

National Research Nuclear University "MEPhI"

Institute of Nuclear Physics and Technology

Small thesis on the topic:

" QUARK GLUON PLASMA AND SUPERSYMMETRY "

Submitted by:

Rivu Adhikary
(M21-192)

Submitted to:

Prof. Maxim Yu. Khlopov

ABSTRACT

The first signature of strange quarks and the dip in the number of J/Ψ mesons reaching the detectors at the Super Proton Synchrotron (SPS) in CERN, sparked an interesting discovery in the world of physics few decades ago. A state of matter which existed at about $20\mu\text{s}$ after the Big Bang, had been observed in a particle accelerator facility underground in the northwest suburb of Geneva on the Franco–Swiss border. Further experiments at the Relatively Heavy Ion Collider (RHIC) in BNL have revealed comprehensive information about the properties of this new phase of matter which we now widely refer to as the Quark Gluon Plasma (QGP).

While in the early 1970s, a hypothesis of SuperSymmetry (SUSY) between fermions and bosons surfaced. The Coleman-Mandula theorem singles-out supersymmetry as the “unique” extension of Poicaré invariance in $3+1$ or more dimensional QFT.

Properties of hadronic matter above the Hagedorn temperature reveals a few nonrealistic physical phenomena. In the following pages we will go through a detailed analysis of this hot Quantum Chromodynamic (QCD) matter and explore the probable extension in Standard Model of particle physics from the possible presence of SUSY partners in the QGP state.

CONTENTS

2. Quantum Chromodynamics	4
3. Ultra-Relativistic Heavy Ion Collisions	5
4. Quark Gluon Plasma	6
5. Supersymmetry	8
6. Possibility of supersymmetric models in QGP state	9
7. References	10

QUANTUM CHROMO-DYNAMICS

Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) is a theory of the strong interaction - based on color force, a fundamental force describing the interactions of the quarks and gluons, eventually forming hadrons [1]. QCD, a non-abelian gauge theory, is the SU (3) component of the Standard Model of Particle Physics. There are two different types of SU (3) symmetries, one acts on the different colors of quarks and the other rotates different flavors of quarks to each other (flavor SU (3)). QCD has approximate flavor symmetry, which is broken by the differing masses of the quarks [2].

The Lagrangian of QCD is given by :

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_q \bar{\psi}_{q,a} (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \delta_{ab} - g_s \gamma^\mu t_{ab}^C A_\mu^C - m_q \delta_{ab}) \psi_{q,b} - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu}^A F^{A\mu\nu}$$

The γ^μ are the Dirac γ -matrices. The $\psi_{q,a}$ are quark-field spinors for a quark of flavor q and mass m_q , with a color-index a that runs from $a = 1$ to $N_c = 3$ (quarks come in three “colors”). The A_μ^C correspond to the gluon fields, with C running from 1 to $N_c^2 - 1 = 8$ (there are eight kinds of gluon). The t_{ab}^C correspond to eight 3×3 matrices and are the generators of the SU(3) group. They specify that a gluon’s interaction with a quark rotates the quark’s color in SU(3) space. The quantity g_s is the QCD coupling constant. $F_{\mu\nu}^A$ is the field tensor [3].

The few techniques that have been developed to work with QCD are Perturbative QCD, Lattice QCD (non-perturbative) and Hadron resonance gas Boltzmann equations. Confinement and asymptotic freedom are the two major consequences of QCD. Confinement means that the force between quarks increases as they are separated. Thus, we do not observe free quarks and hadronic matter at normal energy densities is composed of confined, color-neutral quarks and gluons. Asymptotic freedom is a theory that showed a decrease in the strong coupling constant with an increase in momentum transfer or distance scales between quarks. This suggests that in very high-energy reactions, quarks and gluons interact only very weakly. Confinement and asymptotic freedom mutually reveal that high temperature QCD matter should be deconfined and weakly coupled.

ULTRA-RELATIVISTIC HEAVY ION COLLISIONS

Depending on whether the kinetic energy per nucleon is either close to the rest mass of the nucleon or much larger than the nucleon rest mass, heavy ion collisions at relative velocities close to the speed of light are usually divided into two different domains, relativistic and ultra-relativistic respectively [4]. Ultra-Relativistic heavy ion collisions offer the possibility to observe strongly interacting matter under extreme conditions [5]. By accelerating lead or gold nuclei to almost the speed of light and smashing them together, a hot and dense fireball will develop in the overlapping region. A collective approach of thermodynamics and fluid dynamics help us to analyse the properties of this fireball.

