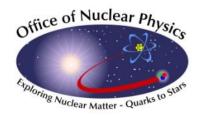


Exploring strong QCD in the continuum with Dyson-Schwinger equations

Craig Roberts



Physics Division





Students

Published collaborations - 2010-Present

Early-career scientists

- 1. Rocio BERMUDEZ (U Michoácan);
- 2. Chen CHEN (ANL, IIT, USTC);
- 3. Xiomara GUTIERREZ-GUERRERO (U Michoácan);
- 4. Trang NGUYEN (KSU);
- 5. Si-xue QIN (PKU);
- Hannes ROBERTS (ANL, FZJ, UBerkeley);
- 7. Chien-Yeah SENG (UW-Mad)
- 8. Kun-lun WANG (PKU);
- 9. Lei CHANG (ANL, FZJ, PKU);
- 10. J. Javier COBOS-MARTINEZ (U.Sonora);
- 11. Huan CHEN (BIHEP);
- 12. lan CLOËT (UAdelaide);
- 13. Bruno EL-BENNICH (São Paulo);
- 14. Mario PITSCHMANN (ANL & UW-Mad);
- 15. Jorge SEGOVIA (ANL);
- 16. David WILSON (ODU);

- 17. Adnan BASHIR (U Michoácan);
- 18. Stan BRODSKY (SLAC);
- 19. Gastão KREIN (São Paulo)
- 20. Roy HOLT (ANL);
- 21. Mikhail IVANOV (Dubna);
- 22. Yu-xin LIU (PKU);
- 23. Michael RAMSEY-MUSOLF (UW-Mad)
- 24. Sebastian SCHMIDT (IAS-FZJ & JARA);
- 25. Robert SHROCK (Stony Brook);
- 26. Peter TANDY (KSU);
- 27. Shaolong WAN (USTC)



Introductory-level presentations

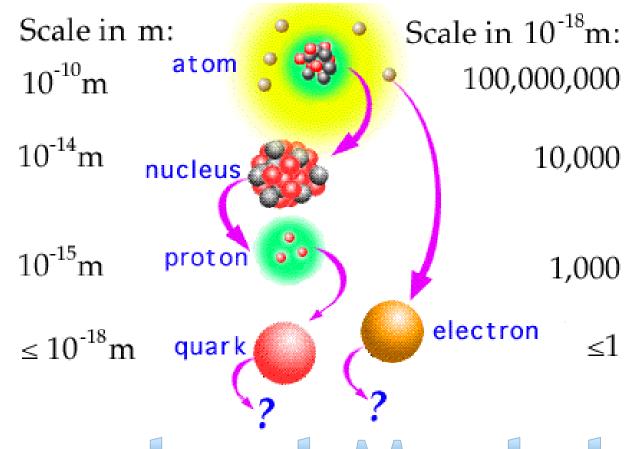
Recommended reading

- ➤ C. D. Roberts, "Strong QCD and Dyson-Schwinger Equations," arXiv:1203.5341 [nucl-th]. Notes based on 5 lectures to the conference on "Dyson-Schwinger Equations & Faà di Bruno Hopf Algebras in Physics and Combinatorics (DSFdB2011)," Institut de Recherche Mathématique Avancée, l'Universite de Strasbourg et CNRS, Strasbourg, France, 27.06-01.07/2011. To appear in "IRMA Lectures in Mathematics & Theoretical Physics," published by the European Mathematical Society (EMS)
- C.D. Roberts, M.S. Bhagwat, A. Höll and S.V. Wright, "Aspects of Hadron Physics," <u>Eur. Phys. J. Special Topics 140 (2007) pp. 53-116</u>
- A. Höll, C.D. Roberts and S.V. Wright, nucl-th/0601071, "Hadron Physics and Dyson-Schwinger Equations" (103 pages)
- C.D. Roberts (2002): "Primer for Quantum Field Theory in Hadron Physics" (http://www.phy.anl.gov/theory/ztfr/LecNotes.pdf)
- C. D. Roberts and A. G. Williams, "Dyson-Schwinger equations and their application to hadronic physics," <u>Prog. Part. Nucl. Phys. 33 (1994) 477</u>

Research -level presentations

Recommended reading

- ➤ A. Bashir, Lei Chang, Ian C. Cloët, Bruno El-Bennich, Yu-xin Liu, Craig D. Roberts and Peter C. Tandy, "Collective perspective on advances in Dyson-Schwinger Equation QCD," arXiv:1201.3366 [nucl-th], Commun. Theor. Phys. 58 (2012) pp. 79-134
- R.J. Holt and C.D. Roberts, "Distribution Functions of the Nucleon and Pion in the Valence Region," arXiv:1002.4666 [nucl-th], Rev. Mod. Phys. 82 (2010) pp. 2991-3044
- C.D. Roberts, "Hadron Properties and Dyson-Schwinger Equations," arXiv:0712.0633 [nucl-th], Prog. Part. Nucl. Phys. **61** (2008) pp. 50-65
- P. Maris and C. D. Roberts, "Dyson-Schwinger equations: A tool for hadron physics," Int. J. Mod. Phys. E 12, 297 (2003)
- C. D. Roberts and S. M. Schmidt, "Dyson-Schwinger equations: Density, temperature and continuum strong QCD," Prog. Part. Nucl. Phys. 45 (2000) <u>\$1</u>



Standard Model of Particle Physics

➤ In the early 20th Century, the only matter particles known to exist were the proton, neutron, and electron.

Standard Model - History

- ➤ With the advent of cosmic ray science and particle accelerators, numerous additional particles were discovered:
 - o muon (1937), pion (1947), kaon (1947), Roper resonance (1963), ...
- ➤ By the mid-1960s, it was apparent that not all the particles could be fundamental.
 - A new paradigm was necessary.
- ➤ Gell-Mann's and Zweig's constituent-quark theory (1964) was a critical step forward.
 - Gell-Mann, Nobel Prize 1969: "for his contributions and discoveries concerning the classification of elementary particles and their interactions".
- Over the more than forty intervening years, the theory now called the Standard Model of Particle Physics has passed almost all tests.

Standard Model - The Pieces

- Electromagnetism
 - Quantum electrodynamics, 1946-1950
 - Feynman, Schwinger, Tomonaga
 - Nobel Prize (1965):
 - "for their fundamental work in quantum electrodynamics, with deep-ploughing consequences for the physics of elementary particles".



- Weak interaction
 - Radioactive decays, parity-violating decays, electron-neutrino scattering
 - Glashow, Salam, Weinberg 1963-1973
 - Nobel Prize (1979):

"for their contributions to the theory of the unified weak and electromagnetic interaction between elementary particles, including, inter alia, the prediction of the weak neutral current".

Standard Model - The Pieces

- Strong interaction
 - Existence and composition of the vast bulk of visible matter in the Universe:
 - proton, neutron
 - the forces that form them and bind them to form nuclei.
 - responsible for more than 98% of the visible matter in the Universe



- Politzer, Gross and Wilczek 1973-1974 Quantum Chromodynamics – QCD
 - Nobel Prize (2004): "for the discovery of asymptotic freedom in the theory of the strong interaction".
- ➤ NB.

Worth noting that the nature of 95% of the matter in the Universe is completely unknown Craig Roberts: Continuum strong QCD (1.70p)

The Standard Model of Particle Physics is a local gauge field theory, which can be completely expressed in a very compact form Standard Model Formulation

- \triangleright Lagrangian possesses $SU_c(3)xSU_L(2)xU_Y(1)$ gauge symmetry
 - 19 parameters, which must be determined through comparison with experiment
 - Physics is an experimental science
 - $SU_1(2)xU_1(1)$ represents the electroweak theory
 - 17 of the parameters are here, most of them tied to the Higgs boson, the model's only fundamental scalar, which might now have been seen
 - This sector is essentially perturbative, so the parameters are readily determined
 - $SU_c(3)$ represents the strong interaction component
 - Just 2 of the parameters are intrinsic to $SU_c(3)$ QCD
 - However, this is the really interesting sector because it is Nature's only example of a truly and essentially nonperturbative fundamental theory
 - Impact of the 2 parameters is not fully known

- Known particle content of the **Standard Model**
- Discovery of the Higgs boson was one of the primary missions of the Large **Hadron Collider**
- > LHC
 - Construction cost of \$7 billion
 - Accelerate particles to almost speed of light, in 2 parallel beams in a 27km name tunnel 175m underground, before colliding them at interaction points
 - During a ten hour experiment , each beam will travel 10-billion km; i.e., almost 100-times the earth-sun distance
 - The energy of each collision will reach 14 TeV (14 x 10¹² eV)
- Something like the Higgs has now have been found

Standard Model - Formulation

mass-324 MeV 1.27 GeV 171.2 GeV charge - \$ 3/3 charm top 4.2 GeV 4.8 MeV 104 MeV Quarks

down strange

0.511 MeV electron

eptons

electron

<15.5 MeV

1.777 GeV

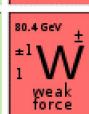
tau

muon

photon

bottom





S Ø ō

$$\mathcal{L}_{SM} = \mathcal{L}_{Dirac} + \mathcal{L}_{mass} + \mathcal{L}_{gauge} + \mathcal{L}_{gauge/\psi} . \tag{1}$$

