

Back to the beginning of the century - another interaction was being discovered

#### The "Weak Interaction"

1895: Wilhelm Röntgen discovered 'X-rays'

1896: Henri Becquerel discovered radiation from U crystals

1898: Marie and Pierre Curie: ionizing radiation from 'Pechblende' (U + Polonium)

# Radioactivity

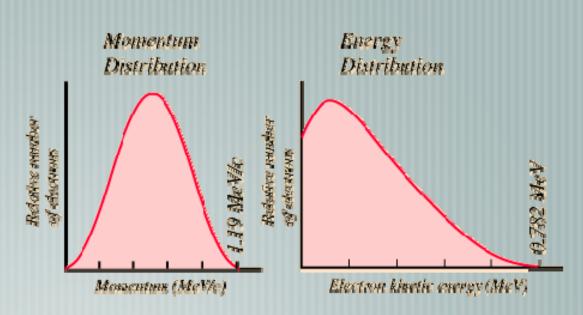
Beta decay of nuclei - electrons emitted with continuous energy spectrum !?

$$Z --> (Z+1) + e$$
?



1911 Lise Meitner, Otto Hahn

#### Violation of energy conservation?

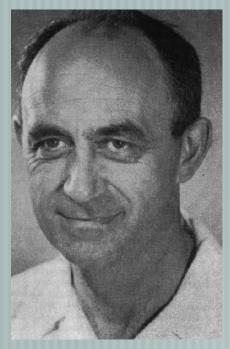


1930 Wolfgang Pauli: an extremely light neutral particle\* is emitted in beta decay

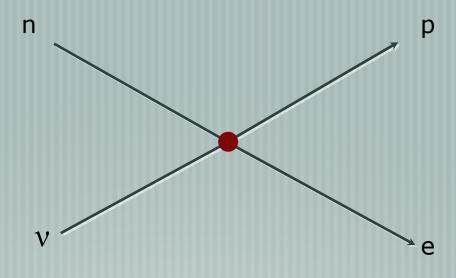
\*'neutron', but in 1931 Fermi called it "'neutrino" (little neutron)

$$n --> p + e + V$$

# Fields



Enrico Fermi (1934)



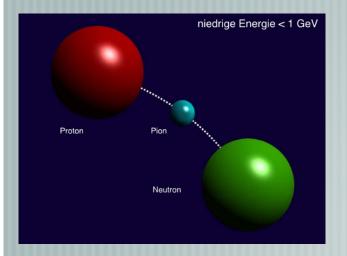
Proposed a phenomenological model of weak interaction  $\label{eq:point-like} \mbox{Point-like coupling with strength $G_F$} \sim 10^{-5} \mbox{ of e.m. interaction}$  Coupling of two 'currents' (proton-neutron / electron-neutrino)

Ok until ~1960

## Back to the strong force: keeping protons and neutrons together



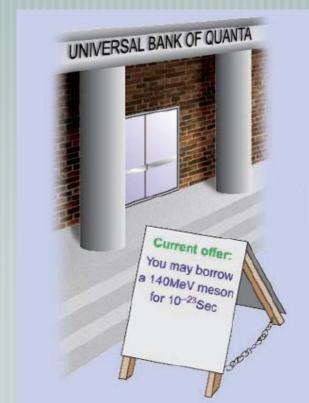
Yukawa (1934)



Exchange of massive particle **Pion** 

$$V(r) = -g^2 \, \frac{e^{-mr}}{r}$$

Modified Coulomb law





# **4** The Universe

Before the 20th century, the Universe was a quiet place. Not much seem to happen.

Most physicists assumed the Universe to be infinite in space and time.

However, there was a strange observational fact:

# It is dark at night.

This could not be explained with an eternal and infinite universe

## Olber's "Paradox"

Heinrich Wilhelm Olbers (1823)

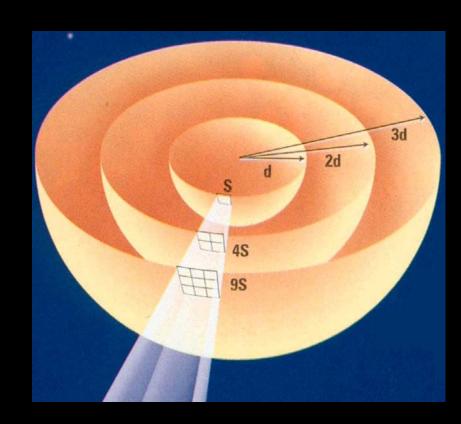
If the universe is endless and uniformly populated with luminous stars, then every line of sight must eventually terminate at the surface of a star.

