Effective polarization in proton-induced $\alpha$ knockout reactions

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(Dated: May 17, 2023)

The effective polarization of the residual nucleus in the proton-induced $\alpha$ knockout reaction is investigated within the distorted wave impulse approximation framework. The strong absorption of the emitted $\alpha$ particle results in strong selectivity on the reaction “position” depending on the third component of the single-particle orbital angular momentum of the $\alpha$ particle inside a nucleus, hence on the spin direction of the reaction residue. This is caused by a mechanism that is similar to the Maris effect, the effective polarization in the proton-induced proton knockout reactions. However, as a distinct feature of the effective polarization in the $\alpha$ knockout process, the spin degrees of freedom of the reacting particles play no role. The $\alpha$ knockout process with complete kinematics can be a useful polarization technique for the residual nucleus, without actively controlling the spin of the proton.

I. INTRODUCTION

Proton-induced nucleon knockout reactions, $(p,pN)$, have been developed to investigate the single-particle (s.p.) structure of nuclei [1, 2]. In a recent review [3], the $(p,pN)$ reactions were shown to be a reliable spectroscopic tool, meaning that the deduced spectroscopic factors are consistent with those determined by electron-induced knockout reaction data, typically within a deviation of 15%. In addition, the proton has the advantage of being able to knock neutrons out, whereas the electron can only strike charged particles. Then this has been opening a door to knockout reaction studies of neutron s.p. levels as well as s.p. structures of unstable nuclei. In recent years, a series of $(p,pN)$ measurements has provided us with new findings on the s.p. structure and the magicity of unstable nuclei [4–19]. On the reaction theory side, the quantum transfer-to-the continuum model (QTC) [20, 21], the eikonal DWIA [22], and the Faddeev–Alt-Grassberger-Sandhas theory (FAGS) [23–25] for knockout reactions have been developed; there are some benchmark type studies among them [26, 27]. The knockout reactions have also been utilized as a probe of nuclear clustering. In Ref. [28], the first direct observation of the effective polarization of the residual nucleus in the proton-induced knockout reaction. A compact review of the Maris effect. It is noted that in Ref. [29], the radial selectivity of $(p,\alpha)$ reaction is investigated. When the RPS is realized, one may also expect some selectivity in spin-dependent observables. In fact, the effective polarization [30, 31], which is sometimes called the Maris effect, is a well-known phenomenon in $(p,N)$ reaction studies. A compact review of the Maris effect can be found in Sec. 2.3 of Ref. [32]. In short, the nucleons in a nucleus in the $j_\gg \equiv l + 1/2$ and $j_\ll \equiv l - 1/2$ s.p. orbits, where $l$ is the nucleon orbital angular momentum ($l \neq 0$), are effectively polarized in opposite directions. It is argued that a rather strong spin correlation of nucleon-nucleon (NN) scattering at intermediate energies and the short mean-free path of an outgoing proton with low energy realize the RPS and hence the Maris effect.

The purpose of this study is to clarify the role of the RPS in $(p,\alpha)$ reactions. Because $\alpha$ is a spinless particle, we do not have its effective polarization. Nevertheless, we can still consider a polarization of the reaction residue, which is also the case with the nucleon knockout reaction. In this study, we consider the $^{120}$Sn$(p,\alpha)^{116}$Cd$_{2+}$ and $^{20}$Ne$(p,\alpha)^{16}$O$_{2+}$ reactions at 392 MeV and investi-
gate how the reaction residue in the $2^+$ excited state is polarized because of the RPS. In contrast to the previous research on the vector analyzing power of the $(p, p\alpha)$ reactions \cite{33, 45}, a point in this work is that the unpolarized proton beam is considered and the effective polarization is not induced by any spin-dependent interactions.

It should be noted that in Ref. \cite{44}, spin alignment in one-nucleon recombination reactions was discussed. The authors showed that the parallel momentum distribution of the $^{27}$Mg$_{3/2}^+$ residue produced by removing a $d_{5/2}$ neutron from $^{28}$Mg with a $^9$Be target is dominated by the maximum magnetic quantum number components $m_l = \pm 2$. The mechanism of this spin alignment in Ref. \cite{44} is similar to what we discuss below. However, in the present work, at aim is to clarify that just by considering kinematically complete measurement for $\alpha$ knockout reactions, without any help of the intrinsic spin of the particles involved, the spin polarization of the reaction residue can be achieved.

