Isospin

- Isospin is a continuous symmetry invented by Heisenberg:
 - Explain the observation that the strong interaction does not distinguish between neutron and proton.
 - Example: the mass difference between the two is very small:

 $(m_n - m_p)/m_n \approx 10^{-3}$

- Heisenberg's thought was that if you could turn off electromagnetism then $m_n = m_p$.
- We now believe that that isospin symmetry is due the near equality of the up and down quarks: $m_u \approx m_d$
- We postulate that isospin is conserved in the strong interaction, but not in the electromagnetic or weak.
 - Strong interaction does not feel (or "couple") to electric charge.
 - Expect the strong interaction of the proton and neutron to be the same.
 - Isospin operator (*I*) commutes with the strong Hamiltonian, but not electromagnetic Hamilatonian.
 - $\circ \quad [H_s,I] = 0$
 - $[H_{EM}, I] \neq 0$
- When constructing the wavefunction of a system under the strong interaction
 - we must take isospin into consideration to make sure we have correct (boson or fermion) symmetry.
 - This generalizes the Pauli Principle.
- When constructing baryons (3 quark states) and mesons (quark anti-quark states)
 - we take into account the isospin of the quarks:

•
$$u: I = 1/2, I_3 = +1/2$$

•
$$d: I = 1/2, I_3 = -1/2$$

• *s*, *c*, *t*, *b*: I = 0

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Isospin Combination

- Mathematically, isospin is identical to spin.
 - We combine isospin the same way we combine angular momentum in quantum mechanics.
 - Like angular momentum, isospin can be integral or half integral:

 Particles
 Isospin (I)

 Λ^0 or Ω^- 0

 (p,n) or (K^0, K^+)
 1/2

 π^+, π^0, π 1

 $\Delta^{++}, \Delta^+, \Delta^0, \Delta^-$ 3/2



- Like the proton and neutron:
 - the three pion states (π^+, π^0, π) are really one particle under the strong interaction.
 - Split by the electromagnetic interaction.
- Isospin states are labeled by the total isospin (I) and the third component of isospin (I_3).
 - Just like ordinary angular momentum states.

Particles	Isospin state $ I, I_3>$	
$\Lambda^0(uds)$ or $\Omega^-(sss)$	0,0>	
p (<i>uud</i>) or $K^+(u\bar{s})$	1/2,1/2>	
<i>n</i> (<i>udd</i>) or $K^0(d\overline{s})$	1/2,-1/2>	
$\pi^+(u\overline{d})$	1,1>	
$\pi^0 (u\overline{u} - d\overline{d})/\sqrt{2}$	1,0>	
$\pi(d\overline{u})$	1,-1>	

Clebsch-Gordan Coefficients

- Isospin is useful for understanding low energy (≈ 1 GeV) strong interaction scattering cross sections.
 - Consider the two reactions (*d* = deuterium):

$$pp \rightarrow d\pi^{+}$$

$$pn \rightarrow d\pi^0$$

- Deuterium is an "iso-singlet", |0,0>.
- In terms of isospin states we have:

$$pp = |1/2, 1/2 > |1/2, 1/2 > \qquad d\pi^{+} = |0, 0>|1, 1>$$

$$pn = |1/2, 1/2 > |1/2, -1/2 > \qquad d\pi^{0} = |0, 0>|1, 0>$$

- We can use the same techniques as is used to combine angular momentum in QM.
 - For pp, $d\pi^+$, and $d\pi^0$ there is only one way to combine the spin states: pp = |1/2, 1/2 > |1/2, 1/2 > = |1, 1 > $d\pi^+ = |0, 0> |1, 1> = |1, 1>$ $d\pi^0 = |0, 0> |1, 0> = |1, 0>$
 - The *pn* state is tricky since it is a combination of $|0,0\rangle$ and $|1,0\rangle$.
 - The amount of each state is given by the Clebsch-Gordan coefficients (1/ $\sqrt{2}$ in this cases). $|j_1, m_1 > |j_2, m_2 > = \sum_{j=|j_1-j_2|}^{j_1+j_2} C_{m,m_1,m_2}^{J,J_1,J_2} |j,m > with \ m = m_1 + m_2$ $|1/2, +1/2 > |1/2, -1/2 > = \frac{|0,0>}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{|1,0>}{\sqrt{2}}$

