

Parton Showers

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1 Introduction

We will investigate the emission probability of gluons off quarks and gluons and use that to implement a **very** simplified parton shower (only final state, primary branching, leading double-log, only virtuality q^2 and not proper kinematics, ...).

2 Emission probability and the Sudakov form factor

In the leading double-log approximation (soft *and* collinear emission), we have seen in the lecture that the emission probability is given as

$$d\omega_{X \rightarrow X+g} = 2 \frac{\alpha_s}{\pi} C_X \frac{dE}{E} \frac{d\theta}{\theta}, \quad (1)$$

where E denotes the energy of the emitted gluon and θ the angle w.r.t. the parent particle. We denote the emitting particle by “ X ” and C_X is the associated colour factor. For quarks, $C_X = C_F = \frac{4}{3}$ and for gluons $C_X = C_A = 3$.

For any parton shower, we first need to fix the evolution variable w.r.t. which we want to generate emissions. To this end, we choose the virtuality q^2 associated with the emission for which we find

$$d\mathcal{P} = \frac{\alpha_s}{\pi} C_X \frac{dq^2}{q^2} \ln\left(\frac{q^2}{Q_0^2}\right) \xrightarrow{\int dq^2} \frac{\alpha_s C_X}{2\pi} \ln^2\left(\frac{q^2}{Q_0^2}\right) \quad (2)$$

where Q_0 denotes a cutoff below which emissions are considered unresolved. Note that this fixed-order result comes with a serious problem: For one α_s , we get two powers of

a potentially large logarithm (the so-called “double logarithms” that appear frequently in higher-order calculations), a pattern that will continue to higher orders. For some representative values ($\alpha_s \sim 0.1$, $Q_0 \sim \Lambda_{\text{QCD}} \sim 0.2 \text{ GeV}$, $q \sim 100 \text{ GeV}$), we quickly realize that the large logarithm compensates the small value of the coupling, giving rise to a non-converging expansion. In such situations, where we are sensitive to large logarithms, we need to re-arrange the perturbative expansion in such a way to “re-sum” these large logarithms to all orders.

To accomplish this, we define the so-called Sudakov form factor $\Delta(Q^2, q^2)$, which is the probability for *no resolved emissions* to happen between the evolution $Q^2 \rightarrow q^2$. It satisfies a differential equation reminiscent of radiative decay with a simple solution

$$\frac{d\Delta(Q^2, q^2)}{dq^2} = \Delta(Q^2, q^2) \frac{d\mathcal{P}}{dq^2},$$

$$\Delta(Q^2) \equiv \Delta(Q^2, Q_0^2) = \exp\left\{-\frac{\alpha_s C_X}{2\pi} \ln^2\left(\frac{q^2}{Q_0^2}\right)\right\}, \quad (3)$$

which now has the large logarithm in the exponent. This solution therefore accomplishes exactly what we wanted: sum up the problematic logarithms to all orders, and in doing so, tame the otherwise divergent behaviour ($Q_0 \rightarrow 0$). It turns out that we can use the Sudakov form factor to sample successive emissions (it’s a Markovian process), which we discuss in the next section.

3 Implementation

With the Sudakov form factor at hand, we can easily iterate the sampling of emissions using the following steps:

1. set $Q = Q_{\text{start}}$
2. draw a uniform random number r in the range $[0, 1]$
3. if $r < \Delta(Q^2)$, no resolvable emission can be generated ($< Q_0$): Terminate loop.
4. solve $r = \Delta(Q^2)/\Delta(Q_{\text{new}}^2)$ for Q_{new} , which is the new emission scale.
5. “generate” the emission at Q_{new} , set $Q = Q_{\text{new}}$ and go back to step 2.

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
```

```
import math
import random
import sys
```

```
random.seed(42)
alphas = 0.118
```

```
def generate_event(Q2_start: float, Q2_cutoff: float, CX: float):
    sudakov = 1. # initialize Sudakov to the starting scale
```

```

fac = alphas*CX/(2.*math.pi)
Qlist = []
while True:
    r = random.uniform(0.,1.)
    sudakov *= r
    #> sudakov = exp( -[alphas*CX/(2.*pi)] * log^2[Q2/Q2_start] )
    #> determine Q2 from the associated sudakov
    L2 = - math.log(sudakov) / fac
    Q2 = Q2_start * math.exp(-math.sqrt(L2))
    if Q2 < Q2_cutoff:
        break
    Qlist.append( math.sqrt(Q2) )
if len(Qlist) > 1:
    print("#summary2 {} {} {} {}".format(len(Qlist),sum(Qlist),Qlist[0],Qlist))

