Electron-positron pairs in physics and astrophysics
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1. Topics

- The three fundamental contributions to the electron-positron pair creation and annihilation and the concept of critical electric field
- Nonlinear electrodynamics and rate of pair creation
- Pair production and annihilation in QED
- Semi-classical description of pair production in a general electric field
- Phenomenology of electron-positron pair creation and annihilation
- The Breit-Wheeler cutoff in high-energy $\gamma$-rays
- The extraction of blackholic energy from a black hole by vacuum polarization processes
- Thermalization of the mildly relativistic pair plasma
- Plasma oscillations in uniform electric fields
- The hydrodynamical expansion of electron-positron-photon plasma (Dyadosphere formation) in gravitational collapse
- Plasma oscillations and radiation in nonuniform electric fields
- Electron and positron pair production in gravitational collapse
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3. Brief description

3.1. Abstract

Due to the interaction of physics and astrophysics we are witnessing in these years a splendid synthesis of theoretical, experimental and observational results originating from three fundamental physical processes. They were originally proposed by Dirac, by Breit and Wheeler and by Sauter, Heisenberg, Euler and Schwinger. For almost seventy years they have all three been followed by a continued effort of experimental verification on Earth-based experiments. The Dirac process, \( e^+ e^- \rightarrow 2\gamma \), has been by far the most successful. It has obtained extremely accurate experimental verification and has led as well to an enormous number of new physics in possibly one of the most fruitful experimental avenues by introduction of storage rings in Frascati and followed by the largest accelerators worldwide: DESY, SLAC etc. The Breit–Wheeler process, \( 2\gamma \rightarrow e^+ e^- \), although conceptually simple, being the inverse process of the Dirac one, has been by far one of the most difficult to be verified experimentally. Only recently, through the technology based on free electron X-ray laser and its numerous applications in Earth-based experiments, some first indications of its possible verification have been reached. The vacuum polarization process in strong electromagnetic field, pioneered by Sauter, Heisenberg, Euler and Schwinger, introduced the concept of critical electric field \( E_c = m_e^2 c^3 / (e \hbar) \). It has been searched without success for more than forty years by heavy-ion collisions in many of the leading particle accelerators worldwide.

The novel situation today is that these same processes can be studied on a much more grandiose scale during the gravitational collapse leading to the formation of a black hole being observed in Gamma Ray Bursts (GRBs). This report is dedicated to the scientific race. The theoretical and experimental work developed in Earth-based laboratories is confronted with the theoretical interpretation of space-based observations of phenomena originating on cosmological scales. What has become clear in the last ten years is that all the three above mentioned processes, duly extended in the general relativistic framework, are necessary for the understanding of the physics of the gravitational collapse to a black hole. Vice versa, the natural arena where these processes can be observed in mutual interaction and on an unprecedented scale, is indeed the realm of relativistic astrophysics.

We systematically analyze the conceptual developments which have fol-
allowed the basic work of Dirac and Breit–Wheeler. We also recall how the seminal work of Born and Infeld inspired the work by Sauter, Heisenberg and Euler on effective Lagrangian leading to the estimate of the rate for the process of electron–positron production in a constant electric field. In addition of reviewing the intuitive semi-classical treatment of quantum mechanical tunneling for describing the process of electron–positron production, we recall the calculations in Quantum Electro-Dynamics of the Schwinger rate and effective Lagrangian for constant electromagnetic fields. We also review the electron–positron production in both time-alternating electromagnetic fields, studied by Brezin, Itzykson, Popov, Nikishov and Narozhny, and the corresponding processes relevant for pair production at the focus of coherent laser beams as well as electron beam–laser collision. We finally report some current developments based on the general JWKB approach which allows to compute the Schwinger rate in spatially varying and time varying electromagnetic fields.

We also recall the pioneering work of Landau and Lifshitz, and Racah on the collision of charged particles as well as experimental success of AdA and ADONE in the production of electron–positron pairs.

We then turn to the possible experimental verification of these phenomena. We review: (A) the experimental verification of the $e^+e^- \rightarrow 2\gamma$ process studied by Dirac. We also briefly recall the very successful experiments of $e^+e^-$ annihilation to hadronic channels, in addition to the Dirac electromagnetic channel; (B) ongoing Earth based experiments to detect electron–positron production in strong fields by focusing coherent laser beams and by electron beam–laser collisions; and (C) the multiyear attempts to detect electron–positron production in Coulomb fields for a large atomic number $Z > 137$ in heavy ion collisions. These attempts follow the classical theoretical work of Popov and Zeldovich, and Greiner and their schools.

We then turn to astrophysics. We first review the basic work on the energetics and electrodynamical properties of an electromagnetic black hole and the application of the Schwinger formula around Kerr–Newman black holes as pioneered by Damour and Ruffini. We only focus on black hole masses larger than the critical mass of neutron stars, for convenience assumed to coincide with the Rhoades and Ruffini upper limit of $3.2 M_\odot$. In this case the electron Compton wavelength is much smaller than the spacetime curvature and all previous results invariantly expressed can be applied following well established rules of the equivalence principle. We derive the corresponding rate of electron–positron pair production and introduce the concept of dyadosphere. We review recent progress in describing the evolution of optically thick electron–positron plasma in presence of supercritical electric field, which is relevant both in astrophysics as well as ongoing laser beam experiments. In particular we review recent progress based on the Vlasov–Boltzmann-Maxwell equations to study the feedback of the created electron–positron pairs on the original constant electric field. We evidence the exis-
tence of plasma oscillations and its interaction with photons leading to energy and number equipartition of photons, electrons and positrons. We finally review the recent progress obtained by using the Boltzmann equations to study the evolution of an electron–positron-photon plasma towards thermal equilibrium and determination of its characteristic timescales. The crucial difference introduced by the correct evaluation of the role of two and three body collisions, direct and inverse, is especially evidenced. We then present some general conclusions.

The results reviewed in this report are going to be submitted to decisive tests in the forthcoming years both in physics and astrophysics. To mention only a few of the fundamental steps in testing in physics we recall the starting of experimental facilities at the National Ignition Facility at the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory as well as corresponding French Laser the Mega Joule project. In astrophysics these results will be tested in galactic and extragalactic black holes observed in binary X-ray sources, active galactic nuclei, microquasars and in the process of gravitational collapse to a neutron star and also of two neutron stars to a black hole giving origin to GRBs. The astrophysical description of the stellar precursors and the initial physical conditions leading to a gravitational collapse process will be the subject of a forthcoming report. As of today no theoretical description has yet been found to explain either the emission of the remnant for supernova or the formation of a charged black hole for GRBs. Important current progress toward the understanding of such phenomena as well as of the electrodynamical structure of neutron stars, the supernova explosion and the theories of GRBs will be discussed in the above mentioned forthcoming report. What is important to recall at this stage is only that both the supernovae and GRBs processes are among the most energetic and transient phenomena ever observed in the Universe: a supernova can reach energy of $\sim 10^{54}$ ergs on a time scale of a few months and GRBs can have emission of up to $\sim 10^{54}$ ergs in a time scale as short as of a few seconds. The central role of neutron stars in the description of supernovae, as well as of black holes and the electron–positron plasma, in the description of GRBs, pioneered by one of us (RR) in 1975, are widely recognized. Only the theoretical basis to address these topics are discussed in the present report.
3.2. The three fundamental contributions to the electron-positron pair creation and annihilation and the concept of critical electric field

The annihilation of electron–positron pair into two photons, and its inverse process – the production of electron–positron pair by the collision of two photons were first studied in the framework of quantum mechanics by P.A.M. Dirac and by G. Breit and J.A. Wheeler in the 1930s (Dirac (1930); Breit and Wheeler (1934)).

A third fundamental process was pioneered by the work of Fritz Sauter and Oscar Klein, pointing to the possibility of creating an electron–positron pair from the vacuum in a constant electromagnetic field. This became known as the ‘Klein paradox’ and such a process named as vacuum polarization. It would occur for an electric field stronger than the critical value

\[ E_c \equiv \frac{m_e^2c^3}{e\hbar} \simeq 1.3 \cdot 10^{16} \text{ V/cm.} \] (3.2.1)

where \( m_e, e, c \) and \( \hbar \) are respectively the electron mass and charge, the speed of light and the Planck’s constant.

The experimental difficulties to verify the existence of such three processes became immediately clear. While the process studied by Dirac was almost immediately observed Klemperer (1934) and the electron–positron collisions became possibly the best tested and prolific phenomenon ever observed in physics. The Breit–Wheeler process, on the contrary, is still today waiting a direct observational verification. Similarly the vacuum polarization process defied dedicated attempts for almost fifty years in experiments in nuclear physics laboratories and accelerators all over the world, see Section 7 in the following article.

From the theoretical point of view the conceptual changes implied by these processes became immediately clear. They were by vastness and depth only comparable to the modifications of the linear gravitational theory of Newton introduced by the nonlinear general relativistic equations of Einstein. In the work of Euler, Oppenheimer and Debye, Born and his school it became clear that the existence of the Breit–Wheeler process was conceptually modifying the linearity of the Maxwell theory. In fact the creation of the electron–positron pair out of the two photons modifies the concept of superposition of the linear electromagnetic Maxwell equations and impose the necessity to transit to a nonlinear theory of electrodynamics. In a certain sense the Breit–Wheeler process was having for electrodynamics the same fundamental role of Gedankenexperiment that the equivalence principle had for gravitation. Two different attempts to study these nonlinearities in the electrodynam-
3.2. The three fundamental contributions to the electron-positron pair creation and annihilation and the concept of critical electric field

ics were made: one by Born and Infeld born (1933, 1934); Born and Infeld (1934) and one by Euler and Heisenberg Heisenberg and Euler (1936). These works prepared the even greater revolution of Quantum Electro-Dynamics by Tomonaga Tomonaga (1946), Feynman Feynman (1948, 1949b, a), Schwinger Schwinger (1948, 1949a,b) and Dyson Dyson (1949a,b).

In Section 3 in the following article we review the fundamental contributions to the electron–positron pair creation and annihilation and to the concept of the critical electric field. In Section 3.1 of the following article we review the Dirac derivation Dirac (1930) of the electron–positron annihilation process obtained within the perturbation theory in the framework of relativistic quantum mechanics and his derivation of the classical formula for the cross-section

\[ \sigma_{e^+e^-}^{lab} = \pi \left( \frac{\alpha \hbar}{m_e c} \right)^2 \left( \hat{\gamma} - 1 \right)^{-1} \left\{ \frac{\hat{\gamma}^2 + 4 \hat{\gamma} + 1}{\hat{\gamma}^2 - 1} \ln[\hat{\gamma} + (\hat{\gamma}^2 - 1)^{1/2}] - \frac{\hat{\gamma} + 3}{(\hat{\gamma}^2 - 1)^{1/2}} \right\}, \]

where \( \hat{\gamma} \equiv E_+ / m_e c^2 \geq 1 \) is the energy of the positron and \( \alpha = e^2 / (\hbar c) \) as usual the fine structure constant, and we recall the corresponding formula for the center of mass reference frame. In article Section 3.2 we recall the main steps in the classical Breit–Wheeler work Breit and Wheeler (1934) on the production of a real electron–positron pair in the collision of two photons, following the same method used by Dirac and leading to the evaluation of the total cross-section \( \sigma_{\gamma\gamma} \) in the center of mass of the system

\[ \sigma_{\gamma\gamma} = \frac{\pi}{2} \left( \frac{\alpha \hbar}{m_e c} \right)^2 (1 - \hat{\beta}^2) \left[ 2\hat{\beta}(\hat{\beta}^2 - 2) + (3 - \hat{\beta}^4) \ln \left( \frac{1 + \hat{\beta}}{1 - \hat{\beta}} \right) \right], \] where \( \hat{\beta} = \frac{c|p|}{E} \), with \( \hat{\beta} \) is the reduced velocity of the electron or the positron. In Section 3.3 of the article we recall the basic higher order processes, compared to the Dirac and Breit–Wheeler ones, leading to pair creation. In Section 3.4 in the following review we recall the famous Klein paradox Klein (1929); Sauter (1931b) and the possible tunneling between the positive and negative energy states leading to the concept of level crossing and pair creation by analogy to the Gamow tunneling Gamow (1931) in the nuclear potential barrier. We then turn to the celebrated Sauter work Sauter (1931a) showing the possibility of creating a pair in a uniform electric field \( E \). We recover in Section 3.5.1 of the review a JWKB approximation in order to reproduce and improve on the Sauter result by obtaining the classical Sauter exponential term as well as the prefactor

\[ \frac{\Gamma_{\text{JWKB}}}{V} \simeq D_s \frac{\alpha E^2}{2\pi^2 \hbar} e^{-\pi E_c / E}, \]

where \( D_s = 2 \) for a spin-1/2 particle and \( D_s = 1 \) for spin-0, \( V \) is the volume. Finally, in review Section 3.5.2 the case of a simultaneous presence of
3. Brief description

an electric and a magnetic field \( B \) is presented leading to the estimate of pair production rate

\[
\frac{\Gamma_{\text{JWKB}}}{V} \simeq \frac{\alpha \beta \varepsilon}{\pi \hbar} \coth \left( \frac{\pi \beta}{\varepsilon} \right) \exp \left( -\frac{\pi E_c}{\varepsilon} \right), \quad \text{spin} - 1/2 \text{ particle}
\]

and

\[
\frac{\Gamma_{\text{JWKB}}}{V} \simeq \frac{\alpha \beta \varepsilon}{2\pi \hbar} \sinh^{-1} \left( \frac{\pi \beta}{\varepsilon} \right) \exp \left( -\frac{\pi E_c}{\varepsilon} \right), \quad \text{spin} - 0 \text{ particle},
\]

where

\[
\varepsilon \equiv \sqrt{(S^2 + P^2)^{1/2} + S},
\]

\[
\beta \equiv \sqrt{(S^2 + P^2)^{1/2} - S},
\]

where the scalar \( S \) and the pseudoscalar \( P \) are

\[
S \equiv \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (E^2 - B^2); \quad P \equiv \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} \tilde{F}^{\mu\nu} = E \cdot B,
\]

where \( \tilde{F}^{\mu\nu} \equiv \varepsilon^{\mu\nu\lambda\kappa} F_{\lambda\kappa} \) is the dual field tensor.

3.3. Nonlinear electrodynamics and rate of pair creation

In article Section 4 we first recall the seminal work of Hans Euler (1936) pointing out for the first time the necessity of nonlinear character of electromagnetism introducing the classical Euler Lagrangian

\[
\mathcal{L} = \frac{E^2 - B^2}{8\pi} + \frac{1}{\alpha E_0^2} \left[ a_E \left( E^2 - B^2 \right)^2 + b_E \left( E \cdot B \right)^2 \right],
\]

where

\[
a_E = -1/(360\pi^2), \quad b_E = -7/(360\pi^2),
\]

a first order perturbation to the Maxwell Lagrangian. In review article Section 4.2 we review the alternative theoretical approach of nonlinear electrodynamics by Max Born (1934) and his collaborators, to the more ambitious attempt to obtain the correct nonlinear Lagrangian of Electro-Dynamics. The motivation of Born was to attempt a theory free of divergences in the observable properties of an elementary particle, what has become known as ‘unitarian’ standpoint versus the ‘dualistic’ standpoint in description of elementary
3.3. Nonlinear electrodynamics and rate of pair creation

particles and fields. We recall how the Born Lagrangian was formulated

$$\mathcal{L} = \sqrt{1 + 2s - P^2} - 1,$$

and one of the first solutions derived by Born and Infeld (1934). We also recall one of the interesting aspects of the courageous approach of Born had been to formulate this Lagrangian within a unified theory of gravitation and electromagnetism following Einstein program. Indeed, we also recall the very interesting solution within the Born theory obtained by Hoffmann (1935); Hoffmann and Infeld (1937). Still in the work of Born (1934) the seminal idea of describing the nonlinear vacuum properties of this novel electrodynamics by an effective dielectric constant and magnetic permeability functions of the field arisen. We then review in Section 4.3.1 of the article the work of Heisenberg and Euler (1936) adopting the general approach of Born and generalizing to the presence of a real and imaginary part of the electric permittivity and magnetic permeability. They obtain an integral expression of the effective Lagrangian given by

$$\Delta\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}} = \frac{e^2}{16\pi^2\hbar c} \int_0^\infty e^{-s} \frac{ds}{s^3} \left[ i s^2 \tilde{E} \tilde{B} \cos(s[\tilde{E}^2 - \tilde{B}^2 + 2i(\tilde{E}\tilde{B})]^{1/2}) + c.c. \right] + \left( \frac{m_e^2 c^3}{\hbar} \right)^2 + \frac{s^2}{3} (|\tilde{B}|^2 - |\tilde{E}|^2),$$

where \(\tilde{E}, \tilde{B}\) are the dimensionless reduced fields in the unit of the critical field \(E_c\),

$$\tilde{E} = \frac{|E|}{E_c}, \quad \tilde{B} = \frac{|B|}{E_c},$$

obtaining the real part and the crucial imaginary term which relates to the pair production in a given electric field. It is shown how these results give as a special case the previous result obtained by Euler (Eq. (4.1.3) in the review). In Section 4.3.2 of the following article the work by Weisskopf (1936) working on a spin-0 field fulfilling the Klein–Gordon equation, in contrast to the spin 1/2 field studied by Heisenberg and Euler, confirms the Euler-Heisenberg result. Weisskopf obtains explicit expression of pair creation in an arbitrary strong magnetic field and in an electric field described by \(\tilde{E}\) and \(\tilde{B}\) expansion.

For the first time Heisenberg and Euler provided a description of the vacuum properties by the characteristic scale of strong field \(E_c\) and the effective Lagrangian of nonlinear electromagnetic fields. In 1951, Schwinger (1951, 1954a,b) made an elegant quantum field theoretic reformulation of this discovery in the QED framework. This played an important role in understanding the properties of the QED theory in strong electromagnetic fields.
The QED theory in strong coupling regime, i.e., in the regime of strong electromagnetic fields, is still a vast arena awaiting for experimental verification as well as of further theoretical understanding.

### 3.4. Pair production and annihilation in QED

In the review article in Section 5 after recalling some general properties of QED in Section 5.1 and some basic processes in Section 5.2 we proceed to the consideration of the Dirac and the Breit–Wheeler processes in QED in Secton 5.3. Then we discuss some higher order processes, namely double pair production in Section 5.4, electron-nucleus bremsstrahlung and pair production by a photon in the field of a nucleus in Section 5.5, and finally pair production by two ions in Section 5.6. In Section 5.7 the classical result for the vacuum to vacuum decay via pair creation in uniform electric field by Schwinger is recalled

\[
\frac{\Gamma}{V} = \frac{\alpha E^2}{\pi^2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \exp \left( -\frac{n\pi E_c}{E} \right).
\]

This formula generalizes and encompasses the previous results reviewed in our report: the JWKB results, discussed in Section 3.5, and the Sauter exponential factor (Eq. (3.5.11) in the review), and the Heisenberg-Euler imaginary part of the effective Lagrangian. We then recall the generalization of this formula to the case of a constant electromagnetic fields. Such results were further generalized to spatially nonuniform and time-dependent electromagnetic fields by Nikishov (1970), Vanyashin and Terent’ev (1965), Popov (1971, 1972b, 2001), Narozhnyi and Nikishov (1970) and Batalin and Fradkin (1970). We then conclude this argument by giving the real and imaginary parts for the effective Lagrangian for arbitrary constant electromagnetic field recently published by Ruffini and Xue (2006). This result generalizes the previous result obtained by Weisskopf in strong fields. In weak field it gives the Euler-Heisenberg effective Lagrangian. As we will see in the Section 7.2 of the review much attention has been given experimentally to the creation of pairs in the rapidly changing electric fields. A fundamental contribution in this field studying pair production rates in an oscillating electric field was given by Brezin and Itzykson (1970) and we recover in review Section 5.8 their main results which apply both to the case of bosons and fermions. We recall how similar results were independently obtained two years later by Popov Popov (1972a). In Section 5.10 of the article we recall an alternative physical process considering the quantum theory of the interaction of free electron with the field of a strong electromagnetic waves: an ultrarelativistic electron absorbs multiple photons and emits only a single photon in the reaction Bula et al. (1996):

\[ e + n\omega \rightarrow e' + \gamma. \]
This process appears to be of the great relevance as we will see in the next Section for the nonlinear effects originating from laser beam experiments. Particularly important appears to be the possibility outlined by Burke et al. (1997) that the high-energy photon $\gamma$ created in the first process propagates through the laser field, it interacts with laser photons $n\omega$ to produce an electron–positron pair
\[ \gamma + n\omega \rightarrow e^+ + e^- . \]
We also refer to the papers by Nikishov and Ritus (1964a,b, 1965, 1967, 1979); Narozhnyi et al. (1965) studying the dependence of this process on the status of the polarization of the photons.

We point out the great relevance of departing from the case of the uniform electromagnetic field originally considered by Sauter, Heisenberg and Euler, and Schwinger. We also recall some of the classical works of Brezin and Itzykson and Popov on time varying fields. The space variation of the field was also considered in the classical papers of Nikishov and Narozhny as well as in the work of Wang and Wong. Finally, we recall the work of Khriplovich Khriplovich (2000) studying the vacuum polarization around a Reissner–Nordström black hole. A more recent approach using the worldline formalism, sometimes called the string-inspired formalism, was advanced by Dunne and Schubert Schubert (2001); Dunne and Schubert (2005).

### 3.5. Semi-classical description of pair production in a general electric field

In review Section 6, after recalling studies of pair production in inhomogeneous electromagnetic fields in the literature by Dunne and Schubert (2005); Dunne et al. (2006); Dunne and Wang (2006); Kim and Page (2002, 2006, 2007), we present a brief review of our recent work Kleinert et al. (2008) where the general formulas for pair production rate as functions of either crossing energy level or classical turning point, and total production rate are obtained in external electromagnetic fields which vary either in one space direction $E(z)$ or in time $E(t)$. In Sections 6.1 and 6.2, these formulas are explicitly derived in the JWKB approximation and generalized to the case of three-dimensional electromagnetic configurations. We apply these formulas to several cases of such inhomogeneous electric field configurations, which are classified into two categories. In the first category, we study two cases: a semi-confined field $E(z) \neq 0$ for $z \lesssim \ell$ and the Sauter field
\[ E(z) = E_0/cosh^2(z/\ell), \quad V(z) = -\sigma_s m_e c^2 \tanh(z/\ell) , \]
where $\ell$ is width in the $z$-direction, and

$$\sigma_s \equiv e E_0 \ell / m_c c^2 = (\ell / \lambda_C) (E_0 / E_c).$$

In these two cases the pairs produced are not confined by the electric potential and can reach an infinite distance. The resultant pair production rate varies as a function of space coordinate. The result we obtained is drastically different from the Schwinger rate in homogeneous electric fields without any boundary. We clearly show that the approximate application of the Schwinger rate to electric fields limited within finite size of space overestimates the total number of pairs produced, particularly when the finite size is comparable with the Compton wavelength $\lambda_C$, see article Figs. 6.2 and 6.3 where it is clearly shown how the rate of pair creation far from being constant goes to zero at both boundaries. The same situation is also found for the case of the semi-confined field $z(z) \neq 0$ for $|z| \lesssim \ell$, see Eq. (6.3.34). In the second category, we study a linearly rising electric field $E(z) \sim z$, corresponding to a harmonic potential $V(z) \sim z^2$, see Figs. 6.1. In this case the energy spectra of bound states are discrete and thus energy crossing levels for tunneling are discrete. To obtain the total number of pairs created, using the general formulas for pair production rate, we need to sum over all discrete energy crossing levels, see Eq. (6.4.11), provided these energy levels are not occupied. Otherwise, the pair production would stop due to the Pauli principle.

