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=>

NUCLEAR PHYSICS (II)

ISOSPIN SYMMETRY,

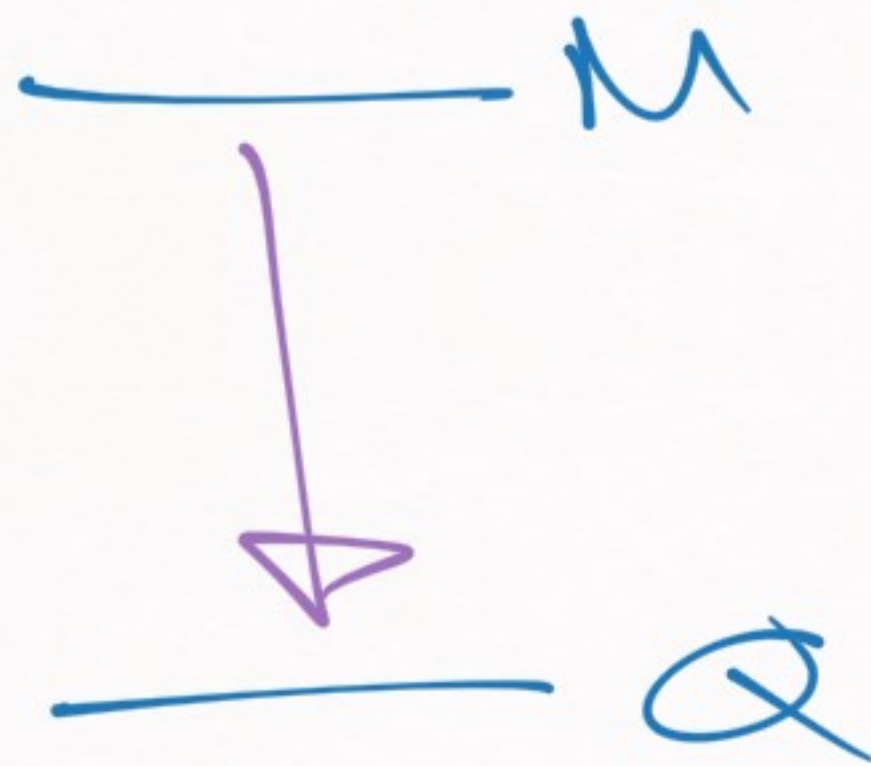
$SU(3)$ -FLAVOR SYMMETRY,

CHIRAL SYMMETRY
(FIRST PART)



RECAP

→ POWER COUNTING IN EFT



→ the point is to do
an expansion in Q/M



[if $Q/M \ll 1 \Rightarrow$ this will
converge quickly]

If we consider the most simple type of EFT

$$V_C(\vec{q}) = C_0 + C_1 \vec{q}^2 + C_2 \vec{q}^4 + \dots$$

Two types
of counting

$$C_0 \sim \frac{1}{M^2}$$

$$C_{2n} \sim \frac{1}{M^{2+2n}}$$

$(2n > 0)$

$$C_0 \sim \frac{1}{M^2 Q}$$

$$C_{2n} \sim \frac{1}{Q^2 M^{2n}}$$

→ ⇒ a list of ways to justify this result



(check previous lesson for a total
of six justifications)

→ [ISOSPIN SYMMETRY]

(motivation) → n, p

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} m_p = 938.272 \text{ MeV} \\ m_n = 939.563 \text{ MeV} \end{array} \right.$$

$$m_n \leq m_p$$

$$\frac{m_n - m_p}{m_p} \sim \frac{1.3}{1000}$$

(tiny difference)



→ Is this fortuitous or a symmetry?
→ How to exploit this theoretically?

$m_p \simeq m_n$

→ not the only instance

$$\left. \begin{aligned} m_{\pi^{\pm}} &= 139.570 \\ m_{\pi^0} &= 135.977 \end{aligned} \right\} \rightarrow$$

↑

$$\boxed{m_{\pi^{\pm}} \simeq m_{\pi^0}}$$

Symmetry \rightarrow we can use it to our advantage

(n, p) \rightarrow two-different states of
same particles

Analogous to $(e^-) \rightarrow |e(\uparrow)\rangle, |e(\downarrow)\rangle$
different spins

try approach similar to spin

→ isospin

$$|p\rangle = |N(\uparrow)_I\rangle = |1/2, 1/2\rangle_I$$

$$|n\rangle = |N(\downarrow)_I\rangle = |1/2, -1/2\rangle_I$$

Analogy of $(S, m_S) \Rightarrow (I, m_I)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\pi^+\rangle &= |1\ 1\rangle \\
 |\pi^0\rangle &= |1\ 0\rangle \\
 |\pi^-\rangle &= -|1\ -1\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$



$$|\pi_1\rangle \sim |1\ m_1\rangle$$

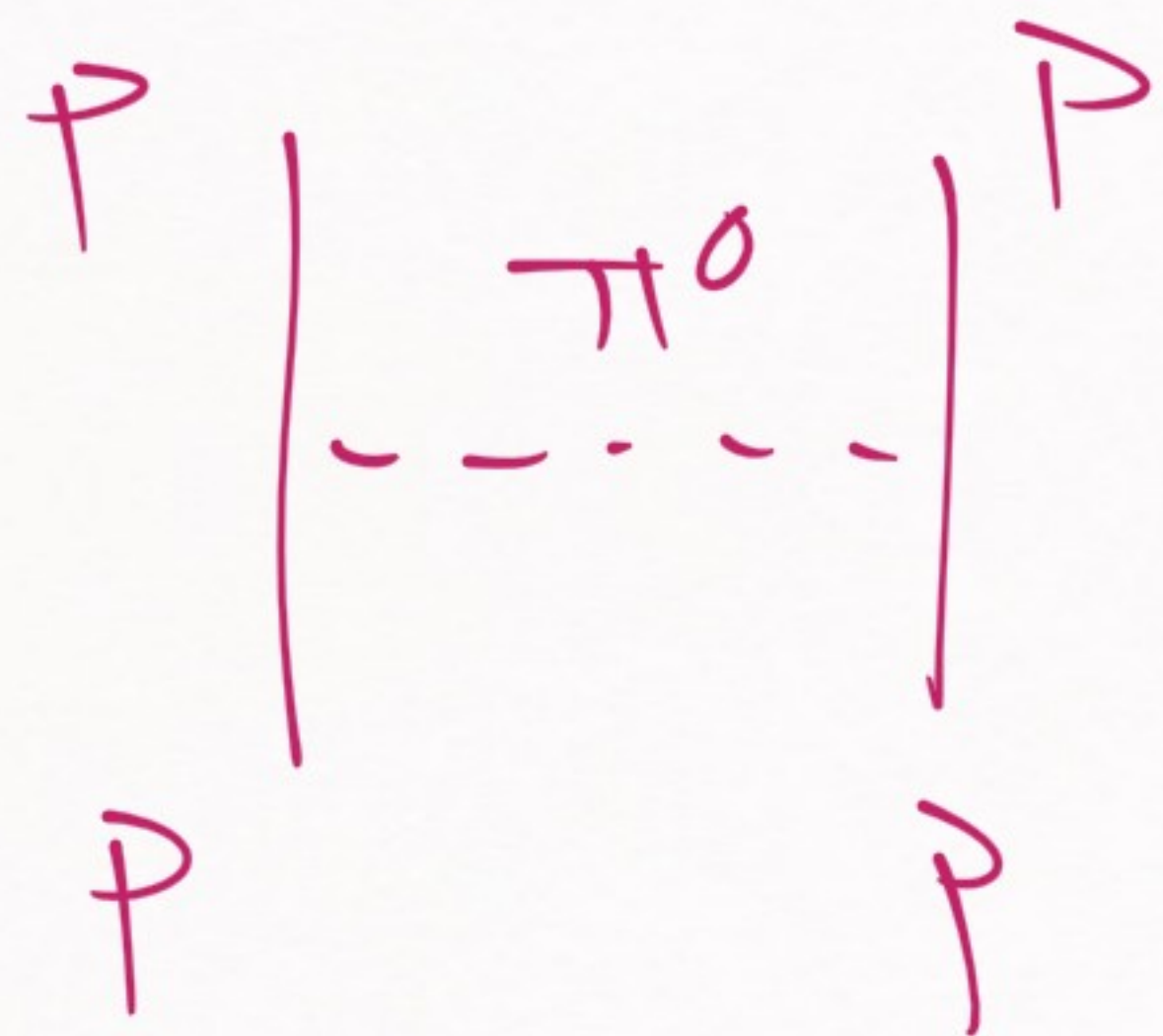


useful convention

(for other purposes)



