

**Measurement of Elliptic Flow in p+Au Collisions at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} =$   
200 GeV using the PHENIX Detector at RHIC**

by

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Measurement of Elliptic Flow in p+Au Collisions at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV using the PHENIX Detector  
at RHIC

Thesis directed by Professor James Nagle

Quark Gluon Plasma (QGP), a hot and dense state of matter in which quarks are not confined inside hadrons, is thought to be the same as the universe approximately one microsecond after the big bang. In Au+Au collisions at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV at the Relativistic Heavy Ion Collider (RHIC) and Pb+Pb collisions at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 2.76$  TeV at the Large Hadron Collider (LHC), QGP has been discovered to have unique properties, such as its opacity to color charges and the fact it behaves like a near-perfect fluid. Collective behavior in the form of a substantial elliptical azimuthal anisotropy ( $v_2$ ) in the momentum distribution of final state particles has been observed, indicating a strongly-coupled, hydrodynamically flowing medium. Recently, features of collectivity have been detected in high-multiplicity, small collision systems thought to be too small to produce QGP, such as  $^3\text{He}+\text{Au}$  and  $d+\text{Au}$  at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV,  $p + \text{Pb}$  at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 5$  TeV, and even in  $p + p$  at  $\sqrt{s} = 13$  TeV events. In order to constrain models seeking to describe this phenomena, collision systems with distinct initial collision geometries were run at RHIC:  $^3\text{He}+\text{Au}$  for triangular geometry,  $d+\text{Au}$  for elliptical geometry, and  $p+\text{Au}$  for circular geometry. This thesis is the completion of that set of three measurements, by measuring  $v_2$  in the p+Au. Comparisons of  $v_2$  in the three collision systems and various theoretical models are made.

## Dedication

## Acknowledgements

People

## Contents

### Chapter

<b>1</b>	<b>Analysis</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1	The Building Blocks of the Measurement . . . . .	1
1.1.1	Central Arm Tracks . . . . .	1
1.1.1.1	Signalization of PC Variables . . . . .	5
1.1.2	FVTX Clusters . . . . .	5
1.1.3	BBC PMTs . . . . .	6
1.2	The Event Plane Method . . . . .	7
1.2.1	Event Plane Resolution Calculation . . . . .	10
1.2.2	Event Plane Flattening Calibration . . . . .	11
1.3	East West $v_2$ Discrepancy . . . . .	12
1.4	Correcting for the Effects of Beam Alignment . . . . .	15
1.4.1	FVTX Inverse Phi Weighting . . . . .	19
1.4.2	BBC Charge Weighting . . . . .	19
1.4.3	Applying Weighting to $v_2$ . . . . .	23
1.5	Systematic Uncertainties . . . . .	24
1.5.1	Effect of Event Pile-Up . . . . .	26
1.5.2	Effects of Non-Flow . . . . .	27

**Bibliography****31****Appendix**

## Tables

### Table

1.1	Quality categorization of CA tracks, as a function of PC1 and DC wire hits. The quality parameters used in this analysis are 31 and 63. . . . .	2
1.2	Quality categorization of CA tracks, as a function of DC wire momentum information. The quality parameters used in this analysis are 31 and 63. . . . .	3
1.3	Central Arm Track Cuts. . . . .	5
1.4	. . . . .	11
1.5	Systematic uncertainties given as a percent of the $v_2$ measurement. Note that the non-flow contribution is $p_T$ dependent and the value here quoted corresponds to the highest measured $p_T$ . . . . .	27



## Figures

### Figure

- 1.1 Reference coordinate system for the PHENIX detector. The origin is set at the collision point, around which the detector is centered. The beam runs parallel to the (longitudinal)  $z$ -axis, where the direction of positive  $z$  is defined as **north**. The **east** and **west** directions are defined as perpendicular to the longitudinal direction, where the direction of positive  $x$  is defined as west. . . . . 2
- 1.2 Momentum resolution  $\sigma_p/p$  as a function of the reconstructed track momentum,  $p$  for simulated single-particle events[2]. . . . . 3
- 1.3 Transverse momentum  $p_T$  distribution of CA tracks in  $p$ +Auevents at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}}=200$  GeV. High  $p_T$  tracks observed correspond to unsubtracted background. . . . . 3
- 1.4 The distribution of (left)  $n_0$ , i.e., the number of PMTs fired in the RICH, and (right)  $zed$ , i.e., the longitudinal position of tracks in the DC, for CA tracks in 0-5% central  $p$ +Auevents at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}}=200$  GeV. The structure observed in the  $zed$  distribution corresponds to a gap in the detector acceptance. . . . . 4
- 1.5 The top plots show the PC3 matching  $d\phi$  fit in range  $1.0 < p_T < 1.1$  (GeV/c). The blue and pink lines are single Gaussian fits to the signal and background, respectively, which are combined in the red line. The bottom plots show the result of the  $d\phi$  signalization, done in the same way as for  $d\phi$ . . . . . 6
- 1.6 Distribution of FVTX clusters in  $x$  and  $y$  for layers 1, 2, 3, and 4 for panels a), b), c), and d), respectively. The color scale corresponds to the number of counts. . . . . 7

- 1.7 Diagram showing the positions of the PMTs for the BBC-south detector. Rings shown with the same color indicate PMTs at an approximate common radius. . . . . 8
- 1.8 Intermediate steps involved in calculating the event resolution. (left) Raw difference between the event plane angles for two different detectors. This distribution is triangular because it is the result the cross-correlation of two uniform distributions,  $\Psi_2^{FVTX}$  and  $\Psi_2^{BBC}$ . (right) The cosine of two times the difference between the two event plane angles. The average of this distribution is used in equation 1.15. . . . . 10
- 1.9 This is the  $\Psi_2$  distribution projected over all z-vertex bins at different steps during the calibration. The top is from the FVTX south and the bottom is from the BBC south. The range of the  $\Psi_2$  resolution is from  $-\frac{\pi}{2}$  to  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  because of the periodicity. The raw (in red)  $\Psi_2$  distribution has a sinusoidal shape. The re-centered (in green)  $\Psi_2$  distribution moves the mean. The flattened (in blue)  $\Psi_2$  distribution spreads out the counts so that there is uniformity. Each calibration step preserves the integral. . 13
- 1.10 First attempt at measuring  $v_2(p_T)$  with the event plane as calculated with the FVTXs (top left) and the BBCs (bottom left) in the p+Au at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}}=200$  GeV dataset, using the default resolution as shown in Table 1.4. The black points show  $v_2$  measured using all CNT tracks. The blue and red points show  $v_2$  measured using only tracks in the west and east arms, respectively. The ratios are fit with a constant, whose value is shown in the legend. . . . . 14
- 1.11 Diagram illustrating the angle at which the yellow and blue beams collide relative to the longitudinal  $z$ -axis of the detector. The yellow beam corresponds to the Au (south-going) beam, and blue corresponds to the proton (north-going) beam. Due to a necessity of running p+Au collisions at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}}=200$  GeV at RHIC, the beams collide at an angle of 3.6 mrad. . . . . 15

- 1.12 A corrected measurement of  $v_2$  as a function of  $p_T$  with the FVTXs (top two panels) and the BBCs (bottom two panels) event plane for the p+Au  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV dataset. The default resolution as shown in table 1.4 is used. The plotting conventions are the same as described in the caption of Fig 1.10. . . . . 16
- 1.13 (left) Cartoon diagram illustrating  $\eta$  acceptance shift due to a beam offset in one of the FVTXs layers. (right) Pseudorapidity distribution of charged particles from the AMPT Monte Carlo generator for p+Au  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV, showing the shift in  $\eta$  acceptance. . . . . 17
- 1.14 The left is the modification of the  $\eta$  acceptance as a function of  $\phi$  for the FVTX first layer. The right is the calculated correction factor from this modification. . . . . 18
- 1.15 These four panels show the FVTX  $\phi$  dependent cluster weighting when calculating the FVTX event plane for each layer separately for events with a collision vertex in  $z$  is around 0. There are some  $\phi$  regions where weight factor is outside of the dotted line bounds. This indicates that either there was a severe deficit or excess of clusters measured in the region. Later, we will examine the effect of keeping these regions or cutting them out on the  $v_2$  measurement. . . . . 20
- 1.16 The black is the FVTX weighting and the blue is the analytic weighting. They have good agreement. . . . . 21
- 1.17 Shown here is BBC the multiplicative weight factor  $F$  used when calculating the modified event plane for events where the collision vertex in  $z$  is around 0. The y-axis is the weight factor and the x-axis is the PMT number for the BBCs (there are 64 total in the BBCs). . . . . 21

- 1.18 These plots depict the average PMT charge per event versus  $\phi$  in the a) the p+p  $\sqrt{s} = 200$  GeV and b) p+Au  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV. The PMTs are separated by color, which corresponds to the rings of approximate common radius as shown in Fig 1.7. The left plot shows near uniformity as a function of  $\phi$  and ring. However, the right plot shows a significant deviation from uniformity especially for the innermost rings (rings 1 and 2). In addition to the  $\phi$  variation for the right plot, the innermost rings have the largest average charge when compared to the other rings. This is in part due to the fact the innermost rings cover the a slightly larger  $\eta$  range. However, the innermost rings in the left plot also cover the largest  $\eta$  range and do not exhibit this separation in rings. . . . . 22
- 1.19 Plotted is the FVTXs correction summary where the y-axis is the east/west  $v_2$  ratio and the x-axis is the different subset of clusters used to calculate the  $v_2$ . The black markers correspond to the default corrections. The red boxes correspond to the corrections with the analytic weighting shown in Fig 1.14. The blue diamonds are the FVTX inverse  $\phi$  weighting as shown in section 1.4.1. Finally, the green crosses correspond to the same as the blue diamonds except an additional hot-cold filter of 20% was applied. The first column is using all the FVTXs layers except for the 3rd layer (explained in the text). So the first columns should be approximately the average of columns 2, 3, and 5. Columns 2 through 5 show the ratio calculated from clusters only in that layer. . . . . 24

1.20	Plotted is the BBC correction summary where the y-axis is the east/west $v_2$ ratio and the x-axis is the different subset of PMTs used to calculate the $v_2$ . The black markers correspond to the default corrections. The red boxes correspond to the corrections with the analytic weighting shown in Fig 1.14. Finally, the blue diamonds correspond to the BBC inverse $\phi$ charge weighting as shown in section 1.4.2. The first column is the quantity calculated from all PMTs. Columns 2 through 6 are using PMTs from certain rings as defined in Fig 1.7. Ring 1 is the hardest to correct. The first column should approximately be the average of all the other columns. . . . .	25
1.21	FVTXs $v_2$ event plane measurement corrected with inverse $\phi$ weighting and 20 % cut with FVTXs layer 3 is excluded (top) and BBCs $v_2$ event plane measurement corrected with p+p/p+Au ratio weighting (bottom). . . . .	26
1.22	The distribution of BBC PMT timing values. The x-axis is the difference between the southern BBC PMT $t_0$ - the mean $t_0$ in the south. An example of a normal event (left) and an example pile-up event (right), are shown. . . . .	28
1.23	Plotted here is the 2D profile of a correlation function in $\Delta\eta\Delta\phi$ space of a dijet event. The area in red dotted lines represent the exclusion zone in $\Delta\eta$ , such that the measurement is made only using data from outside of the exclusion zone to reduce non-flow contributions. . . . .	29
1.24	(a) The second order harmonic coefficients $c_2(p_T)$ for long range angular correlations in 0%-5% p+Au collisions, as well as for minimum bias p+p collisions. The latter are scaled down by the factor $(\sum Q^{\text{BBC-S}})_{p+p} / (\sum Q^{\text{BBC-S}})_{\text{pAu}}$ . (b) The ratio of the two harmonics is plotted with the corresponding statistical errors. . . . .	30

## Chapter 1

### Analysis

This chapter is an extensive discussion of the information and data analysis techniques used to extract the measurement. First we will describe about the building blocks of the  $v_2$  measurement, then we will examine the event plane analysis techniques, and the systematic errors.

