

## 5. THE QUARK MODEL

• Hadrons are particles that interact strongly.

They are separated into  $S=0,1$  mesons  $qq'$

because, as you know ~~for~~ for  $S=1/2$  we have two

spins, therefore  $2 \times 2 = 1 + 3$  or  $1/2 \times 1/2 = 0 + 1$ .

$\begin{matrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 \cdot 0 + 1 & 2 \cdot 1 + 1 \end{matrix}$

• We can also bind three quarks into a baryon,

for example  $uud = \text{proton}$ ,  $udd = \text{neutron}$ , etc.

		SPIN
MESONS	$q\bar{q}$	0, 1
HADRONS	BARYONS	$qqq$
		$1/2, 3/2$

### 5.1. DISCOVERY OF HADRONS

Lightest states are the  $\pi^\pm, \pi^0$  mesons with

$$m_{\pi^+} = 139 \text{ MeV}, \quad m_{\pi^0} = 135 \text{ MeV}$$

Ex: Check the PDG to find

$$\text{Br}(\pi^+ \rightarrow \mu^+ \nu_\mu) \cong 100\%$$

$$\text{Br}(\pi^+ \rightarrow e^+ \nu_e) \cong 10^{-4} = 0.01\%$$

and  $\text{Br}(\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma) \cong 100\%$

- Bottom-line  $\pi$ 's get produced (pair-wise) in strong interactions & produce masses of photons from  $\pi^+$  &  $\pi^0$  decays.

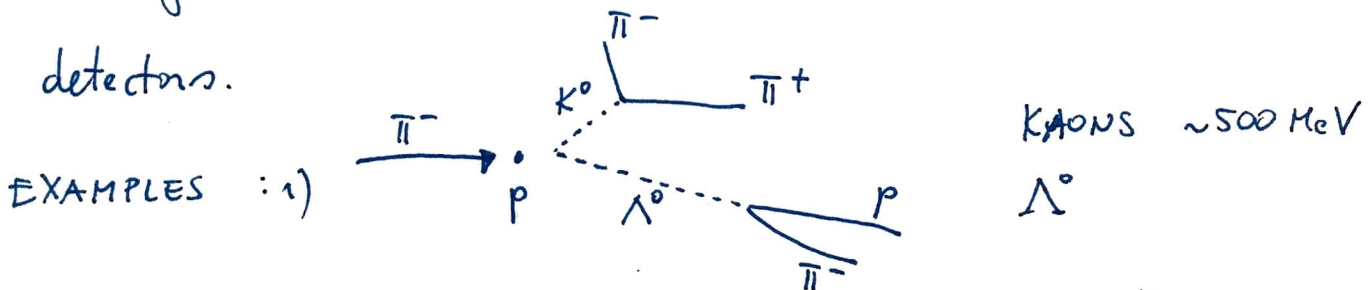
- The  $\pi$ -mesons were understood in mid 30-s to 40s in cosmic rays when the resulting mesons were seen to be produced by  $\pi^+$  with a short decay path.

Yukawa:  $(\nabla^2 + m_\pi^2)\pi = 0$      $V(r) = \frac{g_s^2}{4\pi r} e^{-m_\pi r}$

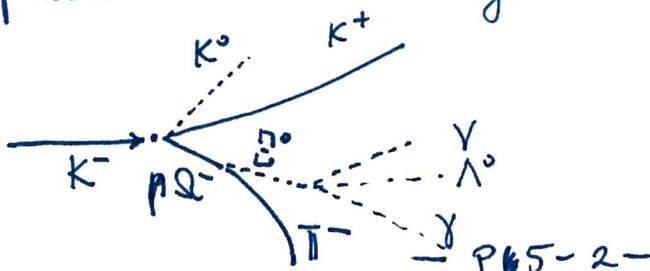
exponential Yukawa potential

- In 50s and 60s more particles were discovered,

- mainly due to advances in accelerators & chamber detectors.



