

Standard Model Precision Physics

Stefan Weinzierl

Institut für Physik, Universität Mainz

57. Herbstschule für Hochenergiephysik Maria Laach 2026

Section 4

Next-to-leading order calculations

Motivation for higher order corrections

- For precision physics a **leading-order calculation** is **not sufficient**.
In perturbation theory: Better precision is reached by including higher orders.
- In this lecture we look at the **next-to-leading order** (NLO).

The master formula for the calculation of observables

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle O_n^{\text{LO}} \rangle &= \sum_{a,b} \int dx_1 f_a(x_1) \int dx_2 f_b(x_2) \frac{1}{2K(\hat{s})} \frac{1}{n_a^{\text{spin}} n_b^{\text{spin}} n_a^{\text{colour}} n_b^{\text{colour}}} \\
 &\times \left\{ \int d\phi_n O(p_1, \dots, p_n) \left[\underbrace{\left| \mathcal{A}_{n+2}^{(0)} \right|^2}_{\text{Born}} \right] \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

The master formula for the calculation of observables

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle O_n^{\text{NLO}} \rangle &= \sum_{a,b} \int dx_1 f_a(x_1) \int dx_2 f_b(x_2) \frac{1}{2K(\hat{s})} \frac{1}{n_a^{\text{spin}} n_b^{\text{spin}} n_a^{\text{colour}} n_b^{\text{colour}}} \\
 &\times \left\{ \int d\phi_n O(p_1, \dots, p_n) \left[\underbrace{\left| \mathcal{A}_{n+2}^{(0)} \right|^2}_{\text{Born}} + \underbrace{2 \operatorname{Re} \mathcal{A}_{n+2}^{(0)*} \mathcal{A}_{n+2}^{(1)}}_{\text{virtual}} \right] \right. \\
 &\left. + \int d\phi_{n+1} O(p_1, \dots, p_n, p_{n+1}) \underbrace{\left| \mathcal{A}_{n+3}^{(0)} \right|^2}_{\text{real}} \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Next-to-leading order calculations

- *Virtual corrections*

$$2 \operatorname{Re} \left(\left(\text{diagram 1} \right)^* \left(\text{diagram 2} \right) \right)$$

We need to know the *one-loop amplitude*.

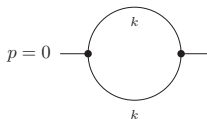
- *Real corrections*

$$\left(\text{diagram 3} \right)^* \left(\text{diagram 4} \right)$$

Real part contributes whenever the *additional parton is not resolved*.

Virtual corrections

Loop integrals



Loop integrals in four space-time dimensions can be divergent!

$$\int \frac{d^4 k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{1}{(k^2)^2} = \frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} \int_0^\infty dk^2 \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{x}$$

This integral diverges at

- $k^2 \rightarrow \infty$ (**UV-divergence**) and at
- $k^2 \rightarrow 0$ (**IR-divergence**).

Regularisation

- Cut-off regularisation:

$$\frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{x} \rightarrow \frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} \int_\lambda^\Lambda \frac{dx}{x} = \frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} [\ln \Lambda - \ln \lambda].$$

- Pauli-Villars regularisation for ultraviolet divergences:

$$\frac{1}{k^2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{k^2} - \frac{1}{k^2 - M^2}.$$

- Mass regularisation for infrared divergences:

$$\int \frac{d^4 k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{1}{(k^2)^2} \rightarrow \int \frac{d^4 k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{1}{(k^2 - m^2)^2} = \frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} \int_0^\infty dk^2 \frac{k^2}{(k^2 - m^2)^2}.$$

- Use **dimensional regularisation** to regulate UV- and IR-divergences. We set $D = 4 - 2\epsilon$ and call ϵ the dimensional regularisation parameter.

Euler's gamma function

- Concept closely related to: Consider a function $f(z)$, which is defined for any positive integer $n \in \mathbb{N}$ by the **factorial function**

$$f(n) = n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots n.$$

We would like to define $f(z)$ for any value $z \in \mathbb{C}$ (except for a countable set of isolated points, where $f(z)$ is allowed to have poles).

