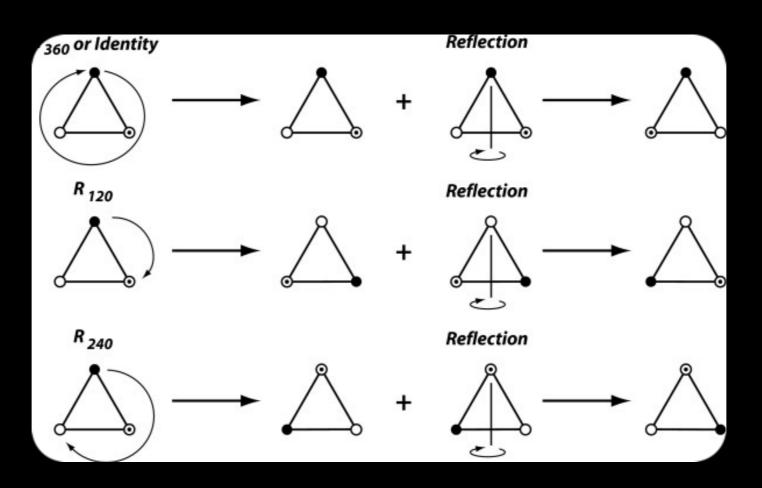


Symmetries and conservation laws



Panos Christakoglou

Nikhef and Utrecht University

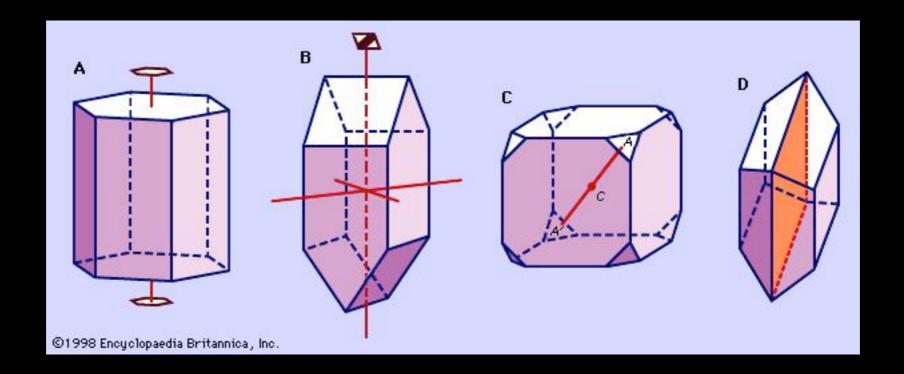




Symmetries and invariances are important notions in physics

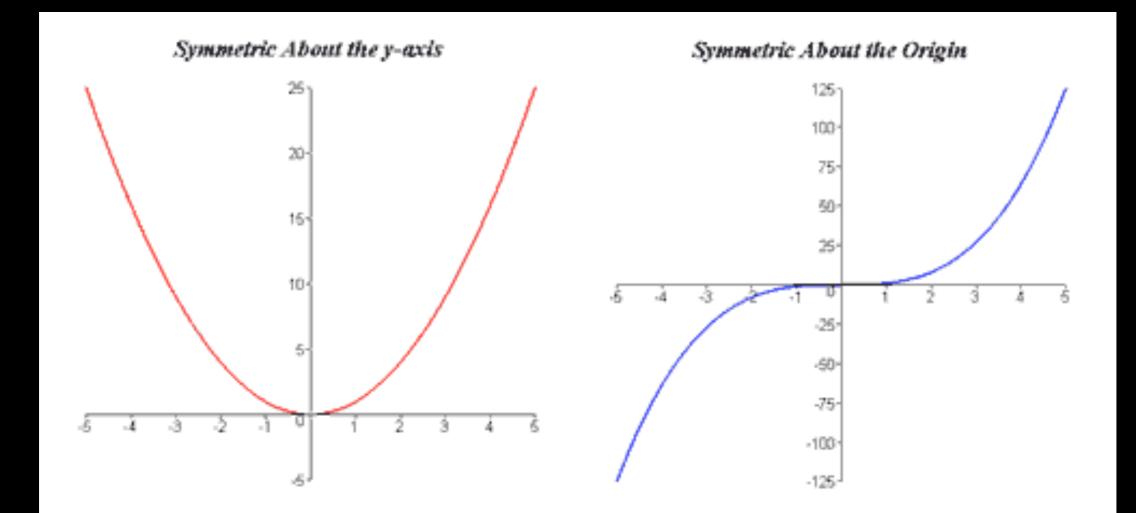


- They describe how a system remains unaltered under a given transformation
- We will focus on dynamical symmetries of motion and not on static symmetries e.g. as in crystals













