

Homework 4 Solutions

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Total Points: 100

Question 1 (Particle in a Double Well Potential)

Consider a particle with coordinate q and mass m moving in the potential

$$V(q) = \lambda(q^2 - q_0^2)^2. \quad (1.0.1)$$

We are interested in the imaginary time transition amplitude

$$\langle q_0, T/2 | -q_0, -T/2 \rangle = \langle q_0 | e^{-HT/\hbar} | -q_0 \rangle, \quad (1.0.2)$$

in the limit that $T \rightarrow \infty$.

1. [10/35] The transition amplitude has the path integral form

$$\langle q_0 | e^{-HT/\hbar} | -q_0 \rangle = \int_{\substack{q(-T/2)=-q_0 \\ q(T/2)=q_0}} \mathcal{D}q(\tau) \exp \left[-\frac{1}{\hbar} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} d\tau L_E(q, \dot{q}) \right], \quad (1.1.1a)$$

$$L_E(q, \dot{q}) = \frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dq}{d\tau} \right)^2 + V(q) = \frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dq}{d\tau} \right)^2 + \lambda(q^2 - q_0^2)^2, \quad (1.1.1b)$$

where the subscripts under the functional integral are the boundary conditions for the sum over configurations $q(-T/2) = -q_0$ and $q(T/2) = +q_0$, and L_E is the Euclidean Lagrangian.

For comparison, the Lagrangian in real time is

$$L = \frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dq}{dt} \right)^2 - V(q) = \frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dq}{dt} \right)^2 - \lambda(q^2 - q_0^2)^2. \quad (1.1.2)$$

and so the imaginary time Lagrangian looks like a conventional classical Lagrangian with an inverted potential.

2. [10/35] The imaginary time equation of motion follows from the Euler-Lagrange equation

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial L_E}{\partial q} - \frac{d}{d\tau} \frac{\partial L_E}{\partial \dot{q}} &= 0 \\ \implies m \frac{d^2 q}{d\tau^2} &= \frac{\partial V(q)}{\partial q} = 4\lambda q(q^2 - q_0^2). \end{aligned} \quad (1.2.1)$$

This shows that the positions $q = \pm q_0$ are *unstable* equilibria, and that a particle which starts at $q = -q_0$ will “roll” down the inverted potential before rolling up the hill towards $q = +q_0$. In contrast, the real time equation of motion is

$$m \frac{d^2 q}{dt^2} = -4\lambda q(q^2 - q_0^2). \quad (1.2.2)$$

In this case, $q = \pm q_0$ are stable equilibria, and the region in between the double well is classically forbidden for a particle with a small kinetic energy.

The integral of motion which is analogous to the classical energy is the Hamiltonian function corresponding to the Euclidean Lagrangian

$$H_E = \frac{\partial L_E}{\partial \dot{q}} \dot{q} - L_E = \frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dq}{d\tau} \right)^2 - V(q). \quad (1.2.3)$$

Since we are interested in the limit $T \rightarrow \infty$, we impose the usual requirement that $\dot{q} = 0$ as $\tau \rightarrow \pm\infty$ to ensure a well-behaved/finite action. In this case, since $q(-T/2) = -q_0$, and $V(-q_0) = 0$, the initial value of the “Euclidean energy” is $H_E(-T/2) = 0$, and since this is a constant of motion, we have, for all imaginary time,

$$H_E = 0, \quad \implies \quad \left(\frac{dq}{d\tau} \right)^2 = \frac{2V(q)}{m}. \quad (1.2.4)$$

We can integrate this to find the solution for the classical trajectory q_c , in the limit $T \rightarrow \infty$. Defining τ_0 to be the value of imaginary time when the particle passes through the origin, $q_c(\tau_0) = 0$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{q_c(\tau)} \frac{dq}{q^2 - q_0^2} &= \pm \sqrt{\frac{2\lambda}{m}} \int_{\tau_0}^{\tau} d\tau', \\ \implies -\frac{1}{q_0} \operatorname{arctanh} \left(\frac{q_c(\tau)}{q_0} \right) &= \pm \sqrt{\frac{2\lambda}{m}} (\tau - \tau_0), \\ \implies q_c(\tau) &= q_0 \tanh \left[\sqrt{\frac{2\lambda q_0^2}{m}} (\tau - \tau_0) \right], \end{aligned} \quad (1.2.5)$$

where in the last step, we chose the sign so that $q_c(\tau) \rightarrow q_0$ as $\tau \rightarrow \infty$ and $q_c(\tau) \rightarrow -q_0$ as $\tau \rightarrow -\infty$, as required.

The solution (1.2.5) is manifestly not unique, since the location τ_0 is arbitrary. Note that there is no contradiction with Picard’s theorem on the uniqueness of solutions to ordinary differential equations: Eq. (1.2.4) is a first order nonlinear ODE, and hence, given some initial condition $q(\tau_1) = q_1$, one can only guarantee uniqueness of the corresponding solution on the interval $\tau \in [\tau_1 - \varepsilon, \tau_1 + \varepsilon]$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$. This is precisely the case once we have fixed the crossover point τ_0 . Seen another way, it is not sufficient to only specify the behavior at $\tau \rightarrow \pm\infty$ in order to have a well-posed initial value problem.