#### Formally:

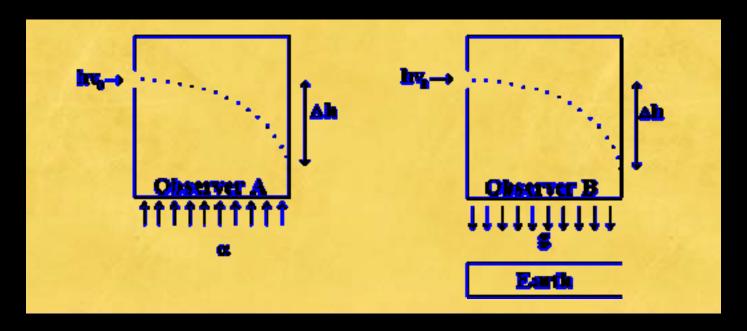
Each shell contributes  $\sim r^2$ The light decreases with  $\sim 1/r^2$ Light contribution from each shell = constant

#### Consequence:

The Universe did not exist forever, or ...
The Universe has a finite size, or ...
Both



## **Equivalence Principle**



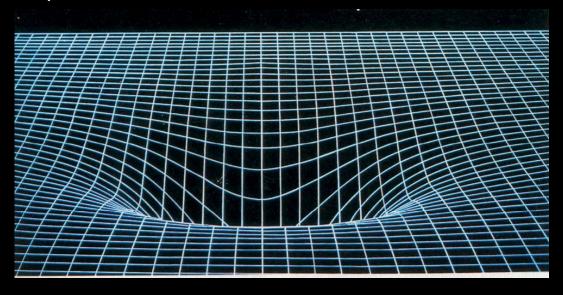
Acceleration (inertial mass) is indistinguishable from gravitation (gravitational mass)

"The happiest thought of my life" (Albert Einstein)

Light rays define the shortest path in space. Accelerated elevator: light follows follows a parabolic path Gravitational field: light path must be bent! Space and time must be curved

Albert Einstein (1912-15): General Relativity

Matter tells Space how to curve Space tells Matter how to move





George Lemaitre (1927)

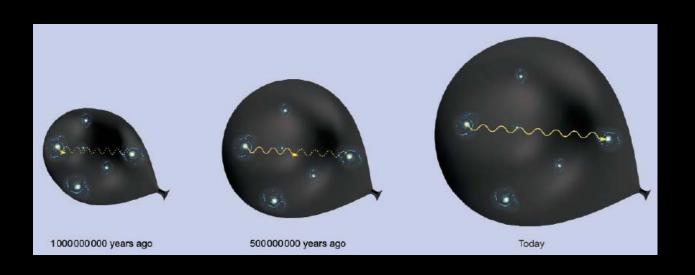
The whole Universe expands A 'hot primordial atom'?

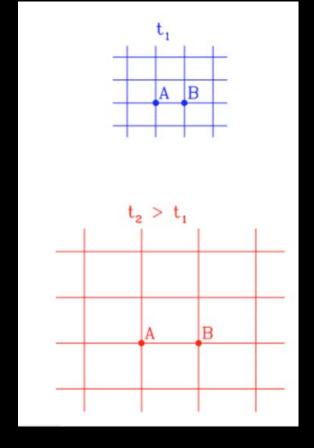
Friedmann described the expansion of the Universe using a scale factor a(t)

$$r_{AB}(t) = a(t)x_{AB}$$

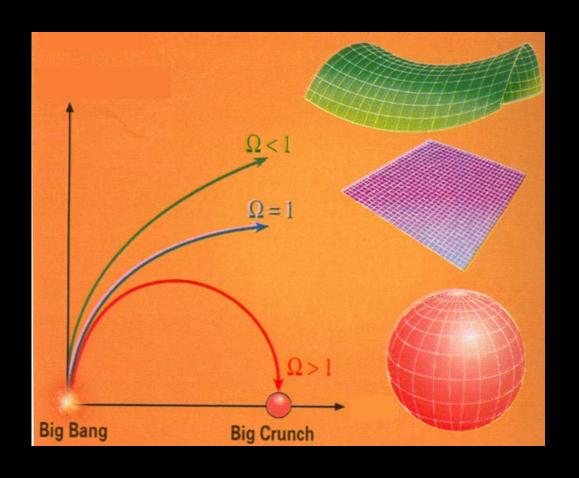
His equation relates the average energy density " $\rho$ " and the curvature factor K with the expansion rate

$$(rac{1}{a}rac{da}{dt})^2=rac{8\pi G}{3}ar
ho-rac{K}{a^2}$$





The crucial question was the mass of the Universe. In principle, it could be anything. However - there is a 'critical energy density'. If the average energy density is larger, the Universe will stop expanding and fall back into a big crunch one day ('deceleration' parameter)



Einstein did not like the idea of a 'dynamic' Universe.

He believed in an eternal and static Universe.

But his own equations predicted something else.

