Improved determination of heavy quarkonium magnetic dipole transitions in potential nonrelativistic QCD

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Improved determination of Heavy Quarkonium magnetic dipole transitions in pNRQCD

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Abstract

We compute the magnetic dipole transitions between low lying Heavy Quarkonium states in a model independent way. We use the weak-coupling version of the effective field theory named potential NRQCD with the static potential exactly incorporated in the leading order Hamiltonian. The precision we reach is \(k\gamma^3/m^2 \times O(\alpha_s^2, v^2)\) and \(k\gamma^3/m^2 \times O(v^4)\) for the allowed and forbidden transitions respectively, where \(k\gamma\) is the photon energy. We also resum the large logarithms associated to the heavy quark mass scale. The specific transitions considered in this paper are the following: \(\Upsilon(1S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma\), \(J/\psi(1S) \to \eta_c(1S)\gamma\), \(h_b(1P) \to \chi_b0,1(1P)\gamma\), \(\chi_b2(1P) \to h_b(1P)\gamma\), \(\Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(2S)\gamma\), \(\Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma\) and \(\eta_b(2S) \to \Upsilon(1S)\gamma\). The effect of the new power counting is found to be large and the exact treatment of the soft logarithms of the static potential makes the factorization scale dependence much smaller. The convergence for the \(b\bar{b}\) ground state is quite good, and also quite reasonable for the \(c\bar{c}\) ground state and the \(b\bar{b}\) 1P state. For all of them we give solid predictions. For the 2S decays the situation is less conclusive, yet our results are perfectly consistent with existing data, as the previous disagreement with experiment for the \(\Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma\) decay fades away. We also profit to compute some expectation values like the electromagnetic radius, \(\langle r^2 \rangle\), or \(\langle p^2 \rangle\). We find \(\langle r^2 \rangle\) to be nicely convergent in all cases, whereas the convergence of \(\langle p^2 \rangle\) is typically worse.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The heavy quarkonium has always been thought to be the "Hydrogen atom" of QCD. The reason is that the heavy quarks in the bound state move at non-relativistic velocities: \( v \ll 1 \). This allows testing the dynamics associated to the gluonic and light-quark degrees of freedom in a kinematic regime otherwise unreachable with only light degrees of freedom. Effective field theories (EFT’s) directly derived from QCD like NRQCD [1] or pNRQCD [2] (for some reviews see Refs. [3, 4]) disentangle the dynamics of the heavy quarks from the dynamics of the light degrees of freedom efficiently and in a model independent way. They profit from the fact that the dynamics of the bound state system is characterized by, at least, three widely separated scales: hard (the mass \( m \) of the heavy quarks), soft (the relative momentum \( |\vec{p}| \sim mv \ll m \) of the heavy-quark–antiquark pair in the center of mass frame), and ultrasoft (the typical kinetic energy \( E \sim mv^2 \) of the heavy quark in the bound state system).

In this paper we use pNRQCD. This EFT takes full advantage of the hierarchy of scales that appear in the system,

\[
m \gg mv \gg mv^2 \cdots ,
\]

and makes a systematic and natural connection between quantum field theory and the Schrödinger equation. Schematically the EFT takes the form

\[
\left( i\partial_0 - \frac{\vec{p}^2}{m} - V_s^{(0)}(r) \right) \phi(\vec{r}) = 0
\]

+ corrections to the potential

+ interactions with other low-energy degrees of freedom

\[
\text{pNRQCD}
\]

where \( V_s^{(0)}(r) \) is the static potential and \( \phi(\vec{r}) \) is the \( Q\bar{Q} \) wave function.

The specific construction details of pNRQCD are slightly different depending upon the relative size between the soft and the \( \Lambda_{\text{QCD}} \) scale. Two main situations are distinguished, named the weak [2, 5] \( (mv \gg \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}) \) and the strong [6] \( (mv \simeq \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}) \) coupling version of pNRQCD. One major difference between them is that in the former the potential can be computed in perturbation theory unlike in the latter.

It is obvious that the weak-coupling version of pNRQCD is amenable for a theoretically much cleaner analysis. The functional dependence on the parameters of QCD (\( \alpha_s \) and the heavy quark masses) is fully under control and directly derived from QCD. The observables
can be computed in well defined expansion schemes with increasing accuracy, and nonperturbative effects are \( \sim e^{-1/\alpha_s} \), exponentially suppressed compared with the expansion in powers of \( \alpha_s \). Therefore, observables that could be computed with the weak-coupling version of pNRQCD are of the greatest interest. They may produce stringent test of QCD in the weak-coupling regime (but yet with an all-order resummation of powers of \( \alpha_s \) included) and, precision permitting, are ideal places on which to accurately determine some of the parameters of QCD. Nowadays there seems to be a growing consensus that the weak-coupling regime works properly for \( t\bar{t} \) production near threshold, the bottomonium ground state mass, and bottomonium sum rules. In reaching this conclusion is crucial the proper treatment of renormalon effects, which leads to convergent series, and the resummation of large logarithms, which significantly diminish the factorization scale dependence of the observable. Nevertheless, even in those cases, the situation is not optimal. For some observables, even if getting a convergent expansion, the corrections are large, or in the case of the bottomonium ground state hyperfine splitting a two-sigma level tension between experiment (see Ref. [7]) and theory [9, 10] exists.

In order to improve the convergence properties of the theory, the perturbative expansion in pNRQCD was rearranged in Ref. [11]. In this new expansion scheme the static potential was exactly included in the leading order (LO) hamiltonian. The motivation behind this reorganization of the perturbative series is the observation [12] that, when comparing the static potential with lattice perturbation theory, one finds a nicely convergent sequence to the lattice data (at short distances). Yet, for low orders, the agreement is not good and the incorporation of corrections is compulsory to get a good agreement. This effect can be particularly important in observables that are more sensitive to the shape of the potential, and naturally leads to consider a double expansion in powers of \( v \) and \( \alpha_s(m) \), where \( v \) has to do with the expectation value of the kinetic energy (or the static potential) in this new expansion scheme.

In Ref. [11] this new expansion scheme was applied to the computation of the heavy quarkonium inclusive electromagnetic decay ratios. It was observed an improvement of the convergence of the sequence for the top and bottom cases. It was particularly remarkable that the exact incorporation of the static potential allowed to obtain agreement between theory and experiment for the case of the Charmonium ground state. This leads towards the second motivation of the present study. The possible applicability of the weak-coupling
version of pNRQCD to the Charmonium (ground state) and the $n = 2$ excitation of the bottomonium. For those states the situation is more uncertain. Whereas in Refs. [13–15] it is claimed that it is not possible to describe the bottomonium higher excitations in perturbation theory, an opposite stand is taken in Refs. [10, 16–18]. We hope that we may shed some light on this issue as well.

The above discussion basically refers to the determination of the heavy quarkonium mass and inclusive electromagnetic decay widths. Obviously there are more observables that can be considered. Some of those are the radiative transitions: $H(n) \to H(n')\gamma$, where $n, n'$ stands for the principal quantum numbers of the Heavy Quarkonium. In Ref. [19] the allowed ($n = n'$) and hindered ($n \neq n'$) magnetic dipole (M1) transitions between low lying Heavy Quarkonium states were studied with pNRQCD in the strict weak-coupling limit. They also performed a detailed comparison of the EFT and potential model (see Refs. [20, 21] for some reviews) results. The specific transitions considered in that paper were the following: $J/\psi(1S) \to \eta_c(1S)\gamma$, $\Upsilon(1S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma$, $\Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(2S)\gamma$, $\eta_b(2S) \to \Upsilon(1S)\gamma$, $h_b(1P) \to \chi_{b0,1}(1P)\gamma$ and $\chi_{b2}(1P) \to h_b(1P)\gamma$. Large errors were assigned to the pure ground state observables, specially for Charmonium, whereas disagreement with experimental bounds (at that time) was found for the hindered transition $\Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma$.

In this paper we apply the new expansion scheme to those observables. The precision we reach is $k_3\gamma/m^2 \times \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2, v^2)$ and $k_3\gamma/m^2 \times \mathcal{O}(v^4)$ for the allowed and forbidden transitions respectively, where $k_\gamma$ is the photon energy. Large hard logarithms (associated to the heavy quark mass) have also been resummed when appearing. The effect of the new power counting is found to be large and the exact treatment of the soft logarithms of the static potential makes the factorization scale dependence much smaller. The convergence for the $b\bar{b}$ ground state is quite good. This allows to give a solid prediction for the $\Upsilon(1S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma$ transition with small errors. The convergence is also quite reasonable for the $c\bar{c}$ ground state and the $b\bar{b}$ 1P state. For all of them we give solid predictions. For the $J/\psi(1S) \to \eta_c(1S)\gamma$ our central value is significantly different of the one obtained in Ref. [19] though perfectly compatible within errors. For the $2S$ decays the situation is less conclusive. Whereas for the $\Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(2S)\gamma$ decay we do not find convergence, previous disagreement with experiment for the hindered transition $\Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma$ fades away with the new expansion scheme.

The above observables depend on the expectation values of some quantum mechanical operators like, for instance, $\mathbf{p}^2$ or $r^2$ (the electromagnetic radius). The study of them in
an isolated way is interesting on its own. First, they provide us with a very nice check
of the renormalon dominance picture. According to this picture the determination of the
heavy quarkonium mass using the static potential (in the on-shell scheme) should yield a
bad convergent series, as it is actually observed. The reason for this bad behavior is the
existence of an $r$-independent constant that contributes to the potential and deteriorates
the convergence of the perturbative series. If this is so, a check of this picture would be
the computation of observables that are not affected by adding a constant to the potential.
For those good convergence is expected. This is actually the case of $\langle \vec{p}^2 \rangle$ or $\langle \vec{r}^2 \rangle$. We
nicely see in Sec. III that this picture is confirmed. We find the electromagnetic radius
(somewhat surprisingly) to be nicely convergent in all cases. This allows us to talk of the
typical (electromagnetic) radius of the bound state in those cases. The kinetic energy is also
(though typically less than the radius) convergent except for the $2S$ state. Then we can also
define a typical velocity $v \equiv \sqrt{\langle \vec{p}^2 \rangle / m^2}$ for those states.

