

# B

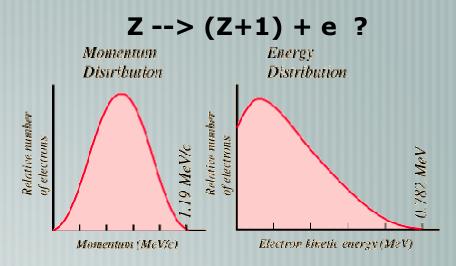
# Fields

#### 'Weak' interaction

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

### The "Weak Interaction" - Radioactivity

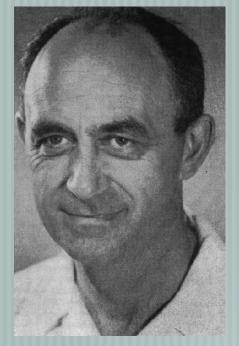
- 1896: Henri Becquerel discovered radiation from U crystals
- 1898: Marie and Pierre Curie : ionizing radiation from 'Pechblende' (U + Polonium)
- 1911: Continuous (?) energy spectrum of 'beta'-rays (electrons) energy conservation?

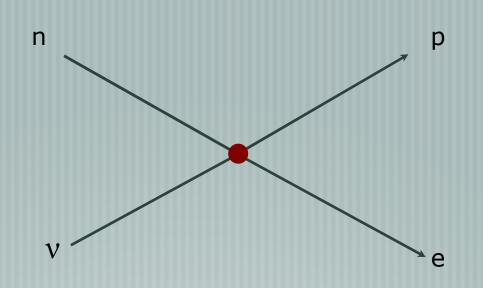


1930: Wolfgang Pauli postulates existence of 'neutrino':  $n \rightarrow p + e + V$ 

# 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?

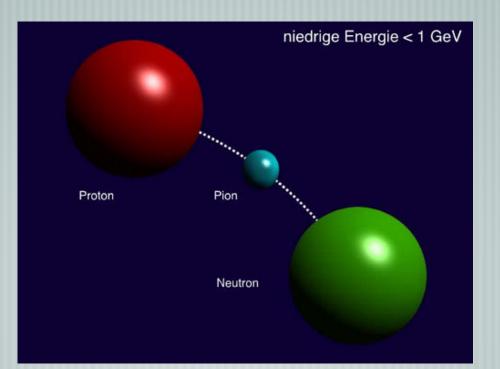
1) This force must be stronger than the electromagnetic repulsion

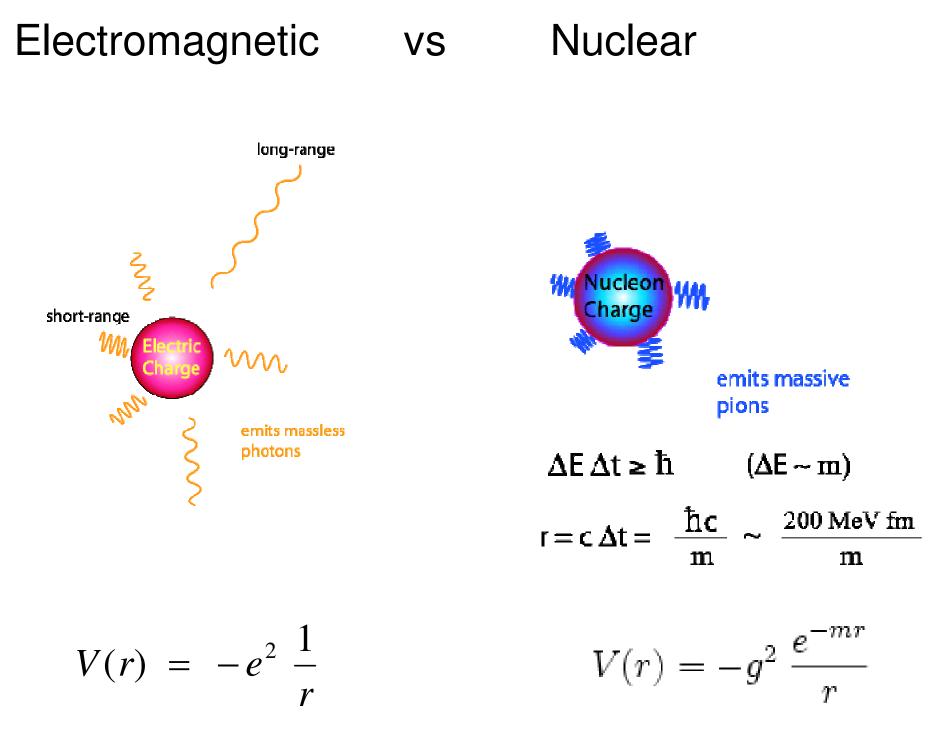
2) It must be of short range (~ 1-2 fm) to explain the size of nuclei

