Factorisation, Parton Entanglement and the Drell-Yan Process

D. Boer\textsuperscript{a,1}, A. Brandenburg\textsuperscript{b,2}, O. Nachtmann\textsuperscript{c,3} and A. Utermann\textsuperscript{c,4}

\textsuperscript{a} Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam
De Boelelaan 1081, 1081 HV Amsterdam, The Netherlands

\textsuperscript{b} Deutsches Elektronen-Synchrotron DESY
Notkestraße 85, D-22603 Hamburg, Germany

\textsuperscript{c} Institut für Theoretische Physik, Universität Heidelberg
Philosophenweg 16, D-69120 Heidelberg, Germany

Abstract
We discuss the angular distribution of the lepton pair in the Drell-Yan process, hadron + hadron → γ\textsuperscript{∗} + X → l\textsuperscript{+} + l\textsuperscript{−} + X. This process gives information on the spin-density matrix ρ\textsuperscript{(q,\bar{q})} of the annihilating quark-antiquark pair in q + \bar{q} → l\textsuperscript{+} + l\textsuperscript{−}. There is strong experimental evidence that even for unpolarised initial hadrons ρ\textsuperscript{(q,\bar{q})} is nontrivial, and therefore the quark-antiquark system is polarised. We discuss the possibilities of a general ρ\textsuperscript{(q,\bar{q})} –which could be entangled– and a factorising ρ\textsuperscript{(q,\bar{q})}. We argue that instantons may lead to a nontrivial ρ\textsuperscript{(q,\bar{q})} of the type indicated by experiments.

\textsuperscript{1} email: dboer@nat.vu.nl
\textsuperscript{2} email: Arnd.Brandenburg@desy.de
\textsuperscript{3} email: O.Nachtmann@thphys.uni-heidelberg.de
\textsuperscript{4} email: A.Utermann@thphys.uni-heidelberg.de
1 Introduction

In this note we discuss the question of factorisation in the Drell-Yan process \[1\]

\[
h_1(p_1) + h_2(p_2) \to \gamma^*(k) + X
\leftrightarrow l^+(q_+) + l^-(q_-).
\tag{1}
\]

Here, \(h_1\) and \(h_2\) are the initial hadrons, \(\gamma^*\) is the virtual photon, \(l^+, l^-\) are the final state leptons \((l = e, \mu)\) and \(X\) stands for the hadronic final state particles. The four-momenta are indicated in brackets. The basic underlying process is the annihilation of a quark-antiquark pair

\[
q(k_1) + \bar{q}(k_2) \to \gamma^*(k) \to l^+(q_+) + l^-(q_-),
\tag{2}
\]

which is sketched in Fig. 1. Here we focus on the discussion of reaction (2) which is the lowest order process in the framework of the QCD improved parton model, see for instance \[2\]. For massless quarks we find that in (2) a left-handed quark \(q_L\) can only annihilate with a right-handed antiquark \(\bar{q}_R\) and vice versa.

The diagram of Fig. 1 is calculated by first evaluating the amplitude for (2) and folding it then with the parton distributions of the hadrons \(h_1, h_2\). In early theoretical work, one usually assumed that for unpolarised hadrons \(h_1, h_2\) the “parton beams” delivered by them are also unpolarised. We will call this the no-polarisation assumption. In the simplest approximation one furthermore assumes the partons \(q\) and \(\bar{q}\) to be strictly collinear with the hadrons \(h_1, h_2\). This leads to a well known angular distribution of the lepton pair in the rest frame of the virtual photon \(\gamma^*\).

With the polar and azimuthal angles of the outgoing \(l^+,\theta\) and \(\phi\), one gets

\[
\frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{3}{16\pi} (1 + \cos^2\theta).
\tag{3}
\]

Here and in Eq. (4) below we use the Collins-Soper reference frame \[3\] where the \(\gamma^*\) is at rest and the basis vectors \(e_{1,3}\) are defined by \(e_{1,3} = (\hat{p}_1 \pm \hat{p}_2)/|\hat{p}_1 \pm \hat{p}_2|\), with \(\hat{p}_i = p_i/|p_i|\). The Collins-Soper frame is obtained from the \(h_1, h_2\) c.m. system by a rotation free boost.

In general, the angular distribution of the \(l^+\) is described by three functions \(\lambda, \mu, \nu\) which may depend on the kinematic variables of (1)

\[
\frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{3}{4\pi} \frac{1}{\lambda + 3} \left(1 + \lambda \cos^2\theta + \mu \sin 2\theta \cos \phi + \nu \sin^2\theta \cos 2\phi\right).
\tag{4}
\]

The LO pQCD result (3) implies for the functions \(\lambda = 1, \mu = \nu = 0\). Higher order corrections in \(\alpha_s\) change these values. But within the standard framework and using the no-polarisation ansatz one still finds \[4\] at NLO one relation among the coefficients in (4):

\[
1 - \lambda - 2\nu = 0.
\tag{5}
\]
This Lam-Tung relation is almost unchanged at NNLO [5], and even holds for the inclusion of parton transverse momentum and soft gluon effects [6]. However, the relation (5) is drastically violated in experiments [7–9].

