

## Lecture 13

### Noether's Theorem

Lagrangian may be invariant under some type of transformation (variation)

eg:  $\phi \rightarrow \phi + \delta$

This transformation is a symmetry of the Lagrangian

Say  $\phi$  is complex: 2 DoF  $\phi$  and  $\phi^*$ .

And you have a Lagrangian given by

$$\mathcal{L} = (\partial_\mu \phi)(\partial^\mu \phi^*) - m^2 \phi \phi^*$$

symmetry

$$\phi \rightarrow e^{-i\alpha} \phi \qquad \phi^* \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \phi^*$$

Whenever we have a continuous symmetry (meaning there is a continuous limit)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}}{\delta \alpha} = 0 &= \sum_n \left[ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_n} \frac{\delta \phi_n}{\delta \alpha} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \phi_n)} \frac{\delta (\partial_\mu \phi_n)}{\delta \alpha} \right] \\ &= \sum_n \left[ \underbrace{\left[ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_n} - \partial_\mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \phi_n)} \right]}_{=0 \text{ Euler Lagrange}} \frac{\delta \phi_n}{\delta \alpha} + \partial_\mu \left[ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \phi_n)} \frac{\delta \phi_n}{\delta \alpha} \right] \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\phi_n = \{\phi, \phi^*\}$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\partial_\mu J^\mu = 0$$

with

$$J^\mu = \sum_n \left[ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_\mu \phi_n)} \frac{\delta \phi_n}{\delta \alpha} \right]$$

$J^\mu$  is a conserved current. “Noether’s Current”

total “charge”

$$Q \equiv \int d^3x J_0$$

$$\partial_t Q = \int d^3x \partial_t J_0 = \underbrace{\int d^3x \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}}_{\text{Vanishes on the Boundary}} = 0$$

Q does not change with time!

Very general and important theorem “Noether’s Theorem”

If  $\mathcal{L}$  has (“enjoys”) a continuous symmetry, there exists an associated current that is conserved.

$$\phi(x) \rightarrow \phi(x + \epsilon) = \phi(x) + \epsilon^\mu \partial_\mu \phi(x)$$

This leaves  $\mathcal{L}$  and  $\mathcal{S}$  invariant and gives a four vector of noether currents.

$\Rightarrow$  Noether’s theorem tells us why energy and momentum are conserved.

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## Cross Sections And Decay Rates

20th century witnessed the development of collider physics. Effective means to determine which particles exist and their properties and interactions.

- Rutherford discovery of the nucleus using  $\alpha$  1911
- Andersen's discovery of anti-electrons 1932

These were made with "Natural accelerators"  $\alpha$ 's or cosmic rays

Around 1930 man made collisions started winning.

eg: 1 MeV

Now 13 TeV at the LHC.

Collisions map free fixed momenta initial states  $\rightarrow$  final fixed momentum states.

QFT predicts probability for projections to occur.

Probabilities typically dependant on parameters (angles, momenta, etc)

$P(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  - differential probabilities

Given by

$$|\langle \psi_{final}, +\infty | \psi_{initial}, -\infty \rangle|^2$$

$\langle f | S | i \rangle$                       S-matrix

QFT tell us how to calculate S given some Lagrangian (next week)

S-matrix elements are the primary object of interest for particle physics.

In this lecture we will relate S-matrix elements to scattering       $\left| \begin{array}{l} \text{cross sections} \\ \text{decay rates} \end{array} \right.$       which  
we can measure experimentally

## Cross Sections

Aside:

Probabilities are dimensionless and [0-1] absolute  $\Rightarrow$  extremely subtle to calculate P need to know all possible outcomes a priori!

QM  $\Rightarrow$  need complete basis.

Usually impossible in QCD

# final states $\infty$
final states not fully known

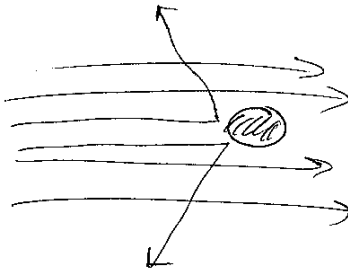
(Particle decays is an exception)

Natural quantity to measure.

eg: Rutherford was interested in the size of the nucleus.

By colliding  $\alpha$ -particles w/gold foil and measuring how many particles are scattered, can determine  $\sigma = \pi r^2$

Single nucleus



$$\sigma = \frac{\text{\#- scattered}}{\text{time} \times (\text{Number density in beam}) \times \text{velocity of beam}} = \frac{1}{T} \frac{1}{\Phi} N$$

Real Experiment other factors:

number density of nuclei in foil
cross sectional area of the beam (if smaller than foil)

This stuff and T and  $\Phi$  depend on details of the experiment.

In contrast,  $\sigma$  is a property of particles being scattered.

In QM generalize notion of cross sectional area to “cross section”

-units of area
-abstract measure of interaction strength

eg: Classically the  $\alpha$  will either scatter or not.

Quantum Mechanically, there is some probability for scattering.

$$d\sigma = \frac{1}{T} \underbrace{\frac{1}{\Phi}}_{\text{Normalized to one particle}} \underbrace{dP}_{\text{QM probability of scattering}}$$

$\left| \frac{d\sigma}{dP} \right|$  - differential in kinematic variables  $\theta$ 's and  $P$ 's

$$\underbrace{dN}_{\text{\#of scatters}} = \underbrace{L}_{\text{"integrated luminosity"}} \times d\sigma$$

(take eq as definition of L)

So number of observed events is direct measurement of cross section (See in presentation and papers)

Relate to S-matrix

practically impossible to collide more than two particles at a time.

$|i\rangle$  will always be a 2 particle state

$$P_1 + P_2 \rightarrow \{P_j\}$$

Rest frame of one particles  $\Phi = \frac{|\vec{v}|}{V}$

Center of mass frame  $\Phi = \frac{|\vec{v}_1 - \vec{v}_2|}{V}$

So,

$$d\sigma = \frac{V}{T} \frac{1}{|\vec{v}_1 - \vec{v}_2|} dP$$

$$dP = \frac{|\langle f|S|i\rangle|^2}{\langle f|f\rangle \langle i|i\rangle} \underbrace{d\Pi}_{\text{Region of final state momenta we are considering}}$$

On interval of size L, the momenta of available states are  $P_n = \frac{2\pi n}{L}$  (from particle in a box).

$\Rightarrow$  throughout a volume  $V$

$$N = \int \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} d^3 p$$

$$d\Pi = \prod_j \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} d^3 p_j$$

where  $j$  runs over final state particles.

OK, let's deal with the normalization factors.

Note,  $\langle f|f \rangle$  and  $\langle i|i \rangle \neq 1$  (The inner products are not Lorentz invariant...)

$$\begin{aligned} \langle p'|p \rangle &= (2\pi)^3 2E \delta^3(p' - p) \\ \langle p|p \rangle &= (2\pi)^3 2E_p \delta^3(0) \\ &= 2E_p V \end{aligned}$$

we say the  $\delta^3(0)$  is “regulated by  $V$ ”.

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^3(p) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3 x e^{ipx} \\ \delta^3(0) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3 x = \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\langle i|i \rangle = \langle p_1 p_2 | p_1 p_2 \rangle = 2E_1 V 2E_2 V$$

$$\langle f|f \rangle = \prod_j (2E_j V)$$

Now have to deal with  $\langle f|S|i \rangle$

$S$  elements always calculated perturbatively

$$S = \underbrace{1}_{\text{free theory}} + \underbrace{iT}_{\text{perturbatively small}}$$