

Kapitel 4

Spontaneous Symmetry Breaking

We have seen in the previous discussion how gauge principles can serve as a dynamical principle to guide the construction of theories. Global gauge invariance implies via Noether's theorem the existence of a conserved current. Local gauge invariance requires the introduction of massless vector gauge bosons, fixes the form of the interactions of gauge bosons with sources and implies interactions among the gauge bosons in case of non-Abelian symmetries. We face the problem, however, that the gauge principle leads to theories in which all the interactions are mediated by massless vector bosons while only the photon and the gluons are massless and the vector bosons mediating the weak interactions, the W and Z bosons, are massive. We discuss in the following how this problem is solved by spontaneous symmetry breaking.

The symmetry of a Lagrangian is called *spontaneously broken* if the Lagrangian is symmetric but the physical vacuum *does not conserve* the symmetry. We will see that, if the Lagrangian of a theory is invariant under an exact continuous symmetry that is not the symmetry of the physical vacuum one or several massless spin-0 particles emerge. These are called *Goldstone bosons*. If the spontaneously broken symmetry is a local gauge symmetry the interplay (induced by the Higgs mechanism) between the *would-be Goldstone bosons* and the massless gauge bosons implies masses for the gauge bosons and removes the Goldstone bosons from the physical spectrum.

4.1 Example: Ferromagnetism

We consider a system of interacting spins,

$$H = - \sum_{i,j} J_{ij} \vec{S}_i \cdot \vec{S}_j . \quad (4.1)$$

The scalar product of the spin operators is a singlet with respect to rotations, *i.e.* rotation invariant. In the ground state of the ferromagnet (at sufficiently low temperature, below the Curie temperature) all spins are orientated along the same direction. This is the state with lowest energy. The ground state is no longer rotation invariant. Rotation of the system leads to a new ground state of same energy, which is different from the previous one, however. The ground state is degenerate. The distinction of a specific direction breaks the symmetry. We have spontaneous symmetry breaking here.

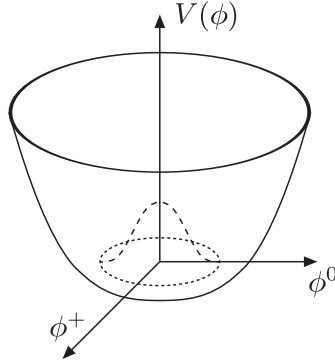


Abbildung 4.1: Das Higgspotential.

4.2 Example: Field Theory for a Complex Field

We consider the Lagrangian for a complex scalar field

$$\mathcal{L} = (\partial_\mu \phi)^* (\partial^\mu \phi) - \mu^2 \phi^* \phi - \lambda (\phi^* \phi)^2 \quad \text{with the potential} \quad V = \mu^2 \phi^* \phi + \lambda (\phi^* \phi)^2. \quad (4.2)$$

(Adding higher powers in ϕ leads to a non-renormalizable theory.) The Lagrangian is invariant under a $U(1)$ symmetry,

$$\phi \rightarrow \exp(i\alpha) \phi. \quad (4.3)$$

We consider the ground state. It is given by the minimum of V ,

$$0 = \frac{\partial V}{\partial \phi^*} = \mu^2 \phi + 2\lambda (\phi^* \phi) \phi \quad \Rightarrow \quad \phi = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{für } \mu^2 > 0 \\ \phi^* \phi = -\frac{\mu^2}{2\lambda} & \text{für } \mu^2 < 0 \end{cases} \quad (4.4)$$

The parameter λ has to be positive so that the system does not become unstable. For $\mu^2 < 0$ the potential takes the shape of a Mexican hat, see Fig. 4.1. At $\phi = 0$ we have a local maximum, at

$$|\phi| = v = \sqrt{-\frac{\mu^2}{2\lambda}} \quad (4.5)$$

a global minimum. Particles correspond to harmonic oscillations for the expansion about the minimum of the potential. Fluctuations into the direction of the (infinitely many degenerate) minima have the gradient zero and correspond to massless particles, the Goldstone bosons. Fluctuations perpendicular to this direction correspond to particles with mass $m > 0$. Expansion around the maximum at $\phi = 0$ would lead to particles with negative mass (tachyons), as the curvature of the potential is negative here.

Expansion about the minimum at $\phi = v$ leads to (we have two fluctuations φ_1 and φ_2 for the complex scalar field)

$$\phi = v + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\varphi_1 + i\varphi_2) = \left(v + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\varphi_1\right) + i\frac{\varphi_2}{\sqrt{2}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (4.6)$$

$$\phi^* \phi = v^2 + \sqrt{2}v\varphi_1 + \frac{1}{2}(\varphi_1^2 + \varphi_2^2). \quad (4.7)$$

Thereby we obtain for the potential

$$V = \lambda(\phi^*\phi - v^2)^2 - \frac{\mu^4}{4\lambda} \quad \text{with} \quad v^2 = -\frac{\mu^2}{2\lambda} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (4.8)$$

$$V = \lambda \left(\sqrt{2}v\varphi_1 + \frac{1}{2}(\varphi_1^2 + \varphi_2^2) \right)^2 - \frac{\mu^4}{4\lambda}. \quad (4.9)$$

We neglect the last term in V as is only a constant shift of the zero-point. We then obtain for the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu\varphi_1)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu\varphi_2)^2 - 2\lambda v^2\varphi_1^2 - \sqrt{2}v\lambda\varphi_1(\varphi_1^2 + \varphi_2^2) - \frac{\lambda}{4}(\varphi_1^2 + \varphi_2^2)^2. \quad (4.10)$$

The terms quadratic in the fields provide the masses, the terms cubic and quartic in the fields are the interaction terms. We have a massive and a massless particle,

$$m_{\varphi_1} = 2v\sqrt{\lambda} \quad \text{and} \quad m_{\varphi_2} = 0. \quad (4.11)$$

The massless particle is the Goldstone boson.

4.3 The Goldstone Theorem

The Goldstone theorem states:

In any field theory that obeys the 'usual axioms' including locality, Lorentz invariance and positive-definite norm on the Hilbert space, if an exact continuous symmetry of the Lagrangian is not a symmetry of the physical vacuum, then the theory must contain a massless spin-zero particle (or particles) whose quantum numbers are those of the broken group generator (or generators).

Be

N = dimension of the algebra of the symmetry group of the complete Lagrangian.

M = dimension of the algebra of the group under which the vacuum is invariant after spontaneous symmetry breaking.

\Rightarrow There are $N-M$ Goldstone bosons without mass in the theory.

For each spontaneously broken degree of freedom of the symmetry there is a massless Goldstone boson.

4.4 Spontaneously broken Gauge Symmetries

We consider as example the Lagrangian of a complex scalar field Φ that couples to a photon field A_μ , that is invariant under a $U(1)$. The local transformations are given by

$$\Phi \rightarrow \exp(-ie\Lambda(x))\Phi(x) \quad \text{and} \quad A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu + \partial_\mu\Lambda. \quad (4.12)$$

The Lagrangian reads

$$\mathcal{L} = [(\partial_\mu - ieA_\mu)\Phi^*][(\partial^\mu + ieA^\mu)\Phi] \underbrace{-\mu^2\Phi^*\Phi - \lambda(\Phi^*\Phi)^2}_{-V(\Phi)} - \frac{1}{4}F_{\mu\nu}F^{\mu\nu}. \quad (4.13)$$

(Remark: In order to quantize the Lagrangian we additionally have to introduce a gauge fixing term.) For $\mu^2 < 0$ we have spontaneous symmetry breaking of the $U(1)$. Then the field has a non-vanishing VEV,

$$\langle 0|\Phi|0 \rangle = v = \sqrt{\frac{-\mu^2}{2\lambda}}. \quad (4.14)$$

The fluctuations around the minimum (expansion around the minimum) are given by

$$\Phi = v + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\varphi_1 + i\varphi_2) = \left(v + \frac{H(x)}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \exp\left(\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}\frac{\chi(x)}{v}\right) \left(\approx v + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(H(x) + i\chi(x))\right) \quad (4.15)$$

Thereby

$$\begin{aligned} D_\mu \Phi = (\partial_\mu + ieA_\mu)\Phi(x) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\partial_\mu \varphi_1 + i\partial_\mu \varphi_2) + ieA_\mu v + \frac{e}{\sqrt{2}}A_\mu(-\varphi_2 + i\varphi_1) \\ &= \exp\left(i\frac{\chi}{\sqrt{2}v}\right) \left[\partial_\mu + ie\left(A_\mu + \frac{\partial_\mu \chi}{\sqrt{2}ev}\right)\right] \left(v + \frac{H}{\sqrt{2}}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (4.16)$$

In order to avoid bilinear mixing terms in the fields we perform the following gauge transformation

$$A'_\mu = A_\mu + \partial_\mu \left(\frac{\chi}{\sqrt{2}ev}\right). \quad (4.17)$$

This results in the kinetic energy (from now on we call A' again A)

$$\begin{aligned} (D_\mu \Phi)^*(D^\mu \Phi) &= \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu H)(\partial^\mu H) + e^2 A_\mu A^\mu \left(v + \frac{H}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu H)(\partial^\mu H) + \underbrace{(e^2 v^2)}_{\frac{1}{2}m_A^2} A_\mu A^\mu \\ &\quad + \underbrace{e^2 A_\mu A^\mu \left(\sqrt{2}vH + \frac{H^2}{2}\right)}_{\text{interaction terms}}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.18)$$

And the complete Lagrangian reads

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu H)(\partial^\mu H) + \frac{1}{2}m_A^2 A_\mu A^\mu + e^2 A_\mu A^\mu \left(\sqrt{2}vH + \frac{H^2}{2}\right) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{4}F_{\mu\nu}F^{\mu\nu} - \underbrace{2\lambda v^2}_{\frac{1}{2}m_H^2} H^2 - \sqrt{2}v\lambda H^3 - \frac{\lambda}{4}H^4. \end{aligned} \quad (4.19)$$

Here we have neglected the constant term λv^4 which simply shifts the zero-point of the vacuum. The masses of the Higgs particle H and the photon are

$$m_A^2 = 2e^2 v^2 \quad (4.20)$$

$$m_H^2 = 4\lambda v^2. \quad (4.21)$$

We hence have a massive photon (gauge boson) and a massive scalar field, the Higgs particle. The Goldstone boson does not appear any more as degree of freedom. The number of degrees of freedom has been preserved, however. Because in the unbroken $U(1)$ symmetry the photon is massless and has 2 physical degrees of freedom, the two transversal polarisations. The

complex scalar field Φ has two degrees of freedom. When $U(1)$ is broken we have a massive photon with 3 degrees of freedom (including longitudinal polarisation) and a massive real Higgs particle with one degree of freedom. The Goldstone boson has been *eaten* to give mass to the photon, *i.e.* to provide the longitudinal degree of freedom of the massive gauge particle.

