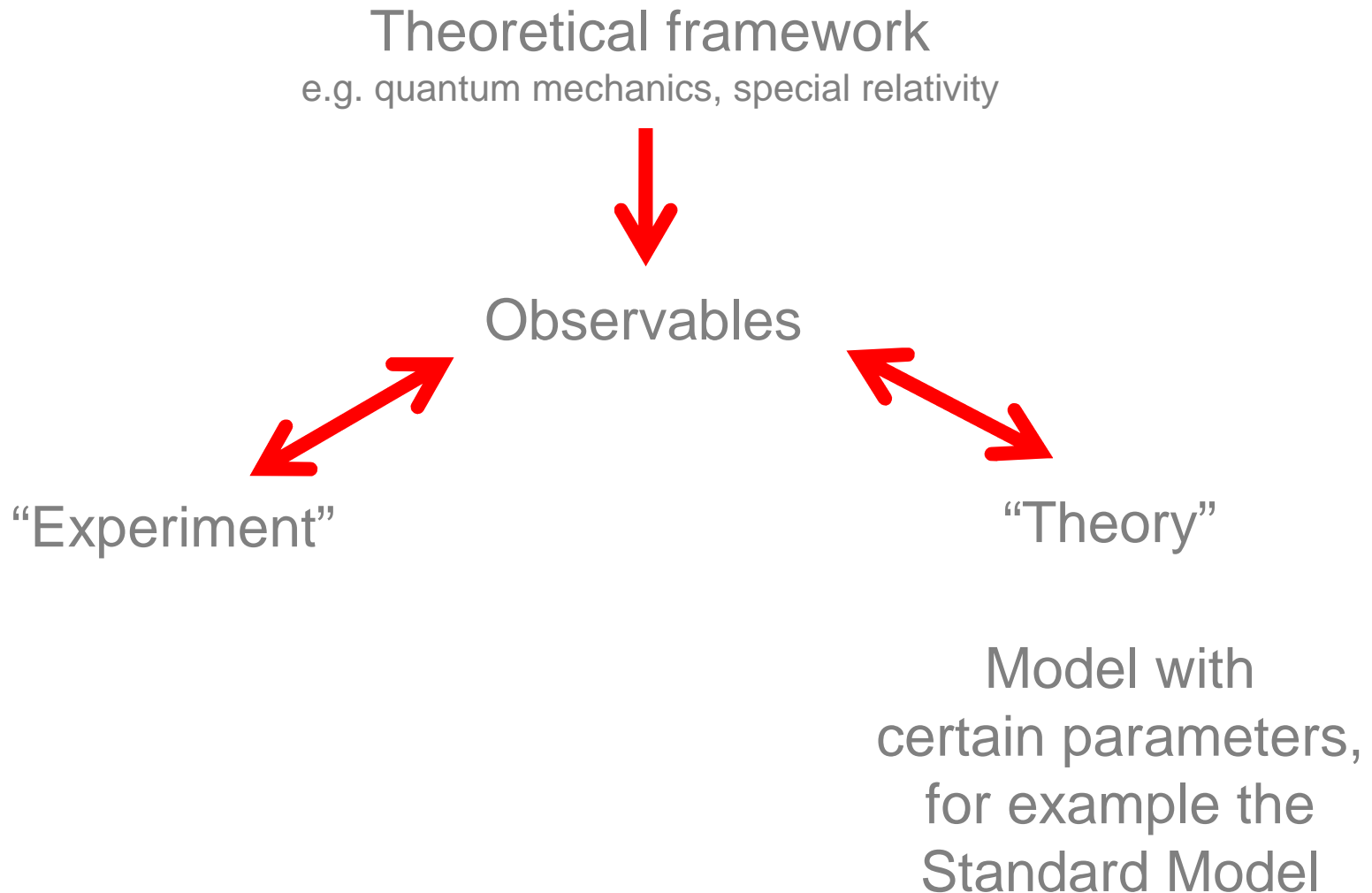


# Observables and Parameters

Peter Uwer

Humboldt-Universität  
zu Berlin



## Observables:

- Do not rely on any theory
- Can/should be measured independent from theoretical model

## Parameters:

- Only defined within a particular model
- Numerical value depend on precise definition (“renormalization scheme”, obvious for coupling constants, holds also true for masses!)

## Why do we care about parameters ?

→ Need to know them as precise as possible to test theoretical model through comparison:

experimental results  $\leftrightarrow$  theoretical predictions

# How do we extract model parameters ?



- 1 Determine theoretical predictions for some set of observables within your favored model
- 2 Compare with measured results and extract/fit the model parameters

Need to understand the precise definition of parameters within a model and the role of quantum corrections

→ Renormalization

1. The physical picture of renormalization
2. Regularization and renormalization
3. The running of the QCD coupling
4. Interlude: The running of the SM couplings and vacuum stability
5. Quark masses: definitions and measurements
6. Interlude: The hierarchy problem
7. Summary

(The technical details are skipped if interested in please ask)

# Why do we need renormalization ?



Consider simple example:

measurement of the electric charge

In **classical electrodynamics** this is done by the use of a test charge (which should be small...):



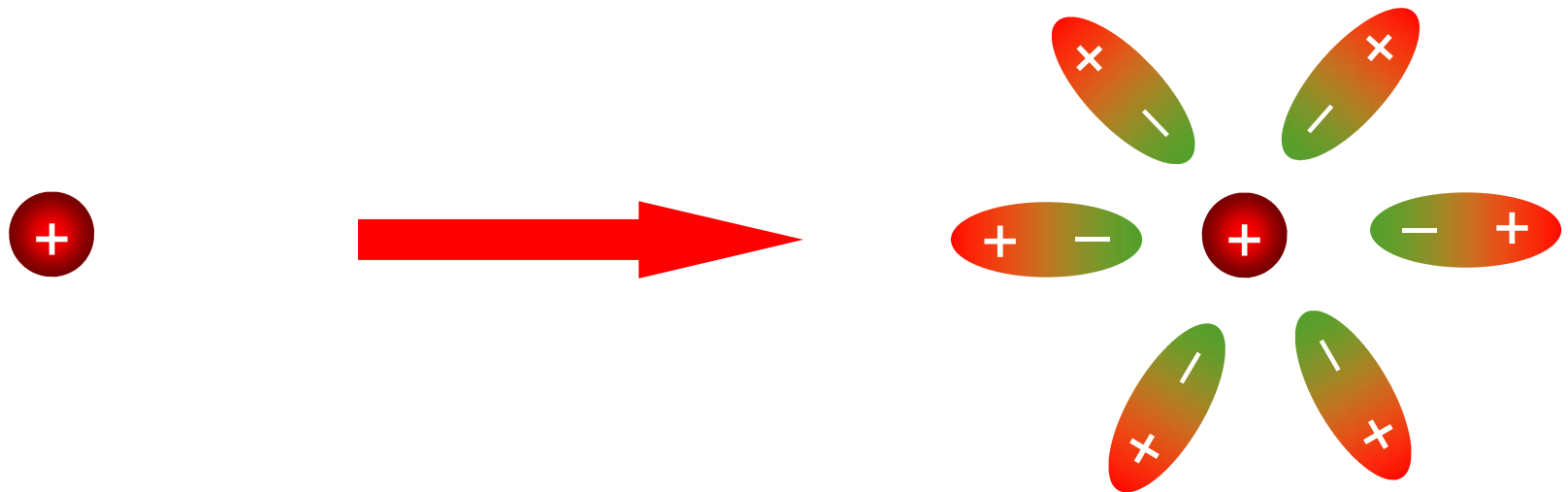
we may use for example a positive test charge and measure how the charge is scattered

