

Kinetic theory,
Thermodynamics

Boltzmann

Maxwell

Newton

Particles

Fields

Universe

Technologies

Electromagnetic Weak Strong

Detector

Accelerator

1895

1900

1905

1910

1920

1930

1940

1950

1960

1970

1975

1980

1990

2000

2010

e^-

Atom

Nucleus

p^+

n

e^+

μ^-

τ^-

ρ

ν_e

ν_μ

τ

ν_τ

ν mass

π
Particle
zoo

u d s

c

b

t

Brownian motion

Photon

Radio-activity

Special relativity

Quantum mechanics
Wave / particle
Fermions / Bosons

Dirac
Antimatter

QED

Higgs

GUT

SUSY

Superstrings

W

Z

g

3 generations

QCD
Colour

EW unification

W bosons

P, C, CP
violation

Fermi Beta-
Decay

Yukawa
 π exchange

3

Cosmic rays

Galaxies; expanding universe

Dark Matter

Cosmic Microwave Background

CMB Inhomogeneities (COBE, WMAP)

Dark Energy (?)

General relativity

Nuclear fusion

Big Bang
Nucleosynthesis

Inflation

4

Geiger

Cloud

Bubble

Wire chamber

Online computers

Modern detectors

Cyclotron

Synchrotron

e^+e^- collider

Beam cooling

p^+p^- collider

WWW

GRID

3

Fields

'Weak' interaction

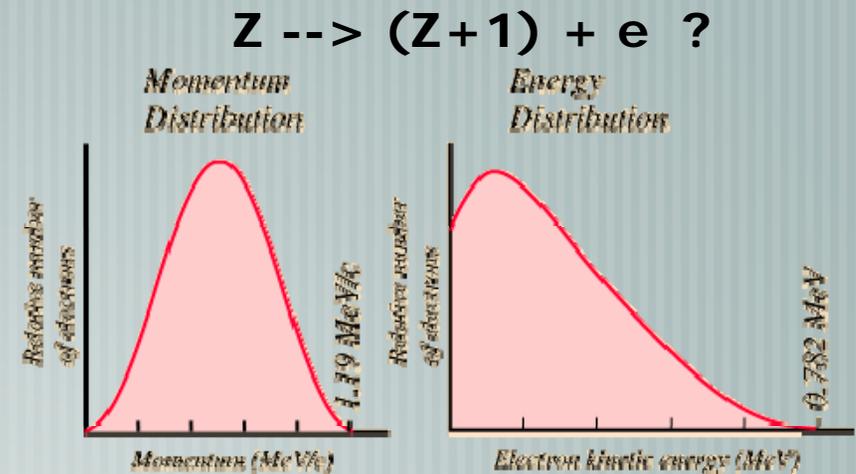
Back to the beginning of the century - another interaction was being discovered

The "Weak Interaction" - Radioactivity

1896: Henri Becquerel discovered radiation from U crystals

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

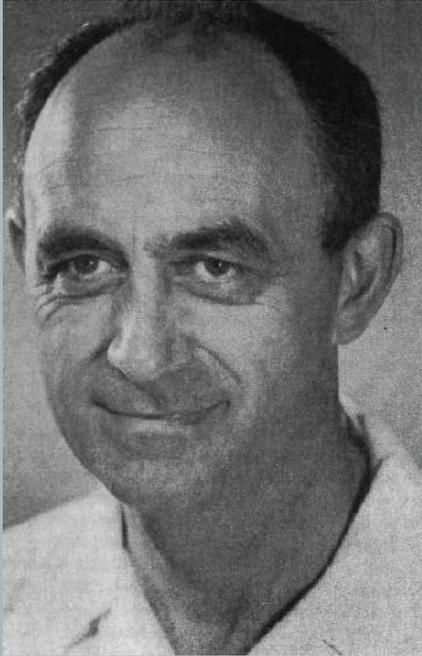
1911: Continuous (?) energy spectrum of 'beta'-rays (electrons) - energy conservation?



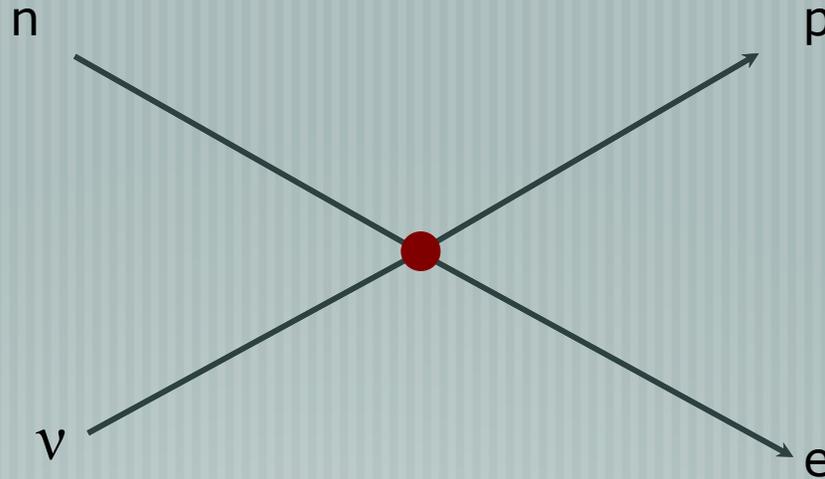
1930: Wolfgang Pauli postulates existence of 'neutrino': $n \rightarrow p + e + \nu$

Fields

'Weak' interaction



Enrico Fermi
(1934)



Proposed a **phenomenological** model of weak interaction

Point-like coupling with strength $G_F \sim 10^{-5}$ of e.m. interaction

Coupling of two 'currents' (proton-neutron / electron-neutrino)

Ok until ~1960

Fields

'Strong' interaction

The "Strong Interaction" - Nuclear forces

What keeps the protons and neutrons together in the nucleus?