We summarise: In gauge theories Goldstone bosons do not appear. They are *would-be* Goldstone bosons. Through spontaneous symmetry breaking they are directly absorbed into the longitudinal degrees of freedom of the massive gauge bosons. In gauge theories we have the following: Be

- N = dimension of the algebra of the symmetry group of the complete Lagrangian.
- M = dimension of the algebra of the group under which the vacuum is invariant after spontaneous symmetry breaking.
- n = The number of the scalar fields.

\Rightarrow

There are M massless vector fields. (M is the dimension of the symmetry of the vacuum.)

There are $N - M$ massive vector fields. ($N - M$ is the number of broken generators.)

There are $n - (N - M)$ scalar Higgs fields.

The reason is that gauge theories do not satisfy the assumptions on which the Goldstone theorem is based. To quantize electrodynamics, for example, one must choose between the Gupta-Bleuler formalism with its unphysical indefinite metric states or quantization in a physical gauge wherein manifest covariance is lost.

4.5 Addendum: Goldstone Theorem - Classical Field Theory

Proof of the Goldstone theorem in classical field theory:

The Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}(\partial\varphi)^2 - V(\varphi) \quad (4.22)$$

is invariant under the rotation

$$\varphi \rightarrow e^{-i\alpha_a R_a} \varphi \quad a = 1, \dots, N, \quad (4.23)$$

which can infinitesimally be written as

$$\varphi \rightarrow \varphi - i\alpha R\varphi \quad (4.24)$$

From the invariance it follows that

$$\delta V = \frac{\partial V}{\partial \varphi} \delta \varphi = -i\alpha \frac{\partial V}{\partial \varphi} R\varphi = 0 \quad \forall \alpha, \varphi \quad (4.25)$$

so that

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \varphi \partial \varphi} R\varphi + \frac{\partial V}{\partial \varphi} R = 0 \quad (4.26)$$

After spontaneous symmetry breaking we have the ground state

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial \varphi} = 0 \quad \text{for } \varphi = v \neq 0 \quad (4.27)$$

from which follows the Goldstone equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \varphi \partial \varphi} = 0 \quad \text{for } \varphi = v \quad (4.28)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \varphi \partial \varphi} \equiv M^2 \quad (4.29)$$

is the mass matrix of the system. Expanding φ about the ground state

$$\varphi = v + \varphi' \quad (4.30)$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= \frac{1}{2}(\partial \varphi)^2 - [V(v) + \overbrace{\frac{\partial V}{\partial \varphi}}^0 \varphi' + \frac{1}{2} \varphi' \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \varphi \partial \varphi} \varphi' + \dots] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\partial \varphi')^2 - \frac{1}{2} \varphi' \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \varphi \partial \varphi} \varphi' + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (4.31)$$

The Goldstone equation is thus the condition equation for the masses

$$\underline{\underline{M^2 R v = 0}} \quad (4.32)$$

- The equation is fulfilled if the generators R^a , $a = 1, 2, \dots, M$ leave the vacuum invariant: $R^a v = 0$.
- The remaining generators R^a , $a = M + 1, \dots, N$ form a set of linearly independent vectors $R^a v$. These are eigen-vectors of the zero-eigenvalues of the mass matrix M^2 . The zero-eigenvalue is hence $N - M$ times degenerated. Q.e.d.

Kapitel 5

The Standard Model of Particle Physics

The Standard Model of particle physics describes the today known basic building blocks of matter and (except for gravity) its interactions. These are the electromagnetic and the weak (the electroweak) and the strong interaction.

Before going into details we give a short historical overview of the steps towards the development of the electroweak theory by Sheldon Glashow, Abdus Salam and Steven Weinberg (1967).

5.1 A Short History of the Standard Model of Particle Physics

- Weak interaction: β decay [A. Becquerel 1896, Nobel Prize 1903¹]

Antoine Henri Becquerel (15.12.1852 - 25.8.1908) was a French physicist, Nobel Prize winner and discovered radioactivity.

In 1896, while investigating fluorescence in uranium salts, Becquerel discovered radioactivity accidentally. Investigating the work of Wilhelm Conrad Röntgen, Becquerel wrapped a fluorescent mineral, potassium uranyl sulfate, in photographic plates and black material in preparation for an experiment requiring bright sunlight. However, prior to actually performing the experiment, Becquerel found that the photographic plates were fully exposed. This discovery led Becquerel to investigate the spontaneous emission of nuclear radiation.

In 1903 he shared the Nobel Prize with Marie and Pierre Curie “in recognition of the extraordinary services he has rendered by his discovery of spontaneous radioactivity”.

$N \rightarrow N' + e^-$ violates energy and angular momentum conservation

Lise Meitner and Otto Hahn showed in 1911 that the energy of the emitted electrons is continuous. Since the released energy is constant, one had expected a discrete spectrum. In order to explain this obvious energy loss (and also the violation of angular momentum conservation) Wolfgang Pauli proposed in 1930 in his letter of Dec 4 to the

¹shared with Marie and Pierre Curie

“Dear radioactive ladies and gentlemen” (Lise Meitner et al.) the participation of a neutral, extremely light elementary particle (no greater than 1% the mass of a proton) in the decay process, which he called “neutron”. Enrico Fermi changed this name 1931 in “neutrino”, as a diminution form of the nearly at the same time discovered heavy neutron.

Lise Meitner (7. 11.1878 - 27.10.1968) was an Austrian physicist who investigated radioactivity and nuclear physics. Otto Hahn (8.3.1879 - 28.7.1968) was a German chemist and received in 1944 the Nobel Prize in chemistry. Wolfgang Ernst Pauli (25.4.1900 - 15.12.1958) was an Austrian physicist.

- The neutrino hypothesis: [W. Pauli 1930, Nobel Prize 1945]

$$N \rightarrow P + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$$

Spin = 1/2, Mass ≈ 0

In 1956 Clyde Cowan and Frederick Reines succeeded in the first experimental proof of the neutrino in one of the first big nuclear reactors.

Clyde Lorrain Cowan Jr (6.12.1919 - 24.5.1974) discovered together with Frederick Reines the neutrino. Frederick Reines (6.3.1918 - 26.8.1998) was an American physicist and won in 1995 the Nobel Prize of physics in the name of the two of them

- Proof of Neutrino:

$$N \rightarrow P + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e \quad \bar{\nu}_e + P \rightarrow N + e^+$$

The neutrino could be verified experimentally 1956 by Clyde L. Cowan and Frederick Reines in the inverse β decay ($\bar{\nu}_e + p \rightarrow e^+ + n$) at a nuclear reactor, which causes a much higher neutrino flux as radioactive elements in the β decay. (Nobel prize to Reines alone 1995, since Cowan died 1974.)

The muon neutrino was discovered 1962 by Jack Steinberger, Melvin Schwartz and Leon Max Lederman with the first produced neutrino beam at an accelerator. All three physicists received 1988 the Nobel Prize for their basic experiments about neutrinos - weakly interaction elementary particles with vanishing or very small rest mass.

In 2000, the tau-neutrino was found in the DONUT-experiment.

- The Fermi Theory [E. Fermi, Nobel Prize 1938]

Enrico Fermi developed a theory of weak interactions in analogy to quantum electrodynamics (QED), where four fermions directly interact with each other:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}} = \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} J_\mu J^\mu$$

[For small momentum transfers the reactions can be approximated by a point-like interaction.]

Enrico Fermi (29.9.1901 - 28.11.1954) was an Italian physicist He received the Nobel Prize for physics in 1938 for his work on induced radioactivity’.

The Fermi interaction consists of 4 fermions directly interacting with each other. For example a neutron (or down quark) can split into an electron, anti-neutrino and proton (or up quark). Tree-level Feynman diagrams describe this interaction remarkably well. However, no loop diagrams can be taken into account, since the Fermi interaction is *not renormalizable*. The solution consists in replacing the 4-fermion interaction by a more complete theory - with an exchange of a W or Z boson like in the electroweak

theory. This is then renormalizable. Before the electroweak theory was constructed George Sudarshan and Robert Marshak, and independently also Richard Feynman and Murray Gell-Mann were able to determine the correct tensor structure (vector minus axialvector $V - A$) of the 4-Fermi interaction.

- Die Yukawa Hypothesis: [*H. Yukawa, Nobel Prize 1949 for 'his prediction of mesons based on the theory of nuclear forces'*]

The pointlike Fermi coupling is the limiting case of the exchange of a “heavy photon” $\rightarrow W$ boson.

$$\frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} \text{ pointlike coupling} \approx \frac{g^2}{m_W^2 + Q^2} \approx \frac{g^2}{m_W^2} \text{ with exchange of a } W\text{-boson}$$

Hideki Yukawa (23.1.1907 - 8.9.1981) was a Japanese theoretical physicist and the first Japanese to win the Nobel Prize.