# Why do we need renormalization ?



What happens if we consider quantum field theory ?

the vacuum develops a complicated structure, i.e. we have vacuum polarization



# Why do we need renormalization ?



What do we measure when we repeat the experiment  
with the test charge ?

Clear enough the test charge will see the bare charge  
surrounded/screened by the vacuum polarization

What we actually measure is thus the bare  
charge *together* with the vacuum polarization

# Why do we need renormalization ?



What about the bare charge?

Is it possible to get ride of the vacuum polarization ?

Yes, if we switch off the electric charge

However, switching off the charge, there is now interaction between the test charge and the charge we want to measure

It is impossible to measure the bare charge !

The bare charge is thus meaningless in an interacting QFT. 

# Why do we need renormalization ?



Just a problem of the electric charge ?

**No, this is a general property of QFT's**

Another example:

**self energy corrections to the mass**

If we define the mass to be the location of the pole of the propagator (so-called pole-mass) we see that higher order quantum corrections move the pole away from the bare mass!

→ more details later...

# Why do we need renormalization ?



The bare parameters are unphysical, they are not experimentally accessible since we cannot switch off the interaction

Renormalization is the step to relate the parameters of our theory to (experimentally) measurable quantities (“observables”)

Renormalization has nothing to do with infinities, it is a well defined procedure to relate the parameters to a prescription how to measure them,  
we do not put anything under the carpet !

Strictly speaking renormalization is also needed in finite theories !

Important consequence:

The parameters of the theory (quark masses, strong coupling,...) are in general not observables!

They depend on the scheme to define them

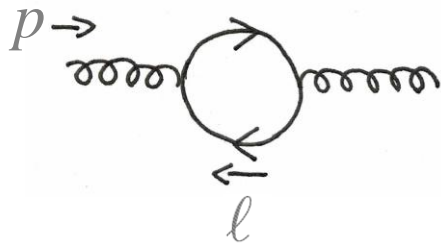
They are related to measurable observables, and are determined through a fit to a specific theory

Sometimes they are called pseudo-observables

(Note that parameters are only defined in the context, of a specific theory!)

Using the (unphysical) bare coupling we may obtain infinite results when calculating loop corrections.

Example:


$$\longleftrightarrow -g^2 \int d^4\ell \frac{1}{(\ell^2 - m^2)((\ell + p)^2 - m^2)}$$

Naïve power counting:

$$\int^\infty |\ell|^3 d|\ell| \frac{1}{|\ell|^4} = \ln(|\ell|) \Big|_0^\infty \quad \text{or} \quad \int^\Lambda d|\ell| \frac{|\ell|^3}{|\ell|^4} \sim \ln(\Lambda)$$

(The infinity at zero only occurs since we ignored the masses...)

Infinities may be related to the use of the unphysical bare couplings (could also be divergent!)

In a renormalizable QFT it is indeed possible to remove all the divergences by using renormalized (measurable) couplings

Two step procedure:

1

Regularize divergences

2

Absorb them through a redefinition of the fields and couplings using renormalized quantities

$$A_0, \Psi_0, g_0, m_0, \dots \rightarrow A_0 = \sqrt{Z_A} A_r, \Psi_0 = \sqrt{Z_\Psi} \Psi_r, g_0 = Z_g g_r, m_0 = Z_m m_r$$

**Note:** Renormalizability is a non-trivial property which puts a high constraint on the allowed theories !

→ Only couplings with positive or zero mass dimension are allowed !

Reminder: Mass dimension

$$[S] = [\int d^4x \mathcal{L}] = 1 \rightarrow [\mathcal{L}] = 4 (= d)$$
$$[\Psi] = \frac{3}{2} (= \frac{d-1}{2}), \quad [A] = 1 (= \frac{d-2}{2})$$

Example:

$$[m\bar{\Psi}\Psi] = [m] + 2[\Psi] = [m] + 3 = 4 \rightarrow [m] = 1$$

$$[g\bar{\Psi}A\Psi] = [g] + 2[\Psi] + [A] = [g] + 4 = 4 \rightarrow [g] = 0$$

In  $d$  dimensional space time:  $[m] = 1, [g] = \frac{4-d}{2} = \varepsilon, (d = 4 - 2\varepsilon)$

Introduce “regulator” such, that integrals are finite,

After the renormalization procedure the regulator is removed

Example: Cut-off regulator

$$\int d^4\ell \rightarrow \int^{\Lambda} d^4\ell$$

(after the  $\ln(\Lambda)$  are absorbed through renormalization  
original theory is restored in the limit  $\Lambda \rightarrow \infty$ )

Infinite number of different regularization schemes possible,  
Which one should we use ?

