Inclusive annihilation processes in ϕ^4 field theory

A. H. Mueller

Department of Physics, Columbia University, New York, New York 10027

(Received 31 August 1973)

The process $\phi(q) \rightarrow \phi(p) +$ anything, the process in ϕ^4 theory analogous to $e^+ + e^- \rightarrow$ hadron $+$ anything, is examined in ϕ^4 field theory for large values of q^2. Some heuristic arguments as to the strength of mass singularities in a particular two-particle irreducible amplitude make it possible to argue that a light-cone-like expansion exists when $q^2 \rightarrow \infty$. This light-cone expansion has virtually all of the properties of the usual light-cone expansion except that it is not an expansion in terms of invariant amplitudes associated with local operators. In case ϕ^4 theory has an eigenvalue, $\beta(g_\infty) = 0$, the moments of the annihilation cross section will have a power behavior in q^2, a power unrelated to the powers of q^2 appearing in any deeply inelastic scattering process. Also, at an eigenvalue the average multiplicity of particles produced, a quantity governed by the Callan-Symanzik equation in this theory, grows like a fractional power of q^2.

I. INTRODUCTION

Two types of reactions occupy a very special position in high-energy physics. These two reactions are e^+e^- total annihilation into hadrons and deeply inelastic electron scattering off hadrons. In each of these reactions, one is testing the short-distance behavior of the underlying theory of hadrons. This is the region where the physical masses of the hadrons, and indeed the physical hadrons themselves, do not play an essential role. The case of e^+e^- total annihilation is the simpler of the two cases. The total annihilation cross section, $\sigma(q^2)$, is proportional to

$$\int e^{iqx} d^4x \langle j(x) j(0) \rangle_0 ,$$

where $j(x)$ is the hadronic part of the electromagnetic current. (We neglect vector indices for this casual discussion.) When q^2 becomes large, $x^2 \sim 1/q^2$. The Wilson expansion[1] then tells us that the large-q^2 behavior depends only on the properties of the underlying zero-mass theory, and that these properties are severely constrained by renormalization requirements.[2,3]

Deeply inelastic electron scattering is proportional to

$$-i \int d^4x \, e^{iqx} \langle p|j(x)j(0)|p\rangle = f^p(\omega, q^2) ,$$

where p represents some hadron and $\omega = -2p \cdot q/q^2$. In this case, for large q^2, the moments

$$f_n^p(q^2) = \int_1^\infty d\omega \, \omega^{-n} f^p(\omega, q^2)$$

factorize, $f_n^p(q^2) = F_n^p f_n(q^2)$, and $f_n(q^2)$ depends only on the short-distance behavior of the theory.[4] F_n^p, on the other hand, depends on the details of the

particular hadron off which the electrons scatter. It is the light-cone expansion,[5,6] which extracts particular invariant amplitudes from a Wilson expansion, that guarantees that $f_n(q^2)$ depends only on the underlying zero-mass theory.

It is probably not obvious whether e^+e^- inclusive annihilation into hadrons has properties similar to those of the above-mentioned processes.[7-10] The cross section for $e^+e^- \rightarrow$ hadron $(p) +$ anything is proportional to

$$T^h(p^2, \omega, q^2) = -i \int d^4x \, d^4y \, d^4z \, e^{iqx + ip(y-z)}$$

$$\times \langle \overline{T}(j_h(y)j(x)) T(j_h(z)j(0)) \rangle_0 ,$$

where $j_h(x)$ is an hadronic source function, $\overline{T}$ denotes an anti-time-ordered product, and now $\omega = 2p \cdot q/q^2$, with q^2 timelike. When ω is fixed and $q^2 \rightarrow \infty$, kinematically $x^2 \rightarrow 0$ just as in the case of deeply inelastic electron scattering. However, here the Wilson expansion does not apply. Even if $x_\mu \rightarrow 0$, there may still be operators between $j(x)$ and $j(0)$ and no analog of the Wilson expansion has been established for products like

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} j(x)j(z)j(0) .$$

If the Wilson expansion is not valid one cannot expect that the light-cone expansion will be valid. The following question presents itself: Is the $q^2 \rightarrow \infty$ limit, and simultaneously $x^2 \sim 1/q^2 \rightarrow 0$, in e^+e^- inclusive annihilation simply a *kinematic* region on the light cone, or is there an analog of the light-cone expansion, related to an underlying zero-mass theory,[11] which applies to this case? In this paper it will be argued that the latter is in fact what occurs. That is, there is an expansion which resembles an ordinary light-cone expansion in all its details except that local operators, or particu-

lar invariant amplitudes coming from local oper-
ators, do not occur in the expansion. Thus, if one
defines

$$t_\sigma^h(p^2, q^2) = \int_0^1 d\omega \, \omega^\sigma T^h(p^2, \omega, q^2) \, ,$$

then

$$\lim_{q^2 \to \infty} t_\sigma^h(p^2, q^2) = \sum_{i=\pm} \Gamma_{i,\sigma}^h(p^2) t_{i,\sigma}(q^2)$$

so long as $\text{Re}\sigma > 0$ (ϕ^4 theory). $t_\sigma(q^2)$ has no de-
pendence on the produced hadron h, obeys a cou-
pled Callan-Symanzik equation,[12,13] and is deter-
mined by the zero-mass theory. The theory which
will be examined in detail in this paper is ϕ^4 theory
for which the above equation and statements are
true in each order of perturbation theory.

An outline of this paper may be helpful. In Sec.
II a familiar problem, that of deeply inelastic
electron scattering, or at least a ϕ^4 analog of that
process, is worked out in detail. This will be re-
ferred to as the spacelike case since q^2 is space-
like. The light-cone expansion and Callan-Syman-
zik equation are derived by means of a diagonaliza-
tion of the Bethe-Salpeter equation along with some
additional subtractions. The spirit, but not the
details, follows treatments given by Symanzik in
deriving the Wilson expansion from the Bethe-
Salpeter equation.[11] The essential ingredient
needed in order to obtain the light-cone expansion
is the statement that the two-particle irreducible
part of the forward four-point function, $V(p, q)$,
behaves as if it were not evaluated at an excep-
tional momentum. (Here two-particle irreducibil-
ity is in the channel of zero four-momentum.)
That means

$$V(p^2, \omega, q^2) - V(0, \omega, q^2)$$

is the order of p^2/q^2 for $q^2 \to \infty$ and ω fixed. This
property can be obtained in a number of ways. In
particular, Zimmermann's proof of the Wilson
expansion can be used.[14]

In Sec. III the problem of an annihilation ampli-
tude, the timelike case, is worked out in detail.
The procedure is imitative of the spacelike case.
The diagonalization procedure is only slightly dif-
ferent from that of Sec. II. The subtraction pro-
cedure is much as in Sec. II given the important
property of the two-particle irreducible part,

$$\lim_{q^2 \to \infty} \left[\int_0^1 d\omega \, \omega^\sigma V(p^2, \omega, q^2) \right.$$

$$\left. - \int_0^1 d\omega \, \omega^\sigma V(0, \omega, q^2) \right] = 0$$

so long as $\text{Re}\sigma > -1$. A light-cone expansion, Eq.
(30), and a Callan-Symanzik equation, Eq. (42),

are obtained. It should be mentioned, however,
that there is no analog of the Wilson expansion
given for this process.

In Sec. IV an example is worked out in detail
both for the spacelike and timelike cases.

The major part of this paper is an attempt to
establish the fact that the zero-mass theory can
determine many aspects of the large-q^2 behavior
of an amplitude which has timelike q^2 and for
which the Wilson and operator light-cone expan-
sions do not apply. There has often been reluc-
tance about applying renormalization-group tech-
niques to timelike regions. The apparent cause
for concern is the absence of Weinberg's theorem.[15]
We feel that timelike regions are not essentially
different from spacelike regions as far as the pos-
sibility of using renormalization-group and Callan-
Symanzik techniques. Consider, for example, the
simplest of all possible amplitudes in ϕ^4 theory,
the propagator,

$$\Delta_F'(q^2) = \int d^4x \, e^{iqx} \langle T\phi(x)\phi(0) \rangle_0 \, .$$

For q^2 spacelike the dominant q^2 behavior for any
given graph of Δ_F' is governed by the renormaliza-
tion group. What about timelike q^2? Suppose one
is considering a graph of nth order in g. Then, if
the renormalized mass of the ϕ particle is m, the
highest possible threshold in q^2 is at q_t^2
$= [(n+1)m]^2$. So in order to reach an asymptotic
domain, even for q^2 spacelike, one needs $|q^2|$
$\gg q_t^2$. If q^2 is timelike and $q^2 \gg q_t^2$ the thresholds
are far away and the mass m should be irrelevant
so long as renormalizations are carried out at a
mass Λ, independent of m. The question of wheth-
er q^2 is spacelike or timelike, then, should not be
relevant so long as the invariants are large com-
pared to the possible thresholds. Further, sup-
pose one takes the imaginary part of Δ_F' for q^2
large and timelike. Taking the imaginary part is
just a numerical operation and cannot change the
origin of the asymptotic behavior. But taking the
imaginary part puts many internal particles on
their mass shells, so one might expect that mass
dependences could not disappear in this case. A
little thought, however, convinces one that setting
internal particles on their mass shells does not in
general introduce a mass dependence. Mass de-
pendence arises when internal groups of particles
are near thresholds. In the case of the propagator,
the theorems on mass singularities[16-18] guarantee
that these threshold dependences will be weak.

For the amplitude which is the topic of this
paper, inclusive annihilation, the rigorous mass-
singularity arguments do not apply, as different
internal propagators may have different signs for
their $i\epsilon$ terms. However, the strengths of the

mass singularities in the two-particle irreducible part of the amplitude can be estimated, heuristically, and are found to be sufficiently weak that renormalization-group arguments apply. The full amplitude can be handled exactly as in the case of deeply inelastic electron scattering by making additional subtractions in the Bethe-Salpeter equation.

Let me now comment on a few topics which are not considered in this paper.