Hideki Yukawa established the hypothesis, that nuclear forces can be explained through the exchange of a new hypothetic particle between the nucleons, in the same manner as the electromagnetic force between two electrons can well be described by the exchange of photons. However, this particle exchanging the nuclear force should not be massless (as are the photons), but have a mass of 100 GeV. This value can be estimated from the range of the nuclear forces: the bigger the mass of the particle, the smaller the range of the interaction transmitted by the particle. A plausible argument for this connection is given by the energy-time uncertainty principle.

- Parity violation in the weak interaction [*T.D. Lee, C.N. Yang, Nobel Prize 1957, und C.-S. Wu*]

The $\tau - \theta$ puzzle: Initially there were known two different positively charged mesons with strangeness ($S \neq 0$). These were distinguished based on their decay processes:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \Theta^+ & \rightarrow & \pi^+ \pi^0 & P_{2\pi} = +1 \\ \tau^+ & \rightarrow & \pi^+ \pi^+ \pi^- & P_{3\pi} = -1 \end{array}$$

The final states of these two reactions have different parity. Since at that time it was assumed that parity is conserved in all reactions, the τ and θ would have had to be two different particles. However, precision measurements of mass and life time showed no difference between both particles. They seemed to be identical. The solution of this $\theta - \tau$ puzzle was the parity violation of the weak interaction. Since both mesons decay via weak interaction, this reaction need not conserve parity contrary to the initial assumption. Hence, both decays could stem from the same particle, which was then named K^+ .

$\Theta^+ = \tau^+ = K^+ \Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ violated. (π has negative parity.)

Tsung-Dao Lee (born November 24, 1926) is a Chinese American physicist. In 1957, Lee with C. N. Yang received the Nobel Prize in Physics for their work on the violation of parity law in weak interaction, which Chien-Shiung Wu experimentally verified. Lee and Yang were the first Chinese Nobel Prize winners. Mrs Chien-Shiung Wu (31. Mai 1912 in Liuho, Province Jiangsu, China ; - 16. Februar 1997 in New York, USA) was a Chinese-American physicist.*

V – A theory: One says, that parity is maximally violated. This means that the axial coupling has the same strength as the vectorial coupling: $|c_V| = |c_A|$. Since, as was shown in the Goldhaber experiment, there are only left-handed neutrinos and right-handed antineutrinos, one has rather: $c_V = -c_A$. This is why one calls the theory “V – A theory”.

- \mathcal{CP} violation [*Cronin, Fitch, Nobel Prize 1980*]

$$\begin{aligned} K_L^0 &\rightarrow 3\pi & \mathcal{CP} &= - \\ K_S^0 &\rightarrow 2\pi & \mathcal{CP} &= + \end{aligned}$$

Details: After the discovery of parity violation it was supposed widely that \mathcal{CP} is conserved. Assuming \mathcal{CP} symmetry, the physical Kaon states are given by the \mathcal{CP} eigenstates. The strong eigenstates K^0 , \bar{K}^0 are, however, no \mathcal{CP} eigenstates, since these two particles are their respective antiparticle. Hence, \mathcal{CP} eigenstates are linear combinations of these states.

$$|K_1^0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|K^0\rangle - |\bar{K}^0\rangle) \quad \text{with} \quad \mathcal{CP}|K_1^0\rangle = |K_1^0\rangle \quad (5.1)$$

$$|K_2^0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|K^0\rangle + |\bar{K}^0\rangle) \quad \text{with} \quad \mathcal{CP}|K_2^0\rangle = -|K_2^0\rangle \quad (5.2)$$

Supposing \mathcal{CP} symmetry these states can only decay under \mathcal{CP} conservation. For the neutral Kaons this leads to two different decay channels for K_1 and K_2 , with very different phase spaces and hence very different lifetimes:

$$K_1^0 \rightarrow 2\pi \quad (\text{quick, since big phase space}) \quad (5.3)$$

$$K_2^0 \rightarrow 3\pi \quad (\text{slow, since small phase space}) \quad (5.4)$$

In fact, one has found two different species of neutral Kaons, which are very different in their lifetimes. These were named K_L^0 (long-lived, average lifetime $(5.16 \pm 0.04) \cdot 10^{-8}$ s) and K_S^0 (short-lived, average lifetime $(8.953 \pm 0.006) \cdot 10^{-11}$ s). The average lifetime of the long-lived Kaon is about a factor 600 larger than the one of the short-lived Kaon.

\mathcal{CP} violation: Due to the supposed \mathcal{CP} symmetry it was natural to identify the K_1^0, K_2^0 with K_S^0, K_L^0 . Hence, the K_L^0 would always decay in three and never in two pions. But in reality James Cronin and Val Fitch found out 1964, that the K_L^0 decays with a small probability (about 10^{-3}) also in two pions. This leads to the fact, that the physical states are no pure \mathcal{CP} eigenstates, but contain a small amount ϵ of the other \mathcal{CP} eigenstate, respectively. One has without normalization:

$$|K_S^0\rangle = (|K_1^0\rangle + \epsilon|K_2^0\rangle) \quad (5.5)$$

$$|K_L^0\rangle = (|K_2^0\rangle + \epsilon|K_1^0\rangle) \quad (5.6)$$

This phenomenon has been checked very carefully in experiments and is called *\mathcal{CP} violation through mixing*, since it is given by the mixing of the \mathcal{CP} eigenstates to the physical eigenstate. Cronin and Fitch received 1980 the Nobel prize for their discovery. Since one can conclude this \mathcal{CP} violation only indirectly through the observation of the decay, it is also called **indirect \mathcal{CP} violation**. Also **direct \mathcal{CP} violation**, hence a violation directly in the observed decay, has been observed. The direct \mathcal{CP} violation is for Kaons another factor of 1000 smaller than the indirect one and was shown experimentally only three decades later at the turn to the 21st century.

Val Logsdon Fitch (10. March 1923 in Merriman, Nebraska), American physicist. Fitch received 1980 together with James Cronin the physics Nobel Prize for the discovery of violations of fundamental symmetry principles in the decay of James Watson Cronin (* 29. September 1931 in Chicago), US-American physicist.*

- Glashow-Salam-Weinberg Theory (GSW): [*S.L. Glashow, A. Salam, S. Weinberg, Nobel Prize 1979*]

Sheldon Lee Glashow (5. December 1932 in New York) is a US-American physicist and Nobel prize winner. He received 1979 together with Abdus Salam and Steven Weinberg the physics Nobel prize for their work on the theory of the unification of the weak and electromagnetic interaction between elementary particles, including among others the prediction of the Z boson and the weak neutral currents. Abdus Salam (* 29. Januar 1926 in Jhang, Pakistan; - 21. November 1996 in Oxford, England) was a Pakistanian physicist and Nobel prize winner. Steven Weinberg (* 3. Mai 1933 in New York City) is a US-American physicist and Nobel prize winner.*

The electromagnetic interaction is the unified theory of quantum electrodynamics and the weak interaction. Together with quantum chromodynamics it is a pillar of the Standard Model of physics. This unification was initially described theoretically by S.L. Glashow, A. Salam and S. Weinberg 1967. Experimentally the theory was confirmed 1973 indirectly through the discovery of the NC and 1983 through the experimental proof of the W and Z bosons. A peculiarity is the parity violation through the electroweak interaction.

5.2 Unitarity: Path to Gauge Theories

Fermi theory: μ, β decays, charged current (CC) reactions at small energies.

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}} = \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} j_\lambda^* j^\lambda \quad \begin{aligned} j_\lambda &= \bar{e} \gamma_\lambda (1 - \gamma_5) \nu_e + (\mu) + (q) \\ G_F &= 1.16 \cdot 10^{-5} / \text{GeV}^2 \end{aligned}$$

CC scattering at high energies:

$$\sigma(\bar{\nu}_e e^- \rightarrow \mu^- \bar{\nu}_\mu) = \frac{G_F^2 s}{\pi}$$

s-wave unitarity $\sigma_{LL} < \frac{4\pi}{s}$

[Partial-wave unitarity constrains the modulus of an inelastic partial-wave amplitude to be $|\mathcal{M}| < 1$. Make a partial-wave expansion of the scattering amplitude. The constraint is equivalent to $\sigma < \pi/p_{c.m.}^2$ for inelastic s-wave scattering.]

Domain of validity/unitarity constraint: $\sqrt{s} < (2\pi/G_F)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sim 700 \text{ GeV}$

\Rightarrow 4 steps are necessary to construct of the Fermi theory a consistent field theory with

attenuation of the 4-point coupling.

Although Fermi's phenomenological interaction was inspired by the theory of electromagnetism, the analogy was not complete, and one may hope to obtain a more satisfactory theory by pushing the analogy further. An obvious device is to assume that the weak interaction, like quantum electrodynamics, is mediated by vector boson exchange. The weak intermediate boson must have the following three properties:

- (i) It carries charge ± 1 , because the familiar manifestations of the weak interactions (such as β -decay) are charge-changing.
- (ii) It must be rather massive, to reproduce the short range of the weak force.
- (iii) Its parity must be indefinite.

1.) Introduction of charged W^\pm bosons [*Yukawa*]:

Interaction range $\sim m_W^{-1} \Rightarrow$

$E \rightarrow \infty : \sigma \sim \frac{G_F^2 m_W^2}{\pi} \rightarrow$ partial-wave unitarity is fulfilled; $G_F = g_W^2/m_W^2$.

