

Syracuse Summer Institute Weak Decays

Weak Interactions and Decays

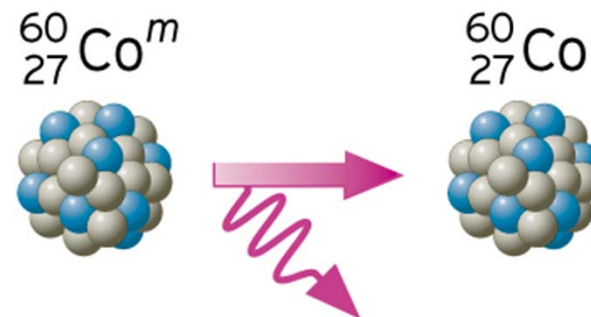
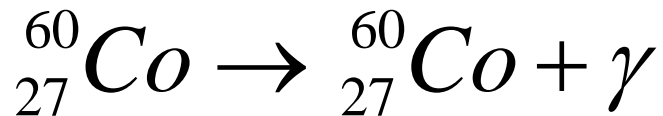
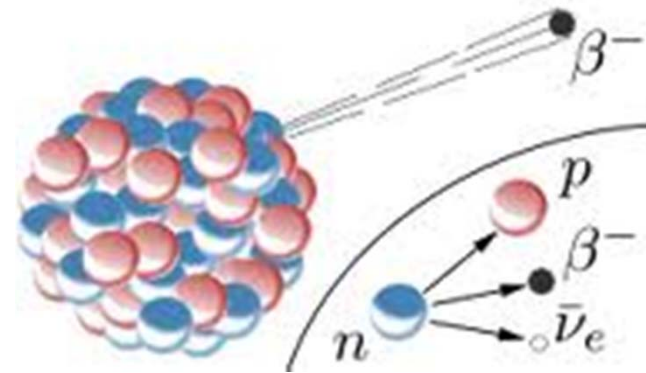
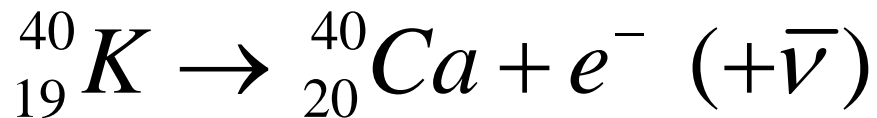
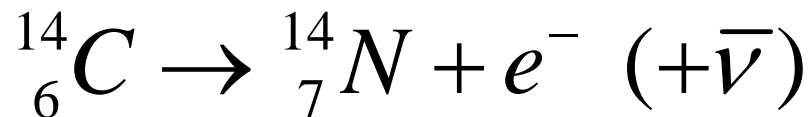
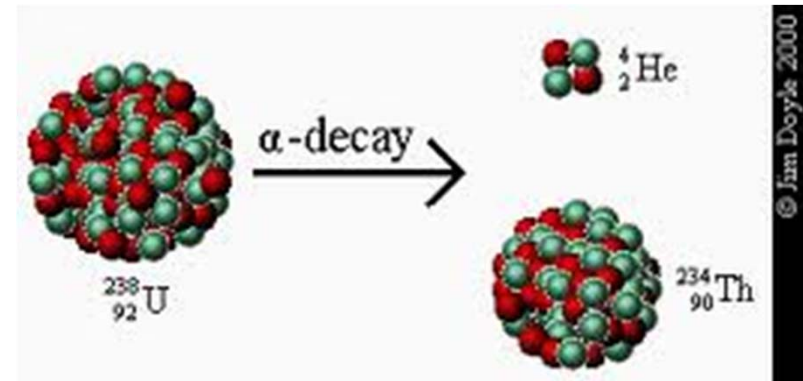
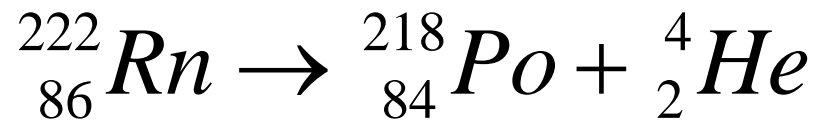
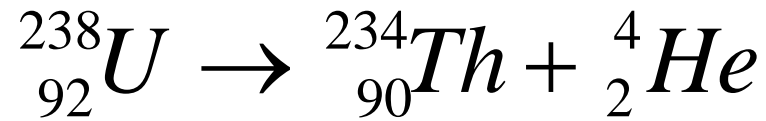
- It's an experimental fact that particles decay.
- The first place one usually encounters this is in the context of radioactive nuclei.
- **Why do some particles decay?**



... because they can?

