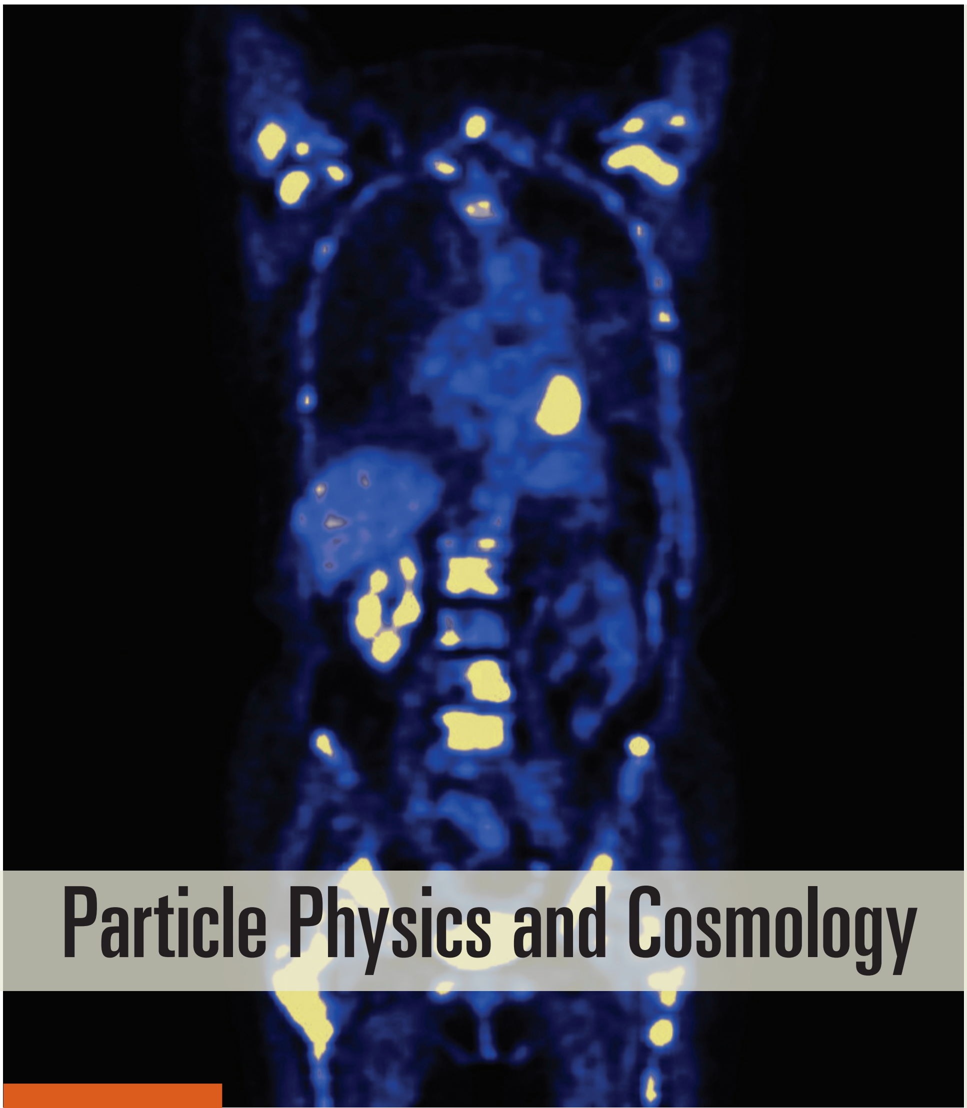


44

A PET scan of a patent with widespread metastasis of cancer. Cancerous cells have damaged mitochondria, resulting in their absorbing very high amounts of glucose for the production of energy. If the glucose is radioactive, these sites of increased glucose uptake appear in the PET scan as yellow regions, as seen in the photograph. (*Living Art Enterprises/Science Source*)

Particle Physics and Cosmology

STORYLINE **Your grandfather has finished his medical tests and it** looks like everything is fine. His PET scan was clear, looking nothing like the chapter-opening photograph. On your smartphone, you learned about CT scans while you were waiting for him. You had just started reading about PET scans when it was time to go home. As you drive him home, your grandfather says, "Did you know that they introduced *antimatter* into my body for the PET scan?" You say, "What?! Don't antimatter and matter annihilate each other violently when combined? Grandpa, why didn't you explode?" Your grandfather assures you that he is not going to explode; they just introduced a material that created a relatively small number of positrons. This gets you thinking. What are positrons? And what exactly is antimatter? As you think ahead to this final chapter, you hope that these questions will be answered. And, because this is the final chapter of the book, you hope that you will finish the chapter understanding *everything* there is to know about physics. What do you think? Is that possible?

CONNECTIONS In Chapters 41 and 42, we went *upward* in scale: from atoms to molecules and solids. Then we went *downward* in scale to the nucleus in Chapter 43. In this chapter, we will go even further in this downward direction: to the most fundamental particles from which matter is built. After 1932, physicists viewed all matter as consisting of three constituent particles: electrons, protons, and neutrons. Beginning in the 1940s, many "new" particles were discovered in experiments involving high-energy collisions between known particles. The new particles are characteristically very unstable and have very short half-lives, ranging between 10^{-6} s and 10^{-23} s. So far, more than 300 of these particles have been catalogued. Until the 1960s, physicists were bewildered by the great number and variety of subatomic particles that were being discovered. The periodic table explains how more than 100 elements can be formed from three types of particles (electrons, protons, and neutrons). In parallel with the periodic table, is there a means of forming more than 300 subatomic particles from a small number of basic building blocks? In this concluding chapter, we examine the current theory of elementary particles, in which all matter is constructed from only two families of particles, *quarks* and *leptons*. We then reverse direction again and take a giant leap *upward* in scale by discussing how clarifications of models regarding elementary particles might help scientists understand the birth and evolution of the Universe.

44.1 Field Particles for the Fundamental Forces in Nature

In this chapter, we will be discussing many types of particles that are new to us. Let's begin by making a bridge with something familiar: forces. As noted in Section 5.1, all natural phenomena can be described by four fundamental forces acting between particles. In order of decreasing strength, they are the nuclear force, the electromagnetic force, the weak force, and the gravitational force.

The nuclear force discussed in Chapter 43 is an attractive force between nucleons. It has a very short range and is negligible for separation distances between nucleons greater than approximately 10^{-15} m (about the size of the nucleus). The electromagnetic force (Chapters 22 and 28), which binds atoms and molecules together to form ordinary matter, has a strength of approximately 10^{-2} times that of the nuclear force. This long-range force decreases in magnitude as the inverse square of the separation between interacting particles. The gravitational force (Chapter 13) is a long-range force that has a strength of only about 10^{-39} times that of the nuclear force. Although this familiar interaction is the force that holds the planets, stars, and galaxies together, its effect on elementary particles is negligible.

The only force in our list we have not yet discussed is the weak force. The weak force is a short-range force that tends to produce instability in certain nuclei. It is responsible for decay processes, and its strength is only about 10^{-5} times that of the nuclear force.

In Section 13.3, we discussed the difficulty early scientists had with the notion of the gravitational force acting at a distance, with no physical contact between the interacting objects. To resolve this difficulty, the concept of the gravitational field was introduced. Similarly, in Chapter 22, we introduced the electric field to describe the electric force acting between charged objects, and we followed that with a discussion of the magnetic field in Chapter 28. For each of these types of fields, we developed an analysis model describing a particle in that field. In modern physics, the nature of the interaction between particles is carried a step further. These interactions are described in terms of the exchange of entities called **field particles** or **exchange particles.** Field particles are also called **gauge bosons.**[1] The interacting particles continuously emit and absorb field particles. The emission of a field particle by one particle and its absorption by another manifests as a force between the two interacting particles. In the language of modern physics,

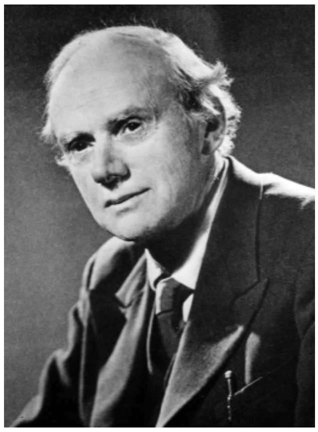
[1]The word *bosons* suggests that the field particles have integral spin. The word *gauge* comes from *gauge theory,* which is a sophisticated mathematical analysis that is beyond the scope of this book.

TABLE 44.1 Particle Interactions

Interactions	Relative Strength	Range of Force	Mediating Field Particle	Mass of Field Particle (GeV/c^2)
Nuclear	1	Short ($\approx$ 1 fm)	Gluon	0
Electromagnetic	10^{-2}	∞	Photon	0
Weak	10^{-5}	Short ($\approx 10^{-3}$ fm)	$W^{\pm}$, Z^0 bosons	80.4, 80.4, 91.2
Gravitational	10^{-39}	∞	Graviton	0

the electromagnetic force is said to be *mediated* by photons, and photons are the field particles of the electromagnetic field. Likewise, the nuclear force is mediated by field particles called *gluons*. The weak force is mediated by field particles called *W* and *Z bosons,* and the gravitational force is proposed to be mediated by field particles called *gravitons*. These interactions, their ranges, and their relative strengths are summarized in Table 44.1.

The graviton has yet to be observed. We will discuss more about gluons in later sections of this chapter. In 1983, $W^{\pm}$ and Z^0 bosons were discovered by Italian physicist Carlo Rubbia (b.1934) and his associates, using a proton–antiproton collider. Rubbia and Simon van der Meer (1925–2011), both at CERN,[2] shared the 1984 Nobel Prize in Physics for the discovery of the $W^{\pm}$ and Z^0 particles and the development of the proton–antiproton collider.



INTERFOTO/Alamy

Paul Adrien Maurice Dirac
British Physicist (1902–1984)
Dirac was instrumental in the understanding of antimatter and the unification of quantum mechanics and relativity. He made many contributions to the development of quantum physics and cosmology. In 1933, Dirac won a Nobel Prize in Physics.

44.2 Positrons and Other Antiparticles

As mentioned in Section 41.6, in the 1920s, Paul Dirac developed a relativistic quantum-mechanical description of the electron that successfully explained the origin of the electron's spin and its magnetic moment. His theory had one major problem, however: its relativistic wave equation required solutions corresponding to negative energy states, and if negative energy states existed, an electron in a state of positive energy would be expected to make a rapid transition to one of these states, emitting a photon in the process.

Dirac circumvented this difficulty by imagining an energy structure similar to our discussion of band theory in Section 42.5. Dirac postulated that all negative energy states are filled. The electrons occupying these negative energy states are collectively called the *Dirac sea.* Electrons in the Dirac sea (the blue area in Fig. 44.1) are not directly observable because the Pauli exclusion principle does not allow them to react to external forces; there are no available states to which an electron can make a transition in response to an external force. Therefore, an electron in such a state acts as an isolated system unless an interaction with the environment is strong enough to excite the electron to a positive energy state. Such an excitation causes one of the negative energy states to be vacant as in Figure 44.1, leaving a hole in the sea of filled states. This process is described by the nonisolated system model: as energy enters the system by some transfer mechanism, the system energy increases and the electron is excited to a higher energy level. *The hole can react to external forces and is observable.* The hole reacts in a way similar to that of the electron except that it has a positive charge: it is the *antiparticle* to the electron.

This theory strongly suggested that *an antiparticle exists for every particle,* not only for fermions such as electrons but also for bosons. It has subsequently been verified that practically every known elementary particle has a distinct antiparticle. Among the exceptions are the photon and the neutral pion (π^0; see Section 44.3). Following the construction of high-energy accelerators in the 1950s, many other

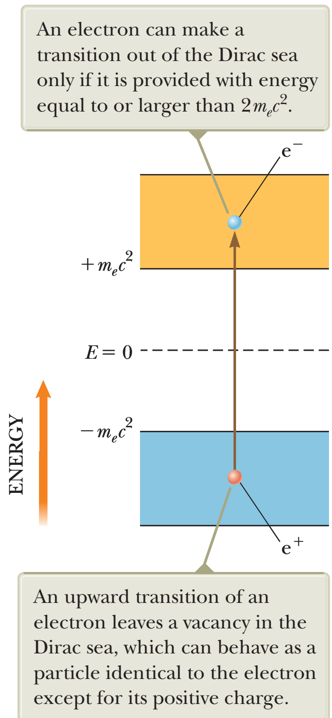
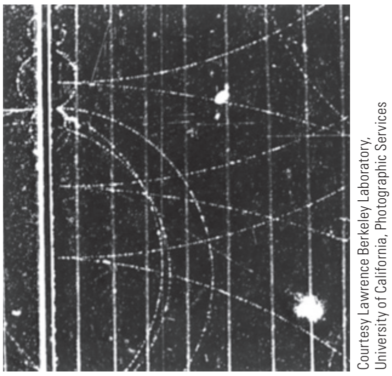


Figure 44.1 Dirac's model for the existence of antielectrons (positrons). The minimum energy for an electron to exist in the gold band is its rest energy m_ec^2. The blue band of negative energies is filled with electrons.

[2]CERN was originally the Conseil Européen pour la Recherche Nucléaire; the name has been altered to the European Organization for Nuclear Research, and the laboratory operated by CERN is called the European Laboratory for Particle Physics. The CERN acronym has been retained and is commonly used to refer to both the organization and the laboratory.



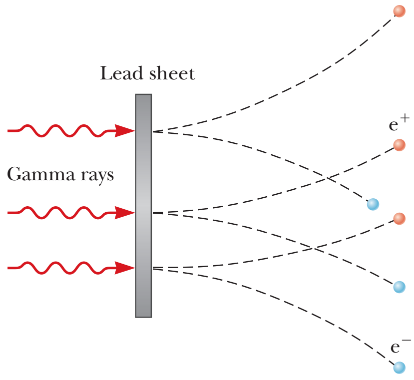


Figure 44.2 (a) Bubble-chamber tracks of electron–positron pairs produced by 300-MeV gamma rays striking a lead sheet from the left. (b) The pertinent pair-production events. The positrons deflect upward and the electrons downward in an applied magnetic field.

antiparticles were revealed. They included the antiproton, discovered by Emilio Segré (1905–1989) and Owen Chamberlain (1920–2006) in 1955, and the antineutron, discovered shortly thereafter. The antiparticle for a charged particle has the same mass as the particle but opposite charge.[3] For example, the electron's antiparticle (the *positron* mentioned in Section 43.4) has a rest energy of 0.511 MeV and a positive charge of $+1.602 \times 10^{-19}$ C.

Carl Anderson (1905–1991) observed the positron experimentally in 1932 and was awarded a Nobel Prize in Physics in 1936 for this achievement. Anderson discovered the positron while examining tracks created in a cloud chamber by electron-like particles of positive charge. (These early experiments used cosmic rays—mostly energetic protons passing through interstellar space—to initiate high-energy reactions on the order of several GeV.) To discriminate between positive and negative charges, Anderson placed the cloud chamber in a magnetic field, causing moving charges to follow curved paths. He noted that some of the electron-like tracks deflected in a direction corresponding to a positively charged particle.

PITFALL PREVENTION 44.1

Antiparticles An antiparticle is not identified solely on the basis of opposite charge; even neutral particles have antiparticles, which are defined in terms of other properties, such as spin.