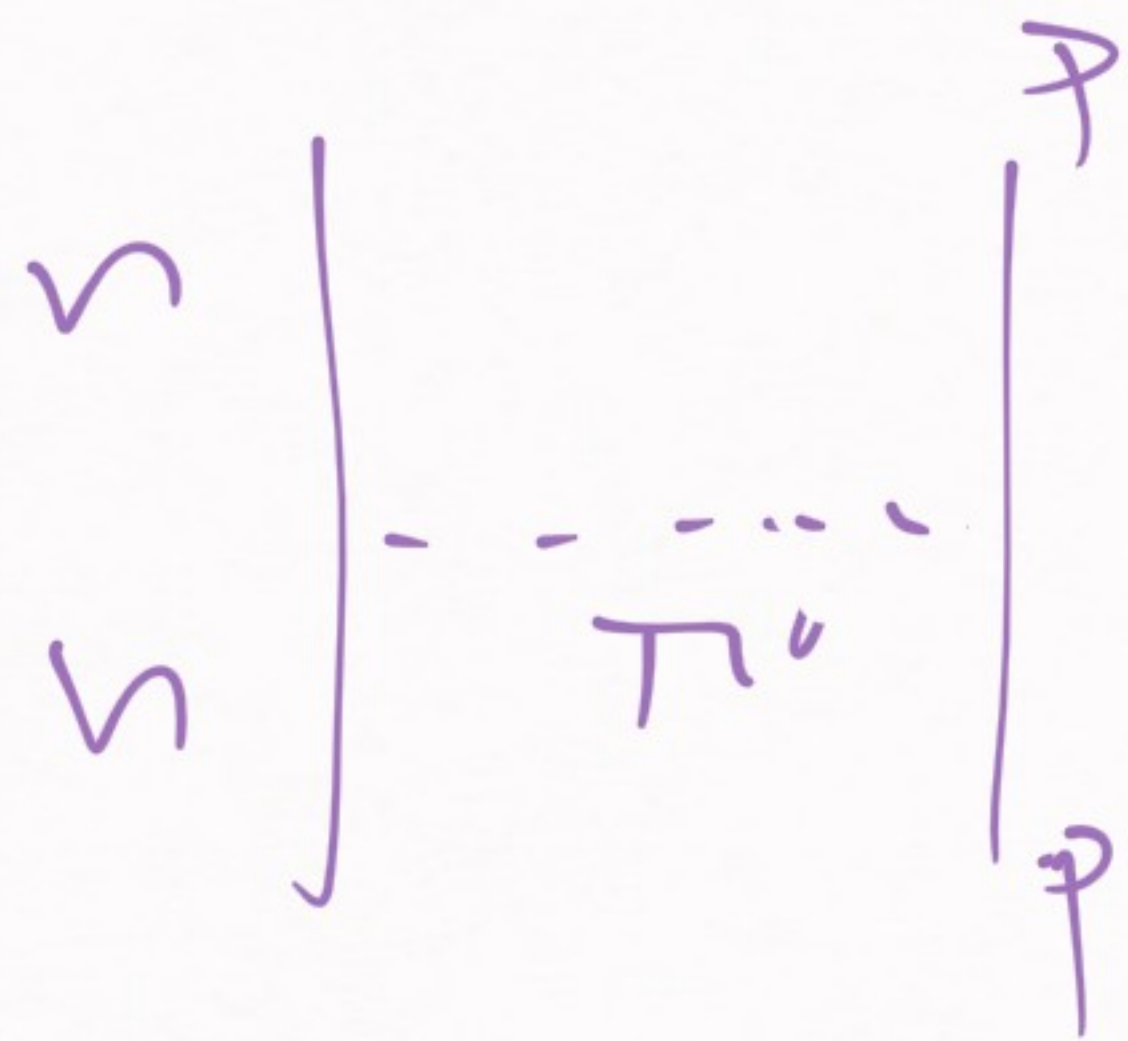
[Consequences] \rightarrow (NN Potential)



$$= V_0 \left(\frac{1}{r} \right)$$

$$= - \frac{g^2}{4f_\pi^2}$$

$$\frac{m_\pi^2 \cdot \frac{1}{r}}{4f_\pi^2}$$



\rightarrow ?

⇒ Isospin formalism answers these questions

↘

$110 \rangle$
 π^0
 \rightarrow

$(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$
 $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$
 $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$

$$= \left(\frac{g}{2L_n} \sigma \cdot \underline{g} \right) = \text{vertex}(pp\pi)$$

↘

$\lambda \langle \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 10 | \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \rangle$

↘

analogy to $SU(7)$ spin

↘

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} \pi & p \\ \hline \lambda & \end{array} \right) = \lambda \left\langle \left(1, -1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \mid \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \right\rangle$$

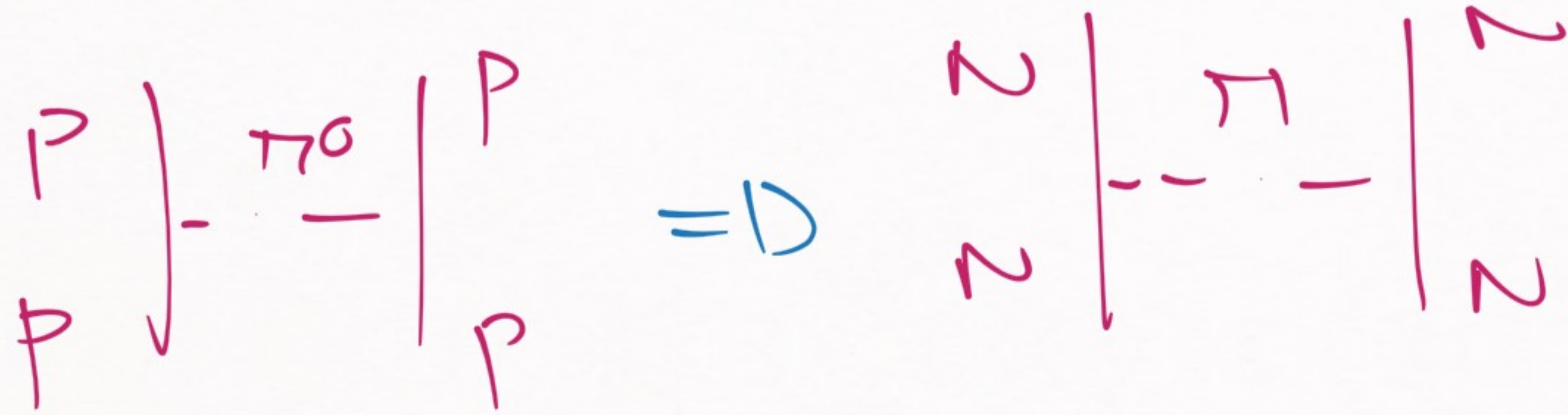
Reminder $\rightarrow \langle s_1, m_1, s_2, m_2 \mid S, m \rangle$ are
 the Clebsch-Gordan coefficients

\downarrow

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \left(\begin{array}{c} \pi \\ \Delta \end{array} \right) \\ \downarrow \\ n \end{array}}{\begin{array}{c} \left(\begin{array}{c} \pi \\ \Delta \end{array} \right) \\ \downarrow \\ p \end{array}} \sim \frac{\left\langle 1 \ -1 \ \frac{1}{7} \ \frac{1}{2} \ \middle| \ \frac{1}{7} \ -\frac{1}{7} \right\rangle}{\left\langle 10 \ \frac{1}{7} \ \frac{1}{7} \ \middle| \ \frac{1}{7} \ \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle} \sim \pm \sqrt{2}$$

→ this is how we can apply
isospin here

w/icospin

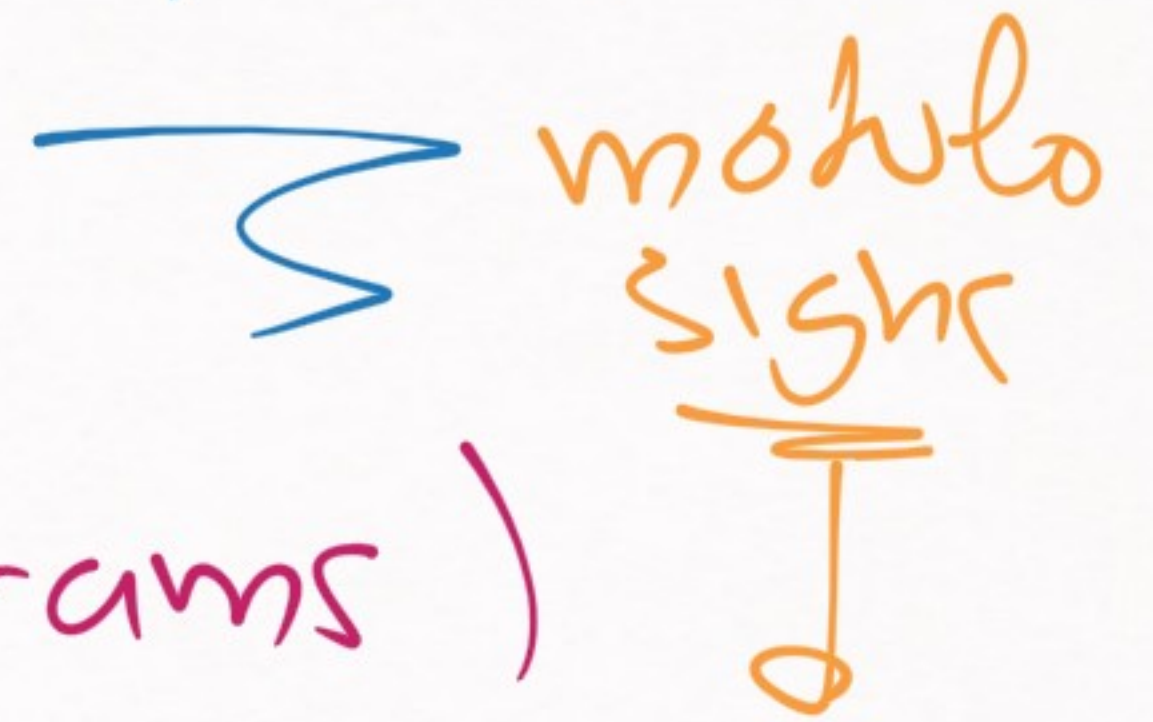


(any combination of $n, p, \pi^+, \pi^-, \pi^0$)