- Remember, in QM, unless something is strictly forbidden from happening, **it will occur with some probability!**

Examples of radioactive decay

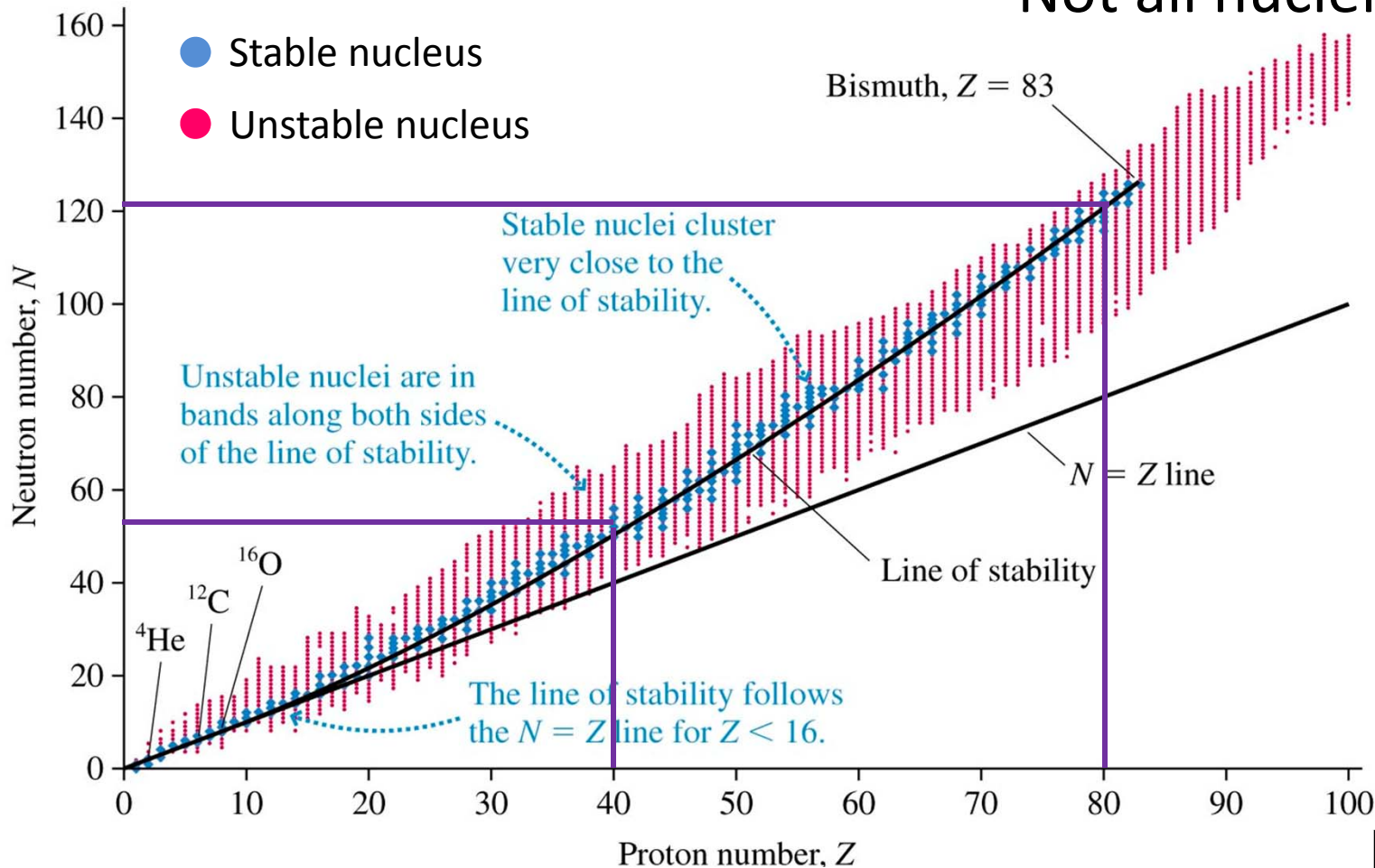


Radioactivity

- Some nuclei **spontaneously disintegrate**.
 - Heavy nuclei decay down to lighter ones
 - Other way violates energy conservation!
- Three main forms of radiation from nuclei:
 - **Alpha (α)**: $2p+2n = \text{He nucleus}$ (very stable structure)
 - Change of element
 - **Beta (β)**: electrons, $n \rightarrow p + e^- + \nu$
 - Change of element
 - **Gamma (γ)**: a high energy photon, ~ 10 's of MeV
 - Often referred to as “gamma rays”
 - Same element
 - **Beta+ (β^+)**: $p \rightarrow n + e^+ + \nu$ (Can only happen in a nucleus)
- Why?
 - By doing so, the system goes to a lower energy state. This is what nature likes to do...

Nuclear Stability

Not all nuclei are stable



At $Z=40$,
 $N/Z \sim 1.2$

At $Z=80$
 $N/Z \sim 1.5$

- ☐ As Z increases, more neutrons are needed per proton to obtain a stable nucleus? Why's that?
- ☐ Once $Z > 83$, no longer have ANY stable nuclei?



