

Introduction to Particle Physics

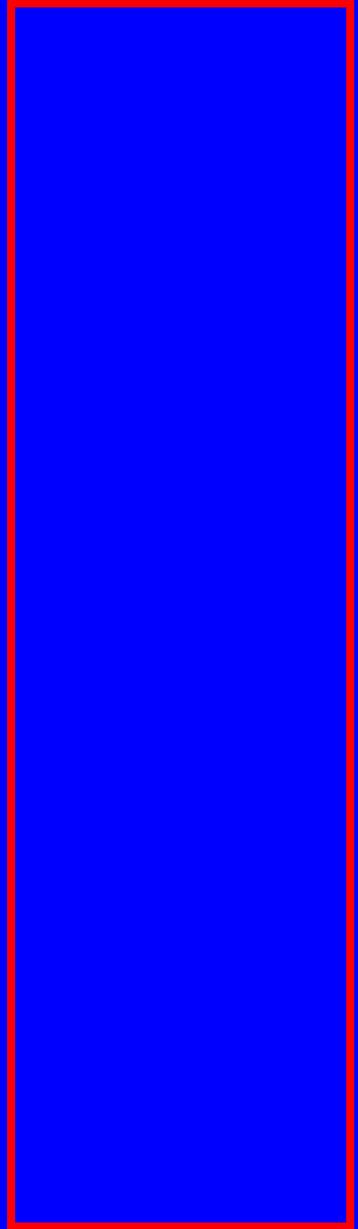
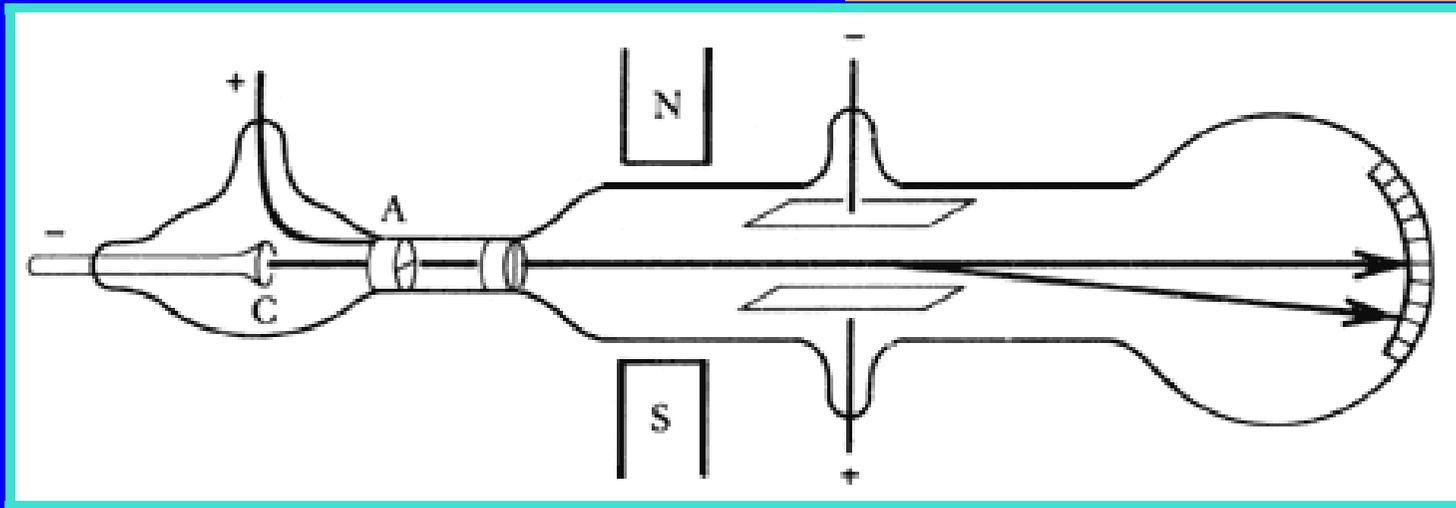
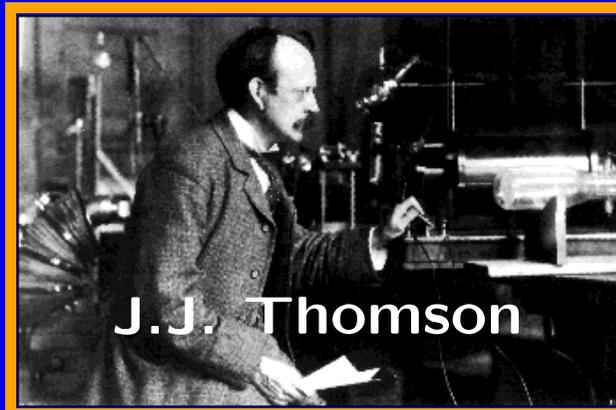


- **The Particle Zoo**
- **Symmetries**
- **The Standard Model**

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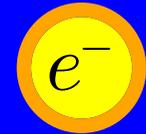
The Particle Zoo

e^- the electron



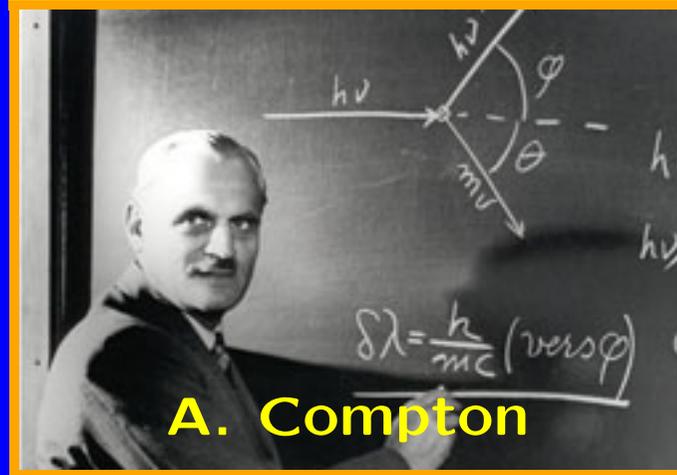
1897 

γ the photon

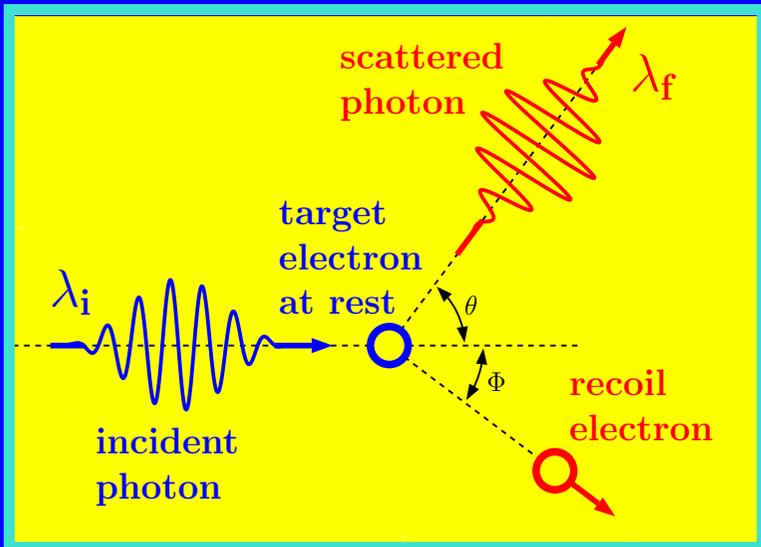


Planck

Einstein

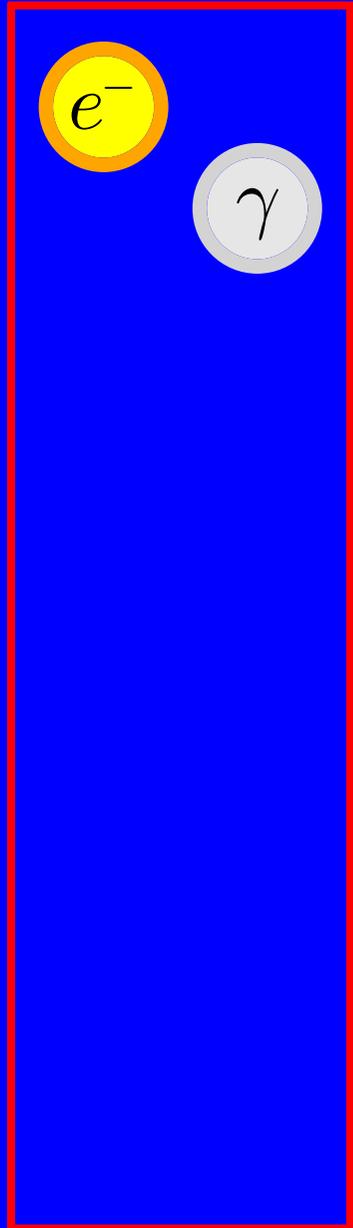
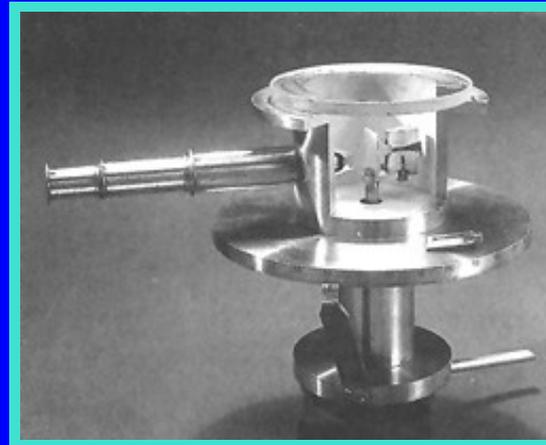
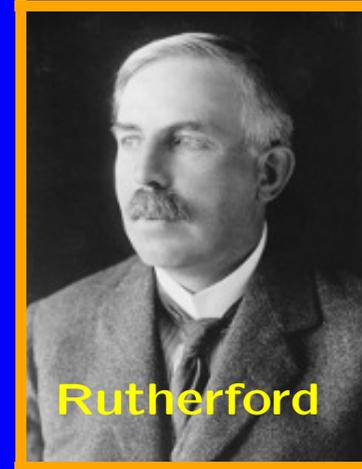
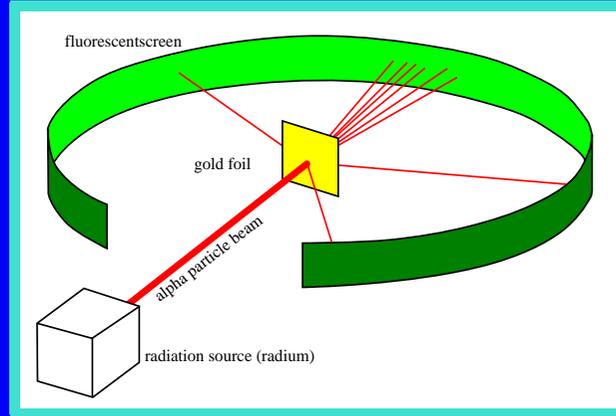
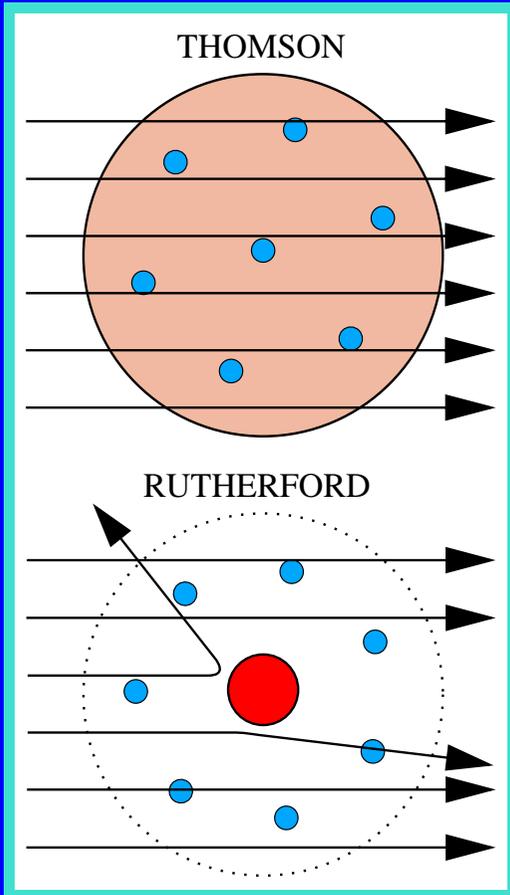


A. Compton

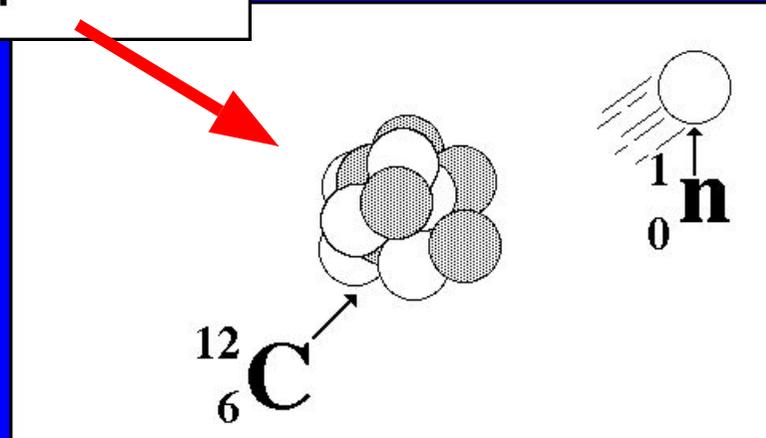
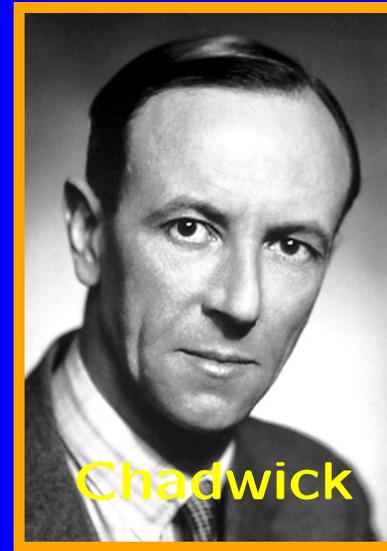
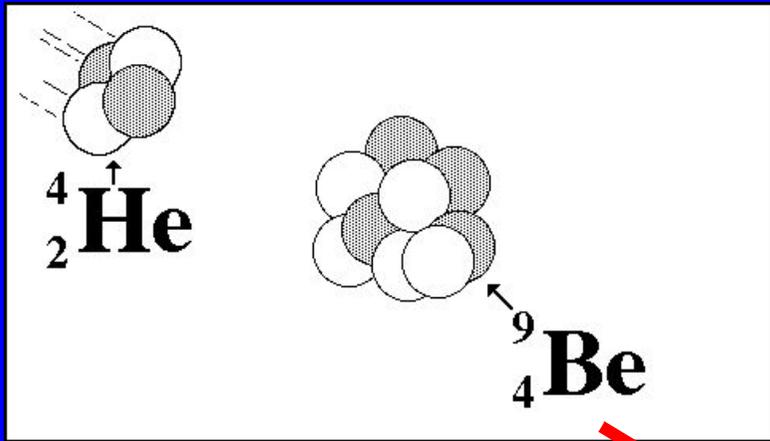




the proton – the atomic nucleus

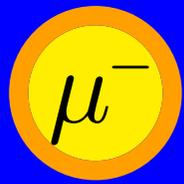


n the neutron



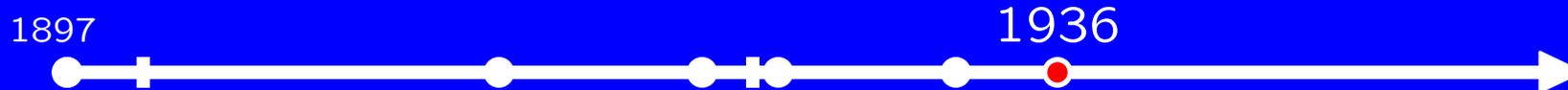
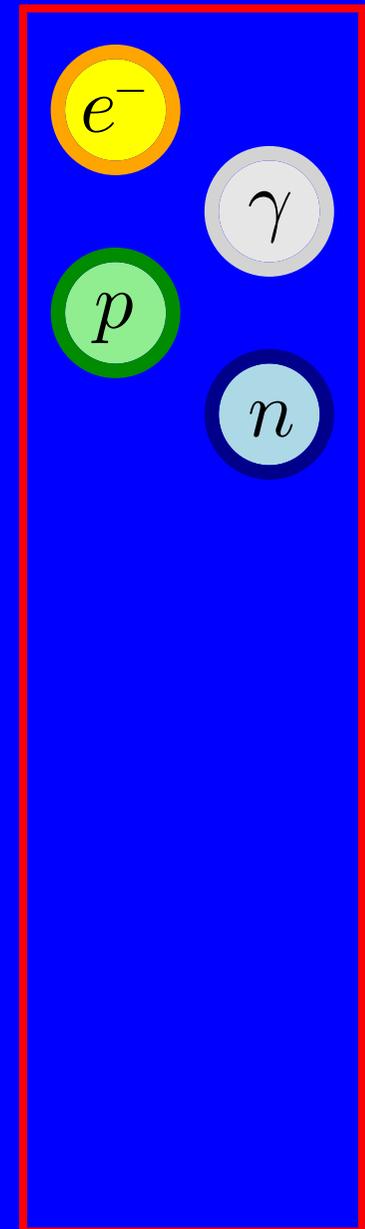
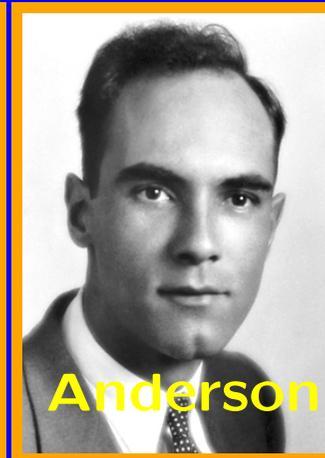
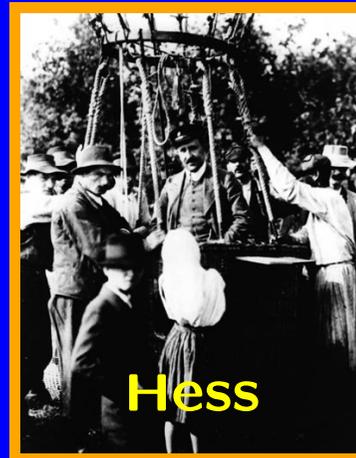
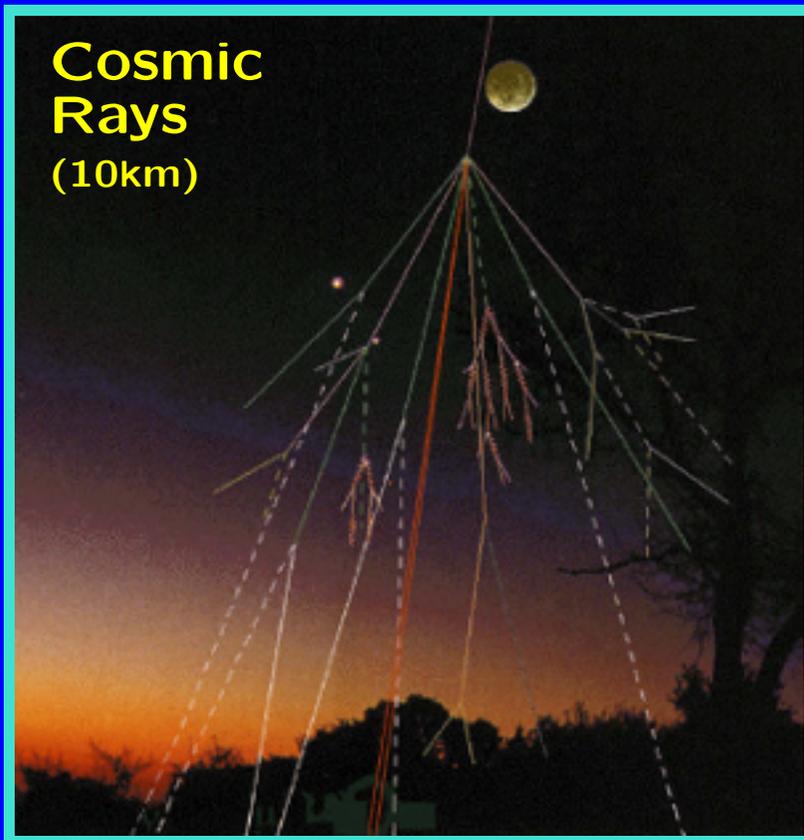
A red-bordered box containing symbols for an electron (e^-), a proton (p), and a gamma ray (γ).



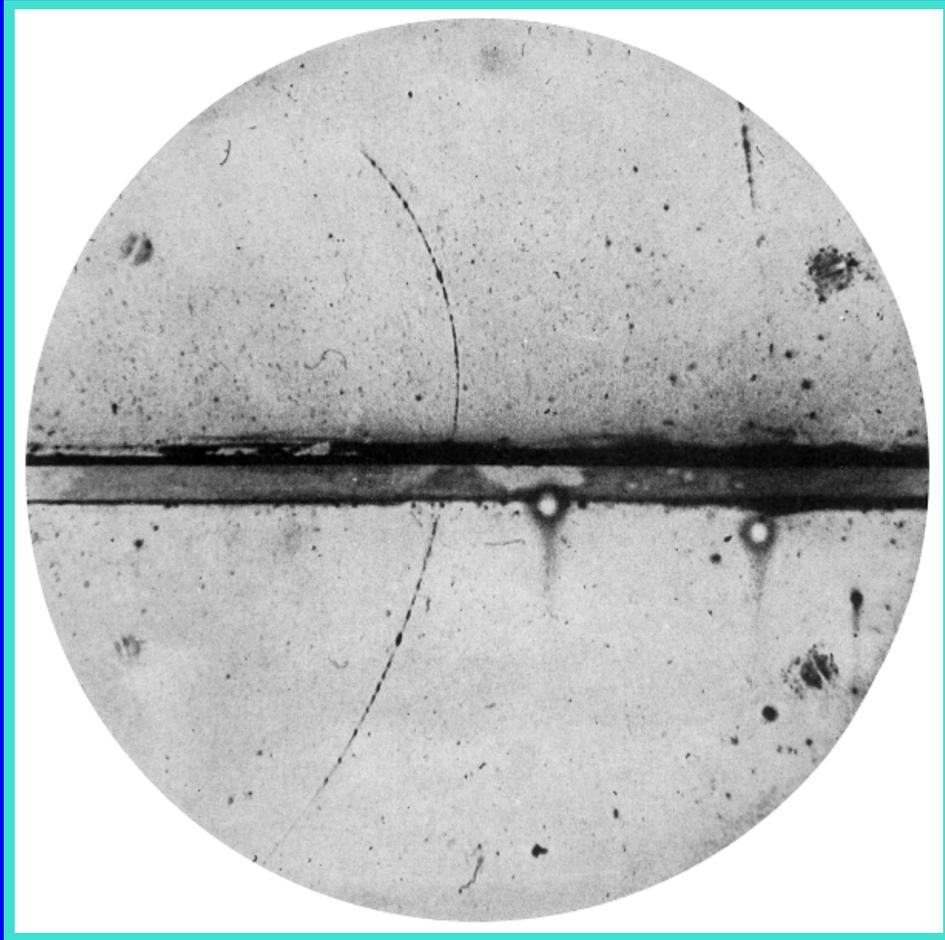


the muon

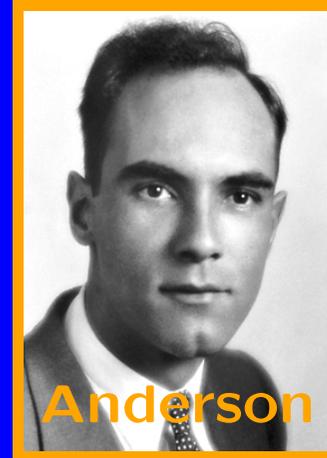
Raby: "Who ordered that one?"



e^+ the positron

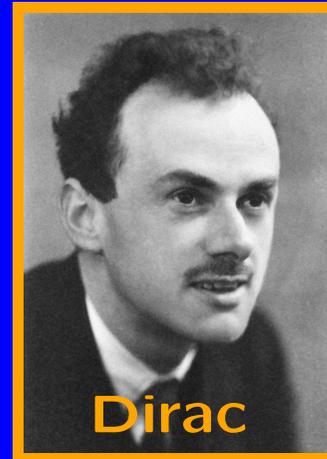


Discovery

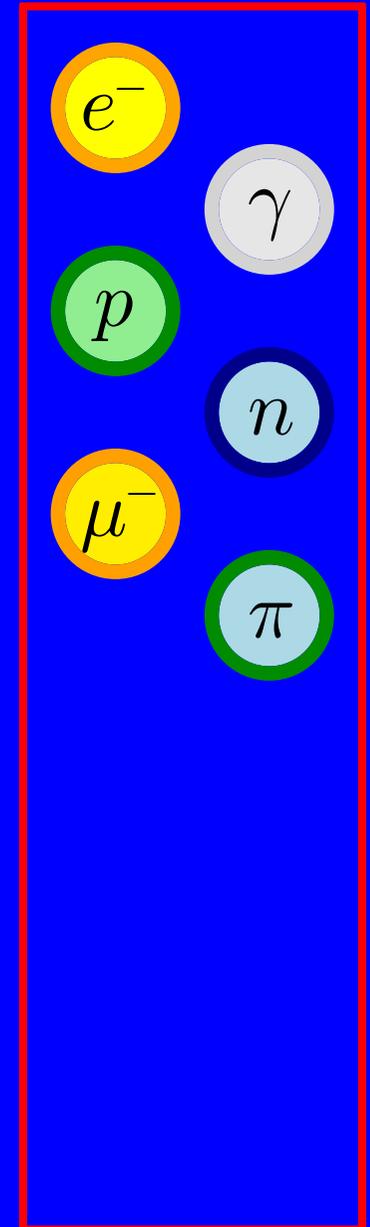


Anderson

Prediction



Dirac

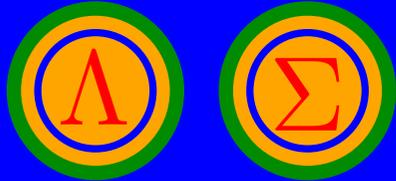


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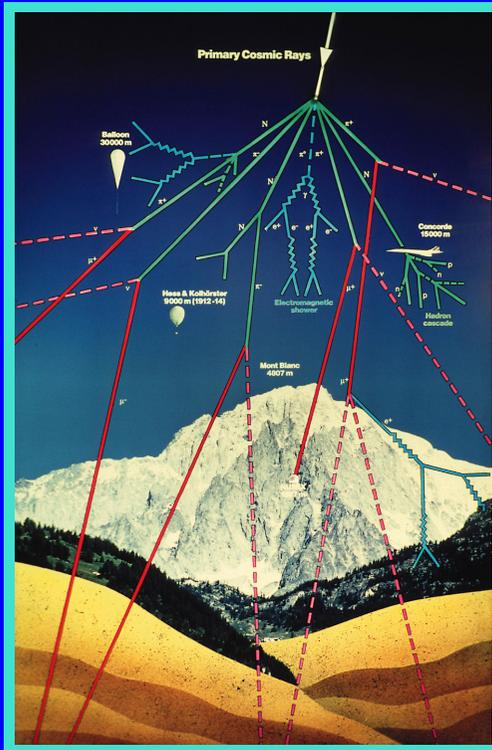
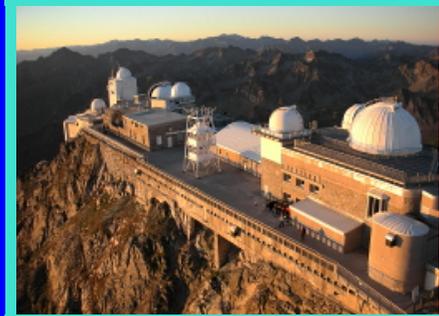
1932



K strange particles



Pic du Midi



K: Rochester and Butler
(Univ. of Manchester)

Λ: Hopper and Biswas
(Univ. of Melbourne)

particles in a cloud chamber



1897

1947 ...

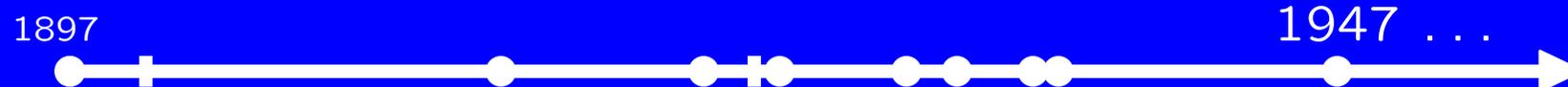
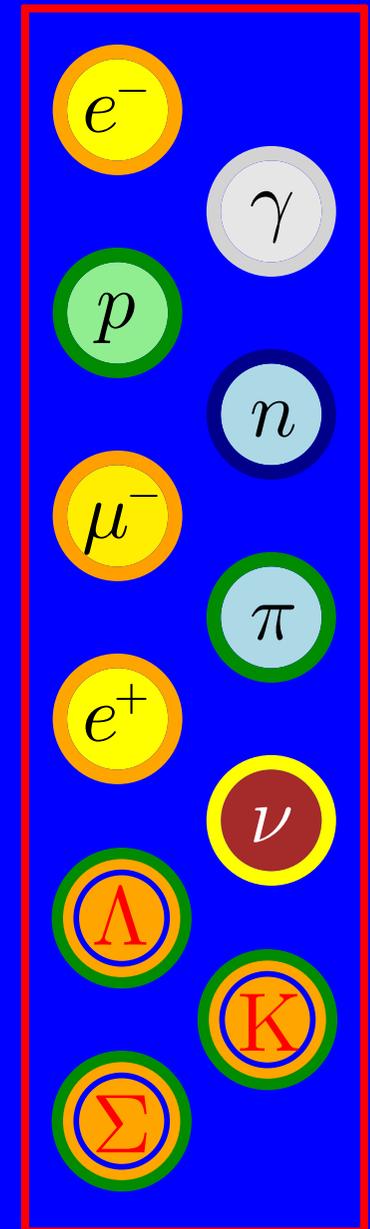
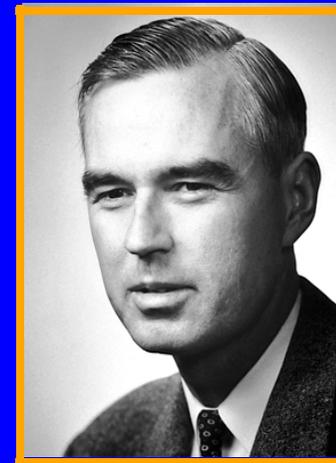


Willis E. Lamb, Jr.