In Refs. [10] and [11] two at first sight quite different ideas have been proposed giving possible explanations for the violation of the Lam-Tung relation (5). It is the purpose of the present article to give a short review and a detailed comparison of these two approaches. We also sketch a calculation of instanton effects for the Drell-Yan reaction and pose some general questions concerning parton factorisation and entanglement.

2 Spin effects and factorisation

In [12] it was argued on general grounds that the assumption of unpolarised parton beams from a reaction with unpolarised initial hadrons is questionable due to possible vacuum effects. In particular, it was speculated that the fluctuating chromomagnetic vacuum fields which are due to the nonperturbative vacuum structure in QCD might lead to a correlated spin orientation of $q$ and $\bar{q}$ in (2) before the annihilation. This would be in analogy to the Sokolov-Ternov effect [13], well known from $e^+e^-$ storage rings.

In [10] this idea was expanded upon and confronted with experiments. A general two-particle spin-density matrix for the $q\bar{q}$ pair in (2) prior to the annihilation was assumed

$$
\rho^{(q\bar{q})} = \frac{1}{4} \left\{ 1 \otimes 1 + F_j (\sigma \cdot e_j^*) \otimes 1 \\
+ G_j 1 \otimes (\sigma \cdot e_j^*) + H_{ij} (\sigma \cdot e_i^*) \otimes (\sigma \cdot e_j^*) \right\} .
$$

(6)

The quantities $F_i$, $G_i$, and $H_{ij}$ are real functions of the invariants of the problem.
Here we work in the $q\bar{q}$ c.m. system and set,
\[ e_3^* = \frac{k_1^*}{|k_1^*|}, \]
\[ e_1^* = \frac{(p_1^* + p_2^*) \times e_3^*}{|(p_1^* + p_2^*) \times e_3^*|}, \]
\[ e_2^* = e_3^* \times e_1^*. \] (7)

Such a spin matrix will certainly affect the $\gamma^*$-production cross section from a $q\bar{q}$ state. The related production matrix in the $q\bar{q}$ c.m. system (the angular distribution of $l^+$ arises from the contraction with the lepton-production matrix) is,
\[ r_{ij}^{\gamma^*}(k_1^*, \rho^{(q \bar{q})}; q\bar{q}) = \sum_{\text{colours, spins}} \langle \gamma_i^* | T | q(k_1^*, \alpha, A) \bar{q}(-k_1^*, \beta, B) \rangle \times \frac{1}{9} \delta_{AA'} \delta_{BB'} \rho_{\alpha \beta; \alpha' \beta'}^{(q \bar{q})} \langle \gamma_j^* | T | q(k_1^*, \alpha', A') \bar{q}(-k_1^*, \beta', B') \rangle^*. \] (8)

Here $\alpha, \beta, \alpha', \beta'$ are the spin indices, $A, B, A', B'$ the colour indices and we have assumed no polarisation in colour space. In LO the amplitude for $\gamma^*$ production reads,
\[ \langle \gamma_i^* | T | q(k_1, \alpha, A) \bar{q}(k_2, \beta, B) \rangle \equiv \langle 0 | e J_\mu(0) | q(k_1, \alpha, A) \bar{q}(k_2, \beta, B) \rangle = e Q_\mu \delta_{AB} \bar{v}_\beta(k_2) u_\alpha(k_1). \] (9)

Here $e J_\mu$ is the hadronic part of the electromagnetic current. The conventions for the Dirac spinors are as in [14] with $\alpha = \pm 1/2$ ($\beta = \pm 1/2$) representing the quark (antiquark) with spin orientation in the direction $\pm e_3^*$. With the standard no-polarisation assumption in spin space, one sets
\[ \rho^{(q \bar{q})}|_{\text{naive}} = \frac{1}{4}(1 \otimes 1) \equiv \frac{1}{4}(\delta_{\alpha \alpha'} \delta_{\beta \beta'}). \] (10)

It was shown in [10] that a nonzero correlation coefficient
\[ \kappa \equiv \frac{H_{22} - H_{11}}{1 + H_{33}} \] (11)
could easily explain the experimentally observed deviation from the Lam-Tung relation. Indeed, defining
\[ \bar{\kappa} \equiv -\frac{1}{4}(1 - \lambda - 2\nu), \] (12)
one finds instead of (5) with (6) and (11)
\[ \bar{\kappa} \approx \langle \kappa \rangle. \] (13)

Here the average is over the parton longitudinal and transverse momenta, see [10]. In Eq. (13) we do not have an equality sign since higher order perturbative contributions give already a (very) small contribution to $\bar{\kappa}$ even for $\kappa = 0$. 
A good fit to the data of \[7, 8\] could be obtained with the simple ansatz

\[ \kappa = \kappa_0 \frac{|k_T|^4}{|k_T|^4 + m_T^4}, \quad \kappa_0 = 0.17, \quad m_T = 1.5 \text{ GeV}, \]  

(14)

where \( k_T \) is the \( \gamma^* \) transverse momentum in the hadronic c.m. system.

