

Renormalization

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- This subject is very vast.
- To try to compress it in only one talk is nearly impossible
- I won't go into much details, but rather I will try to explain in more physical terms with simple examples

In many theories of nature, i.e. theories that have been experimentally verified, the calculation of physical quantities initially gives ∞ .

↳ This is the statement of today's discussion

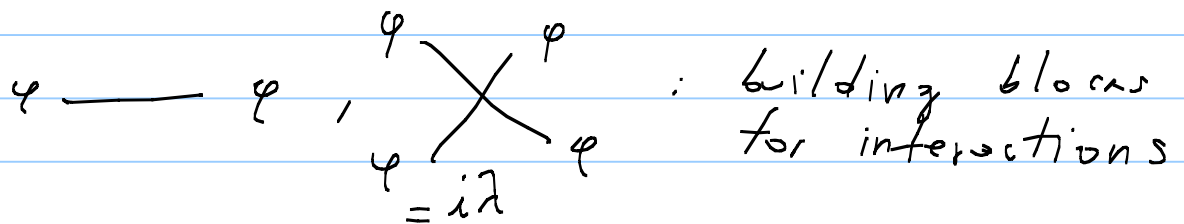
Examples: QED, Yang-Mills (QCD, Electro Weak)

Still, people managed to "understand" those infinities and make extraordinarily accurate predictions. (QED \rightarrow magnetic moment of the electron initially, and many of collider experiments since decades ago)

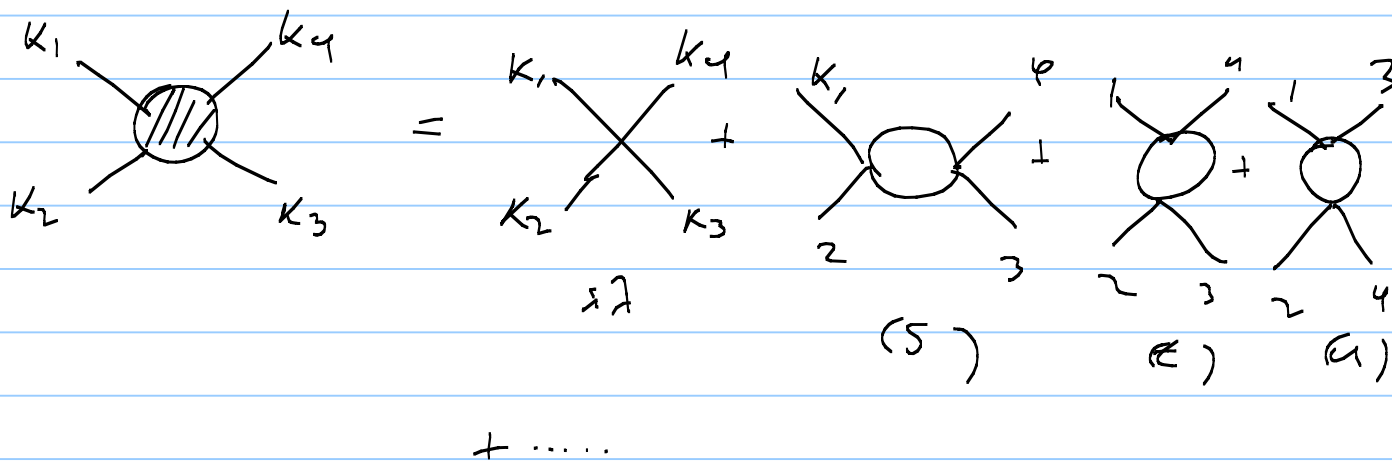
How does it work?

Let's begin with a toy theory

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{i}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial^\mu \varphi + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \varphi^2 + \frac{\lambda}{4!} \varphi^4$$



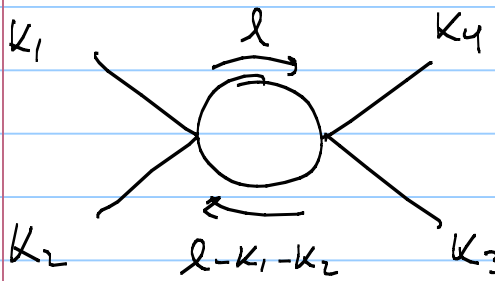
Let's compute the amplitude of scattering of 4 of these scalar particles:



This is a graphical way of writing

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 M = i\lambda + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^2) \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \text{tree} & & \text{all the rest}
 \end{array}$$

