

# Proton mass & physics of gravitational form factors

Xiangdong Ji

University of Maryland

INT workshop on mass, June 13-17

# Outline

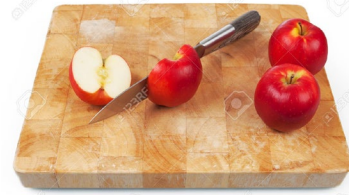
1. The QCD mass scale
2. The proton mass sum rule
3. Dynamical origin of hadron masses in QCD
4. Physics of gravitational form factors  $C(D)$ :  
“pressure” vs. the **momentum current**  
distribution
5. Conclusion

The QCD mass scale

# Three sources of mass in GP

1. **In classical physics:** the mass of an object is the sum of its parts

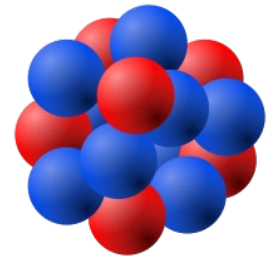
$$M = \sum m_i$$



2. **Mass of atomic nuclei**

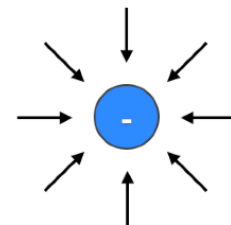
$$M_A = NM_n + ZM_p - B_{A=N+Z}$$

$$-B_{A=N+Z} = \langle \sum_i T_i + \sum_{ij} V_{ij} + \dots \rangle$$



3. **Mass from the energy of fields**

Electron carries a static electric field, which produces energy  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 \vec{E}^2$



# Mass from interactions

- The nucleon mass is determined by two different mass scales:

$$M_N = \sum_i \alpha_i m_i + \beta \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}$$

- **Quark masses  $m_q$** 
  - Just like the electron mass in atomic physics, determined by Higgs mechanism
  - Electroweak symmetry breaking scale.
- **QCD scale  $\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}$** 
  - QCD scale  $\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}$  does not appear directly in the lagrangian: dimensional transmutation
  - Free parameter (imagine increase or decrease by a factor of 10!)

The proton mass sum  
rule

# Criteria

- Physics consideration:
  - Mass is energy,  $m = E/c^2$   
What is the individual sources of energy?  
**terms in the QCD Hamiltonian**
  - Symmetry  
Lorentz symmetry is one of the most important physics constraints.
- The sum rule is unique!

X. Ji, PRL *Phys. Rev. Lett.* 74 (1995) 1071

# Sources of energy

- The effective definition

$$M = E/c^2 |_{\vec{P}=0}$$

- What the sources of energy?

$$E_0 = \sum_i E_i, \quad E_0 = \int d^3\vec{r} E(\vec{r})$$

$E_i$  shall be calculable in theory, measurable in exp.



# Mass as internal energy

- Internal mass as a store of energy

$$Mc^2 = \langle N | \hat{H}_{QCD} | N \rangle |_{\vec{P}=0}$$

This is how the lattice QCD calculate.

- For any relativistic system, the Hamiltonian can be separated into two terms (Ji, PRL,1995),

$$\hat{H}_{QCD} = \hat{H}_T + \hat{H}_S$$

This separation is a fundamental property of special relativity and both parts are scale invariant

# Lorentz symmetry

- Energy is related to  $H = \int d^3\vec{r} T^{00}(\vec{r})$
- $T^{\mu\nu}$  has a mixed symmetry under Lorentz transformation  $(1,1) + (0,0)$ , and the separate parts are scheme and scale independent.

$$T^{\mu\nu} = T_S^{\mu\nu} + T_T^{\mu\nu} ,$$

$$H = H_S + H_T ,$$

$$M = M_S + M_T$$

# Tensor and scalar energies

- Tensor energy

$$E_T = \langle H_T \rangle$$

is related to the usual kinetic and potential energy sources.

- Scalar energy

$$E_S = \langle H_S \rangle$$

is related to related to scale-breaking properties of the theory ( $\partial^\mu j_{D\mu} \sim H_S$ ), such as

- Quark mass  $m_q$
- Trace anomaly (quantum breaking of scale symmetry ).

# Does the trace anomaly contribute to the mass?

- Of course! (can also be derived by through time-translation)
- $T_{\mu}^{\mu} = (1 + \gamma_m)m\bar{\psi}\psi + \frac{\beta(g)}{2g}F^2$
- In the massless QCD limit, all contribution to the scalar energy (mass) comes from the anomaly. (without trace anomaly, there is no mass!)
- The scalar field from trace anomaly plays the key role for mass generation, like a Higgs mechanism.

# Relativistic “virial theorem”

- As an important feature of relativity, one can show

$$E_T = 3E_S \quad (\text{virial theorem})$$

3 is the dimension of space.

- Scalar energy sets the scale of the tensor energy (kinetic and potential energies of the system).
- In non-relativistic limit of QED & gravity, it reduces

$$\langle V \rangle = -2\langle T \rangle$$

kinetic energy sets the scale for potential energy!

# Renormalization: tensor part

- Standard!

$$T^{(\mu\nu)} = T_q^{(\mu\nu)} + T_g^{(\mu\nu)}$$

renormalization of  $T_{q,g}^{(\mu\nu)}$  is known to four-loops

$$\begin{pmatrix} T_q^{\mu\nu} \\ T_g^{\mu\nu} \\ T_{gv}^{\mu\nu} \\ E^{\mu\nu} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Z_{qq} & Z_{qg} & Z_{qa} & Z_{qe} \\ Z_{gq} & Z_{gg} & Z_{ga} & Z_{ge} \\ 0 & 0 & Z_{aa} & Z_{ae} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} T_q^{\mu\nu} \\ T_g^{\mu\nu} \\ T_{gv}^{\mu\nu} \\ E^{\mu\nu} \end{pmatrix}^R$$

$$\frac{d}{d \ln \mu_f^2} \begin{pmatrix} q_s \\ g \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{qq} & P_{qg} \\ P_{gq} & P_{gg} \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} q_s \\ g \end{pmatrix}$$



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## Low moments of the four-loop splitting functions in QCD

S. Moch<sup>a,\*</sup>, B. Ruijl<sup>b</sup>, T. Ueda<sup>c</sup>, J.A.M. Vermaseren<sup>d</sup>, A. Vogt<sup>e</sup>



<sup>a</sup> *II. Institute for Theoretical Physics, Hamburg University, Luruper Chaussee 149, D-22761 Hamburg, Germany*

<sup>b</sup> *ETH Zürich, Rämistrasse 101, CH-8092 Zürich, Switzerland*

<sup>c</sup> *Department of Materials and Life Science, Seikei University, 3-3-1 Kichijoji Kitamachi, Musashino-shi, Tokyo 180-8633, Japan*

<sup>d</sup> *Nikhef Theory Group, Science Park 105, 1098 XG Amsterdam, The Netherlands*

<sup>e</sup> *Department of Mathematical Sciences, University of Liverpool, Liverpool L69 3BX, United Kingdom*

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### ABSTRACT

We have computed the four lowest even- $N$  moments of all four splitting functions for the evolution of flavour-singlet parton densities of hadrons at the fourth order in the strong coupling constant  $\alpha_s$ . The perturbative expansion of these moments, and hence of the splitting functions for momentum fractions  $x \gtrsim 0.1$ , is found to be well behaved with relative  $\alpha_s$ -coefficients of order one and sub-percent effects on the scale derivatives of the quark and gluon distributions at  $\alpha_s \lesssim 0.2$ . More intricate computations, including other approaches such as the operator-product expansion, are required to cover the full  $x$ -range relevant to LHC analyses. Our results are presented analytically for a general gauge group for detailed checks and validations of such future calculations.