(1) Other theories. The only theory dealt with in this paper is $g\phi^4$ theory. I suspect that similar results will hold for other field theories also. $g\bar{\psi}\gamma_5\psi\phi$ and $g\bar{\psi}\psi\sigma$ theories are probably not very difficult to handle, and probably all the results which have been obtained in this paper will carry over there including the calculation of average multiplicities from the Callan-Symanzik equation. Massive quantum electrodynamics is a much more difficult theory to handle because of the spin-one meson and gauge invariance. Presumably the q^2 dependence for fixed ω will still be governed by the zero-mass theory, but quite likely the *very small* ω region, at which relatively few particles are produced in ϕ^4 theory, is quite important in this theory and will not be governed by the zero-mass theory.[19]

(2) Average multiplicities of produced particles. The average number of produced particles of the type h is

$$\bar{n}_h(q^2) \propto \frac{1}{\sigma(q^2)} \int_0^1 d\omega\, \omega T^h(\omega, q^2) = \frac{t_1^h(q^2)}{\sigma(q^2)}$$

for large q^2 with T^h as used previously in this Introduction, and $\sigma(q^2)$ the total annihilation cross section. Thus the Callan-Symanzik equation governs the average multiplicity of produced hadrons. We can obtain more information by using the energy-momentum sum rule[20]

$$\int_0^1 d\omega\, \omega^2 T^h(\omega, q^2) \propto \sigma(q^2) ,$$

so that

$$\bar{n}_h(q^2) \propto \frac{\int_0^1 d\omega\, \omega T^h(\omega, q^2)}{\int_0^1 d\omega\, \omega^2 T^h(\omega, q^2)}$$

If the theory has an eigenvalue, $\beta(g_\infty) = 0$, then the moments

$$\int_0^1 d\omega\, \omega^\sigma T^h(\omega, q^2)$$

behave as $(q^2)^{\alpha_\sigma}$ for large q^2. Now α_σ must be a monotonic nonincreasing function of σ, for real σ, so $\bar{n}_h(q^2) \propto (q^2)^{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}$ with $\alpha_1 \geq \alpha_2$, and the average multiplicity grows like a power of q^2.

This is reminiscent of the bootstrap scheme of

Polyakov.[21]

(3) The $\omega \to 0$ limit. For large q^2 write[7]

$$T(p^2, \omega, q^2) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|a|-i\infty}^{|a|+i\infty} d\sigma\, \omega^{-\sigma-1} t_\sigma(p^2, q^2) ,$$

with

$$t_\sigma(p^2, q^2) = \int_0^1 d\omega\, \omega^\sigma T(p^2, \omega, q^2) .$$

Now

$$t_\sigma(p^2, q^2) \sim \sum_{i=\pm} \Gamma_{i,\sigma}^h(p^2) t_{i,\sigma}(q^2) .$$

The large-q^2 behavior of $t_\sigma(q^2)$ is constrained by renormalization and thus the large q^2 behavior of $T(p^2, \omega, q^2)$ is constrained for fixed ω. When ω becomes small (ω^2 must be greater than $4p^2/q^2$), the $\omega^{-\sigma-1}$ factor would indicate that the σ contour should be distorted to the left. However, at $\sigma = 0$ there are singularities in t_σ, in perturbation theory, and as the example of Sec. IV shows, these singularities may even sum to an essential singularity at $\sigma = 0$. In the region $[(p^2/q^2), (m^2/q^2)] \ll \omega^2 \ll 1$, the ω behavior of $T(p^2, \omega, q^2)$ should be determined by the zero mass since the singularities near $\sigma = 0$ of $\int_0^1 d\omega\, \omega^\sigma T(p^2, \omega, q^2)$ are determined by the zero-mass theory.

(4) Continuation from the spacelike region.[8,22-25] The continuation from the nonforward spacelike region to the timelike region is tortuous, and the singularity structure is difficult to determine. However, it seems clear that one could, heuristically, use continuation arguments to show that the timelike $V(P, \omega, Q)$ [see Eq. (28)] becomes independent of P when ω is fixed and Q is large if the analogous nonforward spacelike quantity has this property.

(5) Other amplitudes. Finally, the question arises as to which other sorts of amplitudes have their light-cone behavior constrained by renormalization requirements. We have not attempted to answer this question in any detail. It seems reasonable, though, that Wightman functions in general should have such constraints and possibly also such amplitudes as occur in μ-pair production in proton-proton collisions.

II. SPACELIKE EQUATIONS

Consider the amplitude $f(p \cdot q, q^2)$ given by

$$f(p \cdot q, q^2) = i \int d^4x\, e^{iqx} \langle p | \phi(x) \phi(0) | p \rangle (q^2 - m^2)^2 .$$

$$(1)$$

[In what follows only a theory of the type $\mathcal{L}_1(x) = -(g/4!)\phi^4(x)$ will be considered.] Equation (1) represents the scattering of an off-shell field, ϕ, on a particle of mass m. This amplitude is anal-
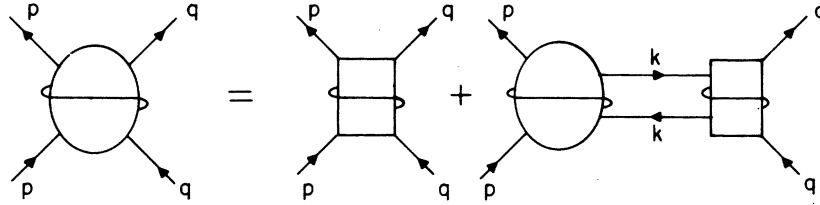
FIG. 1. An illustration of Eq. (5).

ogous to amplitudes which occur in studies of deeply inelastic electron scattering. Further, define the completely off-shell amplitude

$$T(p^2, p \cdot q, q^2) = i \int d^4x \, d^4y \, d^4z \, e^{iq \cdot x + ip \cdot (y-z)}$$

$$\times \langle \bar{T}(\phi(x)\phi(y)) T(\phi(0)\phi(z)) \rangle_0$$

$$\times [\Delta_F'(p^2) \Delta_F'(q^2)]^{-2} \,, \qquad (2)$$

where Δ_F' is the full, renormalized propagator for the ϕ field, and $\bar{T}$ denotes the anti-time-ordered product. Now, when q^2 and p^2 are below their thresholds

$$\text{disc}_{(p+q)^2} \bar{T}(p^2, p \cdot q, q^2) = 2i \, \text{Im} \, \bar{T}(p^2, p \cdot q, q^2)$$

$$= T(p^2, p \cdot q, q^2) \,, \qquad (3)$$

where

$$\bar{T}(p^2, p \cdot q, q^2) = i \int d^4x \, d^4y \, d^4z \, e^{iq \cdot x + ip(y-z)}$$

$$\times \langle T\phi(x)\phi(y)\phi(z)\phi(0) \rangle_0$$

$$\times [\Delta_F'(p^2) \Delta_F'(q^2)]^{-2} \qquad (4)$$

is the ordinary, amputated, time-ordered product. When q^2 is above its threshold Eq. (3) ceases to be true.

In the region of large spacelike q^2, fixed $\omega = -2p \cdot q/q^2$, and fixed p^2 the behavior of the time-ordered product and that of the discontinuity are the same since the discontinuity is trivially related to the time-ordered product. (The fact that the time-ordered product and the discontinuity have the same behavior in the Bjorken scaling region is also guaranteed by the light-cone expansion.) When q^2 becomes timelike and Eq. (3) ceases to hold, there is no known relation between the time-ordered product, Eq. (4), and the discontinuity, Eq. (2), in the $q^2 \to -\infty$, ω fixed limit.[8] Clearly the Wilson expansion does not directly apply to an amplitude like T in Eq. (2), since the operators $\phi(x)$ and $\phi(0)$ may have additional operators between them as $x \to 0$.

In this section q^2 spacelike is assumed. The Callan-Symanzik[12,13] equation will be derived for the amplitude T by a method which can be generalized to timelike q^2. The previous methods of obtaining Callan-Symanzik equations for the mo-

ments of T (Refs. 4 and 26) utilized the light-cone expansion and thus cannot be easily generalized.

A. Integral equation and diagonalization

An integral equation for T can be given in terms of a two-particle irreducible kernel, the potential V:

$$T(p^2, p \cdot q, q^2) = V(p^2, p \cdot q, q^2)$$

$$+ \int d^4k \, T(p^2, p \cdot k, k^2) |\Delta_F'(k^2)|^2$$

$$\times V(k^2, k \cdot q, q^2) \,. \qquad (5)$$

Equation (5) is illustrated in Fig. 1. $V(p^2, p \cdot q, q^2)$ is defined as in Eq. (2), except only those graphs are included which do not have two-particle states in the channel of iteration. Because absorptive amplitudes are used, the Bethe-Salpeter equation, Eq. (5), is finite once internal subtractions are performed in V and Δ_F'. Equation (5) is an exact equation in renormalized perturbation theory.

Equation (5) is a four-dimensional equation with one trivial variable. This equation can be reduced to a one-dimensional equation as pointed out by Nussinov and Rosner.[27] To this end introduce the variables Q, K, P, $\cosh\zeta$, $\cosh\zeta_1$, $\cosh\zeta_2$ defined by

$$q^2 = -Q^2, \quad k^2 = -K^2, \quad p^2 = -P^2 \,,$$

$$-q \cdot k = QK \cosh\zeta_1, \quad k \cdot p = KP \cosh\zeta_2,$$

$$p \cdot q = PQ \cosh\zeta \,.$$

We have chosen, for convenience, p^2 spacelike. When p^2 and q^2 are spacelike, kinematics requires that k^2 also be spacelike so that Q, P, K are real and positive. We may write the volume of integration in terms of these new variables

$$d^4k = \frac{2\pi K^3}{\sinh\zeta} \, dK \, d\cosh\zeta_1 \, d\cosh\zeta_2 \, \Theta(\zeta - \zeta_1 - \zeta_2) \,, \qquad (6)$$

where $(q-k)^2 \geq 4m^2$, $(k+p)^2 \geq 4m^2$ has been used to put the step function in the form used above.

Now define

$$T_\sigma(P, Q) = \int_0^\infty \sinh^2\zeta \, d\zeta \, \frac{e^{-\sigma\zeta}}{\sinh\zeta} \, T(P, Q, \zeta) \,, \qquad (7)$$

with the inversion

$$T(P, Q, \zeta) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{L-i\infty}^{L+i\infty} d\sigma \frac{e^{\sigma\zeta}}{\sinh\zeta} T_\sigma(P, Q) , \qquad (8)$$

where it is assumed that

$$(\cosh\zeta)^{L+1} T(P, Q, \zeta) \xrightarrow[\zeta \to \infty]{} 0 .$$

Equations (6) and (7), along with the expression

$$\Theta(\zeta - \zeta_1 - \zeta_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \int_{-i\infty}^{i\infty} d\sigma \frac{e^{\sigma(\zeta-\zeta_1-\zeta)}}{\sigma+\epsilon}$$

give, when substituted into (5),

$$T_\sigma(P, Q) = V_\sigma(P, Q)$$

$$+ \frac{2\pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 dK \, T_\sigma(P, K) |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 V_\sigma(K, Q) . \qquad (9)$$

Equation (9) is a one-dimensional equation for the absorptive part T in terms of the potential V. We wish to study this equation as $Q \to \infty$. To simplify this task it is helpful to recast this equation into one where additional subtractions have been performed.

