

Fonctions de distribution par tonique

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Proton, we're told, is made of *2 up quarks, 1 down quark*.

The picture seems consistent: up-charge = $+\frac{2}{3}$; down charge = $-\frac{1}{3}$

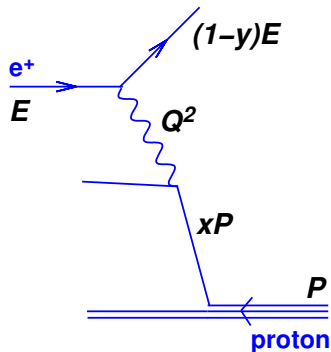
$$2 \times \frac{2}{3} - 1 \times \frac{1}{3} = +1$$

But is this *right*?

Formalism discussed by Prof. Veneziano allows us to look inside the proton and *find out for sure*.

We will be discussing Deep Inelastic Scattering (DIS) for 3/4 of seminar.

Recall what the process is and the main kinematic variables:



- ▶ x = momentum fraction of struck parton in proton
- ▶ Q^2 = photon virtuality \leftrightarrow transverse resolution at which it probes proton structure
- ▶ y = momentum fraction lost by photon (in proton rest frame)

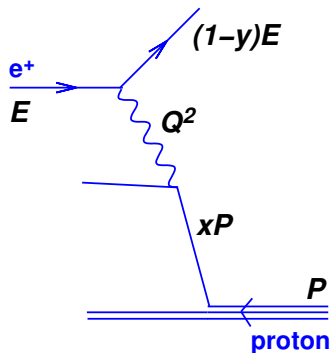
Kinematic relation:

$$Q^2 = xys$$

$$\sqrt{s} = \text{c.o.m. energy}$$

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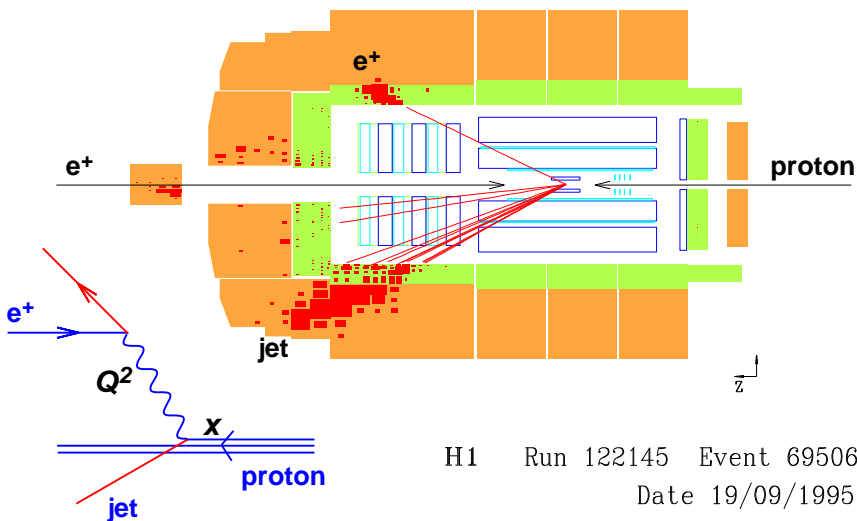
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Deep Inelastic scattering (DIS): example



$$Q^2 = 25030 \text{ GeV}^2; \quad y = 0.56; \quad \mathbf{x=0.50}$$



$$\frac{d^2\sigma^{em}}{dx dQ^2} \simeq \frac{4\pi\alpha^2}{xQ^4} \left(\frac{1 + (1-y)^2}{2} F_2^{em} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s) \right)$$

$\propto F_2^{em}$ [structure function]

$$F_2 = x(e_u^2 u(x) + e_d^2 d(x)) = x \left(\frac{4}{9} u(x) + \frac{1}{9} d(x) \right)$$

$[u(x), d(x):$ parton distribution functions (PDF)]

NB:

- ▶ use perturbative language for interactions of up and down quarks
- ▶ but distributions themselves have a *non-perturbative* origin.

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F_2 gives us *combination* of u and d .
How can we extract them separately?

Assumption ($SU(2)$ isospin): neutron is just proton with $u \leftrightarrow d$:
 proton = uud; neutron = ddu $[-2 \times \frac{1}{3} + 2 \times \frac{1}{3} = 0]$

Isospin: $u_n(x) = d_p(x), \quad d_n(x) = u_p(x)$

$$F_2^p = \frac{4}{9}u_p(x) + \frac{1}{9}d_p(x)$$

$$F_2^n = \frac{4}{9}u_n(x) + \frac{1}{9}d_n(x) = \frac{4}{9}d_p(x) + \frac{1}{9}u_p(x)$$

Linear combinations of F_2^p and F_2^n give separately $u_p(x)$ and $d_p(x)$.

Experimentally, get F_2^n from deuterons: $F_2^d = \frac{1}{2}(F_2^p + F_2^n)$

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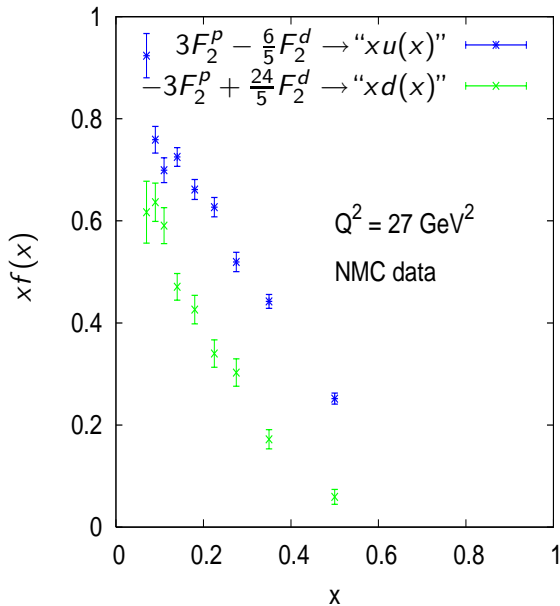
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Combine F_2^P & F_2^d data,
deduce $u(x)$, $d(x)$:

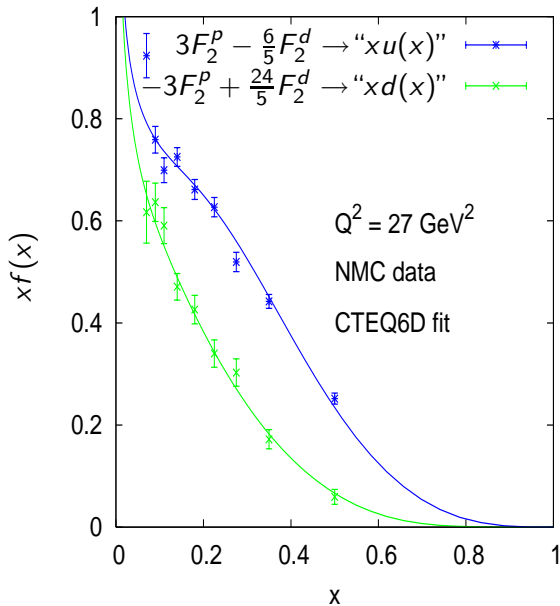
- ▶ Definitely more up than down (✓)

How much u and d ?

- ▶ Total $U = \int dx u(x)$
- ▶ $F_2 = x(\frac{4}{9}u + \frac{1}{9}d)$
- ▶ $u(x) \sim d(x) \sim x^{-1.25}$

