

(2025)

PHYS 2260

Nuclear + Particle Physics

pi-1

[pols + insts]

What are the most elementary constituents of nature?

[What is everything made of?

From ancient times, ppl have asked this question.

Skipping over early theories of earth, water, air + fire
by end of 19th century, most scientists believed:]

ATOMS (~ 100 different types)

↓ composed of

ELECTRONS and NUCLEI

[1897, 1911]

↓ composed of

NUCLEONS (proton and neutrons)

[1932]

↓ composed of

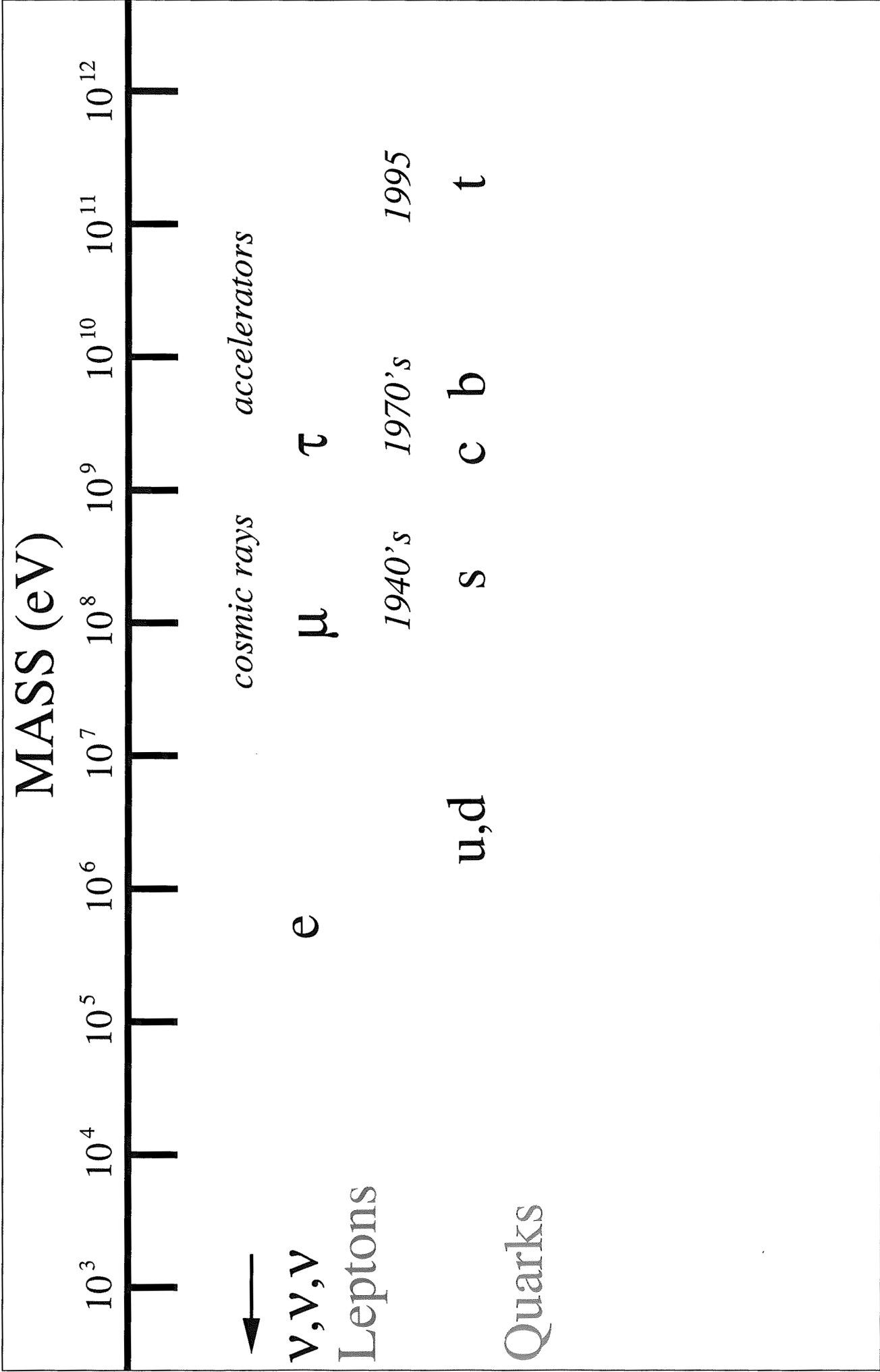
UP and DOWN quarks

	1 st gen	2 nd gen	3 rd gen
Quarks:	u	c	t
	d	s	b
Leptons	ν_e [1955]	ν_μ	ν_τ
	e^-	μ^-	τ^-

→ more massive

Do quarks and leptons have substructure?