B. Subtraction procedure and behavior of the two-particle irreducible part

The equation

$$T_\sigma(P, Q) = \int_0^\infty \sinh^2\zeta \, d\zeta \frac{e^{-\sigma\zeta}}{\sinh\zeta} T(P, Q, \zeta)$$

can be written in a slightly different form in terms of the variable

$$\omega = -2p \cdot q/q^2 = \frac{2P}{Q} \cosh\zeta .$$

Thus,

$$\cosh\zeta = \frac{Q}{2P} \omega, \qquad e^\zeta = \frac{Q}{2P} \omega + \left[\left(\frac{Q\omega}{2P}\right)^2 - 1\right]^{1/2} ,$$

and

$$T_\sigma(P, Q) = \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{-\sigma+1} t_\sigma(P, Q) ,$$

where

$$t_\sigma(P, Q) = \int_{1+(P^2+4m^2)/Q^2}^\infty d\omega \, \omega^{-\sigma} \left[1 + \left(1 - \frac{4P^2}{Q^2\omega^2}\right)^{1/2}\right]^{-\sigma}$$

$$\times T(P, Q, \omega) . \qquad (10)$$

Similarly, defining

$$v_\sigma(P, Q) = \int_{1+(4m^2+P^2)/Q^2}^\infty d\omega \, \omega^{-\sigma} \left[1 + \left(1 - \frac{4P^2}{Q^2\omega^2}\right)^{1/2}\right]^{-\sigma}$$

$$\times V(P, Q, \omega) , \qquad (11)$$

Eq. (9) becomes

$$t_\sigma(P, Q) = v_\sigma(P, Q)$$

$$+ \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int_0^\infty K^3 dK \, t_\sigma(P, K) |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 v_\sigma(K, Q) . \qquad (12)$$

Now for large Q and fixed P

$$t_\sigma(P, Q) = \int_1^\infty d\omega \, \omega^{-\sigma} T(P, Q, \omega) , \qquad (13a)$$

$$v_\sigma(P, Q) = \int_1^\infty d\omega \, \omega^{-\sigma} V(P, Q, \omega) , \qquad (13b)$$

where the corrections are of the order m^2/Q^2 and P^2/Q^2. When P is fixed and Q is large

$$v_\sigma(P, Q) - v_\sigma(0, Q) \to 0 , \qquad (14)$$

with corrections again of order P^2/Q^2. That is, $v_\sigma(P, Q)$ loses its P dependence when Q becomes large. In the case of spacelike q^2 the situation under discussion here, Eq. (14) follows from the light-cone expansion[28]:

$$(p|\phi(x)\phi(0)|p) \underset{\substack{x^2\to 0; \\ p \cdot x \text{ fixed}}}{\sim} \sum_{n=0}^\infty E_n(x^2) x^{\alpha_1} x^{\alpha_2} \cdots x^{\alpha_n}$$

$$\times (p|O(0)_{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_n}|p) ,$$

where

$$O(x)_{\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_n} = N_{n+2}\{\phi(x)\overleftrightarrow{\partial}_{\alpha_1}\overleftrightarrow{\partial}_{\alpha_2} \cdots \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_{\alpha_n} \phi(x)\} .$$

But,

$$E_n(x^2)(p|O(0)_{\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_n}|p)$$

is immediately related, by Fourier transform, to

$$p_{\alpha_1} p_{\alpha_2} \cdots p_{\alpha_n} t_n(P, Q) ,$$

while

$$p_{\alpha_1} p_{\alpha_2} \cdots p_{\alpha_n} v_n(P, Q)$$

is related to the two-particle irreducible part of

$$E_n(x^2)(p|O(0)_{\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_n}|p) ,$$

which can have no p dependence other than $p_{\alpha_1} p_{\alpha_2} \cdots p_{\alpha_n}$.

To obtain the desired subtraction procedure,[14] begin inductively. Write

$$v_\sigma(P, Q) = [v_\sigma(P, Q) - v_\sigma(0, Q)] + v_\sigma(0, Q)$$

$$= v_\sigma^{reg}(P, Q) + v_\sigma(0, Q) ,$$

where

$$v_\sigma^{reg}(P, Q) \xrightarrow[\substack{Q \to \infty; \\ P \text{ fixed}}]{} 0 .$$

Also, write

$$v_\sigma^{(2)}(P, Q) = \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 dK \, v_\sigma(P, K) v_\sigma(K, Q) |\Delta_F'(K)|^2$$

$$v_\sigma^{(2)}(P, Q) = v_\sigma^{(2)\text{reg}}(P, Q) + \Gamma_\sigma^{(1)}(P) v_\sigma(0, Q)$$

$$+ v_\sigma^{(2)}(0, Q) \, ,$$

$$\hspace{8cm} (15)$$

$$v_\sigma^{(2)\text{reg}}(P, Q) = \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2$$

$$\times [v_\sigma(P, K) - v_\sigma(0, K)]$$

$$\times [v_\sigma(K, Q) - v_\sigma(0, Q)] \, ,$$

and

$$\Gamma_\sigma^{(1)}(P) = \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 dK$$

$$\times [v_\sigma(P, K) - v_\sigma(0, K)] \, .$$

Clearly

$$v_\sigma^{(2)\text{reg}}(P, Q) \underset{\substack{Q \to \infty \\ P \text{ fixed}}}{\longrightarrow} 0 \, ,$$

so to second order in the potential

$$v_\sigma(P, Q) + v_\sigma^{(2)}(P, Q) \underset{\substack{Q \to \infty \\ P \text{ fixed}}}{\sim} [1 + \Gamma_\sigma^{(1)}(P)] v_\sigma(0, Q)$$

$$+ v_\sigma^{(2)}(0, Q) \, .$$

This looks like the start of a Wilson expansion. The iteration procedure can be completed by defining the standard renormalization operator r by

$$r v_\sigma(K, Q) = v_\sigma(0, Q) \, .$$

Then Eq. (12) can be written as

$$t_\sigma(P, Q) = (1 - r + r) v_\sigma(P, Q)$$

$$+ \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 dK \, t_\sigma(P, K)$$

$$\times (1 - r + r) v_\sigma(K, Q) \, .$$

Considering $(1 - r) v_\sigma(P, Q)$ and $r v_\sigma(P, Q)$ as sepa-

rate potentials, $t_\sigma(P, Q)$ can be written as

$$t_\sigma(P, Q) = t_\sigma^{\text{reg}}(P, Q) + r t_\sigma(P, Q)$$

$$+ \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 dK \, t_\sigma^{\text{reg}}(P, K) r t_\sigma(K, Q)$$

$$\hspace{8cm} (16)$$

or

$$t_\sigma(P, Q) = t_\sigma^{\text{reg}}(P, Q) + \Gamma_\sigma(P) t_\sigma(0, Q) \, ,$$

where t_σ^{reg} is defined by

$$t_\sigma^{\text{reg}}(P, Q) = (1 - r) v_\sigma(P, Q),$$

$$+ \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 dK$$

$$\times t_\sigma^{\text{reg}}(P, K)(1 - r) v_\sigma(K, Q) \quad (17\text{a})$$

and

$$\Gamma_\sigma(P) = 1 + \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 dK \, t_\sigma^{\text{reg}}(P, K) \, . \quad (17\text{b})$$

Equations (16) and (17) constitute a light-cone expansion, with σ a continued index of the operators in that expansion. In order to obtain the Callan-Symanzik equation we need an equation for the four-point function with a mass insertion.

C. Mass insertion and Callan-Symanzik equation

The operator

$$[m^2 \partial/\partial m^2 + \beta(g)\partial/\partial g - 2n\gamma(g)] \quad (18)$$

inserts the operator

$$m^2 \phi(g) \int d^4 w \, N_2\{\phi^2(w)\}$$

into the n-point amputated vertex function in ϕ^4 theory.[11] [$\beta(g)$, $\gamma(g)$, and $\phi(g)$, not to be confused with the field $\phi(x)$, are defined as in Symanzik.[11]] Thus,

$$\left(m^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial m^2} + \beta \frac{\partial}{\partial g} - 4\gamma\right) T(P, Q, \omega) \equiv \hat{T}(P, Q, \omega)$$

$$= 2i \operatorname{Im} m^2 \phi(g) \int d^4 x \, d^4 y \, d^4 z \, d^4 w \, e^{iqx + ip(y - z)}$$

$$\times \langle T\phi(x)\phi(y)\phi(z)\phi(0) N_2\{\phi^2(w)\} \rangle_0 [\Delta_F'(p^2)\Delta_F'(q^2)]^{-2} \, .$$

Applying (18) to (12) one obtains

$$\hat{t}_\sigma(P, Q) = \hat{v}_\sigma(P, Q) + \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 dK \, t_\sigma(P, K) \hat{v}_\sigma(K, Q) + 2 \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K) \hat{\Delta}_F'(K)| \, dK \, t_\sigma(P, K) v_\sigma(K, Q)$$

$$+ \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 dK \, \hat{t}_\sigma(P, K) v_\sigma(K, Q) \, ,$$
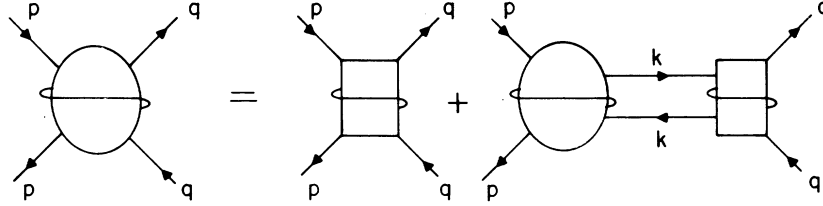
$$\hspace{10cm} (19)$$

FIG. 2. An illustration of Eq. (25).

where the caret means that the amplitude has a mass insertion included. Now

$$\hat{v}_\sigma(P, Q) \xrightarrow[P \text{ arbitrary}]{Q \to \infty} 0$$

up to corrections of the order m^2/Q^2, so for large Q Eq. (19) reads

$$\hat{t}_\sigma(P, Q) = 2 \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K) \hat{\Delta}_F'(K)| dK \, t_\sigma(P, K) v_\sigma(K, Q)$$

$$+ \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 dK \, \hat{t}_\sigma(P, K) v_\sigma(K, Q) .$$
(20)

