

The step scaling function of QCD at negative flavor number

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Abstract

As a computationally less costly test case for full QCD, we investigate an SU(3) Yang-Mills theory coupled to a bosonic spinor field. This theory corresponds to QCD with minus two quark flavors and is known as the bermion model. Our central object of interest is the step scaling function which describes the scale evolution of the running coupling in the Schrödinger functional scheme. With the help of a non-perturbative recursive finite size technique, it can be used to determine the Λ parameter, which characterizes the coupling at high energy, from experimental input at low energies.

We study in detail the lattice artefacts and the continuum extrapolation of the step scaling function from lattice simulations when $O(a)$ improvement according to the Symanzik programme is used. Our results are compared to the unimproved bermion and dynamical fermion cases, and to renormalized perturbation theory in the continuum limit.

For the bermion model, we also examine the step scaling function with massive quarks. According to the Appelquist-Carazzone theorem the contributions from matter fields are expected to vanish for large masses, such that the step scaling function converges to the pure gauge theory case. If one wants to connect non-perturbatively different effective theories with different numbers of active quarks over flavor thresholds, lattice artefacts should be reasonably small. In order to test the feasibility of such a method, we investigate the step scaling function and its lattice artefacts for several values of the mass.

For the Monte Carlo simulation of improved bermions, we develop a suitable algorithm and compare its performance with unimproved bermions and full QCD. As a preparative study, we compare the efficiency of algorithms in pure gauge theory.

Keywords:

Lattice QCD, Schrödinger functional, Step scaling function, Bermion model

Zusammenfassung

Wir untersuchen eine $SU(3)$ Yang-Mills-Theorie mit einer Kopplung an ein bosonisches Spinorfeld. Diese als Bermion-Modell bekannte Theorie entspricht formal QCD mit minus zwei Quark-Flavors. Gegenüber der vollen QCD erfordert sie wesentlich weniger Computerzeit und ist deshalb als relativ kostengünstiges Testmodell geeignet. Im Mittelpunkt unseres Interesses steht die Step-Scaling-Funktion, die die Skalenabhängigkeit der laufenden Kopplung im Schrödinger-Funktional-Renormierungsschema beschreibt. Mit Hilfe einer nicht-perturbativen Finite-Size-Technik kann sie benutzt werden, um den Λ -Parameter, der die Kopplung bei hohen Energien charakterisiert, aus experimentellen Daten bei niedrigen Energien zu bestimmen.

Wir studieren im Detail die Gitterartefakte und die Kontinuumsextrapolation der aus Gittersimulationen bestimmten Step-Scaling-Funktion, wenn $O(a)$ -Verbesserung nach Symanzik verwendet wird. Unsere Resultate stellen wir dem Fall von unverbesserten Bermionen und dynamischen Fermionen gegenüber, und vergleichen im Kontinuumslimes mit renormierter Störungstheorie.

Weiterhin betrachten wir im Bermion-Modell die Step-Scaling-Funktion mit massiven Quarks. Nach dem Appelquist-Carazzone-Theorem erwartet man, daß Beiträge von Materiefeldern mit ansteigender Masse verschwinden, so daß die Step-Scaling-Funktion gegen den Fall reiner Eichtheorie konvergieren sollte. Wenn man nicht-perturbativ verschiedene effektive Theorien mit verschiedener Anzahl von aktiven Quarks über Massenschwellen hinweg verbinden will, sollten Gitterartefakte klein sein. Um die Durchführbarkeit einer solchen Methode zu testen, untersuchen wir die Step-Scaling-Funktion und ihre Gitterartefakte für verschiedene Massen.

Für die Monte-Carlo-Simulation von verbesserten Bermionen entwickeln wir einen geeigneten Algorithmus und vergleichen seine Effizienz mit unbesetzten Bermionen und mit voller QCD. Als vorbereitende Studie vergleichen wir die Effizienz verschiedener Algorithmen in reiner Eichtheorie.

Schlagwörter:

Gitter-QCD, Schrödinger-Funktional, Step-Scaling-Funktion, Bermion-Modell

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In the standard model of particle physics, Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) is the theory of the strong interaction. It covers the interaction between six flavors of *quarks* which are the constituents of hadronic matter. QCD is a gauge theory based on the non-abelian $SU(3)$ gauge group. The fermionic matter fields, the quarks, carry a quantum number called “color” and transform according to the fundamental representation of the group. The gauge fields transform according to the adjoint representation and describe an octet of *gluons*.

Classically, the structure of the strong interaction is relatively simple compared to the electroweak theory. The gauge group is unbroken and the quark states that participate in the strong interaction coincide with the mass eigenstates. The only input parameters are the strong coupling constant and the quark masses. As a quantum field theory, QCD nevertheless exposes a lot of interesting phenomena, part of which are insufficiently understood even after thirty years of research.

The quantization of continuum field theories leads to divergences that must be removed by regularizing the theory. One can obtain finite results for physical observables by a *renormalization* of the parameters of the theory, which become functions of a renormalization scale. The running coupling α_s of QCD plays an essential role in the characterization of the theory.

An important property of non-abelian gauge theories is *asymptotic freedom*. At high energies, the coupling vanishes asymptotically and quarks behave like free particles. Before the discovery of QCD, the phenomenological parton model used for deep inelastic scattering processes reflected this behavior. The application of perturbation theory to QCD successfully describes the corrections to the Bjorken scaling law that follows from the assumption of free particles.

On the other hand, the behavior of the running coupling is such that the

coupling grows at low energies. As a consequence, the traditional perturbative methods in Quantum Field Theory, which were developed in the framework of Quantum Electrodynamics (QED), break down in this regime. A new feature arising at large distances is the phenomenon of *confinement*, which expresses the observation that free quarks do not exist in nature. Hadronic matter appears only in the form of color singlets, which are grouped into mesons (quark-antiquark hadrons) and baryons (hadrons consisting of three quarks).

A decisive step for the understanding of low energy QCD was done by Wilson in 1974, who formulated this theory as a lattice regularized euclidean Quantum Field Theory. In this regularization scheme, matter fields are defined on the sites of a hypercubic space-time lattice and gauge fields are parametrized as parallel transporters between the sites. The continuum limit is obtained by decreasing the lattice spacing to zero. This approach opened the possibility of applying methods from the toolbox of statistical physics, like the strong coupling (high temperature) expansion. Today, Monte Carlo simulations on the lattice have become one of the most popular methods for the non-perturbative investigation of QCD.

The scale dependences of the running coupling and the running quark masses in QCD are described by the renormalization group equations. As these are differential equations of first order, in QCD with N_f quark flavors there are $N_f + 1$ integration constants which have to be determined from experiment. One way to express the free parameter of the running coupling is the Λ parameter which is a measure for the asymptotic decay of the coupling at high energies. Another way – used for example in the particle data book [1] – is to compute the coupling at a reference scale, conventionally taken as the Z^0 mass.

Figure 1.1 shows an overview of some typical experimental measurements of the QCD coupling α_s in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ renormalization scheme at different scales [2]. In order to compare results obtained at different scales, one evolves the coupling to the Z^0 mass by employing the renormalization group equation in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme, computed in perturbation theory up to 4-loop. In the above reference, a world average of

$$\bar{\alpha}_s(M_{Z^0}) = 0.1184 \pm 0.0031$$

is obtained. We have plotted the running $\overline{\text{MS}}$ coupling for this average and its error as continuous respectively dashed lines¹.

It turns out that the experimental results for $\alpha_s(M_{Z^0})$ obtained from measurements at different scales agree well with each other. But it is also

¹The running $\overline{\text{MS}}$ coupling has been computed using the RunDec program from [3].

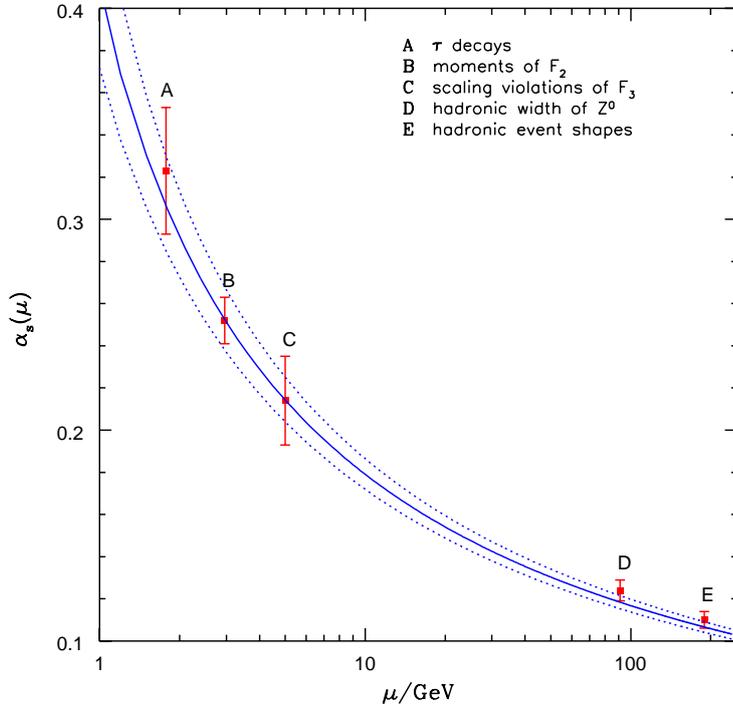


Figure 1.1: *Experimental values for α_s , compared with the world average.*

clear that at some scale, α_s is not a small expansion parameter anymore and perturbation theory must break down. At lower energies and larger distances, confinement occurs and non-perturbative contributions like instantons are known to play an important role. But not only does perturbation theory fail in qualitatively describing these phenomena. Even at scales where it apparently converges, it is impossible to specify the systematic error caused by using perturbation theory up to a low finite order for the evolution of the coupling to the reference scale. A renormalization scheme that is only perturbatively defined is not suitable at low energies.

Still, one can investigate the low energy properties of QCD with the help of computer simulations. In this context, QCD is regularized by a hypercubic lattice. After the free parameters in the theory have been fixed by requiring certain quantities - like hadron masses - to take their physical value, further observables can be measured in Monte Carlo simulations and compared to experimental results. While in principle, this method provides

a non-perturbatively defined scheme which is suitable in a certain low energy range, the size of lattices which can be simulated in practice puts a tight constraint on the energy scale which can be reached.

So while different renormalization approaches can be used to study different ranges of scales, it is not a priori clear how the parameters in the different schemes are connected to each other. For a test of QCD at all scales, it is indispensable to use a scheme which is defined non-perturbatively, practically tractable and which does not use any uncontrolled approximations. A method for this was proposed by Lüscher, Weisz and Wolff [4].

The fundamental concept of this approach is that one does not need to accommodate all relevant scales on a single lattice. Instead, one uses a finite volume scheme where the coupling runs with the space-time volume. The coupling can be tracked recursively along increasing scales using the *step scaling function*, which describes the change of the coupling under discrete changes of the scale. The step scaling function at a single point can be determined by simulating lattice pairs with decreasing lattice spacing and extrapolating to the continuum. No large scale ratios occur within each lattice pair, and the extrapolation to the continuum can be done with relatively moderate lattice sizes.

This strategy can be used for any asymptotically free theory. First tests were made with the nonlinear $O(3)$ model in two dimensions [4]. Later it has been generalized to pure $SU(2)$ gauge theory [5] and pure $SU(3)$ gauge theory [6] within the framework of the ALPHA collaboration. While in principle, there is considerable freedom in the precise choice of boundary conditions and definition of the coupling, for non-abelian gauge theories a special choice has solidified where the theory is defined on a cylinder with Dirichlet boundary conditions in the time direction. The fields at the lower and upper boundary induce a classical background field on the cylinder. A coupling can then be defined as the response of the system towards changes of the background field. The partition function can be quantum mechanically interpreted as the propagation kernel for going from the initial configuration at the lower boundary to the final configuration at the upper boundary. For this reason, this renormalization scheme is also dubbed the *Schrödinger functional scheme*.

In the context of QCD, the ALPHA programme has been fully implemented in the $SU(3)$ pure gauge theory, which can also be understood as the quenched approximation to QCD. This includes several aspects. At low energy, a reference scale is set that allows to express quantities like the Λ parameter in physical units. The Sommer scale r_0 [7, 8] is derived from the effective potential between static quarks. It can be determined experimentally by measurements of charmonium and bottomonium bound states. At

intermediate scales, pairs of lattices with decreasing lattice spacing were simulated and the step scaling function was then extrapolated to the continuum. Finally, when a scale is reached where perturbative behavior can be shown to set in, one applies perturbation theory to compute the Λ parameter in the Schrödinger functional scheme. A 2-loop calculation is required to confirm that no uncontrolled error is introduced in this step [9].

In the quenched approximation, the fermion determinant in the partition function is formally set to a constant. Physically, this corresponds to freezing the dynamics of quarks and neglecting their vacuum polarization effects. The sole motivation for this approximation is the radically reduced cost of computer simulations. While this model has turned out to yield surprisingly good results in many areas like hadron spectroscopy and matrix elements, the quenched approximation is of course not a substitute for full QCD. In particular, certain phenomena like string breaking or the $\eta - \eta'$ mass splitting are absent. Quantitatively, systematic deviations from experiment up to 10% are seen in the hadron spectrum [10].

Meanwhile, the ground has been laid out for the extension of the ALPHA programme to a pair of massless dynamical fermions. First results for the running coupling have been published in [11]. The main practical problem is the high cost of numerical simulations with dynamical fermions. Therefore, the range of simulated lattices does not yet reach very close to the continuum limit, and simulations on larger lattices are desirable. Also, an element still missing in the programme is the determination of a physical scale as a substitute for r_0 .

As the efficiency of Monte Carlo algorithms for dynamical fermions decreases with a high inverse power of the lattice spacing, it is not possible to perform simulations arbitrarily near to the continuum limit. In order to extrapolate results to vanishing lattice spacing, one wants to accelerate the convergence to the continuum as much as possible. Different solutions for this problem have been invented. The aim of the *perfect action* approach is to apply theories that yield continuum results already at finite lattice spacing [12]. The theoretical background for this method is Wilson's renormalization group. In a computer implementation, approximations have to be made to parametrize the action. Another problem is that the fixed point actions used today are not "quantum perfect", i.e. they yield continuum results only at vanishing value of the gauge coupling.

A complementary approach is the Symanzik programme. The idea here is to cancel lattice artefacts order by order in the lattice spacing a . This is done by adding certain – in the language of the renormalization group irrelevant – terms to the action and to operators and adjusting their coefficients appropriately. In practice, the full non-perturbative determination

of improvement coefficients is a big task. Therefore currently only $O(a)$ improvement is feasible, i.e. observables converge to the continuum limit with $O(a^2)$ artefacts.

Symanzik's improvement programme is based on statements that are valid for asymptotically small lattice spacings and are derived from perturbation theory. In particular, one does not know when higher order terms in a become negligible and the asymptotic behavior sets in [13].

In this thesis, we are going to study the approach to the continuum limit in the Schrödinger functional and test whether perturbative expectations about lattice artefacts hold. The aim of this investigation is to put the study of the running coupling for dynamical fermions on a firmer ground and justify the used continuum extrapolation and its error estimate. Since full QCD is so notoriously costly to simulate, we study the step scaling function in a different theory which also goes beyond the quenched approximation. By setting the number of quark flavors to $N_f = -2$, we obtain a Yang-Mills theory coupled to a bosonic spinor field. This theory, also known as the *bermion model*, has a local interaction in terms of Bose fields and is therefore much cheaper to simulate.

Another topic which we treat with the bermion model is the massive step scaling function. As soon as one wants to study QCD with quarks that have masses, one has to cope with additional lattice artefacts which are especially sizable when the mass becomes comparable to the inverse lattice spacing. An attractive possibility for saving the evaluation of the running coupling from this danger is to make use of the decoupling of heavy quarks. Since according to the Appelquist-Carazzone theorem, quarks with masses very large compared to some scale do not contribute to the physics at this scale, one may drop these quarks from the theory in a certain energy regime. Depending on the mass cutoff where one matches the theories with and without a heavy quark, one introduces a systematic error, which has previously been estimated in perturbation theory [14]. Here we study the dependence of the step scaling function in the bermion model on the mass, which should be an indication whether the decoupling follows perturbative expectations.

Chapter 2

Theory

In this chapter, we are going to introduce the basic concepts used in this thesis, and define the model used in later chapters. It goes without saying that we cannot discuss in depth all issues involved. For an introduction into gauge theories and perturbative renormalization we refer to [15]. The framework and terminology of the lattice regularization of quantum field theories is laid out in [16]. Non-perturbative renormalization and $O(a)$ improvement are discussed in [17] and [18]. These references also review the Schrödinger functional approach.

2.1 Perturbative renormalization: a brief reminder

In perturbation theory, where transition amplitudes and other quantities are expressed by Feynman graphs, the need for renormalization arises in loop diagrams, which are divergent when evaluated in a naive way. The first step in the renormalization procedure is to construct a Lagrangian from the bare one \mathcal{L}_B and additional counterterms,

$$\mathcal{L}_B \rightarrow \mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_B + \delta\mathcal{L}. \quad (2.1)$$

The bare Lagrangian develops the usual divergences, and $\delta\mathcal{L}$ creates additional diagrams. Now one has to *regularize* the divergent diagrams. A suitable method for gauge theories is the *dimensional regularization* [19], in which one continues the theory analytically in $D = 4 - 2\epsilon$ dimensions. Its advantage e.g. over momentum cutoffs is that gauge invariance is manifestly retained (for parity conserving theories). Divergences then emerge as poles in the limit $\epsilon = 0$, while convergent integrals are unaffected.

The poles can be canceled by choosing the coefficients of the counterterms appropriately. This choice is not unambiguous, and possible choices differ by finite amounts. The precise set of rules for fixing the coefficients is called a *renormalization scheme*.

In the minimal subtraction (MS) scheme [20], only the poles are subtracted. It is a member of a larger class of schemes which are mass independent, i.e. the renormalization condition does not depend on the renormalized masses. A very popular member of this class is the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme [21], in which further terms are subtracted that frequently appear in Feynman graphs. An example for a mass dependent scheme is the momentum (MOM) scheme [22], which is defined by imposing boundary conditions on the Green's functions in momentum space.

In principle, it can happen for an arbitrary Lagrangian that different kinds of divergences appear in every order of perturbation theory. An infinite number of coefficients would have to be fixed then. Such a theory would have little predictive power¹. A theory is called *renormalizable* if only a finite number of counterterms is necessary. In such a theory, the renormalized parameters can be adjusted to take their physical values. Once this has been done, one can make predictions.

Fortunately, with gauge theories we are in a comfortable position. In his famous articles [24, 25], 't Hooft has proven the renormalizability of unbroken and broken non-abelian gauge theories. The renormalized theory is gauge invariant, and the counterterm structure is quite simple in that all necessary terms are already present in the bare Lagrangian.

2.2 Running coupling and masses

In the course of dimensional regularization, one has to express dimensionful quantities by some scale μ not present in the Lagrangian itself. Similarly, other regularization schemes introduce some cutoff scale in order to render integrals finite. Consequently, renormalized parameters unavoidably acquire a dependency on a *renormalization scale*.

In the QCD Lagrangian, the bare coupling g_0 and the bare quark masses $m_{0,i}$ for the flavors $i = 1 \dots N_f$ are the bare parameters of the theory. These parameters are fixed in a renormalization scheme such that a corresponding number of physical observables take their prescribed values. After this renormalization, there is no freedom any more, and other renormalized parameters can be predicted.

¹It might still serve as a low-energy effective theory. The Fermi theory of weak interactions is an example for this [23].

A natural question to ask is “How do the renormalized Green’s functions change with the renormalization scale when the bare ones are held fixed?” This question is answered by the renormalization group equations. In the following, we assume a mass-independent scheme, i.e. a scheme where the definition of the renormalized parameters does not depend on the quark masses. In that case, the renormalization group equations assume a simpler form.

For the coupling, one is led to a description of the scale dependence by the Callan-Symanzik β -function,

$$\mu \frac{\partial g_{\text{R}}}{\partial \mu} = \beta(g_{\text{R}}). \quad (2.2)$$

The β -function has an asymptotic expansion

$$\beta(g_{\text{R}}) \stackrel{g_{\text{R}} \rightarrow 0}{\simeq} -g_{\text{R}}^3 (b_0 + b_1 g_{\text{R}}^2 + b_2 g_{\text{R}}^4 + \dots), \quad (2.3)$$

where the first two coefficients are universal,

$$\begin{aligned} b_0 &= \frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} \left(11 - \frac{2}{3} N_{\text{f}} \right) \\ b_1 &= \frac{1}{(4\pi)^2} \left(102 - \frac{38}{3} N_{\text{f}} \right), \end{aligned} \quad (2.4)$$

and the higher order coefficients depend on the scheme. For $N_{\text{f}} \leq 16$, the expansion of the β -function obviously begins with a negative term, i.e. in the asymptotic high energy regime, the coupling decreases logarithmically with increasing energy. This property is known as *asymptotic freedom*. It reflects the observation that at high energies, quarks behave like free particles.

In a way similar to the coupling, the scale dependence of the renormalized masses is described by the equations

$$\mu \frac{\partial m_{\text{R},i}}{\partial \mu} = \tau(g_{\text{R}}) m_{\text{R},i}, \quad i = 1 \dots N_{\text{f}}, \quad (2.5)$$

where the τ -function has an expansion

$$\tau(g_{\text{R}}) = -g_{\text{R}}^2 (d_0 + d_1 g_{\text{R}}^2 + d_2 g_{\text{R}}^4 + \dots) \quad (2.6)$$

with a universal coefficient

$$d_0 = \frac{8}{(4\pi)^2}. \quad (2.7)$$

In the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme, the β - and τ -functions are known up to 4-loop in perturbation theory [26, 27].

The asymptotic solutions of the renormalization group equations are

$$\begin{aligned}
g_{\text{R}}^2(\mu) &\stackrel{\mu \rightarrow \infty}{=} \frac{1}{2b_0 \log(\mu/\Lambda)} \\
m_{\text{R},i}(\mu) &\stackrel{\mu \rightarrow \infty}{=} \frac{M_i}{[\log(\mu/\Lambda)]^{d_0/2b_0}}.
\end{aligned}
\tag{2.8}$$

The integration constants Λ and M_i can be regarded as the fundamental parameters of QCD. This means, once these parameters are known, they uniquely fix all running parameters at all scales.

The Λ parameter depends on the renormalization scheme, but can be exactly transformed between different schemes through the 1-loop coefficient relating the couplings in those schemes. The M_i are scheme independent, and are therefore also called renormalization group invariant quark masses.

In order to obtain the fundamental parameters of QCD from the renormalized parameters at a finite scale, one has to integrate the renormalization group equations. This connection is given by the exact relations

$$\begin{aligned}
\Lambda &= \mu (b_0 g_{\text{R}}(\mu)^2)^{-b_1/2b_0^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2b_0 g_{\text{R}}(\mu)^2}\right) \times \\
&\quad \times \exp\left\{-\int_0^{g_{\text{R}}(\mu)} dx \left[\frac{1}{\beta(x)} + \frac{1}{b_0 x^3} - \frac{b_1}{b_0^2 x}\right]\right\} \\
M_i &= m_{\text{R},i} (2b_0 g_{\text{R}}(\mu)^2)^{-d_0/2b_0} \times \\
&\quad \times \exp\left\{-\int_0^{g_{\text{R}}(\mu)} dx \left[\frac{\tau(x)}{\beta(x)} - \frac{d_0}{b_0 x}\right]\right\}.
\end{aligned}
\tag{2.9}$$

In practice, one inserts the β - and τ -functions to a finite order of perturbation theory here, provided that the perturbative behavior has already set in at the scale μ .

2.3 Non-perturbative renormalization

As described in the introduction, an important aim is to compute the running coupling at all scales. A natural way to achieve this is to start with a non-perturbative scheme that is based on a lattice regularized theory. In order to eliminate the bare parameters of the theory in favor of physical ones at low energies, one uses this theory to compute hadronic observables like the pion decay constant F_π and hadron masses. Then the coupling is evolved to high energies and compared to experiments via jet cross sections etc. The connection between low-energy hadronic schemes and perturbative energies

however involves scales very different from each other, thus imposing heavy demands on lattice simulations: on the one hand, one must choose the lattice cutoff a^{-1} away from the energy scale μ , in order to avoid large lattice artefacts hampering an extrapolation to the continuum. The limiting quantity here is the energy scale at which the connection to perturbation theory is made, which should be e.g. around 10 GeV. On the other hand, the system size L should be large enough to avoid finite size effects. The relevant energy scale for this is the confinement scale at about 0.4 GeV in the quenched approximation, or even the pion mass m_π at about 0.14 GeV. Together, these constraints imply simulations on lattices with linear extent $L/a \gg 70$, which is difficult to achieve in practice.

2.4 Strategy

The Schrödinger functional scheme uses a trick to overcome the problem of widely disparate scales: instead of regarding finite size effects as a problem that is distorting physical states of the finite system compared to the infinite system, one considers the finite volume behavior of the system as origin of interesting observables. This is analogous – though not equivalent – with the computation of critical exponents in statistical systems, which can be extracted from the change of observables with the box size.

In a finite-volume renormalization scheme, the running of the coupling with the energy scale is identified with the running of a coupling $\bar{g}(L)$ with the system size $L = \mu^{-1}$. One starts at a low energy scale L_{\max} which is fixed by requiring that the coupling takes some value,

$$\bar{g}(L_{\max}) = \text{prescribed value.} \quad (2.10)$$

The physical value of L_{\max} has to be connected to a physical scale by computing for instance F_π in units of L_{\max}^{-1} .

Then this coupling is traced non-perturbatively to energies high enough for perturbation theory to apply. Finally, one can use the relations (2.9) to calculate the Λ parameter. This can be transformed to the Λ parameter in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme with a 1-loop order calculation.

The last step in this technique actually corresponds to a transformation of a small volume coupling to the infinite volume coupling $\alpha_{\overline{\text{MS}}}$. Since these couplings are in one-to-one correspondence, this matching is entirely justified if they are just small enough for perturbation theory to be applied.

