

Studying the Proton “Radius” Puzzle with μp Elastic Scattering The MUon proton Scattering Experiment (MUSE) Collaboration

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The Proton Radius Puzzle is the inconsistency between the proton radius determined from muonic hydrogen and the proton radius determined from atomic hydrogen level transitions and ep elastic scattering. No generally accepted resolution to the Puzzle has been found. Possible solutions generally fall into one of three categories: the two radii are different due to novel beyond-standard-model physics, the two radii are different due to novel aspects of nucleon structure, and the two radii are the same, but there are underestimated uncertainties or other issues in the ep experiments.

Here we discuss a simultaneous measurement of μ^+p and e^+p scattering, as well as μ^-p and e^-p scattering, which will allow a determination of the consistency of the μp and the ep interactions. The differences between $+$ and $-$ polarity scattering are sensitive to two-photon exchange effects, higher-order corrections to the scattering process. The slopes of the cross sections as $Q^2 \rightarrow 0$ determine the proton “radius”. We plan to measure relative cross sections at a typical level of a few tenths of a percent, which should allow the proton radius to be determined at the level of ≈ 0.01 fm, similar to previous ep measurements. The measurements will test several possible explanations of the proton radius puzzle, including some models of beyond standard model physics, some models of novel hadronic physics, and some issues in the radius extraction from scattering data.

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I. PHYSICS MOTIVATION

A. Introduction

The *Proton Radius Puzzle* refers to the disagreement between the proton charge radius determined from muonic hydrogen and determined from electron-proton systems: atomic hydrogen and ep elastic scattering. Up until 2010, the accepted value for the proton radius was 0.8768 ± 0.0069 fm, determined essentially from atomic hydrogen measurements in the 2006 CODATA analysis [1]. The best ep scattering result was probably 0.895 ± 0.018 fm, from the analysis of Sick [2]. The consistency of these two results made the muonic hydrogen determination of 0.84184 ± 0.00067 fm by Pohl *et al.* [3] quite surprising. The $\approx 5\sigma$ discrepancy, in terms of the order of magnitude less precise electron measurements, has attracted much attention. It has motivated numerous invited talks, dedicated sessions at several meetings, a Workshop on the Proton Radius Puzzle at the European Center of Theory in Trento, Italy [4], a review paper [5], some new experiments, and stories in the popular media. The paper by Pohl *et al.* has been cited about 200 times to date. Some of the numerous suggestions for how the Puzzle might be resolved are discussed below.

The Puzzle has been reinforced by three more recent experimental results and the 2010 CODATA analysis. First, a precise ep scattering cross section measurement [6] at Mainz determined ≈ 1400 cross sections in the range $Q^2 = 0.0038 \rightarrow 1$ GeV². The Mainz analysis of only their data with a wide range of functional forms led to a proton electric radius of 0.879 ± 0.008 fm. Second, an experiment [7] at Jefferson Lab measured $\vec{e}p \rightarrow e'\vec{p}$ to determine 1% form factor ratios in the range $Q^2 = 0.3 \rightarrow 0.8$ GeV². An analysis of world data (excluding the Mainz data set but including the data analyzed in [2]) resulted in a radius of 0.870 ± 0.010 fm, consistent with the Mainz electric radius determination – although there were differences in the magnetic radius determination. Third, a new muonic hydrogen measurement by Antognini *et al.* [8] has recently reported a value for the proton radius, $r_p = 0.84087 \pm 0.00039$ fm, in agreement with the Pohl *et al.* measurement. Antognini *et al.* also report a magnetic radius consistent with electron scattering results, though in this case with uncertainties a few times larger. The 2010 CODATA analysis

78 [9] included the Mainz result – the JLab result appeared too late to be included – and adopted a
 79 proton radius value of $r_p = 0.8775 \pm 0.0051$ fm. The CODATA analysis concluded that: “*Although*
 80 *the uncertainty of the muonic hydrogen value is significantly smaller than the uncertainties of*
 81 *these other values, its negative impact on the internal consistency of the theoretically predicted and*
 82 *experimentally measured frequencies, as well as on the value of the Rydberg constant, was deemed*
 83 *so severe that the only recourse was to not include it in the final least-squares adjustment on which*
 84 *the 2010 recommended values are based.*” The Particle Data Group recently concluded that: “*Until*
 85 *the difference between the ep and μp values is understood, it does not make sense to average all the*
 86 *values together. For the present, we stick with the less precise (and provisionally suspect) CODATA*
 87 *2012¹ value. It is up to workers in this field to solve this puzzle.*” Thus, the discrepancy between
 88 muonic and electronic measurements of the proton radius has increased from 5σ to 7σ in the past
 89 almost 3 years, and the inconsistency of the results is widely recognized. A partial summary of
 90 recent proton radius extractions is shown in Fig. 1.