Let's compute the first term of the rest



A Feynman diagram showing a bubble loop. Four external lines enter and exit the loop, labeled with momenta k_1 , k_2 , k_3 , and k_4 . The top internal line has momentum l and an arrow pointing right. The bottom internal line has momentum $l - k_1 - k_2$ and an arrow pointing left.

$$= \frac{1}{2} (i\lambda)^2 \int \frac{d^4 l}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{-i}{l^2 - m^2 + i\epsilon} \times \frac{-i}{(l - k_1 - k_2)^2 - m^2 + i\epsilon}$$

this gives ∞

We can actually see that it diverges due to high values of l . For large l

$$\sim \int dl l^3 \frac{1}{l^4} = \int \frac{dl}{l} = \log \Lambda \quad (\Lambda \rightarrow \infty)$$

We have a problem right away: the second term in this series expansion should be smaller compared to the first, but it gives ∞ !!

How to make sense of this?

The modern point of view is: We should think of this theory a low energy effective theory of a more complete one.

From this point of view, it makes perfect sense that the cutoff Λ is really present in the theory.

OK! , but now the question is: What value of Λ should I use? It seems that the scattering amplitude (i.e. cross sections, and decay rates, etc) directly depend on it.

To answer this, let's compute the integrals:

$$M = -i\lambda + ic\lambda^2 \left[\log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{(k_1+k_2)^2}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{(k_2+k_3)^2}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{(k_2+k_4)^2}\right) \right] + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$$

or more concisely

$$\begin{aligned} s &= (k_1+k_2)^2 & c: \text{just a} \\ t &= (k_2+k_3)^2 & \text{numerical} \\ u &= (k_2+k_4)^2 & \text{constant} \end{aligned}$$

$$M = -i\lambda + iC\lambda^2 \left[\log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{s}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{t}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{u}\right) \right] + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$$

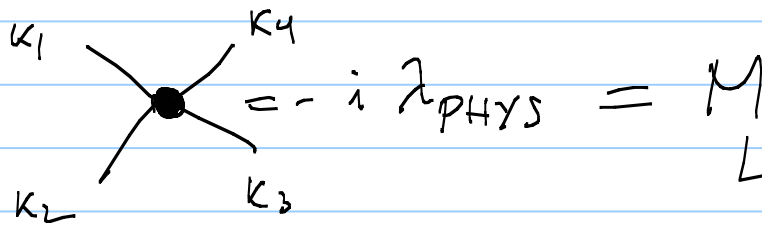
$\equiv L$

λ : coupling constant
 Λ : cutoff

Key point: λ IS NOT the real physical coupling measured in experiments (QED experiments measure $\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi}$)

But rather λ and Λ are functions of each other.

Experimentally, what one measures is an effective or physical coupling constant λ .



↳ full amplitude of
(nature doesn't care about
or diagrammatic expansion)

Imagine we go and measure λ_{PHYS} by doing an experiment at a certain CM energy, i.e.:

$$(k_1^0 + k_2^0)^2 = S_0$$

$$(k_2^0 + k_3^0)^2 = t_0$$

$$(k_1^0 + k_4^0)^2 = u_0$$

* Thus, our calculation at this energy should give this value of $M = -i \lambda_{\text{PHYS}}$

$$-i \lambda_{\text{PHYS}} = -i \lambda + i c \lambda^2 \left[\log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{S_0}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{t_0}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{u_0}\right) \right] + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$$

$$\text{or } -i \lambda_{\text{PHYS}} = -i \lambda + i c \lambda^2 L_0 + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$$

$$\text{Solving for } \lambda: \quad i \lambda = i \lambda_{\text{PHYS}} + i c \lambda^2 L_0 + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$$

↑ plug here
rears=ucly

$$i\lambda = i\lambda_{\text{phys}} + iC \left[\lambda_{\text{phys}} + C\lambda^2 L_0 \right]^2 L_0 + O(\lambda^3)$$

$$i\lambda = i\lambda_{\text{phys}} + iC \lambda_{\text{phys}}^2 L_0 + O(\lambda^3)$$

↳ now we have λ in terms of experimentally measured quantities of the order specified.

