HISTORY OF PARTICLE PHYSICS

in the 20th century

Rolf Landua CERN

Lecture 1 - From the electron to the particle zoo

DISCLAIMER

This is a lecture about the history of particle physics. It covers about 100 years of ideas, theories and experiments.

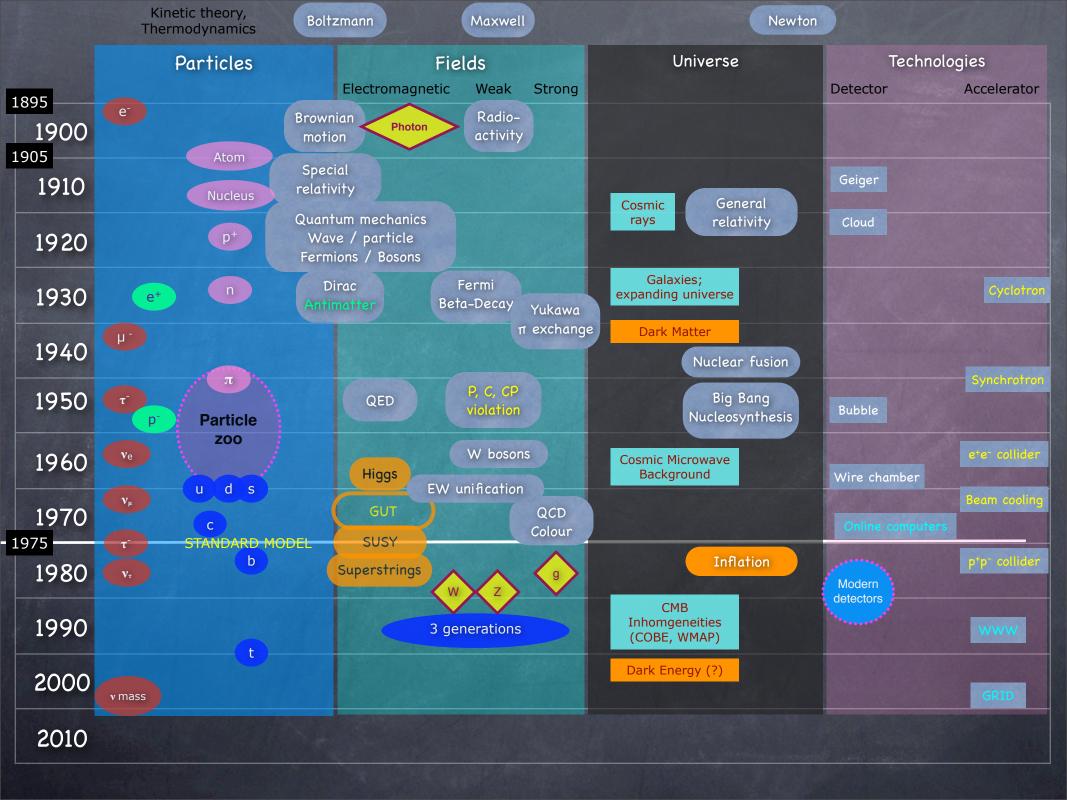
More than 50 Nobel prize winners on particle physics

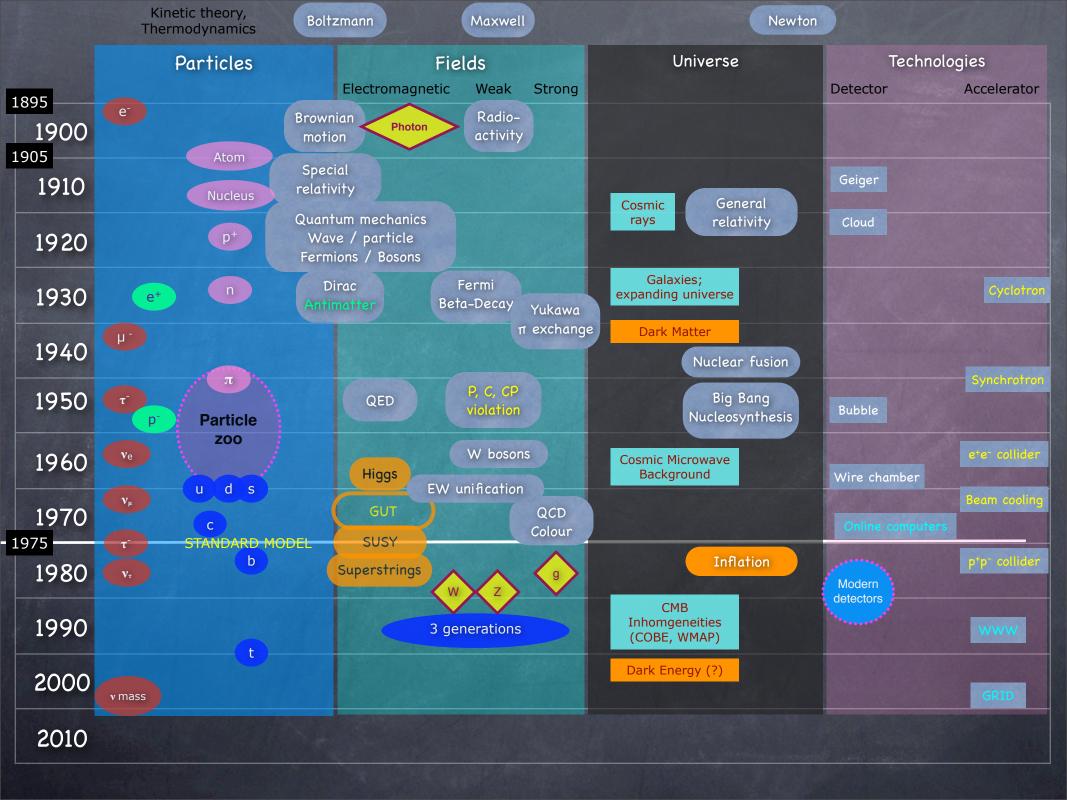
Very difficult to be comprehensive, exact or in-depth

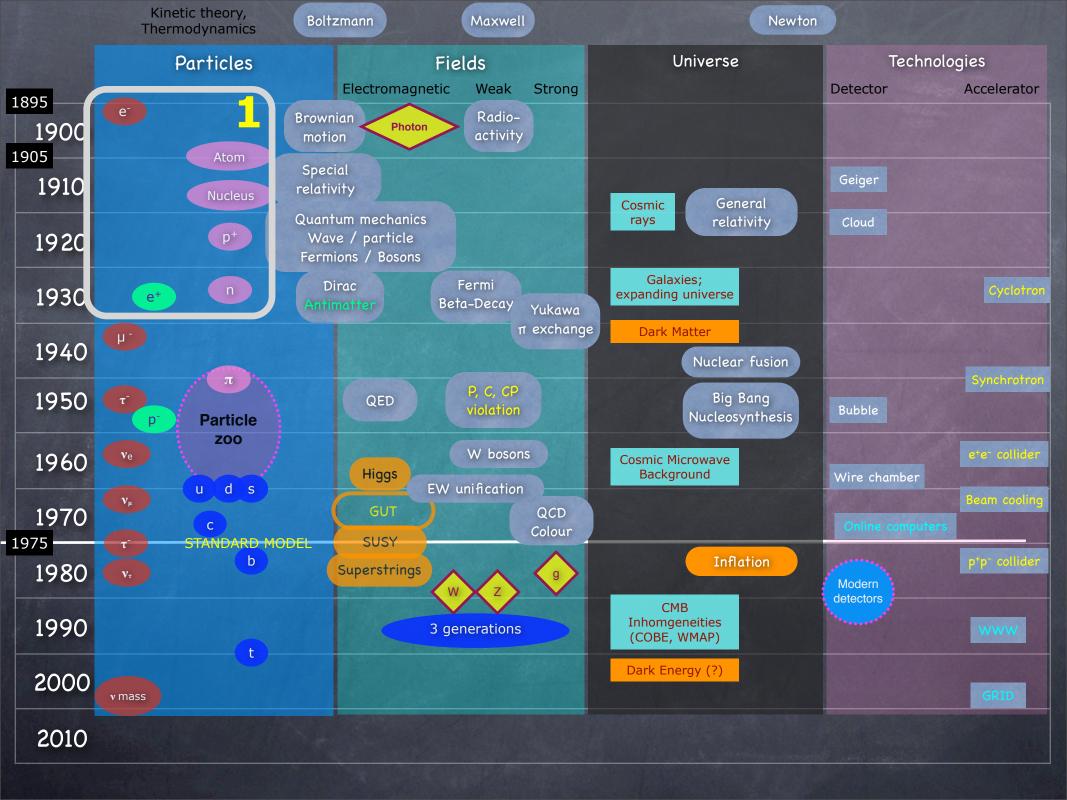
Overview ('road map') about HST programme

