

# Introduction to Particle Physics

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- Introduction to Particle Physics (history/interaction/symmetries)
- The strong interaction
- The weak interaction
- Heavy Flavours
- The Standard Model and Higgs
- Heavy Flavours to search for New Physics
- Few open questions

+ EXERCISES !

# Chapter I

Introduction

to

Particle Physics

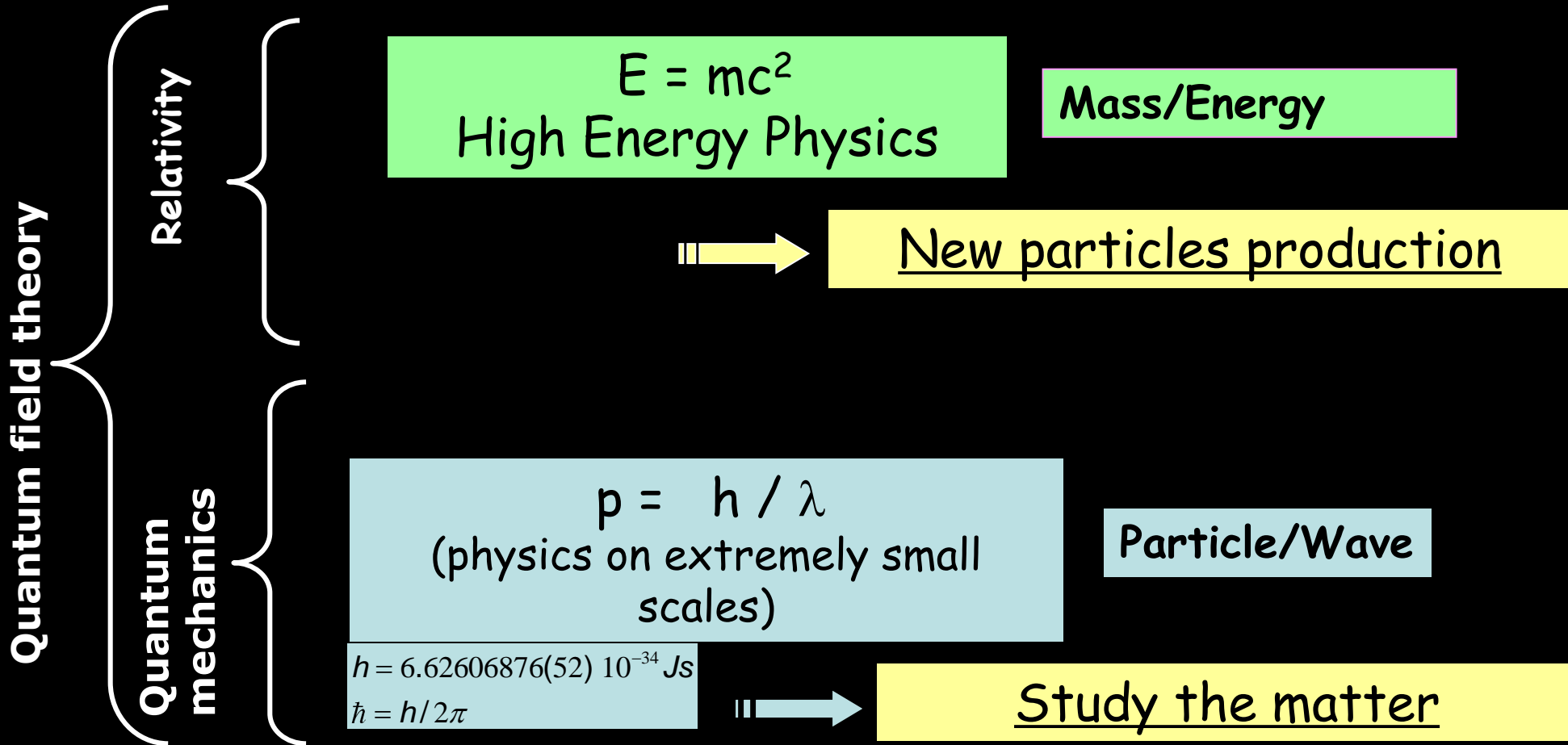
I.1

What is  
particle physics  
about?

# The particle world

The laws of « this world » are not really intuitive..

$$e = 1.602176462(63) \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ C}$$
$$m = 9.10938188(72) \cdot 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$$

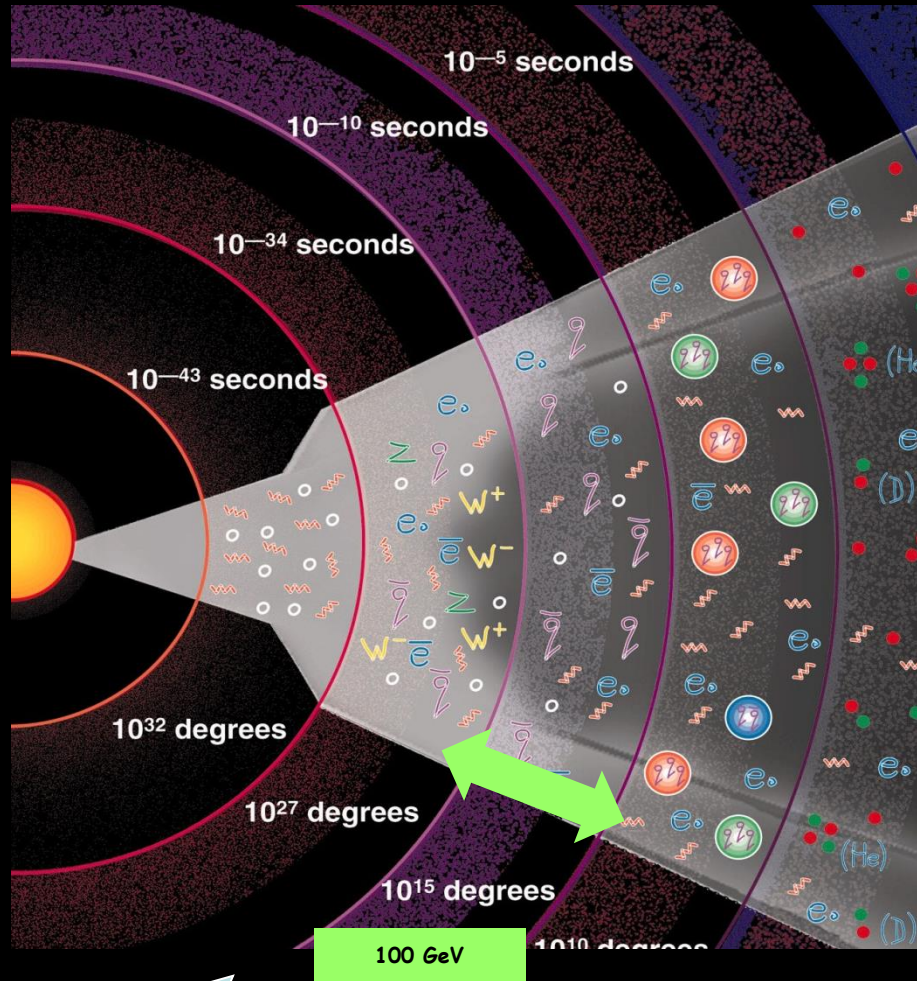


Particle world is described by quantum field theory

It is our main working tool for particles physics

It comes from the marriage between quantum mechanics and relativity

# The particle world : Physics of the two-infinities



Produce particles  
at 100GeV  $\sim 10^{-8}$  Joule



Temperature  $\sim 10^{15}$  degrees



Condition of the Universe  
after  $\sim 10^{-10}$  sec from Big Bang



Particles (which are very small « objects ») of high energy are instruments to go back in time (very large scales)

# The mass

Defined by :  $m^2c^4 = E^2 - p^2c^2$  ← Invariant length of the Energy-momentum 4-vector

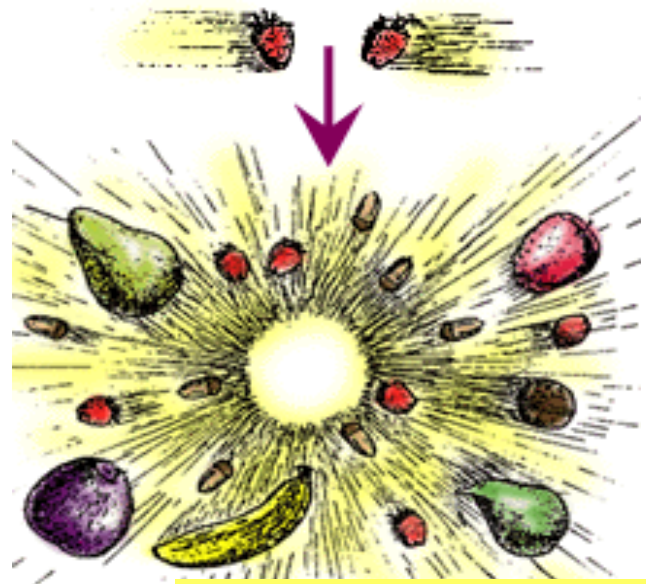
With  $c=1$   $E$ ,  $p$  and  $m$  are expressed using the same unity (GeV/MeV ...)

- When  $p = 0 \Rightarrow E = mc^2$
- When  $v$  increases  $\Rightarrow E^2$  et  $p^2c^2$  increase but their difference remains constant
- $m$  is a Lorentz invariant

New particles production:

It is not "divisibility" !

Since  $c$  is large  
small mass  
=  
Large energy



Mass/energy



A particle is a lump of energy

# MICROSCOPIC WORLD

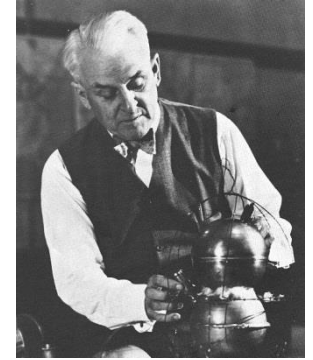
Thompson experiment



Determination of  
 $m/e$  for electrons

Determination of the quantum  
nature and the value of the electric  
charge for electrons

Millikan experiment



Today

- $e = 1.602176462(63) \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ C}$
- $m = 9.10938188(72) \cdot 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$

$$1 \text{ Joule} = 1 \text{ Coulomb} \cdot 1 \text{ Volt}$$

1eV = Energy for an electron feeling a potential difference of 1 V

$$1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ Joule}$$

$$mc^2 = 9.1 \cdot 10^{-31} \text{ kg} \times (3 \cdot 10^8)^2 \text{ m}^2/\text{sec}^2 = 50 \cdot 10^4 \text{ eV}$$

$$1 \text{ eV}/c^2 = 1.78 \cdot 10^{-36} \text{ kg}$$

$$m_e = 0.5 \text{ MeV}/c^2 = 0.5 \text{ MeV} (c=1)$$

$$m_p = 938 \text{ MeV} \approx 1 \text{ GeV}$$

KeV ( $10^3 \text{ eV}$ )

MeV ( $10^6 \text{ eV}$ )

GeV ( $10^9 \text{ eV}$ )

TeV ( $10^{12} \text{ eV}$ )



I.2

An historical  
introduction

# Historical overview

## A bit of history

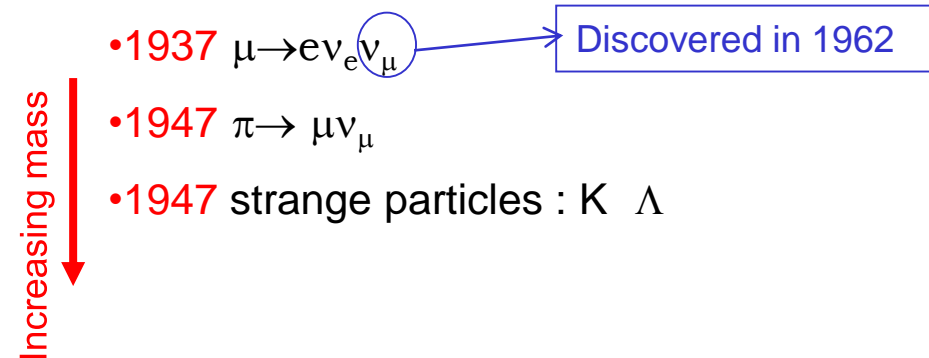
- **1897** (*Thompson*) electron discovery
- **1912** (*Rutherford*) proton discovery
- **~1930** (*Pauli/Fermi*) neutrino  $\nu_e$  hypothesis
- **1958** (*Reines-Cowan*) : experimental evidence
- **1932** (*Chadwick*) neutron discovery
- **1932** (*Anderson*) positron discovery :  $e^+$  1<sup>st</sup> antiparticle

In the '30s one knows :  $e^-$  p n and  $\nu_e$  the electromagnetic force and the  $\gamma$

Framework to try to explain the forces between p, then between p and n  $\Rightarrow$  Strong interaction

Observation of unstable particles in cosmic rays +  $\beta$  decays  $\Rightarrow$  Weak interaction

Many particles :



When the muon was discovered the physicist I. Rabi said :



It remains in fact a very good question.....

- **1955** (*Chamberlain, Segre, Wiegand, Ypsilantis*) antiproton discovery

1950

Accelerators era :

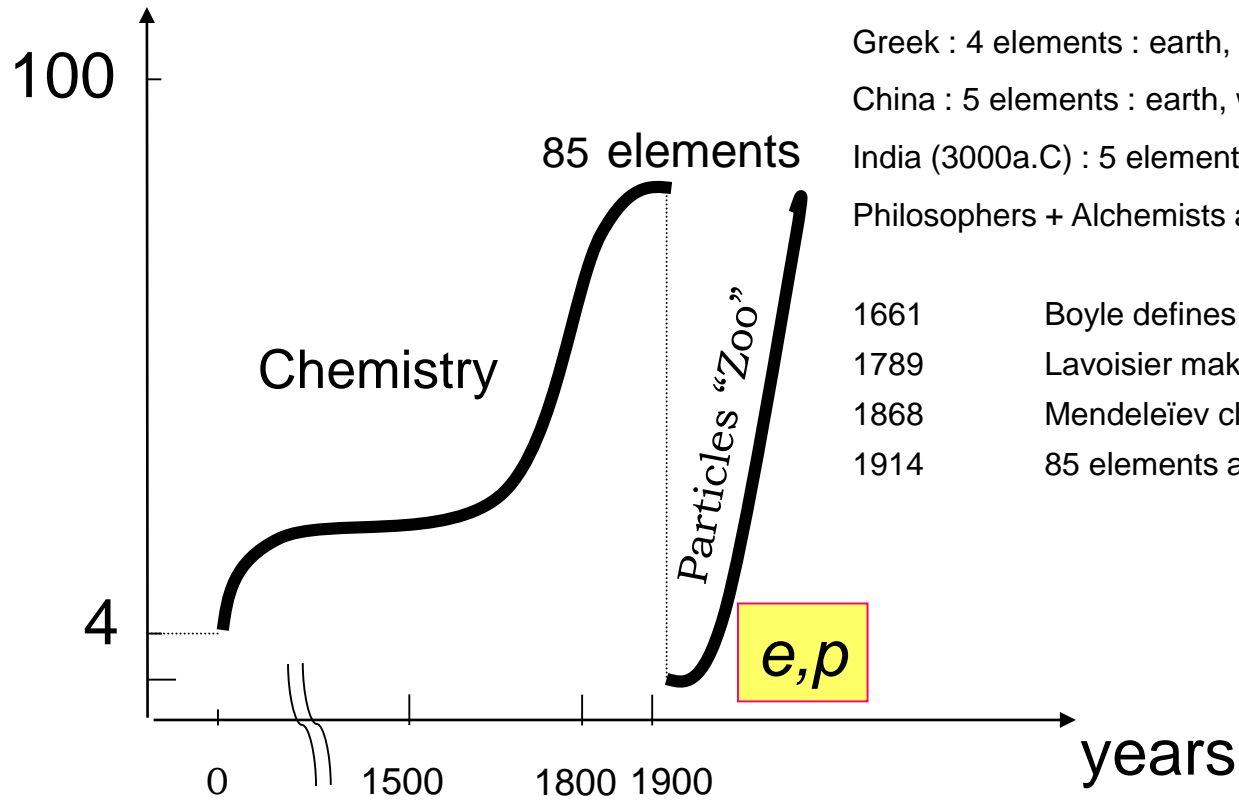
Larger statistics

Control on the particles

More and more hadrons ...

