

Flavour Physics – Lecture 2

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UNIVERSITY OF
Southampton
School of Physics
and Astronomy

- 1 Lecture 1: Introduction to Flavour Physics
- 2 Lecture 2: Lattice Computations in Flavour Physics
 - 1 Correlation Functions
 - 2 Inversions of the Dirac Operator
 - 3 The Scaling Trajectory
 - 4 Determination of Quark Masses
 - 5 Comment on the use of Perturbation Theory
 - 6 Towards Lattice Phenomenology - Leptonic and Semileptonic Decays
 - 7 (Partially) Twisted Boundary Conditions
- 3 Lecture 3: Light-quark physics
- 4 Lecture 4: Heavy-quark physics

Programme

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Introduction to Lattice Phenomenology

- Lattice phenomenology starts with the evaluation of correlation functions of the form:

$$\langle 0 | O(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) | 0 \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \int [dA_\mu] [d\psi] [d\bar{\psi}] e^{iS} O(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) ,$$

where $O(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is a multilocal operator composed of quark and gluon fields and Z is the partition function:

$$Z = \int [dA_\mu] [d\psi] [d\bar{\psi}] e^{iS} .$$

- These formulae are written in Minkowski space, whereas Lattice calculations are performed in Euclidean space ($\exp(iS) \rightarrow \exp(-S)$ etc.).
- The physics which can be studied depends on the choice of the multilocal operator O .
- The functional integral is performed by discretising space-time and using Monte-Carlo Integration.

Two-Point Correlation Functions

Consider two-point correlation functions of the form:

$$C_2(t) = \int d^3x e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} \langle 0 | J(\vec{x}, t) J^\dagger(\vec{0}, 0) | 0 \rangle ,$$

where J and J^\dagger are any interpolating operators for the hadron H which we wish to study and the time t is taken to be positive.

- We assume that H is the lightest hadron which can be created by J^\dagger .
- We take $t > 0$, but it should be remembered that lattice simulations are frequently performed on periodic lattices, so that both time-orderings contribute.

Two-Point Correlation Functions (Cont.)

$$C_2(t) = \int d^3x e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} \langle 0 | J(\vec{x}, t) J^\dagger(\vec{0}, 0) | 0 \rangle ,$$

Inserting a complete set of states $\{|n\rangle\}$:

$$\begin{aligned} C_2(t) &= \sum_n \int d^3x e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} \langle 0 | J(\vec{x}, t) | n \rangle \langle n | J^\dagger(\vec{0}, 0) | 0 \rangle \\ &= \int d^3x e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} \langle 0 | J(\vec{x}, t) | H \rangle \langle H | J^\dagger(\vec{0}, 0) | 0 \rangle + \dots \end{aligned}$$

where the \dots represent contributions from heavier states with the same quantum numbers as H .

Finally using translational invariance:

$$C_2(t) = \frac{1}{2E} e^{-iEt} \left| \langle 0 | J(\vec{0}, 0) | H(p) \rangle \right|^2 + \dots ,$$

where $E = \sqrt{m_H^2 + \vec{p}^2}$.

Two-Point Correlation Functions (Cont.)

$$C_2(t) = \frac{1}{2E} e^{-iEt} \left| \langle 0 | J(\vec{0}, 0) | H(p) \rangle \right|^2 + \dots$$



- In Euclidean space $\exp(-iEt) \rightarrow \exp(-Et)$.
- By fitting $C(t)$ to the form above, both the energy (or, if $\vec{p} = 0$, the mass) and the modulus of the matrix element

$$\left| \langle 0 | J(\vec{0}, 0) | H(p) \rangle \right|$$

can be evaluated.

- Example: if $J = \bar{u}\gamma^\mu\gamma^5 d$ then the decay constant of the π -meson can be evaluated,

$$\left| \langle 0 | \bar{u}\gamma^\mu\gamma^5 d | \pi^+(p) \rangle \right| = f_\pi p^\mu,$$

(the physical value of $f_\pi \simeq$ is 132 MeV).