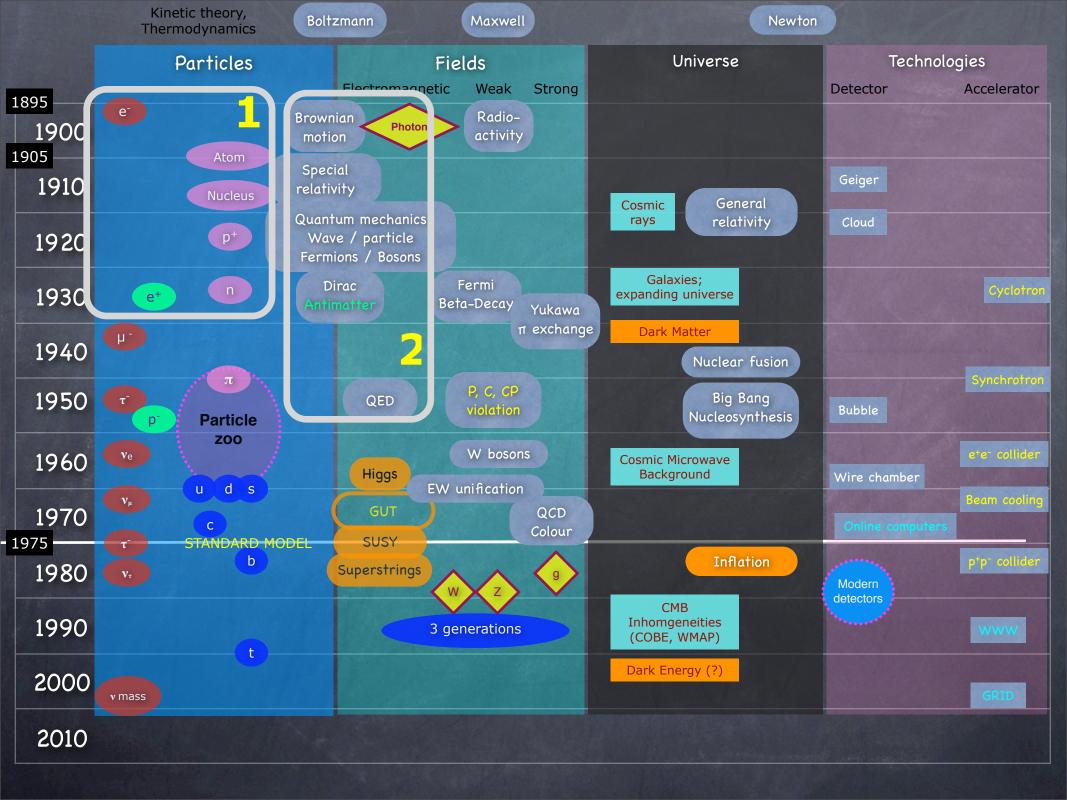
All that remains to do in physics is to fill in the sixth decimal place

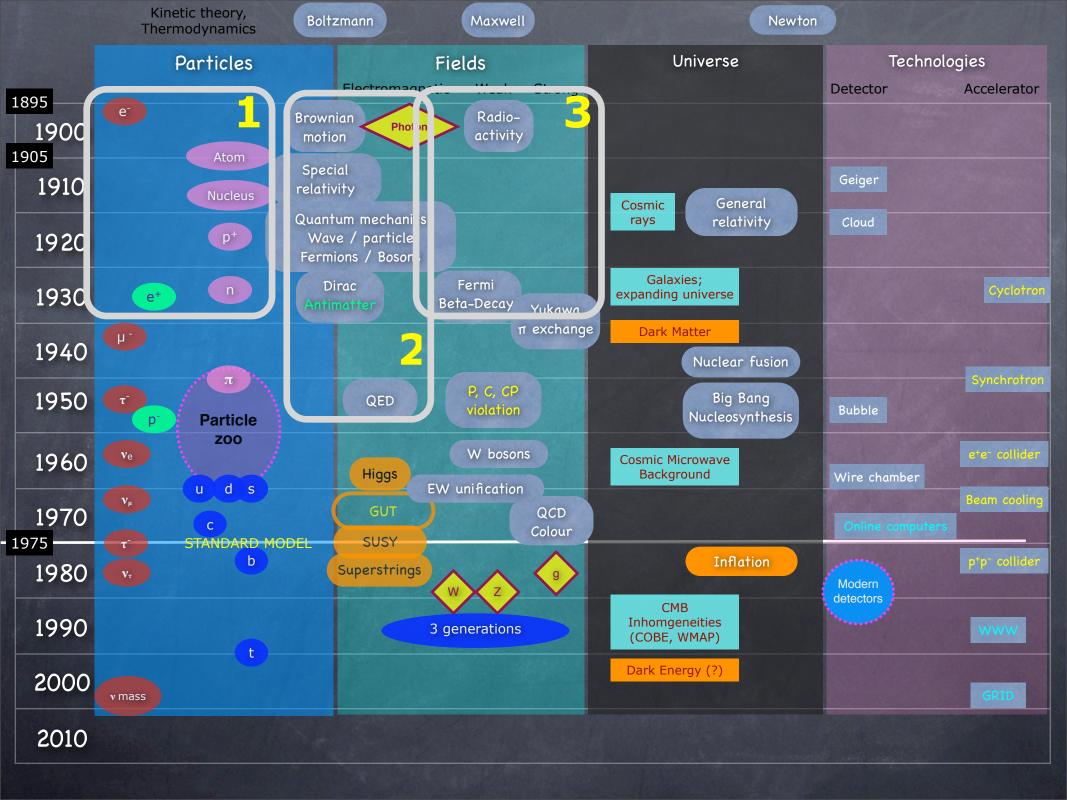
(Albert Michelson, 1894)