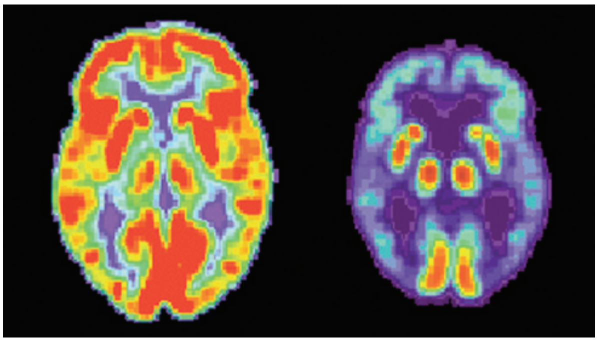
Since Anderson's discovery, positrons have been observed in a number of experiments. A common source of positrons is **pair production.** In this process, a gamma-ray photon with sufficiently high energy interacts with a nucleus and an electron–positron pair is created from the photon. (The presence of the nucleus allows the principle of conservation of momentum to be satisfied.) Because the total rest energy of the electron–positron pair is $2m_ec^2 = 1.02$ MeV (where m_e is the mass of the electron), the photon must have at least this much energy to create an electron–positron pair. The energy of a photon is converted to rest energy of the electron and positron in accordance with Einstein's relationship $E_R = mc^2$. If the gamma-ray photon has energy in excess of the rest energy of the electron–positron pair, the excess appears as kinetic energy of the two particles. Figure 44.2 shows early observations of tracks of electron–positron pairs in a bubble chamber created by 300-MeV gamma rays striking a lead sheet.

QUICK QUIZ 44.1 Given the identification of the particles in Figure 44.2b, is the direction of the external magnetic field in Figure 44.2a **(a)** into the page, **(b)** out of the page, or **(c)** impossible to determine?

The reverse process can also occur. Under the proper conditions, an electron and a positron can annihilate each other to produce two gamma-ray photons that have a combined energy of at least 1.02 MeV:

$$e^- + e^+ \rightarrow 2\gamma$$

[3]Antiparticles for uncharged particles, such as the neutron, are a little more difficult to describe. One basic process that can detect the existence of an antiparticle is pair annihilation. For example, a neutron and an antineutron can annihilate to form two gamma rays. Because the photon and the neutral pion do not have distinct antiparticles, pair annihilation is not observed with either of these particles.



National Institutes of Health

Figure 44.3 PET scans of the brain of a healthy older person *(left)* and that of a patient suffering from Alzheimer's disease *(right)*. Lighter regions contain higher concentrations of radioactive glucose, indicating higher metabolism rates and therefore increased brain activity.

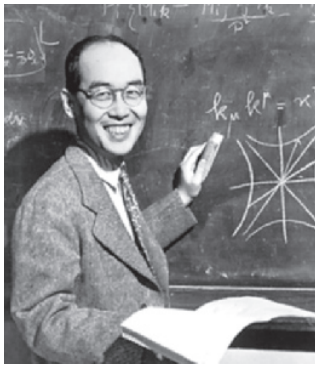
Because the initial momentum of the electron–positron system is approximately zero, the two gamma rays travel in opposite directions after the annihilation, satisfying the principle of conservation of momentum for the isolated system.

Electron–positron annihilation is used in the medical diagnostic technique called *positron-emission tomography* (PET). This is the scan that you and your grandfather were discussing in the opening storyline. The patient is injected with a glucose solution containing a radioactive substance that decays by positron emission, and the material is carried throughout the body by the blood. A positron emitted during a decay event in one of the radioactive nuclei in the glucose solution annihilates with an electron in the surrounding tissue, resulting in two gamma-ray photons emitted in opposite directions. A gamma detector surrounding the patient pinpoints the source of the photons and, with the assistance of a computer, displays an image of the sites at which the glucose accumulates. (Glucose metabolizes rapidly in cancerous tumors and accumulates at those sites, providing a strong signal for a PET detector system.) The images from a PET scan can indicate a wide variety of disorders in the brain, including Alzheimer's disease (Fig. 44.3). In addition, because glucose metabolizes more rapidly in active areas of the brain, a PET scan can indicate areas of the brain involved in the activities in which the patient is engaging at the time of the scan, such as language use, music, and vision. Because the number of positrons emitted into the recipient of a PET scan is small, there is no danger to the body from the resultant matter/antimatter annihilation.

44.3 Mesons and the Beginning of Particle Physics

Physicists in the mid-1930s had a fairly simple view of the structure of matter. The building blocks were the proton, the electron, and the neutron. Three other particles were either known or postulated at the time: the photon, the neutrino, and the positron. Together these six particles were considered the fundamental constituents of matter. With this simple picture, however, no one was able to answer the following important question: the protons in any nucleus should strongly repel one another due to their charges of the same sign, so what is the nature of the force that holds the nucleus together? Scientists recognized that this mysterious force must be much stronger than anything encountered in nature up to that time. This force is the nuclear force discussed in Section 43.1 and examined in historical perspective in the following paragraphs.

The first theory to explain the nature of the nuclear force was proposed in 1935 by Japanese physicist Hideki Yukawa, an effort that earned him a Nobel Prize in Physics in 1949. To understand Yukawa's theory, recall the introduction of field particles in Section 44.1, which stated that each fundamental force is mediated by a field particle exchanged between the interacting particles. Yukawa used this idea to explain the nuclear force, proposing the existence of a new particle whose exchange between nucleons in the nucleus causes the nuclear force. He established that the range of the force is inversely proportional to the mass of this particle



Bettmann/Getty Images

Hideki Yukawa
Japanese Physicist (1907–1981)
Yukawa was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1949 for predicting the existence of mesons. This photograph of him at work was taken in 1950 in his office at Columbia University. Yukawa came to Columbia in 1949 after spending the early part of his career in Japan.

and predicted the mass to be approximately 200 times the mass of the electron. (Yukawa's predicted particle is *not* the gluon mentioned in Section 44.1, which is massless and is today considered to be the field particle for the nuclear force.) Because the new particle would have a mass between that of the electron and that of the proton, it was called a **meson** (from the Greek *meso,* "middle").

In efforts to substantiate Yukawa's predictions, physicists began experimental searches for the meson by studying cosmic rays entering the Earth's atmosphere. In 1937, Carl Anderson and his collaborators discovered a particle of mass 106 MeV/c^2, approximately 207 times the mass of the electron. This particle was thought to be Yukawa's meson. Subsequent experiments, however, showed that the particle interacted very weakly with matter and hence could not be the field particle for the nuclear force. That puzzling situation inspired several theoreticians to propose two mesons having slightly different masses equal to approximately 200 times that of the electron, one having been discovered by Anderson and the other, still undiscovered, predicted by Yukawa. This idea was confirmed in 1947 with the discovery of the **pi meson** (π), or simply **pion.** The particle discovered by Anderson in 1937, the one initially thought to be Yukawa's meson, is not really a meson. (We shall discuss the characteristics of mesons in Section 44.4.) Instead, it takes part in the weak and electromagnetic interactions only and is now called the **muon** (μ). We discussed muons with regard to tests for special relativity in Section 38.4.

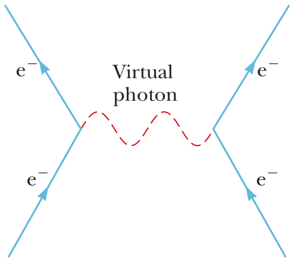


Figure 44.4 Feynman diagram representing a photon mediating the electromagnetic force between two electrons.

The pion comes in three varieties, corresponding to three charge states: π^+, π^-, and π^0. The π^+ and π^- particles (π^- is the antiparticle of π^+) each have a mass of 139.6 MeV/c^2, and the π^0 mass is 135.0 MeV/c^2. Two muons exist: μ^- and its antiparticle μ^+.

Pions and muons are very unstable particles. For example, the π^-, which has a mean lifetime of 2.6×10^{-8} s, decays to a muon and an antineutrino.[4] The muon, which has a mean lifetime of 2.2 μs, then decays to an electron, a neutrino, and an antineutrino:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi^- &\rightarrow \mu^- + \bar{\nu} \\ \mu^- &\rightarrow e^- + \nu + \bar{\nu} \end{aligned} \qquad (44.1)$$

For chargeless particles (as well as some charged particles, such as the proton), a bar over the symbol indicates an antiparticle, as for the neutrino in beta decay (see Section 43.5). Other antiparticles, such as e^+ and μ^+, use a different notation.

The interaction between two particles can be represented in a simple diagram called a **Feynman diagram,** developed by American physicist Richard P. Feynman. Figure 44.4 is such a diagram for the electromagnetic interaction between two electrons. A Feynman diagram is a qualitative graph of time on the vertical axis versus space on the horizontal axis. It is qualitative in the sense that the actual values of time and space are not important, but the overall appearance of the graph provides a pictorial representation of the process.


Diana Walker/The LIFE Images Collection/Getty Images

Richard Feynman
American Physicist (1918–1988)
Inspired by Dirac, Feynman developed quantum electrodynamics, the theory of the interaction of light and matter on a relativistic and quantum basis. In 1965, Feynman won the Nobel Prize in Physics. The prize was shared by Feynman, Julian Schwinger, and Sin Itiro Tomonaga. Early in Feynman's career, he was a leading member of the team developing the first nuclear weapon in the Manhattan Project. Toward the end of his career, he worked on the commission investigating the 1986 *Challenger* tragedy and demonstrated the effects of cold temperatures on the rubber O-rings used in the space shuttle.

In the simple case of the electron–electron interaction in Figure 44.4, a photon (the field particle) mediates the electromagnetic force between the electrons. Notice that the entire interaction is represented in the diagram as occurring at a single point in time. Therefore, the paths of the electrons appear to undergo a discontinuous change in direction at the moment of interaction. The electron paths shown in Figure 44.4 are different from the *actual* paths, which would be curved due to the continuous exchange of large numbers of field particles.

In the electron–electron interaction, the photon, which transfers energy and momentum from one electron to the other, is called a *virtual photon* because it vanishes during the interaction without having been detected. In Chapter 39, we

[4]The antineutrino is another zero-charge particle for which the identification of the antiparticle is more difficult than that for a charged particle. Although the details are beyond the scope of this book, the neutrino and antineutrino can be differentiated by means of the relationship between the linear momentum and the spin angular momentum of the particles.

discussed that a photon has energy $E = hf$, where f is its frequency. Consequently, for a system of two electrons initially at rest, the system has energy $2m_ec^2$ before a virtual photon is released and energy $2m_ec^2 + hf$ after the virtual photon is released (plus any kinetic energy of the electron resulting from the emission of the photon). Is that a violation of the law of conservation of energy for an isolated system? No; this process does *not* violate the law of conservation of energy because the virtual photon has a very short lifetime Δt that makes the uncertainty in the energy $\Delta E \approx \hbar/2\,\Delta t$ of the system greater than the photon energy. Therefore, within the constraints of the uncertainty principle, the energy of the system is conserved.

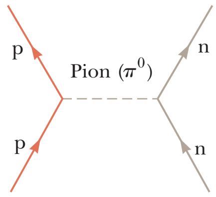


Figure 44.5 Feynman diagram representing a proton and a neutron interacting via the nuclear force with a neutral pion mediating the force. (This model is *not* the current model for nucleon interaction.)

Now consider a pion exchange between a proton and a neutron according to Yukawa's model (Fig. 44.5). The energy ΔE_R needed to create a pion of mass m_π is given by Einstein's equation $\Delta E_R = m_\pi c^2$. As with the photon in Figure 44.4, the very existence of the pion would appear to violate the law of conservation of energy if the particle existed for a time interval greater than $\Delta t \approx \hbar/2\,\Delta E_R$ (from the uncertainty principle), where Δt is the time interval required for the pion to transfer from one nucleon to the other. Therefore,

$$\Delta t \approx \frac{\hbar}{2\,\Delta E_R} = \frac{\hbar}{2m_\pi c^2}$$

and the rest energy of the pion is

$$m_\pi c^2 = \frac{\hbar}{2\,\Delta t} \tag{44.2}$$

Because the pion cannot travel faster than the speed of light, the maximum distance d it can travel in a time interval Δt is $c\,\Delta t$. Therefore, using Equation 44.2 and $d = c\,\Delta t$, we find

$$m_\pi c^2 = \frac{\hbar c}{2d} \tag{44.3}$$

From Table 44.1, we know that the range of the nuclear force is on the order of 10^{-15} m. Using this value for d in Equation 44.3, we estimate the rest energy of the pion to be

$$m_p c^2 \approx \frac{(1.055 \times 10^{-34}\ \text{J}\cdot\text{s})(3.00 \times 10^{8}\ \text{m/s})}{2(1 \times 10^{-15}\ \text{m})}$$
$$= 1.6 \times 10^{-11}\ \text{J} \approx 100\ \text{MeV}$$

which corresponds to a mass of 100 MeV/c^2 (approximately 200 times the mass of the electron). This value is in reasonable agreement with the observed pion mass.

The concept just described is quite revolutionary. In effect, it says that a system of two nucleons can change into two nucleons plus a pion as long as it returns to its original state in a very short time interval. (Remember that this description is the older historical model, which assumes the pion is the field particle for the nuclear force; the gluon is the actual field particle in current models.) Physicists often say that a nucleon undergoes *fluctuations* as it emits and absorbs field particles. These fluctuations are a consequence of a combination of quantum mechanics (through the uncertainty principle) and special relativity (through Einstein's energy–mass relationship $E_R = mc^2$).

PITFALL PREVENTION 44.2

The Nuclear Force and the Strong Force The nuclear force discussed in Chapter 43 was historically called the strong force. Once the quark theory (Section 44.8) was established, however, the phrase *strong force* was reserved for the force between quarks. We shall follow this convention: the strong force is between quarks or particles built from quarks, and the nuclear force is between nucleons in a nucleus. The nuclear force is a secondary result of the strong force as discussed in Section 44.9. It is sometimes called the *residual strong force*. Because of this historical development of the names for these forces, other books sometimes refer to the nuclear force as the strong force.