### 3.6. Phenomenology of electron-positron pair creation and annihilation

In Section 7 of the review we focus on the phenomenology of electron–positron pair creation and annihilation experiments. There are three different aspects which are examined: the verification of the process (3.0.1) initially studied by Dirac, the process (3.7.1) studied by Breit and Wheeler, and then the classical work of vacuum polarization process around a supercritical nucleus, following the Sauter, Euler, Heisenberg and Schwinger work. We first recall in Section 7.1 how the process (3.0.1) predicted by Dirac was almost immediately discovered by Klemperer Klemperer (1934). Following this discovery the electron–positron collisions have become possibly the most prolific field of research in the domain of particle physics. The crucial step experimentally was the creation of the first electron–positron collider the “Anello d’Accumulazione” (AdA) was built by the theoretical proposal of Bruno Tousschek in Frascati (Rome) in 1960 Bernardini (2004). Following the success of AdA (luminosity $\sim 10^{25}$/(cm$^2$ sec), beam energy $\sim$0.25GeV), it was decided to build in the Frascati National Laboratory a storage ring of the same kind, Adone. Electron-positron colliders have been built and proposed for this purpose all over the world (CERN, SLAC, INP, DESY, KEK and IHEP).
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The aim here is just to recall the existence of this enormous field of research which appeared following the original Dirac idea. In the review the main cross-sections (7.1.1) and (7.1.2) are recalled and the diagram (Fig. 7.1) summarizing this very great success of particle physics is presented. While the Dirac process (3.0.1) has been by far one of the most prolific in physics, the Breit–Wheeler process (3.7.1) has been one of the most elusive for direct observations. In Earth-bound experiments the major effort today is directed to evidence this phenomenon in very strong and coherent electromagnetic field in lasers. In this process collision of many photons may lead in the future to pair creation. This topic is discussed in Section 7.2. Alternative evidence for the Breit–Wheeler process can come from optically thick electron–positron plasma which may be created either in the future in Earth-bound experiments, or currently observed in astrophysics, see Section 10. One additional way to probe the existence of the Breit–Wheeler process is by establishing in astrophysics an upper limits to observable high-energy photons, as a function of distance, propagating in the Universe as pioneered by Nikishov (1961), see Section 7.4. We then recall in Section 7.3 how the crucial experimental breakthrough came from the idea of John Madey Deacon et al. (1977) of self-amplified spontaneous emission in an undulator, which results when charges interact with the synchrotron radiation they emit (Tremaine et al. (2002)). Such X-ray free electron lasers have been constructed among others at DESY and SLAC and focus energy onto a small spot hopefully with the size of the X-ray laser wavelength \( \lambda \simeq O(0.1) \text{nm} \) (Nuhn and Pellegrini (2000)), and obtain a very large electric field \( E \sim 1/\lambda \), much larger than those obtainable with any optical laser of the same power. This technique can be used to achieve a very strong electric field near to its critical value for observable electron–positron pair production in vacuum. No pair can be created by a single laser beam. It is then assumed that each X-ray laser pulse is split into two equal parts and recombined to form a standing wave with a frequency \( \omega \). We then recall how for a laser pulse with wavelength \( \lambda \) about 1\( \mu \text{m} \) and the theoretical diffraction limit \( \sigma_{\text{laser}} \simeq \lambda \) being reached, the critical intensity laser beam would be

\[
I_c^{\text{laser}} = \frac{c}{4\pi} E_c^2 \simeq 4.6 \times 10^{29} \text{W/cm}^2.
\]

In review Section 7.2.1 we recall the theoretical formula for the probability of pair production in time-alternating electric field in two limiting cases of large frequency and small frequency. It is interesting that in the limit of large field and small frequency the production rate approach the one of the Sauter, Heisenberg, Euler and Schwinger, discussed in Section 5. In the following Section 7.2.2 we recall the actually reached experimental limits quoted by Ringwald (2001) for a X-ray laser and give a reference to the relevant literature. In Section 7.2.3 we summarize some of the most recent theoretical estimates for pair production by a circularly polarized laser beam.
by Narozhny, Popov and their collaborators. In this case the field invariants (3.5.23) are not vanishing and pair creation can be achieved by a single laser beam. They computed the total number of electron–positron pairs produced as a function of intensity and focusing parameter of the laser. Particularly interesting is their analysis of the case of two counter-propagating focused laser pulses with circular polarizations, pair production becomes experimentally observable when the laser intensity \( I_{\text{laser}} \sim 10^{26} \text{W/cm}^2 \) for each beam, which is about \( 1 \sim 2 \) orders of magnitude lower than for a single focused laser pulse, and more than \( 3 \) orders of magnitude lower than the critical intensity (7.2.4). Equally interesting are the considerations which first appear in treating this problem that the back reaction of the pairs created on the field has to be taken into due account. We give the essential references and we will see in Section 9 how indeed this feature becomes of paramount importance in the field of astrophysics. We finally review in Section 7.2.4 the technological situation attempting to increase both the frequency and the intensity of laser beams.

The difficulty of evidencing the Breit–Wheeler process even when the high-energy photon beams have a center of mass energy larger than the energy-threshold \( 2m_e c^2 = 1.02 \text{MeV} \) was clearly recognized since the early days. We discuss the crucial role of the effective nonlinear terms originating in strong electromagnetic laser fields: the interaction needs not to be limited to initial states of two photons Reiss (1962, 1971). A collective state of many interacting laser photons occurs. We turn then in Section 7.3 of the review to an even more complex and interesting procedure: the interaction of an ultrarelativistic electron beam with a terawatt laser pulse, performed at SLAC Kotseroglou et al. (1996), when strong electromagnetic fields are involved. A first nonlinear Compton scattering process occurs in which the ultrarelativistic electrons absorb multiple photons from the laser field and emit a single photon via the process (5.9.1). The theory of this process has been given in Section 5.10. The second is a drastically improved Breit–Wheeler process (5.9.2) by which the high-energy photon \( \gamma \), created in the first process, propagates through the laser field and interacts with laser photons \( n \omega \) to produce an electron–positron pair Burke et al. (1997). In Section 7.3.1 we describe the status of this very exciting experiments which give the first evidence for the observation in the laboratory of the Breit–Wheeler process although in a somewhat indirect form. Having determined the theoretical basis as well as attempts to verify experimentally the Breit–Wheeler formula we turn in Section 7.4 to a most important application of the Breit–Wheeler process in the framework of cosmology. As pointed out by Nikishov Nikishov (1961) the existence of background photons in cosmology puts a stringent cutoff on the maximum trajectory of the high-energy photons in cosmology.

Having reviewed both the theoretical and observational evidence of the Dirac and Breit–Wheeler processes of creation and annihilation of electron–positron pairs we turn then to one of the most conspicuous field of theoretical
and experimental physics dealing with the process of electron–positron pair creation by vacuum polarization in the field of a heavy nuclei. This topic has originated one of the vastest experimental and theoretical physics activities in the last forty years, especially by the process of collisions of heavy ions. We first review in Section 7.5 of the article the $Z = 137$ catastrophe, a collapse to the center, in semi-classical approach, following the Pomeranchuk work Pomeranchuk and Smorodinskii (1945) based on the imposing the quantum conditions on the classical treatment of the motion of two relativistic particles in circular orbits. We then proceed showing in Section 7.5.3 how the introduction of the finite size of the nucleus, following the classical work of Popov and Zeldovich Zeldovich and Popov (1971), leads to the critical charge of a nucleus of $Z_{cr} = 173$ above which a bare nucleus would lead to the level crossing between the bound state and negative energy states of electrons in the field of a bare nucleus. We then review in Section 7.5.5 the recent theoretical progress in analyzing the pair creation process in a Coulomb field, taking into account radial dependence and time variability of electric field. We finally recall in Section 7.6 the attempt to use heavy-ion collisions to form transient superheavy “quasimolecules”: a long-lived metastable nuclear complex with $Z > Z_{cr}$. It was expected that the two heavy ions of charges respectively $Z_1$ and $Z_2$ with $Z_1 + Z_2 > Z_{cr}$ would reach small inter-nuclear distances well within the electron’s orbiting radii. The electrons would not distinguish between the two nuclear centers and they would evolve as if they were bounded by nuclear “quasimolecules” with nuclear charge $Z_1 + Z_2$. Therefore, it was expected that electrons would evolve quasi-statically through a series of well defined nuclear “quasimolecules” states in the two-center field of the nuclei as the inter-nuclear separation decreases and then increases again. When heavy-ion collision occurs the two nuclei come into contact and some deep inelastic reaction occurs determining the duration $\Delta t_s$ of this contact. Such “sticking time” is expected to depend on the nuclei involved in the reaction and on the beam energy. Theoretical attempts have been proposed to study the nuclear aspects of heavy-ion collisions at energies very close to the Coulomb barrier and search for conditions, which would serve as a trigger for prolonged nuclear reaction times, to enhance the amplitude of pair production. The sticking time $\Delta t_s$ should be larger than $1 \sim 2 \cdot 10^{-21} \text{ sec}$ Greiner and Reinhardt (1999) in order to have significant pair production. Up to now no success has been achieved in justifying theoretically such a long sticking time. In reality the characteristic sticking time has been found of the order of $\Delta t \sim 10^{-25} \text{ sec}$, hundred times shorter than the needed to activate the pair creation process. We finally recall in Section 7.6.2 of the review the Darmstadt-Brookhaven dialogue between the Orange and the Epos groups and the Apex group at Argonne in which the claim for discovery of electron–positron pair creation by vacuum polarization in heavy-ion collisions was finally retracted. Out of the three fundamental processes addressed in this report, the Dirac electron–positron annihilation and the Breit–Wheeler
3. Brief description

electron–positron creation from two photons have found complete theoretical descriptions within Quantum Electro-Dynamics. The first one is very likely the best tested process in physical science, while the second has finally obtained the first indirect experimental evidence. The third process, the one of the vacuum polarization studied by Sauter, Euler, Heisenberg and Schwinger, presents in Earth-bound experiments presents a situation “terra incognita”.

3.7. The Breit-Wheeler cutoff in high-energy Gamma-rays

The Breit-Wheeler process for the photon-photon pair production is one of most relevant elementary processes in high energy astrophysics (see review Sec. 7.4). In addition to the importance of this process in dense radiation fields of compact objects (Bonometto and Rees, 1971), the essential role of this process in the context of intergalactic absorption of high-energy $\gamma$-rays was first pointed out by Nikishov (Nikishov, 1961; Gould and Schrédé, 1967). The spectra of TeV radiation observed from distant ($d > 100$ Mpc) extragalactic objects suffer essential deformation during the passage through the intergalactic medium, caused by energy-dependent absorption of primary $\gamma$-rays at interactions with the diffuse extragalactic background radiation, for the optical depth $\tau_{\gamma\gamma}$ most likely significantly exceeding one (Gould and Schréder, 1967; Stecker et al., 1992; Vassiliev, 2000; Coppi and Aharonian, 1999). A relevant broad-band information about the cosmic background radiation (CBR) is important for the interpretation of the observed high-energy $\gamma$ spectra (Aharonian et al., 2000; Kneiske et al., 2002; Dwek and Krennrich, 2005; Aharonian et al., 2006). For details see Hauser and Dwek (2001); Aharonian (2003). In this section, we are particularly interested in such absorption effect of high-energy $\gamma$-ray, originated from cosmological sources, interacting with the Cosmic Microwave Background (CMB) photons. Fazio and Stecker (Fazio and Stecker, 1970; Stecker et al., 1977) were the first who calculated the cutoff energy versus redshift for cosmological $\gamma$-rays. This calculation was applied to further study of the optical depth of the Universe to high-energy $\gamma$-rays (MacMinn and Primack, 1996; Kneiske et al., 2004; Stecker et al., 2006). With the Fermi telescope, such study turns out to be important to understand the spectrum of high-energy $\gamma$-ray originated from GRBs’ sources at cosmological distance, we therefore offer the details of theoretical analysis as follow.

Breit-Wheeler cross-section in arbitrary frame

Breit and Wheeler (1934) studied the process

$$\gamma_1 + \gamma_2 \rightarrow e^+ + e^-,$$

(3.7.1)
3.7. The Breit-Wheeler cutoff in high-energy Gamma-rays

in the center of mass of the system, the momenta of the electron and positron are equal and opposite \( p_1 = -p_2 \). The same thing holds for the momenta of the photons in the initial state: \( k_1 = -k_2 \). As a consequence, the energies of electron and positron are equal: \( \epsilon_1 = \epsilon_2 = \epsilon \), and so are the energies of the photons: \( \hbar \omega_1 = \hbar \omega_2 = \epsilon_\gamma = \epsilon \). They found the total cross-section in the center of mass of the system:

\[
\sigma_{\gamma\gamma} = \frac{\pi}{2} \left( \frac{\alpha \hbar}{m_e c} \right)^2 \left( 1 - \hat{\beta}^2 \right) \left[ 2 \hat{\beta} (\hat{\beta}^2 - 2) + (3 - \hat{\beta}^4) \ln \left( \frac{1 + \hat{\beta}}{1 - \hat{\beta}} \right) \right], \quad \text{with} \quad \hat{\beta} = \frac{c |p|}{\epsilon},
\]

(3.7.2)

where \( p \) and \( \hat{\beta} \) are respectively momentum and the reduced velocity of an electron or positron. The necessary kinematic condition in order for the process (3.7.1) taking place is that the energy of two colliding photons is larger than the energetic threshold \( 2m_e c^2 \), i.e.,

\[
\epsilon_\gamma > m_e c^2.
\]

(3.7.3)

The cross-section in line (3.7.2) can be easily generalized to an arbitrary reference frame \( \mathcal{K} \), in which the two photons \( k_1 \) and \( k_2 \) are moving in opposite directions; for Lorentz invariance of \( (k_1 \cdot k_2) \), one has \( \omega_1 \omega_2 = \epsilon_\gamma^2 \). Since

\[
\epsilon_\gamma = \epsilon = \frac{m_e c^2}{\sqrt{1 - \hat{\beta}^2}},
\]

(3.7.4)

to obtain the total cross-section in the arbitrary frame \( \mathcal{K} \), we must therefore make the following substitution (Landau and Lifshitz, 1975),

\[
\hat{\beta} \to \sqrt{1 - m_e^2 c^4 / (\omega_1 \omega_2)},
\]

(3.7.5)

in Eq. (3.7.2). For \( \epsilon \gg m_e c^2 \), the total effective cross-section is approximately proportional to

\[
\sigma_{\gamma\gamma} \simeq \pi \left( \frac{\alpha \hbar}{m_e c} \right)^2 \left( \frac{m_e c^2}{\epsilon} \right)^2 = \pi r_e^2 \left( \frac{m_e c^2}{\epsilon} \right)^2,
\]

(3.7.6)

where \( r_e = \left( \frac{\alpha \hbar}{m_e c} \right) \) is the electron classical radius and \( \pi r_e^2 \approx 2.5 \cdot 10^{-25} \text{cm}^2 \).

Opacity of high-energy GRB photons colliding with CMB photons

We study the Breit-Wheeler process (3.7.1) to the case that high-energy GRB photons \( \omega_1 \), originated from GRBs sources at cosmological distance \( z \), on their way traveling to us, collide with CMB photons \( \omega_2 \) in the rest frame of CMB photons, leading to electron-positron pair production. We calculate the opacity and mean free-path of these high-energy GRB photons, find the
energy-range of absorption as a function of the cosmological red-shift $z$.

In general, a high-energy GRB photon with a given energy $\omega_1$, collides with background photons in all possible energies $\omega_2$. We assume that $i$-type background photons have the spectrum distribution $f_i(\omega_2/T_i)$, where $T_i$ is the characteristic energy scale of the distribution, the opacity is then given by

$$
\tau^i_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_1, z) = \int dr \int_{m_e^2c^4/\omega_1}^{\infty} \frac{\omega_2^2 d\omega_2}{\pi^2} f_i(\omega_2/T_i) \sigma_{\gamma\gamma}(\frac{\omega_1\omega_2}{m_e^2c^4}),
$$

(3.7.7)

where $m_e^2c^4/\omega_1$ is the energy-threshold (3.7.3) above which the Breit-Wheeler process (3.7.1) can occur and the cross-section $\sigma_{\gamma\gamma}(x)$ is given by Eqs. (3.7.2), depending only on $x = \frac{\omega_1\omega_2}{m_e^2c^4}$. The total opacity is then given by

$$
\tau^\text{total}_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_1, z) = \sum_i \tau^i_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_1, z),
$$

(3.7.8)

which the sum is over all types of photon background in the Universe. The high-energy photons traveling path $\int dr$ is given by

$$
\int_{t}^{t_0} \frac{dt'}{R(t')} = \int_{0}^{r(t)} \frac{dr}{(1-kr^2)^{1/2}} = \int_{0}^{r(t)} dr,
$$

(3.7.9)

where $R(t)$ is the scalar factor, $t_0$ is the present time and $t$ corresponds to the epoch of the red-shift $z$ for a flat ($k = 0$) Friedmann Universe. Using the relationship $z + 1 = R_0/R(t)$, we change integrand variable from $t'$ to the red-shift $z$,

$$
dt' = -\frac{dz}{(z+1)H(z')},
$$

(3.7.10)

so that we have

$$
\int_{0}^{r(t)} dr = \int_{t}^{t_0} \frac{dt'}{R(t')} = \frac{1}{R_0} \int_{0}^{z} \frac{dz}{H(z')},
$$

(3.7.11)

where $H(z) = \dot{R}(t)/R(t_0)$ is the Hubble function, obeyed the Friedmann equation

$$
H(z) = H_0[\Omega_M(z+1)^3 + \Omega_\Lambda]^{1/2}, \quad \Omega_M + \Omega_\Lambda = 1,
$$

(3.7.12)

$\Omega_M \simeq 0.3$ and $\Omega_M \simeq 0.7$.

In the case of CMB photons in a black-body distribution $1/(e^{\omega_2/T} - 1)$ with the temperature $T$, the opacity is given by

$$
\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_1, z) = \int dr \int_{m_e^2c^4/\omega_1}^{\infty} \frac{d\omega_2}{\pi^2} \frac{\omega_2^2}{e^{\omega_2/T} - 1} \sigma_{\gamma\gamma}(\frac{\omega_1\omega_2}{m_e^2c^4}),
$$

(3.7.13)
where the Boltzmann constant $k_B = 1$. To simply Eq. (3.7.13), we set $x = \frac{\omega_1 \omega_2}{m_e c^4}$,

$$\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_1, z) = \int dr \left(\frac{m_e^2 c^4}{\omega_1}\right)^3 \int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{\pi^2} \frac{x^2}{\omega_1^3 \exp \left(\frac{m_e^2 c^4}{\omega_1} - 1\right) \sigma_{\gamma\gamma}(x)}.$$  

(3.7.14)

In terms of CMB temperature and GRB-photons energy at the present time,

$$T = (z + 1) T_0; \quad \omega_{1,2} = (z + 1) \omega_{1,2}^0,$$

(3.7.15)

we obtain,

$$\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_1^0, z) = \frac{1}{R_0} \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{H(z')} \frac{(z + 1)^3}{\omega_1^0} \left(\frac{m_e^2 c^4}{\omega_1^0}\right)^3 \int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{\pi^2} \frac{x^2}{\exp(x/\theta) - 1} \sigma_{\gamma\gamma}(x),$$

(3.7.16)

where

$$\theta = x^0(z + 1)^2; \quad x^0 = \frac{\omega_1^0 T_0}{m_e^2 c^4},$$

(3.7.17)

and $x^0$ is the energy $\omega_1^0$ in unit of $m_e c^2 (m_e c^2 / T^0) = 1.15 \cdot 10^{15}$ eV. For the purpose of numerical calculations, we rewrite the expression,

$$\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(x^0, z) = \frac{\pi r^2}{R_0 H_0 / c} \left(\frac{T_0}{x^0}\right)^3 \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{[\Omega_M(z' + 1)^3 + \Omega_\Lambda]^{1/2} (z' + 1)^3} \times$$

$$\times \int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{2\pi^2} \frac{x^2 f_{\gamma\gamma}(x)}{\exp(x/\theta) - 1} =$$

$$= \frac{23.8}{R_0 h} \left(\frac{1}{x^0}\right)^3 \int_0^z \frac{dz'}{[\Omega_M(z' + 1)^3 + \Omega_\Lambda]^{1/2} (z' + 1)^3} \times$$

$$\times \int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{2\pi^2} \frac{x^2 f_{\gamma\gamma}(x)}{\exp(x/\theta) - 1'},$$

(3.7.18)

where $R_0 = 1$, present Hubble constant $h = H_0 / 100$ km/sec/Mpc and

$$f_{\gamma\gamma}(x) = (1 - \hat{\beta}^2) \left[2 \hat{\beta} (\hat{\beta}^2 - 2) + (3 - \hat{\beta}^4) \ln \left(\frac{1 + \hat{\beta}}{1 - \hat{\beta}}\right)\right], \quad \hat{\beta} = \sqrt{1 - 1/x}.$$

The $\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_1^0, z) = 1$ give the relationship $\omega_1^0 = \omega_1^0(z)$ that separates the absorbed regime $\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_1^0, z) > 1$ and transparent regime $\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_1^0, z) < 1$ in the $\omega_1^0 - z$ plane.

The numerical result is shown in Fig. 3.1. It clearly shows the following properties:

1. for the redshift $z$ smaller than a critical value $z_c \simeq 0.1 (z < z_c)$, the CMB photons are transparent $\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_1^0, z) < 1$ to GRB photons in any energy
bands, this indicates a minimal mean-free path of photons traveling in CMB photons background;

2. for the redshift $z$ larger than the value ($z > z_c$), there are two branches of solutions for $\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega_0^0, z) = 1$, respectively corresponding to the different energy-dependence of the cross-section (3.7.2): the cross-section increases with the center-mass-energy $x = \frac{\varepsilon_{\gamma}}{m_c^2}$ from the energy-threshold $x = 1$ to $x \simeq 1.99$, and decreases (3.7.6) from $x \simeq 1.99$ to $x \to \infty$. The turn point ($z \simeq 0.1, \omega_0^0 \simeq 1.15 \cdot 10^{15}\text{eV}$) from one solution to another is determined by the maximal cross-section at $x \simeq 1.99$. Due to these two solutions, CMB photons are transparent to GRB photons of large and small energies, opaque to those GRB photons in an intermediate energy-range large for a given finite $z$-value;

3. CMB photons are transparent to very low-energy GRB photons $\omega_0^0 < 10^{12}\text{eV}$, i.e., $x^0 < 10^{-3}$, due to their energies are below the energetic threshold for the Breit-Wheeler process (3.7.1). In addition, CMB photons are transparent to very large-energy GRB photons $\omega_0^0 > 10^{18}\text{eV}$, i.e., $x^0 > 10^3$, due to the cross-section of Breit-Wheeler process (3.7.1) is very small for extremely high-energy photons. For very large $z \sim 10^3$, the Universe becomes completely opaque and photon distribution cannot be described by the black body spectrum, we disregard this regime.

Due to the fact that there are other radiation backgrounds (3.7.7), the background of CMB photons gives the lowest bound of opacity, absorption limit, to GRB photons with respect to the Breit-Wheeler process (3.7.1). Finally, we point out that Fazio and Stecker (Fazio and Stecker, 1970; Stecker et al., 1977) gave only asymptotic form of small-energy solution indicated in Fig. (3.1).