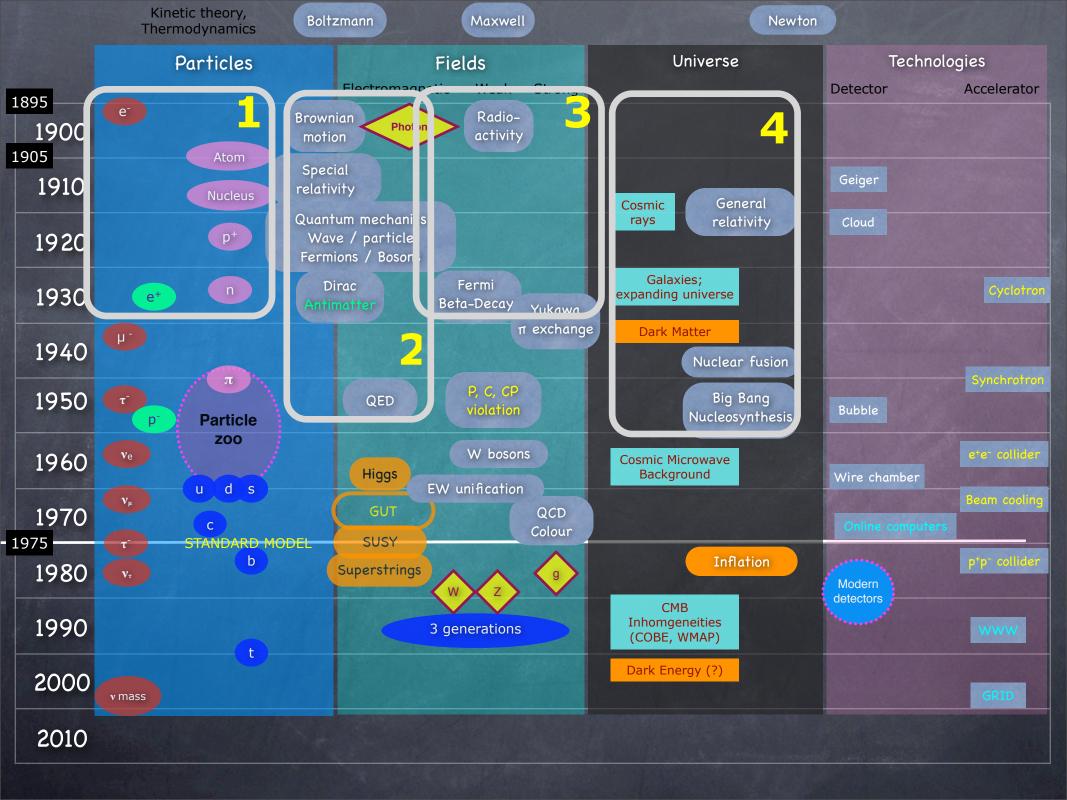




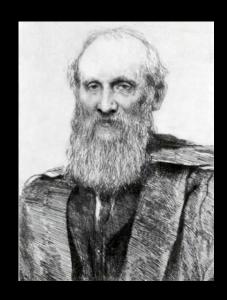








In the early 1900s, most physicists believed that physics was complete, described by classical mechanics, thermodynamics, and the Maxwell theory.



William Thomson (Lord Kelvin)

Address to the British Association for the Advancement of Science, 1900

There is nothing new to be discovered in physics now, All that remains is more and more precise measurement.
(Lord Kelvin, 1900)

But Lord Kelvin also mentioned two 'clouds' on the horizon of physics:

- 1) Blackbody radiation
- 2) Michelson-Morley experiment

1900

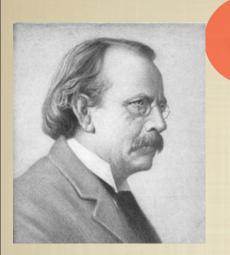
Universe = solar system and the stars of our galaxy

Nobody knew how the sun produced its energy

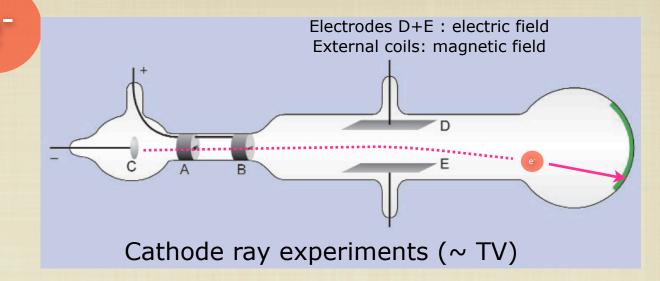
Nothing was known the structure of atoms and nuclei

Only two known fields: gravitation, electromagnetism

Nobody anticipated the incredible journey of physics in the next 100 years



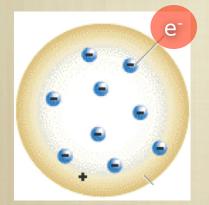
J.J. Thomson





'Rays' are charged corpuscles* with unique charge/mass ratio

*later called 'electrons'



His 'plumpudding' model of the atom (1904)

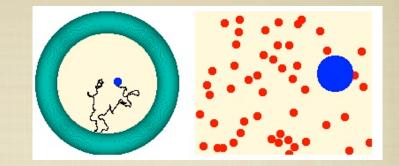


Electrons are sub-atomic particles!

PARTICLE SPECTRUM

Atom

Robert Brown (1827) observes random walk of small particles suspended in a fluid





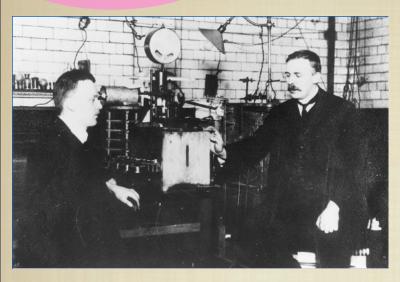
Albert Einstein (1905) explains by kinetic theory that the motion is due to the bombardment by molecules

François Perrin (1907) uses Einstein's formula to confirm the theory and measure Avogadro's number

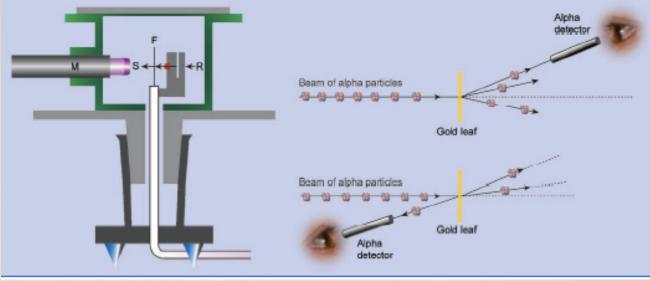
$$\langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{2kTt}{\alpha} = \frac{kTt}{3\pi\eta a}$$



The existence of atoms was proven



Ernest Rutherford (r) and Hans Geiger (I) in Manchester



Geiger and Marsden fired alpha particles (He nuclei) on gold foils

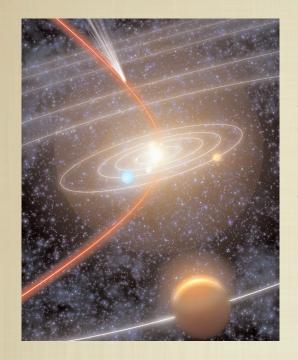
1 in 8000 alpha particles were backscattered (> 90 deg)

This could not be explained by the 'plumpudding model'

Rutherford's explanation: all the mass of the atom is concentrated in the nucleus

Size: At minimum distance, Coulomb repulsion = kinetic energy: ~ 27 ×10⁻¹⁵ m (true value: 7.3)

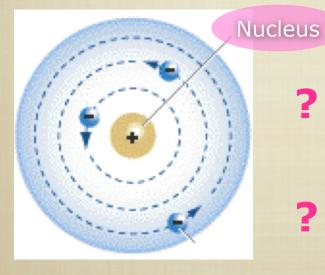




Analogy with solar system:

If the nucleus had the size of the Sun

the electrons would orbit in 1000 x the distance of Sun-Earth



Rutherford's model of the "empty" atom

- ? How can electrons orbit a nucleus without radiating their energy?
- ? What is the nucleus made of ?