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$$\gamma_{ik}(N, \alpha_s) = \sum_{n=0} a_s^{n+1} \gamma_{ik}^{(n)}(x) \quad \text{with} \quad a_s \equiv \frac{\alpha_s(\mu_f^2)}{4\pi} .$$

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{ps}^{(3)}(N=2) = & n_f C_F^3 \left( \frac{227938}{2187} + \frac{1952}{81} \zeta_3 + \frac{256}{9} \zeta_4 - \frac{640}{3} \zeta_5 \right) \\ & + n_f C_A C_F^2 \left( -\frac{162658}{6561} + \frac{8048}{27} \zeta_3 - \frac{1664}{9} \zeta_4 + \frac{320}{9} \zeta_5 \right) \\ & + n_f C_A^2 C_F \left( -\frac{410299}{6561} - \frac{26896}{81} \zeta_3 + \frac{1408}{9} \zeta_4 + \frac{4480}{27} \zeta_5 \right) \\ & + n_f \frac{d_R^{abcd} d_A^{abcd}}{n_c} \left( \frac{1024}{9} + \frac{256}{9} \zeta_3 - \frac{2560}{9} \zeta_5 \right) - n_f^2 C_F^2 \left( \frac{73772}{6561} + \frac{5248}{81} \zeta_3 - \frac{320}{9} \zeta_4 \right) \\ & + n_f^2 C_A C_F \left( \frac{160648}{6561} + 48 \zeta_3 - \frac{320}{9} \zeta_4 \right) + n_f^3 C_F \left( -\frac{1712}{729} + \frac{128}{27} \zeta_3 \right), \end{aligned}$$

$$\gamma_{gq}^{(3)}(N=2) = -\gamma_{qq}^{(3)}(N=2),$$

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{qg}^{(3)}(N=2) = & n_f C_F^3 \left( \frac{16489}{729} + \frac{736}{81} \zeta_3 + \frac{256}{9} \zeta_4 - \frac{320}{3} \zeta_5 \right) \\ & + n_f C_A^3 \left( -\frac{88769}{729} + \frac{31112}{81} \zeta_3 - 132 \zeta_4 - \frac{3560}{27} \zeta_5 \right) - n_f C_A C_F^2 \left( \frac{1153727}{13122} - \frac{7108}{81} \zeta_3 \right. \\ & \quad \left. + \frac{1136}{9} \zeta_4 - \frac{2000}{9} \zeta_5 \right) + n_f C_A^2 C_F \left( \frac{763868}{6561} - \frac{12808}{27} \zeta_3 + \frac{2068}{9} \zeta_4 + \frac{40}{9} \zeta_5 \right) \\ & + n_f \frac{d_R^{abcd} d_A^{abcd}}{n_a} \left( \frac{368}{9} - \frac{992}{9} \zeta_3 - \frac{2560}{9} \zeta_5 \right) - n_f^2 C_F^2 \left( \frac{110714}{6561} + \frac{272}{9} \zeta_3 - \frac{224}{9} \zeta_4 \right) \\ & + n_f^2 C_A C_F \left( \frac{249310}{6561} + \frac{5632}{81} \zeta_3 - \frac{440}{9} \zeta_4 \right) + n_f^2 C_A^2 \left( \frac{48625}{2187} - \frac{3572}{81} \zeta_3 \right. \\ & \quad \left. + 24 \zeta_4 + \frac{160}{27} \zeta_5 \right) + n_f^2 \frac{d_R^{abcd} d_A^{abcd}}{n_a} \left( -\frac{928}{9} - \frac{640}{9} \zeta_3 + \frac{2560}{9} \zeta_5 \right) \\ & + n_f^3 C_F \left( -\frac{8744}{2187} + \frac{128}{27} \zeta_3 \right) + n_f^3 C_A \left( \frac{3385}{2187} - \frac{176}{81} \zeta_3 \right), \end{aligned}$$

$$\gamma_{gg}^{(3)}(N=2) = -\gamma_{qg}^{(3)}(N=2),$$



# Renormalization: scalar part

- Scale invariant!

$$(1 + \gamma_m)m\bar{\psi}\psi + \frac{\beta(g)}{2g}F^2$$

- There is no mixing between scalar and tensor in any renormalization method (lattice, DR)!

Unless Lorentz symmetry is broken.

Other schemes breaking Lorentz symmetry is not interesting.

# Mass separation

- Independent of dynamics

$$M_S = \frac{1}{4} M, \quad M_T = \frac{3}{4} M$$

$$M_T = 3 M_S,$$

- $H_S = \frac{1}{4} T_\mu^\mu$  is the source for dilatation symmetry breaking. Dilaton field.

# QCD energies in the nucleon

- Four different types

$$H_{\text{QCD}} = H_q + H_m + H_g + H_a.$$

$$H_q = \int d^3\vec{x} \bar{\psi}(-i\mathbf{D} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha})\psi, \quad \leftarrow \text{Quark energy}$$

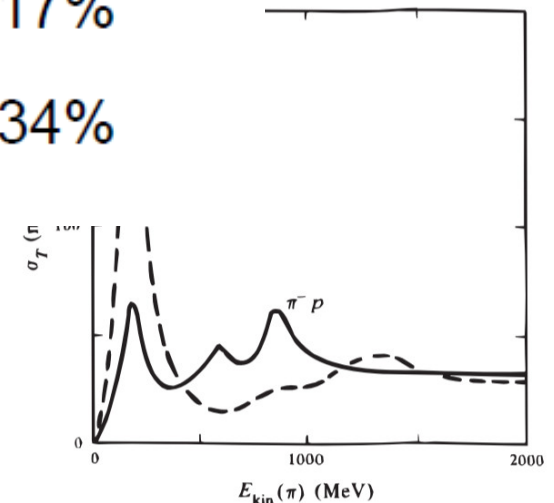
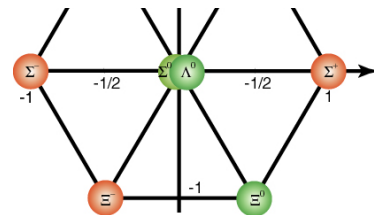
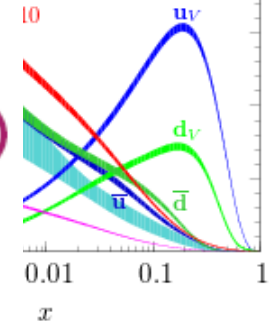
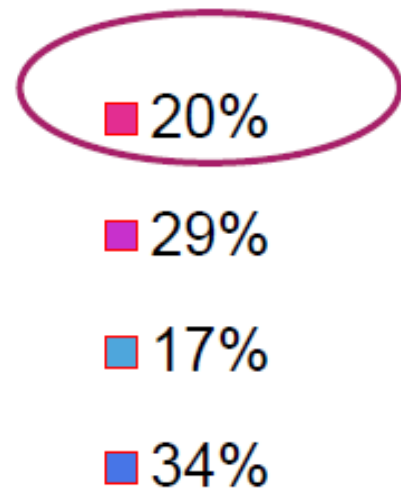
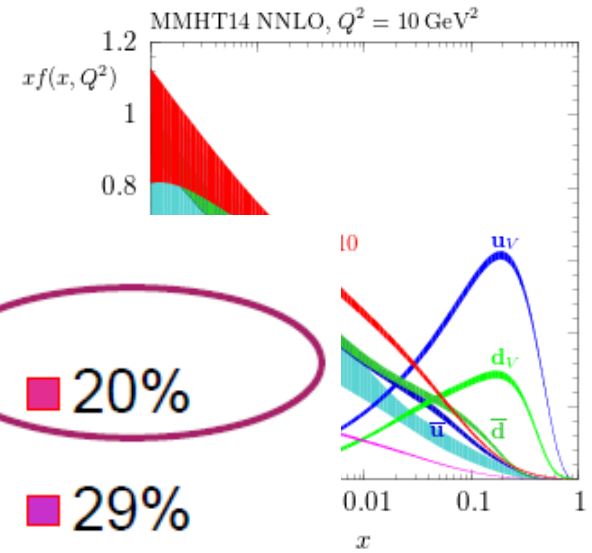
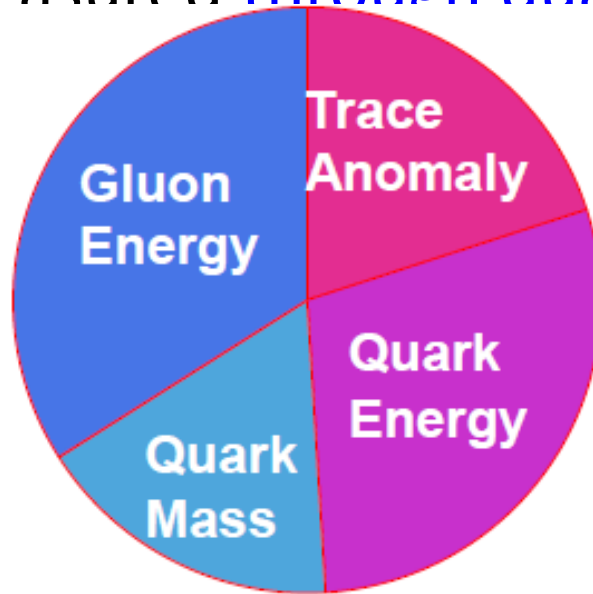
$$H_m = \int d^3\vec{x} \bar{\psi}m\psi, \quad \leftarrow \text{Quark mass}$$

