VII. QCD, jets and gluons

Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD)

- Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) is the theory of strong interactions.
- Interactions are carried out by a <u>massless</u> spin-1 particle <u>gauge boson</u>
- In quantum electrodynamics (QED) gauge bosons are photons, in QCD gluons
- Gauge bosons couple to conserved charges:
 photons in QED to electric charges, and gluons in QCD to colour charges
- The strong interaction acts the same on u,d,s,c,b and t quarks because the strong interaction is **flavour-independent**.



Gluons carry colour charges themselves!

$$I_3^C = 1/2$$
 $Y^C = 1/3$ $I_3^C = 0$ $Y^C = -2/3$ $I_3^C = 1/2$ $Y^C = 1$ $I_3^C = 0$ $Y^C = 1/3$ $I_3^C = 1/2$ $I_3^C = 1/3$

Figure 58: Gluon exchange between quarks.

The colour quantum numbers of the gluon in the figure above are:

$$I_3^C = I_3^C(r) - I_3^C(b) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$Y^C = Y^C(r) - Y^C(b) = 1$$
(86)

Gluon colour wavefunctions:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \chi_{g1}^{C} = r \, \overline{g} & I_{3}^{C} = 1 & Y^{C} = 0 \\ \chi_{g2}^{C} = \overline{r} \, g & I_{3}^{C} = -1 & Y^{C} = 0 \\ \chi_{g3}^{C} = r \, \overline{b} & I_{3}^{C} = 1/2 & Y^{C} = 1 \\ \chi_{g4}^{C} = \overline{r} \, b & I_{3}^{C} = -1/2 & Y^{C} = -1 \\ \chi_{g5}^{C} = g \, \overline{b} & I_{3}^{C} = -1/2 & Y^{C} = -1 \\ \chi_{g6}^{C} = \overline{g} \, b & I_{3}^{C} = 1/2 & Y^{C} = -1 \\ \chi_{g7}^{C} = 1/\sqrt{2} \, (g \, \overline{g} - \overline{r} \, r) & I_{3}^{C} = 0 & Y^{C} = 0 \\ \chi_{g8}^{C} = 1/\sqrt{6} \, (g \, \overline{g} - \overline{r} \, \overline{r} - 2 \, b \, \overline{b}) & I_{3}^{C} = 0 & Y^{C} = 0 \end{array}$$

Gluons can couple to other gluons since gluons carry colour charge!

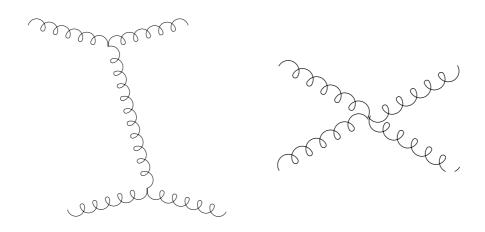


Figure 59: Lowest-order contributions to gluon-gluon scattering.

- All observed states have zero colour charge colour confinement.
- Gluons does not exist as free particles since they have colour charge.
- Bound colourless states of gluons are called *glueballs* (not detected experimentally yet).



The principle of asymptotic freedom:

- At short distances the strong interactions are weaker ⇒ quarks and gluons are essentially free particles ⇒ the interaction can be described by the lowest order diagrams.
- At large distances the strong interaction gets stronger ⇒ the interaction can be described by high-order diagrams.
- The quark-antiquark potential is:

$$V(r) = -\frac{4}{3} \frac{\alpha_s}{r} \qquad (r < 0, 1 fm)$$

$$V(r) = \lambda r \qquad (r \ge 1 fm)$$

where α_s is the strong coupling constant and r the distance between the quark and the antiquark.

Due to the complexity of high-order diagrams, the very process of confinement can not be calculated analytically ⇒ only numerical models are available.

where \mathbf{P} and \mathbf{q} are energy-momentum four vectors:

$$\mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{E},\mathbf{p}) = (\mathbf{E},\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{x}},\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{y}},\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{z}})$$

$$\overline{\mathbf{q}} = (\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{q}}, \overline{\mathbf{q}}) = \overline{\mathbf{P}_1} - \overline{\mathbf{P}_2} = (\mathbf{E}_1 - \mathbf{E}_2, \overline{\mathbf{P}_1} - \overline{\mathbf{P}_2})$$

the momentum and energy transfer is:

$$q = |\overline{q}| = |\overline{P_1} - \overline{P_2}|$$

$$V = E_q = E_1 - E_2$$

(where E and P are in the restframe of particle 3).

The energy-momentum transfer is given by:

$$\mathbf{Q}^2 = -\mathbf{\overline{q}} \cdot \mathbf{\overline{q}} = -(\mathbf{\overline{P}}_1 - \mathbf{\overline{P}}_2)^2$$

$$\mathbf{Q}^2 = \mathbf{\overline{q}} \cdot \mathbf{\overline{q}} - \mathbf{E}_q^2 = (\mathbf{\overline{P}}_1 - \mathbf{\overline{P}}_2)^2 - (\mathbf{E}_1 - \mathbf{E}_2)^2$$

This can be regarded as the invariant mass of the exchanged gauge boson since the squared mass of a particle is given by $\mathbf{M}^2 = \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{P}$

The invariant mass of the hadrons is given by:

$$\mathbf{W}^2 = \mathbf{P}_4 \cdot \mathbf{P}_4 = (\mathbf{P}_3 + \mathbf{q})^2$$

The strong coupling constant

- The strong coupling constant α_s is the analogue in QCD of α_{em} and it is a measure of the strength of the interaction.
- α_s is not a true constant but a "running constant" since it decreases with increasing Q².
- \rightarrow In leading order of QCD, α_s is given by

$$\alpha_s = \frac{12\pi}{(33 - 2N_f)\ln(Q^2/\Lambda^2)} \tag{87}$$

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.