The important point to notice here is that although finite-volume quantities have been used in the scale evolution of the coupling, there is no reference to the volume in the final result anymore. This is achieved by the standard

assumption that QCD physics is described by the same Lagrangian regardless of the context in which it is used. In particular, the finite size effects of the theory are predicted by the Lagrangian, as is for example the energy dependence of scattering processes.

Now we can introduce an additional concept used to evolve the running coupling. As introduced before, this evolution is given by the renormalization group equation (2.2). Thus, the coupling at a scale $2L$ is related to the coupling at L through a unique function, called the *step scaling function*[4],

$$\bar{g}^2(2L) = \sigma(\bar{g}^2(L)). \quad (2.11)$$

With the help of this function, the coupling can be computed recursively at scales $2^{-k}L_{\max}$ beginning at a starting point L_{\max} .

The step scaling function can be computed with the help of Monte Carlo simulations. First, one simulates a lattice with L/a lattice sites in each direction and tunes the coupling to the desired value. Then one simulates a lattice with twice the extent, $2L/a$, using the same bare parameters. The coupling obtained from this simulation is an approximation $\Sigma(u, a/L)$ of the step scaling function $\sigma(u)$. We expect this to have $O(a)$ lattice artefacts. With the $O(a)$ improvement programme discussed later, we assume (apart from logarithmic corrections),

$$\sigma(u) = \Sigma(u, a/L) + O(a^2). \quad (2.12)$$

Therefore, by computing $\Sigma(u, a/L)$ for a number of lattice sizes L/a , one can obtain $\sigma(u)$ by extrapolating to the continuum.

A notable property of this recursive scheme is that by identifying $\mu = L^{-1}$, the constraints on the required lattice sizes are significantly relaxed. Instead of

$$L \gg m_\pi^{-1} \gg \mu^{-1} \gg a, \quad (2.13)$$

we only need

$$L \gg a \quad (2.14)$$

for an extrapolation to the continuum limit.

The step scaling function can be understood as an integrated version of the β -function for finite changes of the scale. The couplings at L and $2L$ are related through an integral,

$$\log 2 = \int_L^{2L} \frac{dL'}{L'} = - \int_{\bar{g}(L)}^{\bar{g}(2L)} \frac{dx}{\beta(x)} \quad (2.15)$$

such that the perturbative expansion of σ can be derived from the expansion (2.3) of the β -function,

$$\sigma(u) = u + s_0 u^2 + s_1 u^3 + s_2 u^4 + O(u^4), \quad (2.16)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
s_0 &= 2 \log 2 b_0 \\
s_1 &= (2 \log 2)^2 b_0^2 + 2 \log 2 b_1 \\
s_2 &= (2 \log 2)^3 b_0^3 + (2 \log 2)^2 \frac{5}{2} b_0 b_1 + 2 \log 2 b_2.
\end{aligned} \tag{2.17}$$

In addition to the truncated n -loop expansion of the step scaling function

$$\sigma^{n\text{-loop}}(u) = u + \sum_{k=1}^n s_{k-1} u^{k+1}, \tag{2.18}$$

we define another perturbative step scaling function as the solution of (2.15) with a truncated β -function,

$$\log 2 = \int_{\sqrt{u}}^{\sqrt{\hat{\sigma}^{n\text{-loop}}(u)}} dx \left(\sum_{k=1}^n b_{k-1} x^{k+2} \right)^{-1}. \tag{2.19}$$

The functions $\sigma^{n\text{-loop}}(u)$ and $\hat{\sigma}^{n\text{-loop}}(u)$ differ by terms of order u^{n+2} from each other and from the exact function $\sigma(u)$. In practice, $\hat{\sigma}^{n\text{-loop}}$ seems to be a better approximation for the exact function σ . The difference between both variants may be used as an estimate of the neglected higher order terms.

2.5 Improvement

While a finite size technique nicely solves the problem of disparate scales, it still inherits a problem from QCD that makes the precise measurement of observables difficult. In order to determine continuum quantities, one must compute them for several values of the lattice spacing a and then extrapolate to the continuum limit $a \rightarrow 0$. Unfortunately, this is also the limit in which Monte Carlo algorithms suffer from critical slowing down, i.e. the cost of conventional algorithms grows with a rate proportional to at least a^{-5} in the quenched approximation and typically more than a^{-7} with dynamical fermions. As a consequence, one can not get very close to the continuum limit with currently available hardware, and it is not obvious that measurements are already in a range in which e.g. an asymptotic behavior linear in a can be assumed for an extrapolation.

Symanzik found that lattice theories are equivalent to effective continuum theories that make the cutoff dependence explicit, order by order in a . This means, the theory corresponds to an action

$$S_{\text{eff}} = \int d^4x \{ \mathcal{L}_0(x) + a \mathcal{L}_1(x) + \dots \} \tag{2.20}$$

and effective lattice fields are

$$\phi_{\text{eff}} = \phi_0 + a\phi_1 + \dots \quad (2.21)$$

Here, \mathcal{L}_0 stands for the naive continuum Lagrangian (in our case, the QCD one) and the higher \mathcal{L}_k are linear combinations of local operators also called *counterterms*. The set of possible operators in each order is restricted by the demand that they must have dimension $4 + k$ and be invariant under the symmetries of the lattice theory. The *improvement coefficients* of these terms are functions of the bare couplings and are not known a priori.

Following this observation, Symanzik suggested to use improved lattice actions and improved local fields in order to reduce the size of lattice artefacts and accelerate the rate of convergence to the continuum [28, 29]. Meanwhile, it is common in the ALPHA collaboration to use $O(a)$ improvement in QCD, such that cutoff effects linear in a are removed in all on-shell quantities. In this context, strategies have been developed to compute improvement coefficients non-perturbatively [30]. Several improvement coefficients have been determined perturbatively [31, 32] and non-perturbatively [33, 34, 35, 36].

For lattices without boundaries, the only necessary counterterm is the so-called *clover*, or Sheikoleslami-Wohlert term [37]. The boundary conditions used in the Schrödinger functional approach are not translational invariant. Therefore, additional counterterms have to be added at the boundary. A detailed analysis can be found in [38].

In the following sections, we shall assume degenerate quark masses and denote the bare mass with m_0 . In the lattice regularization, chiral symmetry is explicitly broken. As a consequence, the quark mass gets an additive renormalization depending on the lattice spacing. One defines the critical mass $m_c(g_0)$ as the bare mass for which the renormalized mass vanishes. A subtracted mass is then defined as $m_q = m_0 - m_c$. Furthermore, in the improved theory, a rescaling of the bare parameters by factors $1 + O(am_q)$ is necessary [38]. The general connection between bare and renormalized parameters is then given by

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{g}_0^2 &= g_0^2(1 + b_g am_q) & g_R^2 &= \tilde{g}_0^2 Z_g(\tilde{g}_0^2, a\mu) \\ \tilde{m}_q &= m_q(1 + b_m am_q) & m_R &= \tilde{m}_q Z_m(\tilde{g}_0^2, a\mu). \end{aligned} \quad (2.22)$$

The coefficients b_g, b_m are again improvement coefficients which are independent of the renormalization scheme.

2.6 Model

In the following, we will describe the model and the imposed boundary conditions. For undefined notations, we refer to appendix A. We set up our theory on a four-dimensional hypercubic lattice with lattice spacing a and extent T in the time direction and L in the space directions. Normally, we set $T = L$. On the links between neighboring sites x and $x + a\hat{\mu}$ (where $\hat{\mu}$ denotes the unit vector in direction $\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$) lives a gauge field that is represented by SU(3) link variables $U(x, \mu)$. Furthermore, on the lattice sites reside N_f flavors of mass degenerate fermionic quark fields $\psi_f(x)$ which also carry Dirac and color indices. We do not specify N_f at the moment. Later we will consider the theory in which N_f is continued to negative numbers. This has to be done after the integration over the quark fields has been performed.

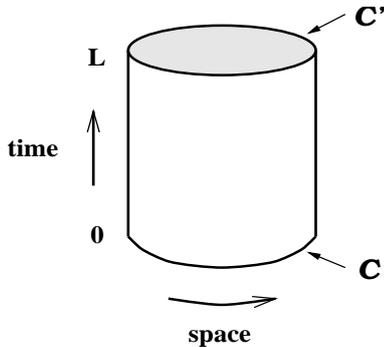


Figure 2.1: *Schrödinger functional boundary conditions.*

We think of the lattice as being wrapped up on a cylinder, i.e. for the gauge fields we impose periodic boundary conditions in the space directions, while the quark fields obey periodic boundary conditions up to a phase factor $\exp(i\theta)$ [14].

The gauge field at the boundary takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} U(x, k)|_{x_0=0} &= \exp(aC) \\ U(x, k)|_{x_0=T} &= \exp(aC'). \end{aligned} \quad (2.23)$$

This still leaves open a wide range of possibilities. First, one imposes the restriction that the matrices C_k and C'_k are diagonal and independent of k ,

$$C_k = \frac{i}{L} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \phi_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \phi_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad C'_k = \frac{i}{L} \begin{pmatrix} \phi'_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \phi'_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \phi'_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (2.24)$$

with real ϕ_k and $\phi_1 + \phi_2 + \phi_3 = \phi'_1 + \phi'_2 + \phi'_3 = 0$ such that the corresponding link variables are in $SU(3)$.

We choose the boundary fields as a line through the point ‘‘A’’ as discussed in [6], parametrized by a variable η ,

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_1 &= \eta - \frac{\pi}{3} & \phi'_1 &= -\eta - \pi \\ \phi_2 &= -\frac{1}{2}\eta & \phi'_2 &= \frac{1}{2}\eta + \frac{\pi}{3} \\ \phi_3 &= -\frac{1}{2}\eta + \frac{\pi}{3} & \phi'_3 &= \frac{1}{2}\eta + \frac{2\pi}{3}.\end{aligned}\tag{2.25}$$

The boundary fields on the opposite sides of the cylinder are chosen such that the partition function is invariant under a combination of a time reflection, charge conjugation and a central conjugation.

A solution of the field equations for the link variables then is $V(x, \mu) = \exp(aB_\mu(x_0))$ with

$$B_0(x_0) = 0, \quad B_k(x) = [x_0 C'_k + (T - x_0)C_k]/T.\tag{2.26}$$

In [5], it has been shown that for $SU(3)$ and for the lattice sizes of interest, this solution is the unique minimum of the action introduced in the next section, in an environment of $\eta = 0$. Hence, we use the notion that the boundary field enforces a constant color-electric (classical) background field.

The boundary conditions for the quark fields are discussed in detail in [31]. The boundary quark fields serve as sources for fermionic correlation functions. They are set to zero after differentiation,

$$\begin{aligned}P_+\psi(x)|_{x_0=0} &= \rho(\mathbf{x}), & P_-\psi(x)|_{x_0=T} &= \rho'(\mathbf{x}) \\ \bar{\psi}(x)P_-|_{x_0=0} &= \bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x}), & \bar{\psi}(x)P_+|_{x_0=T} &= \bar{\rho}'(\mathbf{x}).\end{aligned}\tag{2.27}$$

Here we have used the projectors $P_\pm = \frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \gamma_0)$. For notational reasons – namely in order to avoid referencing undefined fields in the Dirac operator –, we furthermore extend the time direction beyond the boundaries and set

$$\psi(x) = \bar{\psi}(x) = 0 \quad \text{for } x_0 < 0 \text{ and } x_0 > T\tag{2.28}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}P_+\psi(x)|_{x_0=T} &= P_-\psi(x)|_{x_0=0} = 0 \\ \bar{\psi}(x)P_-|_{x_0=T} &= \bar{\psi}(x)P_+|_{x_0=0} = 0.\end{aligned}\tag{2.29}$$

Analogously, all link variables outside the cylinder are set to the unity matrix.

The Schrödinger functional is the partition function of this system and is defined as a path integral over all gauge and quark fields that fulfill the given boundary conditions,

$$\mathcal{Z}[C', C] = e^{-\Gamma} = \int D[U]D[\bar{\psi}]D[\psi]e^{-S[U, \bar{\psi}, \psi]}. \quad (2.30)$$

$D[U]$ denotes the measure $\prod_{x,\mu} dU(x, \mu)$, and $D[\psi]$ stands for the product over sites, Dirac and color indices $\prod_{xDc} d\psi_{Dc}(x)$. The expectation value of any product of fields is now given by

$$\langle \mathcal{O} \rangle = \left\{ \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}} \int D[U]D[\bar{\psi}]D[\psi] \mathcal{O} e^{-S[U, \bar{\psi}, \psi]} \right\}_{\rho=\rho'=\bar{\rho}=\bar{\rho}'=0}. \quad (2.31)$$

Note that possible choices for \mathcal{O} include the variational derivatives

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta(\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x})}, & \bar{\zeta}(\mathbf{x}) &= -\frac{\delta}{\delta \rho(\mathbf{x})} \\ \zeta'(\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{\rho}'(\mathbf{x})}, & \bar{\zeta}'(\mathbf{x}) &= -\frac{\delta}{\delta \rho'(\mathbf{x})}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.32)$$

These act on the Boltzmannian and have the effect of inserting $\psi(x)$ terms near the boundary.

2.7 Coupling

We can interpret the effective action as a function of the background field,

$$\Gamma[B] = -\log \mathcal{Z}[C', C] \quad (2.33)$$

The background field can be varied by changing the parameter η . We define a derivative for Γ as the response to a change of the background field,

$$\Gamma'[B] = \frac{\partial \Gamma[B]}{\partial \eta}. \quad (2.34)$$

It has a perturbative expansion

$$\Gamma'[B] = \frac{1}{g_0^2} \Gamma'_0 + \Gamma_1 + g_0^2 \Gamma_2 + \dots \quad (2.35)$$

The renormalization properties of the Schrödinger functional have been studied in perturbation theory. Symanzik has proven the renormalizability of the ϕ^4 theory with Schrödinger functional boundary conditions to all orders

of perturbation theory [39]. For QCD, the renormalizability has been established up to 2-loop for $N_f = 0$ [9] and up to 1-loop for dynamical fermions [40].

The important result is that the effective action is finite after the bare coupling has been eliminated in favor of a renormalized coupling, and the fermionic boundary fields have been rescaled with a renormalization factor. We infer that Γ' is itself suitable as a renormalized coupling. It is normalized such that its perturbative expansion begins with the bare coupling at tree level. The Schrödinger functional coupling \bar{g} is then defined as

$$\bar{g}^2 = \left. \frac{\Gamma'_0[B]}{\Gamma'[B]} \right|_{\eta=0}. \quad (2.36)$$

The normalization factor is calculated as

$$\Gamma'_0[B] = 12(L/a)^2[\sin(\gamma) + \sin(2\gamma)], \quad \gamma = \frac{1}{3}\pi(a/L)^2. \quad (2.37)$$

It is clear that \bar{g}^2 is an inherently non-perturbative definition of the coupling, as desired. Its only dependence on an external scale is on the system size L . We can therefore speak of it as a coupling running with L . The QCD coupling $\alpha_s(\mu)$ at the scale μ is related to it by

$$\alpha_s(\mu) = \frac{\bar{g}^2(L = 1/\mu)}{4\pi}. \quad (2.38)$$

On the practical side, the coupling defined in this way can easily be computed in Monte Carlo simulations as the expectation value

$$\Gamma'[B] = \left\langle \frac{\partial S}{\partial \eta} \right\rangle. \quad (2.39)$$

In order to completely define the scheme for $N_f \neq 0$, one complements this definition with the condition that the coupling is taken at vanishing current mass m_1 . The definition of the current mass will be introduced in section 2.9. This condition can safely be imposed because the Schrödinger functional is known to have a mass gap of order $1/T$ in perturbation theory. The step scaling function is then defined as

$$\Sigma(u, a/L) = \bar{g}^2(2L) \Big|_{u=\bar{g}^2(L), m_1(a/L)=0}. \quad (2.40)$$

2.8 Action

The action is given as the sum $S[U, \bar{\psi}, \psi] = S_g[U] + S_f[U, \bar{\psi}, \psi]$ of a pure gauge term and the fermionic action. For the pure gauge part, we use the Wilson plaquette action modified by $O(a)$ improvement,

$$S_g[U] = \frac{1}{g_0^2} \sum_p w(p) \text{Tr}(1 - U(p)) \quad (2.41)$$

Here, $U(p)$ denotes the parallel transporter around a plaquette p ,

$$U(p) = U(x, \mu)U(x + a\hat{\mu}, \nu)U^\dagger(x + a\hat{\nu}, \mu)U^\dagger(x, \nu) \quad (2.42)$$

and the sum extends to all oriented (i.e. left-handed and right-handed) plaquettes. In this thesis, we will alternatively express the bare coupling by $\beta = 6/g_0^2$.

On a system without boundaries, the Wilson action already reaches the continuum limit with $O(a^2)$ artifacts and the weights are $w(p) = 1$ for all plaquettes. In our Schrödinger functional setup however, $O(a)$ improvement is achieved by adding a counterterm at the boundaries. The addition of this term is equivalent to a modification of the weights such that

$$w(p) = c_t(g_0) \quad (2.43)$$

if p is a time-like plaquette attached to a boundary plane. In all other cases $w(p) = 1$. The improvement coefficient c_t is only known perturbatively. Its 2-loop value depends quadratically on N_f and has the form [9]

$$c_t(g_0) = 1 + (-0.08900(5) + 0.0191410(1)N_f)g_0^2 + (-0.0294(3) + 0.002(1)N_f + 0.0000(1)N_f^2)g_0^4 + O(g_0^6). \quad (2.44)$$

For the quark fields, we start with a fermionic action of the form

$$S_f[U, \bar{\psi}, \psi] = a^4 \sum_x \bar{\psi}(x)(D + m_0)\psi(x) \quad (2.45)$$

with the Wilson-Dirac operator

$$D = \frac{1}{2} \sum_\mu [\gamma_\mu(\nabla_\mu^* + \nabla_\mu) - a\nabla_\mu^* \nabla_\mu]. \quad (2.46)$$

The derivative operators ∇_μ are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_\mu \psi(x) &= \frac{1}{a} [\lambda_\mu U(x, \mu) \psi(x + a\hat{\mu}) - \psi(x)], \\ \nabla_\mu^* \psi(x) &= \frac{1}{a} [\psi(x) - \lambda_\mu^* U^\dagger(x - a\hat{\mu}, \mu) \psi(x - a\hat{\mu})]. \end{aligned} \quad (2.47)$$

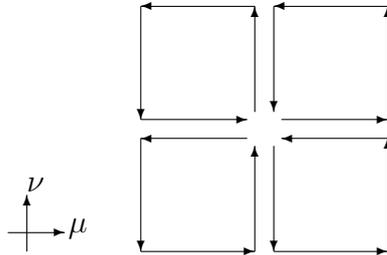


Figure 2.2: Graphical representation of the products of links contributing to the clover term. The point in the middle is x .

As a difference to the conventionally used operators, they include phase factors

$$\lambda_\mu = e^{i\theta_\mu a/L}, \quad \theta_0 = 0, \quad -\pi < \theta_k < \pi. \quad (2.48)$$

As can be easily seen, these factors are equivalent to boundary conditions

$$\psi(x + L\hat{k}) = e^{i\theta_k} \psi(x), \quad \bar{\psi}(x + L\hat{k}) = \bar{\psi}(x) e^{-i\theta_k} \quad (2.49)$$

in the space directions. However, in an implementation on the computer, it is simpler to “distribute” this phase on the difference operators and impose strict periodic boundary conditions on the fields.

In [14], it is argued that the choice of θ_k should be guided by practical considerations. The lowest eigenvalue of the Dirac operator on the classical background field varies with θ_k . In a Monte Carlo simulation, the square of the Dirac operator is inverted frequently, so that a small condition number can improve its performance. An optimal condition number has been found around the value $\theta_k = \theta = \pi/5$ which we use here.

In the quark sector, $O(a)$ improvement can be implemented by adding certain terms to the Dirac operator. One is a bulk term

$$\delta D_{\text{v}} \psi(x) = c_{\text{sw}} \frac{i}{4} a \sigma_{\mu\nu} \hat{F}_{\mu\nu}(x) \psi(x), \quad (2.50)$$

also known as Sheikoleslami-Wohlert term. In this term,

$$\hat{F}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{8a^2} (Q_{\mu\nu} - Q_{\nu\mu}) \quad (2.51)$$

is the lattice definition of the field strength tensor. The term $Q_{\mu\nu}$ is visualized in figure 2.2 and is explicitly given by

$$Q_{\mu\nu}(x) = \left\{ U(x, \mu) U(x + a\hat{\mu}, \nu) U^\dagger(x + a\hat{\nu}, \mu) U^\dagger(x, \nu) \right.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& +U(x, \nu)U^\dagger(x + a\hat{\nu} - a\hat{\mu}, \mu)U^\dagger(x - a\hat{\mu}, \nu)U(x - a\hat{\mu}, \mu) \\
& +U^\dagger(x - a\hat{\mu}, \mu)U^\dagger(x - a\hat{\nu} - a\hat{\mu}, \nu)U(x - a\hat{\nu} - a\hat{\mu}, \mu)U(x - a\hat{\nu}, \nu) \\
& +U^\dagger(x - a\hat{\nu}, \nu)U(x - a\hat{\nu}, \mu)U(x - a\hat{\nu} + a\hat{\mu}, \nu)U^\dagger(x, \mu) \}. \quad (2.52)
\end{aligned}$$

As with Schrödinger functional boundary conditions, we do not have translational invariance in the time direction, $O(a)$ improvement here requires an additional term

$$\begin{aligned}
\delta D_b \psi(x) = (\tilde{c}_t - 1) \frac{1}{a} \{ & \delta_{x_0, a} [\psi(x) - U^\dagger(x - a\hat{0})P_+ \psi(x - a\hat{0})] \\
& + \delta_{x_0, T-a} [\psi(x) - U(x, 0)P_- \psi(x + a\hat{0})] \}. \quad (2.53)
\end{aligned}$$

The coefficient \tilde{c}_t is known perturbatively [32],

$$\tilde{c}_t(g_0) = 1 - 0.01795(2)g_0^2 + O(g_0^4). \quad (2.54)$$

At this point we want to introduce some further notations. Sometimes it is useful to separate the integration of quark and gauge fields. We therefore write the expectation value above as

$$\langle \mathcal{O} \rangle = \langle [\mathcal{O}]_F \rangle_G. \quad (2.55)$$

Here, $\langle \dots \rangle_G$ denotes the gauge field average with respect to the distribution

$$\det(D + \delta D + m_0) \exp(-S_g[U]). \quad (2.56)$$

The fermionic expectation value $[\dots]_F$ can be represented by a generating functional. We refer to [31] for a detailed discussion and only list the relevant results here. The quark propagator $S(x, y)$ on a given gauge field is defined as the solution of

$$(D + \delta D + m_0)S(x, y) = a^{-4}\delta(x, y), \quad 0 < x_0 < T. \quad (2.57)$$

with appropriate boundary conditions. It fulfills

$$S^\dagger(x, y) = \gamma_5 S(y, x) \gamma_5. \quad (2.58)$$

Furthermore, one can define a propagator $H(x)$ “from the lower boundary to point x ” through

$$(D + \delta D + m_0)H(x) = a^{-1}\delta(x_0, a)\tilde{c}_t U^\dagger(x - a\hat{0}, 0)P_+. \quad (2.59)$$

Fermionic expectation values $[\dots]_{\text{F}}$ necessary for the computation of correlation functions can be expressed in terms of these propagators. The basic boundary-bulk 2-point functions are

$$\begin{aligned} a^3 \sum_{\mathbf{y}} [\psi(x) \bar{\zeta}(\mathbf{y})]_{\text{F}} &= \gamma_5 H(x) \gamma_5 \\ a^3 \sum_{\mathbf{y}} [\zeta(\mathbf{y}) \bar{\psi}(x)]_{\text{F}} &= H^\dagger(x). \end{aligned} \quad (2.60)$$

One proceeds similarly for the upper boundary.

2.9 Mass

For the definition of a quark mass, we use chiral symmetry to derive a relation between correlation functions, following [38]. In the continuum, the PCAC (partially conserved axial current) relation $\partial_\mu A_\mu^a = 2m P_\mu^a$ is a special case of the chiral Ward identity and connects the isovector axial current

$$A_\mu^a(x) = \bar{\psi}(x) \gamma_\mu \gamma_5 \frac{\tau^a}{2} \psi(x) \quad (2.61)$$

and its associated density

$$P^a(x) = \bar{\psi}(x) \gamma_5 \frac{\tau^a}{2} \psi(x). \quad (2.62)$$

The matrices $\tau_a, a = 1 \dots 3$ are the Pauli matrices and act on the flavor indices. On the lattice, we demand that the PCAC relation holds for renormalized quantities. This means, we use it to derive relations between correlation functions and require these to converge to the proper continuum limit. Since we are going to implement improvement in the action, we also have to use improved operators in order to get a mass definition that has only $\mathcal{O}(a^2)$ artefacts. An analysis [38] shows that this amounts to an addition of a term

$$\delta A_\mu^a = c_A \tilde{\partial}_\mu P_\mu^a. \quad (2.63)$$

to the axial current operator. Here, we use the notation $\tilde{\partial}_\mu = 1/2(\partial_\mu + \partial_\mu^*)$ for the average of forward and backward derivative on the lattice. c_A is a further improvement coefficient. It has been computed to 1-loop order in perturbation theory [31],

$$c_A(g_0) = -0.00756(1)g_0^2. \quad (2.64)$$

Non-perturbative data in the quenched approximation is also available [33], but not used in this work. With this improvement term, the renormalized

axial current and its associated pseudo-scalar density are given by the expressions

$$\begin{aligned}(A_{\text{R}})_{\mu}^a &= Z_{\text{A}}(1 + b_{\text{A}}am_{\text{q}}) \left[A_{\mu}^a + c_{\text{A}}a\tilde{\partial}_{\mu}P_{\mu}^a \right] \\ (P_{\text{R}})_{\mu}^a &= Z_{\text{P}}(1 + b_{\text{P}}am_{\text{q}})P_{\mu}^a.\end{aligned}\tag{2.65}$$

Here, Z_{A} and Z_{P} are renormalization factors. While the former depends only on the bare coupling, the latter is scale dependent.