The construction of this paper is as follows. In Sec. II, we describe the DWIA formalism for the $(p, p\alpha)$ reaction and the treatment of the reorientation of the quantization axis. We then show in Sec. III numerical results and how the residue of the $(p, p\alpha)$ reaction is effectively polarized. Finally, a summary is given in Sec. IV.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In the present study, the factorized form of the distorted wave impulse approximation (DWIA) without the spin degrees of freedom is employed. This framework has been recently applied to several studies on $(p, p\alpha)$ reactions \cite{33, 45, 49}. The kinematics of the reaction is defined following the Madison convention \cite{44}. The reduced transition matrix $T$ within the DWIA framework \cite{3, 50, 51} is given by

$$\hat{T}_m = \int d\mathbf{R} \chi_1^{(-)\dagger}(\mathbf{R})\chi_2^{(-)\dagger}(\mathbf{R})\chi_0^{(+)}(\mathbf{R})\varsigma_{\alpha}(\mathbf{R})e^{-i\alpha\cdot\mathbf{K}_{0}}\mathbf{R}\psi_{nlm}(\mathbf{R}).$$

The incident, emitted protons, and emitted $\alpha$ are labeled as particles 0, 1, and 2, respectively, while the bound $\alpha$ in the initial state is labeled as b. The core nucleus in the initial state (the residue in the final state) is labeled as B in this paper. $\chi$ is a distorted wave of particle $i$ (= 0, 1, or 2) with its asymptotic momentum $K_i$. The third component of an angular momentum corresponds to the $z$ component unless otherwise noted. The outgoing and incoming boundary conditions of the distorted waves are denoted by superscripts (+) and (−), respectively. $\alpha_p$ is the mass ratio of the struck particle to the target, $4/120 = 1/30$ for $^{120}$Sn$(p, p\alpha)^{116}$Cd$_{2+}$ and $4/20 = 1/5$ for $^{20}$Ne$(p, p\alpha)^{16}$O$_{2+}$. $n$ is the principal quantum number, and $l$ and $m$, respectively, are the orbital angular momentum and its third component of b. Since $\alpha$ is a spinless particle, $\psi_{nlm}$ is written as

$$\psi_{nlm}(\mathbf{R}) = \varphi_{nl}(R)Y_{lm}(\hat{\mathbf{R}}),$$

where $\varphi_{nl}$ is the radial part of the bound-state wave function and $Y_{lm}$ is the spherical harmonics. In the present DWIA framework, the triple differential cross section (TDX) with respect to the proton emission energy $T_1^l$, its emission angles $\Omega_{1}^{\pm}$, and the $\alpha$ emission angle $\Omega_{2}^{\pm}$ is given by

$$\frac{d^3\sigma_{L}}{dT_1^l d\Omega_{1}^{\pm} d\Omega_{2}^{\pm}} = \sum_{m_y} \left( \frac{d^3\sigma_{L}}{dT_1^l d\Omega_{1}^{\pm} d\Omega_{2}^{\pm}} \right)_{m_y},$$

$$(\frac{d^3\sigma_{L}}{dT_1^l d\Omega_{1}^{\pm} d\Omega_{2}^{\pm}})_{m_y} = F_{\alpha_{\text{kin}}} L E_1 E_2 B \frac{(2\pi)^4}{\hbar v_{\alpha}} \frac{1}{2l+1} \frac{(2\pi\hbar^2)^2}{\mu_{p\alpha}} \frac{d\sigma_{p\alpha}}{d\Omega_{p\alpha}} |\hat{T}_{m_y}|^2.$$
### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### A. Numerical input

First, we consider the $^{120}$Sn$(p, p\alpha)^{116}$Cd$_{2+}$ cross section at 392 MeV. The recoilless condition, in which the momentum of the residue B in the final state is zero ($K_B^z = 0$), is realized when $T^z_1 = 328$ MeV, $\theta^z_1 = 43.2^\circ$, $\phi^z_1 = 0^\circ$, $\theta^z_2 = 61^\circ$, and $\phi^z_2 = 180^\circ$. These conditions are determined by an available setup at RCNP, expecting such experiments will be conducted in the near future. The TDX around the recoilless condition is calculated by varying $\theta^z_2$. The kinematical setup is shown in Fig. [1](#).