In classical dynamics, the motion of a system is described in terms of forces using the second law of Newton

$$\vec{F} = m \vec{a} = m \vec{x}$$

- The same equation of motion can be obtained from the Lagrangian
 - T: the part that describes the kinetic energy of a system
 - V: the part that describes the potential

 $\mathcal{L}=T-V$

- ✓ The Lagrangian is a function of generalised coordinates (q_i, \dot{q}_i)
- The equation of motion of a system is given by the Euler-Lagrange equation

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial \mathscr{L}}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) - \frac{\partial \mathscr{L}}{\partial q_i} = 0$$







- A state can be represented by a wave function ψ or by a column of complex numbers denoted by the ket $|\psi\rangle$
- \checkmark To every ket we associate a bra-vector $\langle \psi |$
 - This is represented by the conjugate transpose of the relevant matrix
 - transpose transforms the column to a row
 - each entry becomes the complex conjugate of the initial entry
- The operation that transforms a bra to a ket and vice-versa is called the Hermitian conjugation $|\psi\rangle^{\dagger} = \langle \psi |$
- An operator for which $P = P^{\dagger}$ is called self-adjoint or Hermitian
- Observables are always quantities that are represented by Hermitian operators.
 - Their expectation value is real

 $\langle a|P|a\rangle = \langle a|P^{\dagger}|a\rangle = \langle a|P|a\rangle^{*}$







- ✓ Observables are always quantities that are represented by Hermitian operators. $F=F^{\dagger}$ ✓ The expectation value is $\langle F \rangle = \langle \psi | F | \psi \rangle$
 - $\langle F \rangle^* = \langle \psi | F^{\dagger} | \psi \rangle$
- An observable constant of motion F is Hermitian and commutes with the Hamiltonian







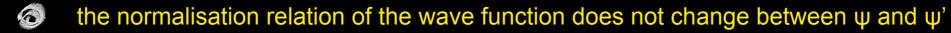
We can write down the Hamiltonian of a system and test the commutation criterium [H,F]=0, for all possible observables



- Not really practical or feasible
- The Hamiltonian of a system does not need to be fully known
- we need to establish the invariance of H under a transformation
 - this leads to a conserved quantity



Introducing a transformation operator U that transforms a wave function ψ into a ψ'



this leads to the fact that the transformation operator must be unitary









The wave functions are normalised:



The transformation needs to be unitary

 $\langle \psi' | \psi' \rangle = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = I$

We call U a symmetry operator if the new state ψ ' obeys the same Schrodinger equation as the initial wave function ψ

A symmetry operator is unitary and commutes with the Hamiltonian

[H,U]=0







A system is normally described by its Lagrangian

- The Lagrangian can be found from first principles or
- can be deduced through the conservation laws of the system
- Noether's theorem connects symmetries with conservation laws
 - "Every symmetry in nature yields a conservation law and inversely every conservation law reveals an underlying symmetry
 - Momentum conservation: invariance under a translation in space
 - 0

Angular momentum conservation: invariance under rotation in space



Emmy Noether (1882 - 1935)



Symmetries can be categorised as local or global

- Global symmetries hold at all points of space-time (e.g. translation)
- Local symmetries are only valid in certain regions of space-time (i.e. local domains important for this topic)
- Symmetries can also be characterised as continuous or discrete:
 - 6
- Continuous symmetries are viewed as "motions" (e.g. rotations)
- O Discrete symmetries describe non-continuous symmetries in a system (e.g. parity & charge conjugation)







- They are unitary by definition but not necessarily Hermitian
- **V** They rely on one or more continuous parameters so that $|\psi'\rangle = U(a) |\psi\rangle$
 - \bigcirc rotation by an angle α
- These transformations can be written as a succession of infinitesimal deviations from the identity

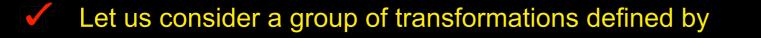
$$U(a) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(I + \frac{ia}{n} F \right)^n = e^{iaF}$$

- F is called the generator of U
- The generator of a unitary operator is Hermitian
- The generator of a symmetry operator commutes with the Hamiltonian
 - 0

If U is a symmetry operator that commutes with H, then its generator is a Hermitian operator that also commutes with H



