Neutrínos from the Heavens & the Earth

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Where do neutrínos come from?

Where do neutrínos come from?

Neutrinos from the Heavens

Where do neutrinos come from?

Neutrinos from the Heavens

Neutrinos from the Earth

Where do neutrínos come from?

Neutrinos from the Heavens

Neutrinos from the Earth

Neutrínos from Man

Where do neutrínos come from?

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Where do neutrínos come from...?





Within the Framework



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Límíted Interactions

Unlike all the other particles, neutrinos can only interact via with the weak force.

The number of interactions, therefore, is quite limited.



Common to all particles; mediated by the W±/Z° bosons.



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Most interactions are limited to two basic type of interactions:





Most interactions are limited to two basic type of interactions: A charge W± is exchanged: Charged Current Exchange





Most interactions are limited to two basic type of interactions: A charge W± is exchanged: Charged Current Exchange A neutral Z° is exchanged: Neutral Current Exchange





Most interactions are limited to two basic type of interactions: A charge W± is exchanged: Charged Current Exchange A neutral Z^o is exchanged: Neutral Current Exchange All neutrino reactions involve some version of these two exchanges.

How Neutrínos Interact

- If we are to consider sources of neutrinos, it is important to review how neutrinos interact with the other particles in the Standard Model.
- Consider the first model of the weak interaction, as proposed by Fermi:





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- Here, the theory describes a 4-point interaction (current-current model).
- The system does not have many of the features of the Standard Model, yet still remarkably descriptive

The strength of the interaction is governed by the fermi constant, G_F

Within the Standard Model

- In the Standard Model, the theory is not just a vector theory (like electromagnetism), but has both vector and axial vector components.
- The SM does not treat left-handed and righthanded particles the same!



$$\mathcal{H} = \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} [\bar{e}\gamma_\mu (1 - \gamma_5)\nu_e] [\bar{\Phi}_n \gamma^\mu (V - A\gamma_5)\Phi_p]$$

Note the presence of both vector (V) and axial vector (A) terms.



Sheldon Glashow, Abdus Salam, and Steven Weinberg sharing the Nobel Prize, 1979

The strength of the interaction is still governed by the fermi constant, $G_{\rm F}$

AMísnomer

• Consider now the propagator, which is a heavy gauge boson.

$$n$$
 $W^ \bar{\nu}_e$
 p

$$\mathcal{H} = \frac{G_F}{\sqrt{2}} [\bar{e}\gamma_\mu (1 - \gamma_5)\nu_e] [\bar{\Phi}_n \gamma^\mu (V - A\gamma_5)\Phi_p]$$

 For (massive) gauge bosons, the propagator is dominated by the mass of the exchange particle...

$$\frac{g_W^2}{q^2 - M_W^2}$$

• Even if g_w is the same order as the electromagnetic coupling, the mass of the W-boson makes it extremely small.

G_F is a small number...

$$G_F = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{8} \frac{g_W^2}{M_W^2} = 1.166 \times 10^{-5} \text{GeV}^{-2}$$

Case Study: Neutríno-Lepton scattering

- We can study one of the simpler crosssections, where the interaction is solely with another lepton (neutrinolepton scattering).
- The two-body interaction (and the smallness of the neutrino mass) simplify the cross-section to allow a direct connection with the matrix element (IMI²).

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dq^2} = \frac{1}{16\pi} \frac{|\mathcal{M}|^2}{(s - (m_e + m_\nu)^2)(s - (m_e - m_\nu)^2)}$$
$$\frac{d\sigma}{dq^2} = \frac{1}{16\pi} \frac{|\mathcal{M}|^2}{(s - m_e^2)^2}$$

Case Study: Neutríno-Lepton scattering (2)



Charged Current

$$\nu_{\ell} + e^{-} \rightarrow \ell^{-} + \nu_{e} \quad (\ell = \mu \text{ or } \tau).$$
$$\mathcal{M}_{CC} = -\frac{G_{F}}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\left(\bar{\nu}_{\mu} \gamma^{\mu} (1 - \gamma^{5}) \nu_{\mu} \right) \left(\bar{\nu}_{e} \gamma_{\mu} (1 - \gamma^{5}) e \right) \right]$$

$$\frac{d\sigma(\nu_e e \to \nu_e \ell)}{dy} = \frac{2m_e G_F^2 E_\nu}{\pi} \left(1 - \frac{m_\ell^2 - m_e^2}{2m_e E_\nu}\right)$$

Consider the case of just the charged current process to apply (e.g. $l \approx \mu$ or t) The SM has a simple prediction for the cross-section as a function of inelasticity (y). At sufficiently high energies, where the threshold is irrelevant, we have the simple scaling...

$$\sigma \simeq \frac{2m_e G_F^2 E_\nu}{\pi} = \frac{G_F^2 s}{\pi}$$

Case Study: Neutríno-Lepton scattering (3)

$$\bar{\nu}_e + e \to \bar{\nu}_\ell + \ell$$

$$\frac{d\sigma(\bar{\nu}_e e \to \bar{\nu}_\ell \ell)}{dy} = \frac{2m_e G_F^2 E_\nu}{\pi} \cdot \left((1-y)^2 - \frac{(m_\ell^2 - m_e^2)(1-y)}{2m_e E_\nu} \right)$$

Due to the available spins, the cross-section for the anti-neutrino version of this process looks different (helicity dependence)

Case Study: Neutral Current Processes



Neutral Current

$$\mathcal{M}_{\rm NC} = -\sqrt{2}G_F \left[\bar{\nu}_{\mu}\gamma^{\mu} (g_V^{\nu} - g_A^{\nu}\gamma^5)\nu_{\mu} \right] \times \left[\bar{e}\gamma_{\mu} (g_V^f - g_A^f\gamma^5)e \right].$$

Now, let's examine a process by which the matrix incorporates the neutral current interaction.