Fine structure of the hydrogen atom

Nobel Lecture, December 12, 1955

When the Nobel Prizes were first awarded in 1901, physicists knew something of just two objects which are now called «elementary particles»: the electron and the proton. A deluge of other «elementary» particles appeared after 1930; neutron, neutrino, μ meson, π meson, heavier mesons, and various hyperons. **I have heard it said that «the finder of a new elementary particle used to be rewarded by a Nobel Prize, but such a discovery now ought to be punished by a \$10,000 fine».**



ave.
life-
time

$1 \mu\text{s}$

1 ns

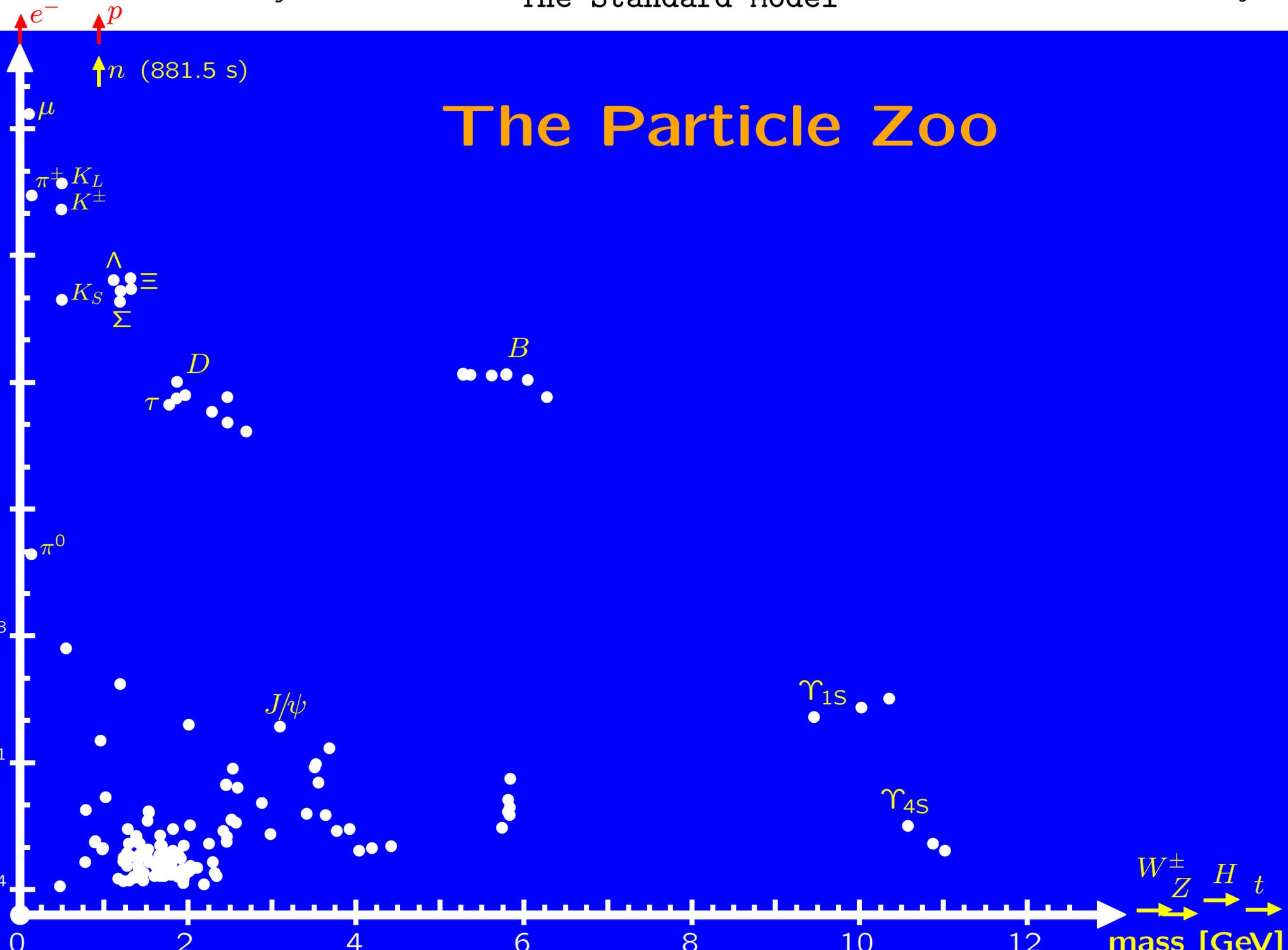
1 ps

1 fs

10^{-18}

10^{-21}

10^{-24}



W^\pm
 Z
 H
 t
mass [GeV]

Looking for some order in this "chaos" . . .

1. properties of particles:

- order by **mass** (approximately, rather to be seen historically):

leptons (Greek: "light") electrons, muons, neutrinos, . . .

mesons ("medium-weight") pions, kaons, . . .

baryons ("heavy") protons, neutrons, lambda, . . .

- order by **charge**:

neutral neutrons, neutrinos, photons, . . .

± 1 elementary charge proton, electron, muon, . . .

± 2 elementary charge Δ^{++} , Σ_c^{++} , . . .

- order by **spin**:

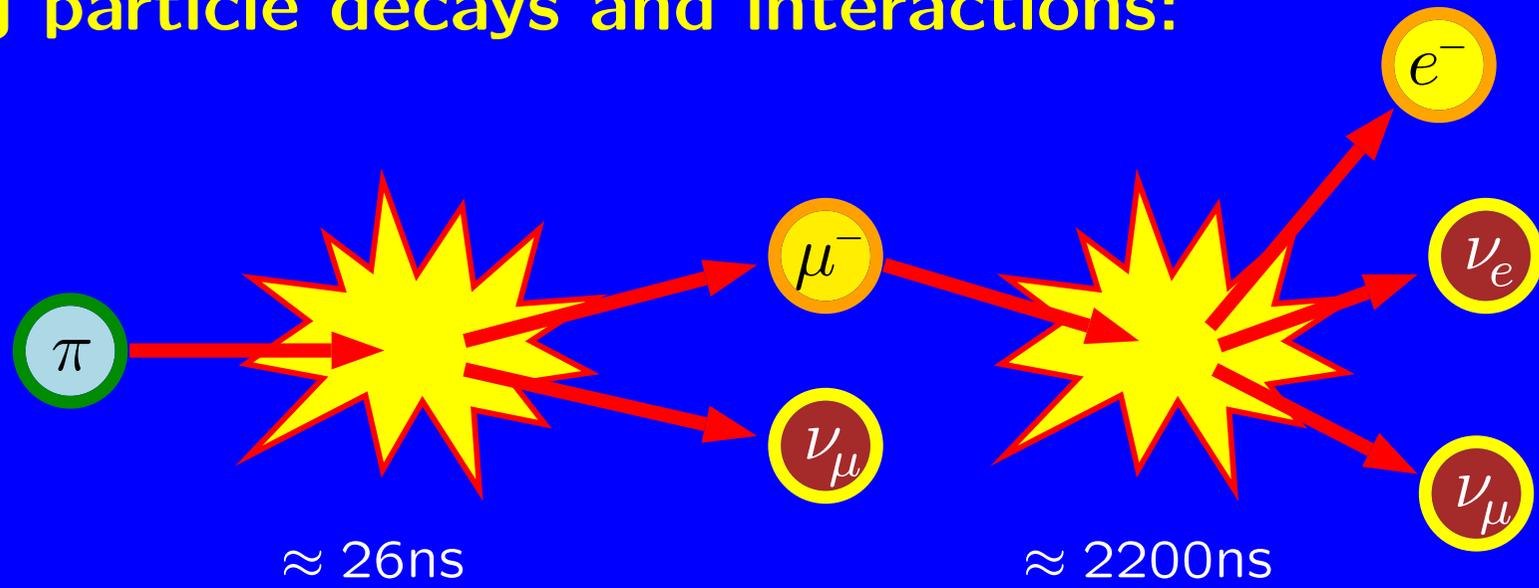
fermions (spin $\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, . . .) electrons, protons, neutrinos, . . .

bosons (spin 0, 1, . . .) photons, pions, . . .

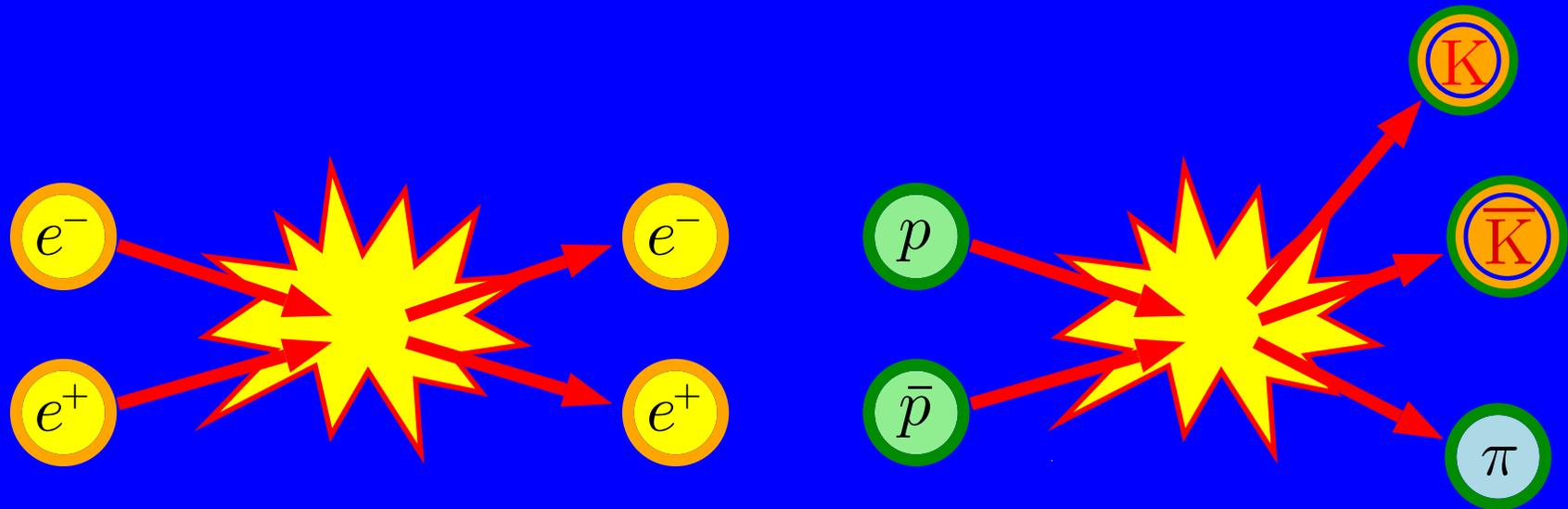
- order by "**strangeness**", **parity**, . . .

Observing particle decays and interactions:

Decay



Scattering



Looking for some order in this "chaos" ...

2. conservation laws for particles:

- conservation of **energy**:

$$n \rightarrow p + \dots \quad \text{but not} \quad \pi^0 \rightarrow \pi^\pm + \dots$$

- conservation of **charge**:

$$n \rightarrow p + e^- + \dots \quad \text{but not} \quad n \rightarrow p + e^+ + \dots$$

- conservation of **lepton number**:

$$n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e \quad \text{but not} \quad n \rightarrow p + e^- + \nu_e$$

- conservation of **baryon number**:

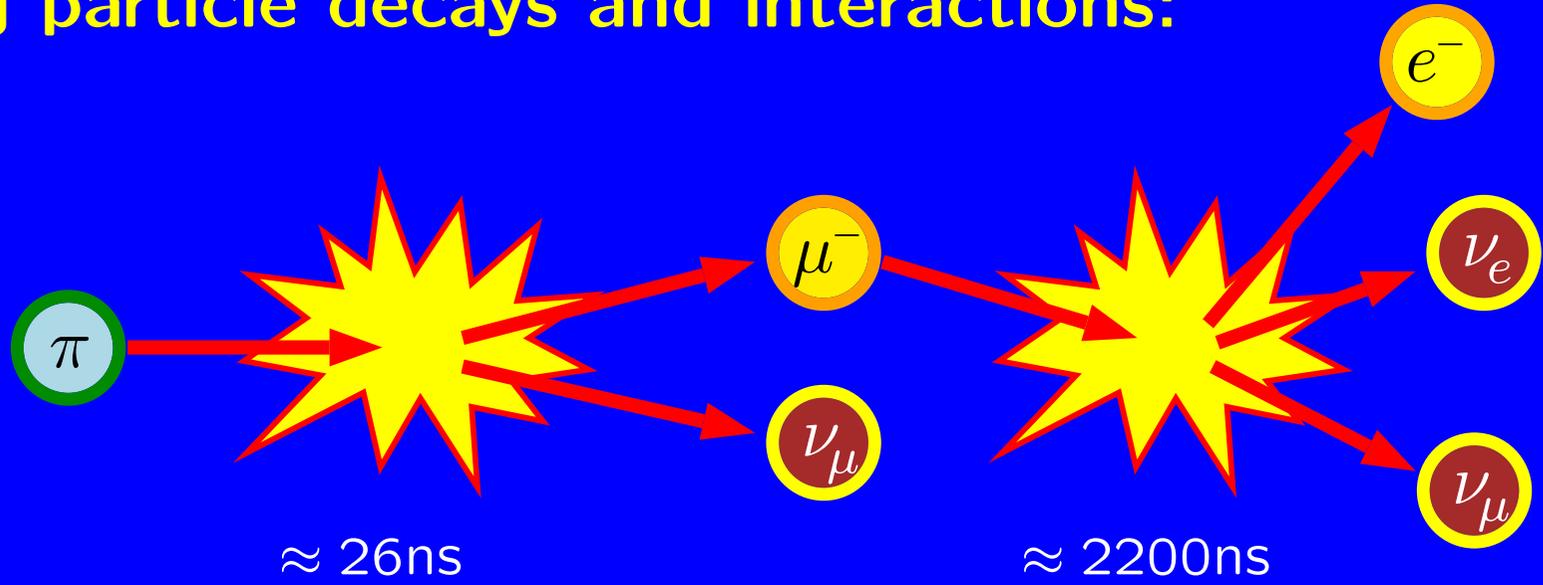
$$n \rightarrow p + \dots \quad \text{but not} \quad n \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^- + \dots$$

- conservation of **strangeness** (only in "fast" processes):

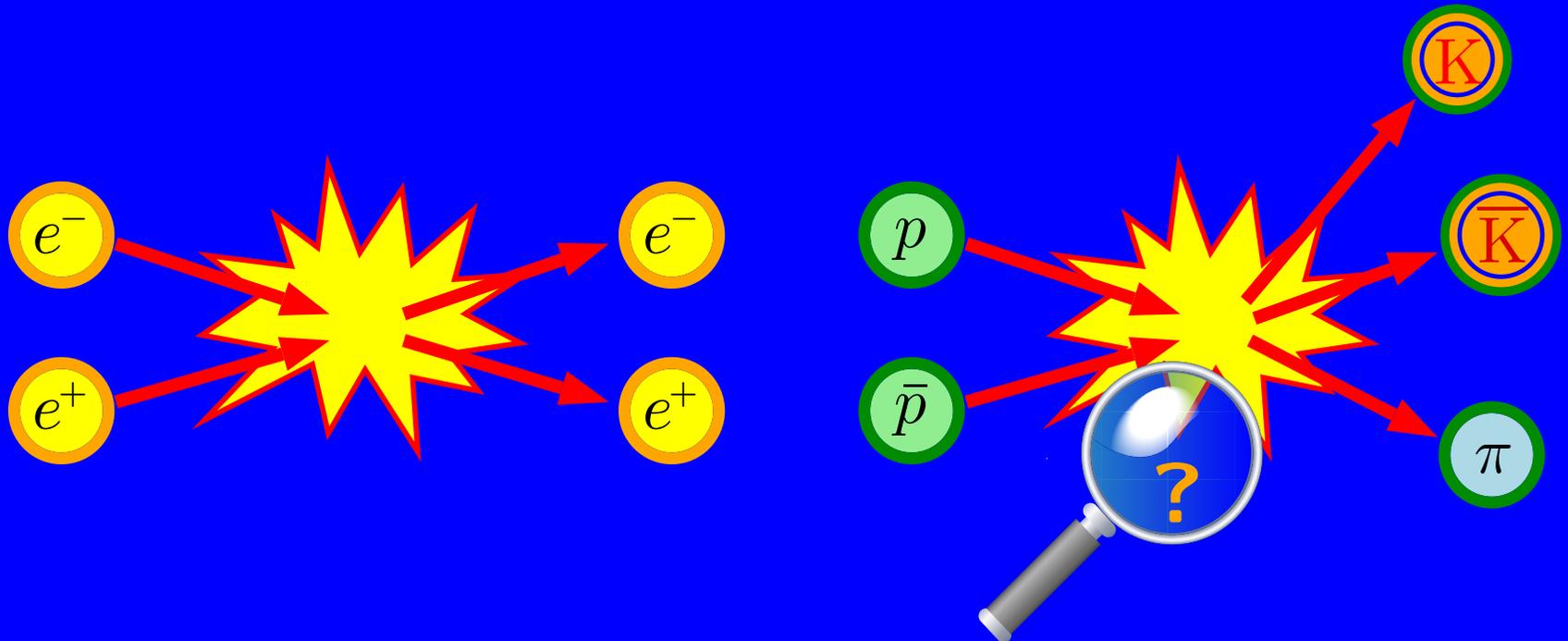
$$\text{fast } K^* \rightarrow K + \pi \quad \text{but only "slow" } K \rightarrow \pi + \pi$$

Observing particle decays and interactions:

Decay



Scattering

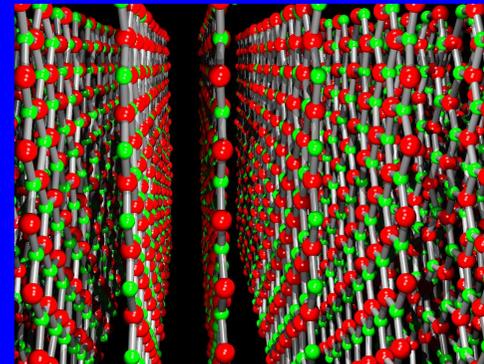
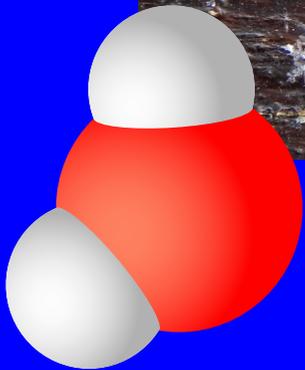


Symmetries & where do we find them?

→ everywhere in nature:



- snowflakes exhibit a 6-fold symmetry



- crystals build lattices

→ symmetries of the microcosm
are also visible in the macrocosm



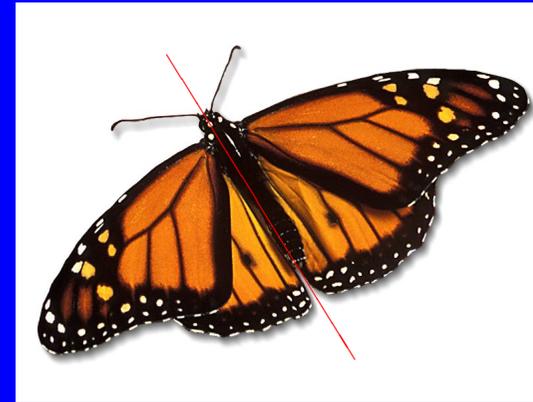
How do symmetries look like in theory?

★ symmetries are described by **symmetry transformations**:

Example 1: Butterfly

symmetry transformation S_0 :

mirror all points at a line



formally: $W = \text{"original picture"} \Rightarrow W' = \text{"mirrored picture"}$

apply symmetry in operator notation: $S_0 W = W'$

a symmetry is given if and only if $S_0 W = W$!

How do symmetries look like in theory?

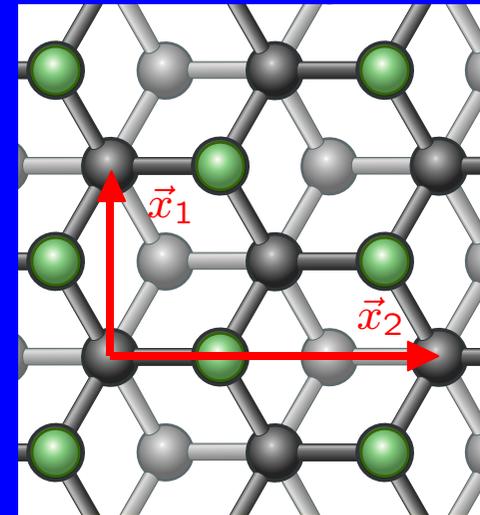
★ symmetries are described by **symmetry transformations**:

Example 2: crystal lattice

symmetry transformations S_i :

move all points

by the same vectors (\vec{x}_1 or \vec{x}_2)



formally: $W = \text{"original picture"} \Rightarrow W' = \text{"moved picture"}$

apply symmetry in operator notation: $S_i W = W'$

a symmetry is given if and only if $S_i W = W$!

How do symmetries look like in theory?

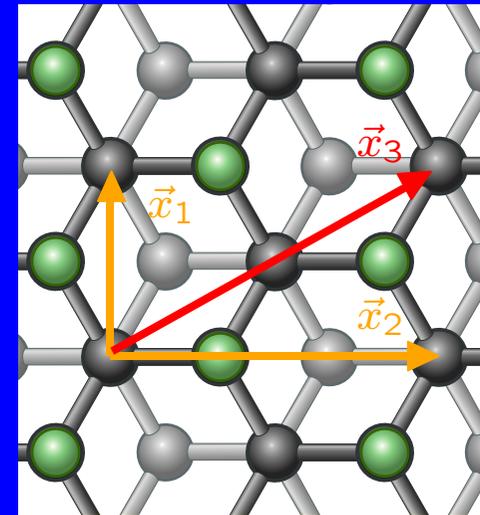
★ **symmetry transformations** form **group structures**

Example: translations

symmetry transformations S_1 and S_2 :

move all points

by the same vector (\vec{x}_1 or \vec{x}_2)



movement of all points by the vector

$$\vec{x}_3 = \vec{x}_1 + \vec{x}_2$$

is also a symmetry transformation !

$$S_3 = S_1 \circ S_2$$

Groups, mathematically:

a **group** (G, \circ) is a **set** $G = \{a, b, c, \dots\}$ with a **binary operation** \circ that fulfills (the axioms)

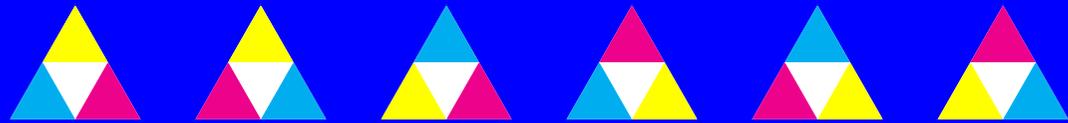
- **closure:** $c = a \circ b \in G \iff a, b \in G$
- **associativity:** $(a \circ b) \circ c = a \circ (b \circ c)$
- **identity:** $\exists e$ with $a \circ e = e \circ a = a \quad \forall a \in G$
- **inverse:** $\forall a \in G \quad \exists b = a^{-1}$ (the inverse)
with $a \circ b = b \circ a = e$

an **Abelian group** fulfills an additional relation

- **commutativity:** $a \circ b = b \circ a \quad \forall a, b \in G$

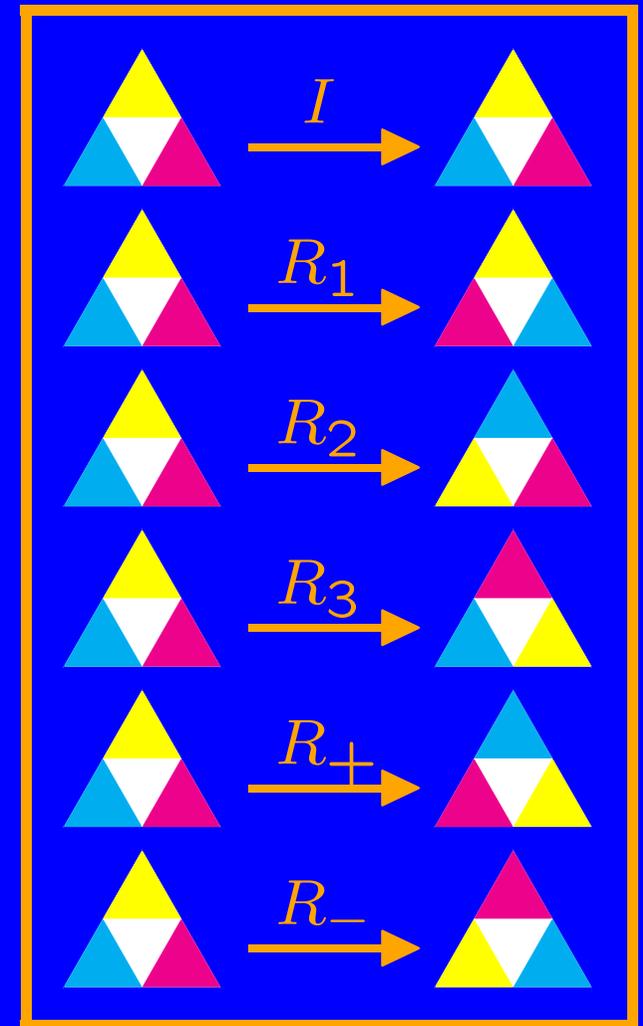
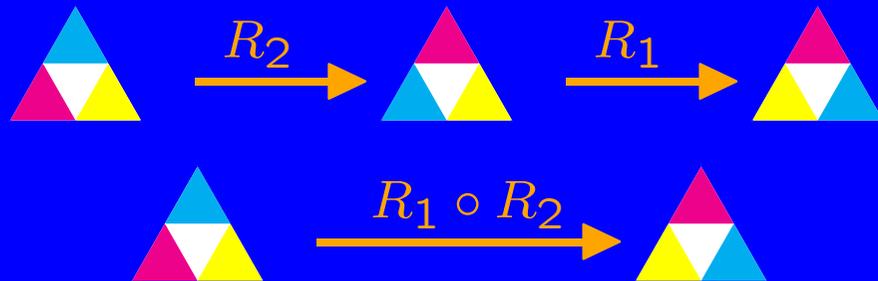
Groups, an example:

using these six triangles,
we can construct a group:



- the triangles themselves will not be elements
 - as we have no clue, how to connect them
- their **relations** will be elements of a group!
 - we know, how we can transform one triangle into the other
 - then the set is $\{I, R_1, R_2, R_3, R_+, R_-\}$
- then these transformations can be connected:
 - do first one, then the other:

$$R_1 \circ R_2 = \text{doing first } R_2, \text{ then } R_1$$



Which symmetries do we encounter in particle physics?

★ discrete symmetry transformations:

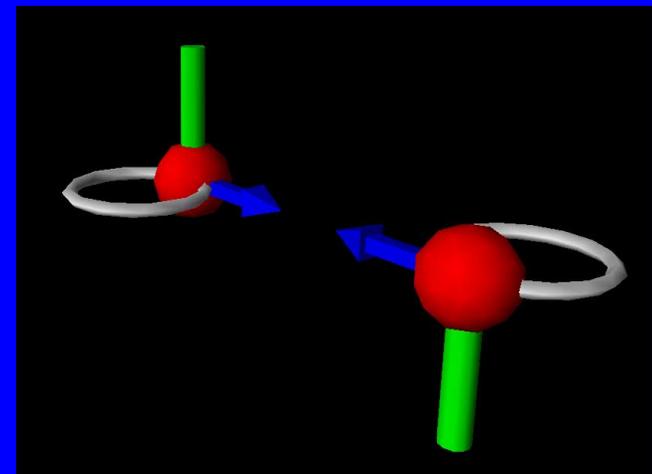
parity transformation P

- to mirror at a plane (a mirror) is easy to understand, but depends on the (arbitrary) position and orientation of the plane.
- a more general definition: **mirror at the origin**

(space inversion, parity transformation):

$$PW(t, x, y, z) := W(t, -x, -y, -z)$$

- the parity transformation corresponds to a rotation followed by a mirroring at a plane



Which symmetries do we encounter in particle physics?

★ discrete symmetry transformations:

time reversal T (reversal of the "arrow of time")

- corresponds to a **movie** played **backwards**
- in case of a movie (= everyday physics), this is spotted at once (i.e. there is no symmetry)
- however, the laws of mechanics are time-symmetric (example: billiard)
- **definition:**

$$TW(t, x, y, z) := W(-t, x, y, z)$$



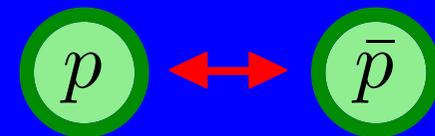
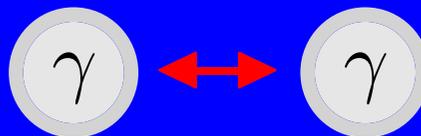
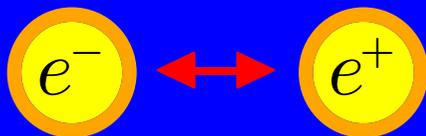
Which symmetries do we encounter in particle physics?

★ discrete symmetry transformations:

charge conjugation C (exchanging matter and anti-matter)

- for every known particle, there is also a anti-partner
- anti particles are identical to their partners with respect to some properties (e.g. mass), and opposite w.r.t. others (e.g. charge)
- charge conjugation exchanges all particles with their (anti)partners (and vice versa)
- definition:

$$CW(t, x, y, z) := \bar{W}(t, x, y, z) = W^\dagger(t, x, y, z)$$



Which symmetries do we encounter in particle physics?

★ continuous symmetry transformations:

– they can be performed in **arbitrary small steps**

● **time shift:** physics(today) \longrightarrow physics(tomorrow)

– more accurately: **shift** by a time-step Δt

$$e^{\Delta t \frac{\partial}{\partial t}} W(t, x, y, z) = W(t + \Delta t, x, y, z)$$

● **space shift:** physics(here) \longrightarrow physics(there)

– more accurately: **shift** in space by a vector $\Delta \vec{r} = (\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z)$

$$e^{\Delta \vec{r} \cdot \vec{\nabla}} W(t, x, y, z) = W(t, x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y, z + \Delta z)$$

Which symmetries do we encounter in particle physics?

★ continuous symmetry transformations:

– they can be performed in **arbitrary small steps**

● **orientation**: physics(north) \longrightarrow physics(west)

– more accurately: **rotation** around an arbitrary axis in space

$$DW(t, x, y, z) = W(t, x', y', z')$$



Which symmetries do we encounter in particle physics?

★ continuous symmetry transformations:

– they can be performed in **arbitrary small steps**

• $U(1)$ transformation:

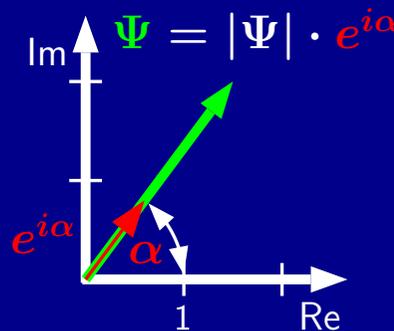
– does not affect the outer coordinates

(t, x, y, z) , but inner properties of particles

– $U(1)$ is a transformation, which rotates the **phase** of a particle field (denoted as Ψ) by an angle α :

$$U(1)\Psi(t, x, y, z) = e^{i\alpha}\Psi(t, x, y, z)$$

insertion: particles are represented by fields in quantum field theory. At each point in space and time, the field Ψ can have a certain complex phase.



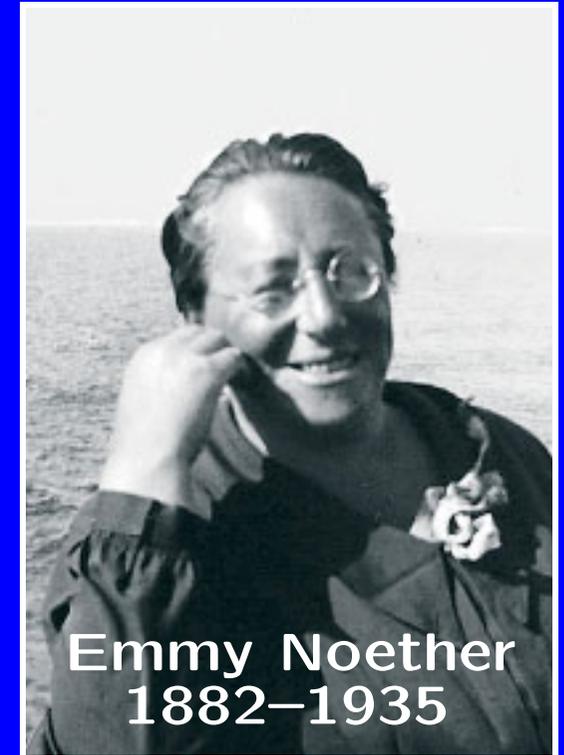
dèmesio,
sudètinga!