Therefore he decided to tinker with them, by adding a term named

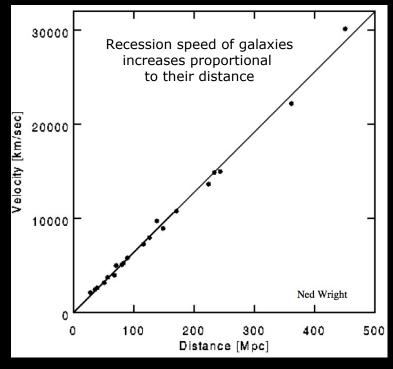
'cosmological constant'

$$\left(\frac{\dot{R}}{R}\right)^2 - \frac{8}{3}\pi G\rho - \frac{1}{3}\Lambda c^2 = -\frac{kc^2}{R^2}$$



Edwin Hubble (1929) Mt. Palomar telescope





Observation of many stars and galaxies revealed an amazing fact:

The Universe is the same in every direction, at any distance ...

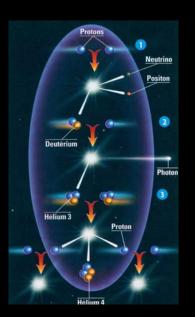
Hydrogen ~ 75 %
Helium-4 ~ 25 %
He-3 ~ 0.003 %
Deuterium ~ 0.003 %
Li-7 ~ 0.00000002 %

There must be a reason ...

## 1948: The 'Big Bang' model\* of the beginning of the Universe



George Gamov



The Universe started from an extremely hot initial state

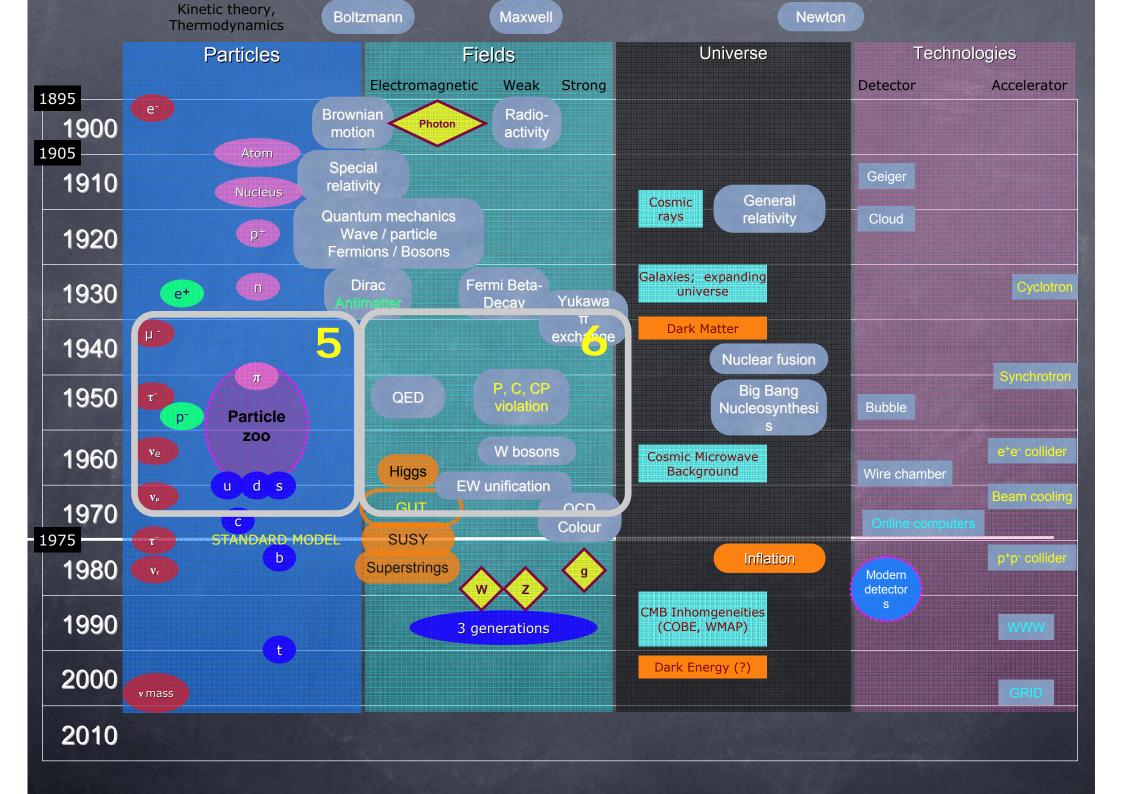
Then it expanded rapidly, while cooling down

In very early times, the Universe was mostly radiation

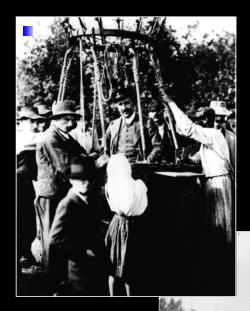
Radiation produced particles (protons, neutrons, electrons)

- In the first few minutes, there was just enough time to create the lightest elements
- There should be an 'echo' in form of a uniform black-body radiation (T  $\sim$  5 K)

<sup>\*</sup> The name 'Big Bang' was used by Fred Hoyle to ridicule Gamov's idea. Later Fred Hoyle was ridiculed.