The imaginary time trajectory describes a tunneling event between the minima of the double well potential. This is evident from the real time equations of motion since, as we observed above, the region between $\pm q_0$ is classically forbidden. However, since the potential is inverted in imaginary time, the particle is able to “move” between the two minima. Consequently, $\langle q_0, T/2 | -q_0, -T/2 \rangle$ is the probability amplitude for the particle to tunnel quantum mechanically from the well with minimum at $-q_0$ to the well at $+q_0$.

3. [5/35] Using the identity (1.2.4), we can easily evaluate the classical action:

$$\begin{aligned}
 S[q_c(\tau)] &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau L_E \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau m \left(\frac{dq_c}{d\tau} \right)^2 \\
 &= \int_{-q_0}^{q_0} dq_c m \frac{dq_c}{d\tau} \\
 &= \int_{-q_0}^{q_0} dq \sqrt{2mV(q)} \\
 &= \frac{4}{3} q_0^3 \sqrt{2m\lambda}, \tag{1.3.1}
 \end{aligned}$$

where we have chosen the same sign for the square root as above, which ensures the imaginary time action is strictly non-negative, as it must be.

4. [10/35] We now expand the path integral around the classical trajectory by defining

$$q(\tau) = q_c(\tau) + \xi(\tau), \tag{1.4.1}$$

where $\xi(-\infty) = \xi(\infty) = 0$, since the boundary conditions are carried by the classical solution. We can start by expanding the kinetic term:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int d\tau \frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dq}{d\tau} \right)^2 &= \int d\tau \frac{m}{2} \left[\left(\frac{dq_c}{d\tau} \right)^2 + 2 \frac{dq_c}{d\tau} \frac{d\xi}{d\tau} + \left(\frac{d\xi}{d\tau} \right)^2 \right] \\
 &= \int d\tau \frac{m}{2} \left[\left(\frac{dq_c}{d\tau} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{d\xi}{d\tau} \right)^2 \right] \\
 &\quad + \int d\tau \frac{d}{d\tau} \left(m\xi \frac{dq_c}{d\tau} \right) - \int d\tau m\xi \frac{d^2 q_c}{d\tau^2} \\
 &= \int d\tau \frac{m}{2} \left[\left(\frac{dq_c}{d\tau} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{d\xi}{d\tau} \right)^2 \right] - \int d\tau m\xi \frac{d^2 q_c}{d\tau^2}, \tag{1.4.2}
 \end{aligned}$$

where the boundary term evaluates to zero because $\xi(-\infty) = \xi(\infty) = 0$. Then, we expand the potential term:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int d\tau V(q) &= \int d\tau V(q_c) + \int d\tau \left. \frac{\partial V(q)}{\partial q} \right|_{q_c} \xi(\tau) \\
 &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \int d\tau \int d\tau' \left. \frac{\partial^2 V(q)}{\partial q(\tau) \partial q(\tau')} \right|_{q_c} \xi(\tau) \xi(\tau') + \dots \tag{1.4.3}
 \end{aligned}$$

When added to the kinetic term above, the second term in this expansion gives the contribution

$$- \int d\tau \xi(\tau) \left[m \frac{d^2 q_c}{d\tau^2} - \left. \frac{\partial V(q)}{\partial q} \right|_{q_c} \right] = 0, \tag{1.4.4}$$

which vanishes since the term in the brackets is simply the Euler-Lagrange equation for the classical trajectory. Then, since the potential $V(q)$ is a simple polynomial in q ,

the third term in the expansion of the potential yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int d\tau \int d\tau' \left. \frac{\partial^2 V(q)}{\partial q(\tau) \partial q(\tau')} \right|_{q_c} \xi(\tau) \xi(\tau') &= \int d\tau \int d\tau' \left. \frac{\partial^2 V(q)}{\partial q(\tau)^2} \right|_{q_c} \delta(\tau - \tau') \xi(\tau) \xi(\tau') \\ &= \int d\tau V''(q_c) \xi^2. \end{aligned} \quad (1.4.5)$$

Therefore, putting everything together, the semi-classical expansion of the action is

$$\begin{aligned} S[q(\tau)] &\simeq \int d\tau \left[\frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{dq_c}{d\tau} \right)^2 + V(q_c) \right] + \int d\tau \left[\frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{d\xi}{d\tau} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} V''(q_c) \xi^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{4}{3} q_0^3 \sqrt{2m\lambda} + \int d\tau \left[\frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{d\xi}{d\tau} \right)^2 + 2\lambda(3q_c^2(\tau) - q_0^2) \xi^2 \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (1.4.6)$$

