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Nucleon formfactors: a review

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Outline

- Why formfactors?
- Electromagnetic formfactors
- Gravitational formfactors
- Outlook



Why formfactors?

Fundamental property of a physical state

Classically motivated picture:

formfactors provide information about the spatial distributions of charge, magnetic moment, chirality, mass, ...

$$\sigma(\theta_e) = \sigma_{\text{Mott}} \left| \int_{\text{volume}} \rho(\vec{r}) e^{i\vec{q}\cdot\vec{r}} d^3\vec{r} \right|^2 = \sigma_{\text{Mott}} |F(q)|^2.$$

Quantum picture:

formfactors provide information about the survival of a pure quantum state after a measurement with resolution 1/q ("Loschmidt echo" in QIS terminology)

Formfactors: the beginning

REVIEWS OF MODERN PHYSICS

VOLUME 28, NUMBER 3

JULY, 1956

Electron Scattering and Nuclear Structure*

ROBERT HOFSTADTER

Department of Physics, Stanford University, Stanford, California

as the appropriate model of the nucleus. The results can be summarized in a well-known formula for the radius of a uniform sphere

$$R = r_0 A^{\frac{1}{3}} \times 10^{-13} \text{ cm.}$$
 (1)

Henceforth, we shall measure all distances in terms of 10^{-13} cm as a unit and shall call this unit the fermi. For



Robert Hofstadter



Nobel prize 1961

Hofstadter's law:

"It always takes longer than you expect, even when you take into account Hofstadter's law"



Douglas Hofstadter

Hofstadter's butterfly



The proton formfactor

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FIG. 24. Electron scattering from the proton at an incident energy of 188 Mev. The experimental points lie below the pointcharge point-moment curve of Rosenbluth, indicating finite size effects.

EM formfactor of the nucleon



EM formfactor of the nucleon

$$\mathcal{J}_{\mu} = \overline{u}(p_2) \left[F_1(q^2) \gamma_{\mu} - \frac{\sigma_{\mu\nu} q_{\nu}}{2m} F_2(q^2) \right] u(p_1),$$

Free Dirac equation for the nucleon



G. Breit 1899-1981

Breit reference frame vs Lab and CMS:

$$\mathcal{J}_{\mu} = \overline{u}(p_2) \left[\left(F_1 + F_2\right) \gamma_{\mu} - \frac{(p_1 + p_2)_{\mu}}{2m} F_2 \right] u(p_1)$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline & \mathbf{Lab} & \mathbf{CMS} & \mathbf{Breit} \\ \hline q & (\omega, \mathbf{q}) & (\widetilde{\omega}, \widetilde{\mathbf{q}}) & (\omega_B = 0, \mathbf{q_B}) \\ \hline k_1 & (\epsilon_1, \mathbf{k_1}) & (\widetilde{\epsilon_1}, \widetilde{\mathbf{k_1}}) & (\epsilon_{1B}, \mathbf{k_{1B}}) \\ \hline p_1 & (m, 0) & (\widetilde{E_1}, -\widetilde{\mathbf{k_1}}) & (E_{1B}, \mathbf{p_{1B}}) \\ \hline k_2 & (\epsilon_2, \mathbf{k_2}) & (\widetilde{\epsilon_2}, \widetilde{\mathbf{k_2}}) & (\epsilon_{2B}, \mathbf{k_{2B}}) \\ \hline p_2 & (E_2, \mathbf{p_2}) & (\widetilde{E_2}, -\widetilde{\mathbf{k_2}}) & (E_{2B}, -\mathbf{p_{1B}}) \\ \hline \end{array} \right] {}_9$$

EM formfactor of the nucleon
$$\mathcal{J}_{\mu} = \overline{u}(p_2) \left[(F_1 + F_2) \gamma_{\mu} - \frac{(p_1 + p_2)_{\mu}}{2m} F_2 \right] u(p_1)$$
In Breit frame: $\mathcal{J}_0 = 2m\chi_2^{\dagger}\chi_1 (F_1 - \tau F_2)$ $\mathcal{J} = i\chi_2^{\dagger}\vec{\sigma} \times \mathbf{q}_{\mathbf{B}}\chi_1 (F_1 + F_2)$ Sachs electric and magnetic FFs: $\tau = -\frac{q^2}{4m^2} \ge$

 $G_{EN} = F_1 - \tau F_2$ $G_{MN} = F_1 + F_2.$

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Rosenbluth formula

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \end{pmatrix}_{CMS} = \frac{|\overline{\mathcal{M}}|^2}{64\pi^2 s} \frac{q_i}{q_f} \qquad \overline{|\mathcal{M}|^2} = \left(\frac{e^2}{q^2}\right)^2 \overline{|\ell \cdot \mathcal{J}|^2} = \left(\frac{e^2}{q^2}\right)^2 L_{\mu\nu} W_{\mu\nu}$$
Hadronic tensor: $W_{00} = 4m^2 G_{EN}^2,$
 $W_{\mu\nu} = \overline{\mathcal{J}_{\mu} \mathcal{J}_{\nu}^*} \qquad W_{xx} = -q^2 G_{MN}^2,$
 $W_{yy} = -q^2 G_{MN}^2.$
Marshall Bosenbluth In the lab frame:

1927-2003

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega_e} = \sigma_M \left[2\tau G_{MN}^2 \tan^2 \frac{\theta_e}{2} + \frac{G_{EN}^2 + \tau G_{MN}^2}{1 + \tau} \right]$$

Rosenbluth formula



Marshall Rosenbluth 1927-2003

In the lab frame:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega_e} = \sigma_M \left[2\tau G_{MN}^2 \tan^2 \frac{\theta_e}{2} + \frac{G_{EN}^2 + \tau G_{MN}^2}{1 + \tau} \right]$$

Mott cross section (one photon exchange):

$$\sigma_M = \frac{\alpha^2}{-q^2} \left(\frac{\epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1}\right)^2 \frac{\cos^2 \frac{\theta_e}{2}}{\sin^2 \frac{\theta_e}{2}}$$

"Reduced cross section":

$$\sigma_{red} = \frac{\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega_e}}{\frac{\alpha^2}{-q^2} \left(\frac{\epsilon_2}{\epsilon_1}\right)^2}$$



Large q² (large τ): mostly magnetic

Rosenbluth formula

Polarized electrons can induce the proton polarization:

$$\frac{P_x}{P_z} = \frac{P_t}{P_\ell} = -2\cot\frac{\theta_e}{2}\frac{m}{\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2}\frac{G_{EN}(q^2)}{G_{MN}(q^2)}$$

The ratio of transverse and longitudinal polarization of the recoil proton yields a measurement of the ratio of electric and magnetic FFs





Figure 4. Measurements of the electric form factor. Past and planned measurements of the proton electric form factor (G_E) measurements at low squared four-momentum transfer (Q^2) compared with the historical dipole parameterization $G_D = (1 + (Q^2/0.71))^{-2}$, with Q^2 in GeV² units. The Q^2 coverage of each experiment is indicated by a line labelled with the experiment name and location. The dipole parameterization is also shown for comparison. The error bars represent one standard deviation. Data from refs^{27,43,45,51,56,92,93,95,96,99,142}. The data from ref.⁵⁶ are restricted to the Rosenbluth subset.

The proton mass puzzle

Proton radius from atomic spectroscopy

energy levels of s-states in the hydrogen atom depend on the proton radius:

$$E_{n,l} \simeq -\frac{R_{\infty}}{n^2} + \delta_{l,0} \frac{L_{1\text{S}} + ar_p^2}{n^3}$$
J.Bernauer
EPJ 234(2020)

 $R_{\infty} \simeq 3.29 \times 10^6$ MHz is the Rydberg constant, $L_{1S} \simeq 8.172$ MHz is the Lamb shift

Muonic hydrogen:
$$\Delta E_{2S-2P} = 206.0808(61) \text{ meV} - 5.2272 r_p^2 \text{ meV fm}^{-2}$$
.



J.-P.Karr, D.Marchand, E.Voutier, Nature Rev.Phys. 2020,2,601

Transitions in electronic and muonic hydrogen. Spectra showing the transitions in electronic (left) and muonic

The proton mass puzzle



J.Bernauer EPJ 234(2020)

Figure 1. Collection of experimental results on the proton charge radius, and a (small) selection of fits by other authors. CODATA values (dark blue) [3, 46] are global fits, using electron spectroscopy and scattering data as input. Bernauer [2], Zhan [47], Mihovilovič [44] and Xiong [45] (black) are results from scattering experiments, sometimes including the world data set. Sick [21] and Alarćon [17] (purple) are refits of existing data, in the latter case based on dispersion relations. Beyer, Fleurbaey and Bezignov [40–42] (green) are electron spectroscopy results, Pohl and Antognini [1, 5] (orange) are the results from the muon spectroscopy experiment.

Two-photon? Better description of atomic shift? Beyond standard model?



What is the origin of the proton mass?

Image: CERN

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How is the mass distributed inside the proton?

Is it associated with quarks ("visible matter") or with gluons ("dark matter")?

How can we measure the mass distribution?

scalar (Nordstrom) vs tensor (Einstein) gravity

Consider Einstein gravity:

Ricci curvature ${\rightarrow}\,R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}R = 8\pi G \;T_{\mu\nu}$ tensor

Take the trace with metric tensor:

$$-R = 8\pi G T \qquad T \equiv T^{\mu}_{\mu}$$



Gunnar Nordstrom 1881-1923 Albert Einstein 1879-1955

 $a_{1} = a_{1}0 = 1$

Cf Nordstrom 1912; Einstein 1913; Einstein-Fokker 1914

Non-relativistic, weak gravitational field limit:

$$g_{00} = 1 + 2\varphi,$$
 $T^{\nu}_{\mu} = \mu \ u_{\mu}u^{\nu},$ $u_0 = u^{\nu} = 1,$
 $u_i = 0.$

Therefore, in this limit, the distributions of mass and of T coincide:

$$T_0^0 = \mu;$$
 $T \equiv T_\mu^\mu = T_0^0 = \mu$

⁴⁵ Einstein, Albert and Fokker, Adriann, D., "Die Nordströmsche Gravitationstheorie vom Standpunkt des absoluten Differentialkalküls", *Annelen der Physik* 44, 1914, pp. 321-328; p. 321.

