

# Quarks, QCD, and the Rise of the Standard Model

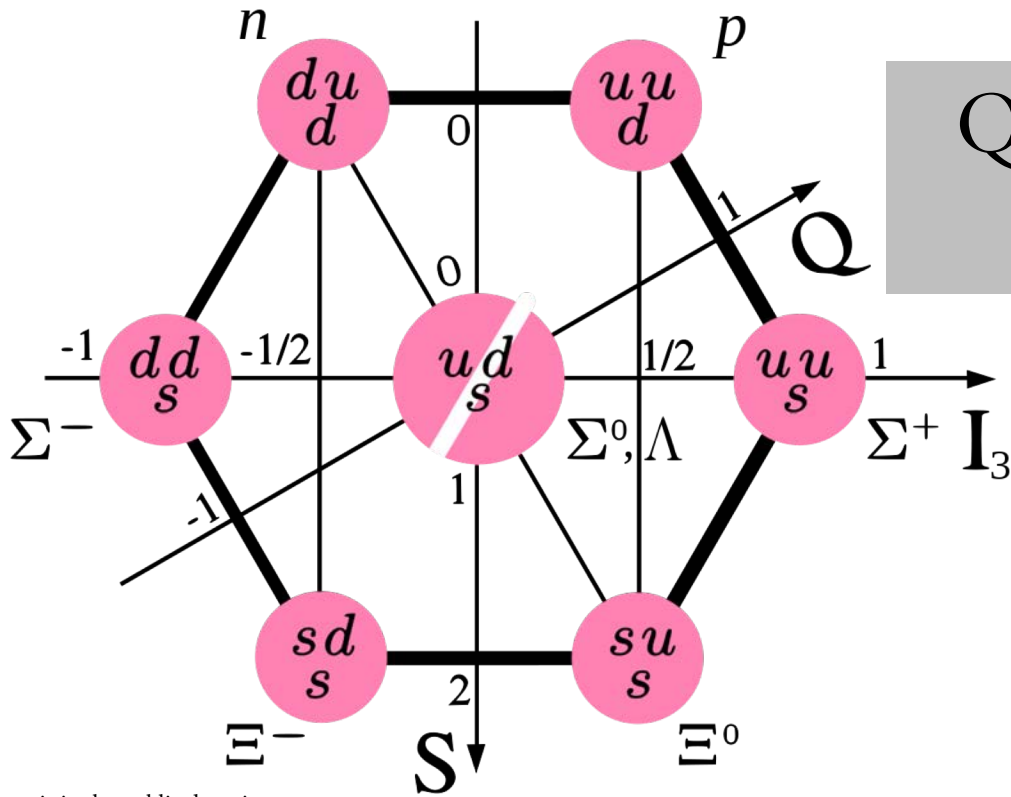


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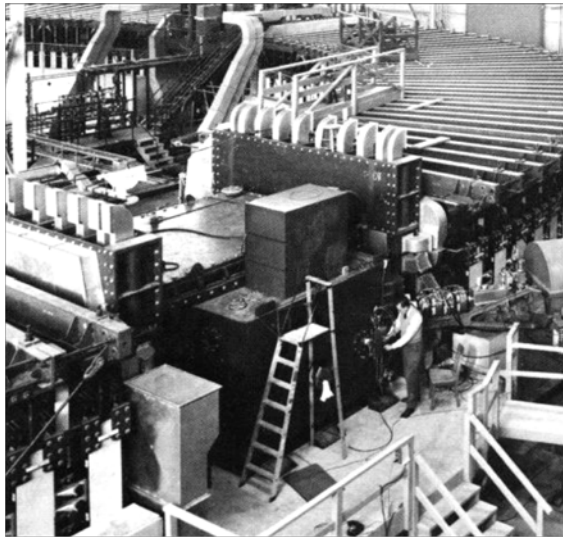
8.225 / STS.042, Physics in the 20th Century  
 Professor David Kaiser, 30 November 2020

1. Particle Zoo: Classification

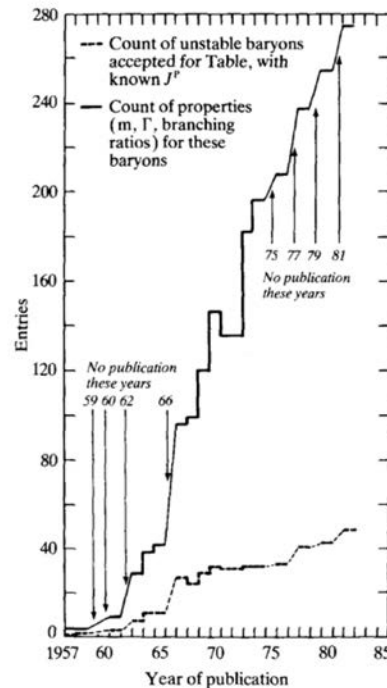
2. Quarks: Fact or Fiction?

3. QCD: Field Theory  
Returns

# The Particle Zoo



Berkeley Bevatron, 1955



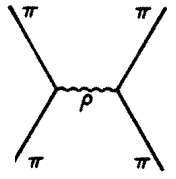
Beginning soon after the Second World War, enormous particle accelerators yielded evidence of *huge numbers* of nuclear particles.

First challenge: most of the particles interacted *strongly* with each other ( $g^2 \sim 15$  rather than  $e^2 \sim 1/137$ ), so perturbative methods broke down.