Answer is well known and given by **Euler's gamma function**

$$f(z) = \Gamma(z+1).$$

Dimensional regularisation

- **Divergences are transformed into poles in ϵ** and for $\epsilon \neq 0$ the integral is well-defined.
- A Feynman integral I has a **Laurent expansion** in ϵ :

$$I = \sum_{j=j_{\min}}^{\infty} \epsilon^j I^{(j)},$$

where $I^{(j)}$ denotes the coefficient of ϵ^j .

- We need the first few terms of this Laurent series.
For NLO calculations we have $j_{\min} = -2$ and we are interested in

$$I = \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} I^{(-2)} + \frac{1}{\epsilon} I^{(-1)} + I^{(0)} + O(\epsilon).$$

- Note: We would like to get the $I^{(j)}$'s, not necessarily I itself. There are situations where a closed form expression for I is readily obtained, but the Laurent expansion in ϵ is not immediate.

One-loop integrals

At one-loop we only need the following scalar integrals (in various kinematic configurations):

$$A_0 = \text{circle diagram with one external line}$$

$$B_0 = \text{circle diagram with two external lines}$$

$$C_0 = \text{triangle diagram with three external lines}$$

$$D_0 = \text{square diagram with four external lines}$$

Absence of higher-point functions

- Even for one-loop scattering amplitudes with $n > 4$ external particles **we don't need the one-loop n -point integrals!**
- If all integrals would be finite, this follows from the dimensionality of space-time: There can be only four independent four-vectors in four space-time dimensions.
- Within dimensional regularisation the extra dimensions act effectively as one extra dimension, and there can be pentagon integrals. However, they only appear at order $O(\epsilon)$.

Example

$$B_0(p^2, m_1^2 = 0, m_2^2 = 0) = \text{---} \circ \text{---}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\varepsilon} - \gamma_E + \ln 4\pi + 2 - \ln\left(\frac{-p^2}{\mu^2}\right) + O(\varepsilon).$$

$\gamma_E \approx 0.57721566$ Euler's constant,
 μ arbitrary scale

All relevant one-loop integrals are known.

Transcendental functions

Up to $O(\epsilon^0)$ all **one-loop amplitudes** can be expressed as a sum of algebraic functions of the kinematic variables times **two transcendental functions**, whose arguments are again algebraic functions of the kinematic variables.

The two transcendental functions are the **logarithm** and the **dilogarithm**:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Li}_1(x) &= -\ln(1-x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n} \\ \text{Li}_2(x) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n^2}\end{aligned}$$

Calculation of one-loop amplitudes

The unitarity/cut/OPP method

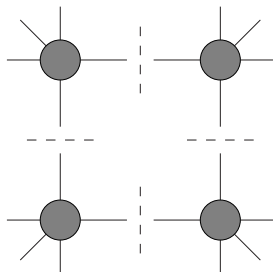
- Scalar integrals are known, need only the coefficients of these integrals
- Coefficients can be obtained by calculating tree-like objects

Cut techniques

Scalar integrals are known, **need only the coefficients** in front **and the rational part** R_n :

$$A_n^{(1)} = \sum_{i,j,k,l} c_{ijkl} I_{ijkl}^{\text{Box}} + \sum_{i,j,k} c_{ijk} I_{ijk}^{\text{Triangle}} + \sum_{i,j} c_{ij} I_{ij}^{\text{Bubble}} + \sum_i c_i I_i^{\text{Tadpole}} + R_n$$

- Box coefficients from quadruple cuts.
- Triangle coefficients from triple cuts, after box contribution has been subtracted out.
- Bubble coefficients from double cuts, after box and triangle have been subtracted out.
- Tadpole coefficients from single cuts, after box, triangle and bubble have been subtracted out.
- Rational part from cuts in D dimensions.



The OPP-method (Ossola, Papadopoulos, Pittau)

Consider the integrand of a primitive (cyclic-ordered) massless one-loop amplitude

$$A_n^{(1)} = \int \frac{d^D k}{(2\pi)^D} \frac{P(k)}{\prod_{j=1}^n q_j^2}, \quad P(k) = P(k^{(4)}) + \tilde{P}(k^{(4)}, k^{(-2\epsilon)}).$$