Thus, the leading order tunneling amplitude is

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \langle q_0, T/2 | -q_0, -T/2 \rangle &= \int_{\substack{q(-\infty) = -q_0 \\ q(\infty) = q_0}} \mathcal{D}q(\tau) e^{-S[q(\tau)]/\hbar} \\ &\simeq e^{-\frac{4q_0^3 \sqrt{2m\lambda}}{3\hbar}} \int_{\substack{\tilde{\xi}(-\infty) = 0 \\ \tilde{\xi}(\infty) = 0}} \mathcal{D}\tilde{\xi}(\tau) \exp \left(- \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau \left[\frac{m}{2} \left(\frac{d\tilde{\xi}}{d\tau} \right)^2 + 2\lambda(3q_c^2(\tau) - q_0^2) \tilde{\xi}^2 \right] \right), \end{aligned} \quad (1.4.7)$$

where we have re-scaled $\tilde{\xi} = \xi/\sqrt{\hbar}$. Integrating the kinetic term in the action by parts gives

$$- \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau \tilde{\xi}(\tau) \left[-m \frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} + 4\lambda(3q_c^2(\tau) - q_0^2) \right] \tilde{\xi}(\tau) \doteq - \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau \tilde{\xi}(\tau) \hat{A}_E \tilde{\xi}(\tau), \quad (1.4.8)$$

which lets us identify that the functional integral over $\tilde{\xi}(\tau)$ yields

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \langle q_0, T/2 | -q_0, -T/2 \rangle = e^{-\frac{4q_0^3 \sqrt{2m\lambda}}{3\hbar}} (\text{Det } \hat{A}_E)^{-1/2}, \quad (1.4.9)$$

where the fluctuation determinant is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Det } \hat{A}_E &= \text{Det} \left[-m \frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} + 4\lambda(3q_c^2(\tau) - q_0^2) \right] \\ &= \text{Det} \left[-m \frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} + 4\lambda q_0^2 \left(3 \tanh^2 \left[\sqrt{\frac{2\lambda q_0^2}{m}} (\tau - \tau_0) \right] - 1 \right) \right], \end{aligned} \quad (1.4.10)$$

over the space of functions obeying the boundary conditions $\tilde{\xi}(-\infty) = \tilde{\xi}(\infty) = 0$. It turns out that the eigenfunctions of this operator can be solved for exactly (see [this Wikipedia page](#)).

Question 2 (Charged Particle in a Magnetic Field)

Consider a particle with mass m and charge $-e$ confined to a plane, such that it has position $\mathbf{r} = (x_1, x_2)$ and momentum $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, p_2)$. An external magnetic field $\mathbf{B} = B\hat{\mathbf{z}}$ is applied, so that the Hamiltonian is

$$H(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{p}) = \frac{1}{2m} \left(\mathbf{p} + \frac{e}{c} \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}) \right)^2, \quad (2.0.1a)$$

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{B}{2} (x_2 \hat{\mathbf{x}} - x_1 \hat{\mathbf{y}}). \quad (2.0.1b)$$

1. [15/30] Consider the return amplitude

$$\langle \mathbf{r}_0, t_f | \mathbf{r}_0, t_i \rangle = \langle \mathbf{r}_0 | e^{-iH(t_f-t_i)/\hbar} | \mathbf{r}_0 \rangle. \quad (2.1.1)$$

In constructing the (one-dimensional) path integral, one considers intermediate matrix elements of the form

$$\langle q_j | H | q_{j-1} \rangle = \int \frac{dp_j}{2\pi\hbar} \langle q_j | H | p_j \rangle \langle p_j | q_{j-1} \rangle, \quad (2.1.2)$$

and $\langle q_j | H | p_j \rangle$ is simple to evaluate for a Hamiltonian of the form $H = p^2/2m + V(q)$, where p and q appear separately. The Hamiltonian for our present problem does not have this form. However, by expanding the Hamiltonian, we find

$$\begin{aligned} H &= \frac{1}{2m} \left(p_1 - \frac{eB}{2c} x_2 \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2m} \left(p_2 + \frac{eB}{2c} x_1 \right)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2m} (p_1^2 + p_2^2) + \frac{eB}{2mc} (x_1 p_2 - x_2 p_1) + \frac{1}{2m} \left(\frac{eB}{2c} \right)^2 (x_1^2 + x_2^2), \end{aligned} \quad (2.1.3)$$

since $[x_1, p_2] = [x_2, p_1] = 0$. Therefore, we can make all position coordinates appear to the left of the momenta, and hence, the usual path integral derivation is still valid. From this observation, we can immediately write down

$$\langle \mathbf{r}_0, t_f | \mathbf{r}_0, t_i \rangle = \int_{\substack{\mathbf{r}(t_i)=\mathbf{r}_0 \\ \mathbf{r}(t_f)=\mathbf{r}_0}} \mathcal{D}\mathbf{r}(t) \mathcal{D}\mathbf{p}(t) \exp \left[\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_i}^{t_f} dt \left(\mathbf{p} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}} - H(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{p}) \right) \right]. \quad (2.1.4)$$

