

8.324 Relativistic Quantum Field Theory II

MIT OpenCourseWare Lecture Notes

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Lecture 16

Firstly, we summarize the results of the vertex correction from the previous lecture:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Gamma_1^\mu(k_1, k_2) &\equiv \text{Diagram: A vertex with incoming photon } q \text{ and outgoing fermions } k_1, k_2. \text{ A loop with fermion } l \text{ and photon } \mu \text{ is attached to the vertex.} \\
 &= \gamma^\mu A(q^2) + i(k_1 + k_2)^\mu B(q^2) \\
 &= e\gamma^\mu F_1(q^2) - \frac{\sigma^{\mu\nu} q_\nu F_2(q^2)}{2m},
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where $eF_1 = A + 2mB$ and $eF_2 = -2mB$. We showed that $F_2(0) = -\frac{2m}{e}B(0) = \frac{\alpha}{2\pi} = 0.0011614\dots$, where $\alpha \equiv \frac{e^2}{4\pi} \approx \frac{1}{137}$. The integral for Γ_1^μ is, in fact, infrared divergent. As $l \rightarrow 0$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 (k_1 + l)^2 + m^2 &= k_1^2 + m^2 + 2k_1 \cdot l + l^2 \\
 &= 2k_1 \cdot l + l^2 \rightarrow 0,
 \end{aligned}$$

and so $\Gamma_1 \sim \int d^4l \frac{1}{l^4}$ is divergent. This is due to soft photon interactions, and this effect is in fact cancelled by including the soft emissions:

$$\text{Diagram: A vertex with incoming photon } q \text{ and outgoing fermions } k_1, k_2. \text{ Three diagrams are shown: 1) Loop with fermion } l \text{ and photon } \mu. \text{ 2) Loop with fermion } l \text{ and photon } \mu \text{ and a soft photon emission. 3) Loop with fermion } l \text{ and photon } \mu \text{ and a soft photon emission from the fermion line.} \tag{2}$$

The explanation is that it is only reasonable to calculate measurable cross-sections:

$$\left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \right)_{\text{measured}} = \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \right) (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) + \left(\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \right) (\alpha \rightarrow \beta + \text{soft photons}). \tag{3}$$

The calculation then proceeds by imposing an infrared cut-off λ on the photon momenta. The divergences in the $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ limit cancel among virtual and real soft photon emissions, and we can safely take the $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ limit in the end.

3.4: VACUUM POLARIZATION

We will now evaluate the one-loop correction to the photon propagator, and consider the physical interpretation, recalling the general structure we considered in lecture 12.

3.4.1: One-loop correction

$$\begin{aligned}
 i\Pi^{\mu\nu}(k) &= \text{Diagram: A photon propagator with a shaded circle representing a vacuum polarization insertion.} \\
 &= \text{Diagram: A photon propagator with a fermion loop.} + \text{Diagram: A photon propagator with a fermion loop and a crossed-out diagram.} + \dots \\
 &= (-1)(-ie)^2 \int \frac{d^4q}{(2\pi)^4} \text{tr} (\gamma^\mu S_0(k+q)\gamma^\nu S_0(q)) - i(Z_3 - 1)k^2 P_T^{\mu\nu}
 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

We note that the factor of (-1) at the front comes from the fermionic loop, that the trace is over the omitted spinor indices, and that S_0 is the electron propagator. Having now enough experience with one-loop diagrams, we will omit the details of the calculation and only emphasise the new aspects. Using $S_0(q) = \frac{1}{i\not{q}-m} = -\frac{i\not{q}+m}{q^2+m^2}$, we first introduce the Feynman parameters:

$$\Pi_1^{\mu\nu} = e^2 \int_0^1 dx \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{4N^{\mu\nu}}{(p^2 + D)^2} + \text{counterterm}, \quad (5)$$