Yukawa's idea:

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

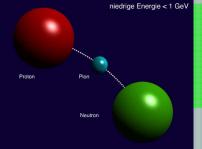
Yukawa (1934)





Coulomb law

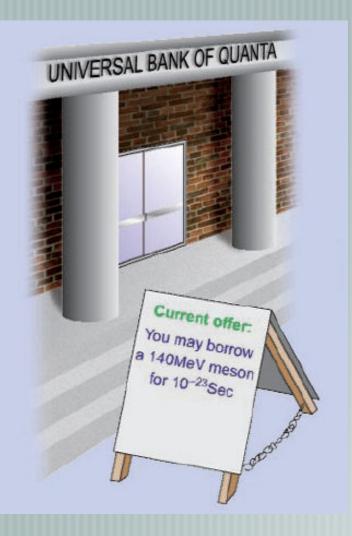
Yukawa potential ~ Modified "Coulomb" law





#### **`Strong' interaction**

Metaphors for 'particle exchange'





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



# **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"** 

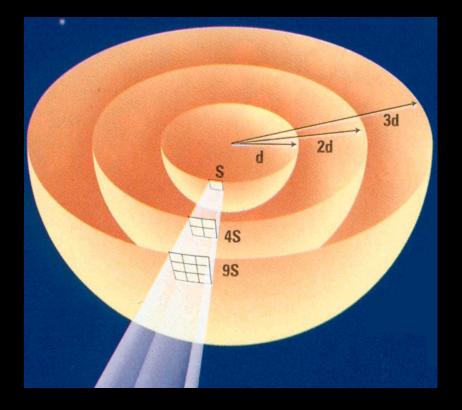
#### Heinrich Wilhelm Olbers (1823)

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:

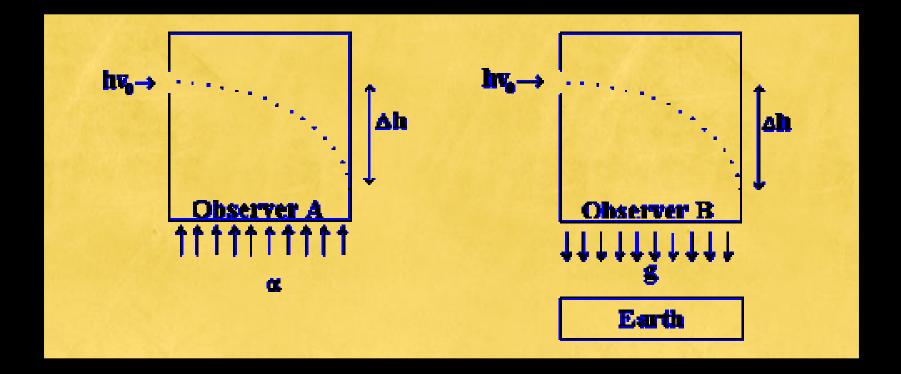
Each shell contributes ~  $r^2$ The light decreases with ~1/ $r^2$ Light contribution from each shell = constant

