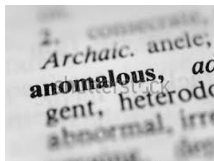


The *deepest* cut: Peaks and Cusps

Giampiero Passarino

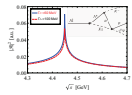
Dipartimento di Fisica Teorica, Università di Torino, Italy
INFN, Sezione di Torino, Italy



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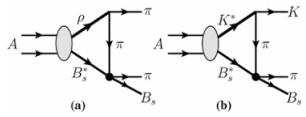
Zurich, 4 December 2018

- $\chi_{c1}P$ threshold, 4.449 GeV
- Coincidentally, four-star baryon $\Lambda(1890)$: $J^P = 3/2^+$, Γ : 60 – 200 MeV
- triangle loop with S -wave $\chi_{c1}P$



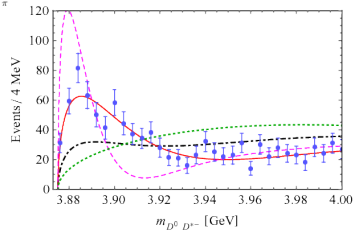
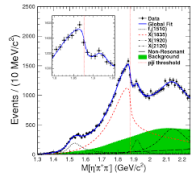
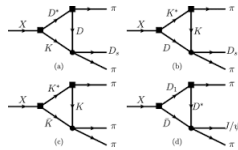
→ Connection to arXiv:1507.04950: no such a prominent peak in other partial waves
 → the $\Lambda(1890)$ $\chi_{c1}P$ mechanism relevant if the quantum numbers are
 $J^P = 3/2^+$
 $\Gamma = 60 - 200$ MeV

Preprint 1507.04950 [hep-th] 15 Jul 2015



X(5568) ?

Why worry about cusps?¹



¹Resonances are normally observed as peaks in certain invariant mass distributions; however, a question arises: is a peak necessarily due to the presence of a resonance? Are there peaks produced by kinematic singularities?

when
broadcast signal is re-

def·i·ni·tion n. 1.

The teacher gave de
new words.

Landau equations² for a given Feynman integral are a set of kinematic constraints that are necessary for the appearance of **a pole or branch point** in the integrated function (as a function of external kinematics and masses). Landau equations admit many families of solutions which are naturally classified as leading Landau singularities (LLS), sub-leading Landau singularities (SLLS), sub-sub-leading (S^2 LLS) etc.



A triangle singularity is a logarithmic branch point, which would produce an infinite reaction rate if it appears in the physical region. The finite width, introduced by the complex-mass scheme, moves the singularity into the complex plane, and the differential reaction rate can have a finite peak due to the proximity of the singularity.

²Usually Landau-Nakanishi equations are called Landau equations for short, see also Bjorken (thesis, Stanford Univ. 1959)

let L be the number of internal lines in the diagram

v the number of loops; define

$$\rho = 2v - 1/2(L + 1)$$

$$\Delta_L = \text{Cayley / Gram}$$

the leading behavior of the diagram is given by

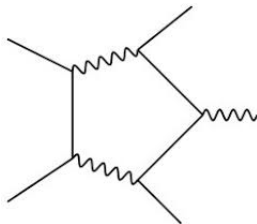
(N.B. Gram $\neq 0$)

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_L^\rho & \quad \text{for } \rho < 0, \\ \Delta_L^{k+1/2} & \quad \text{for } \rho = k + \frac{1}{2}, \\ \Delta_L^k \ln \Delta_L & \quad \text{for } \rho = k, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}^*. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore for $L = 2(2v + n) - 1$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ the AT is a pole of order n for the amplitude, e.g. a simple pole for the one-loop pentagon, for two-loop diagrams with 9 propagators etc. In all other cases it is a branch point.

For $n \geq 6$ all the singularities of the one-loop n -point functions coincide with the singularities of the reduced, down to and including the pentagon, diagrams obtained from the main diagram (vanishing of Gram determinants if any of its principal minors vanish).

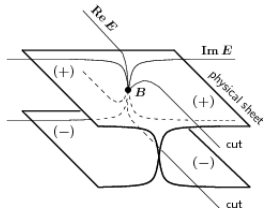
$s \rightarrow$

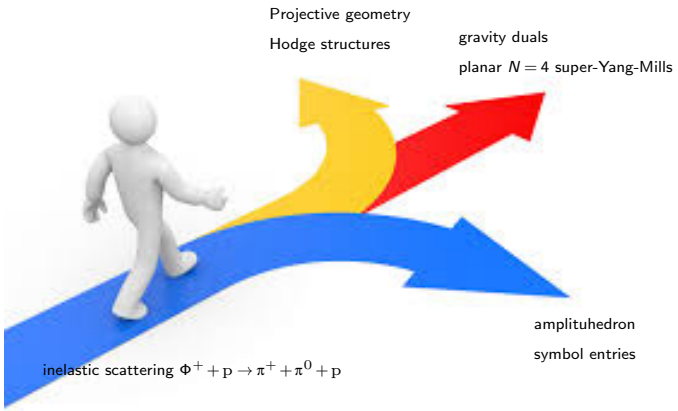


$$\equiv \frac{1}{s - s_{AT}}$$

$\det C(\text{ailey})$ is a quartic polynomial in s and we look for complex solutions in the variable s to the equation $\det C = 0$. Since the AT for a pentagon is a pole this is exactly the situation where the AT could be misinterpreted as the peak due to an unstable particle.

Deciding whether it is a resonance would require establishing that the “pole” is on the second (unphysical) sheet.







Impact on physical observables;

It should be emphasised that the presence of ATs depends on the structure of denominators of specific Feynman diagrams ³ but their numerical impact on the full amplitude also depends on numerators.

In this regard, we are assuming that the singularity spectrum of the S-matrix is confined to the union of the singularity spectra of the Feynman integrals .

and we proceed to construct the singularity spectra of the Feynman integrals
Therefore, the scattering amplitude appears as the sum of infinitely many diagrams of increasing complexity and each diagram in principle can be completely investigated.

In principle there is no reason for the S-matrix to be the sum of the diagrams but *we work under the assumption that the diagrams represent the local behavior of the amplitude* and that the whole picture can be recovered by gluing together all these local behaviors.

³Because the vertices are point interactions, singularities in any local QFT are generated only by propagators.

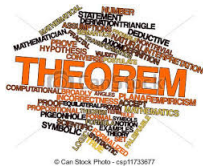
9



Cayley equations

Kershaw theorem

Coleman-Norton theorem



Kershaw

The singular part of a scattering amplitude around its leading Landau singularity may be written as an algebraic product of the scattering amplitudes for each vertex of the corresponding Landau graph times a certain explicitly determined singularity factor which depends only on the type of singularity and on the masses and spins of the internal particles.