We now define a renormalized mass through the relationship

$$\langle \tilde{\partial}_{\mu}(A_{\text{R}})_{\mu}^a(x)\mathcal{O} \rangle = 2\bar{m}\langle (P_{\text{R}})^a(x)\mathcal{O} \rangle + \mathcal{O}(a^2),\tag{2.66}$$

where \mathcal{O} may be any product of improved renormalized fields located at non-zero distance from x . Furthermore, we define a current quark mass by the relation

$$\langle \{ \tilde{\partial}_{\mu}A_{\mu}^a + c_{\text{A}}a\partial_{\mu}^*\partial_{\mu}P^a \} \mathcal{O}^a \rangle = 2m\langle P^a\mathcal{O}^a \rangle,\tag{2.67}$$

where \mathcal{O}^a is the operator

$$\mathcal{O}^a = a^6 \sum_{\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}} \bar{\zeta}(\mathbf{y})\gamma_5 \frac{\tau^a}{2} \zeta(\mathbf{z}).\tag{2.68}$$

We sum over all space-like \mathbf{x} and define bare correlation functions f_{A} and f_{P} as

$$\begin{aligned}f_{\text{A}}(x_0) &= -\frac{a^9}{L^3} \sum_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}} \frac{1}{3} \left\langle A_0^a(x)\bar{\zeta}(\mathbf{y})\gamma_5 \frac{\tau^a}{2} \zeta(\mathbf{z}) \right\rangle \\ f_{\text{P}}(x_0) &= -\frac{a^9}{L^3} \sum_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}} \frac{1}{3} \left\langle P^a(x)\bar{\zeta}(\mathbf{y})\gamma_5 \frac{\tau^a}{2} \zeta(\mathbf{z}) \right\rangle.\end{aligned}\tag{2.69}$$

Similar correlations functions can be defined at the upper boundary,

$$\begin{aligned}f_{\text{A}}(T - x_0) &= \frac{a^6}{L^3} \sum_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}} \frac{1}{3} \left\langle A_0^a(x)\bar{\zeta}'(\mathbf{y})\gamma_5 \frac{\tau^a}{2} \zeta'(\mathbf{z}) \right\rangle \\ f_{\text{P}}(T - x_0) &= \frac{a^6}{L^3} \sum_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}} \frac{1}{3} \left\langle P^a(x)\bar{\zeta}'(\mathbf{y})\gamma_5 \frac{\tau^a}{2} \zeta'(\mathbf{z}) \right\rangle.\end{aligned}\tag{2.70}$$

A time-dependent mass is then obtained as

$$m(x_0) = \frac{\tilde{\partial}_0 f_{\text{A}}(x_0) + ac_{\text{A}}\partial_0^*\partial_0 f_{\text{P}}(x_0)}{2f_{\text{P}}(x_0)}.\tag{2.71}$$

In practice, $m(x_0)$ turns out to have large lattice artifacts at the boundaries, with a plateau in the middle. Thus, choosing x_0 to be in the middle of the lattice is a good idea,

$$m_1 = \begin{cases} m\left(\frac{T}{2}\right) & \text{for even } T/a \\ \frac{1}{2}\left(m\left(\frac{T-a}{2}\right) + m\left(\frac{T+a}{2}\right)\right) & \text{for odd } T/a. \end{cases} \quad (2.72)$$

This is a quantity that can be actually measured in a simulation and plays the role of an unrenormalized mass. We also use the notion of a PCAC or *current mass*. In contrast, a computation of the renormalized mass requires knowledge about the renormalization factors. By combining (2.66) and (2.67), we find the relation

$$\bar{m} = \frac{Z_A(1 + b_A am_q)}{Z_P(1 + b_P am_q)} m_1 + O(a^2). \quad (2.73)$$

This relation also reflects the knowledge that the current quark mass has no additive renormalization. The definitions of the correlation functions still contain fermionic expectation values. For a practical measurement in a simulation, these have to be integrated out. From an application of Wick's theorem, (2.60) and (2.58), one gets

$$\begin{aligned} f_A(x_0) &= -\frac{a^9}{L^3} \sum_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}} \frac{1}{2} \left\langle \text{Tr} \left\{ [\zeta(\mathbf{z}) \bar{\psi}(x)]_F \gamma_0 \gamma_5 [\psi(x) \bar{\zeta}(\mathbf{y})]_F \gamma_5 \right\} \right\rangle_G \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{a^3}{L^3} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} \left\langle \text{Tr} \left\{ H^\dagger(x) \gamma_0 H(x) \right\} \right\rangle_G, \end{aligned} \quad (2.74)$$

where the trace is over Dirac and color indices and not over flavor. Analogously, the correlation function f_P can be written as

$$f_P(x_0) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{a^3}{L^3} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} \left\langle \text{Tr} \left\{ H^\dagger(x) H(x) \right\} \right\rangle_G. \quad (2.75)$$

With the help of the equations (2.74), (2.75) together with (2.59) one can compute f_A and f_P in a Monte Carlo simulation.

Chapter 3

Performance of algorithms in pure gauge theory

3.1 Motivation

From an algorithmic perspective, the simulation of gauge theories with fermions is fundamentally different from the simulation of pure gauge theories. A pure $SU(N)$ theory has a *local* action. Therefore, it is natural to apply local algorithms for its simulation, unless such algorithms fail in effectively decorrelating successive configurations. The Hybrid Overrelaxation algorithm (HOR) has become a classical method for this purpose.

On the other hand, an important property of QCD with fermions is the Pauli principle, which in the path integral formalism leads to a formulation with Grassmann variables. In practice, Grassmann variables cannot easily be handled numerically, and thus the common way of treating them is to integrate the path integral analytically and represent the resulting *fermion determinant* as a path integral over boson fields also called *pseudofermions*.

In terms of these boson fields, the action is highly non-local. This means that any algorithm consisting of a sweep over the lattice and updating links locally needs an amount of work at least quadratic in the lattice volume for a complete update of all link variables. In general, two groups of algorithms have been proposed to solve this problem. One is based on using molecular dynamics and includes the Hybrid Monte Carlo (HMC) method and variants thereof. The other is the MultiBoson (MB) method.

The MultiBoson algorithm has been proposed by Lüscher [41]. The basic idea is to transform the theory into a local bosonic theory. To this end, the fermion determinant – here for two degenerate flavors – is approximated by

a polynomial,

$$\det Q^2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [\det P_n(Q^2)]^{-1}, \quad Q = \gamma_5(D + m_0), \quad (3.1)$$

in an interval that covers the spectrum of the matrix Q^2 . Using the hermiticity property of Q , one can express the approximate fermionic action by

$$\det P_n(Q^2)^{-1} = \int D[\phi] D[\phi^\dagger] D[\phi] \exp\left\{-a^4 \sum_x \sum_{k=1}^n \left(|(Q - \mu_k)\phi_k(x)|^2 + \nu_k^2 |\phi_k(x)|^2\right)\right\}, \quad (3.2)$$

where the constants μ_k and ν_k are given by the roots of the polynomial. There are n boson fields ϕ_k which carry color indices. When Q is local, these fields may be updated with algorithms known from pure gauge theory. The deviation of the polynomial approximation from the exact measure may be corrected for instance by reweighting.

It has turned out that in practice, a sufficiently precise approximation requires large n , i.e. a large number of boson fields. This seems to compensate the advantage of having to simulate only a local action. As an additional disadvantage, it is difficult to simulate the action (3.2) when the fermion matrix includes a clover term, because in that case the matrix $(Q - \mu_k)^2$ contains terms beyond the hypercube around the lattice site. A review of the MultiBoson technique can be found in [42].

The standard algorithm for the simulation of a pair of dynamical fermions is the Hybrid Monte Carlo algorithm [43]. It generates new configurations by computing discretized molecular dynamics trajectories. An acceptance step makes this algorithm exact. Hybrid Monte Carlo is not applicable to either odd flavor simulations with Wilson fermions or simulations with ($N_f = 4$) staggered fermions. In those cases, it is possible to apply e.g. the R algorithm [44], which does not include an acceptance step. It therefore has systematic errors dependent on the step size, and one has to extrapolate to zero step size in order to get reliable results.

It is clear from the preceding discussion that the development of the Hybrid Monte Carlo and other modern algorithms is mainly motivated by the wish to simulate dynamical fermions efficiently. Since the characteristics of these theories are very different from pure gauge theory, one cannot transfer any experience about the relative merits of different algorithms from dynamical fermions to pure gauge theory, and vice versa. In this part of our work, we first compare different algorithms in pure gauge theory. This gives results about the overhead of HMC compared to HOR before dynamical quarks are included.

3.2 Hybrid Overrelaxation

A standard algorithm for the simulation of pure gauge theory is a combination of overrelaxation and heatbath steps. Both are local updates. The overrelaxation algorithm is a microcanonical update which is known to decorrelate configurations very efficiently. It is not ergodic though. The heatbath step is necessary in order to guarantee a simulation of the correct (non-microcanonical) statistical ensemble.

3.2.1 Heatbath

In general, the notion of a heatbath algorithm is used for Markov chains in which each new configuration is chosen from the canonical distribution, i.e. independent from the previous configuration,

$$P(U' \leftarrow U) \propto \exp(-S[U']). \quad (3.3)$$

For arbitrary actions and arbitrary fields it is a non-trivial task to find an efficient way for generating such an ensemble. We begin here with an SU(2) theory. The SU(3) case can be connected to SU(2) by updating subgroups and will be discussed later.

In the following, we drop the arguments x and μ so that it is obvious that we have to cope with the distribution of a mere SU(N) matrix.

SU(2)

We can formulate the goal of finding a heatbath update for SU(2) as finding an algorithm which produces the distribution

$$dP(U') \propto e^{\frac{1}{2}\text{Tr}(U'W^\dagger)} dU', \quad (3.4)$$

where W is a real multiple of an SU(2) matrix \hat{W} . This is e.g. the case for an SU(2) theory with a Wilson action. In that case, $\det W > 0$, so that we can write $W = \sqrt{\det W} \hat{W}$. This distribution factorizes when the SU(2) variables are expressed in the quaternionic representation,

$$\begin{aligned} U' &= a_0 + ia_j \sigma_j \\ W &= w_0 + iw_j \sigma_j. \end{aligned} \quad (3.5)$$

From the invariance of the Haar measure under the multiplication with group elements and (A.11) follows

$$dP(U'\hat{W}) \propto e^{\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\det W}\text{Tr}(U')} dU'$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\propto \frac{1}{\pi^2} \delta(a^2 - 1) e^{\sqrt{W_\mu W_\mu} a_0} da_0 d^3 \mathbf{a} \\
&\propto \frac{1}{\pi^2} \delta(\mathbf{n}^2 - 1) e^{\rho a_0} \sqrt{1 - a_0^2} da_0 d^3 \mathbf{n}.
\end{aligned} \tag{3.6}$$

In the last step, we have set $a_j = n_j \sqrt{1 - a_0^2}$ and $\rho = \sqrt{W_0^2 + W_j W_j}$.

This means, we have to generate a flat distribution in a_0 and a uniform distribution on the surface of a three dimensional sphere for \mathbf{n} . These produce a matrix U' , which is according to (3.6) to be multiplied with \hat{W} , resulting in a new value for the link variable.

Since the angular element can be parametrized as $d\Omega = d(\cos\theta)d\phi$, the \mathbf{n} vector can simply be generated by drawing a pair (u_1, u_2) of numbers with a uniform distribution in $[0,1)$ and setting

$$\begin{aligned}
n_1 &= 1 - 2u_1 \\
n_2 &= \sqrt{1 - n_1^2} \cos(2\pi u_2) \\
n_3 &= \sqrt{1 - n_1^2} \sin(2\pi u_2).
\end{aligned} \tag{3.7}$$

A method to generate the distribution in a_0 has been described by Fabricius and Haan in [45] and shortly later by Kennedy and Pendleton [46]. The basic idea is to generate a variable y according to

$$P(y) \propto \exp(-y) \sqrt{y} \theta(y) \tag{3.8}$$

and to set $a_0 = 1 - y\rho$. The distribution of the generated a_0 is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{P}(a_0) da_0 &= P(y) dy \\
\Rightarrow \bar{P}(a_0) &= P(y(a_0)) \frac{dy}{da_0} \\
&\propto e^{\rho a_0} \sqrt{1 - a_0} \theta(1 - a_0).
\end{aligned} \tag{3.9}$$

The difference to (3.6) is a factor $\sqrt{1 + a_0} \theta(1 + a_0)$, which can be accommodated by an acceptance step: the proposal from (3.9) is accepted if a flat random number c fulfills $2c^2 \leq 1 + a_0$. This corresponds to a $P_1(c) = \theta(2c^2 - 1 - a_0)$ and therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
\int dc \bar{P}(a_0) P_1(c) &= \int_0^{\sqrt{(1-a_0)/2}} dc e^{\rho a_0} \sqrt{1 - a_0} \theta(1 - a_0) \theta(1 + a_0) \\
&= e^{\rho a_0} \sqrt{1 - a_0} \theta(1 - a_0) \\
&\propto P(a_0).
\end{aligned} \tag{3.10}$$

In the form proposed by Fabricius and Haan, one maps a uniform distribution to the needed distribution in a_0 by a pretty complicated function

involving logarithms of logarithms, which is difficult to calculate in a sufficiently precise way.

Here we use a slightly different method discussed in [47], which combines two distributions in order to obtain the desired one, and therefore requires twice the number of random numbers per update. In order to create a value for a_0 , one generates a number a with a Gaussian distribution

$$P_1(a) \propto \exp(-a^2)\theta(a) \quad (3.11)$$

and a number b distributed like

$$P_2(b) \propto \exp(-b)\theta(b). \quad (3.12)$$

Then one makes a variable transformation $y = a^2 + b$ and $z = a$. The numbers z are finally dropped. As for the Jacobian of this transformation,

$$\det \frac{\partial(a, b)}{\partial(y, z)} = 1, \quad (3.13)$$

the combined distribution of y and z is

$$\begin{aligned} P(y, z) &= P_1(a(y, z), b(y, z)) \times P_2(a(y, z), b(y, z)) \\ &= \exp(-z^2)\theta(z) \times \exp(-y + z^2)\theta(y - z^2) \\ &= \exp(-y)\theta(z)\theta(\sqrt{y} - z). \end{aligned} \quad (3.14)$$

Since the generated numbers z are dropped, the resulting distribution of y is obtained by integrating over z , i.e. one really gets the desired

$$P(y) = \int dz P(y, z) = \sqrt{y} \exp(-y)\theta(y). \quad (3.15)$$

The distributions P_1 and P_2 are well known: the former is the Gaussian distribution explained in appendix B. The latter can be generated from uniformly distributed random numbers u by taking $b = -\log(1 - u)$.

SU(N)

We assume that the action has the form

$$S[U] = -\text{ReTr} \left\{ U(x, \mu) V^\dagger(x, \mu) \right\} + \dots, \quad (3.16)$$

with a part that depends linearly on the link variable $U(x, \mu) \in \text{SU}(N)$ ($N \geq 3$) that is updated, and a part that is independent. This form is fulfilled by the Wilson action, including the Schrödinger functional improvement term

in pure gauge theory. In this case, the term $V(x, \mu)$ is proportional to the sum of the six “staples” of the link,

$$\begin{aligned} V(x, \mu) &= \frac{\beta}{N} S(x, \mu) + \dots \\ S(x, \mu) &= \sum_{\nu \neq \mu} \left\{ U(x, \nu) U(x + a\hat{\nu}, \mu) U^\dagger(x + a\hat{\mu}, \nu) + \right. \\ &\quad \left. U^\dagger(x - a\hat{\nu}, \nu) U(x - a\hat{\nu}, \mu) U(x - a\hat{\nu} + a\hat{\mu}, \nu) \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.17)$$

If one of the link variables in the definition of $S(x, \mu)$ lies in a boundary plane it is to be multiplied with a factor c_t .

The essential difference to the SU(2) case is that the sum of staples is not in general a real multiple of an element of the gauge group. This makes it non-trivial to factorize the distribution for U into several flat distributions.

For the SU(3) case – and more generally SU(N) –, the method described in the previous section was generalized by Cabibbo and Marinari [48] in terms of projecting to subgroups successively. In this approach, one chooses a set \mathcal{F} of SU(2) subgroups of SU(N) with the property that no subset of SU(N) is left invariant under left multiplication by \mathcal{F} , except for the whole group,

$$\mathcal{F} = \{\text{SU}(2)_1, \dots, \text{SU}(2)_m\}, \quad m \geq N - 1. \quad (3.18)$$

This guarantees that by successively multiplying a given SU(N) matrix with random matrices from these subgroups, one can reach any other SU(N) matrix. So we are left with the task of giving the random matrices the correct distribution. Again, in order to simplify the notation, we do not explicitly display the indices x, μ .

An update $U' \leftarrow U$ starts with $U^{(0)} = U$ and moves in m steps to $U^{(m)} = U'$. The current link variable in each step is obtained by applying to the one from the previous step a member $A^{(k)} \in \text{SU}(2)_k$ of a subgroup,

$$U^{(k)} = A^{(k)} U^{(k-1)}. \quad (3.19)$$

The matrices $A^{(k)}$ are chosen according to the distribution

$$dP(A_k) = dA^{(k)} \frac{\exp\{-S[A^{(k)}U^{(k-1)}]\}}{\int_{\text{SU}(2)_k} dA \exp\{-S[AU^{(k-1)}]\}}. \quad (3.20)$$

In this work, we select as subgroups of SU(3) the three most natural possibilities,

$$A_1 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_{11} & a_{12} \\ 0 & a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & a_{12} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ a_{21} & 0 & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3.21)$$

where $a \in \text{SU}(2)$. This in fact implies one subgroup more than necessary for the condition explained above. It is more symmetric and may lead to better autocorrelation times than the minimum of two subgroups. To our knowledge, a detailed study on this topic has however not been done.

In our choice of subgroups, it is obvious that

$$S[A^{(k)}U^{(k-1)}] = -\text{ReTr}(av), \quad (3.22)$$

where v is the $(i, j) \in \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (1, 3)\}$ submatrix of $X = U^\dagger V$,

$$v = \begin{pmatrix} X_{ii} & X_{ij} \\ X_{ji} & X_{jj} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3.23)$$

By using the quaternionic representation of a_k and v , we can bring this into a slightly different form,

$$\begin{aligned} S[A^{(k)}U^{(k-1)}] &= -\text{ReTr}(av) \\ &= -\text{Re}(a_0 v_0 - a_j w_j) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}(aw^\dagger), \end{aligned} \quad (3.24)$$

where w is a real multiple of an $\text{SU}(2)$ matrix. Its quaternionic components are given by

$$\begin{aligned} w_0 &= 2 \text{Re } v_0 \\ w_j &= -2 \text{Re } w_j, \end{aligned} \quad (3.25)$$

and explicitly by

$$\begin{aligned} w_0 &= \text{Re}X_{ii} + \text{Re}X_{jj} \\ w_1 &= -\text{Im}X_{ij} - \text{Im}X_{ji} \\ w_2 &= -\text{Re}X_{ii} + \text{Re}X_{jj} \\ w_3 &= -\text{Im}X_{ii} + \text{Im}X_{jj}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.26)$$

Therefore, from (3.24) we can see that (3.20) can be obtained by applying the Fabricius-Haan algorithm for $\text{SU}(2)$, as described above.

3.2.2 Overrelaxation

The idea of overrelaxation is to choose the new variable as far as possible from the original one, in an intuitive sense. We again assume that the action has the form (3.16).

For a pure SU(2) gauge theory with a Wilson-like action, where W is the sum of elements of the gauge group, it is easy to write down an update $U' \leftarrow U$ with the property

$$\text{Tr}(U'W^\dagger) = \text{Tr}(UW^\dagger), \quad (3.27)$$

namely

$$U' = \frac{2}{\text{Tr}(W^\dagger W)} WU^\dagger W. \quad (3.28)$$

This mechanism is not directly transferable to SU(3), because the matrix $WU^\dagger W$ is in general not a real multiple of an SU(3) matrix. But we can make microcanonical updates in some SU(2) subgroups of the variable in question. In analogy to the heatbath case, we create a new U' by applying matrices A_k as in (3.21),

$$U' = A_3 A_2 A_1 U. \quad (3.29)$$

In order for the action to stay constant, the SU(2) matrices a corresponding to the A_k must fulfill the condition

$$\text{Tr}(aw^\dagger) = \text{Tr}w^\dagger. \quad (3.30)$$

This is achieved by setting them to

$$a = -1 + 2 \frac{2w_0}{\text{Tr}(ww^\dagger)} w. \quad (3.31)$$

A potentially dangerous operation in this computation is the division by the value $\text{Tr}(ww^\dagger)$, which may become very small and cause an overflow. In our implementation, when it becomes smaller than 10^{-10} , we leave the link variable at its old value instead of flipping it. This does not invalidate the algorithm.

Finally, the Hybrid Overrelaxation is a combination of the two parts described previously [49]. In each update, one heatbath step is alternated with N_{or} overrelaxation steps. N_{or} is a parameter which we may tune to reduce autocorrelation times on larger lattices.

In [50], it has been found that the efficiency of the HOR algorithm depends on the order in which a sweep over the lattice processes the links. It is advantageous to perform an outer loop over the Lorentz index μ and to embed a loop over x *within* this one. We have only used this variant.

3.3 Hybrid Monte Carlo

The basic idea of the Hybrid Monte Carlo (HMC) is to employ molecular dynamics in order to collectively move the configuration through the configuration space. This means, in each step all field variables are updated by

computing their trajectory through a coupled set of equations of motions. It is obvious that such a step goes at least linear with the volume. But of course, it also has to be considered that trajectories can only be computed by discretizing them, so there are further parameters like the trajectory length and the step size. With increasing volume, it may be necessary to adjust these parameters, making the cost of a trajectory higher. As a consequence, the dependence of the cost on the system size can not be trivially predicted.

As an alternative to molecular dynamics, one may also consider moving fields through the configuration space by other small-step-size mechanisms, such as random walks. However, a molecular dynamics trajectory is assumed to move more rapidly away from the original configuration, as the single steps of the discretized trajectory move into the same “direction” [44].

For the derivation of the equations of motions, we note that expectation values with respect to the action $S[U]$ are equal to the expectation values of the respective observables with respect to the Hamiltonian

$$H[P, U] = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x\mu j} P(x, \mu, j)^2 + S[U] \quad (3.32)$$

with variables $P(x, \mu, j)$ from a canonical ensemble. The real-valued variables $P(x, \mu, j)$ are the expansion coefficients of variables $P(x, \mu)$ which come from the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{su}(3)$ of $SU(3)$,

$$P(x, \mu) := \sum_{j=1}^8 i\lambda_j P(x, \mu, j) \quad (3.33)$$

and which are to be interpreted as conjugate momenta of the link variables $U(x, \mu) \in SU(3)$. Expectation values are defined by

$$\langle F \rangle = Z^{-1} \int D[P] D[U] \exp(-H[P, U]) F[U], \quad (3.34)$$

with the normalization factor

$$Z = \int D[P] D[U] \exp(-H[P, U]), \quad (3.35)$$

and obviously factorize into integrals over link variables U and the new fictitious momenta P . The expectation value defined in this way corresponds to a canonical ensemble. For sufficiently large lattices, one should be able to approximate this by a microcanonical ensemble, which is characterized by a constant energy of all configurations summed over. Provided ergodicity holds, a chain of configurations in the microcanonical ensemble can be

generated by solving the canonical equations of motion for the Hamiltonian $H[P, U]$.

Naturally, for a complex interacting theory, we cannot solve the equations of motions exactly, but have to resort to a discretization to compute a trajectory from a given starting point to an end point giving a new configuration. This not only produces errors in the configurations, but also changes the total energy, so that we cannot expect to produce the correct ensemble in this way. In the Hybrid Monte Carlo, this problem is overcome by an acceptance step, which makes the algorithm exact.

