

# 8.324 Relativistic Quantum Field Theory II

MIT OpenCourseWare Lecture Notes

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## Lecture 26

### 5.3.3: Beta-Functions of Quantum Electrodynamics

In the case of quantum electrodynamics, we have the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4}F_{\mu\nu}^B F_B^{\mu\nu} - i\bar{\psi}_B (\gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu - ie_B A_\mu^B) - m_B) \psi_B, \quad (1)$$

with  $\psi_B = Z_2^{\frac{1}{2}} \psi$ ,  $A_\mu^B = Z_3^{\frac{1}{2}} A_\mu$ ,  $m_B = m + \delta m$ , and  $e_B = Z_3^{-\frac{1}{2}} e \mu^{\frac{\epsilon}{2}}$  or  $\alpha_B = Z_3^{-1} \alpha \mu^\epsilon$ , where  $\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi}$ . From our earlier result that  $Z_3 = 1 - \frac{2\alpha}{3\pi} \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ , we have

$$\alpha_B = \mu^\epsilon \left[ \alpha + \frac{2\alpha^2}{3\pi} \frac{1}{\epsilon} + \dots \right], \quad (2)$$

and

$$\beta_\alpha = -\frac{2\alpha^2}{3\pi} + \frac{4\alpha^2}{3\pi} = \frac{2\alpha^2}{3\pi} + O(\alpha^3). \quad (3)$$

Hence, the running of  $\alpha(\mu)$  is given by

$$\frac{1}{\alpha(\mu)} = \frac{1}{\alpha(\mu_0)} - \frac{2}{3\pi} \log \frac{\mu}{\mu_0}, \quad (4)$$

or, equivalently,

$$\alpha(\mu) = \frac{\alpha_0}{1 - \frac{2\alpha_0}{3\pi} \log \frac{\mu}{\mu_0}}. \quad (5)$$

In quantum electrodynamics,  $\alpha(\mu)$  increases as  $\mu$  is increased, and  $\alpha(\mu)$  decreases as  $\mu$  decreases. In particular,

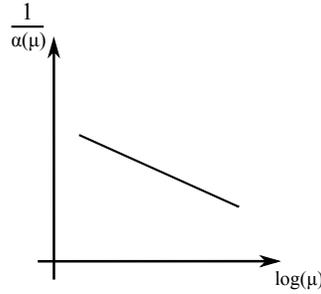


Figure 1: We find a linear relationship between  $\alpha^{-1}(\mu)$  and  $\log(\mu)$  with a negative gradient for quantum electrodynamics.

the Landau pole at  $\alpha(\mu) \rightarrow \infty$  is given by

$$\mu = \Lambda \equiv \mu_0 e^{\frac{3\pi}{2\alpha_0}}, \quad (6)$$

independently of the choice of  $\mu_0$ . Quantum electrodynamics becomes strongly coupled near the scale  $\Lambda$ . It is convenient to express  $\alpha(\mu)$  in terms of the physical  $\alpha_{phys} \approx \frac{1}{137}$  which we measure. Consider

$$\text{Diagram: } \begin{array}{c} \text{Two incoming fermion lines (arrows pointing right) and two outgoing fermion lines (arrows pointing left) meet at a central shaded circular loop. The loop is labeled with momentum } k. \end{array} \propto \frac{1}{k^2} \frac{e^2(\mu)}{1 - \Pi(k^2)}. \quad (7)$$

At the one-loop level,

$$\Pi(k^2) = -\frac{e^2(\mu)}{\pi^2} \int_0^1 dx x(1-x) \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon} - \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{D}{\tilde{\mu}^2} \right) \right) - (Z_3 - 1), \quad (8)$$

where  $\tilde{\mu}^2 \equiv \frac{4\pi\mu^2}{e^{\gamma}}$ ,  $D \equiv m^2 + x(1-x)k^2$  and  $m^2 = m_e^2 + O(\alpha)$ , where  $m_e$  is the physical electron mass. It is convenient to introduce

$$\hat{\alpha}(k) \equiv \frac{\alpha(\mu)}{1 - \Pi(k^2)} = \frac{\alpha_B}{1 - \Pi_B(k^2)}. \quad (9)$$

Note that this quantity is finite, although the numerator and denominator of the last term are divergent.  $\hat{\alpha}(k)$  is an effective  $k$ -dependent coupling. In particular,

$$\alpha_e = \hat{\alpha}(k=0) \approx \frac{1}{137}. \quad (10)$$

Now,

$$\Pi_{\overline{MS}}(k^2) = \frac{2\alpha(m)}{\pi} \int_0^1 dx x(1-x) \log \frac{D}{\mu^2}, \quad (11)$$

and so

$$\Pi_{\overline{MS}}(k^2=0) = \frac{e^2(\mu)}{6\pi^2} \log \frac{m_e}{\mu} = \frac{2\alpha(\mu)}{3\pi} \log \frac{m_e}{\mu}. \quad (12)$$

