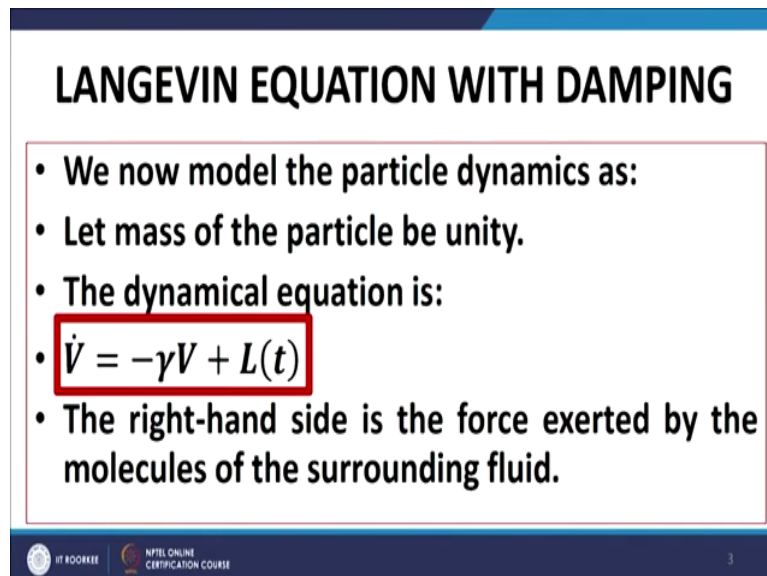


Path Integral Methods in Physics & Finance
Prof. J. P. Singh
Department of Management Studies
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Lecture – 15
Statistical Formalism of Path Integral

Welcome back. In the last lecture, I introduced the Langevin equation and discussed various nuances, various issues relating to the equation, how the expected value of this square of the velocity blows up and therefore, we need to incorporate a damping term in that equation.

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LANGEVIN EQUATION WITH DAMPING

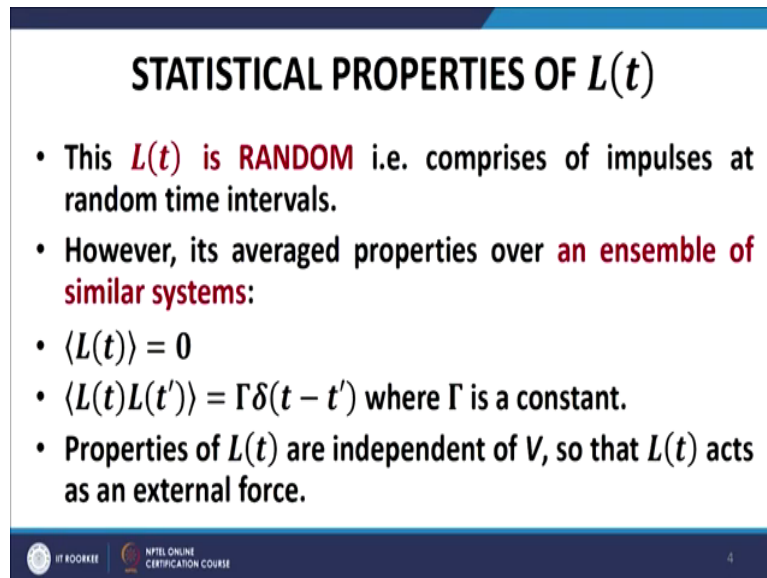
- We now model the particle dynamics as:
- Let mass of the particle be unity.
- The dynamical equation is:
- $\dot{V} = -\gamma V + L(t)$
- The right-hand side is the force exerted by the molecules of the surrounding fluid.

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And we therefore reduce the equation to the form that is given in the red box here \dot{V} is equal to minus gamma V plus $L(t)$, where L is the stochastic force, a force that axes random

intervals on and that represents in fact the collisions between the particles in the fluid with the Brownian particle or the molecules of the fluid with the Brownian particle.

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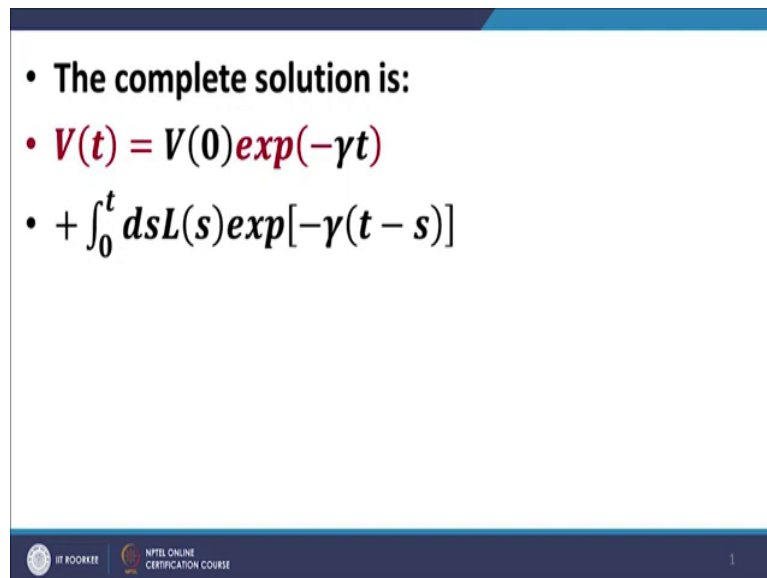
STATISTICAL PROPERTIES OF $L(t)$

- This $L(t)$ is **RANDOM** i.e. comprises of impulses at random time intervals.
- However, its averaged properties over **an ensemble of similar systems**:
- $\langle L(t) \rangle = 0$
- $\langle L(t)L(t') \rangle = \Gamma \delta(t - t')$ where Γ is a constant.
- Properties of $L(t)$ are independent of V , so that $L(t)$ acts as an external force.