The fundamental importance of symmetries

★ Noether's theorem:

to each symmetry of a field theory
corresponds a certain conserved
quantity → conservation law



Emmy Noether
1882–1935

that means: if a field theory remains **unchanged** under a certain **symmetry transformation S** , then there is a mathematical procedure to calculate a property of the field which **does not change with time**, whatever complicated processes are involved.

The fundamental importance of symmetries

★ applications of Noether's theorem:

"also tomorrow the sun will rise"

→ **conservation of energy**

- the laws of physics do not change with time
- **more accurate:** the corresponding field theory is invariant under time shifts:

$$e^{\Delta t \frac{\partial}{\partial t}} W(t, x, y, z) = W(t + \Delta t, x, y, z) \doteq W(t, x, y, z)$$



From **Noether's theorem** follows the conservation of a well-known property: **energy!**



The fundamental importance of symmetries

★ applications of Noether's theorem:

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From **Noether's theorem** follows the conservation of a well-known property: **energy!**



just to be clear:

- ★ we are talking about properties of the underlying theory, not a certain physics scenario:

Example: chess:

- there is **virtually an infinite number of ways** a game of chess can develop
- a game **tomorrow** can be **completely different** from a game **today**

but:

- the **rules** of chess **remain the same**, they are **invariant under time shifts!**



The fundamental importance of symmetries

★ applications of Noether's theorem:

"it's the same everywhere"

→ **conservation of momentum**

- the laws of physics do not depend on where you are
- **more accurate:** the corresponding field theory is invariant under space shifts:

$$e^{i\Delta\vec{r}\cdot\vec{\nabla}}W(t, \vec{r}) = W(t, \vec{r} + \Delta\vec{r}) \doteq W(t, \vec{r})$$

From **Noether's theorem** follows the conservation of a well-known property: **momentum!**



The fundamental importance of symmetries

★ applications of Noether's theorem:

"going round and round"

→ **conservation of angular momentum**

- the laws of physics do not depend on which way you look
- **more accurate:** the corresponding field theory is invariant under rotations:

$$DW(t, \vec{r}) = W(t, \vec{r}') \doteq W(t, \vec{r})$$

From **Noether's theorem** follows the conservation of a well-known property: **angular momentum!**



The fundamental importance of symmetries

★ applications of Noether's theorem:

even more abstract symmetries get a meaning:

★ conservation of charge

- as it turns out, the field theory of electro-dynamics is invariant under a global* U(1) transformation:

$$U(1)\Psi(t, x, y, z) = e^{i\alpha}\Psi(t, x, y, z)$$
$$\Rightarrow W'(t, x, y, z) \doteq W(t, x, y, z)$$

* global means: affecting all space-points (t,x,y,z) in the same way

From **Noether's theorem** follows the conservation of **charge**!



Overview

symmetries and conservation laws

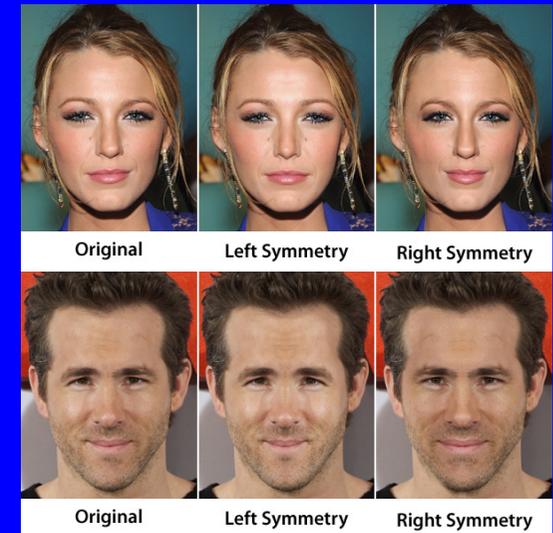
symmetry	conservation law
time shift	energy
space shift	momentum
rotation	angular momentum
$U(1)$ phase	charge

Are symmetries perfect?

★ the small imperfections make it more interesting ...

is physics really perfectly symmetric?

- obviously, many things in our macroscopic world are not symmetric
- but is this also true for the fundamental laws of physics?



★ **Originally** it seemed that nature does **not only** exhibit the previously discussed **continuous symmetries**, but the **discrete symmetries** as well:

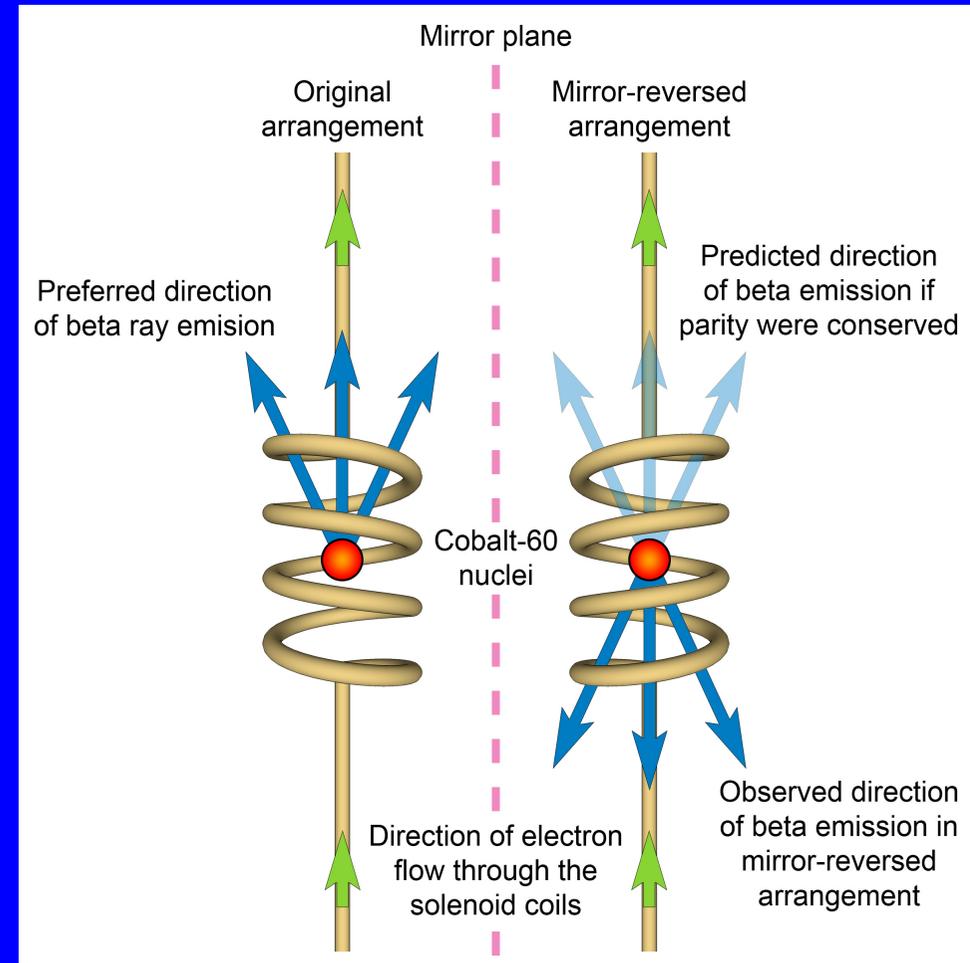
- **P** (parity transformation = mirror symmetry)
- **T** (time reversal)
- **C** (charge conjugation)

Are symmetries perfect?

★ the Wu experiment

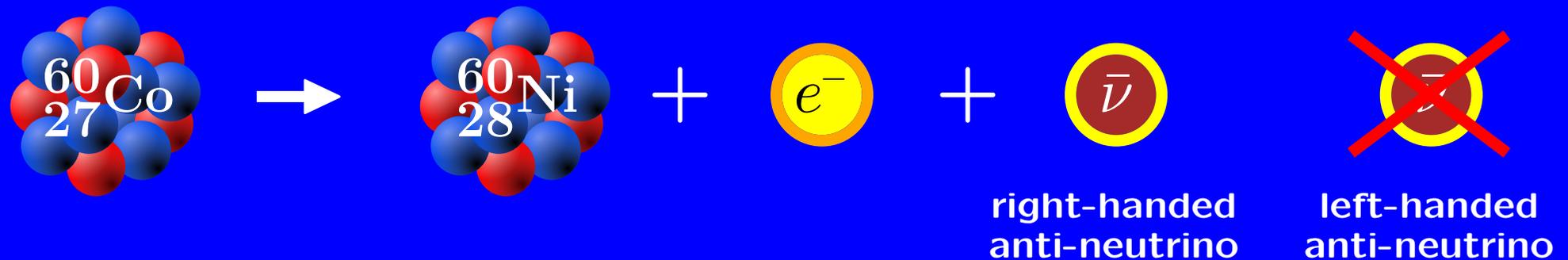
- originally, all experiments indicated that the microcosmic world is perfectly mirror-symmetric
- 1956 Tsung-Dao Lee and Chen Ning Yang postulated a violation of parity for the weak interaction
- in the same year, Chien-Shiung Wu demonstrated the violation experimentally

→ nature is not mirror-symmetric, P-symmetry (parity) is violated



Are symmetries perfect?

★ a deeper understanding of the Wu experiment



- also (undetected) **anti-neutrinos** are emitted
- anti-neutrinos have a spin that is always orientated in the direction of movement (they are "**right-handed**")
- since a **P-transformation** changes the direction of movement, but not the spin, it produces a "**left-handed**" anti-neutrino
- as it turns out, **we do not see a left-handed anti-neutrino** in nature **at all!**
- therefore, **Parity** is said to be **maximally violated**

Are symmetries perfect?

★ **Parity violation** – but maybe a **CP symmetry**?



right-handed
anti-neutrino



left-handed
anti-neutrino



left-handed
neutrino

- there is **no left-handed anti-neutrino**, but there is a **left-handed neutrino** (and only a such-handed!)
- obviously, this violates **C-symmetry** (Charge conjugation, the symmetrie between matter and anti-matter)
- **BUT:** the **combined symmetry transformation CP** (exchange matter/anti-matter plus mirroring) works:



right-handed
anti-neutrino

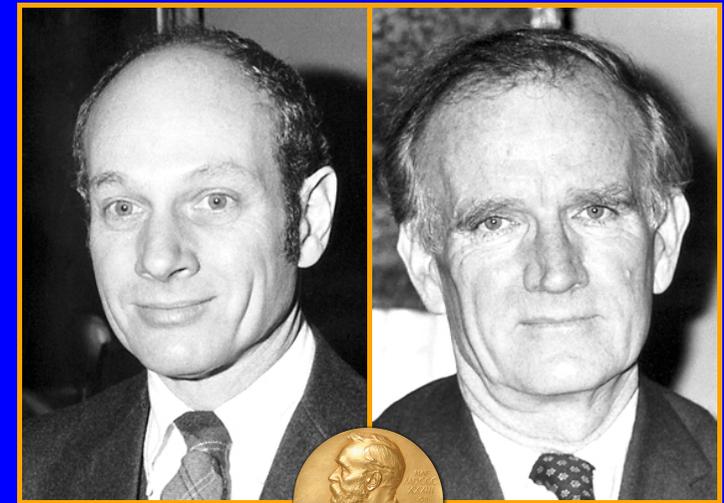
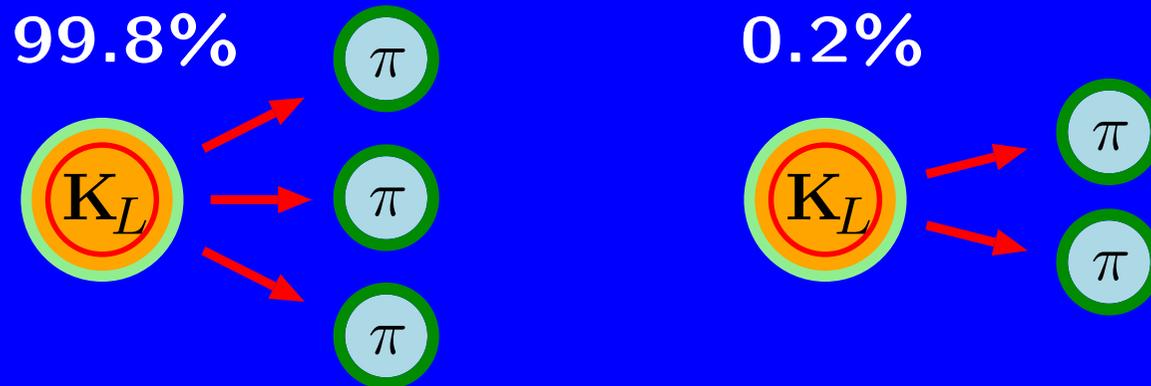
$\Leftarrow CP \Rightarrow$



left-handed
neutrino

Are symmetries perfect?

★ the kaon experiment of 1964



J. Cronin

Val Fitch

1980

- if there is a **CP**-symmetry in nature, by **Noether's theorem** there is also a corresponding **conserved quantum number "CP"**
- kaons and pions are **pseudo-scalars**
 $\Rightarrow PK = -K$ and $P\pi = -\pi$
- therefore, **CP** is conserved for the decay of the long-lived kaon into **three** pions, but not for the decay into **two**

→ CP is (slightly) violated

Are symmetries perfect?

★ implications of CP-violation in Cosmology

why CP-violation is important for our existence:

- our **universe** consists – as far as we know – **almost completely of matter**
- but where is the **anti-matter**?
- and why haven't matter and anti-matter just **annihilated**?

possible explanation:

- at the **big bang**, there were large amounts of matter and anti-matter
- almost all of them annihilated
- but **smallest asymmetries** in the laws of nature for matter and anti-matter left a **tiny excess of matter**: the matter of our universe
- 1967, **Andrej Sacharow** gave a **list of conditions** for this explanation
 - ▶ one of it is **CP-violation**

Without CP-violation, our universe would not be the one we know!



Are symmetries perfect?

★ "last hope" CPT ?

the **CPT-theorem** states:

- under very general conditions
i.e.: transformations of the Poincaré group
are symmetries of microscopic physics
- quantum field theories (the "language" of particle physics)
always have **CPT** as a **symmetry**

... also **experimentally**, no violations have been observed so far

➔ **CPT is (as far as we know today) not violated**

interesting side remark:

- **CPT**-symmetry together with **CP**-violation, gives also **T-violation**
- that means: the fundamental laws of nature are not time-symmetric,
there is a **special direction of time even at the microscopic level**

"the future IS different from the past, after all!"

Overview

discrete symmetries

symmetry	valid in the universe?
P (parity: "mirroring")	X
C (charge conjugation)	X
T (time reversal)	X
CP (combination of C and P)	X
CPT (combination of C, P, & T)	✓

How symmetries make theories

★ QED, the quantum theory of light

remember:

- physics is **invariant** under a **global U(1)-transformation** of the field Ψ :

$$U(1)\Psi(t, x, y, z) = e^{i\alpha}\Psi(t, x, y, z)$$

- **global** means a **synchronous phase transformation** of all particles in the whole universe!



the idea:

- replace the **global** transformation by a **local** one:

$$U(1)\Psi(t, x, y, z) = e^{i\alpha(t, x, y, z)}\Psi(t, x, y, z)$$

(**different particles** at different positions get transformed **independently**)

How symmetries make theories

★ QED, the quantum theory of light

result of a local $U(1)$ transformation:

- if **only particles** are transformed
 - ★ not changing the electromagnetic interaction
 - ➔ the theory is **not invariant** under local $U(1)$ transformations!
- if **the electromagnetic interaction** is included in the transformation
 - ➔ the theory **becomes invariant** under local $U(1)$ transformations!
- this works **only**, because the electromagnetic interaction has **"just the right form"**



"coincidence or deeper truth?"

How symmetries make theories

★ QED, the quantum theory of light

the modern viewpoint

("gauge principle"):

- a non-interacting theory,
 - invariant under a global symmetrycan be made locally symmetric
 - by introducing
 - ★ additional fields
 - ★ and interactions

→ the full theory is now

- ★ locally symmetric
- ★ and interacting

for QED:

invariant under local phase transformations

the electro-magnetic gauge field A_μ , describing photons



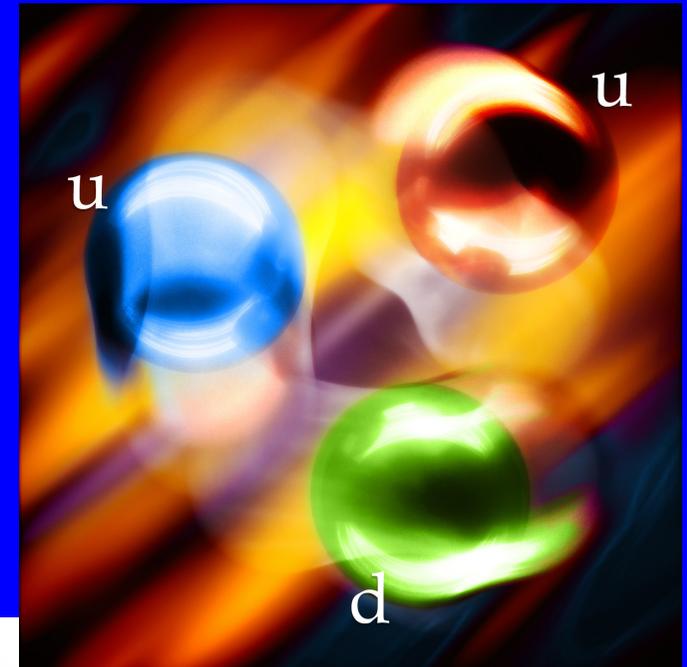
each local symmetry produces an interaction
plus new particles which mediate it

How symmetries make theories

★ Quantum-Chromo-Dynamics (QCD) the theory of the strong force

- experiments show that protons (and neutrons) have an **inner structure**
- observations suggest the existence of
 - ★ fermions (**quarks**) with
 - ★ 3 inner degrees of freedom (**color**)
 inside the nucleon

there are three color states:
red, green, blue



How symmetries make theories

★ Quantum-Chromo-Dynamics (QCD) the theory of the strong force

- we do not see "color"
- color states can be redefined
 - ★ without changing the theory!

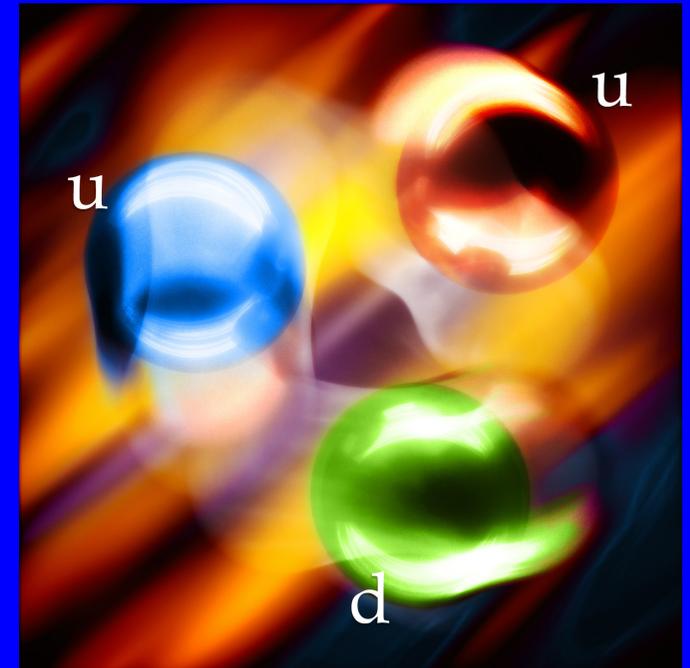
"new colors" = mixture of old colors

$$\begin{pmatrix} q \\ \end{pmatrix} = A_{rr} \begin{pmatrix} r \\ \end{pmatrix} + A_{rg} \begin{pmatrix} g \\ \end{pmatrix} + A_{rb} \begin{pmatrix} b \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} g \\ \end{pmatrix} = A_{gr} \begin{pmatrix} r \\ \end{pmatrix} + A_{gg} \begin{pmatrix} g \\ \end{pmatrix} + A_{gb} \begin{pmatrix} b \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} b \\ \end{pmatrix} = A_{br} \begin{pmatrix} r \\ \end{pmatrix} + A_{bg} \begin{pmatrix} g \\ \end{pmatrix} + A_{bb} \begin{pmatrix} b \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

- mathematically, this corresponds to a **unitary 3×3 matrix A**
- the symmetry group is called **$SU(3)$**



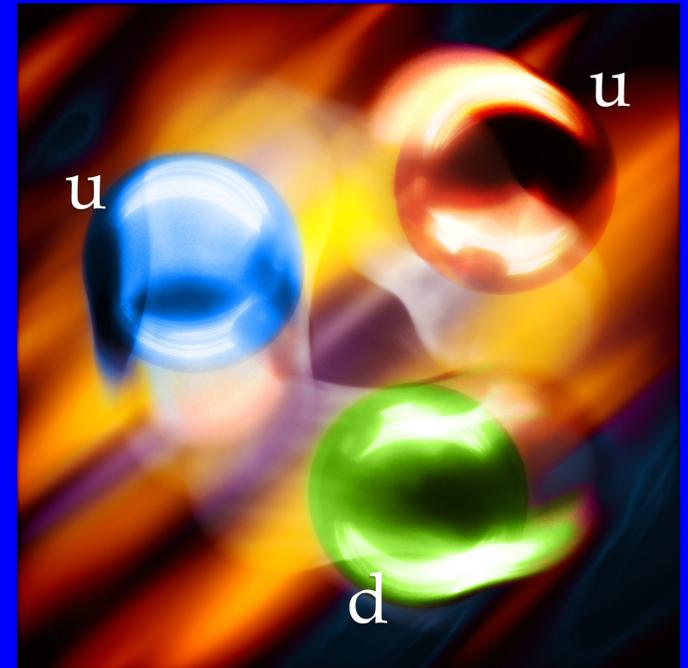
How symmetries make theories

★ Quantum-Chromo-Dynamics (QCD) the theory of the strong force

gauge principle:

- making the $SU(3)_{\text{color}}$ -symmetry local we get
 - ★ the **strong force** with
 - ★ the **gluon** as the force carrier
- the **strong force** binds the quarks into mesons and baryons
- it is also (indirectly) responsible for the stability of nuclei
(binding of proton and neutron, the nuclear force)

**the color symmetry of quarks
enables the existence of atoms!**



How symmetries make theories

★ sketch of electro-weak interaction

"new flavor" = mixture of old flavors

- proton and neutron behave similar inside the nucleus
 - ★ **iso-spin** symmetry
- extending this iso-spin symmetry to **all left-handed fermions**
 - ★ groups them in pairs (**doublets**)
 - ★ is a symmetry of the **free** theory

$$\nu'_e = A_{uu} \nu_e + A_{ud} e_L^-$$

$$e_L'^+ = A_{du} \nu_e + A_{dd} e_L^-$$

$$u_L' = A_{uu} u_L + A_{ud} d_L$$

$$d_L' = A_{du} u_L + A_{dd} d_L$$

gauge principle:

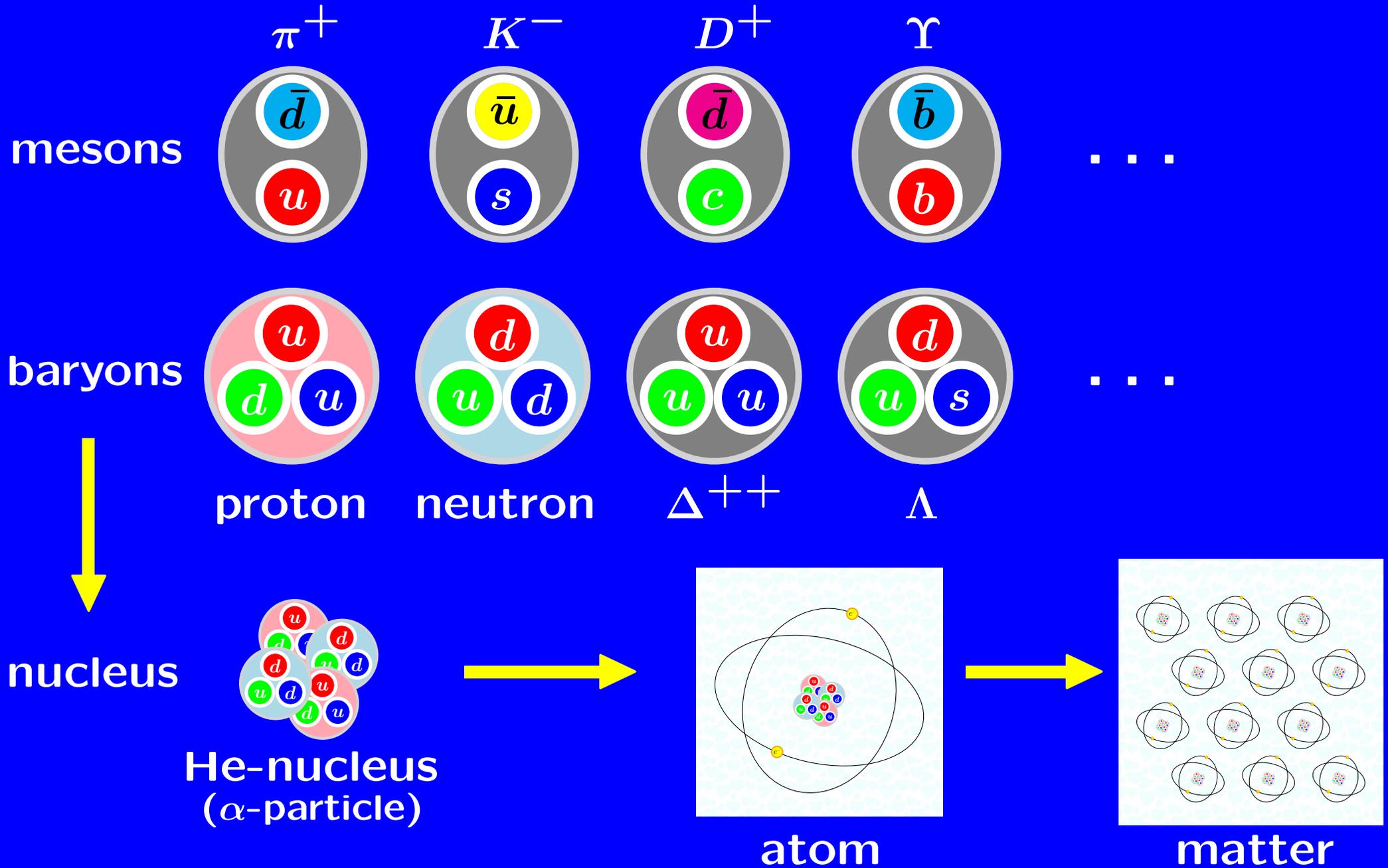
- making the $SU(2)_L$ -symmetry **local** (and "mixing" it with a local $U(1)_Y$ -symmetry) we get
 - ★ the **electro-weak force**
 - ★ with W - and Z -**bosons** (and photons) as force carriers

Overview

Symmetries and Interactions

symmetry		interaction	
$U(1)$	symmetry of all leptons and quarks	$U(1)_Y$	} electro-weak
$SU(2)$	symmetry of left-handed leptons and quarks	weak	
$SU(3)$	symmetry of quarks alone	strong	
?	is it a symmetry of space-time geometry itself, or something qualitatively different?	(quantum-) gravity	

Taxonomie: composing matter

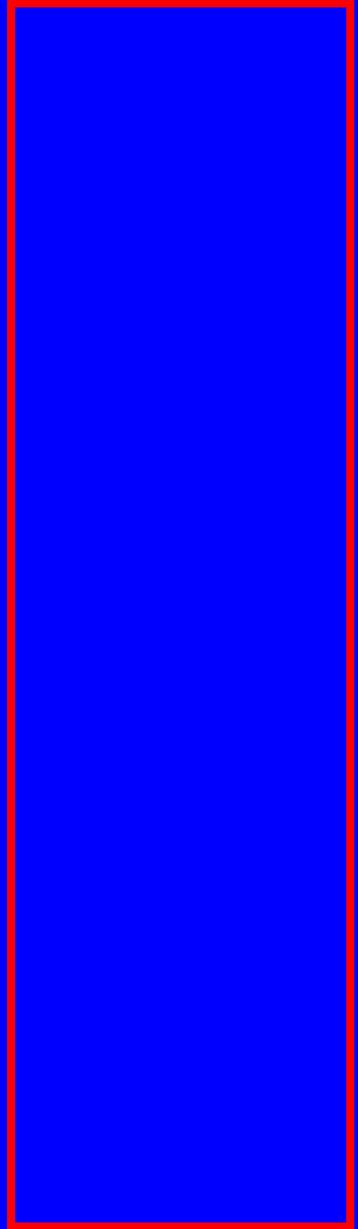
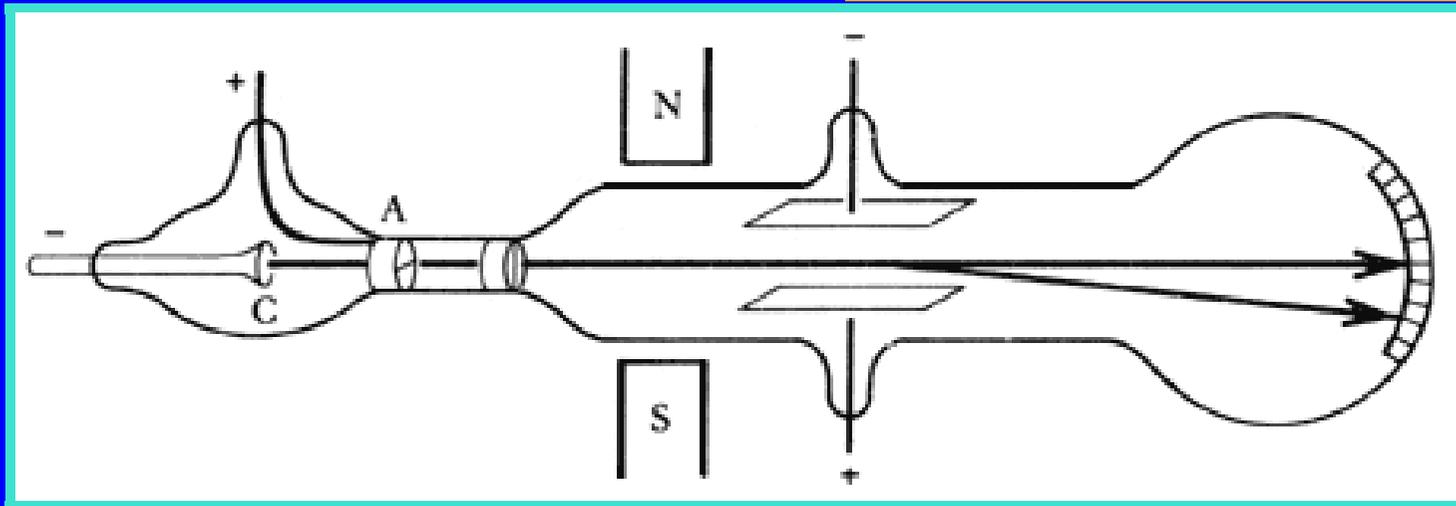
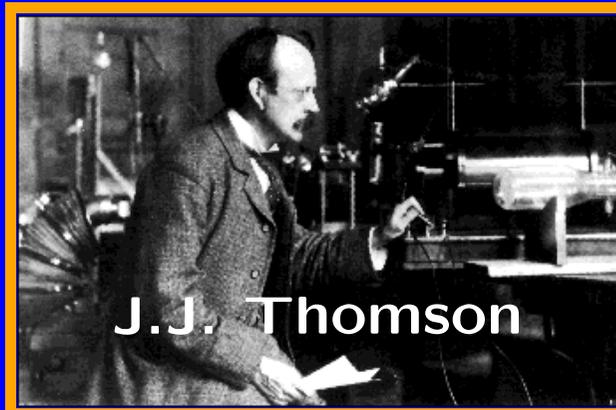


Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

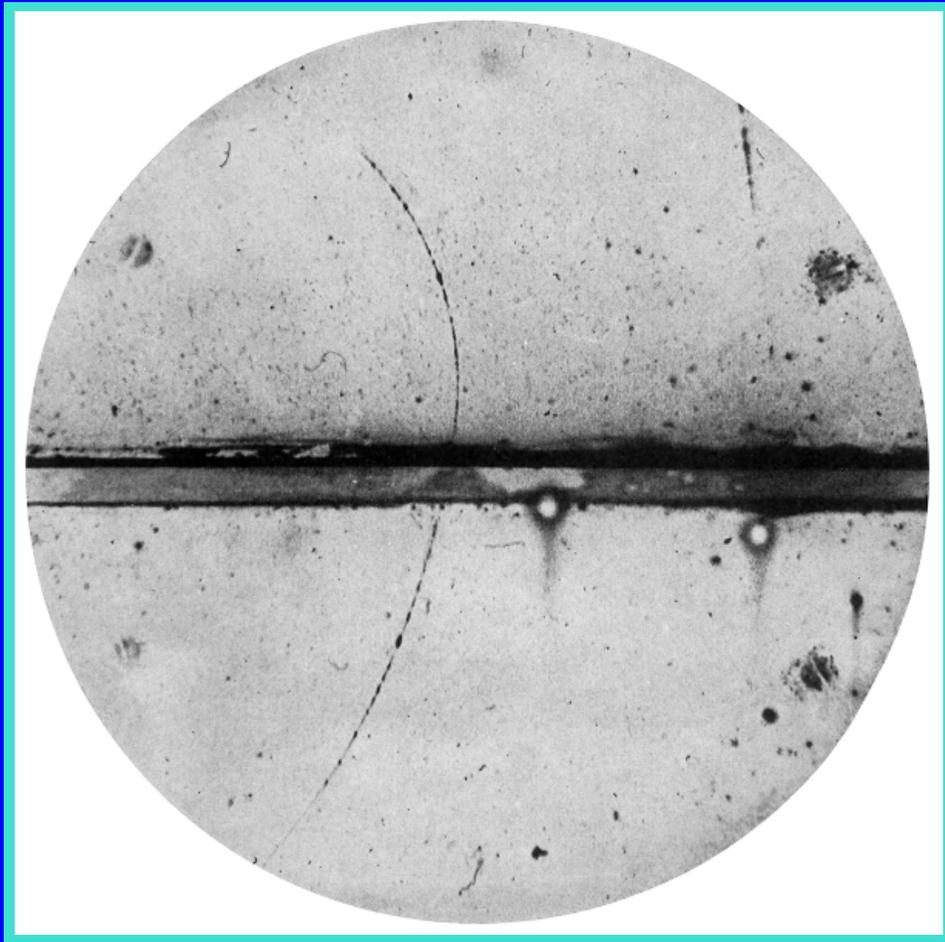
1. reminder about the particles
 - from the historical introduction
2. the ordering principle
 - example: electron and neutrino
3. the systematics
 - extending the ordering to all fermions
 - counting the degrees of freedom
4. overview

e^- the electron

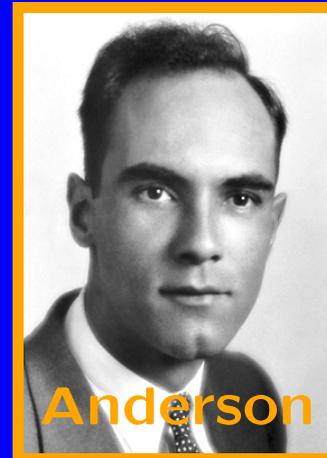


1897 

e^+ the positron

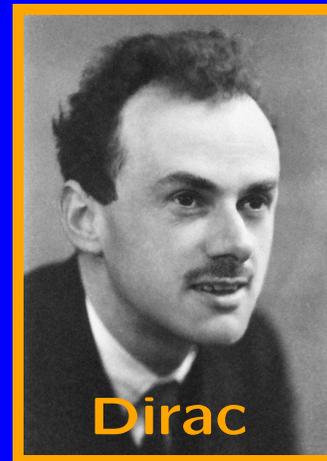


Discovery

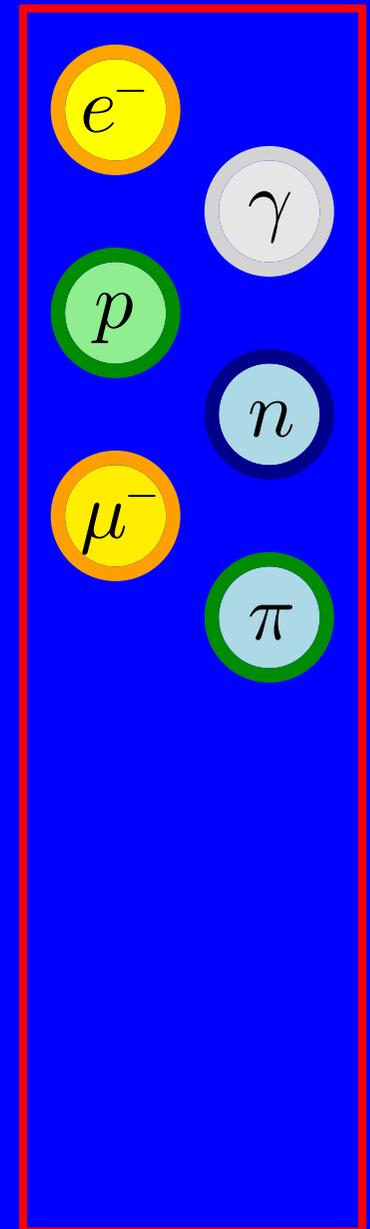


Anderson

Prediction



Dirac



Reminder: Are symmetries perfect?

★ **Parity violation** – but maybe a **CP symmetry**?



right-handed
anti-neutrino



left-handed
anti-neutrino



left-handed
neutrino

- there is **no left-handed anti-neutrino**, but there is a **left-handed neutrino** (and only a such-handed!)
- obviously, this violates **C-symmetry** (Charge conjugation, the symmetrie between matter and anti-matter)
- **BUT:** the **combined symmetry transformation CP** (exchange matter/anti-matter plus mirroring) works:



right-handed
anti-neutrino

⇐ CP ⇒

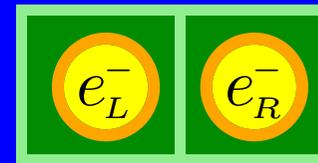


left-handed
neutrino

Ordering principle: discrete symmetries

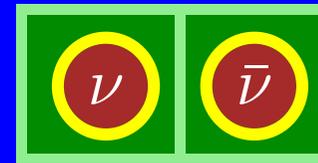
- **Parity P**

- left-handed or right-handed



- **Charge Conjugation C**

- particle or antiparticle



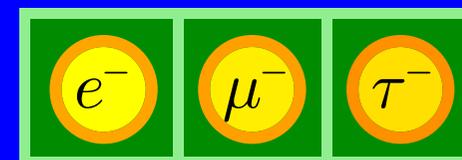
- **Charge Q or Flavour**

- possible values:

0	-1	$\frac{2}{3}$	$-\frac{1}{3}$
ν	e^-	u	d

- **Generation**

- first – second – third



Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-		

	e_R^-		

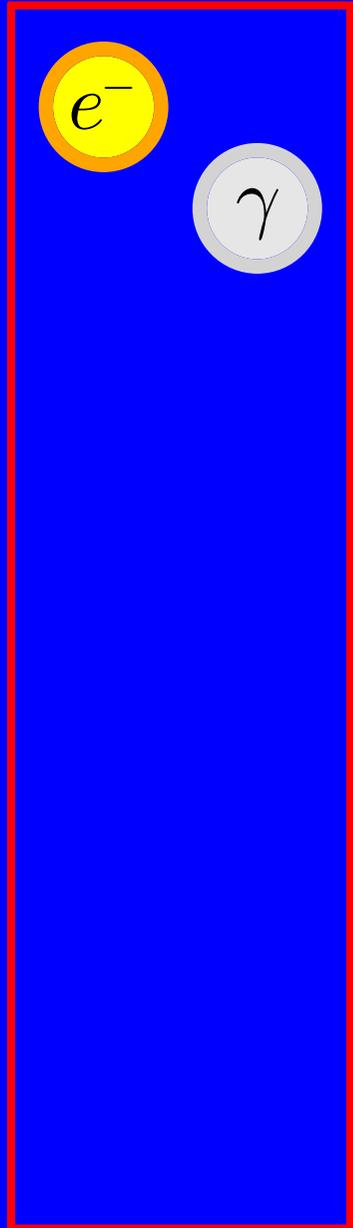
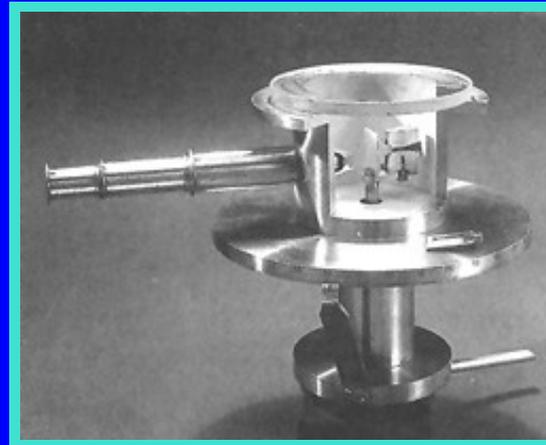
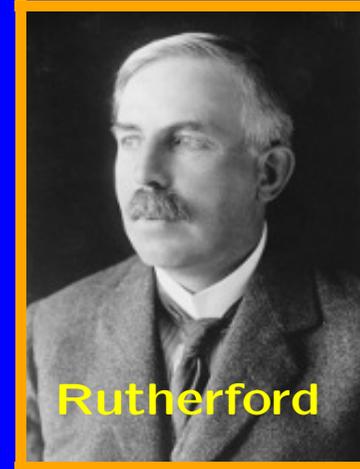
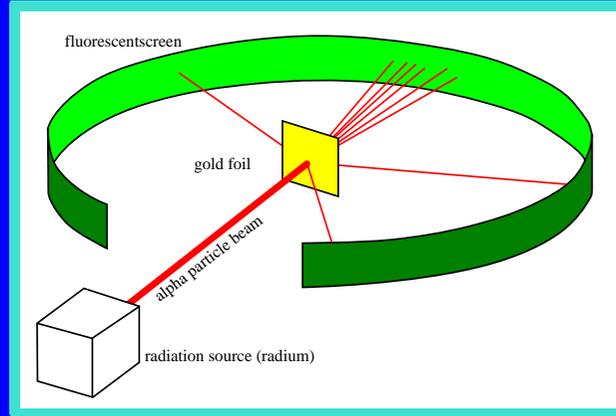
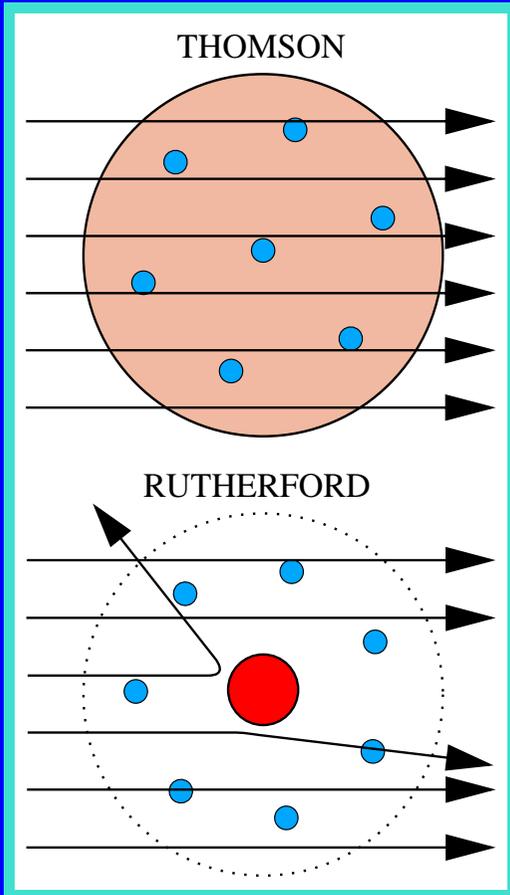
antiparticles

	e_L^+		

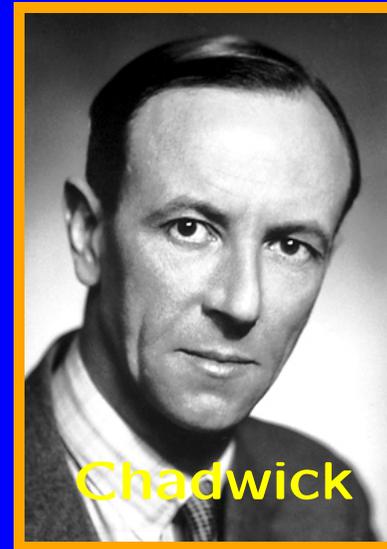
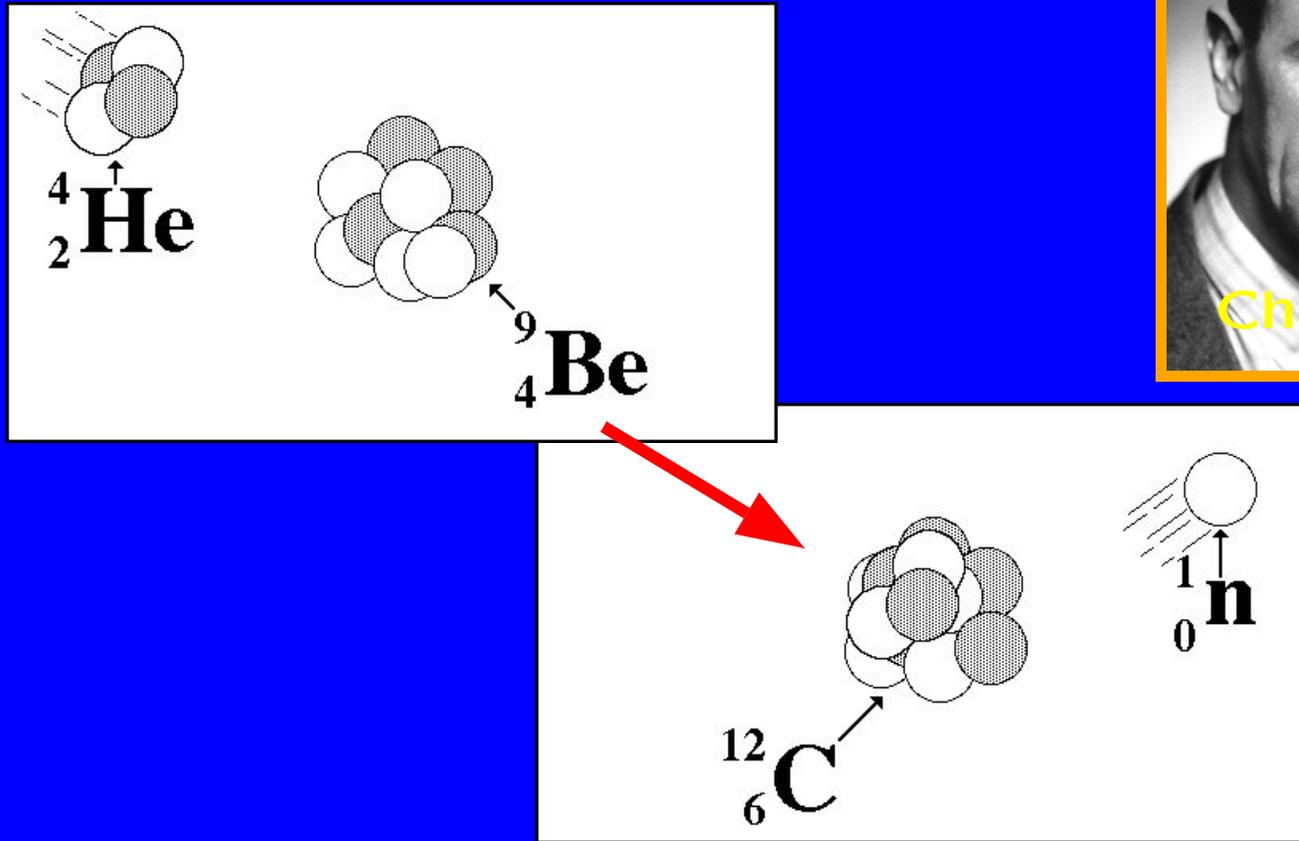
$\bar{\nu}_e$	e_R^+		



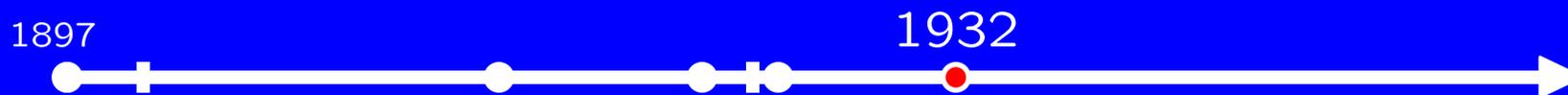
the proton – the atomic nucleus



n the neutron

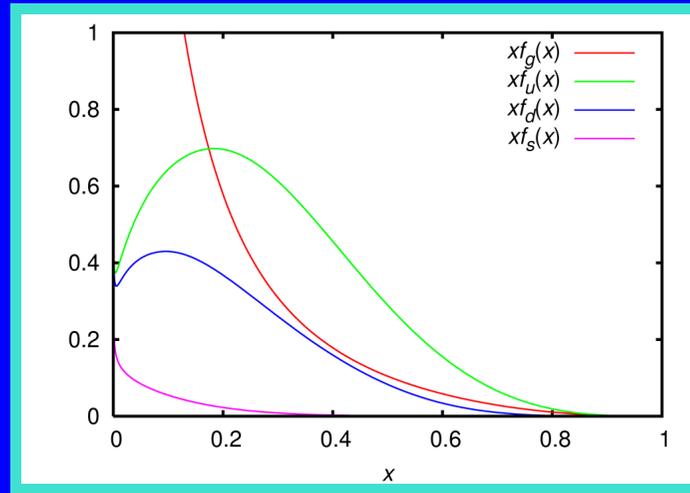
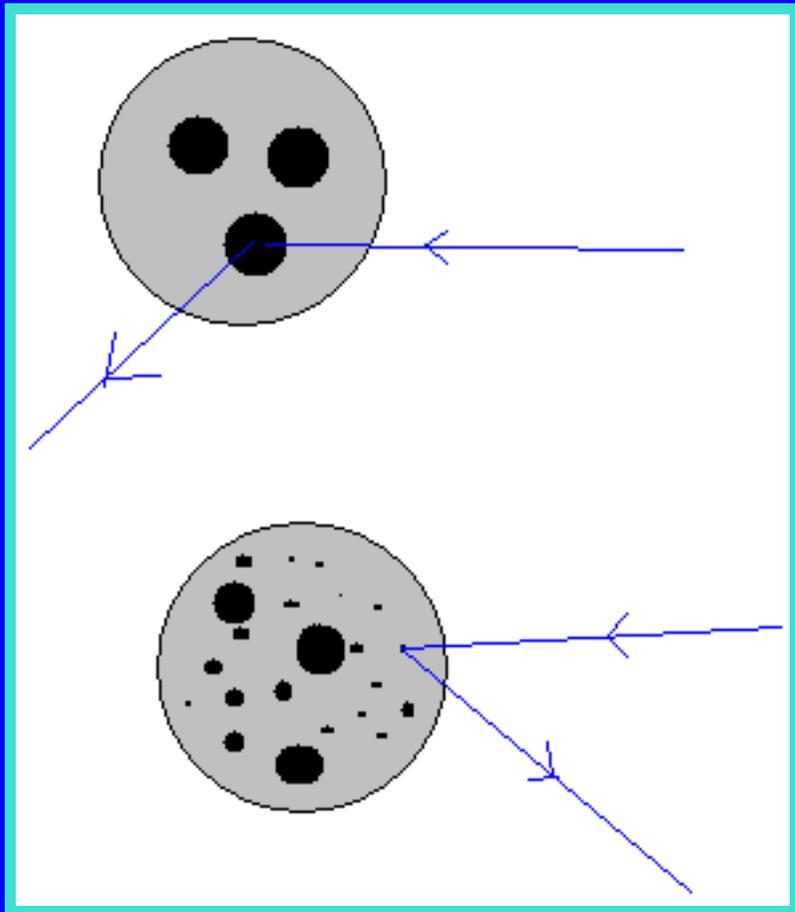


e^-
 p
 γ

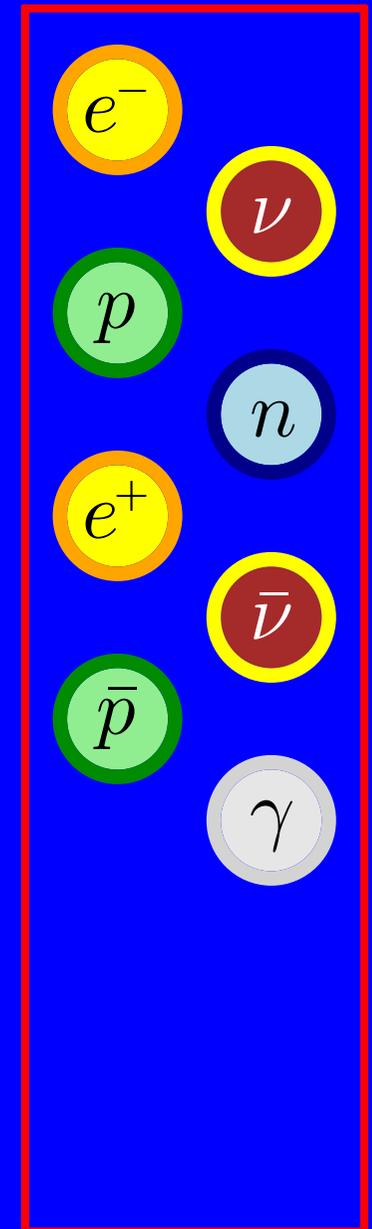


partons / parton model

Richard Feynman 1969



a hadron is composed of point-like constituents, called "partons". The number of partons depends on the probing energy \Rightarrow **parton distribution functions**



Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L

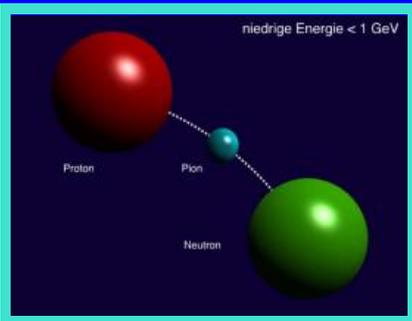
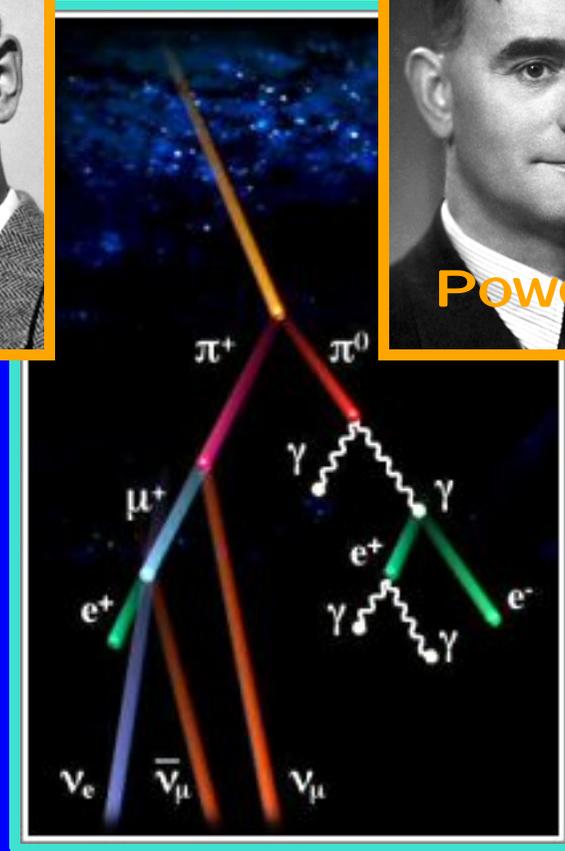
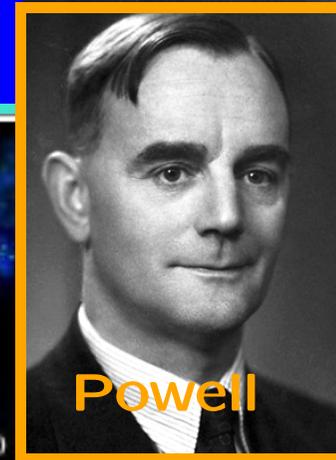
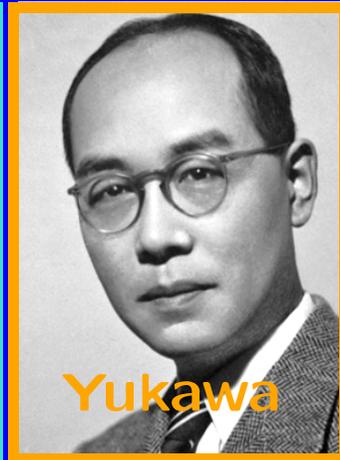
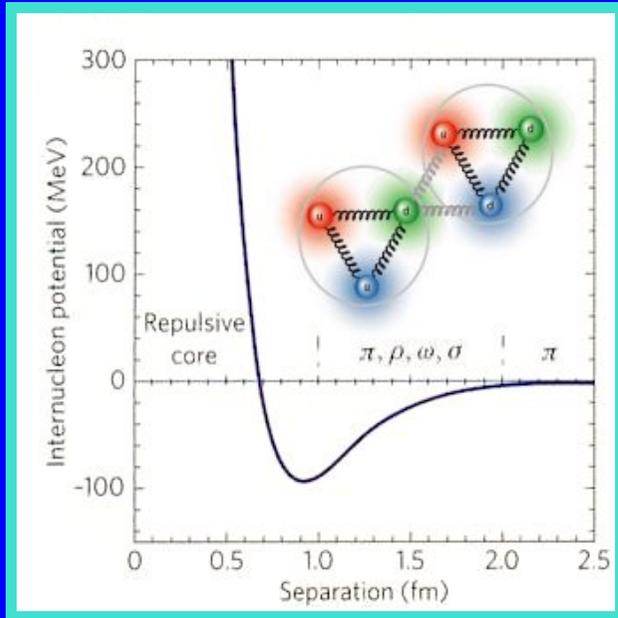
	e_R^-	u_R	d_R

antiparticles

	e_L^+		

$\bar{\nu}_e$	e_R^+		

π the pion



A vertical list of particles in a box: e^- , p , μ^- , γ , n .

Timeline showing the discovery of the pion in 1947. The timeline starts at 1897 and ends at 1947. A red dot marks the year 1947.

Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

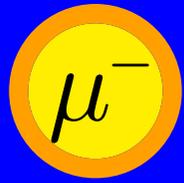
			

antiparticles

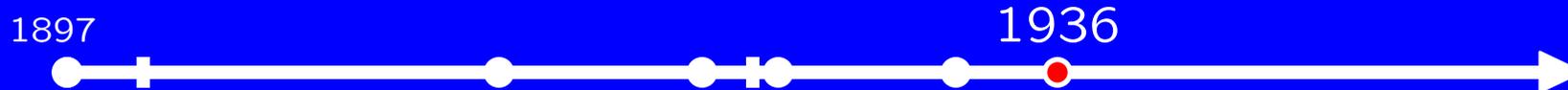
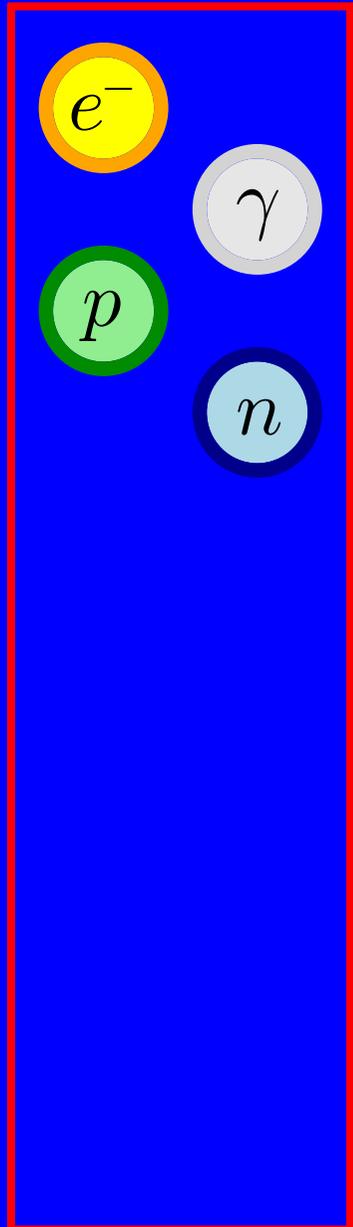
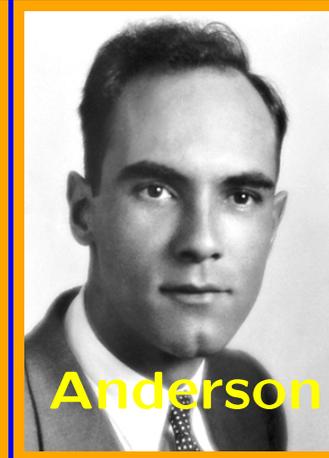
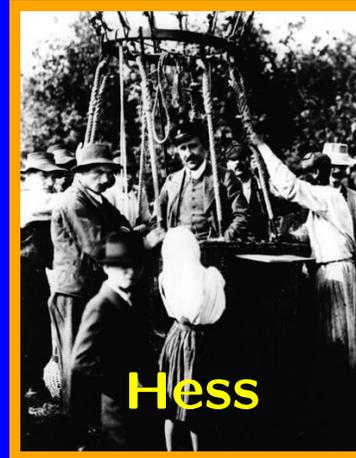
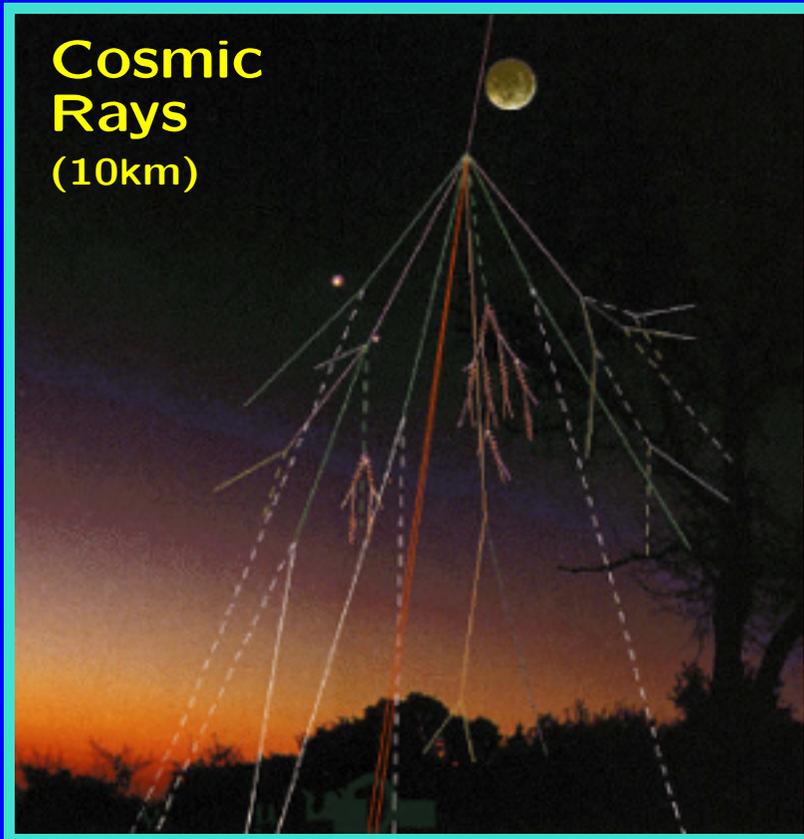
			



the muon

Raby: "Who ordered that one?"



Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L
	μ_L^-		

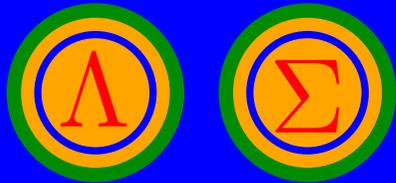
	e_R^-	u_R	d_R
	μ_R^-		

antiparticles

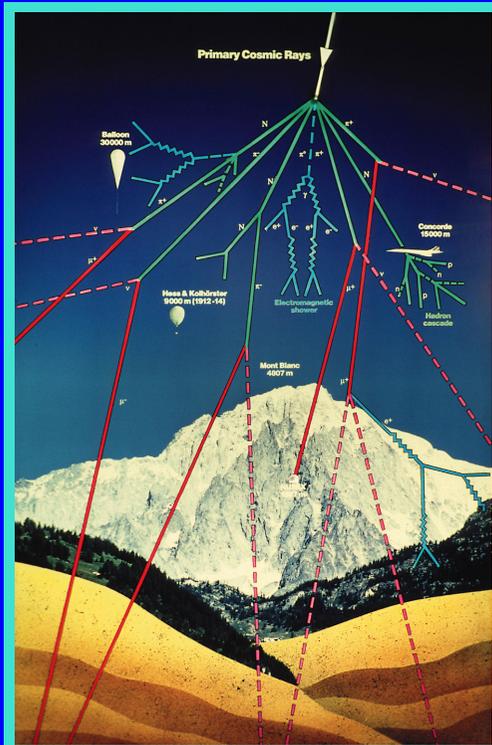
	e_L^+	\bar{u}_L	\bar{d}_L
	μ_L^+		

	e_R^+	\bar{u}_R	\bar{d}_R
	μ_R^+		

K strange particles



Pic du Midi



K: Rochester and Butler
(Univ. of Manchester)

Λ: Hopper and Biswas
(Univ. of Melbourne)

particles in a cloud chamber



1897

1947 ...



Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L
	μ_L^-		s_L

	e_R^-	u_R	d_R
	μ_R^-		s_R

antiparticles

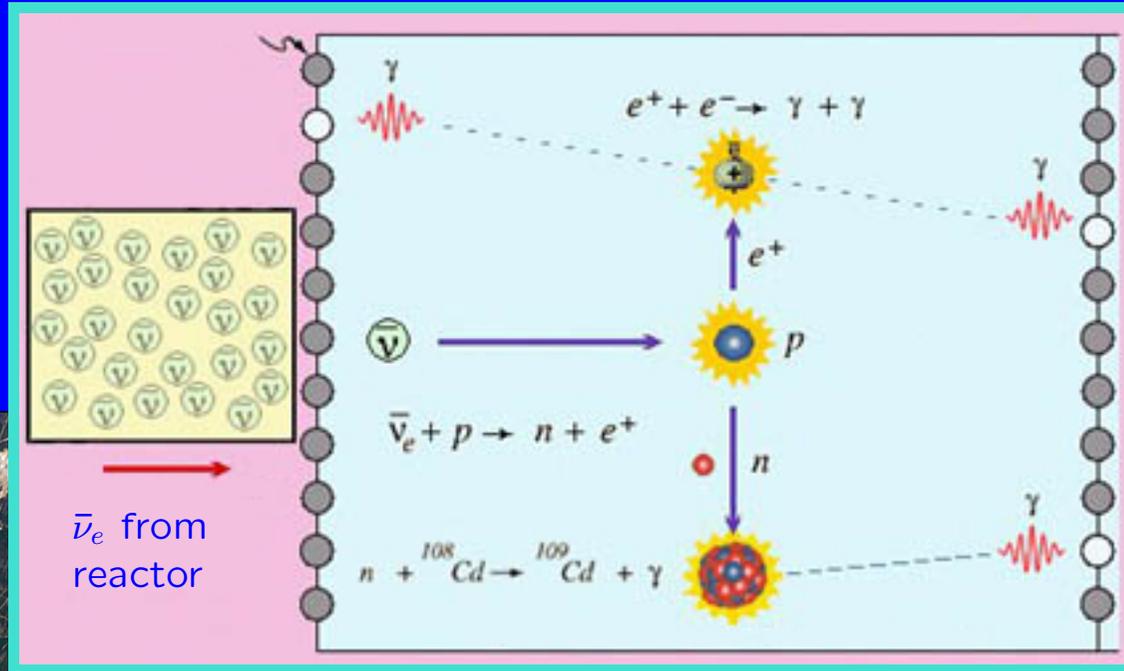
	e_L^+	\bar{u}_L	\bar{d}_L
	μ_L^+		\bar{s}_L

	e_R^+	\bar{u}_R	\bar{d}_R
	μ_R^+		\bar{s}_R

$\bar{\nu}$ antineutrino

Cowan–Reines neutrino experiment

Savannah River Site



used the antineutrino flux from the nuclear reactors of the Savannah River Site (South Carolina).

e^-

γ

p

n

e^+

ν

\bar{p}

ν



Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L
	μ_L^-		s_L

	e_R^-	u_R	d_R
	μ_R^-		s_R

antiparticles

	e_L^+	\bar{u}_L	\bar{d}_L
	μ_L^+		\bar{s}_L

$\bar{\nu}_e$	e_R^+	\bar{u}_R	\bar{d}_R
	μ_R^+		\bar{s}_R



muon neutrino

the Alternating Gradient Synchrotron (AGS)

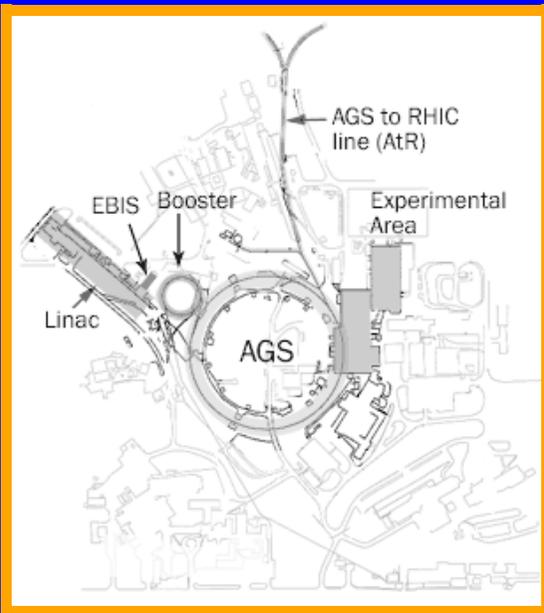


1962

Leon Lederman

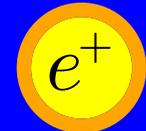
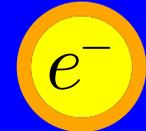
Melvin Schwartz

Jack Steinberger



use the pions and kaons of the AGS. These decays produce also (anti)neutrinos; with a similar setup like the Cowan–Reines experiment they detect muons, but no electrons

⇒ the neutrinos coming from pions and kaons have to differ from the neutrinos coming from the reactors.



1962



Particles of the Standard Model: Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L
ν_μ	μ_L^-		s_L

	e_R^-	u_R	d_R
	μ_R^-		s_R

antiparticles

	e_L^+	\bar{u}_L	\bar{d}_L
	μ_L^+		\bar{s}_L

$\bar{\nu}_e$	e_R^+	\bar{u}_R	\bar{d}_R
$\bar{\nu}_\mu$	μ_R^+		\bar{s}_R



charm quark: J/ψ

SLAC with detector complex at the right (east) side



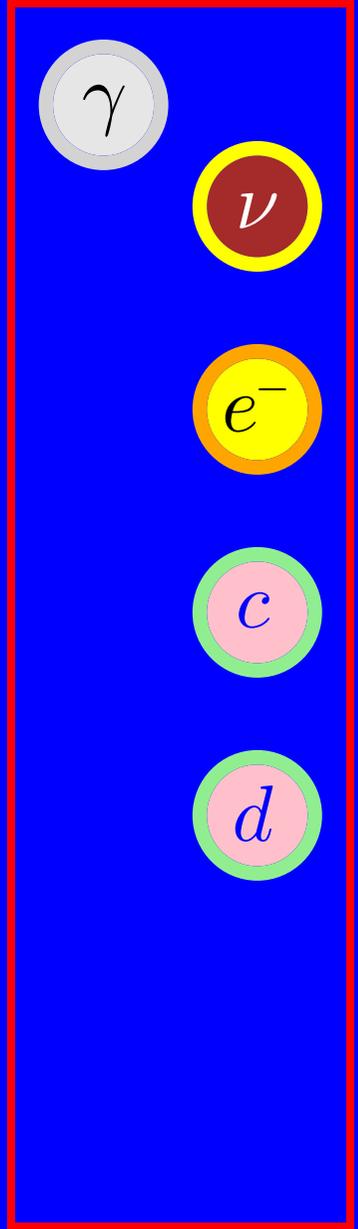
BNL: NSLS-II under construction



Burt Richter (SLAC)

Samuel Ting (BNL)

1974



Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L
ν_μ	μ_L^-	c_L	s_L

	e_R^-	u_R	d_R
	μ_R^-	c_R	s_R

antiparticles

	e_L^+	\bar{u}_L	\bar{d}_L
	μ_L^+	\bar{c}_L	\bar{s}_L

$\bar{\nu}_e$	e_R^+	\bar{u}_R	\bar{d}_R
$\bar{\nu}_\mu$	μ_R^+	\bar{c}_R	\bar{s}_R

Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L
ν_μ	μ_L^-	c_L	s_L
	τ_L^-		

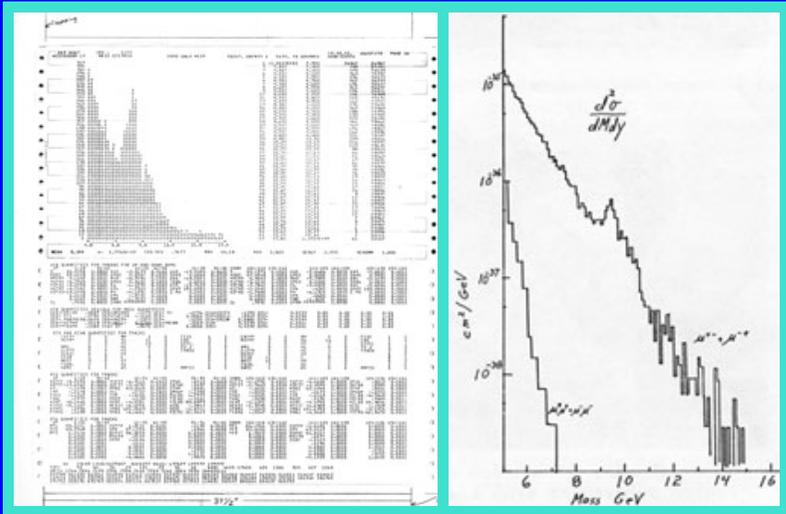
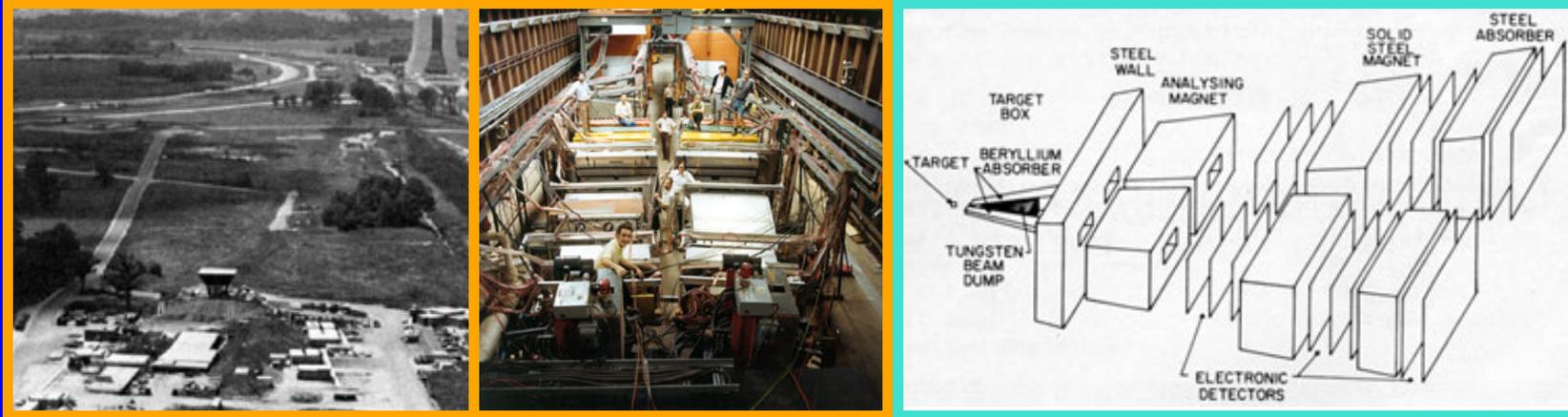
	e_R^-	u_R	d_R
	μ_R^-	c_R	s_R
	τ_R^-		

antiparticles

	e_L^+	\bar{u}_L	\bar{d}_L
	μ_L^+	\bar{c}_L	\bar{s}_L
	τ_L^+		

$\bar{\nu}_e$	e_R^+	\bar{u}_R	\bar{d}_R
$\bar{\nu}_\mu$	μ_R^+	\bar{c}_R	\bar{s}_R
	τ_R^+		

b bottom quark: Υ



background suppression and computer aided statistical analysis lets the **Fermilab E288** experiment discover the Upsilon meson **1974**

A vertical stack of particle symbols in colored circles, enclosed in a red rectangular border. From top to bottom: a grey circle with γ , a red circle with ν , a yellow circle with e^- , a pink circle with u , and a pink circle with b .

Timeline showing the year 1955 and 1977. A white arrow points to the right, with a red dot marking the year 1977.

Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L
ν_μ	μ_L^-	c_L	s_L
	τ_L^-		b_L

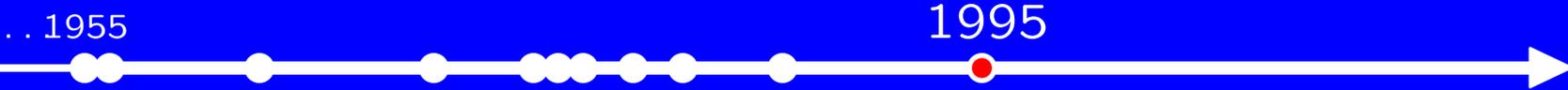
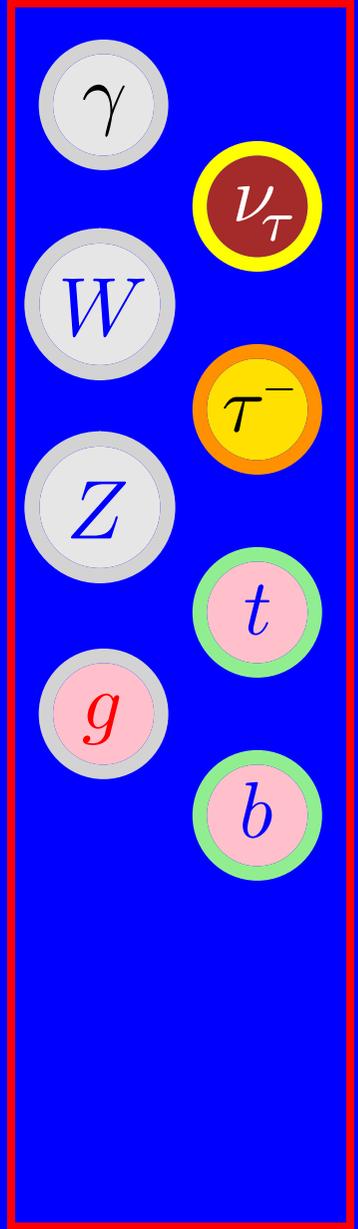
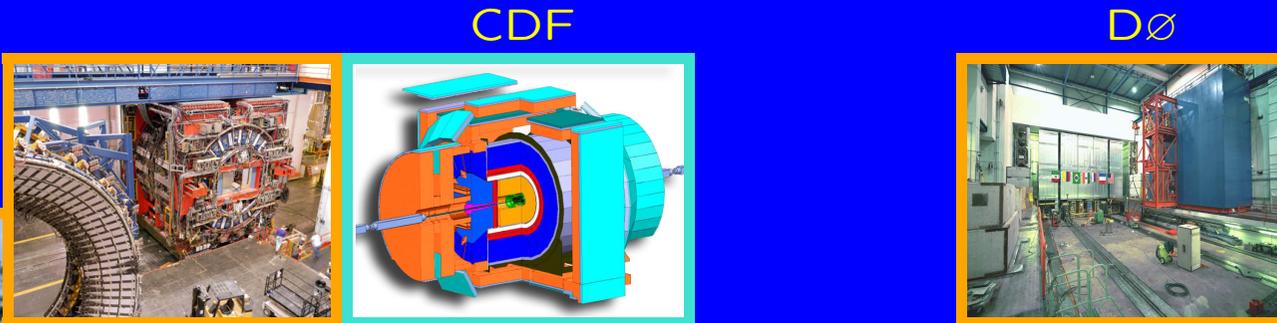
	e_R^-	u_R	d_R
	μ_R^-	c_R	s_R
	τ_R^-		b_R

antiparticles

	e_L^+	\bar{u}_L	\bar{d}_L
	μ_L^+	\bar{c}_L	\bar{s}_L
	τ_L^+		\bar{b}_L

$\bar{\nu}_e$	e_R^+	\bar{u}_R	\bar{d}_R
$\bar{\nu}_\mu$	μ_R^+	\bar{c}_R	\bar{s}_R
	τ_R^+		\bar{b}_R

t top quark



Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L
ν_μ	μ_L^-	c_L	s_L
	τ_L^-	t_L	b_L

	e_R^-	u_R	d_R
	μ_R^-	c_R	s_R
	τ_R^-	t_R	b_R

antiparticles

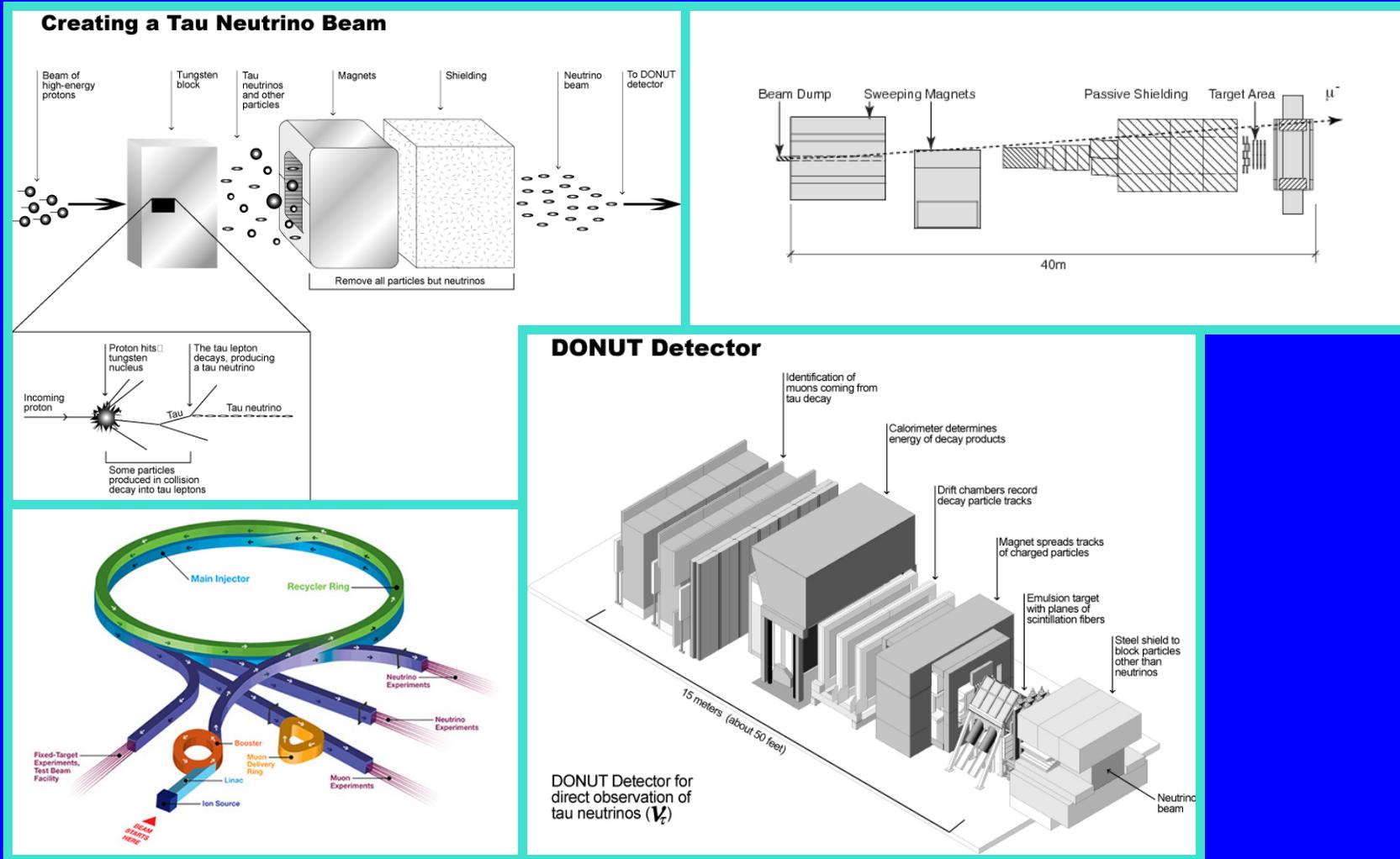
	e_L^+	\bar{u}_L	\bar{d}_L
	μ_L^+	\bar{c}_L	\bar{s}_L
	τ_L^+	\bar{t}_L	\bar{b}_L

$\bar{\nu}_e$	e_R^+	\bar{u}_R	\bar{d}_R
$\bar{\nu}_\mu$	μ_R^+	\bar{c}_R	\bar{s}_R
	τ_R^+	\bar{t}_R	\bar{b}_R



tau neutrino

Discovery by the DONUT collaboration (E872 Fermilab)



γ

ν_τ

W

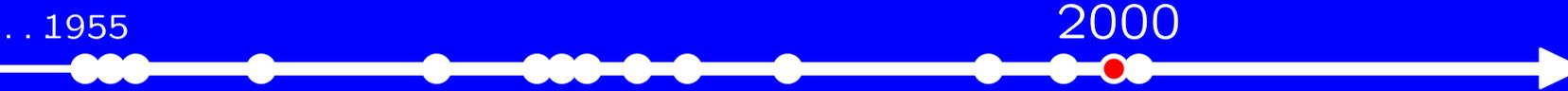
τ^-

Z

t

g

b



Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

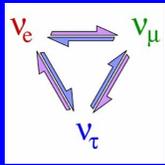
ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L
ν_μ	μ_L^-	c_L	s_L
ν_τ	τ_L^-	t_L	b_L

	e_R^-	u_R	d_R
	μ_R^-	c_R	s_R
	τ_R^-	t_R	b_R

antiparticles

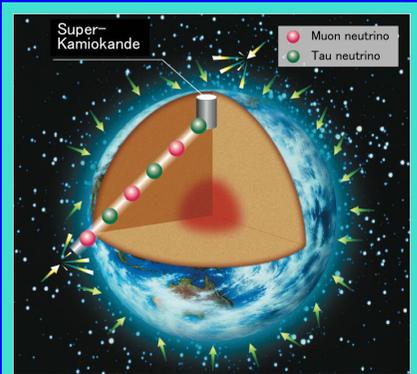
	e_L^+	\bar{u}_L	\bar{d}_L
	μ_L^+	\bar{c}_L	\bar{s}_L
	τ_L^+	\bar{t}_L	\bar{b}_L

$\bar{\nu}_e$	e_R^+	\bar{u}_R	\bar{d}_R
$\bar{\nu}_\mu$	μ_R^+	\bar{c}_R	\bar{s}_R
$\bar{\nu}_\tau$	τ_R^+	\bar{t}_R	\bar{b}_R



neutrino oscillations

1957 predicted by **B. Pontecorvo**

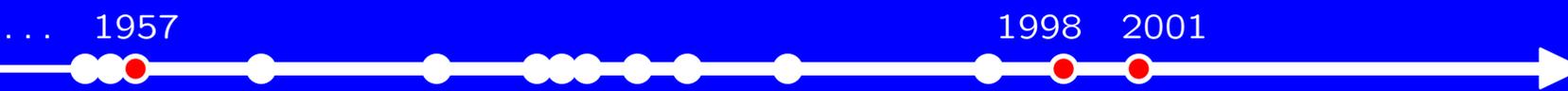
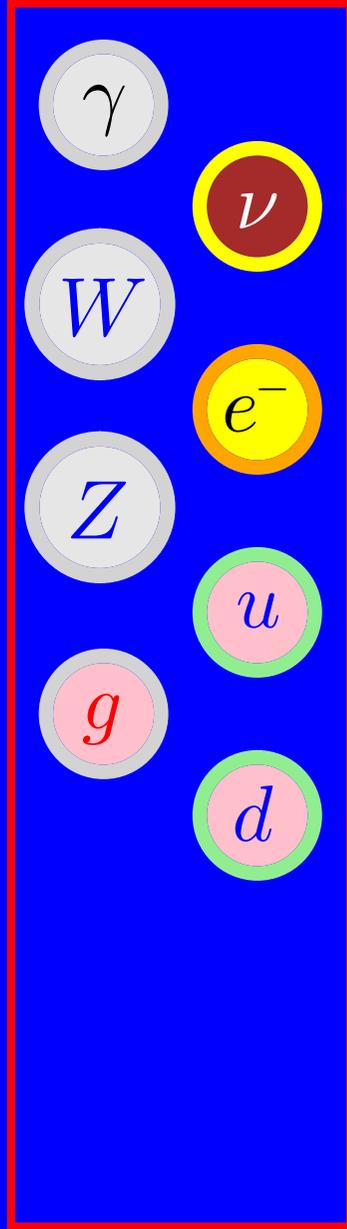
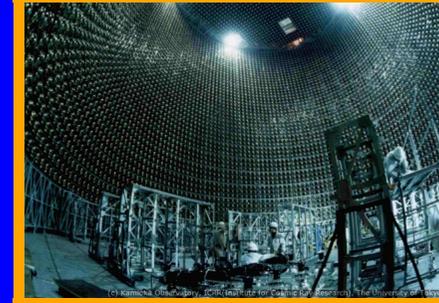
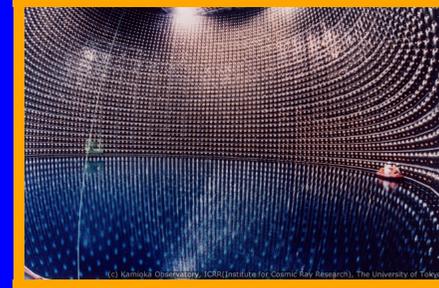
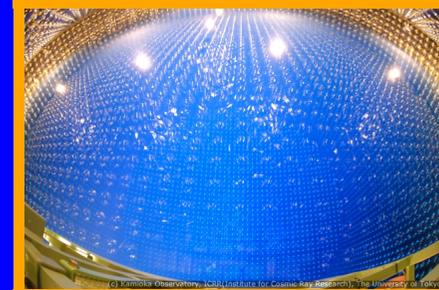
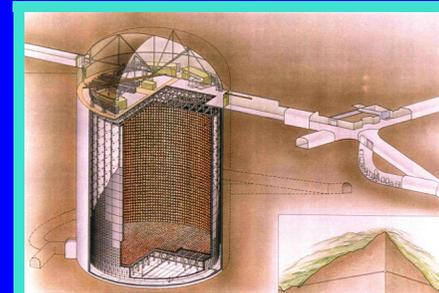


Super Kamiokande (SK) announces first experimental evidence for **atmospheric neutrino oscillations** in **1998**



Sudbury Neutrino Observatory (SNO) provides clear evidence of neutrino flavor change in solar neutrinos in **2001**

only then the solar neutrino puzzle was solved



Neutrino oscillations: 

★ solve the **solar neutrino puzzle**

→ **neutrinos have a tiny mass**

↳ **there exist also right-handed neutrinos** 

★ but they have

★ **no charge, no hypercharge, and no color**

↳ **no interaction except the mass-term**

→ their existence **does not change**

(the predictions of) **the Standard Model !**

Particles of the Standard Model:

Fermions

left

right

particles

ν_e	e_L^-	u_L	d_L
ν_μ	μ_L^-	c_L	s_L
ν_τ	τ_L^-	t_L	b_L

ν_{eR}	e_R^-	u_R	d_R
$\nu_{\mu R}$	μ_R^-	c_R	s_R
$\nu_{\tau R}$	τ_R^-	t_R	b_R

antiparticles

$\bar{\nu}_{eL}$	e_L^+	\bar{u}_L	\bar{d}_L
$\bar{\nu}_{\mu L}$	μ_L^+	\bar{c}_L	\bar{s}_L
$\bar{\nu}_{\tau L}$	τ_L^+	\bar{t}_L	\bar{b}_L

$\bar{\nu}_e$	e_R^+	\bar{u}_R	\bar{d}_R
$\bar{\nu}_\mu$	μ_R^+	\bar{c}_R	\bar{s}_R
$\bar{\nu}_\tau$	τ_R^+	\bar{t}_R	\bar{b}_R

Particles of the Standard Model:

Gauge Bosons

1. screening in QED

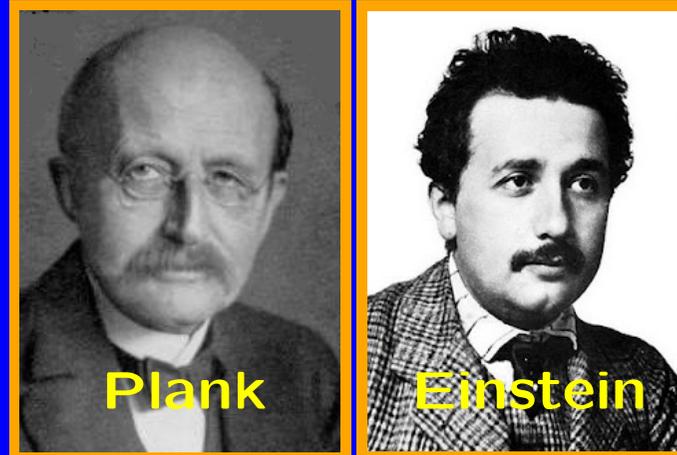
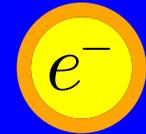
- Vacuum polarization
- running coupling constant

