Mini Course on Effective Field Theory (EFT)

IFT/UIAM

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Introduction

There are many approaches to EFT. They all rely on the observation that in quantum field theory very heavy excitations of fields can more or less be ignored when looking at processes which involve low energies.

By "very heavy" excitations we mean those that carry high energy, higher than the energy of the processes under investigation.

But what does this mean? After all, energy is frame dependent (not a Lorentz invariant quantity).

In the first instance we will look at excitations that are heavy because they carry a large mass, $M$. Then $(\text{energy of excitation}) \geq M$, and we can demand that the processes we are interested in have $(\text{total energy}) \ll M$ in some frame, and therefore in many.

In other instances the very definition of the EFT will be frame dependent and the separation of heavy-light modes arbitrary (in the sense that they shift around as one changes frames). As we will see, this is still useful.
Rather than attempting a very generic description of EFTs, I prefer quickly plunging into specifics — I think this helps understand the meaning and usefulness better.

So let's look at some issues that come up in QFT and how EFT help to address them.

Above I said that heavy excitations can be "more or less" ignored at low energies. Let's look at this in the prototypical case: the weak interactions. Recall these have mediators, the $W^\pm$ and $Z^0$ vector bosons, that have masses $\sim 100$ GeV (I use $c = 1$ and $\hbar = 1$ in these lectures, so $\text{mass} = 100$ GeV means $100$ GeV/$c^2$).

If we are concerned with atomic physics, or with $e^-e^+$ scattering at, say, $E_{\text{cm}} \lesssim 1$ GeV, then we can safely ignore the weak interactions.

\[ \frac{g^2 e^2}{q^2 M_W^2} \sim \frac{1}{q^2 M_Z^2} \sim \frac{1}{q^2} \]

\[ \frac{\text{ratio of weak}}{\text{e.m.}} \sim \frac{\frac{q^2}{M_W^2}}{\frac{\text{(eV)}}{(100 \text{ GeV})}} \sim 10^{-22} \]

This is the "more" in "more or less."
Now for the "less".

Nuclei do β-decay. So does the neutron. And μ⁺.

In
\[ q^2 = (p_e + p_β)^2 \]
\[ = (p_n - p_ν)^2 \]
\[ \approx \frac{1}{g^2 - M_w^2} \]
can be neglected.

But we do not ignore the whole process.

What we may do is
\[ \frac{1}{g^2 - M_w^2} \to \frac{1}{M_w^2} \]
describe the interaction as a "contact term", that is, a local interaction.

In equations:
\[
\text{amplitude} = \int d^4x T(\bar{J}_w^μ(x) J_w^ν(0)) |n> \\
\]
\[ \approx \sqrt{\frac{g^2}{M_w^2}} <p_e = ν| J_μ^w(0) J_ν^w(0) |n> \]

as if
\[ J_μ^w(0) \approx \frac{g^2}{M_w^2} J_μ^w(0) , \text{ "local"} \]

(Here
\[ J_μ^w(x) = \bar{ν}(x)(\frac{g_\mu}{2} \gamma_μ + \frac{g_\mu^\prime}{2} \gamma_μ^\prime) h(x) \]
\[ J_ν^w(x) = \bar{ν}(x) γ^\mu (1 - \gamma_5) ν(x) \]

[don't get distracted by this, focus on local is non-local]

This, of course, is the famous Fermi theory: "Fermion interaction".

So while we cannot ignore the heavy field altogether, we can describe its effect by introducing a local interaction.

Incidentally, we may as well write
\[ J_μ^w(x) = \bar{ν}(1 - \gamma_5) γ_μ d(x) \]
and it is still true that
\[ M(n → p_ε = ν) = -g^2 \frac{1}{M_w^2} <p_ε = ν| J_μ^w(0) J_ν^w(0) |n> \]
so that we picture \[ \frac{d}{w^2} \approx \frac{1}{M^2} \frac{d}{w} \]

(and in the matrix element between baryons: \[ \frac{d}{w^2} \approx \frac{1}{M^2} \frac{d}{w} \])

Some of the issues that arise:

- Radiative corrections

\[ \frac{d}{w^2} \] is finite, but \[ \frac{1}{w^2} \] is \( \infty \). How do we handle this? The \( 1/w^2 \) term is not renormalizable. We had a predictive theory (renormalizable = finite # of parameters), but replaced it by a non-renormalizable one, non-predictive (\( \infty \) # of parameters).

+ Consider a \( W \)-exchange between \( J^\pm \) and itself (or rather, \( J^{\pm \dagger} \))

This could be relevant for, say \( K \to \pi \eta^0 \) decay, as in

\[ K^- \xrightarrow{\pi^-} \eta^- \]

Another \[ \frac{d}{w^2} \] is this gluon exchange part of a correction to \( \Delta \mu \), or part of \( \Delta \mu^* \)?

+ Scale: If we compute \( W \) exchange radiative corrections, do we use \( \alpha_s(M_W) \) or \( \alpha_s(M^*) \) (\( \alpha_s(M_W) vs. \alpha_s(M^*) \) in the 2nd example?)

"Scale uncertainty"

+ What about processes that require exchange of 2 heavy quarks (example, the case in \( K^0 - \bar{K}^0 \) mixing, \( \Delta S = 2 \))
If this is correct, how do we include

\[ \frac{w}{\mathcal{E}} \] or \[ \frac{w^4}{\mathcal{E}^2} \] ?

There does not seem to be a corresponding graph on
the local interaction version.

We'll address these problems today. We will get into the guts of
how it all works.

The scale uncertainty problem derives from having disparate scales. The
technique we'll utilize to approach this is the effective field theory (EFT).
It allows one to look at the physics of the shortest distance/time scale,
ignoring the longer ones, and then moving sequentially to longer distance/time.

The problems we are facing are artifacts of perturbation theory.
For example, if we could compute non-perturbatively (or at least perturbatively
to all orders) we would use \( g(Q) \) for the coupling (together with other \( g(Q) \)s)
and the (physical) amplitudes would actually be \( \mu \)-independent. Of course this
is the content of the renormalization group equation (RGE), which we will use
extensively.
There is a related problem worth investigating. Disparate scales often result in possible breakdown of perturbation theory. The best example is in grand unified theories (GUTs) for which $M_{\text{cut}}$ can be $10^{5} \text{ TeV}$. 

**Review**: To set the stage, consider $SU(5)$ grand-unification.

This is a Yang-Mills theory with gauge group $SU(5)$ that breaks spontaneously to $SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1)$.

Gauge fields are in adjoint representation. If $Y_{5} \equiv Y_{a=1,5}$ is a vector in the fundamental (defining) rep,

$$ Y_{5} \rightarrow U Y_{5} \quad \text{with} \quad U^{+} U = 1 \quad U \quad \text{a 5x5 matrix} \quad U = e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} \alpha_{a} T^{a}} $$

$$ U^{+} U = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad T^{+} = T^{a} \quad a \alpha U = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad Tr T^{a} = 0 \quad a = 1, \ldots, N^{2} - 1 \quad \text{for} \quad SU(N) $$

$$ T^{a} = \left( \begin{array}{cc} 1 & a \alpha \end{array} \right) \quad a \alpha = 1, \ldots, 8 \quad , \quad T^{a} = \left( \begin{array}{c} 0 \end{array} \right)_{a} \quad C \text{su(2) Pauli matrices} $$

$$ T^{3} = \frac{1}{2} \delta_{ab} \quad \text{giving} \quad SU(2) \quad \text{normalized to} \quad Tr T^{3} = \frac{1}{2} \delta_{ab} $$

Write $U = \left( \begin{array}{c} \frac{d^{a}}{1 \tilde{d}^{a}} \end{array} \right)$ and consider $\tilde{d}^{a} Y_{a} = \bar{d}^{a} Y_{a} + \frac{1}{2} \delta_{ab} f^{abc} T_{b} Y_{c}$

Continuity $g_{a} \frac{1}{2} \delta^{a} \tilde{d}^{4} \phi + g_{a} \lambda \tilde{d}^{a} \phi \lambda + g_{a} \beta \tilde{d}^{a} \left( \frac{1}{2} \tilde{d}^{4} - 3 \phi \right)$

$$ g_{a} \beta \left( \frac{1}{2} d^{4} - \frac{1}{2} \phi \right) \quad (g_{5} = \frac{1}{16 \pi^{2}} g_{1}) $$

Where, really, $g_{5} = g_{7} = g_{8} = g_{5} = g_{7}$

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If you compute, say $e^{-\gamma_{\text{Euler}}}$ in the Gur in terms of its coupling
constant $\alpha_{\text{s}}$, you'll find to 1-loop that

$$A = A_{\text{Born}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{\pi} \ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}^2}{\Lambda^2} \right)$$

Here $c$ is some number of $\pi$, and I've omitted stuff that does not contain $\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}^2}{\Lambda^2}$.

Now $\alpha_{\text{s}} \approx \frac{1}{2}$ (so $\alpha_{\text{s}}^0$ is fair to typical) and $c$ can easily be more than $10$ (if not for this process), for some of the great many low energy processes in the PDG book).

Not only is the 1-loop correction large, $\sim 0.10\%$, at 2-loops

there will be a correction of order $\left(\frac{\alpha_{\text{s}}^0 \ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}^2}{\Lambda^2}}{\pi} \right)^2$.

If you can account for all the terms of the form $\left(\frac{\alpha_{\text{s}}^0 \ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}^2}{\Lambda^2}}{\pi} \right)^n$, say by summing the corresponding $\sum C_n \left(\frac{\alpha_{\text{s}}^0 \ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}^2}{\Lambda^2}}{\pi} \right)^n$, then the next order gives corrections of the form $\sum C_n \alpha_{\text{s}}^0 \left(\frac{\alpha_{\text{s}}^0 \ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}^2}{\Lambda^2}}{\pi} \right)^n$. It $\frac{\alpha_{\text{s}}^0}{\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}^2}{\Lambda^2}} \gg 1$, then these subleading corrections are of order $\frac{\alpha_{\text{s}}^0}{\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}^2}{\Lambda^2}} \sim \frac{1}{\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}^2}{\Lambda^2}} \approx \frac{1}{\pi}$. Nice. All we need to do to get per-cent accuracy is to sum those "leading logs.

But failing to do so we incur in 100% errors.

The EFT technique takes advantage of the simpler form of the RG equation when there is only one relevant scale (or at a time!) in the problem to sum the leading logs (LL) and if needed the next-to-LL (NLL) is $\left(\frac{\alpha_{\text{s}}^0 \ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}^2}{\Lambda^2}}{\pi} \right)^n$, etc.
2. Appelquist-Carrozzone Decoupling Theorem

Not a mathematician...

Consider a theory with \( Y = \mathcal{L}_{\text{light}} + \frac{1}{2} (\phi^2 - M^2 \phi^2) + \mathcal{L}_{\phi} \)

\( \mathcal{L}_{\phi} \) may involve many fields, but all of mass \( \ll M \). It depend on parameters \( g_{\phi} \) (and \( m_{\phi} \)). \( \mathcal{L}_{\phi} \) is due to interactions between \( g_{\phi} \) and light fields and depends on \( g_{\phi} \), and possibly additionally on coupling \( \alpha \).

Consider Green functions \( G^{(n)}(p_1, \ldots, p_n) \) (of boson amplitudes) of light particles (assumed to be linear field) restricted to \( |p_i| \ll M \). Then

\[
G^{(n)}(k_{1}, \ldots, k_{n}) = Z^{n/2} \mathcal{G}^{(n)}(k_{1}, \ldots, k_{n}) + \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{M})
\]

where \( \mathcal{G}^{(n)} \) is computed from

\[
\mathcal{G}^{(n)} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{light}}
\]

where \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{light}} \) is constructed out of the fields in \( \mathcal{L}_{\phi} \) with new (possibly) weak couplings \( g_{\phi} \).

The \( Z = Z(g_{\phi}, M) \), are not functions of momenta and are universal (the same choice of \( g_{\phi} \) and \( M \) for any Green function).

The meaning is clear: heavy particles appear in \( G^{(n)} \) only through virtual effects, by construction. At large \( M \) (\( M \gg m_{\phi} \)) the effects of \( M \) decrease as \( \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{M^n}) \), except when \( M \) appears in logs. The content of the decoupling theorem is that:

(i) There are no positive powers of \( M \), and
(ii) The \( \log M \) terms can all be absorbed into \( g_{\phi} \) and \( Z \).

For the theorem to work, you have to be able to take \( M \) arbitrarily large holding \( g_{\phi} \) constant. It fails when \( M = g_{\phi} \) because either \( N \to \infty \) and all particles get heavy, or \( g_{\phi} \to \infty \) together with \( M \). So \( \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{M^n}) \) corrections can go as \( \mathcal{O}(\frac{g_{\phi}^2}{M^n}) = \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{M^n}) \).
Think of $SU(5)$. We can apply decoupling to the heavy field. Then by construction $Z(4)$ is just the $4 \times 15$ coupling $Z(15)$. What's going on is that in

$$
\sum_{\text{vev's}} \sim m^{4} + \frac{\alpha}{\pi} \ln \frac{m^{2}}{\Lambda^{2}} + \left( \frac{\alpha}{\pi} \ln \frac{m^{2}}{\Lambda^{2}} + \cdots \right) + \cdots
$$

the effect of $\alpha$ differentiates the photon ($e/2$) from given by difference in $\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{m^{2}}$. The $Z(4)$ $\alpha_{3}$-energy $g^{2}Z(4)$ has

$$
\frac{\alpha_{3}}{\alpha_{e}} \sim \frac{\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{\Lambda^{2}}}{\frac{1}{4}} \sim \frac{\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{\Lambda^{2}}}{\frac{1}{4}} \sim \frac{\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{\Lambda^{2}}}{\frac{1}{4}}
$$

so using $\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{\Lambda^{2}}$, the new coupling has been shifted by $\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{\Lambda^{2}}$.

$$
\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{\Lambda^{2}} \sim \frac{\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{\Lambda^{2}}}{\frac{1}{4}} \sim \frac{\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{\Lambda^{2}}}{\frac{1}{4}} \sim \frac{\ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{\Lambda^{2}}}{\frac{1}{4}}
$$

The external energy has some self-energy correction but can also be broken into contributions from the heavy that go into $Z(4)$ and contributions for the light that are produced by $Z(4)$.

$$
\frac{4}{(1+\pi \ln \frac{m^{2}}{\Lambda^{2}})} \sim \frac{4}{(1+\pi \ln \frac{m^{2}}{\Lambda^{2}})} \sim \frac{4}{(1+\pi \ln \frac{m^{2}}{\Lambda^{2}})}
$$

In a way, this is yet a factorization theorem (but not really, since $\Lambda$ is everywhere).
RGE (Renormalization Group Equation) and “running” and “matching”

So the above diagrammatic discussion explains how different coupling constants arise in the low energy EFT for a GUT. But there is something unsatisfactory in that presentation: it requires that we compute loops with heavy particles to get, say, $\alpha \left( e^+ e^- \rightarrow \gamma + \text{nu} \right)$ at low energy.

But we know $\alpha$ is not right. We can compute $\sigma$ at $\sim E_\text{cm} \sim 1 \text{ TeV}$ in QED ignoring the effects of W/Z bosons (let alone X/Y vector bosons). And in fact the decoupling theorem says precisely that; for this case compute in QED with coupling $\alpha_\text{em} \left( e^+ e^- \right)$ which implicitly is given as a function of $\alpha_\text{em}$ and $\ln M_\text{cut}$ (under $g_\text{EM}$ of EW theory and $\ln M_{W/Z}$).

While we can then blissfully ignore that $\alpha_\text{em}$ is a function of $g$ and $M$, sometimes we would like to know what this functional dependence is. For example, the EFT (with SM) of a GUT should have $(SM = SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1))$ three couplings $g_1, g_2, g_3$:

$$g_i = g \left( \alpha_{\text{em}}, M_{\text{cut}} \right), \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

(sorry $g_{\text{cut}} = g_5$, I go barking out in notation)

3 functions of 2 parameter $\rightarrow 1$ relation.

So figuring out this functional dependence is interesting...
To figure this out, let's think of how coupling constants enter measurable quantities (aka, "observables"). For $\sigma$, we already talked about $\sigma(e^+e^-\rightarrow\mu^+\mu^-)$. We could look at $\sigma(\nu\bar{\nu}\rightarrow d\bar{d})$ for $\alpha_s$, etc. Now

$$e^+ e^- \rightarrow \mu^+ \mu^- \sim \frac{e^2}{s} \quad s=(p+\not{p}_d)^2 = 4E^2 \quad \text{(Mandelstam variable)}$$

At large $s$, $s \gg \mu^2$ we can ignore masses of $e, \mu$.

So here is the plan: figure out $\sigma$'s $s$-dependence of $\sigma(s)$ and use that to infer the $\ln M^2/\mu^2$ which we know will break into $\ln M^2/\mu^2$ (that goes into the implicit dependence of $\alpha_s$) and $\ln \mu^2/s$ (which will be explicit).

To make use $RGE$ as follows. By dimensional analysis,

$$\sigma(s, \mu, g) \sim \frac{1}{s} f \left( \frac{\mu^2}{s}, g \right) \quad \text{(here $s$ is any other dimensionless, coupling constants. We can also do more later on, at a time.)}$$

The $RGE$ says that in the observable quantity $\sigma$ we can change the renormalization point $\mu \rightarrow \mu + \delta \mu$ and compensate with a change in $g \rightarrow g + \delta g = g + \beta(\mu) \delta \mu$ for some function $\beta(\mu)$ so that the physical quantities, like $\sigma$, do not change:

$$\sigma(s, \mu+\delta\mu, g+\beta(\mu)\delta\mu) = \sigma(s, \mu, g) \Rightarrow \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \mu^2} + \beta(\mu) \right) \sigma = 0$$

or, with $\sigma = \frac{1}{s} f(\mu, s)$, $\left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \mu^2} + \beta(\mu) \right) f = 0$. 

2019-11-12 16:21:33 12/52 Week 1 (12/52)
Solving the RCE

Let \( \frac{dt}{dt} = \frac{dz}{\beta(g)} \) (saves ink), \((\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \beta(g) \frac{\partial}{\partial g}) f(t, g) = 0 \)

Introduce "RCE flow": Let \( \bar{g}(t, g) \) be a solution to

\[
\frac{d\bar{g}}{dt} = \beta(\bar{g}) \text{ with boundary condition } \bar{g}(0, g) = g
\]

Then \( f(t, g) = f(0, \bar{g}(-t, g)) \) is the solution.

To show this, first write a hint:

\[
\frac{\partial \bar{g}}{\partial g} = \beta(\bar{g})
\]

This follows from

\[
dt = \frac{d\bar{g}}{\beta(\bar{g})} \Rightarrow t = \int \frac{d\bar{g}}{\beta(\bar{g})} = \int \frac{\bar{g}(t, g) + \varepsilon g \frac{\partial}{\partial g} \varepsilon}{\varepsilon + \varepsilon g \frac{\partial}{\partial g} \varepsilon} \]

So we propose \( f(t, g) \) depends only on its arguments through

the combination \( \bar{g}(-t, g) \): \( f(t, g) = F(\bar{g}(-t, g)) \). Check

\[
(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \beta(g) \frac{\partial}{\partial g}) F(\bar{g}(-t, g)) = \frac{DF}{d\bar{g}} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \bar{g}(-t, g) + \frac{DF}{d\bar{g}} \frac{\partial}{\partial g} \bar{g}(-t, g)
\]

\[
= \frac{DF}{d\bar{g}} [-\beta(\bar{g}) + \beta(g) \beta(\bar{g})] = 0
\]

Finally, since \( f(t, g) = F(\bar{g}(-t, g)) \), then evaluating at \( t=0 \)

\( f(0, g) = F(\bar{g}(0, g)) = F(g) \). So the functional dependence of

\( F(g) \) is given by \( f(0, x) \Rightarrow f(t, g) = f(0, \bar{g}(-t, g)) = f(0, g(-t, g)) \)

Note that the functional form is not fixed by the RCE, i.e., \( f(0, x) \) is arbitrary.

Compare, say, with \((v \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}) f(x, t) = 0 \) having \( f(x-vt, 0) \) as solutions.
We can now use our solution \( s = \sigma(\varepsilon - y_{\mu}) \)

\[ \sigma = \frac{1}{\kappa} \int \bar{M}(s, g) = \frac{1}{\kappa} \int \bar{M}(1, \bar{s}(\ln \frac{s}{\mu^2}, g)) \]

By the way the amplitude \( \bar{M}(f - \ln m_t^2) \) also satisfies this RGE so

\[ \bar{M}(\ln s, g) = \bar{M}(1, \bar{s}(\ln \frac{s}{\mu^2}, g)) \]

How do we use this to determine \( g_s \) in terms of \( g, M_{\text{cut}} \)?

Well, we should get the same \( \bar{M} \), up to corrections of order \( E/M_{\text{cut}} \). But the problem is to compute reliably.

So to avoid large logs take \( s \sim M_{\text{cut}}^2 \sim M_{\text{cut}}^2 \).

\[ \text{CUT scale} \quad \bar{M} = \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) + \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) + \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) + \ldots \]

\[ = g_{\text{sc}}^4 + g_{\text{sc}}^3 \frac{1}{4 \pi} \text{(constant + ln 1)} + \ldots \]

\[ \text{SM scale} \quad \bar{M} = \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) + \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) + \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) + \ldots \]

\[ = g^2 + g^3 \frac{1}{4 \pi} \left( \ln s \text{(constant + ln 1)} \right) + \ldots \]

So to lowest order we agree if \( g_s = g_{\text{sc}} \), and recall \( \text{HLR} \) provided \( s = M_{\text{cut}}^2 = M_{\text{cut}}^2 \) (or approximately \( HLR \)), all we need is that \( \frac{\alpha_s}{\alpha} \frac{\ln M_{\text{cut}}^2}{M_{\text{cut}}^2} \ll 1 \) and \( \frac{\alpha}{\alpha} \frac{\ln s}{s} \ll 1 \) (and \( \frac{\alpha_s}{\alpha} \frac{\ln s}{s} \ll 1 \)).

Setting \( g_s = g_s \) at \( M = M_{\text{cut}} \) means, in SM

\[ \bar{M} = \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) + \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) + \left( \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) + \ldots \]

= \mu^2 + \frac{\mu^2}{4 \pi} \left( \text{constant + ln 1} \right) + \ldots \]
But since the starting point is arbitrary

\[ \bar{g}_s(\ln \frac{M}{M_{\text{cut}}}, g_s) = \bar{g}_s(\ln \frac{M}{M_{\text{cut}}}, g_s) \]

and setting \( s = m \)

\[ g_s = \bar{g}_s(\ln \frac{M}{M_{\text{cut}}}, g_s) \]

So this is a long, roundabout way of obtaining a result you probably already knew, that the coupling constants of the SM in a CFT are given by their own "running" functions, with the condition that at \( \mu = M_{\text{cut}} \) they are all equal (and equal to \( g_{\text{cut}} \)).

But this careful reasoning will be ported to many other computations AND shows what you need to do to compute corrections. More about this shortly.

**Terminology:**

That we fix \( g_s \) at \( \mu = M_{\text{cut}} \) to equal \( g_s \) is called "matching."

That we then compute \( g_s \) for other \( \mu \) using the RGE is called "running."

\[ \Rightarrow \text{match \& run} \]
Let's investigate this a bit more.

Solve for $\beta_1(t)$ using lowest order approximation to $\beta_2(t)$

$$\beta_1(t) = \frac{b_0}{16\pi^2} g_s^2 + O(g_s^3)$$

Here, $b_0 = \frac{11}{3} C_2(\mathcal{C}) - \frac{2}{3} N_f T(R_f) - \frac{1}{3} N_s T(R_s)$

where $T(R) T^a T^b = T(R) \delta^{ab}$ for the $R$-rep of group $G$

and for $R = \text{Adj}$ $T^a T^a = C_7(\mathcal{C})$

In general $T^a T^a = C_7(R) I$; now $T(R) T^a T^a = C_7(R) \text{dim}(R)$

and $b_0 = T(R) \text{dim}((\text{Adj})) \Rightarrow C_7((\text{Adj})) = T((\text{Adj})) = N$ for $\text{SU}(N)$

Also $N_f = \# \text{Dirac fermions in rep } R_f$, $N_s = \# \text{complex scalars in } R_s$

(put a $\frac{1}{2}$ for $W_0$ or Majorana fermions, and for real scalar)

Example:

For $\text{SU}(3)$ $\downarrow \text{SM} \quad b_0^{(3)} = \frac{11}{3} - \frac{4}{3} \cdot 6 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{7}{3}$

$\Rightarrow \text{dim}(\text{Fundamental}) = 3$

Exercise: $b_0^{(1)} = \frac{1}{6}$

For $\text{U}(1)$, $C_2(\mathcal{C}) = 0$ (Exercise: why?) and $T(R) = Q_R$

where $Q_R$ is the charge under $\text{U}(1)$ transformation

For example, for $\text{U}(1) \downarrow \text{SM}$ (hypercharge, $Q_R = Y$), $Y = \frac{-1}{2}$ for $e$.

Exercise: $b_0^{(1)} = -6$
\[ \frac{d}{dt} \frac{d \bar{g}}{dt} = - \frac{g}{\Lambda^3} \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{g^2} \right) = -2 \frac{1}{g^3} \left( \frac{d}{dt} \frac{1}{\Lambda^3} \right) = \frac{G^2}{8 \Lambda^3} \]

\[ 1 - \frac{1}{\bar{g}^2(t)} - \frac{1}{g^2} = \frac{G^2}{8 \Lambda^3} t \quad \text{or with} \quad \bar{g} = \frac{G}{4 \Lambda} \]

\[ \frac{1}{\bar{g}(t)} - \frac{1}{\bar{g}} = \frac{G}{2 \Lambda} t \]

We can use this several ways: recall \( g_{\nu} = \bar{g} \left( \ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{M_{\text{cut}}} \right) \)

\[ \alpha_{\lambda
u} = \bar{g} \left( \ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{M_{\text{cut}}} \right) = \left( \frac{1}{\bar{g}} + \frac{b_1}{2 \Lambda} \ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{M_{\text{cut}}} \right) = \frac{d \bar{g}}{d \ln M_{\text{cut}}} \]

which shows explicitly the dependence of \( \alpha_{\lambda} \) on \( d \ln M_{\text{cut}} \)

Taking the difference at \( t \) we eliminate \( d \bar{g} : \)

\[ \frac{1}{\bar{g}(t)} - \frac{1}{\bar{g}(t)} = \frac{G}{2 \Lambda} \left( t - t' \right) = \frac{G}{2 \Lambda} \ln \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{M_{\text{cut}}} \]

This can be used to input \( \bar{g}(M_{\text{cut}}) \) and compute \( \bar{g}(\mu) \) as a function of \( \mu \) and see at what point all 3 couplings meet — if at all? That then determines \( \alpha_{\lambda} = \bar{g}(M_{\text{cut}}) = \bar{g}(M_{\text{cut}}) = \bar{g}(M_{\text{cut}}) \)

Note I used \( \bar{g} = \frac{5}{3} \alpha \).

Exercise: try \( \bar{g}(M_{\text{cut}}) \) (see my attempt, next page)

Use \( \bar{g}(M_{\text{cut}}) \approx 0.11 \) and for \( \alpha_1 \) and \( \alpha_2 \) recall \( \alpha = \frac{g_1^2 + g_2^2}{\sqrt{g_1^2 + g_2^2}} = g \)

and \( \cos \theta = \frac{M_{\text{cut}}}{M_{\text{cut}}} = \frac{160}{80} \) and \( \frac{\alpha_i}{120} \) and \( \frac{\alpha_i}{4 \pi} \)

Plot linear functions: \( \frac{1}{\alpha_i(t)} = \frac{1}{\alpha_i(M_{\text{cut}})} + c \frac{t}{2 \Lambda} \) \( (t = \ln M_{\text{cut}} / M_{\text{cut}}) \)
\begin{align*}
\text{In}[14] &:= \text{Plot}\{\{a[7, 0.112], a[19/6, 1/127/(1 - (8/9)^2)], a[-6, 5/3*1/127/((8/9)^2)]\},
\{t, 0, 40\}\} \\
\text{Out}[14] &= \\
\end{align*}
Exercise: Consider the nHDM = n Higgs doublet extension of the SM (i.e., SM is n=1). Do the coupling constants tend to unify better than in the SM for some values of n?

Note that

\[ \bar{\alpha}_s(t) = \alpha_s \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\alpha_s}{6\pi} \ln t} = \alpha_s \frac{\frac{b_0}{2\pi} \ln M_{\text{QCD}}}{1 + \frac{\alpha_s}{6\pi} \ln t} \]

5. The RGE has summed up the \( \ln(M^2) \) terms. This is called the "leading-log" (LL) resummation.

Note also that

- Matching involved \( \chi_{\alpha_s} \rightarrow \chi_{\alpha_s} \) (at the beta)
- "Running" involved 1-loop beta function (from \( M^2 \))

This is fairly common, match the \( \alpha \), run = 1-loop.

How do we improve approximation?

- Match 1-loop \( \Rightarrow \beta_0 = \beta_0 \) + \( \bar{\alpha}_s \) \( \left( M = M_{\text{QCD}} \right) \)
- Run at 2-loops \( \Rightarrow \beta_2 = \frac{\beta_0^2}{\beta_0} \bar{\alpha}_s + \frac{\beta_0^2}{\beta_0} \bar{\alpha}_s^2 \)

This formally gives \( \bar{\alpha}_s(t) \) \( \Rightarrow \alpha_s \left[ \frac{\beta_0}{2\pi} \ln M_{\text{QCD}} \right] + \alpha_s \sum_n \alpha_n \left[ \frac{\beta_0}{2\pi} \ln M_{\text{QCD}} \right] ^n \)

It includes next-to-leading-log (NLL) resummation.

Ex: Show \( \gamma \)!? (solve \( \beta_1 \) to 2-loops)
3. Beyond $\mathcal{L}_{\text{light}}$

Light is the most general renormalizable lagrangian of the light fields. (It may be less general if exact symmetries of full QFT lead terms in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{light}}$.) But there are processes described by $\mathcal{L}_{\text{light}}$ involving only external light fields (i.e., scattering of light fields) that may be entirely absent from $\mathcal{L}_{\text{light}}$. For example,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{light}} \supset \frac{i}{4} \epsilon^{\mu \nu \lambda \sigma} \partial_{\mu} A_{\nu} (A_{\lambda} A_{\sigma})^2$$

There are no terms in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{light}}$, one can write (consistent with gauge symmetry) heat equations where (as heat produce any $\Delta \mathcal{L}_{\text{light}}$).

Instead we must supplement $\mathcal{L}_{\text{light}}$ with

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}} \supset \mathcal{L}_{\text{light}} + \frac{1}{\Lambda^2} \int \frac{d^4 \phi}{M_{\phi}} + \frac{1}{M^2} \int \frac{d^4 \phi}{M_{\phi}} + \ldots$$

where $\lambda^{(n)}$ is made of operators of dimension $n$ contracted only out of light fields and we couplings $\lambda^{(2)}$.

It is easy to see how this works at tree level:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}} = \lambda^{(2)} J_1 \cdot J_2 \left[ -i \frac{\lambda^{(2)}}{p^2 M^2} \right] \rightarrow \frac{\lambda^{(2)} J_1 \cdot J_2}{M^2} \quad \text{for} \ |p| < M$$

This is, after all, what we saw in the Introduction, the very essence of EFTs (and historically the 1st in case of weak interactions).
4. Beyond tree level

We have established (quite trivially) that in GUT for some AB tetra-vertex

\[ G^{(4)}(\pi_1 \cdots \pi_4) = (1) \tilde{G}^{(4)}(\pi_1 \cdots \pi_4) + \ldots \]

The same applies to weak interaction if an exchanged particle is a W/L and the external states are quarks (except t) or leptons.

Diagramatically

\[ \begin{align*}
\chi_{\mu} \chi_{\nu} & = \chi \chi \\
\text{Formally,} \quad & \lim_{M \to \infty} \left[ M^2 \left( \chi_{\mu} \chi_{\nu} - \chi \chi \right) \right] = 0
\end{align*} \]

Go to 1-loop. Stay with weak interaction at heavy, and quark-gluon as light. Then we want to show

\[ \chi_{\mu} \chi_{\nu} + \chi_{\mu} \chi_{\nu} + \chi_{\mu} \chi_{\nu} + \ldots \]

\[ = \left( Z_{\mu \nu} \right)^{1/2} \left[ X + \chi \chi + \chi \chi + \ldots \right] \]

At least for now, graphs on LHS are in 1-1 correspondence with RHS.

So compare one at a time.
\[ \Rightarrow \quad \chi = \chi + O \left( \frac{1}{m^2} \right) \]

Recall, this has explicit \( \frac{1}{m^2} \)

Non-sense. LHS \( \sim \int d^4 k \left( \frac{1}{k^2} \right) \left( \frac{g_{\mu \nu}}{k^2} \right) \left( \frac{g_{\mu \nu}}{m^2} \right) = \text{finite} \) (renormalizable gauge)

RHS \( \sim \int d^4 k \left( \frac{1}{k^2} \right) \left( \frac{g_{\mu \nu}}{m^2} \right) \left( \frac{1}{m^2} \right) = \log \text{divergent} \)

Oops! We need to renormalize. But let's try to see if the finite part has the correct \( \mu \) dependence, while the \( \log \) part has trivial \( \mu \) dependence.

To this end, take \( \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \) on both sides of the equation.

Now, if \( \mu = \mu_0 \), then depending on how you route momenta through the graph, \( \mu \) (for some \( \mu \)) will appear in at least one but possibly more lines. On any propagator

\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \text{ increases the degree of convergence:} \]

\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \left( \frac{1}{(k+p)^2 - m^2} \right) = - \frac{2k \cdot p}{(k+p)^2 - m^2} \sim \frac{1}{\mu} \text{ at large } k \]

Diagrammatically \( \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \left( \frac{k+p}{(k+p)^2 - m^2} \right) = \frac{k+p}{(k+p)^2 - m^2} \wedge \frac{1}{(k+p)^2 - m^2} \)

Decide to try: take \( \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \)

\[ \Rightarrow \quad \chi = \chi + \ldots \]

To see that this works, consider \( \lim_{m \to} \left( \frac{m^2}{\chi} \right) \)
Since \[ \lim \int M^2(\cdots) \frac{1}{k^2 - M^2} \text{ converges uniformly and so does} \]
\[ \int \lim M^2(\cdots) \frac{1}{k^2 - M^2} = \int - (\cdots) \]

so math nonsense \(\Rightarrow\) they are equal. But the RHS is just \(\frac{1}{\mu^2} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{k^2}{M^2}} \).