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And, we express the statistical properties of $L(t)$ as on the average over an ensemble. The average of $L(t)$ would be 0 if it had a residual drift, the drift would be captured by the gamma term and the auto correlations at different points in time would be gamma delta correlated with a scaling that it would take care of the magnitude of the impulse of the driving force random force.

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The slide contains the following text:

- The complete solution is:
- $V(t) = V(0)\exp(-\gamma t)$
- $+ \int_0^t ds L(s)\exp[-\gamma(t - s)]$



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I also obtain the solution of the Langevin equation in the form that is given on the slide $V(t)$ is equal to $V(0)\exp(-\gamma t)$ plus integral of the noise term or the fluctuating force term with the exponential minus $\gamma(t - s)$, right.

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$L(t)$ AND BROWNIAN MOTION

- We write the Langevin equation as:
- $\dot{V} = \frac{dV}{dt} = -\gamma V + L(t)$
- Set $dU(t) = L(t)dt$
- $dV(t) = -\gamma V(t)dt + dU(t)$

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Then we proceeded also to discuss the relationship between Brownian motion and the fluctuating force $L(t)$ that represented the collisions of the molecules with the Brownian particle. We expressed $dU(t)$ as the $L(t)dt$ and then we investigated the properties of $U(t)$ and we found that $U(t)$ had all the properties under the assumptions of this model, under the features of this model $U(t)$ had all the properties that make it compatible with the definition of Brownian motion.

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- Applying the Central Limit Theorem to:
- $[U(t) - U(0)] = \sum_{k=1}^n [U(t_k) - U(t_{k-1})]$
- we deduce that:
- $U(t)$ is Gaussian with
- zero mean.
- Therefore, it has all the requirements for a Wiener process, i.e.
- $U(t) = W(t)$

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- We can now write:
- $dV(t) = -\gamma V(t)dt + dU(t)$ as
- $dV(t) = -\gamma V(t)dt + dW(t)$
- and the solution:
- $V(t) = V(0)\exp(-\gamma t) + \int_0^t ds L(s)\exp[-\gamma(t-s)]$
- becomes
- $V(t) = V(0)\exp(-\gamma t) + \int_0^t \exp[-\gamma(t-s)]dW(s)$

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And, therefore we could it was Gaussian with zero mean and therefore, we could express the solution of the Langevin equation for the velocity with a Brownian motion integral as $V(t)$ is equal to $V(0)\exp(-\gamma t) + \int_0^t \exp[-\gamma(t-s)]dW(s)$. This $dW(s)$ is nothing, but the infinitesimal Brownian motion increment.

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**PATH INTEGRAL SOLUTION OF
LANGEVIN
EQUATION_PREREQUISITES**

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RECALL: MOMENTS OF A DISTRIBUTION

- Consider a probability density function (PDF) $p(x)$ for a single random variable X . The moments of the distribution are given by:

- $\langle X^n \rangle = \int x^n p(x) dx$

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Now, we proceed further we obtain the path integral solution of the Langevin equation. We start with a few prerequisites. In fact, part of these prerequisites we have discussed earlier, but to facilitate continuity we are quickly going through or quickly recapitulating these definitions and then we will move on to the explicit derivation of the path integral for the Langevin equation.

So, as far as moments of a distribution are concerned, if the distribution is normalized, then we have it as X^n expected value of x^n where x is the random variable is equal to integral. Over all possible the entire spectrum of values that the random variable could take x to the power n $p(x)$, where $p(x)$ is the relevant probability density function. We are talking about continuous density functions or continuous distributions which are more relevant to our context.

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MOMENT GENERATING FUNCTION

- Given a normalized PDF $p_n(x)$, moments can be obtained directly by taking derivatives of the generating function:
- $Z(J) = \langle \exp(Jx) \rangle = \int \exp(Jx)p_n(x)dx$
- where J is a complex parameter, with
- $\langle X^n \rangle = \left. \frac{d^n}{dJ^n} Z(J) \right|_{J=0}$.

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Then the moment generating function if you recall is nothing, but the expected value of Jx . Earlier I used the expression $t x$, but now because we are having an application of we moving towards the applications and functional integrals in terms of path integrals, we as a method of as choice or as convention we use J for the source term and therefore, we write Z of J ; Z of J is the moment generating function is the expected value of expectation of Jx .

And that takes this form where $p_n(x)$ is the normalized probability distribution function. Using these two discriminate between to accommodate density functions which are not normalized, which are unnormalized density functions we encounter situations like that when we do a perturbative expansions. So, we need to be careful with that. And of course we can recover the moments by taking derivatives of $Z(J)$ and then putting J equal to 0 in the resultant expression.

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NORMALIZATION

- For a non-normalized PDF $p(x)$ we define the normalization by:
- $Z(0) = \int p(x) dx;$
- $p_n(x) = \frac{1}{Z(0)} p(x)$

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As I mentioned for a non-normalized probability density function $p(x)$, we define the normalization by $Z(0)$ which is $\int p(x) dx$ which in the normal course would be 1. If the probability density function were normalized, $Z(0)$ would be equal to 1, but in the event that the probability density function is not normalized, we have an explicit provision for $Z(0)$.

So, $p_n(x)$ the normalized density function corresponding to $p(x)$ which is the unnormalized density function can be written as $\frac{1}{Z(0)} \int p(x) dx$.