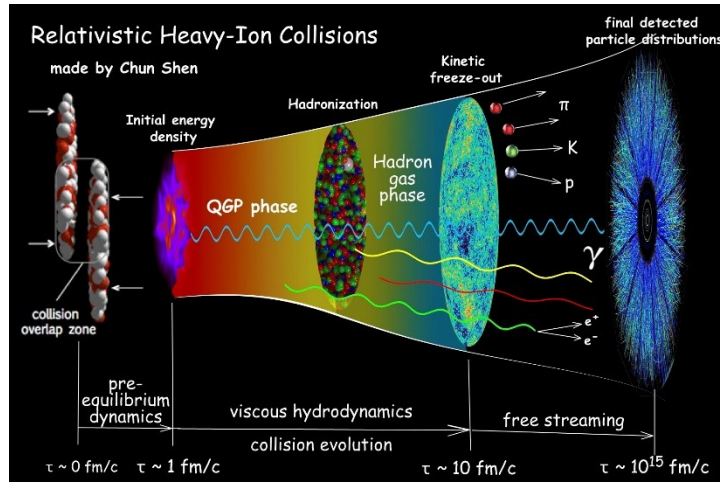


Fig.1

The Relativistic Heavy Ion Collider (RHIC) at Brookhaven National Laboratory (BNL), USA is an intersecting storage ring particle accelerator, which operates on this very phenomenon (Fig.1) for the experimental objective of creating and studying the QGP. It can provide centre of mass collision energies of up to 250 GeV per nucleon [6-9]. Specific signatures like strangeness production, dip in the formation of heavy mesons at such extreme energies, jet quenching, non-viscous flow, direct photons and Debye screening effects, provide information of the formation of QGP in these heavy ion collisions. [10]. The ALICE collaboration in the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) at CERN which carries out a comprehensive study of the hadrons, electrons, muons, and photons produced in the collisions of ^{208}Pb , have also approved to have observed these phenomena.

QUARK GLUON PLASMA

The high temperature phase of QCD, the Quark Gluon Plasma (QGP) is characterized by color deconfinement and partial restoration of chiral symmetry [11]. Theoretically QGP was first formulated by Lattice QCD calculations in 1980s and a decade later heavy ion experiments were initiated to search for this new phase of matter. As discussed above, QGP is a strong coupled plasma of quarks and gluons, which is formed when very high energy density and temperatures above Hagedorn temperature ($T_H > 150 \text{ MeV}$ or $1.7 \times 10^{12} \text{ K}$) causes a phase transition amongst the hadrons. Due to this surplus energy, the gluons collide and produce an excess of strange quarks, but the formation of QGP hinders the further creation of other heavy quarks like charm or bottom. Whereas, the lifetime of top quark is so less that it decays before hadronization.

Jet quenching is one of the major indicators of QGP. Similar to bremsstrahlung radiation, the jets of final state baryons and mesons that are emitted from the plasma will lose some of their energy due to strong interactions with the plasma which will result in a lower energy of the resulting particles [12]. This is observed experimentally from the suppression in the yields of high transverse momentum particles by binary scaling which essentially match the number of nucleon-nucleon collisions to proton-proton collisions.

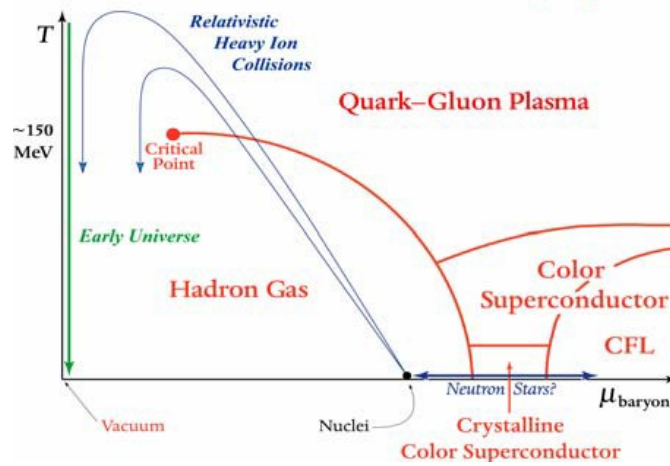


Fig.2

A phase diagram is shown in **Fig. 2** for the phases of hadronic matter. On the x-axis the baryon chemical potential (μ in MeV) is plotted which basically scales with the