J. J. Balmer (1885) observed the emission spectrum of hydrogen



His empirical formula:
$$\lambda = \frac{hm^2}{(m^2 - n^2)}$$

Niels Bohr visited Rutherford in 1913

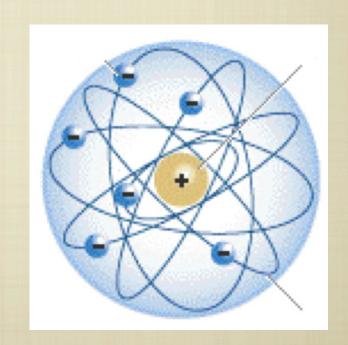
he was the first to apply quantum ideas to atoms

Quantization of angular momentum -> energy levels

$$\mathbf{L} = n \cdot \hbar = n \cdot \frac{h}{2\pi} \qquad E_n = \frac{-13.6 \text{ eV}}{n^2}$$

$$E_n = \frac{-13.6 \text{ eV}}{n^2}$$

- Emission of radiation only during transitions
- Energy of photons = difference of energy levels



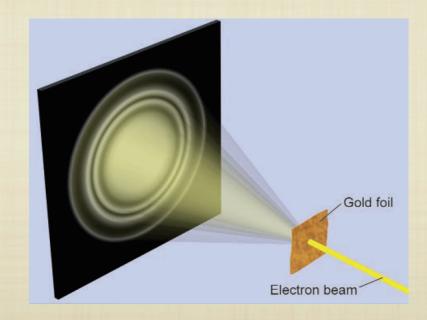
It took 10 more years to understand the mysterious rules governing the atomic world: quantum mechanics.



Louis de Broglie (1924)

Particles behave like waves





*this hypothesis was confirmed in 1927 by electron diffraction (Davisson/Germer)



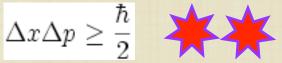
Uncertainty relation

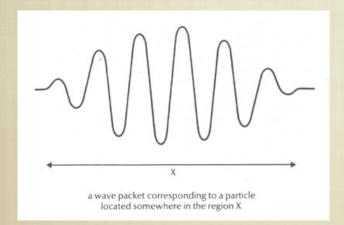
If particles are waves (of finite size), then there must be a limit to the precision of measurement between:

Heisenberg (1925)

Position and momentum

$$\Delta x \Delta p \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$$





Analogy:

Measurement time Δt of a signal leads to uncertainty of frequency (Fourier transform):

 $\Delta f \times \Delta t \sim 1$

Energy and time

$$\Delta E \Delta t \geq \hbar$$



Schrödinger 1926

Probability wave function

Excellent description if v << c

If particles are waves -> describe by a wave equation

$$H\psi\left(\mathbf{r},t\right)=\left(T+V\right)\,\psi\left(\mathbf{r},t\right)=\left[-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2m}\nabla^{2}+V\left(\mathbf{r}\right)\right]\psi\left(\mathbf{r},t\right)=\mathrm{i}\hbar\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t}\left(\mathbf{r},t\right)$$

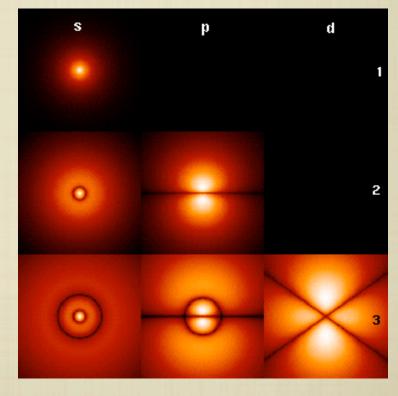


Interference: $\psi = \text{complex function}$

Interpretation (Bohr, 1927):

 ψ = probability amplitude

 $|\psi|^2$ = probability



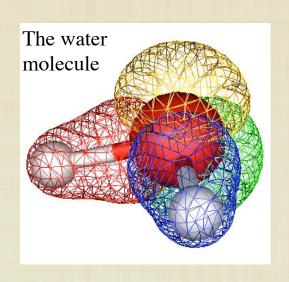
Electron wave functions in hydrogen atom ('standing 3-dim waves')

Quantum physics explained the existence of 'structure' in nature



Linus Pauling (1928)

The nature of chemical bonds





Atoms, Molecules and the origin of structure were understood.

And the atomic nucleus? Not much progress between 1911 - 1932.



What is the nucleus made of?

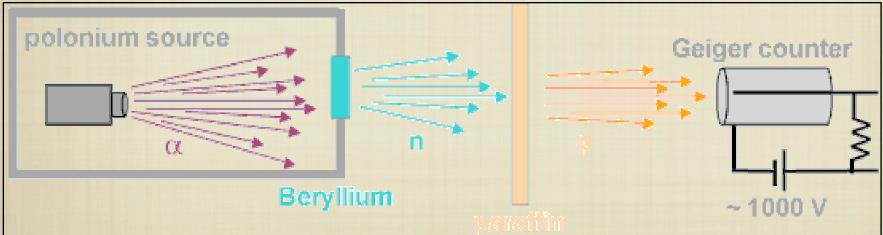
For example: He-4 has only Z=2; what are the other two units of mass due to ?

Heisenberg: Protons and electrons (4 protons and 2 electrons)?

Did not work - the uncertainty relation forbids the presence of electrons in the nucleus!

Chadwick (1932): Neutron



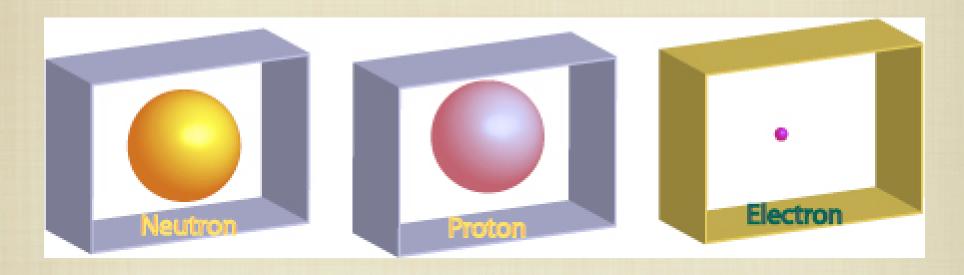


From kinematics: Mass of neutron ~ mass of proton

What keeps everything together? Strong short-range interaction?

PARTICLE SPECTRUM

Fundamental particle spectrum (1932)



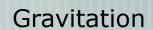
What holds atoms and nuclei together?

1900: two fundamental interactions were known:

$$F_G = G m_1 m_2 \cdot \frac{1}{r^2}$$

$$F_C = Q_1 Q_2 \cdot \frac{1}{r^2}$$





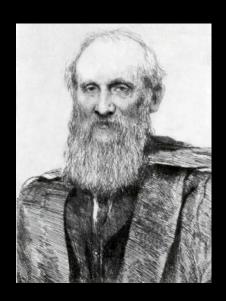


Electromagnetism

Similarities: both have inverse square dependence on radius

Differences: the strength of the forces is vastly different (38 orders of magnitude!)