2.) Introduction of a neutral vector boson W^3 [*Glashow*]:

The introduction of the intermediate boson softens the divergence of the s -wave amplitude for the above process, it gives rise, however, to new divergences in other processes:

Production of longitudinally polarized W 's in $\nu\bar{\nu}$ collisions.

$$\epsilon_\lambda^L = (\frac{k_0}{m_W}, 0, 0, \frac{E}{m_W}) \approx \frac{k_\lambda}{m_W}$$

$$\sigma(\nu\bar{\nu} \rightarrow W_L W_L) \sim \frac{g_W^4}{s} \left(\frac{\sqrt{s}}{m_W}\right)^4 \sim \frac{g_W^4 s}{m_W^4}$$

\leftarrow violates unitarity for $\sqrt{s} \gtrsim 1$ TeV.

Solution: Introduction of a neutral W^3 , coupled to fermions and W^\pm :

Condition for the disappearance of the linear s singularity:

$$I_{ik}^a I_{kj}^b - I_{ik}^b I_{kj}^a - i f_{abc} I_{ij}^c = 0$$

$[I^a, I^b] = i f_{abc} I^c$ The fermion-boson couplings form a Lie algebra
[associated to a non-abelian group].

$$\left. \begin{array}{ll} \text{Fermion-boson coupling} & \sim g_W \times \text{representation matrix} \\ \text{Boson-boson coupling} & \sim g_W \times \text{structure constants} \end{array} \right\} g_W \text{ universal.}$$

3.) 4-point coupling:

$$W_L W_L \rightarrow W_L W_L$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Amplitude} &\sim g_W^2 f^2 \frac{s^2}{m_W^4} + \dots \text{ compensated by: } -g_W^2 f^2 \frac{s^2}{m_W^4}: \\ &\quad \text{4-boson vertex: } \sim g_W^2 f \times f \end{aligned}$$

4.) Higgs particle: [*Weinberg, Salam*]

The remaining linear s divergence is canceled by the exchange of a scalar particle with a coupling \sim mass of the source.

$$\text{Amplitude} \sim -(g_W m_W)^2 \frac{1}{s} \left(\frac{\sqrt{s}}{m_W} \right)^4 \sim -g_W^2 \frac{s}{m_W^2}$$

The same mechanism cancels the remaining singularity in $f \bar{f} \rightarrow W_L W_L$ (f massive!)

Adding up the gauge diagrams we are left with $\sim g_W^2 \frac{m_f \sqrt{s}}{m_W^2}$

u	c	t	} Quarks
d	s	b	
ν_e	ν_μ	ν_τ	} Leptons
e	μ	τ	
1.	2.	3.	Family

Tabelle 5.1: Matter particles of the Standard Model.

$$\text{scalar diagram} \sim \sqrt{s} \left(g_W \frac{m_f}{m_W} \right) \frac{1}{s} (g_W m_W) \left(\frac{\sqrt{s}}{m_W} \right)^2 \sim g_W^2 \frac{\sqrt{s} m_f}{m_W^2}$$

Summary:

A theory of massive gauge bosons and fermions that are weakly coupled up to very high energies, requires, by unitarity, the existence of a Higgs particle; the Higgs particle is a scalar 0^+ particle that couples to other particles proportionally to the masses of the particles.

\Rightarrow Non-abelian gauge field theory with spontaneous symmetry breaking.

5.3 Gauge Symmetry and Particle Content

The underlying gauge symmetry of the SM is the $SU(3)_C \times SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$. The $SU(3)_C$ describes QCD. The conserved charge associated with QCD is the colour charge. The corresponding gauge bosons that mediate the interaction (and are hence called interaction particles) are the 8 massless gluons. The $SU(2)_L$ describes the weak isospin interactions acting only between the left-handed fermions, and $U(1)_Y$ the weak hypercharge interactions that differ between the left- and right-handed fermions. The isospin and hypercharge interactions are partly unified in the electroweak interactions which are spontaneously broken. The electroweak interaction is mediated by three W boson fields and one B field associated with hypercharge. These fields mix to form two charged W^\pm bosons and the neutral Z boson of the weak interactions and the photon γ of the electromagnetic interactions. These particles are interaction particles and carry spin 1. The conserved charges associated with the electroweak sector are the weak isospin and the weak hypercharge.

The particle content is given by the *matter* particles and the *interaction particles*. The matter particles are fermions with spin 1/2 and are subdivided in three families. They comprise 6 quarks and 6 leptons. We know three up-type (up, charm, top) and three down-type (down, strange, bottom) quarks. The leptons consist of three charged (e, μ, τ) and three neutral leptons, the neutrinos (ν_e, ν_μ, ν_τ), cf. Table 5.1.

The 3 lepton and quark families have identical quantum numbers, respectively, and are only distinguished through their masses. Therefore, when discussing the gauge interaction it is sufficient to consider only one family. The transformation behaviour of the quark and lepton fields under the SM gauge groups is summarized (for one generation) in Table 5.2.

The masses of the particles are generated through spontaneous symmetry breaking (SSB). For this a complex Higgs doublet ($d_D = 4$ degrees of freedom) is added together with the

Field	$U(1)_Y \times SU(2)_L \times SU(3)_C$
$Q_L = \begin{pmatrix} u_L \\ d_L \end{pmatrix}$	$(\frac{1}{3}, \mathbf{2}, \mathbf{3})$
u_R	$(\frac{2}{3}, \mathbf{1}, \bar{\mathbf{3}})$
d_R	$(-\frac{4}{3}, \mathbf{1}, \bar{\mathbf{3}})$
$L_L = \begin{pmatrix} e_L \\ \nu_{eL} \end{pmatrix}$	$(-1, \mathbf{2}, \mathbf{1})$
e_R	$(2, \mathbf{1}, \bar{\mathbf{1}})$

Tabelle 5.2: Transformation behaviour under the SM gauge groups.

Higgs potential V . The SSB breaks down the $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ ($d_{EW} = 4$) to the electromagnetic $U(1)_{em}$ ($d_{em} = 1$). The electromagnetic charge hence remains conserved. Associated with this SSB are $d_{EW} - d_{em} = 4 - 1 = 3$ would-be Goldstone bosons that are absorbed to give masses to the W^\pm and Z bosons. The photon remains massless. Furthermore, after SSB there are $d_D - (d_{EW} - d_{em}) = 4 - (4 - 1) = 4 - 3 = 1$ Higgs particles in the spectrum.

One last remark is at order: We know that the neutrinos have mass. When we formulate the SM in the following we will neglect the neutrino mass and assume neutrinos to be massless. For the treatment of massive neutrinos we refer to the literature.

5.4 Glashow-Salam-Weinberg Theory for Leptons

We only consider the first lepton generation, *i.e.* e, ν_e . The generalization to the other generations is trivial. We have the

electromagnetic interaction:

$$\mathcal{L}_{int} = -e_0 j_\mu^{elm} A^\mu \quad \text{with} \quad (5.7)$$

$$j_\mu^{elm} = -\bar{e} \gamma_\mu e, \quad (5.8)$$

where e_0 denotes the elementary charge with $\alpha = e_0^2/4\pi$. And we have the

weak interaction:

$$\mathcal{L}_W = -\frac{4G_F}{\sqrt{2}} j_\mu^- j^{\mu+} \quad (5.9)$$

in the Fermi notation for charged currents,

with

$$j_\mu^+ = \bar{\nu}_e \gamma_\mu \frac{1 - \gamma_5}{2} e = \bar{\nu}_{eL} \gamma_\mu e_L \quad (\text{left-chiral}) \quad (5.10)$$

$$j_\mu^- = (j_\mu^+)^* \quad (5.11)$$

G_F denotes the Fermi constant, $G_F \approx 10^{-5}/m_P^2$.

The next steps are:

- Resolve the 4-Fermi coupling through the exchange of a heavy vector boson. Apart from the vector boson mass the structure of the weak interaction is similar to the one of electrodynamics.
- Construction of the theory as gauge field theory with spontaneous symmetry breaking, to guarantee renormalizability.
- Analysis of the physical consequences of the symmetry and its breaking.

The free Lagrangian for the electrons and left-handed neutrinos² is given by the following expression that takes into account that the particles are massless in case of chiral invariance,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_0 &= \bar{e}i\cancel{\partial}e + \bar{\nu}_{eL}i\cancel{\partial}\nu_{eL} \\ &= \bar{e}_Li\cancel{\partial}e_L + \bar{e}_Ri\cancel{\partial}e_R + \bar{\nu}_{eL}i\cancel{\partial}\nu_{eL},\end{aligned}\tag{5.12}$$

where

$$f_{R,L} = \frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \gamma_5)f\tag{5.13}$$

The free Lagrangian \mathcal{L}_0 is $SU(2)_L$ symmetric. The associated conserved charge is the weak isospin:

$$\begin{aligned}\begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L &: \text{Isodoublet mit } I(\nu_{eL}) = I(e_L) = \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad I_3(\nu_{eL}) = +\frac{1}{2} \\ &I_3(e_L) = -\frac{1}{2} \\ e_R &: \text{Isosingulett mit } I(e_R) = I_3(e_R) = 0\end{aligned}\tag{5.14}$$

The Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}_0 = \overline{\begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L} i\cancel{\partial} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L + \bar{e}_R i\cancel{\partial} e_R\tag{5.15}$$

is invariant under the global isospin transformation

$$\begin{aligned}\begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L &\rightarrow e^{-\frac{i}{2}g\vec{\alpha}\vec{\tau}} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L \\ e_R &\rightarrow e_R\end{aligned}\tag{5.16}$$

The theory becomes locally $SU(2)_L$ invariant through the introduction of an isovector \vec{W}_μ of vector fields with minimal coupling:

$$\left. \begin{array}{ll} \text{doublet} & : i\cancel{\partial} \rightarrow i\cancel{\partial} - \frac{g}{2}\vec{\tau}\vec{W} \\ \text{singlet} & : i\cancel{\partial} \rightarrow i\cancel{\partial} \end{array} \right\} \quad \text{from: } i\cancel{\partial} \rightarrow i\cancel{\partial} - g\vec{I}\vec{W}\tag{5.17}$$

²The Goldhaber experiment (1957) has shown, that neutrinos appear in nature only as left-handed particles. This is a confirmation of the $V - A$ theory that predicts the parity violation of the weak interaction.

