



We want to understand the Higgs mechanism and the Standard Model.
To get there we have to think harder about how gauge theories work
And what happens when a gauge theory contains scalar fields

- ▶ Field theory in more detail
- ▶ Gauge fields in more detail
- ▶ Scalar fields and gauge fields
- ▶ Spontaneous symmetry breaking
- ▶ Higgs mechanism

2: What is Physics

Physics is an attempt to apply some physical laws to either

1. Predict how initial conditions (Q_i, P_i) will evolve, or
2. Explain how, if you start at Q_i and end at Q_f , you got from one to the other

If you can do one of these things, you can do the other.

Newton's laws set up to do 1.

Lagrange/Hamilton approach does 2.



3: How do we solve all physics

Action principle: All physics follows from the action S
The action is the time-integral of a Lagrangian L

$$S = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} dt L(Q(t), Q'(t))$$

If I know L and boundary (P_i, Q_i or Q_i, Q_f) data,
Then you can determine all dynamics.

- ▶ Classical physics: $Q(t)$ are values which extremize S
- ▶ Quantum physics: amplitude to go from $\langle \psi_i | Q_i \rangle = \psi_i(Q)$ at $t = t_i$ to $\langle \psi_f | Q_f \rangle = \psi_f(Q)$ at $t = t_f$ is

$$A(\psi_i, \psi_f) = \int_{\psi_i}^{\psi_f} \mathcal{D}Q \exp(iS(Q)/\hbar)$$

Path integral will be dominated by saddlepoints in $S(Q)$ if \hbar is “small.” Saddlepoint condition is $\partial S / \partial Q = 0$ which says that small \hbar limit of QM is classical mechanics.

4: Relativistic classical particles

The action has to respect all symmetries.

That means S has to be the same in all reference frames.

Given trajectory $\vec{x}(t)$, what is the same in all frames?

- ▶ Rewrite $\vec{x}(t) \rightarrow x^\mu(\tau)$ with τ the proper time, $d\tau = dt/\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$
- ▶ Total proper time is

$$\tau = \int_{x_i^\mu}^{x_f^\mu} d\tau = \int_{x_i^\mu}^{x_f^\mu} \sqrt{c^2 - v^2} dt = \int \sqrt{c^2 dt^2 - dx^2}$$

- ▶ Because $c^2 dt^2 - dx^2$ is the same in all frames, so is τ !
- ▶ Action is $S = mc\tau = mc \int_{x_i}^{x_f} d\tau$ so $L = mc^2 \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$

Canonical momentum: $p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_i} = mv / \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$

Hamiltonian: $H = p_i v_i - L(x, p) = \frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$

5: Relativistic field?

Suppose there is a field $\phi(x, t)$ varying through space and time.

$$S = \int dt L(\phi(x, t), \dot{\phi}(x, t))$$

Here L is a function of ϕ at *all* coordinates x .

Locality: It must be a *single space integral* over $\phi(x)$ and its derivatives:

$$L(\phi(x, t)) = \int d^3x \mathcal{L}(\phi, \partial_\mu \phi)$$

Lagrangian density \mathcal{L} is function of ϕ at that point, and its space and time derivatives.

What should I expect the function \mathcal{L} to look like?

6: Constraints on Lagrangian



The Lagrange density can't be anything you want. Rules?

- ▶ Depends on $\phi(x)$ and its derivatives – not on ϕ at other points (locality, causality) Without this, physics cannot be predictive.
- ▶ \mathcal{L} should be spacetime scalar (Lorentz invariance)
- ▶ \mathcal{L} must be Hermitian (so evolution is unitary)
- ▶ \mathcal{L} should not contain too many powers of field+derivative

This is totally not obvious. It's a deep Quantum Field Theory thing called renormalizability.