Remember: in 1900, there were two 'clouds' on the horizon of physics:



William Thomson (Lord Kelvin)

Two clouds:

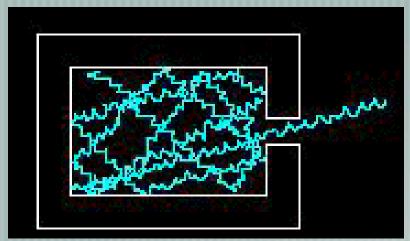
- 1) Blackbody radiation
- 2) Michelson-Morley experiment

Their understanding would lead to

- quantum theory
- relativity



Blackbody radiation



classical theory experiment

Emission spectrum

Frequency

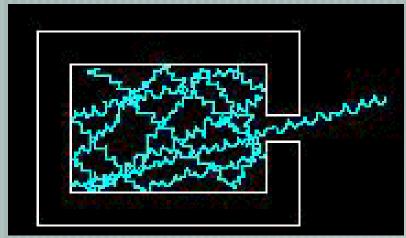
"Black body" absorbs all incoming light; re-emits thermal equlibrium radiation

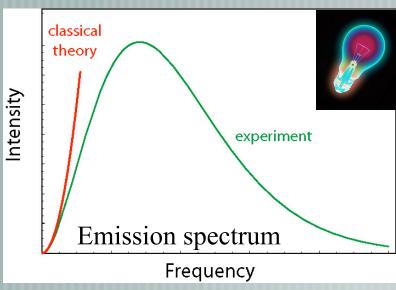
"Radiation function" = f(T) only

Ok for 'low' temperatures (Jeans law)



Blackbody radiation





"Black body" absorbs all incoming light; re-emits thermal equlibrium radiation

"Radiation function" = f(T) only

$$I(v) \sim v^2 < E >$$

average energy of oscillators (proportional to temperature)

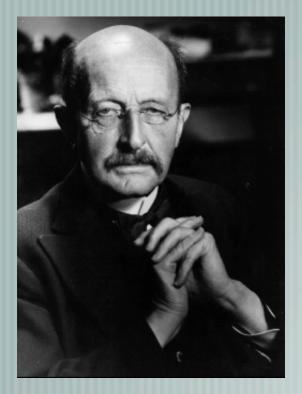
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'Electromagnetic' interaction

An "Act of Desperation"

14 December 1900



Max Planck

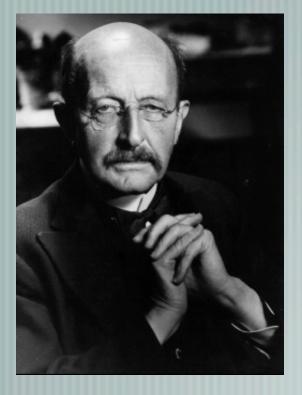


'Electromagnetic' interaction

An "Act of Desperation"

Oscillators (in the wall of the black body) emit 'finite energy elements ' \in = h \vee

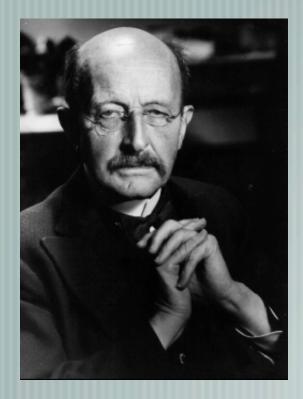
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An "Act of Desperation"

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Fields

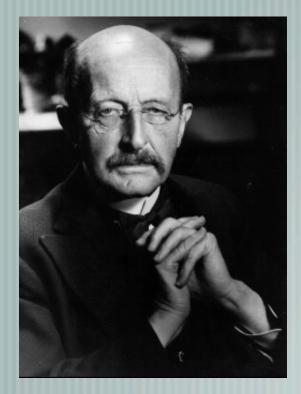
Higher frequency means bigger chunks, so it is less likely to find E >> kT average energy

$$I(v) \sim v^2 \frac{hv}{e^{\frac{hv}{kT}} - 1}$$
 of oscillators

of oscillators



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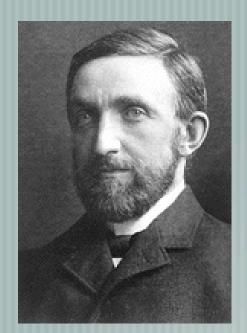
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$$I(v) \sim v^2 \frac{hv}{e^{\frac{hv}{kT}} - 1}$$

h = new fundamental constant



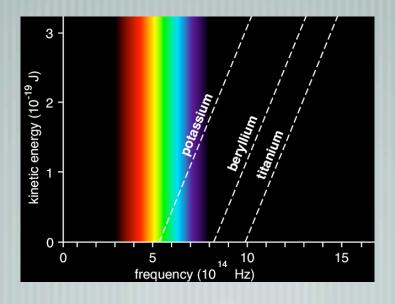


Philipp von Lenard

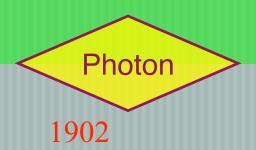
The photoelectric effect

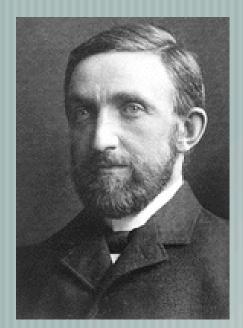
Cathode rays (electrons) are produced by shining light on metal surfaces.

Classical expectation: Energy of light proportional to square of its amplitude ~ electron energy



Energy proportional to light **frequency** (slope = "h")



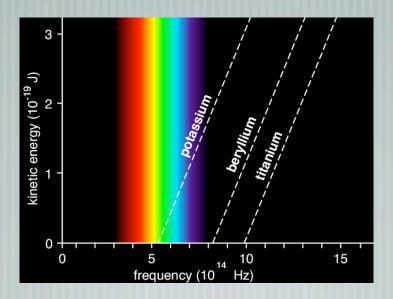


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Energy proportional to light **frequency** (slope = "h")

"The electron energy does not show the slightest dependence on the light intensity"



"My only revolutionary contribution"

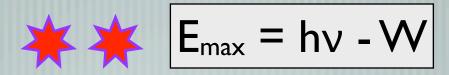
17 March 1905



Albert Einstein

"On a Heuristic Viewpoint Concerning the Production and Transformation of Light"

Light is emitted and absorbed in quanta



"A light quantum gives all its energy to a single electron."

(only proven experimentally by Compton in 1917)

Reactions to the 'Light-Quantum Hypothesis'

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Planck (1906)

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Einstein (1955)

All these 50 years of pondering have not brought me any closer to answering the question:
"WHAT ARE LIGHT QUANTA?"

Special relativity

Einstein had thought about the 'medium' for electromagnetic waves

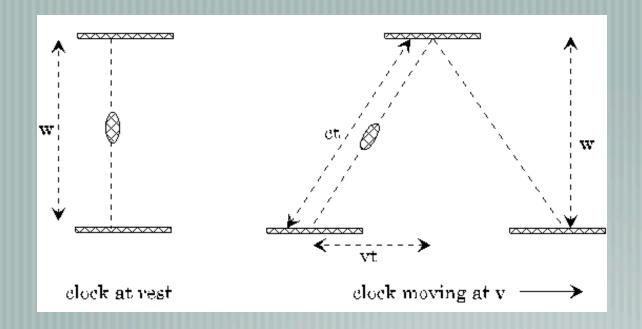
How could the speed of light be the same in all inertial frames?

His postulates:

- 1) Speed of light = constant;
- 2) all inertial frames are equivalent

His conclusions:

Since c = const, and speed = (space interval/time interval) --> space and time cannot be absolute!

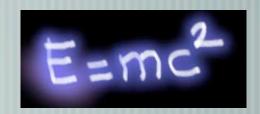


$$c^2t^2 = v^2t^2 + w^2$$

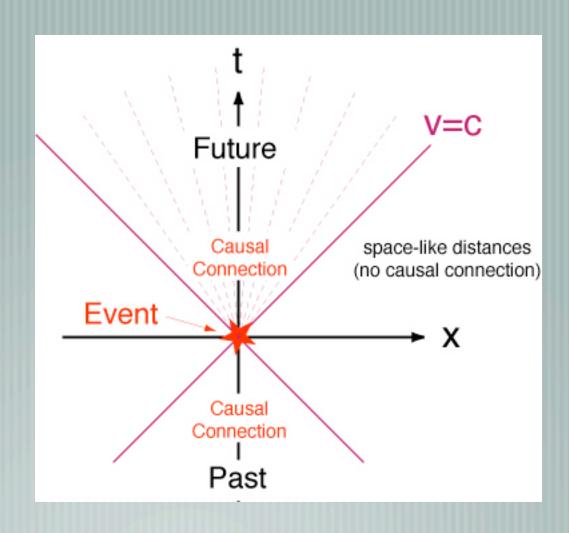
$$t^2(c^2 - v^2) = w^2$$

$$t = \frac{w/c}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \gamma \cdot \tau$$

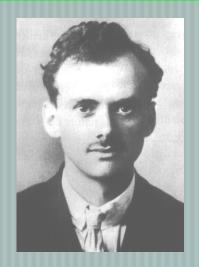
- 1) Time dilation, space contraction
- 2) Modification of Newton's laws, relativistic mass increase.