Best way to do this:


$\pi^a \rightarrow Z^a$ (in the diagrams)

$a = 1, 2, 3$ (cartesian basis) $\left(\pi^+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\pi^1 + i\pi^2) \right)$



$$\begin{array}{c} P \\ \vdots \\ P \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} \tau^G \\ \vdots \\ \tau^G \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{c} P \\ \vdots \\ P \end{array} = V_0 \left(\begin{array}{c} \tau \\ \tau \end{array} \right) \sim \begin{array}{c} \tau \\ \tau \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} \tau \\ \vdots \\ \tau \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{c} \tau \\ \tau \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \tau \\ \tau_1, \tau_2 \end{array} V_0 \left(\begin{array}{c} \tau \\ \tau \end{array} \right)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \tau_1, \tau_2 \\ \vdots \\ \tau_1, \tau_2 \end{array} = \left. \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ -3 \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{c} \tau = 1 \\ \tau = 0 \end{array} \\
 = \text{DIP}$$

Exactly the same
 as τ_1, τ_2
 w / spin


⊗ ⇒ Isospin coupling (like spin)

two spin- $1/2$ particles $1/2 \otimes 1/2 = 0 \oplus 1$

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} |11\rangle = |1/2, 1/2\rangle |1/2, 1/2\rangle \\ |10\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|1/2, 1/2\rangle |1/2, -1/2\rangle \\ \quad + |1/2, -1/2\rangle |1/2, 1/2\rangle) \end{array} \right)$$

e^{-1}

Same thing for isospin

$$|NN\rangle_{\mathbb{I}=0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \alpha \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = 0 \oplus 1$$

$$|NN(\mathbb{I}=0)\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|pn\rangle - |np\rangle) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{deuteron}}$$

$$|NN(\mathbb{I}=1, M_{\mathbb{I}}=0)\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|pn\rangle + |np\rangle)$$

etc...

Extended Fermi-Dirac statistics:



$n, p \rightarrow$ Fermions (antisymmetric wf)

pp , S -wave $\Rightarrow S = 0$
($L = 0$)

(same w/hh)

$$|pp(S=0)\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|p\uparrow p\downarrow\rangle - |p\downarrow p\uparrow\rangle)$$

If we have sp \rightarrow in principle no symmetry constraints
(bc different type of particles)

But...

... if \rightarrow add $\text{Hospin} \Rightarrow$

\Rightarrow
 sp

n, p same \rightarrow of particle (n)
--

$\textcircled{1} \Rightarrow$ Isospin = N = D if two-nucleons, then they should be antisymmetric

permutation

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{P} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |N_1 N_2(L, S, I)\rangle \\
 = (-)^L (-)^{S-1} (-)^{I-1} \\
 |N_2 N_1(L, S, I)\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

\neq
 new constraints

$$\textcircled{1} |S_1 S_2(SM)\rangle = (-)^{S_2 - S_1 - S} |S_2 S_1(SM)\rangle$$

$\oplus = 1)$ $P_{12} |NN\rangle = -|NN\rangle$
↓
 (fermions)

$(-)^{L+S+I} = (-1)$

$(-)^{L+S+I+1} = 1$

$L+S+I = \text{odd}$

$L+S+I = 1, 3, 5, \dots$

$$\boxed{(-1)^{L+S+I} = (-1)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{Implications}$$

$$\text{NN (S-wave, } L=0) \Rightarrow \boxed{S+I=1}$$

$$S=0 \text{ (singlet)} \Rightarrow I=1$$

$$\boxed{S=1 \text{ (triplet)} \Rightarrow I=0} \rightarrow \boxed{\text{Deuteron}}$$

(DEUTERON) $\rightarrow S=1$

$$|d\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|pn\rangle - |np\rangle)$$

(SINGLET) $\rightarrow S=0$

$$|^1S_0 (m_J=0)\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|pn\rangle + |np\rangle)$$

$$|^1S_0 (m_J=1)\rangle = |pp\rangle$$

$$|^1S_0 (m_J=-1)\rangle = |nn\rangle$$

[More examples of isospin symmetry]

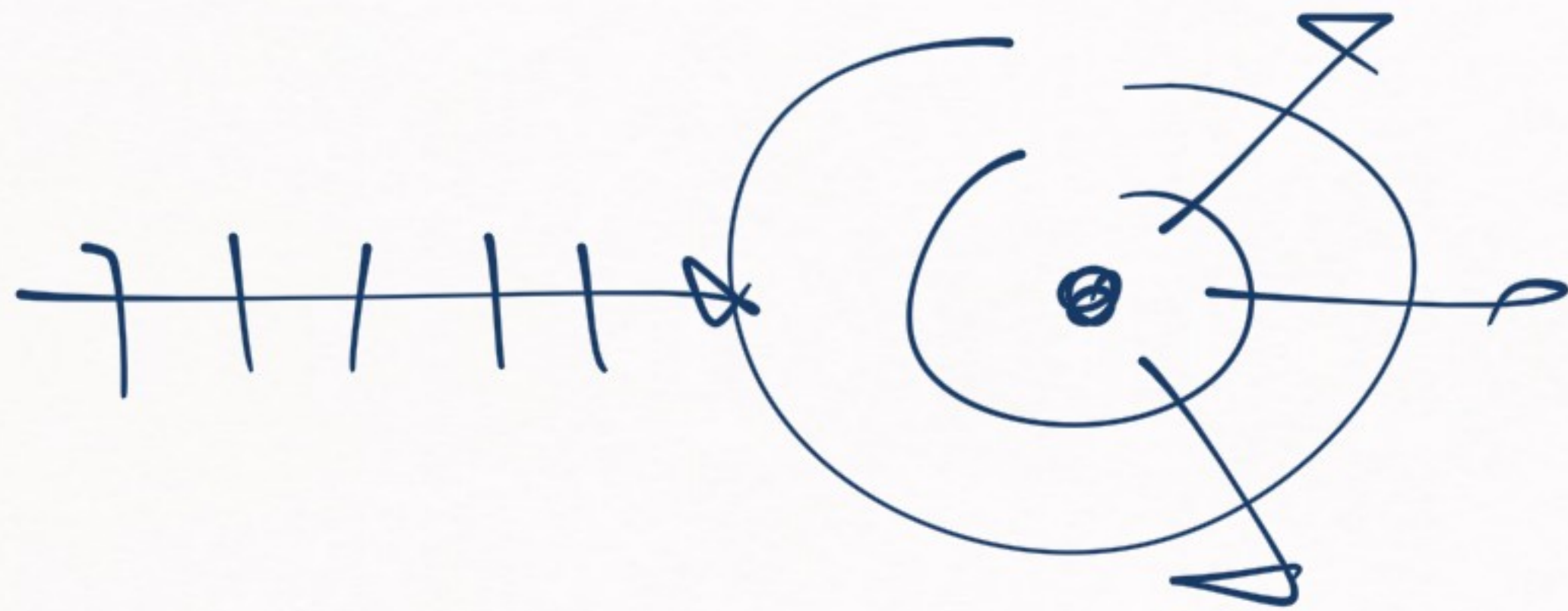
Singlet \rightarrow 3 isospin states ($I=1$)

\downarrow
 \hookrightarrow does not bind

\hookrightarrow scattering observable

\hookrightarrow scattering lengths \rightarrow $\neq 0$

⊕ ⇒ What is this scattering length? → units of $[L]$



$$\sigma = |f(k)|^2$$

(cross-section)

units of $[L]$

Low energies
 $k \rightarrow 0$

$$\sigma \rightarrow 4\pi |a_0|^2$$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \rightarrow |a_0|^2$$

units of $[L]^2$

$$a_0^S(pp) \approx -17.3 \text{ fm}$$

$$a_0(np) \approx -23.7 \text{ fm}$$

$$a_0(nn) \approx -18.6 \text{ fm}$$

In general, similar



$$(a_0)_{\text{natural}} \approx \frac{1}{m\pi} \approx 1.9 \text{ fm}$$

notice we have extremely large values

→ another example of isospin symmetry

(NEXT EXAMPLE) 3H , 3He
 $|nnp\rangle$ $|npp\rangle$

$$|{}^3H\rangle = |\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}\rangle_T$$

$$|{}^3He\rangle = |\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\rangle_T$$