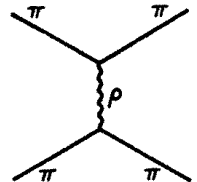
Second challenge: could all 100+ particles really be equally “elementary” or fundamental?

*Geoffrey Chen's* program of “nuclear democracy” and the “bootstrap”: maybe all of these particles were *bound states of each other*. Aim to *replace* QFT while focusing on *dynamics*: the self-consistent forces among all the nuclear particles.

**Step 1:** A  $\rho$  produces an *attractive force* between two pions, causing them to approach each other:  $F_{\text{force}}(m_\rho, g)$ .



**Step 2:** Upon colliding, the two pions produce a new *composite* particle, the  $\rho$ :  $F_{\text{res}}(m_\rho, g)$ .



# The Particle Zoo: Classification

## Über den Bau der Atomkerne. I.

Von **W. Heisenberg** in Leipzig.

Mit 1 Abbildung. (Eingegangen am 7. Juni 1932.)

Es werden die Konsequenzen der Annahme diskutiert, daß die Atomkerne aus Protonen und Neutronen ohne Mitwirkung von Elektronen aufgebaut seien. § 1. Die Hamiltonfunktion des Kerns. § 2. Das Verhältnis von Ladung und Masse und die besondere Stabilität des He-Kerns. § 3 bis 5: Stabilität der Kerne und radioaktive Zerfallsreihen. § 6. Diskussion der physikalischen Grundannahmen.

Durch die Versuche von Curie und Joliot<sup>1)</sup> und deren Interpretation durch Chadwick<sup>2)</sup> hat es sich herausgestellt, daß im Aufbau der Kerne ein neuer fundamentaler Baustein, das Neutron, eine wichtige Rolle spielt. Dieses Ergebnis legt die Annahme nahe, die Atomkerne seien aus Protonen und Neutronen ohne Mitwirkung von Elektronen aufgebaut<sup>3)</sup>. Ist diese Annahme richtig, so bedeutet sie eine außerordentliche Vereinfachung für die Theorie der Atomkerne. Die fundamentalen Schwierigkeiten, denen man in der Theorie des  $\beta$ -Zerfalls und der Stickstoffkernstatistik begegnet, lassen sich nämlich dann reduzieren auf die Frage, in welcher Weise ein Neutron in Proton und Elektron zerfallen kann und welcher Statistik es genügt, während der eigentliche Aufbau der Kerne nach den Gesetzen der Quantenmechanik aus den Kraftwirkungen zwischen Protonen und Neutronen beschrieben werden kann.

Werner Heisenberg, "On the structure of atomic nuclei," 1932

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During the 1950s and 1960s, some particle theorists pursued a *distinct approach* to the challenge of the particle zoo: *classification*. They set aside the question of dynamics to focus on ways to *group* various particles into "families," focusing on "internal symmetries."

This approach hearkened back to the idea of *isospin*, first introduced by *Werner Heisenberg* in 1932, just a few months after *James Chadwick* presented evidence of the *neutron*.

Early experiments had suggested that in nuclear interactions, neutrons and protons had the *same interaction strength*, whether one considered *p-p*, *p-n*, or *n-n* scattering. *Heisenberg*: maybe they're the *same particle* in one of two *internal states*. The symmetry was broken due to electromagnetic effects—just as the electron state "spin up" is only distinguished from "spin down" in an external magnetic field.

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“**nucleon**”: one type of particle that could occur in one of two *internal states* of “isospin”

$$p^+ : I = +\frac{1}{2}$$

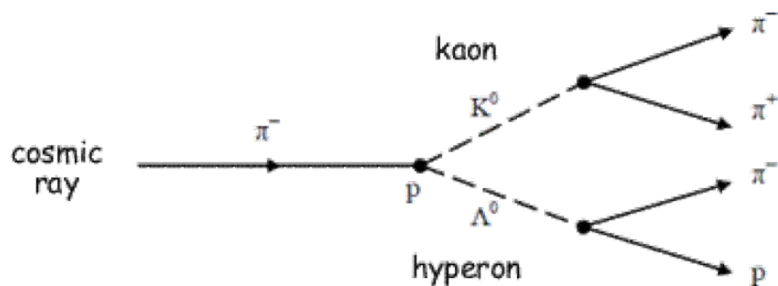
$$n^0 : I = -\frac{1}{2}$$

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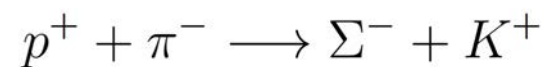
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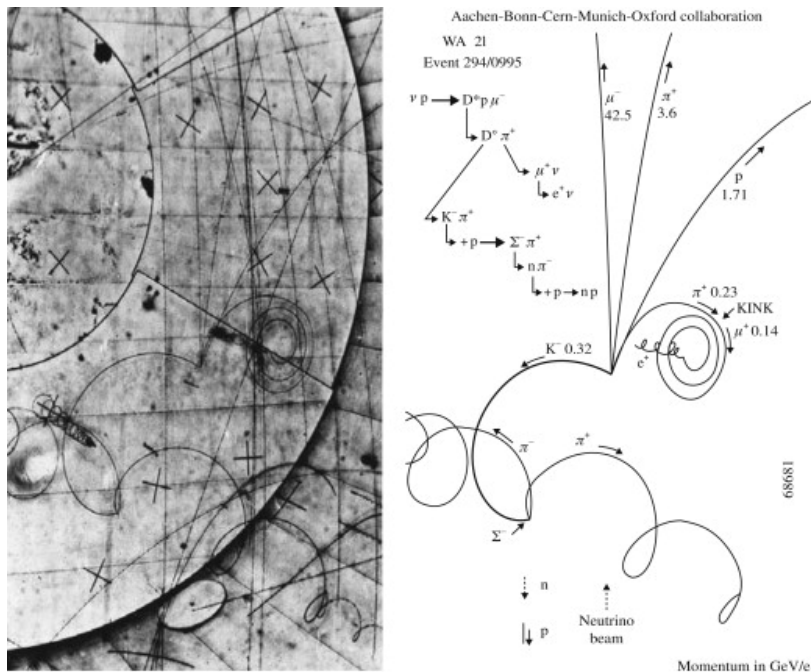
# “Associated Production”



