High energy collisions from nonextensive perspective

Grzegorz Wilk National Centre for Nuclear Research, Warsaw

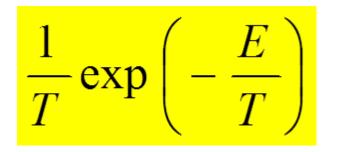
X Polish Workshop on Relativistic Heavy-Ion Collisions Unreasonable effectiveness of statistical approaches to high-energy collisions Institute of Physics, Jan Kochanowski University; Kielce, Poland; December 14-15, 2013

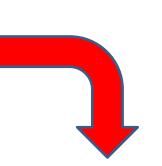
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 - O.V.Utyuzh, W. Wolak (Poland)

High energy collisions from nonextensive perspective

What does it mean?....





$$\frac{2-q}{T} \left[1-(1-q)\frac{E}{T}\right]^{1-q}$$

$$exp(...) \rightarrow exp_q(...)$$

Boltzman-Gibbs statistics \rightarrow **Tsallis statistics** q = nonextensivity parameter Nonextensivity is phenomenon which is ubiquitous in all branches of science and very well documented. It occurs always whenether:

(*) there are long range correlations in the system (or "system is small" – like our Universe with respect to the gravitational interactions)

(*) there are memory effects of any kind

(*) the phase-space in which system operates is limited or has fractal structure

(*) there are intrinsic fluctuations in the system under consideration

(*) the process proceeds via branching phenomena (in multiplicative manner)

(*)

Tsallis distribution

C. Tsallis, J.Stat.Phys. 52 (1988) 479

$$\frac{1}{T} \left[1 - (1 - q) \frac{E}{T} \right]^{1 - q}$$

$$\frac{q \rightarrow 1}{T}$$

$$\frac{1}{T} \left(q \rightarrow 1 \right)$$

$$\frac{1}{T} \left(q$$

BG

R. Hagedorn (1965)

BUT.... a bit of history which must be remembered....

First attempts to fit the whole range of p_T are from 1977 (C.Michael) (*):

$$f\left(p_{T}\right) = C\left(1 + \frac{p_{T}}{p_{0}}\right)^{n} \rightarrow \begin{cases} exp\left(-\frac{n}{p_{0}}p_{T}\right) & \text{for } p_{T} \rightarrow 0 & & \\ \left(\frac{p_{0}}{p_{T}}\right)^{n} & \text{for } p_{T} \rightarrow \infty. & & \\ for & for & p_{T} \rightarrow \infty. & & \\ for & for & p_{T} \rightarrow \infty. & & \\ for & for & for & for & \\ for & \\ for & for & \\ for & for &$$

It is known as "QCD-inspired Hagedorn formula"

(*) C.Michael and L.Vanryckeghen, J.Phys. G3 (1977) L151;C.Michael, Prog. Part. Nucl. Phys. 2 (1979)1 See also:

Rediscovered as "QCD-inspired formula" (or "Hagedorn distribution") in: G. Arnison et al. [UA1 Coll.], Phys. Lett. B118, 167 (1982); R. Hagedorn, Riv. Nuovo Cim. 6 (10), 1 (1983).

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NOTICE: for
$$n = \frac{1}{q-1}$$
 and $p_0 = \frac{T}{q-1}$ one recovers Tsallis formula.

Tsallis distribution

C. Tsallis, J.Stat.Phys. 52 (1988) 479

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Tsallis distribution

C. Tsallis, J.Stat.Phys. 52 (1988) 479

$$\frac{2-q}{T} \left[1-(1-q)\frac{E}{T}\right]^{1-q}$$

Examples of mechnisms leading to Tsallis distribution:

- -q-thermodynamics
- Superstatistics
- Stochastic network approach
- Multiplicative noise
- MaxEnt (Shannon entropy)

R. Hagedorn (1

BG

more information: arXiv:1307.7855 AIP1558(2013)893

Details can be found , for example, in some our recent works:

- (*) **AIP1558(2013)893**; On Possible Origins of Power-law Distributions
- (*) **PIB727(2013)163**; Self-similarity in jet events following from pp collisions at LHC
- (*) **JPG(2012)095004**; On the possibility of q-scaling in high-energy production processes;
- (*) APPB34(2012)2047; Tsallis fits to p^T spectra for pp collisions at LHC; PRD 87(2013)114007; Tsallis fits to pT spectra and multiple hard scattering in pp collisions at the LHC
- (*) **EPJA48(2012)161**; Consequences of temperature fluctuations in observables measured in high-energy collisions;
 - **CEJP10(2012)568**; The imprints of superstatistics in multiparticle production processes;
 - **JPG38(2011)065101**; Equivalence of volume and temperature fluctuations in power-law ensembles ;

EPJA40(2009)299; Power laws in elementary and heavy-ion collisions.

... and in earlier references therein

It all started from observation of Long flying component in cosmic rays [WW, PRD50 (1994) 2318]

(*) observation of deviation from the expected exponential behaviour

(*) successfully intrepreted in terms of cross-section fluctuation:

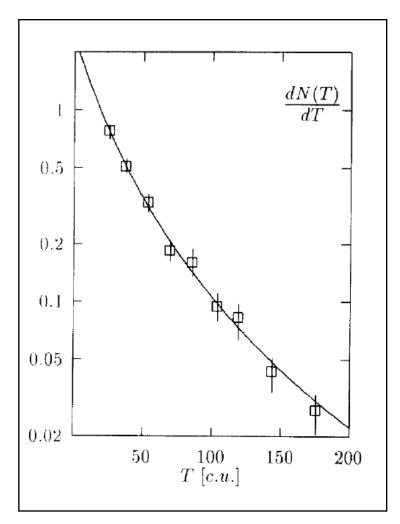
(*) can be also fitted by:

$$\frac{dN}{dT} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \exp\left(-\frac{T}{\lambda}\right) \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{dN}{dT} = \frac{2-q}{\lambda} \left[1-(1-q)\frac{T}{\lambda}\right]^{1-q}$$

$$q = 1.3$$

(*) immediate conjecture:
 q ← → fluctuations present in the system



Depth distributions of starting points of cascades in Pamir lead chamber Cosmic ray experiment (WW, NPB (Proc.Suppl.) A75 (1999) 191 GW and ZW, PRL 84 (2000) 2770 → q measures intrinsic (nonstatistical) fluctuations in the system

