

Appendix A

Notational Conventions

Throughout the book we use Einstein's implicit summation convention: repeated indices in an expression are automatically summed over.

We work in natural units where the Planck constant is $\hbar = 1$ and the speed of light is $c = 1$. In these units, energy and mass have the same mass dimension equal to +1 and time and length have the same mass dimension equal to -1 . A useful relation is $1 = 197 \text{ MeVfm}$, which allows the conversion between energy in units of MeV ¹ and length in units of fm .²

In Lattice Quantum Chromodynamics the fields representing the quarks and the gluons are defined on a Euclidean lattice in four dimensions with lattice spacing a . The directions on the lattice are labelled by $\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$. The lattice points have coordinates $x = (x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3)$ which are integer multiples of a : $x_\mu = n_\mu a$, $n_\mu \in \mathbb{N}$ for $\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$. The coordinate x_0 is referred to as the Euclidean time and the spatial coordinates are collectively denoted by $\underline{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$. The nearest neighbor of a lattice point x in positive μ direction is denoted by $x + a\hat{\mu}$, where $\hat{\mu}$ is the unit vector in direction μ . If the lattice has a finite volume $V = T \times L^3$ then the ranges of the coordinates are $x_0/a = 0, 1, \dots, T/a - 1$ and $x_k = 0, 1, \dots, L/a - 1$ for $k = 1, 2, 3$. Unless otherwise specified, in finite volume we impose periodic boundary conditions, which mean that the points $x + T\hat{0}$ and $x + L\hat{k}$ for $k = 1, 2, 3$ are identified with x .

¹MeV means Mega electronvolt; 1 eV is the potential energy that an electron acquires when a tension of 1 V is applied.

²fm means fermi; 1 fm = 10^{-15} m.

A.1 $SU(N)$ Notation

An $SU(N)$ gauge field on the lattice assign an element $U_\mu(x)$ of $SU(N)$ to the link connecting the point $x + a\hat{\mu}$ with x . $SU(N)$ is the special unitary group. In the fundamental representation, the elements U are $N \times N$ complex matrices which satisfy

$$U \in SU(N) \Leftrightarrow U^{-1} = U^\dagger \equiv (U^T)^*, \quad \det(U) = 1. \quad (\text{A.1})$$

The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{su}(N)$ of $SU(N)$ may be identified with the linear space of all anti-hermitian traceless $N \times N$ matrices X :

$$X^\dagger = -X, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{tr} X = 0. \quad (\text{A.2})$$

We denote the generators (basis) of $\mathfrak{su}(N)$ by $T^i, i = 1, \dots, N^2 - 1$. Any element X of $\mathfrak{su}(N)$ can written as

$$X = X^i T^i, \quad X^i = -2\text{tr} \{X T^i\},$$

in terms of real components X^i . The normalisation of the generators is given by

$$\text{tr} \{T^i T^j\} = -\frac{1}{2} \delta^{ij}. \quad (\text{A.3})$$

The natural scalar product in $\mathfrak{su}(N)$ is

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = X^i Y^i = -2\text{tr} \{XY\}. \quad (\text{A.4})$$

The structure constants f^{ijk} defined by the commutation relation

$$[T^i, T^j] = f^{ijk} T^k \quad (\text{A.5})$$

are real and totally anti-symmetric in the indices i, j, k . They satisfy $f^{ikl} f^{jkl} = N \delta^{ij}$. The exponential map

$$e^X = I + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{X^k}{k!},$$

maps an element $X \in \mathfrak{su}(N)$ onto the group $SU(N)$. Differentiation of a function of the lattice gauge field $f(U)$ with respect to a link $U_\mu(x)$ is defined by the link differential operators [1]

$$\partial_{x,\mu} f(U) = T^i \partial_{x,\mu}^i f(U) \quad \text{with} \quad \partial_{x,\mu}^i f(U) = \left. \frac{df(U_s)}{ds} \right|_{s=0}. \quad (\text{A.6})$$

In the derivative with respect to s the gauge field U_s is given by

$$(U_s)_\nu(y) = \begin{cases} e^{sT^i} U_\mu(x) & \text{if } (y, \nu) = (x, \mu) \\ U_\nu(y) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}. \quad (\text{A.7})$$

Useful formulae are

$$\left. \frac{d(U_s)_\mu(x)}{ds} \right|_{s=0} = T^i U_\mu(x), \quad \text{and} \quad \left. \frac{d(U_s)_\mu^{-1}(x)}{ds} \right|_{s=0} = -U_\mu^{-1}(x) T^i,$$

where the second expression follows from $0 = \left. \frac{d(U_s)_\mu^{-1}(x)(U_s)_\mu(x)}{ds} \right|_{s=0}$.