In 1913, first hints of a violent universe appeared

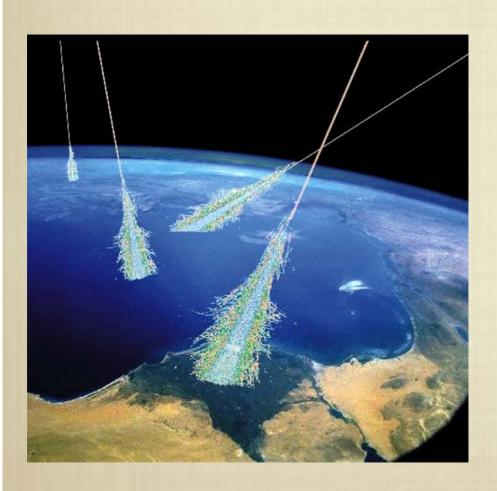


Victor Hess

**Discovery of cosmic rays** 

After Yukawa's prediction of a 'pion' (1934), everybody was searching for this particle (100-200 MeV).

There was no accelerator with sufficient energy available (yet). So physicists went on mountain tops to search for tracks in their photographic emulsions.



A new particle was discovered in the right mass range

But: very long range in matter !! ?

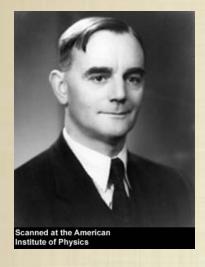
That means: no (strong) interaction with nuclei, and therefore not Yukawa's pion!

Muon - 'heavy electron' (206 x m<sub>e</sub>)

I. Rabi: "WHO ORDERED THAT?"



## Discovery of the (charged) pion



Ouff!

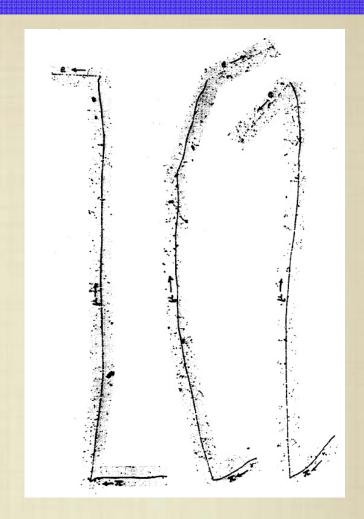
Cecil Powell

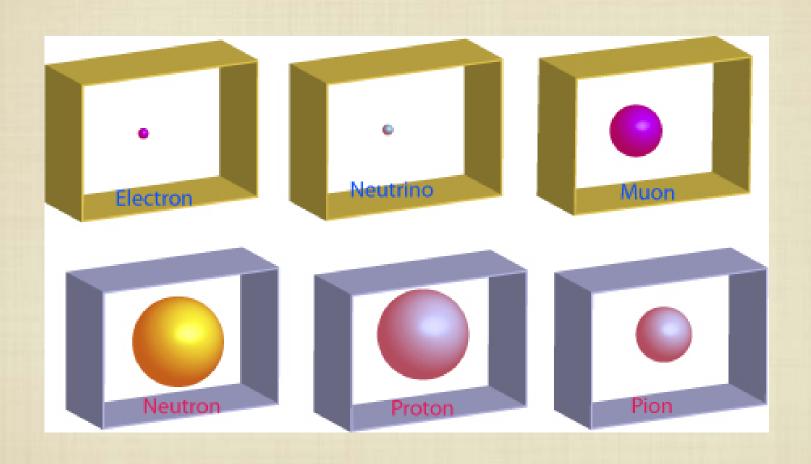


Cosmic rays at high altitude (Pic du Midi, Pyrenees)

Pion tracks identified under microscope

One year later: Pions produced at Berkeley cyclotron (Alpha+Carbon)





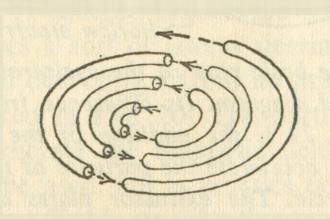


#### **Accelerators**

"Man-made cosmic rays"

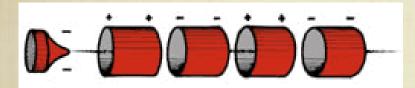
Rolf Wideroe, 1928

Ernest Lawrence, 1931





Cyclotron



#### Linear accelerator

Accelerate particles between electrode gaps Tune RF frequency to match particle motion Use magnetic field to bend particles into circular orbit Particles pass through same accelerating gap many times and reach higher energies