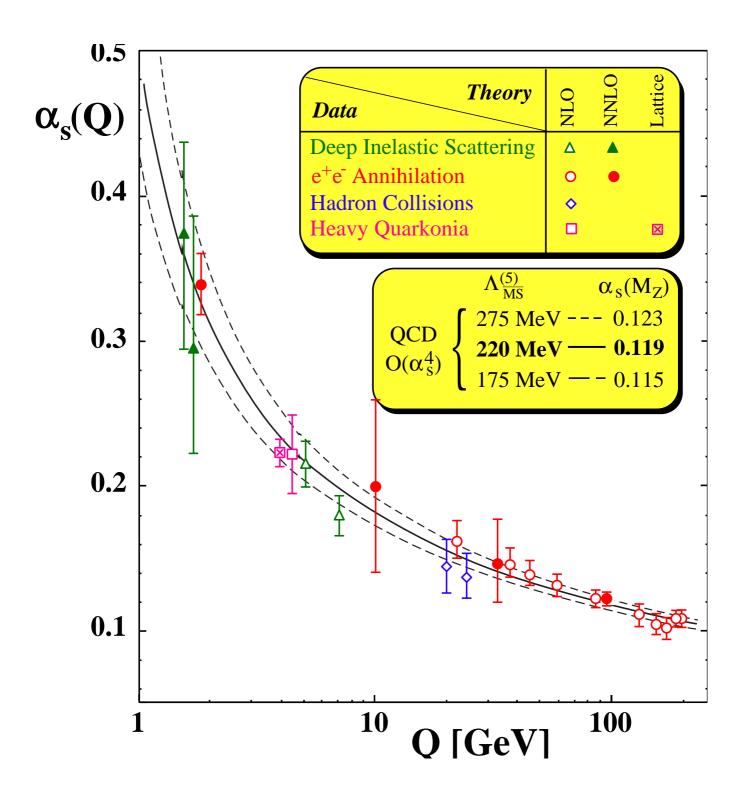
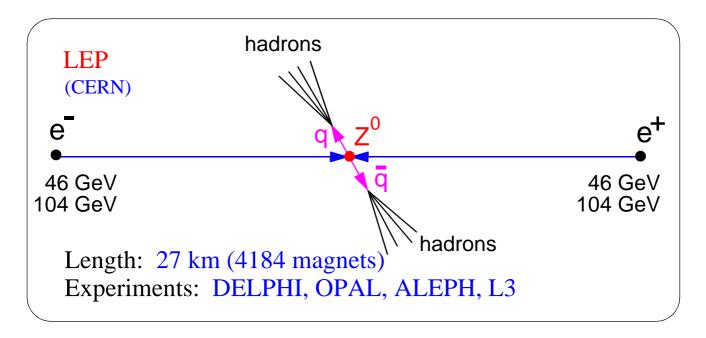
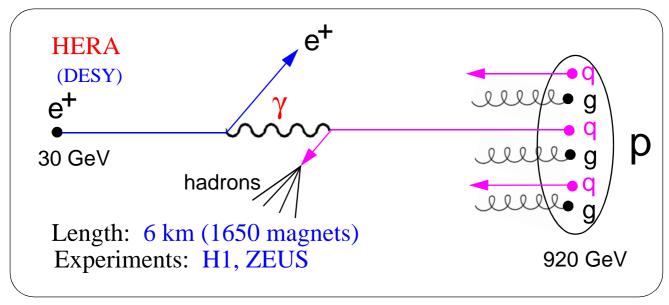
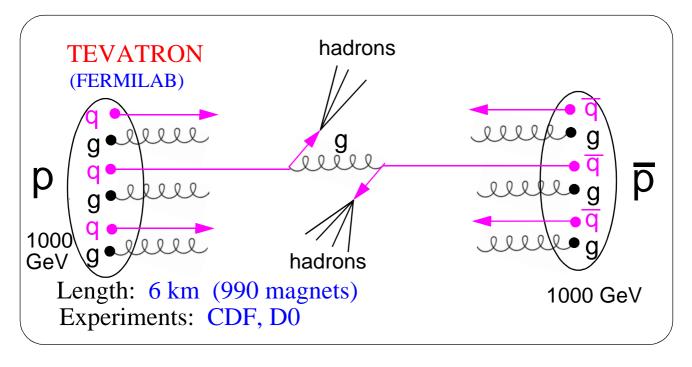


Figure 60: The running of the strong coupling constant.

Different types of accelerators







Electron-positron annihilation

A clean process with which to study QCD is:

$$e^+ + e^- \rightarrow \gamma^* \rightarrow hadrons$$
 (88)

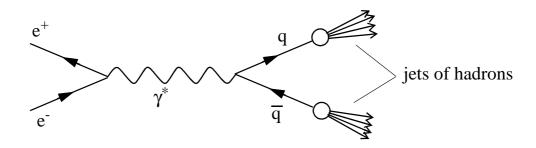


Figure 61: e⁺e⁻ annihilation into hadrons.