#### 1.1 The Building Blocks of the Measurement

Prior to any analysis, the raw data collected by various PHENIX subsystems must be reconstructed into well-defined software objects encapsulating the physical properties of the particles that traversed the detector. Although we have already discussed the subsystems used in this analysis in Chapter 3, this section provides in-depth information on central arm tracks, FVTX clusters, and BBC photomultiplier tubes (PMTs), and the physics variables they contain. Figure 1.1 displays the coordinate system for PHENIX and the particle parameters that are in relation to it.

##### 1.1.1 Central Arm Tracks

Central arm (CA) tracks are the representation of charged particles emitted from the heavy ion collision, which are detected by detectors in the PHENIX central arms. There are two central arms, each one covering an acceptance of  $\eta < |0.35|$  and  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  in pseudorapidity and azimuth, respectively. The relevant detectors for this analysis include the Drift Chamber (DC), the Pad Chambers (PC) and the Ring Imaging Cerenkov (RICH) detector. As previously discussed, the drift chamber provides momentum information; the pad chambers provide track quality metrics; and the RICH

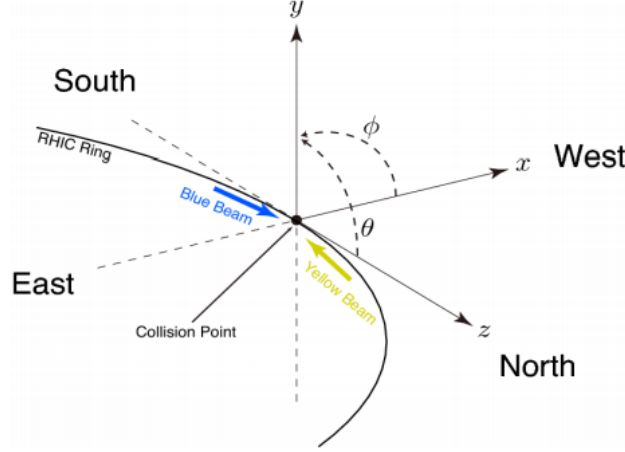


Figure 1.1: Reference coordinate system for the PHENIX detector. The origin is set at the collision point, around which the detector is centered. The beam runs parallel to the (longitudinal)  $z$ -axis, where the direction of positive  $z$  is defined as **north**. The **east** and **west** directions are defined as perpendicular to the longitudinal direction, where the direction of positive  $x$  is defined as west.

provides electron identification.

The main physical parameter of CA tracks is the momentum vector  $\vec{p} = (p_x, p_y, p_z)$  of the particles, defined at the collision vertex. This analysis uses tracks with momentum  $0.02 < |p_T| < 3.5$  GeV/ $c$ , where the momentum resolution is good, as shown in Fig. 1.6. The azimuthal angle and pseudorapidity of the track are calculated from the components of its momentum vector, as follows:

$$\phi = \arctan\left(\frac{p_y}{p_x}\right), \quad (1.1)$$

$$\eta = \text{ArcSinH}\left(\frac{p_z}{p_T}\right). \quad (1.2)$$

Table 1.1: Quality categorization of CA tracks, as a function of PC1 and DC wire hits. The quality parameters used in this analysis are 31 and 63.

Quality	PC1 found	PC1 unique	UV found	UV unique
17,18,19	1	0	0	0
21,22,23	1	0	1	0
29,30,31	1	0	1	1
49,50,51	1	1	1	0
61,62,63	1	1	1	1

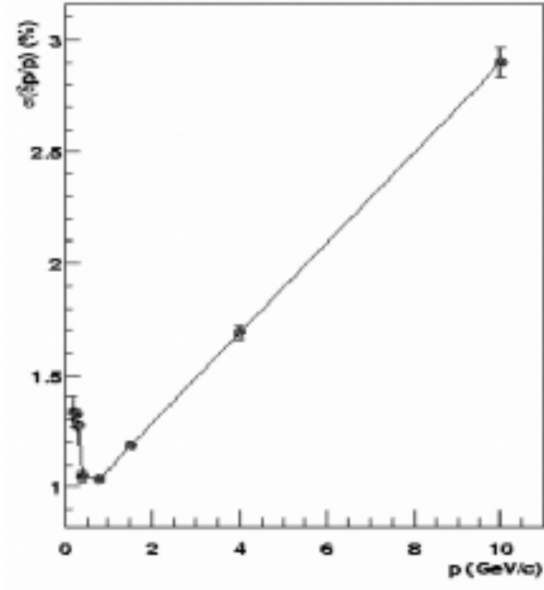


Figure 1.2: Momentum resolution  $\sigma_p/p$  as a function of the reconstructed track momentum,  $p$  for simulated single-particle events[2].

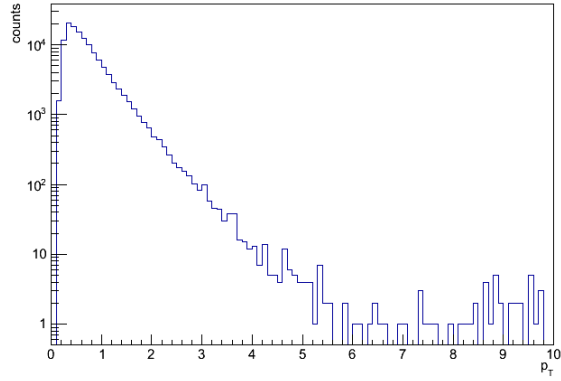


Figure 1.3: Transverse momentum  $p_T$  distribution of CA tracks in  $p$ +Auevents at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV. High  $p_T$  tracks observed correspond to unsubtracted background.

Table 1.2: Quality categorization of CA tracks, as a function of DC wire momentum information. The quality parameters used in this analysis are 31 and 63.

Quality	X1 used	X2 used
17,21,29,49,61	1	0
18,22,30,50,62	0	1
19,23,31,51,63	1	1



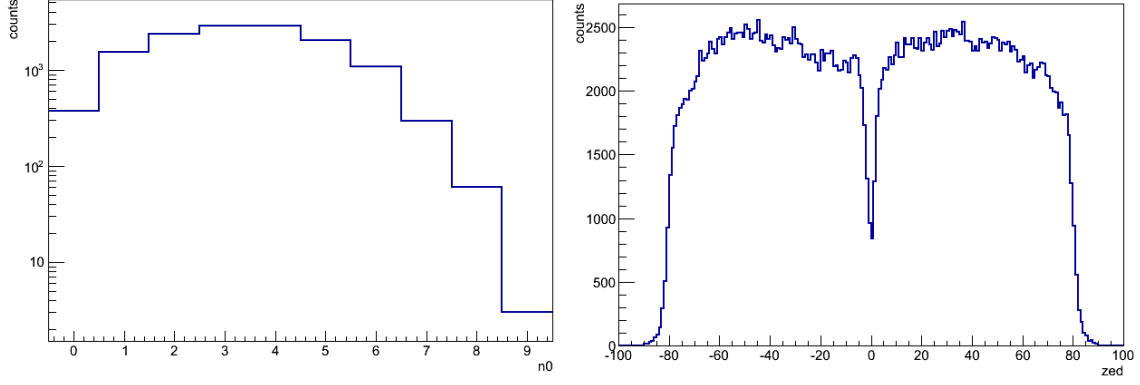


Figure 1.4: The distribution of (left)  $n0$ , i.e., the number of PMTs fired in the RICH, and (right)  $zed$ , i.e., the longitudinal position of tracks in the DC, for CA tracks in 0-5% central  $p+A$  events at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV. The structure observed in the  $zed$  distribution corresponds to a gap in the detector acceptance.

In addition to momentum, CA tracks provide a number of other parameters that can be used to ensure the quality of tracks and isolate a sample corresponding to charged hadrons. These include  $zed$  in the DC,  $d\phi$  and  $dz$  in the PC,  $n0$  in the RICH, and the general track quality calculated from DC and PC information. These variables are defined as follows:

- The  $zed$  variable corresponds to the longitudinal position of the track in the DC, as shown in Fig. 1.4
- The  $dphi$  and  $dz$  variables quantify the distance between a track projection and its associated hits in the PC. In order to make standard cuts on these variables, their distribution must be calibrated to a standard Gaussian in a procedure known as signalization, described in subsection 1.1.1.1
- The  $n0$  variable, used for electron identification, corresponds to the the number of PMTs fired in the RICH that match the DC track projection, as shown in Fig. 1.4

Table 1.3: Central Arm Track Cuts.

<i>variable</i>	cuts	units
$p$	$0.02 < p < 10.0$	GeV/c
zed	$ zed  < 75$	cm
PC3 $d\phi$	$ d\phi  < 2.0$	radians $\times 10^9$
PC3 $dz$	$ dz  < 2.0$	cm
n0	$n0 \leq 0$	count
quality	63 or 31	N/A

#### 1.1.1.1 Signalization of PC Variables

The goal of PC variables  $dz$  and  $d\phi$  is to provide criteria to determine if the  $\phi$  orientation and  $z$ -direction of the track match between the third layer of the PC and the DC. The signalization is done in the minimum bias sample and is valid for all other centrality selections. We did the signalization procedure for tracks in different transverse momentum bins, separately in the east and west arms, and for positive and negative particles. The  $d\phi$  and  $dz$  distributions were fitted with a double-Gaussian function and then the parameters were smoothed as a function of  $p_T$ . Fig. 1.1.1.1 a) shows a fit to the signalized  $d\phi$  distribution, and Fig. 1.1.1.1 b) shows a fit to the signalized  $dz$  distribution for tracks with  $1.0 < p_T < 1.1$  (GeV/c) in both the west and east arms as well as both positively and negatively charged particles. Then we fit the signal Gaussian mean and sigma by some polynomial functions. Once these variables had been signalized, we selected only the tracks within a  $2\sigma$  cut.