$$H_g = \int d^3\vec{x} \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{E}^2 + \mathbf{B}^2), \quad \leftarrow \text{Gluon energy}$$

$$H_a = \int d^3\vec{x} \frac{9\alpha_s}{16\pi}(\mathbf{E}^2 - \mathbf{B}^2). \quad \leftarrow \text{Quantum Anomalous Energy (QAE)}$$

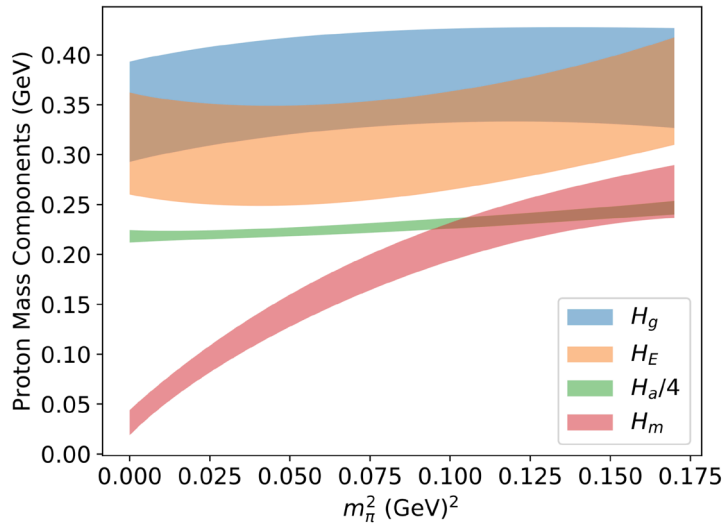
# Proton mass content from data (Ji,1995)

- Quark energy and gluon energy can be measured through quark and gluon high energy measurements and through strange quark information on QAE

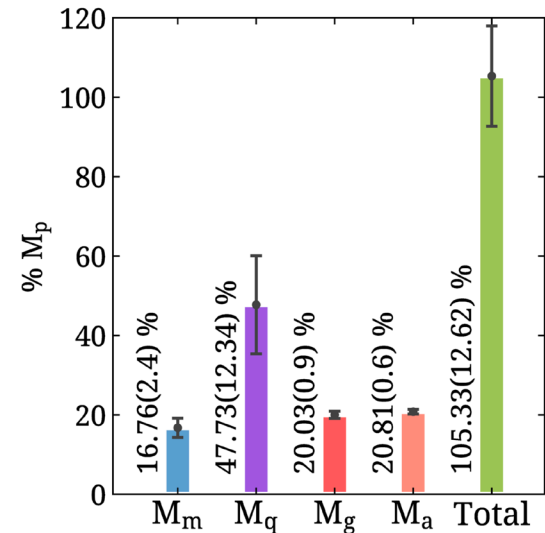


# Proton mass on the lattice

To date no direct calculation of the trace anomaly



Y.-B. Yang *et al.*, ( $\chi$ QCD), PRL 121, 212001 (2018)



C. Alexandrou *et al.*, (ETMC), PRL 119, 142002 (2017)

C. Alexandrou *et al.*, (ETMC), PRL 116, 252001 (2016)

Trace anomaly only constrained through sum-rules not calculated directly.



Dynamical origin: scalar  
field & Higgs mechanism

# Dynamical origin

- In the nucleon models,  $\Lambda_{QCD}$  is replaced by some scale related to dynamics.
  - Chiral symmetry breaking
    - Scale set by chiral condensate or constituent quark masses
  - Color confinement
    - MIT bag constant: energy density of false vacuum
  - Instanton liquid
    - Scale related to instanton size and density
  - AdS/CFT...
- In lattice QCD, the scale is related to the lattice spacing,  $a$ .

# Scalar energy, quantum anomalous energy (QAE)

- Trace relation for mass

$$2M^2 = \left\langle P \left| (1 + \gamma_m)m\bar{\psi}\psi + \frac{\beta(g)}{2g}F^2 \right| P \right\rangle$$

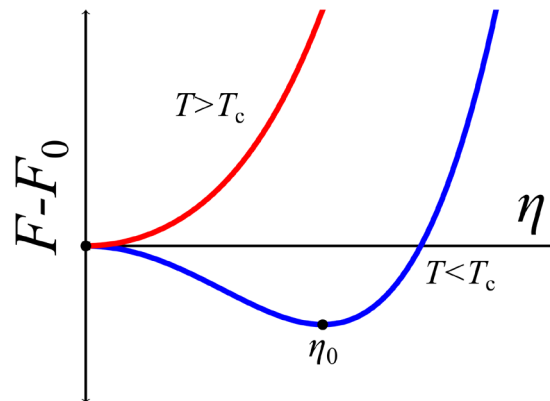
- Not a “total” mass sum rule.
- It is a sum rule for scalar part of the mass

$$E_s = \frac{M}{4} = \alpha \langle p | m\bar{\psi}\psi | p \rangle + \beta \langle p | F^2 | p \rangle$$



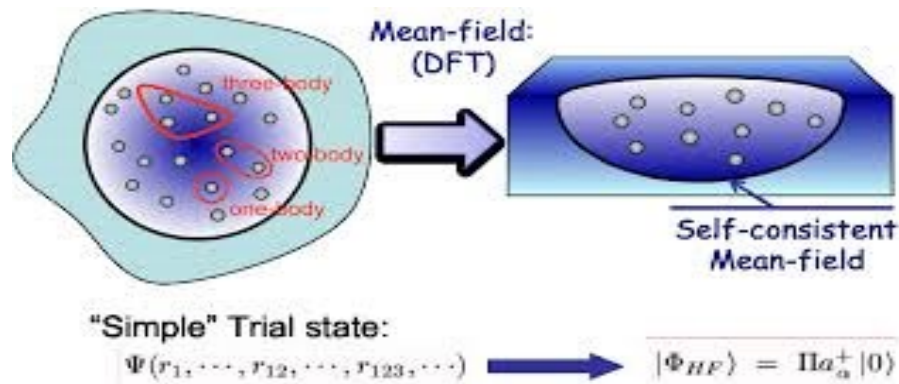
# Energy of a scalar field

- Scalar field is special because it can have a **vacuum condensate**: non-vanishing expectation value in the physical vacuum.  $\langle \eta \rangle \neq 0$ , which **stores the internal energy** (latent heat)