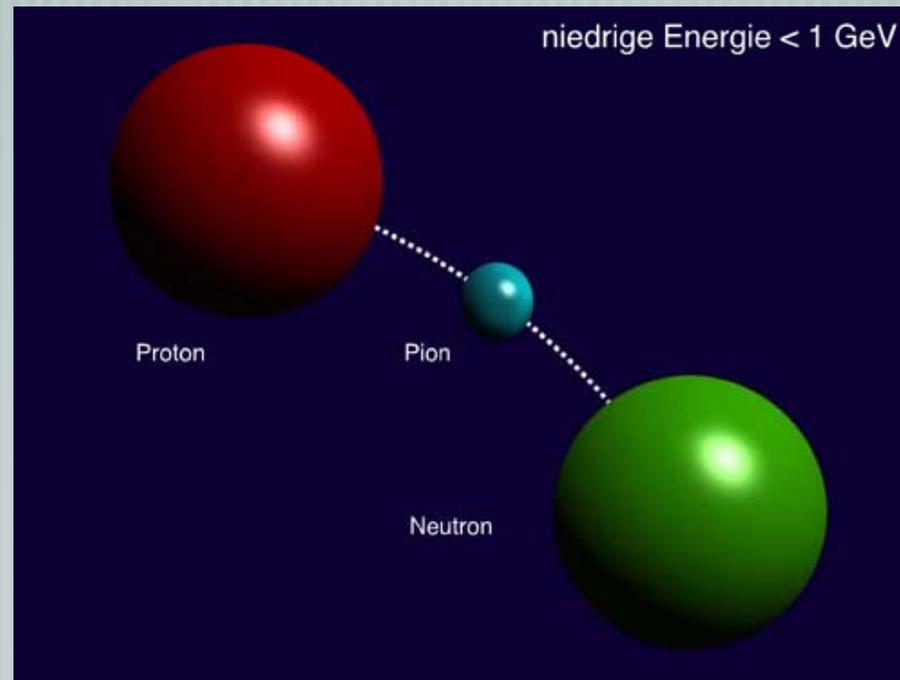
- 1) This force must be stronger than the electromagnetic repulsion
- 2) It must be of short range ($\sim 1-2$ fm) to explain the size of nuclei

Yukawa's idea:

a massive particle ("pion") is exchanged between two nucleons



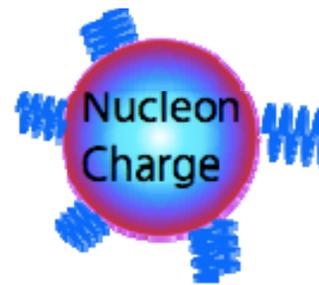
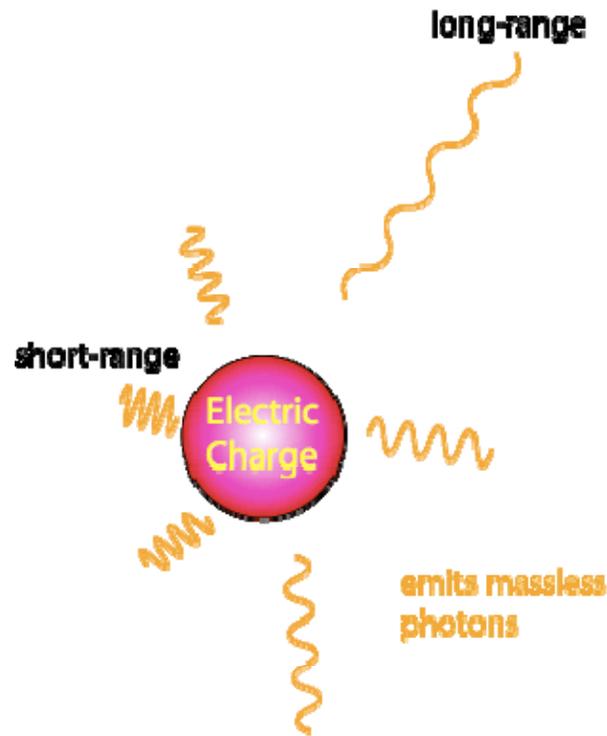
Yukawa (1934)



Electromagnetic

vs

Nuclear



emits massive pions

$$\Delta E \Delta t \geq \hbar \quad (\Delta E \sim m)$$

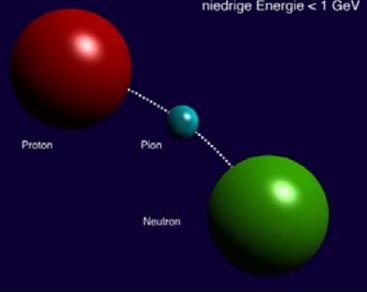
$$r = c \Delta t = \frac{\hbar c}{m} \sim \frac{200 \text{ MeV fm}}{m}$$

$$V(r) = -e^2 \frac{1}{r}$$

Coulomb law

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

Yukawa potential ~ Modified "Coulomb" law



Fields

'Strong' interaction

Metaphors for 'particle exchange'



Allowed by uncertainty relation: $1.4 \text{ fm} \sim 140 \text{ MeV}$

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 $\sim 1/r^2$

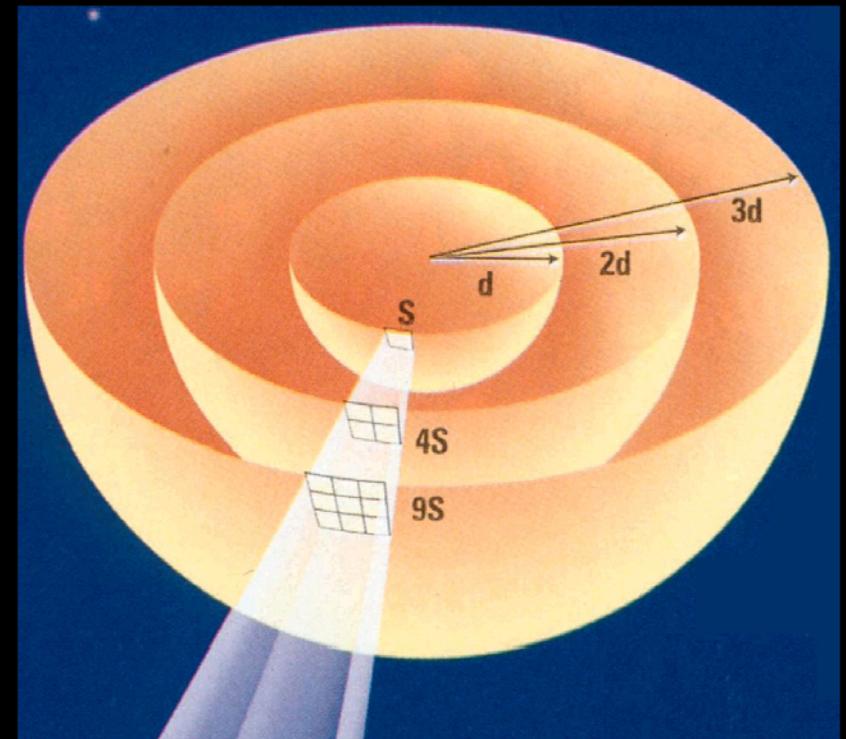
Light contribution from each shell = constant

Consequence:

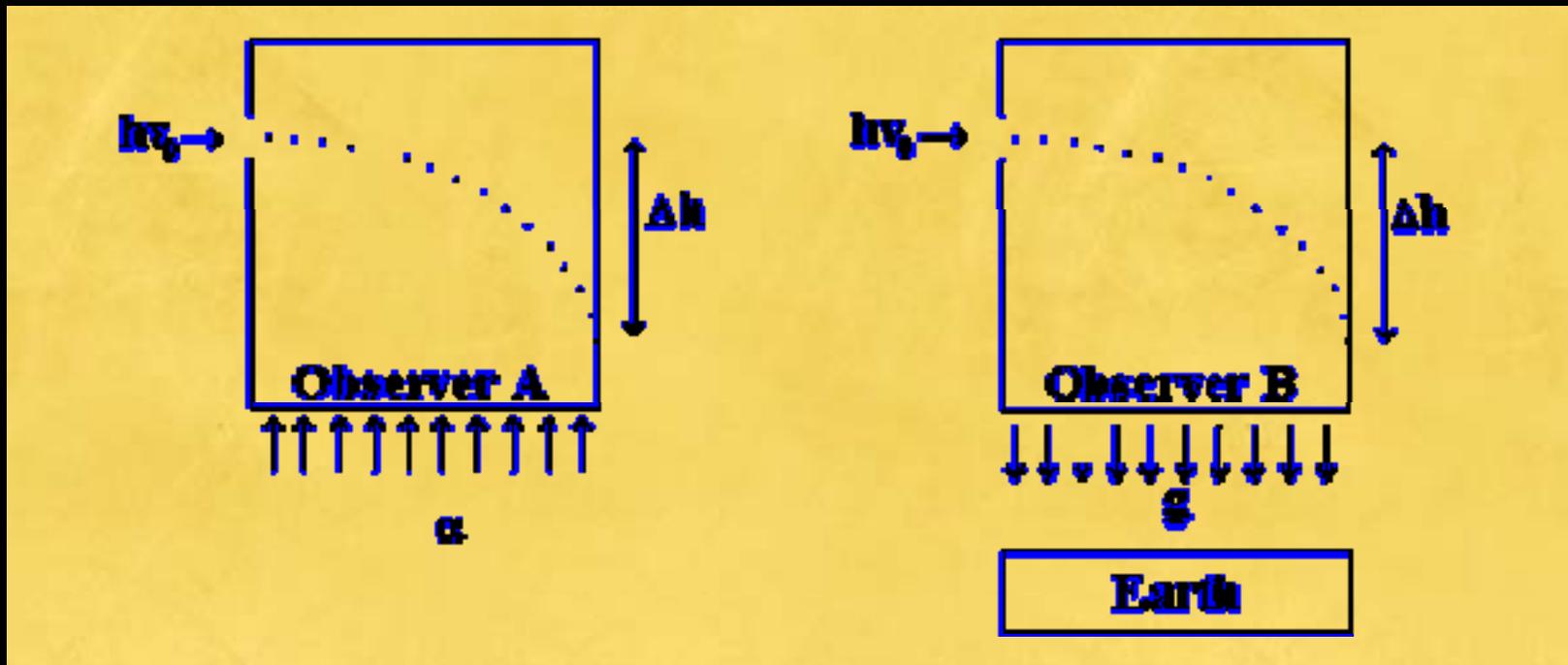
The Universe did not exist forever, or ...

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 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

$$G_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$

PHYSICAL REVIEW D

VOLUME 2, NUMBER 7

1 OCTOBER 1970

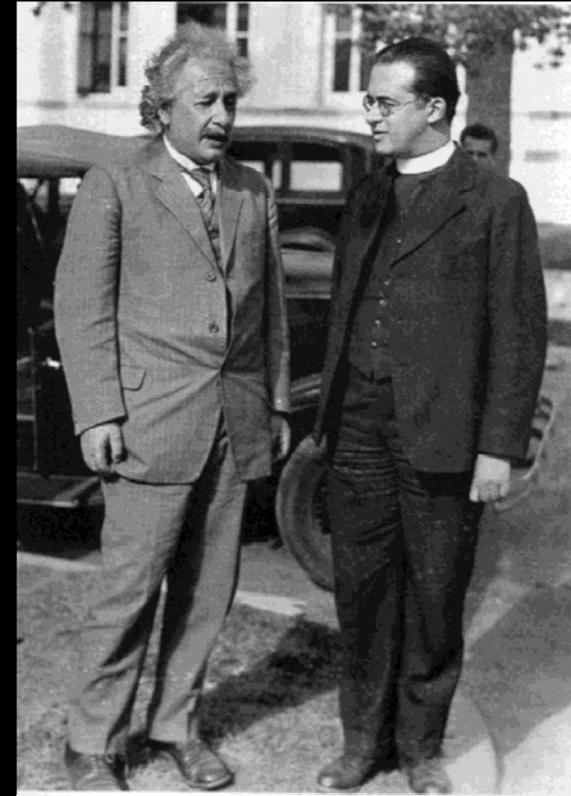
Weak Interactions with Lepton-Hadron Symmetry*

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-Mills theory is discussed.



George Lemaitre (1927)

The whole Universe expands

Universe

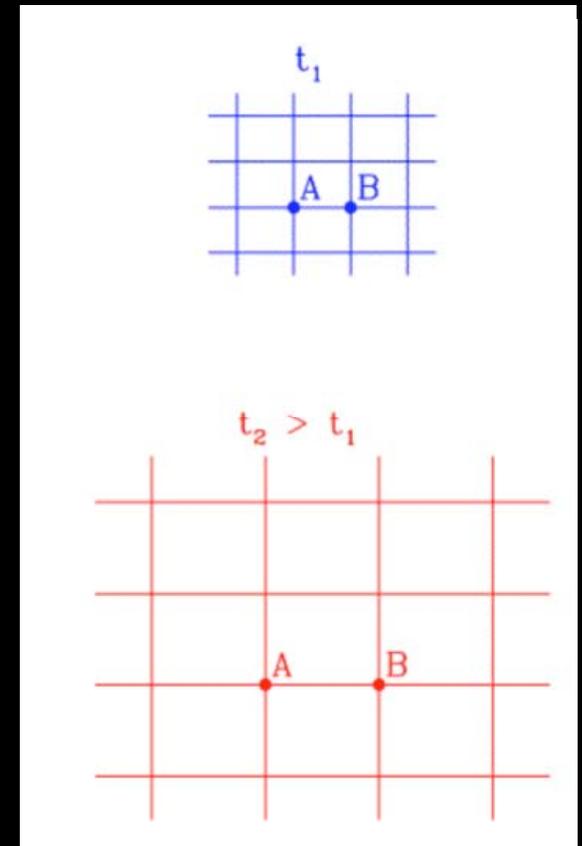
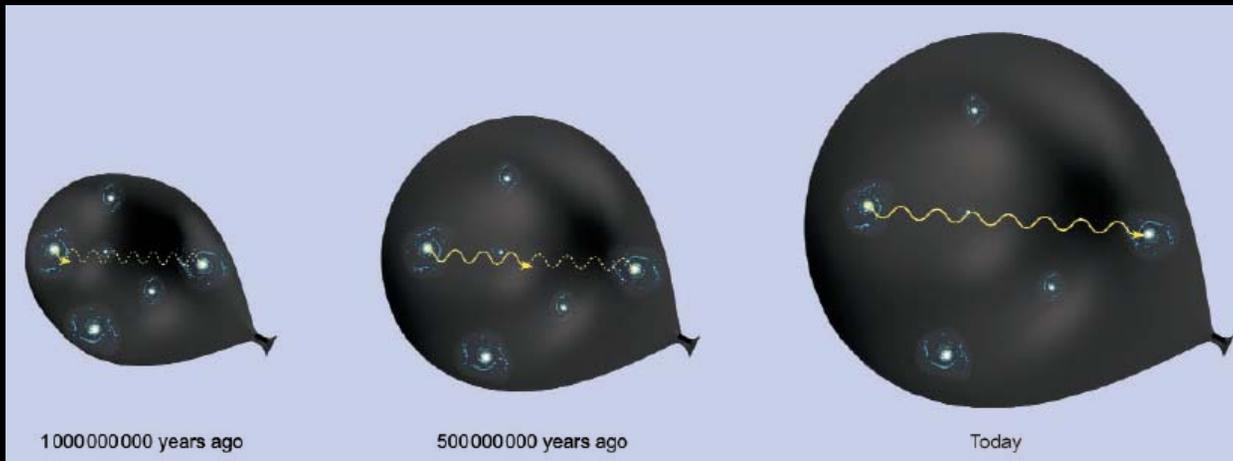
1915