This is know at present as Superstatistics: a superposition of two different statistics relevant to driven nonequilibrium systems with a stationary state and intensive parameter fluctuations [C. Beck et al., Physica A322 (2003) 267]

$$\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{E}/\mathbf{T}) = \int_{0}^{\infty} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E}/\mathbf{T}) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{1}/\mathbf{T}) \mathbf{d}(\mathbf{1}/\mathbf{T})$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E}) = \frac{1}{T} \exp\left(-\frac{\mathbf{E}}{T}\right) & \mathbf{BG} \\ \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{1}/\mathbf{T}) = \frac{1}{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{q-1} - \mathbf{s}\right)} \frac{T_{0}}{q-1} \left(\frac{1}{q-1} \frac{T_{0}}{T}\right)^{\frac{1}{q-1}-1-s} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{q-1} \frac{T_{0}}{T}\right) & \text{gamma distr} \\ \mathbf{h}_{q}(\mathbf{E}) = \int_{0}^{s} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E}) \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{1}/\mathbf{T}) \mathbf{d}(\mathbf{1}/\mathbf{T}) = \frac{2-q}{T_{0}} \left[1-(1-q)\frac{\mathbf{E}}{T_{0}}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-q}} & \text{Tsallis} \\ \mathbf{g} = \mathbf{1} + \frac{\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{T})}{2}$$

<

q-thermodynamics

This will not be the subject of my presentation but this view is reasonable and it was shown that nonextensive-thermodynamics satisfies all demands of the usual thermodynamics applied to systems that posses intrinsic fluctuations, memory effects, are limited and/or nonhomogeneous etc. Cf., for example:

O.J.E.Maroney, PRE89(2009)061141

T.S.Biro, *Is there a temperature?* (Springer 2011)

T.S.Biro et al., JPG37(2010)094027; PRE83(2011)061147; EPJ Web of Conf. 13 (2011)05004; PLB718 (2012) 125.

J.Cleymans et al., JPG39(2012)025006; EPJA48(2012)160

J.Rożynek, G.Wilk, JPG36(2009)125108; EPJ Web of Conf. 13(2011)0500 2

For those interested in more recent information see:

https://indico.cern.ch/conferenceDisplay.py?confld=285968

	Filter ICal export More	Europe/Zurich	English Log	
Tsallis fund	tion			
	wary 2014 from 09:00 to 11:00 (Europe/Zurich) 006 - TH Conference Room)			
	3 January 2014			
09:00 - 09:30	A statistical mechanical view on high energy physics 30' The use of the celebrated BoltzmannGibbs entropy and statistical mechanics is justified for ergodic-like systems. In contrast, complex systems typically require more powerful theories. We will provide a brief introduction to nonadditive entropies and associated nonextensive statistical mechanics, and then present some recent applications to systems such as high-energy collisions, black holes and others.			
	complex systems typically require more powerful theories. We will pro associated nonextensive statistical mechanics, and then present som	ovide a brief introduction to nonadditive en	tropies and	
09:30 - 10:00	complex systems typically require more powerful theories. We will pro associated nonextensive statistical mechanics, and then present som	ovide a brief introduction to nonadditive en	tropies and	

Surprisingly Close Tsallis Fits to High Transverse Momentum Hadrons Produced at LHC - confrontation with pQCD

C.-Y.Wong, G.Wilk:

- Acta Phys. Polon. B43 (2012) 2047
- Phys. Rev. D87 (2013) 114007
- arxiv: 1309.7330v1 [hep-ph] proc.of Low-X 2013

The Open Nuclear & Particle Physics Journal, in press

Example of Tsallis distribution: application to PHENIX data

$$\mathbf{E}\frac{\mathbf{d}\sigma}{\mathbf{d}^{3}\mathbf{p}} = \frac{\mathbf{A}}{\left(1 + \frac{\mathbf{m}_{\mathrm{T}} - \mathbf{m}}{\mathbf{n}\mathbf{T}}\right)^{\mathbf{n}}}; \quad \mathbf{n} = \frac{1}{\mathbf{q} - \mathbf{1}}$$

n=10

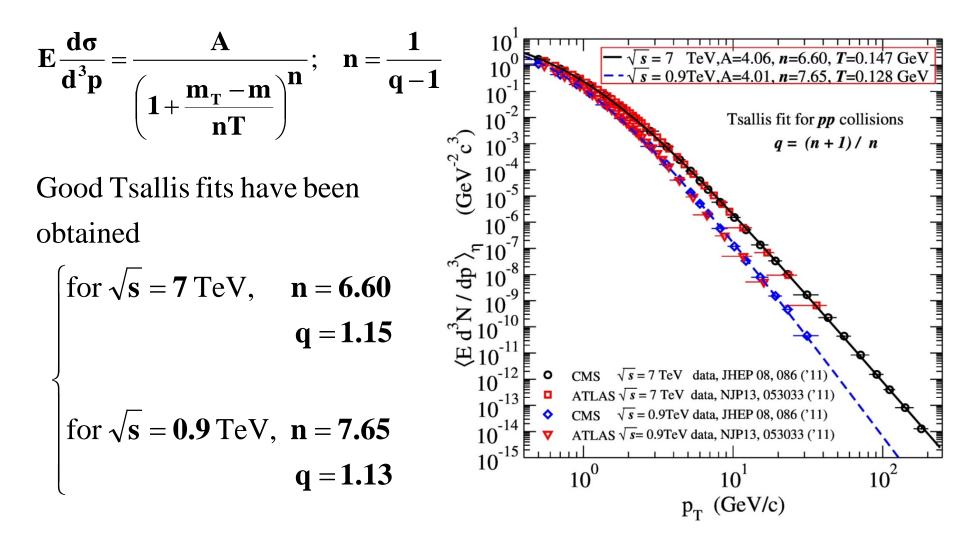
Phenix Coll., PRD 83, 052004 (2011)

Fig. 12 Invariant differential cross sections of different particles measured in p p collisions at $\sqrt{s} = 200$ GeV in various decay modes.