Do this for each propagator on which \(\frac{1}{\mu^2} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{k^2}{M^2}} \) acts, and

for every \( i = \ldots, 1 \). (Do also \( \frac{\partial}{\partial m} \) if internal light particles have masses; note \( m_0 \text{light}, M_0 \text{heavy} \).

Note: \( \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \text{ or } \frac{\partial}{\partial m} \) does not increase degree of convergence when it acts on external legs \(\Rightarrow\) consider amplified Green functions.

Dealing properly with \( 2 \text{pt functions} \) will result in the factor of \( 2^{\frac{1}{2}} \)

for each external leg. It is fairly superfluous so we'll ignore from now on.

So \( \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho_i} \frac{g}{m_0} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho_i} \frac{g}{m_0} \) (from here on it's understood this means \( \lim M^2(\cdots) = \lim M^2(\cdots) \)).

Integrating back we have

\[ \frac{g}{m_0} = \frac{g}{m_0} + f(p',p_0,p_u) \text{ but not } p. \]

Repeating the argument for the other \( p_i \) (and \( m \)) we conclude that

\[ \frac{g}{m_0} = \frac{g}{m_0} + C \]

\( C \) can depend on \( \theta_5 \) and \( M \) (namely \( g_5 \) and \( M_5 \)). Moreover its infinite. Finally it must have the same chiral structure as the other terms. \( \delta g_5(1-\delta g_5) \otimes \delta_0(1-\delta_5) \) which up to a numerical factor is \(\chi\).
so rewriting $C \to C \times$ and noting that $C = \Theta \left( \frac{d_x}{y} \right)$ we have

$$\chi_m + \chi_m' = (1 + c) \left[ \chi \times \chi \right]$$

Of course this goes through when we include all 1-loop diagrams.

So we obtain

$$\Gamma^{(1)}(p_1, \ldots, p_n) = \frac{1}{\mu^3} G \Gamma^{(1)}(p_1, \ldots, p_n) + \ldots$$

where: $\Gamma = \text{amplitude Green functions, renormalized}$

$\bar{\mu} = \text{den in EFT}$

$\Gamma_0 = \text{idem with a zero momentum inserted, bare operator, O}$

$C = \text{Finite coefficient (on part in normal, ren)}$

$\ldots = \text{higher order in } \frac{1}{\mu^3}$.

Comments:

- $C$ has an expansion, $C = 1 + c \left( \frac{d_x}{y} \right) + \ldots$; it may depend on $M$ but not on $p_1 \ldots p_n$.

- The dependence on $p_1 \ldots p_n$ is the same as same analytic structure (same cuts, poles, residues, etc.) provided $|p_i| < M_\omega$. ("inside" or "full" a EFT).

- The two differ badly at $p_1 \gg M_\omega$.

- The above result is summarized by stating that $\Delta y = \mathcal{T} + \frac{1}{\mu^3} \mathcal{O}$

- For many applications (e.g., mixing) we need

$$\text{Amp} \propto \langle \psi_{\text{fin}} | \gamma_i | \psi_{\text{fin}} \rangle \approx \frac{1}{M^3} C \langle \psi_{\text{fin}} | O | \psi_{\text{fin}} \rangle$$

- Can be extended to all orders in perturbation theory.
5. RGE improvement

So \( C = C(M, \mu) \) is dimensionless → it depends on \( M \) through the ratio \( M/\mu \), \( \mu \) = renormalization scale, which has been implicit.

Now

\[
\frac{d}{d\mu} \frac{d}{d\mu} \left( \frac{\psi_{\mu}}{M} \right) = 0 \quad \text{becomes} \quad \text{amplitudes are } \mu\text{-independent}
\]

So if \( M \frac{d}{d\mu} = \chi \Rightarrow M \frac{d}{d\mu} \text{=} -\chi \)

Since \( C = C(M, \mu) \)

\[
\left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \beta(g) \frac{\partial}{\partial g} \right) C(t, g) = -\chi(g) C(t, g) \quad \text{, } t = \ln M
\]

Solution as before, let \( g : \frac{d\bar{g}(t)}{dt} = \beta(\bar{g}(t)) + \bar{g}(t) = \bar{g} \)

Before we solve for \( C \), let's review the solution for an observable

\[
\frac{df}{dt} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \beta(g) \frac{\partial}{\partial g} \right) f(t, g) = 0 \quad \text{We had} \quad f(t, g) = f(0, \bar{g}(t))
\]

Let's obtain this again in a manner that may shed a bit more light into the RGE.

First, the Eq. \( df/dt = 0 \) means that along \( g(t) \) the function is constant:

\[
g(t) \rightarrow f(t, g(t)) = f(t, g(t)) \quad \text{(at } t, g(t) )
\]

Now, pick an arbitrary point in the \( t-g \) plane, say \( p = (t', g') \) (I'll drop primes at end) and set \( f = f(t', g') \) for all points on the trajectory that goes through \( p \):

\[
f(t, g) = f(t'+t, g(t)) \quad \text{(with } g(0) = g \text{ as before})
\]

Then setting \( t = -t' \):

\[
f(t, g) = f(t, g) = f(0, g(t)) \quad \text{(and now drop primes)}
\]
So $\frac{d}{dt}$ is just the rate of change along the trajectory and to solve \((\frac{d^2}{dt^2} + \frac{\partial}{\partial g}) \chi(t, g) = -\chi(g) \chi(t, g)\)

we can evaluate this on the trajectory $\frac{d}{dt} \chi = -\chi \chi$.

Note that $\chi(t, g)$ depends on $t$. So the equation looks like

the dependent perturbation theory $i \frac{d\psi}{dt} = H(t) \psi$. If $\chi_0$ were a matrix, $\chi$ were a vector and $[\chi_0(t), \chi_0(t')] \neq 0$ then the solution would involve a $t$-ordered product

$$\chi(t) = T e^{-\int_0^t \chi_0(t') dt'} \chi_0$$

We can change variables for the integration: use $dt = \frac{d\bar{g}}{\partial g}$ and the fact that $\chi_0(t)$ is monotonic.

Exercise: Why is $\chi_0(t)$ monotonic? (Assume 4 coupling $\partial_1$)

Then $$\chi(t) = P e^{-\int_0^t \frac{\chi_0(t')}{\partial g} \chi_0(t') dt'} \chi_0$$ where the lower limit $\chi_0 = g$

where $P$ is a path-ordered (g-ordered) exponential

and this can be ignored when $\chi_0$ is not a matrix.

More on the matrix case below. But first, what does this look like at leading order:
For example, at 1-loop \( \gamma_0 = \frac{a}{b_0} \), \( \beta_0 = -b_0 \frac{a^3}{16b_0} \),

\[
\Rightarrow \quad C(t) = \exp \left( -\int_{\frac{\beta_0(t)}{\beta_0}}^{\gamma_0(t)} \frac{C_i}{(-b_0)} \left( \frac{d \gamma}{\gamma} \right) \right) C(0)
\]

\[
= \exp \left( \frac{C_i}{b_0} \left[ \ln \frac{\gamma(t)}{\gamma(0)} \right] \right) C(0)
\]

\[
= \left( \frac{\beta_0(t)}{\beta_0(0)} \right)^\frac{C_i}{b_0} C(0)
\]

So, as before, \( C(0) \) is computed at \( \mu = M \) so that there are no large logs in comparing full & effective amplitudes,

\[
\mathcal{M} + \mathcal{M}^{\text{leading}} + \cdots = \frac{C}{M^2} \left[ \mathcal{M} + \mathcal{M}^{\text{leading}} + \cdots \right] \quad \text{(renormalized)}
\]

and therefore \( C(0) \) is perturbatively computed as an expansion in powers of \( \beta_0(t) \).

\[
C(M) = C(0) = C_0 + \frac{\beta_0(t)}{2} C_1 + \cdots \quad \text{"matching"}
\]

\[
C(\mu) = \left( \frac{\beta_0(t)}{\beta_0(0)} \right)^\frac{C_i}{b_0} C(M) \quad \text{"running"}
\]

**Comments:**

1. From \( \frac{\beta_0(t)}{\beta_0(0)} = 1 + \frac{a}{2b_0} \ln \frac{M^2}{\mu^2} \)

\[
\left( \frac{\beta_0(t)}{\beta_0(0)} \right)^\frac{C_i}{b_0} = \left( 1 + \frac{a}{2b_0} \ln \frac{M^2}{\mu^2} \right)^\frac{C_i}{b_0} = 1 - \frac{C_i}{4b_0} \ln \frac{M^2}{\mu^2} + \cdots + \left( \frac{C_i}{4b_0} \ln \frac{M^2}{\mu^2} \right)^n \quad \text{terms}
\]

We see again this is a sum of leading logs (LL).
The 1st log term is as expected from \( \mu, F_n^2 \approx \epsilon \frac{g_0}{g}\frac{F_n^2}{\mu} \approx \epsilon \frac{g_0}{g} \). One can check, explicitly, to lowest order, \( \frac{d}{d\mu} \left( -\frac{5}{4\pi} \ln \mu \right) \mathcal{O}(\epsilon) = -\frac{5}{4\pi} \mathcal{O}(\epsilon) \).

Alternatively, ignore running of \( g \) (which is higher order) – an instructive exercise since it shows now that quantum effects dominate running ends. \( \frac{d}{d\mu} g = -\frac{5}{6\pi} \frac{g_0}{g} g \Rightarrow g(\mu) \approx g_0 e^{-\frac{5}{6\pi} \frac{g_0}{g} \ln \mu} = 1 - \frac{5}{12\pi} \frac{g_0}{g} \ln \mu + \cdots \).

2. In \( \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^2/\epsilon^4) \) we have separated scales (remember \( \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^2) \))

\[
\ln \frac{\Lambda^2}{\Lambda} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \Lambda \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{\alpha} = \ln \frac{\Lambda}{\Lambda_0}
\]

Where do we want to deal with large logs?

Compute \( \mathcal{O}(\epsilon) \) even with large logs as per last page provides \( \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^3) \to \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^4) \)

Stay perturbative.

In practice use \( m \) as low as 2 GeV \( (\text{or even 1 GeV}) \), and let non-perturbative methods deal with \( \ln \frac{\Lambda}{\Lambda_0} \), a small log. (in, say, lattice QCD)

Let's do an explicit example
5.1 Left for \( c \rightarrow s \bar{d} u \) in QED

\[
\Delta C = -\Delta V = 1 \quad \Delta s = -\Delta d = -1 \quad \text{Left in SM}
\]

In SM

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{proc} & \quad \frac{\Delta}{\mathcal{W}} = \frac{\Delta V}{2} \text{e}^{\frac{1}{2} (1 - 2s) c \bar{u} y (1 - 2s) d} \times \left( \frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 V_{ud} V_{cs} \\
& \quad \times \left( \frac{g_\mu - f_{\pi K} / M_W}{M_W^2} \right) \text{ [Unitary gauge]}
\end{align*}
\]

Here \( u, c, d, s \) are just Dirac spinors (c-numbers, 4-components labeled by momentum \& spin).

Near, at \( |k| \ll M_W \)

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{W} & \quad = -\frac{3}{2} V_{ud} V_{cs}^* \tilde{g}_\mu - \mathcal{O}(k^2)
\end{align*}
\]

So we match:

\[
\gamma_{\text{eff}} = -\frac{3}{2} \frac{V_{ud} V_{cs}^*}{M_W^2} \mathcal{O}(k^2)
\]

where \( \mathcal{O}(x) \) is an operator, \( \mathcal{O}(x) = \tilde{g}_\mu \Gamma^\mu \Gamma^\nu \bar{c} \Gamma^\nu \bar{s} \Gamma^\alpha d \Gamma^\beta x \mu \)

I am pedantically indicating the \( u, d, s, c \) are now fields (operators on the Hilbert space, in fact). I won’t do this will be implicit from here on. But it’s clear that the up-tot function matches that of the SM (at tree level):

\[
\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{O} + \mathcal{O}(k^2)
\]

With this we can compute, e.g., \( \mathcal{W} \gamma_{\text{eff}} | D^+ \rangle \)

\[
= -\frac{3}{2} \frac{V_{ud} V_{cs}^*}{M_W^2} \mathcal{O}(\mu) \langle \mathcal{W} D^+ | \mathcal{O} | D^+ \rangle (\mu)
\]
which is $m$-independent, but we only know $G(m)$ at $m=M_0$. This choice would have us compute the matrix element of $\mathcal{O}$ at $\mu=M_0$ and this would be a tough multi-scale problem. But we know how to proceed: `1D' (nD) $\Rightarrow$ $m \sim M_0$.

We need to compute $Y_0$.

Note that the dominant running (i.e., largest logs) come from QCD, so we will should QCD. But QED is simpler, so we start with that.

We compute in dimensional regularization.

Use $d=4-e$. Recall $\dim(A_0) = \frac{d-2}{2}$ and $\dim(\psi) = \frac{d-1}{2}$.

So the bare gauge coupling has (from $\int d^4x \, g_\theta A^\mu \partial_\mu A^\nu$)

$\dim(g_\theta) = \frac{4-d}{2} = 3/2$ (and agrees with $\int d^4x \, g_\theta A^\mu \partial_\mu \psi$).

So we write $g_\theta = e^{2\pi/3} \frac{Z(g)}{\sqrt{3}}$, and I drop `R' from renormalized quantities in what follows.

---

Before going any further, we can already review the derivation of the formula for $\beta(g)$ in terms of $Z_M$:

Since $\frac{d}{dm} g_\theta = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dm} \left( \frac{Z_M}{Z_M + g \frac{\partial Z_M}{\partial g}} \right) = 0$.

Where $\beta(g)$ is the $\beta$ function in $d=4-e$ and we use $\beta(g) = -\frac{1}{2} e g + g \frac{\partial \beta(g)}{\partial g}$.

$\Rightarrow \frac{\beta(g)}{3} \left( Z_M + g \frac{\partial Z_M}{\partial g} \right) - \frac{1}{2} e g + g \frac{\partial \beta(g)}{\partial g} = 0$. 
As usual \( Z_g = 1 + \frac{Z_0}{\epsilon} + \frac{Z_0^2}{\epsilon^2} + \ldots \) where \( Z_0 = Z_0(g) \) first comes in at \( n \)-loops. Then matching powers of \( \epsilon \) we have
\[
\beta(g) = \frac{1}{2} g^2 \frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial g}
\]

We won't compute \( Z \) here, but we need the \(-\frac{1}{2} \epsilon g\) piece.

Similarly, \( \psi_B = \frac{1}{\tau_0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} Z_0 \psi \) and \( A_B = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} Z_0 A \).

Now the factor of \( \tau_0 \) is fairly inconsequential (shifts \( \psi, A \) by \( \frac{1}{2} \epsilon g \)). So ignoring it

\[
\text{If } \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial m} = \chi \psi \Rightarrow \sigma = \beta(g) \frac{1}{2} Z_0 \chi \psi + \frac{1}{2} Z_0 \chi
\]

So writing \( \chi \psi = 1 + \frac{Z_0}{\epsilon} + \ldots \) and using \( \beta(g) = -\frac{1}{2} \epsilon g + \beta(g) \)
\[
\Rightarrow \chi \psi = \frac{1}{4} g \frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial g}
\]

Finally, and similarly \( G_0 = Z_0 G_0 \Rightarrow \beta(g) \frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial g} = Z_0 G_0 \)
\[
Z_0 = 1 + \frac{Z_0}{\epsilon} + \ldots \Rightarrow G_0 = \frac{1}{2} g \frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial g}
\]

The precise meaning of \( \frac{\partial Z_0}{\partial m} \) is from Green functions:

Generally \( G^{(m)}(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}, x_0) = \langle 0|T(\phi(x_1) \Phi(x_2) \ldots \phi(x_n))|0\rangle \)

and \( G^{(m)}_{0B} = \frac{1}{Z_0} Z_0^{1/2} G^{(m)}_{00} \). 
(Note: if you get confused with $Z^{1/2}$ in Green's function)

Compute with $Z^{1/2}$ or $Z (\partial \phi)^2$ and $(Z_{\mu} \phi_\mu)/(Z_{\mu} \phi_\mu)$ instead.

Propagator $\frac{1}{Z}$ cancels $Z$ in all internal lines.

For amputated graphs, $\Gamma^{(r)}$ will give a $Z^{1/2}$ for each external amputated leg. Thus means that if one computes with bare $L$

$\Gamma^{(r)}(g_B)$ then one can take this function, replace $g_B = Z g_R$

and multiply by $Z^{1/2}$ and that would be the same as obtained from the renormalized $L$:

$\Gamma^{(r)}(g_R) = Z^{1/2} \Gamma^{(r)}(Z g_R)$

Since each external line has a full propagator attached to one leg

in $\Gamma^{(r)}$, and $G^{(r)} = 1/r^{(r)}$ then

1) $G^{(r)}(g_R) = \frac{1}{r^{(r)}} = Z^{-1} \Gamma^{(r)}(Z g_R) = Z^{-1} G^{(r)}(Z g_R)$

2) $G^{(r)}(g_R) = [G^{(r)}(g_R)]^{\frac{1}{r^{(r)}}} = Z^{-\frac{1}{2}} G^{(r)}(Z g_R)$

With an insertion of an operator $\Gamma^{(r)}(g_R) = Z^{1/2} Z g_R \Gamma^{(r)}(Z g_R)$

The inverse in $Z^{-1}$ is completely arbitrary and I chose $g_R = Z g_R$.

Incidentally $\frac{\partial}{\partial m} \Gamma^{(r)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial m} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \Gamma^{(r)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \Gamma^{(r)}$ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} G^{(r)} = - \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} G^{(r)}$.

and $\frac{\partial}{\partial g_R} \Gamma^{(r)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial g_R} [Z^{1/2} Z g_R \Gamma^{(r)}] = \left( \frac{n}{2} Y_i + Y_R \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial g_R} \Gamma^{(r)}$
\[ \Gamma_\sigma = Z \frac{\nabla}{\nabla_z} Z_\sigma \Gamma_e \]

Take \( \sigma \cdot \nabla = \frac{\nabla}{\nabla_z} \)

\[ = -e^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{(k^2 - m^2)^2} = -e^2 \frac{\nabla_\sigma \nabla_z}{\mu^2 - m^2} = \frac{e^2}{\mu^2 - m^2} \]

\[ = e^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{(k^2 - m^2)^2} = -e^2 \frac{\nabla_\sigma \nabla_z}{(k^2 + \nabla_\sigma \nabla_z)^2} \]

\[ = e^2 \frac{\nabla_\sigma \nabla_z}{2} \frac{Z}{Z} \frac{1}{Z} \]

This is a \( \Sigma \), so \( \Sigma_k = \frac{\sigma}{\mu^2} \frac{Z}{Z} \), \( Z(1+\Sigma) = \mu_0 k \rightarrow Z = 1 - \frac{\sigma}{\mu^2} \frac{Z}{Z} \)

\[ \Gamma_\sigma^* \mu_0 e = Z \frac{\nabla}{\nabla_z} Z_\sigma \Gamma_e = \frac{\nabla}{\nabla_z} \left[ 1 - \frac{\sigma}{\mu^2} \frac{Z}{Z} \right] \frac{1 + \sigma^2}{\mu^2} = 0 \]

For a charged current, \( \Sigma_\gamma \)

\[ \Sigma_\gamma = 1 - \frac{e^2}{\mu^2} \frac{Z}{Z} = \gamma_\gamma = \frac{1}{\mu^2} \frac{Z}{Z} \frac{\Sigma}{\mu^2} \left( -\frac{e^2}{\mu^2} \right) = -\frac{e^2}{\mu^2} \]
\[ \Gamma_{\mu r} = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{(k^2)^r}{(k^2 - M^2)^r} = \frac{(-1)^{p-r}}{\pi^2} \frac{d^2 \omega_{\mu \nu}}{(k^2)^{\frac{p}{2} + \rho - r}} \frac{\omega_{\mu \nu} \partial_k}{(k^2)^{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{p}{2} - r}} \]

\[ \int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^{p - \frac{d}{2} - 1}}{(x+1)^r} = \frac{\Gamma(r - p - \frac{d}{2}, p + \frac{d}{2})}{\Gamma(r) \Gamma(\frac{d}{2})} \]

\[ \Gamma_{\mu r} = \frac{\omega_{\mu \nu}}{\pi^2} \frac{d^2 \omega_{\mu \nu}}{(k^2)^{\frac{p}{2} + \rho - r}} \frac{\omega_{\mu \nu} \partial_k}{(k^2)^{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{p}{2} - r}} \]

\[ \frac{1}{ab} = \int_0^1 dx \frac{1}{(a + bx - x)^3} \]

\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \rightarrow \frac{1}{a^2} = 2 \int_0^1 dx \frac{x}{(ax + b - x)^3} \]

\[ \frac{1}{\mu^2} \int_0^\infty dk (k^2)^{-\frac{d}{2} - 1} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial k^2} = \frac{1}{16\pi^2} \zeta \left( 1 + \theta(c) \right) \]
Compute $\mathbf{\gamma}_0$ for $Q = \overline{e}gP_L c \overline{u}P_L d$ in QED

\[
\gamma_0 = \mathbf{\gamma}_L \otimes \mathbf{\gamma}_R
\]

I will briefly omit labels $\gamma^\mu$... below

I work with arbitrary charges $Q_L, Q_R, etc$ (helps check calculation)

\[
\gamma_0 = \gamma^\mu P_L \otimes \gamma^\nu P_R
\]

I have chosen Feynman gauge. Landau gauge is also a convenient choice because at 1-loop the quark self-energy is finite (if we had trouble in that gauge).

Since we are only interested in UV / IR divergent part, that gives $\frac{1}{\epsilon^2}$, we can set $p^\mu = p = 0$ (ie, expand in powers of $\frac{1}{\epsilon^2}$ and $\frac{1}{\epsilon}$, but then the $p$-dependent terms are finite). We cannot also ignore masses since we would get IR divergences which will show up as additional $\frac{1}{\epsilon^2}$'s and we don't know how much UV vs IR in $\frac{1}{\epsilon^2 + \frac{1}{\epsilon}}$, so to speak.

But we can set $m_c = m_u$, since the $\frac{1}{\epsilon}$ term is $m$ independent.

Alternatively,

\[
\frac{1}{\epsilon^2 - m_c^2} = \frac{1}{\epsilon^2 - m_c^2} + \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon^2 - m_c^2} - \frac{1}{\epsilon^2 - m_c^2} \right) = \frac{1}{\epsilon^2 - m_c^2} + \frac{m_c^2 - m_u^2}{\epsilon^2 - m_c^2}
\]

and the last term gives a finite contribution to the integral. So

\[
= -\frac{e^2 Q_L Q_R}{2} \int \frac{d^4 k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{\delta^4(k)}{(\epsilon^2 - m_u^2)^2} \frac{1}{k^2} \gamma_0 P_L \otimes \gamma_0 P_R + \ldots
\]

Use \[\int d^4 k \cdot f(k) \cdot k^\mu k^\nu = \int \frac{d^4 k}{(2\pi)^4} f(k) \frac{i}{2} k^\mu k^\nu\]

and \[\int d^4 k \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^4} \int d^4 k \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^4} \int d^4 k \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^4} \int d^4 k \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^4} \int d^4 k \frac{1}{k^2}
\]

\[\text{(Note that I used} \int d^4 k \cdot f(k) \cdot \text{no subtract at 1-loop)}\]

\[
= -\frac{e^2 Q_L Q_R}{2} \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \int \gamma^\mu \left( \frac{(\epsilon^2 - m_u^2)^2}{\epsilon^2} \right)^2 \gamma_0 P_L \otimes \gamma_0 P_R
\]

But \[\text{the only factor that requires calculation} \]

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\[
\chi_{\mathbf{m}} = \frac{1}{8} e^2 \mathbf{Q}_m \mathbf{Q}_d \left[ \frac{\mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}}{\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{k}^2} \right] \left( \mathbf{z} \times \mathbf{m} \right) \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}
\]

The \(\gamma\)-matrix algebra can be done in \(d=4\). Using
\[
\gamma_5 = \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma_2 \gamma_3
\]

we get
\[
\gamma_5 = \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma_2 \gamma_3 = \frac{1}{16} \gamma_0 \gamma_1 \gamma_2 \gamma_3
\]

so
\[
\chi_{\mathbf{m}} = \frac{1}{8} e^2 \mathbf{Q}_m \mathbf{Q}_d \left[ \frac{\mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}}{\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{k}^2} \right] \left( \mathbf{z} \times \mathbf{m} \right) \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}
\]

Likewise
\[
\chi_{\mathbf{n}} = \frac{1}{8} e^2 \mathbf{Q}_m \mathbf{Q}_d \left[ \frac{\mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}}{\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{k}^2} \right] \left( \mathbf{z} \times \mathbf{m} \right) \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}
\]

Finally
\[
\chi_{\mathbf{c}} = \frac{1}{8} e^2 \mathbf{Q}_m \mathbf{Q}_d \left[ \frac{\mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}}{\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{k}^2} \right] \left( \mathbf{z} \times \mathbf{m} \right) \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}
\]

Note that if we interchange colors, \(\chi_{\mathbf{c}} \mathbf{Q}_c \mathbf{Q}_d \mathbf{Q}_c \mathbf{Q}_d = \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}\), so the result should be invariant under the change of labels \(\mathbf{c} \rightarrow \mathbf{a}\) or \(\mathbf{a} \rightarrow \mathbf{c}\).

\[
\sum_{\mathbf{m}} = \frac{1}{8} e^2 \mathbf{Q}_m \mathbf{Q}_d \left[ \frac{\mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}}{\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{k}^2} \right] \left( \mathbf{z} \times \mathbf{m} \right) \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{8} e^2 \mathbf{Q}_m \mathbf{Q}_d \left[ \frac{\mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}}{\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{k}^2} \right] \left( \mathbf{z} \times \mathbf{m} \right) \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k} \otimes \mathbf{y} \times \mathbf{k}
\]

This stands for some graph...
\[ \psi \text{ and need} \]
\[ \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \left( -ieQ \right) \frac{i}{k^2} \left( -ie (Q^2) \right) \left( \frac{1}{(k+p)^4} \right) \]
\[ = 2e^2 Q^2 \int_0^1 \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{k}{k^7 (k+p)^7} \]
\[ = 2e^2 Q^2 \int_0^1 \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{k}{(k^2 - 2k(k+p)^2)^7} \]
\[ = 2e^2 Q^2 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{d^4k} \int_0^1 \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{1}{(k^2 + (1-x)^2)^7} \]
\[ = \frac{1}{e} \left[ -2 \frac{e^2}{(4\pi^2)} \right] \mathcal{A} \]

\[ \text{Solution:} \]
\[ \psi \text{ and need} \]
\[ \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \left( -ieQ \right) \frac{i}{k^2} \left( -ie (Q^2) \right) \left( \frac{1}{(k+p)^4} \right) \]
\[ = 2e^2 Q^2 \int_0^1 \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{k}{k^7 (k+p)^7} \]
\[ = 2e^2 Q^2 \int_0^1 \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{k}{(k^2 - 2k(k+p)^2)^7} \]
\[ = 2e^2 Q^2 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{d^4k} \int_0^1 \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{1}{(k^2 + (1-x)^2)^7} \]
\[ = \frac{1}{e} \left[ -2 \frac{e^2}{(4\pi^2)} \right] \mathcal{A} \]

\[ \text{Inertion of 4L} \]
\[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^2}{(4\pi^2)} \left( \frac{1}{k^2} \right) \left( \frac{1}{p^2} \right) \text{ (Check:} \quad \text{Inserting} \quad \text{given} \quad \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^2}{(4\pi^2)} \text{)}} \]

\[ Z^m = 1 + \frac{Z^{(0)}}{e} \]
\[ Z^{(0)} = -2 \frac{e^2}{(4\pi^2)} \]

\[ \text{Determine } Z^m \]
\[ \Gamma^m = (Z^{(0)})^m Z^{m} \Gamma^{(0)} = \text{finite} \]
\[ = (Z^{(0)})^m Z^{m} \Gamma^{(0)} \Gamma^{(0)} \text{ (finite)} \]

\[ \text{Use:} \quad Z^m = 1 + \frac{Z^{(0)}}{e} \]
\[ 1 + \frac{1}{e} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^2}{(4\pi^2)} + G \right) \text{ (finite)} \]
\[ Z^{(0)} = -G - \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^2}{(4\pi^2)} \]
\[ = -\frac{2e^2}{16\pi^2} \left( Q_0 Q + Q_0 Q_0 + Q_0 Q_0 + Q_0 Q_0 - 2 \left\{ Q_0 Q + Q_0 Q_0 - \frac{1}{2} (Q_0 + Q_0 + Q_0 + Q_0) \right\} \right) \]
\[ \text{and } \gamma = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{e^2}{(4\pi^2)} \frac{e^2}{(4\pi^2)} = \frac{G e^2}{16\pi^2} \text{ (and} \quad \gamma = 2 = 1 + 6(\frac{1}{2}) \frac{e^2}{(4\pi^2)} = \frac{3}{2} \]

Check: \quad Q_0 = Q_0 \quad \text{should have} \quad \gamma = 0 \quad \text{by current conservation} \]
5.2 Operator Mixing (and back to QCD).

Consider the renormalization of the same operator but now using QCD rather than QED (and still only 1-loop).

The graphs are the same, but there are important differences. The gluon-quark-quark vertex has a matrix structure and we should keep track of color of external quarks (the Green function).

\[ \langle 0 | T \bar{Q}(x) \bar{Q}(y) U^{a}(z) \bar{Q}(t) | 0 \rangle \text{ is labeled by the colors of the external quarks, } a, j, k, m. \text{ So our Feynman diagrams have:} \]

\[ a \quad \xrightarrow{\bar{Q}(x)} \quad \xrightarrow{\bar{Q}(y)} \quad \xrightarrow{U^{a}(z)} \quad \xrightarrow{\bar{Q}(t)} \quad \text{ which I denote as } 1 \otimes 1 \]

and

\[ a \quad \xrightarrow{\bar{Q}(x)} \quad \xrightarrow{\bar{Q}(y)} \quad \xrightarrow{U^{a}(z)} \quad \text{ which I denote as } J^{a} \]

So now, in \[ a \] instead of \[ \bar{Q} \bar{Q} \], we have \[ T^{a} T^{a} \otimes 1 \]

\[ = C_{a}(R) \quad 1 \otimes 1 \]

Where the Casimir for \( R \) is \( T^{a} T^{a} = C_{a}(R) 1 \) and is related to \( \overline{T_{a}}(R) \).

\[ \frac{\alpha}{4} T^{a} T^{a} = T_{a}(R) \text{ so that } \overline{T_{a}(T^{a} T^{a})} = C_{a}(R) \text{ dim}(R) = \overline{T_{a}}(R) \text{ dim}(R) \]

So, e.g., for fundamental of \( SU(n) \), \( C_{a}(R) = \frac{n}{2}(n^{2} - 1) \) or \( \frac{n}{2} \) for \( SU(3) \).

Likewise

\[ a \quad \xrightarrow{\bar{Q}(x)} \quad \xrightarrow{\bar{Q}(y)} \quad \xrightarrow{U^{a}(z)} \quad \xrightarrow{\bar{Q}(t)} \quad \text{ which I denote as } 1 \otimes 1 \]

But for \( \bar{Q} \bar{Q} \) we have \( a \otimes T^{a} \), similar, \( a \), \( a \), \( a \).

The \( \frac{1}{4} \) from these cannot be subtracted by a counterterm of \( \bar{Q} \bar{Q} \) \( 1 \otimes 1 \) form.

We need to introduce a second operator, \( \bar{Q} T^{a} \bar{Q} \otimes T^{a} \), as counterterm.
So let \( \Theta = \Theta \Theta \Theta \Theta \Theta \).

What we are saying is that

\[
\chi + \ldots + \chi + \frac{\Theta}{\epsilon} \chi_1 + \frac{\Theta}{\epsilon} \chi_2 = \text{finite}
\]

(by sum)

Then, you may ask, do I need additional operators to subduct insertions of \( \Theta \)?

\[
\chi + \ldots + \chi + \frac{\Theta}{\epsilon} \chi_1 + \frac{\Theta}{\epsilon} \chi_2 = \text{finite}
\]

The answer is yes. We’ll verify this explicitly but first, we give a general argument. This type of argument is very useful in characterizing EFTs — not just in understanding renormalization and RG.

Claim: Only operators with the same quantum numbers are required for their renormalization.

We say that the set of operators “closes” under renormalization.

You may ask: what does it matter whether I have counterterms for \( \Theta \) if all I need to consider only \( \Theta \), since this is what I get from matching an \( \Theta \) to \( \Theta \)?

We have: if \( \mu > m \), then

\[
\text{renormalization is that even if } C_2(M) = 0 \text{ (and } C_3(0)\text{, etc.) at the matching scale, } m = M, \text{ one gets } C_3(m) \neq 0 \text{ at } \mu < M. \text{ We will show this shortly.}
\]

Back to the claim: if the regularization procedure respects the symmetries of the theory, then covariance under all symmetries is explicit in calculation of Feynman diagrams. (This is basis of QFT methods, so I won’t review it.)
In our case, matrix \( Q D \) has separate \( U(1) \) symmetries for
\[ U_6, S_4, d_4 \] and \( S_6 \). (It's anomalous, but only broken by instantons and irrelevant)
So the operator must contain \( U_6, S_4, S_6 \) and \( d_4 \)
\( \Theta_1 \) is a Lorentz and color scalar, so should be the operator in the cloud set.
In dim reg without masses (mass independent subtraction scheme) only
operator with same mass dimension \( a \) \& \( (dx \Theta_2 = 0) \) are needed.