Time constant or lifetime

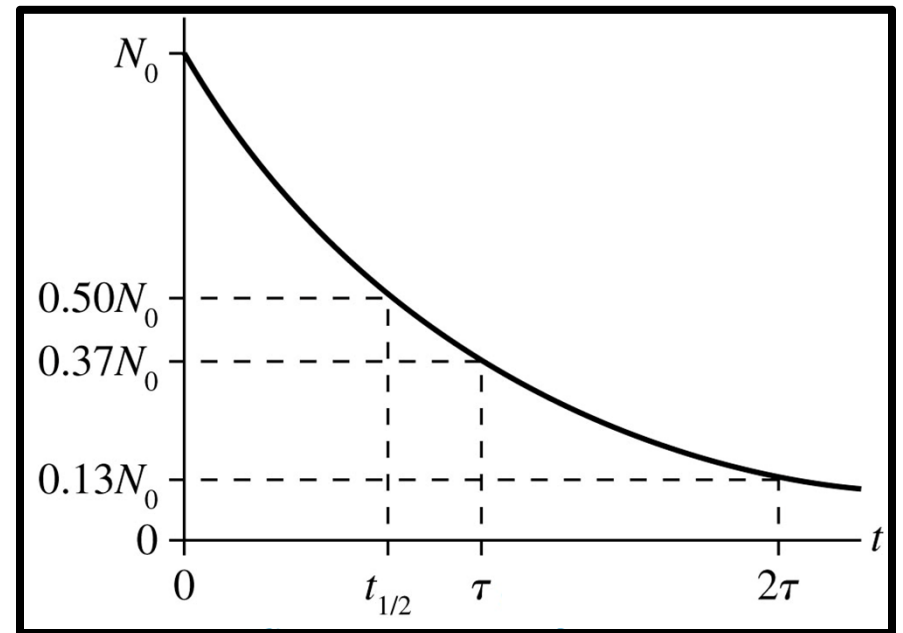
- ✚ For radioactive particles, it is found that the number that decay is proportional to the number you have:

$$dN = -kN$$

then, with a lil' ole calculus:

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

(here $k = 1/\tau$)

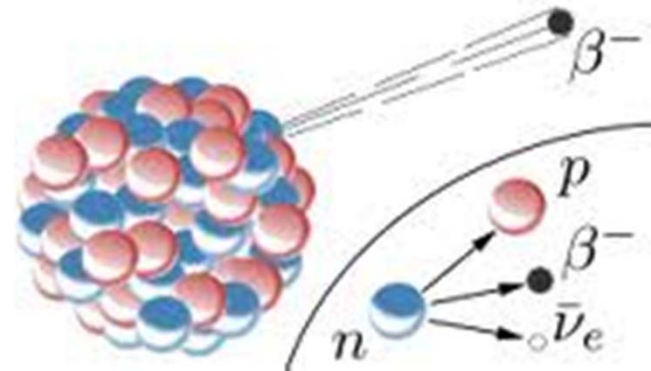
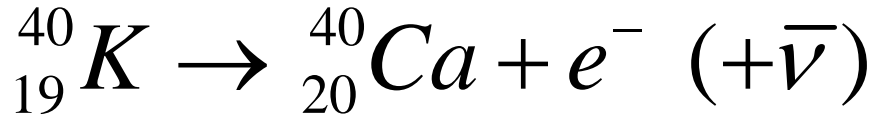
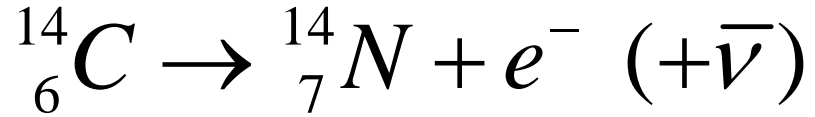


- ✚ **τ is called the lifetime or decay constant.**

It can be viewed as either:

- time for N to decrease to $(1/e) \times N = 0.37N$ (time constant)
- Average decay time $\langle t \rangle$ from a collection of radioactive decays (lifetime)

Let's focus on "beta" decay



- The underlying process is: $n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$
- Since $M(n) = 939.56 \text{ MeV}$ $M(p) = 938.27 \text{ MeV}/c^2$,
 $M(e) = 0.51 \text{ MeV}/c^2$
- $M(n) > M(p) + M(e)$, not forbidden by energy conservation, but very close!
- Free neutron lifetime $\sim 882 \text{ sec}$ ($\sim 15 \text{ min}$) **VERY, VERY LONG !**
- HW: Why don't neutrons decay when harbored in stable nuclei?
Why don't protons decay?

The Weak Force

- So far, we've encountered:
 - **EM force:** Responsible for all of chemistry, atomic binding, etc
 - **Strong force:** responsible for nuclear binding, quark-quark interactions, etc.
- We now encounter the **Weak Force**
 - Can lead to a **change in quark type and charge** (W^\pm).
 - There are also weak interactions that don't change quark type or charge (Z^0)
 - Neutrinos only “feel” the weak force.
 - The force carriers of the weak force have **LARGE mass**
 - W^\pm -boson: $80,000 \text{ MeV}/c^2$
 - Z^0 boson: $\sim 91,000 \text{ MeV}/c^2$.
 - “Boson” refers to particles that have integral spin (here, Spin = 1).
 - The “charge” of the weak force is called “weak charge”
 - **Both quarks & leptons carry weak charge!**