Note:

Very often regulators break some symmetries of the underlying theory i.e. gauge symmetry, Poincare invariance, SUSY etc

- Calculations become more complicated because simplifying power of symmetries is lost
  - Need to make sure that all symmetries are restored when regulator is removed after renormalization
- A convenient regulator should respect as far as possible the underlying symmetries

Observation: Singularities due to high energy behavior of the measure

$$d^4\ell \sim |\ell|^3 d|\ell|$$

→ Can be improved by lowering the space time dimension

Assume  $d < 4$ , convention:  $d = 4 - 2\varepsilon$  ( $\varepsilon > 0$ )

$$\int d^4\ell \frac{1}{\ell^4} \rightarrow \int d^d\ell \frac{1}{\ell^4} \sim \int d|\ell| \frac{|\ell|^{d-1}}{|\ell|^4} = \int d|\ell| |\ell|^{d-5} \rightarrow \frac{1}{d-4} = -\frac{1}{2\varepsilon}$$

Singularities appear as poles in  $\frac{1}{d-4} = -\frac{1}{2\varepsilon}$

# The renormalization scale

Remember:  $[g] = \frac{4-d}{2} = \varepsilon, (d = 4 - 2\varepsilon)$

Introduce arbitrary mass scale  $\mu$  to keep  $g$  dimensionless in  $d$  dimensions:

$$g_0 \rightarrow \mu^\varepsilon Z_g g_r(\mu)$$

bare coupling,  
divergent
Renormalized (finite)  
coupling, depends on  
unphysical scale  $\mu$

Since left hand side is  $\mu$  independent,  $\mu$  dependence of  $g_r(\mu)$  must cancel the dependence of  $\mu^\varepsilon$

Since  $Z_g$  absorbs divergences due to quantum corrections we have:

$$Z_g = 1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} g_r^2 \# + O(g_r^4)$$

From

$$\mu^\varepsilon \frac{1}{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} + \ln(\mu) + \dots$$

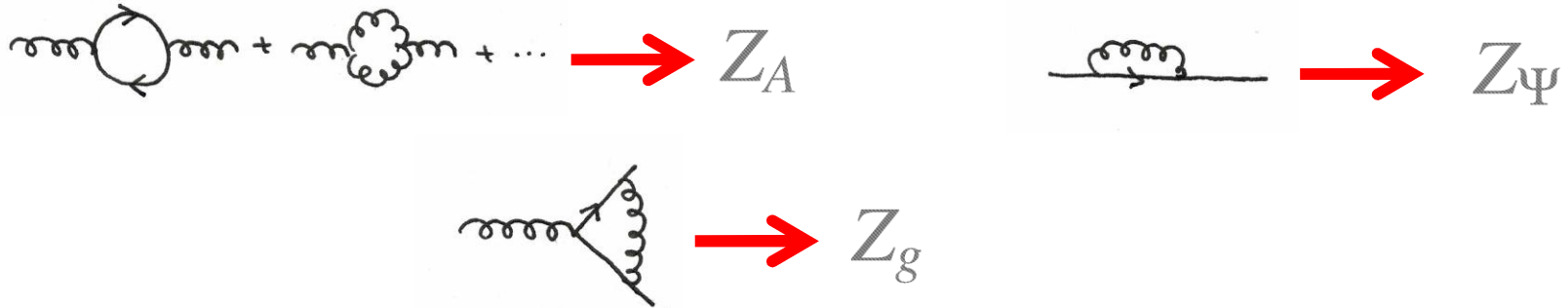
we see that  $g_r$  depends logarithmically on  $\mu$  !

To determine the precise dependence (#) we need to calculate the quantum corrections

# Quantum corrections for one-loop renormalization



In QCD:



Define different couplings

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z_g^{\text{MS}} &= 1 - \frac{g_s^2}{16\pi^2} \left( \frac{11N}{6} - \frac{1}{3}n_f \right) \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \quad \overbrace{= 2\beta_0} \\
 Z_g^{\overline{\text{MS}}} &= 1 - \frac{g_s^2}{16\pi^2} \left( \frac{11N}{6} - \frac{1}{3}n_f \right) \left( \frac{1}{\varepsilon} - \gamma + \ln(4\pi) \right) \\
 Z_g^{\text{R}} &= Z_g^{\text{MS}} + z_R
 \end{aligned}$$

$N$  number of colors,  
 $n_f$  number of flavours

Define

$$\alpha_s(\mu) = \frac{g_r(\mu)^2}{4\pi}, \quad a(\mu) = \frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{\pi}$$

Using  $Z_g$  we obtain:

$$\frac{d}{d \ln(\mu^2)} a(\mu) = \mu^2 \frac{d}{d \mu^2} a(\mu) = -\beta_0 a(\mu)^2 + O(a^3)$$

Note:

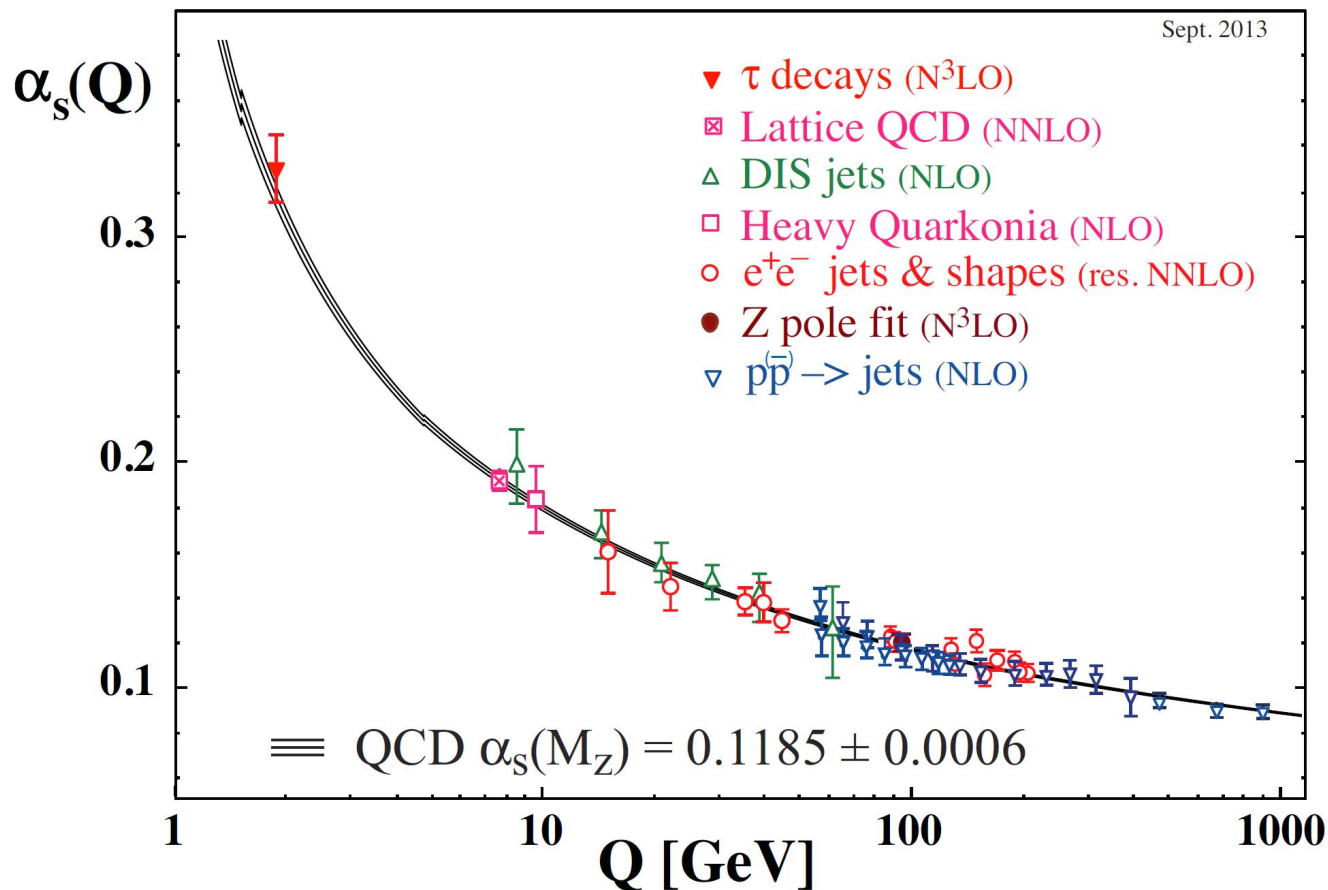
The value of  $\alpha_s$  has to be extracted from experiment.  
However, knowing the value at one scale, theory tells us how to calculate it at another scale!