Furthermore, for a given set of external momenta which lie on the given physical Landau singularity there exists only **one unique set** of values for the internal momenta which satisfy the Landau equations.

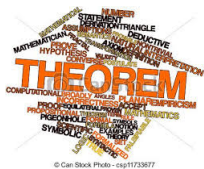
It is worth noting that the consequences of the theorem have been reinterpreted by various authors in terms of multiple cuts on Feynman diagrams

Kershaw theorem \Leftarrow only one restriction need be observed: at least one internal line must have nonzero mass.



We are only interested in a massive world

Technically speaking: further require that the given Landau singularity point does not also lie on the Landau curve of another graph, of which the given graph is a contraction.



Coleman and Norton

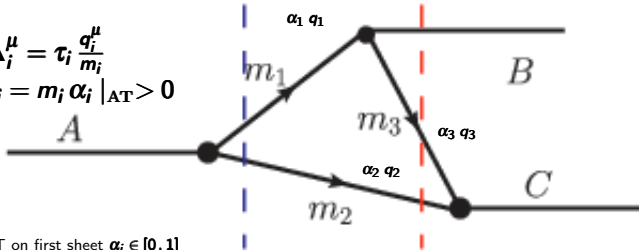
A Feynman amplitude has singularities on the physical boundary if and only if the relevant Feynman diagram can be interpreted as a picture of an energy- and momentum-conserving process occurring in space-time, with all internal particles real, on the mass shell, and moving forward in time.

As a by-product, the Feynman parameter associated with an internal line is identified (within a proportionality factor) with the time the particle exists between collisions, divided by its mass.

$$\Delta_i^\mu = \alpha_i q_i^\mu |_{AT}$$

$$\Delta_i^\mu = \tau_i \frac{q_i^\mu}{m_i}$$

$$\tau_i = m_i \alpha_i |_{AT} > 0$$



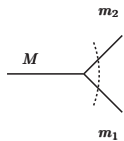
AT on first sheet $\alpha_i \in [0, 1]$



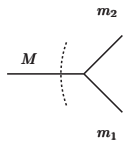
$$\alpha_1 = 1 - x_1, \alpha_2 = x_1 - x_2, \alpha_3 = x_2$$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i = 1$$

the graph can be read as a picture of classical particles moving in spacetime, with all momenta real and on mass shell, and all particles moving forward in time.

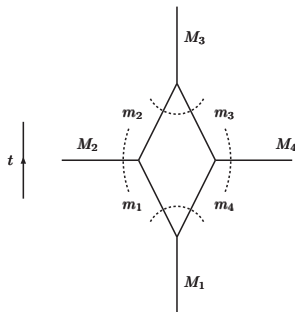


$$M^2 > (m_1 + m_2)^2$$

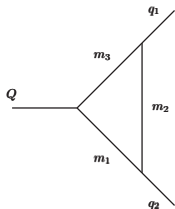


$$M^2 < (m_1 - m_2)^2$$

typical space-time diagram



Triangle details: consider a triangle where the three external lines are off-shell (e.g. $H^* \rightarrow W^*W^*$).

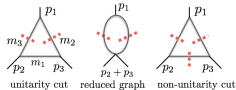


$$Q^2 = -s$$

$$q_i^2 = -M_i^2$$

$$Q = q_1 + q_2$$

3 and higher point functions can be cut in more than two pieces; putting all propagators on-shell corresponds to $\alpha_i \neq 0$ at the level of the Landau equations,



i.e. ATs go beyond the concept of unitarity cuts.

- We must have $s \geq (M_1 + M_2)^2$

From the Kershaw theorem we see that the *physical-region Landau curve* has six branches in the Q, q_1, q_2 space, i.e.

$$s > (m_1 + m_3)^2, \quad M_2^2 > (m_1 + m_2)^2, \quad M_1^2 < (m_2 - m_3)^2,$$

$$\text{with } Q^0 > 0 \text{ and } q_2^0 > 0.$$

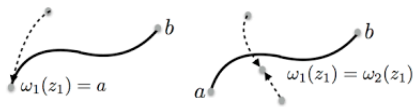
The other branches are obtained by cyclic permutations and by the overall reflection of the external momenta.

Example

an off-shell H with momentum Q going to off-shell Ws; internal lines are t, b quarks, i.e.

$$m_1 = m_3 = m_t, \quad m_2 = m_b.$$

Furthermore, $M_2 > m_t + m_b$ and $M_1 < m_t - m_b$.



Pinchworld



homology

monodromy

Consider a scalar, one-loop, N -point functions in d dimensions ($d = 4 - \epsilon$): external momenta will be labelled as p_1, \dots, p_N and let us consider \mathcal{P}_N the set of the non-cyclic permutation of $(1, \dots, N)$ with the first entry fixed. Vectors k_i are introduced according to the following convention:

$N = 3$ there are two elements, i.e. $(1, 2, 3)$ and $(1, 3, 2)$. We define

$$(1, 2, 3) \rightarrow k_1 = p_1, k_2 = p_2,$$

$$(1, 3, 2) \rightarrow k_1 = p_1, k_2 = p_3.$$

$N = 4$ There are three elements and we define

$$(1, 2, 3, 4) \rightarrow k_1 = p_1, k_2 = p_2, k_3 = p_3,$$

$$(1, 2, 4, 3) \rightarrow k_1 = p_1, k_2 = p_2, k_3 = p_4,$$

$$(1, 3, 2, 4) \rightarrow k_1 = p_1, k_2 = p_3, k_3 = p_2.$$

$N = 5$ There are twelve elements, etc.

Define a scalar integral as

$$S_{d;N}(w) = \frac{\mu^\varepsilon}{i\pi^2} \int d^d q \frac{1}{\prod_{i=0, N-1} [i]}, \quad [i] = (q + k_0 + \dots + k_i)^2 + m_i^2,$$

where $k_0 = 0$ and where w is an element of \mathcal{P}_N . Furthermore μ is the 't Hooft scale and $\varepsilon = d - 4$. In parametric space we obtain

$$S_{dN}(w) = \left(\frac{\mu^2}{\pi}\right)^{2-d/2} \Gamma(N - \frac{d}{2}) [N]_d(w),$$

where from the triangle to the hexagon we will use the following notations:

$$[3] \equiv C, \dots [7] \equiv G.$$

We have

$$[N]_d(w) = \int dS_{N-1} V_N^{d/2-N}(w),$$

$$V_N(w) = x^t H_N(w) x + 2 K_N^t(w) x + L_N(w), \quad X_N(w) = -K_N^t(w) H_N^{-1}(w),$$

$$\Delta_N(w) = L_N(w) - K_N^t(w) H_N^{-1}(w) K_N(w),$$

where $H_{ij} = -k_i \cdot k_j$; $G_N = \det H_N$ is the Gram determinant associated with the N-point function of argument $w \in \mathcal{P}_N$.