The OPP method consists in writing

$$\begin{aligned} P(k^{(4)}) &= \sum_{i_1 < i_2 < i_3 < i_4} \left[c_{i_1 i_2 i_3 i_4} + \tilde{c}_{i_1 i_2 i_3 i_4}(k^{(4)}) \right] \prod_{i \notin \{i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4\}} (q_i^{(4)})^2 \\ &+ \sum_{i_1 < i_2 < i_3} \left[c_{i_1 i_2 i_3} + \tilde{c}_{i_1 i_2 i_3}(k^{(4)}) \right] \prod_{i \notin \{i_1, i_2, i_3\}} (q_i^{(4)})^2 \\ &+ \sum_{i_1 < i_2} \left[c_{i_1 i_2} + \tilde{c}_{i_1 i_2}(k^{(4)}) \right] \prod_{i \notin \{i_1, i_2\}} (q_i^{(4)})^2. \end{aligned}$$

- Computational cost of $P(k^{(4)})$ is **tree-like**.
- The c 's are the **sought-after coefficients** of the scalar integrals.
- The $\tilde{c}$'s **integrate to zero**.
- **Rational terms**:
 - Type 1 from $(q_i^{(4)})^2/q_i^2$
 - Type 2 from $\tilde{P}$.

Divergences

Poles in the dimensional regularisation parameter

- The poles in ε reflect the original divergences in the integrals.
- We have to get rid of these poles, before we can take the limit $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.
 - **Ultraviolet divergences**: Renormalisation
 - **Infrared divergences**: Cancellation with the real part

Renormalisation

Renormalisation

Parameters appearing in the Lagrangian are not observed quantities, but “bare” quantities.

UV-divergences are **absorbed into** universal **renormalisation constants**:

$$\psi_{\text{bare}} = \sqrt{Z_2} \psi_r, \quad m_{\text{bare}} = Z_m m_r, \quad g_{\text{bare}} = Z_g \cdot \mu^\epsilon \cdot g_{\text{renorm}}, \quad \dots$$

- The renormalisation constants **must** absorb the poles from UV divergences.
- They **may** absorb additional terms.
- A **renormalisation scheme** is defined by the specification which additional terms they absorb.

Renormalisation schemes

- **Modified minimal subtraction scheme** ($\overline{\text{MS}}$ -scheme): Absorbs always the combination

$$\frac{1}{\epsilon} - \gamma_E + \ln 4\pi$$

into the renormalisation constants.

- **On-shell scheme**: Define the renormalisation constants by conditions at a scale where the particles are on-shell $p^2 = m_r^2$.

Example: For a fermion define Z_2 and Z_m by the conditions that the propagator has a pole at m_r with residue 1.

What is the top mass?

- The **$\overline{\text{MS}}$ -mass** $m_t^{\overline{\text{MS}}}(\mu)$, defined in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ -scheme. This is a short-distance mass.
- The **pole mass** m_t^{pole} , defined in the on-shell scheme. As the top quark is not a stable particle, it receives sizeable non-perturbative corrections. It is not a short-distance mass.
- The **MSR-mass** $m_t^{\text{MSR}}(\mu, R)$ (read: $m_t^{\overline{\text{MS}}}$ substituted by R) is a two-scale generalisation with a UV-scale μ and an IR-scale R , such that

$$m_t^{\text{MSR}}(\mu, R = m^{\overline{\text{MS}}}) = m_t^{\overline{\text{MS}}}(\mu),$$

$$m_t^{\text{MSR}}(\mu, R = O(1 \text{ GeV})) = \text{“Monte Carlo mass”},$$

$$m_t^{\text{MSR}}(\mu, R = 0) = m_t^{\text{pole}}.$$

What is the Weinberg angle?

- **$\overline{\text{MS}}$ -scheme:**

$$\sin^2 \theta_W^{\overline{\text{MS}}}(\mu) = \frac{g'^2(\mu)}{g^2(\mu) + g'^2(\mu)}$$

- **On-shell scheme** (with pole masses m_W , m_Z):

$$\sin^2 \theta_W^{\text{on-shell}} = 1 - \frac{m_W^2}{m_Z^2}$$

- **Effective mixing angle** for fermion f :

$$\sin^2 \theta_f^{\text{eff}}(\mu) = \frac{1}{4|Q_f|} \left(1 - \frac{g_f^V(\mu)}{g_f^A(\mu)} \right)$$

Top mass:

$m_t^{\overline{\text{MS}}}(m_t)$	$162.69 \pm 0.006 \text{ GeV}$
m_t^{pole}	$172.52 \pm 0.33 \text{ GeV}$

Weinberg angle:

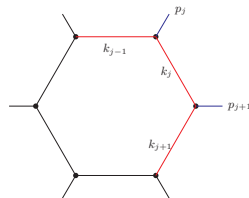
$\sin^2 \theta_W^{\overline{\text{MS}}}(m_Z)$	0.23122 ± 0.00006
$\sin^2 \theta_W^{\text{on-shell}}$	0.22342 ± 0.00009
$\sin^2 \theta_l^{\text{eff}}(m_Z)$	0.23154 ± 0.00006

Infrared divergences in one-loop amplitudes

The origin of infrared divergences

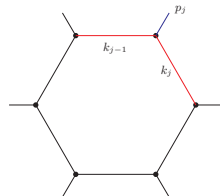
Soft singularities: 3 propagators on-shell

$$k_j \sim 0 \quad \text{and} \quad m_j = 0, \quad p_j^2 = m_{j-1}^2, \quad p_{j+1}^2 = m_{j+1}^2.$$



Collinear singularities: 2 propagators on-shell

$$k_{j-1} \sim xp_j, \quad \text{and} \quad p_j^2 = 0, \quad m_{j-1} = 0, \quad m_j = 0.$$



Infrared structure of one-loop amplitudes

General formula for the infrared poles of a one-loop amplitude:

$$\mathcal{A}_n^{(1)} = \mathbf{I}^{(1)} \mathcal{A}_n^{(0)} + \mathcal{F}_n^{(1)},$$

$\mathbf{I}^{(1)}$ contains all infrared poles, $\mathcal{F}_n^{(1)}$ is a finite remainder.

Infrared structure of one-loop amplitudes

General formula for the infrared poles of a one-loop amplitude:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{A}_n^{(1)} &= \mathbf{I}^{(1)} \mathcal{A}_n^{(0)} + \mathcal{F}_n^{(1)}, \\ \text{QCD : } \mathbf{I}^{(1)} &= \frac{\alpha_s}{4\pi} \frac{e^{\varepsilon\gamma_E}}{\Gamma(1-\varepsilon)} \sum_i \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon^2} + \frac{\gamma_i}{\mathbf{T}_i^2} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right) \sum_{j \neq i} \mathbf{T}_i \mathbf{T}_j \left(\frac{-2p_i p_j}{\mu^2} \right)^{-\varepsilon}, \\ \mathbf{T}_q^2 &= C_F, \quad \mathbf{T}_g^2 = C_A, \quad \gamma_q = \frac{3}{2} C_F, \quad \gamma_g = \frac{\beta_0}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

$\mathbf{I}^{(1)}$ contains all infrared poles, $\mathcal{F}_n^{(1)}$ is a finite remainder.

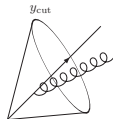
Colour charge operators:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{T}_q \mathcal{A}(\dots q_j \dots) &= (T_{ij}^a) \mathcal{A}(\dots q_j \dots), \\ \mathbf{T}_g \mathcal{A}(\dots g^b \dots) &= (if^{cab}) \mathcal{A}(\dots g^b \dots).\end{aligned}$$

Real corrections

The real correction

- Born matrix element $|\mathcal{A}_{n+1}^{(0)}|^2$ with $(n+1)$ partons.
- Contributes whenever the additional parton is below y_{cut} and is not resolved.
- In particular this is the case in the soft and collinear region.
- **Phase space integration** over soft and collinear region **diverges**.
- We discuss QCD, QED similar/simpler.



Factorisation in the soft region

In the soft limit:

$$\lim_{p_j \rightarrow 0} \mathcal{A}_{n+1}^{(0)} = g\mu^\varepsilon \varepsilon_\mu(p_j) \mathbf{J}^\mu \mathcal{A}_n^{(0)}, \quad \mathbf{J}^\mu = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{T}_i \frac{p_i^\mu}{p_i \cdot p_j}.$$

$\mathbf{J}^\mu$ is called the **eikonal current**.