The paper is distributed as follows. In Sec. II we discuss the theoretical background of
the computation and display the formulas we use for the decays. In Sec. III we analyze
$\langle \vec{p}^2 \rangle$ and $\langle \vec{r}^2 \rangle$, and discuss renormalon dominance. In Sec. IV we compute the radiative
transitions. Finally, in Sec. V we summarize our main results and give our conclusions.

II. THEORETICAL SETUP

For the purposes of this paper we can skip most details of pNRQCD. We will only need
the singlet static potential, $V_s^{(0)}(r) \to V(r)$, and the spin-dependent potential $V_{S^2,s}^{(2)}(r) \to V_{S^2}(r)$\footnote{For simplicity we omit the index ”$s$” for singlet and the upper index ”$(0)$” and ”$(2)$” throughout the paper.}. The static potential will be treated exactly by including it in the leading-order
Hamiltonian

$$H^{(0)} \equiv - \frac{\nabla^2}{2m_r} + V(r), \quad \text{and} \quad H^{(0)} \phi_{nl}(\vec{r}) = E_{nl} \phi_{nl}(\vec{r}), \quad (2)$$

where $m_r = m_1 m_2 / (m_1 + m_2)$ (in this paper $m_1 = m_2 = m$). The static potential will be approximated by a polynomial of order $N + 1$ in powers of $\alpha_s$ ($C_f = (N_c^2 - 1) / (2N_c)$,
\[ C_A = N_c \]

\[ V^{(N)}(r) = -\frac{C_f \alpha_s(\nu)}{r} \left\{ 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \frac{\alpha_s(\nu)}{4\pi} \right)^n a_n(\nu; r) \right\}. \tag{3} \]

In principle we would like to take \( N \) as large as possible (though we also want to explore the dependence on \( N \)). In practice we take the static potential at most up to \( N=3 \), i.e. up to \( \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^4) \) including also the leading ultrasoft corrections. This is the order to which the coefficients \( a_n \) are completely known:

\[
\begin{align*}
  a_1(\nu; r) &= a_1 + 2\beta_0 \ln (\nu e^{\gamma_E} r), \\
  a_2(\nu; r) &= a_2 + \frac{\pi^2}{3} \beta_0^2 + \left( 4a_1\beta_0 + 2\beta_1 \right) \ln (\nu e^{\gamma_E} r) + 4\beta_0^2 \ln^2 (\nu e^{\gamma_E} r), \\
  a_3(\nu; r) &= a_3 + a_1\beta_0^2 \pi^2 + \frac{5\pi^2}{6} \beta_0\beta_1 + 16\zeta_3 \beta_0^3 \\
  &\quad + \left( 2\pi^2 \beta_0^3 + 6a_2\beta_0 + 4a_1\beta_1 + 2\beta_2 + \frac{16}{3} C_A^3 \pi^2 \right) \ln (\nu e^{\gamma_E} r) \\
  &\quad + \left( 12a_1\beta_0^2 + 10\beta_0\beta_1 \right) \ln^2 (\nu e^{\gamma_E} r) + 8\beta_0^3 \ln^3 (\nu e^{\gamma_E} r) \\
  &\quad + \delta a_3^{us}(\nu, \nu_{us}). \tag{4} \end{align*}
\]

The \( \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s) \) term was computed in Ref. [22], the \( \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2) \) in Ref. [23], the \( \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^3) \) logarithmic term in Refs. [24, 25], the light-flavour finite piece in Ref. [26], and the pure gluonic finite piece in Refs. [27, 28]. For the ultrasoft corrections to the static potential we take

\[ \delta a_3^{us}(\nu, \nu_{us}) = \frac{16}{3} C_A^3 \pi^2 \ln \left( \frac{\nu_{us}}{\nu} \right). \tag{5} \]

We will not use the renormalization group improved ultrasoft expression in this paper [29–33], as its numerical impact is small compared with other sources of error.

We will always work with three light (massless) quarks. For the case of the bottomonium ground state we also incorporate the leading effect due to the charm mass:

\[
\delta V^{[2]}(r) = -\frac{4 \alpha_s^{(3)}(\nu)}{3} \left( \frac{\alpha_s^{(3)}(\nu)}{3\pi} \right) \int_1^{\infty} dx \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}{x^2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2x^2} \right) e^{-2m_c r x}, \tag{6} \]

which can be easily read from the analogous QED computation (see, for instance, Ref. [8]). Its effect will be quite tiny. Therefore we have only incorporated Eq. (6) in our final \((N = 3)\) evaluations and not considered any other subdominant effects in the charm mass.

The spin-dependent potential will be treated as a perturbation. It will contribute to the hindered M1 transitions. Nowadays this object is known with next-to-leading-log (NLL)
FIG. 1: Kinematics of the radiative transition $H \to H'\gamma$ in the rest frame of the initial-state quarkonium $H$.

accuracy [34]. Nevertheless, for consistency with our accuracy, we will use its LL expression

$$V_{S^2}(\vec{r}) = \frac{4}{3}\pi C_f D_{S^2,s}(\nu)\delta^{(3)}(\vec{r})$$

where [35] (see also [36] for the derivation in vNRQCD)

$$D_{S^2,s}(\nu) = \alpha_s(\nu)c_F(\nu) - \frac{3}{2\pi C_f}(d_{sv}(\nu) + C_f d_{vv}(\nu))$$

depends on the NRQCD Wilson coefficients. With LL accuracy they read

$$c_F(\nu) = z^{-C_A},$$
$$d_{sv}(\nu) = d_{sv}(m),$$
$$d_{vv}(\nu) = d_{vv}(m) + \frac{C_A}{\beta_0 - 2C_A} \pi \alpha_s(m)(z^{\beta_0-2C_A} - 1),$$

where

$$z = \left[ \frac{\alpha_s(\nu)}{\alpha_s(m)} \right]^{\frac{1}{\beta_0}} \simeq 1 - \frac{1}{2\pi} \alpha_s(\nu) \ln \left( \frac{\nu}{m} \right),$$
$$d_{sv}(m) = C_f \left( C_f - \frac{C_A}{2} \right) \pi \alpha_s(m),$$
$$d_{vv}(m) = - \left( C_f - \frac{C_A}{2} \right) \pi \alpha_s(m).$$
The theoretical study of the M1 transitions in the strict weak-coupling limit of pNRQCD has been carried out in detail in Ref. [19]. A particular relevant result was that non-perturbative effects, associated to the mixing with the octet field, were subleading and beyond present precision. We can use their results in our power counting scheme with minor modifications (note that the dependence on the ultrasoft scale only enters marginally through the static potential). The expressions we use for the decays are the following\(^2\)

\[
\begin{align*}
\Gamma(n^3S_1 \to n^1S_0\gamma) &= \frac{4}{3}\alpha e_Q^2 \frac{k_\gamma^3}{m^2} \left[(1+\kappa)^2 - \frac{5}{3}\frac{\langle p^2\rangle_{n0}}{m^2}\right], \\
\Gamma(n^3S_1 \to n^1S_0\gamma) \neq n' &= \frac{4}{3}\alpha e_Q^2 \frac{k_\gamma^3}{m^2} \left[-\frac{k_\gamma^2}{24} n'(\vec{r}^2)_{n0} - \frac{5}{6}\frac{p^2_{0,0}(p^2)_{n0}}{m^2} + \frac{2}{m^2} \frac{n'_0(V_{S2}(\vec{r}))_{n0}}{E_{n0} - E_{n'0}}\right]^2,
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\Gamma(n^1S_0 \to n^3S_1\gamma) \neq n' &= \frac{4\alpha e_Q^2}{3} \frac{k_\gamma^3}{m^2} \left[-\frac{k_\gamma^2}{24} n'(\vec{r}^2)_{n0} - \frac{5}{6}\frac{p^2_{0,0}(p^2)_{n0}}{m^2} - \frac{2}{m^2} \frac{n'_0(V_{S2}(\vec{r}))_{n0}}{E_{n0} - E_{n'0}}\right]^2,
\]

\[
\Gamma(n^3P_J \to n^1P_1\gamma) = \frac{3\Gamma(n^1P_1 \to n^3P_J\gamma)}{2J+1} = \frac{4}{3}\alpha e_Q^2 \frac{k_\gamma^3}{m^2} \left[(1+\kappa)^2 - d_J\frac{\langle p^2\rangle_{n1}}{m^2}\right],
\]

where in Eq. (14) \(d_0 = 1, d_1 = 2, d_2 = 8/5,\)

\[
k_\gamma = |\vec{k}| = \frac{M_H^2 - M_{H'}^2}{2M_H},
\]

and the anomalous magnetic moment of the heavy quark, which is renormalization group invariant, reads

\[
\kappa = \kappa^{(1)}\alpha_s(m) + \kappa^{(2)}\alpha_s^2(m) + \cdots
\]

\[
\kappa^{(1)} = \left(\frac{C_f}{2\pi}\right)
\]

\[
\kappa^{(2)} = \frac{C_f}{\pi^2} \left[-\frac{31}{16} + \frac{5\pi^2}{12} - \frac{\pi^2 \ln 2}{2} + \frac{3\zeta_3}{4}\right] C_f
\]

\[
+ \left(\frac{317}{144} - \frac{\pi^2}{8} + \frac{\pi^2 \ln 2}{4} - \frac{3\zeta_3}{8}\right) C_A + \left(-\frac{25n_f}{36} + \frac{119}{36} - \frac{\pi^2}{3}\right) T_F.
\]

We take \(\kappa\) from Ref. [37] (it was originally computed in Refs. [38, 39], thought the first reference suffered from a factor 4 misprint).