Furthermore, $K_i = -1/2(m_i^2 - m_{i+1}^2 - k_i^2 - 2 \sum_{j=1, i-1} k_j \cdot k_i)$, $L = m_1^2$ and

$$\int dS_{N-1} = \int_0^1 dx_1 \int_0^{x_1} dx_2 \dots \int_0^{x_{N-2}} dx_{N-1}.$$

N.B. X_N is the critical point of V_N , Δ_N is its critical value. A complex number is a critical value of a multivariate polynomial iff it is a root of the equation discriminant of the polynomial = 0.

Let M_N be the $N \times N$ matrix

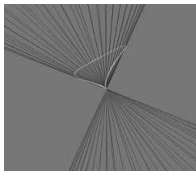
$$M_N = \begin{pmatrix} H_N & K_N \\ K_N^t & L_N \end{pmatrix}$$

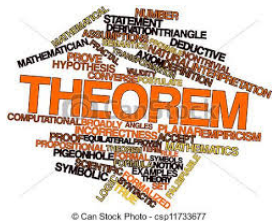
Then one can easily prove that

$$\Delta_N(w) = \frac{C_N(w)}{G_N(w)}, \quad X_N^i = \frac{\det M_{(i,N)}}{G_N},$$

where $C_N = \det M_N$ is the so-called modified Cayley determinant of the diagram and we can write

$$V_N = (x - X_N)^t H_N (x - X_N) + \Delta_N = y^t M_N y, \quad y^t = (x^t, 1)$$





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THE ANALYTIC S-MATRIX
S. MANDELSTAM
1965
194 Pages and Ten Diagrams of Feynman Theory
by
S. Mandelstam

1. The problem of analytic continuation of amplitudes in the complex plane is treated in the context of the theory of scattering amplitudes. It is shown that there is a well-defined analytic continuation of the amplitudes in the complex plane. The analytic continuation is shown to be unique and to be analytic in the sense of the theory of distributions. The analytic continuation is shown to be unique and to be analytic in the sense of the theory of distributions. The analytic continuation is shown to be unique and to be analytic in the sense of the theory of distributions.

Standing on the shoulders of giants

Ferrogia et al.; Gorja and P.

It is easily seen ⁴ that $\Delta_N = 0$ induces a pinch on the integration contour at the point $x = X_N$; therefore, if

$$\Delta_N = 0, \quad 0 < X_{N,N-1} < \dots < X_{N,1} < 1,$$

we have the **leading singularity** (it represents a singular point of multiplicity two). Leading singularities of diagrams obtained by shrinking one (or more) line of the original diagram to a point give the sub-leading singularities.

⁴In general for a hypersurface $V(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0$ the singular points are those at which all the partial derivatives simultaneously vanish. The notion of singular points is a purely local property. The determination of the multiplicity of a singular point, is based on ascertaining which of the higher-order derivatives vanish at that point.

In the Cayley language the Landau equations for a general case can be written as follows. Consider the integral

$$I = \int_{\mathbf{D}} \prod_{i=1}^n dx_i \mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{N},n}^{-\mu}(x_1 \dots x_n; w_1 \dots w_k),$$

where

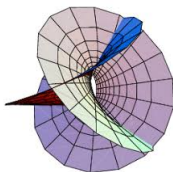
- \mathbf{V} is a multivariate polynomial of degree \mathbf{N} and an algebraic function of k -parameters $w_1 \dots w_k$. Therefore $V \in \mathbb{C}[x, w]$.
- \mathbf{D} is the domain of integration.
- $V_{\mathbf{N},n} = 0$ is the locus of the singularities of the integrand;

let $\mathcal{B}_j(x, w)$, $j = 1, \dots, d$ be the set representing the boundary of \mathbf{D} .

The necessary conditions for the leading singularities to occur when the hypercontour is pinched between the surfaces of singularity or meets a boundary variety are

- $\exists \alpha_i, \beta$, not all equal to zero and such that at the point $w_k = w_k^0$ and $x_k = x_k^0$ we have $\beta V_{N,n} = 0$ and

$$\alpha_i \mathcal{B}_i(x_i, w_i) = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, d,$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[\sum_i \alpha_i \mathcal{B}_i(x, w) + \beta V_{N,n}(x, w) \right] = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$



Multi-loops

If D is a n -dimensional hypercube and

$$V_{N,n} = \sum_{i=0}^N V_n^i, \quad V_n^i = \sum_{0 \leq i_1 = \dots = i_n \leq i} a_{i_1 \dots i_n}^i x_1^{i_1} \dots x_n^{i_n},$$

where the V_n^i are homogeneous polynomials and $V_{N,n}$ is a generic polynomial in the ring of polynomials of degree N , it is convenient to determine the $(N-1)^n$ n -tuples $X_1^i \dots X_n^i$ such that

$$V_{N,n}(x_1 - X_1^i \dots x_n - X_n^i) = \Delta + \sum_{i=2}^N V_n^i(x_1 - X_1^i \dots x_n - X_n^i), \quad i = 1 \dots (N-1)^n,$$

so that the solutions of $\Delta(w_1 \dots w_k) = 0$, are the potential (leading) pinch singularities if $X_j^i \in \mathbb{R}, 0 < X_j^i < 1 \forall j$. For $V_n^2 = \dots = V_n^k = 0$ the singular point will have multiplicity $k+1$.

One-loop summary: any one-loop diagram is specified by

- ① A multivariate polynomial $V(x_1, \dots, x_{N-1})$
- ② H_N , a $(N-1) \times (N-1)$ matrix whose determinant is the Gram determinant.
- ③ The critical point $\{x_1, \dots, x_{N-1}\} = x_N$; x_N^{ord} is the set $\{(x_1, \dots, x_{N-1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{N-1} \mid 0 < x_{N-1} < \dots < x_1 < 1\}$.
- ④ The Bernstein-Sato-Tkachov factor Δ_N . The Bernstein theorem states that for any polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ there exists a non-zero polynomial $b(s) \in \mathbb{C}[s]$ (Bernstein-Sato polynomial) and a differential operator $P(s) \in D_n(s)$ such that $P(s) \cdot f^{s+1} = b(s) f^s$. For one-loop diagrams Δ_N is the explicit form of b (Tkachov). Δ_N is the critical value of V .
- ⑤ The set of generalized Mandelstam invariants, I ; I_{phys} is the set of invariants internal to the physical region ⁵.

⁵ "physical region" is identified with the phase space for the corresponding process, i.e. the physical region of a given process is the set of all real initial and final energy-momenta variables subject to the mass-shell conditions and to energy-momentum conservation. Solutions that correspond to points outside the physical region are on the wrong sheet.

Process $Q \rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^4 q_i$ with $Q^2 = -s$, $q_i^2 = -M_i^2$.