- 1948 first  $\pi$  produced
- 1950  $\pi^0$  discovery
- 1954  $K^+$   $K^0$  ,  $\Sigma$  production ...
- 1964  $\Omega$  discovery

Number of particles



Greek : 4 elements : earth, air, fire, water

China : 5 elements : earth, wood, metal, fire and water

India (3000a.C) : 5 elements :space, air, fire, water and

Philosophers + Alchemists add : ether, mercury, sulphur, salt

1661 Boyle defines chemistry

1789 Lavoisier makes the list of 33 elements

1868 Mendeleiev classify the elements

1914 85 elements are known

**1964 Zweig-GellMann-Neeman : theoretical introduction of quarks**

**'70** SLAC

Deep inelastic scattering experiments

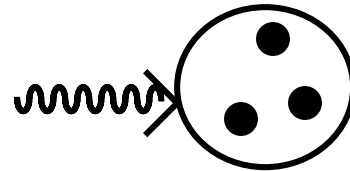
**Experimental evidence of quarks**

$p \equiv (uud)$

$n \equiv (udd)$

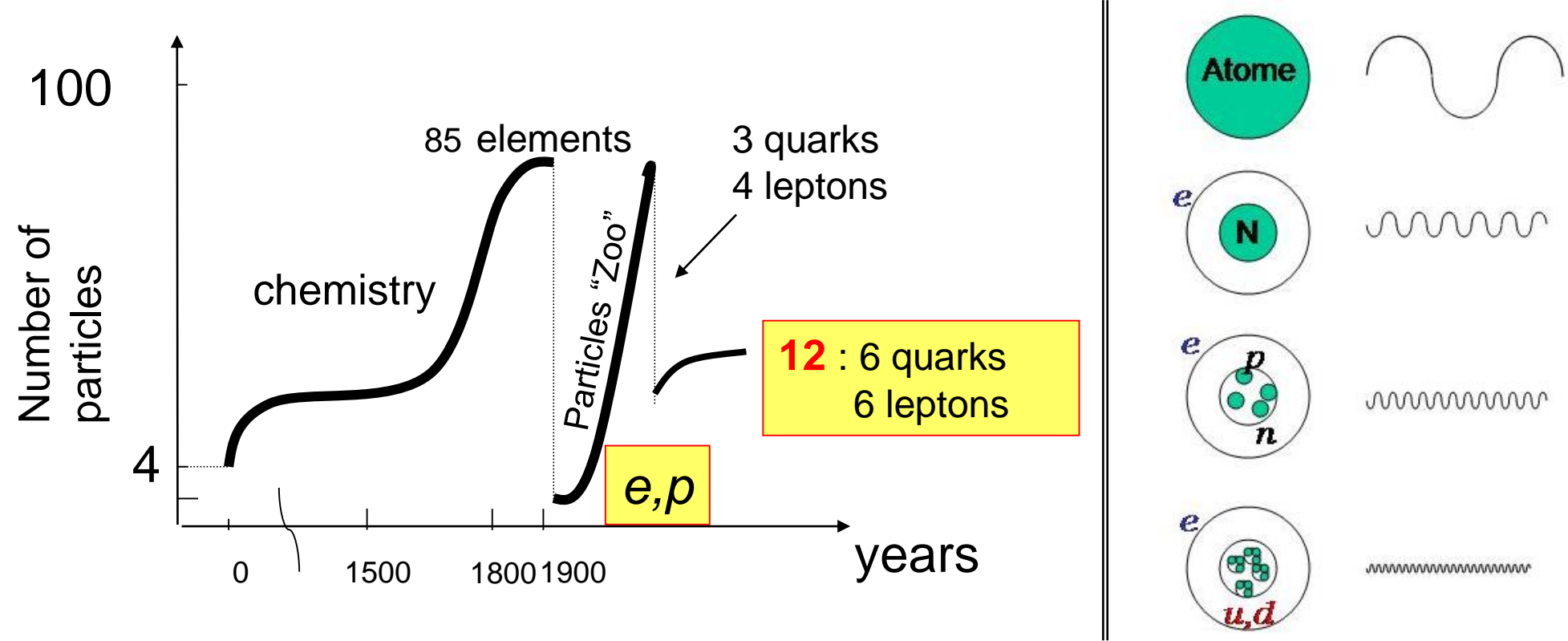
Strange particles ( $\Lambda, K, \dots$ ): **quark s**

**'90** HERA



**.... New particles..**

- **1974** (*Richter/Ting*)  $J/\psi$  discovery ( $c\bar{c}$ ) : **c quark**
- **1975** (*Perl*) discovery of the  **$\tau$  lepton**
- **1977** (*Ledermann*)  $Y$  discovery ( $b\bar{b}$  bound state) : **b quark**
- **1995** (*CDF/DØ coll.*) **t quark**
- **2000** (*Donut*) :  **$\nu_\tau$**

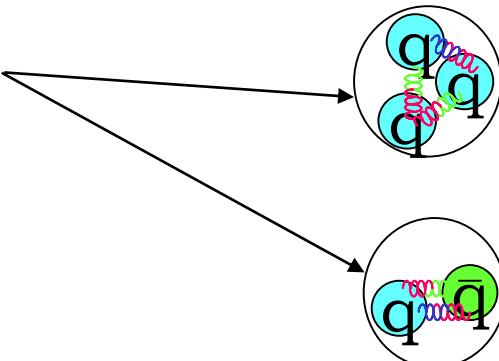


12 matter particles to explain all known particles !

Hadrons : any particle which undergoes the strong interaction

(Nucleon : neutron and proton)

Leptons : Any particle which does not undergo the strong interaction (e,μ,τ) (ν<sub>e</sub>,ν<sub>μ</sub>,ν<sub>τ</sub>)



**Baryons half integer spin**  
(ex: p = (uud) )

**Mesons integer spin**  
(ex: π = (u $\bar{d}$ ) )

## Interaction particles

- Classical mechanics : interactions = force field
- Modern physics : interactions = interaction particles which are field quanta

**1973** Observation at CERN of the “weak neutral currents”  
Interactions between neutrinos  $\rightarrow$  “ $Z^0$ ” ?

**1976** Standard Model. Electroweak unification  
 $\Rightarrow \gamma, Z^0, W^{+-}$   $\rightarrow$  They are vectors of the weak interaction, their masses are predicted

**1983** Observation at CERN of the  $Z^0$  and  $W^{+-}$  bosons

**1989** « Mass production » of  $Z^0$  at LEP at CERN

**1996** Production of  $W^+W^-$  pairs at LEP at CERN

**2012 DISCOVERY OF THE HIGGS BOSON AT LHC (CERN)**

# Elementary particles

3 families of fermions : matter

+ anti-matter !

3 forces : electromagnetism, weak interaction, strong interaction

	I	II	III	
mass →	2.4 MeV	1.27 GeV	171.2 GeV	0
charge →	$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$	0
spin →	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1
name →	<b>u</b> up	<b>c</b> charm	<b>t</b> top	<b>γ</b> photon
Quarks	4.8 MeV	104 MeV	4.2 GeV	0
	$-\frac{1}{3}$	$-\frac{1}{3}$	$-\frac{1}{3}$	0
	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1
	<b>d</b> down	<b>s</b> strange	<b>b</b> bottom	<b>g</b> gluon
Leptons	<2.2 eV	<0.17 MeV	<15.5 MeV	91.2 GeV
	0	0	0	0
	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1
	<b>ν<sub>e</sub></b> electron neutrino	<b>ν<sub>μ</sub></b> muon neutrino	<b>ν<sub>τ</sub></b> tau neutrino	<b>Z<sup>0</sup></b> Z boson
	0.511 MeV	105.7 MeV	1.777 GeV	80.4 GeV
	-1	-1	-1	$\pm 1$
	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1
	<b>e</b> electron	<b>μ</b> muon	<b>τ</b> tau	<b>W<sup>±</sup></b> W boson

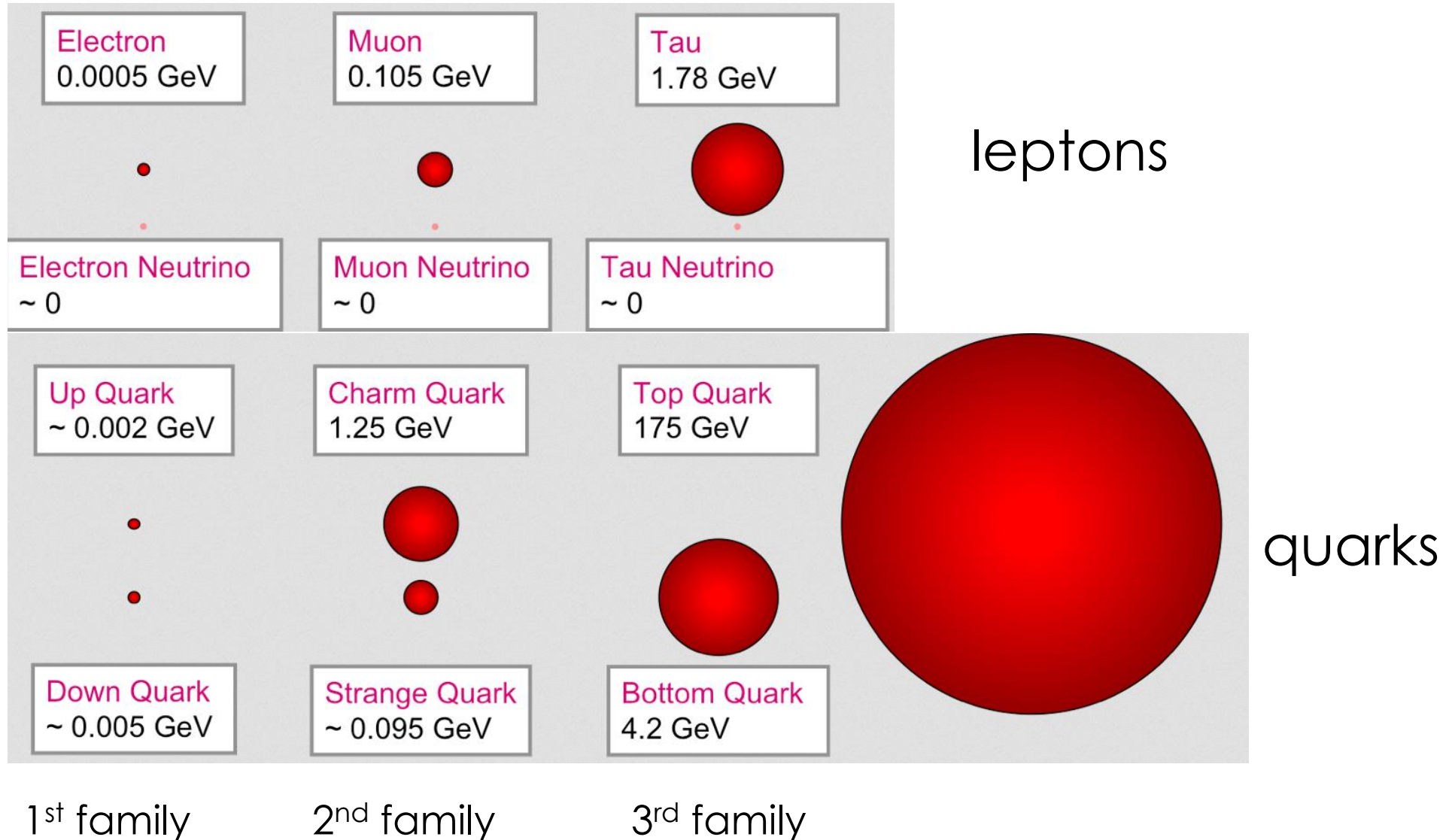
And the Higgs boson !

The particles are characterized by :

- their spin
- their mass
- the quantum numbers (charges) determining their interactions

All our knowledge is today « codified » in the  
**Standard Model :**  
 Matter, Interaction, Unification Interaction, Unification

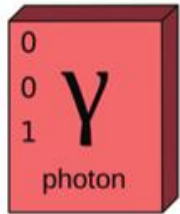
# The fermions and their masses





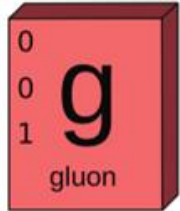
# The interactions and their mediators

Spin 1 particles



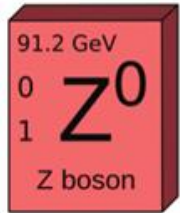
$m=0$

Electromagnetism



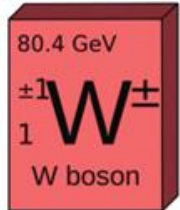
$m=0$

Strong interaction



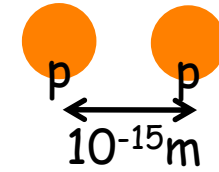
$m=91.2 \text{ GeV}$

Weak interaction



Gauge Bosons

$M=80.4 \text{ GeV}$



$10^{-2}$

1

$10^{-8}$

Gravity :

negligible at the scale of elementary particles

We do not know today how to quantify it

Probe the underlying structure of matter

Production of new particles

$p = h/\lambda$   
(towards the smallest scales)

$E = Mc^2$   
(High energy physics)

Quantum  
Mechanics

Electromagnetism  
(Maxwell's Theory)

Special  
Relativity

Gravity  
(Newton's Theory)