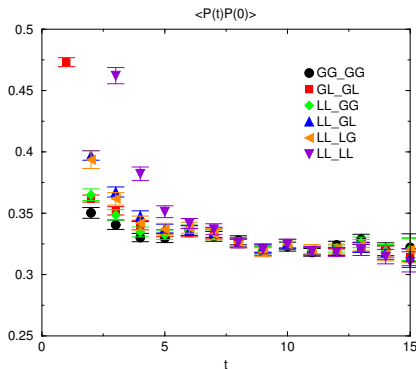
Effective Masses

At zero momentum

$$C_2(t) = \text{Constant} \times e^{-mt}$$

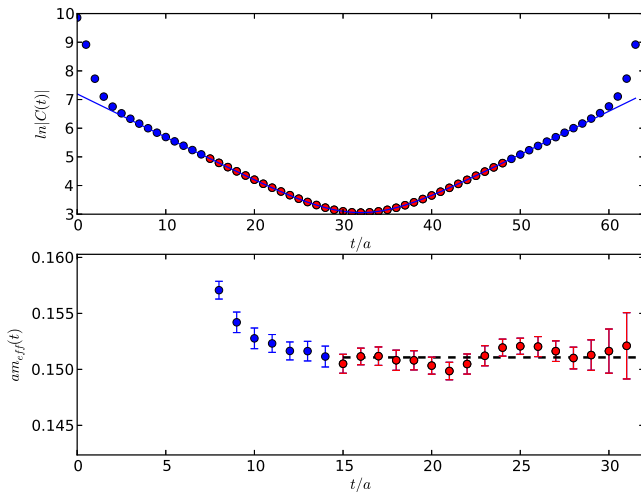
so that it is sensible to define the *effective mass*

$$m_{\text{eff}}(t) = \log \left(\frac{C(t)}{C(t+1)} \right).$$



Effective Mass Plot for a Pseudoscalar Meson. UKQCD Collaboration.

Correlators and Effective Masses



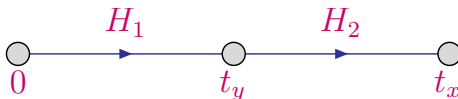
- Kaon correlation function and effective mass from RBC-UKQCD's simulation on a $32^3 \times 64$ DWF lattice with $a^{-1} = 2.28$ GeV.

Three-Point Correlation Functions Cont.

Consider now a three-point correlation function of the form:

$$C_3(t_x, t_y) = \int d^3x d^3y e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} e^{i\vec{q}\cdot\vec{y}} \langle 0 | J_2(\vec{x}, t_x) O(\vec{y}, t_y) J_1^\dagger(\vec{0}, 0) | 0 \rangle ,$$

where $J_{1,2}$ may be interpolating operators for different particles and we assume that $t_x > t_y > 0$.

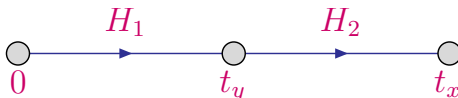


For sufficiently large times t_y and $t_x - t_y$

$$C_3(t_x, t_y) \simeq \frac{e^{-E_1 t_y}}{2E_1} \frac{e^{-E_2(t_x - t_y)}}{2E_2} \langle 0 | J_2(0) | H_2(\vec{p}) \rangle \\ \times \langle H_2(\vec{p}) | O(0) | H_1(\vec{p} + \vec{q}) \rangle \langle H_1(\vec{p} + \vec{q}) | J_1^\dagger(0) | 0 \rangle ,$$

where $E_1^2 = m_1^2 + (\vec{p} + \vec{q})^2$ and $E_2^2 = m_1^2 + \vec{p}^2$.

Three-Point Correlation Functions



- From the evaluation of two-point functions we have the masses and the matrix elements of the form $|\langle 0 | J | H(\vec{p}) \rangle|$. Thus, from the evaluation of three-point functions we obtain matrix elements of the form $|\langle H_2 | O | H_1 \rangle|$.
- Important examples include:
 - $K^0 - \bar{K}^0$ ($B^0 - \bar{B}^0$) mixing. In this case

$$O = \bar{s} \gamma^\mu (1 - \gamma^5) d \bar{s} \gamma_\mu (1 - \gamma^5) d.$$

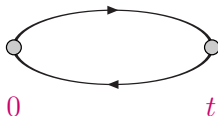
- Semileptonic and rare radiative decays of hadrons of the form $B \rightarrow \pi, \rho + \text{leptons}$ or $B \rightarrow K^* \gamma$. Now O is a quark bilinear operator such as $\bar{b} \gamma^\mu (1 - \gamma^5) u$ or an *electroweak penguin* operator.

