

# Searching for Supersymmetry at the LHC

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## Lay-out:

1. Why supersymmetry
2. General features of a supersymmetric theory
3. The minimal supersymmetric Standard Model
4. Brief introduction to the LHC
  - the environment
  - the detectors
  - the main challenges
5. The LHC potential for supersymmetry
  - Inclusive searches
  - Precision measurements
  - Reconstruction of the underlying theory
6. Conclusions and outlook

We will try (as much as possible) to interleave the theoretical and experimental parts.

## **Special emphasis on:**

- The basic language
- Comparison of strategy and potential of various machines
- How to perform a SUSY analysis (step by step) at the LHC
- What we can (and cannot) learn about SUSY from the LHC

In many respects

**we are happy with the Standard Model**

- a unitary, renormalizable relativistic quantum field theory
- amazingly consistent with data.

The problem of spontaneous gauge symmetry breaking (short range of weak interactions) is solved in a simple way by the Higgs mechanism.

This also allows breaking of the flavour symmetry in a phenomenologically consistent way (flavour breaking confined in the charged current interaction sector).

**Achieving the same results without the Higgs mechanism is extremely difficult.**

At the same time,

**we are unhappy with the Standard Model.**

Many unsatisfactory aspects:

- What is the origin of flavour symmetry breaking?
- Is there a grand unification?
- Where is gravitation?

The last two points raise further problems:

- **Hierarchy**
- **Naturalness**

Two facts:

- The mass of the minimal Standard Model Higgs boson is not far from the weak scale,  $\sim 200$  GeV.
- Much larger energy scales become relevant at some point

A first question arises: why is the weak scale so much smaller than the Planck scale,  $M_P \sim 10^{19}$  GeV, or the unification scale,  $M_{GUT} \sim 10^{16}$  GeV?

This is usually referred to as the **hierarchy problem**.

**Even worse:** The Higgs mass (masses of scalar particles, in general) is strongly sensitive to any large energy scale unless a *fine tuning* of parameters is performed.

This is the so-called **naturalness problem**.

There is a very simple reason for this: scalar masses are not **naturally small**, in the sense that no symmetry is recovered when they are let go to zero.

Fermion and vector boson masses *are* naturally small: radiative corrections are proportional to the masses themselves.

## Naturalness and fine tuning in a simple example

Consider a theory of two real scalars fields:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \partial^\mu \phi \partial_\mu \phi + \frac{1}{2} \partial^\mu \Phi \partial_\mu \Phi - V(\phi, \Phi)$$

with

$$V(\phi, \Phi) = \frac{m^2}{2} \phi^2 + \frac{M^2}{2} \Phi^2 + \frac{\lambda}{4!} \phi^4 + \frac{\sigma}{4!} \Phi^4 + \frac{\delta}{4} \phi^2 \Phi^2$$

Assume  $\lambda$ ,  $\sigma$ ,  $\delta$  are all positive, small and comparable in magnitude, and assume  $M^2 \gg m^2 > 0$ .

Is the mass hierarchy  $m^2 \ll M^2$  conserved at the quantum level?



Compute one-loop radiative corrections to  $m^2$  by taking the second derivatives of the effective potential at the minimum  $\phi = \Phi = 0$ :

$$m_{\text{one loop}}^2 = m^2(\mu^2) + \frac{\lambda m^2}{32\pi^2} \left( \log \frac{m^2}{\mu^2} - 1 \right) + \frac{\delta M^2}{32\pi^2} \left( \log \frac{M^2}{\mu^2} - 1 \right)$$
$$\mu^2 \frac{\partial m^2}{\partial \mu^2} = \frac{1}{32\pi^2} (\lambda m^2 + \delta M^2)$$

Corrections proportional to  $M^2$  appear at one loop. One can choose  $\mu^2 \sim M^2$  in order to get rid of them, but they reappear through the running of  $m^2(\mu^2)$ .