- set of invariant:

$$s_1 = -(Q - q_1)^2, \quad s_2 = -(Q - q_1 - q_2)^2, \quad u_1 = -(Q - q_2)^2, \quad u_2 = -(Q - q_3)^2, \quad t_2 = -(Q - q_2 - q_3)^2.$$

- Their limits, the physical region, are:

$$(M_2 + M_3 + M_4)^2 \leq s_1 \leq (\sqrt{s} - M_1)^2, \quad (M_3 + M_4)^2 \leq s_2 \leq (\sqrt{s_1} - M_2)^2,$$

and $u_{1-} \leq u_1 \leq u_{1+}$ etc. where the limits can be written as $u_{1\pm} = u_{10} \pm du_1$ etc.

$$u_{10} = s + M_2^2 - \frac{1}{2s_1} (s_1 - s_2 + M_2^2)(s + s_1 - M_1^2), \quad \Delta u_1 = \frac{1}{2s_1} \lambda_1 \lambda_2,$$

$$u_{20} = s + M_3^2 - \frac{1}{2s_2} (s_2 + M_3^2 - M_4^2)(s + s_2 - s_2'), \quad \Delta u_2 = \frac{1}{2s_2} \lambda_3 \lambda_4,$$

$$t_{20} = u_1 + M_3^2 - \frac{1}{2s} (s - u_2 + M_3^2)(s + u_1 - M_2^2) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\xi_2 \eta_2}{s} \lambda_5 \lambda_6, \quad dt_2 = \frac{1}{2s} (1 - \xi_2^2)^{1/2} (1 - \eta_2^2)^{1/2} \lambda_5 \lambda_6.$$

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda^{1/2}(s, s_1, M_1^2), \quad \lambda_2 = \lambda^{1/2}(s_1, s_2, M_2^2), \quad \lambda_3 = \lambda^{1/2}(s, s_2, s_2'),$$

$$\lambda_4 = \lambda^{1/2}(s_2, M_3^2, M_4^2), \quad \lambda_5 = \lambda^{1/2}(s, u_1, M_2^2), \quad \lambda_6 = \lambda^{1/2}(s, u_2, M_3^2).$$

$$s'_2 = s - s_1 + s_2 - u_1 + M_1^2 + M_2^2, \quad t'_1 = M_2^2.$$

The variables ξ_2 and η_2 can be found in Kumar:1970cr with full details on the calculation of the phase space.

\mathbb{R} real (internal) masses:

Assume that all masses are real ($\{\Gamma\} = 0$), the physical-region LLS (or physical-region anomalous threshold) is given by

$$\Delta_N \Big|_{\{\Gamma\}=0} = 0, \quad X_N = X_N^{\text{ord}}, \quad \{I\} = \{I\}_{\text{phys}}.$$

$\{X_i\}$ gives the critical point of the diagram and $\{X_i - X_{i+1}\}$ gives the ratio proper time / mass of the internal particles.

There are cases where the first two conditions are satisfied but Mandelstam invariants are moved to their complex plane. Nevertheless, their real part can be inside the physical region with a tiny imaginary part; therefore they can be very close to the boundary.

C

omplex (internal) masses:

When internal masses are made complex, i.e. $m_i^2 \rightarrow m_i^2 - i\Gamma_i m_i$, singularities move into the complex x -space. We are nevertheless interested in the following configurations:

$$\text{Re } \Delta_N \approx \Delta_N \Big|_{\{\Gamma\}=0} \approx 0, \quad \text{Im } \Delta_N \ll 1,$$

$$\{\text{Re } X_i\} = \{\text{Re } X_i\}^{\text{ord}}, \quad \text{Im } X_i \ll 1,$$

with $\{\text{I}\} = \{\text{I}\}_{\text{phys}}$. The introduction of complex masses regularizes the singularity since, in general, $\text{Im } \Delta_N \neq 0$;

Peierls θ s

They are defined by

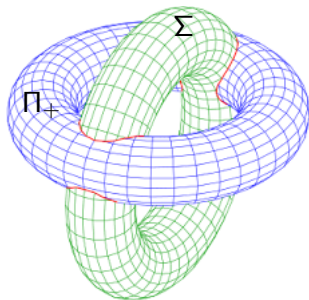
$$\operatorname{Re} \Delta_N = \operatorname{Im} \Delta_N = 0$$

and we look for a set of “real” invariants that satisfy this equation, possibly within the physical region and with $\{\operatorname{Re} X_i\} = \{\operatorname{Re} X_i\}^{\text{ord}}$.



can be seen by considering a simple example:

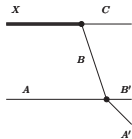
$$F(z_1, z_2) = \int_{-1}^{+1} dx \left[(x - z_1)^2 - z_2^2 \right]^{-1}$$



$$\Sigma = \{z_2 = 0\}$$

$$\Pi_+ = \{z_1 \mid \text{Im } z_1 = 0, |\text{Re } z_1| < 1\}$$

If we follow a path on Π_+ and approach Σ a pinch will appear; starting with a point in Σ and not in Π_+ and following any path on Σ will not give a pinch singularity.



From Coleman-Norton and Kershaw theorems we immediately realize that:

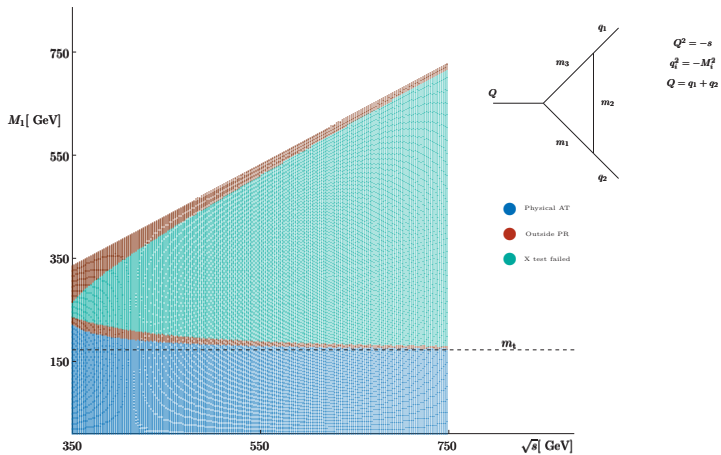
- ① a physical-region singularity requires a theory with a hierarchy of heavy masses . Identical masses in a vertex must be avoided.
- ② If we stay within the SM this means that we are limited to consider only two heavy particles, the t-quark and the W-boson .
- ③ Anomalous thresholds in the SM prefer the so-called “off-shell” region, e.g. gg producing an off-shell Higgs (with a virtuality greater than $2m_t$) subsequently “decaying” into four fermions. The situation changes when we consider BSM models.