Calculating Correlation Functions

- Imagine that we have generated a set of N gluon configurations $\{U_\mu(x)\}$ corresponding to some lattice action.
- In order to calculate the correlation functions we need to determine quark propagators $\{S_{\alpha\beta}^{ij}(x,y)\}$ corresponding to each configuration.
 - α, β are spinor labels ($\alpha, \beta = 1, 2, 3, 4$).
 - i, j are colour labels ($i, j = 1, 2, 3$).
 - x, y are points on the lattice.
- As a simple example imagine that we want to evaluate the correlation function:

$$C(t) = \sum_{\vec{x}} \langle 0 | \phi(\vec{x}, t) \phi^\dagger(\vec{0}, 0) | 0 \rangle,$$

where ϕ is a pseudoscalar density $\phi(x) = d(\vec{x}) \gamma^5 u(x)$.



$$C(t) = - \sum_{\vec{x}} \text{Tr} \{ S((\vec{x}, t), (\vec{0}, 0)) \gamma^5 S((\vec{0}, 0), (\vec{x}, t)) \gamma^5 \}.$$

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Inversions

- To evaluate the propagators we have to *invert* huge sparse matrices, solving

$$D_{\alpha\gamma}^{ik}(x,z)S_{\gamma\beta}^{kj}(z,y) = \delta_{xy}\delta^{ij}\delta_{\alpha\beta},$$

where D is the Dirac operator.

- This equation is of the form $M \cdot S = I$ where M and S are matrices. The standard algorithms (e.g. Conjugate Gradient) solve instead

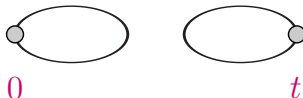
$$M \cdot v = b,$$

where the vector v is the solution and b is a given vector. In this way we obtain $S_{\alpha\beta}^{ij}(x,y)$ for single choices of j, β and y .

- To obtain the propagator for all values of j and β requires $3 \times 4 = 12$ such inversions (generally affordable).
- To obtain the all-to-all propagators for all y requires $L^3 \times T$ such inversions for each configuration. Not affordable without approximations.
- Thus we typically have the set of propagators $\{S(x,0)\}$, where I have put the *source* at the origin.
- γ^5 -Hermiticity: $S(y,x) = \gamma^5 S^\dagger(x,y) \gamma^5$.

Inversions (Side Remarks)

- For the purposes of this illustration I imagine solving $M \cdot S = I$, but for many applications it is necessary to solve $M \cdot S = B$, where B is a given matrix.
Same techniques apply.
- It is advantageous to squeeze as much physics as possible from each configuration (volume averaging).
 - Having a point source is not in this spirit.
 - Other possible sources exist; e.g. gauge-fixed wall sources, Z_2 noise sources etc.
- Disconnected diagrams are a major difficulty. For example for the flavour-singlet meson we also have the diagram:

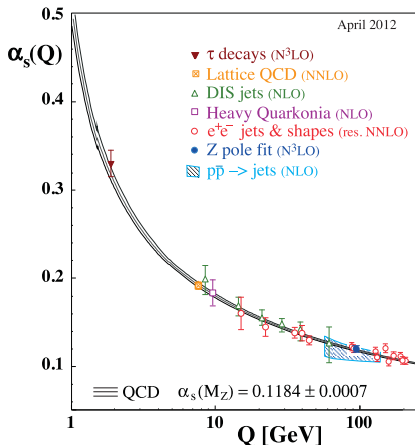


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The Scaling Trajectory, Dimensional Transmutation

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{QCD}} = -\frac{1}{4}G_{\mu\nu}G^{\mu\nu} + \sum_{\text{flavours},f} \bar{\psi}_f(i\not{D} - m_f) +$$

Gauge Fixing Term + Fadeev-Popov Ghost



$$G_{\mu\nu}^a = \partial_\mu A_\nu^a - \partial_\nu A_\mu^a + gf_{abc}A_\mu^b A_\nu^c$$

$$D_\mu = \partial_\mu - igT_a A_\mu^a.$$

- QCD parameters, g and the quark masses, can only be fixed by using physical measurements.
- $\alpha_S(\mu)$ decreases logarithmically with the renormalization scale μ .
- Running of $\alpha_S(\mu) \Rightarrow$
 given $g(\mu)$ we know μ ;
 given μ we know $g(\mu)$.

The Scaling Trajectory (Cont.)