44.4 Classification of Particles

We have now been introduced to pions and muons. We have a growing list of particles. All particles other than field particles can be classified into two broad categories, *hadrons* and *leptons*. The criterion for separating these particles into categories is whether or not they interact via the *strong force*. The nuclear force

TABLE 44.2 Some Particles and Their Properties

Category	Particle Name	Symbol	Anti-particle	Mass (MeV/c^2)	B	L_e	L_μ	L_τ	S	Lifetime(s)	Spin
Leptons	Electron	e^-	e^+	0.511	0	+1	0	0	0	Stable	$\frac{1}{2}$
	Electron–neutrino†	ν_e	$\bar{\nu}_e$	$< 2\ eV/c^2$	0	+1	0	0	0	Stable	$\frac{1}{2}$
	Muon	μ^-	μ^+	105.7	0	0	+1	0	0	2.20×10^{-6}	$\frac{1}{2}$
	Muon–neutrino†	ν_μ	$\bar{\nu}_\mu$	$< 2\ eV/c^2$	0	0	+1	0	0	Stable	$\frac{1}{2}$
	Tau	τ^-	τ^+	1 777	0	0	0	+1	0	2.9×10^{-13}	$\frac{1}{2}$
	Tau–neutrino†	ν_τ	$\bar{\nu}_\tau$	$< 2\ eV/c^2$	0	0	0	+1	0	Stable	$\frac{1}{2}$
Hadrons											
Mesons	Pion	π^+	π^-	139.6	0	0	0	0	0	2.60×10^{-8}	0
		π^0	Self	135.0	0	0	0	0	0	8.52×10^{-17} s	0
	Kaon	K^+	K^-	493.7	0	0	0	0	+1	1.24×10^{-8}	0
		K^0_S	$\bar{K}^0_S$	497.7	0	0	0	0	+1	0.89×10^{-10}	0
		K^0_L	$\bar{K}^0_L$	497.7	0	0	0	0	+1	5.1×10^{-8}	0
Baryons	Proton	p	$\bar{p}$	938.3	+1	0	0	0	0	Stable	$\frac{1}{2}$
	Neutron	n	$\bar{n}$	939.6	+1	0	0	0	0	881	$\frac{1}{2}$
	Lambda	Λ^0	$\bar{\Lambda}^0$	1 115.7	+1	0	0	0	−1	2.6×10^{-10}	$\frac{1}{2}$
	Sigma	Σ^+	$\bar{\Sigma}^-$	1 189.4	+1	0	0	0	−1	0.80×10^{-10}	$\frac{1}{2}$
		Σ^0	$\bar{\Sigma}^0$	1 192.6	+1	0	0	0	−1	7.4×10^{-20}	$\frac{1}{2}$
		Σ^-	$\bar{\Sigma}^+$	1 197.4	+1	0	0	0	−1	1.5×10^{-10}	$\frac{1}{2}$
	Delta	Δ^{++}	$\bar{\Delta}^{--}$	1 232	+1	0	0	0	0	6×10^{-24}	$\frac{3}{2}$
		Δ^+	$\bar{\Delta}^-$	1 232	+1	0	0	0	0	6×10^{-24}	$\frac{3}{2}$
		Δ^0	$\bar{\Delta}^0$	1 232	+1	0	0	0	0	6×10^{-24}	$\frac{3}{2}$
		Δ^-	$\bar{\Delta}^+$	1 232	+1	0	0	0	0	6×10^{-24}	$\frac{3}{2}$
	Xi	Ξ^0	$\bar{\Xi}^0$	1 315	+1	0	0	0	−2	2.9×10^{-10}	$\frac{1}{2}$
		Ξ^-	$\bar{\Xi}^+$	1 322	+1	0	0	0	−2	1.64×10^{-10}	$\frac{1}{2}$
	Omega	Ω^-	$\bar{\Omega}^+$	1 672	+1	0	0	0	−3	0.82×10^{-10}	$\frac{3}{2}$

†The mass of neutrinos is an elusive quantity and is an ongoing field of research. Determination of their mass is complicated by the fact that neutrinos undergo oscillations among all three types as they move through space.

between nucleons in a nucleus is a particular manifestation of the strong force, but we will use the term strong force to refer to any interaction between particles made up of quarks. (For more detail on quarks and the strong force, see Section 44.8.) Table 44.2 provides a summary of the properties of a number of hadrons and leptons. The five columns to the right of the column for mass will be explained in subsequent sections of this chapter.

Hadrons

Particles that interact through the strong force (as well as through the other fundamental forces) are called **hadrons.** The two classes of hadrons, *mesons* and *baryons,* are distinguished by their masses and spins.

Mesons all have zero or integer spin (0 or 1). As indicated in Section 44.3, the name comes from the expectation that Yukawa's proposed meson mass would lie between the masses of the electron and the proton. Several meson masses do lie in this range, although mesons having masses greater than that of the proton have been found to exist.

All mesons decay finally into electrons, positrons, neutrinos, and photons. The pions are the lightest known mesons and have masses of approximately $1.4 \times 10^2\ MeV/c^2$, and all three pions—π^+, π^-, and π^0—have a spin of 0. (This spin-0 characteristic indicates that the particle discovered by Anderson in 1937, the muon, is not a meson. The muon has spin $\frac{1}{2}$ and belongs in the *lepton* classification, described below.)

Baryons, the second class of hadrons, have masses equal to or greater than the proton mass (the name *baryon* means "heavy" in Greek), and their spin is always a half-integer value ($\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \ldots$). Protons and neutrons are baryons, as are many other particles. With the exception of the proton, all baryons decay in such a way that the end products include a proton. For example, the baryon called the Ξ^0 hyperon (Greek letter xi) decays to the Λ^0 baryon (Greek letter lambda) in approximately 10^{-10} s. A *hyperon* is a baryon with at least one strange quark, to be discussed in Section 44.8. The Λ^0 then decays via two possible pathways in approximately 3×10^{-10} s.

Today it is believed that hadrons are not elementary particles but instead are composed of more elementary units called quarks, per Section 44.8.

Leptons

Leptons (from the Greek *leptos,* meaning "small" or "light") are particles that do not interact by means of the strong force. All leptons have spin $\frac{1}{2}$. Unlike hadrons, which have size and structure, leptons appear to be truly elementary, meaning that they have no structure and are point-like.

Quite unlike the case with hadrons, the number of known leptons is small. Currently, scientists believe that only six leptons exist: the electron, the muon, the tau, and a neutrino associated with each: e^-, μ^-, τ^-, ν_e, ν_μ, and ν_τ. The tau lepton, discovered in 1975, has a mass about twice that of the proton. Direct experimental evidence for the neutrino associated with the tau was announced by the Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory (Fermilab) in July 2000. Each of the six leptons has an antiparticle.

We discussed neutrinos with regard to beta decay in Section 43.5. Current studies indicate that neutrinos have a small but nonzero mass. If they do have mass, they cannot travel at the speed of light. In addition, because so many neutrinos exist, their combined mass may be sufficient to cause all the matter in the Universe to eventually collapse into a single point, which might then explode and create a completely new Universe! We shall discuss this possibility in more detail in Section 44.11.

44.5 Conservation Laws

The laws of conservation of energy, linear momentum, angular momentum, and electric charge for an isolated system provide us with a set of rules that all processes must follow. In Chapter 43, we learned that conservation laws are important for understanding why certain radioactive decays and nuclear reactions occur and others do not. In the study of elementary particles, a number of additional conservation laws are important. Although the two described here have no theoretical foundation, they are supported by abundant empirical evidence.

Baryon Number

Experimental results show that whenever a baryon is created in a decay or nuclear reaction, an antibaryon is also created. This scheme can be quantified by assigning every particle a quantum number, the **baryon number,** as follows: $B = +1$ for all baryons, $B = -1$ for all antibaryons, and $B = 0$ for all other particles. (See Table 44.2.) The **law of conservation of baryon number** states that

> whenever a nuclear reaction or decay occurs, the sum of the baryon numbers before the process must equal the sum of the baryon numbers after the process.

◀ Conservation of baryon number

If baryon number is conserved, the proton must be absolutely stable. For example, a decay of the proton to a positron and a neutral pion would satisfy conservation of energy, momentum, and electric charge. Such a decay has never been observed, however. The law of conservation of baryon number would be consistent with the absence of this decay because the proposed decay would involve the loss of a baryon. Based on experimental observations as pointed out in Example 44.2, all we can say at present is that protons have a half-life of at least 10^{33} years (the estimated age of the Universe is only 10^{10} years). Some recent theories, however, predict that the proton is unstable. According to this theory, baryon number is not absolutely conserved.

QUICK QUIZ 44.2 Consider the decays **(i)** $n \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^- + \mu^+ + \mu^-$ and **(ii)** $n \rightarrow p + \pi^-$. From the following choices, which conservation laws are violated by each decay? (a) energy (b) electric charge (c) baryon number (d) angular momentum (e) no conservation laws

Example 44.1 Checking Baryon Numbers

Use the law of conservation of baryon number to determine whether each of the following reactions can occur:

(A) $p + n \rightarrow p + p + n + \overline{p}$

SOLUTION

Conceptualize The mass on the right is larger than the mass on the left. Therefore, one might be tempted to claim that the reaction violates energy conservation. The reaction can indeed occur, however, if the initial particles have sufficient kinetic energy to allow for the increase in rest energy of the system.

Categorize We use a conservation law developed in this section, so we categorize this example as a substitution problem.

Evaluate the total baryon number for the left side of the reaction: $1 + 1 = 2$

Evaluate the total baryon number for the right side of the reaction: $1 + 1 + 1 + (-1) = 2$

Therefore, baryon number is conserved and the reaction can occur.

(B) $p + n \rightarrow p + p + \overline{p}$

SOLUTION

Evaluate the total baryon number for the left side of the reaction: $1 + 1 = 2$

Evaluate the total baryon number for the right side of the reaction: $1 + 1 + (-1) = 1$

Because baryon number is not conserved, the reaction cannot occur.

Example 44.2 Detecting Proton Decay

Measurements taken at two neutrino detection facilities, the Irvine–Michigan–Brookhaven detector (Fig. 44.6) and the Super Kamiokande in Japan, indicate that the half-life of protons is at least 10^{33} yr.

(A) Estimate how long we would have to watch, on average, to see a proton in a glass of water decay.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Imagine the number of protons in a glass of water. Although this number is huge, the probability of a single proton undergoing decay is small, so we would expect to wait for a long time interval before observing a decay.

Categorize Because a half-life is provided in the problem, we categorize this problem as one in which we can apply our statistical analysis techniques from Section 43.4.

Figure 44.6 (Example 44.2) A diver swims through ultrapure water in the Irvine–Michigan–Brookhaven neutrino detector. This detector holds almost 7 000 metric tons of water and is lined with over 2 000 photomultiplier tubes, many of which are visible in the photograph.

44.2 continued

Analyze Let's estimate that a drinking glass contains a number of moles n of water, with a mass of $m = 250$ g and a molar mass $M = 18$ g/mol.

Find the number of molecules of water in the glass: $N_{\text{molecules}} = nN_A = \dfrac{m}{M} N_A$

Each water molecule contains one proton in each of its two hydrogen atoms plus eight protons in its oxygen atom, for a total of ten protons. Therefore, there are $N = 10N_{\text{molecules}}$ protons in the glass of water.

Find the activity of the protons from Equation 43.7:

$$(1)\quad R = \lambda N = \frac{\ln 2}{T_{1/2}}\left(10\,\frac{m}{M}N_A\right) = \frac{\ln 2}{10^{33}\text{ yr}}(10)\left(\frac{250\text{ g}}{18\text{ g/mol}}\right)(6.02\times10^{23}\text{ mol}^{-1})$$
$$= 5.8\times10^{-8}\text{ yr}^{-1}$$

Finalize The decay constant represents the probability that *one* proton decays in one year. The probability that *any* proton in our glass of water decays in the one-year interval is given by Equation (1). Therefore, we must watch our glass of water for $1/R \approx$ 17 million years! That indeed is a long time interval, as expected.

(B) The Super Kamiokande neutrino facility contains 50 000 metric tons of water. Estimate the average time interval between detected proton decays in this much water if the half-life of a proton is 10^{33} yr.

SOLUTION

Analyze The proton decay rate R in a sample of water is proportional to the number N of protons. Set up a ratio of the decay rate in the Super Kamiokande facility to that in a glass of water:

$$\frac{R_{\text{Kamiokande}}}{R_{\text{glass}}} = \frac{N_{\text{Kamiokande}}}{N_{\text{glass}}} \rightarrow R_{\text{Kamiokande}} = \frac{N_{\text{Kamiokande}}}{N_{\text{glass}}}R_{\text{glass}}$$

The number of protons is proportional to the mass of the sample, so express the decay rate in terms of mass:

$$R_{\text{Kamiokande}} = \frac{m_{\text{Kamiokande}}}{m_{\text{glass}}}R_{\text{glass}}$$

Substitute numerical values:

$$R_{\text{Kamiokande}} = \left(\frac{50\,000\text{ metric tons}}{0.250\text{ kg}}\right)\left(\frac{1\,000\text{ kg}}{1\text{ metric ton}}\right)(5.8\times10^{-8}\text{ yr}^{-1}) \approx 12\text{ yr}^{-1}$$

Finalize The average time interval between decays is about one-twelfth of a year, or approximately one month. That is much shorter than the time interval in part (A) due to the tremendous amount of water in the detector facility. Despite this rosy prediction of one proton decay per month, a proton decay has never been observed. This suggests that the half-life of the proton may be larger than 10^{33} years or that proton decay simply does not occur.

Lepton Number

There are three conservation laws involving lepton numbers, one for each variety of lepton. The **law of conservation of electron lepton number** states that

whenever a nuclear reaction or decay occurs, the sum of the electron lepton numbers before the process must equal the sum of the electron lepton numbers after the process.

◀ Conservation of electron lepton number

The electron and the electron neutrino are assigned an electron lepton number $L_e = +1$, and the antileptons e^+ and $\bar{\nu}_e$ are assigned an electron lepton number $L_e = -1$. All other particles have $L_e = 0$. For example, consider the decay of the neutron:

$$n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$$

Before the decay, the electron lepton number is $L_e = 0$; after the decay, it is $0 + 1 + (-1) = 0$. Therefore, electron lepton number is conserved. (Baryon number must also be conserved, of course, and it is: before the decay, $B = +1$, and after the decay, $B = +1 + 0 + 0 = +1$.)

Similarly, when a decay involves muons, the muon lepton number L_μ is conserved. The μ^- and the ν_μ are assigned a muon lepton number $L_\mu = +1$, and the antimuons μ^+ and $\bar{\nu}_\mu$ are assigned a muon lepton number $L_\mu = -1$. All other particles have $L_\mu = 0$.

Finally, tau lepton number L_τ is conserved with similar assignments made for the tau lepton, its neutrino, and their two antiparticles.

QUICK QUIZ 44.3 Consider the following decay: $\pi^0 \rightarrow \mu^- + e^+ + \nu_\mu$. What conservation laws are violated by this decay? **(a)** energy **(b)** angular momentum **(c)** electric charge **(d)** baryon number **(e)** electron lepton number **(f)** muon lepton number **(g)** tau lepton number **(h)** no conservation laws

QUICK QUIZ 44.4 Suppose a claim is made that the decay of the neutron is given by $n \rightarrow p + e^-$. What conservation laws are violated by this decay? **(a)** energy **(b)** angular momentum **(c)** electric charge **(d)** baryon number **(e)** electron lepton number **(f)** muon lepton number **(g)** tau lepton number **(h)** no conservation laws

Example 44.3 Checking Lepton Numbers

Use the law of conservation of lepton numbers to determine whether each of the following decay schemes (A) and (B) can occur:

(A) $\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \bar{\nu}_e + \nu_\mu$

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Because this decay involves a muon and an electron, L_μ and L_e must each be conserved separately if the decay is to occur.

Categorize We use a conservation law developed in this section, so we categorize this example as a substitution problem.

Evaluate the lepton numbers before the decay: $L_\mu = +1$ $\quad L_e = 0$

Evaluate the total lepton numbers after the decay: $L_\mu = 0 + 0 + 1 = +1$ $\quad L_e = +1 + (-1) + 0 = 0$

Therefore, both numbers are conserved and on this basis the decay is possible.

(B) $\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu_\mu + \nu_e$

SOLUTION

Evaluate the lepton numbers before the decay: $L_\mu = 0$ $\quad L_e = 0$

Evaluate the total lepton numbers after the decay: $L_\mu = -1 + 1 + 0 = 0$ $\quad L_e = 0 + 0 + 1 = 1$

Therefore, the decay is not possible because electron lepton number is not conserved.

44.6 Strange Particles and Strangeness

Many particles discovered in the 1950s were produced by the interaction of pions with protons and neutrons in the atmosphere. A group of these—the kaon (K), lambda (Λ), and sigma (Σ) particles—exhibited unusual properties both as they were created and as they decayed; hence, they were called *strange particles*.

One unusual property of strange particles is that they are always produced in pairs. For example, when a pion collides with a proton, a highly probable result is the production of two neutral strange particles:

$$\pi^- + \mathrm{p} \rightarrow \mathrm{K}^0 + \Lambda^0$$

The reaction $\pi^- + \mathrm{p} \rightarrow \mathrm{K}^0 + \mathrm{n}$, where only one final particle is strange, never occurs, however, even though no previously known conservation laws would be violated and even though the energy of the pion is sufficient to initiate the reaction.