2. anti-screening in QCD

- asymptotic freedom
- confinement

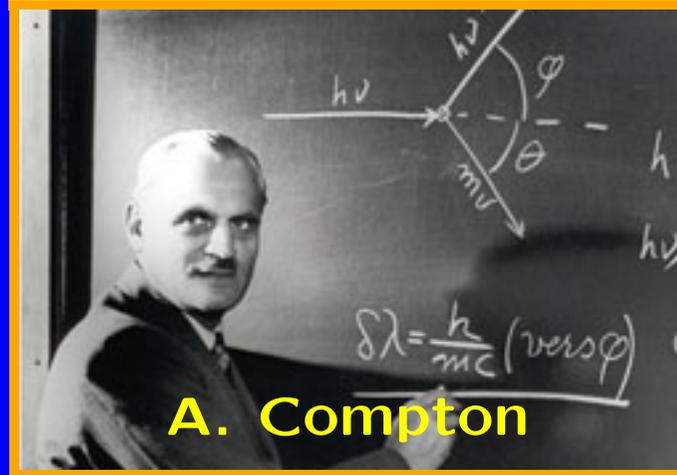
3. massive vector bosons

γ the photon

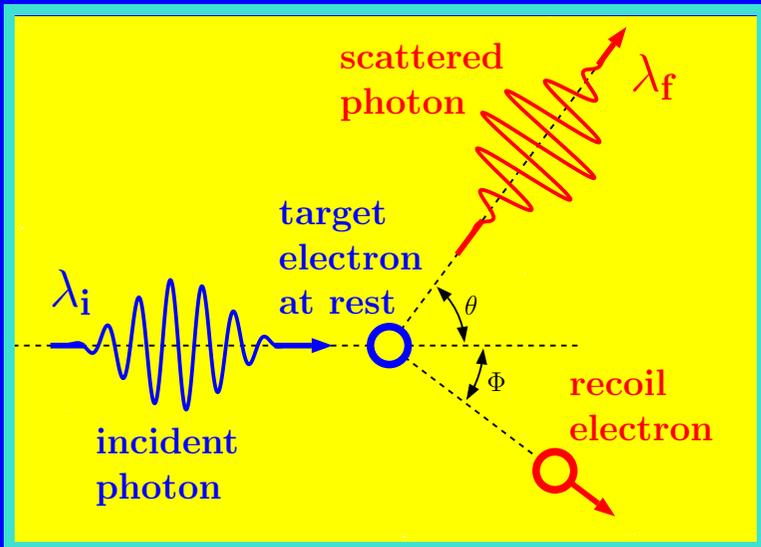


Planck

Einstein

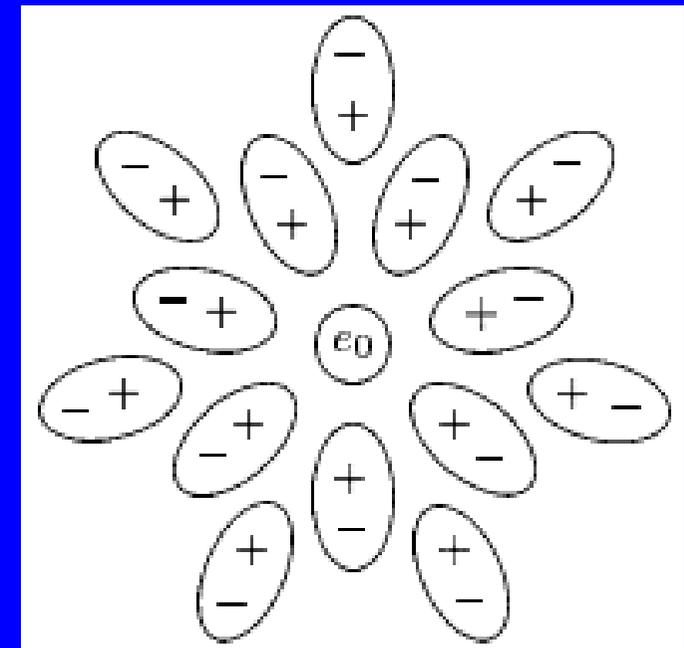
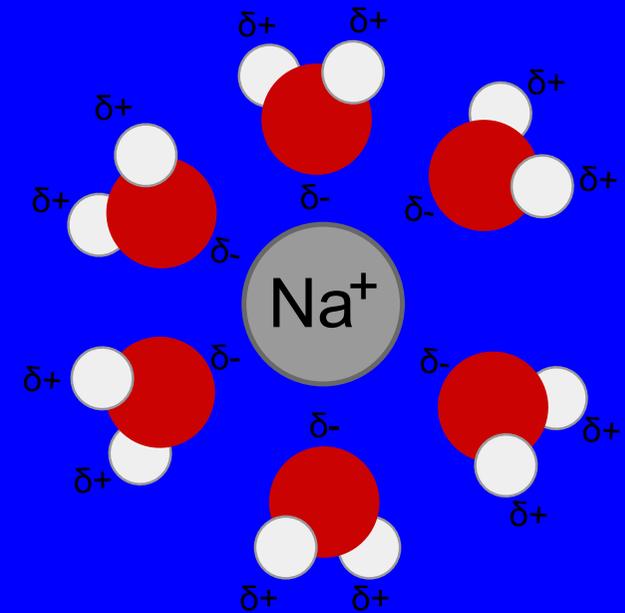


A. Compton



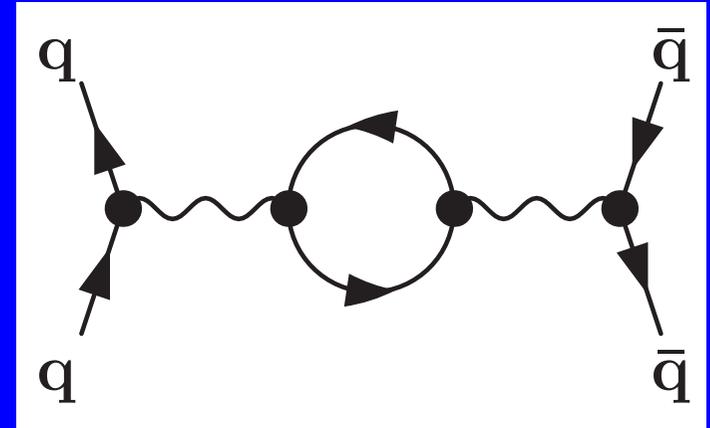
screening

- the effective charge of an ion in a dielectric medium is reduced by the dielectric molecules surrounding the charge
 - the same happens in the vacuum:
 - if one looks at the charge with sufficient energy to see virtual electron-positron pairs
- Vacuum polarization !



screening

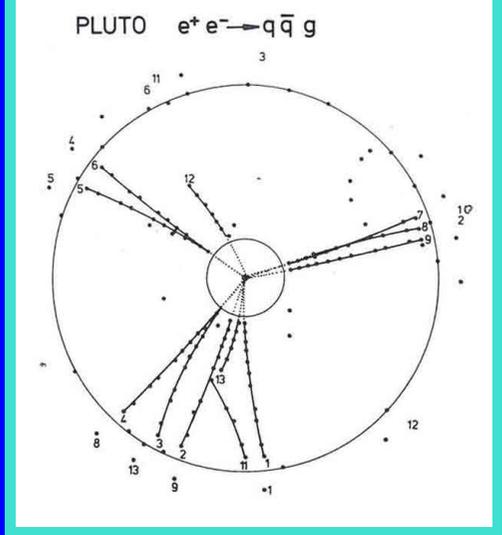
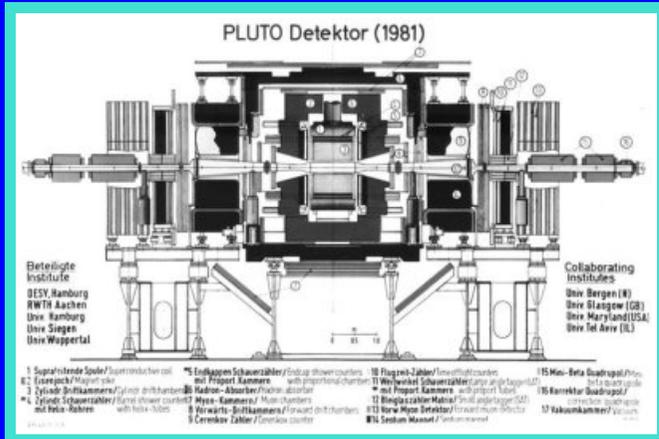
- the energy dependence of the effective charge in the vacuum due to the Vacuum polarization is described by the



- ★ running coupling

$$\alpha_{\text{em}}(Q^2) = \frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \frac{\alpha_0}{3\pi} \ln \left[\frac{Q^2}{m_e^2} \right]}$$

g gluon



the consistent interpretation of **3-jet events as gluon bremsstrahlung** in the framework of QCD, done in PLUTO, TASSO, MARK-J, and JADE (experiments at PETRA, DESY), marks the discovery of the gluon **1979**

γ

ν

e^-

u

g

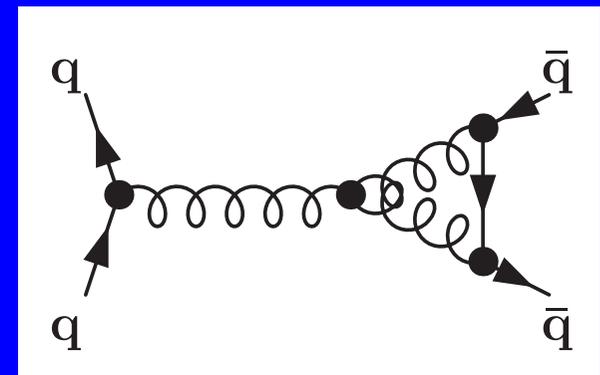
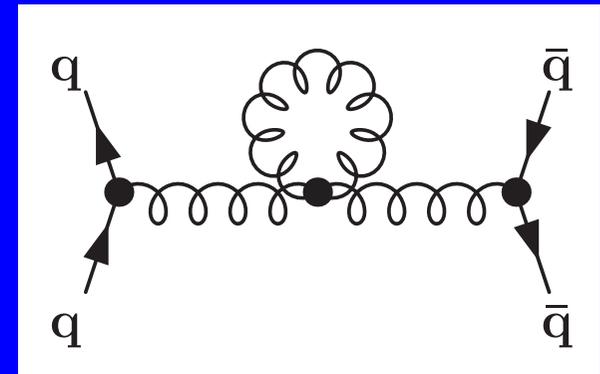
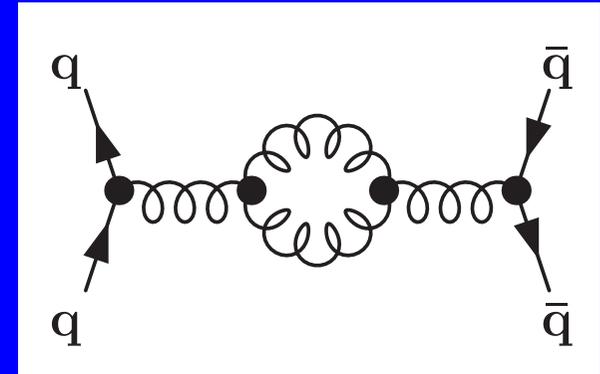
d

... 1955

1979

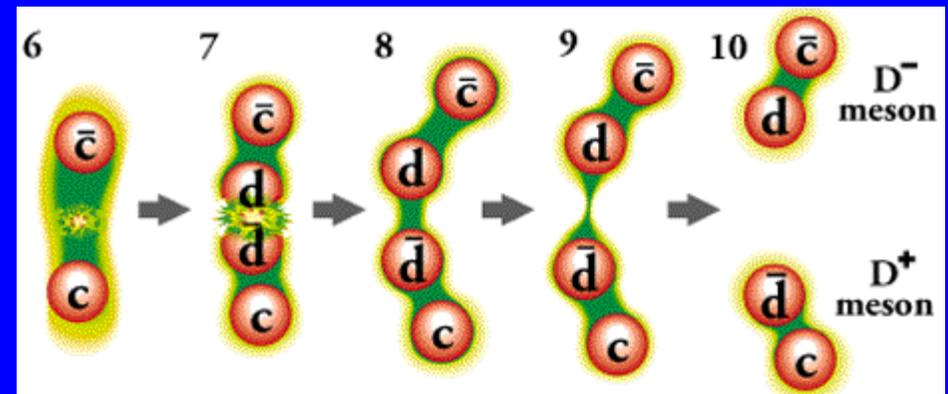
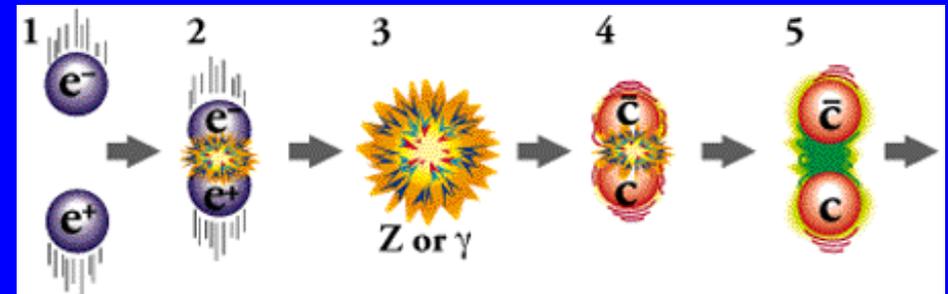
anti-screening

- the self couplings in QCD have the opposite effect for the color charges
 - the closer one looks, the weaker the charges seem to become
- asymptotic freedom !



anti-screening

- at high energies (colliders)
 - we have no problem to separate color charges
- at lower energies
 - the force connecting the charges seems to become stronger

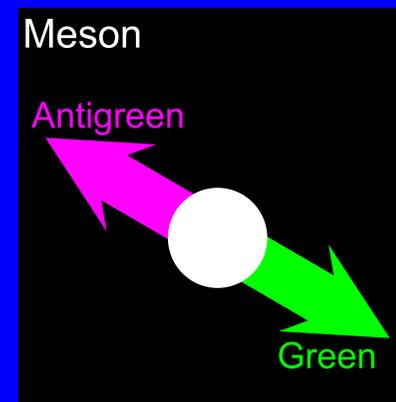
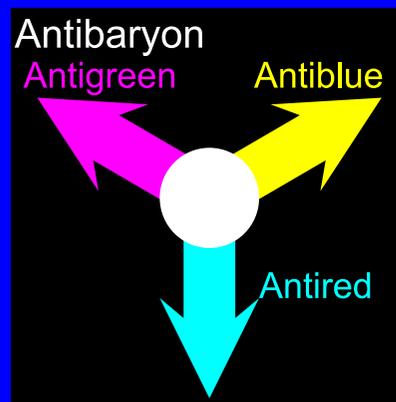
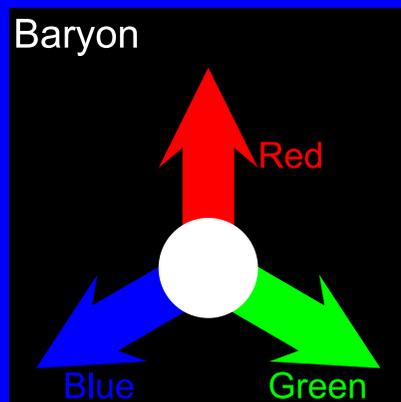


→ strong enough that the potential (= force * distance) creates a quark-antiquark pair, that restores color neutrality

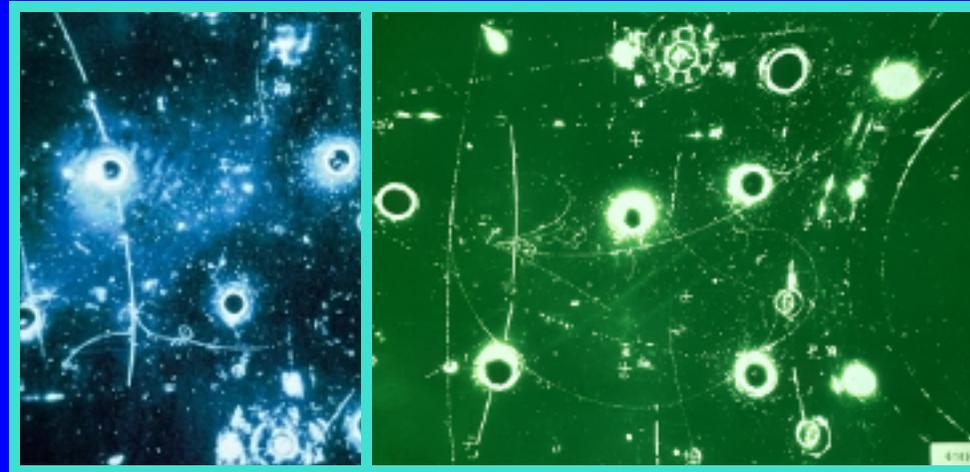
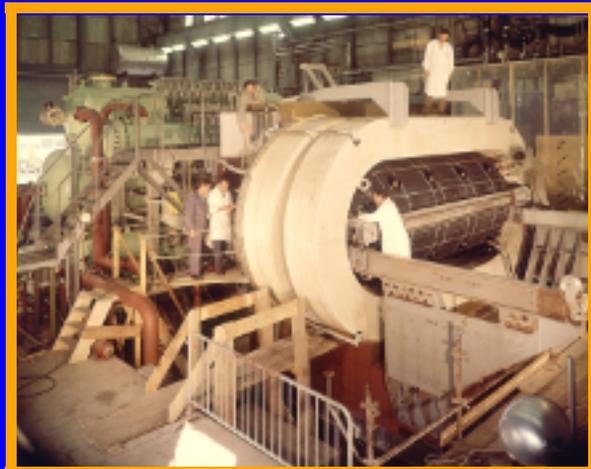
→ color confinement !

color confinement

- low energy states have to be color neutral
 - we can only observe color neutral particles
- the strong force hides inside the nucleons
- the nuclear force is more like a van der Waals force:
 - mediated by mesons (quark – antiquark pairs)
- Baryons and Mesons are color singlets

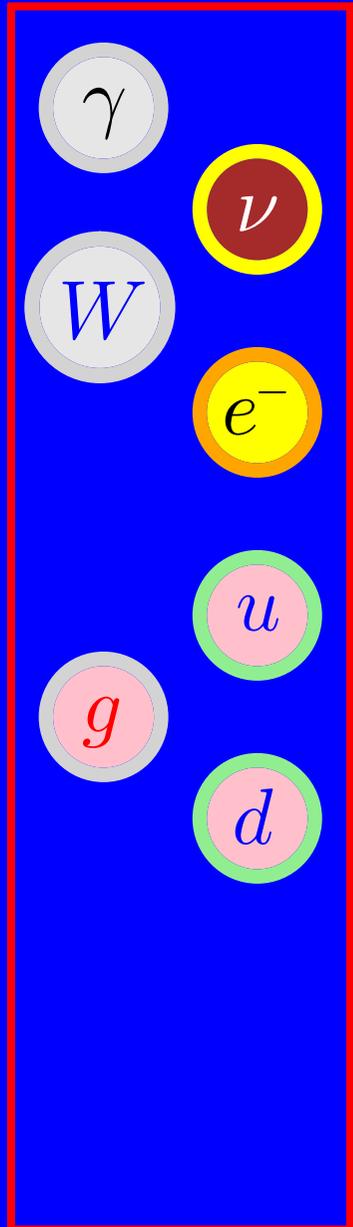


W Z hints for W^{\pm} and Z -boson



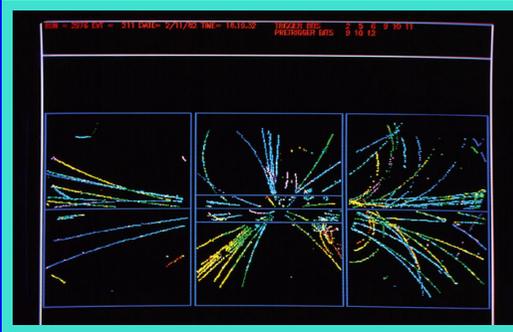
Weak charged currents were known from neutrino detection.

CERN announced the experimental observation of **weak neutral currents**, shortly after they were predicted by the electro-weak theory of Abdus Salam, Sheldon Glashow and Steven Weinberg.

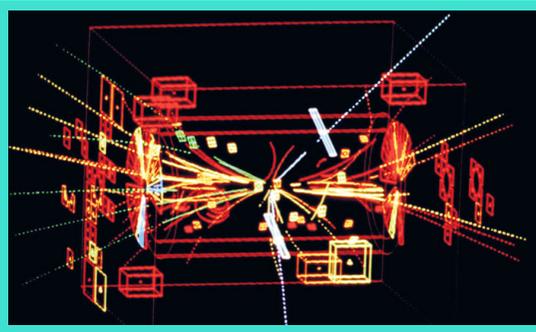


W Z W^{\pm} - and Z -boson

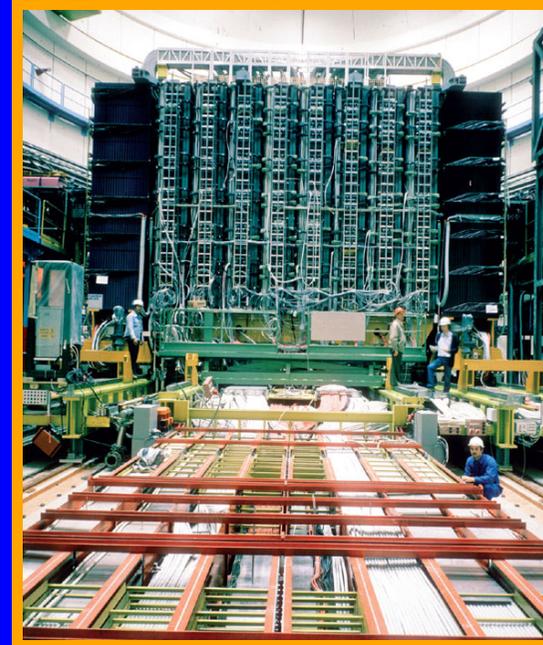
event in the UA1 detector



Z-event in UA1



UA2 detector

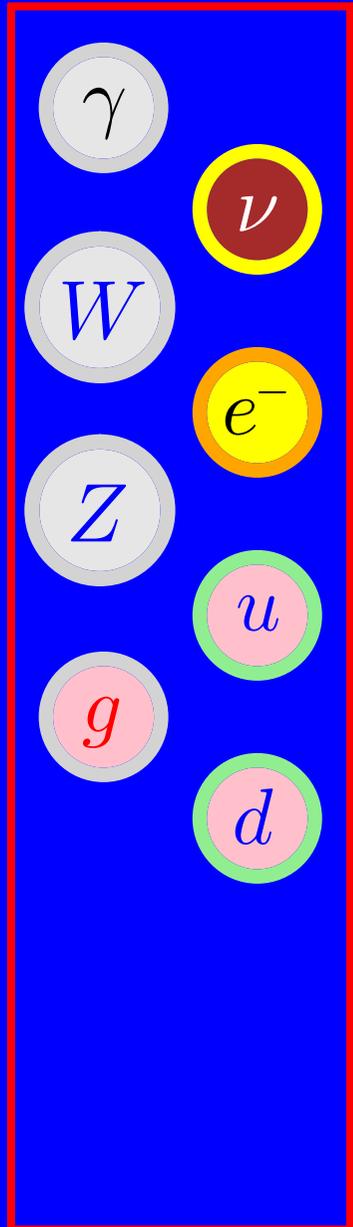


UA1 detector (parking)

January 1983:

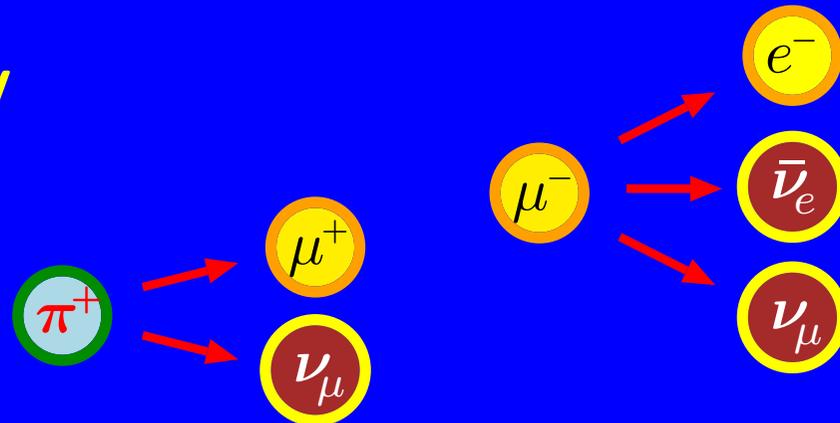
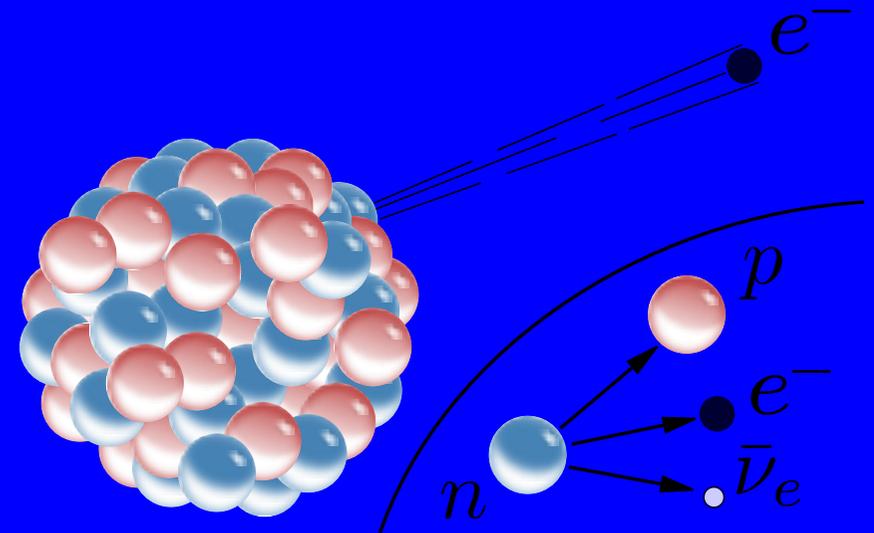
Rubbia: "They look like W s, they feel like W s, they smell like W s, they must be W s".

4 Z -events by end of June 1983



Weak Interactions

- 1933 Enrico Fermi explained the radioactive beta decay
 - by coupling four fermions
- the same coupling constant $G_F = \frac{1.16637 \times 10^{-5}}{\text{GeV}^2}$ describes
 - radioactive beta-decay
 - muon decay
 - charged pion decay
 - neutrino interactions



★ but it cannot work for energies bigger than ~ 100 GeV

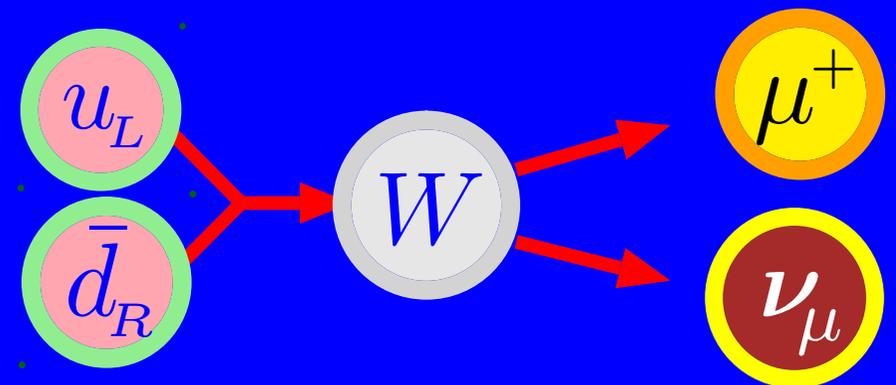
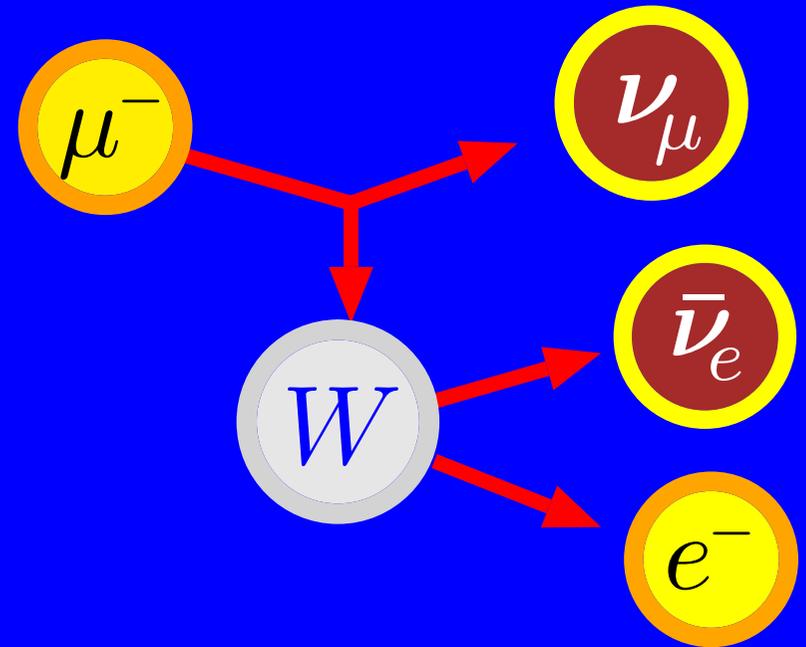
Weak Interactions: modern explanation

- weak interactions couple a pair of fermions with another pair – via vector bosons
- the Fermi coupling constant

$$G_F = \frac{\sqrt{2} g^2}{8 m_W^2}$$

is independent of energy

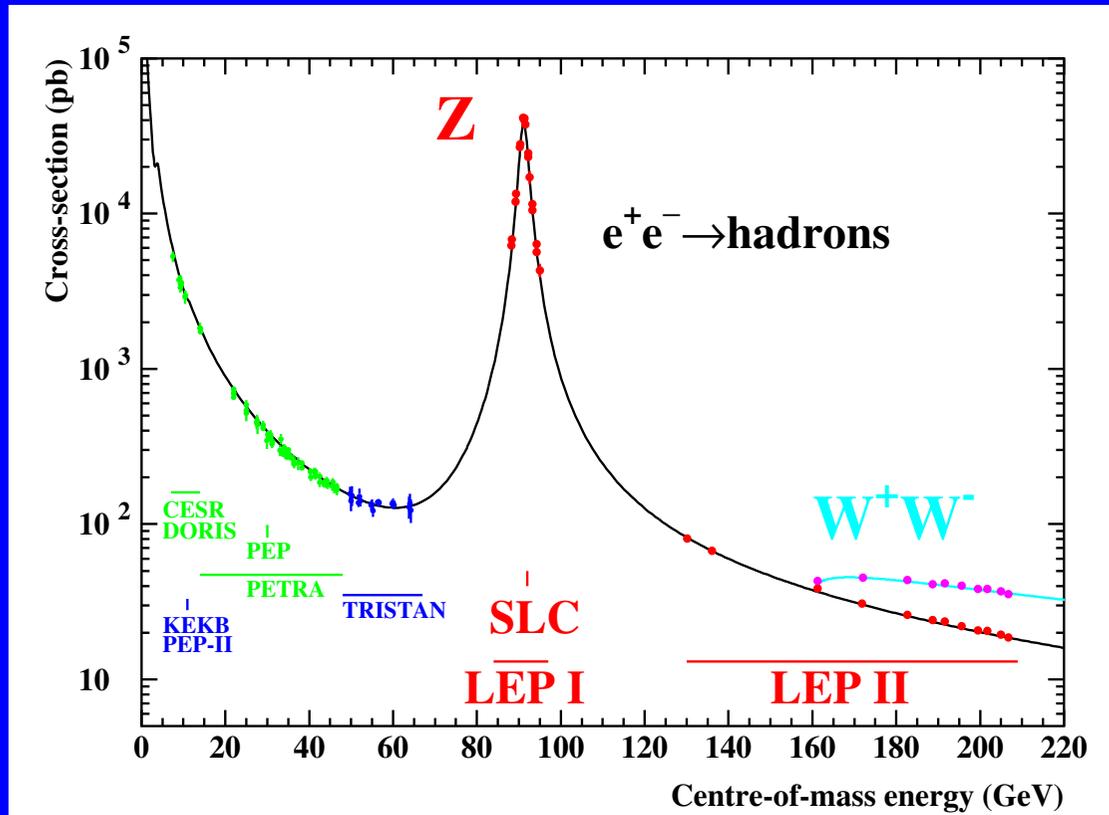
- ★ only if the energy is (much) smaller than the mass of the W -boson (80 GeV)