Eqs. (11,12,13,14) follow from the expressions obtained in Ref. [19] except for the following changes: (i) The matrix elements of \(\vec{r}^2, \vec{p}^2\) and \(V_{S2}\) are computed using the exact solution of Eq. (2) with the static potential approximated to the power \(N\) instead of using

\(\) \(^2\) In the following we use the notation \(\langle nS|\vec{p}^2|nS \rangle = \langle p^2 \rangle_{n0}, \langle nP|\vec{p}^2|nP \rangle = \langle p^2 \rangle_{n1}, \langle n'S|\vec{p}^2|nS \rangle = n'_0\langle p^2 \rangle_{n0}\) and so on.
the Coulomb potential; (ii) we use the heavy quark anomalous dimension \( \kappa \) to \( \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2) \); (iii) and our expression for \( V_{S_2} \), Eq. (7), incorporates the LL resummation of logarithms (this will actually be important for the \( 2S \rightarrow 1S \) decays). Overall our expressions are accurate with \( k_3^3/m^2 \times \mathcal{O}(v^2, \alpha_s^2) \) and \( k_3^3/m^2 \times \mathcal{O}(v^4) \) precision for the allowed and hindered transitions respectively, and also include the resummation of large (hard) logarithms.

Eqs. (11,12,13,14) have been obtained in the on-shell scheme. Therefore they depend on the pole mass, \( m \), and the static potential, \( V \), both of which suffer from severe renormalon ambiguities. On the other hand, the decays themselves are renormalon free, as they are observables. Therefore, it is convenient to make the renormalon cancellation explicit. One first makes the substitution

\[
(m, V(r)) = (m_X + \delta m_X, V_X(r) - 2 \delta m_X),
\]

where

\[
\delta m_X^{(N)}(\nu_f) = \nu_f \sum_{n=0}^{N} \delta m_X^{(n)}(\nu_f) \alpha_s^{n+1}(\nu)
\]

represents a residual mass that encodes the pole mass renormalon contribution and \( X \) stands for the specific renormalon subtraction scheme. Matrix elements are renormalon free but not the heavy quark mass. Its renormalon ambiguity cancels with the one coming from the anomalous magnetic moment of the heavy quark. The renormalon structure of the chromomagnetic moment of the heavy quark has been studied in detail in Ref. [40]. If one does the abelian-like limit one can get the renormalon structure of the anomalous magnetic moment of the heavy quark. One sees that it suffers from the very same renormalon than the heavy quark mass. Therefore the quantity \( (1 + \kappa)/m \) is free of the renormalon ambiguity (or at least of the leading one). When rewriting the decay expressions from the on-shell scheme to the \( X \) scheme the change is absorbed in \( \kappa \) so \( \kappa \rightarrow \kappa_X \) where

\[
\kappa_X = \kappa_X^{(1)} \alpha_s(m) + \kappa_X^{(2)} \alpha_s^2(m) + \cdots
\]

with

\[
\kappa_X^{(1)} = \kappa^{(1)} - \frac{\nu_f}{m} \delta m_X^{(0)}(\nu_f) \left( \frac{\nu_f}{m} \right)
\]

\[
\kappa_X^{(2)} = \kappa^{(2)} - \frac{\nu_f}{m} \delta m_X^{(1)}(\nu_f) \left( \frac{\nu_f}{m} \right) - \kappa^{(0)} \frac{\nu_f}{m} \delta m_X^{(0)}(\nu_f) + \left( \frac{\nu_f}{m} \delta m_X^{(0)}(\nu_f) \right)^2.
\]

\(^3\) Note that \( \delta m_X \) and \( m \) (or \( V \)) have to be expanded to the same power in \( \alpha_s \) and at the same scale.
Overall in Eqs. (11,12,13,14) we have to make the replacement \((m,V,\kappa) \rightarrow (m_X,V_X,\kappa_X)\) throughout. Note that once written in terms of renormalon free quantities one may consider different \(N, N'\) for \(V^{(N)}_X, m^{(N')}_X\), ..., and the observable would still be renormalon free.

III. APPLICABILITY OF WEAK-COUPLING TO HEAVY QUARKONIUM

The allowed M1 radiative transitions depend on \(\langle p^2 \rangle_{nl}\) and, at higher orders, on other expectation values such as \(\langle r^2 \rangle_{nl}\). To study them gives us a hint of the applicability of the weak-coupling version of pNRQCD to those states, and a very nice check of the renormalon dominance picture. In this section we compute the bound state energy \((E_{nl})\), \(\langle p^2 \rangle_{nl}\) and \(\langle r^2 \rangle_{nl}\) for the charmonium ground state and for \(n = 1, 2\) bottomonium states. In the cases where we have good convergence we will be able to obtain well defined values for \(v_{nl} \equiv \sqrt{\langle p^2 \rangle_{nl}/m^2}\) and \(\langle r^2 \rangle_{nl}\).

Our reference values for the charm and bottom masses are \(m_b(m_b) = 4.19\) [41] and \(m_c(m_c) = 1.25\) [42], which we then transform to renormalon subtracted schemes like the RS, RS’ [43] or PS [44]. We will mainly use the RS’ scheme and leave the RS and PS scheme for partial checking (in particular that the dependence on the renormalon subtraction scheme is small). Therefore, we use \((\delta m_{RS'}^{(0)} = 0\) and \(d_n(\nu, \nu_f) = \beta_n/2^{1+2n} \ln \left(\frac{\nu}{\nu_f}\right)\)

\[
\delta m_{RS'}^{(1)}(\nu_f) = N_m \frac{\beta_0}{2\pi} S(1, b),
\]

\[
\delta m_{RS'}^{(2)}(\nu_f) = N_m \left(\frac{\beta_0}{2\pi}\right) \left[ S(1, b) \frac{2d_0(\nu, \nu_f)}{\pi} + \left(\frac{\beta_0}{2\pi}\right) S(2, b) \right],
\]

\[
\delta m_{RS'}^{(3)}(\nu_f) = N_m \left(\frac{\beta_0}{2\pi}\right) \times
\]

\[
\times \left[ S(1, b) \frac{3d_0^2(\nu, \nu_f) + 2d_1(\nu, \nu_f)}{\pi^2} + \left(\frac{\beta_0}{2\pi}\right) S(2, b) \frac{3d_0(\nu, \nu_f)}{\pi} + \left(\frac{\beta_0}{2\pi}\right)^2 S(3, b) \right].
\]

where

\[
S(n, b) = \sum_{k=0}^{2} c_k \frac{\Gamma(n + 1 + b - k)}{\Gamma(1 + b - k)}
\]

with \(c_0 = 1\) and

\[
b = \frac{\beta_1}{2\beta_0^2}, \quad c_1 = \frac{1}{4b\beta_0^3} \left(\frac{\beta_1^2}{\beta_0^4} - \beta_2\right)
\]
and
\[ c_2 = \frac{1}{b(b-1)} \left( \beta_1^4 + 4\beta_3^3 \beta_1 \beta_2 - 2\beta_0 \beta_1^2 \beta_2 + \frac{\beta_0^2(-2\beta_1^3 + \beta_2^2)}{32\beta_0^2} - 2\beta_0 \beta_3 \right). \] (27)

For ease of reference, we give some typical values that we will use in this paper:
\[ m_{b,RS'}(0.7 \text{ GeV}) = 4902 \text{ MeV}, \quad m_{b,RS'}(1 \text{ GeV}) = 4859 \text{ MeV}, \quad m_{c,RS'}(0.7 \text{ GeV}) = 1648 \text{ MeV}, \quad m_{c,RS'}(1 \text{ GeV}) = 1536 \text{ MeV}. \]

Our reference value for \( N \) will be \( N_m = 0.574974 \) (for three light flavours) from Ref. [43]. To this number we will typically assign a 10% uncertainty. Our reference value for \( \alpha_s \) will be \( \alpha_s(\mu = 1 \text{ GeV}) = 0.479778 \), which we obtain running down \( \alpha_s(\mu = M_Z) = 0.118 \). We then run with four loop accuracy for the typical scales of the bound state system. Unless stated otherwise, throughout the paper we will set \( \nu_{us} = \nu_f \).

The static potential we will consider in the following will be (in the RS’ scheme)
\[
V_{RS'}^{(N)}(r) = \begin{cases} 
(V^{(N)} + 2\delta m_{RS'}^{(N)})|_{\nu=\nu} \equiv \sum_{n=0}^{N} V_{RS',n} \alpha_n^{s+1}(\nu) & \text{if } r > \nu_r^{-1} \\
(V^{(N)} + 2\delta m_{RS'}^{(N)})|_{\nu=1/r} \equiv \sum_{n=0}^{N} V_{RS',n} \alpha_n^{s+1}(1/r) & \text{if } r < \nu_r^{-1}.
\end{cases}
\] (28)

This expression encodes all the possible limits:

(a). The case \( \nu_r = \infty, \nu_f = 0 \) is nothing but the on-shell static potential at fixed order, i.e. Eq. (3). Note that the \( N = 0 \) case reduces to a standard computation with a Coulomb potential, for which we can compare with analytic results for the matrix elements. We will use this fact to check our numerical solutions of the Schroedinger equation. If we also switch off the hard logs and the \( \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2) \) correction to the anomalous magnetic moment, our computation would be equal to the one performed in Ref. [19]. We will use this fact to compare with their results throughout the paper.

