

11 Renormalization

(very brief & only for QED)

11.1 Concept

- Higher order pert. calculations of many quantities (cross-sections, self-energies, greens-fcts. etc.) will involve divergent loop integrals. For the moment, let's regularize them using a momentum-cutoff Λ .
- Furthermore, let's write our familiar Lagrangian as

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu 0} F_0^{\mu\nu} + \bar{\psi}_0 (i(\not{\partial} + ie_0 A_0) - m_0) \psi$$

$$(F_0^{\mu\nu} = \partial^\mu A_0^\nu - \partial^\nu A_0^\mu)$$

and call the familiar fields & couplings appearing in it "bare". (Hence they all got the index "0".)

- Next, let us rewrite it in new, renormalized variables (both for fields & couplings) according to

$$A_0^\mu = Z_A^{1/2} A^\mu ; \quad \psi_0 = Z_\psi^{1/2} \psi ; \quad e_0 = Z_e e ; \quad m_0 = Z_m m$$

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4} Z_A F_\mu F^{\mu\nu} + Z_\psi (i(\not{\partial} + i Z_e Z_A^{1/2} e A)) - Z_m m) \psi$$

Note that this still describes the same physics.

- Crucial idea: Let $Z_i = Z_i(\Lambda)$ and choose the functional dependence on Λ such that all relevant quantities (cross sects., self-energies, ...) approach a finite limit as $\Lambda \rightarrow \infty$.
- If this is possible, the theory is called renormalizable. [Note that this is highly non-trivial since there are only 3 Z 's but infinitely many "relevant quantities".]

- By trading e_0 for $e, Z_e, Z_A, \dots$, we have clearly introduced a redundancy. To fix this & calculate the Z_i explicitly, we impose renormalization conditions (e.g. fix poles & residues of all propagators & as many cross sections as we have independent couplings).

11.2 Renormalization conditions

① Reminder of scalar case:

$$-\textcircled{\otimes} = -i\Gamma(p^2) ; \quad \textcircled{\parallel} = \frac{i}{p^2 - m^2 - \Gamma(p^2)}$$

$\uparrow$
 mass in $\mathcal{L}$ (we previously called it m_0 , but now this is used for the bare mass. Our mass in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ren}}$, with which we always work, is m)

mass: $m_{\text{phys}}^2 - m^2 - \Gamma(m^2) = 0 \Rightarrow m_{\text{phys}} = m$ means $\Gamma(m^2) = 0$

Z : $Z^{-1} = 1 - \Gamma'(m^2) \Rightarrow Z = 1$ means $\Gamma'(m^2) = 0$

② electron:

$$a - \textcircled{\otimes} b = -i \sum (\not{p})_{ab} ; \quad \textcircled{\parallel} = \frac{i}{\not{p} - m - \Sigma(\not{p})}$$

$\uparrow$
 4x4-matrix!

$\nwarrow$ can't write p^2 , since terms $\sim p \gamma_\mu$ appear.

Claim: Requiring $m = m_{\text{phys}}$ & $Z = 1$ corresponds to

$$\Sigma(m) = 0 \quad \& \quad \Sigma'(m) = 0.$$

Demonstration: In the Z -factor calculation for the scalar (cf. Sect. 6.6), we arrived at

$$\frac{i}{p^2 - m^2 - \Gamma(p^2)} = \frac{iZ}{p^2 - m_{\text{phys}}^2} + \dots,$$

and $\tilde{z}$ & m_{phys} followed by demanding that pole-position & residue agree. The analogous formula for spinors is (already assuming $m = m_{\text{phys}}$ & $\tilde{z} = 1$):

$$\frac{i}{\not{p} - m - \Sigma(\not{p})} = \frac{i}{\not{p} - m} + \underbrace{\dots}_{\text{no poles.}}$$

[Note that the conclusion $\Sigma(m) = \Sigma'(m) = 0$ is not yet obvious since we want the poles to agree at $p = p_{\text{on-shell}}$, not at $p = m$.]

- We write $\Sigma(\not{p}) = \Sigma(m) + \Sigma'(m)(\not{p} - m) + \frac{1}{2}\Sigma''(m)(\not{p} - m)^2 + \dots$

[Note that we do not require this to be a good approx. at any finite order since p is not close to m .]