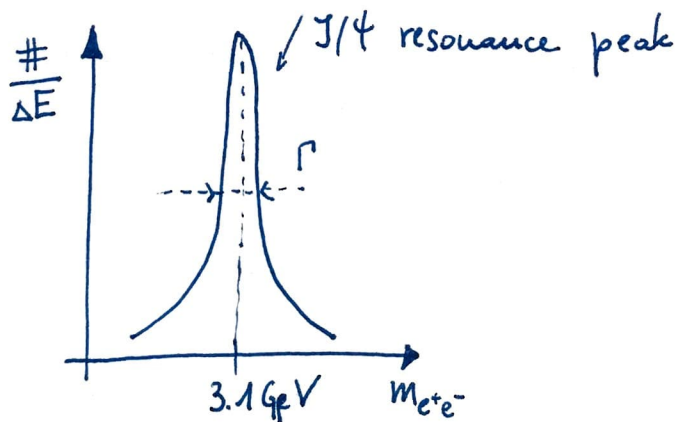
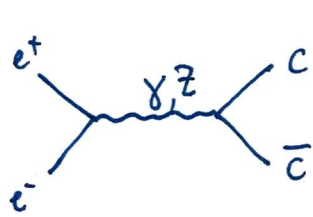
2)  $\Omega^-$  see an interesting BBC documentary on this prediction & discovery w. Gell-Mann & Feynman.



## 5.2. J/ψ or c $\bar{c}$ : CHARMONIUM

• A very simple and precise way of producing & studying particles is by  $e^+e^-$  annihilation, where the energy (cm.) of the two beams can be tuned to the mass of a resonance. This enhances the cross-sections (we'll derive this later on) and allows to study angular distributions, polarization, precise width determination, etc.

FIRST SUCH EXAMPLE was the charmonium @  $\sim 3\text{GeV}$



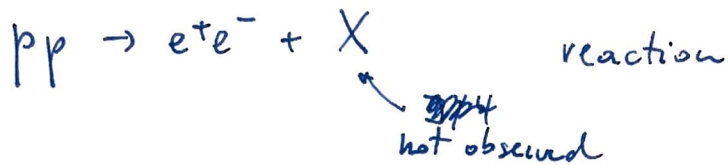
• SEE THE PDG plots for resonances

• some history 60s  $e^+e^-$  (SLAC) measure  $e^+e^-$  annihilation up to  $2\text{GeV}$ , e.g.  $\eta' = 1.45\text{GeV}$  &  $\Gamma_{\eta'} = 400\text{MeV}$

74 SPEAR @ SLAC finds  $m_{J/\psi} = 3.1\text{GeV}$ .

• Very narrow  $\Gamma_{J/\psi} = 0.1\text{MeV}$ ;  $\text{Br}(\text{hadrons}) = 88\%$   
 $\text{Br}(e^+e^-) = 6\%$

- hadronic colliders ( $p, \bar{p}$ ) can also be useful, e.g.  $J/\psi$  was found in 1974 by Ting et al. in the



- $\tau_{J/\psi} = \frac{1}{\Gamma}$ , since  $\Gamma_{J/\psi} \ll \Lambda_{QCD} \Rightarrow J/\psi \sim$  long-lived

- a few weeks later SPEAR finds the  $\psi'$  @ 3.7 GeV

- Further on at  $E \sim 3.6$  GeV the  $\Upsilon$  resonances appear.

'77 @ Fermilab by Lederman in  $pp \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^- + X$

QUANTUM NUMBERS from  $e^+e^-$  annihilation

$$\begin{array}{c} e^+ \\ \diagdown \\ \gamma \\ \diagup \\ e^- \end{array} = \langle 0 | j^\mu(x) | e^+e^- \rangle$$

- QED current has the same quantum numbers as the photon:  $S=1, P=-1, C=-1$ . This means that the resonances, which are most efficiently produced in this process have  $J^{PC} = 1^{--} (\psi, \Upsilon)$

- Different quantum numbers are produced by radiative returns when e.g.  $\psi' \rightarrow X + \gamma$   
 $\hookrightarrow \psi/J/\psi + \gamma$