thus

$$M = -i\lambda + iC \lambda^2 L + O(\lambda^3) \text{ becomes}$$

$$M = -i\lambda_{\text{phys}} - iC \lambda_{\text{phys}}^2 L_0 + O(\lambda^3)$$

$$+ iC \left[i\lambda_{\text{phys}} + iC \lambda_{\text{phys}}^2 L_0 + O(\lambda^3) \right]^2 L + O(\lambda^3)$$

$$= -i\lambda_{\text{phys}} - iC \lambda_{\text{phys}}^2 L_0 + iC \left[i^2 \lambda_{\text{phys}}^2 + O(\lambda_{\text{phys}}^3) \right] L + O(\lambda^3)$$

$$M = -i\lambda_{\text{phys}} + iC \lambda_{\text{phys}}^2 (L - L_0) + O(\lambda_{\text{phys}}^3)$$

$$\implies L - L_0 = \log\left(\frac{\lambda}{s}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\lambda^2}{t}\right) + \log\left(\frac{\lambda^2}{u}\right) - \log\left(\frac{\lambda}{s_0}\right) - \log\left(\frac{\lambda^2}{t_0}\right) - \log\left(\frac{\lambda^2}{u_0}\right)$$

$$L - L_0 = \log\left(\frac{s_0}{s}\right) + \log\left(\frac{t_0}{t}\right) + \log\left(\frac{u_0}{u}\right)$$

Finally

$$M = -i \lambda_{\text{PHYS}} + i C \lambda_{\text{PHYS}}^2 \left[\log\left(\frac{s_0}{s}\right) + \log\left(\frac{t_0}{t}\right) + \log\left(\frac{u_0}{u}\right) \right] + \mathcal{O}(\lambda_{\text{PHYS}}^3)$$

This is at
the heart of
Renormalization

The dependence on the cutoff Λ has completely disappeared when we express the amplitude in terms of physically observable quantities

↓
This is what books sometimes call the Miracle of renormalization.

This "miracle" does not always happen; it happens for theories that are called Renormalizable.

The Beta function

Our calculation was

$$M = -i\lambda + i\lambda^2 C \left[\log \frac{\Lambda^2}{\delta} + \log \frac{\Lambda^2}{\epsilon} + \log \frac{\Lambda^2}{\mu} \right] + o(\lambda^3)$$

The idea of renormalization is that Λ and μ balance each other out in order to yield M intact under a change of them

$$\delta M = -i\delta\lambda + 2i\lambda\delta\lambda C \left[\log \frac{\Lambda^2}{\delta} + \dots \right]$$

$$+ i\lambda^2 C \left[\frac{2 \times 3\delta\Lambda}{\Lambda} \right] + o(\lambda^3)$$

$$0 = \delta\lambda \left(-1 + 2i\lambda C \left[\log \frac{\Lambda^2}{\delta} + \dots \right] \right) + 6\lambda^2 C \frac{\delta\Lambda}{\Lambda}$$

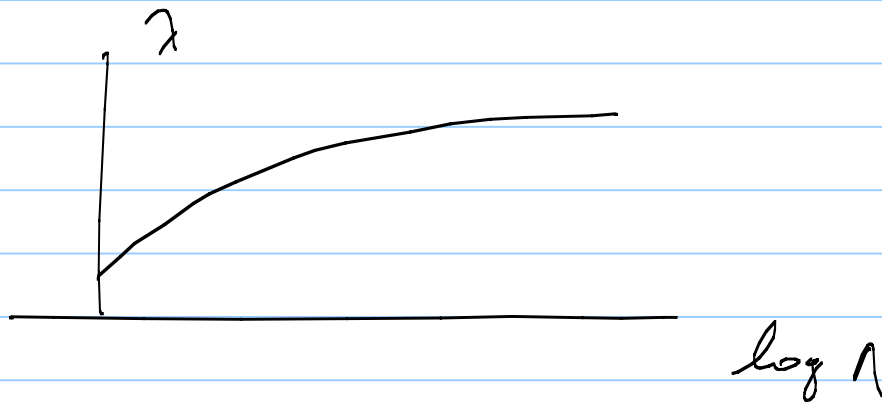
$$0 = \delta\lambda (-1 + 2\lambda C L) + \frac{6\lambda^2 C}{\Lambda} \delta\Lambda$$

$$\frac{\Lambda \delta\lambda}{\delta\Lambda} = 6\lambda^2 C + o(\lambda^3)$$

$$\beta \equiv \frac{d\lambda(\Lambda)}{d\ln\Lambda} = \frac{d\lambda}{d\Lambda} \frac{d\Lambda}{d\ln\Lambda} = 6\lambda \Lambda$$

$$\therefore \beta(\lambda) = 6\lambda^2 C + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$$

↳ positive



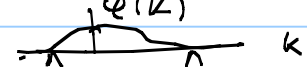
The coupling increases with the energy at which we put the cutoff.