- ▶ \mathcal{L} should be positive in Euclidean signature (stability)

This makes sure Hamiltonian is bounded from below. Theories without this have dynamics which “blows up”

Real scalar field: not many things available:

$$\mathcal{L}(\phi) = \frac{Z}{2} \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi - V(\phi), \quad V(\phi) = V_0 + V_1 \phi + \frac{m^2}{2} \phi^2 + \frac{g}{6} \phi^3 + \frac{\lambda}{24} \phi^4$$

7: Interesting, puzzling case

Consider two-component scalar field ϕ_a with $a = 1, 2$
Suppose there is an $SO(2)$ symmetry rotating between components.
I will use summation conventions on the a indices.

$$\mathcal{L}(\phi_a) = \partial_\mu \phi_a \partial^\mu \phi_a - V_0 - \frac{m^2}{2} \phi_a \phi_a - \frac{\lambda}{24} \phi_a \phi_a \phi_b \phi_b$$

For $m^2 > 0$ the lowest-energy classical state has $\phi_1 = 0 = \phi_2$
The quantum vacuum is some sort of (small) fluctuations about this classical state.

But what if $m^2 = -\mu^2 < 0$? Theory is still stable, but ...

8: Spontaneous symmetry breaking



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My theory has a symmetry in which we rotate between ϕ_1, ϕ_2 .

Potential energy is invariant:

$$\begin{aligned} V(\phi) &= V_0 - \frac{\mu^2}{2} \phi_a \phi_a + \frac{\lambda}{24} \phi_a \phi_a \phi_b \phi_b \\ &= K_0 + \frac{\lambda}{24} (\phi_a \phi_a - v^2)^2, \\ v^2 &= 6\mu^2 \end{aligned}$$

$V(\phi_a)$ minimized when $\phi_a \phi_a = v^2$

Not when $\phi = 0$.

There are many equally good vacua!

9: Goldstone's Theorem



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My *theory* has a symmetry, but the *vacuum* does not.

Goldstone proved that, when this happens *with a global internal* symmetry, there are always massless particles, *Goldstone bosons*, associated with vacuum value varying through space.

Locally, field “feels” like it’s vacuum. Only by comparing with neighboring regions – through gradients – can it realize there is a fluctuation occurring.

10: Scalar with global $SU(2)$ symmetry

Suppose we have a *column vector* of complex scalars:

$$\phi = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \phi_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathcal{L} = \partial_\mu \phi^\dagger \partial^\mu \phi + V(\phi^\dagger \phi) = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_\mu \phi_1^* & \partial_\mu \phi_2^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \partial^\mu \phi_1 \\ \partial^\mu \phi_2 \end{bmatrix} + \dots$$

If I apply $\phi \rightarrow U\phi$ with $U \in SU(2)$ a (constant) matrix, then the Lagrange density remains unchanged!

$$\phi \rightarrow U\phi, \quad \phi^\dagger \rightarrow \phi^\dagger U^\dagger, \quad \phi^\dagger \phi \rightarrow \phi^\dagger U^\dagger U \phi, \quad \partial_\mu \phi^\dagger \partial^\mu \phi \rightarrow \partial_\mu \phi^\dagger U^\dagger U \partial^\mu \phi$$

Essential that U be space-independent so I could move U past ∂^μ .

But can I expand symmetry so that $U \rightarrow U(x^\mu)$???

11: Gauge theory: the Problem

No you cannot!

$$\phi \rightarrow U\phi \quad \Rightarrow \quad \partial_\mu \phi \rightarrow \partial_\mu U\phi = U\partial_\mu \phi + (\partial_\mu U)\phi$$

Intuitively clear:

(Note, sufficient to consider $U = \mathbf{1} + i\lambda_a \tau_a/2$ with λ_a infinitesimal.

$$\partial_\mu \phi \rightarrow (1 + i\lambda_a \tau_a/2)\phi + i\tau_a/2 \phi \partial_\mu \lambda_a$$

12: Gauge theory: the Solution



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Derivative is a *comparator* between nearby points.
Add an $SU(2)$ rotation to that comparison!

