Space, time, and color in hadron production via $e^+e^- \rightarrow Z^0$ and $e^+e^- \rightarrow W^+W^-$

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The time evolution of jets in hadronic e^+e^- events at CERN LEP is investigated in both position and momentum space, with emphasis on effects due to color flow and particle correlations. We address dynamical aspects of the four simultaneously evolving, cross-talking parton cascades that appear in the reaction $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma^*/Z^0 \rightarrow W^+W^- \rightarrow q_1\bar{q}_2q_3\bar{q}_4$, and compare with the familiar two-parton cascades in $e^+e^- \rightarrow Z^0 \rightarrow q_1\bar{q}_2$. We use a QCD statistical transport approach, in which the multiparticle final state is treated as an evolving mixture of partons and hadrons, whose proportions are controlled by their local space-time geography via standard perturbative QCD parton shower evolution and a phenomenological model for nonperturbative parton-cluster formation followed by cluster decays into hadrons. Our numerical simulations exhibit a characteristic “inside-outside” evolution simultaneously in position and momentum space. We compare three different model treatments of color flow, and find large effects due to cluster formation by the combination of partons from different W parents. In particular, we find in our preferred model a shift of several hundred MeV in the apparent mass of the W , which is considerably larger than in previous model calculations. This suggests that the determination of the W mass at LEP 2 may turn out to be a sensitive probe of spatial correlations and hadronization dynamics. [S0556-2821(96)00815-6]

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I. INTRODUCTION

One of the primary physics topics at the second phase of the CERN e^+e^- collider LEP is expected to be the determination of the $W^\pm$ mass. Because of the higher statistics and the possibility of using more kinematic constraints in the absence of energetic neutrinos from leptonic $W^\pm$ decays, there is great interest in using purely hadronic decays of W^+W^- pairs. A major challenge in the analysis of these events is the assignment of the observed hadrons to the parent $W^\pm$, which may alternatively be regarded as a novel opportunity to study “nontrivial” space, time, and color correlations of multiple partons in the production and decay of W^+W^- pairs. Compared with jet fragmentation in e^+e^- collisions on the Z^0 peak, the expected new physics aspects are due to the fact that the W^+ and W^- decay very rapidly after their production into two jets each, while they are still practically on top of one another. Hence, one must deal with an initial parton configuration consisting of two quark-antiquark pairs that are produced very close in both space and time. The subsequent evolution of the system via parton showering and parton-hadron conversion is therefore subject to interference and combination, between the decay products of the $W^\pm$, and correlation effects due to the local density of particles. This situation is to be contrasted with the more familiar two-jet events, in which a single back-to-back initial pair of partons evolves essentially unscathed in empty space.

Treating these interference, combination, and correlation effects certainly requires a detailed understanding of color structure in the development of hadronic showers. This has become available during the past few years, as analytical perturbative QCD calculations within the modified leading-

logarithmic approximation [1] have matured to provide a quantitative description of color flow phenomena in jet events. Moreover, the effect of the calculated perturbative color structure on the nonperturbative hadronization process has been considered within the local parton-hadron duality framework [2]. The results have included detailed predictions for many hadronic observables, which have been found to agree remarkably well with experimental data from LEP 1 experiments on the Z^0 peak [3].

The prospective scenario of cross-talking jets and the resulting complications associated with multiparticle evolution has, moreover, recently attracted considerable attention to color correlation and interference effects associated with the randomization and statistical rearrangement of the color flow in W^+W^- events at LEP 2. Perturbative aspects of this physics have been studied in a number of papers by the Durham-St. Petersburg group [4–6], and phenomenological nonperturbative aspects have been investigated by various authors in [7–13]. In particular, Sjöstrand and Khoze [8] have discussed in great detail interference and color reconnection effects in overlapping jet configurations during both the perturbative QCD regime of parton evolution, where they are suppressed by $O(\alpha_s^2/N_c^2)$, and the nonperturbative conversion of partons into final-state hadrons. The perturbative analysis is firmly based on the fundamentals of QCD, but in our present state of ignorance the nonperturbative aspects require a phenomenological description of the hadronization process. In Ref. [8] this was addressed within the Lund string-fragmentation model [14], whereas in Ref. [10] the Marchesini-Webber model [15] was employed. A common feature of both approaches was the use of a particular model for the rearrangement of color in hadronization, which is modelled as a “color reconnection” of final-state partons, in which some *ad hoc* elements are required (see Ref. [10] for an overview of such color reconnection models).

These previous works have reached the important conclu-

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sions that, on the one hand, perturbative color rearrangement and interference effects are negligibly small, but, on the other hand, final-state interactions in the process of hadron formation may lead to a significant systematic shift in the mass of the $W^\pm$ which could have far-reaching implications for its determination at LEP 2. Since parton-hadron transmutation is currently not calculable from first principles, but requires model assumptions, the latter conclusion is necessarily model dependent, and a comparison of different approaches is, therefore, desirable.

We think it may be useful to complement previous approaches by considering the full space-time history of the dynamically evolving particle system, so that the correlations of partons in space and time can be taken fully into account when hadronization is modelled. With this motivation in mind, we develop two new features in the present work: (i) we provide and test an alternative description of the interplay between parton evolution and hadronization, in which we trace the microscopic history of the particle dynamics in both space-time and momentum space, and (ii) we study the possible observable effects of multiparton correlations in hadronic e^+e^- events using a different space-time model of the parton-hadron conversion process.

These features enable us to compare the dynamics of ordinary two-jet events with the evolution of four-jet events that consist of two overlapping and simultaneously evolving two jets in a way that differs from previous approaches, and thus may cast useful light on the possible model dependence of their results.

The central element in our approach is the use of QCD transport theory [16] and quantum field kinetics [17] to follow the evolution of the multijet system in seven-dimensional phase-space $d^3rd^3kd^0$. We include both the perturbative QCD parton-shower development [1,18,19], and the phenomenological parton-hadron conversion model which we proposed recently [20], considering dynamical parton-cluster formation as primarily dependent on spatial separation, which is followed by the decay of clusters into hadrons. This approach may be extended to situations involving more complicated initial states, as in $e-p$, $p-p$, e -nucleus, p -nucleus, and nucleus-nucleus collisions. However, the fact that the initial state is unambiguous in e^+e^- collisions provides a particularly clean laboratory for studying the differences between our approach and others, which is also of great topical relevance. Specifically, in this paper we compare

$$e^+e^- \rightarrow Z^0 \rightarrow q_1\bar{q}_2 \rightarrow \text{hadrons} \quad (1)$$

at a center-of-mass energy of 91 GeV as at LEP 1 with

$$e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma^*/Z^0 \rightarrow W^+W^- \rightarrow q_1\bar{q}_2q_3\bar{q}_4 \rightarrow \text{hadrons} \quad (2)$$

at a center-of-mass energy of 170 GeV as at LEP 2. The theoretical description of both the parton-shower evolution and the hadronization of the produced quarks and gluons should be of the same generic pattern in these two cases, namely, timelike parton cascades with hadron formation in vacuum, i.e., in the absence of beam remnants or surrounding matter. This enables key aspects of our approach to be isolated and compared with previous approaches. Since QCD at LEP 1 is nowadays very well understood and described

impressively accurately [21] by various Monte Carlo models [22–24], the reaction (1) provides a testing ground for our distinct approach, as well as a baseline for extracting new physics aspects in the reaction (2) at LEP 2.

This paper is organized as follows. In Sec. II we review our transport-theoretical approach to the space-time description of general high-energy QCD processes, and describe different ways of incorporating color degrees of freedom, a feature we had not addressed previously. To assess the model dependence of the effects of color flow on the space-time evolution, we define three distinct scenarios. In the first, one does not consider color at all, as in our previous work; in the second scenario the color flow is traced so that only color-singlet configurations of two partons participate in hadronization; and in the third variant arbitrary color configurations participate in hadronization, with hadrons emerging from color-singlet components and the initial net color being locally balanced by parton emission. Section III is then devoted to the application and systematic analysis of this formalism to hadronic e^+e^- events of the types (1) and (2). We demonstrate the emergence of the inside-out cascade picture [25,26] in these reactions, and compare the above three scenarios for taking account of color degrees of freedom, confronting characteristic event properties and observables in the three cases. We target special attention on the W mass determination in four-jet events (2), simulating the experimental reconstruction of jets and exploring how the apparent W mass may be shifted by the previous space-time history of the system, in particular, by interference between the parton showers produced in the decays of the two different W particles. Finally, in Sec. IV we discuss the interpretation of our results, which suggest that the W mass shift may be even larger than that found in previous studies [8,10]. Much of this substantial difference in the magnitude of particle- and color-correlation effects from the previous investigations [8,10] may be due to the fact that our hadronization ansatz allows partons to form clusters “exogamously” without any regard to their origins in the two perturbative W showers, the sole criterion being their spatial separations. This aspect is significant in the particular space-time geography of W^+W^- events (2), in which the wee partons from the two parton showers overlap strongly in the neighborhood of the W^+W^- production vertex.

II. KINETIC APPROACH TO PARTON EVOLUTION AND HADRONIZATION

In the first part of this section, we review essential elements of the kinetic approach [20] to the dynamical description of perturbative QCD shower development and parton-hadron conversion that we introduced previously, which incorporates spatial information in an essential way. Then, we provide a first discussion of color flow within this framework, proposing three scenarios for the treatment of color degrees of freedom in cluster formation. In the last part of this section, we outline the practical calculation scheme that we use in Sec. III as the basis for a Monte Carlo simulation of the space-time development of e^+e^- collisions.

A. Review of our model

In a previous paper [20] we presented in detail our approach to the problem of hadronization of quarks and gluons in conjunction with the space-time evolution of parton showers produced by hard QCD processes in high-energy reactions, such as e^+e^- collisions, deep-inelastic ep scattering, hadron-hadron and eventually nucleus-nucleus collisions. Here, we just sketch the main features of our model, and refer the interested reader to our previous paper for more details.

In order to model the dynamical transition between the perturbative and nonperturbative domains of QCD, we advocate a combination of perturbative QCD and effective field theory in their respective domains of validity, and describe the conversion between them using ideas developed in phenomenological descriptions of the finite-temperature transition from a quark-gluon plasma to a hadronic phase [27]. The latter is described by an effective theory incorporating a chiral field U whose vacuum expectation value (VEV) $U_0 \equiv \langle 0|U+U^\dagger|0 \rangle$ represents the nonperturbative quark condensate $\langle 0|\bar{q}q|0 \rangle$, and a scalar field χ whose VEV $\chi_0 \equiv \langle 0|\chi|0 \rangle$ represents the nonperturbative gluon condensate $\langle 0|F_{\mu\nu}F^{\mu\nu}|0 \rangle$. We visualize hard scattering in high-energy processes as producing a “hot spot,” in which the usual long-range order represented by U_0 and χ_0 is disrupted locally by the appearance of a bubble of the naive perturbative vacuum in which $\langle 0|\bar{q}q|0 \rangle = 0 = \langle 0|F_{\mu\nu}F^{\mu\nu}|0 \rangle$. Within this bubble, a parton shower develops in the usual perturbative way, with the hot spot expanding and cooling in an irregular stochastic manner described by QCD transport equations [17]. This perturbative description remains appropriate in any phase-space region of the shower where the local energy density is large compared to the difference in energy density between the perturbative partonic and the nonperturbative hadronic vacua. When this condition is no longer satisfied, a hadronic bubble¹ may be formed with a probability determined by statistical-mechanical considerations. A complete description of this conversion requires a treatment combining partonic and hadronic degrees of freedom, which is an essential aspect of our approach.

1. Scale-dependent effective Lagrangian

The theoretical basis for the above intuitive picture is provided by a gauge-invariant effective Lagrangian that embodies both fundamental partonic degrees and effective hadronic degrees of freedom. It depends explicitly on the space-time scale L (specified below) which characterizes locally the relevant dynamical processes of the physical system under consideration. As we shall see later, the appropriate space-time scale L in any region of a hadronic shower is governed locally by the dynamical evolution of the system itself, through kinetic equations that are constrained by the uncertainty principle, and incorporate both space-time and energy-momentum variables. Our Lorentz-invariant measure L of

the space-time separation between two color charges located at r_i and r_j where $r \equiv r^\mu = (t, \vec{r})$ is defined by

$$L(r_i, r_j) := \sqrt{(r_i - r_j)_\mu (r_i - r_j)^\mu}. \quad (3)$$

We introduce phenomenologically a confinement length scale L_c ,

$$L_c \simeq 1 \text{ fm}, \quad \alpha_s(L_c^{-2}) \simeq 1, \quad (4)$$

that characterizes the distinction between short-distance ($L \ll L_c$) and long-range ($L \gtrsim L_c$) physics in QCD. In the limit of short distances $L \ll L_c$, where $\alpha_s(L^{-2}) \ll 1$, QCD is well-described perturbatively by the usual fundamental Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}_L[A^\mu, \psi, \bar{\psi}]$ in terms of the elementary gluon (A^μ) and quark fields ($\psi, \bar{\psi}$). On the other hand, in the limit of large distances $L \gtrsim L_c$, where $\alpha_s(L^{-2}) \gtrsim 1$, hadronic physics is known to be described well by an effective Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}[\chi, U, U^\dagger]$ which is written in terms of the collective fields $\chi, U, U^\dagger$, [27] whose interactions are constrained by the scale and chiral properties of the fundamental QCD Lagrangian [28]. By restricting use of the perturbative regime to physics up to distances $L \leq L_c$, and the nonperturbative effective theory to $L > L_c$, we can combine both regimes without double counting, and obtain an field theory description covering the full range $0 < L < \infty$:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_L[A^\mu, \psi, \chi, U] &= \mathcal{L}_L[A^\mu, \psi, \bar{\psi}] + \mathcal{L}[\chi, U, U^\dagger] \\ &= -\frac{\kappa_L}{4} F_{\mu\nu, a} F_a^{\mu\nu} \\ &\quad + \bar{\psi}_i [(i \gamma_\mu \partial^\mu - \mu_L) \delta_{ij} - g_s \gamma_\mu A_a^\mu T_a^{ij}] \psi_j \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \chi) (\partial^\mu \chi) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{4} \text{Tr}[(\partial_\mu U) (\partial^\mu U^\dagger)] - V(\chi, U), \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where $F_a^{\mu\nu} = \partial^\mu A_a^\nu - \partial^\nu A_a^\mu + g_s f_{abc} A_b^\mu A_c^\nu$, and summation over the color indices a, i, j is understood. The functions κ_L and μ_L introduce an explicit scale (L) dependence in $\mathcal{L}_L$, which modifies the quark and gluon properties when L increases towards L_c and beyond. In the limit $L \rightarrow 0$, $\kappa_L = 1$, and $\mu_L = 0$ (neglecting the quark current masses), the fundamental QCD Lagrangian is recovered. However, at larger L , the bare quark and gluon fields become dressed by nonperturbative dynamics, and we expect $\kappa_L < 1$ and $\mu_L \neq 0$.² The effective potential $V(\chi, U)$ governs the dynamical interpolation between short- and long-distance domains: at very small L , where the typical distance between color charges is $\ll L_c$, it is equal to the usual QCD vacuum pressure, but as L becomes large due to the expanding spatial

¹Specifically, this bubble has quantum numbers matching those of the parent partons, and contains both gluonic (χ) and chiral (U) degrees of freedom. We acknowledge critical questions from T. Sjöstrand on this point.

