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## Weak capture of protons by protons

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### Abstract

The cross section for the proton weak capture reaction  ${}^1\text{H}(p,e^+\nu_e){}^2\text{H}$  is calculated with wave functions obtained from a number of modern, phase-equivalent, realistic interactions. To minimize the uncertainty in the axial two-body current operator, its matrix element has been adjusted to reproduce the measured Gamow-Teller matrix element of tritium  $\beta$ -decay in model calculations using trinucleon wave functions from these interactions. A thorough analysis of the ambiguities that this procedure introduces in evaluating the two-body current contribution to the  $pp$  capture is given. Its inherent model-dependence is in fact found to be very weak. The overlap integral  $\Lambda^2(E=0)$  for the  $pp$  capture is predicted to be in the range 7.05–7.06, including the axial two-body current contribution, for all interactions considered.

21.30.+y,21.45.+v,25.10.+s,95.30.Cq,97.10.Cv

## I. INTRODUCTION

The proton weak capture on protons is the most fundamental process in stellar nucleosynthesis: it is the first reaction in the  $pp$ -chain converting hydrogen into helium, and the principal source for the production of energy and neutrinos in main-sequence stars. The theoretical description of this hydrogen burning reaction, whose cross section cannot be measured in terrestrial laboratories, was first given by Bethe and Critchfield [1], who showed that the associated rate was large enough to account for the energy released by the Sun. Since then, a series of calculations have refined their original estimate by either computing the required wave functions more accurately [2–5] or by using more realistic models for the nuclear transition operator [6–8]. We here contribute to this effort by providing an integrated study of these two aspects with emphasis on a reliable estimate of their associated theoretical uncertainties.

This paper is divided into seven sections and an appendix. In Sec. II we set up the framework for the present study, by providing expressions for the  $pp$  fusion cross section and the required matrix elements and by summarizing the current “best” values for the various coupling constants, Fermi function, etc. In Secs. III and IV we give a fairly detailed description of, respectively, the  $pp$  and deuteron wave functions, as obtained from modern (phase-equivalent) interactions. The latter include, along with the short-range nuclear part, a complete treatment of electromagnetic effects up to order  $\alpha^2$ ,  $\alpha$  being the fine-structure constant, and accurately reproduce the measured low-energy  $pp$  scattering parameters and deuteron properties. Sections V and VI deal with the calculation of the  $pp$  cross section in the approximations, respectively, in which only the one-body or both the one- and two-body parts of the axial current operator are retained. In Sec. VI we also review the evidence, as obtained from an analysis of tritium  $\beta$ -decay, for the axial two-body components (explicit expressions for them are listed in the appendix). Because of their model dependence, we adopt the phenomenological approach of adjusting the cutoff masses in the meson-nucleon vertices and  $N$  to  $\Delta$  axial coupling constant so as to obtain agreement with the experimental value for the Gamow-Teller matrix element in tritium  $\beta$ -decay. The question of how this procedure impacts the  $pp$  cross section is also examined. Finally, in Sec. VII we summarize our conclusions, and provide our “best” value for the  $pp$  overlap integral at zero energy.

## II. CROSS SECTION

The spin-averaged total cross section for the  ${}^1\text{H}(p,e^+\nu_e){}^2\text{H}$  reaction can be written in the form [8]

$$\sigma(E) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{G_V^2}{v_{\text{rel}}} m_e^5 f(E) \sum_M | \langle d, M | A_- | pp \rangle |^2 . \quad (2.1)$$

Here  $G_V$  is the vector coupling constant for which the value  $G_V = (1.14939 \pm 0.00065) \times 10^{-5} \text{ GeV}^{-2}$ , as obtained from a recent analysis of  $ft$ -values for superallowed  $0^+ \rightarrow 0^+$  transitions [9], is used;  $m_e$  is the electron mass and  $v_{\text{rel}}$  is the  $pp$  relative velocity. The process is induced by the axial-vector part of the weak interaction Hamiltonian, and consequently only even parity  $pp$  states contribute to the matrix element.

The naive expression for the Fermi function  $f(E)$  is given by

$$f(E) \equiv \frac{1}{m_e^5} \int \delta(E + \Delta m - E_\nu - E_e) p_e E_e E_\nu^2 dE_e dE_\nu ,$$

$$= \int_1^{(E+\Delta m)/m_e} dx x \sqrt{x^2 - 1} \left( \frac{E + \Delta m}{m_e} - x \right)^2 , \quad (2.2)$$

where  $\Delta m = 2m_p - m_d = 0.93125$  MeV ( $m_p$  and  $m_d$  are the proton and deuteron masses, respectively),  $E = k^2/m_p$  is the CM incident energy, and the energy of the recoiling deuteron is neglected. A more refined treatment of the phase-space factor includes the effect of Coulomb focusing of the emitted  $e^+$  wave function [3] as well as radiative corrections to the cross section. The latter have not actually been calculated for the present reaction but have been estimated to be comparable to those obtained for neutron decay [10]. As a result, the Fermi function is parametrized as

$$f(E) = 0.144 (1 + 9.04 E) , \quad (2.3)$$

with  $E$  expressed in MeV. At  $E = 0$  the expression in Eq. (2.2) gives 0.148, which is about 3% larger than the more accurate estimate from Eq. (2.3).

The deuteron and even parity  $pp$  wave functions are written as

$$\Psi_d^M(\mathbf{r}) = \left[ \frac{u(r)}{r} \mathcal{Y}_{01}^{1M}(\hat{\mathbf{r}}) + \frac{w(r)}{r} \mathcal{Y}_{21}^{1M}(\hat{\mathbf{r}}) \right] \zeta_0^0 , \quad (2.4)$$

$$\psi_{\mathbf{k}}^{(+)}(\mathbf{r}) = 4\pi\sqrt{2} \sum_{L \text{ even}} \sum_{M_L} i^L Y_{LM_L}^*(\hat{\mathbf{k}}) \frac{e^{iM_L}}{kr} \chi_L(r; k) Y_{LM_L}(\hat{\mathbf{r}}) \eta_0^0 \zeta_1^1 , \quad (2.5)$$

where  $\mathcal{Y}_{LS}^M(\hat{\mathbf{r}})$  are the normalized eigenfunctions of the two-nucleon orbital angular momentum  $L$ , spin  $S$ , and total angular momentum  $J$  with projection  $M$ ;  $\eta_S^{M_S}$  and  $\zeta_T^{M_T}$  denote, respectively, the eigenstates of the spin  $S$  and isospin  $T$  with projections  $M_S$  and  $M_T$ . The deuteron  $u(r)$  and  $w(r)$ , and  $pp$   $\chi_L(r; k)$  radial wave functions are obtained from solutions of a Schrödinger equation with nuclear and electromagnetic interactions, the latter including corrections from vacuum polarization, magnetic moment, two-photon exchange, and Darwin-Foldy terms. A discussion of the interactions and radial wave functions is given in Secs. III and IV below. Here, it suffices to say that  $\chi_L(r; k)$  behaves asymptotically as

$$\chi_L(r; k) \underset{r \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} \cos \delta_L F_L(kr) + \sin \delta_L G_L(kr) , \quad (2.6)$$

where  $\delta_L$  is the phase shift, and  $F_L$  and  $G_L$  are the regular and irregular Coulomb functions.

The nuclear axial current operator consists of one- and two-body components

$$\mathbf{A}_a = \mathbf{A}_a^{(1)} + \mathbf{A}_a^{(2)} , \quad (2.7)$$

where  $a = \pm$  is an isospin index, and

$$\mathbf{A}_\pm^{(1)} = -g_A \sum_i \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \tau_{i,\pm} , \quad (2.8)$$

$$\tau_{i,\pm} = (\tau_{i,x} \pm i \tau_{i,y})/2 . \quad (2.9)$$

The ratio of the axial to vector coupling constants,  $g_A = G_A/G_V$ , is taken to be [10]  $1.2654 \pm 0.0042$  by averaging values obtained, respectively, from the beta asymmetry in the decay of polarized neutrons ( $1.2626 \pm 0.0033$ ) [11,12], and  $ft(n)$  and  $ft(0^+ \rightarrow 0^+)$ ,  $g_A = [2ft(0^+ \rightarrow 0^+)/ft(n) - 1]/3 = 1.2681 \pm 0.0033$  [10]. The form of the axial two-body current operator depends on the dynamical model used to construct it. However, the need for such a term is based on an analysis of tritium  $\beta$ -decay. This evidence as well as the impact of the ambiguities associated with the form of  $\mathbf{A}^{(2)}$  on the  $pp$  fusion cross section are discussed below in Sec. VI.

Selection rules for a vector operator restrict the sum over  $L$  in the initial capture state, Eq. (2.5), to the values  $L = 0$  and 2. However, the  $L=2$  contribution is negligible at very low energies. Indeed, the initial  $S$ - and  $D$ -wave channel contributions to the matrix element of the dominant  $\mathbf{A}^{(1)}$  operator are proportional to, respectively,

$$\int_0^\infty dr u(r) \chi_0(r; k) \simeq \int_0^\infty dr u(r) F_0(kr) , \quad (2.10)$$

$$\int_0^\infty dr w(r) \chi_2(r; k) \simeq \int_0^\infty dr w(r) F_2(kr) , \quad (2.11)$$

where the  $\chi_L(r; k)$  radial wave functions have been replaced with their asymptotic forms by setting  $\delta_L \simeq 0$ , which is appropriate for the energy range under consideration here (a few keV). It is then easily seen that

$$\frac{\int_0^\infty dr w(r) F_2(kr)}{\int_0^\infty dr u(r) F_0(kr)} \simeq 2 \sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{1}{\bar{\eta}^2}\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{4\bar{\eta}^2}\right)} \frac{\int_0^\infty dr \sqrt{r} w(r) I_5(2\sqrt{\alpha m_p r})}{\int_0^\infty dr \sqrt{r} u(r) I_1(2\sqrt{\alpha m_p r})} , \quad (2.12)$$

where  $\bar{\eta} = \alpha/v_{\text{rel}}$ ,  $I_L$  are modified Bessel functions, and the asymptotic expressions, valid in the regime where  $\bar{\eta} \gg kr$ , have been used for the  $F_L$  [13]. The ratio above is found to be roughly 0.00013 in the limit  $v_{\text{rel}} \rightarrow 0$  (corresponding to  $\bar{\eta} \rightarrow \infty$ ).

Finally, the dependence of  $\mathbf{A}_a$  upon the momentum transfer  $\mathbf{q} = -\mathbf{p}_e - \mathbf{p}_\nu$ , where  $\mathbf{p}_e$  and  $\mathbf{p}_\nu$  are the outgoing lepton momenta, is ignored in Eq. (2.8), because of the very low energies involved. At  $E = 0$  the kinetic energy available to the final state is only about 420 keV, and the finite momentum transfer correction to the matrix element of  $\mathbf{A}^{(1)}$  for  $S$ -wave capture can be estimated to be approximately  $(qr_d)^2 \simeq (0.0042)^2$ , where  $q \simeq 420$  keV and  $r_d \simeq 2$  fm is the root-mean-square radius of the deuteron—a tiny correction, indeed.