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- $Z(J)$ is defined as for normalized case:
- $Z(J) = \langle \exp(Jx) \rangle = \int \exp(Jx) p_n(x) dx$
- $= \frac{1}{Z(0)} \int \exp(Jx) p(x) dx$
- Moments are obtained by:
- $\langle X^n \rangle = \left. \frac{d^n}{dJ^n} Z(J) \right|_{J=0}$.

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And for a non-normalized probability density function, we have another normalization factor creeping up as a pre factor when we define $Z(J)$. We define $Z(J)$ as $\frac{1}{Z(0)} \int \exp(Jx) p(x) dx$ and the expectation is defined with respect the normalized density function and therefore, we have a factor of 1 and $\frac{1}{Z(0)}$ coming up outside the integral representing normalization of the given probability distribution $p(x)$ to $p_n(x)$. And the moments are obtained as in the earlier case by taking the n th derivative of $Z(J)$ and substituting J equal to 0.

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$Z(J)$ AS LAPLACE TRANSFORM OF $p(x)$

- **The generating function**
- **$Z(J) = \langle \exp(Jx) \rangle = \frac{1}{Z(0)} \int \exp(Jx)p(x)dx$**
- **is a Laplace transform of the PDF $p(x)$**
- **and is well defined if the PDF is locally integrable.**
- **The characteristic function is Fourier transform of $p(x)$:**
- **$C(J) = \langle \exp(-iJx) \rangle = \frac{1}{Z(0)} \int \exp(-iJx)p(x)dx$**

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Now, as you can see from the expression for $Z(J)$, $Z(J)$ is the Laplace transform of the probability density function $p(x)$, it is explicit here quite obvious in this expression for $Z(J)$ that it represents the Laplace transform of $p(x)$. And if you recall we also had the characteristic function which was similar to the moment generating function which happened to be the Fourier transform of $p(x)$.

So, we have two different two variants really of the same expression $Z(J)$ is the Laplace transform of $p(x)$ and $C(J)$ which is the characteristic function is the Fourier transform of $p(x)$.

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MGF OF GAUSSIAN DISTRIBUTION

- The generating function for a Gaussian PDF:
- $p_n(x) = \frac{1}{z(0)} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-a)^2}{2G}\right] = \frac{1}{z(0)} p(x)$
- with mean a and variance G , $[Z(0) = \sqrt{2\pi G}]$ is:
- $Z(J) = \langle \exp(Jx) \rangle = \frac{1}{z(0)} \int \exp(Jx) p(x) dx$
- $Z(J) = \frac{1}{z(0)} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left\{ \exp\left[-\frac{(x-a)^2}{2G} + Jx\right] \right\} dx$
- $Z(J) = \exp\left(aJ + \frac{1}{2} GJ^2\right)$

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Now, for Gaussian distribution the expressions for the moment generating function and characteristic functions and take a particularly simple and a particularly valuable approach. Valuable in the sense that we phase this in a number of applications and if we work it out by completing the square, we find that the value of $Z(J)$ is found to be exponential $aJ + \frac{1}{2} GJ^2$, where a is the mean of the Gaussian and G is the variance of the Gaussian. So, $Z(J)$ is equal to exponential $aJ + \frac{1}{2} GJ^2$ where a is the mean of the Gaussian, G is the variance of the Gaussian.

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CUMULANT GENERATING FUNCTION

- The cumulant generating function is defined as:
- $W(J) = \ln Z(J)$
- so that the cumulants are:
- $\langle X^n \rangle_c = \left. \frac{d^n}{dJ^n} W(J) \right|_{J=0}$



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Then we have the cumulant generating function, this will also be used extensively when we study Quantum Field theory and it is nothing, but the logarithm, the normal logarithm of the moment generating function $W(J)$ is nothing, but $\ln Z(J)$ and the cumulants are recovered in the same manner as the moments are recovered from the moment generating function by taking derivatives of the cumulant generating functions and then putting J equal to 0.

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GAUSSIAN CUMULANTS

- In the Gaussian case:
- $W(J) = Ja + \frac{1}{2}J^2G$
- yielding:
- $\langle x \rangle_c = \langle x \rangle = a$ and
- $\langle x^2 \rangle_c \equiv \text{Var}(x) = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2 = G$, and
- $\langle x^n \rangle_c = 0, n > 2$.

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In the first few cumulants as you can see the first cumulant is the mean for the Gaussian distribution indeed the cumulant generating function for the Gaussian distribution is $J a + \frac{1}{2} J^2 G$. The first cumulant as the mean, the second cumulant happens to be the variance which is G and all the other cumulants because the cumulant generating function for the Gaussian is quadratic is only quadratic in J . The remaining cumulants would vanish. We only have the first two cumulants. The first cumulant is the mean a and the second cumulant is the variance G .

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GENERALIZATION

- Let $x = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ and
- $J = \{J_1, J_2, \dots, J_n\}$
- both be n –dimensional vectors;
- G^{-1} be a real, symmetric, positive definite matrix representing a probability density function.

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Now, we talk about generalization of these concepts that I elucidated, right. Now, instead of having a random variable x , we have a series of random variables $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ a vector and now x is a vector and x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n can be construed as the components of that vector. And similarly, J is another vector which has the components J_1, J_2, \dots, J_n refer to a suitable basis. Whatever the basis may be for the moment, we shall come back to the issue of basis in a minute.

G^{-1} is a real symmetric positive definite matrix. Now, why real symmetric positive definite matrix? Because at the end of the day we want to establish a connection between G^{-1} and the probability density function. And as you know the probability density function can be represented by a matrix which has to be real, which has to be symmetric and which has to be positive definite.