CAUSALITY



Two events can only be in causal connection if their distance is "time-like"



Paul A.M. Dirac (1928)

Dirac

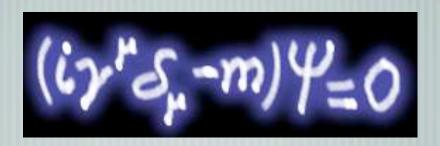
Relativity & Quantum Physics

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

'Free' Schrödinger equation non-relativistic kinetic energy

$$E^{2} = p^{2} + m^{2} \rightarrow$$

$$E = \pm(\alpha \cdot p) + \beta m$$



'Free' Dirac equation - relativistic energy-momentum

Two crucial (theoretical) predictions by Dirac

The wave function has 4 components (two spin 1/2 particles)

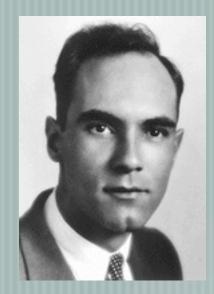
2 components for particle - and 2 components for antiparticle!

Every particle has an antiparticle!







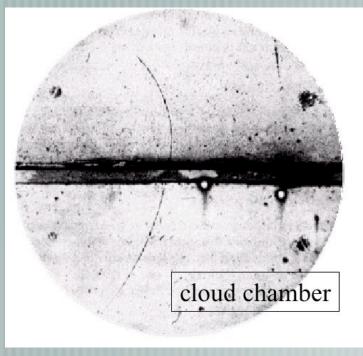


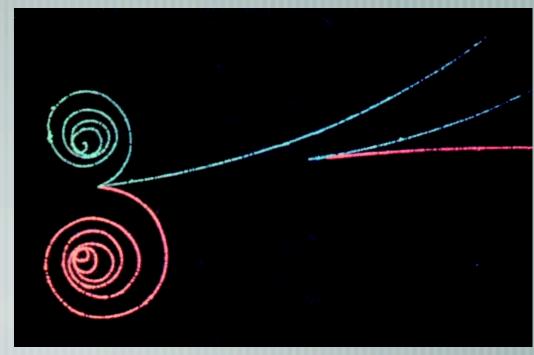
Discovery of the positron

Dirac was right!

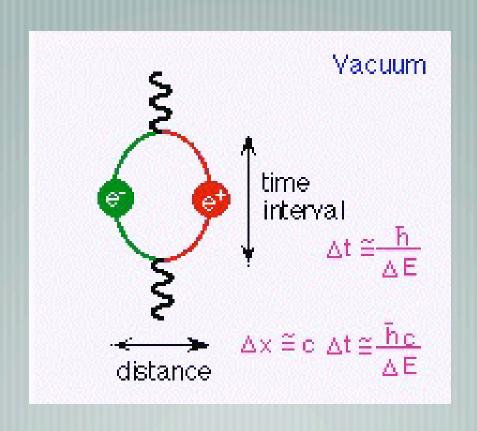
Anderson (1932)





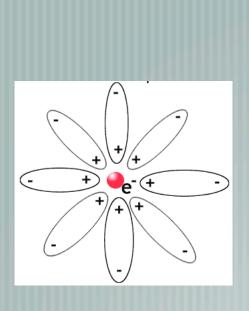


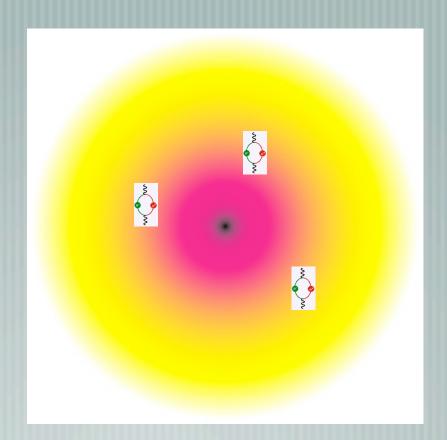
Photons & Antiparticles & Quantum Physics = VACUUM FLUCTUATIONS



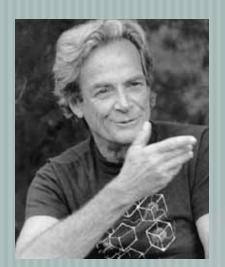
How to calculate the interaction of photons and electrons?

a new picture of the electron emerged:



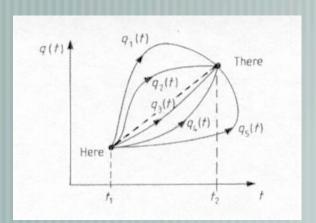


vacuum fluctuations modify its charge and mass ('Debye shielding')



R. P. Feynman

All paths are possible ('multiple slit experiment')



Quantum Electrodynamics

Feynman, Tomonaga, Schwinger

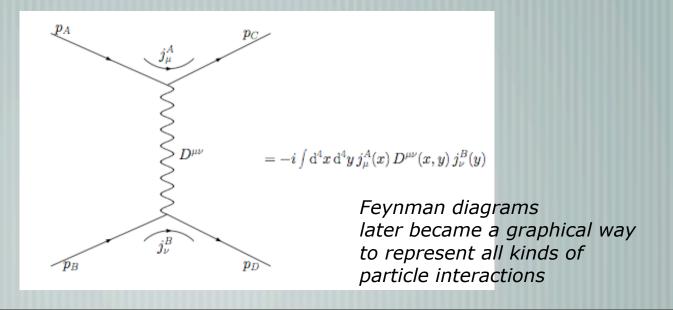
"Renormalization"

The 'naked' electron + vacuum fluctuations = measured electron

("infinite" - "infinite" = "finite")

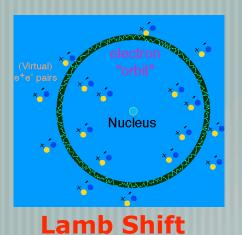
Feynman diagrams

Precise computation rules - in graphical form

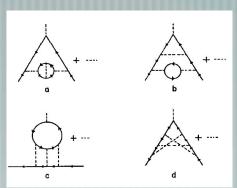


Vacuum fluctuations have observable effects

... and Quantum Electrodynamics allowed to calculate them precisely

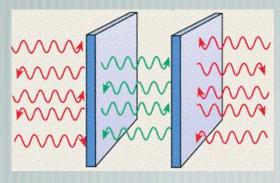


(shift of atomic energy levels)



Electron (anomalous) magnetic moment

$$\frac{1}{2}(g-2) = \frac{1}{2}\frac{\alpha}{\pi} - 0.32848 \left(\frac{\alpha}{\pi}\right)^2 + (1.183 \pm 0.011) \left(\frac{\alpha}{\pi}\right)^3.$$

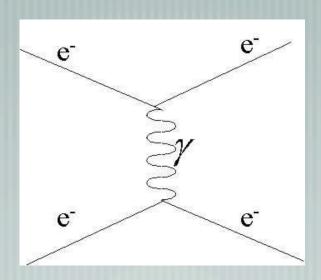


Casimir effect

(force on two uncharged metal plates)

QED: The interaction of electrons by the exchange of photons

- 1) Massless virtual photons are continuously emitted by electric charges
- 2) The $1/r^2$ law comes from the probability to reach other particle at distance r
- 3) The whole theory can be derived from the principle of 'local gauge invariance'



Could that become a model for other interactions?