No evidence for this.



[Look at plot of masses]

[Why mass measured in electron volts?
rest energy.]

$$E = mc^2$$

[What is appropriate energy scale?
not joules or ergs, which are macroscopic.]

eV ~ typical chemistry scale

[more e between poles of 9V battery $\Rightarrow$ 9eV
binding energy of hydrogen = 13.6 eV]

MeV = 10^6 eV ~ typical nuclear scale

[nuclear weapons,
binding energy of deuterium nucleus = 2.2 MeV]

GeV = 10^9 eV ~ typical particle physics scale

mass of proton, neutron ~ 1 GeV

electron ~ $\frac{1}{2}$ MeV

[electron about 2000 times lighter.]

[up & down quarks similar]

muon ~ 100 MeV

top ~ 175 GeV

[top is heaviest known elementary particle]

[enormous range of masses:]

almost 6 orders of magnitude. Why?]

[What about neutrinos?

[originally believed to be massless (standard model)

[neutrino oscillations $\Rightarrow$ small but unknown mass]

neutrinos ~ 0.01 eV?

[13 orders of magnitude from ν to top]

why this range of masses?

[maybe just a fact, but calls out for explanation]

All 2nd & 3rd generation particles are unstable (except neutrinos)

[must be created in accelerators or cosmic rays]

why 3 generations?

[seems so unnecessary!]

Are there more?

[even more massive, more unstable, harder to create]

Apparently not.

Z^0 decay width $\Rightarrow$ only 3 types of neutrinos $\forall$ mass < 50 GeV

[so unless the 4th generation ν is almost as heavy as top]

[This is only half the story]

[The theoretical framework which describes these particles is quantum field theory (QFT), merger of QM and special relativity]

Antiparticles

QFT $\Rightarrow$ for each type of particle, there is a corresponding type of antiparticle, w/ same mass + opposite charge

<u>antiquarks</u>	$\bar{u}$	$\bar{c}$	$\bar{t}$	[anti-up, etc.]
	$\bar{d}$	$\bar{s}$	$\bar{b}$	
<u>antileptons</u>	$\bar{\nu}_e$	$\bar{\nu}_\mu$	$\bar{\nu}_\tau$	[use bars on all xc charged leptons]
	e^+	μ^+	τ^+	
	↑ positron			

Antiparticles are generally much less abundant
(despite the theoretical symmetry between pds + antipds)

[It was not always so
Before ~ 1 sec, about equal numbers of e^- and e^+
Before $\sim 10^{-6}$ sec, equal # of p & $\bar{p}$
Most annihilated, leaving small excess of p, n, e^-
Why any at all?

Why baryon + lepton asymmetry?

Interactions ("force")

1) gravity [oldest known, + weakest]

2) electromagnetism

3) weak nuclear force

4) strong nuclear force

[other fundamental interactions? "fifth force expts"
none known so far, but likely in GUTs; much weaker]

Interactions are responsible for:

- particle identities unchanged {
- 1) bound states [e.g. earth-moon; hydrogen; proton-gas]
 - 2) elastic scattering [Rutherford; comet]
 - 3) "rearrangements" (chemical reactions) $e^- + p \rightarrow ^1\text{H}$
 e.g. burning $\text{CH}_4 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

But also

- particle identities change {
- 4) decays: $n \rightarrow p e^- \bar{\nu}_e$
 - 5) inelastic scattering: $e^+ e^- \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^-$

production of new particles
by ...
in particle accelerators

Strength of an interaction determine

- ① binding energy of composite (eg. strong vs EM)
- ② rate of decay, ie mean life τ (eg strong vs weak)
- ③ likelihood of scattering, ie cross section σ

Interactions are complicated,
 but obey certain conservation laws.
 In some quantities do not change