So the ops we are looking for are made out of exactly
the 4 fields, and to make Lorentz scalar
\[ \overline{S} \gamma^\mu d_4 \overline{U} \gamma^\nu d_4 \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{S} \gamma^\mu d_4 \overline{S} \gamma^\nu d_4 \]
where \( u, d \in SU(3) \) plays. Now the two above are equal (Fierz rearrangement)
Finally, the ops must be color singlets. How many independent singlets are
in this op? The 4 fields are two \( 3 \)'s and two \( \overline{3} \)'s, and we need to find how
many ways are here to combine them into singlet.

\[
\begin{align*}
3 \times 3 &= 1 \oplus 8 \\
1 \times 1 &= 1 \\
8 \times 8 &= 1 + 8 + 10 + \overline{10} + 27
\end{align*}
\]
So \( (3 \times 3) \times (3 \times 3) = (10 \times 8) \otimes (10 \times 8) = 1 \oplus 10 \) non-singlets
\( \Rightarrow 2 \) invariants, one in \( 1 \times 1 \) and the other in \( 8 \times 8 \)
\( \Rightarrow \Theta_1 \) and \( \Theta_2 \) are it.

To verify this directly, use the color Fierz rearrangement formula
\[
T^a_{ij} T^a_{mn} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \delta^a_{in} \delta^a_{mj} - \frac{1}{3} \delta^a_{ij} \delta_{mn} \right)
\]
Then
\[
\begin{align*}
T^a_{ij} &\sim (T^b)_{ij} \otimes T^a \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left( \delta^a_{in} \delta^a_{mj} - \frac{1}{3} \delta^a_{ij} \delta_{mn} \right) T^b_{mn} \otimes T^a \\
&= -\frac{1}{2} T^a \otimes T^b
\end{align*}
\]
\[
(1) \text{ Fierz was obvious}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
(3 \times 3) \times (3 \times 3) &= T^a_{ij} T^a_{mn} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \delta^a_{in} \delta^a_{mj} - \frac{1}{3} \delta^a_{ij} \delta_{mn} \right) T^b_{mn} \otimes T^a \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left( T^b_{mn} T^a_{ij} - \frac{1}{3} \delta^a_{ij} \delta_{mn} \right) T^b_{mn} \otimes T^a \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left( T_{mn} T^a_{ij} - \frac{1}{3} \delta^a_{ij} \delta_{mn} \right) T^b_{mn} \otimes T^a
\end{align*}
\]
\( \forall \) use \( T^a T^b = \frac{1}{2} \delta^a_{ij} \delta^b_{mn} - \frac{1}{2} \delta^a_{mn} \delta^b_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \delta^a_{ij} \delta^b_{mn} - \frac{1}{3} \left( 2 \delta^a_{mn} \delta^b_{ij} + \frac{1}{3} \delta^a_{ij} \delta_{mn} \right) T^c_{mn} = \frac{1}{2} \delta^a_{ij} \delta^b_{mn} - \frac{1}{2} \delta^a_{ij} \delta^b_{mn} \)
\( \Rightarrow \)
\[
\begin{align*}
T^a T^b &= \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 \delta^a_{ij} \delta^b_{mn} - \frac{1}{3} \delta^a_{ij} \delta^b_{mn} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \delta^a_{mn} \delta^b_{ij} = \frac{2}{3} \delta^a_{ij} \delta^b_{mn} - \frac{1}{3} \delta^a_{mn} \delta^b_{ij}
\end{align*}
\]
\[ \rho \times \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{3} \delta_{kj} \delta_{mn} - \frac{1}{3} \delta_{jk} \delta_{km} \right) \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \left( T^a T^b \right)_{mn} \delta_{mn} \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \left( T^a T^b \right)_{mn} \delta_{mn} \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \delta_{mn} - \frac{1}{2} T^a \times T^a \]

\[ \left( 2 T^a T^b \right) = \delta_{mn} - \frac{1}{2} \delta_{mn} \delta_{mn} \Rightarrow \delta_{mn} \delta_{mn} = \frac{1}{2} g \delta \left| T^a \right|^2 + 2 T^a \delta T^a \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left| T^a \right|^2 + 2 T^a T^b \right) \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \left| T^a \right|^2 - \frac{2}{3} \left| T^a \right| \delta T^a \]

We can complete the calculation by working off the rest of the integral from the QCD case:

\[ \chi^a + \chi^a = \chi^a + \chi^a = \frac{1}{2} \left( \chi^a + \chi^a \right) \]

\[ \chi^a + \chi^a = \frac{1}{2} \left( \chi^a + \chi^a \right) \]

and combining with QCD factors for \( \left| T^a \right| \) and \( T^a T^b \) separately:

\[ \Theta = \frac{1}{2} \left( \chi^a + \chi^a \right) \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \left( \chi^a + \chi^a \right) \]

Then to subtract these divergences:

\[ \Gamma^{R}_{\chi^a} = Z_{\chi^a}\left( \frac{e}{16\pi^2} \Gamma^B_{\chi^a} \right) \]

\[ = Z_{\chi^a}\left( \frac{e}{16\pi^2} \Gamma^B_{\chi^a} \right) \]

To set an idea of how \( n_i \) works, to \( 1 + i n_i \):

\[ \Gamma^{R}_{\chi^a} = \left( \frac{e}{16\pi^2} \right)^n \left[ Z_{\chi^a} \chi^a + Z_{\chi^a} \chi^a + \ldots \right] \]

\[ \Rightarrow Z_{\chi^a} \chi^a = 0 \]
Exercise: Compute wave function renormalization constant $Z_k$.

We have to complete the calculation of the $2 \times 2$ matrix of numbers $Z_{ij}^{\mu}$ by

$$Z_{ij}^{\mu} = \mathcal{A}_{ij}^{\mu} + \frac{Z_0^{\mu}}{\varepsilon} + \cdots$$

The RGE is now

$$\frac{d}{d\mu} \tau^{\mu}_{ij} = \frac{d}{d\mu} \left( \left( g_{1/2} \right)_{ij} Z_{ij} \right)_{\nu} = \left( \frac{c}{g_k} \right)_{ij} \left( \frac{\rho_{\nu}^{\mu}}{\varepsilon} \right)_{ij} + \left( \frac{\rho_{\nu}^{\mu}}{\varepsilon} \right)_{ij}$$

or

$$\left[ \frac{d}{d\mu} \frac{Z_{ij}^\mu}{\varepsilon} + \frac{\rho_{\nu}^{\mu}}{\varepsilon} \right] \tau^{\mu}_{ij} = \frac{\rho_{\nu}^{\mu}}{\varepsilon} \tau^{\mu}_{ij}$$

where $\frac{d}{d\mu} \frac{Z_{ij}^\mu}{\varepsilon} = (\dot{Y}_0)_{ij} Z_{ij} \rho_{\nu}^{\mu}$, in matrix notation $Y_0 = \frac{d}{d\mu} \frac{Z_{ij}^\mu}{\varepsilon}$.

So now $\frac{d}{d\mu} \frac{Z_{ij}^\mu}{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{G}(\mu) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} Y_0 \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ as before $\frac{d}{d\mu} Y_0 = 0$.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{d\mu} \frac{Z_{ij}^\mu}{\varepsilon} + \mathcal{G}(\mu) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} Y_0 \frac{1}{\varepsilon} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{d\mu} \frac{Z_{ij}^\mu}{\varepsilon} = -\mathcal{G}(\mu) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} Y_0 \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{d\mu} \frac{Z_{ij}^\mu}{\varepsilon} = -\mathcal{G}(\mu) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} Y_0 \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$$

As before

$$\mathcal{G}(\mu) = \mathcal{P} e^{\left[ -\int_{\mu}^{\mu_0} \frac{d\xi}{\varepsilon(\xi)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} Y_0(\xi) \right]} \mathcal{G}(\mu_0)$$

As a result, if $\mathcal{G}(\mu_0) = 0$ or $\mathcal{G}(\mu_0) \neq 0$, then for $\mu \gg \mu_0$ $\mathcal{G}(\mu) \neq 0$.

At $1 - \log$ order $\left[ Y_0(t), \delta_0(t) \right] = 0$ because $Y_0(t) = \frac{d}{d\mu} \mathcal{G}(\mu)$ (a matrix of numbers), $\mathcal{G}(\mu)$ independent.

$\Rightarrow$ at $1 - \log$ order, noted for $P$-ordering. Moreover, an arbitrary real wave matrix is diagonalized by $L \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $R \in \mathbb{R}^2$, such that $L R$ orthogonal and $L M$, and $R^T L^T = \mathcal{A}_{\text{diag}}$.

So, at $1 - \log$ order $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} Z_{ij} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} Y_0 \right] \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$.

$$\mathcal{C}(\mu) = \mathcal{P} \left[ R \left. \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} Z_{ij} \right) \right|_L \right] \mathcal{C}_i (\mu)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{a diagonal matrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Z_{ij}^{\mu} \\ Z_{ij}^{\mu} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{a diagonal matrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Z_{ij}^{\mu} \\ Z_{ij}^{\mu} \end{pmatrix}$$
5.3 More operator mixing and the use of Equations of Motion

The set of operators that close under renormalization can get large. In principle it is infinite, but if we consider (as we have) only mass
independent subtraction schemes then the number is finite: an operator
defined at mass dimension $d$ only mixes with operators of the same mass
dimension.

As we have seen, we can further constrain this set by use of
symmetries. Moreover, the symmetry need not be exact. Define a
so-called broken symmetry as one that is restored (becomes exact) as some
parameters with positive mass dimension (like masses or cubic scalar couplings)
are set to zero. The violation of symmetry must be proportional to these
parameters, so an operator of dimension $d$ would require quadratic
terms that are $m^2$ or with dimension $d - n < d_0$, but that won't happen in
a mass independent scheme stated differently, in a mass independent
scheme one may set these parameters $m \rightarrow 0$ and restore symmetries.

If under a symmetry group $G$ the operator $\Theta$ transforms under some
reducible representation $\hat{\Theta} = \hat{r}_1 \otimes \hat{r}_2 \otimes \hat{r}_3 \otimes \ldots$, where $\hat{r}_i$ are distinct irredudible reps,
then there are $k$ operators, $\Theta_1, \ldots, \Theta_k$, that do not mix with each
other. Moreover, $\Theta$ only mixes with other operators that transform as
$\hat{r}_i$, under $G$.

Example 1:

Consider again our operator $\Theta = (\overline{s} \gamma^5 d)/(\overline{u} \gamma^5 d) \equiv (\overline{s} c)/(\overline{u} d)$ for short.

The QCD lagrangian includes

$$\hat{L} = \hat{T}_{\alpha \beta} \overline{c} \gamma_{\alpha} c + \overline{d} \gamma_{\alpha} d + \phi - m \overline{c} c - m \overline{d} d$$

In the limit $\overline{c} \rightarrow 0$, $\overline{d} \rightarrow 0$ this exhibits an $SU(2)_L \otimes SU(2)_R$ symmetry

$$(\overline{c}_L) \rightarrow V_L (\overline{c}_L) \quad \text{and} \quad \overline{d}_R \rightarrow V_R \overline{d}_R$$

where $V_L \in SU(2)_L$, $V_R \in SU(2)_R$.

Under $SU(2)_L$, $\Theta$ is in $\overline{2} \otimes 1 = 1 \otimes 3$ rep.

1. $\Theta_1 = (\overline{s} c)/(\overline{u} d) - (\overline{s} d)/(\overline{u} c)$

2. $\Theta_2 = (\overline{s} c)/(\overline{u} d) - (\overline{s} d)/(\overline{u} c)$

We know $\Theta_1$ and $\Theta_2 = (\overline{s} \gamma^5 c)/(\overline{u} \gamma^5 d)$ are closed under renormalization. But

$\Theta = \frac{1}{2} (\Theta_1 + \Theta_2)$, so this is just a change of basis that diagonalizes $\hat{L}(y)$

(to all orders in $g$).
Patent

Theoretical remark:
To see this more explicitly, put color indices back in
an Fierz rearrangement:

For $\mathcal{O}_{12}$ use:

$$ (\bar{s}_d u_c) = (\bar{s}_d u_c) (\bar{u}_j d^c) = (\bar{s}_d u_c) (\bar{u}_j d^c) $$

For $\mathcal{O}_{23}$ use:

$$ T_{ij} \mathcal{O}_{23} = \frac{1}{2} (\delta_{i9} \delta_{j2} - \delta_{i2} \delta_{j9}) $$

so

$$ \mathcal{O}_{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} (\bar{s}_c)(\bar{u}_2) + \frac{1}{2} (\bar{s}_c)(\bar{u}_2) \right) $$

$$ \frac{1}{2} \left( \delta_{i1} \delta_{j9} - \delta_{i2} \delta_{j9} \right) $$

$$ = \tilde{\mathcal{O}}_1 \left( -\frac{1}{12} - \frac{1}{4} \right) + \tilde{\mathcal{O}}_2 \left( -\frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{4} \right) $$

$$ \mathcal{O}_2 = -\frac{1}{3} \tilde{\mathcal{O}}_1 + \frac{1}{6} \tilde{\mathcal{O}}_2 \quad \text{End patent theoretical remark} \]}

Example 2:
Now consider $\mathcal{O} = (s_c)(\bar{u}_s)$ as you would for $c \rightarrow s$ again.

As before we can use U(1) quantum numbers to tell us that the
closed set has operators with $\bar{u}_L$ and $c_L$ but not $\bar{u}_R$ since this is
invariant under S-number (left or right).

So we are looking for dim-6 operators with $\bar{u}_L$ and $c_L$. That
is dim 3 combinations of fields that can make a Lorentz scalar
with $\bar{u}_L$ and $c_L$.

Let’s list dim 3 ops.

- $\psi' \bar{\psi}$ where $\psi', \psi$ are any two fermions
- $O_{123}$, including $O_{123} = \mathcal{O}_{123} - \mathcal{O}_{123}$ (if CP is retained)

So the change from $(s_c)(\bar{u}_d)$ to $(s_c)(\bar{u}_s)$ seems to have tremendously
complicated the problem! Let’s limit the possibilities using symmetry.

1. In the absence of CP (set aside for now), if $u' \rightarrow \bar{u}'$ are leptons, they are effectively S-number, hence of dim = 2 rather than dim = 3 = no mixing at all. Ignore leptons (or, diagrammatically, draw photons to get quarks to interact with leptons).

2. Consider possibilities for $\psi' \rightarrow \bar{\psi}'$ (no leptons). Now left $E < M_W$ contains

If 5 quark flavors, $i.d.s.c.b.$, so we have a huge symmetry at our disposal.$\text{SU}(4) @ \text{SU}(5)$

Now $\mathcal{O}$ is trivial under SU(5) and transforms as $5 \times 5 \times 5$ under SU(5).

$$ 5 \times 5 = 1 + 24 $$

Charge

$$ (1+24) \mathcal{O} \rightarrow 1 + 24 \mathcal{O} + 24 \mathcal{O} = 1 + 24 \mathcal{O} + 24 \mathcal{O} $$

2019-11-19 16:52:58
Total overkill (would have to find weight in SU(4) of $U_1, \tilde{U}_1, \tilde{U}_2$ and find how many in $Q_1, Q_2, \tilde{Q}_1$ combination).

Instead look at $\text{dim}=3$ operators multiplying $C_1 \bar{U}_1$: since it transforms like $\mathbf{5} \otimes \mathbf{5}$, it is $C = SU(4)_{\Delta_1} \times \mathbf{5}_1 \otimes SU(5)_{\Delta_1}$ invariant.

(1) If made up of $Q_1$, $\Delta_1$ is already $C$ invariant. Since we have to combine $\bar{U}_1, C_1$ with vectors to make a Lorentz invariant $V \cdot C$ comes in as $U_1 \bar{U}_1 C_1$. Derivatives have to act on something so

$$\bar{U}_1 D_\mu D_\nu D_\rho C_1 \rightarrow T_\mu_\nu_\rho$$

where $T_\mu_\nu_\rho$ is a $\mathbf{1}$-index (Lorentz) invariant tensor:

$$T_\mu_\nu_\rho = \eta_\mu_\nu \gamma_\rho, \eta_\mu_\nu \gamma_\rho \gamma_5$$

Simplicity:

- $\eta_\mu_\nu \gamma_\rho \gamma_5$ is $C P O M$.
- Use equations of motion $D_\mu = 0$ and integration by $g(A), \partial, \psi_\mu$.

$$\bar{U}_1 D_\mu D^2 C_1 = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \partial_\nu + \partial_\nu \partial_\mu) - \bar{U}_1 D_\mu D^2 C_1$$

$$\partial_\mu = 0 \Rightarrow D_\mu = 0$$

$$D_\mu = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\bar{U}_1 \partial_\mu D_\nu D_\rho C_1 = \bar{U}_1 D_\mu [0, D_\nu, D_\rho] C_1 = \bar{U}_1 D_\mu [0, D_\nu, D_\rho] C_1 = \bar{U}_1 D_\mu (D_\nu D_\rho C_1) = \bar{U}_1 D_\mu (D_\nu D_\rho C_1)$$

$$S_0 \bar{U}_1 D_\mu D_\nu D_\rho C_1 = \frac{1}{2} (\bar{U}_1 \gamma_\nu \gamma_\rho (D_\mu C_1) + (1 - 1) \bar{U}_1 \gamma_\nu \gamma_\rho C_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow$$

$$S_0 \bar{U}_1 D_\mu D_\nu D_\rho C_1 = \bar{U}_1 \gamma_\nu \gamma_\rho (D_\mu C_1)$$

$$B, \text{ EOM, } D_\mu \psi_\rho \propto \sum_{\text{SM states}} \bar{\psi}_\mu \gamma_\mu \gamma_\nu \gamma_\rho \psi_\mu \Rightarrow$$

$$\text{operator} = \sum_{\text{SM states}} \bar{\psi}_\mu \gamma_\mu \gamma_\nu \gamma_\rho \psi_\mu \psi_\rho$$

(2) If made of a quark bilinear $SU(3)$ scalar $\rightarrow$ either $\psi_\mu \psi_\mu$ or $\bar{\psi}_\mu \psi_\mu$.

$$- \psi_\mu \psi_\mu : SU(4)_{\Delta_1} \times SU(4)_{\Delta_1} \text{ invariant}$$

$$\sum_{\Delta_1} \bar{\psi}_\mu \psi_\mu, \sum_{\Delta_1} \bar{\psi}_\mu \gamma_\mu \gamma_\nu \psi_\mu, \sum_{\Delta_1} \bar{\psi}_\mu \gamma_\nu \gamma_\rho \psi_\mu, \sum_{\Delta_1} \bar{\psi}_\mu \gamma_\rho \gamma_5 \psi_\mu$$

$$\text{Derive number of}$ \sum_{\Delta_1} \bar{\psi}_\mu \gamma_\mu \gamma_\nu \psi_\mu, \sum_{\Delta_1} \bar{\psi}_\mu \gamma_\nu \gamma_\rho \psi_\mu$$

$$- \psi_\mu \psi_\mu$$

$$\sum_{\Delta_1} \bar{\psi}_\mu \gamma_\mu \gamma_\nu \psi_\mu, \sum_{\Delta_1} \bar{\psi}_\mu \gamma_\nu \gamma_\rho \psi_\mu$$
Summary:

\[ \Theta_1 = \overline{U}_n V^\lambda_1 \overline{S}_n \gamma \overline{S}_n \]  

\[ \Theta_2 = \overline{U}_n V^\lambda_2 \overline{S}_n \gamma \overline{T} \gamma \overline{S}_n \]

\[ \Theta_3 = \overline{U}_n V^\lambda_3 \overline{S}_n V_\lambda \overline{S}_n \]

\[ \Theta_4 = \overline{U}_n V^\lambda_4 \overline{S}_n V_\lambda \overline{T} \gamma \overline{S}_n \]

\[ \Theta_5 = \overline{U}_n V^\lambda_5 \overline{S}_n \gamma \overline{T} \gamma \overline{S}_n \]

\[ \Theta_6 = \overline{U}_n V^\lambda_6 \overline{S}_n \gamma \overline{T} \gamma \overline{S}_n \]

What happens when we mix these?

We know \( \Theta_1 \) from \( X + X + \ldots \) (6 graphs).

But now we can make a loop like:

\[ \Theta_7 = \overline{U}_n V^\lambda_7 \overline{S}_n \gamma \overline{T} \gamma \overline{S}_n \]

How is this \( \Theta_7 = \Theta_1 + \Theta_6 \)?

\[ \Theta_1 \] seems to be non-local, but \( \Theta_6 \) is from propagator, but also \( \Theta_6 \) is from propagator, and \( \Theta_1 \) is from propagator, makes \( \Theta_7 \) local!

Operators \( \Theta_5 - \Theta_1 \) are called "penguin operators". The reason is a peculiar story, that someone (John Ellis) made a bet he could use any term in his next paper, and his challenge was to use "penguins" (well, that's my understanding).  

A "penguin"?

Of course \( \Theta_3 + \Theta_5 + \Theta_7 + \ldots \) contribute to the full GSO \( \gamma \lambda \) matrix.
EOM in matrix elements

How do we justify using EOM in matrix elements? After all, in the functional integral formulation of QFT, \[ \int [d\phi] [dy] [dy'] e^{iS} \]

includes a sum over all field configurations, not just those that satisfy the EOM? If \( S[a] = \int d^4 x \int d^4 x' F(a) \) is an action integral, then we define \( E(a) = \frac{\delta S}{\delta a(x)} \), and if \( S[a + \delta a] = S[a] + \int d^4 x \frac{\delta S}{\delta a(x)} \delta a(x) + O(\delta a^2) \), so \( E(a) = 0 \) is the EOM.

An argument due to Politzer:

\[ Z[J] = \int [d\phi] e^{iS[\phi]} + \int d^4 x \int J \phi \]

Change variable: \( \phi = \phi(\phi') \), \( \delta \phi = \delta \phi(\phi') \)

And define \( \phi(\phi') = \phi' + \chi F(\phi') \) where \( \chi = \chi(\phi) \) is a c-function and \( F(\phi) \) is some arbitrary polynomial function of \( \phi' \) that may contain derivatives. Then if \( \chi \) is infinitesimal (we'll take \( \partial \phi \phi' \) and set \( \chi = 0 \), and dropping the prime

\[ Z[J] = \int [d\phi] \delta \phi(\phi') e^{iS[\phi]} + \int J(\phi') F(\phi') e^{iS[\phi]} + \delta(\chi) \]

Now we can freely change \( \int J(\phi') \to i \delta \phi \), which defines a term \( Z \)

But some physical amplitudes (i.e. S-matrix) \( S \) should depend on new \( Z \) by a new symbol, say \( \tilde{Z}(J) \), \( \tilde{Z} \) I want (since it is irrelevant for S-matrix).

Now the point is that

\( \frac{\delta \tilde{Z}(J)}{\delta \chi(0)} = 0 \) because it never depended on \( \chi \). If we could ignore the det factor this would mean

\[ O = \int [d\phi] e^{iS + \int J \phi} F(\phi') \]

In other words, if \( O = F \) is an operator that vanishes by EOM then

\[ \langle \phi | O | \phi \rangle = 0 \]

So we need to establish that \( \det \) Jacobian

\[ J = \left| \frac{\delta \phi(\phi')}{\delta \phi(\phi')} \right| \]

does not contribute to matrix elements.
Now, \[
\frac{\delta \mathcal{O}(x)}{\delta \phi(y)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi(y)} \left( \mathcal{O}(x) + \chi(x) F(\phi(x)) \right) = \left[ 1 + \chi(x) F(\phi(x)) \right] \delta^4(x-y) \]
and \[
\left| \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi(y)} \right| = \exp \left( \frac{\chi(x) F(\phi(x))}{\phi(y)} \right) = \exp \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ 1 + \chi(x) F(\phi(x)) \right] \delta^4(x-y) \right)
\]
so \[
\frac{\delta}{\delta \chi(x)} \left| \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi(y)} \right| \bigg|_{\phi=0} = F'(\phi(x)) \delta^4(x-y).
\]

In the limit, \( \delta^4(x-y) \to \int d^4k = 0 \), so we can ignore this. Alternatively, this goes away by normal ordering, which arises from self-energy renormalization.

Example: \( I = \frac{1}{2} [\phi^2] - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2 - \frac{1}{4} \lambda \phi^4 \). \( \mathcal{E}(\phi) = - (\partial^2 + m^2) \phi - \frac{1}{6} \lambda \phi^3 \).

Take \( \Theta = F \).\( \mathcal{E} = \phi^3 \).

So, \( x \) \[
\left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi(y)} \right)(F \phi^3) = \frac{3}{2} \left( \frac{\phi^3}{\partial \phi(y)} \right) = \frac{3}{2} \left( \frac{\phi^2}{\partial \phi(y)} \right) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\phi^2}{\partial y} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}.
\]

Tree level 4-point amplitude (amplitude + on-shell external legs)

\[
\frac{1}{k^+} \left( \frac{1}{k^+} \right) \frac{1}{q^+} \left( \frac{1}{q^+} \right) = \frac{1}{k^+} \left( \frac{1}{k^+} \right) \frac{1}{q^+} \left( \frac{1}{q^+} \right) = \frac{1}{k^+} \left( \frac{1}{k^+} \right) \frac{1}{q^+} \left( \frac{1}{q^+} \right)
\]

(The combination is \( \delta^4(-q^2) \delta^4(q^2) \).\( \frac{1}{k^+} \left( \frac{1}{k^+} \right) \frac{1}{q^+} \left( \frac{1}{q^+} \right))

At 1-loop, 4 pt amplitude (2->2 scattering) (\( \text{red} = (q^2-k^2) \frac{k^2}{q^2} = \frac{1}{q^2} \))
5.5 Loose ends

5.5.1 NLL

Sketch

$$ G(M) = (1 + d, \frac{\alpha}{\pi}) C_0 $$

$$ G(x) = \frac{\exp \left( \sum \frac{a_1 (2x - \bar{x})}{\bar{x}} \right)}{\bar{x}} G(M) = \frac{C}{\bar{x}(\bar{x})}$$

$$ C = \left( \frac{\alpha}{\bar{x}(\bar{x})} \right)^{a_0} \left( 1 + a_1 \frac{\bar{x}(\bar{x})}{\bar{x}(\bar{x})} \right) \left( 1 + d_1 \frac{\bar{x}(\bar{x})}{\bar{x}(\bar{x})} \right) C_0 $$

Note

1-loop running $\leftrightarrow$ tree level matching

2-loop running $\leftrightarrow$ 1-loop matching

etc.

5.5.2 In general, "matching" is the difference between
dull & EF theory at $\mu = M$ (or $\mu \sim M$, not necessarily $= $).

So, e.g., in $q \bar{q}$

$$ \left[ \begin{array}{c}
\bar{u} \bar{d} \bar{u} \bar{u} \\
\bar{u} \bar{d} \bar{u} \bar{u}
\end{array} \right]_{\text{ren}} $$

$$ - \left[ \begin{array}{c}
\times + \times + \cdots \\
\times
\end{array} \right]_{\text{ren}} = d_1 \frac{\alpha}{\pi} \times $$

Note that

$$ \frac{S_F}{w} = \frac{1}{\mu^2} \times $$

$\bar{e} \gamma^\mu \nu F_{\mu \nu} \text{ is } \text{dim} 8$

So $\times$ does not match onto $\frac{S_{\gamma \gamma}}{w}$. However $\times$

is IR safe in the sense that it is finite in IR even at $p_\perp = 0 \Rightarrow M_{\text{soft}}$

$$ \int d^4 k \frac{k}{k^2} \frac{1}{k^2} \left( \frac{k}{k^2} \right) \sim \frac{1}{T} + \ln M_{\text{soft}} + \cdots $$

$\mu_i$ contribute
In fact, \( \frac{g}{w} \) contributes to \( d_1 \) as well.

5.53 A similar situation arises in cases where the quantum numbers demand two heavy particles exchanged.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{eg: } \frac{s}{w} & \rightarrow \frac{d}{z} & \text{is } \Delta S = 2 \text{ (or } -2) & \text{ but } \frac{s}{w} \text{ is only } \Delta S = 1 \\
\end{align*}
\]

So in principle, \( \frac{s}{w} \rightarrow \frac{z}{w} \) with \( \frac{g}{w} \) coefficient.

In this case QCD

\[
\frac{s}{w} \rightarrow \frac{z}{w} \quad \text{match } \frac{g}{w} \quad \text{and have interesting dynamics (p-dependence)}
\]

\[
\text{except for a short-distance } \sim (M_w)
\]

\[
\text{mismatch, as before}
\]

But \( \frac{s}{w} \rightarrow \frac{g}{w} \) matches \( \Delta S = 1 \) directly (all short distance).

Likewise \( \frac{s}{w} \rightarrow \frac{g}{w} \) (it matches \( \Delta S = 1 \))

Likewise for \( \frac{g}{w} \rightarrow \frac{g}{w} \).

\[
\text{Monkey wrench! In SM}
\]

\[
\text{But } V_i = 1, \text{ so } \sum \overline{V}_s \overline{V}_t = 0, \text{ so at } \Delta S = 0 \text{ the diagram vanishes. So propagator}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{in } \overline{V}_s \overline{V}_t (\Delta S - M_w) \frac{1}{E} & \quad \text{So in } \frac{g}{w} \text{ we take } \frac{2}{E} \text{ as before and had}
\end{align*}
\]
\[ \lim_{M \to \infty} M^4 \left[ \text{vertex} - \text{vertex} - \text{vertex} \right] = 0 \]

where \( \text{vertex} = \frac{i}{M_2} \left( \frac{e^2}{2 \pi} \right) \frac{\delta s_{\text{eff}}}{\delta s} \) and \( \text{vertex} = \frac{i}{M_4} \frac{\delta s}{\delta s} = \frac{\delta s_{\text{eff}}}{\delta s} \)

and \( \text{vertex} \) is just from \( T \left( \frac{\delta s_{\text{eff}}}{\delta s} \right) = \frac{\delta s_{\text{eff}}}{\delta s} \)

5.5.4 Multiscale problems

If instead of 2 scales, \( M \gg E, \) we have many widely separated heavy particle masses and a low energy physical process,

\( M_1 \gg M_2 \gg \ldots \gg E \)

we can avoid large logs, \( \ln E/M_i, \) in the matrix element AND large powers \( (M_i/M_j)^n \gg 1 \) \((i, j < n, n > 0)\)

by constructing a sequence of EFTs by sequentially integrating out the heavy particle close starting from the heaviest.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Approximation} & \quad \text{EFT}_1 \quad \text{EFT}_2 \quad \ldots \\
(\text{heavy}) & \quad (\text{heavy}) \quad (\text{heavy}) \\
\text{scale} & \quad \frac{M_1}{M_2} \quad \frac{M_2}{M_3} \quad \ldots \\
\text{run to} & \quad \text{run to} \quad \text{run to} \\
\text{m M_1} & \quad \text{m M_2} \quad \text{m M_3} \\
\text{E/M_2} & \quad \text{E/M_2} \quad \text{E/M_2} \\
\text{power} & \quad \text{power} \quad \text{power}
\end{align*}
\]

This typically gives

\[
\frac{G(M)}{G(\mu)} = \left( \frac{\overline{\alpha}(M_1)}{\overline{\alpha}(M_2)} \right)^{a_1} \left( \frac{\overline{\alpha}(M_3)}{\overline{\alpha}(\mu)} \right)^{a_2} G(\mu)
\]

where \( \overline{\alpha} \) is the running coupling of EFT.
Exercise: Find $y_0$ for the operator that occurs in $K^0-\bar{K}^0$ mixing. 

Estimate the corrections from this LO short distance QCD effect in the formula for $\varepsilon_1$. 

at 1-loop
Wilsonian Effective Theory

K. G. Wilson PRB 4 (1971) 2174, 2184
J. Polchinski, NPB 231 (1984) 269 (and references therein)

In the theory of critical phenomena, as a system approaches a 2nd order phase transition, as a result of smoothly changing external microscopic parameters (like temperature and applied magnetic field for a ferromagnet close to the Curie point), the long distance fluctuations dominate the behavior - the correlation length becomes very large, much larger than the scale of the microscopic physics that underlies the behavior. These long distance fluctuations are, in the quantum field theoretic language that we have been using, low energy (or low mode) modes.

For critical phenomena, the field fluctuations are thermal in character unless at or close to T=0, quantum effect are sub dominant. But the description of the system is accurately given by statistical mechanics through the computation of a partition function

\[ Z = \int [d\phi] e^{-S[\phi, J]} \]

with J an external source. This is related to the imaginary time version of the quantum field theory - and the reason we have used "S" for what should be \( \beta H \) (\( \beta = \frac{1}{kT} \rightarrow \frac{1}{k} \) in QFT, \( H(0) \rightarrow S(0) \)).

So we see again in this context what the very long distance physics depends weakly on the microscopic short distance physics. Is there a connection to effective lagrangians?

In QM, block spin transformations are used to uncover the dynamics of the very long distance modes. Block spin transformations take a model (say, a spin model like Ising, or XY, or Heisenberg) and define a new, equivalent partition function defined on a coarser lattice. The renormalization group is used to analyze the (unstable) sequence of applications of this transformation. If the RG evolution approaches a fixed point then the physics of the long distance modes is completely determined by the properties of the fixed point - reference to the underlying microscopic lattice dynamics is lost. Even away from the fixed point one may be able to infer approximately the behavior of long distance modes independently of short distance details (but only approximately)

There is some small residual dependence on short-distance properties of the model/physics.
There is a continuum analog to this. We'd like to take a look at it because

(i) It illustrates how ideas in the continuum setting show up in more general cases.

(ii) It sheds light into renormalization.

(iii) It gives another perspective to EFT.

Consider a theory in 4D (but we can easily do this in any D) that we render finite by imposing a momentum cutoff $\Lambda$. To be slightly more concrete we take the Euclidean scheme (i.e., imaginary time) to be $\Lambda$ of a scalar field with propagator

$$\frac{g^2}{p^2 + m^2}$$

where $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ smoothly to 0.

Suppose the theory contains $\frac{i}{2} \phi^4$ Interaction Term

In Feynman diagram: $\phi \phi \phi \phi$

We'd like to start from, say, this Lagrangian, with some initial cutoff, so call it $L(\Lambda)$, and ask how do we change $L(\Lambda)$, in order to have the same Green functions if we reduce the cutoff to a scale $\Lambda < \Lambda_0$.

For starters we note that this question does not even make sense for Green functions with at least one external leg with momentum $p$ in the range $\Lambda < |p| < \Lambda_0$. The cutoff $K(p^2) = 0$ in this range so there is no hope of $L(\Lambda)$ reproducing $L(\Lambda_0)$.

So we will assume $|p| < \Lambda < \Lambda_0$ for all external legs.