**The mass hierarchy is preserved only if the parameters are such that**

$$\lambda m^2 \sim \delta M^2 \rightarrow \frac{\delta}{\lambda} \sim \frac{m^2}{M^2}$$

**This is what we usually call a *fine tuning* of the parameters.**

The same thing happens if  $m^2 < 0$ ,  $M^2 \gg |m^2| > 0$ . In this case the tree-level potential has a minimum at

$$\Phi = 0, \quad \phi^2 = -6m^2/\lambda \equiv v^2$$

and the symmetry  $\phi \rightarrow -\phi$  is **spontaneously broken**. The degrees of freedom in this case are  $\Phi$  and  $\phi' \equiv \phi - v$ , with

$$m_{\Phi}^2 = M^2 \quad m_{\phi'}^2 = -2m^2 = \lambda v^2/3$$

At one loop, the minimization condition  $m^2 + \lambda v^2/6 = 0$  is replaced by

$$m^2 + \frac{\lambda v^2}{6} = -\frac{\lambda}{32\pi^2} \left( m^2 + \frac{\lambda v^2}{2} \right) \left( \log \frac{m^2 + \frac{\lambda v^2}{2}}{\mu^2} - 1 \right) - \frac{\delta}{32\pi^2} \left( M^2 + \frac{\delta v^2}{2} \right) \left( \log \frac{M^2 + \frac{\delta v^2}{2}}{\mu^2} - 1 \right)$$

Following the same procedure as in the unbroken case one finds

$$m_{\phi'}^2 = \frac{\lambda v^2}{3} + \frac{v^2}{32\pi^2} \left[ \lambda^2 \log \frac{m^2 + \frac{\lambda v^2}{2}}{\mu^2} + \delta^2 \log \frac{M^2 + \frac{\delta v^2}{2}}{\mu^2} \right]$$

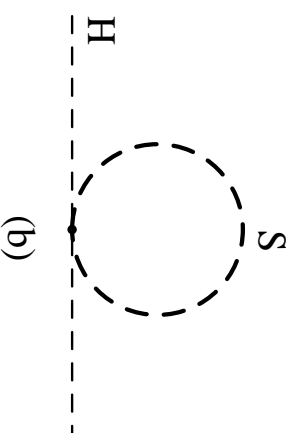
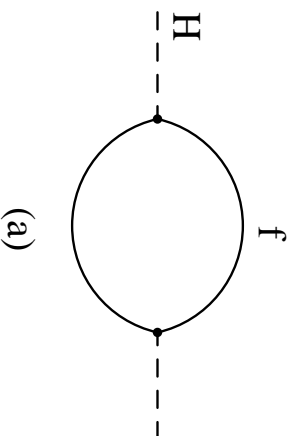
with  $v \sim M$  without a suitable tuning of the parameters.

## Naturalness: a closer look

The scalar potential in the Standard Model:

$$V(\phi) = m^2 |\phi|^2 + \lambda |\phi|^4$$

One-loop corrections to  $m^2$  due to fermionic (a) or bosonic (b) degrees of freedom:



$$(\Delta m^2)_a = \frac{|\lambda_f|^2}{16\pi^2} \left[ -2\Lambda^2 + 6m_f^2 \log \frac{\Lambda}{m_f} + \dots \right]$$

$$(\Delta m^2)_b = \frac{\lambda_S}{16\pi^2} \left[ \Lambda^2 - 2m_S^2 \log \frac{\Lambda}{m_S} + \dots \right]$$

Here  $\Lambda$  is an ultraviolet cut-off, to be identified with the energy scale at which the SM is no longer reliable, and the dots stand for terms that do not grow with  $\Lambda$ .

In **dimensional regularization** the  $\Lambda^2$  term would be absent, but contributions proportional to  $m_f^2, m_S^2$  would still be there.

Even if the heavy degrees of freedom are not directly coupled to the SM Higgs, it can be shown that similar contributions arise at higher orders.

**In the absence of very special cancellations, the Higgs boson becomes as heavy as the heaviest degrees of freedom.**

A **symmetry** that relates fermions to bosons would do the job, at least at one loop. Suppose there are two scalars for each fermion:

$$(\Delta m^2)_{a+b} = \frac{\lambda_S - |\lambda_f|^2}{8\pi^2} \Lambda^2 + \dots$$

For suitable values of the couplings the quadratic divergence disappears.

**No surprise:** with bosons and fermions in the same multiplet, scalar masses are protected by the same (chiral) symmetry that protects fermion masses from large radiative corrections.