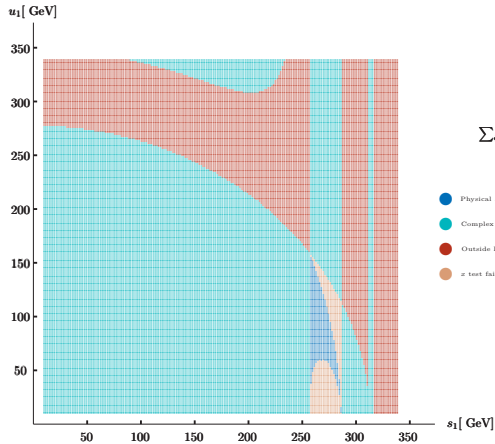
The exceptional case with a vanishing modified Cayley determinant hardly appears in applications



that's not really true: you must unlearn what you have learned. You will find only what you bring in.



$m_1 = m_3 = m_t$, $m_2 = m_b$. For given values of \sqrt{s} and M_1 the value of M_2 corresponding to the AT is computed.



A scan in the $s_1 - u_1$ plane searching for a physical-region AT in $gg \rightarrow \bar{b} b H(HH)$ for $\sqrt{s} = 350$ GeV.

$$Q = q_1 + q_2 + q_3, \text{ with } Q^2 = -s \text{ and } q_i^2 = -M_i^2$$

$$s_1 = -(Q - q_1)^2, \quad u_1 = -(Q - q_2)^2$$

$$(M_2 + M_3)^2 \leq s_1 \leq (\sqrt{s} - M_1)^2, \quad u_{1-} \leq u_1 \leq u_{1+}$$

$$u_{1\pm} = s + M_2^2 - \frac{1}{2s_1} \left[(s_1 + M_2^2 - M_3^2)(s + s_1 - M_1^2) \mp \lambda^{1/2}(s_1, M_2^2, M_3^2) \lambda^{1/2}(s, s_1, M_1^2) \right]$$

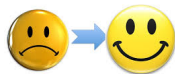


? *too much of offshellness?*

Yes, physical-region ATs are exceptional for SM, on-shell, LHC physics but more frequent in the so-called “off-shell” LHC physics; the reason for that is immediately seen in the context of the

Coleman-Norton and Kershaw theorems, i.e.

not enough heavy masses in the SM to be in one of the 6(14, ...) branches of the physical-region Landau curve for a triangle (box, ...) diagram.

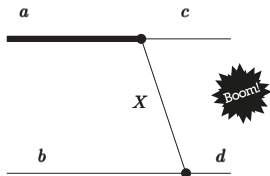


More SM and BSM to come



Benchmark a

$$m_a = 500 \text{ GeV}, m_b = 1 \text{ GeV}, m_c = 2 \text{ GeV}, m_d = 100 \text{ GeV}$$

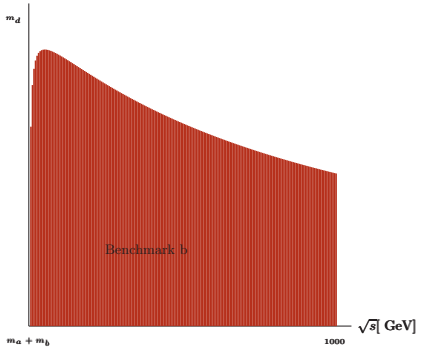
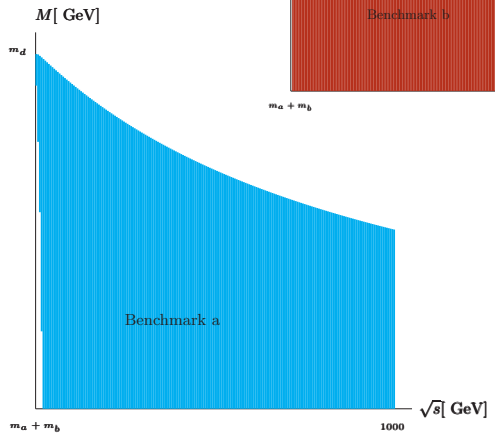


Benchmark b

$$m_a = 500 \text{ GeV}, m_b = 1 \text{ GeV}, m_c = 2 \text{ GeV}, m_d = 10 \text{ GeV}$$

$$t = M_X^2 \text{ inside phys. reg. } (\notin \text{SM})$$

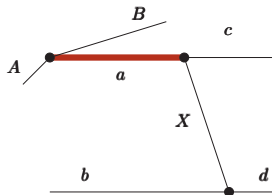
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No need to worry, need to remember

a is not an asymptotic state

This is the full process \implies



Let $t = -(p_b - p_d)^2$, for stable $A, B \implies t < 0$

The fuse has gone out

AT induced by radiation

- No AT for $X \rightarrow \bar{f}f$, where X can be an on-shell BSM Higgs boson, the off-shell SM Higgs boson or an off-shell Z boson. However, considering the processes

$$X \rightarrow \bar{b}bg, \quad X \rightarrow \bar{f}f\gamma,$$

- there is a class of one-loop diagrams which admits a physical-region AT.



$\bar{b}bg(g)$. If s denotes the X virtuality, there a small window between $\sqrt{s} = 345.5$ GeV where the AT corresponds to $M(bg) = 264.81$ GeV and $\sqrt{s} = 370$ GeV where the AT corresponds to $M(bg) = 252.90$ GeV.

AT induced by radiation

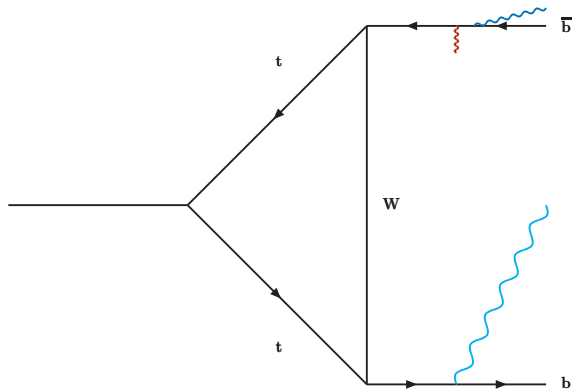
- $e^+e^- \gamma$: for this process we can have a $W-\nu-W$ triangle: in this case \sqrt{s} must be above $2M_W$ for a physical-region AT. The physical-region AT starts at $\sqrt{s} = 161.05 \text{ GeV}$ with $M(e^+\gamma) = 110.64 \text{ GeV}$ and approaches $M(e^+\gamma) = M_W$ for very large values of \sqrt{s} .



- Due to the small value of m_e the inclusion of NNLO terms changes drastically the result, i.e. the NNLO contribution is six orders of magnitude larger than the LO term at $\sqrt{s} = 170 \text{ GeV}$. In this case there is a peak at the AT.
- We can also have a $Z-e-Z$ triangle: in this case \sqrt{s} must be above $2M_Z$. The physical-region AT starts at $\sqrt{s} = 182.38 \text{ GeV}$ with $M(e^+\gamma) = 128.96 \text{ GeV}$ and approaches $M(e^+\gamma) = M_Z$ for very large values of \sqrt{s} .

