

8.324 Relativistic Quantum Field Theory II

Lecture 8

In the last lecture, we showed, for a general interacting theory:

$$G_F(p) = \frac{-iZ}{p^2 + m^2 - i\epsilon} + \int_{4m^2}^{\infty} d\mu^2 \sigma(\mu^2) \frac{i}{p^2 + \mu^2 - i\epsilon}, \quad (1)$$

where the first term is the contribution from single-particle states, and the second term is the contribution from multi-particle states. From this, we have that

$$\Im(iG_F(p)) = \sum_i \pi \delta(p^2 + m_i^2) Z_i + \pi \sigma(-p^2). \quad (2)$$

This is the spectral function, picking out the physical on-shell states. There is one more sum rule we wish to observe. Begin with the canonical quantization:

$$[\dot{\phi}(t, \vec{x}), \phi(t, \vec{y})] = -i\delta(\vec{x} - \vec{y}). \quad (3)$$

As this operator is just a complex number, we can equate it with its expectation value:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 0 | [\dot{\phi}(t, \vec{x}), \phi(t, \vec{y})] | 0 \rangle &= -i\delta(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) \\ &= \partial_t \langle 0 | \phi(t, \vec{x}) \phi(t', \vec{y}) | 0 \rangle_{t' \rightarrow t} - \partial_t \langle 0 | \phi(t', \vec{y}) \phi(t, \vec{x}) | 0 \rangle_{t' \rightarrow t} \\ &= \partial_t G_+(x - y) \Big|_{t' \rightarrow t} - \partial_t G_+(y - x) \Big|_{t' \rightarrow t} \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} d\mu^2 \rho(\mu^2) \left[\partial_t G_+^{(0)}(x - y; \mu^2) \Big|_{t' \rightarrow t} - \partial_t G_+^{(0)}(y - x; \mu^2) \Big|_{t' \rightarrow t} \right] \\ &= 2 \int_0^{\infty} d\mu^2 \rho(\mu^2) \partial_t G_+^{(0)}(x - y; \mu^2) \Big|_{t' \rightarrow t}. \end{aligned}$$

Recall, in the free theory, we have that

$$\partial_t G_+^{(0)}(x - y) \Big|_{t' \rightarrow t} = -\frac{i}{2} \delta(\vec{x} - \vec{y}), \quad (4)$$

and so, we have that

$$1 = \int_0^{\infty} d\mu^2 \rho(\mu^2). \quad (5)$$

Because $\rho(\mu^2) = \sigma(\mu^2) + \sum_i Z_i \delta(\mu^2 - m_i^2)$, where both terms are greater than or equal to zero for all values of μ^2 , we have that

$$\int_{4m^2}^{\infty} d\mu^2 \sigma(\mu^2) < 1, \quad Z_i < 1. \quad (6)$$

In reality, the above argument may not always hold due to possible ultraviolet divergences. The same discussion can be generalized to a spinor, as seen in the problem set, and to a vector, as we will discuss later.

2.2: AN EXPLICIT EXAMPLE

Consider a scalar Lagrangian with a ϕ^3 interaction:

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi - \frac{1}{2} m_0^2 \phi^2 + \frac{1}{6} g \phi^3. \quad (7)$$

This leads to the Feynman rules:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{---} \xrightarrow{p} \text{---} &= \frac{-i}{p^2 + m^2 - i\epsilon}, \\
 \text{---} & \text{---} &= ig,
 \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

and by dimensional analysis, we find

$$\begin{aligned}
 [\phi] &= \frac{d-2}{2}, \\
 [x] &= -1, \\
 [g] &= 3 - \frac{d}{2},
 \end{aligned}$$

where we work in a general space-time dimension d . We note that g is dimensionless in $d = 6$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_F(p) &= \text{---} + \text{---} \bigcirc \text{---} + \text{---} \bigcirc \bigcirc \text{---} \\
 &+ \text{---} \bigcirc \text{---} + \text{---} \bigcirc \bigcirc \text{---} + \dots
 \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