Squaring the amplitude one finds

$$\lim_{p_j \rightarrow 0} \left| \mathcal{A}_{n+1}^{(0)} \right|^2 = -4\pi\alpha_s \mu^{2\varepsilon} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1, k \neq i}^n \mathcal{A}_n^{(0)*} \mathbf{T}_i \cdot \mathbf{T}_k \left[\frac{\mathbf{p}_i \cdot \mathbf{p}_k}{(\mathbf{p}_i \cdot \mathbf{p}_j)(\mathbf{p}_j \cdot \mathbf{p}_k)} \right] \mathcal{A}_n^{(0)}.$$

This is **not a complete factorisation**, the colour charge operators $\mathbf{T}_i \cdot \mathbf{T}_k$ lead to **colour correlations**.

The soft limit is **independent of spins or helicities**.

Factorisation in the collinear region

In the collinear limit we parametrise the momenta of the partons i and j as

$$p_i = zp + k_\perp - \frac{k_\perp^2}{z} \frac{n}{2pn}, \quad p_j = (1-z)p - k_\perp - \frac{k_\perp^2}{1-z} \frac{n}{2pn}, \quad n^2 = 2pk_\perp = 2nk_\perp = 0$$

Factorisation in the collinear limit:

$$\lim_{p_i || p_j} \mathcal{A}_{n+1}^{(0)} = g\mu^\varepsilon \sum_\lambda \text{Split}^\lambda(p_i, p_j) \mathbf{T}_{(ij) \rightarrow i+j} \mathcal{A}_n^{(0)}(\dots, p_{(ij)}^\lambda, \dots).$$

where the **sum is over all polarisations of the intermediate particle (ij)** .

Colour charge operators: $\mathbf{T}_{q \rightarrow qg} = \mathbf{T}_q$, $\mathbf{T}_{g \rightarrow gg} = \mathbf{T}_g$ and

$$\mathbf{T}_{g \rightarrow q\bar{q}} \mathcal{A}(\dots g^b \dots) = (\tau_{ij}^b) \mathcal{A}(\dots g^b \dots).$$

Factorisation in the collinear region

Squaring the amplitude:

$$\lim_{p_i || p_j} \left| \mathcal{A}_{n+1}^{(0)} \right|^2 = 4\pi\alpha_s \mu^{2\varepsilon} \sum_{\lambda, \lambda'} \mathcal{A}_n^{\lambda(0)*} P_{(ij) \rightarrow i+j}^{\lambda\lambda'} \mathcal{A}_n^{\lambda'(0)}.$$

$\mathcal{A}_n^{\lambda(0)}$ is the amplitude with polarisation factor of particle (ij) removed.

$P_{(ij) \rightarrow i+j}^{\lambda\lambda'}$ is called the **Altarelli-Parisi splitting function**.

$$\begin{aligned} P_{q \rightarrow qg}^{\lambda\lambda'} &= C_F \frac{2}{2p_i \cdot p_j} \not{p}' \left[\frac{2z}{1-z} + (1-\varepsilon)(1-z) \right], \\ P_{g \rightarrow gg}^{\lambda\lambda'} &= C_A \frac{2}{2p_i \cdot p_j} \left[-g^{\mu\nu} \left(\frac{2z}{1-z} + \frac{2(1-z)}{z} \right) - 4(1-\varepsilon)z(1-z) \frac{k_{\perp}^{\mu} k_{\perp}^{\nu}}{k_{\perp}^2} \right], \\ P_{g \rightarrow q\bar{q}}^{\lambda\lambda'} &= T_R \frac{2}{2p_i \cdot p_j} \left[-g^{\mu\nu} + 4z(1-z) \frac{k_{\perp}^{\mu} k_{\perp}^{\nu}}{k_{\perp}^2} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

This is **not a complete factorisation**, the sum over λ and λ' leads to **spin correlations**.
The collinear limit is **independent of colour**.

Summary on factorisation in soft and collinear limits

- In the **soft limit**, amplitudes **factorise completely in spin space**, but **colour correlations** remain.
- In the **collinear limit**, amplitudes **factorise completely in colour space**, but **spin correlations** remain.

How to handle correlations: Use **colour decomposition** and **helicity amplitudes**.

Cancellation of infrared divergences

The Kinoshita-Lee-Nauenberg theorem

- The **phase space integration** over the unresolved region **diverges**, need a regulator.
- **Unitarity requires** the **same regulator** as in the **virtual part**, therefore use dimensional regularisation.
- Nature ensures that the amplitudes have a nice behaviour in the soft and collinear limits, physicists have to ensure that also the observables have a nice behaviour in these limits:
Restriction to **infrared-safe observables**.
- For infrared-safe observables infrared divergences **cancel in the sum** of real and virtual corrections.
This is the Kinoshita-Lee-Nauenberg theorem: Any infrared-safe observable, summed over all states degenerate according to some resolution criteria, will be finite.