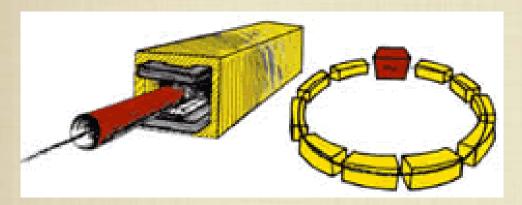
1931: 80 keV

1932: 1000 keV 1939: 19 MeV\*

1946: 195 MeV ("synchrocyclotron")

\* first limitations by relativistic mass increase

## Accelerators (2)



Synchrotron

Similar to cyclotron, but change magnetic field to keep particles on the same orbit (also overcomes relativistic mass increase)

1947: US constructs two 'synchrotrons'

Brookhaven (1952) - 3 GeV Berkeley (1954) - 6.2 GeV ('antiproton')

1954: Europe competes with US

CERN (1959) - 24 GeV Brookhaven (1960) - 30 GeV

#### **Detectors**

Geiger counters Cloud chambers Emulsions Bubble chambers Cerenkov counters Photomultipliers Spark chambers After 1967:

Wire chambers Drift chambers Calorimeters Particl e zoo

With new accelerators and detectors, the "particle zoo" grew to more than ~ 200 'elementary particles'

$$\Delta^{++}, \Delta^{+}, \Delta^{0}, \Delta^{-}$$
Delta
$$\Delta^{0}$$

$$\Sigma^{+}, \Sigma^{0}, \Sigma^{-}$$
Lambda (strange!)
$$\Xi^{0}, \Xi^{-}$$
Sigma (very strange!)
$$BARYONS$$

### SU(3) - Classification scheme based on 'quarks'

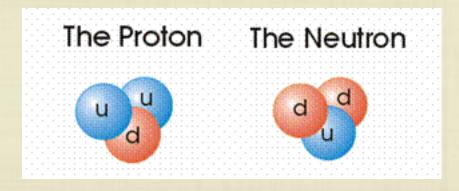


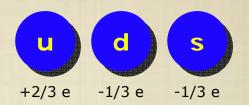
Gell-Mann, 1963
(G. Zweig, 1963, CERN)

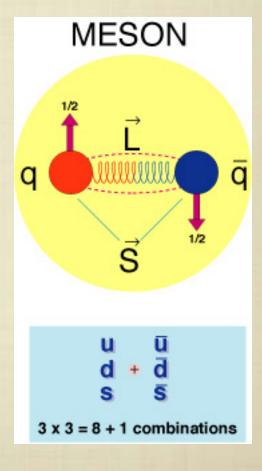
- 1) 3 types of "quarks": up, down, strange
- 2) Carry electric charges: +2/3, -1/3, -1/3
- 3) Appear in combinations:

Meson = quark+antiquark

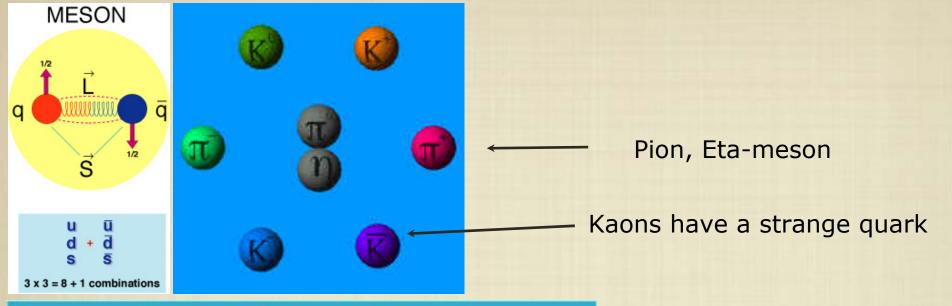
Baryon = quark(1) + quark(2) + quark(3)