Conserved quantities

[defer discussion of symmetries to p-1]

• energy

[will spend most of our time on this
 for 1st part of course, eg nuclear physics]

• momentum

[in classical mechanics, we see $E + \vec{p}$ cons. in collisions]

• not mass

[ideal of the mass in QM]

• angular momentum

• electric charge

[These are all believed to be absolutely conserved
 in all interactions, known + unknown]

• lepton number - (# leptons) - (# antileptons)

[eg ν decay]

• quark number - (# quarks) - (# antiquarks)

↓
 usually called baryon #, A

[quarks have $A = \frac{1}{3}$]

[conserved by all known interactions (standard model)
 possibly violated in GUTs. "Accidental"]

Searches for proton decay.

Partially conserved: conserved by strong interaction and electromagnetic — but not the weak force

- isospin

- strangeness

[much later in course]

- C = charge conjugation

[won't talk about these at all]

- P = parity

- T = time reversal symmetry

but CPT conserved by all.

[QFT result]

Most elementary particles are unstable because more massive particles inevitably decay into less massive particles unless prohibited by a conservation law

More massive particles created in collisions (e.g. e^+e^- or pp collisions)
provided conservation laws are obeyed

Skip this

~~pi 3~~

We characterize different types of particles (both fundamental + composite) by their properties

PROPERTIES OF PARTICLES

- MASS
- CHARGE, ELECTRIC + OTHERWISE (eg. quarks also have color charge)
- OTHER CONSERVED (OR ALMOST CONSERVED) ADDITIVE QUANTUM NUMBERS (eg. baryon no, strangeness)
- MULTIPLICATIVE QUANTUM NUMBERS
 - parity P
 - charge conjugation symmetry C
 - time reversal invariance T
- SPIN (ie intrinsic angular momentum)
- MAGNETIC DIPOLE MOMENT
- ISOSPIN, and OTHER FLAVOR QUANTUM NUMBERS
- MEAN LIFE and DECAY PRODUCTS, if unstable

These properties are measured experimentally and compiled in the biennial Particle Physics Booklet
[hand out; put up on screen]
↳ μ

We'll try to understand and hopefully calculate these properties from our theoretical models

skip this

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How do we study elementary particles + learn about their properties?

By throwing things at them + seeing what happens

- sometimes gets deflected or bounces back
- sometimes gets absorbed
- if thrown hard enough, produces new particles

Scattering experiments (target and probe)

Probes

• visible light [called "looking at something"]

gases scatter $\sim \frac{1}{\lambda^4} \Rightarrow$ Rayleigh scattering

• X-rays [study crystal structure, DNA]

when scattered from free electrons, $\Rightarrow$ Compton scattering
scattered X-rays have slightly longer λ

• α -particles

scatters off nuclei $\rightarrow$ both positively charged $\Rightarrow$ Rutherford scattering
induces nuclear reactions

• neutrons - no Coulomb barrier
- absorbed to create new isotopes or induce fission

• cosmic rays (mostly protons)

create new elementary particles

• accelerators (charged particles: p or e^-)

van de Graaff

cyclotrons

modern particle accelerators (LHC)

4 forces / interactions

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① GRAVITY

• long range (inverse square) $F = \frac{Gm_1m_2}{r^2}$

[acts on solar systems, galaxies]

• acts on anything w/ energy (not just mass)
[e.g. bending of light]

• always attractive

[binds hydrogen into stars, stars into galaxies]

• very weak on microscopic scales

[but cumulative so dominant on macroscopic scales]

• ignorable for elementary particles

[include it in this course just to be polite]

② ELECTRO-MAGNETISM

• long range (inverse square) $F = \frac{k q_1 q_2}{r^2} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$

[EM waves for distant galaxies]

• acts on all electrically charged particles
(also on neutral particles w/ magnetic moments)

• repulsion between same sign charges
• attraction between opposite charges

[binds negatively charged electrons and positively charged nuclei into (neutral) atoms]

• balance of charges largely neutralizes Coulomb force on macro scale

• residual forces on neutral objects

binds atoms into molecules (EM plays a role)