### 3.8. The extraction of blackholic energy from a black hole by vacuum polarization processes

We turn then to astrophysics, where, in the process of gravitational collapse to a black hole and in its outcomes these three processes will be for the first time verified on a much larger scale, involving particle numbers of the order of $10^{60}$, seeing both the Dirac process and the Breit–Wheeler process at work in symbiotic form and electron–positron plasma created from the “blackholic energy” during the process of gravitational collapse. It is becoming more and more clear that the gravitational collapse process to a Kerr–Newman black hole is possibly the most complex problem ever addressed in physics and astrophysics. What is most important for this report is that it gives for the first time the opportunity to see the above three processes simultaneously at work under ultrarelativistic special and general relativistic regimes. The process of gravitational collapse is characterized by the
3.8. The extraction of blackholic energy from a black hole by vacuum polarization processes

Figure 3.1: This is a Log-Log plot for GRB photon energy $x^0$ (in unit of $1.11 \cdot 10^{15}$) vs redshift $z$. For $z > z_c \simeq 0.1$, the line that bounds shadow area indicates two solutions for the opacity $\tau_{\gamma\gamma} = 1$: (i) large-energy solution for $\omega^0_1 > 1.15 \cdot 10^{15}$eV; (ii) small-energy solution for $\omega^0_1 < 1.15 \cdot 10^{15}$eV, which separate the optically thick regime (shadow area) $\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega^0_1, z) > 1$ and optically thin regime $\tau_{\gamma\gamma}(\omega^0_1, z) < 1$. 

\[ \text{Lg } x^0 \]

\[ \text{Lg } z \]

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timescale $\Delta t_\Delta \approx 5 \cdot 10^{-6} M/M_\odot \text{ sec}$ and the energy involved are of the order of $\Delta E = 10^{54} M/M_\odot \text{ ergs}$. It is clear that this is one of the most energetic and most transient phenomena in physics and astrophysics and needs for its correct description such a highly time varying treatment. Our approach in Section 8 is to gain understanding of this process by separating the different components and describing 1) the basic energetic process of an already formed black hole, 2) the vacuum polarization process of an already formed black hole, 3) the basic formula of the gravitational collapse recovering the Tolman-Oppenheimer-Snyder solutions and evolving to the gravitational collapse of charged and uncharged shells. This will allow among others to obtain a better understanding of the role of irreducible mass of the black hole and the maximum blackholic energy extractable from the gravitational collapse. We will as well address some conceptual issues between general relativity and thermodynamics which have been of interest to theoretical physicists in the last forty years. Of course in these brief chapter we will be only recalling some of these essential themes and refer to the literature where in-depth analysis can be found. In Section 8.1 we recall the Kerr–Newman metric and the associated electromagnetic field. We then recall the classical work of Carter (1968) integrating the Hamilton-Jacobi equations for charged particle motions in the above given metric and electromagnetic field. We then recall in Section 8.2 the introduction of the effective potential techniques in order to obtain explicit expression for the trajectory of a particle in a Kerr–Newman geometry, and especially the introduction of the reversible–irreversible transformations which lead then to the Christodoulou-Ruffini mass formula of the black hole

$$M^2 c^4 = \left( M_{ir} c^2 + \frac{c^2 Q^2}{4 G M_{ir}} \right)^2 + \frac{L^2 c^8}{4 G^2 M_{ir}^2},$$

where $M_{ir}$ is the irreducible mass of a black hole, $Q$ and $L$ are its charge and angular momentum. We then recall in article Section 8.3 the positive and negative root states of the Hamilton–Jacobi equations as well as their quantum limit. We finally introduce in Section 8.4 the vacuum polarization process in the Kerr–Newman geometry as derived by Damour and Ruffini (1975) by using a spatially orthonormal tetrad which made the application of the Schwinger formalism in this general relativistic treatment almost straightforward. We then recall in Section 8.5 the definition of a dyadosphere in a Reissner–Nordström geometry, a region extending from the horizon radius

$$r_+ = 1.47 \cdot 10^5 \mu (1 + \sqrt{1 - \xi^2}) \text{ cm}.$$
3.8. The extraction of blackholic energy from a black hole by vacuum polarization processes

out to an outer radius

\[ r^* = \left( \frac{\hbar}{m_e c} \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{GM}{c^2} \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{m_p}{m_e} \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{e}{q_p} \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{Q}{\sqrt{GM}} \right)^{1/2} = \]

\[ = 1.12 \cdot 10^8 \sqrt{\mu \xi} \text{ cm}, \]

where the dimensionless mass and charge parameters \( \mu = \frac{M}{M_\odot} \), \( \xi = \frac{Q}{(M \sqrt{G})} \leq 1 \).

In Section 8.6 of the review the definition of a dyadotorus in a Kerr–Newman metric is recalled. We have focused on the theoretically well-defined problem of pair creation in the electric field of an already formed black hole. Having set the background for the blackholic energy we recall some fundamental features of the dynamical process of the gravitational collapse.

In Section 8.7 we address some specific issues on the dynamical formation of the black hole, recalling first the Oppenheimer-Snyder solution Oppenheimer and Snyder (1939) and then considering its generalization to the charged non-rotating case using the classical work of W. Israel and V. de la Cruz Israel (1966); De la Cruz and Israel (1967). In Section 8.7.1 we recover the classical Tolman-Oppenheimer-Snyder solution in a more transparent way than it is usually done in the literature. In the Section 8.7.2 we are studying using the Israel-de la Cruz formalism the collapse of a charged shell to a black hole for selected cases of a charged shell collapsing on itself or collapsing in an already formed Reissner–Nordström black hole. Such elegant and powerful formalism has allowed to obtain for the first time all the analytic equations for such large variety of possibilities of the process of the gravitational collapse. The theoretical analysis of the collapsing shell considered in the previous section allows to reach a deeper understanding of the mass formula of black holes at least in the case of a Reissner–Nordström black hole. This allows as well to give in Section 8.8 of the review an expression of the irreducible mass of the black hole only in terms of its kinetic energy of the initial rest mass undergoing gravitational collapse and its gravitational energy and kinetic energy \( T_+ \) at the crossing of the black hole horizon \( r_+ \)

\[ M_{ir} = M_0 - \frac{M_0^2}{2r_+} + T_+. \]

Similarly strong, in view of their generality, are the considerations in Section 8.8.2 which indicate a sharp difference between the vacuum polarization process in an overcritical \( E \gg E_c \) and undercritical \( E \ll E_c \) black hole. For \( E \gg E_c \) the electron–positron plasma created will be optically thick with average particle energy 10 MeV. For \( E \ll E_c \) the process of the radiation will be optically thin and the characteristic energy will be of the order of \( 10^{21} \) eV. This argument will be further developed in a forthcoming report. In Section 8.9 we show how the expression of the irreducible mass obtained in the previous Section leads to a theorem establishing an upper limit to 50% of the total
mass energy initially at rest at infinity which can be extracted from any process of gravitational collapse independent of the details. These results also lead to some general considerations which have been sometimes claimed in reconciling general relativity and thermodynamics.

3.9. Thermalization of the mildly relativistic pair plasma

We then turn in Section 10 of the review to the last physical process needed in ascertaining the reaching of equilibrium of an optically thick electron–positron plasma. The average energy of electrons and positrons we illustrate is $0.1 < \epsilon < 10$ MeV. These bounds are necessary from the one hand to have significant amount of electron–positron pairs to make the plasma optically thick, and from the other hand to avoid production of other particles such as muons. As we will see in the next report these are indeed the relevant parameters for the creation of ultrarelativistic regimes to be encountered in pair creation process during the formation phase of a black hole. We then review the problem of evolution of optically thick, nonequilibrium electron–positron plasma, towards an equilibrium state, following Aksenov et al. (2007, 2008). These results have been mainly obtained by two of us (RR and GV) in recent publications and all relevant previous results are also reviewed in this Section 10. We have integrated directly relativistic Boltzmann equations with all binary and triple interactions between electrons, positrons and photons two kinds of equilibrium are found: kinetic and thermal ones. Kinetic equilibrium is obtained on a timescale of few $(\sigma_T n_{\pm}c)^{-1}$, where $\sigma_T$ and $n_{\pm}$ are Thomson’s cross-section and electron–positron concentrations respectively, when detailed balance is established between all binary interactions in plasma. Thermal equilibrium is reached on a timescale of few $(\alpha \sigma_T n_{\pm}c)^{-1}$, when all binary and triple, direct and inverse interactions are balanced. In Section 10.1 basic plasma parameters are illustrated. The computational scheme as well as the discretization procedure are discussed in Section 10.2. Relevant conservation laws are given in Section 10.3. Details on binary interactions, consisting of Compton, Møller and Bhabha scatterings, Dirac pair annihilation and Breit–Wheeler pair creation processes, and triple interactions, consisting of relativistic bremsstrahlung, double Compton process, radiative pair production and three photon annihilation process, are presented in Section 10.5 and 10.6, respectively. In Section 10.5 collisional integrals with binary interactions are computed from first principles, using QED matrix elements. In Section 10.7 Coulomb scattering and the corresponding cutoff in collisional integrals are discussed. Numerical results are presented in Section 10.8 where the time dependence of energy and number densities as well as chemical potential and temperature of electron–positron-
3.10. Plasma oscillations in uniform electric fields

The conditions encountered in the vacuum polarization process around black holes lead to a number of electron–positron pairs created of the order of $10^{60}$ confined in the dyadosphere volume, of the order of a few hundred times to the horizon of the black hole. Under these conditions the plasma is expected to be optically thick and is very different from the nuclear collisions and laser case where pairs are very few and therefore optically thin. We turn then in Section 9, to discuss a new phenomenon: the plasma oscillations, following the dynamical evolution of pair production in an external electric field close to the critical value. In particular, we will examine: (i) the back reaction of pair production on the external electric field; (ii) the screening effect of pairs on the electric field; (iii) the motion of pairs and their interactions with the created photon fields. In review Secs. 9.1 and 9.2, we review semi-classical and kinetic theories describing the plasma oscillations using respectively the Dirac-Maxwell equations and the Boltzmann-Vlasov equations. The electron–positron pairs, after they are created, coherently oscillate back and forth giving origin to an oscillating electric field. The oscillations last for at least a few hundred Compton times. We review the damping due to the quantum decoherence. The energy from collective motion of the classical electric field and pairs flows to the quantum fluctuations of these fields. This process is quantitatively discussed by using the quantum Boltzmann-Vlasov equation in Sections 9.4 and 9.5. The damping due to collision decoherence is quantitatively discussed in Sections 9.6 and 9.7 by using Boltzmann-Vlasov equation with particle collisions terms. This damping determines the energy flows from collective motion of the classical electric field and pairs to the kinetic energy of non-collective motion of particles of these fields due to collisions. In Section 9.7, we particularly address the study of the influence of photon plasma is shown, together with particle spectra. The most interesting result of this analysis is to have differentiate the role of binary and triple interactions. The detailed balance in binary interactions following the classical work of Ehlers Ehlers (1973) leads to a distribution function of the form of the Fermi-Dirac for electron–positron pairs or of the Bose-Einstein for the photons. This is the reason we refer in the text to such conditions as the Ehlers equilibrium conditions. The crucial role of the direct and inverse three-body interactions is well summarized in fig. 10.1, panel A from which it is clear that the inverse three-body interactions are essential in reaching thermal equilibrium. If the latter are neglected, the system deflates to the creation of electron–positron pairs all the way down to the threshold of 0.5MeV. This last result which is referred as the Cavallo–Rees scenario Cavallo and Rees (1978) is simply due to improper neglect of the inverse triple reaction terms (see Appendix 10).
the collision processes $e^+e^- \leftrightarrow \gamma\gamma$ on the plasma oscillations in supercritical electric field Ruffini et al. (2003b). It is shown that the plasma oscillation is mildly affected by a small number of photons creation in the early evolution during a few hundred Compton times (see Fig. 9.4 of the review). In the later evolution of $10^3$–$10^4$ Compton times, the oscillating electric field is damped to its critical value with a large number of photons created. An equipartition of number and energy between electron–positron pairs and photons is reached (see Fig. 9.4). In Section 9.8, we introduce an approach based on the following three equations: the number density continuity equation, the energy-momentum conservation equation and the Maxwell equations. We describe the plasma oscillation for both overcritical electric field $E > E_c$ and undercritical electric field $E < E_c$ Ruffini et al. (2007b). In additional of reviewing the result well known in the literature for $E > E_c$ we review some novel result for the case $E < E_c$. It was traditionally assumed that electron–positron pairs, created by the vacuum polarization process, move as charged particles in external uniform electric field reaching arbitrary large Lorentz factors. It is reviewed how recent computations show the existence of plasma oscillations of the electron–positron pairs also for $E \lesssim E_c$. For both cases we quote the maximum Lorentz factors $\gamma_{\text{max}}$ reached by the electrons and positrons as well as the length of oscillations. Two specific cases are given. For $E_0 = 10E_c$ the length of oscillations $10^{-7}\bar{h}/(m_ec)$, and $E_0 = 0.15E_c$ the length of oscillations $10^7\bar{h}/(m_ec)$. We also review the asymptotic behavior in time, $t \to \infty$, of the plasma oscillations by the phase portrait technique. Finally we review some recent results which differentiate the case $E > E_c$ from the one $E < E_c$ with respect to the creation of the rest mass of the pair versus their kinetic energy. For $E > E_c$ the vacuum polarization process transforms the electromagnetic energy of the field mainly in the rest mass of pairs, with moderate contribution to their kinetic energy.

3.11. Dyadosphere formed in gravitational collapses

In Refs. Ruffini et al. (2003b,a), first initiating with supercritical electric fields on the core surface, we study electron-positron pair production and oscillation together with gravitational collapse. We use the exact solution of Einstein–Maxwell equations describing the gravitational collapse of a thin charged shell. Recall that the region of space–time external to the core is Reissner–Nordström with line element

$$ds^2 = -\alpha^2 dt^2 + \alpha^{-2} dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega^2$$

(3.11.1)

in Schwarzschild like coordinate $(t, r, \theta, \phi)$, where $\alpha^2 = 1 - 2M/r + Q^2/r^2$; $M$ is the total energy of the core as measured at infinity and $Q$ is its total
3.11. Dyadosphere formed in gravitational collapses

Figure 3.2.: In left figure: We plot for $t < 150 \tau_\text{C}$, from the top to the bottom panel: a) electromagnetic field strength; b) electrons energy density; c) electrons number density; d) photons energy density; e) photons number density as functions of time. The right figure: We plot for $t < 7000 \tau_\text{C}$ as the same quantities as in left.

charge. Let us label with $r_0$ and $t_0$ the radial and time–like coordinate of the core surface, and the equation of motion of the core is Israel (1966); De la Cruz and Israel (1967); Bekenstein (1971):

$$\frac{dr_0}{dt_0} = -\frac{\alpha^2(r_0)}{\Omega(r_0)} \sqrt{\Omega^2(r_0) - \alpha^2(r_0)}, \quad \Omega(r_0) = \frac{M}{M_0} - \frac{M_0^2 + Q^2}{2M_0 r_0}, \quad (3.11.2)$$

$M_0$ being the rest mass of the shell. The analytical solutions of Eq. (3.11.2) were found $t_0 = t_0(r_0)$, and the core collapse speed $V^*(r_0)$ as a function of $r_0$ is plotted in Fig. 3.3, where we indicate $V^*_\text{ds} \equiv V^*|_{r_0=r_\text{ds}}$ as the velocity of the core at the Dyadosphere radius $r_\text{ds}$.

We now turn to the pair creation and plasma oscillation taking place in the classical electric and gravitational fields during the gravitational collapse of a charged overcritical stellar core. As already show in Fig. 3.2, (i) the electric field oscillates with lower and lower amplitude around 0; (ii) electrons and positrons oscillates back and forth in the radial direction with ultra relativistic velocity, as result the oscillating charges are confined in a thin shell whose radial dimension is given by the elongation $\Delta l$ of the oscillations. In Fig. 3.4, we plot the elongation $\Delta l$ as a function of time and electron mean velocity $\nu$ as a function of the elongation during the first half period $\Delta t$ of oscillation. This shows precisely the characteristic time $\Delta t$ and size $\Delta l$ of charge confinement due to plasma oscillation.

In the time $\Delta t$ the charge oscillations prevent a macroscopic current from flowing through the surface of the core. Namely in the time $\Delta t$ the core moves
3. Brief description

**Figure 3.3.** Collapse velocity of a charged stellar core of mass $M_0 = 20M_\odot$ as measured by static observers as a function of the radial coordinate of the core surface. Dyadosphere radii for different charge to mass ratios ($\xi = 10^{-3}, 10^{-2}, 10^{-1}$) are indicated in the plot together with the corresponding velocity.

**Figure 3.4.** In left figure: Electrons elongation as function of time in the case $r = r_{ds}/3$. The oscillations are damped in a time of the order of $10^3 - 10^4\tau_C$. The right figure: Electrons mean velocity as a function of the elongation during the first half oscillation. The plot summarize the oscillatory behaviour: as the electrons move, the mean velocity grows up from 0 to the speed of light and then falls down at 0 again.
inwards of
\[ \Delta r^* = V^* \Delta t \gg \Delta l. \]  
\hspace{1cm} (3.11.3)

Since the plasma charges are confined within a region of thickness \( \Delta l \), due to Eq. (3.11.3) no charge “reaches” the surface of the core which can neutralize it and the initial charge of the core remains untouched. For example in the case \( M = 20M_\odot, \xi = 0.1, \) and \( r = \frac{1}{2}r_{ds} \), we have
\[ \Delta l \lesssim 30\lambda_C, \quad \Delta t \sim 10^3\tau_C, \quad V^* \sim 0.3c, \]  
\hspace{1cm} (3.11.4)

and \( \Delta r^* \gg \Delta l \). We conclude that the core is not discharged or, in other words, the electric charge of the core is stable against vacuum polarization and electric field \( E = Q/r_0^2 \) is amplified during the gravitational collapse. As a consequence, an enormous amount (\( N \sim Qr_{ds}/e\lambda_C \)) of pairs is left behind the collapsing core and Dyadosphere Ruffini and Xue (2008a); Preparata et al. (1998, 2003) is formed.

Recently, we study this pair-production process in a neutral collapsing core, rather than a charged collapsing core, as described above. Neutral stellar cores at or over nuclear densities are described by positive charged baryon cores and negative charged electron gas since they possess different masses and interactions (equations of state). In static case, the equilibrium configuration of positive charged baryon cores and negative charged electron gas described by Thomas-Fermi equation shows an overcritical electric field on the surface of baryon core. Based on such an initial configuration and a simplified model of spherically collapsing cores, we approximately integrate the Einstein-Maxwell equations and the equations for the particle number and energy-momentum conservations. It is shown that in gravitational core-collapse, such an electric field dynamically evolves in the space-time and electron-positron pairs are produced and gravitational energy is converted to electron-positron energy. This important result has been published in Physics Review D. The details on this topic can be found in Appendix C.

The \( e^+e^- \) pairs generated by the vacuum polarization process around the core are entangled in the electromagnetic field Ruffini et al. (2003a), and thermalize in an electron–positron–photon plasma on a time scale \( \sim 10^4\tau_C \) Ruffini et al. (2003b) (see Fig. 3.2). As soon as the thermalization has occurred, the hydrodynamic expansion of this electrically neutral plasma starts Ruffini et al. (1999, 2000). While the temporal evolution of the \( e^+e^-\gamma \) plasma takes place, the gravitationally collapsing core moves inwards, giving rise to a further amplified supercritical field, which in turn generates a larger amount of \( e^+e^- \) pairs leading to a yet higher temperature in the newly formed \( e^+e^-\gamma \) plasma. We report progress in this theoretically challenging process which is marked by distinctive and precise quantum and general relativistic effects. As presented in Ref. Ruffini et al. (2003a): we follow the dynamical phase of the
formation of Dyadosphere and of the asymptotic approach to the horizon by examining the time varying process at the surface of the gravitationally collapsing core. The details on this topic can be found in Appendix A

3. Brief description

3.12. Plasma oscillations and radiation in nonuniform electric fields

We also study electron-positron pair oscillation in spatially inhomogeneous and bound electric fields by integrating the equations of energy-momentum and particle-number conservations and Maxwell equations. The space and time evolutions of the pair-induced electric field, electric charge- and current-densities are calculated. The results show non-vanishing electric charge-density and the propagation of pair-induced electric fields, that are different from the case of homogeneous and unbound electric fields. The space and time variations of pair-induced electric charges and currents emit an electromagnetic radiation. We obtain the narrow spectrum and intensity of this radiation, whose peak $\omega_{\text{peak}}$ locates in the region around 4 keV for electric field strength $\sim E_c$. We discuss their relevances to both the laboratory experiments for electron and positron pair-productions and the astrophysical observations of compact stars with an electromagnetic structure.

The origin of electron-positron pairs being created strong electric field and their oscillations has been considered in Ruffini et al. (2007b). There it was shown that plasma oscillations occur not only for overcritical electric field, but also for undercritical electric field, provided the electric field is maintained on spatial distances larger than the distance of oscillations determined explicitly in Ruffini et al. (2007b).

In the paper by Han et al. (2010) the spectrum of electromagnetic radiation seen by far observer for initial phase of oscillations has been computed. It was shown there that the spectrum contain a narrow feature which corresponds to the frequency of plasma oscillations. We revisited the approach of Ruffini et al. (2007b) and showed that for the case of uniform external electric field it is possible to reduce the system of four first order ordinary differential equations governing the dynamics of particle number density, energy density, momentum and electric field to just one second order equation.

Then in the paper by Han et al. (2010); Benedetti et al. (2011) we analyzed the frequency of oscillations, and found that the frequency of oscillations coincides up to a factor close to unity with the plasma frequency, which is strongly time dependent due to pair creation process. Analytical arguments suggest that the frequency of oscillations should asymptotically reach the plasma frequency, and this fact has been demonstrated. The results of this work allow simple estimation of the frequency of plasma oscillations, and then of the spectrum of electromagnetic radiation generated by these oscillations.
3.13. Electron and positron pair-production in gravitational collapses

We attempt to study possible electric processes in the dynamical perturbations of neutral stellar cores. These dynamical perturbations can be caused by either the gravitational collapse or pulsation of neutral stellar cores. The basic equations are the Einstein-Maxwell equations and those governing the particle number and energy-momentum conservation

\[
\begin{align*}
(\bar{n}_e U^\mu_e)_\nu &= 0, \\
G_{\mu\nu} &= -8\pi G (T_{\mu\nu} + T^{em}_{\mu\nu}), \\
(T^\nu_\mu)_\nu &= -F_{\mu\nu} J^\nu, \\
F^{\mu\nu}_{\nu} &= 4\pi J^\mu,
\end{align*}
\]

in which the Einstein tensor \( G_{\mu\nu} \), the electromagnetic field \( F^{\mu\nu} \) (satisfying \( F_{[\alpha\beta,\gamma]} = 0 \) and its energy-momentum tensor \( T^{em}_{\mu\nu} \) appear; \( U^\nu_e \) and \( \bar{n}_e \) are, respectively, the four velocities and proper number-densities of the electrons and baryons. The electric current density is

\[
J^\mu = e\bar{n}_p U^\mu_B - e\bar{n}_e U^\mu_e,
\]

where \( \bar{n}_p \) is the proper number-density of the positively charged baryons. The energy-momentum tensor \( T^{\mu\nu} = T^{e}_{\mu\nu} + T^{B}_{\mu\nu} \) is taken to be that of two simple perfect fluids representing the electrons and the baryons, each of the form

\[
T^{e}_{\mu\nu} = \bar{p}_e S^{e}_{\mu\nu} + (\bar{\rho}_e + \bar{p}_e) U^\mu_e U^\nu_e,
\]

where \( \bar{\rho}_e, (r, t) \) and \( \bar{p}_e, (r, t) \) are the respective proper energy densities and pressures. Baryon fluid and electron fluid are separately described for the reason that in addition to baryons being much more massive than electrons, the EOS of baryons \( \bar{p}_B = \bar{\rho}_B (\bar{\rho}_B) \) is very different from the electron one \( \bar{\rho}_e = \bar{\rho}_e (\bar{\rho}_e) \) due to the strong interaction. Therefore, in the dynamical perturbations of neutral stellar cores, one should not expect that the space-time evolution of number density, energy density, four velocity, and pressure of baryon fluid be identical to the space-time evolution of counterparts of electron fluid. The difference of space-time evolutions of two fluids results in the electric current \( J^\mu \) and field \( F^{\mu\nu} \), possibly leading to some electric processes. In a simplified model for the dynamical perturbations of neutral stellar cores, we approximately study possible electric processes by assuming...
that the equilibrium configurations of neutral stellar cores are initial configurations.