The second peculiar feature of strange particles is that although they are produced in reactions involving the strong interaction at a high rate, they do not decay into particles that interact via the strong force at a high rate. Instead, they decay very slowly, which is characteristic of the weak interaction. Their half-lives are in the range 10^{-10} s to 10^{-8} s, whereas most other particles that interact via the strong force have much shorter lifetimes on the order of 10^{-23} s. Particularly strange is the existence of two different half-lives for the neutral kaon, as can be seen in Table 44.2. The existence of the short-lived kaon K_S^0 and the long-lived kaon K_L^0 is due to a phenomenon called *neutral kaon mixing*, which is beyond the scope of this text.

To explain these unusual properties of strange particles, a new quantum number S, called **strangeness,** was introduced, together with a conservation law. The strangeness numbers for some particles are given in Table 44.2. The production of strange particles in pairs is handled mathematically by assigning $S = +1$ to one of the particles, $S = -1$ to the other, and $S = 0$ to all nonstrange particles. The **law of conservation of strangeness** states that

in a nuclear reaction or decay that occurs via the strong force, strangeness is conserved; that is, the sum of the strangeness numbers before the process must equal the sum of the strangeness numbers after the process. In processes that occur via the weak interaction, strangeness may not be conserved.

◀ Conservation of strangeness

The low decay rate of strange particles can be explained by assuming the strong and electromagnetic interactions obey the law of conservation of strangeness but the weak interaction does not. Because the decay of a strange particle involves the loss of one strange particle, it violates strangeness conservation and hence proceeds slowly via the weak interaction.

Example 44.4 Is Strangeness Conserved?

(A) Use the law of strangeness conservation to determine whether the reaction $\pi^0 + \mathrm{n} \rightarrow \mathrm{K}^+ + \Sigma^-$ occurs.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize We recognize that there are strange particles appearing in this reaction, so we see that we will need to investigate conservation of strangeness.

Categorize We use a conservation law developed in this section, so we categorize this example as a substitution problem.

Evaluate the strangeness for the left side of the reaction using Table 44.2: $S = 0 + 0 = 0$

Evaluate the strangeness for the right side of the reaction: $S = +1 - 1 = 0$

Therefore, strangeness is conserved and the reaction is allowed.

(B) Show that the reaction $\pi^- + \mathrm{p} \rightarrow \pi^- + \Sigma^+$ does not conserve strangeness.

continued

44.4 continued

SOLUTION

Evaluate the strangeness for the left side of the reaction: $S = 0 + 0 = 0$

Evaluate the strangeness for the right side of the reaction: $S = 0 + (-1) = -1$

Therefore, strangeness is not conserved.

44.7 Finding Patterns in the Particles

One tool scientists use is the detection of patterns in data, patterns that contribute to our understanding of nature. For example, Table 20.2 shows a pattern of molar specific heats of gases that allows us to understand the differences among monatomic, diatomic, and polyatomic gases. Figure 41.20 shows a pattern of peaks in the ionization energy of atoms that relate to the quantized energy levels in the atoms. Figure 43.7 shows a pattern of peaks in the binding energy that suggest a shell structure within the nucleus. One of the best examples of this tool's use is the development of the periodic table, which provides a fundamental understanding of the chemical behavior of the elements. As mentioned in the introduction, the periodic table explains how more than 100 elements can be formed from three particles, the electron, the proton, and the neutron. The table of nuclides, part of which is shown in Table 43.2, contains hundreds of nuclides, but all can be built from protons and neutrons.

The number of particles observed by particle physicists is in the hundreds. Is it possible that a small number of entities exist from which all these particles can be built? Taking a hint from the success of the periodic table and the table of nuclides, let explore the historical search for patterns among the particles.

Many classification schemes have been proposed for grouping particles into families. Consider, for instance, the baryons listed in Table 44.2 that have spins of $\frac{1}{2}$: p, n, Λ^0, Σ^+, Σ^0, Σ^-, Ξ^0, and Ξ^-. If we plot strangeness versus charge for these baryons using a sloping coordinate system as in Figure 44.7a, a fascinating pattern is observed: six of the baryons form a hexagon, and the remaining two are at the hexagon's center.

As a second example, consider the following seven spin-zero mesons listed in Table 44.2: π^+, π^0, π^-, K^+, K^0, K^-, and the antiparticle $\overline{K}^0$. Figure 44.7b is a plot of strangeness versus charge for this family. Again, a hexagonal pattern emerges. In this case, each particle on the perimeter of the hexagon lies opposite its antiparticle and the neutral pion (which forms its own antiparticle) is at

Murray Gell-Mann
American Physicist (b. 1929)
In 1969, Murray Gell-Mann was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics for his theoretical studies dealing with subatomic particles.

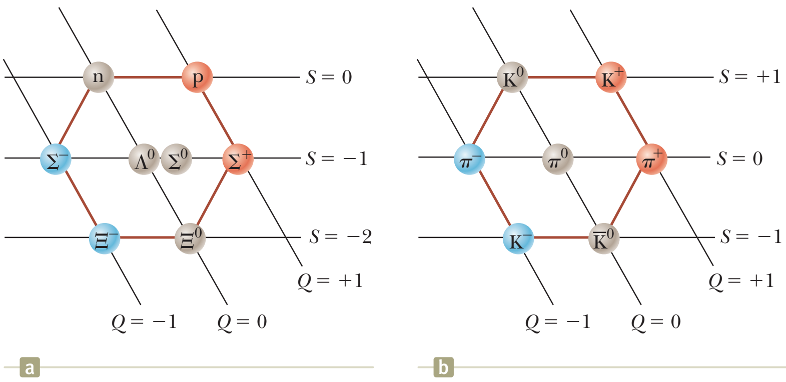


Figure 44.7 (a) The hexagonal eightfold-way pattern for the eight spin-$\frac{1}{2}$ baryons. This strangeness-versus-charge plot uses a sloping axis for charge number Q and a horizontal axis for strangeness S. (b) The eightfold-way pattern for the seven spin-zero mesons.

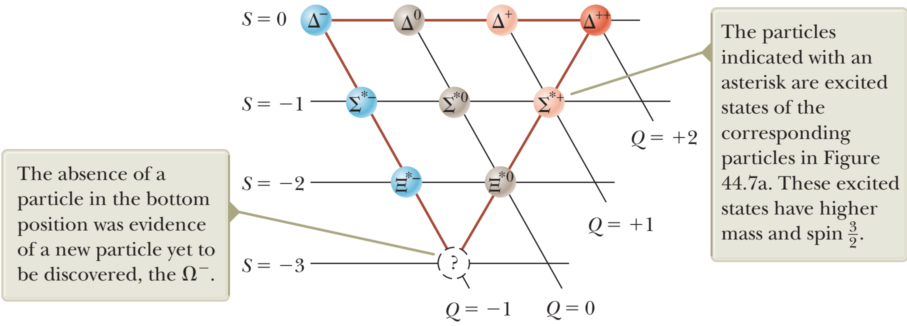


Figure 44.8 The pattern for the higher-mass, spin-$\frac{3}{2}$ baryons known at the time the pattern was proposed.

the center of the hexagon. These and related symmetric patterns were developed independently in 1961 by Murray Gell-Mann and Yuval Ne'eman (1925–2006). Gell-Mann called the patterns the **eightfold way,** after the eightfold path to nirvana in Buddhism.

Groups of baryons and mesons can be displayed in many other symmetric patterns within the framework of the eightfold way. For example, the family of spin-$\frac{3}{2}$ baryons known in 1961 contains nine particles arranged in a pattern like that of the pins in a bowling alley as in Figure 44.8. (The particles Σ^{*+}, Σ^{*0}, Σ^{*-}, Ξ^{*0}, and Ξ^{*-} are excited states of the particles Σ^+, Σ^0, Σ^-, Ξ^0, and Ξ^-. In these higher-energy states, the spins of the three quarks—see Section 44.8—making up the particle are aligned so that the total spin of the particle is $\frac{3}{2}$.) When this pattern was proposed, an empty spot occurred in it (at the bottom position), corresponding to a particle that had never been observed. Gell-Mann predicted that the missing particle, which he called the omega minus (Ω^-), should have spin $\frac{3}{2}$, charge -1, strangeness -3, and rest energy of approximately 1 680 MeV. Shortly thereafter, in 1964, scientists at the Brookhaven National Laboratory found the missing particle through careful analyses of bubble-chamber photographs (Fig. 44.9) and confirmed all its predicted properties.

The prediction of the missing particle in the eightfold way has much in common with the prediction of missing elements in the periodic table. Whenever a vacancy occurs in an organized pattern of information, experimentalists have a guide for their investigations.

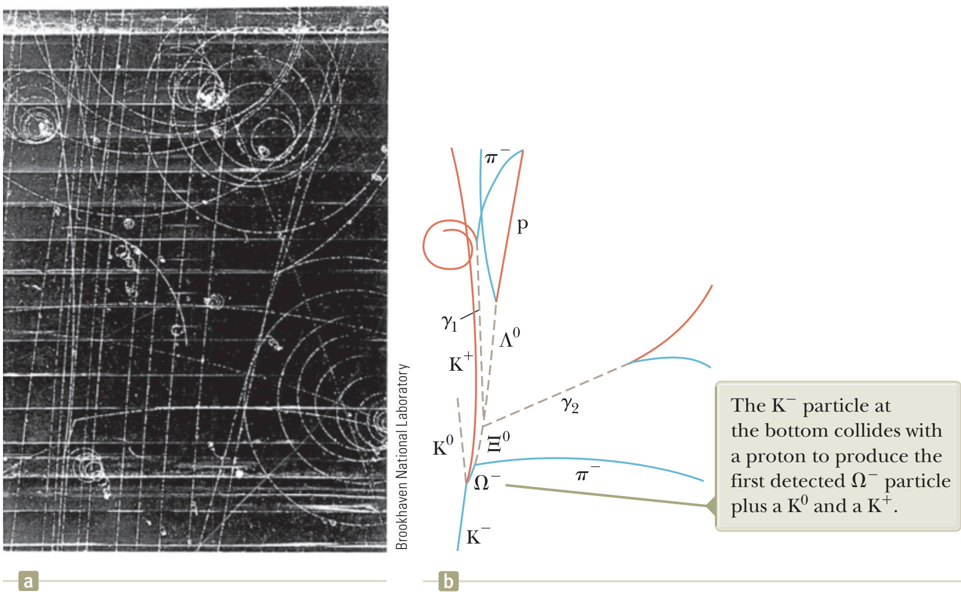


Figure 44.9 Discovery of the Ω^- particle. The photograph on the left shows the original bubble-chamber tracks. The drawing on the right isolates the tracks of the important events.

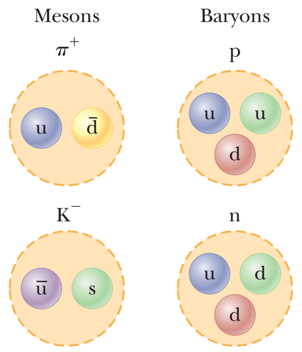


Figure 44.10 Quark composition of two mesons and two baryons.

44.8 Quarks

As mentioned earlier, leptons appear to be truly elementary particles because there are only a few types of them, and experiments indicate that they have no measurable size or internal structure. Hadrons, on the other hand, are complex particles having size and structure. The existence of the strangeness–charge patterns of the eightfold way suggests that hadrons have substructure. Furthermore, hundreds of types of hadrons exist and many decay into other hadrons.

The Original Quark Model

In 1963, Gell-Mann and George Zweig (b. 1937) independently proposed a model for the substructure of hadrons. According to their model, all hadrons are composed of two or three elementary constituents called **quarks.** (Gell-Mann borrowed the word *quark* from the passage "Three quarks for Muster Mark" in James Joyce's *Finnegans Wake.* In Zweig's model, he called the constituents "aces.") The model has three types of quarks, designated by the symbols u, d, and s, that are given the arbitrary names **up, down,** and **strange.** The various types of quarks are called **flavors.** Figure 44.10 is a pictorial representation of the quark compositions of several hadrons.

An unusual property of quarks is that they carry a fractional electric charge. The u, d, and s quarks have charges of $+2e/3$, $-e/3$, and $-e/3$, respectively, where e is the elementary charge 1.602×10^{-19} C. These and other properties of quarks and antiquarks are given in Table 44.3. Quarks have spin $\frac{1}{2}$, which means that all quarks are fermions, defined as any particle having half-integral spin. As Table 44.3 shows, associated with each quark is an antiquark of opposite charge, baryon number, and strangeness.

The compositions of all hadrons known when Gell-Mann and Zweig presented their model can be completely specified by three simple rules:

- A meson consists of one quark and one antiquark, giving it a baryon number of 0, as required.
- A baryon consists of three quarks.
- An antibaryon consists of three antiquarks.

TABLE 44.3 Properties of Quarks and Antiquarks

Quarks

Name	Symbol	Spin	Charge	Baryon Number	Strangeness	Charm	Bottomness	Topness
Up	u	$\frac{1}{2}$	$+\frac{2}{3}e$	$\frac{1}{3}$	0	0	0	0
Down	d	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{3}e$	$\frac{1}{3}$	0	0	0	0
Strange	s	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{3}e$	$\frac{1}{3}$	−1	0	0	0
Charmed	c	$\frac{1}{2}$	$+\frac{2}{3}e$	$\frac{1}{3}$	0	+1	0	0
Bottom	b	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{3}e$	$\frac{1}{3}$	0	0	+1	0
Top	t	$\frac{1}{2}$	$+\frac{2}{3}e$	$\frac{1}{3}$	0	0	0	+1

Antiquarks

Name	Symbol	Spin	Charge	Baryon Number	Strangeness	Charm	Bottomness	Topness
Anti-up	$\bar{u}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{2}{3}e$	$-\frac{1}{3}$	0	0	0	0
Anti-down	$\bar{d}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$+\frac{1}{3}e$	$-\frac{1}{3}$	0	0	0	0
Anti-strange	$\bar{s}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$+\frac{1}{3}e$	$-\frac{1}{3}$	+1	0	0	0
Anti-charmed	$\bar{c}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{2}{3}e$	$-\frac{1}{3}$	0	−1	0	0
Anti-bottom	$\bar{b}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$+\frac{1}{3}e$	$-\frac{1}{3}$	0	0	−1	0
Anti-top	$\bar{t}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{2}{3}e$	$-\frac{1}{3}$	0	0	0	−1

The theory put forth by Gell-Mann and Zweig is referred to as the *original quark model*.

Notice in Table 44.3 that baryon numbers of $\pm 1/3$ are provided for each quark and antiquark. A combination of three quarks, as in the original quark model, provides a baryon number of $+1$, consistent with the baryons listed in Table 44.2. Similarly, a combination of three antiquarks gives a baryon number of -1 for the antibaryon. Combining a quark and an antiquark gives a total baryon number of 0, consistent with the mesons listed in Table 44.2. The law of conservation of baryon number leads to a conservation law requiring that each type of quark in a reaction must be conserved if the reaction proceeds via the strong force.

QUICK QUIZ 44.5 Using a coordinate system like that in Figure 44.7, draw an eightfold-way diagram for the three quarks in the original quark model.