- In Lattice QCD, while it is natural to think in terms of the lattice spacing a , the input parameter is $\beta = 6/g^2(a)$.
- $g(a)$ is the bare coupling constant in the bare theory defined by the particular discretization of QCD used in the simulation. a^{-1} is the ultraviolet cut-off in momentum space.
- Imagine now that we are performing a simulation with $N_f = 2 + 1$ and that we are in an ideal world in which we can perform simulations with $m_{ud} = m_u = m_d$ around their “physical” values. The procedure for defining a physical scaling trajectory is then relatively simple.

The scaling trajectory (Cont.)

- At each β , choose two dimensionless quantities, e.g. m_π/m_Ω and m_K/m_Ω , and find the bare quark masses m_{ud} and m_s which give the corresponding physical values.

These are then defined to be the physical (bare) quark masses at that β .

- Now consider a dimensionful quantity, e.g. m_Ω . The value of the lattice spacing is defined by

$$a^{-1} = \frac{1.672 \text{ GeV}}{m_\Omega(\beta, m_{ud}, m_s)}$$

where $m_\Omega(\beta, m_{ud}, m_s)$ is the measured value in lattice units.

- Other physical quantities computed at the physical bare-quark masses will now differ from their physical values by artefacts of $O(a^2)$.
- Repeating this procedure at different β defines a scaling trajectory. Other choices for the 3 physical quantities used to define different scaling trajectory are clearly possible.
- If the simulations are performed with m_c and/or $m_u \neq m_d$ then the procedure has to be extended accordingly.

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Determination of Quark Masses

- Quark Masses are fundamental parameters of the Standard Model of Particle Physics:

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{k=1}^{N_F} \bar{q}_k (i \not{D} - m_k) q_k - \frac{1}{4} G_{\mu\nu} G^{\mu\nu} + \text{GF} + \text{FP}.$$

- Unlike the leptons, quarks are confined inside hadrons and are therefore not observed as physical particles \Rightarrow quark masses cannot be measured directly.
- Quark masses therefore have to be obtained indirectly through their influence on hadronic quantities.
- Any quantitative statement about the value of a quark mass must make careful reference to the theoretical framework that is used to define it \Rightarrow *renormalization scheme* and *renormalization scale* μ .

The most commonly used renormalization scheme for QCD perturbation theory is the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme.

Determination of Quark Masses (cont.)

- Physics is independent of renormalization schemes and scales and in practice we need $\mu \gg \Lambda_{\text{QCD}}$ so that the μ dependence in $m_q(\mu)$ can be determined in perturbation theory.

$$\mu^2 \frac{dm_q(\mu)}{d\mu^2} = -\gamma(\alpha_s(\mu)) m_q(\mu)$$

The *anomalous dimension* γ is known to four-loop order of perturbation theory

Vermaseren, Larin & van Ritbergen

Chetyrkin, Kniehl & Steinhauser

$$\gamma(\alpha_s) = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \gamma_r \left(\frac{\alpha_s}{4\pi} \right)^r$$

The coefficients $\gamma_1 - \gamma_4$ are known.

Determination of Light-Quark Masses (Cont.)

- (Here I imagine doing $N_F = 2 + 1$ simulations for illustration.)
- By *calibrating* the lattice, i.e. fixing $m_{ud}(a)$, $m_s(a)$ and a such that 3 physical quantities, e.g. m_π , m_K and m_Ω take their physical values, we know the value of the physical bare quark masses for our discretization of QCD.

$$m^{\overline{\text{MS}}}(\mu) = Z_m(a\mu)m^{\text{latt}}(a)$$

- In principle, for large a , μ we can obtain $m^{\overline{\text{MS}}}(\mu)$ from $m^{\text{latt}}(a)$ using perturbation theory, but
 - lattice perturbation theory frequently converges slowly;
 - higher order calculations in lattice perturbation theory are difficult to perform;
 - the precision of lattice calculations is such that Non-Perturbative Renormalization (NPR) is necessary.
- We cannot perform simulations in $4 + 2\epsilon$ dimensions and hence we have to perform NPR into an intermediate scheme and then use continuum perturbation theory to match the result onto that in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme.
- Step-scaling enables us to obtain the result in the intermediate scheme at larger values of μ and hence to decrease the uncertainty in the matching factor.

R.Sommer's Lectures

G. Colangelo et al., arXiv:1011.4408

$$\begin{aligned}m_{ud}^{\overline{\text{MS}}}(2\text{ GeV}) &= 3.43 \pm 0.11 \text{ MeV} \\m_s^{\overline{\text{MS}}}(2\text{ GeV}) &= 94 \pm 3 \text{ MeV} \\ \frac{m_s}{m_{ud}} &= 27.4 \pm 0.4.\end{aligned}$$

- FLAG2 to appear soon.

