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Part I

Formal introduction to QFT

Chapter 1

Introduction

Quantum Field Theory (QFT) was born from an attempt to solve inconsistencies of the Dirac's relativistic quantum mechanics (RQM) when the interaction with the electromagnetic field is introduced. However, very soon it became a common framework in many branches of physics, exhibiting an unexpected unity in the description of elementary quantum processes that deeply modifies our view of the physical reality, mostly with a "pictorial" representation in terms of Feynman diagrams. In fact, quite amazingly, elementary QFT processes can be described qualitatively in terms of very few ingredients:

- *propagators*, describing the virtual propagation of quantum particle excitations and drawn as lines, typically oriented;
- *vertices*, describing the process of emission and absorption of particle excitations, possibly changing the nature of the original particle, and drawn as a point from which the propagators of emitted and absorbed particles emerge

Propagators and vertices are then embodied in diagrams, describing the quantum processes. Clearly, a "change of nature" of the particle during emission/absorption is not allowed in standard quantum mechanics (QM).

At the same time for a process describing an electron decelerating by emitting photons (which took away the electron kinetic energy) the number of photons emitted can be arbitrarily high, again QM of finite degrees of freedom is insufficient to describe such process.

Another case in which QM turns out to be insufficient arises in the so called thermodynamic limit in solid state systems. In real physical systems the number of electrons and ions is finite, although usually very big, $N \sim 10^{23}$, and the volume V is finite (infrared (IR) cutoff). Furthermore in a crystal the lattice constant a is finite (ultraviolet (UV) cutoff). However, usually we are interested in universal properties, independent of details of V and a . Therefore it is convenient also in these cases to consider the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$, $V \rightarrow \infty$ with N/V (or its expectation value) constant (thermodynamic IR limit) and $a \rightarrow 0$ (continuum UV limit). These limits are not only technically useful, for the non-analyticity appearing in the phase transitions, or the appearance of Euclidean invariance, but e.g. the thermodynamic limit guarantees that the theory does not depend on specific details of V and N .

Notice that if the removal of the IR or the UV cutoff is impossible and we assumed that the theory without the cutoff is the physical one (hence effective field theories in the modern sense are excluded), then the non-existence of the limit implies that the physical theory depends on details at infinite distances (IR) or infinite momentum (UV) in a manner not controllable by regularization.

Furthermore in relativistic QFT (RQFT) a cutoff breaks the Poincaré invariance, and the only possible regularization which does not break such symmetry, the dimensional regularization, has no non-perturbative realization.

Many of the key results of QFT are obtained through a perturbative expansion, which are serious mathematical problems, and there are crucial areas of applications that do not rely on perturbative methods. The aim of this course is to provide a view of some results in these areas, with examples both from elementary particle and condensed matter physics, emphasising the underlying common features.

Chapter 2

Review of QFT

2.1 Fock space

Ref. [GR96, Chapters 3, 4]; [BS80, Chapters 1, 2]

In $d = 3$ space dimensions, quantum particles are either bosons or fermions (in lower dimensions other braid statistics may arise, but we'll not discuss them here).

Fixed number of particles

The Hilbert space of states for N identical particles \mathcal{H}_N is constructed as follows: let \mathcal{H}_1 be the single-particle Hilbert space, Σ_N the permutations group of N objects, $\pi \in \Sigma_N$ and P_π the corresponding operators, $\sigma(\pi)$ the number of exchanges made by π , ε a constant which takes the value $+1$ for bosons and -1 for fermions, then define

$$P^\varepsilon := \frac{1}{N!} \sum_{\pi \in \Sigma_N} (\varepsilon)^{\sigma(\pi)} P_\pi \quad (2.1)$$

then

$$\mathcal{H}_N^\pm := P^\pm(\mathcal{H}_1 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathcal{H}_1) \quad (2.2)$$

More concretely let A be a complete set of compatible observables in the one-particle Hilbert space of an elementary quantum particle \mathcal{H}_1 (we assume for the momenta discrete spectrum for these observables), and $\{|\alpha_i\rangle, i \in I\}$ the corresponding eigenstates, where α_i is the set of common eigenvalues of A . Then an orthonormal basis in \mathcal{H}_N^\pm is given by

$$|\alpha_{i_1} \dots \alpha_{i_N}\rangle^\varepsilon := \sqrt{\frac{N!}{\prod_i n_i!}} P^\varepsilon |\alpha_{i_1}\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |\alpha_{i_N}\rangle \quad (2.3)$$

where n_i is the number of one-particle states with eigenvalue α_i in $|\alpha_{i_1}\rangle, \dots, |\alpha_{i_N}\rangle$, satisfying $\sum_{i \in I} n_i = N$. If the values of n_i are the same for both the sets $\alpha_{i_1} \dots \alpha_{i_N}$ and $\alpha_{j_1} \dots \alpha_{j_N}$ then

$$|\alpha_{i_1} \dots \alpha_{i_N}\rangle^\varepsilon = \pm |\alpha_{j_1} \dots \alpha_{j_N}\rangle^\varepsilon \quad (2.4)$$

and we can label states by their **occupation numbers** $\{n_i\}_{i \in I}$, once the one-particle basis $\{|\alpha_i\rangle, i \in I\}$ has been fixed:

$$|\alpha_{i_1} \dots \alpha_{i_N}\rangle =: |n_1, \dots, n_i, \dots\rangle = |\{n_i, i \in I\}\rangle \quad (2.5)$$

By antisymmetry (Pauli principle) for fermions $n_i = 0, 1$, whereas for bosons $n_i \in \mathbb{N}$. A generic vector in $\mathcal{H}_N^\varepsilon$, then can be written as the linear combination

$$|\Psi_N\rangle = \sum_{\{n_i\}} \Psi(\{n_i\}) |\{n_i\}\rangle \quad (2.6)$$

with the conditions

$$\sum_{\{n_i\}} |\Psi(\{n_i\})|^2 < \infty \quad , \quad \sum_{i \in I} n_i = N \quad (2.7)$$

Variable number of particles, $N \rightarrow \infty$ limit

Let's consider now the case in which N is not fixed, and may be take $N \rightarrow \infty$. Define the **vacuum sector** $\mathcal{H}_0^\varepsilon = \mathbb{C}$ and the corresponding normalized vector $|\Psi_0\rangle$ (or $|0\rangle$) is called the **vacuum**. Formally set

$$\mathcal{F}^\varepsilon := \mathcal{H}_0^\varepsilon \oplus \mathcal{H}_1^\varepsilon \oplus \dots \oplus \mathcal{H}_N^\varepsilon \oplus \dots = \bigoplus_{N=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}_N^\varepsilon \quad (2.8)$$

Notice that the direct sum implies that there is no interference between the different sectors $\mathcal{H}_N^\varepsilon$. We would like to explain better the meaning of the previous formal direct sum. Let

$$\mathcal{D} = \left\{ \bigoplus_{N=0}^{N_{\max}} |\Psi_N\rangle \right\} \quad (2.9)$$

with N_{\max} arbitrary but finite. In this space of direct sum of finite sequences of vectors we define an *inner product* by

$$\left(\bigoplus_{N=0}^{N_{\max}} |\Psi_N\rangle, \bigoplus_{N'=0}^{N'_{\max}} |\Phi_{N'}\rangle \right) := \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \langle \Psi_N | \Phi_N \rangle \quad (2.10)$$

where the sum is formally extended to infinity as only a finite number of terms is non zero. Together with this inner product the space \mathcal{D} is pre-Hilbert, and then \mathcal{F}^ε is defined as the Hilbert space obtained by completion of \mathcal{D} , i.e. the space of sequences $\bigoplus_{N=0}^{\infty} |\Psi_N\rangle$ such that $\sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \langle \Psi_N | \Psi_N \rangle < \infty$. Notice that \mathcal{D} is dense in \mathcal{F}^ε , as required by the definition of Hilbert space.

Then, the space \mathcal{F}^ε allows the description of processes with non-conserved number of particles.

In \mathcal{D} we can define the **annihilation and creation operators**

$$\begin{aligned} a_i |\{n_j\}\rangle^+ &:= \sqrt{n_i} |\{n_{j \neq i}, n_i - 1\}\rangle^+ \\ a_i^\dagger |\{n_j\}\rangle^+ &:= \sqrt{n_i + 1} |\{n_{j \neq i}, n_i + 1\}\rangle^+ \end{aligned} \quad (2.11)$$

for the bosons and

$$\begin{aligned} a_i |\{n_j\}\rangle^- &:= (-1)^{(\sum_{k < i} n_k)} n_i |\{n_{j \neq i}, n_i - 1\}\rangle^- \\ a_i^\dagger |\{n_j\}\rangle^- &:= (-1)^{(\sum_{k < i} n_k)} (1 - n_i) |\{n_{j \neq i}, n_i + 1\}\rangle^- \end{aligned} \quad (2.12)$$

for fermions.

It follows from the definition that

- (i) a_i^\dagger is the adjoint of a_i ;
- (ii) $a_i |\Psi_0\rangle = 0$;
- (iii) for bosons hold the **canonical commutation relations** (CCR)

$$[a_i, a_j] = 0 = [a_i^\dagger, a_j^\dagger] \quad , \quad [a_i, a_j^\dagger] = \delta_{ij} \quad (2.13)$$

while for fermions hold the **canonical anticommutation relations** (CAR)

$$\{a_i, a_j\} = 0 = \{a_i^\dagger, a_j^\dagger\} \quad , \quad \{a_i, a_j^\dagger\} = \delta_{ij} \quad (2.14)$$

- (iv) defining $\hat{N}_i := a_i^\dagger a_i$ we have

$$\hat{N}_i |\{n_j\}\rangle = n_i |\{n_j\}\rangle \quad (2.15)$$

and $\hat{N} := \sum_{i \in I} \hat{N}_i$ is well defined in \mathcal{D} ;

- (v) any vector can be constructed by means of applications of creation operators

$$|\{n_j\}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\prod_j n_j!}} \prod_j (a_j^\dagger)^{n_j} |0\rangle \quad (2.16)$$

Annihilation and creation operators corresponding to another basis (i.e. another complete set of commuting observables with discrete spectrum) $\{|\beta_j\rangle, j \in J\}$ can be obtained by applying the Dirac completeness

$$\sum_{i \in I} |\alpha_i\rangle \langle \alpha_i| = \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}_1} \quad (2.17)$$

as follows

$$b_j^\dagger |0\rangle = |\beta_j\rangle = \sum_{i \in I} |\alpha_i\rangle \langle \alpha_i | \beta_j \rangle = \sum_{i \in I} a_i^\dagger |0\rangle \langle \alpha_i | \beta_j \rangle \quad (2.18)$$

implying

$$b_j^\dagger = \sum_{i \in I} \langle \alpha_i | \beta_j \rangle a_i^\dagger \quad (2.19)$$

These ideas extends to the case of complete sets of commuting observables with continuum (or mixed) spectrum in \mathcal{H}_1 using

$$\int d\alpha |\alpha\rangle \langle \alpha| = \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}_1} \quad (2.20)$$

Formally we can set $a^\dagger(\alpha) |0\rangle = |\alpha\rangle$ and then

$$a^\dagger(\alpha) = \sum_{i \in I} \langle \alpha_i | \alpha \rangle a_i^\dagger \quad (2.21)$$

but since $|\alpha\rangle$ is only an improper state ($\langle \alpha | \alpha' \rangle \sim \delta(\alpha - \alpha')$) then $a^\dagger(\alpha)$ is not a true operator, it is an *operator valued distribution*, i.e. is a true operator only if smeared out with a test function f :

$$a(f) = \int a(\alpha) f(\alpha) d\alpha \quad (2.22)$$

A typical example is given for an elementary particle with classical analogue (in $d = 3$) by $|\alpha\rangle = |\mathbf{x}\rangle$ or $|\alpha\rangle = |\mathbf{p}\rangle$. If we define $a^\dagger(\mathbf{p}) |0\rangle = |\mathbf{p}\rangle$ with $[a(\mathbf{p}), a^\dagger(\mathbf{p}')] = \delta(\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}')$, then is clear that this is not an ordinary operator, rather an operator valued distribution. When we turn to the \mathbf{x} -representation of a (i.e. we smear $a(\mathbf{p})$ with $f(\mathbf{p}) = \langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{p} \rangle$) we get

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}) = \int d^3p \langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{p} \rangle a(\mathbf{p}) = \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{p}} a(\mathbf{p}) \quad (2.23)$$

and $\psi(\mathbf{x})$ is called a **quantum field operator** and it satisfies (for bosons)

$$[\psi(\mathbf{x}), \psi^\dagger(\mathbf{y})] = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) \quad (2.24)$$

where all the trivial (anti)commutation relation will be always omitted from now on. Notice that the last relation can be interpreted as a form of “locality”: the effect of a field in a point cannot affect the effect of a simultaneous field in a different point.

The operator $\psi^\dagger(\mathbf{x})$ formally creates a particle with wave function a Dirac δ with support on \mathbf{x} . More precisely if $f(\mathbf{x}) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^3, d^3x)$ then

$$\psi^\dagger(f) = \int d^3x \psi^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2.25)$$

creates a particle with wave function $f(\mathbf{x})$. Notice that if in \mathcal{H}_1 we can use an orthonormal basis $\{f_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$, then setting $a(f_i) =: a_i$ it satisfies the CCR because

$$[a(f_i), a^\dagger(f_j)] = (f_i, f_j) = \delta_{ij} \quad (2.26)$$

If the particle we are interested in is not elementary the situation is lightly more complex, but we will not discuss it.

Relativistic case, $N \rightarrow \infty$ limit

Notice that moving from non-relativistic context (where space coordinates and time are treated differently) to the relativistic one, some problems arises. Dirac formulation of relativistic quantum mechanics treats time and space in the same way, making the space coordinate a label like the time rather than an observable. Indeed we have to take care of the consequences of the Heisenberg principle: due to uncertainty on the energy we are able to produce particle-antiparticle pairs, but if we are interested in measuring the position as better as possible, then the uncertainty on the momentum become huge and lot of pairs are produced, and we are no more able to identify which is the particle we want to measure. Therefore the position is no more an observable in the relativistic framework, and can only be used as a label to describe the evolution of a state, as we do for the time.

Since we cannot characterize particles using position as an observable in a complete set of compatible observables (as we do in the non-relativistic case, where position, energy and spin provides an irreducible set of compatible observables), we need to understand how to choose a new complete set of compatible observables which allows us to build an Fock space for elementary particles using eigenvectors.

A celebrated theorem of Wigner states that the one-particle Hilbert space of an elementary particle should be the representation space of an irreducible unitary representation of space-time symmetries (i.e. the universal covering of the restricted Poincaré group) and internal symmetries (e.g. EM charge conservation, we do not discuss them here).

Irreducible unitary representations of space-time symmetries, according to Wigner's theorem, are characterized by the mass $m \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and either the spin $s \in \mathbb{N}/2$ if $m > 0$ or the helicity (projection of the spin in the direction of the motion¹) $h \in \mathbb{Z}/2$ if $m = 0$.

Let's consider for simplicity the case of a massive ($m > 0$) scalar ($s = 0$) particle. We know that for a relativistic particle the dispersion relation is

$$p_\mu p^\mu = m^2 \quad , \quad p^0 > 0 \quad (2.27)$$

i.e. the momentum should be contained in the *positive hyperboloid of mass m* , denoted by V_m^+ . Notice that if $m = 0$ we have that the momentum should be contained in the *forward light cone*.

Since we want to have a representation of the (covering of the) Poincaré group all the points in the hyperboloid should be weighted by the same weight, and we cannot use the position as an observable, then a natural choice for our Hilbert space for one particle is provided by

$$\mathcal{H}_1 = L^2 \left(\mathbb{R}^4, \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} 2\pi \delta(p_\mu p^\mu - m^2) \theta(p^0) \right) = L^2 \left(V_m^+, \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}} \right) \quad (2.28)$$

Let $a^\dagger(p) |0\rangle =: |p\rangle$ be the (generalized) eigenvector of the four-momentum operator \hat{p}^μ for (generalized) eigenvalue $p^\mu =: p \in \mathbb{R}^4$. The Dirac completeness relation in \mathcal{H}_1 is given by

$$\int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^3} \delta(p^2 - m^2) \theta(p^0) |p\rangle \langle p| = \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}_1} \quad (2.29)$$

It immediately follows multiplying by $|p'\rangle$, $p' \in V_m^+$ that

$$\begin{aligned} |p'\rangle &= |\mathbf{p}', \sqrt{\mathbf{p}'^2 + m^2}\rangle = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^3} \delta(p^2 - m^2) \theta(p^0) |p\rangle \langle p|p'\rangle \\ &= \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^3} \delta(p^2 - m^2) \theta(p^0) |p\rangle \langle 0| a(p) a^\dagger(p') |0\rangle \\ &= \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}} |\mathbf{p}, \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}\rangle \langle 0| [a(p) a^\dagger(p')] |0\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2.30)$$

therefore in order to get consistency the following commutation relation should be satisfied:

$$[a(p), a^\dagger(p')] = (2\pi)^3 2\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2} \delta(\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}') \quad (2.31)$$

¹Notice that helicity is well defined only if the particle moves at the speed of light, otherwise through a change of frame one can reverse the projection direction.

Notice that if $\{f_i\}_{i \in I}$ is an orthonormal basis for \mathcal{H}_1 , then we define

$$a_i := \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^3} \delta(p^2 - m^2) \theta(p^0) f_i(p) a(p) \quad (2.32)$$

and it satisfies the canonical $[a_i, a_j^\dagger] = \delta_{ij}$, hence also in the relativistic case it is possible to obtain canonical commutation relation by smearing a and a^\dagger with an orthonormal basis of the Hilbert space. The new factor $2\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$ in eq. (2.31), which wasn't present in the non-relativistic case, lead to non-locality problems if one proceeds defining quantum field operators as in the non-relativistic case. If we try to apply the previous idea to define quantum field operators, i.e.

$$\psi(x) = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^3} \delta(p^2 - m^2) \theta(p^0) a(p) e^{ip \cdot x} \quad (2.33)$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} [\psi(\mathbf{x}, 0), \psi^\dagger(\mathbf{y}, 0)] &= \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{d^4 p'}{(2\pi)^3} \delta(p^2 - m^2) \delta(p'^2 - m^2) \theta(p^0) \theta(p'^0) e^{-i\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x}} e^{i\mathbf{p}' \cdot \mathbf{y}} [a(p), a^\dagger(p')] \\ &= \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 2\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}} \frac{d^3 p'}{(2\pi)^3 2\sqrt{\mathbf{p}'^2 + m^2}} e^{-i(\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}' \cdot \mathbf{y})} (2\pi)^3 2\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2} \delta(\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}') \\ &= \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 2\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}} e^{-i\mathbf{p} \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})} \neq 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2.34)$$

even for $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$. This violates the “locality” even in the weak non-relativistic form we showed before. Actually, since the concept of “present” (or equivalently of “simultaneity”) is not universal in relativity, the vanishing of the commutator (for observable fields at least) should hold for x and y space-like separated (we denoted space-like separated coordinates x and y by $x \times y$).

Actually in general the fields are not observable (e.g. the charged scalar field is not, since it is not self-adjoint) but a remarkable theorem of Doplicher-Roberts (essentially) shows that in a massive RQFT if the observables commute at space-like distances, then the fields of the corresponding QFT either commute or anticommute at space-like distances in $d = 3 + 1$. Moreover the spin-statistics theorem proves that fields with integer spin are bosons and those with half-integer spin are fermions. Hence we know that in the massive case fields with integer spin commute and those with half-integer spin anticommute.

Therefore we need to impose such (anti)commutation relations for our relativistic fields at space-like separated coordinates. Since $a(p)|0\rangle = 0$, the state obtained applying $\psi^\dagger(x)$ to $|0\rangle$ is the same if one add an additional contribution $\sim a$ to $\psi^\dagger(x)$. Let's define

$$\phi(x) = \psi(x) + \psi^\dagger(x) \quad (2.35)$$

where the presence of both ψ and ψ^\dagger is reminiscent of the fact that the dispersion relation $p_\mu p^\mu = m^2$ has two solutions $\pm\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$, one to one associated to ψ and ψ^\dagger . Then $\phi^\dagger|0\rangle = \psi^\dagger|0\rangle$, ϕ is a self-adjoint field operator and as we desired

$$[\phi(x), \phi(y)] = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad (x - y)^2 < 0 \quad (2.36)$$

or more precisely

$$[\phi(f), \phi(g)] = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad \text{supp } f \times \text{supp } g \quad (2.37)$$

It is however clear that even if the above sense of $\phi(x)$ is “localized in x ” (so that it cannot affect points space like separated) or better the sense of $\phi(f)$ is “localized in $\text{supp } f$ ” (using Doplicher-Roberts theorem), conversely the state $\phi(x)|0\rangle$ is not localized in x and $\phi(f)|0\rangle$ is not localized in $\text{supp } f$. In fact the *two point correlation function* for a real field reads

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 0 | \phi(x) \phi(y) | 0 \rangle &= \langle 0 | \psi(x) \psi^\dagger(y) | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | [\psi(x) \psi^\dagger(y)] | 0 \rangle = \\ &= \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 2\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}} e^{ip \cdot (x - y)} \sim \frac{m^{1/2}}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^{3/2}} e^{-m|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|} \neq 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2.38)$$

where in the second line $p^0 := \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$ and the approximation holds for $(x - y)^2 \ll -1$.^{II} Differently from NRQFT case, where

$$\langle 0 | \psi(\mathbf{x}) \psi^\dagger(\mathbf{y}) | 0 \rangle = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) \quad (2.44)$$

holds, in RQFT $a^\dagger(p)$ applied at the vacuum creates a one-particle state with 4-momentum p^μ , but $\phi(x)$ applied to the vacuum does not create a particle localized in x^μ (i.e. with “wave function” given by a δ localized in x^μ).

Now it's very clear that \hat{x}^μ is not a good observable in RQFT, whereas \hat{p}^μ is a good observable. It is indeed possible to create a particle with well defined momentum p^μ but is impossible to create a particle with well defined momentum x^μ .

The physical underlying reason as we already mentioned is that the measure of \hat{x}^μ would produce a diverging fluctuation in p due to Heisenberg principle $\Delta x^\mu \Delta p^\mu \gtrsim \hbar$, allowing the production of particle-hole pairs. Thus the “space-time coordinate x ” loses its meaning, since it is impossible to understand to which particle it refers.

Finally notice that from its definition $\phi(x)$ satisfies the homogeneous Klein-Gordon equation

$$(\square + m^2)\phi(x) := \left(\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \Delta + m^2 \right) \phi(x) = 0 \quad (2.45)$$

If we replace c with the phonon velocity this is the same equation appearing in Condensed Matter for optical phonon at small (quasi)-momentum (in the lattice p^μ is periodic), showing a first example that some excitations in material exhibits “relativistic features” in some regime of parameters.

2.2 Characteristic features of Fock space

Ref. [BR97, Section 5.2]

The aim of this section is to understand how CCR and CAR affects the properties of the Fock space we built up. We have seen that the creation and annihilation operators for bosons and fermions satisfy the CCR and the CAR respectively

$$[a_i, a_j^\dagger] = \delta_{ij} \quad , \quad \{a_i, a_j^\dagger\} = \delta_{ij} \quad (2.46)$$

Since such relations are purely algebraic, can be thought as the characterizing rules for an algebra (i.e. a vector space where we defined the multiplication) endowed with an involution denoted by \dagger (which

^{II}Let's see how the result is obtained. First replace $(x - y) \mapsto x$ and then set $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x} = |\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}| \cos \theta =: |\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}| u$ (here $u := \cos \theta$). Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{d^3 p}{\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}} e^{ip^0 x^0} e^{-i\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x}} &\sim \int \frac{|\mathbf{p}|^2 d|\mathbf{p}| du d\phi}{\sqrt{|\mathbf{p}|^2 + m^2}} e^{ip^0 x^0} e^{-i|\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}| u} \sim \int_0^\infty \frac{|\mathbf{p}|^2 d|\mathbf{p}|}{\sqrt{|\mathbf{p}|^2 + m^2}} e^{ip^0 x^0} \int_{-1}^1 du e^{-i|\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}| u} = \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{|\mathbf{p}|^2 d|\mathbf{p}|}{\sqrt{|\mathbf{p}|^2 + m^2}} e^{ip^0 x^0} \frac{1}{-i|\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}|} \left(e^{-i|\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}|} - e^{i|\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}|} \right) = \frac{1}{i|\mathbf{x}|} \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{|\mathbf{p}| d|\mathbf{p}|}{\sqrt{|\mathbf{p}|^2 + m^2}} e^{i(p^0 x^0 + |\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}|)} \end{aligned} \quad (2.39)$$

Due to $x^2 \ll -1$, i.e. $|\mathbf{x}| \gg x^0$ and $|\mathbf{x}| \gg 1$, we have that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial |\mathbf{p}|} (p^0 x^0 + |\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}|) = \frac{|\mathbf{p}| x^0}{p^0} + |\mathbf{x}| \approx |\mathbf{x}| \quad (2.40)$$

hence the contribution of $p^0 x^0$ to the variation of the total phase respect to $|\mathbf{p}|$ is negligible, and it will give just a small correction to the final result

$$\frac{1}{i|\mathbf{x}|} \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{|\mathbf{p}| d|\mathbf{p}|}{\sqrt{|\mathbf{p}|^2 + m^2}} e^{i(p^0 x^0 + |\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}|)} \approx \frac{1}{i|\mathbf{x}|} \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{|\mathbf{p}| d|\mathbf{p}|}{\sqrt{|\mathbf{p}|^2 + m^2}} e^{i|\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}|} = \frac{1}{i|\mathbf{x}|} \int_0^\infty d|\mathbf{p}| \frac{|\mathbf{p}| \sin(|\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}|)}{\sqrt{|\mathbf{p}|^2 + m^2}} \quad (2.41)$$

Substituting $p \mapsto m \sinh(t)$, $dp = \sqrt{|\mathbf{p}|^2 + m^2} dt$, we get

$$\frac{1}{i|\mathbf{x}|} \int_0^\infty d|\mathbf{p}| \frac{|\mathbf{p}| \sin(|\mathbf{p}| |\mathbf{x}|)}{\sqrt{|\mathbf{p}|^2 + m^2}} = \frac{m}{i|\mathbf{x}|} \int_0^\infty dt \sinh(t) \sin(m|\mathbf{x}| \sinh(t)) = \frac{m}{i|\mathbf{x}|} K_1(m|\mathbf{x}|) \quad (2.42)$$

where $K_n(x)$ is the modified Bessel function, which satisfies

$$K_n(x) \approx \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2x}} e^{-x} \quad \text{for } x \gg n \quad (2.43)$$

promote the algebra to a $*$ -algebra), generated by $\{a_i\}_{i \in I}$. In this point of view a and a^\dagger are then just representations of this algebra as operators acting on \mathcal{F}^\pm (\mathcal{F}^\pm are representation spaces of the algebra). If the set I is finite, i.e. the algebra is finitely generated, then the *von Neumann uniqueness theorem* ensures that all the representation of CCR and CAR are unitarily equivalent, hence all possible representations live in the same abstract Hilbert space.

For instance this occur in QM for an N particles system in \mathbb{R}^d (finite degrees of freedom (d.o.f.)), where we can put $a_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(q_i + p_i)$, $i = 1, \dots, d$, with representation space $L^2((\mathbb{R}^d)^N, d^d x_1 \dots d^d x_N)$.

This is not true anymore for infinitely generated algebras (infinite d.o.f.). Roughly speaking, a unitary operator mapping one representation of the algebra into another one can be thought in zero dimensions as $e^{iN} \in U(1)$ for finite N but as $N \rightarrow \infty$ it vanishes. Infinitely generated CCR and CAR algebras have infinite inequivalent representations acting in completely disjoint Hilbert spaces. Moreover each of these possible representations describes completely different physics.

The point is now understand what actually characterizes a specific \mathcal{F} , since CCR and CAR are the same also for infinitely many different Hilbert spaces. The answer is given by the number operator \hat{N} : indeed it is a well defined observable if and only if the elements of \mathcal{F} are created by a specific representation of a_i^\dagger , or in other words if the excitations created out from the vacuum by the a_i^\dagger are the ones that can be counted (even if infinitely many) by a specific \hat{N} .

Mathematically, $\hat{N} := \sum_{i \in I} a_i^\dagger a_i$ is well defined in \mathcal{H} if exists a domain D dense in \mathcal{H} containing $|0\rangle$ in which \hat{N} is self-adjoint. This also implies that its spectrum is $\sigma(\hat{N}) = \mathbb{N}$ by the standard argument seen for the harmonic oscillator in QM.

Representations of CCR or CAR on which \hat{N} is not well defined are called *non-Fock representation*. We know wonder whether is possible or not to create non-Fock representations. A simple example of this is given by *Bogoliubov transformations*: starting from given a_i, a_i^\dagger , we define

$$\begin{aligned} a'_i &:= \alpha_i a_i + \beta_i a_i^\dagger \\ a_i'^\dagger &:= \alpha_i^* a_i^\dagger + \beta_i^* a_i \end{aligned} \quad (2.47)$$

for $\alpha_i, \beta_i \in \mathbb{C}$. If $\{a_i\}_i$ generates a representation of CCR then

$$[a'_i, a_j'^\dagger] = (|\alpha_i|^2 - |\beta_i|^2) \delta_{ij} \quad (2.48)$$

from which we see that $\{a'_i\}_i$ gives a new representation of CCR provided that $|\alpha_i|^2 - |\beta_i|^2 = 1$. Conversely if $\{a_i\}_i$ generates a representation of CAR then

$$\{a'_i, a_j'^\dagger\} = (|\alpha_i|^2 + |\beta_i|^2) \delta_{ij} \quad (2.49)$$

from which we see that $\{a'_i\}_i$ gives a new representation of CAR provided that $|\alpha_i|^2 + |\beta_i|^2 = 1$. Let $|0\rangle$ be the vacuum in the a_i representation, then

$$\langle 0 | \hat{N}' | 0 \rangle = \sum_{i \in I} \langle 0 | (\alpha_i^* a_i^\dagger + \beta_i^* a_i) (\alpha_i a_i + \beta_i a_i^\dagger) | 0 \rangle = \sum_{i \in N} |\beta_i|^2 \quad (2.50)$$

If $\sum_i |\beta_i|^2 < \infty$ then such transformation is allowed and since it is unitary then the Fock space of a_i is a Fock space for a'_i too (even if states, including the vacuum, may not be the same). Otherwise, for $\sum_i |\beta_i|^2 = \infty$, the vacuum $|0\rangle$ in the a_i representation is not even an element of $D(\hat{N}') := \{|\psi\rangle \text{ s.t. } \|\hat{N}'|\psi\rangle\| < \infty\}$, nor is any a_i^\dagger excitation created from $|0\rangle$.^{III} Therefore if for $\sum_i |\beta_i|^2 = \infty$ the Fock space for $\{a_i\}_{i \in I}$ is not the right space for the excitations described by a'_i . Actually we proved something more, we proved that the Fock space for a_i and a_i^\dagger are completely disjoint since no state of one of the two spaces is contained in the other one.

This actually happens in practice also in some simple situations such as for *Fermi gas*.^{IV} Let's consider N fermions in a finite volume V and zero temperature $T = 0$. In such conditions the density of states is

$$n(\mathbf{k}) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{for } |\mathbf{k}| \leq k_F \\ 0 & \text{for } |\mathbf{k}| > k_F \end{cases} \quad (2.52)$$

^{III} Indeed using CCR and CAR one obtains

$$\hat{N}' a_i^\dagger = \alpha_i a_i'^\dagger \pm \beta_i^* a'_i + a_i^\dagger \hat{N}' \quad (2.51)$$

hence for any polynomial in a_i^\dagger eventually \hat{N}' hit the vacuum producing a divergence.

^{IV} This example is presented in [Strocchi:1985aa].

where we have two particles for each momentum state due to the Fermi statistic. Recall that k_F is the Fermi momentum. Clearly the ground state $|\psi_0\rangle$ corresponding to such configuration $u(\mathbf{k})$ is not a vacuum for the annihilation operators $a(\mathbf{k}, s)$ when $|\mathbf{k}| \leq k_F$ because $a(\mathbf{k}, s)|\psi_0\rangle \neq 0$, since it just annihilate a particle which certainly exists in the whole ensemble where all configurations for $\mathbf{k} \leq k_F$ are occupied.

Nevertheless if one defines the Bogoliubov transformation

$$a'(\mathbf{k}, s) = \alpha(\mathbf{k}, s)a(\mathbf{k}, s) + \beta(-\mathbf{k}, -s)a^\dagger(-\mathbf{k}, -s) \quad (2.53)$$

with

$$\begin{cases} \alpha(\mathbf{k}, s) = 1 & \beta(-\mathbf{k}, -s) = 0 & \text{for } |\mathbf{k}| > k_F \\ \alpha(\mathbf{k}, s) = 0 & \beta(-\mathbf{k}, -s) = 1 & \text{for } |\mathbf{k}| \leq k_F \end{cases} \quad (2.54)$$

in such a way that the ground state is a Fock vacuum for the $a'(\mathbf{k}, s)$:

$$a'(\mathbf{k}, s)|\psi_0\rangle = 0 \quad (2.55)$$

According to the previous argument we know that $|\psi_0\rangle \in \mathcal{F}$ (for $a(\mathbf{k}, s)$) if and only if $\sum_{\mathbf{k}, s} |\beta(\mathbf{k}, s)|^2 < \infty$. This is clearly true if $N < \infty$, but it is false in the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$, $V \rightarrow \infty$, N/V fixed. Therefore, in the thermodynamic limit the Hilbert space of a quantum Fermi gas (the one built with $a'(\mathbf{k}, s)$) is not in the Fock space of the non-relativistic fermions (the one built with $a(\mathbf{k}, s)$).

Another example of non-Fock space is provided by the radiation emitted by a charged particle changing its momentum $\mathbf{p} \mapsto \mathbf{p}'$. A simple qualitative argument goes as follows: the energy emitted by radiation goes like

$$\mathcal{E} = \int d^3k |\mathbf{E}_{\text{rad}}(\mathbf{k})|^2 \quad (2.56)$$

and we know that is a finite number, moreover since photons asymptotically (where they are free) have energy $\omega(\mathbf{k}) = c|\mathbf{k}|$ then the number of emitted photons is

$$N = \int d^3k \frac{|\mathbf{E}_{\text{rad}}(\mathbf{k})|^2}{c|\mathbf{k}|} \quad (2.57)$$

The problem is that the electric field of the radiation behaves in the infrared ($|\mathbf{x}| \rightarrow \infty$) as $\mathbf{E}_{\text{rad}}(\mathbf{x}) \sim |\mathbf{x}|^{-2}$ implying $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{k}) \sim |\mathbf{k}|^{-1}$ as $|\mathbf{k}| \rightarrow 0$, i.e. is logarithmically divergent. Hence

$$N \sim \int d^3k \frac{1}{|\mathbf{k}|} \left(\frac{1}{|\mathbf{k}|} \right)^2 = \infty \quad (2.58)$$

therefore the Hilbert space of photons at the end of the process is not the fock space \mathcal{F}_{in} of the initial photons.

