

## Lecture 3.

### Plan.

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#### 1. Green's functions in complex time and euclidean QFT.

### 1.1. FEYNMAN PROPAGATOR, ANALYTIC PROPERTIES OF GREEN'S FUNCTIONS IN COMPLEX TIME.

In the previous lecture we found that vacuum expectations of KG fields can be represented as certain limits of a single analytic function  $D_c(\vec{x}, t)$  of a complex time variable  $t$ . As an example we found that Feynman propagator  $D_F(\vec{x}, t)$  is the function  $D_c(\vec{x}, t)$  when the time is going along the contour  $C_F$  which goes **above** the real  $t$ -axis in the region  $\text{Ret} < -|\vec{x}|$ , crosses the segment  $-|\vec{x}| < t < -|\vec{x}|$  and goes **below** the real  $t$ -axis in the region  $\text{Ret} > |\vec{x}|$ .

One can define a new function which is called **euclidean, or imaginary-time** expectation value. Another name for this quantity is **Correlation Function**. Consider the function  $D_c(\vec{x}, t)$  for the time running along contour  $C_E$  which is the imaginary axis in complex  $t$  plane going from  $+\infty$  to  $-\infty$ . The imaginary time gives euclidean interval

$$t = ix_4 \Rightarrow -d\tau^2 \rightarrow ds^2 = dx_4^2 + d\vec{x}^2. \quad (1)$$

Thus, instead of Lorentz group we get  $O(4)$  group of rotations in euclidean space  $(\vec{x}, x_4)$ .

Let us introduce the notation

$$D(x_E) = D(\vec{x}, x_4) = D_c(\vec{x}, -ix_4) \quad (2)$$

and call this function as **euclidean correlation function**.

It is clear that

$$\begin{aligned} (m^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_4^2} - (\nabla)^2)D(x_E) &= \delta(x_4)\delta(\vec{x}) \Leftrightarrow \\ (m^2 - \Delta_E)D(x_E) &= \delta^4(x_E) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

The solution of this equation is given by

$$D(x_E) = \int \frac{d^4 p_E}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{\exp(ip_E x_E)}{p_E^2 + m^2} \quad (4)$$

where  $p_E = (\vec{p}, p_4)$  and  $p_E^2 = \vec{p}^2 + p_4^2$ . (In this euclidean version of Feynman propagator the poles are at  $\pm i\omega_{\vec{p}}$ , so the contour over  $p_4$  can be closed from above if  $x_4 > 0$  or it is closed from below if  $x_4 < 0$ .)

The form (4) is similar to covariant representation for the Feynman propagator. Indeed, if one introduces real variable  $\omega$  as  $p_4 = i\omega$ , then this integral takes the form

$$-i \int_{\tilde{C}_E} \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} \int \frac{d^3 p_E}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\exp(-\omega x_4 + i\vec{p}\vec{x})}{-\omega^2 + \vec{p}^2 + m^2} \quad (5)$$

where the  $\omega$ -integration is going along the imaginary  $p_4$ -axis (contour  $\tilde{C}_E$ ) from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$ . Thus, it relates to the Fourier transform of  $D_F$  by 90° rotation of  $\tilde{C}_F$ .

Another form for this solution is given by introducing auxilliary integration:

$$D(x_E) = \int_0^\infty d\tau \int \frac{d^4 p_E}{(2\pi)^4} \exp(-\tau(p_E^2 + m^2)) \exp(ip_E x_E) \quad (6)$$

This form is known as **Schwinger's proper time representation**.

### 1.2. REAL TIME QFT/ IMAGINARY TIME QFT RELATION.

That was an **example of relation between euclidean (or imaginary time) correlation function, and real time (Minkowski) Green's function**. In other words, the analytic function  $D_c(\vec{x}, t)$  is an analytic continuation of  $D(x_E)$  for the complex values  $x_4 = it$ . We have seen that all interesting characteristics of our QKG in real time, such as  $D_F$  and commutator of fields, are expressed in terms of appropriate limiting values of  $D_c$ .