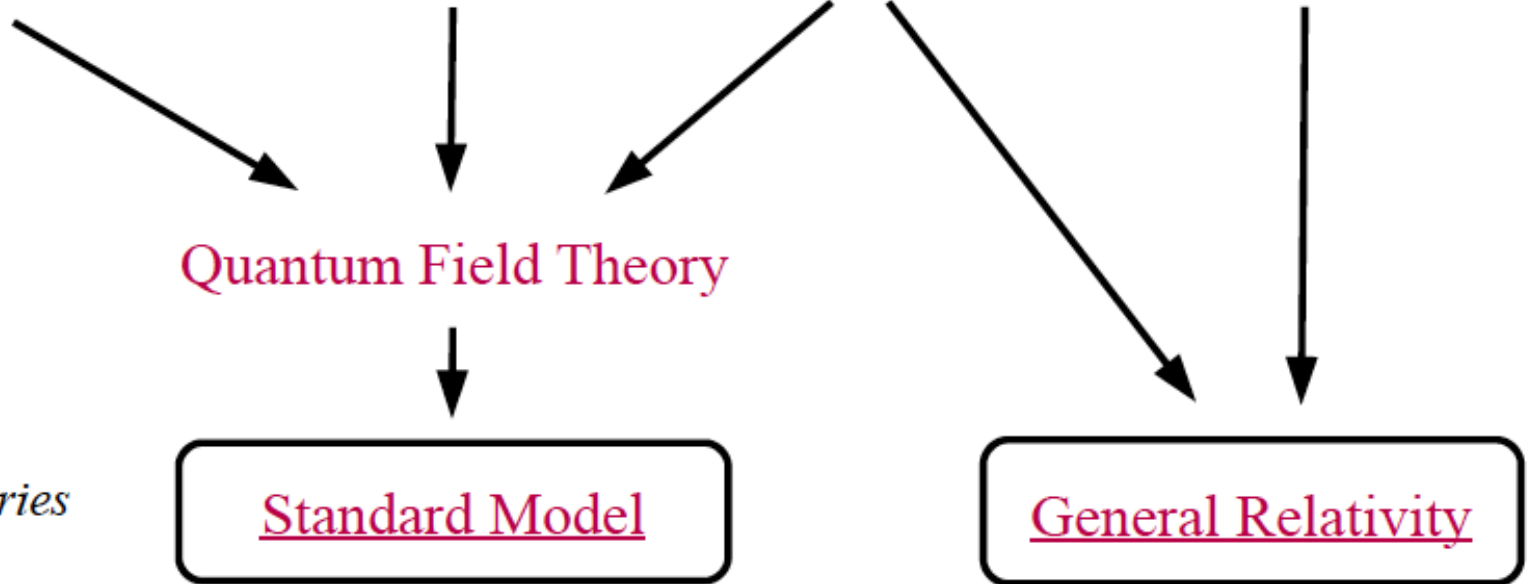
Nuclear  
Physics

Quantum Field Theory

*Physical Theories  
now:*

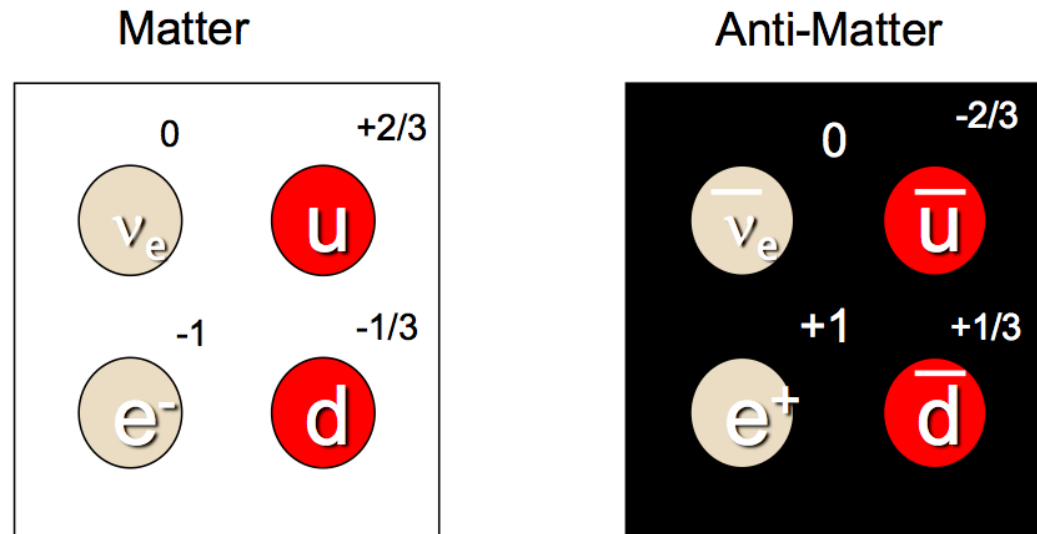
Standard Model

General Relativity



# Anti-matter ?

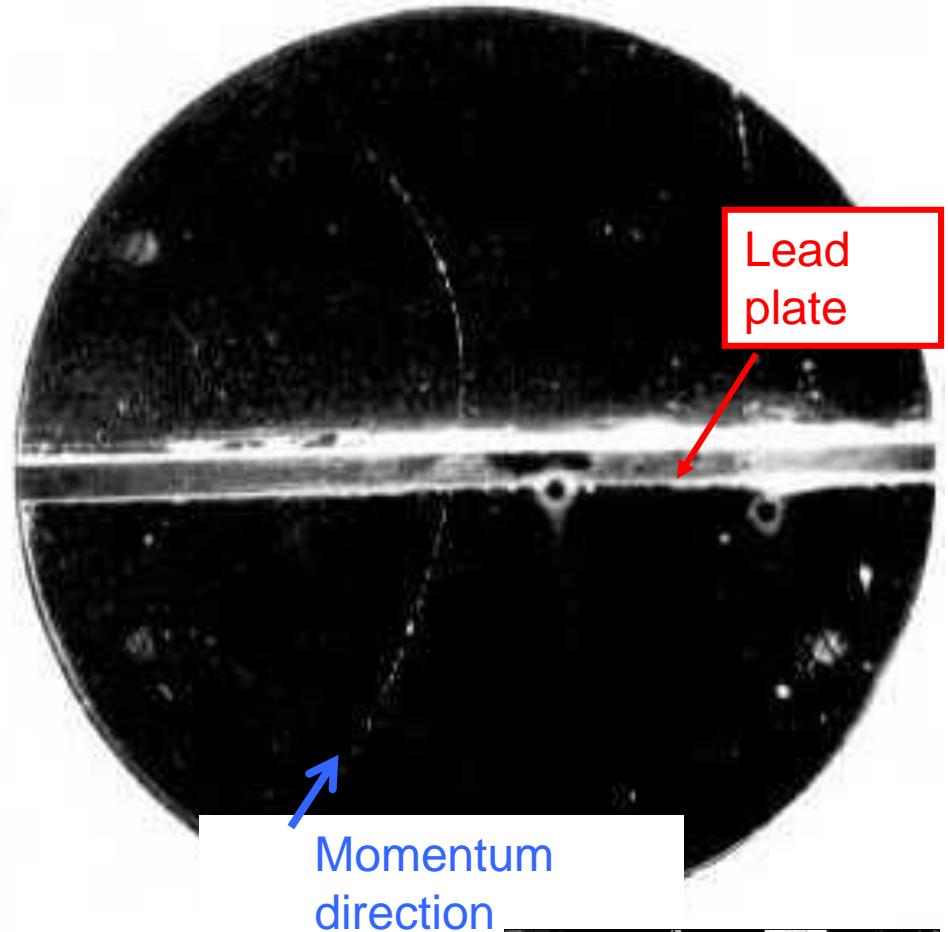
To each particle one can associate an anti-particle : same mass but all quantum numbers opposite



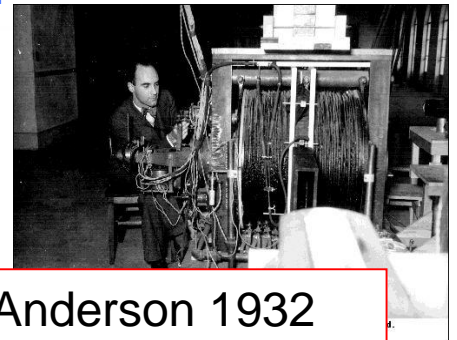
In 1931 Dirac predicts the existence of a particle similar to the electron but of charge  $+e$

# Discovery of the positron

- The radius of curvature is smaller above the plate. The particle is slow down in the lead  
→ the particle is incoming from the bottom
- The magnetic field direction is known  
→ positive charge
- From the density of the drops one can measure the ionizing power of the particle → minimum ionizing particle
- Similar ionizing power before and after the plate  
→ same particle on the 2 sides
- Curvature measurement after the lead : particle of  $\sim 23\text{MeV}$   
→ it is not a non-relativistic proton because he would have lost all its energy after  $\sim 5\text{mm}$  (a track of  $\sim 5\text{ cm}$  is observed)



Particle of positive electric charge and with a mass much smaller than the proton mass ( $< 20 m_e$ ) : the **positron**



# 1.3

Two important observables :

Lifetime/Width :  $\tau / \Gamma$

Cross Section :  $\sigma$

# Lifetime : $\tau$

## Lifetime : the exponential law

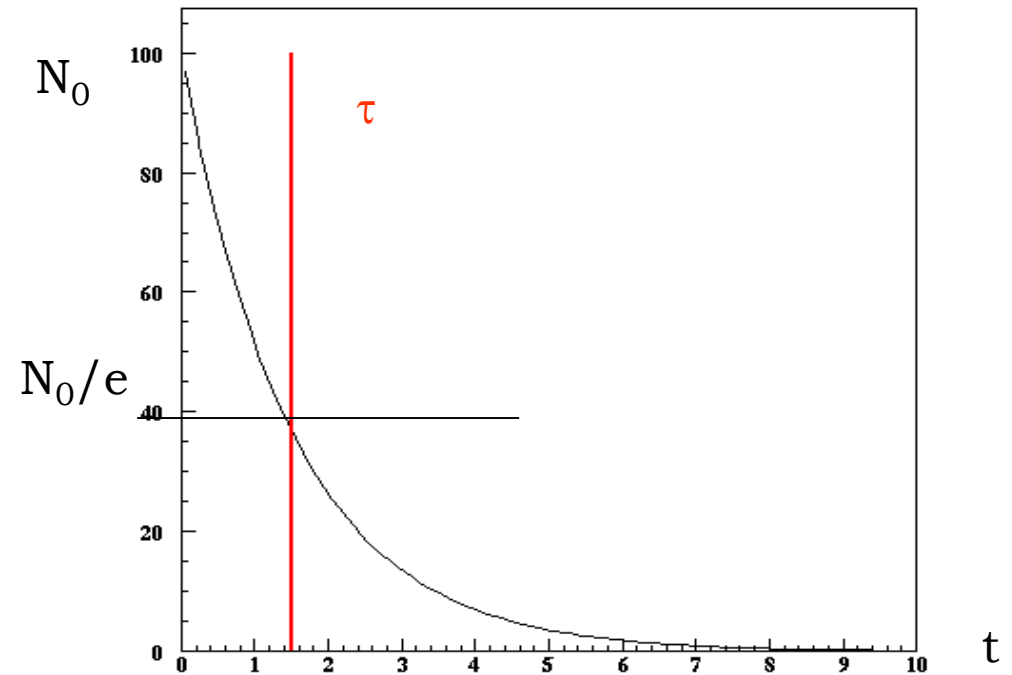
Instable particles and nuclei : number of decays per unit of time ( $\Delta N/\Delta T$ ) proportional to the number of particles/nuclei (N)

$$\Delta N = cte \times N \times \Delta t \Rightarrow \text{exponential law}$$

$$N(t) = N_0 e^{-t/\tau}$$

**Mean lifetime** (defined in the particle rest frame)

The majority of the particles are instable  
 $\tau$  from  $10^{-23}$  sec (resonances)  
to  $\sim 10^3$  sec (neutron)



The probability for a radioactive nucleus to decay during a time interval  $t$ , does not depend on the fact that the nucleus has just been produced or exists since a time  $T$  :

$$\left[ \text{Survival probability after the time } T + t \right] = \left[ \text{Survival probability after the time } T \right] \times \left[ \text{Survival probability after the time } t \right]$$

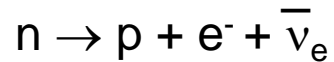
$e^{a+b} = e^a \times e^b$

## Few important examples of different lifetimes

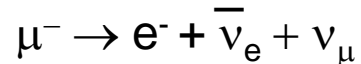
- **Stable particles** :  $\gamma, e, p, \nu$  → the only ones !

proton stability  $\tau(p) > \sim 10^{32}$  ans

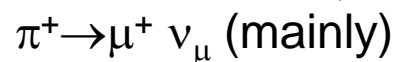
- **particles with long lifetimes** :



$\tau = 6.13 \cdot 10^{+2}$  sec,  $\beta$  decay



$\tau = 2.2 \cdot 10^{-6}$  sec, cosmic rays



$\tau = 2.6 \cdot 10^{-8}$  sec



$\tau = 1.2 \cdot 10^{-8}$  sec

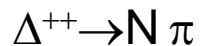
- **particle with short lifetimes** :



$\tau = 1.04 \cdot 10^{-12}$  sec



$\tau = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-12}$  sec



$\tau \sim 10^{-23}$  sec

particles which can be directly detected

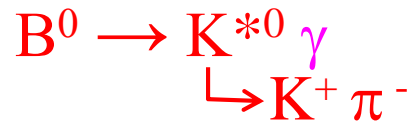
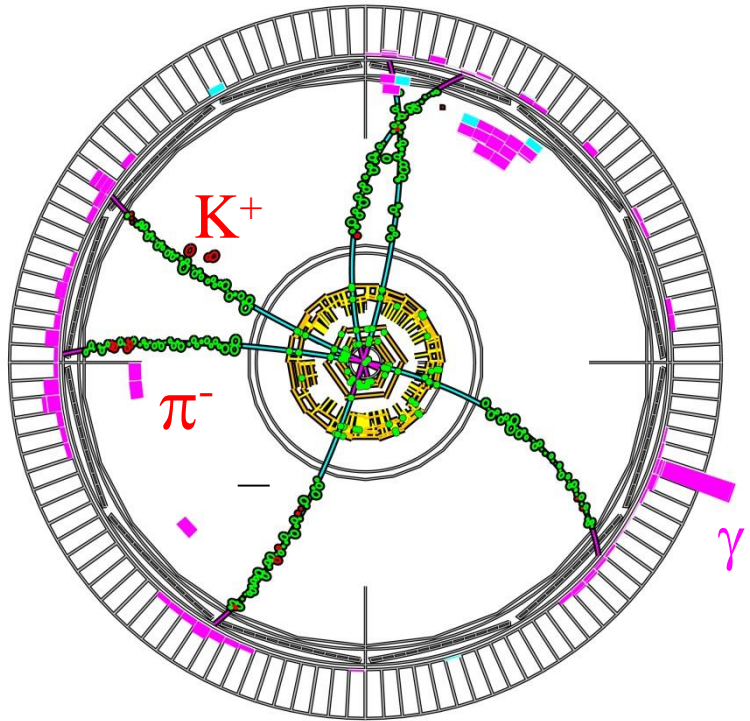
- The lifetimes are given in the particle rest frame
- What we see is the lifetime in the laboratory rest frame
- one should take into account the relativistic time dilation
- In real life one measures lengths in the detector

$$L = \beta\gamma \times c\tau$$

Boost × lifetime

- Some particles are seen as stable in the detectors.
- Example a pion ( $c\tau = 7.8\text{m}$ ) :  
 if  $E_\pi = 20 \text{ GeV} \rightarrow \gamma = 20/m_\pi = 142.9$  ;  
 $\beta = 0.999975$   
 →  $L = 1114.3\text{m}$

« Event display » of the BELLE experiment  
 ( $e^+e^- \rightarrow B\bar{B}$ ,  $E_{\text{CM}}=10.58 \text{ GeV}$ )

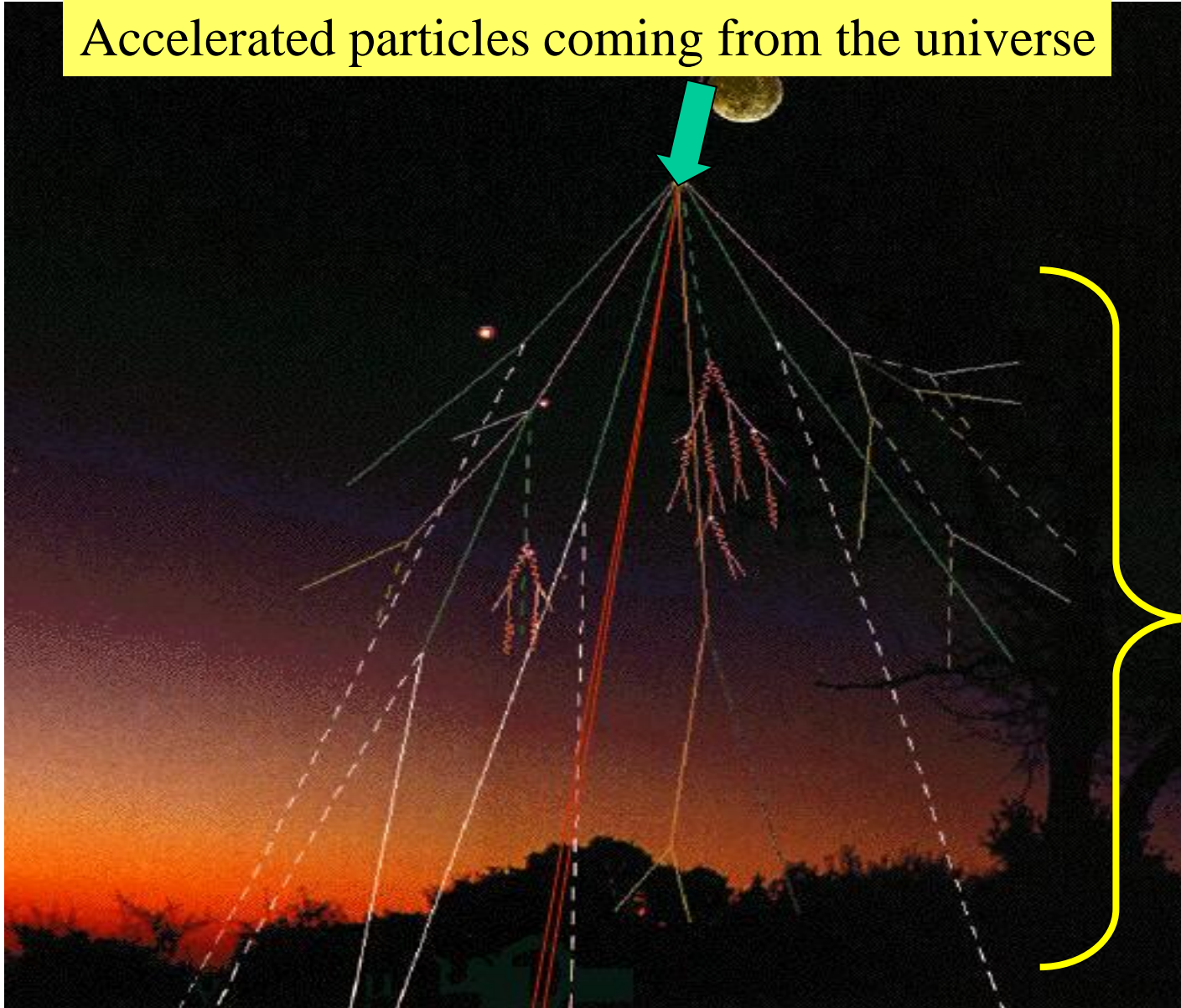


particles which can be directly detected in the detector :  $n, \gamma, e, p, \mu, \pi^\pm, K^\pm$