It will be easier to do this by assuming we know already $L(\Lambda)$ for some arbitrary $\Lambda$ and we compute $L'((\Lambda')^{\Lambda_0}$ with $\Lambda' = \Lambda - \epsilon \Lambda$. We can then go from $\Lambda = \Lambda_0$ by a sequence of infinitesimal changes.
So we are comparing Lagrangians with a cut off difference.

Now we do not know the form of $L(\Lambda)$ (meaning the functional dependence on $\rho, a, b$), but we can be pretty sure it contains a $\frac{1}{\Lambda^3}$ term.

So consider $\rho$

\[
\frac{\Lambda^3}{\rho^2} \left( \frac{\Lambda}{\rho} \right)^2 \frac{\Lambda^3}{\rho^2} = \frac{\Lambda^5}{\rho^4}
\]

Now, for $|p| < \Lambda$ and $|p| > \Lambda$ they agree. Only in the narrow window $\Lambda < |p| < \Lambda$ do we see a difference. The graph with $K(p/\Lambda)$ vanishes, while the other one is

\[
\frac{\Lambda^5}{\rho^4} \frac{\Lambda^5}{\rho^4} \sim \frac{\Lambda^5}{\rho^4} \sim \frac{1}{\Lambda^3}
\]

We can reproduce the effect of $K(p)$ in the effective theory if we introduce an interaction $\propto \phi^6$.

\[
L(\Lambda - \delta) - L(\Lambda) \sim \frac{1}{\Lambda^3} \phi^6
\]

More precisely, using $\frac{d}{d(\Lambda - \delta)} \frac{d}{d(\Lambda - \delta)} = \frac{1}{\Lambda^3} (1 + 2i\delta)$,

\[
\frac{d^2}{d\Lambda^2} \left( \frac{\Lambda^5}{\rho^4} \right) \sim \frac{1}{\Lambda^3} \frac{\delta^2}{\rho^4} \sim \frac{1}{\Lambda^3} \phi^6
\]

or

\[
L(\Lambda) - L(\Lambda - \delta) \sim -2 \frac{\Lambda^5}{\rho^4} \phi^6
\]

or

\[
\frac{dL}{d\Lambda} \sim -2 \frac{\Lambda^5}{\rho^4} \phi^6
\]

Integrating out high momentum modes is much like integrating out heavy massive particles.
Now, since \( L(\lambda) \) now has an interaction \( \frac{2}{\Lambda^4} \) in going to \( L(\lambda-\delta \lambda) \), I shall also consider \( \lambda \) interaction at tree level,

\[
\lambda \rightarrow \frac{1}{\Lambda^4} \phi^4 \text{ interaction in } L
\]

Note that \( \frac{1}{\Lambda^4} \) comes from \( \frac{1}{\Lambda^4} \) in \( \lambda \) and \( \frac{1}{\Lambda^4} \) from difference of the two operators. In the momentum region, we shall \( \lambda-\delta \lambda \ll \frac{1}{\Lambda^4} \), from the propagator as before.

Clearly this goes on, generating \( \frac{1}{\Lambda^{4+2n}} \) term in \( L(\lambda) \). Only even powers because we started from a model with \( S \) - \( \phi \) symmetry.

\( \gamma \rightarrow \lambda \) loop: Now

\[
\langle \lambda \rangle \sim \frac{1}{\Lambda^4} \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{k(p^2 + m^2)}{p^2 + m^2} \sim \left( \frac{\Lambda}{\Lambda^4} \right)^4
\]

So the effect of changing \( \lambda \) cut off is \( \frac{\Lambda^4}{4!} \left( \frac{\lambda}{\Lambda^4} \right)^4 = \frac{5}{16 \pi^2} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda^4} \)

or \( \frac{d^4 \lambda}{d \Lambda^4} = \frac{5}{2} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda^4} \).

Although I did not show \( \lambda \), derivative operators, like \( \lambda \frac{d^2 \phi^2}{d\phi^2} \), etc., will be needed.
So what we have is that even if we start
from \( \mathcal{L}(\phi) = \frac{Z_0}{2} \partial_{\mu} \phi \partial^\mu \phi - \frac{1}{4} \partial^\mu \phi \partial^\nu \phi \partial_{\mu} \phi \partial_{\nu} \phi \)

to reproduce this microscopic law with a lower cut-off \( \Lambda \ll \Lambda_0 \)
we need a more general lagrangian

\[
\mathcal{L}(\nu) = \frac{2}{\nu} \partial_{\mu} \nu \partial^\mu \nu - \frac{1}{4} \partial^\mu \nu \partial_{\mu} \nu \partial^\nu \phi + \frac{3}{4} \nu \phi^2 + \frac{3}{4} \phi^4 + \ldots.
\]

and the couplings are determined by a set of equations

\[
\nu \frac{d \phi}{d \nu} + \nu \frac{d \phi}{d \nu} = \ldots
\]

We will return to the derivation of \( \nabla \frac{d}{d\nu} \) to make it slightly
more precise, but let's just study the meaning of these
flow equations, or rather of their solution, and its implication.

It will suffice to consider \( g_4, g_6 \); the physics will be clear without
the complications of an infinite set of equations.

The RGE equations give \( \Lambda \frac{d \phi}{d \Lambda} \). They are obtained from \( \Lambda \frac{d \phi}{d \nu} \)
so more properly we should look at

\[
\Lambda \frac{d}{d \Lambda} \left( \frac{g_4}{\Lambda^2} \right) \text{ and } \Lambda \frac{d}{d \Lambda} \left( \frac{g_6}{\Lambda^6} \right) \text{ (and } \Lambda \frac{d}{d \Lambda} \left( \frac{g_{10}}{\Lambda^{10}} \right) \text{)}
\]

set these equal to powers of dimensionless couplings, \( B_{14}(g_4, g_6) \) gives
powers of \( \Lambda \) to make up for dimensions

\[
\Lambda \frac{d}{d \Lambda} \left( \frac{g_4}{\Lambda^2} \right) = \frac{1}{\Lambda^2} B_{14}(g_4, g_6) \rightarrow \left( \Lambda \frac{d}{d \nu} - 2 \right) g_4 = B_{14}(g_4, g_6)
\]

Before we analyze this system of 2 equations, note that
for \( B_{14} = 0 \) we obtain

\[
g_4(\Lambda) = \left( \frac{\Lambda}{\Lambda_0} \right)^2 g_4(\Lambda_0) \quad \Rightarrow \quad g_4 \text{ is quickly vanishing as } (\Lambda/\Lambda_0) \to 0
\]

\[
(\text{because } \frac{g_4(\Lambda)}{\Lambda^2} \to g_4(\Lambda_0) / \Lambda^2)
\]
Generally, all terms that \( \to 0 \) as \( \Lambda \to 0 \) (that is \( g_{\Lambda} \to 0 \) as \( \Lambda_{\kappa} \to 0 \)) are called "irrelevant," while those that don't are called "relevant.

Sometimes the distinction is made between more relevant operators that have \( \left( \frac{\Lambda}{\alpha} \right) \) grow with \( \Lambda > 0 \) and more for which the growth is logarithmic, in \( \frac{\Lambda}{\alpha} \), which are called "marginal," or "exactly marginal," if constant (\( \frac{\Lambda}{\alpha} \) independent).

Now we want to investigate flows in the \( g_4, g_6 \) plane.

\[
\begin{align*}
\Lambda \xrightarrow{\text{decreasing } \Lambda} & g_4 \\
& g_6
\end{align*}
\]

In fact we want to compare different trajectories, as they flow to long distances (\( \Lambda_{\text{IR}} \approx \text{small } \Lambda \)). The point is that if the trajectories converge, then the IR is insensitive to the UV. By converse, we mean that if we start at \( \Lambda_{\text{UV}} \) from two points \( A_i, A_j \) in the \( (g_4, g_6) \) plane, see Figure 1, then the flow to the IR brings the trajectories closer.

Let \( \vec{g} \) be a flow (\( \Delta t \Rightarrow 0 \) slow how), and consider \( \vec{E} = g_4 - g_6 \). Then

\[
\Lambda \left( \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial \Lambda} \right) = \frac{\partial g_4}{\partial g_6} - \frac{\partial g_6}{\partial g_4} = \vec{E}_4 \frac{\partial \vec{E}_6}{\partial g_4} + \vec{E}_6 \frac{\partial \vec{E}_4}{\partial g_6}, \quad \text{where } \frac{\partial \vec{E}_6}{\partial g_4} = \frac{\partial \vec{E}_4}{\partial g_6}
\]

\[
\Lambda \left( \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial \Lambda} \right) - 2 \vec{E} = \vec{E}_4 \frac{\partial \vec{E}_6}{\partial g_4} + \vec{E}_6 \frac{\partial \vec{E}_4}{\partial g_6}
\]

As \( A_i, A_j \) evolve, \( \vec{E} = (E_4, E_6) \) is a vector connecting the points.

\[
\begin{align*}
& g_4 \xrightarrow{\text{decreasing } \Lambda} g_4 \\
& g_6 \\
\end{align*}
\]

We are not interested in the difference between the points \( A_i, A_j \), but rather, say, the difference between \( g_4, g_6 \) at a fixed \( g_4 \).
(1) gives this direction, need a constant $a$ to make $S'$ vanish

$$S_y = 0 = E_y - a \beta_y \Rightarrow a = E_y / \beta_y$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \xi_y = E_y - a \beta_y = E_y - E_y \beta_y / \beta_y = 0$$

The solution of $\xi_y$ is

$$\frac{d\xi}{dN} = \frac{2 \xi}{\frac{dN}{\frac{dN}{\xi}} - \left(\frac{\partial \xi}{\partial \beta_y} + \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial \beta_x}\right)}$$

All this to show that not only do the two trajectories have $g_0A$ decreasing (which we expect to happen for $g_0A = 0$), but even more interesting, the distance between the two ax is spreading than at a fast rate

$$\xi_c(A) \approx \frac{\xi_c(A)}{\xi_0(A)} \frac{\xi_0(A)}{\xi_0(A)} \exp\left[\int_{N_0}^{N} \frac{dN}{\frac{dN}{\xi}} \left(\frac{\partial \xi}{\partial \beta_y} + \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial \beta_x}\right)\right]$$

So to be explicit that $g_0A$ remains comparable, or at least don't introduce growth with $\left(\frac{N}{N_0}\right)$ with a power $x > 2$, then $\xi_c(A) / \xi_0(A) \to 0$ rapidly as $N_0$

So the picture is

$$g_y \rightarrow g_y$$

As $N \to 0$, at any $g_y$, there is a single $g_y$, or rather a small range of values that gets smaller as $N$ decreases. The details of the microscopic theory are lost, approximately.
DIGRESSION

The equation

\[ \nabla \frac{d \xi_c}{d \lambda} - 2 \xi_c = \left[ \frac{\partial \beta_y}{\partial \xi_c} + \frac{\partial \beta_x}{\partial \xi_c} - \nabla \frac{d \ln \beta_y}{d \lambda} \right] \xi_c \]

was copied from Polchinski. I cannot reproduce it. Taking \( d \xi_c/d \lambda = 0 \) \( \xi_c \)

I find

\[ \nabla \frac{d \xi_c}{d \lambda} = \nabla \frac{d}{d \lambda} \left( \xi_y - \xi_y \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \right) \]

\[ = 2 \xi_c + \xi_y \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} + \xi_c \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} - \left( \xi_y \frac{\partial \beta_y}{\beta_x} + \xi_c \frac{\partial \beta_x}{\beta_x} \right) \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \]

\[ - \frac{\xi_y}{\beta_x} \left( \beta_c \frac{\partial \beta_c}{\beta_x} + \beta_c \frac{\partial \beta_c}{\beta_x} \right) + \frac{\xi_c}{\beta_x} \left( \beta_c \frac{\partial \beta_c}{\beta_x} + \beta_c \frac{\partial \beta_c}{\beta_x} \right) \]

\[ = 2 \xi_c + \xi_y \left( \frac{2 \beta_c}{\beta_x} + \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} - \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} - \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} - \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} - \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \right) \]

\[ + \xi_y \left( \frac{2 \beta_c}{\beta_x} + \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \right) \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \]

\[ = 2 \xi_c + \xi_y \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \left( 2 \beta_c - \beta_c \frac{\partial \beta_c}{\beta_x} \right) + \frac{\xi_y}{\beta_x} \left( \beta_c \frac{\partial \beta_c}{\beta_x} - \beta_c \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \right) \]

\[ = 2 \xi_c + \xi_y \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \left( 2 \beta_c - \beta_c \frac{\partial \beta_c}{\beta_x} \right) \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} + 2 \xi_c \frac{\beta_c}{\beta_x} \]

which differs from Polchinski's by the last term.
This is still different from Polchinski but at least it is homogeneous in $S$. Moreover, the extra term,

$$-\frac{1}{4} \nabla^2 \theta$$

has an explicit factor of $\theta$ which is not ($\frac{\theta}{\sqrt{\theta}}$) so quickly becoming negligible compared with $\theta^2$.

End of Digression
This does not mean that one can ignore $g_6(n)$ (and $g_3$ and so on) but rather that it is fixed (once we know $g_6(n)$).

**Relation to renormalization and renormalizability**

In the picture $B_1$ is a point with $g_6(n_0)$ given and $g_6(n_0)=0$ (and $g_8(n_0)=0$, etc).

$\Lambda \ll \Lambda_{10}$, the trajectory through $B_1$ gives a point $B_2$ defined to be $g_6^B, \quad g_6(n_2) = g_6^B$

Now consider $\Lambda_0 > \Lambda_{10}$: here is another (longer) trajectory starting from $B_2$ that now sets to $g_6^B$ at $B_2^\prime$.

This procedure defines a bare coupling $g_6^B = g_6^B (g_6^B, \Lambda_{10}, \Lambda_0)$.

Consider now the limit of removing the cutoff keeping the renormalized quantities fixed, $\Lambda_0 \rightarrow \infty$, $g_6^B$ fixed, $\Lambda_{10}$ fixed.

$\Rightarrow g_6(n) = g_6(n_0) \left( \frac{\Lambda_{10}}{\Lambda_0} \right), \quad \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \Lambda_0 \rightarrow \infty$

This is the usual statement of renormalization.
To get an equation for $\nabla \phi / \nabla \lambda$, we proceed as follows:

Let $Z(J, \lambda) = \int [\mathcal{L}] \left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \lambda^2} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \phi(x) \phi(x) \nabla \lambda \nabla \lambda + J(\phi(x) \phi(x)) \right] + S(\phi, \lambda) \right] = \int [\mathcal{L}] e^{S(\phi, \lambda)}$

where $\mathcal{L}(\phi, \lambda) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \lambda^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \phi(x) \phi(x) \nabla \lambda \nabla \lambda \right)$ and $J(\phi) = 0$ for $|\phi| \leq \lambda$

We have $\frac{\partial Z}{\partial \lambda} = \int [\mathcal{L}] \left[ \frac{1}{2} \phi(x) \phi(x) \nabla \lambda \nabla \lambda - 2 \frac{\partial J(\phi)}{\partial \phi} \phi(x) + 2 \phi(x) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \lambda} \right] + S(\phi, \lambda)$

The functional derivative of $Z$ is $\frac{\partial Z}{\partial \lambda} = \int [\mathcal{L}] \left[ \frac{1}{2} \phi(x) \phi(x) \nabla \lambda \nabla \lambda - 2 \frac{\partial J(\phi)}{\partial \phi} \phi(x) + 2 \phi(x) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \lambda} \right] + S(\phi, \lambda)$

To turn this into a useful equation for $\nabla \phi / \nabla \lambda$, we want to express the 1st term as a functional derivative operator on the functional.

To get two powers of $\phi$ as its argument by integrating consider

$\frac{\delta S}{\delta \phi(x)} = \delta S / \delta \phi(x), \quad \frac{\delta^2 S}{\delta \phi(x) \delta \phi(x)} = \delta S / \delta \phi(x) \delta \phi(x)$

The 2nd part of $\frac{\delta Z}{\partial \lambda}$ has a 1st term unit $\phi(x)$ will be able to ignore, as it turns out, because $\int [\mathcal{L}] \left[ \frac{1}{2} \phi(x) \phi(x) \nabla \lambda \nabla \lambda - 2 \frac{\partial J(\phi)}{\partial \phi} \phi(x) + 2 \phi(x) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \lambda} \right] = 0$, since $J(\phi) = 0$.

The rest involves

$\frac{\delta S}{\delta \phi(x)} = \phi(x) \delta \phi(x)$

$\frac{\delta^2 S}{\delta \phi(x) \delta \phi(x)} = \delta^2 \phi(x) \delta \phi(x)$

So $\frac{\partial Z}{\partial \lambda}$ is

$\int [\mathcal{L}] \left[ \frac{\delta^2 \phi(x) \delta \phi(x)}{\delta \phi(x) \delta \phi(x)} \right] + S(\phi, \lambda) \delta^2(\phi, \lambda)$

A little algebra then shows that if

$\nabla \phi / \nabla \lambda = -\frac{1}{2} \int [\mathcal{L}] (\phi(x)) \nabla \lambda \nabla \lambda + \frac{\delta S}{\delta \phi(x)} \nabla \lambda \nabla \lambda + \frac{\delta^2 S}{\delta \phi(x) \delta \phi(x)} \nabla \lambda \nabla \lambda$ (a)

Then $\nabla \phi / \nabla \lambda = 0$

Eq. (a) is the most general version of the equation for $\nabla \phi(x)$ on $\lambda(x)$ we wrote earlier.

Note: I have not verified fully my claim, but it's almost there.
**Bottom-up EFT**

Now that we know how to construct \( L_E \) from \( L_{	ext{full}} \), we can ask: Can we construct \( L_{	ext{full}} \) from \( L_E \)? The answer is probably no, there are more descendants available. But if sufficient information exists about higher symmetries, I suspect different \( L_E \) are equivalent. Shuffling is no efficient algorithm to do this. In practice, we:

- either \( E \ll M \), \( \to (E/m)^n \) suppressed, \( m \gg e^{-n} \) are difficult to infer, except for leading \( 1/K_{	ext{loop}} \) that produces nontrivial effects.
- Level \( n \) for which \( 1/K_{	ext{loop}} \) breaks an accidental symmetry of \( L_E \).

**Examples:**
- B, L numbers in SM (from \( K = 6\sqrt{2} \)).
- \( P, \theta \) from QCD+QED (from \( K = EW \text{ mult} \to 50 \)).

- or \( E = M \to \) sensitive to all powers of \( 1/E \).

\[ L_E \to L_{	ext{full}} \]

- Look directly for effects of \( L_{	ext{full}} \), i.e., spectrum/quantities.

The trick here is \( E \) just below threshold for new particle production. Even for \( E < 1/M \), \( L_E \) may help us organize our observations, even if not completely systematically.

Complete later:

- \( 1/M \) is unknown.
  - \( L_{	ext{full}} \) = most general consistent with symmetries.
  - \( M_{	ext{eff}} \) can be computed, but not matching (to what)?
  - Still, if \( M_{	ext{eff}} \) large enough, but not effectively;
  - possible NP effects.
Example: \( B \to D^{(*)} \tau \nu \) anomalous.

There are hints that \( b \to c \tau \nu \) is different from \( b \to c \ell \ell \), i.e.,

This breaks lepton flavor universality, an automatic property of the SM (with the weak and EM interactions of charged leptons having the same strength, modulo kinematic effects arising from their different masses).

In SM

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{ew}} = \frac{-\frac{4G_F \sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}} \bar{\ell}_L \ell_L c_R b_R + h.c.}{m_y}
\]

Most general dim6 set of ops with these quantum numbers:

I do not care about whether they mix with each other under renormalization. I am trying to understand their possibly observable effects in \( B \to D^{(*)} \tau \nu \). So (assuming neutrinos are left-handed)

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}} = -\frac{4G_F \sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}} \left[ (1 + c_L) \bar{\ell}_L \ell_L c_R b_R + c_R \bar{\ell}_L \ell_L c_R b_R \right.
\]

\[
+ c_{15} \bar{\ell}_R \ell_L c_R b_R + c_{16} \bar{\ell}_L \ell_L c_L b_R + c_{17} \bar{\ell}_L \ell_L c_R \ell_R - \bar{\ell}_R \ell_R b_R \bigg] \quad \text{h.c.}
\]

This is a fairly aggressive way to characterize the NP that arises from distance scales shorter than \( 1/M_{\nu b} \).

But what if we assume the SM is embedded in the NP model and that there is a NP scale \( M \) below which \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}} \) is the SM plus dim \( \geq 5 \) operators?

Then the dim6 operators we are considering have to arise from dim6 operators in the SM, i.e., invariant under the EW group.
Recall $SM : SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1)$ implies $(SU(3), SU(2), U(1))$

$q_L \ (3, 2)_W$
$u_R \ (3, 1)_W$
$d_R \ (3, 1)_W$
$l_L \ (1, 2)_W$
$e_R \ (1, 1)_{-1}$
$h \ (1, 2)_W$

\[
(a + 1) \ H = eH \ (1, 2)_W
\]

\[
\bar{q}_L \bar{q}_L \bar{u}_R \bar{d}_R \rightarrow \text{neutral} \times
\]

\[
\bar{q}_L \bar{q}_L \bar{u}_R \bar{d}_R \rightarrow C_L
\]

\[
\bar{q}_L \bar{u}_R \bar{d}_R \leftrightarrow \bar{e}_R \bar{l}_L \rightarrow C_R
\]

But no $C_R$: the leptonic left handed current $\bar{q}_L \bar{q}_L \bar{u}_R \bar{d}_R$ is neutral and the charged current $\bar{u}_R \bar{d}_R \bar{l}_L$ is a linear $SU(2)$ but we cannot make a 3 out of right handed quarks.

Moreover, this predicts correlations for example

\[
C_R \left( \bar{u}_R \bar{d}_R \bar{l}_L + \bar{e}_R \bar{e}_R \bar{e}_L \right) \quad \text{or possibly} \quad \bar{u}_R \rightarrow \bar{e}_R \bar{e}_R \bar{e}_L \quad \text{a linear combination}
\]

gives a NP contribution to $b \rightarrow s \tau \bar{\tau}$ (or $s \mu \bar{\mu}$ or $s \epsilon \bar{\epsilon}$) with the same strength, dictated by the coefficient $C_R$. 
This suggests it may be of some use to list all the operators of this type of EFT \( \Rightarrow \) the "SMEFT".

At \( \text{dim} 5 \) there is a unique unit \( Y_{\text{SMEFT}} \)

\[
\frac{e}{M} \ H H \bar{T}_R L R, \ \text{hence "Weinberg operator"}
\]

Here \( \phi^*_R = C \phi^*_L \) where \( * = \{ Y \} \) so \( \phi^*_R \) has the same quantum number as \( \phi_L \).

The operator breaks lepton number.

\( \text{U(3)} \ \text{sym of SM with} \ \bar{f}_L \rightarrow \bar{e}^+_L \mu^+_e \rightarrow e^+ e^+ e^+ \) all else neutral.

Shifts the higgs \( H \rightarrow (\phi^*_R) + h \) produces

\[
\frac{C e^2}{M} \ T_{R} \bar{\nu}_{e} \nu_{e} \quad \text{a Majorana mass term for neutrinos}
\]

At \( \text{dim} 6 \) there are \( 2499 \times 2499 \) terms \( \bar{h} \). The number becomes overwhelming; \( \bar{h} \) can contain without disturbing generation, \( \bar{H} \) is, for example

\[
\frac{1}{2} \ \frac{\alpha}{C} \ \bar{h} \ \text{comb} \ \text{as \ 1 \ other \ than} \ \bar{h}^3
\]

The 1-loop \( 2499 \times 2499 \) anomalous dimension matrix for these operators has been computed (by Rodrig Alves, a former student at UFMG-IEP).
LECTURES ON HEAVY QUARK EFFECTIVE THEORY

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1. Introduction

1.1 Motivation

There are at least three good reasons for studying in great detail the physics of B- and D-mesons. First, the standard model predicts small but observable CP-asymmetries in decays of B-mesons. Search and measurement of these asymmetries would give a check on the standard Kobayashi-Maskawa (KM) accounting of CP-violation in the standard model. It is worth noting that, inasmuch as only one CP violating parameter is known, namely $\epsilon$, almost any model of CP violation can account for it by fixing its free parameters.

Second, the rates for rare decays of heavy mesons are sensitive to departures from the standard model. These rare processes are good probes for new physics since they start at I-loop order in the standard model. For example, the partial widths for $B \rightarrow K^*\gamma$ and $B \rightarrow K^*\ell^+\ell^-$ in models with two Higgs doublets can easily differ from the standard model's by an order of magnitude. Less (or not at all) rare, but no less interesting, is $B^0 - \bar{B}^0$ mixing. This depends strongly on the top quark mass. The observation of $B^0 - \bar{B}^0$ mixing, with large mixing parameter ($r \sim 0.2$) in 1987, was the first evidence that the top quark was really very heavy.

Last, but not least, precision determination of the elements of the KM matrix is naturally done through study of decays of heavy mesons or baryons. This is important on two counts. The more precisely known these KM elements are, the more strongly constrained models that address the family problem will be. And, also, the standard model predictions for CP asymmetries and rare decay rates, as described above, depend on the KM matrix.

For these reasons, it is necessary and important to make precise standard model predictions, in terms of standard model parameters, of rates for semileptonic and rare decays, and of CP asymmetries. Discouragingly, these calculations run into the usual difficulties associated with hadronic matrix elements: strong interactions render perturbation theory useless, and we know of no alternative calculational tool. None, that is, until recently, when Isgur and Wise discovered new symmetries of QCD.

These lectures will describe these recent developments. We will introduce the Heavy Quark Effective Theory (HQET) and then we will find the new symmetries of QCD. We will then put to use these symmetries in a variety of ways. In particular, we will find that the form factors for semileptonic $B$ decays to $D$ or $D^*$ mesons can be determined at the point of maximum momentum transfer (that is, when the resulting $D$ or $D^*$ meson is at rest in the $B$ rest frame). We will also discuss systematic corrections to these results.

The lectures are prepared with an audience of uninitiated non-experts in mind. In preparing these notes I have, for the sake of clarity, departed badly from the chronological order in which these developments took place. Pedagogy, rather than historical accuracy, is what I aimed for. In so doing, I have

1) Although, it must be said in all fairness, in the case of rare processes, the ratios $\Gamma(B \rightarrow K^*\gamma)/\Gamma(B \rightarrow De\nu)$ and $\Gamma(B \rightarrow K^*\ell^+\ell^-)/\Gamma(B \rightarrow De\bar{\nu})$ are fairly independent of KM angles.

2) CP asymmetries in decays of $B^0(\bar{B}^0)$ mesons to CP eigenstates are, in some cases, independent of nonperturbative matrix elements. Nevertheless, if the asymmetry is to be predicted, the KM angle must be previously extracted from, say, semileptonic decays, for which understanding of nonperturbative form factors is needed (see section 5.1, below).

3) Save for numerical simulations of lattice QCD. These, however, convey little physical insight, and are, at present, technologically limited in their ability to produce precise results, e.g., few results are known with dynamical fermions. The methods that are the subject of these lectures, are valuable on the lattice; for a recent review, see ref. [3].
undoubtedly offended some, as it may appear I am intent on not giving them due credit. To them, I apologize in advance. At least two other sets of lectures on this subject have appeared recently, one by Mark Wise and one by Howard Georgi. The reader interested in the historical developments that led to the HQET can find an account in ref. [6].

1.2 Physical Intuition

The central idea of the HQET is so simple, it can be described without reference to a single equation. And it should prove useful to refer back to the simple intuitive notion, to be presented below, wherever the formalism and corresponding equations become abstruse.

The HQET is useful when dealing with hadrons composed of one heavy quark and any number of light quarks. More precisely, the quantum numbers of the hadrons are unrestricted as far as isospin and strangeness, but are ±1 for either B- or C-number, but not both (the other vanishing). In what follows we shall (imprecisely) refer to these as 'heavy hadrons'.

The successes of the constituent quark model is indicative of the fact that, inside hadrons, strongly bound quarks exchange momentum of magnitude a few hundred MeV. We can think of the typical amount λ by which the quarks are off-shell in the nucleon as λ ≈ m_p/3 ≈ 330MeV. In a heavy hadron the same intuition can be imported, and again the light quark(s) is(are) very far off-shell, by an amount of order λ. But, if the mass M_Q of the heavy quark Q is large, M_Q ≫ λ, then, in fact, this quark is almost on-shell. Moreover, interactions with the light quark(s) typically change the momentum of Q by λ, but change the velocity of Q by a negligible amount, of the order of λ/M_Q ≪ 1. It therefore makes sense to think of Q as moving with almost constant velocity, and this velocity is, of course, the velocity of the heavy hadron.

In the rest frame of the heavy hadron, the heavy quark is practically at rest. The heavy quark effectively acts as a static source of gluons. It is characterized by its flavor and color SU(3) quantum numbers, but not by its mass. In fact, since spin-flip interactions with Q are of the type of magnetic moment transitions, and these involve an explicit factor of g_s/M_Q, where g_s is the strong interactions coupling constant, the spin quantum number itself decouples in the large M_Q case. Therefore, the properties of heavy hadrons are independent of the spin and mass of the heavy source of color.

The HQET is nothing more than a method for giving these observations a formal basis. It is useful because it gives a procedure for making explicit calculations. But more importantly, it turns the statement 'M_Q is large' into a systematic perturbative expansion in powers of λ/M_Q. Each order in this expansion involves QCD to all orders in the strong coupling, g_s. Also, the statement of mass and spin independence of properties of heavy hadrons appears in the HQET as approximate internal symmetries of the Lagrangian.

Before closing this section, we point out that these statements apply just as well to a very familiar and quite different system: the atom. The rôle of the heavy quark is played by the nucleus, and that of the light degrees of freedom by the electrons (and the electromagnetic field). That different isotopes have the same chemical properties simply reflects the nuclear mass independence of the atomic wavefunction. Atoms with nuclear spin s are 2s + 1 degenerate; this

4) An obvious distinction between the atomic and hadronic systems is that in the latter the configuration of the light degrees of freedom is non-computable, due to the difficulties afforded by the non-perturbative nature of strong interactions. The methods that we are describing circumvent the need for a detailed knowledge of the configuration of light degrees of freedom. The price paid is that the range of predictions is restricted. To emphasize the non-computable aspect of the configuration of light degrees of freedom, Nathan Isgur informally referred to it as "brown muck," and the term has somewhat made it into the literature. (Sometimes, in fact, in modified form: B.J. Bjorken has used the term "brown junk".) When presenting these lectures in Spanish, and for the benefit of those in the audience who were not very proficient in English, I quoted the dictionary translation: "muck [mük] s. fiervo, estiércol, abono, basura; (fig) porquería, suciedad; cosa de poco valor." As this caused considerable amusement, and for the reader who is not a Spanish speaker but also not very proficient in English, I thought it appropriate to quote here from an English dictionary: "muck [muk] 1. filth, dirt 2. manure 3. highly organic soil 4. useless rock." Also, "gunk [günk], n. (Informal). repulsively greasy, sticky or slimy matter."
degeneracy is broken when the finite nuclear mass is accounted for, and the resulting hyperfine splitting is small because the nuclear mass is so much larger than the binding energy (playing the rôle of \( \Lambda \)). It is not surprising that, using \( MQ \) independence, the properties of \( B \) and \( D \) mesons are related, and using spin independence, those of \( B \) and \( B^* \) mesons are related, too.

1.3 How to read these notes

I have organized these lectures in what I believe to be logical order. In doing so I have postponed the physics until section 4. My recommendation for the uninitiated reader is to start by reading again section 1.2. Then take a quick go through chapter 2, describing the construction of the HQET, and chapter 3, introducing the new symmetries of the HQET, skipping sections 2.5 and 2.6 on a first reading. Chapters 4 and 5 are the heart of the subject and should be read carefully. They describe applications of the HQET to purely leptonic and semileptonic decays of heavy mesons. Then, depending on personal preference, the reader could continue with chapter 6 that tells how to incorporate finite mass corrections, chapter 7 which gives a quick overview of some of the other applications of the HQET that have appeared recently, or could go back to read more carefully chapters 2 and 3, including this time sections 2.5 and 2.6, if a more thorough understanding of the methodology of the HQET is desired.

2. The Heavy Quark Effective Theory

2.1 The Effective Lagrangian and its Feynman Rules

We shall focus our attention on the calculation of Green functions in QCD, with a heavy quark line, its external momentum almost on-shell. The external momentum of gluons or light quarks can be far off-shell, but not much larger than the hadronic scale \( \Lambda \). This region of momentum space is interesting because physical quantities —\( S\)-matrix elements— live there. And, as stated in the introduction, we expect to see approximate symmetries of Green functions in that region which are not symmetries away from it. That is, these are approximate symmetries of the \( S\)-matrix, but not of the lagrangian.

The effective Lagrangian \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}} \) is constructed so that it will reproduce these Green functions, to leading order in \( \Lambda/MQ \). It is given, for a heavy quark of velocity \( v_\mu \) (\( v^2 = 1 \)), by

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}}^{(s)} = \bar{Q}_\nu i\gamma^\mu D_\mu Q_\nu ,
\]

where the covariant derivative is

\[
D_\mu = \partial_\mu + igA_\mu ^{a}T^a ,
\]

and the heavy quark field \( Q_\nu \) is a Dirac spinor that satisfies the constraint

\[
\left( 1 + \frac{\not{v} + i\not{f}}{2} \right) Q_\nu = Q_\nu .
\]

In addition, it is understood that the usual Lagrangian \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{light}} \) for gluons and light quarks is added to \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}}^{(s)} \).

We can see how this arises at tree level, as follows. Consider first the tree level 2-point function for the heavy quark

\[
G^{(2)}(p) = \frac{i}{p^2 - MQ} .
\]

We are interested in momentum representing a quark of velocity \( v_\mu \) slightly off-shell:

\[
p_\mu = MQv_\mu + k_\mu .
\]

Here, 'slightly off-shell' means \( k_\mu \) is of order \( \Lambda \), and independent of \( MQ \). Substituting in eq. (2.1.4), and expanding in powers of \( \Lambda/MQ \), we obtain, to leading order,

\[
G^{(2)}(p) = i \left( 1 + \frac{\not{f}}{2} \right) \frac{1}{v \cdot k} + \mathcal{O} \left( \frac{\Lambda}{MQ} \right). \tag{2.1.6}
\]

We recognize the projection operator of eq. (2.1.3), and the propagator of the lagrangian in (2.1.1).