non-integrable
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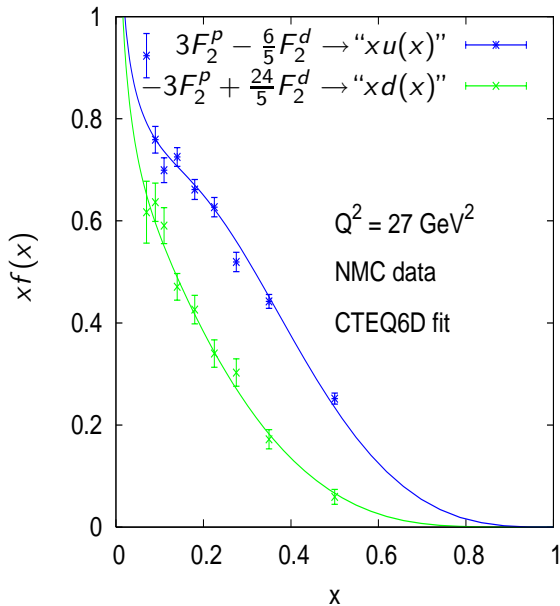
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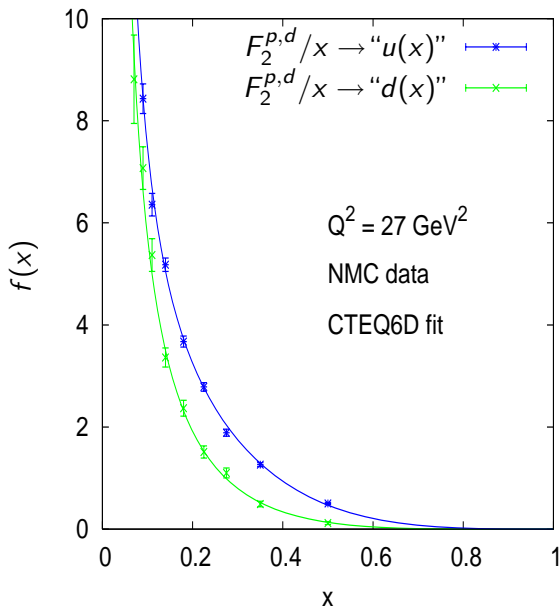
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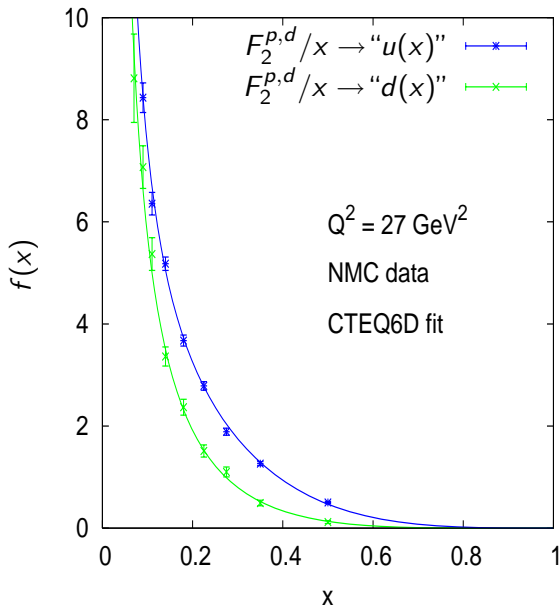
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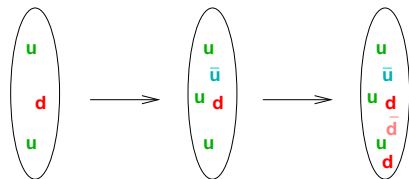
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Anti-quarks in proton



How can there be infinite number of quarks in proton?

Proton wavefunction *fluctuates* — extra $u\bar{u}$, $d\bar{d}$ pairs (*sea quarks*) can appear:

Antiquarks also have distributions, $\bar{u}(x)$, $\bar{d}(x)$

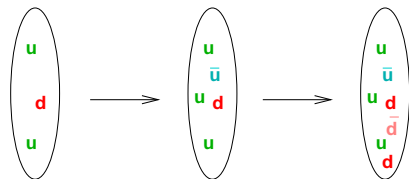
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NB: photon interaction \sim square of charge \rightarrow +ve

- ▶ Previous transparency: we were actually looking at $\sim u + \bar{u}$, $d + \bar{d}$
- ▶ Number of extra quark-antiquark pairs can be *infinite*, so

$$\int dx (u(x) + \bar{u}(x)) = \infty$$

as long as they carry little momentum (mostly at low x)



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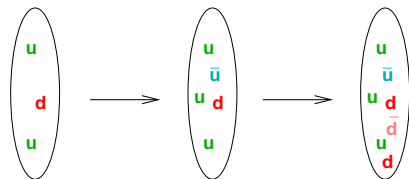
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When we say proton has 2 up quarks & 1 down quark we mean

$$\int dx (u(x) - \bar{u}(x)) = 2, \quad \int dx (d(x) - \bar{d}(x)) = 1$$

$u - \bar{u} = u_V$ is known as a *valence* distribution.

How do we measure *difference* between u and \bar{u} ? Photon interacts identically with both \rightarrow no good...

Question: what interacts differently with particle & antiparticle?

Answer: W^+ or W^-

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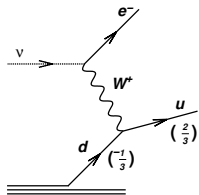
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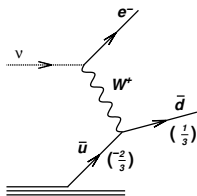
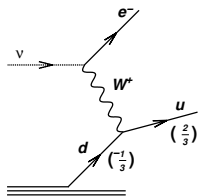
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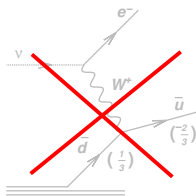
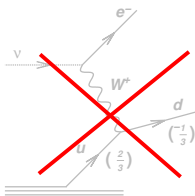
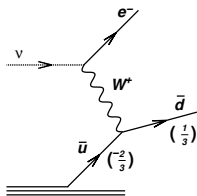
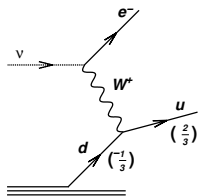
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Charged-current interactions

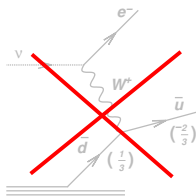
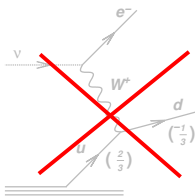
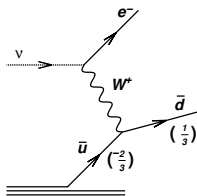
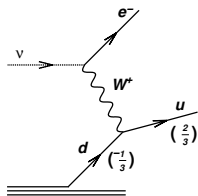




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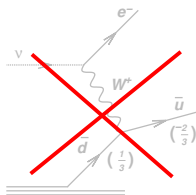
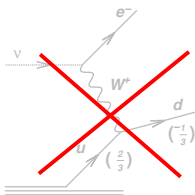
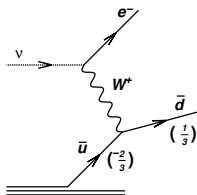
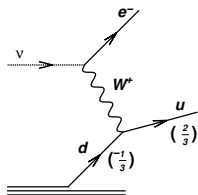
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Combination of νp and $\bar{\nu} p$ scattering in principle provides all necessary information for getting separately u , d , \bar{u} and \bar{d} .

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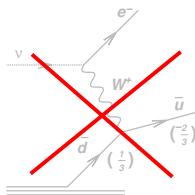
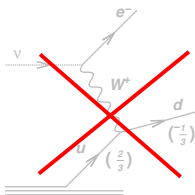
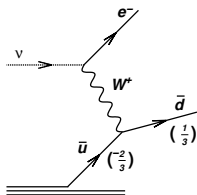
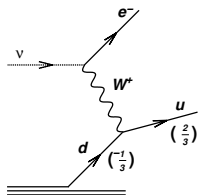
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Look at collisions on *nuclei* (e.g. Fe) to increase cross section, and use *isospin symmetry* ($d_n = u_p$) to relate $F_3^{W^+p}$, $F_3^{W^+n}$

$$\begin{aligned} F_3^{W^+N} &= \frac{1}{2}(F_3^{W^+p} + F_3^{W^+n}) = d_p(x) - \bar{u}_p(x) + d_n(x) - \bar{u}_n(x) \\ &= d_p(x) - \bar{u}_p(x) + u_p(x) - \bar{d}_p(x) \end{aligned}$$

E.g.: use this to check total number of *valence quarks is 3*:

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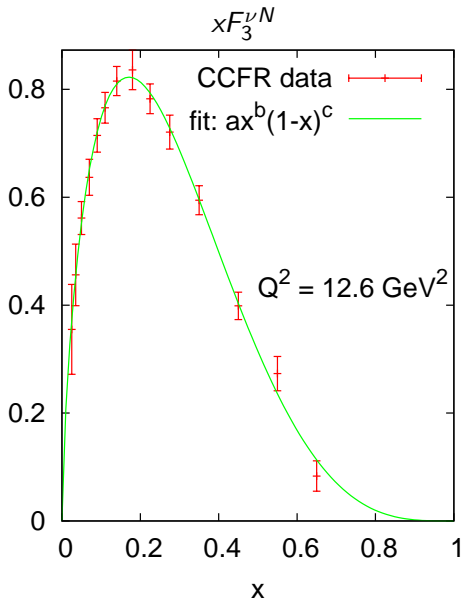
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- ▶ $xF_3^{\nu N} \simeq x(u_V + d_V)$ vanishes for $x \rightarrow 0$

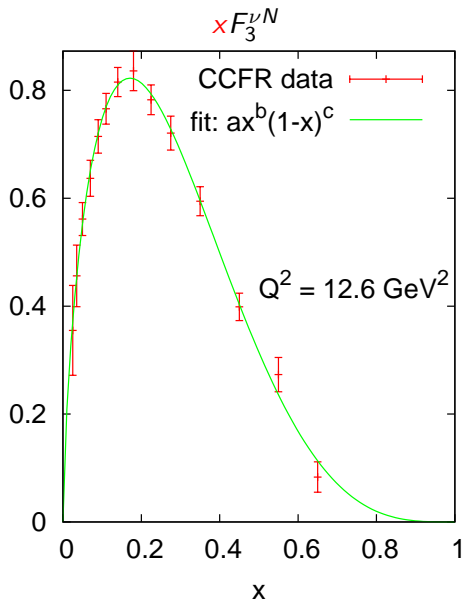
Regge theory: $xu_V, xd_V \sim x^{0.5}$

- ▶ $F_3^{\nu N} \simeq u_V + d_V$ should be *integrable*

$$\Rightarrow \int dx F_3^{\nu N} = 2.50 \pm 0.08$$

CCFR, $Q^2 = 3 \text{ GeV}^2$

We expected 3 (*uud*)...