Charm and Other Developments

Although the original quark model was highly successful in classifying particles into families, some discrepancies occurred between its predictions and certain experimental decay rates. Consequently, several physicists proposed a fourth quark flavor in 1967. They argued that if four types of leptons exist (as was thought at the time), there should also be four flavors of quarks because of an underlying symmetry in nature. The fourth quark, designated c, was assigned a property called **charm.** A *charmed* quark has charge $+2e/3$, just as the up quark does, but its charm distinguishes it from the other three quarks. This introduces a new quantum number C, representing charm. The new quark has charm $C = +1$, its antiquark has charm of $C = -1$, and all other quarks have $C = 0$. Charm, like strangeness, is conserved in strong and electromagnetic interactions but not in weak interactions.

Evidence that the charmed quark exists began to accumulate in 1974, when a heavy meson called the J/Ψ particle (or simply Ψ, Greek letter psi) was discovered independently by two groups, one led by Burton Richter (b. 1931) at the Stanford Linear Accelerator (SLAC), and the other led by Samuel Ting (b. 1936) at the Brookhaven National Laboratory. In 1976, Richter and Ting were awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics for this work. The J/Ψ particle does not fit into the three-quark model; instead, it has properties of a combination of the proposed charmed quark and its antiquark ($c\bar{c}$). It is much more massive than the other known mesons ($\sim$3 100 MeV/c^2), and its lifetime is much longer than the lifetimes of particles that interact via the strong force. Soon, related mesons were discovered, corresponding to such quark combinations as $\bar{c}d$ and $c\bar{d}$, all of which have great masses and long lifetimes. The existence of these new mesons provided firm evidence for the fourth quark flavor.

In 1975, researchers at Stanford University reported strong evidence for the tau (τ) lepton, mass 1 784 MeV/c^2. This fifth type of lepton led physicists to propose that more flavors of quarks might exist, on the basis of symmetry arguments similar to those leading to the proposal of the charmed quark. These proposals led to more elaborate quark models and the prediction of two new quarks, **top** (t) and **bottom** (b). (Some physicists prefer *truth* and *beauty*.) To distinguish these quarks from the others, quantum numbers called *topness* and *bottomness* (with allowed values +1, 0, −1) were assigned to all quarks and antiquarks (see Table 44.3). In 1977, researchers at the Fermi National Laboratory, under the direction of Leon Lederman (b. 1922), reported the discovery of a very massive new meson Υ (Greek letter upsilon), whose composition is considered to be $b\bar{b}$, providing evidence for the bottom quark. In March 1995, researchers at Fermilab announced the discovery of the top quark (supposedly the last of the quarks to be found), which has a mass of 173 GeV/c^2.

Table 44.4 (page 1242) lists the quark compositions of mesons formed from the up, down, strange, charmed, and bottom quarks. Table 44.5 (page 1242) shows the quark combinations for the baryons listed in Table 44.2. Notice that only two flavors of quarks, u and d, are contained in all hadrons encountered in ordinary matter (protons and neutrons).

TABLE 44.4 Quark Composition of Mesons

		Antiquarks									
		$\bar{b}$		$\bar{c}$		$\bar{s}$		$\bar{d}$		$\bar{u}$	
Quarks	**b**	Υ	$(\bar{b}b)$	B_c^-	$(\bar{c}b)$	$\bar{B}_s^0$	$(\bar{s}b)$	$\bar{B}_d^0$	$(\bar{d}b)$	B^-	$(\bar{u}b)$
	c	B_c^+	$(\bar{b}c)$	J/Ψ	$(\bar{c}c)$	D_s^+	$(\bar{s}c)$	D^+	$(\bar{d}c)$	D^0	$(\bar{u}c)$
	s	B_s^0	$(\bar{b}s)$	D_s^-	$(\bar{c}s)$	ϕ	$(\bar{s}s)$	$\bar{K}^0$	$(\bar{d}s)$	K^-	$(\bar{u}s)$
	d	B_d^0	$(\bar{b}d)$	D^-	$(\bar{c}d)$	K^0	$(\bar{s}d)$	π^0	$(\bar{d}d)$	π^-	$(\bar{u}d)$
	u	B^+	$(\bar{b}u)$	$\bar{D}^0$	$(\bar{c}u)$	K^+	$(\bar{s}u)$	π^+	$(\bar{d}u)$	π^0	$(\bar{u}u)$

Note: The top quark does not form mesons because it decays too quickly.

TABLE 44.5 Quark Composition of Several Baryons

Particle	Quark Composition
p	uud
n	udd
Λ^0	uds
Σ^+	uus
Σ^0	uds
Σ^-	dds
Δ^{++}	uuu
Δ^+	uud
Δ^0	udd
Δ^-	ddd
Ξ^0	uss
Ξ^-	dss
Ω^-	sss

Note: Some baryons have the same quark composition, such as the p and the Δ^+ and the n and the Δ^0. In these cases, the Δ particles are considered to be excited states of the proton and neutron.

Will the discoveries of elementary particles ever end? How many "building blocks" of matter actually exist? At present, physicists believe that the elementary particles in nature are six quarks and six leptons, together with their antiparticles, and the four field particles listed in Table 44.1. Table 44.6 lists the rest energies and charges of the quarks and leptons.

Despite extensive experimental effort, no isolated quark has ever been observed. Physicists now believe that at ordinary temperatures, quarks are permanently confined inside ordinary particles because of an exceptionally strong force that prevents them from escaping, called (appropriately) the **strong force**[5] (which we introduced at the beginning of Section 44.4 and will discuss further in Section 44.10). This force increases with separation distance, similar to the force exerted by a stretched spring. Current efforts are under way to form a **quark–gluon plasma,** a state of matter in which the quarks are freed from neutrons and protons. In 2000, scientists at CERN announced evidence for a quark–gluon plasma formed by colliding lead nuclei. In 2005, experiments at the Relativistic Heavy Ion Collider (RHIC) at Brookhaven suggested the creation of a quark–gluon plasma. Experiments continue, and the ALICE project (A Large Ion Collider Experiment) at the Large Hadron Collider at CERN has joined the search. Results at both RHIC and ALICE have allowed scientists to learn more about the properties of a quark–gluon plasma. One of the interesting and surprising properties is that the plasma acts as a viscous liquid.

QUICK QUIZ 44.6 Doubly charged baryons, such as the Δ^{++}, are known to exist. True or False: Doubly charged mesons also exist.

TABLE 44.6 The Elementary Particles and Their Rest Energies and Charges

Particle	Approximate Rest Energy	Charge
Quarks		
u	2.4 MeV	$+\frac{2}{3}e$
d	4.8 MeV	$-\frac{1}{3}e$
s	104 MeV	$-\frac{1}{3}e$
c	1.27 GeV	$+\frac{2}{3}e$
b	4.2 GeV	$-\frac{1}{3}e$
t	173 GeV	$+\frac{2}{3}e$
Leptons		
e^-	511 keV	$-e$
μ^-	105.7 MeV	$-e$
τ^-	1.78 GeV	$-e$
ν_e	< 2 eV	0
ν_μ	< 2 eV	0
ν_τ	< 2 eV	0

44.9 Multicolored Quarks

Shortly after the concept of quarks was proposed, scientists recognized that certain particles had quark compositions that violated the exclusion principle. In Section 41.7, we applied the exclusion principle to electrons in atoms. The principle is more general, however, and applies to all particles with half-integral spin ($\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{2}$, etc.), which are collectively called *fermions.* Because all quarks are fermions having spin $\frac{1}{2}$, they are expected to follow the exclusion principle. One example of a particle that appears to violate the exclusion principle is the Ω^- (sss) baryon, which contains three strange quarks having parallel spins, giving it a total spin of $\frac{3}{2}$. All three quarks have the same spin quantum number, in violation of the exclusion principle. Other examples of baryons made up of identical quarks having parallel spins are the Δ^{++} (uuu) and the Δ^- (ddd).

To resolve this problem, it was suggested that quarks possess an additional property called **color charge.** This property is similar in many respects to electric charge except that it occurs in six varieties rather than two. The colors assigned to quarks

[5]As a reminder, the original meaning of the term *strong force* was the short-range attractive force between nucleons, which we have called the *nuclear force.* The nuclear force between nucleons is a secondary effect of the strong force between quarks.

are red, green, and blue, and antiquarks have the colors antired, antigreen, and antiblue. Therefore, the colors red, green, and blue serve as the "quantum numbers" for the color of the quark. To satisfy the exclusion principle, the three quarks in any baryon must all have different colors. Look again at the quarks in the baryons in Figure 44.10 and notice the colors. The three colors "neutralize" to white. A quark and an antiquark in a meson must be of a color and the corresponding anticolor and will consequently neutralize to white, similar to the way electric charges + and − neutralize to zero net charge. (See the mesons in Fig. 44.10.) The apparent violation of the exclusion principle in the Ω^- baryon is removed because the three quarks in the particle have different colors.

The new property of color increases the number of quarks by a factor of 3 because each of the six quarks comes in three colors. Although the concept of color in the quark model was originally conceived to satisfy the exclusion principle, it also provided a better theory for explaining certain experimental results. For example, the modified theory correctly predicts the lifetime of the π^0 meson.

The theory of how quarks interact with each other is called **quantum chromodynamics,** or QCD, to parallel the name *quantum electrodynamics* (the theory of the electrical interaction between light and matter). In QCD, each quark is said to carry a color charge, in analogy to electric charge. The strong force between quarks is often called the **color force.** Therefore, the terms *strong force* and *color force* are used interchangeably.

In Section 44.1, we stated that the nuclear interaction between hadrons is mediated by massless field particles called **gluons.** As mentioned earlier, the nuclear force is actually a secondary effect of the strong force between quarks. The gluons are the mediators of the strong force. When a quark emits or absorbs a gluon, the quark's color may change. For example, a blue quark that emits a gluon may become a red quark and a red quark that absorbs this gluon becomes a blue quark.

The color force between quarks is analogous to the electric force between charges: particles with the same color repel, and those with opposite colors attract. Therefore, two green quarks repel each other, but a green quark is attracted to an antigreen quark. The attraction between quarks of opposite color to form a meson ($q\bar{q}$) is indicated in Figure 44.11a. Differently colored quarks also attract one another, although with less intensity than the oppositely colored quark and antiquark. For example, a cluster of red, blue, and green quarks all attract one another to form a baryon as in Figure 44.11b. Therefore, every baryon contains three quarks of three different colors.

Although the nuclear force between two colorless hadrons is negligible at large separations, the net strong force between their constituent quarks is not exactly zero at small separations. This residual strong force is the nuclear force that binds protons and neutrons to form nuclei. It is similar to the force between two electric dipoles. Each dipole is electrically neutral. An electric field surrounds the dipoles, however, because of the separation of the positive and negative charges (see Section 22.5). As a result, an electric interaction occurs between the dipoles that is weaker than the force between single charges. In Section 42.1, we explored how this interaction results in the Van der Waals force between neutral molecules.

According to QCD, a more basic explanation of the nuclear force can be given in terms of quarks and gluons. Figure 44.12a (page 1244) shows the nuclear interaction between a neutron and a proton by means of Yukawa's pion, in this case a π^-. This drawing differs from Figure 44.5, in which the field particle is a π^0; there is no transfer of charge from one nucleon to the other in Figure 44.5. In Figure 44.12a, the charged pion carries charge from one nucleon to the other, so the nucleons change identities, with the proton becoming a neutron and the neutron becoming a proton.

Let's look at the same interaction from the viewpoint of the quark model, shown in Figure 44.12b. In this Feynman diagram, the proton and neutron are represented by their quark constituents. Each quark in the neutron and proton is continuously emitting and absorbing gluons. The energy of a gluon can result in the creation of

PITFALL PREVENTION 44.3

Color Charge Is Not Really Color The description of color for a quark has nothing to do with visual sensation from light. It is simply a convenient name for a property that is analogous to electric charge.

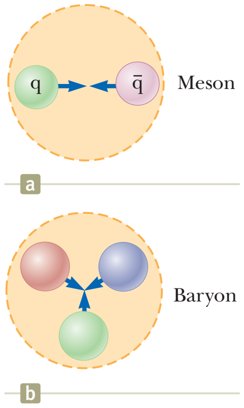


Figure 44.11 (a) A green quark is attracted to an antigreen quark. This forms a meson whose quark structure is ($q\bar{q}$). (b) Three quarks of different colors attract one another to form a baryon.

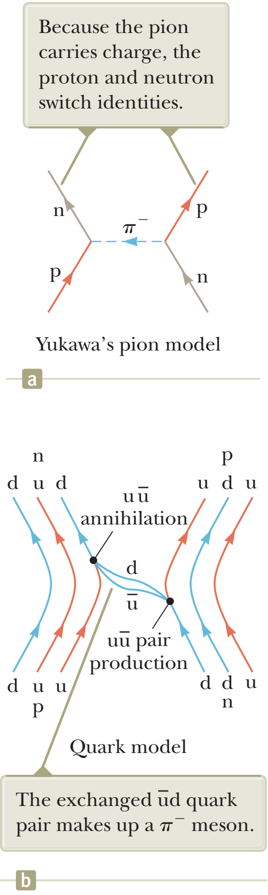


Figure 44.12 (a) A nuclear interaction between a proton and a neutron explained in terms of Yukawa's pion-exchange model. (b) The same interaction, explained in terms of quarks and gluons.

quark–antiquark pairs. This process is similar to the creation of electron–positron pairs in pair production, which we investigated in Section 44.2. When the neutron and proton approach to within 1 fm of each other, these gluons and quarks can be exchanged between the two nucleons, and such exchanges produce the nuclear force. Figure 44.12b depicts one possibility for the process shown in Figure 44.12a. A down quark in the neutron on the right emits a gluon. The energy of the gluon is then transformed to create a u$\bar{u}$ pair. The u quark stays within the nucleon (which has now changed to a proton), and the recoiling d quark and the $\bar{u}$ antiquark are transmitted to the proton on the left side of the diagram. Here the $\bar{u}$ annihilates a u quark within the proton and the d is captured. The net effect is to change a u quark to a d quark, and the proton on the left has changed to a neutron.

As the d quark and $\bar{u}$ antiquark in Figure 44.12b transfer between the nucleons, the d and $\bar{u}$ exchange gluons with each other and can be considered to be bound to each other by means of the strong force. Looking back at Table 44.4, we see that this combination is a π^-, or Yukawa's field particle! Therefore, the quark model of interactions between nucleons is consistent with the pion-exchange model.

