depend only on the variables of the electron ' $i$ ' and can therefore be interpreted as the independently radiated photon flux. This has been shown to hold if *both* electron angles are small [805, 807, 819]. Factorization also occurs, as shown below, if only *one* of the electrons is emitted at small angle  $\theta_2$ , and the virtuality of the emitted photon is small

$$\theta_2 \ll 1 \quad (8A.6a)$$

$$|q_2^2| \ll W^2. \quad (8A.6b)$$

Eq. (8A.6b) follows from (8A.6a), for all but very small photon energies.

With the help of (8.3), (8.4), and the general relation

$$2p_{3-i} \cdot q_i = 4\omega_i E - q_i^2 \quad (i = 1, 2) \quad (8A.7)$$

one obtains in the approximation (8A.6)

$$\sqrt{X} \simeq q_1 q_2 \simeq 2\omega_2 (E - E'_1 \cos^2(\theta_1/2)) \quad (8A.8)$$

† Eq. (19) of [807], or (5.12) of [812].

and the final expressions, whose symmetry has partly been enforced by neglecting terms of order  $m\theta_1^2/E^2$ , and by substituting  $\omega_2 \leftrightarrow E - E'_2 \cos^2(\theta_2/2)$ :

$$C_i = \frac{\alpha}{4\pi^2} \frac{E'_i}{|q_i^2|} \frac{E - E'_i \cos^2(\theta_i/2)}{E} \quad (i = 1, 2) \quad (8A.9)$$

$$\Gamma_{\text{T}}^i = \frac{\alpha}{2\pi^2} \frac{1}{|q_i^2|} \frac{E'_i}{E} \left( \frac{E^2 + E_i'^2 \cos^4(\theta_i/2)}{E - E'_i \cos^2(\theta_i/2)} - \frac{2m^2\omega_i}{|q_i^2|} \right) \quad (i = 1, 2) \quad (8A.10)$$

$$\Gamma_{\text{S}}^i = \frac{\alpha}{2\pi^2} \frac{1}{|q_i^2|} \frac{E'_i}{E} \frac{2EE'_i \cos^2(\theta_i/2)}{E - E'_i \cos^2(\theta_i/2)} \quad (i = 1, 2). \quad (8A.11)$$

These equations show the desired factorization for arbitrary scattering angles  $\theta_i$ . Integration over  $d\Omega_2 = d\phi_2 d\cos\theta_2$  cancels the  $\phi$ -dependent terms in (8A.1)†, and leads to eq. (8.6) with  $\sigma_{\text{t}} = \sigma_{\text{TT}}$ ,  $\sigma_{\text{e}} = \sigma_{\text{ST}}$ , and  $\Gamma_{\text{t}} = \Gamma_{\text{T}}^1$ .

For small  $\theta_2^{\text{max}}$  the contributions of  $\sigma_{\text{TS}}$  and  $\sigma_{\text{SS}}$  are small, because due to gauge invariance they vanish proportional to  $q_2^2$  [812]. A quantitative estimate can be made if one assumes that the  $q_2^2$ -dependence is governed by the hadron ( $\rho$ ) form factor

$$F_{\rho} = 1/(1 + |q_2^2|/m_{\rho}^2) \quad (8A.12)$$

like

$$\sigma_{\text{TS}} \simeq (1 - F_{\rho}) \sigma_{\text{TT}} \quad (8A.13)$$

$$\sigma_{\text{TT}} \simeq F_{\rho}^2 \sigma|_{q_2^2=0}. \quad (8A.14)$$

For the case of PLUTO at PETRA, integration of  $\sigma_{\text{TS}}\Gamma_{\text{S}}^2$  up to  $\theta_2^{\text{max}} \simeq 0.02$  leads to a contribution of only 1% relative to  $\sigma_{\text{TT}}\Gamma_{\text{T}}^2$ . Even for larger  $\theta_2^{\text{max}}$  the relative contribution will stay small. The same applies to the contribution of  $\sigma_{\text{SS}}\Gamma_{\text{S}}^2$  relative to  $\sigma_{\text{ST}}\Gamma_{\text{T}}^2$ .

Therefore, as long as the ratio of longitudinal to transverse cross sections does not rise faster than  $1 - F_{\rho}$ , the omission of  $\sigma_{\text{TS}}$  and  $\sigma_{\text{SS}}$  in (8.6) and of  $\sigma_{\text{ST}}$  in (8.11) is fully justified.

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† Averaging over the azimuth of the first electron,  $\phi_1$ , has tacitly been assumed. Otherwise a  $\phi$ -dependence of  $A$  and  $B$  could remain from the  $W$ -dependence of  $\phi_2$ .

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