# Cosmic Rays = Cosmic Accelerator

Accelerated particles coming from the universe



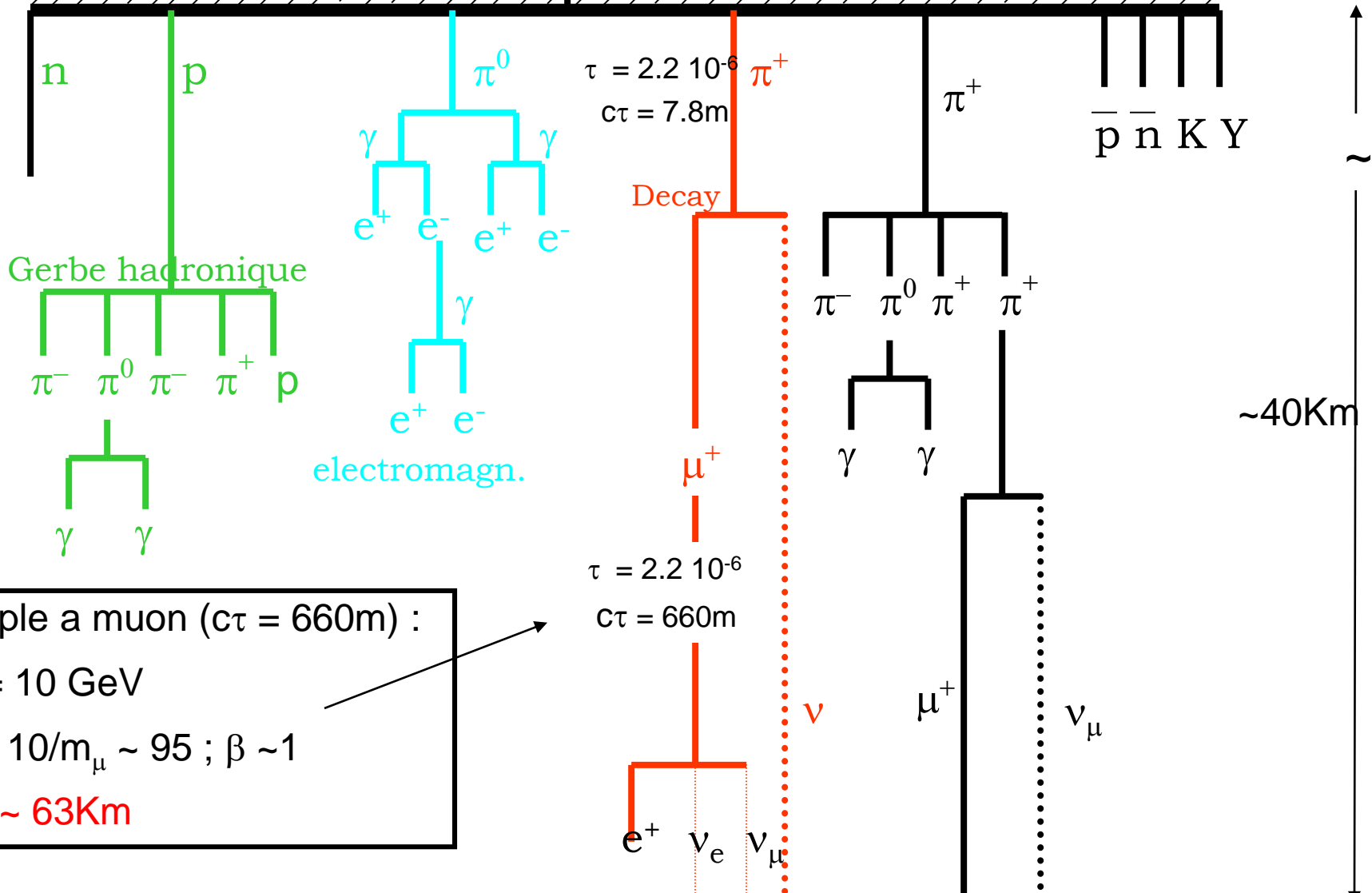
Cosmic Shower



Production  
of  
New Particles

# Primary cosmic Rays

Atmosphere



Example a muon ( $c\tau = 660\text{m}$ ) :  
 if  $E_\mu = 10 \text{ GeV}$   
 $\rightarrow \gamma \sim 10/m_\mu \sim 95 ; \beta \sim 1$   
 $\rightarrow L \sim 63\text{Km}$

muons are living always  $2.2 \cdot 10^{-6}$  sec in they rest frame, but they are seen by an observer as flying a distance much longer than the one  $\sim$  to their lifetime

# Width : $\Gamma$

- The uncertainty principle from Heisenberg for an unstable particle is :

Heisenberg :  $\Delta E \Delta t \sim \hbar$

$\Delta mc^2 = \Gamma c^2$        $\tau$

Uncertainty on the mass (width  $\Gamma$ ) due to  $\tau$

By definition :  $\Gamma c^2 \equiv \frac{\hbar}{\tau}$

The faster the decay, the larger the uncertainty on  $m$   
Stable particle  $\leftrightarrow$  well defined mass state

$\hbar c = 197 \text{ MeV} \times 1\text{fm}$  ;  $\hbar = \frac{197 \times 10^{-15}}{3.10^8} = 6.582 \cdot 10^{-22} \text{ MeV}\cdot\text{s}$

**Measuring** widths, one is able to have information on very small lifetimes. This is the way one can have information on a phenomenon extremely fast (the fastest in Nature?... ) : a particle with a lifetime of  $10^{-23}$  sec)

Decay	$mc^2$	$\tau$	$\Gamma c^2$
$K^{*0} \rightarrow K^- \pi^+$	892 MeV	$1.3 \cdot 10^{-23} \text{ s}$	51 MeV
$\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma \gamma$	135 MeV	$8.4 \cdot 10^{-17} \text{ s}$	8 eV
$D_s \rightarrow \phi \pi^+$	1969 MeV	$0.5 \cdot 10^{-12} \text{ s}$	$10^{-3} \text{ eV}$

Measurable width

Measurable lifetimes

# Breit-Wigner

(approximate computations)

- Schrödinger equation (free particle with energy  $E_0$ ):

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = H\psi = E_0\psi$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi = a e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_0 t}$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi = a e^{-i \frac{c^2}{\hbar} m_0 t} \quad (\text{particle rest frame } E_0 = m_0 c^2)$$

– stable particle :  $|\psi(t)|^2 = |\psi(0)|^2 = |a_0|^2$

– unstable particle :  $\Rightarrow \psi(t) = a_0 e^{-i \frac{c^2}{\hbar} \left( m_0 - i \frac{\Gamma}{2} \right) t}$

$$\Gamma c^2 \equiv \frac{\hbar}{\tau}$$

$$\Rightarrow a = a_0 e^{-\frac{t}{2\tau}}$$

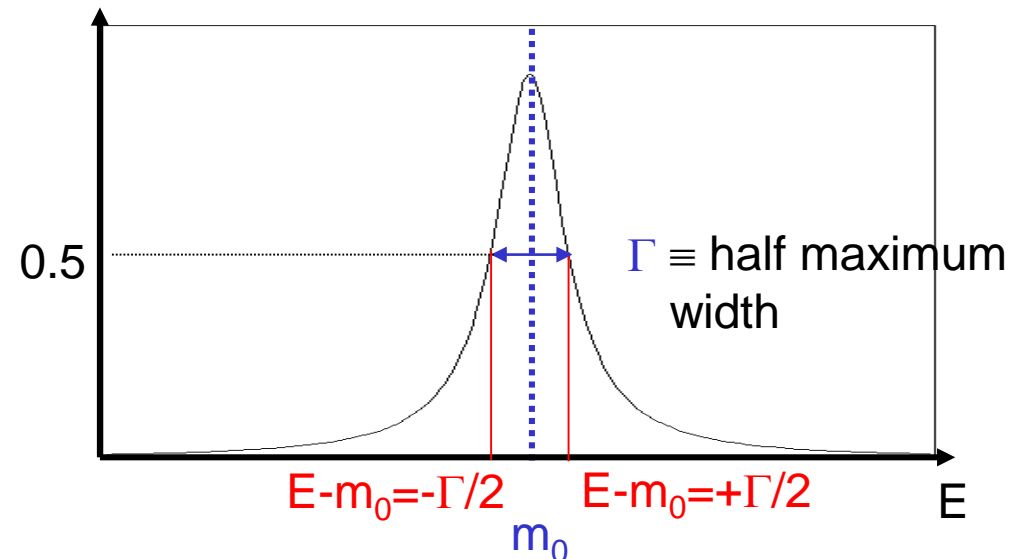
$$\Rightarrow |\psi(t)|^2 = |\psi(0)|^2 e^{-t/\tau}$$

We want the probability to find a state of energy  $E$

$$A(E) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} \psi(t) e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} Et} dt \propto \frac{1}{(E - m_0 c^2) + i \frac{\Gamma c^2}{2}}$$

Probability =  $|A|^2$

$$\Rightarrow |A|^2 \propto \frac{1}{(E - m_0 c^2)^2 + \Gamma^2 c^4 / 4}$$



Several possible final states (decay modes/channels) :

⇒ branching ratios (BR<sub>i</sub>) : probability to obtain a final state i (Σ<sub>i</sub> BR<sub>i</sub>=1)

partial width Γ<sub>i</sub> (definition) : BR<sub>i</sub>=Γ<sub>i</sub>/Γ

Example:

Λ→pπ in 64 % of the cases

Λ→nπ<sup>0</sup> in 36 % of the cases

Relation between lifetime, partial widths and branching ratios :

$$\tau = \frac{\hbar}{c^2} \frac{1}{\Gamma} = \frac{\hbar}{c^2} \frac{BR_i}{\Gamma_i}$$

Example : Z<sup>0</sup> partial widths

J = 1

Charge = 0

Mass m = 91.1882 ± 0.0022 GeV [d]

Full width Γ = 2.4952 ± 0.0026 GeV

Γ(l<sup>+</sup>l<sup>-</sup>) = 84.057 ± 0.099 MeV [b]

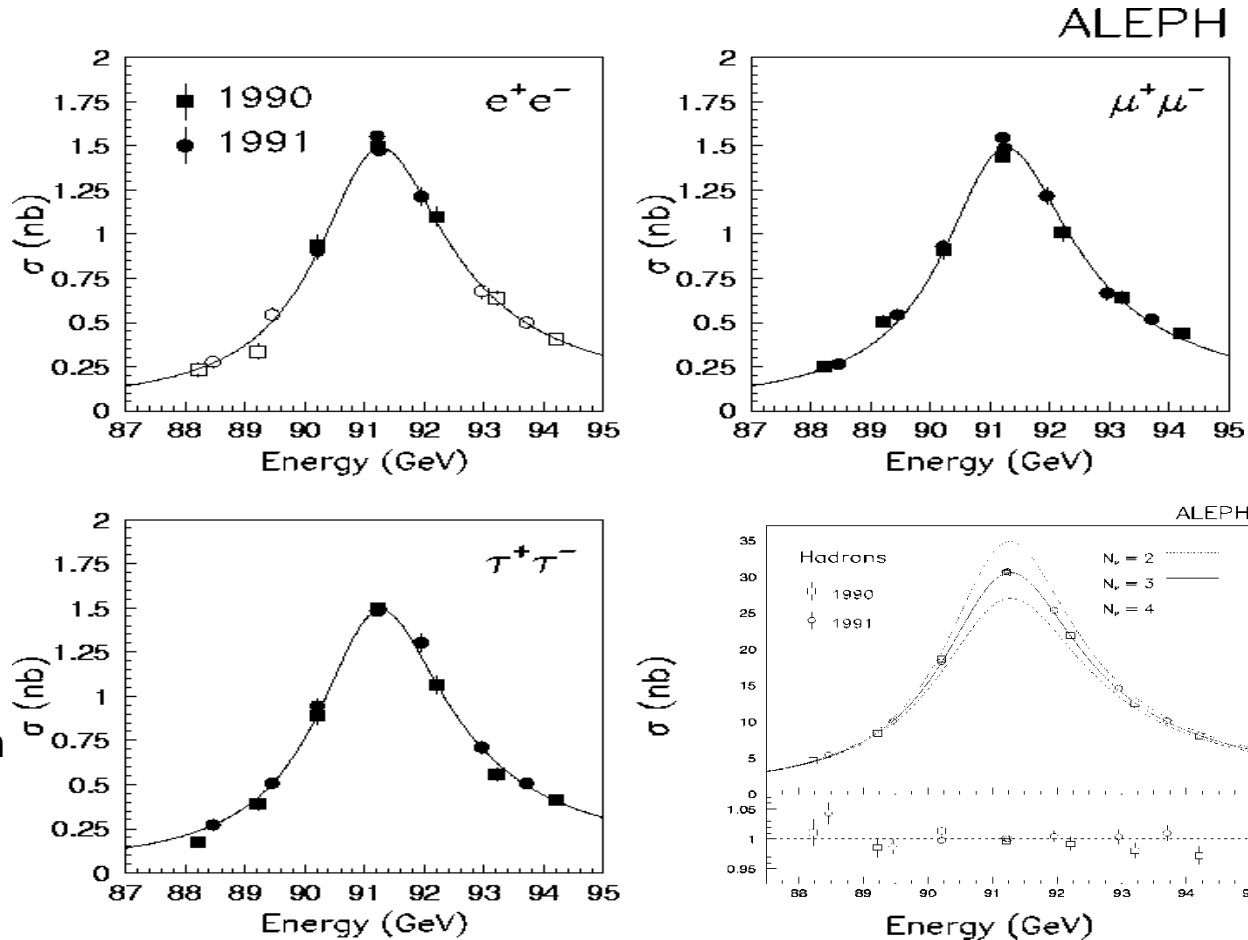
Γ(invisible) = 499.4 ± 1.7 MeV [e]

Γ(hadrons) = 1743.8 ± 2.2 MeV

Γ(μ<sup>+</sup>μ<sup>-</sup>)/Γ(e<sup>+</sup>e<sup>-</sup>) = 0.9999 ± 0.0032

Γ(τ<sup>+</sup>τ<sup>-</sup>)/Γ(e<sup>+</sup>e<sup>-</sup>) = 1.0012 ± 0.0036 [f]