The process now allows one to be sensitive to the Weinberg mixing angle directly

Case Study: Neutral Current Processes

Neutrino Scattering

$$\frac{d\sigma(\nu_{\ell}e \to \nu_{\ell}e)}{dy} = \frac{m_e G_F^2 E_{\nu}}{2\pi} \{ (g_V + g_A)^2 + (g_V - g_A)^2 \left((1 - y)^2 - (g_V^2 - g_A^2) \frac{m_e y}{E_{\nu}} \right) \}$$

Anti-Neutrino Scattering

$$\frac{d\sigma(\bar{\nu}_{\ell}e \to \bar{\nu}_{\ell}e)}{dy} = \frac{m_e G_F^2 E_{\nu}}{2\pi} \{ (g_V - g_A)^2 + (g_V + g_A)^2 \left((1 - y)^2 - (g_V^2 - g_A^2) \frac{m_e y}{E_{\nu}} \right) \}$$

Neutrino scattering thus becomes a powerful early test of the Standard Model couplings.

(N.B. if the incoming neutrino is an electron neutrino, there is an interference term between CC and NC (shift $g_{A/V}$ to $g_{A/V}$ +1))

Standard Model Tests

At high energies, even the total crosssections stand as precision tests of the Standard Model by probing the weak mixing angle.

Gargamelle experiment as a prime example of the observation of neutral currents.



The first candidate leptonic neutral-current event from the Gargamelle CERN experiment.

Reaction	Туре	$\sigma(E_{\nu} \gg E_{\rm thresh})/\sigma_0$
$\nu_e e^- \rightarrow \nu_e e^-$	CC and NC	$\frac{1}{4} + \sin^2\theta_W + \frac{4}{3}\sin^4\theta_W$
$\bar{\nu}_e e^- \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e e^-$	CC and NC	$\frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{3}\sin^2\theta_W + \frac{4}{3}\sin^4\theta_W$
$\bar{\nu}_e e^- \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_\mu \mu^-$	CC	$\frac{1}{3}$
$\nu_{\mu}e^{-} \rightarrow \nu_{e}\mu^{-}$	CC	1
$\nu_{\mu}e^{-} \rightarrow \nu_{\mu}e^{-}$	NC	$\frac{1}{4} - \sin^2\theta_W + \frac{4}{3}\sin^4\theta_W$
$\bar{\nu}_{\mu}e^{-} \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_{\mu}e^{-}$	NC	$\frac{1}{12} - \frac{1}{3}\sin^2\theta_W + \frac{4}{3}\sin^4\theta_W$

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From Simple to not-so-Simple

$$\mathcal{H}_{W}^{\text{CC}} = \frac{G_{F}V_{ud}}{\sqrt{2}} \int [J^{\text{CC},\mu}(\vec{x})H^{\text{CC}}_{\mu}(\vec{x}) + \text{H.c.}]d\vec{x}$$
$$\mathcal{H}_{W}^{\text{NC}} = \frac{G_{F}}{\sqrt{2}} \int [J^{\text{NC},\mu}(\vec{x})H^{\text{NC}}_{\mu}(\vec{x}) + \text{H.c.}]d\vec{x},$$

$$H_{\mu}^{\rm CC}(\vec{x}) = V_{\mu}^{\pm}(\vec{x}) + A_{\mu}^{\pm}(\vec{x})$$

$$H^{\rm NC}_{\mu}(\vec{x}) = (1 - 2\sin^2\theta_W)V^0_{\mu}(\vec{x}) + A^0_{\mu}(\vec{x}) - 2\sin^2\theta_W V^s_{\mu}$$

Leptonic interactions illustrate the simplest case of neutrino cross-sections, since the target has no internal structure and there is no inner structure (aside from spin). When it comes to nuclei / hadronic / atomic matter, the inner structure can play a major role in the cross-section behavior.

Convenient to introduce a spectral function, $S(q, \omega)$, to capture inner structure

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What Neutrínos do I Expect?

- The neutrinos that I would expect from a known source depends almost entirely on the energy (and type of matter) that is available for the reaction.
- If lepton flavor is conserved, then even the type of neutrino can be determined. However, neutrino oscillations clearly spoils this rule.
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 $E_v MeV$



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Ev~GeV - TeV

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 $E_v >> TeV$



What we will cover:

Where do neutrínos come from?

Neutrínos from the Heavens

Neutrínos from the Earth

Neutrínos from Man



Neutrínos from

the Cosmos



Neutrínos from

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Neutríno Decoupling

- Inference about the existence of the relic neutrino background comes from knowledge of the primordial photon background.
- As the universe expands (cools), neutrinos transition from a state where they are in thermal equilibrium with electrons, to one where they are decoupled from them.
- Standard model yields predictions for this decoupling temperature.



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$$\label{eq:Gamma} \begin{split} \Gamma = &<\sigma~n~v>\simeq \frac{16G_F^2}{\pi^3}~(g_L^2+g_R^2)~T^5 \\ & \text{Annihilation Rate} \end{split}$$



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$$\begin{split} H(t) &= 1.66 g_*^{1/2} \frac{T^2}{m_{\rm Planck}} \\ & {\rm Expansion \ Rate} \end{split}$$

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Neutríno decoupling occurs when two rates are equal.

 $T_D(\nu_e) \simeq 2.4 \text{ MeV}$ $T_D(\nu_{\mu,\tau}) \simeq 3.7 \text{ MeV}$

 $H(t) = 1.66g_*^{1/2} \frac{T^2}{m_{\text{Planck}}}$ Expansion Rate

- The presence of neutrinos have a vast impact on our understanding of the universe's chronology.
- Precision cosmology can now look at the consistency of the theory across different epochs. Neutrinos play a role across each of these phases.



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Cosmic Microwave Background 400 kyrs



Large Scale Structures Recent Epoch

Any Chance to Detect the CvB?



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$^{3}H + V_{e} \implies ^{3}He^{+} + e^{-}$



The process is energetically allowed even at zero momentum.