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

The "Weak Interaction"

1895: Wilhelm Röntgen discovered 'X-rays'

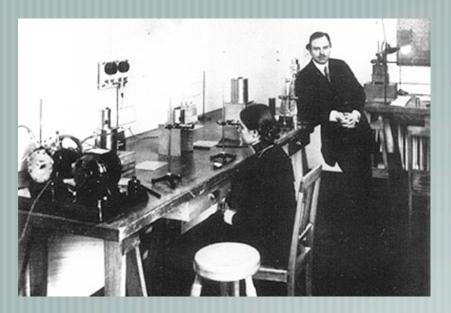
1896: Henri Becquerel discovered radiation from U crystals

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

Radioactivity

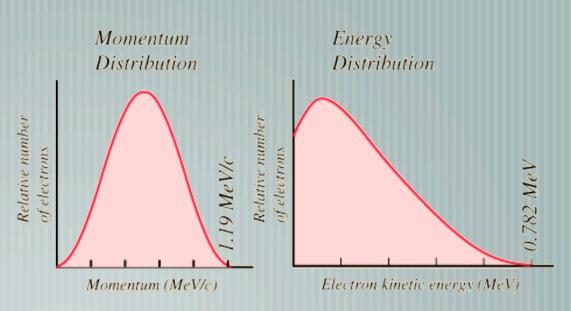
Beta decay of nuclei - electrons emitted with continuous energy spectrum !?

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



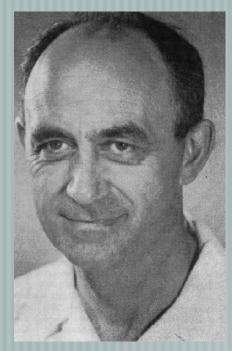
1911 Lise Meitner, Otto Hahn

Violation of energy conservation?

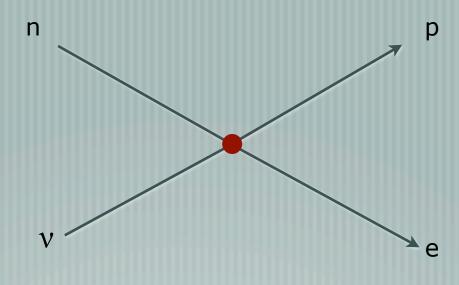


1930 Wolfgang Pauli: an extremely light neutral particle* is emitted in beta decay

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



Enrico Fermi (1934)



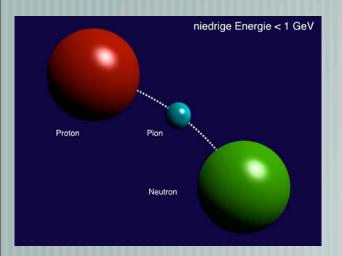
Proposed a phenomenological model of weak interaction Point-like coupling with strength $G_F \sim 10^{-5}$ of e.m. interaction Coupling of two 'currents' (proton-neutron / electron-neutrino)

Ok until ~1960

Back to the strong force: keeping protons and neutrons together



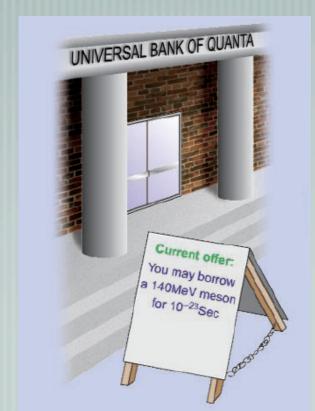
Yukawa (1934)



Exchange of massive particle **Pion**

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

Modified Coulomb law

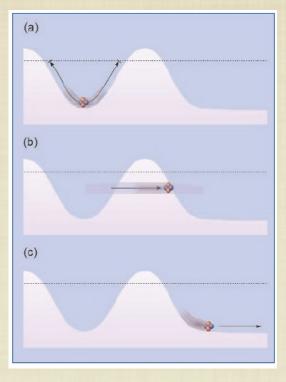




1934-1938: decisive breakthroughs in understanding nuclei



George Gamov



Alpha decay:

Alpha particles behave as waves, tunnel through barrier

exponential law

Alpha particle (inside the nucleus) have too little energy to get over the top can occasionally tunnel through the well. After tunneling through, the particle accelerates 'down the hill'

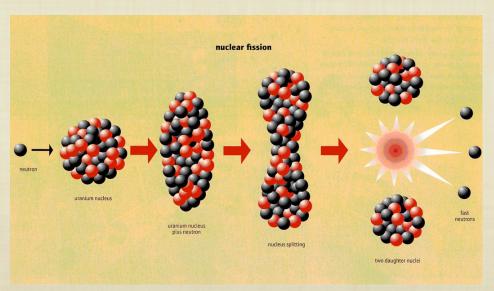
Nuclear Fission

1932: Meitner, Hahn, and Strassmann (another chemist) bombarded heavy nuclei (Uranium) and analyzed the decay products

1938: Lise Meitner had to leave Germany, for Kopenhagen (Bohr)

1938: Hahn and Strassmann found Barium in products of neutron bombardment

1938: Hahn told Meitner about this discovery. She proved that it must be 'fission', her calculations were based on Bohr's "droplet model" of the nucleus.

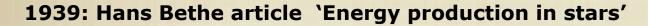


Bohr realized the enormous power released by fission. He quickly informed his colleagues in the US, leading to the Manhattan project.

Fusion in stars - strong and weak interaction!

1920: Eddington suggest conversion of mass to energy as the source of solar energy production

1929: Gamov calculates the 'tunneling factor' of p-p fusion

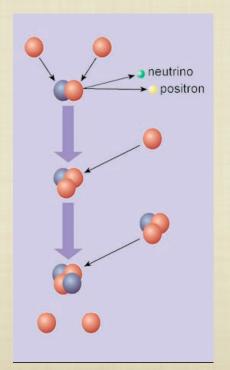


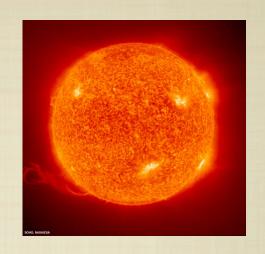
Cycle 1: Proton-proton cycle

Cycle 2: C-N-O cycle (v. Weiszäcker)



Hans Bethe





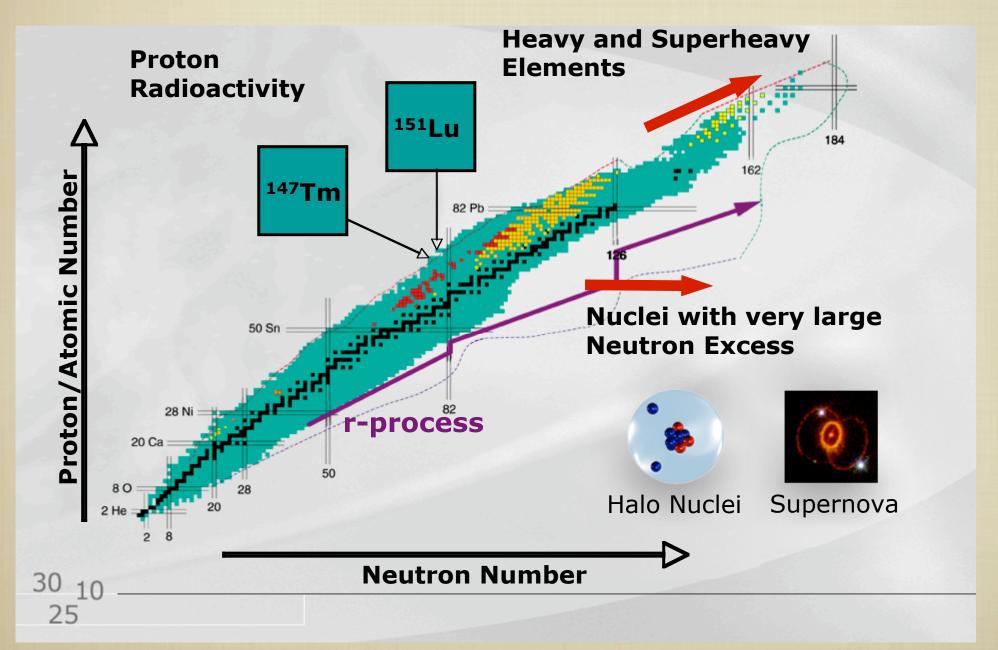
When two protons collide they occasionally tunnel together.