→ same isospin \Rightarrow
state
N

$$\Rightarrow B(^3\text{H}) = 8.48 \text{ MeV}$$

$$B(^3\text{He}) = 7.72 \text{ MeV} \quad (\text{pp electromagnetic repulsion})$$



$$B(^3\text{He}) \approx B(^3\text{H})$$

(but w/ differences coming from Coulomb)

(Other example) \rightarrow ${}^6\text{He}$, ${}^6\text{Li}$, ${}^6\text{Be}$

(${}^4\text{He}$ core + n, p, p, p
in the singlet)

$$|{}^6\text{He}\rangle = |1^- 1^- \rangle_2$$

$$|{}^6\text{Li}\rangle = |1^+ 0 \rangle_2$$

$$|{}^6\text{Be}\rangle = |1^+ + 1 \rangle_2$$


$$B({}^6\text{He}) \approx 29.27 \text{ MeV}$$

$$B({}^6\text{Li}) \approx 31.99 \text{ MeV}$$

$$B({}^6\text{Be}) \approx 26.92 \text{ MeV}$$

pretty
similar

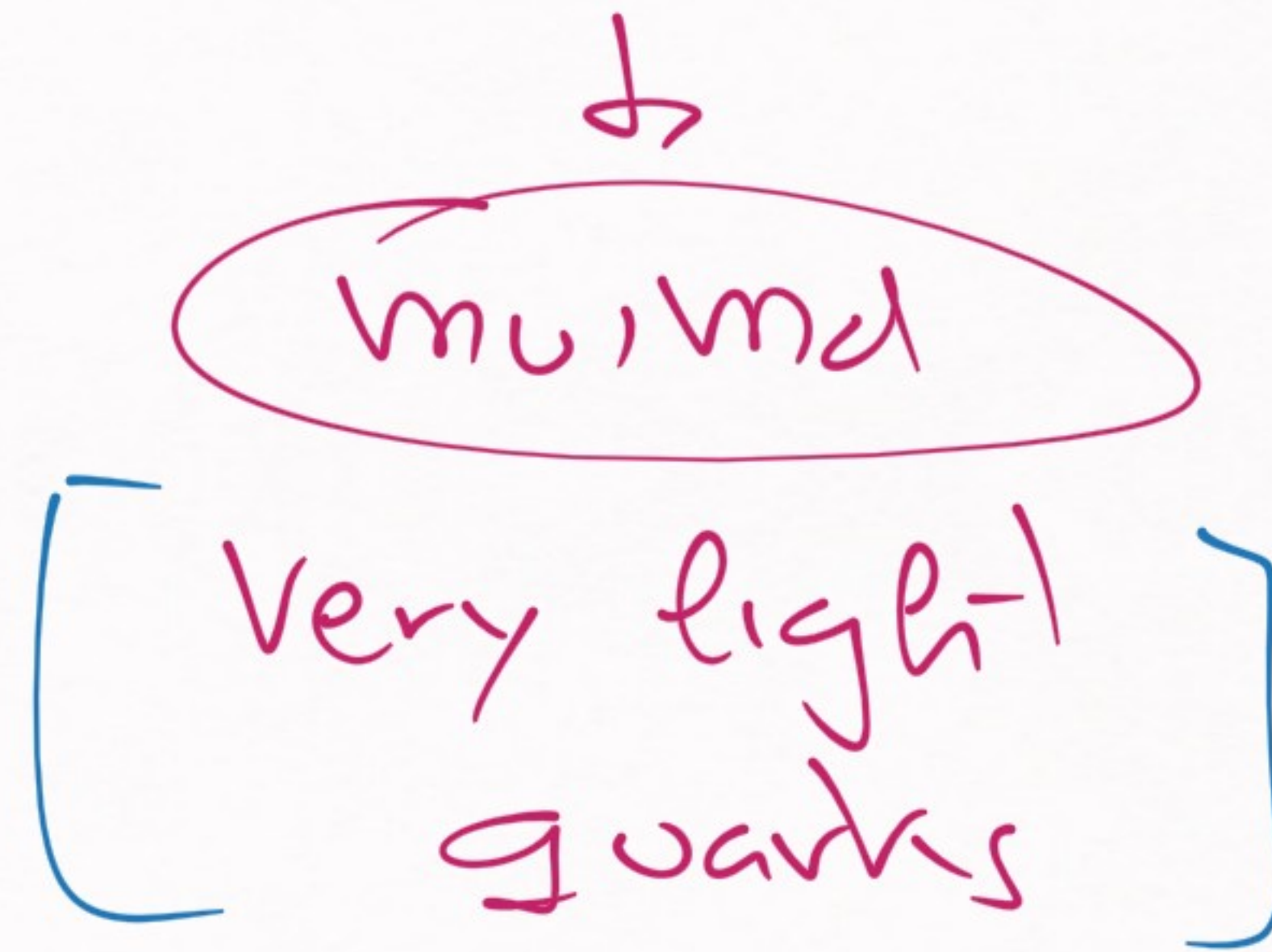
LITTLE RECAP → Uospin symmetry
works pretty well



NEXT THING →

WHERE DOES THIS
SYMMETRY
COME FROM?

→ ORIGINS OF ISOSPIN IN QCD



QCD →

6 types of quarks

$u \ d \ s$
 $c \ b \ t$

$m_u \sim 3 \text{ MeV}$
 $m_d \sim 5 \text{ MeV}$

}

$m_u, m_d \ll \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}$

$\sim (200 - 350) \text{ MeV}$

$p \rightarrow uud$

$n \rightarrow udd$

$m_p \gg 2m_u + m_d$

$m_n \gg m_u + 2m_d$

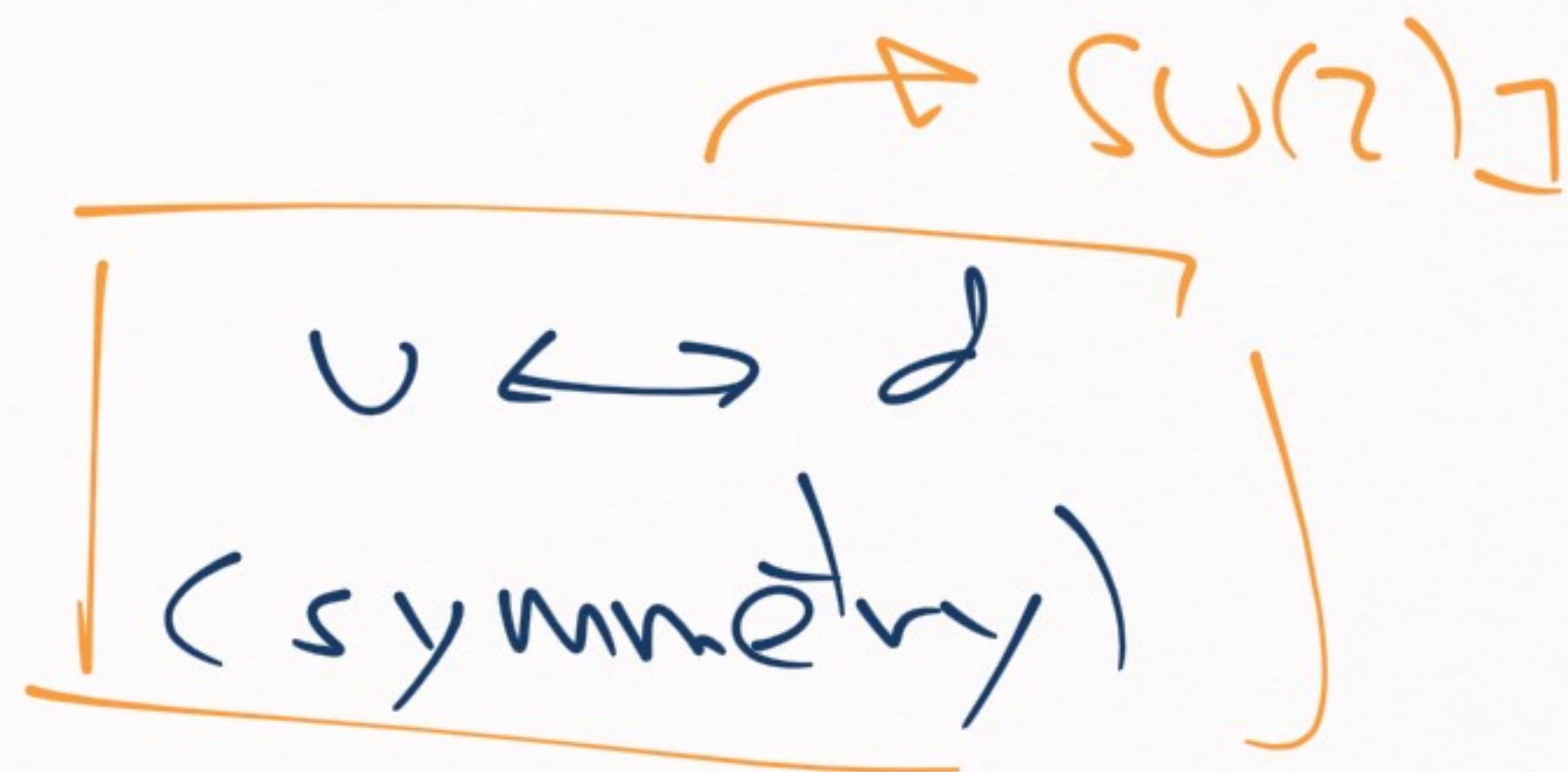
$m_p \sim 3 \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}$
 $m_n \sim 3 \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}$

