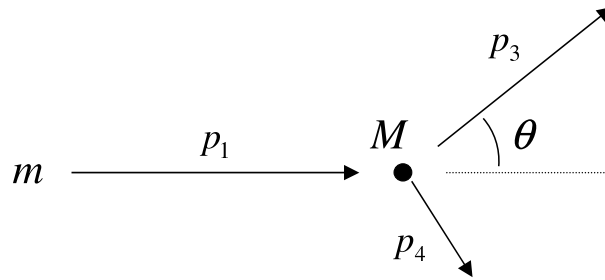


Particle Physics Major Option Exam, January 2004

SOLUTIONS

1. Elastic ep and deep-inelastic scattering

Consider elastic scattering in the lab frame, neglecting the mass of the incoming particle:



The four-momenta of the beam particle before and after the scattering are $p_1 = (E_1, 0, 0, E_1)$ and $p_3 = (E_3, E_3 \sin \theta, 0, E_3 \cos \theta)$, with $p_1^2 = p_3^2 = 0$. The 4-momentum transfer is $q = p_1 - p_3$, and squaring this equation gives

$$q^2 = (p_1 - p_3)^2 = -2p_1 \cdot p_3 = -2E_1 E_3 (1 - \cos \theta) . \quad (1)$$

Conservation of 4-momentum, $p_1 + p_2 = p_3 + p_4$, gives $p_2 + q = p_4$. Squaring this equation and using $p_2^2 = p_4^2 = M^2$ gives

$$M^2 + 2p_2 \cdot q + q^2 = M^2 .$$

Since $p_2 = (M, 0, 0, 0)$, we have $p_2 \cdot q = M(E_1 - E_3)$ and hence

$$E_1 - E_3 = \frac{-q^2}{2M} . \quad (2)$$

With $q^2 = -2.5 \text{ GeV}^2$ and $\theta = 60^\circ$, Equation (1) gives

$$E_1 E_3 = \frac{-q^2}{2(1 - \cos \theta)} = \frac{2.5 \text{ GeV}^2}{2(1 - \cos 60^\circ)} = 2.5 \text{ GeV}^2$$

while Equation (2) gives

$$E_1 - E_3 = \frac{2.5 \text{ GeV}^2}{2 \times 0.938 \text{ GeV}} = 1.33 \text{ GeV} .$$

Eliminating E_3 gives a quadratic equation for E_1 :

$$E_1(E_1 - 1.33) = 2.5$$

which can be solved to give $E_1 = 2.38 \text{ GeV}$.

In deep-inelastic scattering, the Lorentz invariant variables x and y are defined as

$$x \equiv \frac{-q^2}{2M\nu}, \quad y \equiv \frac{p_2 \cdot q}{p_2 \cdot p_1}$$

where

$$\nu = E_1 - E_3 .$$

The underlying process is elastic scattering of the incoming lepton from a quark of mass m . Applying Equation (2) to the quark scattering gives

$$\nu = E_1 - E_3 = \frac{-q^2}{2m}$$

and a comparison with the definition of x immediately gives

$$x = \frac{m}{M} .$$

Now consider the infinite momentum frame and suppose that the quark carries a fraction x of the target proton's momentum in this frame. Then the quark has 4-momentum (xE, xp) and therefore

$$m^2 = (xE)^2 - (xp)^2 = x^2(E^2 - p^2) = x^2M^2 .$$

Hence we again obtain $x = m/M$, validating the supposition that x can be interpreted as the fractional momentum.

In the lepton-quark centre of mass frame in the relativistic limit, the 4-momenta are $p_1 = (E, 0, 0, E)$, $p_2 = (E, 0, 0, -E)$, and $p_3 = (E, E \sin \theta^*, 0, E \cos \theta^*)$. Therefore the 4-momentum transfer is

$$q = p_1 - p_3 = (0, -E \sin \theta^*, 0, E(1 - \cos \theta^*))$$

and the variable y is

$$y = \frac{p_2 \cdot q}{p_2 \cdot p_1} = \frac{E^2(1 - \cos \theta^*)}{2E^2} = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos \theta^*) .$$