with $p \equiv q + xk$, $D \equiv x(1-x)k^2 + m^2 - i\epsilon$, and

$$\begin{aligned} 4N^{\mu\nu} &= \text{tr} [\gamma^\mu (i\not{k} + i\not{q} + m) \gamma^\nu (i\not{q} + m)] \\ &= \text{tr} [\gamma^\mu (i\not{p} + i(1-x)\not{k} + m) \gamma^\nu (i\not{p} - ix\not{k} + m)] \\ &= -\text{tr} [\gamma^\mu \not{p} \gamma^\nu \not{p}] + m^2 \text{tr} [\gamma^\mu \gamma^\nu] + x(1-x) \text{tr} [\gamma^\mu \not{k} \gamma^\nu \not{k}] \\ &\quad + \text{terms linear in } p + \text{terms with an odd number of } \gamma \text{ matrices.} \end{aligned}$$

We note that the trace of a term with an odd number of γ -matrices gives zero, and that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr} [\gamma^\mu \gamma^\nu] &= 4\eta^{\mu\nu}, \\ \text{tr} [\gamma^\mu \gamma^\nu \gamma^\rho \gamma^\sigma] &= 4(\eta^{\mu\nu} \eta^{\rho\sigma} - \eta^{\mu\rho} \eta^{\nu\sigma} + \eta^{\mu\sigma} \eta^{\nu\rho}). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, disregarding irrelevant terms, we can write

$$N^{\mu\nu} = -2p^\mu p^\nu + 2x(1-x)k^\mu k^\nu + (m^2 + p^2 - x(1-x)k^2)\eta^{\mu\nu}. \quad (6)$$

Secondly, we evaluate the integrals, extending to a general dimension d . We note that

$$\int \frac{d^d p}{(2\pi)^d} p^\mu p^\nu f(p^2) = \frac{\eta^{\mu\nu}}{d} \int \frac{d^d p}{(2\pi)^d} p^2 f(p^2), \quad (7)$$

and so

$$i\Pi^{\mu\nu}(k) = 4e^2 \int_0^1 dx \int \frac{d^d p}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{A\eta^{\mu\nu} + p^2(1 - \frac{2}{d})\eta^{\mu\nu} + 2x(1-x)k^\mu k^\nu}{(p^2 + D)^2}, \quad (8)$$

where we have set $A \equiv m^2 - x(1-x)k^2$. We note that the first and third terms in the numerator are logarithmically divergent, and the second term is quadratically divergent. We now apply a Wick rotation $p^0 \rightarrow ip_E^d$, $d^d p \rightarrow id^d p_E$ and $p^2 \rightarrow p_E^2$. We recall that

$$\int \frac{d^d p_E}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{(p_E^2)^a}{(p_E^2 + D)^b} = \frac{\Gamma(b - a - \frac{d}{2})\Gamma(a + \frac{d}{2})}{(4\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} \Gamma(b)\Gamma(\frac{d}{2})} D^{-(b-a-\frac{d}{2})}, \quad (9)$$

and so

$$(1 - \frac{2}{d}) \int \frac{d^d p_E}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{p_E^2}{(p_E^2 + D)^2} = -D \int \frac{d^d p_E}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{1}{(p_E^2 + D)^2}. \quad (10)$$

Hence, the numerator of (8) can be replaced by

$$(A - D)\eta^{\mu\nu} + 2x(1-x)k^\mu k^\nu. \quad (11)$$

The transverse component, therefore, is given by

$$-2x(1-x)k^2 P_T^{\mu\nu}, \quad (12)$$

and we can write

$$\begin{aligned} i\Pi^{\mu\nu}(k) &= -8ie^2 k^2 P_T^{\mu\nu}(k) \int_0^1 dx \int \frac{d^d p_E}{(2\pi)^d} \frac{1}{(p_E^2 + D)^2} - i(Z_3 - 1)k^2 P_T^{\mu\nu} \\ &= -8ie^2 k^2 P_T^{\mu\nu}(k) \frac{\Gamma(2 - \frac{d}{2})}{(4\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}} \int_0^1 dx \frac{x(1-x)}{D^{2-\frac{d}{2}}} - i(Z_3 - 1)k^2 P_T^{\mu\nu}. \end{aligned}$$

