

Radiative Correction to the Ground-State Energy of an Electron in an Intense Magnetic Field

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It is pointed out that the ground-state energy of an electron does not deviate much from mc^2 , even in the presence of intense magnetic fields larger by several orders of magnitude than 10^{13} G.

FOR astrophysical purposes, it has recently been investigated^{1,2} how the ground-state energy E_0 of an electron may be shifted from mc^2 in the presence of a very intense static uniform magnetic field \mathbf{H} . Without radiative corrections, E_0 does not depend on H . Assuming that the radiative corrections can be described by adding a term $\mu\boldsymbol{\sigma}\cdot\mathbf{H}$ to the Dirac Hamiltonian [where $\mu=(\alpha/2\pi)(e\hbar/2mc)$ is the Schwinger value for the anomalous magnetic moment, and where the components of $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ are the Pauli matrices], one finds for the ground-state energy of an electron^{3,4}

$$E_0 = mc^2 \left| 1 - (\alpha/4\pi)(e\hbar H/m^2 c^3) \right|. \quad (1)$$

On the basis that (1) vanishes for $H=7.6\times 10^{16}$ G and becomes larger than the rest energy of a muon for $H\sim 10^{19}$ G, puzzling conclusions about pair creation^{1,2} and electron-to-muon decay² have been claimed.

We wish to point out that the extrapolation of (1) to high-field values is unjustified. A high field will distort the structure of the electron. The very concept of an anomalous magnetic moment only means that when the energy is expanded with respect to H , the linear term is $\mu\boldsymbol{\sigma}\cdot\mathbf{H}$, but higher-order terms in H become important, of course, if H is large. When H is large, it must be taken into account to all orders; the expansion with respect to the small fine-structure constant $\alpha\approx 1/137$ is, however, still legitimate. Therefore, one must compute the Feynman graph of Fig. 1, where the double line represents the propagation of an electron in the external field H .

This computation has actually been carried out many years ago. An essential ingredient is the electron propagator in a uniform magnetic field, which has been independently derived by several authors⁵⁻⁸ in different but equivalent forms. The Feynman graph itself can then be computed. Most authors at some stage went to

the low-field limit, which was the only one in which they were interested. A result which is valid for all field strengths has, however, been given⁹ as the following integral representation:

$$E_0 = mc^2 + \frac{\alpha}{4\pi} mc^2 \int_0^1 dv \int \frac{dw}{w} \frac{w}{|w|} \times e^{ivw} \left(\frac{2iLw(v e^{2iLw} + 1)}{v e^{2iLw} + 2iLw(1-v) - v} - (1+v) \right), \quad (2)$$

where $L = e\hbar H/m^2 c^3$.

When L is small, (2) can be expanded in L and yields (1).¹⁰ When L is large, however, one must look for the asymptotic behavior of (2). Using $z = -iLvw$ as a new variable, one finds for the integral in (2)

$$I = 2 \int_0^\infty dz e^{-z/L} \int_0^1 dv \times \left(\frac{2(1+ve^{-2z/v})}{2z(1-v) + v^2(1-e^{-2z/v})} - \frac{1+v}{z} \right). \quad (3)$$

When L is large, the leading term in this Laplace transform is obtained by replacing the integrand by its asymptotic form for large z :

$$I \sim 2 \int_1^\infty dz e^{-z/L} \int_0^1 \frac{2dv}{2z - 2zv + v^2} = 2 \int_1^\infty dz e^{-z/L} \frac{2}{[z(z-2)]^{1/2}} \tanh^{-1} \left[\left(\frac{z-2}{z} \right)^{1/2} \right] \sim 2 \int_1^\infty dz e^{-z/L} \frac{\ln z}{z+1} = e^{1/L} [\text{Ei}(-1/L)]^2 \sim (\ln L)^2 \quad (4)$$



FIG. 1. Feynman graph for the radiative correction to the energy. The double line represents the propagation of an electron in the external field H .

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¹ R. F. O'Connell, Phys. Rev. Letters **21**, 397 (1968); Phys. Letters **27A**, 391 (1968).

² H. Y. Chiu and V. Canuto, Astrophys. J. **153**, L157 (1968); V. Canuto and H. Y. Chiu, Phys. Rev. **173**, 1220 (1968); H. Y. Chiu, V. Canuto, and L. Fassio-Canuto, *ibid.* **176**, 1438 (1968).

³ M. H. Johnson and B. A. Lippmann, Phys. Rev. **77**, 702 (1949).

⁴ I. M. Ternov, V. G. Bagrov, and V. Ch. Zhukovskii, Moscow Univ. Bull. **21**, 21 (1966).

⁵ J. Schwinger, Phys. Rev. **82**, 664 (1951).

⁶ G. Geheniau and M. Demeur, Physica **17**, 71 (1951).