→ Just solve the differential equation....

# The running of the QCD coupling constant



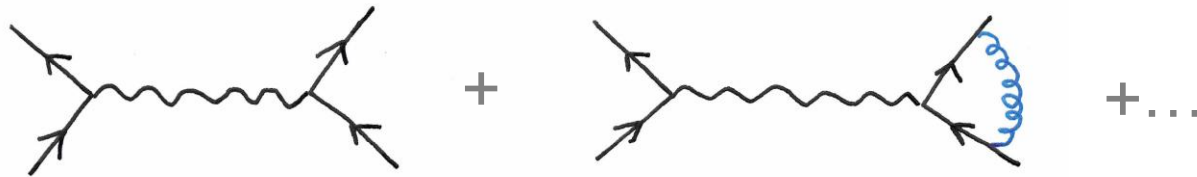
$$a(\mu_1) = \frac{a(\mu_0)}{1 + a(\mu_0)\beta_0 \ln(\mu_1^2/\mu_0^2)}$$



# The strong coupling constant from $e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons}^*$



\*) massless



$$R = \frac{\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \text{hadrons})}{\sigma(e^+e^- \rightarrow \mu^+\mu^-)} = 3 \sum_q Q_q^2 \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha_s}{\pi} + \dots \right)$$

Possible to extract  $\alpha_s$  from measured  $R$  value !

However:

At which scale do we measure  $\alpha_s$  ??

$$\alpha_s = \alpha_s(\mu)$$

It seems natural to assume  $\alpha_s = \alpha_s(\sqrt{s})$ , how do we decide?

Strictly speaking not possible since we have only a LO calculation...

What happens if we change the scale ?

$$\begin{aligned} R &= 3 \sum_q Q_q^2 \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha_s(\sqrt{s})}{\pi} + \dots \right) \\ &= 3 \sum_q Q_q^2 \left( 1 + \frac{\frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{\pi}}{1 - \frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{\pi} \beta_0 \ln\left(\frac{\mu^2}{s}\right)} + \dots \right) \\ &= 3 \sum_q Q_q^2 \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{\pi} + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{\pi} \right)^{i+1} \left( \beta_0 \ln\left(\frac{\mu^2}{s}\right) \right)^i + \dots \right) \end{aligned}$$

Since  $s$  is the only physical scale in the problem we get large higher order corrections if we use  $\mu$  very different from  $\sqrt{s}$ !

We may also say: The proper choice of  $\mu$  resums a certain class of potentially large logs to all orders

Note:

In the order we are calculating theory results must be independent on the renormalization scheme

Changing the scale in the theoretical predictions generates scale dependent terms which are formally of higher order (“residual scale dependence”)

→ Higher order corrections must at least cancel this contribution

This is the basis of using scale variation to estimate higher order corrections

$$\frac{d}{d\ln(\mu^2)} \frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{\pi} = -\beta_0 \left( \frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{\pi} \right)^2 + O(\alpha_s^3)$$

*“Renormalization group equation”*

In complete SM we have more couplings:  $V(\phi) = -\mu^2\phi^2 + \frac{\lambda}{4!}\phi^4$

$$\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3 = \alpha_s, \lambda, y_t, y_b, y_\tau \dots$$