91 Arguably, the Proton Radius Puzzle is more puzzling today than when it first appeared. Not

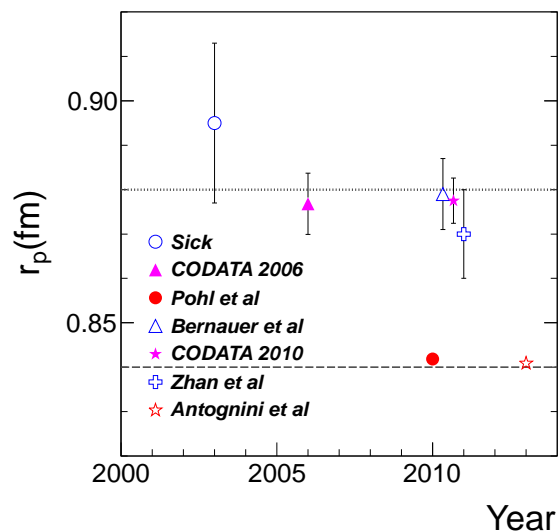


FIG. 1. A summary of some recent proton charge radius determinations: Sick [2], CODATA 2006 [1], Pohl *et al.* [3], Bernauer *et al.* [6], CODATA 2010 [9], Zhan *et al.* [7], and Antognini *et al.* [8].

¹ Note that the CODATA 2010 result appeared in 2012.

92 only has the discrepancy increased, but numerous possible explanations of the Puzzle have been
93 shown to not work. There have been suggestions of issues in the μp radius determination, issues
94 in the ep radius determination, novel hadronic physics, and novel beyond standard model (BSM)
95 physics. We briefly review the suggested explanations here. More detail can be found in talks at
96 the Trento Workshop [4], and in the review paper by Pohl, Gilman, Miller and Pachucki [5].

97 The finite size of the proton causes a small perturbation to the Coulomb potential that basically
98 shifts the energies of only s states. The effect can be determined through Lamb shift measure-
99 ments, given a sufficiently accurate relativistic theory that accounts for recoil corrections, vacuum
100 polarization, etc., as the finite size effect is rather small. The atomic physics calculations have now
101 all been repeated and verified by independent groups, and it is believed that at the level of the
102 muonic hydrogen experiment there is no significant missing or uncalculated higher order physics.
103 The extraction of the radius from muonic hydrogen also requires some knowledge of additional
104 details of the proton's structure – e.g., the third Zemach moment – but it is generally believed
105 that there are no significant issues here; we will return to this point below. Experimentally, once
106 the laser system exists, the muonic hydrogen measurement is 8,000,000 times more sensitive to
107 the proton radius than an electronic hydrogen measurement, as $\psi(r = 0) \propto m_l^3$, so the muonic
108 hydrogen experiment appears to be the most solid of all the experimental results.

109 Issues in the ep experiments would appear to be unlikely. It would be odd if two independent
110 techniques, atomic hydrogen and ep scattering, gave the same wrong result, especially as there
111 are two independent ep analyses from different data sets. However, the CODATA analyses neglect
112 that the atomic hydrogen measurements were done by only a few groups, and thus likely there
113 are some correlations between the results; they are not entirely independent. Also, nearly all the
114 atomic hydrogen results are individually within 1σ of the muonic hydrogen result. Only one is 3σ
115 away. Only when all the atomic hydrogen results are averaged does the discrepancy become so
116 impressive. Thus, the uncertainty in the atomic hydrogen result is probably underestimated.

117 Numerous mistakes have been made over the years in determining the radius from ep scattering
118 analyses, and there continues to be a range of results. The analysis of Sick [2] was arguably the

119 first to include all necessary ingredients to get a reliable answer, and more recent analyses tend
 120 to as well, although typically insufficient attention is paid to the issue of model dependence. In
 121 addition to the results reported by the experimenters above, we can consider the dispersion relation
 122 analysis of [10] ($r_p = 0.84 \pm 0.01$ fm with $\chi^2/\text{d.o.f} \approx 2.2$), the z expansion of [11] ($r_p = 0.871$ fm \pm
 123 0.009 fm ± 0.002 fm ± 0.002 fm), the sum-of-Gaussians fit of [12, 13] ($r_p = 0.886$ fm ± 0.008 fm),
 124 and unpublished Taylor expansion fits to the low Q^2 data by C.E. Carlson and K. Griffioen ($r_p \approx$
 125 0.84 fm). Of these recent analyses, there are reasons to favor the two analyses yielding larger radii
 126 – see [5] – but the variation in results does suggest that the uncertainty arising out of the fits is
 127 underestimated.

128 There have been a number of suggestions of novel hadronic physics, but almost none of them
 129 are accepted by experts as reasonable. It is hard to see how narrow structures in the form factors
 130 or anomalously large third Zemach moments arise out of conventional hadronic physics. The
 131 one existing viable idea [14] is that the uncertainty in the two-photon exchange term coming
 132 from the proton polarizability is underestimated; changes in this term affect the radius extracted
 133 from muonic hydrogen. Technically, evaluating the polarizability requires elastic, inelastic, and
 134 subtraction terms, where the subtraction term is needed for convergence. The subtraction term
 135 diverges without the introduction of a form factor, which has known behavior at small and large
 136 Q^2 , but at present does not appear constrained at intermediate Q^2 . Typical assumptions lead
 137 to the subtraction term contribution and uncertainty having an effect that is only a few percent
 138 of the Puzzle, but at present it appears that there is no constraint from data – only theoretical
 139 bias – that prevents it from being much larger. We note that this explanation of the puzzle affects
 140 mainly the muon, as the effect is proportional to the m_{lepton}^4 , and that this effect predicts enhanced
 141 two-photon exchange effects in muon scattering from the proton.