So, that is an important issue and that will in fact count very significantly, that will count very heavily in the analysis what is to follow, the real symmetric and positive definite properties of G inverse would become very handy, very important in the subsequent analysis. So, to recap x is now vector with n components x_1, x_2 and up to x_n . J is another vector with components J_1, J_2, \dots, J_n and G inverse is an n cross n matrix which is real, which is symmetric and which is positive definite.

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- Then, we can define a $Z[J]$ as follows to become a **generating functional** that maps the n -dimensional vector J to a real number with the form:

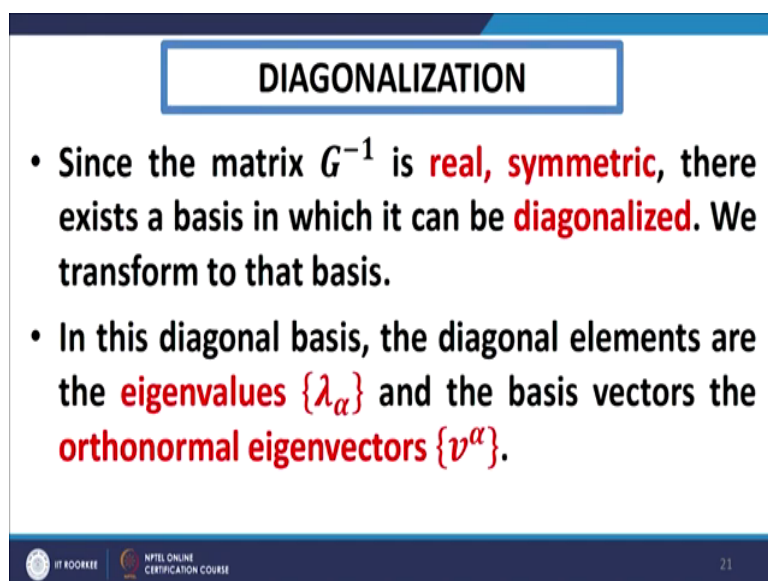
- $Z[J] = \frac{1}{Z(0)} \int \prod_{l=1}^n dx_l \exp \left[- \sum_{j,k} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) x_j G_{jk}^{-1} x_k + \sum_j J_j x_j \right]$

- where $G_{jk}^{-1} \equiv (G^{-1})_{jk}$.



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Now, we define $Z[J]$. Our objective is to define $Z[J]$. $Z[J]$ is now become a functional because now it is a mapping from the space of vectors to the space of real numbers. And therefore, it now becomes a generating functional rather than a generating function it maps an n dimensional vector J to a real number and it has the form as you can see there, here it has the form which is given by this expression in the blue box.

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DIAGONALIZATION

- Since the matrix G^{-1} is **real, symmetric**, there exists a basis in which it can be **diagonalized**. We transform to that basis.
- In this diagonal basis, the diagonal elements are the **eigenvalues $\{\lambda_\alpha\}$** and the basis vectors the **orthonormal eigenvectors $\{v^\alpha\}$** .

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Now, because as I mentioned G inverse needs to be real and symmetric, now the very fact that it is real and symmetric should ring a bell and that various that we shall be talking about diagonalizing this particular matrix. Because, it is real and symmetric there exists a basis and we can have an orthogonal transformation from the existing basis to a new basis in which this matrix G or G inverse for that matter will be a diagonal matrix.

And, the elements of the diagonal will be nothing else for the eigenvalues of the matrix G inverse and the corresponding vectors which will be the eigenvectors corresponding to all the degenerate eigenvalues will represent the basis in which this particular matrix manifests itself as a diagonal matrix.

To repeat because G inverse is real and symmetric, it can be diagonalized, it can be diagnosed by an orthogonal transformation of basis and the basis in the diagonalized matrix

corresponding to G inverse will be a matrix where the diagonal elements will be nothing, but the eigenvalues of G inverse and the corresponding basis vectors would be nothing but the eigenvectors corresponding to each of those eigenvalues.

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- Let the diagonalizing transformation be U . The vectors x, J and the matrix G^{-1} transform as:
- $\tilde{x} = Ux = \sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} v^{\alpha}$;
- $\tilde{J} = UJ = \sum_{\alpha} d_{\alpha} v^{\alpha}$ and
- $\tilde{G}^{-1} = UG^{-1}U^{-1} = UG^{-1}U^T = \text{diag}\{\lambda_{\alpha}\}$
- $\sum_j G_{jk}^{-1} v_k^{\alpha} = \lambda_{\alpha} v_j^{\alpha}$ and
- $\sum_j v_j^{\alpha} v_j^{\beta} = \delta_{\alpha\beta}$.

So, λ_{α} are the eigenvalues and the corresponding vectors are v_{α} in the basis in which G inverse is diagonal. So, we call the diagonalizing we represent the orthogonal transformation representing the diagonalization by U and the various transformations that realize that occur as a result of the operation by the transformation matrix U will be in this form which is given on the slide, \tilde{x} is the new vector corresponding to the original vector x when operated upon by U .



\tilde{J} is the new vector corresponding to the original vector x in the new basis in the basis in which G inverse is diagonal, \tilde{x} is the vector corresponding to the vector x in the basis in

which G inverse is diagonal and the rest of the things also similar. So, this is the diagonal matrix G diagonal λ , α which is the matrix G tilde which is the diagonal matrix which represents the diagonalize form of the matrix original matrix G inverse.

