Possible measurement of the vacuum polarization in heavy-ion scattering*

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A measurement of the vacuum polarization potential. in nonrelativistic elastic heavy-ion scattering is suggested. We find that in a typical sub-Coulomb barrier event enough momentum is transferred from the projectile to the target nucleus to make the high- $q²$ behavior of the photon propagator observable. The elastic cross section is increased in a typical case by 2.5% above the Rutherford value. Only relative measurements are needed.

NUCLEAR REACTIONS $^{208}Pb(^{16}O, ^{16}O)$. Calculated vacuum polarization effect, sub-Coulomb, DWBA.

The only high-precision experiment in which vacuum polarization effects give a dominant correction term to the lowest-order effect is the measurement of certain transition energies in muonic atoms, such as $5g_{7/2}$ - $4f_{5/2}$ in muonic lead.^{$1,2$} In all other precision tests of quantum electrodynamics, such as Lamb shift, g factor, etc., vacuum polarization is a small, albeit wellestablished, part of the effect observed. Furthermore, unlike the case of heavy muonic atoms, essentially only low-momentum-transfer contributions are tested $(q^2/m_e^2 \approx 1)$. In high-energy scattering of e^+ , e^- , etc. (which is of course a high-momentum-transfer test and therefore essential for detecting possible new interactions or deviations at short distances') one tests in practice only Born diagrams at high energies. The effect of the vacuum polarization has also been taken into account to obtain an improved value for the scattering length⁴⁻⁶ in low-energy proton-proton scattering. This experiment of course does not measure the vacuum polarization effect by itself, since strong interactions give the main unknown contribution to the calculations. Here one has to believe the theoretical predictions for vacuum polarization at $q^2 \ge m_e^2$.

The purpose of this note is to point out that in nonrelativistic heavy-ion scattering we can achieve a rather direct test of the structure of the spectral function for the photon propagator at large momentum transfer $|\bar{q}|^2$, though the relative precision presently available is in no sense comparable to that of muonic atoms. For illustration, we choose the scattering of 16 O on 208 Pb. To bring both nuclei to a separation of 12 fm (at which point the nuclear densities begin to overlap) we need at least a kinetic energy E of 76 MeV for a 16 O ion. We choose an $E_{\rho} = 60$ -MeV ¹⁶O beam (which most tandem laboratories can achieve). For the

relative momentum we find $p^2 \sim 1.9 \text{ GeV}^2/c^2$. The momentum transfer is $|\vec{q}|^2 = |\vec{p}|^2 4 \sin^2 \theta/2$ where θ is the scattering angle. We see that with the chosen conditions we easily reach a momentum transfer $|\bar{q}| \approx 1$ GeV/c at a sub-Coulomb energy. With ²⁰⁸Pb as the target the available energy resolution of better than 1% allows discrimination against Coulomb excitations of the target.

As we calculate below, we find an increase of the elastic scattering cross section due to vacuum polarization effects by 1% at $|\bar{q}|=30$ MeV (corresponding to 5.7 ° in the above example), at $|\bar{q}| = 100$ MeV by 1.4%(19°), at $|\bar{q}| = 1$ GeV by 2.1% (30°) , and at 3 GeV by 2.4% (104°). No absolute measurements of the cross section are necessary, since we may view $|\bar{q}|$ as function of the scattering angle. Also, no measurement beyond angles greater than 110° is necessary, because the deviations do not increase much more beyond this point. As the precision of the relative measurements now can be as high as $0.5\%,$ ⁷ we believe that the necessary experiments can be carried out in the near future.

We will justify below that it is sufficient to consider first-order Born approximation to calculate the effects outlined above. In the nonrelativistic approximation the elastic scattering of two charged point-like particles is described completely by the photon propagator $D_{\mu\nu}(|\bar{q}|^2)(q_0=0)$. In first-ordex Born approximation we have

$$
\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \propto D_{00} (|\vec{\mathbf{q}}|^2)^2 \ . \tag{1}
$$

We also know, that $D_{00}(|\bar{q}|^2)$ may be represented using the spectral function $\sigma(t)$ ⁸:

reged point-like particles is described com-
\nely by the photon propagator
$$
D_{\mu\nu}(|\bar{q}|^2)(q_o=0)
$$
.

\nirst-order Born approximation we have

\n
$$
\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \propto D_{\infty}(|\bar{q}|^2)^2
$$
.\n(1)

\nalso know, that $D_{\infty}(|\bar{q}|^2)$ may be represented as the spectral function $\sigma(t)^8$.