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

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

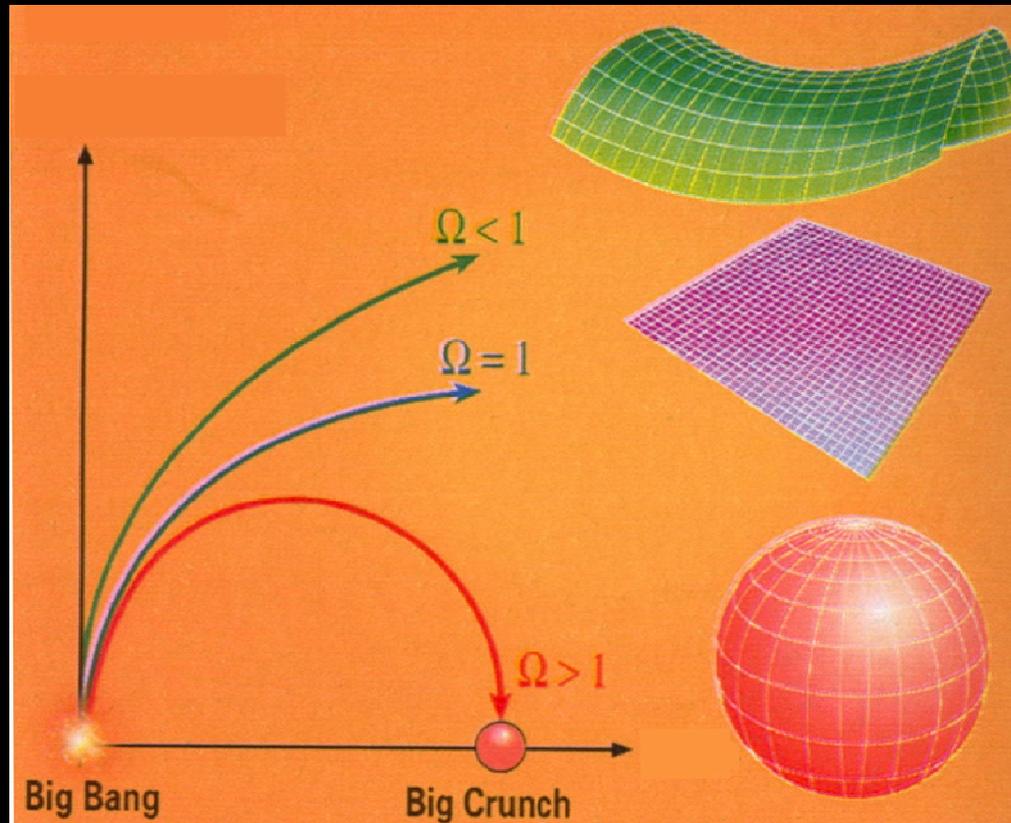
His equation relates the average energy density " ρ " and the curvature factor K with the expansion rate

$$\left(\frac{1}{a} \frac{da}{dt}\right)^2 = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \bar{\rho} - \frac{K}{a^2}$$



Universe

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)



Universe

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

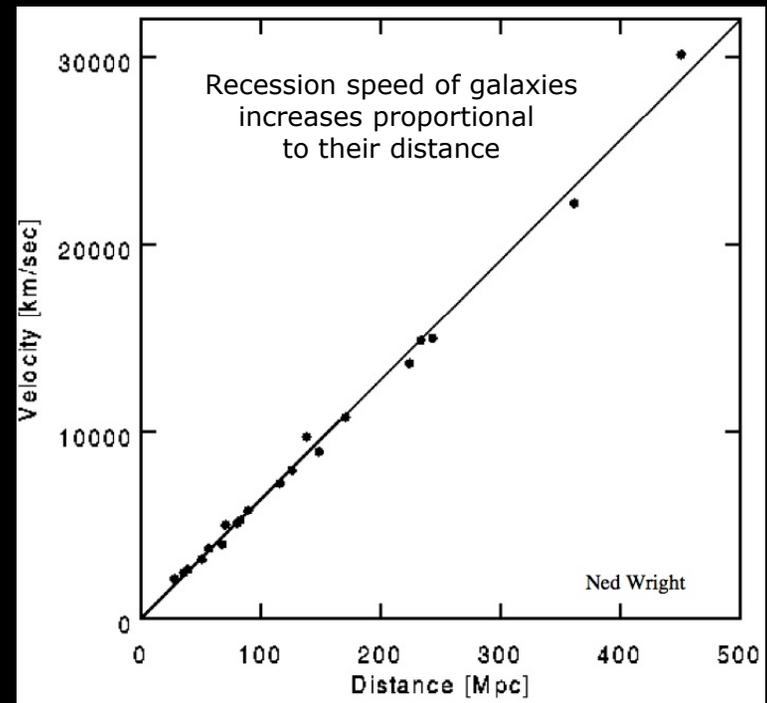
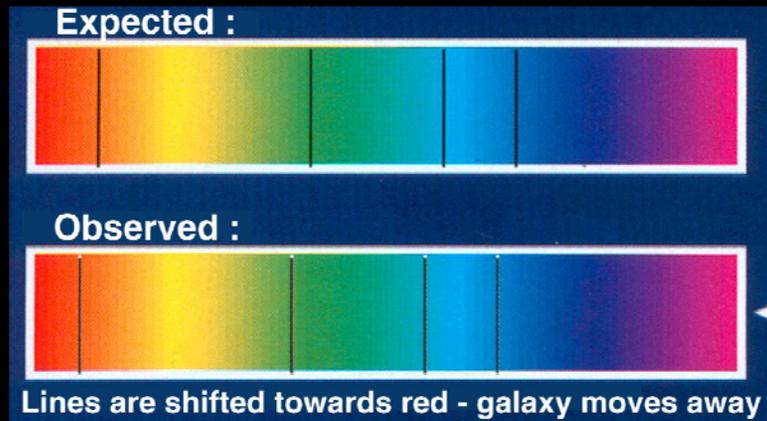
'cosmological constant'