The classical equations of motion for the Hamiltonian and for the variables $U(x, \mu)$ and $P(x, \mu, j)$ are

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{P}(x, \mu, j) &= -D_{x\mu j}S[U] \\ \dot{U}(x, \mu) &= iP(x, \mu)U(x, \mu)\end{aligned}\tag{3.36}$$

with a derivative $D_{x\mu j}$ for the gauge fields. This derivative is defined as

$$D_{x\mu j}f(U(x, \mu)) = \left. \frac{d}{d\alpha} \right|_{\alpha=0} f\left(e^{i\alpha\lambda_j}U(x, \mu)\right),\tag{3.37}$$

where $\lambda_j, j = 1 \dots 8$ are the Gell-Mann matrices. The form of the second equation in (3.36) guarantees that $U(x, \mu)$ remains in the SU(3) group. For an action linear in the su(3) components of $U(x, \mu)$ it is easy to prove that with these equations, the energy is conserved. Then $D_{x\mu j}S[U(x, \mu)] = S[i\lambda_j U(x, \mu)]$ and $\dot{S}[U(x, \mu)] = S[\dot{U}(x, \mu)]$ and therefore¹

$$\dot{H}[P, U] = \sum_{x\mu} P(x, \mu)\dot{P}(x, \mu) + S[\dot{U}] = 0.\tag{3.38}$$

When applying the derivative operator $D_{x\mu j}$ to the pure gauge action $S_g[U]$ only those plaquettes contribute which contain $U(x, \mu)$. Using the definition of the staples (3.17) we can write

$$D_{x\mu j}S_g[U] = -\frac{2}{g_0^2}\text{ReTr}\left[i\lambda_j U(x, \mu)S^\dagger(x, \mu)\right].\tag{3.39}$$

3.3.1 Detailed balance

In the following, we prove that the Hybrid Monte Carlo algorithm fulfills detailed balance. While the previous sections motivated the algorithm by the

¹We only display the dependence of S on a single link variable here.

physics of the system represented by the Hamilton operator H , this proof is based on weaker prerequisites. We assume that the probability of a transition $U' \leftarrow U$ is based on three probability distributions: at the beginning of a trajectory, momenta are drawn from a Gaussian distribution

$$P_M(P) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x\mu j} P(x, \mu, j)^2\right). \quad (3.40)$$

Following that, the combined set of variables (P, U) is used as initial condition for a deterministic process resulting in a new set (P', U') according to $(P', U') = T(P, U)$. The corresponding probability matrix is

$$P_T((P', U') \leftarrow (P, U)) = \delta((P', U'), T(P, U)). \quad (3.41)$$

Finally, the new set of link variables is accepted with the condition

$$P_A((P', U') \leftarrow (P, U)) = \min\{1, \exp(-H[P', U'] + H[P, U])\}. \quad (3.42)$$

with the Hamiltonian from equation (3.32). As the momentum variables are discarded, we have to study the combined transition probability

$$P(U' \leftarrow U) = \int D[P'] D[P] P_A((P', U') \leftarrow (P, U)) \times P_T((P', U') \leftarrow (P, U)) P_M(P). \quad (3.43)$$

As further input, we demand that the computed trajectory is reversible,

$$P_T((P', U') \leftarrow (P, U)) = P_T((-P, U) \leftarrow (-P', U')). \quad (3.44)$$

Now we can use $P_M(P)e^{-S[U]} = e^{-H[P, U]}$ to rearrange the left side of the detailed balance condition,

$$\begin{aligned} & P(U' \leftarrow U) e^{-S[U]} \\ &= \int D[P'] D[P] \min\{1, \exp(-H[P', U'] + H[P, U])\} \times \\ &\quad \times P_T((P', U') \leftarrow (P, U)) \exp(-H[P, U]) \\ &= \int D[P'] D[P] \min\{1, \exp(-H[P, U] + H[P', U'])\} \times \\ &\quad \times P_T((P', U') \leftarrow (P, U)) \exp(-H[P', U']) \\ &= \int D[P'] D[P] \min\{1, \exp(-H[P, U] + H[P', U'])\} \times \\ &\quad \times P_T((P, U) \leftarrow (P', U')) \exp(-H[P', U']) \\ &= P(U \leftarrow U') e^{-S[U']}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.45)$$

Thus, we have proven detailed balance for the described algorithm. Note that we have not required that the Hamiltonian is used in the computation of the trajectory. The trajectory may be computed with different Hamiltonians or different discretizations of it, as long as these mechanisms are reversible. While the validity of the algorithm is not disturbed by such a choice, it may be important for achieving reasonable acceptance rates.

3.3.2 Computation of the trajectory

For the computation of a trajectory, we need an integration scheme for the equations of motion fulfilling (3.44). Here we use the *leapfrog* algorithm. As parameters, it has a step size $\delta\tau$ and the trajectory length $\tau = n\delta\tau$.

The integration begins with an update step for the conjugate momenta with a step size $\Delta\tau = \delta\tau/2$. It is followed by $n - 1$ update steps with $\Delta\tau = \delta\tau/2$ for the link variables, alternating with the momentum variables. Finally, the link variables are updated with $\Delta\tau = \delta\tau$, and the momentum variables with $\Delta\tau = \delta\tau/2$.

The explicit formulae for these steps are

$$\begin{aligned} P'(x, \mu, j) &= P(x, \mu, j) - D_{x\mu j} S[U] \Delta\tau \\ U'(x, \mu) &= \exp \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^8 i\lambda_j P(x, \mu, j) \Delta\tau \right\} U(x, \mu). \end{aligned} \quad (3.46)$$

The single steps cause a discretization error of the order $\delta\tau^3$ each. Therefore, the action for the final configuration is expected to differ from the initial configuration by an error of order $\delta\tau^2$.

3.3.3 Computation of the exponential

In the Hybrid Monte Carlo algorithm, each step on a trajectory involves for each link the evaluation of the exponential of an element of the gauge group algebra. On the one hand, it is desirable to minimize the cost of this evaluation. On the other hand, the HMC algorithm is only valid if the computation of trajectories fulfills the requirement of reversibility. If we approximate the exponential $\exp(A) \approx E(A)$, reversibility demands that $E(-A)E(A) = 1$.

It is remarkable that this requirement can be easily fulfilled in the case of a U(1) group, where $A \in i\mathbf{R}$. Here, $E(A) = (1 + A/2)/(1 - A/2)$ is a valid approximation (considerations about acceptance rates notwithstanding). It is straightforward to generalize this to a SU(2) group, whereas the necessary inversion of a matrix becomes an obstacle in SU(3).

Functions of SU(3) matrices

Following [51], we can transform any polynomial in an SU(3) matrix into a second order polynomial. We note that for any 3×3 matrix A , the determinant can be written as

$$\det A = \frac{1}{6} [(\text{Tr}A)^3 - 3(\text{Tr}A)(\text{Tr}A^2) + 2(\text{Tr}A^3)]. \quad (3.47)$$

In the SU(3) case, the argument of the exponential is an element of the Lie algebra $\text{su}(3)$ with $\text{Tr}A = 0$, so we have

$$\det A = \frac{1}{3} \text{Tr}A^3. \quad (3.48)$$

According to the Cayley-Hamilton theorem, A is a solution of its characteristic equation²

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - \lambda I) &= \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \{ [\text{Tr}(A - \lambda I)]^3 - 3\text{Tr}(A - \lambda I)\text{Tr}(A - \lambda I)^2 + 2\text{Tr}(A - \lambda I)^3 \} \\ &= -\lambda^3 + \frac{1}{2}\lambda\text{Tr}A^2 + \frac{1}{3}\text{Tr}A^3. \end{aligned} \quad (3.49)$$

Therefore,

$$A^3 = \left(\frac{1}{2}\text{Tr}A^2\right) A + \left(\frac{1}{3}\text{Tr}A^3\right) I. \quad (3.50)$$

Thus, any power series in A is equivalent with a second order polynomial in A with complex coefficients. These coefficients are in turn power series in $\text{Tr}A^2$ and $\text{Tr}A^3$. From $A = -A^\dagger$ we can conclude that $\text{Tr}A^2 = -\text{Tr}(AA^\dagger)$ is real, and $\text{Tr}A^3 = -\text{Tr}(A^{\dagger 3})$ is imaginary. More explicitly, we set $a = -\frac{1}{2}\text{Tr}A^2 \in \mathbf{R}$ and $b = \frac{i}{3}\text{Tr}A^3 \in \mathbf{R}$. Then an analytic function $f(A)$ can be written as

$$f(A) = a_2 A^2 + a_1 A + a_0 I. \quad (3.51)$$

The three coefficients a_2 , a_1 and a_0 are basis-independent and can in principle be computed exactly. Practically, computing $f(A) = \exp(A)$ in this manner is complicated. When eigenvalues of A are approximately degenerate, different formulae have to be used to avoid numerical problems. In particular, on a SIMD (single instruction, multiple data) computer such case distinctions are inefficient and difficult to implement.

²By I , we denote the unity matrix.

Taylor expansion

One will in general opt for an approximation of the exponential in the form of a Taylor expansion. In this case, reversibility is not obvious, and one has to make sure that the approximation is accurate to machine precision in the range of arguments which are reasonably expected to occur.

When $f(A)$ is a Taylor expansion to order N , the coefficients a_2 , a_1 and a_0 are polynomials of degree $N - 2$ in a and b . It is easy to see that the number of floating point operations is significantly reduced compared to the naive computation of the matrix polynomial, with one of the standard techniques which are discussed e.g. in [52].

One way to evaluate the scalar polynomials is to compute them explicitly (e.g. with Maple V) to the given order for general arguments and implement Horner schemes for them in the simulation program. It is however advantageous for the implementation of the above algorithm to take into account its recursive nature. To see this, we define a series of coefficient sets by

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^N \frac{A^k}{k!} &= a_2^{(N)} A^N + a_1^{(N)} A^{N-1} + a_0^{(N)} A^{N-2} + \sum_{k=0}^{N-3} \frac{A^k}{k!} \\ &= a_2^{(N-1)} A^{N-1} + a_1^{(N-1)} A^{N-2} + a_0^{(N-1)} A^{N-3} + \sum_{k=0}^{N-4} \frac{A^k}{k!} \\ &= \dots \end{aligned} \quad (3.52)$$

Obviously we have to start with the triplet

$$a_2^{(N)} = \frac{1}{N!}, \quad a_1^{(N)} = \frac{1}{(N-1)!}, \quad a_0^{(N)} = \frac{1}{(N-2)!}, \quad (3.53)$$

and we are finally interested in

$$a_2 = a_2^{(2)}, \quad a_1 = a_1^{(2)}, \quad a_0 = a_0^{(2)}. \quad (3.54)$$

With the help of

$$A^3 = -aA - ibI, \quad (3.55)$$

the recursion relation for the $a_i^{(k)}$ comes out as

$$\begin{aligned} a_2^{(k)} &= a_1^{(k+1)} \\ a_1^{(k)} &= a_0^{(k+1)} - a a_2^{(k+1)} \\ a_0^{(k)} &= \frac{1}{(k-2)!} - ib a_2^{(k+1)}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.56)$$

This recursion scheme can be implemented as a loop $k = (N - 1) \dots 2$. In such an implementation, one can conveniently adjust the order N to which the Taylor expansion is used.

Accuracy

The error by approximating the exponential by a truncated Taylor expansion of a 3×3 matrix can be estimated by

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\| \exp A - \sum_{k=0}^N \frac{A^k}{k!} \right\|_2 \\ & \leq \frac{3}{(N+1)!} \max_{0 \leq s \leq 1} \left\| A^{N+1} \exp^{(N+1)}(As) \right\|_2. \end{aligned} \quad (3.57)$$

Using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and the fact that for a unitary matrix A , $\|A\|_2 = 1$, one gets an estimate for the error

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\| \exp A - \sum_{k=0}^N \frac{A^k}{k!} \right\|_2 \\ & \leq \frac{3}{(N+1)!} \|A^{N+1}\|_2 \max_{0 \leq s \leq 1} \|\exp(As)\|_2 \\ & \leq \frac{3}{(N+1)!} \|A\|_2^{N+1}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.58)$$

In the leapfrog algorithm, the relevant values of A come from a statistical ensemble. We have

$$A = i\delta\tau \sum_{i=j}^8 \lambda_j P_j, \quad (3.59)$$

where $\delta\tau$ is the step size, $\{\lambda_j, j = 1 \dots 8\}$ are the Gell-Mann matrices, and P_j are the normally distributed momenta. Obviously, the norm of A is linear in $\delta\tau$. Numerically, one can see that the norm very rarely ($\ll 10^{-5}$) exceeds $7\delta\tau$.

If we take this as a realistic bound on $\|A\|_2$ and demand that the error in the result be smaller than 10^{-8} , we obtain an upper bound on $\delta\tau$, depending on N ,

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{3}{(N+1)!} (7\delta\tau)^{N+1} = 10^{-8} \\ \Rightarrow \delta\tau & = \frac{1}{7} \left(\frac{10^{-8}(N+1)!}{3} \right)^{\frac{1}{N+1}}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.60)$$

In table 3.1, values for the order N necessary for some example values of $\delta\tau$ are listed.

N	4	6	8	10	12	14	16
$\delta\tau$	0.0075	0.0297	0.0677	0.1189	0.1804	0.2498	0.3252

Table 3.1: *Upper bound for $\delta\tau$ depending on the order N of the Taylor expansion for the exponential.*

3.3.4 Tests

We have tested our implementation of the Hybrid Monte Carlo algorithm in several ways.

Reversibility

For guaranteeing the correctness of the molecular dynamics evolution, one should check whether trajectories are truly reversible. It has been seen previously in [53] that the classical equations of motions in the Hybrid Monte Carlo are chaotic in nature. This means, roundoff errors introduced at any place in the computation are amplified exponentially with the Monte Carlo time, even for $\delta\tau \rightarrow 0$. It is not evident however whether this phenomenon plays a role for our choice of parameters.

A remarkable example in [54] demonstrates that reversibility violations do not necessarily cause the acceptance rate to be low. As the leapfrog integration scheme has a preference for conserving energy even when the computed trajectory deviates much from the true trajectory, the energy difference δH may be small although there are reversibility violations in the configuration itself and in observables.

To check reversibility explicitly, we compute the trajectory once, change the sign of all momentum variables, and then compute a new trajectory with the same length and step size. The resulting configuration should be identical with the starting configuration, apart from unavoidable roundoff errors with a magnitude comparable to the machine precision. A measure for the error is the quantity

$$\sqrt{\sum_{x\mu} (\|\tilde{U}(x, \mu) - U(x, \mu)\|_2)}, \quad (3.61)$$

where \tilde{U} is the endpoint configuration. Obviously, this observable is a more direct measure than typical observables only involving a subset of all degrees of freedom. With several initial configurations and parameters τ and $\delta\tau$ used in our study, we could see that this error measure is of the order of some 10^{-14} on a PC with 64 bit arithmetics. On the APE100 machine with 32 bit arithmetics, it turns out to be of the order of some 10^{-7} .

First, this indicates that the trajectory computation is indeed correct apart from roundoff errors. Second, it shows that at least in the range of our parameters τ and $\delta\tau$, there is no sign that errors grow exponentially with the number of steps on the trajectory. For larger lattices, we expect that the number of steps per trajectory has to be increased. Therefore, at some point the integration should become unstable. A detailed analysis can be found in [55].

As an additional check, we have also investigated which effect rounding errors have on the measured coupling. To this end, we have implemented a version of the program that artificially adds noise to the force in the update of the momentum variables. Precisely, in each computation of a $P(x, \mu, j)$ proposal, we substitute

$$D_{x\mu j}S[U] \rightarrow (1 + n)D_{x\mu j}S[U]. \quad (3.62)$$

Here, n is drawn from a Gaussian distribution with width σ . The parameter σ can be chosen to model different magnitudes of errors.

σ	\bar{g}^{-2}
0.100000	1.0251(147)
0.010000	1.0203(11)
0.001000	1.0203(10)
1.0e-7	1.0218(4)
1.0e-15	1.0218(7)

Table 3.2: *Results for the coupling for different values of artificial error magnitudes σ .*

On an APE100 computer with single precision, we have performed simulations at $\beta = 9.596$ on a $L/a = 4$ lattice with $\sigma = 10^{-7}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-2}, 10^{-1}$. Table 3.2 shows the obtained results. In this table, we have also inserted a value $\sigma = 10^{-7}$ for the undisturbed simulation, assuming that this is the typical magnitude of errors caused by single precision arithmetics. This simulation result is averaged over 270000 iterations, while the other runs consisted of only 50000 – 60000 iterations. As comparison, there is also a value of the coupling for $\sigma = 10^{-15}$ obtained from a simulation on a PC with double precision. A simulation with the HOR algorithms yields the result $\bar{g}^2 = 1.02175(44)$.

Figure 3.1 shows the results for \bar{g}^{-2} in a plot where the ordinate is logarithmic in σ . This illustrates that the coupling is very insensitive against the Gaussian distributed errors in the force. Even at $\sigma = 0.01$, the coupling

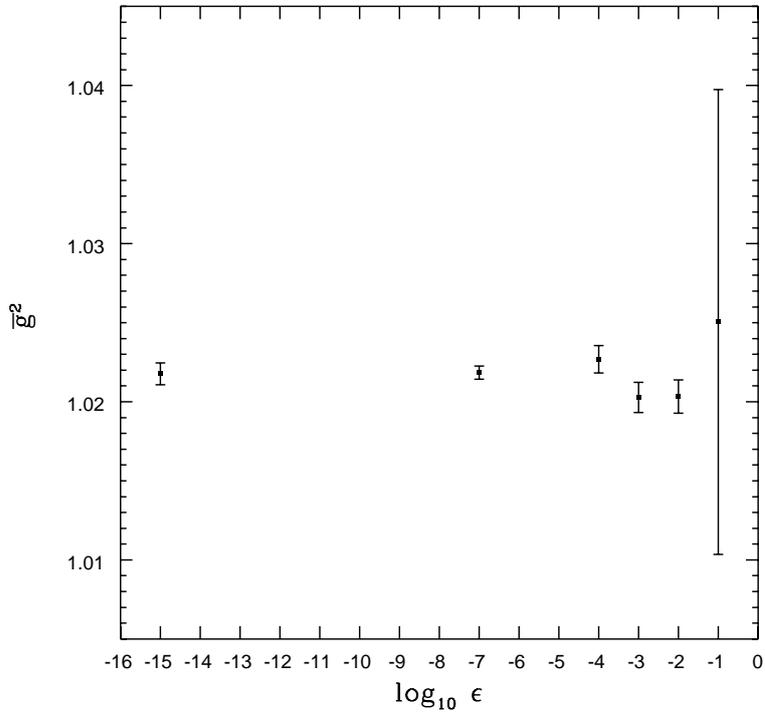


Figure 3.1: *Coupling in dependence of the artificial error σ .*

drifts only on a permille level. At even larger σ , the acceptance rate collapses and the error grows, so that systematic effects can not be measured.

This investigation increases our trust in the feasibility of the Hybrid Monte Carlo on a single precision computer. Nevertheless, we note that it is not clear that our model of Gaussian rounding errors is realistic; different asymmetric models may introduce larger biases. We have also restricted ourselves to a specific L/a and β .

In addition, we emphasize that in global sums in the APE100 code, a double precision data type implemented in software is used [56, 57]. Thus, on large lattices with many terms the loss of precision due to cancellations is significantly reduced.

Rounding errors do not only play a role for the reversibility of the HMC. For the implementation of any algorithm, the validity of the simulation requires that all link variables remain in the $SU(3)$ group. Due to rounding errors, matrices move away from this group in the course of typically thousands of iterations in a simulation. To avoid this, from time to time it is

necessary to “project” them back. Assuming that a variable has the value $v = u(1 + \epsilon)$, where ϵ is the deviation from the true SU(3) matrix u , one can construct a corrected variable w with

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \frac{1}{2}v(3 - v^\dagger v) \\ w &= x \left(1 - \frac{i}{3}\text{Im det } x\right). \end{aligned} \quad (3.63)$$

This formulae are based on the assumption that when ϵ is in the order of typical roundoff errors of the machine, ϵ^2 is negligible. Then

$$\begin{aligned} v^\dagger v &\approx 1 + \epsilon + \epsilon^\dagger \\ \det v &\approx 1 + \text{Tr } \epsilon, \end{aligned} \quad (3.64)$$

further

$$\begin{aligned} x &\approx u \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon - \epsilon^\dagger}{2}\right) \\ x^\dagger x &\approx 1 \\ \det x &\approx 1 + \text{Tr } \frac{\epsilon - \epsilon^\dagger}{2}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.65)$$

and finally

$$\begin{aligned} w &\approx u \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon - \epsilon^\dagger}{2}\right) \left(1 - \text{Tr } \frac{\epsilon - \epsilon^\dagger}{6}\right) \\ w^\dagger w &\approx 1 \\ \det w &\approx 1. \end{aligned} \quad (3.66)$$

All the preceding equations are meant to be valid up to order ϵ^2 .

Control variable

Each step in the leapfrog is area preserving [16]. This means, if we denote with (P', U') the configuration going into the acceptance step,

$$D[P']D[U'] = D[P]D[U]. \quad (3.67)$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} &\int D[P'] [DU'] \exp(-H[P', U']) \\ &= \int D[P]D[U] \exp(-H[P, U] - (H[P', U'] - H[P, U])). \end{aligned} \quad (3.68)$$

If we measure $E := \exp(-H[P', U'] + H[P, U])$ as an observable, we expect exactly

$$\langle E \rangle = 1. \quad (3.69)$$

This can be used as a test for the correctness of the leapfrog implementation and its reversibility.

3.4 Local Hybrid Monte Carlo

We also study here a local version of the Hybrid Monte Carlo which was apparently first discussed in [58]. As this algorithm does not collectively move all degrees of freedom through the phase space, one naturally does not expect it to be suitable for non-local actions. For local theories, it is unlikely to compete with finite step size algorithms, like Hybrid Overrelaxation. But in contrast to HOR, it is suitable for actions which are not linear in the link variables. It is therefore a candidate for the update of improved fermions, which we will investigate in chapter 4.

In the global Hybrid Monte Carlo, in each step on a trajectory the global candidate configuration of new momentum and link variables are updated. In the Local Hybrid Monte Carlo (LHMC), a sweep over the lattice is performed. For each link variable, a trajectory is computed with all other link variables kept fixed.

When applied to a pure gauge theory, there are some advantages in this local approach:

- Since for each trajectory only a single link variable is changed, the discretization error is much smaller than for the global case. Therefore, larger step sizes should be possible than for the HMC.
- Computing the “force” $D_{x\mu j}S[U]$ in each step is quite cheap because the sum of staples stays constant over a whole trajectory and has to be computed only once per trajectory. Therefore, additional steps are quite cheap. In this study, this advantage has turned out to be of minor importance, as the optimal parameter set has $\tau/\delta\tau \approx 2 - 3$.

It is evident that the LHMC is not a suitable algorithm for the simulation of pseudofermions. With a fermionic action, the computation of the force goes with the volume of the lattice, which means that the cost of the algorithm is quadratic in the volume.

We also mention here that for a pure Wilson action, the leapfrog algorithm for calculating a trajectory can be replaced by an exact integration of the

equations of motion [59]. The method in this reference makes use of the fact that in certain subgroups of SU(3) the action takes the form of the energy of a pendulum.

3.5 Results

Our aim is to represent an efficiency measure in a way that allows a machine-independent comparison of different algorithms. Furthermore, we want to investigate the cost of computing the observable \bar{g} , which is directly relevant for the computation of the running coupling. Therefore, we define a measure S_{cost} such that in order to compute \bar{g}^{-2} at 1% accuracy, the equivalent in complexity of S_{cost} computations of all staples is required. Explicitly,

$$S_{\text{cost}} = (\text{number of computations of all staples}) \times \left[\frac{100 \cdot (\text{error of } \bar{g}^{-2})}{\bar{g}^{-2}} \right]^2. \quad (3.70)$$

This measure already excludes a trivial volume factor. For the error of the cost, we estimate

$$\delta S_{\text{cost}} = S_{\text{cost}} \frac{\delta \tau_{\text{int}}}{\tau_{\text{int}}}, \quad (3.71)$$

which implies that we neglect the error of the autocorrelation function at zero, $\Gamma(0)$, as explained in appendix C.

For the HMC algorithm, the number of staples computations is the number of trajectories times $n + 1$, when $n\delta\tau = \tau$ is the trajectory length.

For the LHMC algorithm, we have already noted that further additional steps on a trajectory are cheaper than the initial one. In our experience, an appropriate estimate for an equivalent of staples computations on our computers is $1.6 + 0.4n$. For example, a trajectory with $n = 6$ is only twice as expensive as one with $n = 1$. For the Hybrid Overrelaxation algorithm, we use $1 + N_{\text{or}}$ as an equivalent for the staples computations.

We have performed this study at constant physics in the sense of the Schrödinger functional. This means, for each lattice size L/a , the bare parameter β is tuned such that the measured coupling of the system matches $\bar{g}^2 = 2.100$. We have considered lattice sizes $L/a = 4, 6, 8, 10$. Except for the $L/a = 4$ case, the tuned β values were taken from [6]. Table 3.3 shows the values we have used.

Most of the simulations were done on APE100 machines with 8 nodes, while the largest lattices were simulated on machines with 128 nodes. For the Hybrid Monte Carlo algorithms, we have used trajectory lengths of 0.5,

L/a	β
4	6.7796
6	7.1214
8	7.3632
10	7.5525

Table 3.3: Tuned β values for various L/a belonging to $\bar{g}^2 = 2.100$.

1.0 and 2.0 and varied the step size $\delta\tau$ in a range with reasonable acceptance rates P_{acc} . In addition to the coupling, we have also measured the acceptance rates. This was motivated by the common folklore that optimal efficiency can be achieved with an acceptance of about 70%. It thus makes sense to parametrize plots of the cost also by the acceptance rate. For the Hybrid Overrelaxation algorithm, we have varied N_{or} from 0 (corresponding to a pure heatbath) to 3.

Table 3.4 shows the cost of the HOR algorithm. The corresponding plot can be found in figure 3.2. For all lattice sizes L/a , the optimal choice of N_{or} turns out to be 1. Table 3.5, in which we list the autocorrelation times for the same runs, indicates the reason for this: for $N_{\text{or}} = 1$, there are almost no autocorrelations. If the number of overrelaxation sweeps per measurement is increased, the computational cost increases, while τ_{int} in units of updates cannot decrease further.

In table 3.6, the results for the HMC algorithm are listed. The figures 3.3 and 3.4 contain plots of these data for $L/a = 6$, $L/a = 8$ respectively. Both plots show the data with constant trajectory length connected with dashed lines.

In all cases, the optimal trajectory length is 1. One can also see that for each trajectory length, the minimal cost is achieved at an acceptance rate of roughly 70 %. This is consistent with conventional wisdom. When L/a is increased, the step size has to be scaled down in order to gain optimal performance. In [60] it is argued that for the leapfrog discretization, the average acceptance scales as

$$\langle P_{\text{acc}} \rangle = \exp \left\{ -(\delta\tau L/a)^4 \right\}, \quad (3.72)$$

and therefore the step size must be changed with $\delta\tau \propto a/L$ in order to keep the acceptance rate fixed. This seems to be roughly the case in our simulations.

Table 3.7 contains our results for the cost and acceptance rates of the LHMC algorithm. These data are illustrated in figure 3.5 for $L/a = 6$ and

L/a	$N_{\text{or}} = 0$	$N_{\text{or}} = 1$	$N_{\text{or}} = 2$	$N_{\text{or}} = 3$	$N_{\text{or}} = 4$	$N_{\text{or}} = 5$	$N_{\text{or}} = 6$
4	5.03(1)	3.41(5)	4.07(6)	4.98(7)			
5	9.20(26)	5.68(10)	6.42(9)	7.61(11)			
6	13.8(4)	8.71(16)	9.31(2)	11.0(2)	12.4(2)	14.4(2)	16.3(3)
8	28(1)	16.5(3)	17.9(3)	19.2(3)			
10	46.3(2)	25.4(7)	26.4(6)	30.1(7)			

Table 3.4: $S_{\text{cost}}/1000$ for the HOR algorithm for different L/a and N_{or} .