44.10 The Standard Model

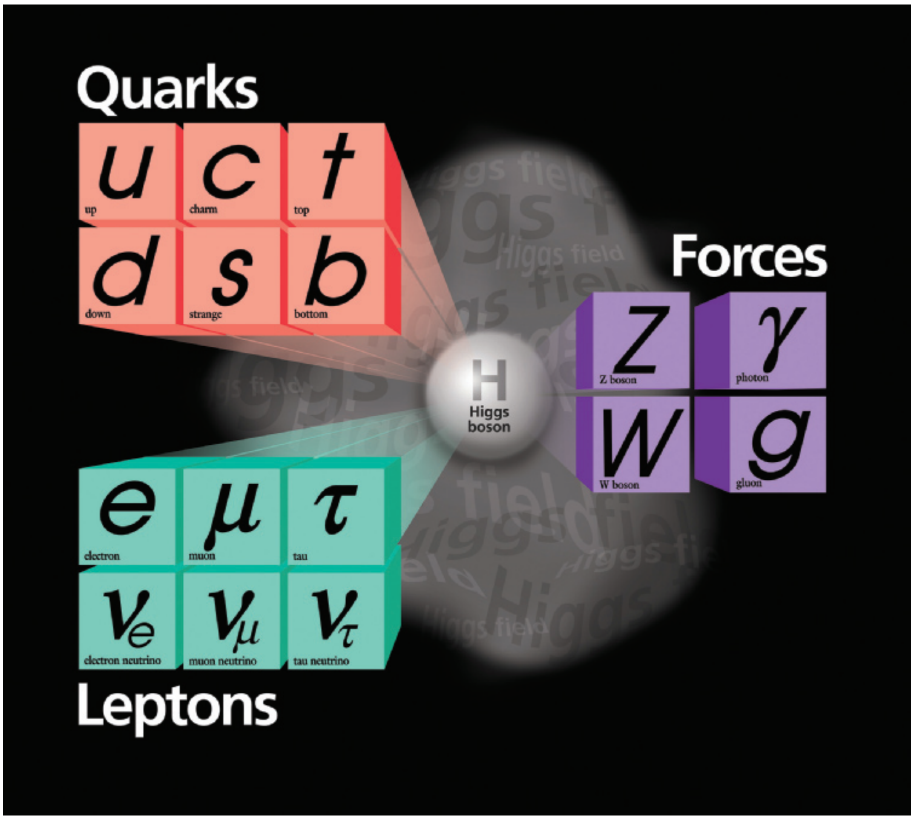
Scientists now believe there are three classifications of truly elementary particles: leptons, quarks, and field particles. These three types of particles are further classified as either fermions or bosons. Quarks and leptons have spin $\frac{1}{2}$ and hence are fermions, whereas the field particles have integral spin of 1 or higher and are bosons.

Recall from Section 44.1 that the weak force is believed to be mediated by the W^+, W^-, and Z^0 bosons. These particles are said to have *weak charge*, just as quarks have color charge. Therefore, each elementary particle can have mass, electric charge, color charge, and weak charge. Of course, one or more of these could be zero.

In 1979, Sheldon Glashow (b. 1932), Abdus Salam (1926–1996), and Steven Weinberg (b. 1933) won the Nobel Prize in Physics for developing a theory that unifies the electromagnetic and weak interactions. This **electroweak theory** postulates that the weak and electromagnetic interactions have the same strength when the particles involved have very high energies. The two interactions at normal energies are viewed as different manifestations of a single unifying electroweak interaction. The theory makes many concrete predictions, but perhaps the most spectacular is the prediction of the masses of the W and Z particles at approximately 82 GeV/c^2 and 93 GeV/c^2, respectively. These predictions are close to the masses in Table 44.1 determined by experiment.

The combination of the electroweak theory and QCD for the strong interaction is referred to in high-energy physics as the **Standard Model.** Although the details of the Standard Model are complex, its essential ingredients can be summarized with the help of Fig. 44.13. (Although the Standard Model does not include the gravitational force at present, physicists hope to eventually incorporate this force into a unified theory.) The quarks at the upper left in Figure 44.13 participate in all the fundamental forces, while the leptons at the lower left participate in all except the strong force.

The Standard Model does not answer all questions. A major question still unanswered is why, of the two mediators of the electroweak interaction, the photon has no mass but the W and Z bosons do. Because of this mass difference, the electromagnetic and weak forces are quite distinct at low energies but become similar at very high energies, when the rest energy is negligible relative to the total energy. The behavior as one goes from high to low energies is called *symmetry breaking* because the forces are similar, or symmetric, at high energies but are very different at low energies. The nonzero rest energies of the W and Z bosons raise the question of the origin of particle masses. To resolve this problem, a hypothetical particle



Fermi National Accelerator Laboratory/U.S. Department of Energy Office of Science

Figure 44.13 The Standard Model of particle physics. The fundamental particles are shown at the left as two distinct families: quarks and leptons. On the right, the field particles for the fundamental forces are shown. The Higgs boson is proposed to provide mass for the fundamental particles and the W and Z particles.

called the **Higgs boson,** which provides a mechanism for breaking the electroweak symmetry, has been proposed. The Standard Model modified to include the Higgs boson provides a logically consistent explanation of the massive nature of the W and Z bosons. In July 2012, announcements from the ATLAS (A Toroidal LHC Apparatus) and CMS (Compact Muon Solenoid) experiments at the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) at CERN claimed the discovery of a new particle having properties consistent with that of a Higgs boson. The mass of the particle is 125–127 GeV, within the range of predictions made from theoretical considerations using the Standard Model. While more testing is needed to remove all alternate theoretical possibilities, it is becoming likely that the discovery is indeed the Higgs boson.

Because of the limited energy available in conventional accelerators using fixed targets, it is necessary to employ colliding-beam accelerators called **colliders.** The concept of colliders is straightforward. Particles that have equal masses and equal kinetic energies, traveling in opposite directions in an accelerator ring, collide head-on to produce the required reaction and form new particles. Because the total momentum of the interacting particles is zero, all their kinetic energy is available for the reaction.

Several colliders provided important data for understanding the Standard Model in the latter part of the 20th century and the first decade of the 21st century: the Large Electron–Positron (LEP) Collider and the Super Proton Synchrotron at CERN, the Stanford Linear Collider, and the Tevatron at the Fermi National Laboratory in Illinois. The Relativistic Heavy Ion Collider at Brookhaven National Laboratory is the sole remaining collider in operation in the United States. The Large Hadron Collider at CERN, which began collision operations in March 2010, has taken the lead in particle studies due to its extremely high energy capabilities. The expected upper limit for the LHC is a center-of-mass energy of 14 TeV.

44.11 The Cosmic Connection

As promised in the introduction, let us reverse course and go upward in scale. In this section, we describe one of the most fascinating theories in all science—the Big Bang theory of the creation of the Universe—and the experimental evidence that supports it. This theory of cosmology states that the Universe had a beginning and furthermore that the beginning was so cataclysmic that it is impossible to look back beyond it. According to this theory, the Universe erupted from an infinitely dense singularity about 14 billion years ago. The first few moments after the Big Bang saw such extremely high energy that it is believed that all four interactions of physics were unified and all matter was contained in a quark–gluon plasma.

The evolution of the four fundamental forces from the Big Bang to the present is shown in Figure 44.14. During the first 10^{-43} s (the ultrahot epoch, $T \sim 10^{32}$ K), it

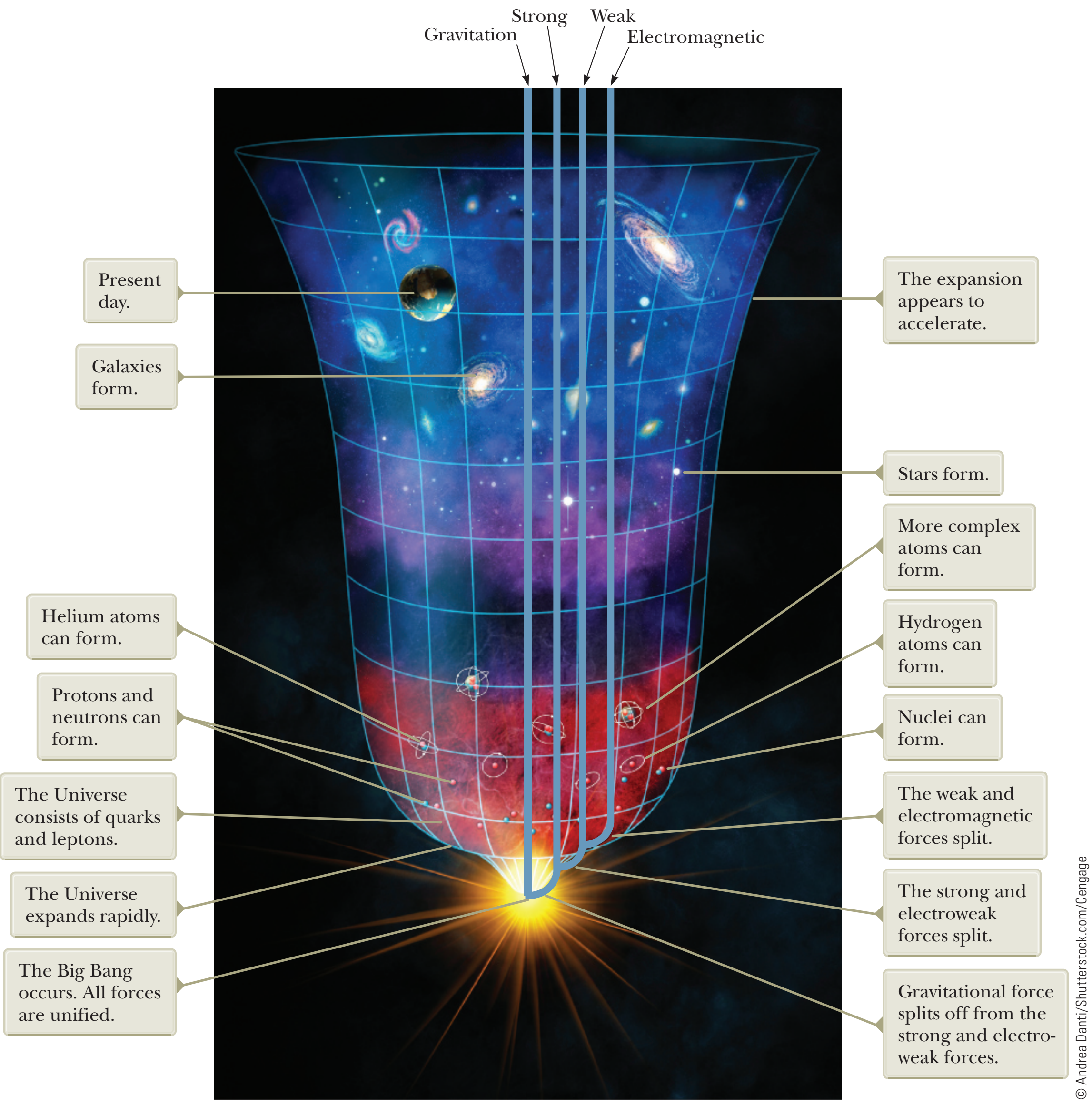


Figure 44.14 A brief history of the Universe from the Big Bang to the present. The four forces became distinguishable during the first nanosecond. Following that, all the quarks combined to form particles that interact via the nuclear force. The leptons, however, remained separate and to this day exist as individual, observable particles.

is presumed the strong, electroweak, and gravitational forces were joined to form a completely unified force. In the first 10^{-35} s following the Big Bang (the hot epoch, $T \sim 10^{29}$ K), symmetry breaking occurred for gravity while the strong and electroweak forces remained unified. It was a period when particle energies were so great ($> 10^{16}$ GeV) that very massive particles as well as quarks, leptons, and their antiparticles existed. Then, after 10^{-35} s, the Universe rapidly expanded and cooled (the warm epoch, $T \sim 10^{29}$ to 10^{15} K) and the strong and electroweak forces parted company. As the Universe continued to cool, the electroweak force split into the weak force and the electromagnetic force approximately 10^{-10} s after the Big Bang.

After a few minutes, protons and neutrons condensed out of the plasma. For half an hour, the Universe underwent thermonuclear fusion, exploding as a hydrogen bomb and producing most of the helium nuclei that now exist. The Universe continued to expand, and its temperature dropped. Until about 700 000 years after the Big Bang, the Universe was dominated by radiation. Energetic radiation prevented matter from forming single hydrogen atoms because photons would instantly ionize any atoms that happened to form. Photons experienced continuous Compton scattering from the vast numbers of free electrons, resulting in a Universe that was opaque to radiation. By the time the Universe was about 377 000 years old, it had expanded and cooled to approximately 3 000 K and protons could bind to electrons to form neutral hydrogen atoms. Because of the quantized energies of the atoms, far more wavelengths of radiation were not absorbed by atoms than were absorbed, and the Universe suddenly became transparent to photons. Radiation no longer dominated the Universe, and clumps of neutral matter steadily grew: first atoms, then molecules, gas clouds, stars, and finally galaxies.

Observation of Radiation from the Primordial Fireball

In 1965, Arno A. Penzias (b. 1933) and Robert W. Wilson (b. 1936) of Bell Laboratories were testing a sensitive microwave receiver and made an amazing discovery. A pesky signal producing a faint background hiss was interfering with their satellite communications experiments. The microwave horn that served as their receiving antenna is shown in Figure 44.15. Evicting a flock of pigeons from the 20-ft horn and cooling the microwave detector both failed to remove the signal.

The intensity of the detected signal remained unchanged as the antenna was pointed in different directions. That the radiation had equal strengths in all directions suggested that the entire Universe was the source of this radiation. Ultimately, it became clear that they were detecting microwave background radiation (at a wavelength of 7.35 cm), which represented the leftover "glow" from the Big Bang. Through a casual conversation, Penzias and Wilson discovered that a group at Princeton University had predicted the residual radiation from the Big Bang and were planning an experiment to attempt to confirm the theory. The excitement in the scientific community was high when Penzias and Wilson announced that they had already observed an excess microwave background compatible with a 3-K blackbody source, which was consistent with the predicted temperature of the Universe at this time after the Big Bang.

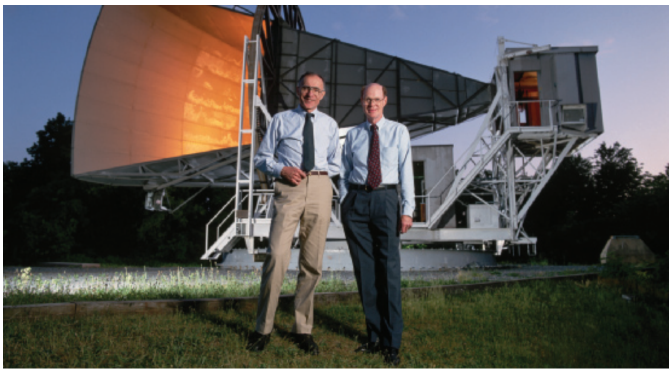


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Figure 44.15 Robert W. Wilson *(left)* and Arno A. Penzias with the Bell Telephone Laboratories horn-reflector antenna.

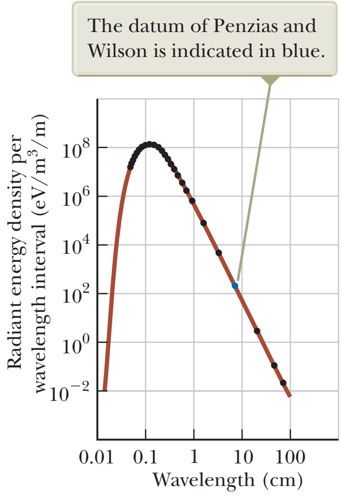

Figure 44.16 Theoretical blackbody (brown curve) and measured radiation spectra (black points) of the Big Bang. Most of the data were collected from the COsmic Background Explorer, or COBE, satellite.

Because Penzias and Wilson made their measurements at a single wavelength, they did not completely confirm the radiation as 3-K blackbody radiation. Subsequent experiments by other groups added intensity data at different wavelengths as shown in Figure 44.16. The results confirm that the radiation is that of a black body at 2.7 K. This figure is perhaps the most clear-cut evidence for the Big Bang theory. The 1978 Nobel Prize in Physics was awarded to Penzias and Wilson for this most important discovery.