# Mean field theory for nuclear structure

- Traditional theory for nuclear structure: mean field theory

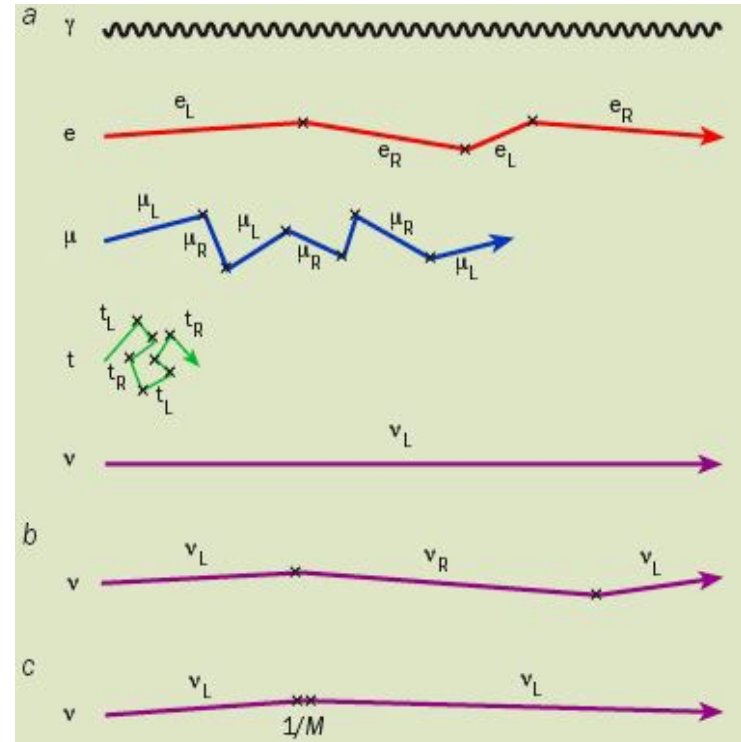


- Two important features:
  - a) Mean field depth is about  $\sim 40$  MeV
  - b) Large spin-orbit splitting for nuclear shells.

# Masses of electrons and leptons: Higgs mechanism

- There is a scalar field  $H$ , which interacts with the fermions  $g\bar{\psi}\psi H$ .  $H$  acquires an expectation value in the vacuum after SSB,  $\langle H \rangle = v = 246 \text{ GeV}$ , hence the fermion mass,

$$m = gv$$

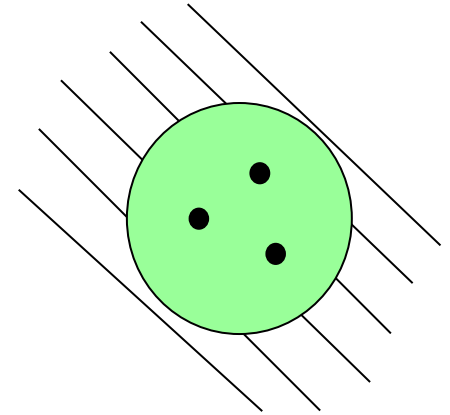


# Quantum anomalous energy (QAE) contribution to the proton mass:

- The scalar field has a VEV:  $\langle 0|F^2|0\rangle$
- QAE comes from the scalar response to the presence of the quarks.

$$\phi = F^2 - \langle 0|F^2|0\rangle$$

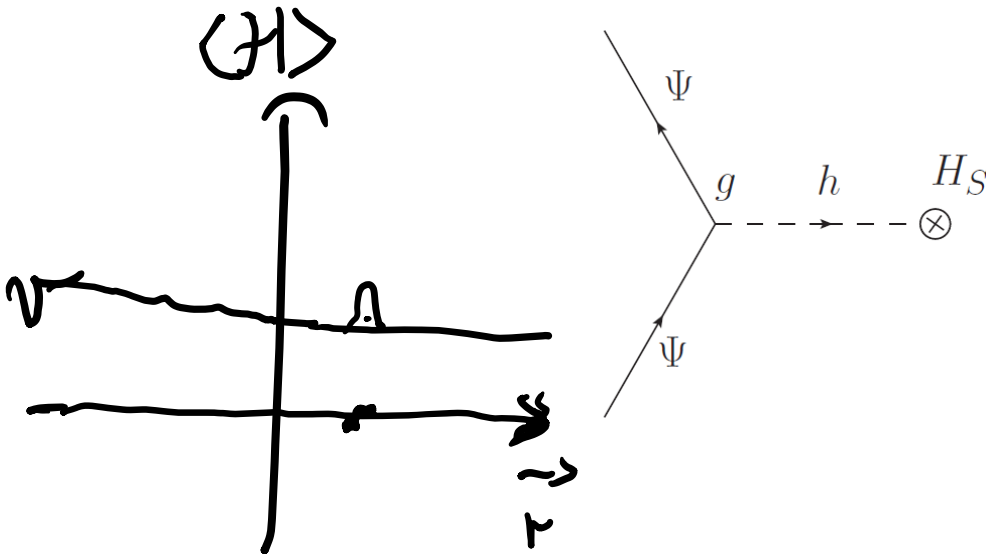
- The contribution is similar to the Higgs mechanism in electroweak theory, with gluon scalar as a dynamical Higgs field.



# Dynamical picture of the fermion mass in Higgs mechanism

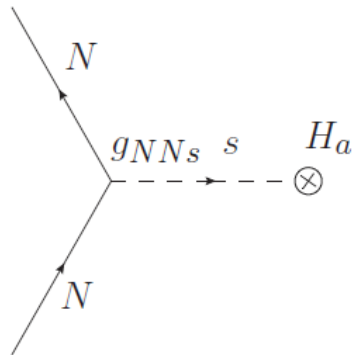
- Part of the fermion mass comes from the dynamical excitation of the higgs field in the presence of fermion

$$m_f \sim \langle f | H_S | f \rangle \sim \langle f | h | f \rangle$$



# QAE as a dynamical response

- $E_a \sim \langle N|F^2|N\rangle$
- This matrix element can also be calculated through dynamical scalar excitations



$$\langle N|\phi|N\rangle = \sum_s \frac{g_{NN_s} f_s}{m_s^2} .$$

# Test of the QCD “Higgs mechanism”

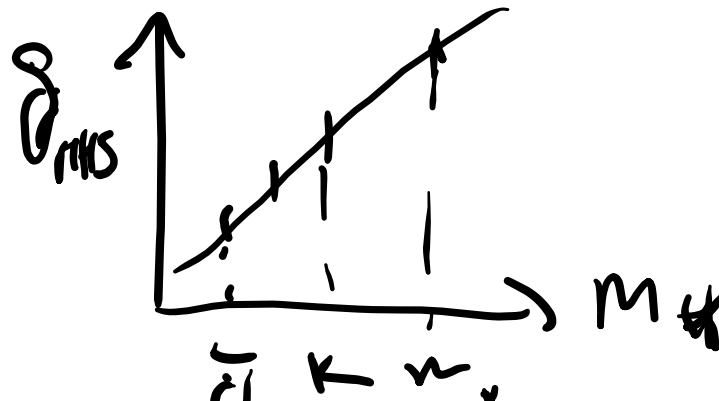
- The couplings of the scalars with the hadrons are proportional to the hadron masses.