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$x^T G^{-1} x$ INVARIANT

- The transformation induced by U leaves the form $x^T G x$ invariant e.g.
- $\tilde{x}^T \tilde{G}^{-1} \tilde{x} = (Ux)^T (UG^{-1}U^T)(Ux)$
- $= x^T U^T UG^{-1}U^T Ux = x^T G^{-1} x$


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Now, the first important property is that due to this orthogonal transformation due to the diagonalization of the matrix G inverse the binary form x transpose G inverse x remains invariant. This is easy to see as you can see in the blue box here, it is quite the proof is quite straightforward. We clearly find that x tilde T G tilde inverse x tilde is equal to x transpose G inverse x . So, this transformation U leaves this binary this form x transpose G inverse x invariant. This quadratic form it leaves invariant, right.

Now, because \tilde{G} is \tilde{G}^{-1} is diagonal; because \tilde{G}^{-1} is diagonal, the only elements in \tilde{G}^{-1} are the diagonal elements which are nothing, but the eigenvalues of \tilde{G} . What do we get?

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- Further, \tilde{G}^{-1} is diagonal with elements $\{\lambda_\alpha\}$ and $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_\alpha c_\alpha \mathbf{v}^\alpha$ so that:
- $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T \tilde{G}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_\alpha \lambda_\alpha c_\alpha^2$
- Also
- $\tilde{\mathbf{J}} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_\alpha c_\alpha d_\alpha$

We get $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T \tilde{G}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ is equal to summation of $\lambda_\alpha c_\alpha^2$. This is very elementary easy to prove and this is a consequence of \tilde{G}^{-1} being a diagonal matrix with the elements $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3$ along the diagonal.

Similarly, $\tilde{\mathbf{J}} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ is we represent $\tilde{\mathbf{J}} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ in $\tilde{\mathbf{J}} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{x}}$. That means, this inner product is also worked out in the new basis in the basis in which \tilde{G}^{-1} is diagonal and we get it as we represented as $c_\alpha d_\alpha$ summed over α , right.

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- Since
- $UU^T = I \det U = \pm 1.$
- Discarding the negative value to preserve positivity of integration volume, we get the Jacobian for U as 1.

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Now, because it is an orthogonal transformation, therefore U transpose is equal to identity and therefore, the terminate of U is equal to plus minus 1. We discard the value minus 1 because we want to retain the positivity of the integration volume and therefore, we restrict our choice to determinant U equal to plus 1 which implies the Jacobian is also equal to plus 1.

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- **The transformed generating functional in terms of the transformed parameter d is:**
- $Z[J] = \frac{1}{Z(0)} \int \prod_{l=1}^n dx_l \exp \left[-\sum_{j,k} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) x_j G_{jk}^{-1} x_k + \sum_j J_j x_j \right]$
- $Z[d] = \frac{1}{Z(0)} \int \prod_{\alpha} dc_{\alpha} \exp \left\{ \sum_{\alpha} \left[-\left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \lambda_{\alpha} c_{\alpha}^2 + d_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} \right] \right\}$
- $= \frac{1}{Z(0)} \prod_{\alpha} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dc_{\alpha} \exp \left[-\left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \lambda_{\alpha} c_{\alpha}^2 + d_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} \right]$



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Now, what happens to the transform generating functional? And that is we have to look at it very carefully. We started with the expression for the generating functional as 1 upon z naught and in this whole expression the first equation on the slide and we when we do the transformation, when we represent Z J in the new basis in the basis in which G inverse is diagonal.

We have found that $x \text{ tilde } J G \text{ inverse tilde } x \text{ tilde } k$ will be equal to $\lambda_{\alpha} c_{\alpha}^2$ summed over α and $J x J$ that is the product of x in the scalar product of x and J would be $d_{\alpha} c_{\alpha}$ summed over α . So, these two values we have already in a sense worked out earlier and these two values arise because of the transformation of the basis and we get this expression which is the second equation on the slide.

Now, we need to look at what happens. The next step is to take the product outside the integral and to leave out the summation here and that is done because we can represent the various what do you call are independent variables, random variables. Each of these exercise which constitute the random variables, the components of x are independent and therefore, we can replace this exponential of the sum of for these random variables by the product of the exponentials and that is precisely what we have done and that enables us to take the exponential outside the integration.

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DOING THE GAUSSIAN INTEGRAL

- Setting $\left[-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\lambda_{\alpha}c_{\alpha}^2 + d_{\alpha}c_{\alpha}\right] =$
 $-\frac{1}{2}\left(\sqrt{\lambda_{\alpha}}c_{\alpha} - \frac{d_{\alpha}}{\sqrt{\lambda_{\alpha}}}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{2}\frac{d_{\alpha}^2}{\lambda_{\alpha}}$
- $Z[d] = \prod_{\alpha} \exp\left[\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\lambda_{\alpha}^{-1}d_{\alpha}^2\right]$ with
- $Z(0) = \prod_{\alpha} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dc_{\alpha} \exp\left[-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\lambda_{\alpha}c_{\alpha}^2\right]$

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Now, we do the when we do the Gaussian integration, it is quite straightforward again we do the standard procedure of completing the square. We complete the square of this equation which is the first expression on your slide minus 1 by 2 lambda alpha c alpha square plus d

alpha. We represented in the form of a perfect square plus that extra term $\frac{1}{2} d \alpha$ upon $\lambda \alpha^2$.

And therefore, we can when we do this Gaussian integration of the expression, this expression which is there in the box in this slide. When we do the Gaussian integration of exponential of this because; this is nothing but a Gaussian integration; so, we do the Gaussian integral of this exponential and we get two terms. This particular term $\frac{1}{2} d \alpha^2$ upon $\lambda \alpha$ will go outside the integration.