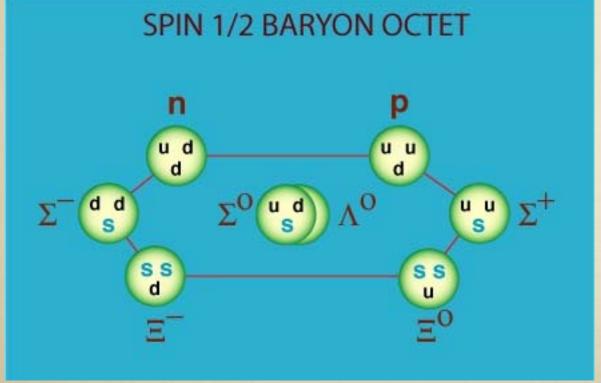






# PARTICLE SPECTRUM



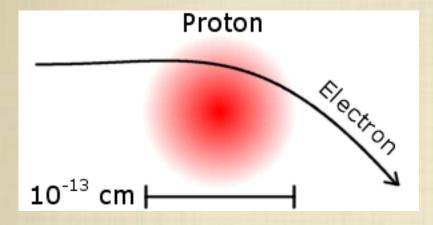


Ground state baryons: Proton, Neutron; Lambda, Sigma, Xi

# PARTICLE SPECTRUM

### **Discovery of quarks**

**Electron-Proton scattering** 

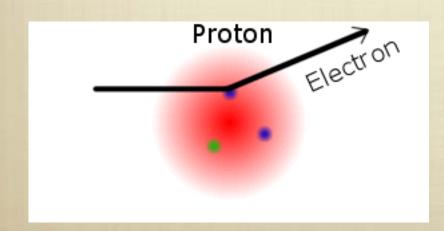


1956 Hofstadter: measured finite proton radius



Stanford Linear Accelerator Centre

1967 Friedmann, Kendall, Taylor (SLAC): 'hard scattering' of electron on three 'point-like particles'



Measured cross-sections perfectly compatible with presence of 2 up- and 1 down-quark in proton

### Colour charge

 $\Delta^{++}$  three up-quarks with parallel spin, in a symmetric state

(u,u,u) But: three fermions not allowed to be in identical states (Pauli exclusion principle)



The three quarks must be different in one quantum number: "colour" (Bardeen, Fritzsch, Gell-Mann)

Only colour-neutral bound states are allowed

MESONS = Quark-Antiquark BARYONS = 3-Quark states

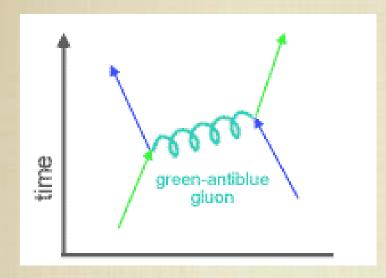
Colour-force transmitted by (eight) gluons

GLUONS CARRY COLOUR CHARGE - SELF-INTERACTION!

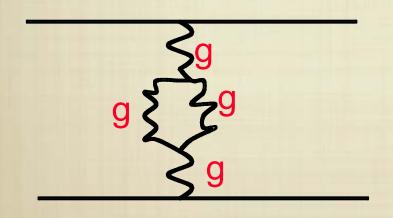


Positive pion

#### Gluons



Gluons are massless carriers of the strong force There are  $3 \times 3 - 1 = 8$  different gluons Gluons carry colour charge -> self-interaction



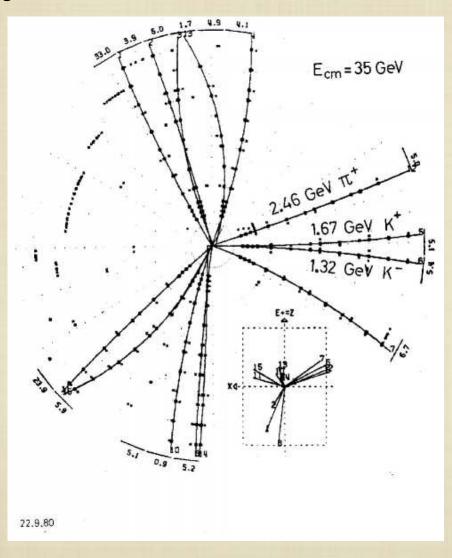
### **Self-interaction of gluons**

Potential rises linearly with distance (for large r)

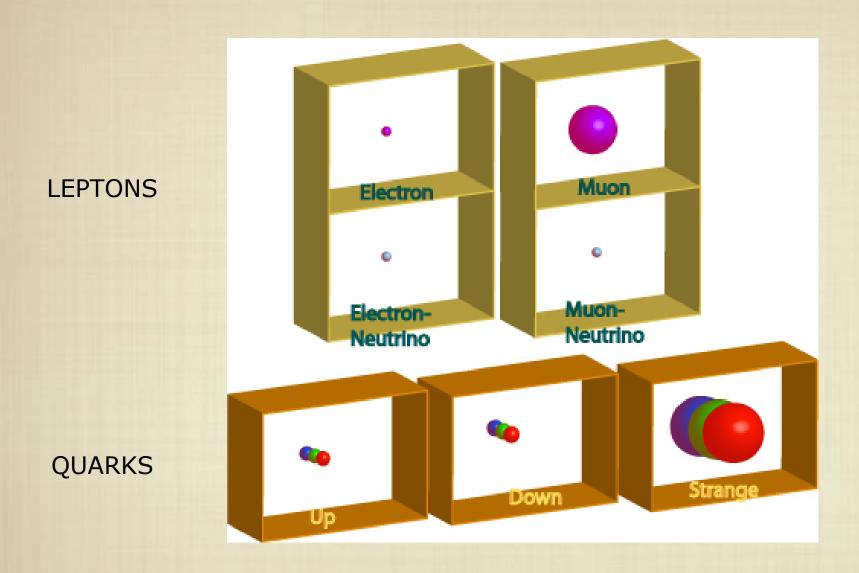
$$V_{QCD} = -\frac{4}{3} \frac{\alpha_s}{r} + kr$$