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

Universe



Edwin Hubble (1929)
Mt. Palomar telescope



Einstein concedes: cosmological constant 'my biggest blunder'

Universe

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 %

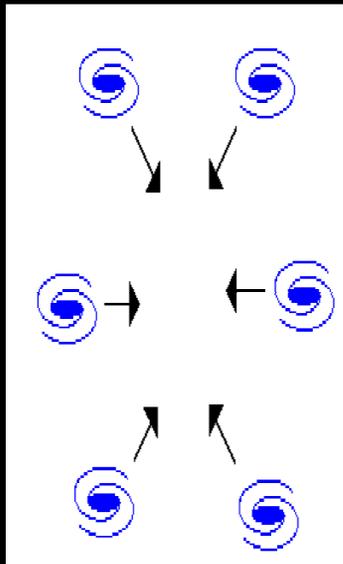
There must be a reason ...

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)

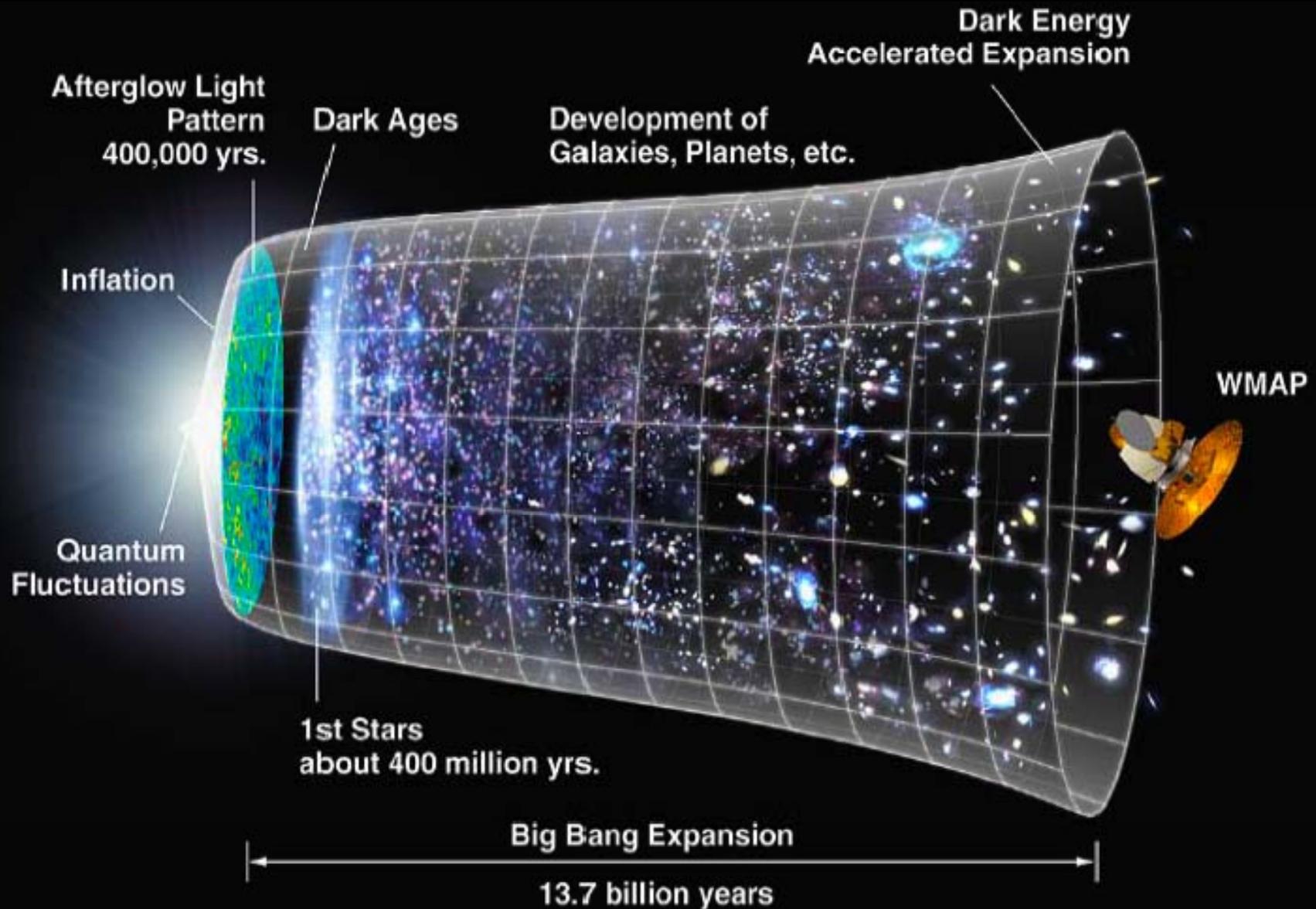


- In the first few minutes, there was just enough time to create the lightest elements
- There should be an 'echo' in form of a uniform black-body radiation ($T \sim 5 \text{ K}$)

* The name 'Big Bang' was used by Fred Hoyle to ridicule Gamov's idea. Later Fred Hoyle was ridiculed.

Today: Big Bang happened 13.7 ± 0.2 billion years ago

precise mathematical model - relates size, temperature to time



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e^-

Atom

Nucleus

p^+

n

e^+

μ^-

τ^-

ρ

ν_e

ν_μ

τ

ν_τ

ν mass

Brownian motion

Photon

Radio-activity

Special relativity

Quantum mechanics
Wave / particle
Fermions / Bosons

Dirac
Antimatter

Fermi Beta-Decay

Yukawa
 π exchange

5

6

Particle zoo

u d s

c b

STANDARD MODEL

t

QED

P, C, CP violation

Higgs

W bosons

GLU

EW unification

QCD
Colour

SUSY

Superstrings

W

Z

g

3 generations

Cosmic rays

General relativity

Galaxies; expanding universe

Dark Matter

Nuclear fusion

Big Bang Nucleosynthesis

Cosmic Microwave Background

Inflation

CMB Inhomogeneities (COBE, WMAP)

Dark Energy (?)