The resulting interaction Lagrangian for the lepton- W coupling reads:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_{int} &= -\frac{g}{2} \overline{\begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L} \gamma_\mu \vec{\tau} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L \vec{W}^\mu \\ &= -\frac{g}{2\sqrt{2}} \bar{\nu}_e \gamma_\mu (1 - \gamma_5) e W^{+\mu} + h.c. - \frac{g}{4} \{ \bar{\nu}_e \gamma_\mu (1 - \gamma_5) \nu_e - \bar{e} \gamma_\mu (1 - \gamma_5) e \} W^{3\mu} \quad (5.18)\end{aligned}$$

where we have introduced

$$W^\pm = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (W^1 \mp iW^2) . \quad (5.19)$$

From Eq. (5.18) we can read off

- The charged lepton current has per construction the correct structure.
- W_μ^3 , the neutral isovector field cannot be identified with the photon field A_μ since the electromagnetic current does not contain any ν 's and furthermore has a pure vector character (and hence does not contain a γ_5).

This leads to the formulation of the minimal $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ gauge theory:

The Lagrangian \mathcal{L}_0 , Eq. (5.18), has an additional $U(1)$ gauge symmetry (after coupling \vec{W}) and associated with this the weak hypercharge. The quantum numbers are defined in such a way that we obtain the correct electromagnetic current:

(In order to include electromagnetism we define the “weak hypercharge”.)

$$\begin{aligned}j_\mu^{elm} = -\bar{e} \gamma_\mu e &= -\bar{e}_L \gamma_\mu e_L - \bar{e}_R \gamma_\mu e_R \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \overline{\begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L} \gamma_\mu \tau_3 \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L}_{\text{Isovector current, coupling to } W_\mu^3} - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \overline{\begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L} \gamma_\mu 1 \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L - \bar{e}_R \gamma_\mu e_R}_{\text{Isosinglets, for the construction of the hypercharge current}} \quad (5.20)\end{aligned}$$

The hypercharge quantum numbers are

$$Y(\nu_{eL}) = Y(e_L) = -1 \quad (5.21)$$

$$Y(e_R) = -2 . \quad (5.22)$$

This follows from the requirement that the Gell-Mann Nishijima relation³ holds

$$\underline{\underline{Q = I_3 + \frac{1}{2}Y}} \quad (5.23)$$

Local gauge invariance is achieved through the minimal coupling of the gauge vector field,

$$i\partial \rightarrow i\partial - \frac{g'}{2} Y B . \quad (5.24)$$

³Originally this equation was derived from empiric observations. Nowadays it is understood as result of the quark model.

This leads to the Lagrangian

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{int} = & -\frac{g}{\sqrt{2}}\bar{\nu}_{eL}\gamma_\mu e_L W^{+\mu} + h.c. - \frac{g}{2}\{\bar{\nu}_{eL}\gamma_\mu \nu_{eL} - \bar{e}_L\gamma_\mu e_L\}W^{3\mu} \\ & + g'\left\{\frac{1}{2}\bar{\nu}_{eL}\gamma_\mu \nu_{eL} + \frac{1}{2}\bar{e}_L\gamma_\mu e_L + \bar{e}_R\gamma_\mu e_R\right\}B^\mu \end{aligned} \quad (5.25)$$

From the Lagrangian Eq (5.25) we can read off:

- The charged currents remain unchanged.
- We can introduce a mixture between W^3 and B in such a way that the pure parity invariant electron photon interaction is generated. We are left with a neutral current interaction with the orthogonal field combination:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} A_\mu &= \cos\theta_W B_\mu + \sin\theta_W W_\mu^3 \\ Z_\mu &= -\sin\theta_W B_\mu + \cos\theta_W W_\mu^3 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \left. \begin{aligned} B_\mu &= \cos\theta_W A_\mu - \sin\theta_W Z_\mu \\ W_\mu^3 &= \sin\theta_W A_\mu + \cos\theta_W Z_\mu \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (5.26)$$

Here θ_W denotes the Weinberg angle. Rewriting the Lagrangian in terms of A_μ and Z_μ leads to the A_μ coupling

$$A_\mu \left\{ \bar{\nu}_{eL}\gamma_\mu \nu_{eL} \left\{ -\frac{g}{2}\sin\theta_W + \frac{g'}{2}\cos\theta_W \right\} + \bar{e}_L\gamma_\mu e_L \left\{ \frac{g}{2}\sin\theta_W + \frac{g'}{2}\cos\theta_W \right\} + \bar{e}_R\gamma_\mu e_R g' \cos\theta_W \right\} \quad (5.27)$$

The neutrino ν can be eliminated through

$$\tan\theta_W = \frac{g'}{g} . \quad (5.28)$$

(The photon only couples to charge particles!) The correct e -coupling is obtained by

$$\left. \begin{aligned} g' \cos\theta_W &= e_0 \\ g \sin\theta_W &= e_0 \end{aligned} \right\} \frac{1}{e_0^2} = \frac{1}{g^2} + \frac{1}{g'^2} \quad (5.29)$$

The lepton-boson interaction hence reads

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{int} = & -\frac{g}{2\sqrt{2}}\bar{\nu}_e\gamma_\mu(1-\gamma_5)e_L W^{+\mu} + h.c. \\ & - \frac{g}{4\cos\theta_W}\{\bar{\nu}_e\gamma_\mu(1-\gamma_5)\nu_e - \bar{e}\gamma_\mu(1-\gamma_5)e + 4\sin^2\theta_W\bar{e}\gamma_\mu e\}Z^\mu \\ & + e_0\bar{e}\gamma_\mu e A^\mu \end{aligned} \quad (5.30)$$

The first line describes the charged current interactions, the second the neutral current interaction and the third line the electromagnetic interactions.

The coupling constants of the theory are: $[g, g']$ or $[e_0, \sin\theta_W]$.

- The coupling $e_0 = \sqrt{4\pi\alpha} \sim \frac{1}{3}$ is fixed within electromagnetism.
- The second parameter is not fixed through the weak interactions as the charged current only fixes the relation $\frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{g^2}{8m_W^2}$.

With the notation

$$\begin{aligned}
 j_\mu^- &= \bar{\nu}_e \gamma_\mu \frac{1 - \gamma_5}{2} e \\
 j_\mu^3 &= \left(\begin{array}{c} \nu_e \\ e \end{array} \right)_L \gamma_\mu \frac{\tau^3}{2} \left(\begin{array}{c} \nu_e \\ e \end{array} \right)_L \\
 j_\mu^{em} &= -\bar{e} \gamma_\mu e
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.31}$$

the interaction Lagrangian can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}_{int} &= -\frac{g}{\sqrt{2}} j_\mu^- W^{+\mu} + h.c. \\
 &\quad -\frac{g}{\cos \theta_W} \{j_\mu^3 - \sin^2 \theta_W j_\mu^{em}\} Z^\mu \\
 &\quad -e_0 j_\mu^{em} A^\mu
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.32}$$

where $g = \frac{e_0}{\sin \theta_W}$.

However, the Lagrangian does not contain mass terms for the fermions and gauge bosons yet. The theory must be modified in such a way that the particles obtain their mass without getting into conflict with the gauge symmetry underlying the theory.

5.5 Introduction of the W, Z Boson and Fermion Masses

Let us repeat. With the currents

$$\begin{aligned}
 j_\mu^\pm &= \bar{l}_L \gamma_\mu \tau^\pm l_L \quad \text{where } l_L = (\nu_e, e)_L^T \\
 j_\mu^3 &= \bar{l}_L \gamma_\mu \frac{1}{2} \tau^3 l_L
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.33}$$

$$j_\mu^{em} = -\bar{e} \gamma_\mu e \tag{5.34}$$

the interaction Lagrangian can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}_{int} &= -\frac{g}{\sqrt{2}} j_\mu^- W^{+\mu} + h.c. \\
 &\quad -\frac{g}{\cos \theta_W} \{j_\mu^3 - \sin^2 \theta_W j_\mu^{em}\} Z^\mu
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.35}$$

$$-e_0 j_\mu^{em} A^\mu \tag{5.36}$$

and the couplings fulfill the relations

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{g'}{g} &= \tan \theta_W \\
 \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} &= \frac{g^2}{8m_W^2} \\
 e_0 &= g \sin \theta_W .
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.37}$$

The generation of masses for the 3 vector fields, hence the absorption of 3 Goldstone bosons, is not possible with 3 scalar fields. The minimal solution is the introduction of one complex doublet with 4 degrees of freedom,

$$\phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_+ \\ \phi_0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad \begin{aligned} \phi_+ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\phi_1 + i\phi_2) \\ \phi_0 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\phi_3 + i\phi_4) \end{aligned} \quad (5.38)$$

The Lagrangian of the doublet field ϕ is given by

$$\underline{\underline{\mathcal{L}_\phi = \partial_\mu \phi^* \partial^\mu \phi - \mu^2 \phi^* \phi - \lambda(\phi^* \phi)^2}} \quad (5.39)$$

It is $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ invariant. The field ϕ transforms as

$$\phi \rightarrow e^{-\frac{i}{2}g\vec{\alpha}\vec{\tau}} e^{-\frac{i}{2}g'\beta} \cdot \phi \quad (5.40)$$