Clearly, more restrictions will be needed in order to guarantee that the cancellation takes place at all orders.

Such a symmetry is called a **supersymmetry**:

$$Q|boson\rangle = |fermion\rangle \quad Q|fermion\rangle = |boson\rangle$$

The symmetry generator  $Q$  (and its hermitian conjugate  $Q^\dagger$ ) carry spin 1/2: it is a **space-time symmetry**.

The form of possible supersymmetry algebras is strongly constrained on the basis of very general theorems in field theory. For example, it is impossible with ordinary symmetry generators (elements of a commutator algebra).

**There is essentially one possibility:**

$$\{Q, Q^\dagger\} = P^\mu$$

$$\{Q, Q\} = \{Q^\dagger, Q^\dagger\} = 0$$

$$[P^\mu, Q] = [P^\mu, Q^\dagger] = 0$$

**(more on this later). Further specifications:**

- $Q, Q^\dagger$  transform as spinors under the Lorentz group
- $Q, Q^\dagger$  commute with gauge symmetry generators.

**In principle, we may have more than one  $Q$ :  $Q^i, i = 1, \dots, N$  (extended supersymmetry).**

A few basic properties of a supersymmetric theory can already be recognized:

- particles in the same supersymmetric multiplet (which we will call a **supermultiplet**) have equal masses and equal gauge transformation properties (electric charge, weak isospin and color)
- within the same supermultiplet, there is an equal number of bosonic and fermionic degrees of freedom (a proof on the next slide)



**A proof (taken from S. Martin):**

$$\left. \begin{aligned} (-1)^{2s}|\text{boson}\rangle &= +|\text{boson}\rangle \\ (-1)^{2s}|\text{fermion}\rangle &= -|\text{fermion}\rangle \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \{(1-)^{2s}, Q\} = \{(1-)^{2s}, Q^\dagger\} = 0$$

**Consider the subspace of states  $|i\rangle$  within a supermultiplet with the same eigenvalue  $p^\mu$  of the four-momentum operator  $P^\mu$ .  $\sum_i |i\rangle\langle i| = 1$  within this subspace of states.**

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i \langle i|(-1)^{2s}P^\mu|i\rangle &= \sum_i \langle i|(-1)^{2s}QQ^\dagger|i\rangle + \sum_i \langle i|(-1)^{2s}Q^\dagger Q|i\rangle \\ &= \sum_i \langle i|(-1)^{2s}QQ^\dagger|i\rangle + \sum_i \sum_j \langle i|(-1)^{2s}Q^\dagger|j\rangle\langle j|Q|i\rangle \\ &= \sum_i \langle i|(-1)^{2s}QQ^\dagger|i\rangle + \sum_j \langle j|Q(-1)^{2s}Q^\dagger|j\rangle \\ &= \sum_i \langle i|(-1)^{2s}QQ^\dagger|i\rangle - \sum_j \langle j|(-1)^{2s}QQ^\dagger|j\rangle \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

## Fermionic fields: a reminder

We use the Weyl representation of the Dirac matrices:

$$\gamma^\mu = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \sigma^\mu \\ \bar{\sigma}^\mu & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \sigma^\mu = (\sigma^0, \vec{\sigma}) \quad \bar{\sigma}^\mu = (\sigma^0, -\vec{\sigma}) \quad \gamma_5 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\vec{\sigma}$  are the three Pauli matrices

$$\sigma^1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\sigma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The familiar lagrangian for a free, massive Dirac spinor is

$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{\psi} (i\rlap{\not{D}} - m) \psi \quad (\rlap{\not{D}} = \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu)$$

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \xi_L \\ \xi_R \end{pmatrix} \quad \psi_L = \begin{pmatrix} \xi_L \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \gamma_5)\psi \quad \psi_R = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \xi_R \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \gamma_5)\psi$$

Four-component Dirac spinors realize a **reducible** representation of the Lorentz group: the two-component spinors  $\xi_L$ ,  $\xi_R$  transform independently under Lorentz transformations.