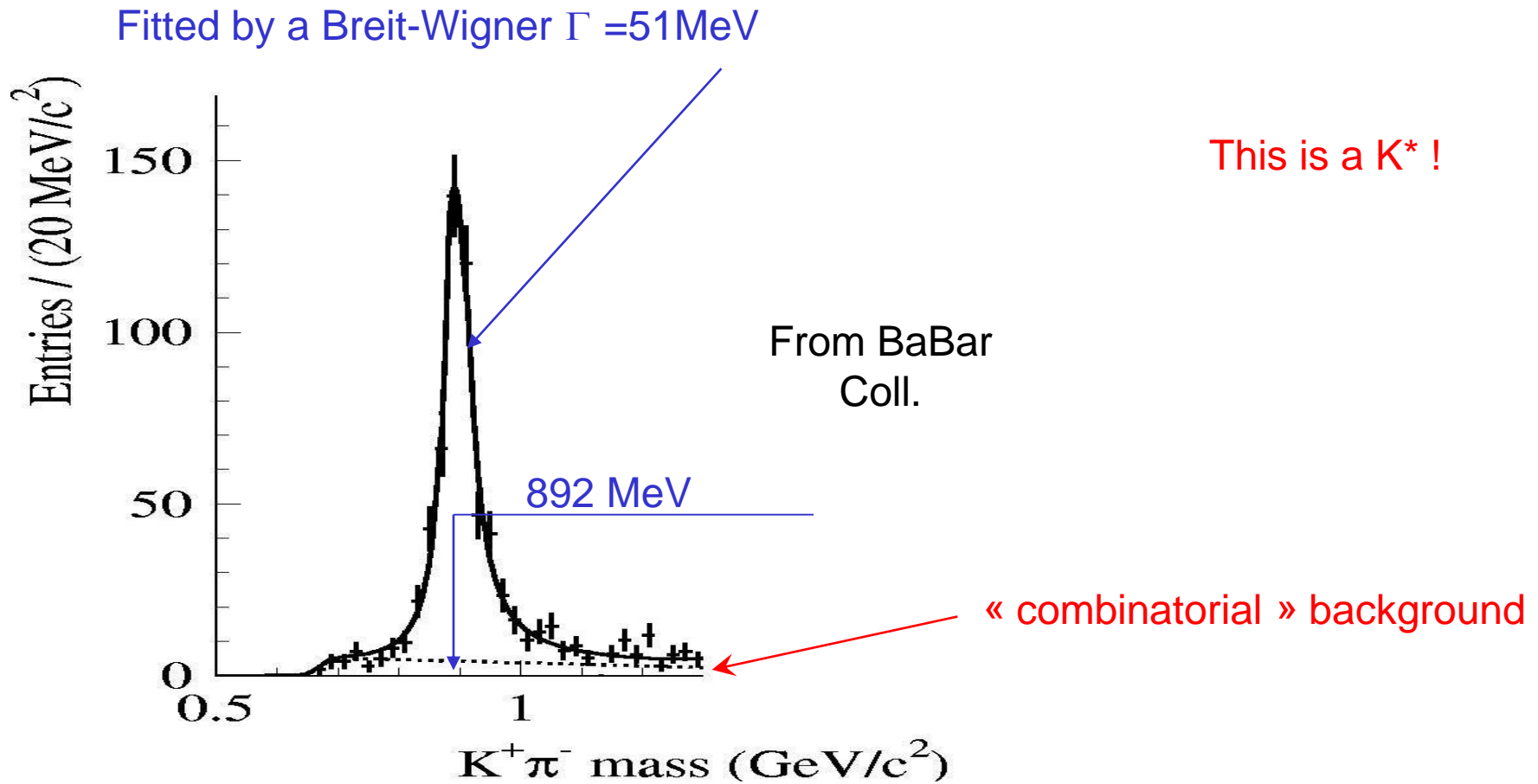
You can see that Z<sup>0</sup> in different decay modes has always the same width which is related to his lifetime



# Experimental spectra

experimental spectrum  $K^- \pi^+$  :

- Search for a  $K^-$  and a  $\pi^+$  in the detector and computation of the invariant mass



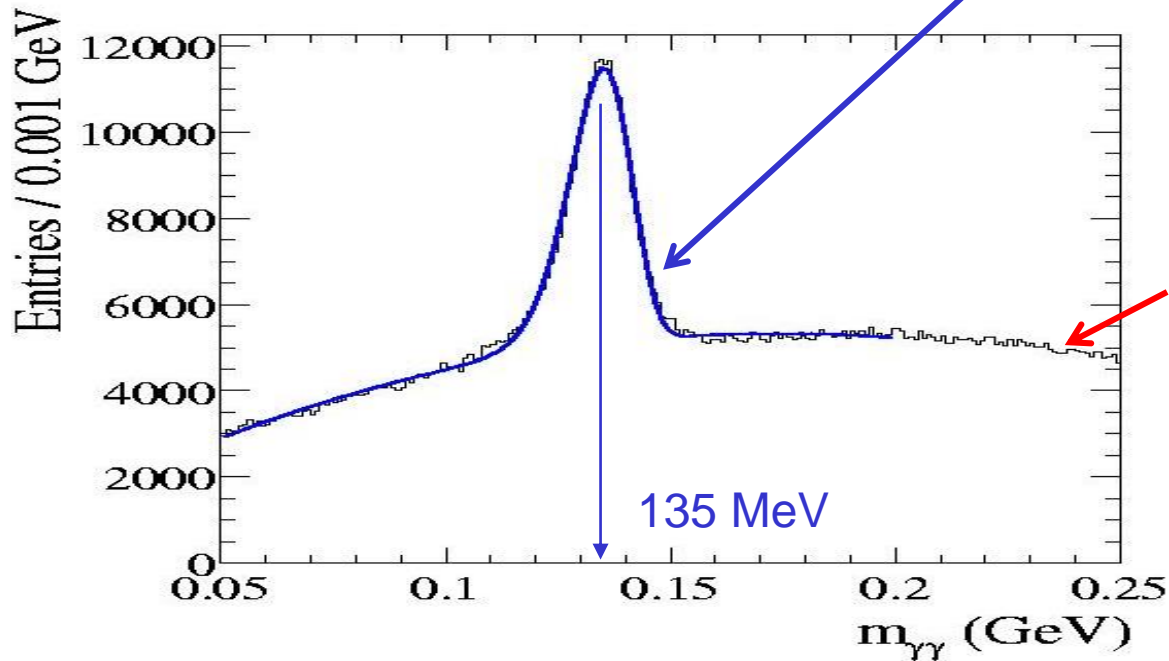
# $\pi^0$ experimental spectrum :

2  $\gamma$  reconstruction and computation of the invariant mass.

PDG  $\rightarrow$   $\tau = 8.4 \times 10^{-17}$  s  $\longleftrightarrow$   $\Gamma = 8$  eV

Fit by a gaussian

$\sigma \sim 7$  MeV



?  $\rightarrow$  Detector resolution effect

« combinatorial » background

D<sub>s</sub> experimental spectrum : ( $D_s \rightarrow \phi\pi^+$  and  $\phi \rightarrow \pi^+\pi^-$ )

PDG  $\rightarrow \tau = 500 \times 10^{-15} \text{ s}$

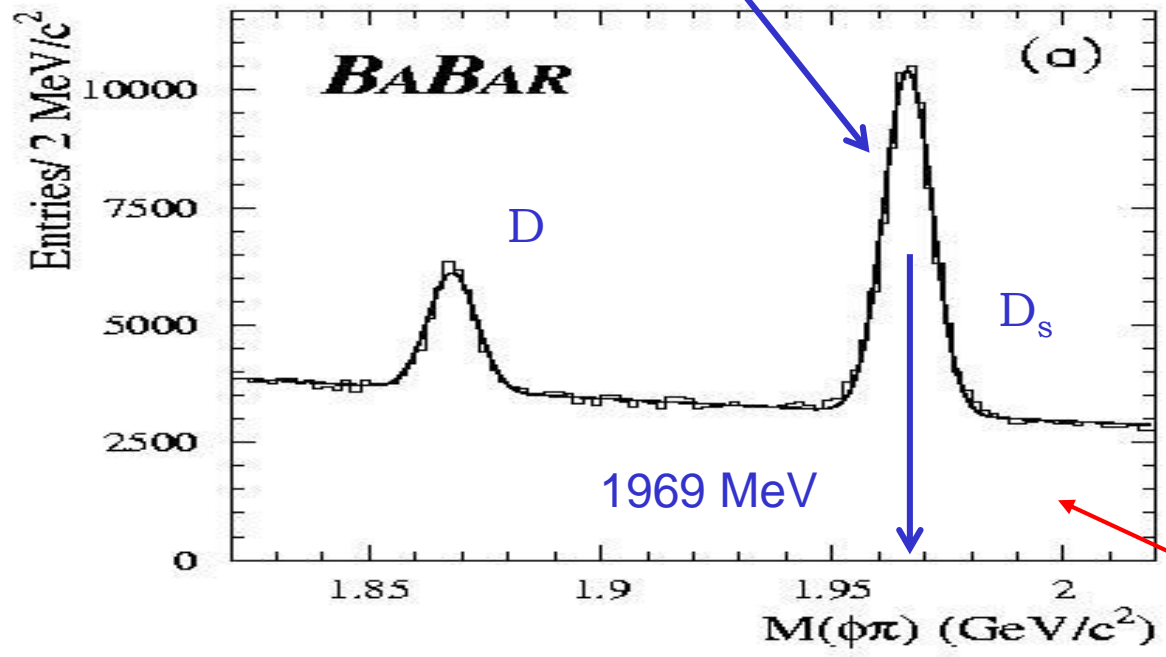


$\Gamma \sim 10^{-3} \text{ eV}$

But one sees  $\gg 10^{-3} \text{ eV}$

Fit by a gaussian  $\sigma \sim 10 \text{ MeV}$

Detector resolution effect



$\Rightarrow$  One measures directly «long» lifetimes not through widths

« combinatorial » background

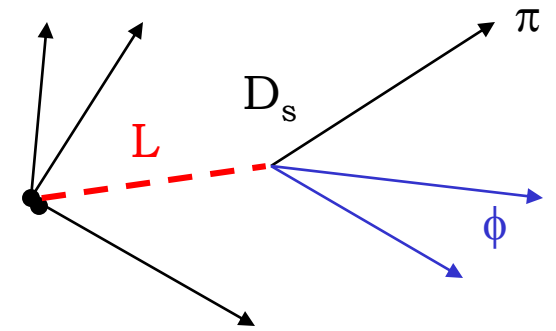


$\tau(D_s)$  :

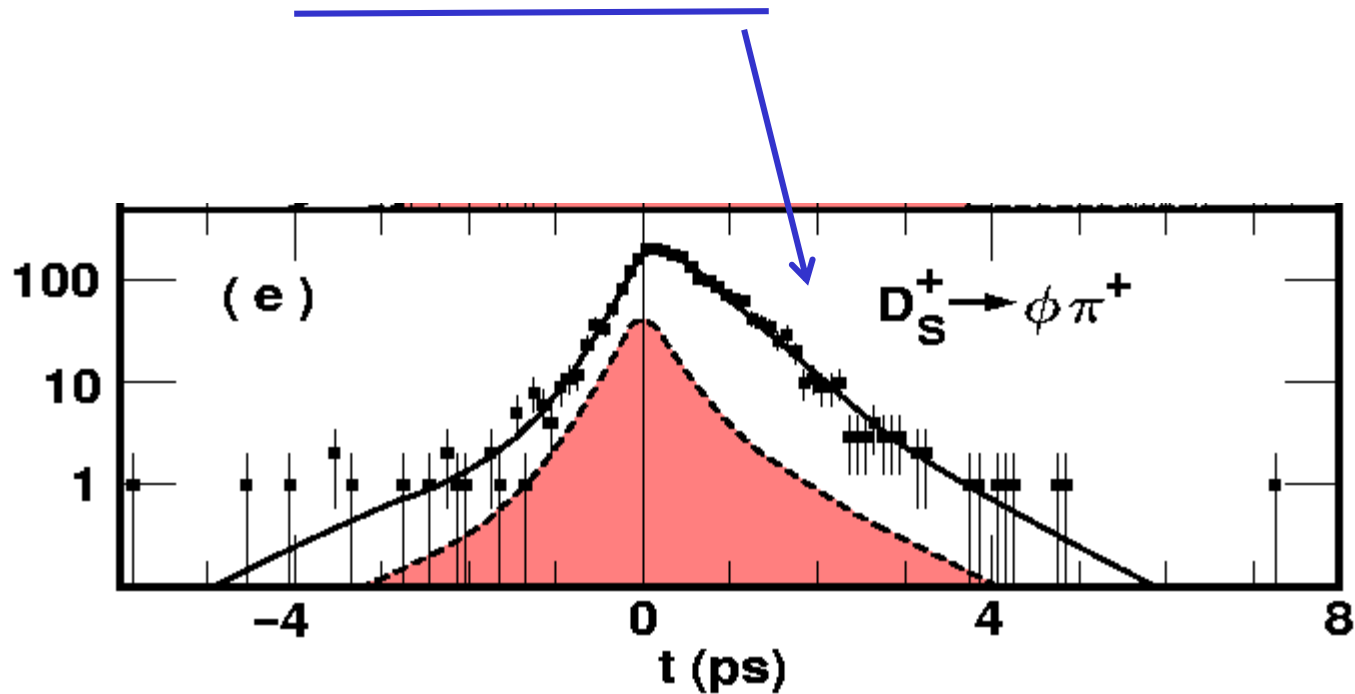
Measurement of the  $D_s$  lifetime

$$t = \frac{L \cdot m}{p}$$

$t$  : proper time



Experiment CLEO :  $\tau(D_s) = 486.3 \pm 15.0 \pm 5.0$  fs

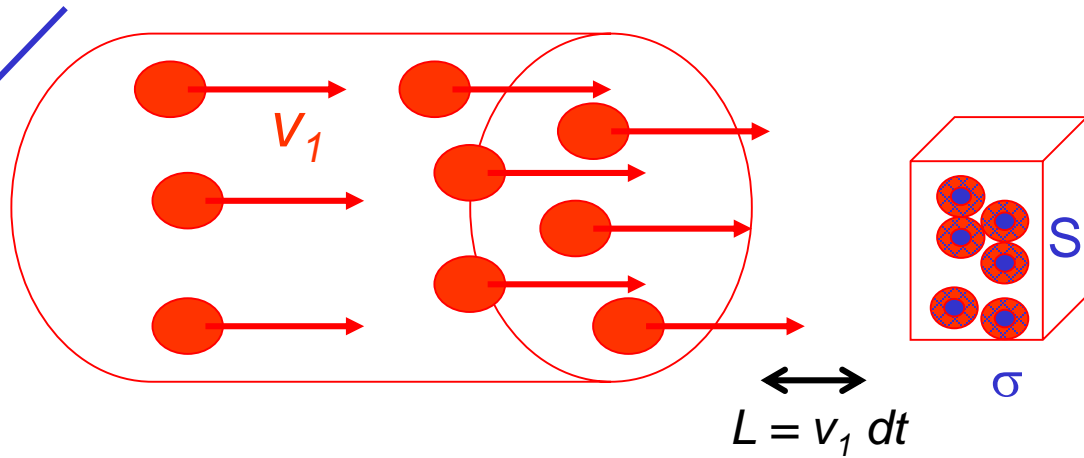


# Cross Section : $\sigma$

$$\frac{dN_{\text{int}}}{dt} =$$

$$F \sigma n_2 dV$$

Volume of target ( $dV=Sdx$ )