Thirdly, we use dimensional regularization, setting $d = 4 - \epsilon$, $e \rightarrow e\mu^{\frac{\epsilon}{2}}$,

$$i\Pi^{\mu\nu}(k) = \frac{-8ie^2k^2P_T^{\mu\nu}(k)}{16\pi^2} \int_0^1 dx x(1-x) \left[\frac{2}{\epsilon} - \gamma + \log\left(\frac{4\pi\mu^2}{D}\right) \right] - i(Z_3 - 1)k^2P_T^{\mu\nu}, \quad (13)$$

and so

$$\Pi^{\mu\nu}(k) = k^2P_T^{\mu\nu}\Pi(k^2), \quad (14)$$

with

$$\Pi(k^2) = -\frac{e^2}{\pi^2} \int_0^1 dx x(1-x) \frac{1}{\epsilon} - \frac{1}{2} \log\left(\frac{D}{4\pi\mu^2e^{-\gamma}}\right) - (Z_3 - 1). \quad (15)$$

The physical field condition constrains that $\Pi(k^2 = 0) = 0$, and so Z_3 is fixed by

$$Z_3 = 1 - \frac{e^2}{6\pi^2} \frac{1}{\epsilon} - \frac{1}{2} \log\left(\frac{m^2}{4\pi\mu^2e^{-\gamma}}\right) \quad (16)$$

and the final result for $\Pi(k^2)$ is

$$\Pi(k^2) = \frac{e^2}{2\pi^2} \int_0^1 dx x(1-x) \log\left(1 + \frac{k^2x(1-x)}{m^2}\right) \quad (17)$$

Remarks:

1. For $k^2 < -4m^2$, $\Pi(k^2)$ becomes complex.
2. For more than one charged particle, we must add their respective contributions, and the smallest m contributes most.
3. The internal propagator is given by

$$\begin{aligned} e^2D^{\mu\nu}(q) &\rightarrow \frac{-ie^2}{q^2 - i\epsilon} \frac{\eta^{\mu\nu}}{1 - \Pi(q^2)} \\ &= \frac{-ie^2\eta^{\mu\nu}}{q^2 - i\epsilon} (1 + \Pi(q^2) + \dots). \end{aligned}$$

We see that for $q^2 \gg m^2$, a large spacelike momentum, from (17) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi(q^2) &\approx \frac{e^2}{2\pi^2} \log\frac{q^2}{m^2} \int_0^1 dx x(1-x) \\ &= \frac{\alpha}{3\pi} \log\frac{q^2}{m^2}, \end{aligned}$$

where $\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi}$. Then, the internal propagator goes as

$$\frac{e^2}{q^2 - i\epsilon} \rightarrow \frac{e^2}{1 - \Pi(q^2)} \frac{1}{q^2 - i\epsilon} \equiv \frac{e^2(q)}{q^2 - i\epsilon}, \quad (18)$$

with $e^2(q) = \frac{e^2}{1 - \frac{\alpha}{3\pi} \log\frac{q^2}{m^2}}$ the running coupling constant.

