



## **Introduction to Neutrino Physics**

Karl Warburton (Iowa State University)

15th June 2021

#### Who am I?

- From Stoke-on-Trent in the UK.
- Went to the University of Sheffield for my undergraduate and PhD degrees.
  - Worked on simulations of cosmic rays.
  - Worked on reconstruction in neutrino experiments that use Liquid Argon Time Projection Chambers.
  - Was based at Fermilab for 2 years during my PhD.
- Currently at Iowa State University, I've been there for 3.5 years, but I'm based here at Fermilab.
  - Currently working on Supernova triggering in DUNE.
  - Currently working on neutrino oscillation measurements in NOvA, and also in charge of the Deep Learning and Reconstruction group.



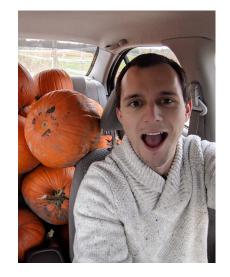


## Who am I really?

- Love sports.
  - Real football, cricket, rugby.
- Spent a year during undergrad in Australia.
  - Probably the best year of my life.
- I learned to scuba dive in New Zealand.
  - It's incredible!
- Had my mind blown when I discovered deep dish pizza
  - Also known as pizza pies.











#### **Outline**

 A quick review of The Standard Model, followed by an introduction to neutrinos

 A review of the history about how we first discovered neutrinos

The physics of neutrinos

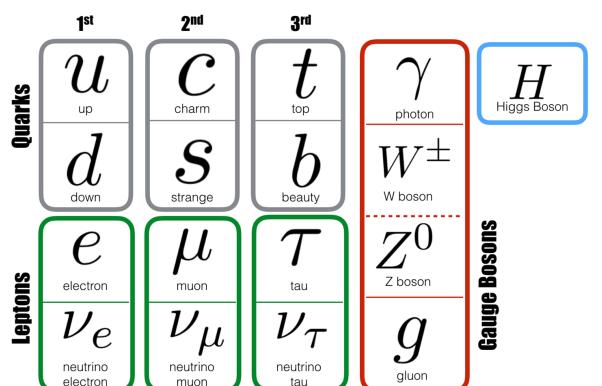
How we study neutrinos now



Illustration: © Johan Jarnestad/The Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences



## **The Standard Model of Particle Physics**



- The result of countless people's hard work.
- Aims to explain the Universe at its most fundamental level.
- The most successful theory that mankind has ever postulated.
  - But we know that it's wrong!



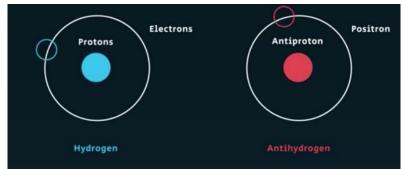
# What Does The Standard Model Not Explain?

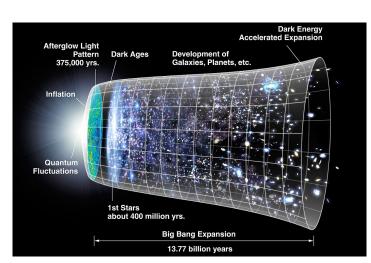
Where is all of the anti-matter?

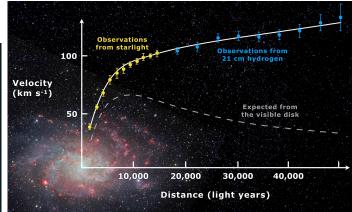
What is dark matter?

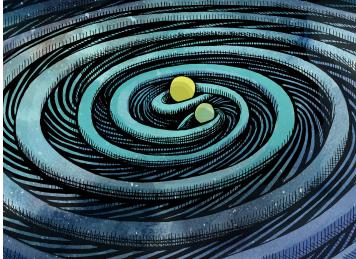
What is dark energy?

How do we explain gravity?



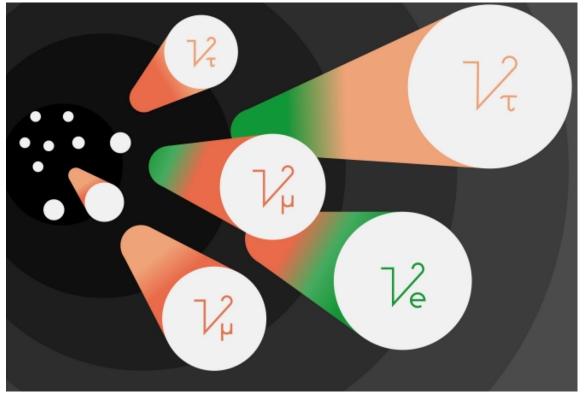








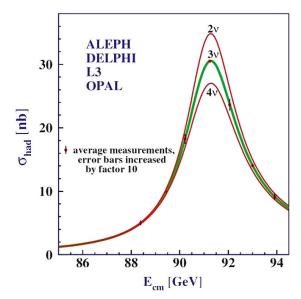
## **Neutrinos: The Other Very Large, Yet Very Small Problem**



- The most numerous particle in the Universe, yet the least understood.
- Many experiments around the World attempting to explain their properties.
- I am going to give some historical context, and then focus on neutrino oscillations, but first...



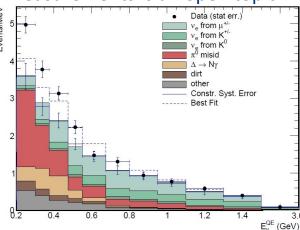
## **How Many Neutrinos Are There & How Do They Acquire Mass?**



Very accurate measurements have been made showing that there are exactly 3 "active" flavor states.

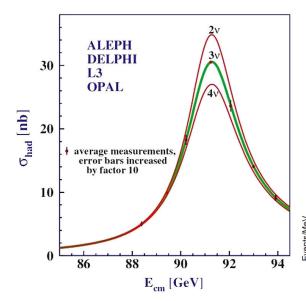
However, some experiments have made measurements which suggest additional "sterile" neutrino states to those described by the standard model.

How to accommodate these measurements is an open topic.





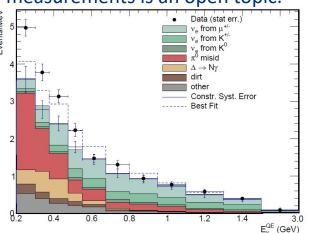
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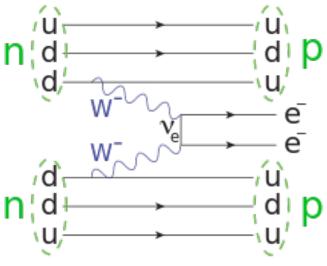


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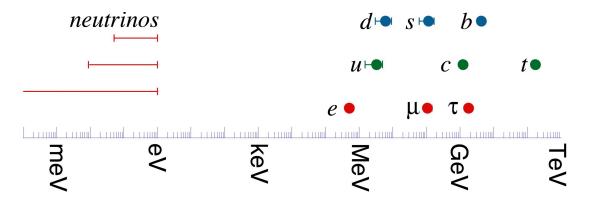




There also exists the possibility that neutrinos are their own particles, this would mean that they could acquire mass differently to all other particles (*Majorana mass*).



#### What Is The Neutrino Mass Scale?

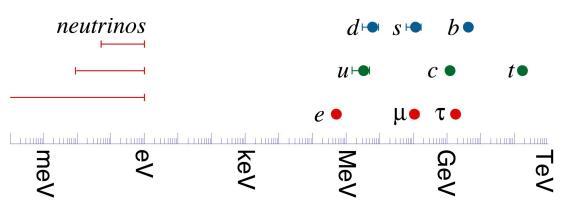


Neutrinos are much lighter than all of the other Standard Model particles, and we can't really explain why.