### 1.3. QFT/STATISTICAL MECHANICS RELATION.

In a more general case the relation between the euclidean QFT (QFT in imaginary time) and real-time QFT is the following: **the time-ordered**

expectation value in Minkowski space are obtained by analytic continuation from the euclidean space correlation functions.

The advantages of euclidean point of view:

- one can apply the path integral method to quantize FT and the path integral (functional integral) is easier to define and to handle in imaginary time formulation.

- in the euclidean formulation QFT shows deep connection to Statistical Mechanics.

## 2. Path integral in quantum and statistical mechanics.

### 2.1. TRANSITION AMPLITUDE IN QUANTUM MECHANICS.

In quantum mechnics we are interested in calculation of **matrix element of evolution operator between two states**:

$$\langle f | \exp(-\frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{H}t) | i \rangle = \sum_n \langle f | n \rangle \langle n | i \rangle \exp(-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_n t) \quad (7)$$

where  $|n\rangle$  and  $E_n$  are stationary states and associated energies. Due to our main postulate that  $\hat{H}$  is bounded from below and allowing  $t$  to be complex we see that **the above sum defines an analytic function in the lower half-plane  $Imt < 0$** . Then the **real-time matrix elements are limiting values of this analytic function**.

### 2.2. IMAGINARY TIME TRANSITION AMPLITUDE.

It make sense therefore to take  $t = -i\tau$  and evaluate imaginary-time transition amplitude

$$\langle f | \exp(-\frac{1}{\hbar} \hat{H}\tau) | i \rangle, \tau > 0 \quad (8)$$

and then analytically continue the result to real-time value.

### 2.3. PATH INTEGRAL CALCULATION OF IMAGINARY TIME

*TRANSITION AMPLITUDE.*

Consider a quantum mechanical system described by the Hamiltonian  $\hat{H}(\hat{p}, \hat{q})$ . By the definition, the (imaginary-time) evolution operator  $\hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0)$  satisfies the equation

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) = \hat{H} \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0), \quad \hat{U}(\tau_0, \tau_0) = 1. \quad (9)$$

**Notice that  $\hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0)$  does not exist for  $\tau < \tau_0$  because the energy spectrum is bounded from below but not from above.**

It is easy to check that

$$\hat{U}(\tau, \tau_1) \hat{U}(\tau_1, \tau_0) = \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0), \quad \tau \geq \tau_1 \geq \tau_0 \quad (10)$$

Therefore

$$\hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) = \hat{U}(\tau_n, \tau_{n-1}) \hat{U}(\tau_{n-1}, \tau_{n-2}) \dots \hat{U}(\tau_1, \tau_0) \quad (11)$$

where  $\tau_k = \tau_0 + k\Delta$ ,  $\Delta = \frac{\tau - \tau_0}{n}$  and  $\tau_n = \tau$ .

Suppose  $\hat{H}$  is local in the basis of states which diagonalize  $\hat{q}$  (this means that  $\langle q_f | \hat{H} | q_i \rangle$  have a support at  $q_f = q_i$ ) the composition property above allows to construct a **path integral representation** for  $\langle q_f | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q_i \rangle$ :

$$\langle q_f | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q_i \rangle = \int \prod_{k=1}^{n-1} dq_k \prod_{k=1}^n \langle q_k | U(\tau_k, \tau_{k-1}) | q_{k-1} \rangle, \quad (12)$$

where  $q_0 = q_i$ ,  $q_n = q_f$ . Taking the large  $n$ , small  $\Delta$  limit the problem reduces to

$$\langle q | \hat{U}(\tau + \Delta, \tau) | q' \rangle \quad (13)$$

calculation. Because of the locality of  $\hat{H}$  only the matrix elements with small  $|q - q'|$  will contribute in this limit.