Here,

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{Dirac}} = i \bar{e}_{\mathrm{L}}^{i} \partial e_{\mathrm{L}}^{i} + i \bar{\nu}_{\mathrm{L}}^{i} \partial \nu_{\mathrm{L}}^{i} + i \bar{e}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} \partial e_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} + i \bar{u}_{\mathrm{L}}^{i} \partial u_{\mathrm{L}}^{i} + i \bar{d}_{\mathrm{L}}^{i} \partial d_{\mathrm{L}}^{i} + i \bar{u}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} \partial u_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} + i \bar{d}_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} \partial d_{\mathrm{R}}^{i} \; ;$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{mass}} = -v \left(\lambda_e^i \bar{e}_L^i e_R^i + \lambda_u^i \bar{u}_L^i u_R^i + \lambda_d^i \bar{d}_L^i d_R^i + \text{h.c.} \right) - M_W^2 W_\mu^+ W^{-\mu} - \frac{M_W^2}{2 \cos^2 \theta_W} Z_\mu Z^\mu \; ; \quad (3)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{gauge}} = -\frac{1}{4} (G_{\mu\nu}^a)^2 - \frac{1}{2} W_{\mu\nu}^+ W^{-\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{4} Z_{\mu\nu} Z^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} + \mathcal{L}_{WZA} , \qquad (4)$$

where

$$G_{\mu\nu}^{a} = \partial_{\mu}A_{\nu}^{a} - \partial_{\nu}A_{\mu}^{a} - g_{3}f^{abc}A_{\mu}^{b}A_{\nu}^{c}$$

$$W_{\mu\nu}^{\pm} = \partial_{\mu}W_{\nu}^{\pm} - \partial_{\nu}W_{\mu}^{\pm}$$

$$Z_{\mu\nu} = \partial_{\mu}Z_{\nu} - \partial_{\nu}Z_{\mu}$$

$$F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_{\mu}A_{\nu} - \partial_{\nu}A_{\mu} ,$$
(5)

and

$$\mathcal{L}_{WZA} = ig_2 \cos \theta_{\mathcal{W}} \left[\left(W_{\mu}^{-} W_{\nu}^{+} - W_{\nu}^{-} W_{\mu}^{+} \right) \partial^{\mu} Z^{\nu} + W_{\mu\nu}^{+} W^{-\mu} Z^{\nu} - W_{\mu\nu}^{-} W^{+\mu} Z^{\nu} \right]$$

$$+ ie \left[\left(W_{\mu}^{-} W_{\nu}^{+} - W_{\nu}^{-} W_{\mu}^{+} \right) \partial^{\mu} A^{\nu} + W_{\mu\nu}^{+} W^{-\mu} A^{\nu} - W_{\mu\nu}^{-} W^{+\mu} A^{\nu} \right]$$

$$+ g_2^2 \cos^2 \theta_{\mathcal{W}} \left(W_{\mu}^{+} W_{\nu}^{-} Z^{\mu} Z^{\nu} - W_{\mu}^{+} W^{-\mu} Z_{\nu} Z^{\nu} \right)$$

$$+ g_2^2 \left(W_{\mu}^{+} W_{\nu}^{-} A^{\mu} A^{\nu} - W_{\mu}^{+} W^{-\mu} A_{\nu} A^{\nu} \right)$$

$$+ g_2 e \cos \theta_{\mathcal{W}} \left[W_{\mu}^{+} W_{\nu}^{-} \left(Z^{\mu} A^{\nu} + Z^{\nu} A^{\mu} \right) - 2 W_{\mu}^{+} W^{-\mu} Z_{\nu} A^{\nu} \right]$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} g_2^2 \left(W_{\mu}^{+} W_{\nu}^{-} \right) \left(W^{+\mu} W^{-\nu} - W^{+\nu} W^{-\mu} \right) ;$$

and

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{gauge}/\psi} = -g_3 A_{\mu}^a J_{(3)}^{\mu a} - g_2 \left(W_{\mu}^+ J_{W^+}^{\mu} + W_{\mu}^- J_{W^-}^{\mu} + Z_{\mu} J_Z^{\mu} \right) - e A_{\mu} J_A^{\mu} , \qquad (7)$$

where

$$\begin{split} J_{(3)}^{\mu a} &= \ \bar{u}^i \gamma^\mu T_{(3)}^a u^i + \bar{d}^i \gamma^\mu T_{(3)}^a d^i \\ J_{W^+}^{\mu} &= \ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\bar{\nu}_{\rm L}^i \gamma^\mu e_{\rm L}^i + V^{ij} \bar{u}_{\rm L}^i \gamma^\mu d_{\rm L}^j \right) \\ J_{W^-}^{\mu} &= \ (J_{W^+}^{\mu})^* \\ J_Z^{\mu} &= \ \frac{1}{\cos \theta_{\rm W}} \left[\frac{1}{2} \bar{\nu}_{\rm L}^i \gamma^\mu \nu_{\rm L}^i + \left(-\frac{1}{2} + \sin^2 \theta_{\rm W} \right) \bar{e}_{\rm L}^i \gamma^\mu e_{\rm L}^i + (\sin^2 \theta_{\rm W}) \bar{e}_{\rm R}^i \gamma^\mu e_{\rm R}^i \right. \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{3} \sin^2 \theta_{\rm W} \right) \bar{u}_{\rm L}^i \gamma^\mu u_{\rm L}^i + \left(-\frac{2}{3} \sin^2 \theta_{\rm W} \right) \bar{u}_{\rm R}^i \gamma^\mu u_{\rm R}^i \\ &\quad + \left(-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \sin^2 \theta_{\rm W} \right) \bar{d}_{\rm L}^i \gamma^\mu d_{\rm L}^i + \left(\frac{1}{3} \sin^2 \theta_{\rm W} \right) \bar{d}_{\rm R}^i \gamma^\mu d_{\rm R}^i \right] \\ J_A^{\mu} &= \ (-1) \bar{e}^i \gamma^\mu e^i + \left(\frac{2}{3} \right) \bar{u}^i \gamma^\mu u^i + \left(-\frac{1}{3} \right) \bar{d}^i \gamma^\mu d^i \ . \end{split}$$

⁽²⁾Standard Model

- Formulation

- Very compact expression of the fundamental interactions that govern the composition of the bulk of known matter in the Universe
- This is the most important part; viz., gauge-boson self-interaction in QCD
 - Responsible for 98% of visible matter in the Universe
- QCD will be my primary focus

Craig Roberts: Continuum strong QCD (I.70p)

(8)

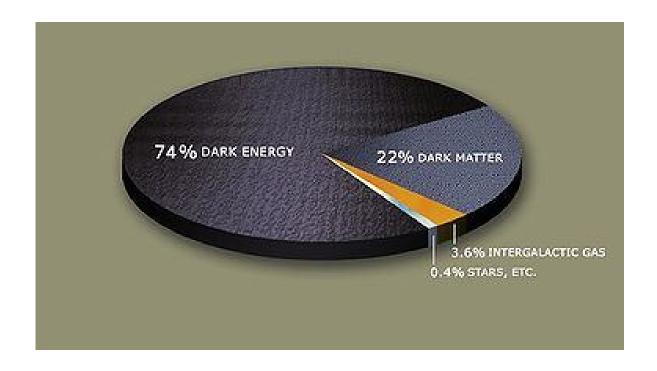
- There are certainly phenomena Beyond the Standard Model
 - Neutrinos have mass, which is not true within the Standard Model
 - Empirical evidence: $v_e \leftrightarrow v_{\mu}, v_{\tau}$... neutrino flavour is not a constant of motion
 - The first experiment to detect the effects of neutrino oscillations was Ray Davis' Homestake Experiment in the late 1960s, which observed a deficit in the flux of solar neutrinos $v_{\rm e}$
 - Verified and quantified in experiments at the Sudbury Neutrino Observatory

Craig Roberts: Continuum strong QCD (I.70p)

Standard Model - Complete?



➤ A number of experimental hints and, almost literally, innumerably many theoretical speculations about other phenomena



Top Open Questions in Physics

Excerpts from the top-10, or top-24, or ...

What is dark matter?

There seems to be a halo of mysterious invisible material engulfing galaxies, which is commonly referred to as dark matter. Existence of dark (=invisible) matter is inferred from the observation of its gravitational pull, which causes the stars in the outer regions of a galaxy to orbit faster than they would if there was only visible matter present. Another indication is that we see galaxies in our own local cluster moving toward each other.

What is dark energy?

The discovery of dark energy goes back to 1998. A group of scientists had recorded several dozen supernovae, including some so distant that their light had started to travel toward Earth when the universe was only a fraction of its present age. Contrary to their expectation, the scientists found that the expansion of the universe is not slowing, but accelerating.

(The leaders of these teams shared the 2011 Nobel Prize in Physics.)

Excerpts from the top-10, or top-24, or ...

- What is the lifetime of the proton and how do we understand it?