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



1907

### **Equivalence Principle**



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

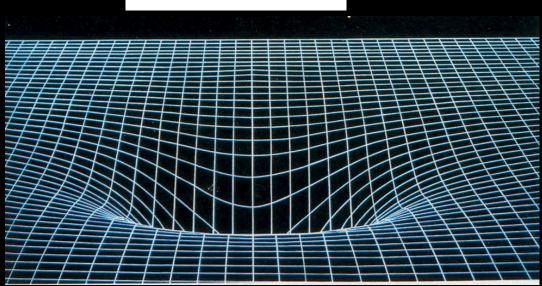
"The happiest thought of my life" (Albert Einstein)

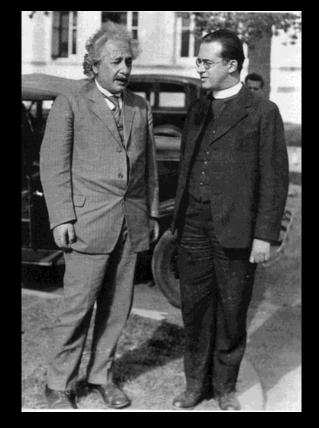
Light rays define the shortest path in space. Accelerated elevator: light follows follows a parabolic path Gravitational field: light path must be bent ! Space and time must be curved

Albert Einstein (1912-15) : General Relativity

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

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





George Lemaitre (1927)

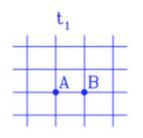
The whole Universe expands

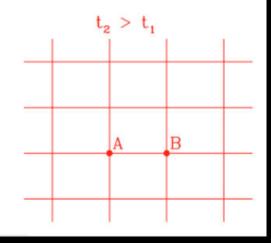
Friedmann described the expansion of the Universe using a scale factor a(t)

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

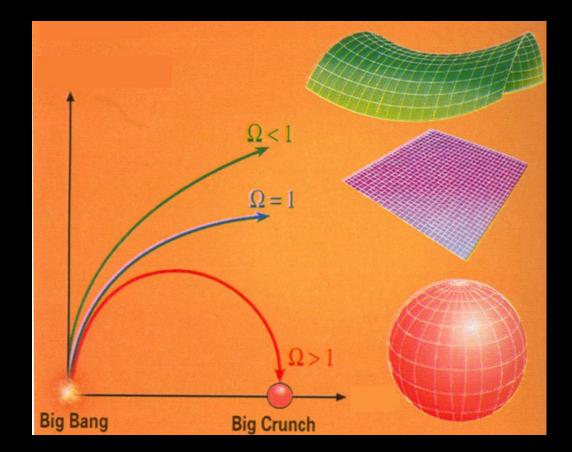
$$(rac{1}{a}rac{da}{dt})^2=rac{8\pi G}{3}ar{
ho}-rac{K}{a^2}$$

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





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

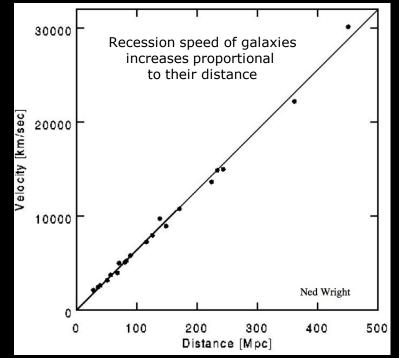
cosmological constant

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



Edwin Hubble (1929) Mt. Palomar telescope





#### Einstein concedes: cosmological constant 'my biggest blunder'

Observation of many stars and galaxies revealed an amazing fact:

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

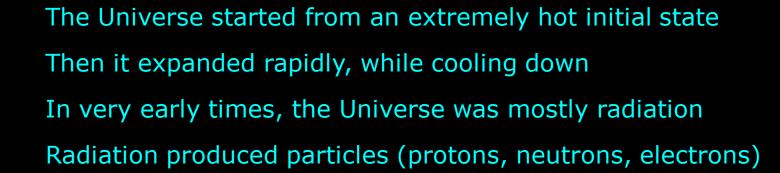
Hydrogen ~ 75 % Helium-4 ~ 25 % He-3 ~ 0.003 % Deuterium ~ 0.003 % Li-7 ~ 0.0000002 %

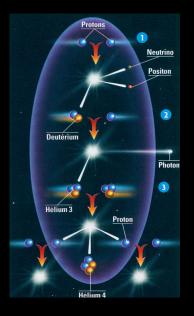
There must be a reason ...