142 If the experiments are not wrong, and there is no novel hadronic physics, novel BSM physics has
 143 to be considered. Previous measurements of lepton universality and numerous other data, such as
 144 the muon ($g - 2$) measurements, constrain possible models of new physics. Nevertheless, several
 145 models have been created. Tucker-Smith and Yavin [15] found that a new scalar force carrier in the

146 MeV mass range is not ruled out by other data and could account for the Proton Radius Puzzle.
147 The main constraint is that the scalar needs to have smaller coupling to the neutron than to the
148 proton. Batell, McKeen, and Pospelov [16] indicate that there are a number of ways new forces
149 can evade existing constraints but lead to the Proton Radius Puzzle. In particular, they consider a
150 combination of new vector and scalar particles with masses of 10's of MeV. The combination of two
151 new particles allows the Puzzle to be explained while evading other constraints. This model leads
152 to enhanced parity violation in muon scattering and in muonic atom radiative capture. Rislow and
153 Carlson [17] show that one can explain the Puzzle while evading other constraints by a combination
154 of new scalar and pseudoscalar, or new vector and pseudovector, particles. The allowed coupling
155 constants are constrained by the Puzzle and muon ($g - 2$), and the mass ranges are constrained
156 by K decays, but not too much if the new forces couple much more strongly to muons than to
157 electrons. Thus there are a variety of possible BSM explanations of the Puzzle, with parameters
158 constrained by existing data, and with potentially observable consequences in several experiments.

159 The various explanations of the Puzzle were reviewed during the Proton Radius Puzzle Workshop
160 [4] in Trento, Italy from Oct 29 - Nov 2, 2012. The workshop, organized by R. Pohl, G. A. Miller,
161 and R. Gilman, included nearly 50 experts in atomic and nuclear theory and experiment, as well as
162 BSM theory. At the end of the workshop, a vote was held the likely resolution of the Puzzle. The
163 about equally favored alternatives were BSM physics and issues in the ep experiments. There was
164 also support for the proton polarizability explanation described above, and a significant fraction of
165 the community that was uncertain about the most likely explanation.

166 A number of experiments that might help resolve the Puzzle were discussed at the Workshop.
167 Efforts to perform new atomic hydrogen experiments in the next 5 - 10 years could help confirm
168 the Puzzle exists, or instead indicate consistency in the muonic and electronic atomic physics
169 measurements. A new muonic deuterium experiment can be compared with the electron-deuteron
170 radius measurements to check for consistency. A new Jefferson Lab experiment [18] approved
171 by PAC39 plans to measure very low Q^2 electron scattering, from $\approx 10^{-4}$ GeV² to 10^{-2} GeV²,
172 perhaps as early as 2015. We quote from Jefferson Lab PAC38: “*Testing of this result is among*

173 *the most timely and important measurements in physics.”* The efforts of the MUSE collaboration
 174 – the focus of this White Paper – to compare $\mu^\pm p$ and $e^\pm p$ elastic scattering were also discussed.
 175 The Workshop conferees strongly supported all of the experimental efforts; since the origin of the
 176 Puzzle is uncertain, it is not clear which of the possible experiments will give us the data that
 177 resolves the Puzzle.

178 To summarize, in the nearly 3 years since it appeared, the Proton Radius Puzzle has become
 179 more puzzling, not less. New experimental results confirm the puzzle. Theoretical studies have
 180 ruled out many possible explanations, leaving only a few possible. The Puzzle has attracted wide
 181 interest, not just in the atomic, nuclear, and particle physics communities, but in the popular
 182 science media as well, demonstrating the timeliness of resolving this issue.

183 **B. Muon-Proton Scattering Experiments**

184 The MUSE experiment was created on recognizing that the proton radius has been measured
 185 in muonic and electronic atomic systems, and in electron-proton elastic scattering, but not in
 186 muon-proton elastic scattering. Here we describe some previous tests of lepton universality, the
 187 equivalence of muons and electrons, that were largely done about 30 years ago. We will focus on
 188 μp and ep scattering.

189 One of the better early μp elastic scattering experiments was Ellsworth *et al.* [19], which found
 190 that cross sections in the range $Q^2 \approx 0.5 - 1 \text{ GeV}^2$ were about 15% below the standard dipole
 191 parameterization, $G_E = G_M/\mu_p = (1 + Q^2/0.71)^{-2}$ with Q^2 in GeV^2 , and a similar percentage
 192 below modern form factor fits, as shown in Fig. 2. While this suggests an ep vs. μp interaction
 193 difference, Ellsworth *et al.* interpreted the difference as an upper limit on any difference in μp
 194 and ep interactions. These data are too high in Q^2 to make any inferences about the proton
 195 radius. A subsequent experiment [21] covering $0.15 < Q^2 < 0.85 \text{ GeV}^2$ found μp cross sections
 196 about 8% smaller than the electron scattering results, similar to [19], and considered the μp and
 197 ep scattering results consistent within uncertainties. A final elastic scattering experiment [22]
 198 analyzed the ratio of proton elastic form factors determined in μp and ep scattering as $G_{\mu p}^2/G_{ep}^2 =$