\(^{5}\) Here 'independent' is used to remind us that \( MQ \) is a free parameter in QCD. We can imagine taking the limit \( MQ \rightarrow \infty \) keeping \( \Lambda \) fixed.
Similarly, the 3-point function (a heavy quark and a gluon) is given by
\[ G_\mu^{(2,1)}(p, q) = \frac{i}{\not{q} - M_Q} (-ig_s T^a \gamma^\nu) \frac{i}{\not{p} + \not{q} - M_Q} \Delta_{\nu\mu}(q), \quad (2.1.7) \]
where \( \Delta_{\nu\mu}(q) \) is the gluon propagator. Expanding as above, we have
\[ G_\mu^{(2,1)}(p, q) = \left( \frac{1 + \gamma_5}{2} \right) \frac{i}{v k} (-ig_s T^a v^\nu) \frac{i}{v(k + q)} \Delta_{\nu\mu}(q) + O \left( \frac{\Lambda}{M_Q} \right), \quad (2.1.8) \]
where we have used
\[ \left( \frac{1 + \gamma_5}{2} \right) \gamma_\nu \left( \frac{1 + \gamma_5}{2} \right) = \left( \frac{1 + \gamma_5}{2} \right) v_\nu. \quad (2.1.9) \]
Again, this corresponds to the vertex obtained from the effective Lagrangian in eq. (2.1.1). It is straightforward to extend these results to arbitrary tree-level Green functions, provided only one heavy quark is considered and all other (light) particles carry momentum of order \( \Lambda \).

The effective Lagrangian in (2.1.1) is appropriate for the description of a heavy quark, and indeed a heavy hadron, of velocity \( v_\mu \). It does, however, break Lorentz covariance. This is not a surprise, since we have expanded the Green functions about one particular velocity: in boosted frames, the expansion in powers of \( \Lambda/M_Q \) becomes invalid, since the boosted momentum \( k_\mu \) can become arbitrarily large. Lorentz covariance is recovered, however, if we boost the velocity
\[ v_\mu \rightarrow \Lambda_{\mu\nu} v_\nu \quad (2.1.10) \]
along with everything else. It will prove useful to keep this simple observation in mind.\(^6\)

\(^6\) In an alternative method, championed by Georgi\(^9\), the effective Lagrangian \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}} \) consists of a sum over the different velocity Lagrangians, \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}}^{(v)} \), of eq. (2.1.1). Lorentz invariance is recovered at the price of "integrating in" the heavy degrees of freedom. This does not lead to overcounting of states, because the sectors of different velocity do not couple to each other, a fact that Georgi refers to as a "velocity superselection rule". See also [10].

### 2.2 What is an effective theory?

In the previous section an effective Lagrangian \( \mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}}^{(v)} \) was introduced such that Green functions \( \tilde{G}_\nu(k; q) \) calculated from it agreed, at tree level, with corresponding Green functions \( G(p; q) \), in the original field theory (that is, QCD) to leading order in the large mass
\[ G(p; q) = \tilde{G}_\nu(k; q) + O \left( \frac{\Lambda}{M_Q} \right) \quad (\text{tree level}). \quad (2.2.1) \]
Here, \( \Lambda \) stands for any component of \( k_\mu \) or of the \( q \)'s, or for a light quark mass, and \( p = M_Q v + k \).

The remarkable thing about eq. (2.2.1) is that while the left hand side depends on \( M_Q \), and generally in a complicated way, the first term of the right side is independent of \( M_Q \) and is a good approximation to the left side if \( M_Q \gg \Lambda \). Albeit remarkable, this fact is useless unless extended beyond tree level.

Does eq. (2.2.1) hold beyond tree level? The answer is a resounding 'NO', but the correct version is still close in form to eq. (2.2.1), and, more importantly, as we will see, useful:
\[ G(p; q; \mu) = \tilde{C}(M_Q/\mu, g_s) \tilde{G}_\nu(k; q; \mu) + O \left( \frac{\Lambda}{M_Q} \right) \quad (\text{beyond tree level}). \quad (2.2.2) \]
This equation will be proved in the following section. The Green functions \( G \) and \( \tilde{G}_\nu \) are renormalized, so they depend on a renormalization point \( \mu \). The function \( \tilde{C} \) is independent of momenta or light quark masses: it is independent of the dynamics of the light degrees of freedom. It is there because the left hand side has some terms which grow logarithmically with the heavy mass, \( \ln(M_Q/\mu) \). The beauty of eq. (2.2.2) is that all of the logarithmic dependence on the heavy mass factors out. Better yet, since \( \tilde{C} \) is dimensionless, it is a function of the ratio \( M_Q/\mu \) only, and not of \( M_Q \) and \( \mu \) separately.\(^7\) To find

\(^7\) Actually, additional \( \mu \) independence is implicit in the definition of the renormalized coupling constant \( g_s \). This reflects itself in the explicit form of \( \tilde{C} \); see section 2.4.
the dependence on $M_Q$ it suffices to find the dependence on $\mu$. This in turn is dictated by the renormalization group equation. More on this later.

Equation (2.2.2) is useful only to the extent the $\tilde{G}$ is really independent of $M_Q$. One should be careful to use $M_Q$–independent renormalization conditions in the effective theory. This might seem like a trivial point, but in proving (2.2.2) we will use an intermediate renormalization which is $M_Q$–dependent. Also, in general the renormalization scheme and point, $\mu$, need not be the same on both sides of eq. (2.2.2). The additional generality translates into practical complications and it is best avoided. One is therefore led to choose a mass–independent subtraction scheme on both sides of eq. (2.2.2). In practice, it is convenient to use dimensional regularization with an MS scheme.

It is instructive to note the similarities of the HQET and the more usual kind of effective theory —call it ‘normal’— in which a heavy particle is ‘integrated out’. Take, for example, the case of weak interactions at low energies, that is, when all the momenta involved are much smaller than the $W$-boson mass. Everyone knows that we can account for the effects of the $W$-boson by adding to the Lagrangian terms of the form

$$\Delta \mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}} = \frac{1}{M_W^2} \kappa \mathcal{O}, \quad (2.2.3)$$

where $\mathcal{O}$ is a 4-fermion operator and $\kappa$ contains mixing angles and factors of the weak coupling constant. This is simply the statement that a Green function $\tilde{G}$ of the original theory (the standard model including QCD) can be approximated by a Green function $\tilde{G}_O$ of the effective theory (a gauge theory of QCD and electromagnetism) with an insertion of the effective Lagrangian:

$$G = \frac{1}{M_W^2} \kappa \tilde{G}_O + \ldots. \quad (2.2.4)$$

The ellipses stand for terms suppressed by additional powers of $(M_W)^{-2}$. This equation is very similar to eq. (2.2.1). It replaces the task of computing the more complicated left side, which depends on $M_W$, by the computation in the effective theory which is independent of $M_W$, and indeed, completely free of the $W$-boson dynamical degrees of freedom. On the right hand side, the factor of $1/M_W^2$ gives the dependence on the $W$-boson mass simply and explicitly. And incorrectly! Just as above, the full theory has logarithmic dependence on $M_W$ which has not been made explicit. The correct version is

$$G = \frac{1}{M_W^2} \kappa C(M_W / \mu, g_s) \tilde{G}_O + \ldots, \quad (2.2.5)$$

The function $C$ is, in this case, also known as the ‘short distance QCD effect’ first calculated by Altarelli and Parisi, and Gaillard and Lee.

Summing up, an effective theory (of either the ‘normal’ or the HQ type) is a method for extracting explicitly the leading large mass dependence of amplitudes. Moreover, the rules of computation of the effective theory are completely independent of the large mass.

### 2.3 The Effective Theory Beyond Tree Level

In section 2.1 we established the validity of the HQET at tree level, and in section 2.2 we saw that beyond tree level things must get complicated. Here we will describe how the HQET works, and will establish the equivalence between the full and effective theories, as given by eq. (2.2.2), to 1-loop. The generalization to all orders in the loop expansion is straightforward, and not really enlightening (see ref. [8]).

Consider a Green function, both in the full and effective theories, for a heavy quark and $n \geq 2$ gluons. It suffices to prove the equivalence for one-particle irreducible (1PI) functions. In figure 1 the left side is calculated in the full theory and the right side in the HQET. The double line stands for the heavy quark propagator in the HQET.

![Figure 1](image-url)
We can prove the validity of the equation represented in figure 1, diagram by diagram (there are several diagrams that contribute to each side of the equation). Consider, for definiteness, the diagrammatic equation in figure 2.

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{Figure 2} \\
\end{array} \]

\[ = \quad + \mathcal{O}(1/M) \]

The equation would trivially hold if we could make the propagator replacement

\[ \frac{i}{p^2 - M_Q^2} \rightarrow \left( \frac{1 + \frac{i}{2}}{2} \right) \frac{i}{v(k + l)} \]

even inside the loop integral. Here \( p = M_Q v + k \), and \( l \) is the loop momentum. In other words, in the right hand side of figure 2, we take the limit \( M_Q \rightarrow \infty \) and then integrate, while on the left side we first integrate and then take the limit. Everyone knows that, if both integrals converge, then they agree. And that is the case for figure 2, and, indeed, it is also the case for any 1-loop integral with a heavy quark and \( n \geq 2 \) external gluons. We have established figure 1 for \( n \geq 2 \).

We are left with the 2-point (\( n = 0 \)) and 3-point (\( n = 1 \)) functions. These are different from the \( n \geq 2 \) functions in two ways. First, they receive contributions at tree level. And second, they are divergent at 1-loop. Choose some method of regularization. Dimensional regularization is particularly useful as it preserves gauge invariance (or, more precisely, BRST invariance). The comparison between full and effective theories is simplest if the same gauge and regularization choices are made. For concreteness, consider figure 3.

Since both sides are finite, we can argue as before. But we run into trouble when we try to remove the regulator. One must renormalize the Green functions by adding counter terms, but there is no guarantee that the counterterms satisfy the same relation as the regulated Green functions of figure 3. To elucidate the relation between counterterms, take a derivative on both sides of figure 3 with respect to either the residual momentum, \( k_\mu \), or the gluon external momentum, \( q_\mu \). This makes the diagrams finite and the regulator can be removed. Thus, at 1-loop, the relations

\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial k_\mu} G^{(2,1)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial k_\mu} \tilde{G}^{(2,1)} + \mathcal{O}(\Lambda/M_Q) \]  

(2.3.1)

\[ \frac{\partial}{\partial q_\mu} G^{(2,1)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial q_\mu} \tilde{G}^{(2,1)} + \mathcal{O}(\Lambda/M_Q) \]  

(2.3.2)

hold. The counterterms, or at least the difference between them, are \( k_\mu \) and \( q_\mu \) independent. It is a simple algebraic exercise to show, then, that the difference between counterterms is of the form

\[ aC^{(2,1)0} + b\tilde{C}^{(2,1)0} \]  

(2.3.3)

where the superscript '0' stands for tree level, and \( a \) and \( b \) are infinite constants, i.e., independent of \( k_\mu \) and \( q_\mu \). Thus, one can subtract the 1-loop Green functions by standard counter terms, and establish the equality of figure 3.

A similar argument can be constructed for the 2-point function. One must take two derivatives with respect to \( k_\mu \), but that is as it should, since the counterterms are linear in momentum.
We have therefore established that, to 1-loop, the renormalized Green functions in the full and effective theories agree. The alert reader must be puzzled as to the fate of the function \( \tilde{C}(M_Q/\mu, g_s) \) of eq. (2.2.2). What has happened is that the constants \( a \) and \( b \) in the counterterms in eq. (2.3.3) are, in general, \( M_Q \) dependent. Indeed, if we take derivatives with respect to \( M_Q \), as in eqs. (2.3.1) or (2.3.2), the degree of divergence is not changed, and one cannot argue that \( a \) or \( b \) are \( M_Q \) independent. The relation between renormalized Green functions that we have derived contains hidden \( M_Q \)-dependence in the renormalization prescription for the Green functions in the HQET.

Given two different renormalization schemes, the corresponding renormalized Green functions \( \tilde{G} \) and \( \tilde{G}' \) are related by a finite renormalization

\[
\tilde{G} = z(\mu, g_s)\tilde{G}' .
\]

Choosing \( \tilde{G} \) to be the mass-independent subtracted Green function, and \( \tilde{G}' \) the one in our peculiar subtraction scheme, we have that the relation between full and effective theories becomes

\[
G^{(2,1)}(p, q; \mu) = \tilde{C}(M_Q/\mu, g_s)\tilde{G}_v^{(2,1)}(k, q; \mu) + O(\Lambda/M_Q) ,
\]

as advertised in section 2.2. Here, \( \tilde{C} \) is nothing but this finite renormalization \( z(\mu, g_s) \). That we can use the same function \( \tilde{C} \) for all Green functions can be established by using the same wave-function renormalization prescription for gluons in the full and effective theories. Otherwise, an additional factor of \( z_A^{n/2} \) would have to be included in the relation between \( G^{(2,n)} \) and \( \tilde{G}^{(2,n)} \). This completes the argument.

It is worth mentioning that the discussion above assumes the renormalizability, preserving BRST invariance, of the effective theory. Although, to my knowledge, this has not been established, there is no obvious reason to doubt that the standard techniques apply in this case.

### 2.4 External Currents

We will often be interested in computing Green functions with an insertion of a current. Consider, the current

\[
J_\Gamma = q \Gamma Q
\]

in the full theory, where \( \Gamma \) is some Dirac matrix, and \( q \) a light quark. In the effective theory, this is replaced according to

\[
J_\Gamma(x) \to e^{-iM_Qv^2} \tilde{J}_\Gamma(x) ,
\]

where

\[
\tilde{J}_\Gamma = q \Gamma Q_v ,
\]

and it is understood that in \( \tilde{J}_\Gamma \) the heavy quark is that of the HQET, satisfying, in particular, \( \not{p}Q_v = Q_v \). The exponential factor in eq. (2.4.2) reminds us to take the large momentum out through the current, allowing us to keep the external momentum of light quarks and gluons small. The relation between full and effective theories takes the form of an approximate equation between Green functions —and eventually amplitudes— of insertions of these currents:

\[
G_{J_\Gamma}(p, p'; q; \mu) = \tilde{C}(M_Q/\mu, g_s)\tilde{G}_v\tilde{J}_\Gamma(k, k'; q; \mu) + O(\Lambda/M_Q) ,
\]

where \( p \) and \( p' \) are the momenta of the heavy quark and the external current, \( k \) and \( k' \) the corresponding residual momenta, \( p = M_Qv + k \), \( p' = M_Qv + k' \), and \( q \) stands for the momenta of the light degrees of freedom. The factor \( \tilde{C} \tilde{G}_v\tilde{J}_\Gamma \) accounts for the logarithmic mass dependence, as explained earlier. We see that an additional factor, namely, \( \tilde{C}_\Gamma \), is needed in this case to account for the different scaling behavior of the currents in the full and effective theories. It is convenient to think of the replacement of currents, not as given by eq. (2.4.2), but rather by

\[
J_\Gamma(x) \to e^{-iM_Qv^2} \tilde{C}_\Gamma(M_Q/\mu, g_s)\tilde{J}_\Gamma(x) .
\]

In fact, eq. (2.4.4), and therefore the replacement in eq. (2.4.5), are not quite correct. To reproduce the matrix elements of the current \( J_\Gamma \) of eq. (2.4.1),
it is necessary to sum over matrix elements of several different 'currents' in the effective theory. The operator $\tilde{J}_r$ of eq. (2.4.3) is just one of them. In addition, one may have to introduce such operators as $\bar{q}f \Gamma Q_v$. The correct replacement is therefore

$$J_r(x) \to e^{-iM_Q v x} \sum_i \tilde{C}_r^{(i)}(M_Q / \mu, g_s) \tilde{O}^{(i)}(x).$$ \hfill (2.4.6)

Here $\tilde{O}^{(i)}(x)$ is the collection of the operators of dimension 3 with appropriate quantum numbers. The first operator in the sum, call it $\tilde{O}^{(0)}$, is there even at tree level, and corresponds to the operator $\tilde{J}_r$ of eq. (2.4.3). The validity of eq. (2.4.6) is established in a manner analogous to the method of section 2.3, and I simply refer the interested reader to the literature[8].

Another case of interest is that of the insertion of a current of two heavy quarks

$$J_r = Q' \Gamma Q.$$ \hfill (2.4.7)

The replacement now is

$$J_r(x) \to e^{-iM_Q v x + iM' Q' v' x} \sum_i \tilde{C}_r^{(i)}(M_Q / \mu, M_Q' / M_Q, v v', g_s) \tilde{O}^{(i)}(x).$$ \hfill (2.4.8)

Again, $\tilde{O}^{(i)}(x)$ stands for the complete list of operators of dimension 3 in the effective theory with the right quantum numbers. Also, the operator $\tilde{O}^{(0)} = \bar{Q}' \Gamma Q_v$ appears in the sum at tree level.

This deserves some explanation. The Green functions now include two heavy quarks, and to properly establish the validity of eq. (2.4.8) we should begin by considering Green functions with two heavy quarks, no insertion of a current. The function $\tilde{C}$ connecting these full and effective Green functions will now, in general, depend on both $M_Q$ and $M_Q'$. Moreover, we can not argue that $\tilde{C}$ is independent of the velocities $v$ and $v'$. In fact, this was true of the simpler case considered in section 2.3; but there, $\tilde{C}$ could only depend on $v_x$ through $v_x^2 = 1$. In the case at hand there is an additional invariant on which $\tilde{C}$ can depend, namely $v v'$. These observations apply just as well to the correction factors $\tilde{C}_r^{(i)}$ in eq. (2.4.8), and we have made this explicit there.

The explicit functional dependence on $M_Q$ in the functions $\tilde{C}_r$ can be obtained from a study of their dependence on $\mu$. For clarity of presentation we neglect operator mixing for now. When necessary, this can be incorporated without much difficulty. Taking a derivative $d/d\mu$ on both sides of eqs. (2.4.2) and (2.4.5), we find

$$\frac{d}{d\mu} \tilde{C}_r = (\gamma_r - \tilde{\gamma}_r) \tilde{C}_r$$ \hfill (2.4.9)

where $\gamma_r$ and $\tilde{\gamma}_r$ are the anomalous dimensions of the currents $J_r$ and $\tilde{J}_r$ in the full and effective theories, respectively. Of particular interest are the cases $\Gamma = \gamma^\mu$ and $\Gamma = \gamma^\mu \gamma_5$. These correspond, in the full theory, to conserved and partially conserved currents, and therefore the corresponding anomalous dimensions vanish, giving

$$\mu \frac{d\tilde{C}_r}{d\mu} = -\tilde{\gamma}_r \tilde{C}_r \quad (\Gamma = \gamma^\mu, \gamma^\mu \gamma_5).$$ \hfill (2.4.10)

Before we solve this equation, we recall that

$$\mu \frac{d}{d\mu} = \mu \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} + \beta(g_s) \frac{\partial}{\partial g_s}.$$ \hfill (2.4.11)

Here $\beta$ is the QCD $\beta$-function, with perturbative expansion

$$\frac{\beta(g)}{g} = -b_0 \frac{g^2}{16\pi^2} + b_1 \left( \frac{g^2}{16\pi^2} \right)^2 + \cdots,$$ \hfill (2.4.12)

and

$$b_0 = 11 - \frac{2}{3} n_f,$$ \hfill (2.4.13)

where $n_f$ is the number of quarks in the theory. For our purposes, $n_f$ should not include the heavy quark. This is explained in the famous paper by Appelquist and Carrazzone[14]; it simply reflects the fact that the logarithmic scaling of $g_s$ is not affected by heavy quark loops, since these are suppressed by powers of $M_Q$. Now, the solution to (2.4.10) is standard:

$$\tilde{C}_r(\mu, g_s) = \exp \left( -\int_{g_s(\mu_0)}^{g_s} \frac{g_s'}{\beta(g_s')} \tilde{\gamma}_r(g_s') \right) \tilde{C}_r(\mu_0, \bar{g}_s(\mu_0))$$ \hfill (2.4.14)
where \( \tilde{g}_s \) is the running coupling constant defined by

\[
\mu \frac{d \tilde{g}_s(\mu')}{d \mu'} = \beta(\tilde{g}_s(\mu')) , \quad \tilde{g}_s(\mu) = g_s .
\]  

(2.4.15)

Choosing \( \mu_0 = M_Q \), and restoring the dependence on \( M_Q \), we have then

\[
\tilde{C}_T(M_Q/\mu, g_s) = \exp \left( - \int_{\tilde{g}_s(M_Q)}^\mu \frac{\tilde{g}_s(g')}{\beta(g')} \right) \tilde{C}_T(1, \tilde{g}_s(M_Q)) .
\]  

(2.4.16)

Therefore, the problem of determining \( \tilde{C}_T(M_Q/\mu, g_s) \) breaks down into two parts. One is the determination of the anomalous dimensions \( \tilde{\gamma}_T \). The other is the calculation of \( \tilde{C}_T(1, \tilde{g}_s(M_Q)) \). Both can be done perturbatively, and \( \tilde{C}_T(M_Q/\mu, g_s) \) can thus be computed, provided \( \mu \) and \( M_Q \) are large enough so that \( \tilde{g}_s(\mu) \) and \( \tilde{g}_s(M_Q) \) are small.

For example, at leading order

\[
\tilde{\gamma}_T = c_1 \left( \frac{\tilde{g}_s^2}{16\pi^2} \right) + \ldots ,
\]  

(2.4.17)

and

\[
\tilde{C}_T(1, \tilde{g}_s(M_Q)) = 1 + \mathcal{O}(\tilde{g}_s(M_Q)^2) .
\]  

(2.4.18)

In the next section we will compute the constant \( c_1 \). The '1' in eq. (2.4.18) states the correspondence between full and effective theory currents at tree level.

Therefore, at leading order

\[
\tilde{C}_T(M_Q/\mu, g_s) = e^\left( c_1/\beta_0 \ln(\tilde{g}_s(\mu)/\tilde{g}_s(M_Q)) \right) \tilde{C}_T(M_Q/\mu, g_s) = \left( \frac{\tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q)}{\tilde{\alpha}_s(\mu)} \right)^{a_f} ,
\]  

(2.4.19)

where, in the last line, we have introduced \( \tilde{\alpha}_s \equiv g_s^2/4\pi \), and

\[
a_f \equiv \frac{c_1}{2\beta_0} .
\]  

(2.4.20)

In the next section we will determine that \( c_1 = 4 \) or, equivalently, that \( 15 \)

\[
a_f = -\frac{6}{33 - 2n_f} ,
\]  

(2.4.21)

or \(-6/25\) for \( Q = b \) and \(-6/27\) for \( Q = c \).

We now turn to the computation of the coefficient \( \tilde{C}_T \) for the current of two heavy quarks in eq. (2.4.8). A new difficulty arises. Because \( \tilde{C}_T \) depends on three dimensionful quantities, namely the masses \( M_Q \) and \( M_Q' \), and the renormalization point \( \mu \), its functional dependence is not determined from the renormalization group equation (even if we neglect the implicit dependence of \( g_s \) on \( \mu \)). Two different approximations have been developed to deal with this problem:

I) Treat the ratio \( M_Q'/M_Q \) as a dimensionless parameter, and study the dependence of \( \tilde{C}_T \) on \( M_Q'/\mu \) through the renormalization group. This is just like what was done for the heavy-light case, so we can transcribe the result:

\[
\tilde{C}_T \left( \frac{M_Q'}{\mu}, \frac{M_Q'}{M_Q}, v\nu', g_s \right) \approx \exp \left( - \int_{\tilde{g}_s(M_Q')}^{\mu} \frac{\tilde{g}_s(g')}{\beta(g')} \right) \tilde{C}_T \left( 1, \frac{M_Q'}{M_Q}, v\nu', \tilde{g}_s(M_Q') \right) .
\]  

(2.4.22)

Again

\[
\tilde{C}_T \left( 1, \frac{M_Q'}{M_Q}, v\nu', \tilde{g}_s(M_Q') \right) = 1 + \mathcal{O}(\tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q')) .
\]  

(2.4.23)

But, now, the correction of order \( \tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q') \) is a function of \( M_Q'/M_Q \). This method has the advantage that the complete functional dependence on \( M_Q'/M_Q \) is retained, order by order in \( \tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q') \). Nevertheless, it fails to re-sum the leading-logs between the scales \( M_Q' \) and \( M_Q \), i.e., it does not include the effects of running of the QCD coupling constant between \( M_Q \) and \( M_Q' \). Therefore, this method is useful when \( M_Q'/M_Q \sim 1 \), or, equivalently, when \( (\tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q') - \tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q))/\tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q) \ll 1 \).

II) Treat the ratio \( M_Q'/M_Q \) as small. Expand first in a HQET treating \( Q \) as heavy and \( Q' \) as light. The corrections are not just of order \( \Lambda/M_Q \) but also \( M_Q'/M_Q \), but this is assumed to be small (even if much larger than \( \Lambda/M_Q \)). Then expand from this HQET, in powers of \( \Lambda/M_Q' \), by constructing a new HQET where both \( Q \) and \( Q' \) are heavy. The calculation of \( \tilde{C}_T \) then proceeds in two steps. The first gives a factor just like that of the heavy-light current, in \( \tilde{C}_T \)

\[
\exp \left( - \int_{\tilde{g}_s(M_Q)}^{\mu} \frac{\tilde{g}_s(g')}{\beta(g')} \right) \tilde{C}_T(1, \tilde{g}_s(M_Q)) .
\]  

(2.4.24)
The second factor is as in method I, above, but neglecting $M_{Q'}/M_Q$. Moreover, the current $J_T$ is not conserved, so the anomalous dimension to be used is not $-\tilde{\gamma}_r$ but $\tilde{\gamma}_r - \tilde{\gamma}_r$. Finally, we must make explicit the fact that in the first and second steps the appropriate $\beta$-functions differ in the number of active quarks. We therefore label the one in the second step $\beta'$ and the corresponding running coupling constant $\tilde{g}_s'$. The second factor is

$$
\exp \left( \int \frac{g_s(\mu)}{g_s(M_{Q'})} \frac{d}{\beta(g')} \tilde{\gamma}_r(g') \right) \bigg| \beta(g') = \beta'(g'') \right) \tilde{C}_T(1, 0, \nu \nu', \tilde{g}_s(M_{Q'})) = \tilde{C}_T(1, 0, \nu \nu', \tilde{g}_s(M_{Q'})) .
$$

Combining factors gives

$$
\tilde{C}_T \left( \frac{M_{Q'}}{\mu}, \frac{M_{Q'}}{M_Q}, \nu \nu', g_s \right) \approx \exp \left( - \int \frac{g_s(M_{Q'})}{g_s(M_Q)} \frac{d}{\beta(g')} \tilde{\gamma}_r(g') \right) \bigg| \beta(g') = \beta'(g'') \right) \times \tilde{C}_T(1, \tilde{g}_s(M_Q)) \tilde{C}_T(1, 0, \nu \nu', \tilde{g}_s(M_{Q'})) .
$$

(2.4.25)

For example, at leading order

$$
\tilde{\gamma}_r(g') = \tilde{c}_1 \left( \frac{g'^2}{16 \pi^2} \right) + \ldots
$$

(2.4.27)

In section 2.5 we compute $\tilde{c}_1$, obtaining

$$
\tilde{c}_1 = \frac{16}{3} [\nu \nu' r(\nu \nu') - 1] ,
$$

(2.4.28)

where

$$
r(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2x^2 - 1}} \ln \left[ x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1} \right] .
$$

(2.4.29)

Putting together all these factors in (2.4.26) we obtain, in the leading-log order,

$$
\tilde{C}_T \left( \frac{M_{Q'}}{\mu}, \frac{M_{Q'}}{M_Q}, \nu \nu', g_s \right) \approx \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_s(M_Q)}{\tilde{a}_s(M_{Q'})} \right) a_L(\nu \nu') \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_s'(M_Q)}{\tilde{a}_s'(\mu)} \right) a_L(\nu \nu') ,
$$

(2.4.30)

where

$$
a_L(\nu \nu') = \frac{\tilde{c}_1}{2 \nu} = \frac{8}{33 - 2n_f} [\nu \nu' r(\nu \nu') - 1] .
$$

(2.4.31)

The advantage of method II over method I is that it does include the effects of running between $M_Q$ and $M_{Q'}$. The disadvantage is that it neglects powers of $M_{Q'}/M_Q$. (Actually, the result can be improved by reincorporating the $M_{Q'}/M_Q$ dependence, as a power series expansion in this ratio).

2.5 Leading-logs or no leading-logs: A digression.

We have just introduced two alternative approximation methods for the computation of the QCD correction factor $\tilde{C}_T$. The question immediately suggests itself: which one is better? Some applications involve the case $M_Q = M_{Q'}$, where, clearly, I is the method of choice. In other applications $M_{Q'} \ll M_Q$, for which, definitely, method II is to be used.

Which method is more appropriate for the physical case $Q = b, Q' = c$? Here $M_{Q'}/M_Q = m_c/m_b \sim 1/3$, while $(\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_c) - \tilde{\alpha}(m_b))/\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_b) \sim 1/2$. Nature, it seems, has played mischief, giving us parameters that make a priori questionable the approximations of either method I or II.

There is one reason for choosing method II over I in this physical case. The functional dependence on $M_Q$ and $M_{Q'}$ in the factors (2.4.24) and (2.4.25) is both scheme and gauge independent. The perturbative expansion, which in this case corresponds to an organization by leading-logs, subleading-logs, etc., automatically has each term depend on $M_Q$ and $M_{Q'}$ in a physically meaningful way. This is not the case in method I, where the 1-loop corrections to $\tilde{C}_T$ in eq. (2.4.22), which involve the $M_{Q'}/M_Q$ dependence, are gauge and/or scheme dependent, except at $\nu \nu' = 1$.

Still, one may ask which method is more appropriate if we are interested only in the result at the kinematic point $\nu \nu' = 1$. This is an important question because it is at this kinematic point that the HQET makes a prediction of the semileptonic decay rate which can be used to extract the mixing angle $\theta_{cB}$. Method I leaves us with an uncertainty in the correction to $\tilde{C}_T$ of order $(\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_c) - \tilde{\alpha}(m_b))/\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_b) \sim 1/2$. For method II, the corrections, of order $m_c/m_b$, first appear at 1-loop so they are really of order $(\alpha_s/\pi)(m_c/m_b) \sim 1/30$. Moreover, they can be computed. I believe that, to the extent that we are willing to compute corrections from high enough orders in $m_c/m_b$, method II is the better choice.

Let me expand on the issue of running of $\alpha_s$ and the effect of the resummation of logs. One may argue that method I, which fails to account for the running of QCD between $m_b$ and $m_c$, may give accurate results if one works
to second (or, perhaps, third) order in $\alpha_s$. After all, the running of $\alpha_s$ simply corresponds to a resummation of logarithms. But here, the logs are not large. Rather, it is a combination of the large coefficient $b_0$ in the beta function, eq. (2.4.13), and of $\Lambda_{\text{QCD}}$ not being very small, that makes $\alpha_s$ change appreciably between $m_c$ and $m_b$. One may then hope that an accurate result is obtained by including high enough orders in $\alpha_s$, regardless of resumming the logs.

On closer inspection, this possibility makes little sense. The one-loop running coupling constant satisfies

$$\frac{\bar{\alpha}_s(\mu)}{\bar{\alpha}_s(\mu_0)} - 1 = \frac{\bar{\alpha}_s(\mu)}{2\pi} b_0 \ln \frac{\mu}{\mu_0} .$$

(2.5.1)

If we take $\mu = m_c$ and $\mu_0 = m_b$, and $\bar{\alpha}_s(m_c) \approx 0.3$ then the right hand side is $\sim 0.7$, which is not small, even if the logarithm is practically equal to unity. The conclusion we draw is that it is a combination of $b_0$ being large and $\alpha_s$ not being small at these scales that makes the running significant. It seems plain that the inaccuracies incurred in when using method I arise from dropping higher powers of $(\frac{b_0}{2\pi} \ln \frac{m_c}{m_b})$.

One can easily turn this argument around and use it to question the usefulness of method II. If the large number in the problem is $b_0$ rather than the logarithm of the not so large ratio of scales, what right do we have in keeping only the leading-logs? The answer to this comes from the observation above that at $\mu = m_b$ the running coupling is starting to be really small, and “wins” over the big factor $b_0$. I can best explain what I have in mind by a simple computation. One can estimate the size of the subleading-log corrections by comparing the way $\alpha_s$ runs between $m_b$ and $m_c$ when accounting for either only one-loop in the $\beta$-function, or two-loops, or more. To make the analysis easily tractable in closed form, let us consider the following toy $\beta$-function

$$\beta(g) = -g \left[ \frac{b_0 g^2}{16\pi^2} + \frac{b_0 g^2}{16\pi^2} \right] + \frac{b_0 g^2}{16\pi^2} + \cdots$$

(2.5.2)

The first three terms have the same sign and order of magnitude of the $\beta$-function in QCD. The running coupling constant is given at one-loop by (2.5.1), at “two-loops” by the solution to

$$\frac{1}{\bar{\alpha}_s(\mu_0)} - \frac{1}{\bar{\alpha}_s(\mu)} = \frac{b_0}{4\pi} \ln \frac{1}{\bar{\alpha}_s(\mu_0)} + \frac{b_0}{32\pi^2} = \frac{b_0}{2\pi} \ln \frac{\mu}{\mu_0} .$$

(2.5.3)

while in “all-orders” in our toy example it is

$$\frac{1}{\bar{\alpha}_s(\mu_0)} - \frac{1}{\bar{\alpha}_s(\mu)} = \frac{b_0}{4\pi} \ln \frac{1}{\bar{\alpha}_s(\mu_0)} = \frac{b_0}{2\pi} \ln \frac{\mu_0}{\mu} .$$

(2.5.4)

Consider the two following choices of parameters: (i) taking $\bar{\alpha}_s(m_b) = 0.30$ and $m_b/m_c = 3$, one gets $\bar{\alpha}_s(m_c) = 0.53$ from the one-loop approximation, $\bar{\alpha}_s(m_c) = 0.69$ from two-loops, while the “all-orders” result is $\bar{\alpha}_s(m_c) = 0.84$; (ii) with $\bar{\alpha}_s(m_b) = 0.20$ and $m_b/m_c = 3.3$, one gets $\bar{\alpha}_s(m_c) = 0.30$ from the one-loop approximation, $\bar{\alpha}_s(m_c) = 0.317$ from two-loops, and $\bar{\alpha}_s(m_c) = 0.323$ is the “all-orders” result (the extra digit was retained in the last two cases to make the difference apparent).