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



George Gamov



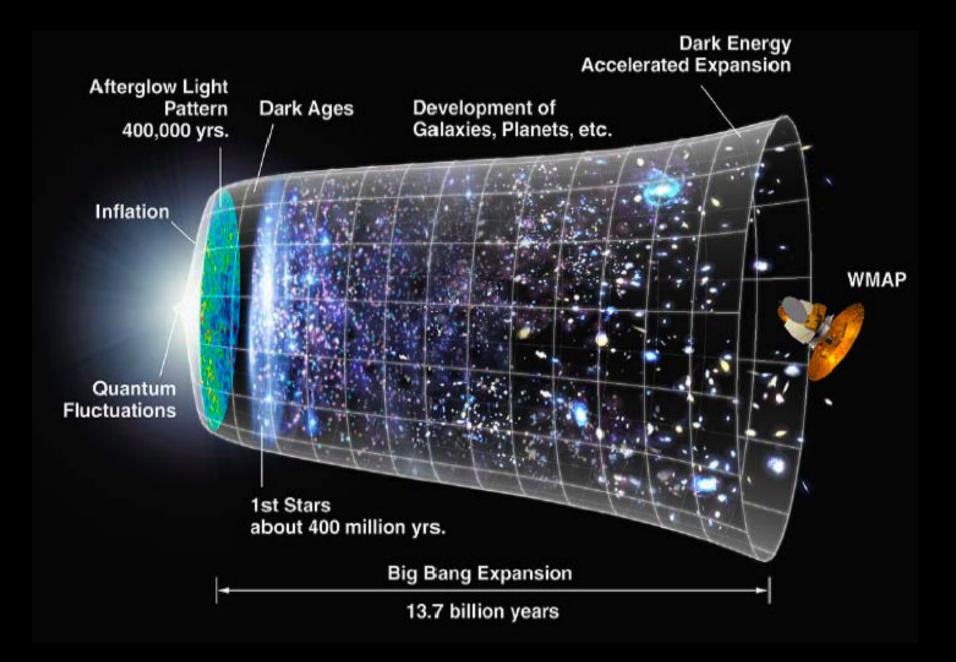


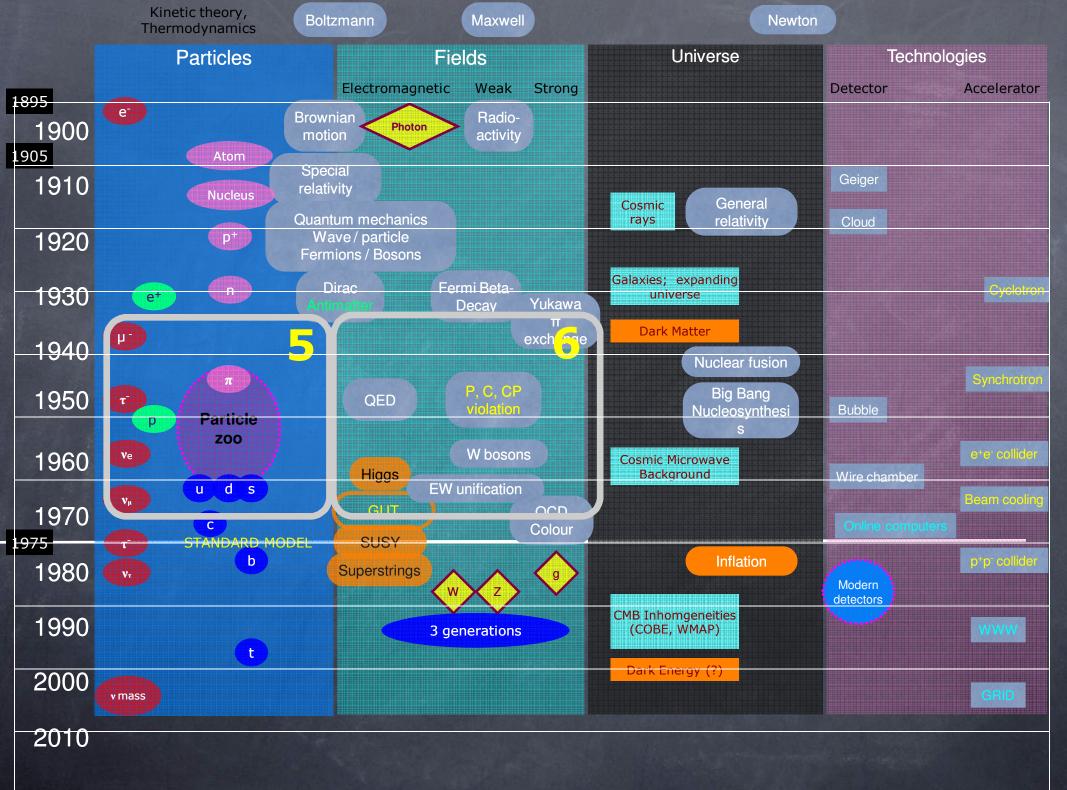
- In the first few minutes, there was just enough time to create the lightest elements
- There should be an 'echo' in form of a uniform black-body radiation (T ~ 5 K)

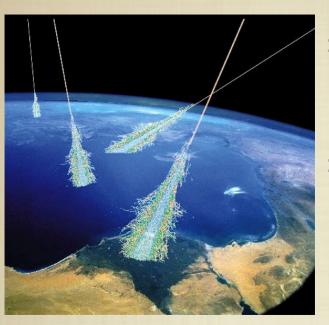
\* The name 'Big Bang' was used by Fred Hoyle to ridicule Gamov's idea. Later Fred Hoyle was ridiculed.