Measurements from cosmology and particle physics give us some upper estimates for their mass but their exact masses are unknown.



#### What Is The Neutrino Mass Scale?

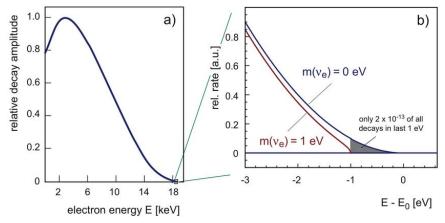


We know two neutrinos must have mass, but the third could be massless...

Need exceptionally accurate measurements to determine the mass scale of the neutrino (KATRIN)

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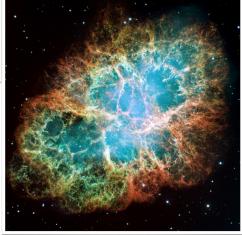


## What produces neutrinos? ... Pretty much everything!



The Big Bang, so many were produced that there currently there are still about 300 cm<sup>-3</sup>.

99% of the energy from a Supernovae is neutrinos!





Any time there is a nuclear reaction;

- Inside the Farth's core.
- At nuclear power plants
- Even bananas! The decay of potassium produces about 1M neutrinos a day.

Plus accelerators like we have at Fermilab!!!

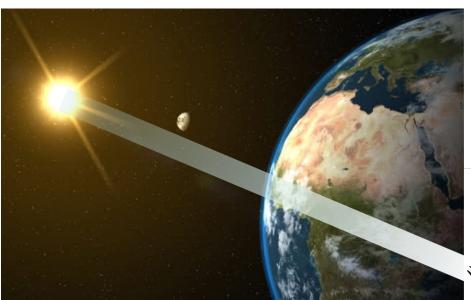


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## **How Often Do Neutrinos Interact? ... Pretty much never!**



Most particles interact quite readily, but not neutrinos!



- We'll explain why on the next slide, but neutrinos could easily travel through 200+ Earths before interacting!
  - For reference, an electron is often stopped by a few inches of material.





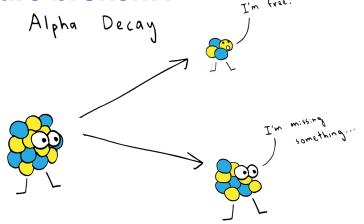
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# A Bit Of History



## The discovery of neutrinos – Is nature broken!?

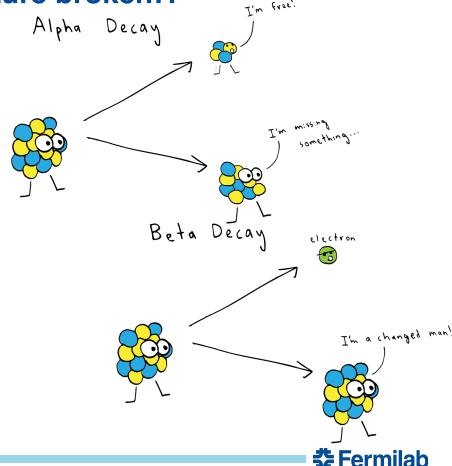
- Radioactivity is the process by which an unstable nucleus loses energy by emitting a particle.
  - The name of the decay reflects the emitted particle.
- Henri Becquerel, Marie Curie and Pierre Curie won the 1903 Nobel Prize for their work on radioactivity.





## The discovery of neutrinos – Is nature broken!?

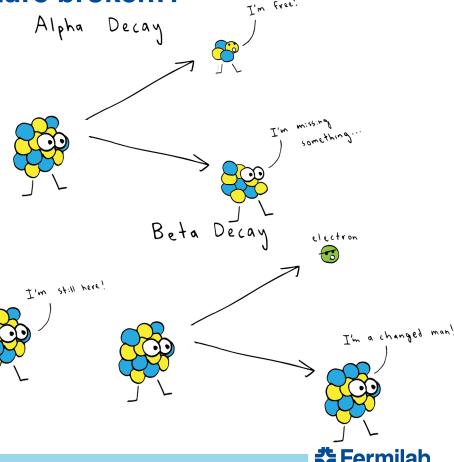
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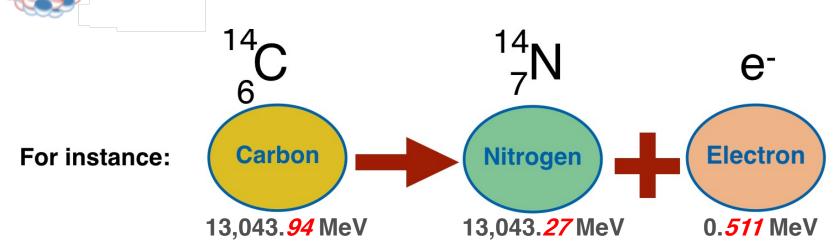
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 Henri Becquerel, Marie Curie and Pierre Curie won the 1903 Nobel Prize for their work on radioactivity. Gamma Decay



## What is beta decay?

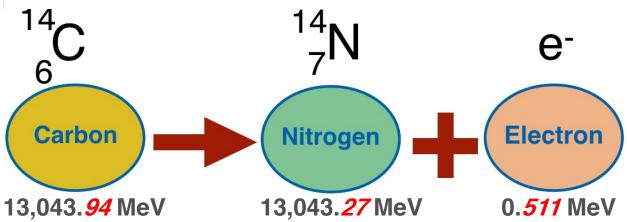
- Nitrogen-14 is more stable than Carbon-14 because it has the same number of protons and neutrons.
  - C-14, decays to N-14, and emits an electron in the process.





## What is beta decay?

- Nitrogen-14 is more stable than Carbon-14 because it has the same number of protons and neutrons.
  - C-14, decays to N-14, and emits an electron in the process.
- Due to energy conservation the electron is kicked out of the nucleus with roughly (94 {27+51} =16) *O.159 MeV* of energy.







#### Beta decay is a simple Two Body Problem:

$$A \rightarrow B + C$$

#### Conservation of Momentum:

$$p_A = p_B + p_C$$

#### Conservation of Energy:

$$E_A = E_B + E_C$$

#### Yielding:

$$E_A^2 = m_B c^2 + p_B^2 + m_C c^2 + p_C^2$$

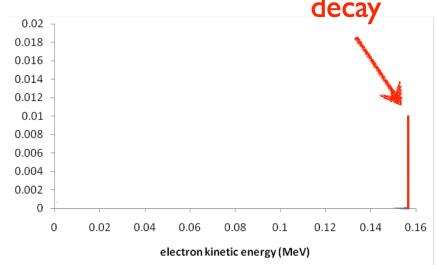
Have only two unknowns  $p_B$ ,  $p_C$ , so can be easily solved, especially if we assume:

$$p_A = 0, p_B = -p_C$$

#### Therefore:

$$p_B = 0.5 \times \sqrt{E_A^2 - m_B c^2 - m_C c^2}$$

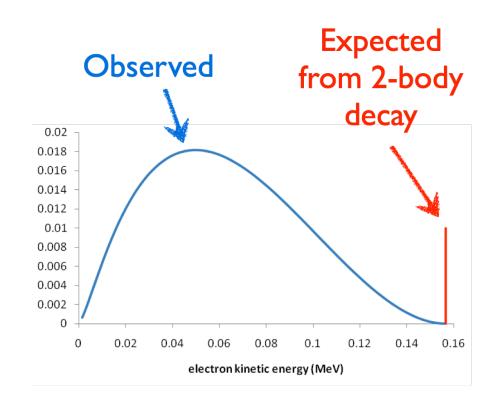
## **Expected** from 2-body decay





## **What Was Actually Observed**

- The energy of the electron emitted by beta decay isn't 159 keV though...
- This means that something that something is wrong with our model.
- Is energy not conserved in beta decay!?