#### 1.1.2 FVTX Clusters

The FVTX consists of four silicon layers in the north and south directions, covering an acceptance of  $1 < |\eta| < 3$  and spanning the full azimuth. FVTX clusters correspond to the spatial location where charged particles hit one of the silicon layers. Each cluster is expected to correspond to a single charged particle in the case of  $p$ +Au collisions, because of the low multiplicity relative to Au+Au collisions. These clusters have a spatial resolution in  $x$  and  $y$  of  $50 \mu\text{m}$ , and have an RMS along the  $z$ -direction that corresponds to the width of an FVTX layer, of  $\frac{200}{\sqrt{12}} \mu\text{m}$  [10]. Due to

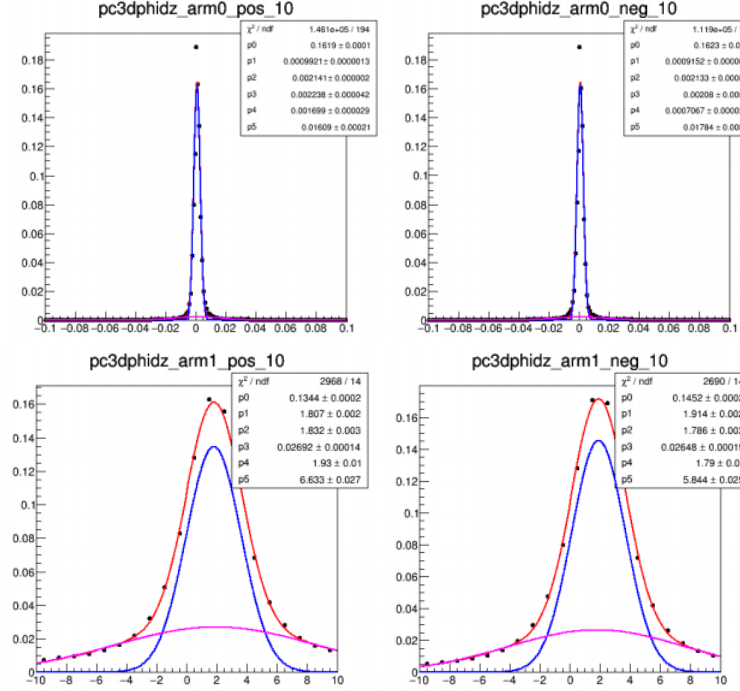


Figure 1.5: The top plots show the PC3 matching  $d\phi$  fit in range  $1.0 < pT < 1.1$  (GeV/c). The blue and pink lines are single Gaussian fits to the signal and background, respectively, which are combined in the red line. The bottom plots show the result of the  $dz$  signalization, done in the same way as for  $d\phi$ .

the  $p$ +Aucollision system's inherent asymmetry, the majority of particles are produced in Au-going (i.e., south) direction. Taking into account this asymmetry, only the clusters from the south arm are used for calculations in this analysis. In a typical 0-5% centrality event, there are on average 1500 FVTX clusters in the south arm alone.

### 1.1.3 BBC PMTs

The BBC provides information on the position, time of arrival, and number of charged particles that hit the BBC's quartz radiator material. The BBC acceptance is  $3.1 < |\eta| < 3.9$  and spans the full azimuth. The resolution of the detector in  $x$  and  $y$  is 5 cm, corresponding to the diameter of a BBC PMT. As with the FVTX, the  $z$  resolution is simply the width of the active area of the BBC divided by  $\sqrt{12}$ . In addition to spatial information, the BBC provides charge

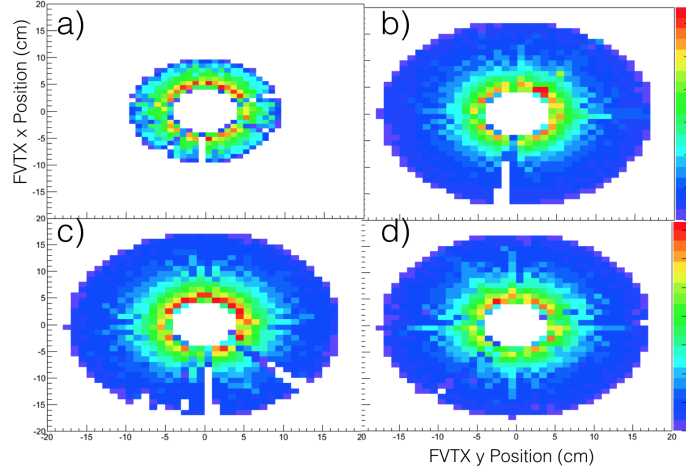


Figure 1.6: Distribution of FVTX clusters in  $x$  and  $y$  for layers 1, 2, 3, and 4 for panels a), b), c), and d), respectively. The color scale corresponds to the number of counts.

information, calibrated so that a value of 1.0 corresponds to a single charged particle hitting the detector. Fig 1.7 shows the layout of the PMTs for the BBC. As discussed in section ??, the information regarding arrival time and particle charge can be used to calculate the  $z$ -vertex of the collision.

## 1.2 The Event Plane Method

Some details of the event plane were given in Chapter 2 Section ?. The goal of this thesis is to measure  $v_2$ , which is related to collective behavior as evidenced by correlations among particles. These correlations exist relative to the orientation of the collision. The event plane method measures the azimuthal anisotropy in final state particles. The event plane method uses final state particles to calculate the event plane angle from the data. A different set of final state particles are used to define the event plane and measure the  $v_2$ .

An event plane angle is defined for each harmonic, and is denoted as  $\Psi_n$  where  $n$  is the harmonic number. The definition for  $\Psi_n$  is related to the calculation of the Q-vector. For an event with  $N$  particles, define the flow vector  $\vec{Q}$  as follows:

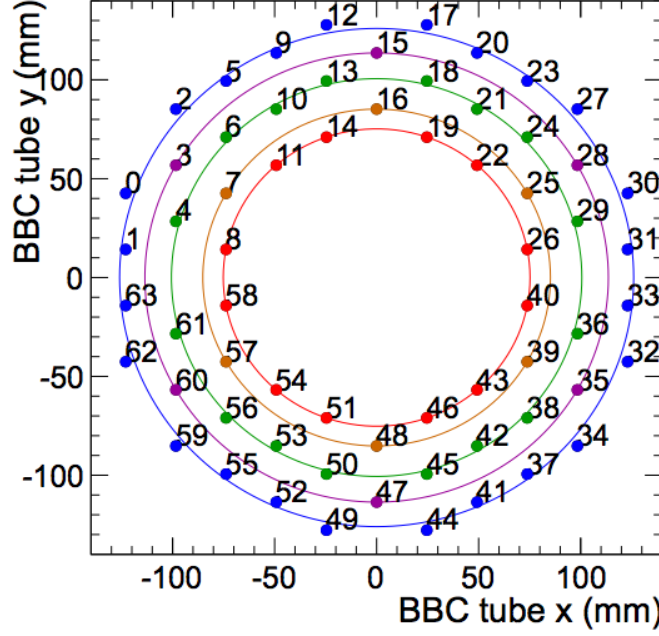


Figure 1.7: Diagram showing the positions of the PMTs for the BBC-south detector. Rings shown with the same color indicate PMTs at an approximate common radius.

$$Q_x = \sum_i^N (w_i * \cos(n * \phi_i)) \quad (1.3)$$

$$Q_y = \sum_i^N (w_i * \sin(n * \phi_i)) \quad (1.4)$$

$$Q_w = \sum_i^N (w_i) \quad (1.5)$$

where  $i$  is the  $i$ th particle in the event,  $\phi_i$  is the azimuthal angle of the particle,  $w_i$  is the weight factor, and  $n$  is the harmonic number. We define the  $n$ th order event plane as  $\Psi_n = \arctan\left(\frac{Q_y}{Q_x}\right)$ .

Once the event plane has been calculated, the flow harmonics ( $v_n$ ) are defined as

$$v_n = \frac{\langle\langle \cos(n(\phi - \Psi_n)) \rangle\rangle}{Resolution(\Psi_n)}, \quad (1.6)$$

where  $\langle\langle \rangle\rangle$  indicates that  $\cos(2\phi - \psi)$  is averaged over all particles in the same event, and the resulting  $v_2$  must be averaged over many events [25]. Note, the event plane angle and the q-vector are defined at the event level,  $v_2$ .

As discussed in Chapter 2, Section ??, the event plane angle is a measurement which attempts to correspond to the physical reaction plane angle. Thus, the event plane is an imperfect representation of the reaction plane which needs to be corrected. This correction is known as the event plane resolution  $Res(\Psi_n)$ , and is calculated using the 3-subevent method. It is important to note the the set of particles used to calculate  $\Psi_n$  and  $\phi$  must be different in order to avoid autocorrelations. This is usually done by imposing a large  $\eta$  gap (usually at least a half of a unit of pseudorapidity) between the two particle sets.

For this analysis, the event plane is calculated separately for each of the forward detectors mentioned above, i.e., the BBC and the FVTX. For the FVTX, the Q-vector is calculated in each event as

$$Q_x = \sum_i^{N_{Clus}} (\cos(n * \phi_i)) \quad (1.7)$$

$$Q_y = \sum_i^{N_{Clus}} (\sin(n * \phi_i)) \quad (1.8)$$

$$\phi_i = \arctan\left(\frac{Clus_y^i}{Clus_x^i}\right) \quad (1.9)$$

where  $N_{Clus}$  is the number FVTX clusters in that event and  $Clus_{y,x}^i$  are the  $x$  and  $y$  components of the  $i$ th FVTX Cluster in that event. At this point, this Q-vector is calculated with no cluster dependent weight factor because each cluster is taken to be equal weight.

For the BBC, the Q-vector is calculated in each event as

$$Q_x = \sum_i^{N_{PMT}} (w_i \cos(n * \phi_i)) \quad (1.10)$$

$$Q_y = \sum_i^{N_{PMT}} (w_i \sin(n * \phi_i)) \quad (1.11)$$

$$Q_w = \sum_i^{N_{PMT}} (w_i) \quad (1.12)$$

$$\phi_i = \arctan\left(\frac{PMT_y^i}{PMT_x^i}\right) \quad (1.13)$$

where  $w_i$  is the charge collected on the PMT and  $N_{PMT}$  is the number of PMTs that fired (above threshold) in each event.

Finally, the  $v_n$  are calculated using a combination of the BBC or FVTX Q-vectors and the CA tracks as

$$v_n = \frac{\langle \langle \cos(n(\phi^{CA} - \Psi_n^{BBC,FVTX})) \rangle \rangle}{Resolution(\Psi_n^{BBC,FVTX})}. \quad (1.14)$$

In this analysis, we are concerned only with measuring the second-order harmonic  $v_2$ .

### 1.2.1 Event Plane Resolution Calculation

As mentioned above, the event plane resolution is calculated using the standard 3-subevent method[25]. The strategy of this method is to measure  $\Psi_2$  with three different detectors in the same event, in order to better constrain the overall measurement of  $\Psi_2$ . The event plane resolution is defined as

$$Res(\Psi_2^A) = \sqrt{\frac{\langle \cos(2(\Psi_2^A - \Psi_2^B)) \rangle \langle \cos(2(\Psi_2^A - \Psi_2^C)) \rangle}{\langle \cos(2(\Psi_2^B - \Psi_2^C)) \rangle}}, \quad (1.15)$$

where A,B, and C are three detectors measuring the same event. Here, the term “subevent” refers to the specific subset of particles measured by a given detector, assuming no decorrelation [25].

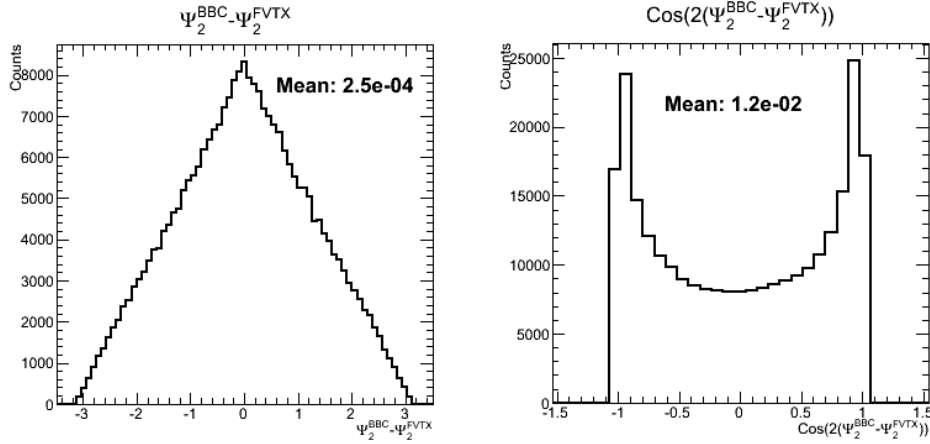


Figure 1.8: Intermediate steps involved in calculating the event resolution. (left) Raw difference between the event plane angles for two different detectors. This distribution is triangular because it is the result the cross-correlation of two uniform distributions,  $\Psi_2^{FVTX}$  and  $\Psi_2^{BBC}$ . (right) The cosine of two times the difference between the two event plane angles. The average of this distribution is used in equation 1.15.