Weak Interactions: LEP

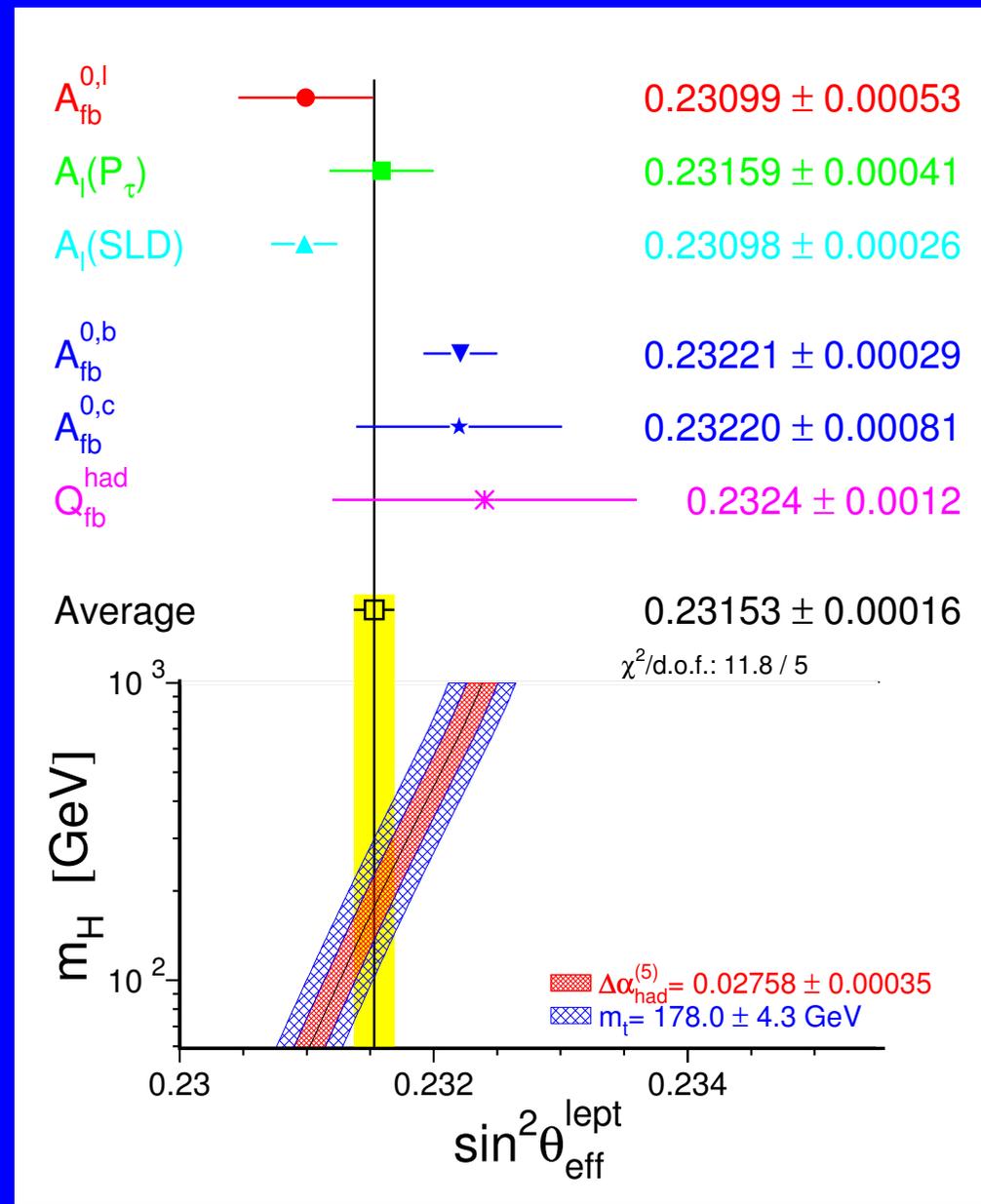
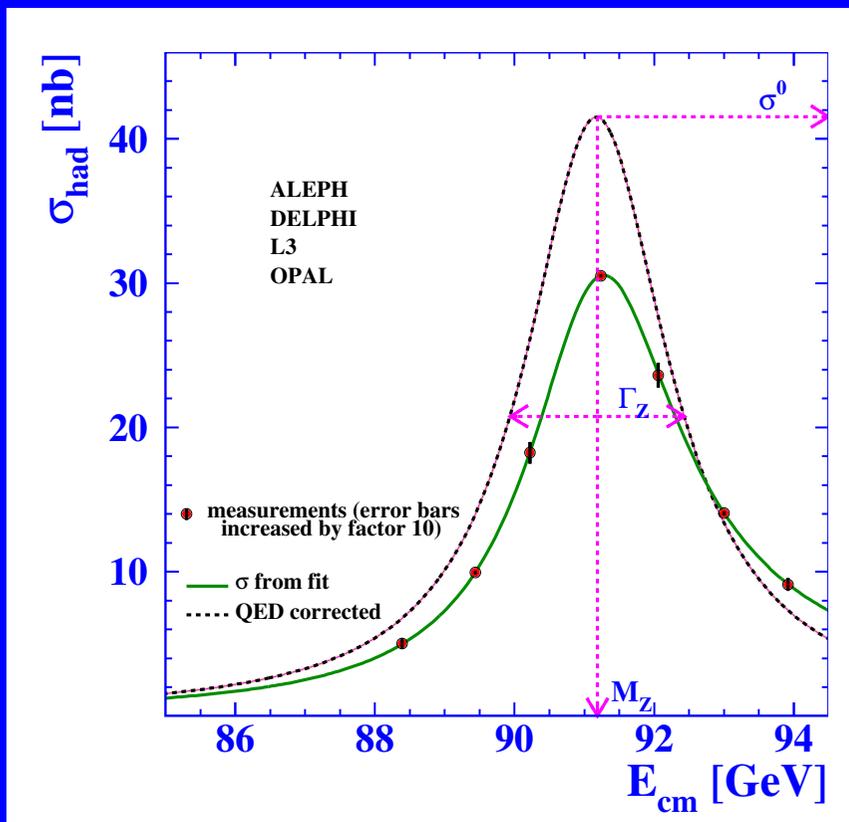
- electron-positron colliders can produce Z-bosons or pairs of W-bosons
- ★ which decay to hadrons and leptons

LEP



Weak Interactions: LEP

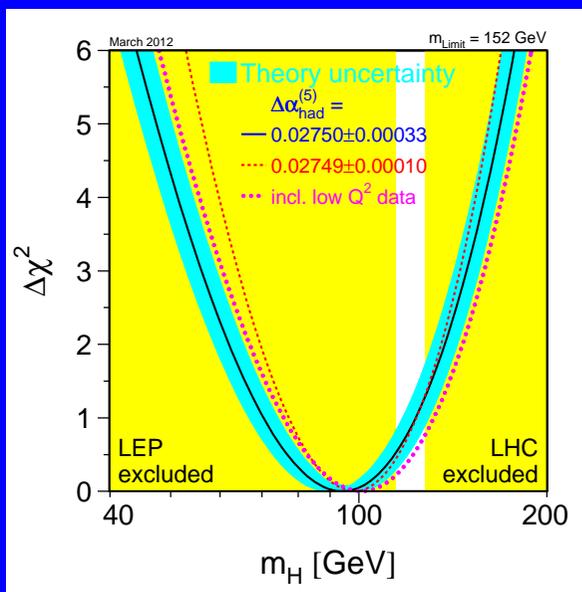
- electron-positron colliders determine the energy of collisions very accurately
- precision measurements



Weak Interactions: LEP

- measuring more predictions than there are parameters in a theory

→ consistency check for the Standard Model



	Measurement	Fit	$ O^{\text{meas}} - O^{\text{fit}} / \sigma^{\text{meas}}$
$\Delta\alpha_{\text{had}}^{(5)}(m_Z)$	0.02750 ± 0.00033	0.02759	~0.1
m_Z [GeV]	91.1875 ± 0.0021	91.1874	~0.05
Γ_Z [GeV]	2.4952 ± 0.0023	2.4959	~0.3
σ_{had}^0 [nb]	41.540 ± 0.037	41.478	~1.7
R_l	20.767 ± 0.025	20.742	~1.0
$A_{\text{fb}}^{0,l}$	0.01714 ± 0.00095	0.01645	~0.8
$A_l(P_\tau)$	0.1465 ± 0.0032	0.1481	~0.5
R_b	0.21629 ± 0.00066	0.21579	~0.8
R_c	0.1721 ± 0.0030	0.1723	~0.1
$A_{\text{fb}}^{0,b}$	0.0992 ± 0.0016	0.1038	~2.8
$A_{\text{fb}}^{0,c}$	0.0707 ± 0.0035	0.0742	~1.0
A_b	0.923 ± 0.020	0.935	~0.6
A_c	0.670 ± 0.027	0.668	~0.1
$A_l(\text{SLD})$	0.1513 ± 0.0021	0.1481	~1.5
$\sin^2\theta_{\text{eff}}^{\text{lept}}(Q_{\text{fb}})$	0.2324 ± 0.0012	0.2314	~0.8
m_W [GeV]	80.385 ± 0.015	80.377	~0.5
Γ_W [GeV]	2.085 ± 0.042	2.092	~0.2
m_t [GeV]	173.20 ± 0.90	173.26	~0.1

March 2012

Particles of the Standard Model:

Higgs Boson

1. Why a Higgs Boson?

2. The Higgs mechanism

- ... no formulas only handwaving

3. Systematics:

- counting the degrees of freedom

4. Experimental evidence

- History of the discovery

Why a Higgs Boson ?

- The Standard Model is a **chiral gauge field theory**
 - it is described with **massless** fermion fields
- the gauge symmetries enforce **massless** vector bosons
- But we have
 - ★ massive fermions: leptons and quarks
 - ★ massive vector bosons: W^\pm and Z^0
- Solution: the Higgs mechanism

The Higgs Mechanism

- **Ingredients:**

- ★ scalar fields

- ★ continuous local symmetries = gauge symmetries

- ★ the vacuum

- **Result**

- ★ gauge symmetries are spontaneously broken

- ★ the scalar fields develop
a vacuum expectation value (vev)

- ★ other fields can acquire masses due to the vev

symmetry breaking

Example: **chess**:

- the rules of chess are in principle
 - ▶ **absolutely symmetric**
 - ▶ **for both players**
- i.e. the rules how the pieces move are the same for black and white

but:

- the **symmetry** is **broken** at the **beginning** due to the **initial setup** of the pieces
- therefore
 - ➔ a bishop never can change the color of the field it is standing on

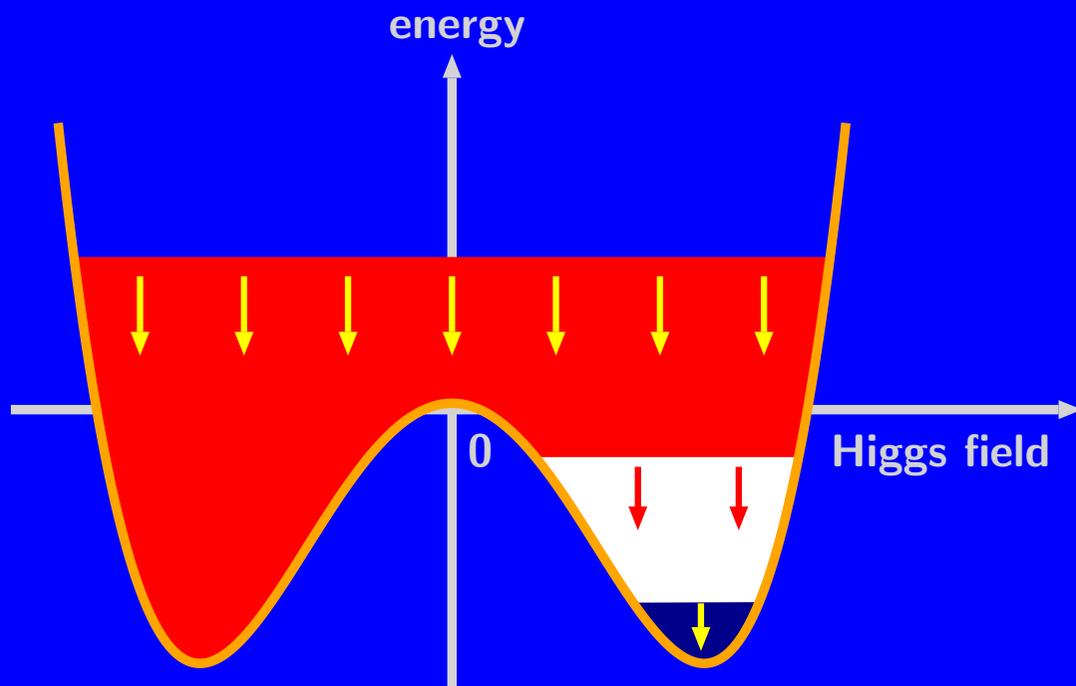


symmetry breaking

★ the origin of mass

In the SM, masses of particles are an effect of symmetry breaking:

- originally, all particles are massless, but interact with the Higgs field
- due to spontaneous symmetry breaking
 - ★ the value of the Higgs field is non-zero in the vacuum (=vev)
- the interaction with this vev produces the mass of particles



★ hot universe

- shortly after the big bang

particles are massless

★ cold universe

- condensed into an asymmetric state

particles get a mass

spontaneous symmetry breaking

degrees of freedom

only $SU(2) \times U(1)$ bosons

massless theory

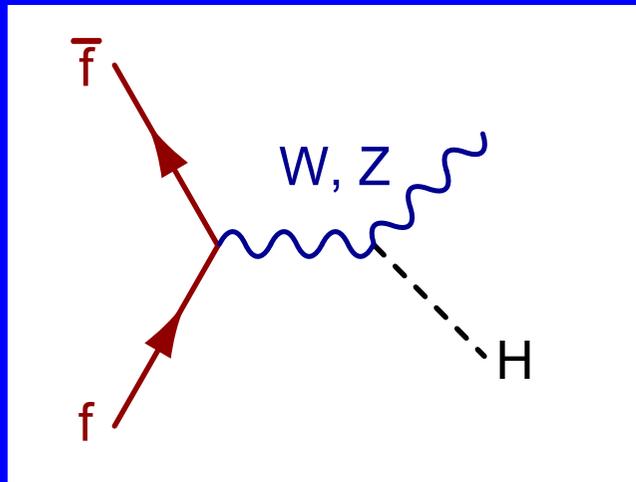
#	particles	dof
1	complex scalar doublet	4
4	massless gauge bosons (B, W^i)	8
0	massive gauge bosons	0
		12

massive theory

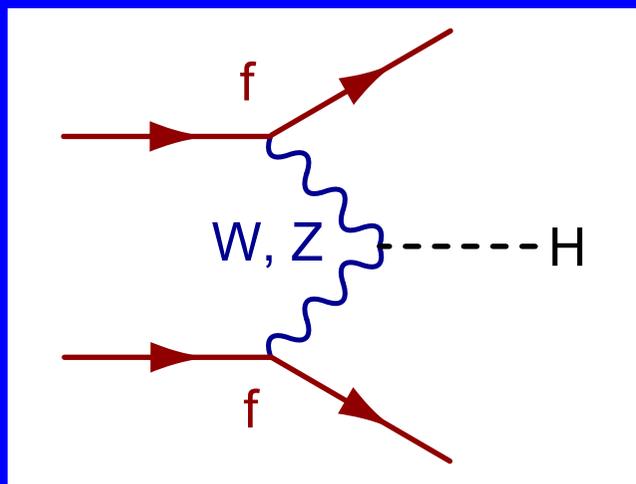
#	particles	dof
1	real scalar field (Higgs)	1
1	massless gauge boson (photon)	2
3	massive gauge bosons (W^\pm, Z^0)	9
		12

production at LEP

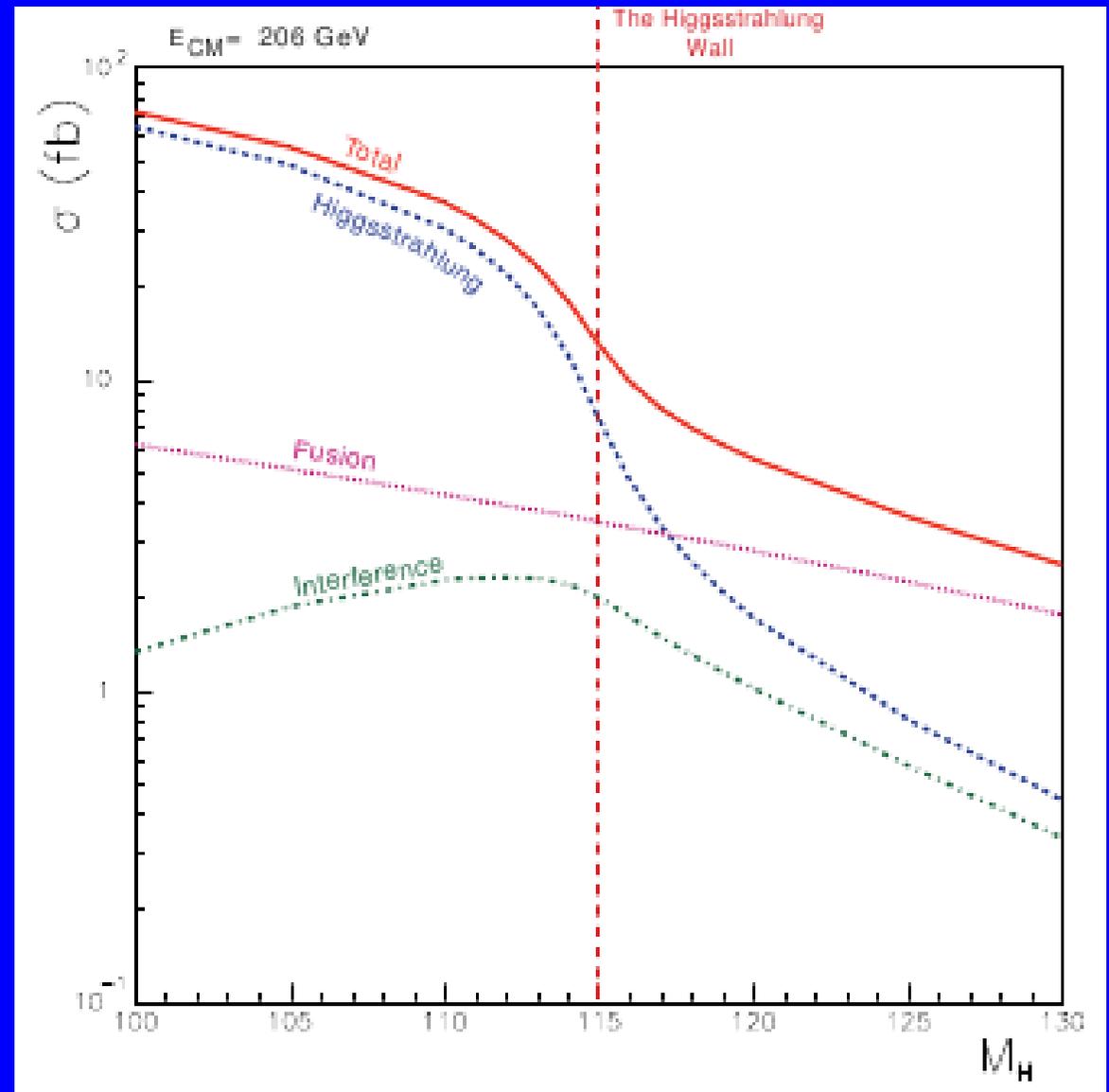
Higgs-strahlung



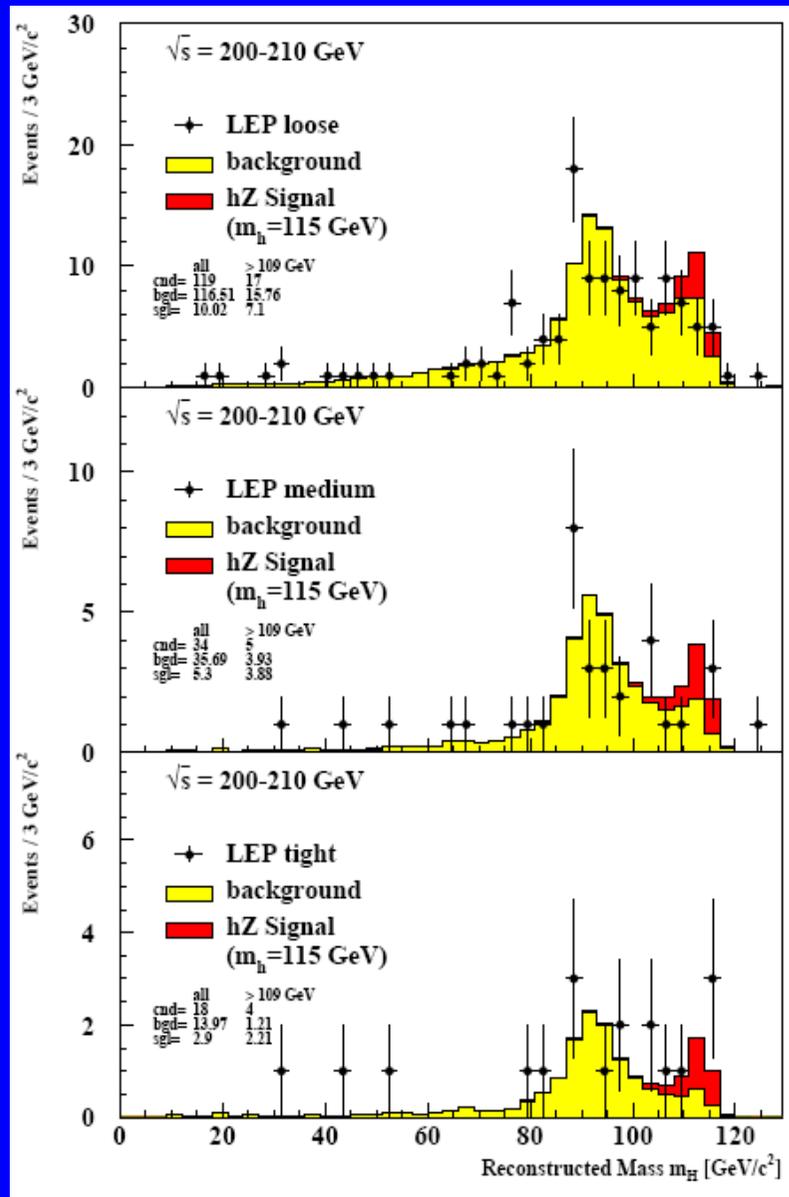
Higgs-fusion



Higgs production cross section



exclusion by LEP I & II



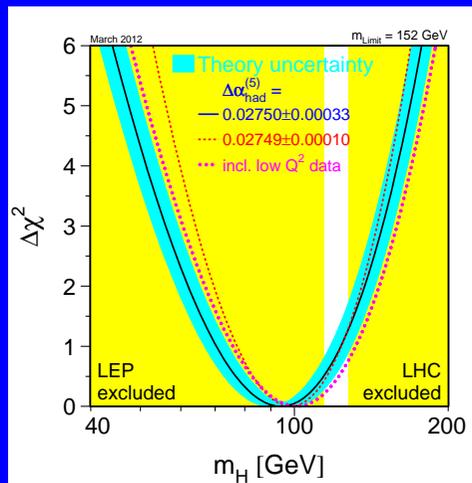
→ comparison between an expected (calculated) distribution and the measured distribution of events

← measured mass distribution

hints: electroweak precision measurements

- very precise measurements allow the comparison with precise calculations
- all loop calculations depend on the masses of all the particles in the loop!

➔ sensitivity to particles, that can not yet be produced!

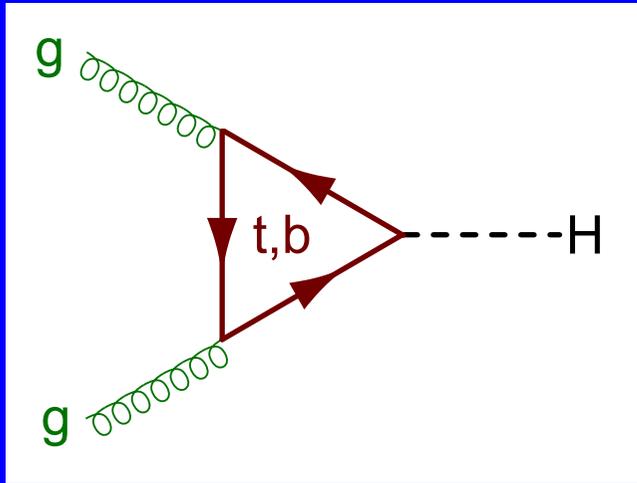


	Measurement	Fit	$\frac{ O^{\text{meas}} - O^{\text{fit}} }{\sigma^{\text{meas}}}$
$\Delta\alpha_{\text{had}}^{(5)}(m_Z)$	0.02750 ± 0.00033	0.02759	0.1
m_Z [GeV]	91.1875 ± 0.0021	91.1874	0.05
Γ_Z [GeV]	2.4952 ± 0.0023	2.4959	0.3
σ_{had}^0 [nb]	41.540 ± 0.037	41.478	1.7
R_l	20.767 ± 0.025	20.742	1.0
$A_{\text{fb}}^{0,l}$	0.01714 ± 0.00095	0.01645	0.8
$A_l(P_{\tau})$	0.1465 ± 0.0032	0.1481	0.5
R_b	0.21629 ± 0.00066	0.21579	0.8
R_c	0.1721 ± 0.0030	0.1723	0.1
$A_{\text{fb}}^{0,b}$	0.0992 ± 0.0016	0.1038	2.8
$A_{\text{fb}}^{0,c}$	0.0707 ± 0.0035	0.0742	1.2
A_b	0.923 ± 0.020	0.935	0.6
A_c	0.670 ± 0.027	0.668	0.1
$A_l(\text{SLD})$	0.1513 ± 0.0021	0.1481	1.5
$\sin^2\theta_{\text{eff}}^{\text{lept}}(Q_{\text{fb}})$	0.2324 ± 0.0012	0.2314	0.9
m_W [GeV]	80.385 ± 0.015	80.377	0.5
Γ_W [GeV]	2.085 ± 0.042	2.092	0.2
m_t [GeV]	173.20 ± 0.90	173.26	0.1

