These formulas become much simpler in the extreme relativistic limit. After integrating over angles, the relative differential probability becomes identical for magnetic and electric transitions, namely

$$d\gamma_{j} = \frac{(2j+1) \alpha^{2}}{2 (2\pi)^{2}}$$

$$\times \left(1 - \frac{m^{2} (\Delta E - k)}{\Delta E \varepsilon_{+} \varepsilon_{-}}\right)^{j} \frac{(\varepsilon_{+}^{2} + \varepsilon_{-}^{2}) k}{(\Delta E - k)^{2} \Delta E^{3}} dk d\varepsilon_{+}.$$

The ratio of the differential probability for internal Compton effect to the probability for ordinary internal pair-conversion is roughly given by

$$d\gamma_i/d\beta_i = (\alpha/2\pi) k dk/(\Delta E - k)^2$$

provided that $\Delta E - K >> m$.

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The Momentum Distribution of Interacting Fermi Particles

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E consider a system composed of a large number of interacting Fermi-particles. It is to be expected that among the excited states of the system there will exist states whose energy can be expressed as a sum of energies of quasi-particles. The energy of a quasi-particle of momentum p is

$$\varepsilon_p = v_0 \left(p - p_0 \right)_{\mathbf{r}}$$

where p_0 is the momentum at the top of the Fermi sea of the quasi-particles, $v_0 = v (p_0)$ is the velocity of a quasi-particle at the Fermi surface, $p > p_0$ for quasi-particles and $p < p_0$ for holes. The momentum p_0 need not coincide with the limiting momentum p_0^0 determined by the density,

$$p_0^0 = (3\pi^2 n)^{1/3}, \qquad (\hbar = 1)$$

It is easy to see that the quasi-particles have an attenuation proportional to $(p - p_0)$.² This means

that for p_0 not close to p_0 an excited state of a system with strong interactions cannot be described in terms of quasi-particles. As $p \rightarrow p_0$ the state becomes describable in terms of quasi-particles even

when the interaction is strong. We shall prove that the momentum distribution of the particles in the ground state has a discontinuity at $p = p_0$, for any kind of interaction. This result refers to the distribution of particles and not of quasi-particles.

The one-particle Green's function is defined by

$$G(\mathbf{r}_1, t_1, \mathbf{r}_2, t_2)$$
(1)

$$= i \langle T e^{iHt_1} \Psi(\mathbf{r}_1) e^{-iH(t_1-t_2)} \Psi^+(\mathbf{r}_2) e^{iHt_2} \rangle.$$

where the expectation value is taken in the ground state of the system $\Psi(\mathbf{r}) = \sum a_{\mathbf{p}} e^{i\mathbf{p}\mathbf{r}}$, and $a_{\mathbf{p}}$ is the annihilation operator for a particle of momentum p. If there is no external field, G is a function only of $r = |\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2|$ and $\tau = t_1 - t_2$. Expressing G as a Fourier series in coordinate space, we find

$$G(r, \tau) = \sum G(p, \tau) e^{i \mathbf{p} \mathbf{r}}; \qquad (2)$$

$$G(p, \tau) = \begin{cases} i e^{iE_{0}\tau} < a_{\rho} e^{-iH\tau} a_{\rho}^{+} >, \quad \tau > 0, \\ -i e^{-iE_{0}\tau} < a_{\rho}^{+} e^{iH\tau} a_{\mathbf{p}} >, \quad \tau < 0. \end{cases}$$

This equation connects the function $G(p, \tau)$ with the momentum distribution of particles in the ground state, which is

$$n(p) = \langle a_{\rho}^{+} a_{\mathbf{p}} \rangle = i G(p, \tau) |_{\tau \to -0}$$

Writing

$$G(p, \tau) = \int G(p, \varepsilon) e^{-i\varepsilon\tau} d\varepsilon / 2\pi$$

we obtain

^{1.} E. G. Melikian, J. Exptl, Theoret, Phys. (U.S.S.R.) 31, 1088 (1956); Soviet Phys. JETP

$$n(p) = i \int G(p, \varepsilon) e^{-i\varepsilon\tau} d\varepsilon / 2\pi,$$

$$\tau \to -0.$$

In the last integral we must not take the limit $\tau = 0$ before integration, since the integral $\int G(p, \epsilon) d\epsilon$ diverges along the real axis. For finite negative τ , we can replace the integral along the real axis by an integral round a closed contour C consisting of the real axis together with a semi-circle at infinity in the upper half-plane. After this we can set $\tau=0$. Thus we have

$$n(p) = i \int_{C} G(p, \epsilon) d\epsilon / 2\pi.$$
 (3)