Flux  $F$ =number of particle crossing,  
in  $dt$ , the unity surface  $\perp$  to  $v_1$

$$F = n_1 (L/dt) = n_1 v_1$$

$$\frac{dN_{\text{int}}}{dt dV} = n_1 v_1 n_2 \sigma$$

The number of interactions per unit of volume and time is thus defined by

- **The physics processes  $\sigma$**  are « hidden » in this term
  - The number of particles per unit of volume in the beam ( $n_1$ )
  - The number of particles per unit of volume in the target ( $n_2$ )
- $\sigma : [L]^2$
  - $1 \text{ barn} = 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2$

Parentheis : From cross section  $\rightarrow$  number of produced event : the luminosity

Instantaneous luminosity

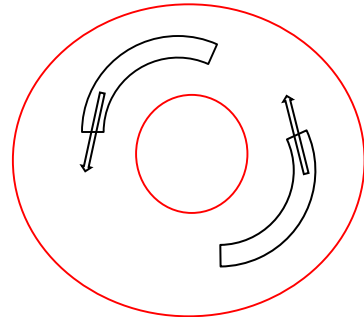
$$\frac{dN}{dt} = L \cdot \sigma$$

Number of interactions /s

luminosity  
cm<sup>-2</sup> sec<sup>-1</sup>

Cross section

$$\frac{dN_{int}}{dtdV} = n_1 v_1 n_2 \sigma$$



Colliding mode

$$\frac{dN}{dt dV} = \frac{n_1}{V} \frac{d}{c} \frac{n_2}{V} \sigma dV = \frac{n_1}{2\pi R s_x s_y} \frac{2\pi R}{c} n_2 \sigma = \frac{n_1}{s_x s_y} f n_2 \sigma$$

$$L = \frac{k f N_+ N_-}{s_x s_y}$$

$k$  bunches

$f$  (=c/circumference) frequency

$N_+$  : number of electrons in a bunch

$N_-$  : number of positrons in a bunch

An example : PEP-2 (where BaBar detector was installed)

$$I(e) = \left[ \frac{C}{s} \right]$$

charge  
time

$$I(e) = N(e) \times q_e \times N_{bunches}^e \times \frac{c}{L_{circ}}$$

$$L = \frac{kfN_+N_-}{s_x s_y}$$

$$\Rightarrow L = 3 \cdot 10^{33} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

Macroscopic quantity → relates the microscopic world ( $\sigma$ ) to a number of events

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = L \cdot \sigma$$

Circumference	2200 m
$I(e^-)$	0.75 A
$I(e^+)$	2.16 A
$N_{paquets}$	2 x 1658
$N(e^-)/bunch$	$2.1 \cdot 10^{10}$
$N(e^+)/bunch$	$6.0 \cdot 10^{10}$
Beams size	$s_x = 150 \mu\text{m}, s_y = 5 \mu\text{m}$

The total cross section  $\sigma$  for a collision  $a+b \rightarrow 1+2+\dots+n$  and the width for a decay  $\Gamma$   $a \rightarrow 1+2+\dots+n$  are given by :

$$d\sigma = \frac{1}{F} \sum_{\text{int}} |\langle f | T | i \rangle|^2 (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(Q_f - Q_i) \prod_{k=1}^n \frac{d^3 p_k}{(2\pi)^3 2E_k}$$

$$d\Gamma = \frac{1}{2m_a} \sum_{\text{int}} |\langle f | T | i \rangle|^2 (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(Q_f - Q_i) \prod_{k=1}^n \frac{d^3 p_k}{(2\pi)^3 2E_k}$$

$$F : \text{flux} : F = 4\sqrt{q_a q_b - m_a^2 m_b^2}$$

$\sum_{\text{int}}$  : over all the internal degrees of freedom of the final particles

$T$  : depend upon spins and momenta

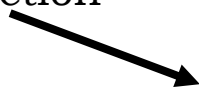
$\langle f | T | i \rangle$  : matrix element of the transition  $|i\rangle \rightarrow |f\rangle$

$Q_i = q_a + q_b$  momentum-energy quadrivector energie of the initial state  $|i\rangle$

$Q_f = \sum_{k=1}^n q_k$  momentum-energy quadrivector energie of the final state  $|f\rangle$

$\vec{p}_k, E_k$  : momentum and energy of the  $k^{\text{th}}$  particle in the final state

To be determined from the interaction



Differential element :

$$d\phi_n(Q_i, q_1, \dots, q_n) = (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(Q_f - Q_i) \prod_{k=1}^n \frac{d^3 p_k}{(2\pi)^3 2E_k}$$

This term contains all the kinematics

$$d^3 p = p^2 dp d\Omega$$

$$d\Omega = d \cos \theta d\phi$$

Named phase space at n-body

Taking the case of :  $a+b \rightarrow 1+2$  ou  $a \rightarrow 1+2$  we write :

$$\sigma = \int_{impulsion} \int_{spin} \sigma \quad \text{Not polarised beam}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{2s_a + 1} \cdot \frac{1}{2s_b + 1}$$

We obtain

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega^*} \Big|_{a+b \rightarrow 1,2} = \frac{1}{64\pi^2} \cdot \frac{1}{s} \cdot \frac{p_f^*}{p_i^*} \sum_{int} |T_{fi}|^2 \\ \frac{d\Gamma}{d\Omega^*} \Big|_{a \rightarrow 1,2} = \frac{1}{32\pi^2} \cdot \frac{p_f^*}{m_a^2} \sum_{int} |T_{fi}|^2 \end{array} \right.$$

Kinematics

From « Feynman » diagram..

$a + b \rightarrow 1 + 2$

$$E_1^* = \frac{m_1^2 - m_2^2 + s}{2\sqrt{s}} \quad ; \quad E_2^* = \frac{m_2^2 - m_1^2 + s}{2\sqrt{s}} \quad \Rightarrow p^*$$

If we suppose that  $m_1 = m_2 = m$

$$p^* = \sqrt{\left(\frac{m_a}{2}\right)^2 - m^2}$$

$a \rightarrow 1 + 2$

if we neglect the masses of the final particles  $m_{1,2} \ll m_a$

In a decay we have  $s = m_a^2$

$$p^* = \frac{m_a}{2}$$

The Particle Data Group book : where all the measured particles properties are recorded

(paper or internet)

For each particle :

$\pi^+$ DECAY MODES	Fraction ( $\Gamma_i/\Gamma$ )	Confidence level	$p$ (MeV/c)
$\mu^+ \nu_\mu$	[b] (99.98770 ± 0.00004)	90%	30
$\mu^+ \nu_\mu \gamma$	[c] ( 2.00 ± 0.25 )	$\times 10^{-4}$	30
$e^+ \nu_e$	[b] ( 1.230 ± 0.004 )	$\times 10^{-4}$	70
$e^+ \nu_e \gamma$	[c] ( 1.61 ± 0.23 )	$\times 10^{-7}$	70
$e^+ \nu_e \pi^0$	( 1.036 ± 0.006 )	$\times 10^{-8}$	4
$e^+ \nu_e e^+ e^-$	( 3.2 ± 0.5 )	$\times 10^{-9}$	70
$e^+ \nu_e \nu \bar{\nu}$	< 5	$\times 10^{-6}$	70

This is  $BR_i = \Gamma_i/\Gamma$

$$\tau = \frac{\hbar}{c^2} \frac{1}{\Gamma} = \frac{\hbar}{c^2} \frac{BR_i}{\Gamma_i}$$

This is the  $p_{\max}$  from the previous page. Obtained by 4-momentum conservation

$$E_\mu^* = \frac{m_\pi^2 + m_\mu^2 - m_\nu^2}{2m_\pi}$$

$$p_\mu^* = \sqrt{E_\mu^{*2} - m_\mu^{*2}}$$

$p_{\max} \sim 30$  MeV

Short example ... Can be much longer !

I.4

*Introduction to*  
*the interactions*

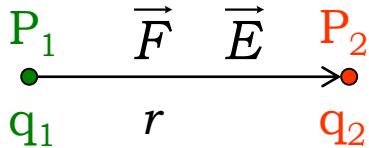


# Interactions : introduction

## Classical physics :

The particle  $P_1$  creates around it a force field. If one introduces the particle  $P_2$  in this field it undergoes the force.

Electrostatic example :



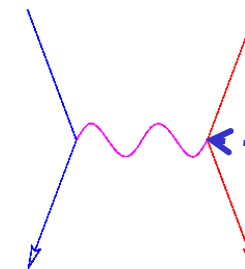
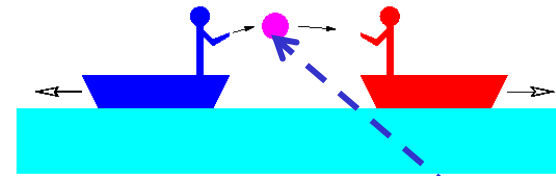
$$\vec{F} = q_2 \vec{E}(r) = q_2 \frac{kq_1}{r^2} \vec{u}_r$$

## «modern» physics:

$P_1$  and  $P_2$  exchange a field quantum; the interaction boson



The **heavier** the ball, the more difficult it will be to throw it **far away**



Interaction vector

Range of the interaction  $\propto 1/\text{mass}$  of the vector

## Range of an interaction

Not exact. Heuristic

- Creation and exchange of an interaction particle  
⇒ violation of the energy conservation principle during a limited time

$$\Delta t \approx \frac{\hbar}{\Delta E} = \frac{\hbar}{mc^2}$$

Heisenberg principle

- During  $\Delta t$  the particle can travel  $R = c \Delta t$

$$R = \frac{\hbar c}{mc^2}$$

Range → « reduced » wave length (Compton)

with  $\hbar c \cong 197.3 \text{ MeV fm}$

Example : an interaction particle with  $m = 200 \text{ MeV} \Leftrightarrow R = 1 \text{ fm}$

## Shape of the interaction potential

Klein-Gordon equation for a spin 0 particle :

$$E^2 = p^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4$$

$$(i\hbar)^2 \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = (i\hbar)^2 c^2 \nabla^2 \psi + m^2 c^4 \psi$$

operators

$$E = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$

$$p = -i\hbar \nabla$$

$$-\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = -c^2 \nabla^2 \psi + \frac{m^2 c^4}{\hbar^2} \psi$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla^2 \psi - \frac{m^2 c^2}{\hbar^2} \psi - \cancel{\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2}} = 0$$

(one only deals with stationary states)

$$\nabla^2 \psi - \frac{m^2 c^2}{\hbar^2} \psi = 0$$

In spherical symmetry :  $\psi = U(r)$  and  $\Delta U(r) = \nabla^2 U(r) =$

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{dU(r)}{dr} \right) = \frac{m^2 c^2}{\hbar^2} U(r)$$

if  $m \neq 0$  :

$$U(r) = -\frac{g^2}{r} e^{-r/R} \quad r > 0$$

Yukawa potential

$g$  coupling constant

$$R = \frac{\hbar}{mc}$$

Range

if  $m = 0$  :

$$\Delta U(r) = 0$$

$$U(r) = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r} \quad r > 0$$

$q_i = \text{charge}$

In this case the Yukawa potential is equivalent to the Coulomb one

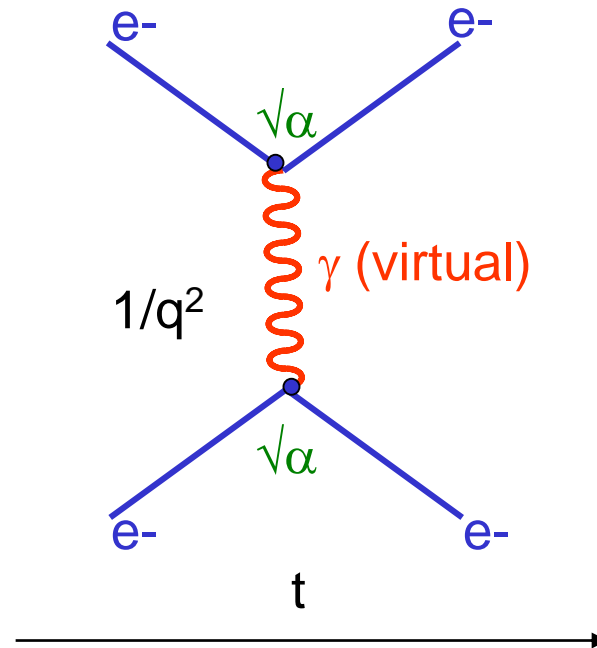
<b>Force</b>	<b>Relative intensity (order of magnitude)</b>	<b>Vector</b>	<b>Lifetime (order of magnitude)</b>
Strong	1	Gluons	$10^{-24}$ s
electromagnetic	$10^{-2}$	Photon	$10^{-19}$ - $10^{-20}$ s
Weak	$10^{-5}$	W and Z <sup>0</sup>	$10^{-16}$ - $10^{+3}$ s
Gravitation	$10^{-40}$	Graviton	???

For the strong, electromagnetic and gravitational interactions these orders of magnitudes can be obtained comparing the binding energy of 2 protons separated by ~1fm

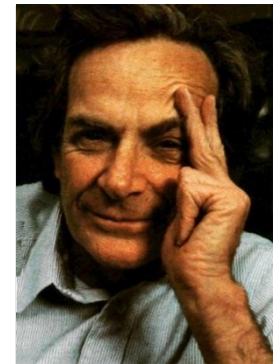
The intensity of the interactions dictates the particles lifetimes and their interaction cross sections.

# Electromagnetism (QED)

- Between charged particles
- Vector of the interaction : the photon ( $\gamma$ )
- One Feynman graph for QED:



R. Feynman



electrons exchanging a photon

or

An  $e^-$  which emits a  $\gamma$  and moves back. The  $\gamma$  is absorbed by an other  $e^-$  whose direction is modified

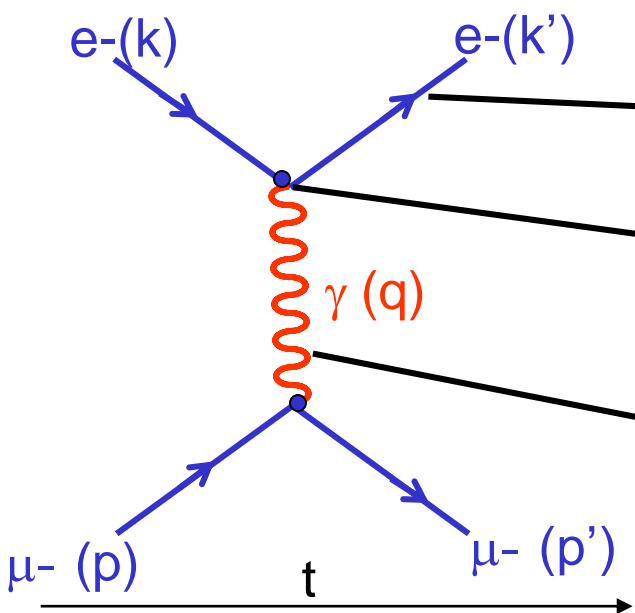
# Feynman graph

- A powerful « graphical » method to display the interaction in perturbations theory (each diagram is a term in the perturbation series)
- Each graph is equivalent to « a number »
- → computation of the matrix elements and of the transition probabilities

