

2 Quantum field theory on the lattice

2.1 Fundamentals

- Quantum field theory (QFT) can be defined using *Feynman's path integral* [R. Feynman, Rev. Mod. Phys. 20, 1948]:

$$Z = \int \left[\prod_x d\phi(x) \right] \exp[iS(\phi)]$$

$$S = \int d^4x \mathcal{L}(\phi, \partial_t \phi)$$

Here $x = (x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3)$, and $g_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(+, -, -, -)$

- Physical observables can be evaluated if we add a source $S \rightarrow S + J_x \phi_x$. For example, 1- and connected 2-point functions are:

$$\langle \phi_x \rangle = \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial J_x} \right|_{J=0} \log Z = \frac{1}{Z} \int [d\phi] \phi_x \exp[iS]$$

$$\langle \phi_x \phi_y \rangle = \frac{\partial}{\partial J_x} \frac{\partial}{\partial J_y} \log Z = \frac{1}{Z} \int [d\phi] \phi_x \phi_y \exp[iS] - \langle \phi_x \rangle^2$$

- These can be computed using perturbation theory, if the coupling constants in S are small (see any of the oodles of QFT textbooks).
- How $\prod_x d\phi(x)$ is defined? Needs regularization.
- *However:* if
 - 4-volume is *finite*, and
 - 4-coordinate x is *discrete* ($x \in a\mathbb{Z}^4$, a lattice spacing),
 the integral in (1) has finite dimensionality and can, in principle, be evaluated e.g. by brute force (= computers)

 \mapsto gives fully *non-perturbative* results.
- Need to extrapolate: $V \rightarrow \infty$, $a \rightarrow 0$ in order to recover continuum physics.

- But:
 - the dimensionality of the integral is (typically) huge
 - $\exp iS$ is complex+unimodular: every configuration $\{\phi\}$ contributes with equal magnitude \mapsto extremely slow convergence in numerical computations (useless in practice).
 - This is (largely) solved by using *imaginary time formalism* (Euclidean spacetime).
 - Imaginary time also admits non-zero temperature T .
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2.2 Units:

Standard HEP units, where

$$c = \hbar = k_B = 1,$$

and thus

$$[length]^{-1} = [time]^{-1} = [mass] = [temperature] = [energy] = \text{GeV}.$$

Mass $m = \text{rest energy } mc^2 = (\text{Compton wavelength})^{-1} \hbar c / \hbar$.

$$(1 \text{ GeV})^{-1} \approx 0.2 \text{ fm}$$

2.3 Path integral in imaginary time

Consider *scalar field theory* in Minkowski spacetime:

$$S = \int d^3x dt \mathcal{L}(\phi, \partial_t \phi) = \int d^3x dt \left[\frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi - V(\phi) \right]$$

We obtain the (classical) *Hamiltonian* by Legendre transformation:

$$\begin{aligned} H &= \int d^3x dt \left[\pi \dot{\phi} - \mathcal{L} \right] \\ &= \int d^3x dt \left[\frac{1}{2} \pi^2 + \frac{1}{2} (\partial_i \phi)^2 + V(\phi) \right] \end{aligned}$$

Here π is canonical momentum for ϕ : $\pi = \delta\mathcal{L}/\delta\dot{\phi}$.

Quantum field theory: consider Hilbert space of states $|\phi\rangle$, $|\pi\rangle$, and *field operators* ($\phi \rightarrow \hat{\phi}$, $\pi \rightarrow \hat{\pi}$, $H \rightarrow \hat{H}$), with the usual properties:

- $\hat{\phi}(\bar{x})|\phi\rangle = \phi(\bar{x})|\phi\rangle$
- $\int [\prod_x d\phi(\bar{x})] |\phi\rangle\langle\phi| = 1 \quad \int [\prod_x d\pi(\bar{x})/(2\pi)] |\pi\rangle\langle\pi| = 1$
- $[\hat{\phi}(\bar{x}), \hat{\phi}(\bar{x}')] = -i\delta^3(\bar{x} - \bar{x}')$
- $\langle\phi|\pi\rangle = \exp[i \int d^3x \pi(\bar{x})\phi(\bar{x})]$

Time evolution operator is $U(t) = e^{-i\hat{H}t}$

Feynman showed that the quantum theory defined by \hat{H} and the Hilbert space is equivalent to the path integral (1). We shall now do this in imaginary time.

