# VII. QCD, jets and gluons

Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD): the theory of strong interactions

- Interactions are carried out by a massless spin-1 particle gauge boson
- In quantum electrodynamics (QED) gauge bosons are photons, in QCD gluons
- Sauge bosons couple to conserved charges: photons in QED to electric charges, and gluons in QCD to colour charges
- ♦ Gluons have electric charge of 0 and couple only to colour charges ⇒ strong interactions are flavour-independent

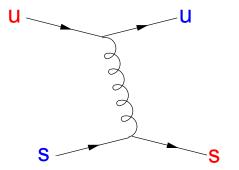


Figure 65: Gluon exchange between quarks

#### Gluons carry colour charges themselves!

Colour quantum numbers are conserved  $\Rightarrow$  for the gluon on Figure 65:

$$I_3^C = I_3^C(r) - I_3^C(b) = 1/2 - 0 = 1/2$$
(102)

$$Y^{C} = Y^{C}(r) - Y^{C}(b) = 1/3 - (-2/3) = 1$$
(103)

In general, gluons exist in 8 different colour states:

Gluon colour wavefunction $\chi_{gi}^{\ \ c}$	I <sub>3</sub> C	YC
rg	1	0
- rg	-1	0
rb	1/2	1
- rb	-1/2	-1
gb	-1/2	1
_ gb	1/2	-1
(gg-rr)/√2	0	0
(gg-rr-2bb)/√6	0	0

Gluons hence can couple to other gluons!

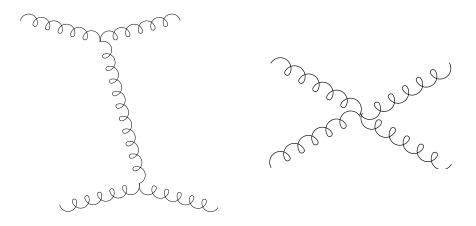


Figure 66: Lowest-order contributions to gluon-gluon scattering

- Objective States of Bound Colourless States of gluons are called glueballs (not detected experimentally yet)
- $\bigcirc$  Gluons are massless  $\Rightarrow$  long-range interaction (still, not free particles unlike  $\gamma$ )

Principle of asymptotic freedom (1973 - Gross, Politzer, Wilczek):

- At short distances between particles, strong interactions are sufficiently weak (lowest order diagrams)  $\Rightarrow$  quarks and gluons are essentially free particles
- Output A large distances, high-order diagrams dominate  $\Rightarrow$  many coloured objects, "anti-screening" of colour charge  $\Rightarrow$  interaction is very strong

Asymptotic freedom thus implies the requirement of colour confinement

Oue to the complexity of high-order diagrams, the very process of confinement can not be calculated analytically  $\Rightarrow$  only numerical models are available

## **Strong coupling constant** $\alpha_s$

At short distances, quark-antiquark potential is:

$$V(r) = -\frac{4}{3} \frac{\alpha_s}{r} \qquad (r < 0.1 fm)$$
(104)

**(a)** Constant  $\alpha_s$  is QCD analogue of  $\alpha_{em}$  and is a measure of the interaction strength

However,  $\alpha_s$  is a "*running constant*", and increases with increase of *r*, becoming divergent at very big distances.

At large distances, quarks are subject to the "confining potential" which grows with r:

$$V(r) \approx \lambda r$$
  $(r > 1 fm)$  (105)

• Short distance interactions are associated with the large momentum transfer  $\overline{q}$  between the particles:

$$\left|\dot{q}\right| = O(r^{-1}) \tag{106}$$

 $\odot \alpha_s$  is decreasing with increasing momentum transfer

In general, if interaction involves energy exchange, too, Lorentz-invariant energy-momentum transfer Q is defined as

$$Q^2 = \dot{q}^2 - E_q^2 \tag{107}$$

In the *leading order* of QCD,  $\alpha_s$  dependency on Q is given by

$$\alpha_{s} = \frac{12\pi}{(33 - 2N_{f})\ln(Q^{2}/\Lambda^{2})}$$
(108)

Here  $N_f$  is the number of allowed quark flavours, and  $\Lambda \approx 0.2$  GeV is the QCD scale parameter which has to be defined experimentally.