Small distances: asymptotic freedom

## **Discovery of Gluons**



PETRA Storage Ring, 1979, DESY (Hamburg)



Connection?

KEY: 'electroweak' interaction and the 'flavour' of elementary particles

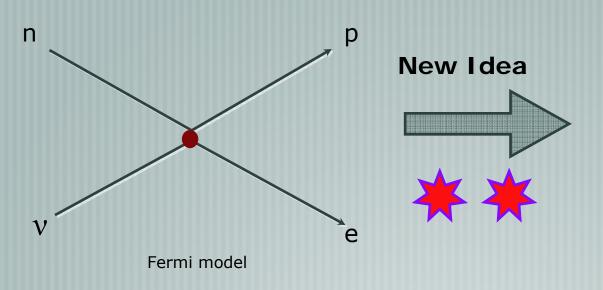
Fields

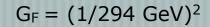
#### **Electroweak Interaction**

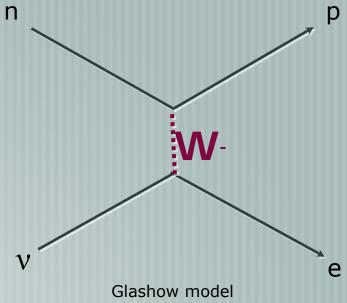
#### There was a big (theoretical)problem:

Neutrino-Proton cross-section  $\sim$  (G<sub>F</sub> E<sub>V</sub> ) violates conservation of probability\* for E > 300 GeV

(the probability of the interaction becomes > 100%)

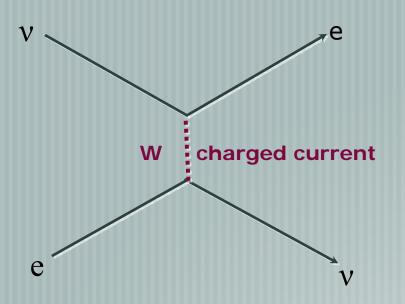


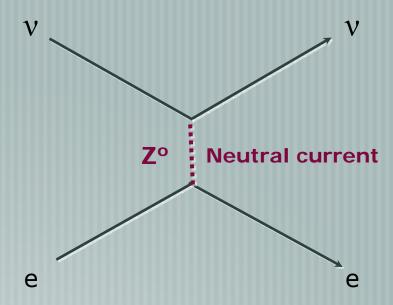




Weak interaction transmitted by massive vector bosons (in analogy to photon exchange!)

Large mass (80 GeV) explains short range (2·10<sup>-18</sup> m) and small cross-sections



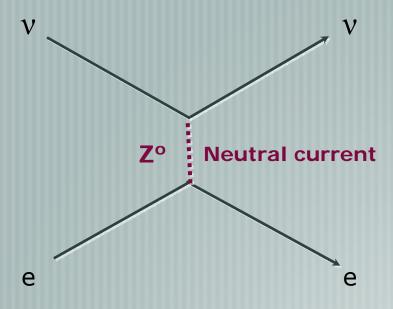


### Glashow, Salam, Weinberg (1968) - Electroweak Force

- The electromagnetic and weak interaction are different aspects of the same 'electroweak' force
- All quarks and leptons have a 'weak' charge
- There should be a 'heavy photon' (Z°) and two charged vector boson (W<sup>±</sup>) of mass ~ 50-100 GeV
- They acquire their mass by the interaction with the (new) "Higgs field" H.
- There are only 'left-handed' interactions

# Fields

#### Discovery of neutral currents at CERN (1973)



- Neutrino beam directed on a bubble chamber
  - An electron track emerges out of 'nowhere'

Nuclear Physics B73 (1974) 1-22 North-Holland Publishing Company

# OBSERVATION OF NEUTRINO-LIKE INTERACTIONS WITHOUT MUON OR ELECTRON IN THE GARGAMELLE NEUTRINO EXPERIMENT

F.J. HASERT, S. KABE, W. KRENZ, J. VON KROGH, D. LANSKE, J. MORFIN, K. SCHULTZE and H. WEERTS III. Physikalisches Institut der Technischen Hochschule, Aachen, Germany