In \[10\] simplifying assumptions for the density matrix \( \rho \) were made

\[ F_2 = F_3 = G_2 = G_3 = H_{12} = H_{13} = H_{21} = H_{31} = 0. \]  

(15)

This is irrelevant for the Drell-Yan process \( \Box \). One can easily show that the \( l^+ \) angular distribution is only sensitive to the two parameters, \( H_{33} \) and \( \kappa \).

Further discussions of possible QCD vacuum effects for the Drell-Yan and other reactions were given in \[15, 16\].

The problem of the angular distribution in the Drell-Yan process was attacked from a different side in \[11\]. It was pointed out that there can be nontrivial spin and transverse momentum correlations even inside an unpolarised hadron. In the notation of Ref. \[11\] the distribution of quarks (with lightcone momentum fraction \( x_1 \) and transverse momentum \( k_{1T} \)) inside an unpolarised hadron \( h_1 \) (with momentum \( p_1 \) and mass \( M_1 \)) is given by a correlation function \( \Phi(x_1, k_{1T}) \), parametrised as follows:

\[ \Phi(x_1, k_{1T}) = f_1(x_1, k_{1T}^2) \frac{\gamma^-}{2} + h_1^+(x_1, k_{1T}^2) \frac{i k_{1T} \gamma^-}{2M_1}, \]  

(16)

where the transverse momentum is w.r.t. the plane spanned by the hadron momenta \( p_1 \) and \( p_2 \) in the hadronic centre of mass frame. In that frame \( p_1 \) and \( p_2 \) are predominantly in the lightlike \( n_+ \) and \( n_- \) directions, respectively. For details we refer to Refs. \[11, 17\].

The function \( h_1^+ \) is the distribution of transversely polarised quarks with nonzero transverse momentum inside an unpolarised hadron. The subscript 1 on \( f_1 \) and \( h_1^+ \) indicates that these functions contribute at leading twist and should not be confused with the hadron label. The antiquark correlation function \( \overline{\Phi}(x_2, k_{2T}) \) is parametrised accordingly:

\[ \overline{\Phi}(x_2, k_{2T}) = \bar{f}_1(x_2, k_{2T}^2) \frac{\gamma^+}{2} + \bar{h}_1^+(x_2, k_{2T}^2) \frac{i k_{2T} \gamma^+}{2M_2}. \]  

(17)

The quark spin-density matrix \( \rho^{(q)} \) can be obtained by projecting \( \Phi(x_1, k_{1T}) \) onto the basis \( (\psi_{+R}, \psi_{+L}) \), i.e. the right and left chirality components of the good field \( \psi_+ = \frac{1}{2} \gamma^- \gamma^+ \psi \) (see for instance Refs. \[18, 19\]); and analogously for \( \overline{\Phi}(x_2, k_{2T}) \) and the antiquark spin-density matrix \( \rho^{(\bar{q})} \). For given \( k_{1T} \) and \( k_{2T} \) one can boost to the frame \( \Box \), which leads (after appropriate normalisation) to

\[ \rho^{(q)} = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 1 + \frac{h_1^+}{f_1} \frac{x_1}{M_1} (e_3^* \times p_1^*) \cdot \sigma \right\} \equiv \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 1 + F_j (\sigma \cdot e_j^*) \right\}, \]

\[ \rho^{(\bar{q})} = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 1 - \frac{\bar{h}_1^+}{\bar{f}_1} \frac{x_2}{M_2} (e_3^* \times p_2^*) \cdot \sigma \right\} \equiv \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 1 + G_j (\sigma \cdot e_j^*) \right\}. \]  

(18)
For simplicity we have suppressed the arguments of the functions.

From Eq. (18) we arrive at
\[ F_3 = 0 = G_3 \]
and for \( i = 1, 2 \):
\[
\begin{align*}
F_1 &= -\frac{h_1^+}{M_1} x_1 p_1^* \cdot e_2^*, \\
G_1 &= +\frac{\bar{h}_1^+}{M_2} x_2 p_2^* \cdot e_2^*.
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
F_2 &= +\frac{h_1^+}{M_1} x_1 p_1^* \cdot e_1^*, \\
G_2 &= -\frac{\bar{h}_1^+}{M_2} x_2 p_2^* \cdot e_1^*.
\end{align*}
\]

(19)

One observes that the function \( h_1^+ \) enters in the off-diagonal elements of \( \rho(q) \) and thus corresponds to RL and LR density-matrix elements.

In the approach followed in Ref. [11], the \( q \bar{q} \) spin-density matrix is given by the tensor product of these two nontrivial one-particle spin-density matrices,
\[
\rho^{(q\bar{q})} = \rho^{(q)} \otimes \rho^{(\bar{q})}.
\]

(20)

Clearly, nonzero \( h_1^+ \) implies that the standard no-polarisation ansatz (10) does not hold. Comparison of Eqs. (20) and (18) with Eq. (6), shows that \( H_{ij} = F_i G_j \) for \( i, j = 1, 2, 3 \), and hence \( H_{33} = 0 = H_{3i} \) (due to \( F_3 = 0 = G_3 \)).