After the war, physicists noticed that some of the new particles—dubbed “strange,” because they were unexpected and unfamiliar—always seemed to be produced *together* during particle collisions, such as the  $K$  and  $\Lambda$  particles or  $K$  and  $\Sigma$  particles:



*Murray Gell-Mann* and *Abraham Pais* suggested that a new quantum number, “strangeness” charge, existed and must be conserved:  $S(p, n, \pi) = 0$ ,  $S(K, \Lambda, \Sigma) = \pm 1$ .



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# Hypercharge

In 1960, *Gell-Mann* and (separately) *Yuval Ne'eman* found that a certain combination of these new “charges” could account for even larger patterns.

“*Hypercharge*”:  $Y = B + S$

↑ ↑  
 baryon    strangeness

*Electric charge*:  $Q = I + Y/2$

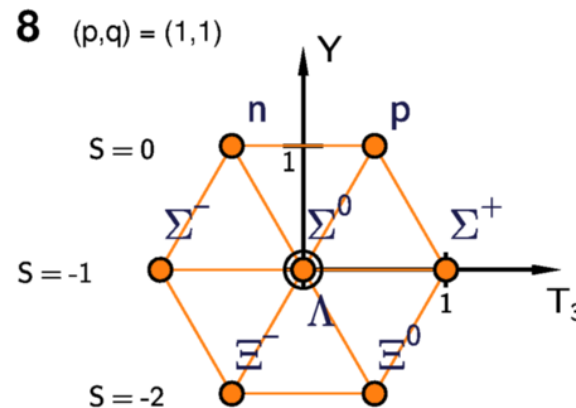
↑ ↑  
 isospin    hypercharge

*proton*:  $I = +1/2$ ,  $Y = (1 + 0)$ , so  $Q = (1/2 + 1/2) = +1$

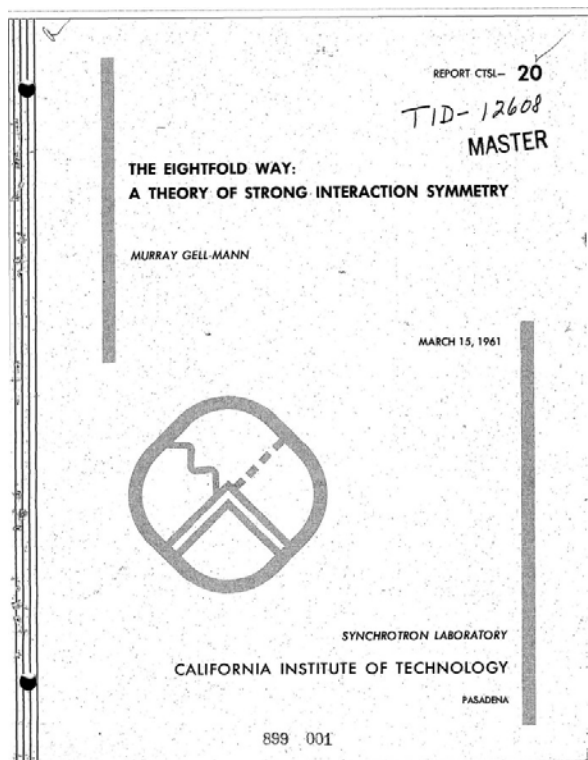
*neutron*:  $I = -1/2$ ,  $Y = (1 + 0)$ , so  $Q = (-1/2 + 1/2) = 0$

“*Eightfold Way*”\*: Gell-Mann found that he could arrange *groups* of particles by *hypercharge* and *isospin*