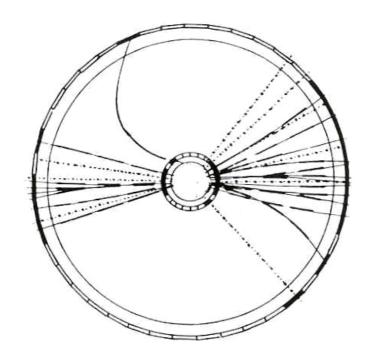


Figure 62: An e⁺e⁻ annihilation event in which two quark jets were created (the event was recorded by the JADE experiment at DESY).

In the lowest order e⁺e⁻ annihilation process, a photon or a Z⁰ is produced which converts into a quark-antiquark pair.

- The quark and the antiquark *fragment* into observable hadrons.
- Since the quark and antiquark momenta are equal and counterparallel, hadrons are produced in two *jets* of equal energies going in opposite direction.
- The direction of a jet reflects the direction of the corresponding quark.

The total cross-section of $e^+e^- \rightarrow hadrons$ is often expressed as:

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

The cross section for muon production and hadron production is the same if the number of quark flavours and colours are taken into account:

$$R = N_c \sum e_q^2$$

- Here $N_c = 3$ is the number of colours and e_q is the charge of the quarks.
- \rightarrow If $\sqrt{s} < m_{\psi}$ then

$$R = N_c(e_1^2 + e_0^2 + e_0^2) = 3((-1/3)^2 + (-1/3)^2 + (2/3)^2) = 2$$

If
$$\sqrt{s} < m_{\Upsilon}$$
 then $R = N_c(e_u^2 + e_d^2 + e_s^2 + e_c^2) = 10/3$ and

If
$$\sqrt{s} > m_{\Upsilon}$$
 then $R = N_c(e_u^2 + e_d^2 + e_s^2 + e_c^2 + e_b^2) = 11/3$

If the radiation of hard gluons is taken into account, an extra factor proportional to α_s has to be added:

$$R = 3\sum_{q} e_{q}^{2} \left(1 + \frac{\alpha_{s}(Q^{2})}{\pi} \right)$$

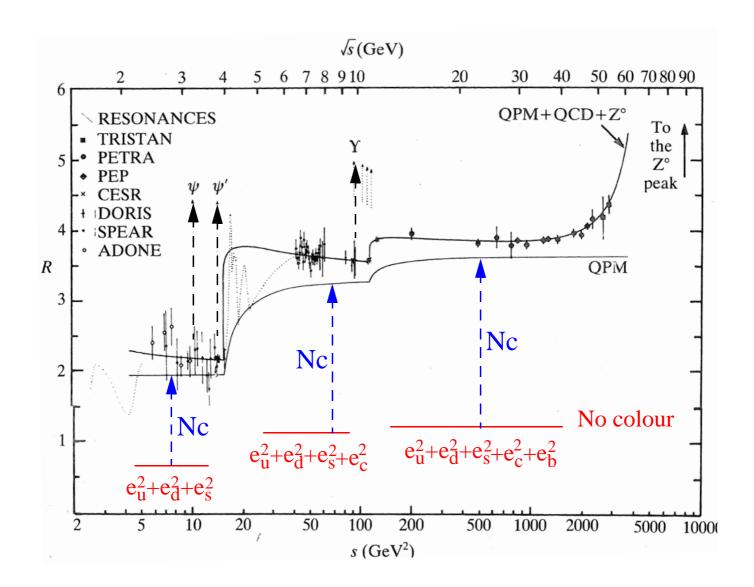


Figure 63: The measured R-value and the predicted R-value for different theoretical assumptions.

A study of the angular distribution of the jets give information about the spin of the quarks.

The angular distribution of the process

$$e^+ + e^- \rightarrow \gamma^* \rightarrow \mu^+ + \mu^-$$
 is given by:

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

where θ is the production angle with respect to the direction of the colliding electrons.

If quarks have spin 1/2 they should have the following angular distribution:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\cos\theta}(e^+e^- \to q\bar{q}) = N_c e_q^2 \frac{\pi\alpha^2}{2Q^2}(1 + \cos^2\theta)$$

where e_q is the fractional charge of a quark and N_c = 3 is the number of colours.