And we will get this expression in the red box as a pre factor and the Z_0 term, the normalization term will be this expression which will not contain any term containing G containing $d \alpha$ because $d \alpha$ relates to J and we have talking about Z_0 here Z_0 is nothing, but Z_J which J equal to 0.

So, this integral; this integral is in a sense split up into two parts; one part the J by completing the square this integral is split up into two parts; one part that contains the J and that we can take as the pre factor and the other part that does not contain the J that represents the normalization Z_0 , right.

So, at the end of the day what do we get? Z_d is equal to this expression because the Z_0 , Z_0 terms cancel out one Z_0 is in the definition of Z_J . If you recall one Z_0 is in the definition of Z_J let us go back this is this Z_0 is a there in the definition of Z_J and the other Z_0 is what we have computed when we do this integration in the blue box ah. So, the two Z_0 s cancel each other and we are left with this as the ultimate value of Z_J .

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- From above: $Z[d] = \prod_{\alpha} \exp\left[\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \lambda_{\alpha}^{-1} d_{\alpha}^2\right]$
- Transforming back yields



$$Z[J] = \exp\left(\sum_{j,k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) J_j G_{jk} J_k\right)$$

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$Z[d]$; $Z[d]$ as this product and when we revert back to our original coordinators through a inverse orthogonal transformation, we get $Z[J]$ is equal to exponential summation over J and k $\frac{1}{2} J_j G_{jk} J_k$. So, now this is the generating functional. Now, recall that x is now a vector J is now a vector and G_{jk} is a matrix n into n matrix real symmetric and therefore, this expression for $Z[J]$ is summed over J and k $\frac{1}{2} J_j G_{jk} J_k$. The small j is an index $G_{jk} J_k$.

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- From above: $Z(0) = \prod_{\alpha} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dc_{\alpha} \exp \left[-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \lambda_{\alpha} c_{\alpha}^2 \right]$
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dc_{\alpha} \exp \left[-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \lambda_{\alpha} c_{\alpha}^2 \right] = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{\alpha}}}$
- $\prod_{\alpha} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dc_{\alpha} \exp \left[-\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \lambda_{\alpha} c_{\alpha}^2 \right]$ **NORMALIZER**
- $= \prod_{\alpha} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{\alpha}}} = \frac{(2\pi)^{n/2}}{\sqrt{\det G^{-1}}}$
- $= (2\pi)^{n/2} \sqrt{\det G}$

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And as per as the $Z(0)$ is concerned, $Z(0)$ can be simplified further. Recall that this is the normalization of the $Z(J)$, $Z(0)$ is given by the product of alpha of this expression. Now, this is this expression as this can see is a clearly a very simple Gaussian integral and it takes value under root 2π upon λ_{α} and therefore, when you when you have n such factors, when you take the product over alpha n such factors this under root 2π over λ_{α} gets multiplied by 2π under root 2π n times. So, that gives the numerator of 2π n by 2.

The denominator becomes under root, the product of the eigenvalues, the product of the eigenvalues is nothing, but the value of the determinant and therefore, we get this is equal to 2π to the power n by 2 divided by under root determinant G inverse because the product of the eigenvalues is the determinant.




And we if the determinant of the matrix of which these are the eigenvalues and our matrix is G inverse recall that and therefore, we can write it in this equation, but under root determinant G inverse is nothing, but determinant G in the numerator and therefore, we have the normalization factor Z_0 equal to 2π to the power n by 2 under root determinant of G .

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- The moments are given by

$$\left\langle \prod_{j=1}^s x_j \right\rangle = \prod_{j=1}^s \frac{\partial}{\partial J_j} Z[J] \Big|_{J_j=0}$$

- However, since the exponent is quadratic in the components J_j , only even powered moments are nonzero.

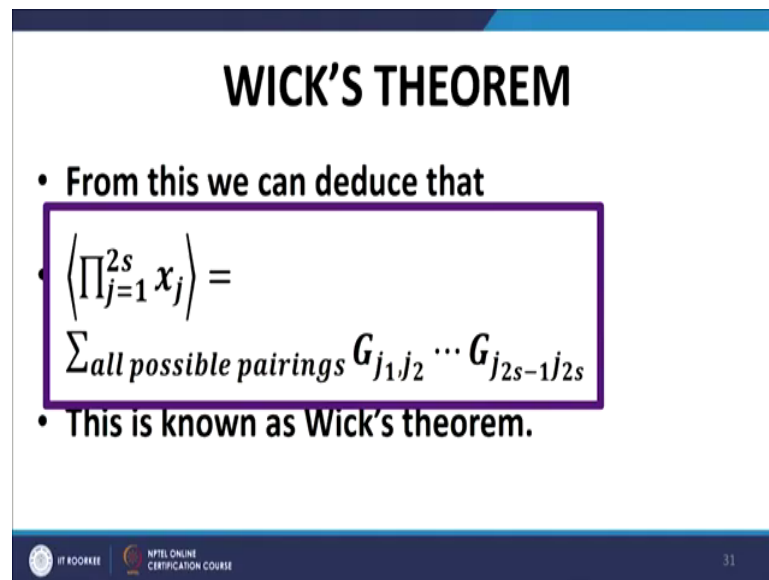



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And the moments are given by this expression as usual. We take derivatives with respect to the various J corresponding to the moments that we want whatever moments we want we take derivatives with respect to those particular J and then put J equal to 0 and then we get the expression for the moments.

The important thing is that in the case of the Gaussian only even power moments would survive, the odd power moments would not survive because the exponent is quadratic in the

components j . And therefore, the odd power odd moments do not survive, all other moments vanish in fact and only the even moments exist.