The factorisation (20) of the spin-density matrix \( \rho^{(q\bar{q})} \) is usually implicitly assumed once factorisation of the dependences on hard and soft energy scales is demonstrated for a process. See for instance Ref. [20] for a discussion of factorisation of the spin-density matrix in the polarised Drell-Yan process (cf. in particular its Eq. (14)). For earlier discussions of issues concerning factorisation for processes where transverse momenta play a role see e.g. Refs. [21]. As said, for unpolarised hadrons it is standard to choose \( F_i = 0 = G_i \). Using instead \( F_i \) and \( G_i \) of Eq. (19) in a tree-level calculation of the Drell-Yan process leads to \( \lambda = 1, \mu = 0 \) and \( \nu \neq 0 \). The general expression for \( \nu \) in terms of \( h_1^+ \) is given in Ref. [11], but here we will restrict to the case of Gaussian transverse-momentum dependence for illustration purposes.

We assume that all transverse-momentum-dependent functions are of the form
\[
f(x_i, k_{iT}^2) = f(x_i) \exp \left( -R^2 k_{iT}^2 \frac{R^2}{\pi} \right).
\]

(21)

Moreover, we assume that the width of the Gaussian is the same for \( f_1 \) and \( \bar{f}_1 \) (the width will be called \( R_{f_1}^2 \)) and similarly for \( h_1^+ \) and \( \bar{h}_1^+ \) (the width will be called \( R_{h_1}^2 \) and should be larger than \( R_{f_1}^2 \) in order to satisfy a positivity bound). This then leads to
\[
\bar{\kappa} = \frac{\nu}{2} = \frac{R_{f_1}^2}{M_1 M_2} \frac{k_{iT}^2}{4R_{f_1}^2} \exp \left( -\frac{R_{h_1}^2 - R_{f_1}^2}{2} \frac{k_{iT}^2}{R_{f_1}^2} \right) \sum_a e_a^2 h_{1a}^+(x_1) h_{1a}^+(x_2),
\]

(22)

where \( \bar{\kappa} \equiv -(1 - \lambda - 2\nu)/4 \) and \( e_a = e Q_a \), see Eqs. (12) and (9). We find again that the deviation from the Lam-Tung relation arises from an average \( \kappa \) (albeit in addition to higher order perturbative corrections). In Eq. (22) \( e_a \) denotes the charge of the quark with flavour \( a \); the sum is over flavours and antiflavours (indicated by
and, we have used that $\bar{\bar{f}}_a = \bar{f}_{\bar{a}}$, i.e. the distribution of antiquarks of flavour $\bar{a}$ inside a hadron $h$ is equal to the distribution of quarks of flavour $a$ inside an anti-hadron $\bar{h}$.

Setting $R_f^2 = 1$ GeV$^{-2}$ and fitting the NA10 data [8] as done in Ref. [11], leads to a good fit for $R_{\bar{h}}^2 - R_f^2 = 0.17 R_f^2$ and

$$\left< \sum_a e_a^2 h_1^a(x_1) h_1^{\bar{a}}(x_2) \right> / \left< \sum_a e_a^2 f_1^a(x_1) f_1^{\bar{a}}(x_2) \right> = 0.02,$$  

(23)

where we consider the average over $x_1$ and $x_2$. Assuming $u$-quark dominance and $h_1^+/f_1 \approx \bar{h}_1^+/\bar{f}_1$, this leads to the reasonable result that on average $h_1^+$ is approximately 14% of the size of $f_1$.

This result is of course dependent on the assumptions, but it serves the purpose of illustrating that the data can in principle be explained by a nonzero $h_1^+$. Hence, in order to experimentally discriminate between the two approaches of Refs. [10, 11], more data is clearly needed, either from other kinematic regions or from other processes. In the next section we will elaborate on what is required and what are the opportunities for distinguishing between the two approaches.

### 3 Comparison of the two approaches

In this section we compare the approaches of [10] and [11]. Let us first of all emphasise that the ansatz of [11], given by Eqs. (18) to (20) is perfectly compatible with the general ansatz (6) put forward in [10], but restricts $\rho^{(q,\bar{q})}$ to be factorising.

There is a further restriction in the ansatz (18) to (20). It requires $F_3 = G_3 = 0$. This comes about as follows. The correlation function $\Phi$ in (16) for the hadron $h_1$ is supposed to depend only on the momenta $p_1, p_2, k_1$ (actually only on the direction of $p_2$), the correlation function $\bar{\Phi}$ for $h_2$ only on $p_2, p_1, k_2$. From three four-vectors we can only form one axial vector in each case,

$$a_{1,2}^\mu = \epsilon^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} p_{1,2,\nu} p_{2,\rho} k_{1,2,\sigma}.$$  

(24)

To form a pseudoscalar invariant we need all four independent four-vectors

$$\mathcal{A} = \epsilon^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} p_{1,\mu} p_{2,\nu} k_{1,\rho} k_{2,\sigma}.$$  

(25)

Now $F_3$ and $G_3$ are in essence measuring the degree of longitudinal polarisation of the quark $q$ and antiquark $\bar{q}$. Therefore, due to parity invariance of the strong interaction, $F_3$ and $G_3$ must be pseudoscalar quantities and thus linear in $\mathcal{A}$ (25).