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Newtonian limit:

$$R_0^0 = \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial x^{\mu 2}} \equiv \Delta \varphi,$$

Einstein equation:

$$R_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G (T_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\nu}T);$$





Isaac Newton 1643-1727

Therefore, the distribution of mass determines the gravitational potential:

$$\Delta \varphi = 4\pi G\mu. \qquad \qquad \varphi = -G \int \frac{\mu \, dV}{R} \longrightarrow \qquad \qquad F_g = -m \, \partial \varphi / \partial R$$
$$M = \int \mu dV \qquad \qquad \qquad F_g = -G \, \frac{mM}{R^2}.$$

The mass distribution is encoded in the gravitational formfactors.

For the spin $\frac{1}{2}$ nucleon, 3 formfactors appear:

H. Pagels '66, A. Pais, S. Epstein '49

$$\langle \mathbf{p}_{1}|T_{\mu\nu}|\mathbf{p}_{2}\rangle = \left(\frac{M^{2}}{p_{01} p_{02}}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{4M} \bar{u}(p_{1},s_{1}) \Big[G_{1}(q^{2})(p_{\mu}\gamma_{\nu}+p_{\nu}\gamma_{\mu})+G_{2}(q^{2})\frac{p_{\mu}p_{\nu}}{M} + G_{3}(q^{2})\frac{(q^{2}g_{\mu\nu}-q_{\mu}q_{\nu})}{M}\Big]u(p_{2},s_{2}),$$

$$\mathbf{p}_{1} \qquad \mathbf{p}_{2} \qquad \mathbf{Energy-momentum} \\ \text{conservation:} \qquad \mathbf{p}_{2} \qquad \mathbf{p}_{1}/T_{\mu\nu}|\mathbf{p}_{2}\rangle = 0;$$

$$\partial^{\mu}T_{\mu\nu} = 0 \qquad \text{Satisfied for on-shell nucleons}$$

 $\sum_{s} \bar{u}(p,s)u(p,s) = (\hat{p}+M)/2M$

S (use Dirac equation)

$$p_1^2 = p_2^2 = M^2$$

For the spin ½ nucleon, 3 formfactors appear:

(no G_1 for spin 0)

$$\langle \mathbf{p}_1 | T_{\mu\nu} | \mathbf{p}_2 \rangle = \left(\frac{M^2}{p_{01} p_{02}} \right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{4M} \bar{u}(p_1, s_1) \Big[G_1(q^2)(p_\mu \gamma_\nu + p_\nu \gamma_\mu) + G_2(q^2) \frac{p_\mu p_\nu}{M} + G_3(q^2) \frac{(q^2 g_{\mu\nu} - q_\mu q_\nu)}{M} \Big] u(p_2, s_2),$$

Compare to the macroscopic energy-momentum tensor in relativistic hydrodynamics:

C. Eckart, 1940

The Thermodynamics of Irreversible Processes III. Relativistic Theory of the Simple Fluid

CARL ECKART Ryerson Physical Laboratory, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois (Received September 26, 1940)

 $u_{
u}$ - matter velocity

For the spin ½ nucleon, 3 formfactors appear:

(no G_1 for spin 0)

$$\langle \mathbf{p}_1 | T_{\mu\nu} | \mathbf{p}_2 \rangle = \left(\frac{M^2}{p_{01} p_{02}} \right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{4M} \bar{u}(p_1, s_1) \Big[G_1(q^2)(p_\mu \gamma_\nu + p_\nu \gamma_\mu) + G_2(q^2) \frac{p_\mu p_\nu}{M} + G_3(q^2) \frac{(q^2 g_{\mu\nu} - q_\mu q_\nu)}{M} \Big] u(p_2, s_2),$$

Zero momentum transfer q
ightarrow 0 :

$$\langle \mathbf{p} | T_{\mu\nu} | \mathbf{p} \rangle = \left(\frac{M^2}{p_0^2} \right)^{1/2} \bar{u}(p,s) u(p,s) \frac{p_{\mu}p_{\nu}}{M^2} \left[G_1(0) + G_2(0) \right]$$

(no "stress" G₃)

In the rest frame of the nucleon:

the Hamiltonian

$$H = \int d^3x \ T_{00}(x)$$

$$\langle \mathbf{p} = 0 | T_{00} | \mathbf{p} = 0 \rangle = M$$
$$\bigcup$$
$$G_1(0) + G_2(0) = M.$$

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Formfactor of the trace of the energy-momentum tensor