2.3 Interacting fields

Ref. [GR96, Chapter 8, 9]; [Kle15, Section 1.9, Chapter 10]; [BS80, Chapter 4]

Up to now we have considered only “free” fields whose Hilbert space is a fock space, however to obtain physical informations we need interactions. Now, starting from the particle physics case (zero temperature $T = 0$, zero density $n = 0$, relativistic case), and then moving to the condensed matter case, we will introduce the perturbative calculation of the interactions. We are mainly interested in understand which are the problems that arise in the perturbative approach and in general the need of non-perturbative techniques.

In particle physics most of the informations are extracted from scattering experiments. As a very simple model we can consider the ϕ^4 model, which in its complex version describe the (low energy of the) Higgs field with only quartic self-interactions taken into account, in the unbroken symmetry phase (which we presume was present in the early universe).

To be concrete we consider a real field $\phi(x)$ with canonical lagrangian density $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_0 + \mathcal{L}_I$ with

$$\mathcal{L}_0 = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi - \frac{m^2}{2} \phi^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{L}_I = -\frac{\lambda}{4} \phi^4 \quad (2.59)$$

The corresponding Hamiltonian is

$$H = H_0 + H_I = \int d\mathbf{x} (\mathcal{H}_0(\mathbf{x}) + \mathcal{H}_I(\mathbf{x})) \quad (2.60)$$

with

$$\mathcal{H}_0(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\pi^2}{2}(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{(\nabla\phi)^2(\mathbf{x})}{2} + \frac{m^2}{2}\phi^2(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{H}_I(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\lambda}{4}\phi^4(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2.61)$$

where the canonical momentum is $\pi(\mathbf{x}) = \dot{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$ and the canonical quantization would give

$$[\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t), \dot{\hat{\phi}}(\mathbf{y}, t)] = i\hbar\delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) \quad (2.62)$$

Now one may wonder in which Hilbert space $\hat{\phi}$ is defined as an operator-valued distribution, and if such space is the same as the Fock space of the free scalar field. Such question is actually very non-trivial. To gain the maximum support from our knowledge of the free field let us first suppose that we switch-off the interaction term H_I for large $|t|$, i.e. we replace λ by a C^∞ function of t , $\lambda_\varepsilon(t)$, such that

$$\lambda_\varepsilon(t) = \begin{cases} \lambda & |t| \leq \varepsilon^{-1} \\ 0 & |t| \rightarrow \infty \end{cases} \quad (2.63)$$

and we denote the new interacting Hamiltonian with H_ε^I . Then we will take the limit $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ to restore the physical situation. For any finite $\varepsilon > 0$ in the limit $t \rightarrow -\infty$ the field $\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t)$ tends to the free field $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$, defined in the Fock space \mathcal{F}_{in} and in the limit $t \rightarrow +\infty$ to the free field $\hat{\phi}_{\text{out}}$ defined in \mathcal{F}_{out} .

Notice that in general (as we will comment later on) to have a well defined expression we need to cutoff also in the spatial direction, so that ε become an infrared regulator of space time, and possibly we need to introduce also ultraviolet counterterms.

Since we *assumed* that $\hat{\phi}$ (using the Heisenberg picture) satisfies the CCR (but this assumption is not guaranteed) and by definition CCR are obeyed also by $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$ and $\hat{\phi}_{\text{out}}$ since they are free, then it exists a unitary one-parameter group $U_\varepsilon^I(t)$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t)\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{x}, t)U_\varepsilon^I(t) &= \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t) \\ U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t)\hat{\pi}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{x}, t)U_\varepsilon^I(t) &= \hat{\pi}(\mathbf{x}, t) \end{aligned} \quad (2.64)$$

If this is true then

$$\begin{aligned} U_\varepsilon^I(t) &\xrightarrow[t \rightarrow -\infty]{} \mathbb{1} \\ U_\varepsilon^I(t) &\xrightarrow[t \rightarrow +\infty]{} S_\varepsilon \end{aligned} \quad (2.65)$$

where (since U_ε^I is unitary) S_ε is a unitary operator called *Scattering matrix (with cutoff ε)* such that

$$S_\varepsilon^\dagger \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}} S_\varepsilon = \hat{\phi}_{\text{out}} \quad (2.66)$$

Notice that by consistency, if $U(t) = \exp\{-\frac{itH}{\hbar}\}$ denotes the unitary evolution in Heisenberg picture of $\hat{\phi}$ using the complete Hamiltonian, then eq. (2.64) implies

$$U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t)e^{+\frac{itH_0}{\hbar}}\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{x}, 0)e^{-\frac{itH_0}{\hbar}}U_\varepsilon^I(t) = U^\dagger(t)\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, 0)U(t) \quad (2.67)$$

must hold, so that

$$U_\varepsilon^I(t) = e^{\frac{itH_0}{\hbar}}U(t) \quad (2.68)$$

This provides the evolution operator in the *interaction picture* for the states, while as we know the fields in such picture evolve according to Heisenberg picture with the free Hamiltonian, so that

$$\langle \chi | \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t) | \psi \rangle = \underbrace{\langle \chi | U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t)}_{\substack{\text{Sch. evol. of } |\chi\rangle \\ \text{using } U_\varepsilon^I}} \underbrace{e^{\frac{itH_0}{\hbar}} \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{x}, 0) e^{-\frac{itH_0}{\hbar}}}_{\substack{\text{Heis. evol. of } \hat{\phi} \\ \text{using } H_0.}} \underbrace{U_\varepsilon^I(t) | \psi \rangle}_{\substack{\text{Sch. evol. of } |\psi\rangle \\ \text{using } U_\varepsilon^I}} \quad (2.69)$$

In order to determine $U_\varepsilon^I(t)$, we can differentiate respect to t in eq. (2.68) and we get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dU_\varepsilon^I(t)}{dt} &= \frac{i}{\hbar} H_0 e^{\frac{itH_0}{\hbar}} U(t) - \frac{i}{\hbar} e^{\frac{itH_0}{\hbar}} (H_0 + H_\varepsilon^I) U(t) \\ &= -\frac{i}{\hbar} e^{\frac{itH_0}{\hbar}} H_\varepsilon^I U(t) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} e^{\frac{itH_0}{\hbar}} H_\varepsilon^I e^{-\frac{itH_0}{\hbar}} U_\varepsilon^I(t)\end{aligned}\quad (2.70)$$

and using the boundary condition $U_\varepsilon^I(-\infty) = \mathbb{1}$ we finally get the integral equation

$$U_\varepsilon^I(t) = \mathbb{1} - \frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^t H_\varepsilon^I(t') U_\varepsilon^I(t') dt' \quad (2.71)$$

and by successively re-inserting the l.h.s. of eq. (2.71) we get

$$U_\varepsilon^I(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar}\right)^n \frac{1}{n!} \int_{-\infty}^t dt_1 \dots \int_{-\infty}^t dt_n \text{T}[H_\varepsilon^I(t_1) \dots H_\varepsilon^I(t_n)] =: \text{T exp} \left[-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^t H_\varepsilon^I(t') dt' \right] \quad (2.72)$$

where $\text{T}[A_1(t_1) \dots A_n(t_n)]$ is the *time-ordering* defined by

$$\text{T}[A_1(t_1) \dots A_n(t_n)] = \sum_{\pi \in \Sigma_n} \Theta(t_{\pi(1)}, \dots, t_{\pi(n)}) \epsilon^{\sigma(\pi)} A_{\pi(1)}(t_{\pi(1)}) \dots A_{\pi(n)}(t_{\pi(n)}) \quad (2.73)$$

with

$$\Theta(t_{\pi(1)}, \dots, t_{\pi(n)}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t_{\pi(1)} \geq t_{\pi(2)} \geq \dots \geq t_{\pi(n)} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (2.74)$$

By construction $\mathcal{F}_{\text{in}}, \mathcal{F}_{\text{out}} \subset \mathcal{H}$ (the space of $\hat{\phi}$) and if $|\text{in}\rangle \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{in}}$ is the state of free particles prepared at $t = -\infty$ and $|\text{out}'\rangle \in \mathcal{F}_{\text{out}}$ the state of free particles found at $t = +\infty$, then the probability to get this transition is given, according to the rules of QM, by

$$|\langle \text{in} | \text{out}' \rangle|^2 = |\langle \text{in} | S_\varepsilon | \text{in}' \rangle|^2 \quad (2.75)$$

Hence the scattering is analyzed in terms of these matrix elements.

These matrix elements are in turn related to the *correlation or Green functions* of $\hat{\phi}$

$$G^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) := \langle 0 | \text{T}[\hat{\phi}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(x_n)] | 0 \rangle \quad (2.76)$$

by the LSZ (Lehmann-Symanzik-Zimmermann) formula: if the in-state is given by particles with momenta q_1, \dots, q_m and the out state by particles with momenta p_1, \dots, p_n , then

$$\begin{aligned}\langle q_1, \dots, q_m | \text{in} | p_1, \dots, p_n | \text{out} \rangle &= \\ &= i^{m+n} \int d^4 x_1 \dots d^4 x_m \int d^4 y_1 \dots d^4 y_n \times \\ &\quad \times e^{-i(q_1 x_1 + \dots + q_m x_m)} e^{i(p_1 y_1 + \dots + p_n y_n)} \times \\ &\quad \times (\square_{x_1} + m^2) \dots (\square_{x_m} + m^2) (\square_{y_1} + m^2) \dots (\square_{y_n} + m^2) \times \\ &\quad \times \langle 0 | \text{T}[\hat{\phi}(y_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(y_n) \hat{\phi}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(x_m)] | 0 \rangle + \\ &\quad + \text{disconnected terms without interactions not contributing to the cross section}\end{aligned}\quad (2.77)$$

The perturbative approach tries to compute the correlation functions $\langle 0 | \text{T}[\hat{\phi}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(x_n)] | 0 \rangle$ of interacting Heisenberg fields in terms of the free in-fields $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x)$. Using the expression of $U_\varepsilon^I(t_1, t_2) := U_\varepsilon^I(t_1) U_\varepsilon^{I-1}(t_2)$ one can prove the Gell-Mann - Low formula providing the above connection. Let $|0\rangle$ be the vacuum state in \mathcal{H} , then

$$\langle 0 | \text{T}[\hat{\phi}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(x_n)] | 0 \rangle = \frac{\langle 0_{\text{in}} | \text{T}[\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_n) e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int dt H_\varepsilon^I(t)}] | 0_{\text{in}} \rangle}{\langle 0_{\text{in}} | \text{T}[e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int dt H_\varepsilon^I(t)}] | 0_{\text{in}} \rangle} \quad (2.78)$$

This formula connects interacting Heisenberg fields $\hat{\phi}$ with in-fields $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$ assuming that we have a finite infrared cutoff ε in time.

We now give a sketch of the proof of this result.^V Assume $t \gg t_1 > t_2 > \dots > t_n$, then using unitarity

$$U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t_1) = U_\varepsilon^{I-1}(t_1) = U_\varepsilon^{I-1}(t)U_\varepsilon^I(t, t_1) = U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t)U_\varepsilon^I(t, t_1) \quad , \quad U_\varepsilon^I(t_n) = U_\varepsilon^I(t_n, -t)U_\varepsilon^I(-t) \quad (2.79)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 0 | T[\hat{\phi}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(x_n)] | 0 \rangle &= \langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(x_n) | 0 \rangle \\ &= \langle 0 | U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t_1) \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_1) U_\varepsilon^I(t_1) \dots U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t_n) \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_n) U_\varepsilon^I(t_n) | 0 \rangle \\ &= \langle 0 | U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t) U_\varepsilon^I(t, t_1) \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_n) U_\varepsilon^I(t_n, -t) U_\varepsilon^I(-t) | 0 \rangle \\ &= \langle 0 | U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t) T[\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_n) e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{-t}^t dt H_\varepsilon^I(t)}] U_\varepsilon^I(-t) | 0 \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2.80)$$

where in the last step we moved all the unitary operators on the right (since they are inside the time ordering the result is the same) and we used

$$U_\varepsilon^I(t, t_1) U_\varepsilon^I(t_1) U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t_2) U_\varepsilon^I(t_2) \dots U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t_n) U_\varepsilon^I(t_n, -t) = U_\varepsilon^I(t) U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(-t) = T[e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{-t}^t dt H_\varepsilon^I(t)}] \quad (2.81)$$

Now since

$$U_\varepsilon^I(t) | 0 \rangle \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow -\infty} | 0_{\text{in}} \rangle \quad , \quad U_\varepsilon^I(t) | 0 \rangle \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow +\infty} | 0_{\text{out}} \rangle \quad (2.82)$$

we have

$$\langle 0 | T[\hat{\phi}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(x_n)] | 0 \rangle = \langle 0_{\text{out}} | T[\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_n) e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{-t}^t dt H_\varepsilon^I(t)}] | 0_{\text{in}} \rangle \quad (2.83)$$

If we assume that the vacuum is non degenerate, we expect that by adiabatic evolution (i.e. changing the value of ε) it cannot go in another state, hence

$$| 0_{\text{out}} \rangle = e^{iL} | 0_{\text{in}} \rangle \quad (2.84)$$

for some operator L . Now $\langle 0_{\text{in}} | 0_{\text{out}} \rangle = e^{iL}$ therefore

$$\langle 0_{\text{out}} | = \langle 0_{\text{in}} | e^{-iL} = \frac{\langle 0_{\text{in}} |}{\langle 0_{\text{in}} | 0_{\text{out}} \rangle} = \frac{\langle 0_{\text{in}} |}{\langle 0_{\text{in}} | S_\varepsilon | 0_{\text{in}} \rangle} \quad (2.85)$$

and taking $t \rightarrow +\infty$ we finally get eq. (2.78).

In general is very hard to evaluate expressions like eq. (2.78). In order to make this effort, the perturbative approach consists in replacing

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 0_{\text{in}} | T[\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_n) \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\ell!} \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dt' H_\varepsilon^I(t') \right)^\ell] | 0_{\text{in}} \rangle \\ \downarrow \\ \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\ell!} \langle 0_{\text{in}} | T[\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x_n) \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dt' H_\varepsilon^I(t') \right)^\ell] | 0_{\text{in}} \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2.86)$$

i.e. moving the infinite series outside the expectation value. The terms inside the sum can now be computed in terms of in-fields using Wick theorem or equivalently Feynman diagrams.

Resumming our steps, we expressed the scattering amplitudes in terms of correlators of interacting fields using LSZ formula, then Gell-Mann - Low formula allows us to express such correlators in terms of correlators of in-fields (free). Finally the perturbative approach prescripts the extraction of the infinite series outside the expectation value, in such a way that we can obtain our result computing expectation values of free fields through Feynman diagrams. We'll see in the following how dangerous is perturbative approach prescription.

^VReference: <https://authors.library.caltech.edu/60474/1/PhysRev.84.350.pdf>

2.4 Condensed matter systems

[Kle15, Sections 1.16, 2.17–2.19, 10.9]; [Fjæ13]

Let us turn to condensed matter systems. A source of information on the physical properties (typically transport properties) are the correlation functions of local observables, such as spin, density, current, etc; in particular two-points functions. Hence in this case physical informations are much more involved than just scattering amplitudes in particle physics. These two-points functions appear naturally in particular when one studies the *linear response*, i.e. the response to a test (i.e. infinitesimal) perturbation.

Let us consider a system with Hamiltonian H (which might include the classical potential term μN) and we want to see the effect on the mean value of an observable O_1 or a field (in general not self-adjoint) of a test perturbation typically generated by another observable O_2 in the form

$$V^\varepsilon(t) := \xi_\varepsilon(t) O_2^H(t) \quad (2.87)$$

with $\xi_\varepsilon(t)$ vanishing as $|t| \rightarrow \infty$ as the previous considered $\lambda_\varepsilon(t)$ and $O_2^H(t) = e^{itH} O_2 e^{-itH}$. Notice that however we do not assume H to be free as in the scattering case.

Let $\{|n\rangle\}$ be the set of eigenfunctions of H ($H|n\rangle = \mathcal{E}_n|n\rangle$) generating a Dirac completeness in \mathcal{H} and consider the first order modification induced by the perturbation in

$$\langle n| O_1^H(t) |n\rangle = \langle n| e^{itH} O_1 e^{-itH} |n\rangle \quad (2.88)$$

The time evolution in the presence of the perturbation of O_1 is

$$O_1^{H+V_\varepsilon}(t) = U^{H+V_\varepsilon \dagger}(t) O_1 U^{H+V_\varepsilon}(t) \quad (2.89)$$

and we want to rewrite this in terms of the evolution generated by H in an “interaction picture”, i.e.

$$O_1^{H+V_\varepsilon}(t) = U_\varepsilon^{V \dagger}(t) O_1^H(t) U_\varepsilon^V(t) \quad (2.90)$$

where $U_\varepsilon^V(t)$ gives the contribution of the interaction $V_\varepsilon(t)$ to the free evolution described by $O_1^H(t)$. The situation in this respect is similar to the one considered before in RQFT, just replacing of H_I^ε by V_ε we get that

$$U_\varepsilon^V(t) = \mathcal{T}[e^{-i \int_{-\infty}^t V_\varepsilon(t') dt'}] \quad (2.91)$$

We calculate the response to the perturbation through a variation, using the perturbative ansatz and then taking only first order contribution of V_ε in the perturbative expansion:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \langle n| O_1^{H+V_\varepsilon}(t) |n\rangle &= \frac{d}{d\varepsilon'} \langle n| O_1^{H+\varepsilon' V_\varepsilon}(t) |n\rangle \Big|_{\varepsilon'=0} = \lim_{\varepsilon' \rightarrow 0} \frac{\langle n| O_1^{H+\varepsilon' V_\varepsilon}(t) |n\rangle - \langle n| O_1^H(t) |n\rangle}{\varepsilon'} = \\ &= \lim_{\varepsilon' \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\varepsilon'} \langle n| \left[\left(1 + i\varepsilon' \int_{-\infty}^t V_\varepsilon(t') dt' + O(\varepsilon'^2) \right) O_1^H(t) \left(1 - i\varepsilon' \int_{-\infty}^t V_\varepsilon(t') dt' + O(\varepsilon'^2) \right) - O_1^H(t) \right] |n\rangle = \\ &= i \int_{-\infty}^t dt' \xi_\varepsilon(t') \langle n| [O_2^H(t'), O_1^H(t)] |n\rangle = -i \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dt' \xi_\varepsilon(t') \theta(t-t') \langle n| [O_1^H(t'), O_2^H(t)] |n\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2.92)$$

One can now just sum over $\{|n\rangle\}$ to perform the thermal expectation value

$$\langle (\bullet) \rangle_{\beta := \frac{1}{kT}} = \frac{\sum_n \langle n| (\bullet) |n\rangle e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_n}}{\sum_n e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_n}} \quad (2.93)$$

obtaining the expectation value at a given temperature T

$$\delta \langle O_1^{H+V_\varepsilon}(t) \rangle_\beta = \int dt' \xi_\varepsilon(t') (-i\theta(t-t') \langle [O_1^H(t), O_2^H(t')] \rangle_\beta) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dt' \xi_\varepsilon(t') G_{\text{ret}}^{O_1 O_2}(t, t') \quad (2.94)$$

where

$$G_{\text{ret}}^{O_1 O_2}(t, t') := -i\theta(t-t') \langle [O_1^H(t), O_2^H(t')] \rangle_\beta \quad (2.95)$$

is called *retarded correlation function*. Also in this case, similarly to what happens in RQFT, that experimental data are obtained from particular correlation functions.

Of course if O_1 , O_2 and ξ_ε depend also on space coordinates then eq. (2.94) becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta\langle O_1^{H+V_\varepsilon}(\mathbf{x}, t) \rangle_T &= \int d^3x' dt' \xi_\varepsilon(\mathbf{x}', t') (-i\theta(t-t')) \langle [O_1^H(\mathbf{x}', t), O_2^H(\mathbf{x}', t')] \rangle_\beta = \\ &= \int d^3x' dt' \xi_\varepsilon(\mathbf{x}', t') G_{\text{ret}}^{O_1 O_2}(\mathbf{x}, t, \mathbf{x}', t')\end{aligned}\quad (2.96)$$

where

$$G_{\text{ret}}^{O_1 O_2}(\mathbf{x}, t, \mathbf{x}', t') := -i\theta(t-t') \langle [O_1^H(\mathbf{x}, t), O_2^H(\mathbf{x}', t')] \rangle_\beta \quad (2.97)$$

Assuming translational invariance, i.e. $G_{\text{ret}}^{O_1 O_2}$ depends only on t, t' , and the space difference $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'$, we can easily perform the Fourier transform, since eq. (2.96) corresponds to a convolution:

$$\delta\langle O_1^{H+V_\varepsilon}(\mathbf{q}, \omega) \rangle_\beta = \tilde{\xi}_\varepsilon(\mathbf{q}, \omega) \tilde{G}_{\text{ret}}^{O_1 O_2}(\mathbf{q}, \omega) \quad (2.98)$$

The retarded correlators are typically directed connected to experiments. For example suppose to measure the magnetization of a spin system, with spin $\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x})$ in presence of a test magnetic field $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x}, t)$. The coupling between the magnetic field and the spin is given by

$$\int d^3x \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x}, t) \cdot \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2.99)$$

The linear response to the perturbation is determined by

$$-i\theta(t_1 - t_2) \langle [\mathbf{S}^H(\mathbf{x}_1, t_1), \mathbf{S}^H(\mathbf{x}_2, t_2)] \rangle_\beta \quad (2.100)$$

whose Fourier transform is precisely the dynamic magnetic susceptibility $\chi_s(\mathbf{q}, \omega)$ measurable by neutrons. Analogously charged particles are coupled to the electromagnetic field (in the gauge $A_0 = 0$) by

$$\int d^3x \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}, t) \cdot \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2.101)$$

where in the free case the current $\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{x})$ is given by

$$\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{x}) = \psi^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\overleftrightarrow{\nabla}}{2mi} \psi(\mathbf{x}) := \psi^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) \left(\frac{\nabla}{2mi} \psi(\mathbf{x}) \right) - \left(\frac{\nabla}{2mi} \psi^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) \right) \psi(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2.102)$$

and the *conductivity* $\sigma_{\alpha\beta}$ is directly related to the Fourier transform of

$$-i\theta(t_1 - t_2) \langle [\mathbf{j}_\alpha^H(\mathbf{x}_1, t_1), \mathbf{j}_\beta^H(\mathbf{x}_2, t_2)] \rangle_\beta \quad (2.103)$$

Notice that if O_1 and O_2 are fermionic fields, since the Hamiltonian is a scalar we get that $\xi_\varepsilon(t)$ must be an anticommuting function so that

$$O_1^H \xi_\varepsilon O_2^H - \xi_\varepsilon O_2^H O_1^H = -\xi_\varepsilon (O_1^H O_2^H + O_2^H O_1^H) \quad (2.104)$$

and in fact the retarded correlation function for fermionic fields O_1 and O_2 is

$$G_{\text{ret}}^{O_1 O_2} = i\theta(t_1 - t_2) \langle \{O_1^H(t_1), O_2^H(t_2)\} \rangle_\beta \quad (2.105)$$

For example the intensity of response in metals by high frequency photons (if the direction of the photon is chosen then the determination of such intensity is called *Angle-Resolved Photoemission Spectroscopy (ARPES)*) is related to the imaginary part of the Fourier transform of

$$i\theta(t_1 - t_2) \langle \{ \psi^\dagger(\mathbf{x}_1, t_1), \psi(\mathbf{x}_2, t_2) \} \rangle_\beta \quad (2.106)$$

Matsubara formalism

If H is not free the next question is how to compute the correlation functions. Let $H = H_0 + H_I$, with H_0 “free” (typically this means that contains only the quadratic terms in the fields, with no mixed components). For $T = 0$ one just have to replace

$$\langle (\bullet) \rangle_\beta \rightarrow \langle 0 | (\bullet) | 0 \rangle \quad (2.107)$$

and the Gell-Mann Low formula applies as before with adiabatic switching as in the relativistic case and the perturbative approach is completely similar.

For $T > 0$ the situation is more complicated because H_I would appear in two places: in the time evolution eq. (2.91) as in $T = 0$ but also in the Boltzmann weight $e^{-\beta(H_0+H_I)}$. This makes the standard perturbative treatment inapplicable, since we need to disentangle a perturbation in these two places. The way to solve this issue is due to Matsubara, and for this reason called the *Matsubara formalism*. Let’s see how it works.

We define an “evolution” of the operators by a new parameter τ :

$$O^H(\tau) = e^{\tau H} O e^{-\tau H} \quad \text{with} \quad 0 \leq \tau \leq \beta \quad (2.108)$$

and then instead of computing correlation functions at ordinary time t , we compute them using the modified evolution and the parameters τ_i :

$$\langle O_1^H(\tau_1) \dots O_n^H(\tau_n) \rangle_\beta \quad (2.109)$$

Suppose that $H = H_0 + H_I$ (notice that the cutoff ε is not required here since the domain of τ is already finite, $\tau \in [0, \beta]$) and write again the evolution separating the contribution of H_0 and H_I as in the interaction picture

$$O^H(\tau) = U^I(\tau) O^{H_0}(\tau) U^I(\tau) \quad (2.110)$$

getting as before

$$U^I(\tau) = e^{\tau H_0} e^{-\tau H} \quad \text{with} \quad U^I(0) = \mathbb{1} \quad (2.111)$$

and again

$$U^I(\tau) = T_\tau [e^{-\int_0^\tau d\tau' H_I(\tau')}] \quad (2.112)$$

We define *Matsubara correlator* / *Green function* the object

$$G_M^{O_1 \dots O_n}(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n) := -\langle T_\tau [O_1^H(\tau_1) \dots O_n^H(\tau_n)] \rangle_\beta \quad (2.113)$$

Now for the analogue of the Gell-Mann Low formula

$$\langle T_\tau [O_1^H(\tau_1) \dots O_n^H(\tau_n)] \rangle_\beta = \frac{\langle T_\tau [O_1^{H_0}(\tau_1) \dots O_n^{H_0}(\tau_n) e^{-\int_0^\beta d\tau' H_I(\tau')}] \rangle_\beta^0}{\langle T_\tau [e^{-\int_0^\beta d\tau' H_I(\tau')}] \rangle_\beta^0} \quad (2.114)$$

with $\langle \bullet \rangle_\beta^0$ the thermal average computed using H_0 as Hamiltonian. In comparison with the Gell-Mann Low formula for particles physics, in this case the vacuum expectation values are replaced by the Boltzmann-weighted thermal traces, and the vacuum expectation value of the S -matrix operator $U_\varepsilon^I(+\infty)$ in the denominator is replaced by the Boltzmann-weighted trace of the interaction operator $U^I(\beta)$ along the euclidean time axis τ .

Finally perturbative treatment then prescripts

$$\langle T_\tau [O_1^{H_0}(\tau_1) \dots O_n^{H_0}(\tau_n) e^{-\int_0^\beta d\tau' H_I(\tau')}] \rangle_\beta^0 = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^\ell}{\ell!} \langle T_\tau [O_1^{H_0}(\tau_1) \dots O_n^{H_0}(\tau_n) \left(\int_0^\beta d\tau' H_I(\tau') \right)^\ell] \rangle_\beta^0 \quad (2.115)$$

This leads to a series of thermally averaged products of many fields which move according to the free field equations. Therefore Wick’s theorem can be applied and we obtain an expansion of the Matsubara Green function completely analogous to the field theoretic one. The only difference is the finite-time interaction. Now everything is again expressed in terms of the free fields and can be computed using Feynman diagrams.

To be precise in most cases one also need to use an infrared cutoff ε , which in this case (the domain of τ is finite) is required only in the space coordinates, and will be removed at the end of the calculation.

Now the question is how this thermal averaged operator can be related to the retarded correlators needed to compute the linear response of our system. Using thermal average formula eq. (2.93) and $Z := \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} e^{-\beta H}$ the *partition function* computed taking the trace over the whole Hilbert space of the system \mathcal{H}^{VI} (not only the 1-particle Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_1), the 2-points Matsubara correlator (the only needed in the perturbative approach) reads:

$$\begin{aligned} G_M^{O_1 O_2}(\tau_1, \tau_2) &= -\frac{1}{Z} \left\{ \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} [e^{-\beta H} e^{\tau_1 H} O_1 e^{-\tau_1 H} e^{\tau_2 H} O_2 e^{-\tau_2 H}] \theta(\tau_1 - \tau_2) \right. \\ &\quad \left. \pm \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} [e^{-\beta H} e^{\tau_2 H} O_2 e^{-\tau_2 H} e^{\tau_1 H} O_1 e^{-\tau_1 H}] \theta(\tau_2 - \tau_1) \right\} = \\ &= -\frac{1}{Z} \left\{ \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} [e^{-\beta H} O_1 e^{-(\tau_1 - \tau_2) H} O_2 e^{(\tau_1 - \tau_2) H}] \theta(\tau_1 - \tau_2) \right. \\ &\quad \left. \pm \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} [e^{-\beta H} O_2 e^{-(\tau_2 - \tau_1) H} O_1 e^{(\tau_2 - \tau_1) H}] \theta(\tau_2 - \tau_1) \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (2.116)$$

where in the second step we used the cyclicity of the trace and the choice of the sign depends on the commutation relation between O_1^H and O_2^H (+ if they commute or - if they anticommute). This computation shows that the two points correlator is just a function of the difference $\tau := \tau_1 - \tau_2$.

$$G_M^{O_1 O_2}(\tau) = -\frac{1}{Z} \left\{ \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} [e^{-\beta H} O_1 e^{-\tau H} O_2 e^{\tau H}] \theta(\tau) \pm \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} [e^{-\beta H} O_2 e^{\tau H} O_1 e^{-\tau H}] \theta(-\tau) \right\} \quad (2.117)$$

By construction $0 \leq \tau_i \leq \beta$, $i = 1, 2$, hence we get that $\tau \in [-\beta, \beta]$. Notice that for $\tau \in [-\beta, 0]$, $\tau + \beta \geq 0$

$$\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} [e^{-\beta H} O_2 e^{\tau H} O_1 e^{-\tau H}] = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} [O_2 e^{(\tau + \beta) H} e^{-\beta H} O_1 e^{-(\tau + \beta) H}] = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} [e^{-\beta H} O_1 e^{-(\tau + \beta) H} O_2 e^{(\tau + \beta) H}] \quad (2.118)$$

hence $G_M^{O_1 O_2}(\tau) = \pm G_M^{O_1 O_2}(\tau + \beta)$ and we can regard $G_M^{O_1 O_2}(\tau)$ as an (anti)periodic function of period β defined for any $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$.

Notice that in general traces can be infinite or the limit $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ of the cutoff might not exists, making the perturbative approach not working (notice that an infinite trace is the thermal-equivalent of a divergent vacuum expectation value of the theoretical field case). Nevertheless the periodicity of the Matsubara correlator is a non-perturbative result which hold anyway, even if the definition of the trace lose its meaning. Such relation is called *Kubo-Martin-Schwinger (KMS) condition*:

$$G_M(\tau) = \pm G_M(\tau + \beta) \quad (2.119)$$

which is independent on the choice of ε and works also for $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.

Due to periodicity, $G_M(\tau)$ can be represented in terms of Fourier coefficients

$$G_M(\tau) = \frac{1}{\beta} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} e^{-i\omega_n \tau} G_M(\omega_n) \quad (2.120)$$

with

$$\omega_n = \begin{cases} \frac{2n\pi}{\beta} & \text{if } G_M(\tau) = +G_M(\tau + \beta) \\ \frac{(2n+1)\pi}{\beta} & \text{if } G_M(\tau) = -G_M(\tau + \beta) \end{cases} \quad (2.121)$$

called *Matsubara frequencies* and

$$G_M(\omega_n) = \int_0^\beta d\tau e^{i\omega_n \tau} G_M(\tau) \quad (2.122)$$

Notice that as $T \rightarrow 0$ Matsubara coefficients become continuous and eq. (2.120) become a Fourier transformation.

^{VI}Notice that at this point we do not know whether this space is Fock or non-Fock.

Lehmann spectral representation of the correlators ($T > 0$)

The Wick rotation of the t -axis in eq. (2.97) exactly coincides with the axis on which τ is defined, and the Wick rotation send the energies in the field theoretic Green functions eq. (2.97) to the axis along which Matsubara frequencies are situated. The retarded Green functions are related to the imaginary-time Matsubara Green functions by an analytical continuation.

To see this relation we introduce a Dirac completeness of eigenstates $\{|n\rangle\}$ of H inside the coefficients of the Fourier series eq. (2.122) (we change the label for the Fourier coefficients from n to s) using eq. (2.117):

$$\begin{aligned} G_M(\omega_s) &= -\frac{1}{Z} \int_0^\beta d\tau e^{i\omega_s \tau} \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}}[e^{-\beta H} O_1 e^{-\tau H} O_2 e^{\tau H}] \\ &= -\frac{1}{Z} \int_0^\beta d\tau \sum_{m,n} e^{i\omega_s \tau} e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_n} e^{\tau(\mathcal{E}_n - \mathcal{E}_m)} \langle n | O_1 | m \rangle \langle m | O_2 | n \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2.123)$$

Using $\int_0^\beta d\tau e^{\alpha \tau} = \frac{1}{\alpha}(e^{\alpha \beta} - 1)$ we can integrate:

$$\begin{aligned} G_M(\omega_s) &= -\frac{1}{Z} \sum_{m,n} e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_n} \frac{e^{i\omega_s \beta + \beta(\mathcal{E}_n - \mathcal{E}_m)} - 1}{i\omega_s + \mathcal{E}_n - \mathcal{E}_m} \langle n | O_1 | m \rangle \langle m | O_2 | n \rangle \\ &= -\frac{1}{Z} \sum_{m,n} \frac{e^{i\omega_s \beta - \beta \mathcal{E}_m} - e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_n}}{i\omega_s + \mathcal{E}_n - \mathcal{E}_m} \langle n | O_1 | m \rangle \langle m | O_2 | n \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2.124)$$

Finally using the explicit values of Matsubara frequencies eq. (2.121), one gets

$$\begin{aligned} G_M(\omega_s) &= -\frac{1}{Z} \sum_{m,n} \frac{\pm e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_m} - e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_n}}{i\omega_s + \mathcal{E}_n - \mathcal{E}_m} \langle n | O_1 | m \rangle \langle m | O_2 | n \rangle = \\ &= \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{m,n} \frac{e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_n} \mp e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_m}}{i\omega_s + \mathcal{E}_n - \mathcal{E}_m} \langle n | O_1 | m \rangle \langle m | O_2 | n \rangle \quad \text{for } G_M(\tau) = \pm G_M(\tau + \beta) \end{aligned} \quad (2.125)$$

Such expression for the Green function is called *Lehmann representation* (of G_M , in this case). Notice that in this representation the Fourier series coefficients can be computed in terms of H eigenvalues and the matrix elements of O_1 and O_2 only (for this reason such representation is also called “spectral” representation). Notice that these coefficients have poles along the imaginary axis.