⁷ R. Kaitna and P. Urban, Nucl. Phys. **56**, 518 (1964).

⁸ G. Geheniau and F. Villars, Helv. Phys. Acta **23**, 178 (1950).

⁹ M. Demeur, Acad. Roy. Belg., Classe Sci., Mem. **28**, No. 1643 (1953).

¹⁰ Some higher-order terms in the L expansion of Ref. 9 have mistakes, which have been corrected by R. G. Newton, Phys. Rev. **96**, 523 (1954).

(the last integral has been taken from a table¹¹). Therefore, E_0 behaves like $(\ln H)^2$ for large values of H . A more careful, tedious, but straightforward study of (3), with the use of majorizations and minorizations, gives the following more precise result for the asymptotic behavior of E_0 :

$$E_0 = mc^2 + (\alpha/4\pi)mc^2 \{ [\ln(2e\hbar H/m^2c^3) - C - \frac{3}{2}]^2 + A + \dots \}, \quad (5)$$

¹¹ I. S. Gradshteyn and I. M. Ryzhik, *Table of Integrals, Series and Products*, edited by A. Jeffrey (Academic Press Inc., New York, 1965).

where $C=0.577$ is Euler's constant, and where A is a numerical constant for which we have only found bounds: $-6 < A < 7$.

One readily sees from (3) that even for tremendous values of H (the characteristic field $m^2c^3/e\hbar$ being 4.4×10^{13} G), the radiative correction to E_0 remains of relative order α . In particular, E_0 certainly does not vanish at $H = (4\pi/\alpha)(m^2c^3/e\hbar) = 7.6 \times 10^{16}$ G, a field value for which (1) is not valid. Some doubts about the limits of validity of the anomalous magnetic moment concept have actually been raised by the authors of Ref. 2 themselves.

Interpretation of a Unified Theory of Gravitation and Symmetry Breaking*

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The formalism of Moen and Moffat is interpreted as a Yang-Mills theory set in a space-time generally endowed with curvature and torsion.

IN a recent paper,¹ Moen and Moffat describe the possibility of a generalized definition of "parallel" transport of a vector nonet [an element of the tensor representation of the combined group of space-time and $U(3)$ transformations] resulting in (a) a connection between space-time and internal symmetries without reference to a "supergroup" and (b) unitary symmetry breaking induced by the presence of a zero-mass boson (to first approximation). We show that it is possible to interpret the formalism in this work as an extended Yang-Mills theory. From this point of view we see that a total symmetry group is already "embedded" in the theory, and that the character of the background space-time is sufficient to break the internal symmetry.

To see how it may be possible to make the aforementioned interpretation, we first review some aspects of a local gauge theory set in a curved background. At the outset there is, presumably, a matter field which displays a unitary symmetry characterized by²

$$\psi'(x) = S^{-1}(x)\psi(x). \quad (1)$$

The entities generically designated S are taken to be matrix representations of elements of a group of internal transformations, and are by assumption functions of the space-time coordinates of the event point at which the transformation is made. The internal degrees of freedom of the ψ field are thus adjustable at all other

points of space-time, in keeping with the requirements of a local picture of interaction. To ensure the invariance of the dynamical structure of this system, it is necessary to introduce auxiliary field operators B_μ that couple universally with the various ψ components, and which transform under local internal group action as

$$B'_\mu = S^{-1}(B_\mu S - \nabla_\mu S). \quad (2)$$

Here ∇_μ denotes the relevant space-time covariant derivative with respect to the μ th coordinate.

In a sense, the B_μ fields are like components of an affine connection³; as a consequence, we may define a totally covariant derivative operator expressed symbolically as

$$D_\mu = \nabla_\mu + B_\mu. \quad (3)$$

D_μ commutes with both space-time and internal transformations, and serves to establish a meaning for a parallel transport of fields with mixed indices. In terms of the vector nonets mentioned in I, the operation of D_μ provides, for example,

$$D_\nu A^{\sigma i} = \nabla_\nu A^{\sigma i} + B_\nu^i{}_{jA}{}^{\sigma j} = \partial_\nu A^{\sigma i} + \left\{ \begin{matrix} \sigma \\ \mu\nu \end{matrix} \right\} A^{\mu i} + B_\nu^i{}_{jA}{}^{\sigma j}, \quad (4)$$

where Greek indices refer to space-time structure, Latin indices to internal.

Now, the covariant derivative defined in I is just such an operator, that is, it measures the effect of the total variation of fields. As expressed in that work, the

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¹ I. O. Moen and J. W. Moffat, *Phys. Rev.* **179**, 1233 (1969); herein this paper shall be referred to as I.

² C. N. Yang and R. L. Mills, *Phys. Rev.* **96**, 191 (1954).

³ See, e.g., J. L. Anderson, *Principles of Relativity Physics* (Academic Press Inc., New York, 1967), p. 44.