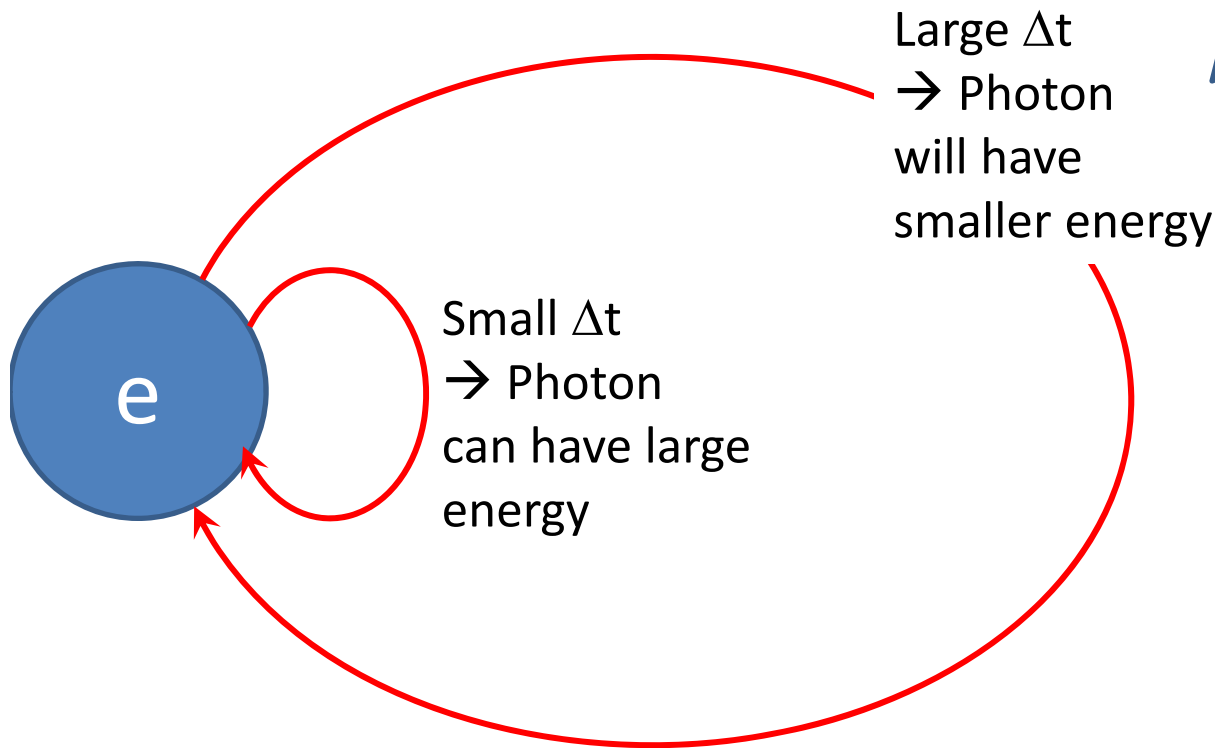
Decays, in general

- In general, unstable particles will decay in any way that they are able to.
- In principle, particles can decay via the weak, EM or strong interaction.
- If all are accessible, the preference is:
 - 1) Strong
 - 2) Electromagnetic
 - 3) Weak
- This is because the strong force has the largest strength (coupling constant).
- Particles generally only decay weakly if they **cannot** decay via the strong or EM interaction.
- In some cases, particles can decay via more than one of the forces. E.g Decay of excited D^0 ($c\bar{u}$) meson
$$D^{*0} \rightarrow D^0 \pi^0 \quad (62\%, \text{ strong})$$
$$D^{*0} \rightarrow D^0 \gamma \quad (38\%, \text{ EM})$$

Digression on range of forces

Virtual photons

- ❑ Quantum physics does not inhibit, say an electron, from emitting and re-absorbing a photon.
 - ❑ This will violate energy conservation ☹
 - ❑ But, as long as the “transit time” and energy of the photon satisfy: $\Delta E \Delta t \geq \hbar$, It's OK!