If quarks have spin 0 the angular distribution should be:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\cos\theta}(e^+e^- \to q\bar{q}) = N_c e_q^2 \frac{\pi\alpha^2}{2Q^2}(1 - \cos^2\theta)$$

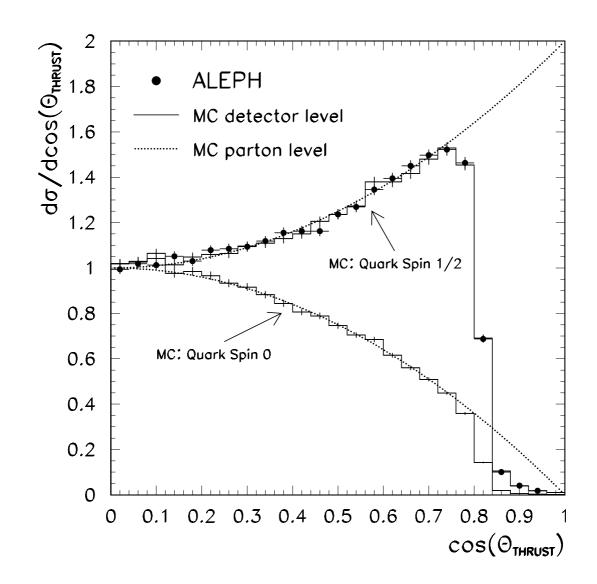
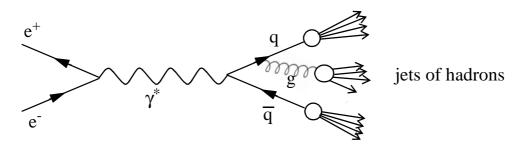


Figure 64: The angular distribution of the quark jet in e⁺e⁻ annihilations, compared with models.

The experimentally measured angular dependence of jets is clearly following(1+cos²θ) ⇒ jets are associated with spin-1/2 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:



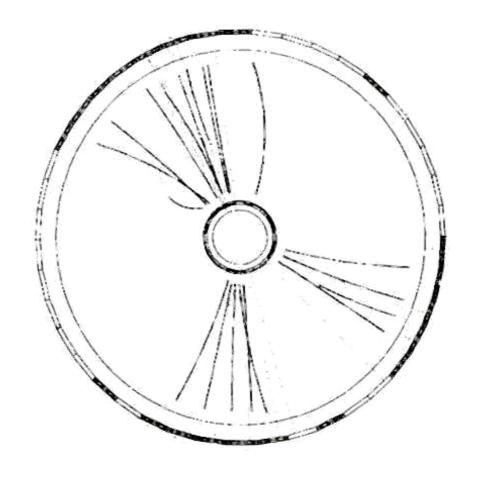


Figure 65: A three-jet event in an e⁺e⁻annihilation as seen by the JADE experiment.

The probability for a quark to emit a gluon is proportional to α_s and by comparing the rate of two-jet and three-jet events one can determine α_s .

$$\rightarrow$$
 $\alpha_{\rm s}$ =0.15 \pm 0.03 for E_{CM}=30 to 40 GeV

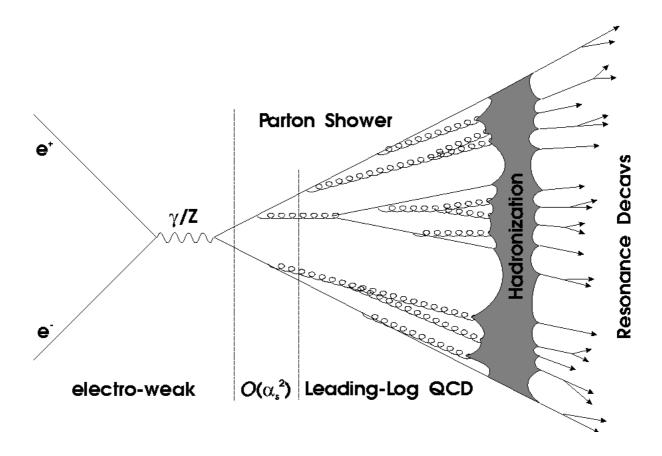
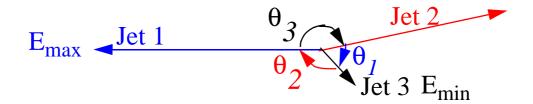


Figure 66: The principal scheme of hadron production in e⁺e⁻ annihilations. Hadronization (= fragmentation) begins at distances of order 1 fm between the partons.

By measuring angular distributions of jets one can confirm models where gluons are spin-1 bosons. This is done by measuring:

$$\cos\phi = \frac{\sin\theta_2 - \sin\theta_3}{\sin\theta_1}$$

where the angles are described below:



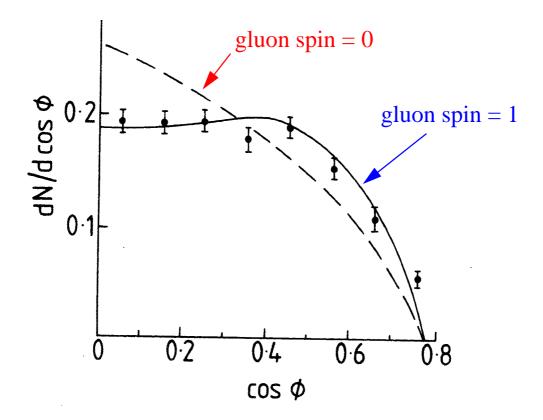


Figure 67: An angular distribution of jets compared to QCD calculations with a spin 0 and a spin 1 gluon.

Elastic electron-proton scattering

- Beams of leptons are good tools for investigating the properties of hadrons since leptons have no substructure.
- Elastic lepton-hadron scattering can be used to measure the size of the hadron.
- Elastic scattering means that the same type of particles goes into and comes out of the scattering process.