A.2 Fermions

A fermion field assigns Dirac spinors $\psi_j^\alpha(x)$ and $\bar{\psi}_j^\alpha(x)$ to each lattice point x . The spinor index is $\alpha = 1, 2, 3, 4$ and the colour index in the fundamental representation of $SU(N)$ is $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$. The components of the fermion field are Grassmann numbers.

The Grassmann algebra of q Grassmann numbers $\{\eta_1, \eta_2, \dots, \eta_q\}$ is defined as

$$\{\eta_i, \eta_j\} = 0, \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots, q. \quad (\text{A.8})$$

For a single Grassmann variable, the Berezin integral is

$$\int d\eta = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \int d\eta \eta = 1.$$

These are not integrals in our usual intuitive sense of the area under a curve but should be considered as abstract and simple rules that define the fermion path integral in a physically sensible way in analogy to the bosonic path integral. Since $\eta^2 = 0$ for a Grassmannian, any function of this single variable can be written

$$f(\eta) = f_0 + f_1 \eta,$$

with f_0 and f_1 two constants and so the integral of any function is then

$$\int d\eta f(\eta) = f_1$$

and we see the first peculiar property of a Grassmann variable; integration is equivalent to differentiation. Now consider integrating q Grassmannians. The rules above

apply straightforwardly, but care is needed to take the order of integration appropriately since Grassmann variables anti-commute. We have

$$\int \mathcal{D}[\eta] \eta_1 \eta_2 \dots \eta_q = 1 \quad (\text{A.9})$$

with $\mathcal{D}[\eta] = \prod_{k=1}^q d\eta_k$. All other integrals, which have at least one of the variables missing, vanish. A function of q Grassmannians will have 2^N coefficients in its most general form and can be written in a binary notation. For example, with $q = 3$

$$f(\eta_1, \eta_2, \eta_3) = f_{000} + f_{100}\eta_1 + f_{010}\eta_2 + f_{001}\eta_3 + f_{110}\eta_1\eta_2 + f_{101}\eta_1\eta_3 + f_{011}\eta_2\eta_3 + f_{111}\eta_1\eta_2\eta_3,$$

and the integral result follows easily;

$$\int \mathcal{D}[\eta] f(\eta_1, \eta_2, \dots, \eta_q) = f_{11\dots 1}.$$

An important role is played by ‘‘Gaussian’’ integrals. The Matthews–Salam formula is

$$\int \mathcal{D}[\eta] \mathcal{D}[\bar{\eta}] e^{\bar{\eta}_i M_{ij} \eta_j} = \det(M), \quad (\text{A.10})$$

where $\{\bar{\eta}_1, \bar{\eta}_2, \dots, \bar{\eta}_q\}$ is a second set of independent Grassmann numbers. Consider a linear transformation of the Grassmann variables $\eta = A\eta'$, where A is a complex matrix. Using the chain of equalities

$$\det(M) = \int \mathcal{D}[A\eta'] \mathcal{D}[\bar{\eta}] e^{\bar{\eta} M (A\eta')} = J(A) \int \mathcal{D}[\eta'] \mathcal{D}[\bar{\eta}] e^{\bar{\eta} (MA)\eta'} = J(A) \det(MA) \quad (\text{A.11})$$

we conclude that the Jacobian of the transformation is $J(A) = \det(A)^{-1}$. Similarly, the transformation $\bar{\eta} = \bar{\eta}' B$ leads to a Jacobian $\mathcal{D}[\bar{\eta}' B] = J(B) \mathcal{D}[\bar{\eta}']$ with $J(B) = \det(B)^{-1}$.