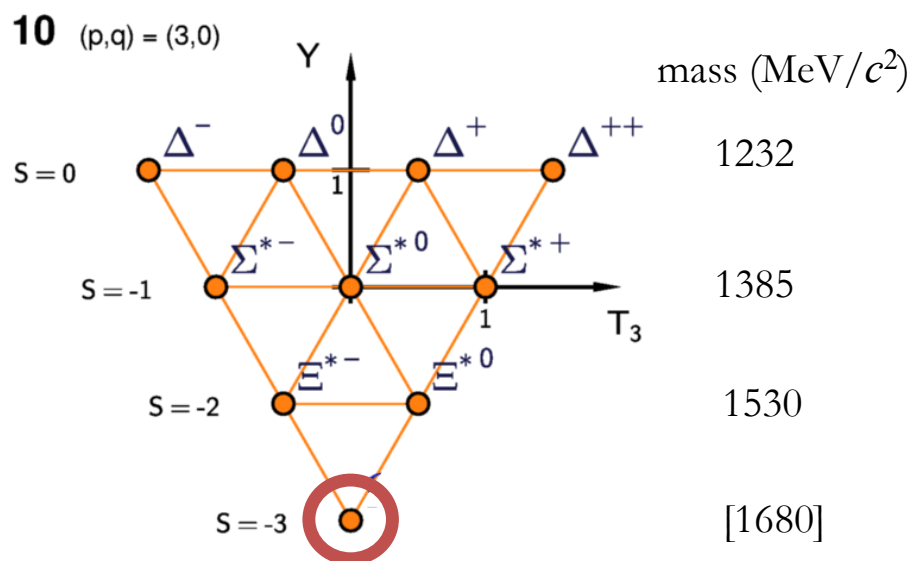
\* Gell-Mann borrowed the term for the Buddhist’s 8-step path to achieving nirvana.



# Hypercharge



*Gell-Mann* grouped other particles by hypercharge and isospin, and found a 10-particle pattern *with a gap*. Not only did it seem likely that a single particle with  $Y = -2, I = 0$  should exist, he also noted a pattern among the particles' *masses*.

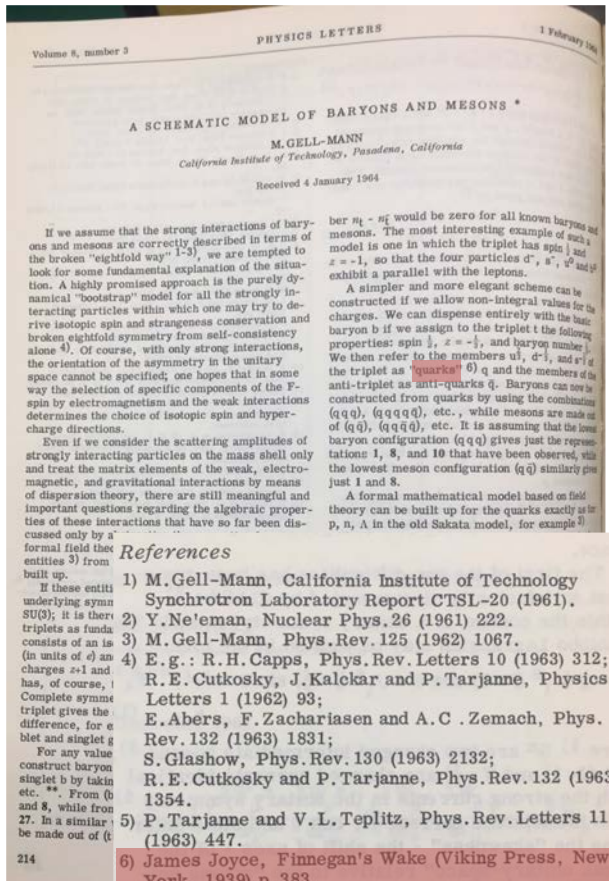


At a conference in 1962, *Gell-Mann* predicted that such a particle would be found with these specific properties. In 1964, experimentalists announced its discovery: the  $\Omega^-$  particle, with mass  $1672 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ .

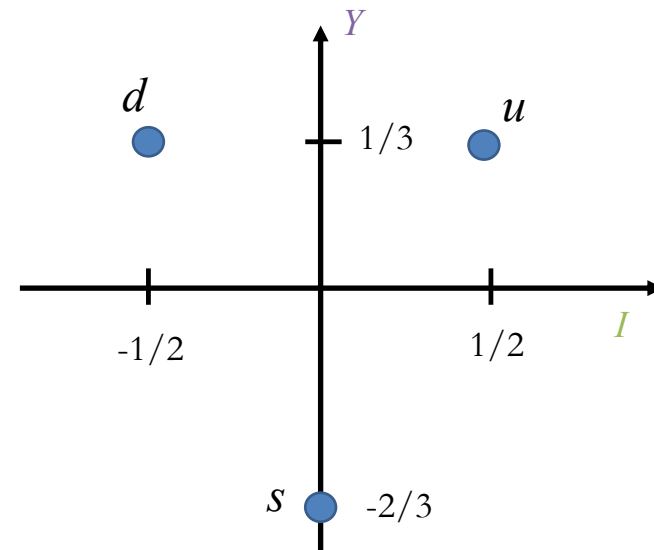
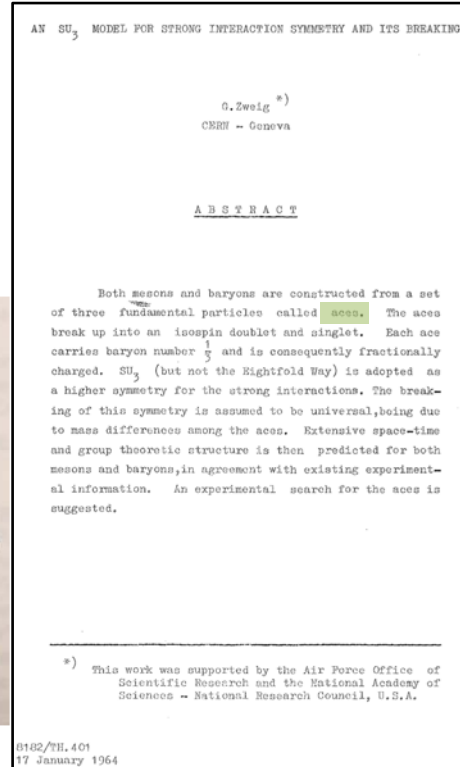