q=1.1

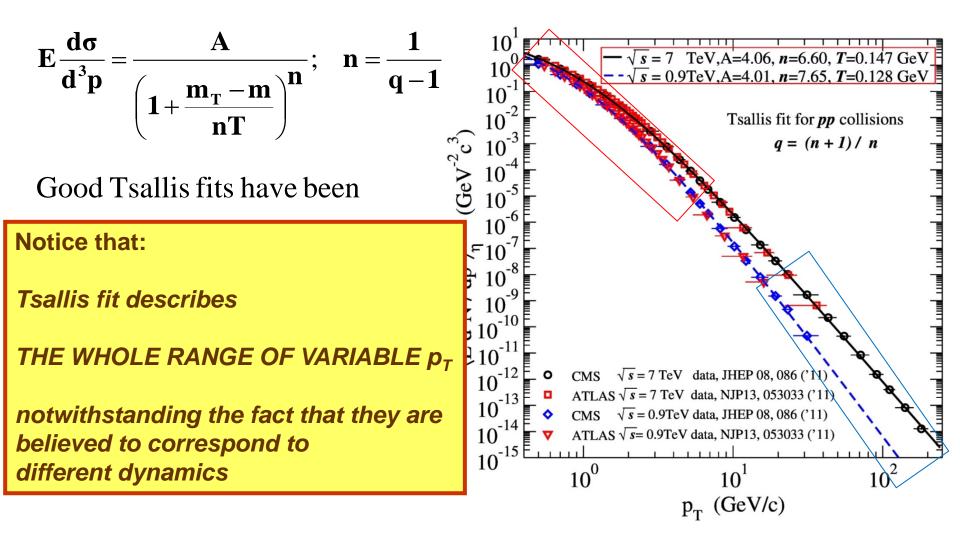
тттц PHENIX ο (π*+π) (K*+K)/2 p+p√s=200GeV o 🕦 $\rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ $AA \pi^0 \pi^* \pi^- \pi A\pi^0$ ± @ → e^{*}e` p (p+p)/2 $\circ \eta' \rightarrow \eta \pi^* \pi^*$ K*K* 🛨 🔶 -→e'e' Ed^ªc/dp³ (mb GeV² c³) a-J/w → e⁺e പു **ឃ**'→ e*e 10 10 $\omega \times 10^{3}$ $\eta \times 10^4$ 10-8 2018 12 14 16 p_T (GeV/c)

Tsallis distribution can describe LHC p_T distributions



Wong and Wilk, ActaPhysPol.B43,2047(2012)

Tsallis distribution can describe LHC p_T distributions



Wong and Wilk, ActaPhysPol.B43,2047(2012)

Good Tsallis p_T fits raise questions

- What is the physical meaning of *n*?
- If *n* is the power index of $1/p_T^n$, then why is $n \sim 7$, whereas pQCD predicts $n \sim 4$?
- Why are there only few degrees of freedom over such a large p_T domain ?
- Do multiple parton collisions play any role in modifying the power index *n*?
- Does the hard scattering process contribute significantly to the production of low-p_T hadrons?
- What is the origin of low- p_T part of Tsallis fits ?

•

Parton Multiple Scattering

For the collision of a parton a with a target of A partons in sequence without centrality selection, the differential c_{τ} distribution is given by

$$a \xrightarrow{q'} q'' q''' q''' q''' c$$

$$a \xrightarrow{q'} q_1 \qquad q_2 \qquad q_3 \qquad q_N \qquad q_N$$

$$b_1 \quad d_1 \quad b_2 \quad d_2 \quad b_3 \quad d_3 \quad b_N \quad d_N$$

$$\frac{d\sigma_{H}(aA \to cX)}{d\vec{c}_{T}} = A \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}}{c_{T}^{4}} \int d\vec{b} T(b) + \frac{A(A-1)}{2} \frac{16\pi\alpha_{s}^{4}}{c_{T}^{6}} \ln\left(\frac{c_{T}}{2p_{0}}\right) \int d\vec{b} [T(b)]^{2} + \frac{A(A-1)(A-2)}{6} \frac{936\pi^{2}\alpha_{s}^{4}}{c_{T}^{8}} \left[\ln\left(\frac{c_{T}}{2p_{0}}\right)\right]^{2} \int d\vec{b} [T(b)]^{3}$$

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The contribution from the single collision dominates, but high multiple collisions come in at lower \mathbf{p}_{T} and for more central collisions

Good Tsallis p_T fits raise questions

- What is the physical meaning of *n* ?
- If *n* is the power index of $1/p_{\tau}^{n}$, then why is $n \sim 7$,

We seek answers to these questions from the

relativistic hard-scattering (RHS) model

[Blankebecler, Brodsky et al., PRD10(1974)2973; D12(1975)3469; D15(1977)3321]

 $\mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}_T \cap \mathcal{O} \cap \mathcal{O}$

• What is the origin of low- p_T part of Tsallis fits ?

•

RHS Model - The Power Index in Jet Production

For
$$gg \to gg, qq' \to qq'$$
, and $qg \to qg$, $\frac{d\sigma(ab \to cd)}{dt} \propto \frac{\alpha_s^2(c_T)}{c_T^4}$

The analytical formula is

$$E_{c} \frac{d\sigma(AB \to cX)}{d^{3}c} \propto \frac{1}{(c_{T} / \sqrt{s})^{1/2}} \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(c_{T})}{c_{T}^{4}} (1 - x_{a0}(c_{T}))^{g} (1 - x_{b0}(c_{T}))^{g}$$

For $\eta \sim 0$, $x_{a0}(c_T) = x_{b0}(c_T) = 2x_c(c_T) = 2c_T / \sqrt{s}$, the analytical formula is

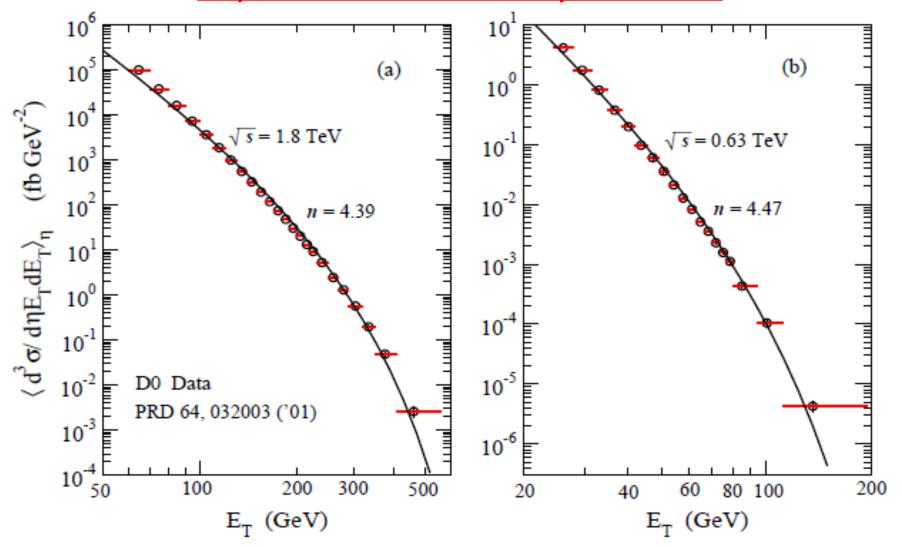
$$E_{c} \frac{d\sigma(AB \to cX)}{d^{3}c} \propto \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(c_{T}) (1 - 2x_{c}(c_{T}))^{g} (1 - 2x_{c}(c_{T}))^{g}}{c_{T}^{4 + 1/2} / (\sqrt{s})^{1/2}}$$