The Green's function must have poles corresponding to quasi-particles. This follows from the representation of the Green's function in terms of the eigenstates of the whole system, according to the procedure of Lehmann.¹ Therefore, for p close to p_0 ,

$$G(p, \varepsilon) = Z / (\varepsilon_n - \varepsilon - i\gamma(p)) + f(p, \varepsilon)$$

where $f(p, \epsilon)$ is a function regular at $\epsilon = \epsilon_p - i\gamma$, and γ defines the attenuation of a quasi-particle and

changes sign at $p = p_0$ as is required in order to give the correct sign for the attenuation of holes.

The constant Z may be called the renormalization constant of the Green's function. When $p < p_0$, $\gamma < 0$ and G has a pole in the upper half-plane near

to the real axis. When $p > p_0$, $\gamma > 0$ and this pole crosses to the lower half-plane where it is outside the contour C. Therefore,

$$n(p_0-0)-n(p_0+0)=Z,$$
 (4)

and since $0 \le n(p) \le 1$, the renormalization constant satisfies the inequality $|Z| \le 1$.

1 H. Lehman, Nuovo Cimento 11, 342 (1954); reproduced in "Problems of Modern Physics," 3, 1955.

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The µ-decay of K-particles and Hyperons

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pions and K-particles are primary, and that the interactions of μ -mesons with hyperons and nucleons are secondary effects of the weak primary bosonfermion interaction. We here consider some elementary consequences of this hypothesis and discuss possible experimental tests of it.*

We suppose that the decays

$$\pi^{\pm} \rightarrow \mu^{\pm} + \nu$$
 and $K^{\pm} \rightarrow \mu^{\pm} + \nu$, (1)

are primary, and that all other interactions of μ -meson and neutrino with baryons and heavy mesons are results of a chain of interactions of which the process (1) constitutes one link. Such a chain of interactions can describe in particular the μ -decay of hyperons (e. g., $\Lambda^{\circ} \rightarrow p + K^{-} \rightarrow p + \mu^{-} + \nu)$ and the so-called $K_{\mu3}$ -decay of K-particles (e. g., $K^{+} \rightarrow \pi^{\circ} + K^{+} \rightarrow \pi^{\circ} + \mu^{+} + \nu)$. The other links in the chain must be strong interactions. Thus the other links cannot be processes in which strangeness is not conserved, such as $K^{+} \rightarrow \pi^{+} + \pi^{\circ}$, $\Lambda^{\circ} \rightarrow p + \pi^{-}$, etc.

 $\Lambda^{\circ} \rightarrow p + \pi^{-}$, etc. The last remark implies that every μ -decay of particles with strangeness + 1 (the K^{+} and K° -particle and the anti-hyperons $\overline{\Lambda}$ and $\overline{\Sigma}$) must go via the μ -decay of the K^{+} ($K^{+} \rightarrow \mu^{+} + \nu$) while the μ -decay of particles with strangness - 1 (K^{-} and \overline{K}° and the hyperons Λ and Σ must go via the K^{-} decay ($K^{-} \rightarrow \mu^{-} + \nu$). So for the K° -particle, the decay

$$K^0 \to \mu^+ + \nu + \pi^- \tag{2}$$

is allowed, while

$$K^0 \to \mu^- + \nu + \pi^+;$$
 (2')

is forbidden, and for the \overline{K}° , the decay

$$\overline{K^0} \to \mu^- + \mathbf{v} + \pi^+ \tag{3}$$

is allowed while

$$\overline{K}_0 \to \mu^+ + \nu + \pi^-. \tag{3}$$

is forbidden. Also, in order to construct the twostep chain for the $K_{\mu3}$ decay, we must have two

types of K-particle, a scalar θ and a pseudoscalar τ , if the K-particle spin is zero. Otherwise, since the pion is pseudoscalar, parity would not be conserved in the process $K \rightarrow K + \pi$, and this is a strong interaction which must conserve parity. If