$$\partial_\mu \phi \rightarrow \left(\partial_\mu - i \frac{\tau_a}{2} W_\mu^a \right) \phi \equiv D_\mu \phi$$

$$\partial_\mu \phi^* \rightarrow \left(\partial_\mu + i \frac{\tau_a^*}{2} W_\mu^a \right) \phi$$

$$\partial_\mu \phi^\dagger \rightarrow \phi^\dagger \left(\overleftarrow{\partial}_\mu + i \frac{\tau_a}{2} W_\mu^a \right) \equiv D_\mu \phi^\dagger = (D_\mu \phi)^\dagger$$

W_μ^a are *instructions* to rotate a little while you are comparing between nearby points.

Rotate ϕ at one point and not another: change how I rotate as I am comparing those points, and I can “undo the damage” of ϕ -rotation

13: Let's see if it works!

I will apply a transformation:

$$\phi(x) \rightarrow \left(1 + i \frac{\tau_a}{2} \lambda_a(x)\right) \phi(x) \equiv U(x) \phi(x), \quad \text{and} \quad W_a^\mu(x) \rightarrow W_a^\mu(x) + \delta W_a^\mu(x)$$

What I need is to ensure that $D^\mu \phi \rightarrow U D^\mu \phi$.

That way, $(D_\mu \phi)^\dagger D^\mu \phi \rightarrow (D_\mu \phi)^\dagger U^\dagger U D^\mu \phi$ is unchanged.

Let's see if there is *any* δW_a^μ for which this works!

$$D^\mu \phi = \left(\partial^\mu - i \frac{\tau_a}{2} W_a^\mu\right) \phi \rightarrow \left(\partial^\mu - i \frac{\tau_a}{2} W_a^\mu - \frac{\tau_a}{2} \delta W_a^\mu\right) \left(1 + i \frac{\tau_b}{2} \lambda_b\right) \phi$$

$= (\text{original}) + (\text{Terms with } \lambda_b) + (-i \delta W_a^\mu \tau_a / 2) \phi + \cancel{\mathcal{O}(\lambda \delta W)}$

$$\text{Terms with } \lambda_b = i \frac{\tau_b}{2} \lambda_b D^\mu \phi + \left(i \frac{\tau_b}{2} \partial^\mu \lambda_b + \frac{[\tau_a, \tau_b]}{4} W_a^\mu \lambda_b\right) \phi$$

$$= i \frac{\tau_b}{2} \lambda_b D^\mu \phi + i \frac{\tau_c}{2} (\partial^\mu \lambda_c + \epsilon_{abc} W_a^\mu \lambda_b) \phi$$

$$\text{original} + \text{With } \lambda_b = \left(1 + i \frac{\tau_b}{2} \lambda_b\right) D^\mu \phi + i \frac{\tau_c}{2} (\partial^\mu \lambda_c + \epsilon_{abc} W_a^\mu \lambda_b) \phi$$

$$\text{Therefore, to cancel, } \frac{\tau_c}{2} \delta W_c^\mu = \frac{\tau_c}{2} (\partial^\mu \lambda_c + \epsilon_{abc} W_a^\mu \lambda_b) = D^\mu \lambda_c$$

14: Gauge transformation



Physics stays the same, including (covariant) derivatives, under transform

$$\phi(x) \rightarrow \left(1 + i \frac{\tau_a}{2} \lambda_a\right) \phi, \quad W_a^\mu \rightarrow W_a^\mu + \partial^\mu \lambda_a + \epsilon_{abc} W_b^\mu \lambda_c \equiv W_a^\mu + D^\mu \lambda_a$$

But Lagrangian can also contain terms with *only* W , no ϕ .