Let’s try to find the Lehmann representation of the retarded Green function we introduced before. Actually a more generic definition respect to eq. (2.95) of the retarded correlator is used:

$$G_{\text{ret}}^{O_1 O_2}(t, t') := -i\theta(t - t') \langle [O_1^H(t), O_2^H(t')]_{\mp} \rangle_\beta \quad (2.126)$$

taking the commutator or the anticommutator depending on the label after the square bracket. Rewriting eq. (2.126) introducing a Dirac completeness as in eq. (2.123) we get

$$\begin{aligned} G_{\text{ret}}(t_1, t_2) &= -i\theta(t_1 - t_2) \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}}[e^{-\beta H} [e^{it_1 H} O_1 e^{-it_1 H}, e^{it_2 H} O_2 e^{-it_2 H}]_{\mp}] \\ &= -\frac{i}{Z} \theta(t_1 - t_2) \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}}[e^{-\beta H} (e^{it_1 H} O_1 e^{-it_1 H} e^{it_2 H} O_2 e^{-it_2 H} \mp e^{it_2 H} O_2 e^{-it_2 H} e^{it_1 H} O_1 e^{-it_1 H})] \\ &= -\frac{i}{Z} \theta(t) \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}}[e^{-\beta H} e^{itH} O_1 e^{-itH} O_2 \mp e^{itH} O_1 e^{-\beta H} e^{-itH} O_2] \\ &= -\frac{i}{Z} \theta(t) \sum_{m,n} (e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_n} \mp e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_m}) e^{it(\mathcal{E}_n - \mathcal{E}_m)} \langle n | O_1 | m \rangle \langle m | O_2 | n \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2.127)$$

where $t := t_1 - t_2$ and in the third step we used the cyclicity of the trace. Using the Fourier Transform of the following functions (the limit $\delta \rightarrow 0$, $\delta > 0$, is understood)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}[\theta(t)](\omega) &= \frac{i}{\omega + i\delta} \quad , \quad \mathcal{F}[e^{i\alpha t}](\omega) = \delta(\omega + \alpha) \\ \mathcal{F}[f(t)g(t)](\omega) &= \int d\omega' \tilde{f}(\omega - \omega') \tilde{g}(\omega') \end{aligned} \quad (2.128)$$

one get the Fourier transform of $G_{\text{ret}}(t)$:

$$\begin{aligned} G_{\text{ret}}(\omega) &= -\frac{i}{Z} \int d\omega' \frac{i}{\omega - \omega' + i\delta} \sum_{m,n} (e^{-\beta\mathcal{E}_n} \mp e^{-\beta\mathcal{E}_m}) \delta(\omega' + \mathcal{E}_n - \mathcal{E}_m) \langle n | O_1 | m \rangle \langle m | O_2 | n \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{m,n} \frac{e^{-\beta\mathcal{E}_n} \mp e^{-\beta\mathcal{E}_m}}{\omega + \mathcal{E}_n - \mathcal{E}_m + i\delta} \langle n | O_1 | m \rangle \langle m | O_2 | n \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2.129)$$

which is the Lehmann representation of G_{ret} . Notice that the prescription $i\delta$ is needed to move slightly the poles of the functions from the real axis, in such a way that the Wick rotation of the function is allowed.

Is now clear comparing eq. (2.125) and eq. (2.129) that the retarded correlator is just the analytical continuation of the Matsubara correlator

$$G_{\text{ret}}(\omega) = G_M(i\omega_s \rightarrow \omega + i\delta) \quad (2.130)$$

Can be proved^{VII} using Carleman's theorem that such relation is well-defined and can be used to reconstruct uniquely $G_{\text{ret}}(\omega)$ by analytical continuation of $G_M(\omega_n)$. The only requirement on the Matsubara Green function is that it satisfy the KMS condition eq. (2.119). Therefore it is possible to compute G_M as in the high energy case and then obtain G_{ret} from analytical continuation.

2.5 Path integral formalism

[Zha99], [Zin02], [Kle15, Chapter 14]

In this section we just sketch in an “heuristic way”, without details, how the path-integral is defined, with some more details in the non relativistic setting and $T > 0$.

The key ingredients of Feynman path-integrals both in real and imaginary time are

- (1) a Dirac completeness like $\int dx |x\rangle\langle x| = \mathbb{1}$, appropriately generalized for fields;
- (2) the representation of the kernel of infinitesimal time evolution in terms of the action.

Path integral for bosonic fields

For bosonic fields the completeness employs the *coherent states*. We just recall that for the harmonic QM oscillator the coherent states $|z\rangle$, $z \in \mathbb{C}$, are of the form (with a annihilation operator)

$$a |z\rangle = z |z\rangle \quad , \quad |z\rangle = e^{za^\dagger} |0\rangle \quad (2.131)$$

One easily verifies that

$$\langle z | a^\dagger = z^* \langle z | \quad , \quad \langle z | z' \rangle = e^{z^* z'} \quad , \quad \int_{\mathbb{C}} dz dz^* |z\rangle\langle z| e^{-|z|^2} = \mathbb{1} \quad (2.132)$$

The concept of coherent states easily generalizes to fields, just replacing the single annihilation operator in QM with a set of annihilation operators $\{a_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$. Indeed a generic field can be written as^{VIII}

$$\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\alpha \in A} \phi_\alpha(\mathbf{x}) a_\alpha \quad (2.133)$$

The set $\{a_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ is commuting, hence all the operators admits a common eigenbasis $\{|\phi^\beta\rangle\}_{\beta \in B}$, $|\phi^\beta\rangle := |\{\phi_{\alpha'}^\beta\}_{\alpha' \in A}\rangle$, such that for any $\alpha \in A$

$$a_\alpha |\phi^\beta\rangle = \phi_\alpha^\beta |\phi^\beta\rangle \quad \text{with eigenvalues} \quad \phi_\alpha^\beta \in \mathbb{C} \quad (2.134)$$

^{VII}Original proof by Baym and Mermin (1960): <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.1703704>, useful reference: Appendix A in <https://fks.sk/~bzduso/physics/master/thesis.pdf>.

^{VIII}We consider the field at $t = 0$ in analogy with QM, the evolution can be recovered according to Heisenberg picture.

Se ha qualche
altra referenza
per QFT a $T > 0$
la aggiungo.

Moreover, using commutation relations for ladder operators, this implies

$$|\phi^\beta\rangle = e^{\sum_\alpha \phi_\alpha^\beta a_\alpha^\dagger} |0\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \langle \phi^\beta | \phi^{\beta'} \rangle = e^{\sum_\alpha \phi_\alpha^{\beta*} \phi_\alpha^{\beta'}} \quad (2.135)$$

It is clear that vectors $\{|\phi^\beta\rangle\}$ are eigenvectors also for the field operator

$$\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) |\phi^\beta\rangle = \sum_{\alpha \in A} \phi_\alpha(\mathbf{x}) \phi_\alpha^\beta |\phi^\beta\rangle = \phi^\beta(\mathbf{x}) |\phi^\beta\rangle \quad (2.136)$$

with eigenvalue $\phi^\beta(\mathbf{x}) := \sum_{\alpha \in A} \phi_\alpha(\mathbf{x}) \phi_\alpha^\beta$ (is a function). In particular, for a RQFT we have the operator

$$\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\alpha} \phi_\alpha(\mathbf{x}) a_\alpha + \phi_\alpha^*(\mathbf{x}) a_\alpha^\dagger \quad (2.137)$$

and correspondingly we have the eigenvalues

$$\phi^\beta(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\alpha} \phi_\alpha(\mathbf{x}) \phi_\alpha^\beta + \phi_\alpha^*(\mathbf{x}) \phi_\alpha^{\beta*} \quad (2.138)$$

Notice that up to now we have properly generalized eq. (2.131) in the case of fields.

Let's see how the last identity in eq. (2.132) generalizes in this setting. The following Dirac completeness can be proved:

$$\int \frac{d\phi d\phi^*}{2\pi i} e^{-\phi^* \phi} |\phi\rangle \langle \phi| := \sum_{\beta \in B} \frac{1}{2\pi i} e^{-\sum_\alpha \phi_\alpha^{\beta*} \phi_\alpha^\beta} |\phi^\beta\rangle \langle \phi^\beta| = \mathbb{1} \quad (2.139)$$

Ci va davvero il fattore i a denominatore? Nella referenza che ho trovato non c'è.

where on the l.h.s. we defined $\phi^{\beta*} \phi^\beta := \langle \phi^\beta | \phi^\beta \rangle$ and suppressed the label β by replacing $\sum_\beta f(\phi^\beta, \phi^{\beta*}) \rightarrow \int d\phi d\phi^* f(\phi, \phi^*)$.

For each operator A and a basis $\{|n\rangle\}$ satisfying Dirac completeness $\sum_n |n\rangle \langle n| = \mathbb{1}$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr } A &= \sum_n \langle n | A | n \rangle = \sum_n \langle n | A \int \frac{d\phi d\phi^*}{2\pi i} e^{-\phi^* \phi} |\phi\rangle \langle \phi | n \rangle \\ &= \sum_n \int \frac{d\phi d\phi^*}{2\pi i} e^{-\phi^* \phi} \langle \phi | n \rangle \langle n | A | \phi \rangle \\ &= \int \frac{d\phi d\phi^*}{2\pi i} e^{-\phi^* \phi} \langle \phi | A | \phi \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (2.140)$$

È possibile provare $\phi^{\beta*} \phi^\beta = \langle \phi^\beta | \phi^\beta \rangle$ o è da considerarsi una definizione per semplificare la notazione?

Beside the fields at fixed time $\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$ in the Gell-Mann - Low formula or in the Matsubara formalism (to which we now address our effort) there are also the time-evolution operators. Let us consider an infinitesimal one: for H the Hamiltonian in terms of free fields, $\Delta\tau$ infinitesimal “imaginary time” interval, the infinitesimal time-evolution operator is

$$e^{-\Delta\tau H(a_\alpha^\dagger, a_\alpha)} \quad (2.141)$$

We rewrite it in “normal order” : : form, i.e. with all the creation operators on the left of the annihilation ones:

$$e^{-\Delta\tau H(a_\alpha^\dagger, a_\alpha)} = : e^{-\Delta\tau H(a_\alpha^\dagger, a_\alpha)} : + O((\Delta\tau)^2) \quad (2.142)$$

Let us now study the partition function of the system. It reads (from now on β is no more a label, rather it is the Boltzmann factor $\beta := 1/(k_b T)$)

$$Z := \text{Tr } e^{-\beta H} = \int \frac{d\phi d\phi^*}{2\pi i} e^{-\phi^* \phi} \langle \phi | e^{-\beta H} | \phi \rangle \quad (2.143)$$

We now split the interval $[0, \beta]$ into N small interval of length $\beta/N =: \Delta\tau$ and at the “imaginary times” multiples of $\Delta\tau$ we insert the Dirac completeness eq. (2.139). Finally we take the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$ so that the intervals becomes arbitrarily small. We get

$$Z = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int \prod_{j=1}^N \frac{d\phi_j d\phi_j^*}{2\pi i} e^{-\phi_j^* \phi_j} \langle \phi_j | e^{-\Delta\tau H} | \phi_{j-1} \rangle \quad \text{where} \quad \phi_0 := \phi_N \quad (2.144)$$

For each $|\phi_j\rangle, j = 1, \dots, N$, the integral runs over all possible states of the completeness eq. (2.139). Due to the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$ and eq. (2.142) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \phi_j | e^{-\Delta\tau H(a_\alpha^\dagger, a_\alpha)} | \phi_{j-1} \rangle &\simeq \langle \phi_j | : e^{-\Delta\tau H(a_\alpha^\dagger, a_\alpha)} : | \phi_{j-1} \rangle = \\ &= e^{-\Delta\tau H(\phi_j^*, \phi_{j-1})} \langle \phi_j | \phi_{j-1} \rangle = e^{-\Delta\tau H(\phi_j^*, \phi_{j-1})} e^{\sum_\alpha \phi_{\alpha j}^* \phi_{\alpha j-1}} \end{aligned} \quad (2.145)$$

Putting things together we have

$$Z = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int \prod_{j=1}^N \frac{d\phi_j d\phi_j^*}{2\pi i} e^{-S_N(\phi^*, \phi)} \quad (2.146)$$

with

$$S_N(\phi^*, \phi) := \Delta\tau \left(\sum_{j=1}^N \sum_\alpha \phi_{\alpha j}^* \frac{\phi_{\alpha j} - \phi_{\alpha j-1}}{\Delta\tau} + H(\phi_j^*, \phi_{j-1}) \right) \quad \text{where } \phi_0 := \phi_N \quad (2.147)$$

We now define the *path integral measure* $\mathcal{D}\phi(\tau)$ such that

$$\int_{\phi(0)=\phi(\beta)} \mathcal{D}\phi(\tau) \mathcal{D}\phi^*(\tau) \dots := \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int \prod_{j=1}^N \frac{d\phi_j d\phi_j^*}{2\pi i} \dots \quad (2.148)$$

and taking the limit on S_N as a Riemann integral, the label j is replaced by a continuous variable τ :

$$S_N \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^\beta d\tau \left(\phi^*(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \phi(\tau) + H(\phi^*(\tau), \phi(\tau)) \right) =: S(\phi^*, \phi) \quad \text{where } \phi(0) = \phi(\beta) \quad (2.149)$$

In this way we obtained the *Euclidean action* S with time τ of period β , since $\phi_0 := \phi_N$ has been replaced by the condition $\phi(0) = \phi(\beta)$. Hence for the partition function we get

$$Z = \int_{\phi(0)=\phi(\beta)} \mathcal{D}\phi(\tau) \mathcal{D}\phi^*(\tau) e^{-S(\phi^*, \phi)} \quad (2.150)$$

We can interpret $e^{-S(\phi^*, \phi)}$ as a Boltzmann weight for field configurations. In general expression eq. (2.150) has not a rigorous mathematical definition. One exception is provided by free fields, for which one can give a rigorous meaning to the condensed expression

$$\mathcal{D}\phi(\tau) \mathcal{D}\phi^*(\tau) e^{-S(\phi^*, \phi)} \quad (2.151)$$

as a gaussian measure (notice that for free fields the action is quadratic), and then the whole integral is well defined.

The original non-commutativity of the field operators $\hat{\phi}$ is replaced here by the integration over all possible “alternatives” of the function fields ϕ , without the classical constraint of the equation of motion.

It worth to notice that in general the expansion in annihilation operators eq. (2.133) is performed in momentum space, hence the labels $\{\alpha \in A\}$ are the three momentum vectors $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Since each element $\phi(\tau)$ should be meant as a collection $\{\phi_\alpha(\tau)\}_{\alpha \in A} = \{\phi_{\mathbf{p}}(\tau)\}_{\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^3}$, then we can define a function $\phi(\tau, \mathbf{p})$ defined by $\phi(\tau, \mathbf{p}) := \phi_{\mathbf{p}}(\tau)$. Similarly, the expansion of $\hat{\phi}$ can be done in the standard space of elements $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3\}$, defining in this way the functions $\phi(\tau, \mathbf{x})$. Therefore the path-integral measure can be thought as an integration over all possible functions defined on \mathbb{R}^4 , periodic in τ , and the summation \sum_α can always be replaced by $\int d^3x$ or $\int d^3p$.

Path integral for fermionic fields

If we have fermions the above procedure needs a little modification since now annihilation states satisfy a different algebra

$$\{a_\alpha, a_{\alpha'}\} = 0 \quad (2.152)$$

so that for each common eigenstate $|\phi^\beta\rangle$ of the annihilation operators we have

$$\{a_\alpha, a_{\alpha'}\} |\phi^\beta\rangle = \{\phi_\alpha^\beta, \phi_{\alpha'}^\beta\} |\phi^\beta\rangle \neq 0 \quad (2.153)$$

hence the eigenvalues $\phi_\alpha^\beta, \phi_{\alpha'}^\beta$ of the annihilation operators cannot be complex numbers, and we need to introduce some *Grassmann variables*, i.e. anticommuting objects such that

$$\xi_\alpha \xi_{\alpha'} + \xi_{\alpha'} \xi_\alpha = 0 \quad (2.154)$$

A strategy similar to the one previously sketched replacing bosonic operators $\hat{\phi}$ by complex functions ϕ^β can be adapted, replacing fermionic operators $\hat{\phi}$ by Grassmann functions ξ . For instance the trace of an operator now reads

$$\text{Tr } A = \int d\xi^* d\xi e^{\sum_\alpha \xi_\alpha^* \xi_\alpha} \langle -\xi | A | \xi \rangle \quad (2.155)$$

so that

$$Z = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int \prod_{j=1}^N d\xi_j^* d\xi_j e^{-S_N(\xi^*, \xi)} =: \int_{\xi(0)=-\xi(\beta)} \mathcal{D}\xi^*(\tau) \mathcal{D}\xi(\tau) e^{-S(\xi^*, \xi)} \quad (2.156)$$

with the *Euclidean action* defined in terms of Grassmann fields

$$S(\xi^*, \xi) := \int_0^\beta \left(\xi^*(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \xi(\tau) + H(\xi^*(\tau), \xi(\tau)) \right) \quad (2.157)$$

Again one can give a rigorous meaning to the above formulas for free by proving that $\mathcal{D}\xi^*(\tau) \mathcal{D}\xi(\tau) e^{-S(\xi^*, \xi)}$ is a “Grassmann Gaussian integral”.

In the following we denote by ϕ both the complex fields in the bosonic case and Grassmann fields in the fermionic case.

Computation of Matsubara Green functions

As an example, let's see how to compute Matsubara Green functions using the path integral formalism in the Fock space in the finite volume case. Since we are working in the Fock space we can use for the free field the ladder operators $\{a_\alpha, a_\alpha^\dagger\}_{\alpha \in A}$, and using the Matsubara formalism we can introduce a dependence on τ for these operators:

$$a_\alpha(\tau) = e^{\tau H} a_\alpha e^{-\tau H} \quad (2.158)$$

Then in Fock space the Matsubara green functions are defined by

$$\langle T[a_{\alpha_1}(\tau_1) \dots a_{\alpha_n} a_{\alpha_{n+1}}^\dagger \dots a_{\alpha_{2n}}] \rangle_\beta := \frac{\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{F}^\pm} T[e^{-\beta H} T[a_{\alpha_1}(\tau_1) \dots a_{\alpha_n} a_{\alpha_{n+1}}^\dagger \dots a_{\alpha_{2n}}]]}{\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{F}^\pm} e^{-\beta H}} \quad (2.159)$$

where the time ordering $T[-]$ is considered in the Euclidean time τ , and we consider \mathcal{F}^+ for bosonic fields and \mathcal{F}^- for fermionic fields. The previous formula holds provided that $\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{F}^\pm} e^{-\beta H}$ is finite. The requirement of finite volume makes this assumption more easily satisfied, but obviously this can raise easily problems in the thermodynamic limit.

The time ordering product can be removed by means of a permutation π that puts the imaginary times in chronological order, $\tau_{\pi(i)} > \tau_{\pi(i+1)}$, then using notation

$$\tilde{a}_{\alpha_i}(\tau_i) = \begin{cases} a_{\alpha_i}(\tau_i) & \text{if } i \leq n \\ a_{\alpha_i}^\dagger(\tau_i) & \text{if } i > n \end{cases} \quad (2.160)$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle T[a_{\alpha_1}(\tau_1) \dots a_{\alpha_n} a_{\alpha_{n+1}}^\dagger \dots a_{\alpha_{2n}}] \rangle_\beta &= \\ &= \frac{1}{Z} \epsilon^{\sigma(\pi)} \text{Tr} [e^{-\beta H} \tilde{a}_{\alpha_{\pi(1)}}(\tau_{\pi(1)}) \dots \tilde{a}_{\alpha_{\pi(2n)}}(\tau_{\pi(2n)})] \\ &= \frac{1}{Z} \epsilon^{\sigma(\pi)} \int_{\phi(0)=\pm\phi(\beta)} \mathcal{D}\phi(\tau) \mathcal{D}\phi^*(\tau) e^{-S(\phi^*, \phi)} \tilde{\phi}_{\alpha_{\pi(1)}}(\tau_{\pi(1)}) \dots \tilde{\phi}_{\alpha_{\pi(2n)}}(\tau_{\pi(2n)}) \\ &= \frac{1}{Z} \int_{\phi(0)=\pm\phi(\beta)} \mathcal{D}\phi(\tau) \mathcal{D}\phi^*(\tau) e^{-S(\phi^*, \phi)} \tilde{\phi}_{\alpha_1}(\tau_1) \dots \tilde{\phi}_{\alpha_{2n}}(\tau_{2n}) \end{aligned} \quad (2.161)$$

where in the last step we put the operators in the original order, killing in this way the factor $\epsilon^{\sigma(\pi)}$. We saw in this way that the path integral is very useful to avoid problems related to the time ordering inside the Gell-Mann Low formula.

Relativistic case

Completely analogous formulas hold in the relativistic case, where $S(\phi^*, \phi)$ is replaced by the Euclidean relativistic action. For instance for the massive bosonic field it is given by

$$S(\phi^*, \phi) = \frac{1}{\hbar} \int d^{d+1}x \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi^* + m^2 \phi^* \phi)(x, \tau) \quad (2.162)$$

Chapter 3

The need of a non-perturbative approach

We saw in the previous chapter that all the interesting physical quantities can be computed, both in high-energy physics and in condensed matter physics, using the perturbative approach. In this chapter we'll see why what we said doesn't really work so good, and in some instances we need a non-perturbative approach. We already anticipated some problems in the introduction, now we'll go more in detail.

3.1 The asymptotic series

Divergent quantities

Let's start from the simple example provided by a massive theory with quartic coupling in $d = 0$. Consider the following quantity, which naturally emerges in perturbative computations:

$$\frac{\int dx e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2} e^{-\lambda x^4}}{\int dx e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2}} \quad \text{for } \lambda > 0, \quad \text{Re } \alpha > 0 \quad (3.1)$$

Such quantity is clearly smaller than 1, since the numerator contains the integral of a function which is everywhere smaller than the function in the integral present in the denominator. Nevertheless if one applies the perturbative prescription, the previous quantity is substitute by

$$\frac{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \int dx e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2} (-\lambda x^4)^n}{\int dx e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2}} \quad (3.2)$$

But if one tries to compute explicitly the coefficient of the series

$$\frac{\int dx e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2} (\lambda x^4)^n}{\int dx e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2}} = \lambda^n \frac{(4n)!}{(2n)!} \frac{1}{2^{2n+1}} \frac{1}{\alpha^{2n}} \geq \frac{\lambda^n}{2} \frac{((2n)!)^2}{(2n)!} \frac{1}{(2\alpha)^{2n}} = \frac{\lambda^n}{2} \frac{(2n)!}{(2\alpha)^{2n}} \geq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\lambda}{(2\alpha)^2} \right)^n (n!)^2 \quad (3.3)$$

one gets that the series eq. (3.2) is absolutely divergent

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-\lambda)^n}{n!} \frac{\int dx e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2} x^{4n}}{\int dx e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2}} \right| \geq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\lambda}{(2\alpha)^2} \right)^n n! = +\infty \quad (3.4)$$

Obviously we saw that the perturbative prescription in this case didn't work, but can be proved that the same issue appear also in higher dimension. Such problem is actually more general, indeed all the perturbation series needed to compute the correlator using Gell-Mann Low formula are divergent. Nevertheless it is well known that usually the perturbative approach works (for instance in QED it works very well, and allows to obtain extremely precise predictions) hence we wonder if it is somehow possible to obtain the right expression of the original correlator using the coefficients of the perturbative series. In other words we want to know if, although divergent, could the perturbative series at least determine uniquely the corresponding correlation function.

The asymptotic series

One says that a series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \lambda^n$, $\lambda > 0$, is *asymptotic to a function* $f(\lambda)$ if

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\left| f(\lambda) - \sum_{n=0}^N a_n \lambda^n \right|}{\lambda^N} = 0 \quad \text{for all } N > 0 \quad (3.5)$$

This means that the absolute difference between $f(\lambda)$ and the truncated series at order N is $O(\lambda^{N+1})$ so that for $\lambda \ll 1$ small enough we can make the difference as mild as we prefer.

Apparently with the increase of the order of perturbation the truncated series approximate better and better $f(\lambda)$. This naive idea is obviously wrong, due to the fact that increasing the perturbation order one should also decrease the value of λ . Indeed if one fixes the value of λ and increases the perturbation order N , the absolute difference between $f(\lambda)$ and the truncated series initially decreases, but eventually it reaches its minimum and starts to increase again, diverging as $N \rightarrow \infty$. At higher perturbative orders one should take values of λ smaller and smaller to make the correction negligible. The fact that we can take $\lambda \ll 1$ to make the difference negligible doesn't solve our problem, since in physical applications the role of λ is done by \hbar , and decreasing its value below its physical value is meaningless.

Non-analytical contributions

The second problem is that any series asymptotic to a function is also asymptotic to infinitely many distinguished functions. For instance, if a series is asymptotic to some $f(\lambda)$ it is also asymptotic to $f(\lambda) + e^{-\frac{1}{\lambda\alpha}}$, since

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{\lambda\alpha}}}{\lambda^N} = 0 \quad \text{for any } N \in \mathbb{N} \quad \text{and } a > 0 \quad (3.6)$$

This is due to the fact that the series expansion of $e^{-\frac{1}{\lambda\alpha}}$ for $\lambda \ll 1$ has all the coefficients equal to zero. Unfortunately terms in the form $e^{-\frac{1}{\lambda\alpha}}$ are exactly the contributions that arises if there are non-trivial topological configurations of the fields in the correlation function.

This makes completely impossible any unique reconstruction of the original function starting from its asymptotic series, since in any case the reconstructed function would be defined up to non-analytical terms which didn't appear in its asymptotic series.

Is the perturbative series asymptotic to the correlation function?

Even if it's impossible to reconstruct the correlator from its asymptotic series, at least it has been shown that in many QFT where the ultraviolet renormalization does not involve coupling constants (the so called *super-renormalizable theories*) the renormalized perturbation series is asymptotic to the non-perturbative defined correlation function (e.g. QED for $d < 3 + 1$ and ϕ^4 in $d < 3 + 1$).

Nevertheless if our theory is *renormalizable* (hence not super-renormalizable) in the only case we have almost completely rigorous control of the RQFT, i.e. ϕ^4 in $d = 3 + 1$, it has been proved that the renormalized perturbation series is not asymptotic to the non-perturbative correlator. Even if we don't have a rigorous proof, this seems the case also for QED in $d = 3 + 1$.

Borel resummation

In some cases, called *Borel resummable theories*, even if the perturbative series is divergent it is possible to resum it via *Borel resummation* obtaining a finite result.

The idea is to introduce the identity

$$1 = \frac{1}{n!} \int_0^\infty x^n e^{-x} dx \quad (3.7)$$

inside the perturbative series

$$\sum_{n=0}^\infty a_n \lambda^n = \int_0^\infty \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{a_n}{n!} (x\lambda)^n e^{-x} dx \quad (3.8)$$

In some instances, the introduction of the factor $\frac{1}{n!}$ inside the perturbative coefficients makes the new series converge: $\sum_n \frac{1}{n!} a_n (x\lambda)^n$ might converge even if $\sum_n a_n \lambda^n$ does not. If the new coefficients are smooth enough to make the integral, we are then able to obtain the resummed series.

The first problem is that the resummed series is still not sensible to non-analytical terms (they cannot be reconstructed just resumming the analytical contributions), moreover a-posteriori one has to check that the resummed series is asymptotic to the non-perturbative result (up to non-analytical terms), since the right convergence is not ensured in general.

Resurgence

We just mention that there is a very recent technique called *resurgence* which applies to Quantum Mechanics and allows to obtain non-perturbative results just using perturbative techniques. It is still unknown whether such technique can be implemented or not also in QFT.

3.2 The Källen-Lehmann representation and the Lehmann representation

[GR96, Section 9.3]

The second problem of the perturbative approach is related to the limit $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ of the IR cutoff of the relation

$$U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t) \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{x}, t) U_\varepsilon^I(t) = \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t) \quad (3.9)$$

Indeed the limit $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ should be taken in a way compatible with physical properties of the interacting theory, in particular translational invariance and, in high energy physics, the Poincaré invariance.

In order to exploit the problem we first need to introduce the spectral representation of the Green functions (the same we introduced for Matsubara and retarded correlators, but from a more general and deep point of view).

Källen-Lehmann representation (relativistic case)

If \mathcal{H} is the Hilbert space of the interacting theory, in order to have translational and Poincaré invariance, some properties have to be satisfied: in particular we need in \mathcal{H}

- (1) A unitary representation of the covering of the restricted Poincaré group $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_+^\uparrow$. Let's denote by \hat{P}^μ the corresponding generators of space-time translations.
- (2) A vacuum vector $|0\rangle$ invariant under the representation $U(a)$, $a \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$, of spacetime translations ($d = 3$) (due to homogeneity of spacetime).
- (3) The spectrum of \hat{P}^μ is contained in the forward light cone, $\sigma(\hat{P}^\mu) \subseteq V_0^+$.
- (4) The operator $\hat{\phi}$ should transform with an irreducible representation of $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_+^\uparrow$ under $U(a)$. In particular assuming that $\hat{\phi}$ is scalar we have

$$U(a) \hat{\phi}(x) U(a)^\dagger = \hat{\phi}(x - a) \quad (3.10)$$

From (1) we get that exists a Dirac completeness $|\alpha\rangle$ of (generalized) eigenvectors of \hat{P}^μ with eigenvalues p_α (for simplicity we write $\sum_\alpha |\alpha\rangle\langle\alpha| = \mathbb{1}$ also if \hat{P}^μ has continuum spectrum). Consider the 2-points function of a scalar RQFT

$$\begin{aligned}\langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(x) \hat{\phi}(y) | 0 \rangle &= \sum_\alpha \langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(x) | \alpha \rangle \langle \alpha | \hat{\phi}(y) | 0 \rangle \stackrel{(4)}{=} \sum_\alpha \langle 0 | U(x) \hat{\phi}(0) U^\dagger(x) | \alpha \rangle \langle \alpha | U(y) \hat{\phi}(0) U^\dagger(y) | 0 \rangle \\ &= \sum_\alpha e^{-ip_\alpha(x-y)} |\langle \alpha | \hat{\phi}(0) | 0 \rangle|^2 \stackrel{d=3}{=} \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} \rho_+(q) e^{-iq(x-y)}\end{aligned}\quad (3.11)$$

where in the last step we used the identity $1 = \int dq \delta(q - p_\alpha)$ and we defined the Fourier transform (up to a factor 2π) of the 2-point function

$$\rho_+(q) = (2\pi)^3 \sum_\alpha \delta(q - p_\alpha) |\langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(0) | \alpha \rangle|^2 \quad (3.12)$$

which has some interesting properties:

- (a) $\rho_+(q) \geq 0$;
- (b) $\rho_+(q) = 0$ if $q \notin \overline{V}_0^+$, thanks to (3), the bar over the forward light cone indicate its closure;
- (c) $\rho_+(\Lambda q) = \rho_+(q)$, for $\Lambda \in L_+^\uparrow$, thanks to (4).

Therefore from all these conditions we get that the most general form for ρ_+ is

$$\rho_+(q) = \sigma(q^2) \theta(q^0) + c \delta(q) \quad \text{with} \quad \sigma(q^2) = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad q^2 < 0 \quad \text{and} \quad c \text{ constant} \quad (3.13)$$

The delta function is introduced to compensate the ambiguity due to the sign of q^0 in $\theta(q^0)$ when $q^0 = 0$. Notice that property (a), $\rho_+(q) \geq 0$, implies that $\sigma(q^2)$ is a semi-definite positive function, i.e. $\sigma(q^2) \geq 0$ for any value of $q \in \overline{V}_0^+$.

Let's introduce the *spectral function*^I

$$\rho(q) = \rho_+(q) - \rho_+(-q) \quad (3.15)$$

which due to eq. (3.11) is the Fourier transform (up to a factor 2π) of $\langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}(x), \hat{\phi}(y)] | 0 \rangle$: using eq. (3.11) we get

$$\begin{aligned}\langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}(x), \hat{\phi}(y)] | 0 \rangle &= \langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(x) \hat{\phi}(y) | 0 \rangle - \langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(y) \hat{\phi}(x) | 0 \rangle \\ &= \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} \rho_+(q) e^{-iq(x-y)} - \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} \rho_+(q) e^{-iq(y-x)} \\ &= \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} \rho_+(q) e^{-iq(x-y)} - \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} \rho_+(-q) e^{-iq(x-y)} \\ &= \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} \rho(q) e^{-iq(x-y)}\end{aligned}\quad (3.16)$$

Using expression eq. (3.13) we get

$$\rho(q) = \rho_+(q) - \rho_+(-q) = \sigma(q^2) \theta(q^0) + c \delta(q) - \sigma(q^2) \theta(-q^0) - c \delta(-q) = \text{sign}(q^0) \sigma(q^2) \quad (3.17)$$

If $\hat{\phi}$ obeys the CCR $[\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t), \dot{\hat{\phi}}(\mathbf{y}, t)] = i\delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$ then ρ satisfies the *sum rule*

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dq^0 q^0 \rho(q) = 1 \quad (3.18)$$

^INotice that sometimes $\rho(q)$ is defined with an additional factor 2π in such a way that it is exactly the Fourier transform of $\langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}(x), \hat{\phi}(y)] | 0 \rangle$. In some other cases it is defined (equivalently to eq. (3.14)) as 2 times the imaginary part of the retarded correlator, using the relations

$$\mathcal{F}(-i\theta(t))(\omega) = \frac{1}{\omega + i\delta} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Im} \frac{1}{\omega + i\delta} = \pi \delta(\omega) \quad (3.14)$$

where $\omega = q_0$.