#### The "Little Neutral One"



(1930) Pauli postulated an additional particle (neutral and very small) in beta decays.



(1933) Fermi formulated the theory the weak force to explain the process.



(1936) Yukawa proposed W boson as a carrier of the weak force.

4th December 1930

Dear Radioactive Ladies and Gentlemen.

As the bearer of these lines, to whom I graciously ask you to listen, will explain to you in more detail, how because of the "wrong" statistics of the N and 6Li nuclei and the continuous beta spectrum, I have hit upon a desperate remedy to save the "exchange theorem" of statistics and the law of conservation of energy. Namely, the possibility that there could exist in the nuclei electrically neutral particles, that I wish to call neutrons, which have spin and obey the exclusion principle and which further differ from light quanta in that they do not travel with the velocity of light. The mass of the neutrons should be of the same order of magnitude as the electron mass (and in any event not larger than 0.01 proton masses). The continuous beta spectrum would then become understandable by the assumption that in beta decay a neutron is emitted in addition to the electron such that the sum of the energies of the neutron and the electron is constant...

From now on, every solution to the issue must be discussed. Thus, dear radioactive people, look and judge. Unfortunately I will not be able to appear in Tubingen personally, because I am indispensible here due to a ball which will take place in Zurich during the night from December 6 to 7...

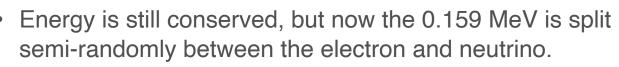
Your humble servant. W. Pauli

The neutron was discovered shortly after this letter, at which point Fermi proposed calling the above hypothesised particle the neutrino, or the "little neutral one."

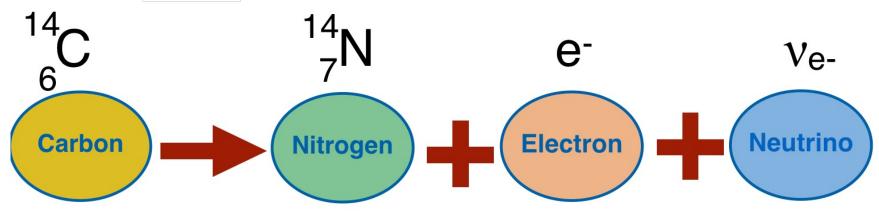


## What actually happens in beta decay then?

A neutrino is emitted from the nucleus in addition to the electron.



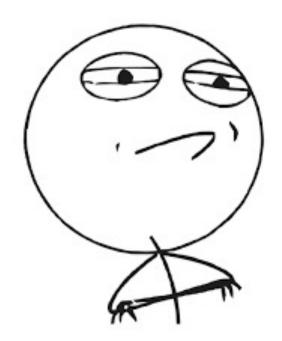
Therefore we measure a continuum of electron energies.



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## So how exactly do these "neutrino" things behave?

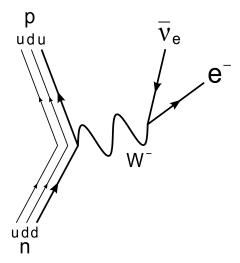
- Now that we have proposed a new particle, we need to figure out how it behaves!
- How do we produce them and in large enough numbers that we can find out something useful?





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## How do we produce neutrinos?

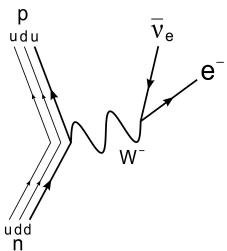


Neutrinos are produced by beta decay, but getting a large enough sample of radioactive material isn't easy.

These neutrinos are also quite low energy.



## How do we produce neutrinos?



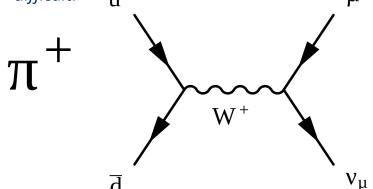
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Pions are combinations of Up and Down quarks.

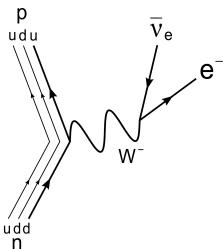
They decay very quickly (26 ns), and almost exclusively produce a muon (heavy electron) and a muon neutrino.

This is how we produce them now, but making an intense source of pions in 1940 was very difficult.  $\mu$ 





## How do we produce neutrinos?



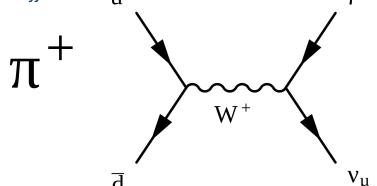
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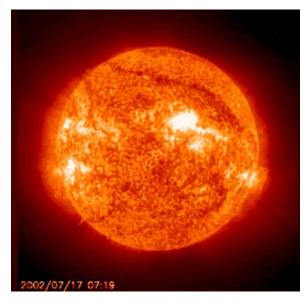
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Neutrinos are produced by the sun as it fuses Hydrogen to make Helium (fusion).

Man-made fusion reactors also make neutrinos as they split uranium into smaller elements.



## How do we produce neutrinos continued...

- In the 1950's Reines and Cowan set out to detect neutrinos at Los Alamos National Lab.
- If they could measure the neutrino, the Nobel Prize for Physics was assured.
- It had been theorised that the sun would emit neutrinos due to its fusion reactions.
  - What is the Sun but a huge nuclear reactor?





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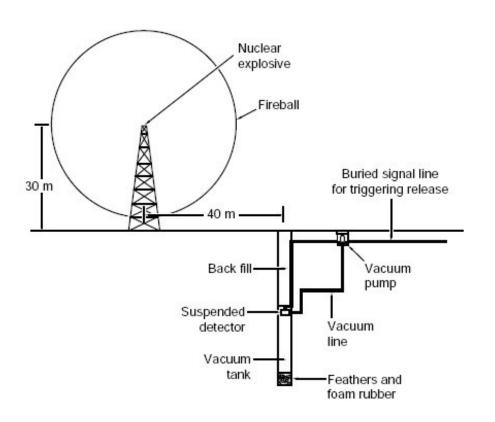
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  - What is the Sun but a huge nuclear reactor?
  - **–** ....
  - **–** ...
  - What is the Sun but a huge nuclear bomb...





## **Project Poltergeist #1.**



- Step 1. Explode nuclear bomb
- Step 2. Let the detector drop down the mine shaft at the same time.
- Step 3. Detect the neutrinos.

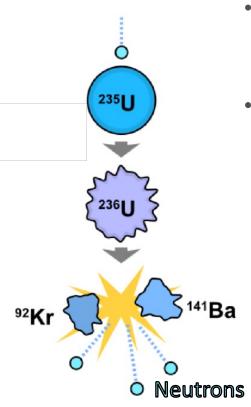
• Step 4:



Quite frankly the best experiment ever, but not very reproducible...



## **Project Poltergeist #2.**

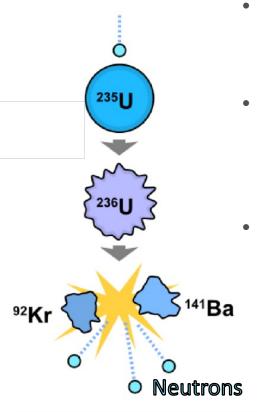


- It was noted that using the reactors at LANL might be more reproducible, sensible and simple (*read boring*).
- Neutrinos are produced when the neutrons produced by fission decay.

$$n \rightarrow p + e + \nu_e$$

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## **Project Poltergeist #2.**



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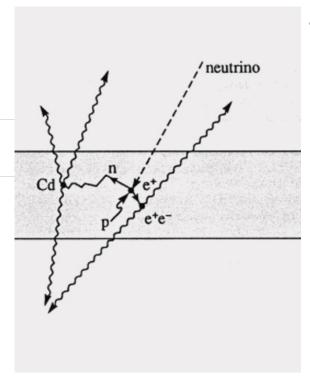
By placing a detector close to the reactor, neutrinos can be measured.