(b). The case \( \nu_r = \infty \) (with finite non-zero \( \nu_f \)) is nothing but adding an \( r \)-independent constant to the static potential (see the discussion in Ref. [12]). Therefore, the result for \( \langle p^2 \rangle_{nl} \) and \( \langle r^2 \rangle_{nl} \) do not depend on the specific value of \( \nu_f \) (for a fixed heavy quark mass). In particular the value \( \nu_f = 0 \) can be taken, which is equivalent to not considering any renormalon subtraction at all. On the other hand, the binding energy \( E_{nl} \) is renormalon dependent. This effect can be seen in full glory in Fig. 2, where we plot \( M_{10} = 2m_{b,RS'}(0.7 \text{ GeV}) + E_{10} \) and \( \langle r^2 \rangle_{10} \) for the case of the bottomonium using the static potential \( V_{RS'}^{(N)} \) at different orders in perturbation theory: \( N = 0, 1, 2, 3 \). We clearly observe how for the \( \nu_r = \infty, \nu_f = 0 \) case, the bound state energy is not convergent (see dashed lines), whereas \( \langle r^2 \rangle_{10} \) is (see solid lines). On the other hand for the \( \nu_r = \infty, \nu_f = 0.7 \text{ GeV} \)
FIG. 2: Plot of $M_{10} = 2m_{b,RS'}(0.7 \text{ GeV}) + E_{10}$ and $\sqrt{\langle r^2 \rangle_{10}}$ of the bottomonium ground state using the static potential $V_{RS'}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$. The dashed lines have been computed with $\nu_f = 0$. The continuous lines have been computed with $\nu_f = 0.7 \text{ GeV}$. In both cases $\nu_r = \infty \text{ GeV}$.

In both cases the bound state energy and $\langle r^2 \rangle_{10}$ show a nice convergent pattern as we increase $N$.
(see solid lines). Note that \( \langle r^2 \rangle_{10} \) is exactly the same in both cases: \( \nu_f = 0 \) or \( \nu_f = 0.7 \) (this is the reason only solid lines show up in Fig. 2.b). The same analysis can be done for \( \langle p^2 \rangle_{10} \), as one can see in Fig. 3 for the dashed lines (note though that \( \langle p^2 \rangle_{10} \) is less convergent than \( \langle r^2 \rangle_{10} \)).

A rather similar picture is observed for the Charmonium ground state, though the sequences, as expected, are less convergent. Again it is compulsory to incorporate the renormalon cancellation (finite \( \nu_f \)) to transform the bound state energy in a convergent sequence in \( N \), whereas \( \langle r^2 \rangle \) and \( \langle p^2 \rangle \) are always convergent (see the dashed lines of Fig. 4). Everything in fully accordance with the renormalon dominance picture.

For the \( n = 2 \) bottomonium states the situation is less conclusive. For both the \( P \)- and \( S \)-wave \( \langle r^2 \rangle \) is convergent, see the dashed lines of Figs. 5.a and 6.a respectively. On the other hand \( \langle p^2 \rangle \) is only marginally convergent for \( P \)-wave (see the dashed lines of Fig. 5.b), or even no convergent for the \( S \) wave (see the dashed lines of Fig. 6.b), as each order is typically of the same size.

(c). We now take \( \nu_r = \text{finite} \) (and, for consistency, \( \nu_r \geq \nu_f \)). We expect this case to improve over the previous results, as it incorporates the correct (logarithmically modulated) short distance behavior of the potential. Yet this has to be done with care in order not to spoil the renormalon cancellation. For this it is compulsory from now on to keep a finite, non-vanishing, \( \nu_f \), otherwise the renormalon cancellation is not achieved order by order in \( N \), as it was discussed in detail in Ref. [12]. We have explored the effect of different values of \( \nu_f \) in our analysis. Large values of \( \nu_f \) imply a large infrared cutoff. This makes our scheme to become closer to a \( \overline{\text{MS}} \)-like scheme. Such schemes still achieve renormalon cancellation, yet they jeopardize the power counting, as the residual mass does not count as \( m \nu^2 \). This has the price of making the consecutive terms of the perturbative series bigger. Therefore, we prefer values of \( \nu_f \) as low as possible, with the constraint that one should still obtain the renormalon cancellation, and that it is still possible to perform the expansion in powers of \( \alpha_s \). In our analysis we observe that we can use a rather low value of \( \nu_f \) and yet obtain the renormalon cancellation. By also taking a low value of \( \nu_r \) we find that the convergence is accelerated and the scale dependence is significantly reduced. We illustrate this behavior in Figs. 3, 4, 5, and 6, where we can compare the case with \( \nu_r = \text{finite} \) (continuous lines) and \( \nu_r = \infty \) (dashed lines). This improvement is observed in all cases except for the 2S bottomonium \( \langle p^2 \rangle_{20} \). Specially relevant for us is that it accelerates the convergence of \( \langle p^2 \rangle_{10} \).
FIG. 3: Plot of $\sqrt{\langle r^2 \rangle_{10}}$ and $v_{10}^2$ for the case of the bottomonium ground state using the static potential $V_{RS}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$. The dashed lines have been computed with $\nu_r = \infty$. The continuous lines have been computed with $\nu_r = 0.7$ GeV. In both cases $\nu_f = 0.7$ GeV.

for charmonium, and transforms $\langle p^2 \rangle_{21}$ into a convergent series.
Leaving aside the 2S bottomonium state, it is particularly appealing to compare the $N = 0$ case for $\nu_r = \text{finite}$ and $\nu_r = \infty$. The latter corresponds to the Coulomb approximation and it is the one used in the strict weak-coupling analysis performed for the radiative transitions in Ref. [19]. One can see a very strong scale dependence, almost a vertical line compared with the $\nu_r = 0.7$ GeV case (see for instance Fig. 3). Therefore, small variations of the scale produce very large changes in the theoretical prediction. This makes difficult to assign central values (and errors). This is not so after resumming the soft logarithms by setting $\nu_r \neq 0$. This produces flatter plots. Note also that, typically, there is an scale where $\nu_r = \infty$ and $\nu_r = 0.7$ lines crosses. One can then take this scale as a way to fix the scale $\nu$ of the computation with $\nu_r = \infty$ (which correspond to the strict weak-coupling expansion).

Overall, we find the electromagnetic radius (somewhat surprisingly) to be nicely convergent in all cases. This allows us to talk of the typical (electromagnetic) radius of these bound states. The kinetic energy is also (though typically less than the radius) convergent except for the 2S state. Then we can also define a $v^2_{nl} \equiv \langle p^2 \rangle_{nl}/m^2$ for those states. We show these numbers in Tab. I. These numbers can be taken as estimates of the typical radius of the bound state system and of the typical velocity of the heavy quarks inside the bound state. It is conforting that the numbers we obtain for $v^2$ are similar to those usually assigned either by potential models or by NRQCD (see for instance [45, 46]). The specific values in the table have taken from the $N = 3$ case at $\nu = 1.5$ GeV (and $\nu_f = \nu_r = 0.7$ GeV). For the $b\bar{b}$ ground state the result is very stable under scale variations, for the charm ground state and for the bottomonium P-wave the scale dependence is bigger. We stress that the numbers in the table should be taken as estimates. We do not attempt here to perform an specific error analysis of those numbers, as it is not needed for the decays. Let us just mention that one source of the error would come from the $1/m$ subleading potentials. In principle these effects would produce $O(v^2)$ corrections. For bottomonium and charmonium this would typically mean a $\sim 7\%$ and $\sim 20\%$ variations of the central values, respectively. Specially for bottomonium such uncertainties would compite with the difference between different $N$ evaluations or, in some cases, with the scale variation. Finally we remark that for the 2S bottomonium state the numbers in the table should be taken with more caution as there is no convergence in the sequence in $N$. One could actually be surprised by the fact that the $(n, l) = (2, 1)$ and the $(n, 0) = (2, 0)$ states show this different behavior as far as convergence is concerned, since the typical transfer momentum is the same. One should
FIG. 4: Plot of $\sqrt{\langle r^2 \rangle_{10}}$ and $v_{10}^2$ for the case of the charmonium using the static potential $V_{RS'}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$. The dashed lines have been computed with $\nu_r = \infty$. The continuous lines have been computed with $\nu_r = 0.7$ GeV. In both cases $\nu_f = 0.7$ GeV.
FIG. 5: Plot of $\sqrt{\langle r^2 \rangle_{21}}$ and $v_{21}^2$ for the case of the $n = 2$ $P$-wave bottomonium using the static potential $V^{(N)}_{RS'}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$. The dashed lines have been computed with $\nu_r = \infty$. The continuous lines have been computed with $\nu_r = 0.7$ GeV. In both cases $\nu_f = 0.7$ GeV.
FIG. 6: Plot of $\sqrt{\langle r^2 \rangle_{20}}$ and $v_{20}^2$ for the case of the $n = 2$ S-wave bottomonium using the static potential $V_{RS'}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$. The dashed lines have been computed with $\nu_r = \infty$. The continuous lines have been computed with $\nu_r = 0.7$ GeV. In both cases $\nu_f = 0.7$ GeV.
note though that the \((n, 0) = (2, 0)\) state has two nodes, and the most important one is a very low momentum. On the other hand this problem only appears for \(\langle p^2 \rangle\) but not for \(\langle r^2 \rangle\), so we find the situation inconclusive.

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
 & b\bar{b}(1S) & c\bar{c}(1S) & b\bar{b}(1P) & b\bar{b}(2S) \\
\hline
 v & 0.26 & 0.43 & 0.25 & 0.24 \\
\hline
 \sqrt{\langle r^2 \rangle} \text{(GeV}^{-1}) & 1.2 & 2.2 & 2.1 & 2.9 \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

**TABLE I:** Estimates for \(v \equiv \sqrt{\langle p^2 \rangle/m^2}\) and \(\sqrt{\langle r^2 \rangle}\) for the Heavy Quarkonium states. For the \(b\bar{b}(2S)\) state the number we give for \(v\) is quite uncertain.

The results of this and the following section have been obtained solving the Schroedinger equation numerically. We have performed a series of tests of the numerical solutions. As we have already mentioned, the case \(N = 0\) with \(\nu_r = \infty\) corresponds to the Coulomb case. We have checked the numerical solution against the known analytical result in this case. For a general \(N\) and \(\nu_r\) we have also computed \(\langle p^2 \rangle\) either directly (in momentum space) or through the equality \(\langle (E - V(r)) \rangle = \langle p^2/m \rangle\). Finally, we have also checked the wave-function at the origin, either by direct computation (taking the smallest point at which the wave function has been computed and checking for stability) or through the equality \(|\phi_{nl}(0)|^2 = m/(4\pi)\langle V'(r)\rangle_{nl}\) (see Ref. [45]).