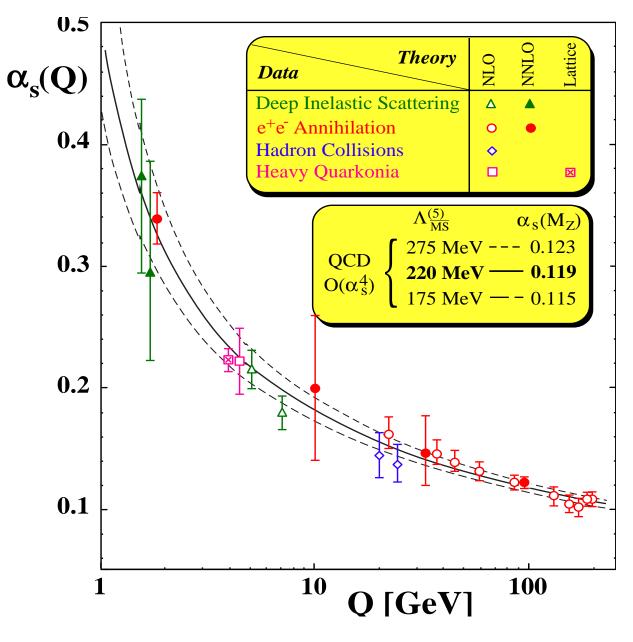


Figure 67: Running of  $\alpha_s$ , experimental data vs theory

#### **Electron-positron annihilation**

### A perfect laboratory for precision studies of QCD:

 $e^+ + e^- \rightarrow \gamma^* \rightarrow hadrons$ 

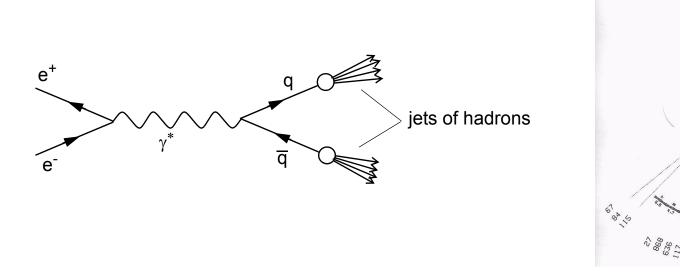


Figure 68: e<sup>+</sup>e<sup>-</sup> annihilation into hadrons (JADE experiment display, 1979)

- At energies between ~12 GeV and ~45 GeV per beam, e<sup>+</sup>e<sup>-</sup> annihilation produces a photon which converts into a quark-antiquark pair
- Quark and antiquark fragment into observable hadrons

(109)

If When beam energies are equal, quark and antiquark momenta are equal and counterparallel  $\Rightarrow$  hadrons are produced in two opposing *jets* of equal energies

Direction of a jet reflects direction of a corresponding quark

Compare the process (109) with the reaction

$$e^{+} + e^{-} \rightarrow \gamma^{*} \rightarrow \mu^{+} + \mu^{-}$$
(110)

Angular distribution of muons (spin 1/2) can be calculated as:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\cos\theta}(e^+e^- \to \mu^+\mu^-) = \frac{\pi\alpha^2}{2Q^2}(1+\cos^2\theta)$$
(111)

where  $\theta$  is the production angle with respect to the initial electron direction in center-of-mass frame.

