

Feynman rules in momentum space

Feynman rules are more natural in the momentum space

$$\Delta(x' - x'') = \int \frac{d^D p}{(2\pi)^D} \frac{e^{i p \cdot (x' - x'')}}{p^2 + m^2}$$

Define the Fourier transform of Green's functions:

$$\int G^{(N)}(y_1, \dots, y_N)_c e^{i(p_1 y_1 + \dots + p_N y_N)} d^D y_1 \dots d^D y_N$$

$$\equiv \tilde{G}^{(N)}(p_1, \dots, p_N)_c (2\pi)^D \delta^{(D)}(p_1 + \dots + p_N)$$

↑ must be here since $G^{(N)}$ depends only on differences of points positions

• Then for each internal vertex:

$$\int d^D x_j e^{i(\sum_k p_{kj}) x_j} = (2\pi)^D \delta^{(D)}(\sum_k p_{kj})$$

→ momentum is conserved at each vertex.

Feynman rules

1. Draw all topologically distinct connected diagrams with N external lines and each internal vertex attached to 4 lines.

2. Assign momenta flowing along each line so that the external lines have momenta $\{p_j\}$ and the momentum is conserved at each vertex

3. To each vertex associate a factor $-i$

$$\frac{[-i]}{[p^2 - m^2 + i\epsilon]}$$

4. To each line associate a factor $(p^2 + m^2)^{-1}$

5. Integrate over remaining loop momenta $\prod_j \frac{d^D p_j}{(2\pi)^D}$

6. Multiply by the symmetry factor $\frac{1}{\text{integer}}$

Feynman rules for other QFT's

- All Feynman rules are based on building blocks: propagators and vertices

- Example: complex scalar field

$$\mathcal{L} = (\partial_\mu \phi^\dagger)(\partial^\mu \phi) + m^2 \phi^\dagger \phi + \frac{\lambda}{4} (\phi^\dagger \phi)^2$$

- Propagators:

$$\langle \phi(x_1) \phi^\dagger(x_2) \rangle_0 = \int \frac{d^D p}{(2\pi)^D} \frac{e^{ip(x_1-x_2)}}{p^2 + m^2} = \Delta(x_1-x_2)$$

$$\langle \phi(x_1) \phi(x_2) \rangle_0 = \langle \phi^\dagger(x_1) \phi^\dagger(x_2) \rangle_0 = 0$$

↑ can be traced back to the $U(1)$ symmetry of the action
 $\phi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \phi$, $\phi^\dagger \rightarrow e^{-i\alpha} \phi^\dagger$

In Minkowski space $\langle \phi(x_1) \phi^\dagger(x_2) \rangle$ describes the propagation of a particle if $t_1 < t_2$ or of an antiparticle if $t_1 > t_2$.

- Feynman diagrammatics:

$$\langle \phi(x_1) \phi^\dagger(x_2) \rangle_0 = \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{x_1} \quad \xrightarrow{x_2} \end{array}$$

- There are different symmetry factors for this theory:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Diagram with 3 lines meeting at a vertex} \end{array} \rightarrow S_G = 1 \quad (\text{instead of } \frac{1}{2} \text{ for } \text{real} \text{ scalar field})$$

- Theories with different vertices:

$$\phi^3 : \begin{array}{c} \text{Y-shaped vertex} \end{array}$$

$$\phi^6 : \begin{array}{c} \text{Six-point vertex} \end{array}$$

Evaluation of Feynman diagrams

- In general a difficult task - not always possible analytically. The complication grows with the loop level.
- Useful tools for Feynman integrals:

- Feynman parametrization:

$$\frac{1}{a_1 \dots a_n} = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_{\{x_j \geq 0\}} \prod_{j=1}^n dx_j \frac{\delta(x_1 + \dots + x_n - 1)}{(x_1 a_1 + \dots + x_n a_n)^n}$$

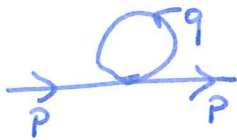
- Schwinger parametrization

$$\frac{1}{a^n} = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_0^\infty du u^{n-1} e^{-ua}$$

- Momentum integrals:

$$\int \prod_{i=1}^D dp_i e^{-u \sum_{i=1}^D p_i^2} = \left(\frac{\pi}{u}\right)^{D/2}$$

• Example: one-loop two-point function



Using Feynman rules it evaluates to:

$$-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{(p^2 + m^2)^2} \underbrace{\int \frac{d^D q}{(2\pi)^D} \frac{1}{q^2 + m^2}}_{I_2}$$

• There are many ways to evaluate I_2 , e.g.

$$(q^2 + m^2)^{-1} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u(q^2 + m^2)} du$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} I_2 &= \int_0^{\infty} du \int \frac{d^D q}{(2\pi)^D} e^{-u(q^2 + m^2)} \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} du \frac{\pi^{D/2}}{(2\pi)^D} u^{-D/2} e^{-um^2} \end{aligned}$$

After the change of variable : $u \rightarrow um^{-2}$

$$I_2 = \frac{\pi^{D/2}}{(2\pi)^D} \Gamma(1 - D/2) m^{D-2}$$

where

$$\Gamma(t) \equiv \int_0^{\infty} x^{t-1} e^{-x} dx, \quad \Gamma(n) = (n-1)! \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Then, up to one-loop:

$$\tilde{G}^{(2)}(p) = \frac{1}{(p^2 + m^2)} + \frac{-1}{2} \frac{1}{(p^2 + m^2)^2} \frac{\pi^{D/2}}{(2\pi)^D} \Gamma(1 - D/2) m^{D-2}$$

• The answer we found makes sense for non-integer values of D as well as for integer D smaller than 2.