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Perturbation Theory - (slide shown at non-lattice conference)

- The precision of lattice calculations is now reaching the point where we need better interactions with the N^{th} LO QCD perturbation theory community.
- The traditional way of dividing responsibilities is:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \text{Physics} & = & C & \times & \langle f | O | i \rangle \\ & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ & & \text{Perturbative} & & \text{Lattice} \\ & & \text{QCD} & & \text{QCD} \end{array}$$

- The two factors have to be calculated in the same scheme.
- Can we meet half way?

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \text{bare} & & & & \text{operators} \\ \text{lattice} & \longrightarrow & ? & \longleftarrow & \text{renormalized} \\ \text{operators} & & & & \text{in } \overline{\text{MS}} \text{ scheme} \end{array}$$

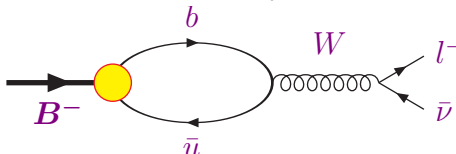
- What is the best scheme for ? (RI-SMOM, Schrödinger Functional, ...)?
- Recent examples of such collaborations following J.Gracey ... :
 - two-loop matching factor for m_q between the RI-SMOM schemes and $\overline{\text{MS}}$.
M.Gorbahn and S.Jager, arXiv:1004:3997, L.Almeida and C.Sturm, arXiv:1004:4613
 - HPQCD + Karlsruhe Group in determination of quark masses.

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Leptonic Decays of Mesons

- The difficulty in making predictions for weak decays of hadrons is in controlling the non-perturbative strong interaction effects.
- As a particularly simple example consider the leptonic decays of pseudoscalar mesons in general and of the B -meson in particular.



- Non-perturbative QCD effects are contained in the matrix element

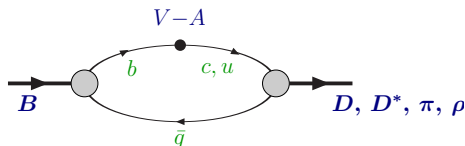
$$\langle 0 | \bar{l} \gamma^\mu (1 - \gamma^5) l | B(p) \rangle .$$

- Lorentz Inv. + Parity $\Rightarrow \langle 0 | \bar{l} \gamma^\mu l | B(p) \rangle = 0$.
- Similarly $\langle 0 | \bar{l} \gamma^\mu \gamma^5 l | B(p) \rangle = i f_B p^\mu$.

All QCD effects are contained in a single constant, f_B , the B -meson's (*leptonic*) *decay constant*.
($f_\pi \simeq 132 \text{ MeV}$)

Semileptonic decays - Determination of V_{cb} and V_{ub}

- These can be determined from either inclusive or exclusive decays. I start with a discussion of exclusive decays.

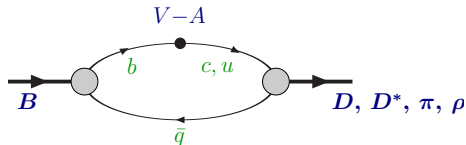


- Space-Time symmetries allow us to parametrise the non-perturbative strong interaction effects in terms of invariant form-factors. For example, for decays into a pseudoscalar meson P ($= \pi, D$ for example)

$$\langle P(k) | V^\mu | B(p) \rangle = f^+(q^2) \left[(p+k)^\mu - \frac{m_B^2 - m_P^2}{q^2} q^\mu \right] + f^0(q^2) \frac{m_B^2 - m_P^2}{q^2} q^\mu,$$

where $q = p - k$.

Determination of V_{cb} and V_{ub} Cont.



- For decays into a vector $V (= \rho, D^*$ for example), a conventional decomposition is

$$\langle V(k, \varepsilon) | V^\mu | B(p) \rangle = \frac{2V(q^2)}{m_B + m_V} \varepsilon^{\mu\gamma\delta\beta} \varepsilon_\beta^* p_\gamma k_\delta$$

$$\langle V(k, \varepsilon) | A^\mu | B(p) \rangle = i(m_B + m_V) A_1(q^2) \varepsilon^{*\mu} - i \frac{A_2(q^2)}{m_B + m_V} \varepsilon^* \cdot p (p+k)^\mu + i \frac{A(q^2)}{q^2} 2m_V \varepsilon^* \cdot p q^\mu ,$$

where ε is the polarization vector of the final-state meson, and $q = p - k$.

$$\{A_3 = \frac{m_B + m_V}{2m_V} A_1 - \frac{m_B - m_V}{2m_V} A_2 \}$$

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(Partially) Twisted Boundary Conditions

- It is usual to define the lattice theory with periodic boundary conditions for the fields

$$\phi(x_i + L) = \phi(x_i).$$

This implies that components of momenta are quantized in units of $2\pi/L$.