$$g_{HHs} \sim m_H$$

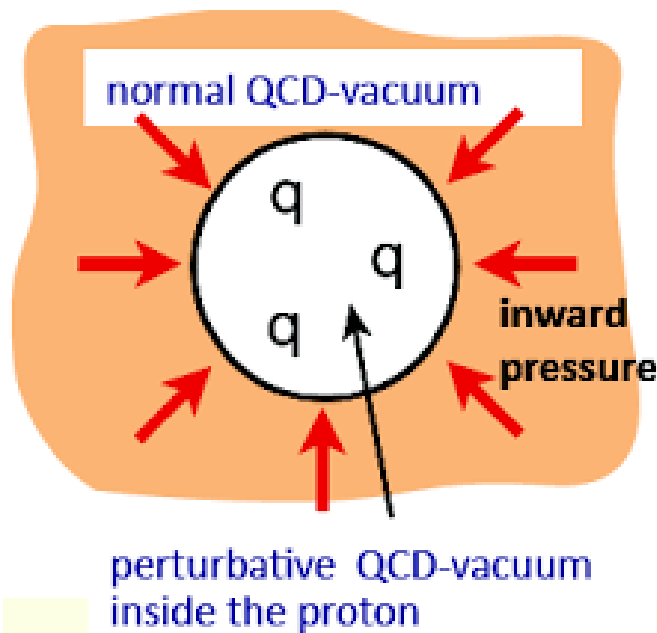
this also works for pion and kaon.

One can do the similar test as one does for Higgs particles at LHC but much more complicated

- Scalar spectrum



# Physics of QAE in the MIT bag model



## M.I.T. Bag Model

- The boundary condition generates discrete energy eigenvalues.

$$\varepsilon_n = \frac{x_n}{R}$$

R - radius of the Bag

$x_1=2.04$

$$E_{kin}(R) = N_q \frac{x_n}{R}$$

$N_q$  = # of quarks inside the bag

$$E_{pot}(R) = \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3 B$$

B - bag constant that reflects the bag pressure

Mass = quark kinetic energy + B(scalar-field condensate)



# Mass structure: gravitations form factors

- Form factors of EMT for quarks and gluons (Ji,1996)

$$\langle P' | T_{q,g}^{\mu\nu} | P \rangle = \bar{U}(P') [A_{q,g}(\Delta^2) \gamma^{(\mu} \bar{P}^{\nu)} + B_{q,g}(\Delta^2) \bar{P}^{(\mu} i \sigma^{\nu)\alpha} \Delta_\alpha / 2M + C_{q,g}(\Delta^2) (\Delta^\mu \Delta^\nu - g^{\mu\nu} \Delta^2) / M + \bar{C}_{q,g}(\Delta^2) g^{\mu\nu} M] U(P),$$

- Form factors for the total EMT (Pagels, 1966)

$$\langle P' | T^{\mu\nu} | P \rangle = \bar{u}(P') \left[ A(Q^2) \gamma^{(\mu} \bar{P}^{\nu)} + B(Q^2) \bar{P}^{(\mu} i \sigma^{\nu)\alpha} q_\alpha / 2M + C(Q^2) (q^\mu q^\nu - g^{\mu\nu} q^2) / M \right] u(P),$$

$$A = A_q + A_g, \quad B \ \& \ C \ \text{etc.}, \quad \bar{C}_q + \bar{C}_g = 0$$

# Scalar form factor

- Form factor of the scalar density

$$\langle P' | T_\mu^\mu | P \rangle = \bar{u}(P') u(P) G_s(Q^2) ,$$

where,

$$G_s(Q^2) = \left[ MA(Q^2) - B(Q^2) \frac{Q^2}{4M} + C(Q^2) \frac{3Q^2}{M} \right]$$

- Fourier transformation of  $G_s$  gives us the scalar field distribution inside the Nucleon
- Dynamical MIT “bag constant”.

# Scalar radius

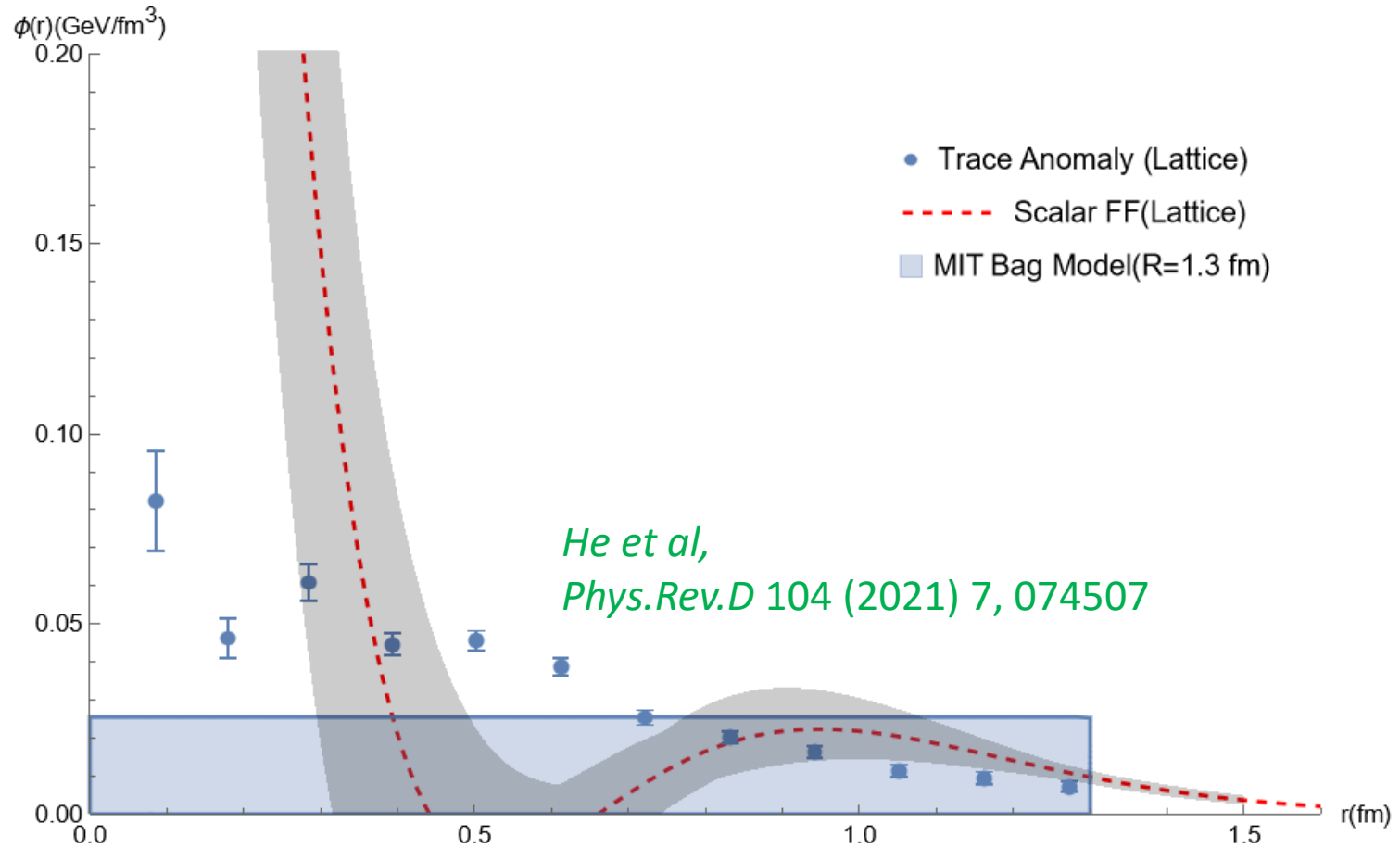
- Scalar field radius might be similar to confinement radius
- The radius

$$\langle r^2 \rangle_s = -6 \frac{dA(Q^2)}{dQ^2} - 18 \frac{C(0)}{M^2}$$

- MIT bag scalar radius

$$r_s^2 = \frac{3}{5} R^2, \quad r_s = 1.3 fm$$

# Scalar field (QAE) distribution inside the proton



# Mass form factor

$$\langle P' | T^{00} | P \rangle = \bar{u}(P') u(P) G_m(Q^2) .$$

where

$$G_m(Q^2) = \left[ MA(Q^2) - B(Q^2) \frac{Q^2}{4M} + C(Q^2) \frac{Q^2}{M} \right]$$

