PHL424: Nuclear and Particle Physics

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Wednesday	9:55 - 10:45
Thursday	10:50 - 11:40
Friday	11:45 - 12:35
Friday(T)	8:00 - 8:50

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The proton does not only consist of three quarks (*blue*) being held together by gluons (*springs*), but is a sizzling place of gluons and pairs of quarks and antiquarks (*green*) interacting with each other.



Tentative outline of Particle Physics

✤ Introduction

100 years of particle physics

Basic Concepts

Forces of nature Standard model chart Lepton and Baryon numbers Units and dimensions Cross section and decay rates

Feynman Diagrams

exchange of photons exchange of massive bosons Yukawa potential Weak, electromagnetic, strong interaction

Leptons

Weak interaction (beta decay) Electron, muon, tau Tau decay Lepton conservation

✤ Quarks

Example of baryons and meson Quark number conservation Isospin Color a new quantum number

- Summary & Open Questions
- Beyond the Standard Model











Literature



Recommended Textbook







Particle Physics





100 years of particle physics





Corpuscular Theory of Light

Light consist out of particles (Newton) Light is a wave (Huygens)

- Mainly because of Newton's prestige, the corpuscle theory was widely accepted (more than 100 years)
- Failing to describe interference, diffraction, and polarization (e.g. Fresnel) corpuscle theory was abandoned for Huygens wave theory
- Wave theory strongly supported by Maxwell equations and by H. Hertz experiments
- ♦ Until in the early 20th century ...



Isaac Newton 1643-1727



Christiaan Huygens 1629-1695





Photoelectric Effect

 ◆ Observation: 1836 Becquerel Metal absorbs light and emits electrons → Maximum energy of electrons independent on intensity (number of photons)

Interpretation: 1905 Einstein (Nobel prize 1921)
 Light consists of particles (photons) with quantized energy



Albert Einstein 1879-1955





Double Slit with Electrons







Electron (particles) have wavelength *De Broglie wavelength:*

 $\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{Planck\ constant}{momentum\ (=\ mass\ \cdot\ velocity)}$





The Electron

- **Observation:** 1897 (Nobel Prize 1906)
 - Constituents of cathode rays deflected by electric field
 - Constituents of cathode rays deflected by magnetic field
 + heating of thermal junction → first mass/charge ratio
 - Higher precision of mass/charge from comparing deflection by electric and magnetic fields



Joseph J. Thomson 1856-1940







Ionization Measurements



Victor Hess (1912) discovery of cosmic showers





Nobel Prize 1936



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The Cosmic Accelerator



Energies and rates of the cosmic-ray particles

 (\mathfrak{S})



1912





- electron
- photons
- nuclei (protons)







1912	~100 years	2017
 electron photons nuclei (protons) 	Standard Model Lagrangian	$ \begin{array}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$
2 is dedicated to explain interactions between bosons, partic	ularly W and Z	$ \begin{array}{c} \partial_{\mu} I X^{-}) + igc_{w} \mathcal{Z}_{\mu} (\partial_{\mu} X^{+} X^{+} - \partial_{\mu} X^{-} X^{-}) + igs_{w} \mathcal{A}_{\mu} (\partial_{\mu} X^{+} X^{+} - \partial_{\mu} \bar{X}^{-} X^{-}) - \frac{1}{2}gM[\bar{X}^{+} X^{+} H + \bar{X}^{-} X^{-} H + \frac{1}{c^{2}} \bar{X}^{0} X^{0} H] + \end{array} $
3 describes how elementary matter particles interact with the	e weak force	$\frac{1-2c_{w}^{2}}{2c_{w}}igM[\bar{X}^{+}X^{0}\phi^{+}-\bar{X}^{-}X^{0}\phi^{-}]+\frac{1}{2c_{w}}igM[\bar{X}^{0}X^{-}\phi^{+}-\bar{X}^{0}X^{+}\phi^{-}]+$
4 describes how matter particles interact with Higgs ghosts,	virtual artifacts	$igMs_w[\bar{X}^0X^-\phi^+ - \bar{X}^0X^+\phi^-] + \frac{1}{2}igM[\bar{X}^+X^+\phi^0 - \bar{X}^-X^-\phi^0]$