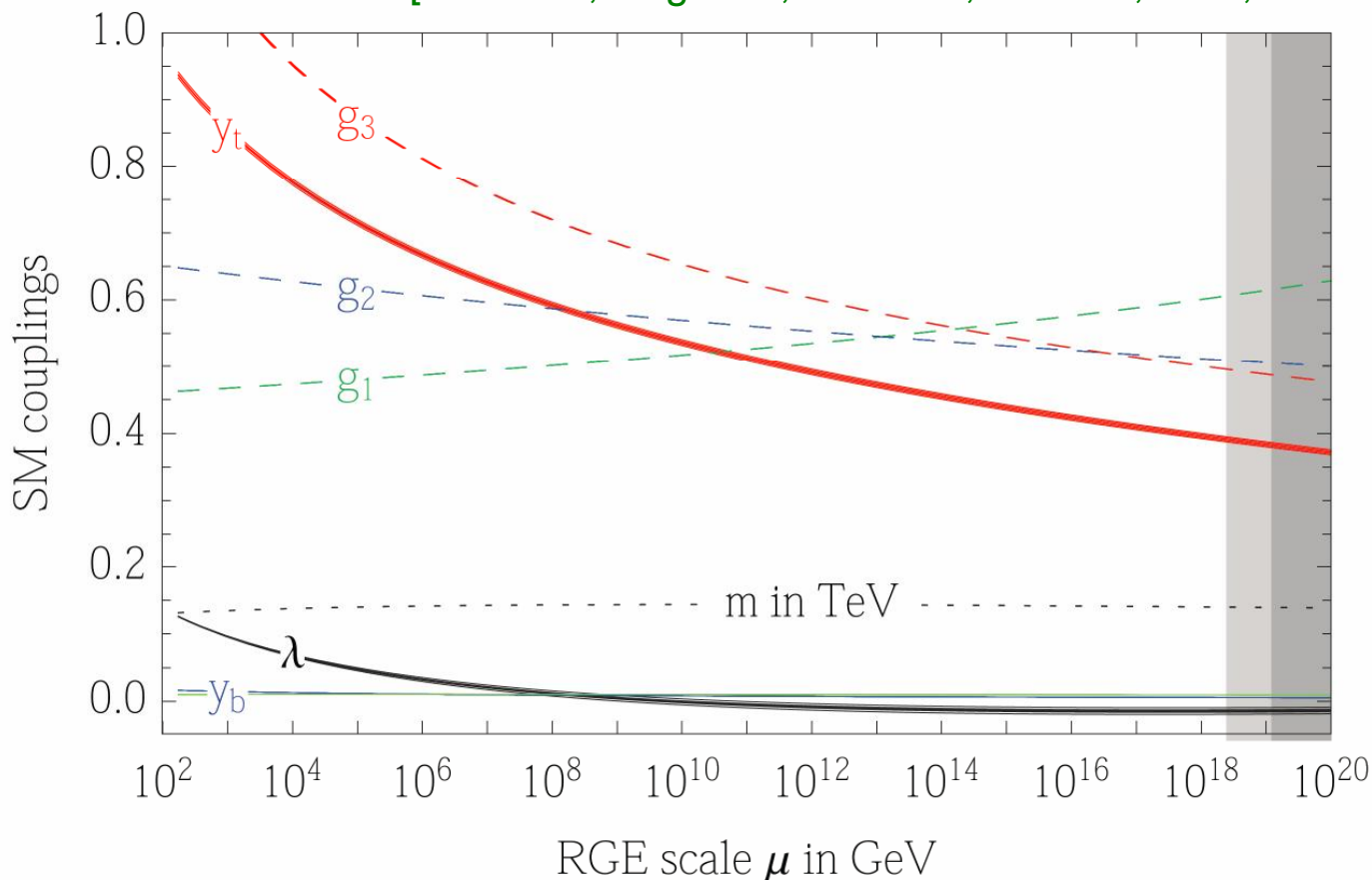
RGE's are coupled:

$$\frac{d}{d\ln(\mu^2)} \begin{pmatrix} g_1^2 \\ g_2^2 \\ g_3^2 \\ \lambda \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} = \vec{f}(g_1^2, g_2^2, g_3^2, \lambda, \dots)$$

can be solved numerically...

# Evolution of coupling constants in the SM

[Buttazzo, Degrassi, Giardino, Giudice, Sala, Salvio, Strumia 14]



- Interesting aspects:
- Unification of gauge couplings ?
  - Vacuum stability

Basic idea:

At large field values use  $\lambda(\phi)$   
instead of  $\lambda(\mu)$  at some low scale  $\mu$

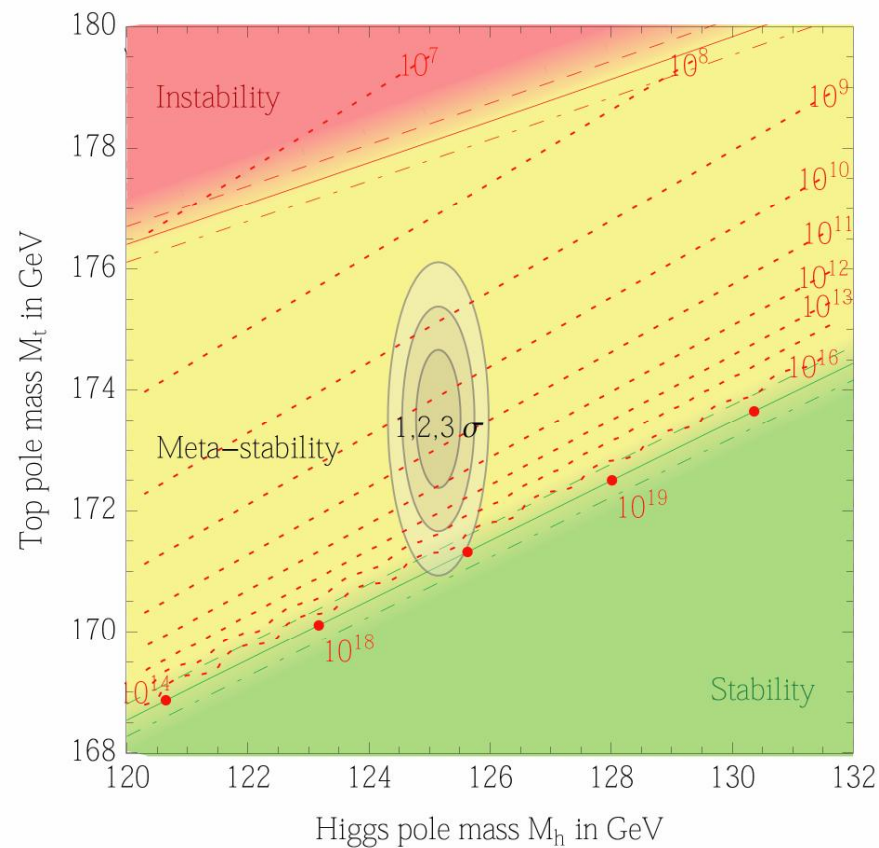
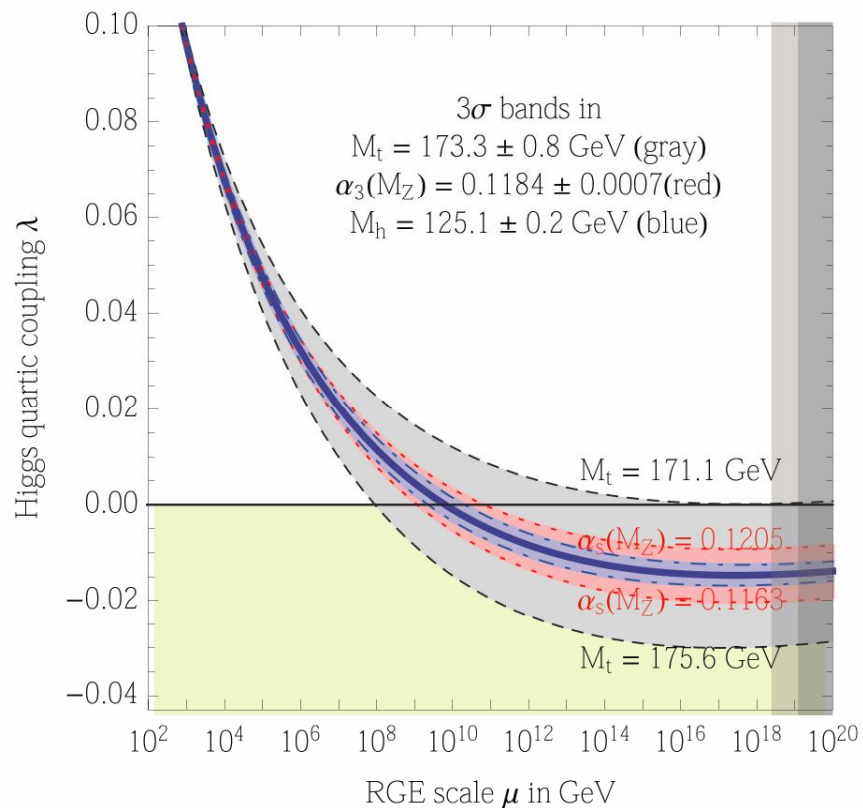
Running of  $\lambda(\mu)$  determines potential  $V(\phi)$   
at large field values

