

# Fermions and Bosons

A multi-particle wave function for non-interacting (e.g. widely separated) particles can be written as the product of single particle functions.

$$\Psi(1,2,3,\dots) = c \Psi_A(1) \Psi_B(2) \Psi_C(3) \dots$$

where A, B, C describe the quantum numbers of the state and 1, 2, 3 give the co-ordinates of the particle. (c is simply a normalisation constant.)

Observables are given by the square of the wave function  $|\Psi|^2$ .

If we consider a number of **identical, indistinguishable** particles, then clearly interchanging a pair of particles is quite unobservable.

$$|\Psi(2,1,3)|^2 = |\Psi(1,2,3)|^2$$

This has two possible solutions

$$\Psi(2,1,3) = + \Psi(1,2,3) \quad (1)$$

$$\Psi(2,1,3) = - \Psi(1,2,3) \quad (2)$$

1

These two cases have important physical consequences. E.g. if two particles are in identical quantum states

$$\Psi(1,2) = c \Psi_A(1) \Psi_A(2)$$

case (1) implies  $c_1 \Psi_A(2) \Psi_A(1) = c_1 \Psi_A(1) \Psi_A(2)$   
which is clearly satisfied by any  $c_1$ ,

case (2) implies  $c_2 \Psi_A(2) \Psi_A(1) = -c_2 \Psi_A(1) \Psi_A(2)$   
which is only satisfied if  $c_2 = 0$  – the wave function is zero.

Particles obeying the two conditions have completely different behaviours.

2

**Bosons** have wave functions which are symmetric under the interchange of identical particles. They obey Bose-Einstein statistics, showing constructive interference of identical single particle wave-functions.

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\Psi_A(1)\Psi_B(2) + \Psi_A(2)\Psi_B(1))$$

**Fermions** have wave functions which are antisymmetric under the interchange of identical particles. They obey Fermi-Dirac statistics, showing destructive interference of identical single particle wave functions. In particular, no two identical fermions can occupy wave functions with identical quantum numbers.

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\Psi_A(1)\Psi_B(2) - \Psi_A(2)\Psi_B(1))$$

→

4

**Fermions** are particles with “half integer” spin, i.e.  $1/2 \hbar, 3/2 \hbar, 5/2 \hbar, \dots$  (e.g. proton, neutron, electron, neutrino, quarks, ...). They include the constituents particles of matter.

For each particle, there is a distinct antiparticle

$$\text{e.g. } e^- \leftrightarrow e^+$$

$$\nu_e \leftrightarrow \bar{\nu}_e \quad \text{both neutral, but different.}$$

They obey conservation laws – they are only produced as fermion-antifermion pairs.

**Bosons** have integer spin, i.e.  $0, \hbar, 2\hbar, \dots$  (e.g. photons,  $\pi$  (pi meson) and other mesons,  $W^\pm, Z$ , gluon ...)

They include the quanta of fields, i.e. the carriers of forces.

They can be created and destroyed e.g.  $e^- + e^- \rightarrow e^- + e^- + \gamma$

They are their own antiparticles e.g.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \pi^+ & & \pi^- \\ \pi^0 & \leftrightarrow & \pi^0 \\ \pi^- & & \pi^+ \end{array}$$

→

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# Leptons and Quarks

The **fundamental** fermions are believed to be the electron-like particles known as **leptons** and the **quarks**.

(As we will see later, the proton and neutron – examples of **baryons** – are made of quarks. So are mesons, and together they make up the **hadrons**.)

→

The basic constituents are the **electron** and **neutrino** (leptons) and **u** and **d quarks**.

The leptons have an associated lepton number  $L$  which is (as far as we know) absolutely conserved.

$e^-$  and  $\nu$  have  $L = +1$

$e^+$  and  $\bar{\nu}$  have  $L = -1$

→

In fact, though the above 4 particles are all that is required to make the present day universe, the pattern is repeated, occurring 3 times, with heavier, unstable versions of the ordinary particles.

So, in the lepton sector we have:

	$e^-$	$\mu^-$	$\tau^-$	
mass	0.511	105.7	1777	MeV/c <sup>2</sup>
very small	$< 2 \frac{eV}{c^2}$	$< 2 \frac{eV}{c^2}$	$< 2 \frac{eV}{c^2}$	

and their antiparticles.

*[As far as this course is concerned, we will treat all three species of neutrino as massless. Recent evidence indicates that, though these masses are certainly very small – probably less than 0.1 eV – they are actually not zero. This may have important consequences for our theories of the particle families. For more information on these recent results, please see the web pages – but note this is definitely non-examinable!]*

Each generation has its own **distinct** lepton number,  $L_e, L_\mu, L_\tau$ . This is what makes the different neutrinos distinct, and forbids  $\mu \rightarrow e \gamma$

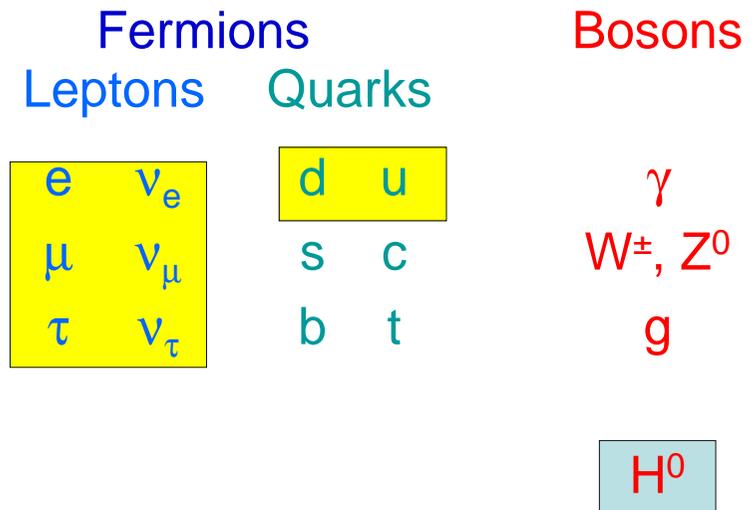
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As we will see later, the quark types can be changed by the weak interaction, so there is only a global baryon number  $B$ . Quarks have  $B = +\frac{1}{3}$ , antiquarks have  $B = -\frac{1}{3}$ .

e.g. proton (uud) has  $B = +1$ ; neutron (udd) has  $B = +1$ ;  
 $\bar{p}$  ( $\bar{u}\bar{u}\bar{d}$ ) has  $B = -1$ ;  $\pi^+$  (u $\bar{d}$ ) has  $B = 0$ .

We will discuss the heavier quarks, and the allowed combinations of quarks which form hadrons, later.

# The Standard Model of Particle Physics



**Reading for next week from “Ideas of Particle Physics”:**

- **Chapter 5 – Four forces**
- **Chapter 7 – Mesons, Yukawa etc.**

[Go to Example C](#)

**What you should have learned this week**

- **The effects of symmetry for fermions and bosons**
- **Examples of fermions & bosons; antiparticles**
- **Fundamental fermions**
  - 6 leptons, and lepton number
  - u & d quarks; baryons, mesons & hadrons
- **4-vectors**
- **2-body decay and scattering**
- **The conserved invariant  $(\Sigma E)^2 - (\Sigma p)^2$**