Since the exponent is quadratic in the momenta, we can perform the functional integral over \mathbf{p} . We can re-write the integrand in the exponent as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{p} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}} - H(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{p}) &= \left(\dot{x}_1 + \frac{eB}{2mc} x_2 \right) p_1 - \frac{p_1^2}{2m} \\ &\quad + \left(\dot{x}_2 - \frac{eB}{2mc} x_1 \right) p_2 - \frac{p_2^2}{2m} \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2m} \left(\frac{eB}{2c} \right)^2 (x_1^2 + x_2^2), \end{aligned} \quad (2.1.5)$$

from which we can infer the following useful change of coordinates:

$$P_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2m}} \left[p_1 - m \left(\dot{x}_1 + \frac{eB}{2mc} x_2 \right) \right], \quad (2.1.6a)$$

$$P_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2m}} \left[p_2 - m \left(\dot{x}_2 - \frac{eB}{2mc} x_1 \right) \right], \quad (2.1.6b)$$

such that the integrand becomes

$$-P_1^2 - P_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}m \left(\dot{x}_1 + \frac{eB}{2mc}x_2 \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2}m \left(\dot{x}_2 - \frac{eB}{2mc}x_1 \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2m} \left(\frac{eB}{2c} \right)^2 (x_1^2 + x_2^2), \quad (2.1.7)$$

in which case we have an elementary Gaussian integral over the two now-factorized shifted momenta P_1 and P_2 . This leaves only the terms which are independent of P_1 and P_2 , which, when expanded out, give

$$\frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}_1^2 + \dot{x}_2^2) - \frac{eB}{2c}(x_1\dot{x}_2 - x_2\dot{x}_1). \quad (2.1.8)$$

Therefore, the path integral for the return amplitude is

$$\langle \mathbf{r}_0, t_f | \mathbf{r}_0, t_i \rangle = \int_{\substack{\mathbf{r}(t_i)=\mathbf{r}_0 \\ \mathbf{r}(t_f)=\mathbf{r}_0}} \mathcal{D}\mathbf{r}(t) \exp \left[\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_i}^{t_f} dt \left(\frac{1}{2}m\dot{\mathbf{r}}^2 - \frac{e}{c}\dot{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{A} \right) \right]. \quad (2.1.9)$$

2. [10/30] In the limit $m \rightarrow 0$, the action [the integrand of (2.1.9)] becomes

$$S = -\frac{e}{c} \int_{t_i}^{t_f} dt \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} \cdot \mathbf{A}, \quad (2.2.1)$$

where $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is any trajectory which satisfies $\mathbf{r}(t_i) = \mathbf{r}(t_f) = \mathbf{r}_0$. This integral can be simplified using Stokes' theorem. Denoting the region with boundary defined by the trajectory $\mathbf{r}(t)$ by Ω ,

$$\begin{aligned} S &= -\frac{e}{c} \oint_{\partial\Omega} d\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{A} \\ &= -\frac{e}{c} \int_{\Omega} d\mathbf{S} \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) \\ &= \mp \frac{eB}{c} \text{Area}(\Omega), \\ &= \mp 2\pi\hbar \frac{\Phi}{\Phi_0} \end{aligned} \quad (2.2.2)$$

where the \mp sign corresponds to the orientation of the enclosed area—the direction of the path induces an orientation for the unit normal $d\mathbf{S}$ in either the \hat{z} (counterclockwise when viewed from above) or $-\hat{z}$ (clockwise from above) direction— $\Phi = B \text{Area}(\Omega)$ is the flux enclosed by the trajectory, and $\Phi_0 = hc/e$ is the flux quantum; the superconducting flux quantum differs by a factor of 2 since Cooper pairs have charge $2e$. Therefore, the action measures the (signed) area enclosed by the trajectory of the particle.

3. [5/30] Consider a trajectory which is negatively oriented with respect to the \hat{z} unit normal. On the one hand, as noted in the previous part, the amplitude associated with this trajectory must be

$$e^{iS_{\text{in}}/\hbar} = \exp \left(2\pi i \frac{\Phi}{\Phi_0} \right) = \exp \left(2\pi i \frac{B \text{Area}(\Omega)}{\Phi_0} \right), \quad (2.3.1)$$

where $\text{Area}(\Omega)$ is area enclosed on the *inside* of the trajectory.

On the other hand, if we suppose that the particle is actually on the surface of a sphere with large radius R —the radius must be large for the Hamiltonian (2.0.1), which is written in terms of Cartesian coordinates, to be a good approximation—then the trajectory also forms the boundary of another closed region which is positively oriented with respect to \hat{z} , with area $[4\pi R^2 - \text{Area}(\Omega)]$; this is the region left “outside” of the trajectory. Therefore, we could equally associate to this same trajectory the amplitude

$$e^{iS_{\text{out}}/\hbar} = \exp\left(-2\pi i \frac{B[4\pi R^2 - \text{Area}(\Omega)]}{\Phi_0}\right). \quad (2.3.2)$$

To prevent any ambiguities, we should require that these two amplitudes be equal. That is, the phase associated with the “inside” and “outside” regions must be equal, modulo 2π ,

$$(S_{\text{in}} - S_{\text{out}})/\hbar = 2\pi n, \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad (2.3.3)$$

which implies that the field strength must be quantized according to

$$B = n \frac{\Phi_0}{4\pi R^2}, \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (2.3.4)$$

In other words, the flux through the surface of the sphere is quantized in units of Φ_0 . This is the same phenomenon as the quantization of magnetic flux through superconductors with a non-trivial topology (e.g., SQUIDS).