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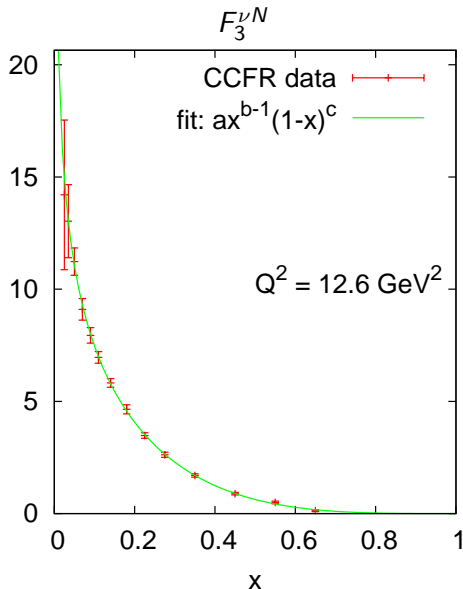
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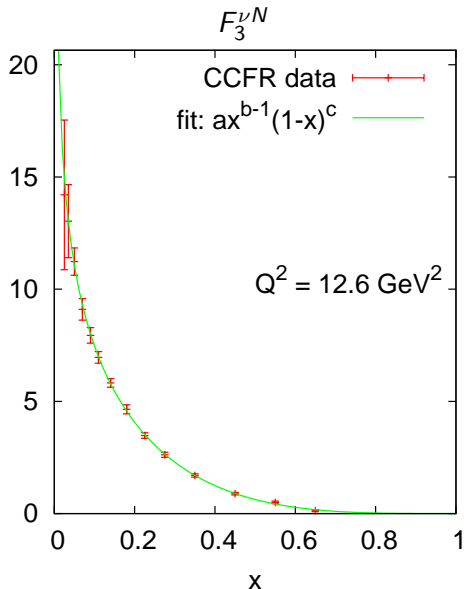
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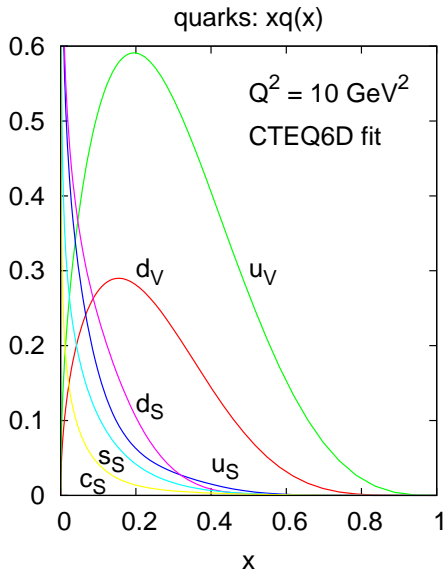
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These & other methods → whole set of quarks & antiquarks