In this analysis, the three detectors used to provide the required three subevents are the

FVTX-south, the BBC-south, and the CA, which span pseudorapidity acceptances of  $-3 < \eta < -1$ ,  $-3.9 < \eta < 3.1$ , and  $|\eta| < 0.35$ , respectively. Unlike the BBCS and the FVTXS, the CNT detector does not have full azimuthal acceptance coverage. Therefore, the event plane angle cannot be reliably calculated with this detector for events whose event plane points outside of the acceptance. In order to solve this problem, we calculate the event plane resolution using a different, yet mathematically equivalent formulation that does not make use of  $\psi_{CNT}$ , as given below:

$$Res(\Psi_n^A) = \sqrt{\frac{\langle\langle\cos(n(\Psi_n^A - \phi^{CNT}))\rangle\rangle \langle\cos(n(\Psi_n^A - \Psi_n^C))\rangle}{\langle\langle\cos(n(\phi^{CNT} - \Psi_n^C))\rangle\rangle}}, \quad (1.16)$$

where there is a double average over each CNT track and each event.

Table 1.4:

Detector	$n = 2$	$n = 3$
FVTXs	0.216	0.010
BBCs	0.052	0.010

### 1.2.2 Event Plane Flattening Calibration

In order for the event plane to be useful in making a  $v_n$  measurement, the event plane angle must be calibrated such that its distribution is uniform. For the event plane method, a physical assumption is made that the true distribution of  $\Psi_n$  angles will be uniform. In other words, there is no preferred event plane angle in heavy ion collision. If the measured  $\Psi_n$  distribution is not flat, we attribute that behavior to variations in the efficiency of detecting charged particles as a function of  $\phi$ . Thus, the event plane calibration procedure seeks to correct for these non-uniformities in acceptance, and restore the  $\Psi_n$  distribution to the physical expectation of uniformity. We employ a procedure to re-center and flatten the measured non-uniform  $\Psi_n$  distribution, such as the one shown in Figure 1.2.2.

The red curve in Fig. 1.2.2 depicts a significant deviation from uniformity in the  $\Psi_2$  distribution. The flattening calibration attempts to correct for this lack of uniformity by shifting



the  $\Psi_2$  value of each individual event by an amount corresponding to the deviation of the overall distribution for all events. Although this procedure results in a uniform  $\Psi_2$  distribution, applying too large of a correction arising from an exceedingly distorted initial distribution can lead to systematic effects on the  $v_2$  measurement, which will be discussed in the next section. Therefore, it is important to address any systematic effects that would affect the uniformity of the  $\Psi_2$  distribution.

The flattening calibration requires two steps to completely flatten the  $\Psi_n$  distribution. The first step of the calibration is to re-center the mean of the raw  $\Psi_n$  distribution to be at 0.0 radians and to resize the RMS. The second step is to Fourier transform the re-centered distribution and use the transformation to shift the  $\Psi_n$  values to a uniform distribution. With flattening, each  $\Psi_n$  is transformed to  $\Psi_n + \Delta\Psi_n$ .  $\Delta\Psi_n$  is defined as

$$\Delta\Psi_n = \sum_{i=1}^N \left( \frac{2}{i} \left( \sin(i\Psi) F_i^{\cos}(f(\Psi_n)) - \cos(i\Psi) F_i^{\sin}(f(\Psi_n)) \right) \right), \quad (1.17)$$

where  $N$  is the number of components,  $F_i^{\cos}(f(x))$  is the  $i$ th component of the cosine Fourier transform of  $f(x)$ , and  $f(\Psi_n)$  is the  $\Psi_n$  distribution. For this analysis,  $N = 12$  is a sufficient number of components to flatten the  $\Psi_n$  distribution. The re-centering and flattening calibration is done in separate 30 z-vertex bins.

### 1.3 East West $v_2$ Discrepancy

As discussed in the previous section, distortions in the raw  $\Psi_2$  distribution can cause distortions in the measurement of  $v_2$ . In this section, we discuss how the beam alignment effects the raw  $\Psi_2$  distribution and how it can be corrected for.

As shown in Fig 1.10,  $v_2$  is different when measured using tracks in the west ( $-1 < \phi < 1$ ) and east arm ( $2 < \phi < 4$ ) of the CA. This is a systematic effect explained by the colliding beams not being parallel to the longitudinal axis of PHENIX. When examining beam alignment effects on the  $v_2$  measurement, we can quantify the east west  $v_2$  asymmetry by calculating  $R_{v_2}$  which is

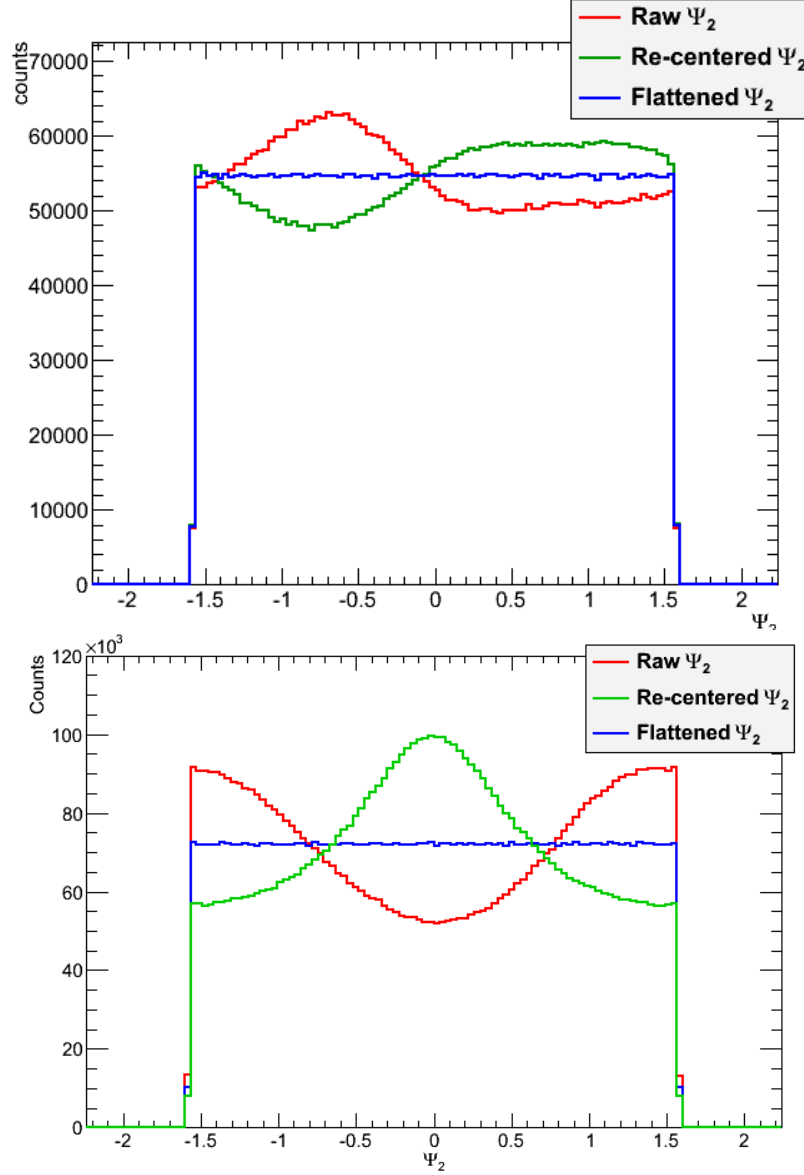


Figure 1.9: This is the  $\Psi_2$  distribution projected over all z-vertex bins at different steps during the calibration. The top is from the FVTX south and the bottom is from the BBC south. The range of the  $\Psi_2$  resolution is from  $-\frac{\pi}{2}$  to  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  because of the periodicity. The raw (in red)  $\Psi_2$  distribution has a sinusoidal shape. The re-centered (in green)  $\Psi_2$  distribution moves the mean. The flattened (in blue)  $\Psi_2$  distribution spreads out the counts so that there is uniformity. Each calibration step preserves the integral.

calculated by:

$$R_{v_2} = \frac{\sum_{p_T} v_2^{east}(p_T)}{\sum_{p_T} v_2^{west}(p_T)}. \quad (1.18)$$

In Figure 1.12,  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}}$  can be extracted by taking the ratio of the numbers in the legend of the

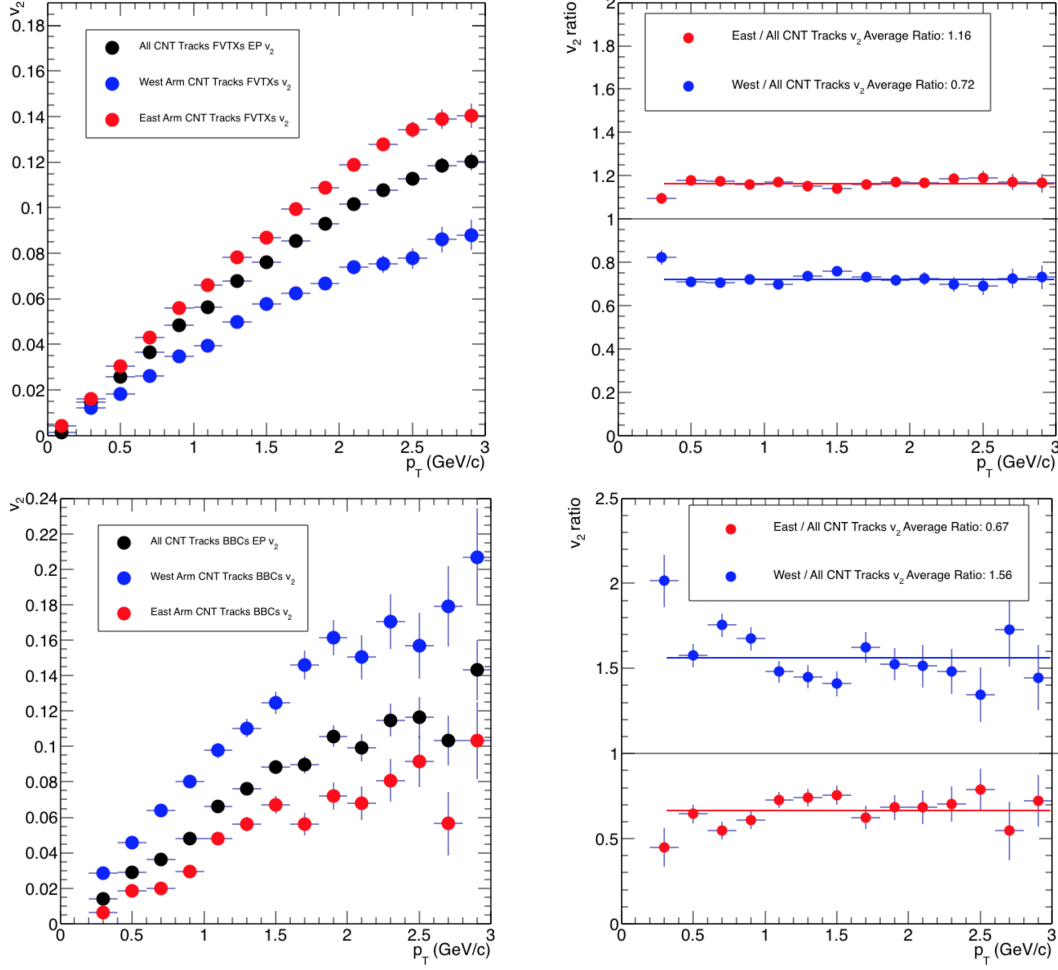


Figure 1.10: First attempt at measuring  $v_2(p_T)$  with the event plane as calculated with the FVTXs (top left) and the BBCs (bottom left) in the p+Au at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV dataset, using the default resolution as shown in Table 1.4. The black points show  $v_2$  measured using all CNT tracks. The blue and red points show  $v_2$  measured using only tracks in the west and east arms, respectively. The ratios are fit with a constant, whose value is shown in the legend.