Question 3 (Path Integrals for a Scalar Field Theory)

Consider the action for a free complex scalar field in $D = 4$ spacetime dimensions

$$S = \int d^4x \left[|\partial_\mu \phi(x)|^2 - m^2 |\phi(x)|^2 - J(x)^* \phi(x) - J(x) \phi(x)^* \right]. \quad (3.0.1)$$

Note: The sign of the source coupling terms is the opposite to the conventional definition in Minkowski space. In this question, we work in units of $\hbar = 1$.

1. [4/35] Writing the field and sources as

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\phi_1(x) + i\phi_2(x) \right], \quad \phi(x)^* = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\phi_1(x) - i\phi_2(x) \right], \quad (3.1.1a)$$

$$J(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[J_1(x) + iJ_2(x) \right], \quad J(x)^* = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[J_1(x) - iJ_2(x) \right], \quad (3.1.1b)$$

where $\phi_{1,2}$ and $J_{1,2}$ are real, the action decouples into the sum of the actions of two independent real scalar fields:

$$S[\phi, \phi^*, J, J^*] = S[\phi_1, J_1] + S[\phi_2, J_2], \quad (3.1.2a)$$

$$S[\phi_\alpha, J_\alpha] = \int d^4x \left[\frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \phi_\alpha(x))^2 - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi_\alpha(x)^2 - J_\alpha(x) \phi_\alpha(x) \right]. \quad (3.1.2b)$$

Therefore, the vacuum persistence function in Minkowski space will take the simple form

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 0|0 \rangle_J &\doteq \mathcal{Z}_M[J, J^*] = \left(\int \mathcal{D}\phi_1(x) e^{iS[\phi_1, J_1]} \right) \left(\int \mathcal{D}\phi_2(x) e^{iS[\phi_2, J_2]} \right) \\ &= \int \mathcal{D}\phi_1(x) \mathcal{D}\phi_2(x) e^{i(S[\phi_1, J_1] + S[\phi_2, J_2])} \\ &= \int \mathcal{D}\phi(x) \mathcal{D}\phi(x)^* e^{iS[\phi, \phi^*, J, J^*]}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.1.3)$$

where $S[\phi, \phi^*, J, J^*]$ is the action given at the beginning of this question. In the last step, we have changed the functional integral to be over ϕ and ϕ^* instead of $\phi_1 = \text{Re}(\phi)$ and $\phi_2 = \text{Im}(\phi)$, but this is a trivial change of basis with Jacobian equal to 1.

The vacuum persistence function in Euclidean space follows by analytic continuation of the action from real to imaginary time $t = -i\tau$:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{Z}_E[J, J^*] &= \int \mathcal{D}\phi(x) \mathcal{D}\phi(x)^* \exp \left(- \int d^4x \left[|\partial_\tau \phi(x)|^2 + |\nabla \phi(x)|^2 \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. + m^2 |\phi(x)|^2 + J(x)^* \phi(x) + J(x) \phi^*(x) \right] \right). \end{aligned} \quad (3.1.4)$$

2. [10/35] To evaluate these path integrals, define

$$\phi(x) = \bar{\phi}(x) + \xi(x), \quad \phi(x)^* = \bar{\phi}(x)^* + \xi^*(x). \quad (3.2.1)$$

Then the Lagrangian (in Minkowski spacetime) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= |\partial_\mu \bar{\phi}|^2 + \partial_\mu \bar{\phi} \partial^\mu \xi^* + \partial_\mu \bar{\phi}^* \partial^\mu \xi + |\partial_\mu \xi|^2 - m^2 (|\bar{\phi}|^2 + \bar{\phi} \xi^* + \bar{\phi}^* \xi + |\xi|^2) \\ &\quad - J^* (\bar{\phi} + \xi) - J (\bar{\phi}^* + \xi^*). \end{aligned} \quad (3.2.2)$$

We can integrate this by parts to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} = & -\frac{1}{2}\bar{\phi}^*(\partial^2 + m^2)\bar{\phi} - \frac{1}{2}\bar{\phi}(\partial^2 + m^2)\bar{\phi}^* - \xi(\partial^2 + m^2)\bar{\phi}^* - \xi^*(\partial^2 + m^2)\bar{\phi} \\ & - \frac{1}{2}\xi^*(\partial^2 + m^2)\xi - \frac{1}{2}\xi(\partial^2 + m^2)\xi^* - J^*(\bar{\phi} + \xi) - J(\bar{\phi}^* + \xi^*), \end{aligned} \quad (3.2.3)$$

where $\partial^2 = \partial_\mu\partial^\mu$, and we split up the $|\partial_\mu\bar{\phi}|^2$ and $|\partial_\mu\xi|^2$ terms to make the final expression more symmetric between the fields and their complex conjugates. Now, we impose that $\bar{\phi}$ and $\bar{\phi}^*$ obey the classical equations of motion generated by the Lagrangian:

$$(\partial^2 + m^2)\bar{\phi} = -J, \quad (\partial^2 + m^2)\bar{\phi}^* = -J^*, \quad (3.2.4)$$

so that the Lagrangian greatly simplifies to

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2}\xi^*(\partial^2 + m^2)\xi - \frac{1}{2}\xi(\partial^2 + m^2)\xi^* - \frac{1}{2}J^*\bar{\phi} - \frac{1}{2}J\bar{\phi}^*. \quad (3.2.5)$$

