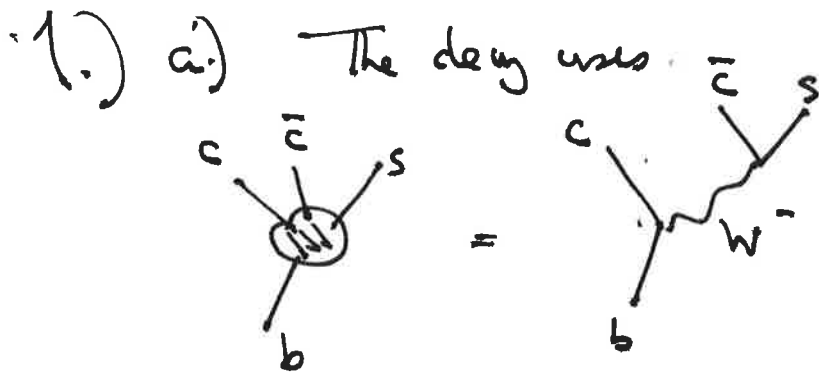


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Final Exam - Solutions



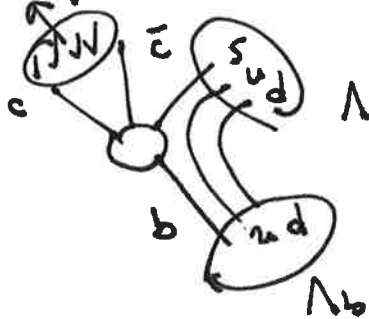
with the elements

$$b \rightarrow c$$

$$c \rightarrow s$$

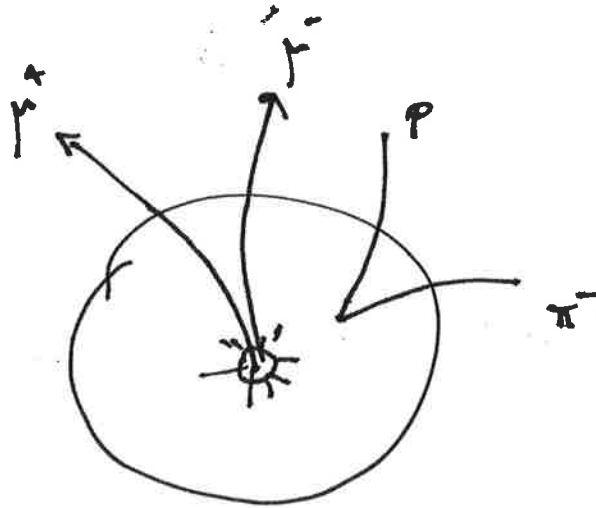
weak interaction transitions

as follows J/ψ



b.) The ultimate final state of the decay is $\mu^+ \mu^- p \pi^-$
All four of the final-state particles are charged, so their momenta are measured in the tracker, that is, a device that can locate points along a charged particle track in a solenoidal magnetic field.

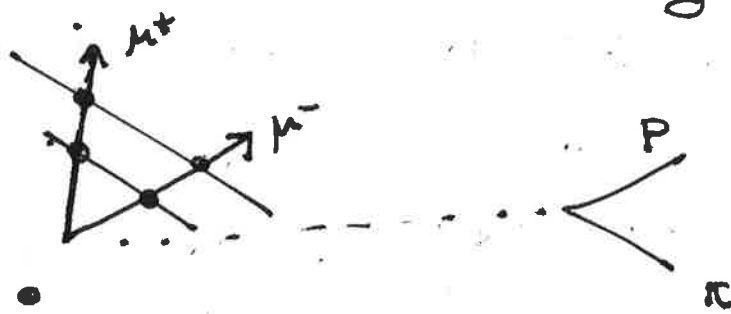
The Λ has a macroscopic lifetime ($c\tau = 8\text{cm}$) so the p and π^- tracks originate from a point well displaced from the primary interaction. Muons are identified as isolated tracks that penetrate meters of absorber. Looking down the beam axis, the Λ_b^0 appears as:



$$\begin{aligned}
 c.) \quad c\tau &= 1.45 \times 10^{-12} \text{ sec} \cdot c \\
 &= 0.43 \text{ mm}
 \end{aligned}$$

d) Modern collider detectors have silicon sensors located a few cm from the collision point. These detect space points on the track to an accuracy below 100μ . This allows one to recognize that the $\mu^+\mu^-$ pair does not originate from the primary

vertices but, rather, from a finite distance away



The distribution of decay distances is

$$e^{-l/c\tau\gamma}$$

where $\gamma = E_{\Lambda}/m_{\Lambda}$. γ can be computed from the four measured final-state 4-vectors:

e.) The decay $\Lambda \rightarrow n\pi^0$ does not produce any tracks. The π^0 is observed as 2 photons in the electromagnetic calorimeter, and the n is simply a hit in the hadron calorimeter. Thus, it is difficult to recognize the Λ in this event.