After spontaneous symmetry breaking the vacuum expectation value of the scalar field is

$$\langle \phi \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ v \end{pmatrix} \quad v^* = v \quad (5.41)$$

It breaks the $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ symmetry, but is invariant under the $U(1)_{em}$ symmetry, generated by the electric charge operator. Since each (would-be) Goldstone boson is associated with a generator that breaks the vacuum, we have $4 - 1 = 3$ Goldstone bosons. The quantum numbers of the field ϕ are

$$\left. \begin{aligned} I_3(\phi_+) &= +\frac{1}{2} & Y(\phi_+) &= +1 \\ I_3(\phi_0) &= -\frac{1}{2} & Y(\phi_0) &= +1 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \begin{aligned} Q(\phi_+) &= 1 \\ Q(\phi_0) &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (5.42)$$

(The field ϕ transforms as an $SU(2)_L$ doublet and therefore has to have the hypercharge $Y_\phi = 1$.) The gauge fields are introduced through minimal coupling,

$$i\partial_\mu \rightarrow i\partial_\mu - \frac{g}{2}\vec{\tau}\vec{W}_\mu - \frac{g'}{2}B_\mu. \quad (5.43)$$

Expanding about the minimum of the Higgs potential

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_+(x) &\rightarrow 0 \\ \phi_0(x) &\rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}[v + \chi(x)] \quad \chi^* = \chi \end{aligned} \quad (5.44)$$

one obtains from the kinetic part of the Lagrangian of the scalar field

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_m &= \left| \left[\left(i\frac{g}{2}\vec{\tau}\vec{W} + i\frac{g'}{2}B \right) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \right] \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{v^2}{4} \begin{pmatrix} W_1 \\ W_2 \\ W_3 \\ B \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} g^2 & & & \\ & g^2 & & \\ & & g^2 & -gg' \\ & & -gg' & g'^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} W_1 \\ W_2 \\ W_3 \\ B \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (5.45)$$

with the eigenvalues of the mass matrix given by

$$\begin{aligned} m_1^2 &= m_2^2 = \frac{g^2 v^2}{4} \\ m_3^2 &= \frac{(g^2 + g'^2) v^2}{4} \\ m_4^2 &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (5.46)$$

Thereby the masses of the gauge bosons read

$$m_\gamma^2 = 0 \quad (5.47)$$

$$m_W^2 = \frac{1}{4}g^2v^2 \quad (5.48)$$

$$m_Z^2 = \frac{1}{4}(g^2 + g'^2)v^2 \quad (5.49)$$

They fulfill the following mass relations:

(i) W boson mass: We have $e_0^2 = g^2 \sin^2 \theta_W = 4\sqrt{2}G_F \sin^2 \theta_W m_W^2$, so that

$$m_W^2 = \frac{\pi\alpha}{\sqrt{2}G_F} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta_W} \quad (5.50)$$

with $\alpha \approx \alpha(m_Z^2)$ (effective radiative correction). With $\sin^2 \theta_W \approx 1/4$ the W boson mass is $m_W \approx 80$ GeV.

(ii) Z boson mass: With

$$\frac{m_W^2}{m_Z^2} = \cos^2 \theta_W \quad (5.51)$$

we obtain

$$\sin^2 \theta_W = 1 - \frac{m_W^2}{m_Z^2} \quad (5.52)$$

Finally one obtains with Eq. (5.48) for the Higgs vacuum expectation value

$$\frac{1}{v^2} = \frac{g^2}{4m_W^2} = \sqrt{2}G_F \quad (5.53)$$

and thereby

$$v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sqrt{2}G_F}} \approx 246 \text{ GeV} \quad (5.54)$$

The vacuum expectation value v is the characteristic scale of electroweak symmetry breaking.

The Higgs mechanism for charged lepton masses: The fermions couple via the gauge-invariant Yukawa coupling to the Higgs field ϕ :

The interaction Lagrangian reads

$$\mathcal{L}(ee\phi) = -\overline{f_e} \begin{pmatrix} \nu_e \\ e \end{pmatrix}_L \phi e_R + h.c. \quad (5.55)$$

It is invariant under $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$. After expansion of the Higgs field around the VEV one obtains

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}(ee\Phi) &= -f_e \frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} [\bar{e}_L e_R + \bar{e}_R e_L] + \dots \\
 &= -f_e \frac{v}{\sqrt{2}} \bar{e} e + \dots \\
 &= -m_e \bar{e} e + \dots
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.54}$$

The electron mass is given by

$$m_e = \frac{f_e v}{\sqrt{2}} \tag{5.55}$$

5.6 Quarks in the Glashow-Salam-Weinberg Theory

In this chapter the hadronic sector is implemented in the SM of the weak and electromagnetic interactions. This is done in the context of the quark model. Since quarks and leptons resemble each other, the construction on the quark level is obvious, but not trivial.

We know from the previous chapters that the lepton currents are built from multiplets.

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \nu_e \\ e^- \end{array} \right)_L \quad e_R^- \quad \left(\begin{array}{c} \nu_\mu \\ \mu^- \end{array} \right)_L \quad \mu_R^- \quad \left(\begin{array}{c} \nu_\tau \\ \tau^- \end{array} \right)_L \quad \tau_R^- \tag{5.56}$$

This can be generalized to the quark currents.

For the quark currents for u, d, s we have:

- 1) The electromagnetic current, after summation over all possible charges, is given by

$$j_\mu^{elm} = \sum_{Q_q} Q_q \bar{q} \gamma_\mu q = \frac{2}{3} \bar{u} \gamma_\mu u - \frac{1}{3} \bar{d} \gamma_\mu d - \frac{1}{3} \bar{s} \gamma_\mu s \tag{5.57}$$

- 2) From low-energy experiments (pion and Kaon decays) it followed that the left-handed weak current, the Cabibbo current, is given by⁴

$$\begin{aligned}
 j_\mu^- &= \cos \theta_c \bar{u} \gamma_\mu \frac{1}{2} (1 - \gamma_5) d + \sin \theta_c \bar{u} \gamma_\mu \frac{1}{2} (1 - \gamma_5) s \\
 &= \bar{u} \gamma_\mu \frac{1}{2} (1 - \gamma_5) [\cos \theta_c d + \sin \theta_c s]
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.57}$$

⁴Cabibbo's conjecture was that the quarks that participate in the weak interactions are a mixture of the quarks that participate in the strong interaction. The mixing was originally postulated by Cabibbo (1963) to explain certain decay patterns in the weak interactions and originally had only to do with the d and s quarks.

with $\sin^2 \theta_c \approx 0.05$. We define the Cabibbo rotated quarks

$$\begin{aligned} d_c &= \cos \theta_c d + \sin \theta_c s \\ s_c &= -\sin \theta_c d + \cos \theta_c s \end{aligned} \quad (5.57)$$

Here,

d, s are different direction in the (u, d, s) space of quarks, characterized by different masses, *i.e.* we are in the mass basis.

d_c, s_c are directions in the quark space, characterized through the weak interaction, they represent the current basis.

The current j_μ^\pm can be expressed through $j_\mu^\mp = \bar{Q}_L \gamma_\mu \tau^\mp Q_L$ with the definitions of the multiplets given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} u \\ d_c \end{pmatrix}_L \quad s_{cL} \quad \begin{pmatrix} u_R \\ d_{cR} \end{pmatrix} \quad s_{cR} \quad (5.58)$$

3) The corresponding neutral isovector current is then given by

$$\begin{aligned} j_\mu^3 &= \sum_{\text{doublets}} \bar{Q}_L \gamma_\mu \frac{1}{2} \tau^3 Q_L \\ &\sim \bar{u}_L \gamma_\mu u_L - \bar{d}_{cL} \gamma_\mu d_{cL} \\ &= \bar{u}_L \gamma_\mu u_L - \cos^2 \theta_c \bar{d}_L \gamma_\mu d_L - \sin^2 \theta_c \bar{s}_L \gamma_\mu s_L \\ &\quad - \sin \theta_c \cos \theta_c [\bar{d}_L \gamma_\mu s_L + \bar{s}_L \gamma_\mu d_L] \end{aligned} \quad (5.56)$$

The first line is a diagonal neutral current. The second line is a strangeness changing neutral current with the strength $\sim \sin \theta_c$, like the strangeness changing charged current.

This is in striking contradiction with the experimental non-observation of strangeness changing neutral current reactions. There are strict experimental limits on the decay rates that are mediated by strangeness changing neutral currents like

$$\begin{aligned} 1) \quad \frac{\Gamma(K_L \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-)}{\Gamma(K^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_\mu)} &< \sim 4 \cdot 10^{-9} (\text{exp}) \\ 2) \quad \frac{\Gamma(K^+ \rightarrow \pi \nu \bar{\nu})}{\Gamma(K^+ \rightarrow \text{all})} &< 1.4 \cdot 10^{-7} (\text{exp}) \end{aligned} \quad (5.56)$$

$$3) \quad \frac{|m(K_L) - m(K_S)|}{m(K)} < 7 \cdot 10^{-15} m_{K^0} (\text{exp}) \quad (5.57)$$

1) The observed rate for the decay $K_L \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ can be understood in terms of QED and the known $K_L \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$ transition rate and leaves little room for an elementary $\bar{s}d \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$ transition.

2) The decay $K^+ \rightarrow \pi \nu \bar{\nu}$ can be understood in terms of the elementary reaction $\bar{s} \rightarrow \bar{d} \nu \bar{\nu}$.

3) Similarly the smallness of observables linked to $|\Delta S| = 2$ transition amplitudes, such as the $K_L - K_S$ mass difference leaves little room for strangeness changing neutral currents.