Indeed consider the identity

$$\begin{aligned}
\int \frac{d^3 q}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\mathbf{q} \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})} &= \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = -i \langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t), \dot{\hat{\phi}}(\mathbf{y}, t)] | 0 \rangle = -i \partial_{y^0} \langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}), \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{y})] | 0 \rangle \Big|_{\substack{x_0=t \\ y_0=t}} = \\
&= -i \partial_{y^0} \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} \rho(q) e^{-iq(x-y)} \Big|_{\substack{x_0=t \\ y_0=t}} = \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} q^0 \rho(q) e^{-iq(x-y)} \Big|_{\substack{x_0=t \\ y_0=t}} = \\
&= \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} q^0 \rho(q) e^{i\mathbf{q} \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})}
\end{aligned} \tag{3.19}$$

then comparing the left and the right side of the previous identity one gets exactly eq. (3.18). Moreover using eq. (3.17) one can rewrite

$$1 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dq^0 q^0 \rho(q) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dq^0 |q^0| \sigma(q^2) = 2 \int_0^{+\infty} dq^0 q^0 \sigma(q^2) = \int_0^{+\infty} dm^2 \sigma(m^2) \tag{3.20}$$

where using $m^2 = q^2 = (q^0)^2 - \mathbf{q}^2$ and the fact that in our integration \mathbf{q} is fixed, we applied the change of variable $q^0 \mapsto m^2$, $2q^0 dq^0 \mapsto dm^2$.

Recalling that $\sigma(q^2) \geq 0$, we have that $q^0 \rho(q) = |q^0| \sigma(q^2) \geq 0$ too, hence using eq. (3.18) and eq. (3.20) we get that both

$$A(\omega, \mathbf{q}) := \omega \rho(\omega, \mathbf{q}) = q^0 \rho(q) \tag{3.21}$$

and $\sigma(m^2)$ are probability densities. In particular can be proved that $\sigma(m^2)$ is the probability density to find the state $\int e^{iqx} \hat{\phi}(x) |0\rangle$ in a state of mass m^2 , while $A(\omega, \mathbf{q})$ is the probability density to find the same state $\int e^{iqx} \hat{\phi}(x) |0\rangle$ in a state of energy ω for fixed value \mathbf{q} .

We just mention that for fermions the same sum rule eq. (3.18) holds equivalently provided that we have the CAR $\{\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t), \dot{\hat{\phi}}(\mathbf{y}, t)\} = i\delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$.

Now, suppose that we do not know if our interacting field satisfies CCR, but we are sure that the associated free theory does. Denoting by $\Delta_+(x - y; m)$ the 2-points function of the free scalar field of mass m , then inserting inside eq. (3.11) the equality $\int_0^{+\infty} dm^2 \delta(q^2 - m^2) = 1$ we get

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle 0 | \phi(x) \phi(y) | 0 \rangle &= \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} \sigma(q^2) \theta(q^0) e^{-iq(x-y)} + |\langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(0) | 0 \rangle|^2 \\
&= \int_0^{+\infty} dm^2 \sigma(m^2) \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^3} \delta(q^2 - m^2) \theta(q^0) e^{-iq(x-y)} + |\langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(0) | 0 \rangle|^2 \\
&= \int_0^{+\infty} dm^2 \sigma(m^2) \Delta_+(x - y; m) + |\langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(0) | 0 \rangle|^2
\end{aligned} \tag{3.22}$$

where $|\langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(0) | 0 \rangle|^2$ is an irrelevant constant which comes from eq. (3.12) when evaluated at $q = 0$ due to the term $\delta(q)$ in eq. (3.13), and can be removed just shifting $\hat{\phi}(x)$. This means that even in the interacting theory we can write the 2-points function as an integral of free 2-points functions of the free fields with varying mass weighted by a suitable measure $dm^2 \sigma(m^2)$. This fact is a purely relativistic effect, and has no analogue for NRQFT, due to Lorentz invariance, and is no more true if we broke Lorentz symmetry. One of the consequences is that, since the 2-point function of the interacting theory can be written in terms of weighted two point functions of free theories, which satisfies CCR, also the interacting theory should satisfy CCR, up to some constant factor c which can be reabsorbed in the field:

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t), \dot{\hat{\phi}}(\mathbf{y}, t)] | 0 \rangle &= \partial_{y^0} \langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}), \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{y})] | 0 \rangle \Big|_{\substack{x_0=t \\ y_0=t}} \\
&= \int_0^{+\infty} dm^2 \sigma(m^2) \partial_{y^0} (\Delta_+(x - y; m) - \Delta_+(y - x; m)) \Big|_{\substack{x_0=t \\ y_0=t}} \\
&= \int_0^{+\infty} dm^2 \sigma(m^2) i\delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = c i\delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})
\end{aligned} \tag{3.23}$$

with $c = \int_0^{+\infty} dm^2 \sigma(m^2)$.

Non sono molto sicuro di quanto scritto qui, l'ho aggiunto per motivare quanto detto a fine capitolo riguardo a RQFT con $Z=0$. Non posso assumere $c=1$ senza richiedere la sum rule, che vale solo se già so che la teoria interagente soddisfa le CCR. Inoltre, se la sum rule non vale, c potrebbe essere divergente per quanto ne so, o uguale a Z .

Representation of correlation functions given by eq. (3.11) and eq. (3.16) are called *Källén-Lehmann representations* since they were firstly derived by these two physicists.^{II} Actually Lehmann applied such representation also to the non-relativistic case, as we now show.

Lehmann representation (non-relativistic case)

Let's see how to generalize the previous representation without assuming Lorentz invariance. In this case in the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} of our theory we need:

- (1') A unitary representation U of spacetime translations (one can also add rotational invariance).
- (2') The field $\hat{\phi}$ should transform under an irreducible representation of transformations under U .^{III} We assume that $\hat{\phi}$ transforms as a scalar.

As in the relativistic case, (1') implies that there exists a Dirac completeness for the generators $\hat{\mathbf{P}}, H$ of $U(a)$ with eigenvalue p_α . Applying the same strategy as in the relativistic case (the symbol \pm in $\langle \bullet \rangle_{\beta \pm}$ indicates whether the operators are bosons or fermions when we compute the average at finite temperature T , while $[\bullet, \bullet]_+$ is the anticommutator and $[\bullet, \bullet]_-$ is the commutator)

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle [\hat{\phi}(x), \hat{\phi}^\dagger(y)]_{\pm} \rangle_{\beta \pm} &= \frac{\text{Tr} \left[e^{-\beta H} [\hat{\phi}(x), \hat{\phi}^\dagger(y)]_{\pm} \right]}{\text{Tr} [e^{-\beta H}]} \\
&= \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{\alpha, \alpha'} (\langle \alpha' | e^{-\beta H} \hat{\phi}(x) | \alpha \rangle \langle \alpha | \hat{\phi}^\dagger(y) | \alpha' \rangle \pm \langle \alpha | e^{-\beta H} \hat{\phi}^\dagger(y) | \alpha' \rangle \langle \alpha' | \hat{\phi}(x) | \alpha \rangle) \\
&= \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{\alpha, \alpha'} (e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_{\alpha'}} \pm e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_\alpha}) e^{i(p_\alpha - p_{\alpha'})(x-y)} |\langle \alpha' | \hat{\phi}(0) | \alpha \rangle|^2 \\
&\stackrel{d=3}{=} \int \frac{d^4 q}{(2\pi)^3} \rho^\pm(q) e^{-q(x-y)}
\end{aligned} \tag{3.24}$$

with *spectral function*

$$\rho^\pm(q) = \frac{(2\pi)^3}{Z} \sum_{\alpha, \alpha'} (e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_{\alpha'}} \pm e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_\alpha}) \delta(q - p_\alpha + p_{\alpha'}) |\langle \alpha' | \hat{\phi}(0) | \alpha \rangle|^2 \tag{3.25}$$

Eq. (3.24) is called *Lehmann representation* of $\langle [\hat{\phi}(x), \hat{\phi}^\dagger(y)]_{\pm} \rangle_{\beta \pm}$.

For fermions, provided that CAR $\{\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t), \hat{\phi}^\dagger(\mathbf{y}, t)\} = i\delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})$ is satisfied^{IV} and $T = 0$, we get that $A(\omega, \mathbf{q}) := \rho^+(q)$ (without q^0 in the non relativistic case) is a probability density, and it describes the probability density to find the state $\int e^{-iqx} \hat{\phi}(x) |0\rangle$ in a state of energy ω .

The constraint $0 \leq Z(\mathbf{q}) \leq 1$

Let's see what these spectral representations have to do with the inconsistency of the perturbation theory as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.

In general in a QFT (relativistic or not) if there is a particle (or a quasi-particle) excitation with dispersion $\omega = \omega(\mathbf{q})$ (in the relativistic case $\omega = \sqrt{m^2 + \mathbf{q}^2}$) (we assume $\langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(0) | 0 \rangle = 0$, otherwise we can shift the field) then in $A(\omega, \mathbf{q})$ there should be a term

$$\begin{aligned}
&Z(\mathbf{q}) \delta(\omega - \omega(\mathbf{q})) \quad \text{in the non-relativistic case} \\
&Z \delta(q^2 - m^2) \theta(q^0) \quad \text{in the relativistic case}
\end{aligned} \tag{3.26}$$

Notice that in the relativistic case there cannot be any dependence on \mathbf{q} in Z due to Lorentz invariance.

^{II}Källén: <https://doi.org/10.5169/2Fseals-112316>, Lehmann: <https://doi.org/10.1007/2Fbf02783624>.

^{III}For lattice theories U is restricted to discrete spatial lattice translations and typically the time lattice translations are represented contractively, i.e. through terms of the form e^{-tH} (continuum variation of the transfer matrix).

^{IV}Notice that in the non-relativistic case there is no time derivative in the CAR.

Suppose that we have only one particle in the system (no other particles excitations), then in the non-relativistic case^V since $A(\omega, \mathbf{q})$ describe the probability density to find the state $\int e^{-iqx} \hat{\phi}(x) |0\rangle$ in a state of energy ω we have that in general

$$A(\omega, \mathbf{q}) = Z(\mathbf{q})\delta(\omega - \omega(\mathbf{q})) + A_{\text{inc}}(\omega, \mathbf{q}) \quad (3.27)$$

where A_{inc} is a regular (differently from δ) “featureless” positive function describing contributions of multi-particle states in the two points function (we still allow our particle to generate some other particles which eventually recombine in the original one due to energy uncertainty, if there are interactions in our theory). These give a (small) non-zero probability to find a particle in an energy state different from $\omega(\mathbf{q})$.

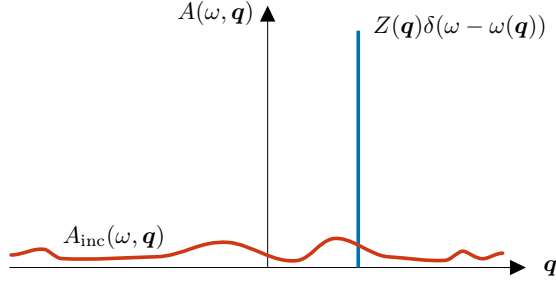


Figure 3.1: One-dimensional pictorially representation of the function $A(\omega, \mathbf{q})$ for a stable particle.

Just notice that since $A(\omega, \mathbf{q})$ has an explicitly physical meaning as probability amplitude, the plot shown in Fig. 3.1 can be obtained directly in experiments, up to uncertainties which turn the δ -function into a smooth but very localized function.

From the sum rule we get

$$1 = \int d\omega A(\omega, \mathbf{q}) = Z(\mathbf{q}) + \underbrace{\int d\omega A_{\text{inc}}(\omega, \mathbf{q})}_{\geq 0} \quad (3.28)$$

which implies

$$0 \leq Z(\mathbf{q}) \leq 1 \quad (3.29)$$

Notice that the case $Z(\mathbf{q}) = 1$ the theory is free, indeed for a free particle $A(\omega, \mathbf{q}) = \delta(\omega - \omega(\mathbf{q}))$. Our problem is that, as we'll see, is very difficult to satisfy $0 \leq Z < 1$ in an interacting situation.

We can weak a little the above requirement of a stable particle excitation: let's see what happen if we do not have a stable particle but a long-life resonance (i.e. a particle with a lifetime large respect to the typical time of the system). The δ -function in eq. (3.26) can be rewritten as

$$\delta(\omega - \omega(\mathbf{q})) \mapsto \frac{1}{\text{Im } \pi} \frac{1}{\omega - \omega(\mathbf{q}) + i\delta} \quad \text{where the limit } \delta \rightarrow 0^+ \text{ is understood} \quad (3.30)$$

and this implies that the retarded correlator has a pole at $\omega = \omega(\mathbf{q}) - i\delta$. Notice that δ essentially correspond to the inverse lifetime τ^{-1} of the particle, hence the limit $\delta \rightarrow 0^+$ correspond to the infinite lifetime of the particle.

A resonance is described through a Lorentzian distribution, by replacing the above pole by a complex pole at $\omega = f(\omega, \mathbf{q})$ where f is a complex function with $\text{Im } f(\omega, \mathbf{q})$ (in such a way that $A(\omega, \mathbf{q}) \geq 0$ is satisfied). Then

$$\text{Im} \frac{1}{\omega - f(\omega, \mathbf{q})} = \frac{-\text{Im } f(\omega, \mathbf{q})}{(\omega - \text{Re } f(\omega, \mathbf{q}))^2 + (\text{Im } f(\omega, \mathbf{q}))^2} \quad (3.31)$$

where $\omega = \text{Re } f(\omega, \mathbf{q})$ describes the dispersion relation of the unstable particle and $\text{Im } f(\omega, \mathbf{q})$ its inverse lifetime.

^VThe relativistic one is obtained imposing $q^2 = m^2$.

Then if we take $\text{Im } f(\omega, \mathbf{q}) \rightarrow 0^-$ then $\text{Im}(\omega - f(\omega, \mathbf{q})^{-1}) \rightarrow \delta(\omega - f(\omega, \mathbf{q}))$ with $\omega(\mathbf{q})$ solution of the equation $\omega - \text{Re } f(\omega, \mathbf{q}) = 0$:

$$\delta(\omega - f(\omega, \mathbf{q})) = \frac{\delta(\omega - \omega(\mathbf{q}))}{\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial \omega}(\omega, \mathbf{q}) \right|_{\omega=\omega(\mathbf{q})}} = Z(\mathbf{q})\delta(\omega - \omega(\mathbf{q})) \quad (3.32)$$

This means that in the case of the resonance we just broaden the δ -function in the spectral function, as shown in fig. 3.2.

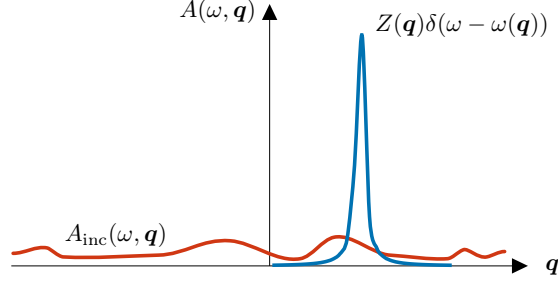


Figure 3.2: One-dimensional pictorially representation of the function $A(\omega, \mathbf{q})$ for a unstable particle. The width of the blue peak is proportional to the inverse lifetime τ^{-1} of the particle.

Again, provided CCR or CAR (depending on the physical situation) we again have the constraint

$$0 \leq Z \leq 1 \quad (3.33)$$

hence the constraint applies even if we consider unstable particles.

3.3 The incompatibility between CCR and U^I

Let's see where the problem with the removal of the cutoff ε arises, first considering the relativistic case. Let's inspect the relation between Z and asymptotic fields. With the introduction of the infrared cutoff ε (at least in t) we got that the free field is related to the interacting field by a unitary operator

$$\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t) = U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t)\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{x}, t)U_\varepsilon^I(t) \quad (3.34)$$

such that

$$\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t) \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow -\infty]{} \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{x}, t) \quad \text{and} \quad U_\varepsilon^I(t) \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow +\infty]{} \mathbb{1} \quad (3.35)$$

Let's see if such unitary relation between free and interacting field is possible preserving translational invariance.

Consider a one particle system, then from eq. (3.27) we can identify $\langle 0 | \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}} \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}} | 0 \rangle$ as responsible for the contribution

$$Z\delta(q^2 - m^2)\theta(q^0) \quad (3.36)$$

in the spectral function $A(q)$ of $\hat{\phi}$. Since we want that $\hat{\phi}$ describe an interacting field we need to assume $Z \neq 1$ (otherwise $\hat{\phi}$ is free), conversely for $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$ we already know that eq. (3.36) is satisfied for $Z = 1$. Therefore it is impossible to satisfy $\hat{\phi} \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow -\infty]{} \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$, one can at best hope to satisfy $\hat{\phi} \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow -\infty]{} Z^{1/2}\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$, i.e.

$$\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t) = Z^{1/2}U_\varepsilon^{I\dagger}(t)\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{x}, t)U_\varepsilon^I(t) \quad (3.37)$$

But if $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$ and $\hat{\phi}$ are canonical, i.e. satisfy CCR, then eq. (3.37) must be wrong, indeed from eq. (3.37) we get

$$[\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, t), \dot{\hat{\phi}}(\mathbf{y}, t)] \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow -\infty]{} Z[\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{x}, t), \dot{\hat{\phi}}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{y}, t)] \quad (3.38)$$

but then using CCR for $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$ and $\hat{\phi}$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) &\stackrel{\text{CCR}}{=} \lim_{x^0 \rightarrow -\infty} \langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, x^0), \dot{\hat{\phi}}(\mathbf{y}, y^0)] | 0 \rangle \big|_{x^0=y^0} = \\ &= Z \lim_{x^0 \rightarrow -\infty} \langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{x}, x^0), \dot{\hat{\phi}}_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{y}, y^0)] | 0 \rangle \big|_{x^0=y^0} \stackrel{\text{CCR}}{=} Z \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) \end{aligned} \quad (3.39)$$

which give $Z = 1$, but this is wrong since we assumed that $\hat{\phi}$ is interacting.

Notice that the above argument about the inconsistency between CCR and eq. (3.37) requires that both x^0 and y^0 are sent to $-\infty$ contemporaneously in eq. (3.38). Conversely it is still possible that $\hat{\phi}$ approaches $Z^{1/2}\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$ as $t \rightarrow -\infty$ in the weak sense $\hat{\phi} \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow -\infty]{} Z^{1/2}\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$, i.e. in matrix elements: taken a sequence A_n of operators the *weak limit*

$$A_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow +\infty]{} A \quad (3.40)$$

means that

$$|\langle \psi, (A_n - A) \phi \rangle| \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow +\infty]{} 0 \quad (3.41)$$

Indeed taken $A_n \rightharpoonup A$ and $B_n \rightharpoonup B$ is not ensured that $A_n B_n \rightharpoonup AB$, therefore $\hat{\phi}(x) \xrightarrow[x^0 \rightarrow -\infty]{} Z^{1/2}\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x)$

and $\dot{\hat{\phi}}(y) \xrightarrow[y^0 \rightarrow -\infty]{} Z^{1/2}\dot{\hat{\phi}}_{\text{in}}(y)$ does not imply $[\hat{\phi}(x), \dot{\hat{\phi}}(y)] \xrightarrow[x^0, y^0 \rightarrow -\infty]{} Z[\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x), \dot{\hat{\phi}}_{\text{in}}(y)]$ and eq. (3.38) does not hold anymore. Therefore we don't have any inconsistency between CCR and eq. (3.37) if $\hat{\phi}(x) \xrightarrow[x^0 \rightarrow -\infty]{} Z^{1/2}\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(x)$.^{VI}

Notice that LSZ formula uses precisely such weak limit for $t \rightarrow -\infty$, so there is no inconsistency with it.^{VII}

The serious problem arises when in perturbative approach is used the Gell-Mann Low formula, which requires the existence of a unitary operator $U^I = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} U_\varepsilon^I$ interpolating between $\hat{\phi}$ and $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$, but if $\hat{\phi}$ obeys CCR and translation invariance is recovered (i.e. we take the limit $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+$) we get from eq. (3.37) that such unitary operator does not exist (in order to get unitarity we should have $Z = 1$, which is forbidden provided that $\hat{\phi}$ is interacting).

3.4 The Haag's theorem

[EF05, Section 3]; [SW00, Section 4.5]; [Str13, Pages 39-40, 95-96]

The important argument from Haag^{VIII} proves that the situation does not improves even if we do not require $\hat{\phi}$ to be canonical. Except very special non-relativistic cases, the Hilbert space of the free field is disjoint from the Hilbert space of the interacting field (i.e. don't exist any unitary operator which maps the states of one Hilbert spaces into the states of the other one).

Theorem 3.1 (Haag, [EF05, Page 8]). *Assume that the unique translationally invariant state of an interacting scalar QFT with Hilbert space \mathcal{H} and field $\hat{\phi} \in \mathcal{H}$ is the vacuum $|0\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ ^{IX} (for lattice theories only discrete translations are considered). Let $U(\mathbf{x})$, $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, be the unitary representation of translations in \mathcal{H} . Suppose that the Hamiltonian of the theory can be written as $H = H_0 + H_I$, with H_0 free Hamiltonian. Then there is no state $|0_F\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $H_0|0_F\rangle = 0$ i.e. the vacuum of the free theory $|0_F\rangle$ is not an element of \mathcal{H} .*

Proof. By contradiction, assume that the Fock vacuum $|0_F\rangle$ of the free theory with Hamiltonian H_0 is an element of \mathcal{H} . Denote by $a_F(\mathbf{q})$ the annihilation operator of H_0 , then

$$U^\dagger(\mathbf{x}) a_F(\mathbf{q}) U(\mathbf{x}) = e^{i\mathbf{q} \cdot \mathbf{x}} a_F(\mathbf{q}) \quad (3.42)$$

^{VI}More about this fact in [GR96, Section 9.2].

^{VII}The derivation of the LSZ formula for the scalar theory can be found in [GR96, Section 9.4].

^{VIII}Original paper: [Haa55].

^{IX}It is reasonable to assume that the only translationally invariant state should be the vacuum, as the presence of any particle should broke translational invariance. This is ensured if the underlying free theory has a mass gap, i.e. all particles of our theory are massive. In general these assumptions does not hold if the free theory has massless particles. See [EF05, Section 3] for further comments about this fact.

therefore

$$0 = U^\dagger(\mathbf{x})a_F(\mathbf{q})|0_F\rangle = U^\dagger(\mathbf{x})a_F(\mathbf{q})U(\mathbf{x})U^\dagger(\mathbf{x})|0_F\rangle = e^{i\mathbf{q}\cdot\mathbf{x}}a_F(\mathbf{q})U^\dagger(\mathbf{x})|0_F\rangle \quad (3.43)$$

and this means that $U^\dagger(\mathbf{x})|0_F\rangle$ annihilates $U(\mathbf{x})|0_F\rangle$, hence $|0_F\rangle$ is translationally invariant. By uniqueness of the translational invariant state $|0_F\rangle = c|0\rangle$ for some constant c (actually if our states are normalized c is just a phase). Then

$$0 = H|0\rangle = (H_0 + H_I)c|0_F\rangle = cH_I|0_F\rangle \quad (3.44)$$

which give us $H_I|0_F\rangle = 0$ and $H|0_F\rangle = 0$. But the typical Hamiltonians for interacting fields does not annihilate $|0_F\rangle$ (i.e. H “polarizes the vacuum”) since H_I describes interactions of the field with itself.^X Thus, we arrive at a contradiction: it follows from the announced assumptions that $H|0_F\rangle = 0$, but for typical interaction Hamiltonians $H|0_F\rangle \neq 0$. \square

The relative simplicity of this first version of Haag’s theorem is purchased at the expense of generality since it appeals to the fact that typical Hamiltonians for interacting fields do not annihilate $|0_F\rangle$. It was the ambition of the second version of his theorem to dispense with any reference to the particular form of the interacting field Hamiltonian. However, Haag’s attempted proof of such general version was found “inconclusive”. The gap was filled by a pair of theorems presented by Hall and Wightman^{XI}, which together constitutes the so called *Haag-Hall-Weightman (HHW) theorem*, and apply to any pair of neutral scalar field.

Theorem 3.2 (HHW, Part 1, [HW57, Section 3, Thm. 1], [SW00, Thm. 4.14]). *Consider two QFTs with fields $\hat{\phi}_1, \hat{\phi}_2$ and Hilbert spaces $\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2$ and assume that*

- (i) *the Euclidean group \mathbb{E}_d (roto-translations) is represented unitarily by U_1 and U_2 on \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 respectively:*

$$U_j(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})\hat{\phi}_j(\mathbf{x}, t)U_j^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) = \hat{\phi}_j(\mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{a}, t) \quad (3.46)$$

- (ii) *the representation of the fields is irreducible, i.e. if an operator \hat{A} defined in \mathcal{H}_j commutes with all the fields $\{\hat{\phi}_j\} \subset \mathcal{H}_j$ then it is a multiple of the identity, $\hat{A} = c\mathbb{1}$;*

- (iii) *the fields are related at some time t by a unitary transformation $V(t)$*

$$\hat{\phi}_2(\mathbf{x}, t) = V(t)\hat{\phi}_1(\mathbf{x}, t)V^\dagger(t) \quad (3.47)$$

Then

$$U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) = V(t)U_1(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V^\dagger(t) \quad (3.48)$$

Further, if there are unique states $|0_j\rangle$ invariant under \mathbb{E}_d , $U_j(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})|0_j\rangle = |0_j\rangle$, then

$$V(t)|0_1\rangle = c|0_2\rangle \quad \text{with} \quad c \in \mathbb{C} \quad (3.49)$$

In particular if $|0_j\rangle$, $j = 1, 2$ are normalized to 1 then $|c| = 1$.

Notice that this part of the theorem holds also in the non-relativistic case. The operator V is meant to be the unitary operator interpolating between the free and the interacting fields in the Gell-Mann Low formula.

^XAs an illustration, consider the $\hat{\phi}^4$ scalar field in \mathbb{R}^{3+1} with (formal) Hamiltonian

$$H = H_0 + \lambda \int d^3x : \hat{\phi}^4 : - C \quad (3.45)$$

where C is a c -number constant chosen to give to the ground state energy zero, and $:$ indicates the Wick normal product. This H will not annihilate the bare vacuum $|0_F\rangle$ since the factor that follows the coupling constant λ contains a term with a product of four creation operators $\sim (a^\dagger)^4$ (and there is only one term of this form, so it will not be canceled by another term).

^{XI}Original paper: [HW57]

Proof. Consider the operator $U_1^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V^\dagger(t)U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V(t)$, this commutes with all $\hat{\phi}_1 \in \mathcal{H}_1$, indeed:

$$\begin{aligned}
& U_1^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V^\dagger(t)U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V(t)\hat{\phi}_1(\mathbf{x}, t)V^\dagger(t)U_2^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V(t)U_1(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) = \\
& = U_1^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V^\dagger(t)U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})\hat{\phi}_2(\mathbf{x}, t)U_2^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V(t)U_1(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) = \\
& = U_1^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V^\dagger(t)\hat{\phi}_2(\mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{a}, t)V(t)U_1(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) = \\
& = U_1^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})\hat{\phi}_1(\mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{a}, t)U_1(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) = \\
& = U_1^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})U_1(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})\hat{\phi}_1(\mathbf{x}, t)U_1(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})U_1^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) = \\
& = \hat{\phi}_1(\mathbf{x}, t)
\end{aligned} \tag{3.50}$$

which implies

$$U_1^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V^\dagger(t)U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V(t)\hat{\phi}_1(\mathbf{x}, t) = \hat{\phi}_1(\mathbf{x}, t)U_1^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V^\dagger(t)U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V(t) \tag{3.51}$$

Due to the irreducibility of the representation we get that

$$U_1^\dagger(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V^\dagger(t)U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V(t) = \omega(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})\mathbb{1} \tag{3.52}$$

for some complex function $\omega(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})$ which depend on the element $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) \in \mathbb{E}_d$ and then

$$\omega(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})U_1(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) = V^\dagger(t)U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V(t) \tag{3.53}$$

Notice that in order to preserve unitarity we must have $|\omega(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})| = 1$ for all $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) \in \mathbb{E}_d$. By definition $\omega(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})$ provides a continuous one-dimensional representation (on \mathbb{C}) of a non-compact group (\mathbb{E}_d) , and it is a general mathematical result that there is no such a representation appart from the trivial one; then, one may take $\omega(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R}) = 1$. If there are unique states $|0_j\rangle$ invariant under \mathbb{E}_d , $U_j(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})|0_j\rangle = |0_j\rangle$, then from $U_1(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})|0_1\rangle = |0_1\rangle$ one gets using eq. (3.53)

$$V^\dagger(t)U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V(t)|0_1\rangle = |0_1\rangle \tag{3.54}$$

and

$$U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})V(t)|0_1\rangle = V(t)|0_1\rangle \tag{3.55}$$

but the only state in \mathcal{H}_2 invariant under $U_2(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{R})$ is $|0_2\rangle$, therefore we must have

$$V(t)|0_1\rangle = c|0_2\rangle \tag{3.56}$$

for some constant $c \in \mathbb{C}$, which should be a phase, $|c| = 1$, if $|0_1\rangle$ and $|0_2\rangle$ are normalized to 1. \square

Corollary 3.2.1. *In any two theories satisfying the hypothesis of theorem 3.2 the equal time correlation functions of $\hat{\phi}_1$ and $\hat{\phi}_2$ coincides*

$$\langle 0_1 | \hat{\phi}_1(\mathbf{x}_1, t) \dots \hat{\phi}_1(\mathbf{x}_n, t) | 0_1 \rangle = \langle 0_2 | \hat{\phi}_2(\mathbf{x}_1, t) \dots \hat{\phi}_2(\mathbf{x}_n, t) | 0_2 \rangle \tag{3.57}$$

Proof. The statement directly follows from eq. (3.48) and eq. (3.49). \square

In principle an operator V satisfying the hypothesis of Gell-Mann Low formula can still exists, and corollary 3.2.1 still admits different dynamics for $\hat{\phi}_1$ and $\hat{\phi}_2$ since it applies only for equal time correlators. As we consider correlators at different time one should use time evolution operators involving the Hamiltonian, and no useful conclusion can be stated at this point if there is no vacuum polarization. We need one more result, which however works only in the relativistic case:

Theorem 3.3 (HHW, Part 2, [HW57, Section 3, Thm. 2], [SW00, Thm. 4.16]). *Under the hypothesis of theorem 3.2 assume further that the (covering of the) restricted Poincaré group \mathcal{P}_+^\uparrow is represented unitarily by U_1 and U_2 on \mathcal{H}_1 and \mathcal{H}_2 respectively, i.e.*

$$U_j(\Lambda, a)\hat{\phi}_j(x)U_j^\dagger(\Lambda, a) = \hat{\phi}_j(\Lambda x + a) \tag{3.58}$$

Then

$$\langle 0_1 | \hat{\phi}_1(x)\hat{\phi}_1(y) | 0_1 \rangle = \langle 0_2 | \hat{\phi}_2(x)\hat{\phi}_2(y) | 0_2 \rangle \tag{3.59}$$

and if $\hat{\phi}_1$ is a free field of mass $m > 0$, then $\hat{\phi}_2$ is a free field of mass $m > 0$ too.

Proof. The proof is much more involved than the previous one, since requires a preliminary result of R. Jost and B. Schroer, which can be found in [SW00, Thm. 4.15]. We just sketch the argument for the proof: by Poincaré covariance through a boost transformation we can bring any two points in the space-time to equal time, in such a way that corollary 3.2.1 applies. Then the correlator we obtained can be extended to the initial points by analiticity, preserving the value of Z and the position of the pole in the Källen-Lehmann representation. This is enough to prove the statement of the theorem. \square

The immediate consequence of the latter is that, if the hypothesis holds, any interacting theory is actually free. The conclusion that all the fields are free is unacceptable because the intention is to represent an interacting field, therefore at least one of the assumptions of the theorem must be dropped. A n obvious candidate is the assumption that at some t there exists a unitary transformation $V(t)$ relating the fields. Therefore the Heisenberg dynamics of the interacting field do not exists in the Hilbert space of the free field, but requires a different Hilbert space, inequivalent to the free one.

The second part of the HHW theorem applies only to relativistic QFT, nevertheless the unitary operator U^I interpolating between free and interacting fields does not exists also in most of the non-relativistic QFT, except for very special cases. Therefore almost always the perturbative approach is not consistent.

3.5 Ultraviolet singularities and canonical quantization

[Str13, Section 2.4]

It is worth to notice that for a RQFT such that $Z = 0$ (recall that Z is the constant connecting the renormalized and the free field, $\phi \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow -\infty]{} Z^{1/2} \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$, $\hat{\phi}_{\text{ren}} := Z^{-1/2} \hat{\phi} \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow -\infty]{} \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$) then in perturbation theory one usually gets

$$Z = 1 - \lambda \infty \sim \frac{1}{1 + \lambda \infty} = 0 \quad (3.60)$$

where ∞ simply denotes some divergent quantity which has been removed through the renormalization procedure. Then at some fixed time the field itself does not exist as an operator. In order to have a well defined operator, one needs to smear $\hat{\phi}(x)$ not only in space

$$\hat{\phi}(x^0, f) = \int d^3x f(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\phi}(x^0, \mathbf{x}) \quad (3.61)$$

but also in time

$$\hat{\phi}(g) = \int d^4x g(x) \hat{\phi}(x) \quad (3.62)$$

Indeed suppose that $\hat{\phi}$ is the Heisenberg interacting field, and suppose that it is well defined at fixed time x^0 , then according to Källen-Lehmann representation (recall eq. (3.23)) we get

$$\langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}(x^0, \mathbf{x}), \dot{\hat{\phi}}(x^0, \mathbf{y})] | 0 \rangle = i\delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) \quad (3.63)$$

because and interacting 2-points function can be written in terms of free 2-points functions of different masses satisfying CCR. Therefore the “renormalized” field $\hat{\phi}_{\text{ren}} = Z^{-1/2} \hat{\phi}$ which approaches weakly the $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}$ as $t \rightarrow -\infty$, satisfies

$$\langle 0 | [\hat{\phi}_{\text{ren}}(x^0, \mathbf{x}), \dot{\hat{\phi}}_{\text{ren}}(x^0, \mathbf{y})] | 0 \rangle = \frac{i}{Z} \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) \quad (3.64)$$

Clearly if $Z = 0$ this expression is ill-defined, but no assumption has been made except that $\hat{\phi}$ is well defined at fixed time, hence if $Z = 0$ this assumption should be wrong, i.e. the renormalized field cannot be defined at fixed time. A Schrödinger picture requires that we have a definite space at a fixed time, hence we also proved that it is impossible to defined a picture of dynamics using Schrödinger idea if $Z = 0$.

Ho aggiunto questa formula ai paragrafi precedenti, non son sicuro sia giusta, ho qualche dubbio. Altrimenti non saprei come motivare che il campo interagente soddisfa le CCR.

Chapter 4

The reconstruction theory

Beside the literature present at the beginning of each section, have a look at [Kaz99] for this chapter and the following one.