If we now impose $\Sigma(m) = \Sigma'(m) = 0$, our equation above becomes

$$\frac{i}{(\not{p} - m) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\Sigma''(m)(\not{p} - m) + \dots\right)} = \frac{i}{\not{p} - m} + \dots$$

$$\frac{i(\not{p} + m)}{(p^2 - m^2) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\Sigma''(m)(\not{p} - m) + \dots\right)} = \frac{i(\not{p} + m)}{p^2 - m^2} + \dots$$

some other series in $(\not{p} - m)$.

$$\frac{i(\not{p} + m) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\Sigma''(m)(\not{p} - m) + \dots\right)}{p^2 - m^2} = \frac{i(\not{p} + m)}{p^2 - m^2} + \dots$$

$$\frac{i(\not{p} + m)}{p^2 - m^2} + i \left[\frac{1}{2}\Sigma''(m) + \dots \right] = \frac{i(\not{p} + m)}{p^2 - m^2} + \dots$$

↑
obviously no poles at $p \rightarrow p_{\text{on-shell}}$.

hence $\Sigma = \Sigma' = 0$ at $p = m$

has indeed "done the job".

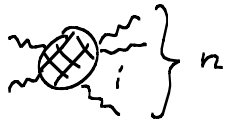
③ Photon:

$$\mu \text{ --- } \text{[crossed circle]} \text{ --- } \nu = i\Gamma_{\mu\nu}(q^2) \quad ; \quad \text{[crossed circle]} = \frac{i}{-q^2\eta_{\mu\nu} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}(q^2)}$$

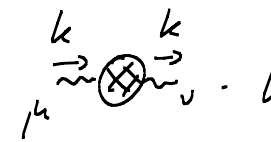
- We clearly need $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}(0) = 0$ to ensure that photon remains massless (as required by gauge inv.)
- Most general form: $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}(q^2) = \eta_{\mu\nu} A(q^2) + q_\mu q_\nu B(q^2)$
- gauge inv. fixes the ratio of A & B:

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu}(q^2) = (\eta_{\mu\nu} q^2 - q_\mu q_\nu) \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{don't confuse with} \\ \Gamma \text{ of scalar case!}}}{\Pi(q^2)}$$

Rough argument for this:

- Consider $2 \rightarrow n$ photon amplitude: 
- It should not matter whether we contract external line with momentum k with $\epsilon^\mu(k)$ or $\epsilon^\mu(k) + \alpha k^\mu$

$$\Rightarrow \text{[diagram: vertex with } n \text{ external lines, one labeled } k] \cdot k^\mu = 0$$

- The lowest-order case of this is  $\cdot k^\nu = 0$
or

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu}(q) q^\nu = 0 \quad , \quad \text{hence the relation between A \& B}$$

- If we focus on phys. polarizations ($\epsilon^\mu(q) q_\mu = 0$),

$$\text{[crossed circle]} = \frac{i}{-\eta^{\mu\nu} q^2 + \eta^{\mu\nu} q^2 \Pi(q^2)} = \frac{-i\eta_{\mu\nu}}{q^2(1 - \Pi(q^2))}$$

i.e., $Z = 1$ means $\Pi(0) = 0$ (This is analogous to $\Pi'(m^2) = 0$ in the scalar case because of the extra prefactor q^2 .)

④ Vertex (instead of scattering cross section)



$$= ie \Pi^\mu(p, p')$$

Demand that this is the same as what the tree-level Lagrangian with coupling e would predict at zero photon momentum:

$$\Rightarrow \Pi^\mu(p, p) = \gamma^\mu.$$

11.3 QED β -fct.

By definition, the renormalized coupling does not depend on Λ :

$$e_0(\Lambda) = Z_e(\Lambda) \cdot e \Rightarrow \frac{d}{d \ln \Lambda} e_0(\Lambda) = e \frac{d}{d \ln \Lambda} Z_e(\Lambda)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{at LO}}{\approx} e_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial \ln \Lambda} (1 + c e_0^2 \ln \Lambda)$$

$$= e_0^3 c$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{to get } \beta(e_0) \equiv \frac{d}{d \ln \Lambda} e_0(\Lambda) \approx e_0^3 \cdot c,$$

we just need the coeff. of the $e^2 \ln \Lambda$ -term in Z_e .