density of baryonic matter. In other words, μ is the measure of the imbalance between quarks and antiquarks in the system. Higher μ refers to a higher density of quarks, while higher temperature refers to a higher possibility of antiquarks.

Present baryonic matter exists at the low-temperature phase boundary between vacuum and nuclear matter, at $\mu = 310$ MeV and T close to zero. On increasing the quark density and keeping the temperature low, a phase of more and more compressed nuclear matter is reached. This path leads to a neutron star (recent evidences suggests that neutron stars with mass ~ 2 solar masses were likely composed of quark matter). Eventually, at ultra high densities, the color-flavor-locked (CFL) phase of color-superconducting quark matter is reached. In CFL phase, the quarks form Cooper pairs (this pair state is responsible for superconductivity in metals). This phase exists chiral symmetry breaking and corresponds to a high density 3-flavor colored matter. Color super-conductivity (CSC) is analogous to the superconductivity observed in metals, with a difference that CSC phase is a weakly interacting fermi liquid of quarks in sufficiently dense quark matter. Theorists suggest that as Cooper pairs of quarks carries net color and electric charge, so some gluons get massive in a phase with a condensate of quark Cooper pairs, creating a color superconductor [13].

Four fermion interaction model, Bag model, Weak coupling theory, AdS/VFT correspondence and Supersymmetry are few models and theories alongside, Lattice gauge theory, which have tried to explain the properties of this phase structure of quark matter.

Hence, QGP analysis may help us to explore physics phenomena that encompass all three families of particles known today, allowing perhaps the study of the origin of flavour and a detailed description of matter at extreme baryonic potentials [14]. Additionally, studies of QGP can provide a deeper theoretical understanding of the origin of the energy scales governing the vacuum structure confining quarks, can yield an indepth theory of evolution of our Universe and unravel certain cosmological mysteries governing the composition of matter at the early stages of our Universe.

SUPERSYMMETRY

Supersymmetry is one of the most preferred extensions of the Standard Model. The traditional symmetry modifications rotate bosonic states to different bosonic states and fermionic states to different fermionic states. But, supersymmetric transformations are such forms of symmetry transformations which implies that bosons and fermions could be merely different manifestations of the same state, and in some sense would correspond to an ultimate form of unification [15]. It states that every fermion has a supersymmetric boson partner, and vice-a-versa. Like quarks have squarks, electrons have selectrons, while photons have photinos and gluons have gluinos etc. Moreover, these supersymmetry multiplets are equal-mass particles whose spins differ by $\frac{1}{2}$ [16]. Supersymmetry also implies the existence of scalar quarks (partners of ordinary quarks with spin 0). These are bosons and can form a Bose condensate, which produces a baryon asymmetry after decay of the scalar quarks into quarks and gluinos [17].

A simple quantum mechanical example and trivial linear algebra can demonstrate that Hamiltonian of a mixed bosonic and fermionic oscillator of the same frequency is invariant under an interchange of bosons and fermions.

Till date none of the supersymmetric partners have been found in the experiments. According to recent hypotheses, it is believed that the supersymmetric partners could be very massive because supersymmetry in nature has to be broken either explicitly or spontaneously. It is expected, however, that if supersymmetry is a true symmetry of nature, these supersymmetric particles will be detected directly in the ultra-high energy experiments at the Tevatron or at the LHC.

The reason for its popularity is that supersymmetry solves the major hierarchy problem of unified theories. The large discrepancy between the aspects of the weak force and gravity can be resolved or in specifically, the unification between Standard Model and Einstein's Field equations can be made possible using supersymmetry.