As a result, we find that total electric field, electron number density, energy density, and pressure oscillate around their equilibrium configurations. These oscillations with frequency $\omega = \tau_{\text{osci}}^{-1} \sim 1.5 m_e$ around the equilibrium configuration take place in a thin layer of a few Compton lengths around the boundary of baryon core, which undergo the dynamical perturbations caused by the gravitational collapse or pulsation. Suppose that the dynamical perturbation of the baryon core is caused by either the gravitational collapse or pulsation of the baryon core, that gains the gravitational energy. Then, in this oscillating process, energy transforms from the dynamical perturbation of the baryon core to the electron fluid via an oscillating electric field. This can been seen from the energy conservation along a flow line of the electron fluid for $v_e \neq v_p$

$$U_e^\mu (T^e)_{\mu \nu} = e\bar{n}_p F_{\mu \nu} U_e^\mu U_B^\nu = e\bar{n}_p \gamma_e \gamma_B (v_p - v_e) g_{\nu \tau} E.$$  \hspace{2cm} (3.13.4)

The energy densities of the oscillating electric field and electron fluid are converted from one to another in the oscillating process with frequencies $\omega \sim \tau_{\text{osci}}^{-1} \sim 1.5 m_e$ around the equilibrium configuration. Oscillating electric fields $E(r, t) > E_{\text{eq}}(r)$, this leads to electron-positron pair production in strong electric fields and converts electric energy into the energy of electron-positron pairs, provided the pair-production rate $\tau_{\text{pair}}^{-1} \approx 6.6 m_e$ is faster than the oscillating frequency $\omega = \tau_{\text{osci}}^{-1}$.

It is an assumption that the gravitationally collapsing process is represented by the sequence of events: the baryon core starts to collapse from rest by gaining gravitational energy, the increasing Coulomb energy results in decreasing kinetic energy and slowing down the collapse process, the electric processes mentioned above convert the Coulomb energy into the radiative energy of electron-positron pairs, and as a result the baryon core restarts to accelerate the collapse process by further gaining gravitational energy. This indicates that in the gravitationally collapsing process, the gravitational energy must be partly converted into the radiative energy of electron-positron pairs. By summing over all events in the sequence of the gravitationally collapsing process, we approximately estimate the total number and energy of electron-positron pairs produced in the range $R_c \sim 5 \times 10^5 - 10^7 \text{cm}$: from $10^{56} - 10^{57}$ and $10^{52} - 10^{53}$ erg to $10^{55} - 10^{56}$ and $10^{51} - 10^{52}$ erg for different ratios of charged and neutral baryon numbers. These electron-positron pairs undergo the plasma oscillation in strong electric fields and annihilate to photons to form a neutral plasma of photons and electron-positron pairs Ruffini et al. (2003b,a). This is reminiscent of the vacuum polarization of a charged black hole Damour and Ruffini (1975); Cherubini et al. (2009) and the Dyadosphere supposed to be dynamically created during gravitational collapse in
3.13. Electron and positron pair-production in gravitational collapses

Refs. Ruffini and Xue (2008a); Preparata et al. (1998, 2003). For the details of this part, see Appendix C.
4. Publications (before 2005)


This article proved to be popular and was written with the intention of communicating some of the major processes made in understanding the final configurations of collapsed stars to the largest possible audience. In this article, the authors summarized the results of their students’ work with particular emphasis on the work of D. Christodoulou (graduate student of R. Ruffini’s at that time) together with some of their most significant new results. Moreover, it was emphasized that of all the procedures for identifying a collapsed object in space at a great distance, the most promising consisted of analyzing a close binary system in which one member is a normal star and the other a black hole. The X–ray emission associated with the transfer of material from the normal star to the collapsed object would then be of greatest importance in determining the properties of the collapsed object. This article has been reprinted many times and has been translated into many languages (Japanese, Russian, and Greek, among others). It has created much interest in the final configuration of stars after the endpoint of their thermonuclear evolution. The analysis of the possible processes leading to the formation of a black hole, via either a one–step process of a multistep process, was also presented for the first time in this article.


A formula is derived for the mass of a black hole as a function of its “irreducible mass,” its angular momentum, and its charge. It is shown that 50% of the mass of an extreme charged black hole can be converted into energy as contrasted with 29% for an extreme rotating black hole.


Following the classical approach of Sauter, of Heisenberg and Euler and of Schwinger the process of vacuum polarization in the field of a “bare” Kerr-Newman geometry is studied. The value of the critical strength of the electromagnetic fields is given together with an analysis of the feedback of the discharge on the geometry. The relevance of this analysis for current astrophysical observations is mentioned.
4. J. Ferreirinho, R. Ruffini and L. Stella, “On the relativistic Thomas-Fermi model”, Phys. Lett. B 91, (1980) 314. The relativistic generalization of the Thomas-Fermi model of the atom is derived. It approaches the usual nonrelativistic equation in the limit \( Z \ll Z_{\text{crit}} \), where \( Z \) is the total number of electrons of the atom and \( Z_{\text{crit}} = (3\pi/4)^{1/2} \alpha^{-3/2} \) and \( \alpha \) is the fine structure constant. The new equation leads to the breakdown of scaling laws and to the appearance of a critical charge, purely as a consequence of relativistic effects. These results are compared and contrasted with those corresponding to \( N \) self-gravitating degenerate relativistic fermions, which for \( N \approx N_{\text{crit}} = (3\pi/4)^{1/2}(m/m_p)^3 \) give rise to the concept of a critical mass against gravitational collapse. Here \( m \) is the mass of the fermion and \( m_p = (\hbar c/G)^{1/2} \) is the Planck mass.


6. G. Preparata, R. Ruffini and S.-S. Xue, “The dyadosphere of black holes and gamma-ray bursts”, Astron. Astroph. Lett. 337 (1998) L3. The “dyadosphere” has been defined (Ruffini, Preparata et al.) as the region outside the horizon of a black hole endowed with an electromagnetic field (abbreviated to EMBH for “electromagnetic black hole”) where the electromagnetic field exceeds the critical value, predicted by Heisenberg & Euler for \( e^+e^- \) pair production. In a very short time (\( \sim O(\hbar/(mc^2)) \)), a very large number of pairs is created there. We here give limits on the EMBH parameters leading to a Dyadosphere for \( 10M_\odot \) and \( 10^5M_\odot \) EMBH’s, and give as well the pair densities as functions of the radial coordinate. We here assume that the pairs reach thermodynamic equilibrium with a photon gas and estimate the average energy per pair as a function of the EMBH mass. These data give the initial conditions for the analysis of an enormous pair-electromagnetic-pulse or “P.E.M. pulse” which naturally leads to relativistic expansion. Basic energy requirements for gamma ray bursts (GRB), including GRB971214 recently observed at \( z = 3.4 \), can be accounted for by processes occurring in the dyadosphere. In this letter we do not address the problem of forming either the EMBH or the dyadosphere: we establish some inequalities which must be satisfied during their formation process.

7. R. Ruffini, “On the dyadosphere of black holes”, at the XLIXth Yamada Conference on “Black Holes and High-Energy Astrophysics”, H. Sato Ed., Univ. Acad. Press, Tokyo, 1998. The “dyadosphere” (from the Greek word “duas-duados” for pairs) is here defined as the region outside the horizon of a black hole endowed with an electromagnetic field (abbreviated to EMBH for “electromagnetic black hole”)
where the electromagnetic field exceeds the critical value, predicted by Heisenberg and Euler for electron-positron pair production. In a very short time, a very large number of pairs is created there. I give limits on the EMBH parameters leading to a Dyadosphere for 10 solar mass and 10000 solar mass EMBH’s, and give as well the pair densities as functions of the radial coordinate. These data give the initial conditions for the analysis of an enormous pair-electromagnetic-pulse or “PEM-pulse” which naturally leads to relativistic expansion. Basic energy requirements for gamma ray bursts (GRB), including GRB971214 recently observed at $z=3.4$, can be accounted for by processes occurring in the dyadosphere.


Starting from a nonequilibrium configuration we analyse the essential role of the direct and the inverse binary and triple interactions in reaching an asymptotic thermal equilibrium in a homogeneous isotropic electron-positron-photon plasma. We focus on energies in the range 0.1–10 MeV. We numerically integrate the integro-partial differential relativistic Boltzmann equation with the exact QED collisional integrals taking into account all binary and triple interactions in the plasma. We show that first, when detailed balance is reached for all binary interactions on a timescale $t_k \lesssim 10^{-14}$ sec, photons and electron-positron pairs establish kinetic equilibrium. Successively, when triple interactions fulfill the detailed balance on a timescale $t_{eq} \lesssim 10^{-12}$ sec, the plasma reaches thermal equilibrium. It is shown that neglecting the inverse triple interactions prevents reaching thermal equilibrium. Our results obtained in the theoretical physics domain also find application in astrophysics and cosmology.


Using hydrodynamic computer codes, we study the possible patterns of relativistic expansion of an enormous pair-electromagnetic-pulse (P.E.M. pulse); a hot, high density plasma composed of photons, electron-positron pairs and baryons deposited near a charged black hole (EMBH). On the bases of baryon-loading and energy conservation, we study the bulk Lorentz factor of expansion of the P.E.M. pulse by both numerical and analytical methods.


The interaction of an expanding Pair-Electromagnetic pulse (PEM pulse) with a shell of baryonic matter surrounding a Black Hole with electromagnetic struc-
The dyadosphere, the region in which a super critical field exists for the creation of electron-positron pairs, is here considered in the special case of a Reissner-Nordstrom geometry. The interaction of the PEM pulse with the baryonic matter is described using a simplified model of a slab of constant thickness in the laboratory frame (constant-thickness approximation) as well as performing the integration of the general relativistic hydrodynamical equations. The validation of the constant-thickness approximation, already presented in a previous paper Ruffini, et al. (1999) for a PEM pulse in vacuum, is here generalized to the presence of baryonic matter. It is found that for a baryonic shell of mass-energy less than 1% of the total energy of the dyadosphere, the constant-thickness approximation is in excellent agreement with full general relativistic computations. The approximation breaks down for larger values of the baryonic shell mass, however such cases are of less interest for observed Gamma Ray Bursts (GRBs). On the basis of numerical computations of the slab model for PEM pulses, we describe (i) the properties of relativistic evolution of a PEM pulse colliding with a baryonic shell; (ii) the details of the expected emission energy and observed temperature of the associated GRBs for a given value of the EMBH mass; $10^3$ solar masses, and for baryonic mass-energies in the range $10^{-8}$ to $10^{-2}$ the total energy of the dyadosphere.


We derive the screen factor for the radiation flux from an optically thick plasma of electron-positron pairs and photons, created by vacuum polarization process around a black hole endowed with electromagnetic structure.


In the framework of the model that uses black holes endowed with electromagnetic structure (EMBH) as the energy source, we study how an elementary spike appears to the detectors. We consider the simplest possible case of a pulse produced by a pure $e^+e^-$ pair-electro-magnetic plasma, the PEM pulse, in the absence of any baryonic matter. The resulting time profiles show a Fast-Rise-Exponential-Decay shape, followed by a power-law tail. This is obtained without any special fitting procedure, but only by fixing the energetics of the process taking place in a given EMBH of selected mass, varying in the range from $10^3$ to $10^5 M_\odot$ and considering the relativistic effects to be expected in an electron-positron plasma gradually reaching transparency. Special attention is given to the contributions from all regimes with Lorentz $\gamma$ factor varying from $\gamma = 1$ to $\gamma = 10^4$ in a few hundreds of the PEM pulse travel time. Although the main goal of this paper is to obtain the elementary spike intensity as a function...
of the arrival time, and its observed duration, some qualitative considerations are also presented regarding the expected spectrum and on its departure from the thermal one. The results of this paper will be comparable, when data will become available, with a subfamily of particularly short GRBs not followed by any afterglow. They can also be propedeutical to the study of longer bursts in presence of baryonic matter currently observed in GRBs.


The mass-energy formula for a black hole endowed with electromagnetic structure (EMBH) is clarified for the nonrotating case. The irreducible mass $M_{irr}$ is found to be independent of the electromagnetic field and explicitly expressible as a function of the rest mass, the gravitational energy and the kinetic energy of the collapsing matter at the horizon. The electromagnetic energy is distributed throughout the entire region extending from the horizon of the EMBH to infinity. We discuss two conceptually different mechanisms of energy extraction occurring respectively in an EMBH with electromagnetic fields smaller and larger than the critical field for vacuum polarization. For a subcritical EMBH the energy extraction mechanism involves a sequence of discrete elementary processes implying the decay of a particle into two oppositely charged particles. For a supercritical EMBH an alternative mechanism is at work involving an electron-positron plasma created by vacuum polarization. The energetics of these mechanisms as well as the definition of the spatial regions in which they can occur are given. The physical implementations of these ideas are outlined for ultrahigh energy cosmic rays UHECR) and gamma ray bursts (GRBs).


A new exact solution of the Einstein-Maxwell equations for the gravitational collapse of a shell of matter in an already formed black hole is given. Both the shell and the black hole are endowed with electromagnetic structure and are assumed spherically symmetric. Implications for current research are outlined.


We describe the creation and evolution of electron-positron pairs in a strong electric field as well as the pairs annihilation into photons. The formalism is based on generalized Vlasov equations, which are numerically integrated. We recover previous results about the oscillations of the charges, discuss the electric field screening and the relaxation of the system to a thermal equilibrium configuration. The timescale of the thermalization is estimated to be $\sim 10^3 - 10^4 \hbar / m_e c^2$. 

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We describe electron-positron pairs creation around an electrically charged star core collapsing to an electromagnetic black hole (EMBH), as well as pairs annihilation into photons. We use the kinetic Vlasov equation formalism for the pairs and photons and show that a regime of plasma oscillations is established around the core. As a byproduct of our analysis we can provide an estimate for the thermalization time scale.


Basic energy requirements of Gamma Ray Burst (GRB) sources can be easily accounted for by a pair creation process occurring in the “Dyadosphere” of a Black Hole endowed with an electromagnetic field (abbreviated to EMBH for “electromagnetic Black Hole”). This includes the recent observations of GRB971214 by Kulkarni et al. The “Dyadosphere” is defined as the region outside the horizon of an EMBH where the electromagnetic field exceeds the critical value for $e^+e^-$ pair production. In a very short time $\sim O(\bar{\hbar}m^2c^2)$, very large numbers of pairs are created there. Further evolution then leads naturally to a relativistically expanding pair-electromagnetic-pulse (PEM-pulse). Specific examples of Dyadosphere parameters are given for $10^3$ and $10^5$ solar mass EMBH’s. This process does occur for EMBH with charge-to-mass ratio larger than $2.210^{-5}$ and strictly smaller than one. From a fundamental point of view, this process represents the first mechanism proved capable of extracting large amounts of energy from a Black Hole with an extremely high efficiency (close to 100%).


The mass–energy formula of black holes implies that up to 50% of the energy can be extracted from a static black hole. Such a result is reexamined using the recently established analytic formulas for the collapse of a shell and expression for the irreducible mass of a static black hole. It is shown that the efficiency of energy extraction process during the formation of the black hole is linked in an essential way to the gravitational binding energy, the formation of the horizon and the reduction of the kinetic energy of implosion. Here a maximum efficiency of 50% in the extraction of the mass energy is shown to be generally attainable in the collapse of a spherically symmetric shell: surprisingly this result holds as well in the two limiting cases of the Schwarzschild and extreme
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Reissner-Nordström space-times. Moreover, the analytic expression recently found for the implosion of a spherical shell onto an already formed black hole leads to a new exact analytic expression for the energy extraction which results in an efficiency strictly less than 100% for any physical implementable process. There appears to be no incompatibility between General Relativity and Thermodynamics at this classical level.


We present theoretical predictions for the spectral, temporal and intensity signatures of the electromagnetic radiation emitted during the process of the gravitational collapse of a stellar core to a black hole, during which electromagnetic field strengths rise over the critical value for $e^+e^-$ pair creation. The last phases of this gravitational collapse are studied, leading to the formation of a black hole with a subcritical electromagnetic field, likely with zero charge, and an outgoing pulse of initially optically thick $e^+e^-$-photon plasma. Such a pulse reaches transparency at Lorentz gamma factors of $10^2$–$10^4$. We find a clear signature in the outgoing electromagnetic signal, drifting from a soft to a hard spectrum, on very precise time-scales and with a very specific intensity modulation. The relevance of these theoretical results for the understanding of short gamma-ray bursts is outlined.


We present the properties of spectrum of radiation emitted during gravitational collapse in which electromagnetic field strengths rise over the critical value for $e^+e^-$ pair creation. A drift from soft to a hard energy and a high energy cut off have been found; a comparison with a pure black body spectrum is outlined.


From the Euler-Heisenberg formula we calculate the exact real part of the one-loop effective Lagrangian of Quantum Electrodynamics in a constant electromagnetic field, and determine its strong-field limit.


We present the geometrical properties of the region where vacuum polarization precess occur in the Kerr-Newman space time. We find that the shape of the region can be ellipsoid-like or torus-like depending on the charge of the black hole.

Treating the production of electron and positron pairs in vacuum as quantum tunneling, at the semiclassical level $O(\hbar)$, we derive a general expression, both exponential and pre-exponential factors, of the pair-production rate in nonuniform electric fields varying only in one direction. In particularly we discuss the expression for the case when produced electrons (or positrons) fill into bound states of electric potentials with discrete spectra of energy-level crossings. This expression is applied to the examples of the confined field $E(z) \neq 0, |z| \lesssim \ell$, half-confined field $E(z) \neq 0, z \gtrsim 0$, and linear increasing field $E(z) \sim z$, as well as the Coulomb field $E(r) = eZ/r^2$ for a nucleus with finite size $r_n$ and large $Z \gg 1$.


We evidence the existence of plasma oscillations of electrons-positron pairs created by the vacuum polarization in an uniform electric field with $E < E_c$. Our general treatment, encompassing also the traditional, well studied case of $E > E_c$, shows the existence in both cases of a maximum Lorentz factor acquired by electrons and positrons and allows determination of the a maximal length of oscillation. We quantitatively estimate how plasma oscillations reduce the rate of pair creation and increase the time scale of the pair production. These results are particularly relevant in view of the experimental progress in approaching the field strengths $E < E_c$.


Starting from a nonequilibrium configuration we analyse the essential role of the direct and the inverse binary and triple interactions in reaching an asymptotic thermal equilibrium in a homogeneous isotropic electron-positron-photon plasma. We focus on energies in the range 0.1–10 MeV. We numerically integrate the integro-partial differential relativistic Boltzmann equation with the exact QED collisional integrals taking into account all binary and triple interactions in the plasma. We show that first, when detailed balance is reached for all binary interactions on a timescale $t_k \lesssim 10^{-14}$sec, photons and electron-positron pairs establish kinetic equilibrium. Successively, when triple interactions fulfill the detailed balance on a timescale $t_{eq} \lesssim 10^{-12}$sec, the plasma reaches thermal equilibrium. It is shown that neglecting the inverse triple interactions prevents reaching thermal equilibrium. Our results obtained in the theoretical physics domain also find application in astrophysics and cosmology.

A general approach to analyze the electrodynamics of nuclear matter in bulk is presented using the relativistic Thomas-Fermi equation generalizing to the case of $N \simeq (m_{\text{Planck}}/m_n)^3$ nucleons of mass $m_n$ the approach well tested in very heavy nuclei ($Z \simeq 10^6$). Particular attention is given to implement the condition of charge neutrality globally on the entire configuration, versus the one usually adopted on a microscopic scale. As the limit $N \simeq (m_{\text{Planck}}/m_n)^3$ is approached the penetration of electrons inside the core increases and a relatively small tail of electrons persists leading to a significant electron density outside the core. Within a region of $10^2$ electron Compton wavelength near the core surface electric fields close to the critical value for pair creation by vacuum polarization effect develop. These results can have important consequences on the understanding of physical process in neutron stars structures as well as on the initial conditions leading to the process of gravitational collapse to a black hole.


Using the relativistic Thomas-Fermi equation, we present an analytic treatment of the electrodynamic properties of nuclear matter in bulk. Following the works of Migdal and Popov we generalize to the case of a massive core with the mass number $A \sim 10^{57}$ the analytic approach well tested in very heavy nuclei with $A \sim 10^6$. Attention is given to implement the condition of charge neutrality globally on the entire configuration, versus the one usually adopted on a microscopic scale. It is confirmed that also in this limit $A$, an electric field develops near the core surface of magnitude close to the critical value of vacuum polarization. It is shown that such a configuration is energetically favorable with respect to the one which obeys local charge neutrality. These results can have important consequences on the understanding of the physical process in neutron stars as well as on the initial conditions leading to the process of gravitational collapse to a black hole.


Based on the Thomas-Fermi approach, we describe and distinguish the electron distributions around extended nuclear cores: (i) in the case that cores are neutral for electrons bound by protons inside cores and proton and electron numbers are the same; (ii) in the case that super charged cores are bare, electrons (positrons) produced by vacuum polarization are bound by (fly into) cores (infinity).

We first recall the concept of Dyadosphere (electron-positron-photon plasma around a formed black holes) and its motivation, and recall on (i) the Dirac process: annihilation of electron-positron pairs to photons; (ii) the Breit-Wheeler process: production of electron-positron pairs by photons with the energy larger than electron-positron mass threshold; the Sauter-Euler-Heisenberg effective Lagrangian and rate for the process of electron-positron production in a constant electric field. We present a general formula for the pair-production rate in the semi-classical treatment of quantum mechanical tunneling. We also present in the Quantum Electro-Dynamics framework, the calculations of the Schwinger rate and effective Lagrangian for constant electromagnetic fields. We give a review on the electron-positron plasma oscillation in constant electric fields, and its interaction with photons leading to energy and number equipartition of photons, electrons and positrons. The possibility of creating an overcritical field in astrophysical condition is pointed out. We present the discussions and calculations on (i) energy extraction from gravitational collapse; (ii) the formation of Dyadosphere in gravitational collapsing process, and (iii) its hydrodynamical expansion in Reissner Nordström geometry. We calculate the spectrum and flux of photon radiation at the point of transparency, and make predictions for short Gamma-Ray Bursts.


We consider neutron stars composed by, (1) a core of degenerate neutrons, protons, and electrons above nuclear density; (2) an inner crust of nuclei in a gas of neutrons and electrons; and (3) an outer crust of nuclei in a gas of electrons. We use for the strong interaction model for the baryonic matter in the core an equation of state based on the phenomenological Weizsacker mass formula, and to determine the properties of the inner and the outer crust below nuclear saturation density we adopt the well-known equation of state of Baym–Bethe–Pethick. The integration of the Einstein–Maxwell equations is carried out under the constraints of β-equilibrium and global charge neutrality. We obtain baryon densities that sharply go to zero at nuclear density and electron densities matching smoothly the electron component of the crust. We show that a family of equilibrium configurations exists fulfilling overall neutrality and characterized by a non-trivial electrodynamical structure at the interface between the core and the crust. We find that the electric field is overcritical and that the thickness of the transition surface–shell separating core and crust is of the order of the electron Compton wavelength.