A differential cross section $d\sigma/dy \propto (1 - y)^2$ corresponds to

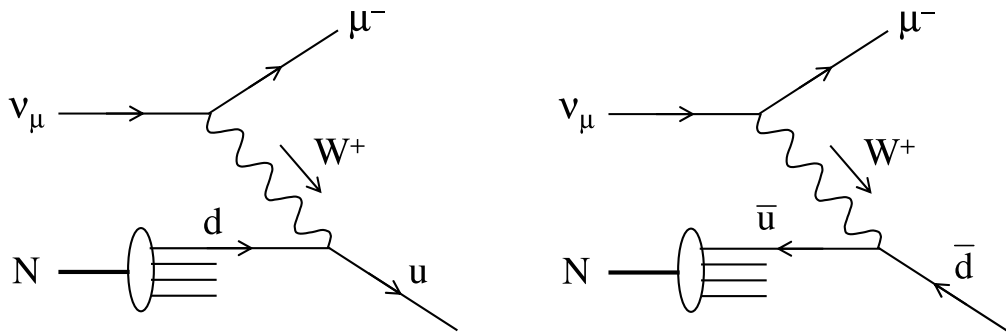
$$\frac{d\sigma}{d \cos \theta^*} = \frac{dy}{d \cos \theta^*} \frac{d\sigma}{dy} \propto \frac{1}{2}(1 - y)^2 = \frac{1}{8}(1 + \cos \theta^*)^2 .$$

Similarly, a differential cross section $d\sigma/dy = \text{constant}$ corresponds to $d\sigma/d \cos \theta^* = \text{constant}$, namely to isotropic scattering in the centre of mass.

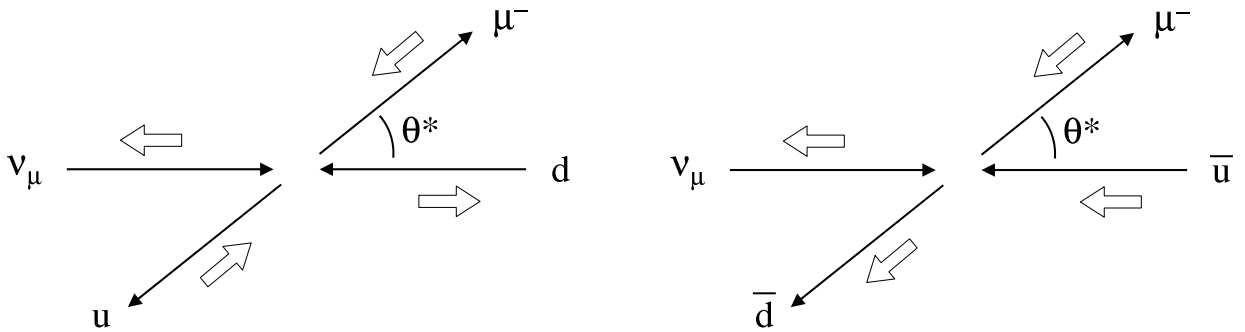
The differential cross section for neutrino scattering, $\nu_\mu p \rightarrow \mu^- + X$ for example, is

$$\frac{d^2\sigma^{\nu p}}{dx dy} = \frac{G_F^2 s x}{\pi} [d(x) + (1 - y)^2 \bar{u}(x)] .$$

The first term on the right-hand side is the contribution from $\nu_\mu d \rightarrow \mu^- u$ scattering, while the second term arises from $\nu_\mu \bar{u} \rightarrow \mu^- \bar{d}$ scattering. The leading-order Feynman diagrams are:



The scattering involves the W^\pm boson and is therefore $V - A$ in structure. In the relativistic limit, all the particles involved must be left-handed, while antiparticles must be right-handed. In the lepton-(anti)quark centre of mass frame we therefore have:

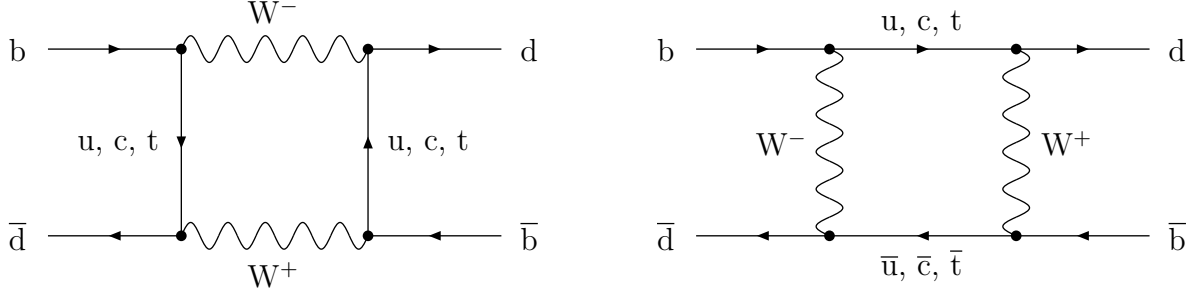


In the first case, the total spin is zero, and there is no preferred spatial direction. The scattering is therefore isotropic in the neutrino-quark centre of mass frame, and hence does not depend on y .