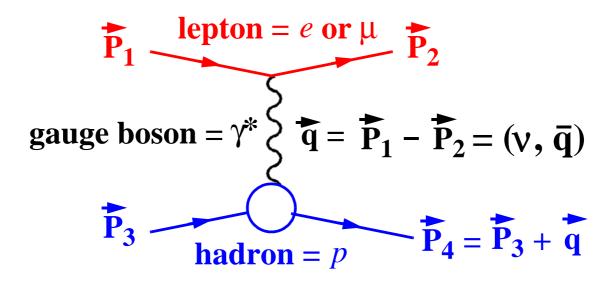


Figure 68: The dominant one-photon exchange mechanism in elastic lepton-proton scattering.

The angular distribution of the particles emerging from a scattering reaction is given by the differential cross-section

$$\frac{d\sigma(\theta, \phi)}{d\Omega}$$
 where $d\Omega = \sin\theta d\theta d\phi$

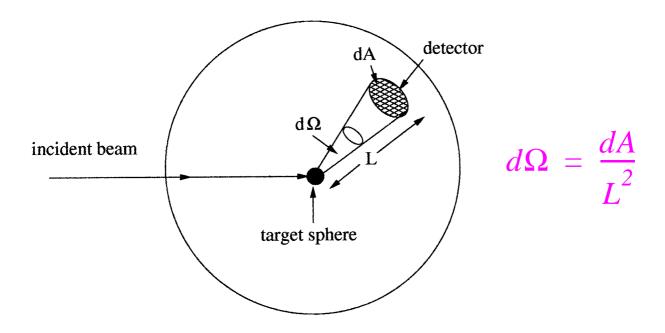


Figure 69: The definition of the solid angle $d\Omega$ in scattering experiments.

The total cross section of the reaction is obtained by integrating the differential cross section:

$$\sigma = \int \frac{d\sigma(\theta, \phi)}{d\Omega} \ d\Omega = \int \int \int \frac{d\sigma(\theta, \phi)}{d\Omega} \sin\theta d\theta d\phi$$

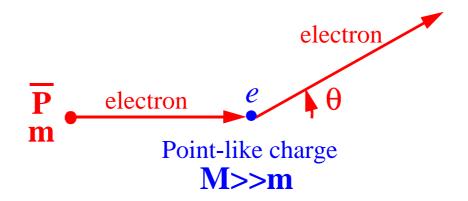


Figure 70: The scattering of an electron on a static point-like electrical charge.

The angular distribution of a relativistic electron of momentum p which is scattered by a point-like static electric charge e is described by the Mott scattering formula:

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{M} = \frac{\alpha^{2}}{4p^{4}\sin^{4}(\frac{\theta}{2})} \left(m^{2} + p^{2}\cos^{2}\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

In the low energy limit p << m, the Mott scattering formula is reduced to the non-relativistic Rutherford scattering formula:

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{\mathbf{R}} = \frac{m^2\alpha^2}{4p^4\sin^4(\frac{\theta}{2})}$$
 where $\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi}$

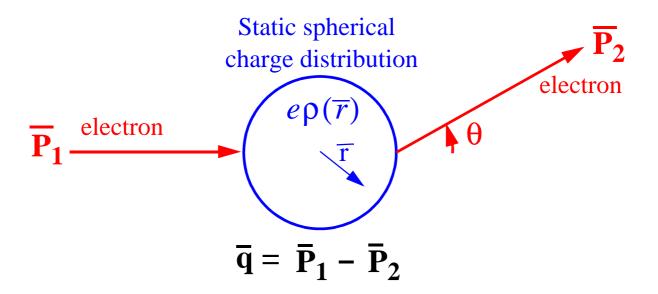


Figure 71: The scattering of an electron on a static spherical charge distribution.

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

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

then the Rutherford scattering formula has to be modified by an electric form factor $G^2_{E}(q^2)$:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{R} G_{E}^{2}(q^{2}) \tag{89}$$

The electric form factor is the Fourier transform of the charge distribution with respect to the momentum transfer \bar{q} :

$$G_E(q^2) = \int \rho(r)e^{i\bar{q}\cdot\bar{x}}d^3\bar{x}$$
 (90)

- For q = 0, $G_E(0) = 1$ (low momentum transfer)
- $-\operatorname{For}\,q^2\to\infty$, $G_E(q^2)\to 0$ (large momentum transfer)
- Measurements of the cross-section can be used to determine the form-factor and hence the charge distribution.

The mean quadratic charge radius is for example given by

$$r_E^2 = \int r^2 \rho(r) d^3 \bar{x} = -6 \frac{dG_E(q^2)}{dq^2} \bigg|_{q^2 = 0}$$
 (91)

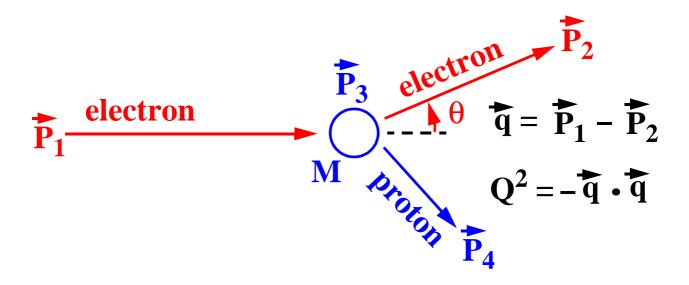


Figure 72: Elastic electron-proton scattering when the recoil energy of the proton is taken into account.