— There's of course a more systematic and formal way of computing $\beta(\lambda)$.

⊙ Remark: This 4-point function in the path integral formulation corresponds to the calculation of

$$\int \mathcal{D}\varphi \varphi(x_1) \varphi(x_2) \varphi(x_3) \varphi(x_4) e^{i \int d^4x \left[-\frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial^\mu \varphi + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \varphi^2 - \frac{\lambda}{4!} \varphi^4 \right]}$$

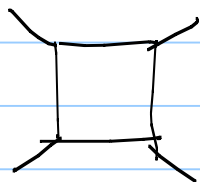
and restrict $\int \mathcal{D}\varphi$ only to those values of φ whose Fourier transform vanishes for $k \gg \Lambda$



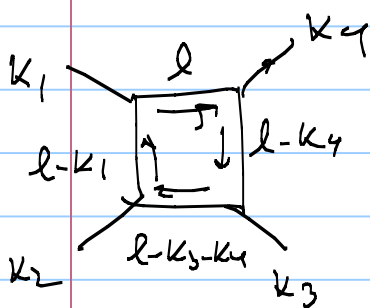
① Which theories are renormalizable and which are not?

- Infinite expressions come from loop integrals (that's why non-renormalizable theories still give good predictions at the tree level, even though they blow up at the one loop level)

Consider the diagram



in ϕ^3 theory:



E : # of external legs
 I : # of internal lines
 L : # of closed loops
 V_n : # of vertices that connect n lines.

$$\sim \int \frac{d^d l}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{1}{l^2 + m^2} \frac{1}{(l-k_4)^2 + m^2} \frac{1}{(l-k_3-k_4)^2 + m^2} \frac{1}{(l-k_1)^2 + m^2}$$

$L = 1$ $V_3 = 4$ # of l 's in the num = dL
 $I = 4$ $V_4 = 0$ # " " " den = $2I$
 $E = 4$ $V_5 = 0$

$$\delta Z - 2I \equiv D \quad (\text{superficial degree of divergence})$$

$$\int^{\Lambda} d^D l \quad l^{D-1} \quad \text{if } D-1 = -1$$

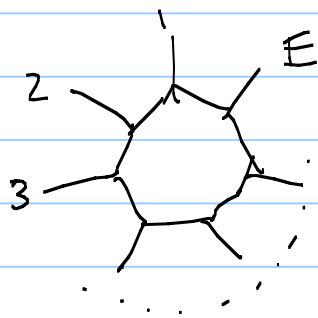
$$\sim \int^{\Lambda} \frac{dl}{l} \sim \log \Lambda$$

diverges when we finally take $\Lambda \rightarrow \infty$

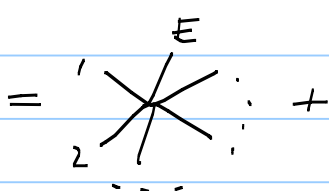
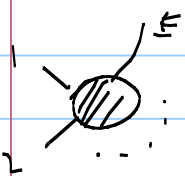
\therefore If $D-1 \geq -1 \rightarrow D \geq 0$ the result tends to be ∞ .

There's a more useful way of computing D

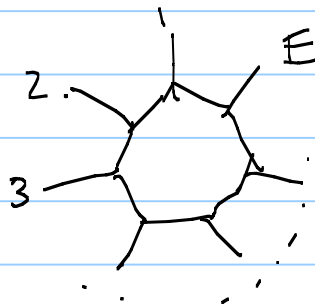
Consider



\rightarrow 1-loop diagram



$\sim \mathcal{O}(E)$



diagram

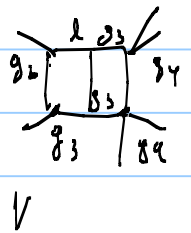
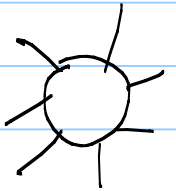
∴ In terms of mass units

$$[\text{diagram}] = [g_E]$$

But also, for any diagram,

$$[\text{diagram}] = D + \sum_{m=3}^{\infty} V_m [g_m]$$

↑
mass dimensions
coming from
the loop integrations



$$D = [g_E] - \sum_{m=3}^{\infty} V_m [g_m]$$

Remember that we want $D < 0$ for convergence of the integral. Thus if

$$D \equiv [g_E] - \sum_{m=3}^{\infty} V_m [g_m] \geq 0 \quad \text{the integral diverges}$$