*Questions?*

# Quarks: Fact or Fiction?

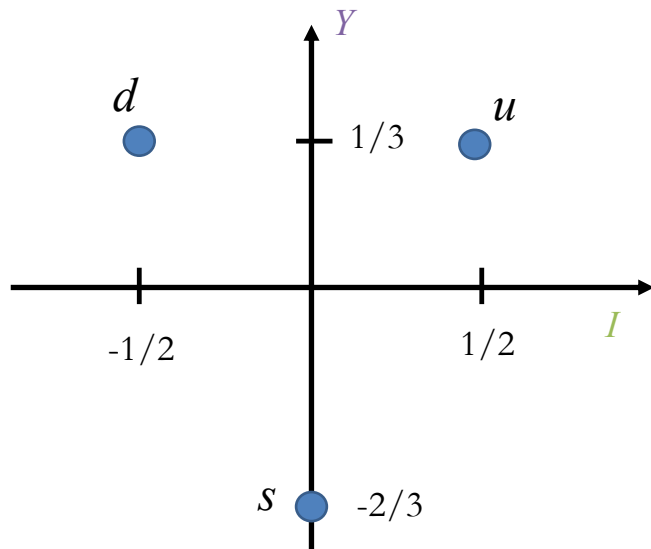


Within 13 days of each other in January 1964, *Gell-Mann* and (separately) *George Zweig* proposed that the symmetries among nuclear particles could be associated with *three constituent particles* (“quarks” or “aces”).



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# Quarks: Fact or Fiction?



	$B$	$S$	$Y$	$I$	$Q$
$u$	1/3	0	1/3	1/2	+2/3
$d$	1/3	0	1/3	-1/2	-1/3
$s$	1/3	-1	-2/3	0	-1/3

“Hypercharge”:  $Y = B + S$

Electric charge:  $Q = I + Y/2$

With these assignments, *Gell-Mann* and *Zweig* could account for *all* the octet and decuplet patterns among nuclear particles: each baryon could be accounted for as a set of 3 constituent quarks, while mesons were quark-antiquark pairs.

$$p^+ = u u d$$

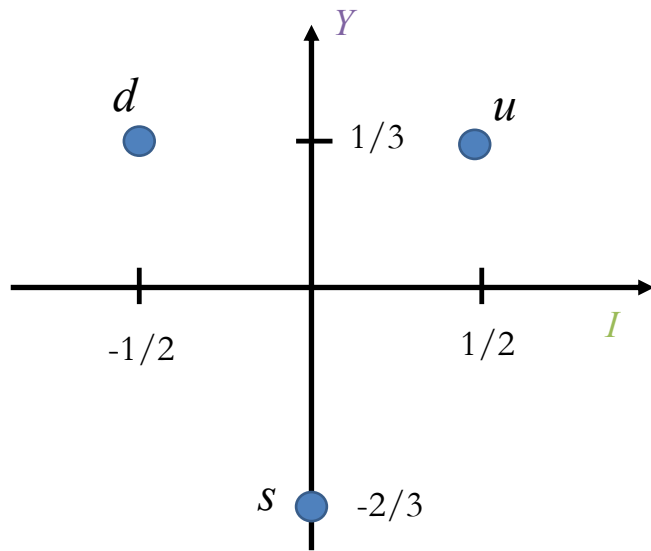
$$n^0 = u d d$$

$$\Omega^- = s s s$$

$$\pi^+ = u \bar{d}$$

$$\pi^- = \bar{u} d$$

# Quarks: Fact or Fiction?



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**But** these assignments raised new questions:

1. *fractional* electric charges?
2. Pauli exclusion principle forbids bound states of 3 identical spin-1/2 particles ( $\Omega^- = sss$ ?)
3. *dynamics*: how do these objects interact with each other?

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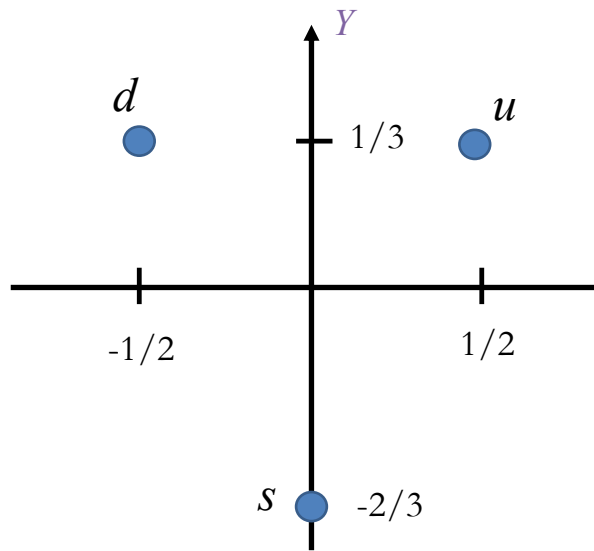
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# Quarks: Fact or Fiction?