Let us call it "scalar gravitational formfactor", as it would be a gravitational formfactor in a scalar model of gravity: Norde Einste

Nordstrom 1912 Einstein 1913

$$\langle \mathbf{p}_1 | T | \mathbf{p}_2 \rangle = \left(\frac{M^2}{p_{01} p_{02}} \right)^{1/2} \bar{u}(p_1, s_1) u(p_2, s_2) G(q^2),$$

Scalar gravitational formfactor:

 $T \equiv T^{\mu}_{\mu}$

$$G(q^2) = G_1(q^2) + G_2(q^2) \left(1 - \frac{q^2}{4M^2}\right) + G_3(q^2) \frac{3q^2}{4M^2}$$

In the rest frame of the nucleon:

$$\langle \mathbf{p} = 0 | T | \mathbf{p} = 0 \rangle = \langle \mathbf{p} = 0 | T_{00} | \mathbf{p} = 0 \rangle = M,$$

$$\bigcup$$

$$G(0) = M$$
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How to define the mass distribution in the nucleon? At small momentum transfer $|q^2| \ll M^2$,

the formfactor of θ_{00} and the scalar gravitational formfactor coincide if

$$\frac{G_i(0)}{4M} \ll \frac{dG_i}{dt}\Big|_{t=0} \equiv G_i(0)/m_i^2$$

The origin of the difference is frame dependence of θ_{00} :

In Breit frame, $\mathbf{p}_2 = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{q}$, $\mathbf{p}_1 = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{q}$ the proton is moving with

$$\gamma = E/M = \sqrt{M^2 + (q^2/4)}/M = \sqrt{1 + q^2/(4M^2)},$$

so for $q \equiv |\mathbf{q}| \simeq m_i$ it is Lorentz-contracted with

$$1/\gamma \simeq (1 + m_i^2/(4M^2))^{-1/2}$$

For massive bodies, $m_i \ll 2M - \text{size much larger than the Compton}$ wavelength! In this limit, the formfactors of T_{00} and T coincide. [the proton: $8M_r^2 \gg M_c^2$] See A. Freese, G.A. Miller (2022) + R.L. Jaffe (2021) How to define the mass distribution in the nucleon?

At small momentum transfer $|q^2| \ll M^2$, $\frac{G_i(0)}{4M} \ll \frac{dG_i}{dt}|_{t=0}$ the formfactor of θ_{00} and the scalar gravitational formfactor are close, thus the scalar gravitational formfactor can be used to define the **mass radius of the proton**:

$$\langle R_{\rm C}^2 \rangle = 6 \left. \frac{dG_{\rm EM}}{dt} \right|_{t=0} \cdot \quad \blacksquare \quad \langle R_{\rm M}^2 \rangle = \frac{6}{M} \left. \frac{dG}{dt} \right|_{t=0},$$

In the relativistic region (mass -> energy), it is natural to consider the scalar gravitational formfactor, as T is the Lorentz scalar

How close is the scalar radius to the mass radius?

As argued above, the difference between the scalar radius $\langle R_S^2 \rangle$ and a ``true'' mass radius $\langle R_M^2 \rangle$ should be suppressed by $1/M^2$ (M is the nucleon mass).

But how small is really this difference?

$$\langle R_S^2 \rangle - \langle R_M^2 \rangle = -12 \frac{C(0)}{M^2}$$
Y.Guo, X.Ji, Y.Liu,
arXiv:2103.11506 [PRD]
 $C(0) = -0.84 \pm 0.82$
Extracted value is consistent with zero;
But if C(0)=-1, the difference is big:
 $R_S^2 \rangle - \langle R_M^2 \rangle \simeq 0.47 \text{ fm}^2$

Trace of T^{μν} plays a fundamental role: link to scale invariance

Scale transformations (dilatations) are defined by

the corresponding dilatational current is

$$s^{\mu} = x_{\nu} T^{\mu\nu}$$

Hermann Weyl (1885-1955)

It is conserved (a theory is scale-invariant) if the energy-momentum is traceless:

$$\partial_{\mu}s^{\mu} = T^{\mu}_{\mu} \equiv T$$

 $x \to e^{\lambda} x$



Scale invariance

A scale-invariant theory cannot contain massive particles, all particles must be massless

For example, in Maxwell electrodynamics with action

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu}$$

the energy-momentum is traceless: $T^{\mu}_{\mu}=0$ (massless photons)

Note: because of this, in scalar gravity (Nordstrom, 1912; Einstein, 1913) there would be no light bending by massive bodies! 28

Scale invariance in QCD

The trace of the energy-momentum tensor in QCD (computed in classical field theory) is

$$T^{\mu}_{\mu} = \sum_{l=u,d,s} m_l \ \bar{q}_l q_l + \sum_{h=c,b,t} m_h \ \bar{Q}_h Q_h$$

Two problems:

- 1. Potentially large contribution from heavy quarks to the masses of light hadrons
- 2. If we forget about heavy quarks, all hadron masses must be equal to zero in the chiral limit 29