#### 2.4. HEAT EQUATION AND ITS SOLUTION.

Let us consider the following local Hamiltonian

$$\hat{H} = \frac{p^2}{2} + V(q). \quad (14)$$

Then the equation (9) takes the form of heat equation

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \langle q | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q' \rangle = \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial q^2} + V(q) \right) \langle q | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q' \rangle, \\ \text{where } \langle q | \hat{U}(\tau_0, \tau_0) | q' \rangle = \delta(q - q'). \quad (15)$$

Indeed

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \langle q_f | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q_i \rangle = \\ \lim_{\Delta \tau \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta \tau} & \left[ \int dq(\tau) \langle q_f | \hat{U}(\tau + \Delta \tau, \tau) | q(\tau) \rangle \langle q(\tau) | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q_i \rangle - \right. \\ & \left. \langle q_f | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q_i \rangle \right] = \\ \lim_{\Delta \tau \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta \tau} & \int dq(\tau) \left[ \langle q_f | (1 - \Delta \tau \hat{H}) | q(\tau) \rangle \langle q(\tau) | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q_i \rangle - \right. \\ & \left. \langle q_f | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q_i \rangle \right] = \\ -\lim_{\Delta \tau \rightarrow 0} & \int dq(\tau) \langle q_f | \left( \frac{p^2}{2} + V(q) \right) | q(\tau) \rangle \langle q(\tau) | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q_i \rangle = \\ - \int dq(\tau) & \left( -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial q(\tau)^2} + V(q(\tau)) \right) \langle q_f | q(\tau) \rangle \langle q(\tau) | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q_i \rangle = \\ & \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial q_f^2} - V(q_f) \right) \langle q_f | \hat{U}(\tau, \tau_0) | q_i \rangle. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

Let us find first  $V = 0$  **solution** for (15):

$$\langle q | \hat{U}(\tau_0 + \Delta, \tau_0) | q' \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\Delta}} \exp\left(-\frac{(q - q')^2}{2\Delta}\right). \quad (17)$$

For  $V \neq 0$  we can take the solution in the form

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\Delta}} \exp\left(-\frac{(q - q')^2}{2\Delta} - \Delta\sigma(q, q') + O(\Delta^2)\right). \quad (18)$$

Substituting this into (15) we find

$$\sigma(q, q') = \frac{1}{q - q'} \int_{q'}^q V(y) dy. \quad (19)$$

We see that leading term does not depend on  $V$ , while  $\sigma$  is given by the potential averaged over the interval  $[q', q]$ . One can easily see also that  $\langle q | \hat{U}(\tau_0, \tau_0) | q' \rangle = \delta(q - q')$ .

The function  $\langle q | \hat{U}(\tau_0 + \Delta, \tau_0) | q' \rangle$  is sharply peaked around  $|q - q'| = 0$ , with the width  $|q - q'| \approx \Delta^{\frac{1}{2}} = |\tau - \tau_0|^{\frac{1}{2}}$  which is typical for the **Brownian motion**.

## 2.5. IMAGINARY TIME ACTION.

If the potential is differentiable function we can write

$$\sigma(q, q') = \frac{1}{2}(V(q) + V(q')) + \dots \quad (20)$$

Therefore (12) takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} \langle q_f | \hat{U}(\tau_f, \tau_i) | q_i \rangle &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{2\pi\Delta} \right)^{\frac{n}{2}} \int \left( \prod_{k=1}^{n-1} dq_k \right) \exp(-A(q_k)) \\ &\quad \text{where} \\ A(q_k) &= \sum_{k=1} \left[ \frac{(q_k - q_{k-1})^2}{2\Delta} + \Delta \frac{V(q_k) + V(q_{k-1})}{2} \right], \\ \Delta &= \frac{\tau_f - \tau_i}{n}, \quad \tau_k = \tau_i + k\Delta, \quad q_0 = q_i, \quad q_n = q_f. \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

The integration here can be understood as going over the piecewise linear trajectories  $q(\tau)$  going from  $q_i$  to  $q_f$ . In the limit  $\Delta \rightarrow 0$ ,  $n \rightarrow \infty$  one can write the function in the exponential as

$$A[q(\tau)] = \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{dq}{d\tau} \right)^2 + V(q) \right]. \quad (22)$$

That is  $A[q(\tau)]$  is an **imaginary-time action**. It is also possible in this limit to rewrite the  $n$ -fold integral as

$$\langle q_f | \hat{U}(\tau_f, \tau_i) | q_i \rangle = \int_{q(\tau_i)}^{q(\tau_f)} [Dq(\tau)] \exp(-A[q(\tau)]) \quad (23)$$

and call it **imaginary-time path integral**, where

$$\exp\left(\frac{i}{\hbar} S[q(t)]\right) \rightarrow \exp(-A[q(\tau)]) \quad (24)$$

because in r.h.s. we integrate over all continuous paths going from  $q_i$  to  $q_f$ .