 It used to be considered that protons, unlike, say, neutrons, live forever, never decaying into smaller pieces. Then in the 1970's, theorists realized that their candidates for a grand unified theory, merging all the forces except gravity, implied that protons must be unstable. Wait long enough and, very occasionally, one should break down. Must Grand Unification work this way?
- What physics explains the enormous disparity between the gravitational scale and the typical mass scale of the elementary particles?
 - In other words, why is gravity so much weaker than the other forces, like electromagnetism? A magnet can pick up a paper clip even though the gravity of the whole earth is pulling back on the other end.

Excerpts from the top-10, or top-24, or ...

Can we quantitatively understand quark and gluon confinement in quantum chromodynamics and the existence of a mass gap?
Quantum chromodynamics, or QCD, is the theory describing the strong nuclear force. Carried by gluons, it binds quarks into particles like protons and neutrons. Apparently, the tiny subparticles are permanently confined: one can't pull a quark or a gluon from a proton because the strong force gets stronger with distance and snaps them right back inside.



What is QCD (I.70p)

QCD is a Theory

(<u>not</u> an effective theory)

- Very likely a self-contained, nonperturbatively renormalisable and hence well defined Quantum Field Theory
 - This is not true of QED cannot be defined nonperturbatively
- No confirmed breakdown over an enormous energy domain: 0 GeV < E < 8000 GeV</p>
- Increasingly likely that any extension of the Standard Model will be based on the paradigm established by QCD
 - Extended Technicolour: electroweak symmetry breaks via a fermion bilinear operator in a strongly-interacting non-Abelian theory.
 - Higgs sector of the SM becomes an effective description of a more fundamental fermionic theory, similar to the Ginzburg-Landau theory of superconductivity

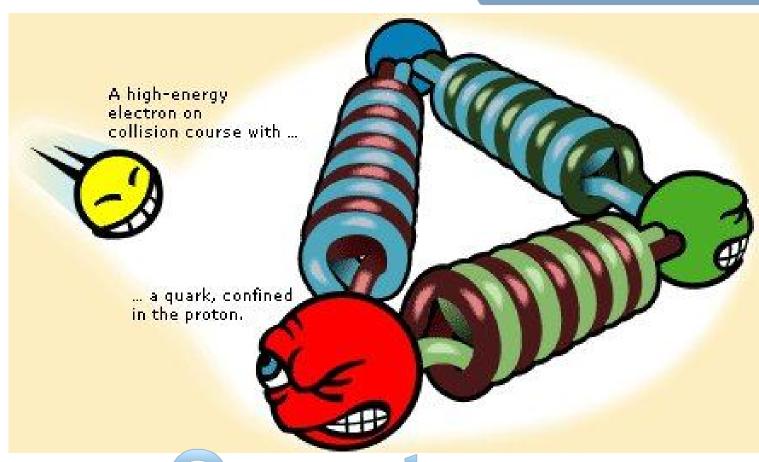
Contrast: so-called Effective Field Theories

<u>Can</u>

- FFTs applicable over a very restricted energy domain; e.g., ChPT known to breakdown for $E > 2m_{\pi}$
- Can be used to help explore how features of QCD influence observables

<u>Cannot</u>

- ightharpoonup QCD valid at all energy scales that have been tested so far: no breakdown below $E \approx 60000 \ m_{\pi}$
- Any mismatch between
 EF-Theory and experiment
 owes to an error in the
 formulation of one or
 conduct of the other



Quantum Chromodynamics Craig Roberts: Continuum strong QCD (1.70p)

What is QCD?

➤ Lagrangian of QCD

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{QCD}} = \bar{\psi}_i \left(i \gamma^{\mu} (D_{\mu})_{ij} - m \, \delta_{ij} \right) \psi_j - \frac{1}{4} G^a_{\mu\nu} G^{\mu\nu}_a$$
$$= \bar{\psi}_i (i \gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu} - m) \psi_i - g G^a_{\mu} \bar{\psi}_i \gamma^{\mu} T^a_{ij} \psi_j - \frac{1}{4} G^a_{\mu\nu} G^{\mu\nu}_a$$

- -G = gluon fields
- $-\Psi$ = quark fields
- > The key to complexity in QCD ... gluon field strength tensor

$$G^a_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu G^a_\nu - \partial_\nu G^a_\mu + g f^{abc} G^a_\mu G^b_\nu$$

Generates gluon self-interactions, whose consequences are quite extraordinary

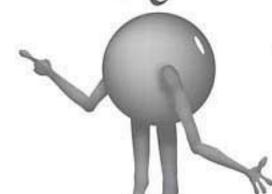
cf.Quantum Electrodynamics

- QED is the archetypal gauge field theory
- Perturbatively simple

but nonperturbatively undefined Why'd you ignore the guy who just walked past?

I do not interact with other photons!







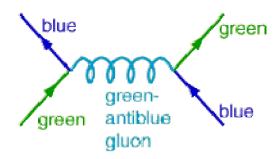
Chracteristic feature:
Light-by-light scattering; i.e.,
photon-photon interaction – leading-order contribution takes
place at order α^4 . Extremely small probability because $\alpha^4 \approx 10^{-9}$

What is QCD?

Relativistic Quantum Gauge Field Theory:

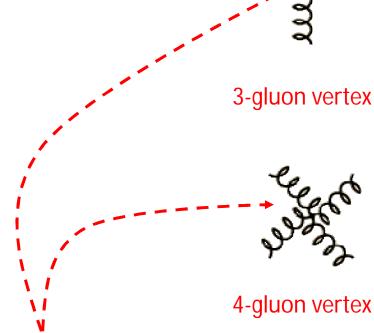
> Interactions mediated by vector boson exchange

Vector bosons are perturbatively-massless



Feynman diagram for an interaction between quarks generated by a gluon.

- Similar interaction in QED
- Special feature of QCD gluon self-interactions



What is QCD?

- Novel feature of QCD
 - Tree-level interactions between gauge-bosons
 - $O(\alpha_s)$ cross-section cf. $O(\alpha_{em}^4)$ in QED
- One might guess that this is going to have a big impact
- Elucidating part of that impact is the origin of the 2004 Nobel Prize to Politzer, and Gross & Wilczek

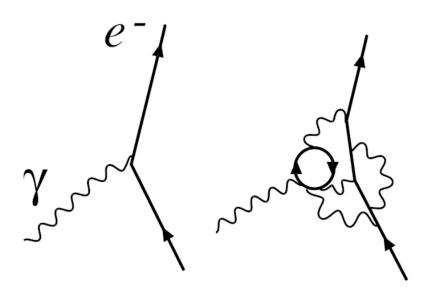
lege (

3-gluon vertex



4-gluon vertex



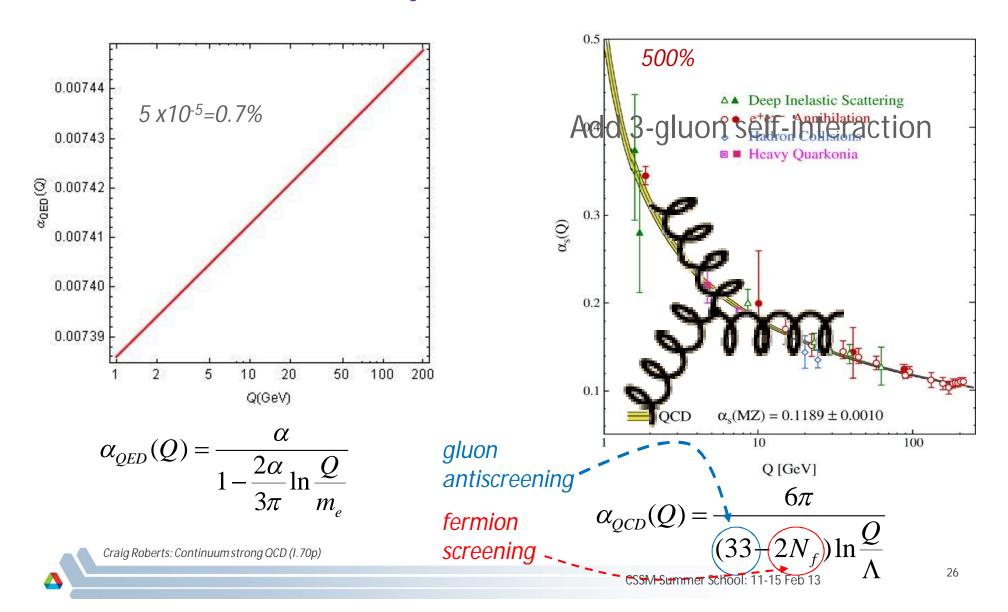


Running couplings

- Quantum gauge-field theories are all typified by the feature that Nothing is Constant
- Distribution of charge and mass, the number of particles, etc., indeed, all the things that quantum mechanics holds fixed, depend upon the wavelength of the tool used to measure them
 - particle number is not conserved in quantum field theory
- Couplings and masses are renormalised via processes involving virtual-particles. Such effects make these quantities depend on the energy scale at which one observes them

QED cf. QCD?