	<i>B</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>Y</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>Q</i>
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<i>d</i>	1/3	0	1/3	-1/2	-1/3
<i>s</i>	1/3	-1	2/3	0	-1/3

*Gell-Mann hedged: "A schematic model of baryons and mesons": "It is fun to speculate about the way quarks would behave if they were physical particles of finite mass (instead of purely mathematical entities). ... A search for stable quarks at the highest energy accelerators would help to reassure us of the non-existence of real quarks."*

**But** these assignments raised new questions:

*George Zweig's preprints were never accepted for publication!*

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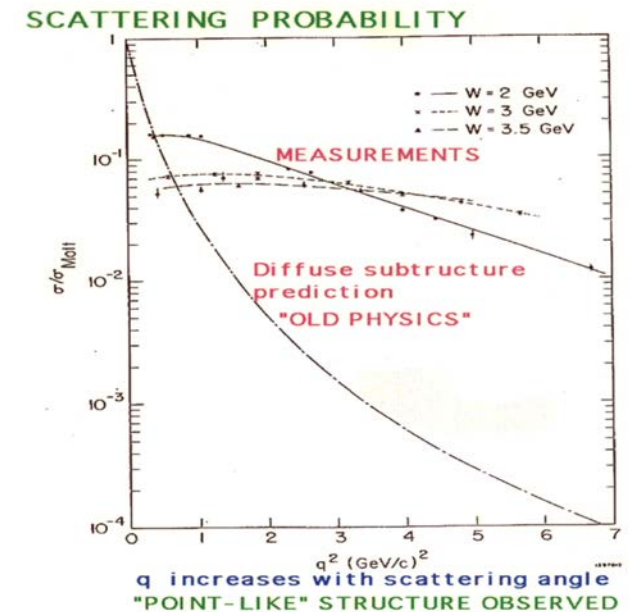
# SLAC-MIT Experiments



SLAC Magnetic Spectrometers

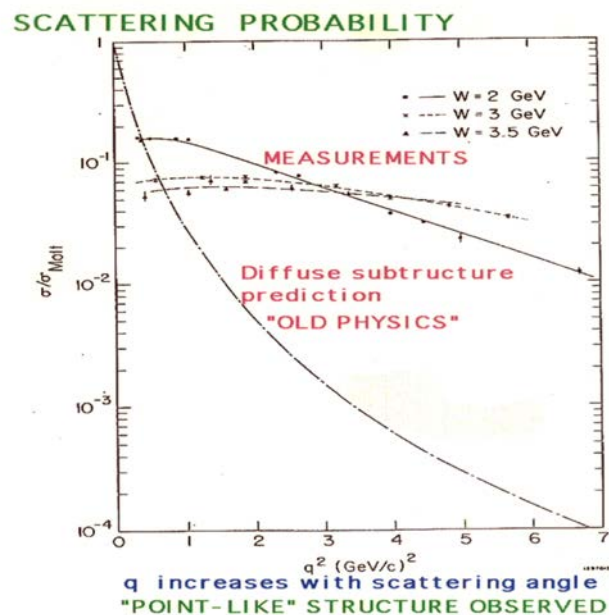
The *Stanford Linear Accelerator Laboratory* (SLAC) began operation in 1966. One of the first sets of experiments was directed by MIT's *Jerry Friedman* and *Henry Kendall*: scatter high-energy electrons off of protons.

This was essentially a re-play of *Rutherford scattering*. The results for scattering rates versus angle were consistent with *internal structure* within each proton: tiny scattering sites.



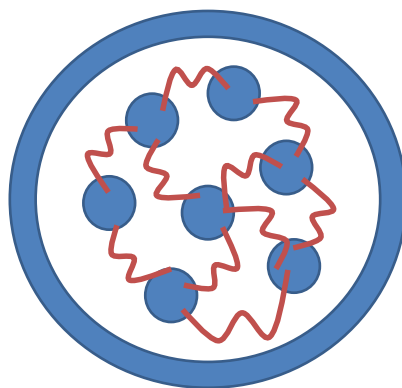
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# “Partons”



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Richard Feynman and James Bjorken interpreted the SLAC-MIT scattering data in terms of “partons” (*not necessarily quarks*).



A proton at low energy would be a *big mess*: strong internal forces, a jumble of moving parts.



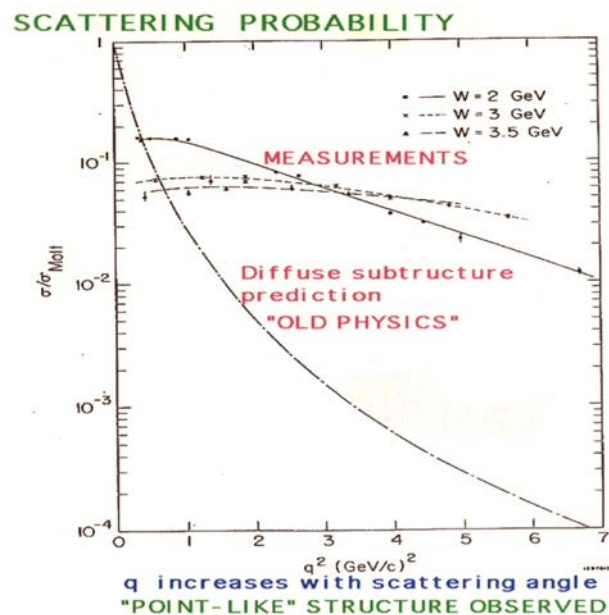
As seen by the speeding electron, the proton would undergo *length contraction* and its internal dynamics would be slowed by *time dilation*. Partons would effectively behave like *free* (non-interacting) stationary targets.