We therefore have

$$\alpha_e = \frac{\alpha(\mu)}{1 - \frac{2\alpha(\mu)}{3\pi} \log \frac{m_e}{\mu}}. \quad (13)$$

We can compare this to

$$\alpha(\mu') = \frac{\alpha(\mu)}{1 - \frac{2\alpha(\mu)}{3\pi} \log \frac{\mu'}{\mu}}, \quad (14)$$

and we find

$$\alpha_e = \alpha(\mu = m_e). \quad (15)$$

Therefore, in the  $\overline{MS}$  scheme,

$$\alpha(\mu) = \frac{\alpha_e}{1 - \frac{2\alpha_e}{3\pi} \log \frac{\mu}{m_e}}, \quad (16)$$

and the Landau pole occurs at  $\Lambda = m_e e^{\frac{3\pi}{2\alpha_e}} \approx m_e e^{5 \times 137}$ . We now consider  $\hat{\alpha}(k) = \frac{\alpha(\mu_0)}{1 - \Pi_{\overline{MS}}(k^2)}$ :

1. For  $k^2 \gg m_e^2$ ,  $D \sim x(1-x)k^2$ , and so

$$\Pi_{\overline{MS}}(k^2) = \frac{\alpha(\mu_0)}{3\pi} \log \frac{k^2}{\mu_0^2} + \dots \quad (17)$$

Therefore,

$$\hat{\alpha}(k) = \frac{\alpha(\mu_0)}{1 - \frac{2\alpha(\mu_0)}{3\pi} \log \frac{k}{\mu_0}} + \dots, \quad (18)$$

and so  $\hat{\alpha}(k) \approx \alpha(\mu)$  for  $\mu \approx k$ . Note that this is scheme-independent: in any scheme for  $\mu \gg m_e$ ,  $\alpha(\mu) \approx \hat{\alpha}(\mu)$ .

2. When  $k^2 \ll m_e^2$ , we have  $\hat{\alpha}(k) \approx \alpha_e$ , but  $\alpha(\mu) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\frac{\mu}{m_e} \rightarrow 0$ . For  $\mu < m_e$ ,  $\alpha(\mu)$  differs qualitatively from the physical coupling. Physically,  $m_e$  becomes important, but that is not tracked by the MS or

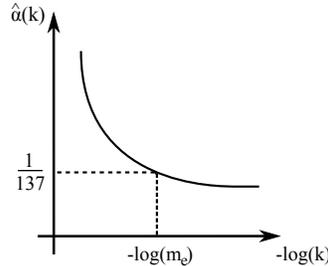


Figure 2:  $\hat{\alpha}(k)$  as a function of  $\log \frac{1}{k}$ . At the scale of  $k \sim m_e$ , we have  $\hat{\alpha}(m_e) \sim \frac{1}{137}$ .

$\overline{\text{MS}}$  schemes:  $\alpha(\mu)$  is no different for a theory with  $m_e = 0$ . It is more transparent to understand the behaviour of  $\hat{\alpha}(k)$  using the Wilsonian approach. The coupling in the Wilsonian action, by definition, should track  $\hat{\alpha}(k)$  closely.

Below the scale of  $m_e$ , the electron becomes heavy, and we can then integrate it out, leaving a pure Maxwell theory, in which the coupling constant does not run.

3. For massless quantum electrodynamics, with  $m_e = 0$ ,  $\alpha(\mu)$  is qualitatively correct for  $\mu \rightarrow 0$ . We then find that  $\alpha_{eff}(k) \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow 0$ : The theory is marginally irrelevant.

### 5.3.4: Beta-Function of Quantum Chromodynamics

The Lagrangian of quantum chromodynamics, with an  $SU(N_c)$  gauge group and  $N_f$  quarks, where  $N_c = 3$  and  $N_f = 6$ , is given by

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4} \text{Tr} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} - i \sum_{j=1}^{N_f} \bar{\psi}_j (\gamma^\mu D_\mu - m_j) \psi_j, \quad (19)$$

with

$$F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu - ig [A_\mu, A_\nu],$$

$A_\mu = A_\mu^a t^a$ ,  $F_{\mu\nu} = F_{\mu\nu}^a t^a$ , where  $t^a$  are the generators of the fundamental representation of  $SU(N_c)$ . The covariant derivative is given by

$$D_\mu \psi_j = \partial_\mu \psi_j - ig A_\mu \psi_j. \quad (20)$$

We redefine  $A_\mu \rightarrow \frac{1}{g} A_\mu$ , and so the Lagrangian becomes