→ Compare electrical & gravitational force on 2 protons

$$\frac{F_E}{F_G} = \frac{\left(\frac{Ke^2}{r^2}\right) Ke^2}{\left(\frac{Gm^2}{r^2}\right) Gm^2} = \frac{(8.99 \times 10^9 \frac{N \cdot m^2}{C^2})(1.6 \times 10^{-19} C)^2}{(6.7 \times 10^{-11} \frac{N \cdot m^2}{kg^2})(1.7 \times 10^{-27} kg)^2} \approx 10^{36}$$

[since force between protons is repulsive,
nucleus can only form due to]

③ strong nuclear force / color force

• short range: $\sim 1 \text{ fm} = 10^{-15} \text{ m}$

$\text{fm} = \text{femtometer} = \text{fermi}$ [after Enrico Fermi]

• acts on particles w/ "color charge" viz quarks/antiquarks not leptons

3 types: R, G, B (opposite charges: $\bar{R}, \bar{G}, \bar{B}$)

each quark has a color (RGB) and a flavor (u, d, s, b, c, t)

• binds quarks & antiquarks (of opposite colors) into mesons ($q\bar{q}$)

e.g. $\pi^+ = u\bar{d}$, many others; all ^{mesons} unstable
(baryon # = 0, so can decay into leptons)

• binds triplets of quarks (one of each color) into baryons (qqq)
(e.g. RGB) $\leftarrow$ color neutral (=white) (baryon # = 1)
or antiquarks into anti baryons ($\bar{q}\bar{q}\bar{q}$) (baryon # = -1)
(e.g. $\bar{R}\bar{G}\bar{B}$)

only an analogy

e.g. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{proton } p = uud \\ \text{neutron } n = udd \end{array} \right.$

many others, all unstable, except p which is lightest baryon & baryon # conserved

• pentaquarks ^{also} discovered at LHC. ($qqqq\bar{q}$) (baryon # 1)

"bound states of baryons and mesons"

These bound states^{of quarks} called hadrons,
are "color neutral" (technically "SU(3) singlets")

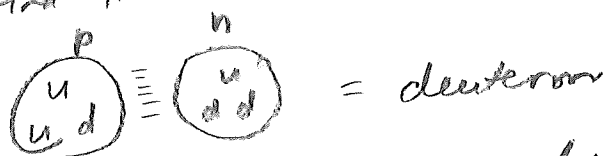
$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{technically: } \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (R\bar{R} + G\bar{G} + B\bar{B}) \\ \frac{1}{6} (R\bar{G}B - G\bar{R}B + G\bar{B}R - G\bar{B}R + B\bar{R}G - B\bar{G}R) \end{array} \right] \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{do not present} \\ \text{in class unless} \\ \text{asked} \end{array}$$

qq or $qq\bar{q}$ do not exist as bound states

[No free quark has ever been observed]

Confinement postulate [unproven]: color force is so strong that only color-neutral particles can exist in isolation

Nucleons (p, n) are color neutral but the (much weaker) residual color force (a.k.a. strong nuclear force) can bind them into nuclei



All nuclei exist because of strong force
but short range of color force limits the size of nuclei

[we do not have a quantitative understanding of nuclei (as for atoms)
because strong force is strong & complicated
but can use phenomenological model, e.g. liquid drop]

④ weak nuclear force

- short range [even shorter than strong interaction]
- acts on quarks and leptons [i.e. everything, even neutral particles]
- does not bind particles into composite objects
but is responsible for β -decay of nuclei

$$n \rightarrow p e^- \bar{\nu}_e$$

- all intergenerational decays ($2 \rightarrow 1$, $3 \rightarrow 2$, $3 \rightarrow 1$)
occurs through weak interaction.

$$\mu^- \rightarrow e^- \bar{\nu}_e \nu_\mu$$

Force carriers

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[interactions $\Rightarrow$ 7 more particles]

EM force mediated by fields $\vec{E}, \vec{B}$

which obey Maxwell eqns

$\Rightarrow$ wave-like solutions that travel at c .