————— particle

~~~~~ Vector boson of the interaction

- Horizontal axis : the time
- Lines are particles which propagate in space-time
- The • represent the vertices «location» of the interaction (where there is quantum number conservation)



### Feynman rules :

External lines: fields (spinors, vectors, ...)

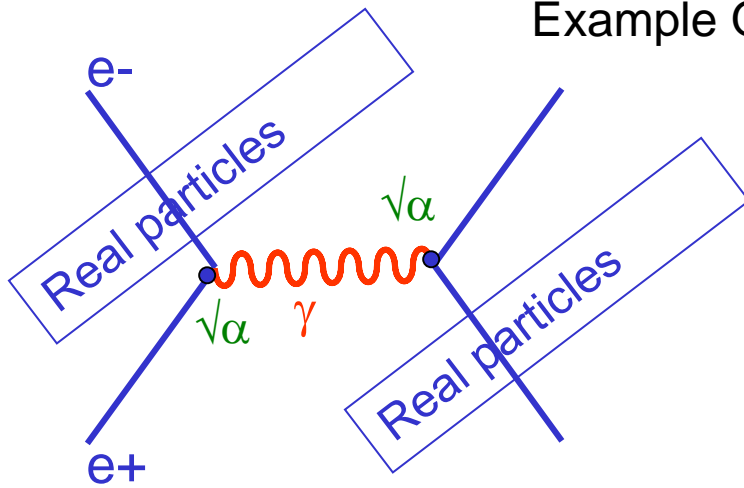
Vertex:  $\sqrt{\alpha}$  factor in the matrix element « interaction intensity »

Propagator: factor  $ig_{\nu\nu}/(q^2-m^2)$  (depends also on spin ...)

$$\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar c} = \frac{1}{137}$$

# Virtual particles

Example QED :  $e^+e^-$  symmetric collision in the rest frame



$$E_{e^+} + E_{e^-} = E_\gamma$$

$$\vec{p}_+ + \vec{p}_- = \vec{p}_\gamma$$

$$m_\gamma^2 = 2m_e^2 + 2E_{e^+}E_{e^-} - 2p_+p_- \cos\theta$$

It can be interpreted as :

Violation of the energy-momentum conservation law

Or

Creation of a massive virtual photon during a « short » time

In the rest frame :  $\vec{p}_+ + \vec{p}_- = \vec{p}_\gamma = \vec{0}$

$$\theta = \pi \Rightarrow m_\gamma^2 = 2m_e^2 + 2E_{e^+}E_{e^-} + 2p_+p_-$$

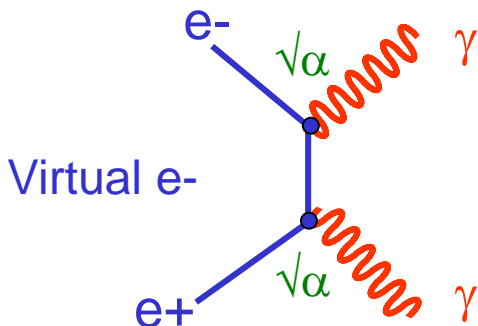
incompatible with  $m_\gamma = 0$

The  $\gamma$  is « off-shell »

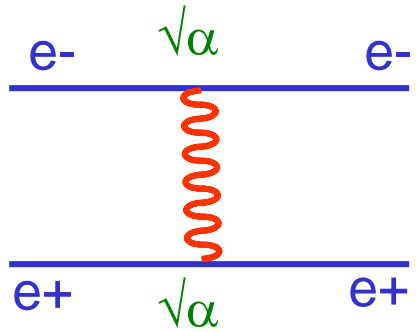
the  $\gamma$  can only exist virtually thanks to  $\Delta E \cdot \Delta t \approx \hbar$

2  $\gamma$  production going in opposite directions

→ energy-momentum conservation

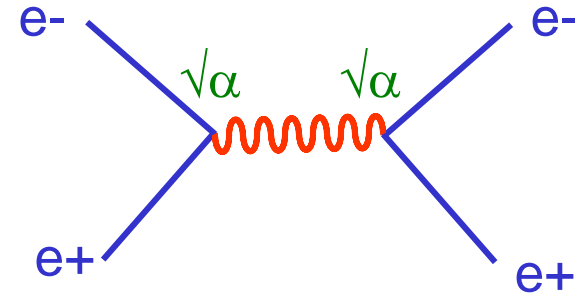


# $e^+e^- \rightarrow e^+e^-$ interaction



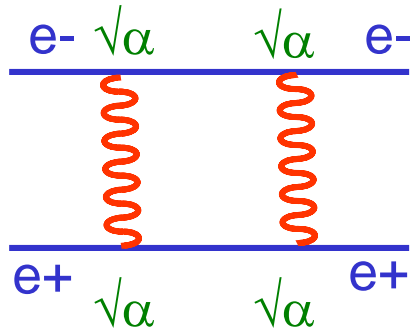
$\gamma$  exchange between an  $e^+$  and an  $e^-$

+

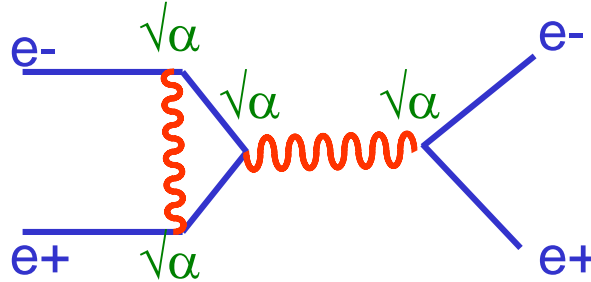


$\sim \alpha$

$e^+e^-$  pair annihilation in  $\gamma$  and  $\gamma$  conversion in an  $e^+$  and an  $e^-$



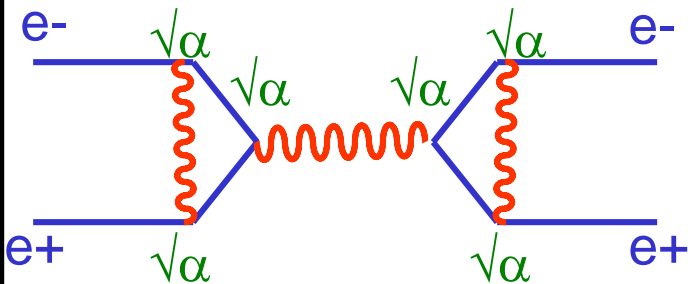
+



+ ...

$\sim \alpha^2$

exchange of 2  $\gamma$  between an  $e^+$  and an  $e^-$



+ ...

$\sim \alpha^3$

$\alpha$  small (1/137) : one can develop in perturbation series



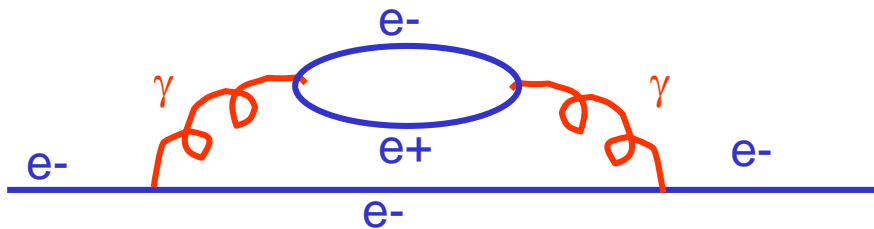


# The way we see the electron and the photon is modified

electron :



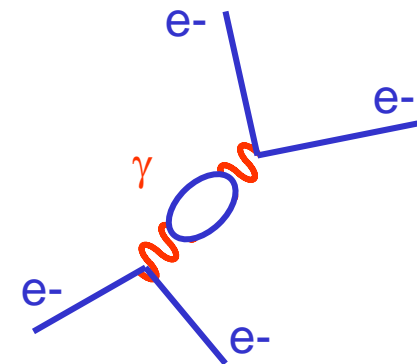
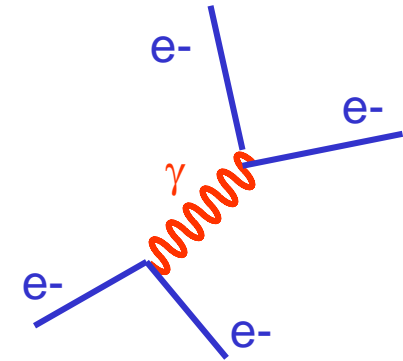
The electron emits and absorbs all the time virtual  $\gamma$ , it can be seen as :



...

=> Theoretical ( $\alpha$  « running »), Vacuum polarization and experimental (g-2) consequences

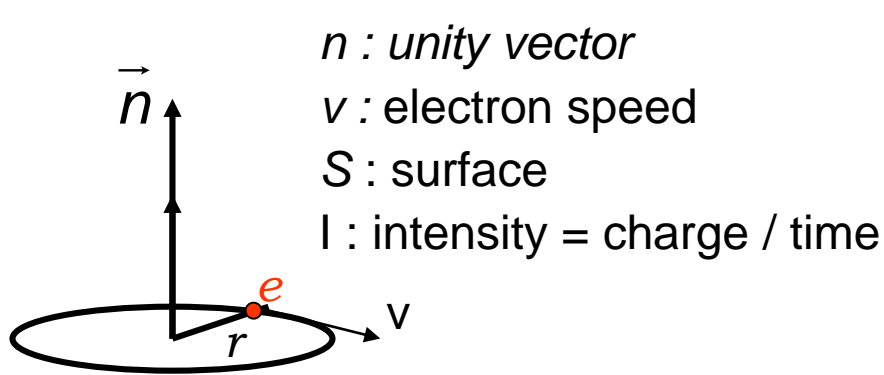
photon :



# (g-2) : Experimental evidence of the vacuum polarisation

## Gyro-magnetic ratio $g$

- The magnetic moment associated associated to the angular momentum of the electron



$$\vec{\mu} = I S \vec{n} = \frac{e}{2\pi r} \pi r^2 \vec{n} = \frac{e}{2m} (mvr) \vec{n}$$

Angular momentum  $\hbar l$

$$\mu = \mu_B l \quad \text{with} \quad \mu_B = \frac{e\hbar}{2m}$$

Bohr magneton

$$\vec{\mu} = \mu_B \vec{L}$$

- Intrinsic magnetic momentum :

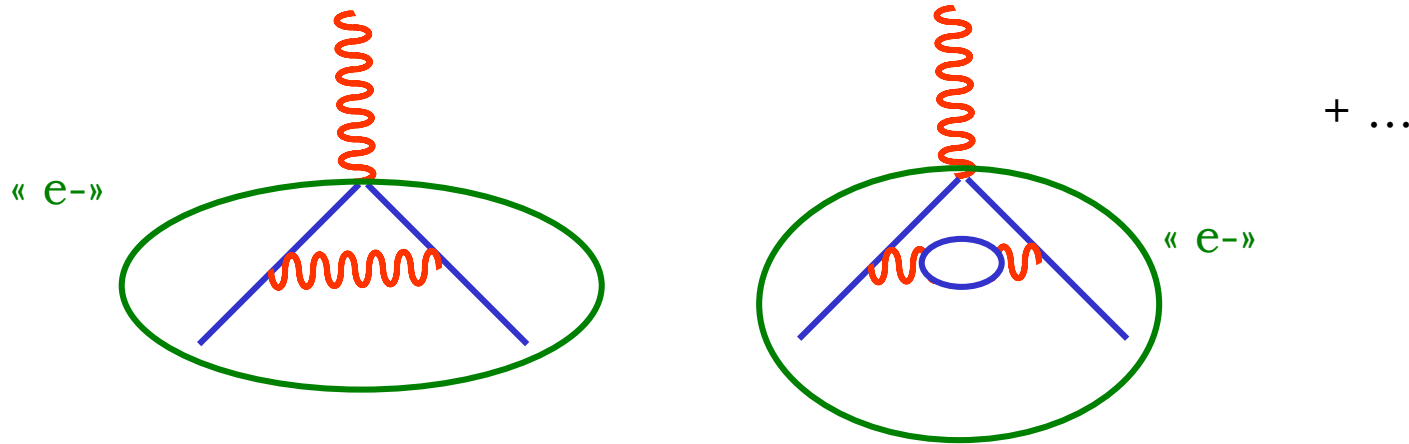
Dirac : for spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  point-like particles :  $g=2$

$$\vec{\mu} = g \mu_B \vec{S}$$

gyro-magnetic spin ratio

spin

The value of  $g$  is modified by :



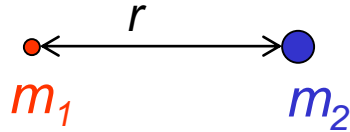
One defines 
$$a = \frac{g-2}{2} = \frac{g}{2} - 1 = \frac{\alpha}{2\pi} + \dots \approx \frac{1}{800}$$

$a = 0.00115965241 \pm 0.00000000020$  experiment ( $10^{-11}$  precision )

$a = 0.00115965238 \pm 0.00000000026$  theory ( $\alpha^3$ )

# Gravitational Force

$$F = \frac{Gm_1m_2}{r^2}$$



$$G = 6.67259(85)10^{-11} \frac{\text{m}^3}{\text{kg sec}^2}$$

Newton constant

To compare with the electromagnetic force for the hydrogen atom

$$\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar c} = \alpha \approx \frac{1}{137}$$

$$\frac{Gm_em_p}{\hbar c} = \alpha_{\text{grav}} \approx 3.3 \times 10^{-42}$$

The effects of gravitation are very small  
at the atom scale → neglected..

- 
- Important effects if  $\alpha_{\text{grav}} \sim 1$

$$\frac{Gm^2}{\hbar c} \sim 1 \Rightarrow mc^2 \sim 10^{19} \text{ GeV}$$

Masse de Planck

- For energies much lower than  $10^{19}$  GeV we can neglect gravitational effects
- Actually there is not satisfactory theory for gravitation

# Interactions : summary

- The interactions are mediated by **vector bosons**  
interaction range  $\propto 1/\text{mass}$
- **Feynman graph** = display of a matrix element of the transition in the perturbations series framework
- **Virtual particles** (off-shell particles during a short time)
- QED: electric charge,  $\gamma$ , vacuum polarisation,  $\alpha \nearrow$  with energy

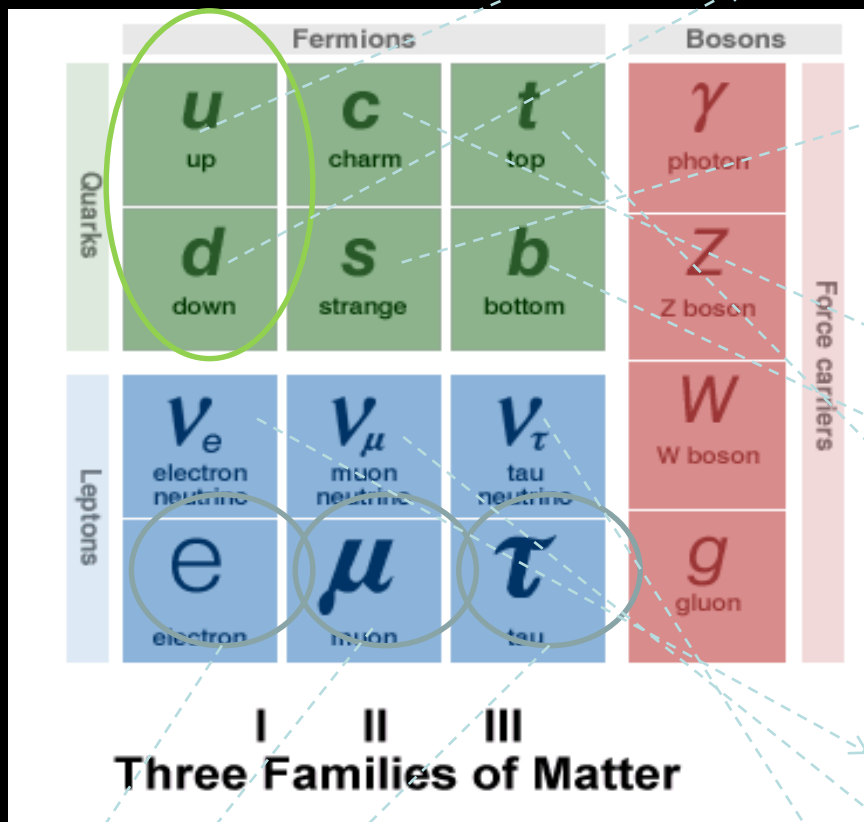
Strong interaction (discussed in a devoted lectures)

Weak interaction (discussed in devoted lectures)

- QCD: colour, gluons (self-interaction),  $\alpha_s \searrow$  with energy (asymptotic freedom)
- Weak: concerns all fermions,  $W^\pm, Z^0$

# Complements

→ **1912** (Rutherford) proton  
**1932** (Chadwick) neutron



→ **1947** Evidence of Strange particles

→ **1970** (SLAC) Quarks discovered on deep inelastic scattering

→ **1974** (Richter/Ting ) J/ψ (cc) : quark c

→ **1977** (Ledermann) (bb) : quark b

→ **1994** (CDF/DØ coll.) quark t

→ **1958** (Reines-Cowan) (th. Introduced in 1930) ν<sub>e</sub>

→ **1964** ν<sub>μ</sub>

→ **2000** (Donut coll.) ν<sub>μ</sub>

← **1897** (Thompson)

← **1937** (Andersson)

← **1975** (Perl/SLAC)

+ Antiparticles : **1932** Evidence of positron



# Interaction is transported by particles


|         | Fermions                                       |                                              |                                              | Bosons         |                                      |
|---------|------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|----------------|--------------------------------------|
| Quarks  | <b>u</b><br>up                                 | <b>c</b><br>charm                            | <b>t</b><br>top                              | Force carriers | <b><math>\gamma</math></b><br>photon |
|         | <b>d</b><br>down                               | <b>s</b><br>strange                          | <b>b</b><br>bottom                           |                | <b>Z</b><br>Z boson                  |
| Leptons | <b><math>\nu_e</math></b><br>electron neutrino | <b><math>\nu_\mu</math></b><br>muon neutrino | <b><math>\nu_\tau</math></b><br>tau neutrino |                | <b>W</b><br>W boson                  |
|         | <b>e</b><br>electron                           | <b><math>\mu</math></b><br>muon              | <b><math>\tau</math></b><br>tau              |                | <b>g</b><br>gluon                    |
|         |                                                |                                              |                                              |                |                                      |
|         | I                                              | II                                           | III                                          |                |                                      |

**Three Families of Matter**

1905 photoelectric effect

1983 (CERN@SPS)

1975 (DESY/SLAC)  
Three jets observation

+  2012  
CERN ATLAS/CMS)

> 100 years of search and discoveries

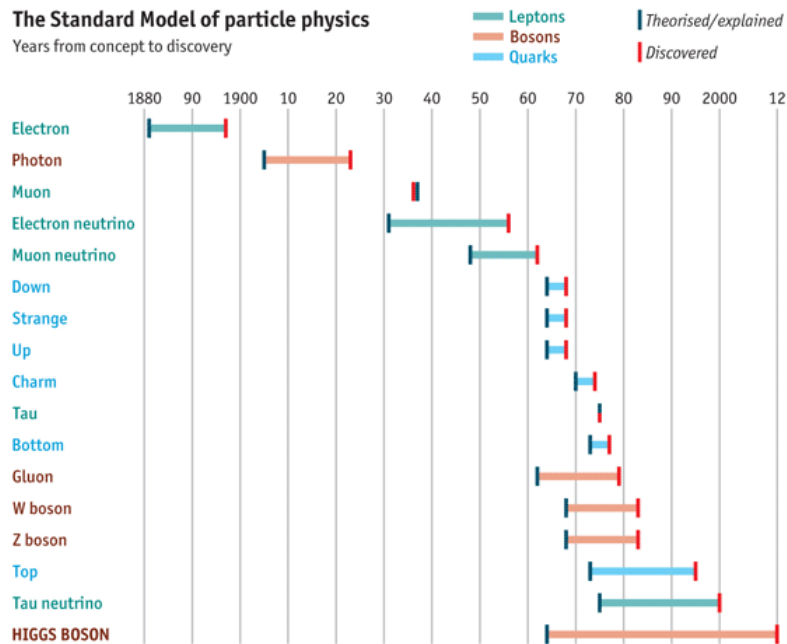
# All our knowledge is today « codified » in the **Standard Model** : Matter, Interaction, Unification Interaction, Unification

## • The Standard Model :

- Classify the matter particles in family (fermions)
- Explain the interactions through local gauge principle symmetry (bosons)
- Allow the particle to acquire masses through the **Higgs mechanism**

The Standard Model of particle physics

Years from concept to discovery



Source: The Economist

## History of the particle predictions and discovery

As you can see for some a lot of time passed from the prediction to the discovery. Often conceptual and technological breakthroughs were needed

For Higgs ...almost 50 years !

# APPENDIX I : Angular momentum and spin

## Angular momentum

Classical mechanics :

$$\vec{L} = \vec{r} \wedge \vec{p}$$

3 components :

- can be measured with infinite precision
- can have all values

Quantum Mechanics :

same definition, with the operators R and P (notation  $\mathbf{L}$  or  $\vec{L}$  )