♦ If quarks, like muons, have spin 1/2, angular distribution of jets goes like (1+cos<sup>2</sup>θ); if quarks have spin 0 – like (1-cos<sup>2</sup>θ)

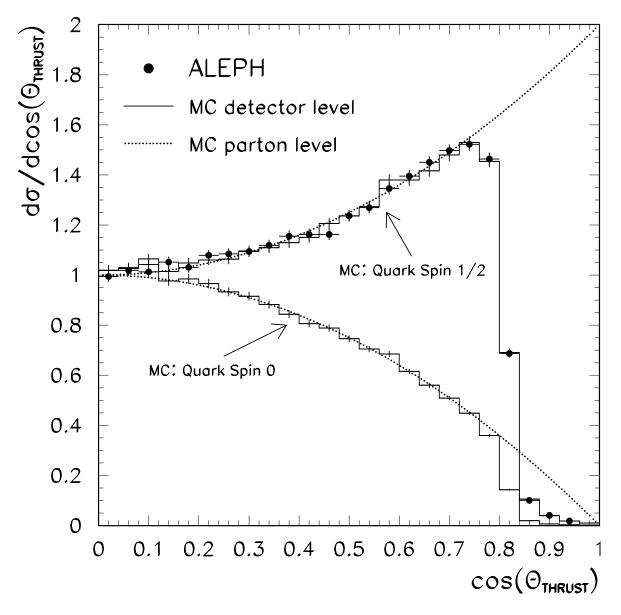


Figure 69: Angular distribution of the quark jet in e<sup>+</sup>e<sup>-</sup> annihilation, compared with models (ALEPH experiment at LEP, 1992-1994)

For a quark-antiquark pair,

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\cos\theta}(e^+e^- \to q\bar{q}) = 3e_q^2 \frac{d\sigma}{d\cos\theta}(e^+e^- \to \mu^+\mu^-)$$
(112)

where the fractional charge of a quark  $e_q$  is taken into account and factor 3 arises from number of colours.

← Experimentally measured angular dependence is clearly proportional to  $(1+\cos^2\theta) \Rightarrow$  jets are aligned with spin-1/2 particles – quarks

- If a high-momentum (hard) gluon is emitted by a quark or antiquark, it fragments to a jet of its own, which leads to a three-jet event
  - Observation of three-jet events in e+e- annihilation at PETRA accelerator (DESY, Hamburg) in 1979 is credited as gluon discovery

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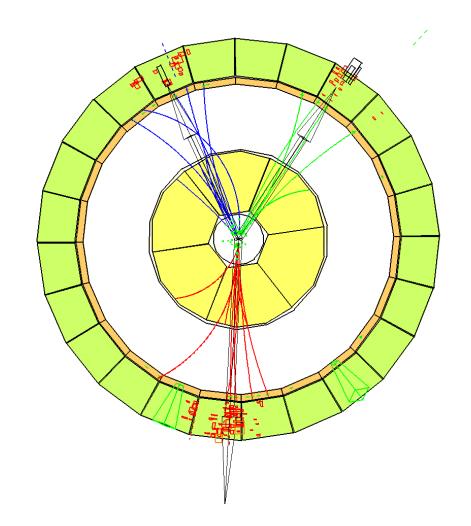


Figure 70: A three-jet event in e<sup>+</sup>e<sup>-</sup>annihilation as seen by the DELPHI experiment at LEP (1996)

In three-jet events, it is difficult to distinguish which of the jets belongs to the gluon, hence a specific sensitive variable has to be chosen

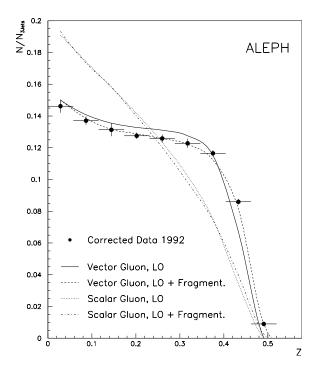


Figure 71: Distribution of Z (as in Eq.(113)) in 3-jet  $e^+e^-$  annihilation events, compared with models

Solution  $\bigcirc$  Jets are ranked by energies  $E_1 > E_2 > E_3$  ( $E_1$  ought to be a quark), and Z is:

$$Z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (E_2 - E_3)$$
(113)