The kernel of Eq. (20) is the same as Eq. (12) so we can immediately conclude that

$$\hat{t}_\sigma(P, Q) \xrightarrow[P \text{ fixed}]{Q \to \infty} \hat{\Gamma}_\sigma(P) t_\sigma(0, Q) ,$$
(21a)

where, for completeness,

$$\hat{\Gamma}_\sigma(P) = \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 dK |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 \hat{v}_\sigma(P, K) \Gamma_\sigma(K)$$

$$+ 2 \frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K) \hat{\Delta}_F'(K)| dK \, t_\sigma(P, K) \Gamma_\sigma(K)$$

$$+ \left(\frac{2^\sigma \pi}{\sigma} \right)^2 \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 (K')^3 |\Delta_F'(K')|^2$$

$$\times dK \, dK' t_\sigma(P, K) \hat{v}_\sigma(K, K') \Gamma_\sigma(K') .$$
(21b)

Combining (16), (18), and (21) one obtains

$$\left(m^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial m^2} + \beta \frac{\partial}{\partial g} - 4\gamma \right) \Gamma_\sigma(P) t_\sigma(0, Q) = \hat{\Gamma}_\sigma(P) t_\sigma(0, Q) .$$

Now $\Gamma_\sigma(0) = 1$ by our method of subtraction while $\hat{\Gamma}_\sigma(0) = a_\sigma$, some function of g calculable, order by order, in perturbation theory. Thus

$$\left(m^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial m^2} + \beta \frac{\partial}{\partial g} - 4\gamma - a_\sigma \right) t_\sigma(0, Q) = 0 ,$$
(22)

which is the desired result.

There are only a few key steps involved in obtaining Eq. (22):

(i) the integral equation (12) which is simply a property of the topology of ϕ^4 theory, and is easily generalized to the case of timelike q^2,

(ii) Eq. (14) which follows from the light-cone expansion when q^2 is spacelike, but which must be rederived when q^2 is timelike, and

(iii) Eqs. (16) and (21) which follow directly from (14).

Thus, the key to the Callan–Symanzik equation is the relation

$$v_\sigma(P, Q) - v_\sigma(0, Q) \xrightarrow[\substack{P \text{ fixed}; \\ Q \to \infty}]{} 0 ,$$

which will be generalized to the case of timelike q^2 in Sec. III.

III. TIMELIKE EQUATIONS

A. Integral equation and diagonalization

Consider, again, the amplitude $T(p^2, p \cdot q, q^2)$ as given by Eq. (2), but now suppose that p^2 and q^2 are timelike and $p_0 q_0 - |\vec{p}| |\vec{q}| = p \cdot q < 0$. It is convenient to let $p \to -p$ so that $p \cdot q > 0$ and $p_0 > 0$. The integral equation (5) follows immediately as it is simply a property of the topology of the Feynman graphs. Again, introduce variables Q, K, P, $\cosh\zeta$, $\cosh\zeta_1$, $\cosh\zeta_2$ by

$$q^2 = Q^2, \quad k^2 = K^2, \quad p^2 = P^2 ,$$

$$q \cdot p = QP \cosh\zeta, \quad q \cdot k = QK \cosh\zeta_1, \quad k \cdot p = KP \cosh\zeta_2 .$$

The momentum flow of the integral equation is indicated in Fig. 2. When q^2 and p^2 are timelike, K is real and positive. Now

$$d^4 k = \frac{2\pi K^3}{\sinh\zeta} dK \, d\cosh\zeta_1 \, d\cosh\zeta_2$$

$$\times [\Theta(\zeta - |\zeta_1 - \zeta_2|) - \Theta(\zeta - \zeta_1 - \zeta_2)]$$
(23)

replaces (6). Equation (7) no longer diagonalizes the integral equation because the step functions in (6) and (23) are quite different. Equation (7) represents a diagonalization by means of representations of O(3, 1) in a noncompact O(2, 1) basis, often called O(3, 1) functions of the second kind. Such representation functions are appropriate when k^2, p^2, and q^2 are spacelike, since the little group of a spacelike vector can be taken to be O(2, 1). Here k^2, p^2, and q^2 are timelike so the natural representation functions are those of O(3, 1) in the compact O(3) basis. When the external particles are spinless these functions are[29]

$$\frac{\sinh\sigma\zeta}{\sinh\zeta} .$$

No group theory is needed if one simply observes that

$$\Theta(\zeta - |\zeta_1 - \zeta_2|) - \Theta(\zeta - \zeta_1 - \zeta_2)$$

$$= \frac{2i}{\pi} \int_{-i\infty}^{i\infty} \frac{d\sigma}{\sigma} \sinh\sigma\zeta \sinh\sigma\zeta_1 \sinh\sigma\zeta_2 .$$

Using this expression along with

$$T_\sigma(P, Q) = 2\int_0^\infty \sinh^2\zeta \, d\zeta \, \frac{\sinh\sigma\zeta}{\sinh\zeta} \, T(P, Q, \zeta) \quad (24a)$$

and

$$T(P, Q, \zeta) = \frac{i}{2\pi} \int_{-i\infty}^{i\infty} \frac{\sinh\sigma\zeta}{\sinh\zeta} \, T_\sigma(P, Q) , \quad (24b)$$

the equation

$$T_\sigma(P, Q) = V_\sigma(P, Q)$$
$$+ \frac{2\pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 dK |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 T_\sigma(P, K) V_\sigma(K, Q) \quad (25)$$

is achieved. Equation (25) looks the same as Eq. (9), but it should be remembered that the regions of integration are quite different as are the definitions of T_σ in the two cases.

B. Subtraction procedure and behavior of the two-particle irreducible part

With the definition $\omega = 2p \cdot q/q^2 = (2P/Q)\cosh\zeta$, Eq. (24a) can be written as

$$T_\sigma(P, Q) = \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{\sigma+1} t_\sigma(P, Q) - \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{-\sigma+1} t_{-\sigma}(P, Q) , \quad (26)$$

where

$$t_\sigma(P, Q) = \int_{2P/Q}^{1+(P^2-4m^2)/Q^2} d\omega \, \omega^\sigma \left[1 + \left(1 - \frac{4P^2}{\omega^2 Q^2}\right)^{1/2}\right]^\sigma$$
$$\times T(P, Q, \omega) . \quad (27)$$

Similarly,

$$V_\sigma(P, Q) = \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{\sigma+1} v_\sigma(P, Q) - \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{-\sigma+1} v_{-\sigma}(P, Q) , \quad (28)$$

with

$$v_\sigma(P, Q) = \int_{2P/Q}^{1+(P^2-4m^2)/Q^2} d\omega \, \omega^\sigma \left[1 + \left(1 - \frac{4P^2}{\omega^2 Q^2}\right)^{1/2}\right]^\sigma$$
$$\times V(P, Q, \omega) . \quad (29)$$

Now define the renormalization operator r by

$$rV_\sigma(P, Q) = \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{\sigma+1} v_\sigma(0, Q) - \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{-\sigma+1} v_{-\sigma}(0, Q)$$

and

$$rT_\sigma(P, Q) = \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{\sigma+1} t_\sigma(0, Q) - \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{-\sigma+1} t_{-\sigma}(0, Q) .$$

Then,

$$T_\sigma(P, Q) = (1 - r + r)V_\sigma(P, Q)$$
$$+ \frac{2\pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 dK$$
$$\times T_\sigma(P, K)(1 - r + r)V_\sigma(K, Q)$$

as in the spacelike case. Thus, we can write

$$T_\sigma(P, Q) = T_\sigma^{reg}(P, Q) + \sum_{i=1} i\Gamma_{i\sigma}(P, Q) t_{i\sigma}(0, Q) , \quad (30)$$

where

$$\Gamma_{i\sigma}(P, Q) = \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{1+i\sigma}$$
$$+ \frac{2\pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 dK |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 T_\sigma^{reg}(P, K)$$
$$\times \left(\frac{Q}{2K}\right)^{1+i\sigma} \quad (31)$$

and T_σ^{reg} obeys the integral equation

$$T_\sigma^{reg}(P, Q) = \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{\sigma+1} [v_\sigma(P, Q) - v_\sigma(0, Q)] - \left(\frac{Q}{2P}\right)^{-\sigma+1} [v_{-\sigma}(P, Q) - v_{-\sigma}(0, Q)]$$

$$+ \frac{2\pi}{\sigma} \int K^3 dK |\Delta_F'(K)|^2 T_\sigma^{reg}(P, K) \left[\left(\frac{Q}{2K}\right)^{\sigma+1} [v_\sigma(K, Q) - v_\sigma(0, Q)] - \left(\frac{Q}{2K}\right)^{-\sigma+1} [v_{-\sigma}(K, Q) - v_{-\sigma}(0, Q)]\right] . \quad (32)$$

If

$$v_\sigma(P, Q) - v_\sigma(0, Q) \xrightarrow[\substack{P \text{ fixed;} \\ Q \to \infty}]{} 0$$

as in the spacelike case, then $T_\sigma^{reg}(P, Q)$ will go to zero in the above limit, and Eq. (30) is the analog of the light-cone expansion. It should be emphasized, however, that in the spacelike case $\Gamma_\sigma(P)$ represented part of the matrix element of a local operator when $\sigma = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, while in the time-

like case there is no obvious connection between $\Gamma_{i\sigma}(P)$ and the matrix elements of any local operators. It should be noted that (30) and (31) give the equation

$$t_\sigma(P, Q) \xrightarrow[Q \to \infty]{} \left(\frac{2P}{Q}\right)^{\sigma+1} \Gamma_\sigma(P, Q) t_\sigma(0, Q)$$
$$- \left(\frac{2P}{Q}\right)^{\sigma+1} \Gamma_{-\sigma}(P, Q) t_{-\sigma}(0, Q)$$

for $\text{Re}\sigma > 0$, and that both terms on the right-hand side of this equation are equally important in general. Also $\Gamma_\sigma(P, Q)$ has poles in σ, for example, at $\sigma = 1$, but these poles do not appear in the asymptotic form of $t_\sigma(P, Q)$ given above.