But in the ansatz (18) to (20), $F_3$ arises from the correlation function $\Phi$ of hadron $h_1$, see (16), and can thus only depend on three four-vectors, from which we cannot form a pseudoscalar invariant. Thus, with the ansatz (18) to (20), $F_3$ must be zero. The same holds for $G_3$. Therefore, the ansatz of [11] implies $F_3 = G_3 = 0$ and due to the factorisation of the $q\bar{q}$ matrix $H_{33} = 0$. In the general ansatz of [10] the density
matrix can from the outset depend on all four four-vectors of the problem, there is a pseudoscalar invariant \( \mathbf{F}_3 \), \( \mathbf{G}_3 \) do not have to vanish. Obviously, also \( H_{33} \) does not need to be zero in the general approach.

As mentioned in section 2, the Drell-Yan reaction \( [2] \) is only sensitive to the density-matrix element \( H_{33} \) and the combination \( \kappa \) (see Eq. \( [1] \)). Therefore, one way to check if the restricted form \( [20] \) of \( \rho^{(q\bar{q})} \) is actually realised would be to measure \( H_{33} \). But, as already mentioned in [10], the normalised angular distribution \( [4] \) of the lepton pair is practically only sensitive to \( \kappa \). A factor of \( 1 + H_{33} \) enters in the cross section formula but influences mainly the absolute normalisation. This latter effect is difficult to measure due to uncertainties in the quark and antiquark distributions and in higher order contributions giving rise to the so-called K-factors. Thus we are left with one relevant parameter \( \kappa \).

Different physical mechanism were proposed in [10] and [11] to produce a non-trivial \( q\bar{q} \) density matrix with \( \kappa \neq 0 \). In [10] it was suggested that effects of the nontrivial QCD vacuum may be responsible for \( \kappa \neq 0 \). In [22,23] model calculations using the general framework of [11] were performed showing that initial-state gluon exchange can produce \( \kappa \neq 0 \).

Let us see if on general grounds we can expect different behaviour for the observable quantity \( \bar{\kappa} \) \( [12] \) from these two physical pictures. One possibility for comparison would be to study \( \bar{\kappa} \) as a function of \( k_T \). The ansatz given in Eq. \( [4] \) –taken literally– implies that \( \bar{\kappa} \approx \kappa_0 \) for large \( k_T \). This is a very different behaviour than that expected from an underlying \( h_1^\perp \) function, which is assumed to vanish for large quark transverse momentum, in accordance with the ansatz of factorisation of hard and soft energy scales in the process. This forces \( \bar{\kappa} \) to vanish (at least at tree level) in the limit of large \( |k_T| \). Higher order \( \alpha_s \) corrections may modify this conclusion. However, as mentioned the NNLO corrections were shown to be small [5,10]. Their (negative) contribution to \( \bar{\kappa} \) was found to be well below 1\% for \( |k_T| \) values up to 3 GeV (see figure 6 of [10]). Therefore, one expects \( \bar{\kappa} \) (possibly corrected for the small higher order perturbative contributions) to decrease. A constant \( \bar{\kappa} \), that is both positive and large, for large \( k_T \) would therefore be irreconcilable with the approach of [11]. In the general framework of [10] such a behaviour for \( \bar{\kappa} \) would be possible but is certainly not required.

The dependence of \( \bar{\kappa} \) on the other scale in the process, the lepton pair invariant mass (denoted by \( m_\gamma \) in Ref. [10] and by \( Q \) in Ref. [11]), may also be different in the two approaches. Unfortunately it is not clear what would be the generic \( Q^2 \) behaviour of \( \bar{\kappa} \) due to vacuum effects. Regarding \( \bar{\kappa} \) arising from nonzero \( h_1^\perp \), the expectation is that it will decrease approximately as \( 1/Q \) for large \( Q \). This is based on results from Ref. [24], where the influence of soft gluons on similar azimuthal spin asymmetries was considered. This means that although \( \bar{\kappa} \) is not power-suppressed at tree level, higher order \( \alpha_s \) contributions effectively give rise to power suppression. Note that this is quite different from dynamical higher twist contributions, such as discussed in Ref. [25], which typically lead to \( \nu \sim \mathcal{O}((k_T^2)/Q^2) \) and therefore, are expected to be important only for \( Q \) values smaller than the experimentally
measured range from 4 GeV up to 12 GeV. In any case, the fall-off or persistence of $\kappa$ with increasing $Q$ could be a discriminating feature, similar to the $k_T$ dependence.

A further possibility to differentiate between the two approaches is to investigate a possible flavour dependence of $\kappa$ by varying the types of beams ($\pi^\pm$, $p$, $\bar{p}$). Clearly vacuum effects do not favour a flavour dependence. On the other hand, if the ratio $h_1^+/f_1$ varies for different flavours and different hadrons, then this could lead to an observable flavour dependence. Thus far only $\pi^- N$ data have been published, although Ref. [9] mentions also to have data for a $\pi^+$ beam at the same energy.