- Angular distributions of jets confirm models where quarks are spin-1/2 fermions and gluons are spin-1 bosons
- ♦ Observed rate of three-jet to two-jet events can be used to determine value of  $\alpha_s$  (probability for a quark to emit a gluon is determined by  $\alpha_s$ ):

 $\alpha_{\text{s}}\text{=}0.15\pm0.03$   $\,$  for E\_{CM}\text{=}30 to 40 GeV  $\,$ 

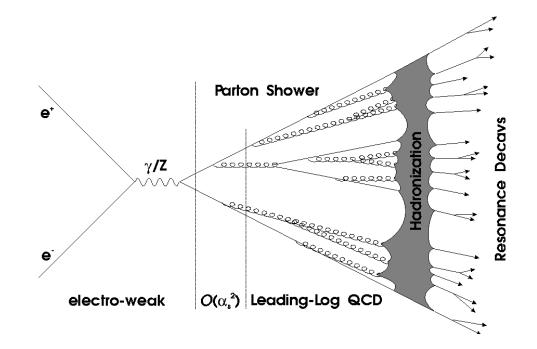


Figure 72: Principal scheme of hadroproduction in e<sup>+</sup>e<sup>-</sup> annihilation. Hadronization (=fragmentation) begins at distances of order 1 fm between partons

The *total cross-section* of  $e^+e^- \rightarrow hadrons$  is often expressed as in Eq.(81):

$$R \equiv \frac{\sigma(e^+e^- \to hadrons)}{\sigma(e^+e^- \to \mu^+\mu^-)}$$
(114)

where the denominator is (see also Eq.(82))

$$\sigma(e^+e^- \to \mu^+\mu^-) = \frac{4\pi\alpha^2}{3Q^2}$$
 (115)

Using the same argumentation as in Eq.(112) and assuming that the main contribution comes from quark-antiquark two-jet events,

$$\sigma(e^+e^- \to hadrons) = \sum_q \sigma(e^+e^- \to q\bar{q}) = 3\sum_q e_q^2 \sigma(e^+e^- \to \mu^+\mu^-) \quad (116)$$

and hence

$$R = 3\sum_{q} e_q^2$$

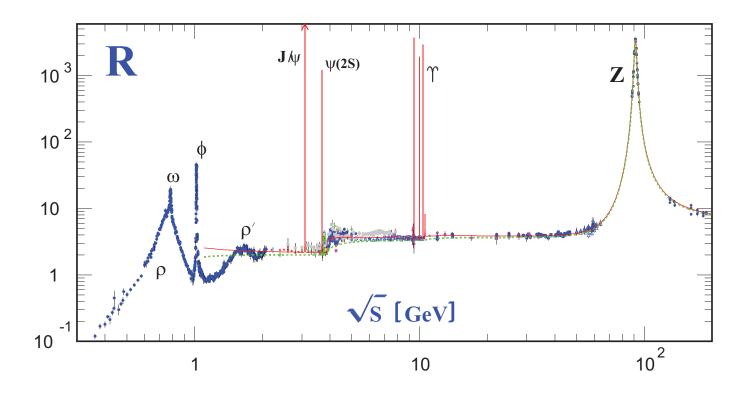


Figure 73: Measured R (Eq.(114)) with theoretical predictions for five available flavours (u,d,s,c,b), using two different  $\alpha_s$  calculations

R is a good probe for both number of colours in QCD and number of quark flavours allowed to be produced at a given Q: from Eq.(116) it follows that:

R(u,d,s)=2 ; R(u,d,s,c)=10/3 ; R(u,d,s,c,b)=11/3

If the radiation of hard gluons is taken into account, the extra factor proportional to  $\alpha_s$  arises:

$$R = 3\sum_{q} e_q^2 \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha_s(Q^2)}{\pi} \right)$$
(117)

