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- We are not going to pursue the boson path integral in detail, but let's examine it a bit to see what is different from the ϕ -path integral.

- The boson and fermion path integrals actually look the same at this point \Rightarrow the differences are hidden in suppressed spin indices, c-number functions $\psi(x), \psi^\dagger(x)$ versus Grassmann functions for ψ and ψ^\dagger , and the boundary conditions on the fields.

- We stress again that the ψ 's and ψ^\dagger 's in the path integral for Z_0 are not operators (no \wedge 's), so in the boson case they commute entirely.

• In the fermion case they are also not operators, but they anti-commute.

- In the fermion case, we'll write

$$\psi^\dagger_\alpha(x) \psi_\beta(x') \psi_\alpha(x) \psi_\beta(x')$$

where α and β are spin indices and there is an implied summation $\sum_{\alpha=1}^2$ when indices are repeated.

- Comparisons to ϕ -path integral

- If we want to add a source, we'll have two types (treated independently)

$$\eta(x) \psi(x) + \psi^\dagger(x) \bar{\eta}(x)$$

(The $\bar{\eta}$'s are really just complex conjugates for spinless bosons).

$$\Rightarrow \left[\psi \rightarrow \int \frac{\delta}{\delta \eta(x)} \quad \text{and} \quad \psi^\dagger(x) \rightarrow \int \frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{\eta}(x)} \right]$$

- Instead of " a " we have the differential operator

$$a \rightarrow \frac{\delta}{\delta t} - \frac{\nabla^2}{2m} - \mu$$

- but remember that this is a shorthand for the (limit of a) discretized version. Then, this term is really a Gaussian matrix integral.

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From page ⑤ we have the result

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz_1 \cdots dz_n e^{-\frac{1}{2} z_i A_{ij} z_j + z_i J_i} = (2\pi)^{n/2} [\det A]^{-1/2} e^{\frac{1}{2} J_i A_{ij}^{-1} J_j}$$

With a suitable generalization to two sources, we see that we get the determinant of $(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \nabla_m^2 - \mu)$ appearing and its inverse in the place of D_0 .

The generalization is to an integral over pairs of complex conjugate variables $dz_i^* dz_i$, which is (N+0 pg. 34)

$$\int \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{dz_i^* dz_i}{2\pi i} e^{-z_i^* H_{ij} z_j + \eta_i^* z_i + \eta_i z_i^*} = [\det H]^{-1} e^{\eta_i^* H_{ij}^{-1} \eta_j}$$

This result is valid for any matrix H with a positive Hermitian part.

If H is, in fact, Hermitian, we prove it the same way that the result up top was proved:

i) define a transformation $y_i = z_i - H_{ij}^{-1} \eta_j$ and its complex conjugate

ii) transform H to diagonal form

iii) evaluate $\int \frac{dz^* dz}{2\pi i} e^{-z^* dz} = \int \frac{du dv}{\pi} e^{-a(u^2 + v^2)} = \frac{1}{a}$

where $z = u + iv$. We can take $\int \frac{dz^* dz}{2i} = \int du dv$ as the definition of the measure $dz^* dz$. (Stone has a more highbrow discussion of pp. 153-156).

As noted, the integration is over all u and v from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$.

Summary: We get over the determinant appearing (this is just the multiplicative inverse) and then with the "sources" η_i and η_i^* we have the matrix inverse,

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At this point it would be opportune to present the analogous formula for Grassmann (anti-commuting) variables. [The following is taken largely from Negele and Orland, set 1.5]

So we'll start with a quick introduction to the essentials of Grassmann numbers, integrals, and all that.

- We are really dealing with algebras of anticommuting numbers, but for our purposes (for now at least) we can simply regard the following definitions and manipulations as a convenient and efficient mathematical construction that builds in all of the minus signs associated with antisymmetry.
 \Rightarrow There is no need to interpret them physically.
- Standard reference: Brézin, LeGuillou, Zinn-Justin, Phys. Rev. D 15 (1977) 1544; 1988.

• An n -dimensional Grassmann algebra is defined by a set of generators $\{\xi_\alpha\}$, $\alpha = 1, \dots, n$ that satisfy anti-commutation relations:

$$\boxed{\{\xi_\alpha, \xi_\beta\} \equiv \xi_\alpha \xi_\beta + \xi_\beta \xi_\alpha = 0} \quad \alpha, \beta = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

• Note that these are not like the field operator anti-commutation relation where one could get a non-zero result — these always precisely anti-commute.