We change notations $c \rightarrow p$ and introduce power index n

$$E_{p} \frac{d\sigma(AB \to pX)}{d^{3}p} \propto \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(p_{T}) (1 - 2x_{c}(p_{T}))^{g} (1 - 2x_{c}(p_{T}))^{g}}{p_{T}^{n} / (\sqrt{s})^{1/2}}$$
(19)
where $n = 4 + 1/2$ for LO pQCD. $g_{a,b} = g = 6 - 10$ (we take $g = 6$ [18])

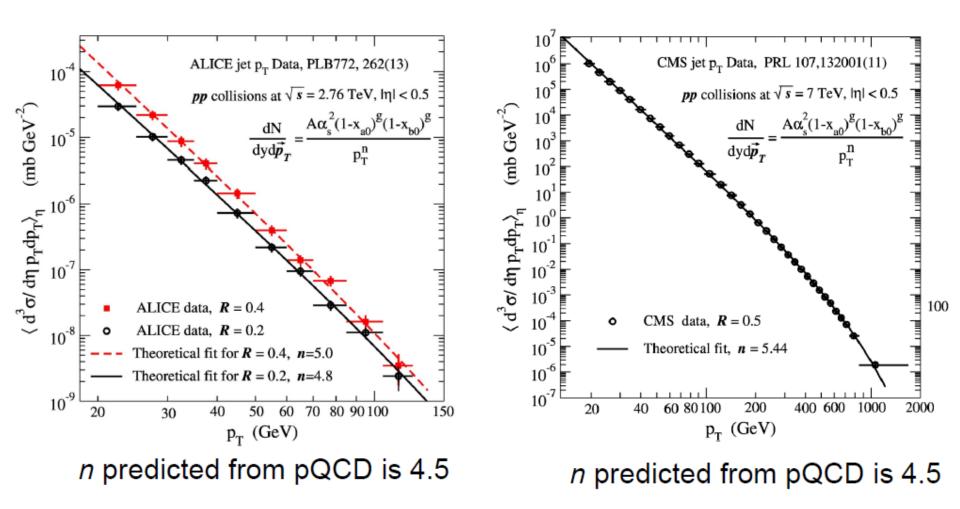
[18] D. W. Duke and J. F. Owens, Phy. Rev D30, 49 (1984).

D0 jet data can be described by RHS model



Comparison of the relativistic hard-scattering model results for jet production, Eq. (22) (solid curves), with experimental $d\sigma/d\eta E_T dE_T data$ from the D0 Collaboration, for hadron jet production within $|\eta|<0.5$, in $\bar{p}p$ collision at (a) $\sqrt{s}=1.80$ TeV, and (b) $\sqrt{s}=0.63$ TeV.

ALICE and CMS jet data can be described by RHS model



Except for the CMS data at 7 TeV that may need further re-examination, the power indices extracted for hadron jet production are in approximate agreement with the value of **n=4.5** in Eq. (19) and with previous analysis in [10], indicating the approximate validity of the hard scattering model for jet production in hadron-hadron collisions, with the predominant α_{s}^{2} / c_{T}^{4} parton-parton differential cross section as predicted by pQCD.

Collaboration	\sqrt{s}	R	η	n
D0	$\bar{p}p$ at 1.80 TeV		$ \eta < 0.7$	4.39
D0	$\bar{p}p$ at 0.63 TeV	0.7	$ \eta < 0.7$	4.47
ALICE	pp at 2.76 TeV	0.2	$ \eta < 0.5$	4.78
ALICE	pp at 2.76 TeV	0.4	$ \eta < 0.5$	4.98
CMS	pp at 7 TeV	0.5	$ \eta < 0.5$	5.39

[10] F. Arleo, S. Brodsky, D. S. Hwang, and A. M. Sickles, Phys. Rev. Lett. 105, 062002 (2010).

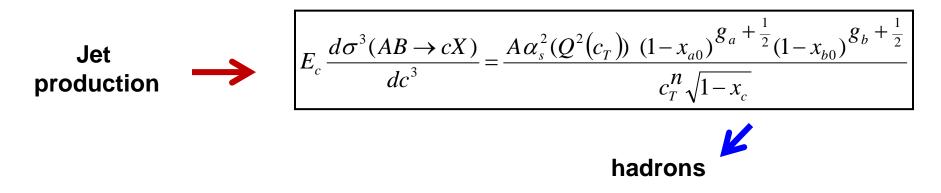
Evolution from jet to hadrons

The evolution from a jet to hadrons passes through the stages of

(i) showering (and/or fragmentation),

(ii) hadronization.

Phenomenological Modifications for Hadron Production



(*) For the case of hadron production, it is necessary to take into account additional effects. Jets undergo fragmentation and hadronization to produce the observed hadrons.

(*) For example: from the fragmentation function for a parent parton jet to fragment into hadrons, an observed hadron **p** of transverse momentum \mathbf{p}_{T} can be estimated to arise (on the average) from the fragmentation of a parent jet **c** with transverse momentum $\langle \mathbf{c}_{T} \rangle = 2.3 \mathbf{p}_{T}$ [11].

[11] C. Y. Wong and G. Wilk, Phys. Rev. D87, 114007 (2013).

Effects of showering (and/or fragmentation) on power law

For linear fragmentation where p=zc:

$$E_{p} \frac{d\sigma(AB \to pX)}{d^{3}p} = \int dz D_{p/c}(z) \int d^{4}c \frac{d\sigma(AB \to cX)}{d^{4}c} \delta^{(4)}(p-zc)$$

$$= \int \frac{dz}{z^{2}} D_{p/c}(z) z^{4+1/2} \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(c_{T})(1-x_{c}(c_{T}))^{g}(1-x_{c}(c_{T}))^{g}}{p_{T}^{4+1/2}}$$

$$\approx \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(\overline{c_{T}})(1-x_{c}(\overline{c_{T}}))^{g}(1-x_{c}(\overline{c_{T}}))^{g}}{p_{T}^{4+1/2}}$$
where
$$\overline{c_{T}} = p_{T} \left\langle \frac{1}{z} \right\rangle$$
and
$$\left\langle \frac{1}{z} \right\rangle = \int \frac{dz}{z^{2}} D_{p/c}(z) z^{4+1/2} \left(\frac{1}{z}\right) / \int \frac{dz}{z^{2}} D_{p/c}(z) z^{4+1/2}$$