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The existence of electric fields close to their critical value \( E_c = \frac{m^2 c^3}{(e \hbar)} \) has been proved for massive cores of \( 10^7 \) up to \( 10^{57} \) nucleons using a proton distribution of constant density and a sharp step function at its boundary. We explore the modifications of this effect by considering a smoother density profile with a proton distribution fulfilling a Woods-Saxon dependence. The occurrence of a critical field has been confirmed. We discuss how the location of the maximum of the electric field as well as its magnitude is modified by the smoother distribution.


We determine theoretically the relation between the total number of protons \( N_p \) and the mass number \( A \) (the charge to mass ratio) of nuclei and neutron cores with the model recently proposed by Ruffini et al. (2007) and we compare it with other \( N_p \) versus \( A \) relations: the empirical one, related to the Periodic Table, and the semi-empirical relation, obtained by minimizing the Weizsäcker mass formula. We find that there is a very good agreement between all the relations for values of \( A \) typical of nuclei, with differences of the order of percent. Our relation and the semi-empirical one are in agreement up to \( A \approx 10^4 \) for higher values, we find that the two relations differ. We interpret the different behavior of our theoretical relation as a result of the penetration of electrons (initially confined in an external shell) inside the core, that becomes more and more important by increasing \( A \); these effects are not taken into account in the semi-empirical mass-formula.


We analyze the properties of solutions of the relativistic Thomas-Fermi equation for globally neutral cores with radius of the order of \( R \approx 10 \) Km, at constant densities around the nuclear density. By using numerical techniques as well as well tested analytic procedures developed in the study of heavy ions, we confirm the existence of an electric field close to the critical value \( E_c = \frac{m^2 c^3}{e \hbar} \) in a shell \( \Delta R \approx 10^4 \hbar / m_n c \) near the core surface. For a core of \( R \approx 10 \) Km the difference in binding energy reaches \( 10^{49} \) ergs. These results can be of interest for the understanding of very heavy nuclei as well as physics of neutron stars, their formation processes and further gravitational collapse to a black hole.


We study the possibility of having a strong electric field (E) in Neutron Stars. We consider a system composed by a core of degenerate relativistic electrons, protons and neutrons, surrounded by an oppositely charged leptonic component and show that at the core surface it is possible to have values of E of the order of the critical value for electron-positron pair creation, depending on the mass density of the system. We also describe Neutron Stars in general relativity, considering a system composed by the core and an additional component: a crust of white dwarf-like material. We study the characteristics of the crust, in particular we calculate its mass $M_{\text{crust}}$. We propose that, when the mass density of the star increases, the core undergoes the process of gravitational collapse to a black hole, leaving the crust as a remnant; we compare $M_{\text{crust}}$ with the mass of the baryonic remnant considered in the fireshell model of GRBs and find that their values are compatible.


The role of the Thomas-Fermi approach in Neutron Star matter cores is presented and discussed with special attention to solutions globally neutral and not fulfilling the traditional condition of local charge neutrality. A new stable and energetically favorable configuration is found. This new solution can be of relevance in understanding unsolved issues of the gravitational collapse processes and their energetics.


Classical and semi-classical energy states of relativistic electrons bounded by a massive and charged core with the charge-mass-radio $Q/M$ and macroscopic radius $R_c$ are discussed. We show that the energies of semi-classical (bound) states can be much smaller than the negative electron mass-energy ($-mc^2$), and energy-level crossing to negative energy continuum occurs. Electron-positron pair production takes place by quantum tunneling, if these bound states are not occupied. Electrons fill into these bound states and positrons go to infinity. We explicitly calculate the rate of pair-production, and compare it with the rates of electron-positron production by the Sauter-Euler-Heisenberg-Schwinger in a constant electric field. In addition, the pair-production rate for the electro-gravitational balance ratio $Q/M = 10^{-19}$ is much larger than the pair-production rate due to the Hawking processes.

It is known that strong electric fields produce electron and positron pairs from the vacuum, and due to the back-reaction these pairs oscillate back and forth coherently with the alternating electric fields in time. We study this phenomenon in spatially inhomogeneous and bound electric fields by integrating the equations of energy-momentum and particle-number conservations and Maxwell equations. The space and time evolutions of the pair-induced electric field, electric charge- and current-densities are calculated. The results show non-vanishing electric charge-density and the propagation of pair-induced electric fields, that are different from the case of homogeneous and unbound electric fields. The space and time variations of pair-induced electric charges and currents emit an electromagnetic radiation. We obtain the narrow spectrum and intensity of this radiation, whose peak $\omega_{\text{peak}}$ locates in the region around 4 keV for electric field strength $\sim E_c$. We discuss their relevances to both the laboratory experiments for electron and positron pair-productions and the astrophysical observations of compact stars with an electromagnetic structure.


We study the frequency of the plasma oscillations of electron-positron pairs created by the vacuum polarization in an uniform electric field with strength $E$ in the range $0.2 E_c < E < 10 E_c$. Following the approach adopted in [1] we work out one second order ordinary differential equation for a variable related to the velocity from which we can recover the classical plasma oscillation equation when $E \rightarrow 0$. Thereby, we focus our attention on its evolution in time studying how this oscillation frequency approaches the plasma frequency. The time-scale needed to approach to the plasma frequency and the power spectrum of these oscillations are computed. The characteristic frequency of the power spectrum is determined uniquely from the initial value of the electric field strength. The effects of plasma degeneracy and pair annihilation are discussed.


We present the self-consistent treatment of the simplest, nontrivial, self-gravitating system of degenerate neutrons, protons and electrons in $\beta$-equilibrium within relativistic quantum statistics and the Einstein-Maxwell equations. The impossibility of imposing the condition of local charge neutrality on such systems is

proved, consequently overcoming the traditional Tolman-Oppenheimer-Volkoff treatment. We emphasize the crucial role of imposing the constancy of the generalized Fermi energies. A new approach based on the coupled system of the general relativistic Thomas-Fermi-Einstein-Maxwell equations is presented and solved. We obtain an explicit solution fulfilling global and not local charge neutrality by solving a sophisticated eigenvalue problem of the general relativistic Thomas-Fermi equation. The value of the Coulomb potential at the center of the configuration is $eV(0) \simeq m_\pi c^2$ and the system is intrinsically stable against Coulomb repulsion in the proton component. This approach is necessary, but not sufficient, when strong interactions are introduced.


We address the description of neutron-proton-electron degenerate matter in beta equilibrium subjected to compression both in the case of confined nucleons into a nucleus as well as in the case of deconfined nucleons. We follow a step-by-step generalization of the classical Thomas-Fermi model to special and general relativistic regimes, which leads to a unified treatment of beta equilibrated neutron-proton-electron degenerate matter applicable from the case of nuclei all the way up to the case of white-dwarfs and neutron stars. New gravito-electrodynamical effects, missed in the traditional approach for the description of neutron star configurations, are found as a consequence of the new set of general relativistic equilibrium equations.


The recent formulation of the relativistic Thomas-Fermi model within the Feynman-Metropolis-Teller theory for compressed atoms is applied to the study of general relativistic white dwarf equilibrium configurations. The equation of state, which takes into account the $\beta$-equilibrium, the nuclear and the Coulomb interactions between the nuclei and the surrounding electrons, is obtained as a function of the compression by considering each atom constrained in a Wigner-Seitz cell. The contribution of quantum statistics, weak, nuclear, and electromagnetic interactions is obtained by the determination of the chemical potential of the Wigner-Seitz cell. The further contribution of the general relativistic equilibrium of white dwarf matter is expressed by the simple formula $\sqrt{g_{00}}\mu_{\text{ws}} = \text{constant}$, which links the chemical potential of the Wigner-Seitz cell $\mu_{\text{ws}}$ with the general relativistic gravitational potential $g_{00}$ at each point of the configuration. The configuration outside each Wigner-Seitz cell is strictly neutral and therefore no global electric field is necessary to warranty the equilibrium of the white dwarf. These equations modify the ones used by Chandrasekhar by taking into due account the Coulomb interaction between the nu-
clei and the electrons as well as inverse $\beta$-decay. They also generalize the work of Salpeter by considering a unified self-consistent approach to the Coulomb interaction in each Wigner-Seitz cell. The consequences on the numerical value of the Chandrasekhar-Landau mass limit as well as on the mass-radius relation of $^4$He, $^{12}$C, $^{16}$O and $^{56}$Fe white dwarfs are presented. All these effects should be taken into account in processes requiring a precision knowledge of the white dwarf parameters.


The Feynman, Metropolis and Teller treatment of compressed atoms is extended to the relativistic regimes. Each atomic configuration is confined by a Wigner-Seitz cell and is characterized by a positive electron Fermi energy. The non-relativistic treatment assumes a point-like nucleus and infinite values of the electron Fermi energy can be attained. In the relativistic treatment there exists a limiting configuration, reached when the Wigner-Seitz cell radius equals the radius of the nucleus, with a maximum value of the electron Fermi energy $(E_F^e)_{\text{max}}$, here expressed analytically in the ultra-relativistic approximation. The corrections given by the relativistic Thomas-Fermi-Dirac exchange term are also evaluated and shown to be generally small and negligible in the relativistic high density regime. The dependence of the relativistic electron Fermi energies by compression for selected nuclei are compared and contrasted to the non-relativistic ones and to the ones obtained in the uniform approximation. The relativistic Feynman, Metropolis, Teller approach here presented overcomes some difficulties in the Salpeter approximation generally adopted for compressed matter in physics and astrophysics. The treatment is then extrapolated to compressed nuclear matter cores of stellar dimensions with $A \approx \left( \frac{m_{\text{Planck}}}{m_n} \right)^3 \sim 10^{57}$ or $M_{\text{core}} \sim M_\odot$. A new family of equilibrium configurations exists for selected values of the electron Fermi energy varying in the range $0 < E_F^e \leq (E_F^e)_{\text{max}}$. Such configurations fulfill global but not local charge neutrality. They have electric fields on the core surface, increasing for decreasing values of the electron Fermi energy reaching values much larger than the critical value $E_c = m_e^2c^3 / (e\hbar)$, for $E_F^e = 0$. We compare and contrast our results with the ones of Thomas-Fermi model in strange stars.


We formulate the equations of equilibrium of neutron stars taking into account strong, weak, electromagnetic, and gravitational interactions within the framework of general relativity. The nuclear interactions are described by the exchange of the sigma, omega, and rho virtual mesons. The equilibrium
conditions are given by our recently developed theoretical framework based on the Einstein-Maxwell-Thomas-Fermi equations along with the constancy of the general relativistic Fermi energies of particles, the “Klein potentials”, throughout the configuration. The equations are solved numerically in the case of zero temperatures and for selected parametrization of the nuclear models. The solutions lead to a new structure of the star: a positively charged core at supranuclear densities surrounded by an electronic distribution of thickness $\sim \hbar/(m_e c)$ of opposite charge, as well as a neutral crust at lower densities. Inside the core there is a Coulomb potential well of depth $\sim m_\pi c^2/e$. The constancy of the Klein potentials in the transition from the core to the crust, impose the presence of an overcritical electric field $\sim (m_\pi/m_e)^2 E_c$, the critical field being $E_c = m_\pi c^3/(e \hbar)$. The electron chemical potential and the density decrease, in the boundary interface, until values $\mu_{\text{crust}} < \mu_{\text{core}}$ and $\rho_{\text{crust}} < \rho_{\text{core}}$. For each central density, an entire family of core-crust interface boundaries and, correspondingly, an entire family of crusts with different mass and thickness, exist. The configuration with $\rho_{\text{crust}} = \rho_{\text{drip}} \sim 4.3 \times 10^{11} \text{ g/cm}^3$ separates neutron stars with and without inner crust. We present here the novel neutron star mass-radius for the case $\rho_{\text{crust}} = \rho_{\text{drip}}$ and compare and contrast it with the one obtained from the Tolman-Oppenheimer-Volkoff treatment.


The isothermal Tolman condition and the constancy of the Klein potentials originally expressed for the sole gravitational interaction in a single fluid are here generalized to the case of a three quantum fermion fluid duly taking into account the strong, electromagnetic, weak and gravitational interactions. The set of constitutive equations including the Einstein-Maxwell-Thomas-Fermi equations as well as the ones corresponding to the strong interaction description are here presented in the most general relativistic isothermal case. This treatment represents an essential step to correctly formulate a self-consistent relativistic field theoretical approach of neutron stars.


Neutral stellar core at or over nuclear densities is described by a positive charged baryon core and negative charged electron fluid since they possess different masses and interactions. Based on a simplified model of a gravitationally collapsing or pulsating baryon core, we approximately integrate the Einstein-Maxwell equations and the equations for the number and energy-momentum conservation of complete degenerate electron fluid. We show possible electric processes that lead to the production of electron-positron pairs in the boundary of a baryon core and calculate the number and energy of electron-positron pairs.
pairs. This can be relevant for understanding the energetic sources of supernovae and gamma-ray bursts.
6. Invited talks in international conferences


3. 19th Texas Symposium, Dec. 1998


12. Relativistic Astrophysics and Cosmology - Einstein’s Legacy meeting, November 7-11, 2005,

13. 35th COSPAR scientific assembly (Paris, 2004) and 36th COSPAR scientific assembly (Beijing, 2006).
6. Invited talks in international conferences


15. APS April meeting, April 12-15 2008, Saint Louis (USA).


17. III Stueckelberg Workshop, July 8-18 2008, Pescara (Italy).

18. XIII Brazilian School of Cosmology and Gravitation, July 20-August 2 2008, Rio de Janeiro (Brazil).

19. Path Integrals - New Trends and Perspectives, September 23 - 28 2007, Dresden (Germany)

20. APS April meeting, April 14-17 2007, Jacksonville (USA).

21. The first Sobral Meeting, May 26-29, 2009 Fortaleza (Cear) Brazil


25. 11th Italian-Korean Meeting November 2-4, 2009 - Seoul - (KOREA).


28. The second Galileo - Xu Guangqi Meeting July 12-18, 2010 - Ventimiglia and Nice - (Italy and France).

29. 12th Italian-Korean Meeting July 4-8, 2011, Pescara, Italy .


31. The meeting for Italian-Korean cooperation, Seoul 5-6, Nov 2012

32. The first LeCosPA Symposium: Towards Ultimate Understanding of the Universe, Taipei Taiwan Feb 6-9, 2012
7. APPENDICES
A. Dyadosphere (electron-positron-photon plasma) formation in gravitational collapse.

The $e^+e^-$ pairs generated by the vacuum polarization process around the core are entangled in the electromagnetic field Ruffini et al. (2003a), and thermalize in an electron–positron–photon plasma on a time scale $\sim 10^4\tau_C$ Ruffini et al. (2003b) (see Fig. 3.2). As soon as the thermalization has occurred, the hydrodynamic expansion of this electrically neutral plasma starts Ruffini et al. (1999, 2000). While the temporal evolution of the $e^+e^-\gamma$ plasma takes place, the gravitationally collapsing core moves inwards, giving rise to a further amplified supercritical field, which in turn generates a larger amount of $e^+e^-$ pairs leading to a yet higher temperature in the newly formed $e^+e^-\gamma$ plasma.

We report progress in this theoretically challenging process which is marked by distinctive and precise quantum and general relativistic effects. As presented in Ref. Ruffini et al. (2003a): we follow the dynamical phase of the formation of Dyadosphere and of the asymptotic approach to the horizon by examining the time varying process at the surface of the gravitationally collapsing core.

It is worthy to remark that the time–scale of hydrodynamic evolution ($t \sim 0.1s$) is, in any case, much larger than both the time scale needed for “all pairs to be created” ($\sim 10^3\tau_C$), and the thermalization time–scale ($\sim 10^4\tau_C$, see Fig. 3.2) and therefore it is consistent to consider pair production, plus thermalization, and hydrodynamic expansion as separate regimes of the system. We assume the initial condition that the Dyadosphere starts to be formed at the instant of gravitational collapse $t_{ds} = t_0$ ($r_{ds} = 0$, and $r_{ds} = R_c$ the radius of massive nuclear core. Having formulated the core collapse in General Relativity in Eq. (3.11.2), we discretize the gravitational collapse of a spherically symmetric core by considering a set of events ($N$–events) along the world line of a point of fixed angular position on the collapsing core surface.

Between each of these events we consider a spherical shell of plasma of constant coordinate thickness $\Delta r$ so that:

1. $\Delta r$ is assumed to be a constant which is small with respect to the core radius;
A. Dyadosphere (electron-positron-photon plasma) formation in gravitational collapse.

2. $\Delta r$ is assumed to be large with respect to the mean free path of the particles so that the statistical description of the $e^+e^-\gamma$ plasma can be used;

3. There is no overlap among the slabs and their union describes the entirety of the process.

We check that the final results are independent of the special value of the chosen $\Delta r$ and $N$.

In each slab the processes of $e^+e^-$-pair production, oscillation with electric field and thermalization with photons are considered. While the average of the electric field $E$ over one oscillation is 0, the average of $E^2$ is of the order of $E^2c$, therefore the energy density in the pairs and photons, as a function of $r_0$, is given by

$$
\epsilon_0 (r_0) = \frac{1}{8\pi} \left[ \mathcal{E}^2 (r_0) - \mathcal{E}^2 \right] = \frac{E^2 c^2}{8\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{r_{ds}}{r_0} \right)^4 - 1 \right].
$$

For the number densities of $e^+e^-$ pairs and photons at thermal equilibrium we have $n_{e^+e^-} \simeq n_{\gamma}$; correspondingly the equilibrium temperature $T_0$, which is clearly a function of $r_0$ and is different for each slab, is such that Ruffini et al. (1999, 2000)

$$
\epsilon (T_0) \equiv \epsilon_{\gamma} (T_0) + \epsilon_{e^+} (T_0) + \epsilon_{e^-} (T_0) = \epsilon_0,
$$

with $\epsilon$ and $n$ given by Fermi (Bose) integrals (with zero chemical potential):

$$
\epsilon_{e^+e^-} (T_0) = \frac{2}{\pi^2\hbar^2} \int_{m_e}^{\infty} \frac{(E^2 - m_e^2)^{1/2}}{\exp (E/kT_0) + 1} E^2 dE, \quad \epsilon_{\gamma} (T_0) = \frac{\pi^2}{15\hbar^2} (T_0)^4,
$$

$$
n_{e^+e^-} (T_0) = \frac{1}{\pi^2\hbar^2} \int_{m_e}^{\infty} \frac{(E^2 - m_e^2)^{1/2}}{\exp (E/kT_0) + 1} EdE, \quad n_{\gamma} (T_0) = \frac{2\zeta(3)}{\hbar^2} (T_0)^3.
$$

From the conditions set by Eqs. (A.0.2), (A.0.3), (A.0.4), we can now turn to the dynamical evolution of the $e^+e^-\gamma$ plasma in each slab. We use the covariant conservation of energy momentum and the rate equation for the number of pairs in the Reissner–Nordström geometry external to the core:

$$
\nabla_a T^{ab} = 0,
$$

$$
\nabla_a \left( n_{e^+e^-} u^a \right) = \frac{\sigma}{\overline{v}} \left[ n^2_{e^+e^-} (T) - n^2_{e^+e^-} \right],
$$

where $T^{ab} = (\epsilon + p) u^a u^b + p g^{ab}$ is the energy–momentum tensor of the plasma with proper energy density $\epsilon$ and proper pressure $p$, $u^a$ is the fluid 4–velocity, $n_{e^+e^-}$ is the number of pairs, $n_{e^+e^-} (T)$ is the equilibrium number of pairs and $\frac{\sigma}{\overline{v}}$ is the mean of the product of the $e^+e^-$ annihilation cross-section and the thermal velocity of pairs. In each slab the plasma remains at thermal equilib-
rium in the initial phase of the expansion and the right hand side of the rate
Eq. (A.0.6) is effectively 0.

If we denote by $\xi^a$ the static Killing vector field normalized at unity at spa-
cial infinity and by $\{\Sigma_t\}$ the family of space-like hypersurfaces orthogonal
to $\xi^a$ ($t$ being the Killing time) in the Reissner–Nordström geometry, from
Eqs. (A.0.6), the following integral conservation laws can be derived

$$\int_{\Sigma_t} \xi^a T^{ab} d\Sigma_b = E, \quad \int_{\Sigma_t} n_{e^+e^-} u^b d\Sigma_b = N_{e^+e^-},$$  (A.0.7)

where $d\Sigma_b = \alpha^{-2} r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi$ is the vector surface element, $E$
the total energy and $N_{e^+e^-}$ the total number of pairs which remain constant in each
slab. We then have

$$\left[(\epsilon + p) \gamma^2 - p\right] r^2 = \mathcal{E}, \quad n_{e^+e^-} \gamma^{-1} r^2 = \mathcal{M}_{e^+e^-},$$  (A.0.8)

where $\mathcal{E}$ and $\mathcal{M}_{e^+e^-}$ are constants and

$$\gamma \equiv \alpha^{-1} u^a \xi_a = \left[1 - \alpha^{-4} \left(\frac{dr}{dt}\right)^2\right]^{-1/2}$$  (A.0.9)

is the Lorentz $\gamma$ factor of the slab as measured by static observers. We can
rewrite Eqs. (A.0.7) for each slab as

$$\left(\frac{dr}{dt}\right)^2 = a^4 f_{r_0},$$  (A.0.10)

$$\left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\epsilon + p}{\epsilon_0}\right) \left(\frac{n_{e^+e^-} \gamma^{-1} r^2}{n_{e^+e^-} \gamma^{-1} r^2}\right) - \frac{p}{\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^4,$$  (A.0.11)

$$f_{r_0} = 1 - \left(\frac{n_{e^+e^-}}{n_{e^+e^-} \gamma^{-1} r^2} \left(\frac{\alpha}{\alpha_0}\right)^2 \left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^4\right),$$  (A.0.12)

where pedex $0$ refers to quantities evaluated at selected initial times $t_0 > 0$,
having assumed $r (t_0) = r_0$, $dr/dt|_{t=t_0} = 0$, $T (t_0) = T_0$.

Eq. (A.0.10) is only meaningful when $f_{r_0} (r) \geq 0$. From the structural anal-
ysis of such equation it is clearly identifiable a critical radius $r_0$ such that:

- for any slab initially located at $r_0 > \bar{R}$ we have $f_{r_0} (r) \geq 0$ for any value
  of $r \geq r_0$ and $f_{r_0} (r) < 0$ for $r \lesssim r_0$; therefore a slab initially located at a
  radial coordinate $r_0 > \bar{R}$ moves outwards,

- for any slab initially located at $r_0 < \bar{R}$ we have $f_{r_0} (r) \geq 0$ for any value
  of $r_+ < r \leq r_0$ and $f_{r_0} (r) < 0$ for $r \gtrsim r_0$; therefore a slab initially
  located at a radial coordinate $r_0 < \bar{R}$ moves inwards and is trapped by
  the gravitational field of the collapsing core.

