

# 8 POWER COUNTING, DIVERGENCIES AND RENORMALIZABILITY

→ On one hand, we need to renormalize the fields. On the other one, we saw that some quantum corrections are divergent. To address this issue, we make the following statement.

DEF | The physical, renormalized quantities are always finite. The bare quantities might diverge.


↳ The bare quantities were already diverging, in a compensating way. In any case, we only measure the physical quantities.


→ We will be concerned here only with UV divergences, i.e. those arising for large momenta  $|k| \rightarrow \infty$ . In the presence of massless particles, there can be also IR divergences at  $|k| \rightarrow 0$ .


→ Since we need to absorb divergencies of a QFT in its bare parameters of the Lagrangian, there is only a finite number of divergencies that can be treated in this way  $\Rightarrow$  some QFT will be renormalizable, and some not.

## 8.1 Example: $\lambda\phi^4$ theory

→ In the  $\lambda\phi^4$  theory, we encountered different types of divergences.

1) 2-pt function:   $\sim \lambda \int d^4k \, 1/k^2 \sim \lambda \Lambda^2$  : quadratic  
↳ 1 loop, 1 internal propagator (with limit  $|k| \gg |p|, m$ , i.e. UV)

2) 4-pt function:   $\sim \lambda^2 \int d^4k \, 1/(k^2)^2 \sim \lambda^2 \log \Lambda^2$   
log-divergence

3) 6-pt function:   $\sim \lambda^3 \int d^4k \, 1/(k^2)^3 \sim \lambda^3 \frac{1}{m^2}$  : finite!

→ This theory, at 1-loop, has only divergencies for  $\langle\phi^2\rangle$  and  $\langle\phi^4\rangle$ !

## 8.2 Powercounting

→ In a more systematic way, we consider a  $\lambda\phi^n$  interaction in  $d$  dimension:

$$S = \int d^d x \left\{ \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \phi)^2 - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2 - \frac{\lambda}{n} \phi^n \right\}$$

→ The K-G equation in  $d$  dimensions is the same:

$$(-\partial^2 - m^2) \phi = 0 \quad \text{free theory}$$

so that the propagator satisfies:

$$(-\partial^2 - m^2) D_0(x-y) = \delta^d(x-y)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow D(x-y) = \frac{1}{-\partial^2 - m^2} \delta^d(x-y)$$

$\Leftrightarrow D(p) = \frac{1}{p^2 - m^2}$ . In any  $d$ , the propagator of a scalar goes like  $1/p^2$  at large momenta

### p315 Perkin ② Characterizing a generic diagram:

DEF A generic diagram will be characterized by a set of discrete numbers:

$L$ : # of loops (= # of  $\int d^d k$ )

$N$ : # of external lines (points)

$V$ : # of vertices ( $\lambda\phi^n$ )

$P$ : # of internal propagators

→ They're 2 types of relation among these numbers:

PROP A topological relation:  $nV = 2P + N$


Indeed, since each vertex has  $n$  lines attached to it, and each internal line attaches to 2 vertices, we have  $nV = 2P + N$


PROP A dynamical relation:  $L = P - V + 1$

Indeed,  $L$  is equal to the # of  $d$ -dim. momentum integrals left after implementing momentum conservation at every vertex on internal propagators, plus the overall momentum conservation.



↳ Examples:   $L = 1 - V + 1 = 1$  loops

  $L = 6 - 4 + 1 = 3$  loops

  $L = 9 - 7 + 1 = 3$  loops

DEF The superficial degree of divergence  $D$  is defined as  

$$D = dL - 2P \quad (\sim \Lambda^D)$$

↳ Indeed, each loop counts  $d$  dimensions because of  $\int d^d k$ , and each internal propagator counts  $-2$  because of  $1/k^2$

↳ The degree of divergence of a diagram is found, essentially, by its mass dimension: this is power counting

→ Let's massage the definition a bit:

$$\begin{aligned} D &= dL - 2P = d(P - V + 1) - 2P = dP - dV + d - 2P \\ &= d + (d-2)P - dV \\ &= d + (d-2) \cdot \frac{nV - N}{2} - dV = d - V \left( d - n \frac{d-2}{2} \right) - N \left( \frac{d-2}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

↳ Notice that in  $d$ -dim, we have  $[S] = 0 \Rightarrow [(\partial\phi)^2] = d$

$\Rightarrow 2[\phi] + 2 = d \Leftrightarrow [\phi] = \frac{d-2}{2}$  and the interaction term has:

$[\lambda\phi^n] = d \Leftrightarrow [\lambda] = d - n \left( \frac{d-2}{2} \right)$ . Replacing, we get:

PROP

$$\begin{aligned} D &= d - V[\lambda] - [\phi]N \\ &= d - V \left( d - \left( \frac{d-2}{2} \right) n \right) - N \cdot \frac{d-2}{2} \end{aligned}$$

⊙ Example:  $d=4$  and  $\lambda\phi^4$ :

→ We have  $[\phi] = (4-2)/2 = 1$  and  $[\lambda] = 4 - 4 \cdot 1 = 0$  so that  $D = 4 - N$

↳ We reobtain the result that:

→ for  $N=2$ ;  $D=2 \Rightarrow$  quadratic divergence

→ for  $N=4$ ;  $D=0 \Rightarrow$  logarithmic divergence

→ for  $N \geq 6$ ;  $D < 0 \Rightarrow$  no UV divergence

○ Example:  $d=4$  and  $\lambda\phi^6$ :

- We have  $[\phi]=1$  still, and  $[\lambda]=4-6\cdot 1=-2$  so  $D=4+2V-N$   
↳ For any  $N$ , at high enough order ( $V$  large), we'll have  $D>0$ .  
Hence, any  $N$ -pt function at some order will diverge.

### 8.3 Characterizing renormalizability:

- Supposing  $[\phi]>0$  ( $d>2$ ), there're 3  $\neq$  cases: the effect of increasing  $V$  uniquely depends on  $[\lambda]$ :

DEF ① A theory is super-renormalizable if  $[\lambda]>0$ . There is only a finite number of diagrams that diverge (low  $V$  and  $N$ )

② A theory is renormalizable if  $[\lambda]=0$ . There is a finite number of  $N$ -pt functions which have diagrams that diverge, though at any order in  $V$ .

③ A theory is non-renormalizable if  $[\lambda]<0$ . For any  $N$ , there are diagrams with  $V$  large enough that diverge.

- Remember  $D$  is a superficial degree of divergence, since a diagram can have sub-divergences which make it divergent even if  $D<0$ , or some cancellations due to symmetries can make a diagram less divergent or finite, even if  $D>0$

- Example in  $d=4$ :  $\phi^4 \rightarrow$  renormalizable  
 $\phi^3 \rightarrow$  superrenormalizable (with  $V<0$ )  
 $\phi^6 \rightarrow$  non-renormalizable

- Other renormalizable theories are  $\lambda\phi^n$  in  $n = \frac{2n}{n-2}$