In terms of  $\xi_L$ ,  $\xi_R$  we have

$$\mathcal{L} = i\xi_L^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \xi_L + i\xi_R^\dagger \sigma^\mu \partial_\mu \xi_R - m(\xi_L^\dagger \xi_R + \xi_R^\dagger \xi_L)$$

It can be shown that the transformation law of the two-component spinor  $\xi_R$  under Lorentz transformations are the same as those of  $\epsilon\xi_L^*$ , where  $\epsilon$  is the antisymmetric matrix

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

It follows that any Dirac spinor may always be written in terms of two left-handed Weyl spinors  $\xi, \chi$  as

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ -\epsilon\chi^* \end{pmatrix}$$

(the minus sign on the second Weyl spinor is conventional).

**The free lagrangian for a massive Dirac spinor is**

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L} = \bar{\psi} (i\rlap{\not{D}} - m) \psi &= i\chi^T \epsilon \sigma^\mu \epsilon \partial_\mu \chi^\dagger + i\xi^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \xi - m(\chi^T \epsilon \xi - \xi^\dagger \epsilon \chi^*) \\ &= i\chi^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \chi + i\xi^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu \xi - m(\chi^T \epsilon \xi - \xi^\dagger \epsilon \chi^*)\end{aligned}$$

**Note that**

$$\chi^T \epsilon \xi = \xi^T \epsilon \chi$$

**because of the anticommutation properties of fermion fields, and that**

$$(\chi^T \epsilon \xi)^\dagger = \xi^\dagger \epsilon^T \chi^* = -\xi^\dagger \epsilon \chi^*$$

**The shorthand notation**

$$\chi \xi = \xi \chi = i\chi^T \epsilon \xi \quad \xi^\dagger \chi^\dagger = \chi^\dagger \xi^\dagger = -\xi^\dagger \epsilon \chi^*$$

**is often used.**

Any theory involving spin-1/2 particles may be written as a collection of left-handed Weyl spinors  $\psi_i$ .

Left-handed fermions in the Standard Model:

$$\begin{aligned} & u_i, d_i, e_i, \nu_i \\ & \bar{u}_i, \bar{d}_i, \bar{e}_i \end{aligned}$$

where  $i = 1, 2, 3$  is a generation index. For example, the Dirac spinor for the up quark is written in terms of two left-handed Weyl spinors  $u$  and  $\bar{u}$  as

$$\psi_u \equiv \begin{pmatrix} u_L \\ u_R \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ -\epsilon \bar{u}^* \end{pmatrix}$$

(NB: the bar on  $\bar{u}$  here has no special meaning, it is just part of the name)

The Weyl notation is convenient, since left- and right-handed components of Dirac fermions, which behave differently in weak interactions, are treated separately. Furthermore, the simplest (irreducible) representations of supersymmetry contain Weyl fermions.

The simplest supermultiplet candidate:

a Weyl fermion  $\psi$  and two real (or one complex) scalar  $\phi_1, \phi_2$ .

This is called a chiral or matter supermultiplet.

Next-to-simplest possibility: a supermultiplet that contains a massless gauge vector boson  $A_\mu^a$ . Two bosonic degrees of freedom, so its partner must be again a Weyl fermion, called a *gaugino*,  $\lambda^a$  (it cannot be a spin-3/2 field: we want a renormalizable theory).

Gauge bosons belong to the adjoint representation of the gauge group, so the same is true for their supersymmetric partners.

Thus,

**gauginos are not chiral fermions**

because the adjoint representation is equivalent to its conjugate.

The pair  $A_\mu^a, \lambda^a$  is called a **gauge supermultiplet**.



It turns out that any other representation of the supersymmetry algebra can be reduced to a combination of chiral and gauge supermultiplets, at least if there is only one supersymmetry generator  $Q$  ( $N = 1$  supersymmetry).

We will not consider extended ( $N > 1$ ) supersymmetries, because they cannot accommodate chiral fermions.