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WICK'S THEOREM

- From this we can deduce that

$$\left\langle \prod_{j=1}^{2s} x_j \right\rangle = \sum_{\text{all possible pairings}} G_{j_1 j_2} \cdots G_{j_{2s-1} j_{2s}}$$

- This is known as Wick's theorem.

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And in fact the even moments exist the expression for the even moments can be written as in the form that is given in this box and this is what is called Wick's theorem.

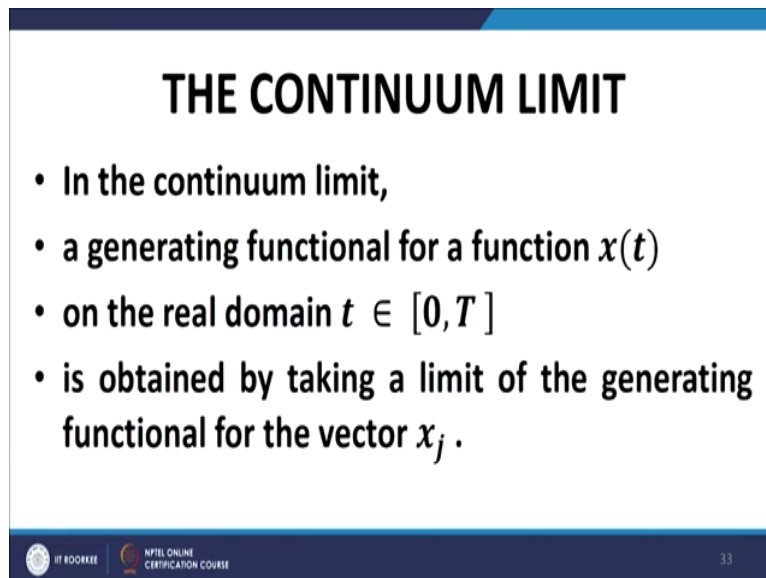
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- Any Gaussian moment about the mean can be obtained by taking the sum of all the possible ways of “contracting” two of the variables.
- For example,
$$\langle x_a x_b x_c x_d \rangle = G_{ab} G_{cd} + G_{ad} G_{bc} + G_{ac} G_{bd}.$$

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An example as an example I have this particular a moment $x_a x_b x_c x_d$ the expectation value of this expression is given by all pairings $G_{ab} G_{cd} + G_{ad} G_{bc} + G_{ac} G_{bd}$. So, this is how we can work out the moments of complex quantities, complex statistical quantities like vectors and.

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THE CONTINUUM LIMIT

- In the continuum limit,
- a generating functional for a function $x(t)$
- on the real domain $t \in [0, T]$
- is obtained by taking a limit of the generating functional for the vector x_j .

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Now, we come to the continuum limit of what we have done just now. So far we have been talking simply about the discrete case where we have an x and j take discrete values, the components are discrete, we have x equal to $x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n$ and similarly j is $j_1 \ j_2 \ \dots \ j_n$. Now, we try to extend this framework to the continuum case.

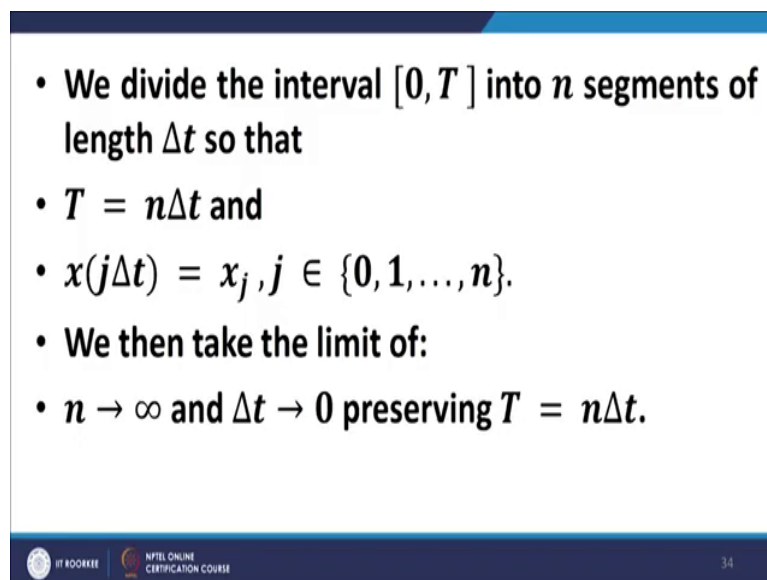
Now, we are given a function $x(t)$. Let us say we are given a function $x(t)$ of time in the domain t containing 0 to capital T . We need to take work out a limit obtained for the we need to work out a limit of the generating function in the for the vector x_j in the continuum limit that x_j approaches $x(t)$ or x_j takes the continuum form $x(t)$.

What are the substitutions that we have to make? Let us look at that. First of all we do a time slicing which is what we normally very common to practice. the entire time span 0 to t is split

up into a very small infinitesimal time slices each of length Δt such that the total time interval T is equal to $n \Delta t$.

Now, the important thing is how will we invoke the continuity requirement or how will we make time continuous? Well we will make time continuous by taking the limit n tending to infinity because n tending to infinity or Δt tending to 0 which would mean would imply that the time slices that discreteness in time is becoming so small that it is as far as mathematically concerned. It becomes a continuous time line.

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- We divide the interval $[0, T]$ into n segments of length Δt so that
- $T = n\Delta t$ and
- $x(j\Delta t) = x_j, j \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$.
- We then take the limit of:
- $n \rightarrow \infty$ and $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ preserving $T = n\Delta t$.