4.1 How to avoid Haag's theorem

[Str13, Section 2.5]

Let's see how to avoid problems raised by Haag theorem. The idea is to start by introducing IR (volume) and UV cutoffs (the IR one is not needed for lattice models) so that the cutoff model describes a system of finite degrees of freedom, such that the interaction picture is still correct, thanks to von Neumann uniqueness theorem, which guarantees that free and interacting fields are unitarily equivalent and defined in the same Hilbert space. Moreover one can also require that free fields (and then also interacting ones due to Källen-Lehmann representation) satisfy CCR (or CAR) since no problem arises in this framework. Consider a $T = 0$ RQFT (the restriction $T = 0$ is not really needed, but simplify the traction) and let $\hat{\phi}_0(\mathbf{x}) := \hat{\phi}(x^0 = 0, \mathbf{x})$ be the $t = 0$ field, then the cutoff field at arbitrary time is given by

$$\hat{\phi}_{\#}^{\Lambda}(x^0, \mathbf{x}) = e^{ix^0 H_{\#}} \hat{\phi}_0(\mathbf{x}) e^{-ix^0 H_{\#}} \quad (4.1)$$

where $\#$ denotes either the free or the interacting theory and Λ denotes the cutoffs. The previous time evolution is ensured by the von Newman theorem, assuming that the free and the interacting fields coincides at the initial time $t = 0$. Let $|0_I^{\Lambda}\rangle$ be the vacuum of the interacting Hamiltonian, which is still in the Fock space of the free field.

We construct the following functions (actually they are distributions, but with abuse of terminology, we call “functions” also these expectation values)

$$W_n^{\Lambda}(x_1, \dots, x_n) := \langle 0_I^{\Lambda} | \hat{\phi}_I^{\Lambda}(x_1) \cdots \hat{\phi}_I^{\Lambda}(x_n) | 0_I^{\Lambda} \rangle \quad (4.2)$$

We stress the fact that since translational invariance (and thus also Poincaré invariance) is broken, Haag's theorem does not apply.

Then we identify the necessary counterterms to be added to the Hamiltonian (or to the Lagrangian if the path integral approach is used) and the field renormalization Z_{Λ} (called *wave-function renormalization constant*) leading to “*renormalized fields*”, for which the correlation functions have a well-defined limit when IR and UV cutoffs are removed from outside¹ of the correlation function, i.e. such that the following limit

$$\lim_{\substack{\Lambda_{UV} \rightarrow \infty \\ \Lambda_{IR} \rightarrow 0}} Z_{\Lambda_{UV}}^{-n} \langle 0_I^{\Lambda} | \hat{\phi}_I^{\Lambda}(x_1) \cdots \hat{\phi}_I^{\Lambda}(x_n) | 0_I^{\Lambda} \rangle \quad (4.3)$$

exists in a suitable space of functions or distributions, e.g. $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^d)$. This is possible since the previous limit is a functions limit, hence much weaker than the operator limit (for the fields) which cannot exist due to Haag's theorem.

¹It is important to notice that the limit should be removed from outside, otherwise Haag's theorem apply and we are stuck.

The crucial fact is that if the limiting functions satisfy certain properties we can reconstruct quantum fields acting in an appropriate Hilbert space, such that their expectation values are precisely the functions we started from. The reconstructed field $\hat{\phi}$ now has no reasons to be equivalent to a free field, nor the Hilbert space of $\hat{\phi}$ has reason to be the same Fock space we started from (actually in general it could even not be a Fock space), hence the reconstruction is not in conflict with Haag's argument.

4.2 Wightman's reconstruction theorem

[SW00, Chapter 3]; [Jos65, Chapter 3]; [Str13, Chapter 3]; [Str93, Sections 1.3-1.4]

As anticipated, provided some properties for the limiting functions

$$W_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) := \lim_{\substack{\Lambda_{UV} \rightarrow \infty \\ \Lambda_{IR} \rightarrow 0}} Z_{\Lambda_{UV}}^{-n} W_n^\Lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n) \quad (4.4)$$

these functions themselves determine states and fields of the interacting theory, avoiding Haag's theorem. In this section we first describe how this reconstruction works for a RQFT at $T = 0$, then we'll sketch how to adapt the formalism to more general situations.

We give the statement and the complete proof of the *reconstruction theorem* for a real scalar field at $T = 0$ for a relativistic theory.

Theorem 4.1 (Wightman's reconstruction theorem, [Wig56], [SW00, Thm. 3.7], [Jos65, Section 3.4, Thm. 1]). *Let $\{W_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$ be a sequence of (tempered) distributions, $W_n \in \mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^{(d+1)n})$ for all $n > 0$, $W_0 := 1$. Suppose that they satisfy the following properties:*

- (1) (Positive Definiteness) *For any finite sequence of N test functions $\underline{f} = (f_0, f_1(x_1), f_2(x_1, x_2), \dots)$, $f_n \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^{(d+1)n})$, then*

$$\sum_{j,k=0}^N \int dx_1 \dots dx_j dy_1 \dots dy_k f_n^*(x_1, \dots, x_j) W_{j+k}(x_1, \dots, x_j, y_1, \dots, y_k) f_k(y_1, \dots, y_k) \geq 0 \quad (4.5)$$

or in more compact notation $(\underline{f}, W \underline{f}) \geq 0$.^{II}

- (2) (Poincaré covariance) *For any $(a, \Lambda) \in \mathcal{P}_+^\uparrow$, $\Lambda \in L_+^\uparrow$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$,*

$$W_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = W_n(\Lambda x_1 + a, \dots, \Lambda x_n + a) \quad (4.6)$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- (3) (Spectral condition) *For each W_n , $n > 0$, exists \widetilde{W}_n such that*

$$W_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \int dp_1 \dots dp_n \widetilde{W}_{n-1}(p_1, \dots, p_{n-1}) e^{i(x_n - x_{n-1})p_{n-1}} \dots e^{i(x_2 - x_1)p_1} \quad (4.7)$$

with $\widetilde{W}_{n-1}(p_1, \dots, p_{n-1}) = 0$ if $p_j \notin \overline{V}^+$ for some j , $1 \leq j \leq n-1$.

- (4) (Local commutativity condition / Symmetry) *If x_i and x_{i+1} are space-like separated for some i , that is $(x_i - x_{i+1})^2 < 0$, then for all $n > i$*

$$W_n(x_1, \dots, x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) = W_n(x_1, \dots, x_{i+1}, x_i, \dots, x_n) \quad (4.8)$$

- (5) (Cluster property) *For any $n \geq 2$, $j < n$,*

$$\lim_{\substack{a \rightarrow \infty \\ a^2 < 0}} W_n(x_1, \dots, x_j, x_{j+1} + a, \dots, x_n + a) = W_j(x_1, \dots, x_j) W_{n-j}(x_{j+1}, \dots, x_n) \quad (4.9)$$

Then exists

^{II}Notice that the proof of this property is not easy, since one should also prove the existence of the limit $W_n^\Lambda \rightarrow W_n$.

La condizione di hermiticità non è necessaria per definire un campo reale?

Qui ho usato la definizione di Streater-Wight e Jost, differente da quella data a lezione, non mi sembra che le due definizioni siano equivalenti (quella data a lezione sembra più forte, visto che la serie diventa infinita).

(1') a separable Hilbert space \mathcal{H} ,

(2') a continuous unitary representation $U(a, \Lambda)$ of $\mathcal{P}_+^{\uparrow \text{III}}$ in \mathcal{H} ,

(3') a state $\Omega \in \mathcal{H}$, translationally invariant, called vacuum,

(4') an operator-valued distribution field $\hat{\phi}(x)$ such that, given a test function f , $\hat{\phi}(f) := \int dx f(x) \hat{\phi}(x)$ is an operator with domain D , D dense in \mathcal{H} and $|\Omega\rangle \in D$, and denoting by $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(f))$ the set of polynomials of $\hat{\phi}(f)^{\text{IV}}$, the subspace of \mathcal{H} generated applying polynomials of the smeared fields to the vacuum, $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(f))|\Omega\rangle$, is dense in \mathcal{H}

and the following properties hold:

(5') the field $\hat{\phi}(x)$ transforms covariantly under \mathcal{P}_+^{\uparrow} :

$$U(a, \Lambda) \hat{\phi}(x) U^\dagger(a, \Lambda) = \hat{\phi}(\Lambda x + a) \quad (4.10)$$

(6') let $\sigma(\hat{P}^\mu)$ be the spectrum of the generator \hat{P}^μ of the subgroup of translations, then $\sigma(\hat{P}^\mu) \subseteq \overline{V}^+$, i.e. $\sigma(\hat{P}^\mu \hat{P}_\mu) \geq 0$ and $\sigma(\hat{P}^0) \geq 0$;

(7') (Locality) fields in space-like separated regions commute

$$[\hat{\phi}(x), \hat{\phi}(y)] = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad (x - y)^2 < 0 \quad (4.11)$$

or more precisely, in terms of smeared fields f, g ,

$$[\hat{\phi}(f), \hat{\phi}(g)] = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad \text{supp } f \times \text{supp } g \quad (4.12)$$

where \times denotes that the two regions are space-like separated,

(8') (Uniqueness of the vacuum) The vector Ω is the unique vector in \mathcal{H} translationally invariant;

(9') for all $n \in \mathbb{N}^{\text{V}}$

$$(\Omega, \hat{\phi}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(x_n) \Omega) = W_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) \quad (4.13)$$

Proof. (sketch)

(1') Consider the vector space $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$ of sequences of test functions $\underline{f} = (f_0, f_1(x_1), f_2(x_1, x_2), \dots)$, $f_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ and $f_k \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^{(d+1)k})$, with finite number of non-vanishing elements. Addition and multiplication by complex scalars are definite by

$$\begin{aligned} (f_0, f_1, \dots) + (g_0, g_1, \dots) &= (f_0 + g_0, f_1 + g_1, \dots) \\ \alpha(f_0, f_1, \dots) &= (\alpha f_0, \alpha f_1, \dots) \end{aligned} \quad (4.14)$$

Next we introduce a scalar product defined on pairs of vectors of the vector space

$$(\underline{f}, \underline{g}) := \sum_{j,k=0}^{\infty} \int dx_1 \dots dx_j dy_1 \dots dy_k f_j^*(x_1, \dots, x_j) W_{j+k}(x_1, \dots, x_j, y_1, \dots, y_k) g_k(y_1, \dots, y_k) \quad (4.15)$$

or using the previous compact notation $(\underline{f}, \underline{g}) := (\underline{f}, W \underline{g})$. Recall $W_0 = 1$ by definition. The linearity in \underline{g} and anti-linearity in \underline{f} are evident from the definition, furthermore from (1) we get that the norm $\|\underline{f}\|^2 = (\underline{f}, \underline{f})$ is semi-definite positive, i.e. $\|\underline{f}\| \geq 0$ for any \underline{f} . Therefore the operation $(-, -)$ is a well defined inner product in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$, but $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$ is not a pre-Hilbert space yet since it may contain vectors of zero norm. In order to get a pre-Hilbert, note that the set

$$\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0 := \{\underline{f} \in \underline{\mathcal{S}} \text{ s.t. } \|\underline{f}\| = 0\} \subseteq \underline{\mathcal{S}} \quad (4.16)$$

^{III}In the case of fields with half-integer spin \mathcal{P}_+^{\uparrow} is replaced by $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_+^{\uparrow}$.

^{IV}It is important to notice that $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(f))$ denotes polynomials of fields smeared (in general) with different test functions, not only one test function f , for instance $\hat{\phi}(f_1) \hat{\phi}(f_2) \dots \hat{\phi}(f_n) \in \mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(f))$.

^VUsually in the axiomatic approach due to Wightman the Dirac notation is avoided, and the scalar product is denoted by $(-, -)$.

Ho cercato di completare la dimostrazione, ora mi sembra completa, non più "abbozzata".

In caso, aggiungere hermiticit  del prodotto scalare, vedi Streater-Wight.

is an isotropic subspace of $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$, that is, a subspace in which each vector is orthogonal to every other vector, indeed

$$|(\underline{f}, \underline{g})| \leq \|\underline{f}\| \|\underline{g}\| = 0 \quad (4.17)$$

by the Schwartz inequality (which is valid as long as the scalar product is non-negative). Thus, if \underline{f} and \underline{g} are of zero norm, then \underline{f} is orthogonal to \underline{g} and $\alpha \underline{f} + \beta \underline{g}$ is of zero norm. We now form equivalence classes of sequences \underline{f} , two sequences being equivalent if they differ by a sequence of zero norm. These equivalence classes form in a natural way a vector space, denoted by $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$, on which the scalar product induced by $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$ is well-defined and positive definite, since $\|[\underline{f}]\| = 0$ implies $[\underline{f}] = [\underline{0}]$. Therefore $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$ is a pre-Hilbert space. A generic element of $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$ is of the form

$$\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0 \ni [\underline{f}] = \{\underline{g} \in \underline{\mathcal{S}} \mid \underline{f} - \underline{g} \in \underline{\mathcal{S}}_0\} \quad (4.18)$$

Then we can finally define the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} by completion^{VI} of $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$ respect to the induced norm:

$$\mathcal{H} := \overline{\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0} \quad (4.19)$$

that is, let \mathfrak{h} be the space of Cauchy sequences $F = \{[\underline{f}_1], [\underline{f}_2], \dots\}$ with scalar product

$$(F, G) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} ([\underline{f}_n], [\underline{g}_n]) \quad (4.20)$$

and \mathfrak{h}_0 its subspace given by vectors of zero norm, then $\mathcal{H} := \mathfrak{h}/\mathfrak{h}_0$. In the following we'll denote by $([\underline{f}_1], [\underline{f}_2], \dots)$ the elements of \mathcal{H} (i.e. as elements of \mathfrak{h}) rather than $[[\underline{f}_1], [\underline{f}_2], \dots]$, we give as understood the fact that we refer to the associated equivalence class.

Being \mathcal{S} separable so is $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$, and since the latter is dense in \mathcal{H} also \mathcal{H} is separable.

(2') We define the linear transformation $U(a, \Lambda)$ in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$ by

$$U(a, \Lambda)(f_0, f_1, f_2, \dots) := (f_0, \{a, \Lambda\}f_1, \{a, \Lambda\}f_2, \dots) \quad (4.21)$$

where

$$\{a, \Lambda\}f_k(x_1, \dots, x_k) := f_k(\Lambda^{-1}(x_1 - a), \dots, \Lambda^{-1}(x_k - a)) \quad (4.22)$$

The operator $U(a, \Lambda)$ leaves the scalar product of $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$ invariant by virtue of (2):

$$\begin{aligned} (U(a, \Lambda)\underline{f}, U(a, \Lambda)\underline{g}) &= \\ &= \sum_{j,k=0}^{\infty} \int dx_1 \dots dx_j dy_1 \dots dy_k f_j^*(\Lambda^{-1}(x_1 - a), \dots, \Lambda^{-1}(x_j - a)) \times \\ &\quad \times W_{j+k}(x_1, \dots, x_j, y_1, \dots, y_k) g_k(\Lambda^{-1}(y_1 - a), \dots, \Lambda^{-1}(y_k - a)) \\ &= \sum_{j,k=0}^{\infty} \int dx_1 \dots dx_j dy_1 \dots dy_k f_j^*(x_1, \dots, x_j) W_{j+k}(\Lambda x_1 + a, \dots, \Lambda y_k + a) g_k(y_1, \dots, y_k) \\ &\stackrel{(2)}{=} \sum_{j,k=0}^{\infty} \int dx_1 \dots dx_j dy_1 \dots dy_k f_j^*(x_1, \dots, x_j) W_{j+k}(x_1, \dots, x_j, y_1, \dots, y_k) g_k(y_1, \dots, y_k) \\ &= (\underline{f}, \underline{g}) \end{aligned} \quad (4.23)$$

thus $U(a, \Lambda)$ leaves invariant also $\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$, since $\|\underline{f}\| = 0$ implies $\|U(a, \Lambda)\underline{f}\| = 0$. We have to check that $U(a, \Lambda)$ is actually a mapping of equivalence classes in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$. But due to the invariance of the scalar product if $[\underline{f}] = [\underline{g}]$ then $[U(a, \Lambda)\underline{f}] = [U(a, \Lambda)\underline{g}]$, hence $U(a, \Lambda)$ is well defined also in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$. Being bounded it extends by continuity to \mathcal{H} , preserving the scalar product in \mathcal{H} . Recall that by Wigner's theorem linear operators that preserves the scalar products in a Hilbert space are unitary, then $U(a, \Lambda)$ is a unitary representation of \mathcal{P}_+^\uparrow on \mathcal{H} .

(3') Notice that

$$U(a, \Lambda)(1, 0, \dots, 0, \dots) = (1, 0, \dots, 0, \dots) =: \underline{1} \quad (4.24)$$

^{VI}The completion procedure is described in [SW00, Pages 121-122].

Onestamente non mi ricordo bene questa parte sugli spazi di Hilbert, spero di non aver scritto scorrettezze.

hence $\underline{1} \in \underline{\mathcal{S}}$ is translational invariant in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$ and the same holds for $[\underline{1}]$ in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$. Finally, the vacuum in \mathcal{H} is given by the Cauchy sequence $\Omega := (\underline{1}, [\underline{1}], \dots)$.

(4') We introduce in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$ a linear operator $\hat{\phi}(h)$ for each test function $h \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^{d+1})$ by the equation

$$\hat{\phi}(h)\underline{f} := (0, hf_0, h \otimes f_1, h \otimes f_2, \dots) \quad (4.25)$$

or in compact notation $\hat{\phi}(h)\underline{f} := h \times \underline{f}$, where

$$(h \otimes f_k)(x_1, \dots, x_{k+1}) := h(x_1)f_k(x_2, x_3, \dots, x_{k+1}) \quad (4.26)$$

is clearly a test function. As functionals of h the matrix elements $(\underline{f}, \hat{\phi}(h)\underline{g})$ are tempered distributions since they are finite sums of W 's, and further

$$(\underline{f}, \hat{\phi}(h)\underline{g}) = (\hat{\phi}(h^*)\underline{f}, \underline{g}) \quad (4.27)$$

We have to check that $\hat{\phi}(h)$ is a mapping of equivalence classes in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$. That $\|\underline{f}\| = 0$ implies $\|\hat{\phi}(h)\underline{f}\| = 0$ follows from previous definition and Schwartz inequality:

$$(\hat{\phi}(h)\underline{f}, \hat{\phi}(h)\underline{f}) = (\underline{f}, \hat{\phi}(h^*)\hat{\phi}(h)\underline{f}) \leq \|\underline{f}\| \|\hat{\phi}(h^*)\hat{\phi}(h)\underline{f}\| = 0 \quad (4.28)$$

if $\|\underline{f}\| = 0$. Therefore $\hat{\phi}(h)$ is well-defined also in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$, $\hat{\phi}(h)[\underline{f}] := [\hat{\phi}(h)\underline{f}]$. For each $[\underline{f}] \in \underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$, $\hat{\phi}(h)$ is well-defined also for the associated vectors in \mathcal{H} , $\hat{\phi}(h)([\underline{f}], [\underline{f}], \dots) := (\hat{\phi}(h)[\underline{f}], \hat{\phi}(h)[\underline{f}], \dots)$, hence $\hat{\phi}$ is defined in a dense subset D of \mathcal{H} , $D \cong \underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$. In particular, being $|\Omega\rangle = ([\underline{1}], [\underline{1}], \dots) \in D$, this defines $\hat{\phi}(h)$ on $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(h))|\Omega\rangle$. Notice that

$$\hat{\phi}(h_1) \cdots \hat{\phi}(h_n)\underline{1} = \hat{\phi}(h_1) \cdots \hat{\phi}(h_{n-1})(0, h_n, 0, 0, \dots) = \underbrace{(0, \dots, 0)}_n, h_1 \otimes h_2 \otimes \dots \otimes h_n, 0, 0, \dots \quad (4.29)$$

hence $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(h))\underline{1} \cong \underline{\mathcal{S}}$ and then $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(h))|\Omega\rangle \cong D$ is dense in \mathcal{H} .

(9') Notice that the vacuum expectation value in \mathcal{H} reads

$$\begin{aligned} (\Omega, \hat{\phi}(h_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(h_n)\Omega) &= ([\underline{1}], \hat{\phi}(h_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(h_n)[\underline{1}]) && \text{scalar product in } \underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0 \\ &= (\underline{1}, \hat{\phi}(h_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(h_n)\underline{1}) && \text{scalar product in } \underline{\mathcal{S}} \\ &= \int dx_1 \dots dx_n W_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) h_1(x_1) \dots h_n(x_n) \\ &= W_n(h_1, \dots, h_n) \end{aligned} \quad (4.30)$$

where in the first step we computed the scalar product in \mathcal{H} using eq. (4.20), in the second step we chosed the representative $\underline{1}$ for the equivalence class $[\underline{1}]$ and then we computed the scalar product in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$ according to the definition eq. (4.15) using eq. (4.29) to compute $\hat{\phi}(h_1) \cdots \hat{\phi}(h_n)\underline{1}$. Then we noted that the result we obtained coincide with the smearing of the Wightman function. Finally eq. (4.13) follows immediately from $\langle \Omega | \hat{\phi}(h_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(h_n) | \Omega \rangle = W_n(h_1, \dots, h_n)$.

(5') That $\hat{\phi}(h)$ satisfies the transformation law

$$U(a, \Lambda)\hat{\phi}(h)U^\dagger(a, \Lambda) = \hat{\phi}(\{a, \Lambda\}h) \quad (4.31)$$

can be easily proved in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$:

$$\begin{aligned} U(a, \Lambda)\hat{\phi}(h)(f_0, f_1, \dots) &= U(a, \Lambda)(0, hf_0, h \otimes f_1, \dots) \\ &= (0, \{a, \Lambda\}hf_0, \{a, \Lambda\}h \otimes \{a, \Lambda\}f_1, \dots) \\ &= \hat{\phi}(\{a, \Lambda\}h)U(a, \Lambda)(f_0, f_1, \dots) \end{aligned} \quad (4.32)$$

then since the previous computation holds for each $\underline{f} \in \underline{\mathcal{S}}$ and both $\hat{\phi}(h)$ and $U(a, \Lambda)$ are mapping of equivalence classes then

$$U(a, \Lambda)\hat{\phi}(h)[\underline{f}] = \hat{\phi}(\{a, \Lambda\}h)U(a, \Lambda)[\underline{f}] \quad (4.33)$$

and finally we can extend it by continuity to \mathcal{H} , since $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$ is dense in it:

$$U(a, \Lambda)\hat{\phi}(h)([\underline{f}_1], [\underline{f}_2], \dots) = \hat{\phi}(\{a, \Lambda\}h)U(a, \Lambda)([\underline{f}_1], [\underline{f}_2], \dots) \quad (4.34)$$

Since this holds for any element of \mathcal{H} we get

$$U(a, \Lambda)\hat{\phi}(h) = \hat{\phi}(\{a, \Lambda\}h)U(a, \Lambda) \Rightarrow \hat{\phi}(\{a, \Lambda\}h) = U(a, \Lambda)\hat{\phi}(h)U^{-1}(a, \Lambda) \quad (4.35)$$

and we are done, since “unsmeared” the fields we get

$$\int dx h(\Lambda^{-1}(x - a))\hat{\phi}(x) = U(a, \Lambda) \int dx h(x)\hat{\phi}(x)U^{-1}(a, \Lambda) \quad (4.36)$$

and by a change of variable on the r.h.s.:

$$\int dx h(x)\hat{\phi}(\Lambda x + a) = \int dx h(x)U(a, \Lambda)\hat{\phi}(x)U^{-1}(a, \Lambda) \quad (4.37)$$

(6') Consider the unitary group of translations $\{U(a)\} := \{U(a, \mathbb{1})\}$. Stone's theorem^{VII} apply to such operators (the group can be decomposed in $(d + 1)$ one-parameter unitary groups), then exists a unique operator $\hat{P} : D_P \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$, self-adjoint in the dense domain D_P , such that $U(a) = e^{ia\hat{P}}$ for any $a \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. Moreover thanks to (5') we have

$$\hat{\phi}(x) = e^{ix\hat{P}}\hat{\phi}(0)e^{-ix\hat{P}} \quad (4.38)$$

Then, using (9') together with (3') we have

$$\begin{aligned} W_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \\ &= \langle \Omega | \hat{\phi}(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}(x_n) | \Omega \rangle \\ &= \langle \Omega | \hat{\phi}(0)e^{i\hat{P}(x_2-x_1)}\hat{\phi}(0) \dots \hat{\phi}(0)e^{i\hat{P}(x_n-x_{n-1})}\hat{\phi}(0) | \Omega \rangle \\ &= \int dp_1 \dots dp_{n-1} \langle \Omega | \hat{\phi}(0)e^{i\hat{P}(x_2-x_1)} | p_1 \rangle \langle p_1 | \hat{\phi}(0) \dots \hat{\phi}(0)e^{i\hat{P}(x_n-x_{n-1})} | p_{n-1} \rangle \langle p_{n-1} | \hat{\phi}(0) | \Omega \rangle \\ &= \int dp_1 \dots dp_{n-1} e^{ip_1(x_2-x_1)} \dots e^{ip_{n-1}(x_n-x_{n-1})} \langle \Omega | \hat{\phi}(0) | p_1 \rangle \langle p_1 | \hat{\phi}(0) | p_2 \rangle \dots \langle p_{n-1} | \hat{\phi}(0) | \Omega \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (4.39)$$

Comparing this expression with eq. (4.7) we get

$$\widetilde{W}_{n-1}(p_1, \dots, p_{n-1}) = \langle \Omega | \hat{\phi}(0) | p_1 \rangle \langle p_1 | \hat{\phi}(0) | p_2 \rangle \dots \langle p_{n-1} | \hat{\phi}(0) | \Omega \rangle \quad (4.40)$$

Then the claim follows using property (3). Indeed, take $p_2 \notin \overline{V}^+$ and $n = 4$, then from (3) we get

$$\widetilde{W}_3(p_1, p_2, p_3) = \langle \Omega | \hat{\phi}(0) | p_1 \rangle \langle p_1 | \hat{\phi}(0) | p_2 \rangle \langle p_2 | \hat{\phi}(0) | p_3 \rangle \langle p_3 | \hat{\phi}(0) | \Omega \rangle = 0 \quad \text{for all } p_1, p_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \quad (4.41)$$

This is possible only if

$$\langle p | \hat{\phi}(0) | p_2 \rangle = 0 \quad \text{for all } p \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \Leftrightarrow \hat{\phi}(0) | p_2 \rangle = 0 \stackrel{(4.38)}{\Leftrightarrow} \hat{\phi}(x) | p_2 \rangle = 0 \quad (4.42)$$

Hence for each $p \notin \overline{V}^+$ we have $\hat{\phi}(x) | p \rangle = 0$. Applying \hat{P} to any element of $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(x)) | \Omega \rangle$ we get then

$$\hat{P}(\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(x)) | \Omega \rangle) = \int dp | p \rangle \langle p | (\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(x)) | \Omega \rangle) = \int_{\overline{V}^+} dp | p \rangle \langle p | (\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(x)) | \Omega \rangle) \quad (4.43)$$

which give the following spectral representation of \hat{P}

$$\hat{P} = \int_{\overline{V}^+} dp | p \rangle \langle p | \quad \text{in } \mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(x)) | \Omega \rangle \quad (4.44)$$

Mi sembra che l'argomentazione data a lezione non fosse sufficiente a dimostrare questo punto del teorema. Da qui in poi la dimostrazione l'ho fatta di sana pianta, quindi potrebbe essere molto sbagliata (spero di no).

but since $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(x))|\Omega\rangle$ is dense in \mathcal{H} the previous spectral representation for \hat{P} holds in the whole \mathcal{H} (actually, in $D_P \subseteq \mathcal{H}$). The claim follows immediately.

(7') Take $f, g \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^{d+1})$ space-like separated, that is $\text{supp } f \times \text{supp } g$, and $\{h_i\}_{i=0}^\infty$. Then from (4) we know that, for each value of n ,

$$W_{n+2}(f, g, h_1, \dots, h_n) = W_{n+2}(g, f, h_1, \dots, h_n) \quad (4.45)$$

and (9') tells us that

$$(\Omega, \hat{\phi}(f)\hat{\phi}(g)\hat{\phi}(h_1)\dots\hat{\phi}(h_n)\Omega) = (\Omega, \hat{\phi}(g)\hat{\phi}(f)\hat{\phi}(h_1)\dots\hat{\phi}(h_n)\Omega) \quad (4.46)$$

Then, by linearity

$$(\Omega, [\hat{\phi}(f), \hat{\phi}(g)]\hat{\phi}(h_1)\dots\hat{\phi}(h_n)\Omega) = 0 \quad (4.47)$$

An analogous procedure together with eq. (4.27) lead us also to

$$([\hat{\phi}(f), \hat{\phi}(g)]\hat{\phi}(h_1)\dots\hat{\phi}(h_n)\Omega, [\hat{\phi}(f), \hat{\phi}(g)]\hat{\phi}(h_1)\dots\hat{\phi}(h_n)\Omega) = \|[\hat{\phi}(f), \hat{\phi}(g)]\hat{\phi}(h_1)\dots\hat{\phi}(h_n)\Omega\|^2 = 0 \quad (4.48)$$

Since the scalar product is non-degenerate, this implies that $[\hat{\phi}(f), \hat{\phi}(g)]\hat{\phi}(h_1)\dots\hat{\phi}(h_n)\Omega = 0$ is the zero vector in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$. The only way to satisfy this for any choice of n and any set of smearing test functions $\{h_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ is that in $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(h))\Omega$ we have

$$[\hat{\phi}(f), \hat{\phi}(g)] = 0 \quad (4.49)$$

meaning that the operator $[\hat{\phi}(f), \hat{\phi}(g)]$ maps all the elements of $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(h))\Omega$ into the zero vector. But then the claim extends to the whole Hilbert space \mathcal{H} due to the denseness of $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(h))\Omega$.

(8') Assume that, beside $\Omega = ([\underline{1}], [\underline{1}], \dots)$ there is another translationally invariant state Ω' . Without loss of generality we can orthonormalize Ω' respect to Ω , i.e. we take $(\Omega', \Omega) = 0$ and $(\Omega', \Omega') = 1$. If $\Omega' \in \underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$, $\Omega = [\underline{f}]$, then we would have an immediate contradiction because,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= (\Omega', \Omega') \stackrel{(a)}{=} \lim_{\substack{a \rightarrow \infty \\ a^2 < 0}} (\Omega', U(a)\Omega') = \lim_{\substack{a \rightarrow \infty \\ a^2 < 0}} ((f_0, f_1, \dots), (f_0, \{a, \underline{1}\}f_1, \{a, \underline{1}\}f_2, \dots)) \\ &\stackrel{(4.15)}{=} \lim_{\substack{a \rightarrow \infty \\ a^2 < 0}} \sum_{j,k=0}^{\infty} \int dx_1 \dots dx_j dy_1 \dots dy_k f_j^*(x_1, \dots, x_j) W_{j+k}(x_1, \dots, x_j, y_1, \dots, y_k) f_k(y_1 - a, \dots, y_k - a) \\ &= \lim_{\substack{a \rightarrow \infty \\ a^2 < 0}} \sum_{j,k=0}^{\infty} \int dx_1 \dots dx_j dy_1 \dots dy_k f_j^*(x_1, \dots, x_j) W_{j+k}(x_1, \dots, x_j, y_1 + a, \dots, y_k + a) f_k(y_1, \dots, y_k) \\ &\stackrel{(5)}{=} \sum_{j,k=0}^{\infty} \int dx_1 \dots dx_j dy_1 \dots dy_k f_j^*(x_1, \dots, x_j) W_j(x_1, \dots, x_j) W_k(y_1, \dots, y_k) f_k(y_1, \dots, y_k) \\ &= \left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \int dx_1 \dots dx_j f_j^*(x_1, \dots, x_j) W_j(x_1, \dots, x_j) \right) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int dy_1 \dots dy_k W_k(y_1, \dots, y_k) f_k(y_1, \dots, y_k) \right) \\ &= (\Omega', \Omega)(\Omega, \Omega') = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (4.50)$$

where in (a) we used the translational invariance of Ω' . In general Ω' is not an element of $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$, but because the latter is dense then Ω' can be approximated by elements of $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$ by arbitrary accuracy, then the contradiction easily extends for $\Omega' \in \mathcal{H}$, see [SW00, Page 124] for the details. \square

The most important consequence of the theorem is that in order to exhibit a relativistic quantum field theory model, it is enough to give a set of Wightman functions satisfying properties (1)-(5). As we'll discuss in the next section, these properties provide a non-perturbative substitute for canonical quantization, since allow to construct a quantum field theory without use the canonical quantization procedure and CCR (or CAR) which are inconsistent in the interacting case due to Haag's theorem.

^{VII}<https://doi.org/10.2307/2F1968538>

Anche qui ho cercato di completare la dimostrazione, mi faccia sapere se è giusta o devo correggerla.

Properties (1') - (8') are called *Wightman axioms*^{VIII}, and define axiomatically a RQFT at $T = 0$ for a real scalar field. Provided appropriated versions of properties (1)-(5), more general forms of the reconstruction theorem allow to reconstruct also theories with complex fields and more general spins, satisfying appropriate Wightman axioms.

Notice that property (9') tells us that the vacuum expectation values of the reconstructed theory are exactly the Wightman function we started from.

Conversely, the vacuum expectation values of any theory satisfying Wightman axioms satisfy themselves the properties required in the reconstruction theorem.^{IX} In particular, if $\hat{\phi}_F$ is a free theory defined in a Fock space, then the vacuum expectation values $\langle 0 | \hat{\phi}_F(x_1) \dots \hat{\phi}_F(x_n) | 0 \rangle$ satisfy properties (1)-(5) and the reconstructed theory coincide with the initial one, $\hat{\phi}_{\text{rec}} = \hat{\phi}_F$. On the other side, a reconstructed interacting theory is defined in a Hilbert space disjoint from the Fock space of the free theory, due to Haag's theorem.

Can also be proved that the reconstructed theory is unique, i.e. any other theory satisfying properties (1') - (9') (in particular with same vacuum expectation values $\{W_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$) is unitarily equivalent to the one reconstructed in the proof of the theorem.^X

Finding a set of Wightman functions satisfying properties (1)-(5) turned out to be a very hard problem, apart from the non-interacting case, also because it is difficult to satisfy the positivity condition, which has a non-linear structure, in contrast to the other properties, which have a linear structure. We will see in the following how this problem has been solved by computing Wightman functions in the Euclidean space, where properties (1)-(5) take a more simple form.