Geiger

Cloud

Cyclotron

Synchrotron

Bubble

e^+e^- collider

Wire chamber

Beam cooling

Online computers

p^+p^- collider

Modern detectors

WWW

GRID

μ^-

PARTICLE SPECTRUM

1937

1913: Cosmic Rays were discovered

Physicists went on mountain tops for experiments!

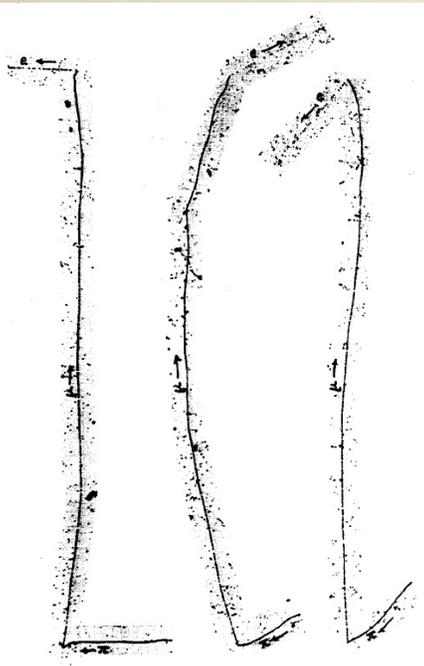
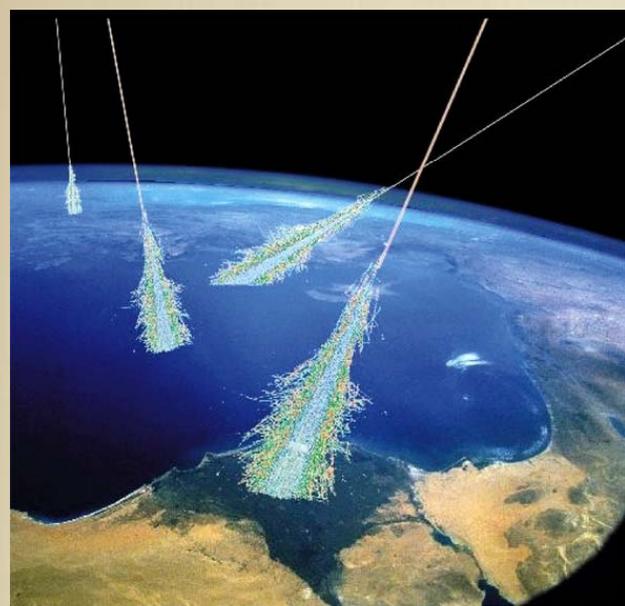
1937: New particle discovered: negative charge, $\sim 200 m_e$

Very long range in matter !? Not Yukawa's "pion" !

Muon = 'heavy electron'

I. Rabi: "Who ordered that ?"

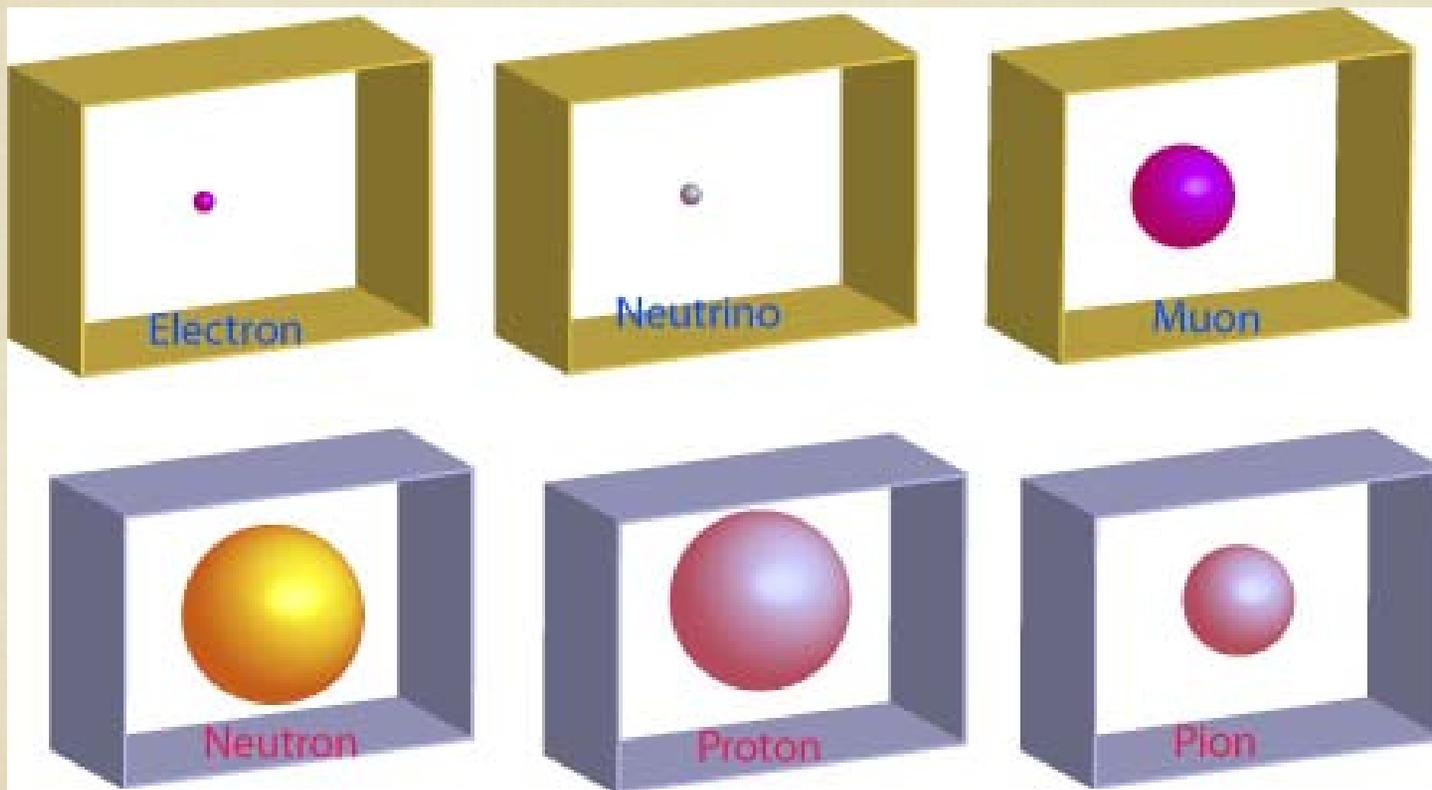
1948: The "pion" was finally discovered (emulsions)



PARTICLE SPECTRUM

1948

In 1948, the particle spectrum started to look ugly:



PARTICLE SPECTRUM

1931 - 1955

Accelerators

"Man-made cosmic rays"