### III. $pp$ WAVE FUNCTION

The low-energy  $pp$  scattering is described by the radial Schrödinger equation

$$\left[ \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + k^2 - \frac{L(L+1)}{r^2} - m_p V(r) \right] \chi_L(r; k) = 0 , \quad (3.1)$$

with  $\chi_L(r; k)$  the radial wave function,  $m_p$  the proton mass, and  $L$  the orbital angular momentum. The CM relative momentum  $k$  is given by  $k^2 = m_p T_{\text{lab}}/2$ , or  $k = m_p v_{\text{rel}}/2$ . The boundary conditions for the wave function are

$$\chi_L(0; k) = 0 ,$$

$$\chi_L(r; k) \underset{r \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} F_L(kr) C_1 + G_L(kr) C_2 , \quad (3.2)$$

with  $F_L$  and  $G_L$  the standard regular and irregular Coulomb functions [13]. The potential  $V(r)$  can be divided into a long-range electromagnetic part  $V_{EM}$  and a short-range nuclear part  $V_N$ . The coefficients  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  contain all the necessary information about the partial wave, which is usually expressed in terms of the phase shift  $\delta^C$ :

$$\tan \delta^C = C_2 C_1^{-1}. \quad (3.3)$$

In a practical calculation, the Schrödinger equation (3.1) is integrated out to some  $r$ , large in comparison with the range of the short-range (i.e., nuclear) force. The numerical wave function is then matched to the asymptotic form of Eq. (3.2), and the corresponding phase shift is defined to be the phase shift of the nuclear force with respect to Coulomb wave functions. Following the notation of Ref. [14], we have added the superscript  $C$ , for Coulomb.

However, in reality the electromagnetic interaction in  $pp$  scattering is much more complicated than just the simple Coulomb interaction. This leads to some practical problems in applying the scenario of integrating the Schrödinger equation, matching to Coulomb functions, and extracting the phase shift. This will be discussed below.

The full interaction, up to second order in the fine-structure constant  $\alpha \approx 1/137$ , is given by [14–16]

$$V_{EM}(pp) = V_{C1} + V_{C2} + V_{VP} + V_{MM} + V_{DF}, \quad (3.4)$$

where

$$V_{C1} = \alpha' \frac{F_C(r)}{r}, \quad (3.5)$$

$$V_{C2} = -\frac{\alpha}{2m_p^2} \left[ (\Delta + k^2) \frac{F_C(r)}{r} + \frac{F_C(r)}{r} (\Delta + k^2) \right] \approx -\frac{\alpha\alpha'}{m_p} \left[ \frac{F_C(r)}{r} \right]^2, \quad (3.6)$$

$$V_{VP} = \frac{2\alpha}{3\pi} \frac{\alpha'}{r} I_{VP}(r), \quad (3.7)$$

$$V_{MM} = -\frac{\alpha}{4m_p^2} \mu_p^2 \left[ \frac{2}{3} F_\delta(r) \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2 + \frac{F_t(r)}{r^3} S_{12} \right] - \frac{\alpha}{2m_p^2} (4\mu_p - 1) \frac{F_{ls}(r)}{r^3} \mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{S}, \quad (3.8)$$

$$V_{DF} = -\frac{\alpha}{4m_p^2} F_\delta(r). \quad (3.9)$$

Here the  $F_C(r)$ ,  $F_\delta(r)$ ,  $F_t(r)$ , and  $F_{ls}(r)$  are functions representing the finite size of the nucleon charge distribution. In the limit of point nucleons,  $F_C(r) = F_t(r) = F_{ls}(r) = 1$ , whereas  $F_\delta(r) = 4\pi\delta^3(\mathbf{r})$ . Their explicit  $r$  dependence is given in Ref. [15]. The various contributions are described as follows.

The Coulomb interaction  $V_{C1}$  contains a well-known [17] energy dependence through  $\alpha' = 2k\alpha/(m_p v_{lab})$ . However, at the extreme low energies of interest to astrophysical calculations (a few keV), this energy dependence is negligible, and we can set  $\alpha' = \alpha$  for all practical purposes.

The two-photon-exchange interaction  $V_{C2}$  behaves like  $1/r^2$ , and so we immediately have the problem that, in principle, we have to integrate out to infinitely large distances before we can match to Coulomb functions.

The vacuum polarization potential  $V_{VP}$  describes the augmentation of the photon propagator by an electron-positron pair. In the limit of point protons ( $F_C(r) = 1$ ), the vacuum polarization integral is given by [18]

$$I_{VP}(r) = \int_1^\infty dx e^{-2m_e r x} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2x^2} \right) \frac{(x^2 - 1)^{1/2}}{x^2}, \quad (3.10)$$

with  $m_e = 0.511$  MeV the electron mass. Including the finite-size effect, we get the more complicated expression as given by Bohannon and Heller [16], where the exponential is replaced by

$$e^{-2m_e r x} \rightarrow D^4(x) e^{-2m_e r x} - \left[ D^4(x) + \frac{1}{2}\rho D^3(x) + \frac{1}{8}(\rho + \rho^2) D^2(x) + \frac{1}{48}(3\rho + 3\rho^2 + \rho^3) D(x) \right] e^{-\rho}, \quad (3.11)$$

where  $\rho = br$ ,  $D(x) = [1 - (2m_e x/b)^2]^{-1}$ , and  $b = 4.27$  fm $^{-1}$ . As a matter of fact, the simple multiplication of (3.10) with  $F_C(r)$  as an approximation to the inclusion of finite-size effects (and which was adopted in Ref. [15]), already closely resembles the exact treatment (3.11) where the finite-size effect is properly folded into the integral.

The magnetic moment interaction  $V_{MM}$  arises as a consequence of the non-vanishing value of the proton magnetic moment,  $\mu_p = 2.79285\mu_0$ . Also for this potential, the  $1/r^3$  behavior gives rise to practical numerical problems for non- $S$  waves.

Finally, the Darwin-Foldy term  $V_{DF}$  is a short-range potential, describing the finite size of the proton, where  $F_\delta(r) \rightarrow 4\pi\delta^3(\mathbf{r})$  in the limit of point protons.

Now that we have defined the full long-range electromagnetic interaction, we can return to the question of how, in practice, to integrate the Schrödinger equation and extract the phase shift. We will restrict ourselves to  $S$  waves, and so the tensor and spin-orbit terms in the magnetic moment interaction vanish. It is convenient to define a phase shift  $\delta_W^V$ , which is the phase shift of the solution of the potential  $W$  with respect to the solution with the potential  $V$  as the interaction. The well-known application of this procedure is the situation where  $V$  is the Coulomb potential and  $W$  is the Coulomb plus nuclear potential, and the phase shift  $\delta_N = \delta_{C+N}^C$  is obtained by matching the numerical solution to Coulomb wave functions as in Eq. (3.2).

If we are to include  $V_{C2}$  in  $W$ , we run into the problem that we have to integrate out to infinitely large distances before we can match to Coulomb functions. However, by including the point-nucleon limit of  $V_{C2}$  also in  $V$ , the asymptotic wave function can be expressed in terms of non-integral  $L'$  Coulomb functions, where  $L'$  satisfies

$$L'(L' + 1) = L(L + 1) - \alpha\alpha'. \quad (3.12)$$

The asymptotic behavior of the wave function is now given by

$$\chi_L(r) \sim \tilde{F}_L(kr) C_1 + \tilde{G}_L(kr) C_2, \quad (3.13)$$

with  $\tilde{F}_L(kr) = F_{L'}(kr)$  and similarly for  $\tilde{G}_L(kr)$ . The advantage is clear immediately: we only have to integrate out to distances large with respect to the nuclear interaction, which is only about 20 fm. But we have to bear in mind that now the phase shift is  $\delta_{C_1+C_2+FS+N}^{C_1+C_2}$ , where it should be understood implicitly that the superscript refers to the interactions in the point-nucleon limit, while the interaction denoted by the subscript includes also the (short-range) finite-size effects. To make this clear explicitly, we have here separated off the finite-size effects by writing them symbolically as being due to some short-range potential

$V_{FS}$ . In this notation, the phase shift with respect to Coulomb functions, as defined in Eq. (3.3), now reads

$$\begin{aligned}\delta^{C1} &= \delta_{C1+C2+FS+N}^{C1} = \delta_{C1+C2+FS+N}^{C1+C2} + \delta_{C1+C2}^{C1} \\ &= \delta_{C1+C2+FS+N}^{C1+C2} + \rho_L ,\end{aligned}\quad (3.14)$$

where  $\rho_L$  can be easily expressed in terms of the standard Coulomb phase shift  $\sigma_L$  as

$$\rho_L = \sigma_{L'} - \sigma_L - (L' - L)\pi/2 .\quad (3.15)$$

The next step is to also include the vacuum polarization. The case where we only have the Coulomb and vacuum polarization has been discussed in detail by Durand [19] and Heller [20], who derive expressions for the relevant asymptotic wave functions and vacuum polarization phase shift  $\tau_L \equiv \delta_{C1+VP}^{C1}$ . Although the vacuum polarization potential exhibits an exponential fall-off, the small value of the electron mass means that the Schrödinger equation has to be integrated out to several hundred Fermi before the potential has dropped to sufficiently small values, and it is only then that the numerical solution can be properly matched to the asymptotic solution.

The presence of  $V_{C2}$  considerably worsens the situation. Since the  $1/r^2$  behavior of  $V_{C2}$  is of longer range than the exponential decay of  $V_{VP}$ , the Schrödinger equation has to be integrated out to distances where  $V_{VP}$  is negligibly small as compared to  $V_{C2}$ . It is only then that we can match the numerical solution to the proper asymptotic solution and define the phase shift. Unfortunately, because of the slow fall-off of the vacuum polarization and the small magnitude of the two-photon-exchange contribution, we now have to integrate out to much larger distances. Even at a distance of 2000 fm the vacuum polarization has only dropped to about 1% of the two-photon exchange.

The scenario of getting the  $pp$  wave function for a particular nuclear interaction  $V_N$  in the  $S$  wave in the presence of the full electromagnetic interaction  $V_{EM}$  is now as follows. We integrate the Schrödinger equation out to a distance of 3000 fm, where the numerical solution is matched to the electromagnetic wave functions  $\bar{F}_0(kr)$  and  $\bar{G}_0(kr)$ . The latter are defined to be the solutions of the Schrödinger equation in the presence of the point-nucleon  $C1+C2+VP$  interaction. This procedure, therefore, determines the phase shift  $\delta^{EM}$  of the nuclear plus full electromagnetic interaction with respect to the point-nucleon  $C1+C2+VP$  interaction. It should be stressed that this phase shift is *not* the same as the phase shift of the nuclear interaction in the presence of only the Coulomb interaction ( $\delta_{C+N}^C$ ). The relation between these electromagnetic wave functions and the standard Coulomb wave functions  $F_0(kr)$  and  $G_0(kr)$  is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \bar{F}_0 \\ \bar{G}_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\rho_0 + \tau'_0) & \sin(\rho_0 + \tau'_0) \\ -\sin(\rho_0 + \tau'_0) & \cos(\rho_0 + \tau'_0) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_0 \\ G_0 \end{pmatrix},\quad (3.16)$$

with  $\rho_0$  and  $\tau'_0$  the two-photon-exchange and vacuum polarization  $S$ -wave phase shifts, respectively. The prime in the vacuum polarization is to indicate that this is the vacuum polarization phase shift *in the presence of*  $V_{C2}$ , which is slightly different from what is defined in Refs. [19,20]. Note that the numerical wave function is now properly normalized as in Eq. (3.2), since  $\delta^C = \delta^{EM} + \rho_0 + \tau'_0$ .