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4g^2} \text{Tr} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} - i \sum_{j=1}^{N_f} \bar{\psi}_j (\gamma^\mu D_\mu - m_j) \psi_j, \quad (21)$$

with

$$D_\mu \psi_j = \partial_\mu \psi_j - i A_\mu \psi_j. \quad (22)$$

We will outline the computation of the  $\beta$ -function for the pure gauge theory using the language of the Wilsonian approach, in the Euclidean case. Consider that the theory is provided with a cut off  $\Lambda$ , and bare coupling  $g = g(\Lambda)$ . We now write

$$A_\mu = A_\mu^{(\Lambda')} + \tilde{A}_\mu, \quad (23)$$

where  $A_\mu^{(\Lambda')}$  is the part below the scale  $\Lambda'$ , and  $\tilde{A}_\mu$  is the high-energy part, above the scale  $\Lambda'$ . Then we have

$$S_{YM}[A_\mu] = S_{YM}[A_\mu^{(\Lambda')}] + S_1[A_\mu^{(\Lambda')}, \tilde{A}_\mu], \quad (24)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \int \mathcal{D}A_\mu e^{-S[A_\mu]} &= \int \mathcal{D}A_\mu^{(\Lambda')} e^{-S[A_\mu^{(\Lambda')}] } \int \mathcal{D}\tilde{A}_\mu e^{-S_1[A_\mu^{(\Lambda')}, \tilde{A}_\mu]} \\ &= \int \mathcal{D}A_\mu^{(\Lambda')} e^{-S[A_\mu^{(\Lambda')}] - \Delta S[A_\mu^{(\Lambda')}]}. \end{aligned}$$

We take the derivative expansion of  $\Delta S$ ,

$$\Delta S \approx c \log \frac{\Lambda}{\Lambda'} \int d^4x F_\Lambda^2 + \dots, \quad (25)$$

giving

$$\frac{1}{g^2(\Lambda')} = \frac{1}{g^2(\Lambda)} + c' \log \frac{\Lambda}{\Lambda'}, \quad (26)$$

where  $c$  is a pure  $g$ -independent number. A precise calculation gives  $c = -\frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} \frac{22}{3} N_C$ . So, for the  $\beta$ -function, we find

$$\beta_g = -\frac{g^3}{(4\pi)^2} \left( \frac{11}{3} N_C - \frac{2}{3} N_F \right). \quad (27)$$

Considering the fermionic sector, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int \mathcal{D}\bar{\psi} \mathcal{D}\psi e^{-\int d^d x \bar{\psi} (\not{D}_{\Lambda'} - m) \psi + \dots} &\propto \det(\not{D}_{\Lambda'} - m) \\ &= e^{\log \det(\not{D}_{\Lambda'} - m)}. \end{aligned}$$

If we define  $\alpha_s = \frac{g^2}{4\pi}$ , we find

$$\beta_\alpha = -\frac{\alpha^2}{2\pi} \left( \frac{11}{3} N_C - \frac{2}{3} N_F \right) = -b\alpha^2, \quad (28)$$

as we found in the  $g\phi^3$  theory. So, we have

$$\frac{1}{\alpha_s(\mu)} - \frac{1}{\alpha_s(\mu')} = b \log \frac{\mu}{\mu'}, \quad (29)$$

and hence

$$\alpha_s(\mu) = \frac{\alpha_s(\mu_0)}{1 + \alpha_s(\mu_0) b \log \frac{\mu}{\mu_0}}. \quad (30)$$

The Landau pole occurs at

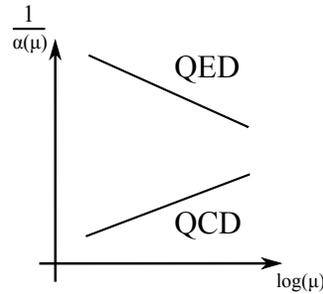


Figure 3:  $\alpha^{-1}$  scales linearly with  $\log(\mu)$  with a positive gradient in quantum chromodynamics, as with the  $g\phi^3$  theory.

$$\alpha_s(\mu_0) b \log \frac{\Lambda_{QCD}}{\mu_0} = -1, \quad (31)$$

and so

$$\Lambda_{QCD} = \mu_0 e^{-\frac{1}{b\alpha_s(\mu_0)}} \approx 250 \text{ MeV}, \quad (32)$$

independently of our choice of  $\mu_0$ . Finally, we put our coupling constant in the form

$$\alpha_s(\mu) = \frac{1}{b \log \frac{\mu}{\Lambda_{QCD}}}. \quad (33)$$

Near  $\Lambda_{QCD}$ , quantum chromodynamics becomes strongly coupled. The form of this coupling leads to many interesting phenomena, including confinement, and chiral symmetry breaking:  $\langle \bar{U}_L U_R \rangle \neq 0$ .

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