3.4.2: Physical implication

Consider scattering of two charged particles with coupling constants e_1 and e_2 , for example, in the process $e^- + \mu^- \rightarrow e^- + \mu^-$:

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{ccc} 1' & & 2' \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ e_1 & \text{---} & e_2 \\ \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ 1 & & 2 \end{array} & + & \begin{array}{ccc} 1' & & 2' \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ e_1 & \text{---} & e_2 \\ \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ 1 & & 2 \end{array} & + \dots \end{array} \quad (19)$$

to lowest order, where e is the coupling constant associated with the lightest intermediate particle.

$$S(1, 2 \longrightarrow 1', 2') = (-ie)^2 \bar{u}_{1'}(p_1') \gamma^\mu u_1(p_1) D_{\mu\nu}(q) \bar{u}_{2'}(p_2') \gamma^\nu u_2(p_2),$$

where

$$D_{\mu\nu}(q) = \frac{-i}{q^2 - i\epsilon} \frac{P_{\mu\nu}^T(q)}{1 - \Pi(q^2)} + D_{\mu\nu}^L(q), \quad (20)$$

and $P_{\mu\nu}^T = \eta_{\mu\nu} - \frac{q_\mu q_\nu}{q^2}$, $q = p_1' - p_1 = p_2' - p_2$. Note that $\bar{u}_{2'}(p_2') \gamma^\nu u_2(p_2) q_\nu = \bar{u}_{2'}(p_2') (\not{p}_2' - \not{p}_2) u_2(p_2) = 0$. We now want to consider corrections to the Coulomb potential. We consider the low energy, non-relativistic limit, where we derive most of our intuition about electromagnetism from, and where the notion of a potential makes most sense. The lowest two diagrams drawn above correspond to

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Tree-level diagram: } e_{1,\mu} \text{ and } e_{2,\nu} \text{ vertices connected by a photon line with momentum } q. \quad = \frac{e_1 e_2}{q^2} \eta_{\mu\nu}, \\
 & \text{One-loop diagram: } e_{1,\mu} \text{ and } e_{2,\nu} \text{ vertices connected by a photon line, with a fermion loop (circle) on the photon line.} \quad = \frac{e_1 e_2}{q^2} \Pi(q^2) \eta_{\mu\nu}.
 \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

In the non-relativistic limit,

$$|q^0| \sim |v\vec{q}| \ll |\vec{q}|, \quad q^2 \approx \vec{q}^2. \quad (22)$$

In this case, one-photon exchange corresponds to the Born approximation:

$$\frac{e_1 e_2}{q^2} = \int d^3 \vec{r} e^{-i\vec{q}\cdot\vec{r}} V_0(\vec{r}), \quad (23)$$

where $V_0(\vec{r}) = \frac{e_1 e_2}{4\pi|\vec{r}|}$ is the Coulomb potential. The one-loop correction is given by $\frac{e_1 e_2}{q^2} \Pi(\vec{q}^2)$, where, from (17)

$$\Pi(\vec{q}^2) = \frac{e^2}{2\pi^2} \int_0^1 dx x(1-x) \log \left(1 + \frac{\vec{q}^2}{m^2} x(1-x) \right), \quad (24)$$

and the term provides a correction to the Coulomb potential

$$\delta V(\vec{r}) = e_1 e_2 \int d^3 \vec{r} e^{-i\vec{q}\cdot\vec{r}} \frac{\Pi(\vec{q}^2)}{q^2}. \quad (25)$$

From now on, we will for convenience write $q \equiv |\vec{q}|$, $r \equiv \|\vec{r}\|$. The angular integral is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \frac{2\pi}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\pi d\theta \sin \theta e^{iqr \cos \theta} \\
 & = \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \frac{1}{iqr} (e^{iqr} - e^{-iqr}),
 \end{aligned}$$

and so we find for the correction to the Coulomb potential

$$\begin{aligned}
 \delta V(\vec{r}) & = \frac{e_1 e_2}{4\pi^2} \int_0^\infty dq \frac{1}{iqr} (e^{iqr} - e^{-iqr}) \Pi(\vec{q}^2) \\
 & = \frac{e_1 e_2}{4\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^\infty dq \frac{1}{iqr} e^{iqr} \Pi(\vec{q}^2).
 \end{aligned}$$

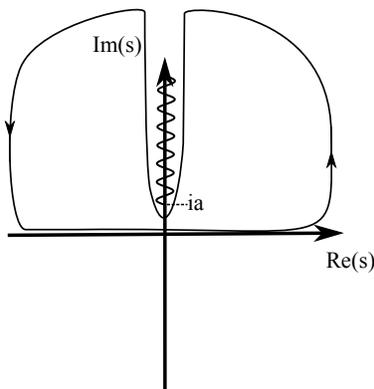


Figure 1: Clockwise contour for the integral in dz in (26). The semi-circular arc is taken to infinity and gives a vanishing contribution.