upper right plot and  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  can be extracted the same way for the numbers in the bottom left plot's legend. The  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}} = 1.61$  while the  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}} = 0.43$ , indicating large east west asymmetry in both measurements, although the  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  is bigger. It is interesting to note that the splitting of the east and west  $v_2$  measurements goes in opposite directions for the BBCs as opposed to the FVTXs. To understand where the discrepancy in these  $v_2$  measurements comes from, we examine the effects of the beam alignment on the  $v_2$  measurement.

## 1.4 Correcting for the Effects of Beam Alignment

First of all, the collision vertex is significantly offset from the  $z$ -axis to which all of the PHENIX detectors are aligned. The other beam geometry effect, and the more significant of the two effects, comes from the fact that the beams are colliding at an angle of 3.6 milli-Radians in the  $x$ - $z$  plane as show in Fig 1.11 [3]. The reason a non-ideal beam geometry creates an east west  $v_2$  measurement difference is because of the assumption that the ideal event plane angle is azimuthally isotropic during the event plane flattening calibration. In the translated and rotated frame where the beams are aligned with the  $z$ -axis the event plane distribution would be uniform, but in the lab frame the event plane distribution in  $\phi$  would have regions of enhancement and reduction. The event plane flattening calibration algorithm restores a non-uniform distribution to a uniform one; however, if the true event plane distribution is non-uniform then forcing the measured distribution to be uniform would produce systematic errors.

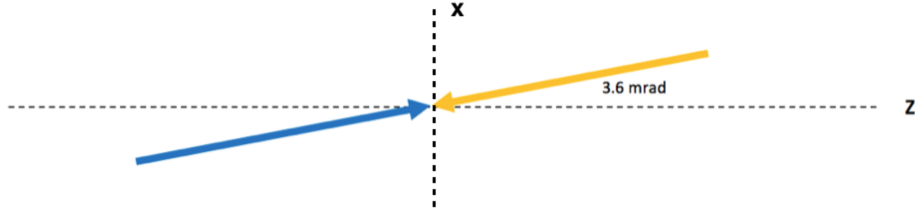


Figure 1.11: Diagram illustrating the angle at which the yellow and blue beams collide relative to the longitudinal  $z$ -axis of the detector. The yellow beam corresponds to the Au (south-going) beam, and blue corresponds to the proton (north-going) beam. Due to a necessity of running p+Au collisions at  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV at RHIC, the beams collide at an angle of 3.6 mrad.

We correct for the offset of the collision vertex by shifting the origin of the PHENIX global coordinate system to the true collision vertex. To correct for the effect of the beam angle, we apply a global rotation of the PHENIX coordinate to align its longitudinal axis with that of the beams. In practice, these transformations are accomplished by individually applying a global rotation and translation to every CA track, FVTX cluster, and BBCs PMT.

As shown in Fig 1.12, applying these corrections prior to calculating  $v_2$  reduces the magnitude of the east-west discrepancy. The new  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}} = 1.43$ , while the  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}} = 0.66$ , which is a reduction from east-west difference measured without any corrections. However, even after rotating the PHENIX global coordinate system to be in alignment with the beam axis, due to the fact  $\Psi_2$  is a derived quantity, there is a residual effect from the beam rotation which still effects the  $v_2$  measurement.

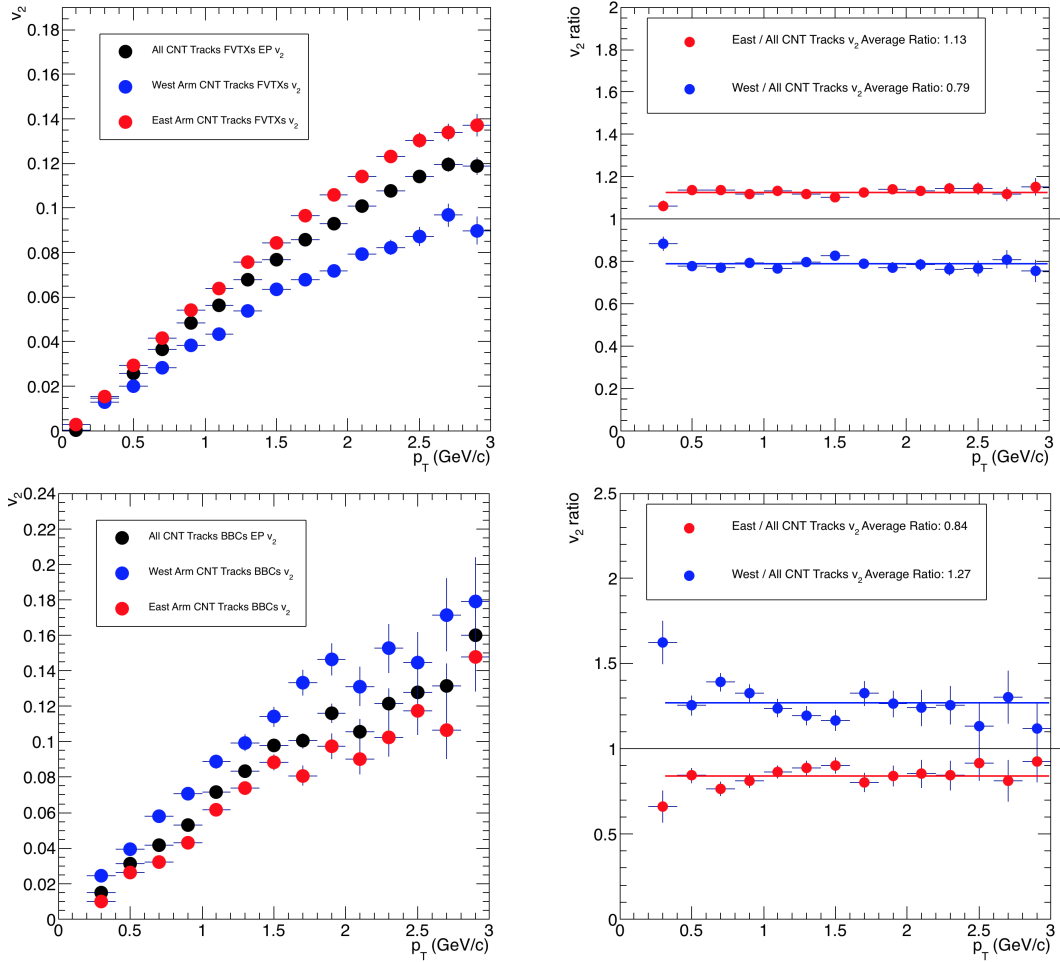


Figure 1.12: A corrected measurement of  $v_2$  as a function of  $p_T$  with the FVTXs (top two panels) and the BBCs (bottom two panels) event plane for the p+Au  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV dataset. The default resolution as shown in table 1.4 is used. The plotting conventions are the same as described in the caption of Fig 1.10.

To explain this effect, consider a cylindrical disk with a hole in the middle, centered about

the z-axis (in analogy to the shape of the FVTX and the BBC), as shown in the left plot of Fig 1.13. In this geometry, all points along a ring of constant radius are at the same pseudorapidity. However, if one were to tilt that disk, the pseudorapidity of points along that ring would be  $\phi$  dependent. The tilt of the disk changes its pseudorapidity acceptance and its extent. Now consider that it is not the disk that is tilted but rather the beam orientation that is tilted. The previous statements about the effect on the  $\eta$  range being  $\phi$  dependent still apply.

The combination of the  $\eta$  acceptance changing, and the  $\eta$  distribution of charged particles not being flat means that the average amount of charged particles going through the disk would be systematically  $\phi$  dependent, as illustrated in Fig 1.13. If the average charged particle distribution is not uniform in  $\phi$ , the event plane distribution will not be either. This results in the flattening procedure creating systematic effects such as the east-west  $v_2$  asymmetry.

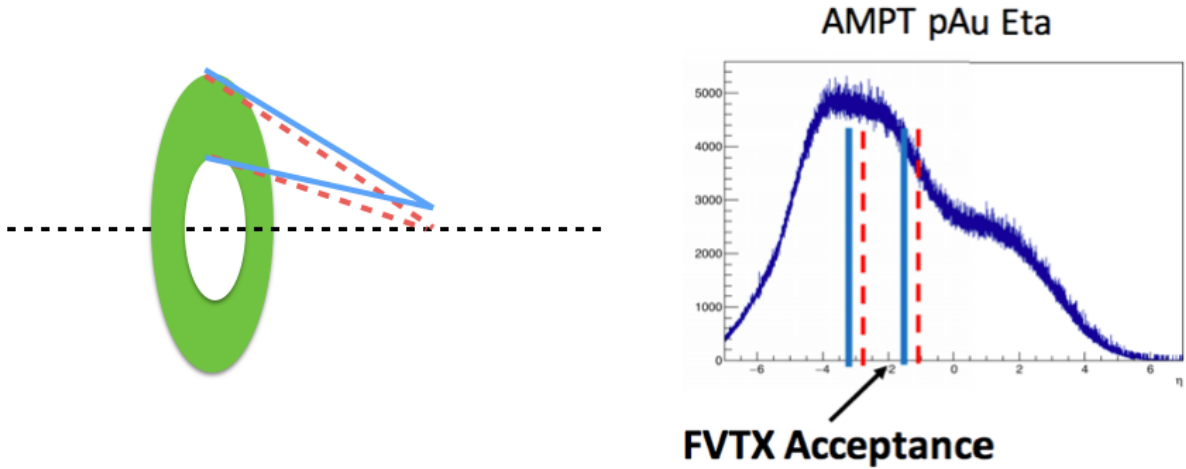


Figure 1.13: (left) Cartoon diagram illustrating  $\eta$  acceptance shift due to a beam offset in one of the FVTXs layers. (right) Pseudorapidity distribution of charged particles from the AMPT Monte Carlo generator for p+Au  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV, showing the shift in  $\eta$  acceptance.