Effects of showering (and/or fragmentation) on power law

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$$\begin{split} E_{p} \frac{d\sigma(AB \to pX)}{d^{3}p} &= \int dz D_{p/c}(z) \int d^{4}c \, \frac{d\sigma(AB \to cX)}{d^{4}c} \, \delta^{(4)}(p-zc) \\ &= \int \frac{dz}{z^{2}} D_{p/c}(z) z^{4+1/2} \, \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(c_{T})(1-x_{c}(c_{T}))^{g}(1-x_{c}(c_{T}))^{g}}{p_{T}^{4+1/2}} \\ &\approx \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(\overline{c_{T}})(1-x_{c}(\overline{c_{T}}))^{g}(1-x_{c}(\overline{c_{T}}))^{g}}{p_{T}^{4+1/2}} \\ &\text{where} \qquad \overline{c_{T}} = p_{T} \left\langle \frac{1}{z} \right\rangle \\ &\text{and} \qquad \left\langle \frac{1}{z} \right\rangle = \int \frac{dz}{z^{2}} D_{p/c}(z) z^{4+1/2} \left(\frac{1}{z} \right) \, / \int \frac{dz}{z^{2}} D_{p/c}(z) z^{4+1/2} \end{split}$$

The power law and power index are preserved under p=zc fragmentation

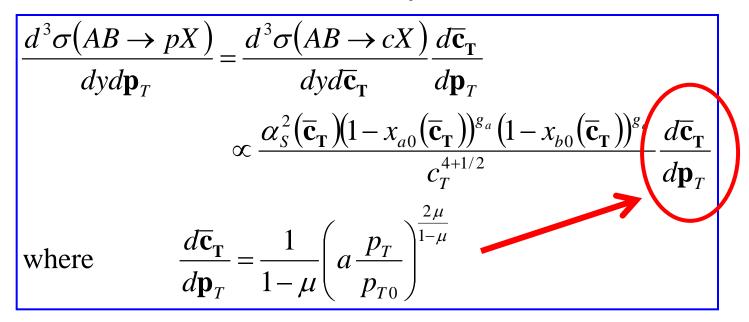
Effects of showering (and/or fragmentation) on power law

However, as a result of parton showering involving virtuality degradation, the leading hadron momentum *p* and the showering parton momentum c may not be linearly related and one can expect that

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{z} \, \mathbf{c}^{1-\mu}$$

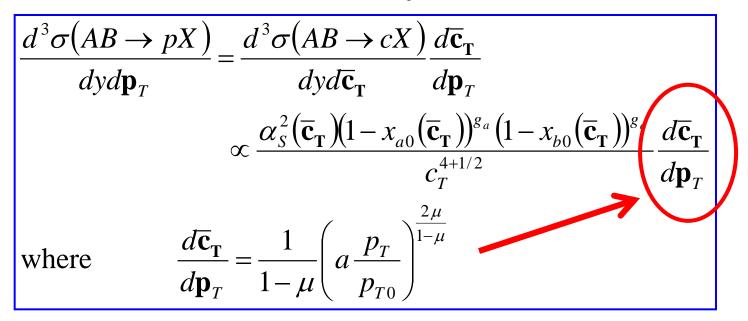
where parameter μ describes details of virtuality degradation. As a consequence, the power index can be changed under parton showering.

After the fragmentation and showering of the parton c to hadron p, the hard-scattering cross section for the scattering in terms of hadron momentum p_T becomes



Here *a* is a constant relating the scales of virtuality and transverse momentum.

After the fragmentation and showering of the parton c to hadron p, the hard-scattering cross section for the scattering in terms of hadron momentum p_T becomes



Here *a* is a constant relating the scales of virtuality and transverse momentum. Therefore under the fragmentation $c \rightarrow p$, the hard scattering cross section for $AB \rightarrow pX$ becomes:

$$\frac{d^{3}\sigma(AB \rightarrow pX)}{dyd\mathbf{p}_{T}} \propto \frac{\alpha_{S}^{2}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}})(1-x_{a0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}(1-x_{b0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}}{p_{T}^{n'}}$$
$$n' = \left(\frac{n-2\mu}{1-\mu}\right) \quad \text{with} \quad n = 4+1/2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mu = \left(\frac{n'-n}{n'-2}\right)$$

After all this one gets power-law behavior:

$$\frac{d^{3}\sigma(AB \to pX)}{dyd\mathbf{p}_{T}} \propto \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(\overline{\mathbf{c}}_{T})(1 - x_{a0}(\overline{\mathbf{c}}_{T}))^{g_{a}}(1 - x_{b0}(\overline{\mathbf{c}}_{T}))^{g_{a}}}{p_{T}^{n'}} \qquad (*)$$

but it is not Tsallis formula - low p_T behavior is not correct.

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The proposed possible remedy is to replace the usual parameter p_0 ($\sim 1 \div 2 \text{ GeV}$) dividing phase space into part governed by "soft physics " ($p_T < p_0$) from that governed by "hard physics" ($p_T \ge p_0$) by regularizing denominator in (*), for example by using:

$$\frac{d^{3}\sigma(AB \rightarrow pX)}{dyd\mathbf{p}_{T}} \propto \frac{\alpha_{S}^{2}(\mathbf{\bar{c}}_{T})(1 - x_{a0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}}_{T}))^{g_{a}}(1 - x_{b0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}}_{T}))^{g_{a}}}{\left(1 + \frac{m_{T}}{m_{T0}}\right)^{n}} \qquad (\textcircled{\oplus})$$
$$m_{T} = \sqrt{m^{2} + p_{T}^{2}}$$

After all this one gets power-law behavior:

$$\frac{d^{3}\sigma(AB \rightarrow pX)}{dyd\mathbf{p}_{T}} \propto \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}})(1-x_{a0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}(1-x_{b0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}}{p_{T}^{n'}} \qquad (*)$$
Notice that we have just used the form
of Tsallis ("Hagedorn") formula showed
at the beginning:
$$\mathbf{E} \frac{\mathbf{d}\sigma}{\mathbf{d}^{3}\mathbf{p}} = \frac{\mathbf{A}}{\left(1+\frac{\mathbf{m}_{T}-\mathbf{m}}{\mathbf{n}T}\right)^{\mathbf{n}}}$$

$$\frac{d^{3}\sigma(AB \rightarrow pX)}{dyd\mathbf{p}_{T}} \propto \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}})(1-x_{a0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}(1-x_{b0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}}{\left(1+\frac{m_{T}}{m_{T0}}\right)^{n}} \qquad (\oplus)$$

In fact, in actual calculation, in addition to the replacement

$$(1/p_T)^n \rightarrow 1/(1 + p_T/p_0)^n$$

we also regularize in similar manner the coupling constant for small values of p_T (following method proposed in hadron spectroscopic studies by C. Y. Wong, E. S. Swanson, and T. Barnes, Phy. Rev. C, 65, 014903 (2001)):

$$\alpha_{s}(\mathbf{p}_{T}) = \frac{12\pi}{27\ln(\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{p}_{T}^{2}/\Lambda_{QCD}^{2})},$$