It should be pointed out that at extreme low energies (a few keV),  $\delta^{EM}$  is almost zero,  $\rho_0$  is of the order of a few times  $10^{-4}$  degrees, whereas  $\tau'_0$  rapidly drops from about  $-10^{-2}$  degrees at 10 keV to  $-10^{-5}$  degrees at 2 keV, and so  $\delta^C$  exhibits a change of sign and goes through zero as a function of energy. Hence, it is not recommended to use the normalization as advocated by Kamionkowski and Bahcall in Ref. [5], i.e.

$$\bar{X}_0(r; k) \underset{r \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} C_0 [G_0(kr) + \cot \delta_0 F_0(kr)] ,\quad (3.17)$$

with  $C_0$  the Gamow penetration factor. In their case [5], there is no problem (although  $\delta^C$  is very small and  $\cot \delta^C$  becomes very large), because they did not include  $V_{C2}$ . Furthermore, with this normalization (3.17), the overlap integral  $\Lambda$ , defined below, requires knowledge of the  $pp$  scattering length  $a_{pp}$ , where the presence of  $V_{C2}$  and  $V_{VP}$  in the full electromagnetic interaction defines a rather complicated effective-range function [14]. On the other hand, the normalization (3.2) advocated here allows for an immediate substitution of the numerical wave function (as obtained from solving the Schrödinger equation) into the expression for  $\Lambda$  as defined by Salpeter [2], without having to worry about a phase shift which goes through zero at these extreme low energies and without having to define a complicated effective-range function.

#### IV. DEUTERON WAVE FUNCTION

The deuteron is the bound state of proton and neutron in the coupled  ${}^3S_1 + {}^3D_1$  two-nucleon system. For a given local  $NN$  potential  $V(r)$ , the radial wave functions  $u(r)$  and  $w(r)$  for the deuteron  $S$ - and  $D$ -state, respectively, can be obtained from the coupled Schrödinger equation

$$\begin{aligned}\left[ \frac{d^2}{dr^2} - \gamma^2 \right] u(r) &= \bar{m} [V_{00}(r)u(r) + V_{02}(r)w(r)], \\ \left[ \frac{d^2}{dr^2} - \gamma^2 - \frac{6}{r^2} \right] w(r) &= \bar{m} [V_{20}(r)u(r) + V_{22}(r)w(r)],\end{aligned}\quad (4.1)$$

where  $\bar{m}$  is twice the reduced mass of proton and neutron, i.e.,

$$\bar{m} \equiv \frac{2m_p m_n}{m_p + m_n} .\quad (4.2)$$

All  $NN$  potentials applied in this study use consistently the latest, very accurate, values for nucleon masses [11]; namely,

$$m_p = 938.27231 \text{ MeV},\quad (4.3)$$

$$m_n = 939.56563 \text{ MeV},\quad (4.4)$$

implying

$$\bar{m} = 938.91852 \text{ MeV} .\quad (4.5)$$

For the  $NN$  potential acting in particular partial waves, we have introduced the convenient short-hand notation:  $V_{00}(r) \equiv \langle {}^3S_1 | V | {}^3S_1 \rangle$ ,  $V_{02}(r) \equiv \langle {}^3S_1 | V | {}^3D_1 \rangle$ , etc.; where  $(\hat{\mathbf{r}} | {}^3S_1) \equiv \mathcal{Y}_{01}^{1M}(\hat{\mathbf{r}})$  and  $(\hat{\mathbf{r}} | {}^3D_1) \equiv \mathcal{Y}_{21}^{1M}(\hat{\mathbf{r}})$ . The quantity  $\gamma = ik$  is discussed below.

The radial wave functions are properly normalized to unity,

$$\int_0^\infty dr [u^2(r) + w^2(r)] = 1. \quad (4.6)$$

The asymptotic behavior of the wave functions for large values of  $r$  are

$$\begin{aligned} u(r) &\sim A_S e^{-\gamma r}, \\ w(r) &\sim A_D e^{-\gamma r} \left[ 1 + \frac{3}{\gamma r} + \frac{3}{(\gamma r)^2} \right], \end{aligned} \quad (4.7)$$

where  $A_S$  and  $A_D$  are known as the asymptotic  $S$ - and  $D$ -state normalizations, respectively. In addition, one defines the “ $D/S$ -state ratio”  $\eta \equiv A_D/A_S$ .

Other deuteron parameters of interest are the quadrupole moment

$$Q_d = \frac{1}{20} \int_0^\infty dr r^2 w(r) [\sqrt{8}u(r) - w(r)], \quad (4.8)$$

the root-mean-square or matter radius

$$r_d = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \int_0^\infty dr r^2 [u^2(r) + w^2(r)] \right\}^{1/2}, \quad (4.9)$$

and the  $D$ -state probability

$$P_D = \int_0^\infty dr w^2(r). \quad (4.10)$$

Similar to scattering, the deuteron equation, Eq. (4.1), is solved numerically by integrating out to some large  $r$  (25 fm in our case) and matching the numerical waves to their asymptotic forms, Eq. (4.7), producing  $A_S$ ,  $A_D$ , and  $\gamma$  from which the predicted deuteron binding energy is extracted.

As mentioned, in the Schrödinger equation, Eq. (4.1), the interaction between the two nucleons is represented by a local potential,  $V(\mathbf{r})$ , with  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_2 - \mathbf{r}_1$ , the relative displacement between nucleon 1 and 2. However, in general, the  $NN$  potential  $V$  is nonlocal, i.e.,  $V \equiv V(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}')$  where  $\mathbf{r}$  is the distance between the two ingoing nucleons and  $\mathbf{r}'$  the one between the outgoing nucleons. A local potential can then be written as  $V(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}')|_{\text{local}} = \delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}')V(\mathbf{r})$ . For the more general case of a nonlocal potential, the coupled Schrödinger equation reads,

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \frac{d^2}{dr^2} - \gamma^2 \right] u(r) &= \bar{m} \int_0^\infty dr' r r' [V_{00}(r, r')u(r') + V_{02}(r, r')w(r')], \\ \left[ \frac{d^2}{dr^2} - \gamma^2 - \frac{6}{r^2} \right] w(r) &= \bar{m} \int_0^\infty dr' r r' [V_{20}(r, r')u(r') + V_{22}(r, r')w(r')]. \end{aligned} \quad (4.11)$$

This system of coupled integro-differential equations is then solved by a combination of finite-difference, integral-discretization and matrix inversion techniques.

Alternatively, one may consider the two-nucleon system in momentum space, where the deuteron wave function is given by

$$\Psi_d^M(\mathbf{q}) = [\psi_0(q)\mathcal{Y}_{01}^{1M}(\hat{\mathbf{q}}) + \psi_2(q)\mathcal{Y}_{21}^{1M}(\hat{\mathbf{q}})] \zeta_0^0, \quad (4.12)$$

with the normalization

$$\int_0^\infty dq q^2 [\psi_0^2(q) + \psi_2^2(q)] = 1. \quad (4.13)$$

The momentum-space Schrödinger equation that corresponds to Eq. (4.11) consists of two coupled integral equations,

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_0(q) &= -\frac{\bar{m}}{\gamma^2 + q^2} \int_0^\infty dq' q'^2 [V_{00}(q, q')\psi_0(q') + V_{02}(q, q')\psi_2(q')], \\ \psi_2(q) &= -\frac{\bar{m}}{\gamma^2 + q^2} \int_0^\infty dq' q'^2 [V_{20}(q, q')\psi_0(q') + V_{22}(q, q')\psi_2(q')]. \end{aligned} \quad (4.14)$$

Considering a finite set of discrete arguments for the functions on the l.h.s. and using the same set of momenta to discretize the integrals on the r.h.s. produces a matrix equation that is solved easily by the matrix-inversion method [21].

The relevant Fourier transforms linking the configuration-space and the momentum-space approaches are

$$V_{LL'}(q, q') = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty dr r^2 \int_0^\infty dr' r'^2 j_L(qr) V_{LL'}(r, r') j_{L'}(q'r'), \quad (4.15)$$

with  $V_{LL'}(r, r')|_{\text{local}} = \delta(r - r')V_{LL'}(r)/rr'$  if the potential is local, and

$$\frac{u_L(r)}{r} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^\infty dq q^2 j_L(qr) \psi_L(q), \quad (4.16)$$

with  $u_0(r) \equiv u(r)$ ,  $u_2(r) \equiv w(r)$ , and  $j_L$  the spherical Bessel functions.

Since high reliability and precision is an important aspect of our present investigation, we have calculated the deuteron wave functions for some local potentials both ways: first, by solving Eq. (4.1) directly and, second, by solving Eq. (4.14) by matrix inversion and then performing the transformation Eq. (4.16) numerically. We find agreement between the resulting deuteron waves to at least 6 significant digits for any  $r$  in the range 0.05 fm to 14 fm. This establishes the reliability of our numerical methods. It also implies that in cases where we use the momentum-space approach and Eq. (4.16), like for the nonlocal potentials, our deuteron waves are of the highest numerical precision.

The deuteron is a pole in the  $S$  matrix at  $k = i\gamma$ . The relativistic relationship between  $\gamma$  and the deuteron binding energy  $B_d$  is given by

$$\sqrt{s} = m_p + m_n - B_d = \sqrt{m_p^2 - \gamma^2} + \sqrt{m_n^2 - \gamma^2}. \quad (4.17)$$

Notice that this equation determines *the correct empirical*  $\gamma$ , since nature is relativistic. We note that in  $NN$  scattering we use the relativistic relationship between  $k$  and  $T_{\text{lab}}$ , which implies that the CM kinetic energy,  $T$ , is related to  $k$  according to

$$\sqrt{s} = m_p + m_n + T = \sqrt{m_p^2 + k^2} + \sqrt{m_n^2 + k^2}. \quad (4.18)$$

Thus, consistency with the scattering problem requires the use of Eq. (4.17) to determine  $\gamma$ . The formal solution of Eq. (4.17) is

$$\gamma^2 = [4m_p^2 m_n^2 - (s - m_p^2 - m_n^2)^2] / 4s, \quad (4.19)$$

and, using  $B_d = 2.224575$  MeV and  $\hbar c = 197.327053$  MeV fm, the accurate numerical value for  $\gamma$  comes out to be

$$\gamma = 0.2315380 \text{ fm}^{-1}. \quad (4.20)$$

To obtain some pedagogical insight into  $\gamma^2$ , one may set  $m_p \approx m_n \approx \bar{m}$  which yields

$$\gamma^2 = \bar{m} B_d - \frac{1}{4} B_d^2. \quad (4.21)$$

One can now identify the term  $\bar{m} B_d$  as the non-relativistic approximation to  $\gamma^2$  and  $-B_d^2/4$  as the relativistic correction. In most calculations of the past, the non-relativistic  $\gamma$  was used,  $\gamma_{nr} \equiv \sqrt{\bar{m} B_d} = 0.2316066 \text{ fm}^{-1}$ . The difference between  $\gamma_{nr}$  and the correct  $\gamma$ , Eq. (4.20), leads to a small difference (0.03%) in the overlap integral  $\Lambda^2$  (see below). Although the difference is rather small, we believe one should use the relativistically correct value (4.20).