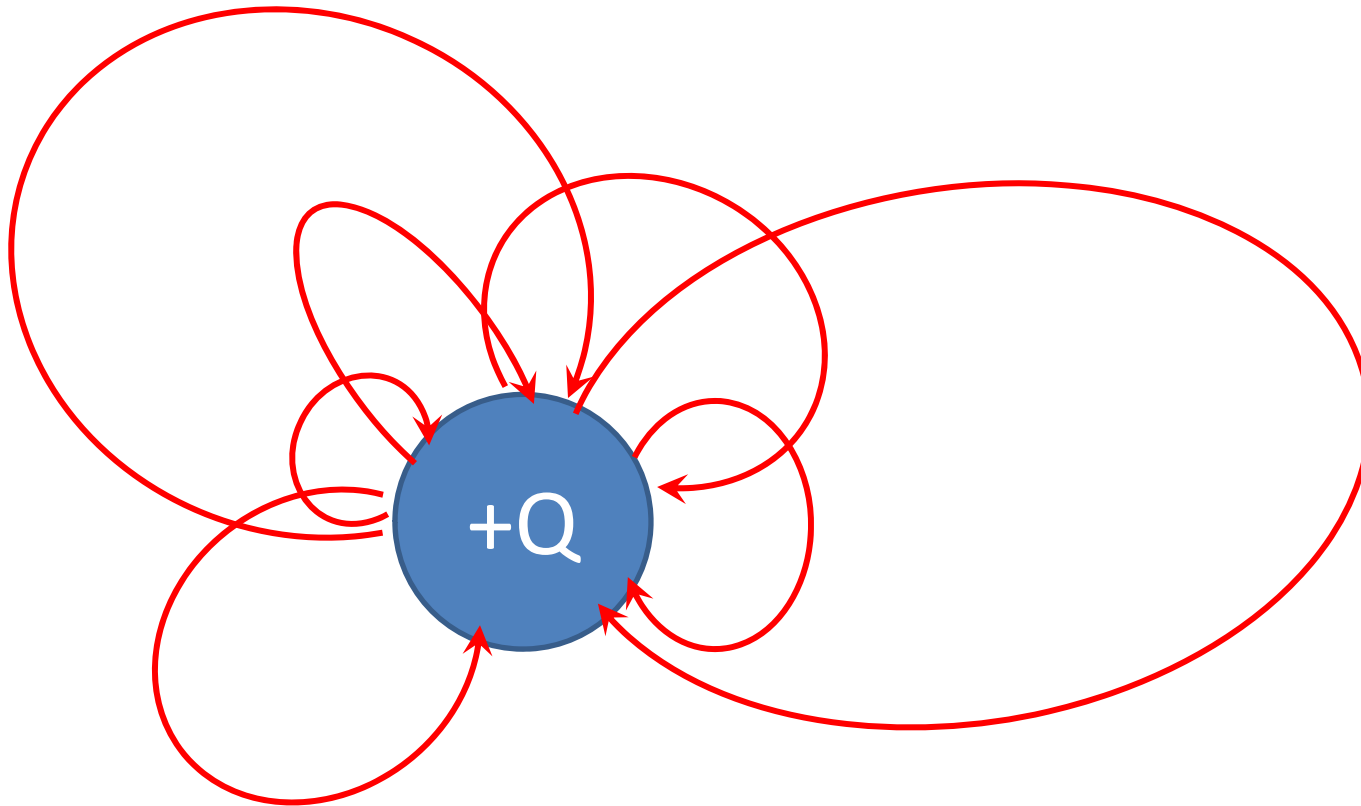


Key
point

Because the photons at large distance carry smaller and smaller energy (& momentum) this accounts for the $1/r^2$ falloff of the EM force!

An even more complicated picture

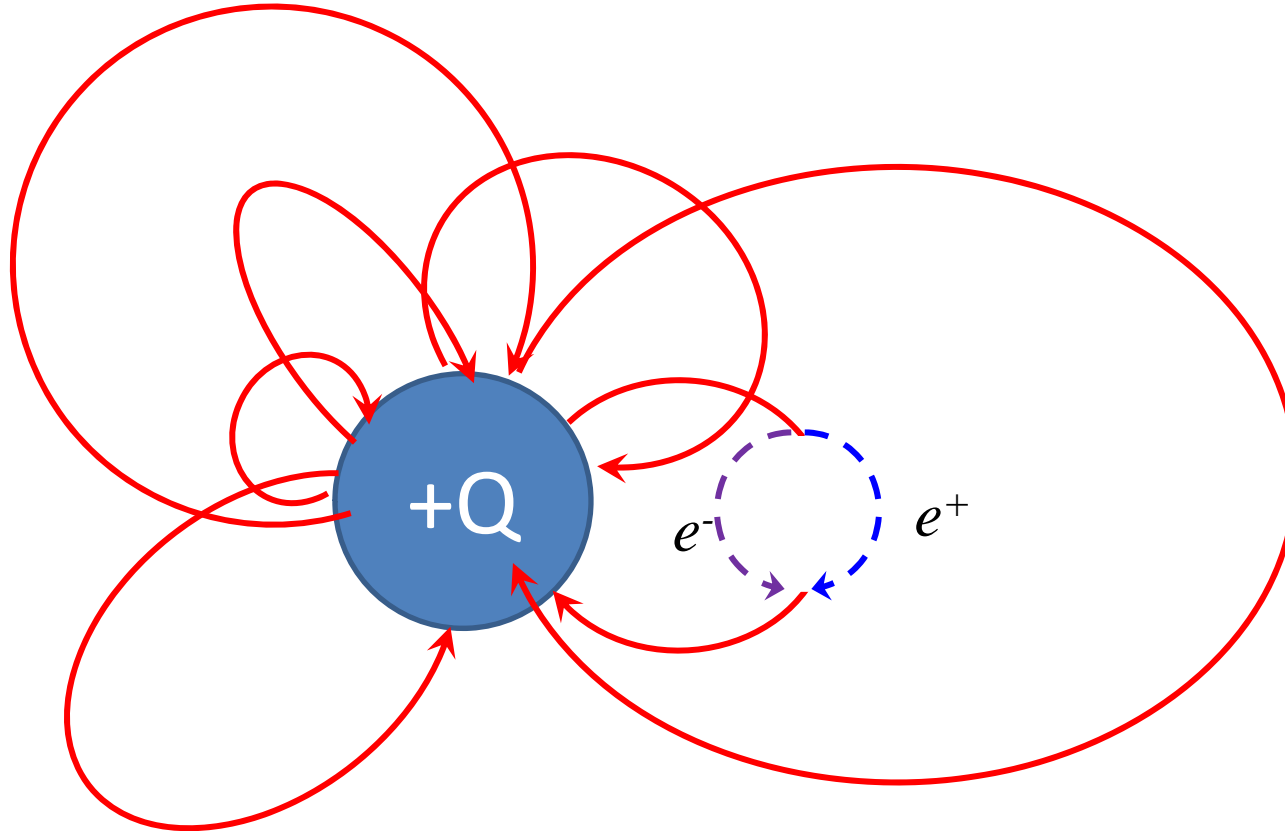
- ❑ A charged particle is continually emitting and re-absorbing photons



- ❑ **Real** photons have zero mass
- ❑ These photons generally won't have mass=0. Called **virtual** photons.
- ❑ The neat thing about **virtual particles** (in general) is that since they are emitted and re-absorbed, its **mass is not limited by energy conservation!!!**

It can get even more complicated

- Nothing prohibits a virtual photon from “transforming” into mass in the form of an e^+e^- pair.