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## **Project Poltergeist #2.**



- In 1956 the neutrino was measured for the first time, by placing a Cadmium filled detector next to a reactor.
  - A rate of 0.56 neutrino interactions per hour was measured.



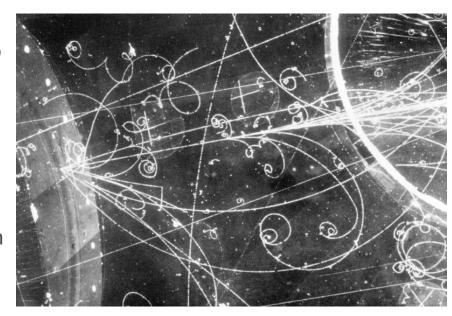


## A Short Note On Measuring Neutrinos



#### How do we measure neutrinos?

- So now, we know they exist, but we want to study them better...
- Most particles interact quite readily.
  - A bubble chamber event from a high energy collision.
  - Can see all of the individual particles, and can calculate their energy and charge by applying Electric/Magnetic fields.



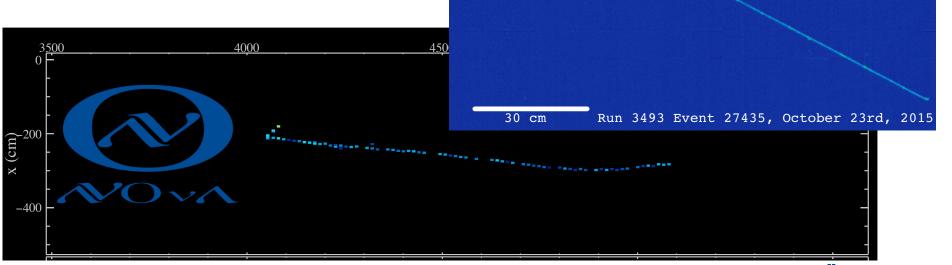
- Neutrinos don't this however.
  - They're neutral, so we don't actually see them.
  - We instead can only detect what they produce.



### **Muon Neutrino Interactions**

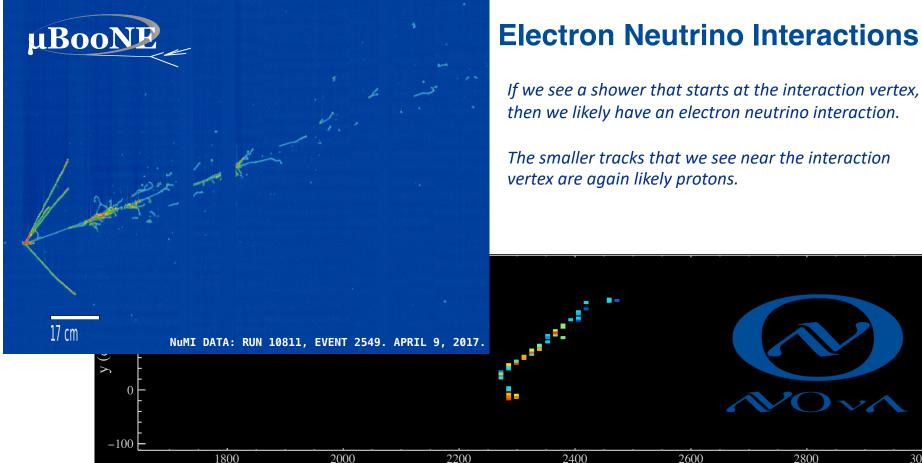
If we see a long straight track the interaction is likely due to a muon neutrino.

The smaller tracks that we see near the interaction vertex are likely protons.



μBooNE





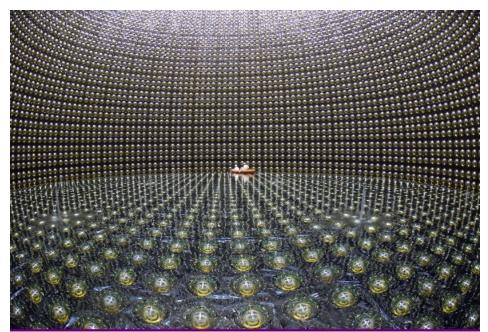


2800

3000

z (cm)

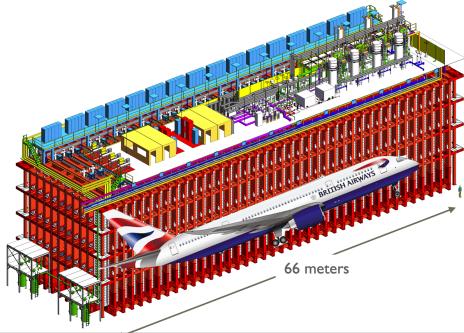
### **Neutrino Detectors Also Have To Be Huge!**



Super-Kamiokande, an experiment in Japan is 50 ktons of ultrapure water.

Hyper-Kamiokande, its successor will be 50 times larger!

DUNE, a future experiment in South Dakota will have four detectors, each as large as a Jumbo Jet Plane! (More on this later)



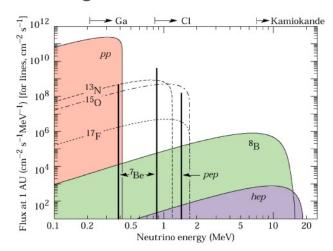


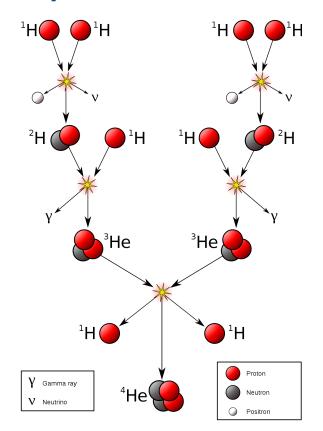
# **Back To History**



## **Studying Solar Neutrinos - The Homestake experiment**

- There are many complex reactions in the sun.
  - Neutrinos are produced at a range of energies.
- Studying the neutrinos produced can tell us important things about the Suns structure.

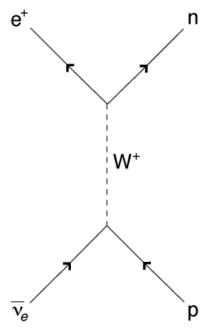






## Studying Solar Neutrinos - The Homestake experiment

- In 1961 Ray Davis proposed an experiment to measure the solar neutrino flux.
  - 615 tonnes of C<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>4</sub>, 1 mile underground in an active gold mine.
    - More on this location later!
  - Measured inverse beta decay on the Chlorine atoms
  - It was therefore only sensitive to electron neutrinos





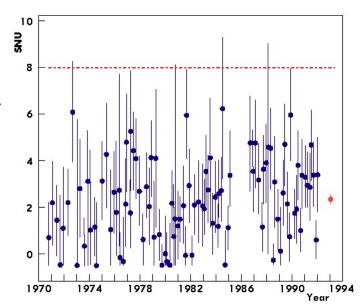
## The Homestake experiment

- Ran for 25 years, and consistently saw a rate roughly 1/3 of the expected solar flux.
  - They expected to see about 1 interaction per day, but they saw 1 interaction every 3 days.

Blue points are the number of events measured per year.

The dashed red line is the expected solar flux.

The red point is the average taken over all 25 years.