Before directly confronting the question of the P independence of $V(P, Q)$ for large Q, let us first discuss a problem, many of whose aspects may be more familiar to the reader. Consider, then, the self-energy amplitude, $\Sigma(q^2)$, defined by

$$[\Sigma_{\phi\phi}(q^2) - (q^2 - m^2)]^{-1} = i \int e^{iqx} d^4x \langle T\phi(x)\phi(0)\rangle_0 .$$

We envision a "ϕ^4 type" field theory where there are two massive scalar mesons ϕ and χ, whose renormalized masses are m_1 and m_2, interacting by means of $g_1\phi^4$, $g_2\chi^4$, and $g_3\phi^2\chi^2$ terms in the Lagrangian. Begin by regulating the theory, in a Pauli-Villars manner, with a regulator mass Λ. Consider, first, any particular graph contributing to $\Sigma_{\phi\phi}(q^2)$ which does not have any internal self-energy parts $\Sigma_{\phi\phi}$, $\Sigma_{\phi\chi}$, or $\Sigma_{\chi\chi}$. Such a graph we denote by $\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2)$. The full functional dependence of $\bar{\Sigma}$ is given by

$$\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2) = \bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2, \Lambda^2, m_1^2, m_2^2) ,$$

where only coupling dependences, irrelevant for a fixed graph, have been suppressed. Now for Λ^2, $|q^2| \gg m_1^2$, m_2^2,

$$\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2) \to \bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2, \Lambda^2) = \bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2, \Lambda^2, 0, 0) . \tag{33}$$

That is, all m_1 and m_2 dependence disappears from $\bar{\Sigma}$ when $|q^2|$ and Λ^2 are much greater than m_1^2 and m_2^2 (Ref. 2), independently of whether q^2 is spacelike, timelike, or complex. If subtractions are performed at a point large compared to m_1 and m_2 then the renormalized amplitude will also be asymptotically independent of m_1 and m_2. These statements are at the heart of the renormalization-group approach to large off-shell behavior.

In Fig. 3 a typical discontinuity of $\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}$, corresponding to an intermediate state i, is shown. Straight lines indicate ϕ particles, while wiggly lines indicate χ particles. We claim that for *any particular discontinuity* i of $\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2)$,

$$\text{disc}_i\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2)_{q^2, \Lambda^2 \gg m_1, m_2} \xrightarrow{} \text{disc}_i\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2, \Lambda^2, 0, 0) . \tag{34}$$

The total discontinuity obeys (34) trivially from (33), but (34) is very nontrivial when a particular discontinuity is involved. To show that (34) is correct it is enough to show that

$$\lim_{\substack{m_1^2 \to 0; \\ m_2^2 = pm_1^2; \\ P \text{ fixed}}} m_1^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial m_1^2} \text{disc}_i\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2) = 0 , \tag{35}$$
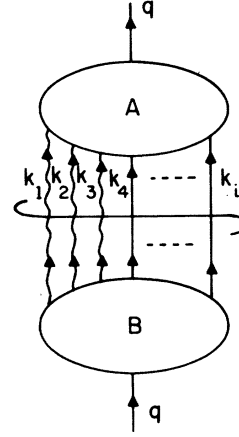

FIG. 3. A particular discontinuity of a self-energy graph.

along with a similar statement with the roles of m_1 and m_2 interchanged. To show that (35) is correct we need to show that the strength of the mass singularity of $(\partial/\partial m^2)\text{disc}_i\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2)$ is only logarithmic. This is the same as showing that the strength of the *possible* mass singularity of $\text{disc}_i\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2)$ is only like $m^2(\ln m^2)^n$ in the approach to the zero-mass theory. (For the purposes of counting the over-all strength of mass singularities it is not necessary to distinguish m_1 from m_2.)

The possible mass singularities in $\text{disc}_i\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2)$ occur when the invariant mass of some subset of the particles in the state i approaches the zero-mass thresholds of A and B (see Fig. 3). Thus the important region of phase space is where some set of particles $(1, 2, \ldots, j)$ in the state i have momenta such that $(k_1 + k_2 + \cdots + k_j)^2 \to 0$. What needs to be ascertained is the strength of the singularity in the amplitudes A and B versus the suppressing factor of the phase space when a zero-mass threshold is approached. Call $K_j = k_1 + k_2 + \cdots + k_j$. Then, as shown in Appendix B,

$$\int d^4K_j \frac{d^3k_1}{E_1} \frac{d^3k_2}{E_2} \cdots \frac{d^3k_j}{E_j} \delta^4(k_1 + k_2 + \cdots + k_j - K_j)$$

$$\times \Theta(a^2 - K_j^2)\Theta(q_0 - K_{j0}) \propto (a^2)^{j-1}$$

for small a^2 when the particles $1, 2, \ldots, j$ are massless. Thus a mass singularity in $\text{disc}_i\bar{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2)$ like $\ln m^2$ will occur if the product of the strengths of the threshold singularities in A and B are like $(a^2)^{-(j-1)}$. If j is an even number the maximum strength of the threshold singularity of A occurs when the j particles go into two particles. Then A has a singularity like $(a^2)^{-(j-2)/2}$; similarly for B. Thus, the total strength of the mass singularity is
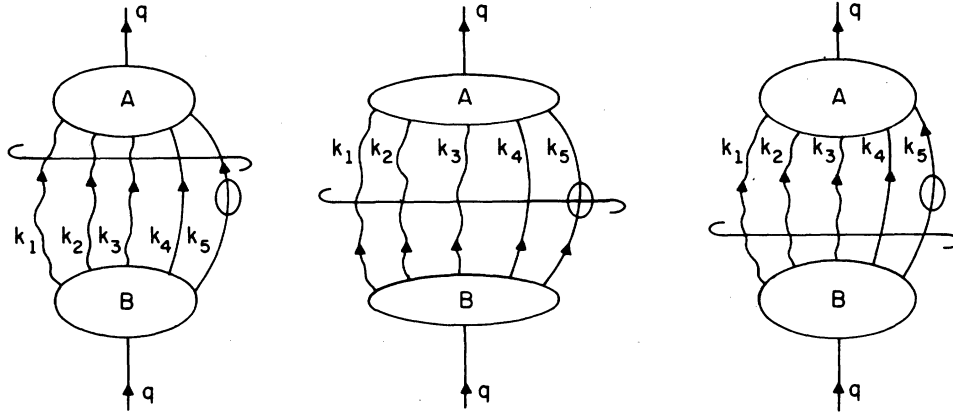
$$(a^2)^{j-1-2(j-2)/2} = a^2$$

FIG. 4. A particular discontinuity of a self-energy graph where discontinuities over internal propagators are added.

for even j so that no mass singularity occurs. If j is odd the maximum strength of the a^2 singularity of A is $(a^2)^{-(j-3)/2}$ if the j particles can go into a minimum of three particles, and $(a^2)^{-(j-1)/2}$ if the j particles can go into a single particle; similarly for B. If the j particles could go into a single particle in both A and B the total singularity would be like

$$(a^2)^{j-1-2(j-1)/2} = (a^2)^0$$

and a mass singularity would occur. But, such a case is ruled out by our assumption that $\tilde{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}$ has no internal self-energy parts. Thus, the maximum singularity occurs when the j particles go into a single particle in one of the amplitudes, A or B, and into three particles in the other amplitude. Then the singularity is like

$$(a^2)^{j-1-(j-1)/2-(j-3)/2} = a^2 \ ,$$

and $\mathrm{disc}_i\tilde{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2)$ has mass singularities only like $m^2[\ln m^2]^n$. This completes the argument that if $\tilde{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2)$ is an amplitude without internal self-energy parts then

$$\mathrm{disc}_i\tilde{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2, \Lambda^2, m_1^2, m_2^2)$$

$$\xrightarrow[q^2, \Lambda^2 \gg m_1^2, m_2^2]{} \mathrm{disc}_i\tilde{\Sigma}_{\phi\phi}(q^2, \Lambda^2, 0, 0) \ .$$

Furthermore, it is clear that one can add internal self-energy parts so long as discontinuities are added in such a way that total discontinuities are taken for all internal propagators. As an example, consider Fig. 4. If no three of the lines k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4, k_5 can go into a single line in both A and B, and if no one of the lines k_1, k_2, k_3, k_4, k_5 goes into a self-energy part in either the upper or lower amplitudes A or B, then the sum of the three discontinuities shown in Fig. 4 will have the property (34) even though A and B may contain numerous self-energy insertions.

We now proceed to $v_\sigma(P, Q)$. For any given diagram, contributing to $V(P, Q, \omega)$,

$$\int V(P, Q, \omega) \, \frac{d^3p}{E_p}$$

$$= \pi Q^2 \int_{2P/Q}^{1+(P^2-4m^2)/Q^2} \omega \, d\omega \left(1 - \frac{4p^2}{\omega^2 Q^2}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\times V(P, Q, \omega)$$

corresponds to a sum of discontinuities of the type shown in Fig. 5, where one of the internal lines has been given a mass P, and thus singled out from the other internal lines. Since V is two-particle irreducible the line p cannot be part of any self-energy insertion. Thus,

$$\int_{2P/Q}^{1+(P^2-4m^2)/Q^2} d\omega \, \omega \left(1 - \frac{4p^2}{Q^2\omega^2}\right)^{1/2} V(P, Q, \omega) = v_1(P, Q)$$
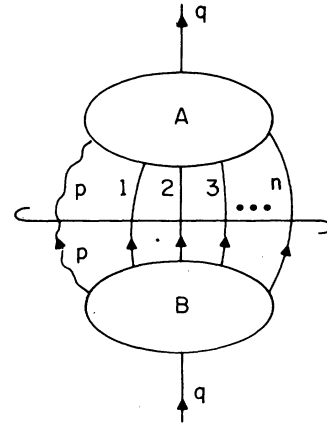

FIG. 5. An integrated inclusive cross section as related to a discontinuity of a self-energy amplitude.

must be independent of P for Q large so long as internal renormalizations are done at some point Λ. (However, it is clear that the P dependence of the above integral cannot depend on the point of renormalization, so we may in fact renormalize at a point proportional to m if we choose.) Thus,

$$\int_0^1 \omega V(P, Q, \omega) d\omega = v_1(P, Q)$$

must have this same property. Since we do not expect delicate cancellations in the integration over ω, we can conclude that $v_\sigma(P,Q)$ becomes independent of P for large Q, so long as $\text{Re}\sigma \geq 1$. A somewhat extended argument is given in Appendix C, which indicates that $v_\sigma(P,Q)$ becomes independent of P for large Q, so long as $\text{Re}\sigma > -1$.