# Today: Big Bang happened $13.7 \pm 0.2$ billion years ago

precise mathematical model - relates size, temperature to time







U

1913: Cosmic Rays were discovered

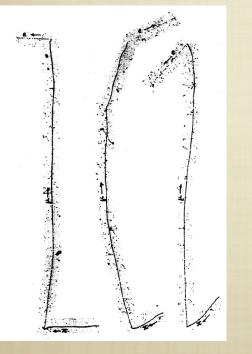
**Physicists went on mountain tops for experiments!** 

1937: New particle discovered: negative charge,  $\sim 200 \text{ m}_e$ Very longe range in matter !? Not Yukawa's "pion" !

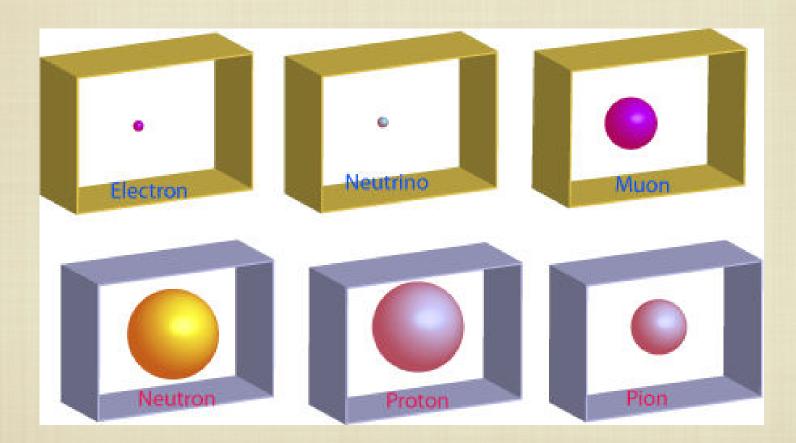
Muon = 'heavy electron'