Scale anomaly in QCD

The quantum effects (loop diagrams) modify , the expression for the trace of the energy-momentum tensor:

$$T^{\mu}_{\mu} = \frac{\beta(g)}{2g} \ G^{\mu\nu a} G^{a}_{\mu\nu} + \sum_{l=u,d,s} m_l (1+\gamma_{m_l}) \bar{q}_l q_l + \sum_{h=c,b,t} m_h (1+\gamma_{m_h}) \bar{Q}_h Q_h$$

Running coupling -> dimensional transmutation -> mass scale

Gross, Wilczek;
$$eta(g)=-brac{g^3}{16\pi^2}+...,\ b=9-rac{2}{3}n_h,$$
Politzer

Ellis, Chanowitz; Crewther; Collins, Duncan, Joglecar; ...

 $\theta'_{\mathsf{had}\,\mu}$

At small momentum transfer, heavy quarks decouple:

$$\begin{split} \sum_{h} m_{h} \bar{Q_{h}} Q_{h} &\to -\frac{2}{3} n_{h} \frac{g^{2}}{32\pi^{2}} G^{\alpha\beta a} G^{a}_{\alpha\beta} + \dots \\ \text{so only light quarks enter the final expression} \\ T^{\mu}_{\mu} &= \frac{\tilde{\beta}(g)}{2g} \ G^{\mu\nu a} G^{a}_{\mu\nu} + \sum_{l=u,d,s} m_{l} (1+\gamma_{m_{l}}) \bar{q_{l}} q_{l}, \\ 0 \end{split}$$

The proton mass

At zero momentum transfer, the matrix element of the trace of the energy-momentum tensor defines the mass of the proton:

$$\langle \mathbf{p} = 0 | T | \mathbf{p} = 0 \rangle = \langle \mathbf{p} = 0 | T_{00} | \mathbf{p} = 0 \rangle = M,$$

$$T^{\mu}_{\mu} = \frac{\tilde{\beta}(g)}{2g} \ G^{\mu\nu a} G^{a}_{\mu\nu} + \sum_{l=u,d,s} m_{l} (1+\gamma_{m_{l}}) \bar{q}_{l} q_{l},$$

In the chiral limit, the only contribution is from gluons!

Demonstration of the hadron mass origin from the QCD trace anomaly

Fangcheng He,^{1,*} Peng Sun^{,2,†} and Yi-Bo Yang^{1,3,4,5,‡}

(xQCD Collaboration)



FIG. 3. The gluon trace anomaly contribution to the hadron mass. For five different quark masses, the corresponding pion masses are 0.340, 0.647, 0.864, 1.277, and 1.640 GeV. We can see that it is always small for the PS meson, while it approaches ~800 MeV for the nucleon and vector mesons in the chiral limit $m_v \rightarrow 0$.

Confinement due to scale anomaly? $T^{\mu}_{\mu} = \frac{\tilde{\beta}(g)}{2g} G^{\mu\nu a} G^{a}_{\mu\nu} + \sum_{l=u,d,s} m_l (1+\gamma_{m_l}) \bar{q}_l q_l,$

In quantum theory, gluons gravitate; scale anomaly induces conformally flat deformation of space-time. Can this be used to describe confinement?

QCD in curved space-time: A conformal bag model Also: JHEP06(2009)055

Dmitri Kharzeev, Eugene Levin, and Kirill Tuchin Phys. Rev. D **70**, 054005 – Published 3 September 2004

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x) = e^{h(x)} \delta_{\mu\nu}$$

$$S = \int d^4x \left(\frac{4 |\epsilon_v|}{m^2} e^h (\partial_\mu h)^2 - \frac{1}{4} (F^a_{\mu\nu})^2 + |\epsilon_v| e^{2h} - \frac{1}{4} e^{2h} \left[-\frac{b g^2}{32 \pi^2} (F^a_{\mu\nu})^2 \right] \right)$$

This model belongs to the class of confining models proposed in 't Hooft hep-th/0207179: It describes gluons in the dilaton background:

$$\mathcal{L} = -V(\chi) - Z(\chi) \frac{1}{4} (F^a_{\mu\nu})^2 \qquad Z(\chi) = -e^{\chi} (1-\chi) c + 1, \quad V(\chi) = -|\epsilon_v| e^{\chi} (1-\chi)$$

How to measure the mass distribution inside the proton?

No dilatons available... next best thing: a heavy quarkonium

QCD multipole expansion:

Voloshin '78; Appelquist, Fischler '78; Gottfried '78; Peskin '79; Novikov, Shifman '81; Leutwyler '81, Luke, Manohar, Savage '92, ...