This threshold-less reaction allows for relic neutrino detection

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Neutríno Capture

Has three main advantages:

- (i) The process is exothermic. There is enough energy for the decay to occur (because beta decay will happen anyway). Thus, it is threshold-less.
- (ii) Electron energy is almost monoenergetic, after the endpoint energy.
- (iii) For tritium, 100 g corresponds to 10 events/year.

$$\begin{split} \lambda_{\nu} &= \int \sigma_{\nu} \cdot v \cdot f(p_{\nu}) (\frac{dp}{2\pi})^{3} _{\text{Neutrino Capture Rate}} \\ \sigma_{\nu} \cdot \frac{v}{c} &= (7.84 \pm 0.03) \times 10^{-45} cm^{2} _{\text{Tritium Cross-Section}} \end{split}$$



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Any other way? Coherence may provide an option...

Neutrínos from the Stars

 Stellar deaths are also powerful sources of neutrinos, as nearly all of the gravitational energy from the collapse is radiated away by neutrinos. Ev~10-20 MeV

• Can be observed via sudden bursts of neutrino flux, with times characteristic of the stellar collapse.

Neutrínos from the Stars

- Core-collapse supernovae are truly unique environments in our known universe:
 - Incredible matter densities: 1011-1015 g/cm3
 - Extreme high temperature: 1-50 MeV
 - Highest recorded energetic processes in the Universe: 10⁵¹⁻⁵³ ergs
- At these energies, all species of neutrinos can be produced:

$$e^{+} e^{-} \leftrightarrow \nu_{i} \bar{\nu}_{i}$$
$$\nu_{e} n \leftrightarrow p e^{-}$$
$$\bar{\nu}_{e} p \leftrightarrow n e^{+}$$

H He

C Ne O Si

Supernovae Detection

- Supernovae SN1987A detected using neutrino detectors, making use of the characteristic short burst of neutrinos.
- Still waiting for another such type of explosion close enough for detection









Neutrínos from our star... (the Sun)

MARCH 1, 1939

PHYSICAL REVIEW

VOLUME 55

Energy Production in Stars*

H. A. BETHE Cornell University, Ithaca, New York (Received September 7, 1938)

It is shown that the most important source of energy in ordinary stars is the reactions of carbon and nitrogen with protons. These reactions form a cycle in which the original nucleus is reproduced, viz. $C^{12}+H=N^{13}$, $N^{13}=C^{13}+\epsilon^+$, $C^{13}+H=N^{14}$, $N^{14}+H=O^{16}$, $O^{15}=N^{15}+\epsilon^+$, $N^{16}+H=C^{12}$ +He⁴. Thus carbon and nitrogen merely serve as catalysts for the combination of four protons (and two electrons) into an *a*-particle (§7).

The carbon-nitrogen reactions are unique in their cyclical character (§8). For all nuclei lighter than carbon, reaction with protons will lead to the emission of an *a*-particle so that the original nucleus is permanently destroyed. For all nuclei heavier than fluorine, only radiative capture of the protons occurs, also destroying the original nucleus. Oxygen and fluorine reactions mostly lead back to nitrogen. Besides, these heavier nuclei react much more slowly than C and N and are therefore unimportant for the energy production.

The agreement of the carbon-nitrogen reactions with observational data (\$7, 9) is excellent. In order to give the correct energy evolution in the sun, the central temperature of the sun would have to be 18.5 million degrees while

§1. INTRODUCTION

THE progress of nuclear physics in the last few years makes it possible to decide rather definitely which processes can and which cannot occur in the interior of stars. Such decisions will be attempted in the present paper, the discussion being restricted primarily to main sequence stars. The results will be at variance with some current hypotheses.

The first main result is that, under present conditions, no elements heavier than helium can be built up to any appreciable extent. Therefore we must assume that the heavier elements were built up *before* the stars reached their present state of temperature and density. No attempt will be made at speculations about this previous state of stellar matter.

The energy production of stars is then due entirely to the combination of four protons and two electrons into an α -particle. This simplifies the discussion of stellar evolution inasmuch as integration of the Eddington equations gives 19. For the brilliant star Y Cygni the corresponding figures are 30 and 32. This good agreement holds for all bright stars of the main sequence, but, of course, not for giants.

For fainter stars, with lower central temperatures, the reaction $H+H=D+e^+$ and the reactions following it, are believed to be mainly responsible for the energy production. (§10)

It is shown further (\$5-6) that no elements heavier than He⁴ can be built up in ordinary stars. This is due to the fact, mentioned above, that all elements up to boron are disintegrated by proton bombardment (α -emission!) rather than built up (by radiative capture). The instability of Be⁸ reduces the formation of heavier elements still further. The production of neutrons in stars is likewise negligible. The heavier elements found in stars must therefore have existed already when the star was formed.

Finally, the suggested mechanism of energy production is used to draw conclusions about astrophysical problems, such as the mass-luminosity relation (§10), the stability against temperature changes (§11), and stellar evolution (§12).

the amount of heavy matter, and therefore the opacity, does not change with time.

The combination of four protons and two electrons can occur essentially only in two ways. The first mechanism starts with the combination of two protons to form a deuteron with positron emission, *viz*.

 $H + H = D + \epsilon^+. \tag{1}$

The deuteron is then transformed into He⁴ by further capture of protons; these captures occur very rapidly compared with process (1). The second mechanism uses carbon and nitrogen as catalysts, according to the chain reaction

$$\begin{array}{ll} C^{12} + H = N^{13} + \gamma, & N^{13} = C^{13} + \epsilon^+ \\ C^{13} + H = N^{14} + \gamma, & \\ N^{14} + H = O^{15} + \gamma, & O^{15} = N^{15} + \epsilon^+ \\ N^{15} + H = C^{12} + He^4. \end{array}$$
(2)

The catalyst C^{12} is reproduced in all cases except about one in 10,000, therefore the abundance of carbon and nitrogen remains practically unchanged (in comparison with the change of the number of protons). The two reactions (1) and

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(H. A. Bethe, Phys. Rev. 33, 1939)

^{*} Awarded an A. Cressy Morrison Prize in 1938, by the New York Academy of Sciences.