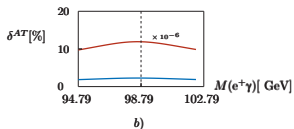
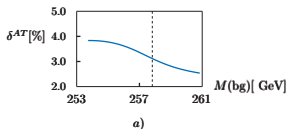


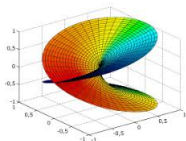
Therefore, for e^+e^- , $\bar{q}q$ and gg initial states there are amplitudes where the initial state couples to a neutral object which can couple to WW or $\bar{t}t$. In these cases we can have $\bar{b}bg$ and $\bar{f}f\gamma$ final states *producing a singularity at large $f(\bar{f})-g(\gamma)$ invariant masses, on top of the more familiar infrared and collinear ones.*



H from gg, Z from e^+e^- , $H(Z) \rightarrow \bar{t}t$ allowed $t \rightarrow Wb(\gamma)$ allowed, $Wt \rightarrow b\gamma$ allowed

Figure : AT induced radiative corrections for a) $H^* \rightarrow \bar{b}b\gamma$ and b) $H^* \rightarrow e^+e^-\gamma$. The H virtuality is a) $\sqrt{s} = 350$ GeV and b) $\sqrt{s} = 170$ GeV.





Fate of the AT: there is a general result, for processes requiring more and more invariants the fully inclusive observables become less and less sensitive to ATs.

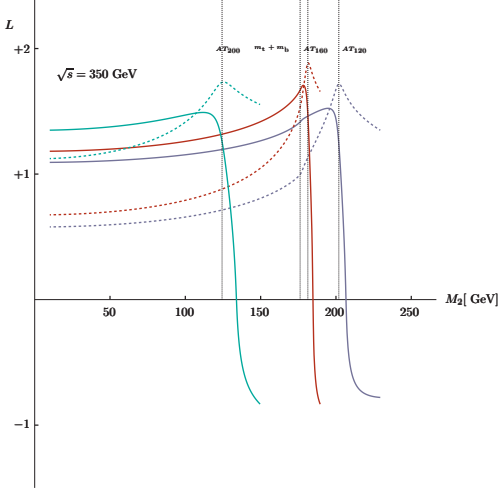
$$H(Q) \rightarrow W^+(q_1 + q_2) + W^-(q_3 + q_4) \rightarrow \underbrace{\nu_\mu(q_1) + \mu^+(q_2)}_{M_1} + \underbrace{e^-(q_3) + \bar{\nu}_e(q_4)}_{M_2},$$

- with $Q^2 = -s$ and light fermion masses are neglected. The full process is given in terms of s and 5 additional Mandelstam invariants,

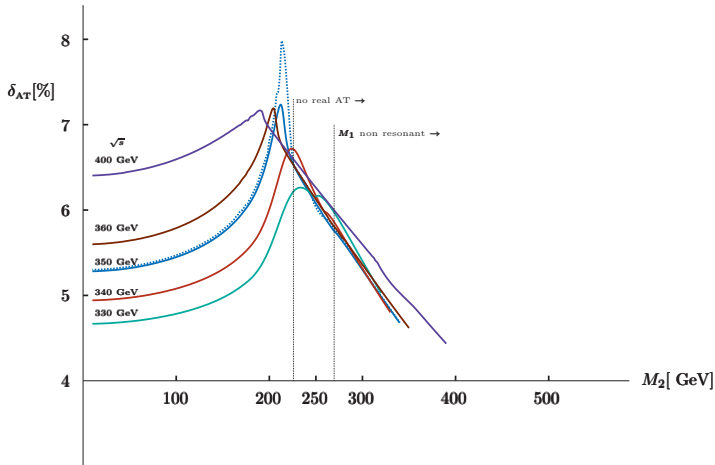
$$\begin{aligned} s_1 &= -(q_2 + q_3 + q_4)^2, & s_2 &= -(q_3 + q_4)^2, \\ u_1 &= -(q_1 + q_3 + q_4)^2, & u_2 &= -(q_1 + q_2 + q_4)^2, \\ t_2 &= -(q_1 + q_4)^2. \end{aligned}$$

- We study the $d\Gamma/dM_2$ distribution,

$$\frac{d\Gamma}{dM_2} = \frac{d\Gamma}{dM_2} \Big|_{\text{LO}} + \frac{d\Gamma}{dM_2} \Big|_{\text{NLO, AT}} + \frac{d\Gamma}{dM_2} \Big|_{\text{NLO, rest}}.$$



The log-modulus transformation of $s C_0$ as a function of M_2 for $\sqrt{s} = 350$ GeV, and $M_1 = 120$ GeV (blue), $M_1 = 160$ GeV (red) and $M_1 = 200$ GeV (emerald). Solid curves give the real part while dashed curves give the imaginary part. $L(x) = \text{sign}(x) \frac{\ln(1+|x|)}{\ln 10}$



M_1 is non resonant if $M_2 > \sqrt{s} - M_W$ and above a certain value for M_2 there is no AT corresponding to a real value of M_1 . For instance, for $\sqrt{s} = 350$ GeV this happens above $M_2 \approx 226$ GeV. The (blue) dashed line corresponds to $\sqrt{s} = 350$ GeV and $\Gamma_t \rightarrow \Gamma_t/100$, showing the effect of the AT.

Furthermore, folding:

$e^+e^- \rightarrow X$; "radiator approach". the hard scattering cross section is convoluted with initial state QED radiation,

$$\sigma(s) = \int_0^1 dz H(z, s) \hat{\sigma}((1-z)s),$$

where $s = 4E^2$, E being the beam energy. It will be enough to assume the so-called virtual-soft approximation where $H = H_0 \beta z^{\beta-1}$, $0 < \beta \ll 1$. EX:

$$F(s) = \int_0^1 dz H(z, s) f(s), \quad f(s) = \left| \int_0^1 dx \chi^{-1}(x, s) \right|^2,$$

$$\text{where } \chi = sx^2 + (m_2^2 - m_1^2 - s)x + m_1^2.$$

$$s_p = (m_1 - m_2)^2, s_t = (m_1 + m_2)^2, \lambda = (s - s_p)(s - s_t).$$

- ① Behavior of $f(s)$ around the normal threshold s_t :

$$f(s) = 4 \frac{\pi^2}{\lambda} + \text{reg. terms} \quad s \rightarrow s_t,$$

The function has a simple pole at the normal threshold.

- ② In terms of the folding this means that $F(s) \sim (s_t - s)^{\beta-1}$ which is integrable and can be used in the convolution with the beam energy spread.