C. Mass insertions and the Callan-Symanzik equation

The operator

$$\left(m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}+\beta\frac{\partial}{\partial g}-4\gamma\right)$$

inserts $m^2\phi(g)\int d^4w N_2\{\phi^2(w)\}$ into the amplitude $T_\sigma(P,Q)$ or $V_\sigma(P,Q)$ exactly as in the spacelike case. The argument then proceeds as in Sec. IIC. Write (25) symbolically as

$$T_\sigma = V_\sigma + \frac{2\pi}{\sigma}T\sigma[\Delta]^2V_\sigma . \tag{25'}$$

Applying the Callan-Symanzik operator to (25'), one obtains

$$\hat{T}_\sigma = \hat{V}_\sigma + \frac{2\pi}{\sigma}T_\sigma[\Delta]^2\hat{V}_\sigma + \frac{4\pi}{\sigma}T_\sigma\Delta\hat{\Delta}V_\sigma$$

$$+ \frac{2\pi}{\sigma}\hat{T}_\sigma[\Delta]^2V_\sigma . \tag{36}$$

For Q large we may drop the $\hat{V}_\sigma$ terms. [Remember $\hat{V}_\sigma$ stands for $\hat{V}_\sigma(P,Q)$ for the first $\hat{V}$ in (36) and $\hat{V}_\sigma(K,Q)$ for the second $\hat{V}$ in (36).] Then

$$\hat{T}_\sigma = \frac{4\pi}{\sigma}T_\sigma\Delta\hat{\Delta}V_\sigma + \frac{2\pi}{\sigma}\hat{T}[\Delta]^2V_\sigma . \tag{37}$$

Since the kernel of (37) is the same as in (25') we can write $-1<\text{Re}\sigma<1$,

$$\hat{T}_\sigma(P,Q)\underset{\substack{Q\to\infty\\P\text{ fixed}}}{\sim}\sum_{i=\pm} i\,\hat{\Gamma}_{i\sigma}(P,Q)t_{i\sigma}(0,Q) , \tag{38}$$

and

$$\left(m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}+\beta\frac{\partial}{\partial\delta}-4\gamma\right)\sum_{i=\pm}i\,\Gamma_{i\sigma}(P,Q)t_{i\sigma}(0,Q)$$

$$=\sum_{i=\pm}i\,\hat{\Gamma}_{i\sigma}(P,Q)t_{i\sigma}(0,Q) . \tag{39}$$

Here,

$$\hat{\Gamma}_{i\sigma}(P,Q)=\frac{2\pi}{\sigma}\int K^3[\Delta_F'(K)]^2 dK\,\hat{V}_\sigma(P,K)\Gamma_{i\sigma}(K,Q)$$

$$+\left(\frac{2\pi}{\sigma}\right)^2\int K^3[\Delta_F'(K)]^2(K')^3[\Delta_F'(K')]^2$$

$$\times dK\,dK'\,T_\sigma(P,K)$$

$$\times \hat{V}_\sigma(K,K')\Gamma_{i\sigma}(K',Q)$$

$$+2\frac{2\pi}{\sigma}\int K^3\Delta_F'(K)\hat{\Delta}_F'(K)T_\sigma(P,K)\Gamma_{i\sigma}(K,Q). \tag{40}$$

Now, for $-1<\text{Re}\sigma<1$ we may write (39) in detail as

$$\left(m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}+\beta\frac{\partial}{\partial g}-4\gamma\right)$$

$$\times[\Gamma_\sigma(P,Q)t_\sigma(0,Q)-\Gamma_{-\sigma}(P,Q)t_{-\sigma}(0,Q)]$$

$$=\hat{\Gamma}_\sigma(P,Q)t_\sigma(0,Q)-\hat{\Gamma}_{-\sigma}(P,Q)t_{-\sigma}(0,Q).$$

Now, let $P\to 0$ to get

$$\left(m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}+\beta\frac{\partial}{\partial g}-4\gamma\right)t_\sigma(0,Q)$$

$$=\mathfrak{D}t_\sigma(0,Q)$$

$$=\lim_{P\to 0}\left\{\left(\frac{2P}{Q}\right)^{\sigma+1}\hat{\Gamma}_\sigma(P,Q)t_\sigma(0,Q)\right.$$

$$\left.-\left(\frac{2P}{Q}\right)^{\sigma+1}\hat{\Gamma}_{-\sigma}(P,Q)t_{-\sigma}(0,Q)\right\} .$$

Calling

$$\lim_{P\to 0}\left(\frac{2P}{Q}\right)^{\sigma+1}\hat{\Gamma}_\sigma(P,Q)=a_\sigma ;$$

$$\lim_{P\to 0}\left(\frac{2P}{Q}\right)^{\sigma+1}\hat{\Gamma}_{-\sigma}(P,Q)=\left(\frac{m^2}{Q^2}\right)^\sigma b_{-\sigma} ,$$

one obtains

$$\mathfrak{D}t_\sigma(0,Q)=a_\sigma t_\sigma(0,Q)-\left(\frac{m^2}{Q^2}\right)^\sigma b_{-\sigma}t_{-\sigma}(0,Q)$$

and

$$\mathfrak{D}t_{-\sigma}(0,Q)=a_{-\sigma}t_{-\sigma}(0,Q)-\left(\frac{m^2}{Q^2}\right)^{-\sigma}b_\sigma t_\sigma(0,Q).$$

These equations can be written as

$$(\mathfrak{D}-a_\sigma)t_\sigma(0,Q=-\left(\frac{m^2}{Q^2}\right)^\sigma b_{-\sigma}t_{-\sigma}(0,Q), \qquad (41a)$$

$$(\mathfrak{D}-a_{-\sigma})t_{-\sigma}(0,Q)=-\left(\frac{m^2}{Q^2}\right)^{-\sigma} b_\sigma t_\sigma(0,Q), \qquad (41b)$$

or

$$(\mathfrak{D}-a_{-\sigma})\left(\frac{m^2}{Q^2}\right)^{-\sigma}\frac{1}{b_{-\sigma}}(\mathfrak{D}-a_\sigma)t_\sigma(0,Q)$$

$$=\left(\frac{m^2}{Q^2}\right)^{-\sigma} b_\sigma t_\sigma(0,Q). \qquad (41c)$$

a_σ and b_σ depend on g in a manner similar to β and γ. Equations (41) and (42) should be valid in the whole σ plane, although the identification of $t_\sigma(0,Q)$ with $\lim_{P\to 0}t_\sigma(P,Q)$ is only valid for Reσ >0. For the examples of Sec. IV Eq. (41) reduces to

$$(\mathfrak{D}-a_\sigma)t_\sigma(0,Q)=0,$$

but we cannot expect an uncoupled equation to hold in the general circumstance.

$$v_\sigma(P,Q)=\frac{g^2}{8\pi}\int_{1+(P^2+4m^2)/Q^2}^\infty d\omega\,\omega^{-\sigma}\left[1+\left(1-\frac{4P^2}{Q^2\omega^2}\right)^{1/2}\right]^{-\sigma}\left(\frac{1-(P^2+4m^2)/Q^2(\omega-1)}{1-(P^2)/Q^2(\omega-1)}\right)^{1/2}, \qquad (43)$$

with Reσ > −1. We can go directly to the Callan-Symanzik Eq. (22) with $\beta=\gamma=0$. Thus,

$$\left(m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}-a_\sigma\right)t_\sigma(0,Q)=0, \qquad (44)$$

where

$$a_\sigma=\hat\Gamma_\sigma(0).$$

In order to evaluate $\hat\Gamma_\sigma(0)$ one needs to know the solution for $t_\sigma(P,Q)$, as is clear from (21b). However, to order g^2 we can calculate a_σ trivially as
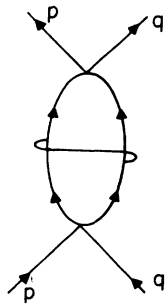

FIG. 6. A potential used in the Bethe-Salpeter equation.

IV. TWO EXAMPLES

As examples we shall consider the set of graphs generated by the Bethe-Salpeter equation, Eq. (5), when the potential is given by the graph shown in Fig. 6:

$$V(p,q)=\frac{g^2}{8\pi}\left(\frac{s-4m^2}{s}\right)^{1/2},$$

where $s=(p+q)^2$ in the spacelike case and $s=(p-q)^2$ in the timelike case.

A. Spacelike case[30]

The diagonalized equation is obtained from (12) and reads

$$t_\sigma(P,Q)=v_\sigma(P,Q)+\frac{2^\sigma\pi}{\sigma}\int K^3|\Delta_F(K)|^2 dK\,t_\sigma(P,K)$$

$$\times v_\sigma(K,0), \qquad (42)$$

where

$$\Delta_F(K)=\frac{-i}{(2\pi)^4}\frac{1}{K^2+m^2-i\epsilon}$$

and

$$a_\sigma=\lim_{\Lambda^2\to\infty}m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}\frac{2^\sigma\pi}{\sigma}\int_0^\Lambda\frac{K^3dK}{|K^2+m^2|^2}\frac{v_\sigma(0,K)}{(2\pi)^8}$$

$$=\lim_{\Lambda\to\infty}m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}\frac{\pi g^2}{8\pi\sigma}\int_0^\Lambda\frac{K^3dK}{|K^2+m^2|^2}$$

$$\times\int_{1+(4m^2)/K^2}^\infty d\omega\,\omega^{-\sigma}\left(\frac{1-(4m^2)/K^2(\omega-1)}{(2\pi)^8}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$=\lim_{\Lambda\to\infty}m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}\frac{g^2}{16\sigma(2\pi)^8}\int_0^{(\Lambda^2/m^2)}\frac{ydy}{(y+1)^2}$$

$$\times\int_{1+(4/y)}^\infty d\omega\,\omega^{-\sigma}\left(1-\frac{4}{y(\omega-1)}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$=\lim_{\Lambda\to\infty}\frac{-g^2}{16\sigma(2\pi)^8}\frac{(\Lambda^2/m^2)^2}{[(\Lambda^2/m^2)+1]^2}$$

$$\times\int_{1+(4m^2)/\Lambda^2}^\infty d\omega\,\omega^{-\sigma}\left(1-\frac{4m^2}{\Lambda^2(\omega-1)}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$=-\frac{g^2}{16\,\sigma(2\pi)^8}\int_1^\infty d\omega\,\omega^{-\sigma},$$

$$a_\sigma=-\frac{g^2}{(2\pi)^8 16\sigma(\sigma-1)} \qquad (45)$$

so that

$$\int_1^\infty d\omega\, \omega^{-\sigma} T(P,Q,\omega) \underset{Q\to\infty}{\sim} \left(\frac{Q^2}{m^2}\right)^{g^2/(2\pi)^8 16\sigma(\sigma-1)}$$

$$\times \frac{g^2}{8\pi}\frac{1}{\sigma-1} \qquad (46)$$

in the leading logarithmic approximation.