Scattering of electrons on protons depend not only on the electric form factor G_E but also on a magnetic form factor G_M which is associated with the magnetic moment distribution.

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{\mathbf{M}}^{\mathbf{x}} \left(\mathbf{G}_{1}(\mathbf{Q}^{2})\cos^{2}\frac{\theta}{2} + \frac{\mathbf{Q}^{2}}{2\mathbf{M}^{2}}\mathbf{G}_{2}(\mathbf{Q}^{2})\sin^{2}\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

$$G_{1}(\mathbf{Q}^{2}) = \frac{G_{E}^{2} + \frac{Q^{2}}{4M^{2}}G_{M}^{2}}{1 + \frac{Q^{2}}{4M^{2}}} \qquad G_{2}(\mathbf{Q}^{2}) = G_{M}^{2}$$

Measurement of the form factors are conveniently divided into three Q^2 regions:

1) low $Q^2 \Rightarrow Q << M \Rightarrow G_E$ dominates the cross-section and r_E can be precisely measured:

$$r_E = 0.85 \pm 0.02 \, fm$$
 (92)

2) An intermediate range: $0.02 \le Q^2 \le 3 \text{ GeV}^2 \Rightarrow$ both G_E and G_M give sizeable contribution \Rightarrow the result can be given by the parameterization:

$$G_E(Q^2) \approx \frac{G_M(Q^2)}{\mu_p} \approx \left(\frac{\beta^2}{\beta^2 + Q^2}\right)^2$$
 (93)

with β^2 =0.84 GeV

3) high $Q^2 > 3 \text{ GeV}^2 \Rightarrow G_M$ dominates the cross section:

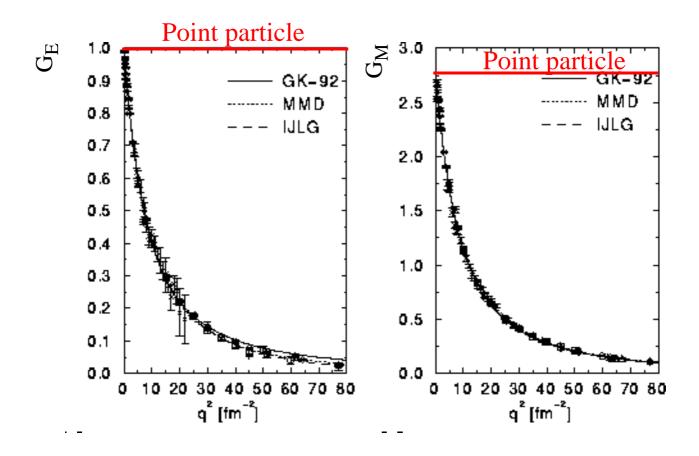


Figure 73: Electric and magnetic proton form-factors, compared with different parameterizations.

The form factors are normalized so that

$$G_E(0)$$
 = total charge = 1 (p)
= 0 (n)
 $G_M(0)$ = magnetic moment = μ_p = +2.79 (p)
= μ_n = -1.91 (n)

If the proton is a point particle then

$$G_E(Q^2) = 1$$
 and $G_M(Q^2) = 2,79$

Inelastic lepton-proton scattering

Inelastic electron-proton scattering can be used to probe the proton structure and gave the first evidence for the existence of quarks.

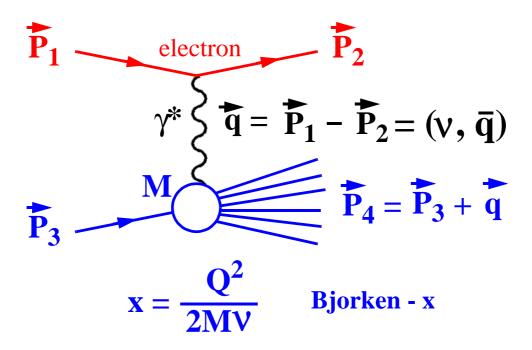


Figure 74: One-photon exchange in inelastic lepton-proton scattering.

In inelastic lepton-proton scattering a new dimensionless variable called the Bjorken scaling variable x is introduced where 0<x<1.

The differential cross section for inelastic electron-proton scattering can be written as:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dE_2 d\Omega} = \frac{\alpha^2}{4E_1^2 sin^4 \left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)} \cdot \frac{1}{v} \cdot \left[F_2(x, Q^2) cos^2 \left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) + \frac{Q^2}{xM^2} F_1(x, Q^2) sin^2 \left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \right]$$

- The two dimensionless structure functions $F_1(x,Q^2)$ and $F_2(x,Q^2)$ parameterize the photon-proton interaction in the same way as $G_1(Q^2)$ and $G_2(Q^2)$ in elastic scattering.
- Bjorken scaling or scale invariance:

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

i.e. for $Q \gg M$, structure functions are almost independent of Q^2 . If all particle masses, energies and momenta are multiplied by a scale factor, structure functions at any given x remain unchanged.