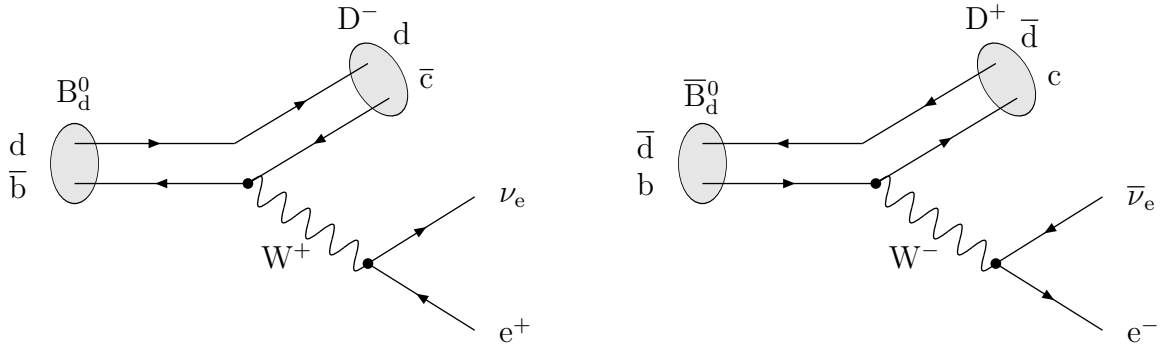
In the second case, the total spin is one in the initial and final states, giving a cross section proportional to $(1 + \cos \theta^*)^2$. This gives $d\sigma/dy \propto (1 - y)^2$.

3. B meson and neutrino oscillations:

The leading order Feynman diagrams for $B_d^0 - \bar{B}_d^0$ mixing are:



Examples of Feynman diagrams for semileptonic B_d^0 and \bar{B}_d^0 decay are:



(The name of the final state meson, D^\pm in this example, is not expected to be known). The semileptonic decay of B_d^0 always produces a *positive* charged lepton ℓ^+ while the semileptonic decay of \bar{B}_d^0 always produces a *negative* charged lepton ℓ^- .

Neglecting CP violation, the mass eigenstates are

$$B_H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(B_d^0 + \bar{B}_d^0), \quad B_L = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(B_d^0 - \bar{B}_d^0).$$

These equations can be inverted to give

$$B_d^0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(B_H + B_L), \quad \bar{B}_d^0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(B_H - B_L).$$

For an initial B_d^0 , the wavefunction evolves with time as

$$\begin{aligned} B_d^0(t) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [B_H e^{-im_H t - \Gamma t/2} + B_L e^{-im_L t - \Gamma t/2}] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} e^{-\Gamma t/2} [(B_d^0 + \bar{B}_d^0) e^{-im_H t} + (B_d^0 - \bar{B}_d^0) e^{-im_L t}] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} e^{-\Gamma t/2} [B_d^0 (e^{-im_H t} + e^{-im_L t}) + \bar{B}_d^0 (e^{-im_H t} - e^{-im_L t})] \end{aligned}$$

Hence the transition rates are

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(B_d^0 \rightarrow \bar{B}_d^0) &\propto e^{-\Gamma t} |e^{-im_H t} - e^{-im_L t}|^2 = 2e^{-\Gamma t} (1 - \cos \Delta m t) \\ \Gamma(B_d^0 \rightarrow B_d^0) &\propto e^{-\Gamma t} |e^{-im_H t} + e^{-im_L t}|^2 = 2e^{-\Gamma t} (1 + \cos \Delta m t) \end{aligned}$$

where $\Delta m \equiv m_H - m_L$. Using

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-\alpha t} \cos \beta t dt = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha^2 + \beta^2}$$

the integrated rate for the transition $B_d^0 \rightarrow \bar{B}_d^0$ is

$$\Gamma(B_d^0 \rightarrow \bar{B}_d^0) \propto \int_0^\infty e^{-\Gamma t} (1 - \cos \Delta m t) dt = \frac{1}{\Gamma} \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2}$$

where $x \equiv \Delta m/\Gamma$. The integrated rate for no oscillation is

$$\Gamma(B_d^0 \rightarrow B_d^0) \propto \int_0^\infty e^{-\Gamma t} (1 + \cos \Delta m t) dt = \frac{1}{\Gamma} \frac{2 + x^2}{1 + x^2} .$$