199 $N(1 + Q^2/\Lambda^2)^{-2}$, with the result that the normalizations are consistent with unity at the level of
 200 10%, and the combined world μp data give $1/\Lambda^2 = 0.051 \pm 0.024 \text{ GeV}^{-2}$, about 2.1σ from the
 201 electron-muon universality expectation of 0. For deep-inelastic scattering [23], a similar analysis
 202 yields a normalization consistent with unity at the level of 4% and $1/\Lambda^2 = 0.006 \pm 0.016 \text{ GeV}^{-2}$.
 203 In summary, old comparisons of ep and μp elastic scattering were interpreted as indicating no
 204 differences between μp and ep scattering, within the 5% – 10% uncertainties of the experiments.
 205 In light of the Proton Radius Puzzle, it seems that the directly measured constraints on differing
 206 μp and ep interactions are insufficient. While ep studies have advanced significantly in the past
 207 decades, the μp work has not.

208 Two-photon exchange effects have also been tested in μp scattering. In [24], no evidence was
 209 found for 2γ effects, as μ^+p vs. μ^-p elastic scattering cross section asymmetries were consistent
 210 with 0, with uncertainties from 4 → 30%, and with no visible nonlinearities in Rosenbluth separa-
 211 rations at $Q^2 \approx 0.3 \text{ GeV}^2$. The Rosenbluth cross sections were determined to about 4%. Tests
 212 in ep scattering [25] have found no nonlinearities even with $\approx 1\%$ cross sections; improved exper-

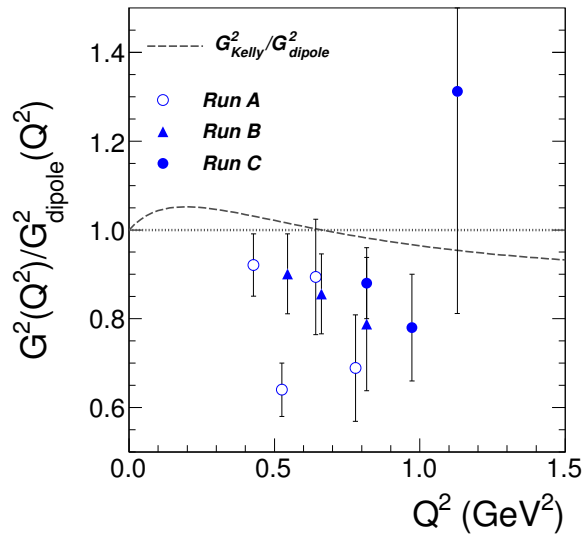


FIG. 2. Reduced cross sections, $d\sigma/d\Omega/d\sigma/d\Omega_{Mott}$, for μp elastic scattering, from Ellsworth *et al.* [19]. The data are somewhat below expectations from the dipole form factor parameterization. Use of the more modern Kelly parameterization [20] does not qualitatively change the result.

213 iments are underway [26]. Current best estimates of the size of the nonlinearities in Rosenbluth
214 separations for ep scattering are typically at the percent level. Thus, it seems again in light of
215 current knowledge that two-photon exchange has not been precisely enough studied in the case of
216 μp scattering.

217 The radius of ^{12}C is one of the most precisely determined radii from electron scattering. The
218 electron scattering result [27] is $\langle r^2 \rangle^{1/2} = 2.472 \pm 0.015$ fm, based on scattering of 25 – 115 MeV
219 electrons at momentum transfers from 0.1 – 1.0 fm^{-1} , or $Q^2 \approx 0.0004 - 0.04$ GeV^2 . A subsequent
220 analysis of world data [28] found that dispersive corrections increase the extracted radius to 2.478
221 ± 0.009 fm. The charge radius was also measured by determining the ≈ 90 keV X-ray energies in
222 muonic carbon atoms to several eV [29]. Assuming a harmonic oscillator nuclear charge distribution
223 led to a ^{12}C radius of $\langle r^2 \rangle^{1/2} = 2.4715 \pm 0.016$ fm. A subsequent muonic atom experiment [30]
224 found $\langle r^2 \rangle^{1/2} = 2.483 \pm 0.002$ fm. There is a consistent result for the carbon radius from a μC
225 scattering experiment [31], but with uncertainties an order of magnitude worse. There is evidently
226 no μp vs. ep issue in the carbon radius determination. There are several possible reasons why there
227 might be a μ / e difference in the proton but not in carbon. Examples include opposite effects
228 in the case of μn vs. μp interactions, and the charge distribution in carbon resulting largely from
229 orbital motion of the nucleons, in which there is no effect, vs. charge distributions of the nucleons,
230 in which there is an effect.

231 To summarize, direct comparisons of μp and ep scattering were done, but with poor overall
232 precision. The comparisons were also at sufficiently large Q^2 that they would not be sensitive to
233 the proton radius. Measurements sensitive to 2γ exchange were also performed, but at a level that
234 we now believe is not sufficiently precise to provide significant results. While the carbon radius is
235 much better determined, and is consistent for muon and electron measurements, the implications
236 of this for the Proton Radius Puzzle are not clear.

C. Motivation Summary

The Proton Radius Puzzle has attracted wide interest, but the resolution to the Puzzle is unclear. It might arise from beyond standard model physics, novel hadronic physics, or issues and / or underestimated uncertainties in the determination of the radius from the actual experimental data. There is strong support in the community for a number of experiments that test different explanations for the Puzzle. New ep atomic physics and scattering experiments are planned, as are additional muonic atom experiments.