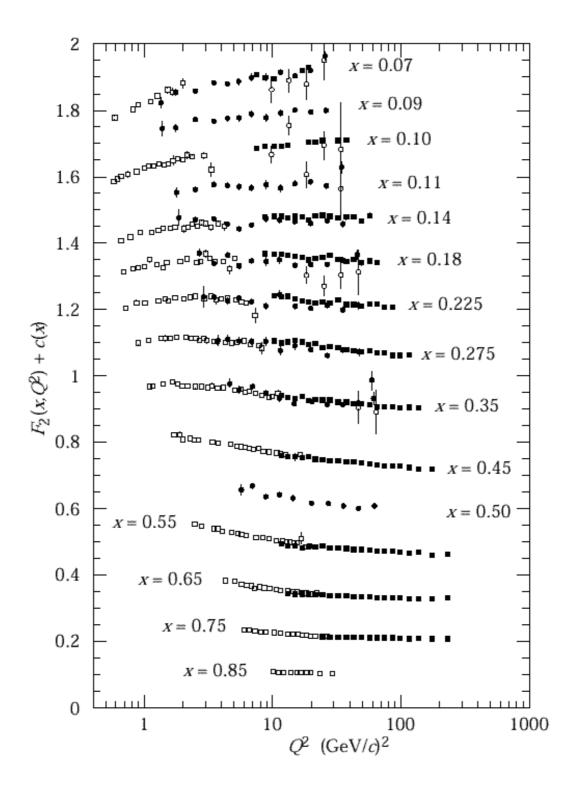


Figure 75: The measured structure function F_2 (compilation of data from different experiments).

The first observation of scale invariance in inelastic scattering was observed at SLAC in 1969 and was later interpreted as the first evidence for quarks.

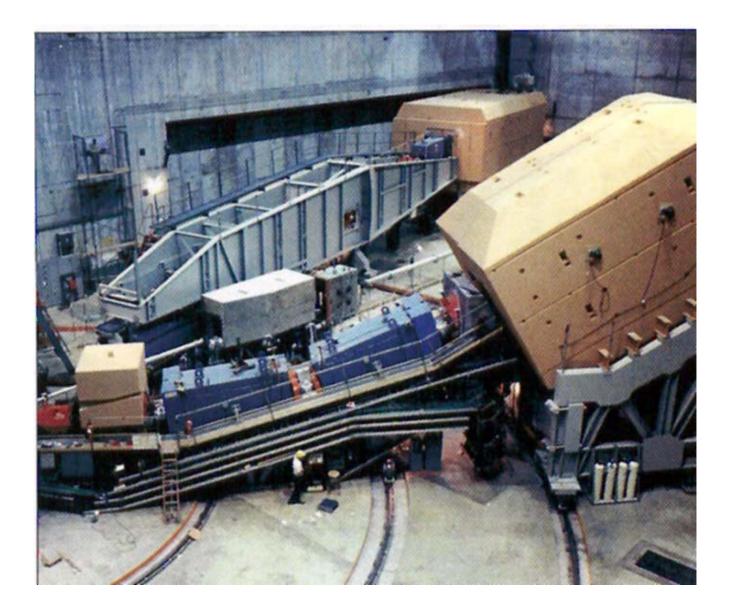
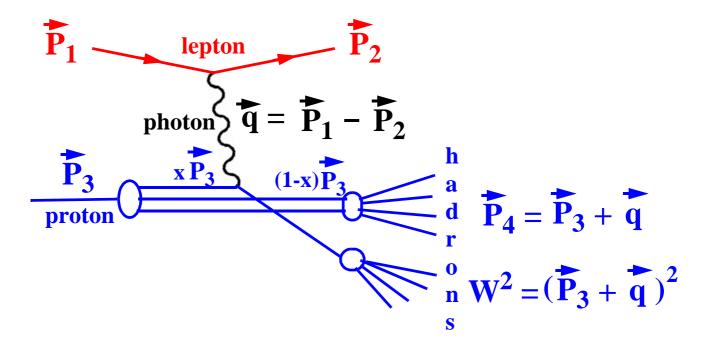


Figure 76: Two spectrometers in SLAC's End Station A that were used to discover quarks in the late 1960s.

Deep inelastic electron-proton scattering.

In the parton model the scale invariance is explained by scattering on point-like constituents (partons) in the proton.



The parton model is valid if the target proton has a sufficiently large momentum, so that the fraction of the proton momentum carried by the struck quark is given by Bjorken x.

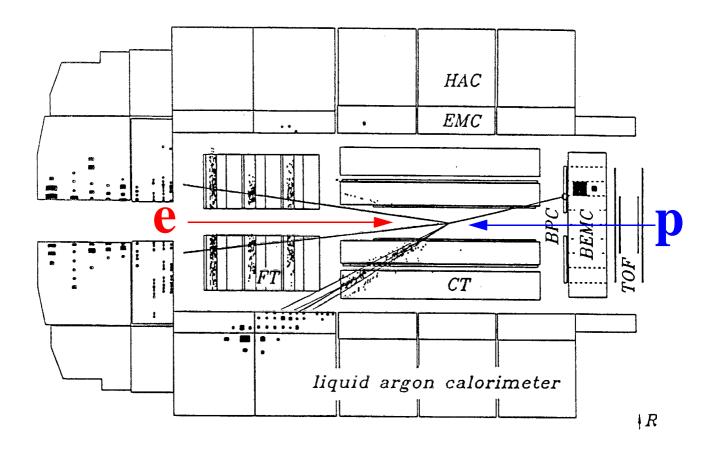


Figure 77: A computer reconstruction of a deep inelastic electron-proton scattering event recorded by the H1 experiment at DESY.