²In fact, the short-range behavior of κ_L (and similarly of μ_L) can be calculated perturbatively: $\kappa_L = [1 + g_s^2/(8\pi)^2(11 - 2n_f/3)\ln(L\Lambda)]^{-1}$. Hence, both κ_L and the dynamical quark masses μ_L vary (as does the coupling constant g_s) with the renormalization scale Λ , which we expect to be inversely related to the confinement scale L_c .

FIG. 1. Illustration of the dynamical connection between the three basic process types described by Eqs. (8)–(10): a cascade develops first as a shower with parton multiplication, followed by coalescence of partons to color-singlet clusters, and finally the decay of clusters into hadrons.

separation of color charges, it simulates long-range confinement forces. Explicit expressions for κ_L , μ_L , and V can be found in Ref. [20].

2. Kinetic equations for space-time evolution

In Ref. [17] it was shown how, under certain assumptions, one can derive from the exact quantum field theory an approximate kinetic theory. Applied to the present case, we formulated in [20] a transport-theory framework that incorporates both partons and hadrons, yielding a fully dynamical description of QCD matter in real time and complete phase space. Starting from the field equations of motion that follow from Eq. (5), we obtained the corresponding Dyson-Schwinger equations for the two-point Green functions of the fields ψ , A^μ , χ , and U , which measure the time-ordered correlations between the fields at different space-time points. The transition from the quantum-field formulation to a kinetic description was then achieved by relating the Green functions of the elementary partonic fields ($A^\mu, \psi, \bar{\psi}$) and of the collective hadronic degrees of freedom ($\chi, U, U^\dagger$) to corresponding particle densities F_α for the species $\alpha = p, c, h$ of partons, clusters (prehadronic color singlets), and hadrons, respectively:

$$F_\alpha(r, k) \equiv F_\alpha(t, \vec{r}; \vec{k}, k^2) = \frac{dN_\alpha(t)}{d^3r d^4k}, \quad (6)$$

which are the quantum-mechanical analogues to the classical phase-space distributions that measure the number of particles at time t in a phase-space element $d^3r d^4k$. The F_α contain the essential microscopic information required for a statistical description of the time evolution of a many-particle system in complete phase space, and provide the basis for calculating macroscopic observables in the framework of relativistic kinetic theory. In terms of the particle densities (6), the kinetic equations derived from the Dyson-Schwinger equations yield a set of coupled transport equations of the generic form

$$k_\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial r^\mu} F_\alpha(r, k) = \sum_{\text{processes } j} [\hat{\mathcal{I}}_j^{(+)}(F_\beta) - \hat{\mathcal{I}}_j^{(-)}(F_\beta)]. \quad (7)$$

These kinetic equations reflect a probabilistic interpretation of QCD evolution in terms of successive interaction processes j , in which the rate of change of the particle distributions F_α in a phase-space element $d^3r d^4k$ is governed by the balance of gain (+) and loss (−) terms. On the left-hand

side, the covariant operator $k^\mu \partial / \partial r^\mu = k^0 \partial / \partial t - \vec{k} \cdot \partial / \partial \vec{r}$ acting on F_α describes free propagation of a quantum of species α , whereas on the right-hand side the interaction kernels $\hat{\mathcal{I}}^{(\pm)}$ are integral operators that incorporate the effects of the particles' self and mutual interactions, and depend functionally on the different particle densities F_β . In general, the interactions include real and virtual emission, absorption, scattering, and coalescence. However, in the present case of e^+e^- collisions, where scattering processes and medium effects are absent, the equations simplify considerably, and the kernels $\hat{\mathcal{I}}$ fall into three categories (cf. Fig. 1): (i) parton multiplication through real emission processes on the perturbative level, $q \rightarrow q + g$, $g \rightarrow q + \bar{q}$, $g \rightarrow g + g$; (ii) parton-cluster formation through two-parton recombinations,³ $q + \bar{q} \rightarrow c_1 + c_2$, $g + q \rightarrow c + q'$, $g + g \rightarrow c_1 + c_2$; (iii) hadron formation through decays of the cluster excitations into final-state hadrons, $c \rightarrow h$, $c \rightarrow h_1 + h_2$.

Whereas the branching processes (i) are the fundamental QCD vertices, the cluster formation possibilities (ii) depend on the specific forms of the functions κ_L and μ_L in the model Lagrangian (5), and the cluster decay processes (iii) are modeled on the basis of kinematics and phase-space considerations.

In compact symbolic notation, all interaction kernels in Eq. (7) can be expressed as convolutions of the densities of radiating or interacting particles F_β with the specific cross sections $\hat{\mathcal{I}}_j$ for the processes j , i.e., $\mathcal{I}_j = \Pi_\beta F_\beta \hat{\mathcal{I}}_j$, and one arrives at the following closed set of balance equations for the densities of partons F_p , clusters F_c , and hadrons F_h :

$$k_\mu \partial_r^\mu F_p = F_p \circ \hat{\mathcal{I}}(p' \rightarrow pp'') - F_p \circ \hat{\mathcal{I}}(p \rightarrow p' p'') - F_p F_{p'} \circ \hat{\mathcal{I}}(pp' \rightarrow c), \quad (8)$$

$$k_\mu \partial_r^\mu F_c = F_p F_{p'} \circ \hat{\mathcal{I}}(pp' \rightarrow c) - F_c \circ \hat{\mathcal{I}}(c \rightarrow h), \quad (9)$$

$$k_\mu \partial_r^\mu F_h = F_c \circ \hat{\mathcal{I}}(c \rightarrow h), \quad (10)$$

where $k_\mu \partial_r^\mu \equiv k^\mu \partial / \partial r^\mu$, and each of the terms on the right-hand side corresponds to one of the above classes (i)–(iii) of processes, and is proportional to the relevant flux, i.e., the density of particles entering a particular vertex. Each kernel $\mathcal{I}$ includes a sum over contributing subprocesses, and a

³This class of processes will be enlarged when color is introduced into our approach in Sec. II B below.

phase-space integration weighted with the associated subprocess probability distribution of the squared amplitude. We discuss the physical significance of the different kernels in more detail in Sec. III, and the full forms of Eqs. (8)–(10) and the explicit expressions for the kernels are given in Ref. [20].

3. Calculational scheme

The set of evolution equations (7) can be solved by real-time simulation in full phase space using the computational methods of Refs. [16,29]. In Sec. III we explain in more detail the physical significance of the calculational scheme for the specific cases of jet evolution in the processes (1) and (2).

The concept of the simulation can be summarized as follows: starting from a given initial state⁴ at time $t=0$, the ensemble of particles is evolved in small time steps, $\Delta t \sim 10^{-3}$ fm, in coarse-grained seven-dimensional phase space with cells $\Delta\Omega = \Delta^3 r \Delta^3 k \Delta k^0$. The time discretization is chosen to give an optimum resolution of the particle dynamics in space and energy momentum. The partons propagate along classical trajectories until they interact, i.e., decay (branching process) or recombine (cluster formation). Similarly, the clusters so formed travel along classical paths until they decay into hadrons. The corresponding probabilities and time scales of interactions are sampled stochastically from the relevant probability distributions in the kernels $\hat{I}$ of Eqs. (8)–(10).

With this concept, one can trace the space-time evolution of the multiparticle system self-consistently: at each time step, any off-shell parton is allowed to decay into daughter partons, with a probability determined by its virtuality and lifetime (we discuss this in more detail in Sec. III). Also in each step, every parton and its nearest spatial neighbor are considered as defining a fictitious space-time bubble in the vacuum, representing a potential candidate for a two-parton cluster. The probability for parton-cluster conversion is determined by the bubble action for the Lorentz-invariant distance L between the partons. If the two partons do convert into a cluster within any given time slice, they disappear from that phase-space cell, and the composite cluster appears at their centre-of-mass point, from which it propagates on. Otherwise, the partons continue in their shower development until the next time slice. The final decay into hadrons of each cluster formed is simulated analogously, and is determined by kinematics and the available phase space. This cascade evolution is followed until all partons have converted, and all clusters have decayed into final-state hadrons.

In this dynamically evolving system, the crucial quantity that governs the conversion of partons into clusters and thus the structure of the final hadron state, is the space-time scale $L(r_i, r_j)$, defined by Eq. (3), which is the separation between two partons at r_i and r_j , defined by the Lorentz-invariant distance measure

⁴For example, in the case of e^+e^- annihilation via a virtual photon, the initial parton state consists of a jet-initiating $q\bar{q}$ pair with invariant mass Q and flavor f determined by the probability $w_f = e_f^2/n_f(Q^2)\sqrt{1-4m_f^2/Q^2}\theta(Q^2-4m_f^2)$, which accounts for the electromagnetic charge and mass threshold.

FIG. 2. Schematics of the *nearest-neighbor criterion*, Eq. (12). Two partons may coalesce into a cluster if they are nearest neighbors in space-time, and if their mutual separation L_{12} approaches the confinement scale L_c , with a probability given by the width of the transition interval $[L_0, L_c]$ [cf. Eq. (14)], which originates from the form of the confinement potential V in Eq. (5).

$$\Delta_{ij} = \sqrt{r_{ij}^\mu r_{ij,\mu}}, \quad r_{ij} = r_i - r_j. \quad (11)$$

We identify L with the distance L_{ij} between parton i and its nearest neighbor j :

$$L(r_i, r_j) = L_{ij} \equiv \min(\Delta_{i1}, \dots, \Delta_{ij}, \dots, \Delta_{in}). \quad (12)$$

If the separation between any given parton and its nearest neighbor approaches the confinement scale L_c , cluster formation becomes increasingly likely, and eventually occurs (cf. Fig. 2). The dynamics of this cluster formation is described by the kernels $F_i F_j \circ \hat{I}(ij \rightarrow c)$ in Eqs. (8) and (9), that determine the probability for the coalescence of two partons i, j to form clusters c . It is modelled by a distribution of the form

$$\Pi_{ij \rightarrow c} = \mathcal{C}(L_{ij}) [1 - \exp(-\Delta F L_{ij})], \quad (13)$$

where $\mathcal{C}$ modifies the small- L_{ij} behavior where the exponential form is not appropriate [20], L_{ij} is the two-parton separation defined by Eq. (12), and ΔF is the local change in the free energy of the system that is associated with the conversion of the partons into clusters. The latter is determined by the specific form of the confinement potential V in the model Lagrangian (5). Our previous analysis [20] indicates that we can parametrize the resulting probability density (13) as

$$\Pi_{p_i p_j \rightarrow c} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } L_{ij} \leq L_0, \\ 1 - \exp\left(\frac{L_0 - L_{ij}}{L_c - L_{ij}}\right) & \text{if } L_0 < L_{ij} \leq L_c, \\ 1 & \text{if } L_{ij} > L_c, \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

where $L_c = 0.8$ fm is the value for the confinement length scale that fits best the Bose-Einstein correlation data [20], and $L_0 = 0.6$ fm. The transition interval $[L_0, L_c]$ arises from the finite, thin-walled potential barrier of the model potential V in Eq. (5), that separates the perturbative and hadronic

vacua. Its effect is to yield a small, but nonvanishing, probability (14) for partons to convert into clusters while their separation is still smaller than, but close to, the confinement length scale L_c , as illustrated in Fig. 2. This scheme separates perturbative parton evolution and nonperturbative confinement dynamics in a self-regulating manner, because in the mean it bounds the partons' virtualities from below:

$$k^2 \geq \mu_0^2 = O(L_0^{-2}) \quad (15)$$

so that the condition $\alpha_s(k^2) \leq \alpha_s(\mu_0^2) \ll 1$ is imposed dynamically⁵ that clearly defines the notion of a perturbative, dressed parton, as opposed to a nonperturbative clustered parton.