The MUSE experiment presented here is the only proposed μp elastic scattering experiment. MUSE intends to

- measure both μp and ep scattering in the low Q^2 region,
- measure both charge signs,
- extract form factors and proton radii,
- compare ep and μp scattering, form factors, and radii as a test of lepton (non-)universality,
- study the possibility of unexpected structures and/or extrapolation errors affecting the radius extraction, and
- determine two-photon exchange effects, to test their effect on the radius extraction and to test possible hadronic physics explanations of the Puzzle.

Thus the MUSE experiment looks at several possible explanations of the Proton Radius Puzzle.

II. MEASUREMENT OVERVIEW

The MUSE measurement is planned for the $\pi M1$ beam line at the Paul Scherrer Institut (PSI), in Villigen Switzerland. The MUSE approach to resolving the Proton Radius Puzzle is to measure simultaneously elastic $\mu^\pm p$ scattering and $e^\pm p$ scattering. The μp scattering will be compared to ep scattering at the cross section level, with extracted form factors, and ultimately with an extracted

260 radius. Measurements with the two beam polarities will be compared to determine the (real part
261 of the) two-photon exchange. The basic idea is to provide a higher precision comparison of μp
262 and ep interactions in a region sensitive to the proton radius, and to check that the two-photon
263 exchange is under control, and does not distort the extraction of the radius. At the same time,
264 these data can check predictions of enhanced two-photon exchange from novel hadronic physics,
265 and certain BSM physics models that affect the form factors in μp vs. ep determinations.

266 In electron scattering, high precision experiments have typically used an intense, low-emittance
267 beam incident on a cryotarget, with scattered particles detected by a high-resolution, small solid
268 angle spectrometer. A muon scattering experiment must be different because the intense low-
269 emittance primary electron beam is replaced by an 8 – 9 orders of magnitude less intense, much
270 larger emittance, secondary muon beam, which is also contaminated with electrons and pions. To
271 run a high precision experiment in these conditions requires several adjustments. The low intensity
272 necessitates a large acceptance spectrometer and long run times. The large emittance necessitates
273 measuring the individual beam particle incident trajectories. The presence of several different
274 particle species in the beam requires identifying each individual beam particle type.

275 The difficulties of muon scattering are in part compensated by several advantages. Since the
276 muon beam is a secondary beam, one can easily obtain essentially identical beams of both charge
277 signs, which allows a precise determination of two-photon exchange effects. Conventional two-
278 photon effects are expected to be of order 1% – though they have not been measured that precisely
279 – and have the potential to affect the extracted radius; there is also the possibility that the
280 proton polarizability in the underlying cause of the Puzzle, and it will lead to enhanced two-photon
281 exchange. Here the effects of two-photon exchange can be determined and the average of $\mu^\pm p$
282 cross sections removes the two-photon exchange contributions from the cross sections and the
283 form factors. The low muon intensity eliminates target density fluctuations from beam heating.
284 The electron contamination in the beam allows a simultaneous measurement of ep scattering for
285 comparison with the muon scattering. The use of a non-magnetic spectrometer allows the solid
286 angle to be determined more precisely than is typically possible with a magnetic spectrometer.

287 A precise measurement also requires an amount of kinematic overlap, measuring cross sections
288 multiple times to ensure that the experimental systematics are well understood. In electron scat-
289 tering experiments this can be done with multiple beam energies and overlapping spectrometer
290 settings, using a monitor spectrometer to confirm the relative luminosity for each setting at a fixed
291 beam energy. In MUSE the overlap is provided by using 3 beam momenta and two independent
292 large solid angle spectrometer systems. A run with the spectrometer wire chambers rotated by a
293 small angle is also planned as a cross check.

294 MUSE runs in several stages. Initial beam tests in Fall 2012 verified the basic properties of the
295 muon beam in the π M1 beam line at PSI. A second round of beam tests will run in summer 2013;
296 these tests will study beam properties in more detail using GEM chambers, prototype a quartz
297 Cerenkov detector, and do a simplified scattering experiment to verify simulated backgrounds.
298 As equipment is constructed, we expect additional beam tests of various experiment components,
299 described in more detail below, leading up to a two-month “dress rehearsal” measurement with
300 beam line detectors and at least one spectrometer, perhaps in late 2015. The dress rehearsal is
301 intended to be a high statistics study to investigate any potential issues with the equipment as
302 built or with backgrounds. Assuming analysis of this initial high statistics measurement confirms
303 the experiment functionality, MUSE is ready to commence a two year production run.

304 III. EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

305 A. Muon Beam Line

306 The PSI π M1 beam line provides a mixed muon / pion / electron beam with a ≈ 50 MHz time
307 structure. The three beam momenta selected, $p_{in} \approx 115$ MeV/ c , 153 MeV/ c , and 210 MeV/ c , are
308 chosen both to cover a kinematic range and provide overlaps, and because at these three momenta,
309 with the expected detector geometry, the different beam particle types can be efficiently separated
310 using RF time measurements. Magnet polarities can be reversed to allow the channel to transport
311 either positive or negative polarity particles.