# Scalar and mass radii

- Definition:

$$\langle r^2 \rangle_{s,m} = -6 \frac{dG_{s,m}(Q^2)}{dQ^2} ,$$

$$\langle r^2 \rangle_s = -6 \frac{dA(Q^2)}{dQ^2} - 18 \frac{C(0)}{M^2}$$

$$\langle r^2 \rangle_m = -6 \frac{dA(Q^2)}{dQ^2} - 6 \frac{C(0)}{M^2} ,$$

- The difference

$$\langle r^2 \rangle_s - \langle r^2 \rangle_m = -12 \frac{C(0)}{M^2}$$

- Conjecture  $\langle r^2 \rangle_s > \langle r^2 \rangle_m$  or  $C(0) < 0$

# Lattice calculations

- Radius from A-FF:

Hagler et al (2008)

Shanahan et al (2018)

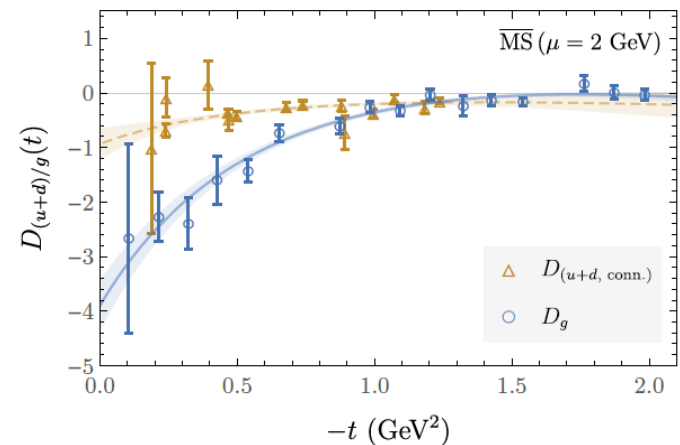
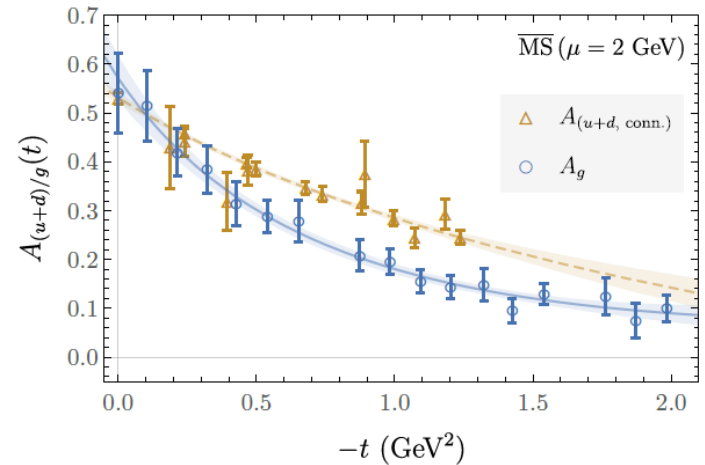
$$\langle r^2 \rangle_A = (0.5 \text{ fm})^2$$

- C-FF contribution

$D = -5.0$

$$\langle r^2 \rangle_s = (1.1 \text{ fm})^2$$

$$\langle r^2 \rangle_m = (0.75 \text{ fm})^2$$



Physics of gravitational  
form factor  $C(D)$



# Momentum current & pressure

- Gravitational form factors

$$\langle P' | T_{q,g}^{\mu\nu} | P \rangle = \bar{U}(P') [A_{q,g}(\Delta^2) \gamma^{(\mu} \bar{P}^{\nu)} + B_{q,g}(\Delta^2) \bar{P}^{(\mu} i \sigma^{\nu)\alpha} \Delta_\alpha / 2M + C_{q,g}(\Delta^2) (\Delta^\mu \Delta^\nu - g^{\mu\nu} \Delta^2) / M + \bar{C}_{q,g}(\Delta^2) g^{\mu\nu} M] U(P),$$

- In the Breit frame, C and C-bar are related to the form factor of  $T^{ij}$
- $T^{ij}$  has been originally introduced as a stress tensor of fluids and solids, and is related pressure etc
- However, in relativistic theory, its definition is **momentum (density) current**

# Momentum density current

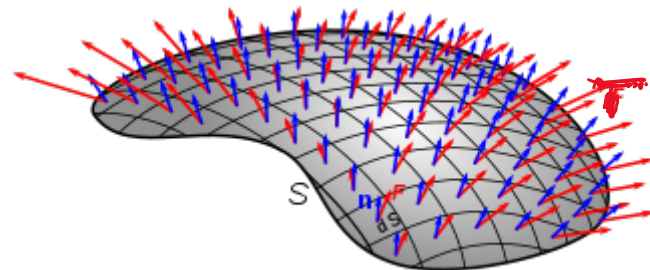
- $T^{ij}$  is actually **momentum density current** (MC). It describes vector flow (j) of momentum component (i) or vice versa.
- The momentum density  $p^i(\vec{r}) = T^{i0}(\vec{r})$  satisfies the conservation law

$$\frac{\partial p^i(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} + \partial_j T^{ij} = 0$$

The flux of i-momentum following through a surface  $dS$  is just

$$F^i = \int T^{ij} dS_j$$

which can be + or -.



# Questions about pressure interpretations

1. Is the pressure the same as we understand in a gas or liquid?
2. What does the negative pressure mean?
3. Does a proton need negative and positive pressure region to maintain its stability?
4. What the pressure is acting on?

....

# Stress tensor in H atom

By non-relativistic reduction of the Dirac equation, one can construct the following EMT  $T_{\text{QM}}^{ij}$  which consists of a kinetic term

$$T_K^{ij} = -\frac{1}{4m} (\phi^\dagger \partial^i \partial^j \phi - \partial^i \phi^\dagger \partial^j \phi + \text{c.c}) , \quad (94)$$

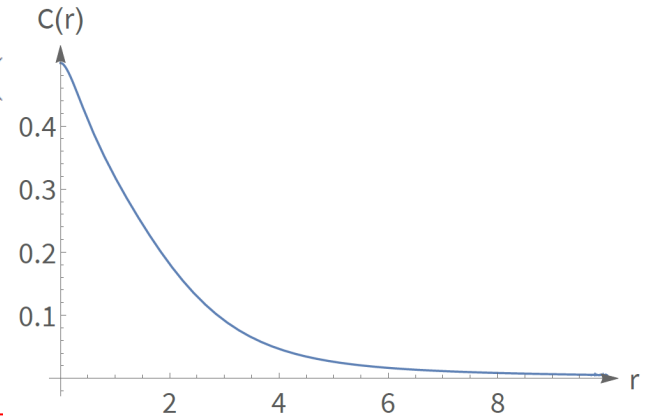
plus a potential term made of interacting electric fields of the proton and electron,

$$T_V^{ij} = \delta^{ij} \nabla V_p \cdot \nabla V_e - \partial^i V_e \partial^j V_p - \partial^i V_p \partial^j V_e . \quad ($$