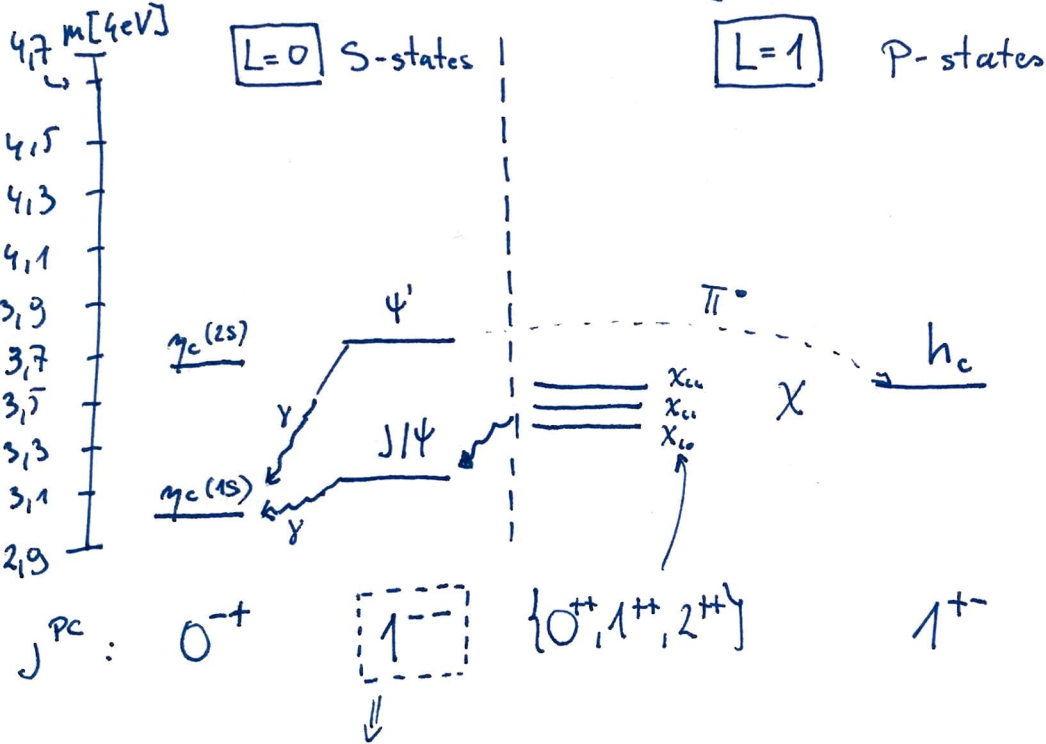
Now :  $\psi' \rightarrow X + \gamma$   $\rightarrow$  photon w.  $s=1$   $P=-1$ ,  $C=-1$   
 $\sim \sim E1$   $\Delta L=1$  transitions

$\Rightarrow X_s$  (actually three of them) have  $C=1$

$X_{c0}$  has  $J^{PC} = 0^{++}$

$M_{X_{c0}} = 3,4 \text{ GeV}$  ,  $\Gamma = 10 \text{ MeV}$

• see the "Charmonium system" on PDG

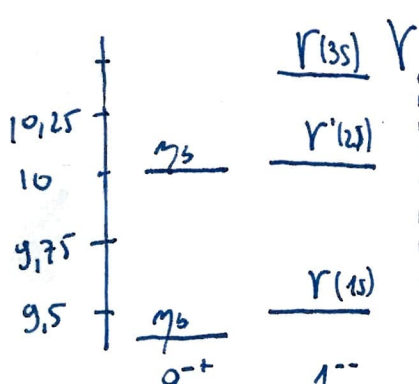


SIMILAR FOR  
 BOTTOMONIUM  
 but for  $m \in (9,5 - 11) \text{ GeV}$

• All the  $\psi$  &  $\psi'$  states, produced via the  $P=-1, C=-1$  current  $\langle 0 | \vec{j} | e^+e^- \rangle \Rightarrow J^{PC} = 1^{--}$