Vacuum becomes instable for  $\lambda < 0$

More precise analysis requires to take also higher order corrections to the  
potential into account

# Vacuum stability

[Buttazzo, Degrandi, Giardino, Giudice, Sala, Salvio, Strumia 14]



In the SM fermion masses are generated through the Higgs mechanism:

$$m_q = \frac{\lambda_q v}{\sqrt{2}}$$

If we study only QCD we may ignore the Higgs mechanism and use the quark masses as independent parameters

→ Mass renormalization

$$-i\Sigma = \text{1PI} = \text{diagram with cross-hatched circle} = \text{diagram with fermion line and gluon loop} + \dots$$

1PI (= one particle irreducible)

From the evaluation of the self energy the field and mass renormalization constant can be determined:

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma &= \frac{\alpha_s}{4\pi} C_f \not{p} \frac{1}{\epsilon} + \frac{\alpha_s}{\pi} C_f m_r \frac{1}{\epsilon} \\ &+ (1 - Z_\Psi^R) \not{p} - (1 - Z_\Psi^R Z_m^R) m_r + \text{finite terms} \end{aligned}$$

## Minimal subtraction scheme (MS):

$$Z_{\Psi}^{\text{MS}} = 1 - \frac{\alpha_s}{4\pi} C_f \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

$$Z_m^{\text{MS}} = 1 - \frac{3\alpha_s}{4\pi} C_f \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

## Modified minimal subtraction scheme $\overline{\text{MS}}$

$$Z_{\Psi}^{\overline{\text{MS}}} = 1 - \frac{\alpha_s}{4\pi} C_f \left( \frac{1}{\varepsilon} - \gamma + \ln(4\pi) \right)$$

$$Z_m^{\overline{\text{MS}}} = 1 - \frac{3\alpha_s}{4\pi} C_f \left( \frac{1}{\varepsilon} - \gamma + \ln(4\pi) \right)$$

Schemes are technically simple, however, very unintuitive

## The renormalized $\overline{\text{MS}}$ mass

$$m_{\overline{\text{MS}}} = \frac{m_0}{Z_m^{\overline{\text{MS}}}}$$

- becomes scale dependent similar to  $\alpha_s$

$$\mu^2 \frac{dm_{\overline{\text{MS}}}}{d\mu^2} = -\frac{\alpha_s}{\pi} \frac{3}{4} C_f m_{\overline{\text{MS}}} + O(\alpha_s^2)$$

- does not describe the pole of the full propagator

→ Has little to do with our intuitive understanding of a quark mass

Full propagator

$$\text{---} + \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} + \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{i}{\not{p} - m_r} + \frac{i}{\not{p} - m_r} (-i\Sigma_r) \frac{i}{\not{p} - m_r} + \frac{i}{\not{p} - m_r} (-i\Sigma_r) \frac{i}{\not{p} - m_r} (-i\Sigma_r) \frac{i}{\not{p} - m_r} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{i}{\not{p} - m_r - \Sigma_r(p^2)}$$

In general

$$\Sigma_r(p^2 = m_r^2) \neq 0$$

→  $m_r$  does not describe the location of the pole

Can be enforced using a different renormalization scheme

# The quark propagator and the pole mass scheme



In the on-shell / pole mass scheme  $Z_\Psi$  and  $Z_m$  are chosen such that

$$\text{a) } \Sigma_r(p^2 = m_r^2) = 0$$

$$\text{b) } \text{Res}_{p^2 \rightarrow m_r^2} \frac{1}{\not{p} - m - \Sigma_r} = 1$$

Two conditions to fix the finite terms of  $Z_\Psi$  and  $Z_m$

**Note:**

$$\left. \begin{aligned} Z_m^{\text{on}} &= Z_m^{\overline{\text{MS}}} + \text{finite} \\ Z_\Psi^{\text{on}} &= Z_\Psi^{\overline{\text{MS}}} + \text{finite} \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{can be calculated} \\ \text{knowing } \Sigma \end{array}$$

$$m_0 = Z_m^{\overline{\text{MS}}} m_{\overline{\text{MS}}} = Z_m^{\text{on}} m_{\text{on}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} m_{\overline{\text{MS}}} &= \frac{Z_m^{\text{on}}}{Z_m^{\overline{\text{MS}}}} m_{\text{on}} \\ &= m_{\text{on}} \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{\pi} C_f \left( 1 + \frac{3}{4} \ln \left( \frac{\mu^2}{m^2} \right) \right) + O(\alpha_s^2) \right) \end{aligned}$$

In LO:

$$m_{\overline{\text{MS}}} = m_{\text{on}}$$

At least NLO predictions required to distinguish between the two schemes

Relation  $m_{\overline{\text{MS}}} \leftrightarrow m_{\text{on}}$  known to 4 loops [Marquard, Smirnov, Smirnov, Steinhauser '15]

# Which mass scheme should we use ?



Naïve answer:

It should not matter

*„In theory there is no difference between theory and practice.  
In practice there is.“*

[Yogi Ber(r)a]

In practice:

It does matter !