L/a	$N_{\text{or}} = 0$	$N_{\text{or}} = 1$	$N_{\text{or}} = 2$	$N_{\text{or}} = 3$	$N_{\text{or}} = 4$	$N_{\text{or}} = 5$	$N_{\text{or}} = 6$
4	2.10(5)	0.72(1)	0.57(1)	0.52(1)			
5	2.74(8)	0.86(1)	0.65(1)	0.58(1)			
6	3.21(8)	1.02(2)	0.72(1)	0.64(1)	0.57(1)	0.55(1)	0.53(1)
8	4.5(2)	1.27(2)	0.92(2)	0.75(1)			
10	5.4(2)	1.47(4)	1.02(2)	0.86(2)			

Table 3.5: τ_{int} for the HOR algorithm for different L/a and N_{or} .

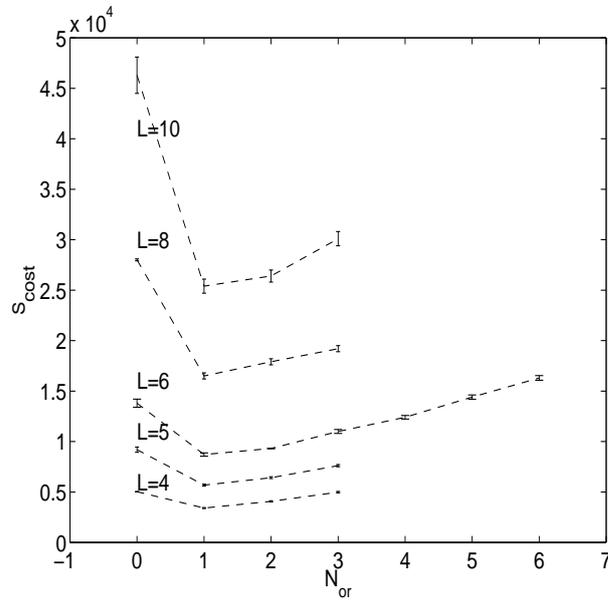


Figure 3.2: S_{cost} for the HOR algorithm.

L/a	τ	$\tau/\delta\tau$	acceptance in %	S_{cost}
4	0.5	8	50.5(2)	$6.71(18) \cdot 10^4$
4	0.5	12	77.1(1)	$5.97(12) \cdot 10^4$
4	0.5	15	85.1(1)	$6.66(16) \cdot 10^4$
4	0.5	20	91.5(1)	$7.72(14) \cdot 10^4$
4	1.0	20	62.8(2)	$5.55(11) \cdot 10^4$
4	1.0	30	83.2(1)	$5.07(8) \cdot 10^4$
4	1.0	40	90.2(1)	$5.77(8) \cdot 10^4$
4	1.0	60	95.7(1)	$7.84(14) \cdot 10^4$
4	2.0	30	38.3(2)	$1.85(4) \cdot 10^5$
4	2.0	60	83.0(1)	$1.09(1) \cdot 10^5$
4	2.0	100	93.9(1)	$1.46(2) \cdot 10^5$
6	0.5	10	30.5(3)	$3.05(18) \cdot 10^5$
6	0.5	15	64.8(2)	$2.34(9) \cdot 10^5$
6	0.5	30	91.0(1)	$3.17(10) \cdot 10^5$
6	0.5	50	96.8(1)	$5.01(16) \cdot 10^5$
6	1.0	20	22.8(9)	$4.54(22) \cdot 10^5$
6	1.0	30	59.1(3)	$1.96(5) \cdot 10^5$
6	1.0	40	76.3(2)	$1.87(4) \cdot 10^5$
6	1.0	60	89.3(2)	$2.13(4) \cdot 10^5$
6	2.0	60	59.4(2)	$3.22(8) \cdot 10^5$
6	2.0	80	76.4(2)	$2.90(6) \cdot 10^5$
6	2.0	120	89.2(1)	$3.20(6) \cdot 10^5$
6	2.0	160	94.1(1)	$3.92(7) \cdot 10^5$
8	0.5	15	39.6(3)	$7.89(40) \cdot 10^5$
8	0.5	20	63.6(2)	$5.25(23) \cdot 10^5$
8	0.5	30	83.0(2)	$6.16(35) \cdot 10^5$
8	0.5	50	94.1(2)	$8.63(45) \cdot 10^5$
8	1.0	30	30.7(3)	$8.64(41) \cdot 10^5$
8	1.0	40	56.4(2)	$5.33(16) \cdot 10^5$
8	1.0	60	79.9(3)	$4.27(13) \cdot 10^5$
8	1.0	80	89.3(4)	$4.91(14) \cdot 10^5$
8	2.0	80	57.5(4)	$7.15(28) \cdot 10^5$
8	2.0	120	80.4(2)	$6.19(18) \cdot 10^5$
8	2.0	160	88.5(2)	$7.11(21) \cdot 10^5$

Table 3.6: S_{cost} for the HMC algorithm for different L/a , τ and $\delta\tau$.

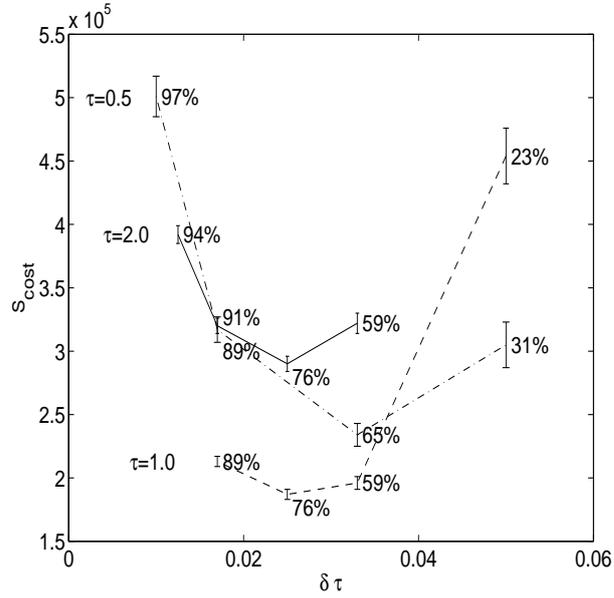


Figure 3.3: S_{cost} for global Hybrid Monte Carlo at $L/a = 6$. For each data point, the corresponding acceptance is shown.

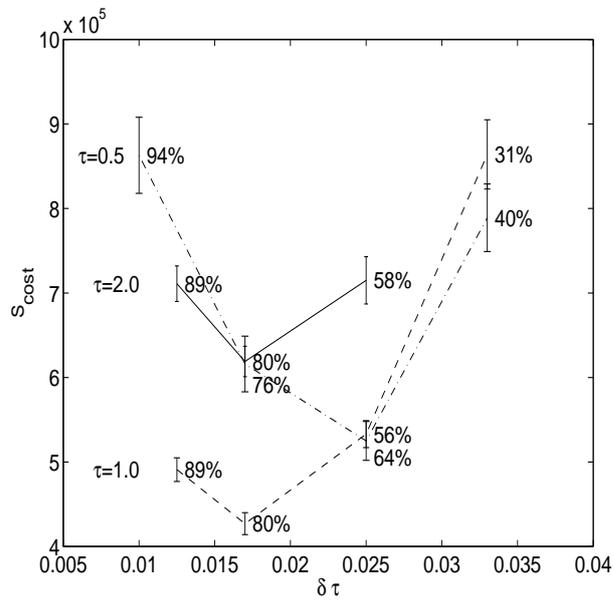


Figure 3.4: S_{cost} for global Hybrid Monte Carlo at $L/a = 8$.

L/a	τ	$\tau/\delta\tau$	acceptance in %	S_{cost}
4	0.5	2	85.3	$7.39(16) \cdot 10^3$
4	0.5	3	93.7	$9.08(18) \cdot 10^3$
4	0.5	5	97.8	$1.37(3) \cdot 10^4$
4	1.0	3	67.6	$6.11(30) \cdot 10^4$
4	1.0	4	82.6	$3.41(11) \cdot 10^4$
4	1.0	5	89.5	$3.19(9) \cdot 10^4$
4	1.0	10	97.6	$4.33(10) \cdot 10^4$
4	2.0	6	73.9	$4.00(11) \cdot 10^4$
4	2.0	10	93.5	$2.92(6) \cdot 10^4$
4	2.0	20	98.2	$5.70(11) \cdot 10^4$
4	4.0	20	92.0	$2.36(9) \cdot 10^5$
6	0.5	2	85.1	$2.46(7) \cdot 10^4$
6	0.5	3	93.7	$2.22(5) \cdot 10^4$
6	0.5	5	97.8	$2.74(6) \cdot 10^4$
6	0.5	10	99.5	$4.14(10) \cdot 10^4$
6	1.0	4	80.7	$1.15(6) \cdot 10^5$
6	1.0	5	88.2	$8.60(34) \cdot 10^4$
6	1.0	10	97.3	$8.74(28) \cdot 10^4$
6	2.0	6	71.7	$1.04(4) \cdot 10^5$
6	2.0	10	94.7	$4.62(11) \cdot 10^4$
6	2.0	20	98.6	$7.32(17) \cdot 10^4$
8	0.5	2	85.1	$4.94(18) \cdot 10^4$
8	0.5	5	97.7	$4.96(15) \cdot 10^4$
8	0.5	10	99.4	$7.71(23) \cdot 10^4$
8	1.0	4	79.7	$2.78(21) \cdot 10^5$
8	1.0	5	87.5	$2.16(13) \cdot 10^5$
8	1.0	10	97.1	$2.09(11) \cdot 10^5$
8	1.0	20	99.3	$3.30(16) \cdot 10^5$
8	2.0	8	89.5	$9.82(37) \cdot 10^4$
8	2.0	10	94.6	$9.40(31) \cdot 10^4$
8	2.0	20	98.8	$1.44(5) \cdot 10^5$

Table 3.7: S_{cost} for the LPMC algorithm for different L/a , τ and $\delta\tau$.

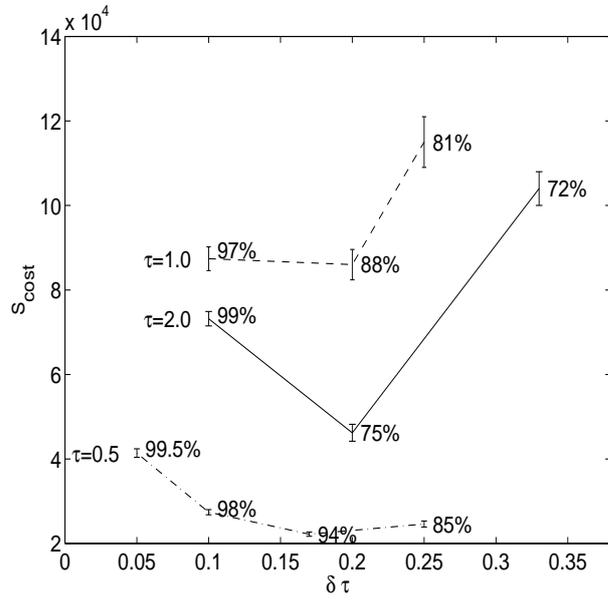


Figure 3.5: S_{cost} for Local Hybrid Monte Carlo at $L/a = 6$.

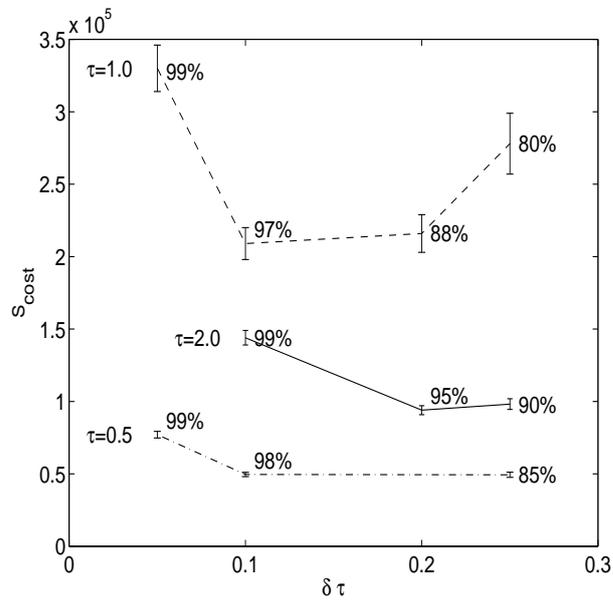


Figure 3.6: S_{cost} for Local Hybrid Monte Carlo at $L/a = 8$.

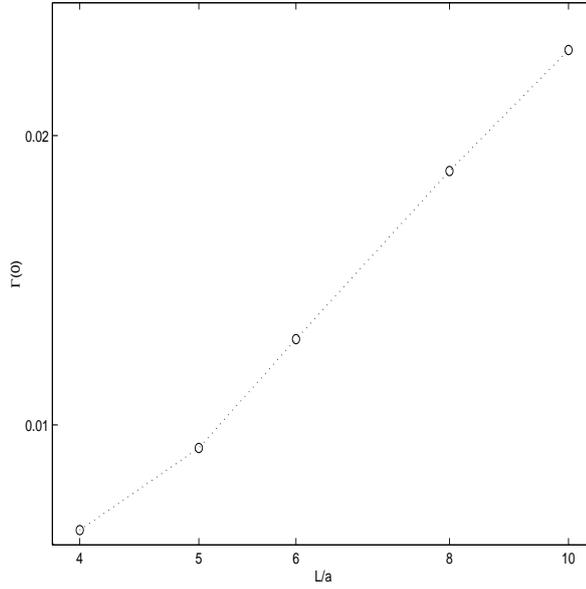


Figure 3.7: Scaling behavior of $\Gamma(0)$ from runs with the HOR algorithm, in a double-logarithmic plot.

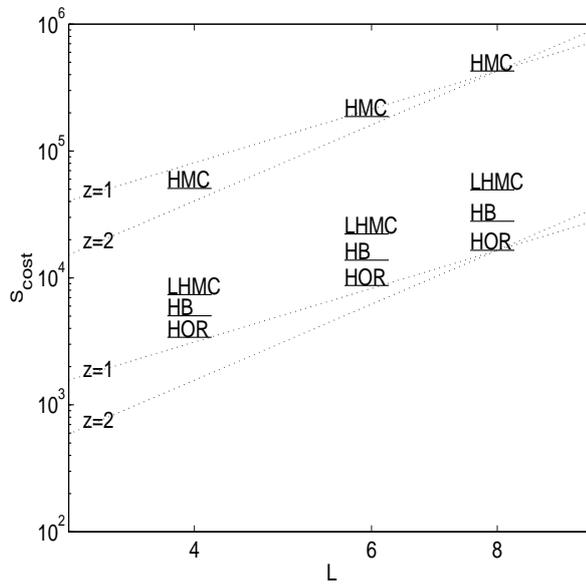


Figure 3.8: Optimal S_{cost} for the different algorithms in a double-logarithmic representation. For comparison, dotted lines which correspond to exponents $z = 1, 2$ are displayed. The points denoted with HB correspond to a pure heatbath.

3.6 for $L/a = 8$. For all L/a , the optimal trajectory length is $\tau = 0.5$. It is remarkable that the cost for $\tau = 2.0$ is smaller than for $\tau = 1.0$. In order to check the behavior for even longer trajectories, we have performed runs with lower statistics and found that the cost increases again. This may be an indication that performance oscillates in the trajectory length. The reason for this could be that the phase space that can be exhausted by a local trajectory is quite small, because a link variable is restricted to the $SU(3)$ manifold. A “good” trajectory is one that is equivalent with an overrelaxation update. When the trajectory length is further increased, it moves on cycles on the sphere.

Compared to global Hybrid Monte Carlo, step sizes can be made much larger, as expected. Optimal acceptance rates are also much larger.

In the following, we investigate how the performance of these algorithms scales with L/a . In lattice field theories, the continuum limit is defined near second order phase transitions in the bare parameter space. Simulations in this area suffer from *critical slowing down*, i.e. the autocorrelation time increases rapidly as the continuum is approached. One expects that the autocorrelation time diverges as [61]

$$\tau_{\text{int}} \sim \min(L, \xi)^z, \quad (3.73)$$

where ξ is the correlation length and z is an exponent specific to the algorithm used. It is not clear that the definitions of z in the regimes $L > \xi$ and $L < \xi$ are equivalent [62]. For simple local algorithms like the heatbath, an intuitive understanding is that modifications of variables are transported around by diffusive dynamics, which suggests a critical dynamical exponent $z = 2$ near the critical point. As the main cost of QCD simulations arises from the largest lattices, z is an important parameter to characterize algorithms.

L/a	$\Gamma(0)$
4	0.0311
5	0.0378
6	0.0491
8	0.0735
10	0.0982

Table 3.8: $\Gamma(0)$ for runs with the HOR algorithm with different L/a . We have not determined errors for these data.

According to (C.8), the error of an observable A is the product of $\Gamma(0)$ and the autocorrelation time. The former is a property of the statistical

ensemble whereas the latter is a property of the simulation algorithm. Both have their separate scale dependence. In table 3.8 we have listed $\Gamma(0)$ for the HOR algorithm, for which our data goes to $L/a = 10$. Figure 3.7 shows a logarithmic plot. For a fit of $\log(\Gamma(0))$ against $\log(L/a)$, we drop the value for $L/a = 4$ because the scaling behavior is only reached asymptotically. From the fit, we find approximately

$$\Gamma(0) \propto (L/a)^{1.38}. \quad (3.74)$$

Therefore, we expect our cost measure to scale like

$$S_{\text{cost}} \propto (L/a)^{1.38+z}. \quad (3.75)$$

Figure 3.8 shows the cost of the studied algorithms at different lattice sizes in comparison. For each L/a , we have plotted the data with optimally tuned parameters. The figure also indicates exponents $z = 1, 2$ by dashed lines. The Hybrid Overrelaxation algorithm almost reaches $z = 1$, while the other algorithms scale slightly worse.

At $L/a = 8$, the observed ratios in S_{cost} for tuned parameters are $1 : 3 : 26$ for HOR : LHMC : HMC. This illustrates the overhead of HMC even before dynamical quarks are included.

Chapter 4

Bermions

In this chapter, we are going to investigate the Schrödinger functional coupling in a Yang-Mills theory coupled to a bosonic spinor field. Formally, it corresponds to setting the number of flavors in the fermionic partition function to $N_f = -2$. In comparison to the full QCD case, this theory has a local interaction and is therefore much cheaper to simulate.

In the literature, the term *bermion model* has been coined for this theory. It was introduced for the purpose of studying unquenching effects without immediately moving to the full QCD theory [63, 64, 65]. The emphasis in these articles lies on the extrapolation of results from negative to positive flavor numbers. In perturbation theory, this can surely be justified. There, the flavor number is just a parameter in the Feynman graphs, and increasing powers of N_f appear with increasing loop order. Therefore, quantities calculated to finite order are polynomials in N_f .

Non-perturbatively, the N_f dependence is not straight-forward. An extrapolation cannot be done in a reliable way and with errors under control. Here, we are not trying to obtain quantitative information for the full theory from the bermion theory. The model serves as tool for studying improvement and the approach to the continuum limit.

4.1 Model

The Schrödinger functional, as the partition function of the system, is an integral over all gauge and quark fields which fulfill the given boundary conditions. After integrating out the quark fields, it is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{Z} = e^{-\Gamma} &= \int D[U] D[\bar{\psi}] D[\psi] e^{-S[U, \bar{\psi}, \psi]} \\ &= \int D[U] e^{-S_g} \det(M^\dagger M)^{N_f/2} \end{aligned} \quad (4.1)$$

with the fermion matrix

$$M = 2\kappa(D + \delta D + m_0), \quad \kappa = (8 + 2am_0)^{-1}. \quad (4.2)$$

For $N_f = -2$, the determinant can be integrated in,

$$\mathcal{Z} = \int D[U]D[\phi^\dagger]D[\phi]e^{-S_g - S_b}. \quad (4.3)$$

Here, the fields $\phi(x)$ are located on the lattice sites and carry Dirac and color indices. However, the components are complex numbers and can therefore be regarded as boson fields. The fermion action S_b is given by

$$S_b[\phi, \phi^\dagger, U] = \sum_x |M\phi(x)|^2. \quad (4.4)$$

In order to completely define the action, we have to fix the improvement coefficients c_t , \tilde{c}_t and c_{sw} . For the first two, the choice is easy: these coefficients are only known in perturbation theory, and perturbative results are computed with general N_f . Therefore, we can take the formulae (2.44) and (2.54) and insert $N_f = -2$ and the value g_0 used in the respective simulation.

For the Sheikoleslami-Wohlert coefficient c_{sw} , the situation is more complicated. It has been determined non-perturbatively for the range of bare couplings $0 \leq g_0 < 1$ interesting for the ALPHA programme for $N_f = 0$ [33] and $N_f = +2$ [35]. The results can be represented as smooth functions of the bare coupling,

$$\begin{aligned} c_{\text{sw}}(g_0)|_{N_f=0} &= \frac{1 - 0.656g_0^2 - 0.152g_0^4 - 0.054g_0^6}{1 - 0.922g_0^2} \\ c_{\text{sw}}(g_0)|_{N_f=2} &= \frac{1 - 0.454g_0^2 - 0.175g_0^4 + 0.012g_0^6 + 0.045g_0^8}{1 - 0.720g_0^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.5)$$

These interpolation formulae are arranged such that they go over to the N_f -independent 1-loop result for $g_0 \rightarrow 0$ [31],

$$c_{\text{sw}}(g_0) = 1 + 0.2659(1)g_0^2 + \mathcal{O}(g_0^4). \quad (4.6)$$

For the purpose of this work, performing the method proposed in these papers also for $N_f = -2$ would be a large undertaking. We have therefore chosen to extrapolate the non-perturbative data from $N_f = 0$ and $N_f = +2$ linearly in N_f . Only for the most critical parameters used in our simulations, we have explicitly calculated c_{sw} with the method utilized in the papers cited above and checked that our extrapolation matches the obtained values with good accuracy. This will be explained in more detail in section 4.3.

4.2 Simulation algorithm

In [66], the bermion model was investigated without improvement. There, it was straight-forward to find a suitable algorithm:

- The gauge fields are updated with a Hybrid Overrelaxation algorithm as described in section 3.2.
- The boson fields are updated with an overrelaxation algorithm.

The important property of the unimproved action that made this possible is that it is linear in each link variable. We found it practically impossible to generalize these finite step size methods to the improved case, where the action depends quadratically on the individual link variables.

From our experience with the Local Hybrid Monte Carlo algorithm, as discussed in section 3.4, this was an alternative candidate for the update of the gauge field. However, the inclusion of the clover term defeats its main advantage. In that case, the force $D_{x\mu j}S[U]$ depends on the link $U(x, \mu)$ in a non-trivial way and has to be recomputed in each step on a trajectory. We therefore expect this algorithm to be relatively expensive for improved bermions.

After some experimentation, we decided to update the gauge field by applying local overrelaxation with respect to the action without clover term. An acceptance step with the local action difference with respect to the full action then corrects for the error made. The assumption behind this method is that the clover term only represents a small correction to the unimproved action. Therefore, the acceptance rate should be reasonably high. Our results confirm this assumption.

As the proposals for the gauge field update are fully deterministic and set up in a special way, ergodicity may be severely hampered when the bermion fields are also updated with an overrelaxation method. Therefore, we have changed the boson field update to a global heatbath.

4.2.1 Gauge fields

In order to apply the overrelaxation method described in section 3.2.2, we have to isolate a part of the full action that is of the form (3.16). For the derivation of such a contribution, we utilize the operator M_μ defined by

$$M_\mu\phi(x) = -\frac{\kappa}{a}\left\{\lambda_\mu(1 - \gamma_\mu)U(x, \mu)\phi(x + a\hat{\mu}) + \lambda_\mu^*(1 + \gamma_\mu)U(x - a\hat{\mu}, \mu)\phi(x - a\hat{\mu})\right\}. \quad (4.7)$$

Furthermore, we introduce $\overline{M}_\mu = M_{\text{unimproved}} - M_\mu$, which is the contribution to the bermion matrix from the directions orthogonal to μ . Then the boson action can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
S_b &= |M_{\text{unimproved}}\phi(x)|^2 + |M_{\text{unimproved}}\phi(x + a\hat{\mu})|^2 + \dots \\
&= 2 \operatorname{Re}(M_\mu\phi(x), \overline{M}_\mu\phi(x)) \\
&\quad + 2 \operatorname{Re}(M_\mu\phi(x + a\hat{\mu}), \overline{M}_\mu\phi(x + a\hat{\mu})) + \dots \\
&= -\frac{2\kappa}{a} \operatorname{Re}\left\{ (\overline{M}_\mu\phi)^\dagger(x) \lambda_\mu (1 - \gamma_\mu) U(x, \mu) \phi(x + a\hat{\mu}) \right. \\
&\quad \left. + (\overline{M}_\mu\phi)^\dagger(x + a\hat{\mu}) \lambda_\mu^* (1 + \gamma_\mu) U^\dagger(x, \mu) \phi(x) \right\} + \dots \\
&= -\frac{2\kappa}{a} \operatorname{Re} \sum_{A\alpha\beta} \lambda_\mu \left\{ [(\overline{M}_\mu\phi)^\dagger(x)]_{A\alpha} U_{\alpha\beta} \phi(x + a\hat{\mu})_{A\beta} \right. \\
&\quad \left. + \phi(x)_{A\alpha}^* U_{\alpha\beta} [(\overline{M}_\mu\phi)^\dagger(x + a\hat{\mu}) (1 + \gamma_\mu)]_{A\beta}^* \right\} + \dots \\
&= -2\kappa \operatorname{ReTr} \left\{ U(x, \mu) \xi^\dagger(x, \mu) \right\} + \dots \tag{4.8}
\end{aligned}$$

Here we have used A to denote the Dirac index and α, β to denote color indices. The $SU(3)$ matrix ξ can be computed as the dyadic product of matrices v and w , $\xi_{\alpha\beta} = \lambda_\mu^* (w^\dagger v)_{\beta\alpha}$. These matrices in turn are given by

$$\begin{aligned}
v &= (1 - \gamma_\mu) \overline{M}_\mu \phi(x) + \frac{1}{a} (1 + \gamma_\mu) \phi(x) \\
w &= (1 + \gamma_\mu) \overline{M}_\mu \phi(x + a\hat{\mu}) + \frac{1}{a} (1 - \gamma_\mu) \phi(x + a\hat{\mu}). \tag{4.9}
\end{aligned}$$

The action we use to generate a proposal for a link variable now is

$$S_{\text{prop}} = -\operatorname{ReTr} \left\{ U(x, \mu) V^\dagger(x, \mu) \right\} \tag{4.10}$$

with

$$V(x, \mu) = \frac{\beta}{3} S(x, \mu) + 2\kappa \xi(x, \mu), \tag{4.11}$$

where $S(x, \mu)$ is the staples matrix as defined in (3.17).