**IV. M1 TRANSITIONS**

In this section we compute the M1 radiative transitions for the low lying bottomonium and charmonium states.

**A. \(\Upsilon(1S) \rightarrow \eta_b(1S)\gamma\)**

Our central value for \(\Gamma_{\Upsilon(1S) \rightarrow \eta_b(1S)\gamma}\) is obtained using Eq. (11) with \(N = 3\), \(\nu = 1.5\) GeV, and \(\nu_f = \nu_r = 0.7\) GeV. For \(k_\gamma\) we take the values of the \(\Upsilon(1S)\) and \(\eta_b(1S)\) masses from the PDG [7]4. In table II we show the size of the different contributions to \(\Gamma_{\Upsilon(1S) \rightarrow \eta_b(1S)\gamma}\).

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4 We note though that there is a recent determination of the \(\eta_b(1S)\) mass which is around 10 MeV lower [47] than the PDG value. If such value is confirmed our numbers should be reescaled accordingly (as they
$\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s)$ and $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ corrections are evaluated at the mass scale. The $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s(m))$ corrections in the RS' and on-shell scheme are equal. Renormalon effects first appear at $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2(m))$ and make this expansion more convergent. Yet, as we have taken an small value of $\nu_f$, the $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2(m))$ term is still large. There are not $\mathcal{O}(v)$ corrections. The $\mathcal{O}(v^2)$ correction can be evaluated at different orders in $N$, and for different values of the factorization scale. One can easily deduce its size by multiplying Fig. 3.b by $-5/3$ times the LO result. The value quoted in Table II for the $\mathcal{O}(v^2)$ correction has been obtained for $N = 3$ and $\nu = 1.5$ GeV. An almost identical value is obtained if one takes $\nu$ to be the scale of minimal sensitivity. Actually, one also obtains a quite similar value if one takes the scale of minimal sensitivity of the $N = 3$, $\nu_r = \infty$ computation. The great advantage of using $\nu_r = 0.7$ GeV versus $\nu_r = \infty$ is that the $\nu$ dependence becomes very mild, so it is not a source of uncertainty and one can give sensible predictions for the central values. We note that, depending on the order $N$, minimal sensitivity scales may not show up, as we can see in Fig. 3 for other values of $N$ and/or $\nu_r$. Therefore in some cases such prescription may not give a meaningful result and the series still be convergent.

| $\delta \Gamma$ (eV) | LO | $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s)$ | $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ | $\mathcal{O}(v^2)$ | $\alpha_s \times \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ | $v \times \mathcal{O}(v^2)$ |
|---------------------|----|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|------------------|
| 14.87               | 1.29 | 0.73                   | -1.71                   | 0.15             | -0.45                         |

TABLE II: The leading and subleading contributions to $\Gamma_{\Upsilon(1S)\to \eta_b(1S)\gamma}$. The last two numbers are error estimates obtained multiplying the subleading $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ contribution by $\alpha_s$ and the subleading $\mathcal{O}(v^2)$ contribution by $v$.

If we sum all the contributions of Table II we obtain 15.18 eV, which is quite close to the LO 14.87 eV value. This is due to the strong cancellation between the $\alpha_s$ and $v$ corrections. The main source of uncertainty comes from higher order terms. Due to the strong cancellation between the $\alpha_s$ and $v$ terms, we feel that to add a power of $v$ to the overall correction would underestimate the error. Instead, we take the $v \times \mathcal{O}(v^2)$ contribution in Tab. II as our estimate of the subleading correction, as it is the biggest possible contribution. Such term alone produces an error of order 3%. This error is much bigger than the error one would obtain only considering scale variations (see Fig. 7), or if we do the evaluation with

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enter to the third power the effect is important), which can be trivially done.
N = 2 instead of N = 3 (see again Fig. 7), or than the error associated to variations of νf. All these errors are associated to higher order effects. We do not include those in order to avoid double counting. The only other source of theoretical error that we include is the one due to Nm (for the evaluation of this error we also take into account the correlation with the bottom mass value). Beside the theoretical error we also include the error associated to the QCD parameters, even though its size is typically smaller than the theoretical error. For αs we take the variation αs(Mz) = 0.118 ± 0.001 [7]. For the variation of the MS bottom mass we take mb(mb) = 4.19 ± 0.03 GeV. In summary, we obtain the following result for the different error contributions:

\[ \Gamma_{\Upsilon(1S) \rightarrow \eta_c(1S)\gamma} = 15.18 \pm 0.45 (O(\alpha_s^3))^{-0.12} (N_m)^{-0.04} (\alpha_s)^{-0.20} (m_{\text{MS}}) \text{ eV}, \]  

which after combining the errors in quadrature reads

\[ \Gamma_{\Upsilon(1S) \rightarrow \eta_c(1S)\gamma} = 15.18(51) \text{ eV}. \]  

This corresponds to a branching fraction of \(2.9 \times 10^{-4}\). Eq. (30) is bigger than result obtained in Ref. [19] \((k_\gamma/39)^3 \times 2.5 \text{ keV, see Ref. [48]}\) but compatible within errors.

B. \( J/\psi(1S) \rightarrow \eta_c(1S)\gamma \)

Our central value for \( \Gamma_{J/\psi(1S) \rightarrow \eta_c(1S)\gamma} \) is obtained using Eq. (11) with \( N = 3, \nu = 1.5 \text{ GeV}, \) and \( \nu_f = \nu_r = 0.7 \text{ GeV} \). For \( k_\gamma \) we take the values of the \( J/\psi(1S) \) and \( \eta_c(1S) \) masses from the PDG [7]. In table III, we show the size of the different contributions to \( \Gamma_{J/\psi(1S) \rightarrow \eta_c(1S)\gamma} \). The \( O(\alpha_s) \) and \( O(\alpha_s^2) \) corrections are evaluated at the mass scale. The \( O(\alpha_s(m)) \) corrections in the RS’ and on-shell scheme are equal. Renormalon effects first appear at \( O(\alpha_s^2(m)) \) and make this expansion more convergent. Yet, as we have taken an small value of \( \nu_f \), the \( O(\alpha_s^2(m)) \) term is still large. There are not \( O(\nu) \) corrections. The \( O(\nu^2) \) correction can be evaluated at different orders in \( N \), and for different values of the factorization scale. One can easily deduce its size by multiplying Fig. 4.b by -5/3 times the LO result. The value quoted in Table III for the \( O(\nu^2) \) correction has been obtained for \( N = 3 \) and \( \nu = 1.5 \text{ GeV} \). Unlike in Sec. IV A in this case there are not scales of minimal sensitivity. The use of a finite \( \nu_r \) significantly diminishes the factorization scale dependence of the result. Yet we also observe that a large scale dependence remains for small scales. Therefore, the value we take.
FIG. 7: Plot of $\Gamma_{\Upsilon(1S) \rightarrow \eta_b(1S)\gamma}$ for the case of the bottomonium ground state using the static potential $V_{RS}'^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$ with $\nu_r = \nu_f = 0.7$ GeV. The horizontal line is our central value and the yellow band our final error estimate.

and quoted in Table III for the $\mathcal{O}(v^2)$ correction corresponds to $N = 3$ and $\nu = 1.5$ GeV, as we feel that smaller values of $\nu$ may yield unrealistic results.

| $\delta\Gamma$ (keV) | LO $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s)$ | $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ | $\mathcal{O}(v^2)$ | $\alpha_s \times \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ | $v \times \mathcal{O}(v^2)$ |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 2.34                | 0.33                        | 0.16                        | -0.71              | 0.05                                   | -0.30                       |

TABLE III: The leading and subleading contributions to $\Gamma_{J/\psi(1S) \rightarrow \eta_c(1S)\gamma}$. The last two numbers are error estimates obtained multiplying the subleading $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ contribution by $\alpha_s$ and the subleading $\mathcal{O}(v^2)$ contribution by $v$.

If we sum all the contributions of Table III we obtain 2.12 keV, which is quite close to the LO 2.34 keV value. This is due to the strong cancellation between the $\alpha_s$ and $v$ corrections. The main source of uncertainty comes from higher order terms. Due to the strong cancellation between the $\alpha_s$ and $v$ terms, we feel that to add a power of $v$ to the overall correction would underestimate the error. Instead, we take the $v \times \mathcal{O}(v^2)$ contribution in
FIG. 8: Plot of $\Gamma_{J/\psi(1S)\rightarrow\eta_c(1S)\gamma}$ using the static potential $V_{RS}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$ with $\nu_r = \nu_f = 0.7$ GeV. The horizontal line is our central value and the yellow band our final error estimate.

Table III as our estimate of the subleading correction, as it is the biggest possible individual term. This term alone produces an error of order 15%. This error is much bigger than the error one would obtain only considering scale variations (see Fig. 8), or if we do the evaluation with $N = 2$ instead of $N = 3$ ((see again Fig. 8). It is also bigger than the error associated to variations of $\nu_f$. All these errors are associated to higher order effects. We do not include those in order to avoid double counting. The only other source of theoretical error that we include is the one due to $N_m$ (for the evaluation of this error we also take into account the correlation with the charm mass value). Beside the theoretical error we also include the error associated to the QCD parameters, even though its size is typically smaller than the theoretical error. For $\alpha_s$ we take the variation $\alpha_s(M_z) = 0.118 \pm 0.001$ [7]. For the variation of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ charm mass we take $m_c(m_c) = 1.25 \pm 0.04$ GeV (see for instance [42]).