The essential parameter in this description is the confinement scale L_c , defined by Eq. (4). This is, in principle, related to the critical temperature in the finite-temperature QCD phase transition, but is, in practice, subject to some uncertainty. In Ref. [20] we tested different choices by studying the evolution of hadronic e^+e^- events, and found that the details of the transition are rather insensitive to reasonable variations in L_c . However, the value $L_c = 0.8$ fm gives the most favorable description of the Bose-Einstein correlations observed on the Z^0 peak, as well as other experimental data.

This completes the summary of Ref. [20]. We now turn to the extension of our model to take better account of color degrees of freedom.

B. Color degrees of freedom and correlations

In our previous description of parton evolution and hadron formation, we did not take explicit account of the color degrees of freedom, which is after all the origin of the confinement mechanism. Our ansatz for confinement picture was based exclusively on the dynamically evolving space-time separations (12) of nearest-neighbor color charges in the parton cascade, rather than on the details of the color structure of the ensemble of produced gluons, quarks, and antiquarks. Our underlying justification for this reasoning was the pre-confinement property [30] of jet evolution in perturbative QCD, according to which the partons emitted during a cascade tend to arrange themselves into a collection of color singlet systems, which may be viewed as minimal prehadronic units. The following two important features characterize the preconfinement phenomenon [19]. First, the color-singlet subsystems of partons so formed, typically have masses of the order of 1–2 GeV, independent of the total energy of the system as a whole. Second, in the leading-logarithmic approximation, the color quantum numbers are naturally ordered in such a way that the partons, which form a color singlet, are topologically nearby in a cascade (cf. Fig. 3), and have a finite space-time separation in the color-singlet rest frame.

⁵Although this condition determines the mean μ_0 to come out around 1 GeV, statistical fluctuations occur with the distance L_{ij} of two partons i and j in the interval $L_c < L_{ij}^{-1} < \mu_0$, in which case we cut off the parton radiation below μ_0 , and let the partons propagate freely without branching, until they eventually coalesce.

FIG. 3. Example of color-singlet combinations of partons in a quark jet which form independent subsystems, and of color-connected partons which screen the color of the original quark.

It is therefore suggested to identify these color-singlet systems with the prehadronic clusters in our approach, as we did implicitly in our previous work [20]. It should be emphasized, however, that this correspondence between the color and space-time structures of a parton cascade is not an equivalence, but holds only in the average [2,31–33]: whereas the color structure of a cascade tree provides, in principle, exact microscopic information about the flow of color charges, the space-time structure is based in our model on the statistical kinetic description of parton emission and the nearest-neighbor search, which may be subject to fluctuations that deviate from the exact color flow. This issue becomes increasingly important when more particles populate a phase-space region (possibly already for the small- x region in deep-inelastic scattering, and certainly for hadron-nucleus or heavy-ion collisions). Intuitively, we would expect it, then, to become increasingly likely that nearest neighbors in momentum space would not necessarily form a color singlet. It could also be that the “natural” color-singlet partner for a given parton within the same cascade (its “endogamous” partner) might actually be dynamically disfavored in comparison with a color-singlet partner from a different, but overlapping, cascade (an “exogamous” partner). A crucial first step in addressing the latter possibility has been the scenario for “color reconnection,” first explored phenomenologically in [7]. We believe that our model, which is capable of following simultaneously the space-time developments of overlapping cascades, provides a potentially interesting alternative tool for addressing these issues. Moreover, our nearest-neighbor criterion (12) provides a plausible way of using this tool to resolve questions of “color reconnection.”

FIG. 4. Diagrammatic rules for the color flow structure in parton branching processes, connecting quarks and gluons coming in and going out of a vertex. Each quark (antiquark) is accompanied in its direction of motion by a color (anticolor) line, and each gluon carries both a color and an anticolor line.

FIG. 5. Diagrammatic rules for the color flow structure in various cluster formation processes. Each quark (antiquark) carries a color (anticolor) line, and each gluon carries both a color and an anticolor line. Note that the restriction to color-singlet configurations of two coalescing partons is equivalent to considering only the three diagrams in the left column. The remaining four diagrams require additional parton emission to ensure local color conservation.

Accordingly, we now incorporate color flow into our model, within the general framework of the probabilistic parton cascade description of QCD jets that works so impressively well at high energies (see, e.g., [34]). We assign to each parton a color (C) and an anticolor (A) label:

$$(C, A) = \begin{cases} (i, 0) & \text{quarks} \\ (0, j) & \text{antiquarks, } (i, j, k, l = 1, \dots, N_c) \\ (k, l) & \text{gluons.} \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

It is straightforward to specify the color flow at each elementary vertex for parton branching, and in parton recombinations to form clusters, as shown in Figs. 4 and 5, respectively. Since it is the nature of a probabilistic description that it only depends on the local properties of the system (i.e., nonlocal interference effects are assumed to be negligible), this scheme provides an unambiguous local tracer of the color flow, in complete analogy to energy-momentum and flavor flow. It is a defect of this approach that there are nine, rather than eight, gluon color states. We have made numerical studies varying N_c , and found no significant effects on our results. However, this point remains a conceptual issue that needs to be thought through more carefully. In particular, it would be desirable to understand the relation of our approach to the $1/N_c$ expansion and the dominance of planar diagrams in high-energy QCD [19].

To see how important color correlations can be, we distinguish the following three scenarios, which differ in their level 3 of accounting for the color flow in conjunction with the space-time evolution.

(I) *Colorblind* scenario. The color degrees of freedom (16) are ignored. Cluster formation of partons is based solely on the nearest-neighbor criterion (12). It is assumed that pairs of nearest-neighbor partons are, on the average, also color singlets, and, therefore, can form one, or two prehadronic clusters.

(II) *Color-Singlet* scenario. As (I), but with the additional restriction that the color degrees of freedom (16) of two partons that are potential candidates to form a cluster must add

up to a color-singlet combination.⁶ This corresponds to considering only the $2 \rightarrow 2$ “color-singlet” processes of the left column in Fig. 5.

(III) *Colorful* scenario. No restrictions whatsoever are imposed on the colors of pairs of partons participating in the formation of a cluster, meaning that, in contrast with (II), all the processes illustrated in Fig. 5 are included, i.e., $2 \rightarrow 2$, $2 \rightarrow 3$, and $2 \rightarrow 4$. If the space-time separation (12) of two nearest-neighbor partons allows coalescence, they can always produce one or two color-singlet clusters, accompanied, if necessary, by the emission of a gluon or a quark that carries away any unbalanced net color.

We note that the elementary branching processes remain the same as before except for the additional color information, but that the cluster formation dynamics depends on the scenario considered: scenario (I) corresponds to our original approach [20] as reviewed earlier in this section, scenario (II) is the most restrictive one, in that it allows only a minimal number of processes, whereas scenario (III) is the most diverse, in the sense that it increases the original number of processes by allowing additional parton emission.

In the following section we compare the application of the three scenarios to e^+e^- events of the types (1) and (2), i.e., via $Z^0 \rightarrow 2$ jets and $W^+W^- \rightarrow 4$ jets. As we will show, our results for the overall space-time development, as well as for global event measures such as multiplicities or momentum spectra, are rather insensitive to the differences between the above color structure scenarios. However, as we shall see, more sensitive observables may well distinguish between them, in particular, the measurement of the W mass in four-jet events of the type (2).

⁶Color-neutral systems need not be color singlets: for example, the color-nonet representation of $SU(3)_c$ contains three color-neutral members, which have the property that they possess zero eigenvalues of the noncommuting generators τ_3 and τ_8 , namely $(r\bar{r} + g\bar{g} + b\bar{b})/\sqrt{3}$, $(r\bar{r} + g\bar{g} - 2b\bar{b})/\sqrt{6}$, and $(r\bar{r} - g\bar{g})/\sqrt{2}$, where r, g, b refer to the color states. In the classical approximation of parton showers, the color phase of the amplitude for each emission is random, so that the final-state partons are statistically distributed among the possible $SU(3)_c$ representations. Therefore, in this naive approximation, e.g., a color-neutral $q\bar{q}$ pair has probabilities $1/3$ ($2/3$) for being a color singlet (octet).

IV. APPLICATION TO HADRONIC e^+e^- EVENTS AT LEP

This section is devoted to the Monte Carlo simulation of the hadronic e^+e^- event types (1) and (2) within the variants of our model outlined in Sec. II A 3. Between 50 000 and 150 000 events were accumulated in each simulation, depending on the statistical accuracy required for each calculated observable. Each event generated was traced in time steps $\Delta t = 10^{-3}$ fm from the decay of the jet-initiating particle (γ^* or Z^0) at $t_0 = 0$, up to a final time $t_f = 20$ fm afterwards, when the parton showers have completed their conversion into final-state hadrons.

We study first the case of two-jet evolution in $e^+e^- \rightarrow Z^0 \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$ on the Z^0 peak at the nominal energy of LEP 1, $\sqrt{s} = 91$ GeV, and subsequently, the more complex case of four-jet evolution in $e^+e^- \rightarrow W^+W^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$ at the nominal LEP 2 energy of $\sqrt{s} = 170$ GeV. We focus particular attention on the following two issues: (a) the characteristics of the space-time evolution, which we discuss in the light of the “inside-outside cascade” picture [25,32], and (b) the impact of color correlations on observable quantities in experiments, comparing the scenarios (I)–(III) defined at the end of the previous section.

A. $e^+e^- \rightarrow Z^0 \rightarrow q_1\bar{q}_2 \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$ at $\sqrt{s} = 91$ GeV

Let us return to the kinetic Eqs. (8)–(10) that describe for e^+e^- collisions the cascade evolution of the mixed particle system consisting of gluons, quarks, antiquarks, prehadronic clusters, and hadronic states. We discuss the physical significance of the equations and the emerging space-time picture first for the simpler event type (1) of an evolving two-jet configuration produced by a virtual Z^0 . The additional features of the event type (2) are addressed in Sec. III B.

1. General discussion

Consider the production of the initial quark-antiquark pair $q_1\bar{q}_2$ with opposite flavor and color quantum numbers on the Z^0 peak in the rest frame of the decaying Z^0 at an invariant mass $Q = \sqrt{s} = E_{\text{c.m.}}$. Let us for the moment ignore the parton-cluster hadronization mechanism, and focus on the early stage of parton cascade evolution. In this case only eq. (8) is relevant, and the right-hand side includes solely the space-time version of the leading-log QCD-evolution kernels [20] (the third term would be absent). That implies, initially, free streaming of the initial q_1 and $\bar{q}_2$ which recede back-to-back along straightline trajectories away from the $Z^0 \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ vertex, which we choose as $r_0^0 := (t_0, \vec{r}_0) = (0, \vec{0})$. Their velocities are $\vec{\beta}_{1,2} = \pm \vec{p}_{\text{c.m.}}/E_{\text{c.m.}}$, where $\vec{p}_{\text{c.m.}} = \vec{k}_1 = -\vec{k}_2$, $E_1 = E_2 = \sqrt{p_{\text{c.m.}}^2 + m_q^2}$. The q_1 and $\bar{q}_2$ are offshell with a timelike virtuality $k_i^2 < k_{i\text{max}}^2 = Q^2/4$ ($i = 1, 2$), and hence live only for a finite time before they decay by gluon emission. In the Z^0 rest frame, the characteristic lifetime is [32,33]

$$t_p(x_i, k_i^2) = \gamma_i \tau_i \approx E_i/k_i^2 = \frac{x_i Q}{2k_i^2}, \quad (17)$$

where the γ_i are the Lorentz factors of q_1 and $\bar{q}_2$, the $\tau_i \approx 1/\sqrt{k_i^2}$ their proper lifetimes as given by the uncertainty principle, and the $x_i = E_i/E_{\text{c.m.}} = 2E_i/Q$ their energy frac-

tions. When and where in space time the decays of the $q_i \equiv q_1, \bar{q}_2$ occur is obtained statistically from the kernels $F_{q_i} \circ \hat{I}(q_i \rightarrow q'_i g''_i)$ in Eq. (8), that incorporate the probability distributions for the branchings of momenta $k_i \rightarrow k'_i + k''_i$ with energy ratios $z = x'_i/x_i$ and $1 - z = x''_i/x_i$;

$$\Pi_{q_i \rightarrow q'_i g''_i} = \frac{\alpha_s[(1-z)k_i^2]}{2\pi} \gamma_{q_i \rightarrow q'_i g''_i}(z) T_{q_i}(x_i, k_i^2), \quad (18)$$

where the argument of α_s is set by the momentum scale $(1-z)k_i^2 \approx k_\perp^2$ associated with the vertex [19], the function $\gamma(z)$ denotes the usual Dokshitzer-Gribov-Altarelli-Parisi (DGLAP) energy (z) distribution [35,36], and the lifetime factor T_{q_i} expresses the probability for the quark or antiquark q_i of virtuality k_i^2 to decay within a time interval Δt in the Z^0 rest frame:

$$T_{q_i}(x_i, k_i^2) = 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta t}{t_{q_i}(x_i, k_i^2)}\right), \quad (19)$$

where $t_{q_i}(x_i, k_i^2)$ is given by Eq. (17).

The daughter partons of the initial branchings $q_1 \rightarrow q'_1 g''_1$ and $\bar{q}_2 \rightarrow \bar{q}'_2 g''_2$ then follow the same pattern, with $k_i'^2, k_i''^2 < k_i^2$ and corresponding lifetimes $t(x'_i, k_i'^2)$ and $t(x''_i, k_i''^2)$. The elementary branchings that can occur are $q \rightarrow qg$, $\bar{q} \rightarrow \bar{q}g$, $g \rightarrow gg$, $g \rightarrow q\bar{q}$. We employ the (modified) leading-logarithmic description [1,36] in conjunction with the angular ordering [19] of subsequent emissions, which is equivalent to an ordering in virtualities at large x , but accounts for interference effects among soft gluons at small x .