B. Timelike case

When $q^2 = Q^2 > 0$ the potential V has the same form as in the spacelike case.

$$V(p,q) = \frac{g^2}{8\pi}\left(\frac{s-4m^2}{s}\right)^{1/2}, \qquad (47)$$

where now $s = (p-q)^2$. Equation (47) is shown in Fig. 7. Now in the leading logarithmic approximation

$$\left(m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2} - \bar{a}_\sigma\right) t_\sigma(0,Q) = 0,$$

where

$$\bar{a}_\sigma = \lim_{\substack{Q\to\infty \\ P\to 0}} \left(\frac{2P}{Q}\right)^{\sigma+1} \hat{\Gamma}_\sigma(P,Q).$$

To first order in g^2

$$\bar{a}_\sigma = \lim_{\Lambda\to\infty} m^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}\frac{2^{-\sigma}\pi}{(2\pi)^8\sigma}\int_0^\Lambda \frac{K^3 dK}{|K^2-m^2|^2}v_\sigma(0,K).$$

Thus

$$\bar{a}_\sigma = \lim_{\Lambda\to\infty} m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}\frac{g^2}{(2\pi)^8 8\sigma}\int_{4m^2}^\Lambda \frac{K^3 dK}{|K^2-m^2|^2}$$

$$\times \int_0^{1-(4m^2/K^2)} d\omega\, \omega^\sigma\left(1-\frac{4m^2}{K^2(1-\omega)}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \lim_{\Lambda\to\infty} m^2\frac{\partial}{\partial m^2}\frac{g^2}{(2\pi)^8 16\sigma}\int_4^{\Lambda^2/m^2}\frac{y\,dy}{|y-1|^2}$$

$$\times \int_0^{1-4/y} d\omega\, \omega^\sigma\left(1-\frac{4}{y(1-\omega)}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \lim_{\Lambda\to\infty}\frac{g^2}{(2\pi)^8 16\,\sigma}\frac{-(\Lambda^2/m^2)(\Lambda^2/m^2)}{|(\Lambda^2/m^2)-1|^2}$$

$$\times \int_0^{1-(4m^2/\Lambda)} d\omega\, \omega^\sigma\left(1-\frac{4m^2}{\Lambda^2(1-\omega)}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= -\frac{g^2}{(2\pi)^8 16\sigma}\int_0^1 d\omega\, \omega^\sigma,$$

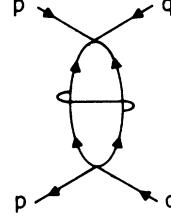$$\bar{a}_\sigma = -\frac{g^2}{(2\pi)^8 16\sigma(\sigma+1)}. \qquad (48)$$

Thus

FIG. 7. A potential used in the Bethe-Salpeter equation.

$$\int_0^1 d\omega\, \omega^\sigma T(P,Q,\omega) \sim \left(\frac{Q^2}{m^2}\right)^{g^2/(2\pi)^8 16\sigma(\sigma+1)}$$

$$\times \frac{g^2}{8\pi}\frac{1}{\sigma+1}. \qquad (49)$$

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

APPENDIX A

In this appendix two examples will be given which show how $T(P,Q,\omega)$ and $V(P,Q,\omega)$ behave for large values of Q. We begin with the contribution to $T(P,Q,\omega)$ shown in Fig. 8:

$$T(p,q)\propto \int \frac{d^3k_1}{E_1}\frac{d^3k_2}{E_2}$$

$$\times \frac{\Theta((q-p-k_1-k_2)^2)\Theta(q_0-p_0-E_1-E_2)}{|(k_1+k_2+p)^2|^2}, \qquad (A1)$$

where internal particles have been taken to have zero mass. Write

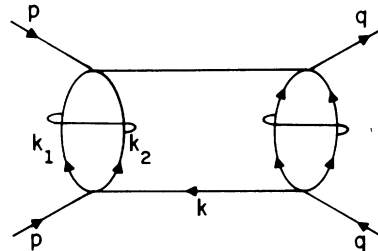$$\frac{d^3k_1}{E_1}\frac{d^3k_2}{E_2} = \frac{dk_{1t}}{E_1}\frac{dk_{2t}}{E_2}d^2k_1 d^2k_2,$$
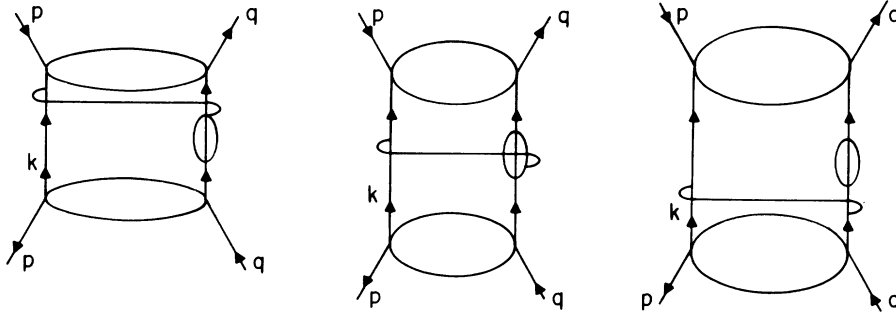

FIG. 8. A two-particle reducible amplitude.

FIG. 9. A two-particle irreducible amplitude.

where

$$k_1 = (E_1, \underline{k}_1, k_{1z}); \quad E_1 = (\underline{k}_1^2 + k_{1z}^2)^{1/2}, \quad \underline{k}_1 = (k_{1x}, k_{1y}),$$

$$k_2 = (E_2, \underline{k}_2, k_{2z}); \quad E_2 = (\underline{k}_2^2 + k_{2z}^2)^{1/2}, \quad \underline{k}_2 = (k_{2x}, k_{2y}).$$

Now, choose a coordinate frame where

$$q = (Q, 0, 0, 0),$$

$$p \approx \left(\frac{\omega Q}{2} + \frac{P^2}{\omega Q}, \ 0, 0, \ \frac{\omega Q}{2} \right);$$

then

$$(k_1 + k_2 + p)^2 \approx P^2 \left(1 + 2 \frac{E_1 + E_2}{\omega Q} \right)$$

$$+ \omega Q [(E_1 - k_{1z}) + (E_2 - k_{2z})]$$

$$+ 2(E_1 E_2 - k_{1z} k_{2z} - \underline{k}_1 \cdot \underline{k}_2)$$

if we are interested in finding the strength of the singularity at $P^2 = 0$ for fixed ω $(k_1 + k_2 + p)^2$ must be the order of P^2. To achieve this it is necessary that $E_i \sim k_{iz}$ so that

$$E_i - k_{iz} \approx \frac{\underline{k}_i^2}{2k_{iz}}$$

and so

$$(k_1 + k_2 + p)^2 \approx P^2 \left(1 + 2 \frac{k_{1z} + k_{2z}}{\omega Q} \right)$$

$$+ \frac{\omega Q}{2} \left(\frac{\underline{k}_1^2}{k_{1z}} + \frac{\underline{k}_2^2}{k_{2z}} \right)$$

$$+ \left(\frac{k_{1z}}{k_{2z}} \underline{k}_2^2 + \frac{k_{2z}}{k_{1z}} \underline{k}_1^2 - 2\underline{k}_1 \cdot \underline{k}_2 \right). \quad \text{(A2)}$$

Clearly the result is a logarithmic divergence in P^2, since (A2) is a positive definite quantity in $\underline{k}_1$

and $\underline{k}_2$, and the volume $d^2k_1 \, d^2k_2$ is four-dimensional. Also the logarithmic singularity occurs when k_{1z} and k_{2z} are proportional to $\frac{1}{2}\omega Q$, while $|\underline{k}_1|$ and $|\underline{k}_2|$ are on the order of P. The singularity occurs because the single-particle poles are reached when k_1, k_2, and p are essentially parallel and proportional momenta. As described in Sec. III the volume of phase space for $(p + k_1 + k_2)^2 \approx P^2$ is proportional to $(P^2)^2$ which almost balances the $(P^2)^{-2}$ coming from the two propagators, resulting in a $\ln P^2$ term.

The second example to be discussed involves the contribution to $V(P, Q, \omega)$ shown in Fig. 9.

$$V(P, Q, \omega) \propto \int \frac{d^3k}{E} \ln^2 \left[\frac{-(p+k)^2}{\Lambda^2} \right]$$

$$\times \lim_{m^2 \to 0} \mathrm{Im} \left\{ \frac{r^2 + \Lambda^2}{r^2 - m^2 + i\epsilon} \right.$$

$$\left. \times \int_{9m^2}^{\infty} \frac{d \, a^2 \rho(a^2, m^2)}{(a^2 + \Lambda^2)(a^2 - r^2 - i\epsilon)} \right\},$$

where $r = q - p - k$ and the term in curly brackets is the g^2 term of the propagator in ϕ^4 theory. Again the zero-mass limit has been taken. In the coordinate system where

$$q = (Q, 0, 0, 0),$$

$$p = \left(\frac{\omega Q}{2} + \frac{P^2}{\omega Q}, 0, 0, \frac{\omega Q}{2} \right),$$

we write

$$\frac{d^3k}{E} = \frac{dk_3}{E} \, d^2k = 2\pi dx dy,$$

with

$$x = E, \quad y = E - k_z.$$

Thus, for fixed ω,

$$V(P, Q, \omega) \propto 2\pi \int_0^\infty dx \int_0^x dy \ln^2 \left[\frac{P^2[1 + (2x/\omega Q)] + \omega Q y}{-\Lambda^2} \right]$$

$$\times \lim_{m^2 \to 0} \text{Im} \left\{ \frac{Q^2(1-\omega) + P^2(1 - 2/\omega + 2x/\omega Q) + \omega Q y - 2Q x + \Lambda^2}{Q^2(1-\omega) + P^2(1 - 2/\omega + 2x/\omega Q) + \omega Q y - 2Q x - m^2 + i\epsilon} \right.$$

$$\left. \times \int_{9m^2}^\infty \frac{\rho(a^2, m^2) da^2}{(a^2 + \Lambda^2)[a^2 - Q^2(1-\omega) - P^2(1 - 2/\omega + 2x/\omega Q) - \omega Q y + 2Q x - i\epsilon]} \right\} .$$

The dominant contribution to V comes from $x \sim y \sim Q$ which gives $V \propto \ln^2 Q$. In order to obtain the dominant P dependence $y \sim P^2/Q$ while $x \sim Q$ so that

$$V \sim C_1(P^2/Q^2)\ln^2(P^2/-\Lambda^2)$$
$$+ C_2(P^2/Q^2)\ln(P^2/-\Lambda^2) + C_3 P^2/Q^2 .$$

If ω is small then the dominant P dependence comes from $x \sim Q$, $y \sim p^2/\omega^2 Q$. Then the p^2 dependence looks like

$$V \sim C_1(P^2/\omega^2 Q^2)\ln^2(P^2/-\Lambda^2 \omega)$$
$$+ C_2(P^2/\omega^2 Q^2)\ln(P^2/-\Lambda^2 \omega) + C_3(P^2/\omega^2 Q^2) .$$

Note that when $x \gg y$ as is the case above,

$$x \approx k_z, \quad y \approx \frac{k^2}{2k_z} ,$$

so that $k_z \sim Q$ while $|k| \sim P/\omega$. Only when ω becomes as small as P/Q are $|k|$ and k_z comparable. The above example illustrates the general case that so long as $\omega \gg P/Q$ the dominant P dependence comes when a low mass system of particles moves parallel to p and with the same velocity as p.