## 2.6. PATH INTEGRAL AS A SUPERPOSITION PRINCIPLE.

The path integral representation is most explicit expression for the superposition principle in quantum mechanics, which states that **the transition amplitude is a superposition of transition amplitudes associated to each possible way to go from initial state to final state.**

## 2.7. FRACTAL PATHS GIVE MAIN CONTRIBUTION.

One can see that in  $n \rightarrow \infty$  limit the absolute majority of paths entering the integration are not smooth curves. This is in agreement with the fact that for  $|\tau_1 - \tau_2| \rightarrow 0$ ,  $|q(\tau_1) - q(\tau_2)| \approx \sqrt{|\tau_1 - \tau_2|}$ , not  $|\tau_1 - \tau_2|$  as one would expect for differential curves. So the typical path entering the integral is an example of geometrical object known as **fractal**.

From this point of view the 2 terms in euclidean action play different role. The kinetic term selects the class of path entering the integral, namely **it selects those path for which  $\frac{(q(\tau+\Delta) - q(\tau))^2}{\Delta}$  remains finite as  $\Delta \rightarrow 0$ .** Hence the factor

$$\exp\left(-\int \left(\frac{dq}{d\tau}\right)^2 d\tau\right) \quad (25)$$



should be considered as a part of functional measure. The factor

$$\exp\left(-\int V(q(\tau))d\tau\right) \quad (26)$$

**weights the path according to the average potential energy.**

### 2.8. VACUUM ENERGY AND PATH INTEGRAL PREFACTOR.

The symbol

$$[Dq(\tau)] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi\Delta}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} \prod_{k=1}^{n-1} dq(\tau_k) \quad (27)$$

entering the path integral (23) contains an infinite factor

$$\left(\frac{1}{2\pi\Delta}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}} \approx \exp\left(-\left(\frac{\log 2\pi\Delta}{2\Delta}\right)T\right) \quad (28)$$

where  $T = \tau_f - \tau_i = n\Delta$  is a volume of the system in imaginary time. **This is similar to the infinity we had for the vacuum energy in the KG theory.** Thus absorbing it into  $[Dq]$  is analogous to subtracting  $E_0$  from  $\hat{H}$ . One can get rid of this factor considering the ratio of the given path integral to some reference path integral (when  $V = 0$  for example).

### 2.9. PATH INTEGRAL IN REAL TIME AND LAGRANGIAN APPROACH TO QM.

One can repeat the above calculations considering real time  $t$  instead of imaginary time  $\tau$ . This way we arrive at

$$\langle q_f | \exp\left(-\frac{i}{\hbar}\hat{H}T\right) | q_i \rangle = \int_{q_i}^{q_f} [Dq(t)] \exp\left(\frac{i}{\hbar}S[q(t)]\right). \quad (29)$$

Because of the action functional is given by integral of a Lagrangian we come back thereby to the **Lagrangian approach to quantum mechanics**.

### *2.10. MANY DEGREES OF FREEDOM GENERALIZATION.*

In case we have system with many degrees of freedom  $q_\mu$  and the Hamiltonian

$$H = \sum_{\mu} \left( \frac{1}{2} p_{\mu}^2 + V(q_{\mu}) \right) \quad (30)$$

the path integral expression can be generalized straightforwardly

$$\int [Dq_{\mu}] \exp(-A[q_{\mu}(\tau)]) \quad (31)$$

Also the path integral in the phase space may appear for more complicated Hamiltonians.