2. a) The initial 4-vectors are

$$P_e = (m_e, 000)$$

$$P_{\bar{\nu}} = (E, 00E)$$

$$\text{Then } m_W^2 = (P_e + P_{\bar{\nu}})^2 = (E + m_e)^2 - E^2 \approx 2Em_e$$

$$E = \frac{m_W^2}{2m_e} = 6.3 \times 10^6 \text{ GeV}$$

$$= 6.3 \text{ PeV}$$

b.) A $\bar{\nu}_e$ produced in a weak decay is
right handed $S^3 = +\frac{1}{2}$

c.) The process is



$$M = \frac{g}{\sqrt{2}} \bar{\nu}_L^+ \bar{\sigma}^{\mu} \nu_L \epsilon_{\mu}^{\dagger}(W)$$

with

$$u_L = \sqrt{m_e} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$u_L = \sqrt{m_e} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

for the two possible e^- polarizations

and

$$u_L = \sqrt{2E_\nu} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

the spinor is opposite to the spin of the $\bar{\nu}_e$

For $u_{eL} = \sqrt{m_e} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned} u_L^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu u_L &= \sqrt{2E_\nu m_e} (01) (1, -\vec{\sigma}) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \sqrt{2E_\nu m_e} (1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1)^\mu \end{aligned}$$

To a very good approximation, this vector is parallel to

the W boson vector $P_W = (E_W, 0, 0, E_W - \frac{m_W^2}{2E_W})$
↻ tiny!

Since $\Sigma_W^\dagger P_W = 0$, this state gives essentially no contribution

For $u_{eL} = \sqrt{m_e} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned} u_L^\dagger \bar{\sigma}^\mu u_L &= \sqrt{2E_\nu m_e} (01) (1, -\vec{\sigma})^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \sqrt{m_W^2} (0, -1, -i, 0)^\mu \\ &= -m_W \cdot \sqrt{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (0, 1, i, 0)^\mu \end{aligned}$$

so this reaction produces a W with $S^3 = +1$, as we would expect



d.) Then $|M(\nu e^- W)|^2 = g^2/2 \cdot 2m_W^2 = g^2 m_W^2$
 $|M(\nu e^- W)|^2 = 0$

$$\sigma = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}}_{e^- \text{ pol. avg.}} \frac{1}{2E_\nu 2m_e \cdot \underbrace{1}_{|v_\nu - v_e|}} \int d\Omega_i |M|^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{m_W^2} 2\pi \delta(s - m_W^2) g^2 m_W^2$$

$$= 2\pi^2 \frac{g^2}{4\pi} \delta(s - m_W^2) = 2\pi^2 d\omega \delta(s - m_W^2)$$

e.) $A = 2\pi^2 d\omega = 0.66$

f.) For each electron, the rate of W^- production is

$$\text{events/sec} = \int dE \cdot \frac{1}{9} \cdot \frac{d\Phi}{dE} \sigma(E)$$

we need to convert

$$\delta(s - m_W^2) = \delta(2E_\nu m_e - m_W^2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2m_e} \delta(E_\nu - 6.3 \text{ PeV})$$

then

$$\text{events/sec} = \frac{1}{9} \left. \frac{d\Phi}{dE} \right|_{E=6.3 \text{ PeV}} \cdot 0.66 \cdot \frac{1}{2m_e}$$

evaluate this numerically

$$\text{events/sec} = \frac{1}{9} \cdot 10^{-7} \cdot \frac{1}{(E_\nu(\text{GeV}))^2} \cdot \frac{0.33}{(m_e(\text{GeV}))} \cdot \frac{1}{(\text{GeV})^2 \text{cm}^2 \text{sec}}$$

$$\frac{1}{(\text{GeV})^2 \text{cm}^2} = \frac{10^{-27}}{\text{GeV}^2 \text{mb}} = 0.39 \times 10^{-27}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{events/sec} &= \frac{1}{9} \cdot 10^{-7} \cdot \frac{1}{(6.3 \times 10^6)^2} \cdot \frac{0.33}{(0.51 \times 10^{-3})} \cdot 0.39 \times 10^{-27} \\ &= 7.1 \times 10^{-47} / \text{sec} \end{aligned}$$

g.) Each electron comes with a mass of

$$2 \text{ nucleons} = 2 \times 1.7 \times 10^{-24} \text{ g}$$

so an event rate of 1/yr requires a mass of

$$\begin{aligned} & (7.1 \times 10^{-47} / \text{sec})^{-1} (3.16 \times 10^7 \text{ sec/yr})^{-1} (3.3 \times 10^{-24} \text{ g/e}^-) \\ &= 1.5 \times 10^{15} \text{ g} \end{aligned}$$