In order to correct for this effect, an additional weight factor is introduced for FVTX clusters and BBC PMTs during the event plane calculation. This factor is such that hits in  $\phi$  regions with systematically less particles are given a larger weight, and correspondingly, hits in  $\phi$  regions with systematically more particles are weighted less. The introduction of this weighting as defined below

does not formally change the event plane calculation, as a weight factor is already implemented in its construction. The modified weight factor is:

$$w_i = w_i^D * F(\phi, Vertex_Z) \quad (1.19)$$

where  $w_i^D$  is the default weighting associated with the detector element, and  $F(\phi, Vertex_Z)$  is the multiplicative weighting to correct for the beam geometry.  $F(\phi, Vertex_Z)$  is dependent on  $Vertex_Z$ , in addition to  $\phi$ , because  $\eta$  is dependent on the collision vertex. One can analytically calculate this  $\phi$  dependent weight factor using the geometry of the FVTXs and BBCs as well as using the  $\eta$  distribution of charged particles. Unfortunately, the  $\eta$  distribution of charged particles in p+Au  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV has not been measured by an experiment, so we must rely on models that may be inaccurate.

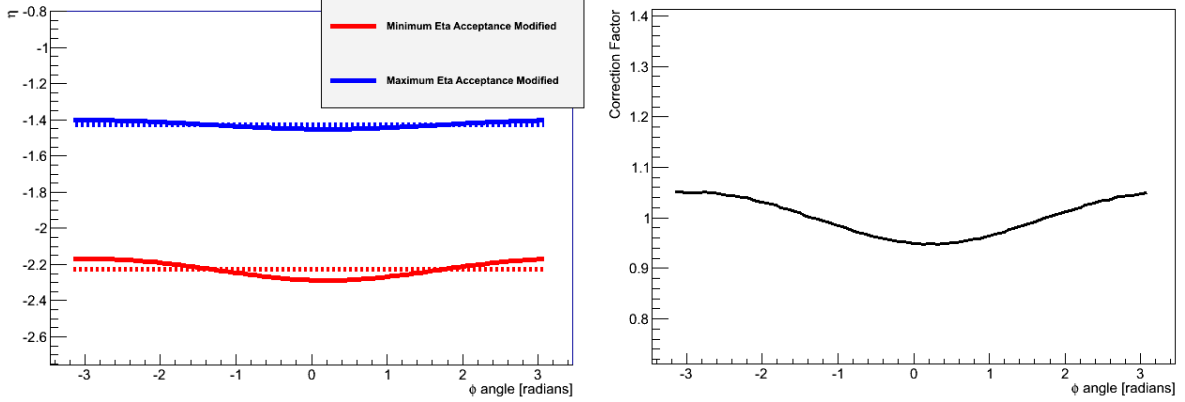


Figure 1.14: The left is the modification of the  $\eta$  acceptance as a function of  $\phi$  for the FVTX first layer. The right is the calculated correction factor from this modification.

Another way to determine the weight factor is to use a data driven method of measuring to what extent each  $\phi$  region in a detector has systematically more or less particles. Then an inverse weighting based on this measurement is applied to the  $\phi$  regions to correct the detector's  $\phi$  distribution to uniformity. The precise implementation of measuring and applying the uniformity of the  $\phi$  regions in a detector will be examined further in the following sections.

### 1.4.1 FVTX Inverse Phi Weighting

For this method, the weight factor is determined by plotting all hits in a cylindrical disk detector vs  $\phi$ , normalizing this distribution to one, and then inverting it. Applying this weight factor to the data will produce uniform hit distributions in  $\phi$  in the detectors in which it is applied. This will, in turn, make the event plane distribution more uniform when measured in those detectors, thus correcting for the effect. The added benefit of using this method is also correcting for hot and cold  $\phi$  regions in the detector. In order to get rid of significant hot or cold  $\phi$  regions,  $\phi$  regions with weight factors greater than 1.5 or less than 0.5 are set to 0.0. This correction is done for each FVTX layer, in z-vertex bins, and per run. The multiplicative weight function  $F(\phi, Vertex_Z)$  for the FVTX disks is defined as

$$F(\phi, Vertex_Z, layer) = \frac{\langle N_{CLUS}(Vertex_Z, layer) \rangle}{N_{CLUS}(\phi, Vertex_Z, layer)}, \quad (1.20)$$

where  $N_{CLUS}(\phi, Vertex_Z, layer)$  is the number of FVTX clusters as a function of  $\phi$ ,  $Vertex_Z$ , and FVTX layer and  $\langle N_{CLUS}(Vertex_Z, layer) \rangle$  is the  $\phi$  average of the number of clusters. The weighting can be seen in Fig 1.15. A comparison between the FVTX weighting and the analytic correction is shown. The good agreement indicates the validity of the weighting.

### 1.4.2 BBC Charge Weighting

For the BBC, we used another data driven method to correct for the non-uniform particle distribution. Using the distribution of particles in the BBC from the 2015 p+p  $\sqrt{s} = 200$  dataset as a baseline, we applied an inverse weighting much like the method described in the previous paragraph. In the p+p dataset, there was no issue with beam colliding at an angle and the average charge across all 64 PMTs in the BBCs is uniform. In this method, the multiplicative weight function  $F(PMT, Vertex_Z)$  for the BBCs is defined as:

$$F(PMT, Vertex_Z) = \frac{\langle N_{Charge}^{p+p}(Vertex_Z) \rangle}{\langle N_{Charge}^{p+Au}(PMT, Vertex_Z) \rangle}, \quad (1.21)$$



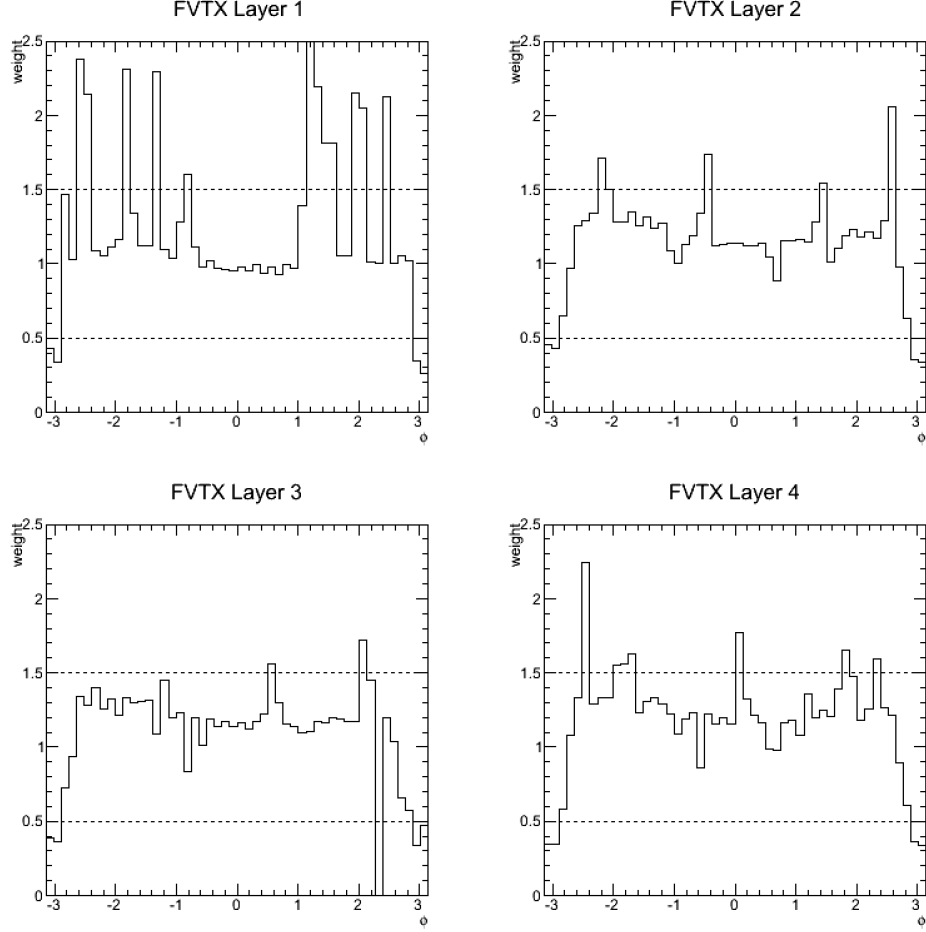


Figure 1.15: These four panels show the FVTX  $\phi$  dependent cluster weighting when calculating the FVTX event plane for each layer separately for events with a collision vertex in  $z$  is around 0. There are some  $\phi$  regions where weight factor is outside of the dotted line bounds. This indicates that either there was a severe deficit or excess of clusters measured in the region. Later, we will examine the effect of keeping these regions or cutting them out on the  $v_2$  measurement.

where  $\langle N_{Charge}^{p+p,p+Au}(PMT, Vertex_z) \rangle$  is the event averaged charge as a function of PMT and  $Vertex_z$  for the p+p and p+Au datasets respectively. This weight function is shown in Fig 1.17 and is applied directly to the event plane calculation using Eqns 1.19 and 1.13. Although the weight function could be defined as a function of  $\phi$  like in the FVTX case, the positions of the PMTs in the BBC are fixed and it is more direct to take the ratio between PMTs.

One effect of using this weighting method is that it will make the distribution of particles in the BBC in  $\phi$  and  $\eta$  uniform. This can be illustrated by looking at Fig 1.18. It is apparent that the

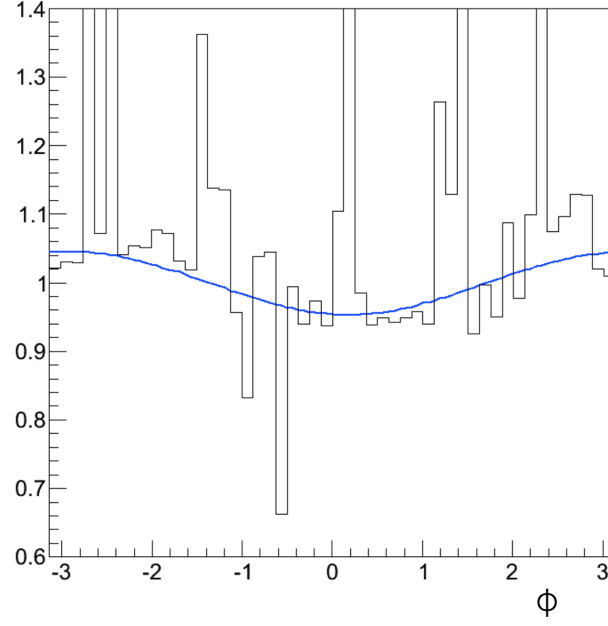


Figure 1.16: The black is the FVTX weighting and the blue is the analytic weighting. They have good agreement.