B. Detector Overview

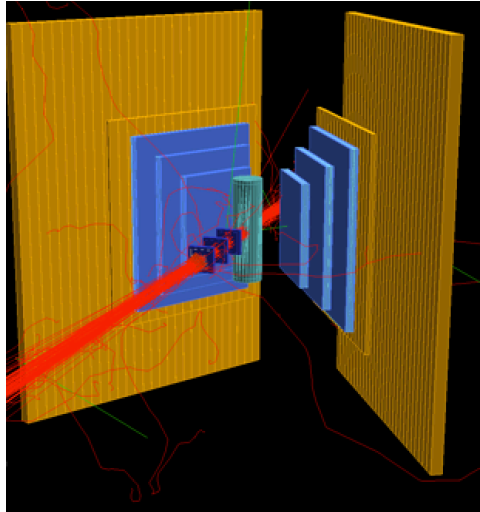


FIG. 3. A Geant4 simulation showing part of the MUSE experimental system. Here one sees the beam going through the GEM chambers and the scattering chamber, along with the spectrometer wire chambers and scintillator hodoscopes. The beam SciFi's, quartz Cerenkov, and beam monitor scintillators are missing from this view.

313 The π M1 channel features a momentum dispersed (≈ 7 cm/%) intermediate focal point (IFP) and
 314 a small beam spot ($\sigma_{x,y} < 1$ cm) at the scattering target. The base line design for the MUSE beam
 315 detectors has a collimator and a scintillating fiber detector (SciFi) at the intermediate focus. Some
 316 of the detectors in the target region are shown in Fig. 3. After the channel and immediately before
 317 the target there are a SciFi detector, a quartz Cerenkov detector, and a set of GEM chambers. A
 318 high precision beam line monitor scintillator hodoscope is downstream of the target.

319 The IFP collimator serves to cut the π M1 channel acceptance to reduce the beam flux to
 320 manageable levels. The IFP SciFi measures the RF time, for use in determining particle type,
 321 and measures beam particle position, to determine the particle momentum and thus the beam
 322 momentum spectrum.

323 The target SciFi measures the RF time, for use in determining particle type. The quartz
 324 Cerenkov provides higher resolution timing which will be used at the analysis level to reject muon
 325 decay events. The GEM chambers determine the trajectory of particles incident upon the target.
 326 The time at the target, in conjunction with the time at the IFP, provides a time of flight measure-

327 ment of the beam particles over a path length of about 9 m, providing additional identification
328 capability at the analysis level.

329 The beam line monitor hodoscope is intended to provide a high resolution determination of the
330 RF time for randomly coincident unscattered beam particles. This monitors the stability of the
331 channel and timing with the accelerator RF signals.

332 The base line design for the scattered particle spectrometers is a set of three wire chambers
333 followed by two scintillator hodoscopes. The wire chambers provide outgoing trajectories, that are
334 used in combination with the tracks found by the GEM chambers to determine scattering angles
335 and interaction positions. The two scintillator hodoscopes provide high resolution timing, high
336 efficiency triggering, and limited position information.

337 The detector systems operate in a triggered mode with VME-based readout. The much larger
338 pion scattering cross section necessitates using custom field programmable gate array (FPGA)
339 units to determine beam particle type from the SciFi signals at the hardware level. The trigger
340 is based on this hardware determination of beam particle type along with a trigger matrix (also
341 implemented in an FPGA) for the scattered particle scintillator hodoscopes to limit triggers to
342 events with trajectories pointing approximately to the target. VME modules are a mix of mostly
343 time and charge to digital converters (TDCs and QDCs). The MIDAS data acquisition system
344 developed at PSI by Stefan Ritt was used in the initial test run and is planned to be used in MUSE.

345 The hardware components of MUSE are largely established technology. SciFi detectors are now
346 common. The use of a quartz Cerenkov detector to provide ≈ 10 ps timing has been prototyped by
347 a group at Fermilab [32]. The GEM chambers exist already, having been used in the OLYMPUS
348 experiment at DESY. The high precision scintillators, used both in the spectrometer and for beam
349 line monitoring, copy a design already constructed and tested for the Jefferson Lab CLAS 12
350 upgrade. The wire chamber designs are based upon the chambers built at University of Virginia
351 for the Hall A Bigbite Spectrometer.

352 For the trigger and readout electronics, a mixture of existing commercial equipment and custom
353 or recently prototyped boards is planned. The beam particle identification system will be imple-

354 mented in commercial FPGAs, but the FPGAs will be installed in custom designed boards. The
355 trigger uses a CAEN FPGA. We note here that the use of FPGAs in subatomic physics experi-
356 ments has become fairly commonplace. To contain costs, time measurements will be done with the
357 recently prototyped TRB3 TDC, developed GSI in Darmstadt, Germany.

358 **C. Cryotarget**

359 Liquid hydrogen targets in vacuum systems are a mature technology. The design will follow
360 standard, well known and tested cryogenic cell designs. The MUSE target is a relatively easy
361 target, as the beam power deposited in the target is a few μW . The main concerns then are
362 residual air in the vacuum system freezing to the target, and radiative heating of the target by the
363 vacuum system; both issues can be ameliorated through liquid nitrogen baffles in the scattering
364 chamber. The base line design is for the cryotarget system to have a target ladder containing
365 the cryogenic cell, constructed from thin kapton, a dummy target for wall backgrounds, a carbon
366 target for positioning, and an empty target position.