\n
$$
D_{\infty}(\bar{q}^2) = |\bar{q}|^{-2} + \int_1^\infty \sigma(t)(|\bar{q}|^2 + 4m_e^2 t^2)^{-1} dt
$$
.\n(2)

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 m_e is the electron mass. In first order in α the spectral function is given by⁹:

$$
\sigma(t) = \frac{2\alpha}{3\pi} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2t^2} \right) (t^2 - 1)^{1/2} t^{-2}.
$$
 (3)

Combining Eqs. (1) and (2) we obtain for the ratio of the observed to the Rutherford scattering'.

$$
\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right) / \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_R = 1 + 2 |\vec{q}|^2
$$

$$
\times \int_1^\infty \sigma(t) (|\vec{q}|^2 + 4m_e^2 t^2)^{-1} dt.
$$
 (4)

As all quantities on the right-hand side of Eq. (4) are positive definite, we see that the actual cross section should be larger than the Rutherford cross section. The right-hand side is easily evaluated for different values of $|\bar{q}|^2$. We find that already for $|\bar{q}|^2 \sim 5(2m_e)^2$ the spectral function reaches the asymptotic form (see Uehling')

$$
\int_{1}^{\infty} \sigma(t) \left(|\vec{q}|^{2} + 4 m_{e}^{2} t^{2} \right)^{-1} dt
$$

$$
= \alpha / 3 \pi |\vec{q}|^{-2} \left\{ \ln \left[|\vec{q}|^{2} (2 m_{e})^{-2} \right] - \frac{5}{3} \right\}.
$$

(5)

Noting that $|\tilde{q}|^2 = 8 \sin^2(\theta/2) E_{\rho} \mu_{\rho}$, where $E_{\rho} = p^2/2 \mu_{\rho}$ is the relative kinetic energy and μ_{ϕ} the reduced mass, we obtain

$$
\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right) / \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_R = 1 + 2\alpha/3\pi \left\{\ln\left|\left|\tilde{q}\right|^2 (2m_e)^{-2}\right| - \frac{5}{3}\right\}
$$

$$
= 1 + 2\alpha/3\pi
$$

$$
\times \left\{\ln\left(2\sin^2(\theta/2)E_p \mu_p / m_e^2\right] - \frac{5}{3}\right\} \ .
$$
(6)

This expression yields the numerical results quoted above.

The above consideration in momentum space can be easily understood in configuration space. As it is well known, the electron vacuum polarization potential has the same sign as the inducing potential and has a range of about $\chi_e/2 \sim 190$ fm where λ_a is the Compton wavelength of the electron. Due to this interaction we have, in addition to the Coulomb force, an additional "long-range" force (when comparing with the nuclear sizes). Thus the probability for scattering must increase.

We will now justify the use of first-order Born approximation to derive Eq. (4). As the coupling constant is $\alpha' = Z_1 Z_2 \alpha > 1$, we cannot use the standard argument α' <1. The characteristic parameter for Coulomb scattering is $\eta = Z_1 Z_2 \alpha c/v_{\infty}$ wher v_{∞} is the asymptotic velocity of the projectile. For the case considered we have $\eta > 10$. This indicates that no expansion in η is permissible. However, there is a very small parameter ν $=(2m_e c^2)^2/p^2$. We will now consider the scattering amplitude in all orders in η and approximate the amplique in all bruers in η and approximate the result using $\eta v^{1/2}$ as a small parameter. In fact, result using $\eta \nu$ as a sinall parameter. In a $\eta \nu^{1/2} = Z_1 Z_2 \alpha m_e c^2 / E_p$. Setting E_p proportional to the Coulomb energy at the turning point, we obtain (Z dependence cancels out) $\eta v^{1/2} = R_{cs}/\lambda_e$ where R_{c} is the distance of closest approach. We must calculate the amplitude for Coulomb scattering to all orders, but include the vacuum polarization only to first order. That means we perform a distorted-wave Born-approximation calculation.