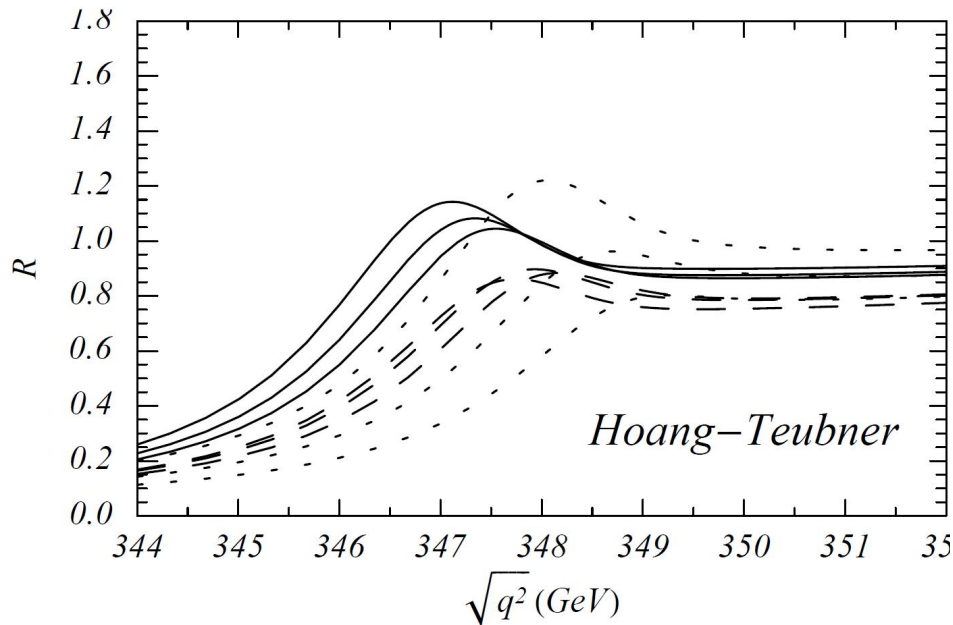
Possible issues:

- Perturbative expansion may converge better
- Conceptual limitation of achievable precision

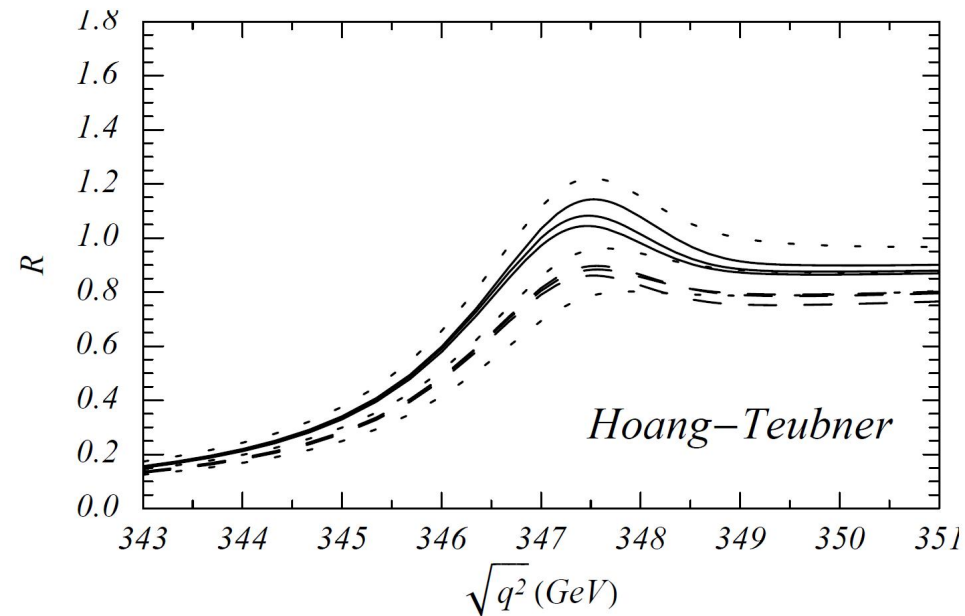
# Example: $e^+e^- \rightarrow t\bar{t}$ at threshold

[Hoang et al, 2000]

Pole mass



1S mass



LO dotted, NLO dashed, NNLO solid

Very large corrections using the pole mass scheme

1S mass: Position of would-be 1S boundstate

## Renormalon ambiguity in pole mass

$$\Sigma^{(1)} = \text{[diagram of a fermion line with a gluon loop]} \rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \text{[diagram of a fermion line with } n \text{ gluon loops]} \quad \frac{16m_R}{3\beta_0} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n a^{n+1}$$

$c_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{-C/2} 2^n n!$

[Bigi, Shifman, Uraltsev, Vainshtein 94 Beneke, Braun, 94 Smith, Willenbrock 97]

There is no pole in full QCD



Pole mass has intrinsic uncertainty of order  $\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}$

→ All e+e- threshold studies use so-called short distance mass free of renormalon ambiguity

## Checklist:

- ☐ Observable should show good sensitivity to  $m$

$$\frac{\Delta O}{O} \leftrightarrow \frac{\Delta m_t}{m_t}$$

- ☐ Observable must be theoretically calculable

- ☐ Theory uncertainty must be small

small non-perturbative corrections

- ☐ Observable must be “experimentally accessible”