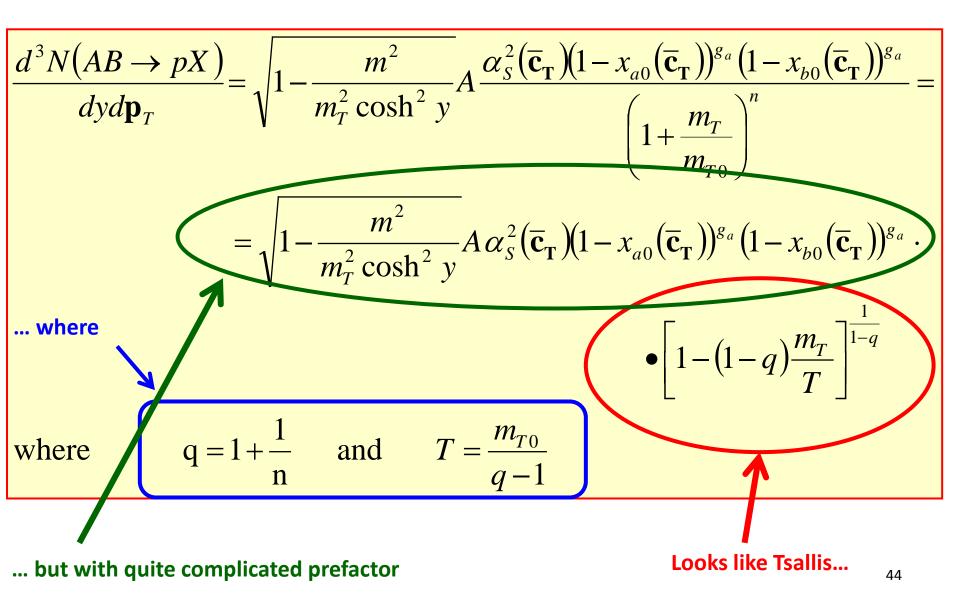
$$\Lambda_{QCD} = 0.25 \text{ GeV} \Rightarrow \alpha_{s} \left(M_{Z}^{2}\right) = 0.1184;$$

$$C = 10 \Rightarrow \alpha_{s} \left(Q \propto \Lambda_{QCD}\right) \approx 0.6 \text{ in hadron spectroscopy studies}$$

$$\frac{d^{3}N(AB \rightarrow pX)}{dyd\mathbf{p}_{T}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{m^{2}}{m_{T}^{2}\cosh^{2}y}} A \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}})(1 - x_{a0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}(1 - x_{b0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}}{\left(1 + \frac{m_{T}}{m_{T0}}\right)^{n}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{m^{2}}{m_{T}^{2}\cosh^{2}y}} A \alpha_{s}^{2}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}})(1 - x_{a0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}(1 - x_{b0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}} \cdot \frac{1 - (1 - q)\frac{m_{T}}{m_{T}}}{1 - q}}{\left(1 - (1 - q)\frac{m_{T}}{T}\right)^{1 - q}}$$
where $q = 1 + \frac{1}{n}$ and $T = \frac{m_{T0}}{q - 1}$

$$\frac{d^{3}N(AB \rightarrow pX)}{dyd\mathbf{p}_{T}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{m^{2}}{m_{T}^{2}\cosh^{2}y}} A \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}})(1 - x_{a0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}(1 - x_{b0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}}{\left(1 + \frac{m_{T}}{m_{T0}}\right)^{n}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{m^{2}}{m_{T}^{2}\cosh^{2}y}} A \alpha_{s}^{2}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}})(1 - x_{a0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}(1 - x_{b0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}}$$
where $q = 1 + \frac{1}{n}$ and $T = \frac{m_{T0}}{q - 1}$
Looks like Tsallis

$$\frac{d^{3}N(AB \rightarrow pX)}{dyd\mathbf{p}_{T}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{m^{2}}{m_{T}^{2}\cosh^{2}y}} A \frac{\alpha_{s}^{2}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}})(1 - x_{a0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}(1 - x_{b0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}}{\left(1 + \frac{m_{T}}{m_{T0}}\right)^{n}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{m^{2}}{m_{T}^{2}\cosh^{2}y}} A \alpha_{s}^{2}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}})(1 - x_{a0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}}(1 - x_{b0}(\mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}))^{g_{a}} \cdot \mathbf{\bar{c}_{T}}}$$
where
$$\mathbf{q} = 1 + \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad T = \frac{m_{T0}}{q - 1}$$
Looks like Tsallis... 43



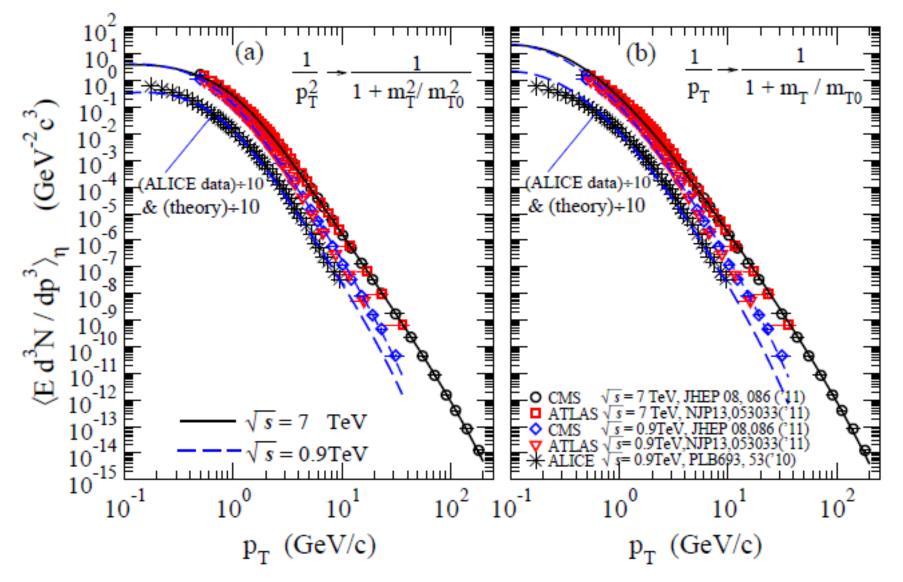
Analysis of hadron p_T distributions

Two ways to regulate the cross sections at low p_T were used :

I. Linear
$$m_T$$
: $p_T \to (m_{T0} + m_T)$
 $E_p \frac{d\sigma(AB \to pX)}{d^3 p} = \frac{A\alpha_s^2(\bar{c}_T) (1 - 2x_c(\bar{c}_T))^g (1 - 2x_c(\bar{c}_T))^g}{(m_{T0} + m_T)^n}.$ (24)
II. Quadratic m_T : $p_T^2 \to (m_{T0}^2 + m_T^2)$
 $E_p \frac{d\sigma(AB \to pX)}{d^3 p} = \frac{A\alpha_s^2(\bar{c}_T) (1 - 2x_c(\bar{c}_T))^g (1 - 2x_c(\bar{c}_T))^g}{(m_{T0}^2 + m_T^2)^{n/2}}.$ (25)

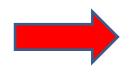
where
$$\bar{c}_T = p_T \left\langle \frac{1}{z} \right\rangle; \quad \left\langle \frac{1}{z} \right\rangle = \int \frac{dz}{z^2} D_{p/c}(z) z^{4+1/2} \left(\frac{1}{z} \right) / \int \frac{dz}{z^2} D_{p/c}(z) z^{4+1/2} = 2.33$$

We search for *n* that fits the hadron p_T spectra.