In the proof of the theorem we constructed the Hilbert space of the theory as (the completion of) finite sequences of test functions. In order to give a better interpretation of the Hilbert space, notice that if we define

$$\hat{\phi}(\underline{f}) := f_0 + \int dx_1 \hat{\phi}(x_1) f_1(x_1) + \int dx_1 dx_2 \hat{\phi}(x_1) \hat{\phi}(x_2) f_2(x_1, x_2) + \dots \quad (4.51)$$

such that

$$\hat{\phi}(\underline{f})\underline{g} := (f_0 g_0, f_0 g_1 + f_1 g_0, f_0 g_2 + f_1 \otimes g_1 + f_2 g_0, \dots) \quad , \quad \hat{\phi}(\underline{f})[\underline{g}] := [\hat{\phi}(\underline{f})\underline{g}] \quad (4.52)$$

and in particular (let $\Omega := [\underline{1}]$ in this instance, since we do not consider the completion of $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$)

$$\hat{\phi}(\underline{f})\underline{1} = (f_0, f_1, f_2, \dots) = \underline{f} \quad , \quad \hat{\phi}(\underline{f})\Omega = [\underline{f}] \quad (4.53)$$

Then the scalar product in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$ and $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$ can be rewritten as^{XI}

$$(\underline{f}, \underline{g}) = \langle \hat{\phi}(\underline{f})\underline{1}, \hat{\phi}(\underline{g})\underline{1} \rangle \quad , \quad ([\underline{f}], [\underline{g}]) = \langle \hat{\phi}(\underline{f})\Omega, \hat{\phi}(\underline{g})\Omega \rangle \quad (4.54)$$

Hence we can identify by unitary equivalence (i.e. up to representations) $\underline{\mathcal{S}}/\underline{\mathcal{S}}_0$ with $\{\hat{\phi}(\underline{f})\Omega \mid \underline{f} \in \underline{\mathcal{S}}\}$, since the scalar products defined in the two spaces are the same. This is related with the denseness of $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(f))\Omega$ in \mathcal{H} . Then we are done: one can forget the structure underlying \underline{f} and Ω and define the Hilbert space by applying the operator $\hat{\phi}(\underline{f})$ on the vacuum Ω , as usual.

4.3 Additional remarks

[Str13, Sections 3.4, 4.1–4.4]; [Jos65, Chapters 4, 5]; [SW00, Chapter 4]

By exploiting the analyticity properties of the Wightman's functions, general results have been derived. In this section we will focus on some of the main results which have been derived in the specific case of relativistic QFT's.

^{VIII}These axioms are discussed in [SW00, Section 3.1] and [Jos65, Section 3.2].

^{IX}See [SW00, Theorems 3.1-3.4] and [Jos65, Section 3.3].

^XActually this claim is included in the reconstruction theorem, see [SW00, Thm. 3.7] and [Jos65, Section 3.4, Thm. 1].

^{XI}The bilinear $(-, -)$ denotes as usual the scalar product in $\underline{\mathcal{S}}$, whereas $\langle -, - \rangle$ denotes the scalar product in $\{\hat{\phi}(\underline{f})\underline{1} \mid \underline{f} \in \underline{\mathcal{S}}\}$. Analogous notations hold for the quotient sets.

Non sono molto convinto di quanto scritto da qui in poi.

Spin-statistics theorem

The connection between spin and statistics, which is at the basis of Pauli principle (namely, in the alternative of anti/commutation relations at space-like points, fields carrying half-integer/integer spin must anti-commute/commute), have been first derived by Pauli for free theories in Fock space. It's generalization to interacting theories holds in the Wightman axiomatic formalism, and is a consequence of Lorentz covariance, as has been proved in *spin-statistics theorem*:

Theorem 4.2 (Spin-statistics, [Str13, Section 4.2], [SW00, Section 4.4], [Jos65, Section 5.3]). *Let $\psi_{\alpha,\dot{\beta}}$ be a spinor field^{XII} transforming as $\mathcal{D}^{j/2,k/2}$, and therefore carrying a integer/half-integer spin, corresponding to $j+k = \text{even/odd}$, then the wrong connection between spin and statistics, i.e., for integer/half-integer spin the field anti-commutes/commutes at space-like separations, implies that $\psi\Omega = 0$ and, if locality holds, $\psi = 0$.*

PCT theorem

The (up to now experimentally established) *PCT symmetry* also follows from Wightman functions properties, being in particular related to local commutativity:

Theorem 4.3 (PCT, [Str13, Section 4.3-4.4], [SW00, Section 4.3], [Jos65, Section 5.2]). *If a spinor field satisfies covariance, spectral condition, and locality, then the corresponding Wightman functions are PCT symmetric.*

Reeh-Schlieder theorem

Wightman's functions analyticity can be proved^{XIII} and imply that the knowledge of the Wightman functions of the fields localized in a given open set $\mathcal{O} \subset \mathbb{R}^4$, however small, completely determines the theory. In fact, if $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{O})$ denotes the polynomial algebra of the fields smeared with test functions with support in \mathcal{O} , one has

Theorem 4.4 (Reeh-Schlieder, [SW00, Section 4.2], [Jos65, Section 4.8], [Str13, Section 3.4.4], [Haa96, Section II.5.3]). *For any $\mathcal{O} \subset \mathbb{R}$, the vacuum is cyclic with respect to the algebra $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{O})$, i.e.*

$$\{\mathcal{P}(\hat{\phi}(f)) \text{ s.t. } \text{supp}(f) \subset \mathcal{O}\}\Omega \quad (4.55)$$

is dense in \mathcal{H} . Moreover, if $A \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{O})$ and $A\Omega = 0$ then $A = 0$.

This means that the information contained in fields localized in any, arbitrarily small, open subset of \mathbb{R}^4 , can be used to reconstruct the entire RQFT.

Non-commutativity of the algebra of interacting fields

As we already pointed out equal-time canonical (anti-)commutation relations cannot be used to quantize field equations for interacting theories. A natural question is whether and where a quantization condition is contained in the general requirements of Wightman's axioms, equivalently in the properties of Wightman functions. To this purpose, one may show that, as a consequence of the spectral condition, the field algebra of the reconstructed theory cannot be commutative, hence properties (1)-(5) imply quantization. Since can be proved^{XIV} that field obeying free fields equations satisfy either CCR or CAR, Wightman's properties qualify as the way of defining quantum fields by providing the correct substitute of canonical quantization in the interacting case.

^{XII}Here we consider a spinor field since it can describe the most general case, i.e. both integer and half integer fields. We will do the same also for the spin-statistics theorem.

^{XIII}[Str13, Sections 3.4.1-3.4.3], [SW00, Chapter 4]

^{XIV}[Str13, Section 4.1]

4.4 Haag-Ruelle scattering theory (massive case) and LSZ reduction formula

[Rue62]; [Hep65]; [Haa96, Chapter II.4]; [Jos65, Chapters 6]; [Str13, Sections 6.1-6.2]

Another important consequence of properties (1)-(5) for relativistic QFT's is the existence of asymptotic fields which provide a non-perturbative definition of the S -matrix, which is unitary if asymptotic completeness holds. Also the LSZ asymptotic condition and the LSZ reduction formulas can be derived from the same properties, as proved by Hepp; furthermore, one can prove dispersion relations for scattering amplitudes, yielding experimentally measurable relations.

One should notice that the axioms of Wightman do not introduce the notion of a particle. The particle notion is, however, of crucial importance if any connection of the theory with realities of physics is to be achieved. The principal observable of elementary particle physics, the S -matrix, depends essentially on the possibility of defining asymptotic incoming and outgoing states, which themselves can be described by free particles and their corresponding free fields.

It is highly gratifying that, under natural conditions, a Wightman field theory allows the precise definition of such asymptotic fields. This was proved by Ruelle, who applied Haag's idea of construct asymptotic ingoing and outgoing states as strong limits in Hilbert space, if certain "space like asymptotic condition" is verified by the vacuum expectation values of products of field operators.

In his theory, Ruelle has to make some natural additional assumptions which go beyond axioms of Wightman. This is not astonishing, it is easily seen that in a theory which allows a complete particle interpretation the spectrum of the energy momentum vector must have special properties.

We shall not present the general theory in this section. The special case to which we shall restrict ourselves, however, shows most of the interesting aspects of the general case. Let's assume that our theory have a *mass gap*. This means that the spectrum of the generators of the spacetime translations, as determined by the Wightman functions and the reconstruction theorem, satisfies the following:

Mass gap condition: Above the isolated point $p = 0$ (corresponding to the vacuum state) there is a gap up to an isolated hyperboloid $p^2 = m^2$ (*mass gap*) denoted by $V_m^+ \subset \sigma(\hat{P}^\mu) \subseteq \bar{V}^+$, with finite multiplicity (one-particle state), followed by a continuous spectrum starting at $p^2 = (2m)^2$ (two-particles states). It suffices that such a mass gap condition holds in the subspace characterized by the conserved quantum numbers of the asymptotic states under investigation.

Notice that such condition cannot be satisfied if theories admits massless particles, for instance it does not apply to QED.

Let us restrict to the one-body problem, i.e. the description of the asymptotic state for a one particle system. The existence of free asymptotic fields of mass m should be related to the existence of an isolated hyperboloid $p^2 = m^2$ in the two-point spectral function of the field $\hat{\phi}$.

Let \mathcal{H}_m be the improper^{XV} subspace of \mathcal{H} , which is eigenspace of the operator $\hat{P}^\mu \hat{P}_\mu$ associated to the eigenvalue m^2 . Suppose that our (possibly renormalized, if needed) field $\hat{\phi}$ when applied to the vacuum has a non-empty intersection with \mathcal{H}_m , that is $\hat{\phi}(x)\Omega \notin \mathcal{H}_m$. Let $h(x)$ be a test function whose Fourier transform satisfies $\text{supp } \tilde{h}(p) \cap \sigma(\hat{P}^\mu) \subseteq V_m^+$, or equivalently, its support in momentum space does not intersect the continuum region above V_m^+ of \bar{V}^+ (the one associated to multi-particles states).

Let's define the operator

$$\hat{\phi}_m(h) := \int dp \tilde{h}(p) \tilde{\hat{\phi}}(p) \quad (4.56)$$

and consider the two-points function

$$(\Omega, \hat{\phi}_m(h) \hat{\phi}_m(h') \Omega) \quad (4.57)$$

where h' satisfies same properties as h . Such two-point function in the Källen-Lehmann representation contains only an isolated term like $\delta(p^2 - m^2)\theta(p^0)$, since the localization of h on the one-particle hyperboloid acts as a cutoff for the continuum part in the spectral representation of the correlator.

^{XV}It is an improper subspace since it is made of generalized vectors, in the sense of Dirac's formalism.

The field $\hat{\phi}_m(h)$ is not a free field, since in general $\text{supp } h \not\subset \sigma(\hat{P}^\mu)$ and $(p^2 - m^2)\tilde{\phi}_m(p) \neq 0$, however $(p^2 - m^2)\tilde{\phi}_m(p)\Omega = 0$, hence we selected at the field level a neighbourhood of the mass shell.

Let's see how to construct more than one. Suppose that we have n test functions, $\{h_i\}_{i=1}^n$, $\text{supp } \tilde{h}(p) \cap \sigma(\hat{P}^\mu) \subseteq V_m^+$, such that their supports in terms of velocities are disjoint, that is

$$\frac{\mathbf{p}_i}{p_i^0} \neq \frac{\mathbf{p}_j}{p_j^0} \quad \text{for any } p_i \in \text{supp } \tilde{h}_i, \quad p_j \in \text{supp } \tilde{h}_j, \quad i \neq j \quad (4.58)$$

Due to condition (4.58), for very large values of t the operators

$$e^{-itH} \hat{\phi}_m(h_i) e^{itH}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n \quad (4.59)$$

have their supports separated by large distances, hence in the asymptotic limit $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$ they are free (since interactions decay exponentially for $m > 0$, see [Str13, Section 6.2.2]). Then we can “bring them back” using free evolution, i.e. using the standard dispersion relation $\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$:

$$\hat{\phi}_m(h, t) := \int d\mathbf{p} e^{it\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}} \tilde{h}(p) e^{-itH} \hat{\phi}_m(p) e^{itH} \quad (4.60)$$

Such field behaves for $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$ as a free field.

The final result is provided by the following theorem

Theorem 4.5 (Haag-Ruelle, [Rue62, Section 4]; [Str13, Theorem 6.2.1], [Haa96, Theorem II.4.2.1], [Jos65, Theorems 1, 2 section 6.3]). *The following asymptotic limits*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \hat{\phi}_m(h_1, t) \cdots \hat{\phi}_m(h_n, t) |\Omega\rangle &=: |h_1, \dots, h_n\rangle_{\text{in}} \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \hat{\phi}_m(h_1, t) \cdots \hat{\phi}_m(h_n, t) |\Omega\rangle &=: |h_1, \dots, h_n\rangle_{\text{out}} \end{aligned} \quad (4.61)$$

exist in the strong sense and define asymptotic in/out scattering states. The closure of the space of scattering states $\mathcal{H}_{\text{in/out}}$ is contained in \mathcal{H} . In $\mathcal{H}_{\text{in/out}}$ are defined the operators $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in/out}}$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(h) |h_1, \dots, h_n\rangle &= \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \hat{\phi}_m(h, t) |h_1, \dots, h_n\rangle_{\text{in}} \\ \hat{\phi}_{\text{out}}(h) |h_1, \dots, h_n\rangle &= \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \hat{\phi}_m(h, t) |h_1, \dots, h_n\rangle_{\text{out}} \end{aligned} \quad (4.62)$$

Let's see what happens if abandon the restriction on the support of the test function, i.e. if we define

$$\hat{\phi}(f, t) = \int d\mathbf{p} f(p) e^{itH} \tilde{\phi}(p) e^{-itH} e^{it\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}} \quad (4.63)$$

for some (generic) test function f . Hepp proved that it admits a weak limit $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$ on scattering states, and can be used as asymptotic fields in the LSZ formula

Theorem 4.6 (Hepp, [Hep65]). *The following weak limits exist:*

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} {}_{\text{in}}\langle h_1, \dots, h_n | \hat{\phi}(f, t) | h'_1, \dots, h'_n \rangle_{\text{in}} &= {}_{\text{in}}\langle h_1, \dots, h_n | \hat{\phi}_{\text{in}}(f) | h'_1, \dots, h'_n \rangle_{\text{in}} \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} {}_{\text{out}}\langle h_1, \dots, h_n | \hat{\phi}(f, t) | h'_1, \dots, h'_n \rangle_{\text{out}} &= {}_{\text{out}}\langle h_1, \dots, h_n | \hat{\phi}_{\text{out}}(f) | h'_1, \dots, h'_n \rangle_{\text{out}} \end{aligned} \quad (4.64)$$

and defined scattering fields $\hat{\phi}_{\text{in/out}}$. These fields can be used inside the LSZ reduction formula, hence the reduction formalism work even in this axiomatic framework starting from Wightman functions.

Hence within Wightman theory all the formalism of asymptotic states and fields is mathematically well defined.

Non capisco il senso di “portare indietro” il campo utilizzando l’evoluzione libera, non potevamo utilizzare direttamente $e^{-itH} \hat{\phi}_m(h_i) e^{itH}$. Inizialmente pensavo che servisse a definire un campo libero per t generico, ma $\hat{\phi}_m(h, t)$ è libero solo per $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$. Suppongo allora che tale definizione serva per dimostrare il teorema di Ruelle. Mi chiedo inoltre se $\hat{\phi}_m(h, t)$ in genere possa considerarsi un elemento di uno spazio di Fock per $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$ o abbia qualche peculiarità che non lo permette, in particolare nel teorema diciamo che $\mathcal{H}_{\text{in/out}} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ quindi immagino di no.

Chapter 5

Constructive QFT

[SW00, Pages 185-191], [Sum16], [Wig76], [Str13, Section 5.1], [GJ87, Section 6.1, Chapter 19]

We now have to deal with the construction of the Wightman functions or their non relativistic counterpart, which as we have seen are the cornerstone of our formalism. It turns out that the easiest way to construct them is the following

- (1) go back to the Gell-Mann - Low formula and introduce an IR cutoff (an in the relativistic case also an UV one) so that we avoid Haag's no-go theorem;
- (2) rewrite such formula using the path-integral formalism as described in Sec. 2.5 (when the cutoffs are introduced, we'll denote the action by S_Λ), in particular
 - (a) for a relativistic theory the path integral is defined in an Euclidean space-time,
 - (b) for a non relativistic theory the path integral is defined in an Euclidean space-time for an "imaginary" time;
- (3) remove the cutoffs from outside the path integral, we assume that this is possible, otherwise the procedure fails;
- (4) provided some properties for the correlation functions, analytically continue them to the appropriate space, in particular
 - (a) for a relativistic theory, the correlation functions in the Euclidean space are called *Schwinger functions*, denoted by $\{S_n\}$

$$S_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \lim_{\substack{\Lambda_{UV} \rightarrow \infty \\ \Lambda_{IR} \rightarrow 0}} \frac{\int \mathcal{D}\phi \mathcal{D}\phi^* e^{-S_\Lambda(\phi^*, \phi)} \phi(x_1) \dots \phi(x_n)}{\int \mathcal{D}\phi \mathcal{D}\phi^* e^{-S_\Lambda(\phi^*, \phi)}} \quad (5.1)$$

they determine Wightman function by analytical continuation in the Minkowski space if a set of properties, called *Osterwalder-Schrader (OS) axioms*, are satisfied,

- (b) for a non relativistic theory with $T > 0$ the Matsubara Green functions we obtained for an "imaginary" time can be analytically continued to the real time provided that other suitable axioms are satisfied, defining in this way the retarded functions for the interacting theory.

We first discuss the relativistic case and later we make some comments on the non relativistic $T > 0$ and the lattice QFT cases.

Let's heuristically motivate why it is easier to work in the Euclidean space rather than in the Minkowski one. In the Euclidean space the exponential inside the path integral has a real argument, e^{-S} , whereas in the Minkowski one the argument is imaginary: e^{iS} . In the Euclidean space one can use more powerful techniques such as saddle point method, moreover in general the path integral measure can be defined with a real exponential, while the definition in the Minkowski space is much more difficult and up to now it is not really understood if the path integral can be defined in a rigorous way. Without enter in the details, notice for instance that $\int e^{-x^2} dx$ clearly converges, whereas $\int e^{ix^2} dx$ should be regularized. For the same reason, in the non relativistic case is better to work with imaginary time rather than with the real one.

5.1 Osterwalder-Schrader reconstruction

[OS73], [OS75], [Ost73], [Str13, Chapter 5], [Str93, Chapter 3]

We now list the properties of Schwinger functions needed to determine Wightman functions of an interacting (scalar) RQFT. Such properties are called *Osterwalder-Schrader axioms*:

- (0) (*Regularity*) The $\{S_n(x_1, \dots, x_n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$, $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ with Euclidean metric are distributions in $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^{d+1})$ and “should not grow too fast in n ” (we omit the details about this requirement).
- (1) (*Euclidean covariance*) They transform covariantly under the Euclidean $d + 1$ -dimensional group \mathbb{E}^{d+1} . In particular for a scalar field ϕ , $(a, R) \in \mathbb{E}^{d+1}$, we have

$$S_n(Rx_1 + a, \dots, Rx_n + a) = S_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) \quad (5.2)$$

- (2) (*Osterwalder-Schrader positivity / Reflection positivity*) Let $F(\phi)$ be a function of the field ϕ with support in the upper half-space in the Euclidean time direction (i.e. the support is completely contained in the $\tau > 0$ region). Let θ denote the convolution corresponding to reflection with respect to the time-zero d -dimensional space, together with complex conjugation.^I Then OS positivity is the inequality (in the bosonic case)

$$\langle F(\phi)\theta F(\phi) \rangle \geq 0 \quad (5.3)$$

when the (vacuum) expectation value is written in terms of Schwinger functions.

- (3) (*Symmetry*) Schwinger functions of bosonic (fermionic) fields are symmetric (antisymmetric) under any exchange of the arguments. For a scalar bosonic theory we have $S_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = S_n(x_{\pi(1)}, \dots, x_{\pi(n)})$ for any permutation π .
- (4) (*Cluster property*) Schwinger functions asymptotically factorize when two sets of the arguments are taken apart to ∞ :

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} S_n(x_1 + a, \dots, x_j + a, x_{j+1}, \dots, x_n) = S_j(x_1, \dots, x_j) S_{n-j}(x_{j+1}, \dots, x_n) \quad (5.4)$$

Notice that it is much more easy to verify this axioms (beside OS positivity) rather than properties of Schwinger functions. For instance in this case no spectral condition, since it is very cleverly hidden inside OS positivity.

To Schwinger functions satisfying OS axioms, one can apply a reconstruction theorem which is a variant of Wightman reconstruction theorem. Then Schwinger functions are directly related to Wightman functions (whose existence is now guaranteed by such theorem) by analytical continuation^{II} in the time variable.

Theorem 5.1 (Osterwalder-Schrader). *Assume that the Schwinger functions $\{S_n(x_1, \dots, x_n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ satisfy the OS axioms. Then they uniquely determine*

- (1') a Hilbert space of states \mathcal{H} ;
- (2') a continuous representation $U(a, \Lambda)$ of $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_+^\uparrow$ on \mathcal{H} ;
- (3') a unique vector $|\Omega\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ invariant under U ;
- (4') a field operator (in the bosonic case) $\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$ such that, for $t_i < t_{i+1}$,

$$\begin{aligned} S_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \langle \Omega | \prod_{j=1}^{n-1} \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_j) e^{-(t_{j+1}-t_j)H} \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n) | \Omega \rangle \\ &= \langle \Omega | e^{-t_1 H} \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_1) e^{t_1 H} e^{-t_2 H} \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_2) \dots e^{-t_n H} \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n) e^{t_n H} | \Omega \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (5.5)$$

where H is the generator of $U(a^0)$ and $H \geq 0$.^{III}

^IFor instance, let $x = (\tau, \mathbf{x})$, $\tau > 0$, then $\theta f(\phi(\tau, \mathbf{x})) = f^*(\phi^*(-\tau, \mathbf{x}))$.

^{II}Notice that in order to make an analytical continuation from imaginary time to real time one should prove that no obstruction in the complex plane such as poles or cuts.

^{III}Since H is semidefinite positive is reasonable that Schwinger functions can be analytically continued to the real time obtaining Wightman functions, since this provides the right sign inside the time evolution exponentials.

Furthermore such $S_n(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ are the restriction of functions $W_n(\mathbf{x}_1, z_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, z_n)$, analytic in $\{z_i\}_{i=1}^n$ on the domain $\text{Im } z_i < \text{Im } z_{i+1}$, to the region $z_j = it_j$, for $j = 1, \dots, n$. Formally^{IV}

$$S_n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = W_n(\mathbf{x}_1, it_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, it_n) \quad \text{where} \quad x_j = (\mathbf{x}_j, t_j) \quad (5.6)$$

The functions $W_n(\mathbf{x}_1, t_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, t_n)$ are the Wightman functions of a RQFT. In other words the Wightman functions are obtained by the Schwinger functions by analytical continuation in time.

Properties (5')-(9') in Wightman reconstruction theorem are satisfied.

The Hilbert space \mathcal{H} , the representation U , the vacuum $|\Omega\rangle$ and the field $\hat{\phi}$ constructed in the theorem are the same obtained by Wightman reconstruction starting from the Wightman functions $\{W_n\}$ obtained by analytical continuation.

Notice that the fact that we reconstruct the theory directly from the Euclidean space, without using Wightman functions, turns out to be crucial in different situations, for instance OS reconstruction theorem apply to the quantization of solitons, whereas Wightman reconstruction theorem doesn't.

Moreover we already know that the path integral can be used for built Schwinger functions for the theory regularized by cutoffs (since they are simply vacuum expectation values and we can apply previous formulas, which certainly give well-defined results thanks to the cutoffs we introduced), whereas it is not well defined in the Minkowski space, where Wightman functions are defined.

After the construction of functions using the path integral for the regularized theory one has to check that after the removal of the cutoffs the OS axioms are satisfied.

Proof. (sketch) (1') Let $\underline{\mathcal{S}}_+$ be the space of finite sequences \underline{f} of these functions with support in the positive euclidean time half-space. Define a semi-definite inner product by

$$(\underline{f}, \underline{g}) := \sum_{j,k=0}^{\infty} \int dx_1 \dots dx_j dy_1 \dots dy_k (\theta f(x_1, \dots, x_j)) g(y_1, \dots, y_k) S_{j+k}(x_1, \dots, x_j, y_1, \dots, y_k) \quad (5.7)$$

also denoted in compact notation by $S(\theta f \times g)$, which is semi-definite positive by OS positivity.

The construction of \mathcal{H} then is performed like in the Wightman reconstruction theorem:

$$\mathcal{H} := \underline{\mathcal{S}}_+ / \mathcal{N} \quad \text{where} \quad \mathcal{N} = \{\underline{f} \in \underline{\mathcal{S}}_+ \mid \|\underline{f}\| = 0\} \quad (5.8)$$

We denote by $|\underline{f}\rangle$ the vectors in \mathcal{H} corresponding to \underline{f} .

(2') Given a sequence \underline{f} let \underline{f}_t be the sequence with all argument translated in the euclidean time by $t > 0$ and $\underline{f}_{\mathbf{a}, R}$ the sequence with arguments rotated by R and then translated spatially by \mathbf{a} . Set also the compact notation $\underline{f}_{\mathbf{a}} := \underline{f}_{\mathbf{a}, \mathbb{1}}$.

Spatial roto-translations are well-defined by the same arguments that we used for $U(\mathbf{a}, \Lambda)$ in the Wightman reconstruction theorem, with a unitary operator $U(\mathbf{a}, R)$ such that:

$$(\underline{f}, \underline{g}_{\mathbf{a}, R}) = (\underline{f}_{(\mathbf{a}, R)^{-1}}, \underline{g}) = (\underline{f}, U(\mathbf{a}, R)\underline{g}) \quad \text{and} \quad (\underline{f}, \underline{g}_{\mathbf{a}}) = (\underline{f}_{-\mathbf{a}}, \underline{g}) = (\underline{f}, e^{i\mathbf{P}\mathbf{a}}\underline{g}) \quad (5.9)$$

Different arguments are required for time translations, since restricting ourself to $\tau > 0$ we broke time translational invariance. We want to prove that

$$(\underline{f}, \underline{g}_t) = (\underline{f}_t, \underline{g}) = (\underline{f}, e^{-tH}\underline{g}) \quad \text{with} \quad H \geq 0 \quad (5.10)$$

The continuity in t of $(\underline{f}, \underline{g}_t)$ is obvious, and

$$(\underline{f}, \underline{g}_t) = (\underline{f}_t, \underline{g}) \quad (5.11)$$

follows directly from the definition eq. (5.7) using eq. (5.2) and the definition of θ . Let's define the

^{IV}Notice that the relation between Wightman functions and Schwinger functions is very similar to the relation between retarded correlators and Matsubara functions.

operator $P_t : g \mapsto g_t$, then it is symmetric thanks to eq. (5.11). Moreover

$$\begin{aligned}
\|P_t g\|^2 &= \|g_t\|^2 = |(g_t, g_t)| = |(g, g_{2t})| \leq |(g, g)|^{1/2} |(g_{2t}, g_{2t})|^{1/2} = |(g, g)|^{1/2} |(g, g_{4t})|^{1/2} \\
&\leq |(g, g)|^{1/2} |(g, g)|^{1/4} |(g_{4t}, g_{4t})|^{1/4} \\
&\leq \dots \\
&\leq |(g, g)|^{\sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{2^n}} |(g_{2^N t}, g_{2^N t})|^{1/2^N} \\
&\leq |(g, g)|^{\sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{2^n}} |(g_\infty, g_\infty)|^0 \\
&= |(g, g)| = \|g\|^2
\end{aligned} \tag{5.12}$$

where inequalities are due to Schwartz. Due to continuity and $\|P_t g\|^2 \leq \|g\|^2$ an analogue of Stone's theorem proves the existence of $H \geq 0$ such that $P_t = e^{-tH}$. In this way we proved eq. (5.10). Moreover since H is positive, this suggest us that analytical continuation of e^{-tH} to e^{-itH} may be possible.

For boosts the situation is much more complicated and it will not be discussed here. We just say that they can be built starting from representations of spatial roto-translations and time translations.

(3') The vacuum $|\Omega\rangle$ is then given (up to quotienting and completion) by $\underline{1} = (1, 0, \dots, 0, \dots)$. The proof of uniqueness is omitted.

(4') We just sketch how to construct the field $\hat{\phi}$, without proving the well-definiteness and its properties. Define the domain

$$D_+ = \bigcup_{\varepsilon > 0} e^{-\varepsilon H} \underline{\mathcal{S}}_+ / \mathcal{N} \tag{5.13}$$

given by sequences shifted in the positive time direction by arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$. In such domain we can define the field at time $t = 0$, $\hat{\phi}_0$, as the quadratic form^V in $D_+ \times D_+$.^{VI} In particular, let $\underline{f}, \underline{h} \in D_+$ and $g \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^d)$, then the field at $t = 0$ is defined by

$$\langle \underline{f} | \hat{\phi}_0(g) | \underline{h} \rangle := (\underline{f}, (g \otimes \delta(\tau)) \times \underline{h}) \tag{5.14}$$

This is well-defined since all sequences in D_+ are moved away from the $\tau = 0$ axis, and then the previous object is always finite provided that both $\underline{f}, \underline{g} \in D_+$. Notice that the r.h.s. of eq. (5.14) is exactly the generalization of smeared field

$$\hat{\phi}(g) = \int d\mathbf{x} \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, 0) g(\mathbf{x}) = \int d\mathbf{x} d\tau \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}, \tau) g(\mathbf{x}) \delta(\tau) \tag{5.15}$$

where we defined it as a quadratic function (i.e. using matrix elements) in an appropriate domain such that the delta function gives always a finite contribution.

Notice that for $\tau = 0$ the field is identical to its analytic continuation to the real time, hence $\hat{\phi}_0$ provides a well defined field for $t = 0$ where t is the real time. We can then generalize the definition to arbitrary real time just using the unitary time evolution defined in Minkowski, and this can be done in such a way that the final field is an operator rather than just a quadratic form, just by appropriately smearing in

^VA *quadratic form* is a quantity defined in matrix elements only when both the vectors are in a specified dense domain. This provides a generalization of the concept of self-adjoint operator in some cases in which an operator would be unbounded.

Indeed, given an operator O and its domain $D(O)$, $|\psi\rangle \in D(O)$, then $O|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\langle \phi | O | \psi \rangle$ is well defined for any $|\phi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$. Conversely, a quadratic form Q has domain $D(Q)$ such that $\langle \phi | Q | \psi \rangle$ is well defined for $|\phi\rangle, |\psi\rangle \in D(Q)$. Comparing the two definitions, the latter is weaker than the former, since in general $Q|\psi\rangle$ is not defined for $|\psi\rangle \in D(Q)$.

For instance, consider the formal map $Q : g \mapsto \delta(x)g(x)$ with the scalar product $(f, Qg) = \int dx f(x)\delta(x)g(x)$. But the multiplication by $\delta(x)$ is not an operator, hence Q can not be defined as an operator, but Q can be defined as a quadratic form. Indeed one should require that the function $g(x)$ is not singular in $x = 0$, but this is not enough, one should also require that the same property is satisfied also by $f(x)$.

This problems can be avoided when one consider a system in QM with potential $V(x) = \delta(x)$. Indeed if we consider the operator $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x)$ associated to the Schrödinger equation this is well-defined since the ground state of the wave function has a jump in the first derivative, so that the double derivative produces a delta function which cancels with the one produced by the potential.

Reference: [RS80, Section 8.6].

^{VI}We are forced to use a quadratic form since in general it is not guaranteed that the field exists as an operator at a fixed time. For instance we have seen that this it is not possible if the wave function renormalization is vanishing $Z = 0$, as we previously discussed.

time the resulting field. In particular, let $f \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^{d+1})$, $f(\mathbf{x}, t) = f_t(\mathbf{x})$, be a test function in Minkowski, then the following is a well-defined operator in a dense domain:

$$\hat{\phi}(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dt e^{itH} \int d\mathbf{x} \hat{\phi}_0(\mathbf{x}) f_t(\mathbf{x}) e^{-itH} \quad (5.16)$$

Indeed for any fixed value of t , the function $f_t(\mathbf{x})$ is an element of $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ such as g in eq. (5.14), such that $\int d\mathbf{x} \hat{\phi}_0(\mathbf{x}) f_t(\mathbf{x})$ is a well defined quadratic form. The function $f(\mathbf{x}, t)$ should be seen as a set of function of \mathbf{x} labelled by t , and then smearing in t we promote the quadratic form to an operator defined in a dense domain.

(*Locality*) We just make a comment about the proof of the locality for the field we constructed. It can be proved analogously to what we have done for the Wightman reconstruction theorem.

Let's consider two points x, y space-like separated, it always exists a boost putting them at equal time and by time translational invariance we can put both of them at $t = 0$. We denote the resulting space-like component by \mathbf{x}' and \mathbf{y}' respectively, $\mathbf{x}' \neq \mathbf{y}'$.

Now consider $\underline{f}, \underline{g} \in D_+$ and construct the following matrix elements

$$\langle \underline{f} | \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}', 0) e^{-\varepsilon H} \phi(\mathbf{y}', 0) | \underline{g} \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \langle \underline{f} | \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{y}', 0) e^{-\varepsilon H} \phi(\mathbf{x}', 0) | \underline{g} \rangle \quad (5.17)$$

for some $\varepsilon > 0$. If one consider the matrix element on the l.h.s., the exponential $e^{-\varepsilon H}$ raised slightly the argument of $\phi(\mathbf{y}', 0) | \underline{g} \rangle$ above the $t = 0$ hyperplane. Looking at this matrix element from the right to the left, $\phi(\mathbf{y}', 0) | \underline{g} \rangle$ is well defined since $\underline{g} \in D_+$, but then also $e^{-\varepsilon H} \phi(\mathbf{y}', 0) | \underline{g} \rangle$ is an element of D_+ due to the effect of $e^{-\varepsilon H}$, and this finally imply that such matrix element is well defined since both the vectors on which the quadratic form $\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}', 0)$ acts on are elements of D_+ . Similarly, also the matrix elements on the r.h.s. is well defined, just inverting the role of \mathbf{x}' and \mathbf{y}' .

But then

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \langle \underline{f} | \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}', 0) e^{-\varepsilon H} \phi(\mathbf{y}', 0) | \underline{g} \rangle = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \langle \underline{f} | \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{y}', 0) e^{-\varepsilon H} \phi(\mathbf{x}', 0) | \underline{g} \rangle \quad (5.18)$$

due to symmetry of the Schwinger functions (we are still in the Euclidean space), which implies that, on matrix elements,

$$[\hat{\phi}(\mathbf{x}', 0), \hat{\phi}(\mathbf{y}', 0)] = 0 \quad (5.19)$$

Now using again boosts (and Lorentz invariance) this vanishing condition apply also for the initial space-like separated points, and locality is proven.

The proof of all the other points of the theorem (e.g. uniqueness of the vacuum and analytical continuation of Schwinger functions) are omitted. \square

5.2 Generalizations of OS reconstruction theorem

[Sum16], [GJ87, Section 6.1]

There are several variants of the OS reconstruction theorem, e.g. applied to lattice theories, to fields not supported on points (like Wilson loops in gauge theories, which in abelian case take the form $\exp(-\oint_C A)$), to finite temperature and also to soliton fields. We'll see in the following some examples. All these variants are based on the same idea, just changing appropriately the OS axioms depending on the situation.