 $x'_{i} = f_{i}(x_{1},...,x_{n};a_{1},...,a_{n})$



- 0 x_i are the coordinates on which the transformation acts
- a_i are the elements (i.e. real numbers) of the transformation
- \checkmark By convention the identity element is a=0 such that

 $x'_{i} = f_{i}(x;0)$

✓ A transformation in the neighbour of the identity reads

$$dx_i = \sum_{\nu=1}^r \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial a_{\nu}} da_{\nu}$$

The generators of the transformation are found by considering a change in a function f(x) and are given by

$$\hat{X}_{v} = i \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial a_{v}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}$$





- A system described by a quantum state ψ and is moving, thus changing its spatial coordinates
- For infinites imally small translations of (ϵ_1 , ϵ_2 , ϵ_3) we can write

$$X' = X + \varepsilon \Longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \\ x_3' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \varepsilon_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

The generators of the transformation are the elements of momentum

$$\hat{X}_i = -\frac{l}{\hbar} \hat{P}$$

Invariance under spatial translation leads to conservation of momentum







- A system described by a quantum state ψ and is rotating in 3D
- For infinitesimally small rotations of $\delta R(\epsilon) \sim (\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3)$ we can write

 $R=I+\delta R$

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This operator is unitary $RR^{\dagger} = I \Rightarrow (I + \delta R)(I + \delta R^{\dagger}) = I \Rightarrow \delta R = -\delta R^{\dagger}$

 δR is represented by an antisymmetric matrix of the form

 $\delta R = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \varepsilon_3 & -\varepsilon_2 \\ -\varepsilon_3 & 0 & \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 & -\varepsilon_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

The generators of the transformation are the elements of angular momentum

$$\hat{X} = \hat{x} \times (-i) \hat{\nabla} \sim \hat{L}$$

Invariance under spatial rotations leads to conservation of angular momentum







- A group G is a collection of elements or operators a₁, a₂,...,a_n
 - The have defined laws describing how one can combine any of the two elements with an operator e.g. "x" fulfilling the following conditions
 - **<u>Closure</u>**: For each two elements of G, their product is also an element of G

 $a_i \times a_j = a_k$ **Associativity**: Combining two elements is associative

 $(a_i \! \times \! a_j) \! \times \! a_k \! = \! a_i \! \times \! (a_j \! \times \! a_k)$

Identity element: Every group has an identity element e such that for all elements of the group

$$a_i \times e = e \times a_i = a_i$$



Inverse element: For all elements in G there is a unique element such that

$$a_i \times (a_i)^{-1} = (a_i)^{-1} \times a_i = e$$



When a group consists of elements that any of two commute, then the group is called **Abelian**, otherwise non-Abelian

When a group contains finite number of elements n, then it is called finite group of order n







- All particles have electric charge in multiples of the charge of the quarks q = Nx(1/3)
- In any interaction of this form charge is conserved

 $a+b \rightarrow c+d+e$ $q_a+q_b=q_c+q_d+q_e$

- Every conservation law is connected to a symmetry principle
- Assume that ψ is the wave function of a state with charge q, then it obeys the Schrodinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial |\psi\rangle}{\partial t} = H |\psi\rangle$$





- the operator commutes with the Hamiltonian of the system [H,Q] = 0
- The eigenfunction ψ can be an eigenfunction of Q as well

 $\hat{Q}\ket{\psi}=q\ket{\psi}$

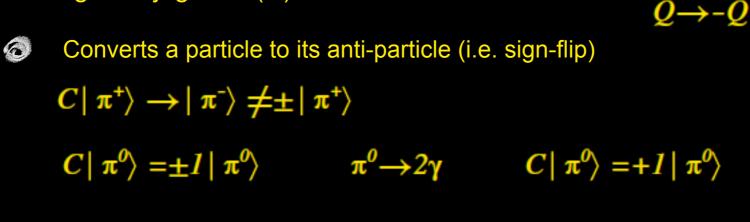
Let's identify the observable which is conserved as the electric charge if we apply a global gauge transformation of the form

$$|\psi'\rangle = e^{ieQ} |\psi\rangle$$



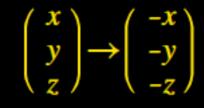


Charge conjugation (C):



Parity (P):

Converts right-handed systems to left-handed ones



O Vectors change sign but axial vectors remain unchanged

 $\overrightarrow{x} \rightarrow -\overrightarrow{x}, \overrightarrow{p} \rightarrow -\overrightarrow{p}, \quad \overrightarrow{L} = \overrightarrow{x} \times \overrightarrow{p} \rightarrow \overrightarrow{L}$

Time reversal T



Reverses the direction of motion of particles

Symmetries are part of the building blocks of particle physics. However their validity rests on **experimental verification**!!!