In the years following Penzias and Wilson's discovery, other researchers made measurements at different wavelengths. In 1989, the COBE (COsmic Background Explorer) satellite was launched by NASA and added critical measurements at wavelengths below 0.1 cm. The results of these measurements led to a Nobel Prize in Physics for the principal investigators in 2006. Several data points from COBE are shown in Figure 44.16. The Wilkinson Microwave Anisotropy Probe, launched in June 2001, exhibits data that allow observation of temperature differences in the cosmos in the microkelvin range. Ongoing observations are also being made from Earth-based facilities, associated with projects such as QUaD, Qubic, and the South Pole Telescope. In addition, the Planck satellite was launched in May 2009 by the European Space Agency. This space-based observatory measured the cosmic background radiation with higher sensitivity than the Wilkinson probe until its shutdown in 2013. The series of measurements taken since 1965 are consistent with thermal radiation associated with a temperature of 2.7 K. The whole story of the cosmic temperature is a remarkable example of science at work: building a model, making a prediction, taking measurements, and testing the measurements against the predictions.

Other Evidence for an Expanding Universe

The Big Bang theory of cosmology predicts that the Universe is expanding. Most of the key discoveries supporting the theory of an expanding Universe were made in the 20th century. Vesto Melvin Slipher (1875–1969), an American astronomer, reported in 1912 that most galaxies are receding from the Earth at speeds up to several million miles per hour. Slipher was one of the first scientists to use Doppler shifts (see Section 16.9) in spectral lines to measure galaxy velocities.

In the late 1920s, Edwin P. Hubble (1889–1953) performed research on the notion of an expanding Universe. From 1928 to 1936, until they reached the limits of the 100-inch telescope, Hubble and Milton Humason (1891–1972) worked at Mount Wilson in California to prove the assertion that the Universe is expanding. The results of that work and of its continuation with the use of a 200-inch telescope in the 1940s showed that the speeds at which galaxies are receding from the Earth increase in direct proportion to their distance R from us. This linear relationship, known as **Hubble's law,** may be written

Hubble's law ▶

$$v = HR \tag{44.4}$$

where H, called the **Hubble constant,** has the approximate value

$$H \approx 22 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m/(s} \cdot \text{ly)}$$

Example 44.5 Recession of a Quasar

A *quasar,* or *quasi-stellar object,* is a very distant galaxy with an active nucleus that appears star-like because of its high luminosity and compact size. Its speed can be determined from Doppler-shift measurements in the light it emits. A certain quasar recedes from the Earth at a speed of $0.55c$. How far away is it?

SOLUTION

Conceptualize A common mental representation for the Hubble law is that of raisin bread cooking in an oven. Imagine yourself at the center of the loaf of bread. As the entire loaf of bread expands upon heating, raisins near you move slowly with respect to you. Raisins far away from you on the edge of the loaf move at a higher speed.

44.5 continued

Categorize We use a concept developed in this section, so we categorize this example as a substitution problem.

Find the distance through Hubble's law: $R = \frac{v}{H} = \frac{(0.55)(3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})}{22 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m/(s} \cdot \text{ly)}} = \boxed{7.5 \times 10^9 \text{ ly}}$

WHAT IF? Suppose the quasar has moved at this speed ever since the Big Bang. With this assumption, estimate the age of the Universe.

Answer Let's approximate the distance from the Earth to the quasar as the distance the quasar has moved from the singularity since the Big Bang. We can then find the time interval from the *particle under constant speed* model: $\Delta t = d/v = R/v = 1/H \approx$ 14 billion years, which is in approximate agreement with other calculations.

Critical Density and the Fate of the Universe

The discovery and confirmation of the expansion of the Universe led to numerous attempts to measure its expansion rate, as this rate would provide information on the eventual fate of the Universe. For example, if the expansion were slowing, that would indicate that there may be sufficient mass in the Universe for the gravitational attraction between galaxies to halt and reverse the expansion. This could possibly lead to a collapse of the Universe to a superdense state, sometimes referred to as the *Big Crunch*, followed by another Big Bang expansion. This type of situation is described as an *oscillating Universe*. The minimum density of matter and energy in the Universe at which this scenario would occur is called the critical density ρ_c (Example 44.6). The density parameter Ω_0 (Greek letter omega), defined as the ratio of the actual density of the Universe to the critical density, is helpful in delineating the fate of the Universe. Figure 44.17 helps us to understand possible fates of the Universe based on Ω_0. If $\Omega_0 < 1$, the galaxies will slow in their outward rush but still escape to infinity. This scenario is referred to as an *open Universe* (blue curve in Fig. 44.17). If $\Omega_0 = 1$, the expansion rate slows to a stop at an infinitely distant time in the future (green curve in Fig. 44.17) and we live in a *flat Universe*. If $\Omega_0 > 1$, however, the scenario is a *closed Universe* (orange curve in Fig. 44.17) and the expansion reverses itself, leading to the Big Crunch. See the section "Mysterious Energy in the Universe" (page 1251) regarding the red curve.

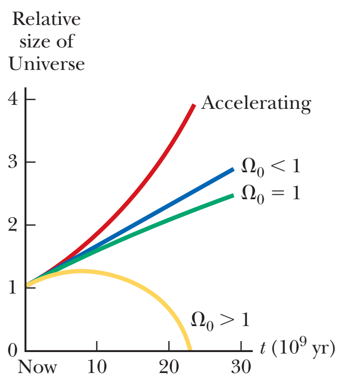

Figure 44.17 Various scenarios of the fate of the Universe. Observations indicate that we live in a nominally flat ($\Omega_0 = 1$) Universe, except for the effect of dark energy, which is to accelerate the expansion of the Universe (red curve).

Example 44.6 **The Critical Density of the Universe**

(A) Starting from energy conservation, derive an expression for the critical mass density of the Universe ρ_c in terms of the Hubble constant H and the universal gravitational constant G.

SOLUTION

Conceptualize Figure 44.18 shows a large section of the Universe, contained within a sphere of radius R. The total mass in this volume is M. A galaxy of mass $m << M$ that has a speed v at a distance R from the center of the sphere escapes to infinity (at which its speed approaches zero) if the sum of its kinetic energy and the gravitational potential energy of the system is zero.

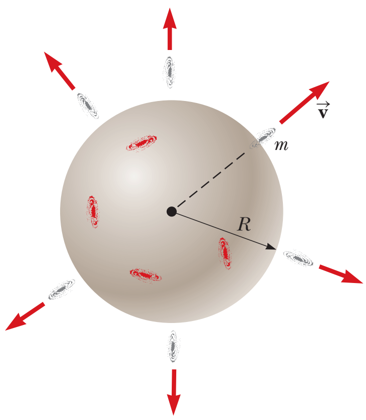

Figure 44.18 (Example 44.6) The galaxy marked with mass m is escaping from a section of the Universe contained within a spherical volume of radius R. Only the mass within R slows the escaping galaxy.

Categorize The Universe may be infinite in spatial extent, but Gauss's law for gravitation (an analog to Gauss's law for electric fields in Chapter 23) implies that only the mass M inside the sphere contributes to the gravitational potential energy of the galaxy–sphere system. Therefore, we categorize this problem as one in which we apply Gauss's law for gravitation. We model the sphere in Figure 44.18 and the escaping galaxy as an *isolated system* for *energy*.

continued

44.6 continued

Analyze Write the appropriate reduction of Equation 8.2, assuming that the galaxy leaves the spherical volume while moving at the escape speed:

$$\Delta K + \Delta U = 0$$

$$(0 - \tfrac{1}{2}mv^2) + \left[0 - \left(-\frac{GmM}{R}\right)\right] = 0$$

Substitute for the mass M contained within the sphere the product of the critical density and the volume of the sphere:

$$\tfrac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{Gm\left(\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \rho_c\right)}{R}$$

Solve for the critical density:

$$\rho_c = \frac{3v^2}{8\pi G R^2}$$

From Hubble's law, substitute for the ratio $v/R = H$:

$$(1)\quad \rho_c = \frac{3}{8\pi G}\left(\frac{v}{R}\right)^2 = \boxed{\frac{3H^2}{8\pi G}}$$

(B) Estimate a numerical value for the critical density in grams per cubic centimeter.

SOLUTION

In Equation (1), substitute numerical values for H and G:

$$\rho_c = \frac{3H^2}{8\pi G} = \frac{3[22 \times 10^{-3}\ \text{m}/(\text{s}\cdot\text{ly})]^2}{8\pi(6.67 \times 10^{-11}\ \text{N}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{kg}^2)} = 8.7 \times 10^5\ \text{kg/m}\cdot(\text{ly})^2$$

Reconcile the units by converting light-years to meters:

$$\rho_c = 8.7 \times 10^5\ \text{kg/m}\cdot(\text{ly})^2\left(\frac{1\ \text{ly}}{9.46 \times 10^{15}\ \text{m}}\right)^2$$

$$= 9.7 \times 10^{-27}\ \text{kg/m}^3 = \boxed{9.7 \times 10^{-30}\ \text{g/cm}^3}$$

Finalize Because the mass of a hydrogen atom is 1.67×10^{-24} g, this value of ρ_c corresponds to 6×10^{-6} hydrogen atoms per cubic centimeter or 6 atoms per cubic meter.

Dark Matter and the Missing Mass in the Universe

The estimated mass of luminous matter in galaxies leads to an average Universe density of about 5×10^{-33} g/cm^3. The radiation in the Universe has a mass equivalent of approximately 2% that of the luminous matter. The total mass of all nonluminous matter (such as interstellar gas and black holes) may be estimated from the motion of small "satellite" galaxies orbiting far from larger galaxies, just like the mass of the Sun can be determined from Kepler's third law applied to the motion of the planets (Example 13.4). In the case of the Milky Way galaxy, it is estimated that the stars and the interstellar gas and dust only account for one-third of the total mass of the galaxy, and only part of the *missing mass* to make the Universe flat may be accounted for by large, tenuous gas clouds surrounding the galaxy. This missing mass has been the subject of intense theoretical and experimental work, and some researchers have proposed that the missing mass is present in neutrinos. The most recent measurements indicate, however, that the sum of the masses of the electron, muon, and tau neutrino are on the order of 0.5 eV/c^2. This sum is not sufficient to furnish the missing mass.

In Section 13.6, we discussed *dark matter,* which not only does not emit electromagnetic radiation, but also does not interact with electromagnetic waves in any way. In 1933, Swiss cosmologist Fritz Zwicky's (1898–1974) observations of the Coma Cluster of galaxies indicated that the motion of the galaxies in the cluster could not be explained by the gravitational force of the luminous and nonluminous "ordinary," or *baryonic* (comprised of baryons), matter. Zwicky coined the term *dunkle materie* (dark matter) for the missing matter. Although the presence of dark matter has been inferred in numerous observations, including the rotation rates of spiral galaxies and the motion of galaxies in galaxy clusters, the nature of this form of matter remains a mystery (see Section 13.6). What is known is that dark matter makes up 26.8% of the matter-energy density of the Universe, or more than five times the density of "ordinary" luminous and non-luminous matter.

Mysterious Energy in the Universe?

A surprising twist in the story of the Universe arose in 1998 with the observation of a class of supernovae that have a fixed absolute brightness. By combining the apparent brightness and the redshift of light from these explosions, their distance and speed of recession from the Earth can be determined. These observations led to the conclusion that the expansion of the Universe is not slowing down, but is accelerating! Observations by other groups also led to the same interpretation. The 2011 Nobel Prize in Physics was awarded to Saul Perlmutter (b. 1959), Brian P. Schmidt (b. 1967) and Adam Riess (b. 1969) "for the discovery of the accelerating expansion of the Universe through observations of distant supernovae." To explain this acceleration, physicists have proposed *dark energy*, which is energy possessed by the vacuum of space. In the early life of the Universe, gravity dominated over the dark energy. As the Universe expanded and the gravitational force between galaxies became smaller because of the great distances between them, the dark energy became more important. The dominance of dark energy over gravitation is hypothesized to have occurred about 5 billion years ago. Dark energy constitutes 68.3% of the matter–energy budget of the Universe, resulting in a value of Ω_0 that is almost precisely equal to 1, indicating that we live in a flat Universe. The red curve in Figure 44.17 shows the effect of adding dark energy to the matter-energy density of the Universe. Instead of a slowing expansion, or an expansion matching the $\Omega_0 = 1$ case (green curve), dark energy results in an effective repulsive force that causes the expansion rate to increase, resulting in an *accelerating* Universe.[6]

44.12 Problems and Perspectives

While particle physicists have been exploring the realm of the very small, cosmologists have been exploring cosmic history back to the first microsecond of the Big Bang. Observation of the events that occur when two particles collide in an accelerator is essential for reconstructing the early moments in cosmic history. For this reason, perhaps the key to understanding the early Universe is to first understand the world of elementary particles. Cosmologists and physicists now find that they have many common goals and are joining hands in an attempt to understand the physical world at its most fundamental level.

The End of Our Storyline?

In the introductory storyline for this chapter, we alluded to the idea that perhaps we might finish this chapter knowing everything there is to know about physics. Well, how did we do? We know a tremendous amount of physics after studying these 44 chapters. But we don't know *everything*.

Our understanding of physics is far from complete. Particle physics is faced with many questions. Why does so little antimatter exist in the Universe? Is it possible to unify the strong and electroweak theories in a logical and consistent manner? Why do quarks and leptons form three similar but distinct families? Are muons the same as electrons apart from their difference in mass, or do they have other subtle differences that have not been detected? Why are some particles charged and others neutral? Why do quarks carry a fractional charge? What determines the masses of the elementary constituents of matter? Can isolated quarks exist? Why do electrons and protons have *exactly* the same magnitude of charge when one is a truly fundamental particle and the other is built from smaller particles?

[6]For an overview of dark energy, see S. Perlmutter, "Supernovae, Dark Energy, and the Accelerating Universe," *Physics Today* **56**(4): 53–60, April 2003.

Other questions outside the realm of particle physics are still unanswered. For example, let's consider the famous "Schrödinger cat." To point out the contrast between an experimental result and the wave function describing it, Schrödinger imagined a box containing a cat, a radioactive sample, a radiation counter, and a vial of poison. When a nucleus in the sample decays, the counter triggers the administration of lethal poison to the cat. Quantum mechanics correctly predicts the probability of finding the cat dead when the box is opened. Before the box is opened, however, what is the wave function of the cat? That is, before a measurement is taken, does the cat have a wave function that is a mixture of dead and alive? Does the wave function describe the cat as fractionally dead, with some chance of being alive? Does the act of measurement change the system from a probabilistic state to a definite state? This question is under continuing investigation, never with actual cats but sometimes with interference experiments building upon the experiment described in Section 39.7. When a particle emitted by a radioactive nucleus is detected at one particular location, does the wave function describing the particle drop instantaneously to zero everywhere else in the Universe? (Einstein called such a state change a "spooky action at a distance.") Is there a fundamental difference between a quantum system and a macroscopic system? The answers to these questions are unknown.

An important and obvious question that remains in particle physics is whether leptons and quarks have an underlying structure. If they do, we can envision an infinite number of deeper structure levels. If leptons and quarks are indeed the ultimate constituents of matter, however, scientists hope to construct a final theory of the structure of matter, just as Einstein dreamed of doing. This theory, whimsically called the Theory of Everything, is a combination of the Standard Model and a quantum theory of gravity.

String Theory: A New Perspective

Let's briefly discuss one current effort at answering some of these questions by proposing a new perspective on particles. While reading this book, you may recall starting off with the *particle* model in Chapter 2 and doing quite a bit of physics with it. In Chapter 16, we introduced the *wave* model, and there was more physics to be investigated via the properties of waves. We used a *wave* model for light in Chapter 34; in Chapter 39, however, we saw the need to return to the *particle* model for light. Furthermore, we found that material particles had wave-like characteristics. The quantum particle model discussed in Chapter 39 allowed us to build particles out of waves, suggesting that a *wave* is the fundamental entity. In the current Chapter 44, however, we introduced elementary *particles* as the fundamental entities. It seems as if we cannot make up our mind! In this final section, we discuss a current research effort to build particles out of waves and vibrations on strings!

