Comments on the neutron charge radius and the quark-parton model*

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It is argued that for the neutron mean square charge radius to be negative in the quark-parton model, the quark-parton distribution functions in the region $x < 0.3$ have to be drastically different from any of the specific forms hitherto proposed.

The mean-square charge radius $\langle r_n^2 \rangle$ of the neutron has been determined experimentally to be negative.¹ Sehgal² investigated the negative sign by means of the quark-parton model. Recently, using three specific kinds of quark-parton distribution functions (QPDF 's), Parashar and Kaushal' showed that all gave a positive sign for $\langle r_n^2 \rangle$ in Sehgal's framework. In this paper we show quite generally (without assuming any specific form for the QPDF's) that $\langle r_n^2 \rangle$ 0 in the quark-parton model unless the QPDF has some unexpected behavior in the small-x region $(x \le 0.3)$. Our discussion will also clarify why the first two models' employed by Parashar and Kaushal give $\langle r_n^2 \rangle > 0$.

Following Sehgal, we have

$$
\langle r_n^2 \rangle = \frac{3}{2} \int_0^1 dx \sum_i e_i f_i(x) g_i(x) , \qquad (1)
$$

where

$$
g_i(x) \equiv \langle b^2 \rangle_{i,x}
$$

=
$$
\frac{\int d^2b \ b^2 h_i(x, b)}{\int d^2b h_i(x, b)} \equiv [f_i(x)]^{-1} \int d^2b \ b^2 h_i(x, b) .
$$

In the above, i denotes the kind of quark partons inside a neutron, and $h_i(x, b)$ is the distribution function of quark parton of type i in the transverse plane, with a fraction x of the total longitudinal momentum. $f_i(x)$ and e_i are, respectively, the usual QPDF and the charge of the quark parton of type i.

Throughout the following discussion, we will neglect' the net contribution from the strange quark and strange antiquark partons. The assumptions made by Sehgal are (i) $g_i(x) = g(x)$ and (ii) $g(x)$ is a monotonically decreasing (and of course positive) function of x . These assumptions are consistent² with experimental evidence^{$6,7$} and (ii) is also supported by some theoretical models.⁸ We then have

$$
\langle r_n^2 \rangle = \int_0^1 dx q(x) g(x) \qquad (2) \qquad \qquad \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 e^{i \langle x, y \rangle} e^{-i \langle x, y \rangle} \Big|_0^1 e^{i \langle x, y \rangle} \Big|_0^1
$$

and

$$
q(x) \equiv d(x) - \overline{d}(x) - \frac{1}{2} [u(x) - \overline{u}(x)] \tag{3}
$$

where $d(x)$, $\overline{d}(x)$, $u(x)$, and $\overline{u}(x)$ are, respectively, the d, \overline{d} , \overline{u} , and \overline{u} QPDF inside a *proton*.

We shall now deduce some general properties of $q(x)$. First we recall that the quark-parton-model sum rule requires'

$$
\int_0^1 q(x)dx = 0.
$$
 (4)

This equation represents charge neutrality of a neutron. Next we note that one of Nachtmann's in-
equalities,¹⁰ derived from the positivity of the equalities, 10 derived from the positivity of the QPDF's, reads

$$
\overline{u}(x) \le 2\overline{d}(x) \tag{5}
$$

 $u(x) \geq za(x)$. (3)
Equation (5) together with the experimental data,¹¹

$$
\frac{1}{4} \leq F_2^{en}(x) / F_2^{ep}(x) < \frac{2}{3} \text{ for } 1 > x > x_0 \simeq 0.3 ,
$$

gives

$$
u(x) > 2d(x) , \quad x_0 < x < 1 . \tag{6}
$$

Equations (3) , (5) and (6) then lead to

$$
q(x) < 0 , \quad x_0 < x < 1 . \tag{7}
$$

In view of Eq. (4), this means $q(x)$ must become positive at some $x = x_c \le x_0 \approx 0.3$. Finally, if the quark-parton model and Hegge-pole theory are compatible, then for small x, say $x < x_R$, $q(x) > 0$ is favored. This may be seen as follows. For electroproduction processes (we are not concerned with ν -N processes here, see Ref. 12), the nondiffractive parts $f_2^{ep}(x)$ and $f_2^{ep}(x)$ of $F_2^{ep}(x)$ and $F_2^{en}(x)$, respectively, can be described by the lead-
ing Regge-pole terms, i.e., the f and A, terms.¹³ ing Regge-pole terms, i.e., the f and A_2 terms. In the quark-parton model, $f_2^{ep}(x)$ and $f_2^{ep}(x)$ are usually expressed in terms of $[u(x) - \overline{u}(x)]$ and $\left[d(x)-\overline{d}(x)\right]$. Thus we get

$$
f_2^{ep}(x) = \frac{4}{9} [u(x) - \overline{u}(x)] + \frac{1}{9} [d(x) - \overline{d}(x)]
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{5}{9} R_f x^{-\alpha_f(0)} + \frac{1}{6} R_{A_2} x^{-\alpha_{A_2}(0)},
$$