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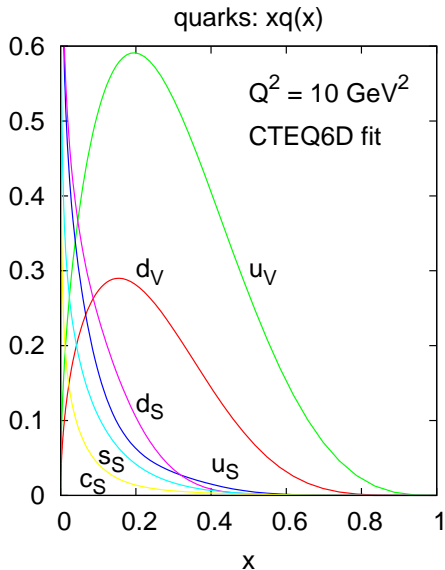
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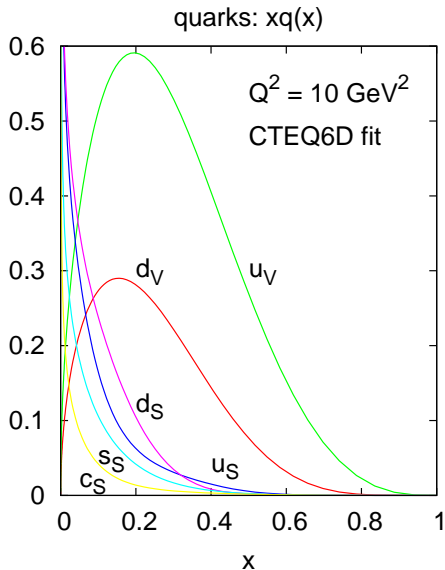
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u_S	0.053
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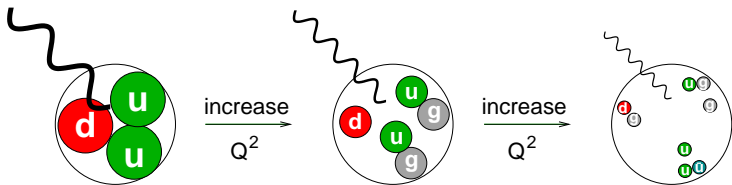
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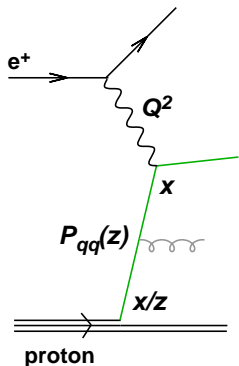
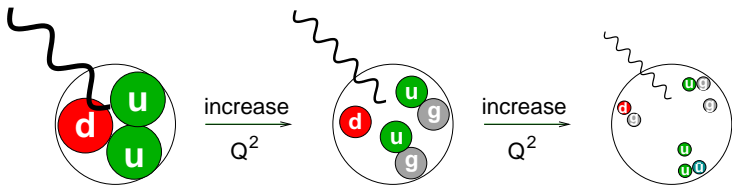
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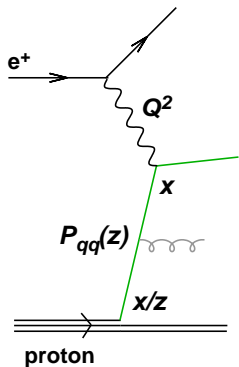
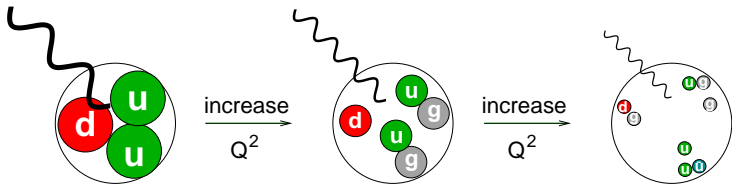
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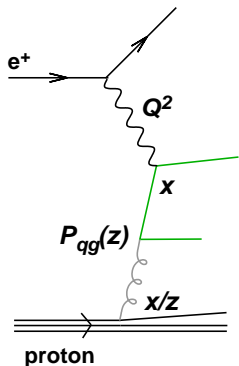
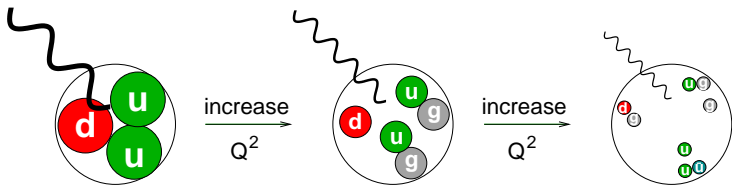
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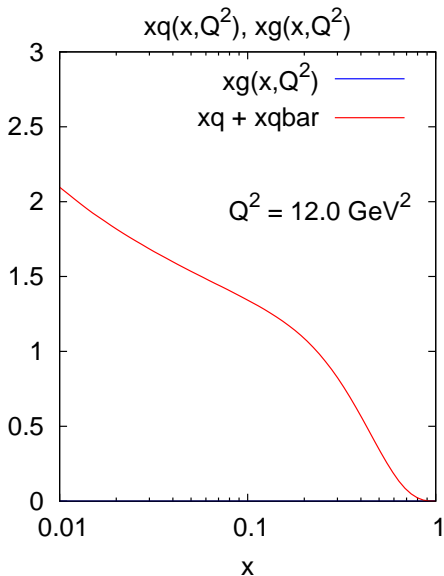
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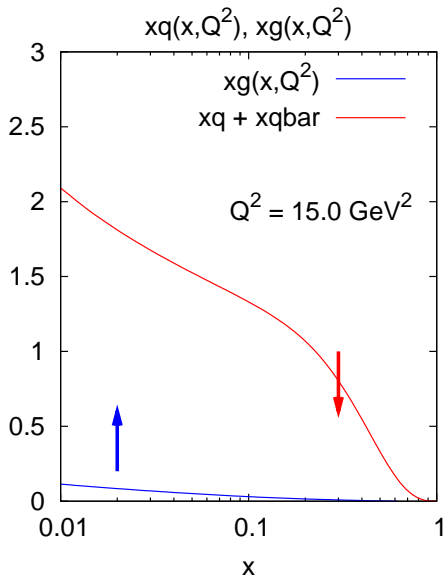
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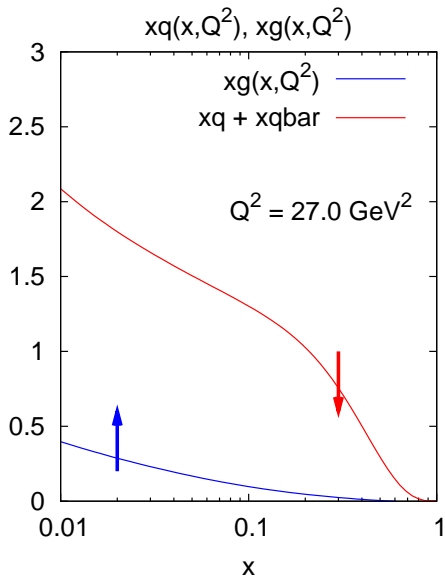
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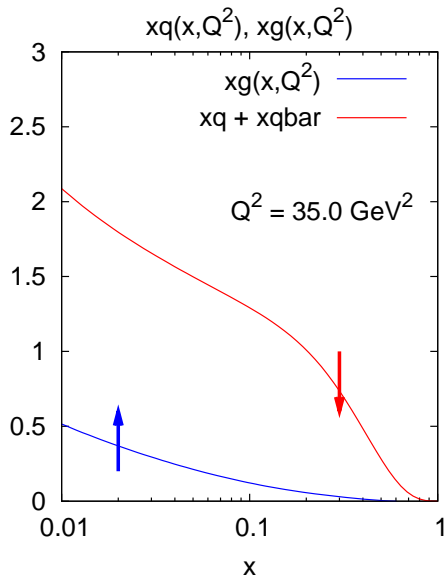
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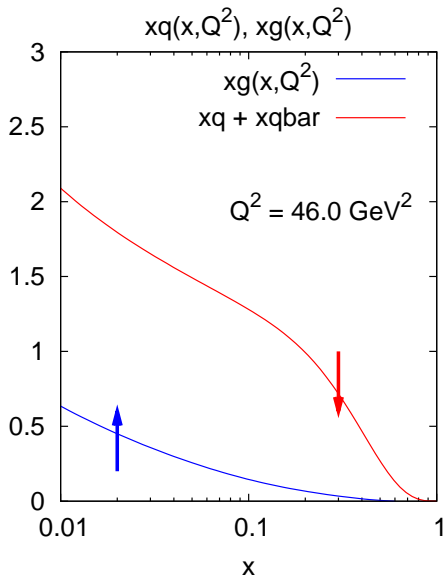
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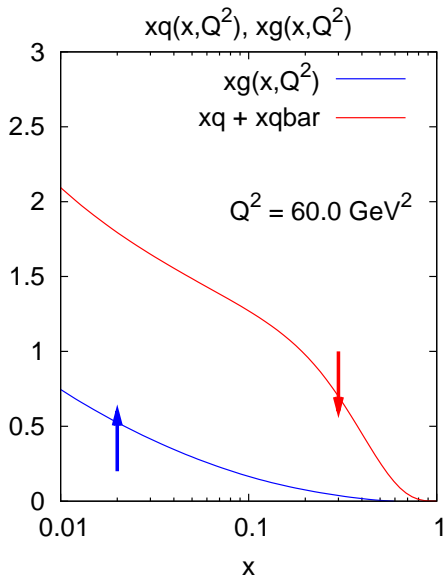
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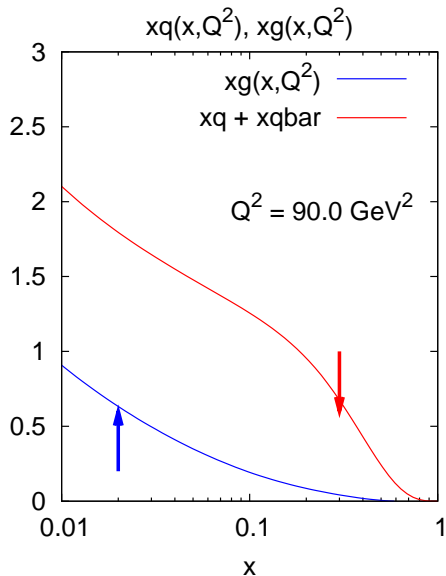
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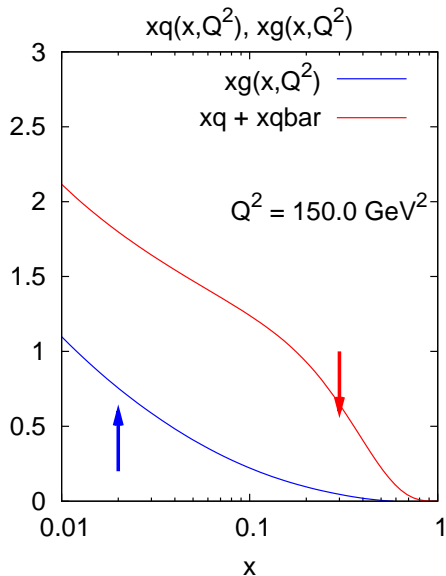
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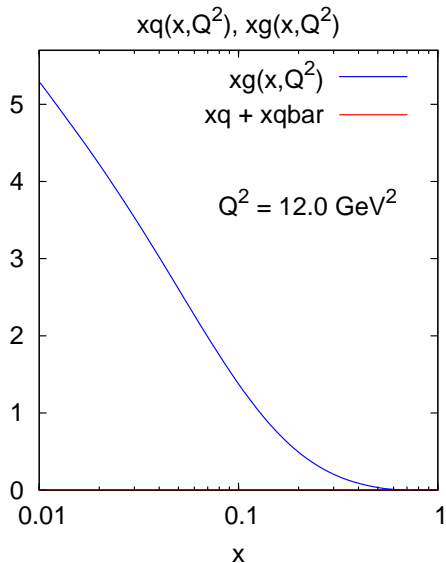
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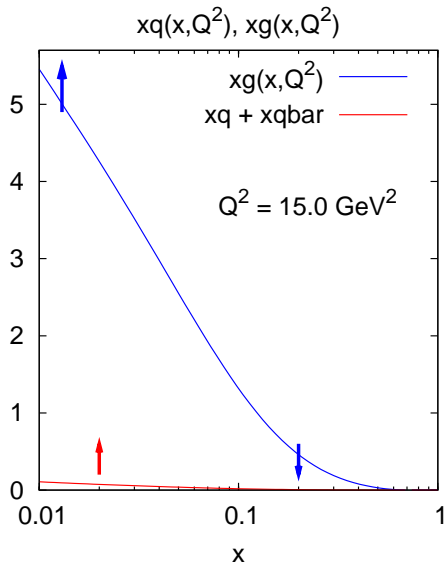
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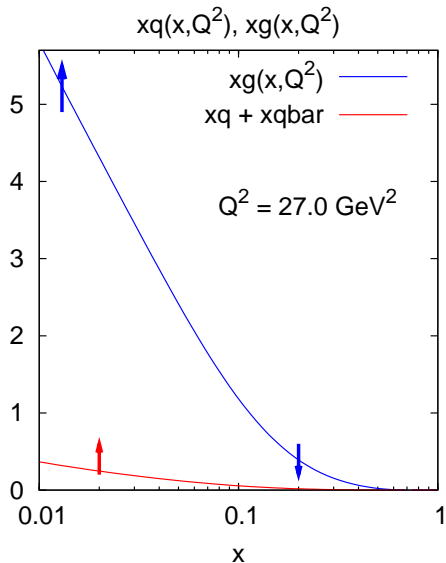
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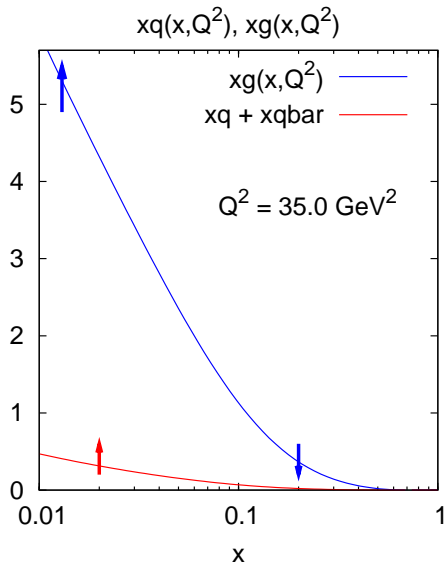
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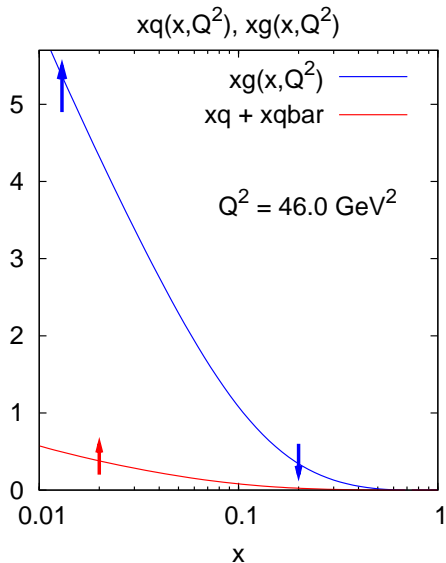
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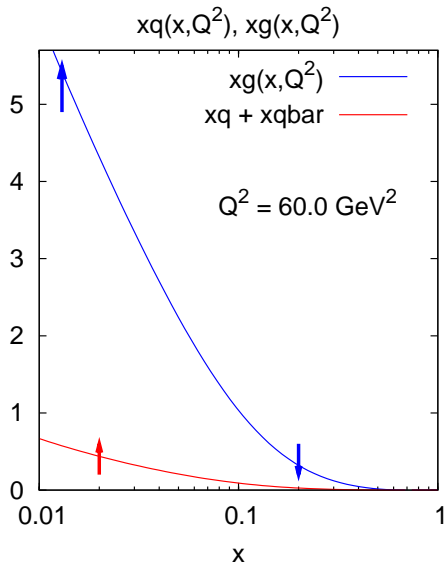
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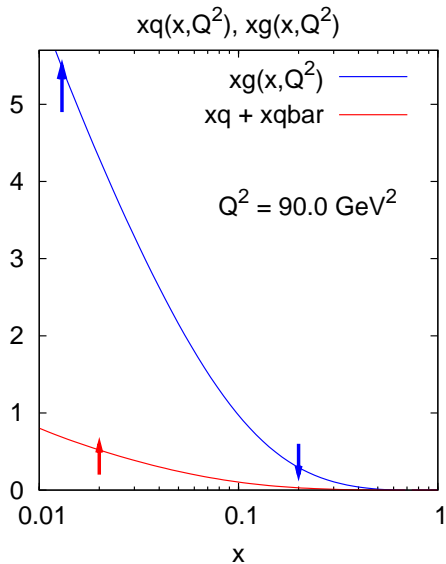
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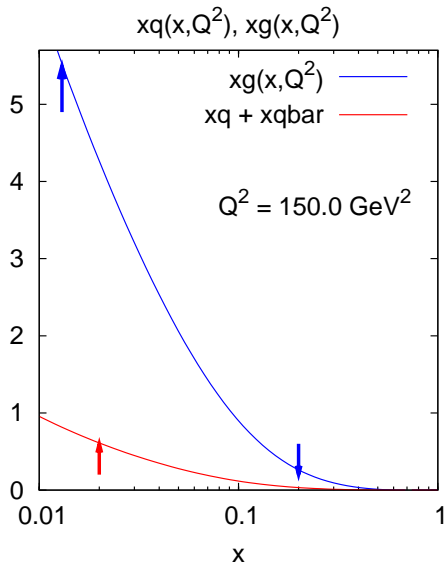
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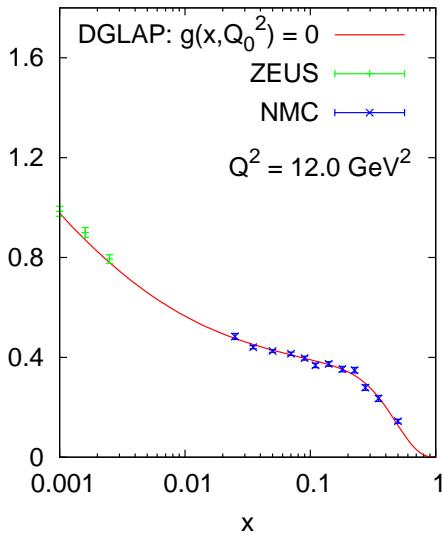
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- ▶ As Q^2 increases, partons lose longitudinal momentum; distributions all shift to lower x .
- ▶ gluons can be seen because they help drive the quark evolution.

