

The Standard Model of particle physics

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Helmholtz Alliance

- ► I.J.R. Aitchison and A.J.G. Hey, "Gauge Theories in Particle Physics", IoP Publishing.
- R.K. Ellis, W.J. Stirling and B.R. Webber, "QCD And Collider Physics," Cambridge Monogr. Part. Phys. Nucl. Phys. Cosmol. 8 (1996) 1.
- D. E. Soper, Basics of QCD perturbation theory, arXiv:hep-ph/0011256.
- Lectures by Keith Ellis, Douglas Ross, Adrian Signer, Robert Thorne and Bryan Webber (thanks!).

The Standard Model Lagrangian is determined by symmetries

- ► space-time symmetry: global Poincaré-symmetry
- internal symmetries: local SU(n) gauge symmetries

$$\mathcal{L}_{SM} = -\frac{1}{4} F^{a}_{\mu\nu} F^{a\mu\nu} + i\bar{\psi} \not D \psi$$
 gauge sector

$$+ |DH|^{2} - V(H)$$
 EWSB sector

$$+ \psi_{i} \lambda_{ij} \psi_{j} H + \text{h.c.}$$
 flavour sector

$$+ N_{i} M_{ij} N_{j}$$
 ν -mass sector

- ▶ QED and QCD as gauge theories
- ► QCD for the LHC
- Breaking gauge symmetries:

the Englert-Brout-Higgs-Guralnik-Hagen-Kibble mechanism

QCD as an SU(3) gauge theory

We start with the Dirac Lagrangian for a free quark q,

$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{q} \left(i \gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu} - m \right) q$$
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Recall that SU(3) is the group of special unitary transformations, i.e. the group of all 3×3 unitary matrices with determinant one. To specify an SU(3) transformation, one needs $3^2 - 1 = 8$ real parameters, so we can write

where the ω^a , $a \in \{1, ..., 8\}$ are real parameters, and the T^a are called generators of the group. [If you are unfamiliar with the concept of a group generator, you can think of the T^a as traceless, hermitian 3×3 matrices.]

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SU(3) is a non-abelian group, i.e. its generators and thus its elements do not commute,

$$[T^a, T^b] = i f^{abc} T^c \neq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad e^{-i\omega_1^a T^a} e^{-i\omega_2^b T^b} \neq e^{-i\omega_2^b T^b} e^{-i\omega_1^a T^a}$$

$$q \rightarrow \left(e^{-i\omega^{a}T^{a}}\right) q$$
 or $q_{i} \rightarrow \left(e^{-i\omega^{a}T^{a}}\right)_{i}^{j}q_{j}$

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The SU(3) invariant Lagrangian then becomes

$$\mathcal{L}=-rac{1}{4}m{F}^{a}_{\mu
u}m{F}^{a\,\mu
u}+ar{m{q}}^{i}\left(i\gamma^{\mu}D_{\mu}-m{m}
ight)^{j}_{i}m{q}_{j}$$

with $F^a_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A^a_
u - \partial_
u A^a_\mu - g f^{abc} A^b_\mu A^c_
u$.

Because of the gauge symmetry, the gluon is massless.

The interactions of QCD follow from gauge invariance:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\rm interaction} = g A^a_\mu \, \bar{q} \gamma^\mu T^a q - g f^{abc} (\partial_\mu A^a_\nu) A^{b\,\mu} A^{c\,\nu} - g^2 f^{abc} f^{ade} A^b_\mu A^c_\nu A^{d\,\mu} A^{e\,\nu} :$$



Consider a dimensionless physical observable R, e.g. the ratio of two cross sections, evaluated at some large energy scale Q. If $Q \gg m$, one can set $m \rightarrow 0$, and dimensional analysis implies that R should be independent of Q.