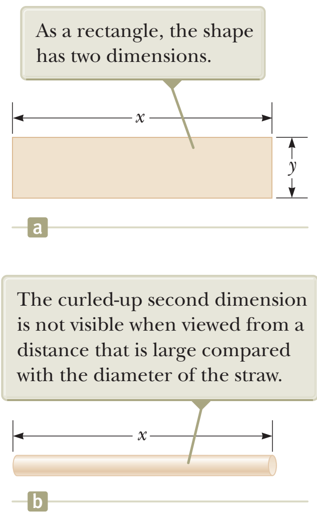

Figure 44.19 (a) A piece of paper is cut into a rectangular shape. (b) The paper is rolled up into a soda straw.

String theory is an effort to unify the four fundamental forces by modeling all particles as various quantized vibrational modes of a single entity, an incredibly small string. The typical length of such a string is on the order of 10^{-35} m, called the **Planck length.** We have seen quantized modes before in the frequencies of vibrating guitar strings in Chapter 17 and the quantized energy levels of atoms in Chapter 41. In string theory, each quantized mode of vibration of the string corresponds to a different elementary particle in the Standard Model.

One complicating factor in string theory is that it requires spacetime to have ten dimensions. Despite the theoretical and conceptual difficulties in dealing with ten dimensions, string theory holds promise in incorporating gravity with the other forces. Four of the ten dimensions—three space dimensions and one time dimension—are visible to us. The other six are said to be *compactified;* that is, the six dimensions are curled up so tightly that they are not visible in the macroscopic world.

As an analogy, consider a soda straw. You can build a soda straw by cutting a rectangular piece of paper (Fig. 44.19a), which clearly has two dimensions, and rolling it into a small tube (Fig. 44.19b). From far away, the soda straw looks like a one-dimensional straight line. The second dimension has been curled up and is not visible. String theory claims that six spacetime dimensions are curled up in an analogous way, with the curling being on the size of the Planck length and impossible to see from our viewpoint.

Another complicating factor with string theory is that it is difficult for string theorists to guide experimentalists as to what to look for in an experiment. The Planck length is so small that direct experimentation on strings is impossible. Until the theory has been further developed, string theorists are restricted to applying the theory to known results and testing for consistency.

One of the predictions of string theory, called **supersymmetry,** or SUSY, suggests that every elementary particle has a superpartner that has not yet been observed. It is believed that supersymmetry is a broken symmetry (like the broken electroweak symmetry at low energies) and the masses of the superpartners are above our current capabilities of detection by accelerators. Some theorists claim that the mass of superpartners is the missing mass discussed in Section 44.11. Keeping with the whimsical trend in naming particles and their properties, superpartners are given names such as the *squark* (the superpartner to a quark), the *selectron* (electron), and the *gluino* (gluon).

Other theorists are working on **M-theory,** which is an eleven-dimensional theory based on membranes rather than strings. In a way reminiscent of the correspondence principle, M-theory is claimed to reduce to string theory if one compactifies from eleven dimensions to ten dimensions.

The questions listed at the beginning of this section go on and on. Because of the rapid advances and new discoveries in the field of particle physics, many of these questions may be resolved in the next decade and other new questions may emerge.

Summary

Concepts and Principles

Before quark theory was developed, the four fundamental forces in nature were identified as nuclear, electromagnetic, weak, and gravitational. All the interactions in which these forces take part are mediated by **field particles.** The electromagnetic interaction is mediated by photons; the weak interaction is mediated by the $W^\pm$ and Z^0 bosons; the gravitational interaction is mediated by gravitons; and the nuclear interaction is mediated by gluons.

A charged particle and its **antiparticle** have the same mass but opposite charge, and other properties will have opposite values, such as lepton number and baryon number. It is possible to produce particle–antiparticle pairs in nuclear reactions if the available energy is greater than $2mc^2$, where m is the mass of the particle (or antiparticle).

Particles other than field particles are classified as hadrons or leptons. **Hadrons** interact via all four fundamental forces. They have size and structure and are not elementary particles. There are two types, **baryons** and **mesons.** Baryons, which generally are the most massive particles, have nonzero **baryon number** and a spin of $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{3}{2}$. Mesons have baryon number zero and either zero or integral spin.

Leptons have no structure or size and are considered truly elementary. They interact only via the weak, gravitational, and electromagnetic forces. Six types of leptons exist: the electron e^-, the muon μ^-, and the tau τ^-, and their neutrinos ν_e, ν_μ, and ν_τ.

In all reactions and decays, quantities such as energy, linear momentum, angular momentum, electric charge, baryon number, and lepton number are strictly conserved. Certain particles have properties called **strangeness** and **charm.** These unusual properties are conserved in all decays and nuclear reactions except those that occur via the weak force.

Theorists in elementary particle physics have postulated that all hadrons are composed of smaller units known as **quarks,** and experimental evidence agrees with this model. Quarks have fractional electric charge and come in six **flavors:** up (u), down (d), strange (s), charmed (c), top (t), and bottom (b). Each baryon contains three quarks, and each meson contains one quark and one antiquark.

continued

According to the theory of **quantum chromodynamics,** quarks have a property called **color;** the force between quarks is referred to as the **strong force** or the **color force.** The strong force is now considered to be a fundamental force. The nuclear force, which was originally considered to be fundamental, is now understood to be a secondary effect of the strong force due to gluon exchanges between hadrons.

The electromagnetic and weak forces are now considered to be manifestations of a single force called the **electroweak force.** The combination of quantum chromodynamics and the electroweak theory is called the **Standard Model.**

The background microwave radiation discovered by Penzias and Wilson strongly suggests that the Universe started with a Big Bang about 14 billion years ago. The background radiation is equivalent to that of a black body at 3 K. Various astronomical measurements strongly suggest that the Universe is expanding. According to **Hubble's law,** distant galaxies are receding from the Earth at a speed $v = HR$, where H is the **Hubble constant,** $H \approx 22 \times 10^{-3}$ m/(s · ly), and R is the distance from the Earth to the galaxy.

Think–Pair–Share

See the Preface for an explanation of the icons used in this problems set. For additional assessment items for this section, go to WEBASSIGN From Cengage

1. Your group is working in a particle physics laboratory and is studying the following reaction: (a) $\pi^+ + \text{p} \rightarrow \text{K}^+ + \Sigma^+$. In your group, analyze the reaction in terms of constituent quarks and show that each type of quark is conserved. (b) The next reaction you study is $\text{K}^- + \text{p} \rightarrow \text{K}^+ + \text{K}^0 + \Omega^-$. Analyze this reaction in terms of constituent quarks and show that each type of quark is conserved. In the reaction $\text{p} + \text{p} \rightarrow \text{K}^0 + \text{p} + \pi^+ + ?$, (c) determine the quarks in the mystery particle, and (d) identify the mystery particle.

2. Consider the following reaction that proceeds by the strong interaction, in which strangeness is conserved. Discuss this reaction in your group and answer the following: What are the possible identities of the mystery particle?

$$\text{K}^+ + \text{p} \rightarrow ? + \text{p}$$

3. Consider the following reactions that proceed by the weak interaction, in which strangeness is *not* conserved. Assume that the strangeness changes by one unit. Discuss these reactions in your group and answer the following: What are the possible identities of the mystery particles?

(a) $\Omega^- \rightarrow ? + \pi^-$
(b) $\text{K}^+ \rightarrow ? + \mu^+ + \nu_\mu$

4. ACTIVITY Your team is studying the phi meson, which has a mass of 1 019 MeV/c^2 and zero electric charge. (a) Determine which of the following decay schemes are possible for the phi meson at rest:

(i) $\phi \rightarrow \text{K}^+ + \text{K}^- + \pi^0$
(ii) $\phi \rightarrow \text{K}^+ + \text{K}^-$
(iii) $\phi \rightarrow \text{K}^+ + e^-$
(iv) $\phi \rightarrow \text{K}^+ + \pi^-$

(b) For the reaction(s) that occur, find the kinetic energy of the decay products.

Problems

See the Preface for an explanation of the icons used in this problems set. For additional assessment items for this section, go to WEBASSIGN From Cengage

SECTION 44.2 Positrons and Other Antiparticles

1. Two photons are produced when a proton and an antiproton annihilate each other. In the reference frame in which the center of mass of the proton–antiproton system is stationary, what are (a) the minimum frequency and (b) the corresponding wavelength of each photon?

2. CR You are hired as an expert witness for the defense of an employee who is being sued for exposing his supervisor to harmful radiation. The employee had a PET scan and was injected at 4:30 PM with glucose containing on the order of 10^{14} atoms of ^{14}O, with a half-life of 70.6 s. Immediately after the scan was completed, at 5:30 PM, the employee met his supervisor for a dinner meeting, shook hands with him, and sat down at the same table for dinner. The supervisor looked shocked when the employee mentioned that he had just had a PET scan before the meeting. Later that evening, the supervisor started feeling ill and became convinced that it was radiation poisoning due to the significant radiation he received during his encounter with the employee. The supervisor quickly filed suit for radiation damage to his body against the employee based on this conclusion. In order to generate a defense argument for the employee, calculate the activity of the ^{14}O in the employee's body when the two sat down to have dinner at 5:30.

SECTION 44.3 Mesons and the Beginning of Particle Physics

3. One mediator of the weak interaction is the Z^0 boson, with mass 91 GeV/c^2. Use this information to find the order of magnitude of the range of the weak interaction.

4. Q|C (a) Prove that the exchange of a virtual particle of mass m can be associated with a force with a range given by

$$d \approx \frac{1\,240}{4\pi mc^2} = \frac{98.7}{mc^2}$$

where d is in nanometers and mc^2 is in electron volts. (b) State the pattern of dependence of the range on the mass. (c) What is the range of the force that might be produced by the virtual exchange of a proton?

SECTION 44.5 Conservation Laws

5. When a high-energy proton or pion traveling near the speed of light collides with a nucleus, it travels an average distance of 3×10^{-15} m before interacting. From this information, find the order of magnitude of the time interval required for the strong interaction to occur.

6. The first of the following two reactions can occur, but the second cannot. Explain.

$K_S^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^-$ (can occur)

$\Lambda^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^-$ (cannot occur)

7. Each of the following reactions is forbidden. Determine what conservation laws are violated for each reaction.

(a) $p + \bar{p} \rightarrow \mu^+ + e^-$

(b) $\pi^- + p \rightarrow p + \pi^+$

(c) $p + p \rightarrow p + p + n$

(d) $\gamma + p \rightarrow n + \pi^0$

(e) $\nu_e + p \rightarrow n + e^+$

8. Q|C (a) Show that baryon number and charge are conserved in the following reactions of a pion with a proton:

(1) $\pi^+ + p \rightarrow K^+ + \Sigma^+$

(2) $\pi^+ + p \rightarrow \pi^+ + \Sigma^+$

(b) The first reaction is observed, but the second never occurs. Explain.

9. The following reactions or decays involve one or more neutrinos. In each case, supply the missing neutrino (ν_e, ν_μ, or ν_τ) or antineutrino.

(a) $\pi^- \rightarrow \mu^- + ?$ (b) $K^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + ?$

(c) $? + p \rightarrow n + e^+$ (d) $? + n \rightarrow p + e^-$

(e) $? + n \rightarrow p + \mu^-$ (f) $\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + ? + ?$

10. Determine the type of neutrino or antineutrino involved in each of the following processes.

(a) $\pi^+ \rightarrow \pi^0 + e^+ + ?$ (b) $? + p \rightarrow \mu^- + p + \pi^+$

(c) $\Lambda^0 \rightarrow p + \mu^- + ?$ (d) $\tau^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + ? + ?$

11. Determine which of the following reactions can occur. For those that cannot occur, determine the conservation law (or laws) violated.

(a) $p \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^0$ (b) $p + p \rightarrow p + p + \pi^0$

(c) $p + p \rightarrow p + \pi^+$ (d) $\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + \nu_\mu$

(e) $n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$ (f) $\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ + n$

12. (a) Show that the proton-decay $p \rightarrow e^+ + \gamma$ cannot occur because it violates the conservation of baryon number. (b) **What If?** Imagine that this reaction does occur and the proton is initially at rest. Determine the energies and magnitudes of the momentum of the positron and photon after the reaction. (c) Determine the speed of the positron after the reaction.

13. A Λ^0 particle at rest decays into a proton and a π^- meson. (a) Use the data in Table 44.2 to find the Q value for this decay in MeV. (b) What is the total kinetic energy shared by the proton and the π^- meson after the decay? (c) What is the total momentum shared by the proton and the π^- meson? (d) The proton and the π^- meson have momenta with the same magnitude after the decay. Do they have equal kinetic energies? Explain.

SECTION 44.6 Strange Particles and Strangeness

14. Q|C The neutral meson ρ^0 decays by the strong interaction into two pions:

$$\rho^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^- \quad (T_{1/2} \sim 10^{-23}\text{ s})$$

The neutral kaon also decays into two pions:

$$K_S^0 \rightarrow \pi^+ + \pi^- \quad (T_{1/2} \sim 10^{-10}\text{ s})$$

How do you explain the difference in half-lives?

15. Which of the following processes are allowed by the strong interaction, the electromagnetic interaction, the weak interaction, or no interaction at all? (*Note:* The eta (η) particle is a chargeless, non-strange meson.)

(a) $\pi^- + p \rightarrow 2\eta$ (b) $K^- + n \rightarrow \Lambda^0 + \pi^-$

(c) $K^- \rightarrow \pi^- + \pi^0$ (d) $\Omega^- \rightarrow \Xi^- + \pi^0$

(e) $\eta \rightarrow 2\gamma$

16. For each of the following forbidden decays, determine what conservation laws are violated.

(a) $\mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \gamma$ (b) $n \rightarrow p + e^- + \nu_e$

(c) $\Lambda^0 \rightarrow p + \pi^0$ (d) $p \rightarrow e^+ + \pi^0$

(e) $\Xi^0 \rightarrow n + \pi^0$

17. Determine whether or not strangeness is conserved in the following decays and reactions.

(a) $\Lambda^0 \rightarrow p + \pi^-$ (b) $\pi^- + p \rightarrow \Lambda^0 + K^0$

(c) $\bar{p} + p \rightarrow \bar{\Lambda}^0 + \Lambda^0$ (d) $\pi^- + p \rightarrow \pi^- + \Sigma^+$

(e) $\Xi^- \rightarrow \Lambda^0 + \pi^-$ (f) $\Xi^0 \rightarrow p + \pi^-$

18. Identify the conserved quantities in the following processes.

(a) $\Xi^- \rightarrow \Lambda^0 + \mu^- + \nu_\mu$ (b) $K_S^0 \rightarrow 2\pi^0$

(c) $K^- + p \rightarrow \Sigma^0 + n$ (d) $\Sigma^0 \rightarrow \Lambda^0 + \gamma$

(e) $e^+ + e^- \rightarrow \mu^+ + \mu^-$ (f) $\bar{p} + n \rightarrow \bar{\Lambda}^0 + \Sigma^-$

(g) Which reactions cannot occur? Why not?

19. GP The particle decay $\Sigma^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ + n$ is observed in a bubble chamber. Figure P44.19 (page 1256) represents the curved tracks of the particles Σ^+ and π^+ and the invisible track of the neutron in the presence of a uniform magnetic field of 1.15 T directed out of the page. The measured radii of curvature are 1.99 m for the Σ^+ particle and 0.580 m for the π^+ particle. From this information, we wish to determine the mass