Now consider data

$$F_2^p(x, Q^2)$$



Fit quark distributions to $F_2(x, Q_0^2)$,
 at *initial scale* $Q_0^2 = 12 \text{ GeV}^2$.

NB: Q_0 often chosen lower

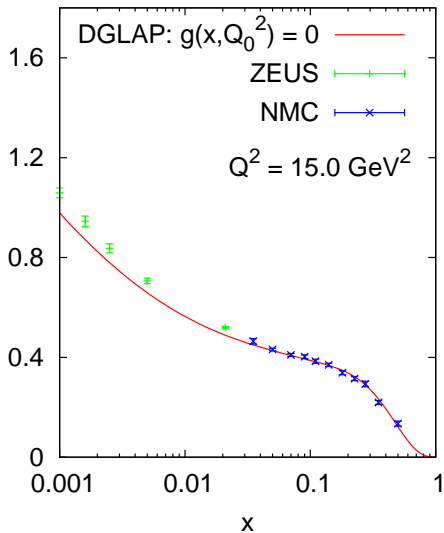
Assume there is no gluon at Q_0^2 :

$$g(x, Q_0^2) = 0$$

Use DGLAP equations to evolve to
 higher Q^2 ; compare with data.

Complete failure!

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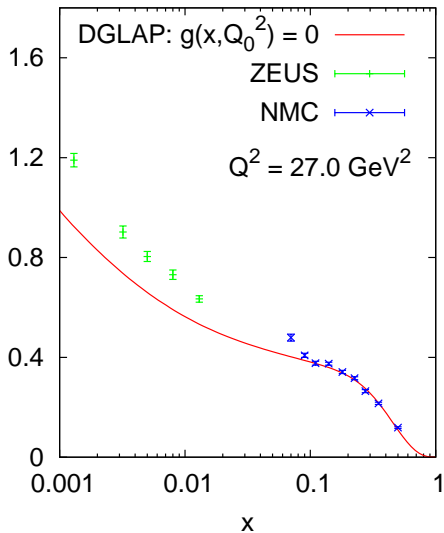
Assume there is no gluon at Q_0^2 :

$$g(x, Q_0^2) = 0$$

Use DGLAP equations to evolve to
 higher Q^2 ; compare with data.

Complete failure!