Besides the strong interaction, there is also a non-vanishing electromagnetic interaction between proton and neutron that can be written as [15]

$$V_{EM}(np) = V_{C1}(np) + V_{MM}(np), \quad (4.22)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} V_{C1}(np) &= \alpha \beta_n \frac{F_{np}(r)}{r}, \\ V_{MM}(np) &= -\frac{\alpha}{4m_p m_n} \mu_p \mu_n \left[ \frac{2}{3} F_s(r) \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2 + \frac{F_t(r)}{r^3} S_{12} \right] \\ &\quad - \frac{\alpha}{m_p \bar{m}} \mu_n \frac{F_{ls}(r)}{r^3} (\mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{S} + \mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{A}). \end{aligned} \quad (4.23)$$

Here  $\mathbf{A} = (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)/2$ , and  $F_{np}(r)$  is a short-range function representing the finite size of the neutron charge distribution (for details, see Ref. [15]). Because the  $S$ -wave expectation values for the tensor and spin-orbit operators vanish, the long-range  $1/r^3$  parts do not contribute for  $L = 0$ . For  $L \neq 0$ , we make the approximation that  $\delta_{EM+N}^{EM} \approx \delta_N$  (or  $S_{EM+N}^{EM} \approx S_N$  in terms of the  $S$  matrix). This means that in our calculations the asymptotic behavior of the deuteron wave functions still satisfy Eqs. (4.7) and (4.14).

The interaction (4.22) is included only in the case of the Argonne AV18  $NN$  potential [15] where it contributes 18 keV to the deuteron binding energy, mostly from the magnetic moment part  $V_{MM}(np)$  of the interaction. One would expect that the inner part of the deuteron wave function is affected by the inclusion or omission of  $V_{EM}(np)$  (the outer part is essentially insensitive since it is ruled by  $\gamma$  which is identical for all potentials). Fortunately, it turns out that the quantitative effect is very small, as will be demonstrated below. Thus,

also models that do not include the electromagnetic interaction between proton and neutron can be considered as sufficiently reliable for our study.

Since all  $NN$  potentials are fitted to the value of  $\gamma$  given in Eq. (4.20), they all accurately reproduce the empirical deuteron binding energy,  $B_d = 2.224575(9)$  MeV [22]. The other deuteron parameters, as well as the  $^3S_1$  scattering length  $a_t$  and effective range  $r_t$ , are listed in Table I. Predictions are given for the five high-precision  $NN$  potentials that we focus on, namely, AV18 [15], CD-Bonn [23], Nijm-I [24], Nijm-II [24], and Reid93 [24]. Notice that not all quantities in Table I are independent. For example, the deuteron effective range,  $\rho_d \equiv \rho(-B_d, -B_d)$ , is related to  $A_S$ ,  $\eta$ , and  $\gamma$  by

$$A_S^2(1 + \eta^2) = \frac{2\gamma}{1 - \gamma\rho_d}. \quad (4.24)$$

For our present investigation, essentially only  $A_S$  is of relevance (besides  $\gamma$ ). However,  $A_S$  (and  $\rho_d$ ) cannot be measured directly. The empirical information given in the last column of Table I on  $A_S$  and  $\rho_d$  are model-dependent extrapolations of low-energy data. Therefore, to trust the predictions for  $A_S$  by our  $NN$  potentials, it is important that these models reproduce accurately all measured low-energy data, which is confirmed by Table I. The only exception is the deuteron quadrupole moment  $Q_d$ , which is underpredicted by all potential models. There are, however, meson-exchange current contributions and relativistic corrections for  $Q_d$  which may make up for the discrepancy. The  $D$ -state probability,  $P_D$ , that is listed in the bottom row of Table I, is not an observable. It is, however, an interesting theoretical quantity in studies of the nuclear force. The lower value for  $P_D$  predicted by CD-Bonn is a reflection of the non-local nature of this potential which is based upon relativistic meson field theory [23,25]. Meson-exchange Feynman diagrams are, in general, nonlocal expressions that are represented in momentum-space in analytic form.

Finally in Fig. 1, we display the deuteron wave functions produced by the five  $NN$  potential models. Major differences are, again, related to whether the models are local or nonlocal. While the central potentials of AV18, Nijm-II, and Reid93 are strictly local, the Nijm-I central force includes momentum-dependent terms which give rise to nonlocal structures in the equivalent configuration-space potential. This affects the deuteron  $S$  wave and is the reason why the  $u(r)$  generated by CD-Bonn and Nijm-I are so similar (large solid and dashed curves in Fig. 1) and differ from the other three potentials. The Nijm-I tensor potential is strictly local, similar to AV18, Nijm-II, and Reid93, which explains why these four potentials generate very similar  $D$  waves. The CD-Bonn tensor potential is nonlocal.

## V. AXIAL ONE-BODY CURRENT CONTRIBUTION

Using the wave functions as defined in Eqs. (2.4)–(2.5) and ignoring the  $D$ -wave contribution in the initial scattering state, we find that the matrix element of the (dominant) one-body part of the axial current is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \langle d, M | A_\mu^{(1)} | pp \rangle &= \delta_{M,\mu} \sqrt{16\pi} g_A \frac{e^{i\delta_0}}{k} \int_0^\infty dr u(r) \chi_0(r; k) \\ &\equiv \sqrt{\frac{32\pi}{\gamma^3}} g_A C_0 \Lambda(E), \end{aligned} \quad (5.1)$$

here  $A_{\mu=\pm 1,0}^{(1)}$  are the spherical components of  $\mathbf{A}^{(1)}$ ,  $A_{\mu=\pm} = \mp(A_x \pm iA_y)/\sqrt{2}$  and  $A_{\mu=0} = A_z$ ,  $C_0$  is the Gamow penetration factor, and the overlap integral is conventionally defined as [2]

$$\Lambda(E) = \left(\gamma^3/2\right)^{1/2} \frac{e^{i\delta_0}}{C_0 k} \int_0^\infty dr u(r) \chi_0(r; k). \quad (5.2)$$

The constant  $\gamma$  is defined in Eq. (4.20), and the wave function  $\chi_0$  is normalized as in Eq. (2.6). Because the solar fusion reaction actually occurs at energies of only a few keV, the phase shift  $\delta_0$  is extremely small, and so the exponential  $e^{i\delta_0}$  can conveniently be approximated by unity. Note that when we adopt the normalization as advocated by Kamionkowski and Bahcall [5], Eq. (3.17), we find

$$\Lambda(E) = \left(a_{pp}^2 \gamma^3/2\right)^{1/2} \int_0^\infty dr u(r) \bar{\chi}_0(r; k), \quad (5.3)$$

here the scattering length  $a_{pp}$  is defined as

$$-\frac{1}{a_{pp}} = \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} C_0^2 k \cot \delta_0. \quad (5.4)$$

Equation (5.3) coincides with the definition of the overlap integral given by Kamionkowski and Bahcall [5]. However, as stated in our discussion on the  $pp$  wave function, it is not at all trivial to calculate the correct scattering length  $a_{pp}$  when electromagnetic interactions other than the point-particle Coulomb interaction are present.

In the following, we will present our results for the overlap integral using realistic  $pp$  and deuteron wave functions. With realistic we mean that these wave functions were obtained by solving the scattering and bound-state equations using the recent high-precision  $NN$  potential models, the parameters of which were fitted to give an almost optimal description of the  $NN$  scattering data up to lab energies of 350 MeV (i.e.,  $\chi^2/\text{data} \approx 1$ ). The five  $NN$  models we consider consist of the AV18 Argonne model [15], the CD-Bonn model [23], two Nijmegen models, Nijm-I and Nijm-II [24], and a regularized update of the Reid soft-core potential [24]. The AV18 potential was fitted including all finite-size effects in the full electromagnetic potential of Eq.(3.4), whereas the other four potentials used the point-particle approximation, i.e.,  $F_C(r) = F_i(r) = F_{ia}(r) = 1$  and  $F_d(r > 0) = 0$ . Furthermore, the AV18 potential is the only model which includes the electromagnetic interaction (4.22) also in the deuteron.

In Table II we show the results for  $\Lambda^2(E_{\text{lab}})$  ( $E = E_{\text{lab}}/2$ ) as calculated from Eq. (5.2). The integral was cut off at  $r = 50$  fm, which is valid since beyond this distance the deuteron wave function has become extremely small, and so the contribution to the overlap integral becomes negligible. The results are shown for lab kinetic energies of 5, 4, 3, and 2 keV, which are extrapolated to define the result at zero energy. For each model we use the deuteron and  $p$  scattering wave functions of that particular model. The dependence on the particular  $NN$  model is found to be rather small. Taking the average over all five models we find  $\Lambda^2(0) = 6.975 \pm 0.010$ . Leaving out the CD-Bonn model, which is quite different from the other models in that it is the only model with nonlocal tensor interactions, we find an even smaller model dependence with  $\Lambda^2(0) = 6.970 \pm 0.005$ .

We again want to stress that these  $NN$  models were fitted including the full electromagnetic potential, and so the wave functions have to be calculated in the presence of this same electromagnetic interaction. Truncating it, for example by only including the standard Coulomb interaction, will modify the wave function, and hence the overlap integral. In Table III we show the effect on  $\Lambda^2(E)$  for different truncations of the electromagnetic part of the interaction. For the nuclear interaction we take the AV18 potential as an example. The other models show a similar trend. We consider four different truncations of the electromagnetic interaction, all for point-particle protons. The effect of  $V_{C2}$  is seen to be rather small: neglecting it increases  $\Lambda^2(0)$  by only 0.0035, which is a 0.05% effect. The proper inclusion of the vacuum polarization is much more important: neglecting it causes an almost 1% increase.