For this reason, let us now pinpoint where the properties of OS axioms have been used:

- (1) the OS positivity was used to construct \mathcal{H} and Ω ;
- (2) (i) time translational invariance was used to construct the time evolution e^{-tH} and the field operator $\hat{\phi}(x)$;
- (ii) space roto-translational invariance was used to construct $U(\mathbf{a}, R)$;
- (iii) euclidean symmetry was used to construct the full representation of the Poincaré group and, combined with OS positivity, to prove that $\sigma(\hat{P}^\mu) \subseteq \bar{V}^+$;
- (3) cluster property was used to ensure the uniqueness of Ω as translational invariant state;
- (4) symmetry was used to prove the locality of $\hat{\phi}$.

5.2.1 Lattice and gauge theories

[Frö80, Section 4], [OS78], [Sei82], [Str93, Section 6.4]

In view of this remarks is not difficult to understand the variants of OS reconstruction for lattice theories involving also non-local fields, such as the Wilson loop in gauge theories. For abelian theories with gauge potential A_μ the Wilson loop is defined as follows. Let \mathcal{C} be a loop, then the *Wilson loop* is defined by^{VII}

$$W(\mathcal{C}) = e^{i \oint_{\mathcal{C}} A_\mu dx^\mu} \quad (5.20)$$

One can prove that the the collection of all $W(\mathcal{C})$ for each loop \mathcal{C} completely determines a massless gauge theory. Therefore Wilson loops are those objects that contains all the information about a (massless) gauge theory in a gauge invariant way.

In the non-abelian case we need to take also a path ordering $P(-)$, which is just the time-ordering for the “time” parametrizing the loop, combined with the trace:

$$W(\mathcal{C}) = \text{Tr } P \left(e^{i \oint_{\mathcal{C}} A_\mu dx^\mu} \right) \quad (5.21)$$

Consider a lattice whose sites are labelled by i, j , then for each pair of neighboring sites (neighboring sites are denoted by $\langle i, j \rangle$) we can define (for the abelian case)

$$U_{\langle i, j \rangle} := P \left(e^{i \int_i^j A_\mu dx^\mu} \right) \quad (5.22)$$

Then given a loop in the lattice let's define

$$W(\mathcal{C}) := \prod_{\langle i, j \rangle \in \mathcal{C}} U_{\langle i, j \rangle} \quad (5.23)$$

such that this object is exactly the lattice regularization of eq. (5.20).

We can now take

$$\langle W(\mathcal{C}_1) \dots W(\mathcal{C}_n) \rangle \quad (5.24)$$

as the correlator for the lattice theory.

Using such regularization it has been computed (using computers) some very interesting results for QED and QCD, which gave very good approximations of experimental results.

OS axioms for lattice theories

Let $O_\alpha(\mathcal{C}_i)_{\alpha \in A}$ be lattice fields, each of them with support on a compact connected set of cells $\{\mathcal{C}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ of the lattice (the supports \mathcal{C}_i can be points, lines, surfaces, etc, in the case of Wilson loops the support is given by a closed line). Let's define the correlation functions as expectation values of these fields

$$S_n(\alpha_1, \mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \mathcal{C}_n) := \langle O_{\alpha_1}(\mathcal{C}_1) \dots O_{\alpha_n}(\mathcal{C}_n) \rangle \quad (5.25)$$

Notice that in general is not required that all the $\{\mathcal{C}_i\}$ are of the same type, for instance we can have both lines and surfaces. Let $F(\{O_{\alpha_i}(\mathcal{C}_i)\}) \in \mathcal{F}$ where \mathcal{F} is the space of functions in these lattice fields with $\{\mathcal{C}_i\}$ supported on the positive “euclidean-time” half-lattice. Let θ denote the OS reflection, i.e. the reflection with respect to the euclidean time 0 space together with (for bosonic fields) complex conjugation. Moreover, set the lattice spacing to 1.

Theorem 5.2 (OS reconstruction theorem for lattice theories). *Given a set of correlation functions $\{S_n(\alpha_1, \mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \mathcal{C}_n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ satisfying*

- (1) *lattice translational invariance,*

^{VII}Recall that in QM not only the field strength is an observable. Due to Aharonov-Bohm effect also objects of the form eq. (5.20) are observables.

Non ho trovato una bibliografia particolarmente soddisfacente, se ha consigli aggiungo volentieri altri testi.

(2) OS positivity: for every $F \in \mathcal{F}$

$$\langle FOF \rangle \geq 0 \quad (5.26)$$

when expressed in terms of correlation functions $\{S_n\}$.

Then one can reconstruct from $\{S_n\}$

(1') a separable Hilbert space \mathcal{H} ,

(2') a vector $|\Omega\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, the vacuum,

(3') a self adjoint transfer matrix $T = e^{-H}$ and unitary space translation operators U_μ , $\mu = 1, \dots, d$, acting on \mathcal{H} ^{VIII} such that $T|\Omega\rangle = |\Omega\rangle$, $U_\mu|\Omega\rangle = |\Omega\rangle$,

Moreover if cluster property holds, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} S_n(\alpha_1, \mathcal{C}_1 + a, \dots, \alpha_j, \mathcal{C}_j + a, \alpha_{j+1}, \mathcal{C}_{j+1}, \dots, \alpha_n, \mathcal{C}_n) = \\ = S_j(\alpha_1, \mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \alpha_j, \mathcal{C}_j) S_{n-j}(\alpha_{j+1}, \mathcal{C}_{j+1}, \dots, \alpha_n, \mathcal{C}_n) \end{aligned} \quad (5.27)$$

then

(4') $|\Omega\rangle$ is the unique translationally (both in space and time direction) invariant vector in \mathcal{H} ,

(5') there is a set of vectors in \mathcal{H} , $\{|\alpha_1, \mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \mathcal{C}_n\rangle\}$ such that their linear combination is dense in \mathcal{H} such that^{IX}

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha_1, \mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \alpha_m, \mathcal{C}_m | \alpha'_1, \mathcal{C}'_1, \dots, \alpha'_n, \mathcal{C}'_n \rangle = \\ = \langle O_{\alpha'_1}(\mathcal{C}'_1) \dots O_{\alpha'_n}(\mathcal{C}'_n) \theta[O_{\alpha_1}(\mathcal{C}_1) \dots O_{\alpha_m}(\mathcal{C}_m)] \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (5.28)$$

(6') there are some "field operators" $\hat{O}_\alpha(\mathcal{C})$, with \mathcal{C} contained in the strip $[0, \tau]$, $\tau \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$, such that

$$\hat{O}_\alpha(\mathcal{C}) T(\tau) |\alpha_1, \mathcal{C}_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \mathcal{C}_n\rangle = |\alpha, \mathcal{C}, \alpha_1, \mathcal{C}_1 + \tau, \dots, \alpha_n, \mathcal{C}_n + \tau\rangle \quad (5.29)$$

with $T(\tau) := T^\tau$ representing a time translation by τ time units.

5.2.2 Reconstruction at finite temperature

[BF02], [Frö75]

Suppose that we have a set of Matsubara functions S_n depending on creation and annihilation operators $a_{\alpha_i}^\#$, where $\#$ denotes either annihilation a_{α_i} or creation $a_{\alpha_i}^\dagger$ operators, and euclidean times τ_i , time ordered.

This are constructed starting from some expectation values of ladder operators at finite volume V , where we have finite degrees of freedom,

$$\langle a_{\alpha_1}^\#(\tau_1) \dots a_{\alpha_n}^\#(\tau_n) \rangle_V^\beta \quad (5.30)$$

and then taking them thermodynamic limit

$$S_n^\beta(a_{\alpha_1}^\#, \tau_1, \dots, a_{\alpha_n}^\#, \tau_n) := \lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} \langle a_{\alpha_1}^\#(\tau_1) \dots a_{\alpha_n}^\#(\tau_n) \rangle_V^\beta \quad (5.31)$$

Indeed in general functions S_n^β cannot be defined as expectation values of operators defined in the infinite volume limit since such operators cannot exists due to Haag's theorem.

Due to usual boundary conditions operators a_{α_i} should be thought as operators defined on a circle of circumference β .

Theorem 5.3 (OS reconstruction theorem for finite temperature). *Suppose that functions $\{S_n^\beta\}_{n=0}^\infty$ satisfy the following properties:*

^{VIII}The matrix T describes the time evolution by a unit of time, while U_μ describe a space translation of a unit of space in the direction given by μ .

^{IX}Notice that the scalar product in \mathcal{H} is defined through the convolution θ .

(1) Regularity conditions in a_{α_i} and $\{\tau_i\}$.

(2) Time translational invariance

$$S_n^\beta(a_{\alpha_1}^\#, \tau_1, \dots, a_{\alpha_n}^\#, \tau_n) = S_n^\beta(a_{\alpha_1}^\#, \tau_1 + \tau, \dots, a_{\alpha_n}^\#, \tau_n + \tau) \quad (5.32)$$

for arbitrary $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$.

(3) KMS condition

$$S_n^\beta(a_{\alpha_1}^\#, \tau_1, \dots, a_{\alpha_n}^\#, \tau_n) = S_n^\beta(a_{\alpha_{j+1}}^\#, \tau_1, \dots, a_{\alpha_n}^\#, \tau_n, a_{\alpha_1}^\#, \tau_1 + \beta, \dots, a_{\alpha_j}^\#, \tau_j + \beta) \quad (5.33)$$

for any $j = 1, \dots, n-1$.

(4) OS positivity: Consider all polynomials in $\{a_i^\#(\tau_i)\}$ variables, $\mathcal{P}(\{a_i^\#(\tau_i)\})$, such that the time variables are ordered and bounded by $\beta/2$, that is

$$\tau_1 < \tau_2, \dots, \tau_n < \beta/2 \quad (5.34)$$

For such polynomial we define the convolution θ by^X

$$\theta \mathcal{P}(\{a_i^\#(\tau_i)\}) = \mathcal{P}(\{a_i^\#(\beta - \tau_i)\})^\dagger \quad (5.35)$$

with again $\beta - \tau_i$ ordered. Then the OS positivity is the requirement

$$\langle \mathcal{P}(\{a_i^\#(\tau_i)\}) \theta \mathcal{P}(\{a_j^\#(\tau_j)\}) \rangle \geq 0 \quad (5.36)$$

for any couple of these polynomials, when the expectation value is written in terms of $\{S_n^\beta\}$.

Then the $\{S_n^\beta\}$ uniquely determine

(1') a separable Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_β ,

(2') a vector $\Omega_\beta \in \mathcal{H}_\beta$,

(3') a continuous unitary one-parameter group $\{e^{itL}, t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ (t is now the real time, not the Euclidean one) leaving Ω_β invariant,

(4') a representation in terms of operators in \mathcal{H} of the algebra of $a_{\alpha_i}^\#$, $\Pi(a_{\alpha_i}^\#)$ such that the functions S_n^β are obtained from the real-time “Wightman” functions

$$W_n(a_{\alpha_1}^\#, t_1, \dots, a_{\alpha_n}^\#, t_n) = \left\langle \prod_{j=1}^n e^{it_j L} \Pi(a_{\alpha_j}^\#) e^{-it_j L} \Omega_\beta \middle| \Omega_\beta \right\rangle \quad (5.37)$$

(the expression in the r.h.s. denotes the scalar product between elements of \mathcal{H}_β) by analytic continuation in the time variable t_1, \dots, t_n to the domain (z_1, \dots, z_n) , $z_i \in \mathbb{C}$, with $\text{Im } z_1 < \text{Im } z_i < \text{Im } z_{i+1} < \text{Im } z_n < \text{Im } z_1 + \beta$ and then restricting (z_1, \dots, z_n) to $(i\tau_1, \dots, i\tau_n)$ with $0 < \tau_i < \tau_{i+1} < \beta$.

From the real-time “Wightman” functions one can of course construct the retarded Green functions just using $\theta(t)$ and (anti)commutators.

^XThe definition of such convolution is just what we expect adapting the definition of θ that we gave for $T = 0$. First it reflects the time variables in the circle of circumference β respect to the line passing through $\tau = 0$ and $\tau = \beta/2$. Then takes the adjoint of the resulting polynomial, such that the order of $a^\#$ is inverted and each $a^\#$ is substituted with the corresponding adjoint. In some sense this is the appropriate adjustment of the reflection $\tau \rightarrow -\tau$.

A comment on the Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_β

For finite volume \mathcal{H}_β constructed in the proof is the Hilbert space of operators A such that $\text{Tr } A^\dagger A < \infty$ with inner product and vacuum defined by

$$\langle A|B \rangle := \text{Tr } A^\dagger B \quad \text{and} \quad |\Omega_\beta \rangle := \frac{|e^{-\beta H/2} \rangle}{\sqrt{\text{Tr } e^{-\beta H}}} \quad (5.38)$$

where the denominator in the definition $|\Omega_\beta \rangle$ appropriately normalizes the state to 1.

Heuristically, the reason beside this strange structure of the Hilbert space is due to the fact that in finite temperature we are not considering an isolated system anymore, but a system in a thermal bath. Such thermal bath is an infinite volume system, and now we have to take care of the fluctuations coming from the thermal bath. This fluctuations induces an infinite renormalization of the energy, so if one proceeds as before defining the Hamiltonian starting from the temporal evolution would obtain a divergent result in the infinite volume limit. Therefore one should define a new operator H in such a way that fluctuations coming from the thermal bath are killed. This turns out to be impossible using a Fock space, whereas is possible if one uses such strange Hilbert space.

This is also related to the fact that in statistical mechanics the Hamiltonian of a system in a thermal bath cannot be positive definite, so one has to consider the Liouvillian L instead of the Hamiltonian H . In this case these objects are just related by a renormalization constant.

More formally, in \mathcal{H}_β at finite volume we have two commuting representation of observables $A(\{a_\alpha^\# \})$:

$$\Pi(A) |B \rangle = |AB \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \Pi_r(A) |B \rangle = |BA^\dagger \rangle \quad (5.39)$$

where the first one is the one used in the statement of the theorem. It turns out that the generator of time evolution is

$$L = \Pi(H) - \Pi_r(H) \quad (5.40)$$

The subtraction of $\Pi_r(H)$, since Π_r and Π commutes, does not change the equations of motion of the observable in Π . Indeed $\Pi_r(H)$ acts as a constant, and cancel the infinities appearing in H in the infinite volume limit.

Let us see the relation with the standard formalism with the Boltzmann weight $e^{-\beta H}$. For a finite system at finite T we have two equivalent descriptions: in the Fock space \mathcal{F} the equilibrium state is a mixed states of the form

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-\beta H}}{\text{Tr } e^{-\beta H}} \quad (5.41)$$

whereas in the Hilbert space \mathcal{H}_β defined above the equilibrium state Ω_β is a vector of the form $|\sqrt{\rho}\rangle$ (instead of a mixed state) which is a eigenvector of $L = \Pi(H) - \Pi_r(H)$ of zero eigenvalue, indeed using eq. (5.39) ad eq. (5.40) one gets

$$L |\sqrt{\rho}\rangle = \frac{|He^{-\beta H/2}\rangle - |e^{-\beta H/2}H^\dagger\rangle}{\sqrt{\text{Tr } e^{-\beta H/2}}} \stackrel{H=H^\dagger}{=} 0 \quad (5.42)$$

since the two vectors in the numerator cancel each other.

Notice that as $V \rightarrow \infty$ the expectation value of the energy in ρ diverges

$$\frac{\text{Tr } H e^{-\beta H}}{\text{Tr } e^{-\beta H}} \rightarrow \infty \quad (5.43)$$

thus ρ in eq. (5.41) diverges as operator as $V \rightarrow \infty$. Conversely (the symbol (\bullet) should be substituted with some operator)

$$\langle \Omega_\beta | (\bullet) | \Omega_\beta \rangle_V = \frac{\text{Tr}_V (\bullet) e^{-\beta H}}{\text{Tr}_V e^{-\beta H}} \quad (5.44)$$

provides an expectation value, respect to the vector $|\Omega_\beta \rangle \in \mathcal{H}_\beta$, well defined even in the infinite volume limit (for operators in an appropriate domain, from which H is excluded since is unbounded) which still satisfies $L |\Omega_\beta \rangle > 0$ (thanks to eq. (5.42)) and the KMS condition.

Da qui in poi penso di non esser riuscito a scrivere chiaramente quanto ha spiegato perché anche a me alcuni punti sono non proprio chiarissimi.

Summary

The procedure to construct retarded Green functions is the following: first one constructs the Fock space for the theory at finite temperature appropriately regularized (lattice and finite volume regularization), then one computes the Matsubara Green functions in the Fock space using the path integral method and assumes that the thermodynamic limit exists. If Matsubara functions in the thermodynamic limit exists and satisfy the axioms then one can reconstruct completely the theory even in the thermodynamic limit. Obviously the Hilbert space we constructed has nothing to do with the original Fock space, and in particular is not the generalization of the original Fock space but instead is the generalization of the finite volume \mathcal{H}_β , which is a space of operators. By analytical continuation one defines an analogue of Wightman functions and combining them with Heaviside functions and commutators one finally gets the desired retarded Green functions.

Part II

Topological structures in QFT

Chapter 6

Quantum solitons

6.1 Introduction to topological objects

The first appearance of a classical *soliton* was in a report by J. Scott Russel in 1842, he was in a boat in a channel and noticed “a solitary elevation, a rounded, smooth and well-defined heap of water which continued in course along the channel apparently without change of form (i.e. without dispersion/dissipation) or diminution of speed (i.e. constant velocity).

The term “soliton” (which comes from “solitary wave”) was much later introduced to characterize solutions of wave equations that do not disperse and preserve their form during the propagation. Hence in a sense a classical solution behaves as a particle in spite of being a wave.

The staticity of these “wave” solitons is due to some conservation law. If this conservation law is of topological origin (i.e. the conserved quantity is not related to the (first) Noether theorem and the conservation holds without using all the equations of motion¹) these solitons are called *topological*.

The original concept of topologically protected “wave” solitons has been later extended, in particular by high-energy physicists, and today we define a classical topological soliton as a topologically stable, finite energy solution of the Hamiltonian equations of motion of a classical field theory.

Since already classically solutions behaves as particles, one can naturally expect, correctly, that their quantized version provides a quantum particle, but as we will see later it is a peculiar one.

6.1.1 Spontaneously broken symmetry

[Str85, Chapter C.1], [Str12]

Before entering in the discussion of solitons, a brief formal discussion of the spontaneously broken symmetry (SSB) phenomenon is required.

We already know that the *observables* of a system are the quantities of the physical system that we can measure and the algebra that they generate is called the *observable algebra* \mathcal{A} . The *states* contain the information on the system, if the information is maximal they are called *pure*, if it is not maximal are said *mixed*.

By definition pure states can be obtained one from the other by operations physically performed on the system (including limiting procedure, such as the infinite volume limit or the thermodynamic limit, but excluding transformations which require to cross would-be states of infinite). Both in the classical and quantum settings the mixed states can be viewed as complex combinations of pure states and a state is pure if it cannot be written as convex combination of the pure states. For equilibrium states at finite temperature by analogy we introduce the concept of *pure phase*: an equilibrium state is a pure phase if it cannot be written as a convex combination of other equilibrium states.

For instance consider the Ising model: take a finite lattice of volume V , where to each cell i is associated a classical spin σ_i with possible values ± 1 . Suppose that we imposed vanishing boundary conditions,

¹For instance, the conservation of the EM current $J_\nu = \partial^\mu F_{\mu\nu}$ does not follow from the equation of motion $\frac{dp^\mu}{dt} = F^{\mu\nu}u_\nu$, but is just a consequence of the antisymmetry of $F_{\mu\nu}$: $\partial^\nu J_\nu = \partial^\mu \partial^\nu F_{\mu\nu} = \partial^{\{\mu} \partial^{\nu\}} F_{[\mu\nu]} = 0$.

i.e. outside the volume we do not have any spin (the system is confined), and try to take the infinite volume limit. For spatial dimension $d = 2$ and temperature $T < T_c$ where T_c is the *critical temperature* the system has two possible ground states: for the first one $\langle \sigma_i \rangle > 0$ for all the cells, for the second one $\langle \sigma_i \rangle < 0$. Obviously, the equilibrium state for the system in such condition is described by $\langle \sigma_i \rangle = 0$ for all the possible cells, and it is not a pure phase as it can be described as a convex combination of the two ground states, which in turn are (unstable) equilibrium states.

We can now distinguish different kinds of symmetries. An *algebraic symmetry* is an invertible algebra homomorphism $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ (i.e. a map preserving the algebraic relations, e.g. equations of motion are preserved in form and also (in quantum setting) the commutation relations between observables). A *physical symmetry* is an algebraic symmetry together with an invertible map $\mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$, where \mathcal{S} is the space of pure states, which preserves the expectation values:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha : \mathcal{A} &\longrightarrow \mathcal{A} & \text{and} & & \tilde{\alpha} : \mathcal{S} &\longrightarrow \mathcal{S} \\ A &\longmapsto A' & & & \Sigma &\longmapsto \Sigma' \end{aligned} \quad (6.1)$$

such that

$$\langle A \rangle_{\Sigma} = \langle A' \rangle_{\Sigma'} \quad (6.2)$$

A *dynamical symmetry* is either an algebraic or a physical symmetry leaving the Hamiltonian invariant

$$H \longmapsto H' = H \quad (6.3)$$

A dynamical symmetry is said *spontaneously broken* if it cannot be realized as a physical symmetry, i.e. is an algebraic symmetry leaving H invariant but it does not exist a map in the space of pure states of the system preserving the expectation values.

Naively it seems impossible to define a spontaneously broken symmetry, as for each map $\alpha : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ always exists a map $\tilde{\alpha} : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ defined by

$$\langle \alpha^{-1}(A) \rangle_{\Sigma} = \langle A \rangle_{\tilde{\alpha}(\Sigma)} \quad (6.4)$$

which clearly implies

$$\langle A \rangle_{\Sigma} = \langle \alpha(A) \rangle_{\tilde{\alpha}(\Sigma)} = \langle A' \rangle_{\Sigma'} \quad (6.5)$$

What goes wrong is that such map $\tilde{\alpha} : \Sigma \mapsto \Sigma'$ in principle may send the space \mathcal{S} not in itself, i.e. in principle $\tilde{\alpha}(\Sigma) \notin \mathcal{S}$, but in another space of states not realizable by means of physical operations on the system starting from the initial states in \mathcal{S} .

Take for instance the Heisenberg model of a ferromagnet in three dimension, where the spin is classically described by a unit vector in a lattice. Let's then consider the thermodynamic limit. It is well known that such system has a critical temperature T_c , such that for $T < T_c$ the ground states have an expectation value $\langle \mathbf{s}_i \rangle \neq 0$. For $T = 0$ all the spin are aligned in the same direction. The Hamiltonian for this system is

$$H = J \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle} (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_j)^2 \quad (6.6)$$

which is clearly invariant under rotations. Consider two ground states at $T = 0$ which differs for the orientation of the spins, and let's see if these can be related by some allowed transformation or not, if not we would have a spontaneous symmetry breaking. We are allowed to do only physical allowed (in particular, local) transformations, at least by some limiting procedure. Nevertheless we already took the thermodynamic limit, therefore we are not allowed to move all the spins (including those at infinity) at the same time with a single transformation. We are forced to use some limiting procedure, for instance we can consider neighbourhoods of circles of radius R and smoothly rotate the spins in these regions, while we increase R from 0 to ∞ . But as R approaches ∞ there are infinitely many spins rotated simultaneously, hence due to the non trivial interacting energy between spins, one can expect that such procedure requires an infinite amount of energy. If the explicit computation of the energy actually give us an infinite energy cost, then spontaneous symmetry breaking occurred.

Notice that in general one cannot guess whether we have SSB or not, a computation of the energy (or some other relevant physical quantity) is needed.

Unfortunately sometimes one refers to SSB in the case in which the Hamiltonian is invariant under a symmetry α , but each of its pure equilibrium states are not invariant under $\tilde{\alpha}$, hence restricting the non-invariance to equilibrium states.

For field theories are basically equivalent from the practical point of view but for systems with finite degrees of freedom they are not. For instance consider a horizontal place where gravitational force applies in the vertical direction, and put a point particle at rest a point, then certainly this describes an equilibrium state. The Hamiltonian is invariant under horizontal space translations, nevertheless the equilibrium state is not, hence according to the latter definition the symmetry is spontaneously broken. On the other side, certainly this is not a SSB according to the first definition, because we can easily move to another equilibrium state by some physically allowed translation, since all the intermediate states are pure states of the system.

6.2 Kinks

[Shi12, Chapter 2], [Gou+12], [Raj82, Chapters 2, 5, 8]

The first (topological) soliton that we consider is the *kink* in ϕ_2^4 , i.e. the relativistic ϕ^4 theory in 1+1 dimensions in the spontaneously broken phase.

6.2.1 Classical treatment

The classical Hamiltonian we consider is on the real line \mathbb{R} , labelled by x , and if the system is described by a real scalar field $\phi(x, t)$ with conjugated momentum $\pi(x, t)$ (the dependence on time of the fields is understood) it reads

$$H = \int dx \mathcal{H}(\pi, \phi) = \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \pi^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\phi}{dx} \right)^2 + \frac{g^2}{4} (\phi^2 - v^2)^2 \right] \quad (6.7)$$

with $v, g \in \mathbb{R}$. This potential is the field analogue of the double well with potential $\frac{g^2}{4}(x^2 - v^2)^2$. The equations of motion in Hamiltonian formalism are

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\phi} &= \frac{\delta H}{\delta \pi} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \pi} = \pi \\ \dot{\pi} &= \frac{\delta H}{\delta \phi} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \phi} = -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \phi + g^2 (\phi^2 - v^2) \phi \end{aligned} \quad (6.8)$$

where for the second equation we used an appropriate integration by parts in H . Equilibrium states are given by the equilibrium condition $\dot{\phi} = \dot{\pi} = 0$, which implies (for each $x \in \mathbb{R}$)

$$\pi = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \phi = g^2 (\phi^2 - v^2) \phi \quad (6.9)$$

Clearly, from the structure of the Hamiltonian, finite energy solutions must satisfy

$$\pi \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \phi \rightarrow \pm v \quad \text{for} \quad x \rightarrow \pm\infty \quad (6.10)$$

as otherwise H is divergent. Indeed all the terms inside H are strictly positive, hence both the term depending on π and the term depending on ϕ should vanish identically at infinite. The absolute minima of H are given by the two configurations

$$\phi_+^0 = +v \quad , \quad \pi^0 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \phi_-^0 = -v \quad , \quad \pi^0 = 0 \quad (6.11)$$

In such cases H vanishes, hence both these solutions are called *vacuum*. The expectation values of the field at the minima are

$$\langle \phi \rangle_{\phi_{\pm}^0, \pi^0} = \pm v \quad (6.12)$$

The Hamiltonian is invariant under the symmetry α

$$\phi \mapsto -\phi \quad , \quad \pi \mapsto -\pi \quad (6.13)$$

We see that in order to satisfy

$$\langle \phi \rangle_\Sigma = \langle \alpha(\phi) \rangle_{\tilde{\alpha}(\Sigma)} \quad (6.14)$$

for $\Sigma = (\phi_\pm^0, \pi^0)$ we should have

$$\pm v = \langle -\phi \rangle_{\tilde{\alpha}(\phi_\pm^0, \pi^0)} \quad (6.15)$$

which is satisfied for $\tilde{\alpha}(\phi_\pm^0, \pi^0) = (\phi_\mp^0, \pi^0)$. However it is impossible to reach continuously ϕ_-^0 from ϕ_+^0 and vice versa, since the set of boundary conditions at infinity, $\{+v, -v\}$, is not connected and to reach one minimum from the other with (the limit of) a local transformation we need to cross infinite energy states. Therefore symmetry eq. (6.13) is spontaneously broken, and the two minima that we found lives in disjoint space of states related by a parity transformation.

First-order equation

However there are two local minima in the space of finite-energy solutions: we can find them with the following trick. For $\pi = \dot{\phi} = 0$ the equation of motion reduces to

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \phi = \frac{g^2}{4} (\phi^2 - v^2) \phi \quad (6.16)$$

where now ϕ depends only on x . If we think about x as a time coordinate and ϕ as the position q of a particle, then eq. (6.16) become a Newton equation with potential $V(q) = \frac{g^2}{4} (q^2 - v^2)^2$. Due to energy conservation we get

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{q}^2 - \frac{g^2}{4} (q^2 - v^2)^2 = \text{const} = 0 \quad (6.17)$$

where the vanishing of the energy is due to the boundary condition eq. (6.10). Hence we can solve the previous differential equation:

$$\frac{dq}{dt} = \pm \frac{g}{\sqrt{2}} (q^2 - v^2) \quad (6.18)$$

i.e.

$$\frac{d\phi}{dx} = \pm \frac{g}{\sqrt{2}} (\phi^2 - v^2) \quad (6.19)$$

These are standard first order equations trivially solved by

$$\int dx = \mp \frac{\sqrt{2}}{g} \int \frac{d\phi}{\phi^2 - v^2} \quad (6.20)$$

which have solutions

$$x = \pm \frac{\sqrt{2}}{gv} \operatorname{arctanh} \left(\frac{\phi}{v} \right) + x_0 \quad (6.21)$$

i.e.

$$\phi_\pm^S(x) = \pm v \tanh \left(\frac{gv}{\sqrt{2}} (x - x_0) \right) \quad (6.22)$$

where we denoted the two solutions by S , which means “soliton”. In fig. 6.1 one can find a plot of the function $\phi_\pm^S(x)$. The value x_0 is called *collective coordinate* or the *modulus* of the soliton, called (classical) *kink* ($\phi_+^S(x)$) or (classical) *anti-kink* ($\phi_-^S(x)$).

We see that ϕ_+^S , ϕ_-^S , ϕ_+^0 and ϕ_-^0 cannot be deformed one into other by operations physically implementable, since the boundary conditions at ∞ are disjoint. This statement can be translated for the solitons in the conservation of a charge

$$Q = \int dx \frac{d}{dx} \phi = \phi(+\infty) - \phi(-\infty) \quad (6.23)$$

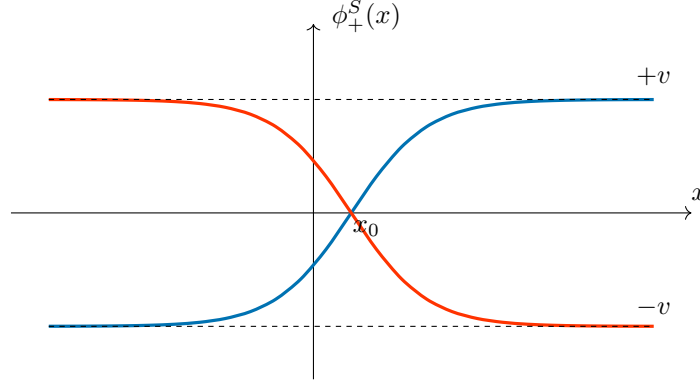


Figure 6.1: Shape of the solutions $\phi_+^S(x)$ (blue) and $\phi_-^S(x)$ (red).

which is topological (only the behaviour at infinity is relevant). The corresponding conserved current is

$$J_\mu(x) = \epsilon_{\mu\nu} \partial^\nu \phi \quad (6.24)$$

with $\mu, \nu = 0, 1$ where $\mu = 0$ is the time t component and $\mu = 1$ is the spatial x component, moreover ϵ is the Levi-Civita tensor. We can easily see that J_0 actually coincides with the conserved density associated to (6.23):

$$\int dx J_0 = \int dx \epsilon_{0\nu} \partial^\nu \phi = \int dx \partial^1 \phi = \int dx \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \phi = Q \quad (6.25)$$

while J_1 is the unique component of the vector current. The current J_μ is automatically conserved without using the equations of motion, since the conservation directly follows from the contraction of a symmetric tensor with an antisymmetric one

$$\partial^\mu J_\mu = \epsilon_{\mu\nu} \partial^\mu \partial^\nu \phi = \epsilon_{[\mu\nu]} \partial^{\{\mu} \partial^{\nu\}} \phi = 0 \quad (6.26)$$

The Bogomol'nyi bound

There is a more instructive way to prove that ϕ_\pm^S are the local minima at $(\mp v, \pm v)$ boundary conditions. Let's write the potential $V(\phi)$ in terms of a function $\mathcal{W}(\phi)$ called *superpotential* (since it is largely used in supersymmetric theories) by

$$V(\phi) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\mathcal{W}}{d\phi} \right)^2 \quad (6.27)$$

Since $V(\phi) = \frac{g^2}{4}(\phi^2 - v^2)^2$ this implies that

$$\frac{d\mathcal{W}}{d\phi} = \frac{g}{\sqrt{2}}(\phi^2 - v^2) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{W} = \frac{g}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{1}{3}\phi^3 - v^2\phi \right) \quad (6.28)$$

The Hamiltonian can be rewritten for $\pi = 0$ as

$$H = \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\phi}{dx} \pm \frac{d\mathcal{W}}{d\phi} \right)^2 \mp \frac{d\phi}{dx} \frac{d\mathcal{W}}{d\phi} \right] \quad \text{for boundary conditions } (\mp v, \pm v) \quad (6.29)$$

Now notice that the last term gives

$$\int dx \frac{d\mathcal{W}}{d\phi} \frac{d\phi}{dx} = \mathcal{W}(\phi(+\infty)) - \mathcal{W}(\phi(-\infty)) = \pm \Delta \mathcal{W} \quad \text{for boundary conditions } (\mp v, \pm v) \quad (6.30)$$

with

$$\Delta \mathcal{W} = \mathcal{W}(v) - \mathcal{W}(-v) = -\frac{4}{3\sqrt{2}} g v^3 < 0 \quad (6.31)$$

hence we get that

$$H \geq -\Delta \mathcal{W} > 0 \quad (6.32)$$

for both the possible boundary conditions. This lower bound is called *Bogomol'nyi bound* (as we will see has several generalizations). This bound is saturated, hence the equality in eq. (6.32) holds, only if the term inside square brackets in eq. (6.29) vanishes, i.e. if the following first order equation is satisfied

$$\frac{d\phi}{dx} = \pm \frac{d\mathcal{W}}{d\phi} \quad (6.33)$$

which coincides exactly with eq. (6.16). Hence the solutions ϕ_{\pm}^S are local minima for which the energy coincides with the Bogomol'nyi bound.