✓ 2004 Nobel Prize in Physics : Gross, Politzer and Wilczek

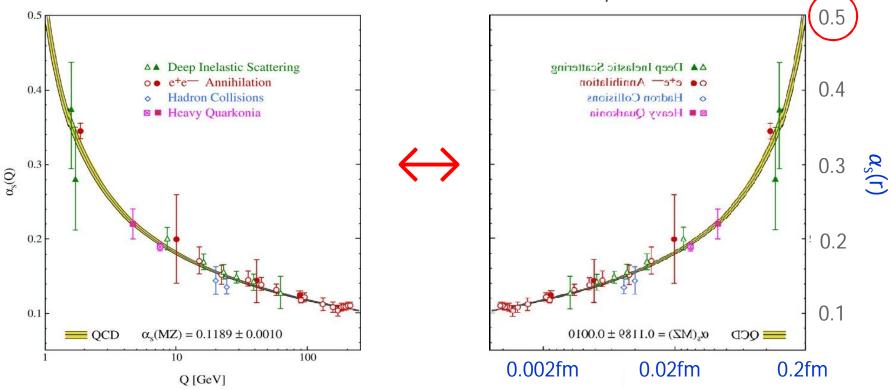


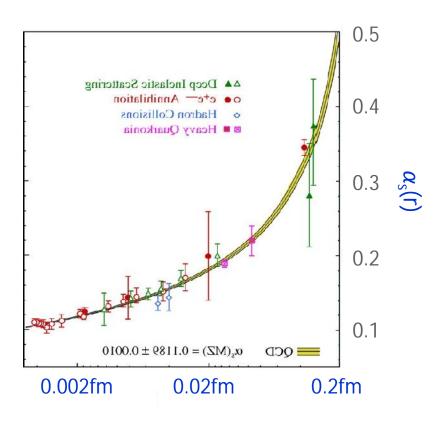
This momentum-dependent coupling translates into a coupling that depends strongly on separation.

What is QCD?

Namely, the interaction between quarks, between gluons, and between quarks and gluons grows rapidly with separation

➤ Coupling is huge at separations $r = 0.2 fm \approx \frac{1}{4} r_{proton}$





Confinement in QCD

- ➤ A peculiar circumstance; viz., an interaction that becomes stronger as the participants try to separate
- If coupling grows so strongly with separation, then
 - perhaps it is unbounded?
 - perhaps it would require an infinite amount of energy in order to extract a quark or gluon from the interior of a hadron?
- The Confinement Hypothesis:
 - Colour-charged particles can't be isolated & therefore cannot be directly observed.
 - They clump together in colour-neutral bound-states
- This is an empirical fact.



> Perhaps?!

The Problem with QCD

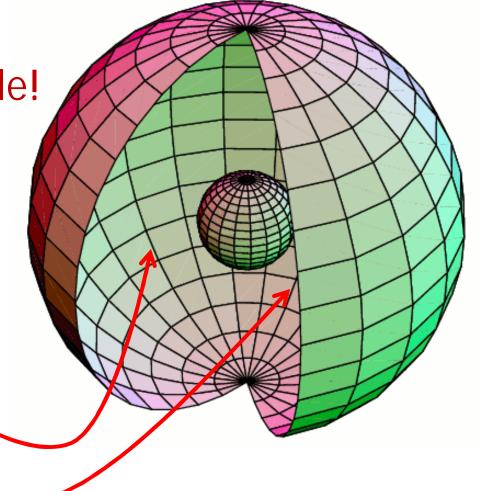
➤ What we know unambiguously ...

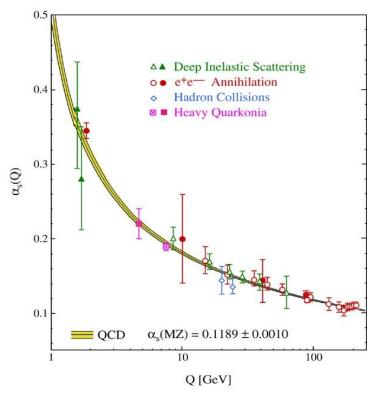
Is that we know too little!



INCOGNITA

What is the interaction throughout more than 98% of the proton's volume?





Strong-interaction: QCD

- > Asymptotically free
 - Perturbation theory is valid and accurate tool at large-Q²
 - Hence chiral limit is defined
- ightharpoonup Essentially nonperturbative for $Q^2 < 2 \, \text{GeV}^2$
- Nature's only example of truly nonperturbative, fundamental theory
- ➤ A-priori, no idea as to what such a theory can produce

142

YANG-MILLS EXISTENCE AND MASS GAP. Prove that for any compact simple gauge group G, a non-trivial quantum Yang-Mills theory exists on \mathbb{R}^4 and has a mass gap $\Delta > 0$. Existence includes establishing axiomatic properties at least as strong as those cited in [45, 35].

5. Comments

An important consequence of the existence of a mass gap is clustering: Let $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ denote a point in space. We let H and \vec{P} denote the energy and momentum, generators of time and space translation. For any positive constant $C < \Delta$ and for any local quantum field operator $\mathcal{O}(\vec{x}) = e^{-i\vec{P}\cdot\vec{x}}\mathcal{O}e^{i\vec{P}\cdot\vec{x}}$ such that $\langle \Omega, \mathcal{O}\Omega \rangle = 0$, one has

(2)
$$|\langle \Omega, \mathcal{O}(\vec{x})\mathcal{O}(\vec{y})\Omega \rangle| \le \exp(-C|\vec{x} - \vec{y}|),$$

as long as $|\vec{x} - \vec{y}|$ is sufficiently large. Clustering is a locality property that, roughly speaking, may make it possible to apply mathematical results established on \mathbb{R}^4 to any 4-manifold, as argued at a heuristic level (for a supersymmetric extension of four-dimensional gauge theory) in [49]. Thus the mass gap not only has a physical significance (as explained in the introduction), but it may also be important in mathematical applications of four-dimensional quantum gauge theories to geometry. In addition the existence of a uniform gap for finite-volume approximations may play a fundamental role in the proof of existence of the infinite-volume limit.

There are many natural extensions of the Millennium problem. Among other things, one would like to prove the existence of an isolated one-particle state (an upper gap, in addition to the mass gap), to prove confinement to

Millennium prize of \$1,000,000 for proving that $SU_c(3)$ gauge theory is mathematically well-defined, which will necessarily prove or disprove the confinement conjecture





The study of nonperturbative

QCD is the puriew of ...

Hadron Physics

Hadron: Any of a class of subatomic particles that are composed of quarks and/or gluons and take part in the strong interaction.

Examples: proton, neutron, & pion.

International Scientific Vocabulary:

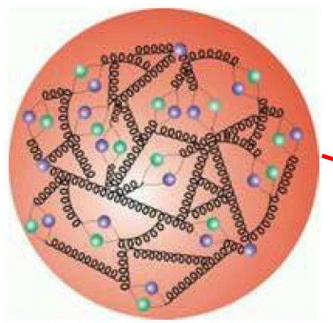
hadr- thick, heavy (from Greek hadros thick) + 2 on

First Known Use: 1962

Baryon: hadron with half-integer-spin

Meson: hadron with integer-spin





Hadron Physics

"Hadron physics is unique at the cutting edge of modern science because Nature has provided us with just one instance of a fundamental strongly-interacting theory; i.e., Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD). The community of science has never before confronted such a challenge as solving this theory."

≤0,01 m Crystal 1/10.000.000 $10^{-9} m$ Molecule 1/10 10⁻¹⁰m Atom 1/10.000 10^{-14} m Atomic nucleus 1/10 10^{-15} m Proton 1/1.000

Particle physics

DORIS IIIMASYLAB

Synchrotron radiation

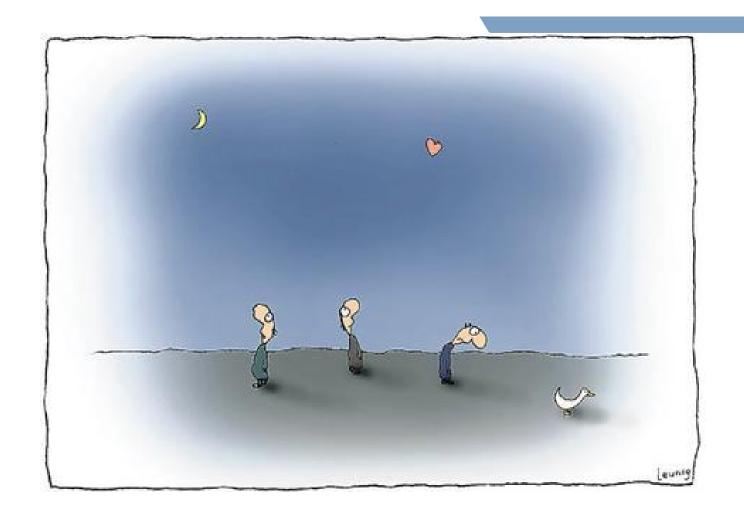
<10⁻¹⁸m

Electron, Quark

Nuclear Science Advisory Council 2007 - Long Range Plan

"A central goal of (the DOE Office of) Nuclear Physics is to understand the structure and properties of protons and neutrons, and ultimately atomic nuclei, in terms of the quarks and gluons of QCD."