POSSIBILITY OF SUPERSYMMETRIC MODELS IN QGP STATE

Due to certain experimental limitations it is hard to map the phase diagram of quark matter. However, the crossover from hadronic matter to QGP can be ultimately explained using collisions of relativistic heavy ions. While on a cosmological scale, models of the cooling, spin-down, and precession of compact stars offer information about the high-density low-temperature region of the phase diagram.

Supersymmetry helps to address few special QCD phenomena. For example, confinement can be proven analytically by supersymmetric gauge theories, similar to QCD but with slightly different matter content (Seiberg-Witten solution of $N = 2$ supersymmetric theories.) Furthermore, from lattice QCD it has been found out that quark condensate, quark kinetic energy, gluon kinetic energy and anomalous gluonic contribution constitutes approximately 9%, 32%, 37% and 23% of the baryonic mass respectively [18]. The lattice QCD calculation result and an exceedingly small viscosity can be predicted by gravitation phenomena in $N=4$ supersymmetric and Yang Mills Theory.

On a fundamental level, all of nature we know today sums up to a perfect symmetry. Specific symmetry gives rise to the charge of an electron, few establishes the quark content of baryons and so on. Moreover, in sub atomic scales, we have observed that matter particles at high energies give rise to force particles by the process of annihilation or decay. On the other hand force particles can also give rise to matter by the famous process of pair production. That is why at the accelerator experiments, we observe the neutral mesons for few femto seconds before it decays into photons. So, based on these conceptions we can reach to a certain deduction that the Universe at its earliest stages might have been supersymmetric and the massive supersymmetric partners (squarks and gluinos) were formed for about a yoctosecond before decaying into quarks and gluons in the QGP state which existed for roughly around a few microseconds before forming baryons. Stronger colliders reaching to PeV scales in next few years can reveal this phenomenon and we will be able to understand our Universe and its constituents even better.

REFERENCES

1. B.Elena, WS 2010/11:, *Introduction to Nuclear and Particle Physics*, QCD Presentation
2. Wikipedia. (2022, 04 01). *Quantum chromodynamics*. Retrieved from Quantum chromodynamics: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quantum_chromodynamics
3. M. Tanabashi et al. (Particle Data Group), Phys. Rev. D 98, 030001 (2018) and 2019 update.
4. Sorensen, Soren P. Relativistic heavy ion collisions (2020) <https://doi.org/10.1036/1097-8542.579850>
5. Theoretical Physics FIAS. (2022, 04 01). Retrieved from Research Group of Hannah Elfner: <https://www.fias.science/en/theoretical-sciences/research-groups/hannah-elfner-petersen/>
6. J. Adams, et al, [STAR Collaboration], Nucl. Phys. A 757 (2005) 102-183; nucl-ex/0501009.
7. K. Adcox et al, [PHENIX Collaboration], Nucl. Phys. A 757 (2005) 184-283; nucl-ex/0410003.
8. I. Arsene et al, [BRAHMS Collaboration], Nucl. Phys. A 757 (2005) 1-27; nucl-ex/0410020.
9. B. B. Back et al, [PHOBOS Collaboration], Nucl. Phys. A 757 (2005) 28-101; nucl-ex/0410022.
10. Niida, T., Miake, Y. Signatures of QGP at RHIC and the LHC. AAPPs Bull.31,12 (2021). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s43673-021-00014-3>.
11. Rafelski J. Discovery of Quark Gluon Plasma: Strangeness Diaries (2020). <https://doi.org/10.1140/epjst/e2019-900263-x>.
12. B. Muller and J. Nagle, Annu. Rev. Nucl. And Part. Phys.1 (2006)
13. Wikipedia. (2022, 05 22). QCD matter. Retrieved from QCD matter: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/QCD_matter
14. Wikipedia. (2022, 04 01). Quark–gluon plasma. Retrieved from Quark–gluon plasma: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quark-gluon_plasma
15. Das A., & Ferbel T. (2003). *Introduction to Nuclear and Particle Physics*. Singapore: World Scientific Publishing Co. Pte. Ltd.
16. Williams, W. (1991). *Nuclear and Particle Physics*. Oxford University Press.
17. Khlopov M. (2012). *Fundamentals of Cosmic Particle Physics*. Cambridge International Science Publishing Ltd.
18. André Walker-Loud (2018). Dissecting the Mass of the Proton. APS Journal. <https://physics.aps.org/articles/v11/118>.