Note that in the action S_{prop} we have only considered terms from the unimproved bermion action. In principle, we could have included the contribution to S_b which stems from the improvement coefficient \tilde{c}_t and which is linear in $U(x, \mu)$. But this term is very small, and it turns out that varying \tilde{c}_t does not change the acceptance rate of this algorithm significantly. On the other hand, including it in the proposal action would complicate the implementation of the algorithm such that optimization blocks are broken and the program is slowed down. It is therefore probably more efficient to include the tiny \tilde{c}_t contribution into the acceptance step.

The $SU(3)$ overrelaxation mechanism described in section 3.2, in which three $SU(2)$ subgroups are “flipped” subsequently, is not set up symmetrically. This means, the probability of going from one value to another is not the same as the probability of the reverse transition.

This problem can be cured by choosing the order of subgroups randomly, i.e. with a probability of $1/2$ for the sequences $1, 2, 3$ and $3, 2, 1$. Thus, starting from a variable U we generate a proposal U' with the probability

$$P_P(U' \leftarrow U) = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \delta(U' - A_3 A_2 A_1 U) + \delta(U' - A_1 A_2 A_3 U) \right\}. \quad (4.12)$$

The application of these matrices is discussed after (3.29). The proposal is then accepted with the probability

$$P_A(U' \leftarrow U) = \min \left\{ 1, \exp(-S[\phi, \phi^\dagger, U'] + S[\phi, \phi^\dagger, U]) \right\}. \quad (4.13)$$

We can show that the combined probability

$$P(U' \leftarrow U) = P_A(U' \leftarrow U) P_P(U' \leftarrow U) \quad (4.14)$$

fulfills detailed balance. Since $P_P(U' \leftarrow U) = P_P(U \leftarrow U')$, we transform

$$\begin{aligned} & P(U' \leftarrow U) \exp(-S[U]) \\ &= P_P(U' \leftarrow U) \min \left\{ \exp(-S[U]), \exp(-S[U']) \right\} \\ &= P_P(U' \leftarrow U) P_A(U \leftarrow U') \exp(-S[U']) \\ &= P(U \leftarrow U') \exp(-S[U]). \end{aligned} \quad (4.15)$$

We continue with a discussion of the implementation of this method. In the acceptance step, the change of the action for the proposed change of a link variable is needed. For the gauge part of the action, the difference

$$S_g[U'] - S_g[U] = -\frac{\beta}{3} \text{ReTr} \left\{ [U'(x, \mu) - U(x, \mu)] S^\dagger(x, \mu) \right\} \quad (4.16)$$

can easily be obtained. The analogous difference for the fermion contribution is more complicated. A change of the variable $U(x, \mu)$ affects the clover leaves centered around fourteen lattice sites,

$$Y = \{x, x + a\hat{\mu}, x \pm a\hat{\nu}, x + a\hat{\mu} \pm a\hat{\nu}\}, \quad \nu \neq \mu. \quad (4.17)$$

Hence, a naive computation of $S_b[U'] - S_b[U]$ implies fourteen applications of the Dirac operator for each local step, which would make the acceptance step very expensive.

Instead, we introduce an auxiliary field $\psi = M[U]\phi$ which is always kept up to date during a sweep over the lattice. At the beginning of a sweep, the Dirac operator is applied globally. Then, for each proposed local change $U'(x, \mu) \leftarrow U(x, \mu)$, proposals $\psi'(z) \leftarrow \psi(z)$ are computed for the fourteen affected sites z . The fermion action difference used in the acceptance step is

$$S_b[\phi, \phi^\dagger, U'] - S_b[\phi, \phi^\dagger, U] = \sum_{z \in Y} \{ |\psi'(z)|^2 - |\psi(z)|^2 \}. \quad (4.18)$$

The proposals for the auxiliary field are accepted or rejected together with the proposal of the link variable. With this method, in each local step only the difference $M[U']\phi(z) - M[U]\phi(z)$ has to be calculated, which involves fewer floating point operations than the computation of $M\phi(z)$.

In order to make this explicit, we note that the action depends on a link variable $U(x, \mu)$ through either the hopping or the clover term. We split $M = M_1 + M_2$ into a term M_1 which is diagonal in coordinate space and a term M_2 which contains nearest-neighbor contributions. Then the proposals are given by

$$\psi'(z) = \psi(z) + \Delta_{x\mu}^{(1)}\phi(z) + \Delta_{x\mu}^{(2)}\phi(z), \quad (4.19)$$

where we have to compute

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_{x\mu}^{(1)}\phi(z) &= M_1[U']\phi(z) - M_1[U]\phi(z) \\ \Delta_{x\mu}^{(2)}\phi(z) &= M_2[U']\phi(z) - M_2[U]\phi(z). \end{aligned} \quad (4.20)$$

The Hopping term affects the sites x and $x + a\hat{\mu}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_{x\mu}^{(2)}\phi(x) &= -\frac{\kappa}{a}\lambda_\mu (1 - \gamma_\mu) [U'(x, \mu) - U(x, \mu)] \phi(x + a\hat{\mu}) \\ \Delta_{x\mu}^{(2)}\phi(x + a\hat{\mu}) &= -\frac{\kappa}{a}\lambda_\mu^* (1 + \gamma_\mu) [U'^\dagger(x, \mu) - U^\dagger(x, \mu)] \phi(x). \end{aligned} \quad (4.21)$$

The clover term affects all $z \in Y$. At $z = x + a\hat{\mu} + a\hat{\nu}$ we get for example

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_{x\mu}^{(1)}\phi(x + a\hat{\mu} + a\hat{\nu}) &= \frac{i}{8a}\kappa c_{sw}\sigma_{\mu\nu}U^\dagger(x + a\hat{\nu}, \mu)U^\dagger(x, \nu) \times \\ &\times [U'(x, \mu) - U(x, \mu)]U(x + a\hat{\mu}, \nu)\phi(x + a\hat{\mu} + a\hat{\nu}). \end{aligned} \quad (4.22)$$

Similar four-link products with $\phi(z)$ insertions are obtained at the other sites.

Let us summarize our method. The update of the gauge fields begins with a global application of M in order to compute the field ψ . Then, a sweep over the whole lattice is performed. In each local step, we do the following:

- Compute the SU(3) matrix $V(x, \mu)$ given by (4.11).

- Compute a proposal $U'(x, \mu)$ for the local link variable by an overrelaxation step, which leaves the action (4.10) constant.
- Compute $\psi'(z)$ for $z \in Y$, following (4.19).
- Compute $S[\phi, \phi^\dagger, U'] - S[\phi, \phi^\dagger, U]$ using (4.16) and (4.18).
- Accept or reject the U and ψ proposals with the probability (4.13).

4.2.2 Boson fields

In a given gauge field background, one can easily find an update algorithm for the boson fields. The action is quadratic in ϕ , so the needed distribution is

$$P(\phi) \propto \exp\left\{-\sum_x (M\phi(x), M\phi(x))\right\}. \quad (4.23)$$

This can be achieved by generating a field ζ with the distribution

$$P(\zeta) \propto \exp\left\{-\sum_x (\zeta(x), \zeta(x))\right\} \quad (4.24)$$

and then computing $\phi' = M^{-1}\zeta$. Equation (4.24) is a Gaussian distribution with variance 2 for the real and imaginary components of $\phi(x)_{A\alpha}$. An algorithm for generating Gaussian numbers on the APE100 is described in appendix B.

The direct usage of this heatbath method implies that one has to solve the equation $\zeta = M\phi'$ with full precision, which can be quite costly. If one reduces the precision of the solver, the correct distribution (4.23) gets disturbed in an uncontrolled way. By introducing additional degrees of freedom, one can get around this problem. Following [67], we introduce a field χ with the same indices as the boson field ϕ , distributed like

$$P(\chi) = \exp\left\{-\sum_x |\chi(x) - M\phi(x)|^2\right\}. \quad (4.25)$$

As $\int D\chi P(\chi) = \text{const}$ is independent of ϕ , one can then simulate the combined distribution

$$P(\phi, \chi) = \exp\left\{-\sum_x [|M\phi(x)|^2 - |\chi(x) - M\phi(x)|^2]\right\} \quad (4.26)$$

without affecting the distribution of the ϕ field. This can be done as follows. One first updates χ by a global heatbath step. To this end, one generates a normal random vector η and computes

$$\chi'(x) = M\phi(x) + \eta(x). \quad (4.27)$$

In a second step, one updates ϕ with an overrelaxation method that leaves the action constant,

$$\phi'(x) = \zeta(x) - \phi(x), \quad \zeta(x) = M^{-1}\chi(x). \quad (4.28)$$

We notice that in each update, the new χ field is constructed from ϕ and a random vector, and it is not used after the update is finished. Therefore, it can be dropped and does not need to be stored in memory.

Obviously, if the equation $\chi = M\zeta$ is solved exactly, this algorithm is completely identical with the one described above. However, we notice that this version can be turned into a Metropolis algorithm. By inverting the fermion matrix only up to a residue vector r , one can generate a proposal ϕ' for an acceptance step,

$$\begin{aligned} M\zeta(x) &= \chi(x) + r(x) \\ \phi'(x) &= \zeta(x) - \phi(x). \end{aligned} \quad (4.29)$$

For a Metropolis algorithm with a deterministic proposal, detailed balance is equivalent with the requirement is that the proposal transition must be symmetric in ϕ and ϕ' . As in (4.29), ζ is independent of the old ϕ field, this is the case here. The action difference in the acceptance step can be computed as

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta S &= \sum_x \left\{ |M\phi'(x)|^2 + |\chi(x) - M\phi'(x)|^2 - |M\phi(x)|^2 - |\chi(x) - M\phi(x)|^2 \right\} \\ &= 2 \operatorname{Re} \sum_x r^\dagger(x) (M\phi'(x) - M\phi(x)). \end{aligned} \quad (4.30)$$

For the inversion of the fermion matrix, we use a stabilized biconjugate gradient (BiCGStab) solver with SSOR preconditioning. A study of an implementation of this solver for the APE100 machine and with Schrödinger functional boundary conditions can be found in [68].

4.3 The size of c_{sw}

In all our simulations, we have chosen the improvement coefficient c_{sw} by extrapolating the non-perturbative formulae in N_f . This ansatz is consistent with 1-loop perturbation theory, and also supported by the fact that the 2-loop contribution is linear in N_f . Nevertheless, we have computed c_{sw} non-perturbatively for $N_f = -2$ for the bare coupling $\beta = 8.99$ to check our assumptions.

By definition, improvement coefficients for $O(a)$ improvement have an ambiguity. Different choices for these coefficients correspond to different

$O(a^2)$ artefacts. Therefore, it is important to use the same improvement condition as was used in the computation of (4.5). Consequently, we follow the method described in [33, 35]. The idea there is to use an observable that vanishes in the continuum limit and has only $O(a^2)$ corrections if the improvement coefficients are chosen properly. Such an observable can be deduced from the PCAC relation.

One first observes that the computation of the current quark mass $m(x_0)$ in (2.71) includes the coefficient c_A which is not known a priori. In order to eliminate it, we define

$$\begin{aligned} r(x_0) &= \frac{1}{2} \tilde{\partial}_0 f_A(x_0) \\ s(x_0) &= \frac{1}{2} a \partial_0^* \partial_0 f_P(x_0) \end{aligned} \quad (4.31)$$

and write

$$m(x_0) = r(x_0) + c_A s(x_0). \quad (4.32)$$

From the correlation function f'_A, f'_P at the upper boundary, one gets another current mass m' . Then the mass defined as

$$\begin{aligned} M(x_0, y_0) &= m(x_0) - s(x_0) \frac{m(y_0) - m'(y_0)}{s(y_0) - s'(y_0)} \\ &= r(x_0) - s(x_0) \frac{r(y_0) - r'(y_0)}{s(y_0) - s'(y_0)} \end{aligned} \quad (4.33)$$

is independent of c_A . Again, a similar quantity M' is obtained by exchanging variables with and without a prime. For this section, we define the current mass M as $M(T/2, T/4)$. Finally, the difference

$$\Delta M = M\left(\frac{3T}{4}, \frac{T}{4}\right) - M'\left(\frac{3T}{4}, \frac{T}{4}\right) \quad (4.34)$$

is zero in the continuum and inherits lattice artefacts from the correlation functions used in its definition. In order to ensure the perturbative asymptotics $c_{\text{sw}}(g_0) \rightarrow 1$ for $g_0 \rightarrow 0$, we precisely demand that ΔM takes its tree-level value at $M = 0$ [33],

$$\Delta a M \Big|_{M=0} = 0.000277. \quad (4.35)$$

This improvement condition is imposed at $L/a = 8$ and $T = 2L$, furthermore $\theta_k = 0$ and with boundary fields

$$\begin{aligned} (\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3) &= \frac{1}{6}(-\pi, 0, \pi) \\ (\phi'_1, \phi'_2, \phi'_3) &= \frac{1}{6}(-5\pi, 2\pi, 3\pi). \end{aligned} \quad (4.36)$$

Using the setup described above, we have measured the current mass aM and $a\Delta M$ for some values of κ at three values of c_{sw} . As shown in table 4.1, these results are in line with the observations in [33, 69], which indicate that ΔM depends only weakly on the mass M . Since it is not critical whether the condition (4.35) is precisely imposed at zero current mass, we have not extrapolated the mass to zero, but instead taken the results where it roughly vanishes. The error introduced hereby is negligible. Our results for the lattice artefact $a\Delta M$ are summarized in table 4.2.

κ	c_{sw}	aM	$a\Delta M$
0.13209	1.171815	0.01899(12)	0.00219(18)
0.13213	1.171815	0.01825(14)	0.00237(21)
0.13241	1.171815	0.00946(13)	0.00218(19)
0.13209	1.271815	-0.00030(19)	0.00066(24)
0.13105	1.371815	0.01173(13)	-0.00124(18)
0.13139	1.371815	0.00061(17)	-0.00127(21)

Table 4.1: $a\Delta M$ at three trial values of c_{sw} at $\beta = 8.99$ and some values of κ

c_{sw}	aM	$a\Delta M$
1.171815	0.0095(1)	0.00218(19)
1.271815	-0.0003(2)	0.00066(24)
1.371815	0.0006(2)	-0.00127(21)

Table 4.2: $a\Delta M$ for different values of c_{sw} at $\beta = 8.99$.

A linear interpolation of these three points to (4.35) gives $c_{\text{sw}} = 1.285(7)$, which is very near to the value $c_{\text{sw}} = 1.271815$ from our extrapolation in N_f . By 1-loop perturbation theory, one can see that this difference causes an error in the step scaling function smaller than $4 \cdot 10^{-4}$ [70] which is negligible compared to the statistical errors as listed in table 4.6.

4.4 Measurement of the coupling

The Schrödinger functional coupling is defined by (2.36). In a Monte Carlo simulation, we have to measure the average value of $\partial S/\partial\eta$, which gets contributions from the pure gauge action S_g and the fermion action S_b . In both

terms, one needs in the end the derivative of a boundary link with respect to η . With the given boundary conditions, we get

$$\left. \frac{\partial C_k}{\partial \eta} \right|_{\eta=0} = \frac{i}{L} \Omega_0, \quad \left. \frac{\partial C'_k}{\partial \eta} \right|_{\eta=0} = -\frac{i}{L} \Omega_0, \quad (4.37)$$

where we have defined $\Omega_0 = \text{diag}(1, -1/2, -1/2)$. For the gauge action, we evaluate

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{\partial S_g}{\partial \eta} \right|_{\eta=0} &= -\frac{\beta c_t}{3} \frac{a}{L} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} \sum_k \text{ReTr } i\Omega_0 \{ \\ &\quad [U(x, k)U(x + a\hat{k}, 0)U^\dagger(x + a\hat{0}, k)U^\dagger(x, 0)]_{x_0=0} \\ &\quad - [U(x, k)U^\dagger(x + a\hat{k} - a\hat{0}, 0)U^\dagger(x - a\hat{0}, k)U(x - a\hat{0}, 0)]_{x_0=T} \}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.38)$$

The computation of the fermion contribution to the coupling is slightly more complicated. It suffices to compute $\partial M\phi(x)/\partial \eta$, because

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{\partial S_b}{\partial \eta} \right|_{\eta=0} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \sum_x \{ (M\phi)^\dagger(x)(M\phi)(x) \} \\ &= 2 \text{Re} \sum_x \psi^\dagger(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} (M\phi(x)). \end{aligned} \quad (4.39)$$

Clearly, only the clover term at $x_0 = a$ and $x_0 = T - a$ can contribute to the derivative. Furthermore the derivative of the magnetic components vanishes, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} F_{ij}(x) = 0$, and we have $\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} F_{0k} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} F_{k0}$ and $\sigma_{0k} = -\sigma_{k0}$. Thus, for $x \in X = (a, \mathbf{x}) \cup (T - a, \mathbf{x})$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial M\phi(x)}{\partial \eta} &= \frac{i}{2a} \kappa_{\text{Csw}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \sum_{k=1,2,3} \{ \sigma_{k0} \hat{F}_{k0}(x) + \sigma_{0k} \hat{F}_{0k}(x) \} \phi(x) \\ &= \frac{i}{8a} \kappa_{\text{Csw}} \sum_k \sigma_{k0} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} Q_{k0}(x) - \text{h.c.} \right\} \phi(x). \end{aligned} \quad (4.40)$$

We define for each lattice point x and plane (μ, ν) the color matrix $\xi_{\mu\nu}(x)$ with elements

$$\xi_{\mu\nu,ba}(x) = \psi_a^\dagger(x) \sigma_{\mu\nu} \phi_b(x) \quad (4.41)$$

and its hermitian part $\chi_{\mu\nu}(x) = \xi_{\mu\nu}(x) + \xi_{\mu\nu}^\dagger(x)$, where we have explicitly displayed the color indices of the fermion fields. Using this, we obtain

$$\left. \frac{\partial S_b}{\partial \eta} \right|_{\eta=0} = \frac{-\kappa_{\text{Csw}}}{4a} \text{Im} \sum_{x \in X} \psi^\dagger(x) \sum_k \sigma_{k0} \left(\frac{\partial Q_{k0}(x)}{\partial \eta} - \text{h.c.} \right) \phi(x)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{-\kappa c_{\text{sw}}}{4a} \text{ImTr} \sum_{x \in X} \sum_k \xi_{k0}(x) \left(\frac{\partial Q_{k0}(x)}{\partial \eta} - \text{h.c.} \right) \\
&= \frac{-\kappa c_{\text{sw}}}{4a} \text{ImTr} \sum_{x \in X} \sum_k \chi_{k0}(x) \frac{\partial Q_{k0}(x)}{\partial \eta}. \tag{4.42}
\end{aligned}$$

The computation of the derivative is analogous to the gauge action case. For practical purposes it is advantageous to organize the above sum in terms of time-like plaquettes at the boundary. Each plaquette contributes to two different clover leaves. So we can write

$$\left. \frac{\partial S_{\text{b}}}{\partial \eta} \right|_{\eta=0} = \frac{-\kappa c_{\text{sw}}}{4} \frac{a}{L} \text{ImTr} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} \sum_k \left(R_k^{\text{l}}(\mathbf{x}) + R_k^{\text{u}}(\mathbf{x}) \right), \tag{4.43}$$

where we have contributions from the lower boundary

$$\begin{aligned}
R_k^{\text{l}}(\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{1}{a} U^\dagger(x, 0) \left[i\Omega_0 U(x, k) \right] U(x + a\hat{k}, 0) \times \\
&\quad \times U^\dagger(x + a\hat{0}, k) \chi(x + a\hat{0}) \\
&\quad + U^\dagger(x + a\hat{0}, k) U^\dagger(x, 0) \left[i\Omega_0 U(x, k) \right] \times \\
&\quad \times U(x + a\hat{k}, 0) \chi(x + a\hat{0} + a\hat{k}) \tag{4.44}
\end{aligned}$$

and the upper boundary

$$\begin{aligned}
R_k^{\text{u}}(\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{1}{a} U(x - a\hat{0}, k) U(x - a\hat{0} + a\hat{k}, 0) \left[i\Omega_0 U(x, k) \right]^\dagger \times \\
&\quad \times U^\dagger(x - a\hat{0}, 0) \chi(x - a\hat{0}) \\
&\quad + U(x - a\hat{0} + a\hat{k}, 0) \left[i\Omega_0 U(x, k) \right]^\dagger U^\dagger(x - a\hat{0}, 0) \times \\
&\quad \times U(x - a\hat{0}, k) \chi(x - a\hat{0} + a\hat{k}). \tag{4.45}
\end{aligned}$$

In the implementation of the measurement, fermions do not produce a large overhead. The computation of $\partial S_{\text{b}}/\partial \eta$ can be done in a loop together with $\partial S_{\text{g}}/\partial \eta$. The effort for a measurement grows only with $(L/a)^3$, whereas the cost of the same computation for $N_{\text{f}} = +2$ is proportional to the lattice volume.

4.5 Tests

Large parts of the simulation program consisted of new code; the gauge field update, the boson update and the measurement of the boson contribution to the coupling. In order to check the program carefully for correctness, it

is desirable to separate the test for different parts of the code as much as possible.

We have done this as follows: in the implementation for unimproved fermions, the overrelaxation boson update there can be replaced by the heat-bath boson update discussed in section 4.2.2 and setting the improvement coefficients $c_{\text{sw}} = 0, \tilde{c}_t = 1$. We have confirmed that the modified program still yields the same results as before.

Then we have run the improved fermion program consisting of the gauge field update from section 4.2.1 and the boson update from section 4.2.2 with various choices of the improvement parameters and checked a control variable discussed below. This tests the update algorithm as a whole.

Provided the boson update on a given gauge field generates a sample distributed according to the action S_b , the measurement routine for $\partial S_b / \partial \eta$ can then be checked on the classical background field by comparing with the tree-level perturbative result.

4.5.1 Control variable

In general, it is advantageous to have a nontrivial observable whose mean is known exactly for any choice of parameters and bare couplings. This allows a consistency check without having to compare results e.g. with the results of other programs, which may not even be possible. In particular, when comparing with another Monte Carlo result, one compares two quantities which both are affected with statistical errors, whereas the comparison with a constant value only involves one statistical error and is therefore more reliable.

In the fermion model, it is easy to construct such an observable. We define

$$E = \frac{1}{12(L/a)^3[(T/a) - 1]} \sum_x |M\phi(x)|^2, \quad (4.46)$$

where $(L/a)^3[(T/a) - 1]$ is the number of sites with fluctuating boson fields and 12 is the number of Dirac and color components.

As a generalization of the property of the one-dimensional Gaussian measure,

$$\langle x^2 \rangle = 1 \quad \text{for } P(x) \propto e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}, \quad (4.47)$$

we expect the expectation value of E , which corresponds to a path integral with Gaussian measure, to be

$$\langle E \rangle = 1. \quad (4.48)$$

4.5.2 $\partial S_b/\partial\eta$ with a static gauge field

By switching off the gauge field update routine, the fermion program can be transformed into a Monte Carlo simulation for a boson field on a fixed gauge field background. We have initialized the gauge fields to the classical background field given by (2.26) and run the modified simulation program. The fields then should be distributed like $\exp(-S_b[\phi, \phi^\dagger, V])$.

For this distribution, the result for the boson contribution to the coupling, $\partial S_b/\partial\eta$, can be calculated exactly using perturbation theory. We first make this calculation for the fermionic action S_f . The fermionic contribution to the coupling comes from the term

$$\frac{\partial S_f}{\partial\eta} = \frac{i}{4} a^5 c_{sw} \sum_{x\mu\nu} \bar{\psi}(x) \sigma_{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial \hat{F}_{\mu\nu}(x)}{\partial\eta} \psi(x). \quad (4.49)$$

Note that with ψ , we denote Grassmann fields here. In the classical background field, all time-like links are equal to the unity matrix, and all space-like links are independent of \mathbf{x} . Therefore the magnetic components $\partial \hat{F}/\partial\eta$ vanish. The other components are translational invariant in the space directions, such that we can write

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial S_f}{\partial\eta} \Big|_{\eta=0} \right\rangle_{\text{cl}} = \frac{c_{sw} L^3}{4} [v(a) + v(L-a)] \quad (4.50)$$

with

$$v(x_0) = 2ia^2 \left\langle \bar{\psi}(x) \sum_k \sigma_{0k} \frac{\partial \hat{F}_{0k}(x)}{\partial\eta} \Big|_{\eta=0} \psi(x) \right\rangle_{\text{cl}}. \quad (4.51)$$

With $\langle \rangle_{\text{cl}}$ we denote the fermionic expectation value in the classical gauge field background. For $x_0 = a$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \hat{F}_{0k}(x)}{\partial\eta} \Big|_{\eta=0} &= \frac{1}{8a^2} \left\{ V(x, k) \frac{\partial V^\dagger(x - a\hat{0}, k)}{\partial\eta} \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{\partial V^\dagger(x - a\hat{0}, k)}{\partial\eta} V(x, k) \right\}_{\eta=0} - \text{h.c.} \\ &= -\frac{i}{4a^2} \frac{a}{L} \Omega_0 \exp \left\{ \frac{a}{T} (C'_k - C_k) \right\} \Big|_{\eta=0} - \text{h.c.} \\ &= -\frac{i}{2a^2} \frac{a}{L} \Omega_0 \cos \left\{ \frac{2\pi}{3} \frac{a^2}{LT} \Omega_0 \right\}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.52)$$

The same result is obtained $x_0 = T - a$. If we now introduce the diagonal 3×3 matrix

$$r = \Omega_0 \cos \left\{ \frac{2\pi}{3} \frac{a^2}{LT} \Omega_0 \right\}, \quad (4.53)$$

and use $\langle \bar{\psi}(x)\psi(x) \rangle_{\text{cl}} = S(x, x)$, where $S(x, x)$ is the propagator in the gauge field background, as discussed in [31], we get

$$v(x_0) = -N_f \frac{a}{L} \sum_{\alpha} r_{\alpha\alpha} \text{Tr} \left(S^{\alpha}(x, x) \sum_k \sigma_{0k} \right). \quad (4.54)$$

The results for $v(a)$ and $v(L - a)$ are computed for some parameter set in [71] and listed in table 4.3. Since the formula for $v(x_0)$ is linear in N_f , we expect the result for $\partial S_b / \partial \eta$ to be of the same value, with the opposite sign.