\sim

QCD \rightarrow good scale separation for u, d

$$\left(\frac{m_u}{\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}}, \frac{m_d}{\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}} \ll 1 \right)$$

\rightarrow In practical terms, u, d quarks
are equivalent



ISGDIN IS A CONSEQUENCE
OF $m_u, m_d \ll \Lambda_{QCD}$

→ We can notice here that \exists another

"light" quark

$$m_s \sim 95 \text{ MeV}$$



$$\frac{m_s}{\Lambda_{QCD}} < 1$$

$$\frac{m_c}{\Lambda_{QCD}} \sim \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}$$

→ We can in principle extend this symmetry
to the s-quark

→ SU(3) - Flavor symmetry

u, d → SU(2)

u, d, s → SU(3)

$SU(3)_F$
 (baryon octet)



$|p\rangle = |uud\rangle$
 $|n\rangle = |udd\rangle$

→ other similar baryons w/ s-quarks

$|\Sigma^+\rangle = |uus\rangle$
 $|\Sigma^0\rangle = |uss\rangle$
 $|\Lambda^0\rangle = |uds\rangle$

$SU(3)_F$
 partners of n, p

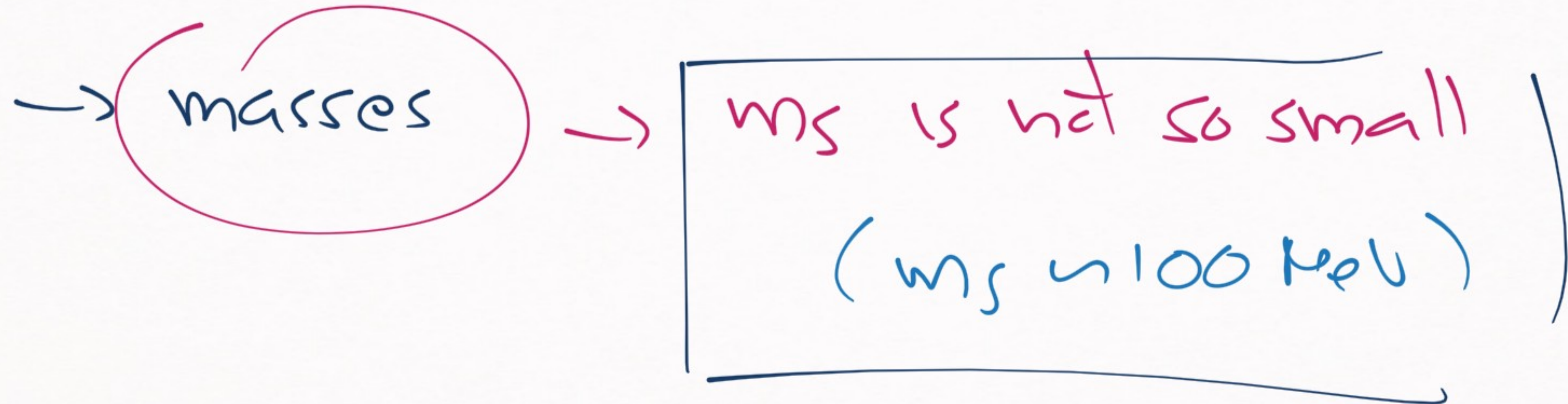
$SU(3)_F \rightarrow$

- 1) Works well w/ couplings
- 2) Works so-so w/ masses

$(N, P) \rightarrow m_n \leq m_p \leq \underline{\underline{940 \text{ MeV}}}$

$\Sigma \rightarrow m_\Sigma \leq 1193 \text{ MeV} \text{ (20\% heavier)}$

$\Xi \rightarrow m_\Xi \leq 1318 \text{ MeV} \text{ (30\% heavier)}$



↘
this will change
our naive expectation
that all masses are the same

Couplings / potentials / etc \rightarrow works better

$$\begin{array}{c} p \\ p \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} \dots \\ \pi^0 \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{c} p \\ p \end{array} = V_0(\vec{q}) \quad \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{c} N \\ N \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} \dots \\ \pi \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{c} N \\ N \end{array} = \bar{\tau}_1 \bar{\tau}_2 V_0(\vec{q})$$

\swarrow more complicated than \searrow

$$\begin{array}{c} B_8 \\ B_8 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} \pi, K, \eta \\ \dots \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{c} B_8 \\ B_8 \end{array} = (SU(3)_F\text{-factor}) \times V_0(\vec{q})$$