• We identify  $\psi \sim c\bar{c}$  ,  $m_c \sim m_p/2 \sim 1.8 \text{ GeV}$

$\Upsilon \sim b\bar{b}$  ,  $m_b \sim \frac{m_p}{2} \sim 5 \text{ GeV}$



### 5.3. THE LIGHT MESONS

• Let's focus on the light mesons  $\approx 100$  MeV

• the lightest family are  $\pi$ -mesons w  $m_\pi \sim 140$  MeV

turns out  $J^P = 0^- \Rightarrow$  pseudoscalars w.  $P = -1$ .

the  $\pi^\pm$  go into  $C = \pm 1$  and  $\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma \Rightarrow C(\pi^0) = 1$

• The entire  $J^P = 0^-$  family consists of 9 states

PSEUDO- SCALARS	$0^-$	<u><math>\eta'</math></u>	958	[MeV] $\sim 960$
		<u><math>\eta</math></u>	548	$\sim 550$
		<u><math>K^- \quad \bar{K}^0 \quad K^0 \quad K^+</math></u>	498	$\sim 500$
		<u><math>\pi^- \quad \pi^0 \quad \pi^+</math></u>	140	$\sim 140$

$C(\pi^0, \eta, \eta') = 1$  ( $\gamma\gamma$  decays)

• On top of the pseudoscalar, made from  $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \underline{0} + 1$ ,

the two fermions can create a  $J=1$  bound state. These are the somewhat heavier vector mesons.

VECTOR MESONS	$1^-$	<u><math>\phi^0</math></u>	1020
		<u><math>K^{*-} \quad \bar{K}^{*0} \quad K^{*0} \quad K^{*+}</math></u>	892
		<u><math>\rho^- \quad \omega^0 \quad \rho^+</math></u> . . . . .	781
		<u><math>\rho^0</math></u>	770

$C(\rho^0, \omega, \phi) = -1$  ( $\pi\gamma$  decays)

• The  $K$  mesons are somewhat special, they are not produced simply, only in pairs; or together with particular excited states of the proton.

• For example, we have:  $\pi^- p \rightarrow n K^+ K^-$

$$\rightarrow \Lambda^0 K^0 \quad (\cancel{n K^0})$$

↑ excited state of p.

This strange behaviour is explained by postulating the strangeness quantum number, which is preserved by strong (& EM) interactions.

By convention  $S(K^0, K^+, K^{*0}, K^{*+}) = -1$

↑ strangeness  $S(\bar{K}^0, K^-, \bar{K}^{*0}, K^{*-}) = +1$

and  $S(\Lambda^0) = +1$ , such that  $\Lambda^0 K^0$  has

$$S = 1 - 1 = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

• We can interpret all these states with three "light" quarks:

quarks:  $u, d, s$  with spin  $1/2$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \pi^+ \sim u\bar{d} \\ \pi^- \sim \bar{u}d \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{when } u \text{ and } d \\ \text{combine to} \\ \text{spin } 0 \end{array}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \rho^+ = u\bar{d} \\ \rho^- = \bar{u}d \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{when they go} \\ \text{to spin } 1 \end{array}$$

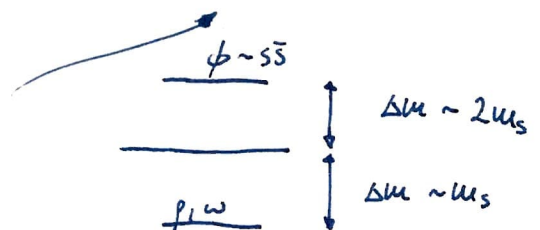
$$K^+ \sim u\bar{s}$$

$$K^{*+} \sim u\bar{s}$$

$$K^- \sim \bar{u}s$$

$$K^{*-} \sim \bar{u}s$$

↑  
s quark has strangeness +1



• From here,  $Q_u - Q_d = 1 = Q_u - Q_s$

• We saw that  $m_s \sim 120 \text{ MeV}$  (really more like 90 MeV)

but since  $m_{\pi^\pm} \sim m_{\pi^0}$  &  $m_{K^\pm} \sim m_{K^0}$  it must be that  $m_u \sim m_d$  ↙ apart from E.M. radiative effects

$$\frac{\pi^+}{\pi^0} \quad \frac{\pi^-}{\pi^0} \quad Q=0$$

• If so, then, up to mass differences, there would be an approximate symmetry on  $u, d, s$  exchange

$$u \leftrightarrow d, \quad u \leftrightarrow s, \quad d \leftrightarrow s$$

• In fact Heisenberg suggested that they  $p, d, u$  form

a doublet, meaning  $\begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix}$  transforms as an

doublet under  $SU(2)$ . This is a global approximate

symmetry, called ISOSPIN.