The cancellation of infrared divergences in practise

- The real contribution has $(n+1)$ particles in the final state.
In four space-time dimensions, the phase space integral is a $3(n+1) - 4 = 3n - 1$ dimensional integral.
- In $D = 4 - 2\varepsilon$ space-time dimensions, the phase space integral is a

$$(D-1)(n+1) - D = 3n - 1 - 2n\varepsilon$$

dimensional integral.

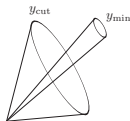
- We want to perform the phase space integration by Monte Carlo techniques in four space-time dimensions.

Phase space slicing

Splits the integration of the real emission contribution into a region $y > y_{\min}$ and a region $y < y_{\min}$.

The former is free of singularities and the integration can be performed numerically there.

In the latter the matrix element is **approximated** and the integration over the one-parton phase space is performed analytically.



- Introduces an **error** of **order** $y_{\min}$.
- The first region gives a contribution of the form

$$a \ln^2 y_{\min} + b \ln y_{\min} + c$$

The **logarithms** $\ln^2 y_{\min}$ and $\ln y_{\min}$ **cancel** against the contribution from the second region.

- **But:** Cancellation happens **only numerically**!

In a modern variant one often uses n -jettiness instead of $y_{\min}$:

$$\tau_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n+r} \min_i \left(\frac{2q_i \cdot p_k}{Q_i} \right)$$

- The momenta $p_1, \dots, p_{n+r}$ are the final state parton momenta
- The momenta $q_a, q_b, q_1, \dots, q_n$ are the projections to a Born configuration (including two incoming momenta q_a, q_b).
- $Q_a, Q_b, Q_1, \dots, Q_n$ are normalisation factors.

This has the advantage that for small τ_n we may use **soft-collinear effective theory**.

The subtraction method

The NLO cross section is rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^{NLO} &= \int_{n+1} d\sigma^R + \int_n d\sigma^V \\ &= \int_{n+1} (d\sigma^R - d\sigma^A) + \int_n \left(d\sigma^V + \int_1 d\sigma^A \right)\end{aligned}$$

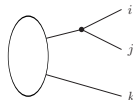
The approximation $d\sigma^A$ has to fulfill the following requirements:

- $d\sigma^A$ must be a proper approximation of $d\sigma^R$ such as to have the **same pointwise singular behaviour in D dimensions** as $d\sigma^R$ itself. Thus, $d\sigma^A$ acts as a local counterterm for $d\sigma^R$ and one can safely perform the limit $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.
- **Analytic integrability in D dimensions** over the one-parton subspace leading to soft and collinear divergences.

The dipole subtraction terms

The **approximation term** $d\sigma^A$ is given as a sum over dipoles:

$$d\sigma^A = \sum_{\text{pairs } i,j} \sum_{k \neq i,j} \mathcal{D}_{ij,k}.$$



Each **dipole** contribution has the following form:

$$\mathcal{D}_{ij,k} = -\frac{1}{2p_i \cdot p_j} \mathcal{A}_n^{\lambda(0)*}(p_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_{(ij)}, \dots, \tilde{p}_k, \dots) \frac{\mathbf{T}_k \cdot \mathbf{T}_{ij}}{\mathbf{T}_{ij}^2} V_{ij,k}^{\lambda\lambda'} \mathcal{A}_n^{\lambda'(0)}(p_1, \dots, \tilde{p}_{(ij)}, \dots, \tilde{p}_k, \dots)$$

- **Colour correlations** through $\mathbf{T}_k \cdot \mathbf{T}_{ij}$.
- **Spin correlations** through $V_{ij,k}^{\lambda\lambda'}$.

The dipoles have the **correct soft and collinear limit**.

Momentum mapping

The amplitudes $\mathcal{A}_n^{\lambda(0)}(\dots, \tilde{p}_{(ij)}, \dots, \tilde{p}_k, \dots)$ in the subtraction terms **depend on n external momenta**.

Need a mapping from a $(n+1)$ -parton configuration to a n -parton configuration.