if __name__ == "__main__":
    if len(sys.argv) < 3:
        raise RuntimeError("I expect at least two arguments: Q_start [g|q]")
    Q_start = float(sys.argv[1]) # the hard scale
    Q_cutoff = 1 # shower cutoff (PS stops -> hand over to hadronization)
    if sys.argv[2] == "q":
        CX = 4./3. # quark
    elif sys.argv[2] == "g":
        CX = 3. # gluon
    else:
        raise RuntimeError("unrecognised parton: {}".format(sys.argv[2]))
    if len(sys.argv) >= 4:
        alphas = float(sys.argv[3])
    if len(sys.argv) >= 5:
        nevents = int(sys.argv[4])
    else:
        nevents = 1000
    for i in range(nevents):
        print("# event {} [{} {} {} {} {}]".format(i,Q_start,sys.argv[2],CX,alphas,nevents))
        generate_event(Q_start**2, Q_cutoff**2, CX)

```

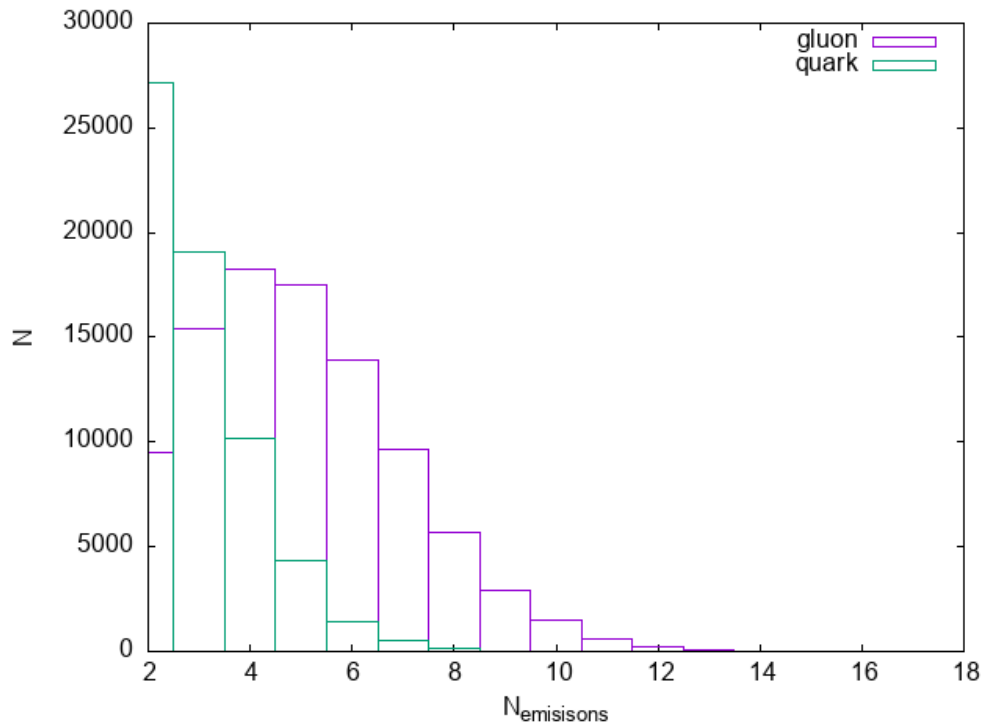
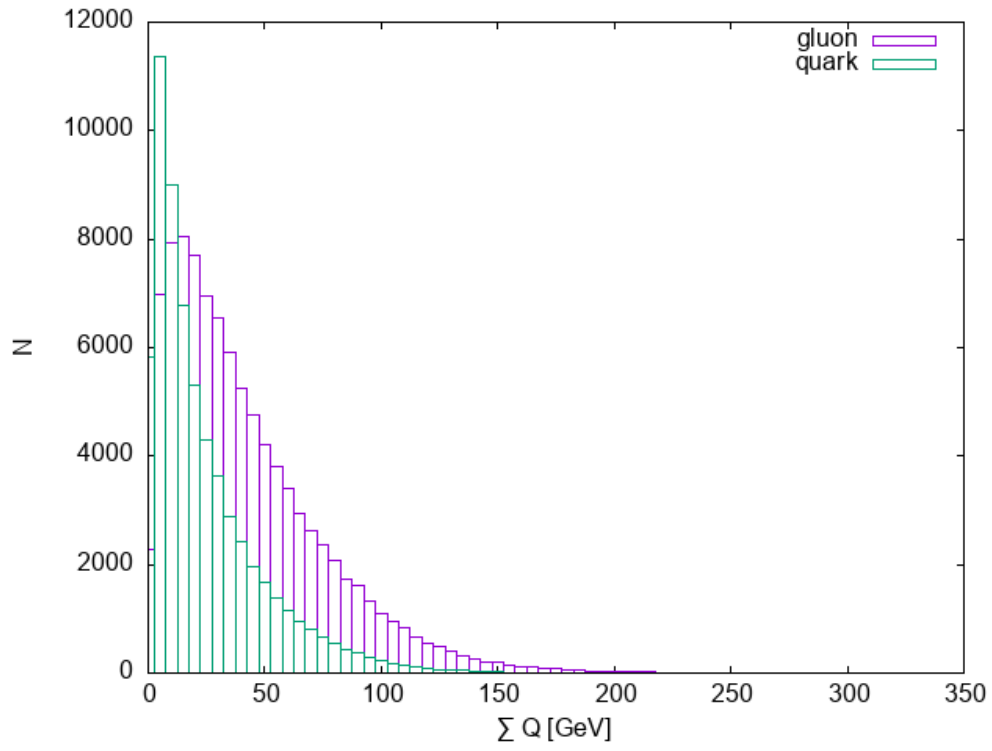
Let's use the implementation to generate some "events"

```

python main.py 100 g 0.118 100000 > data_g.dat
python main.py 100 q 0.118 100000 > data_q.dat

```

We can see that the all-order description damps the divergent behaviour of a pure fixed-order prediction for $Q \rightarrow 0$. Given $C_A > C_F$, we also see how a gluon generates more emissions than quarks. This property can be exploited to try and discriminate between "quark jets" and "gluon jets".



- To increase the amount of emissions, try out setting the strong coupling

to $\alpha_s = 0.5$. How does the picture change?