What are allowed terms?

$$W_a^\mu W_\mu^a \rightarrow W_a^\mu W_\mu^a + 2W_\mu^a D^\mu \lambda_a \quad \text{is not invariant!}$$

$$F_a^{\mu\nu} \equiv \partial^\mu W_a^\nu - \partial^\nu W_a^\mu + \epsilon_{abc} W_b^\mu W_c^\nu \rightarrow F_a^{\mu\nu} + \epsilon_{abc} F_b^{\mu\nu} \lambda_c \quad \text{At least covariant}$$

$$F_a^{\mu\nu} F_{\mu\nu}^a \rightarrow F_a^{\mu\nu} F_{\mu\nu}^a + \epsilon_{abc} F_b^{\mu\nu} F_{\mu\nu}^a \lambda_c + \epsilon_{abc} F_a^{\mu\nu} F_{\mu\nu}^b \lambda_c \quad \text{Is invariant, and a scalar!}$$

Most general Lagrangian:

$$\mathcal{L} = D_\mu \phi^\dagger D^\mu \phi - V(\phi^\dagger \phi) - \frac{1}{4g^2} F_{\mu\nu}^a F_a^{\mu\nu}$$

15: Physical interpretation of $F_a^{\mu\nu}$



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16: Canonical normalization



We originally said Lagrangian could be $Z D^\mu \phi D_\mu \phi + \dots$

But then we stopped writing Z . Why? $\sqrt{Z} \phi_{\text{old}} = \phi_{\text{new}}$

We can get rid of $1/g^2$ factor by doing the same with W_a^μ : $\frac{1}{g} W_{a,\text{old}}^\mu = W_{a,\text{new}}^\mu$

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{4g^2} F_{a,\text{old}}^{\mu\nu} F_{\mu\nu a,\text{old}} = \frac{1}{4} F_{a,\text{new}}^{\mu\nu} F_{\mu\nu a,\text{new}}$$

$$F_{a,\text{new}}^{\mu\nu} = \partial^\mu W_{a,\text{new}}^\nu - \partial^\nu W_{a,\text{new}}^\mu + g \epsilon_{abc} W_{b,\text{new}}^\mu W_{c,\text{new}}^\nu$$

$$D^\mu \phi = \left(\partial^\mu - i \frac{\tau_a}{2} W_{a,\text{old}}^\mu \right) \phi = \left(\partial^\mu - ig \frac{\tau_a}{2} W_{a,\text{new}}^\mu \right) \phi$$

This is called **canonical normalization**.

A factor of g appears wherever W gives rise to nonlinearity.

17: What are W couplings doing?



Look at the terms linear in W :

$$\begin{aligned}\phi^\dagger W_a^\mu \tau_a \phi &= \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1^* & \phi_2^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} W_3^\mu & W_1^\mu - iW_2^\mu \\ W_1^\mu + iW_2^\mu & -W_3^\mu \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \phi_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 2W_+^\mu \phi_2^* \phi_1 + 2W_-^\mu \phi_1^* \phi_2 + W_3^\mu (\phi_1^* \phi_1 - \phi_2^* \phi_2)\end{aligned}$$

The W_\pm mix upper and lower components.

The W_3 couples to upper and lower with opposite strengths.

Just like the left-handed part of W^\pm and Z couplings!

18: What have we learned so far?



- ▶ Physics is determined by action.
- ▶ Field theory: Action is spacetime integral of Lagrange density
- ▶ Lagrange density must be scalar function of fields
- ▶ Scalar fields are a real possibility
- ▶ Scalar fields can have strange spontaneous symmetry breaking effect
- ▶ Gauge theory expands notion of symmetry to allow spacetime-dependent transformations. Cost: introduction of a comparator W_a^μ
- ▶ For nonabelian symmetry like $SU(2)$, W have more complex transformation law.
- ▶ W enter action through squared field-strength. Nonlinear
- ▶ A mass term for gauge fields is *not allowed!* **Massless!**

But what happens when *Spontaneous symmetry breaking* meets *Nonabelian gauge theory*? Find out on Friday!