- 3 describes how elementary matter particles interact with the weak force
- 4 describes how matter particles interact with Higgs ghosts, virtual artifacts In quantum mechanics, there is no single path a particle can take



Quantum Mechanics



 A. Piccard, E. Henriot, P. Ehrenfest, E. Herzen, Th. de Donder, E. Schrödinger, J.E. Verschaffelt, W. Pauli, W. Heisenberg, R.H. Fowler, L. Brillouin P. Debye, M. Knudsen, W.L. Bragg, H.A. Kramers, P.A.M. Dirac, A.H. Compton, L. de Broglie, M. Born, N. Bohr, I. Langmuir, M. Planck, M. Curie, H.A. Lorentz, A. Einstein, P. Langevin, Ch.-E. Guye, C.T.R. Wilson, O.W. Richardson





Fermions and Bosons

Fundamental characteristics of particles: Spin ("self angular momentum")

- ♦ Integer values $(0, \pm 1, ...) \rightarrow Bosons$
- ♦ Half integer values $(\pm 1/2, \pm 3/2, ...) \rightarrow Fermions$

Bosons (Cooper pairs ...) can be described by *common wave function* \rightarrow funny effects (super conductivity, super fluidity, ...)



Fermions (electrons or protons ...) must be in different states \rightarrow *Pauli's exclusion principle* (basis of all chemistry...)



Satyendranath Bose



Enrico Fermi



Wolfgang Pauli





Matter Waves for Particles without Spin

Kinematics:

Quantum Mechanics:

Wave Equation:

Non relativistic:

$$E = \frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m}$$

$$E \to i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \quad and \quad \vec{p} \to -i\hbar \vec{\nabla}$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi = \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi$$

Relativistic: $E^2 = p^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4$ $E \to i \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$ and $\vec{p} \to -i \vec{\nabla}$ $-\frac{1}{c^2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2}\phi = -\nabla^2\phi + \frac{m^2c^2}{\hbar^2}\phi$

density:

 $\rho(x,t) = |\psi(x,t)|^2$

continuity equation:

Schrödinger equation:

continuity equation:

plane waves:

are solutions to the free Schrödinger equation

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot j &= 0\\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi &= \frac{i\hbar}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi\\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\psi^* \psi) &= -\nabla \cdot \left[\frac{i\hbar}{2m} (\psi \nabla \psi^* - \psi^* \nabla \psi) \right]\\ \psi &= N \cdot e^{i(p \cdot x - E \cdot t)/\hbar} \qquad E &= p^2/2m \end{aligned}$$

 $p \rightarrow -p$ gives to same result



Klein-Gordon equation

Matter Waves for Particles without Spin

Kinematics:

Quantum Mechanics:

Wave Equation:

Non relativistic:

$$E = \frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m}$$

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<u>Relativistic:</u> $E^{2} = p^{2}c^{2} + m^{2}c^{4}$ $E \rightarrow i\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \quad and \quad \vec{p} \rightarrow -i\vec{\nabla}$ $-\frac{1}{c^{2}}\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial t^{2}}\phi = -\nabla^{2}\phi + \frac{m^{2}c^{2}}{\hbar^{2}}\phi$

Klein-Gordon equation

 $\left(\frac{1}{c^2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 + m^2\right)\phi(x) = 0$

 $\phi(x) = N e^{i(p \cdot x - E \cdot t)} = e^{-ip_{\mu} \cdot x^{\mu}}$

plane waves:

Unlike the Schrödinger equation, the Klein-Gordan equation does not contain

factor *i*. Consequently, it can have both real and complex solutions.

satisfies the dispersion relation $E^2 = p^2 + m^2$

continuity equation: The factor *i* is introduced to make the density real

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}i\left(\phi^*\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t}-\phi\frac{\partial\phi^*}{\partial t}\right)=\nabla\cdot\left[i(\phi^*\nabla\phi-\phi\nabla\phi^*)\right]$$

$$\rho = 2|N|^2 E \qquad \qquad j = 2|N|^2 p$$

Matter Waves for Particles with Spin

$$\left(\beta mc^{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{3} \alpha_{k} p_{k} c\right) \psi(x,t) = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x,t)}{\partial t}$$