- ✚ The effects of these virtual quantum loops are an integral part of QM.
- ✚ If you don't include them, QED would disagree with experimental data !
- ✚ If you include them, you get the right answer ☺

The W^\pm Boson

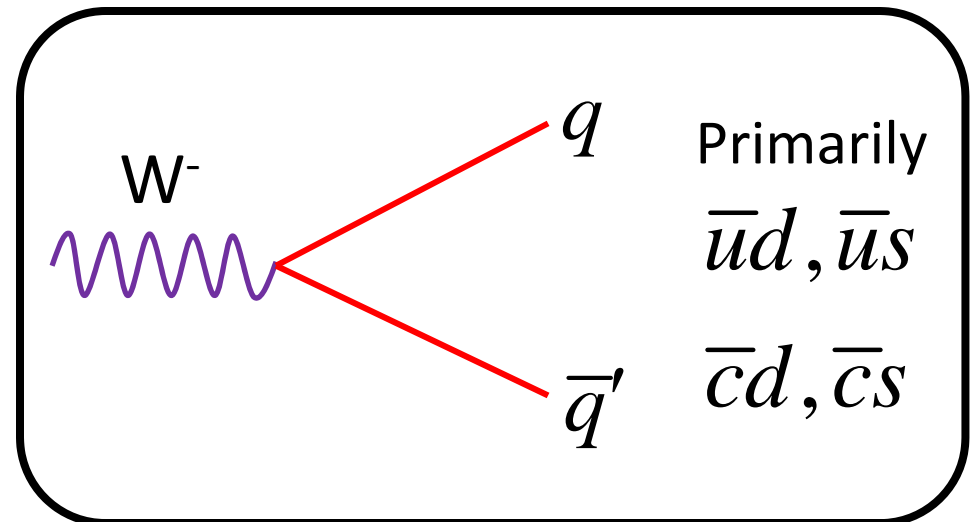
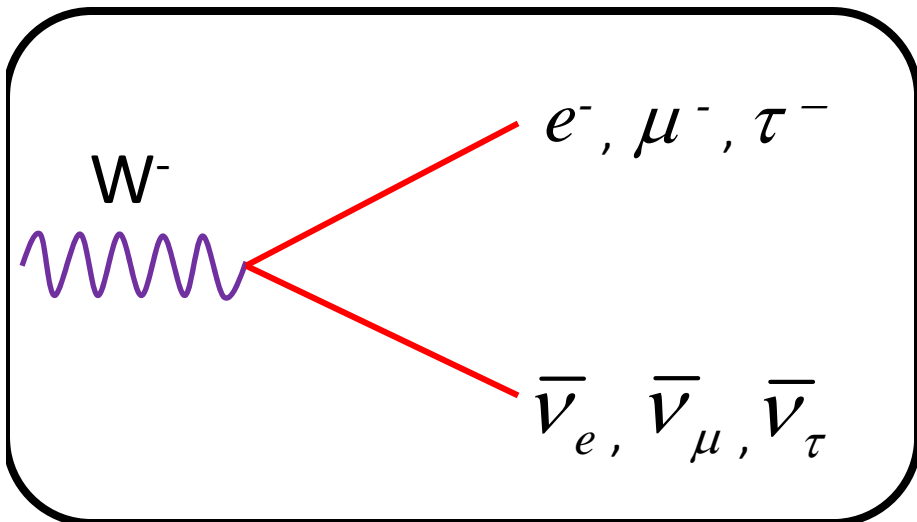
- The W boson has very large mass ($\sim 90m_p$). From the uncertainty principle:

$$\Delta t \approx \hbar / \Delta E = \hbar / m_W c^2$$

$$d \sim c\Delta t = \hbar / m_W c$$

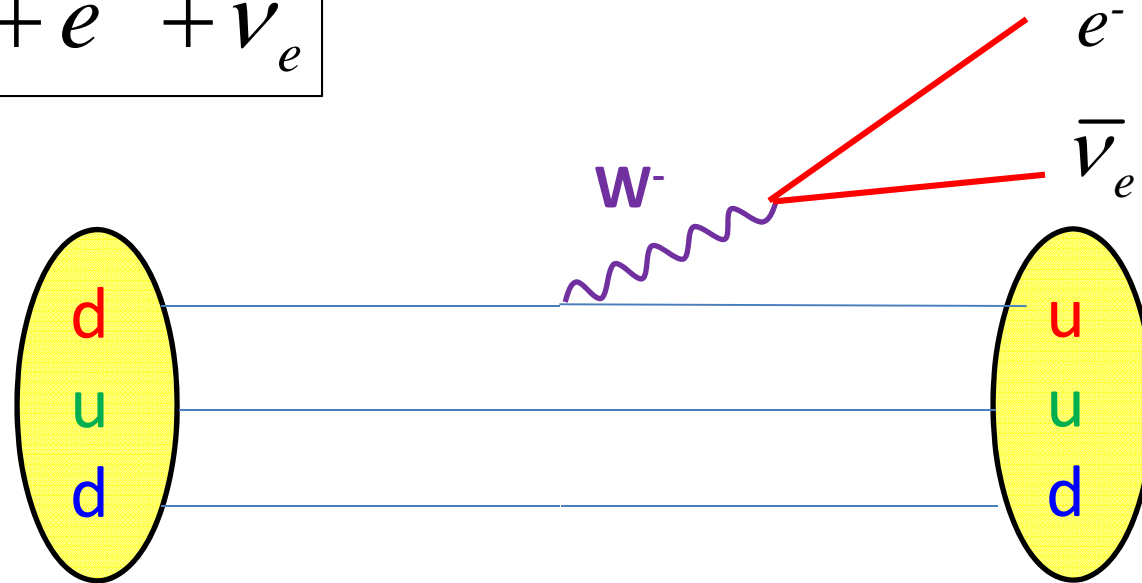
Very short range ...
 ~ 0.001 of the proton radius