Both vacuum effects and nonzero $h_1^+$ could lead to a $\kappa$ that varies as a function of $(x_1, x_2)$. In addition, observable flavour dependence of this $x_i$ dependence would arise if the ratio $h_1^+(x_i)/f_1(x_i)$ varies differently as a function of $x$ for different flavours and different hadrons. This includes the possibility that $h_1^+(x_i)/f_1(x_i)$ changes its sign as a function of $x_i$, which would lead to sign changes in $\kappa$ as a function of $(x_1, x_2)$, even when restricting to only one particular process.

As a last point in this discussion we mention that since the approach of [11] is based on a factorised $q\bar{q}$ spin-density matrix [20], one can test this type of factorisation by measuring several related processes, such as semi-inclusive deep-inelastic lepton-nucleon scattering, where the $h_1^+$ function enters in combination with other functions [26, 27]. See also [28, 29]. In principle one can determine as many observables as unknown functions in order to extract $h_1^+$ and test the consistency of the factorised approach. Needless to say, this is quite a formidable task, but outlines of such a scheme have been discussed in some detail in Ref. [17].

Clearly it will also be very interesting to compare the predictions of the approaches of [10] and [11] for other Drell-Yan type processes, for instance $Z$ production as well as $\gamma^* +$ jet and $Z +$ jet production in hadron-hadron collisions.

4 Instanton model

Thus far we have explained in a rather general way, how a violation of the Lam-Tung relation [3] can arise, if the standard ansatz [10] does not hold. In both approaches [10, 11] the strength of the violation follows directly from a comparison with the experiment. It would be of great interest to calculate the relevant parameter describing the asymmetry (namely $\kappa$) in a certain model. For the approach of Ref. [11] this has been done in Ref. [22, 23] using a spectator model. It was shown that initial-state gluon exchange could give rise to a nonzero $h_1^+$ and a corresponding $\kappa$ for the $p\bar{p}$ and $\pi^- p$ initiated Drell-Yan process. In this section we want to take a different approach, namely to outline a model calculation that is along the lines of Ref. [10].

We already discussed the possibility that in a nontrivial vacuum the spins of the partons might be correlated. An intriguing possibility to describe the vacuum structure is given by instantons. Instantons [30] are nonperturbative fluctuations of the gluon fields and well known to induce chirality-violating processes, absent in conventional perturbation theory [31]. Especially this feature of instanton-induced
processes is a strong motivation to study the role of instantons as a source of spin correlations. Along similar lines, various remarkable effects induced by instantons were investigated. One can find for instance in Ref. [32] an estimate of certain single spin asymmetries and in Ref. [33] an estimate of the Pauli form factor of the quark. One also expects an impact of instantons on the question how the proton spin is built up from the spin and angular momenta of the constituents, see e.g. [34] or the review [35]. Recently, an estimate of an azimuthal spin-asymmetry induced by instantons in semi-inclusive deep-inelastic scattering was presented in Ref. [36].

In a rather qualitative way, the Drell-Yan process was already investigated in an instanton background in [37]. There it was argued that even in the limit of high energy, instantons may lead to sizable effects, not suppressed by inverse powers of the energy. But it should be mentioned that spin effects do not play any specific role in [37].

Here, we want to emphasise that instantons might indeed violate the naive ansatz (10) via some additional terms to the spin matrix. The generic instanton-induced chirality-violating process which contributes in the Drell-Yan case reads for $n_f$ active flavours (see Eq. (2) for the similar process in usual perturbation theory),

$$q_L + \bar{q}_L \rightarrow \gamma^* + (n_f - 1) [q_R + \bar{q}_R] + n_g g$$

and is sketched in Fig. 2. The indices indicate the helicity of the quarks and antiquarks in the process. Of course, the process with $R$ and $L$ exchanged everywhere—induced by antiinstantons—must also be taken into account. The important point in our approach is not the significant complication of the final state in (26) which contributes to the final state $X$ in (1), but the different helicity structure in the initial state.

We mentioned in section 1 that neglecting quark masses in the process (2) only a quark and an antiquark with different helicities couple to the photon. So one can split the process (26) into two stages: during the first stage, the quark (or the antiquark) will change the helicity and afterwards the quark (antiquark) will interact in the usual way with the antiquark (quark). The final state will only change the size of the whole instanton contribution but not the structure of the related spin matrix $\rho^{(q,d)}$.

In Fig. 2 we show the two amplitudes contributing to the process (26) and for each amplitude the split into two stages. In the left part (labelled in Eq. (27) with ($t$)) the incoming quark changes the helicity. The right part ($u$) is of course similar but the incoming antiquark changes the helicity. It is sketched that both amplitudes factorise into an instanton part described by the coefficients $a^{(I)}$ and $b^{(I)}$ and chirality-conserving amplitudes, namely $\langle \gamma_{\mu}^* | T | q_R \bar{q}_L \rangle$ or $\langle \gamma_{\mu}^* | T | q_L \bar{q}_R \rangle$.