We define the surface $r = \bar{R}$, the Dyadosphere trapping surface (DTS). The
radius $\bar{R}$ of DTS is generally evaluated by the condition $\frac{df_{g}}{dr}\bigg|_{r=\bar{R}} = 0$. $\bar{R}$ is so close to the horizon value $r_{+}$ that the initial temperature $T_{0}$ satisfies $kT_{0} \gg m_{e}c^{2}$ and we can obtain for $\bar{R}$ an analytical expression. Namely the ultra relativistic approximation of all Fermi integrals, Eqs. (A.0.3) and (A.0.4), is justified and we have $n_{e^{+}e^{-}}(T) \propto T^{3}$ and therefore $f_{r_{0} \simeq 1 - (T/T_{0})^{6} (\alpha_{0}/\alpha)^{2} (r/r_{0})^{4} (r \leq \bar{R})$. The defining equation of $\bar{R}$, together with (A.0.12), then gives

$$\bar{R} = 2M \left[ 1 + \left( 1 - 3Q^{2}/4M^{2} \right)^{1/2} \right] > r_{+}. \quad (A.0.13)$$

In the case of an EMBH with $M = 20M_{\odot}$, $Q = 0.1M$, we compute:

- the fraction of energy trapped in DTS:
  $$\bar{E} = \int_{r_{+} < r < \bar{R}} \alpha \varepsilon_{0} d\Sigma \simeq 0.53 \int_{r_{+} < r < r_{ds}} \alpha \varepsilon_{0} d\Sigma; \quad (A.0.14)$$

- the world–lines of slabs of plasma for selected $r_{0}$ in the interval $(\bar{R}, r_{ds})$ (see left figure in Fig. A.1);

- the world–lines of slabs of plasma for selected $r_{0}$ in the interval $(r_{+}, \bar{R})$ (see Fig. A.2).

At time $\bar{t} \equiv t_{0} (\bar{R})$ when the DTS is formed, the plasma extends over a region of space which is almost one order of magnitude larger than the Dyadosphere and which we define as the effective Dyadosphere. The values of the Lorentz $\gamma$ factor, the temperature and $e^{+}e^{-}$ number density in the effective Dyadosphere are given in the right figure in Fig. A.1.
Figure A.1.: In left figure: World line of the collapsing charged core (dashed line) as derived from Eq. (3.11.2); world lines of slabs of plasma for selected radii $r_0$ in the interval $(\bar{R}, r_{ds})$. At time $\bar{t}$ the expanding plasma extends over a region which is almost one order of magnitude larger than the Dyadosphere. The small rectangle in the right bottom is enlarged in Fig. A.2. The right figure: Physical parameters in the effective Dyadosphere: Lorentz $\gamma$ factor, proper temperature and proper $e^+e^-$ number density as functions at time $\bar{t}$.

Figure A.2.: Enlargement of the small rectangle in the right bottom of left figure in Fig. A.1. World–lines of slabs of plasma for selected radii $r_0$ in the interval $(r_+, \bar{R})$. 
B. Electron-positron pair oscillation in spatially inhomogeneous electric fields and radiation

Introduction. As reviewed in the recent report Ruffini et al. (2010), since the pioneer works by Sauter (1931a), Heisenberg and Euler (1936) in 1930’s, then by Schwinger (1951) in 1950’s, it has been well known that positron-electron pairs are produced from the vacuum in external electric fields. In a constant electric field $E_0$ in dependent of space and time, the pair-creation rate per unit volume is given by Heisenberg and Euler (1936),

$$S \equiv \frac{dN}{dVdt} = \frac{m_e^4}{4\pi^3} \left(\frac{E_0}{E_c}\right)^2 \exp \left(-\pi \frac{E_c}{E_0}\right),$$  \hspace{1cm} (B.0.1)

where the critical field $E_c \equiv m_e^2 c^2/(\hbar)$, the Plank’s constant $\hbar$, the speed of light $c$, the electron mass $m_e$, the absolute value of electron charge $e$ and the fine structure constant $\alpha = e^2/\hbar c$ (in this article we use the natural units $\hbar = c = 1$, unless otherwise specified). The pair-production rate (B.0.1) is significantly large for strong electric fields $E \gg E_c \simeq 1.3 \cdot 10^{16} \text{V/cm}$. The critical field will probably be reached by recent advanced laser technologies in laboratory experiments Ringwald (2001); Tajima and Mourou (2002); Gordienko et al. (2005), X-ray free electron laser (XFEL) facilities XFE, optical high-intensity laser facilities such as Vulcan or ELI ELI, and SLAC E144 using nonlinear Compton scattering Burke et al. (1997). On the other hand, strong overcritical electric fields ($E \geq 10E_c$) can be created in astrophysical environments, for instance, quark stars Usov (1998); Usov et al. (2005) and neutron stars Ruffini et al. (2007a)-Popov et al. (2009).

The back-reaction and screening effects of electron and positron pairs on external electric fields lead to the phenomenon of plasma oscillations: electrons and positrons moving back and forth coherently with alternating electric fields. This means that external electric fields are not eliminated within the Compton time $\hbar/m_e c^2$ of pair-production process, rather oscillate collectively with the motion of pairs in a much longer timescale.

In a constant electric field $E_0$ (B.0.1), the phenomenon of plasma oscilla-
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tions is studied in the two frameworks Ruffini et al. (2010): (1) the semi-classical QED with quantized Dirac field and classical electric field Kluger et al. (1991, 1992); Cooper and Mottola (1989); (2) the kinetic description using the Boltzmann-Vlasov and Maxwell equations Biro et al. (1984); Gatoff et al. (1987); Cooper et al. (1993); Ruffini et al. (2003b, 2007b). In the second framework, the Boltzmann-Vlasov equation is used to obtain the equations for the continuity and energy-momentum conservations Gatoff et al. (1987).

Ref. Ruffini et al. (2007b) shows the evidence of plasma oscillation in under-critical field ($E < E_c$) and the relation between the kinetic energy and numbers of oscillating pairs in a given electric field strength $E_0$. Taking into account the creation and annihilation process $e^+ + e^- \leftrightarrow \gamma + \gamma$, it is shown Ruffini et al. (2003b) that the plasma oscillation in an over-critical field is led to a plasma of photons, electrons and positrons with the equipartition of their number- and energy-densities. The phenomenon of plasma oscillations is studied in connection with pair creation in heavy ions collisions Biro et al. (1984)-Cooper et al. (1993), the laser field Ringwald (2001)-Hebenstreit et al. (2008), and gravitational collapse Ruffini et al. (2003a). It is worthwhile to emphasize that the plasma oscillation occurs not only at over-critical field-strengths $E_0 \gtrsim E_c$ (see for instance Refs. Kluger et al. (1991, 1992); Ruffini et al. (2003b)), but also under-critical field-strengths $E_0 \lesssim E_c$ (see Ref. Ruffini et al. (2007b)), and plasma oscillation frequency is related to field-strength $E_0$, while the number of oscillating pairs depends on the pair-production rate (B.0.1). More details can be found in the recent review article Ruffini et al. (2010).

The realistic ultra-strong electric fields are not only vary with space and time, but also confined in a finite region. In this letter, studying the plasma oscillations in spatially inhomogeneous electric field, we present the evidence of electric fields propagation, leading to electromagnetic radiation with a peculiar narrow spectrum in the keV-region, which should be distinctive and experimentally observable.

In the kinetic description for the plasma fluids of positrons (+) or electrons (−), whose single-particle spectrum $p^0_{\pm} = (p^2_{\pm} + m^2_e)^{1/2}$, we define the number-densities $n_{\pm}(t, x)$ and “averaged” velocities $v_{\pm}(t, x)$ of the fluids:

$$n_{\pm}(t, x) \equiv \int \frac{d^3p_{\pm}}{(2\pi)^3} f_{\pm}(t, p_{\pm}, x), \quad \text{ (B.0.2)}$$

$$v_{\pm}(t, x) \equiv \frac{1}{n_{\pm}} \int \frac{d^3p_{\pm}}{(2\pi)^3} \left( \frac{p_{\pm}}{p^0_{\pm}} \right) f_{\pm}(t, p_{\pm}, x), \quad \text{ (B.0.3)}$$

where $f_{\pm}(t, p_{\pm}, x)$ is the distribution function in the phase space. The four-velocities of the electron and positron fluids $U^\mu_{\pm} = \gamma_{\pm}(1, v_{\pm})$, the Lorentz factor $\gamma_{\pm} = (1 - |v_{\pm}|^2)^{-1/2}$, and the comoving number-densities $\bar{n}_{\pm} = n_{\pm}(\gamma_{\pm})^{-1}$, where we choose the laboratory frame where pairs are created at rest. The
collision-less plasma fluid of electrons and positrons coupling to electromagnetic fields is governed by the continuity, energy-momentum conservation and Maxwell equations:

\[
\frac{\partial (\bar{n}_\pm U^\mu_\pm)}{\partial x^\mu} = S, \quad (B.0.4)
\]
\[
\frac{\partial T^\mu_\pm}{\partial x^\mu} = -F_{\nu}^\mu (J^\nu_\pm + J^\nu_{\text{pola}}), \quad (B.0.5)
\]
\[
\frac{\partial F^\mu_\nu}{\partial x^\nu} = -4\pi (J^\mu_{\text{cond}} + J^\mu_{\text{pola}} + J^\mu_{\text{ext}}), \quad (B.0.6)
\]

where is the pair-production rate, \( J^\mu_\pm = \pm e\bar{n}_\pm U^\mu_\pm \) electric currents and the energy-momentum tensors \( T^\mu_\pm = \bar{p}_\pm g^\mu_\nu + (\bar{p}_\pm + \bar{\epsilon}_\pm)U^\mu_\pm U^\nu_\pm \), \( (B.0.7) \)

and the pressure \( \bar{p}_\pm \) and comoving energy-density \( \bar{\epsilon}_\pm \) is related by the equation of state, in general \( 0 \leq \bar{p}_\pm \leq \bar{\epsilon}_\pm /3 \). In the laboratory frame, the fluid energy-density \( \epsilon_\pm \equiv T^{00} \) and momentum-density \( p^i_\pm \equiv T^{i0} \) are given by

\[
\epsilon_\pm = (\bar{\epsilon}_\pm + \bar{p}_\pm v^2_\pm)\gamma_\pm^2, \quad p_\pm = (\bar{\epsilon}_\pm + \bar{p}_\pm)\gamma_\pm^2v_\pm. \quad (B.0.8)
\]

In Eqs. (B.0.5,B.0.6) \( F^\mu_\nu \) is the tensor of electromagnetic fields \( (E, B) \), the conducting four-current density \( j^\mu_{\text{cond}} = e(\bar{n}_+ U^\mu_+ - \bar{n}_- U^\mu_-), \quad \partial_\mu j^\mu_{\text{cond}} = 0, \quad (B.0.9) \)

and polarized four-current density \( j^\mu_{\text{pola}} = \sum_\pm j^\mu_{\pm\text{pola}} \) and \( j^\mu_{\pm\text{pola}} = (\rho^\pm_{\text{pola}} J^\pm_{\text{pola}}) \) Gatoff et al. (1987); Kajantie and Matsui (1985)

\[
F^\mu_\nu j^\nu_{\pm\text{pola}} = \Sigma^\nu_{\pm}, \quad \Sigma^\nu_\pm \equiv \int \frac{d^3p_\pm}{(2\pi)^3p^0_\pm}p^\nu_\pm S, \quad (B.0.10)
\]

and \( S = \int d^3p_\pm / [(2\pi)^3p^0_\pm]S \). Using “averaged” velocities (B.0.3) of the fluids, we approximately have

\[
J^\mu_{\pm\text{pola}} \simeq \frac{m_e\gamma_\pm S}{|E|}E, \quad \rho^\mu_{\pm\text{pola}} \simeq \pm \frac{m_e\gamma_\pm |v_\pm| S}{|E|}, \quad (B.0.11)
\]

where the magnetic field \( B = 0 \). In Eq. (B.0.6), \( J^\mu_{\text{ext}} = (\rho_{\text{ext}}, J^\mu_{\text{ext}}) \) is an external electric current.

**Basic equations of motion.** For simplicity to start with, we consider the electric field \( E_{\text{ext}} \) created by a capacitor made of two parallel plates, one carries an external charge \( +Q \) and another \( -Q \). The sizes of two parallel plats are \( L_x \) and

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\( L_y \), which are much larger than their separation \( \ell \) in the \( \hat{z} \)-direction, i.e., \( L_x \gg \ell \) and \( L_y \gg \ell \). For \( |z| \sim \mathcal{O}(\ell) \), the system has an approximate translation symmetry in the \((x, y)\) plane. As results the electric field \( \mathbf{E}_{\text{ext}}(x, y, z) \approx \mathbf{E}_{\text{ext}}(z)\hat{z} \) and \( \mathbf{B}_{\text{ext}}(x, y, z) \approx 0 \), is approximately homogeneous in the \((x, y)\) plane and confined within the capacitor. In addition, \( \partial \mathbf{E}_{\text{ext}} / \partial t \approx 0 \), namely, this electric field is assumed to be continuously supplied by an external source \((+Q, -Q)\) or slowly varying. In order to do calculations we model this electric field as the one-dimensional Sauter electric field in the \( \hat{z} \)-direction

\[
\mathbf{E}_{\text{ext}}(z) = \frac{E_0}{\cosh^2(z/\ell)}, \quad \sigma \equiv eE_0\ell/m_e c^2 = (\ell/\lambda_C)(E_0/E_c),
\]

where the \( \lambda_C \) is Compton wavelength, the external electric charge is given by \( \partial \mathbf{E}_{\text{ext}}(z)/\partial z = 4\pi \rho_{\text{ext}} \) and the external electric current vanishes \( j_{\text{ext}} = 0 \) for the field being static \( \partial \mathbf{E}_{\text{ext}} / \partial t = 0 \). In the electric field configuration (B.0.12) and \( \mathbf{B} \approx 0 \), the “averaged” velocities \( v_{\pm} \) of electrons and positrons fluids are in the \( \hat{z} \)-direction,

\[
U_{\pm}^\mu = \gamma_{\pm} (1, 0, 0, \pm v_{\pm}),
\]

and the total fluid current- and charge-densities (B.0.6) \( J^\mu = (\rho, \mathbf{J}) \) are

\[
J_z = en_+ v_+ + en_- v_- + \frac{me(\gamma_+ + \gamma_-)S}{E},
\]

\[
\rho = e (n_+ - n_-) + \frac{me(\gamma_+ v_+ - \gamma_- v_-)S}{E}.
\]

The system can be approximately treated as a \( 1 + 1 \) dimensional system in terms of space-time variables \((z, t)\), and Eqs. (B.0.4-B.0.6) become for zero
pressure \(^1\),

\[
\frac{\partial n_{\pm}}{\partial t} \pm \frac{\partial n_{\pm} v_{\pm}}{\partial z} = S, \tag{B.0.16}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial \epsilon_{\pm}}{\partial t} \pm \frac{\partial p_{\pm}}{\partial z} = e n_{\pm} v_{\pm} E + m_e \gamma_{\pm} S, \tag{B.0.17}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial p_{\pm}}{\partial t} \pm \frac{\partial p_{\pm} v_{\pm}}{\partial z} = e n_{\pm} E + m_e \gamma_{\pm} v_{\pm} S, \tag{B.0.18}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial E}{\partial t} = -4 \pi J_z, \tag{B.0.19}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial E}{\partial z} = 4 \pi (\rho + \rho_{\text{ext}}). \tag{B.0.20}
\]

The total electric field \(E(z, t)\) in Eqs. (B.0.14-B.0.20) is the superposition of two components:

\[E(z, t) = E_{\text{ext}}(z) + E_{\text{ind}}(z, t), \tag{B.0.21}\]

where the space- and time-dependent \(E_{\text{ind}}(z, t)\) is the electric field created by electron and positron pairs. We call \(J_z(z, t)\) (B.0.14), \(\rho(z, t)\) (B.0.15) and \(E_{\text{ind}}(z, t)\) pair-induced electric current, charge and field.

As for the pair-production rate \(S\) in Eqs. (B.0.16-B.0.19), instead of the pair-production rate (B.0.1) for a constant field \(E_0\), we adopt the following \(z\)-dependent formula for the pair-production rate in the Sauter field (B.0.12), obtained by using the WKB-method to calculate the probability of quantum-mechanical tunneling Kleinert et al. (2008),

\[S(z) = \frac{m_e^4}{4 \pi^3} \frac{E_0 E(z)}{E_z^2 G(0, E)} e^{-\pi G(0, E) E_z / E_0}, \tag{B.0.22}\]

where \(G(0, E)\) and \(\tilde{G}(0, E)\) are functions of the energy-level crossings \(E(z)\) and we approximately adopt \(E(z) \approx E_0 / G(0, E) \approx E_0 / \tilde{G}(0, E)\) in Eq. (B.0.22) in order to do feasible numerical calculations. As shown by the Fig. 2 in Ref. Kleinert et al. (2008), the deviation of the pair-production rate (B.0.22) due to this approximation is small. The formula (B.0.22) is derived for the static Sauter field (B.0.12). However, analogously to the discussions for

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\(^1\)For an electric field \(E \sim E_c\), the number-density of electron-positron pairs is small and the pressure of pairs can be neglected. While for an over electric field \(E \gg E_c\), the number-density of pairs is large and the collisions and annihilation of pairs into photons are important, leading to the energy equipartition of electron, positrons and photons. In this case, the pressure, effective temperature and equation of state have to be considered. For an electric field \(E \sim E_c\), the number-density of electron-positron pairs is small and the pressure of pairs can be neglected. While for an over electric field \(E \gg E_c\), the number-density of pairs is large and the collisions and annihilation of pairs into photons are important, leading to the energy equipartition of electron, positrons and photons. In this case, the pressure, effective temperature and equation of state have to be considered.
the plasma oscillations in spatially homogeneous fields Cooper et al. (1993)-Ruffini et al. (2007b), it can be approximately used for a time-varying electric field $E(z,t)$ (B.0.21), provided the time-dependent component $E_{\text{ind}}(z,t)$, created by electron-positron pair-oscillations, varies much slowly compared with the rate of electron-positron pair-productions $O(m_e c^2/\hbar)$. This can be justified by the inverse adiabaticity parameter Greiner et al. (1985)-Popov (1973),

$$\eta = \frac{m_e E_0}{\omega E_c} \gg 1,$$

where $\omega$ is the frequency of pair-oscillations.

Eqs. (B.0.16,B.0.17,B.0.18) describe the motion of electron-positron plasma coupling to the electric field $E$ and source $S$ of pair-productions. The Maxwell equations (B.0.19,B.0.20) describe the motion of the electric field (B.0.21) coupled to the current- and charge-densities (B.0.15), leading to the wave equation of the propagating electric field $E_{\text{ind}}(z,t)$ Jackson (1998),

$$\frac{\partial^2 E_{\text{ind}}}{\partial t^2} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 E_{\text{ind}}}{\partial z^2} = 4\pi \left( \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial J_z}{\partial t} \right),$$

where we use $\partial E_{\text{ext}}/\partial z = 4\pi \rho_{\text{ext}}$ and $\partial E_{\text{ext}}/\partial t = 0$. This wave equation shows the propagating electric field $E_{\text{ind}}(z,t)$ in the region $\mathcal{R}$ where the non-vanishing current $J_z$ and charge $\rho$ are, and both the propagation and polarization of the electric field are in the $\hat{z}$-direction. This implies a wave transportation of electromagnetic energies inside the region $\mathcal{R}$. Since the current- and charge-densities ($\rho, J_z$) are functions of the field $E(t,z)$ (B.0.21), the wave equation is highly nonlinear, the dispersion relation of the field is very complex and the velocity of field-propagation is not the speed of light.

**Numerical integrations.** Given the parameters $E_0 = E_c$ and $\ell = 10^5 \lambda_C$ of the Sauter field (B.0.12) as an initial electric field $E_{\text{ext}}$, we numerically integrate Eqs.(B.0.16-B.0.19) in the spatial region $\mathcal{R}$: $-\ell/2 \leq z \leq \ell/2$ and time interval $\mathcal{T}$: $0 \leq t \leq 3500 \tau_C$, where $\tau_C$ is the Compton time. The value $\mathcal{T} \leq 3500 \tau_C$ is chosen so that the adiabatic condition (B.0.23) is satisfied, and the spatial range $\mathcal{R}$ is determined by the capacity of computer for numerical calculations. The electric field strength $E_0$ is chosen around the critical value $E_c$, so that the semiclassical pair-production rate (B.0.22) can be approximately used. Actually, $E_0, \ell$ and $\mathcal{T}$ are attributed to the characteristics of external ultra-strong electric fields $E_{\text{ext}}$ established by either experimental setups or astrophysical conditions.

In Figs. B.1 and B.2, we respectively plot the time- and space-evolution of the total electric fields $E(z,t)$ (B.0.21) as functions of $t$ and $z$ at three different spatial points and times. As discussed in Figure captions, numerical results show the properties of the electric field wave $E_{\text{ind}}(z,t)$ propagating in the plasma of oscillating electron-positron pairs, as described by the wave equation (B.0.24). This electric field wave propagates along the directions...
in which external electric field-strength decreases. The wave propagation is rather complex, depending on the space and time variations of the net charge density $\rho(z, t)$ and current density $j_z(z, t)$, as shown in Figs. B.4-B.5. The net charge density $\rho$ oscillates (see Figs. B.3 and B.4) proportionally to the field-gradient (B.0.20) and at the center $z = 0$ the charge density and field-gradient are zero independent of time evolution (see Fig. B.4). However, the total charge of pairs $Q = \int \rho dV$ must be zero at any time, as required by the neutrality. The electric current $j_z(z, t)$ alternating in space and time follows the space and time evolution of the electric field $E(z, t)$ see Eq. (B.0.19), as shown in Figs. B.5 and B.6.

We recall the discussions of the plasma oscillations in the case of spatially homogeneous electric field $E_0$ without boundary Ruffini et al. (2003b, 2007b). Due to the spatial homogeneity of electric fields and pair-production rate $S$ (B.0.1), the number-densities $n_\pm(t, x) = n(t)$ (B.0.2), “averaged” velocities $|v_\pm(t, x)| = v(t)$ (B.0.3) and energy-momenta $\epsilon_\pm(t, x) = \epsilon(t), |p_\pm(t, x)| = p(t)$ (B.0.8) are spatially homogeneous so that the charge density (B.0.15) $\rho \equiv 0$ identically vanishes and current (B.0.14) $J_z = j_z(t)$. All spatial derivative terms in Eqs. (B.0.16-B.0.18) and Eq. (B.0.24) vanish and Eq. (B.0.20) becomes irrelevant. As results, the plasma oscillations described is the oscillations of electric fields and currents with respect time at each spatial point, and the electric field has no any spatial correlation and does not propagate.

In contrary to the plasma oscillation in homogeneous fields, the presence of such field-propagation in inhomogeneous fields is due to: (i) non-vanishing field-gradient $\partial_z E$ (B.0.20) and net charge-density $\rho$ (B.0.15), as shown in Figs. B.3 and B.4, give the spatial correlations of the fields at neighboring points; (ii) the stronger field-strength, the larger field-oscillation frequency is, as shown in Fig. B.1; (iii) at the center $z = 0$ the field-strength is largest and the field-oscillation is most rapid, and the field-oscillations at points $|z| > 0$ are slower and in retard phases, as shown in Fig. B.2. The point (i) is essential, the charge density $\rho$ oscillates (see Figs. B.3 and B.4) proportionally to the field-gradient Eq. (B.0.20) and at the center $z = 0$ the charge density and field-gradient are zero independent of time evolution (see Fig. B.4). Such field-propagation is reminiscent of the drift motion of particles driven by a field-gradient (“ponderomotive”) force, which is a cycle-averaged force on a charged particle in a spatially inhomogeneous oscillating electromagnetic field Boot and R.-S.- Harvie (1957); Kibble (1966); Hopf et al. (1976).