Finally, for the AV18 potential we can also study the finite-size effects and the effect of  $V_{EM}(np)$  in the deuteron calculation. Neglecting the finite-size effects underestimates  $\Lambda^2(0)$  by only 0.08%, as shown in the table. Simply removing  $V_{EM}(np)$  changes the binding energy to  $B_d(\text{trunc}) = -2.242227$  MeV, and hence the asymptotic behavior of the deuteron wave function. The consequence of this is that  $\Lambda^2(0)$  increases by 0.03, almost a 0.5% effect. However, if we first refit the binding energy (i.e., make a modified AV18 potential which does not include  $V_{EM}(np)$ , but which does have the proper asymptotic deuteron wave function), then the difference in  $\Lambda^2(0)$  is only 0.001. Hence, the inclusion of  $V_{EM}(np)$  under the restriction that the potential model correctly fits the experimental binding energy, has only a small effect on the overlap integral, as we alluded to earlier.

## VI. BEYOND THE AXIAL ONE-BODY CURRENT CONTRIBUTION

In this section we review the procedure leading to the experimental determination of the Gamow-Teller (GT) matrix element in tritium  $\beta$ -decay, and demonstrate the inability of calculations based on axial one-body currents and realistic wave functions from modern interactions, to correctly predict this value. After a brief discussion of the axial two-body current operators, we address the issue of their model-dependence by adopting the phenomenological approach of constraining them to reproduce the experimental value of the  ${}^3\text{H}$  GT matrix element. We then calculate these two-body current contributions to the  $pp$  weak capture, examining in particular the question of how their associated uncertainties affect the  $pp$  cross section.

### A. Tritium $\beta$ -decay

Evidence for the presence of axial two-body current contributions to weak transitions comes from the  $\beta$ -decay of tritium. Its half-life can be expressed as

$$(1 + \delta_R)t = \frac{K/G_V^2}{f_V(\mathbf{F})^2 + f_A g_A^2 (\text{GT})^2}, \quad (6.1)$$

where  $\delta_R=1.9\%$  is the so-called outer radiative correction,  $t$  is the half-life, and  $f_V$  and  $f_A$  are Fermi functions calculated by Towner, as reported by Simpson [32], to have the values  $2.8355 \times 10^{-6}$  and  $2.8505 \times 10^{-6}$ , respectively. The experimental value for the combination



$K/G_V^2$  is  $(6146.6 \pm 0.6)$  s, as obtained by Hardy *et al.* [9]. This value is actually 0.15% larger than that used by Simpson [32],  $(6137.2 \pm 3.6)$  s, in his  ${}^3\text{H}$   $\beta$ -decay analysis. Finally,  $\langle \mathbf{F} \rangle$  and  $\langle \mathbf{GT} \rangle$  denote the reduced matrix element of the Fermi and GT operators, which in the one-body limit are given by, respectively

$$\langle \mathbf{F} \rangle = \langle {}^3\text{He} || \sum_i \tau_{i,+} || {}^3\text{H} \rangle , \quad (6.2)$$

$$\langle \mathbf{GT} \rangle = \langle {}^3\text{He} || \sum_i \sigma_i \tau_{i,+} || {}^3\text{H} \rangle . \quad (6.3)$$

Simpson [32] reports the experimental value  $(1134.6 \pm 3.1)$  s for the combination  $(1 + \delta_R)tf_V$ . In order to extract a value for the tritium GT matrix element, it is necessary to calculate the Fermi matrix element. If the trinucleons were pure total  $T = 1/2$ ,  $M_T = \pm 1/2$  states, then the Fermi matrix element would just be one. However, charge-symmetry breaking (CSB) and charge-independence breaking (CIB) and, more importantly, electromagnetic effects in the nuclear interaction lead to a small correction. In the present study, such a correction is calculated using  ${}^3\text{H}$  and  ${}^3\text{He}$  wave functions obtained with the correlated-hyperspherical-harmonic (CHH) method [33] from the AV18 two-nucleon interaction (including electromagnetic terms) and the Urbana UIX three-nucleon interaction [34]. We find, neglecting isospin admixtures  $T \geq 3/2$  (the probability of  $T = 3/2$  components in  ${}^3\text{He}$  has been estimated to be about 0.0016%),

$$\langle \mathbf{F} \rangle^2 \equiv 1 - \epsilon = 0.9987 . \quad (6.4)$$

The present value for  $\epsilon$  is about twice that obtained by Saito *et al.* [35] in a (converged) Faddeev calculation based on the older Argonne  $v_{14}$  two-nucleon [36] and Tucson-Melbourne (TM) three-nucleon [37] interactions and phenomenological CSB and CIB terms constrained to reproduce the observed mass difference in  ${}^3\text{H}$  and  ${}^3\text{He}$ . However, the individual binding energies are underpredicted with this Hamiltonian model by about 3%. In contrast, the present AV18/UIX CHH wave functions reproduce the experimental binding energies of both systems within less than 10 keV (incidentally, the variational CHH and “exact” Faddeev [38] and Green’s function Monte Carlo [39] methods produce trinucleon binding energies all within a few keV of each other). It is unclear at this point whether the difference in  $\epsilon$ -values calculated here and in Ref. [35] is to be ascribed to binding energy effects or to differences in the treatment of the electromagnetic, CSB and CIB interactions (or both). We note that Simpson uses the value  $\epsilon = 0.0006$  in line with the Saito *et al.* estimate.

Using the measured half-life, and the values  $K/G_V^2 = (6146.6 \pm 0.6)$  s,  $f_A/f_V = 1.00529$ ,  $\langle \mathbf{F} \rangle^2 = 0.9987$ , and  $g_A = 1.2654 \pm 0.0042$ , the “experimental” GT matrix element is obtained

$$\langle \mathbf{GT} \rangle |_{\text{exp}} = \sqrt{3}(0.957 \pm 0.003) , \quad (6.5)$$

where the  $\sqrt{3}$  is from a Clebsch-Gordan coefficient.

The experimental GT matrix element is compared with predictions from a number of modern Hamiltonians with various combinations of realistic two- and three-nucleon interactions in Table IV. We also give in Table V the calculated % probabilities of the  $S$ -,  $S'$ -,  $P$ - and  $D$ -wave components in the  ${}^3\text{H}$  wave function [33,38]. A few comments are in order. Firstly, the model Hamiltonians with the TM three-nucleon interaction are all designed to

reproduce the experimental  ${}^3\text{H}$  binding energy in Faddeev calculations by adjusting the cut-off mass in the TM force [38]. As already pointed out before, the two-nucleon interactions employed in the present work are phase-equivalent, and produce fits to  $pp$  and  $n\bar{p}$  scattering data up to lab energies of 350 MeV with a  $\chi^2$  per datum in the range 1.03–1.09.

Secondly, in Table IV we also quote the results obtained using the relation

$$\langle \mathbf{GT} \rangle \simeq \sqrt{3}(P_S + P_D/3 - P_{S'}/3) , \quad (6.6)$$

where  $P_S$ ,  $P_D$ , and  $P_{S'}$  are the probabilities of the  $S$ -,  $D$ - and  $S'$ -wave components in the  ${}^3\text{H}$  state. Use of such a relation implicitly assumes isospin symmetry—namely, that  ${}^3\text{H}$  and  ${}^3\text{He}$  form an isodoublet—and also ignores the contribution of  $P$ -wave components. However, corrections to Eq. (6.6) appear to be very small, a few parts in a thousand.

Thirdly, the results listed in Table IV indicate that modern interactions lead to predictions for the GT matrix element of tritium in the range  $\sqrt{3} \times (0.923 - 0.937)$ , and therefore to an underestimate of the experimental value ranging, in relative terms, from 2.1% for CD-Bonn/TM to 3.7% for AV18/UIX.

## B. The axial two-body current model

For the axial two-body current operator we use a slightly expanded version of the conventional  $\pi$ - and  $\rho$ -meson exchange model first described by Chemtob and Rho [40]. These are two-body currents associated with excitation of intermediate  $\Delta$  resonances by  $\pi$ - and  $\rho$ -exchanges, the  $\pi\rho$  mechanism, and the contact  $\pi NN$  and  $\rho NN$  interactions. In the tables, these operators are denoted, respectively, as  $\Delta\pi$ ,  $\Delta\rho$ ,  $\pi\rho$ ,  $\pi S$  and  $\rho S$ . Explicit expressions for them are listed in the appendix for completeness. Here we only note that i) the (non-local) momentum-dependent terms in the  $\pi$ -,  $\rho$ - and  $\pi\rho$ -operators are retained in contrast to Ref. [35]; ii) monopole form factors are included at the  $\pi NN$  and  $\rho NN$  vertices with cutoff masses  $\Lambda_\pi$  and  $\Lambda_\rho$ , respectively; iii) there is significant uncertainty in the leading  $\Delta\pi$  and  $\Delta\rho$  contributions, since the  $N$  to  $\Delta$  transition axial coupling is not known [41]. In the model adopted here, the latter is related within the quark model to the nucleon  $g_A$ , namely  $g_{N\Delta} = (6\sqrt{2}/5)g_A$ .

The present approach consists in using the simplest possible two-body operators that give an adequate description of the longest-range mechanisms, and in adjusting the cutoff masses *within a given Hamiltonian model* so as to reproduce the experimental  ${}^3\text{H}$  GT matrix element. The contributions due to exchanges of heavier mesons, such as the  $A_1$  [42,43], or renormalizations effects, arising from  $\Delta$ -isobar admixtures in the nuclear wave functions [41], are neglected. However, in the next subsection it is argued that these approximations are not expected to impact in any significant way the theoretical predictions for the  $pp$  weak capture cross section once the two-body current model is constrained to fit the GT matrix element of tritium.

## C. Axial two-body current contributions to the $pp$ capture and ${}^3\text{H}$ GT matrix element

In Table VI we quote the contributions to the GT matrix element obtained with the CHH AV18/UIX trinucleon wave functions from the individual components of the axial current

operators listed in the appendix. The small differences between the present results and those reported in Ref. [8] are due to the slightly different values used for  $\Lambda_\pi$  ( $\Lambda_\pi = 4.80 \text{ fm}^{-1}$  in the present work versus  $\Lambda_\pi = 4.65 \text{ fm}^{-1}$  in Ref. [8]) and, presumably to a lesser extent, to the fact the older calculations were based on a different Hamiltonian model, consisting of the Argonne  $v_{14}$  two-nucleon and Urbana-VIII three-nucleon interactions, which however did reproduce the experimental binding energies of the trinucleons in a 34-channel Faddeev calculation [44]. The cumulative value for the calculated GT matrix element is  $\sqrt{3} \times 0.964$ , about 0.7% larger than experiment. A slight adjustment in the cutoff masses  $\Lambda_\pi$  and  $\Lambda_\rho$  or  $N\Delta$  axial coupling (or both) is thus required to bring theory and experiment into perfect agreement. We will return to this point later, in Sec. VII.