For the simplest instanton-induced process with $n_f = 1$ and $n_g = 0$ (see [38] for a detailed calculation of the related process in lepton-hadron scattering) one would expect a trivial connection between $a^{(I)}$ and $b^{(I)}$. For the general case this will change because of the more complex kinematics, related to the additional momenta of the final state partons.
The important point is that the two processes shown in Fig. 2 lead from the same initial to the same final states. Therefore these amplitudes must be added coherently. This gives in the cross section a term

$$\left| a^{(I)} \langle \gamma^*_\mu | T | q_R \bar{q}_L \rangle + b^{(I)} \langle \gamma^*_\mu | T | q_L \bar{q}_R \rangle \right|^2$$

Figure 2: The instanton-induced process $q_L + \bar{q}_L \rightarrow \gamma^* + (n_f - 1) [q_R + \bar{q}_R] + n_g g$.

Comparing the general amplitude (8) with the instanton-induced one (27), we get the following expressions for the density-matrix elements (the factor $1/4$ arises from the averaging over the initial state helicities),

$$\rho^{RL\,RL}_{(I)} = \left| a^{(I)} \right|^2 4, \quad \rho^{RL\,LR}_{(I)} = \left| b^{(I)} \right|^2 4, \quad \rho^{LR\,LR}_{(I)} = \frac{a^{(I)} b^{(I)*}}{4}, \quad \rho^{LR\,RL}_{(I)} = \frac{a^{(I)*} b^{(I)}}{4}. \quad (28)$$

For the calculation of the spin matrix, we have to add the contribution from the usual process without instantons in the background. The naive expectation related to (10) is $\rho^{RL\,LR}_{|\text{naive}|} = 1/4$ and $\rho^{LR\,LR}_{|\text{naive}|} = 0$. Adding this to the instanton-induced contribution we get finally,

$$\kappa = -\frac{\rho^{RL\,LR} + \rho^{LR\,RL}}{\rho^{RL\,RL} + \rho^{LR\,LR}} = -\frac{2 \text{Re} (a^{(I)} b^{(I)*})}{2 + |a^{(I)}|^2 + |b^{(I)}|^2}. \quad (29)$$

An estimate of $\kappa$ in the simplest case where $n_f = 1$ and $n_g = 0$ leads to $\kappa \neq 0$ and we expect the same to be true in general.
We want to mention that one can expect contributions to $\kappa$ also from instanton-induced processes without any additional partons in the final state. In this case an instanton-antiinstanton pair is located only on one side of the cut appearing in the contributions to the cross section (in contrast to the squared amplitudes in Fig. 2 where one instanton will appear on each side of the cut). Hence, the quark and the antiquark will change the helicity on one side of the cut and we will also get off-diagonal contributions.

We summarise: The flipping of the helicity of one quark or antiquark in the initial state which occurs in the instanton-induced contribution to the Drell-Yan process should give rise to a nonzero matrix $H_{ij}$ in (6) and finally to $\kappa$. As already mentioned, the Drell-Yan process (2) is not sensitive to $F_i$ and $G_i$, hence we can not say anything about instanton-induced contributions to $F_i$ and $G_i$. A more careful analysis of the instanton-induced contributions to the Drell-Yan process including the complete final state in (26) is beyond the scope of the present paper. This and the question whether the instanton induced processes lead to a factorising or entangled $q\bar{q}$ density matrix will be investigated elsewhere.

5 Summary

In this paper we have discussed the angular distribution of the lepton pair in the Drell-Yan process (1). We considered the lowest order reaction (2) and studied the influence of the quark-antiquark spin-density matrix on the lepton's angular distribution.

It is well known that a trivial spin-density matrix (10) is disfavoured by experiment (see [7–9]). Experiments are well described by $q\bar{q}$ spin-density matrices having the coefficient $\kappa \neq 0$. This can be achieved by a $q\bar{q}$ density matrix which is factorising into nontrivial $q$ and $\bar{q}$ single-particle density matrices, as assumed in the ansatz of [11]. The ansatz of [10] is perfectly compatible with this, but would allow also for truly entangled $q\bar{q}$ pairs, that is a two-particle spin-density matrix which cannot be written as a tensor product of one-particle matrices. We have made a detailed comparison of the approaches [10] and [11] and have shown how they are related. We have discussed the underlying physical ideas and have outlined ways to check these ideas experimentally.

We have discussed instanton effects on the quark-antiquark density matrix and argued that these could induce spin correlations of the type indicated by experiments. The question whether instantons lead to a factorising or an entangled $q\bar{q}$ density matrix will be studied elsewhere.