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The calculation of R as a perturbation series in the coupling $\alpha_{\rm s} \equiv g/4\pi$ requires renormalization to remove ultraviolet contributions. This introduces a second mass scale μ – the point at which the UV contributions are subtracted. Thus

$$R = R(Q^2/\mu^2, \alpha_{\mathrm{s}}(\mu^2)).$$

$$\mu^2 rac{d}{d\mu^2} R(Q^2/\mu^2, lpha_{
m s}(\mu^2)) = \left[\mu^2 rac{\partial}{\partial\mu^2} + \mu^2 rac{\partiallpha_{
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This renormalization group equation is solved by defining a running coupling $\alpha_s(Q^2)$:

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The β -function has a perturbative expansion and can be extracted from an explicit calculation of higher-order loop-corrections to propagators and vertices.

The running of the coupling at one-loop is thus determined from

$$rac{\partial lpha_{
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which yields

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For $n_f \leq 16$ the QCD coupling decreases with increasing Q^2 . This is the famous property of asymptotic freedom.

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$$\alpha_{\rm s}(Q^2) = \frac{\alpha_{\rm s}(\mu^2)}{1 + \alpha_{\rm s}(\mu^2) \, b \ln(Q^2/\mu^2)} \quad \text{with} \quad b = \frac{33 - 2n_f}{12\pi}$$

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Note that in QED one finds b = -1/3 so that the QED coupling

$$lpha_{ ext{QED}}(m{Q}^2) = rac{lpha_{ ext{QED}}(\mu^2)}{1 - rac{lpha_{ ext{QED}}(\mu^2)}{3\pi} \ln(m{Q}^2/\mu^2)}$$

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The running QCD coupling



Consider the scattering of a high-energy charged lepton off a proton target.

In the parton model we imagine the proton, or any other hadron, to be made of point-like constituents, the partons. The photon scatters from a point-like quark with fraction ξ of the proton's momentum.



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The parton model leads to an intuitive formula that relates the lepton-hadron cross section to the cross section for the electron-parton scattering:

$$\frac{d\sigma^{(lh)}}{dxdQ^2} = \sum_{a} \int_0^1 d\xi f_{a/h}(\xi) \frac{d\sigma^{(la)}}{dxdQ^2},$$

where $d\sigma^{(lh)}$ is the inclusive cross section for lepton-nucleon scattering, while $d\sigma^{(la)}$ is the parton-electron cross section, with the parton's momentum given by ξp , ξ between zero and one, and $f_{a/h}(\xi)$ is a parton distribution function.

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The limit $k_T \rightarrow 0$ corresponds to a long-range part of QCD which is not calculable in perturbation theory. However, there is a factorisation theorem which states that the long-range contributions can be absorbed in the parton distribution functions.

Separating short- and long-distance physics requires the introduction of a factorisation scale μ_F .

The dependence of the parton distribution function on the renormalisation scale μ_F is determined by the DGLAP equation:

$$\frac{d}{d\ln\mu_F}f_{a/h}(x,\mu_F) = \sum_b \int_x^1 \frac{d\xi}{\xi} P_{ab}(x/\xi,\alpha_s(\mu_F)) f_{b/h}(\xi,\mu_F).$$

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The splitting function P_{ab} has a perturbative expansion

$$P_{ab}(x/\xi,\alpha_s(\mu_F)) = P_{ab}^{(1)}(x/\xi) \ \frac{\alpha_s(\mu_F)}{\pi} + P_{ab}^{(2)}(x/\xi) \ \left(\frac{\alpha_s(\mu_F)}{\pi}\right)^2 + \cdots$$

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The DGLAP-equation is one of the most important equations in perturbative QCD.

Hadron-hadron collisions

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The cross section for a hard scattering process initiated by two hadrons with momenta p_A and p_B takes a factored form similar to that found for deeply inelastic scattering

$$d\sigma(p_A, p_B) = \sum_{a,b} \int d\xi_A d\xi_B f_{a/A}(\xi_A, \mu_F) f_{b/B}(\xi_B, \mu_F)
onumber \ imes d\hat{\sigma}_{ab}(\xi_A p_A, \xi_B p_B, \mu_F).$$

Historically, the most convincing evidence that the quark-parton-model provides the correct framework for high-energy processes in general came from its success in describing the Drell-Yan process (1971).



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LHC phenomenology 2015: new discoveries?