G. BERTRAND-COREMANS, J. SACTON, W. VAN DONINCK and P. VILAIN\* Interuniversity Institute for High Energies, U.L.B., V.U.B., Brussels, Belgium

R. BALDI, U. CAMERINI\*\*, D.C. CUNDY, I. DANILCHENKO\*\*\*, W.F. FRY\*\*
D. HAIDT, S. NATALI\*, P. MUSSET, B. OSCULATI, R. PALMER\*\*,
J.B.M. PATTISON, D.H. PERKINS\*, A. PULLIA, A. ROUSSET,
W. VENUS\*\* and H. WACHSMUTH
CERN. Geneva. Switzerland

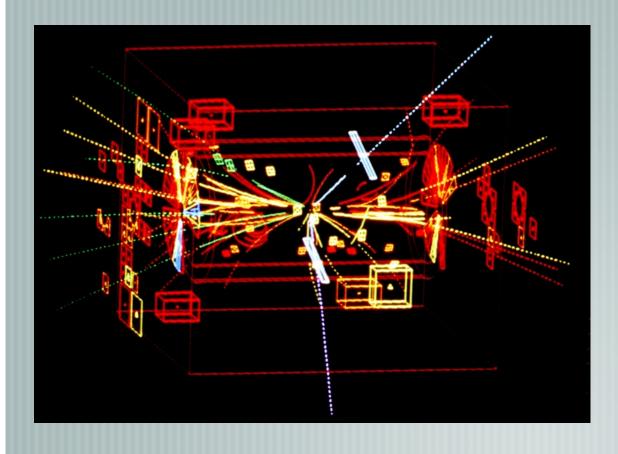
V. BRISSON, B. DEGRANGE, M. HAGUENAUER, L. KLUBERG, U. Nguyen-KHAC and P. PETIAU Laboratoire de Physique Nucleaire des Hautes Energies, Ecole Polytechnique, Paris France



# **Fields**

### Discovery of the W, Z bosons at CERN (1983)

(Carlo Rubbia - leader of UA1 collaboration, and proponent of proton-antiproton collider in SpS) (Simon van der Meer - inventor of stochastic beam cooling)

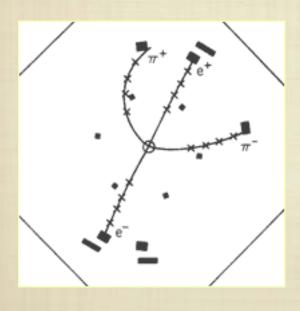




#### And the charm quark was to be discovered soon afterwards:

The NOVEMBER REVOLUTION (11 November 1974)

Two groups discovered ~ simultaneously a new particle, which they called 'Psi' at SLAC (Burt Richter) and 'J' at Brookhaven (Sam Ting).



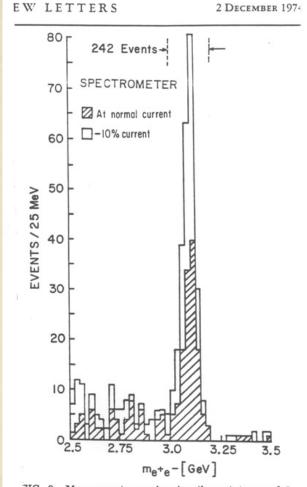


FIG. 2. Mass spectrum showing the existence of J. sults from two spectrometer settings are plotted wing that the peak is independent of spectrometer rents. The run at reduced current was taken two on the later than the normal run.

The J/psi resonance was 'long-lived' ( $\sim 10^{-20}$  sec). It could only decay by weak interactions, preferably into an s-quark. This explains the narrow peak.

#### **Electro-weak Interaction**

# **Fields**

#### Milestone paper (Glashow, Iliopoulos, Maiani)

PHYSICAL REVIEW D

VOLUME 2, NUMBER 7

1 OCTOBER 1970

#### Weak Interactions with Lepton-Hadron Symmetry\*

S. L. Glashow, J. Iliopoulos, and L. Maiani†

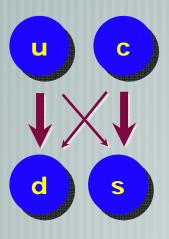
Lyman Laboratory of Physics, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139

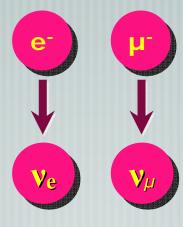
(Received 5 March 1970)

We propose a model of weak interactions in which the currents are constructed out of four basic quark fields and interact with a charged massive vector boson. We show, to all orders in perturbation theory, that the leading divergences do not violate any strong-interaction symmetry and the next to the leading divergences respect all observed weak-interaction selection rules. The model features a remarkable symmetry between leptons and quarks. The extension of our model to a complete Yang-Milis theory is discussed.

#### Quarks

## Leptons





This was now called the 'Standard Model' (with two families)