The conclusion that I draw from this exercise is that the effects of running, while non-negligible, are dominated by the first couple of terms in the leading-log expansion. The error in $\bar{\alpha}_s(m_c)$ from the “two-loop” toy example is 20% for the first choice of parameters and only 2% in the second. Still, without resumming one still faces the ambiguity in the value for $\alpha_s$. This introduces an uncertainty in the one-loop correction (of method I) of order $(\bar{\alpha}_s(m_c) - \bar{\alpha}(m_b))/\bar{\alpha}_s(m_b)$ or 180% for the first choice of parameters and 60% for the second.

2.6 Sample Calculations

It is instructive to calculate explicitly some of the anomalous dimensions and matching functions of last section to one loop order. This will introduce some tricks and methods peculiar to HQET calculations.

As a first example, consider the anomalous dimension of the heavy-light current $\bar{J}_\Gamma$ in eq. (2.4.3). The relation between renormalized and bare 1PI
amputated Green functions for one heavy quark $Q_v$, a light quark, and with an insertion of $\tilde{J}_r$ is

$$\Gamma^R = Z^{-1/2}Z_Q^{-1/2}Z_{\tilde{r}}\Gamma^B. \quad (2.6.1)$$

Here $Z$ ($Z_Q$) is the light (heavy) quark wave-function renormalization, and $\tilde{Z}_{\tilde{r}}$ is the current renormalization. The superscripts $R$ and $B$ denote renormalized and bare functions, respectively. Using dimensional regularization, with $\epsilon = 4 - d$, the functions $Z$, $Z_Q$ and $\tilde{Z}_{\tilde{r}}$ are chosen to make the 2-light quark, 2-heavy quark, and current insertion Green functions finite. They have expansions in powers of $1/\epsilon$

$$Z = \sum_n \frac{a_n}{\epsilon^n}, \quad (2.6.2a)$$
$$Z_Q = \sum_n \frac{a_Q^n}{\epsilon^n}, \quad (2.6.2b)$$
$$\tilde{Z}_{\tilde{r}} = \sum_n \frac{b_n}{\epsilon^n}. \quad (2.6.2c)$$

where the coefficients $a_n, a_Q^n$ and $b_n$ are functions of the renormalized coupling constant $g_s$. In a minimal subtraction scheme $a_0 = a_Q^0 = b_0 = 1$, which we assume in the following. Taking a derivative of (2.6.1) with respect to $\mu$ and recalling that $\Gamma^B$ is $\mu$-independent, we have

$$\frac{d\Gamma^R}{d\mu} = (\gamma + \gamma Q + \tilde{\gamma}_r)\Gamma^R, \quad (2.6.3)$$

where

$$\gamma = -\frac{1}{2}\mu \frac{d}{d\mu} \ln Z,$$
$$\gamma Q = -\frac{1}{2}\mu \frac{d}{d\mu} \ln Z_Q,$$

and

$$\tilde{\gamma}_r = \mu \frac{d}{d\mu} \ln \tilde{Z}_{\tilde{r}}. \quad (2.6.6)$$

The $Z$-functions depend on $\mu$ only implicitly, through the definition of the renormalized coupling constant $g_s$. Recall that this is given, in terms of the bare one, $g_s^B$, by

$$g_s = \mu^{-\epsilon/2}Z g_s^B, \quad (2.6.7)$$

and therefore that

$$\frac{d}{d\mu}g_s = \beta(g_s, \epsilon), \quad (2.6.8)$$

where

$$\beta(g_s, \epsilon) = -\frac{1}{2}\epsilon g_s + \beta(g_s), \quad (2.6.9)$$

and

$$\frac{1}{g_s^2} \beta(g_s) = \mu \frac{d}{d\mu} \ln Z_g,$$ 

(2.6.10)

gives the $\beta$-function of eq. (2.4.12). Therefore one can write

$$\gamma Z = \frac{1}{2} \mu \frac{d}{d\mu} Z = \frac{1}{2} (\beta(g_s) - \frac{1}{2}\epsilon g_s) \frac{\partial Z}{\partial g_s},$$

and using the expansion in eq. (2.6.2a), and comparing the term of order $(1/\epsilon)^0$ on both sides gives, assuming $a_0 = 1$,

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{4} g_s \frac{\partial a_1}{\partial g_s}. \quad (2.6.11)$$

Similarly, from eq. (2.6.2b) we have

$$\gamma Q = \frac{1}{4} g_s \frac{\partial a_Q^0}{\partial g_s}, \quad (2.6.12)$$

and from eq. (2.6.2c)

$$\tilde{\gamma}_r = -\frac{1}{2} g_s \frac{\partial b_1}{\partial g_s}. \quad (2.6.13)$$

Therefore, our task is to calculate the coefficients of the $1/\epsilon$ poles in $Z$, $Z_Q$ and $\tilde{Z}_{\tilde{r}}$. 

\footnote{Again, for simplicity, we neglect operator mixing. It is easily included by treating $\Gamma$ as a vector and $\tilde{Z}_{\tilde{r}}$ as a matrix.}
We begin by recalling the calculation of $Z$. We will use Feynman gauge.

The 1-loop contribution to the 2-point function is depicted in figure 4, which corresponds to

$$(-i g_s)^2 T^a T^a \mu^\epsilon \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i}{\epsilon^2} \gamma_\mu \frac{i}{q + f + i\epsilon} \gamma^\mu$$

$$= -\frac{4}{3} g_s^2 \mu^\epsilon \int_0^1 \frac{d\epsilon}{(2\pi)^4} \int_1^1 \frac{dx}{(l^2 + 2xq + xq^2 + i\epsilon)^2} . \tag{2.6.14}$$

![Figure 4](image)

Shifting $l \rightarrow l - xq$, and performing the loop integration

$$= -\frac{4}{3} g_s^2 \mu^\epsilon \frac{i}{(4\pi)^2 - i/2} \gamma_\mu \gamma^\mu \Gamma(\epsilon/2) \int_0^1 d\epsilon [-(1 - x)q^2 - \epsilon^2(1 - x)] . \tag{2.6.15}$$

Finally, expanding

$$\Gamma(\epsilon/2) = \frac{\Gamma(1 + \epsilon/2)}{\epsilon/2} = \frac{2}{\epsilon} (1 + O(\epsilon)) ,$$

and using

$$\gamma_\mu \gamma^\mu = (-2 + \epsilon) \gamma ,$$

we have that figure 4 is

$$= i \frac{8}{3} g_s^2 \mu^\epsilon \frac{1}{16\pi^2} \epsilon + \text{finite terms} .$$

Thus, we have, at 1-loop,

$$a_1 = \frac{8}{3} \frac{g^2}{16\pi^2} . \tag{2.6.16}$$

and

$$\gamma = \frac{4}{3} \frac{g^2}{16\pi^2} .$$

The calculation of $\gamma_q$ involves a new twist. We must consider the graph of figure 5, which corresponds to

$$(-i g_s)^2 T^a T^a \mu^\epsilon \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i}{\epsilon^2} v(l + k) \gamma^\mu$$

$$= -\frac{4}{3} g_s^2 \mu^\epsilon \int_0^1 \frac{d\epsilon}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{1}{l^2 v(l + k)} . \tag{2.6.17}$$

![Figure 5](image)

The novelty here is that the two denominators have different dimensions. It is convenient to combine them with a variation of the Feynman parameterization, which follows from the identity

$$\int_0^\infty d\lambda \frac{1}{(a\lambda + b)^2} = \frac{1}{ab} . \tag{2.6.18}$$

Since $\lambda$ runs from 0 to $\infty$, we can think of it as a dimensionful integration variable. Thus, the graph is

$$-\frac{4}{3} g_s^2 \mu^\epsilon \int_0^\infty d\lambda \int \frac{d^4 \epsilon}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{1}{(\lambda v(l + k) + l^2)^2} . \tag{2.6.19}$$

The rest is straightforward. Shift $l \rightarrow l - \frac{1}{2} \lambda v$, and do the loop integral, to obtain

$$-\frac{4}{3} g_s^2 \mu^\epsilon \frac{i}{(4\pi)^2 - \epsilon/2} \Gamma(\epsilon/2) \int_0^\infty d\lambda (\lambda^2/4 - \lambda v k)^{-\epsilon/2} . \tag{2.6.20}$$
The $\lambda$ integration is easily performed, by first rescaling

$$\lambda \to -4\nu k \lambda$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.21)

and then changing variables

$$x = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.22)

This gives

$$-\frac{4}{3} g^2 \mu^{' \prime} \left( \frac{i}{(4\pi)^{2-\epsilon/2}} \Gamma(\epsilon/2)(-4\nu k)^{1-\epsilon} \int_0^1 dx (1-x)^{\epsilon/2} x^{-2} \right)$$

$$= -\frac{4}{3} g^2 \mu^{' \prime} \left( \frac{i}{(4\pi)^{2-\epsilon/2}} \Gamma(\epsilon/2)(1-\epsilon/2)\Gamma(\epsilon-1) \right)$$

$$= -\frac{16}{3} \frac{g^2 \mu^{' \prime}}{16\pi^2} \frac{1}{\nu k} + \text{finite}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.23)

Therefore

$$\gamma_{\epsilon} = -\frac{8}{3} \frac{g^2}{16\pi^2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.24)

Finally, we come to the 1-loop insertion of the current. The graph in figure 6 corresponds to

$$\left( -ig s \right)^2 T^a T^b \mu^{' \prime} \int \frac{d^{4-\epsilon} l}{(2\pi)^{4-\epsilon}} \frac{i}{f + q} \Gamma \frac{i}{v(l+k)} v$$

$$= -\frac{4}{3} g^2 \mu^{' \prime} \int \frac{d^{4-\epsilon} l}{(2\pi)^{4-\epsilon}} \frac{1}{(l+q)^2} v(l+k).$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.25)

We need the pole part of the integral

$$\int \frac{d^{4-\epsilon} l}{(2\pi)^{4-\epsilon}} \frac{(l+q)\mu}{(l+q)^2 v(l+k)}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.26)

Since $k \to 0$ does not introduce infrared divergences, we can take $k = 0$. The infinite part must be proportional to $v_\mu$, so it is

$$v_\mu \int \frac{d^{4-\epsilon} l}{(2\pi)^{4-\epsilon}} \frac{v l}{(l+q)^2 v l} = v_\mu \frac{i}{16\pi^2} \frac{2}{\epsilon} + \cdots.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.27)

Combining, we have the result for the pole part of figure 6

$$\frac{8}{3} g^2 \frac{1}{16\pi^2} \frac{1}{\nu}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.28)

To extract $\tilde{Z}_\Gamma$ use the definition eq. (2.6.1) and our results for $Z$ and $Z_Q$ in eqs. (2.6.16) and (2.6.23):

$$(1-\frac{a_1}{2\epsilon})(1-\frac{a_Q}{2\epsilon})(1+\frac{b_1}{\epsilon})(1+\frac{8}{3}\frac{g^2}{16\pi^2} \frac{1}{\nu}) - 1 = 0,$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.29)

or

$$b_1 = -\frac{8}{3} \frac{g^2}{16\pi^2} + \frac{1}{2} a_1 + \frac{1}{2} a_Q$$

$$= -4 \frac{g^2}{16\pi^2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.30)

Finally we use eq. (2.6.13) to arrive at

$$\tilde{\gamma}_\epsilon = 4 \frac{g^2}{16\pi^2},$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.6.31)

which leads, as advertised, to the result in eqs. (2.4.19)-(2.4.21). Note that this result is independent of which Dirac matrix $\Gamma$ is considered.

It is interesting to note that to this order the renormalization of the operators $\bar{q} \Gamma Q_q$ is completely diagonal, as seen explicitly in this calculation. Therefore, the discussion of the calculation of the coefficients $\tilde{C}_\Gamma^{(i)}$ of the previous section, and in particular eqs. (2.4.17) and (2.4.19), that neglected the effects of operator mixing, are in fact correct.
For our next example, we consider the calculation of the coefficient functions \( C_{i}(\mu, g_{s}) \) in eq. (2.4.6). Now, we have seen that the dependence on \( \mu \) is determined from the corresponding anomalous dimension \( \gamma_{r} \) and the value of \( C_{i}(\mu) \) at \( \mu = \mu_{Q} \) as in eq. (2.4.16). We have calculated above \( \gamma_{r} \) for arbitrary \( r \). All that is left to do is to calculate \( C_{i}(\mu, g_{s}) \).

The coefficient \( \tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu, g_{s}) \) is distinct from the rest in that it starts at zeroth order in the expansion in \( g_{s} \). It is given, in leading-log, by eq. (2.4.19). For the next-to-leading-log order one needs the anomalous dimension to order \( g; \) and the function \( C_{i}(\mu, g_{s}) \) to order \( g; \).

Writing
\[
\gamma_{r}(g_{s}) = c_{1} \left( \frac{g_{s}^{2}}{16\pi^{2}} \right) + c_{2} \left( \frac{g_{s}^{2}}{16\pi^{2}} \right)^{2} + \cdots ,
\]
and
\[
\tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu, g_{s}) = 1 + \tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu) \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_{s}(\mu)}{4\pi} \right) + \cdots ,
\]
one can obtain \( \tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu, g_{s}) \) to next-to-leading-log order simply plugging into eq. (2.4.16)
\[
\tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu, g_{s}) = \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_{s}(\mu)}{\tilde{a}_{s}(\mu)} \right)^{c_{1}/2b_{0}} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{c_{1}b_{1} - c_{2}b_{0}}{b_{0}} \right) \tilde{a}_{s}(\mu) - \frac{\tilde{a}_{s}(\mu)}{4\pi} \right] + \tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu) \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_{s}(\mu)}{4\pi} \right) + \cdots \]  
(\Gamma = \gamma^{\mu}, \gamma^{\nu} \gamma_{5})
(2.6.34)

This expression depends on \( \mu \) in a scheme and gauge invariant way. In general, though, the two terms of order \( \tilde{a}_{s}(\mu) \) are not separately scheme and gauge invariant. A meaningful calculation must obtain \( \gamma_{r} \) to 2-loops and \( \tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu, g_{s}) \) to 1-loop, both in the same scheme and gauge. Since a 2-loop calculation is beyond the scope of this presentation, we will abstain from performing it.

Still, the coefficient \( \tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu, g_{s}) \) contains physical information17, at order \( \tilde{a}_{s}(\mu) \), provided \( i \neq 0 \), that is, \( \tilde{C}^{(i)} \neq \tilde{J}_{r} = \tilde{q}_{l} Q_{v} \). In this case \( \tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu, g_{s}) \) starts at order \( \tilde{a}_{s}(\mu) \), so that
\[
\tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu, g_{s}) = \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_{s}(\mu)}{\tilde{a}_{s}(\mu)} \right)^{c_{1}/2b_{0}} \left[ \tilde{C}^{(i)}(\mu) \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_{s}(\mu)}{4\pi} \right) + \cdots \right] \quad (\Gamma \neq \gamma^{\mu}, \gamma^{\nu} \gamma_{5})
\]
(2.6.35)

In this case, \( \tilde{C}^{(i)} \) contains physical information and must therefore be scheme and gauge invariant.

To calculate \( \tilde{C}^{(i)}(1, \tilde{g}_{s}(\mu_{Q})) \), \( i \neq 0 \), refer back to the equation relating the full and effective theories’ Green functions, eq. (2.4.4). At \( \mu = \mu_{Q} \), the relation involves \( \tilde{C}^{(i)}(1, g_{s}) \) explicitly, and it can be inferred by comparing both sides of eq. (2.4.4). This is why the extraction of \( \tilde{C}^{(i)}(1, g_{s}) \) is usually called a ‘matching’ calculation between full and effective theories. We are led to consider the difference of Green functions shown in figure 7. From this difference we must extract terms not proportional to \( \Gamma \). Note that the difference is, by construction, free of infrared sensitivity. Therefore the terms not proportional to \( \Gamma \) are themselves in the form of local operators of the same dimension as the original current \( q_{l} Q_{v} \).

The difference is given by
\[
-i \frac{4}{3} g_{s}^{2} \mu^{i} \int \frac{d^{4-q}l}{(2\pi)^{4-q-i}} \frac{1}{l^{2}} \gamma^{\mu} \frac{1}{f + \mathbf{k} - M_{Q}} \gamma_{5} - \frac{1}{v(l + k) v_{\mu}} \left( \frac{1 + \mathbf{k}}{2} \right).
\]
(2.6.36)

The term in brackets can be rewritten as
\[
\frac{f + M_{Q}(\mathbf{k} + 1) + \mathbf{k}}{l^{2} + 2M_{Q} v(l + k) + k^{2}} \gamma_{5} - \frac{1}{v(l + k) v_{\mu}}.
\]
(2.6.37)

Since the calculation is infrared finite, we can take \( k \to 0 \). The term containing \( M_{Q}(\mathbf{k} + 1) \) can be combined with the second one (recall the projector \( (1 + \mathbf{k})/2 \) on the right) to give
\[
-v_{\mu} \frac{l^{2}}{(l^{2} + 2M_{Q} v(l + k) v_{\mu})}.
\]
(2.6.38)
Since we can set $q \to 0$, the integration will produce a Dirac structure of the form $\gamma^\mu \Gamma v_\mu = \gamma^\mu \Gamma = \Gamma$. Hence we discard it. The remaining integral is
\[
-i \frac{4}{3} g_5^2 \mu' \int \frac{d^{d-1}l}{(2\pi)^{d-1}} \frac{1}{l^2} \gamma^\mu \Gamma \frac{1}{l^2 + 2M_Q v_\mu} \gamma^\mu = -i \frac{4}{3} g_5^2 \mu' \int_0^1 dx (1-x) \int \frac{d^{d-1}l}{(2\pi)^{d-1}} \frac{\gamma^\mu \Gamma \gamma_\mu}{(l^2 + 2xM_Q v_\mu)^3} .
\]
(2.6.39)

After shifting $l \to l - xM_Q v$, the pole part of the integral (the term with $l^2$ in the numerator) gives the Dirac structure $\Gamma$, and is thrown away. As $\epsilon \to 0$ we are left with
\[
-i \frac{4}{3} g_5^2 \mu' \int_0^1 dx (1-x)(xM_Q)^2 \int \frac{d^{d-1}l}{(2\pi)^{d-1}} \frac{1}{l^2 - x^2 M_Q^2} \gamma^\mu \gamma_\mu = -i \frac{4}{3} g_5^2 \mu' \int_0^1 dx (1-x)(xM_Q)^2 \left[ -\frac{i}{16\pi^2} \frac{1}{2(z^2 M_Q^2)} \right] \gamma^\mu \gamma_\mu
\]
(2.6.40)
\[
= -\frac{2}{3} g_5^2 \gamma^\mu \gamma_\mu .
\]

We have obtained, to 1-loop order, that the coefficient function associated with the operator $\mathcal{O}^{(1)} = q^\mu \gamma^\mu Q_v$ is given by\(^{17}\)
\[
\tilde{C}_{\gamma^\mu \gamma^\mu}(1, \tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q)) = \frac{\tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q)}{3\pi} ,
\]
(2.6.41)
and the one for the operator $\mathcal{O}^{(2)} = q^\mu \gamma_5 \gamma_\mu Q_v$ is given by
\[
\tilde{C}_{\gamma^\mu \gamma_5 \gamma^\mu}(1, \tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q)) = -\frac{\tilde{\alpha}_s(M_Q)}{3\pi} .
\]
(2.6.42)

Our final example is the calculation at 1-loop of the anomalous dimension for the current made of two heavy quarks. The novelty here is its functional dependence on $v \cdot v'$, which is expected on general grounds. We need the finite part of the diagram of figure 8, corresponding to
\[
-i \frac{4}{3} g_5^2 \mu' \int \frac{d^{d-1}l}{(2\pi)^{d-1}} \frac{1}{l^2} \frac{1}{v'(l+k')} \frac{1}{v'(l+k)} \frac{1}{v'(l+k)} \Gamma \frac{1}{v'(l+k)} v_\mu
\]
\[
= -i \frac{4}{3} g_5^2 \mu' v v' \Gamma \int \frac{d^{d-1}l}{(2\pi)^{d-1}} \frac{1}{l^2} \frac{1}{v'(l+k)} \frac{1}{v'(l+k)} \frac{1}{v'(l+k)} .
\]
(2.6.43)

The denominators are combined in two steps. The integral we need to evaluate is
\[
\int_0^1 dx \int \frac{d^{d-1}l}{(2\pi)^{d-1}} \frac{1}{l^2} \frac{1}{v'(l+k') v + v(l+k)(1-x) + xv'(l+k)}
\]
\[
= 2 \int_0^1 dx \int_0^\infty d\lambda \lambda \int \frac{d^{d-1}l}{(2\pi)^{d-1}} \frac{1}{l^2 + x\lambda v'(l+k') + (1-x)\lambda v(l+k)^3} .
\]
(2.6.44)

Shift $l \to l - \frac{1}{2} x \lambda v' - \frac{1}{2} (1-x) \lambda v$ and perform the momentum integration, to get
\[
-i \Gamma(1+\epsilon/2) (4\pi)^{2-\epsilon/2} \int_0^1 dx \int_0^\infty d\lambda \lambda \left[ \frac{1}{2} x \lambda v' + \frac{1}{2} (1-x) \lambda v \right]^2 - x \lambda v' k' - (1-x) \lambda v k \right]^{-\epsilon/2-1}
\]
\[
= \frac{i \Gamma(1+\epsilon/2)}{(4\pi)^{2-\epsilon/2}} \int_0^1 dx \int_0^\infty d\lambda \lambda^{-\epsilon/2} \left[ \frac{1}{4} (x v' + (1-x) v)^2 \lambda - x v' k' - (1-x) v k \right]^{-\epsilon/2-1}.
\]

The $\lambda$ integral is done as before, by rescaling
\[
\lambda \to \frac{(-x v' k' - (1-x) v k)}{\frac{1}{4} (x v' + (1-x) v)^2} ,
\]
(2.6.45)
and changing variables
\[
y = \frac{1}{1+\lambda} ,
\]
(2.6.46)
to obtain

\[- \frac{i}{(4\pi)^{2-\epsilon/2}} \int_{0}^{1} dx \left[ \frac{1}{4} (xv' + (1-x)v)^2 \right]^{-\epsilon/2-1} \left[ -xv'k' - (1-x)v k \right]^{-\epsilon/2} \Gamma(\epsilon) \Gamma(1-\epsilon/2). \tag{2.6.47} \]

The integral is finite even as \( \epsilon \to 0 \), so we can take the limit and write for the pole part

\[- \frac{i}{16\pi^2} \left( \frac{-1}{\epsilon} \right) \frac{1}{4} \int_{0}^{1} dx \frac{1}{x^2 + (1-x)^2 + 2x(1-x)v v'}. \tag{2.6.48} \]

The integral is elementary, giving

\[- \frac{i}{16\pi^2} \frac{2}{\epsilon} \ln \left( \frac{x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}}{x} \right). \tag{2.6.49} \]

where

\[ r(x) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} \ln \left( \frac{x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}}{x} \right). \tag{2.6.50} \]

Combining all factors, including the heavy quark wave function renormalization, we obtain, finally

\[ \hat{\gamma}_r = - \frac{g_2}{16\pi^2} \frac{16}{3} \left[ v v' r(v v') - 1 \right]. \tag{2.6.51} \]

Notice that \( \hat{\gamma}_r \) vanishes at \( v v' = 1 \). This will be understood when we discuss in the next section the symmetries of the HQET, as resulting from the fact that this current generates a symmetry when \( v' = v \). That \( \hat{\gamma}_r \) vanishes at \( v v' = 1 \) can also be understood by choosing the gauge \( v A = 0 \). In this gauge there are interactions for one of the two quarks when \( v' \neq v \), and there are no interactions for either when \( v' = v \).

3. Symmetries

3.1 Flavor – SU(N)

The Lagrangian for \( N \) species of heavy quarks, all with velocity \( v \), is

\[ L_{\text{eff}}^{(v)} = \sum_{j=1}^{N} Q_{v}^{(j)} i v D Q_{v}^{(j)} \tag{3.1.1} \]

This Lagrangian has a \( U(N) \) symmetry\(^{18,4} \). The subgroup \( U(1)^N \) corresponds to flavor conservation of the strong interactions, and was a good symmetry in the original theory. The novelty in the HQET is then the nonabelian nature of the symmetry group. This leads to relations between properties of heavy hadrons with different quantum numbers. Please note that these will be relations between hadrons of a given velocity, even if of different momentum (since typically \( M_{Q_i} \neq M_{Q_j} \) for \( i \neq j \)). Including the \( b \) and \( c \) quarks in the HQET, so that \( N = 2 \), we see that the \( B \) and \( D \) mesons form a doublet under flavor \( SU(2) \).

This flavor-\( SU(2) \) is an approximate symmetry of QCD. It is a good symmetry to the extent that

\[ m_c \gg \Lambda \quad \text{and} \quad m_b \gg \Lambda. \tag{3.1.2} \]

These conditions can be met even if \( m_b - m_c \) may itself be much larger than \( \Lambda \). This is in contrast to the well-known isospin symmetry, which holds because \( m_d - m_u \ll \Lambda \) (and, as it happens to be the case, \( m_d \ll \Lambda \) and \( m_u \ll \Lambda \)).

In the atomic physics analogy of the Introduction, this symmetry implies the equality of chemical properties of different isotopes of an element.

3.2 Spin – SU(2)

The HQET Lagrangian involves only two components of the spinor \( Q_v \). Recall that

\[ \left( \frac{1-\gamma_5}{2} \right) Q_v = 0. \tag{3.2.1} \]

The two surviving components enter the Lagrangian diagonally, i.e., there are no Dirac matrices in

\[ L_{\text{eff}}^{(v)} = Q_v^c i v D Q_v. \tag{3.2.2} \]

Therefore, there is an \( SU(2) \) symmetry of this Lagrangian which rotates the two components of \( Q_v \) among themselves\(^{19,4} \).

Please note that this “spin”–symmetry is actually an internal symmetry. That is, for the symmetry to hold no transformation on the coordinates is needed, when a rotation among components of \( Q_v \) is made. On the other hand,
to recover Lorentz covariance, one does the usual transformation on the light-sector, including a Lorentz transformation of coordinates and in addition a Lorentz transformation on the velocity \( v \). A spin\(-SU(2)\) transformation can be added to this procedure, to mimic the original action of Lorentz transformations.

To make it plain that this symmetry has nothing to do with "spin" in the usual sense, consider the large mass limit for a vector particle \( 2o \). Using, again, \( p = mv + k \), and expanding the propagator \( (3.2.3) \) we see that the Lagrangian for the HVET (Heavy Vector Effective Theory) is

\[ \mathcal{L}^{(v)}_{\text{eff}} = A^l_{\nu} i v \partial A_{\nu} \, , \]

with the constraint

\[ (v_{\mu} v_{\nu} - g_{\mu\nu}) A_{\mu\nu} = A_{\nu} \, . \]

We have rescaled the vector field by \( \sqrt{2m} \), so the field has mass dimensions 3/2. The effective Lagrangian is invariant under an \( SU(3) \) group of transformations, rotating the three components of the vector field among themselves. Note that the "spin" symmetry is not associated with \( SU(2) \) in this case.

The symmetry of the theory is larger than the product of the flavor and spin symmetries. If there are \( N_S, N_F, \) and \( N_V \) species of heavy scalars, fermions, and vectors, respectively, all with the same QCD quantum numbers (e.g., all in the fundamental representation of \( SU(3) \)), the symmetry of the effective theory is \( SU(N_S + 2N_F + 3N_V) \).

### 3.3 Spectrum

The internal symmetries of the effective Lagrangian are explicitly realized as degeneracies in the spectrum and as relations between transition amplitudes. In this section we will consider the spectrum of the theory\(^{21}\).

Keep in mind that momenta, and therefore energies and masses, are measured in the HQET relative to \( M_Q v_\mu \). Therefore, when we state that in the HQET the \( B \) and \( D \) mesons are degenerate, the implication is that the physical mesons differ in their masses by \( m_b - m_c \).

For now let us specialize to the rest frame \( v = (1,0) \). The total angular momentum operator \( J \), i.e., the generator of rotations, can be written as

\[ J = L + S \, , \]

where \( L \) is the angular momentum operator of the light degrees of freedom, and \( S \), the angular momentum operator for the heavy quark, agrees with the generator of spin\(-SU(2)\). Since \( J \) and \( S \) are separately conserved, \( L \) is also separately conserved. Therefore, the states of the theory can be labeled by their \( L \) and \( S \) quantum numbers \( (l, m_l; s, m_s) \). Of course, \( s = 1/2 \), so \( m_s \) is 1/2 or \(-1/2\) only.

The simplest state has \( l = 0 \) and, therefore, \( J = 1 \). We will refer to it as the \( \Lambda_Q \), by analogy with the nonrelativistic potential constituent quark model of the \( \Lambda \)-baryon, where the strange quark combines with a \( l = 0 \) combination of the two light quarks.

Next is the state with \( l = 1/2 \). It leads to \( J = 0 \) and \( J = 1 \). We deduce that there is a meson and a vector meson that are degenerate. For the \( b \)-quark, the \( B \) and \( B^* \) fit the bill. They are the lowest lying \( B = -1 \) states. The lowest \( C = 1 \) states are the \( D \) and \( D^* \) mesons. These again can very well be assigned to our \( J = 0 \) and \( J = 1 \) multiplet. The difference \( M_{D^*} - M_D = 145 \) MeV is reasonably smaller than the splitting between the \( D^* \) and the next state, the \( D_1 \), with \( M_{D_1} - M_{D^*} = 410 \) MeV.

The splittings of \( B \) and \( B^* \) and of \( D \) and \( D^* \) result from symmetry breaking effects. These must be corrections of order \( \Lambda/M_Q \) to the HQET predictions. Therefore, one must have \( M_{B^*} - M_B = \Lambda^2/m_b \) and analogously for the \( D-D^* \) pair. Therefore

\[ \frac{M_{B^*} - M_B}{M_{D^*} - M_D} = \frac{m_c}{m_b} \, . \]

Approximating \( m_c \) and \( m_b \) by \( M_D \) and \( M_B \), respectively, we get \( \sim 1/3 \) on the right side, in remarkable agreement with the left side. Although these results
also follow from potential models of constituent quarks, it is important that they can be derived in this generality, and this simply.

The states with \( l = 3/2 \) have \( J = 1 \) and \( 2 \). The \( D_1 \) and \( D_2^* \), with \( M_{D_2^*} - M_{D_1} = 40 \) MeV, are remarkably closely spaced (and of course, have the appropriate quantum numbers to form a spin multiplet).

To extract the full implications of the spin–SU(2) symmetry, it is convenient to write the physical states, e.g., the \( B, \ B^* (\pm), \ B^* (0), \) and \( B^* (-) \), in terms of states with definite spin–SU(2) number. This involves Clebsch-Gordon coefficients for \( 1/2 \times 1/2 \). We construct two doublets \( \psi_1 \) and \( \psi_2 \) under spin–SU(2), as follows:

\[
\psi_1 = \begin{pmatrix} B + B^*(0) \\ \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \psi_2 = \begin{pmatrix} B^* (+) \\ -B + B^*(0) \end{pmatrix} .
\]

(3.3.3)

The two doublets \( \psi_a, a = 1, 2 \) themselves are a doublet under \( L \). So we can form a matrix \( \psi_a = (\psi_a)_\alpha \) where \( S \) acts on the first index, and \( L \) acts on the second.

There is an alternate way of obtaining this \( 2 \times 2 \) matrix representation which will be useful later for generalization to the case where multiplets with different velocities are concerned. When the rotation by \( S \) and \( \tilde{L} \) is the same, we are performing an actual physical rotation (one by \( J \)). Everybody knows how to represent rotations by \( 2 \times 2 \) matrices, and how to write \( 2 \times 2 \) matrices that transform as scalars or vectors under rotations. In this representation, the rotation is generated by \( D(R) = \exp(\imath \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{r}) \), where \( \vec{\sigma} \) are Pauli matrices, thus

\[
D(R) \sigma^0 D(R)^{-1} = \sigma^0, \quad D(R) \sigma^i D(R)^{-1} = R^i_j \sigma^j .
\]

(3.3.4)

Here \( \sigma^0 = \text{diag}(1,1) \) and \( R^i_j \) is the rotation matrix acting on a vector. Therefore, we can represent the \( J = 0, 1 \) system by

\[
\Phi = \sigma^\mu B_\mu = \sigma^0 B + \sigma^+ B^*(-) + \sigma^- B^*(+) + \sigma^3 B^*(0) .
\]

(3.3.5)

The action of spin–SU(2) is simply

\[
\Phi \rightarrow D(R) \Phi ,
\]

(3.3.6)

while a rotation is

\[
\Phi \rightarrow D(R) \Phi D(R)^{-1} .
\]

(3.3.7)

Up to trivial phase redefinitions of the states, the matrix \( \Phi \) is just the matrix made out of the vectors \( \psi_i \) of the previous paragraph. It goes without saying that a similar representation is written for the charmed mesons \( D \) and \( D^* \).

As an example of an application consider the matrix element of the vector and axial currents \( V^\mu = \bar{Q}_c \gamma^\mu Q_v \) and \( A^\mu = \bar{Q}_c \gamma^\mu \gamma_5 Q_v \) between the \( l = 1/2 \) multiplets \( \Phi \) and \( \Phi' \) of two different heavy quarks, \( Q \) and \( Q' \) respectively. Since both heavy quarks have the same velocity, \( v = (1,0) \), they both are eigenvectors of \( \vec{J} = \gamma^0 \). Since

\[
\left( \frac{1 + \gamma^0}{2} \right) \gamma^0 \gamma_5 \left( \frac{1 + \gamma^0}{2} \right) = 0
\]

(3.3.8)

and

\[
\left( \frac{1 + \gamma^0}{2} \right) \gamma^1 \left( \frac{1 + \gamma^0}{2} \right) = 0
\]

(3.3.9)

we only need consider the matrix elements of \( V^0 \) and \( A^1 \). The spin symmetry relates the matrix elements between the four states in the multiplet \( \Phi \) and the four in \( \Phi' \). An elementary application of the Wigner–Eckart theorem gives:

\[
\langle \Phi'| V^0 | \Phi \rangle = A \text{Tr}(\Phi'^\dagger \Phi), \quad \langle \Phi'| A^1 | \Phi \rangle = A \text{Tr}(\Phi'^\dagger \sigma^1 \Phi) .
\]

(3.3.10a)

(3.3.10b)

The constant \( A \) is the reduced matrix element. Using the explicit representation of eq. (3.3.5) in eq. (3.3.10) one may write explicit relations between the matrix elements of the eight components. These relations will be worked out for arbitrary velocities in chapter 5.