The parton shower thus develops as illustrated in Fig. 6, where the time estimate for the n th branching is

$$t_n = \sum_{i=1}^n t(x_i, k_i^2) = \frac{Q}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i}{k_i^2}. \quad (20)$$

In the leading-logarithmic approximation and in the limit of small x , these considerations lead to the analytical result for the average time development of the parton cascade [32]

$$\langle t_p(x, k^2) \rangle \sim a \frac{xQ}{2k^2} \exp\left(-b \sqrt{\ln\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)}\right), \quad (21)$$

in the limit $x \ll 1$ and $k^2 \approx \mu_0^2$, where $\mu_0 \approx 1$ GeV, and a and b are slowly varying functions of Q^2 and k^2 . Hence, as $x \rightarrow 0$, the average time for parton production $\langle t_p \rangle \rightarrow 0$, implying that soft (small- x) partons are emitted earlier than the fast (large- x) ones. This fact is a consequence of time dilation, and is known as the “inside-outside cascade” [25,26]. We will return to this analytical property when discussing our numerical results below.

Because the virtualities are strongly ordered in the leading-logarithmic approximation, and decrease in a time-like cascade, the quanta become increasingly “dressed”: $k^2 \rightarrow \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}^2$ as time progresses: $t \rightarrow \infty$. In the absence of confinement, they would eventually reach mass shell. However, the confinement length scale L_c , defined by Eq. (4), limits

FIG. 6. Illustration of the space-time development of the parton shower, cluster formation by parton coalescence, and cluster decay into hadrons in an $e^+e^- \rightarrow Z^0 \rightarrow q\bar{q}$ event. The time intervals for the propagation of intermediate particles are determined by the particles' four-momenta and the uncertainty principle.

the time that the partons can evolve perturbatively, so that they never manage to reach mass shell, but first undergo the nonperturbative hadronization mechanism. It is here that the cluster formation scheme outlined in the previous section terminates locally the perturbative evolution, by coalescing two nearest-neighbor partons i and j , if their separation L_{ij} in Eq. (12) in their common rest frame approaches or exceeds L_c (as described before in Sec. II A), thereby simulating the screening of the color charges [31,32], which is responsible for confinement.

Once two partons i and j coalesce, the combined system with invariant mass $m_{ij} \equiv \sqrt{(k_i + k_j)^2}$ is decayed into the outgoing cluster(s) and possible additional partons by using two- or three-body decay kinematics and phase space, depending which of the actual processes of Fig. 5 occurs. In the case of the two-cluster processes $i + j \rightarrow c_1 + c_2$, consistent with the symmetry under exchange of c_1 and c_2 , the mass m_c of the first cluster c_1 is sampled from an exponential distribution $\propto \exp[-m_c/(m_{ij} - m_c)]$, and the second cluster c_2 carries off the remaining energy momentum according to two-body decay kinematics. An analogous procedure is used for processes with the emission of one parton l , $i + j \rightarrow c + l$, by replacing c_2 with l . In the case of a cluster c accompanied by two emitted partons l_1, l_2 , $i + j \rightarrow c + l_1 + l_2$, again the cluster mass is generated, and then three-body decay kinematics determines the four-momenta of the two outgoing partons in the rest frame of $i + j$. In each case, the outgoing particles are then boosted from the $i + j$ rest frame back to the Z^0 frame. Whereas any outgoing parton participates in the continuing perturbative shower development, each produced cluster with determined four-momentum $k_c^\mu = (E_c, \vec{k}_c)$, mass $m_c = k_c^2$, and proper lifetime $\tau_c = 1/m_c$, propagates along a straight path with velocity $\vec{k}_c/E_c$ until it converts into final-state hadrons after a lifetime

$$t_c(E_c, m_c) = \gamma_c \tau_c \approx \frac{E_c}{m_c^2}. \quad (22)$$

This cluster-decay scheme is embedded in the kernels $F_c \circ \hat{I}(c \rightarrow h)$ of Eqs. (9) and (10), and is modeled [20] along the lines originally proposed in [37]: If a cluster is too light to decay into a pair of hadrons, it is taken to represent the lightest single meson that corresponds to its partonic con-

stituents. Otherwise, the cluster decays isotropically in its rest frame into a pair of hadrons, either mesons or baryons, whose combined quantum numbers correspond to its partonic constituents. The corresponding decay probability is chosen to be

$$\Pi_{c \rightarrow h} = T_c(E_c, m_c^2) \mathcal{N} \int_{m_h}^{m_c} \frac{dm}{m^3} \exp\left(-\frac{m}{m_0}\right), \quad (23)$$

where $\mathcal{N}$ is a normalization factor, and the integrand is a Hagedorn spectrum [38] that parametrizes quite well the density of accessible hadronic states below m_c which are listed in the particle data tables, and $m_0 \approx m_\pi$. In analogy to Eq. (19), T_c is a lifetime factor giving the probability that a cluster of mass m_c^2 decays within a time interval Δt in the Z^0 rest frame:

$$T_c(E_c, m_c^2) = 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta t}{t_c(E_c, m_c^2)}\right), \quad (24)$$

with the Lorentz-boosted lifetime $t_c(E_c, m_c^2)$ given by Eq. (22). The only exception to the above rules is that if a cluster is very heavy, $m_c > m_{\text{fiss}} = 4 \text{ GeV}$, it undergoes one or more fissions before the products decay into hadron pairs [37,20]. In this scheme, a particular cluster-decay mode is obtained from Eq. (23) by summing over all possible decay channels, weighted with the appropriate spin, flavor, and phase-space factors, and then choosing the actual decay mode according to the relative probabilities of the channels.

In summary, we perform a complete simulation of the collision process which follows the microscopic space-time development from the initial $q\bar{q}$ of the Z^0 decay, via parton-shower evolution and parton-cluster formation and decay, all the way to the final-state hadrons. The origins of all the hadronic observables are, therefore, recorded in the particular space-time history of the system.

2. Numerical results

We now discuss the results of our numerical simulations for e^+e^- collisions at 91 GeV, paying particular attention to the comparison between the color scenarios (I)–(III) defined in Sec. II B. We chose for each of these scenarios an appropriate value for the minimum required parton virtuality during the cascade evolution, μ_0 of Eq. (15), so as to reproduce the *charged* multiplicity, which is determined quite accu-

TABLE I. Average multiplicities of produced partons and hadrons from simulations of $e^+e^- \rightarrow Z^0 \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$ at $Q = \sqrt{s} = 91$ GeV. For each of the color scenarios (I)–(III), the experimental number for the total charged multiplicity was used to fix the minimum parton virtuality μ_0 during the perturbative shower activity. With this constraint, all other numbers emerge as predictions. Note that the calculated multiplicities are the production rates for the different particle species, irrespective of subsequent decays (if unstable), and that there is a small fraction of other charged particles (e.g., $D^\pm, \Delta^{+(+)}, \Sigma^\pm$, and other higher-mass states), whose production yield is not quoted here. The decays of those unstable particles and resonances make up the missing fraction of the total charged particle yield $\langle n^{\text{ch}} \rangle = 21$, which is the actual final multiplicity measured in experiment. $e^+e^- \rightarrow Z^0 \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$, $E_{\text{c.m.}} = 91$ GeV multiplicities.

Quantity	I	II	III	Experiment [3,21]
$\langle n^{\text{ch}} \rangle$		21.0 (input)		20.95 ± 0.88
μ_0 (GeV)	0.8	1.1	1.5	—
$\langle n_{\text{par}} \rangle$	24.9	24.2	19.1	—
$\langle n_{\text{had}} \rangle$	41.3	42.5	43.2	—
$\langle n_{\text{par}} \rangle / \langle n_{\text{had}} \rangle$	0.60	0.57	0.44	—
$\langle n^{\pi^\pm} \rangle$	16.6	15.8	17.7	17.1 ± 0.4
$\langle n^{\pi^0} \rangle$	10.2	11.4	10.8	9.9 ± 0.08
$\langle n^{K^\pm} \rangle$	2.79	3.06	2.39	2.42 ± 0.13
$\langle n^{K^0} \rangle$	2.46	2.97	2.03	2.12 ± 0.06
$\langle n^{\rho^\pm} \rangle$	2.88	3.09	2.93	—
$\langle n^{\rho^0} \rangle$	1.48	1.90	1.67	1.40 ± 0.1
$\langle n^{p,\bar{p}} \rangle$	0.72	0.55	0.80	0.92 ± 0.11
$\langle n^{\Lambda^0} \rangle$	0.33	0.27	0.39	0.348 ± 0.013

rately by experiment: $n_{\text{ch}} = 20.95 \pm 0.88$ [3]. Table I summarizes the values for μ_0 required by this procedure, as well as the calculated multiplicities of partons and hadrons, which are compared with experimental data [21] where available. One observes that the colorblind scenario (I) requires the smallest value of μ_0 , whereas the colorful scenario (III) needs the largest value. Correspondingly, the parton multiplicities are largest (smallest) in these two extreme scenarios. However, the *total* hadron multiplicity does not follow the same pattern, since scenario (III) produces the largest yield, giving the smallest parton-to-hadron ratio. This is due to the presence of cluster-formation processes involving additional parton emission, which lead, in the average, to lower-mass

clusters, because the emitted parton(s) takes away energy momentum. Since the total energy of the system is conserved, in the end a larger number of clusters with lower mean masses are produced (cf. Table II), which leads naturally to an increase of the hadron multiplicity. Regarding the individual hadron multiplicities, there are significant differences between scenarios (I)–(III) in the particle composition of the final state, but the numbers are generally within reasonable range of the available experimental data, even in the absence of further tuning of the scenarios.

Figure 7 reflects the emerging time-evolution pattern of the dynamical development of the mixed-particle system, presenting more details of the parton showering and of

TABLE II. Results for the color scenarios (I)–(III) of average multiplicity, size, and mass of clusters formed from coalescing partons in $e^+e^- \rightarrow Z^0 \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$ at 91 GeV, as well as the relative contributions of different cluster formation subprocesses of Fig. 5. $e^+e^- \rightarrow Z^0 \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$, $E_{\text{c.m.}} = 91$ GeV cluster properties.

Quantity	I	II	III
$\langle n_{\text{clu}} \rangle$	22.6	21.5	23.2
$\langle n_{\text{par}} \rangle / \langle n_{\text{clu}} \rangle$	1.10	1.13	0.82
$\langle n_{\text{clu}} \rangle / \langle n_{\text{had}} \rangle$	0.55	0.51	0.53
$\langle R_{\text{clu}} \rangle$ (fm)	0.92	0.89	0.97
$\langle M_{\text{clu}} \rangle$ (GeV)	1.71	1.86	1.67
$g + g \rightarrow C + C$	52.3%	37.2%	8.4%
$g + g \rightarrow C + g$	—	—	15.7%
$g + g \rightarrow C + g + g$	—	—	33.0%
$q + \bar{q} \rightarrow C + C$	11.3%	9.9%	2.8%
$q + \bar{q} \rightarrow C + g$	—	—	3.1%
$q + g \rightarrow C + q$	36.4%	52.9%	13.0%
$q + g \rightarrow C + q + g$	—	—	23.8%

TIME EVOLUTION OF PARTICLES AND 4-MOMENTUM

FIG. 7. Time development and conversion from parton to hadron degrees of freedom in $e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$ at $Q = \sqrt{s} = 91$ GeV in the center-of-mass frame. We show the time dependences of the total number of “live” partons (hadrons), their respective total energies $E = \sum_i E_i$, total longitudinal momentum fraction $x = 2/Q \sum_i k_{zi}$, and their summed transverse momentum $k_\perp = \sum_i \sqrt{k_{xi}^2 + k_{yi}^2}$, where the z axis is defined along the jet direction. The three curves correspond to the three color scenarios (I)–(III) defined in the text.

parton-hadron conversion. The four plots show the relative proportions of partons and hadrons, the conversion of the total energy, the fractions that the partons and hadrons carry of the longitudinal momentum fractions along the two-jet axis, and the total produced transverse momentum perpendicular to this axis. One can conclude, first, that the evolution can be divided crudely into three stages: (i) a *parton shower stage* ($\lesssim 0.5$ fm), (ii) a *parton-hadron conversion stage* (≈ 0.5 – 5 fm), and, (iii) a *hadron stage* ($\gtrsim 5$ fm). Second, it is evident that at a macroscopic level the overall space-time evolution is only marginally different for scenarios (I)–(III), implying that the gross features of the dynamical parton-hadron conversion are primarily determined by kinematics and the way in which the particles occupy phase space, and to a much lesser extent by the role of the internal color degrees of freedom.

Figure 8 shows that the differences among the color flow scenarios (I)–(III) have a particularly small impact on the resulting cluster size and mass spectra, as well as on the momentum distributions of the hadrons that emerge from the cluster decays. This is also reflected in the cluster properties listed in Table II, which supplements the previous Table I. Table II provides, in addition, a listing of the relative contributions of the various parton-cluster formation processes defined in Fig. 5. Comparing the color-singlet and colorful scenarios (II) and (III), respectively, one may conclude that most processes in the latter case are of nonsinglet type, accompanied by color emission. On the other hand, scenarios

CLUSTER AND HADRON SPECTRA

FIG. 8. Effects of the three color scenarios (I)–(III) on cluster size distribution and cluster mass spectrum (top), and on the rapidity and transverse momentum distribution of produced hadrons (bottom), in $e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$ at 91 GeV.