To go further, first note that, defining $\hat{A} = \partial^2 + m^2$, and $\xi = \xi_1 + i\xi_2$,

$$\frac{1}{2}(\xi^*\hat{A}\xi + \xi\hat{A}\xi^*) = \frac{1}{2}(\xi_1\hat{A}\xi_1 + \xi_2\hat{A}\xi_2). \quad (3.2.6)$$

Then, observe that the solutions to the equations of motion above are

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \bar{\phi}(x) \\ \bar{\phi}(x)^* \end{array} \right\} = - \int d^4y G_0^M(x-y) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} J(y) \\ J(y)^* \end{array} \right\}, \quad (3.2.7)$$

where

$$G_0^M(x-y) = \langle x | \frac{1}{\partial^2 + m^2} | y \rangle. \quad (3.2.8)$$

Therefore, we can write the path integral as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{Z}_M[J, J^*] &= \left[\int \mathcal{D}\xi \exp \left(-\frac{i}{2} \int d^4x \xi(x) [\partial^2 + m^2] \xi(x) \right) \right]^2 \\ &\quad \times \exp \left(i \int d^4x d^4y J(x)^* G_0^M(x-y) J(y) \right) \\ &= [\text{Det}(\partial^2 + m^2)]^{-1} \exp \left(i \int d^4x d^4y J(x)^* G_0^M(x-y) J(y) \right), \end{aligned} \quad (3.2.9)$$

up to a formally divergent normalization constant. The corresponding expression in Euclidean spacetime is then obtained via analytic continuation:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{Z}_E[J, J^*] &= \left[\int \mathcal{D}\xi \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \int d^4x \xi(x) [-\partial^2 + m^2] \xi(x) \right) \right]^2 \\ &\quad \times \exp \left(\int d^4x d^4y J(x)^* G_0^E(x-y) J(y) \right) \\ &= [\text{Det}(-\partial^2 + m^2)]^{-1} \exp \left(\int d^4x d^4y J(x)^* G_0^E(x-y) J(y) \right), \end{aligned} \quad (3.2.10)$$

where $\partial^2 = \partial_\tau^2 + \nabla^2$ and the Euclidean Green's function is

$$G_0^E(x-y) = \langle x | \frac{1}{-\partial^2 + m^2} | y \rangle. \quad (3.2.11)$$

3. [5/35] In Minkowski spacetime, the two-point functions are

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_2(x-x') &= \langle 0 | T \phi(x) \phi(x')^* | 0 \rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{(i)^2} \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}[0]} \left. \frac{\delta^2 \mathcal{Z}[J, J^*]}{\delta J(x)^* \delta J(x')} \right|_{J=0} \\
 &= \frac{1}{i} \frac{\delta}{\delta J(x)^*} \left(\int d^4 y J(y)^* G_0^M(y-x') \right) \\
 &\quad \times \exp \left(i \int d^4 y d^4 y' J(y)^* G_0^M(y-y') J(y') \right) \Big|_{J=0} \\
 &= -i G_0^M(x-x'), \tag{3.3.1a}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_2^*(x-x') &= \langle 0 | T \phi(x)^* \phi(x') | 0 \rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{(i)^2} \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}[0]} \left. \frac{\delta^2 \mathcal{Z}[J, J^*]}{\delta J(x) \delta J(x')^*} \right|_{J=0} \\
 &= \frac{1}{i} \frac{\delta}{\delta J(x)} \left(\int d^4 y' G_0^M(x'-y') J(y') \right) \\
 &\quad \times \exp \left(i \int d^4 y d^4 y' J(y)^* G_0^M(y-y') J(y') \right) \Big|_{J=0} \\
 &= -i G_0^M(x'-x), \tag{3.3.1b}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_2'(x-x') &= \langle 0 | T \phi(x) \phi(x') | 0 \rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{(i)^2} \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}[0]} \left. \frac{\delta^2 \mathcal{Z}[J, J^*]}{\delta J(x)^* \delta J(x')^*} \right|_{J=0} \\
 &= \frac{1}{i} \frac{\delta}{\delta J(x)^*} \left(\int d^4 y' G_0^M(x'-y') J(y') \right) \\
 &\quad \times \exp \left(i \int d^4 y d^4 y' J(y)^* G_0^M(y-y') J(y') \right) \Big|_{J=0} \\
 &= \left(\int d^4 y' G_0^M(x'-y') J(y') \right) \left(\int d^4 y' G_0^M(x-y') J(y') \right) \\
 &\quad \times \exp \left(i \int d^4 y d^4 y' J(y)^* G_0^M(y-y') J(y') \right) \Big|_{J=0} \\
 &= 0, \tag{3.3.1c}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 G_2'^*(x-x') &= \langle 0 | T \phi(x)^* \phi(x')^* | 0 \rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{(i)^2} \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}[0]} \left. \frac{\delta^2 \mathcal{Z}[J, J^*]}{\delta J(x) \delta J(x')} \right|_{J=0} \\
 &= 0, \tag{3.3.1d}
 \end{aligned}$$

with the Green's function $G_0^M(x-x')$ defined in the previous part.