It is easy to generalize this representation to other states. For fixed \( l \), the spin \( J \) of the states related by the spin–SU(2) is \( J = l \pm \frac{1}{2} \). The representation we are looking for is a symbol \( \chi_{\alpha \ddagger}^A \), where the index \( \alpha \) is the heavy quark spin, \( A \) and \( \ddagger \) correspond to the \( z \)-components of \( L \) and \( J \) respectively, and the values of \( l \) and \( J \) are implicitly understood (only the \( +/− \) super-index is needed to distinguish between the \( J = l \pm \frac{1}{2} \) and \( J = l - \frac{1}{2} \) states). This problem is nothing
but the composition of $L$ and $S$ into $J$, and the solution is in Clebsch-Gordon coefficients
\[ \chi^{(\pm)A}_{\alpha\alpha} = C(lA; s\alpha|J A) = C^{J A}_{lA,\alpha\alpha}, \]  
(3.3.11)
where $s = \frac{1}{2}$ and $J = l \pm \frac{1}{2}$. (The last equality defines a short version of the symbol.)

### 3.4 Strong Transitions

As an example of the use of the symmetries of the HQET to dynamical processes, consider the amplitudes for the strong decays of any member of the $J = I \pm \frac{1}{2}$ multiplet to the $J' = I' \pm \frac{1}{2}$ multiplet, and a light hadron $h$ with orbital angular momentum $L_h$ about the (static) heavy quark, and with total angular momentum $J_h$, i.e., if the spin of his is $S_h$ then $J_h = L_h + S_h$.

Using the results of the previous section, we can represent the members of the $J = I \pm \frac{1}{2}$ multiplet by $\chi^{(\pm)A}_{\alpha\alpha}$, and those of the $J' = I' \pm \frac{1}{2}$ multiplet by $\chi^{(\pm)B}_{\beta\beta}$. The spin-$SU(2)$ symmetry implies that the amplitude must be proportional to
\[ \sum_{\alpha} (\chi^{(\pm)B}_{\beta\beta})^{\ast} \chi^{(\pm)A}_{\alpha\alpha}. \]  
(3.4.1)
In the transition of the “brown muck” with angular momentum $I'$ to that with $I$ and $h$ we must combine the angular momentum of the products to give that of the originating state. To combine $I'$ and $h$ into $I$ we multiply by $C^{I_{A}, l'_{A}, I'_{A}}_{J, m_{h}, \pm \frac{1}{2} J'}$, set $m_h + B = A$ and sum over $B$. Furthermore, to combine the light hadron $h$ and the heavy final state hadron $\chi'$ into a state of angular momentum $J = I \pm \frac{1}{2}$, we multiply by $C^{I_{A}, \frac{1}{2} J + J'_{A}}_{J, m_{h}, \pm \frac{1}{2} B}$, set $m_h + B = A$ and sum over $B$. Thus we have
\[ A(\chi^{\ast}(\chi'h)_{J, h} A) = \]  
(3.4.2)
where $A(l', l, J, J_h)$ is the reduced matrix element. The sum is over $m_h$, $B$, $\alpha$, $b$, and $a$, restricted by
\[ m_h + b = a \]  
(3.4.3a)
\[ \alpha + a = A \]  
(3.4.3b)
\[ \alpha + b = B \]  
(3.4.3c)
\[ m_h + B = A, \]  
(3.4.3d)

Only three are independent relations, so we may sum over $a$ and $b$, with $\alpha$, $m_h$ and $B$ given by
\[ m_h = a - b \]  
(3.4.4a)
\[ \alpha = A - a \]  
(3.4.4b)
and
\[ B = A - a + b. \]  
(3.4.4c)

As an application, consider the decays of the states in the $l = 3/2$ multiplet—say the $D_1$ and $D_2^*$—to those in the $l = 1/2$ multiplet—the $D$ and $D^*$—and one pion. From eq. (3.4.2) it is easy to check that $D_2^*$ has decay amplitudes in the proportions $\sqrt{2/5} : \sqrt{3/5}$ to the $L_h = 2$ states $D\pi$ and $D^*\pi$, while its multiplet partner decays at the same total rate exclusively to $D^*\pi$. For more examples, consult ref. [21].

### 3.5 Covariant Representation of States

In section 3.3 we have seen that in the rest frame $v = (1, 0)$ the states in the $l = 1/2$ multiplet are conveniently represented by a $2 \times 2$ matrix $\Phi$. Although we first obtained this representation by consideration of the transformation properties of individual states in the multiplet, c.f., eq. (3.3.3), we quickly found an alternative derivation based on the transformation properties of the multiplet as a whole, eqs. (3.3.6)-(3.3.7). In this section we will use the same type of analysis to introduce a representation of the $l = 1/2$ multiplet for arbitrary velocity $v$.

The problem consists of finding an object, call it $\widetilde{M}(v)$, that represents the meson multiplet ($l = 1/2$) with velocity $v$. As before, the action of spin-$SU(2)$ on this object is as in (3.3.6):
\[ \widetilde{M}(v) \rightarrow U \widetilde{M}(v), \]  
(3.5.1)
where $U$ is a matrix representation of the spin-$SU(2)$ transformation. Moreover, the action of a lorentz transformation $\Lambda$ is
\[ \widetilde{M}(v) \rightarrow D(\Lambda)\widetilde{M}(\Lambda^{-1} v)D(\Lambda)^{-1}, \]  
(3.5.2)
where $\mathcal{D}(\Lambda)$ is a matrix representation of $\Lambda$. This is the analogue of the rotation in (3.3.7). Finally, we should insist that $\tilde{M}(v)$ represents only the four states in the $l = 1/2$ multiplet, and nothing more.

The problem is readily solved by drawing from the well known properties of Dirac $\gamma$-matrices. These are designed to transform as 4-vectors under Lorentz transformations

$$\mathcal{D}(\Lambda)\gamma^\mu\mathcal{D}(\Lambda)^{-1} = \Lambda^\mu_\nu \gamma^\nu ,$$

(3.5.3)

where $\mathcal{D}(\Lambda) = \exp(i\epsilon_{\mu\nu}\sigma^{\mu\nu})$, and $\epsilon_{\mu\nu}$ generates the Lorentz transformation. Of course, eq. (3.5.3) is just the correct generalization of (3.3.4) that we are looking for. The rest is straightforward. It is easy to check that the pseudoscalar meson is represented by

$$\tilde{M}(v) = \left(1 + \frac{\not\!v}{2}\right)\gamma_5 ,$$

(3.5.4)

while the vector meson is represented by

$$\tilde{M}^*(v, \epsilon) = \left(1 + \frac{\not\!v}{2}\right)\epsilon ,$$

(3.5.5)

where the polarization vector $\epsilon$ satisfies $\nu\epsilon = 0$.

The whole point is that one can now generalize the relations in (3.3.10). One has for the matrix elements between pseudoscalar mesons

$$\langle M'(v')|V^\mu|M(v)\rangle = A\text{Tr}(\tilde{M}'(v')\gamma^\mu\tilde{M}(v))$$

(3.5.6)

and a similar expression for the matrix element between a pseudoscalar and a vector meson, with the substitution $\tilde{M}'(v') \rightarrow \tilde{M}^*(v', \epsilon)$. $A$ is now a function of the velocities. We will explore this in depth in chapter 5, section 2.

An even simpler case is that of the $l = 0$ multiplet. In this case the states must transform as a spinor and are obviously represented by $u^{(i)}(v)$, a Dirac spinor satisfying $\not\!v u = u$.

4. Meson Decay Constants

4.1 Preliminaries

The pseudoscalar decay constant is one of the first physical quantities studied in the context of HQET’s. For a heavy-light pseudoscalar meson $X$ of mass $M_X$, the decay constant $f_X$, we will see, scales like $1/\sqrt{M_X}$. This was known before the formal development of HQET’s, although the arguments relied on models of strong interactions. The HQET will give us a systematic way of obtaining this result. Moreover, it will give us the means of studying corrections to this prediction.

The decay constant $f_X$ is defined through

$$\langle 0|A_\mu^0|X(p)\rangle = f_X p_\mu ,$$

(4.1.1)

where $A_\mu = \bar{q}\gamma_\mu \gamma_5 Q$ is the heavy-light axial current, and the meson has the standard relativistic normalization

$$\langle X(p')|X(p)\rangle = 2E_6(3)(p - p') .$$

(4.1.2)

Thus, the states have mass-dimension $-1$. Analogous definitions can be made for other mesons. For example, for the vector meson $X^*$(the $l = 1/2$ partner of $X$), has

$$\langle 0|V_\mu(0)|X^*(p, \epsilon)\rangle = f_{X^*}\epsilon_\mu .$$

(4.1.3)

Note that the mass-dimensions of $f_X$ and $f_{X^*}$ are 1 and 2, respectively.

4.2 Formal derivation: Green functions

We saw in chapter 2 that the HQET reproduces the Green functions of the full theory. In principle, it is from this correspondence of Green functions that all predictions of the HQET follow. In practice, this is sidestepped with a bit of foresight as we will see in Section 4.3. But, at least once, we should derive the result from this more fundamental approach.

To do so, consider the current-current Green function

$$G_{\mu\nu}(p) = \int d^4x e^{ipx}(TA_{\mu}^\nu(x)A_{\nu}(0))$$

(4.2.1)
In the effective theory, we consider
\[ \tilde{G}_{\mu
u}(k, v) = \int d^4x e^{ikx} (T \tilde{A}_\mu(x) \tilde{A}_\nu(0)) \] (4.2.2)
where the effective current is \( \tilde{A}_\mu = \bar{q} \gamma^\mu \gamma_5 Q_v \). Then, at \( p = M_Q v + k \), and in the leading-log approximation,
\[ G_{\mu\nu}(p) = \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_s(M_Q)}{\tilde{a}_s(\mu)} \right)^{2a_t} \tilde{G}_{\mu\nu}(k, v) + \cdots , \] (4.2.3)
where the ellipses stand for subleading-log and \((1/M_Q)\) corrections.

Now, the pseudoscalar meson is the first resonance with the quantum numbers that couples to the current \( \tilde{A}_\mu \). Therefore, the spectral decomposition for \( G_{\mu\nu}(p) \) has an isolated \( \delta \)-function singularity at \( p^2 = M_X^2 \). Using the definition in eq. (4.1.1),
\[ G_{\mu\nu}(p) = f_X^2 p_\mu p_\nu \delta(p^2 - M_X^2) + \cdots . \] (4.2.4)
Meanwhile, in the effective theory
\[ \tilde{G}_{\mu
u}(k, v) = \Lambda^3 v_\mu v_\nu \delta(v k - \bar{A}) + \cdots , \] (4.2.5)
where \( \Lambda \) and \( \bar{A} \) are dimensional constants, of the order of the hadronic scale, with \( \Lambda \approx M_X - M_Q \) the mass of the state in the effective theory.

Using eq. (4.2.4) and eq. (4.2.5) in eq. (4.2.3) one obtains
\[ f_X M_X = \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_s(M_Q)}{\tilde{a}_s(\mu)} \right)^{2a_t} \Lambda^3 \] (4.2.6)
We see that the combination \( f_X^2 M_X (\tilde{a}_s(M_Q))^{-2a_t} \) is independent of the heavy mass. The 'constant' \( \Lambda^3 \), is in fact a function of the renormalization point \( \mu \); the combination \( \Lambda^3 \tilde{a}_s(\mu)^{-2a_t} \) is \( \mu \)-independent to leading-log order. We have obtained \( f_X \sim 1/\sqrt{M_X} \) plus a logarithmic correction. A useful way of quoting the result is, for the physical case of \( B \) and \( D \) mesons,
\[ \frac{f_B}{f_D} = \sqrt{\frac{M_D}{M_B}} \left( \frac{\tilde{a}(M_B)}{\tilde{a}(M_D)} \right)^{a_t} \] (4.2.7)

### 4.3 Quick and dirty derivation: states in the HQET

One can derive eq. (4.2.7) rather straightforwardly by considering the decay constant of the meson state in the HQET. This is a bit dirty, because the correct construction of the Hilbert space in the HQET is skipped, while, in fact, it is rather involved\(^{10} \). So, arguing naively, we define an effective pseudoscalar decay constant \( \tilde{f}_X \) through
\[ \langle 0| \tilde{A}_\mu(0)| \tilde{X}(v) \rangle = \tilde{f}_X v_\mu \] (4.3.1)
The state in the HQET, \( | \tilde{X} \rangle \), is normalized, à la Bjorken and Drell, to \( E/M_X \) rather than to \( 2E \):
\[ \langle \tilde{X}(v')| \tilde{X}(v) \rangle = v^0 \delta^3(v - v') \] (4.3.2)
Obviously, since the normalization of states and the dynamics are \( M_Q \)-independent, so is \( \tilde{f}_X \). To relate \( \tilde{f}_X \) to \( f_X \) simply multiply eq. (4.3.1) by \( \sqrt{M_X} \), to restore the normalization of states of eq. (4.1.2), and write \( v_\mu = p_\mu/M_X \). Thus we arrive at
\[ f_X = \tilde{f}_X/\sqrt{M_X} \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_s(M_Q)}{\tilde{a}_s(\mu)} \right)^{a_t} \] (4.3.3)
which is equivalent to eq. (4.2.6).

### 4.4 Vector Meson Decay constant

As a simple application of the spin symmetry, consider the pseudoscalar decay constant \( f_{X*} \). Using the \( 4 \times 4 \) notation of section 3.5, the matrix element in eq. (4.3.1) that defines the pseudoscalar constant is proportional to
\[ \text{Tr} \left( \gamma^\mu \gamma_5 \bar{M}(v) \right) = \text{Tr} \left( \gamma^\mu \gamma_5 \left( \frac{1 + \not{\nu}}{2} \right) \gamma_5 \right) = -2v^\mu \] (4.4.1)
The matrix element
\[ \langle 0| \tilde{V}_\mu(0)| \tilde{X}^*(v) c \rangle = \tilde{f}_X \cdot c^\mu \] (4.4.2)
is proportional to
\[ \text{Tr} \left( \gamma^\mu \tilde{M}^*(v, c) \right) = \text{Tr} \left( \gamma^\mu \left( \frac{1 + \not{\nu}}{2} \right) \gamma_5 \right) = 2c^\mu \] (4.4.3)
with the same constant of proportionality. Therefore

$$\tilde{f}_{X^*} = -\tilde{f}_X$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.4.4)$$

The sign is unimportant, since it can be absorbed into a phase redefinition of either state. It is the magnitude that matters. Multiplying by $\sqrt{M_{X^*}} \approx \sqrt{M_X}$ to restore to the standard normalization, we have

$$f_{X^*} = -f_X M_X$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.4.5)$$

4.5 Corrections

The predictions eq. (4.2.7) and eq. (4.4.5) have not been tested experimentally. The difficulty is the small expected branching fraction for the decays $X \rightarrow \mu \nu$ or $X^* \rightarrow \mu \nu$, for $X = B$ and $D$. Alternatively, the decay constants $f_X$ and $f_{X^*}$ can be measured in Monte Carlo simulations of lattice QCD. There are indications from such simulations that the relation (4.2.7) does not work well.

It is premature for us to discuss the nature and size of corrections to these predictions: not until we come to chapter 6 will we develop the formalism to study effects of order $\Lambda/M_Q$. A brief description of the situation should suffice. There are corrections to the current, at order $1/M_Q$, in the form of operators of dimension 4, e.g., $\frac{1}{2M_Q} \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \gamma_5 \psi Q \nu$. There are therefore corrections to $\tilde{f}_X$ arising from the matrix element

$$\langle 0 | \frac{1}{2M_Q} q^\mu \gamma^\nu \gamma_5 \psi Q | \tilde{X}(v) \rangle = \tilde{f}_X v^\mu \frac{\tilde{\Lambda}}{M_Q},$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.5.1)$$

where $\tilde{\Lambda}$ is a dimensionful constant defined by this relation. This effectively changes $\tilde{f}_X$ to $\tilde{f}_X (1 + \tilde{\Lambda}/M_Q)$. How large is $\tilde{\Lambda}$? This can again be studied through Monte Carlo simulations of lattice QCD. Alternatively, one can get an idea of its size from a model of mesons. In the constituent quark model, $\tilde{f}_X$ is given in terms of a wavefunction at the origin. The correction $\tilde{\Lambda}/M_Q$ is given in terms of the derivative of the wavefunction at the origin. These quantities are sensitive to the details of the potential, and these model predictions are therefore unreliable. They do indicate, nevertheless, that the $\tilde{\Lambda}/M_Q$ corrections can be sizeable. While this may be bad news for the predictions in this chapter, it turns out that in many other applications, discussed in the chapters below, the quark model estimate of corrections gives encouragingly small numbers.

5. Form factors in $\bar{B} \rightarrow D \nu$ and $\bar{B} \rightarrow D^* \nu$

5.1 Preliminaries

The semileptonic decays of a $\bar{B}$-meson to $D$- or $D^*$-mesons offer the most direct means of extracting the mixing angle $|V_{us}|$. In order to extract this angle form experiment, theory must provide the form factors for the $\bar{B} \rightarrow D$ and $\bar{B} \rightarrow D^*$ transitions. Several means of estimating these form factors can be found in the literature. A popular method consists of estimating the form factor at one value of the momentum transfer $q^2 = q_0^2$, and then introducing the functional dependence on $q^2$ in some arbitrary, hopefully reasonable, way. The estimate of the form factor at $q_0^2$ is obtained from some model of strong interactions, like the non-relativistic constituent quark model.

The HQET gives the form factor at the maximum momentum transfer, $q^2 = q_{\text{max}}^2 = (M_B - M_D)^2$ — the point at which the resulting $D$ or $D^*$ does not recoil in the rest frame of the decaying $B$-meson. While the functional dependence on $q^2$ is a non-perturbative problem, it is already progress to have a prediction of the form factor at one point. Moreover, the HQET gives relations between the form factors. One may study these relations experimentally to test the accuracy of the HQET predictions.

The standard definition of form factors in semileptonic $\bar{B}$-meson decays is

$$\langle D(p') | V_\mu | \bar{B}(p) \rangle = f_+(q^2)(p + p')_\mu + f_-(q^2)(p - p')_\mu$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.1.1a)$$

$$\langle D^*(p') | c_\mu | \bar{B}(p) \rangle = f(q^2) c_\mu + a_4(q^2) c^* \bar{\nu} p (p + p')_\mu + a_-(q^2) c^* \bar{\nu} (p - (\bar{\nu})_\mu)$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.1.1b)$$

$$\langle D^*(p') | c_\mu | \bar{B}(p) \rangle = i g(q^2) \epsilon_{\mu \nu \lambda \sigma} c^* \nu (p + p')^\lambda (p - p')_\sigma$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.1.1c)$$

Here, the states have the standard normalization, eq. (4.1.2), and $q^2 = (p - p')^2$. The contribution to the decay rates from the form factors $f_-$ and $a_-$ are suppressed by $m^2_{\nu}/M_{\bar{B}}^2$, where $m_{\nu}$ is the mass of the charged lepton, and therefore they are usually neglected.
5.2 Form factors in the HQET

In the effective theory, we would like to compute the matrix elements of the effective currents \( \tilde{V}_\mu \) and \( \tilde{A}_\mu \) between states of the \( l = \frac{1}{2} \) multiplet. We can take advantage of the flavor and spin symmetries to write these matrix elements in terms of generalized Clebsch-Gordan coefficients and reduced matrix elements, i.e., we use the Wigner-Eckart theorem. We have already introduced the relevant machinery in section 3.5. The matrix elements of the operator

\[ G = \tilde{e}_v \Gamma b_v \]  

(5.2.1)

between \( B \) and \( D \) or \( D^* \) states, are given by

\[ \langle D(v')|G|B(v) \rangle = -\xi(vv')\text{Tr} \tilde{D}(v')\Gamma B(v) \]  

(5.2.2a)

\[ \langle D^*(v')\epsilon|G|B(v) \rangle = -\xi(vv')\text{Tr} \tilde{D}^*(v',\epsilon)\Gamma B(v) \]  

(5.2.2b)

where the \( 4 \times 4 \) matrices \( \tilde{X}(v) \) and \( \tilde{X}^*(v,\epsilon) \) are given in eqs. (3.5.4) and (3.5.5), and \( \tilde{X} \equiv \gamma^0X^\dagger\gamma^0 \). The reduced matrix element, \( \xi(vv') \), is a scalar function of the velocities. The minus sign is introduced for convenience.

Before expanding eqs. (5.2.2), we note that the flavor symmetry implies that the \( B \)-current form factor between \( B \)-meson states is given by the same reduced matrix element:

\[ \langle B(v')|\tilde{b}_v \Gamma_B|B(v) \rangle = -\xi(vv')\text{Tr} \tilde{B}(v')\Gamma_B B(v) \]  

(5.2.3)

Using \( \Gamma = \gamma^0 \), and recalling that \( B \)-number is conserved, one finds that \( \xi \) is normalized at \( vv' = v \), i.e., at \( vv' = 1 \). Using the normalization of states appropriate to the effective theory, eq. (4.3.2), and expanding eq. (5.2.3) at \( v = v' \), one has

\[ 2v^0 = -\xi(vv')(v^0 - v^0)|_{v = v'} \]  

(5.2.4)

or

\[ \xi(1) = 1 \]  

(5.2.5)

The reduced matrix element \( \xi \) is the universal function that describes all of the matrix elements of operators \( \tilde{G} \) between \( l = \frac{1}{2} \) states. It is known as the Isgur-Wise function after the discoverers of the relations (5.2.2) and (5.2.3). It is quite remarkable that the Isgur-Wise function describes both timelike form-factors (as in \( B \rightarrow D\nu \)) as well as spacelike form-factors (as in \( B \rightarrow \bar{B} \)). The point, of course, is that in both cases it describes transitions between infinitely heavy sources at fixed “velocity-transfer” \((v - v')^2\).

Expanding eq. (5.2.2) for \( \Gamma = \gamma^\mu \) or \( \gamma^\mu\gamma_5 \), we have

\[ \langle D(v')|\tilde{V}_\mu|B(v) \rangle = \xi(vv')(v_\mu + v'_\mu) \]  

(5.2.6a)

\[ \langle D^*(v')\epsilon|\tilde{A}_\mu|B(v) \rangle = -\xi(vv')[\epsilon^\mu(1 + vv') - v'_\mu v^\mu]\epsilon^\nu \]  

(5.2.6b)

\[ \langle D^*(v')\epsilon|\tilde{V}_\mu|B(v) \rangle = -\xi(vv')[-i\epsilon_{\mu\lambda\sigma}\epsilon^\nu v^\lambda v^\sigma] \]  

(5.2.6c)

It remains to express the physical form factors in terms of the Isgur-Wise functions. In the leading-log approximation, we must introduce the coefficient function \( \tilde{C}_\Gamma \) of eq. (2.4.30). Also, we must multiply by \( \sqrt{M_B M_D} \) to restore to the standard normalization of states, and express eqs. (5.2.6) in terms of momenta using \( v = p/M_B \) and \( v' = p'/M_D \). For example, one has,

\[ \langle D(p')|V_\mu|B(p) \rangle = \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_s(m_b)}{\tilde{a}_s(m_c)} \right)^{a_L} \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_s(m_c)}{\tilde{a}_s(\mu)} \right)^{a_L} \xi(vv')\sqrt{M_B M_D} \left( \frac{p_\mu}{M_B} + \frac{p'_\mu}{M_D} \right) \]  

(5.2.7)

It follows that

\[ f_\pm(q^2) = \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_s(m_b)}{\tilde{a}_s(m_c)} \right)^{a_L} \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_s(m_c)}{\tilde{a}_s(\mu)} \right)^{a_L} \xi(vv')\sqrt{M_B M_D} \left( \frac{M_D \pm M_B}{2\sqrt{M_B M_D}} \right) \]  

(5.2.8)

Similarly, \( f, a_\pm \) and \( g \) can all be written in terms of \( \xi(vv') \). Moreover, at \( vv' = 1 \), one has \( q^2 = (M_B v - M_D v)^2 = (M_B - M_D)^2 = q_{\text{max}}^2 \) so the normalization eq. (5.2.5) gives

\[ f_\pm(q_{\text{max}}^2) = \left( \frac{\tilde{a}_s(m_b)}{\tilde{a}_s(m_c)} \right)^{a_L} \left( \frac{M_B \pm M_D}{2\sqrt{M_B M_D}} \right) \]  

(5.2.9)

We have used \( a_s(vv') = 0 \) at \( vv' = 1 \). This is as it should be, for the physical quantity \( f_\pm \) is \( \mu \)-independent. It should be emphasized that there is no \( \mu \)-dependence of \( f_\pm \) in eq. (5.2.8): the explicit dependence through \( (\tilde{a}_s(\mu))^{a_L} \) is cancelled by the implicit dependence on \( \mu \) of the Isgur-Wise function.
5.3 Form factors in order $\alpha_s$

The predicted relations between form factors, and normalizations at $q^2_{\text{max}}$, are only approximate. Indeed, several approximations were made in obtaining those results. Corrections that arise from subleading order in the $1/M$ expansion will be considered in chapter 6. Here we will discuss corrections of order $\alpha_s$.

As observed in section 2.4, the vector and axial-vector currents of the full theory, $\vec{e}\Gamma b$, match onto a linear combination of 'currents', i.e., dimension 3 operators, in the effective theory. Indeed, at one loop, the correspondence between vector and axial currents in the full and effective theories was partially calculated in section 2.5 and is given by\(^{17}\)

$$\bar{c}\gamma^\mu b \rightarrow \left( \frac{\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_b)}{\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_c)} \right)^{\alpha^t} \left( \frac{\tilde{\alpha}_s^v(m_c)}{\tilde{\alpha}_s^v(\mu)} \right)^{\alpha^L} \bar{c}_v [ (1 + \kappa) \gamma^\mu + (\lambda_b - \lambda_c(vv')) \gamma^\mu ] b_v$$

(5.3.1)

and

$$\bar{c}\gamma^\mu \gamma_5 b \rightarrow \left( \frac{\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_b)}{\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_c)} \right)^{\alpha^t} \left( \frac{\tilde{\alpha}_s^v(m_c)}{\tilde{\alpha}_s^v(\mu)} \right)^{\alpha^L} \bar{c}_v [ (1 + \kappa) \gamma^\mu \gamma_5 - (\lambda_b + \lambda_c(vv')) \gamma^\mu \gamma_5 ] b_v$$

(5.3.2)

Here

$$\lambda_b = \frac{\tilde{\alpha}(m_b)}{3\pi}, \quad \lambda_c(vv') = \frac{2\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_c)}{3\pi} r(vv')$$

(5.3.3)

and $\kappa$ is a constant of order $\alpha_s/\pi$.

The constant $\lambda_b$ and the function $\lambda_c$ arise only from 1-loop matching, and are scheme independent. The constant $\kappa$ receives contributions both from matching at 1-loop, and from 2-loops anomalous dimensions. Leaving out the latter would give a meaningless, scheme dependent, result. Although $\kappa$ has been computed, it is interesting to note that predictions can be made solely form the 1-loop matching computation.

Indeed, comparing eqs. (5.2.6) with eqs. (5.1.1), we see that at zeroth order in $\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_b)$ or $\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_c)$ we have

$$a_+ + a_- = 0.$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.3.4)

Plugging eq. (5.3.2) into eq. (5.2.2) we see that, to order $\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_b)$ and $\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_c)$ there is a computable correction to this combination of form factors, namely

$$\frac{a_+ + a_-}{a_+} = -4 \frac{m_c}{m_b} \left[ \frac{\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_b)}{3\pi} + \frac{2\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_c)}{3\pi} r(vv') \right]$$

(5.3.5)

The constant $\kappa$, although difficult to compute, does not change the relations between form factors since it simply rescales the leading order predictions in eq. (5.2.6) by the common factor of $(1+\kappa)$. It does, however, affect the predicted normalization of form factors at $q^2_{\text{max}}$. Since at $v' = v$ the effective vector current is again $\bar{c}_v \gamma_\mu b_v$, but rescaled by $(1 + \kappa + \lambda_b - \lambda_c(1))$, the correction to eq. (5.2.9) is

$$f_\pm(q^2_{\text{max}}) = (1 + \kappa + \lambda_b - \lambda_c(1)) \left( \frac{\alpha_s(m_b)}{\alpha_s(m_c)} \right)^{\alpha_t} \left( \frac{M_D \pm M_B}{2\sqrt{M_B M_D}} \right).$$

(5.3.6)

A calculation of $\kappa$ was performed in ref. [22], using dimensional regularization and the minimal subtraction scheme.

6. $1/M_Q$

6.1 The Correcting Lagrangian

One of the main virtues of the HQET is that, in contrast to models of the strongly bound hadrons, it lets us study systematically the corrections arising from the approximations we have made. To be sure, we've made several approximations already, even within the zeroth order expansion in $\Lambda/M_Q$. For example, we have computed the logarithmic dependence on $M_Q$, i.e., the functions $\tilde{C}_T^{(i)}$ and $\tilde{C}_T^{(i)}$ of eqs. (2.4.6) and (2.4.8), using perturbation theory technology. In this section we turn to the corrections of order $\Lambda/M_Q$.

The HQET lagrangian was derived, in section 2.1, by putting the heavy quark almost on-shell and expanding in powers of the residual momentum, $k_\mu$, or light quark or gluon momentum, $q_\mu$, over $M_Q$, which we generally wrote as $\Lambda/M_Q$. Let us again derive the effective lagrangian, keeping track, this time, of the terms of order $\Lambda/M_Q$. 


We will rederive $\mathcal{L}^{(v)}_{\text{eff}}$, including $1/M_Q$ corrections, working directly in configuration space\textsuperscript{22}. The heavy quark equation of motion is

$$ (i\gamma - M_Q)Q = 0 \quad (6.1.1) $$

We can put the quark almost on shell by introducing the redefinition

$$ Q = e^{-iM_Qv\tau}Q_v \quad (6.1.2) $$

In terms of $Q_v$, the equation of motion is

$$ [i\gamma + M_Q(i - 1)]Q_v = 0 \quad (6.1.3) $$

If we separate the $(1+\gamma)$ and $(1-\gamma)$ components of $Q_v$, we see that, as expected, the latter is very heavy and decouples in the infinite mass limit. To project out the components,

$$ Q_v = \tilde{Q}_v^{(+)} + \tilde{Q}_v^{(-)} \quad (6.1.4) $$

where

$$ \tilde{Q}_v^{(\pm)} = \left(\frac{1 \pm \gamma}{2}\right)Q_v \quad (6.1.5) $$

we multiply eq. (6.1.3) by $(1\pm\gamma)/2$. Thus we have the equations

$$ ivD\tilde{Q}_v^{(+)} = -\left(\frac{1 + \gamma}{2}\right)i\gamma \tilde{Q}_v^{(-)} \quad (6.1.6) $$

and

$$ ivD\tilde{Q}_v^{(-)} + 2M_Q\tilde{Q}_v^{(-)} = \left(\frac{1 - \gamma}{2}\right)i\gamma \tilde{Q}_v^{(+)} \quad (6.1.7) $$

These equations can be solved self-consistently by assuming that $\tilde{Q}_v^{(+)}$ is order $(MQ)^0$ while $\tilde{Q}_v^{(-)}$ is order $M_Q^{-1}$. A recursive solution follows. From eq. (6.1.7)

$$ \tilde{Q}_v^{(-)} = \frac{1}{2M_Q} \left(\frac{1 - \gamma}{2}\right)i\gamma \tilde{Q}_v^{(+)} - \frac{vD}{2M_Q} \tilde{Q}_v^{(-)} \quad (6.1.8) $$

Plugging into eq. (6.1.6) and dropping terms of order $1/M_Q^2$ and higher, we have

$$ ivD\tilde{Q}_v^{(+)} = -\left(\frac{1 + \gamma}{2}\right)i\gamma \frac{1}{2M_Q} \left(\frac{1 - \gamma}{2}\right)i\gamma \tilde{Q}_v^{(+)} \quad (6.1.9) $$

The right hand side involves

$$ \left(\frac{1 + \gamma}{2}\right)i\gamma \left(\frac{1 - \gamma}{2}\right)i\gamma \phi \left(\frac{1 + \gamma}{2}\right) \quad (6.1.10) $$

where $\sigma^{\mu\nu} = \frac{i}{2}[\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu]$ and $G_{\mu\nu} = \frac{i}{2} [D_\mu, D_\nu]$ is the QCD field strength tensor.

This equation of motion is obtained from the lagrangian

$$ \mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}}^{(v)} = \frac{1}{2M_Q} \tilde{Q}_v \left[ D^2 - (vD)^2 + \frac{g_s}{2} \sigma^{\mu\nu} G_{\mu\nu} \right] Q_v \quad (6.1.11) $$

Here I have reverted to the notation $Q_v$ for $\tilde{Q}_v^{(+)}$.

From this procedure it should be clear how to include into $\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}}^{(v)}$ higher order terms in the $1/M_Q$ expansion.

The $1/M_Q$ term in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{eff}}^{(v)}$ is treated as small. If it is not, it doesn’t make sense to talk about a HQET in the first place. It is therefore appropriate to use perturbation theory to compute its effects. In this perturbative expansion, the corrections of order $1/M_Q$ to Green functions, and therefore to physical observables, are computed by making a single insertion of the perturbation

$$ \Delta \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2M_Q} \tilde{Q}_v \left[ D^2 - (vD)^2 + \frac{g_s}{2} \sigma^{\mu\nu} G_{\mu\nu} \right] Q_v \quad (6.1.12) $$

The symmetries of the HQET, discussed at length in chapters 1 and 3, are broken by $\Delta \mathcal{L}$. It is useful to classify the terms in $\Delta \mathcal{L}$ by their transformation properties under the symmetries.