(I) and (III) give very similar total rates for gg , $q\bar{q}$, and qg cluster processes, whereas scenario (II) clearly differs. It is the most restrictive in the sense that it allows only color-singlet clustering, and consequently, suppresses substantially direct gg or $q\bar{q}$ recombinations, because the color nonsinglet configurations among these are vetoed. This yields an increase of the relative qg recombination rate, since here the outgoing quark can carry off the net color.

In the top part of Fig. 9 we compare, for each of the three color scenarios, the calculated energy spectra of charged hadrons with the corresponding measured distribution [3] at the Z^0 peak ($Q = 91$ GeV). Plotted in terms of the variable $\ln(1/x)$, where $x = 2E/Q$ is the particle energy (in the e^+e^- center of mass) normalized to the total energy Q , all three curves give a reasonable description of the experimental data on the “hump-backed plateau” [1]. In the bottom part of Fig. 9, the calculated energy (Q) dependence of the mean charged hadron multiplicity is overlaid with the experimental points, including the values recently measured at $E_{c.m.} \approx 130$ GeV [39]. Again, all three color scenarios reproduce the measured multiplicities equally well and lie within the experimental uncertainties.

The conclusion from these results is that global quantities associated with the bulk multiparticle system, averaged over many events, do not exhibit obvious spectacular effects of the color flow structure. In order to extract an observable effect, one has to study particular event shapes or other measures that are sensitive to the local color structure of the system. In the next section we give examples in the context of the W mass determination in events of the type (2), and find significantly distinct results.

Before doing so, however, we return to the general space-time structure of the event evolution, and explore whether

FIG. 9. Top: Momentum spectra of charged hadrons with respect to the variable $\ln(1/x)$, where $x=2E/Q$, at the Z^0 peak $Q=91$ GeV, confronted with distributions measured at LEP 1 [3]. Bottom: Calculated average charged multiplicity vs total energy Q in e^+e^- annihilation events, compared with experimental data including the latest LEP measurements at 130 GeV and 136 GeV [39].

our approach is consistent with the “inside-outside” cascade picture that one expects from both intuitive considerations [25,26] and the formal arguments [31,32] reviewed earlier. We see in Figs. 10 and 11 that the answer is “yes.” In Fig. 10 we show the time developments of the parton spectra vs rapidity y , longitudinal direction z along the two-jet axis, transverse momentum $p_\perp$, and perpendicular direction $r_\perp$. In Fig. 11, the corresponding time developments of the hadron spectra are plotted. The various curves correspond to “snapshots” taken during the course of the evolution at the indicated discrete time intervals in the Z^0 rest frame. The simulations clearly exhibit the expected “inside-outside” character of the rapidity (y) and longitudinal (z) space-time evolution. The central y and z regions are populated the earliest, first by the bulk of small- x partons with⁷ $y \approx \ln x$, and then by hadrons that result from the disappearing partons in the cluster formation process. This property is in accord with the perturbative QCD result (21) calculated in the leading-logarithmic approximation. The regions at larger y and z are gradually populated later, as the system expands. Furthermore, one sees that the time development in transverse momentum and coordinate space proceeds by diffusion in both $p_\perp$ and $r_\perp$. The average absolute value of $p_\perp$ per particle

⁷The general relation between rapidity y and energy (or momentum) fraction x is $y = -\ln(1/x) - 1/2 \ln[(k^2 + k_\perp^2)/Q^2]$, which implies approximately $y \approx |\ln x|$ for sufficiently large k^2 .

FIG. 10. Time development of momentum and spatial distribution of partons present in the system at given times. The top parts show rapidity and transverse-momentum spectra, whereas the bottom plots show longitudinal and transverse spatial distributions, where the z axis is defined along the jet direction. The various curves correspond to different time steps during the evolution as specified in the top left corner. To guide the eye, the arrows indicate the direction of time change.

decreases (although the total transverse momentum grows, cf. Fig. 7), and so the slope of the distribution steepens with progressing time. This is a random walk effect, which is mirrored in the diffusion in $r_\perp$ with a broadening particle population perpendicular to the jet axis.

Finally, Fig. 12 gives a two-dimensional visualization of this “inside-outside” picture in $\ln(t)$ vs y (top), and z (bottom). We show the particle ratios

$$R_{y,z}(t) = \frac{\rho_{y,z}^{(h)}}{\rho_{y,z}^{(p)} + \rho_{y,z}^{(h)}}, \quad (25)$$

where

$$\rho_y^{(p,h)} \equiv \frac{dN^{(p,h)}(t)}{dy}, \quad \rho_z^{(p,h)} \equiv \frac{dN^{(p,h)}(t)}{dz}, \quad (26)$$

i.e., the number of hadrons divided by the total number of particles, which measures the rate of hadron yield locally in y and z . Initially zero, the ratios (25) must approach unity as time progresses. The plots again confirm that time dilation from the particles’ local, comoving frame to the Z^0 rest frame yields a picture in which hadrons are first produced at small y and z where most partons are emitted at early time, and then “eat” their way out to larger rapidity and spatial distance from the initial Z^0 vertex.

TIME EVOLUTION OF HADRON SPECTRA

FIG. 11. Time development of hadron distributions in correspondence to the parton spectra of Fig. 10. The different curves show the contributions at the time steps given in the top left corner.

**B. $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma^*/Z^0 \rightarrow W^+W^- \rightarrow q_1\bar{q}_2q_3\bar{q}_4 \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$
at $\sqrt{s}=170$ GeV**

The four-jet evolution initiated by the $q\bar{q}$ decays of a W^+ and a W^- that were produced by an intermediate γ^* or Z^0 embodies new features compared to the previous case of two-jet evolution of a single $q\bar{q}$ -pair. In particular, since the W^+ and W^- decay vertices overlap in space, the initial state is a single QCD “hot spot” in which collective nonperturbative hadronization effects can be important. We proceed as in the preceding section, by discussing first the general space-time picture of the process, proceeding later to investigate the different color correlation effects in scenarios (I)–(III), with an eye to the experimental measurement of the W mass through jet reconstruction.

1. General discussion

Again, we describe the dynamics in the overall center-of-mass frame, that is the rest frame of the γ^*/Z^0 with invariant mass $Q=E_{\text{c.m.}}=\sqrt{s}$. The produced W^+ and W^- are generally off mass shell, meaning that their masses $m^\pm$ are unequal, and differ from the nominal on-shell value, which we take to be $m_W=80.22$ GeV [40]. The distribution of produced masses $m^\pm$ can be described by a relativistic Breit-Wigner distribution:

$$\Pi(m^\pm) = \text{const} \times \frac{(\Gamma_W/m_W)^2}{1 - (m_W/m^\pm)^2 + (\Gamma_W/m_W)^2}, \quad (27)$$

where the full width is taken to be $\Gamma_W=2.12$ GeV [40]. As a consequence, the energies $E^\pm = \{s \pm [(m^+)^2 - (m^-)^2]\}/\sqrt{4s}$ differ from those expected in the naive on-mass-shell case where $m^+ = m^- = m_W$. Furthermore, although the three-momenta satisfy $\vec{p}^+ = -\vec{p}^-$, the c.m.-momentum $p_{\text{c.m.}}$

INSIDE-OUTSIDE HADRON FORMATION

FIG. 12. Two-dimensional plots of the ratios of hadrons to the sum over partons plus hadrons, Eq. (25). The top part shows the spectrum in rapidity vs $\ln(t)$, where t is the time in the center-of-mass frame. The bottom part shows the corresponding distribution along the jet (z) axis. The “inside-outside” evolution in both y and z with increasing time is clearly seen.

$\equiv |\vec{p}^+| = |\vec{p}^-|$ deviates [8] from the naive case: in fact, $p_{\text{c.m.}} \approx 20$ GeV at $\sqrt{s}=2m_W \approx 160$ GeV, rather than the naive value $p_{\text{c.m.}}^{\text{naive}}=0$, and $p_{\text{c.m.}} \approx 30$ GeV at $\sqrt{s}=170$ GeV.

With this kinematic situation in mind, we describe the evolution of the system as follows. As before, we choose the space-time position of the γ^*/Z^0 -decay vertex to be $r_0^{\gamma^*/Z^0} := (t_0, \vec{r}_0) = (0, \vec{0})$. The produced W^+ and W^- recede in opposite directions with different velocities $\vec{\beta}^\pm = \pm \vec{p}_{\text{c.m.}}/E^\pm$, and different Lorentz boost factors $\gamma^\pm = E^\pm/m^\pm$. This causes variations in the lifetimes of the W^+ and W^- in the center-of-mass frame,

$$\langle t^\pm \rangle = \gamma^\pm \tau^\pm, \quad (28)$$

and the two particles subsequently decay at space-time vertices separated by

$$r^\pm \equiv (t^\pm, \vec{r}^\pm) = \gamma^\pm \tau^\pm (1, \vec{\beta}^\pm) \quad (29)$$

from $r_0^{Z^0} = (0, \vec{0})$. The proper lifetimes $\tau^\pm$ are given by a distribution

FIG. 13. General situation of initial four-jet production in $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma^*/Z^0 \rightarrow W^+W^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$. The W^+ and W^- are simultaneously produced at t_0 by the γ^*/Z^0 , and then decay into jet pairs $q_1\bar{q}_2$ and $q_3\bar{q}_4$, at delayed times t^+ and t^- with $|t^+ - t^-| \lesssim 0.1$ fm.

$$\Pi(\tau^\pm) = \frac{1}{\tau_W(m^\pm)} \exp\left(-\frac{\tau^\pm}{\tau_W(m^\pm)}\right) \quad (30)$$

with⁸

$$\tau_W(m^\pm) = \frac{m^\pm}{\sqrt{(m^\pm)^2 - m_W^2}^2 + (\Gamma_W m^\pm)^2 / m_W^2}. \quad (31)$$

Because of the short proper lifetime resulting from Eq. (31), and the fact that the boost factors are not large near the W^+W^- threshold at the nominal LEP 2 energy of $\sqrt{s} = 170$ GeV, the vertices are typically very close [8]: on the average, the time separation is $|t^+ - t^-| \approx 0.08$ fm and the spatial separation is $|\vec{r}^+ - \vec{r}^-| \approx 0.05$ fm. This situation is illustrated in Fig. 13, which is meant to represent the creation of a single QCD “hot spot,” rather than of two independent “hot spots.”

The W^+ and W^- each decays into a timelike $q\bar{q}$ pair, and both the $q_1\bar{q}_2$ and the $q_3\bar{q}_4$ are produced off shell with maximum virtualities $k_{1,2}^2 < (m^+)^2/4$ and $k_{3,4}^2 < (m^-)^2/4$. Assuming that perturbative interference effects between the W^+ and W^- decays are negligible [8], we then visualize each $q\bar{q}$ pair as a two-jet system that initiates an independent timelike parton shower, whose evolution we describe in coherent angular-ordered manner using the same scheme as in the previous section: the two cascades develop by successive parton emissions, followed by cluster formation, and finally, cluster decay into hadrons. There is, however, an important physical difference as compared to the case of a single two-jet evolution. Due to the close proximity of the initial $q_1\bar{q}_2$ and $q_3\bar{q}_4$ pairs, the associated two-jet systems overlap in space-time, which results in overlapping phase-space populations from the two showers, implying that parton correlations are likely to affect the recombination of partons to color-singlet clusters, and hence the hadron yield. This leads

REAL VERSUS HYPOTHETICAL W^+W^- DECAY

FIG. 14. Results from the *realistic* (full curves) and the *hypothetical* (dotted curves) evolution of the W^+W^- system defined in the text. We show the cluster mass spectrum, transverse momentum of produced hadrons, and multiplicity distribution of charged particles.

to a mixing of the individual cascades initiated by the initial $q_1\bar{q}_2$ and $q_3\bar{q}_4$ pairs, which effaces the original identity of the jets, at least in the central low-momentum (-rapidity) region. The effect is especially important here because, as is clear from the discussion in Sec. III A, the bulk of parton emissions occurs at very early times, while the $W^\pm$ showers are still overlapping, and at small energy fractions x . Therefore, one would expect within our parton-cluster formation scheme, which is based on the nearest-neighbor separation of a given pair of partons in conjunction with their color combination, that locally the number of possible two-parton combinations would be significantly increased to include many possible “exogamous” partnerships between a parton originating from one two-jet system and a parton from the other two-jet system. The enhanced cluster formation possibilities should then be mirrored in the hadronic mass spectrum, because the cluster-hadron decays are described as local, independent processes. In our analysis, there is no mechanism for suppressing “exogamy” relative to the normal assumption of “endogamy,” according to which only partons from the same two-jet system can coalesce, with the exception of some limited amount of “color reconnection” [8]. We will

⁸As has been noted in [8], this expression, which follows from the assumed Breit-Wigner distribution (27), is not exact. A general discussion of unstable particle lifetimes can be found in, e.g., Ref. [41].

TABLE III. Listing of average properties of $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma^*/Z^0 \rightarrow W^+W^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$ at $Q = \sqrt{s} = 170$ GeV resulting from the simulations for the color scenarios (I)–(III). The same values for the minimum parton virtuality μ_0 as in Table I were used. Mean multiplicities of partons, hadrons, and charged particles are shown, as well as the averages of charged particle transverse momentum $p_\perp^{\text{ch}}$ (with respect to the thrust axis), energy fraction $x_E^{\text{ch}} = 2E^{\text{ch}}/Q$, and thrust T . $e^+e^- \rightarrow W^+W^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$, $E_{\text{c.m.}} = 170$ GeV multiplicities and global event properties.