- ☐ Well defined mass scheme

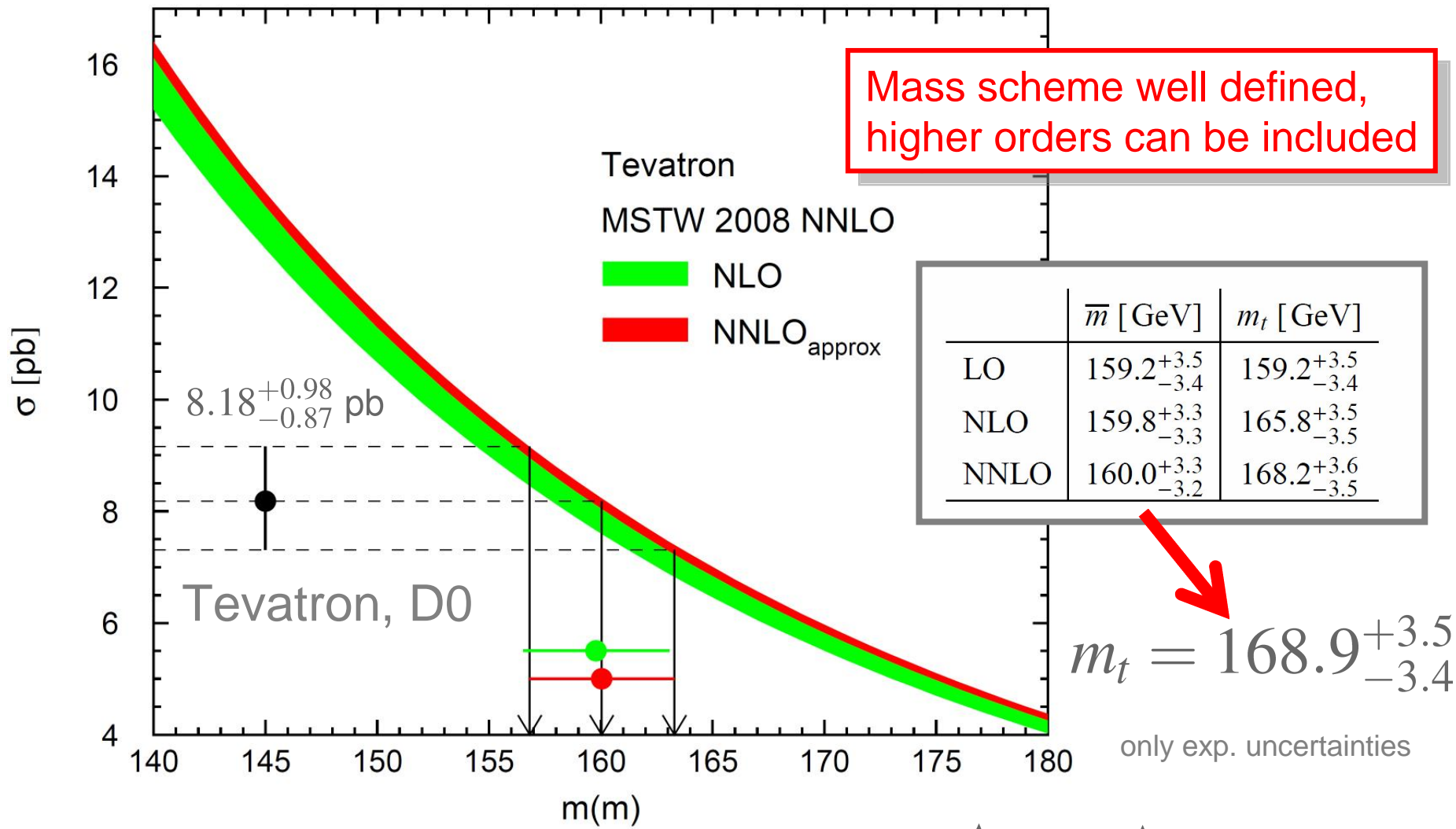
## Well defined mass scheme using as observable

- Inclusive cross section
- $m_{lb}$  distribution
- Top-quark pair production in association with an additional jet (most precise pole mass determination so far)

## Mass scheme not well defined in

- Kinematical reconstruction
  - Template method
- The measured mass is the so-called Monte Carlo mass,  
Not well defined in perturbation theory, however expected  
to be close to the pole / on-shell mass

# $\overline{\text{MS}}$ mass from cross section



**Drawback:** Limited sensitivity to  $m_t$   $\frac{\Delta\sigma_{t\bar{t}}}{\sigma_{t\bar{t}}} \approx 5 \frac{\Delta m_t}{m_t}$

A Feynman diagram illustrating the production and decay of a top-antitop pair and a Higgs boson. The diagram is divided into three main regions: production, decay, and a final state interaction.

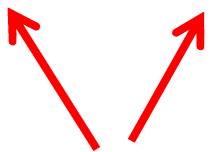
- Production (Left):** A gluon ( $g$ ) splits into a quark ( $q$ ) and an antiquark ( $\bar{q}$ ). The quark ( $q$ ) and antiquark ( $\bar{q}$ ) annihilate via a loop of top quarks ( $t$ ) and anti-top quarks ( $\bar{t}$ ) to produce a Higgs boson ( $h$ ).
- Decay (Middle):** The Higgs boson ( $h$ ) decays into a top quark ( $t$ ) and an anti-top quark ( $\bar{t}$ ).
- Final State Interaction (Right):** The top quark ( $t$ ) and anti-top quark ( $\bar{t}$ ) interact via a loop of bottom quarks ( $b$ ) and anti-bottom quarks ( $\bar{b}$ ) to produce a gluon ( $g$ ) and a photon ( $\gamma$ ).

The diagram uses various colors and line styles to represent different particles and interactions. The top quark line is green, the anti-top quark line is red, the bottom quark line is blue, and the gluon line is yellow. The Higgs boson is represented by a grey oval, and the photon by a yellow oval. The quark and antiquark lines are black.

$$p_t \neq p_W + \sum_i p_{\text{had}}^i$$

Remember

$$m_r = m_0 + \Sigma_{\text{bare}} + \delta\Sigma_r$$



individually  
divergent

→ It doesn't make sense to speculate about the size of  $\Sigma_{\text{bare}}$

Situation changes if you treat your theory / theoretical model  
as an effective theory only valid up to some cut-off scale  $\Lambda$

- # Consider corrections to Higgs mass in theory with cut-off

→ Depending on  $\Lambda$  very large corrections, since Higgs mass is not protected by any symmetry, need fine tuning of  $m_0$  for large  $\Lambda$

Either we have to fine tune  $m_0$  or we have to assume  $\Lambda \approx 1 \text{ TeV}$  to avoid large corrections

If fine tuning is not an option, we should see new physics at 1 TeV

Note:

Argument relies on the assumption of a physical cut-off !

Ignoring problems like neutrino masses, dark matter, gravity, the SM could be valid up to very high scales...

- The different role of observables and parameters
- The physical picture of renormalization
- Role of quantum corrections and the origin of the scheme dependence
- Examples:
  - the running coupling constant
  - mass renormalization

Detailed understanding of the interplay between measurements and theory is crucial for precision physics and the interpretation of the results !

Thank you  
for your  
attention