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VOLUME 55 MARCH 1, 1939 PHYSICAL REVIEW VOLUME 55 MARCH 1, 1939 PHYSICAL REVIEW **Energy Production in Stars*** H. A. BETHE Cornell University, Ithaca, New York (Received September 7, 1938) ordi pro It is shown that the most important source of energy in integration of the Eddington equations gives 19. For the nuc ordinary stars is the reactions of carbon and nitrogen with C13 protons. These reactions form a cycle in which the original +E

nucleus is reproduced, viz. $C^{12}+H=N^{13}$, $N^{13}=C^{13}+\epsilon^+$, $C^{13} + H = N^{14}$, $N^{14} + H = O^{15}$, $O^{15} = N^{15} + \epsilon^+$, $N^{15} + H = C^{12}$ +He⁴. Thus carbon and nitrogen merely serve as catalysts for the combination of four protons (and two electrons) into an α -particle (§7).

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The carbon-nitrogen reactions are unique in their cyclical character (§8). For all nuclei lighter than carbon, reaction with protons will lead to the emission of an α -particle so that the original nucleus is permanently destroyed. For all nuclei heavier than fluorine, only radiative capture of the protons occurs, also destroying the original nucleus. Oxygen and fluorine reactions mostly lead back to nitrogen. Besides, these heavier nuclei react much more slowly than C and N and are therefore unimportant for the energy production.

The agreement of the carbon-nitrogen reactions with observational data (§7, 9) is excellent. In order to give the correct energy evolution in the sun, the central temperature of the sun would have to be 18.5 million degrees while

brilliant star Y Cygni the corresponding figures are 30 and 32. This good agreement holds for all bright stars of the main sequence, but, of course, not for giants,

For fainter stars, with lower central temperatures, the reaction $H+H=D+\epsilon^+$ and the reactions following it, are believed to be mainly responsible for the energy production. (§10)

It is shown further (§5-6) that no elements heavier than He⁴ can be built up in ordinary stars. This is due to the fact, mentioned above, that all elements up to boron are disintegrated by proton bombardment (α -emission!) rather than built up (by radiative capture). The instability of Be⁸ reduces the formation of heavier elements still further. The production of neutrons in stars is likewise negligible. The heavier elements found in stars must therefore have existed already when the star was formed.

Finally, the suggested mechanism of energy production is used to draw conclusions about astrophysical problems. such as the mass-luminosity relation (§10), the stability against temperature changes (§11), and stellar evolution (§12).

§1. INTRODUCTION

THE progress of nuclear physics in the st few years makes it possible to decide rather definitely which processes can and which can ot occur in the interior of stars. Such decisions fill be attempted in the present paper, the discuss on being restricted primarily to main seque ce stars. The results will be at variance with some current hypotheses.

The first main result is that, under present conditions, no elements heavier than helium on be built up to any appreciable extent. Therefore we must assume that the heavier elements were built up before the stars reached their present state of temperature and density. No atter pt will be made at speculations about this previ us state of stellar matter. The energy production of stars is then due

entirely to the combination of four protons and two electrons into an α -particle. This simplifies the discussion of stellar evolution inasmuch as

* Awarded an A. Cressy Morrison Prize in 1938, by the New York Academy of Sciences.

the amount of heavy matter, and therefore the opacity, does not change with time.

The combination of four protons and two electrons can occur essentially only in two ways. The first mechanism starts with the combination of two protons to form a deuteron with positron emission, viz.

> $H+H=D+\epsilon^+$. (1)

The deuteron is then transformed into He⁴ by further capture of protons; these captures occur very rapidly compared with process (1). The second mechanism uses carbon and nitrogen as catalysts, according to the chain reaction

 $C^{12} + H = N^{13} + \gamma$. $N^{13} = C^{13} + \epsilon^+$ $C^{13} + H = N^{14} + \gamma$. $O^{15} = N^{15} + \epsilon^+$ (2) $N^{14} + H = O^{15} + \gamma$, $N^{15} + H = C^{12} + He^4$.

about one in 10,000, therefore the abundance of carbon and nitrogen remains practically unchanged (in comparison with the change of the number of protons). The two reactions (1) and 434

In Bethe's original paper, neutrinos are not even in the picture.

(H. A. Bethe, Phys. Rev. 33, 1939)

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$$H+H=D+\epsilon^{+}+\nu's! \quad (1)$$

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$$C^{13} + H = N^{14} + \gamma, \qquad O^{15} = N^{15} + \epsilon^{+}$$

$$N^{14} + H = O^{15} + \gamma, \qquad O^{15} = N^{15} + \epsilon^{+}$$

$$N^{15} + H = C^{12} + He^{4}.$$
(2)



In the sixties, John Bahcall calculates the neutrino flux expected to be produced from the solar pp cycle.





(1) Sun is in hydrostatic equilibrium.

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- (2) Main energy transport is by photons.

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- (1) Sun is in hydrostatic equilibrium.
- (2) Main energy transport is by photons.
- (3) Primary energy generation is nuclear fusion.
- (4) Elemental abundance determined solely from fusion reactions.

In the sixties, John Bahcall calculates the neutrino flux expected to be produced from the solar pp cycle.





Basíc Process:

$$4p + 2e^- \rightarrow He + 2\nu_e + 26.7 \text{ MeV}$$
Basic Process:

 $4pp ++ 22\overline{e}^- \longrightarrow Hee ++ 22\nu_e ++ 2067.7 Mee V$



More detailed...

This is known as the pp fusion chain.

Sub-dominant CNO cycle also exists.



The Solar Neutríno Spectrum

- Only electron neutrinos are produced initially in the sun (thermal energy below and threshold).
- Spectrum dominated mainly from pp fusion chain, but present only at low energies.

The Solar Neutríno Spectrum



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The Charged Current (CC) Interaction:

Signature: Cherenkov ring from ejected electron

Sensitive to v_e flux only.



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The Neutral Current (NC) Interaction:

Signature: Neutron emitted from deuterium break-up

Sensitive to v_{e}, v_{μ} and v_{τ} flux.