If we now let $z \equiv qr$, $a \equiv \frac{mr}{\sqrt{x(1-x)}} \geq 2mr$, the result reduces to

$$\delta V(\vec{r}) = \frac{e_1 e_2 e^2}{8\pi^4 i r} \int_0^1 dx x(1-x) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz \frac{e^{iz}}{z} \log\left(1 + \frac{z^2}{a^2}\right). \quad (26)$$

The integral in dz , $I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz \frac{e^{iz}}{z} \log\left(1 + \frac{z^2}{a^2}\right)$, can be computed using the complex contour shown in figure 1, giving

$$\begin{aligned} I &= 2 \int_a^{\infty} d\lambda \frac{e^{-\lambda}}{\lambda} i\pi \\ &= 2i\pi \int_1^{\infty} d\lambda \frac{e^{-a\lambda}}{\lambda} \end{aligned}$$

after setting $\lambda \rightarrow a\lambda$. So, our result for the correction to the Coulomb potential is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \delta V(\vec{r}) &= \frac{e_1 e_2 e^2}{4\pi \pi^2} \int_0^1 dx x(1-x) \int_1^{\infty} \frac{d\lambda}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda \frac{mr}{\sqrt{x(1-x)}}} \\ &\equiv \frac{e_1 e_2}{4\pi} Z(mr) \end{aligned}$$

Remarks:

1. When $mr \gg 1$, we can evaluate the integral in the saddle-point approximation, using integration by parts,

$$\delta V(r) = \frac{e_1 e_2}{4\pi} \frac{e^2}{16\pi^{\frac{3}{2}}} \frac{e^{-2mr}}{(mr)^{\frac{3}{2}}} + \dots \quad (27)$$

2. $Z(mr)$ increases with decreasing r . As $r \rightarrow 0$, $I(r) \rightarrow \infty$. If we consider putting a short-distance cut off at $mr = \epsilon \ll 1$, we find

$$Z(\epsilon) = \frac{e^2}{6\pi^2} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} + \dots, \quad (28)$$

and thus

$$\begin{aligned} V(r) &= V_0 + \delta V(r) \\ &= \frac{e_1 e_2}{4\pi r} (1 + Z(mr)) \\ &= \frac{\tilde{e}_1(r) \tilde{e}_2(r)}{4\pi r}, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\tilde{e}_i(r) = e_i (1 + Z(mr))^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (29)$$

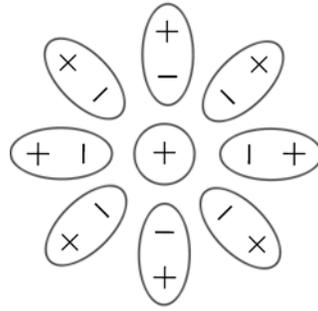


Figure 2: Virtual electron-positron pairs form a screening effect.

We observe that $\tilde{e}_i(r) \rightarrow \infty$ as $r \rightarrow 0$, and $\tilde{e}_i(r) \rightarrow e_i$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$, with small experimental corrections. Physically, we can view $\tilde{e}_i(r = \epsilon)$ as the bare charge, which is very large. The physical interpretation is that virtual electron-positron pairs screen the charge more at large distances. The screening length is given by $r_s \sim \frac{1}{2m}$. That is, there is a negative cloud of size $\frac{1}{2m}$. At large distances, the charges scale as $e_i \sim e^{-2mr}$.

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