Thus, in the Weinberg-Salam model, or more generally in models that allow for neutral

current relations that are proportional to the third component of the weak isospin, it is important to prevent the appearance of strangeness changing neutral currents. An elegant solution to the problem of flavour-changing neutral currents was proposed by Glashow, Iliopoulos and Maiani.

We need a “natural mechanism”, *i.e.* originating from a symmetry, stable against perturbations, that suppresses 8 orders of magnitude. This can be achieved through the introduction of a fourth quark, the charm quark c . [Glashow, Iliopoulos, Maiani, PRD2(70)1985]

The new multiplet structure is then given by

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} u \\ d_c \end{array} \right)_L \quad \left(\begin{array}{c} c \\ s_c \end{array} \right)_L \quad \begin{array}{cc} u_R & c_R \\ d_{cR} & s_{cR} \end{array} \quad (5.58)$$

(a) The isovector current now reads:

$$j_\mu^3 = \sum_{\text{doublets}} \bar{Q}_L \gamma_\mu \frac{1}{2} \tau^3 Q_L = \frac{1}{2} [\bar{u}_L \gamma_\mu u_L - \bar{d}_L \gamma_\mu d_L + \bar{c}_L \gamma_\mu c_L - \bar{s}_L \gamma_\mu s_L] \quad (5.59)$$

The addition of the charm quark c diagonalizes the neutral current (*GIM mechanism*) and eliminates $\Delta S \neq 0$, NC reactions.

(b) The electromagnetic current is given by:

$$j_\mu^{em} = \frac{2}{3} [\bar{u} \gamma_\mu u + \bar{c} \gamma_\mu c] - \frac{1}{3} [\bar{d} \gamma_\mu d + \bar{s} \gamma_\mu s] \quad (5.60)$$

(c) The charged current reads:

$$j_\mu^- = \bar{u} \gamma_\mu \frac{1}{2} (1 - \gamma_5) [\cos \theta_c d + \sin \theta_c s] + \bar{c} \gamma_\mu \frac{1}{2} (1 - \gamma_5) [-\sin \theta_c d + \cos \theta_c s] \quad (5.61)$$

The first term is the Cabibbo current, the second the charm current with strong (c, s) coupling.

In 1973 (1 year before the discovery of the charm quark!) Kobayashi and Maskawa extended Cabibbo's idea to six quarks. We thereby obtain a 3×3 matrix that mixes the weak quarks and the strong quarks. Only in this way the CP violation can be explained. (We come back to this point later.) We also need the 3rd quark family to obtain an anomaly-free theory. We call anomalies terms that violate the classical conservation laws. Thus it can happen that a (classical) local conservation law derived from gauge invariance with the help of Noether's theorem holds at tree level but is not respected by loop diagrams. The simplest example of a Feynman diagram leading to an anomaly is a fermion loop coupled to two vector currents and one axial current. Because the weak interaction contains both vector and axial vector currents there is a danger that such diagrams may arise in the Weinberg-Salam theory and destroy the renormalizability of the theory. The anomaly is canceled if for each lepton doublet we introduce three quark doublets corresponding to the three quark colours. Since we have three lepton doublets we need to introduce a third quark doublet (with three colours). This was also supported by the observation of a fifth quark (the b quark) in the Υ family.

5.7 The CKM Matrix

5.7.1 Die Fermion Yang-Mills Lagrangian

If we take the down-type quarks in the current basis, then the matrix for the weak interaction of the fermions is diagonal (see also Eqs. (5.57) and (5.61)). With the definitions

$$\begin{aligned} U &= \begin{pmatrix} u \\ c \\ t \end{pmatrix} & D' &= \begin{pmatrix} d' \\ s' \\ b' \end{pmatrix} \\ E &= \begin{pmatrix} e \\ \mu \\ \tau \end{pmatrix} & N_L &= \begin{pmatrix} \nu_{eL} \\ \nu_{\mu L} \\ \nu_{\tau L} \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned} \quad (5.61)$$

where ' denotes the fields in the current basis, we obtain for the Yang-Mills Lagrangian

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{YM-F} &= (\bar{U}_L, \bar{D}'_L) i\gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu + igW_\mu^a \frac{\tau^a}{2} + ig'Y_L B_\mu) \begin{pmatrix} U_L \\ D'_L \end{pmatrix} \\ &+ (\bar{N}_L, \bar{E}_L) i\gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu + igW_\mu^a \frac{\tau^a}{2} + ig'Y_L B_\mu) \begin{pmatrix} N_L \\ E_L \end{pmatrix} \\ &+ \sum_{\Psi_R=U_R, D'_R, E_R} \bar{\Psi}_R i\gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu + ig'Y_R B_\mu) \Psi_R \\ &= \bar{U} i\partial U + \bar{D}' i\partial D' + \bar{E} i\partial E + \bar{N}_L i\partial N_L + \mathcal{L}_{int}. \end{aligned} \quad (5.59)$$

The interaction Lagrangian reads

$$\mathcal{L}_{int} = -eJ_{em}^\mu A_\mu - \frac{e}{\sin\theta_W \cos\theta_W} J_{NC}^\mu Z_\mu - \frac{e}{\sqrt{2}\sin\theta_W} (J^{-\mu} W_\mu^+ + h.c.). \quad (5.60)$$

The electromagnetic current is given by

$$J_{em}^\mu = Q_u \bar{U} \gamma^\mu U + Q_d \bar{D}' \gamma^\mu D' + Q_e \bar{E} \gamma^\mu E, \quad (5.61)$$

the neutral weak current by

$$\begin{aligned} J_{NC}^\mu &= (\bar{U}_L, \bar{D}'_L) \gamma^\mu \frac{\tau_3}{2} \begin{pmatrix} U_L \\ D'_L \end{pmatrix} + (\bar{N}_L, \bar{E}_L) \gamma^\mu \frac{\tau_3}{2} \begin{pmatrix} N_L \\ E_L \end{pmatrix} - \sin^2\theta_W J_{em}^\mu \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \bar{U}_L \gamma^\mu U_L - \frac{1}{2} \bar{D}'_L \gamma^\mu D'_L + \frac{1}{2} \bar{N}_L \gamma^\mu N_L - \frac{1}{2} \bar{E}_L \gamma^\mu E_L - \sin^2\theta_W J_{em}^\mu \end{aligned} \quad (5.61)$$

and the charged weak current by

$$\begin{aligned} J^{-\mu} &= (\bar{U}_L, \bar{D}'_L) \gamma^\mu \frac{\tau_1 + i\tau_2}{2} \begin{pmatrix} U_L \\ D'_L \end{pmatrix} + (\bar{N}_L, \bar{E}_L) \gamma^\mu \frac{\tau_1 + i\tau_2}{2} \begin{pmatrix} N_L \\ E_L \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \bar{U}_L \gamma^\mu D'_L + \bar{N}_L \gamma^\mu E_L. \end{aligned} \quad (5.61)$$

(The latter is purely left-handed and diagonal in generation space.)

5.7.2 Mass Matrix and CKM Matrix

Remark: Be χ_1, χ_2 $SU(2)$ doublets. Then there are two possibilities to form an $SU(2)$ singlet:

- 1) $\chi_1^\dagger \chi_2$ and $\chi_2^\dagger \chi_1$
- 2) $\chi_1^T \epsilon \chi_2$ and $\chi_2^T \epsilon \chi_1$, where

$$\epsilon = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} .$$

Proof: Perform an $SU(2)$ transformation

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_1(x) &\rightarrow U(x)\chi_1(x) & \chi_1^\dagger &\rightarrow \chi_1^\dagger U^{-1} \\ \chi_2(x) &\rightarrow U(x)\chi_2(x) & \chi_2^\dagger &\rightarrow \chi_2^\dagger U^{-1} , \end{aligned} \quad (5.60)$$

where

$$U(x) = e^{i\omega_a(x)\tau^a/2} . \quad (5.61)$$

- 1) is invariant under this transformation.
- 2) Here we have

$$(U\chi_1)^T \epsilon U\chi_2 = \chi_1^T U^T \epsilon U\chi_2 = \chi_1^T \epsilon \chi_2 \quad (5.62)$$

because with

$$U = e^{iA} = \sum_0^\infty \frac{(iA)^n}{n!} \Rightarrow U^T = \sum_n \frac{(iA^T)^n}{n!} , \quad A = \omega_a(x) \frac{\tau^a}{2} . \quad (5.63)$$

And since $(\tau^a)^T \epsilon = -\epsilon \tau^a$, we obtain

$$U^T \epsilon U = \epsilon U^{-1} U = \epsilon , \quad (5.64)$$

so that also 2) is invariant.