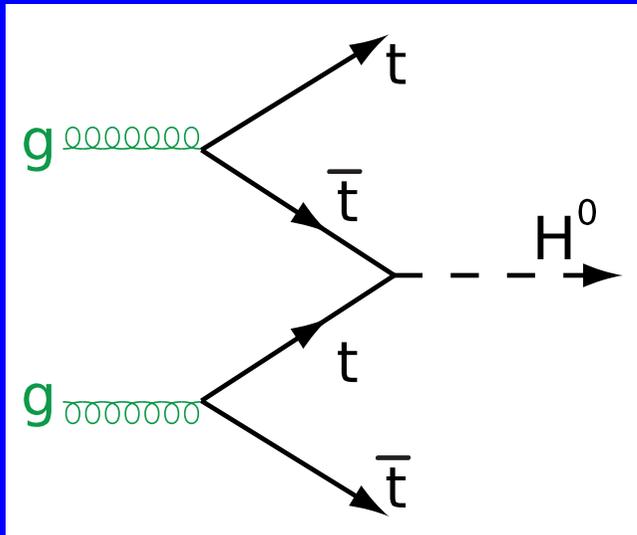
March 2012

production at LHC

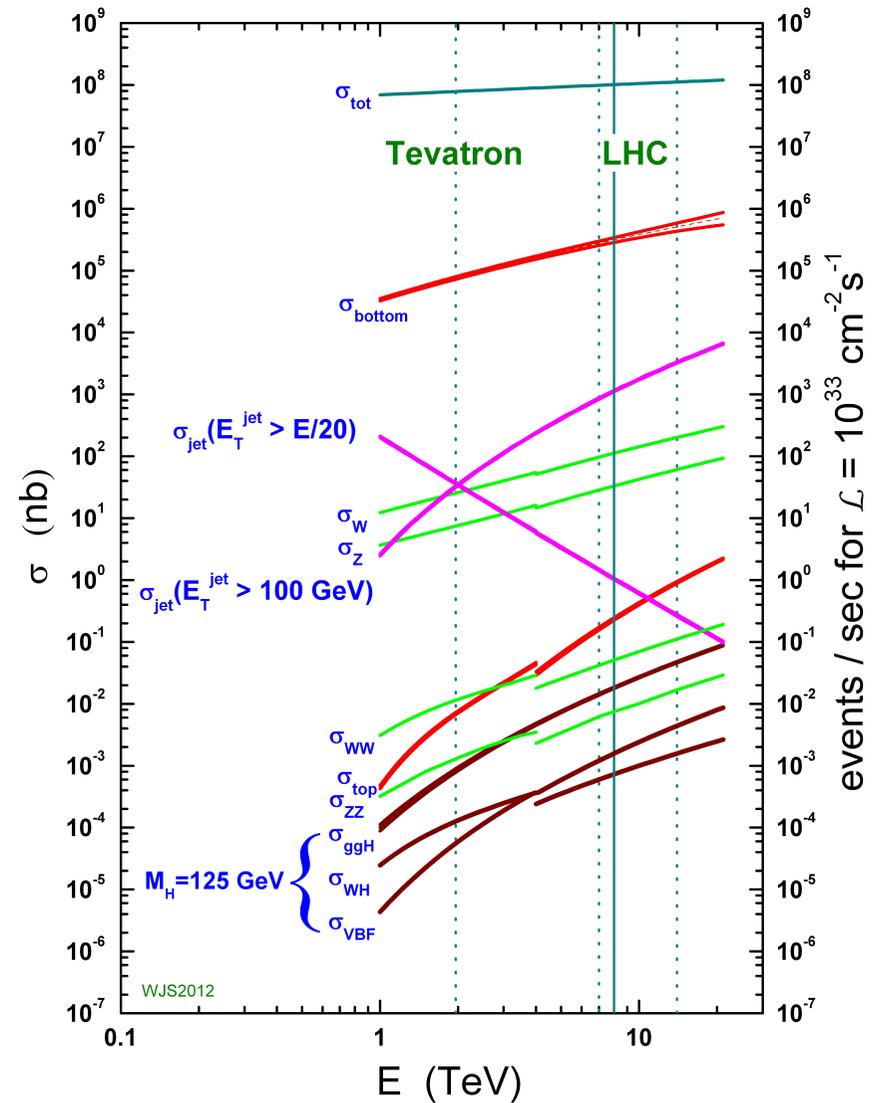
Higgs-gluon-fusion



top-associated-production



proton - (anti)proton cross sections

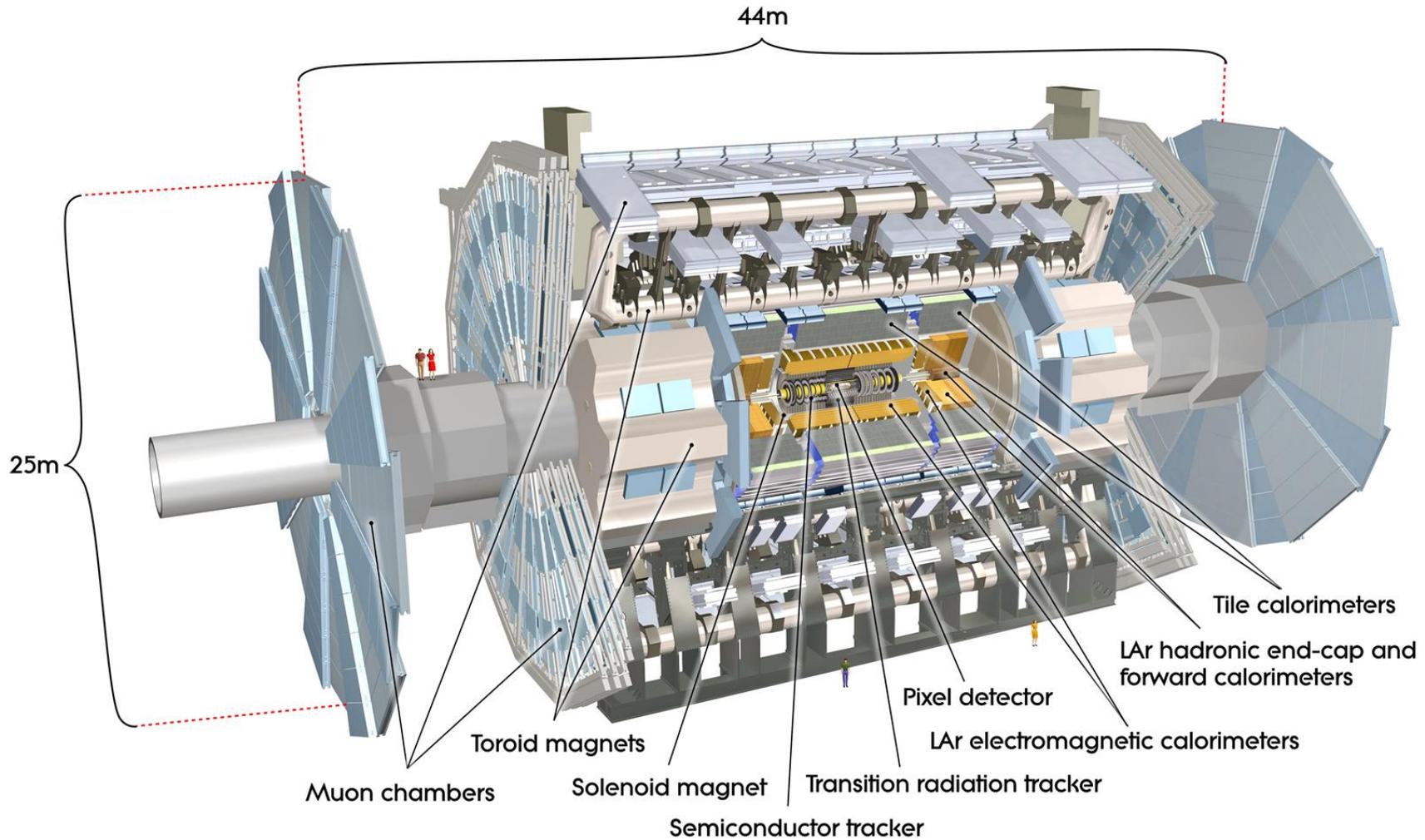


The Higgs particle — history of the experimental search

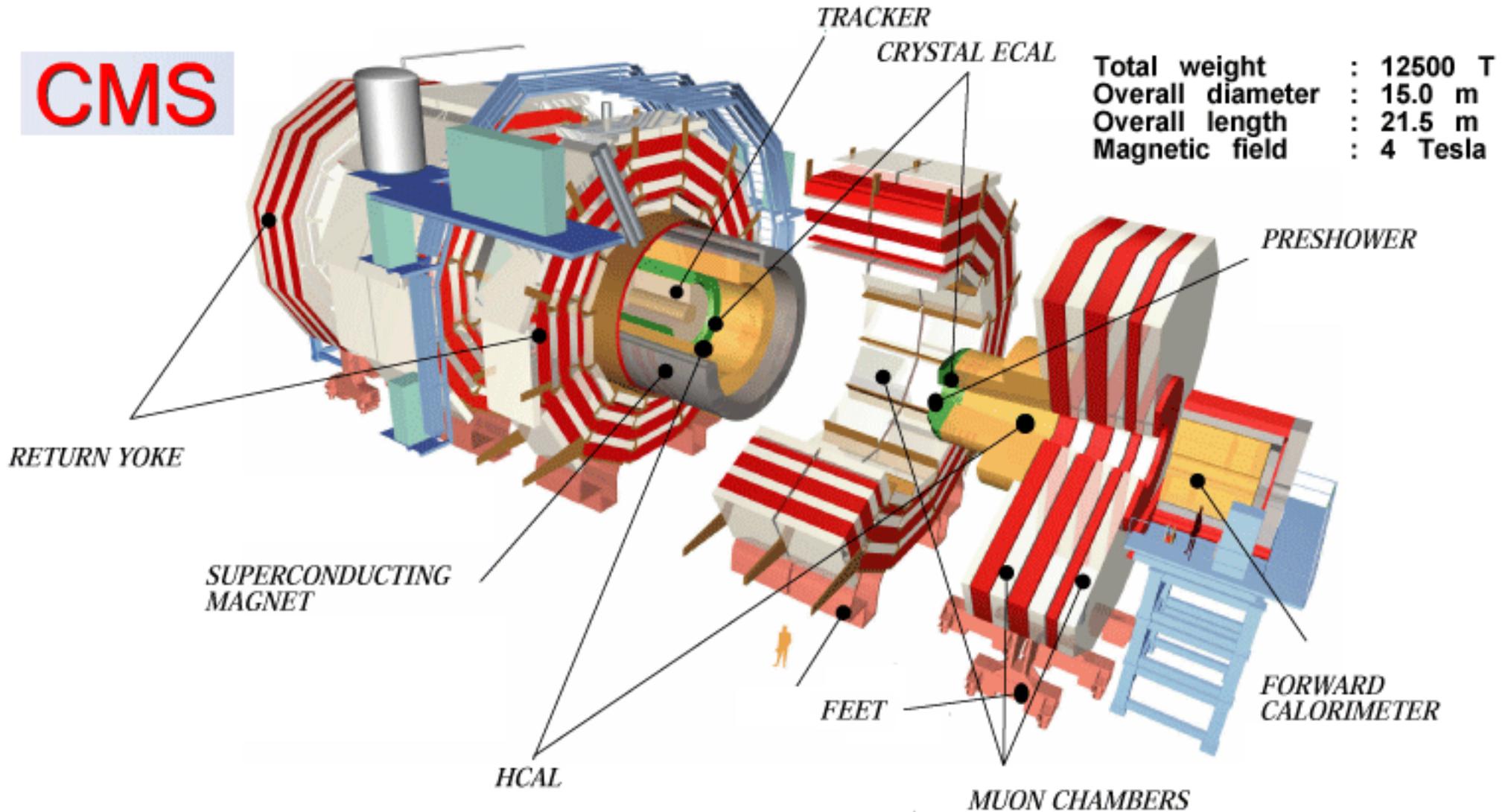
reduction of the allowed mass range

- **2004** LEP limit: $m_H > 114.4$ GeV
 - uses data, collected from the LEP experiments until 2000
- **2010** Tevatron exclusion: $158 < m_H/\text{GeV} < 175$ is excluded
 - data from the Fermilab experiments CDF and DØ
- **July 2011** LHC exclusion: $145 < m_H/\text{GeV} < 466$ is excluded
 - data from the ATLAS and CMS from 2010 and 2011
- **December 2011** LHC limits the allowed mass range
 - ATLAS: $116 < m_H/\text{GeV} < 130$
 - CMS: $115 < m_H/\text{GeV} < 127$
- **July 4th 2012** CERN announces the detection of a boson compatible with the SM Higgs boson
 - ATLAS: $m_H \sim 126.5$ GeV @ 5σ significance
 - CMS: $m_H = 125.3 \pm 0.6$ GeV @ 4.9σ significance

The Higgs particle — experimental search
by the Atlas detector

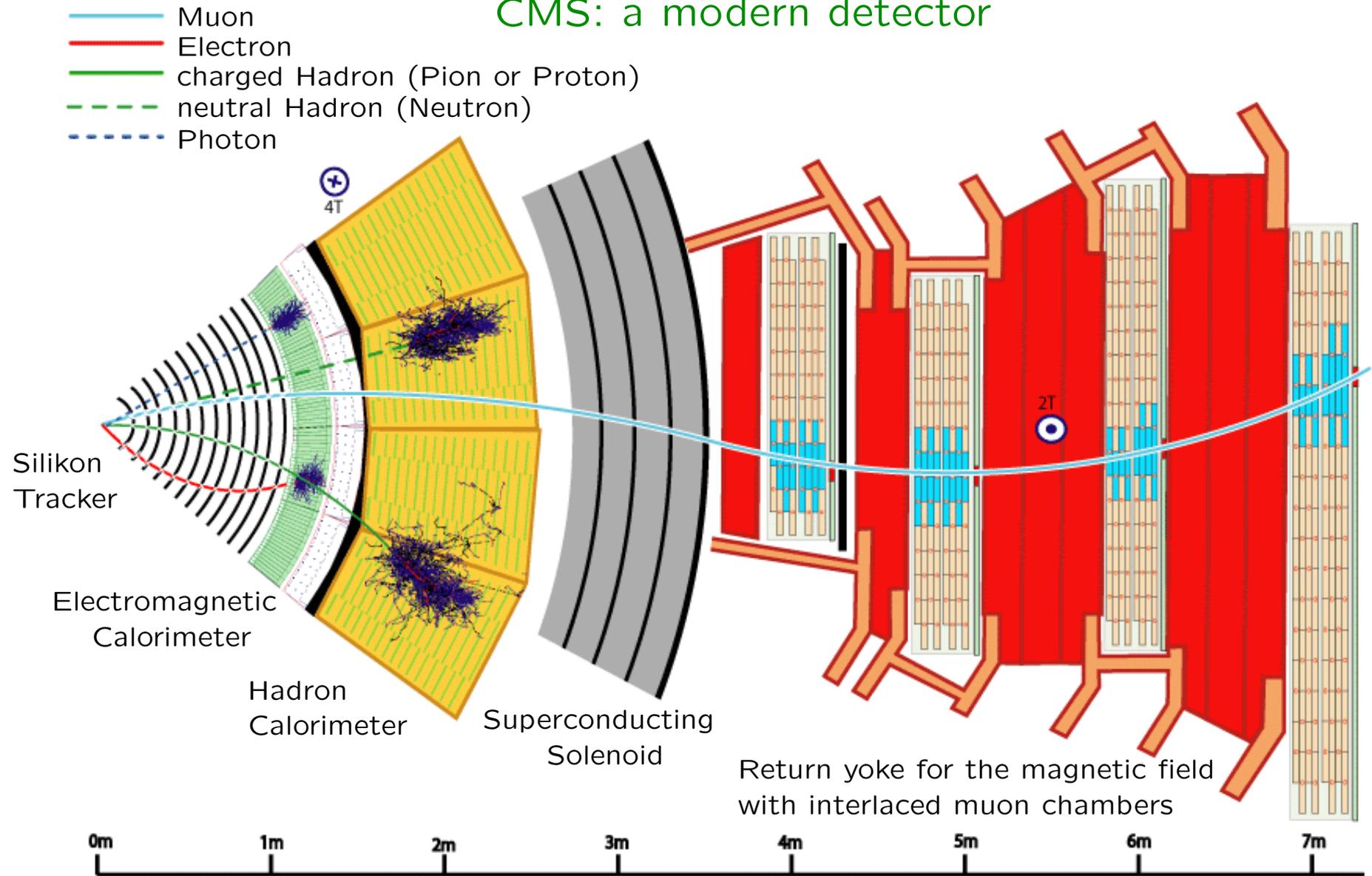


The Higgs particle — experimental search
by the CMS detector



The Higgs particle — experimental search

CMS: a modern detector



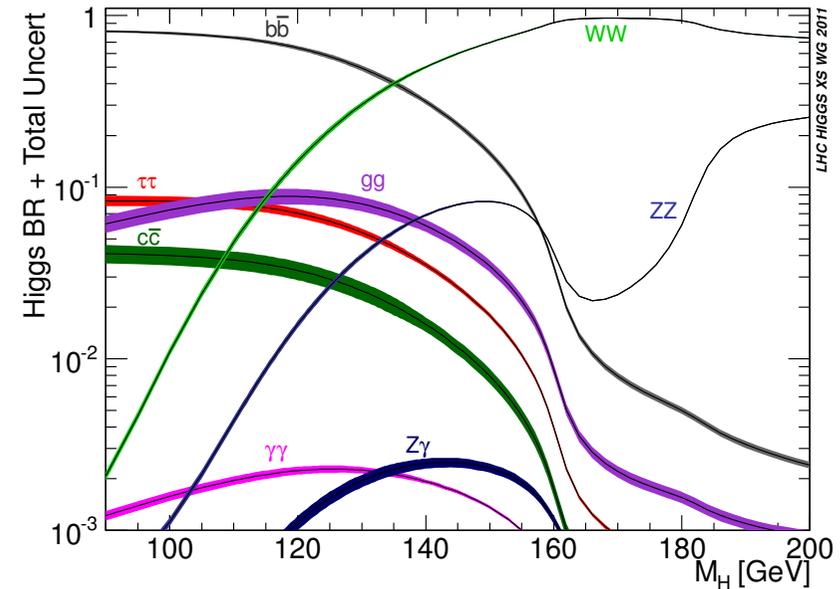
The Higgs particle — experimental search

How was that measurement achieved?

combining production- with decay-channels of the Higgs boson

largest branching ratios

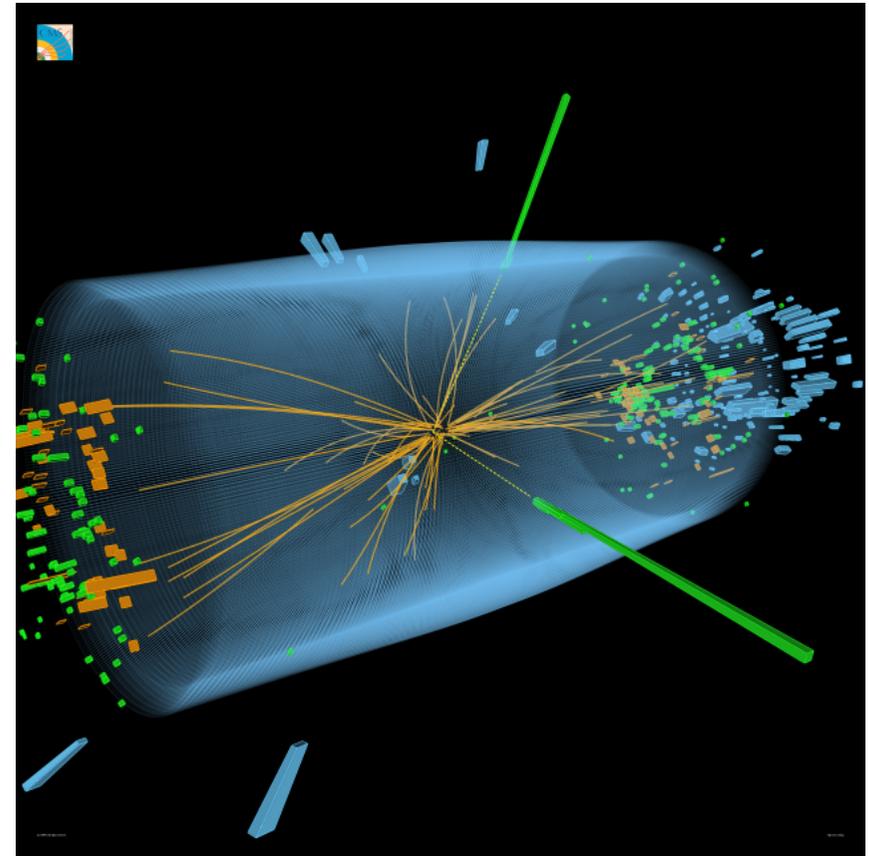
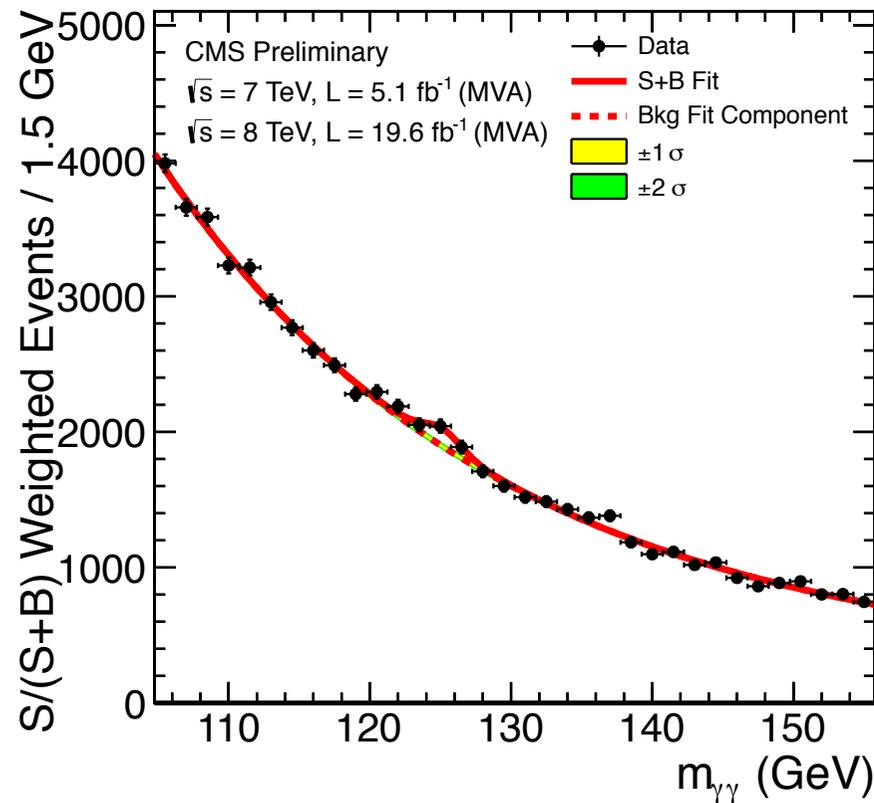
- $b\bar{b}$, $\tau^-\tau^+$, $c\bar{c}$, and gg
 - hard to distinguish from background
 - $WW \rightarrow 4q$
 - similar: also hard to distinguish from background
 - $WW \rightarrow 2\ell 2\nu$
 - neutrinos are not measured \Rightarrow bad reconstruction
- \Rightarrow looking for $\gamma\gamma$ and $ZZ \rightarrow 4\ell$
- has also very good mass resolution
 - \Rightarrow "golden channel"



The Higgs particle — experimental search

$$H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$$

- Monte Carlo and data:
 - gives a signal on a background

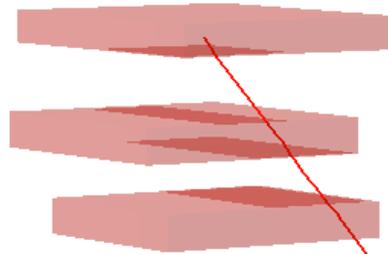


a possible $H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ event

with local p-value at 125 GeV with a local significance of 4.1 σ

The Higgs particle — experimental search

$$H \rightarrow ZZ^* \rightarrow \mu^- \mu^+ + e^- e^+$$

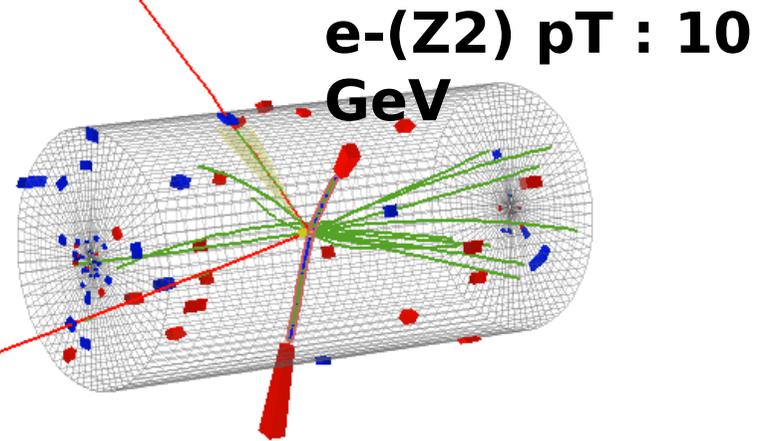
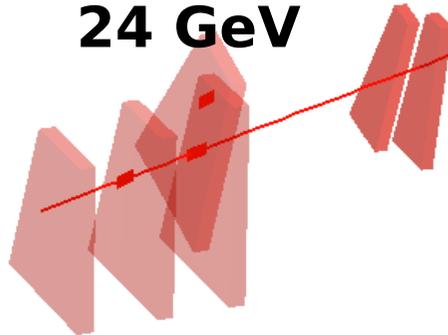


$\mu^+(Z1)$ pT : 43 GeV

8 TeV DATA

**4-lepton Mass :
126.9 GeV**

$\mu^-(Z1)$ pT :
24 GeV



$e^+(Z2)$ pT : 21 GeV

CMS Experiment at LHC, CERN
Data recorded: Mon May 28 01:35:47 2012 CEST
Run/Event: 195099 / 137440354
Lumi section: 115

The Higgs particle — experimental search

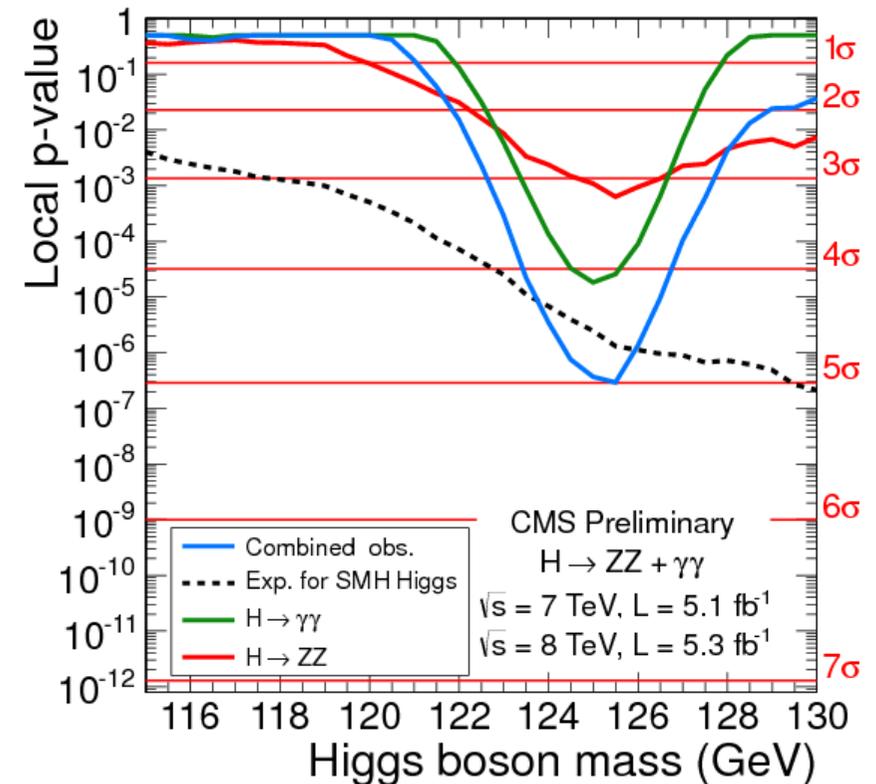
Combining $H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ and $H \rightarrow ZZ^* \rightarrow 4\ell$

- combining the high sensitivity, high mass resolution channels:
 $H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ and $H \rightarrow ZZ^* \rightarrow 4\ell$

- $\gamma\gamma$ has 4.1 σ excess
- 4ℓ has 3.2 σ excess

- near the same mass of 125 GeV

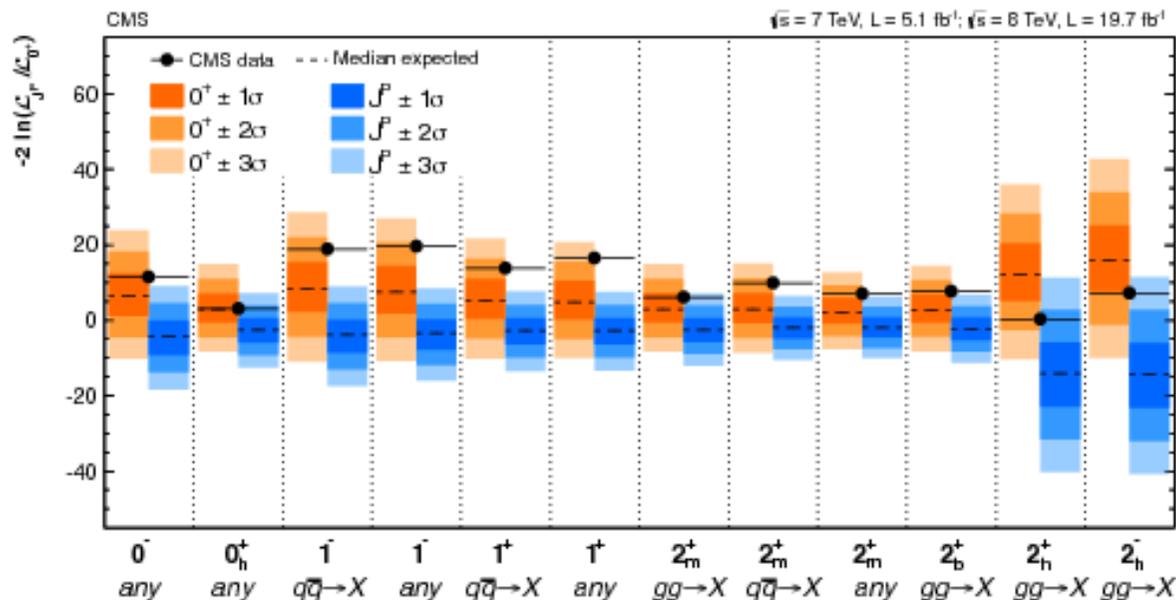
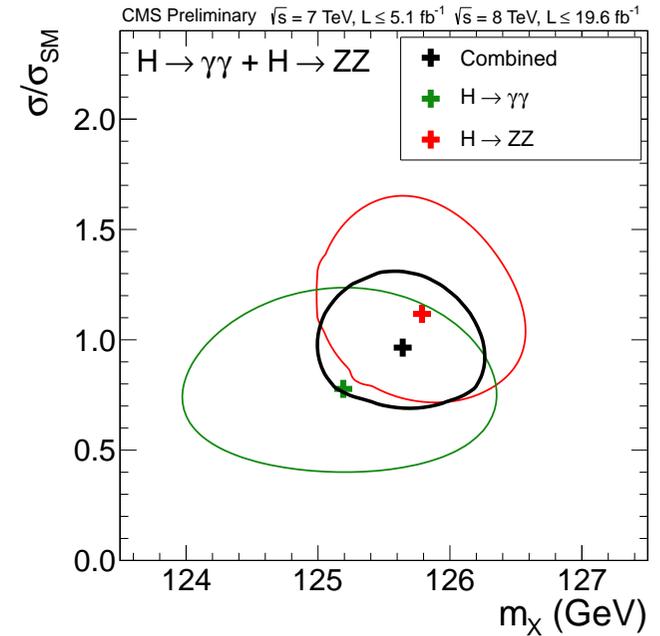
⇒ combined significance of 5 σ
(as of 2012 ... now it is more)



The Higgs particle — experimental search

Characterising the excess in all channels

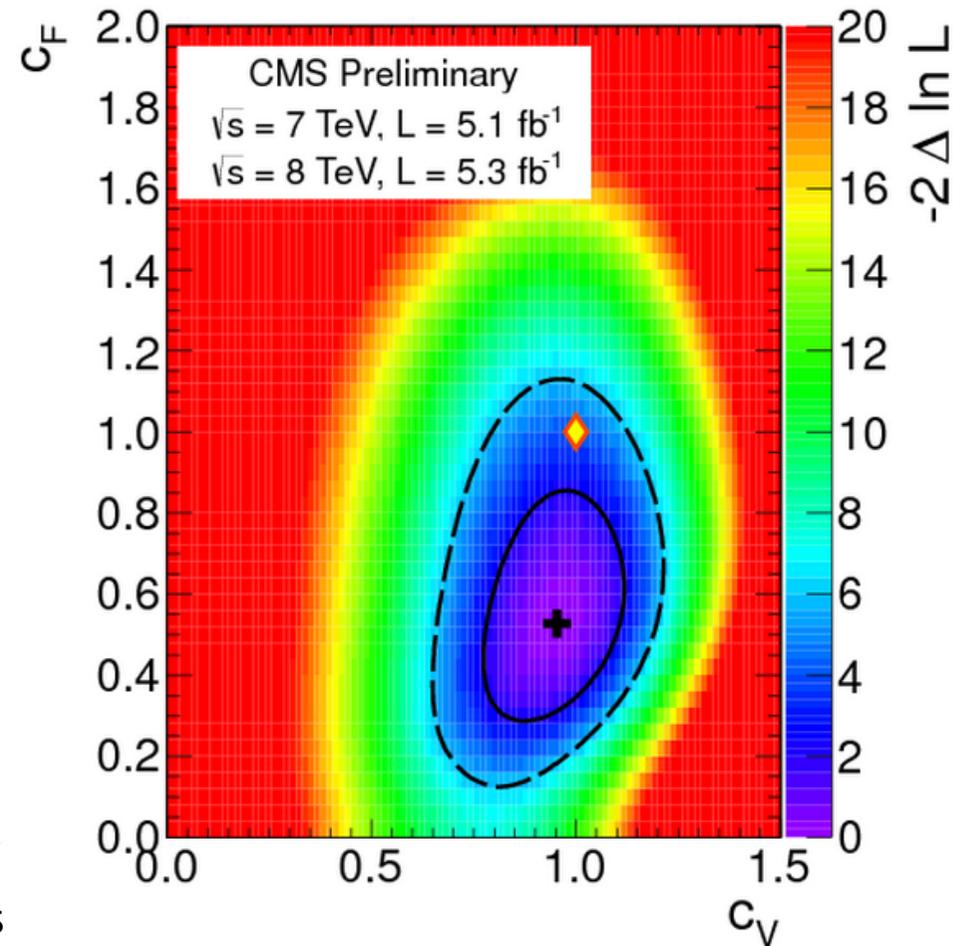
- results for the mass are self consistent
- and can be combined
 - ⇒ $m_X = 125.9 \pm 0.4 \text{ GeV}$
- But is it the SM Higgs boson?
 - ⇒ comparing to other hypotheses:



The Higgs particle — experimental search

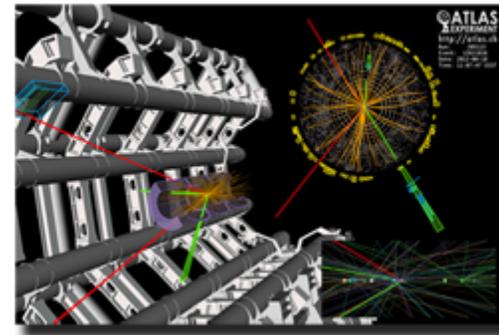
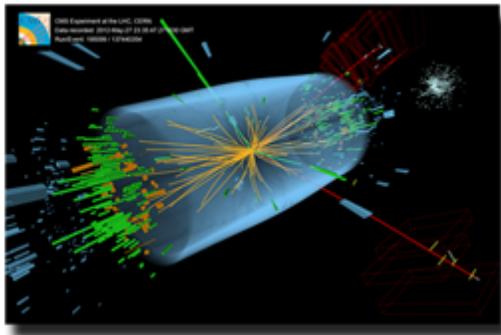
Comparing couplings to fermions and to vector bosons

- Group the Higgs couplings into "Vectorial" and "Fermionic" sets.
- with coupling strength relative to the SM value
 - c_V for vectors
 - c_F for fermions
- use theoretical LO prediction for the loop-induced $H \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ and $H \rightarrow gg$ vertices
- agreement with SM in 95% range
 - fermio-phobic Higgs ? ... statistics



⇒ We need more data! ... and they will come

Nobelprize in Physics 2013



Francois Englert and Peter W. Higgs

Stages in the evolution of the Universe

Energy Scales