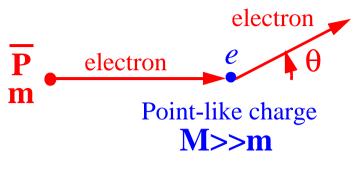
In the parton model, the structure function F₁ depends on the spin of the partons:

$$F_1(x, Q^2) = 0 (spin-0)$$

$$2xF_1(x, Q^2) = F_2(x, Q^2)$$
 (spin-1/2)

The data favours the second relation (called the Callan-Gross relation) i.e. quarks have spin 1/2.

ELASTIC SCATTERING



Static spherical charge distribution electron electron
$$e \rho(\overline{r})$$
 θ \overline{P}_2

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{M} = \frac{\alpha^{2}}{4p^{4}\sin^{4}(\frac{\theta}{2})} \left(m^{2} + p^{2}\cos^{2}\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

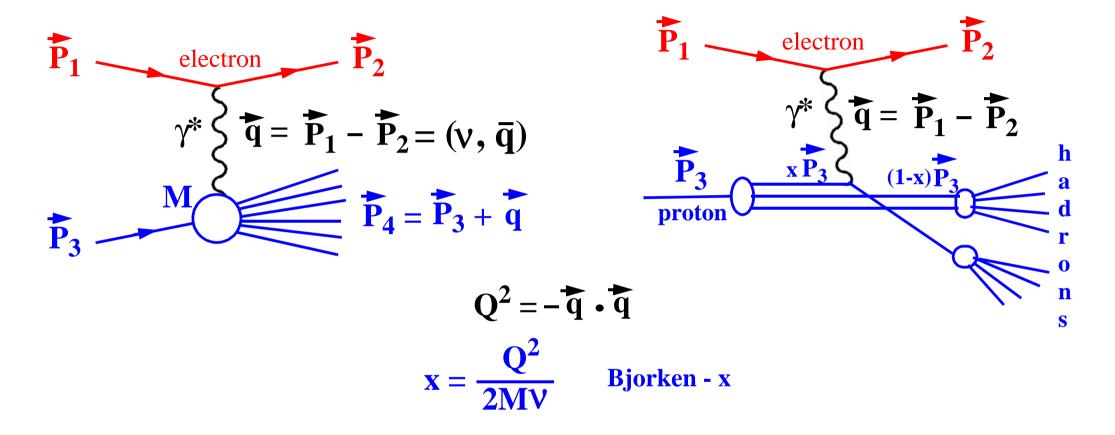
$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{R} G_{E}^{2}(q^{2})$$

$$P_1$$
 electron P_2 electron P_3 electron P_4

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{\mathbf{M}}^{\mathbf{X}} \left(\mathbf{G}_{1}(\mathbf{Q}^{2})\cos^{2}\frac{\theta}{2} + \frac{\mathbf{Q}^{2}}{2\mathbf{M}^{2}}\mathbf{G}_{2}(\mathbf{Q}^{2})\sin^{2}\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

$$G_{1}(Q^{2}) = \frac{G_{E}^{2} + \frac{Q^{2}}{4M^{2}}G_{M}^{2}}{1 + \frac{Q^{2}}{4M^{2}}} \qquad G_{2}(Q^{2}) = G_{M}^{2}$$

INELASTIC SCATTERING



$$\frac{d\sigma}{dE_2d\Omega} = \frac{\alpha^2}{4E_1^2 sin^4 \left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)} \bullet \frac{1}{v} \bullet \left[F_2(x, Q^2) cos^2 \left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) + \frac{Q^2}{xM^2} F_1(x, Q^2) sin^2 \left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) \right]$$

<u>Summary</u>

Quantum Chromodynamics

- a) The gauge bosons in QCD are called gluons and are spin 1 particles.
- b) The charge in QCD is called colour and gluons carry colour charge but not electric charge.
- c) The strong interaction is flavour independent.
- d) Colour confinement means that a particle with a colour charge (such as a gluon or a quark) cannot exist as a free particle.

The strong coupling constant.

- e) The strong coupling constant α_s gives the strength of the strong interaction.
- f) α_s is not a true constant since it depends on Q^2 .

Electron-positron interactions.

- g) Quarks are seen as jets of hadrons in electron-positron interactions.
- h) The measured cross section ratio R can only be explained if there are 3 colours.
- i) A measurement of the angular distribution of jets in two-jet events show that the quark is a spin 1/2 particle.
- j) Three-jet events can be used to measure α_s and to show that the gluon is a spin 1 particle.

Elastic electron-proton scattering.

- k) Elastic electron-proton scattering can be used to measure the size of the proton.
- Scattering of electrons on protons depends on an electric and a magnetic form factor.
- m) The measurement of these form factors show that the proton is not a point particle.

Inelastic lepton-proton scattering.

- n) Inelastic scattering of electrons on protons depends on two structure functions F_1 and F_2 .
- o) Scale invariance means that these structure functions are almost independent on Q^2 . The scale invariance of F_2 is evidence for the existence of quarks in the proton.
- Deep inelastic electron-proton scattering.
 - p) The measurement of F_1 show that the quarks have to be spin 1/2 particles.