## The particle content of a supersymmetric SM

- No supermultiplet can be formed out of standard particles (e.g.  $\gamma, \nu$ ).
- Matter fermions must belong to chiral supermultiplets, because left and right fermions transform differently under the weak gauge group.
- Gauge bosons must go into gauge supermultiplets.
- At least two Higgs doublets, with their fermionic partners: cancellation of the axial anomaly.

spin 0	spin 1/2	spin 1	$SU(3)_C$	$SU(2)_L$	$U(1)_Y$
$\tilde{u}_L, \tilde{d}_L$	$u_L, d_L$		<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	$+\frac{1}{3}$
$\tilde{u}_R$	$u_R$		<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	$+\frac{4}{3}$
$\tilde{d}_R$	$d_R$		<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	$-\frac{2}{3}$
$\tilde{\nu}, \tilde{e}_L$	$\nu, e_L$		<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	-1
$\tilde{e}_R$	$e_R$		<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	-2
$H_u^+, H_u^0$	$\tilde{h}_u^+, \tilde{h}_u^0$		<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	+1
$H_d^0, H_d^-$	$\tilde{h}_d^0, \tilde{h}_d^-$		<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	-1
	$\tilde{g}$	$g$	<b>8</b>	<b>1</b>	0
	$\tilde{w}^\pm, \tilde{w}^0$	$W^\pm, W^0$	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	0
	$\tilde{b}^0$	$B^0$	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	0

Supersymmetric partners of standard particles (e.g. a scalar electron) with the same masses would have been detected in experiments. Since none of them has been observed so far, we must conclude that

**supersymmetry must be broken**

in a realistic theory. Recall our formula for scalar mass corrections:

$$(\Delta m^2)_{a+b} = \frac{\lambda_S - |\lambda_f|^2}{8\pi^2} \Lambda^2 + \dots$$

Supersymmetry forces  $\lambda_S = |\lambda_f|^2$  to all orders in perturbation theory, so that quadratic divergences are systematically cancelled. This feature must be preserved in the broken theory:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{supersymmetric}} + \mathcal{L}_{\text{soft}}$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{soft}}$  only contains mass terms and couplings with positive mass dimension.

Supersymmetric partners of ordinary particles are so heavy that they have escaped detection so far.

**Is there a reason for that?**

All ordinary particles, including the  $W$ ,  $Z$  bosons and the top quark, would be massless in the absence of spontaneous breaking of the electroweak gauge symmetry.

The contrary is true for their partners: scalar masses are always allowed by gauge symmetries, and gaugino can be massive because they belong to a real representation of the gauge group.

The only exception is the Higgs boson.

## A rough estimate of superparticle masses

Call  $m_{\text{soft}}$  the largest mass scale present in  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{soft}}$ . The corrections to  $m^2$  arising from  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{soft}}$  must vanish as  $m_{\text{soft}} \rightarrow 0$ , so they cannot grow as  $\Lambda^2$ . Corrections proportional to  $m_{\text{soft}}\Lambda$  are also forbidden (UV divergences are either quadratic or logarithmic). Therefore

$$\Delta m^2 \sim \lambda m_{\text{soft}}^2 \log \frac{\Lambda}{m_{\text{soft}}}$$

( $\lambda$  a generic coupling). Furthermore,

$$m_F^2 - m_B^2 \sim m_{\text{soft}}^2$$

within a supermultiplet. It follows ( $\lambda \sim 1, \Lambda \sim M_P$ ) that

$$m_{\text{soft}} \lesssim 1 \text{ TeV}$$

in order to get the correct value of the Higgs v.e.v.

## Building a supersymmetric theory

A simple example: one left-handed Weyl fermion

$$\psi \equiv P_L \psi \quad P_{L,R} = \frac{1}{2}(1 \mp \gamma_5)$$

and one complex scalar  $\phi$ , no masses, no interactions:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{\text{chiral}} &= \mathcal{L}_f + \mathcal{L}_s \\ \mathcal{L}_f &= \bar{\psi} i \not{\partial} \psi \\ \mathcal{L}_s &= \partial^\mu \phi^* \partial_\mu \phi \end{aligned}$$

Is it possible to define a set of transformation rules on the fields, such that scalars are transformed into fermions, under which  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{chiral}}$  remains unchanged?