The Yukawa Lagrangian: We write up the most general, renormalizable, $SU(2)_L \times U(1)_Y$ invariant Hermitean fermion-fermion-boson Lagrangian. With the $SU(2)$ doublets

$$\begin{pmatrix} U_L \\ D'_L \end{pmatrix} , \begin{pmatrix} N_L \\ E_L \end{pmatrix} , \Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi^+ \\ \phi^0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (5.65)$$

and the $SU(2)$ singlets

$$U_R , D'_R , E_R \quad (5.66)$$

we can construct 2 $SU(2)$ invariant interactions,

$$\Phi^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} \psi_{1L} \\ \psi_{2L} \end{pmatrix} = (\phi^+)^* \psi_{1L} + (\phi^0)^* \psi_{2L} \quad (5.67)$$

and

$$\Phi^T \epsilon \begin{pmatrix} \psi_{1L} \\ \psi_{2L} \end{pmatrix} = \phi^+ \psi_{2L} - \phi^0 \psi_{1L} , \quad (5.68)$$

so that for the Yukawa Lagrangian that conserves also the hypercharge we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{Yuk} = & -(\bar{e}_R, \bar{\mu}_R, \bar{\tau}_R) C_E \begin{pmatrix} \Phi^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} \nu_{eL} \\ e_L \end{pmatrix} \\ \Phi^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} \nu_{\mu L} \\ \mu_L \end{pmatrix} \\ \Phi^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} \nu_{\tau L} \\ \tau_L \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} + (\bar{u}_R, \bar{c}_R, \bar{t}_R) C_U \begin{pmatrix} \Phi^T \epsilon \begin{pmatrix} u_L \\ d'_L \end{pmatrix} \\ \Phi^T \epsilon \begin{pmatrix} c_L \\ s_L \end{pmatrix} \\ \Phi^T \epsilon \begin{pmatrix} t_L \\ b'_L \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \\ & -(\bar{d}'_R, \bar{s}'_R, \bar{b}'_R) C_D \begin{pmatrix} \Phi^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} u_L \\ d'_L \end{pmatrix} \\ \Phi^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} c_L \\ s_L \end{pmatrix} \\ \Phi^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} t_L \\ b'_L \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} + h.c. . \end{aligned} \quad (5.68)$$

The C_E, C_U, C_D are arbitrary complex matrices. We perform through the following unitary transformations a transition into an equivalent field basis (Fields are no observables!)

$$\begin{aligned} N_L(x) & \rightarrow V_1 N_L(x) & U_L(x) & \rightarrow V_2 U_L(x) \\ E_L(x) & \rightarrow V_1 E_L(x) & D'_L(x) & \rightarrow V_2 D'_L(x) \\ E_R(x) & \rightarrow U_1 E_R(x) & U_R(x) & \rightarrow U_2 U_R(x) \\ & & D'_R(x) & \rightarrow U_3 D'_R(x) , \end{aligned} \quad (5.66)$$

where U_1, U_2, U_3, V_1, V_2 are unitary 3×3 matrices. Since the lepton and quark doublets transform in the same way this does not change the Yang-Mills-, the Higgs- and the Yang-Mills fermion Lagrangian. Only the C matrices are changed:

$$C_E \rightarrow U_1^\dagger C_E V_1 \quad C_U \rightarrow U_2^\dagger C_U V_2 \quad C_D \rightarrow U_3^\dagger C_D V_2 . \quad (5.67)$$

By choosing the U_1^\dagger and V_1 matrices appropriately we can diagonalize C_E ,

$$U_1^\dagger C_E V_1 = \begin{pmatrix} h_e & & \\ & h_\mu & \\ & & h_\tau \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with } h_e, h_\mu, h_\tau \geq 0 . \quad (5.68)$$

Similarly,

$$U_2^\dagger C_U V_2 = \begin{pmatrix} h_u & & \\ & h_c & \\ & & h_t \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with } h_u, h_c, h_t \geq 0 . \quad (5.69)$$

Eq. (5.69) fixes the matrix V_2 . By choosing U_3 appropriately we obtain

$$U_3^\dagger C_D V_2 = \begin{pmatrix} h_d & & \\ & h_s & \\ & & h_b \end{pmatrix} V^\dagger \quad \text{with } h_u, h_c, h_t \geq 0 . \quad (5.70)$$

where V^\dagger is a unitary matrix. We transform D'_R by $D'_R \rightarrow V^\dagger D'_R$ and obtain

$$C_D \rightarrow V \begin{pmatrix} h_d & & \\ & h_s & \\ & & h_b \end{pmatrix} V^\dagger . \quad (5.71)$$

We expand Φ around the vacuum expectation value

$$\Phi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{v+H(x)}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (5.72)$$

where $H(x)$ is a real field, and obtain

$$\begin{aligned} & (\bar{d}'_R, \bar{s}'_R, \bar{b}'_R) V \begin{pmatrix} h_d & & \\ & h_s & \\ & & h_b \end{pmatrix} V^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} \Phi^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} u_L \\ d'_L \end{pmatrix} \\ \Phi^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} c_L \\ s'_L \end{pmatrix} \\ \Phi^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} t_L \\ b'_L \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= (\bar{d}'_R, \bar{s}'_R, \bar{b}'_R) V \begin{pmatrix} h_d & & \\ & h_s & \\ & & h_b \end{pmatrix} V^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(v+H(x))d'_L \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(v+H(x))s'_L \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(v+H(x))b'_L \end{pmatrix} . \end{aligned} \quad (5.72)$$

After a basis transformation

$$\begin{pmatrix} d \\ s \\ b \end{pmatrix} = V^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} d' \\ s' \\ b' \end{pmatrix} \quad (5.73)$$

we finally have

$$(\bar{d}_R, \bar{s}_R, \bar{b}_R) \begin{pmatrix} h_d & & \\ & h_s & \\ & & h_b \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(v+H(x)) \begin{pmatrix} d_L \\ s_L \\ b_L \end{pmatrix} . \quad (5.74)$$

The Yang-Mills and the Higgs Lagrangian do not change under the transformation (5.73). But the Yang-Mills fermion Lagrangian becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{YM-F} &= \bar{U}i\cancel{\partial}U + \bar{D}i\cancel{\partial}D + \bar{E}i\cancel{\partial}E + \bar{N}_Li\cancel{\partial}N_L - eJ_{em}^\mu A_\mu \\ &\quad - \frac{e}{\sin\theta_W \cos\theta_W} J_{NC}^\mu Z_\mu - \frac{e}{\sqrt{2}\sin\theta_W} (J^{-\mu}W_\mu^+ + h.c.) . \end{aligned} \quad (5.74)$$

with

$$J^{-\mu} = \bar{U}_L\gamma^\mu D'_L + \bar{N}_L\gamma^\mu E_L = \bar{U}_L\gamma^\mu V D_L + \bar{N}_L\gamma^\mu E_L . \quad (5.75)$$

The unitary 3×3 matrix V is called CKM (Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa) mixing matrix.

The matrix V is unitary, *i.e.* $V^\dagger V = VV^\dagger = 1$. We investigate the number of free parameters. For a complex $n \times n$ matrix we have $2n^2$ free parameters. Since the matrix is unitary, the number of free parameters is reduced by n^2 equations. Furthermore the phases can be absorbed by a redefinition of the fermion fields, so that the number of free parameters is reduced by further $(2n-1)$ conditions:

<u>Parameters:</u>	$n \times n$ complex matrix:	$2n^2$
	unitarity:	n^2
	free phase choice:	$\frac{2n-1}{(n-1)^2}$ free parameters

In the Euler parametrisation we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rotation angles: } & \frac{1}{2}n(n-1) \\ \text{phases: } & \frac{1}{2}(n-1)(n-2) \end{aligned}$$

Thus we find for $n = 2, 3$

n	angles	phases
2	1	0
3	3	1

We thereby find that in a

$$\begin{aligned} 2 - \text{family theory} & \sim \text{Cabibbo: no } \mathcal{CP} \text{ violation with } L \text{ currents} \\ 3 - \text{Familien Theorie} & \sim \text{KM: complex matrix} \rightarrow \mathcal{CP} \text{ violation} \\ & \quad \underline{\text{“Prediction of a 3-family structure”}} \end{aligned}$$

Next we investigate how we can parametrise the matrix:

(i) Esthetic parametrisation:

$$V_{CKM} = R_{sb}(\theta_2)U(\delta)R_{sd}(\theta_1)R_{sb}(\theta_3) \quad (5.74)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} 0 & \leq \theta_i \leq \pi/2 \\ -\pi & \leq \delta \leq +\pi \end{aligned} \quad (5.74)$$

and

$$R_{sb}(\theta_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \\ 0 & \cos \theta_2 & \sin \theta_2 \\ 0 & -\sin \theta_2 & \cos \theta_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{etc.} \quad U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{i\delta} \end{pmatrix} \quad (5.75)$$

(ii) Convenient parametrisation (Wolfenstein):

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2 & \lambda & A\lambda^3(\rho - i\eta) \\ -\lambda & 1 - \frac{1}{2}\lambda^2 & A\lambda^2 \\ A\lambda^3(1 - \rho - i\eta) & -A\lambda^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (5.76)$$

The determination of the parameters is done by

- (a) Cabibbo theory: $\lambda = 0.221 \pm 0.002$
- (b) $b \rightarrow c$ decays: $V_{cb} = A\lambda^2 \rightarrow A = 0.78 \pm 0.06$
- (c) $b \rightarrow u$ decays: $|V_{ub}/V_{cb}| = 0.08 \pm 0.02 \rightarrow (\rho^2 + \eta^2)^{1/2} = 0.36 \pm 0.09$
- (d) t matrix elements through unitarity

(e) \mathcal{CP} violation:

The unitarity of the CKM matrix leads to the unitarity triangle

$$\begin{aligned} V_{ud}^*V_{td} + V_{us}^*V_{ts} + V_{ub}^*V_{tb} &= 0 \\ A\lambda^3(1 - \rho - i\eta) - A\lambda^3 + A\lambda^3(\rho + i\eta) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow (\rho + i\eta) + (1 - \rho - i\eta) &= 1 \end{aligned} \quad (5.75)$$

We hence have the unitarity triangle

with the edges $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, (ρ, η) (in the complex plane) and the angles α, β, γ . The determination is done through

- (i) $\rho^2 + \eta^2$, circle around 0, from $b \rightarrow u$ and $b \rightarrow c$ decays.
- (ii) $\eta > 0$ from the \mathcal{CP} violation in the K system.
- (iii) $B_d - \bar{B}_d$ oscillations:

$$|1 - \rho - i\eta| = 1.03 \pm 0.22$$

- (iv) β from \mathcal{CP} violation in $B \rightarrow J/\Psi K$
- α from \mathcal{CP} violation in $B \rightarrow \pi\pi$
- γ from \mathcal{CP} violation in $B \rightarrow \rho K$