- Example (one of our current simulations):

$$L = 48a \quad \text{with} \quad a^{-1} = 1.73 \text{ GeV} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{2\pi}{L} = .225 \text{ GeV}$$

so that the available momenta for phenomenological studies (e.g. in the evaluation of form-factors) are limited.

(In addition we require pa to be small to avoid discretization errors.)

- Bedaque has advocated the use of twisted boundary conditions e.g.

$$q(x_i + L) = e^{i\theta_i} q(x_i)$$

so that the momentum spectrum is

$$p_i = n_i \frac{2\pi}{L} + \frac{\theta_i}{L}.$$

(Twist can be a matrix in flavour space, but action has to be single-valued.)

(Partially) Twisted Boundary Conditions (Cont.)

CTS and G.Villadoro, hep-lat/0411033

- Conclusion 1: For quantities which do not involve Final State Interactions (e.g. masses, decay constants, form-factors) the Finite-Volume corrections are exponentially small also with Twisted BC's.
- Conclusion 2: Moreover they are also exponentially small for *partially twisted boundary conditions* in which the sea quarks satisfy periodic BC's but the valence quarks satisfy twisted BC's \Rightarrow

We do not need to perform new simulations for every choice of $\{\theta_i\}$.

For example:

$$\frac{\Delta f_{K^\pm}}{f_{K^\pm}} \rightarrow \begin{cases} -\frac{9}{4} \frac{m_\pi^2}{f_\pi^2} \frac{e^{-m_\pi L}}{(2\pi m_\pi L)^{3/2}} & \text{(a)} \\ -\frac{m_\pi^2}{f_\pi^2} \frac{e^{-m_\pi L}}{(2\pi m_\pi L)^{3/2}} \left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^3 \cos \theta_i + \frac{3}{4} \right) & \text{(b)} \\ -\frac{m_\pi^2}{f_\pi^2} \frac{e^{-m_\pi L}}{(2\pi m_\pi L)^{3/2}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^3 \cos \theta_i - \frac{3}{4} \right) & \text{(c)} \end{cases}$$

d and s quarks satisfy periodic boundary conditions,
 u quark is (a) untwisted, (b) fully twisted (c) partially twisted.

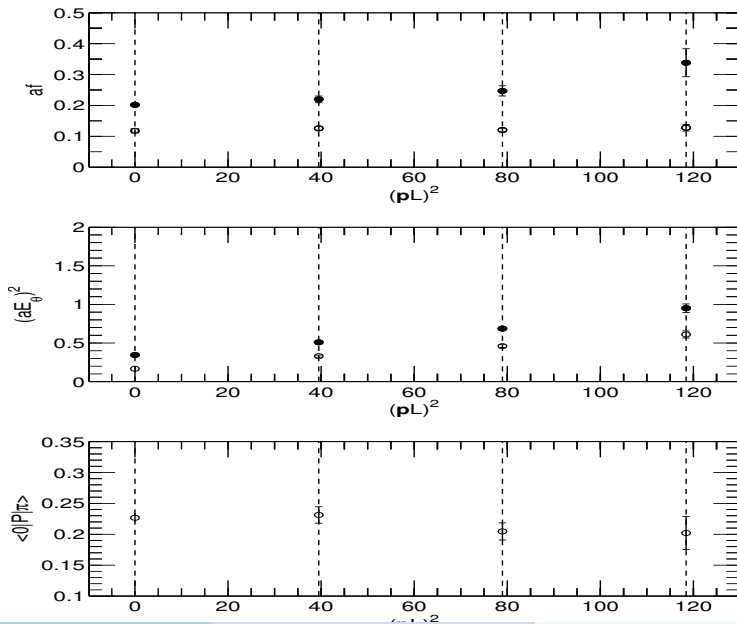
- The use of partially twisted boundary conditions opens up many interesting phenomenological applications.

It also works numerically!