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Signature: Cherenkov ring from ejected electron

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The Neutral Current (NC) Interaction:

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Sensitive to v_e, v_{μ} , and v_{τ} flux.

The Elastic Scattering (ES) Interaction:

Signature: Electron with high directional correlation to the sun

Sensitive mainly to $v_{\rm e}$. Some sensitivity to $v_{\mu,}$ and $v_{\tau}.$









If one looks only at electron neutrínos, only 1/3 are seen



Charged Current





If one looks only at electron neutrínos, only 1/3 are seen



Charged Current

However, if one looks at all neutrino flavors, we see the number expected



Neutral Current







= Oscillations

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Charged Current

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Neutral Current

Deuteríum Cross-sections

- Direct measurements of deuterium crosssections at low energy (MeV scale) come mainly from reactor measurements or stopped pion beams.
- A simple nucleus (pn) allows for good agreement with calculations. However, axial form factor (usually called L_{1,A} in the literature) represents largest uncertainty.
- Recently, lattice QCD has been adding independent calculation of axial form factors, reducing uncertainty.

Experiment	Measurement	$\sigma_{\rm fission}(10^{-44}~{\rm cm}^2/{\rm fission})$	$\sigma_{ m exp}/\sigma_{ m theory}$
Savannah River (Pasierb et al., 1979)	$\bar{\nu}_e CC$	1.5 ± 0.4	0.7 ± 0.2
ROVNO (Vershinsky et al., 1991)	$\bar{\nu}_e CC$	1.17 ± 0.16	1.08 ± 0.19
Krasnoyarsk (Kozlov et al., 2000)	$\bar{\nu}_e CC$	1.05 ± 0.12	0.98 ± 0.18
Bugey (Riley et al., 1999)	$\bar{\nu}_e CC$	0.95 ± 0.20	0.97 ± 0.20
Savannah River (Pasierb <i>et al.</i> , 1979)	$\bar{\nu}_e NC$	3.8 ± 0.9	0.8 ± 0.2
ROVNO (Vershinsky <i>et al.</i> , 1991)	$\bar{\nu}_NC$	2.71 ± 0.47	0.92 ± 0.18
Krasnoyarsk (Kozlov et al., 2000)	$\bar{\nu}_e NC$	3.09 ± 0.30	0.95 ± 0.33
Bugey (Riley et al., 1999)	$\bar{\nu}_e NC$	3.15 ± 0.40	1.01 ± 0.13





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Method	Extracted $L_{1,A}(\text{fm}^3)$	
Reactor	3.6 ± 5.5	
Solar	4.0 ± 6.3	
Helioseismology	4.8 ± 6.7	
${}^{3}\text{H} \rightarrow {}^{3+}\text{He} \ e^{-}\bar{\nu}_{e}$	6.5 ± 2.4	

Ultra-Hígh Energy Neutrínos

Ultra-Hígh Energy Neutrínos

• Galactic and extra-galactic celestial objects are known sources of extremely high energy cosmic rays (protons, etc.) and neutrinos. $E_v > 1 \text{ TeV}$

- Three possible creation mechanisms:
 - (1) Acceleration processes
 - (2) GZK neutrínos
 - (3) Annihilation and decay of heavy

Acceleration

Processes

- Evidence of ultra-high energy neutrinos would prove the validity of proton acceleration models.
- Neutrínos would be produced from the decay of unstable mesons (π° , π^{\pm} , K[±], etc.).

$$pp \rightarrow NN + \text{pions}; \quad p\gamma \rightarrow p\pi^0, \ n\pi^-$$

 $\pi^+ \rightarrow \nu_\mu + \mu^+$
 \downarrow
 $\overline{\nu}_\mu + e^+ + \nu_e$

• For extremely high energy cosmic rays or extragalastic sources, extreme acceleration environments such as AGNs and GRBs need to be considered.

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Supernova remnants



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Bínary systems



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$$pp \rightarrow NN + \text{pions}; \quad p\gamma \rightarrow p\pi^0, \ n\pi^0$$

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 $\overline{\nu}_\mu + e^+ + \nu_e$

Supernova remnants



Bínary systems



Interaction with interstellar medium



Hígh Energy Neutrínos



- A nice oddity of neutrino crosssections at this scale (since the energies are sooooo high)
- One can observe a resonance between the W and Z bosons!
- First suggested by Glashow in 1960 as a means to directly detect the W boson

$$\frac{d\sigma(\bar{\nu}_e e^- \to \bar{\nu}_e e^-)}{dy} = \frac{2G_F^2 m_e E_\nu}{\pi} \left[\frac{g_R^2}{(1 + 2m_e E_\nu y/M_Z^2)^2} + \left| \frac{g_L}{1 + 2m_e E_\nu y/M_Z^2} + \frac{1}{1 - 2m_e E_\nu/M_W^2} + \frac{1}{1 - 2m_e E_\nu/M_W^2} \right|^2 \right]$$

GZK Neutrínos

- At high enough energies, protons interact with the cosmic microwave background, providing a mechanism to create high energy neutrinos.
- Due to the known existence of high energy cosmic rays and the CMB, GZK neutrinos are a guaranteed signal.
- In addition, one can also look for massive particles that decay into high energy neutrinos as a signature for physics beyond the standard model.





What we will cover:

Where do neutrínos come from?

Neutrínos from the Heavens

Neutrinos from the Earth

Neutrínos from Man

Atmospheríc Neutrínos

THE NY LETTING

.....

States -

The state of the state

E_v ~ 1-100 GeV

Atmospheríc Neutrínos

$$p + {}^{16} N \rightarrow \pi^+, K^+, D^+, \text{etc.}$$

 $\pi^+ \rightarrow \nu_\mu + \mu^+$
 \downarrow
 $\overline{\nu}_\mu + e^+ + \nu_e$

INTERPORT

- BARRAN IN



 Created by high energy cosmic rays impeding on the Earth's upper atmosphere.