Let us consider the scalar field first, and tentatively define

$$\delta\phi = \bar{\eta}\psi \quad \delta\phi^* = \bar{\psi}\eta$$

where  $\eta$  is a constant, infinitesimal, anticommuting spinor. Then

$$\delta\mathcal{L}_s = (\partial^\mu\bar{\psi})(\partial_\mu\phi)\eta + \bar{\eta}(\partial^\mu\phi^*)(\partial_\mu\psi)$$

How does  $\psi$  transform?  $\delta\psi$  must be left-handed, linear in  $\eta$ , and must contain one derivative. Only one possibility (up to a proportionality factor):

$$\delta\psi = -i(\partial_\mu\phi)\gamma^\mu\eta \quad \delta\bar{\psi} = i\bar{\eta}\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu\phi^*$$

which tells us that  $\eta$  is right-handed,  $P_R\eta = \eta$ , and gives

$$\delta\mathcal{L}_f = -\bar{\eta}(\partial_\mu\phi^*)\gamma^\mu\gamma^\nu\partial_\nu\psi + \bar{\psi}\gamma^\nu\gamma^\mu\partial_\nu(\partial_\mu\phi)\eta$$



Using  $\{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = 2g^{\mu\nu}$  and  $\partial_\mu \partial_\nu = \partial_\nu \partial_\mu$  we get

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \mathcal{L}_f &= -\bar{\eta} (\partial_\mu \phi^*) (\partial^\mu \psi) - (\partial_\mu \bar{\psi}) (\partial^\mu \phi) \eta \\ &\quad - \bar{\eta} \partial_\nu [(\partial_\mu \phi^*) \gamma^\mu \gamma^\nu \psi] + \bar{\eta} \partial_\mu [(\partial^\mu \phi^*) \psi] + \partial_\mu (\bar{\psi} \partial^\mu \phi) \eta \end{aligned}$$

The first row cancels against  $\delta \mathcal{L}_s$ , and the rest is a total derivative.

So,

$$\delta \int d^4x \mathcal{L}_{\text{chiral}} = 0$$

Not yet enough to declare that  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{chiral}}$  is supersymmetric: we must check that the commutator of two transformations is a symmetry of the theory. For the scalar fields we find

$$(\delta_{\eta_1} \delta_{\eta_2} - \delta_{\eta_2} \delta_{\eta_1}) \phi = -(\bar{\eta}_2 \gamma^\mu \eta_1 - \bar{\eta}_1 \gamma^\mu \eta_2) i \partial_\mu \phi$$

**Good news:**  $i \partial_\mu$  is nothing but the four-momentum operator  $P_\mu$ ,

the generator of space-time translations, a symmetry of space-time.

Now consider the fermion fields. After some tedious algebra,\* we get

$$\begin{aligned}(\delta_{\eta_1} \delta_{\eta_2} - \delta_{\eta_2} \delta_{\eta_1}) \psi &= -(\bar{\eta}_2 \gamma^\mu \eta_1 - \bar{\eta}_1 \gamma^\mu \eta_2) i \partial_\mu \psi \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} (\bar{\eta}_2 \gamma^\mu \eta_1 - \bar{\eta}_1 \gamma^\mu \eta_2) i \gamma_\mu \not{\Phi} \psi\end{aligned}$$

The first term is similar to what we got for  $\phi$ , while the second one vanishes on the mass shell,

$$\not{\Phi} \psi = 0.$$

**OK, but it might be useful to close the algebra even off shell.**

\* For those who wish to try: you need the Fierz identities (and some patience).

This can be done. Let us introduce an **auxiliary scalar field**  $F$ , with the lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}_a = F^* F$$

(note the unusual dimension:  $m^2$  instead of  $m$ ). It is harmless: the equation of motion is  $F = 0$ . Now assume

$$\delta F = -i\bar{\eta}\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu\psi \quad \delta F^* = i\partial_\mu\bar{\psi}\gamma^\mu\eta$$

and modify the fermion transformation rules as follows:

$$\delta\psi = P_L [-i\partial_\mu\phi\gamma^\mu\eta + F\eta] \quad \delta\bar{\psi} = [i\bar{\eta}\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu\phi^* + \bar{\eta}F^*] P_R$$

(which amounts to nothing, because the auxiliary fields vanish on shell).

Things start getting complicated:

1. We can no longer assume that  $P_R\eta = \eta$ , we must promote it to a full four-component spinor. In order not to increase the number of independent parameters, we assume it is a **Majorana** spinor:

$$\eta = \begin{pmatrix} \eta \\ -\epsilon\eta^* \end{pmatrix}$$

2. We now have to write explicitly the projector  $P_L$  in front of  $\delta\psi$ , in order to keep  $\psi$  left-handed.