Quantize the EM fields (QED = quantum electrodynamics)

$\Rightarrow$ photons: massless particles $\left(\begin{array}{l} E = cp, v = c \end{array} \right)$

[it's own antiparticle]
 $\Rightarrow Q = 0$

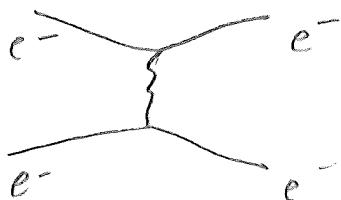
Accelerating charges emit photons (bremsstrahlung)



Force between charges caused by

exchange of virtual photons

[which determines nature of force
eg long range because massless]



[Feynman diagram]

strong nuclear force mediated by $SU(3)$ Yang-Mills field
 which obeys Yang-Mills eqs (nonlinear generalization of Maxwell)

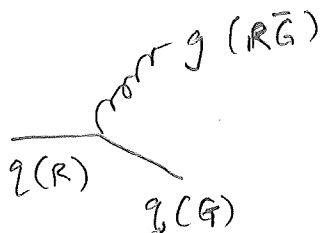
Quantize Ym fields (QCD = quantum chromodynamics)

$\Rightarrow$ gluons: massless particles g

8 types:

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} g(R\bar{G}) \text{ is} \\ \text{attached} \\ \text{to } g(\bar{B}R) \end{array} \right]$$

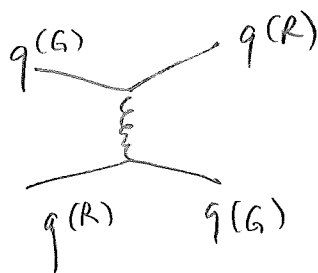
quarks emit gluons



$$8 = 3 \times 3 - 1$$

[no $RR + G\bar{G} + B\bar{B}$ gluon]

exchange of virtual gluons causes the color force



Technically there are 9
 $\begin{pmatrix} R \\ G \\ B \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \bar{R} & \bar{G} & \bar{B} \end{pmatrix}$
 $\begin{pmatrix} R\bar{R} & R\bar{G} & R\bar{B} \\ G\bar{R} & G\bar{G} & G\bar{B} \\ B\bar{R} & B\bar{G} & B\bar{B} \end{pmatrix}$
 but remove color singlet
 $\frac{1}{3}(R\bar{R} + G\bar{G} + B\bar{B})$

weak nuclear force mediated by $SU(2)$ Yang-Mills field

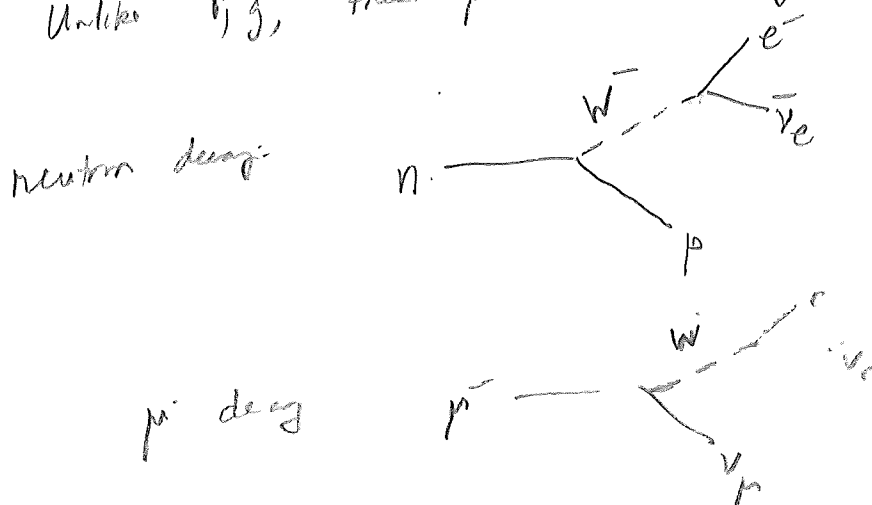
Quantize field (electroweak theory)

$$W^+$$

$$W^- = \overline{W^+}$$

$$Z^0 = \overline{Z^0}$$

Unlike γ, g , these particles are very massive (80, 90 GeV)



mass of force carrier $\Rightarrow$ short range of weak force

Actually weak & electromagnetic forces are unified in the electroweak theory, based on $SU(2) \times U(1)$ Ym field