M.B. Voloshin 1953-2020

$$g^{2}\mathbf{E}^{a2} = \frac{g^{2}}{2}(\mathbf{E}^{a2} - \mathbf{B}^{a2}) + \frac{g^{2}}{2}(\mathbf{E}^{a2} + \mathbf{B}^{a2})$$
$$= -\frac{1}{4}g^{2}G^{a}_{\alpha\beta}G^{a\alpha\beta} + g^{2}(-G^{a}_{0\alpha}G^{a\alpha}_{0} + \frac{1}{4}g_{00}G^{a}_{\alpha\beta}G^{a\alpha\beta}) = \frac{8\pi^{2}}{b}\theta^{\mu}_{\mu} + g^{2}\theta^{(G)}_{00}$$

$$\theta^{\mu}_{\mu} \equiv \frac{\beta(g)}{2a} G^{a\alpha\beta} G^a_{\alpha\beta} = -\frac{bg^2}{32\pi^2} G^{a\alpha\beta} G^a_{\alpha\beta} \ , \quad \theta^{(G)}_{\mu\nu} \equiv -G^a_{\mu\alpha} G^{a\alpha}_{\nu} + \frac{34}{4} g_{\mu\nu} G^a_{\alpha\beta} G^{a\alpha\beta} G^{\alpha\alpha\beta} G^{\alpha\alpha\beta} = -\frac{bg^2}{32\pi^2} G^{\alpha\alpha\beta} G^a_{\alpha\beta} \ , \quad \theta^{(G)}_{\mu\nu} \equiv -G^a_{\mu\alpha} G^{\alpha\alpha}_{\nu} + \frac{34}{4} g_{\mu\nu} G^a_{\alpha\beta} G^{\alpha\alpha\beta} G^{\alpha\alpha\beta} G^{\alpha\alpha\beta} G^{\alpha\beta} G^{\alpha$$

Quarkonium interactions at low energy

Colocological Co

Perturbation theory:

at large distances, the Casimir-Polder interaction (retardation)

Bhanot, Peskin '78

$$V^{\text{pt}}(R) = -g^4 \left(\bar{d}_2 \frac{a_0^2}{\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \frac{23}{8\pi^3} \frac{1}{R^7};$$

Fujii, DK '99
$$23 = 15 + 8 \underbrace{23}_{\text{scalar 0++}} 15 + 8 \underbrace{43}_{\text{scalar 0++}} 25 + 8 \underbrace{43}_{\text{scalar 0++}} 15 + 8 \underbrace{$$

Beyond perturbation theory, scalar is strongly enhanced due to scale anomaly Quarkonium interactions at low energy and the scale anomaly

But, at very large distances, the interaction must be dominated by the lightest physical states - pions



conversion of gluons to pions is a (hopeless?) non-perturbative problem

...but, can use scale anomaly matching!

Voloshin, Zakharov '80 Novikov, Shifman '82

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Quarkonium interactions at low energy and the scale anomaly

Use RG invariance to match the EMT computed in QCD and in the chiral theory:

$$\theta^{\mu}_{\mu} = -2 \ \frac{f_{\pi}^2}{4} \ \mathrm{tr} \ \partial_{\mu} U \partial^{\mu} U^{\dagger} \ - \ m_{\pi}^2 f_{\pi}^2 \ \mathrm{tr} \left(U + U^{\dagger} \right)$$

to lowest order in the pion field

$$\theta^{\mu}_{\mu} = -\partial_{\mu}\pi^{a}\partial^{\mu}\pi^{a} + 2m_{\pi}^{2}\pi^{a}\pi^{a} + \cdots$$

In the chiral limit scale anomaly yields:

$$\langle \pi^+ \pi^- | \theta^\mu_\mu | 0 \rangle = q^2 \tag{37}$$

Quarkonium interactions at low energy and the scale anomaly =

The result (long distances):

$$V^{\pi\pi}(R) \to -\left(\bar{d}_2 \frac{a_0^2}{\epsilon_0}\right)^2 \left(\frac{4\pi^2}{b}\right)^2 \frac{3}{2} (2m_\pi)^4 \frac{m_\pi^{1/2}}{(4\pi R)^{5/2}} e^{-2m_\pi R}.$$

Fujii, DK, PRD (1999)

See also A.Belitsky and X.Ji, PLB (2002)



 Not a Yukawa potential (retardation)
 The QCD coupling has disappeared at large distance (but not b from the beta-function)

3. Entirely due to scalar 0⁺⁺ exchange

This two-pion tail in quarkonium interactions has just been clearly observed on the lattice:

arXiv:2205.10544

Attractive $N-\phi$ Interaction and Two-Pion Tail from Lattice QCD near Physical Point

Yan Lyu,^{1, 2, *} Takumi Doi,^{2, †} Tetsuo Hatsuda,^{2, ‡} Yoichi Ikeda,^{3, §} Jie Meng,^{1, 4, ¶} Kenji Sasaki,^{3, **} and Takuya Sugiura^{2, ††}



FIG. 2. (Color online). The spatial effective energy $E_{\rm eff}(r)$ as a function of separation r at Euclidean time t/a = 12 (red squares), 13 (green circles) and 14 (blue triangles). The orange dashed line corresponds to $2m_{\pi}$ with lattice pion mass $m_{\pi} = 146.4$ MeV.