- There is an easy way of getting this by observing that gauge invariance requires the structure

$\partial_\mu + ie A_\mu$ to be unchanged in renormalization,

$$\text{hence } Z_e Z_A^{1/2} = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad c = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{e^2} \frac{d}{d \ln \Lambda} Z_A.$$

Note: historically, people use

$$z_A \equiv z_3; \quad z_\psi \equiv z_2 \quad \text{and} \quad z_e z_2 z_3^{1/2} \equiv z_1.$$

The above (famous and important) relation then reads

follows from $\uparrow$ "Ward identities" $z_1 = z_2$.

to be discussed more carefully in part QFT II

- $z_A = 1 + \delta z_A$ induces the counterterm

$$\begin{aligned} i \not{x}^{\mu\nu} &= i (-\eta^{\mu\nu} p^2 + p^\mu p^\nu) \delta z_A \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{4} \overset{\uparrow}{F}_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (A_\nu \partial^2 A^\nu - A_\mu \partial^\mu \partial^\nu A_\nu) \end{aligned}$$

- Hence: $i \Pi_{\mu\nu} = \underbrace{\not{x}^{\mu\nu}} + \underbrace{\text{1-loop diagram}}_{\equiv i(\not{q}^2 \eta^{\mu\nu} - \not{q}^\mu \not{q}^\nu) \Pi_{\mu\nu}(q^2)} \quad \text{at 1-loop}$

$$= i(\not{q}^2 \eta^{\mu\nu} - \not{q}^\mu \not{q}^\nu) \Pi_{\mu\nu}(q^2)$$

$\uparrow$
for "1-loop"

and $\delta z_A = \Pi_{\mu\nu}(0)$.

Thus: We need the coefficient of the log.-divergence of $\Pi_{\mu\nu}(0)$. This gives us

$$c = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{e^2} (\text{coeff. of } \ln \Lambda \text{ in } \Pi_{\mu\nu}(0)).$$

11.4 Vacuum polarization in dimensional regularization

Vac. polariz. diagram:  $= i \Pi_{\mu\nu}(q^2) = i(\gamma_{\mu\nu} \not{q}^2 - \not{q}^\mu \not{q}^\nu) \Pi_{\mu\nu}(q^2)$

$$i\Gamma_{(1)}^{\mu\nu}(q^2) = (ie)^2 (-1) \int \frac{d^d k}{(2\pi)^d} \text{tr} \left[\gamma^\mu \frac{i}{k-m} \gamma^\nu \frac{i}{k+q-m} \right]$$

$\uparrow$ run from 0, 1, ..., d-1 $\uparrow$ in d dimensions!

(We may think of defining our theory in d dim.s. from the very beginning)

Note: We will, in the end, treat n as a complex variable. Log. divergences of a diagram will show up as poles in d at certain integer, real values.

Examples:

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{x^{d-1} dx}{(x^2)^2} = \int_1^\infty x^{d-5} dx = \frac{1}{d-4} x^{d-4} \Big|_1^\infty$$

$\uparrow$ to avoid IR-divergence
 (usually absent in case of $m \neq 0$ or external momentum $\neq 0$)

$$= -\frac{1}{d-4} \quad (\text{for } d < 4)$$

common: $d = 4 - \epsilon$

$= \frac{1}{\epsilon}$

This is ok in the whole compl. d-plane, except at $d=4$.

This corresponds precisely to what above. In general, we will find $\frac{1}{\epsilon} + \{\text{finite expr. for } \epsilon \rightarrow 0\}$.

Crucial advantage:

Poincare-inv. / gauge inv. automatically preserved (this highly non-trivial with a cutoff!)

Let's now calculate:

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu} = (q^2 \gamma_{\mu\nu} - q_\mu q_\nu) \Gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma_\mu{}^\mu = (d \cdot q^2 - q^2) \cdot \Gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma_{(1)}(q^2) = \frac{1}{(d-1) q^2} \Gamma_{(1)\mu}{}^\mu(q^2)$$

When calculating $\Pi_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}(q^2)$, we encounter

$$\text{tr} \left[\gamma^\mu \frac{i}{k-m} \gamma^\nu \frac{i}{k+q-m} \right] = - \frac{\text{tr} [\gamma^\mu (k+m) \gamma^\nu (k+q+m)]}{(k^2-m^2)((k+q)^2-m^2)} = \dots$$

Use Clifford alg. in d dims. (as usual, $\{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = 2\eta^{\mu\nu}$
with $\mu, \nu = 0 \dots d-1$)

to find: $\gamma^\mu \gamma_\mu = d$; $\gamma^\mu k \gamma_\mu = 2k - \gamma^\mu \gamma_\mu k = (2-d)k$

$$= - \frac{\text{tr} [(2-d)k + dm] (k+q+m)}{(k^2-m^2)((k+q)^2-m^2)} = 4 \frac{(d-2)k \cdot (k+q) - d m^2}{(k^2-m^2)((k+q)^2-m^2)}$$

here we used $\text{tr}(1) = 4$,
which in general is non-trivial
in dim. reg. (here it's OK).