To test the model dependence, we have calculated the leading  $\Delta\pi$  contribution with 42-channel Faddeev wave functions obtained from the Hamiltonian models discussed earlier, and the results are listed in Table IV. Both the one-body and  $\Delta\pi$  contributions show a strong correlation with the  $D$ -state probability in the trinucleon wave functions, which is obviously related to the deuteron  $D$ -state probability predicted by the underlying two-nucleon interaction, as is evident from Tables I and V. This correlation is a direct consequence of the dominant contributions due to  $T = 1 \ ^1S_0 \rightleftharpoons T = 0 \ ^3S_1\text{-}^3D_1$  ( $T = 0 \ ^3D_1$ ) transitions for the one-body ( $\Delta\pi$ ) component. This has been verified explicitly by including only the above channels in the Faddeev evaluation of the GT matrix element. As a result, the sum of the one-body and  $\Delta\pi$  contributions turns out to be essentially model independent, as indicated in Table IV. Such a conclusion is also expected to hold when the remaining two-body contributions are included. Thus, to reproduce the experimental GT matrix element, a single adjustment of the cutoff masses  $\Lambda_\pi$  and  $\Lambda_\rho$  or  $g_{N\Delta}$  in the axial two-body current operators should suffice for all Hamiltonian models considered.

We now turn to the  $pp$  capture. We only quote results, presented in Table VII, corresponding to the AV18 and CD-Bonn interactions. The values calculated with these two models, which give the two extremes for the one-body contribution, 6.966 and 6.992 respectively at zero energy, are within less than 0.2% when all two-body current contributions are included. Thus, the two-body part of the axial current leads to an increase of the AV18 and CD-Bonn one-body results amounting respectively to 1.6% and 1.1%, consistently with the findings of the earlier study [8].

Having demonstrated the model independence of theoretical predictions for the GT matrix element and  $pp$  weak capture cross section, we now want to address the issue of how ambiguities in the axial two-body currents might affect this conclusion. To this end, it is useful to decompose the GT matrix element as

$$\begin{aligned} \langle {}^3\text{He} | \sum_{i<j} O_{z,+}(ij) | {}^3\text{H} \rangle &= \langle {}^3\text{He} | \sum_{i<j} O_{z,+}(ij) P_1^r(ij) | {}^3\text{H} \rangle \\ &+ \langle {}^3\text{He} | \sum_{i<j} O_{z,+}(ij) P_0^r(ij) | {}^3\text{H} \rangle, \end{aligned} \quad (6.7)$$

where  $O_{z,+}$  is the  $z$ -component of any axial two-body current operator, and  $P_{0,1}^r$  are projection operators over  $T=0$  and 1 two-nucleon states

$$P_0^r(ij) + P_1^r(ij) = 1, \quad (6.8)$$

$$P_1^r(ij) = \frac{3 + \tau_i \cdot \tau_j}{4}. \quad (6.9)$$

In Eq. (6.7) most of the  $T=0$  ( $T=1$ ) contribution is coming from conversion of a  $pn$   $T, S=0,1$  ( $nn$   $T, S=1,0$ ) pair in  ${}^3\text{H}$  to a  $pp$   $T, S=1,0$  ( $pn$   $T, S=0,1$ ) pair in  ${}^3\text{He}$ , for example,

$$\langle {}^3\text{He} | \sum_{i<j} O_{z,+}(ij) P_1^r(ij) | {}^3\text{H} \rangle \simeq \langle {}^3\text{He} | \sum_{i<j} P_0^r(ij) O_{z,+}(ij) P_1^r(ij) | {}^3\text{H} \rangle, \quad (6.10)$$

since the numbers of  $T, S=0,0$  and  $T, S=1,1$  pairs in the trinucleons are much smaller than those with  $T, S=0,1$  and  $T, S=1,0$  [45]. It is now easy to see that, if (neglecting isospin-symmetry breaking corrections)  $| {}^3\text{He} \rangle = Q | {}^3\text{H} \rangle$ , where  $Q \equiv \tau_{1,x} \tau_{2,x} \tau_{3,x}$  is the isospin-flip operator, then

$$\langle {}^3\text{He} | \sum_{i<j} P_0^r(ij) O_{z,+}(ij) P_1^r(ij) | {}^3\text{H} \rangle = \langle {}^3\text{He} | \sum_{i<j} P_1^r(ij) O_{z,+}(ij) P_0^r(ij) | {}^3\text{H} \rangle, \quad (6.11)$$

since the matrix element is real,  $Q$  commutes with  $P_1^r$ ,  $Q^2 = 1$ , and  $O_{z,+}^\dagger = O_{z,+}$ . Thus, the  $T=0$  and  $T=1$  contributions in Eq. (6.7) are expected to be of about the same size. This can be seen from Table VI, where the sum of the  $T=0$  and 1 and  $T=1$  alone contributions to the GT matrix element from the individual components of the two-body operators are listed.

It is interesting to define the two-body densities:

$$\rho_O(x; \text{GT}) = \langle {}^3\text{He} | \sum_{i<j} \delta(x - r_{ij}) O_{z,+}(ij) P_0^r(ij) | {}^3\text{H} \rangle, \quad (6.12)$$

$$\rho_O(x; pp) = \langle pp | \sum_{i<j} \delta(x - r_{ij}) O_{z,+}(ij) | d, 0 \rangle, \quad (6.13)$$

such that

$$\int_0^\infty dx \rho_O(x) = O\text{-contribution}. \quad (6.14)$$

These densities are shown in Fig. 2, where the  $\rho_O(x; pp)$  curves have been rescaled by a *single factor*  $R$ , obtained by matching the maximum of the GT and  $pp$   $\Delta\pi$  densities. As can be seen from Fig. 2, the GT and  $pp$  densities overlap in the region  $x \leq 2 \text{ fm}$ . Of course, at larger  $x$ -values the  $\rho_O(x; \text{GT})$  is significantly smaller than the  $\rho_O(x; pp)$ ,  $O = \pi S, \Delta\pi, \pi\rho$ , because of the increased binding in the trinucleons. This scaling is to be expected, since it is a consequence of the ‘‘scaling’’ behavior more generally observed for the calculated  $T, S=0,1$  and  $T, S=1,0$  pair distribution functions in nuclei [45], see Figs. 3 and 4. Finally, we show in Fig. 5 the  $\rho_{\Delta\pi}(x)$  densities obtained with the AV18 and CD-Bonn Hamiltonians for the GT and  $pp$  matrix elements. In this case, both the  $T=0$  and  $T=1$  contributions are included in the GT densities—namely, they have been calculated by removing the isospin projector in Eq. (6.12). Note that the  $pp$  densities have been rescaled by a factor  $R \simeq 39.0$  obtained by matching the maximum of the AV18 GT and  $pp$  densities. However, this rescaling also makes the CD-Bonn GT and  $pp$  densities very close, see Fig. 5, demonstrating that the  $R$  factor has only a very weak model dependence.

The discussion above shows that two-body contributions to the  $pp$  capture are essentially independent of the specific dynamical model adopted as long as the latter is constrained to reproduce the experimental value of the GT matrix element.

## VII. CONCLUSIONS

We have calculated the axial matrix element for proton-proton weak capture using five modern phase-equivalent nucleon-nucleon potentials. All these models give excellent fits to elastic  $NN$  scattering data with a  $\chi^2/datum$  near 1 and reproduce measured deuteron properties very well. We have paid particular attention to details of the electromagnetic interaction and the proper treatment of the low-energy  $pp$  scattering solutions. As noted before [5] the most important correction to the standard Coulomb interaction between protons is the vacuum polarization, which reduces the cross section by about 1%. We have shown that other fine details of the electromagnetic interaction increase the cross section by about 0.1%. This is in part compensated by the correct relativistic treatment of the deuteron wave number,  $\gamma$ , which gives a net 0.03% reduction in cross section. Including just the axial one-body operator, the five models differ by only 0.3% in the calculated cross section.

The biggest remaining uncertainty is in the contribution of axial two-body currents, which can increase the cross section by about 1–1.5%. Three concerns were expressed at the recent workshop on solar fusion rates [10] regarding the use of the known tritium  $\beta$ -decay rate to predict the axial two-body current contribution to the  $pp$  fusion reaction. They were: (1) The model dependence of the one-body contribution to the GT matrix element, and the resulting uncertainty in the extracted two-body current contribution to that matrix element. (2) Two-body currents coupling  $T, T_z=1,0$  pairs to  $T, T_z=1,1$  pairs, which can contribute to the tritium GT matrix element but not to the  $pp$  capture.

(3) Isobar and contact terms could give different contributions to the GT and  $pp$ -capture matrix elements, thus knowledge of their sum in the GT may not be sufficient to predict their sum in the capture matrix element.

Our detailed calculations show that these concerns do not influence the prediction of the  $pp$ -capture rate. In particular:

(1) The model dependence in the one-body contribution to the GT matrix element comes mostly from that in the  $D$ -state probabilities. Due to the smaller  $D$ -state predicted by the CD-Bonn potential (Table V), the corresponding prediction for this contribution is larger by about 1% (Table IV). However, the prediction obtained with this potential for the  $pp$ -capture rate via one-body currents is also larger by about 0.3% (Table II) because of the smaller  $D$ -state in the deuteron (Table I). The axial two-body currents are necessarily weaker in the CD-Bonn model because they strongly couple the  $S$ - and  $D$ -states. In fact the sum of one- and two-body current contributions is much less model dependent than either as can be seen from Tables IV and VII.

(2) The axial two-body currents do not couple the  $T, T_z=1,0$  pairs to the  $T, T_z=1,1$  pairs in any significant way, as the discussion in the preceding section makes clear.

(3) The two-body currents are large at small interparticle distances where nuclear forces dominate over binding energies. In this region the pair wave functions in different nuclei are similar in shape and differ only by a scale factor. This is the basis of the Bethe-Levinger conjecture [46], which can be used to relate processes such as pion and photon absorption, involving nucleon pairs, in different nuclei [45]. Thus the ratios of GT and  $pp$  capture matrix elements of different two-body current terms are nearly the same as can be seen from Fig. 2. Therefore, knowledge of their sum in the GT matrix element is sufficient to predict their

sum in the  $pp$  capture matrix element.

Finally, as we have already mentioned, the GT matrix element is slightly overpredicted [ $\sqrt{3} \times 0.964$  versus the experimental value  $\sqrt{3} \times (0.957 \pm 0.003)$ ]. Reducing the quark-model prediction for the  $N$  to  $\Delta$  axial coupling in the  $\Delta\pi$  and  $\Delta\rho$  currents by 20% brings theory and experiment into agreement. The resulting CD-Bonn and AV18 values for the square of the  $pp$  overlap integral at zero energy are then found to be 7.045 and 7.059, respectively. Predictions for this quantity with other modern interactions are expected to fall in this range. Thus, the model dependence and theoretical uncertainty appear to be at the level of a few parts in a thousand, much smaller than the estimate given in Ref. [10].

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## APPENDIX A: THE AXIAL TWO-BODY CURRENT OPERATORS

For completeness, we list here the momentum-space expressions for the axial two-body currents used in the present work.