The Euclidean two-point functions follow by the same logic, without the factors of i :

$$G_2^E(x-x') = G_0^E(x-x'), \tag{3.3.2a}$$

$$G_2^{E*}(x-x') = G_0^E(x'-x), \tag{3.3.2b}$$

$$G_2'^E(x-x') = G_2'^{E*}(x-x') = 0, \tag{3.3.2c}$$

with $G_0^E(x-x')$ defined in the previous part.

4. [12/35] The equations satisfied by the Green's functions follow from the matrix elements of the inverse differential operators shown above:

$$\begin{aligned} G_0^M(x-y) &= \langle x | \frac{1}{\partial^2 + m^2} | y \rangle, \\ &\implies (\partial_x^2 + m^2) G_0^M(x-y) = \delta^{(4)}(x-y), \end{aligned} \quad (3.4.1a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} G_0^E(x-y) &= \langle x | \frac{1}{-\partial^2 + m^2} | y \rangle, \\ &\implies (-\partial_x^2 + m^2) G_0^E(x-y) = \delta^{(4)}(x-y), \end{aligned} \quad (3.4.1b)$$

where in the Minkowski case $\partial^2 = \partial_0^2 - \nabla^2$, and in the Euclidean case $\partial^2 = \partial_\tau^2 + \nabla^2$.

To solve for the Euclidean Green's function, we expand both sides of the differential equation using a Fourier transform:

$$\begin{aligned} &(-\partial_x^2 + m^2) G_0^E(x-y) = \delta^{(4)}(x-y), \\ \implies &(-\partial_x^2 + m^2) \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} G_0^E(p) e^{ip \cdot (x-y)} = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} e^{ip \cdot (x-y)}, \\ \implies &\int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} (p^2 + m^2) G_0^E(p) e^{ip \cdot (x-y)} = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} e^{ip \cdot (x-y)}, \\ &\implies G_0^E(p) = \frac{1}{p^2 + m^2}, \\ \implies &G_0^E(x-y) = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{e^{ip \cdot (x-y)}}{p^2 + m^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.4.2)$$

We can then re-write this integral using a Feynman-Schwinger parameter to bring the denominator into the exponential:

$$\begin{aligned} G_0^E(x-y) &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty d\alpha \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} \exp \left[-\frac{\alpha}{2} (p^2 + m^2) + ip \cdot (x-y) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty d\alpha \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{\alpha} p - i \frac{x-y}{\sqrt{\alpha}} \right)^2 - \frac{|x-y|^2}{2\alpha} - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \alpha \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty d\alpha \frac{1}{(2\pi\alpha)^2} \exp \left[-\frac{|x-y|^2}{2\alpha} - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \alpha \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.4.3)$$

Then, changing variables by letting

$$\alpha = \frac{|x-y|}{m} \frac{1}{t}, \quad (3.4.4)$$

the integral can then be evaluated

$$\begin{aligned} G_0^E(x-y) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \left(\frac{m}{|x-y|} \right) \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty dt t \exp \left[-\frac{m|x-y|}{2} \left(t + \frac{1}{t} \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{m}{|x-y|} \right) K_1(m|x-y|), \end{aligned} \quad (3.4.5)$$

where

$$K_\nu(z) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty dt t^{\nu-1} \exp \left[-\frac{z}{2} \left(t + \frac{1}{t} \right) \right], \quad (3.4.6)$$

is the modified Bessel function of the second kind.

At large separations $m|x - y| \gg 1$, we can use the asymptotic expansion

$$K_\nu(z) \simeq \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2z}} e^{-z}, \quad (3.4.7)$$

which yields

$$G_0^E(x - y) \simeq \frac{\sqrt{\pi/2}}{4\pi^2} \frac{m^2}{(m|x - y|)^{3/2}} e^{-m|x - y|}, \quad (3.4.8)$$

which is the usual exponential decay at large (Euclidean) distances of a theory with a mass gap, with correlation length $\xi = 1/m$. At short distances $m|x - y| \ll 1$, we can use

$$K_\nu(z) \simeq \frac{\Gamma(\nu)}{2} \left(\frac{2}{z}\right)^\nu, \quad (3.4.9)$$

which yields

$$G_0^E(x - y) \simeq \frac{1}{4\pi^2|x - y|^2}. \quad (3.4.10)$$

On these very short scales, the theory is insensitive to the mass gap, which corresponds to a much longer length scale than $|x - y|$. Therefore, the correlations have the same power law decay as a massless theory.