$$F_2^p(x, Q^2)$$



Fit quark distributions to $F_2(x, Q_0^2)$,
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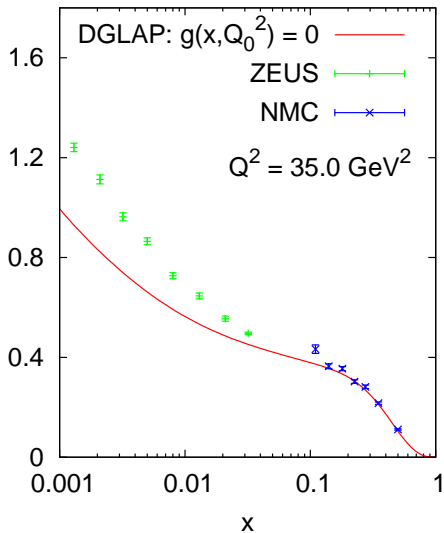
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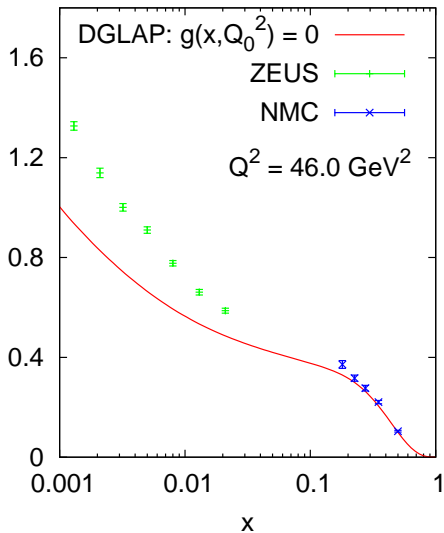
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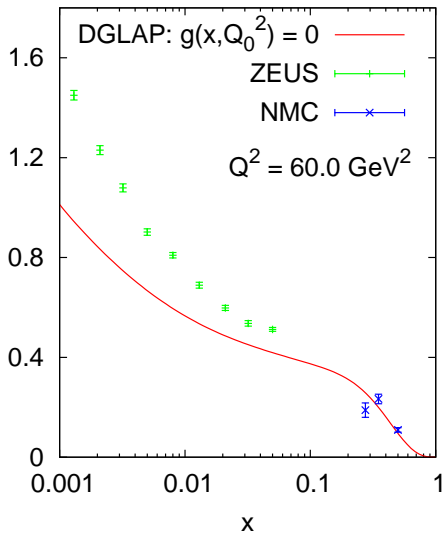
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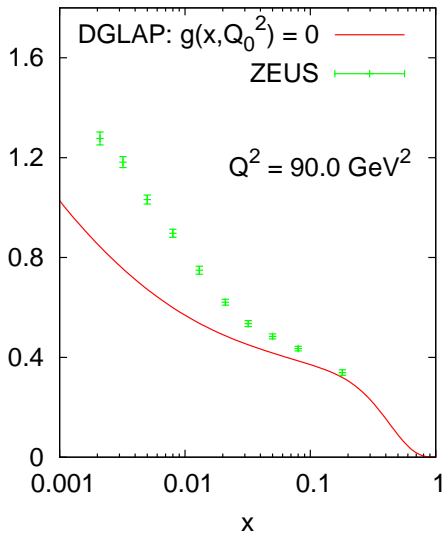
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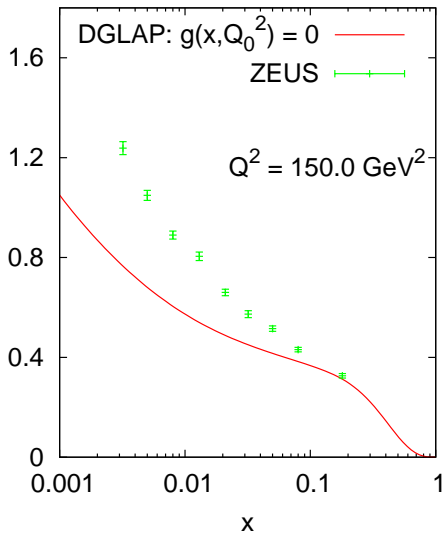
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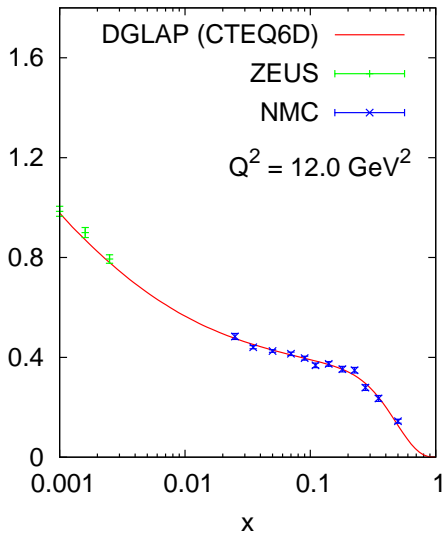
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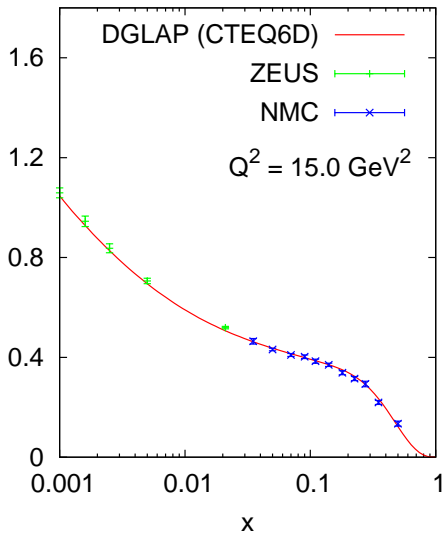
↳ faster rise of F_2

Find a gluon distribution that leads to correct evolution in Q^2 .

Done for us by CTEQ, MRST, ...
PDF fitting collaborations.

Success!

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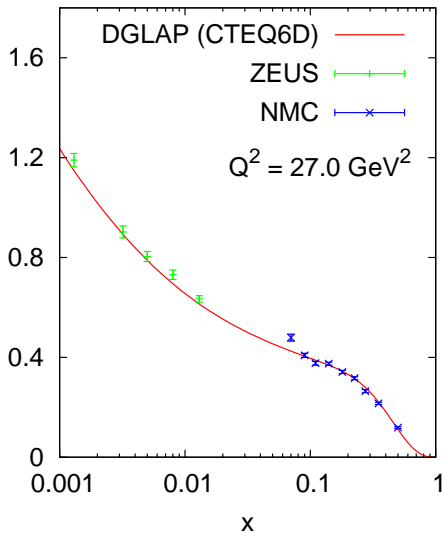
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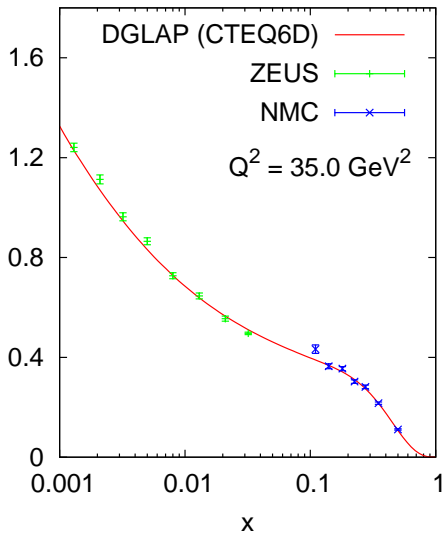
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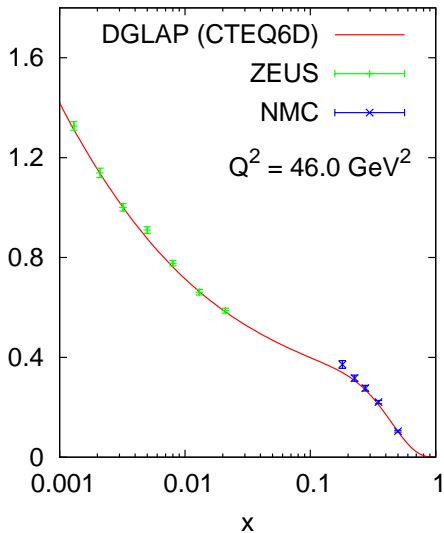
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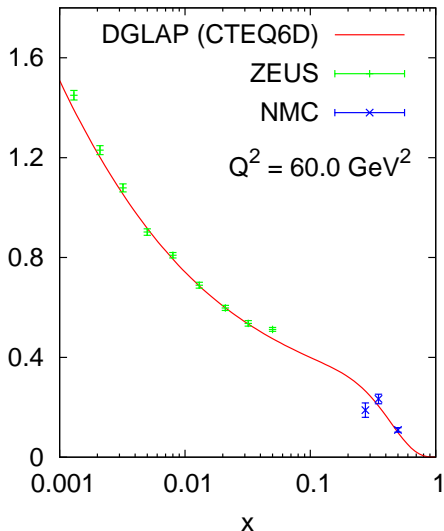
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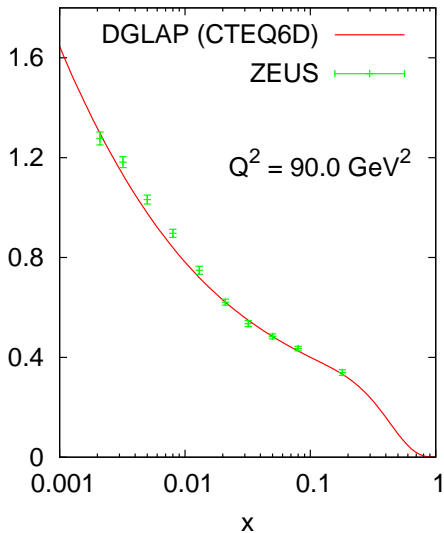
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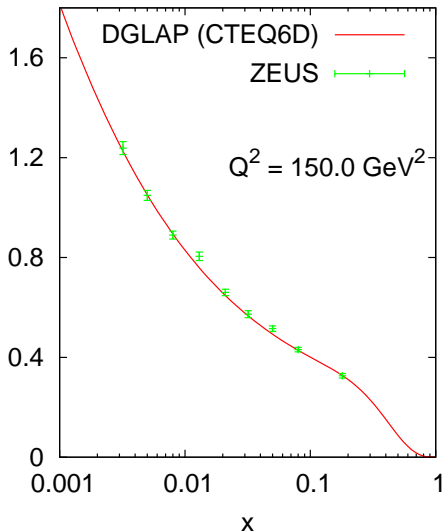
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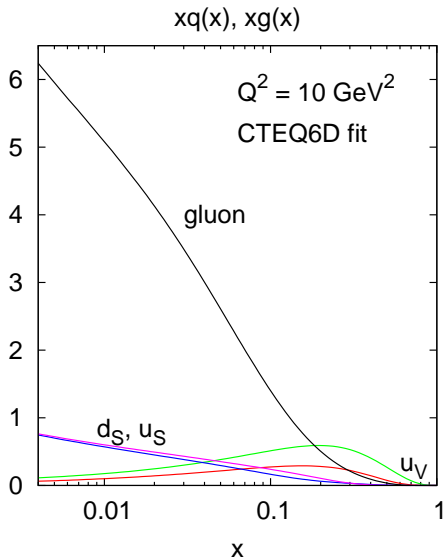
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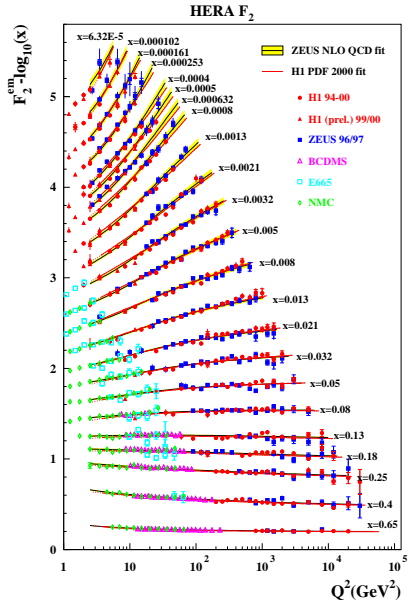
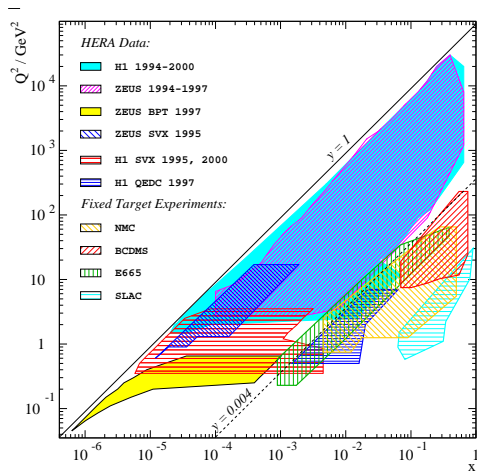
Success!