$W^\pm, Z^0$ are massive due to

Spontaneous symmetry breaking
of electroweak theory,
caused by Higgs field

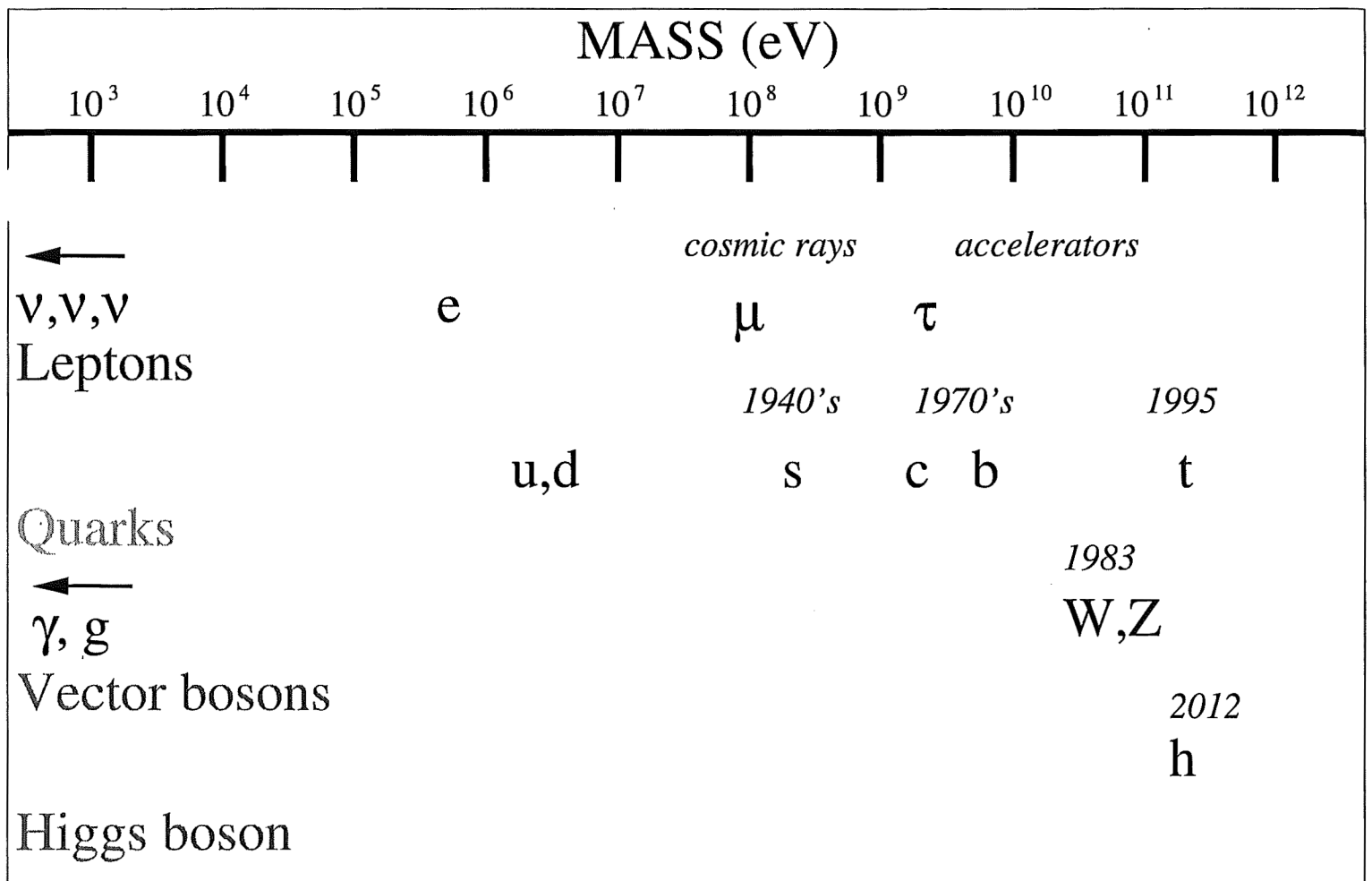
Quantize Higgs field $\Rightarrow$ Higgs boson h
which is also massive (125 GeV) [discovered 2012]

[show chart of masses]

All standard model particles:

6 quarks
6 leptons
vector bosons (γ, g, W^+, W^-, Z^0)
scalar boson (h)

8 of them
↓



gravity mediated by gravitational fields
governed by Einstein's equations (general relativity)

[These eqns have wavelike solutions
⇒ gravitational waves discovered by LIGO]

Expect quantization → gravitons (massless, tensor bosons)
Single gravitons Not(yet) detectable.