Cayley vs. Gram Landau vs. non-Landau

$$I = \int_0^1 dx \int_0^x dy \left[x^2 - \lambda y^2 + 2(ax - \lambda by) + L \right]^{-1}.$$

- In this case we derive $X_1 = -a, X_2 = b, \mathbf{G} = \lambda$ and $\mathbf{C} = L - a^2 - \lambda b^2$. We assume that $0 \leq b \leq -a \leq 1$ and derive the usual result

$$I \sim \ln \frac{\mathbf{C}}{\mathbf{G}}, \quad \Delta = \frac{\mathbf{C}}{\mathbf{G}} \rightarrow 0.$$

- However, if we take the limit $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ first then $\mathbf{G} = 0$. In this case we obtain

$$I|_{\lambda=0} \sim (L - a^2)^{-1/2}, \quad L \rightarrow a^2,$$

where $L - a^2$ is the Cayley determinant evaluated at $\mathbf{G} = 0$.

- Therefore, the behavior is $\mathbf{C}^{-1/2}$ and not $\ln \Delta$.

Are complex masses enough?

- In the complex mass scheme we have $\Delta_N, X_i \in \mathbb{C}$. With no loss of generality, we fix $N = 4$ and consider a general process $Q \rightarrow q_1 + q_2 + q_3$ where $Q^2 = -s$ and $q_i^2 = -M_i^2$. Let s_1 and u_1 be the two independent invariants.
- Consider the following system of equations:

$$\operatorname{Re} \Delta_4 = 0 \quad \operatorname{Im} \Delta_4 = 0$$

$$\operatorname{Im} X_i = 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, 3$$

- Therefore we have 5 equations in 6 unknowns, $s, s_1, u_1, M_{1,2,3}^2$; a solution will give a surface parametrized by $s_1 = s_1(s), u_1 = u_1(s)$ etc.
- If the real part of the X_i , evaluated at the solution, is ordered then *we may have a pinch singularity even in the complex mass scheme*. The square of the box will be non-integrable.

DIFFICULT

These conditions are very difficult to satisfy!



- *The main motivation was to find observable effects, e.g.. peaks in distributions; indeed, resonances are normally observed as peaks in certain invariant mass distributions. However, is a peak necessarily due to the presence of a resonance? Are there peaks produced by kinematic singularities?*
- *It is well known that scattering amplitudes also possess singularities corresponding to more complicated types of particle exchanges: these are indeed the Landau singularities. A well-know example is that there has been interest for many years in trying to use the triangle singularity to explain certain enhancements in strongly interacting three-particle final states.*



- *(at LHC) SM peaks, when present, are marginal and radiative corrections induced by physical-region ATs are well under control once regularized with the complex mass scheme; nevertheless they should be taken into account in estimating the missing higher order uncertainty.*

When assessing such results, it should be borne in mind that Yukawa suppressed LO processes can be heavily influenced by NLO corrections, i.e. NLO is the first relevant term.



BSM, another story

- Any BSM theory with an heavy neutral Higgs boson (H) and a charged one (H^\pm) satisfying $M_H > 2 M_{H^\pm}$ and $M_{H^\pm} > M_W + M_Z$ will have an AT in the decay $H \rightarrow ll\nu\nu$.
- One could even imagine a situation with a light Higgs boson h and 3 heavy Higgs bosons, $H_{1,2,3}$, where $M_{H_1} > 2 M_{H_2}$, $M_{H_2} > M_{H_3} + M_h$ and $M_{H_3} > 3 M_h$ giving an AT in the pentagon corresponding to $H_1 \rightarrow 6 h$.



Thank you for your attention

9

Backup Slides



of leading behavior

- To extract the leading behavior of a triangle around its leading Landau singularity we introduce

$$C_{\square}(p_1, p_2; m_1, m_2, m_3) = C_0(p_1, p_2; m_1, m_2, m_3) + C_0(p_2, p_1; m_3, m_2, m_1).$$

- If the first C_0 in the r.h.s. is singular then the second is regular and

$$C_0(p_1, p_2; m_1, m_2, m_3) \sim C_{\square}(p_1, p_2; m_1, m_2, m_3).$$

- Given the quadratic forms

$$V_3(x_1, x_2) = x^t H x + 2K^t x + L,$$

$$V^{(1)}(x) = V_3(0, x), \quad V^{(2)}(x) = V_3(x, 0),$$

$$\bar{V}^{(1)}(x) = V_3(1, x), \quad \bar{V}^{(2)}(x) = V_3(x, 1),$$

- consider two-dimensional bubbles

$$B_2^{(i)} = \int_0^1 dx \frac{1}{V^{(i)}(x)}, \quad \bar{B}_2^{(i)} = \int_0^1 dx \frac{1}{\bar{V}^{(i)}(x)}.$$

- We find

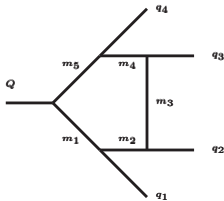
$$C_{\square} \sim -\frac{1}{2} \ln B_3 \sum_{i=1,2} \left[X_i B_2^{(i)} + (1 - X_i) \bar{B}_2^{(i)} \right],$$

for $B_3 \rightarrow 0$.

- The explicit result is

$$\begin{aligned} C_{\square} \sim & -\frac{1}{4} (-G_3)^{-1/2} \ln B_3 \\ & \times \left[\ln \frac{H_{11} + H_{12} + L + 2K_1 + K_2 + (1 - X_1) (-G_3)^{1/2}}{H_{11} + H_{12} + L + 2K_1 + K_2 - (1 - X_1) (-G_3)^{1/2}} \right. \\ & + \ln \frac{H_{22} + H_{12} + L + 2K_2 + K_1 + (1 - X_2) (-G_3)^{1/2}}{H_{22} + H_{12} + L + 2K_2 + K_1 - (1 - X_2) (-G_3)^{1/2}} \\ & \left. + \ln \frac{L + K_2 + X_1 (-G_3)^{1/2}}{L + K_2 - X_1 (-G_3)^{1/2}} + \ln \frac{L + K_1 + X_2 (-G_3)^{1/2}}{L + K_1 - X_2 (-G_3)^{1/2}} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

- For generalized triangles we obtain $C_{\square}(i, j) \sim X_1^i X_2^j C_{\square}$, as expected by the fact that the AT is a pinch singularity.