We can then analytically continue back to Minkowski spacetime to find the Green's function $G_0^M(x - y)$. We write

$$|x - y| = \sqrt{|x - y|^2} = \sqrt{-s^2}, \quad (3.4.11)$$

where $s^2 = (x_0 - y_0)^2 - |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|^2$ is the relativistic interval. From the previous part, we also note that the Green's function in Minkowski space also picks up an additional factor of i relative to the time ordered vacuum expectation value. Therefore, we find that

$$G_0^M(x - y) = \frac{i}{4\pi^2} \frac{m}{\sqrt{-s^2}} K_1(m\sqrt{-s^2}). \quad (3.4.12)$$

For space-like separations, $s^2 < 0$, so the Minkowski propagator has the exact same asymptotic behavior as the Euclidean propagator (up to a factor of i):

$$G_0^M(x - y) \simeq i \frac{\sqrt{\pi/2}}{4\pi^2} \frac{m^2}{(m\sqrt{-s^2})^{3/2}} e^{-m\sqrt{-s^2}}, \quad \text{for } m\sqrt{-s^2} \gg 1, \quad (3.4.13a)$$

$$G_0^M(x - y) \simeq \frac{i}{4\pi^2(-s^2)}, \quad \text{for } m\sqrt{-s^2} \ll 1. \quad (3.4.13b)$$

Therefore, the two-point functions share the same asymptotic form in both Euclidean and Minkowski space in this regime.

For time-like separations, $s^2 > 0$, we can simplify the expression above to give

$$G_0^M(x - y) = \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \frac{m}{\sqrt{s^2}} K_1(im\sqrt{s^2}) = -\frac{1}{8\pi} \frac{m}{\sqrt{s^2}} H_1^{(2)}(m\sqrt{s^2}), \quad (3.4.14)$$

where $H_1^{(2)}(z) = J_1(z) - iY_1(z)$ is a Hankel function. For large separations $m\sqrt{s^2} \gg 1$, we can use the asymptotic expansion (see, for example, <https://dlmf.nist.gov/10.7>)

$$H_\nu^{(2)}(z) \simeq \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi z}} \exp\left[-i\left(z - \frac{\nu\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi}{4}\right)\right], \quad (3.4.15)$$

so that,

$$G_0^M(x-y) \simeq \frac{e^{-i\pi/4} \sqrt{\pi/2}}{4\pi^2} \frac{m^2}{(m\sqrt{s^2})^{3/2}} e^{-im\sqrt{s^2}}. \quad (3.4.16)$$

Therefore, we see that the two-point functions in Minkowski space are oscillatory, with a length scale of oscillations once again set by the mass: $\lambda \sim 1/m$. For small separations, we use

$$H_\nu^{(1)}(z) \simeq \frac{\Gamma(\nu)}{i\pi} \left(\frac{2}{z}\right)^\nu, \quad (3.4.17)$$

so that

$$G_0^M(x-y) \simeq \frac{i}{4\pi^2 s^2} \quad (3.4.18)$$

Therefore, the short distance behavior of the two-point function is the same for both space-like and time-like separations.

5. [4/35] To find the four-point functions, it suffices to apply Wick's theorem, since we are working with a free field theory. First, observe that the Green's function (in Minkowski or Euclidean spacetime) is even in its argument: $G_0(x-y) = G_0(y-x)$. Therefore, the two non-trivial two-point functions are equal: $G_2(x-x') = G_2^*(x-x')$. And, recalling that the two other two-point functions vanish identically, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} G_4^a(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) &= \langle 0 | T \phi(x_1)^* \phi(x_2)^* \phi(x_3) \phi(x_4) | 0 \rangle \\ &= G_2(x_1 - x_3) G_2(x_2 - x_4) + G_2(x_1 - x_4) G_2(x_2 - x_3), \end{aligned} \quad (3.5.1a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} G_4^b(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) &= \langle 0 | T \phi(x_1)^* \phi(x_2) \phi(x_3)^* \phi(x_4) | 0 \rangle \\ &= G_2(x_1 - x_2) G_2(x_3 - x_4) + G_2(x_1 - x_4) G_2(x_2 - x_3) \end{aligned} \quad (3.5.1b)$$

$$\begin{aligned} G_4^c(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) &= \langle 0 | T \phi(x_1)^* \phi(x_2) \phi(x_3) \phi(x_4)^* | 0 \rangle \\ &= G_2(x_1 - x_2) G_2(x_3 - x_4) + G_2(x_1 - x_3) G_2(x_2 - x_4) \end{aligned} \quad (3.5.1c)$$

$$G_4'(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = G_4'^*(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = 0. \quad (3.5.1d)$$

In this form, it is simple to deduce the relations

$$G_4^a(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = G_4^b(x_1, x_3, x_2, x_4) = G_4^c(x_1, x_4, x_3, x_2). \quad (3.5.2)$$

That is, the three non-trivial four-point functions are equivalent up to a permutation of their arguments.