Let us now consider the quantum system in *imaginary time*:

$$t \rightarrow \tau = it, \quad \exp[-i\hat{H}t] \rightarrow \exp[-\tau\hat{H}]$$

This makes the spacetime *Euclidean*: $g = (+ - - -) \rightarrow (+ + + +)$. We shall keep the Hamiltonian \hat{H} as-is, and also the Hilbert space. Let us also discretize space (convenient for us but not necessary at this stage), and use finite volume:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{x} &= a\bar{n}, \quad n_i = 0 \dots N_s \\ \int d^3x &\rightarrow a^3 \sum_x \\ \partial_i \phi &\rightarrow \frac{1}{a} [\phi(\bar{x} + \bar{e}_i a) - \phi(\bar{x})] \equiv \Delta_i \phi(\bar{x}) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the Hamiltonian is:

$$\hat{H} = a^3 \sum_x \left[\frac{1}{2} [\hat{\pi}(x)]^2 + \frac{1}{2} [\Delta_i \hat{\phi}(\bar{x})]^2 + V[\hat{\phi}(\bar{x})] \right]$$

Let us now consider the amplitude $\langle\phi_B|e^{-(\tau_B-\tau_A)\hat{H}}|\phi_A\rangle$:

1) divide time in small intervals: $\tau_B - \tau_A = N_\tau a_\tau$. Obviously

$$\langle\phi_B|e^{-(\tau_B-\tau_A)\hat{H}}|\phi_A\rangle = \langle\phi_B|(e^{-a_\tau\hat{H}})^{N_\tau}|\phi_A\rangle.$$

2) insert 1-operators $\int [\prod_x d\phi_i] |\phi_i\rangle \langle \phi_i|$, $\int [\prod_x d\pi_i] |\pi_i\rangle \langle \pi_i|$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \phi_B | e^{-\tau \hat{H}} | \phi_A \rangle &= \\ \int \left[\prod_{i=2}^{N_\tau} \prod_x d\phi_i(x) \right] \left[\prod_{i=1}^{N_\tau} \prod_x d\pi_i(x) \right] &\langle \phi_B | \pi_{N_\tau} \rangle \langle \pi_{N_\tau} | e^{-a_\tau \hat{H}} | \phi_{N_\tau} \rangle \\ \times \langle \phi_{N_\tau} | \pi_{N_\tau-1} \rangle \langle \pi_{N_\tau-1} | e^{-a_\tau \hat{H}} | \phi_{N_\tau-1} \rangle &\dots \times \langle \phi_2 | \pi_1 \rangle \langle \pi_1 | e^{-a_\tau \hat{H}} | \phi_A \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we need to calculate

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \pi_i | e^{-a_\tau \hat{H}} | \phi_i \rangle &= \exp \left[-a^3 a_\tau \sum_x \left(\frac{1}{2} \pi_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} (\Delta_i \phi_i)^2 + V[\phi_i] \right) \right] \\ &\times \langle \pi_i | \phi_i \rangle + O(a_\tau^2) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \phi_{i+1} | \pi_i \rangle \langle \pi_i | \phi_i \rangle &= e^{ia^3 \sum_x \pi_i(\bar{x}) \phi_{i+1}(\bar{x})} e^{-ia^3 \sum_x \pi_i(\bar{x}) \phi_i(\bar{x})} \\ &= \exp[ia^3 a_\tau \sum_x \pi_i(\bar{x}) \Delta_0 \phi_i(\bar{x})] \end{aligned}$$

where we have defined $\Delta_0 \phi_i = \frac{1}{a_\tau} (\phi_{i+1} - \phi_i)$.

We can now integrate over $\pi_i(\bar{x})$:

$$\begin{aligned} &\int [\prod_x \pi_i(\bar{x})] \exp[a^3 a_\tau \sum_x -\frac{1}{2} \pi_i^2 + (i \Delta_0 \phi_i) \pi_i] \\ &= \left[\frac{2\pi}{a^3 a_\tau} \right]^{N_S^3/2} \times \exp[-a^3 a_\tau \sum_x \frac{1}{2} (\Delta_0 \phi_i(\bar{x}))^2] \end{aligned}$$

Repeating this for $i = 1 \dots N_\tau$, and identifying the time coordinate $x_0 = \tau = a_\tau i$, we finally obtain the path integral

$$\langle \phi_B | e^{-\tau \hat{H}} | \phi_A \rangle \propto \int [\prod_x d\phi] e^{-S_E}$$

where S_E is the *Euclidean* (imaginary time) action

$$\begin{aligned} S_E &= a^3 a_\tau \sum_x \left(\frac{1}{2} (\Delta_\mu \phi)^2 + V[\phi] \right) \\ &\rightarrow \int d^4 x \left(\frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \phi)^2 + V[\phi] \right) \end{aligned}$$

and we have the boundary conditions $\phi(\tau_A) = \phi_A$, $\phi(\tau_B) = \phi_B$.