Note that we do not consider diagrams involving tadpoles

$$\langle 0 | \phi | 0 \rangle \equiv \phi_0 = \text{---} \bigcirc \text{---} + \text{---} \bigcirc \text{---} + \dots \tag{10}$$

as we can always shift the field definition to $\phi = \phi_0 + \tilde{\phi}$, so that $\langle 0 | \tilde{\phi} | 0 \rangle = 0$, and the sum of the tadpole sub-diagrams gives zero. Now, we define 1PI, or one-particle irreducible diagrams, as the diagrams which cannot be separated into two disconnected parts by cutting one propagator. We denote the sum of 1PI diagrams by

$$\begin{aligned}
 i\Pi(p) &= \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} \\
 &= \text{---} + \text{---} \bigcirc \text{---} + \text{---} \bigcirc \bigcirc \text{---} \\
 &+ \text{---} \bigcirc \text{---} + \dots,
 \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

and so, we have that

$$G_F(p) = \text{---} + \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} + \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} + \dots \tag{12}$$

That is,

$$\begin{aligned} G_F(p) &= G_F^{(0)} + G_F^{(0)} i\Pi G_F^{(0)} + G_F^{(0)} i\Pi G_F^{(0)} i\Pi G_F^{(0)} + \dots \\ &= G_F^{(0)} \frac{1}{1 - i\Pi G_F^{(0)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\left(G_F^{(0)}\right)^{-1} - i\Pi} \\ &= \frac{-i}{p^2 + m_0^2 - \Pi(p) - i\epsilon} \end{aligned}$$

where $\Pi(p)$ is the self-energy. We note that Π is, in fact, a function of p^2 only, by Lorentz symmetry. Before evaluating $\Pi(p^2)$ explicitly to lowest order, we make two remarks:

1. The physical mass, the pole of $G_F(p)$, is given by $p^2 + m_0^2 - \Pi(p^2) = 0$. That is, the physical mass m^2 satisfies

$$m^2 - m_0^2 + \Pi(-m^2) = 0 \quad (13)$$

2. The field renormalization Z , the residue of the pole, is given by expanding around the pole to lowest order:

$$\begin{aligned} iG_F(p)|_{p^2 \approx -m^2} &= \frac{1}{p^2 + m^2 - \Pi(-m^2)(p^2 + m^2) - i\epsilon} \\ &= \frac{1}{p^2 + m^2 - i\epsilon} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{d\Pi}{dp^2} \Big|_{p^2 = -m^2}}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and so } Z^{-1} = 1 - \frac{d\Pi}{dp^2} \Big|_{p^2 = -m^2}.$$

We now proceed to evaluate $\Pi(p^2)$ to the lowest order in g :

$$i\Pi(p^2) = \text{diagram} \quad (14)$$


Using our Feynman rules, we have

$$\begin{aligned} i\Pi(p^2) &= \frac{1}{2} (ig)^2 \int \frac{d^d q}{(2\pi)^d} G_F^{(0)}(q) G_F^{(0)}(q+p) \\ &= \frac{g^2}{2} \int \frac{d^d q}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{1}{(q^2 + m_0^2 - i\epsilon)((q+p)^2 + m_0^2 - i\epsilon)}. \end{aligned}$$

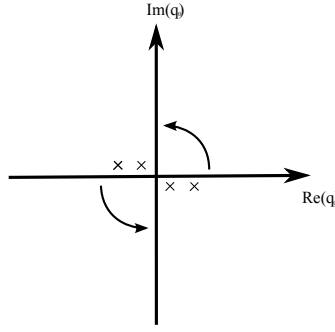
We now evaluate the integral explicitly, using a series of tricks. Firstly, we note the identity, due to Feynman:

$$\frac{1}{a_1 \cdots a_n} = \int_0^1 dx_1 \cdots dx_n \delta(x_1 + \cdots + x_n - 1) (n-1)! (x_1 a_1 + \cdots + x_n a_n)^{-n}. \quad (15)$$

Thus, our integrand can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{(q^2 + m_0^2 - i\epsilon)((q+p)^2 + m_0^2 - i\epsilon)} &= \int_0^1 dx \frac{1}{[x((q+p)^2 + m_0^2) + (1-x)(q^2 + m_0^2)]^2} \\ &= \int_0^1 dx \frac{1}{[(q+xp)^2 + D]^2} \end{aligned}$$

with $D = m_0^2 + x(1-x)p^2$. Next, we perform a Wick rotation. In Lorentzian signature, the integral is not convenient to evaluate, because of the poles near the integration paths. Thus, we rotate the q_0 contour to the imaginary axis along the direction shown in figure 1. So, we let $q_0 = iq_d$, and therefore $q^2 = q_1^2 + \cdots + q_d^2 = q_E^2$, and $\int d^d q = i \int d^d q_E$.