- Invariants: $Q^2 = -s$, $q_i^2 = -M_i^2$

$$s_1 = -(Q - q_1)^2, \quad s_2 = -(Q - q_1 - q_2)^2, \quad u_1 = -(Q - q_2)^2,$$

$$u_2 = -(Q - q_3)^2, \quad t_2 = -(Q - q_2 - q_3)^2.$$

- Process: $gg \rightarrow g \rightarrow \bar{b}b e^- e^+ \gamma$. q_3 is a neutrino while q_2 is the momentum of a pair, electron-photon. In the limit of zero widths the equation $\Delta_5 = 0$ is quadratic in t_2 , the $\bar{b}b$ (squared) invariant mass.

fixed					solution	
M_2 [GeV]	$\sqrt{s_1}$ [GeV]	$\sqrt{s_2}$ [GeV]	$\sqrt{u_1}$ [GeV]	$\sqrt{u_2}$ [GeV]	$\sqrt{t_2}$ [GeV]	
97.40	260.47	139.17	201.03	275.84	122.53	
"	"	"	203.55	260.91	89.06	
"	"	"	"	265.74	103.56	
"	"	"	"	270.56	117.37	
"	"	"	"	275.39	130.91	
"	"	147.14	213.31	266.39	121.68	
"	"	"	"	271.07	138.30	
"	"	"	215.30	255.98	98.96	
"	"	"	"	260.89	113.19	

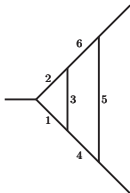


$$\alpha_1 (q_1^2 + m_1^2) = 0, \quad \alpha_2 ((q_1 + P)^2 + m_2^2) = 0, \quad \alpha_3 ((q_1 - q_2)^2 + m_3^2) = 0,$$

$$\alpha_4 (q_2^2 + m_4^2) = 0, \quad \alpha_5 ((q_2 + p_1)^2 + m_5^2) = 0, \quad \alpha_6 ((q_2 + P)^2 + m_6^2) = 0,$$

$$\alpha_1 q_{1\mu} + \alpha_2 (q_1 + P)_\mu + \alpha_3 (q_1 - q_2)_\mu = 0,$$

$$-\alpha_3 (q_1 - q_2)_\mu + \alpha_4 q_{2\mu} + \alpha_5 (q_2 + p_1)_\mu + \alpha_6 (q_2 + P)_\mu = 0,$$



$$[1] = q_1^2 + m_1^2$$

$$[2] = (q_1 + P)^2 + m_2^2$$

$$[3] = (q_1 - q_2)^2 + m_3^2$$

$$[4] = q_2^2 + m_4^2$$

$$[5] = (q_2 + p_1)^2 + m_5^2$$

$$[6] = (q_2 + P)^2 + m_6^2$$

- LLS occurs for $\alpha_i \neq 0, \forall i$. Multiply the two equations by $q_{1\mu}, q_{2\mu}, p_{1\mu}$ and P_μ , respectively. This gives an homogeneous system of eight equations. If all α_i are different from zero we may use

$$\begin{aligned}
 q_1^2 &= -m_1^2 & q_2^2 &= -m_4^2 & q_1 \cdot q_2 &= \frac{1}{2}(m_3^2 - m_1^2 - m_4^2), \\
 q_1 \cdot P &= -\frac{1}{2}(P^2 - m_1^2 + m_2^2), & q_2 \cdot p_1 &= -\frac{1}{2}(p_1^2 - m_4^2 + m_5^2), & q_2 \cdot P &= -\frac{1}{2}(P^2 - m_4^2 + m_6^2).
 \end{aligned}$$

- Compatibility requires a set of relations among $P^2, p_{1,2}^2$ and internal masses.
- Select $m_3 = 0$ (gluon, photon), $m_5 = m_b$ and the remaining masses equal to m_t then a non trivial solution ($\alpha_i \neq 0, \forall i$) occurs iff

$$s = -P^2 = 4 m_t^2, \quad M_1^2 = -p_1^2 = (m_t \pm m_b)^2, \quad M_2^2 = -p_2^2 = (m_t \mp m_b)^2,$$

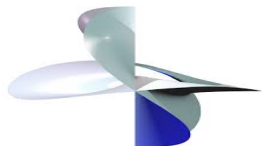
i.e. exactly at the boundary of phase space.

- The solution is $\alpha_{1,3,4,5}$ arbitrary and $\alpha_2 = \alpha_1$, $m_t \alpha_6 = m_t \alpha_4 - m_b \alpha_5$. This solution includes the case $\alpha_3 = 0$.

- If $m_3 = M_Z$ we obtain $s = 4 m_t^2 - M_Z^2$ and

$$2 m_t^2 (M_1^2 + M_2^2)^2 - [8(m_t^2 + m_b^2) m_t^2 - (3 m_t^2 + m_b^2)] (M_1^2 + M_2^2) - M_Z^2 M_1^2 M_2^2 - [(m_t^2 + m_b^2)^2 + 4 m_t^2 (m_t^2 + 2 m_b^2) M_Z^2 + (m_t^2 + m_b^2) M_Z^4 + 8(m_t^2 + m_b^2)^2 m_t^2] = 0.$$

- It is easily seen that the last equation does not have real solutions for $M_{1,2}$ for physical values of M_Z , m_t and m_b .



More on n -tuple points of algebraic surfaces

- Given

$$P_{3,1}(x) = x^3 + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$$

one introduces

$$q = \frac{1}{3} a_1 - \frac{1}{9} a_2^2, \quad r = \frac{1}{6} (a_1 a_2 - 3 a_0) - \frac{1}{27} a_2^3,$$

- The following identities hold

$$P_{3,1} = (y + 2q^{1/2})(y - q^{1/2})^2 - 2(r + q^{3/2}), \quad \text{for } q \geq 0, r < 0,$$

$$P_{3,1} = (y - 2q^{1/2})(y + q^{1/2})^2 - 2(r - q^{3/2}), \quad \text{for } q \geq 0, r \geq 0,$$

$$P_{3,1} = (y + 2|q|^{1/2})(y - |q|^{1/2})^2 - 2(r + |q|^{3/2}), \quad \text{for } q < 0, r < 0,$$

$$P_{3,1} = (y - 2|q|^{1/2})(y + |q|^{1/2})^2 - 2(r - |q|^{3/2}), \quad \text{for } q < 0, r \geq 0,$$

where $y = x + \frac{1}{3} a_2$.

- Generalization to an arbitrary bivariate cubic form

$$P_{3,2}(x_1, x_2) = \sum_{i=0}^3 \sum_{j=0}^{3-i} c_{ij} x_1^i x_2^j,$$

- perform a linear transformation, $x'_i = x_i - X_i$, requiring that the linear terms vanishes, i.e. $c_{01} = c_{10} = 0$. In this case

$$P_{3,2}(x_1, x_2) = P_2^3(x_1 - X_1, x_2 - X_2) + P_2^2(x_1 - X_1, x_2 - X_2) + \Delta$$

- where the point $x_i = X_i$ corresponds to the vanishing of $P_{3,2}$ and of its two first derivatives for $\Delta = 0$. Δ is therefore the natural extension of the Bernstein - Sato factor to cubic polynomials. However, opposite to the quadratic case, here there is no guarantee that the X_i are real. Note that Δ is an algebraic invariant of the singularity.