We think that it is an important question to follow up how to determine from experiments the complete $q\bar{q}$ density matrix. For this other reactions besides the Drell-Yan process clearly are needed. We have given some discussion of this issue in section 3. It would be fascinating if the $q\bar{q}$ density matrix turned out to be entangled. Thus, in this article we want to pose the question: can there be entanglement at the parton level in hadronic reactions?
Acknowledgements

We thank C. Ewerz, J. P. Ma and A. Ringwald for reading drafts of the manuscript and for useful discussions. The research of D.B. has been made possible by financial support from the Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences. This research was supported by the German Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung, project no. 05HAT1VHA/0 and 05HT4VHA/0. A.B. was supported by a Heisenberg grant of the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft.

References

[1] S. D. Drell and T. M. Yan, Phys. Rev. Lett. 25 (1970) 316 [Erratum-ibid. 25 (1970) 902].
[2] G. Altarelli, Phys. Rept. 81 (1982) 1.
[3] J. C. Collins and D. E. Soper, Phys. Rev. D 16 (1977) 2219.
[4] C. S. Lam and W. K. Tung, Phys. Rev. D 21 (1980) 2712.
[5] E. Mirkes and J. Ohnemus, Phys. Rev. D 51 (1995) 4891.
[6] P. Chiappetta and M. Le Bellac, Z. Phys. C 32 (1986) 521.
[7] S. Falciano et al. [NA10 Collaboration], Z. Phys. C 31 (1986) 513.
[8] M. Guanziroli et al. [NA10 Collaboration], Z. Phys. C 37 (1988) 545.
[9] J. S. Conway et al., Phys. Rev. D 39 (1989) 92.
[10] A. Brandenburg, O. Nachtmann and E. Mirkes, Z. Phys. C 60 (1993) 697.
[11] D. Boer, Phys. Rev. D 60 (1999) 014012.
[12] O. Nachtmann and A. Reiter, Z. Phys. C 24 (1984) 283.
[13] A. A. Sokolov and I. M. Ternov, Phys. Dokl. 8 (1964) 1203.
[14] O. Nachtmann, “Elementary Particle Physics: Concepts and Phenomena,” Springer, Berlin, Germany (1990).
[15] G. W. Botz, P. Haberl and O. Nachtmann, Z. Phys. C 67 (1995) 143.
[16] O. Nachtmann, “High energy collisions and nonperturbative QCD,” in “Perturbative and Nonperturbative Aspects of Quantum Field Theory”, eds. H. Latal, W. Schweiger; Springer, Berlin, Germany (1997), arXiv:hep-ph/9609365.
[17] D. Boer, AIP Conf. Proc. 675 (2003) 479 arXiv:hep-ph/0211050.
[18] A. Bacchetta, M. Boglione, A. Henneman and P. J. Mulders, Phys. Rev. Lett. 85 (2000) 712.

[19] A. Bacchetta, Ph.D. Thesis (Amsterdam, 2002), arXiv:hep-ph/0212025.

[20] J. C. Collins, Nucl. Phys. B 394 (1993) 169.

[21] J. C. Collins and D. E. Soper, Nucl. Phys. B 193 (1981) 381
[Erratum-ibid. B 213 (1983) 545];
J. C. Collins, D. E. Soper and G. Sterman, Nucl. Phys. B 250 (1985) 199;
J. C. Collins and D. E. Soper, Ann. Rev. Nucl. Part. Sci. 37 (1987) 383.

[22] D. Boer, S. J. Brodsky and D. S. Hwang, Phys. Rev. D 67 (2003) 054003.

[23] B. Lu and B. Q. Ma, arXiv:hep-ph/0411043.

[24] D. Boer, Nucl. Phys. B 603 (2001) 195.

[25] A. Brandenburg, S. J. Brodsky, V. V. Khoze and D. Müller, Phys. Rev. Lett. 73 (1994) 939.

[26] D. Boer and P. J. Mulders, Phys. Rev. D 57 (1998) 5780.

[27] L. P. Gamberg, G. R. Goldstein and K. A. Oganessyan, Phys. Rev. D 67 (2003) 071504.

[28] X. Ji, J. P. Ma and F. Yuan, arXiv:hep-ph/0404183.

[29] X. Ji, J. P. Ma and F. Yuan, Phys. Lett. B 597 (2004) 299.

[30] A. A. Belavin et al., Phys. Lett. B 59 (1975) 85.

[31] G. ’t Hooft, Phys. Rev. Lett. 37 (1976) 8; Phys. Rev. D 14 (1976) 3432
[Erratum-ibid. D 18 (1978) 2199].

[32] N. I. Kochelev, Phys. Lett. B 426 (1998) 149.

[33] N. I. Kochelev, Phys. Lett. B 565 (2003) 131.

[34] S. Forte, Phys. Lett. B 224 (1989) 189; S. Forte, Nucl. Phys. B 331 (1990) 1.

[35] A. E. Dorokhov, N. I. Kochelev and Y. A. Zubov, Int. J. Mod. Phys. A 8 (1993) 603.

[36] D. Ostrovsky and E. Shuryak, arXiv:hep-ph/0409253.

[37] J. R. Ellis, M. K. Gaillard and W. J. Zakrzewski, Phys. Lett. B 81 (1979) 224.

[38] S. Moch, A. Ringwald and F. Schrempp, Nucl. Phys. B 507 (1997) 134.