The path integral is precisely in the form of a *partition function* for a 4-dimensional *classical* statistical system, with the identification $S_E \leftrightarrow H/(k_B T)$.

For convenience, we make the system *periodic* in time by identifying $\phi_A = \phi_B$ and integrating over ϕ_A .

In summary:

Minkowski \rightarrow Euclidean

$$\mathcal{L}_M \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_E = -\mathcal{L}_M(x_0 \rightarrow ix_0; \partial_0 \rightarrow -i\partial_0)$$

$$g = (1, -1, -1, -1) \rightarrow g = (1, 1, 1, 1)$$

We can now make a connection between the correlation functions of the “statistical” theory and the Green’s functions of the quantum field theory. First, note that we can interpret $T_{\phi_{i+1}, \phi_i} = \langle \phi_{i+1} | e^{-a_\tau \hat{H}} | \phi_i \rangle$ as a *transfer matrix*. In terms of T the partition function is

$$Z = \int [d\phi] e^{-S_E} = \text{Tr} (T^{N_\tau})$$

Let us label the eigenvalues of T by $\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots$, so that $\lambda_0 > \lambda_1 \geq \dots$. Note that $\lambda_i = \exp -E_i$, where E_i are eigenvalues of \hat{H} . Thus, λ_0 corresponds to the state of lowest energy, *vacuum* $|0\rangle$. If we now take N_τ to be very large (while keeping a_τ constant; i.e. take $\Delta\tau$ to be large),

$$Z = \sum_i \lambda_i^{N_\tau} = \lambda_0^{N_\tau} [1 + O((\lambda_1/\lambda_0)^{N_\tau})]$$

For example, a 2-point function can be written as (let $i - j > 0$)

$$\langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \int [d\phi] \phi_i \phi_j e^{-S_E} = \frac{1}{Z} \text{Tr} (T^{N_\tau - i + j} \hat{\phi} T^{i-j} \hat{\phi}).$$

Taking now $N_\tau \rightarrow \infty$, and recalling $a_\tau(i - j) = \tau_i - \tau_j$,

$$\langle \phi_i \phi_j \rangle = \langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(T/\lambda_0)^{i-j} \hat{\phi} | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(\tau_i) \hat{\phi}(\tau_j) | 0 \rangle,$$

where we have introduced time-dependent operators

$$\hat{\phi}(\tau) = e^{\tau \hat{H}} \hat{\phi} e^{-\tau \hat{H}}.$$

Allowing for both positive and negative time separations of τ_i and τ_j , we can identify

$$\langle \phi(\tau_i) \phi(\tau_j) \rangle = \langle 0 | \mathcal{T} [\hat{\phi}(\tau_i) \hat{\phi}(\tau_j)] | 0 \rangle,$$

where \mathcal{T} is the time ordering operator.

2.4 Mass spectrum:

- Green's functions in time τ :

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 0 | \Gamma(\tau) \Gamma^\dagger(0) | 0 \rangle &= \frac{1}{Z} \int [d\phi] \Gamma(\tau) \Gamma^\dagger(0) e^{-S} \\ &= \langle 0 | e^{\hat{H}\tau} \Gamma(0) e^{-\hat{H}\tau} \Gamma^\dagger(0) | 0 \rangle \\ &= \langle 0 | \Gamma(0) \sum_n | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | e^{-\hat{H}\tau} \Gamma^\dagger(0) | 0 \rangle \\ &= \sum_n e^{-E_n \tau} |\langle 0 | \Gamma(0) | E_n \rangle|^2 \\ &\rightarrow e^{-E_0 \tau} |\langle 0 | \Gamma(0) | E_0 \rangle|^2 \quad \text{as } \tau \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

where $|E_0\rangle$ is the *lowest* energy state with non-zero matrix element $\langle 0 | \Gamma(0) | E_0 \rangle$.

→ measure masses (E_0) from the exponential fall-off of correlation functions.