Comparison of the experimental data for hadron production in pp collisions at the LHC with the relativistic hard scattering model results (solid and dashed curves) (a) using Eq. (25), with a quadratic m_T dependence of the regulating function, and (b) using Eq. (24), with a linear m_T dependence of the regulating function. In both cases regularized coupling constant α_s was used.

	Linear m_T		Quadratic m_T^2	
	Eq. (24)		Eq. (25)	
	\sqrt{s} =7TeV	$\sqrt{s}=0.9$ TeV	$\sqrt{s}=7\text{TeV}$	$\sqrt{s}=0.9$ TeV
n	5.69	5.86	5.45	5.49
$m_{T0} (\text{GeV})$	0.804	0.634	1.09	0.837



(*) For pp collisions at the LHC the power index extracted from hadron spectra has the value of $n \sim 6$ and is slightly greater than the power indices of $n \sim 4-5$ extracted from jet transverse differential cross sections.

(*) Fragmentation and showering processes increase therefore slightly the value of the power index n of the transverse spectra.

Conclusions:

- A simple Tsallis formula can describe data with a power index of n ~ 6.6 - 7.6
- A power law with a power index of n ~ 4 5 can describe the p_T spectra of jets.
- A regularized power law with a power index of n ~ 5.5 6 can describe (together with regularized coupling constant) the p_T spectra of hadrons for all p_T.
- The power index *n* becomes larger as a jet evolves into hadrons.

Example: Shannon entropy leads to:	S = - ∫f(x)ln[f(x)]dx
(*) exponential for condition	<x> = const</x>
(*) Gauss distribution for condition	<x<sup>2> = const</x<sup>
(*) gamma distribution for	<ln(x)> = const</ln(x)>
(*) Cauchy distribution for	<ln(1+x<sup>2)>=const</ln(1+x<sup>

In general: the maximum entropy density for f(x) satisfying constraint $\int f(x)h(x)dx=const$, where h(x) is some function of x, is of the form $f(x) = exp[\lambda_0 + \lambda h(x)]$. The constants λ_0 and λ are chosen so that f(x) is normalized and satisfies the constraint.

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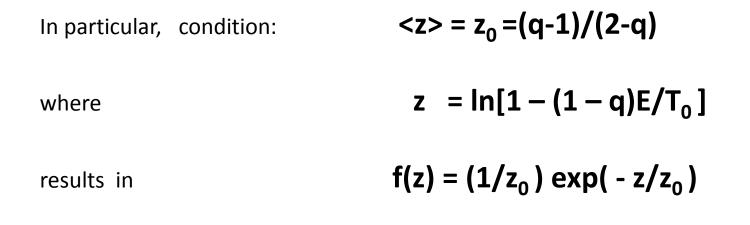


E.Rufeil Fiori, A.Plastino,; A Shannon-Tsallis transformation, Physica A392, 1742 (2013):

S.Presse, K.Ghosh, J.Lee, K..A. Dill; *Nonadditive Entropies Yield Probability Distributions with Biases notWarranted by the Data;* PRL 111, 180604 (2013)

In general: the maximum entropy density for f(x) satisfying constraint $\int f(x)h(x)dx = const.$ where **h(x)** is some function of **x**, is of the form $f(x) = \exp[\lambda_0 + \lambda h(x)].$ The constants λ_{0} and λ are chosen so that f(x) is normalized and Important question for practitioners using Tsallis or Shannon approach to describe their respective data/results: does it mean that they are simply equivalent?

S.Presse, K.Ghosh, J.Lee, K..A. Dill; *Nonadditive Entropies Yield Probability Distributions with Biases notWarranted by the Data;* PRL 111, 180604 (2013)



i.e., in Tsallis distribution:

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{(1+z_0)T_0} \left(1 + \frac{z_0}{1+z_0} \frac{E}{T_0} \right)^{\frac{1+z_0}{z_0}} \\ = \frac{2-q}{T_0} \left[1 - (1-q)\frac{E}{T_0} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-q}}$$

Interesting: condition imposed by

$$\langle z \rangle = z_0 = \frac{q-1}{2-q}$$
 where $z = \ln \left[1 - (1-q) \frac{x}{x_0} \right]$

is natural for the multiplicative noise described by

$$\frac{dp}{dt} + \gamma(t)p = \xi(t)$$

There is connection between the kind of noise in this process and the condition imposed in the MaxEnt approach:

- (*) For processes described by additive noise, dx/dt = ξ(t), one has exponential distributions. The natural condition for them is that imposed on the arithmetic mean, <x>= c+E(ξ)t.
- (*) For the multiplicative noise, $dx/dt = x\gamma(t)$, one has a **power law distribution** for which the natural condition is that imposed on the geometric mean, $\langle \ln x \rangle = c + E(\gamma)\tau$.

For interested: more on this subject can be learned from

(*) http://arxiv.org/abs/cond-mat/0507414v1

A.Rostovtsev, On a geometric mean and power-law statistical distributions.

(*) http://itia.ntua.gr/1127

S.M. Papalexiou and D. Koutsoyiannis, Entropy maximization, p-moments and power-type distributions in nature

Summary

- (*) Tsallis distribution (especially in the form of "QCD-inspired Hagedorn distribution") can be at least regarded as the handy (two parameter) parametrization of data..
- (*) But it can be also associated
 - (i) with the existence of some intrinsic fluctuations in the hadronizing system;
 - (ii) with fact that in reality we predominantly deal with systems of interacting, not free, particles but still try to impose on them BG statistics (distribution);
 - (iii) with fact that our thermal models assume homegeneous, infinite etc. heat baths, which are not found in most of the hadronizing systems we consider;
 - (iv) with the existence of different scales, branching phenomena, multiplicative subprocesses – all leading to power rather than exponential distributions (the best representation of which for all values of relevant variables is Tsallis distribution).