On an infinite lattice we can represent the fermion fields as integrals

$$\psi(x) = \int_{-\pi/a}^{\pi/a} \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} e^{ipx} \tilde{\psi}(p), \quad (\text{A.12})$$

$$\bar{\psi}(x) = \int_{-\pi/a}^{\pi/a} \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} e^{-ipx} \tilde{\bar{\psi}}(p). \quad (\text{A.13})$$

The momenta $p = (p_\mu)$ are defined over the Brillouin zone $p_\mu \in [-\pi/a, \pi/a]$. The Fourier components can be computed by Fourier transformation as

$$\tilde{\psi}(p) = a^4 \sum_x e^{-ipx} \psi(x), \quad (\text{A.14})$$

$$\tilde{\bar{\psi}}(p) = a^4 \sum_x e^{ipx} \bar{\psi}(x). \quad (\text{A.15})$$

The Wilson–Dirac operator acts on fermion fields according to Eq. (1.83). There, the 4×4 Dirac matrices γ_μ , $\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$ act in spinor space. They are Hermitian $(\gamma_\mu)^\dagger = \gamma_\mu$ and satisfy the anti-commutation relation

$$\{\gamma_\mu, \gamma_\nu\} = 2\delta_{\mu\nu}. \quad (\text{A.16})$$

Since γ_μ is Hermitian, it follows $(\gamma_\mu^*)^{\alpha\beta} = \gamma_\mu^{\beta\alpha} \forall \mu$. An explicit choice is given by the chiral representation of the Dirac matrices, where

$$\gamma_\mu = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & e_\mu \\ (e_\mu)^\dagger & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{A.17})$$

A possible choice for the 2×2 matrices e_μ is

$$e_0 = -I, \quad e_k = -i\sigma_k, \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \quad (\text{A.18})$$

where σ_k are the Pauli matrices

$$\sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We define $\gamma_5 = \gamma_0\gamma_1\gamma_2\gamma_3$ with the properties

$$(\gamma_5)^\dagger = \gamma_5, \quad (\gamma_5)^2 = I, \quad \{\gamma_\mu, \gamma_5\} = 0 \quad \forall \mu. \quad (\text{A.19})$$

In the chiral representation Eq. (A.17) of the Dirac matrices we have

$$\gamma_5 = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & -I \end{pmatrix}$$

and for the matrices $\sigma_{\mu\nu} = \frac{i}{2}[\gamma_\mu, \gamma_\nu]$

$$\sigma_{0k} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_k & 0 \\ 0 & -\sigma_k \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_{ij} = -\varepsilon_{ijk} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_k & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_k \end{pmatrix},$$

where ε_{ijk} is the totally anti-symmetric tensor with $\varepsilon_{123} = 1$.

A pseudofermion field is defined like the fermion field to have space x , spin α and color i indices but it takes complex values instead of being Grassmann-valued. The scalar product of two pseudofermion fields ϕ and ψ is defined as

$$\langle \phi, \psi \rangle = \sum_{x, \alpha, j} \phi_j^{*\alpha}(x) \psi_j^\alpha(x). \quad (\text{A.20})$$

We remind the useful properties $\langle \phi, \psi \rangle^* = \langle \psi, \phi \rangle$ and $\langle \phi, A \psi \rangle = \langle A^\dagger \phi, \psi \rangle$ for any matrix A acting on the pseudofermion fields. The scalar product in Eq. (A.20) can be rewritten as

$$\langle \phi, \psi \rangle = \sum_x \text{tr}_{\sigma, c} [\psi(x) \phi^\dagger(x)]. \quad (\text{A.21})$$

Here, $M = \psi(x) \phi^\dagger(x)$ is a matrix in colour and spinor space with elements $M_{jk}^{\alpha\beta} = \psi_j^\alpha(x) \phi_k^{*\beta}(x)$ and tr_c means the trace over the colour indices and tr_σ the trace over the spinor indices.

A.3 Probability Spaces

A *probability space* (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) consists of a non-empty set Ω , a σ -algebra \mathcal{F} and a *probability measure* P mapping \mathcal{F} onto $[0, 1]$. Hereby a set of subsets of Ω is called σ -algebra, if the following three conditions hold:

1. $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$.
2. $A \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow \Omega \setminus A \in \mathcal{F}$.
3. $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$.

For P being a probability measure, $P(\Omega) = 1$ has to hold, as well as $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$ for A_i being pairwise disjoint.

A *random variable* $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a measurable function mapping Ω onto \mathbb{R}^n , i.e., $f^{(-1)}(B) \in \mathcal{F}$ for all open sets $B \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Any measurable function f with the property

$$P(A \in \Omega) = \int_{X^{-1}A} dP = \int_A f dx$$

for all open set $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called a probability density function.

Reference

1. M. Lüscher, Commun. Math. Phys. **293**, 899 (2010). doi:[10.1007/s00220-009-0953-7](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00220-009-0953-7)