**Elastic electron scattering** 

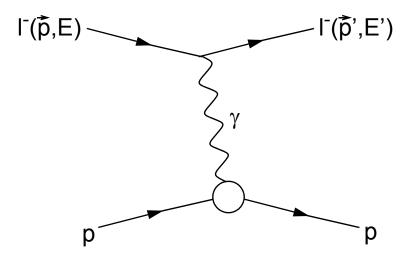


Figure 74: Dominant one-γ exchange process for elastic lepton-proton scattering

Elastic scattering: particles nature does not change

- Beams of structureless leptons (electron, positron) are a good "probe" for investigating properties of hadrons
- Elastic lepton-hadron scattering have been used to measure sizes of hadrons

Angular distribution of an electron of momentum p << m scattered by a static electric charge *e* is described by the Rutherford formula:

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{R} = \frac{m^{2}\alpha^{2}}{4p^{2}\sin^{4}(\theta/2)}$$
(118)

Here  $\Omega$  is the solid angle of a scattered particle,  $\theta$  is its asimuthal angle

If the electric charge is not point-like, but is spread with a spherically symmetric density distribution, i.e.,  $e \rightarrow e\rho(r)$ , where  $\rho(r)$  is normalized:

$$\int \rho(r) d^{3} \dot{x} = 1$$

then the differential cross-section (118) is replaced by

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_R G_E^2(q^2) \tag{119}$$

where the *electric form factor* 

$$G_E(q^2) = \int \rho(r) e^{i\vec{q}\cdot\vec{x}} d^3\vec{x}$$
(120)

is the Fourier-transform of  $\rho(r)$  with respect to the momentum transfer  $\vec{q} = \vec{p} - \vec{p}'$ .

-For q = 0,  $G_E(0) = 1$  (low momentum transfer)

- For  $q^2 \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $G_E(q^2) \rightarrow 0$  (large momentum transfer)

Measurements of the cross-section (119) determine the form-factor and hence the charge distribution inside the proton For example, the RMS charge radius is given by

$$r_E^2 \equiv \overline{r^2} = \int r^2 \rho(r) d^3 \dot{x} = -6 \frac{dG_E(q^2)}{dq^2} \bigg|_{q^2 = 0}$$
(121)

- ✤ In addition to G<sub>E</sub>, there is also G<sub>M</sub> the magnetic form factor, associated with the magnetic moment distribution within the proton
- At high momentum transfers, the *recoil energy* of the proton is not negligible, and  $\hat{q}$  is replaced by the Lorentz-invariant Q, given by

$$Q^2 = (\vec{p} - \vec{p}')^2 - (E - E')^2$$
(122)

In this interpretation of charge and magnetic moment distribution breaks down

**(a)** Eq.(121) is valid only for low  $Q^2 = q^2$ .

For a high-energy electron (m<<E), and taking into account magnetic moment of the electron itself, one obtains:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{\alpha^2}{4E^2 \sin^4(\theta/2)} \left(\frac{E'}{E}\right) \left[G_1(Q^2) \cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) + 2\tau G_2(Q^2) \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)\right]$$
(123)

Here E' is electron's energy after scattering, and

$$G_{1}(Q^{2}) = \frac{G_{E}^{2} + \tau G_{M}^{2}}{1 + \tau}; \quad G_{2}(Q^{2}) = G_{M}^{2}; \quad \tau = \frac{Q^{2}}{4M_{p}^{2}}$$

and form factors are normalized so that

$$G_E(0) = 1$$
 and  $G_M(0) = \mu_p = 2.79$ 

♦ Experimentally, it is sufficient to measure *E*' and θ of outgoing electrons in order to derive  $G_E$  and  $G_M$  using Eq.(123)

Results of proton size measurements are conveniently divided into three  $Q^2$  regions: low, intermediate and high