- Also, the W boson decays. Because both leptons and quarks have weak charge you can get:



Ok, now on to beta decay

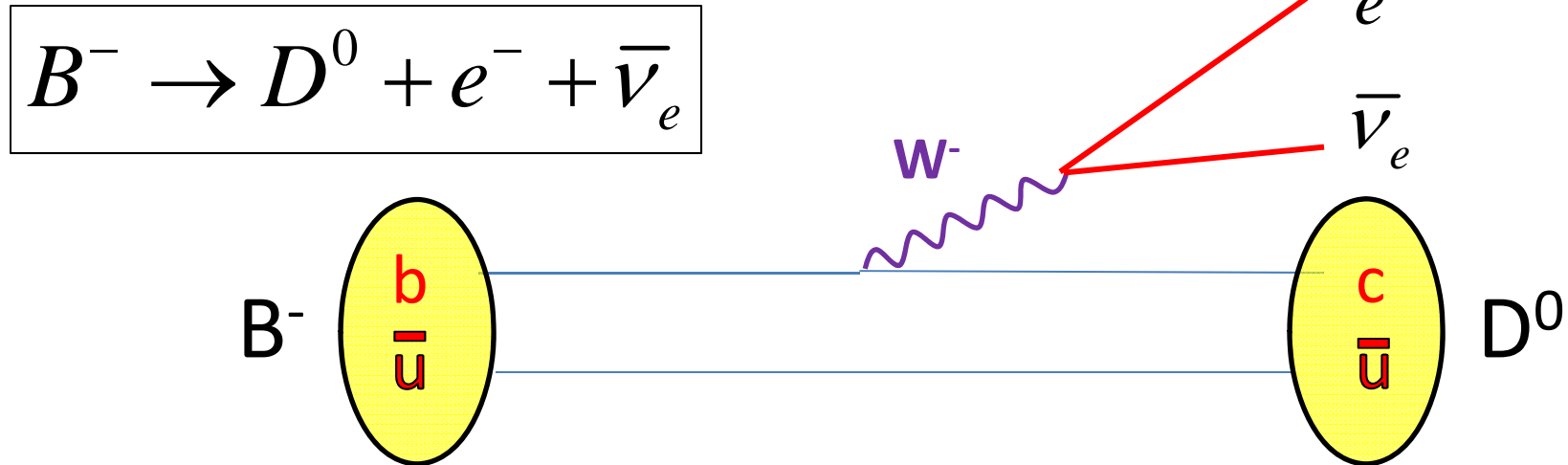
$$n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$$



- Here , the d-quark emits a W^- and transforms into a u quark.
- Easy to see that charge is conserved throughout.
- The ud “just goes along for the ride” (spectator quarks)
- The underlying quark-level process is:
$$d \rightarrow u + W^- \rightarrow u + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$$

● Many weak decay diagrams look very similar to this !

Let's look at a B meson decay



- Here, the underlying quark-level process is:

$$b \rightarrow c + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$$

- Particles containing b-quarks have relatively long lifetimes of $\sim 1.5 \times 10^{-12}$ s. This may not seem long, but:

$$dist = \gamma vt$$

using $E_B^{\text{lab}} = \gamma m_B c^2$:

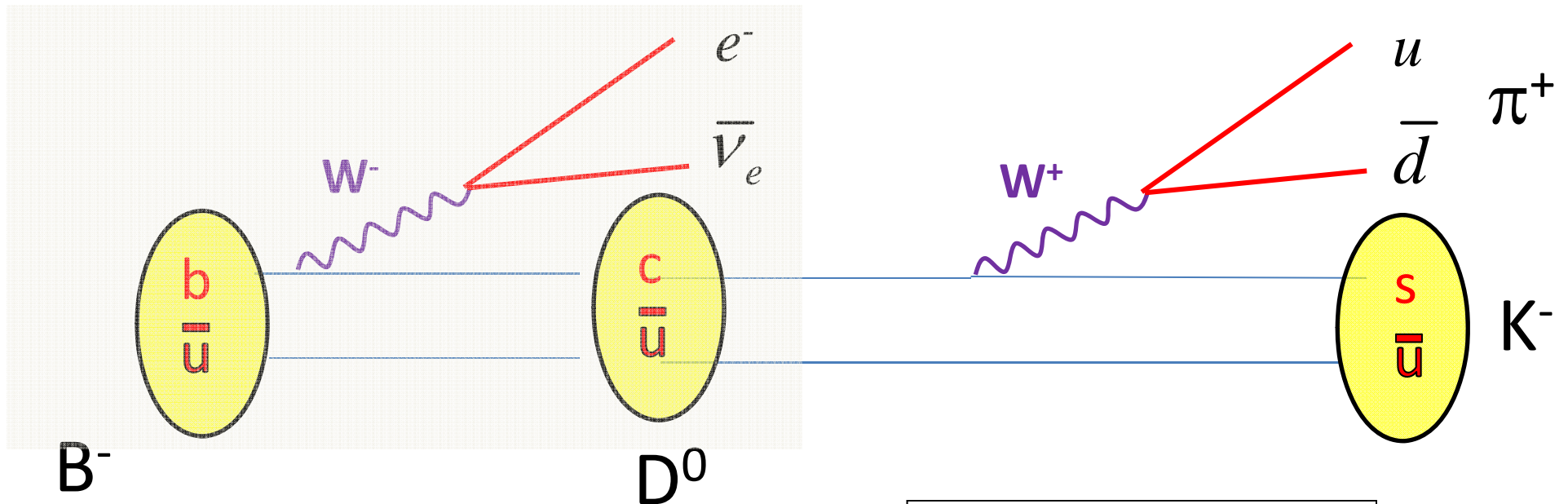
$$\gamma = E_B^{\text{lab}} / m_B c^2 \approx 100 \text{ GeV} / 5 \text{ GeV} = \mathbf{20}$$

Since $v \approx c$

$$\begin{aligned} dist &= 20 \times (3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) (1.5 \times 10^{-12} \text{ s}) \\ &= \boxed{9 \text{ mm}} \end{aligned}$$

- These distances are measurable with modern detectors. 16

Not quite the whole story ...



$$B^- \rightarrow D^0 + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$$

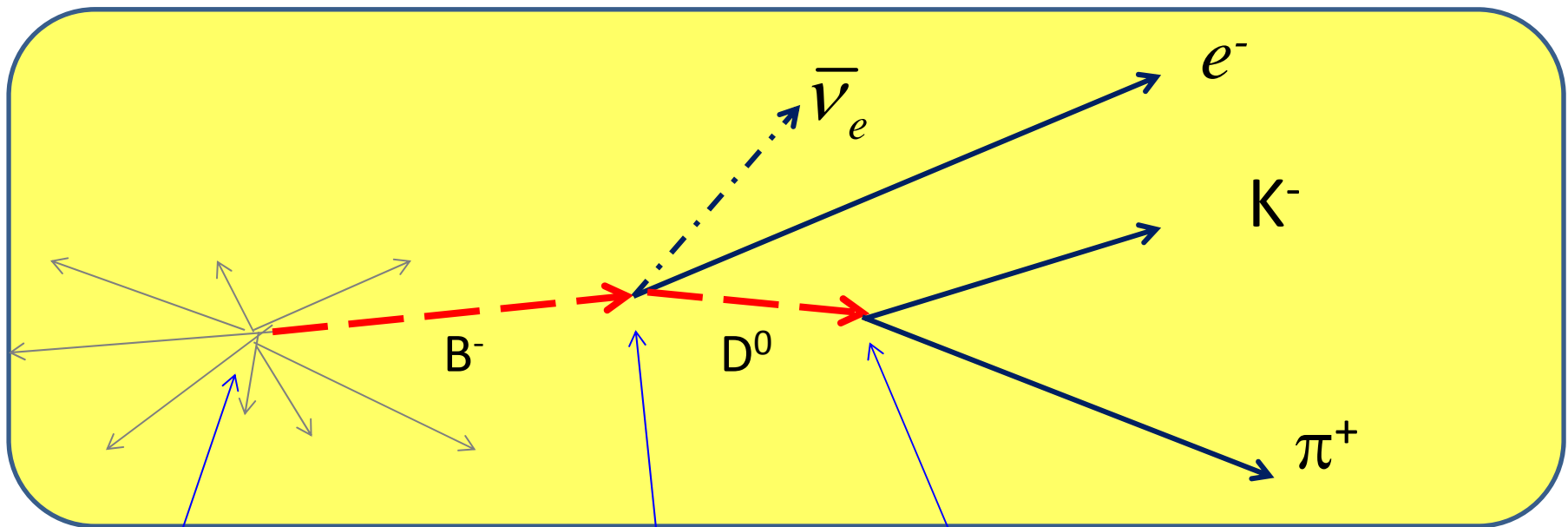
$$D^0 \rightarrow K^- \pi^+$$

- ✚ The D^0 particle is unstable as well. It has $\tau \approx 0.4 \times 10^{-12}$ s. So, it travels (on average) about 3 mm before decaying.
- ✚ The K^- and π^+ have lifetimes $\sim 10^4$ times larger, so they mostly traverse the detectors and are detected before they decay!

So, the weak decay looks like

$$B^- \rightarrow D^0 + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$$

$$D^0 \rightarrow K^- \pi^+$$



B^- produced
here, say in
pp collision

B^- decayed
here. $D^0, e^-, \bar{\nu}_e$
produced here.

D^0 decayed
here. K^-, π^+
produced here.