The energy density associated to $\phi_{\pm}^S(x_0)$, depending on the modulus x_0 , is given by the Hamiltonian density evaluated for the field $\phi_{\pm}^S(x_0)$ (it obviously depends on the spatial coordinate x and on the choice of x_0):

$$\mathcal{E}^{\text{cl}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\phi_{\pm}^S}{dx} \right)^2 + \frac{g^2}{4} (\phi_{\pm}^{S2} - v^2)^2 \stackrel{(6.33)}{=} 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\phi_{\pm}^S}{dx} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{d\phi_{\pm}^S}{dx} \right)^2 \quad (6.34)$$

In fig. 6.2 one can see the shape of $\mathcal{E}(x)$ associated to the field of fig. 6.1. It is clearly localized near x_0 . Hence the soliton exhibits an energy density profile as a “dump” around x_0 , thus behaving “like a particle” localized around x_0 . The integral

$$M_S^{\text{cl}} := \int dx \mathcal{E}^{\text{cl}}(x) = -\Delta\mathcal{W} = \frac{4}{3\sqrt{2}}gv^3 \quad (6.35)$$

can be interpreted as the “classical” mass of the soliton, i.e. the energy of the soliton in its rest frame.

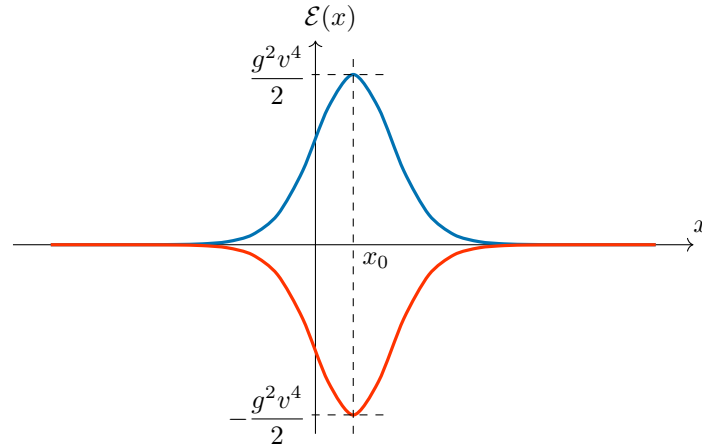


Figure 6.2: Shape of the energy density for the fields $\phi_+^S(x)$ (blue) and $\phi_-^S(x)$ (red) plotted in fig. 6.1 (the x -axis has not been rescaled).

Since (looking at the Hamiltonian) the theory is Lorentz invariant (on 1+1 dimension) one can “change the reference frame” and make the soliton move at a constant velocity v :

$$\phi_{\pm}^S(x, x_0, v) = \pm v \tanh \left(\frac{gv}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{x - x_0 - vt}{\sqrt{1 - v^2}} \right) \quad (6.36)$$

i.e. behaves like a particle with equation of motion $x = x_0 + vt$.

6.2.2 Semi-classical treatment

Up to now we just described the soliton at classical level. Let us turn to the quantum world. We first give a standard semi-classical (heuristic) Hamiltonian treatment, then we make some comments on a rigorous approach in the spirit of the reconstruction theorem previously discussed.

Semi-classical description of fluctuations around the vacuum

Let us start from the quantization of fluctuations around one vacuum. To quantize perturbatively fluctuations around $\phi_+^0 = v$ we rewrite the quantum field as

$$\hat{\phi}(x) = v + \hat{\chi}(x) \quad (6.37)$$

Formally (in principle regularizations are needed) expanding in $\hat{\chi}$ in the Hamiltonian we get

$$\begin{aligned} H &= \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \hat{\pi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\hat{\chi}}{dx} \right)^2 + \frac{g^2}{4} (2v\hat{\chi} + \hat{\chi}^2)^2 \right] \\ &= \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \hat{\pi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\hat{\chi}}{dx} \right)^2 + \frac{2(gv)^2}{2} \hat{\chi}^2 + \mathcal{P}(\hat{\chi}) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (6.38)$$

where $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\chi})$ is a polynomial in $\hat{\chi}$ of order higher than 2. Integrating by part we get

$$H_2 = \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \hat{\pi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \hat{\chi} \left(-\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + 2(gv)^2 \right) \hat{\chi} \right] \quad (6.39)$$

(H_2 denotes the quadratic part on H , describing the free field). One can then expand $\hat{\chi}$ in terms of the complete set of solutions of the differential equation

$$\left(-\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + 2(gv)^2\right)\chi_k = \omega^2(k)\chi_k \quad (6.40)$$

which we know are just the complex exponentials e^{ikx} with eigenvalues

$$\omega^2(k) = k^2 + 2(gv)^2 \quad (6.41)$$

and then one can write

$$\hat{\chi}(x) = \sum_k \hat{a}(k) \chi_k(x) \quad (6.42)$$

From the quadratic terms we see that $\hat{\chi}$ is a massive field with (bare) mass $m = \sqrt{2}gv$, such that we recover the usual dispersion relation $\omega(k) = \sqrt{k^2 + m^2}$, and polynomial interaction given by $\mathcal{P}(\hat{\chi})$. Perturbatively we impose the CCR on $\hat{\chi}$ and $\hat{\pi} = \dot{\hat{\chi}}$

$$[\hat{\chi}(x), \hat{\pi}(y)] = [\hat{\chi}(x), \dot{\hat{\chi}}(y)] = i\hbar \delta(x - y) \quad (6.43)$$

and in order to make sense to the previous discussion we insert a normal ordering in the Hamiltonian, so that the free H_2 Hamiltonian has zero vacuum energy (otherwise it would be divergent) and then proceed in the usual way.

Clearly in perturbation theory the bare mass of $\hat{\chi}$ is renormalized by the polynomial interaction, and the relevant term, coming from $:\hat{\chi}^4:$, is the counterterm corresponding to the following Feynman graph

$$(-1) \cdot \begin{array}{c} \chi \\ \text{---} \bullet \text{---} \chi \\ g^2/4 \end{array} = -4 \cdot 3 \cdot \frac{g^2}{4} \int \frac{d^2 p}{(2\pi)^2} \frac{\hbar}{p^2 + m^2} = -\frac{3g^2}{4\pi} \int_0^\infty dp \frac{d}{dp} \log(p^2 + m^2) \quad (6.44)$$

where $4 \cdot 3$ is a combinatorial factor^{II}, and we set $\hbar = 1$. Introducing a cutoff $\Lambda \gg m$ we get renormalized mass

$$m_R^2 = m^2 - \frac{3g^2}{2\pi} \log\left(\frac{\Lambda^2}{m^2}\right) \quad (6.45)$$

^{II}Notice that the coupling $\frac{g^2}{4}$ already contains the factor $1/4!$ associated to the possible permutations of the legs of the vertex. This can be easily understood by comparing the interaction potential of the theory with the potential of $\lambda\phi^4$ theory. Since there is only one vertex in the graph no symmetry factor associated to the exchange of the vertices is needed. Hence we just have to take care of the $4 \cdot 3$ possible ways to connect the external fields to the vertex.

where we multiplied the correction coming from (6.44) by 2 in order to take into account the factor 1/2 in the mass term of the Hamiltonian. The quantity m_R^2 is exactly the square of the mass that one detects if perform an experimental measure of the mass of the fluctuation χ around the vacuum.

Semi-classical description of fluctuations around soliton solution

Let us now turn to the quantization around the soliton solution, consider for instance ϕ_+^S . Since this is a local minima, we can still expand around such solution very similarly to what we done for the fluctuations around the vacuum. First notice that, expressed in terms of the bare mass $m = \sqrt{2}gv$, the classical mass of the kink eq. (6.35) reads

$$M_S^{\text{cl}} = \frac{m^3}{3g^2} \sim \frac{1}{g^2} \quad (6.46)$$

hence it cannot be recovered by a perturbation theory around $g = 0$, the perturbative expansion in g^{-2} is not well defined for $g \approx 0$. The behaviour $\sim g^{-2}$ of the energy or the action is typical to the soliton solutions.

A naive approach to quantization would be to write

$$\hat{\phi}(x, t) = \phi_+^S(x) + \hat{\chi}(x, t) \quad (6.47)$$

Inserting in the Hamiltonian we get

$$H = \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_+^{S^2} + \dot{\phi}_+^S \dot{\chi} + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\chi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\phi_+^S}{dx} \right)^2 + \frac{d\phi_+^S}{dx} \frac{d\chi}{dx} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\chi}{dx} \right)^2 + \right. \\ \left. + \frac{g^2}{4} \left[(\phi_+^{S^2} - v^2)^2 + (4\phi_+^{S^3} - 4v^2\phi_+^S)\chi + (6\phi_+^{S^2} - 2v^2)\chi^2 + 4\phi_+^S\chi^3 + \chi^4 \right] \right] \quad (6.48)$$

By integrating by parts with boundary conditions $\hat{\chi}(\pm\infty) = 0$ (otherwise the field would have infinite energy) we get

$$H = \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_+^{S^2} + \dot{\phi}_+^S \dot{\chi} + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\chi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\phi_+^S}{dx} \right)^2 - \frac{d^2\phi_+^S}{dx^2} \hat{\chi} - \frac{1}{2} \hat{\chi} \frac{d^2\chi}{dx^2} + \right. \\ \left. + \frac{g^2}{4} \left[(\phi_+^{S^2} - v^2)^2 + (4\phi_+^{S^3} - 4v^2\phi_+^S)\chi + (6\phi_+^{S^2} - 2v^2)\chi^2 + 4\phi_+^S\chi^3 + \chi^4 \right] \right] \quad (6.49)$$

first notice that the terms linear in $\hat{\chi}$ vanish due to the equation of motion of ϕ_+^S :

$$\left(\frac{d^2\phi_+^S}{dx^2} - g^2(\phi_+^{S^3} - v^2\phi_+^S) \right) \hat{\chi} = 0 \quad (6.50)$$

and combining with (6.34) we get

$$H = M_S^{\text{cl}} + \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_+^{S^2} + \dot{\phi}_+^S \dot{\chi} + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\chi}^2 - \frac{1}{2} \hat{\chi} \frac{d^2\chi}{dx^2} + \frac{g^2}{4} \left[(6\phi_+^{S^2} - 2v^2)\chi^2 + 4\phi_+^S\chi^3 + \chi^4 \right] \right] \\ = M_S^{\text{cl}} + \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_+^{S^2} + \dot{\phi}_+^S \dot{\chi} + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\chi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \hat{\chi} L_2 \hat{\chi} + \frac{g^2}{4} (4\phi_+^S\chi^3 + \chi^4) \right] \quad (6.51)$$

with

$$L_2 = \frac{g^2}{2} (6\phi_+^{S^2} - 2v^2) - \frac{d^2}{dx^2} = \frac{m^2}{2} \left(3 \tanh^2 \frac{mx}{2} - 1 \right) - \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \quad (6.52)$$

Up to now we kept terms proportional to $\dot{\phi}_+^S$ because in the following we will introduce a time dependence in ϕ_+^S , nevertheless at this stage the field is constant, hence taking the terms quadratic in $\hat{\chi}$ we get

$$H_2 = \int dx \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{\chi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \hat{\chi} L_2 \hat{\chi} \right) \quad (6.53)$$

and the remaining terms are third and quartic interactions in $\hat{\chi}$.

Now the problem is similar to the free one, except for the fact that the operator associated to the harmonic oscillator has been replaced by L_2 . We have to solve the “Schrödinger equation”

$$L_2 \chi_n(x) = \omega_n^2 \chi_n(x) \quad (6.54)$$

where n and χ_n play the previous roles of k and e^{ikx} respectively. Then we can rewrite

$$\hat{\chi}(x, t) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{a}_n(t) \chi_n(x) \quad (6.55)$$

We can rewrite the Hamiltonian as

$$H_2 = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \frac{\dot{\hat{a}}_n^2}{2} + \frac{\omega_n^2}{2} \hat{a}_n^2 \quad (6.56)$$

i.e. naively as a sum of uncoupled oscillator, as in the free case.

This would actually be true if $\omega_n > 0$, but one can prove that there is one vanishing eigenvalue ω_0 , it is a “zero mode” and must be treated separately because the fluctuations along the direction of this mode are not small.^{III} Such zero mode is associated to fluctuations of the modulus of kink solution: changing the value of x_0 the solution has the same energy as the original one, hence this do not contribute to the Hamiltonian, moreover there is no limit of this kind of fluctuations, as all possible values of x_0 give kink solutions with the same energy.

The occurrence of the zero mode can be understood by a general argument. The kink solution depend on the fixed value x_0 , hence fixing the solution the translational invariance has been explicitly broken in the space of equilibrium states.^{IV} Such invariance is recovered by taking into account all possible values of x_0 , and the standard approach, called *adiabatic*, to recover the invariance is to convert the position x_0 of the soliton into a quantum dynamical variable $\hat{x}_0(t)$ (a quantum position variable cannot assume a sharp value, hence there is no breaking of translational invariance) and to assume that the only dependence on time of the kink solution enter trough its modulus^V

$$\phi_+^S(x) \mapsto \phi_+^S(x - \hat{x}_0(t)) \quad \text{and} \quad \chi_n(x) \mapsto \chi_n(x - \hat{x}_0(t)) \quad (6.57)$$

Notice this is in agreement with the previous interpretation of the classical kink as a localized particle, indeed moving to a quantum mechanical description a semi-classical^{VI} particle should only depend on a quantum operator describing its position.

Expanding $\hat{\phi}$ in \hat{x}_0 we are able to recover the quantum mechanics of the kink. The same adiabatic strategy apply in general for the description of the solitons, but we will discuss it in details only in this instance. For example the time derivative of $\hat{\phi}$ is given by (notice that using the adiabatic approach we eliminated the zero mode ω_0)^{VII}

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\hat{\phi}}(x, t) &= \frac{d}{dt} (\phi_+^S(x - \hat{x}_0(t)) + \hat{\chi}(x - \hat{x}_0(t), t)) = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\phi_+^S(x - \hat{x}_0(t)) + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \hat{a}_n(t) \chi_n(x - \hat{x}_0(t)) \right) \\ &= \left[-\frac{d\phi_+^S(x - \hat{x}_0(t))}{dx} - \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \hat{a}_n(t) \frac{d\chi_n(x - \hat{x}_0(t))}{dx} \right] \dot{\hat{x}}_0(t) + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \dot{\hat{a}}_n(t) \chi_n(x - \hat{x}_0(t)) \\ &= \left[-\frac{d\phi_+^S(x - \hat{x}_0(t))}{dx} - \frac{d\hat{\chi}(x - \hat{x}_0(t), t)}{dx} \right] \dot{\hat{x}}_0(t) + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \dot{\hat{a}}_n(t) \chi_n(x - \hat{x}_0(t)) \\ &= -\frac{d\hat{\phi}(x, t)}{dx} \dot{\hat{x}}_0(t) + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \dot{\hat{a}}_n(t) \chi_n(x - \hat{x}_0(t)) \end{aligned} \quad (6.58)$$

^{III}Fluctuations associated to $\omega_n = 0$ are not limited by any physical argument, as the kinetic energy is identically vanishing for this mode. Even worse, $\omega_n < 0$ would imply that the system is unstable, as fluctuations naturally become arbitrarily large. Luckily, the last case does not occur in our treatment.

^{IV}This is very similar to the previous example of a classical particle in a flat plane, subject to a gravitational force.

^VAdiabaticity means “very slow changes” of the system, in this way translations of the modulus are slow enough to leave invariant the shape of the field during the variation of x_0 . This motivates the dependence on time of the kink only through $x_0(t)$.

^{VI}I.e. without any other quantum number.

^{VII}Let $\mathbb{Z}^* := \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ be the set of non-zero integers.

A lezione lei aveva preso $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Assumendo invece $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ otteniamo il fattore 2 necessario a rendere esatto il risultato a fine sezione, di cui le parlavo quando ci siamo sentiti.

Notice that the second term in the square bracket, when multiplied with $\dot{\hat{x}}_0(t)$, give a product of operators and in general it gives a negligible contribution respect to the other terms.^{VIII} The Hamiltonian around the soliton up to quadratic terms is

$$\begin{aligned} H_{\leq 2} &\stackrel{(6.51)}{=} M_S^{\text{cl}} + \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}_+^S{}^2 + \dot{\phi}_+^S \dot{\chi} + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\chi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \hat{\chi} L_2 \hat{\chi} \right] \\ &\stackrel{(6.58)}{=} M_S^{\text{cl}} + \int dx \left[\left(\frac{d\phi_+^S}{dx} \right)^2 \dot{\hat{x}}_0^2 - \frac{d\phi_+^S}{dx} \dot{\hat{x}}_0 \dot{\chi} + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\chi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \hat{\chi} L_2 \hat{\chi} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (6.59)$$

As a consequence of the adiabaticity assumption^{IX} the effect of the time dependence of the modulus and the presence of the fluctuations should be considered separately in the Hamiltonian, i.e. the term $\dot{\hat{x}}_0 \dot{\chi}$ gives higher order corrections which we can neglect. From another point of view, typically the Fourier transform of $\dot{\hat{x}}_0$ should have low frequencies components, whereas typically fluctuations highly oscillate, hence the support in the Fourier space of $\hat{\chi}$ is typically characterized by high frequencies. Since Fourier components of different wavelengths are orthogonal we get $\int dx \dot{\hat{x}}_0 \dot{\chi} \approx 0$. For the same reason, we neglected $\frac{d\chi}{dx} \dot{\hat{x}}_0$ in (6.58). Using eq. (6.34) we finally get

$$\begin{aligned} H_{\leq 2} &= M_S^{\text{cl}} + \frac{1}{2} M_S^{\text{cl}} \dot{\hat{x}}_0^2 + \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\chi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \hat{\chi} L_2 \hat{\chi} \right] \\ &= M_S^{\text{cl}} + \frac{1}{2} M_S^{\text{cl}} \dot{\hat{x}}_0^2 + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \frac{\dot{\hat{a}}_n^2}{2} + \frac{\omega_n^2}{2} \hat{a}_n^2 \\ &= M_S^{\text{cl}} + \frac{\hat{p}_0^2}{2 M_S^{\text{cl}}} + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \frac{\dot{\hat{a}}_n^2}{2} + \frac{\omega_n^2}{2} \hat{a}_n^2 \end{aligned} \quad (6.60)$$

where we introduced the momentum $\hat{p}_0 := M_S^{\text{cl}} \dot{\hat{x}}_0$. In this expression we have three contribution: the classical mass of the soliton, a term corresponding to the kinetic energy of the soliton as a quantum particle, and a set of oscillators describing the effect of oscillations around the classical solution. Recall that we made an expansion in $\dot{\hat{x}}_0$ in a relativistic framework, hence we can reconstruct the complete energy of the soliton meant as a quantum particle:

$$M_S^{\text{cl}} + \frac{\hat{p}_0^2}{2 M_S^{\text{cl}}} \longrightarrow \sqrt{M_S^{\text{cl}} + \hat{p}_0^2} \quad (6.61)$$

(we won't use the complete energy since we are working at quadratic order in the operators). Notice that there is no potential for \hat{x}_0 , because consistently with translational invariance H cannot depend on \hat{x}_0 itself but only on \hat{p}_0 . Quantization is finally achieved imposing commutation relations

$$[\hat{x}_0, \hat{p}_0] = i \quad \text{and} \quad [\hat{a}_n, \hat{a}_m] = i \delta_{nm} \quad (6.62)$$

Using eq. (6.60) one can approximatively compute the renormalization of the mass M_S^{cl} due to the quantum modes. First notice that since non-zero modes are oscillatory modes we know that

$$\sigma \left(\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \frac{\dot{\hat{a}}_n^2}{2} + \frac{\omega_n^2}{2} \hat{a}_n^2 \right) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \left(N_n + \frac{1}{2} \right) \omega_n \quad \text{with} \quad N_n \in \mathbb{N} \quad \text{for all} \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}^* \quad (6.63)$$

Hence in its ground state ($N_n = 0$, $p_0 = 0$) the energy of the kink becomes

$$M_S^{\text{cl}} + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \frac{\omega_n^2}{2} \quad (6.64)$$

However we should remember that in RQFT the Hamiltonian is defined so that the vacuum (perturbatively) is annihilated by H , hence we have to subtract to the previous expression the vacuum expectation

^{VIII}A better motivation of this claim will be given in the following.

^{IX}From the practical point of view, this consist in assuming that our “particle” moves very slowly, in such a way that the motion do not affect the shape of the field.

value of the “unrenormalized” Hamiltonian $H_{\leq 2}$. Therefore, the energy of the ground state for the Hamiltonian is

$$M_S^q = M_S^{\text{cl}} + \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \frac{\omega_n}{2} - \frac{\omega_{\text{vac},n}}{2} \quad (6.65)$$

where $\omega_{\text{vac},n}$ are the frequencies of the oscillator modes in the vacuum. In the thermodynamic limit $L \rightarrow \infty$ these are labelled by a continuum index p are since we are in a relativistic context the on-shell condition implies $\omega_n \rightarrow \omega(p) = \sqrt{p^2 + m^2}$. To get a well defined subtraction in M_S^q we first put the system in a region of length L finite, and then we take the limit $L \rightarrow \infty$. One can fix the boundary conditions in some different ways provided that in the thermodynamic limit they coincide with the previous ones. We use the (Dirichlet) vanishing boundary conditions at the boundary of L , such that

$$\omega_{\text{vac},n} = \sqrt{p_n^2 + m^2} \quad \text{with} \quad p_n L = \pi n \quad (6.66)$$

For H_2 , apart from the eigenvalue 0, there is an eigenvalue $\omega_1 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}m$ while all the other eigenvalues lie above m^2 . In the thermodynamic limit the eigenvalues larger than m^2 are still given by a continuum $\omega(\tilde{p}) = \sqrt{\tilde{p}^2 + m^2}$ corresponding to the asymptotic behaviour of the eigenfunctions of the operator L_2

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_{\tilde{p}}(x) &\xrightarrow{x \rightarrow +\infty} e^{\pm i\tilde{p}x} \\ &\xrightarrow{x \rightarrow -\infty} e^{\pm i(\tilde{p}x + \delta(\tilde{p}))} \end{aligned} \quad (6.67)$$

where $e^{i\delta(\tilde{p})}$ is a correction called *phase shift* (as it gives an phase shift to the asymptotic behaviour) which always comes out for non-trivial scatterings and is given by

$$e^{i\delta(\tilde{p})} = e^{i \left[2 \arctan \frac{\tilde{p}}{m} + 2 \arctan \frac{2\tilde{p}}{m} \right]} \quad (6.68)$$

For the system at finite length with 0-boundary conditions the phase shift is given by

$$\tilde{p}_n L - \delta(\tilde{p}_n) = \pi n = p_n L \quad \text{for} \quad n \in \mathbb{N} \quad (6.69)$$

Then eq. (6.65) reads (discarding the finite difference due to the eigenvalue ω_0 and ω_1 , as we are interested in the divergent terms)

$$M_S^q - M_S^{\text{cl}} \approx \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \left(\frac{\sqrt{\tilde{p}_n^2 + m^2}}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{p_n^2 + m^2}}{2} \right) \quad (6.70)$$

Going to the thermodynamic limit and using $n = p_n L / \pi = (\tilde{p}_n L - \delta(\tilde{p}_n)) / \pi$ we can replace^X

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^*} \mapsto \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dp L}{\pi} \quad (6.71)$$

and then we get

$$\begin{aligned} M_S^q - M_S^{\text{cl}} &\approx \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dp L}{\pi} \left(\sqrt{\left(p + \frac{\delta(p)}{L} \right)^2 + m^2} - \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} \right) \stackrel{\delta(p) \ll L}{\approx} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dp}{2\pi} \frac{p \delta(p)}{\sqrt{p^2 + m^2}} \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dp}{2\pi} \delta(p) \frac{d\sqrt{p^2 + m^2}}{dp} = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dp}{\pi} \delta(p) \frac{d\sqrt{p^2 + m^2}}{dp} \end{aligned} \quad (6.72)$$

where in the third step we expanded around $\delta(p)/L \approx 0$ and in the last we used $\delta(p) = -\delta(-p)$. Integrating by parts with boundary conditions $\delta(0) = \delta(\infty) = 0$ (directly follows from eq. (6.68)) we finally get

$$\begin{aligned} M_S^q - M_S^{\text{cl}} &= - \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dp}{\pi} \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} \frac{d\delta(p)}{dp} \stackrel{(6.68)}{=} - \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dp}{\pi} \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} \left(\frac{2m}{p^2 + m^2} + \frac{4m}{4p^2 + m^2} \right) \\ &= - \frac{2m}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} dy \sqrt{y^2 + 1} \left(\frac{1}{y^2 + 1} + \frac{2}{4y^2 + 1} \right) \quad \text{with} \quad y = \frac{p}{m} \end{aligned} \quad (6.73)$$

^XThe value $p = 0$ has zero measure, hence we can include it in the integral.

The last integral is clearly logarithmically divergent. Introducing a cutoff Λ the divergent term is indeed (the previous integral is well defined for small p , hence we consider only the high energy part)

$$M_S^q - M_S^{\text{cl}} \approx -\frac{3m}{\pi} \int^{\Lambda/m} \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{3m}{\pi} \log \frac{\Lambda}{m} = -\frac{3m}{2\pi} \log \frac{\Lambda^2}{m^2} \quad (6.74)$$

This divergence turns out since we considered the unrenormalized mass rather than the renormalized one, indeed in our discussion so far we did not take into account higher order interactions. We should take into account divergences due to third and quartic coupling, as we have done for the fluctuations around the vacuum.

Using the result eq. (6.45) for δm^2 , this correction on the mass implies a corresponding correction to the energy density:

$$\delta \mathcal{E} = -\frac{1}{2} \delta m^2 (\phi_{\text{kink}}^2 - \phi_{\text{vac}}^2) = \frac{1}{2} \delta m^2 v^2 \left(1 - \tanh^2 \frac{gv(x-x_0)}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \quad (6.75)$$

which, by integration, give the mass one-loop correction

$$\begin{aligned} \delta M &= \frac{1}{2} \delta m^2 \frac{m^2}{2g^2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \left(1 - \tanh^2 \frac{m}{2}(x-x_0) \right) \\ &= \delta m^2 \frac{m}{2g^2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dy \frac{d}{dy} \tanh y \quad \text{with } y = \frac{1}{2} m(x-x_0) \\ &= \delta m^2 \frac{m}{g^2} \stackrel{(6.45)}{=} -\frac{3m}{2\pi} \log \frac{\Lambda^2}{m^2} \end{aligned} \quad (6.76)$$

which is exactly the factor needed to cancel the divergence in the bare mass of χ in eq. (6.74). So the counterterm needed for the χ mass renormalization makes finite also the quantum correction (perturbatively) to the kink mass.

6.2.3 Applications

Before leaving the semi-classical treatment of the kink let us comment some physical applications.

High-energy physics

Let's consider the same theory in $D = 3 + 1$ dimension. Then adding two dimensions, the “soliton” center x_0 instead of a point become a plane (along y and z directions), and the kink become a *domain wall*, as it separates the space in two domains. Clearly in the thermodynamic limit the energy of such object is infinite, but the energy per unit area A

$$T = \frac{H}{A} \quad (6.77)$$

is still finite and is called *wall tension*. Notice that the energy H is not well defined as it is divergent, but still we can define T and then take its thermodynamic limit, which is well-defined. The world with a domain wall is disjoint from the world without a domain wall, hence we have a spontaneous breaking of translational invariance, except for some special instances, for example in the case of space-time with a particular topology (e.g. if the space-time is a torus, then H and A are finite and the wall just “open” the torus in a cylinder) or in the case where the wall is a purely quantum effect and has a “virtual area”, i.e. it exists only for finite time.

In $D > 2$ the quantum version of x_0 , $\hat{x}_0(t)$, becomes a function of the coordinate of the wall, for example in $D = 4$ we have $\hat{x}_0(t, y, z)$. A calculation completely analogous to the previous one gives the following Hamiltonian (at quadratic order) for the kink

$$H_{\leq 2} = \int dt dy dz \frac{1}{2} \left[\hat{p}_0(t, y, z)^2 + (\partial_y \hat{x}_0(t, y, z))^2 + (\partial_z \hat{x}_0(t, y, z))^2 \right] \quad (6.78)$$

A complete treatment including higher order terms in the Lagrangian formalism give the so called *Nambu-Goto* or *Polyakov actions*. Moreover, if a domain world is coupled to gravity, it “antigravitates”, that is, it is repulsive for both other walls or for massive particles.

Non capisco come si ottenga la seguente formula. Mi sembrerebbe più naturale usare $\frac{1}{2} \delta m (\phi_{\text{kink}}^2 - \phi_{\text{vac}}^2)$

Penso che il segno – in $\delta \mathcal{E}$ sia sbagliato, togliendolo il risultato cancella (6.74) visto che hanno segni opposti.

Solid state physics

Kinks appear in many materials, especially in those which can be described as one-dimensional chains. A famous one is the polyacetylene. This is a linear polymer made of a sequence of units of $(\text{C}_2\text{H}_2)_n$ with two minimal energy configurations, shown in fig. 6.3, which can be obtained from each other by reflection, i.e. by a \mathbb{Z}_2 symmetry.

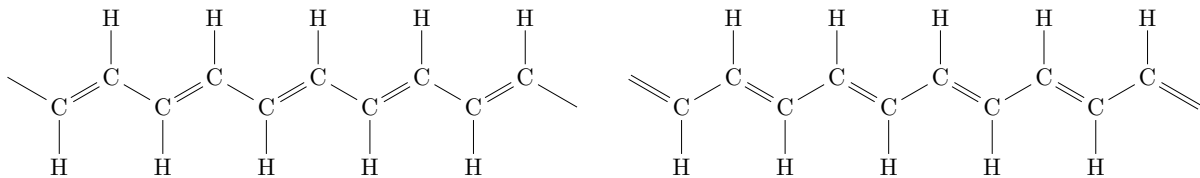


Figure 6.3: Two minimal energy configurations of *trans*-polyacetylene.

A kink interpolates between the two structures and in terms of the displacement of the double bond it has exactly the form of the kink of ϕ^4 in the lattice renormalization. An example of such situation is shown in fig. 6.4.

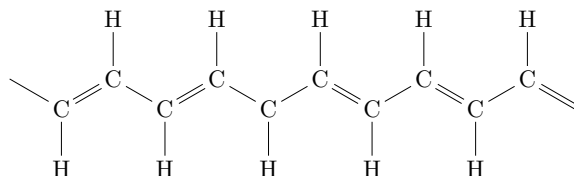


Figure 6.4: A state of *trans*-polyacetylene chain with one of the double bonds converted into a single bond form a domain wall.

There are a lot of one-dimensional systems with n ground states related by \mathbb{Z}_n symmetry, spontaneously broken, which exhibits kinks interpolating between these ground states.

6.2.4 Quantum field theory treatment

[Mar86], [Mar87], [FM87], [FM88], [FM90]

Up to now we have discussed classical and quantum mechanical treatment of kinks. What about a really QFT treatment?

The space of configurations of the path integral

We start by asking how much the classical solution of a field theory is relevant for understanding the corresponding QFT behaviour. In the path-integral approach the configurations of the field $\phi(x)$ are weighted by $e^{-\frac{1}{\hbar}S(\phi)}$, where $S(\phi)$ is the classical action, and the classical equations of motion can be derived as minima of $S(\phi)$.

The naive answer to the above question is that classical solutions give the dominant contribution to the path integral at least in the semi-classical limit of small \hbar or more in general if the action contribution $e^{-S(\phi)}$ dominates over the measure $\mathcal{D}\phi$, e.g. when one can rewrite the action in the form $\beta S(\phi)$ with β sufficiently large.^{XI} In our ϕ^4 model this is achieved rescaling

$$\phi \rightarrow g\phi \quad (6.79)$$

so that

$$S(\phi) \rightarrow \frac{1}{g^2} \int d^2x \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d\phi}{dx} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} (\phi - (vg)^2)^2 \right) \quad (6.80)$$

hence for small g^2 , keeping vg fixed, the exponential weight is dominant in the path integral.

^{XI}This is often the case for supersymmetric theories, at least in low dimensions.

However, if there is no UV cutoff, this naive reasoning is wrong, because the typical configurations of ϕ are extremely singular, whereas solutions of equations of motion are typically very regular. If we consider just the quadratic term of the action, denoted by $Q(\phi)$, there is a simple way to understand the typical regularity of ϕ . Let formally

$$C(x-y) \equiv \langle \phi(x)\phi(y) \rangle_2 := \frac{\int \mathcal{D}\phi e^{-Q(\phi)} \phi(x)\phi(y)}{\int \mathcal{D}\phi e^{-Q(\phi)}} \quad (6.81)$$

usually called *covariance*, then assuming translational invariance we can perform the Fourier transform of C , $\tilde{C}(k)$, and then there is a theorem proving that typical configurations of ϕ satisfy with probability 1 the estimate

$$|\phi(x) - \phi(y)| < \text{const} \cdot |x - y|^\alpha \quad (6.82)$$

for every α such that

$$\int d^D k \tilde{C}(k) k^{2\alpha} < \infty \quad (6.83)$$

Conversely, eq. (6.82) is almost never satisfied if eq. (6.83) does not hold.

For $D = 1$ (i.e. $\phi(x) = q(t)$, we are in the quantum mechanical case) with

$$\tilde{C}(k_0) = \frac{1}{k_0^2 + m^2} \quad (6.84)$$

which is the case for the harmonic oscillator, we have

$$\int dk_0 \frac{1}{k_0^2 + m^2} k_0^{2\alpha} < \infty \quad \text{only if} \quad \alpha < \frac{1}{2} \quad (6.85)$$

hence $q(t)$ is continuous in t (continuity is ensured by $\alpha > 0$) but it is not differentiable (differentiability requires $\alpha > 1$).^{XII}

For arbitrary D and

$$\tilde{C}(k) = \frac{1}{k^2 + m^2} \quad (6.86)$$

condition eq. (6.83) is satisfied provided that $D + 2\alpha < 2$ holds. This means that $\phi(x)$ is not even continuous for $D \geq 2$. For this reason our initial claim is wrong, and classical solutions are not the dominant contributions to the path integral. Notice that the situation become worse and worse as we increase D , since greater values of D implies smaller values of α . The reason behind this is that higher is the dimension, stronger are the ultraviolet effects, as one can easily see this fact from dimensional analysis.

Typical configurations of ϕ are distributions. In a sense we should expect this, since quantum fields are described by operator-valued distributions in the operator formalism. It turns out that configurations with finite action are of measure 0 in the space of all field configurations over which the path integral is performed.

Summarizing, for a theory where the ultraviolet cutoff is pushed to infinity and the translational invariance holds, we can apply the previous theorem, which tells us exactly what happens when the path integral is Gaussian, i.e. when the action is quadratic, described by Q . In particular, we know that typical configurations are extremely singular: they are mostly continuous only in $D = 1$, whereas in all dimensions are not differentiable. As we will see, this suggests which configurations dominate the path integral, and the description of such configuration will lead us to the notion of *defects*, which is the corner stone for the description of solitons in QFT.

^{XII}This may be interpreted as follows: since at any time the particle can be found at an arbitrary position, the probability that the sequence of positions follows a smooth path is practically vanishing.

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