The trace of  $T_{\text{QM}}^{ij} = T_V^{ij} + T_K^{ij}$  can be calculated as

$$T_{\text{QM}}^{ij}(\vec{r}) = (\delta^{ij} \nabla^2 - \nabla^i \nabla^j) \frac{C_{\text{QM}}(r)}{M}$$

$$\frac{C_{\text{QM}}(r)}{M} = \frac{1}{2\nabla^2} T_{\text{QM}}^{ii} = \frac{e^{-2\alpha r} \alpha (2\alpha r + 1)}{16\pi r^2} - \frac{\alpha}{16\pi r^2}$$



# Review on multipoles of electric current $\vec{j}$

- For static system, one has the current conservation

$$\partial_i J^i = 0$$

- In momentum space (two D.O.F)

$$q_i J^i = 0$$

Thus, one has many vanishing moments,

$$\int d^3\vec{r} r_{(i_1} \dots r_{i_l} j_{i)}(\vec{r}) = 0$$

# Two independent series

- Magnetic multipoles

$$\tilde{V}_{ii_1 \dots i_l}^{(l)} \sim \int d^3\vec{r} m_i(\vec{r}) r_{(i_1 \dots i_{l-1})} ,$$

$$\vec{m}(\vec{r}) = \vec{r} \times \vec{j}(\vec{r}) ,$$

Most important: **dipole moment or magnetic moment**

- Longitudinal multipoles

moments of  $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{j}$

which does not contribute to static E&M multipoles

# Multipoles of momentum current

- Current conservation (only 3 DOF)

$$\partial_j T^{ij} = 0$$

- One general identity

$$\frac{1}{k!} \sum_P \int d^3\vec{r} T_{i_{P(1)} i_{P(2)} \dots i_{P(k)}} = 0$$

or two vanishing series of moments

$$U_{ij i_1 \dots i_l}^{(l+2)} \equiv T_{(ij, i_1 \dots i_l)} ,$$

$$\tilde{U}_{ij i_1 \dots i_l}^{(l+1)} \equiv \frac{2l}{l+2} T_{i[j, i_1] \dots i_l} ,$$

# Three non-vanishing moment series:

- Scalar multipoles (“pressure” multipoles)

$$S(r) = T^{ii}(r)$$

$$S^J = \int d^3\vec{r} S(r) r_{r_1} \dots r_{i_j}$$

( $S^{(0)}=0$ , however, scalar monopole density does not )

- Tensor multipoles (natural parity, “shear pressure”)

$$T^J \text{ from } \int d^3\vec{r} T_{ij}(r) r_i \dots r_{i_j}$$

- Tensor multipoles (unnatural parity)

$$\tilde{T}^J \text{ from } \int d^3\vec{r} T_{i[j}(r) r_{r_1]} \dots r_{i_j}$$



# Form factors & multipoles: Scalar particle

- Form factor

$$\begin{aligned} \langle P' | T^{\mu\nu} | P \rangle \\ = 2P^\mu P^\nu A(q^2) + 2(q^\mu q^\nu - g^{\mu\nu} q^2) C(q^2) , \end{aligned}$$

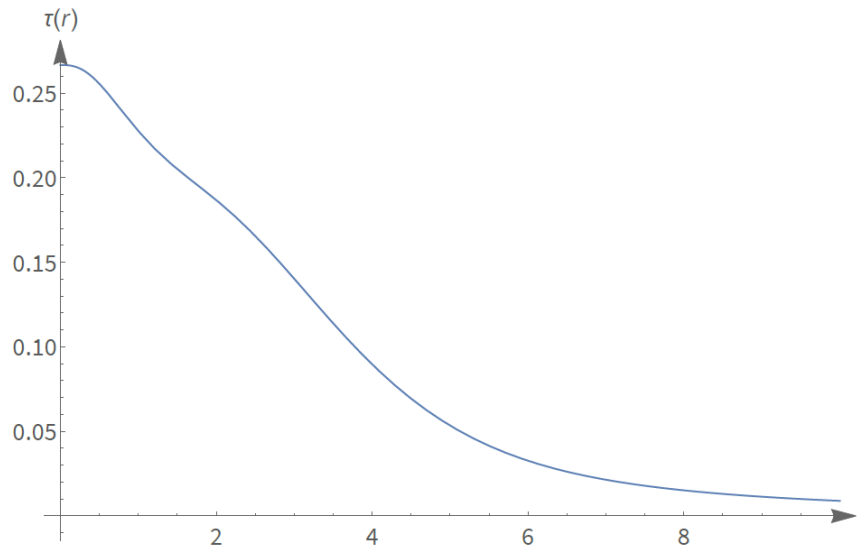
- Tensor monopole T0 (“shear flow”)

$$T^{(0)} = \frac{1}{5} \int d^3\vec{r} T_{ij}(\vec{r}) \left( r_i r_j - \frac{\delta_{ij}}{3} r^2 \right)$$

normalization,  $\tau = -T^{(0)}/2 = D/4M$  (the D term)

# Tensor monopole density

$$\tau(r) = -\frac{2\pi}{5}r^2 \left( r^i r^j - \frac{1}{3}r^2 \delta^{ij} \right) T_{ij}(r)$$



when integrated over, one gets,  $\frac{\hbar^2}{4m} (1 + O(\alpha))$

# Tensor monopole moment $\tau$

- For a free boson

$$\tau_{\text{boson}} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{4M}$$

- It has been argued that the stable system must have  $\tau$  negative.
- However, for H-atom, we find

$$\tau = \hbar^2 / 4M (1 + O(\alpha))$$

Stability of a system shall not depend on momentum current properties. It is quantum mechanics!

# Gravitational field from form factor C

- Linearized Einstein equation

$$\square \bar{h}^{\mu\nu} = \frac{16\pi G}{c^4} T^{\mu\nu}$$

where  $g^{\mu\nu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} - h^{\mu\nu}$  and  $\bar{h}^{\mu\nu} = h^{\mu\nu} - \frac{\eta^{\mu\nu}}{2} h^\rho{}_\rho$

- The solution with C form factor is

$$\begin{aligned} h_C^{00}(\vec{r}) &= -\frac{8\pi G}{c^4 M} C(r) \\ h_C^{ij}(\vec{r}) &= \frac{8\pi G}{c^4 M} C(r) \delta^{ij} \end{aligned}$$

- Given  $C(r)$  decays exponentially, so does the metric perturbation.

# Spin-1/2 particle

- Form factors

$$\langle P' | T^{\mu\nu} | P \rangle = \bar{u}(P' S') \left[ A(q^2) \gamma^{(\mu} \bar{P}^{\nu)} + B(q^2) \frac{\bar{P}^{(\mu} i \sigma^{\nu)\alpha} q_\alpha + C(q^2) \frac{q^\mu q^\nu - g^{\mu\nu} q^2}{M} \right] u(P S) ,$$

- Apart from the angular momentum multipoles, one has the tensor monopole

$$\tau = \frac{C(0)}{M} .$$

$C(0)$  shall be negative for the nucleon from a different reason.