2.5 Finite temperature

Connection *Euclidean QFT* \leftrightarrow *classical statistical mechanics* was derived for zero-temperature quantum system. However, this can be readily generalized to finite temperature:

Quantum thermodynamics w. the Gibbs ensemble:

$$Z = \text{Tr} e^{-\hat{H}/T} = \int [d\phi] \langle \phi | e^{-\hat{H}/T} | \phi \rangle$$

Expression is of the same form as the one which gave us the Euclidean path integral for $T = 0$ theory! The difference here is

- 1) Finite + fixed “imaginary time” interval $1/T$
- 2) Periodic boundary condition: $\phi(1/T) = \phi(0)$.

Repeating the previous derivation, the partition function becomes

$$Z(T) = \int [d\phi] e^{-S_E} = \int [d\phi] \exp\left[-\int_0^{1/T} d\tau \int d^3x \mathcal{L}_E\right]$$

Thus, a connection between:

- Quantum statistics in 3d: $Z = \text{Tr} e^{-\hat{H}/T}$
- Classical statistics in 4d: $Z = \int [d\phi] e^{-S}$

Euclidean P.I. is a very common tool for finite T field theory analysis [J. Kapusta, *Finite Temperature Field Theory*, Cambridge University Press]

2.6 Some terminology:

In numerical work, lattice is a finite box with finite lattice spacing a . In order to obtain continuum results, we should take 2 limits:

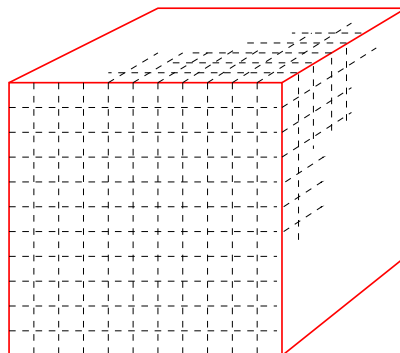
- $V \rightarrow \infty$ *thermodynamic limit*
- $a \rightarrow 0$ *continuum limit*

Both have to be controlled – expensive!

- 1) Perform simulations with fixed a , various V . Extrapolate $V \rightarrow \infty$.
- 2) Repeat 1) using different a 's. Extrapolate $a \rightarrow 0$.
- 3) [In QCD, one often has to extrapolate $m_q \rightarrow m_{q,\text{phys.}}$]

$T = 0$:

- 1) $V \rightarrow \infty$:
 $N_\tau, N_s \rightarrow \infty$, a constant.
- 2) continuum:
 $a \rightarrow 0$.



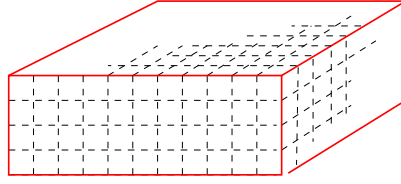
$T > 0$:

1) $V \rightarrow \infty$:

$N_s \rightarrow \infty, N_\tau, a$ constant.

2) continuum:

$a \rightarrow 0, \frac{1}{T} = aN_\tau$ constant.



2.7 Scalar field

Free scalar field on a finite d -dimensional lattice with periodic boundary conditions:

$$x_\mu = an_\mu, \quad n_\mu \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Action:

$$S = \sum_x a^d \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_\mu \frac{1}{a^2} (\phi_{x+\mu} - \phi_x)^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2 \right] = a^d \left[\frac{1}{2} \phi_x \square_{x,y} \phi_y + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi_x^2 \right]$$

(implicit sum over x, y), and we define the lattice d'Alembert operator as

$$\square_{x,y} \phi_y = -\Delta^2 \phi = \sum_\mu \frac{2\phi_x - \phi_{x+\hat{\mu}} - \phi_{x-\hat{\mu}}}{a^2}$$

The action is of form $S = \frac{1}{2} \phi_x M_{x,y} \phi_y$, and

$$Z = \int [d\phi] e^{-S} = (\text{Det } M / 2\pi)^{-1/2}$$

2.8 Fourier transforms:

$$\tilde{f}(k) = \sum_x a^d e^{-ikx} f(x)$$

Since $x = an$, $\tilde{f}(ak + 2\pi n) = \tilde{f}(k)$, and we restrict k to *Brillouin zone*:
 $-\pi < ak_\mu \leq \pi$

Inverse transform:

$$f(x) = \int_{-\pi/a}^{\pi/a} \frac{d^d k}{(2\pi)^d} e^{ikx} \tilde{f}(k)$$

Note: often it is convenient to use dimensionless natural lattice units $x_\mu \in Z$, $-\pi < k_\mu \leq \pi$.