- Internationally, this is an approximately \$1-billion/year effort in experiment and theory, with roughly \$375-million/year in the USA.
 - > Roughly 90% of these funds are spent on experiment
 - \$1-billion/year is the order of the operating budget of CERN



Facilities

> China

Beijing Electron-Positron Collider

Germany

- COSY (Jülich Cooler Synchrotron)
- ELSA (Bonn Electron Stretcher and Accelerator)
- MAMI (Mainz Microtron)
- <u>Facility for Antiproton and Ion Research</u>, under construction near Darmstadt.
 New generation experiments in 2015 (perhaps)

> Japan

- J-PARC (Japan Proton Accelerator Research Complex), under construction in Tokai-Mura, 150km NE of Tokyo. New generation experiments to begin toward end-2012
- KEK: Tsukuba, <u>Belle Collaboration</u>
- Switzerland (CERN)
 - Large Hadron Collider: <u>ALICE Detector</u> and <u>COMPASS</u> Detector
 "Understanding deconfinement and chiral-symmetry restoration"







Facilities QCD Machines

> USA

Thomas Jefferson National Accelerator Facility,

Newport News, Virginia

Nature of cold hadronic matter

Upgrade underway

Construction cost \$310-million

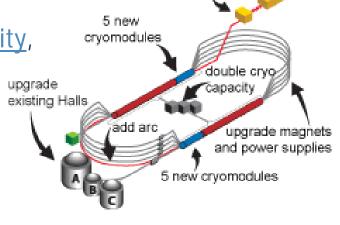
New generation experiments in 2015



Long Island, New York

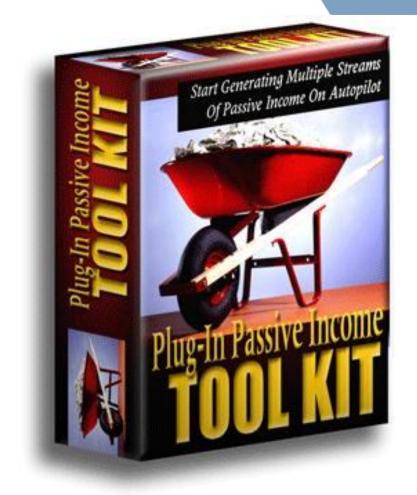
Strong phase transition, 10µs after Big Bang

A three dimensional view of the calculated particle paths resulting from collisions occurring within RHIC's <u>STAR detector</u>



add new hall





Theory Tools

- A theoretical understanding of the phenomena of Hadron Physics requires the use of the full machinery of relativistic quantum field theory.
 - Relativistic quantum field theory is the ONLY known way to reconcile quantum mechanics with special relativity.
 - Relativistic quantum field theory is based on the relativistic quantum mechanics of Dirac.
- Unification of special relativity (Poincaré covariance) and quantum mechanics took some time.
 - Questions still remain as to a practical implementation of an Hamiltonian formulation of the relativistic quantum mechanics of interacting systems.
- Poincaré group has ten generators:
 - six associated with the Lorentz transformations (rotations and boosts)
 - four associated with translations
- Quantum mechanics describes the time evolution of a system with interactions. That evolution is generated by the Hamiltonian.

Relativistic quantum mechanics predicts the existence of antiparticles; i.e., the equations of relativistic quantum mechanics admit *negative* energy solutions. However, once one allows for particles with negative energy, then particle number conservation is lost:

$$E_{system} = E_{system} + (E_{p1} + E_{anti-p1}) + \dots$$
 ad infinitum

- ➤ This is a fundamental problem for relativistic quantum mechanics Few particle systems can be studied in relativistic quantum mechanics but the study of (infinitely) many bodies is difficult.
 - No general theory currently exists.
- This feature entails that, if a theory is formulated with an interacting Hamiltonian, then boosts will fail to commute with the Hamiltonian. Hence, the state vector calculated in one momentum frame will not be kinematically related to the state in another frame.
 - That makes a new calculation necessary in every frame.



- Hence the discussion of scattering, which takes a state of momentum *p* to another state with momentum *p'*, is problematic. (See, e.g., B.D. Keister and W.N. Polyzou (1991), "Relativistic Hamiltonian dynamics in nuclear and particle physics," Adv. Nucl. Phys. **20**, 225.)
- ➤ Relativistic quantum field theory is an answer. The fundamental entities are fields, which can simultaneously represent an uncountable infinity of particles;

e.g., neutral scalar:
$$\phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k} \left[a(k) \mathrm{e}^{-ik\cdot x} + a^\dagger(k) \mathrm{e}^{ik\cdot x} \right]$$

Thus, the nonconservation of particle number is not a problem. This is crucial because key observable phenomena in hadron physics are essentially connected with the existence of *virtual particles*.

Relativistic quantum field theory has its own problems, however. The question of whether a given relativistic quantum field theory is rigorously well defined is *unsolved*.

- ➤ All relativistic quantum field theories admit analysis in perturbation theory. Perturbative renormalisation is a well-defined procedure and has long been used in Quantum Electrodynamics (QED) and Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD).
- A rigorous definition of a theory, however, means proving that the theory makes sense *nonperturbatively*. This is equivalent to proving that all the theory's renormalisation constants are nonperturbatively well-behaved.
- Hadron Physics involves QCD. While it makes excellent sense perturbatively, it is not known to be a rigorously well-defined theory. Hence it cannot truly be said to be THE theory of the strong interaction (hadron physics).
- Nevertheless, physics does not wait on mathematics. Physicists make assumptions and explore their consequences. Practitioners assume that QCD is (somehow) well-defined and follow where that leads us.

- Experiment's task: explore and map the hadron physics landscape with well-understood probes, such as the electron at JLab.
- Theory's task: employ established mathematical tools, and refine and invent others in order to use the Lagangian of QCD to predict what should be observable real-world phenomena.
- A key aim of the worlds' hadron physics programmes in experiment & theory: determine whether there are any contradictions with what we can truly *prove in QCD*.
 - Hitherto, there are none.
 - But that doesn't mean there are no puzzles nor controversies!
- Interplay between Experiment and Theory is the engine of discovery and progress. The *Discovery Potential of both is high*.
 - Much learnt in the last five years.
 - These lectures will provide a perspective on the meaning of these discoveries
- ➤ I expect that many of the most important questions in basic science are the purview of Hadron Physics.

 Craig Roberts: Continuum strong QCD (1.70p)

Dirac Equation

Dirac equation is starting point for Lagrangian formulation of quantum field theory for fermions. For a noninteracting fermion

where
$$\psi(x)=\begin{pmatrix}u_1(x)\\u_2(x)\\u_3(x)\\u_4(x)\end{pmatrix}$$
 is the fermion's "spinor"

- a four component column vector, with each component spacetime dependent.

In an external electromagnetic field the fermion's wave function obeys

$$[i\partial \!\!\!/ - eA\!\!\!/ - m] \psi = 0, \qquad (29)$$

obtained, as usual, via "minimal substitution:" $p^{\mu} \rightarrow p^{\mu} - eA^{\mu}$ in Eq. (28). The Dirac operator is a matrix-valued differential operator.

These equations have a manifestly Poincaré covariant appearance. A proof of covariance is given in the early chapters of: Bjorken, J.D. and Drell, S.D. (1964), Relativistic Quantum Mechanics (McGraw-Hill, New York).

Green Functions / Propagators

The Dirac equation is a partial differential equation.

A general method for solving such equations is to use a Green function, which is the inverse of the differential operator that appears in the equation.

The analogy with matrix equations is obvious and can be exploited heuristically.

Dirac equation, Eq. (29): $\left| [i \partial_x - e A(x) - m] \psi(x) = 0 \right|$, yields the wave function for a fermion in an external electromagnetic field.

Consider the operator obtained as a solution of the following equation

$$[i\partial_{x'} - eA(x') - m] S(x', x) = 1 \delta^4(x' - x).$$
 (49)

Obviously if, at a given spacetime point x, $\psi(x)$ is a solution of Eq. (29), then

$$\psi(x') := \int d^4x \, S(x', x) \, \psi(x) \tag{50}$$

is a solution of . . .
$$[i\partial_{x'} - eA(x') - m] \psi(x') = 0$$
;

i.e., S(x', x) has propagated the solution at x to the point x'.

Analogue of Huygens Principle in Wave Mechanics
Craig Roberts: Continuum strong QCD (I.70p)

(51)

Green Functions / Propagators

This approach is practical because all physically reasonable external fields can only be nonzero on a compact subdomain of spacetime.

Therefore the solution of the complete equation is transformed into solving for the Green function, which can then be used to propagate the free-particle solution, already found, to arbitrary spacetime points.

However, obtaining the *exact* form of S(x',x) is *impossible* for all but the simplest cases (see, e.g.,

- Dittrich, W. and Reuter, M. (1985), Effective Lagrangians in Quantum Electrodynamics (Springer Verlag, Berlin);
- Dittrich, W. and Reuter, M. (1985), Selected Topics in Gauge Theories (Springer Verlag, Berlin).)