- The much hypothesised decay of protons has been studied by measuring possible decays in a large quantity of water which contains many protons and with large counters shielded from cosmic rays by being positioned underground
 - 0
- The reaction $p \rightarrow e^+\pi^0$ has not been detected
- 0
- A lower limit was set to the decay of proton to 1.6x10³³ years
- The fact that such decay does not seem to take place, led to the introduction of a new quantum number for baryons and antibaryons: the <u>baryon number (BN)</u>
- Each baryon is assigned a +1 BN
- Each antibaryon is assigned a -1 BN
- The conservation of BN is not connected to an exact symmetry
 - 0
- More of an empirical conservation law than a fundamental one
- There are theories beyond the Standard Model where such a BN violation is allowed

р	+1	P	-1
n	+1	n	-1
Λ	+1	$\overline{\Lambda}$	-1
Ξ-, Ξ0	+1	$\overline{\Xi^{\theta}}$ Ξ^+	-1
Ω-	+1	Ω^+	-1





Evidence for lepton number conservation comes mainly from neutrino reactions

 $\overline{\nu}_{e} + p \rightarrow e^{+} + n \qquad n \rightarrow p + e^{-} + \overline{\nu}_{e}$

Reaction such as the ones below have not been observed, indicating that lepton number violation is not natural

$$\overline{\nu}_e + n \rightarrow p + e^ \nu_e + p \rightarrow n + e^-$$

V Ne

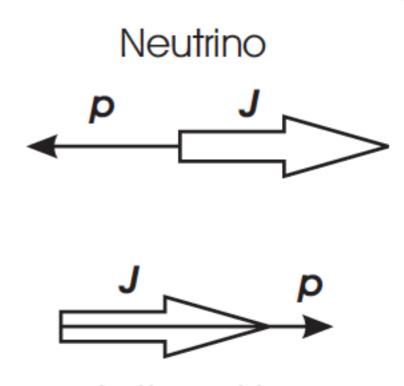
Neutrinos and antineutrinos have different characteristics



helicity shows if the spin of a particle points in the direction of or opposite to the momentum



Experiments on β-decay have shown that neutrinos are left-handed while antineutrinos are right-handed



Anti-neutrino

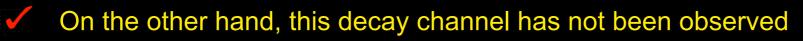
Figure 7.2: Neutrino and antineutrino are always *polarized* if we neglect their very small masses. The neutrino has its spin always opposite to its momentum; the antineutrino has parallel spin and momentum.





- The following decays of muons are allowed and are quite common
 - They involve two types of neutrinos, one for the electron and the other for the muon

 $\mu^+ \rightarrow e^+ + \nu_e + \overline{\nu}_{\mu} \qquad \mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \overline{\nu}_e + \nu_{\mu}$





The branching ratio is less than 1.2x10⁻¹¹

 $\mu^{\pm} \rightarrow e^{\pm} + \gamma$

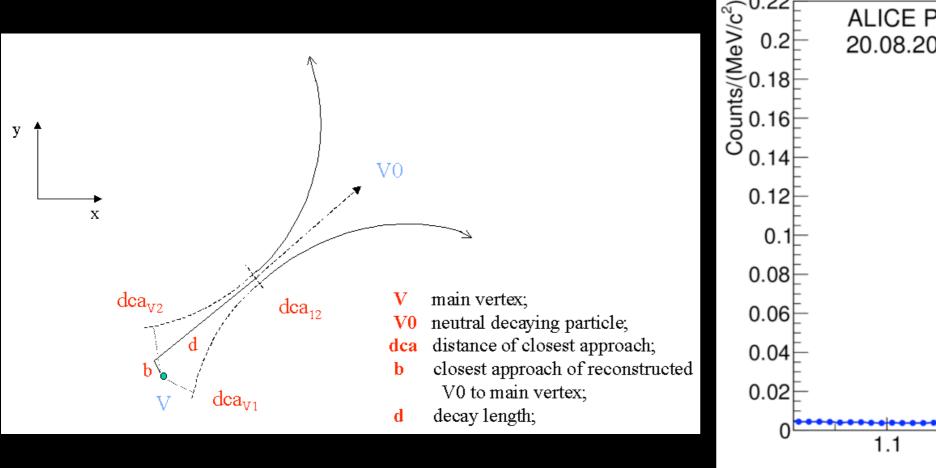
This indicates that there should be another conservation law, the one of <u>lepton</u> <u>flavour</u> (e,μ,τ)