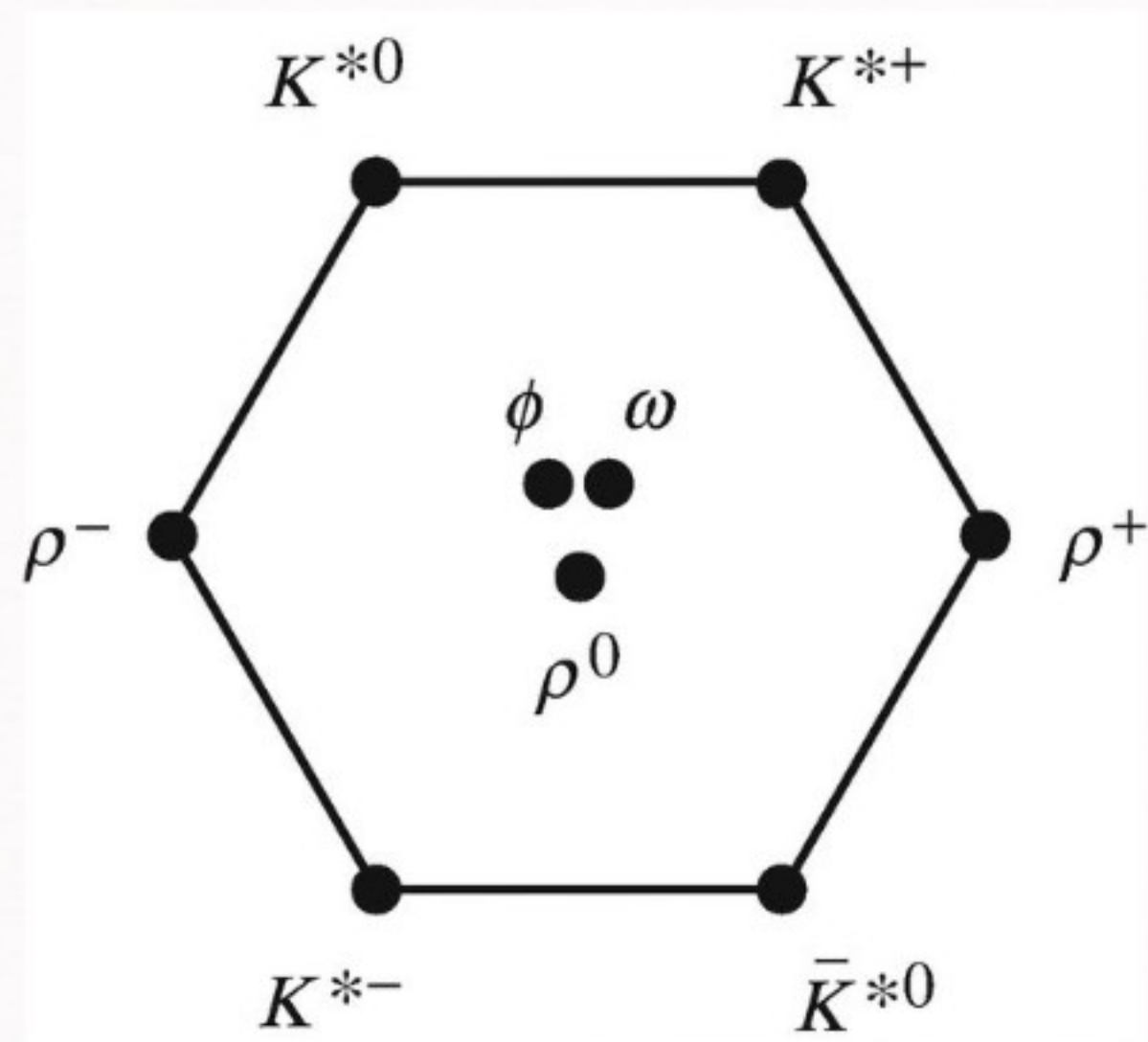
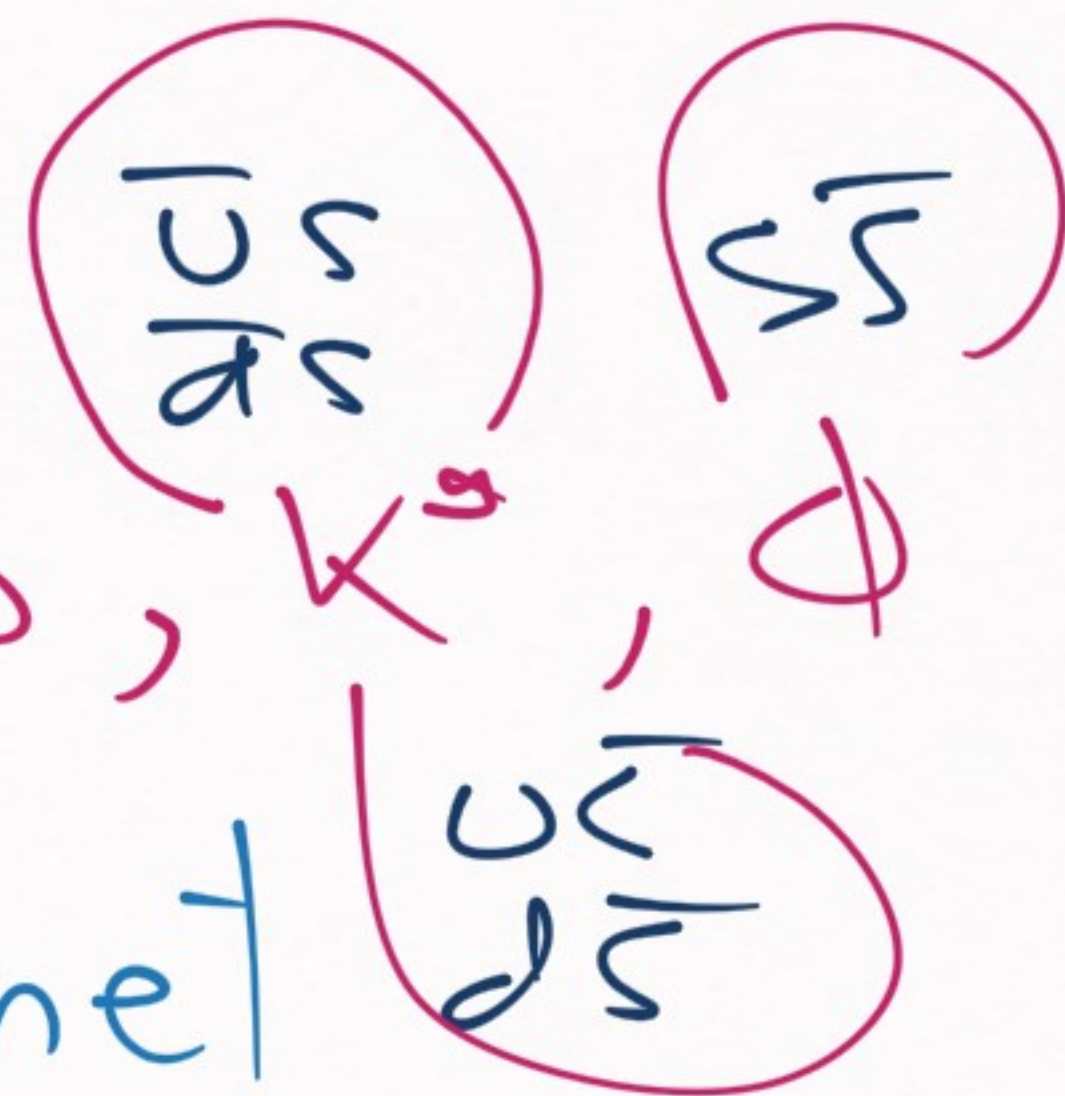
$$B_8 = N, \Lambda, \Sigma, \Xi$$

but works well

→ we will not cover these factors in detail

Baryons of $SU(3) \rightarrow N, \Lambda, \Sigma, \Xi$

Mesons of $SU(3) \rightarrow \rho, \omega, K^*, \phi$

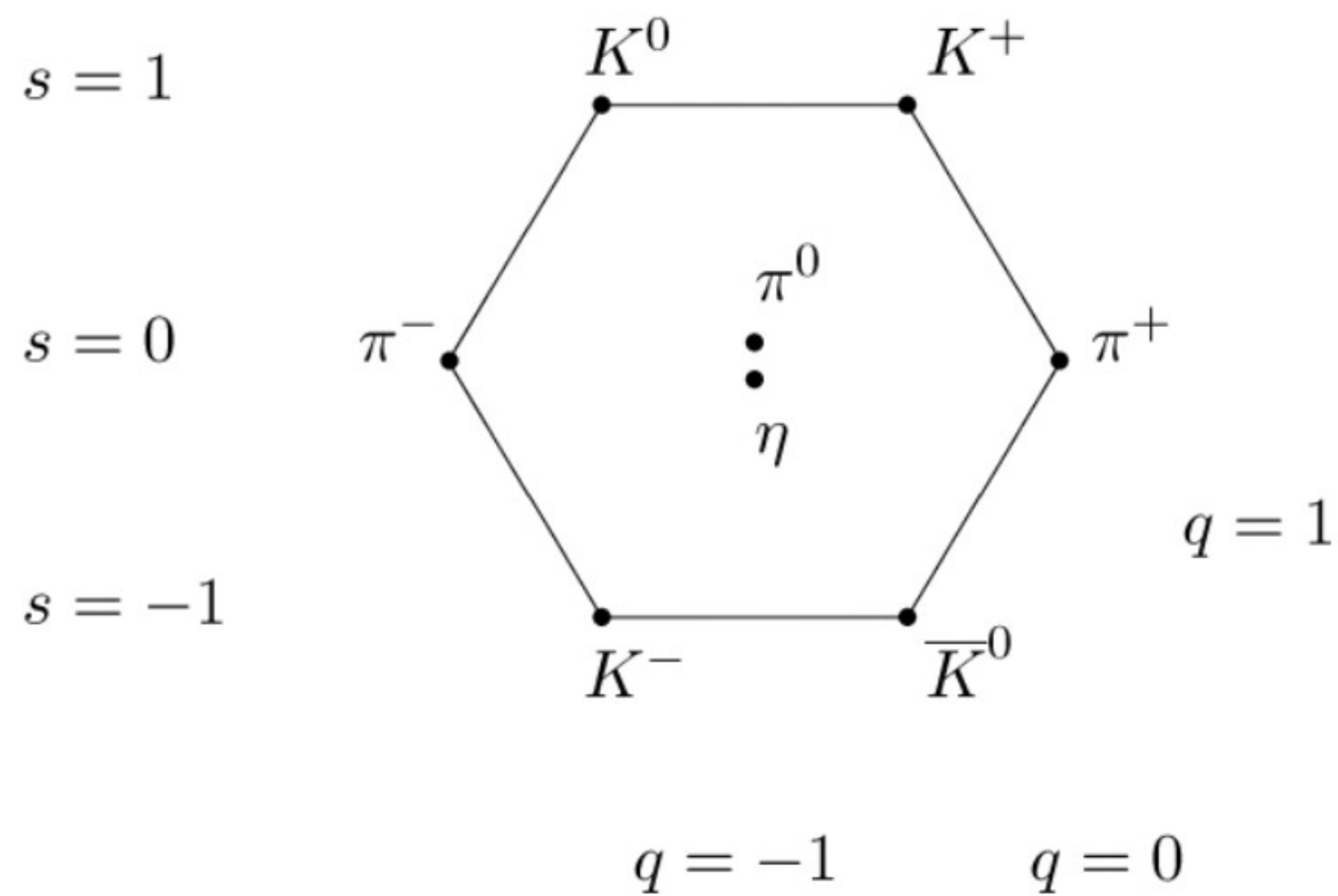


→ meson nonet

$$m_\rho \approx m_\omega \approx 770 - 780 \text{ MeV}$$

$$m_{K^*} \approx 890 \text{ MeV}, m_\phi \approx 1020 \text{ MeV}$$

→ SU(3)_C - PARTNERS
 WHEN CONSIDERING THE PION
 SU(3)_C - PARTNERS



→ pion, eta, kaon

$$m_\pi \approx 133 \text{ MeV}$$

$$m_K \approx 495 \text{ MeV}$$

$$m_\eta \approx 548 \text{ MeV}$$

not very symmetric

→ π, K, η → ~~$SU(3)_F$ - flavor failing?~~
→ [or \Rightarrow another effect]
or something

CHIRAL SYMMETRY

↳ π, K, η are special

$$\frac{m_u}{\Lambda_{QCD}}, \frac{m_d}{\Lambda_{QCD}}, \frac{m_s}{\Lambda_{QCD}} \ll 1 \Rightarrow SU(3)_F \text{ symmetry}$$

\Downarrow

[Broken chiral symmetry]

these mesons are special

$$\Rightarrow m_\pi = m_K = m_\eta = 0$$

(not the case, but

$$m_\pi \ll m_\rho$$

$$m_K \ll m_{K^*}$$

$$m_\eta \ll m_D$$

strange quarks

$$\frac{m_c}{\Lambda_{QCD}} \sim \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}$$

[How to EXPLAIN WHAT IS CHIRAL SYM.]