We have made runs with the parameter set used in table 4.3 at $L/a = 4, 6$. Within the statistical errors, which had a magnitude of about 3%, our numerical simulation results were consistent with these results.

L/a	$v(a)$	$v(L - a)$
4	0.05454081493	0.02858695070
6	0.01555246822	0.00892024138
8	0.00622327486	0.00398090210

Table 4.3: Expectation values $v(a)$, $v(L - a)$ on the classical background field for $N_f = +2$, $\kappa = 1/8$, $\theta = \pi/5$ and $c_{\text{sw}} = 1$.

4.6 Tuning and error propagation

Computing the step scaling function for a given coupling involves a couple of matching runs at size L and a run at size $2L$. The error of the coupling at $2L$ is easily obtained as the statistical error of the simulation. But also the statistical error at L must be taken into account when estimating the error of the step scaling function. For the calculation of the step scaling function itself, we also have to consider a mismatch. Let us assume that (β, κ) is the pair of bare parameters which correspond to the renormalized parameters $\bar{g}^2(L) = u_0$, $m_1(L) = 0$. Then the simulations yield results

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{g}^2(L)|_{\beta^*} &= u_1 \pm \delta u_1 \\ \bar{g}^2(2L)|_{\beta^*} &= u_2 \pm \delta u_2, \end{aligned} \quad (4.55)$$

with u_1 being slightly different from u_0 , and β^* having a slight mismatch compared to the true β . We use the expansion (2.16) to estimate

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma(u_0, a/L) &\approx u_2 - \{\Sigma(u_1, a/L) - \Sigma(u_0, a/L)\} \\ &= u_2 - (u_1 + s_0 u_1^2 - u_0 - s_0 u_0^2 + \dots) \\ &= u_2 - (u_1 - u_0)(1 + 2s_0 u_0) + \mathcal{O}((u_1 - u_0)u_0^2). \end{aligned} \quad (4.56)$$

For the statistical error, we use the estimate

$$(\delta\Sigma(u_0, a/L))^2 \approx (\delta u_2)^2 + (1 + 2s_0 u_0)^2 (\delta u_1)^2. \quad (4.57)$$

In addition to the renormalized coupling, in the tuning procedure the current mass $m_1(L/a)$ must be tuned to zero. In order to minimize the amount of computer time going into the tuning runs, it is helpful to know which precision is needed in the computation of the current mass. In perturbation theory one can estimate how a mismatch in the mass propagates into the value of the step scaling function [72]. One defines the derivative of Σ with respect to $z = m_1 L$,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\bar{g}^2(2L) \Big|_{\bar{g}^2(L)=u, m_1(L)L=z} \right) \Big|_{z=0} = \Sigma'_1(a/L) u^2 + \dots \quad (4.58)$$

By approximating this derivative by its continuum value and using the function $c_{1,1}(z)$ computed in [14], one gets

$$\Sigma'_1(a/L) \approx \Sigma'_1(0) = -\frac{N_f}{4\pi} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} c_{1,1}(z) \Big|_{z=0} = 0.00957 N_f. \quad (4.59)$$

We conclude that tuning the current mass to a residue value 0.001 for example on an $L/a = 8$ lattice leads to an error in the step scaling function smaller than $0.0002 u^2$, which can be neglected compared to our statistical errors. Table 4.5 contains the results of our tuning runs and shows that the measured masses are in a safe range. We have also found that the best tuning runs for a given pair of \bar{g} and m_1 allow for an interpolation to $m_1 = 0$. In those cases, we have listed the value zero with the error given by the fit routine in the table.

4.7 Performance

For the feasibility of our updating strategy, a reasonable acceptance rate in the gauge field update is essential. In particular, there is no tunable parameter which could be used to optimize this component of the update. In the range of bare couplings we have used in our simulations, the acceptance rate does not vary much. It is roughly 76% at $\bar{g}^2 = 0.9793$, and with 70% slightly worse at $\bar{g}^2 = 1.5145$.

In the boson sector of the algorithm, the stopping criterion of the solver can be optimized for performance. In the solver implementation we use, the iteration scheme is finished as soon as the norm of the residue vector is smaller than ϵ times the norm of the solution vector of the preconditioned

system. A solution of the system of equations to machine precision amounts to setting $\epsilon^2 \approx 10^{-14}$.

Since the cost of the whole update process is dominated by the gauge field update, we could not obtain a great advantage by increasing ϵ . In test runs on a 4^4 lattice, the performance maximum is pretty flat in ϵ , and the decrease in cost only about 10%. On larger lattices, one expects that the accuracy of the solver has to be scaled [67], so that we expect the benefit of tuning this parameter to even diminish on the large lattice. As determining autocorrelation times accurately requires large statistics, a detailed performance study on large lattices would be very expensive. Therefore, we have dispensed with this and instead set the solver precision to a safe value of $\epsilon^2 = 10^{-10}$, which gave an acceptance rate of more than 99%.

For a comparison of the efficiency of our algorithm with the one for unimproved Wilson fermions and with simulations with dynamical fermions, we use the measure M_{cost} as defined in [73]. It is machine dependent, with our reference computer being an 8-node APE100, and is defined as

$$M_{\text{cost}} = (\text{update time in seconds on machine M}) \\ \times (\text{error of } \bar{g}^{-2})^2 \times (4a/T) (4a/L)^3. \quad (4.60)$$

According to this definition, if we want to compute \bar{g}^{-2} with an absolute precision of 0.01 on a 4^4 lattice, we need $10000 \cdot M_{\text{cost}}$ seconds update time on a Q1 machine. The focus on the absolute error of \bar{g}^{-2} is motivated by its relevance in the recursive scheme used to compute the Λ parameter. In 1-loop approximation, the expansion (2.16) can be written as

$$\bar{g}^{-2}(2L) \approx \bar{g}^{-2}(L) - s_0. \quad (4.61)$$

This means, under an application of the step scaling function, the error of \bar{g}^{-2} is conserved. In a recursive computation of the coupling at scales $L = 2^{-k} L_{\text{max}}$, the error of \bar{g}^{-2} in each step is equally important.

The cost of our algorithm for the simulated lattice sizes at $\bar{g}^2 = 0.9793$ is shown in table 4.4 and figure 4.1 in comparison with the algorithm for unimproved fermions. When we fit these data with a linear ansatz, excluding the $L/a = 4$ lattices, we find that the cost both for the improved and unimproved theory scales with about $a^{-2.5}$. The overhead of improvement however turns out to be about a factor 12. Considering that unimproved fermions are only a factor 3 more expensive than the quenched approximation, this is quite large. In section 4.8 we will argue that this overhead is nevertheless more than compensated by a substantially improved extrapolation to the continuum limit.

L/a	M_{cost} improved	M_{cost} unimproved
4	0.061(2)	0.00535(7)
5	0.107(3)	0.00866(13)
6	0.212(6)	0.0155(2)
8	0.457(11)	0.0319(4)
10	0.790(17)	
12	1.30(3)	0.0788(12)

Table 4.4: Cost of the measurement of the coupling $\bar{g}^2 = 0.9793$ for improved and unimproved fermions. The last two entries for improved fermions are at $\bar{g}^2 \approx 1.11$.

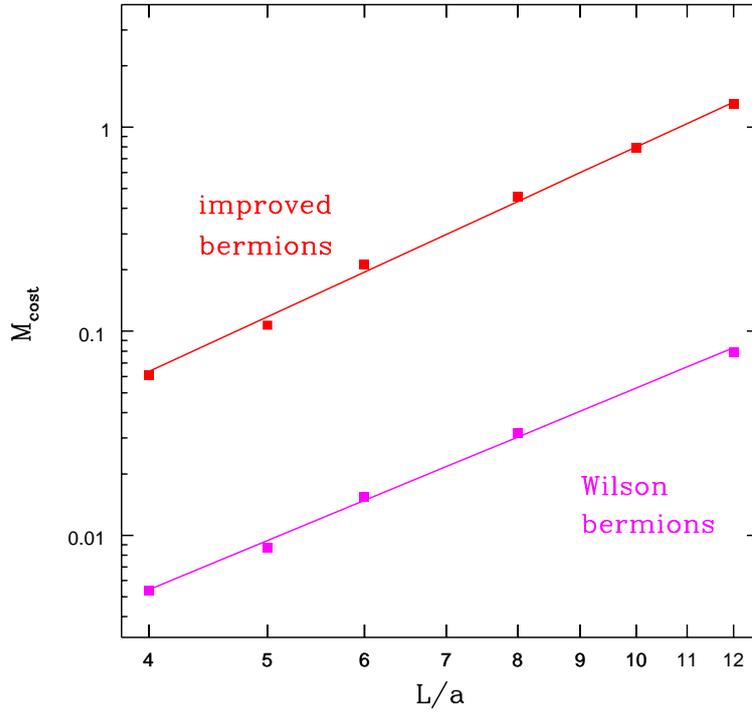


Figure 4.1: Costs of improved and unimproved fermions at $\bar{g}^2 = 0.9793$.

Since our motivation for studying the $N_f = -2$ model was the lower cost in comparison with dynamical fermions, it is also interesting to compare with data from [73]. We find that on a $L/a = 12$ lattice, our implementation of improved fermions is about a factor 10 cheaper than simulations of dynamical fermions. Also, our algorithm scales slightly better.

4.8 Results

Our simulation program was implemented in the TAO language for the APE100 parallel computer. To give an impression of the cost, the run at $\bar{g}^2 = \Sigma(0.9793, 1/16)$ needed roughly 20 days on a QH2 machine with 256 nodes. During this time, 20000 measurements of the couplings have been accumulated in each of 16 replica. We have also ported the program to the slightly changed APEmille environment. Without taking advantage of many improvements like the extended register file, the performance gain is not more than a factor 3. About half of the statistics for the measurement of $\sigma(1.5145, 1/16)$ has been collected on an APEmille crate with 128 nodes.

The measurement of the coupling is quite cheap and its autocorrelation time only up to about 6 in units of updates (while other observables like the average plaquette are correlated over 10 updates). Since our main interest is in the coupling, we have measured it after each update. In contrast, the measurement of the correlation functions f_A and f_P is quite costly. Also, the mass m_1 fluctuates little and is not required with a great precision. Therefore, we have only measured these correlation functions after every 100th or 150th update. For the estimation of statistical uncertainties, we have employed the methods described in appendix C.

Our results for the tuning runs are listed in table 4.5. The corresponding results at the same bare parameters are summarized in table 4.6.

By applying the techniques for the propagation of the coupling mismatch and error propagation described in section 4.6, we obtain $\Sigma(u, a/L)$ for $L/a = 4, 5, 6, 8$ as shown in figure 4.2. In the figure linear in $(a/L)^2$, all points lie on a straight line with no visible appearance of a/L effects. So we fit with the ansatz

$$\Sigma(u, a/L) = \sigma(u) + \rho(u)(a/L)^2. \quad (4.62)$$

In both cases, the slope $\rho(u)$ turns out to be compatible with zero within the errors. In the computation of the step scaling function in the quenched approximation, it has been observed that the Schrödinger functional coupling follows perturbation theory to quite low energies. Therefore, we also display the 2-loop and 3-loop perturbative values in the diagram, which we obtain

L/a	β	κ	$\bar{g}^2(L)$	$m_1(L/a)$
4	10.3488	0.131024	0.9793(19)	0.00000(31)
5	10.5617	0.130797	0.9795(21)	0.00055(13)
6	10.7302	0.130686	0.9793(11)	0.00000(5)
8	11.0026	0.130489	0.9793(14)	0.00000(6)
4	8.3378	0.132959	1.5145(23)	0.00000(28)
5	8.5453	0.132637	1.5145(17)	0.00000(7)
6	8.70830	0.132433	1.5145(33)	0.00000(4)
8	8.99	0.13209	1.5145(33)	0.00066(8)

Table 4.5: *Parameters and results for the coupling and the mass at L .*

L/a	$\bar{g}^2(2L)$	$m_1(2L/a)$
4	1.1090(28)	-0.00300(10)
5	1.1079(29)	-0.00086(5)
6	1.1053(30)	-0.00094(4)
8	1.1093(40)	-0.00025(3)
4	1.8734(74)	-0.00266(12)
5	1.8648(82)	-0.00094(7)
6	1.8488(86)	-0.00070(5)
8	1.8741(100)	0.00002(5)

Table 4.6: *Results for the coupling and the PCAC mass at $2L$ at the bare parameters given by the listed values of $\bar{g}^2(L)$.*

u	$\sigma(u)$	$\hat{\sigma}^{2\text{-loop}}(u)$	$\hat{\sigma}^{3\text{-loop}}(u)$
0.9793	1.1086(72)	1.10435	1.10546
1.5145	1.8713(167)	1.85122	1.85938

Table 4.7: *Extrapolated simulation results and perturbation theory of the massive step scaling function for $N_f = -2$.*

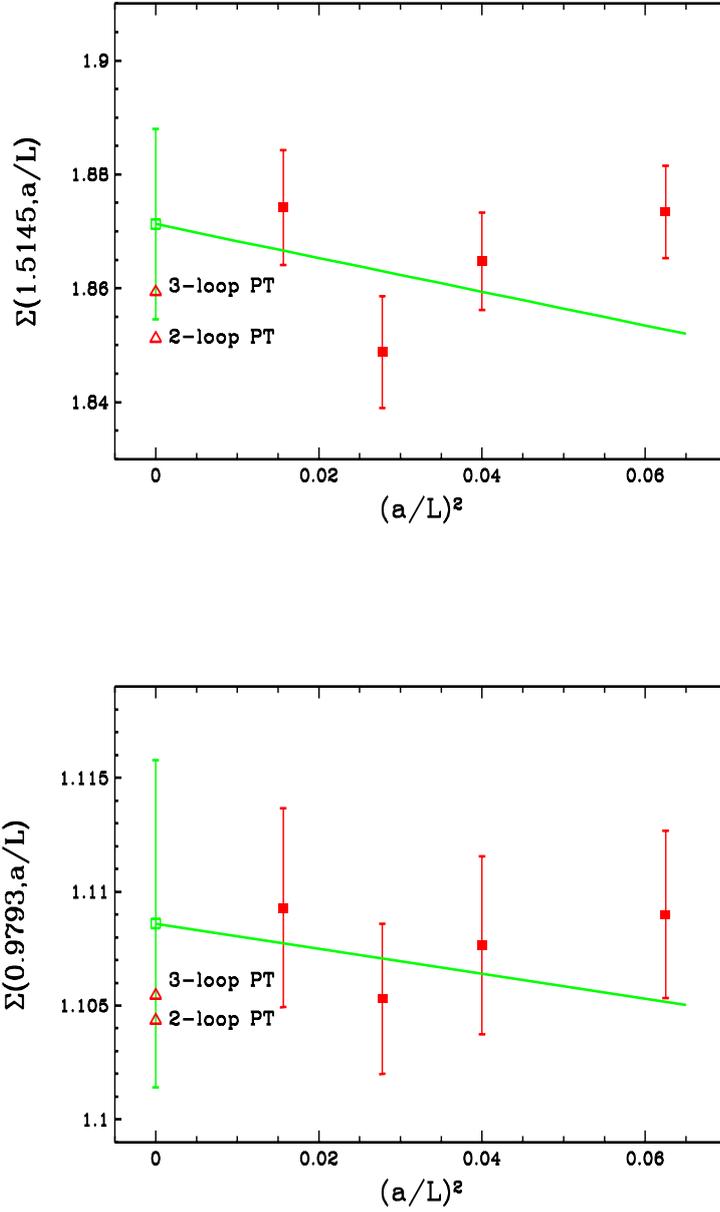


Figure 4.2: Step scaling function for improved fermions for the couplings $u = 0.9793$ and $u = 1.5145$ with fits linear in $(a/L)^2$. Also shown is the extrapolated continuum value and the 2- and 3-loop values.

from [9] and (2.16). For a direct comparison, these numbers are summarized in table 4.7. It can be seen that our simulation results are consistent with perturbation theory within the errorbars. It can also be seen that the 3-loop contribution is of the same order of magnitude as our statistical error (and much larger than in the $N_f = +2$ case).

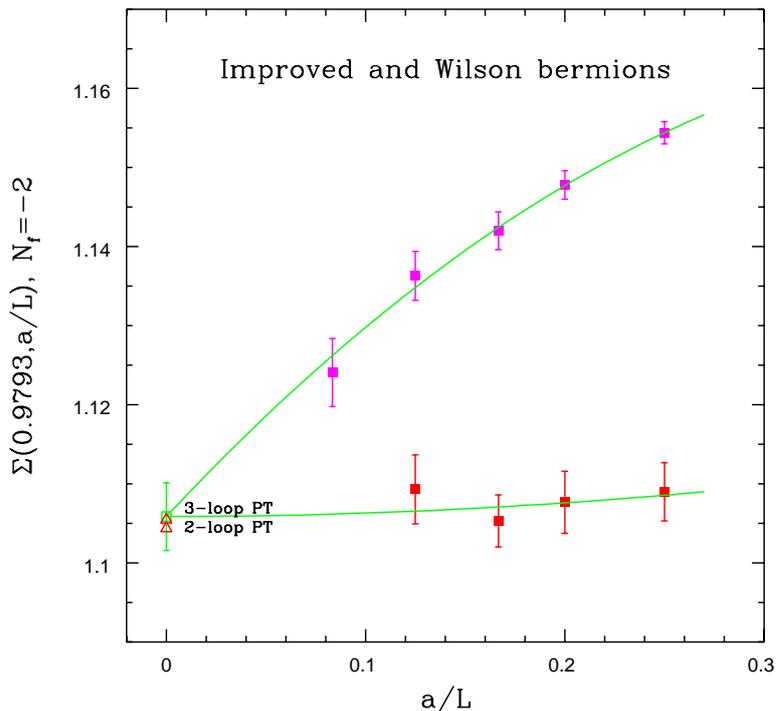


Figure 4.3: Results for the step scaling function at $u = 0.9793$, together with a quadratic fit under the constraint of universality.

Now we want to compare our data with the results for unimproved Wilson fermions from [66]. That study covers the step scaling function at $u = 0.9793$ with resolutions $L/a = 4, 5, 6, 8, 12$. Figure 4.3 shows both data sets in a common diagram against L/a . While the unimproved data points clearly show cutoff effects of a few percent, the improved ones are even consistent with a constant within the statistical errors. The diagram shows a joint fit of the improved data with a quadratic term and of the unimproved data with a linear and quadratic term. In this combined fit, the constraint has been imposed that both curves have the same continuum limit. The continuum limit from this procedure comes out as $\sigma_{\text{combined}}(0.9793) = 1.1059(43)$ which

is minimally different from the value in table 4.7. This is a strong indication that universality holds.

An interesting question is whether improvement is profitable. Fitting the unimproved data alone with a linear plus quadratic function yields a continuum limit of $\sigma_{\text{unimproved}}(0.9793) = 1.103(12)$, i.e. the error estimate is by a factor 2.7 higher than for the fit in figure 4.2. On the other hand, the computational cost was only a factor 1.7 less. From these numbers, the conclusion is that the implementation of $O(a)$ improvement is a cost-effective way of enhancing the precision of the continuum limit. Surely our observations also amend our trust in the extrapolation to the continuum limit.

We should note that this is a quantitative comparison against the Wilson action without any improvement. Experience with the Schrödinger functional boundary conditions in the pure gauge theory indicates that a large part of the lattice artefacts is caused by the time-like boundaries, which are absent in the usually simulated torus setups. These cutoff effects can be very effectively eliminated by setting c_t to its perturbative value, with a minimal implementation overhead.

So the more interesting effect is the one by the clover term. For the simulation of dynamical fermions, the balance will bend more towards improvement than for fermions. One point to consider is the critical slowing down towards the continuum limit. For fermions, a trustworthy extrapolation of the unimproved data points needed simulations up to $L/a = 24$, whereas we were satisfied with $L/a = 16$ for the improved case. The Hybrid Monte Carlo like algorithms for dynamical fermions scale worse than our fermion algorithm, and therefore going to larger lattices is more costly. The other point is that our algorithm for improved fermions is very expensive compared to the unimproved program. In a Hybrid Monte Carlo program for $N_f = +2$, improvement amounts to the modification of the Dirac operator. Hence the inclusion of the clover term implies a much lower overhead, for example about 20% as reported in [74].

Finally, we also want to compare our data with quenched results and data for $N_f = +2$ as published in [11]. While we use the 2-loop value for the improvement coefficient c_t , it was only known to 1-loop at the time when the data for $N_f = 0, +2$ was produced.

The cases $N_f = 0$ and also $N_f = -2$, as discussed before, look well behaved. One can fit both of them linearly in $(a/L)^2$. When the data point $L/a = 4$ is left out, both data sets are also consistent with a constant, which is an indication that higher orders in a do not play a significant role.

The $N_f = +2$ case looks more disturbing, and actually this was one of the main points that led to the consideration of the fermion model. Simulation

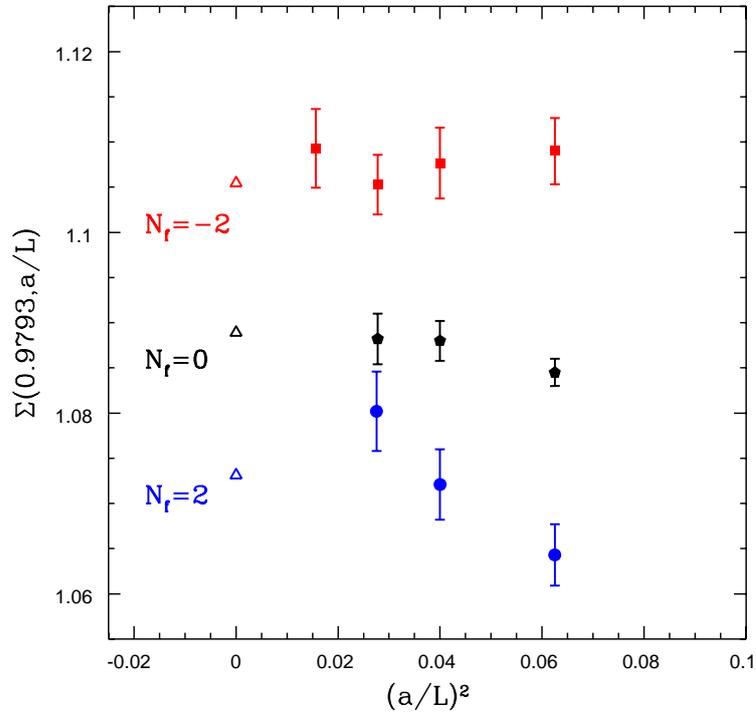


Figure 4.4: Step scaling function for $N_f = -2, 0, +2$ in comparison, in a diagram linear in $(a/L)^2$. The 3-loop perturbative values are displayed as triangles.

runs at different couplings have however produced data sets in which the $L/a = 5, 6$ points differ less [11]. One may conclude that in this figure, the point at $L/a = 6$ has a large statistical fluctuation. Nevertheless, this plot shows that one must be careful with using expectations from the improvement programme for the extrapolation of data. In particular, simulations closer to the continuum limit are evidently needed.

4.9 Results with perturbative corrections

The size of remaining cutoff effects in the step scaling function can be computed in perturbation theory. In order to get an estimate, one expands the

relative deviation from the continuum limit in a series

$$\begin{aligned}\delta(u, a/L) &= \frac{\Sigma(u, a/L) - \sigma(u)}{\sigma(u)} \\ &= (\delta_{10} + \delta_{11}N_f)u + (\delta_{20} + \delta_{21}N_f + \delta_{22}N_f^2)u^2 + O(u^3).\end{aligned}\quad (4.63)$$

One can hope to smoothen the approach to the continuum limit by canceling the perturbative contribution to the remaining cutoff effects from the $\Sigma(u, a/L)$ data from Monte Carlo simulations. Here we also study the corrected values

$$\Sigma^{(2)}(u, a/L) = \frac{\Sigma(u, a/L)}{1 + \delta_1(a/L)u + \delta_2(a/L)u^2} \quad (4.64)$$

with δ coefficients computed to 2-loop order [75]. Figure 4.5 shows the data for $\Sigma^{(2)}(u, a/L)$ in comparison with the uncorrected data $\Sigma(u, a/L)$. These points are fitted in the same way, i.e. linear in $(a/L)^2$ and without the point $L/a = 4$. The perturbative cutoff effects are quite small and do not change the slope of our extrapolations in a systematic way. The $L/a = 4$ points are even pushed away from the extrapolated value. As the perturbative corrections are within the statistical fluctuations of our data, no general statement about the success of this approach can be made. However we note that the extrapolated value changes only minimally.

4.10 Lattice artefacts in the current mass

Another test of the improvement programme and in particular of the PCAC relation are the lattice artefacts in the fermionic observables. Our definition of the step scaling function is such that the current mass $m_1(L/a)$ is tuned to zero on the small lattices. We then expect that $m_1(2L/a)$ measured with the same bare parameters vanishes in the continuum limit and has cutoff effects of order $O(a^2)$. In order to take into account a small mismatch in $m_1(L/a)$, we examine the quantity $m_1(2L/a) - m_1(L/a)$ which is plotted against $(a/L)^2$ in figure 4.6. The linear fits in the data points assert the expected scaling behavior. Only for $\bar{g}^2 = 1.5145$ we can see a small deviation which may stem from a statistical fluctuation and is not a sign of pathological behavior.