We rely heavily on the work done in protonproton scattering.⁵ Using the expression given by Durand' for the vacuum polarization scattering amplitude $M_{v\ell}(q^2)$ calculated with Schrödinger

Coulomb functions we obtain

$$
M(|\vec{\mathbf{q}}|^2) = M_c(|\vec{\mathbf{q}}|^2) + M_{\nu\rho}(|\vec{\mathbf{q}}|^2) \propto (\sin^2 \theta/2)^{-i\eta}
$$

$$
\times \left(|\vec{\mathbf{q}}|^{-2} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sigma(t) (|\vec{\mathbf{q}}|^2 + 4 m_e^2 t^2)^{-1} [(1 + \nu t^2/2 \sin^2 \theta/2)/(1 + \nu t^2/2)]^{-i\eta} \right. \times \exp\{-2\eta \tan^{-1} [(\nu/2)^{1/2} t] \} | \Gamma(1 + i\eta)|^2
$$

$$
\times {}_{2}F_1(-i\eta, 1 + i\eta, 1; (1 + t^2 \nu/2 \sin^2 \theta/2)^{-1}) \right). \tag{7}
$$

Note that the ${}_2F_1$ function is singular for $\nu \rightarrow 0$. Therefore, we consider

$$
|\Gamma(1+i\eta)|^2 {}_{2}F_1(-i\eta, 1+i\eta, 1; (1+\epsilon)^{-1}) = -i\eta \ln[(1+\epsilon)/\epsilon] {}_{2}F_1(-i\eta, 1+i\eta, 1; \epsilon/(1+\epsilon))
$$

$$
-i\eta \Gamma(-i\eta)^{-1} \Gamma(1+i\eta)^{-1} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \Gamma(n-i\eta) \Gamma(n+1+i\eta)/(n!)^2
$$

$$
\times [\epsilon/(1+\epsilon)]^n \Big\{ (n-i\eta)^{-1} \sum_{m=n+1}^{\infty} 2\eta^2 [m(m^2+\eta^2)]^{-1} \Big\}.
$$
 (8)

 (9)

The sum over n may be truncated after $n=0$ since the expansion parameter is $n^2 \nu$. We thus obtain

Eq. (8) =
$$
1 - i\eta \ln[(1+\epsilon)/\epsilon]_2 F_1(-i\eta, 1+i\eta, \epsilon/(1+\epsilon)) + i\eta 2 \text{Re}[\psi(1+i\eta) + \gamma]
$$
,

where $\psi(z) = d[\ln \Gamma(z)] / dz$ and $\gamma = 0.5772$. Even for $\eta \sim 10$ the asymptotic expansion Re[$\psi(1+i\eta)$]_{n+∞} $=$ ln(1+ η) is very good. Inserting Eq. (8) into Eq. (7) we see that, in the domain of integration over t in which νt^2 <1, we can neglect all additional factors in Eq. (7) but

$$
1 - i\eta \left\{ \ln \left(1 + \left(\nu t^2 / 2 \sin^2 \theta / 2 \right)^{-1} \right) + 2 \ln (1 + \eta) + 2 \gamma \right\}.
$$

For $vt^2 > 1$, however, the integrand in Eq. (7) does

not contribute significantly. Thus
\n
$$
M(|\vec{q}|^2) \propto |\vec{q}|^{-2} + \int \sigma(t) (|\vec{q}|^2 + 4m_e^2 t^2)^{-1} dt
$$
\n
$$
+ i\eta \int \{ \ln(1 + \eta) - \ln[1 + (\nu t^2 / 2 \sin^2 \theta / 2)^{-1}] \} \times \sigma(t) (|\vec{q}|^2 + 4m_e^2 t^2)^{-1} dt. \tag{10}
$$

We emphasize that this result is valid for any value of η . Because the additional term in Eq. (10) is purely imaginary, no destructive interference between Coulomb and vacuum polarization parts in the amplitude occurs. Proceeding as before we obtain

tain
\n
$$
\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right) / \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}\right)_{R} = 1 + 2 |\vec{q}|^2 \int_1^{\infty} \sigma(t) (|\vec{q}|^2 + 4 m_e^2 t^2)^{-1}
$$
\n
$$
\times dt - \eta^2 (A |\vec{q}|^2)^2 , \quad (11)
$$

where

$$
A |\vec{q}|^2 = |\vec{q}|^2 \int [2 \ln(1 + \eta) + 2\gamma]
$$

- $\ln[1 + (\nu t^2 / 2 \sin^2 \theta / 2)^{-1}]$
 $\times \sigma(t) (|\vec{q}|^2 + 4m_e^2 t^2)^{-1} dt$.