In summary, we obtain the following result for the different error contributions:

$$\Gamma_{J/\psi(1S)\rightarrow\eta_c(1S)\gamma} = 2.12 \pm 0.30(\mathcal{O}(\nu^3))_{-0.23}^{+0.21}(N_m)_{-0.02}^{+0.09}(\alpha_s)_{+0.11}^{-0.02}(m_{\overline{\text{MS}}}) \text{ keV} ,$$

(31)
which after combining the errors in quadrature reads

\[
\Gamma_{J/\psi \rightarrow \eta_c(1S)\gamma} = 2.12(40) \text{ keV}.
\]  

(32)

This corresponds to a branching fraction of \(2.28 \times 10^{-2}\).

We can now compare with previous determinations of this decay. As in Ref. [49], we summarize the comparison in Fig. 9. Unlike in this reference we do not include the values obtained in Refs. [20, 21] assigned to potential models. They correspond to the LO computation in our notation (see Table III). The difference with our value is (mainly) due to the different value of the charm mass. Note that in our case the charm mass is not a free parameter but fixed by the value of the \(\overline{\text{MS}}\) mass. We could still vary the RS' mass by changing \(\nu_f\), but this effect would be compensated by the \(\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s, \nu)\) effects. We now compare with the EFT computation of Ref. [19]. It is equivalent to ours setting \(N = 0, \nu_r = \infty\), and eliminating the \(\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)\) corrections. When we do so we can get agreement with their number if we, as they do, set a very low value for the factorization scale (there are minor differences coming from the values of the heavy quark masses used). We see a very strong scale dependence in this regime. In this paper we restrict to values of \(\nu\) where we get stable results after the resummation of the soft logarithms. This produces much bigger numbers, which however get reduced by increasing \(N\). Either way, it should be emphasized that both
results are perfectly compatible within errors. We also refer to Fig. 9 for comparison with the existing experimental numbers [50–52], and other theoretical predictions using either dispersion relations/sum rules [53–55] or lattice simulations [49, 56]. Our result is basically compatible with all of them within errors. We can discriminate very low values of the decay and start to have tensions with the Crystall Ball determination.

C. P-wave decays

\[
\delta \Gamma_{h_b(1P) \rightarrow \chi_{b0}(1P)\gamma} \quad \delta \Gamma_{h_b(1P) \rightarrow \chi_{b1}(1P)\gamma} \quad \delta \Gamma_{\chi_{b2}(1P) \rightarrow h_b(1P)\gamma}
\]

|          | LO | $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s)$ | $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ | $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s)$ | $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ | $\alpha_s \times \mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ | $\nu \times \mathcal{O}(\nu^2)$ |
|----------|----|------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| $\delta \Gamma_{h_b(1P) \rightarrow \chi_{b0}(1P)\gamma}$ (eV) | 0.895 | 0.078 | 0.044 | -0.054 | 0.009 | -0.013 |
| $\delta \Gamma_{h_b(1P) \rightarrow \chi_{b1}(1P)\gamma}$ (eV × 10⁻³) | 8.86 | 0.77 | 0.43 | -1.08 | 0.09 | -0.27 |
| $\delta \Gamma_{\chi_{b2}(1P) \rightarrow h_b(1P)\gamma}$ (eV) | 0.113 | 0.010 | 0.006 | -0.011 | 0.001 | -0.003 |

TABLE IV: The leading and subleading contributions to $\Gamma_{h_b(1P) \rightarrow \chi_{b0}(1P)\gamma}$, $\Gamma_{h_b(1P) \rightarrow \chi_{b1}(1P)\gamma}$ and $\Gamma_{\chi_{b2}(1P) \rightarrow h_b(1P)\gamma}$ respectively. The last two numbers are error estimates obtained multiplying the subleading $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ contribution by $\alpha_s$ and the subleading $\mathcal{O}(\nu^2)$ contribution by $\nu$.

We now compute the P-wave decays for $n = 2$ bottomonium (though they could end up being of academic interest because of the very small energy differences). In this case we have several decays (see Eq. (14)). The difference among them are spin factors, which differently weight the $\vec{p}^2$ matrix element (there are also important differences for $k_\gamma$ depending on the decay). From the physical point of view the situation is similar to the two previous sections, as the wave function still has a single node, though more weighted at somewhat smaller scales. Our central value for the decays $\Gamma_{h_b(1P) \rightarrow \chi_{b0}(1P)\gamma}$, $\Gamma_{h_b(1P) \rightarrow \chi_{b1}(1P)\gamma}$ and $\Gamma_{\chi_{b2}(1P) \rightarrow h_b(1P)\gamma}$ are obtained using Eq. (14) with $N = 3$, $\nu = 1.5$ GeV, and $\nu_f = \nu_r = 0.7$ GeV. They are compatible with the numbers obtained in [19] if we account for the different $k_\gamma$ and a trivial missprint (keV → eV). For $k_\gamma$ we take the masses of the different $P$-wave states from the PDG [7]. In table IV we show the size of the different contributions. The $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s)$ and $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2)$ corrections are evaluated at the mass scale. The $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s(m))$ corrections are equal in the RS’ and on-shell scheme. Renormalon effects first appear at $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2(m))$ and make this expansion more convergent yet, as we have taken an small value of $\nu_f$, the $\mathcal{O}(\alpha_s^2(m))$ term is
still relatively large. There are not $O(\nu)$ corrections. The $O(\nu^2)$ correction can be evaluated at different orders in $N$, and for different values of the factorization scale. One can easily deduce its size by multiplying Fig. 5.b by $-5/3$ times the LO result. Unlike in Sec. IV A in this case there are not scales of minimal sensitivity. The use of a finite $\nu$, significantly diminishes the factorization scale dependence of the result. Yet, we observe that an strong scale dependence remains for small scales. Therefore, the value we quote in Table IV for the $O(\nu^2)$ correction corresponds to $N = 3$ and $\nu = 1.5$ GeV, as we feel that smaller values of $\nu$ may yield unrealistic results. Note that, unlike the $O(\alpha_s)$ corrections, this contribution is differently weighted for each decay. Therefore, properly weighted differences of these decays may yield absolute determinations of the $\langle \vec{p}^2 \rangle_{21}$ matrix element. In any case, the relative sign between the $O(\nu^2)$ and $O(\alpha_s(m))$ corrections produces cancellations between these terms. The magnitude of this cancellation depends on the specific decay mode, but they are large in all cases.

In order to estimate the errors we proceed analogously to the two previous sections. We take the $\nu \times O(\nu^2)$ contribution of Table IV as our estimate of the subleading correction, as it is the biggest possible individual term. The only other source of theoretical error that we include is the one due to $N_m$ (for the evaluation of this error we also take into account the correlation with the bottom mass value). Besides the theoretical error, we also include the error associated to the QCD parameters, even though its size is typically smaller than the theoretical error. For $\alpha_s$ we take the variation $\alpha_s(M_z) = 0.118 \pm 0.001$ [7]. For the variation of the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ bottom mass we take $m_b(m_b) = 4.19 \pm 0.03$ GeV. In summary, we obtain the following result for the different error contributions for the three decays:

$$
\Gamma_{h_b(1P)\to \chi_b(1P)\gamma} = 0.962 \pm 0.013(\mathcal{O}(\nu^3))^{+0.029}_{-0.002}(N_m)^{-0.001}_{+0.001}(\alpha_s)^{-0.013}_{+0.013}(m_{\overline{\text{MS}}}) \text{ eV}, \quad (33)
$$

$$
\Gamma_{h_b(1P)\to \chi_b(1P)\gamma} = 8.99 \pm 0.27(\mathcal{O}(\nu^3))^{+0.46}_{+0.07}(N_m)^{-0.04}_{+0.04}(\alpha_s)^{-0.12}_{+0.12}(m_{\overline{\text{MS}}}) \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}, \quad (34)
$$

$$
\Gamma_{\chi_b(1P)\to h_b(1P)\gamma} = 0.118 \pm 0.003(\mathcal{O}(\nu^3))^{+0.005}_{+0.000}(N_m)^{-0.000}_{+0.000}(\alpha_s)^{-0.002}_{+0.002}(m_{\overline{\text{MS}}}) \text{ eV}, \quad (35)
$$

which after combining the errors in quadrature read

$$
\Gamma_{h_b(1P)\to \chi_b(1P)\gamma} = 0.962(35) \text{ eV},
$$

$$
\Gamma_{h_b(1P)\to \chi_b(1P)\gamma} = 8.99(55) \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV},
$$

$$
\Gamma_{\chi_b(1P)\to h_b(1P)\gamma} = 0.118(6) \text{ eV}.
$$

The errors are heavily dominated by theory. They are much bigger than the error one would
FIG. 10: Plot of $\Gamma_{h_0(1P) \rightarrow \chi_{b0}(1P) \gamma}$, $\Gamma_{h_0(1P) \rightarrow \chi_{b1}(1P) \gamma}$ and $\Gamma_{\chi_{b2}(1P) \rightarrow h_0(1P) \gamma}$ using the static potential $V_{RS'}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$ with $\nu_r = \nu_f = 0.7$ GeV. The horizontal line is our central value and the yellow band our final error estimate.

obtain only considering scale variations (see Fig. 10), or if we do the evaluation with $N = 2$ instead of $N = 3$ ((see again Fig. 10). They are also bigger than the error associated to variations of $\nu_f$.

D. $\Upsilon(2S) \rightarrow \eta_b(2S)\gamma$

We now compute the $\Upsilon(2S) \rightarrow \eta_b(2S)\gamma$ decay. We use Eq. (11) with $n = 2$, which depends on $\langle p^2 \rangle_{20}$. We observed in Fig. 6 that this object was not convergent in $N$. Therefore the results of this section should be taken with some caution.