→ not trivial, requires elaboration
(INTERMEDIATE STEPS)

→ the linear sigma model (step 1)

→ Goldstone theorem (step 2)

→ Chiral symmetry (step 3)

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} m_n \sim 140 \text{ MeV} \\ \frac{m_\pi}{m_n} \sim \frac{1}{4} \quad \frac{m_p}{m_n} \sim 0.8 \sim \mathcal{O}(1) \end{array} \right]$$

→ we have to explain why m_π so small



(previous 3 steps)

(60's) → GELL-MANN & LEVI → LINEAR
(pion very light) σ -MODEL

① theory w/ nucleons, 1 scalar field,
3 pseudoscalar fields

→ massless nucleons + massive meson

$N \rightarrow I = 1/2$, $\phi_0 \rightarrow I = 0$, $\vec{\phi} = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3\}$

↳ I write a Lagrangian: ↳ $I = 1$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{SM}} = \underbrace{i\bar{N}\not{\partial}N}_{N \text{ kinetic}} + \underbrace{g\bar{N}(\phi_0 + i\gamma_5 \vec{\tau} \cdot \vec{\phi})N}_{N \leftrightarrow \phi \text{ interaction}}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mu, \nu=0}^3 \underbrace{\partial_\mu \phi_\nu \partial^\mu \phi^\nu}_{\phi \text{ kinetic}} - \underbrace{V(\phi)}_{\phi \text{ mass + other things}}$$

$$V(\phi) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \mu^2 \sum_{i=0}^3 \phi_i^2}_{d\text{-mass}} + \underbrace{\frac{\lambda}{4} \left(\sum_{i=0}^3 \phi_i^2 \right)^2}_{\phi\text{-interactions}}$$

→ N massless / $\phi^0, \vec{\phi}$ massive (μ)

⇒ N massive, ϕ^0 massive, $\vec{\phi}$ massless



ψ massless, ϕ massive



ψ massive, ϕ massless

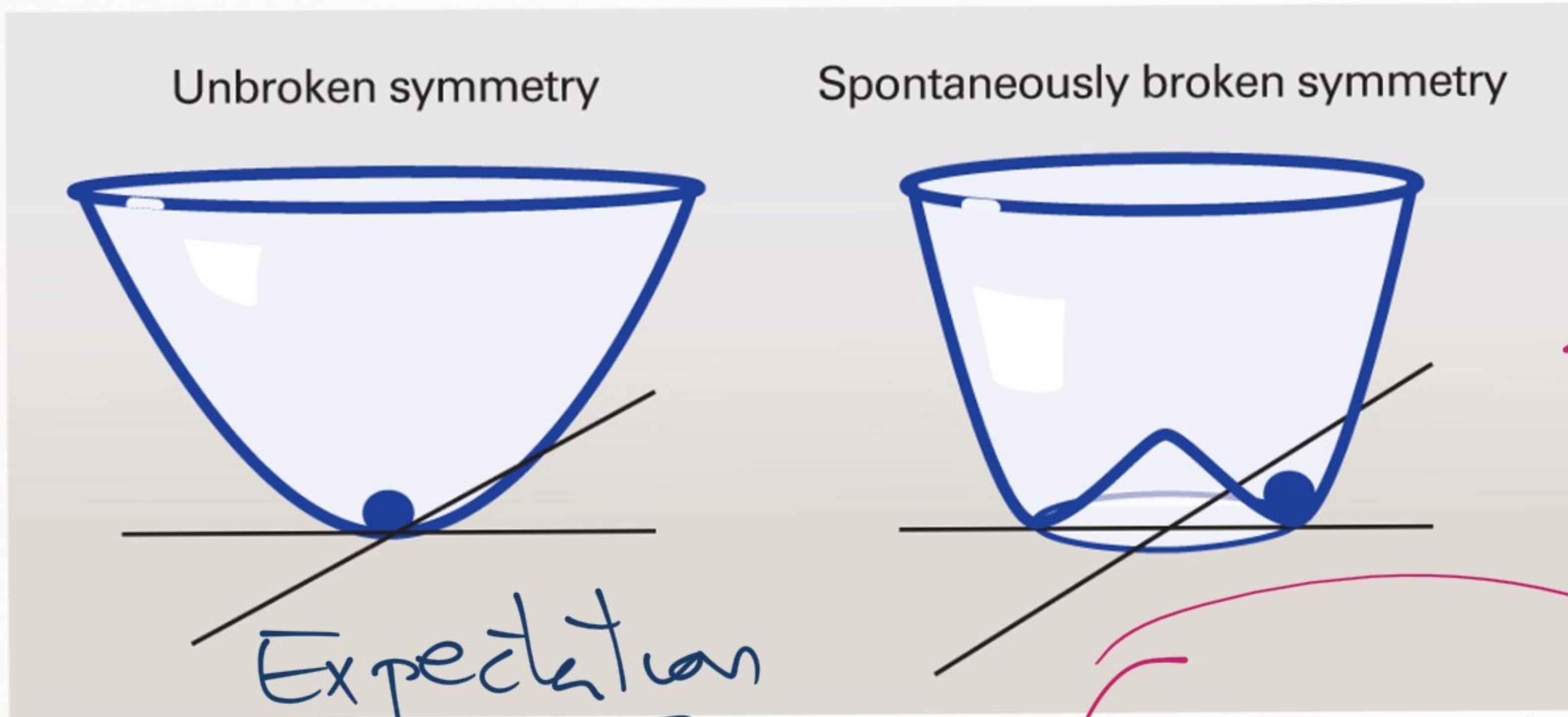
QFT trick



Mexican-hat
potential

MEXICAN HAT POTENTIAL

$$V(\phi) = \frac{1}{2} \mu^2 \left(\sum_i \phi_i^2 \right) + \frac{\lambda}{4} \left(\sum_i \phi_i^2 \right)^2 \rightarrow \mu^2, \lambda$$



Expectation

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \mu^2 > 0 \\ \lambda > 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\mu^2 < 0, \lambda > 0$$

But mass should not be negative, right?

Allowed by math

MEXICAN HAT POTENTIAL

1) Standard quartic potential

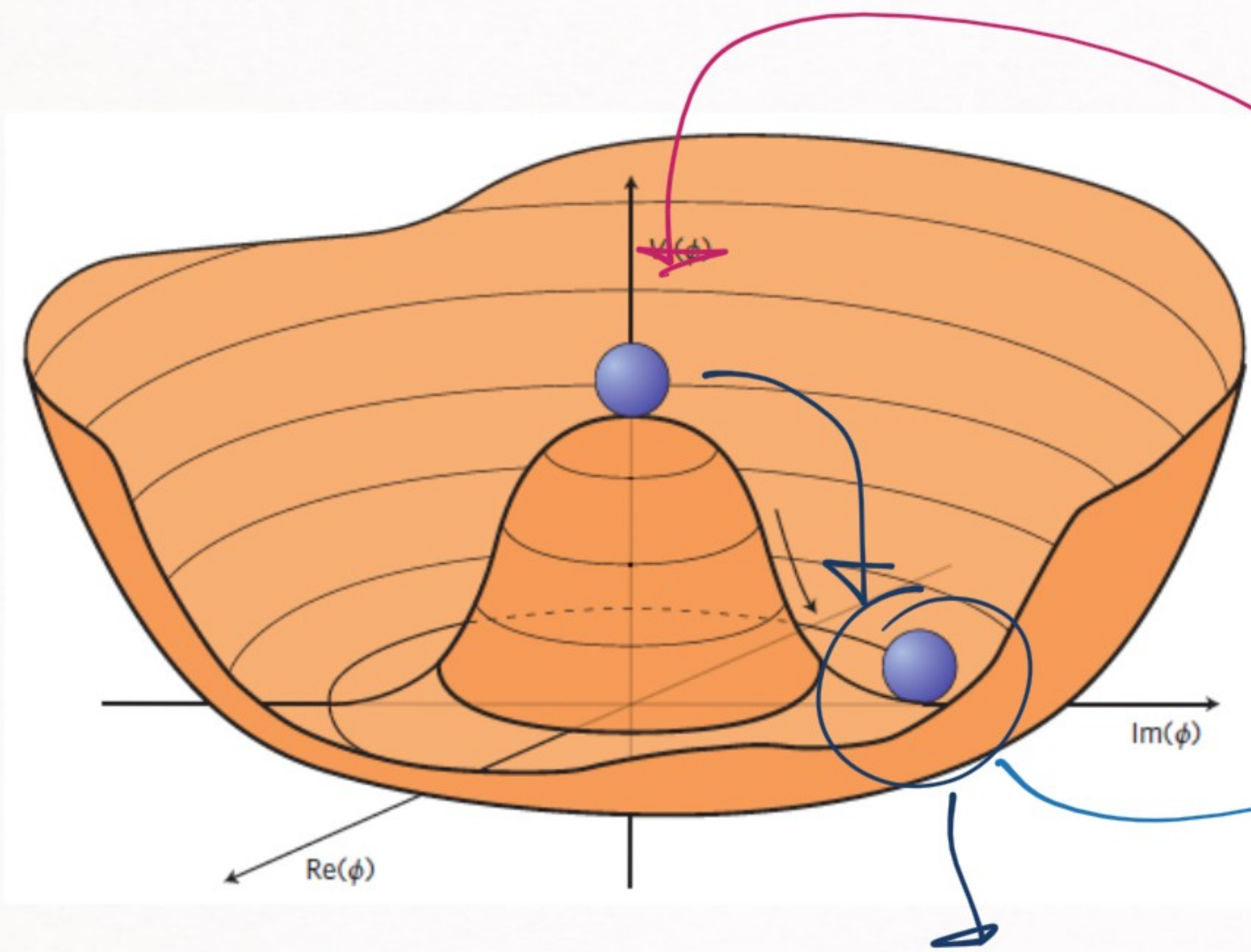
$$V(d) = \frac{M^2}{2} d^2 + \frac{\lambda}{4} d^4$$