As a special case of the last example we consider the graph in Fig. 10. Here

$$V(P, Q, \omega)$$
$$\propto 2\pi \int_0^\infty dy \int_y^\infty dx \ln^2 \left[\frac{P^2(1 + 2x/\omega Q) + \omega Q y}{-\Lambda^2} \right]$$
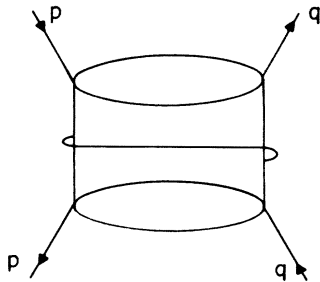$$\times \delta(Q^2(1-\omega) - 2Q x + \omega Q y)$$

FIG. 10. A two-particle irreducible amplitude.

for small P^2. The x integration can be done explicitly to give

$$V(P, Q, \omega) \propto \frac{\pi}{Q} \int_0^{Q(1-\omega)/2 - \omega} dy \ln^2 \left[\frac{P^2(1/\omega) + \omega Q y}{-\Lambda^2} \right].$$

Let $y = (P^2/Q\omega^2)z$. Then

$$V \propto \frac{\pi P^2}{\omega^2 Q^2} \int_0^{(Q^2 \omega^2/P^2)(1-\omega)/(2-\omega)} dz \ln^2 \left[\frac{P^2(1 + z)}{-\omega \Lambda^2} \right].$$

The singularity in P^2 occurs, roughly, when z is finite so that V has the form

$$V \propto C_1(P^2/Q^2\omega^2)\ln^2(P^2/-\Lambda^2 \omega)$$
$$+ C_2(P^2/Q^2\omega^2)\ln(P^2/-\Lambda^2 \omega) + C_3(P^2/Q^2\omega^2)$$

for the dominant P dependence.

APPENDIX B

In this appendix the n-particle phase space near the threshold of a zero-mass theory will be given. Let

$$d\Phi_n = \int \frac{d^3k_1}{E_1} \frac{d^3k_2}{E_2} \cdots \frac{d^3k_n}{E_n} \delta^4(k_1 + k_2 + \cdots + k_n - p),$$

where $(k_i)_\mu (k_i)^\mu = k^2 = 0$. Although $d\Phi_n$ is an invariant function of $P^2 = p^2$ we shall find it convenient to choose a coordinate frame where $p_0 \gg P$. Thus we write

$$p_\mu \approx \left(p + \frac{P^2}{2p}, 0, 0, p \right)$$

and

$$d\Phi_n = \int \frac{dk_{1z}}{E_1} \frac{dk_{2z}}{E_2} \cdots \frac{dk_{nz}}{E_n} d^2k_1 d^2k_2 \cdots d^2k_n$$

$$\times \delta \left(E_1 + E_2 + \cdots + E_n - p - \frac{P^2}{2p} \right)$$

$$\times \delta(k_{1z} + k_{2z} + \cdots + k_{nz} - p)$$

$$\times \delta(\underline{k}_1 + \underline{k}_2 + \cdots + \underline{k}_n) .$$

The δ functions require that $k_{iz} \gg |\underline{k}_i|$ unless $|\underline{k}_i|$ and k_{iz} are both of the order $P^2/2p$. For the moment suppose that $k_{iz} \gg |\underline{k}_i|$. Then

$$d\Phi_n = \int \frac{dk_{1z}}{k_{1z}} \frac{dk_{2z}}{k_{2z}} \cdots \frac{dk_{nz}}{k_{nz}} d^2k_1 d^2k_2 \cdots d^2k_n$$

$$\times \delta(\underline{k}_1 + \underline{k}_2 + \cdots + \underline{k}_n)$$

$$\times \delta\left(\frac{k_1^2}{2k_{1z}} + \frac{k_2^2}{2k_{2z}} + \cdots + \frac{k_n^2}{2k_{nz}} - \frac{P^2}{2p}\right)$$

$$\times \delta(k_{1z} + k_{2z} + \cdots + k_{nz} - p) .$$

Set $k_{iz} = \alpha_i p$; then

$$d\Phi_n = 2 \int \frac{d\alpha_1}{\alpha_1} \frac{d\alpha_2}{\alpha_2} \cdots \frac{d\alpha_n}{\alpha_n} d^2k_1 d^2k_2 \cdots d^2k_n$$

$$\times \delta(\underline{k}_1 + \underline{k}_2 + \cdots + \underline{k}_n)$$

$$\times \delta\left(\frac{k_1^2}{\alpha_1} + \frac{k_2^2}{\alpha_2} + \cdots + \frac{k_n^2}{\alpha_n} - P^2\right)$$

$$\times \delta(1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2 - \cdots - \alpha_n) ,$$

where $0 \le \alpha_i \le 1$. But

$$\int d^2k_1 d^2k_2 \cdots d^2k_n \delta(\underline{k}_1 + \underline{k}_2 + \cdots + \underline{k}_n)$$

$$\times \delta\left(\frac{k_1^2}{\alpha_1} + \frac{k_2^2}{\alpha_2} + \cdots + \frac{k_n^2}{\alpha_n} - P^2\right)$$

$$= \frac{\pi^{n-1}}{(n-2)!} \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_n (P^2)^{n-2}$$

and

$$\int_0^1 d\alpha_1 d\alpha_2 \cdots d\alpha_n \delta(1 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2 - \cdots - \alpha_n) = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} ,$$

so

$$d\Phi_n = \frac{2\pi^{n-1}}{(n-1)!(n-2)!} (P^2)^{n-2} .$$

If $|\underline{k}_i|$ and k_{iz}, for a particular i, are both of the order $P^2/2p$ then an additional factor of $P^2/2p$ occurs so that this region is not important and the above result for $d\Phi_n$ is exact.

APPENDIX C

In Sec. III B it was argued that

$$\int_0^1 \omega d\omega V(P, Q, \omega)$$

becomes independent of P for large Q, and that the correction terms are like P^2/Q^2 up to logarithms. In order to show that

$$\int_{2P/Q}^{1+(P^2-4m^2)/Q^2} d\omega \, \omega^\sigma [1 + (1 - 4P^2/\omega^2 Q^2)^{1/2}]^\sigma V(P, Q, \omega)$$

has this same property it is necessary to determine how $V(P, Q, \omega)$ behaves both when ω is finite and when $\omega \sim 2P/Q$. The independence on P when $\sigma = 1$ indicates that for the region of finite ω

$$V(P, Q, \omega) - V(0, Q, \omega) \sim P^2/Q^2 ,$$

and examples previously worked out in Appendix A suggest that

$$V(P, Q, \omega) - V(0, Q, \omega) \sim P^2/Q^2\omega^2 \qquad \text{(C1)}$$

when ω is small. We shall now give an argument to indicate that Eq. (C1) should hold in general.

The argument given in Sec. III involved the product of factors coming from the phase space of a zero-mass theory times the threshold singularities present. Refer now to Fig. 5. Choose a coordinate system

$$q = (Q, 0, 0, 0) ,$$

$$p = \left(\frac{\omega Q}{2} + \frac{P^2}{\omega Q}, 0, 0, \frac{\omega Q}{2}\right) ,$$

when $\omega \gg P/Q$. Now, for fixed ω and large Q a threshold involving p is reached when

$$(p + k_1 + k_2 + \cdots + k_j)^2 \sim P^2 .$$

As we have seen in Appendix A this means that

$$k_{iz} \sim \frac{\omega Q}{2} , \quad |\underline{k}_i| \sim P, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, j$$

so that the j particles align with p. Now as ω becomes small less alignment will occur until there is no alignment at all when $\omega \sim P/Q$. This is illustrated in the examples of Appendix A. More quantitatively call

$$K_j = k_1 + k_2 + \cdots + k_j ;$$

then

$$(p + K_j)^2 = P^2 + 2p \cdot K_j + K_j^2$$

$$= P^2 + \omega Q(K_{j0} - K_{jz}) + \frac{2P^2}{\omega Q} K_{j0} + K_j^2$$

and

$$d\psi = \int d^4 K_j \frac{d^3k_1}{E_1} \frac{d^3k_2}{E_2} \cdots \frac{d^3k_j}{E_j}$$

$$\times \delta^4(K_j - k_1 - k_2 - \cdots - k_j)$$

$$\times \Theta(a^2 - (p + K_j)^2) \Theta(Q - K_{j0})$$

attains a maximum when a^2 is chosen to be P^2/ω; a^2 cannot be chosen significantly greater than P^2/ω or $d\psi$ loses all P dependence:

$$d\psi \sim (a^2)^{j-2} \int d^4 K_j \Theta(Q - K_{j0})$$

$$\times \Theta\left(a^2 - \omega Q(K_{j0} - K_{jz})\right.$$

$$\left. - \frac{2P^2}{\omega Q} K_{j0} - K_j^2\right)$$

$$\sim (a^2)^{j-2}(P^2/\omega)(P^2/\omega^2)$$

$$\sim (a^2)^{j-1}(P^2/\omega^2) .$$

The threshold singularity gives a factor $(a^2)^{-j+1}$ so altogether

$$V(P, Q, \omega) - V(0, Q, \omega) \sim P^2/\omega^2 Q^2 \qquad \text{(C2)}$$

for large Q and small ω. The factor of $1/Q^2$ comes into (C2) as the only possible quantity to set the scale for the mass singularity. Thus

$$\int_{2P/Q}^{1+(P^2-4m^2)/Q^2} d\omega \, \omega^\sigma [1 + (1 - 4P^2/Q^2\omega^2)^{1/2}]^\sigma V(P, Q, \omega)$$

$$= v_0(P, Q)$$

will become independent of P for large Q, so long as $\text{Re}\sigma > -1$.

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