Dirac equation



Paul Dirac 1902-1984

The problem with the Klein-Gordon equation: it is second order in derivatives. In 1928, Dirac found the first-order form having the same solutions. αk and β are 4x4 matrices and Ψ are four-component wave functions: *spinors* (for particles with spin $\frac{1}{2}$).

$$i\hbar\gamma^{\mu}\partial_{\mu}\psi - mc\psi = 0$$

$$\gamma^{0} = \begin{pmatrix} I_{2} & 0\\ 0 & I_{2} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \gamma^{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_{x}\\ -\sigma_{x} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \gamma^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_{y}\\ -\sigma_{y} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \gamma^{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_{z}\\ -\sigma_{z} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$





Quantum Field Theory



First major achievement: Dirac's equation for free electrons (and positrons)

$$E^2 = (mc^2)^2 + (pc)^2$$

$$E = \pm \sqrt{p^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4}$$

 ★ Interpretation of negative energies: sea of electrons → holes in sea act as positively charged electrons → confirmed by Anderson 1932



Paul Dirac 1902-1984 Nobel Prize 1933

Carl Anderson 1905-1991 Nobel Prize 1936





Dirac's Picture of Vacuum



Fermions in Dirac's representation

The "hole" created by the appearance of the electron with a positive energy is interpreted as the presence of electron's *antiparticle* with the opposite charge.

"negative" energy \rightarrow antiparticles

Later, Feynman – Stückelberg interpretation: antiparticles are particles travelling in revers time direction

> Every charged particle has the antiparticle of the same mass and opposite charge.





Antimatter

Antiparticles look and behave just like their corresponding matter particles, except they have opposite charges.



evidence for antimatter in this early **bubble chamber photo**.

The **magnetic field** in this chamber makes negative particles curl left and positive particles curl right.

The antielectron is called *positron* and is designated e^+ .





Discovery of the Positron

- First observed by D. Skobeltsyn in <u>cosmic rays</u>, using a Wilson cloud chamber (1929)
- ✤ C. D. Anderson: study of cosmic rays in a cloud chamber (1932)



FIG. 1. A 63 million volt positron $(H_{\rho}=2.1\times10^6$ gauss-cm) passing through a 6 mm lead plate and emerging as a 23 million volt positron $(H_{\rho}=7.5\times10^6$ gauss-cm). The length of this latter path is at least ten times greater than the possible length of a proton path of this curvature.

positrons are bent due to Lorentz force in magnetic field

proof of existence of antiparticles

positron track

Carl D. Anderson; Nobel Prize 1936



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Muon Discovery (1936)



Carl D. Anderson; Nobel Prize 1936



Muon-Lepton discovery in cosmic rays by

Carl D. Anderson

+ Seth Nedermeyer

mass: $m_{\mu} \sim 100 \text{ MeV}$

- The muon is the first "exotic" particle
- It was believed to be the meson predicted by Yukawa



Prediction of the Pion

H. Yukawa predicted 1935 mesons as carriers of the strong force

meson mass ~ $\hbar c / (range of force)$

 $range \sim 1 fm \rightarrow m_{meson} = 200 MeV$

 $\hbar c = 197.326 \, MeV \, fm$

note 1: *mesons are quark-antiquark qq* states and not elementary

note 2: meson = "mean, intermediate state"

The range of forces is related to the mass of exchange particle *M*. An amount of energy $\Delta E = Mc^2$ borrowed for a time Δt is governed by the Uncertainty Principle:

$$\Delta E \cdot \Delta t \sim \hbar$$

The maximum distance the particle can travel is $\Delta x = c \cdot \Delta t$, where *c* is the velocity of light.

 $\Delta x = \hbar c / \Delta E$ $\Delta x = \hbar c / M c^2$

*

The photon has M = 0 \rightarrow infinite range of EM force.

W boson has a mass of 80 GeV/c² \rightarrow range of weak force $\Delta x = 2 \cdot 10^{-3} fm$ *

Nobel Prize 1949



Hideki Yukawa 1907-1981



Discovery of the Pion



First observed pions: a π^+ stops in the emulsion and decays to a μ^+ and ν_{μ} , followed by the decay of μ^+ .