A victory for quarks? Not right away

Gell-Mann’s quarks:  
Low-energy *constituents*, strongly interacting (bound)

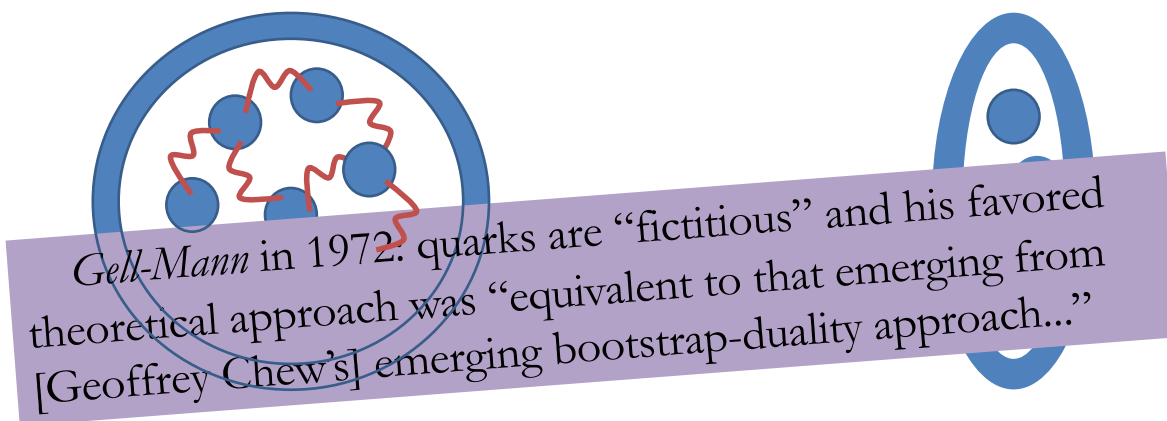
Feynman’s partons:  
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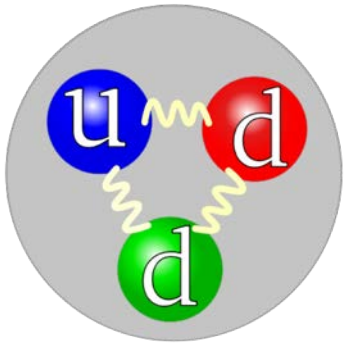
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*Questions?*

# QCD: Field Theory Returns



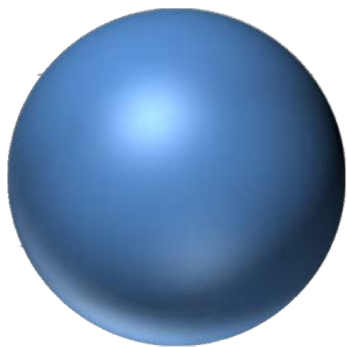
Between 1972-74, *Murray Gell-Mann*, *Harald Fritzsch*, and colleagues developed a new *dynamical* theory of the strong nuclear force. Cast in analogy to quantum electrodynamics (QED), the new model focused on *quarks* (analogous to electrons) interacting by exchanging force-carrying *gluons* (analogous to photons).

New idea: “color” charge. Each quark carries (yet another) internal quantum number (**red**, **green**, or **blue**), so they called their new model “**quantum chromodynamics**” (QCD). A few assumptions: color charge is *conserved*; free particles must have an exact *balance* among the color charges; and the interactions among quarks are *symmetric* with respect to permutations of the color charge.

This helped resolve puzzles like the  $\Omega^-$ . Such a particle *could* be a bound state of 3 *s* quarks without violating the Pauli exclusion principle:  $\Omega^- = \mathbf{s s s}$ .

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# Gauge Symmetries



Central to QCD is the idea of *symmetry*: some property of the system remains *unchanged* (or “invariant”) even following *transformations*.

As an analogy, consider a *sphere*: its appearance remains invariant even if it is *rotated* by an arbitrary angle along any axis. Other objects obey *discrete* symmetries, e.g. rotating a *square* by  $\theta = n\pi/2$ .

Likewise, if we represent a quark by a quantum field  $\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ , we may perform *rotations* in (abstract) “color-space”:  $\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) \rightarrow \psi'(\mathbf{x}, t) = \psi(\mathbf{x}, t)e^{i\theta(\mathbf{x}, t)}$ . (These are “local” transformations: the rotation angle itself can depend on  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $t$ .) But any *observable* features of the system can only depend on  $|\psi|^2 = |\psi'|^2$ .

What about *dynamics*? The kinetic energy of such a field depends on  $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)\right) \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\psi^*(\mathbf{x}, t)\right)$ .

Under a local transformation, the kinetic energy does *not* remain invariant:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) &\rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial t}\psi'(\mathbf{x}, t) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} [\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)e^{i\theta(\mathbf{x}, t)}] \neq e^{i\theta(\mathbf{x}, t)} \frac{\partial}{\partial t}\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)\end{aligned}$$

# Gauge Fields

To maintain symmetry under local transformations, *Gell-Mann* and *Fritzsch* added in *gluons*: “**gauge fields**”  $A_\mu$  whose sole purpose is to enforce the relevant symmetry.