 Dominant production mechasism comes from pion decay.

 $p \neq 1^{16} N \Rightarrow \pi^{+}, K^{+}, D^{+}, \text{etc.}$ $\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{N} - \\ \pi^+ \to \nu_{\mu} + \mu^+ \\ \downarrow \\ \overline{\nu}_{\mu} + e^+ + \nu_{e'} \end{array}$



 To calculate the predicted neutrino flux, several key steps must be taken into account:

- Primary cosmic ray flux. This is measured using large array telescopes and balloon measurements.
- 2. Hadronization. Constrained by beam measurements.
- Optical depth, decay length, and transport.
- Often, one needs to take into account other subtle effects, such as the Earth's magnetic field. Important at low energies.

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• The absolute flux uncertainty is fairly high, so people use other useful properties of the atmospheric neutrino flux:

1. V_{μ} : V_{e} ratio: This ratio is fixed from the pion/muon cascade.

2. Zeníth variation: Allows one to probe neutrinos at very different production distances (essential for oscillation signatures).

3. Compare cosmíc muon flux





Atmospheríc Neutrínos

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- Nuclear transitions, such as beta decay, allow for the changing of the atomic number (Z) with no change in the atomic mass (A).
- One can consider three such reactions:



$$^{3}H \rightarrow ^{3}He + e^{-} + V_{e}$$

 $(Z, A) \rightarrow (Z+1, A) + e^- + \overline{\nu}_e \ (\beta^- \text{ Decay})$

 $(Z, A) \rightarrow (Z - 1, A) + e^+ + \nu_e \ (\beta^+ \text{ Decay})$

 $(Z, A) + e^- \rightarrow (Z - 1, A) + \nu_e$ (Electron Capture)

• To determine the rate of a particular reaction, one needs to take into account of a number of factors:

$$\frac{dN}{dE} = C \times |M|^2 F(Z,E) p_e(E+m_e^2)(E_0-E) \sum_i |U_{ei}|^2 \sqrt{(E_0-E)^2 - m_i^2}$$
Matrix Element Phase space

- To determine the rate of a particular reaction, one needs to take into account of a number of factors:
 - The phase space of the decay (i.e. how many different states can occupy a particular momentum).

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Matrix Element Phase space
Neutrínos from Radioactivity

- To determine the rate of a particular reaction, one needs to take into account of a number of factors:
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 - Corrections due to the Coulomb field, or Fermi function.

Fermi Function $\frac{dN}{dE} = C \times |M|^2 F(Z,E) p_e(E+m_e^2)(E_0-E) \sum_i |U_{ei}|^2 \sqrt{(E_0-E)^2 - m_i^2}$ Matrix Element Phase space

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Transition	ΔΙ	Parity change?
Superallowed	0, <u>+</u> I	No
Allowed	0, <u>+</u> I	No
I st Forbidden	0, <u>+</u> I	Yes
Unique I st Forbidden	<u>+</u> 2	Yes
2nd Forbidden	<u>+</u> 2	No
3rd Forbidden	<u>+</u> 3	Yes

Spin of states govern type of exchange E.g.: $O^+ \rightarrow O^+$ is superallowed

$$\frac{dN}{dE} = C \times |M|^2 F(Z,E) p_e(E+m_e^2)(E_0-E) \sum_i |U_{ei}|^2 \sqrt{(E_0-E)^2 - m_i^2}$$
Matrix Element Phase space

Possible Source?

- Though neutrinos from radioactive decay play an important role in many astrophysical sources, we rarely use them as a source, per se.
- Except we did to calibrate some of our solar neutrino detectors!



Possible Source?

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- Except we did to calibrate some of our solar neutrino detectors!





Total activity of the source: 60 PBq!

Emítted ~300 W of heat

Geoneutrínos



Geoneutrínos

Radiogenic heat from U and Th decays in the earth's crust and mantle provide a sufficient flux of neutrinos at low energies.

Radiogenic heat is expected to be a significant portion of the Earth's heating source (~40-60% of 40 TW).

First geoneutrinos detected only recently (from Kamland).





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nature

ARTICLES

Experimental investigation of geologically produced antineutrinos with KamLAND

T. Araki¹, S. Enomoto¹, K. Furuno¹, Y. Gando¹, K. Ichimura¹, H. Ikeda¹, K. Inoue¹, Y. Kishimoto¹, M. Koga¹, Y. Koseki¹, T. Maeda¹, T. Mitsui¹, M. Motoki¹, K. Nakajima¹, H. Ogawa¹, M. Ogawa¹, K. Owada¹, J.-S. Ricol¹, I. Shimizu¹, J. Shirai¹, F. Suekane¹, A. Suzuki¹, K. Tada¹, S. Takeuchi¹, K. Tamae¹, Y. Tsuda¹, H. Watanabe¹, J. Busenitz², T. Classen², Z. Djurcic², G. Keefer², D. Leonard², A. Piepke², E. Yakushev², B. E. Berger³, Y. D. Chan³, M. P. Decowski³, D. A. Dwyer³, S. J. Freedman³, B. K. Fujikawa³, J. Goldman³, F. Gray³, K. M. Heeger³, L. Hsu³, K. T. Lesko³, K.-B. Luk², H. Murayama³, T. O'Donnell⁹, A. W. P. Poon³, H. M. Steiner³, L. A. Winslow³, C. Mauger⁴, R. D. McKeown⁴, P. Vogel⁴, C. E. Lane⁵, T. Miletic⁵, G. Guillian⁶, J. G. Learne⁶, J. Maricic⁶, S. Matsuno⁶, S. Pakvasa⁶, G. A. Horton-Smith⁷, S. Dazeley⁸, S. Hatakeyama⁸, A. Rojas⁸, R. Svoboda⁸, B. D. Dieterle⁹, J. Detwiler¹⁰, G. Gratta¹⁰, K. Ishii¹⁰, N. Tolich¹⁰, Y. Uchida¹⁰, M. Batygov¹¹, W. Bugg¹¹, "...and Prometheus was punished for giving fire back to mankind..."