367 **IV. COLLABORATION RESPONSIBILITIES AND COMMITMENTS FROM PSI**

368 The MUSE collaboration is comprised of a combination people with experience in electron
369 scattering experiments and in experiments with secondary meson beam lines. Many members
370 of the collaboration have worked together for periods exceeding a decade. Many of the younger
371 members of the collaboration have previously worked with older members of the collaboration
372 during their time in graduate school or as postdocs. Working on an experiment that lasts several
373 years and requires a significant amount of new equipment construction is a familiar situation for
374 nearly all collaborators.

375 The core of the collaboration is the institutions making a commitment to develop major parts
376 of the experiment and/or have Ph.D. students and postdocs essentially fully committed to the
377 experiment. A summary of commitments to the basic equipment development and some other

378 tasks is shown in Table I. Several of the institutions – GW, Hebrew University, MIT, Rutgers, and
 379 Tel Aviv – have committed to having Ph.D. students and / or postdocs spend significant fractions
 380 of their time at PSI for the experiment.

TABLE I. MUSE equipment responsibilities.

Device	Institution	Person
π M1 Channel	PSI	K. Dieters
Scintillating Fibers	Tel Aviv	E. Piasetzky
Scintillating Fibers	St. Mary's	A. Sarty
GEM chambers (existing)	Hampton	M. Kohl
Beam Quartz Cerenkov	Hebrew University	G. Ron (Co-Spokesperson)
Cryogenic Target System	Hebrew University	G. Ron (Co-Spokesperson)
Wire Chambers	M.I.T.	S. Gilad
Scintillators	South Carolina	S. Strauch
Electronics and Trigger	Rutgers	R. Gilman (Spokesperson)
Readout Electronics and DAQ System	George Washington	E. J. Downie (Co-Spokesperson)
Data Acquisition Software	MIT & Rutgers	V. Sulkosky & K. Myers
Radiative Corrections	George Washington	A. Afanasev
Analysis and Radius Extraction	Argonne	J. Arrington

381 **A. Schedule**

382 MUSE was approved by the PSI PAC in Jan 2013. A second test run is planned for summer 2013.
 383 It is the intent of the collaboration to seek funding during 2013, so that equipment construction
 384 can start in 2014.

385 Construction of the experiment requires about two years. To a large degree, the beam detectors
 386 are all small and can be constructed in several months. The time needed for procurement and
 387 testing will result in these detectors being available in about 9 - 12 months after funds are available.

388 The cryotarget, high precision scintillators, trigger, and wire chambers require more time.

389 The cryotarget requires about 2 years to construct. Designing the target, purchasing compo-
 390 nents, and assembling the basic system requires about 12 months. Installing and commissioning
 391 the control system will require an additional 9 months. At this point the target can be cooled and
 392 tested, which requires an additional 3 months.

393 The high-precision scintillators are similar to those constructed at South Carolina for the CLAS
394 12 GeV upgrade. The exact construction rate depends on the number and expertise of students
395 involved in building and testing the scintillators; we expect the average production rate to be
396 about two scintillator paddles per week. Production will come up to speed faster if experienced
397 students from the CLAS 12 project are still available. In addition to the 1 year needed to build
398 the scintillators, an additional 6 months will be needed for procurement, testing, and shipping.
399 Thus, the entire scintillator project will require about 18 months. It should be possible to start the
400 initial procurement activities, such as obtaining bids, before funds arrive. As a result, it should be
401 possible to have all the scintillators needed for one spectrometer for a dress rehearsal run in late
402 2015, and the full complement of scintillators for production running in 2016.

403 Constructing the beam PID requires design work, prototyping, extensive programming, and
404 design and construction of the final system. FPGAs often exhibit quirky and interesting behavior.
405 Thus, even when the FPGA selected for the project is chosen appropriately, and even though the
406 estimate of the time for the project comes from an experienced FPGAs programmer, the project
407 time can exceed estimates. The Rutgers electronics shop also has LHC projects that will compete
408 for programmer time. An initial system should be ready for the dress rehearsal, in just over a year,
409 and the experience gained should allow the full system to be deployed within 2 years, in time for
410 the production data. The trigger FPGA system can be developed in parallel with the beam PID
411 FPGA system; it is a simpler programming challenge that uses commercial equipment, so it should
412 be ready sooner. This part of the system can be developed by students and postdocs.

413 The wire chambers are the most time-consuming construction project. It requires about 6
414 months of design, procurement, and preparation before wire chamber construction can begin. We
415 assume here that clean room space can be found, so that a new clean room does not need to
416 be constructed. Initially, as the chamber workers are trained, it will take about 3 months to
417 produce the first wire chamber, and an additional month to test it. Each subsequent chamber
418 can be produced in slightly less time, but it will require about two years to produce all the
419 chambers. Within a year it should be possible to have available at least two chambers for one

420 of the spectrometers for a dress rehearsal run. With sufficient space and personnel, it might be
421 possible to produce two chambers in parallel and shorten the production time.

422 The equipment, on being brought to PSI, has to be installed, hooked up to electronics, etc., and
423 commissioned. Doing this for the entire set of experimental apparatus will take about 6 months,
424 but as indicated above the equipment is expected to arrive over a period of about 1 year.