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So, we make this substitutions an arbitrary x_j ; an arbitrary x_j which was let us say it is we started with an x_j or we had an x_j in the discrete framework would transform as in the continuum framework as $x_j \Delta t$ j th slice multiplied by the time length of each step. So, it

becomes x at the point $j \Delta t$ because we have now j . This j the index j is representing the number of time slices since the initial since t equal to 0.

So, number of time slices multiplied by Δt , the length of each time step makes it $x_j \Delta t$ is obviously can take the values because x_j is arbitrary. So, j can take the value 0 to n at when x when j takes the value n , we have $x_n \Delta t$ which is nothing, but $x t$. Now, we take the limit n tending to infinity Δt tending to 0 preserving the finiteness of capital T preserving the finiteness of capital T .

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- We similarly identify $J_j \rightarrow J(t)$ and $G_{jk} \rightarrow G(s, t)$ and obtain:
- $Z[J] = \frac{1}{Z(0)} \int \prod_{l=1}^n dx_l \exp \left[- \sum_{j,k} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) x_j G_{jk}^{-1} x_k + \sum_j J_j x_j \right]$
- $Z[J] = \frac{1}{Z(0)} \int [Dx(t)] \times \exp \left[- \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \int x(s) G^{-1}(s, t) x(t) ds dt + \int J(t) x(t) dt \right]$

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Similarly, we identify J_j as $J t$ and G_{jk} as $G s t$ and we obtain after making all these as substitutions, we obtain the blue box is what we had in the discrete framework. The blue box is what we had in the discrete framework and the corresponding expression in the continuous framework we get is the expression in the red box.



You can see that $x_j G^{-1}_{jk} x_k$ is substituted by $x_s G^{-1}_{st} x_t$ and $\int ds dt$ integrated, the summation is replaced by the integration and $J x_j x_j$ product is also replaced by the integral $\int x_t x_t$ and $ds dt$, right.

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$$Z[J] = \exp\left(\sum_{jk} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) J_j G_{jk} J_k\right)$$

$$= \exp\left[\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \int J(s) G(s, t) J(t) ds dt\right]$$

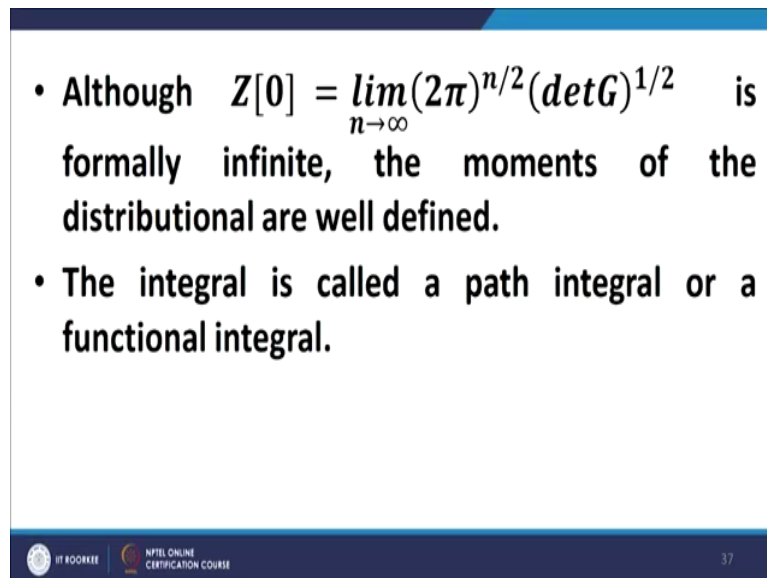
- where the measure for integration
- $[Dx(t)] \equiv \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{j=0}^n dx_j$
- is over functions (PATHS).

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Therefore, $Z[J]$ expression that we had earlier after simplification after carrying on the carrying out the Gaussian integrals, we had was the first expression the purple colored box, the first box on the top and this expression in the continuous framework it takes the expression one which is given in the red box.

And the measure of integration in this context has to be mentioned, this is a path integral measure capital D of $x(t)$ in the square bracket is the path integral measure. It is given by the limit n tending to infinity the product of all the dx_j s.

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• Although $Z[0] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (2\pi)^{n/2} (\det G)^{1/2}$ is formally infinite, the moments of the distributional are well defined.

• The integral is called a path integral or a functional integral.

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Now, and what about Z_0 ? Z_0 in our earlier case was n tending to infinity 2π to the power n by 2 determinant G 1 by 2. Now, this is very interesting. It becomes formally infinite, but however the moments continue to be well defined notwithstanding the fact that the normalization tends to blow up or approach infinity or diverge as n tends to infinity. The integral is called the path integral or a functional integral. Now, another example we have here is of the path integral or the functional integral.

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- Defining the functional derivative to obey all the rules of the ordinary derivative with:
- $\frac{\delta J(s)}{\delta J(t)} = \delta(s - t),$
- the moments again obey
- $\langle \prod_j x(t_j) \rangle = \prod_j \frac{\delta}{\delta J(t_j)} Z[J]$
- $= \sum_{\text{all possible pairings}} G(t_{j_1}, t_{j_2}) \cdots G(t_{j_{2s-1}}, t_{j_{2s}})$

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Now, let us look at something more about this. We have this the moments are obviously obtained by the same process, but now instead of taking the common derivatives, the Newtonian derivatives we now take the variational derivatives, functional derivatives whether and the functional derivatives are defined essentially by this expression.

We, the functional derivatives are defined by this expression $\frac{\delta J(s)}{\delta J(t)}$ is equal to $\delta(s - t)$. What we do is the Kronecker delta, this discrete delta is now replaced by the Dirac delta function that is the most important property of the these derivatives, right. We will continue after the break.