What we will cover:

Where do neutrínos come from?

Neutrínos from the Heavens

Neutrinos from the Earth

Neutrínos from Man

Reactor Neutrínos

Ev ~ 1-5 MeV

Neutrínos from Físsíon

- Reactor neutrinos stem mostly as a by-product from fission, as numerous unstable nuclei are produced and beta decay to more stable isotopes.
- Four main neutrino fuel sources:

238U, 235U, 239Pu and 241Pu

 ${}^{235}_{92}U + n \rightarrow X_1 + X_2 + 2n \rightarrow$ $..._{40}^{94}Zr + {}^{140}_{58}Ce$ Sample Fission: ²³⁵U





235**U**

²³⁹Pu



Neutrinos from Fission

- Eventually reaction produces stable isotopes, such as Zr and Ce. In the process, 6 protons must have beta-decayed to 6 neutrons.
- About 6 anti-neutrinos are produced per fission. Since each fission cycle produces 200 MeV, one can convert power to neutrino flux.

1 GW (thermal) $\approx 1.8 \times 10^{20} \, \overline{V}_e / \text{second}$



neutrinos/MeV/fission



Reactor Experiments: Pioneering Efforts

First experimental detection of neutrinos came indeed from the high

 $\bar{\nu} + p$

flux c

 $\bar{\nu} \neq p$

Clyde Cowan (1919 - 1974)

 $\frac{n}{n}$

Fred Reines (1918 - 1998) Nobel prize 1995 Clyde Cowan

919 - 1974)

Detector prototype

Fred Reines

(1918 - 1998)

Nobel prize 1995

Anchoring Low Energy Cross-sections

For neutrino energies at MeV energy scales (such as nuclear reactors, supernovae, and terrestrial sources) we can anchor the cross-sections to careful studies of nuclear decay.

$$\frac{d\sigma(\bar{\nu}_e p \to e^+ n)}{d\cos\theta} = \frac{G_F^2 |V_{ud}|^2 E_e p_e}{2\pi} \{g_V(0)(1 + \beta_e \cos\theta) + 3g_A(0)(1 - \frac{\beta_e}{3}\cos\theta)\}$$



Inverse Beta Decay

Neutron Lifetime

$$\tau_n = \left\{ \frac{m_e^5}{2\pi^3} f_R G_F^2 |V_{ud}|^2 \left(1 + 3\left(\frac{g_A}{g_V}\right)^2\right) \right\}^{-1}$$

Neutron lifetime

For example, the neutron lífetíme can be dírectly related to the cross-section for inverse beta decay...

Superallowed decays can also help constraín factors such as |Vud|

$$\frac{d\sigma(\bar{\nu}_e p \to e^+ n)}{d\cos\theta} = \frac{G_F^2 |V_{ud}|^2 E_e p_e}{2\pi} \{g_V(0)(1 + \beta_e \cos\theta) + 3g_A(0)(1 - \frac{\beta_e}{3}\cos\theta)\}$$

Inverse Beta Decay

Accelerator Neutrínos

1

13

10

12 10 10 0

13.13 13.13

13 13

13

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Ev ~ 1-300 GeV

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Accelerator

Neutrínos

- We can consider three very broad types of accelerator neutrino sources:
 - (a) Proton dríver ("conventional" beams)
 - (b)Beta beams
 - (c) Muon storage beam ("neutríno factoríes")



Beams

Beam creation very similar to atmospheric neutrinos (protons drive the production mechanism; neutrinos produced from pion decay).

Beam creation allows for greater selectivity of the beam properties. Typical the beam user will create beam with a given:



CERN's WA21 beamline

Neutríno flavor puríty,

Selected energy range & distance,

Intensity

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CERN's WA21 beamline

 Neutrino flavor purity,
 Allows selection of final state

 Selected energy range & distance,
 Optimization of oscillation wavelength

 Intensity
 You always want more...

Stages

- Basic ingredients of target, focusing region, decay region, absorber, and detector found in almost all accelerators.
- How system is optimized depends on type of beam desired.

Decay/Absorber Region



Region for pion/ kaon decay to occur.

Absorber removes unwanted charged particles & neutrons on route to detector



Stages

- Basic ingredients of target, focusing region, decay region, absorber, and detector found in almost all accelerators.
- How system is optimized depends on type of beam desired.

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A Complex Region...



At the GeV scale, there is considerable structure to nuclei that makes crosssection modeling challenging.

Nuclear initial state

Multí-nucleon effects

Final-state interactions

Píon/hadron resonances

Lots of Experiments Work Here...





$$\frac{d\sigma}{dq^2} \left(E_{\nu}, q^2 \right) = \frac{G_F^2 \left| V_{ud} \right|^2}{2\pi} \frac{M_N^2}{E_{\nu}^2} \left[\left(\tau + r_{\ell}^2 \right) A \left(\nu, q^2 \right) - \frac{\nu}{M_N^2} B \left(\nu, q^2 \right) + \frac{\nu^2}{M_N^4} \frac{C \left(\nu, q^2 \right)}{1 + \tau} \right] \right]$$

$$A = \tau \left(G_M^v \right)^2 - \left(G_E^v \right)^2 + (1 + \tau) F_A^2 - r_{\ell}^2 \left[\left(G_M^v \right)^2 + F_A^2 + 4F_P \left(F_A - \tau F_P \right) \right] \right]$$

$$B = 4\eta \tau G_M^v F_A$$

$$C = \tau \left(G_M^v \right)^2 + \left(G_E^v \right)^2 + (1 + \tau) F_A^2.$$

Let's consider the "simplest" process at this scale, i.e. quasi-particle scattering. Even in this process, the cross-section depends on several form factors, i.e. electric (G_E), magnetic (G_M), axial (F_A) and psuedoscalar (F_P).

Although some can be accessed through electron-nucleon scattering, others are unique to the weak force.



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Theoretical Tools



Theoretical and phenomenological models allow one to capture the inner structure of the target nucleus for details predictions.