One proton becomes a neutron releasing a neutrino and a positron.

The deuteron formed in this reaction rapidly absorbs another proton yielding a He-3 nucleus,

which reacts with another forming a He-4 nucleus and two protons.

Nuclear Structure



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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"

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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.

Olber's "Paradox"

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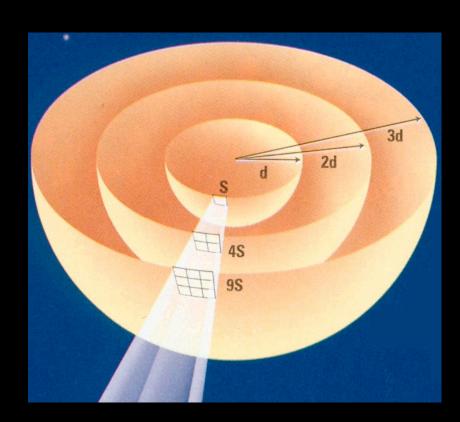
If the universe is endless and uniformly populated with luminous stars, then every line of sight must eventually terminate at the surface of a star.

Formally:

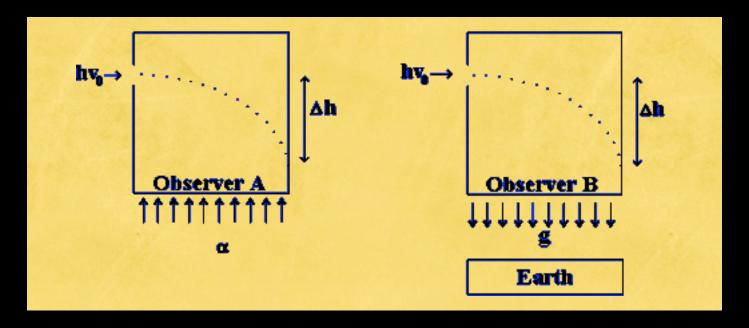
Each shell contributes $\sim r^2$ The light decreases with $\sim 1/r^2$ Light contribution from each shell = constant

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.

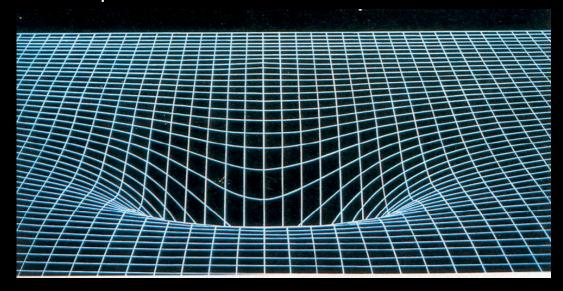
Accelerated elevator: light follows follows a parabolic path

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)

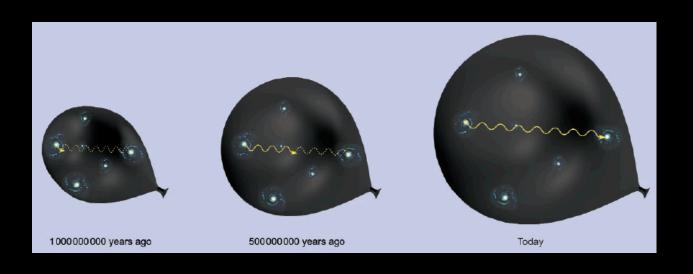
The whole Universe expands A 'hot primordial atom'?

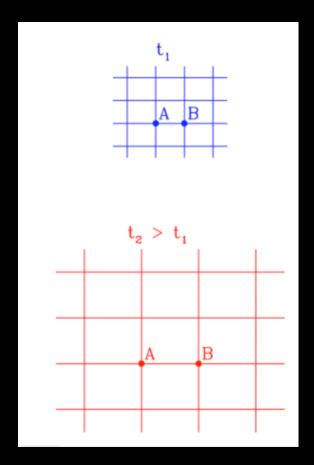
Friedmann described the expansion of the Universe using a scale factor a(t)

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

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

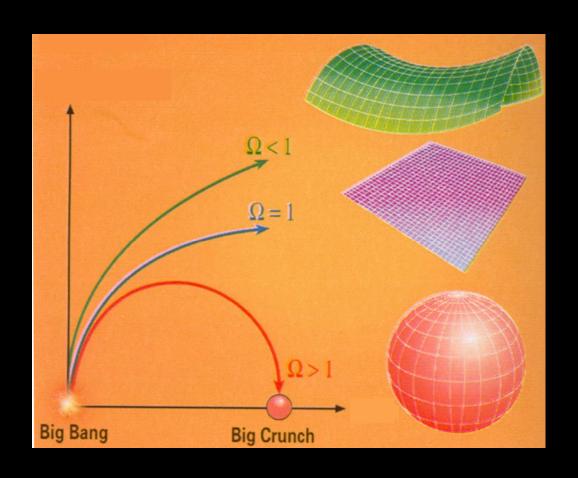
$$(rac{1}{a}rac{da}{dt})^2=rac{8\pi G}{3}ar
ho-rac{K}{a^2}$$

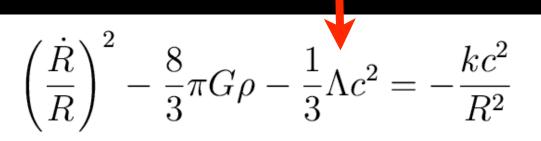




The crucial question was the mass of the Universe. In principle, it could be anything. However - there is a 'critical energy density'.

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.

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

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.

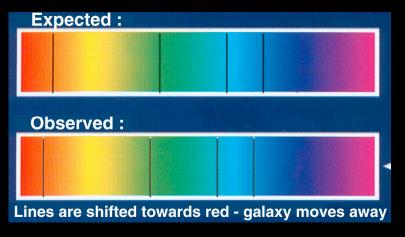
Therefore he decided to tinker with them, by adding a term named

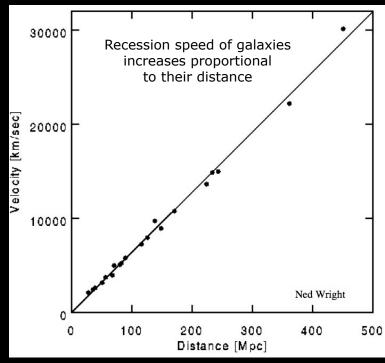
'cosmological constant'

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



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 ...

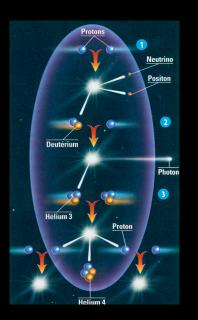
Hydrogen ~ 75 %
Helium-4 ~ 25 %
He-3 ~ 0.003 %
Deuterium ~ 0.003 %
Li-7 ~ 0.00000002 %

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)

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