2) We change sign of mass term

$$M^2 < 0, \lambda > 0$$

this will no longer
be the mass
of d field

Why μ is not a mass? \rightarrow nature likes minimum energy states



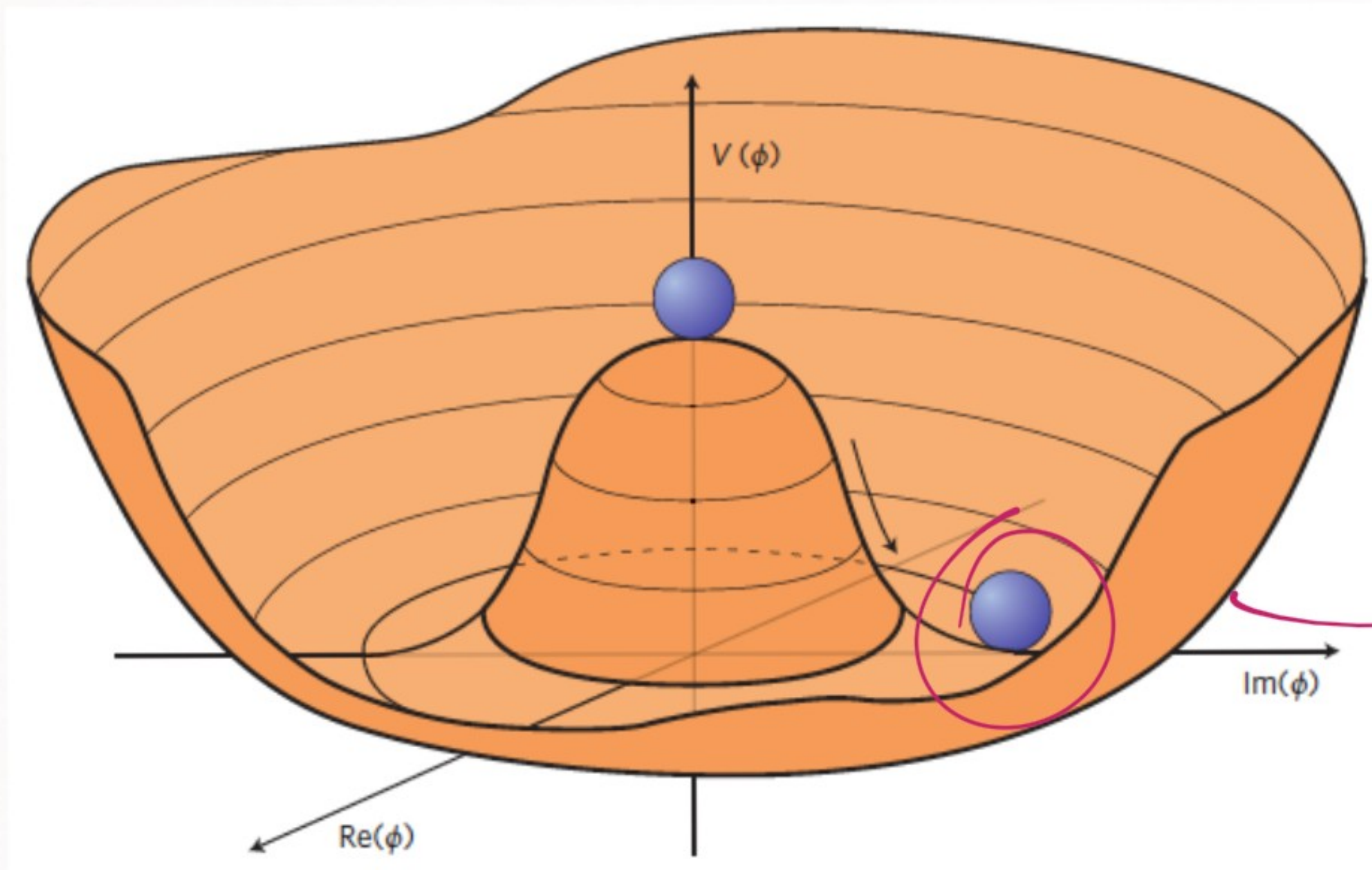
$$(\vec{d}^0, \vec{\phi}) = (0, \vec{0})$$

\hookrightarrow this is not the ground state of the system

this will be the ground state

• min energy

§) GROUND STATE \rightarrow STATE THAT MINIMIZES $V(\phi)$



$$\frac{dV}{d\phi^0} = 0$$

$$\phi^0 = \sqrt{-\frac{M^2}{\lambda}} = v$$

(min. for Mexican hat potential)

2) REDEFINE THE FIELDS / NEW QFT

HAS IT'S MINIMUM ΔT $\Phi_{\text{new}} = 0$

→ Change of variables

$$(\phi_0, \vec{q})_{\text{min}} = (v, \vec{0}) \quad (\vec{\sigma}, \vec{\pi})_{\text{min}} = (\sigma, \vec{0})$$

$$\hookrightarrow (\sigma, \vec{\pi}), \quad \vec{\sigma} = \phi^0 v, \quad \vec{\pi} = \vec{q}$$

$$(d, \vec{v}) \rightarrow (\sigma, \vec{\pi})$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{com}}(d) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_{\text{com}}(\sigma, \vec{\pi}) = \underbrace{\sqrt{1 - (v - gv)^2}}_{\textcircled{1}}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\sqrt{gN} (\sigma + (g^{\mu\nu} \vec{v} \cdot \vec{\pi})) N}_{\textcircled{2}}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\left[\frac{1}{2} (\partial_{\mu} \sigma \partial^{\mu} \sigma) - \frac{1}{2} (\lambda v^2) \sigma^2 \right]}_{\textcircled{3}}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\left[\frac{1}{2} \partial_{\mu} \vec{\pi} \partial^{\mu} \vec{\pi} - V(\vec{\pi}, \vec{v}) \right]}_{\textcircled{3}}$$

WHAT IS THE MEANING OF THESE TERMS?

① → mass term for the nucleon

$$\boxed{m_N = g\nu} \quad \checkmark$$

② → the coupling of the new fields

g & $g_{\vec{\pi}}$ are identical

$g_{\pi NN} \leq 13$
 $g_{\sigma NN} \leq 10$) 30% error

$$\boxed{g_{\pi NN} = g_{\sigma NN}} \quad \checkmark$$

③ → the sigma is massive

$$m_\sigma^2 = \lambda v^2 = -\mu^2$$

✓

$m_\sigma \sim \sqrt{0.1} m_N$
→

④ → the pion will be massless

$$m_\pi = 0$$

✓

$m_\pi \ll m_\sigma, m_N$

→ (VERY INTERESTING MODEL)

→ explains large mass of nucleon

→ explains small mass of pion

✓

$$V(d) \rightarrow V(d) + \delta V(d), \quad \delta V \approx -\frac{e}{f} \phi_0$$

$$e \ll 1$$

small pion mass

However, in the 60's people didn't observe
the sigma \rightarrow weak point of LOM
(back then)

Call-Mann
Levy \rightarrow non-linear σ -model
(does not contain sigma)
 \Downarrow

INTERESTING POINT

\exists mechanisms in QFT for the p.c.m.
to be very light

LOM & Mexican Hat potential

\rightarrow specific example Goldstone theorem

① Goldstone theorem

+

② Breaking of a QCD approx. symmetry
called chiral symmetry

① + ② → Explain the physics of pions

NEXT LESSON
① & ②

SEE YOU ON TUESDAY