425 Assuming that PSI continues to run during the second half of each calendar year, and assuming
426 that funding for equipment construction is received in early - mid 2014, it should be possible to
427 have a significant fraction of the MUSE equipment on hand for a significant test of the system
428 in late 2015. The beam line detectors, scintillators, some of the wire chambers, and a simplified
429 version of the trigger should all be available. The cryotarget will not be ready, but solid targets
430 can be used for initial testing.

431 **B. PSI Commitments**

432 We quote from the verbal close out of the January 2013 PSI PAC by the chair, Cy Hoffman, on
433 MUSE: “We are certainly convinced that the proton radius puzzle is an important physics puzzle,
434 largely this lab is responsible for that, and therefore it is totally fitting to finding a solution to it.
435 So we approve the experiment, we want to see it done. We are very pleased by the progress made
436 last year in the beam test, a lot of lessons were learned, a few things were not quite as optimistic
437 as hoped, on the other hand there is nothing there which was a major problem.”

438 PSI was an excellent host for our test beam time in 2012. We were provided with access to
439 π M1, beam time, installation assistance, office space, access to infrastructure such as computer
440 networking, and the use of large amounts of existing experimental equipment, such as electronics.

441 PSI will be providing us with additional beam time in 2013, along with similar access to that
442 which we had in 2012. The laboratory is making minor adjustments to the π M1 channel for
443 our tests: installation of an NMR to monitor dipole stability, installation of a collimator at the
444 intermediate focus, and adjustments to quadrupoles to fine tune the positioning of the beam focus.
445 Also planned for the future are minor adjustments to vacuum pipes in the downstream half of the

446 beam line, and the possible addition of a concrete shielding wall just before the detectors.

447 **C. Cost Estimates**

448 Estimated equipment costs in Table II include the cost of hiring students to be involved in
449 the construction effort, plus one postdoc based at GW to work on the DAQ. The estimates do
450 not cover certain costs related to the channel which we expect to be covered by PSI, and do
451 not include contingency or inflation estimates. There is no entry for the GEM chambers as the
452 chambers already exist; the GEM chambers were funded by NSF MRI 0959521.

TABLE II. Estimated cost of capital equipment.

Device	Cost (kUSD)	Institution
Scintillating Fibers	300	Tel Aviv & St. Mary's
Quartz Cerenkov	100	Rutgers
Wire Chambers	450	MIT
Scintillators	320	South Carolina
Beam PID & Trigger	198	Rutgers
DAQ & Electronics	500	GW
Target	550	Hebrew University
Mechanical Frames	40	Hebrew University
Total	2458	

453 **V. FUTURE PLANS**

454 The equipment to be constructed for this experiment is versatile enough to be used as part of
455 several measurements at PSI, as well as potential future measurements at US and other worldwide
456 facilities.

457 Depending on the results of MUSE and other Proton Radius Puzzle experiments, there are
458 natural follow up μp scattering measurements to be performed. One is a measurement of enhanced
459 parity violation as predicted by certain BSM models. A second would be a higher precision
460 measurement focused on the two-photon exchange contributions at large angles. A third would

461 be to move the apparatus to a different PSI muon beam line to obtain lower momentum surface
462 muons, to reach even lower beam momenta and momentum transfer.

463 Another direction is determining the radii of light nuclei with muon scattering. The PSI CREMA
464 collaboration, responsible for the muonic hydrogen measurements, intends to measure nuclei such
465 as ^3He , ^4He , ^6Li , and ^{11}B . Some have recently been measured at JLab to high precision. Muon
466 scattering can determine the radii of these nuclei or others, such as ^{12}C , which was already mea-
467 sured, but with low precision. Of particular interest is a measurement on deuterium, which will
468 also allow the only extraction of the muonic neutron radius. Additionally, some US groups have
469 expressed interest in extending the measurements to include ^3H charge radii.

470 VI. SUMMARY

471 The Proton Radius Puzzle is arguably the most pertinent, controversial and timely issue in
472 the Hadron Physics community at this present time. The discrepancy between the proton charge
473 radius as measured with muons and that measured in electron experiments, in both scattering and
474 excitation spectra-based extractions, is widely recognized and needs to be explained, as stated in
475 the CODATA analysis and the Particle Data Group review, and reiterated by the JLab and PSI
476 PACs. No resolution to the Puzzle has been found, and it has attracted widespread interest.

477 The MUSE experiment measures muon- and electron-proton elastic scattering, at the same time
478 with the same equipment, which will allow:

- 479 • The highest precision scattering experiment determination of the consistency of the μp inter-
480 action with the ep interaction, through cross sections and extracted form factors and radii.
- 481 • A test of the importance of 2γ exchange effects.
- 482 • Checks of possible explanations of the puzzle including structures in the form factors, ex-
483 trapolation errors in the radius extraction from scattering measurements, anomalously large
484 two-photon effects leading to issues in extracting the radius, including possible effects from
485 proton polarizability, and possible electron-muon differences.

486 MUSE provides the missing measurement of the four possible radius determinations using scat-
487 tering or atomic energy levels of μp and ep systems, and tests several possible explanations of the
488 Proton Radius Puzzle. The experiment is technically feasible on a time scale of about 4 years. It
489 requires about \$2.5M in equipment funding.

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