Normalising these transition rates so that they sum to unity gives the transition probabilities

$$P(B_d^0 \rightarrow \bar{B}_d^0) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2}, \quad P(B_d^0 \rightarrow B_d^0) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{2 + x^2}{1 + x^2} .$$

The experiment produces $B_d^0 \bar{B}_d^0$ pairs (for example in a process such as $p\bar{p} \rightarrow B_d^0 \bar{B}_d^0 + X$), where the B_d^0 and \bar{B}_d^0 are uncorrelated, *i.e.* each B meson evolves independently. Since the semileptonic decay of the B_d^0 produces a positive lepton, ℓ^+ , while the semileptonic decay of the \bar{B}_d^0 produces a negative lepton, ℓ^- , the only way to get a pair of leptons with the same charge, $\ell^\pm \ell^\pm$, is for one of the B mesons to undergo mixing while the other B meson does not:

$$\text{either } (B_d^0 \rightarrow \bar{B}_d^0)(\bar{B}_d^0 \rightarrow \bar{B}_d^0) \quad \text{or} \quad (B_d^0 \rightarrow B_d^0)(\bar{B}_d^0 \rightarrow B_d^0) .$$

Defining

$$p \equiv P(B_d^0 \rightarrow \bar{B}_d^0) = P(\bar{B}_d^0 \rightarrow B_d^0) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2} ,$$

the fraction of like-sign dileptons is

$$\begin{aligned} f(\ell^\pm \ell^\pm) &= P(B_d^0 \rightarrow \bar{B}_d^0).P(\bar{B}_d^0 \rightarrow \bar{B}_d^0) + P(B_d^0 \rightarrow B_d^0).P(\bar{B}_d^0 \rightarrow B_d^0) \\ &= p(1 - p) + (1 - p)p = 2p(1 - p) = 0.297 . \end{aligned}$$

Solving the quadratic equation gives $p = 0.1814$. Hence

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2} = 0.1814$$

which gives $x = 0.755$. The mass difference Δm is therefore

$$\Delta m = x\Gamma = \frac{x}{\tau} = \frac{0.755}{1.54 \times 10^{-12} \text{ s}} \times (6.582 \times 10^{-25} \text{ GeV} \cdot \text{s}) = 3.23 \times 10^{-13} \text{ GeV} .$$

(b) Solar neutrino experiments reveal $\nu_e \rightarrow \nu_\mu$ and/or $\nu_e \rightarrow \nu_\tau$ oscillations with a mass-squared splitting

$$\Delta m_{12}^2 \approx 7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2 .$$

Atmospheric neutrino experiments reveal $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\tau$ oscillations with

$$\Delta m_{13}^2 \approx \Delta m_{23}^2 \approx 2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2 .$$

(Precise numerical values for Δm^2 are not expected). For the K2K experiment, the oscillation wavelengths corresponding to these two mass-squared splittings are

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_{12} &\approx \frac{4\pi E}{\Delta m_{12}^2} = \frac{4\pi \times 1.3 \text{ GeV}}{7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV}^2} \times (0.197 \text{ GeV fm}) = 4.6 \times 10^4 \text{ km} \\ \lambda_{23} &\approx \frac{4\pi E}{\Delta m_{23}^2} = \frac{4\pi \times 1.3 \text{ GeV}}{2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2} \times (0.197 \text{ GeV fm}) = 1600 \text{ km} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, for $L = 250 \text{ km}$, only atmospheric oscillations play a significant role. The most likely explanation is therefore that the K2K is observing $\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\tau$ oscillations. The oscillation probability can be estimated as

$$\begin{aligned} P(\nu_\mu \rightarrow \nu_\tau) &\approx \sin^2 2\theta \sin^2 \left(\frac{\Delta m_{23}^2 L}{4E} \right) = \sin^2 \left(\frac{2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}^2 \times 250 \text{ km}}{4 \times 1.3 \text{ GeV}} \times \frac{1}{0.197 \text{ GeV fm}} \right) \\ &= \sin^2 0.488 = 0.22 \end{aligned}$$

which is consistent with the observation of $(80 - 56)/80 = 0.30 \pm 0.06$.