Also quantum theory of gravity is not yet satisfactory

Fortunately, gravity is irrelevant on the scale of elementary particles.

What lies beyond the standard model?

BSM: experimental

- measure neutrinos
- dark matter [WIMPs, axions?]

theoretical

- more forces (GUT) (simplest versions ruled out)
- super symmetry (not looking good)

we have no understanding of the meaning of fundamental particles
(much more of decay rates)

open problem: quantum gravity
(string theory)

Angular momentum

[can be presented later]

p1-19

Invariance of laws of physics under rotations (isotropy)

$\Rightarrow$ cons of angular momentum $\vec{J} = (J_x, J_y, J_z)$

[$\vec{J}$ due to motion of particle or intrinsic which it has even at rest]

- orbital
- spin (intrinsic)

QM $\Rightarrow J$ quantized in half integer units of $\hbar$

Bosons have integer spin: $J = 0, \hbar, 2\hbar, \dots$

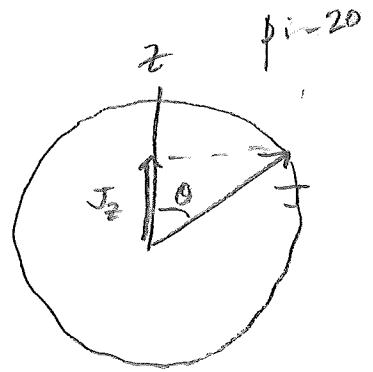
Fermions have half integer spin: $J = \frac{\hbar}{2}, \frac{3\hbar}{2}, \frac{5\hbar}{2}, \dots$

eg	spin	example: <u>fundamental</u>	<u>composite</u>	
	0	Higgs boson	π meson	"scalar"
	$\frac{1}{2}$	quarks leptons	proton neutron	"spinor"
	1	$\gamma, W^\pm, Z^0, \text{gluon}$	ρ meson	"vector"
	$\frac{3}{2}$	gravitino?	Δ baryon	"spin vector"
	2	graviton		"tensor"

Spatial quantization

$$J_z = z\text{-component of spin} = J \cos \theta$$

$$|J_z| \leq J$$

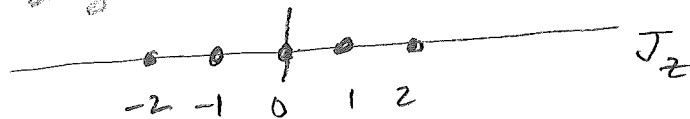


QM $\Rightarrow J_z$ is also quantized

Allowed values: $J_z = J, J-1, J-2, \dots, -J$ (massive)
 $J_z = J, -J$ (massless)

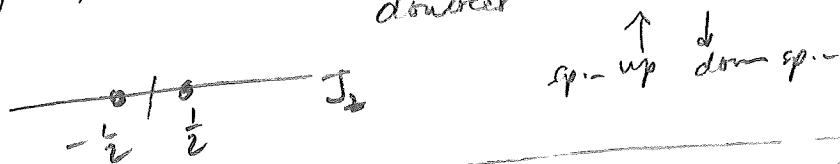
of allowed values = $\overset{\text{spin}}{\underset{\text{multiplicity}}{2J+1}} = \begin{cases} 2J+1 & \text{(massive)} \\ 2 & \text{(massless)} \end{cases}$

Weight diagram



set of allowed spin states called a "multiplet"

E.g. spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particles has 2 spin states: $J_z = \pm \frac{1}{2}$
 "doubled"



↑ spin-up
↓ spin-down

(if γ are massless
 it be just 1)

If environment is rotationally symmetric, then particle energy is independent of direction of spin

$\Rightarrow 2J+1$ degenerate states

If $\vec{B}$ field in z -direction, then energy depends on direction of spin (because $\vec{\mu} \propto \vec{S}$, and magnetic dipole align $\gamma \vec{B}$)

$\vec{B}$ field breaks rotational symmetry $\Rightarrow$ splits the degeneracy

[Should we do g-factor? see J=1 in old notes]