Summing over $N_f$ species of heavy quarks, the mass term becomes

$$ \Delta \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_f} \frac{1}{2M_Q} \tilde{Q}_v^{(i)} \left[ D^2 + (vD)^2 + \frac{g_s}{2} \sigma^{\mu\nu} G_{\mu\nu} \right] Q_v^{(i)} \quad (6.1.13) $$
To the extent that the masses are different, this transforms in the $N_f \times N_f = \text{Adj} + 1$ representation of $SU(N_f)$. Defining

$$\frac{1}{2M} = \frac{1}{N_f} \sum_{i=1}^{N_f} \frac{1}{2M_i},$$

the Adjoint and Singlet part of $\Delta \mathcal{L}$ are

$$\Delta \mathcal{L}^\text{Adj} = \frac{1}{2M} \sum_{i=1}^{N_f} \left( \frac{1}{2M_i} - \frac{1}{2M} \right) \tilde{Q}_v^{(i)} [D^2 + (vD)^2 + \frac{1}{2} g_s \sigma^{\mu\nu} G_{\mu\nu}] Q_v^{(i)},$$

$$\Delta \mathcal{L}^\text{Sing} = \frac{1}{2M} \sum_{i=1}^{N_f} \tilde{Q}_v^{(i)} [D^2 + (vD)^2 + \frac{1}{2} g_s \sigma^{\mu\nu} G_{\mu\nu}] Q_v^{(i)}.$$

Only the chromo-magnetic moment operator

$$Q_v \sigma^{\mu\nu} G_{\mu\nu} Q_v$$

breaks the spin-$SU(2)$ symmetry. To elucidate the transformation properties of this operator, consider

$$\bar{Q}_v T^a Q_v$$

in the $v = (1,0)$ case. The $\sigma^{ij}$ vanish, so we are left with

$$Q_v^i \sigma^{ij} T^a Q_v^j.$$

In a $2 \times 2$ notation, this involves only $[\sigma^i, \sigma^j] = i \epsilon^{ijk} \sigma^k$, so this operator transforms like the $3$, i.e., the $\text{Adj}$, of spin-$SU(2)$.

A single insertion of $\Delta \mathcal{L}$ does include all orders in QCD, and it will often prove difficult to make precise calculations of $1/M_Q$ effects. Since $\Delta \mathcal{L}$ is treated as a simple insertion in Green functions, its treatment in the HQET is entirely analogous to that of current operators of section 2.3. There are coefficient functions that connect the HQET results with the full theory. It is convenient to include them directly into the effective lagrangian as

$$\Delta \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2M_Q} \tilde{Q}_v \left[ c_1 D^2 + c_2 (vD)^2 + \frac{1}{2} c_3 g_s \sigma^{\mu\nu} G_{\mu\nu} \right] Q_v.$$  \hspace{1cm} (6.1.20)

Here

$$c_i = c_i(M_Q/\mu, g_s)$$

can be determined through the methods discussed extensively in chapter 2. In leading-log, one finds

$$c_1 = -1$$

$$c_2 = 3 \left( \frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{\alpha_s(M_Q)} \right)^{-\delta/(33-2n_f)} - 2$$

$$c_3 = - \left( \frac{\alpha_s(\mu)}{\alpha_s(M_Q)} \right)^{-\delta/(33-2n_f)}.$$

6.2 The Corrected Currents

Just as the lagrangian is corrected in order $1/M_Q$, any other operator is too. In particular, the current operators studied in chapters 2-5, are modified in this order. At tree level, these corrections are given by the change of variables of last section:

$$J_\Gamma = \bar{q} \Gamma Q_v \rightarrow \bar{q} \Gamma e^{-iM_Q v \bar{x}} \left[ Q_v + \frac{1}{2M_Q} \left( \frac{1 - \mathbf{F}}{2} \right) i \mathcal{P} Q_v \right].$$ \hspace{1cm} (6.2.1)

Beyond tree level, this sum of two terms has to be replaced by a more general sum over operators of the right dimensions and quantum numbers. The replacement is

$$J_\Gamma \rightarrow e^{-iM_Q v \bar{x}} \left( \sum_i \tilde{C}_i \bar{q} \Gamma_1 Q_v + \frac{1}{2M_Q} \sum_j \tilde{D}_j \bar{O}_j \right) \hspace{1cm} (6.2.2)$$

where $O_j$ are operators of dimension 4 that include, for example, the operators

$$\bar{q} \Gamma_1 i \mathcal{P} Q_v,$$  \hspace{0.5cm} (6.2.3)

$$\bar{q} \Gamma (vD) Q_v,$$  \hspace{0.5cm} (6.2.3)

A complete set of operators, and the corresponding coefficients, $\tilde{D}_j^{(i)}$, for the cases $\Gamma = \gamma^\mu$ and $\Gamma = \gamma^\mu \gamma_5$, can be found in refs. [24,26] in the leading-log approximation.
The case of two heavy currents is similar. A straightforward calculation gives
\[
J_\Gamma = Q'\Gamma Q - e^{-iMQ_\nu + iMQ_\nu'\pi} \left[ \hat{Q}_\nu, \Gamma \hat{Q}_\nu + \frac{1}{2MQ_\nu} \hat{Q}_\nu \Gamma \left( \frac{1-i}{2} \right) i\Phi Q_\nu + \frac{1}{2MQ_\nu'} \hat{Q}_\nu' \Gamma \left( \frac{1-i}{2} \right) i\Phi Q_\nu' \right] \quad (6.2.4)
\]

Again, beyond tree level we must replace this expression by a more general sum over operators of dimension four,
\[
J_\Gamma \rightarrow e^{-iMQ_\nu + iMQ_\nu'\pi} \left[ \sum_i \hat{C}_i^{(i)} Q'_\nu, \Gamma_i Q_\nu + \frac{1}{2MQ_\nu} \sum_j \hat{D}_j^{(j)} O_j \right. \\
\left. + \frac{1}{2MQ_\nu'} \sum_j \hat{D}_j^{(j)} O_j \right] \quad (6.2.5)
\]

It is worth pointing out that, in the computation of the coefficient functions \(i\tilde{\theta}_g\) and \(i\tilde{\theta}_f\), there is a contribution from the term of order \((1/\alpha_s)^0\). In computing the coefficient functions to order \(1/MQ\) one must not forget graphs with one insertion of the zeroth order term in the current and one insertion of the first order term in the HQET lagrangian.

### 6.3 Corrections of order \(m_c/m_b\)

In the case of semileptonic decays of a beauty hadron to charmed hadron, we introduced earlier an approximation method ("Method II" in section 2.4) in which \(m_c/m_b\) was treated as a small parameter. Now, \(m_c/m_b \sim 1/3\) and you may justifiably worry that this is not a good expansion parameter. We will see in this section that the corrections are actually of the order of \(\alpha_s/\pi(m_c/m_b)\) and therefore small. Moreover, they are explicitly calculable.

The strategy is\(^{24}\) to look at those corrections of order \(1/m_b\) which may be accompanied by a factor of \(m_c\). In the first step of the approximation scheme we construct a HQET for the b-quark, treating the c-quark as light. We must, of course, keep terms of order \(1/m_b\) in this first step. The second step is to go over to a HQET in which the \(m_c\)-quark is also heavy. For now, we care only about terms in this HQET that have positive powers of \(m_c\).

In the first step, the hadronic current \(\tilde{c}b\), with \(\Gamma = \gamma^\mu\) or \(\Gamma = \gamma^\mu\gamma_5\), is replaced according to eq. (6.2.2). The question is, which terms in eq. (6.2.2) can give factors of \(m_c\) when we replace the c-quark by a HQET quark, \(c_v\). Recall that, once we complete the second step, all of the \(m_c\) dependence is explicit. The answer is that any operators in eq. (6.2.2) which have a derivative acting on the c-quark will give a factor of \(m_c\). From eq. (6.1.2) we see that a derivative \(i\tilde{\theta}_\mu\) acting on the charm quark becomes, in the effective theory, the operation \(m_c\nu_\mu + i\tilde{\theta}_\mu\). So the prescription is simple: take \(J_\Gamma\) in eq. (6.2.2) and replace
\[
i\tilde{\theta}_\mu \rightarrow m_c\nu_\mu
\]

in those terms where \(i\tilde{\theta}_\mu\) is acting on the charm quark.

For example, if the operator
\[
\frac{1}{m_b} e^{i\tilde{\theta}} \Gamma b_v
\]
is generated at some order in the loop expansion, it gives an operator
\[
-\frac{m_c}{m_b} \tilde{c}_v \gamma^\mu \Gamma b_v = -\frac{m_c}{m_b} \tilde{c}_v \Gamma b_v
\]

after step two is completed.

It is really interesting to note that the resulting correction does not introduce any new unknown form factors. For example, the matrix element of (6.3.3) between a \(\bar{B}\) and a \(D\) is given by eq. (5.2.2) only with an additional factor of \(-m_c/m_b\) in front.

The calculation described here has been performed in the leading-log approximation in ref. [24]. The correction to the vector current is
\[
\Delta V_\mu = \frac{m_c}{m_b} \tilde{c}_v (a_1 \gamma_\mu + a_2 \nu_\mu + a_3 \nu'_\mu) b_v \quad (6.3.4)
\]
where the coefficients \(a_i = a_i(\mu)\), written in terms of
\[
z = \frac{\alpha_s(m_c)}{\alpha_s(m_b)}
\]
are
\begin{align*}
a_1 &= \frac{5}{9}(\nu \nu' - 1) - \frac{1}{18}z^{-6/25} + \frac{2\nu \nu' + 12}{27}z^{-3/25} - \frac{34\nu \nu' - 9}{54}z^{4/25} - \frac{8}{25}\nu \nu' z^{6/25} \ln z \\
\frac{1}{9}(1 - 2\nu \nu') - \frac{13}{9}z^{-6/25} - \frac{44\nu \nu' - 6}{27}z^{-3/25} - \frac{14\nu \nu' - 18}{27}z^{4/25} \\
a_3 &= \frac{15}{9} - \frac{2}{3}z^{-3/25} - z^{4/25}
\end{align*}

In particular, this gives a contribution to the form factor, at \( \nu = \nu' \), of
\[ \frac{m_c}{m_b}(a_1 + a_2 + a_3)|_{\nu \nu' = 1} \simeq 0.07 \]

This is not negligible! It is reassuring that this type of corrections can be extracted explicitly. On the other hand, it should be remembered that both corrections of order \((m_c/m_b)^2\) and of subleading-log order can still be considerable and should be, but have not been, computed.

### 6.4 Corrections of order \( \tilde{\Lambda}/m_c \) and \( \tilde{\Lambda}/m_b \)

Corrections to the form factors for semileptonic decays of \( B \)'s and \( \Lambda \)'s that arise from the terms of order \( 1/m_c \) in the effective lagrangian eq. (6.1.11) and the currents eqs. (6.2.2) and (6.2.5) are, in principle, as large or larger than those considered in the previous section. It is a welcome surprise that the corrections to the combination of form factors that contribute to the semileptonic decay vanish at the endpoint \( \nu \nu' = 1 \). Thus, the predicted normalization of form factors persists, although, as we will see, not so the relations between form factors.

The decay \( \Lambda_b \to \Lambda_c e\nu \) is simpler to analyze than the decays \( \tilde{B} \to D e\nu \) and \( \tilde{B} \to \tilde{D}^* e\nu \). Moreover, it turns out that for the baryonic decay some relations between form factors survive at this order. For these reasons, we will present here the baryonic case. We will briefly return to the decay of the meson at the end of this section, where we will describe the result.

There are three form factors for the matrix element of the vector current between \( \Lambda_b \) and \( \Lambda_c \) states, and three more for the matrix element of the axial current. It is remarkable that all six are given in terms of one universal 'Isgur-Wise' function \(\zeta_\nu \nu' \). This can be derived from arguments similar to those of section 5.2. From the discussion at the end of section 3.5 one has that, in the effective theory, the matrix element of the current is given by
\[ \langle \Lambda_c(\nu', s')|\bar{c}_\nu \Gamma b_\nu|\Lambda_b(\nu, s)\rangle = \zeta(\nu \nu')\bar{u}(\bar{s}')^T(\nu')\Gamma u(s)(\nu). \quad (6.4.1) \]

There are two types of corrections to consider, coming from either the modified lagrangian or from the modified current. We start by considering the former. The \( c_1 \) and \( c_2 \) terms in the effective lagrangian (6.1.20) transform trivially under the spin symmetry, contributing to the form factors in the same proportion as the leading term in eq. (6.4.1). This effectively renormalizes the function \(\zeta \) but does not affect relations between form factors.

Moreover, the normalization at the symmetry point \( \nu \nu' = 1 \) is not affected. This is a straightforward application of the Ademollo-Gatto theorem. If \( j_\mu \) is a symmetry generating current of a hamiltonian \( H_0 \), then corrections to the matrix element of the current, at zero momentum, from a symmetry-breaking perturbation to the hamiltonian, \( \epsilon H_1 \), are of order \( \epsilon^2 \). In the case at hand the Ademollo-Gatto theorem implies that corrections to the normalization of \(\zeta \) at the symmetry point are of order \( (1/m_c)^2 \).

The chromomagnetic moment operator in the lagrangian (6.1.20) does not give a contribution at all. The spin symmetries imply
\[ \langle \Lambda_c(\nu', s')|\bar{c}_\nu \Gamma b_\nu|\Lambda_b(\nu, s)\rangle = \zeta(\nu \nu')\bar{u}(\bar{s}')^T(\nu')\Gamma u(s)(\nu). \quad (6.4.2) \]

The function \(\zeta_{\nu \nu'} \) must be an antisymmetric tensor and must therefore be proportional to \( \nu'_\mu v_\nu - \nu_\mu v'_{\nu} \). But
\[ \left( \frac{1 + \gamma' \gamma}{2} \right) \sigma_{\mu \nu} \left( \frac{1 + \gamma}{2} \right) v_\mu = 0. \quad (6.4.3) \]

This, we see, is an enormous simplification. There is no analogous simple reason for the matrix element of the chromomagnetic moment operator to vanish in the case of a meson transition. There are additional form factors in that case.
We turn next to the contribution from the modification to the current. We need the matrix element of the local operators of order \(1/m_c\) in eq. (6.2.5). Since the coefficients \(\D^{\mu}_l\) in eq. (6.2.5) are known only to leading-log order, let us concentrate on the operators that arise from tree level matching, eq. (6.2.4). Consider the matrix element

\[
\langle \Lambda_c(v', s')| \bar{c} \gamma^\mu \Gamma_b | \Lambda_b(v, s) \rangle = \bar{u}(s')^{(v')}(v') \Gamma u^{(s)}(v) [A v^\mu + B v^\prime_\mu],
\]

(6.4.4)

where the form of the right hand side follows again from the spin symmetries. The form factors \(A\) and \(B\) are not independent. Rather, they are given in terms of \(\zeta\). To see this, note that, contracting with \(v^\mu\) and using the equations of motion,

\[
B = -v^\cdot v A.
\]

(6.4.5)

Also, if the mass of the \(l = 1/2\) state in the effective theory is \(\tilde{\Lambda}\), then

\[
\langle \Lambda_c(v', s')| i \partial_\mu (\bar{c} \Gamma_b | \Lambda_b(v, s) \rangle = \tilde{\Lambda} (v_\mu - v'_\mu) \zeta (v v') \bar{u}(s')^{(v')}(v') \Gamma u^{(s)}(v).
\]

(6.4.6)

Contracting with \(v_\mu\), using the equations of motion and eq. (6.4.5) we have

\[
\tilde{\Lambda} (1 - v^\cdot v')^2 = \tilde{\Lambda} (1 - v v') \zeta
\]

(6.4.7)

Therefore, the matrix element of interest is

\[
\langle \Lambda_c(v', s')| i \partial_\mu (\bar{c} \Gamma_b | \Lambda_b(v, s) \rangle = \tilde{\Lambda} \zeta (v v') \frac{v_\mu - v'_\mu}{1 + v v'} \bar{u}(s')^{(v')}(v') \gamma^\mu \Gamma u^{(s)}(v).
\]

(6.4.8)

where \(\Gamma = \gamma^\mu\) or \(\gamma^\mu \gamma_5\). Putting it all together, one finds

\[
F_1 = G_1 \left[ 1 + \frac{\tilde{\Lambda}}{m_c} \left( \frac{1}{1 + v v'} \right) \right]
\]

\[
F_2 = G_2 = -G_1 \frac{\tilde{\Lambda}}{m_c} \left( \frac{1}{1 + v v'} \right)
\]

\[
F_3 = G_3 = 0
\]

(6.4.9)

Moreover,

\[
G_1(1) = \left( \frac{\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_b)}{\tilde{\alpha}_s(m_c)} \right)^{\delta t}
\]

(6.4.10)

as before. Up to an unknown constant, \(\tilde{\Lambda}\), there are still five relations among six form factors. We can estimate \(\tilde{\Lambda}\) by writing \(\tilde{\Lambda} = M_{Ae} - m_e = (M_{Ae} - M_D) + (M_D - m_e)\). If the ‘constituent’ quark mass in the \(D\) meson is \(\simeq 300\text{MeV}\), then \(\tilde{\Lambda} \simeq 700\text{MeV}\). With this, we can estimate the next order corrections to be of the order of \((\tilde{\Lambda}/2m_c)^2 \sim 5\%\). There are, of course, additional computable corrections\(^9\), of order \(\tilde{\Lambda}/2m_b\) and \(\alpha_s(m_c)/\pi (\tilde{\Lambda}/2m_c)\).

The result of \(1/m_c\) corrections to the mesonic transitions is quite different. There both the matrix elements of the correction to the current and of the time order product with the chromo-magnetic moment operator lead to new form factors. The result is that there are incalculable corrections, of order \(\tilde{\Lambda}/2m_c\), to all the leading order relations between form factors. Even if \(\tilde{\Lambda}\) is smaller in this case, presumably \(\tilde{\Lambda} \sim 300\text{MeV}\), these corrections may be large, say 10\%–20\%. Remarkably, at the symmetry point, \(v' v = 1\), there are no corrections of order \(\tilde{\Lambda}/2m_c\) to the leading order predictions. Thus, one may still extract the mixing angle \(|V_{cb}|\) with high precision from measurements at the end of the spectrum of the semileptonic decay rates for \(B \rightarrow D e\nu\) and \(B \rightarrow D^* e\nu\).

7. Conclusions and More

We close these lectures by mentioning briefly, and without much explanation, several other results that have been obtained over the last year or so using HQET techniques. The intention here is not to educate, but to motivate the audience into learning more about HQET’s applications by going directly to the original literature. We hope then, that rather than these being conclusions, they are, for the audience, really the beginning of the study of the subject. It should be stressed that this is not intended as a complete list of applications. Rather, a selection has been made given several factors, such as the familiarity of the author with the subject and space limitations.

\(^9\) I believe, although have never checked, that the \(\tilde{\Lambda}/2m_b\) corrections are given simply through the replacement \(\tilde{\Lambda}/2m_c \rightarrow \tilde{\Lambda}/2m_c - \tilde{\Lambda}/2m_b\) in eq. (6.4.9).
7.1 Inclusive Semileptonic Decay Rates

It has long been held that the inclusive semileptonic decay rate of a $\bar{B}$ into charmed hadronic states is well approximated by the underlying quark decay width

$$\sum_{X_c} \Gamma (\bar{B} \rightarrow X_c e\bar{\nu}) \approx \Gamma (b \rightarrow c e\bar{\nu})$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.1.1)

The HQET provides a derivation of this statement\(^{30}\). The result is even finer than the doubly integrated result in Eq. (7.1.1). It can be shown that

$$\left\langle \sum_{X_c} \frac{d^2 \Gamma}{dx dy} (\bar{B} \rightarrow X_c e\bar{\nu}) \right\rangle_f \approx \left\langle \frac{d^2 \Gamma}{dx dy} (b \rightarrow c e\bar{\nu}) \right\rangle_f$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.1.2)

where $x = q^2/M_B^2 = (p_e + p_\nu)^2/M_B^2$ and $y = p_\nu p_e/M_B^2$, and the averaging is defined by

$$\langle F(x,y) \rangle_f \equiv \int_{y_{min}}^{y_{max}} dy f(y) F(x,y).$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.1.3)

Here $f$ must be a smooth function, and, in particular, $f = 1$ is a possible choice, leading to eq. (7.1.1). Because this is derived systematically, corrections of order $\Lambda/m_b$ and of order $\alpha_s(m_b)/\pi$ can be systematically studied.

It is very important to understand the rôle played by the averaging over $y$ in eq. (7.1.2). Although frequently used, the corresponding identity without averaging, i.e., eq. (7.1.2) with $f(y) = \delta(y - y_0)$, is not valid. This is most easily seen by considering the region of $y$ close to $y_{max}$, which is dominated by resonances, e.g., the $D$ and $D^*$. This means, in particular, that the corresponding formula for $b \rightarrow u e\bar{\nu}$, should not be trusted close to the end of the electron energy spectrum. It is not a good idea to extract $|V_{ub}|$ from a study of this kinematic region that uses the free quark model.

7.2 $\bar{B} \rightarrow \pi e\bar{\nu}$ and $\bar{B} \rightarrow \rho e\bar{\nu}$

The decays $\bar{B} \rightarrow D e\bar{\nu}$ and $\bar{B} \rightarrow D^* e\bar{\nu}$ can be used, as we have seen, to extract the mixing angle $|V_{cb}|$ with high precision. The determination of $|V_{ub}|$ is far more complicated. Experimentally, the fact that $|V_{ub}|/|V_{cb}| \ll 1$, and that charm decays fast to light hadrons makes the process $b \rightarrow u e\bar{\nu}$ difficult to observe. While the experimental effort has concentrated mainly on establishing the occurrence of the inclusive process $B \rightarrow X e\nu$ in the kinematic regime inaccessible to the underlying $b \rightarrow c$ transition, it is expected that it will shift towards the determination of exclusive modes, such as $\bar{B} \rightarrow \rho e\bar{\nu}$. These will give clean, unquestionable evidence of the observation of the underlying $b \rightarrow u$ transition. Theoretically, the calculation of either inclusive or exclusive rates is very untrustworthy, the existing results (mainly from phenomenological models) varying wildly and depending sensitively on the choice of parameters.

The HQET suggests a method\(^{31}\) that may afford higher accuracy in the extraction of $|V_{ub}|$ from exclusive decays. At the very least, since the method follows from the HQET, the corrections to the lowest order predictions can be studied. This should give us some idea of what is the uncertainty in the determination of the CKM angle (something that can hardly be said about the existing alternatives).

The idea is simple. As opposed to what was done in the $\bar{B} \rightarrow D$ case, the symmetries of the HQET cannot be used to relate the initial and final states anymore: the 'brown muck' of the $\bar{B}$ is not at all the same as that of the $\rho$ (or the $\pi$, or any other light quark resonance, for that matter). Nevertheless, the HQET flavor symmetry can be used to relate the $\bar{B} \rightarrow \rho$ and $D \rightarrow \rho$ matrix elements. Measure the form factors for the latter and use them for the former. One could even use the light quark flavor $SU(3)$ symmetry to relate the form factors for $D \rightarrow \rho$ and the Cabibbo allowed $D \rightarrow \pi$ matrix elements. Measure the form factors for the latter and use them for the former.

There are altogether 6 form factors in the $\bar{B} \rightarrow \pi$ and $\bar{B} \rightarrow \rho$ matrix elements, defined in a way entirely analogous to eqs. (4.1.1), and which we label with a $B$ superscript, e.g., $f_\pi^B$. The corresponding $D$ form factors are labeled with the superscript $D$. The HQET gives

$$\langle \pi(p')|j_\mu|\bar{B}(v)\rangle = \langle \pi(p')|j_\mu|D(v)\rangle$$
$$\langle \rho(p')\varepsilon|j_\mu|\bar{B}(v)\rangle = \langle \rho(p')\varepsilon|j_\mu|D(v)\rangle,$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.2.1)
Here, $j_{\mu}$ stands for either $V_{\mu}$ or $A_{\mu}$. It is straightforward to find the relations between form factors. For example,
\[
 f_{\pm}^{B}(p p') = \frac{1}{2} \left( \sqrt{\frac{M_D}{M_B}} \pm \sqrt{\frac{M_B}{M_D}} \right) f_{\pm}^{D}(\frac{M_D}{M_B} p p') \\
+ \frac{1}{2} \left( \sqrt{\frac{M_D}{M_B}} \mp \sqrt{\frac{M_B}{M_D}} \right) f_{\pm}^{D}(\frac{M_D}{M_B} p p'),
\]
(7.2.2)
where we have written $f_{\pm}^{X}$ as a function of $p p'$ rather than $q^2 = -2 p p' + m_X^2 + m_{\pi}^2$.

There are two practical difficulties with this proposal. One is that the end of the spectrum for the $B$ decay, $(p-p')_{\text{max}} = (m_{\pi} + m_{\mu})/2$ goes well beyond the end of the spectrum for the $D$ decay. Neglecting the pion mass for simplicity, we see that $f_{\pm}^{B}(p p')$ cannot be inferred from $f_{\pm}^{D}$ for $m_D m_B/2 \leq p p' \leq m_{\pi}^2/2$.

The second difficulty is that both $f_{\pm}^{B}$ and $f_{\pm}^{D}$ need to be known to determine $f_{\pm}^{D}$. But the contribution of $f_{\pm}^{D}$ to the decay rate is suppressed, relative to that of $f_{\pm}^{D}$, by a factor of $(m_{\mu}/m_D)^2$, where $m_{\mu}$ is the mass of the charged lepton. Unfortunately, the decay $D \to \pi \nu$ is not kinematically allowed. Now, $\text{Br}(D^0 \to \pi^- e^+ \nu_e) \simeq 3.9 \times 10^{-3}$, and we expect a similar branching fraction into muons, so to determine $f_{\pm}^{D}$ one needs roughly $(1/3.9 \times 10^{-3}) (m_D/m_{\mu})^2 (1000) \sim 10^5$, where the last factor of 1000 assumes an efficiency of 10% and that one needs 10 bins with, on average, 10 events each. This is the stuff of future tau-charm factories. Alternatively, one can assume $SU(3)$ symmetry and focus on the decay $D^+ \to \bar{K}^* e^+ \nu_e$ with a branching fraction of 3.8%.

To our knowledge, the $1/m_e$ corrections to this process have not been studied.

### 7.3 Rare $\bar{B}$ decays

As mentioned in the introduction, rare $\bar{B}$ decays are believed to be a good probe of new physics. For ‘calibration’ it is important to obtain precise predictions from the standard model. Unfortunately, this often involves hadronic matrix elements which, needless to say, we can’t compute. The HQET gives us a handle on this problem. Again, the trick is to relate the matrix element of interest, say $\bar{B} \to \bar{K} e^+ e^-$, to a more easily measured process, like $D \to \bar{K} e^+ e^-$. In fact, it is easy to analyze this example in some detail, for we only need the matrix element of the vector current between the heavy and light pseudoscalar meson states. But this is precisely the same problem as studied in the previous section. Now, though, the semileptonic $D$ decay is not Cabibbo suppressed, so one can do much better!

The processes $\bar{B} \to \bar{K}^* \gamma$ and $\bar{B} \to \bar{K}^* e^+ e^-$ receive contributions from a transition magnetic moment operator, i.e., one needs to compute
\[
 \langle \bar{K}^*(p')|\bar{s}_L \sigma^{\mu \nu} b_R|\bar{B}(p) \rangle.
\]
(7.3.1)
It is remarkable that the spin-$SU(2)$ symmetry of the HQET allows us to relate this to the matrix element of a current (which is itself related to semileptonic $D$ decay). To see how this goes, consider, for example, the $\mu = 0, \nu = i$ terms, i.e., the matrices $\sigma^{0i}$. These are proportional to $\gamma^0 \gamma^i - \gamma^i \gamma^0 = -2 \gamma^i \gamma^0$. Now, in the rest frame of the $B$ meson, $v = (1, 0)$, and the projection operator in the HQET is $(1 + \gamma)/2 = (1 + \gamma^0)/2$. So in the HQET, one can substitute
\[
 \bar{s}_L \sigma^{0i} b_R \rightarrow -i \bar{s}_L \gamma^i b_L.
\]
(7.3.2)
Unfortunately, the two-body decay $\bar{B} \to \bar{K}^* \gamma$ has a fixed $\bar{K}^*$ momentum outside the kinematic range of the appropriately rescaled momentum in the corresponding semileptonic $D$ decay.

#### 7.4 $e^+ e^- \rightarrow B \bar{B}$

In $e^+ e^-$ annihilation into a pair of heavy quarks, the HQET can be used to relate cross sections for different exclusive processes. For example, the flavour symmetry can be used to relate $\sigma(e^+ e^- \rightarrow B \bar{B})$, at a center of mass energy of $\sqrt{s} = m_b \sqrt{(v + v')^2}$, to $\sigma(e^+ e^- \rightarrow D \bar{D})$, at $\sqrt{s} = m_D \sqrt{(v + v')^2}$. Also, the spin symmetry can be used to relate $\sigma(e^+ e^- \rightarrow B \bar{B})$, $\sigma(e^+ e^- \rightarrow B^* \bar{B})$ and $\sigma(e^+ e^- \rightarrow B^* \bar{B}^*)$. They are in the ratios,
\[
 1 + h : s/2m_b^2 : 3(1 + s/3m_b^2 + h),
\]
(7.4.1)
where
\[ h = -\frac{2\alpha_s}{3\pi} \sqrt{1 - 4m_b^2/s} \log \left( \frac{s}{2m_b^2} - 1 + \frac{s}{2m_b^2} \sqrt{1 - 4m_b^2/s} \right). \] (7.4.2)

7.5 \( \Lambda_b \rightarrow \Lambda_cD_s \) vs. \( \Lambda_b \rightarrow \Lambda_cD_s^* \)

Here is an example of an application to a purely hadronic weak decay\(^3\). To exploit the symmetries of the HQET, one constructs an effective hamiltonian for the underlying process \( b \rightarrow c\bar{c}s \). It is a sum of four quark operators (à la Fermi), roughly of the form
\[ \sum \text{(7.5.1)} \]
where \( h^{(Q)} \) is the field, in the HQET, for the heavy quark of flavor \( Q \) and velocity \( \nu \).

From this, one can study the implications of the spin and flavor symmetries on the amplitudes for, for example, \( \Lambda_b \rightarrow \Lambda_cD_s \). There are two independent terms in the amplitude for \( \Lambda_b \rightarrow \Lambda_cD_s \) and two for \( \Lambda_b \rightarrow \Lambda_cD_s^* \). The symmetries give the latter in terms of the former.

The amplitude \( A(\Lambda_b(v) \rightarrow \Lambda_c(v')D_s(\bar{v})) \) is given by
\[ \bar{u}(v', s') [S + P\gamma_5] u(v, s), \] (7.5.2)
where \( S \) and \( P \) are respectively amplitudes for the \( D_s \) to be in an S-wave and P-wave orbital angular momentum state. The amplitude \( A(\Lambda_b(v) \rightarrow \Lambda_c(v')D_s(\bar{v})\bar{c}) \) is then given by
\[ \frac{1}{2} \bar{u}(v', s') (1 + \gamma_5) [A + 2Bv'] \gamma^\mu (1 - \gamma_5) \gamma^\rho \] \[ \times [2B(\gamma^\mu \gamma^\rho ) - 2B(\gamma^\mu \gamma^\rho )] u(v, s), \] (7.5.3)
where
\[ A = S - P \quad \text{and} \quad B = - \left( \frac{m_b}{m_c} \right) (S - P) - (S + P). \] (7.5.4)

7.6 Factorization

Factorization in two body decays of heavy pseudoscalar mesons was resurrected a few years ago as a means of estimating their rate, using existing calculations of semileptonic decay form factors. For the factorization assumption no justification was given. Here by factorization I mean, for example,
\[ \langle D\pi|j^\mu J_\mu|B \rangle \approx \langle D|J_\mu|B \rangle \langle \pi|j^\mu|0 \rangle, \] (7.6.1)
where \( J_\mu \) and \( j_\mu \) are the \( V - A \) currents for \( b \rightarrow c \) and \( u \rightarrow d \), respectively. Comparing the rate for \( B \rightarrow D\pi \) to the semileptonic one, using this identity naively, one finds
\[ \frac{\Gamma(B \rightarrow D\pi)}{\Gamma(B \rightarrow D\pi)} \approx 6\pi^2 f_\pi^2. \] (7.6.2)

The problem with eq. (7.6.1) is that it makes no sense. The left and right sides have different dependence on the renormalization point. Such a relation cannot have physical content. The HQET, together with mild extensions of the method, furnish a way\(^3\) of correcting eq. (7.6.1). Of course, it is more than that, because the corrected version can actually be shown to hold. In fact, as far as we know, this and the large-\( N_{\text{color}} \) one are the only proofs of factorization in some limit of the underlying theory. The result is a slight modification of eq. (7.6.2):
\[ \frac{\Gamma(B \rightarrow D\pi)}{\Gamma(B \rightarrow D\pi)} \bigg|_{m_{D}^{2}=m_{S}^{2}} = A^2 6\pi^2 f_\pi^2, \] (7.6.3)
where \( A \) is a calculable correction factor. In the leading-log approximation \( A \approx 1.05 \), in remarkable agreement with experiment.\(^3\) The violations to factorization are expected to be of the order of \( A/(MB/2) \approx A/2MD \approx 10\% \).

Just as interesting is that the same method cannot be used to prove factorization in some other processes, such as \( B \rightarrow \pi\pi \) and \( B \rightarrow D\bar{D} \). In fact, it suggests that factorization does not hold for them. A striking confirmation (or refutation) of these ideas could be provided by studying of \( B \rightarrow D\pi \). The methods of ref. [34] suggest factorization holds only in the limit of colinear pions, and it would be interesting to plot the decay rate as a function of the angle between the pions, in units of the rate computed by assuming factorization.

7.7 A Last Word (or Two)

Sometime towards the beginning of the year 1990, an esteemed colleague asked me whether there was anything left to do with the, then newly discovered, HQET. I honestly and somberly replied a dry "no". My good friend was discouraged from learning and working on the subject. A few months later,
the same physicist, somewhat indignantly, and after some four or five new important results had been discovered, asked the same question. This time I was more cautious in my reply: "I don't think so, but you never know...". I won't relate to you what he said a few months later.

Because of its simplicity and power, it is by now clear that the HQET has established itself as one of the important tools in the theoretical physicist's toolbox. On the other hand, it is by no means clear that 'everything has been done'. There are many phenomenological studies to be made. Corrections to many processes have not been studied. And, probably, many other applications remain to be found. Hopefully these lectures will entice you into learning the subject and lead you to some of those investigations.

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