Figure 1: Illustration of the Wick rotation of the variable q_0 .

Combining our two results, we have the self-energy in the form

$$i\Pi(p^2) = \frac{ig^2}{2} \int_0^1 dx \int \frac{d^d q_E}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{1}{(q_E^2 + D)^2}. \quad (16)$$

We now proceed to the final evaluation. We observe that (16) is convergent only for $d < 4$. We may evaluate it for $d < 4$, then analytically continue its value for $d \geq 4$, treating d as a complex variable. We make use of the general formula

$$\int \frac{d^d q_E}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{(q_E)^a}{(q_E + D)^b} = \frac{\Gamma(b - a - \frac{d}{2})\Gamma(a + \frac{d}{2})}{(4\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}\Gamma(b)\Gamma(\frac{d}{2})} D^{-(b-a-\frac{d}{2})}. \quad (17)$$

In this case, we have $b = 2$, $a = 0$. And so,

$$\Pi(p^2) = \frac{g^2}{2} \frac{\Gamma(2 - \frac{d}{2})}{(4\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \int_0^1 dx \frac{1}{(m_0^2 + x(1-x)p^2)^{2-\frac{d}{2}}}. \quad (18)$$

Example 1: d=3

$$\Pi(p^2) = \frac{g^2}{16\pi} \int_0^1 dx \frac{1}{(m_0^2 + x(1-x)p^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}. \quad (19)$$

First, we consider the physical mass to $O(g^2)$. We wish to find the solution to (13). Note that the self-energy is of order g^2 , and so the solution is given to $O(g^2)$ by

$$\begin{aligned} m^2 &= m_0^2 - \Pi(-m_0^2) \\ &= m_0^2 - \frac{g^2}{16\pi} \frac{1}{m_0} \int_0^1 dx \frac{1}{(1-x(1-x))^{\frac{1}{2}}} \\ &= m_0^2 - \frac{g^2}{16\pi m_0} \log 3. \end{aligned}$$

The second term is the mass renormalization due to the interaction, to lowest order. Now, we consider the field renormalization, $Z^{-1} = 1 - \left. \frac{d\Pi}{dp^2} \right|_{p^2=-m^2}$, and note that again, as $\Pi(p^2)$ is of order g^2 , to lowest order we have

$$\begin{aligned} Z^{-1} &= 1 - \left. \frac{d\Pi}{dp^2} \right|_{p^2=-m_0^2} \\ &= 1 - \frac{g^2}{16\pi} \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{1}{m_0^3} \int_0^1 dx \frac{x(1-x)}{(1-x(1-x))^{\frac{3}{2}}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + \frac{0.23g^2}{32\pi m_0^3}} < 1, \end{aligned}$$

where the integral in dx has been evaluated explicitly. Finally, we note that for $-p^2 \geq 4m_0^2$, we have that $m_0^2 + x(1-x)p^2$ is smaller than zero for a range of x between 0 and 1. Therefore, $\Pi(p^2)$ becomes complex. It is convenient to consider

$$\Pi(s) = \frac{g^2}{16\pi} \int_0^1 dx \frac{1}{(m_0^2 - x(1-x)s)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \quad (20)$$

as a function of a complex variable s , with $\Pi(p^2) = \Pi(s = -p^2 + i\epsilon)$. $\Pi(s)$ has a branch point at $s = 4m_0^2$. This is precisely the multiple-particle cut predicted in the general formalism last lecture. Note that $m^2 = m_0^2 + O(g^2)$. We can now understand the physical interpretation of this result:

$$i\Pi(p^2) = \text{---} \circlearrowleft \text{---} \quad (21)$$

to lowest order, and when $-p^2 > 4m_0^2$, both the intermediate particles can simultaneously go on-shell. $\Im(iG_F) = \pi\sigma(-p^2)$ becomes non-zero and $\Im(-p^2)$ is just the Feynman diagram evaluated with both the intermediate particles on shell, giving a factor of $\delta(p^2 + m^2)$ for each propagator.

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