Our central value will be obtained using Eq. (11) with $N = 3$, $\nu = 1.5$ GeV, and $\nu_f = \nu_r = 0.7$ GeV. For $k_\gamma$ we take the values of the $\Upsilon(2S)$ mass from the PDG [7]. For
the mass of the $\eta_b(2S)$ we take the recent value obtained by Belle [47] for definiteness. Nevertheless, we should remark that there is a different value obtained using CLEO data [57] (if so our numbers can be trivially reescaled accordingly). In table $V$, we show the size of the different contributions to $\Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S)\to\eta_b(2S)\gamma}$. The $O(\alpha_s)$ and $O(\alpha_s^2)$ correction are evaluated at the mass scale. The $O(\alpha_s(m))$ corrections are equal in the RS' and on-shell scheme. Renormalon corrections first appear at $O(\alpha_s^2(m))$ and make this expansion more convergent yet, as we have taken an small value of $\nu_f$, the $O(\alpha_s^2(m))$ term is still large. There are not $O(\nu^2)$ corrections. The $O(\nu^2)$ correction can be evaluated at different orders in $N$, and for different values of the factorization scale. One can easily deduce its size by multiplying Fig. 6.b by $-5/3$ times the LO result. The value quoted in Table $V$ for the $O(\nu^2)$ correction has been obtained for $N = 3$ and $\nu = 1.5$ GeV. For the 2S bottomonium state the use of a finite $\nu_r$, in particular $\nu_r = 0.7$, does not significantly improve over the $\nu_r = \infty$ computation. The factorization scale dependence is still significant and the convergence bad. Therefore, conservatively we take the $O(\nu^2)$ term as our estimate of the error associated to higher order corrections. This term alone produces an error of order 10%. For the rest of the errors we proceed as in the previous sections. Overall, we obtain

$$\Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S)\to\eta_b(2S)\gamma} = 0.668 \pm 0.059 (O(\nu^2))^{-0.004(N_m)} - 0.002(\alpha_s)^{-0.009(m_{\overline{MS}})} \text{ eV}, \quad (39)$$

which after combining the errors in quadrature reads

$$\Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S)\to\eta_b(2S)\gamma} = 0.668(60) \text{ eV}. \quad (40)$$

In Fig. 11 we compare this result with the scale variation of the evaluation of the decay for different values of $N$. Note that our error is much bigger than the one would assign from the factorization scale dependence, or from the difference between different $N$ evaluations. We believe an error analysis only based on those would underestimate the error.
FIG. 11: Plot of $\Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S)\rightarrow \eta_b(2S)\gamma}$ for the case of the bottomonium ground state using the static potential $V_{RS'}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$ with $\nu_r = \nu_f = 0.7$ GeV. The horizontal line is our central value and the yellow band our final error estimate.

E. $2S \rightarrow 1S\gamma$ decays

The experimental situation of the $2S \rightarrow 1S$ radiative transitions has improved significantly over the last years. Whereas for the $2^1S_0 \rightarrow 1^3S_1\gamma$ decay there is still no data available, this is not so for the $2^3S_1 \rightarrow 1^1S_0\gamma$ decay, for which the PDG [7] quotes the value $[3.9 \pm 1.5] \times 10^{-4}$ for the decay branching fraction. This translates into the following value for the decay

$$\Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S)\rightarrow \eta_b(1S)\gamma}^{(exp)} = 12.5(4.9)\text{ eV}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (41)

This number comes from [58] BaBar (branching fraction $[3.9 \pm 1.1(stat)^{+1.1}_{-0.5}(syst)] \times 10^{-4}$) and updates the previous upper bound branching fraction $< 0.5 \times 10^{-3}$ (or $\Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S)\rightarrow \eta_b(1S)\gamma} < 0.016$) produced by CLEOIII [59].

On the theoretical side the $2S \rightarrow 1S$ radiative transitions are different from the previous transitions considered before. Now we only know the leading nonvanishing order, see Eqs. (12) and (13), which scales as $\sim (k_\gamma^3/m^2)v^4$. It depends on the expectation values of $\vec{p}^2$, ...
FIG. 12: Plot of $\Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S)\rightarrow\eta_b(1S)\gamma}$ using the static potential $V_{RS'}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$ with $\nu_f = 0.7$ and $\nu_r = \infty$. The dashed line corresponds to no resumming the hard logarithms: $D_{S^2,s}^{(2)} = \alpha_s(\nu)$. The blue band corresponds to the experimental value.

\[ \bar{r}^2 \text{ and } V_{S^2}(\bar{r}) \text{ among different states } (n = 1 \text{ and } n = 2), \text{ which we have not studied so far (note that for those matrix elements we can only fix their relative sign but not the absolute one). Moreover the } V_{S^2}(\bar{r})/m^2 \text{ potential is modulated by the Wilson coefficient } D_{S^2,s}^{(2)}, \text{ which resums the large logarithms associated to the heavy quark mass.} \]

The warning qualifications that we made in the previous section may also apply here, as the decay depends on the dynamics of the 2S bound state, for which we have observed problems of convergence in $N$ for $\langle p^2 \rangle_{20}$. Nevertheless it is worth repeating that the observables we are sensitive to now are different, and, therefore, worth exploring them. In Fig. 12 we show the theoretical predictions for $\Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S)\rightarrow\eta_b(1S)\gamma}$ after approximating the static potential at different orders in $N$ working at $\nu_r = \infty$ and $\nu_f = 0.7$ GeV (see solid lines). In other words, we just add an $r$-independent constant to the static potential. We actually see a
nicely convergent pattern for the decay, the magnitude of which decreases quite significantly as we increase \( N \) (by around an order of magnitude) and approaches the experimental value.

In order to understand this result it is convenient to study the magnitude of the different terms that contribute to Eq. (12). We display the terms inside the brackets of Eq. (12) in Fig. 13 with \( \nu_r = \infty \) and \( \nu_f = 0.7 \) GeV (see dashed lines). Note that they are \( \mathcal{O}(v^2) \sim 0.06 \) up to prefactors. We observe a very nice convergence pattern for the 10\( \langle r^2 \rangle \) associated term. The convergence of the 10\( \langle p^2 \rangle \) term is less good, and even less for 10\( \langle V_S(r) \rangle \) (for scales below 2.5 GeV). In any case, there is a very strong cancellation between the different terms in the decay. This makes the total sum of these terms smaller than the magnitude of each of them. The bulk of this effect is independent of the factorization scale and gets strongly magnified as we increase \( N \) (see again the solid lines of Fig. 12). Therefore it does not seems to be a numerical accident for an specific \( N \) or factorization scale.

If we switch off the resummation of the hard logarithms and work at \( N = 0 \) with \( \nu_r = \infty \), our computation is equivalent to the analysis performed in Ref. [19]. In this reference a very large value for the decay was obtained. We show our equivalent computation as the dashed line in Fig. 12. If we set \( \nu = 1 \) GeV, the value used in this reference, we obtain \( \Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S) \rightarrow \eta_b(1S) \gamma} \approx 0.6 \) keV (\( \approx 0.649 \) keV if we use the mass \( m_b = 4730 \) MeV used in that reference). Therefore, the introduction of the hard logarithms are crucial to make the decay transition width smaller for \( N = 0 \) at small scales. As we increase \( N \) this effect is less important and the decay width gets small irrespectively of the resummation of hard logarithms (yet the final value may change by a factor 3 or 4, specially at small scales). At this stage we would like to emphasize that the computation of the decay shows a nicely convergent pattern in \( N \), as we can see in Fig. 12, rapidly approaching the experimental number.

As in previous sections we can try to improve the previous results by exactly incorporating the correct asymptotic short distance behavior of the static potential in the solution of the Schroedinger equation. Typically the convergence is accelerated and the factorization scale dependence greatly diminishes. We show the behavior of the different contributions to the decay in Fig. 13 (see solid lines). There is a strong cancellation between the second and third term in Eq. (12) (compare the solid lines of Fig. 13.b and Fig. 13.c), whereas the first term is almost constant (see the solid lines of Fig. 13.a). We show the result for the decay in Fig. 14 with \( \nu_r = 0.7 \) GeV, where we also compare with the \( \nu_r = \infty \) case, and experiment.
FIG. 13: Plot of 1st, 2nd and 3rd term inside the brackets of Eq. (12) using the static potential $V_{RS'}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$. The dashed lines correspond to the $\nu_f = 0.7$ GeV and $\nu_r = \infty$ case, and the continuous lines to the $\nu_f = \nu_r = 0.7$ GeV case.
FIG. 14: Plot of $\Gamma(\Upsilon(2S) \rightarrow \eta_b(1S)\gamma)$ using the static potential $V_{RS}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$ with $\nu_f = \nu_r = 0.7$ GeV (solid lines) and $\nu_f = 0.7$ GeV, $\nu_r = \infty$ (dashed lines). The blue (darker) band corresponds to the experimental value and the yellow (lighter) band to our theoretical prediction.

Note how this figure corresponds to a zoom of Fig. 12, as the scale dependence is much smaller, as well as the size of the corrections. For $N = 0$ we still have some scale dependence but it basically vanishes for $N > 0$ and $\nu > 2$ GeV. Actually, the results are very stable to scale variations (with a nice plateau for $\nu > 2$ GeV) and to the value of $N$. In order to get these results the resummation of the hard logs play a crucial role, specially a low $\nu$. We also emphasize that the final numbers compare quite favourable with experiment. This is by far nontrivial, as there has been more than one order of magnitude reduction with respect the
original numbers obtained with a pure Coulomb potential.

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Prefactor (keV)} & A(r^2) & A(\vec{p}^2) & A(V_{S2}) & \Gamma (\text{eV}) \\
\hline
10.3342 & 0.022 & 0.039 & -0.042 & 6.3 \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

TABLE VI: The prefactor, the terms inside the brackets of Eq. (12), and the total decay width \( \Gamma_{Y(2S)\to \eta_b(1S)\gamma} \).