\n
$$
f_2^{ep}(x) = \frac{1}{9} [u(x) - \overline{u}(x)] + \frac{4}{9} [d(x) - \overline{d}(x)]
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{5}{7} R_f x^{-\alpha_f(0)} - \frac{1}{7} R_{A_2} x^{-\alpha_{A_2}(0)}.
$$

\n(8)

for $x < x_R$, where the R's are constants. From the above formula, we get

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(9)

$$
u(x) - \overline{u}(x) = \frac{1}{2} (3R_f x^{-\alpha_f(0)} + R_{A_2} x^{-\alpha_{A_2(0)}}),
$$

$$
d(x) - \overline{d}(x) = \frac{1}{2} (3R_f x^{-\alpha_f(0)} - R_{A_2} x^{-\alpha_{A_2(0)}}),
$$

for $x < x_R$. Following Chaichian *et al.*,¹⁴ we use the positivities of the functions $f_2^{ep}(x)$ and $f_2^{en}(x)$ to get $\alpha_f(0) \ge \alpha_{A_2}(0)$ and $R_f > 0$. Obviously, the requirement of the valence-sea version¹³ of the quark-parton model that the left-hand sides of Eq. (9) be positive leads to the same conditions. Experimentally, $\alpha_f(0) > \alpha_{A_2}(0)$
seems to hold.¹⁵ Hence for small x, Eqs. (3) and seems to hold.¹⁵ Hence for small x , Eqs. (3) and (9) give $q(x) > 0$ for $0 < x < x_R$.

We cannot say anything about $q(x)$ for $x_R < x < x_c$. It might seem reasonable to expect that $q(x)$ remains positive in this region. In fact, to the best of our knowledge this is a common feature of all the models 16 proposed so far in which the explicit form of the QPDF's is given. The function $q(x)$ is sketched in Fig. 1. Since $g(x)$ is a monotonically decreasing (positive) function of x [assumption (ii) , Eqs. (2) and (4) immediately give

$$
\langle {r_n}^2 \rangle > 0 \ .
$$

It is clear that in order for the quark-parton

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-)On leave of absence from the Physics Department, Osaka City University, Osaka, Japan.
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- 3 D. Parashar and R. S. Kaushal, Phys. Rev. D 13, 2684 (1976). While Sehgal used a two-parameter form for his $A(x)$, $A(x) = \alpha - \beta x$ with $0 < \beta < \alpha$, Parashar and Kaushal use only one free parameter in $A(x) = 1 - \beta x$, resulting in $\beta > 1$. This makes their $h_i(x, b)$ [their Eq. (2)] divergent for large x when $b \rightarrow \infty$. Their conclusion that $\langle r_n^2 \rangle > 0$, however, remains unchanged, even if the Sehgal form for $A(x)$ is used.
- 4The third model employed in Ref. 3 does not satisfy the quark-parton-model sum rules, so Eq. (4), below, does not hold.
- 5In the valence-sea version of the quark-parton model (see Ref. 13), $s(x) = \overline{s}(x)$, where $s(x)$ and $\overline{s}(x)$ are, respectively, the s and \bar{s} QPDF inside a proton. It is also expected that $g_s(x) = g_s^-(x)$ holds in this type of model.

FIG. 1. Schematic sketch of the function $q(x)$. The definitions of $x_0 \approx 0.3$, x_c , and x_R are given in the text.

model to yield $\langle r_n^2 \rangle$ < 0, the quark-parton distribution functions in the small-x region, $x < x_c < 0.3$, must be reexamined carefully.

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- ⁷The experimental data, Table VI and Fig. 5 of Ref. 6, suggest that $g_d(x)$ is not exactly equal to $g_u(x)$ but is slightly larger. Here d and u represent, respectively, the $d-$ and u -quark parton inside a *proton*. We can show in the valence-sea version of the quark-parton model (see Ref. 13) that this in fact will strengthen our conclusion.
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