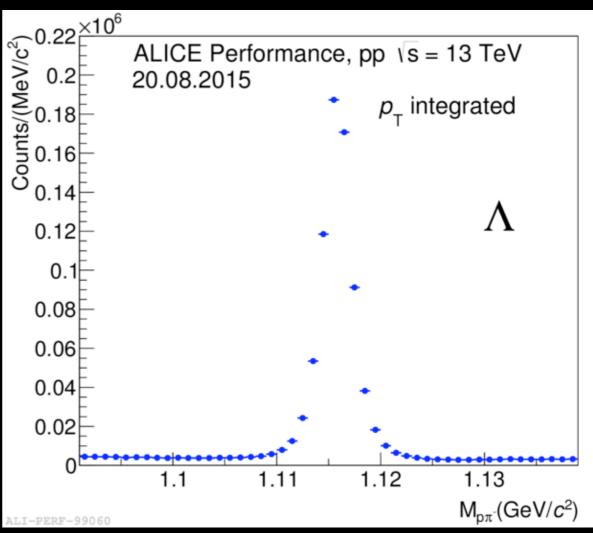
Particle	Le	Lμ	LT	Antiparticle	Le	Lμ	Lτ
e¯	+1	0	0	e^+	-1	0	0
ν _e	+1	0	0	ν _e	-1	0	0
μ	0	+1	0	μ+	0	-1	0
$ u_{\mu}$	0	+1	0	ν _μ	0	-1	0
$ au^-$	0	0	+1	τ^+	0	0	-1
ν_{τ}	0	0	+1	ν,	0	0	-1





- Observation of decay of particles with a characteristic V-shape decay topology
 - These decays were rather slow, with a lifetime of 10⁻¹⁰s, typical lifetime of a weak decay
- Gell-Mann and Nishijima introduced a new quantum numbers, called strangeness
- Strangeness is conserved in the strong and electromagnetic interactions, but it is violated in the weak interactions





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We can define hypercharge as the sum of the baryon number and strangeness (and all additional quantum numbers for heavier quark states)

Hypercharge Y = S + C + B + T + BN

Table 7.1: BARYON NUMBER A, STRANGENESS S, HYPERCHARGE Y, AND AVERAGE VALUE OF THE CHARGE NUMBER $N_q = q/e$.

Particle		A	S	Y	$\langle N_q \rangle$
Photon	γ	0	0	0	0
Pion	$\pi^+\pi^0\pi^-$	0	0	0	0
Kaon	K^+K^0	0	1	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
Nucleon	pn	1	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
Lambda	Λ^0	1	-1	0	0
Sigma	$\Sigma^+\Sigma^0\Sigma^-$	1	-1	0	0
Cascade	$\Xi^-\Xi_0$	1	-2	-1	$-\frac{1}{2}$
Omega	Ω^{-}	1	-3	-2	-1^{2}



	Quantum Number					
Quark	Α	S	C	В	T	$Y_{\rm gen}$
d	1/3	0	0	0	0	1/3
\boldsymbol{u}	1/3	0	0	0	0	1/3
8	1/3	-1	0	0	0	-2/3
\boldsymbol{c}	1/3	0	1	0	0	4/3
b	1/3	0	0	-1	0	-2/3
t	1/3	0	0	0	1	4/3

Table 7.2: QUANTUM NUMBER ASSIGNMENTS FOR THE SIX QUARKS.

For quarks we can introduce the generalised hypercharge, defined as

 $Y_{gen} = A + S + C + B + T = 2 \langle q/e \rangle$





- Neutron and proton are quite similar apart from their charge
- Heisenberg proposed that they are regarded as the two states of the same particle
 - the nucleon
- Similar to the notation related to spin we can write p and n with a two component column matrix
- By direct analogy to spin we introduce isospin with coordinates in the isospin space:

 \bigcirc I_1, I_2, I_3

- Strong interactions are invariant under rotations in isospin space
 - Isospin is conserved
- Group theory wording:



Strong interactions are invariant under an internal symmetry of SU(2)