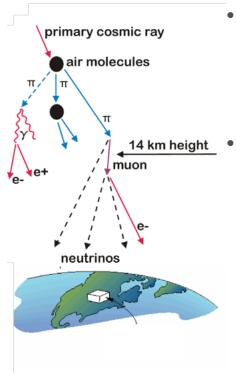




A picture of a friend of mine standing in one of the segments of the Homestake Experiment which is now on the surface.

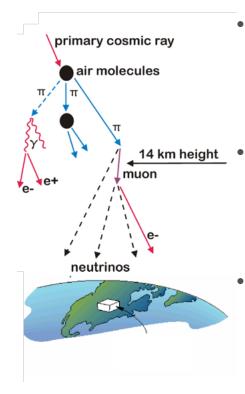


## **Atmospheric neutrinos**

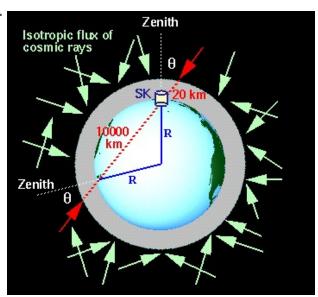


- Produced as high energy cosmic rays strike the upper atmosphere.
  - Produce particle showers (Right).
  - As these showers develop and the particles decay, you end up with  $\sim$ 2  $\nu_{\mu}$  for every  $\nu_{e}$ .

## **Atmospheric neutrinos**

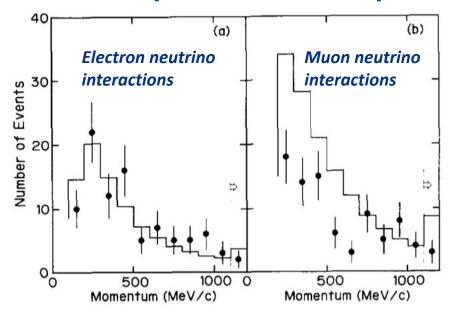


- Produced as high energy cosmic rays strike the upper atmosphere.
  - Produce particle showers (Right).
  - As these showers develop and the particles decay, you end up with  $\sim$ 2  $\nu_{\mu}$  for every  $\nu_{e}$ .
  - The Kamiokande detector set out to measure this ratio.
    - Super-Kamiokande, a larger analogue is currently still running in Japan.

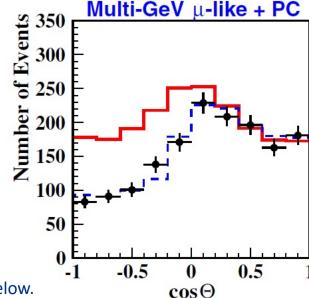




## The atmospheric neutrino problem...



- In 1988 Kamiokande released its first atmospheric neutrino measurement.
  - Only the electron neutrino results were consistent with theory.



Solid lines show the predicted fluxes in momentum and angle.

Data points show the measured number of interactions.

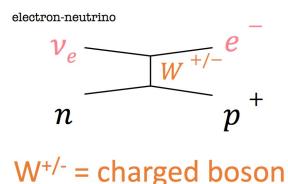
Notice that the  $v_e$  points are above and below lines, but  $v_u$  points are all below.



## Beginning to find some answers to these problems...

- The previous experiments could only measure Charged Current interactions.
  - Neutrino interacts with the nucleus and produces an electron or muon.

## charged-current



The Muon and Tau neutrinos can interact via exactly the same mechanism.

Simply replace both examples of "e" in the diagram with " $\mu$ " or " $\tau$ ".

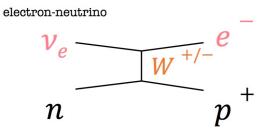


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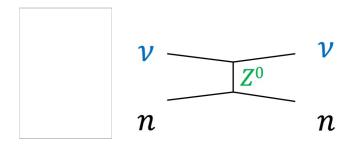
- The previous experiments could only measure Charged Current interactions.
  - Neutrino interacts with the nucleus and produces an electron or muon.
- However, the neutrino can also scatter off a nucleus without producing an electron or muon. These are called *Neutral Current* interactions.

## charged-current

## onar god odi i ono



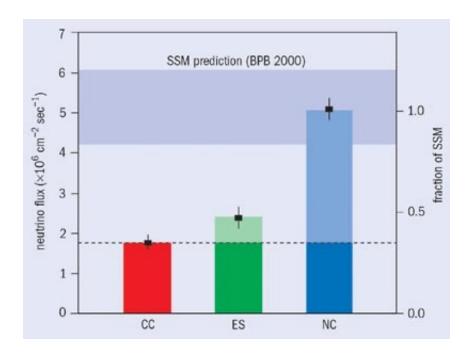
## neutral-current



$$Z^0$$
 = neutral boson



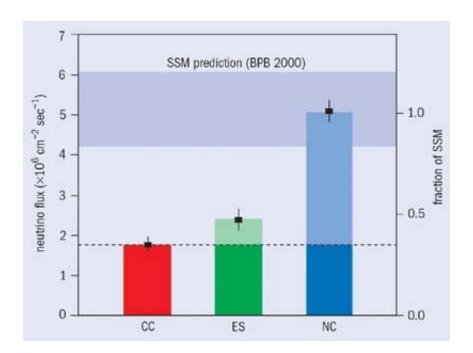
## The Sudbury Neutrino Observatory (SNO)



- In a single experiment it was possible to measure both the  $v_e$  Charged Current interactions, and the Neutral Current interactions.
- Reproduced the Homestake measurements of  $v_e$  *CC* interactions.
- Also measured the predicted number of NC interactions



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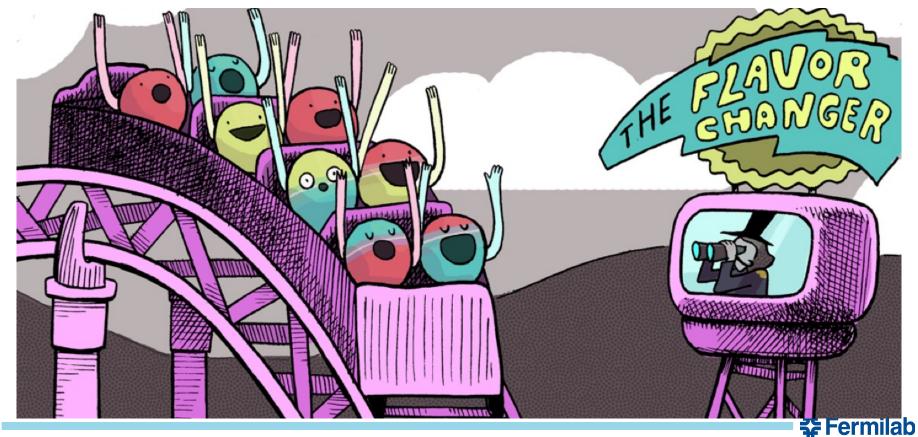


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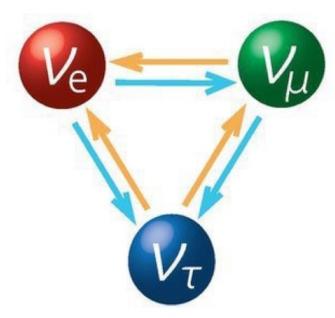
If we can find a way for electron neutrinos to change into different flavors then we can explain both the solar and atmospheric neutrino problems!



## OK, So What Is Happening?



#### The theory of neutrino oscillations A nice <u>video</u> explaining how oscillations occur.



- To explain these experiments neutrinos must be able to change (or oscillate) from one flavor to another as they travel through space.
  - Some version of this was predicted as far as back as 1957, but it really gained traction after 1988.
- Ultimately this means that the neutrinos which we observe  $\nu_e$ ,  $\nu_\mu$ ,  $\nu_\tau$  are not those that exist in nature.
  - They are so-called mass states  $\nu_1, \nu_2, \nu_3$ .
- How neutrinos oscillate between these states is described by the PMNS matrix, named after four of the theorists who proposed neutrino oscillations.