• The algebra of the components of  $\mathbf{L}$  :  $[L_i, L_j] = i \varepsilon_{ijk} L_k$  ;  $\varepsilon_{ijk} = 0, +1, -1$  according to  $ijk$ . One also has :  $L^2 = L_i^2 + L_j^2 + L_k^2$  ;  $[L^2, L_i] = 0$

• 2 independent operators (usually :  $L^2$  et  $L_z$  )

(2 useful quantum numbers)

• quantification :

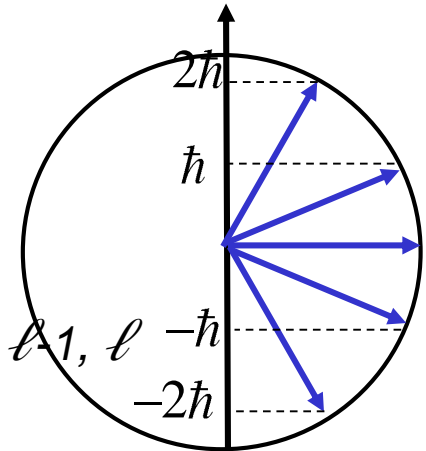
•  $L^2$  :  $\ell(\ell+1) \hbar^2$  ;  $\ell$  is an integer

•  $L_z$  :  $m\hbar$  with  $m = -\ell, -\ell+1, \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots, \ell-1, \ell$

• Addition of 2 angular momenta :

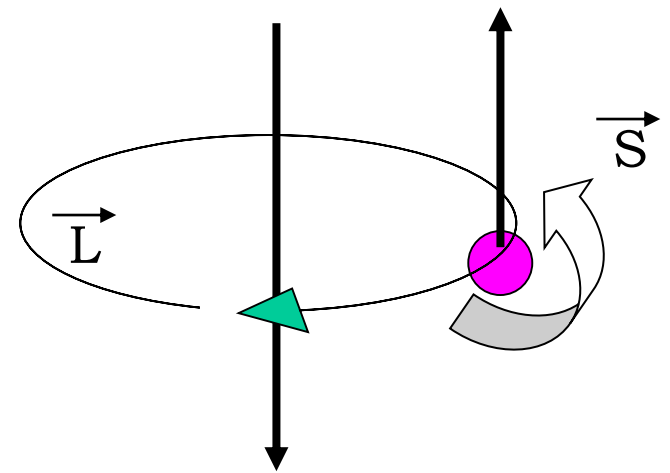
$$|j_1, j_2; m_1, m_2\rangle = \sum_{J=|j_1-j_2|}^{j_1+j_2} \sum_{M=-J}^J |J, M\rangle \langle J, M | j_1, j_2; m_1, m_2\rangle$$

Clebsch-Gordan (CG) coefficients



## Spin

- The spin is the **intrinsic kinetic momentum of a particle**.
- **it can be half-integer**
- It determines the behavior of a given particle.
- Few examples of experimental evidences for the spin :
  - **Fine structure of the atoms spectral lines** : each line is made of several components very close in frequency
  - **“Abnormal » Zeeman effect** : Each spectral line is divided in a given number of equidistant lines when the atom is in an uniform magnetic field. «Anomaly» : the atoms of  $Z$  odd (ex. Hydrogen) divide into an even number of sub-level. In fact the number of levels is  $2\ell+1 \rightarrow$  proof of half integer kinetic momentum !
- The spin has no classical equivalent. Trying to explain it saying that the particle rotates on its own axis does not work.



**e,p,n** have very different characteristics (charge/ mass/interaction) but they have the same spin :  $\frac{1}{2}$

- The spin obeys the same laws as the other kinetic momenta :
  - Algebra similar as the **L** one
  - $S^2$  can have the values  $s(s+1)\hbar^2$  ( $s$  can be half integer)
  - And  $S_z$ :  $m\hbar$  with  $m = -s, -s+1, \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots, s-1, s$
  - One can add a spin with
    - An other spin ( $S = S_1 \oplus S_2$ )
    - With an total angular momentum ( $J = L \oplus S$ )

A particle can have any angular momentum  $L$  but its spin  $S$  is fixed

|                   | integer spin (Bosons)                |                               | Half integer spin (Fermions) |                         |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|
|                   | spin 0                               | spin 1                        | spin 1/2                     | spin 3/2                |
| <b>Elementary</b> | -                                    | Vectors of the interactions   | quarks, leptons              | -                       |
| <b>Composite</b>  | pseudo-scalar mesons ( $\rho, K..$ ) | Vector mesons ( $\rho, K^*$ ) | some baryons (octet)         | some baryons (decuplet) |

## spin/statistics theorem (Pauli 1940)

**Pauli's exclusion principle** : two particles of half integer spin (fermions) cannot be simultaneously in the same quantum state

Pauli's principle

anti-symmetry of the wave function by the exchange of 2 particles (for the fermions)



Bohr and Pauli

For 2 particles one in the state  $\psi_\alpha$ , the other one in the state  $\psi_\beta$ , one can write :

$$\psi(1,2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\psi_\alpha(1)\psi_\beta(2) + \psi_\beta(1)\psi_\alpha(2)) \quad \text{Symmetric (bosons)}$$

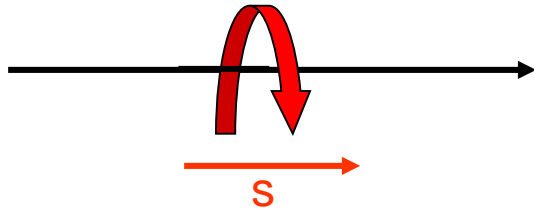
$$\psi(1,2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\psi_\alpha(1)\psi_\beta(2) - \psi_\beta(1)\psi_\alpha(2)) \quad \text{anti-symmetric (fermions)}$$

If 2 fermions are in the same state ( $\alpha = \beta$ ) their wave function is 0 ! This problem does not exist for bosons which can occupy the same state (ex. supra- conductors).

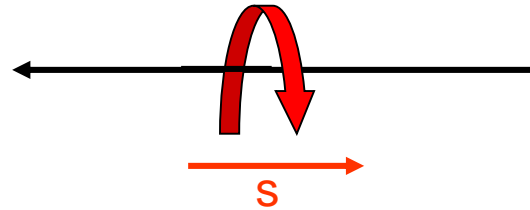
This can be generalized for a larger system of particles.

## Helicity

- Particle of spin  $\vec{S}$
- Axis orientation in the momentum direction  $\vec{n}$
- Helicity :  
$$\Lambda = \vec{n} \cdot \vec{S} \quad \text{with} \quad \vec{n} = \frac{\vec{p}}{|\vec{p}|} \quad \Lambda = \vec{n} \cdot \vec{J} \quad \text{because} \quad \vec{p} \cdot \vec{L} = \vec{p} \cdot (\vec{r} \wedge \vec{p}) = \vec{0}$$
- Eigenvalues  $-\text{s} \leq \lambda \leq \text{s}$   $2\text{s}+1$  values
- if mass=0 only 2 eigenvalues :  $\pm \text{s}$



Right-handed particle



Left-handed particle

The helicity is invariant under rotation (scalar product of 2 vectors).

# APPENDIX III : two body space phase

$$d\Gamma = \frac{1}{2m_a} \sum_{\text{int}} |\langle f | T | i \rangle|^2 (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(Q_f - Q_i) \prod_{k=1}^2 \frac{d^3 p_k}{(2\pi)^3 2E_k}$$

$Q_i = q_a + q_b$  quadrivecteur energie impulsion de l'etat intial  $|i\rangle$

$Q_f = \sum_{k=1}^2 q_k$  quadrivecteur energie impulsion de l'etat initial  $|f\rangle$

$\vec{p}_k, E_k$  : impulsion, energie de la  $k^{\text{ieme}}$  particule finale

$$d\psi = \int_4 (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(Q - q_1 - q_2) \prod_{k=1}^2 \frac{d^3 p_k}{(2\pi)^3 2E_k}$$

On intègre sur 4 variables à choisir parmi les 6 impulsions afin de faire disparaître la fonction  $\delta$  qui représente la conservation de l'énergie-impulsion

On se place dans le référentiel du centre de masse :  $Q = (\sqrt{s}, \vec{0})$

$$d\psi = \int_4 (2\pi)^4 \delta(\sqrt{s} - E_1 - E_2) \delta^3(\vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2) \frac{d^3 p_1}{(2\pi)^3 2E_1} \frac{d^3 p_2}{(2\pi)^3 2E_2}$$

Après intégration sur les 3 composantes de  $p_2$

$$d\psi = \frac{1}{4(2\pi)^2} \int_1 \delta(\sqrt{s} - E_1 - \sqrt{p_1^2 + m_2^2}) \frac{d^3 p_1}{E_1 \sqrt{p_1^2 + m_2^2}}$$

On choisit maintenant d'intégrer sur  $E_1$  et on utilise:  $p_1^2 = E_1^2 - m_1^2$        $d^3 p_1 = p_1^2 dp_1 d\Omega_1 = p_1 E_1 dE_1 d\Omega_1$



$$d\psi = \frac{1}{4(2\pi)^2} \int_1 \delta\left(\sqrt{s} - E_1 - \sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2}\right) \frac{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2}}{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2}} dE_1 d\Omega_1$$

Cette intégrale est de la forme  $\int g(x)\delta(f(x))dx = \frac{g(x_0)}{|f'(x_0)|}$  avec  $x_0$  tel que  $f(x_0) = 0$

avec :  $f(E_1) = E_1 + \sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2} - \sqrt{s} \Rightarrow f'(E_1) = 1 + \frac{E_1}{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2}}$

$$g(E_1) = \frac{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2}}{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2}}$$

$$\frac{g(E_1)}{f'(E_1)} = \frac{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2}}{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2}}{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2} + E_1} = \frac{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2}}{\sqrt{E_1^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2} + E_1}$$

La fonction  $f(E_1)$  s'annule pour la valeur  $E_{10}$  telle que  $E_{10} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{s}}(s + m_1^2 - m_2^2)$

$E_{10}$  est la valeur qui correspond à l'énergie de la particule 1 dans le centre de masse

$$\frac{g(E_{10})}{f'(E_{10})} = \frac{\sqrt{E_{10}^2 - m_1^2}}{\sqrt{E_{10}^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2} + E_{10}} = \frac{p_{10}}{\sqrt{s}}$$

$$d\psi = \frac{1}{4(2\pi)^2} \frac{p_{10}}{\sqrt{s}} d\Omega_1 = \frac{1}{16\pi^2} \frac{p^*}{\sqrt{s}} d\Omega_1$$

## Integrated luminosity

- Product of the luminosity of a characteristic time (1 year .. , experiment lifetime ...)

$$L_{\text{int}} = \int L dt \quad \text{cm}^{-2} \quad \text{or barn}^{-1} (\text{b}^{-1})$$

- PEP-2 example  $L=3 \cdot 10^{33} \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  1 year ( $\sim 10^7$  seconds)

- $L_{\text{int}} = 3 \cdot 10^{40} \text{ cm}^{-2} = 30 \text{ fb}^{-1}$

- $N = \sigma L_{\text{int}}$

- production cross section of the  $\Upsilon(4s)$  :  $\sim 1.1 \text{ nb}$

$\Rightarrow 33 \cdot 10^6 \Upsilon(4s)$  produced by year by the PEP-2 machine

$$1 \text{ b} = 10^{-24} \text{ cm}^2$$

$$1 \text{ fb} = 10^{-15} \text{ b}$$

$$1 \text{ fb}^{-1} = 10^{39} \text{ cm}^{-2}$$

$L_{\text{int}}$  takes into account the machine operation : convenient !