For 5 events per year from $W^- \rightarrow \mu \nu$ or $W^- \rightarrow \tau \nu$ we would need

$$1.5 \times 10^{15} \text{ g} \times 5 \times \frac{1}{\text{BR}(W \rightarrow \mu \text{ or } \tau)}$$

since $BR(W \rightarrow \mu) \cong BR(W \rightarrow \tau) \cong 11\%$

$$\cong \frac{1}{3 + 2 \cdot 3} \cdot \frac{1}{e \mu \tau (\text{rad}) \cdot (\text{cs})}$$

this works out to

$$3.4 \times 10^{16} \text{ g } H_2O$$

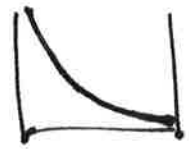
Water is conveniently 1 g/cm^3 . So this is a cube of ice of volume

$$34 \text{ km}^3 = (3 \text{ km})^3$$

This is large but not totally impractical ;
Ice Cube is $(1 \text{ km})^3$ and will be active for many years.

b) In the W frame the W_2^- decays to a μ^- (which must be L-handed) with the angular distribution

$$\frac{d\Gamma}{d\cos\theta} \sim (1 - \cos\theta)^2$$



The energy of the muon in the lab frame is found by boost

$$P_{\mu} = \left(\frac{mW}{2}, \frac{mW}{2} \sin \Theta, 0, \frac{mW}{2} \cos \Theta \right)$$

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which boost is

$$E_{\mu}^{\text{lab}} = \left(\gamma \frac{mW}{2} + \gamma \beta \frac{mW}{2} \cos \Theta \right)$$

$$\gamma = \frac{E_W}{mW} = 8 \times 10^4 \quad \text{so} \quad \beta \approx 1$$

$$E_{\mu}^{\text{lab}} = E_W \cdot \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos \Theta_{\text{cm}})$$

let $x = \frac{E_{\mu}^{\text{lab}}}{E_W}$ $x = \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos \Theta_{\text{cm}})$

$$1 - x = \frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos \Theta_{\text{cm}})$$

and so

$$\frac{dI}{dx} \sim (1-x)^2$$

3.) a.) The probability to emit a collinear gluon in the process of $q\bar{q}$ annihilation is

$$\int dz \int \frac{dP_T^2}{P_T^2} \cdot \frac{\alpha_s}{2\pi} P_{g+q}^{(z)} \cdot 2$$

either g or \bar{g}
can emit

$$= \int dz \int \frac{dP_T^2}{P_T^2} \cdot \frac{4}{3} \frac{1+(1-z)^2}{z} \cdot \frac{\alpha_s}{2\pi} \cdot 2$$

$$\sim \int \frac{dz}{z} \int \frac{dP_T}{P_T} \frac{4}{3} \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \frac{\alpha_s}{\pi}$$

both logs can be estimated as $\sim \log\left(\frac{400 \text{ GeV}}{50 \text{ GeV}}\right)$

$$\sim \frac{16}{3} \cdot \frac{\alpha_s}{\pi} \cdot \log^2\left(\frac{400}{50}\right)$$

Prob $\sim 90\%$ ie almost certain

b.) For photons the probability is

$$\int dz \int \frac{dp_T^2}{p_T^2} \cdot \frac{\alpha}{2\pi} \cdot Q_f^2 \cdot \frac{1+(1-z)^2}{z} \cdot 2$$

$$\sim \int \frac{dz}{z} \int \frac{dp_T}{p_T} \frac{\alpha}{\pi} \cdot 4 \cdot \langle Q_f^2 \rangle$$

If the amplitudes are $\frac{2}{3} u\bar{u}$, $\frac{1}{3} d\bar{d}$, as expected for valence quarks in the proton

$$\langle Q_f^2 \rangle = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{4}{9} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{9} = \frac{7}{27} \approx 0.26$$

$$\text{Prob.} \sim 4 \cdot (0.26) \cdot \frac{\alpha}{\pi} \cdot \left(\log^2 \frac{400}{50} \right)$$

$$\sim 1\%$$

c.) A Z^0 produced in the Drell-Yang process

can decay to $\nu\bar{\nu}$ (20% of the time).

If a gluon or photon is radiated from the initial state we have

$$q\bar{q} \rightarrow (g \text{ or } \gamma) + \nu\bar{\nu}$$



This is essentially indistinguishable from

$$q\bar{q} \rightarrow (g\gamma) + (\chi\bar{\chi})$$

The rate of this process must be carefully evaluated and subtracted from the observed number of events.