Radiation fields. As numerically shown in Fig. B.1-B.6, the propagation of the electric field wave $E_{\text{ind}}(z, t)$ inside the region $R$ is rather complex, due to the high non-linearity of wave equation (B.0.24). Nevertheless, the electromagnetic radiation fields $E_{\text{rad}}$ and $B_{\text{rad}}$ far away from the region $R$ are completely determined and could be experimentally observable. At the space-time point $(t, x)$ of an observer, the electromagnetic radiation fields $E_{\text{rad}}(z, t)$ and $B_{\text{rad}}(z, t)$, emitted by the variations of electric charge density $\rho(x', t')$ and current-density $J(x', t')$ in the region $\mathcal{R}$ ($x' \in \mathcal{R}$) and time $t'$ ($t' \in \mathcal{T}$), are given...
B. Electron-positron pair oscillation in spatially inhomogeneous electric fields and radiation

Figure B.1.: Electric fields $E(z,t)$ are plotted as functions of $t$ at three different points: $z = 0$ (red), $z = \ell/4$ (blue) and $z = \ell/2$ (black). Analogously to the plasma oscillation in homogeneous fields, the stronger initial field-strength, the larger field-oscillation frequency is, i.e., $\omega(z = 0) > \omega(z = \ell/4) > \omega(z = \ell/2)$, where $\omega(z)$ is the field oscillating frequency at the spatial point $z$.

by Jackson (1998)

$$E_{\text{rad}}(t,x) = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} d^3x' \left\{ \frac{\hat{R}}{R^2} \left[ \rho(t',x') \right]_{\text{ret}} + \frac{\hat{R}}{cR} \left[ \frac{\partial \rho(t',x')}{\partial t'} \right]_{\text{ret}} \right\},$$

$$B_{\text{rad}}(t,x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} d^3x' \left\{ \left[ J(t',x') \right]_{\text{ret}} \times \frac{\hat{R}}{cR^2} + \left[ \frac{\partial J(t',x')}{\partial t'} \right]_{\text{ret}} \times \frac{\hat{R}}{c^2 R} \right\}. \quad (B.0.25, B.0.26)$$

where the subscript “ret” indicates $t' = t - R/c$, $R = |x - x'|$. In the radiation zone $|x| \gg |x'|$ and $R \approx |x|$, where is far away from the plasma oscillation region $\mathbb{R}$, the radiation fields (B.0.25,B.0.26) approximately are

$$E_{\text{rad}}(t,x) \approx -\frac{1}{c^2 |x|} \int d^3x' \left[ \frac{\partial J(t',x')}{\partial t'} \right]_{\text{ret}},$$

$$B_{\text{rad}}(t,x) \approx \hat{R} \times E_{\text{rad}}(t,x), \quad (B.0.27, B.0.28)$$

where we use the charge conservation (C.2.2) and total neutrality condition of pairs $\int_{\mathbb{R}} d^3x' \rho(t',x') = 0$. The first terms in Eqs. (B.0.25,B.0.26) are the Coulomb-type fields decaying away as $O(1/|x|^2)$. The Fourier transforms of
**Figure B.2.** Electric fields $E(z, t)$ are plotted as functions of $z$ at three different times in the Compton unit: $t = 1$ (black), $t = 500$ (blue) and $t = 1500$ (red). As shown in Fig. B.1, the electric field $E(z, t)$ oscillation at the center ($z = 0$) is most rapid, and gets slower and slower at spatial points ($|z| > 0$) further away from the center. This implies the electric field wave propagating in the space, and the directions of propagations are indicated.

Eqs. (B.0.27) and (B.0.28) are

$$\tilde{E}_{\text{rad}}(\omega, x) \approx -\frac{e^{-i k|x|}}{c^2|x|} \tilde{D}(\omega), \quad \tilde{B}_{\text{rad}}(\omega, x) \approx \hat{R} \times \tilde{E}_{\text{rad}}(\omega, x) \quad (B.0.29)$$

$$\tilde{D}(\omega) \equiv \int_{\mathbb{R}} d^3x' \int_{\mathbb{T}} dt' e^{i \omega t'} \left[ \frac{\partial J(t', x')}{\partial t'} \right], \quad (B.0.30)$$

where the wave number $k = \omega/c$ and the numerical integration (B.0.30) is carried out overall the space-time evolution of the electric current $J(x', t')$ (see Figs. B.6 and B.5). For definiteness we thinks of the oscillation currents occurring for some finite interval of time $T$ or at least falling off for remote past and future times, so that the total energy radiated is finite, thus the energy radiated per unit solid angle per frequency interval is given by Jackson (1998)

$$\frac{d^2 I}{d\omega d\Omega} = 2|\tilde{D}(\omega)|^2. \quad (B.0.31)$$

The squared amplitude $|\tilde{D}(\omega)|^2$ as a function of $\omega$ gives the spectrum of the radiation (see Fig. B.7), which is very narrow as expected with a peak locating at $\omega_{\text{peak}} \approx 0.08 m_e = 4 \text{keV}$ for $E_0 = E_c$, consistently with the plasma.
B. Electron-positron pair oscillation in spatially inhomogeneous electric fields and radiation

Figure B.3: The net charge density $\rho(z,t)$ [see Eq. (B.0.15)] as a function of $z$ at three different times: $t = 1$ (black, nearly zero), $t = 500$ (blue) and $t = 1500$ (red). It is shown that the net charged density value $|\rho(z,t)|$ is zero at the center where the initial electric field gradient vanishes [see Eq. (B.0.20)], whereas it increases as the initial electric field gradient increases for $|z| > 0$.

Figure B.4: The net electric charge density $\rho(z,t)$ [see Eq. (B.0.15)] as a function of $t$ at three different points: $z = 0$ (red, nearly zero), $z = \ell/4$ (blue) and $z = \ell/2$ (black). It is shown that the net electric charge density $\rho(z,t)$ (except the center $z = 0$) increases as time.
oscillation frequency (see Fig. B.1). The energy-spectrum and its peak are shifted to high-energies as the initial electric field-strength increases, and the relation between the spectrum peak location and the electric field-strength is shown in Fig. B.8. In addition, the energy-spectrum and its peak are also shifted to high-energies as the temporary duration $T$ of plasma oscillations increases (see Fig. B.1). In calculations, the temporary duration $T = 3500\tau_C$ is chosen, not only to satisfy the adiabaticity condition Eq. (B.0.23) 2, but also to be in the time duration when the oscillatory behavior is distinctive (see Figs. B.1,B.4,B.6), since the oscillations of pair-induced currents damp and pairs annihilate into photons Ruffini et al. (2003b). The radiation intensity (B.0.31) depends on the strength, spatial dimension and temporal duration of strong external electric fields, created by either experimental setups or astrophysical conditions.

**Conclusions and remarks.** We show the space and time evolutions of pair-induced electric charges, currents and fields in strong external electric fields bounded within a spatial region. These results imply the wave propagation

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2We check the two cases $E_0 = E_c$ and $E_0 = 10E_c$, and find for the first oscillation $\eta = 865$ and $\eta = 487$ respectively. As can be seen for the Fig. B.1 the frequencies $\omega$ of pair-oscillations increase with time which means the parameter $\eta$ becoming smaller. Eventually it may reach unity so the formula (B.0.22) becomes inapplicable.
B. Electron-positron pair oscillation in spatially inhomogeneous electric fields and radiation

Figure B.6: Electric current densities $j_z(z,t)$ [see Eq. (B.0.14)] as functions of $t$ at three different points: $z = \ell/2$ (black), $z = \ell/4$ (blue) and $z = 0$ (red). The plateaus (see also Fig. B.6) for the current saturation values increases as time, mainly due to the number-densities $n_\pm$ of electron-positron pairs increase with time. In addition, they are maximal at the center $z = 0$ where the initial electric field is maximal, and decrease as the initial electric field $E_{\text{ext}}(z)$ decreasing for $|z| > 0$.

of the pair-induced electric field and wave-transportation of the electromagnetic energy in the strong field region. Analogously to the electromagnetic radiation emitted from an alternating electric current, the space and time variations of pair-induced electric currents and charges emit an electromagnetic radiation. We show that this radiation has a peculiar energy-spectrum (see Fig. B.7) that is clearly distinguishable from the energy-spectra of the bremsstrahlung radiation, electron-positron annihilation and other possible background events. This possibly provides a distinctive way to detect the radiative signatures for the production and oscillation of electron-positron pairs in ultra-strong electric fields that can be realized in either ground laboratories or astrophysical environments.

As mentioned in introduction, the critical electric field $E_c$ will be reached soon in ground laboratories and sensible methods to detect signatures of pair-productions become important. Recently, the momentum signatures of pair-production is found Hebenstreit et al. (2009) in a time-varying electric field $E(t)$ with sub-cycle structure. On the other hand, space-based telescopes the Swift-BAT NASA (2004), NuSTAR caltech (2010) and Astro-H japan (2010) focusing high-energy X-ray missions, will also give possibilities of detecting X-ray radiation signature, discussed in this paper, from compact stars with
Figure B.7: In the Compton unit, normalizing $\tilde{D}(\omega)$ [see Eq. (B.0.30)] by the volume $\mathcal{V} \equiv \int d^3\mathbf{x'}$ of the radiation source $\mathcal{J}(t', \mathbf{x'})$, we plot $|\tilde{D}(\omega)|^2$ [see Eq. (B.0.31)] representing the narrow energy-spectrum of the radiation field $E_{\text{rad}}$ and peak locates at the frequency $\omega_{\text{peak}} \approx 0.08m_e$. 

electromagnetic structure.
Figure B.8.: The peak frequency $\omega_{\text{peak}}$ of the radiation approximately varies from 4keV to 70 keV as the initial electric field strength $E_0$ varies from $E_c$ to $10E_c$. The values for very large field-strengths $E_0/E_c > 1$ possibly receive corrections, since the semiclassical pair-production rate (B.0.22) is approximately adopted and the pressure term (see footnote on page 1065) is not properly taken into account.
C. Electron and positron pair production in gravitational collapse

C.1. Introduction.

In the gravitational collapse or pulsation of neutral stellar cores at densities comparable to the nuclear density, complex dynamical processes are expected to take place. These involve both macroscopic processes such as gravitational and hydrodynamical processes, as well as microscopic processes due to the strong and electroweak interactions. The time and length scales of macroscopic processes are much larger than those of the microscopic processes. Despite the existence of only a few exact solutions of Einstein’s equations for simplified cases, macroscopic processes can be studied rather well by numerical algorithms. In both analytical solutions and numerical simulations it is rather difficult to simultaneously analyze both macroscopic and microscopic processes characterized by such different time and length scales. In these approaches, microscopic processes are approximately treated as local and instantaneous processes that are effectively represented by a model-dependent parametrized equation of state (EOS). We call this approximate locality.

Applying approximate locality to electric processes, as required by the charge conservation, one is led to local neutrality: positive and negative charge densities are exactly equal over all space and time. As a consequence, all electric fields and processes are eliminated. An internal electric field (charge separation) must be developed Olson and Bailyn (1975, 1976); Rotondo et al. (2011a,b) in a totally neutral system of proton and electron fluids in a gravitational field. If the electric field (process) is weak (slow) enough, approximate locality is applicable. However, this should be seriously questioned when the electric field (process) is strong (rapid). For example, neutral stellar cores reach the nuclear density where positive charged baryons interact via the strong interaction while electrons do not, in addition to their widely different masses. As a result, their pressure, number, and energy density are described by different EOS, and a strong electric field (charge separation) on the baryon core surface is realized Usov (1998); Popov et al. (2009) in an electrostatic equilibrium state.

Furthermore, either gravitationally collapsing or pulsating of the baryon
core leads to the dynamical evolution of electrons. As a consequence, the strong electric field dynamically evolves in space and time, and some electromagnetic processes can result if their reaction rates are rapid enough, for example, the electron-positron pair-production process of Sauter-Heisenberg-Euler-Schwinger (see the review Ruffini et al. (2010)) for electric fields $E \gtrsim E_c \equiv m_e^2 c^3/(e\hbar)$. If this indeed occurs, gravitational and pulsating energies of neutral stellar cores are converted into the observable energy of electron-positron pairs via the space and time evolution of electric fields. In this chapter, we present our studies of this possibility (the natural units $\hbar = c = 1$ are adopted, unless otherwise specified).

C.2. Basic equations for dynamical evolution.

We attempt to study possible electric processes in the dynamical perturbations of neutral stellar cores. These dynamical perturbations can be caused by either the gravitational collapse or pulsation of neutral stellar cores. The basic equations are the Einstein-Maxwell equations and those governing the particle number and energy-momentum conservation

$$(\bar{n}_{e,B} U^\nu_{e,B})_\nu = 0, \quad G_{\mu\nu} = -8\pi G (T_{\mu\nu} + T_{\mu\nu}^{\text{em}}),$$

$$(T^\nu_{\mu})_\nu = -F_{\mu\nu} J^\nu,$$

$$F^{\mu\nu} = 4\pi J^\mu,$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.2.1)

in which the Einstein tensor $G_{\mu\nu}$, the electromagnetic field $F^{\mu\nu}$ (satisfying $F_{[\alpha\beta\gamma]} = 0$) and its energy-momentum tensor $T^{\text{em}}_{\mu\nu}$ appear; $U^\nu_{e,B}$ and $\bar{n}_{e,B}$ are, respectively, the four velocities and proper number-densities of the electrons and baryons. The electric current density is

$$J^\mu = e\bar{n}_p U^\mu_B - e\bar{n}_e U^\mu_e,$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.2.2)

where $\bar{n}_p$ is the proper number-density of the positively charged baryons. The energy-momentum tensor $T^{\mu\nu} = T^{\mu\nu}_e + T^{\mu\nu}_B$ is taken to be that of two simple perfect fluids representing the electrons and the baryons, each of the form

$$T^{\mu\nu}_{e,B} = \bar{p}_{e,B} g^{\mu\nu} + (\bar{\rho}_{e,B} + \bar{\rho}_{e,B}) U^\mu_{e,B} U^\nu_{e,B},$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.2.3)

where $\bar{\rho}_{e,B}(r,t)$ and $\bar{\rho}_{e,B}(r,t)$ are the respective proper energy densities and pressures.

In this chapter, baryons indicate hadrons, or their constituents (quarks) that carry baryon numbers. Electrons indicate all negatively charged leptons. Baryon fluid and electron fluid are separately described for the reason
that in addition to baryons being much more massive than electrons, the EOS of baryons $\bar{\rho}_B = \bar{\rho}_B(\bar{\rho}_B)$ is very different from the electron one $\rho_c = \rho_c(\rho_c)$ due to the strong interaction. Therefore, in the dynamical perturbations of neutral stellar cores, one should not expect that the space-time evolution of number density, energy density, four velocity, and pressure of baryon fluid be identical to the space-time evolution of counterparts of electron fluid. The difference of space-time evolutions of two fluids results in the electric current (C.2.2) and field $F^{\mu\nu}$, possibly leading to some electric processes. In a simplified model for the dynamical perturbations of neutral stellar cores, we approximately study possible electric processes by assuming that the equilibrium configurations of neutral stellar cores are initial configurations.

C.3. Equilibrium configurations.

In Refs. Olson and Bailyn (1975, 1976); Rotondo et al. (2011a, b), the equilibrium configurations of neutral stellar cores, whose densities are smaller than nuclear density $n_{\text{nucl}}$, are studied on the basis of hydrostatic dynamics of baryon and electron fluids in the presence of long-ranged gravitational and Coulomb forces. In these equilibrium configurations, very weak electric fields $E \ll E_c$ are present, resulted from the balance between attractive gravitational force and repulsive Coulomb force. This electric field is too weak to make important electric processes, for example, electron-positron pair productions. We are interested in the case where strong electric fields are present. This leads us to consider strong electric fields in the surface layer of baryon cores of compact stars (quark or neutron stars) at or over the nuclear density. In this case, we assume that baryons form a rigid core of radius $R_c$ and density

$$\bar{n}_{B,p}(r) = \left[ \exp \frac{r - R_c}{\zeta} + 1 \right]^{-1}, \quad \bar{n}_{B,p} \approx \frac{N_{B,p}}{(4\pi R_c^3/3)},$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.3.1)

where $\bar{n}/\bar{n}_B \approx N_p / N_B < 1$, $N_B(N_p)$ is the number of total (charged) baryons and $\bar{n}_{B,p} \gtrsim n_{\text{nucl}} \approx 1.4 \times 10^{38} \text{cm}^{-3}$. The baryon core has a sharp boundary ($r \sim R_c$) of the width $\zeta \sim m_{\pi}^{-1}$ due to the strong interaction. The line element is Bekenstein (1971); Mashhoon and Partovi (1979)

$$ds^2 = -g_{tt}dt^2 + g_{rr}dr^2 + r^2d\theta^2 + r^2\sin^2 \theta d\phi^2,$$

$$g^{-1}_{rr}(r) = 1 - 2GM(r)/r + GQ^2(r)/r^2,$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.3.2)

where mass $M(r)$, charge $Q(r)$ and radial electric field $E(r) = Q(r)/r^2$.

Electrons form a complete degenerate fluid and their density $n_{e}^{\text{eq}}(r)$ obeys the following Poisson equation and equilibrium condition Popov et al. (2009);
Rueda et al. (2011):

\[
d^2 V_{\text{eq}} \over dr^2 + \left[ \frac{2}{r} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dr} \ln (g_{tt} g_{rr}) \right] \frac{d V_{\text{eq}}}{dr} = -4\pi e g_{rr} (n_p U_p^l - n_{e}^{\text{eq}} U_e^l),
\]

\[
E_{e}^F = g_{tt}^{1/2} \sqrt{|P_{e}^F|^2 + m_e^2 - m_e - eV_{\text{eq}}} = \text{const.}
\]

where \( U_p^l = U_e^l = (1, 0, 0, 0) \), \( E_{e}^F \), and \( P_{e}^F = (3\pi^2 n_{e}^{\text{eq}})^{1/3} \) are the Fermi energy and momentum, \( V_{\text{eq}}(r) \) and \( E_{\text{eq}} = -(g_{rr})^{-1/2} \partial V_{\text{eq}}(r) / \partial r \) are the static electric potential and field. In the ultrarelativistic case \(|P_{e}^F| \gg m_e\), we numerically integrate Eq. (C.3.3) with boundary conditions:

\[
n_{e}^{\text{eq}}(r)|_{r \ll R_c} = n_B
\]

\[
n_{e}^{\text{eq}}(r)|_{r \gg R_c} = \left. \frac{dn_{e}^{\text{eq}}(r)}{dr} \right|_{r \gg R_c} = \left. \frac{dn_{e}^{\text{eq}}(r)}{dr} \right|_{r \ll R_c} = 0.
\]

As a result, we obtain on the baryon core boundary \( r \approx R_c \), the nontrivial charge-separation \((n_p - n_{e}^{\text{eq}}) / n_B\) and overcritical electric field \( E_{\text{eq}} / E_c > 0 \) in a thin layer of a few electron Compton length \( \lambda_e \) [the curves \( (t = 0) \) in Fig. C.1]. This is due to the sharpness boundary \( \zeta \sim m_\pi^{-1} \) of the baryon core (C.3.1) at the nuclear density, as discussed for compact stars Usov (1998); Popov et al. (2009). Note that all electronic energy-levels Kleinert et al. (2008)

\[
\varepsilon_{\text{occupied}} = e \int \frac{1}{2} dE_{\text{eq}}(r)
\]

are fully occupied and pair-production is not permitted due to Pauli blocking, although electric fields in the surface layer are over critical. We want to understand the space and time evolution of the electric field in this thin layer and its consequence in the dynamical perturbations of baryon cores, which can be caused by either the gravitational collapse or pulsation of baryon cores.

### C.4. Modeling dynamical perturbations of baryon cores.

It is rather difficult to solve the dynamical system (C.2.1-C.2.3) with the EOS \( \bar{p}_B = \bar{p}_B(\bar{\rho}_B) \) and \( \bar{p}_e = \bar{p}_e(\bar{\rho}_e) \) for the gravitational collapse or pulsation of baryon core and electron fluid, and to examine possible electromagnetic processes. The main difficulty comes from the fact that the time and length scales of gravitational and electromagnetic processes differ by many orders of magnitude. In order to gain some physical insight into the problem, we are bound

to split the problem into three parts: (i) first, we adopt a simplified model to describe the dynamical perturbations of baryon cores; (ii) second, we examine how electron fluid responds to this dynamical perturbation of baryon cores; (iii) third, we check whether the resulted strong electric fields can lead to very rapid electromagnetic processes, for example, electron-positron pair production.

As for the first part, we adopt the following simplified model. Suppose that at the time $t = 0$ the baryon core is in the equilibrium configuration (C.3.1) with the radius $R_c$ and starts dynamical perturbations with an inward velocity $\dot{R}_c(t)$ or pulsation frequency $\omega_{\text{puls}} \simeq \dot{R}_c/R_c$. The rate of dynamical perturbations of baryon cores is defined as $\tau^{-1}_{\text{coll}} = \dot{R}_c/R_c \lesssim c/R_c$. We further assume that in these dynamical perturbations, baryon cores are rigid, based on the argument that as the baryon core density $\bar{n}_{B,p}$ (C.3.1) increases, the EOS of baryons $\bar{p}_B = \bar{p}_B(\bar{\rho}_B)$ due to the strong interaction is such that the baryon core profile (C.3.1) and boundary width $\zeta \sim m_\pi^{-1}$ are maintained in the nuclear relaxation rate $\tau^{-1}_{\text{stro}} \sim m_\pi$, which is much larger than $\tau^{-1}_{\text{coll}}$. Thus, due to these properties of strong interaction, the dynamical perturbation of the baryon core induces an inward charged baryon current-density

$$
J_B^r(R_c) = e\bar{n}_p(R_c)U_B^r(R_c),
$$

on the sharp boundary of baryon core density (C.3.1) at $R_c$, where the baryon density $\bar{n}_{B,p}(R_c) = 0.5\bar{n}_{B,p}$ and the four-velocity $U_B^r(R_c) \neq 0$. We have not yet been able, from the first principle of strong interaction theory, to derive this boundary property (C.4.1) of baryon cores undergoing dynamical perturbations, which essentially are assumptions in the present chapter, and the boundary density $\bar{n}_{B,p}(R_c)$ and the boundary four-velocity $U_B^r(R_c)$ are two parameters depending on dynamical perturbations. This is in the same situation that so far one has not yet been able, from the first principle of strong interaction theory, to derive the sharp boundary profile (C.3.1) of baryon core densities of static compact stars Usov (1998); Popov et al. (2009). However, we have to point out that the boundary properties (C.3.1) and (C.4.1) of the baryon core undergoing dynamical perturbations are rather technical assumptions for the following numerical calculations of dynamical evolution of electron fluid and electric processes in the Compton time and length scales. These assumptions could be abandoned if we were able to simultaneously make numerical integration of differential equations for both dynamical perturbations of baryon cores at macroscopic length scale and strong and electric processes at microscopic length scale.
C.5. Dynamical evolution of electron fluid

In this section, we attempt to examine how the electron fluid around the boundary layer of the baryon core responds to the dynamical perturbations of the baryon core described by the boundary properties (C.3.1) and (C.4.1). Given these boundary properties at different values of baryon core radii \( R_c \), we describe electrons and electric fields around the boundary layer of baryon core by Maxwell’s equations, the electron number and energy-momentum conservation laws (C.2.1) in the external metric field (C.3.2). In addition, we assume that the electron fluid is completely degenerate, and its EOS is given by

\[
\bar{p}_e(t, r) = 2 \int_0^{p_e^F} p^0 d^3 \mathbf{p} / (2\pi)^3, \\
\bar{n}_e(t, r) = \frac{2}{3} \int_0^{p_e^F} \frac{p^2}{p^0} d^3 \mathbf{p},
\]

where the single-particle spectrum is \( p^0 = (p^2 + m_e^2)^{1/2} \) and the Fermi momentum is \( p_e^F = (3\pi^2 n_e)^{1/3} \). In the present chapter, for the sake of simplicity, we set the temperature of electron fluid to be zero and neglect all temperature effects, which may be important and will be studied in future.