#### The simplified theory of neutrino oscillations <u>Video</u> about how oscillations occur.

describe their oscillations using the relationship

If we assume only 2 neutrinos 
$$(\alpha, \beta)$$
, and have describe their oscillations using the relationship shown to the right things are much simpler. 
$$\begin{pmatrix} v_{\alpha} \\ v_{\beta} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_{1} \\ v_{2} \end{pmatrix}$$



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This means that the flavor states are combinations of the two mass states as such

$$\nu_{\alpha} = \cos \theta \, \nu_1 + \sin \theta \, \nu_2$$
  
$$\nu_{\beta} = -\sin \theta \, \nu_1 + \cos \theta \, \nu_2$$

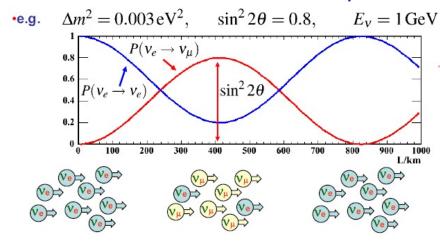
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Plugging this into the Schrodinger equation, and following a bit of maths you get the oscillation probabilities for two neutrino flavours.

$$P(\nu_{\alpha} \to \nu_{\beta}) = (|U_{\beta 1}|^{2}|U_{\alpha 1}|^{2} + |U_{\beta 2}|^{2}|U_{\alpha 2}|^{2}) + U_{\alpha 1}U_{\beta 1}^{*}U_{\alpha 2}U_{\beta 2}^{*}(e^{i(\phi_{2} - \phi_{1})} + e^{-i(\phi_{2} - \phi_{1})})$$

$$= (|U_{\beta 1}|^{2}|U_{\alpha 1}|^{2} + |U_{\beta 2}|^{2}|U_{\alpha 2}|^{2}) + 2U_{\alpha 1}U_{\beta 1}^{*}U_{\alpha 2}U_{\beta 2}^{*}cos(\phi_{2} - \phi_{1})$$

$$= (sin^{2}\theta cos^{2}\theta + cos^{2}\theta sin^{2}\theta) + 2(cos\theta)(-sin\theta)(sin\theta)(cos\theta)cos(\phi_{2} - \phi_{1})$$

$$= 2cos^{2}\theta sin^{2}\theta(1 - cos(\phi_{2} - \phi_{1}))$$

$$= 2sin^{2}(2\theta)sin^{2}(\frac{\phi_{2} - \phi_{1}}{2})$$

$$P(\nu_{\alpha} \to \nu_{\beta}) = \sin^2(2\theta)\sin^2(\frac{\Delta m^2 L}{4E_{\nu}})$$



## The theory of neutrino oscillations A nice <u>video</u> explaining how oscillations occur.

The PMNS matrix (right) mathematically explains how the three neutrino flavor states relate to the three mass states.

By expanding the PMNS matrix, and using the Schrödinger equation to explain how the flavor states propagate. It is possible to determine the probability that one neutrino flavor will oscillate into another.

The PMNS matrix (right) mathematically explains how the three neutrino flavor states relate to the three mass states. 
$$\begin{pmatrix} v_e \\ v_\mu \\ v_\tau \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{12}c_{13} & s_{12}c_{13} & s_{13}e^{-i\delta} \\ -s_{12}c_{23} - c_{12}s_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & c_{12}c_{23} - s_{12}s_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & s_{23}c_{13} \\ s_{12}s_{23} - c_{12}s_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & -c_{12}s_{23} - s_{12}s_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & c_{23}c_{13} \\ s_{12}s_{23} - c_{12}s_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & -c_{12}s_{23} - s_{12}s_{23}s_{13}e^{i\delta} & c_{23}c_{13} \\ s_{1j} \equiv sin(\theta_{ij}) \ c_{ij} \equiv cos(\theta_{ij})$$

$$|v_j(t)\rangle = e^{-i(E_j \cdot t - \vec{p_j} \cdot \vec{x_j})} |v_j(0)\rangle$$

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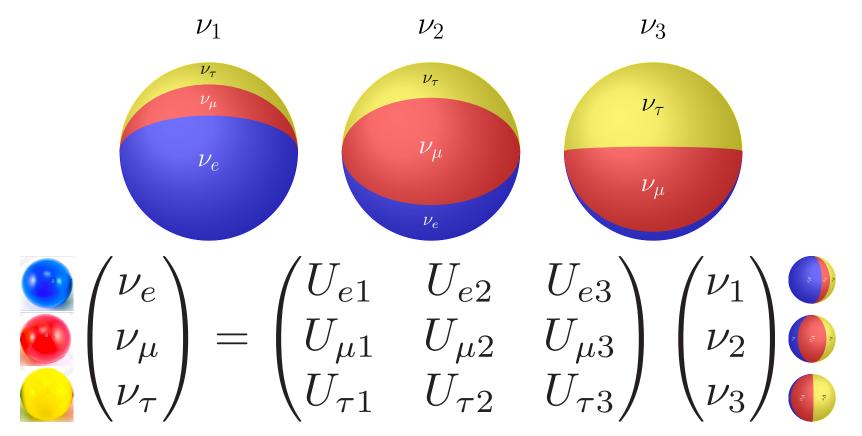
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 $+\cos^2\theta_{23}\sin^22\theta_{12}\frac{\sin^2(aL)}{(aL)^2}\Delta_{12}^2$ 

## **Visualising Neutrino Mixing & Oscillations**





### **Three Flavour Neutrino Oscillations**

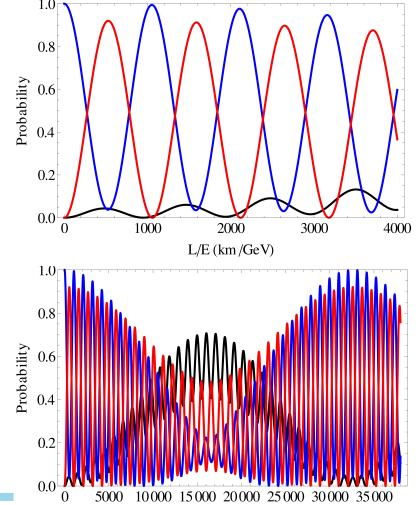
Can see the effect of two mass squared differences.

Start with a primarily  $v_{\mu}$  beam.

Can see that at "low" L/E most neutrinos oscillate to  $v_{\tau}$  and back.

However, can see that as L/E increases, you get more  $v_e s$ , and by the time you get to a L/E of around 16,000 60% of the neutrinos are  $v_e s$ .

The NOvA and DUNE experiments are both built such that they as close as possible to the first oscillation maximum around  $L/E=500 \ km/GeV$ .