I. Rabi: "Who ordered that ?"

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



### In 1948, the particle spectrum started to look ugly:



#### 1931 - 1955



#### Accelerators

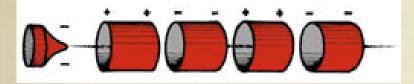
"Man-made cosmic rays"

Rolf Wideroe, 1928

Ernest Lawrence, 1931

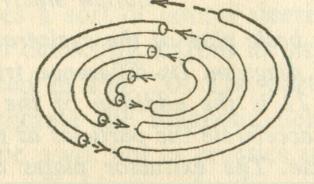


Scanned at the American Institute of Physics



#### Linear accelerator

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



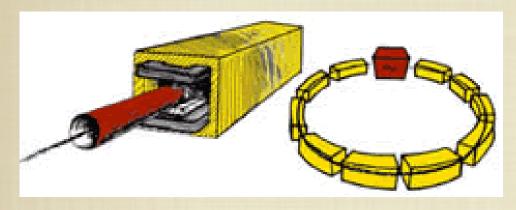
Cyclotron

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)

#### **Detectors**

Geiger counters Cloud chambers Emulsions Bubble chambers Cerenkov counters Photomultipliers Spark chambers

#### After 1967:

Wire chambers Drift chambers Calorimeters

#### **1947: US constructs two 'synchrotrons'**

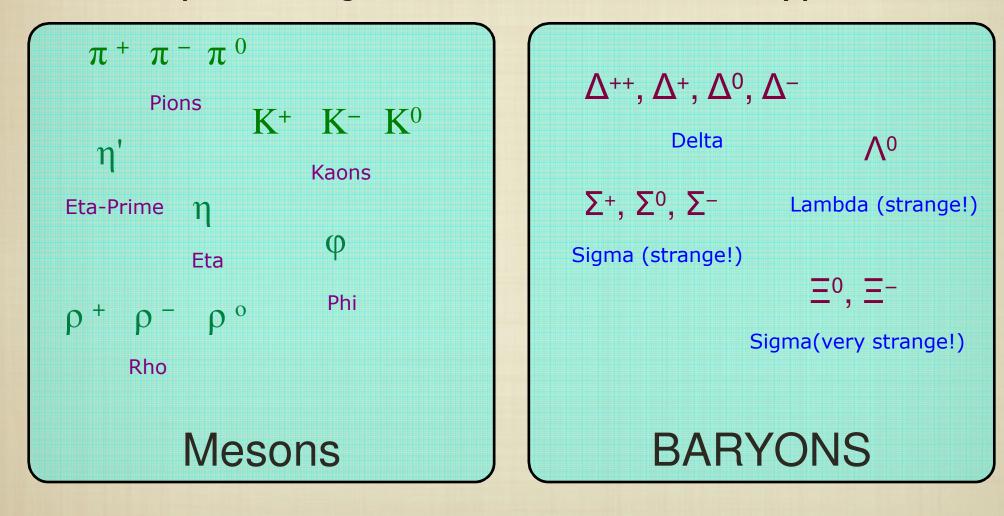
Brookhaven (1952) - 3 GeV Berkeley (1954) - 6.2 GeV ('antiproton')

#### **1954: Europe competes with US**

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



the "particle zoo" grew to more than ~ 200 'elementary particles'



What was the underlying structure ?

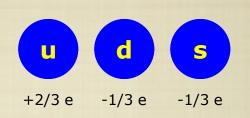
#### SU(3) - Classification scheme based on 'quarks'

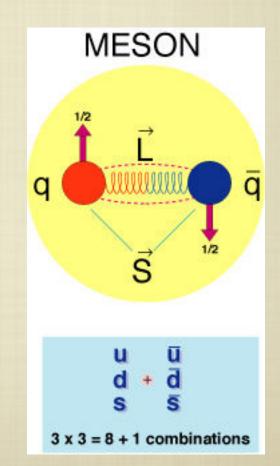


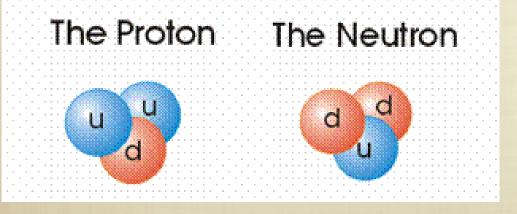
Fig. 6.35 Murray Gell-Mann (b.1929).