Powell; Nobel Prize 1950



Beta Decay

beta decay: $n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}$



W. Pauli predicted in a letter to E. Fermi the existence of <u>neutrinos</u> (1930)



Discovery of the Electron-Neutrino

Discovery of the *electron neutrino* (Cowan, Reines, 1957)



Nobel Prize 1995

X



Existence of Muon-Neutrinos





Discovery of the *muon neutrino* (Ledermann, Schwartz, Steinberger 1962)

Nobel Prize 1988





Discovery of Strangeness Surprise!



A bubble chamber picture of the above reaction

How does a bubble chamber work:

- It is filled with a liquid under pressure (hydrogen)
- Particles ionize the liquid along their passage
- When pressure drops, liquid boils preferentially along the ionization trails



"V-particles"

Production of *Kaons* and $K^+(u\bar{s})$, $K^0(d\bar{s}/s\bar{d})$, $K^-(s\bar{u})$

Lambda-Baryons (uds) in pp-collisions

Long lifetime!!! neither electromagnetic nor strong force

(1950ties)





Discovery of Strangeness

Strange mesons and baryons

were called so because, being produced in strong interactions, had quite long lifetimes and decayed weakly rather than strongly.

The most light particles containing s-quark are:

- * mesons K⁺. K⁻ and K⁰, $\overline{K^0}$: "Kaons", lifetime of K+ is 1.2.10⁻⁸ s
- baryon Λ , lifetime of 2.6.10⁻¹⁰ s

Principle decay modes of strange hadrons:

$K^+ \to \mu^+ + \nu_\mu$	(B=0.64)
$K^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^0$	(B=0.21)
$\Lambda \to \pi^- + p$	(B=0.64)
$\Lambda \to \pi^0 + n$	(B=0.36)

While the first decay in the list is clearly a weak one, decays of Λ can be very well described as strong ones, if not the long lifetime: $(udd) \rightarrow (d\bar{u}) + (uud)$ must have a lifetime of order 10-23 s, thus Λ can not be another sort of neutron...









George Zweig 1937-

Nobel Prize 1969





Prediction of the Charm-Quark

How explain non-observation of Flavor Changing Neutral Currents?

 $K \not\rightarrow \pi \gamma$



Such a **flavor changing** decay is forbidden if a **fourth quark** exists (Glashow, Iliopoulos, Maiani)

Note: Kaon and Pion have similar quantum numbers!



Observation of Neutral Currents

$$\overline{\nu_e} \ e \ \rightarrow \ \overline{\nu_e} \ e$$





Bubble Chamber Gargamelle (1974)



We find interactions without visible incoming or outgoing particle.





Observation of the Charm-Quark



FIG. 1. Cross section versus energy for (a) multihadron final states, (b) e^+e^- final states, and (c) $\mu^+\mu^-$, $\pi^+\pi^-$, and K^+K° final states. The curve in (a) is the expected shape of a δ -function resonance folded with the Gaussian energy spread of the beams and including radiative processes. The cross sections shown in (b) and (c) are integrated over the detector acceptance. The total hadron cross section, (a), has been corrected for detection efficiency.

 $e^+e^- \rightarrow J/Psi \rightarrow e^+e^- (\mu^+\mu^-), (\pi^+\pi^-)$ SLAC: B. Richter et al. (1974)

FIG. 2. Mass spectrum showing the existence of J. Results from two spectrometer settings are plotted showing that the peak is independent of spectrometer currents. The run at reduced current was taken two months later than the normal run.

me+e-[GeV]

p Be \rightarrow X J/Psi \rightarrow X e⁺e⁻ BNL: **S. Ting** et al. (1974)

Nobel Prize 1976



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Discovery of Charm-Quark

- Bubble chambers were great tools of particle discovery, providing physicists with numerous hadrons, all of them fitting *u-d-s* quark scheme until 1974.
- In 1974, a new particle was discovered, which demanded a new flavour to be introduced. Since it was detected simultaneously by two rival groups in Brookhaven (BNL) and Stanford (SLAC), it received a double name:

 $J/\Psi\left(3097\right)=c\bar{c}$

The new quark was called *"charmed*", and the corresponding quark number is *charm*, C. Since J/Ψ itself has C = 0, it is said to contain "hidden charm".