L/E (km/GeV)

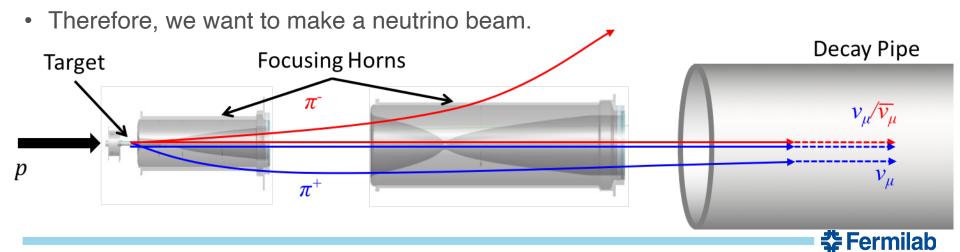
## The Nobel Prize for the Discovery of Neutrino Oscillations



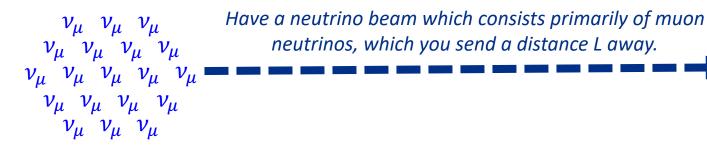


## Making The Most Accurate Measurements Possible

- Atmospheric and Solar neutrinos are unlimited, and continuous, however we can't choose their energies, or the distance that they travel.
  - Heavily limits the neutrino physics that we can do with them.
- To make the best measurements, we want to study;
  - Neutrinos with well defined energies
  - Neutrinos that have travelled well defined distances



### **How Does This Work In Practice?**





### **How Does This Work In Practice?**

After travelling a distance L, most neutrinos will have oscillated from one flavor to another.

For NOvA L = 800 km & For DUNE L = 1300 km

In accelerator experiments the  $v_{\mu}s$  largely change to  $v_{\tau}s$ 

 $\nu_{\tau}$   $\nu_{\tau}$   $\nu_{u}$ 



#### **How Does This Work In Practice?**

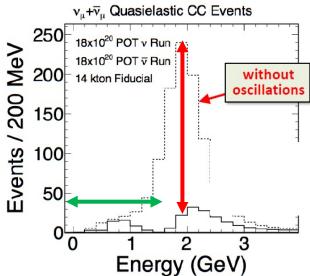


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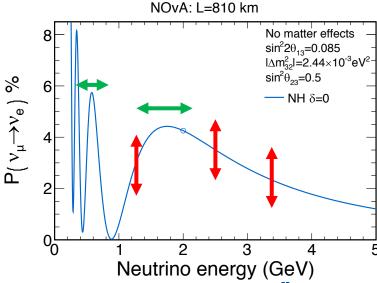
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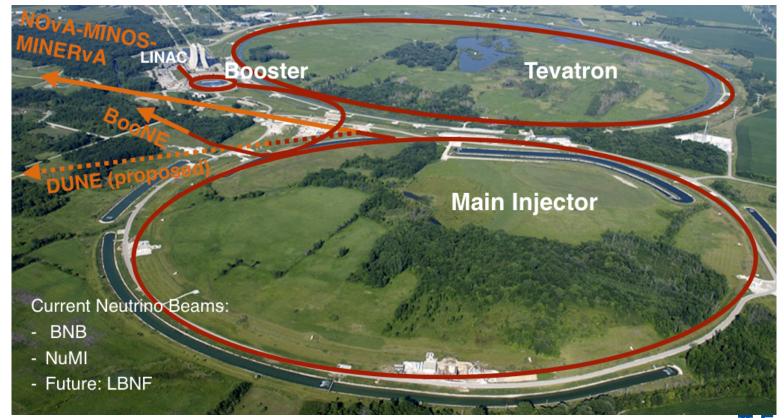


Mixing Angle values determine the magnitude of Oscs.

Mass Squared Diffs determine the energies at which Max Osc occurs.

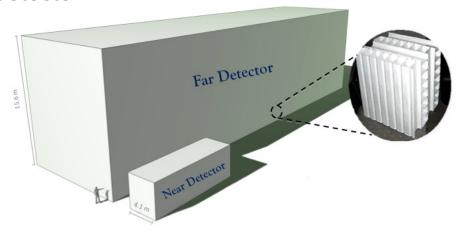


## The Fermilab Neutrino Program



## The NOvA Experiment

- Sends a beam of muon neutrinos 810 km (500 miles) from Fermilab to Northern Minnesota.
- Consists of 2 detectors, one here at Fermilab, one in Minnesota.
- Detects the number of muon and electron neutrinos in each detector.

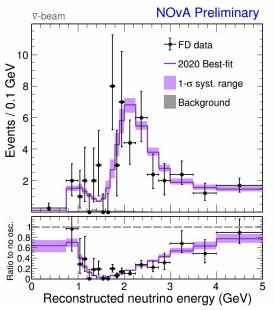


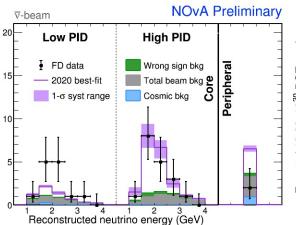


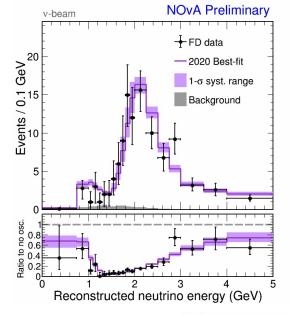


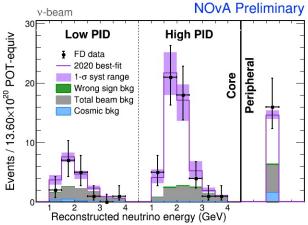
## **Latest Results From NOvA**

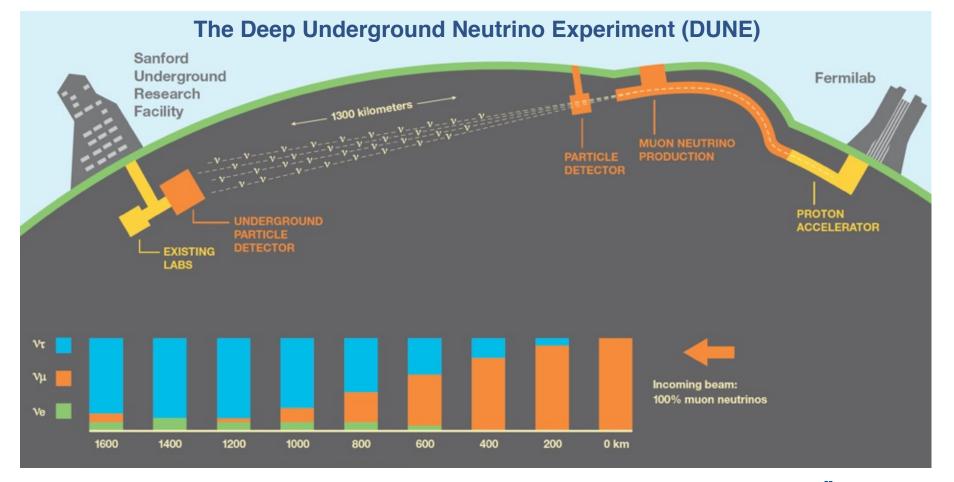
- The PMNS matrix allows NOvA to predict the number of observed events for different neutrino mixing params.
- By calculating the energy of  $v_{\mu}$ 's and  $v_{e}$ 's detected at Far Detector ក្ខ it is possible to extract the true value of these parameters.