♦ low  $Q^2 \Rightarrow \tau$  is very small  $\Rightarrow$  G<sub>E</sub> dominates the cross-section and r<sub>E</sub> can be precisely measured:

$$r_E = 0.85 \pm 0.02 \, fm \tag{124}$$

♦ intermediate range:  $0.02 \le Q^2 \le 3 \text{ GeV}^2 \Rightarrow \text{both } G_E \text{ and } G_M \text{ give sizeable contribution } \Rightarrow \text{ they can be defined e.g. through a parameterization:$ 

$$G_E(Q^2) \approx \frac{G_M(Q^2)}{\mu_p} \approx \left(\frac{\beta^2}{\beta^2 + Q^2}\right)^2$$
 (125)

with  $\beta^2$ =0.84 GeV

♦ high Q<sup>2</sup>>3 GeV<sup>2</sup>  $\Rightarrow$  only G<sub>M</sub> can be measured accurately

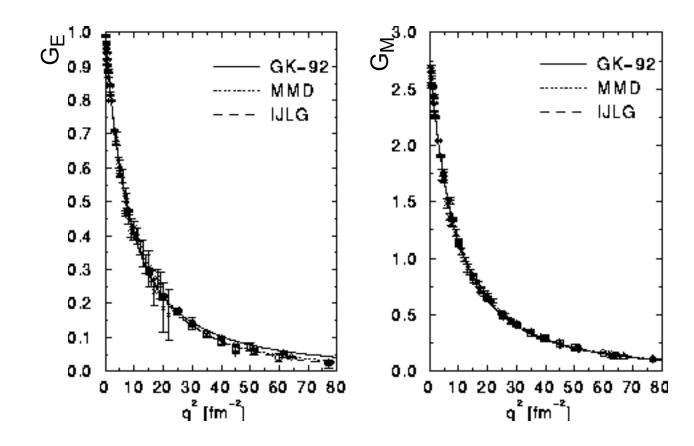


Figure 75: Electric and magnetic proton form-factors, compared with different parameterizations

Such form-factor behaviour (e.g., G<sub>E</sub> ≠ 1) indicates that proton is **not** a point-like structure

#### Inelastic lepton scattering

Historically, was first to give evidence of quarks in protons

In what follows, only one-photon exchange is considered

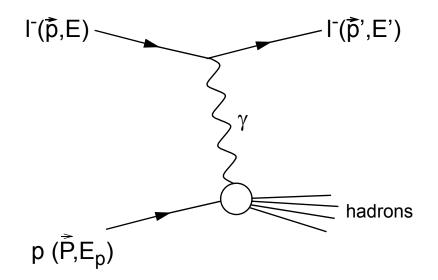


Figure 76: One-photon exchange in inelastic lepton-proton scattering

The exchanged photon acts as a probe of the proton structure

✤ Momentum transfer p = p' must be **big** enough to cause very **small** photon wavelength, small enough to probe a proton

When a photon resolves a quark within a proton, the total lepton-proton scattering is a two-step process:

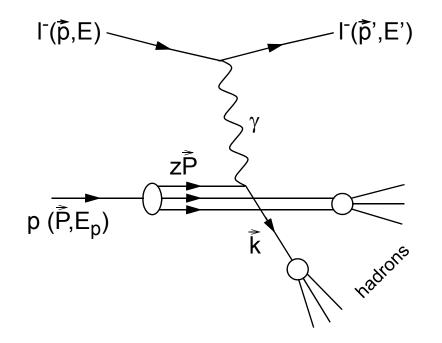


Figure 77: Detailed picture of deep-inelastic lepton-proton scattering

1) First step: elastic scattering of the lepton from one of the quarks:

$$l^- + q \rightarrow l^- + q$$
 ( $l = e, \mu$ )

2) Second step: fragmentation of the *recoil quark* and the proton remnant into observable hadrons

Angular distributions of recoil leptons reflect properties of quarks from which they scattered

For further studies, some new variables have to be defined:

 $\clubsuit$  Lorentz-invariant generalization for the transferred energy v:

$$2M_{p}v \equiv W^{2} + Q^{2} - M_{p}^{2}$$
(126)

where W is the invariant mass of the final hadron state; in the rest frame of the proton v=E-E'