Thus:

$$i\Pi_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}(q^2) = 4e^2 \int \frac{d^d k}{(2\pi)^d} \cdot \frac{(d-2)k \cdot (k+q) - d m^2}{(k^2-m^2)((k+q)^2-m^2)}$$

Note: One might suspect a quadratic divergence $d=4$.

In dim. reg., this should show up as a pole in $d=2$.

However, in the above expression the dangerous term has a prefactor $(d-2)$. Hence $\Pi_\mu^{(1)}$ has no pole at $d=2$ and hence is not quadratically divergent.

[This is not so easy to see with a cutoff. !]

One way to further simplify this integral is via a

Feynman-parameter:

$$\frac{1}{AB} = \int_0^1 dx \frac{1}{(xA + (1-x)B)^2}$$

M3

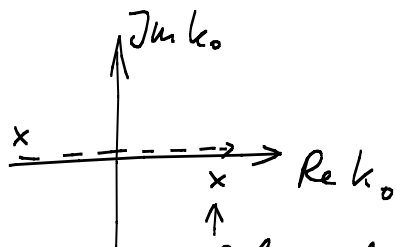
(check this!)

$$\Rightarrow i\Gamma_{(1)F}^{\mu} = 4e^2 \int \frac{d^d k}{(2\pi)^d} \int_0^1 dx \frac{(d-2)k(k+q) - m^2 d}{[(1-x)(k^2 - m^2) + x((k+q)^2 - m^2)]^2}$$

Denominator: $[\dots]^2 \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow k-xq} [k^2 + \underbrace{x(1-x)q^2 - m^2}_{\equiv -\Delta}]^2$

Numerator: $k(k+q) \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow k-xq} k^2 + \underbrace{(1-2x)kq - x(1-x)q^2}_{\text{vanishes under integration symm. reasons.}}$

$$\Rightarrow i\Gamma_{(1)F}^{\mu}(q^2) = 4e^2 \int \frac{d^d k}{(2\pi)^d} \int_0^1 dx \frac{(d-2)(k^2 - x(1-x)q^2) - d \cdot m^2}{(k^2 - \Delta)^2}$$



$\Rightarrow$ allowed contour deformation for k_0 -integration:

$$(-\infty \rightarrow +\infty) \rightarrow (-i\infty \rightarrow +i\infty)$$

or: $k_0 \rightarrow ik_0$

$$\Rightarrow k^2 = k_0^2 - \vec{k}^2 \longrightarrow -k_E^2 = -k_0^2 - \vec{k}^2$$

$\uparrow$
euclidean

$$\Rightarrow i\Gamma_{(1)F}^{\mu}(q^2) = 4ie^2 \int \frac{d^d k_E}{(2\pi)^d} \int_0^1 dx \frac{(d-2)(-k_E^2 + x(1-x)q^2) - m^2 d}{(k_E^2 + \Delta)^2}$$

Calculate, e.g. $\int \frac{d^d k_E}{(2\pi)^d} \cdot \frac{1}{(k_E^2 + \Delta)^2} = \underbrace{\int \frac{d^d k_E}{(2\pi)^d}}_{\text{well-def. for all integer } d > 1} \cdot \underbrace{\int_0^\infty dk_E \frac{k_E^{d-1}}{(k_E^2 + \Delta)^2}}_{\text{well-def. for all } d < 4}$

analytic fct. in d -plane, possibly with poles

--- = $\frac{1}{(4\pi)^{d/2}} \cdot \frac{\Gamma(2-d/2)}{\Gamma(2)} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\Delta}\right)^{2-d/2}$ has poles at non-positive integers

- expand in ϵ ($d = 4 - \epsilon$)
- perform x -integration (easy)

$$\Pi_{(1)}(q^2) = \frac{1}{(d-1)q^2} \Pi_{(1)\mu}{}^\mu(q^2) \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{at } q^2=0 \\ \& \epsilon \rightarrow 0}}{=} -\frac{e^2}{6\pi^2 \epsilon}$$

Recall: $C = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{e^2} (\text{coeff. of } \ln \Lambda \text{ in } \Pi_{(1)}(0)) = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{e^2} \frac{e^2}{6\pi^2}$

$$\Rightarrow \beta(e_0) = \frac{e_0^3}{12\pi^2} \quad \text{at 1-loop.}$$

$\Rightarrow$ Landau pole at some (very large) energy scale.

- Can rethink this in terms of renormalized coupling at some non-zero scale μ : $e(\mu)$. It is easy to see that $e(\mu) \approx e_0(\mu)$ (no large logs!). Hence

$$\underline{\beta(e) = \frac{e^3}{12\pi^2} \quad \text{at 1-loop.}}$$