As long as $\eta \alpha$ <1 the contribution $(A|\bar{q}|^2)^2$ can be neglected. When considering possible future Pb-Pb experiments this term should be carefully evaluated, however; then other terms of the order $(Z_1\alpha)(Z_2\alpha)$ should also be included.

Let us finally note a number of additional effects which may possibly enter into the discussion of the Coulomb elastic cross section. The most obvious one is the electron screening of the target nucleus (we assume that the light projectile is completely stripped). The s electrons have es- 'sentially constant charge distribution in the nucleus; this will cause no effect as a function of the scattering angle or energy and the effects due to the variation of electronic charge in the target

atom can be estimated using a model charge distribution and are found to be of the order of 0.1%' and less of the total cross section in the region of interest.

Since the collision is slow compared with the electron motion, molecular orbitals 10 must be used to describe the electron states during the collision. This will give rise to effective molecular potentials similar to those found in chemical binding as has been outlined in Ref. 11. The precise calculation of those effects which are very important in very heavy-ion-atom collisions are in progress. However, if we choose light projectiles with $Z < 20$ and heavy target with $Z \sim 80-90$, this effect is also negligible.¹² $Z \sim 80-90$, this effect is also negligible.¹² All radiative effects like self-energy, vertex corrections, and bremsstrahlung are negligible due to the large mass of the projectile and its nonrelativistic motion. In the unlikely event that we use projectiles or targets with nonvanishing spin, we must also consider the spin-spin and spin-orbital coupling. In the nonrelativistic case these are also negligible.

Finally, let us make a few remarks about the possible presence of dispersive effects; these are contributions to the scattering amplitude in which intermediate excited nuclear states are populated. This effect corresponds to a very short-range interaction when compared with vacuum polarization potential. Therefore, it may become competitive with the vacuum polarization effects only in backward scattering.

In this note we have chosen the stiffest possible nuclei to measure the effect of the vacuum polarization; however, using soft nuclei and looking at backward scattering one may probably see the dispersive effects. This is similar to multiple Coulomb excitation with the final state being again the ground state of the nucleus. As the dispersive amplitude does not decrease as drastically as the Coulomb amplitude does with increasing scattering angle¹³ and may be as large as the Coulomb amplitude only for head-on collisions (in the example presented in this note) we believe that in the present case the influence of dispersive effects on the elastic cross section will lie below present experimental precision for scattering between 0 and say 120°. These effects should be evaluated more carefully when higher-precision scattering data at high energies becomes available.

We conclude this discussion by observing that in scattering of very heavy ions, such as lead on lead at sub-Coulomb barrier energy, we can reach $|\vec{p}| = 134$ GeV² which may lead to $|\vec{q}|^2 \ge 500$ $GeV²$ (center of mass) under favorable conditions. Such experiments will be possible as soon as heavy-ion accelerators in Darmstadt and Berkeley (super Hilac) are working with Pb and heavier beams. With these accelerators we will have unique tools to test vacuum polarization at large

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- 1 The experiments are partially contradictory with respect to the sign of a discrepancy, which may be as large as 3.⁵ standard deviations compared to the best available theory, which also includes higher-order effects of vacuum polarization. See G. Backenstoss et al., Phys. Lett. 31B, 233 (1970); 43B, 539 (1973); M. S. Dixit, et al., Phys. Rev. Lett. 27, 878 (1971); and H. K. Walter et al., Phys. Lett. $\overline{40}B$, 197 (1972).
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- ³S. J. Brodsky and S. D. Drell, Annu. Rev. Nucl. Sci. 20, 147 (1970).
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momentum transfer.

The idea that vacuum polarization may play an important role in heavy-ion scattering arose in discussions with Berndt Muller and Walter Greiner in Frankfurt. The work did not proceed until a discussion with Chris Davies, who brought this problem again to our attention.

Amsterdam, 1969).

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- ¹¹J. Rafelski, B. Müller, and W. Greiner, Nuovo Cimento Lett. 4, 469 (1972).
- 12 In this case the molecular K orbitals are already created when both nuclei are separated by approximately 150 fm. The energy of the K shell does not change considerably when the ions further approach each other; thus no appreciable effect on the scattering
- cross section is found in the range of $|\bar{q}|^2$ considered 13 We draw this conclusion from the available calculations on electron dispersive scattering. For references see J. Eisenberg and W. Greiner, Excitation Mechanisms of the Nucleus (North-Holland, Amsterdam, 1970), p. 186.