One may then construct a “**covariant derivative**,”  $\mathcal{D}_\mu \equiv \partial_\mu + igA_\mu$ . Under local transformations, require

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) \rightarrow \psi'(\mathbf{x}, t) = \psi(\mathbf{x}, t)e^{i\theta(\mathbf{x}, t)} \quad \text{and} \quad A_\mu(\mathbf{x}, t) \rightarrow A'_\mu(\mathbf{x}, t) = A_\mu(\mathbf{x}, t) + \frac{1}{g}\partial_\mu\theta(\mathbf{x}, t).$$

Then  $\mathcal{D}_\mu\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) \rightarrow e^{i\theta(\mathbf{x}, t)}\mathcal{D}_\mu\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ , and the kinetic energy respects the appropriate symmetry:

$$(\mathcal{D}_\mu\psi)(\mathcal{D}_\mu\psi)^* = (\mathcal{D}_\mu\psi')(\mathcal{D}_\mu\psi')^*$$

Note the steps involved: **hypothesize** a new symmetry of nature (quarks’ *color charge* can be *permuted* while leaving total color charge *neutral*); then **invent** a whole new type of particle (the **gluon**) whose properties are fixed by the specific symmetry they are imagined to protect.

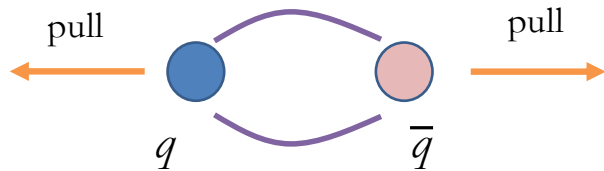
$$\partial_\mu F(\mathbf{x}, t) \equiv \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} F(\mathbf{x}, t), \vec{\nabla} F(\mathbf{x}, t) \right)$$

# Free Quarks?

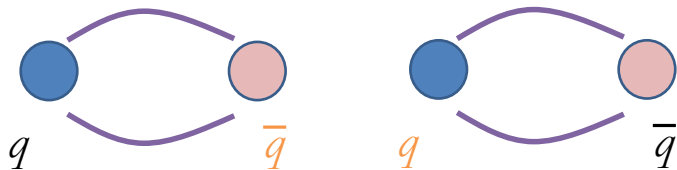
The symmetry of QCD is more complicated than that of QED, and therefore the properties of the *gluons* are more complicated than those of the *photon*. In particular, unlike photons, *gluons can interact with other gluons*.

The fact that gluons can attract other gluons as well as quarks means that the force between quarks *grows* with distance, rather than getting weaker across longer distances.

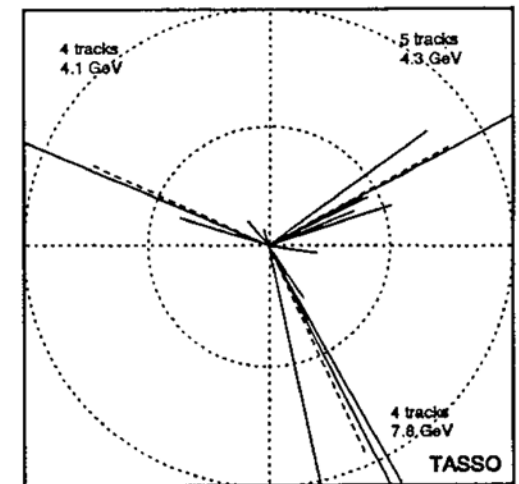
The QCD force between two quarks behaves (sort of) like a *rubber band*: one needs to expend *more* energy the further one wants to stretch two quarks apart.



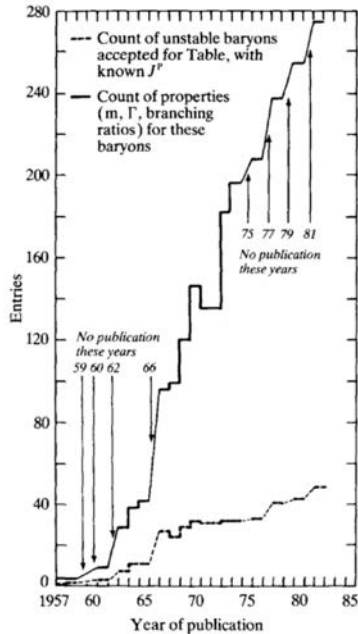
The external energy will *create* a quark-antiquark pair once  $\Delta E = 2mc^2$ , preserving the QCD color symmetry:



“jets” first detected  
in 1982.



# Quarks and QCD: Summary



Whereas some particle physicists (such as *Geoffrey Chew*) responded to the postwar “particle zoo” by focusing on *self-consistent dynamics*, others (including *Murray Gell-Mann*) returned to a prewar emphasis upon *internal symmetries* and *classification*.

Gell-Mann first began grouping particles into “families” in terms of *hypercharge* and *isospin*. These patterns suggested “missing” particles, such as the  $\Omega^-$ . In 1964, Gell-Mann and Zweig then *tentatively* suggested that the patterns were consistent with groupings of a small set of fundamental particles (“*quarks*” or “*aces*”)—though these hypothetical particles would have *fractional charge* and seemed to *violate* the Pauli exclusion principle.

The SLAC-MIT experiments of 1967-69 suggested evidence of *internal structure* within protons, though even Gell-Mann remained ambivalent about whether “partons” were actually physical “quarks.”

Only with the advent of *quantum chromodynamics* (1972-74), and evidence of new phenomena such as “*jets*” (1982) did the case for quarks seem compelling for most of the community.

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