L5: Isospin and Parity

Clebsch-Gordan Coestance 1

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Figure 32.1: The sign convention is that of Wigner (Group Theory, Academic Press, New York, 1959), also used by Condon and Shortley (The Theory of Atomic Spectra, Cambridge Univ. Press, New York, 1953), Rose (Elementary Theory of Angular Momentum, Wiley, New York, 1957), and Cohen (Tables of the Clebsch-Gordan Coefficients North American Rockwell Stern Centre, Thousand Oaks, Calif., 1974). The coefficients here have been calculated using computer programs write Supplement at the Add ALEVY.

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Cross Section Calculation using Isospin

- We now want to calculate the ratio of scattering cross sections for these two reactions.
- Fermi's Golden Rules tells us that a cross section is proportional to the square of a matrix element: $\sigma \propto |\langle f|H|I \rangle|^2$
 - I = initial state
 - f = final state
 - H = Hamiltonian
 - If *H* conserves isospin (strong interaction)
 - The initial and final states must have the same I and I_3 .
 - Assuming isospin conservation we have:
 - $|\langle d\pi^{+}|H|pp\rangle|^{2} = |\langle 1,1||1,1\rangle|^{2} = 1$ $|\langle d\pi^{0}|H|pn\rangle|^{2} = |\langle 1,0|(1/\sqrt{2})(|0,0\rangle + |1,0\rangle)|^{2} = 1/2$
 - The ratio of cross section is expected to be:

$$\frac{\sigma_{pp \to d\pi^+}}{\sigma_{pn \to d\pi^0}} = \frac{\left| \left\langle d\pi^+ |H| pp \right\rangle \right|^2}{\left| \left\langle d\pi^0 |H| pn \right\rangle \right|^2} = \frac{2}{1}$$

★ This ratio is consistent with experimental measurement!

Another Cross Section Calculation Example

- Another example of isospin invariance can be found in pion nucleon scattering.
 - Consider the following two-body reactions:
 - State Isospin decomposition

$$\pi^+ p \qquad |1,1\rangle \Big| \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \Big\rangle = \Big| \frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2} \Big\rangle$$

 $\pi^{-}p \qquad |1,-1\rangle|_{\frac{1}{2}},_{\frac{1}{2}}\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}|_{\frac{3}{2}},-\frac{1}{2}\rangle - \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}|_{\frac{1}{2}},-\frac{1}{2}\rangle$

$$\pi^{0}n \qquad |1,0\rangle|\frac{1}{2},-\frac{1}{2}\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}|\frac{3}{2},-\frac{1}{2}\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}|\frac{1}{2},-\frac{1}{2}\rangle$$

- If at a certain energy the scattering particles form a bound state with I = 3/2
 - only the I = 3/2 components will contribute to the cross section:

$$\left< \frac{1}{2}, I_3 \middle| H \middle| \frac{1}{2}, I_3 \right> = 0$$
 or very small

$$\pi^{+} p \rightarrow \pi^{+} p = \langle \frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2} | H | \frac{3}{2}, \frac{3}{2} \rangle$$

$$\pi^{-} p \rightarrow \pi^{-} p = \frac{1}{3} \langle \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} | H | \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \rangle + \frac{2}{3} \langle \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} | H | \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \rangle = \frac{1}{3} \langle \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} | H | \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \rangle$$

$$\pi^{-} p \rightarrow \pi^{0} n = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \langle \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} | H | \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \rangle - \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \langle \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} | H | \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \rangle = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} \langle \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} | H | \frac{3}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \rangle$$

• The cross sections depend on the square of the matrix element.