This is where and why perturbation theory so often rears its not altogether handsome head.

Free Fermion Propagator

In the absence of an external field the Green Function equation, Eq. (49), becomes

$$[i \partial_{x'} - m] S(x', x) = 1 \delta^4(x' - x).$$
 (55)

Assume a solution of the form:

$$S_0(x',x) = S_0(x'-x) = \int \frac{d^4p}{(2\pi)^4} e^{-i(p,x'-x)} S_0(p), \qquad (56)$$

so that substituting yields

$$(\not p - m) S_0(p) = \mathbf{1}; \text{ i.e., } S_0(p) = \frac{\not p + m}{p^2 - m^2}.$$
 (57)

To obtain the result in configuration space one must adopt a prescription for handling the on-shell singularities in S(p) at $p^2 = m^2$.

- That convention is tied to the boundary conditions applied to Eq. (55).
- An obvious and physically sensible definition of the Green function is that it should propagate
 - positive-energy-fermions and -antifermions forward in time but not backward in time,
 - and vice versa for negative energy states.



Feynman's Fermion Propagator

The wave function for a positive energy free-fermion is

$$\psi^{(+)}(x) = u(p) e^{-i(p,x)}. \tag{58}$$

The wave function for a positive-energy antifermion is the charge-conjugate of the negative-energy fermion solution ($C = i\gamma^2\gamma^0$ and $(\cdot)^T$ denotes matrix transpose):

$$\psi_c^{(+)}(x) = C \gamma^0 \left[v(p) e^{i(p,x)} \right]^* = C \bar{v}(p)^{\mathrm{T}} e^{-i(p,x)}, \tag{59}$$

Follows from properties of spinors and projection operators that our physically sensible $S_0(x'-x)$ must contain only positive-frequency components for $t=x'_0-x_0>0$; i.e., in this case it must be proportional to $\Lambda_+(p)$.

Exercise: Verify this.

Can ensure this via a small modification of the denominator of Eq. (57), with $\eta \to 0^+$ at the end of all calculations:

$$S_0(p) = \frac{p + m}{p^2 - m^2} \to \frac{p + m}{p^2 - m^2 + i\eta}$$
 (60)

(This prescription defines the **Feynman** propagator.)

Green Function - Interacting Theory

Eq. (49), Green function for a fermion in an external electromagnetic field:

$$[i\partial_{x'} - eA(x') - m] S(x', x) = \mathbf{1} \delta^4(x' - x),$$
 (61)

A closed form solution of this equation is impossible in all but the simplest field configurations. Is there, nevertheless, a way to construct an approximate solution that can systematically be improved?

One Answer: Perturbation Theory – rewrite the equation:

$$[i \partial_{x'} - m] S(x', x) = \mathbf{1} \, \delta^4(x' - x) + e \mathcal{A}(x') \, S(x', x) \,, \tag{62}$$

which, as can easily be seen by substitution (Verify This), is solved by

$$S(x',x) = S_{0}(x'-x) + e \int d^{4}y \, S_{0}(x'-y) \mathcal{A}(y) \, S(y,x)$$

$$= S_{0}(x'-x) + e \int d^{4}y \, S_{0}(x'-y) \mathcal{A}(y) \, S_{0}(y-x)$$

$$+e^{2} \int d^{4}y_{1} \int d^{4}y_{2} \, S_{0}(x'-y_{1}) \mathcal{A}(y_{1}) \, S_{0}(y_{1}-y_{2}) \mathcal{A}(y_{2}) \, S_{0}(y_{2}-x)$$

$$+ \dots$$
(63)

Green Function - Interacting Theory

- ➤ This perturbative expansion of the full propagator in terms of the free propagator provides an archetype for perturbation theory in quantum field theory.
 - One obvious application is the scattering of an electron/positron by a Coulomb field, which is an example explored in Sec. 2.5.3 of Itzykson, C. and Zuber, J.-B. (1980), Quantum Field Theory (McGraw-Hill, New York).
 - Equation (63) is a first example of a Dyson-Schwinger equation.
- This Green function has the following interpretation
 - 1. It creates a positive energy fermion (antifermion) at spacetime point x;
 - 2. Propagates the fermion to spacetime point x'; i.e., forward in time;
 - 3. Annihilates this fermion at x'.
- > The process can equally well be viewed as
 - Creation of a negative energy antifermion (fermion) at spacetime point x';
 - 2. Propagation of the antifermion to the point *x*; i.e., backward in time;
 - 3. Annihilation of this antifermion at x.
- Other propagators have similar interpretations.



Anything troubling you?

Functional Integrals

- Local gauge theories are the keystone of contemporary hadron and high-energy physics. QCD is a local gauge theory.
- Such theories are difficult to quantise because the gauge dependence is an extra non-dynamical degree of freedom that must be dealt with.
- ➤ The modern approach is to quantise the theories using the method of functional integrals. Good references:
 - Itzykson, C. and Zuber, J.-B. (1980), Quantum Field Theory (McGraw-Hill, New York);
 - Pascual, P. and Tarrach, R. (1984), Lecture Notes in Physics, Vol. 194,
 QCD: Renormalization for the Practitioner (Springer-Verlag, Berlin).
- > Functional Integration replaces canonical second-quantisation.
- ➤ NB. In general mathematicians do not regard local gauge theory functional integrals as well-defined.

Dyson-Schwinger Equations

- ➤ It has long been known that from the field equations of quantum field theory one can derive a system of coupled integral equations interrelating all of a theory's Green functions:
 - Dyson, F.J. (1949), "The S Matrix In Quantum Electrodynamics," *Phys. Rev.*75, 1736.
 - Schwinger, J.S. (1951), "On The Green's Functions Of Quantized Fields: 1 and 2," *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci.* **37** (1951) 452; ibid 455.
- This collection of a countable infinity of equations is called the complex of Dyson-Schwinger equations (DSEs).
- ➤ It is an intrinsically nonperturbative complex, which is vitally important in proving the renormalisability of quantum field theories. At its simplest level the complex provides a generating tool for perturbation theory.
- In the context of quantum electrodynamics (QED), I will illustrate a nonperturbative derivation of one equation in this complex. The derivation of others follows the same pattern.

54

Photon Vacuum Polarisation

NB. This is one part of the Lamb Shift

ightharpoonup Action for QED with N_f flavours of electromagnetically active fermions:

$$\begin{split} S[A_{\mu},\psi,\bar{\psi}] \\ = \int d^4x \left[\sum\nolimits_{f=1}^{N_f} \bar{\psi}^f \bigg(i \not \! \partial - m_0^f + e_0^f \not \! A \bigg) \psi^f - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2\lambda_0} \, \partial^{\mu} A_{\mu}(x) \, \partial^{\nu} A_{\nu}(x) \bigg] \right] \, d^4x \, d^$$

- Manifestly Poincaré invariant action:
 - $m{\Psi}^f(x), \, \psi^f(x)$ are elements of Grassmann algebra that describe the fermion degrees of freedom;
 - $m{\mathscr{D}}$ are the fermions' bare masses and e_0^f , their charges;
 - and $A_{\mu}(x)$ describes the gauge boson [photon] field, with $F_{\mu\nu}=\partial_{\mu}A_{\nu}-\partial_{\nu}A_{\mu}$, and λ_0 the bare gauge fixing parameter. (NB. To describe an electron the physical charge $e_f<0$.)

QED Generating Functional

The Generating Functional is defined via the QED action

$$W[J_{\mu}, \xi, \bar{\xi}] = \int [\mathcal{D}A_{\mu}] [\mathcal{D}\psi] [\mathcal{D}\bar{\psi}]$$

$$\times \exp\left\{i \int d^{4}x \left[-\frac{1}{4}F^{\mu\nu}(x)F_{\mu\nu}(x) - \frac{1}{2\lambda_{0}} \partial^{\mu}A_{\mu}(x) \partial^{\nu}A_{\nu}(x) \right.\right.$$

$$\left. + \sum_{f=1}^{N_{f}} \bar{\psi}^{f} \left(i \partial - m_{0}^{f} + e_{0}^{f} \mathcal{A}\right) \psi^{f} \right.$$

$$\left. + J^{\mu}(x)A_{\mu}(x) + \bar{\xi}^{f}(x)\psi^{f}(x) + \bar{\psi}^{f}(x)\xi^{f}(x) \right] \right\}, \tag{65}$$

- $m{ ilde{m{\wp}}}$ simple interaction term: $ar{\psi}^f e_0^f A \psi^f$
- $oldsymbol{\mathcal{I}}_{\mu}$ is an external source for the electromagnetic field

The Generating Functional expresses every feature of the theory.

Functional Field Equations

Advantageous to work with the generating functional of connected Green functions; i.e., $Z[J_{\mu}, \bar{\xi}, \xi]$ defined via

$$W[J_{\mu}, \xi, \bar{\xi}] =: \exp\left\{iZ[J_{\mu}, \xi, \bar{\xi}]\right\}. \tag{64}$$

Derivation of a DSE follows simply from observation that the integral of a total derivative vanishes, given appropriate boundary conditions; e.g.,

$$0 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \left[\frac{d}{dx} f(x) \right]$$
$$= f(\infty) - f(-\infty)$$

so long as $f(\infty) = f(-\infty)$, which includes $f(\infty) = f(-\infty) = 0$; viz., the case of "fields" that vanish far from the interaction domain, centred on x = 0.