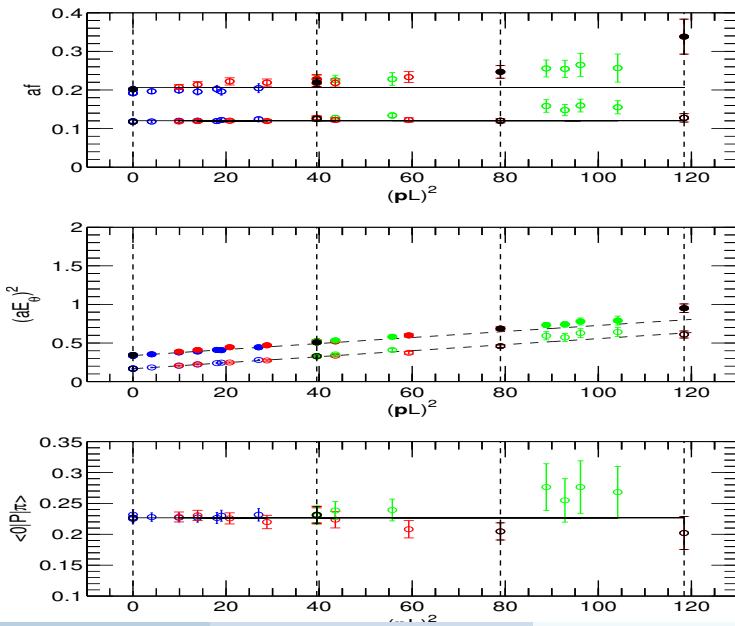
- Tests of the dispersion relation for pseudoscalars in the quenched approximation - de Divittis, Tantalò and Petronzio (2004)
- Flynn, Juettner & CTS, using UKQCD $16^3 \times 32$, $N_F=2$ configurations:

$$L \simeq 1.7 \text{ fm}, \quad a \simeq 0.1 \text{ fm}, \quad \frac{m_\pi}{m_\rho} = 0.7, 0.57 .$$

Numerical Studies



Numerical Studies



(Partially) Twisted Boundary Conditions (cont.)

- Conclusion 3: For some amplitudes which involve final state interactions, it is not possible in general to extract the physical matrix elements using twisted boundary conditions (at least without new ideas).
- An important example: $K \rightarrow \pi\pi$ decays in the $I = 0$ channel. The boundary conditions break isospin symmetry \Rightarrow energy eigenstates are no longer states with definite I .
 - Consider the $\pi\pi$ -state to be in the center of mass frame and let the u (d) quark satisfy twisted (periodic) boundary conditions.
 - In the free theory $\vec{p}_{\pi^0} = \vec{0}$ and $\vec{p}_{\pi^\pm} = \pm \vec{\theta}/L$. $\Rightarrow E_{\pi^0\pi^0} = 2m_\pi$ and $E_{\pi^+\pi^-} = 2\sqrt{m_\pi^2 + \theta^2/L^2}$.
 - In the interacting theory $\pi^+\pi^- \leftrightarrow \pi^0\pi^0$ transitions complicate the analysis very significantly
 \Rightarrow it is not possible to determine physical $K \rightarrow \pi\pi$ amplitudes using twisted boundary conditions with FV corrections under control.

Exercise - Finite Volume Effects in 1 Dimension

- Let $f(p^2)$ be a smooth function. For a sufficiently large L :

$$\frac{1}{L} \sum_n f(p_n^2) = \int \frac{dp}{2\pi} f(p^2),$$

where $p_n = (2\pi/L)n$ and the relation holds "locally".

- In actual lattice calculations the spacing between momenta are $O(\text{few } 100 \text{ MeV})$ so we would not expect such a local relation to be sufficiently accurate.
- However using the Poisson summation formula:

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x-n) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(2\pi i n x)$$

we obtain the powerful exact relation

$$\frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} f(p_n^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dp}{2\pi} f(p^2) + \sum_{n \neq 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dp}{2\pi} f(p^2) e^{i n p L},$$

which implies that

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{L} \sum_n f(p_n^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dp}{2\pi} f(p^2),}$$

up to exponentially small corrections in L .

Exercise - Finite Volume Effects in 1 Dimension

- In the approach developed with Steve and Changhoan Kim, this is the starting point for all calculations of FV effects.
- Calculate the leading finite-volume effects for

$$f(p^2) = \frac{1}{p^2 + m^2} \cdot$$