If we assume that the strong interaction is independent of I_3 then we get the following relationships: $\sigma_{r^+r^-r^+r^-}: \sigma_{r^-r^-r^-} = 9:2:1$

$$\pi^+ p \rightarrow \pi^+ p \stackrel{\bullet}{\longrightarrow} \pi^- p \rightarrow \pi^o n \stackrel{\bullet}{\longrightarrow} \pi^- p \rightarrow \pi^- p$$

$$\frac{\sigma_{\pi^+ p}}{\sigma_{\pi^- p}} = \frac{\sigma_{\pi^+ p \to \pi^+ p}}{\sigma_{\pi^- p \to \pi^o n} + \sigma_{\pi^- p \to \pi^- p}} = 3$$

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L5: Isospin and Parity

Isospin Prediction vs. Data

• The three predictions are in good agreement with the data!



Data from 1952 paper by Fermi's group. They measured the cross section for πp and $\pi^+ p$ as a function of beam energy.

Modern compilation of data from many experiments giving the cross section for πp and $\pi^+ p$ as a function of the πp invariant mass.

L5: Isospin and Parity

Discrete Symmetries

- An example of a discrete transformation is the operation of inverting all angles: $\theta \rightarrow -\theta$
 - A rotation by an amount θ is a continuous transformation.
 - Discrete symmetries give multiplicative quantum numbers (e.g. parity, charge conjugation).
 - Continuous symmetries give additive quantum numbers (e.g. charge, spin).
- Three most important discrete symmetries:

Parity (P)	$(x,y,z) \rightarrow (-x,-y,-z)$
Charge Conjugation (<i>C</i>)	particles \rightarrow anti-particles
Time Reversal (<i>T</i>)	time \rightarrow -time

- Other not so common discrete symmetries include *G* parity:
 - *G* parity is important for pions under the strong interaction.
- Discrete transformations do not have to be unitary transformations !
 - *P* and *C* are unitary transformations
 - *T* is not a unitary transformation, *T* is an anti-unitary operator!
 - Operator *T* is not Hermitian.

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Parity

- Parity and nature:
 - The strong and electromagnetic interactions conserve parity.
 - The weak interaction does not.
 - If we consider a Hamiltonian to be made up of several pieces:

 $H = H_s + H_{EM} + H_W$

- The parity operator (P) commutes with H_s and H_{EM} but not with H_W .
- The fact that $[P, H_W] \neq 0$ constrains the functional form of the Hamiltonian.
- What does parity do to some common operations?

vector or polar vector $x \rightarrow -x$ or $p \rightarrow -p$ axial or pseudo vectors $J = x \times p \rightarrow J$ time $t \rightarrow t$

• What is the parity of scalar, vector etc.?

Name	Form	Parity
scalar	r•r	+
pseudoscalar	$x \cdot (y \times z)$	-
vector	r	-
axial vector	r×p	+
Tensor	F_{uv}	indefinite

- Special relativity: the Hamiltonian or Lagrangian of any interaction must transform like a Lorentz scalar.
 - * If H conserves parity then it should transform as like a scalar.
 - \star If *H* does not conserve parity then it must contain some pseudoscalar terms.

Parity

- Fermi's original theory of weak interactions (β -decay):
 - Hamiltonian was made up of bilinear combination of vector operators (*V*,*V*).
 - The observation of parity violation showed that this was wrong !
- A more general form of a weak Hamiltonian that does not conserve parity:

 $H_W = (S,S) + (S,PS) + (V,V) + (V,AV)...$

• Experimental fact: weak interactions where a charged lepton turns into a neutrino ("charged current") can be described by a Hamiltonian of the form:

 $H_W = (V, V) + (V, AV)$

"V-A" interaction

- This is parity violating since (V, V) has + parity but (V, AV) has parity.
- In QED the current is of the form:

 $J^{\mu} = \overline{u} \gamma^{\mu} u$

- transforms like a vector.
- In weak interactions the charged current (involves a *W* boson) is of the form: $J^{\mu} = \overline{u}\gamma^{\mu}(1-\gamma^{5})v = \overline{u}\gamma^{\mu}v - \overline{u}\gamma^{\mu}\gamma^{5}v \qquad \gamma^{5} = i\gamma^{0}\gamma^{1}\gamma^{2}\gamma^{3}$
 - contains both vector and axial vector terms
 - does not conserve parity!