 $\diamond$  Dimensionless scaling variable *x*:

$$x \equiv \frac{Q^2}{2M_p v} \tag{127}$$

For  $Q \gg M_p$  and a very large proton momentum  $\vec{P} \gg M_p$ , *x* is the *fraction* of the proton momentum carried by the struck quark;  $0 \le x \le 1$ 

• Energy E' and angle  $\theta$  of scattered lepton are independent variables, describing inelastic process

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dE'd\Omega'} = \frac{\alpha^2}{4E^2 \sin^4\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)} \frac{1}{\nu} \left[ \cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) F_2(x, Q^2) + \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \frac{Q^2}{xM_p^2} F_1(x, Q^2) \right]$$
(128)

Form (128) is a generalization of the elastic scattering formula (123)

- Structure functions  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  parameterize the interaction at the quark-photon vertex (just like  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  parameterized the elastic scattering)
- Bjorken scaling (a.k.a scale invariance) was observed by many experiments:

$$F_{1,2}(x,Q^2) \approx F_{1,2}(x)$$
 (129)

At  $Q \gg M_p$ , structure functions are approximately independent on  $Q^2$ .

Meaning: if all particle masses, energies and momenta are multiplied by a scale factor, structure functions at any given X remain unchanged

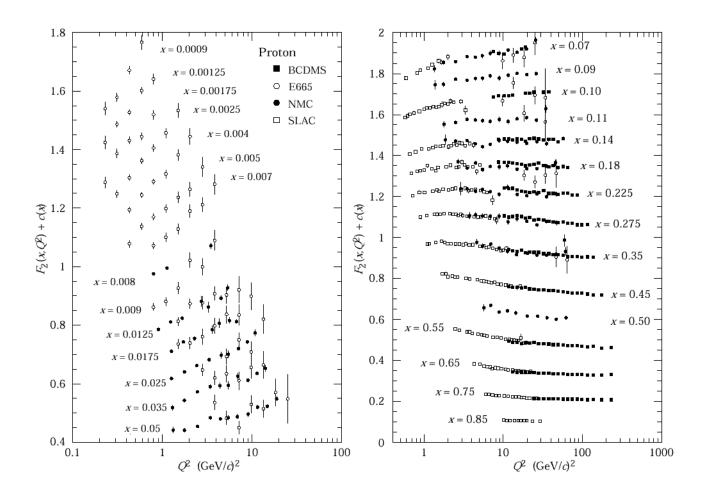


Figure 78: Structure functions F<sub>2</sub> of proton from different experiments

#### SLAC data from 1969 were first evidence of partons



Figure 79: SLAC's End Station A: proton target (left) and spectrometers

- The observed approximate scaling behaviour can be explained if protons are considered as composite objects
  - Scaling violation is observed at very small and very big X: evidence of higher-order effects

- The trivial parton model assumes that proton consists of some partons; interactions between partons are not taken into account.
- Measured cross-section at any given x is proportional to the probability of finding a parton with a fraction z=x of the proton momentum
- If there are several partons,

$$F_2(x, Q^2) = \sum_{a} e_a^2 x f_a(x)$$
(130)

- where  $f_a(x)dx$  is the probability of finding parton *a* with fractional momentum between *x* and *x*+*dx*.
- ✤ Parton distributions  $f_a(x)$  are not known theoretically ⇒  $F_2(x)$  has to be measured experimentally
  - However,  $f_a(x)$  are predicted to be the same for all Q<sup>2</sup>

While form (130) does not depend on the spin of a parton, predictions for  $F_1$  do:

$$F_{1}(x, Q^{2}) = 0 \qquad (spin-0)$$

$$2xF_{1}(x, Q^{2}) = F_{2}(x, Q^{2}) \qquad (spin-1/2)$$
(131)

- ♦ The expression for spin-1/2 is called Callan-Gross relation and is very well confirmed by experiments  $\Rightarrow$  most evidently partons are quarks (!)
- Comparing proton and neutron structure functions and those from neutrino scattering, squared charge  $e_a^2$  of Eq.(130) can be evaluated; it appears to be consistent with square charges of quarks.