Quantity	I	II	III
μ_0 (GeV)	0.8	1.1	1.5
$\langle n_{\text{par}} \rangle$	37.4	36.8	29.6
$\langle n_{\text{had}} \rangle$	68.5	70.7	72.2
$\langle n_{\text{par}} \rangle / \langle n_{\text{had}} \rangle$	0.55	0.52	0.41
$\langle n^{\text{ch}} \rangle$	36.1	37.3	37.5
$\langle n^{\text{ch}} \rangle_{ y < 1}$	29.3	30.3	30.8
$\langle p_\perp^{\text{ch}} \rangle$ (GeV)	1.90	1.83	1.75
$\langle x_E^{\text{ch}} \rangle (\times 10^{-2})$	2.85	2.74	2.59
$\langle 1 - T \rangle (\times 10^{-2})$	6.0	7.1	6.5

return to these issues below, when we present numerical results which confirm these effects.

2. Numerical results

We have used in our numerical simulations of W^+W^- production at the nominal LEP 2 energy of 170 GeV the values of the parameters L_c, L_0, μ_0 that we specified in Sec. III A, on our discussion of Z^0 decays at LEP 1. To study within our framework whether the spatial overlap of parton production from the W^+ and W^- decays results in observable effects, we contrast two extreme sets of initial conditions for the production of W^+W^- pairs: (a) the *realistic* case, in which the W^+ and W^- decay close by at space-time vertices $r^\pm$, Eq. (29), with an average separation $\Delta r < 0.1$ fm, and with the spatial correlations between the two jet systems taken fully into account, and (b) a *hypothetical* one with the W^+ and W^- decay vertices shifted artificially apart, i.e., $\Delta r \rightarrow \infty$, so that spatial correlations between the two jet systems are absent.

Figure 14 exhibits the differences between the *realistic* (full curves) and the *hypothetical* (dotted curves) cases for the cluster-mass spectrum, the transverse momenta of the produced hadrons, and the multiplicity distribution for charged particles. In both cases, we show results for the “colorful” coalescence scenario (III), where the effects are most significant. The main effects of particle correlations in the *realistic* scenario due to the spatial overlap of the jets during the time development of the system are seen to be (i) a suppression of cluster production for masses $m_c \gtrsim 2$ GeV, (ii) a softer $p_\perp$ spectrum of resulting hadrons, and (iii) a significantly shifted multiplicity distribution, with an enhanced number of high-multiplicity events and a mean $\langle n_{\text{ch}} \rangle = 37.5$ (30.8 in $|y| < 1$), compared to $\langle n_{\text{ch}} \rangle = 32.8$ (25.6 in $|y| < 1$) in the *hypothetical* scenario. This shows that multiparticle effects may well not be negligible. In particular, the difference of more than 10% in the particle multiplicity between the two sets of initial conditions, which rises to above 20% in the central rapidity region $|y| < 1$, should be clearly visible at LEP 2. If seen, such an effect would enable experimentalists to probe this possible multiparticle situation in more detail. This would in turn enable our simulation to be

improved and extended to more complicated cases of overlapping cascades, such as those appearing, for example, in collisions involving nuclei.

Returning to the three color scenarios (I)–(III) defined in Sec. II B, the next question is the extent to which they differ in their predictions for the gross features shown in Fig. 14. Table III summarizes for each of the three scenarios our results for particle multiplicities and average event properties, including the transverse momenta of the charged particles $\langle p_\perp^{\text{ch}} \rangle$, the charged energy fraction $\langle x_E^{\text{ch}} \rangle$, and the thrust $\langle T \rangle$. Here, $T = \Sigma_i |p_{\parallel i}| / \Sigma_i |\vec{p}_i|$, with $\vec{p}_i$ the three-momentum of particle i and $p_{\parallel i}$, its longitudinal momentum along the axis which maximizes this ratio: T measures the “jettiness” in the sense that $T = 1$ for a perfect back-to-back configuration and $T = 1/2$ for an isotropic event. Compared with the analogous Table I of Sec. III A, the outcome is, not surprisingly, very similar. The previously fixed values of μ_0 are the only constraint on the particle production in each of the color scenarios. For the reasons discussed before, again the color-blind scenario (I) gives the largest parton multiplicity but the smallest total number of final hadrons, whereas the colorful scenario (III) features significantly less perturbative parton production, but the largest total hadron multiplicity. Table IV lists some properties of the cluster-formation scheme related to the parton and hadron content. Compared with the corresponding Table II of Sec. III A, one sees that the ratio between partons and clusters, and between clusters and hadrons, as well as the mean cluster size and radius, are roughly the same for both event types (1) and (2). This implies that the formation and hadronization of the clusters are rather universal and largely independent of the total energy of the system, a result that is plausible, given that our approach works locally in space-time and is therefore insensitive to global properties of the system. Concerning the relative contributions of the various two-parton cluster formations, as before in Table I, most processes in the colorful scenario (III) are of noncolor-singlet types, and hence accompanied by colored parton emission. For this reason, and since we consider scenario (III) to be the most complete one, we infer that the color-singlet scenario (II) may not always be reliable. Overall however, all three scenarios give rather similar

TABLE IV. Average cluster properties in $e^+e^- \rightarrow \gamma^*/Z^0 \rightarrow W^+W^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$ at 170 GeV for each of the color scenarios (I)–(III). In correspondence to Table II, the average multiplicity, size and mass of clusters are listed, and the associated relative contributions of different cluster formation subprocesses of Fig. 5. $e^+e^- \rightarrow W^+W^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$, $E_{\text{c.m.}} = 170$ GeV cluster properties.

Quantity	I	II	III
$\langle n_{\text{clu}} \rangle$	37.0	34.8	38.9
$\langle n_{\text{par}} \rangle / \langle n_{\text{clu}} \rangle$	1.01	1.06	0.76
$\langle n_{\text{clu}} \rangle / \langle n_{\text{had}} \rangle$	0.54	0.50	0.53
$\langle R_{\text{clu}} \rangle$ (fm)	0.92	0.89	0.97
$\langle M_{\text{clu}} \rangle$ (GeV)	1.76	1.97	1.62
$g + g \rightarrow C + C$	47.5%	32.6%	5.9%
$g + g \rightarrow C + g$	—	—	15.3%
$g + g \rightarrow C + g + g$	—	—	25.8%
$q + \bar{q} \rightarrow C + C$	12.8%	11.2%	2.0%
$q + \bar{q} \rightarrow C + g$	—	—	4.4%
$q + g \rightarrow C + q$	39.7%	56.2%	14.5%
$q + g \rightarrow C + q + g$	—	—	32.2%

predictions for these global event properties, so we now proceed to examine more sensitive quantities.

At LEP 2, the W mass is one quantity which is of great interest to physics and which is also potentially among the most sensitive to particle and color correlations. As already explained, we expect the apparent W mass to depend in a nontrivial way on the space-time history of the system, the color structure of the evolution, and on all particle momenta. It will be an experimental challenge to measure the W mass accurately using jet reconstruction. If the measured jets could be correctly separated, so that each final-state particle could be assigned unambiguously to the decay of either the W^+ or the W^- , then the four-momenta of W^+ and W^- could be reconstructed to give the $W^\pm$ masses. However, as has been pointed out in Ref. [8], in practice, such an analysis faces several complications in addition to purely statistical errors, such as the removal of background events, mistakes or ambiguities in assigning individual particles to jets, missing particles, and other problems of a technical nature. We will not address these here, but discuss in the following only the physical effects on the W mass determination due to particle and color correlations during the QCD evolution of the combined W^+W^- system. In view of the experimental goal at LEP 2 of measuring m_W with ≈ 50 MeV accuracy, any physical effect that induces a mass shift significantly larger than about 100 MeV, compared to the nominal experimental value of 80.22 GeV, is of great importance, as would be any apparent broadening of the Breit-Wigner mass distribution (27). Such a shift and broadening could be caused by ambiguous assignments, or even misassignment,⁹ of some of the measured particles between the original W^+ and W^- . In particular, within any approach to cluster formation which allows for “exogamous” coalescence, such as ours, it is not even possible, in principle, to assign all final-state hadrons

unambiguously to one W or the other. Since, as discussed earlier, the spatial overlap between the decay products of the W^+ and W^- is almost perfect, the only natural scale for the net effect on the reconstructed average mass $\bar{m}_W = (m^+ + m^-)/2$ is the QCD energy scale Λ_{QCD} , which is several hundred MeV. To gauge the possible magnitude of this effect, we compare the *realistic* case of overlapping W production and decay with the *hypothetical* case of far-separated W pairs that we introduced earlier in this subsection.

In order to obtain an estimate of the possible change in the W mass spectrum due to the increased particle density and the color structure of the parton-cluster conversion, we have simulated, for each of the three scenarios (I)–(III) of Sec. II B, the experimental jet reconstruction procedure and the subsequent determination of m_W . We assume that all particles are perfectly measured, so that our analysis exhibits only the physical smearing of the separate identities of the W^+ and W^- associated with the correlation effects of overlapping cascades. To model the experimental reconstruction of the four jets initiated by the W^+ and W^- decays from the observed final-state hadrons, we have adopted the e^+e^- jet-finding algorithm of the JETSET program [22], which is frequently used in experimental analyses. The general purpose of this algorithm is to determine the individual jet axes in events with multiple jets ($n_{\text{jet}} > 2$) by grouping together measured particles which are near by in phase space, and then identifying each well-separated group of particles as a jet with the jet axis given by the constituent particle directions. Other jet-finding programs exist, such as the JADE [42] or the Durham [43] algorithms, which are conceptually very similar. Specifically, in the JETSET algorithm a jet is defined as a collection of particles that have a limited transverse momentum with respect to a common jet axis, and hence also with respect to each other. A momentum distance measure d_{ij} is introduced which essentially measures the relative transverse momentum of two particles with momenta $\vec{p}_i$ and $\vec{p}_j$:

$$d_{ij} := \frac{4|\vec{p}_i|^2|\vec{p}_j|^2\sin^2(\theta_{ij}/2)}{(|\vec{p}_i| + |\vec{p}_j|)^2}. \quad (32)$$

⁹The direction of any such effective mass shift is not obvious *a priori*. However, a “randomization” effect due to experimental misassignment of particles, i.e., attributing hadrons to one W that in fact “belong” to the other one, would presumably cause an upward shift in general.

A jet is reconstructed by first searching for the highest-momentum particle i , and then all particles j that are within a distance $d_{ij} < d_{\max}$ around it. Here, the parameter $d_{\max}$ is the transverse momentum “jet resolution power,” which depends on the experimental situation and should be chosen such that the identities of the jets found are well separated. In our case, we required a minimum of four jets to be reconstructed, and have found that a value $d_{\max} = 10$ GeV satisfies this criterion appropriately. Events that yielded five or more reconstructed jets (about 20%) were ignored in the following analysis. Furthermore, for the W mass determination we followed the suggestion of Ref. [8] and required that each jet has an energy of at least 20 GeV, and that the angle between any pair of jets should be larger than $1/2$ rad. In agreement with previous studies, we found that about 60% of the total number of simulated events satisfy these cuts, so that the reconstruction gives four well-separated jets.

The four jets, corresponding to the initially-produced $q_1, \bar{q}_2, q_3, \bar{q}_4$ (cf. Fig. 13), may be paired into a candidate W in three different ways to be associated with the W^+ and W^- , so that each event gives three different values for the reconstructed mass $\bar{m}_W$. To select the most-likely pair configuration, we exploit our knowledge of the initial $q_1, \bar{q}_2, q_3, \bar{q}_4$ configuration and map the four reconstructed jets one-to-one to the original partons. Out of the three possible permutations, we then pick the one that minimizes the product of the invariant masses between each jet and the parton. Formally, the selection criterion is given by:

$$\Sigma^{(4\text{jet})} := \min[\text{Perm}_{i,j,k,l}\{M(i,1)M(j,2)M(k,3)M(l,4)\}], \quad (33)$$

where

$$M(i,j) = \sqrt{(k_i^{(\text{jet})} + k_j^{(q)})^2}. \quad (34)$$

From the total energy momentum of the jet pairs selected in this way, one then obtains the two invariant masses m^+ and m^- of the W^+ and W^- and finally the average $\bar{m}_W = (m^+ + m^-)/2$.

We recall that this standard procedure is formulated entirely in momentum space, because the experimental measurements of particle momenta do not yield any explicit information about the spatial distribution or the time of production. However, in view of the close relation between the space-time evolution of the particle system and the emergence of hadrons in momentum space (cf. Figs. 10–12 and the discussion in Sec. III A), one can presume that the above jet reconstruction scheme gives a reasonable image of the true jet structure and its underlying space-time history. In particular, since the momentum distance d_{ij} of two particles projects out their relative transverse momentum, and is insensitive to their longitudinal momenta, this distance measure provides a local criterion which is independent of rapidity.

Figure 15 exhibits rather vividly the differences between our color scenarios (I)–(III) in the jet reconstruction procedure. We plot the mass spectrum of the four reconstructed jets in each W^+W^- event, and the quantity $X := \Sigma_i^4 |\vec{p}_i^{\text{jet}}| / \Sigma_j^n |\vec{p}_j^{\text{par}}|$, measuring the fraction of summed jet three-momenta relative to the total three-momentum carried

FIG. 15. Results for the color scenarios (I)–(III) from the simulated reconstruction of the W^+W^- four-jet system according to the jet-finding algorithm explained in the text. The top part shows the mass spectrum of the reconstructed four jets (before imposing cuts on m_{jet}), whereas the bottom part shows the fraction of the total three-momentum of particles carried by the four reconstructed jets: $X := \Sigma_i^4 |\vec{p}_i^{\text{jet}}| / \Sigma_j^n |\vec{p}_j^{\text{par}}|$.

by the whole ensemble of final particles. For both quantities, the colorblind scenario (I), which is solely based on the space-time structure, deviates clearly from the scenarios (II) and (III), which, in addition, take into account the color structure in the parton-cluster formation processes. As compared to the latter two, which give relatively similar results, scenario (I) is characterized by jets that have, typically, lower mass and larger $\langle X \rangle$.