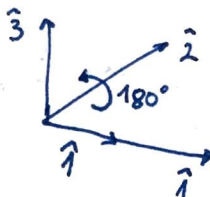
$$\begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow e^{-i\alpha^a \frac{\sigma^a}{2}} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{d} \quad \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \\ s \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{TRIPLET under } SU(3)} e^{-i\alpha^a \frac{\lambda^a}{2}} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \\ s \end{pmatrix}$$

even more approximate  $SU(3)$ .



G-PARITY : instead of C or P, it's useful to define G-parity, which is a combination of C & SU(2) isospin, and is therefore (approximately) conserved.

$$C|\pi^\pm\rangle = |\pi^\mp\rangle \quad \& \quad C|\pi^0\rangle = |\pi^0\rangle$$

Now take  $R_2(\pi)$ , a  rotation around the  $\hat{2}$  axis of isospin rotations.

$$G = C e^{i\pi \frac{\sigma_2}{2}} = C e^{i\pi I_2} = C R_2(\pi)$$

$$R_2(\pi) (\underbrace{\hat{1} + i\hat{2}}_{\pi^+}) = -\hat{1} + i\hat{2} = -(\underbrace{\hat{1} - i\hat{2}}_{\pi^-}), \quad R_2(\pi) \hat{3} = -\hat{3}$$

$$\pi^\pm = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\pi^1 \pm i\pi^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow G|\pi^+\rangle = C(R_2(\pi)|\pi^+\rangle) = -C|\pi^-\rangle = -|\pi^+\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow G|\pi^\pm\rangle = -|\pi^\pm\rangle, \quad G|\pi^0\rangle = -|\pi^0\rangle \quad \text{so } -1 \text{ for all}$$

the pions. For example  $J/\psi = c\bar{c}$  (or  $\Upsilon = b\bar{b}$ ) both

had  $I=0$  (no u,d,s quarks  $\Rightarrow$  isospin = 0) and thus

has  $G = C = -1$ . Therefore, in order to conserve G-

parity, they always decay to an odd number of  $\pi$ 's.

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_x(\pi) &= e^{i \frac{x}{2} \sigma_x} = 1 + i \frac{x}{2} \sigma_x + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x}{2} \sigma_x \right)^2 + \dots \quad \sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x}{2} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{x}{2} \right)^4 + \dots & \frac{x}{2} + \frac{i}{3!} \left( \frac{x}{2} \right)^3 (-i) \\ -\frac{x}{2} & \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_x^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{x}{2} & \sin \frac{x}{2} \\ -\sin \frac{x}{2} & \cos \frac{x}{2} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow \pi} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} & \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \\ -\sin \frac{\pi}{2} & \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \end{pmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$R_x(\pi) \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d \\ -u \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\pi^+ = u \bar{d}, \quad \pi^- = \bar{u} d$$

$$\pi^+ \xrightarrow{R_x(\pi)} d (-\bar{u}) = -d \bar{u}$$

$$= -\pi^-$$

$$U = e^{i \frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\theta}}{2}} = \cos \frac{\theta}{2} + \frac{i \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\theta}}{\theta} \sin \frac{\theta}{2}, \quad \theta = \sqrt{\theta_1^2 + \theta_2^2 + \theta_3^2}$$

## 5.4. THE HEAVY MESONS

- The same way we formed  $O^-$ ,  $1^-$  mesons from  $u, d, s$ , we can form their heavier counterparts from  $c$  &  $b$  quarks.