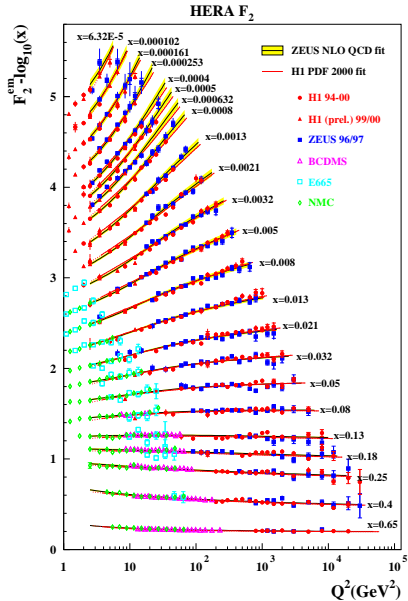
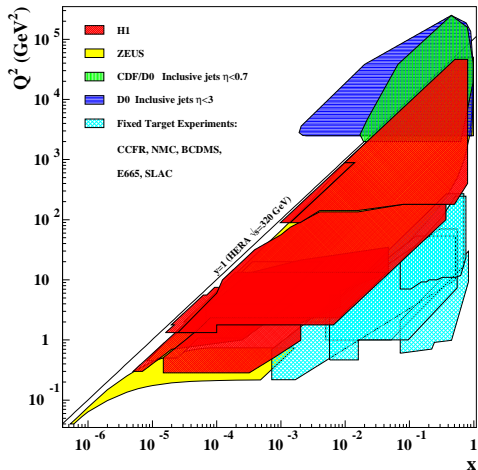


Gluon distribution is **HUGE!**

Can we really trust it?

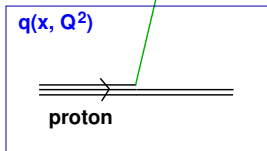
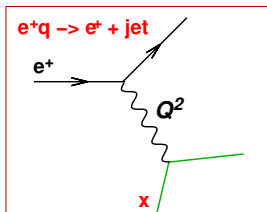
- ▶ Consistency: momentum sum-rule is now *satisfied*.
 NB: gluon mostly at small x
- ▶ Agrees with vast range of data



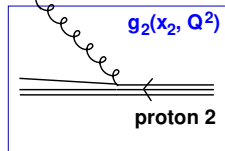
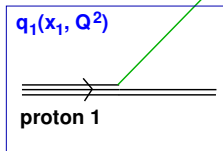
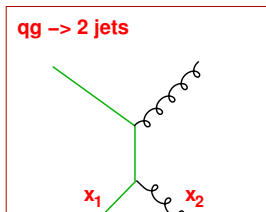


Factorization of QCD cross-sections into convolution of:

- ▶ hard (perturbative) process-dependent **partonic subprocess**
- ▶ non-perturbative, process-independent **parton distribution functions**



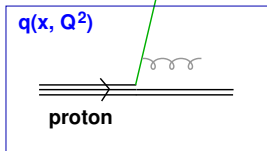
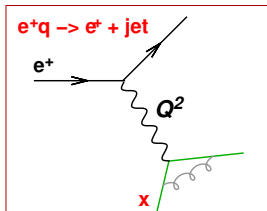
$$\sigma_{ep} = \sigma_{eq} \otimes q$$



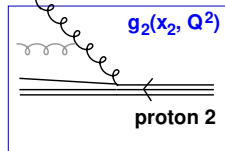
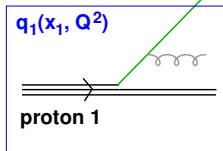
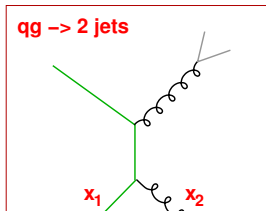
$$\sigma_{pp \rightarrow 2 \text{ jets}} = \sigma_{qg \rightarrow 2 \text{ jets}} \otimes q_1 \otimes g_2 + \dots$$

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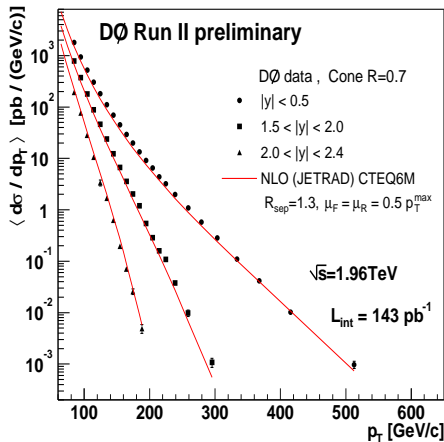
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Jet production in proton-antiproton collisions is *good test of large gluon distribution*, since there are large direct contributions from

$$gg \rightarrow gg, \quad qg \rightarrow qg$$

NB: more complicated to interpret than DIS, since many channels, and x_1, x_2 dependence.

$$p_T \sim \sqrt{x_1 x_2 s} \text{ jet transverse mom.}$$

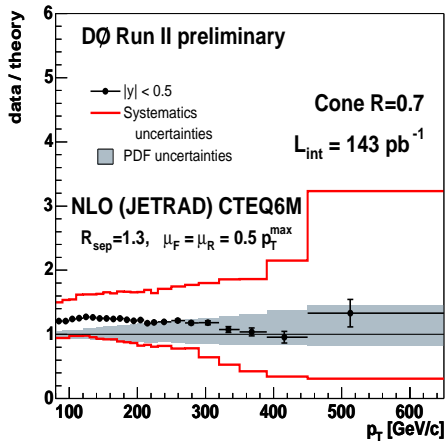
$$\sim Q$$

$$y \sim \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{x_1}{x_2}$$

$$y = \log \tan \frac{\theta}{2}$$

jet angle wrt $p\bar{p}$ beams

Good agreement confirms factorization



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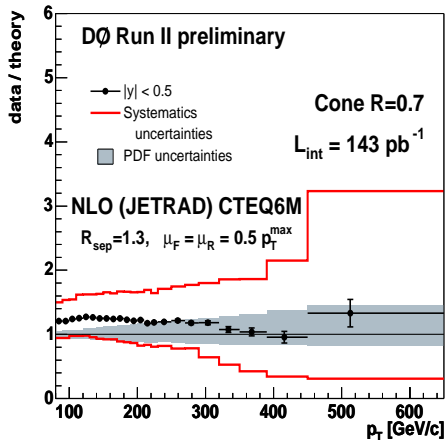
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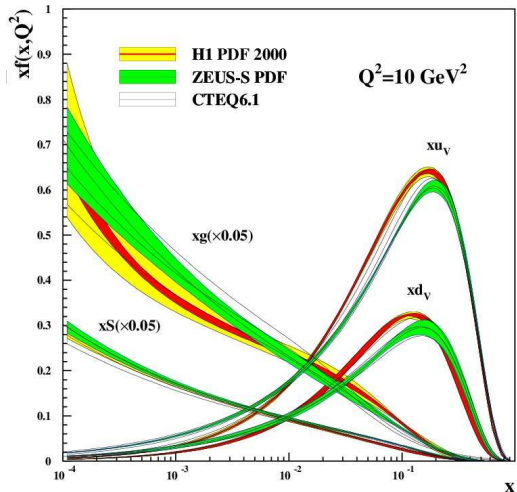
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Major recent activity is translation of experimental errors (and theory uncertainties) into *uncertainty bands on extracted PDFs*.