(1) Axial  $\pi$ -exchange  $\Delta$ -excitation current:

$$\mathbf{A}_{a,ij}^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}; \Delta\pi) = -\frac{16}{25} g_A \frac{f_{\pi NN}^2}{m_\pi^2(m_\Delta - m)} \frac{\boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \cdot \mathbf{k}_j}{m_\pi^2 + k_j^2} f_\pi^2(k_j) \left[ 4 \tau_{j,a} \mathbf{k}_j - (\boldsymbol{\tau}_i \times \boldsymbol{\tau}_j)_a \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \times \mathbf{k}_j \right] + i \rightleftharpoons j \quad (\text{A1})$$

(2) Axial  $\rho$ -exchange  $\Delta$ -excitation current:

$$\mathbf{A}_{a,ij}^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}; \Delta\rho) = \frac{4}{25} g_A \frac{g_\rho^2(1 + \kappa_\rho)^2}{m^2(m_\Delta - m)} \frac{f_\rho^2(k_j)}{m_\rho^2 + k_j^2} \left[ 4 \tau_{j,a} (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \times \mathbf{k}_j) \times \mathbf{k}_j - (\boldsymbol{\tau}_i \times \boldsymbol{\tau}_j)_a \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \times [(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \times \mathbf{k}_j) \times \mathbf{k}_j] \right] + i \rightleftharpoons j \quad (\text{A2})$$

) Axial  $\pi$ -exchange (pair) current:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}_{a,ij}^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}; \pi S) = & \frac{g_A}{2m} \frac{f_{\pi NN}^2}{m_\pi^2} \frac{\boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \cdot \mathbf{k}_j}{m_\pi^2 + k_j^2} f_\pi^2(k_j) \left[ (\boldsymbol{\tau}_i \times \boldsymbol{\tau}_j)_a \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \times \mathbf{k}_j \right. \\ & \left. - i \boldsymbol{\tau}_{j,a} [\mathbf{q} + i \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \times (\mathbf{p}_i + \mathbf{p}'_i)] \right] + i \rightleftharpoons j . \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A3})$$

i) Axial  $\rho$ -exchange (pair) current:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}_{a,ij}^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}; \rho S) = & -g_A \frac{g_\rho^2 (1 + \kappa_\rho)^2}{8m^3} \frac{f_\rho^2(k_j)}{m_\rho^2 + k_j^2} \left[ \boldsymbol{\tau}_{j,a} [(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \times \mathbf{k}_j) \times \mathbf{k}_j \right. \\ & \left. - i [\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \times (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \times \mathbf{k}_j)] \times (\mathbf{p}_i + \mathbf{p}'_i)] + (\boldsymbol{\tau}_i \times \boldsymbol{\tau}_j)_a [\mathbf{q} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \cdot (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \times \mathbf{k}_j) \right. \\ & \left. + i (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \times \mathbf{k}_j) \times (\mathbf{p}_i + \mathbf{p}'_i) - [\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \times (\boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \times \mathbf{k}_j)] \times \mathbf{k}_j \right] + i \rightleftharpoons j . \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A4})$$

j) Axial  $\pi\rho$ -current:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}_{a,ij}^{(2)}(\mathbf{q}; \pi\rho) = & -g_A \frac{g_\rho^2}{m} \frac{\boldsymbol{\sigma}_j \cdot \mathbf{k}_j}{(m_\rho^2 + k_j^2)(m_\pi^2 + k_j^2)} f_\rho(k_i) f_\pi(k_j) (\boldsymbol{\tau}_i \times \boldsymbol{\tau}_j)_a \\ & \left[ (1 + \kappa_\rho) \boldsymbol{\sigma}_i \times \mathbf{k}_i - i (\mathbf{p}_i + \mathbf{p}'_i) \right] + i \rightleftharpoons j . \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A5})$$

where  $\mathbf{q}$  is the total momentum transfer  $=\mathbf{k}_i + \mathbf{k}_j$ ,  $\mathbf{k}_{i(j)}$  is the momentum transfer to nucleon ( $j$ ),  $\mathbf{p}_i$  and  $\mathbf{p}'_i$  are the initial and final momenta of nucleon  $i$ , and  $f_{\pi(\rho)}(k)$ =pion ( $\rho$ -meson)-nucleon monopole vertex form factor. The quark model has been used to relate the  $\pi N\Delta$ ,  $N\Delta$  and axial  $N\Delta$  couplings to, respectively, the  $\pi NN$ ,  $\rho NN$  and  $g_A$  couplings. The expression for  $\pi S$  represents the conventional pair current operator given in the literature. It is obtained with pseudoscalar pion-nucleon coupling. With pseudovector coupling the pion momentum  $\mathbf{k}_j$  in the first term in brackets would be replaced by the external momentum  $\mathbf{q}$  and an additional term  $(\mathbf{p}_i + \mathbf{p}'_i)$  would appear with the isospin structure  $(\boldsymbol{\tau}_i \times \boldsymbol{\tau}_j)_a$ . Furthermore, the  $\rho S$  operator includes only those terms which are proportional to  $(1 + \kappa_\rho)^2$ . Finally,  $m_\pi$ ,  $m_\rho$ ,  $m$ , and  $m_\Delta$  are, respectively, the pion,  $\rho$ -meson, nucleon, and  $\Delta$  masses.

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TABLES

TABLE I. Triplet  $S$  wave low-energy scattering parameters and deuteron properties.

	AV18	CD-Bonn	Nijm-I	Nijm-II	Reid93	Empirical
$a_t$ (fm)	5.419	5.419	5.418	5.420	5.422	5.419(7) <sup>a</sup>
$r_t = \rho(0,0)$ (fm)	1.753	1.752	1.751	1.753	1.755	1.754(8) <sup>a</sup>
$\rho_d = \rho(-B_d, -B_d)$ (fm)	1.767	1.764	1.762	1.764	1.769	1.765(5) <sup>b</sup>
$A_S$ (fm <sup>-1/2</sup> )	0.8850	0.8845	0.8841	0.8845	0.8853	0.8845(9) <sup>b</sup>
$\eta$	0.0250	0.0255	0.0253	0.0252	0.0251	0.0256(4) <sup>c</sup>
$r_d$ (fm)	1.967	1.966	1.967	1.968	1.969	1.968(6) <sup>d</sup>
$Q_d$ (fm <sup>2</sup> )	0.270	0.270	0.272	0.271	0.270	0.2859(3) <sup>e</sup>
$P_D$ (%)	5.76	4.83	5.66	5.64	5.70	—

<sup>a</sup>Reference [26]

<sup>b</sup>Reference [27,28]

<sup>c</sup>Reference [29]

<sup>d</sup>Reference [30]

<sup>e</sup>Reference [31,27]

TABLE II. Square of the overlap integral  $\Lambda(E_{\text{lab}})$  at various lab energies for the five  $NN$  potential models. The zero-energy results are obtained by extrapolating the preceding results.

$NN$ model	Ref.	5 keV	4 keV	3 keV	2 keV	0 keV
AV18	[15]	7.002	6.995	6.987	6.980	6.965
CD-Bonn	[23]	7.022	7.014	7.007	6.999	6.985
Nijm I	[24]	7.002	6.994	6.987	6.979	6.965
Nijm II	[24]	7.008	7.000	6.993	6.986	6.971
Reid93	[24]	7.011	7.003	6.996	6.989	6.974

TABLE III. Square of the overlap integral  $\Lambda(E_{\text{lab}})$  at various lab energies for four different truncations of the electromagnetic interaction (all for point-particle protons). The nuclear interaction is the AV18 potential [15]. The result for the full interaction with finite-size contributions is included for comparison.

$V_{EM}(pp)$	5 keV	4 keV	3 keV	2 keV	0 keV
$V_{C1}$	7.060	7.051	7.043	7.035	7.019
$V_{C1} + V_{C2}$	7.063	7.055	7.047	7.039	7.023
$V_{C1} + V_{VP}$	6.993	6.985	6.978	6.971	6.956
$V_{C1} + V_{C2} + V_{VP}$	6.996	6.989	6.981	6.974	6.960
full	7.002	6.995	6.987	6.980	6.965

TABLE IV. One-body and two-body  $\Delta\pi$  contributions to the Gamow-Teller matrix element of tritium  $\beta$ -decay, obtained with various combinations of modern two- and three-nucleon interactions in CHH and 42-channel Faddeev calculations, the former for the AV18/UIX model only. The one-body results obtained from Eq. (6.6) are also quoted, while those under the heading “total” give the sum of the one-body (first column) and  $\Delta\pi$  contributions.

Hamiltonian	One-Body	Eq. (6.6)	$\Delta\pi$	Total
AV18	0.924	0.925	0.0507	0.975
AV18/TM	0.925	0.925	0.0546	0.980
AV18/UIX	0.922	0.923	0.0560	0.979
CD-Bonn	0.935	0.935	0.0427	0.977
CD-Bonn/TM	0.937	0.937	0.0435	0.980
Nijm I	0.926	0.927	0.0507	0.977
Nijm I/TM	0.928	0.927	0.0534	0.981
Nijm II	0.926	0.927	0.0504	0.976
Nijm II/TM	0.927	0.927	0.0534	0.981
Reid93	0.925	0.926	0.0514	0.977
Reid93/TM	0.926	0.926	0.0549	0.981

TABLE V. The  $S$ -,  $S'$ -,  $P$ -, and  $D$ -state % probabilities in  ${}^3\text{H}$  wave functions. The results for the AV18/UIX model are from Ref. [33].

Hamiltonian	$S$	$S'$	$P$	$D$
AV18	90.10	1.33	0.066	8.51
AV18/TM	89.96	1.09	0.155	8.80
AV18/UIX	89.51	1.05	0.130	9.31
CD-Bonn	91.62	1.34	0.046	6.99
CD-Bonn/TM	91.74	1.21	0.102	6.95
Nijm I	90.29	1.27	0.066	8.37
Nijm I/TM	90.25	1.08	0.148	8.53
Nijm II	90.31	1.27	0.065	8.35
Nijm II/TM	90.22	1.07	0.161	8.54
Reid93	90.21	1.28	0.067	8.44
Reid93/TM	90.09	1.07	0.162	8.68

TABLE VI. Contributions to the Gamow-Teller matrix element of tritium  $\beta$ -decay, obtained with the CHH AV18/UIX trinucleon wave functions. The cutoff masses  $\Lambda_\pi = 4.8 \text{ fm}^{-1}$  and  $\Lambda_\rho = 6.8 \text{ fm}^{-1}$  are used in the axial two-body operators. The cumulative result is 0.9636. The two-body results obtained by retaining only the contributions of the  $T = 1$  pairs in tritium are also given (column labelled  $T=1$ ).

	Total	$T=1$
one-body	0.9218	
$\Delta\pi$	0.0560	0.0291
$\Delta\rho$	-0.0213	-0.0111
$\pi\rho$	0.0070	0.0035
$\pi S$	0.0044	0.0025
$\rho S$	-0.0043	-0.0021

TABLE VII. Square of the overlap integral  $\Lambda(E_{\text{lab}})$  at various lab energies for the AV18 and CD-Bonn interactions. The zero-energy results are obtained by linear extrapolation of those at  $E_{\text{lab}}=3$  and 5 keV. The cutoff masses  $\Lambda_\pi = 4.8 \text{ fm}^{-1}$  and  $\Lambda_\rho = 6.8 \text{ fm}^{-1}$  are used in the axial two-body operators. The two-body contributions are added successively in the given order.