$\boxed{0^-}$	$\frac{D_s^+ = c\bar{s}}{D^0 \quad D^+ = ucd}$	1368	$\boxed{1^-}$	$\frac{D_s^{+*}}{D^{*0} = c\bar{u} \quad D^{*+}}$	2112
		1869			2010

$\Psi(3S) \rightarrow D_x \bar{D}_x$

And similarly for the  $b$ -quark

$\boxed{0^-}$	$\frac{B_s^0 = b\bar{s}}{B^- \quad B^0}$	5367	$\boxed{1^-}$	$\frac{B_s^{0*}}{B^{*-} \quad B^{*0}}$	5415
	$\frac{b\bar{u} \quad b\bar{d}}$	5279			5325

$\Psi(4S) \rightarrow B_x \bar{B}_x$  ,  $Q(u, c) = Q(d, s, b) + 1$

- Finally we have the top quark  $m_t = 173 \text{ GeV}$  with a width of  $\Gamma_t = 1.2 \text{ GeV}$ .

SUMMARY :

$u$	$c$	$t$	6 flavors,
$d$	$s$	$b$	3 families.

## 5.5. THE BARYONS

- With three quarks we can form spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  &  $\frac{3}{2}$  fermions, collectively called baryons. The lightest most stable ones are the  $p^+$  and  $n$  (proton & neutron).
- The neutron is slightly heavier and decays weakly to the proton,  $e^-$ ,  $\bar{\nu}_e$  with  $\tau_n = 881\text{s}$  (14.7 min).
- The proton is stable. This is explained by another global (accidental in the SM) symmetry, called the baryon number  $B$ .  
 $B(p) = 1 = B(u)$   
 $B(\bar{p}) = B(\bar{u}) = -1$
- This forbids  $p \rightarrow e^+ \pi^0$  or  $p \rightarrow \nu K^+$ , ...  
 $\tau > 8 \cdot 10^{33} \text{yr}$ ,  $\tau > 6.7 \times 10^{32} \text{yr}$

$S = \frac{1}{2}$	$\underline{\Sigma^-}$	$\underline{\Sigma^0}$	$\underline{\Sigma^+}$	1315
OCTET	$\underline{\Lambda^0}$			1132
	$\underline{n}$	$\underline{p}$		
			1116	938

$S = \frac{3}{2}$	$\underline{\Omega^-}$	1672
DECOUPLET	$\underline{\Sigma^{*-}}$ $\underline{\Sigma^{*0}}$ $\underline{\Sigma^{*+}}$	1532
	$\underline{\Delta^-}$ $\underline{\Delta^0}$ $\underline{\Delta^+}$ $\underline{\Delta^{++}}$	1385
		1232



- Once we fixed  $P = +1$  for the proton, the fact that  $\Delta^0$  has  $P = +1$  and the  $\pi$  has  $P = -1$  means that  $\Delta^0 \rightarrow p\pi^-$  decay goes through the P-channel with  $L = 1$  and not the  $L = 0$  s-channel.

- According to ISOSPIN  $\begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix}$  form a doublet w.  $\pm \frac{1}{2}$ .

Thus  $I(N = \begin{pmatrix} p \\ n \end{pmatrix}) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $I(\Delta) = \frac{3}{2}$

$$I(\Sigma) = I(\Sigma^*) = 1, \quad I(\Xi) = I(\Xi^*) = \frac{1}{2}$$

### The EIGHTFOLD WAY (Gell-Mann in 60s)

- The octet and decuplet can be understood as irreducible representations of  $SU(3)$ , where the quarks are assigned as triplets and anti-triplets of  $SU(3)_c$ .

$$3_i \rightarrow (U3)_i \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \quad U = e^{i \frac{\lambda_a}{2} \theta_a}$$

$$q_i = \left( e^{i \frac{\lambda_a}{2} \theta_a} \right)_{ij} q_j \quad a = 1, \dots, 8$$

$(u^2 - 1)$

$$\bar{3} : \bar{q}_i = (\bar{q} U^\dagger)_i = \bar{q}_j (U^\dagger)_{ji}$$

- Larger representations of  $SU(n)$  are formed as tensors. (Symmetric and anti-symmetric transform separately.)