The above inverse transform is for infinite lattice. On a finite lattice $0 \leq x_\mu/a < N$, and for simplicity assuming *periodic boundary conditions*: $x_\mu + aN = x_\mu$, only momenta $ak_\mu = \frac{2\pi}{N}n_\mu - \pi$, where $0 < n_\mu \leq N$ are allowed. Now the inverse transform is:

$$f(x) = \sum_k \frac{1}{(aN)^d} e^{ikx} \tilde{f}(k), \quad k_\mu = \frac{2\pi}{N}n_\mu - \pi.$$

This approaches the previous one when $N \rightarrow \infty$.

Lattice propagator:

The lattice propagator $G(x, y)$ is defined to be the inverse of operator $a^{-d}M = (\square + m^2)$:

$$\sum_y a^d (\square_{x,y} + m^2 \delta_{x,y}) G(y, z) = \delta_{x,z}$$

Take Fourier transform ($G(x, y) = G(x - y)$):

$$\left[\sum_\mu \frac{2}{a^2} (1 - \cos k_\mu a) + m^2 \right] \tilde{G}(k) = 1$$

which gives the lattice propagator

$$\tilde{G}(k) = \frac{1}{\hat{k}^2 + m^2}, \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{k}^2 = \sum_\mu \hat{k}_\mu^2 = \sum_\mu \left[\frac{2}{a} \sin \frac{k_\mu a}{2} \right]^2.$$

Continuum limit: when $a \rightarrow 0$, $\tilde{G}(k) = 1/(k^2 + m^2) + O(a^2)$.

Generating function for Green's functions:

$$S \rightarrow S(J) = \sum_x a^d \left[\frac{1}{2} \phi_x (\square + m^2) \phi_x - J_x \phi_x \right]$$

Now

$$Z(J) = \int [d\phi] e^{-S(J)} = Z(0) \exp\left[\sum_{x,y} a^{2d} \frac{1}{2} J_x G(x,y) J_y\right]$$

N-point functions

$$\langle \phi_x \dots \phi_y \rangle = Z(0)^{-1} \frac{\delta}{\delta J_x} \dots \frac{\delta}{\delta J_y} Z(J) \Big|_{J=0}$$

Interactions: just modify (for example)

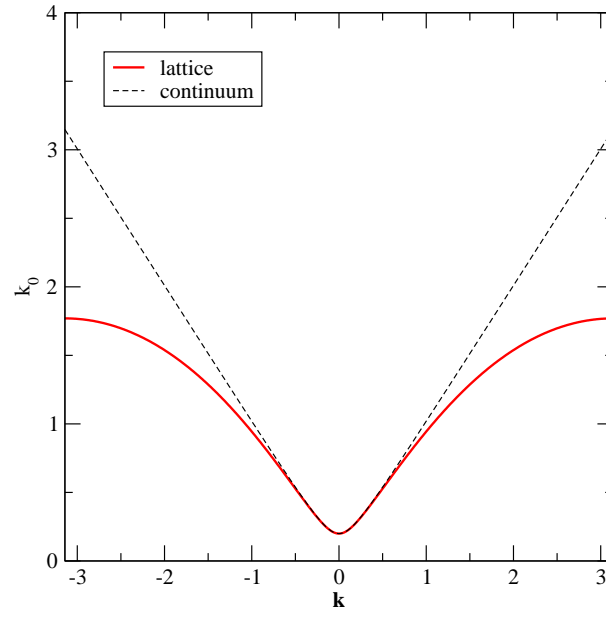
$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{free}} + \frac{1}{4!} \lambda \phi^4$$

2.9 Pole structure of the propagator

In Minkowski spacetime, the pole of the propagator gives the dispersion relation of the free particle: if $k^2 = m^2$, we have $k_0^2 = \mathbf{k}^2 + m^2$. For the Euclidean propagator the denominator is always positive, and there are no poles.

However, the pole structure can be recovered by performing a Wick rotation back to Minkowski space: $k_0^M \leftrightarrow -ik_0^E$, as will be shown in more detail below. With this substitution we obtain for the pole

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \left[\frac{2}{a} \sin \frac{ik_0 a}{2} \right]^2 + \sum_i \hat{k}_i^2 + m^2 \\ &\rightarrow \frac{4}{a} \sinh^2 \frac{k_0 a}{2} = \sum_i \hat{k}_i^2 + m^2 \\ &\rightarrow k_0 a = 2 \sinh^{-1} \sqrt{\sum_i \sin^2 \frac{k_i a}{2} + \frac{(ma)^2}{4}} \end{aligned}$$



In figure above the lattice and continuum dispersion relations are shown for $ma = 0.2$ -mass particle, with $\mathbf{k} = (k, 0, 0)$.