Therefore we dare to give a value for, and assign errors to, the decay width. In order to produce our final numbers we proceed analogously to the previous sections. In Table 12 we give the prefactor, the different matrix elements for \( N = 3, \nu = 1.5 \text{ GeV} \) and \( \nu_r = \nu_f = 0.7 \text{ GeV} \), as well as the total decay width. In order to estimate the error associated to subleading effects in \( \nu \), we multiply the biggest of the three \( \nu^2 \) contributions by \( \nu \), instead of multiplying by \( \nu \) the sum of the three contributions, as we can not guarantee that the cancellation between different terms takes place at higher orders. The structure of the error estimate would then be

\[
\delta \Gamma^{(v)}_{Y(2S)\to \eta_b(1S)\gamma} = B[(Av^2 + \delta v^3)^2 - (Av^2)^2] \simeq B(Av^2)^2 \times \delta v^3 \simeq 0.005 \text{ keV}, \tag{42}
\]

where \( A \) is an small number and \( \delta v^3 \sim v \times O(v^2) \). We check the reliability of this error estimate by replacing the theoretical masses that appear in the third term in Eq. (12) by the physical ones (as our result is very sensitive to this term). This effect is subleading in \( \nu \) and produces a shift with respect to the central value of order \( \delta \Gamma_{Y(2S)\to \eta_b(1S)\gamma} \simeq 0.006 \text{ keV} \). We take this number (which is quite similar to the number obtained in Eq. (42)) as our estimate of the higher order uncertainties. We do not dwell further in the analysis of the higher order uncertainties, as our main error will come from a strong dependence in \( N_m \). We also compute the error associated to \( \alpha_s \) and \( m_b \). Summarizing all the errors we obtain

\[
\Gamma^{(th)}_{Y(2S)\to \eta_b(1S)\gamma} = 0.006 \pm 0.006(O(v^5))^{+0.026}_{-0.006}(N_m)^{-0.001}(\alpha_s)^{-0.000}(m_{MS}) \text{ keV}. \tag{43}
\]

If we combine all the errors in quadrature our final number reads

\[
\Gamma^{(th)}_{Y(2S)\to \eta_b(1S)\gamma} = 6^{+26}_{-66} \text{ eV}. \tag{44}
\]

\[\footnote{We could reduce the dependence on \( N_m \) by increasing \( \nu_f \) (and \( \nu_r \)). The price one would pay is a stronger dependence on \( \nu \).} \]
The error is completely dominated by theory. It completely covers the experimental prediction. Note that the same error is obtained using the scale variation of the $N = 3$, $\nu_r = \infty$ result, which does not depend on $N_m$ but is typically less precise.

Overall we conclude that $\Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma}$ is relatively suppressed with respect its natural size by a very large cancellation between the $\langle p^2 \rangle$ and $\langle V_{S2} \rangle$ term. This makes the total matrix element smaller\(^6\). The fact that it enters as $v^4$ magnifies this effect. A confirmation of this picture would come from the evaluation (and experimental determination) of $\Gamma_{\eta_b(2S) \to \Upsilon(1S)\gamma}$, which we expect to be much larger because the relative sign between these terms changes. Actually this is what we find, as one can see in Fig. 15. On the other hand, for this decay, there is no convergent pattern in $N$. Therefore, we do not dare to make any error analysis, and only estimate the decay to be around $\Gamma_{\eta_b(2S) \to \Upsilon(1S)\gamma}^{(\text{th})} \sim 80 \text{ eV}$.

We can compare Eq. (44) with the recent lattice simulation of Ref. [60]. As our computation is $\mathcal{O}(v^4)$ we should compare with their $\mathcal{O}(v^4)$ result. In matrix element units it corresponds to the number 0.080(5) in Table II of Ref. [60] (the experimental number is 0.035(7)). Our central value corresponds to 0.025\(^{+0.031}_{-0.025}\). Nevertheless, a proper comparison would require the incorporation of the renormalization group improved Wilson coefficient, $D_{S^2,t,s}^{(2)}$, in the lattice analysis\(^7\). If we switch it off in our analysis our result gets strongly scale dependent and we can get agreement with their results for an scale of around 1 GeV. At this respect we can not avoid mention that we expect some dependence on the lattice spacing of the NRQCD matrix elements as, in general, it is not possible to obtain the continuum limit for them. In any case, we now face an interesting situation: In Ref. [60] agreement with experiment was only obtained after the inclusion of the $\mathcal{O}(v^6)$ operators (again using tree level Wilson coefficients). Note that this implies a complete breakdown of the $v$ expansion for bottomonium, as the $\mathcal{O}(v^6)$ correction would be as important as the $\mathcal{O}(v^4)$ term. On the other hand, our picture is different and is possible to obtain agreement with experiment with an $\mathcal{O}(v^4)$ computation (and the help of the renormalization group at small scales).

\(^6\) An ideal place to measure $|_{10} \langle r^2 \rangle \rangle_{20}$.

\(^7\) This has not been done so far. We stress that this effect could be quite important. Actually one only has to incorporate the very same logs that we are incorporating here, as the leading logs are scheme independent.
FIG. 15: Plot of $\Gamma_{\eta_b(2S) \to \Upsilon(1S)\gamma}$ using the static potential $V_{RS'}^{(N)}$ at different orders in perturbation theory: $N = 0, 1, 2, 3$ with $\nu_r = \nu_f = 0.7$ GeV.

V. CONCLUSIONS

We have computed the magnetic dipole transitions between low lying Heavy Quarkonium states in a model independent way. We have used the weak-coupling version of pNRQCD with the static potential exactly incorporated in the LO Hamiltonian. The precision we have reached is $k_3^3/m^2 \times O(\alpha_s^2, v^2)$ and $k_3^3/m^2 \times O(v^4)$ for the allowed and forbidden transitions respectively. Large logarithms associated to the heavy quark mass scale have also been resummed. The effect of the new power counting was found to be large and the exact treatment of the soft logarithms of the static potential made the factorization scale dependence much smaller. The convergence for the $b\bar{b}$ ground state was quite good, and also quite reasonable for the $c\bar{c}$ ground state and the $b\bar{b}$ 1P state. For all of them we gave solid
predictions, which we summarize here:

\begin{align*}
\Gamma_{\Upsilon(1S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma} &= 15.18(51) \text{ eV}, \\
\Gamma_{J/\psi(1S) \to \eta_c(1S)\gamma} &= 2.12(40) \text{ keV}, \\
\Gamma_{h_b(1P) \to \chi_{b0}(1P)\gamma} &= 0.962(35) \text{ eV}, \\
\Gamma_{h_b(1P) \to \chi_{b1}(1P)\gamma} &= 8.99(55) \times 10^{-3} \text{ eV}, \\
\Gamma_{\chi_{b2}(1P) \to h_b(1P)\gamma} &= 0.118(6) \text{ eV}.
\end{align*}

(45) \hspace{1cm} (46) \hspace{1cm} (47) \hspace{1cm} (48) \hspace{1cm} (49)

For the 2S decays the situation is less conclusive. The \( O(v^2) \) correction of the \( \Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(2S)\gamma \) decay suffered of bad convergence in \( N \) producing relatively large errors for our prediction (see Eq. (40)). Some of the \( O(v^2) \) matrix elements of the \( \eta_b(2S) \to Y(1S)\gamma \) decay also suffered of this bad convergence. This made impossible to give a reliable error estimate for this transition, as such terms correspond to the leading (and only known so far) order expression (moreover they should be squared in the decay). The situation is completely different for the \( \Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma \) transition. The reason is that the problematic \( O(v^2) \) matrix elements appear in a different combination for this decay, so that they cancel to a large extent. This led to a nicely convergent sequence in \( N \), where the resummation of the hard logarithms played an important role. Our final figure was

\[ \Gamma_{\Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma}^{(\text{th})} = 6^{+26}_{-06} \text{ eV}. \]

(50)

This number is perfectly consistent with existing data, so that the previous disagreement with experiment for the \( \Upsilon(2S) \to \eta_b(1S)\gamma \) decay fades away.

The error of the above figures is dominated by theory, in most cases by the lack of knowledge of higher order effects. The determination of the origin and nature of those effects may significantly diminishes the errors. Typically, they may come from loop effects, so it may happen that they effectively count as \( O(\alpha_s v^2) \), implying smaller errors. In any case, let us note that the static potential becomes steeper as we increase \( N \). Therefore, the transfer energy between the heavy quarks is bigger and the effective alpha and radius of the bound state becomes smaller than what one would deduce from a pure LO Coulomb evaluation. This means that the weak-coupling approximation works better than one would expect a priori for those systems. These are good news for weak-coupling analysis of the properties of the lowest-lying heavy quarkonium resonances.
We have not incorporated the error associated to $k_{\gamma}$ in our final numbers. Therefore, strictly speaking, our figures are theoretical predictions of $\Gamma / k_{\gamma}^3$. In some cases the associated error would be small. Yet, we have chosen to work this way since, for some decays, the experimental value of $k_{\gamma}$ is still uncertain. It is trivial for the reader to introduce such error if willing to do so.

We have also profited to compute some expectation values like the electromagnetic radius, $\langle r^2 \rangle$, or $\langle p^2 \rangle$. We find $\langle r^2 \rangle$ to be nicely convergent in all cases, whereas the convergence of $\langle p^2 \rangle$ is typically worse. We have found that $\langle p^2 \rangle$ is more or less constant with $n$, and $\sqrt{\langle r^2 \rangle}$ is more or less linear with $n$. This is the same behavior one finds with a logarithmic potential. Since the early days of heavy quarkonium it is well known from potential models that such potential effectively describes the spectrum of the bottomonium and charmonium system [45]. We find rewarding that the QCD potential can simulate such behavior after the inclusion of the running of $\alpha_s$.

The computation of $\langle r^2 \rangle$ and $\langle p^2 \rangle$ (and the binding energies) also yield a very nice confirmation of the renormalon dominance picture. This predicts in the on-shell scheme that, on the one hand, the binding energy should diverge with $N$ but, on the other, $\langle r^2 \rangle$ and $\langle p^2 \rangle$ should produce convergent sequences in $N$. We have observed this effect in full glory in our analysis.

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