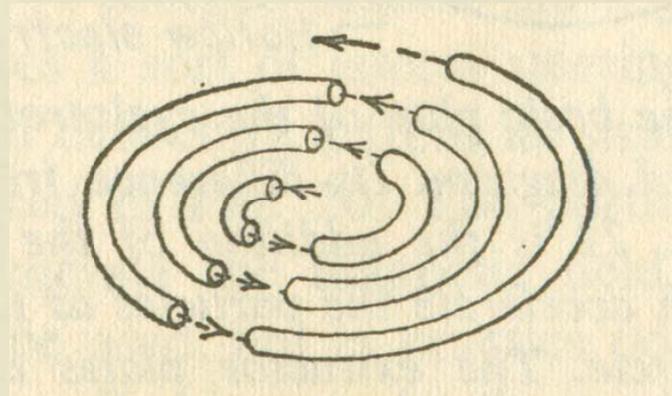


Rolf Wideroe, 1928

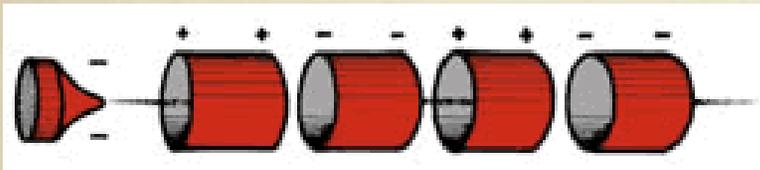
Scanned at the American Institute of Physics



Ernest Lawrence, 1931



Cyclotron



Linear accelerator

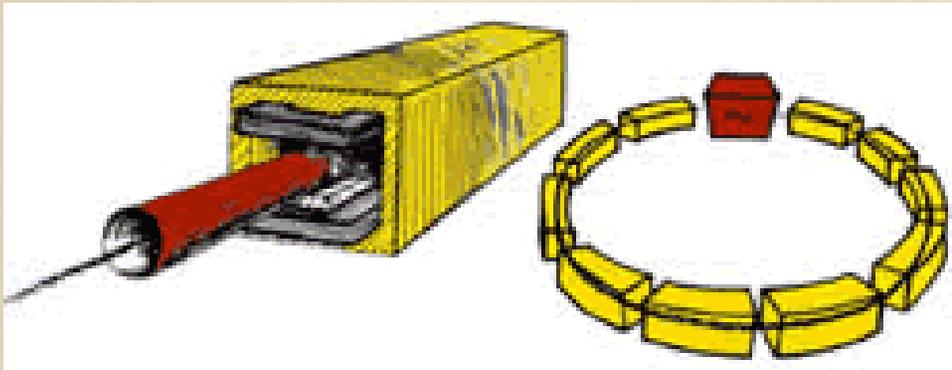
Accelerate particles between electrode gaps
Tune RF frequency to match particle motion

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

PARTICLE SPECTRUM

1950- 1968

Particle
zoo

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

π^+ π^- π^0

Pions

K^+ K^- K^0

Kaons

η'

Eta-Prime

η

Eta

ϕ

Phi

ρ^+ ρ^- ρ^0

Rho

Mesons

Δ^{++} , Δ^+ , Δ^0 , Δ^-

Delta

Λ^0

Σ^+ , Σ^0 , Σ^-

Lambda (strange!)

Sigma (strange!)

Ξ^0 , Ξ^-

Sigma(very strange!)

BARYONS

What was the underlying structure ?

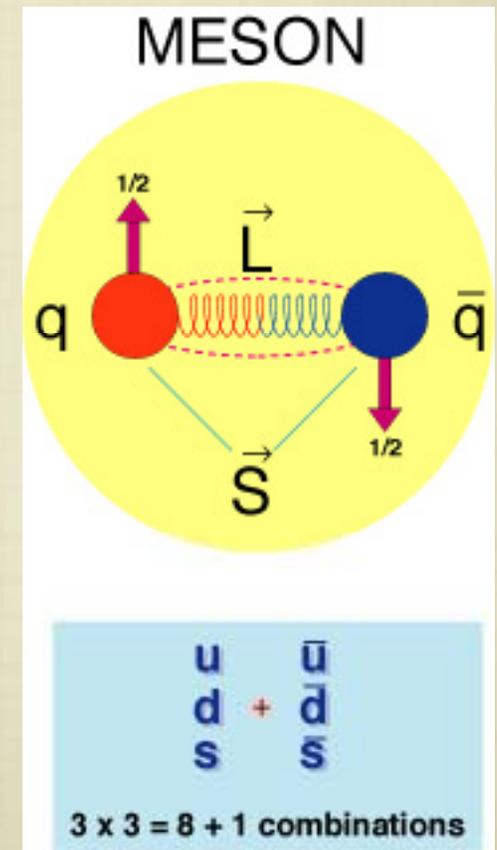
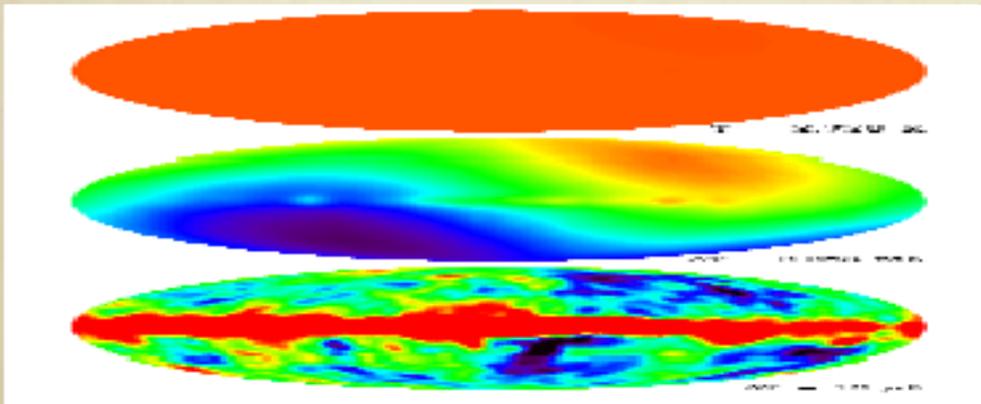
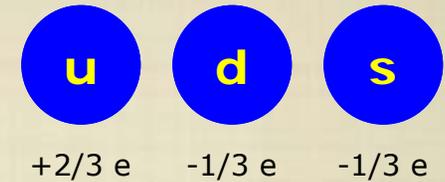
SU(3) - Classification scheme based on 'quarks'



Fig. 6.35 Murray Gell-Mann (b.1929).