- Let's look at  $A_{ab} \rightarrow U_{ac} U_{bd} A_{cd}$ , which is a  $3 \times 3$  matrix with 9 components  $\begin{pmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ x & \cdot & \cdot \\ x & x & \cdot \end{pmatrix} = 6$  symmetric  
 so  $3 \otimes 3 = 6_A \oplus 3_S$   $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & \cdot & \cdot \\ x & 0 & \cdot \\ x & x & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 3$  antisymmetric.

- The baryons are made of 3 quarks, so representations with 3 indices are relevant:  $A_{abc} \rightarrow U_{ad} U_{be} U_{cf} A_{def}$

totally symmetric  $\frac{3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{3!} = 10$

Restricting to  $i=1,2$  :  $\frac{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4}{3!} = \boxed{4}$   $2 \cdot \frac{3}{2} + 1 = 4$   
 only spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  the  $s = \frac{3}{2}$  rep. of  $SU(2)$

- The task at hand is to combine flavor and spin into well-defined representation:  $(u, d, s) \times (1, \downarrow)$

$|\Delta^{++} (S_z = +\frac{3}{2})\rangle = |u\uparrow, u\uparrow, u\uparrow\rangle$

$|\Omega^- (S_z = -\frac{3}{2})\rangle = |s\downarrow, s\downarrow, s\downarrow\rangle$

← six possibilities

DECUPLET      OCTET

- Three index symmetric :  $\frac{6 \cdot 7 \cdot 8}{3!} = 56 = (10 \cdot \boxed{4}) + (8 \cdot 2)$

- As we emphasized a couple of times, the diagonal operators (like  $I_3$ ) enumerate states and the raising/lowering operators build all the states. Let's see how this works: Start from  $|\Delta^{++}, s_3 = \frac{3}{2}\rangle = |u^1 u^1 u^1\rangle$   
 $I^- |\Delta^{++}\rangle = |\Delta^+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (|d^1 u^1 u^1\rangle + |u^1 d^1 u^1\rangle + |u^1 u^1 d^1\rangle)$   
 $S^- |\Delta^+, s_3 = \frac{3}{2}\rangle = |\Delta^+, s_3 = \frac{1}{2}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{9}} (|d^1 u^1 u^1\rangle + |d^1 u^1 u^1\rangle + |d^1 u^1 u^1\rangle + \dots)$   
 $= |\Delta^+, Q=1, S=0, s_3 = \frac{1}{2}, S = \frac{3}{2}\rangle$

- From the  $|\Delta^+\rangle$  state we can find the  $S = \frac{1}{2}$  state in the OCTET by finding  $\langle p | \Delta^+\rangle = 0$ , i.e. the proton wave function needs to be orthogonal to  $\Delta^+$  and with  $S = \frac{1}{2}$

$$|p, Q=1, S=0, S = \frac{1}{2}, s_3 = +\frac{1}{2}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} (2|u^1 u^1 d^1\rangle - |u^1 u^1 d^1\rangle - |u^1 u^1 d^1\rangle + \dots)$$

- The total charge is  $2Q_u + Q_d = 1$ ,  $Q_d = Q_u - 1$   
 $3Q_u = 2 \Rightarrow Q_u = \frac{2}{3}, Q_d = -\frac{1}{3}$

We do not observe single quarks in nature, they are always confined to hadrons.

Need for the colour quantum number.

We found the had:  $\Delta^{++} = u\uparrow u\uparrow u\uparrow$  or  $\Omega^- = s\downarrow s\downarrow s\downarrow$ , which are completely symmetric w.r.t exchange of  $u$  and  $s$  fermions. However, according to the spin-statistic theorem, these are fermions that need to be described by a totally anti-symmetric wave function. To this end we have  $SU(3)_c$  or QCD.

$$q_a = (q_r, q_g, q_b) = 3 \text{ of color}$$

$$\bar{q}^a \delta_b^a q^b = \bar{q}^a q_a \dots \text{singlet}$$

$$\epsilon^{abc} q_a q_b q_c \dots \text{again a singlet of } SU(3)_c.$$