# Spin-1 particle

- Six form factors

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \langle P', \epsilon_f | T^{\mu\nu}(0) | P, \epsilon_i \rangle \\
 &= -2\bar{P}^\mu \bar{P}^\nu \left[ (\epsilon_f^* \cdot \epsilon_i) A(q^2) + E^{\alpha\beta} q_\alpha q_\beta \frac{\tilde{A}(q^2)}{M^2} \right] \\
 &+ J(q^2) \frac{i\bar{P}^{(\mu} S^{\nu)\alpha} q_\alpha}{M} \\
 &- 2(q_\mu q_\nu - g_{\mu\nu} q^2) \left[ (\epsilon_f^* \cdot \epsilon_i) C(q^2) + E^{\alpha\beta} q_\alpha q_\beta \frac{\tilde{C}(q^2)}{M^2} \right] \\
 &- [(E^{\mu\nu} q^2 - E^{\mu\alpha} q^\nu q_\alpha - E^{\alpha\nu} q^\mu q_\alpha + g^{\mu\nu} E^{\alpha\beta} q_\alpha q_\beta] D(q^2)
 \end{aligned}$$

- Mass quadrupole, tensor quadrupole, and scalar quadrupole:

$$T_{ij}^{(2)} = -\frac{\tilde{C}(0)}{48M^2} \hat{E}_{ij}$$

$$\sigma_{ij} = \frac{D(q^2=0)}{M} \hat{E}_{ij}$$

# Conclusions

- The mass sum rule with physical definition and symmetry is unique.
- The anomaly or scalar contribution to the mass of the proton acts like Higgs mechanism. It is important to measure mass and scalar radius
- The form factor  $C$  can best be characterized by gravitational tensor monopole density which generates specific type of gravity. (pressure and stability are not natural concepts in this context).

# Questions

1. Is the pressure the same as we understand in a gas or liquid?
2. What does the negative pressure mean?
3. Does a proton need negative and positive pressure region to maintain its stability?
4. What the pressure is acting on?

....



# What is the (usual) pressure?

- Pressures for non-interacting systems

**Average kinetic energy either in thermal or quantum state**

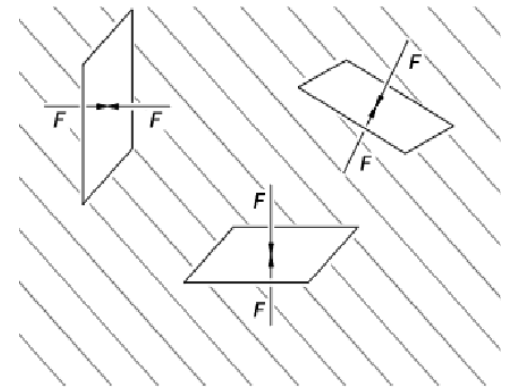
- Pressure in ideal gas

$$P = nk_B T = \frac{2}{3} \text{ K.E.}$$

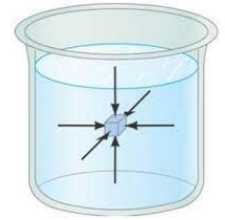
- Pressure in a quantum fermi gas

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \text{ K.E.}$$

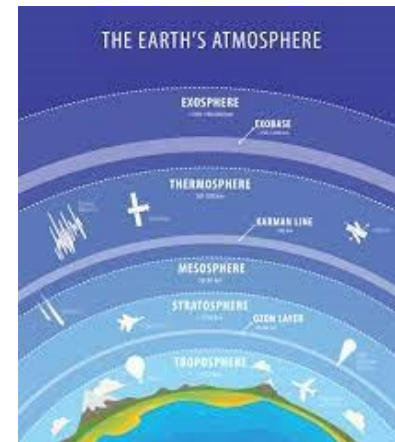
- **Non-directional** (locally in equilibrium)
- **Pressure is always non-negative** unless in unstable phase.



# Pressure in a system with interactions : $P = -\frac{\partial F}{\partial V}$



- Consider a small test volume  $\delta V$  in thermal equilibrium ( $M.F.P. \ll (\delta V)^{\frac{1}{3}}$ ), the interaction range  $\lambda$
- Short-range interaction,  $\lambda \ll (\delta V)^{1/3}$ 
  - repulsive interaction:  $p \uparrow$
  - attractive interaction:  $p \downarrow$
- Long-range interaction,  $\lambda \gg (\delta V)^{1/3}$ 
  - The interaction is not part of the pressure.
  - For a confining system (atmosphere on earth) the pressure goes to zero!



# Energy-momentum tensor and pressure

- What has been calculated or measured is related to the energy-momentum tensor in space

$$T^{\mu\nu}(\vec{r}) \quad (\mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2, 3)$$

- It is well-known that in the ideal gas/fluid model

$$T^{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & p & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & p & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & p \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $p$  is the normal pressure in the gas. What has been measured is the analogue:

$$p = \frac{1}{3} (T^{11} + T^{22} + T^{33}).$$

# This is not the usual pressure

- This pressure does not follow from the usual definition, but from an analogy that the nucleon is some sort of fluid of quarks and gluons.
- There is nothing wrong with a definition, but one needs to be careful (cannot be literal) when interpreting it.
- This pressure takes into account long-range confinement interactions, unlike the example of atmosphere on the earth: It is not just the kinetic energy of quarks and gluons.

# The meaning of $p(r)$

- $p = \frac{1}{3} (T^{11} + T^{22} + T^{33})$

is the average of

the momentum flow (or current) in the x-direction for the momentum component-x, which can be positive or negative

with

the momentum flow (or current) in the y-direction for the momentum component y, which can be positive or negative

and

the momentum flow (or current) in the z-direction for the momentum component z, which can be positive or negative

# Answer for Q2: negative pressure?

- Since the momentum flow pattern in a system can be rather arbitrary (no particular constraint), there is no reason that the “pressure” defined as such be positive definite.
- It is just a definition 😊
- Note, however, that in real fluid  $T^{ii} > 0$  everywhere.

# Answer for Q3: stability

- Laue condition for stability

$$\int d^3\vec{r} p(r) = 0$$

$p(r)$  must be positive and negative.

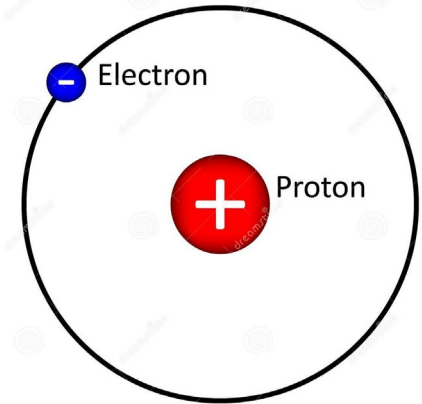
- However, this follows directly from current conservation  $\partial_j T^{ij} = 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \int d^3\vec{r} T^{ij} &= 0 \\ \int d^3\vec{r} r^{(k} r^l \dots r^m T^{ij)} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

- Stability of a quantum system is guaranteed by quantum mechanics (no classical equivalent)

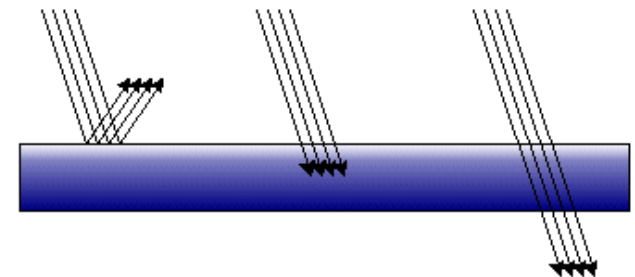
# Q4: What is the pressure acting on?

- Consider H-atom, with one electron there is a momentum current flow, the pressure is certainly not on the electron.
- $T^{ij}$  is about the motion pattern, not acting on other parts of the system
- One imagines a **fictitious surface** which intersects the momentum current.
  - Normal definition of the pressure assumes it bounces
  - Here one assumes the current gets absorbed ( $Q=1$ )



## Radiation Pressure Coefficient

© Blaze Labs Research



Total Reflection

$$Q_{PR} = 2$$

Total Absorption

$$Q_{PR} = 1$$

Total Transmission

$$Q_{PR} = 0$$



# My current understanding

- The pressure or shear pressure are introduced to characterize a momentum flow pattern.
- One shall not over-interpret them literally (mechanical stability etc. )