This is a consequence of **non-perturbative** mixing between the scalar gluon and quark operators induced by spontaneous breaking of chiral symmetry. It is controlled by scale anomaly:

> CERN-TH/99-278 RIKEN-BNL preprint UT-Komaba preprint

Scalar Glueball–Quarkonium Mixing and the Structure of the QCD Vacuum

John Ellis^{*a*}, Hirotsugu Fujii^{*b*} and Dmitri Kharzeev^{*c*}

$$\lim_{q \to 0} i \int dx \ e^{iqx} \langle 0|T \left\{ \frac{\beta(\alpha_s)}{4\alpha_s} G^2(x), \ \mathcal{O}(0) \right\} |0\rangle = (-d) \langle \mathcal{O} \rangle + O(m_q),$$

General LET:

For a scalar quark operator and a single resonance:

Novikov, Shifman, Vainshtein, Zakharov '81

$$\frac{1}{m_{\sigma}^{2}}\langle 0|\frac{\beta(\alpha_{s})}{4\alpha_{s}}G^{2}|k\rangle\langle k|\sum_{i}m_{i}\bar{q}_{i}q_{i}|0\rangle = -3\langle\sum_{i}m_{i}\bar{q}_{i}q_{i}\rangle.$$
⁴⁰

Probing the proton mass

The quarkonium-proton scattering amplitude

$$\begin{split} F_{\Phi h} &= r_0^3 \epsilon_0^2 \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} d_n \langle h | \frac{1}{2} G_{0i}^a (D^0)^{n-2} G_{0i}^a | h \rangle \\ & \text{Wilson coefficients} \\ d_n^{(1S)} &= \left(\frac{32}{N}\right)^2 \sqrt{\pi} \frac{\Gamma(n+\frac{5}{2})}{\Gamma(n+5)} & \text{M.Peskin '78} \\ d_n^{(2S)} &= \left(\frac{32}{N}\right)^2 4^n \sqrt{\pi} \frac{\Gamma(n+\frac{5}{2})}{\Gamma(n+7)} (16n^2+56n+75) \\ d_n^{(2P)} &= \left(\frac{15}{N}\right)^2 4^n 2 \sqrt{\pi} \frac{\Gamma(n+\frac{7}{2})}{\Gamma(n+6)} & \text{DK, '96} \\ \text{nucl-th/9601029} & \text{41} \end{split}$$



Near threshold, dominance of $g^{2}\mathbf{E}^{a2} = \frac{8\pi^{2}}{b}\theta^{\mu}_{\mu} + g^{2}\theta^{(G)}_{00}$

Assuming the validity of vector meson dominance, can relate photoproduction to quarkonium scattering amplitude and probe the mass of the proton

DK '96; DK, Satz, Syamtomov, Zinovjev '99

Other approaches to threshold photoproduction:

Hatta, Yang '18; Hatta, Rajan, Yang '19; Mamo, Zahed '19-'22; Ji, 2102.07830; Gao, Ji, Liu, 2103.11506; Sun, Tong, Yuan, 2103.12047...



$$t_{min} = -\frac{M_{\psi}^2 M}{M_{\psi} + M} \simeq -2.23 \text{ GeV}^2 \simeq -(1.5 \text{ GeV})^2$$

VDM questionable.
 but, scanning the energy range near the threshold, we measure the scalar gravitational formfactor – can extract the proton mass distribution!





The scalar operator dominates for small velocity of heavy quarkonium;

Limiting $V_{J/\psi} < 0.2$, (corrections ~ $v_{J/\psi}^2$) the optimal kinematical region is:

$$E_{cm} < 4.25 \text{ GeV}$$

 $E_{\gamma} < 9.2 \text{ GeV}$
-t < 6 $\frac{\text{GeV}^2}{45}$

 $\mathcal{M}_{\gamma P \to \psi P}(t) = -Qe \ c_2 \ 2M \ \langle P' | g^2 \mathbf{E}^{a2} | P \rangle,$

The amplitude:

Qe = 2e/3Marin Marine $\equiv_{P'} \quad \mathcal{M}_{\gamma P \to \psi P}(t) = -Qe \ c_2 \ \frac{16\pi^2 M}{h} \ \langle P'|T|P \rangle$ $\frac{d\sigma_{\gamma P \to \psi P}}{dt} = \frac{1}{64\pi s} \frac{1}{\left|\mathbf{p}_{\gamma cm}\right|^2} \left|\mathcal{M}_{\gamma P \to \psi P}(t)\right|^2$ Differential cross section: **DK**, **PRD**'21 $\sigma_{\gamma P \to \psi P}(s) = \int_{t}^{t_{max}} dt \; \frac{d\sigma_{\gamma P \to \psi P}}{dt}, \quad _{46}$

Editors' Suggestion

First Measurement of Near-Threshold J/ψ Exclusive Photoproduction off the Proton

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(GlueX Collaboration)



Need to focus on the threshold region!