The $\alpha$ cluster wave function $\psi_{nlm}$ is obtained as a bound state of $\alpha$ and $^{116}$Cd within a Woods-Saxon potential,

$$V(R) = \frac{V_0}{1 + \exp \left( \frac{R - R_0}{a} \right)}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

Its range and diffuseness parameters are $R_0 = 1.27 \times 116^{1/3}$ fm and $a = 0.67$ fm, respectively. The depth parameter $V_0$ is determined to reproduce the $\alpha$ separation energy of $^{120}$Sn. We consider $n = 7$ and $l = 2$, and $\psi_{nlm}$ is normalized to unity; $n$ is determined by the orthogonality condition model \([52]\). The $p-\alpha$ differential cross section in free space in Eq. (4) is obtained by the microscopic single-folding model \([53]\) with a phenomenological $\alpha$ density in free space and the Melbourne nucleon-nucleon $g$-matrix interaction \([54]\). For the $\alpha$ density, we use the phenomenological proton density \([55]\) determined from electron scattering in which the finite-size effect due to the proton charge is unfolded in the standard manner \([56]\). The neutron density is assumed to have the same geometry as the proton one. The $p-^{120}$Sn and $p-^{116}$Cd distorted waves are obtained as a scattering state under the Koning-Delaroche global optical potential \([54]\). As for the $\alpha-^{116}$Cd distorted wave, the global $\alpha$ optical potential proposed by Avrigeanu et al. \([58]\) is adopted. For comparison, we also use microscopic optical potentials. The $p-^{120}$Sn, $p-^{116}$Cd, and $n-^{116}$Cd potentials are obtained by the single-folding model with the Melbourne $g$-matrix and nuclear densities of $^{120}$Sn and $^{116}$Cd calculated with the Bohr-Mottelson s.p. potential \([59]\). The $\alpha-^{116}$Cd potential is obtained by the nucleon-nucleus folding (NAF) model \([60]\) with the $p-^{116}$Cd and $n-^{116}$Cd potentials.

#### B. Effective polarization in $(p, p\alpha)$ reaction

We show in Fig. [2](#) the TDX$_{my}$ as a function of $p_R$:

$$p_R = hK_{Bz}^L \left| \frac{K_{Bz}^L}{K_B^z} \right|.$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

with $K_{Bz}^L$ being the $z$ component of $K_B^L$. It is clearly seen that $m_y = 2$ and $m_y = -2$ components are well selected by the kinematics. This is explained as follows. Considering the quasi-free knock-out reaction, momentum $K_B^L$ of $b$ (the bound $\alpha$ particle in A) has an opposite momentum to $K_{Bz}^L$, since the target is at rest in the laboratory frame. Thus, depending on $m_y$, the position of $b$ to be knocked out can be specified. This implies that $b$ “moves” to the left (the $-z$ direction) when $p_R$ is positive as shown in Fig. [3](#).

![Fig. 1. The kinematical setup of the $^{120}$Sn$(p, p\alpha)^{116}$Cd$_{2+}$ reaction.](#)

![Fig. 2. TDX$_{my}$ of $^{120}$Sn$(p, p\alpha)^{116}$Cd$_{2+}$ at 392 MeV as a function of the recoil momentum. The solid, dotted, and dashed lines represent the components for $m_y = 0$, 2, and $-2$, respectively. The dot-dashed line shows the sum of all the components.](#)
nucleon knockout reactions. As for similarities, a classical picture of the orbital motion of the bound particle works to explain the phenomena. In both the \((p,N)\) and \((p,pN)\) cases, the reaction position is restricted to only two positions once the momentum of the bound particle, that is, \(K^{pN}\) in the present study, is given. In addition, the strong absorption effect excludes the contribution from the “far side” of the two reaction positions with respect to the emitted \(\alpha\) direction. Regarding differences, in the Maris effect for \((p,N)\), the energy of one emitted nucleon is low and that of the other is high, and the former is absorbed. In contrast, in \((p,\alpha)\), the RPS is realized by the strong absorption, that is, the short mean-free path, of the \(\alpha\) particle compared to that of a nucleon. Another typical difference is that in the vector analyzing power of \((p,N)\), the Maris effect distinguishes the \(j_{>}\) and \(j_{<}\) orbitals for a given angular momentum \(l\) by utilizing the strong spin correlation of the NN system. On the other hand, in \((p,\alpha)\), the present mechanism discriminates \(m_y\) and therefore the spin third component of the residue only by the kinematical condition. There is no need for a polarized beam because the transition involves the spinless \(\alpha\) particle and the reaction is independent of the spin degrees of freedom.