Shortly after that particles with "naked charm" were discovered as well:

$D^+(1869)=c\bar{d},$	$D^0(1865) = c\bar{u}$
$D^-(1869)=d\bar{c},$	$D^0(1865) = cu$
$\Lambda_c^+(228)$	(5) = udc





Status in 1975



no anti-matter in universe!

Charge and Parity Conservation must be broken! (2nd A. Sakharovs condition)

→ **third quark family** could explain matter – anti-matter asymmetry Nambu, Kobayashi, Maskawa

Note: particle physics and evolution of universe are closely related!

Nobel Prize 2008





Discovery of the Third Family

Tau Lepton discovered by MARK1 at SPEAR (1974-1976)



Fig. 4. From Perl *et al.* (1975): the observed cross section for the signature $e\mu$ events from the Mark I experiment at SPEAR. This observed cross section is not corrected for acceptance. There are 86 events with a calculated background of 22 events.

$$e^{+}e^{-} \rightarrow \tau^{+}\tau^{-}$$
$$\tau \rightarrow e \nu \nu$$
$$\tau \rightarrow \mu \nu \nu$$
$$m_{\tau} = 1.777 \ GeV$$

discovery of *tau-lepton*

(Reines et al., M. Perl Nobel Prize 1995)

Discovery of the Bottom-Quark (1977) by M. Ledermann et al. Nobel Prize 1988





Top-Quark Discovery at Tevatron

Tevatronppcolliders1/2= 2 TeV

Fermilab



Top-Quark Discovery in 1995



Top production: $p\bar{p} \rightarrow t\bar{t} X$ Top decay: $t \rightarrow W b$ and $W \rightarrow q\bar{q}$

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Top-Quark Discovery in 1995



Top-Quark mass ~ 175 GeV

Top production: $p\bar{p} \rightarrow t\bar{t} X$ Top decay: $t \rightarrow W b$ and $W \rightarrow q\bar{q}$

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Status in 2000 (~90 years after Hess balloon trip)

all fermions discovered





Status in 2002 (~90 years after Hess balloon trip)

Nobel Prize 2015





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Hans-Jürgen Wollersheim - 2018



Photons:

- X-rays (Röntgen 1895) \rightarrow Nobel Prize 1901
- photo-electric effect (Einstein 1905) → Nobel Prize 1921

Gluons:

- 8 carriers of strong force
- predicted by Gell-Mann et al.
- experimental discovery as jets of hadrons (e.g. PETRA)

W[±] bosons:

- carriers of weak interactions
- responsible for weak decays
- building blocks of "Standard Model" Glashow, Salam, Weinberg → Nobel Prize 1979
- W-boson discovered at CERN $Sp\bar{p}S$ in 1983 C. Rubbia and S. van der Meer \rightarrow Nobel Prize 1984





Abdus Salam, Steven Weinberg, Sheldon L. Glashow





Discovery of Vector Bosons

Z-boson:

- indirectly observed at Gargamelle
- discovered at CERN SppS in 1983
 C. Rubbia and S. van der Meer → Noble Prize 1984
- precision studies at LEP accelerator



Large Electron Positron (LEP) collider





Carlos Rubbia

Simon van der Meer





Large Electron-Positron Collider at CERN

ALEPH LEP OPAL SPS L3 DELPHI West Area ISOUDE AAC East Area electrons LPI PSB positrons PS TTL2 protons LIL EPA antiprotons Pb ions South Area LEAR Pb ions р

1989-2000: $S^{1/2} = 90-200 \text{ GeV}$



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Large Hadron Collider at CERN



LHC $(p \rightarrow \leftarrow p)$ $s^{1/2} \leq 14 \text{ TeV}$

26.7 km circumference

- 40000 tons of cold mass spread over 27 km
- 10000 tons of Liquid Nitrogen (at T = 80 K)
- 60 tons of Liquid Helium (cools ring to final 1.9 K)







The Higgs-Boson



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CMS - Collaboration



(×