**QFT can be treated as QM with infinite number of degrees of freedom.** Thus, in QFT the path integral becomes functional integral where we integrate over all possible field configurations in space-time (or in euclidean space) weighted by the action. From this point of view **the functional integral can be considered as a Lagrangian approach to QFT.**

## **3. Feynman propagator as a path integral.**

Now we represent the Feynman propagator  $D_F$  in terms of path integral. More precisely, we want to represent the function  $D_F(x_f - x_i)$  as a **relativistic particle transition amplitude from the point  $x_i$  to the point  $x_f$**  using the path integral.

### *3.1. RELATIVISTIC PARTICLE ACTION.*

In classical mechanics the relativistic particle action going from the point  $x_i$  to the point  $x_f$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
S &= -m \int_{x_i}^{x_f} \sqrt{dx_\mu dx^\mu}, \\
dx_\mu dx^\mu &= dt^2 - d\vec{x}^2 = \left(1 - \left(\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}\right)^2\right) dt^2 \Rightarrow \\
S &= -m \int_{t_i}^{t_f} \sqrt{\left(1 - \left(\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}\right)^2\right)} dt
\end{aligned} \tag{32}$$

The transition amplitude is given by

$$\int_{path(i \rightarrow f)} [D\vec{x}(t)] \exp(i\hbar S) \tag{33}$$

**The problem 1** which this expression as that the  $dx_\mu dx^\mu$  in  $S$  can be positive or negative depending on whether  $dx^\mu$  is time like or space like. This causes the problem of choosing the right branch of the square root. But we can not exclude the paths with space like  $dx^\mu$  because  $D_F$  does not vanish outside the light cone, though it is exponentially small there.

**The problem 2** is that the relativistic invariance demands admitting also the paths going backward in time once we admit space like  $dx^\mu$  (as one can check). For such paths the  $\vec{x}(t)$  is not a function of  $t$ , so the integral over  $[D\vec{x}(t)]$  does not make sense.

### 3.2. EUCLIDEAN FORMULATION.

These problems can be solved going to euclidean (imaginary time) picture:

$$\begin{aligned}
t &\rightarrow -ix_4, \quad x \rightarrow x_E \\
-\frac{i}{\hbar} S &\rightarrow A = m \int \sqrt{dx_E^2} \\
dx_E^2 &= dx_4^2 + d\vec{x}^2 \geq 0.
\end{aligned} \tag{34}$$

So one needs to compute

$$\int_{path(i \rightarrow f)} [Dx_E] \exp(-A) \quad (35)$$

and then analytically continue the result to the real time. Note that

$$A[path] = m_0 L[path], \quad (36)$$

where  $L[path]$  is the euclidean length of given path and we replaced  $m$  by  $m_0$ .

### 3.3. EUCLIDEAN PATH INTEGRAL CALCULATION.

We define the paths integral as a limit of finite dimensional integral. Namely, for a given large integer  $N$  we consider a piecewise-linear paths from the point 0 to the point  $x_E$ , with each linear piece having the length  $\Delta$ . The length of such path is

$$L_N = N\Delta. \quad (37)$$

Thus, we use discrete approximation considering a lattice with the spacing  $\Delta$  instead of continuous euclidean space.

Let  $n_k$  be the unit vector in the direction of  $k$ -th piece. The discret approximation of the path integral is given by

$$\sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \exp(-m_0 N\Delta) \int \left( \prod_{k=1}^N dn_k \right) \delta^4(\Delta \sum_k n_k - x_E), \quad (38)$$

where  $dn_k$  is the standard measure on  $S^3$  and  $\delta$ -function extracts the vectors  $\Delta n_k$  to add up to  $x_E$ . We also have taken into account the paths with arbitrary lengths by the summation over  $N$ . **In this discrete approximation of the path integral the continuous limit is achieved when  $\Delta \rightarrow 0$ ,  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . Our aim is to determine this limit**

First of all we have to look what kind of paths give the main contribution to the integral in the continuous limit. We have

$$\delta^4(\Delta \sum_k n_k - x_E) = \int \frac{d^4 P}{(2\pi)^4} \exp(iP \cdot (x_E - \Delta \sum_k n_k)). \quad (39)$$