 $E_{cm} < 4.25 \text{ GeV}$ $E_{\gamma} < 9.2 \text{ GeV}$

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Threshold photoproduction of quarkonium: the effect of the scalar gravitational formfactor

The scalar gravitational formfactor can be constrained theoretically by using:

- i) dispersion relations;
- ii) low-energy theorems of broken scale invariance;

iii) experimental data on $\pi\pi$ phase shifts and scalar mesons

See e.g. However, as a first step, can try a simple Fujii, DK'99 : 0.1 dipole formfactor of the type used for

$$G(t) = \frac{M}{\left(1 - t/M_s^2\right)^2} \quad \text{radius} \quad \langle R_M^2 \rangle = \frac{6}{M} \left. \frac{dG}{dt} \right|_{t=0},$$



Dipole formfactor was also used for 2-gluon coupling in perturbative models See e.g. 48 Frankfurt, Strikman '02

Differential cross section

DK, arXiv:2102.00110



The proton mass radius

The r.m.s. "proton mass radius" from GlueX data:

DK, arXiv:2102.00110

for review

$$R_{\rm m} \equiv \sqrt{\langle R_{\rm m}^2 \rangle} = 0.55 \pm 0.03 \text{ fm}$$

Compare to the proton charge radius:

$$\bar{\mathrm{R}}_{\mathrm{c}} \equiv \sqrt{R_c^2} = 0.8409 \pm 0.0004 \ \mathrm{fm} \quad {}^{\mathrm{See}}_{\mathrm{EPJ}} \, {}^{\mathrm{See}}_{\mathrm{See}} \, {}^{\mathrm{J.Bernauer,}}_{\mathrm{EPJ}}$$

A more compact mass distribution? Need more data!

VALUE (fm) DOCUMENT ID TECN COMMENT 0.8409 ± 0.0004 OUR AVERAGE 0.833 ± 0.010 1 BEZGINOV 2019 LASR 2S-2P transition in H $0.831 \pm 0.007 \pm 0.012$ 2 XIONG 2019 SPEC $e p \rightarrow ep$ form factor 0.84087 ±0.00026 ±0.00029 **ANTOGNINI** 2013 LASR µp -atom Lamb shift ••• We do not use the following data for averages, fits, limits, etc. ••• 0.877 ± 0.013 3 FLEURBAEY LASR 1S-3S transition in H 2018 0.8335 + 0.0095**4 BEYER** 2017 LASR 2S-4P transition in H 0.8751 ± 0.0061 MOHR 2016 RVUE 2014 CODATA value 5 LEE SPEC Just 2010 Mainz data $0.895 \pm 0.014 \pm 0.014$ 2015 0.916 ± 0.024 LEE SPEC World data, no Mainz 2015 0.8775 ±0.0051 MOHR 2012 RVUE 2010 CODATA, ep data 0.875 ±0.008 ±0.006 SPEC ZHAN 2011 Recoil polarimetry 0.879 ±0.005 ±0.006 BERNAUER 2010 SPEC $e p \rightarrow ep$ form factor

2020 Review of Particle Physics.

P.A. Zyla et al. (Particle Data Group), Prog. Theor. Exp. Phys. 2020, 083C01 (2020)

Some day: p MASS RADIUS in PDG?

When Color meets Gravity; Near-Threshold Exclusive J/ψ Photoproduction on the Proton

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J/ψ 007 Coll.

arXiv:2207.05212



below 9.7 GeV. The radius determined in the energy independent region averages to $\sqrt{\langle r_m^2 \rangle} = 0.52 \pm 0.03$ fm. This result

Theoretical uncertainties

- Higher dimensional operators (suppressed by 1/m_c)
- Chiral limit (we omitted the scalar quark operator)
- Gluon operators with derivatives (~ 5% close to threshold)
- t-dependence of short-distance coefficient c_2 (~ t/4m_c²)
- Dipole parameterization of formfactor

Why is proton mass radius smaller than the charge radius?



Spectral representation –

EM formfactor: $M_{\rho} = 0.77 \text{ GeV}$

Scalar gravitational formfactor: scalar glueball M = 1.5 GeV

But: scalar gluon current mixes with the scalar quark current – $\sigma(500)$ is lighter than the ρ !

The real reason (?) – decoupling of Goldstone bosons:

$$\langle 0|T|\pi^+\pi^-\rangle = q^2 \qquad 54$$

Future measurements

- GlueX has 10 times more data
- Future: SoLID@Jlab (~ 2028), EIC (including Y !)
- Polarization? (scalar vs tensor)
- Also: ultra-peripheral collisions at RHIC?



For a fixed invariant mass (cms energy), measure the angular distribution – differential cross section of photoproduction

Summary

- The formfactors are fundamental properties of nucleons, and provide a unique window into QCD
- After 70 years of experimental and theoretical studies, much progress has been made
- (At least) three puzzles have recently emerged:
 - 1. G_E, G_M : unpolarized vs polarized results
 - 2. Proton charge radius: scattering vs spectroscopy
 - 3. Proton mass radius vs proton charge radius
- Vibrant field, with a lot of work that has to be done?!