It should be noted that the TDX, \(m_y=\pm 1\) vanishes because the integrand in Eq. (1) is anti-symmetric with respect to the \(z-x\) plane if \(l-m\) is odd. This property originates from that of \(Y_{l m_y}\); the remaining part of the integrand in Eq. (1) is symmetric with respect to the \(z-x\) plane because the kinematics are taken in coplanar on that plane. Figure 4 shows the same result as in Fig. 2 but with the plane-wave limit. The selectivity found in the DWIA calculation completely disappears and this result clearly shows that the \(m_y\) selection is achieved by the absorption effect on the \(\alpha\) particle.

Figure 5 displays the results shown in Fig. 2 but calculated with microscopic optical potentials. As seen, the absolute values of each component of the TDX and its peak positions are changed from those in Fig. 2. For the \(m_y=0\) component, a difference in the shape is also observed. Nevertheless, the dominance of the \(m_y=2\) \((-2)\) component around the peak with negative (positive) \(p_R\) is found to be robust. For more quantitative discussion, a direct comparison between the results with DWIA and experimental data will be necessary. Investigation of the role of higher-order processes that are not included in DWIA will also be very important. For this purpose, a reaction model (theory) that is applicable to the TDX calculation in complete kinematics, e.g., the FAGS theory, will be needed.

We also calculate the \(^{20}\text{Ne}(p,\alpha)^{16}\text{O}_{2+}\) cross section at 392 MeV. The recoilless condition is realized when \(T^{pN}_{\perp} = 341\) MeV, \(\theta_1^{pN} = 35^\circ, \phi_1^{pN} = 0^\circ, \theta_2^{pN} = 65^\circ\), and \(\phi_2^{pN} = 180^\circ\). One sees that the shape of the \(m_y=0\) component (solid line) considerably differs from that in Fig. 2 and is similar to what we expect in the PW limit. Thus, this result implies that the distortion effect is weak compared to the \(^{120}\text{Sn}(p,\alpha)^{116}\text{Cd}_{2+}\) case. Nevertheless, the \(m_y\) selection still appears in Fig. 6 which will indicate that the nuclear absorption plays a role also in the \(^{20}\text{Ne}(p,\alpha)^{16}\text{O}_{2+}\) case. These results strongly suggest that the effective polarization by the \((p,\alpha)\) reaction is
universal from light to heavy nuclei.

FIG. 6. TDX$_{m_p}$ of $^{20}$Ne($p,p\alpha$)$_{16}$O$^{2+}$ at 392 MeV as a function of the recoil momentum. The same manner as Fig. 2.

IV. SUMMARY

We have demonstrated that an effective polarization of the residual nucleus is realized in the $^{120}$Sn($p,p\alpha$)$_{16}$Cd$^{2+}$ and $^{20}$Ne($p,p\alpha$)$_{16}$O$^{2+}$ reaction at 392 MeV. The mechanism of this effective polarization is similar to that of the Maris effect but as a distinct feature, the effective polarization in the ($p,p\alpha$) processes has nothing to do with the spin degrees of freedom of the reacting particles. In other words, by just measuring the TDX with slightly varying kinematics, a polarized residual nucleus, $^{116}$Cd in the $2^+_1$ state in this case, can be extracted. This scenario is considered to be the same as for the residue in other spin states. This may be a useful polarization technique based on a kinematically complete direct reaction in both normal and inverse kinematics.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank T. Uesaka for fruitful discussions. This work is supported in part by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the JSPS (Grants No. JP20K14475, No. JP21H00125, and No. JP21H04975) and by JST SPRING, Grant No. JPMJSP2138.

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