Last line has meaning as a functional differential operator acting on the generating functional.

Functional Field Equations

Advantageous to work with the generating functional of connected Green functions; i.e., $Z[J_{\mu}, \bar{\xi}, \xi]$ defined via

$$W[J_{\mu}, \xi, \bar{\xi}] =: \exp\left\{iZ[J_{\mu}, \xi, \bar{\xi}]\right\}. \tag{64}$$

Derivation of a DSE follows simply from observation that the integral of a total derivative vanishes, given appropriate boundary conditions; e.g.,

$$0 = \int [\mathcal{D}A_{\mu}] [\mathcal{D}\psi] [\mathcal{D}\bar{\psi}] \frac{\delta}{\delta A_{\mu}(x)} e^{i\left(S[A_{\mu},\psi,\bar{\psi}]+\int d^{4}x \left[\overline{\psi}^{f} \xi^{f} + \bar{\xi}^{f} \psi^{f} + A_{\mu} J^{\mu}\right]\right)}$$

$$= \int [\mathcal{D}A_{\mu}] [\mathcal{D}\psi] [\mathcal{D}\bar{\psi}] \left\{\frac{\delta S}{\delta A_{\mu}(x)} + J_{\mu}(x)\right\}$$

$$\times \exp\left\{i\left(S[A_{\mu},\psi,\bar{\psi}] + \int d^{4}x \left[\overline{\psi}^{f} \xi^{f} + \bar{\xi}^{f} \psi^{f} + A_{\mu} J^{\mu}\right]\right)\right\}$$

$$= \left\{\frac{\delta S}{\delta A_{\mu}(x)} \left[\frac{\delta}{i\delta J}, \frac{\delta}{i\delta \bar{\xi}}, -\frac{\delta}{i\delta \xi}\right] + J_{\mu}(x)\right\} W[J_{\mu}, \xi, \bar{\xi}], \tag{65}$$

Functional Field Equations

Differentiate Eq. (64) to obtain

$$\frac{\delta S}{\delta A_{\mu}(x)} = \left[\partial_{\rho} \partial^{\rho} g_{\mu\nu} - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_0} \right) \partial_{\mu} \partial_{\nu} \right] A^{\nu}(x) + \sum_{f} e_0^f \, \overline{\psi}^f(x) \gamma_{\mu} \psi^f(x) \,, \tag{66}$$

Equation (65) then becomes

$$-J_{\mu}(x) = \left[\partial_{\rho}\partial^{\rho}g_{\mu\nu} - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_{0}}\right)\partial_{\mu}\partial_{\nu}\right] \frac{\delta Z}{\delta J_{\nu}(x)} + \sum_{f} e_{0}^{f} \left(-\frac{\delta Z}{\delta\xi^{f}(x)}\gamma_{\mu}\frac{\delta Z}{\delta\bar{\xi}^{f}(x)} + \frac{\delta}{\delta\xi^{f}(x)}\right]\gamma_{\mu}\frac{\delta iZ}{\delta\bar{\xi}^{f}(x)}\right],$$
(67)

where we have divided through by $W[J_{\mu}, \xi, \bar{\xi}]$.

Equation (67) represents a compact form of the nonperturbative equivalent of Maxwell's equations

One-Particle Irreducible Green Function

Introduce generating functional for one-particle-irreducible (1PI) Green functions:

$$\Gamma[A_{\mu}, \psi, \bar{\psi}] \tag{68}$$

Obtained from $Z[J_{\mu}, \xi, \bar{\xi}]$ via a Legendre transformation; namely,

$$Z[J_{\mu}, \xi, \bar{\xi}] = \Gamma[A_{\mu}, \psi, \bar{\psi}] + \int d^4x \left[\bar{\psi}^f \xi^f + \bar{\xi}^f \psi^f + A_{\mu} J^{\mu} \right].$$
 (69)

NB. On the right-hand-side, $A_{\mu},\,\psi,\,ar{\psi}$ are functionals of the sources.

One-particle-irreducible n-point function or "proper vertex" contains no contributions that become disconnected when a single connected m-point Green function is removed; e.g., via functional differentiation.

No diagram representing or contributing to a given proper vertex separates into two disconnected diagrams if only one connected propagator is cut. (Detailed explanation: Itzykson, C. and Zuber, J.-B. (1980), Quantum Field Theory (McGraw-Hill, New York), pp. 289-294.)
Craig Roberts: Continuum strong QCD (I.70p)

60

Implications of Legendre Transformation

It is plain from the definition of the Generating Functional, Eq. (65), that

$$\frac{\delta Z}{\delta J^{\mu}(x)} = A_{\mu}(x) \,, \,\, \frac{\delta Z}{\delta \bar{\xi}(x)} = \psi(x) \,, \,\, \frac{\delta Z}{\delta \xi(x)} = -\bar{\psi}(x) \,, \tag{70}$$

where here the external sources are nonzero.

Hence Γ in Eq. (69) must satisfy

$$\frac{\delta\Gamma}{\delta A^{\mu}(x)} = -J_{\mu}(x) \,, \,\, \frac{\delta\Gamma}{\delta\bar{\psi}^{f}(x)} = -\xi^{f}(x) \,, \,\, \frac{\delta\Gamma}{\delta\psi^{f}(x)} = \bar{\xi}^{f}(x) \,. \tag{71}$$

(NB. Since the sources are not zero then, e.g.,

$$A_{\rho}(x) = A_{\rho}(x; [J_{\mu}, \xi, \bar{\xi}]) \Rightarrow \frac{\delta A_{\rho}(x)}{\delta J^{\mu}(y)} \neq 0,$$
(72)

with analogous statements for the Grassmannian functional derivatives.)

NB. It is easy to see that setting $\bar{\psi}=0=\psi$ after differentiating Γ gives zero *unless* there are equal numbers of $\bar{\psi}$ and ψ derivatives. (Integrand is odd under $\psi \to -\psi$.)

Origin of Furry's Theorem

Green Function's Inverse

ullet Consider the operator and matrix product (with spinor labels r, s, t)

$$-\int d^4z \, \frac{\delta^2 Z}{\delta \xi_r^f(x) \bar{\xi}_t^h(z)} \, \frac{\delta^2 \Gamma}{\delta \psi_t^h(z) \overline{\psi}_s^g(y)} \bigg| \quad \xi = \bar{\xi} = 0 \quad . \tag{73}$$

$$\psi = \overline{\psi} = 0$$

Using Eqs. (70), (71), this simplifies as follows:

$$= \int d^4z \, \frac{\delta \psi_t^h(z)}{\delta \xi_r^f(x)} \, \frac{\delta \xi_s^g(y)}{\delta \psi_t^h(z)} \bigg|_{\substack{\xi = \bar{\xi} = 0 \\ \psi = \overline{\psi} = 0}} = \frac{\delta \xi_s^g(y)}{\delta \xi_r^f(x)} \bigg|_{\substack{\psi = \overline{\psi} = 0}} = \delta_{rs} \, \delta^{fg} \, \delta^4(x-y) \,. \tag{74}$$

... Back in Eq. (67), setting $\bar{\xi} = 0 = \xi$ one obtains

$$\left. \frac{\delta\Gamma}{\delta A^{\mu}(x)} \right|_{\psi = \overline{\psi} = 0} = \left[\partial_{\rho} \partial^{\rho} g_{\mu\nu} - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_0} \right) \partial_{\mu} \partial_{\nu} \right] A^{\nu}(x) - i \sum_{f} e_0^{f} \operatorname{tr} \left[\gamma_{\mu} S^{f}(x, x; [A_{\mu}]) \right], \tag{75}$$

Identification: $S^f(x, y; [A_\mu]) = -\frac{\delta^2 Z}{\delta \xi^f(y) \bar{\xi}^f(x)} = \frac{\delta^2 Z}{\delta \bar{\xi}^f(x) \xi^f(y)}$ (no summation on f), (76)

Green Function's Inverse

As a direct consequence of Eq. (73) the inverse of this Green function is given by

$$S^{f}(x,y;[A])^{-1} = \frac{\delta^{2}\Gamma}{\delta\psi^{f}(x)\delta\bar{\psi}^{f}(y)}\bigg|_{\psi=\overline{\psi}=0}.$$
 (77)

General property: functional derivatives of the generating functional for 1PI Green functions are related to the associated propagator's inverse.

Clearly, the in-vacuum fermion propagator or, another name, the connected fermion 2-point function is $S^f(x,y):=S^f(x,y;[A_\mu=0])\,. \tag{78}$

Such vacuum Green functions are keystones in quantum field theory.