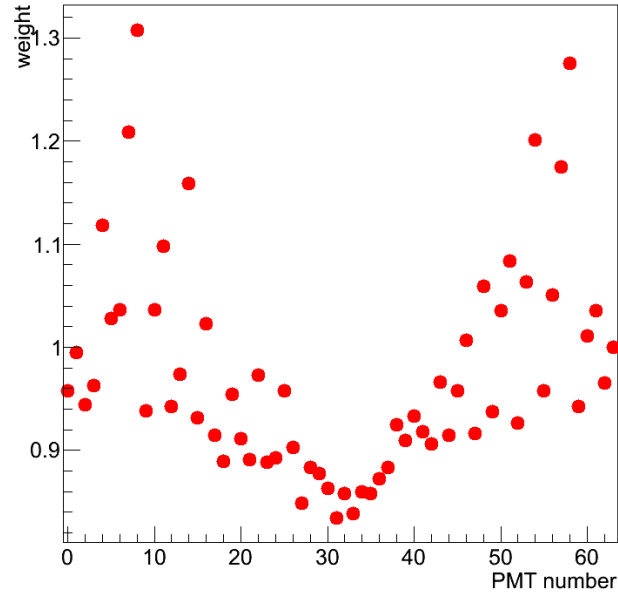


Figure 1.17: Shown here is BBC the multiplicative weight factor  $F$  used when calculating the modified event plane for events where the collision vertex in  $z$  is around 0. The y-axis is the weight factor and the x-axis is the PMT number for the BBCs (there are 64 total in the BBCs).

p+p average charge is much more uniform than the p+Au average charge as a function of  $\phi$  and

ring. After applying the p+p/p+Au ratio weighting, which is essentially dividing the left plot by the right plot in Fig 1.18, the PMT charges in ring 1 for the p+Au dataset will be deweighted so that their corrected average charge will be uniform in  $\phi$ , and in agreement with the average charge for the other rings. If all the BBC rings have the same average charge, this means that the average charge as a function of  $\eta$  for the BBC will be approximately uniform. This is one reason why this method (p+p/p+Au ratio weighting) is preferred for the BBC, because the variations in the average charge between the rings are normalized. One could apply the FVTX method of inverse  $\phi$  weighting by inverting the right plot of Fig 1.18 to find the weight function. However, although using only the p+Au dataset would normalize the average charge as a function of  $\phi$ , it would not normalize the charge as a function of  $\eta$ . Both methods applied to the data are shown in the next section but the p+p/p+Au ratio method does better.

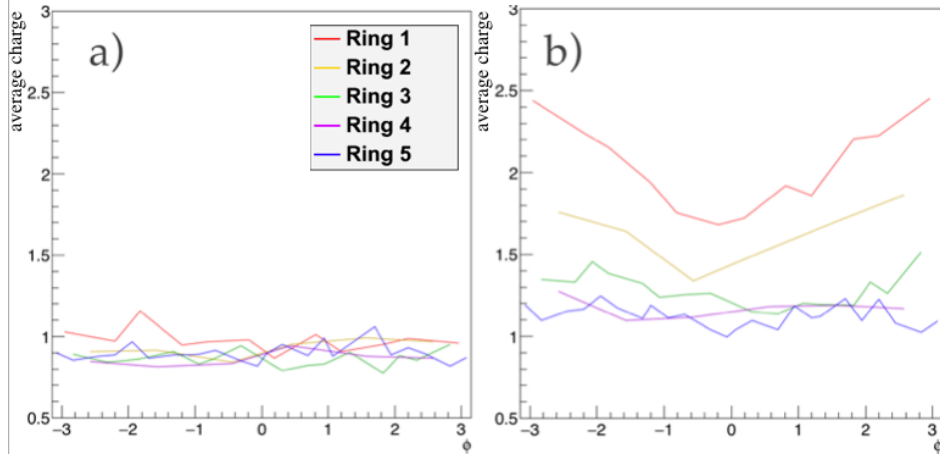


Figure 1.18: These plots depict the average PMT charge per event versus  $\phi$  in the a) the p+p  $\sqrt{s} = 200$  GeV and b) p+Au  $\sqrt{s_{NN}} = 200$  GeV. The PMTs are separated by color, which corresponds to the rings of approximate common radius as shown in Fig 1.7. The left plot shows near uniformity as a function of  $\phi$  and ring. However, the right plot shows a significant deviation from uniformity especially for the innermost rings (rings 1 and 2). In addition to the  $\phi$  variation for the right plot, the innermost rings have the largest average charge when compared to the other rings. This is in part due to the fact the innermost rings cover the a slightly larger  $\eta$  range. However, the innermost rings in the left plot also cover the largest  $\eta$  range and do not exhibit this separation in rings.

### 1.4.3 Applying Weighting to $v_2$

The previously discussed corrections are applied when calculating the raw  $\Psi_2^{FVTXs}$  used in the  $v_2$  measurement. Shown in Figure 1.19 is the correction summary for the FVTXs  $v_2$  measurement where  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}}$  is the y-axis. The first column, which corresponds to  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}}$  calculated using FVTXs layers 1, 2, and 4, with layer 3 being excluded, is explained shortly. The black, red, blue, and green points correspond to no weighting, analytic weighting, inverse  $\phi$  weighting, and inverse  $\phi$  weighting with cuts, respectively. Compared to the  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}}$  calculated with no weighting,  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}}$  calculated with each of the corrections brings the ratio quantity much closer to 1.0, indicating the weighting techniques are working. In order to better understand the effect of the corrections,  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}}$  is measured separately with each FVTXs layer. The rationale for this exclusion is due to FVTXs layer 3's unusual behavior in relation to the other FVTXs layers. As we go from layer 1 to layer 4, the  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}}$  generally is trending downward except for layer 3. Although the reason for this was never definitively determined, it is likely there is something wrong with the layer data due to electronic or detector problems. Thus, the measurement of  $v_2^{FVTXs}$  is calculated without any clusters in the third layer.

Similarly, Figure 1.20 is the correction summary for the BBCs  $v_2$  measurement where  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  is the y-axis. The first column corresponds to  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  calculated using all five BBCs rings. Compared to the  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  when calculated with no weighting,  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  when calculated with the data driven and p+p/p+Au ratio weighting is modestly closer to 1.0. By looking at  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  calculated with PMTs in individual BBCs rings for the weighted points,  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  is generally trending downward as a function of ring number. Applying the weighting corrections to  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  calculated by ring 1, the innermost ring, over-corrects  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$ . This may be explained by the fact that ring 1 covers the largest  $\eta$  acceptance range, causing the correction to be inconsistent. The reason why ring 1 is not excluded from the inclusive  $v_2$  calculation, like FVTXs layer 3 excluded, is because there is no reasonable justification to exclude it other than its over-corrected  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  values. While FVTXs layer 3 breaks the trend of  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}}$  decreasing, BBCs ring 1 follows the  $R_{v_2^{BBCs}}$  ring trend.

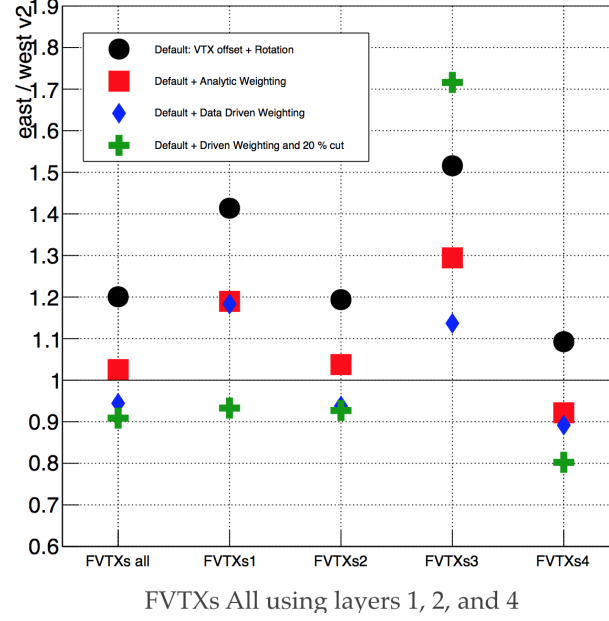


Figure 1.19: Plotted is the FVTXs correction summary where the y-axis is the east/west  $v_2$  ratio and the x-axis is the different subset of clusters used to calculate the  $v_2$ . The black markers correspond to the default corrections. The red boxes correspond to the corrections with the analytic weighting shown in Fig 1.14. The blue diamonds are the FVTX inverse  $\phi$  weighting as shown in section 1.4.1. Finally, the green crosses correspond to the same as the blue diamonds except an additional hot-cold filter of 20% was applied. The first column is using all the FVTXs layers except for the 3rd layer (explained in the text). So the first columns should be approximately the average of columns 2, 3, and 5. Columns 2 through 5 show the ratio calculated from clusters only in that layer.

Fig 1.21 shows the  $v_2(p_T)$  with the inverse  $\phi$  weighting and 20 % cut from Figure 1.19. This figure also shows  $v_2(p_T)$  with the pp/pAu ratio weighting from Fig 1.20. Although the east and west  $v_2^{BBCs}$  measurements do not collapse together like the east and west  $v_2^{FVTXs}$  measurements, the result is good enough to reduce our systematics uncertainty. Due to the fact that  $R_{v_2^{FVTXs}}$  is corrected to within  $\pm 10\%$  and the fact that  $v_2^{FVTXs}(p_T)$  has smaller a statistical uncertainty, the primary  $v_2(p_T)$  measurement is done using the FVTXs.

## 1.5 Systematic Uncertainties

The dominant systematic uncertainties associated with the  $v_2(p_T)$  measurement are as follows: (1) track background from photonic conversions and weak decays, which we estimate at 2%

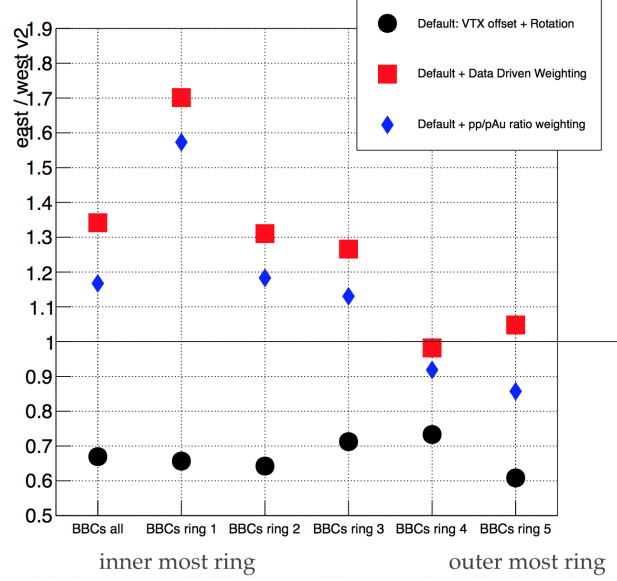


Figure 1.20: Plotted is the BBC correction summary where the y-axis is the east/west  $v_2$  ratio and the x-axis is the different subset of PMTs used to calculate the  $v_2$ . The black markers correspond to the default corrections. The red boxes correspond to the corrections with the analytic weighting shown in Fig 1.14. Finally, the blue diamonds correspond to the BBC inverse  $\phi$  charge weighting as shown in section 1.4.2. The first column is the quantity calculated from all PMTs. Columns 2 through 6 are using PMTs from certain rings as defined in Fig 1.7. Ring 1 is the hardest to correct. The first column should approximately be the average of all the other columns.

relative to  $v_2$  by varying the windows in the PC3 matching variables from  $3\sigma$  to  $2\sigma$ ; (2) many collisions occurring in the same bunch crossing, that occur at a rate of 8% in 0-5% central p+Au collisions. Low-luminosity and high-luminosity subsets of the data were analyzed, and the systematic uncertainty was determined to be  $^{+4\%}_{-0\%}$ , since the  $v_2$  was found to decrease in the events that contain a pile-up; (3) non-flow correlations which enhance the  $v_2$ , whose contribution we estimate from Fig. 1.24, assigning a  $p_T$ -dependent asymmetric uncertainty with a maximum value of  $^{+0}_{-23}\%$ ; (4) as discussed in the previous section, the beam alignment effects on the determination of  $\Psi_2$ . We assign a value of 5% for this systematic uncertainty by taking the difference of  $v_2$  when measured independently in the east and the west arms after applying the necessary corrections; (5) the difference in the  $v_2(p_T)$  values when measured independently using the BBCs and FVTXs event planes, which differ by  $\pm 3\%$ .