In Fig. 16 we show our final result for the simulation of the experimental W mass reconstruction. We note that the Monte Carlo statistical errors are generally $< 3\%$, so that the mass shifts quoted in the following are to be understood within a typical statistical uncertainty of 5–10 MeV. The top part shows the distribution of the reconstructed m_W for each of the color scenarios (I)–(III), in comparison to the W mass distribution which was initially generated and which corresponds to the Breit-Wigner spectrum (27). We remark that the average value of the latter is $\langle m_W^{(\text{generated})} \rangle = 79.75$ GeV, and hence below the nominal “on-shell” value 80.22 GeV, because of the kinematic competition between the Breit-Wigner line shapes of the W^+ and W^- and the phase space available for production of the pair. As in Fig. 15, the colorblind scenario (I) sticks out significantly also in Fig. 16, whereas the color-singlet and colorful scenarios, (II) and (III), give almost identical results. The lower part of Fig. 16 amplifies this effect, by showing the effective mass shift

$$\Delta m_W = m_W^{(\text{generated})} - m_W^{(\text{reconstructed})}. \quad (35)$$

The mean values of the distributions are

FIG. 16. Results of the simulation of experimental W mass reconstruction for the three color scenarios (I)–(III). The top part shows the distribution of the reconstructed m_W and, as reference, the generated W mass distribution from the Breit-Wigner spectrum. The bottom part shows the resulting mass shift distribution $\Delta m_W = m_W^{(\text{generated})} - m_W^{(\text{reconstructed})}$ with mean values given by Eq. (36).

$$\langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{real}}^{(i)} = \begin{cases} +383 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{I}, \\ +812 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{II}, \\ +706 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{III}, \end{cases} \quad (36)$$

where the subscript “real” stands for the *realistic* case of spatially overlapping $W^\pm$ decays, as defined above. The widths associated with the Δm_W distributions are large: $\sigma(\Delta m_W) = 2.65/3.05/3.02$ GeV for scenarios (I)/(II)/(III), but the effect of the wide tails is presumably not of significance, since any fine-tuned experimental W mass analysis would be mostly sensitive to the peak.

A large shift $\langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{real}}$ would not be a problem for measuring the W mass if it were independent of the hadronization model. However, a notable aspect of Eq. (36) is the difference in mass shift among the three color scenarios. Defining $\delta m_W^{(\text{II,III})}$ as the difference between the scenarios which incorporate some color accounting, namely (II) and (III), and the scenario without color, namely (I), this relative mass shift reflects the net effect of particle correlations due to color structure. It turns out to be impressively large:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \delta m_W \rangle_{\text{real}}^{(i)} &\equiv \langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{real}}^{(i)} - \langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{real}}^{(\text{I})} \\ &= \begin{cases} 429 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{II}, \\ 323 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{III}. \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

The differences between the three color scenarios are cer-

tainly not negligible compared with the experimental goal of measuring m_W with an accuracy of about 50 MeV. Even the difference between our favored “colorful” scenario (III) and the next-best scenario (II) in Eq. (37),

$$\langle \delta m_W \rangle_{\text{real}}^{(\text{III})} - \langle \delta m_W \rangle_{\text{real}}^{(\text{II})} \approx -100 \text{ MeV}, \quad (38)$$

is large compared with this experimental goal.

The mass shifts in Eqs. (36) and (37) include a mixture of two effects: first, the misassignment of particles to one W that belong in reality to the other, and second, the forced assignment of hadrons to one W that emerged from clusters formed by “exogamous” pairs of partons with mixed origins from the two overlapping W decays. Some information on the relative contribution of these independent effects can be obtained by comparing the W mass shift in the above *realistic* case with very nearby $W^\pm$ decay vertices (where both misassignment and “exogamous” clustering are possible), and the *hypothetical* situation with infinitely separated $W^\pm$ decay vertices (where “exogamy” is impossible, but misassignments are still possible). Experimentally, the hypothetical case of widely separated $W^\pm$ decays can be simulated by superposing the decays of a pair of Lorentz-boosted Z^0 decays measured at LEP 1, which should enable the *hypothetical* mass shift $\langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{hypo}}$ to be understood with adequate precision (~ 10 MeV). It should be noted, though, that misassignment may occur at different rates in the *realistic* and *hypothetical* cases, because of the differences in the final hadron spectra even for “endogamous” production. We find in the *hypothetical* case the mass shifts

$$\langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{hypo}}^{(i)} = \begin{cases} +396 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{I}, \\ +781 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{II}, \\ +424 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{III}, \end{cases} \quad (39)$$

compared to the mass shifts (36) in the *realistic* situation. Table V gives a comparative list of the various mass shifts in the different cases. Taking the differences, we infer that hadrons produced “exogamously” are directly responsible for shifts:

$$\langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{real}}^{(i)} - \langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{hypo}}^{(i)} = \begin{cases} -13 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{I}, \\ +6 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{II}, \\ +282 \text{ MeV} & \text{for } i = \text{III}. \end{cases} \quad (40)$$

In the absence of a more appropriate comparison, we can only regard the difference between the last two entries in Eq. (40), provisionally, as a conservative estimate¹⁰ of the error in determining m_W from purely-hadronic W^+W^- final states.

It should be emphasized that, in the discussion of the previous paragraph, we have been incorporating theoretical knowledge not available to experiments at LEP 2, namely, the energy-momentum vectors of the initially produced parton $q_1, q_2, q_3, \bar{q}_4$ configuration, which we exploited to remove the jet assignment ambiguity via the criterion (33). In reality, this knowledge is absent, so that some other criterion

¹⁰We find qualitatively similar numbers for the mass shifts if we select events with dijet masses in the neighborhood of m_W .

TABLE V. Compilation of the mass shifts resulting from the various investigations discussed in the text. As before, (I), (II), and (III) refer to the “colorblind,” “color-singlet,” and “colorful” scenario, respectively. The subscripts “real” and “hypo” label the two discussed extremes of the *realistic* situation (expected close-by decays of the W^+ and W^-), and a *hypothetical* case (with infinitely-separated W^+ and W^- decay vertices). The top part refers to the jet-selection scheme (33), and we compare the reconstructed average mass $\langle m_W^{(\text{rec})} \rangle = \langle m^+ + m^- \rangle / 2$, the mass shifts $\langle \Delta m_W \rangle = \langle m_W^{(\text{gen})} \rangle - \langle m_W^{(\text{rec})} \rangle$, where the mean generated W mass is $\langle m_W^{(\text{gen})} \rangle = 79.75$ GeV, and the widths $\sigma(\Delta m_W)$ of the associated distributions (Fig. 16). The lower part of the table presents the corresponding quantities extracted by using the jet-selection scheme (41). $e^+e^- \rightarrow W^+W^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}$, $E_{\text{c.m.}} = 170$ GeV compilation of mass shifts from m_W reconstruction.

Quantity (GeV)	I	II	III
First reconstruction scheme, Eq. (33)			
$\langle m_W^{(\text{rec})} \rangle_{\text{real}}$	80.13	80.53	80.45
$\langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{real}}$	0.383	0.812	0.706
$\sigma(\Delta m_W)_{\text{real}}$	2.65	3.05	3.02
$\langle m_W^{(\text{rec})} \rangle_{\text{hypo}}$	80.15	80.55	80.18
$\langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{hypo}}$	0.396	0.806	0.424
$\sigma(\Delta m_W)_{\text{hypo}}$	2.90	3.28	3.25
Second reconstruction scheme, Eq. (41)			
$\langle m_W^{(\text{rec})} \rangle_{\text{real}}$	80.13	80.30	80.21
$\langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{real}}$	0.413	0.899	0.788
$\sigma(\Delta m_W)_{\text{real}}$	2.64	2.92	2.96
$\langle m_W^{(\text{rec})} \rangle_{\text{hypo}}$	80.13	80.28	80.01
$\langle \Delta m_W \rangle_{\text{hypo}}$	0.422	0.889	0.512
$\sigma(\Delta m_W)_{\text{hypo}}$	2.80	3.06	3.08

must be found for assigning the four observed jets to the $W^\pm$. A systematic study of possible criteria for assigning the four observed jets to the $W^\pm$ and W^- involves experimental detector characteristics, and lies beyond the scope of this paper. However, to assure the reader that our results are not dependent on the details of the reconstruction method, but, in fact, reflect the underlying simulated particle dynamics, we repeated the W mass analysis using an alternative criterion that makes no *a priori* use of knowledge of the initial parton configuration as Eq. (33), but solely relies on the final particle momenta. Instead of Eq. (33), we picked out of the three possible pair configurations of the four reconstructed jets the one that minimizes the difference between the jet masses and the nominal W mass value $m_W = 80.22$ GeV that we introduced before:

$$\widetilde{\Sigma}^{(4 \text{ jet})} = \min[\text{Perm}_{i,j,k,l} \{ |\widetilde{M}(i,j) - m_W| + |\widetilde{M}(k,l) - m_W| \}], \quad (41)$$

where

$$\widetilde{M}(i,j) = \sqrt{(k_i^{(\text{jet})} + k_j^{(\text{jet})})^2}. \quad (42)$$

Using this more experimental reconstruction scheme, we obtain results very similar to those in Eqs. (36) and (37). Table V compares the outcome of the two different reconstruction schemes (33) and (41). From this it is evident that the latter, more experimental scheme gives results with a spread similar to those in Eq. (40) above. Further study of the magnitude of the particle and color correlations will require more detailed experimental simulations.

Although we believe that the “colorful” scenario (III) is the most reliable, prudence demands that one considers the

differences between this and the other scenarios as estimates of the possible systematic error in the determination of m_W , until deeper understanding of the model dependence of the mass determination is available. For example, one issue, which lies beyond the scope of this paper, is the effect of Bose-Einstein correlations [8,44]. An alternative way of thinking about the above results would be to take the value of m_W from elsewhere (e.g., from $W^+W^- \rightarrow l\nu q\bar{q}$), and regard hadronic W pairs as a laboratory for studying the effects of space-time and color correlations in a controlled environment. However, we are reluctant to retreat to this position until more model studies and comparisons have been made. We comment on these questions in the final section of this paper, discussing in particular why our result for the shift $\langle \Delta m_W \rangle$ is up to an order of magnitude larger than the previous estimates of mass shifts due to color correlations within the “color reconnection” approach [8–12].

VI. DISCUSSION AND COMPARISON WITH PREVIOUS WORK

In this work we have focused on two issues of fundamental interest for general high-energy particle collisions in QCD: first, the space-time development of perturbative parton cascade evolution and its interplay with the nonperturbative hadronization dynamics, and second, the issue of color correlations among the partons during the evolution, their impact on hadron formation, and their possible observable consequences for experiments. In view of the upcoming LEP 2 experiments at CERN, we studied specifically e^+e^- collisions at $\sqrt{s} = 91$ GeV and $\sqrt{s} = 170$ GeV, corresponding to the energies at LEP 1 and LEP 2, respectively. We emphasize, however, that the issues addressed here are of general

relevance to, e.g., DESY ep collider HERA physics (both in ep and eA collisions) and Fermilab Tevatron experiments ($p\bar{p}$ collisions), and experiments at the BNL Relativistic Heavy Ion Collider (RHIC) (AA collisions) and at the CERN Large Hadron Collider (LHC) (pp , pA , and AA collisions).

Our analysis has been in the context of the specific approach that we have developed for describing the time evolution of a generic mixed parton/hadron system in both position and momentum space. The essential novel features of our approach are to combine kinetic theory techniques with the well-established perturbative parton evolution in momentum space, and the use of a phenomenological model for parton-cluster recombination which is based on spatial separation as a criterion for confinement. Our kinetic description allows us to follow the time evolution of the system locally in each phase-space element d^3rd^4k in a manner consistent with the uncertainty principle, and trace the evolution from the initial state all the way to the final hadron yield. Thus we “see” the time dependence from the “hot” initial state as far as possible as the participating partons and hadrons experience it at the microscopic level. There is certainly considerable model dependence associated with our phenomenological simulation of the hadronization mechanism, but the comparisons here and in Ref. [20] with experimental data of global event properties measured at LEP 1 indicate that our approach is largely consistent with the present knowledge of LEP physics.

The main findings from our numerical simulations are the following.

(i) The space-time development of jet evolution exhibits the characteristic features of an “inside-outside” cascade [25,26], in which particles are, on the average, produced earliest at smallest rapidity (small x), close to the spatial location of the initial vertex. Only with progressing time and increasing distances do particles populate more densely the regions of higher rapidity, as we discuss in more detail below.

(ii) Color correlations are important, as seen from our comparison of three scenarios with different levels of accounting for the color degrees of freedom. These correlations occur among the partons during both the perturbative parton shower and the coalescence of partons into clusters, exhibiting themselves, e.g., in an increase of high-multiplicity events, larger average hadron multiplicities, and softer momentum spectra for the produced particles.

(iii) Our simulation of experimental jet reconstruction from the final-state hadrons and the extraction of the derived W mass spectrum raises the possibility that there may be a large upward shift in the “observed” $m_W^{(\text{reconstructed})}$ from the “actual” mass $m_W^{(\text{generated})}$, which could reach several hundred MeV. The effect of color correlations (40) alone could be as large as $\langle \Delta m_W \rangle \approx 300$ MeV, which is up to an order of magnitude larger than that estimated in similar previous investigations [8–11]. If true, this would have dramatic implications for the LEP 2 experiments.