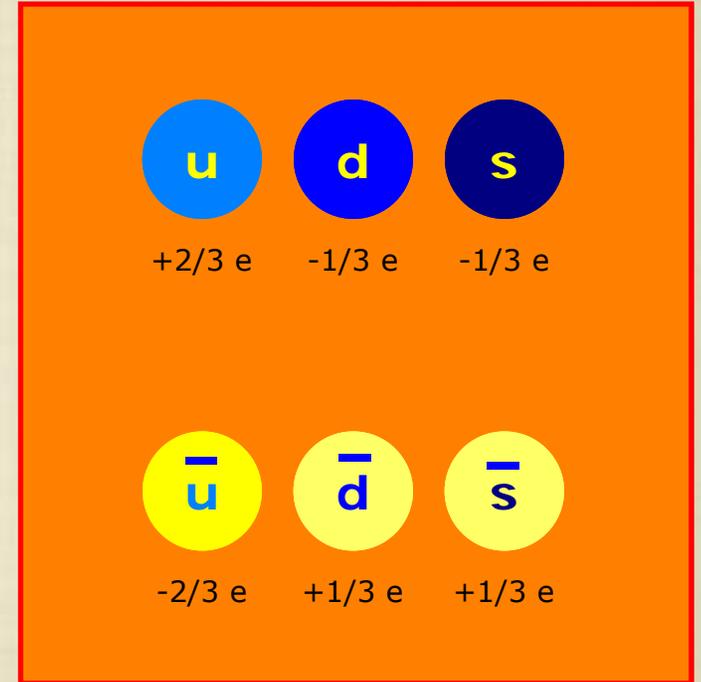
Gell-Mann, 1963
(G. Zweig, 1963, CERN)

- 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

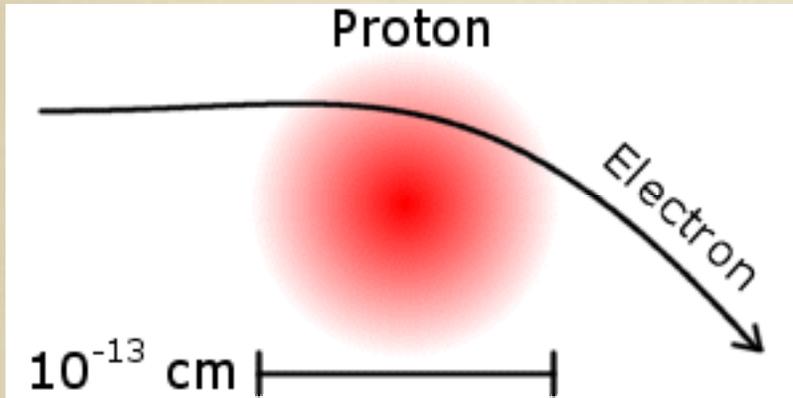
Some mesons (quark+antiquark):



PARTICLE SPECTRUM

Discovery of quarks

Electron-Proton scattering

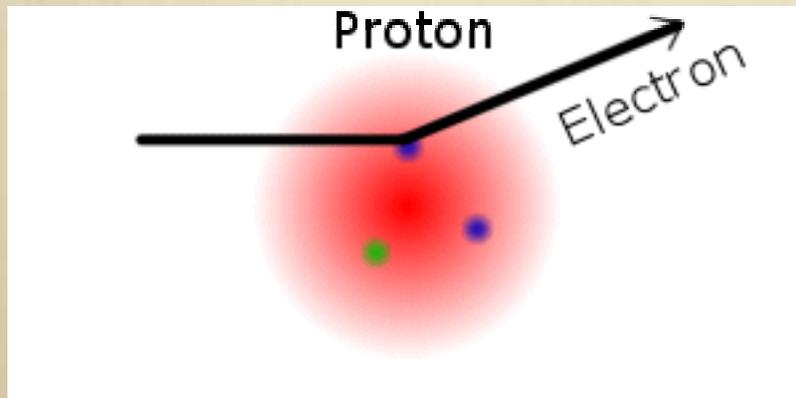


Stanford Linear Accelerator Centre

1956 Hofstadter: measured finite proton radius

1967 Friedmann, Kendall, Taylor (SLAC):

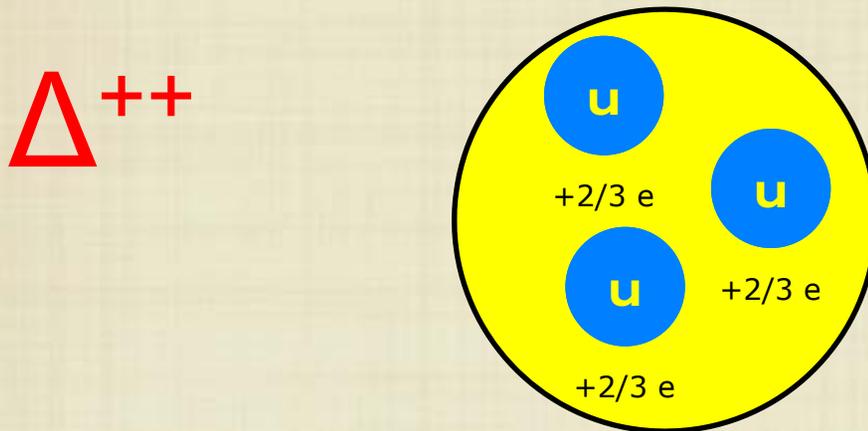
'hard scattering' of electron on three 'point-like particles'



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

The concept of "Colour" charge

PROBLEM: three fermions are not allowed to be in identical states (Pauli exclusion principle)



Since the three up-quarks must have parallel spin - there are in a symmetric state

The three quarks must be different in one quantum number: "colour"

(Bardeen, Fritzsche, Gell-Mann)

PARTICLE SPECTRUM

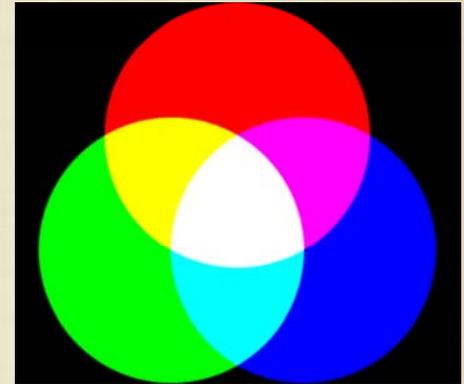
Quantum Chromo Dynamics

this has nothing to do with our visible colours, just an analogy

Theory constructed in analogy to QED

QCD: 3 different charges ("colour charge") [red, green, blue]*

'Strong force' between quarks is transmitted by (8) gluons



Dogma of QCD: Only colour-neutral bound states are allowed, explains:

MESONS = Quark-Antiquark

BARYONS = 3-Quark states

GLUONS CARRY COLOUR CHARGE : SELF-INTERACTION !

At low energies, approximately:

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

For small distances, the force decreases:
asymptotic freedom