• An immediate consequence is that

$$\boxed{\xi_\alpha^2 = 0 \quad \text{for } \forall \alpha}$$

so these are somewhat unusual objects!

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- We form a basis of the algebra by considering all distinct products of the generators.

\Rightarrow a number in the algebra is a linear combination of

$$\{1, \xi_1, \xi_{\alpha_1} \xi_{\alpha_2}, \dots, \xi_{\alpha_1} \xi_{\alpha_2} \dots \xi_{\alpha_n}\}$$

with complex coefficients with a conventional ordering of the coefficients $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots < \alpha_n$.

- The dimension with n generators of the algebra is 2^n (exercise for the reader to verify!).

- We'll need to define complex conjugates, which we do when n is even by just assigning half of the generators ξ_α to have corresponding ξ_α^* among the other half.
- The properties of complex conjugation are predictable:

$$(\xi_\alpha)^* = \xi_\alpha^* \quad (\xi_\alpha^*)^* = \xi_\alpha$$

$$\text{If } \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \text{ (a complex number), then } (\lambda \xi_\alpha)^* = \lambda^* \xi_\alpha^*$$

$$\text{and } (\xi_{\alpha_1} \dots \xi_{\alpha_n})^* = \xi_{\alpha_n}^* \dots \xi_{\alpha_1}^*$$

- Let's see what happens with only two generators, ξ and ξ^* , so the basis is $\{1, \xi, \xi^*, \xi \xi^*\}$.

A function of ξ must be linear:

$$f(\xi) = f_0 + f_1 \xi$$

because $\xi^2 = 1$. So Taylor series always truncate!

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We define derivatives by

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \xi = 1$$

but we have to anticommute the ξ until it is to the right of $\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi}$.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} (\xi^* \xi) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} (-\xi \xi^*) = -\xi^*$$

If $A(\xi^*, \xi) = a_0 + a_1 \xi + \bar{a}_1 \xi^* + a_2 \xi^* \xi$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} A(\xi^*, \xi) &= a_1 - a_2 \xi^* \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi^*} A(\xi^*, \xi) &= \bar{a}_1 + a_2 \xi \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi^*} \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} A(\xi^*, \xi) &= -a_2 = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi^*} A(\xi^*, \xi) \end{aligned}$$

which illustrates that $\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi^*}$ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi}$ (as well as their generalizations to n -dimensional algebra) anti-commute.

Ok, so what about integrals?

- We can't do anything like the Riemannian sum as for ordinary variables.
- So we define integrals as anti-derivatives, which has the effect of making integrals the same as derivatives!
- i.e. since $\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \xi = 1$, the definite integral of 1 is zero:

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} \int d\xi 1 &= 0 \\ \int d\xi \xi &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

(Don't worry if this seems weird; you just need to know the rules, but don't treat " $d\xi$ " as an infinitesimal. It's not!)

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As with derivatives, you need to anti-commute $d\xi_\alpha$ and ξ_α so they are adjacent.

Integration for complex conjugate variables is what you would imagine:

$$\int d\xi^* 1 = 0 \text{ and } \int d\xi^* \xi^* = 1$$

So the integral exactly removes the corresponding variable (if not available)

OK, we can apply these rules to $f(\xi)$ and $A(\xi^*, \xi)$ as defined earlier:

$$\int d\xi f(\xi) = \int d\xi (f_0 + f_1 \xi) = f_0 \cdot 0 + f_1 \cdot 1 = f_1$$

$$\int d\xi A(\xi^*, \xi) = \int d\xi (a_0 + a_1 \xi + \bar{a}_1 \xi^* + a_{12} \xi^* \xi) = a_1 - a_{12} \xi^*$$

$$\int d\xi^* A(\xi^*, \xi) = \bar{a}_1 + a_{12} \xi$$

$$\int d\xi^* d\xi A(\xi^*, \xi) = -a_{12} = -\int d\xi d\xi^* A(\xi^*, \xi)$$

We can define a δ -function as (with η another Grassmann variable)

$$\delta(\xi, \xi') \equiv \int d\eta e^{\eta(\xi - \xi')} = \int d\eta (1 - \eta(\xi - \xi')) = -(\xi - \xi')$$

← stops since $\eta^2 = 0$

$$\text{Check: } \int d\xi' \delta(\xi, \xi') f(\xi') = -\int d\xi' (\xi - \xi') (f_0 + f_1 \xi') = f_0 + f_1 \xi = f(\xi) \quad \checkmark$$