We must then ask why the space-time and color-correlation effects turn out to be so large in our analysis, compared to the related investigations by, e.g., Sjöstrand and Khoze (SK) [8], and by Webber (BW) [10], who find, in general, that $\langle \delta m_W \rangle \approx 20\text{--}40$ MeV, rising possibly to ≈ 100 MeV in extreme cases. The answer is likely to be rooted in at

least two essential differences between the approaches employed by SK and BW, and by us. As we have already tried to bring out, our approach incorporates an explicit causally ordered space-time description, and a dynamical scheme of parton-hadron conversion that is formulated spatially. At this point, it is important to understand better these differences as an aid to judging the relevance of their possible implications.

The common basic concept of SK and BW is the use of well-understood angular-ordered parton shower evolution according to the leading-logarithmic QCD evolution equations in momentum space, i.e., in terms of x , and k^2 or $k_\perp^2$, in combination with a specific hadronization model, string fragmentation in the case of SK and cluster fragmentation in the case of BW. The perturbative parton evolution and the non-perturbative hadronization are treated independently, with an interface at some intermediate mass scale μ which plays the role of a perturbative cut-off parameter. No explicit use of space-time variables is made *a priori*, but the space-time location of each parton at the moment of hadronization can be reconstructed statistically by working backwards. This procedure does not, however, follow causally the space-time histories of all the partons including their space-time correlations, which is accomplished naturally by our forward time evolution approach. In the previous approaches, interference and cross talk between the parton showers emanating from the W^+ and W^- decays are incorporated by allowing for the color reconnection of partons belonging to different color-singlet subsystems just before they are hadronized. Although some of the models allow, in principle, for such multiple reconnections, commonly the contributions from more than one color reconnection per event turn out to be comparably rare fluctuations in these approaches. That is, out of the ensemble of final-state partons, most likely only a single pair is selected to be rearranged in color space. The reconnection probability which controls the strength of the effect is treated as a free parameter.

The central intuition of our approach, as applied to e^+e^- collisions, is that the initial state may be regarded as a “hot spot” where partons are temporarily unconfined and evolve according to perturbative QCD, surrounded by a “cold” confining medium containing nonperturbative condensates, through which hadrons propagate. During perturbative QCD shower evolution, the hot spot expands stochastically and inhomogeneously. We follow the space-time evolution in small discrete time steps, monitoring the separations between all the partons. In this way, we keep track of all their spatial correlations during the entire shower evolution. In the particular case of $e^+e^- \rightarrow W^+W^-$, it is easy to see, as we discussed earlier, that the W^+ and W^- decay while still very close to each other and generally within a typical confinement length of about 10^{-13} cm, so that they together occupy a single “hot spot.” We ignore the W^+ and W^- “parentages” of the partons during the subsequent combined shower evolution. The likelihood of nonperturbative hadronization (confinement) is determined statistically by the nearest-neighbor criterion (12) alone, without regard to the parentage of the individual partons. If the W^+ and W^- showers were to overlap completely, the probabilities of “exogamous” cluster formation by partons with different $W^\pm$ parents would be comparable with that of “endogamous” cluster formation by partons sharing the same $W^\pm$ parent.

FIG. 17. Graphical illustration of the space-time geography of jet evolution (part 1): on the left, the situation of the $q_1\bar{q}_2$ jet system produced in empty space by the first decaying W (here the W^+). In accordance with the “inside-outside” cascade picture, the small- x wee partons are emitted the earliest and occupy the largest longitudinal spatial region due to the uncertainty associated with their momentum. They form the bulk of radiated particles. The leading quark (antiquark) and the most energetic large- x partons, on the other hand, are localized around the expanding shock front of the system. The right part shows the same situation in the familiar longitudinal t - z plane, where the leading particles separate along the light cone, and the wee partons fill the central region. Here, t^+ refers to the time in the $q_1\bar{q}_2$ rest frame, and z^+ to the jet axis.

This would lead to many more “exogamous” clusters than the color-reconnection models proposed previously. In practice, the showers from the W^+ and W^- decays usually have different axes, and phase mismatches between high-rapidity partons in any case suppress their possible interferences, so that “exogamy,” is likely only between partons with low momenta in the center-of-mass. Nevertheless, there are many such partons, and their overlap is large, so there are many opportunities for “exogamy,” as we now discuss more quantitatively.

We recall that when W^+W^- pairs are produced at $Q = \sqrt{s} = 170$ GeV in the center-of-mass frame of the γ^*/Z^0 , the $W^\pm$ are to the first approximation created at rest,

because their boost factors are $\gamma^\pm \approx Q/(2m_W) = 1.05 \approx 1$. As pointed out in Sec. III A 1, the difference Δt between the times at which the W^+ and W^- decay is short on a typical hadronic scale: $\Delta t = |t^+ - t^-| \approx 0.1$ fm. Suppose, for definiteness, that the W^+ decays first. Then, for a time span Δt the produced $q_1\bar{q}_2$ system evolves undisturbed, just as in ordinary two-jet events. A parton shower develops, spreading rapidly out in configuration space, analogously to the illustration in Fig. 6. In space-time, the $q_1\bar{q}_2$ pair and the increasing number of accompanying bremsstrahlung partons expand such as in a shock wave [20] from the decay vertex. Most of the activity is concentrated in cones around the leading q_1 and $\bar{q}_2$. The situation is illustrated in Fig. 17, where we

FIG. 18. Graphical illustration of the space-time geography of jet evolution (part 2): the left side shows the situation now for both jet pairs, $q_1\bar{q}_2$ from the W^+ and $q_3\bar{q}_4$ from the W^- . Due to the large spatial smearing of the small- x wee partons, there is a significant region of overlap in which interactions among the partons from the two jet systems can cause correlations. The right side illustrates as in (a) the situation in the t - z plane, where $t^+(t^-)$ and $z^+(z^-)$ correspond to the time and the jet axis of the $q_1\bar{q}_2$ ($q_3\bar{q}_4$) jet pair system. Because at $\sqrt{s} = 170$ GeV the Lorentz factors $\gamma^\pm \approx 1$, one has $t^+ \approx t^-$ so that $t \equiv (t^+ + t^-)/2$ approximately measures the common time. Note also that due to the relative azimuthal angle of the two jet systems, the z^+ and z^- axes are generally rotated, so that the indicated region of wee parton overlap is generally asymmetric.

FIG. 19. Normalized distributions of the “endogamous/exogamous” parentage of clusters formed in W^+W^- events at $\sqrt{s}=170$ GeV. The shower-initiating $q_1\bar{q}_2$ ($q_3\bar{q}_4$) pairs from the W^+ (W^-) decay carry $\mathcal{E}=0$ ($\mathcal{E}=1$). In branching processes, each endogamous daughter parton i carries the previous generation’s value, i.e., $\mathcal{E}_i=\mathcal{E}_{i-1}$, and each cluster formed by exogamous coalescence of partons i and j carries $\mathcal{E}_c=(\mathcal{E}_i+\mathcal{E}_j)/2$. The figure compares the $\mathcal{E}$ distributions corresponding to the color scenarios (I)–(III). The top (middle) (bottom) part shows all (“fast:” $x>0.01$) (“slow:” $x<0.01$) clusters, respectively.

define the initial two-jet orientation as the z^+ axis. Although the particles commonly move outward close to the speed of light with velocities determined by their invariant mass k^2 , the region of space-time extent that they occupy depends sensitively on the energy fractions x via the uncertainty principle. As a consequence, the leading partons ($x\sim 1$) become separated from the wee partons ($x\lesssim 10^{-2}$). This is an important effect of time dilation and Lorentz contraction [25,26]. In fact, the q_1 and $\bar{q}_2$ moving along the z^+ axis form the forefront of the expanding shell, which has a proper thickness $\Delta z_{\text{proper}}\approx 1/m_W$, implying

$$\Delta z_q = \Delta z_{\bar{q}} \equiv \frac{\Delta z_{\text{proper}}}{2\gamma^+} \approx \frac{1}{2\gamma^+ E^+} \approx 10^{-3} \text{ fm}, \quad (43)$$

whereas the wee partons, in particular the softest ones which

are emitted earliest by the q_1 and $\bar{q}_2$, are smeared out by the uncertainty principle over a comparably large longitudinal extent:

$$\Delta z_{\text{wee}} \equiv \frac{1}{2(k_z)_{\text{wee}}} \approx \frac{1}{2xE^+} \approx 0.1\text{--}1 \text{ fm} \quad (\text{for } x \approx 10^{-2}\text{--}10^{-3}). \quad (44)$$

This spatial uncertainty associated with the particles’ momenta implies that the low-momentum quanta are not all concentrated at the shock front, as one would naively expect for massless particles, but rather occupy the whole interior of the expanding volume, with the wee partons piling up around the center, as depicted graphically in Fig. 17.

In this environment, the W^- now decays about 0.1 fm after the showering of the $q_1\bar{q}_2$ system from the W^+ has already produced a significant number (of the order of 10) wee partons around its vertex at $\vec{r}^+$, producing a second $q_3\bar{q}_4$ pair which expands around $\vec{r}^-$ in the same fashion. The second jet system is produced within the wee-parton cloud of the first one, which had been created *in vacuo*. Therefore, as suggested by Fig. 18, these later partons experience a “medium” of surrounding wee partons, immediately opening up the possibility of interactions due to correlations. The leading $q_3\bar{q}_4$ (plus possibly a few large- x partons) of the second jet system are well separated in rapidity $y \approx \ln x$ from the small- x wee partons, and, therefore, decouple and escape essentially unscathed [6]. On the other hand, the wee partons produced in W^+ decay and those emitted by the later W^- decay can interact easily, because they are in the same range of y (x) and, moreover, overlap in their spread of spatial directions (44).

These expectations are borne out by Fig. 19, which illustrates the fractions of clusters that are formed “endogamously,” i.e., by partons from the same W decay shower, and “exogamously,” i.e., by interactions between partons from different W showers. The clusters formed by endogamous unions of partons from the $W^\pm$ are labeled by $\mathcal{E}=0,1$, respectively, and clusters formed by exogamous union between partons from the W^+ and the W^- are labeled by $\mathcal{E}=1/2$. In some cases, the partons emitted during cluster formation combine to form other clusters with $\mathcal{E}=1/4, 3/4$, etc. We see in Fig. 19 that there are, in general, several exogamous unions per event, and that these are more common among the less-energetic clusters, as suggested qualitatively in the previous paragraph. (For comparison, in the hypothetical case of infinitely separated W^+ and W^- decay vertices, where “exogamy” is excluded, the distributions would be peaked at 0 and 1, and vanishing in between.) We notice also that our preferred *colorful* scenario III produces the largest fraction of exogamous clusters, as one would expect qualitatively, in view of the larger number of allowed diagrams shown in Fig. 5. In our interpretation, it is the large number of these exogamous unions that is primarily responsible for the large mass shift in Eq. (40).

We believe that these intuitive arguments provide a plausible origin for the large nonperturbative correlation effects found in our approach. We would like to emphasize that the space-time picture outlined above is, in its general features, independent of the particular Lorentz frame employed, as has

been discussed especially by Bjorken [25] and by Kogut and Susskind [26]. A Lorentz boost between different frames can distort the picture, but the characteristic “inside-outside” evolution in both rapidity and longitudinal direction is always the same. We think that any such “inside-outside” space-time picture will lead to considerable overlap, correlation, and interaction among the wee partons from the W^+ and the W^- (cf. Fig. 18). These effects are subject to the general constraints of relativity and the uncertainty principle, but one must make explicit use of space-time variables if one wishes to model them realistically. In our approach the causal evolution is followed in a probabilistic manner, with the phase-space density of particles at any point of time being determined by the preceding history, and, in turn, governing the statistical occurrence of parton-cluster coalescence, according to the local particle density and the nearest-neighbor criterion (12). On the other hand, a pure momentum-space description cannot take correlation effects fully into account, which may lead to a substantial underestimate of the possible effects on observable quantities such as the W mass.

Some final comments are appropriate here. It has to be stressed that the systematic shift δm_W that we find in the W mass is dependent on our specific modeling of the nonperturbative parton-cluster formation, as can be seen from the fact that it depends on the color scenarios (I)–(III) which are used. We recall that we have not considered color rearrangement on the perturbative level, and that its effects have been estimated to be very small, $\delta m_W^{\text{pert}} \lesssim 5$ MeV [8], and not comparable with our results (37), $\delta m_W \approx 300$ –400 MeV. As we have emphasized repeatedly, the nonperturbative aspects

have been modelled rather differently in SK and BW, and we cannot prove that our results are more reliable. However, we believe that our results demonstrate that the effects of color flow dynamics during the nonperturbative parton-hadron conversion are model dependent, and that one must be cautious in drawing conclusions from an incomplete set of different approaches. It will be possible to test models for W^+W^- hadronization using measurements of final-state hadron distributions in both longitudinal and transverse momenta for different relative orientations of the $W^\pm$ decay jets. This may enable the development of strategies for the measurement of m_W that are insensitive to complexities associated with low-momentum hadrons that have been the central theme of this paper. It remains to be seen what the experiments at LEP 2 will soon reveal.

We close by emphasizing that the effects discussed here become of increasing importance as one considers more complex systems with larger particle densities: perhaps already in deep-inelastic lepton-hadron scattering or hadronic collisions at very small x , but certainly in reactions involving nuclei, such as eA or pA , where partons propagate through and interact with nuclear matter, and especially in AA where multiple (mini)jets (up to many hundreds for large A) evolve simultaneously and interact.

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