The mapping has to respect:

- **Momentum conservation**
- **On-shell conditions**

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{p}_{ij} &= p_i + p_j - \frac{y}{1-y} p_k, & y &= \frac{s_{ij}}{s_{ijk}}, \\ \tilde{p}_k &= \frac{1}{1-y} p_k.\end{aligned}$$

Summary on the subtraction method

In **electron-positron annihilation** we have:

$$\sigma^{NLO} = \int_{n+1} (d\sigma^R - d\sigma^A) + \int_n \left(d\sigma^V + \int_1 d\sigma^A \right)$$

With **hadrons in the initial state**:

$$\sigma^{NLO} = \int_{n+1} (d\sigma^R - d\sigma^A) + \int_n \left(d\sigma^V + d\sigma^C + \int_1 d\sigma^A \right)$$

$d\sigma^C$ subtracts **initial state collinear singularities**.

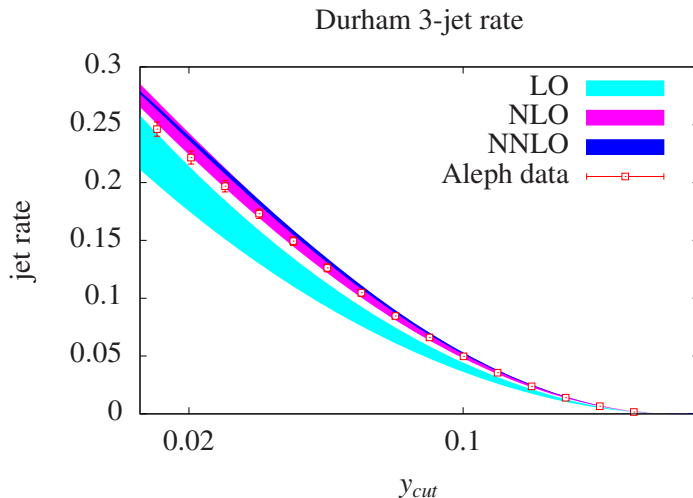
Take-home messages

- NLO calculations involve **virtual corrections** and **real corrections**.
- All one-loop integrals known, need only the **coefficients** of the one-loop integrals and the **rational terms**.
- **Cancellation of the infrared divergences** between the virtual corrections and the real corrections.

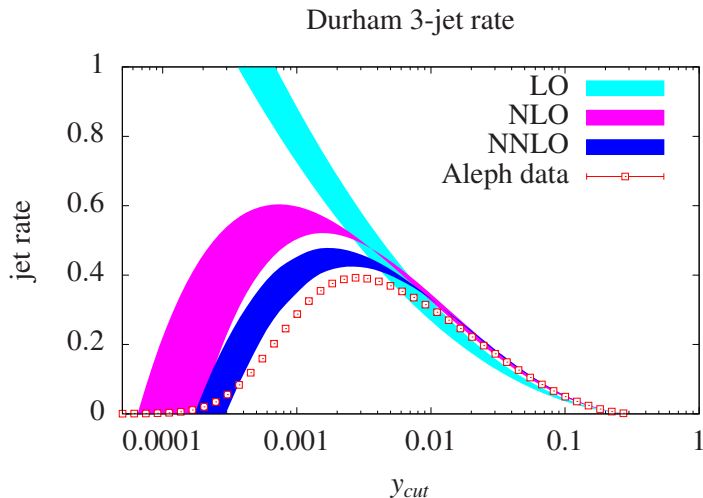
Section 5

Back-up slides

Results for the three-jet rate in electron-positron annihilation



Results for the three-jet rate in electron-positron annihilation



Resummation of large logarithms

Perturbative expansion of a typical observable:

$$\begin{aligned}O(y) &= \frac{\alpha_s}{2\pi} A(y) + \left(\frac{\alpha_s}{2\pi}\right)^2 B(y) + O(\alpha_s^3), \\A(y) &= a_2 \ln^2 y + a_1 \ln y + a_0, \\B(y) &= b_4 \ln^4 y + b_3 \ln^3 y + b_2 \ln^2 y + b_1 \ln y + b_0.\end{aligned}$$

At order α^n we have terms of the form $\alpha_s^n \ln^{2n} y$, $\alpha_s^n \ln^{2n-1} y$, etc.

If y is small, we have

$$\alpha_s \ln^2 y \not\ll 1$$

This **spoils the perturbative expansion**.

Resum the large logarithms.