Effective field theories, superscaling and sum rules provide strong models for predicting cross-section evolution versus probe momentum.

Lattice QCD



Lattice QCD is a recent, power tool in determining the correlation functions for neutrino-nucleon scattering.

Unlike other approaches, QCD is completely self-determined and ideal for 2-point correlation functions (provided one has sufficient computing power)

Lattice QCD



Lattice QCD calculations have advanced sufficiently that they can now provide ad initio calculations of nuclear structure form factors, such as axial and pseudovector form factors.

Direct comparisons to available data (deuterium, hydrogen, MINERVA, etc) are now possible, at the 10% level. Good agreement with g_A measurements.

Beta Beams

Different from conventional beams, as they use accelerated beta-decaying ions as the source of neutrinos.

Extremely pure beam of electron (or antíelectron neutrínos).

Spectrum extremely well known, since it comes from a boosted beta decay rather than a complex nucleon production scheme.

Production of ion source still considerable challenge, but research is ongoing.

Neutrinos from Beta Decay

$$^{6}\mathrm{He} \rightarrow ~^{6}\mathrm{Li}~e^{-}~\bar{\nu}_{e}$$

Electron Anti-neutrino Source

$$^{18}\mathrm{Ne} \rightarrow ~^{18}\mathrm{F}~e^+~\nu_e$$

Electron Neutrino Source



Neutríno Factories

Driving mechanism comes from muon decay rather than pion decay.

Ideal "beam" for many oscillation studies.

Maín Advantages

Extremely pure beam due to use of delayed decays.

Well known beam profile

Typically intense source envisioned.

Main Disadvantages

Both neutrino & anti-neutrino are present in the beam at once

Extremely short storage times

Challenging technology

Neutrínos from Muon Decay

$$\mu^+ \to e^+ \nu_e \bar{\nu}_\mu$$
$$\mu^- \to e^- \bar{\nu}_e \nu_\mu$$



Spallation Neutron Sources

REAL

Cana

E_v ~ 50 MeV

Any reaction that can produce an intense pion source is effectively an excellent neutrino source.

In this case, there is no boost from a relativistic proton (pions created at rest).

The Spallation Neutron Source (high intensity neutron source) can also double as an excellent neutrino source.

Pulsed beam ensures clean tagging of neutrino events.

Intensity neutrino source (10^{15} v/s) Can be used for oscillation studies & coherent neutrino scattering.



What's So Special About Coherence?



Nucleon Size (<< 1 fm)

One can think of the energy (really, momentum) the neutrino imparts on its target as a way to probe the nucleus.

The higher the imparted momentum, the finer the probe.

Non-Coherenct Interactions



Nucleon Size (<< 1 fm)

In this case, the probe momentum is such that it singles out a single neutron or proton.

All Together Now...



Nucleus Size (> 1 fm)

However, if the exchange momentum is small enough, the probe just sees the entire nucleus, and no single proton or neutron is singled out.

Result: Interaction probability scales as the number of nucleons squared.
Oscillations as Coherence

Numerous analogíes exist between neutríno oscillations and optical phenomena.

For example, the interference between neutrino mass states with different de Brogile wavelengths (oscillations) have a direct optical analog in the propagation and recombination of differently polarized photons through birefringent media.

One can even set up an optics experiment to mimic oscillation behavior...



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Coherent Enhancement

PHYSICAL REVIEW D

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Coherent effects of a weak neutral current

Daniel Z. Freedman[†]

National Accelerator Laboratory, Batavia, Illinois 60510 and Institute for Theoretical Physics, State University of New York, Stony Brook, New York 11790 (Received 15 October 1973; revised manuscript received 19 November 1973)

If there is a weak neutral current, then the elastic scattering process $\nu + A \rightarrow \nu + A$ should have a sharp coherent forward peak just as $e + A \rightarrow e + A$ does. Experiments to observe this neak can give important information on the isospin structure of the poutral support. The

Coherence effect

 $\frac{d\sigma}{dT} = \frac{G_F^2}{4\pi} Q_W^2 M_A \left(1 - \frac{M_A T}{2E_{\odot}^2}\right) F(Q^2)^2$

 $Q_W = N - (1 - 4\sin^2\theta_W)Z$



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Coherent Elastic Neutrino Nuclear Scattering (CEVNS) has been proposed and schemed as a means of detecting neutrinos.

It took 40+ years, but the effect has finally been observed experimentally using a spallation source.



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Opening the Door for Coherence?

Superradiant Interactions of the Cosmic Neutrino Background, Axions, Dark Matter, and Reactor Neutrinos

Asimina Arvanitaki,^{1,*} Savas Dimopoulos,^{2,1,†} and Marios Galanis^{1,‡}

¹Perimeter Institute for Theoretical Physics, Waterloo, ON N2L 2Y5, Canada ²Stanford Institute for Theoretical Physics, Stanford University, Stanford, California 94305, USA (Dated: November 6, 2024)

Superradiant Neutrino Lasers from Radioactive Condensates

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CEVNS is (in my opinion) just the beginning of using coherence in neutrino physics.

Are there other potential avenues for coherence to be used in neutrino physics?

One option: <u>Superradiance</u>

Might be *the* way to measure the CvB...



As you can see, neutrínos are EVERYWHERE in the universe; playing a crucial role in many natural interactions.

Given so many abundant sources of neutrinos, they provide an excellent means to probe the universe around us.

Texts I find useful...

- "Fundamentals of Neutríno Physics and Astrophysics" by Carlo Guíntí
- "From eV to EeV: Neutríno cross sections across energy scales," by JAF and G. P. Zeller (RMP 84, 1307)
- "Neutríno Physics", by Kai Zuber
- "Particle Physics and Cosmology", by P.D.B. Collins, A.D. Martín, and E.J. Squires.
- "The Physics of Massive Neutrinos," (two books by the same title, B. Kayser and P. Vogel, F. Boehm
- "Massive Neutrinos in Physics and Astrophysics," Mohapatra and Pal.