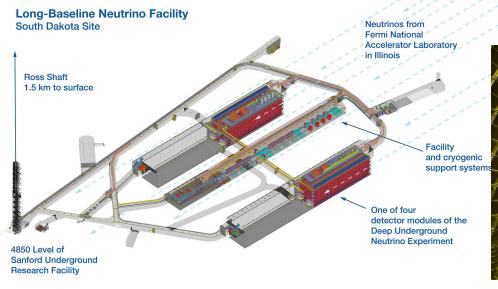


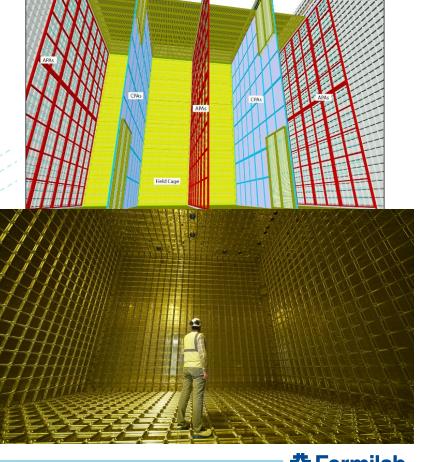




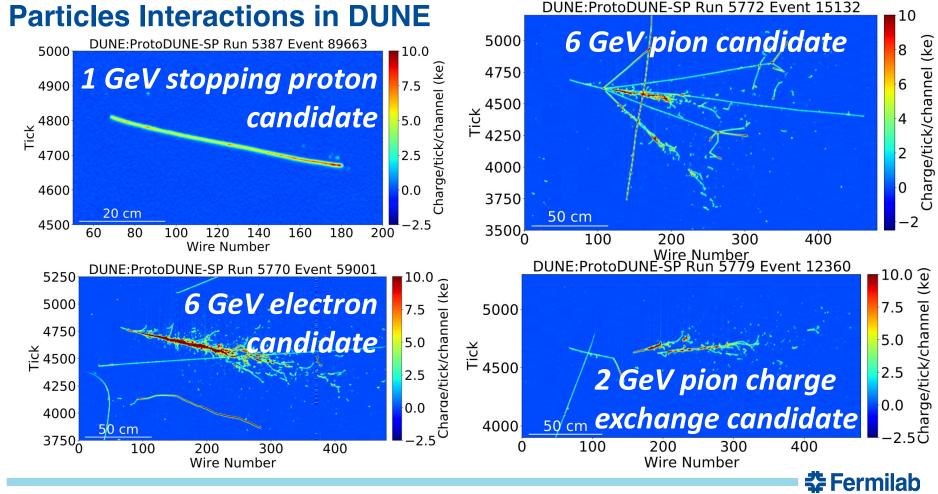
### The DUNE Far Detectors

A huge engineering endeavor. The detector is 1 mile underground, consists of four separate modules, and each module is in effect 200 separate detectors. Will be filled with Liquid Argon (-303 F/-186 C/87 K).





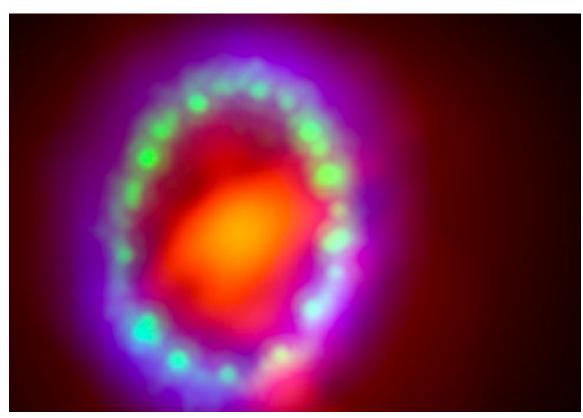




# A Couple Of Cool Other Things

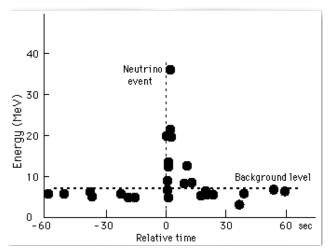


## **The Detection of Supernova Neutrinos – 1987a**



Saw less than 30 neutrinos in total. With the next generation of experiments, we could see 10k+!

We detected the neutrinos from 1987a 2 hours before the light!



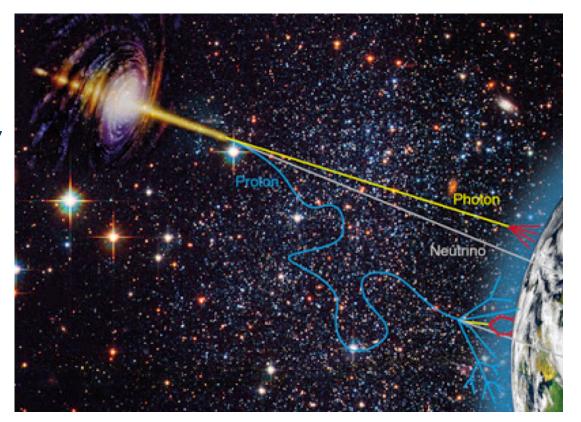


## **Multi-Messenger Astronomy**

We know that we can detect multiple signals from astronomical events;

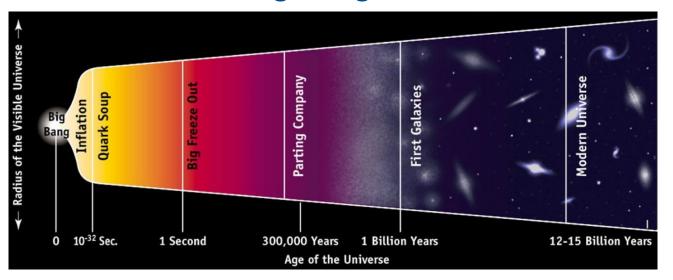
- SN 1987a: saw light and neutrinos.
- Neutron star collision (Aug 2017): saw gravitational wave, gamma ray burst and an optical signal.
- Blazar: IceCube noticed an extremely high energy neutrino event. Gamma rays from a blazar were later identified to come from the same point in the sky.

Now looking for neutrino signals from all high-energy astronomical events.
The signals will be weak, but the knowledge gained will be huge!





## **Relic Neutrinos From The Big Bang**



Produced when the Universe was 1 s old.

In comparison the CMB became stable when the Universe was 300k years old, so much older info! We are surrounded by these neutrinos, but they are extremely low energy.

We struggle to identify accelerator neutrinos which are  $10^{10}$  times more energetic, so detecting these particles will be very hard...



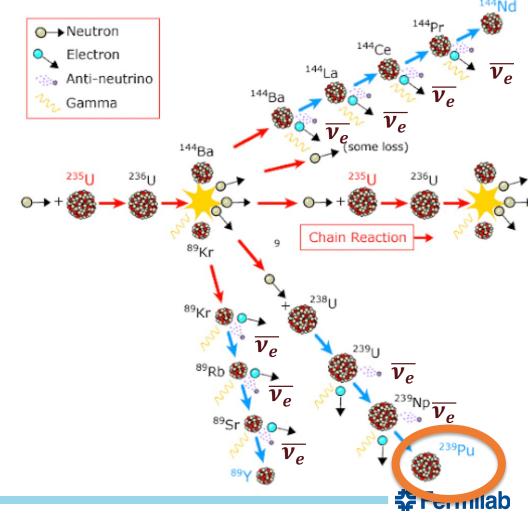
#### **Nuclear Non-Proliferation**

The first neutrinos were observed from a nuclear reactor, and they are still a reliable source of neutrinos.

As nuclear reactions progress, many **electron anti-neutrinos** are produced which cannot be stopped.

Nuclear weapons use a product of this reactions (*Plutonium 239*) which will decay, producing neutrinos of different energies.

By detecting neutrinos from these decays one can monitor if nuclear/weapons research is being performed from great distances.



## A Recap Of Neutrino Physics & The Remaining Questions

- Neutrinos are one of the least understood Standard Model Particles.
  - This despite being the most common particle in the Universe
- They are the first known evidence of physics beyond the Standard Model
- They undergo a process known as oscillation.
  - They change flavor as they travel long distances.
- There many experiments running and planned to better understand neutrinos.
  - Fermilab is one of the few places in the World to do this!

### We have come a long way in the last 50 years but many questions remain.

- 1. Why are neutrino masses so small?
- 2. What is the neutrino mass scale and what order are the masses in?
- 3. How do neutrinos acquire mass?

- 4. Are there only 3 types of neutrino?
- 5. What exactly are the parameters which control neutrino oscillations?
- 6. What cool stuff can we do with them?



15/6/2021

## Some Additional Slides