Nevertheless, let us press on ...

... It is immediate to check that

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{chiral}} = \mathcal{L}_s + \mathcal{L}_f + \mathcal{L}_a$$

is **our first supersymmetric lagrangian** (not very exciting: it's a non-interacting theory), invariant under the transformation

$$\delta\phi = \bar{\eta}\psi$$

$$\delta\phi^* = \bar{\psi}\eta$$

$$\delta\psi = P_L [-i\partial_\mu\phi\gamma^\mu\eta + F\eta]$$

$$\delta\bar{\psi} = [i\bar{\eta}\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu\phi^* + \bar{\eta}F^*]P_R$$

$$\delta F = -i\bar{\eta}\gamma^\mu\partial_\mu\psi$$

$$\delta F^* = i\partial_\mu\bar{\psi}\gamma^\mu\eta$$

with

$$(\delta_{\eta_1}\delta_{\eta_2} - \delta_{\eta_2}\delta_{\eta_1})X = -(\bar{\eta}_2\gamma^\mu P_R\eta_1 - \bar{\eta}_1\gamma^\mu P_R\eta_2)i\partial_\mu X$$

for  $X = \phi, \psi, F$ , both on and off the mass shell. This structure can be replicated for an arbitrary number of chiral supermultiplets.

The same results they take a much simpler form when recast in Weyl language. Define Weyl spinors through

$$\psi \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \psi \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \eta \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \eta \\ -\epsilon\eta^* \end{pmatrix}$$

Recalling the definitions of  $\gamma$  matrices, we get

$$\delta\phi = \eta\psi$$

$$\delta\psi = -i(\sigma^\mu \epsilon\eta^*) \partial_\mu\phi + F\eta$$

$$\delta F = -i\eta^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu \partial_\mu\psi$$

and

$$(\delta_{\eta_1} \delta_{\eta_2} - \delta_{\eta_2} \delta_{\eta_1}) X = -(\eta_1^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu \eta_2 - \eta_2^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu \eta_1) i\partial_\mu X$$

Why do we need auxiliary fields? Count fermionic and bosonic degrees of freedom:

- on shell:  $\psi$  has two helicity states (it is a Weyl fermion):  $n_f = 2$   
 $\phi$  is a complex scalar:  $n_b = 2$
- off shell:  $\psi$  is a complex two-component spinor:  $n_f = 4$   
 $\phi$  is a complex scalar:  $n_b = 2$   
 $F$  is a complex scalar:  $n_b = 2$

Without the auxiliary fields, the counting rule  $n_f = n_b$  would be violated off the mass shell.

## Ordinary symmetries: a reminder

Consider a lagrangian density

$$\mathcal{L}(\phi, \partial\phi)$$

functions of a set of fields  $\phi_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ . The transformation

$$\delta\phi_i = i\eta^A T_{ij}^A \phi_j; \quad (T^A)^\dagger = T^A; \quad [T^A, T^B] = if^{ABC} T^C$$

is a symmetry transformation if

$$\delta\mathcal{L} = \eta^A \partial^\mu K_\mu^A \Rightarrow \delta S[\phi] = \delta \int d^4x \mathcal{L} = 0$$

As a consequence, a set of conserved currents exists:

$$\partial^\mu J_\mu^A = 0; \quad J_\mu^A = T_{ij}^A \phi_j \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \partial_\mu \phi_i} - K_\mu^A$$

$$Q^A(t) = \int d^3x J_0^A(t, \mathbf{x}); \quad \frac{d}{dt} Q^A(t) = 0; \quad [Q^A, Q^B] = if^{ABC} Q^C$$



The same procedure can be applied to our supersymmetry: a straightforward task.

The supersymmetry charge  $Q$  (a Weyl spinor!) is the space integral of the 0 component of a conserved current  $J_\mu$ .

One finds that its components obey the anticommutator algebra

$$\{Q, Q^\dagger\} = 2\sigma^\mu P_\mu; \quad \{Q, Q\} = \{Q^\dagger, Q^\dagger\} = 0$$

as anticipated.