PDFs with uncertainties allow one to estimate *degree of reliability* of future predictions

Earlier, we saw leading order (LO) DGLAP splitting functions, $P_{ab} = \frac{\alpha_s}{2\pi} P_{ab}^{(0)}$.

$$P_{qq}^{(0)}(x) = C_F \left[\frac{1+x^2}{(1-x)_+} + \frac{3}{2} \delta(1-x) \right],$$

$$P_{qg}^{(0)}(x) = T_R [x^2 + (1-x)^2],$$

$$P_{gq}^{(0)}(x) = C_F \left[\frac{1+(1-x)^2}{x} \right],$$

$$P_{gg}^{(0)}(x) = 2C_A \left[\frac{x}{(1-x)_+} + \frac{1-x}{x} + x(1-x) \right] \\ + \delta(1-x) \frac{(11C_A - 4n_f T_R)}{6}.$$

NLO:

$$P_{ps}^{(1)}(x) = 4 C_F \eta \left(\frac{20}{9} \frac{1}{x} - 2 + 6x - 4H_0 + x^2 \left[\frac{8}{3} H_0 - \frac{56}{9} \right] + (1+x) \left[5H_0 - 2H_{0,0} \right] \right)$$

$$P_{qg}^{(1)}(x) = 4 C_A \eta \left(\frac{20}{9} \frac{1}{x} - 2 + 25x - 2\rho_{qg}(-x)H_{-1,0} - 2\rho_{qg}(x)H_{1,1} + x^2 \left[\frac{44}{3} H_0 - \frac{218}{9} \right] \right. \\ \left. + 4(1-x) \left[H_{0,0} - 2H_0 + xH_1 \right] - 4\zeta_2 x - 6H_{0,0} + 9H_0 \right) + 4 C_F \eta \left(2\rho_{qg}(x) \left[H_{1,0} + H_{1,1} + H_2 \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. - \zeta_2 \right] + 4x^2 \left[H_0 + H_{0,0} + \frac{5}{2} \right] + 2(1-x) \left[H_0 + H_{0,0} - 2xH_1 + \frac{29}{4} \right] - \frac{15}{2} - H_{0,0} - \frac{1}{2} H_0 \right)$$

$$P_{gq}^{(1)}(x) = 4 C_A C_F \left(\frac{1}{x} + 2\rho_{gq}(x) \left[H_{1,0} + H_{1,1} + H_2 - \frac{11}{6} H_1 \right] - x^2 \left[\frac{8}{3} H_0 - \frac{44}{9} \right] + 4\zeta_2 - 2 \right. \\ \left. - 7H_0 + 2H_{0,0} - 2H_1 x + (1+x) \left[2H_{0,0} - 5H_0 + \frac{37}{9} \right] - 2\rho_{gq}(-x)H_{-1,0} \right) - 4 C_F \eta \left(\frac{2}{3} x \right. \\ \left. - \rho_{gq}(x) \left[\frac{2}{3} H_1 - \frac{10}{9} \right] \right) + 4 C_F^2 \left(\rho_{gq}(x) \left[3H_1 - 2H_{1,1} \right] + (1+x) \left[H_{0,0} - \frac{7}{2} + \frac{7}{2} H_0 \right] - 3H_{0,0} \right. \\ \left. + 1 - \frac{3}{2} H_0 + 2H_1 x \right)$$

$$P_{gg}^{(1)}(x) = 4 C_A \eta \left(1 - x - \frac{10}{9} \rho_{gg}(x) - \frac{13}{9} \left(\frac{1}{x} - x^2 \right) - \frac{2}{3} (1+x)H_0 - \frac{2}{3} \delta(1-x) \right) + 4 C_A^2 \left(27 \right. \\ \left. + (1+x) \left[\frac{11}{3} H_0 + 8H_{0,0} - \frac{27}{2} \right] + 2\rho_{gg}(-x) \left[H_{0,0} - 2H_{-1,0} - \zeta_2 \right] - \frac{67}{9} \left(\frac{1}{x} - x^2 \right) - 12H_0 \right. \\ \left. - \frac{44}{3} x^2 H_0 + 2\rho_{gg}(x) \left[\frac{67}{18} - \zeta_2 + H_{0,0} + 2H_{1,0} + 2H_2 \right] + \delta(1-x) \left[\frac{8}{3} + 3\zeta_3 \right] \right) + 4 C_F \eta \left(2H_0 \right. \\ \left. + \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{x} + \frac{10}{3} x^2 - 12 + (1+x) \left[4 - 5H_0 - 2H_{0,0} \right] - \frac{1}{2} \delta(1-x) \right) .$$

$$P_{ab} = \frac{\alpha_s}{2\pi} P^{(0)} + \frac{\alpha_s^2}{16\pi^2} P^{(1)}$$

Curci, Furmanski
& Petronzio '80

Diagram 1: 1-loop calculation of the parton distribution function Σ_1 in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme. The diagram shows a quark line with a gluon loop. The parton distribution function is defined as $\Sigma_1 = \int_0^1 dx \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln \frac{1-x}{x} \right) \right]$. The calculation involves the evaluation of the loop integral and the subtraction of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ counterterm. The result is $\Sigma_1 = \frac{\alpha_s}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln \frac{1-x}{x} \right]$.

Diagram 2: 2-loop calculation of the parton distribution function Σ_2 in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme. The diagram shows a quark line with two gluon loops. The parton distribution function is defined as $\Sigma_2 = \int_0^1 dx \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) \right]$. The calculation involves the evaluation of the two-loop integrals and the subtraction of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ counterterm. The result is $\Sigma_2 = \frac{\alpha_s^2}{4\pi^2} \left[\frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} \right]$.

Diagram 3: 3-loop calculation of the parton distribution function Σ_3 in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme. The diagram shows a quark line with three gluon loops. The parton distribution function is defined as $\Sigma_3 = \int_0^1 dx \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) \right]$. The calculation involves the evaluation of the three-loop integrals and the subtraction of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ counterterm. The result is $\Sigma_3 = \frac{\alpha_s^3}{16\pi^3} \left[\frac{1}{\epsilon^3} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} \right]$.

Diagram 4: 4-loop calculation of the parton distribution function Σ_4 in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme. The diagram shows a quark line with four gluon loops. The parton distribution function is defined as $\Sigma_4 = \int_0^1 dx \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) \right]$. The calculation involves the evaluation of the four-loop integrals and the subtraction of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ counterterm. The result is $\Sigma_4 = \frac{\alpha_s^4}{64\pi^4} \left[\frac{1}{\epsilon^4} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon^3} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right]$.

Diagram 5: 1-loop calculation of the parton distribution function Σ_1 in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme. The diagram shows a quark line with a gluon loop. The parton distribution function is defined as $\Sigma_1 = \int_0^1 dx \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln \frac{1-x}{x} \right) \right]$. The calculation involves the evaluation of the loop integral and the subtraction of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ counterterm. The result is $\Sigma_1 = \frac{\alpha_s}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln \frac{1-x}{x} \right]$.

Diagram 6: 2-loop calculation of the parton distribution function Σ_2 in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme. The diagram shows a quark line with two gluon loops. The parton distribution function is defined as $\Sigma_2 = \int_0^1 dx \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) \right]$. The calculation involves the evaluation of the two-loop integrals and the subtraction of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ counterterm. The result is $\Sigma_2 = \frac{\alpha_s^2}{4\pi^2} \left[\frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^2 \frac{1-x}{x} \right]$.

Diagram 7: 3-loop calculation of the parton distribution function Σ_3 in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme. The diagram shows a quark line with three gluon loops. The parton distribution function is defined as $\Sigma_3 = \int_0^1 dx \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) \right]$. The calculation involves the evaluation of the three-loop integrals and the subtraction of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ counterterm. The result is $\Sigma_3 = \frac{\alpha_s^3}{16\pi^3} \left[\frac{1}{\epsilon^3} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^3 \frac{1-x}{x} \right]$.

Diagram 8: 4-loop calculation of the parton distribution function Σ_4 in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme. The diagram shows a quark line with four gluon loops. The parton distribution function is defined as $\Sigma_4 = \int_0^1 dx \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{x} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) \right]$. The calculation involves the evaluation of the four-loop integrals and the subtraction of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ counterterm. The result is $\Sigma_4 = \frac{\alpha_s^4}{64\pi^4} \left[\frac{1}{\epsilon^4} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon^3} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left(\frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln^5 \frac{1-x}{x} + \ln^4 \frac{1-x}{x} \right]$.

NNLO, $P_{ab}^{(2)}$: Moch, Vermaseren & Vogt '04

- ▶ Experiments tell us that proton really is what we expected (*uud*)
- ▶ Plus lots more: large number of 'sea quarks' ($q\bar{q}$), gluons (50% of momentum)
- ▶ We see *factorization*: parton distributions extracted in electron-proton collisions can be used to *predict* characteristics of proton-(anti)proton collisions
 - ▶ jet cross sections
 - ▶ top-quark cross section
 - ▶ Drell-Yan cross section
 - ▶ ...
- ▶ *Precision* of data & QCD calculations steadily increasing.
- ▶ Crucial for understanding future signals of *new particles*, e.g. Higgs Boson production at LHC pp collider (CERN, 2007-8)