↳ positive or zero number

We see right away that if any $[g_m] < 0$ we get uncontrollable infinities. Because D increases with every added vertex of this kind (at higher loops)

∴ A theory with any $[g_m] < 0$ is nonrenormalizable (infinities cannot be canceled out by counter terms)

This criterion, by the way is not always true. A diagram might diverge even if $D < 0$ (this could happen when some of the d 's in the numerator get canceled) \rightarrow QED is an example of this.

Ex:

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial^\mu \varphi + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \varphi^2 + g_3 \varphi^3 + g_4 \varphi^4 + g_5 \varphi^5 + \dots$$

$$[\mathcal{L}] = M^4 \quad [\partial_\mu] = M \quad \rightarrow \quad [\varphi]^2 M^2 = M^4 + \dots$$

$$\therefore [\varphi] = M$$

$$[g_3] M^3 = M^4 \quad \rightarrow \quad [g_3] = M \quad \rightarrow \quad [g_5] = -1$$

$$[g_4] M^4 = M^4 \quad \rightarrow \quad [g_4] = 0 \quad [g_6] = -2$$

\therefore Only up to φ^4 interaction is renormalizable, i.e. scalar theory

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial^\mu \varphi + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \varphi^2 + g_3 \varphi^3 + g_4 \varphi^4$$

Note: Z_2 invariance gets rid of the φ^3 term.

Two famous non-renormalizable theories.

i) Fermi's theory of weak interactions:

Its Lagrangian looks something like this

$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{\Psi} (i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \Psi + G (\bar{\Psi} \Psi)^2$$

(in a simplified form).

Note:

Since
$$\begin{pmatrix} \Psi_L \\ \Psi_R \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Parity}} \begin{pmatrix} \Psi_R \\ \Psi_L \end{pmatrix}$$

you can check that $\bar{\Psi} \Psi \rightarrow -\bar{\Psi} \Psi$
thus

$(\bar{\Psi} \Psi)^2$ is parity invariant

but experimentally weak interactions
violate parity

Dimensional analysis:

$$M^4 = [\bar{\Psi} \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi] = [\bar{\Psi} \partial_\mu \Psi] = [\Psi]^2 M$$

$$\therefore [\Psi] = M^{3/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow [G] (M^{3/2})^2 = M^4 \Rightarrow [G] = M^{-2}$$

$$\therefore [G] < 0$$

↳ Non-renormalizable

Still, if we try to compute some scattering amplitude, it should look like this

$$M \sim 1 + GE^2 + (GE^2)^2 + \dots$$

since G is the only parameter of the theory.

Since this theory is non-renormalizable, it still gives good predictions at tree level (low energies). In fact, experimentally

$$G \sim 10^{-5} (\text{GeV})^{-2}$$

Thus, theory breaks down at energies E such that

$$GE^2 \sim 1 \quad (\text{series doesn't make any sense here})$$

$$\therefore E \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{G}} \sim 10^2 - 10^3 \text{ GeV}$$

Thus, a new theory of weak interactions is needed and it might contain particles with masses of the order of hundreds of GeV.

Indeed, $SU(2) \times U(1)$ spontaneously broken electroweak predicted and confirmed the existence of W^\pm , Z gauge bosons with masses 80.4 and 91.2 GeV respectively. \rightarrow In fact, Fermi's theory can be derived as a low energy effective theory from this one.

ii) Einstein's Gravity

For example, in a graviton-graviton scattering, G_N is the only parameter of the theory.

$$V = \frac{G_N M_1 M_2}{r} = [\text{Energy}]$$

$$\frac{[G_N] M^2}{M^{-1}} = M \quad [r] = M^{-1}$$

$$\therefore [G_N] = M^{-2} \rightarrow \text{Non-renormalizable}$$

$$M \approx 1 + G_N E^2 + (G_N E^2)^2 + \dots$$

Breaks down

at \vdots $E \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{G_N}} = M_{\text{plank}} \approx 10^{19} \text{ GeV}$

we should expect
new physics (or
new math?)
at these scales.

But certainly, GR gives extraordinary predictions as a low energy effective theory.

— ◦ —
The end
— ◦ —