	5 keV		4 keV		3 keV		0 keV	
	AV18	CD-Bonn	AV18	CD-Bonn	AV18	CD-Bonn	AV18	CD-Bonn
one-body	7.002	7.022	6.995	7.014	6.987	7.007	6.965	6.985
$+\pi S$	7.015	7.024	7.007	7.016	6.999	7.009	6.977	6.987
$+\rho S$	7.005	7.018	6.997	7.010	6.990	7.003	6.967	6.981
$+\Delta\pi$	7.138	7.126	7.130	7.118	7.122	7.111	7.099	7.089
$+\Delta\rho$	7.090	7.092	7.083	7.084	7.075	7.077	7.052	7.055
$+\pi\rho$	7.114	7.097	7.107	7.089	7.099	7.082	7.076	7.060

FIGURES

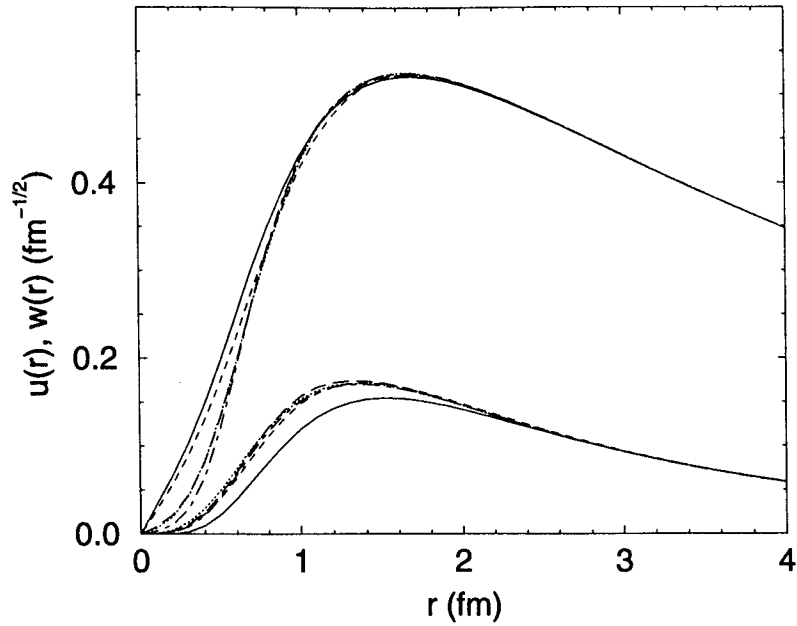


FIG. 1. Deuteron wave functions; large curves:  $u(r)$ , small curves:  $w(r)$ . The solid, dashed, dash-dot, dotted, and long-dashed curves are generated from the CD-Bonn, Nijm-I, Nijm-II, Reid93, and AV18 potentials, respectively.

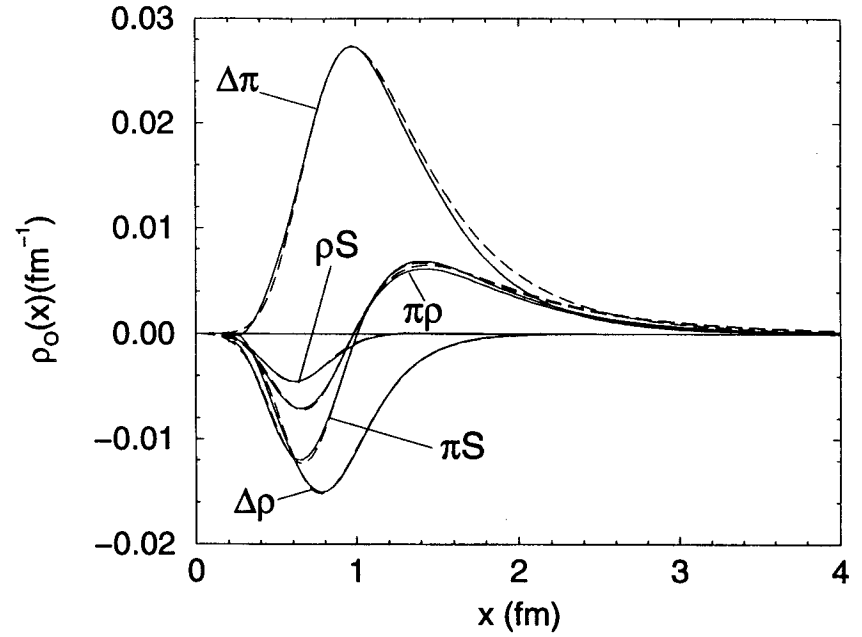


FIG. 2. Gamow-Teller (solid lines) and  $pp$  (dashed lines) two-body densities. Note that all  $pp$  curves have been rescaled by a single factor, as explained in text.

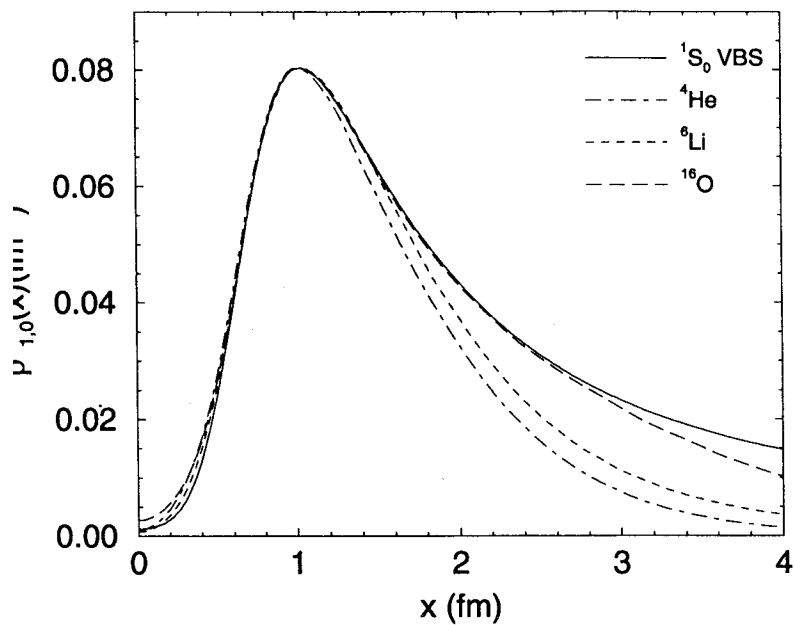


FIG. 3. The  $T, S=1, 0$  pair distribution functions for various nuclei, see Ref. [45]. Note that the curves have been renormalized to the peak height of the  $^{16}\text{O}$  density.

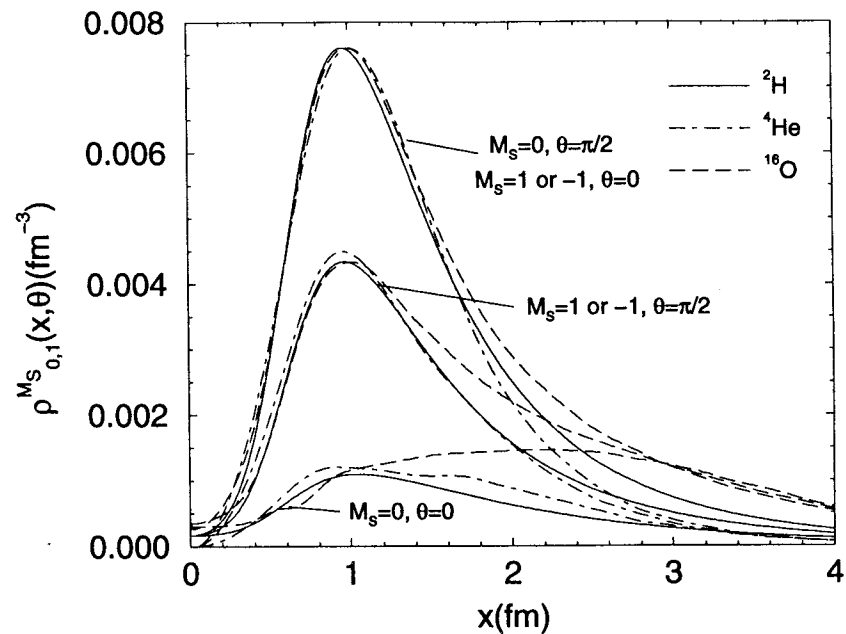


FIG. 4. The  $T, S=0, 1$   $M_S=0, \pm 1$  pair distribution functions for given angles  $\theta$  between the spin-quantization axis and the relative position vector of the two nucleons and for various nuclei, see Ref. [45]. Note that the curves have been renormalized to the peak height of the deuteron  $M_S=\pm 1$   $\theta=0$  density.



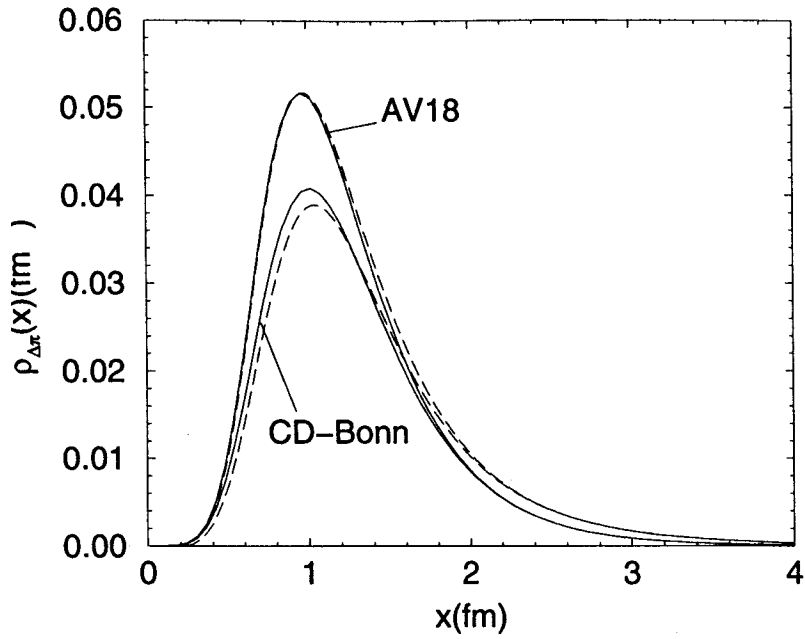


FIG. 5. Gamow-Teller (solid lines) and  $pp$  (dashed lines)  $\Delta\pi$  densities obtained with the AV18 and CD-Bonn Hamiltonians. Note that the Gamow-Teller densities include both the  $T=0$  and  $T=1$  contributions—namely, they have been calculated by removing the isospin projector  $P_0^T(ij)$  in Eq. (6.12). The  $pp$  densities have been rescaled by a single factor  $R \simeq 39.0$ , obtained by matching the maximum of the AV18 Gamow-Teller and  $pp$  densities.