Thank you

Information entropy

- Information entropy is a purely probabilistic concept and is regarded as a measure of the uncertainty related to a random variable (RV).
- In literature there are more than twenty different entropy measures [1], proposed mainly as generalizations of Boltzmann-Gibbs-Shannon (BGS) entropy, which is the most famous and well justified entropy measure. The BGS entropy for a non-negative continuous RV X with density function $f_X(x)$ is defined as

$$S_{\text{BGS}} = -\int_0^\infty f_X(x) \ln f_X(x) dx \tag{1}$$

• A famous generalization, proposed by Rényi in 1961, is defined as

$$S_{\rm R} = \frac{1}{1-q} \ln \int_0^\infty f_X(x)^q \, \mathrm{d}x$$
 (2)

 Another popular generalization, the Havrda-Charvat-Tsallis (HTC) entropy [2,3], is defined as

$$S_{\rm HCT} = \frac{1}{1-q} \left[\int_0^\infty f_X(x)^q dx - 1 \right]$$
(3)

• For $q \rightarrow 1$ both the Renyi and HCT entropies converge to the BGS entropy.

<u>Jaynes</u>: finding the maximum entropy under given constraints -> the resulying probability distribution "is the least biased estimate possible on the given information...".

Mathematically, the given information used in the principle of maximum entropy, is
expressed as a set of constraints formed as expectations of functions g_i() of X, i.e.,

$$E[g_j(x)] = \int_0^\infty g_j(x) f_X(x) dx = c_j, \quad j = 1, ..., n$$
(4)

The resulting maximum entropy distributions emerge by maximizing the selected form
of entropy with constraints c_j, and with the additional constraint (to guarantee the
legitimacy of the distribution)

$$\int_0^\infty f_X(x) \,\mathrm{d}x = 1 \tag{5}$$

 The general solution of the maximum entropy distributions resulting from the maximization of BGS entropy and the HCT entropy (accomplished by using the method of Lagrange multipliers) are, respectively,

$$f_X(x) = \exp[-\lambda_0 - \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j g_j(x)]$$
(6)

$$f_X(x) = \left\{ 1 + (1-q) \left[\lambda_0 + \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j g_j(x) \right] \right\}^{-1/(1-q)}$$
(7)

where λ_j , with j = 0, ..., n are the Lagrange multipliers linked to the constraints.

Generalized power function and p-moments:

 Here, we generalize the important notion of moments inspired by the limiting definition of the exponential function. We first define the generalized power function

$$x_p^q = \ln(1 + p x^q)/p \tag{8}$$

which for $p \rightarrow 0$ becomes the familiar power function x^q . Thus, we can define a generalization of the classical moments, which we name *p*-moments of order *q* as

$$m_q^p = E(X_p^q) = \frac{1}{p} \int_0^\infty \ln(1 + p \, x^q) \, f_X(x) \mathrm{d}x \tag{9}$$

Clearly, for $p \to 0$, p-moments are identical to classical moments, i.e., $m_q^0 = m_q \equiv E(X^q)$.

Rationale:

- (*) Generalized entropy measures have been successfully used; why not *p*-moments with the standard definition of entropy?
- (*) Maximization of the BGS entropy using *p*-moments leads to flexible power-type distributions (including the Pareto and Tsallis distributions for q = 1 and q = 2, respectively).
- (*) *p*-moments are simple and, for p = 0, become identical to the ordinary moments.
- (*) They exhibit similar properties with the $\ln x$ function, and thus are suitable for positively skewed RVs; additionally, compared to $E(\ln x)$ they are always positive.

For interested: more on this subject can be learned from

(*) http://arxiv.org/abs/cond-mat/0507414v1

A.Rostovtsev, On a geometric mean and power-law statistical distributions.

(*) http://itia.ntua.gr/1127

S.M. Papalexiou and D. Koutsoyiannis, Entropy maximization, p-moments and power-type distributions in nature

$$x_p^q = \ln(1 + p \, x^q) / p \quad \xrightarrow{p \to 0} x^q$$

p – moments of order *q* :

$$m_q^p = E(X_p^q) = \frac{1}{p} \int_0^\infty \ln(1 + p x^q) f_X(x) dx$$

 $\xrightarrow[p \to 0]{} m_q \equiv E(X^q)$ classical moments

UU

8. Entropy maximization based on *p*-moments

The following table displays distributions (in terms of Lagrange multipliers λ_j) arising from the maximization of the BGS entropy and by imposing constraints, (a) classical moments m_q of various orders, (b) *p*-moments or various orders, and (c) combinations of moments or *p*-moments with the expectation of ln *x*. In all cases classical moments produce exponential-type distributions while *p*-moments produce power-type distributions.

Constraints	Distribution Name	Density function
m_1	Exponential	$f_X(x) = \exp(-\lambda_0 - \lambda_1 x)$
<i>m</i> ₂	Half-Normal	$f_X(x) = \exp(-\lambda_0 - \lambda_1 x^2)$
m_1 and m_2	Normal	$f_X(x) = \exp(-\lambda_0 - \lambda_1 x - \lambda_2 x^2)$
m_q	Generalized Exponential	$f_X(x) = \exp(-\lambda_0 - \lambda_1 x^q)$
$E(\ln x)$ and m_1	Gamma	$f_X(x) = x^{-\lambda_1} \exp(-\lambda_0 - \lambda_2 x)$
$E(\ln x)$ and m_q	Generalized Gamma	$f_X(x) = x^{-\lambda_1} \exp(-\lambda_0 - \lambda_2 x^q)$
m_1^p	Pareto type II	$f_X(x) = \exp(-\lambda_0)(1+px)^{-\lambda_1/p}$
m_2^p	Tsallis	$f_X(x) = \exp(-\lambda_0)(1 + px^2)^{-\lambda_1/p}$
m_1^p and m_2^p	Not named	$f_X(x) = \exp(-\lambda_0) \big[(1 + px)^{\lambda_1} (1 + px^2)^{\lambda_2} \big]^{-1/p}$
$E(\ln x)$ and m_1^p	Beta of the second kind	$f_X(x) = \exp(-\lambda_0) x^{-\lambda_1} (1+px)^{-\lambda_2/p}$
$E(\ln x)$ and m_q^p	Generalized Beta of the second kind	$f_X(x) = \exp(-\lambda_0) x^{-\lambda_1} (1 + p x^q)^{-\lambda_2/p}$

(*) Conclusions

From the examples presented here it should be realized that the widely discussed origin of Tsallis distribution as emerging fromTsallis entropy, is by no means the only possibility. It also arises from many nonthermal sources without really resorting to Tsallis entropy.