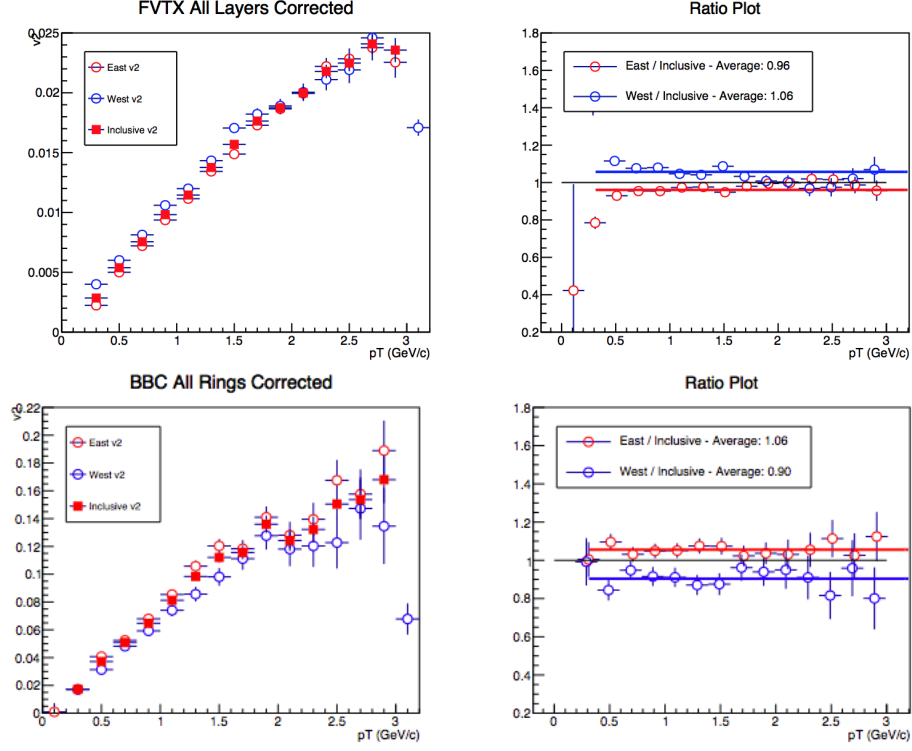


Figure 1.21: FVTXs  $v_2$  event plane measurement corrected with inverse  $\phi$  weighting and 20 % cut with FVTXs layer 3 is excluded (top) and BBCs  $v_2$  event plane measurement corrected with p+p/p+Au ratio weighting (bottom).

Table 1.5 summarizes of all these systematic uncertainties, categorized by type:

- (1) point-to-point uncorrelated between  $p_T$  bins,
- (2) point-to-point correlated between  $p_T$  bins,
- (3) overall normalization uncertainty in which all points are scaled by the same multiplicative factor.

### 1.5.1 Effect of Event Pile-Up

Pile-up events occur when there are two or more collisions within the same bunch crossing.

Pile-up events are an issue for this analysis because they:

Table 1.5: Systematic uncertainties given as a percent of the  $v_2$  measurement. Note that the non-flow contribution is  $p_T$  dependent and the value here quoted corresponds to the highest measured  $p_T$ .

Source	Systematic Uncertainty	Type
Track Background	2.0%	1
Event Pile-up	$^{+4}_{-0}\%$	2
Non-Flow	$^{+0}_{-23}\%$	2
Beam Angle	5.0%	3
Event Plane Detectors	3%	3

- (1) are erroneously included into the 0-5% centrality selection due to two smaller collisions looking like a larger collision,
- (2) and reduce the value of  $v_2$  because the event plane angle from one collision will be different than the event plane angle in the other collision, such that correlations calculated by using particles produced from the two collisions are random and will dilute the real correlations, thereby reducing the flow signal.

In order to filter pile-up events we look at the distribution of BBC PMT timing values as seen in Fig 1.22. A normal event is strongly peaked at 0 while a pile-up event has a broad distribution and may not be centered at 0. We can come up with an algorithm to efficiently filter pile-up events by analyzing the BBC PMT timing value distribution event by event. When the  $v_2$  values are compared with and without the filter, a difference of 4% is seen.

### 1.5.2 Effects of Non-Flow

Non-flow is a catch-all term used to categorize all types of long-range angular correlations which do not arise from hydrodynamic flow and are not related to the initial collision geometry. Non-flow constitutes a significant background to our measurement. There are several known sources of non-flow:

- (1) hard scattering events producing dijets



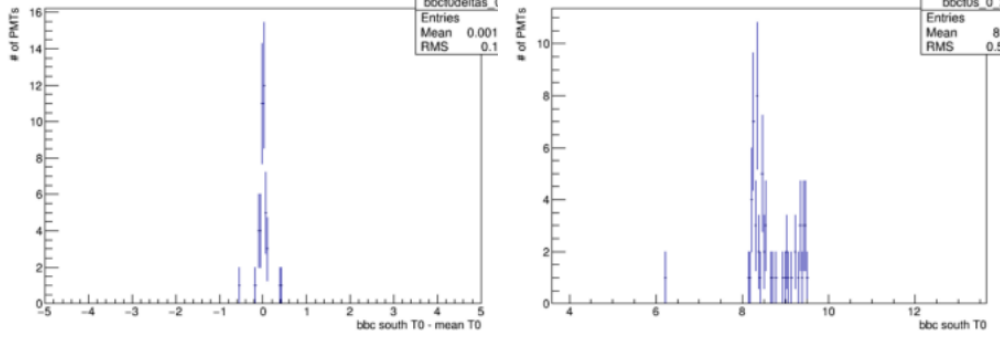


Figure 1.22: The distribution of BBC PMT timing values. The x-axis is the difference between the southern BBC PMT  $t_0$  - the mean  $t_0$  in the south. An example of a normal event (left) and an example pile-up event (right), are shown.

- (2) initial state correlations between target and projectile
- (3) decay chains of exotic particles
- (4) momentum conservation.

Fig 1.23 shows the characteristic two-particle correlations arising from non-flow associated with dijets. The near-side peak at  $(0,0)$  is from the cone of particles in a single jet all at a similar location in  $\eta$  and  $\phi$ . The away-side ridge around  $\phi = \pi$  originates from particles pairs, where each particle belongs to a different jet. The two jets are completely back-to-back in  $\Delta\phi$ , but have a spread in  $\Delta\eta$ . This correlation function yields a substantial  $c_2$  very similar to that from the hydrodynamic flow signal we are seeking. In order to minimize the contribution of dijet events, the standard flow analysis procedure is to select regions outside of the red dotted lines seen in Fig 1.23 ( $|\Delta\eta| > \eta_{min}$ , where  $\eta_{min}$  is usually of order 1.0 unit of pseudorapidity).

In order to estimate the degree of presence of non-flow, we can measure the  $c_2$  from p+p events which should be devoid of any hydrodynamic flow but should have many of the sources of non-flow present. In order to compare p+p with p+Au, we must scale-up the p+p quantity by the dilution factor defined in eq 1.22. The scaled down reference  $c_2$  is shown as blue squares in Fig. 1.24, panel (a). The ratio of  $c_2$  in the scaled-down p+p reference to that in p+Au is shown in panel (b).

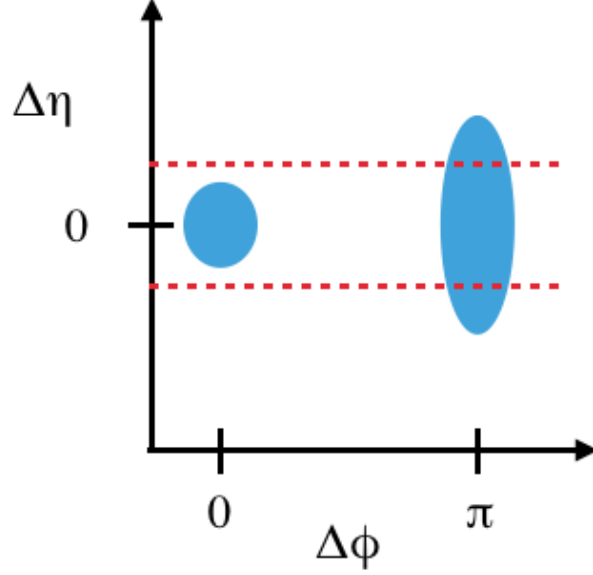


Figure 1.23: Plotted here is the 2D profile of a correlation function in  $\Delta\eta\Delta\phi$  space of a dijet event. The area in red dotted lines represent the exclusion zone in  $\Delta\eta$ , such that the measurement is made only using data from outside of the exclusion zone to reduce non-flow contributions.

From this ratio, as calculated in 1.22, it can be seen that the relative correlation strength in p+Au from elementary processes is at most 23% at the highest  $p_T$ . Since this procedure constitutes an approximation to quantify the non-flow correlation strength, it is not subtracted from the total signal, instead it is treated as a source of systematic uncertainty. Even though the p+Au and the p+p baseline data were collected in different years, such that potential changes in detector performance could affect our results, it was verified that using p+p data from various run periods has an effect of at most 3% on the calculated non-flow contribution.

$$c_2^{\text{pAu elementary}}(p_T) \simeq c_2^{p+p}(p_T) \frac{(\sum Q^{\text{BBC-S}})_{p+p}}{(\sum Q^{\text{BBC-S}})_{\text{pAu}}}. \quad (1.22)$$

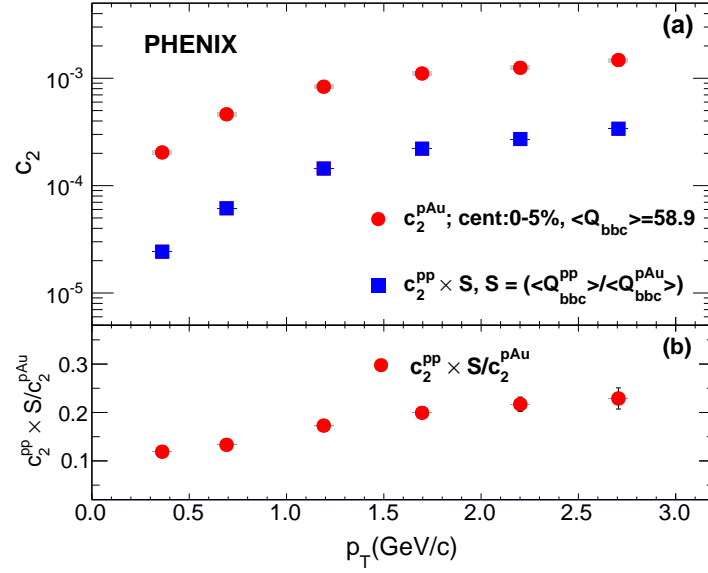


Figure 1.24: (a) The second order harmonic coefficients  $c_2(p_T)$  for long range angular correlations in 0%–5% p+Au collisions, as well as for minimum bias p+p collisions. The latter are scaled down by the factor  $(\sum Q^{BBC-S})_{p+p} / (\sum Q^{BBC-S})_{pAu}$ . (b) The ratio of the two harmonics is plotted with the corresponding statistical errors.

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