Then

$$\prod_{k=1}^N \int dn_k \exp(-i\Delta n_k \cdot P) = (I(P\Delta))^N. \quad (40)$$

The integral  $I$  can be evaluated by the Bessel functions but its explicit form does not matter. Instead, its behaviour at large  $N$  and small  $\Delta$  matter

$$\begin{aligned} I &\approx 4\pi^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{8} P^2 \Delta^2 + \dots\right), \\ (I)^N &\approx (4\pi^2)^N \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta^2 N}{8} P^2\right). \end{aligned} \quad (41)$$

Now we can calculate the (Gaussian) integral over  $P$  for given  $N$

$$\int \frac{d^4 P}{(2\pi)^4} \exp(iPx_E - \frac{\Delta^2 N}{8} P^2) \approx \exp\left(-\frac{2x_E^2}{\Delta^2 N}\right). \quad (42)$$

Hence, the result for (38) is

$$\sum_{N=0}^{\infty} (4\pi^2)^N \exp(-m_0 N \Delta) \exp\left(-\frac{2x_E^2}{\Delta^2 N}\right). \quad (43)$$

**Notice here that  $\Delta$  enters in the combination  $\Delta^2 N$  not as  $\Delta N = L$ , as one would expect. By this reason taking the limit**

$$\Delta \rightarrow 0, \quad N \rightarrow \infty, \quad \Delta N = \text{finite} \quad (44)$$

we find that **integral (42) is equal zero for any finite  $x_E$ .**

### 3.4. THE CORRECT LIMIT AND FRACTAL GEOMETRY OF PATHS.

The above calculation is nearly identical to the probability calculation for Brownian particle. We know that Brownian particle with typical microscopic velocity  $v$  travels the distance

$$\bar{x} = v\sqrt{T\Delta t} \quad (45)$$

in time  $T$ , not  $vT$ , where  $\Delta t$  is typical intercollision time. In this analogy

$$\Delta \approx v\Delta t, \quad N \approx \frac{T}{\Delta t} \Rightarrow \bar{x} = \frac{\Delta}{\Delta t} \sqrt{N(\Delta t)^2} = \Delta\sqrt{N}. \quad (46)$$

Therefore, the correct continuous limit is achieved by taking

$$\Delta \rightarrow 0, \quad N \rightarrow \infty, \quad s \equiv \frac{1}{8}\Delta^2 N = \text{finite} \quad (47)$$

so that  $s$  is the parameter characterizing geometry of typical path.

The microscopic length  $L = \Delta N$  becomes infinite in this limit so the typical path dominating in this limit becomes **fractal** so that

$$s \approx [\text{length} = \Delta\sqrt{N}]^2, \quad (48)$$

which means that **typical path has a fractal dimension 2**.

### 3.5. MASS RENORMALIZATION.

There is also a factor

$$(4\pi^2)^N \exp(-m_0 N \Delta) = \exp(-N(m_0 \Delta - \log(4\pi^2))). \quad (49)$$

It makes sense to consider **the parameter  $m_0$  as depending on  $\Delta$** :

$$m_0 = m_0(\Delta) \quad (50)$$

so that it can be adjusted as

$$\Delta m_0(\Delta) - \log(4\pi^2) \rightarrow \frac{\Delta^2}{8} m^2, \text{ as } \Delta \rightarrow 0 \quad (51)$$

Then the above 2 factors become

$$(4\pi^2)^N \exp(-m_0 N \Delta) = \exp\left(-m^2 \frac{\Delta^2 N}{8}\right) \rightarrow \exp(-m^2 s). \quad (52)$$

### 3.6. FEYNMAN PROPAGATOR.

In the limit  $N \rightarrow \infty$  we can replace the sum over  $N$  by the integral over  $s$  and obtain

$$\int_0^\infty ds \exp(-m^2 s) \int \frac{d^4 P}{(2\pi)^4} \exp(-s P^2) \exp(i P x_E), \quad (53)$$

which is **exactly the correlation function**  $D(x_E)$  from (6). Taking the analytic continuation to the real time we obtain path integral representation for Feynman propagator  $D_F$ .