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

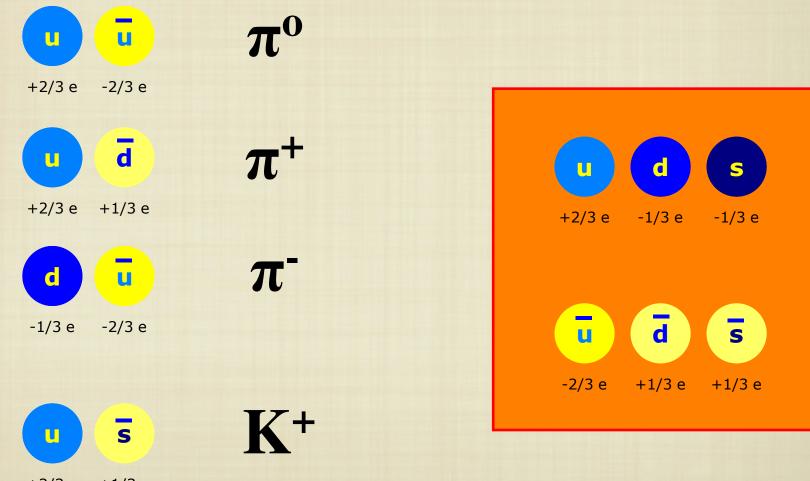
- 1) 3 types of "quarks" : up, down, strange
- 2) Carry electric charges: +2/3, -1/3, -1/3
- 3) Appear in combinations:Meson = quark+antiquarkBaryon = quark(1) + quark(2) + quark(3)







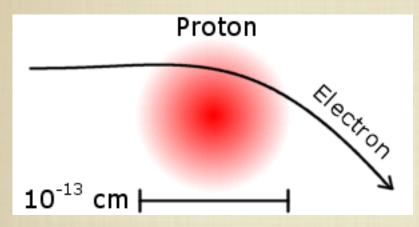
Some mesons (quark+antiquark):



+2/3 e +1/3 e

### **Discovery of quarks**

**Electron-Proton scattering** 

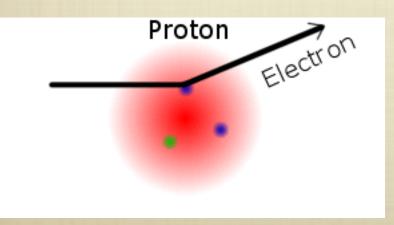


1956 Hofstadter: measured finite proton radius



Stanford Linear Accelerator Centre

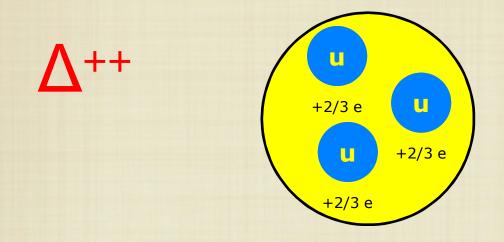
#### **1967 Friedmann, Kendall, Taylor (SLAC):** 'hard scattering' of electron on three 'point-like particles'



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

#### 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, Fritzsch, Gell-Mann)

1973

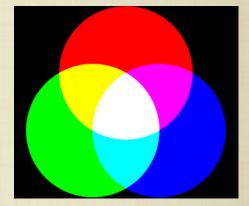
# Quantum Chromo Dynamics

Theory constructed in analogy to QED

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

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

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



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

MESONS = Quark-Antiquark BARYONS = 3-Quark states

#### **GLUONS CARRY COLOUR CHARGE : SELF-INTERACTION !**



<mark>Quarks</mark> carry a color



Anti-quarks carry an anti-color



At low energies, approximately:

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

1973

For small distances, the force decreases: asymptotic freedom