To continue, differentiate Eq. (75) with respect to $A_{\nu}(y)$ and set $J_{\mu}(x)=0$:

$$\frac{\delta^{2}\Gamma}{\delta A^{\mu}(x)\delta A^{\nu}(y)} \begin{vmatrix} A_{\mu} = 0 \end{vmatrix} = \left[\partial_{\rho}\partial^{\rho}g_{\mu\nu} - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_{0}}\right)\partial_{\mu}\partial_{\nu} \right] \delta^{4}(x - y)
\psi = \overline{\psi} = 0
-i\sum_{f} e_{0}^{f} \operatorname{tr} \left[\gamma_{\mu} \frac{\delta}{\delta A_{\nu}(y)} \left(\frac{\delta^{2}\Gamma}{\delta \psi^{f}(x)\delta \overline{\psi}^{f}(x)} \Big|_{\psi = \overline{\psi} = 0} \right)^{-1} \right]. (79)$$

Inverse of Photon Propagator

I.h.s. is easily understood – Eqs. (77), (78) define the inverse of the fermion propagator. Hence, I.h.s. must be the inverse of the photon propagator:

$$(D^{-1})^{\mu\nu}(x,y) := \frac{\delta^2 \Gamma}{\delta A^{\mu}(x)\delta A^{\nu}(y)} \begin{vmatrix} A_{\mu} = 0 \\ \psi = \overline{\psi} = 0 \end{vmatrix} . \tag{80}$$

r.h.s., however, must be simplified and interpreted. First observe that

$$-\frac{\delta}{\delta A_{\nu}(y)} \left(\frac{\delta^{2} \Gamma}{\delta \psi^{f}(x) \delta \bar{\psi}^{f}(x)} \bigg|_{\psi = \overline{\psi} = 0} \right)^{-1} = \int d^{4}u d^{4}w \dots \tag{81}$$

$$\left(\frac{\delta^{2} \Gamma}{\delta \psi^{f}(x) \delta \bar{\psi}^{f}(w)} \bigg|_{\psi = \overline{\psi} = 0} \right)^{-1} \frac{\delta}{\delta A_{\nu}(y)} \frac{\delta^{2} \Gamma}{\delta \psi^{f}(u) \delta \bar{\psi}^{f}(w)} \left(\frac{\delta^{2} \Gamma}{\delta \psi^{f}(w) \delta \bar{\psi}^{f}(x)} \bigg|_{\psi = \overline{\psi} = 0} \right)^{-1},$$

Analogue of result for finite dimensional matrices:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[A(x)A^{-1}(x) = \mathbf{I}] = 0 = \frac{dA(x)}{dx}A^{-1}(x) + A(x)\frac{dA^{-1}(x)}{dx}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dA^{-1}(x)}{dx} = -A^{-1}(x)\frac{dA(x)}{dx}A^{-1}(x). \tag{82}$$

Proper Fermion-Photon Vertex

Equation (81) involves the 1PI 3-point function (no summation on f)

$$e_0^f \Gamma_\mu^f(x, y; z) := \frac{\delta}{\delta A_\nu(z)} \frac{\delta^2 \Gamma}{\delta \psi^f(x) \delta \bar{\psi}^f(y)}. \tag{83}$$

This is the proper fermion-gauge-boson vertex.

At leading order in perturbation theory

$$\Gamma_{\nu}^{f}(x,y;z) = \gamma_{\nu} \,\delta^{4}(x-z) \,\delta^{4}(y-z) \,, \tag{84}$$

Result can be obtained via explicit calculation of functional derivatives in Eq. (83).

Photon Vacuum Polarisation

Define the gauge-boson vacuum polarisation:

$$\Pi_{\mu\nu}(x,y) = i \sum\nolimits_f (e_0^f)^2 \int d^4z_1 \, d^4z_2 \, \text{tr}[\gamma_\mu S^f(x,z_1) \Gamma^f_\nu(z_1,z_2;y) S^f(z_2,x)], \tag{85}$$

Gauge-boson vacuum polarisation, or "photon self-energy,"

- Describes modification of gauge-boson's propagation characteristics owing to the presence of virtual particle-antiparticle pairs in quantum field theory.
- **●** In particular, the photon vacuum polarisation is an important element in the description of a process such as $\rho^0 \rightarrow e^+e^-$.

Eq. (79) may now be expressed as

$$(D^{-1})^{\mu\nu}(x,y) = \left[\partial_{\rho}\partial^{\rho}g_{\mu\nu} - (1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_0})\partial_{\mu}\partial_{\nu}\right]\delta^4(x-y) + \Pi_{\mu\nu}(x,y). \tag{86}$$

The propagator for a free gauge boson is [use $\Pi_{\mu\nu}(x,y)\equiv 0$ in Eq. (86)]

$$D_0^{\mu\nu}(q) = \frac{-g^{\mu\nu} + (q^{\mu}q^{\nu}/[q^2 + i\eta])}{q^2 + i\eta} - \lambda_0 \frac{q^{\mu}q^{\nu}}{(q^2 + i\eta)^2} , \qquad (87)$$

DSE for Photon Propagator

Then Eq. (86) can be written $iD = iD_0 + iD_0 i\Pi iD$.

This is a Dyson-Schwinger Equation

In presence of interactions;

i.e., for $\Pi_{\mu\nu} \neq 0$ in Eq. (86),

b)
$$\sim 0$$
 $= \sim 0$ $+ \sim 0$ ~ 0

$$D^{\mu\nu}(q) = \frac{-g^{\mu\nu} + (q^{\mu}q^{\nu}/[q^2 + i\eta])}{q^2 + i\eta} \frac{1}{1 + \Pi(q^2)} - \lambda_0 \frac{q^{\mu}q^{\nu}}{(q^2 + i\eta)^2} , \qquad (88)$$

Used the "Ward-Takahashi identity:"
$$q_{\mu} \Pi_{\mu\nu}(q) = 0 = \Pi_{\mu\nu}(q) \, q_{\nu} \ ,$$

$$\Rightarrow \Pi^{\mu\nu}(q) = (-g^{\mu\nu}q^2 + q^{\mu}q^{\nu}) \, \Pi(q^2) \, . \tag{89}$$

 $\Pi(q^2)$ is the polarisation scalar. Independent of the gauge parameter, λ_0 , in QED.

- $oldsymbol{\lambda}_0=1$ is called "Feynman gauge." Useful in perturbative calculations because it simplifies the $\Pi(q^2)=0$ gauge boson propagator enormously.
- In nonperturbative applications, however, $\lambda_0 = 0$, "Landau gauge," is most useful because it ensures that the gauge boson propagator is itself transverse.

Ward-Green-Takahashi Identities

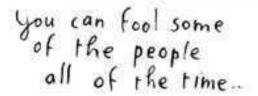
- ➤ Ward-Green-Takahashi identities (WGTIs) are relations satisfied by n-point Green functions, relations which are an essential consequence of a theory's local gauge invariance; i.e., local current conservation.
- They can be proved directly from the generating functional and have physical implications. For example, Eq. (89) ensures that the photon remains massless in the presence of charged fermions.
- > A discussion of WGTIs can be found in
 - Bjorken, J.D. and Drell, S.D. (1965), *Relativistic Quantum Fields* (*McGraw-Hill*, New York), pp. 299-303,
 - Itzykson, C. and Zuber, J.-B. (1980), Quantum Field Theory (McGraw-Hill, New York), pp. 407-411.
- ➤ Their generalisation to non-Abelian theories as "Slavnov-Taylor" identities is described in
 - Pascual, P. and Tarrach, R. (1984), Lecture Notes in Physics, **194**, *QCD:*Renormalization for the Practitioner (Springer-Verlag, Berlin), Chap. 2.

Vacuum Polarisation in Momentum Space

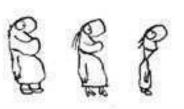
 In absence of external sources, Eq. (85) can easily be represented in momentum space, because then the 2- and 3-point functions appearing therein must be translationally invariant and hence they can be expressed simply in terms of Fourier amplitudes; i.e., we have

$$i\Pi_{\mu\nu}(q) = -\sum_{f} (e_0^f)^2 \int \frac{d^4\ell}{(2\pi)^4} \text{tr}[(i\gamma_{\mu})(iS^f(\ell))(i\Gamma^f(\ell,\ell+q))(iS(\ell+q))].$$
 (90)

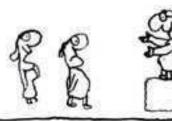
- The reduction to a single integral makes momentum space representations most widely used in continuum calculations.
- QED: the vacuum polarisation is directly related to the running coupling constant, which is a connection that makes its importance obvious.
- QCD: connection not so direct but, nevertheless, the polarisation scalar is a key component in the evaluation of the strong running coupling.
- Observed: second derivatives of the generating functional, $\Gamma[A_{\mu},\psi,\bar{\psi}]$, give the inverse-fermion and -photon propagators; third derivative gave the proper photon-fermion vertex. In general, all derivatives of $\Gamma[A_{\mu},\psi,\bar{\psi}]$, higher than two, produce a proper vertex, number and type of derivatives give the number and type of proper Green functions that it can connect.



and you can fool all of the people some of the time.

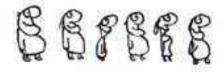






But you only need to fool a majority of the people for one day every few years..

a democracy!







Any Questions?