The electron fluid has four velocity \( U^i = (U^t, \mathbf{U}^e) \), radial velocity \( v_e \equiv (U^r / U^t) \), and Lorentz factor \( \gamma_e \equiv (1 + \mathbf{U}^e \cdot \mathbf{v}_e)^{1/2} = [1 + (g_{tt} / g_{rr}) v_e^2]^{-1/2} \). In the rest frame at a given radius \( r \) it has the number density \( n_e = \bar{n}_e \gamma_e \), energy density \( \epsilon_e = (\bar{p}_e + \bar{n}_e v_e^2) \gamma_e^2 \), momentum density \( P_e = (\bar{p}_e + \bar{n}_e) \gamma_e^2 v_e \), and \( \mathbf{v}_e = \mathbf{P}_e / (\epsilon_e + \bar{p}_e) \). In the rest frame, the number and energy-momentum conservation laws for the electron fluid, and Maxwell’s equations are given by

\[
\left( n_e g_{tt}^{-1/2} \right)_t + \left( n_e v_e g_{tt}^{-1/2} \right)_r = 0, 
\]

\[
(\epsilon_e)_t + (P_e)_r + \frac{1}{2g_{tt}} \left[ \frac{\partial g_{rr}}{\partial t} P_e v_e - \frac{\partial g_{tt}}{\partial t} (\epsilon_e + \bar{p}_e) \right] = -en_e v_e E g_{tt}^{-1/2},
\]

\[
(P_e g_{rr})_t + \left( \bar{p}_e + P_e v_e g_{rr} / g_{tt} \right)_r + \frac{\epsilon_e + \bar{p}_e}{2g_{tt}} \left( \frac{\partial g_{tt}}{\partial r} - \frac{\partial g_{rr}}{\partial r} v_e^2 \right) = -en_e E g_{tt}^{-1/2},
\]

\[
(E)_t = -4\pi e(n_p v_p - n_e v_e) g_{tt}^{-1/2},
\]

where \((\cdots)_x \equiv (-g)^{-1/2} \partial (-g)^{1/2} (\cdots) / \partial x\), and in the line (C.5.5), the boundary velocity \( \mathbf{v}_p \) of the baryon core comes from the baryon current-density
C.6. Oscillations of electron fluid and electric field.

We consider the baryon core of mass $M = 10M_\odot$ and radius $R_c \sim 10^7$ cm at the nuclear density $n_{\text{nucl}}$, and select its boundary velocity $v_p = 0.2c$ to represent possible dynamical perturbations of baryon cores. In the proper frame of a rest observer at the core radius $R_c$, where $g_{tt}(R_c) \approx g^{-1}_{rr}(R_c)$, we chose the surface layer boundaries $\xi_- \approx -\lambda_e, \xi_+ \approx 3.5\lambda_e$, at which $E_{\text{eq}}(\xi_{\pm}) \approx 0$ and proper thickness $\ell = \xi_+ - \xi_-$, and numerically integrate Eqs. (C.5.1-C.5.5) for the electron fluid. Numerical results are presented in Figs. C.1 and C.2, showing that total electric field

$$E(t, r) = E_{\text{eq}}(r) + \tilde{E}(t, r),$$

where electron number density, energy density, and pressure oscillate around their equilibrium configurations Han et al. (2010). This is due to the fact that electrons do not possess the strong interaction and their mass is much smaller than the baryon one, as a result, the current density of electron fluid in the boundary layer does not exactly follow the baryon core current density (C.4.1). Instead, triggered by the baryon core current (C.4.1), total electric fields $E(t, r)$ deviate from $E_{\text{eq}}(r)$ and increase, which breaks the equilibrium condition (C.3.3), namely, the balance between pressure and electric force acting on electrons, $dP_e/dr + eE_{\text{eq}} = 0$. Accelerated by increasing electric fields, electrons outside the core start to move inwards following the collapsing baryon core. This leads to the increase of the electron pressure (C.5.1) and the decrease of the electric fields. On the contrary, increasing electron pressure pushes electrons backwards, and bounces them back. Overcritical electric fields work against the pressure of ultrarelativistic electrons. As a consequence, oscillations with frequency $\omega = \frac{1}{\tau_{\text{osci}}} \sim 1.5m_e$ around the equilibrium configuration take place in a thin layer of a few Compton lengths.
C. Electron and positron pair production in gravitational collapse

Figure C.1.: The space and time evolution of the electric field (left) and charge-separation (right) around the boundary layer of the baryon core, \( M = 10M_\odot, R_c \approx 10^7\text{cm}, \) and \( v_p = 0.2c. \) The coordinate is \( \xi \equiv r - R_c. \)

Figure C.2.: Time evolution of electric fields at different radial positions around the boundary layer of the baryon core, \( M = 10M_\odot, R_c \approx 10^7\text{cm} \) and \( v_p = 0.2c. \) The coordinate is \( \xi \equiv r - R_c. \)

around the boundary of baryon core. These are the main results presented in this chapter. We would like to point out that these results should not depend on the boundary properties (C.3.1) and (C.4.1) that we assume for the dynamical perturbations of baryon cores. The reason is that both electron and proton fluids in baryon cores are at or over nuclear density, and their Fermi momenta are the order of the pion mass \( m_\pi; \) therefore, electric fields must be at or over critical value \( E_c = m_e^2/e \) to do work against motion of charge separation between positively charged baryon and electron fluids, and the frequency of oscillation because of the backreaction should also be the order of \( m_e. \) It is worthwhile that these results are further checked by full numerical calculations without assuming the boundary properties (C.3.1) and (C.4.1) of baryon cores, which undergo the dynamical perturbations caused by the gravitational collapse or pulsation.

Suppose that the dynamical perturbation of the baryon core is caused by
C.7. Electron-positron pair production

either the gravitational collapse or pulsation of the baryon core, that gains
the gravitational energy. Then, in this oscillating process, energy transforms
from the dynamical perturbation of the baryon core to the electron fluid via
an oscillating electric field. This can be seen from the energy conservation
(C.2.1) along a flow line of the electron fluid for $v_e \neq v_p$

$$U_e^\mu (T^\nu_{\mu};v) = \epsilon \gamma (v_p-v_e) g_{rr} E,$$  \quad (C.6.2)

although we have not yet explicitly proved it. The energy density of the os-
cillating electric field is

$$\epsilon_{osci} \equiv \left[ E^2(t,r) - E_{eq}^2(r) \right] / (8\pi).$$  \quad (C.6.3)

The energy densities of the oscillating electric field and electron fluid are
converted from one to another in the oscillating process with frequencies
$\omega \sim \tau_{osci}^{-1} \sim 1.5m_e$ around the equilibrium configuration. However, the oscil-
lating electron fluid has to relax to the new equilibrium configuration deter-
bined by Eqs. (C.3.3) and (C.3.4) with a smaller baryon core radius $R_c' < R_c$.
As a result, the oscillating electric field must damp out and its lifetime $\tau_{relax}$
is actually a relaxation time to the new equilibrium configuration. As shown
in Fig. C.2 the relaxation rate $\tau_{relax}^{-1} \sim 0.05m_e$. We notice very different time
scales of strong interacting processes, electric interacting processes and dy-
namical perturbations of baryon cores: $\tau_{stro}^{-1} \gg \tau_{osci}^{-1} \gg \tau_{relax}^{-1} \gg \tau_{coll}^{-1}$.

Moreover, when $E(r,t) > E_{eq}(r)$ (see Fig. C.1), the unoccupied electronic
energy-level can be obtained by Kleinert et al. (2008)

$$\mathcal{E}_{unoccupied} = e \int g_1^{1/2} dr E(t,r) - \mathcal{E}_{occupied}$$
$$= e \int g_1^{1/2} dr \tilde{E}(t,r),$$  \quad (C.6.4)

see Eq. (C.3.5). This leads to pair production in strong electric fields and con-
verts electric energy into the energy of electron-positron pairs, provided the
pair-production rate $\tau_{pair}^{-1}$ is faster than the oscillating frequency $\omega = \tau_{osci}^{-1}$.
Otherwise, the energy of oscillating electric fields would completely be con-
verted into the electrostatic Coulomb energy of the new equilibrium config-
uration of electron fluid, which cannot be not radiative.

C.7. Electron-positron pair production

We turn to the pair-production rate in spatially inhomogeneous and tempo-
 rally oscillating electric fields $E(t,r)$. Although the oscillating frequency $\omega$
is rather large, the pair-production rate $\tau_{pair}^{-1}$ can be even larger due to the very
strong electric fields $E(t,r)$. The pair-production rate can be approximately
calculated by the formula for static fields. The validity of this approximation is justified (see Ruffini et al. (2010); Brezin and Itzykson (1970)) by the adiabaticity parameter \( \eta^{-1} = (\omega / m_e)(E_c / E_{\text{max}}) \ll 1 \), where \( E_{\text{max}} \) is the maximal value of the electric field on the baryon core surface \( r \approx R_c \). Therefore we adopt Eqs. (38) and (39) and (64)-(66) in Ref. Kleinert et al. (2008) for the Sauter electric field to estimate the density of the pair-production rate in the proper frame at the core radius \( R_c \)

\[
\rho_{\text{pair}} \approx \frac{e^2 E \tilde{E}}{4\pi^3 G_0(\sigma)} e^{-\pi(E_c/E)G_0(\sigma)} \sim \frac{e^2 E \tilde{E}}{4\pi^3},
\]

(C.7.1)

where \( \tilde{E} \) (instead of \( E \)) in the prefactor accounts for the unoccupied electric energy levels, \( G_0(\sigma) \to 0 \) and \( \tilde{G}_0(\sigma) \to 1 \) for \( \sigma = (\ell / \lambda_e)(E/E_c) \gg 1 \). The electron-positron pairs screen the oscillating field \( \tilde{E} \) so that the number of pairs can be estimated by \( N_{\text{pair}} \approx 4\pi R_c^2 (\tilde{E} / e) \). The pair-production rate is \( \tau_{\text{pair}}^{-1} \approx \rho_{\text{pair}} (4\pi R_c^2 \ell) / N_{\text{pair}} \approx am_e (\ell / \lambda_e) (E/E_c) \approx 6.6m_e \approx \tau_{\text{osci}}^{-1} \). The number density of pairs is estimated by \( n_{\text{pair}} \approx N_{\text{pair}} / (4\pi R_c^2 \ell) \). Assuming the energy density \( \epsilon_{\text{osci}} \) of oscillating fields is totally converted into the pair energy density, we have the pair mean energy \( \bar{\epsilon}_{\text{pair}} \equiv \epsilon_{\text{osci}} / n_{\text{pair}} \). Using the parameters \( v_p \approx 0.2c \), \( R_c \approx 10^7 \text{ cm} \), and \( M = 10M_\odot \), we obtain \( \epsilon_{\text{osci}} \approx 4.3 \times 10^{28} \text{ ergs/cm}^3 \), \( n_{\text{pair}} \approx 1.1 \times 10^{33} / \text{ cm}^3 \), and \( \bar{\epsilon}_{\text{pair}} \approx 24.5 \text{ MeV} \). These estimates are preliminary without considering the efficiency of pair-productions, possible suppression due to strong magnetic fields, and possible enhancement due to finite temperature effect.

**C.8. Gravitational collapse and Dyadosphere**

Up to now, we have not discussed how the dynamical perturbations of baryon cores can be caused by either the gravitational collapse or pulsation of baryon cores. Actually, we have not been able to completely integrate the dynamical equations discussed in Sec. C.2 for the reasons discussed in Secs. C.1 and C.4. Nevertheless, we attempt to use the results of electric field oscillation and pair production obtained in Secs. C.5, C.6 and C.7 to gain some physical insight into what and how electric processes could possibly occur in the gravitational collapse of baryon cores. For this purpose and in order to do some quantitative calculations, we first model the gravitational collapse of baryon cores by the following assumptions:

1. the gravitationally collapsing process is made of the sequence of events (in time) occurring at different radii \( R_c \) of the baryon core;

2. at each event the baryon core maintains its density profile and sharp boundary as described by Eqs. (C.3.1) and (C.4.1).
The first assumption is based on the arguments that (i) in the electric processes discussed in Sec. C.6, the charge-mass ratio $Q/M$ of the baryon core can possibly be approaching to 1, then the collapse process of the baryon core is slowing down and its kinetic energy is vanishing because the attractive gravitational energy gained is mostly converted into the repulsive Coulomb energy of the baryon core; (ii) then this Coulomb energy can be possibly converted into the radiative energy of electron-positron pairs as discussed in Sec. C.7, and the baryon core restarts acceleration by gaining gravitational energy. We have already discussed the second assumption in Secs. C.4 and C.6. Here we want to emphasize that (i) the sharp boundary properties (C.3.1) and (C.4.1) in the second assumption are technically used in order to numerically calculate the dynamics of electron fluid in the thin shell around the baryon boundary (Secs. C.5, C.6 and C.7); (ii) in the gravitational collapse or pulsation of neutral stellar cores at or over nuclear density, these sharp boundary properties (C.3.1) and (C.4.1) should be abandoned in a more realistic model of simultaneously integrating dynamical equations of electron and baryon fluids over the entire stellar core at macroscopic scales. This turns out to be much more complicated and we will focus on this study in the future.

On the basis of these assumptions, the boundary velocity $v_p(R_c)$ (C.5.6) and boundary radius $R_c$ [or boundary density $\tilde{n}_{B,p}(R_c)$ (C.3.1)] of the baryon core at or over the nuclear density are no longer independent parameters, instead they should be related by the gravitational collapse equation of the baryon core. We adopt a simplified model for the gravitational collapse of the baryon core by approximately using the collapsing equation for a thin shell Israel (1966); De la Cruz and Israel (1967); Bekenstein (1971); Cherubini et al. (2002); Ruffini and Vitagliano (2002)

$$\left(\frac{\Omega}{F}\right)^2 \left(\frac{dR_c}{dt}\right)^2 = \left[1 + \frac{GM}{2R_c}(1 - \xi_Q^2)\right]^2 - 1,$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.8.1)

where at different radii $R_c$ of the baryon core, we define the charge-mass ratio

$$\xi_Q \equiv Q^\text{eq}/(G^{1/2}M) < 1; \quad Q^\text{eq} = R_c^2 E_{\text{eq}},$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.8.2)

and

$$\Omega \equiv 1 - (M/2R_c)(1 + \xi_Q^2) \quad F \equiv 1 - (2M/R_c) + (Q^\text{eq}/R_c)^2.$$  \hspace{1cm} (C.8.3)

The collapsing Eq. (C.8.1) for the collapsing velocity $\dot{R}_c$ is based on the condition that at each collapsing radius $R_c$, the shell starts to collapse from rest. As a result, using these Eqs. (C.8.1-C.8.3) we describe the sequence of events in the gravitationally collapsing process in terms of the collapsing velocities $v_p = \dot{R}_c = dR_c/dt$ defined by (C.5.6) and (C.5.7) at different collapsing radii.
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Figure C.3: The estimate of the core collapsing velocity \( v_p \equiv \dot{R}_c = dR_c/dt \) at different collapsing radii \( R_c \) for the baryon core of mass \( M = 10 M_\odot \).

\( R_c \) of the baryon core, as shown in Fig. C.3. Thus, at each event the induced inward charged baryon current-density (C.4.1) is given by

\[
\mathbf{J}_B = e\bar{n}_p \mathbf{U}_B \approx e\bar{n}_p (\dot{R}_c \Omega / F),
\]

as a function of the collapsing radius \( R_c \). The strength of this charged baryon current density (C.8.4) depends also on the ratio of the charged baryon number and total baryon number \( N_p/N_B \), which varies in the gravitational collapsing process because of the \( \beta \) processes Mohammadi et al. (2012). In this chapter, the \( \beta \) processes are not considered and the charged baryon (proton) number \( N_p \) is constant; we select two values \( N_p/N_B \approx 1/38 \) or \( N_p/N_B \approx 1/380 \) for the charged baryon current density Eq. (C.8.4). The collapsing process rate is \( \tau_{\text{coll}}^{-1} = \dot{R}_c/R_c \lesssim c/R_c \). If the dynamical perturbation of the baryon core is caused by the gravitational core pulsation, the pulsation frequency can be expressed as \( \omega_{\text{pulsa}} \approx \dot{R}_c/R_c = \tau_{\text{coll}} \).

In the sequence of the gravitationally collapsing process, at each event characterized by \( [R_c, v_p(R_c)] \), we first solve Eqs. (C.3.3) and (C.3.4) of the equilibrium configuration to obtain the number density \( n_c^{\text{eq}} \) and electric field \( E_{\text{eq}} \) as the initial configuration of the electron fluid and electric field. Then, with this initial configuration we numerically solve the dynamical equations (C.5.1-C.5.5) to obtain the dynamical evolution of electron fluid and electric field within the thin shell (a few Compton lengths) around the baryon core boundary, described by Eqs. (C.3.1) and (C.8.4). As a result, based on the analysis presented in Sec. C.7 we calculate the energy and number densities of the electron-positron pairs produced at each event in the sequence of the gravitationally collapsing process. These results are plotted in Figs. C.4. Limited by numerical methods, we cannot do calculations for smaller radii.

In addition, at each event in the sequence of the gravitationally collapsing process, using the Gauss law, \( Q = R_c^2 E \), we calculate the charge-mass ratio \( Q/M \) averaged over oscillations of electric fields, \( Q/M < 1 \) as shown in Fig. C.5. The averaged charge-mass ratio \( Q/M \) is not very small, rather
C.8. Gravitational collapse and Dyadosphere

5 \times 10^6 \text{ erg/cm}^3 

30.5
30.0
30.0
30.5
31.0
31.5

5 \times 10^7 \text{ cm}

Figure C.4.: The energy (left) and number (right) densities of electron-positron pairs at selected values of collapsing radii $R_c$ for $M = 10M_\odot$ and $N_p/N_B \approx 1/38$ (upper); 1/380 (lower). We select $R_c^{\text{max}} \sim 10^7 \text{ cm}$ so that $\bar{n}_B \sim n_{\text{nucl}}$.

Figure C.5.: The charge-mass ratio $Q/M$ averaged over oscillations of electric fields is plotted at different collapsing radii $R_c$ for the baryon core of mass $M = 10M_\odot$.

about 0.4 (see Fig. C.5), implying the possible validity of the first assumption we made that the gravitational collapsing process is approximately made of a sequence of events. In principle, at $Q/M = 1$ the gravitational collapsing process should stop, whereas the gravitational collapsing process is continuous for $Q/M = 0$ without considering electric interactions.

It is clear that the ratio $N_p/N_B$ becomes larger, the charged baryon current density (C.4.1) or (C.8.4) becomes larger, and all effects of electrical processes we discussed in Secs. C.5, C.6 and C.7 become larger. As shown in Figs. C.4, for the ratio $N_p/N_B \approx 1/38$, the energy density of electron-positron pairs is about $10^{31} \text{ ergs/cm}^3$, and the number density of electron-positron pairs is about $10^{35.6} \text{ /cm}^3$. The mean energy of electron-positron pairs is $\bar{\epsilon}_{\text{pair}} \equiv \epsilon_{\text{osci}}/n_{\text{pair}} \sim 10$–50 MeV. While, for the ratio $N_p/N_B \approx 1/380$, the energy density of electron-positron pairs is about $10^{30} \text{ ergs/cm}^3$, the number density of electron-positron pairs is about $10^{34.6} \text{ /cm}^3$, and the mean energy of electron-positron pairs $\bar{\epsilon}_{\text{pair}} \equiv \epsilon_{\text{osci}}/n_{\text{pair}} \sim 10$–50 MeV does not change very much.
C. Electron and positron pair production in gravitational collapse

It this chapter, it is an assumption that the gravitationally collapsing process is represented by the sequence of events: the baryon core starts to collapse from rest by gaining gravitational energy, the increasing Coulomb energy results in decreasing kinetic energy and slowing down the collapse process, the electric processes discussed in Secs. C.5, C.6 and C.7 convert the Coulomb energy into the radiative energy of electron-positron pairs, and as a result the baryon core restarts to accelerate the collapse process by further gaining gravitational energy. This indicates that in the gravitationally collapsing process, the gravitational energy must be partly converted into the radiative energy of electron-positron pairs. However, we have not been able so far to calculate all processes with very different time and length scales from one event to another in the sequence, so that it is impossible to quantitatively obtain the rate of the conversion of the gravitational energy to the energy of electron-positron pairs. Nevertheless, by summing over all events in the sequence of the gravitationally collapsing process, we approximately estimate the total number and energy of electron-positron pairs produced in the range $R_c \sim 5 \times 10^5 - 10^7$ cm: $10^{56}-10^{57}$ and $10^{52}-10^{53}$ erg for the ratio $N_p/N_B \approx 1/38$; $10^{55}-10^{56}$ and $10^{51}-10^{52}$ erg for the ratio $N_p/N_B \approx 1/380$. These electron-positron pairs undergo the plasma oscillation in strong electric fields and annihilate to photons to form a neutral plasma of photons and electron-positron pairs. This is reminiscent of the vacuum polarization of a charged black hole and a sphere of electron-positron pairs and photons, called a Dyadosphere that is supposed to be dynamically created during gravitational collapse in Refs. Ruffini and Xue (2008a); Preparata et al. (1998, 2003).


In the simplified model for the baryon cores of neutral compact stars, we show possible electric processes for the production of electron-positron pairs within the thin shell (a few Compton lengths) around the boundary of baryon cores that undergo gravitationally collapsing or pulsating processes, depending on the balance between attractive gravitational energy and repulsive electric and internal energies (see the numerical results in Ref. Ghezzi (2005); Ghezzi and Letelier (2007)). This indicates a possible mechanism that the gravitational energy is converted into the energy of electron-positron pairs in either baryon core collapse or pulsation.

In theory, this is a well-defined problem based on the Einstein-Maxwell equations, particle-number and energy-momentum conservation (C.2.1)-(C.2.3), and equations of states, as well as the Sauter-Heisenberg-Euler-Schwinger mechanism. However, in practice, it is a rather complicated problem that one has to deal with various interacting processes with very different time and length scales. The approach we adopt in this chapter is the adiabatic approx-

imation: the interacting processes with very small rates are considered to be adiabatic processes in comparison with the interacting processes with very large rates. Therefore, we try to split the problem of rapid microscopic processes from the problem of slow macroscopic processes, and focus on studying rapid microscopic processes in the background of adiabatic (slowly varying) macroscopic processes. The adiabatic approximation we adopted here is self-consistently and quantitatively justified by process rates

\[
\tau_{\text{strong}}^{-1} \gg \tau_{\text{pair}}^{-1} \gg \tau_{\text{osci}}^{-1} \gg \tau_{\text{relax}}^{-1} \gg \tau_{\text{coll}}^{-1}
\]  

(C.9.1)

studied in this chapter. In addition to the adiabatic approximation, we have not considered in this over simplified model the hydrodynamical evolution of baryon cores, the back-reaction of oscillations and pair-production on the collapsing or pulsating processes, and the dynamical evolution of the electron-positron pairs and photons. Needless to say, these results should be further checked by numerical algorithms integrating the full Einstein-Maxwell equations and proper EOS of particles in gravitational collapse. Nevertheless, the possible consequences of these electromagnetic processes discussed in this chapter are definitely interesting and could be possibly relevant and important for understanding energetic sources of supernovae and gamma-ray bursts.
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