Finally, we define the scalar product of Grassmann functions $\langle f|g \rangle$ by

$$\langle f|g \rangle \equiv \int d\xi^* d\xi e^{-\xi^* \xi} f^*(\xi) g(\xi^*)$$

$$= \int d\xi^* d\xi (1 - \xi^* \xi) (f_0^* + f_1^* \xi) (g_0 + g_1 \xi^*)$$

note: not ξ^{**}

$$= -\int d\xi^* d\xi \xi^* \xi f_0^* g_0 + \int d\xi^* d\xi f_1^* g_1 \xi \xi^* = f_0^* g_0 + f_1^* g_1$$

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OK, now we can generalize to 2n generators and think about Gaussian integrals.

Suppose we have just ξ and ξ^* , then (with "a" a number)

$$\int d\xi^* d\xi e^{-\xi^* a \xi} = \int d\xi^* d\xi (1 - \xi^* a \xi) = a$$

\Rightarrow we get "a" instead of "1/a" as in the ordinary Gaussian integral.

Now try $\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_1^*, \xi_2^*$: [class try this!]

$$\begin{aligned} & \int d\xi_1^* d\xi_1 d\xi_2^* d\xi_2 e^{-\xi_i^* H_{ij} \xi_j} \\ &= \int d\xi_1^* d\xi_1 d\xi_2^* d\xi_2 e^{-[\xi_1^* H_{11} \xi_1 + \xi_2^* H_{21} \xi_1 + \xi_1^* H_{12} \xi_2 + \xi_2^* H_{22} \xi_2]} \\ & \text{expand to order} = \int d\xi_1^* d\xi_1 d\xi_2^* d\xi_2 \frac{(-1)^2}{2!} (\xi_1^* H_{11} \xi_1 + \xi_2^* H_{21} \xi_1 + \xi_1^* H_{12} \xi_2 + \xi_2^* H_{22} \xi_2) \\ & \quad \times (\xi_1^* H_{11} \xi_1 + \xi_2^* H_{21} \xi_1 + \xi_1^* H_{12} \xi_2 + \xi_2^* H_{22} \xi_2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2!} (H_{11} H_{22} - H_{21} H_{12} - H_{12} H_{21} + H_{22} H_{11}) \\ &= H_{11} H_{22} - H_{12} H_{21} = \det H \end{aligned}$$

So, again, the determinant is in the numerator rather than the denominator.

The generalization, including Grassmann "sources" η_i and η_i^* , is

$$\int \prod_{i=1}^n d\xi_i^* d\xi_i e^{-\xi_i^* H_{ij} \xi_j + \eta_i^* \xi_i + \xi_i \eta_i^*} = [\det H] e^{\eta_i^* H_{ij}^{-1} \eta_j}$$

This works for H Hermitian.

The proof (which requires showing how to change Grassmann variables) is given in Negele + Orland section 15.

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So we see that the boson and fermion Gaussian integral formulas are quite similar, with the main distinction being $[\det H]^{-1}$ in the former and $[\det H]$ in the latter.

- We have restrictions on H for bosons (positive definite) to ensure that the integral converges.

- No restrictions on H for fermions, since we can expand the exponential $e^{a^\dagger a}$ and it terminates at first order, so we get a finite integral no matter what " a " is.

This distinction embodies the difference that the Pauli principle makes — 0 or 1 occupation numbers for fermions versus 0, 1, 2, ... for bosons.

Recall the noninteracting Grand Canonical partition function evaluated in the occupation number basis:

$$Z_G^0 = \text{Tr} e^{-\beta(\hat{H}_0 - \mu \hat{N})} = \prod_{\alpha} \sum_{n_{\alpha}} e^{-\beta(\epsilon_{\alpha} - \mu)n_{\alpha}}$$

where $n_{\alpha} = 0, 1$ for fermions, and $n_{\alpha} = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ for bosons.

\Rightarrow fermions: $Z_F^0 = \prod_{\alpha} (1 + e^{-\beta(\epsilon_{\alpha} - \mu)})$... just two terms

bosons: $Z_B^0 = \prod_{\alpha} (1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (e^{-\beta(\epsilon_{\alpha} - \mu)})^n)$

For fermions, $\epsilon_{\alpha} - \mu$ can be anything, but for bosons, $\epsilon_{\alpha} - \mu > 0$ for all α or the partition function is not finite, $\Rightarrow \hat{H} - \mu \hat{N}$ must be positive definite for bosons but not fermions.