It reflects the fact that the integral

$$\int \frac{d^D p}{p^2} \text{ converges only for } D < 2.$$

For $D > 2$ this integral is divergent and this kind of divergence is called UV divergence \rightarrow it comes from the region where p is large (equivalently, when the distance between points is small)

• Ways to regulate UV divergencies:

- introduce a cut-off Λ and integrate only over the region

$$|p| < \Lambda$$

In the lattice field theory: $\Lambda \sim a^{-1}$

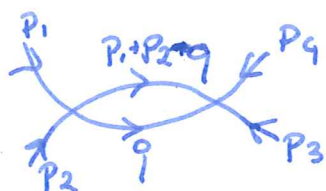
In two dimensions (at the boundary of convergence) the behavior is logarithmic in Λ (critical dimension)

$$I_2 \stackrel{D=2}{\sim} \frac{1}{2\pi} \log \frac{\Lambda}{m}$$

- dimensional regularization:

Evaluate the integral for $D < 2$ and analytically continue the result

• Example: one-loop four-point function



with $p_1 + p_2 + p_3 + p_4 = 0$

It evaluates to:

$$\frac{(-\lambda)^2}{2} \prod_{j=1}^4 \frac{1}{p_j^2 + m^2} \underbrace{\int \frac{d^D q}{(2\pi)^D} \frac{1}{(q^2 + m^2) ((q - p_1 + p_2)^2 + m^2)}}_{I_4}$$

Using Feynman parametrization

$$I_4 = \int_0^1 dx \int \frac{d^D q}{(2\pi)^D} \frac{1}{(x(q^2 + m^2) + (1-x)((q - p_1 + p_2)^2 + m^2))^2}$$

• The denominator:

$$q^2 - 2(1-x)(p_1+p_2) \cdot q + (1-x)(p_1+p_2)^2 + m^2$$

$$= (q')^2 + x(1-x)(p_1+p_2)^2 + m^2 \quad \text{with } q' = q - (1-x)(p_1+p_2)$$

Then:

$$I_4 = \int_0^1 dx \int \frac{d^D q'}{(2\pi)^D} \frac{1}{[(q')^2 + x(1-x)(p_1+p_2)^2 + m^2]^2}$$

$$= \int_0^1 dx \int_0^\infty du u e^{-u(x(1-x)(p_1+p_2)^2 + m^2)} \int \frac{d^D q'}{(2\pi)^D} e^{-u(q')^2}$$

$$= \frac{\pi^{D/2}}{(2\pi)^D} \int_0^\infty du u^{1-D/2} e^{-u} \int_0^1 (x(1-x)(p_1+p_2)^2 + m^2)^{D/2-2} dx$$

$$= \frac{\pi^{D/2}}{(2\pi)^D} \Gamma(2 - \frac{D}{2}) \int_0^1 (x(1-x)(p_1+p_2)^2 + m^2)^{D/2-2} dx$$

First pole is at
 $D = 4$.

can be done numerically.
 It is finite!


Renormalization

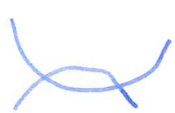
So far:

- we study correlators in perturbation theory:

$$\tilde{G}^{(N)}(p_1, \dots, p_N) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda^n \tilde{G}_n^{(N)}(p_1, \dots, p_N)$$

- for each N and n we have that $\tilde{G}_n^{(N)}(p_1, \dots, p_N)$ is a sum of integrals associated to connected Feynman diagrams with N external and n internal vertices
- in four dimensions some of these integrals diverge:

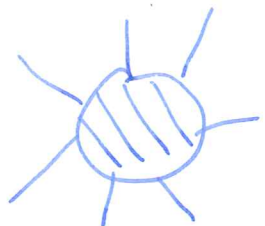
- $N=2$:  $\approx \int_{|q| \leq \Lambda} \frac{d^4 q}{q^2} \sim \Lambda^2 + p^2 \log \Lambda + \text{finite}$

- $N=4$:  $\approx \int_{|q| \leq \Lambda} \frac{d^4 q}{q^4} \sim \log \Lambda + \text{finite}$

- in general (for $D=4$)

 $\sim \Lambda^2 + p^2 \log \Lambda + \text{finite}$

 $\sim \log \Lambda + \text{finite}$

 $\sim \text{finite for } N > 4$

- General statement: most Feynman integrals are UV divergent for large enough D .

However: the perturbative expansion is written in powers of a quantity λ which is not directly measurable!

→ there is no physical requirement for the coefficients in the expansion to be well-defined.

- The renormalization procedure attempts to make sense from this nonsense.

• General strategy:

- ① Relabel the fields $\phi \rightarrow \phi_0$ and the parameters

$$m \rightarrow m_0, \lambda \rightarrow \lambda_0$$

Similar for correlators: $G^{(N)} \rightarrow G_0^{(N)}$ (not to be confused with the free theory)

- ② Understand exactly where the divergences occur
- ③ Regularize the theory (make all Feynman integrals finite), e.g. cut off $|p| < \Lambda$ or dimensional regularization
- ④ Decide which quantities are physically measurable and compute them as a power series in bare parameter λ_0

Example.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} m & \xrightarrow{\lambda_0 \rightarrow 0} & m_0 \\ \lambda & \xrightarrow{\lambda_0 \rightarrow 0} & \lambda_0 \end{array}$$