Also here it is interesting to see this observable in comparison with the cases $N_f = 0, +2$. Figure 4.7 shows the data points for the coupling $\bar{g}^2 = 0.9793$ in a common diagram. This plot also shows the perturbative data, which is available for integer L/a , connected with dotted lines. As m_1 in (2.72) is defined differently for even and odd lattice sizes, the perturbative points do not lie on a smooth curve.

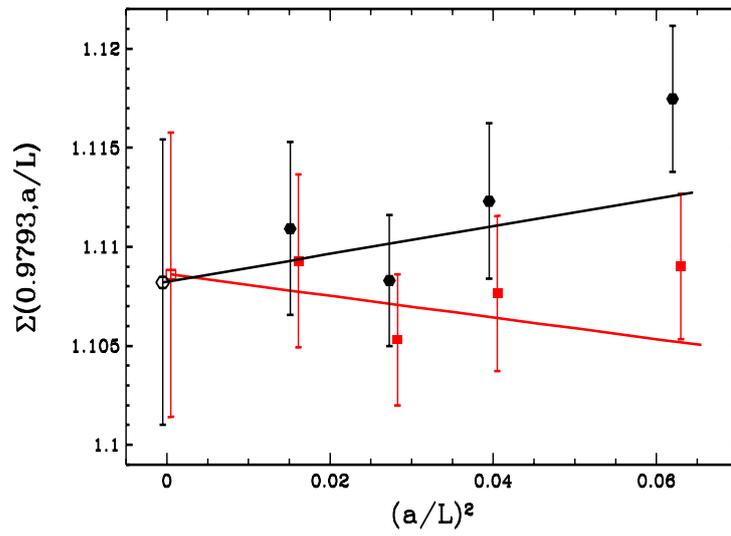
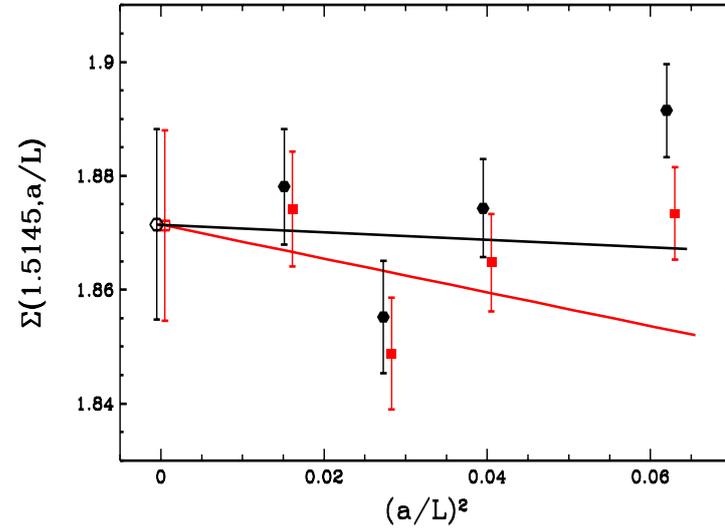


Figure 4.5: Step scaling function for improved fermions for the couplings $u = 0.9793$ and $u = 1.5145$ with fits linear in $(a/L)^2$. The rectangles represent the data points obtained from our simulations, whereas the circles represent the data $\Sigma^{(2)}$ corrected by perturbation theory.

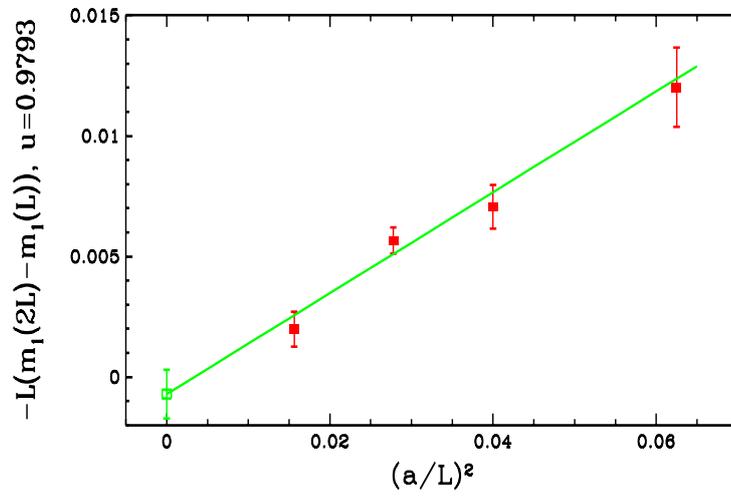
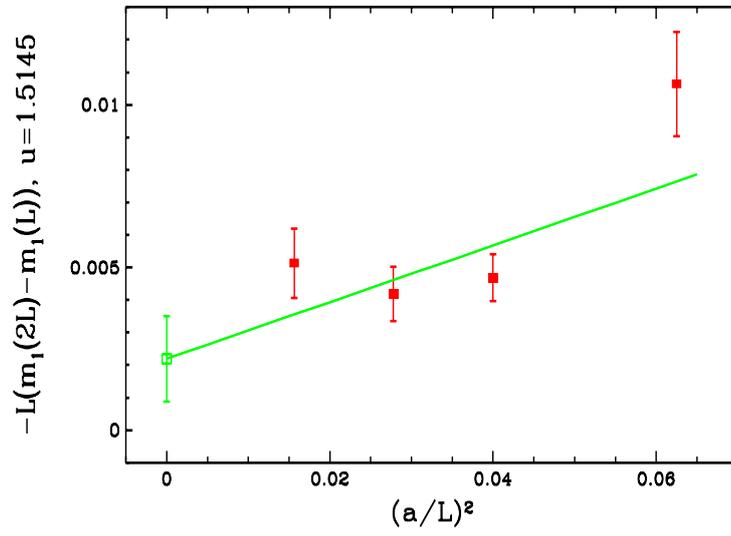


Figure 4.6: Lattice artefacts in the PCAC mass $m_1(2L/a)$ at $\bar{g}^2 = 0.9793$ and $\bar{g}^2 = 1.5145$.

Apparently the points for $N_f = 0, +2$ do not follow an $O(a^2)$ behavior as well. They still behave inoffensively for $a \rightarrow 0$ and are similar to perturbative expectations. One may infer that higher orders in a provide the dominant contributions to the cutoff effects here.

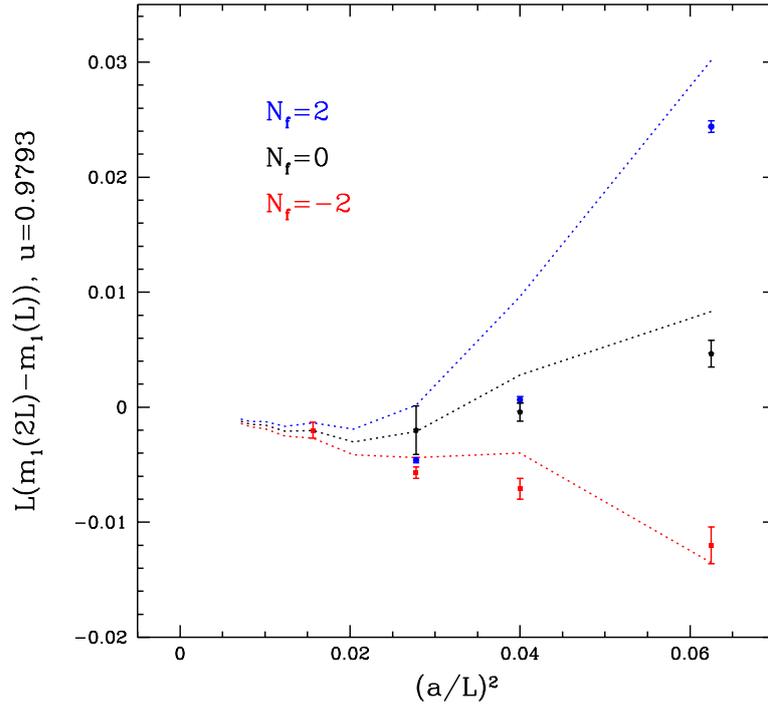


Figure 4.7: *Lattice artefacts in the PCAC mass at $u = 0.9793$ for different flavor numbers. The dashed lines represent (from bottom to top) $N_f = -2, 0, +2$ perturbative results. Non-perturbative data are represented as rectangles, pentagons and circles.*

Chapter 5

Decoupling of heavy flavors

Up to now we have only discussed massless schemes, i.e. schemes in which the renormalization conditions do not depend on the quark masses. This approach has the advantage that the renormalization group equations assume a simple form and renormalization constants do not have a dependency on multiple scales.

For unbroken, non-abelian gauge theories, Appelquist and Carazzone [76] have proven a decoupling theorem. It states that heavy fields coupled to the massless gauge fields do not contribute to the infrared behavior of the theory, apart from renormalization effects.

The $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme - which is certainly the most popular one for high-loop perturbation theory calculations in QCD - is a massless scheme. While this approach is in general quite practical, it fails in full QCD with six non-degenerate flavors, when the coupling is needed at different scales in the range of the quark masses. For example, the running coupling at an energy of 500 MeV obtained by integrating the renormalization group equation contains contributions from all six quark flavors, although three of them are so heavy that they influence the physics on this scale only in a negligible way. Since the β -function in this case provides an “unphysical” running coupling, this has to be compensated by the expansion coefficients of the perturbation series. Contributions from the heavy quarks must hence be present in all orders of this series in the form of logarithms of large quark masses. The reason for the lack of decoupling is that the β -function and the running coupling α_s are not physical observables. Therefore, the decoupling theorem cannot be applied directly to them.

This problem can be circumvented by using different effective theories at different scales. At energies far above the top quark mass, one starts with a β -function with six active flavors. When the energy is lowered under the top quark mass, one considers an effective β -function with five active flavors and

a different Λ parameter. This method is continued at the flavor thresholds at lower energies. In this way, the decoupling is implemented by hand. In general, at the matching scales where one switches from one effective theory to the other, the running coupling is discontinuous. Consistency of the pairs of theories below and above the quark masses implies a set of matching conditions for the running coupling and relations between the Λ parameters. They have been systematically worked out up to 2-loop in [77] by connecting the theories above and below the threshold to the MOM scheme, where the decoupling is explicit. An introduction into this topic can be found in [78].

In our discussion of the Schrödinger functional, we have restricted ourselves to a mass-independent step scaling function. Since the up and down quarks are in good approximation massless, this is an appropriate approach for the low energy regime. At some point one may however want to do research on the running coupling with massive quarks included. As in the β -function in the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme, there is no decoupling in the mass-independent step scaling function. One could work around this difficulty by using step scaling functions with different numbers of flavors in different energy regimes. This leaves the problem of connecting the different regimes.

By using a mass dependent step scaling function, one can move through the flavor thresholds. For example, above the charm quark threshold one simulates an action with $N_f = 4$ quarks. When the scale is made smaller than the charm quark mass, its influence on the step scaling function gradually vanishes. At some scale the effect of the charm quark becomes negligible in relation to the precision aimed at, and one can switch to an action with only $N_f = 3$ simulated quarks.

Unfortunately, heavy quarks on the lattice can cause sizable lattice artefacts and make extrapolations to the continuum limit impossible since one is restricted to lattice sizes that can be simulated on the computer. With the method described above, one still has to be able to simulate the theory with the heavy quark included down to the matching point, where the change to the theory without the heavy quark can be made. The question then is whether one can find a mass cutoff at which the heavy quark has already decoupled, and at the same time lattice artefacts are still small.

Figure 5.1 illustrates how the β -function changes at 1-loop level when the mass¹ is increased. The dashed line shows the behavior in the MOM scheme [79]. As chiral symmetry holds, the β -function is an even function of z , such that the asymptotic behavior is proportional to z^2 for small masses and $1/z^2$ for large masses. Therefore, the decoupling is quite abrupt.

¹In the Schrödinger functional scheme parametrized by $z = m_R L$, in the MOM scheme by $z = m_R/\mu$.

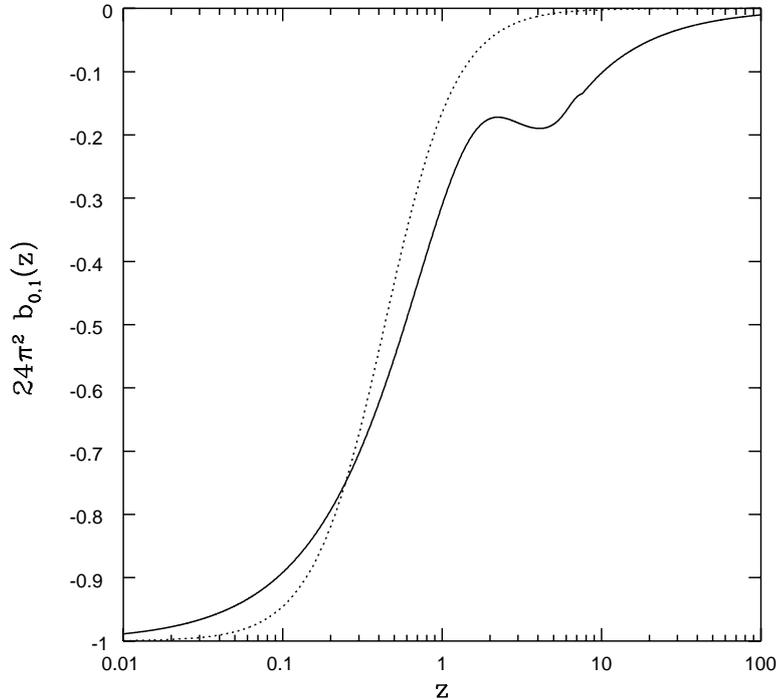


Figure 5.1: *Contribution to the 1-loop coefficient of the β -function per flavor. The solid curve shows the behavior in the Schrödinger functional scheme for $\theta = \pi/5$, whereas the dotted curve shows the MOM scheme.*

In the Schrödinger functional scheme, as represented by the solid curve, the transition region is broader². The temporal fermionic boundary conditions here violate chiral symmetry even in the continuum limit, hence terms odd in z are possible. Nevertheless, in [14] it is argued on the ground of a 1-loop estimation that when a quark with $z \geq z_{\text{cut}} = 2$ is omitted from the β -function, an error in \bar{g}^{-2} of only 0.003 is made, which is well below both the typical statistical errors in the ALPHA programme and experimental measurements. A computation of the lattice artefacts to 1-loop indicates that lattice artefacts even for several flavors up to $z = 2$ are quite small and follow $(a/L)^2$ expectations when a Symanzik improved action is used. Putting these observations together, one can conclude that it is feasible to simulate the range of masses up to $z_{\text{cut}} = 2$ in the massive theory and switch

²The precise shape of the curve depends e.g. on the parameter θ . Therefore, the “dip” in the right half of the plot should not be overrated.

to the theory with the heavy quark omitted for higher z .

In this chapter, we are going to corroborate whether this statement holds non-perturbatively. As in the previous chapter, we use the fermion model as a relatively cheap testing ground. By computing the step scaling function for increasing z , we test the transition from the massive $N_f = -2$ theory to the massless $N_f = 0$ theory.

5.1 Theory

We now introduce some of the concepts used in this chapter. We mostly keep the notation used in [14]. Results from there are quoted without further notice.

As in the massless case, the scale dependence of the coupling is given by the Callan-Symanzik β -function,

$$L \frac{\partial \bar{g}}{\partial L} = -\beta(\bar{g}), \quad (5.1)$$

where the derivative is understood to be taken with the renormalized parameters $\bar{g}(L_0)$ and $\bar{m}(L_0)$ fixed at some scale L_0 . The coefficients in the expansion of the β -function

$$\beta(\bar{g}) \stackrel{\bar{g} \rightarrow 0}{=} -\bar{g}^3 \left(b_0(z) + b_1(z)\bar{g}^2 + \dots \right) \quad (5.2)$$

are dependent on the mass parameter

$$z = \bar{m}(L)L. \quad (5.3)$$

The step scaling function is generalized in a similar way. On the smaller lattice, the bare parameters are tuned such that the renormalized coupling and the parameter z take their prescribed values. The step scaling function then is the value of the renormalized coupling on a lattice with twice the size and the same bare parameters,

$$\sigma(u, z) = \bar{g}^2(2L) \Big|_{\bar{g}(L)=u, \bar{m}(L)=z/L}. \quad (5.4)$$

In a recursive computation of the running coupling, the quark mass runs, and therefore in each iteration step the parameter z has to be adjusted depending on the scale. This can be done by complementing the step scaling function for the coupling with a step scaling function σ_p for the mass, generalizing the definition in [80],

$$\sigma_p(u, z) = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{Z_P(g_0, 2L/a)}{Z_P(g_0, L/a)} \Big|_{\bar{g}(L)=u, \bar{m}(L)=z/L}. \quad (5.5)$$

In order to find the mass dependence of quantities in perturbation theory, it is convenient to relate their coefficients to a massless scheme like $\overline{\text{MS}}$. In the expansion

$$g_{\overline{\text{MS}}}^2 = \bar{g}^2 + \frac{c_1(z)}{4\pi} \bar{g}^4 + \mathcal{O}(\bar{g}^6), \quad (5.6)$$

the coefficient $c_1(z)$ has a pure gauge theory contribution and a mass-dependent contribution proportional to the number of flavors,

$$c_1(z) = c_{1,0} + N_f c_{1,1}(z). \quad (5.7)$$

For large z , the quark contribution diverges as

$$c_{1,1}(z) = \frac{1}{3\pi} \log(z) + \mathcal{O}(1/z), \quad (5.8)$$

with corrections depending on the phase θ in the fermionic boundary conditions. Denoting $\hat{g}^2 = \bar{g}^2(L)|_{z=0}$, this logarithmic divergence shows up for example in the mass dependence of the coupling at fixed scale,

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{g}^2 - \hat{g}^2 &= -\frac{N_f}{4\pi} \{c_{1,1}(z) - c_{1,1}(0)\} \hat{g}^4 + \mathcal{O}(\hat{g}^6) \\ &\stackrel{z \rightarrow \infty}{\equiv} -\frac{N_f}{12\pi^2} \log(z) \hat{g}^4 + \mathcal{O}(\hat{g}^6). \end{aligned} \quad (5.9)$$

The massive step scaling function in 1-loop can be computed by switching the coupling to the $\overline{\text{MS}}$ scheme at the scale L and going back to the Schrödinger functional scheme at the scale $2L$ and the mass parameter $2z$. We obtain

$$\sigma(u, z) = u + s_0(z)u^2 + \mathcal{O}(u^3) \quad (5.10)$$

with

$$s_0(z) = \frac{N_f}{4\pi} \{c_{1,1}(z) - c_{1,1}(2z)\} + 2 \log 2 b_0(0). \quad (5.11)$$

For large z , the mass dependent contribution to the step scaling function converges to

$$\sigma(u, z) - \sigma(u, 0) \stackrel{z \rightarrow \infty}{\equiv} \frac{N_f}{12\pi^2} \log 2 u^2 + \mathcal{O}(u^3), \quad (5.12)$$

which is just the difference between the theories with N_f and zero quarks.

5.2 Renormalized mass

The connection between the renormalized and the PCAC mass is given by the relation (2.73). For our matching runs, we have always approximated $z \approx m_1 L$. In the following, we will discuss the neglected quantities appearing there.

In perturbation theory, the improvement coefficient $b_A - b_P$ is [36]

$$(b_A - b_P)(g_0) = -0.00093(8)g_0^2 + O(g_0^4). \quad (5.13)$$

In the quenched approximation, this value was computed non-perturbatively. It turns out that only for $\beta \ll 7$ one obtains values that are significantly larger in magnitude. As this improvement coefficient is multiplied with the subtracted mass m_q , the overall effect on the mass is very tiny compared to our statistical error.

The renormalization factor Z_A of the axial vector current is scale independent. To 1-loop in perturbation theory, it is given by [81]

$$\begin{aligned} Z_A(g_0) &= 1 + Z_A^{(1)} g_0^2 + O(g_0^4) \\ Z_A^{(1)} &= -0.116458(2). \end{aligned} \quad (5.14)$$

In the quenched approximation, the non-perturbative determination of Z_A deviates about 2 % from this perturbative formula at the bare couplings used here.

The axial density renormalization factor Z_P can also be expanded in the bare coupling. The coefficients are functions of L/a and diverge as powers of $\log(L/a)$ in the continuum limit [82],

$$\begin{aligned} Z_P(g_0, L/a) &= 1 + Z_P^{(1)}(L/a)g_0^2 + O(g_0^4) \\ Z_P^{(1)}(L/a) &= \frac{4}{3}z_p(\theta, \rho) - d_0 \log(L/a) + O(a/L). \end{aligned} \quad (5.15)$$

Here we have followed the notation of [82] where the calculation was done for some choices of θ and $\rho = T/L$, and without background field.

By neglecting the renormalization factors we make a systematic error in z of

$$\delta z/z = \delta \bar{m}/\bar{m} = (Z_P^{(1)} - Z_A^{(1)}) g_0^2 + O(g_0^4). \quad (5.16)$$

Numerically, the scale independent part of $Z_P^{(1)}$ cancels $Z_A^{(1)}$ almost exactly. The logarithmic term causes $\delta z/z$ to vary between roughly 0.051 on the $L/a = 4$ lattices and 0.071 on the $L/a = 8$ lattices, for the bare couplings we have used. On the one hand, this leads to a simultaneous shift of all data

points for a fixed z . On the other hand, it leads to different errors in the step scaling function with fixed z but different L/a . The latter error can be estimated as follows. When we neglect the mass dependence of lattice artefacts, an error in z propagates into the step scaling function as

$$\delta\sigma(u, z) \approx \delta z s'_0(z) u^2. \quad (5.17)$$

The derivative of $s_0(z)$ with respect to z can be computed numerically using data from [14]. The largest effect appears for $z = 2$, where

$$s'_0(2) = 0.00349 N_f. \quad (5.18)$$

The resulting error in $\sigma(u, z)$ then is less than 0.0008, which is an order of magnitude below our statistical error. Although the use of several assumptions from perturbation theory with vanishing background field in this estimate is quite unsatisfactory, we believe it to be not too unrealistic.

5.3 Results

In table 5.1, we list our results of the step scaling function for the lattice sizes $L/a = 4, 5, 6, 8$ and for values of the mass $z = 0.5, 1, 2$. In addition to these results, we use for $z = 0$ the results at $\bar{g}^2 = 1.5145$ from chapter 4, as listed in table 4.6. Figure 5.2 shows a plot with all results.

Although the error bars are roughly of the same size as the variation of the step scaling function for different L/a , when z is kept constant, one sees a slight trend that lattice artefacts become larger for increasing mass. Since for $L/a = 4$, the value $z = 2$ is already equivalent with $\bar{m}a = 1/2$, this is to be expected. Nevertheless, the lattice artefacts do not pose a problem of principle for the extrapolation of our data with an ansatz linear in $(a/L)^2$.

We have fitted our data with the $L/a = 4$ point dropped. This extrapolation is shown in figure 5.2. To see how much the $L/a = 4$ point influences the extrapolation, we have also computed the fit with this point, and listed the results in table 5.2. All these numbers are also to be compared with the perturbative values

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\sigma}^{3\text{-loop}}(1.5145, 0)|_{N_f=-2} &= 1.859385 \\ \hat{\sigma}^{3\text{-loop}}(1.5145, 0)|_{N_f=0} &= 1.806922. \end{aligned} \quad (5.19)$$

In the figure, these 3-loop results are shown as red and black triangles, respectively. From these numbers, it is clear that our accuracy is not sufficient for resolving the step scaling functions with $z = 0.5, 1, 2$. In fact, when we

z_1	L/a	β	κ	$\bar{g}^2(L)$	$\bar{g}^2(2L)$
0.5	4	8.274636	0.129184	1.5145(15)	1.8225(53)
0.5	5	8.474702	0.129606	1.5145(16)	1.8393(69)
0.5	6	8.651298	0.129873	1.5145(24)	1.8270(82)
0.5	8	8.920407	0.130185	1.5145(35)	1.8320(111)
1	4	8.227619	0.125497	1.5145(13)	1.8095(52)
1	5	8.426126	0.126580	1.5145(16)	1.8158(65)
1	6	8.599670	0.127310	1.5145(30)	1.8152(91)
1	8	8.855909	0.128237	1.5145(41)	1.8311(99)
2	4	8.166523	0.118802	1.5145(13)	1.7975(49)
2	5	8.357652	0.120885	1.5145(17)	1.8096(87)
2	6	8.521765	0.122377	1.5145(20)	1.8246(88)
2	8	8.793347	0.124347	1.5145(33)	1.8342(97)

Table 5.1: *Tuning results for β and κ for the given values of z and L/a , together with the measured coupling at L and $2L$.*

z	without $L/a = 4$	with $L/a = 4$
0	1.871(17)	1.859(11)
0.5	1.820(18)	1.840(11)
1.0	1.831(19)	1.833(11)
2.0	1.851(18)	1.844(11)

Table 5.2: *Extrapolated simulation results of the massive step scaling function $\sigma(1.5145, z)$ for $N_f = -2$.*

	$n = 1$	$n = 2$	$n = 3$
$\hat{\sigma}^{n\text{-loop}}(1.5145, 0) _{N_f=-2}$	1.811555	1.851225	1.859385
$\hat{\sigma}^{n\text{-loop}}(1.5145, 0) _{N_f=0}$	1.773940	1.803887	1.806922
$\sigma^{n\text{-loop}}(1.5145, 0) _{N_f=-2}$	1.762845	1.828158	1.849306
$\sigma^{n\text{-loop}}(1.5145, 0) _{N_f=0}$	1.735997	1.788089	1.801806

Table 5.3: *Perturbation theory for the step scaling function for $N_f = -2$ and $N_f = 0$ to 1-loop, 2-loop and 3-loop.*

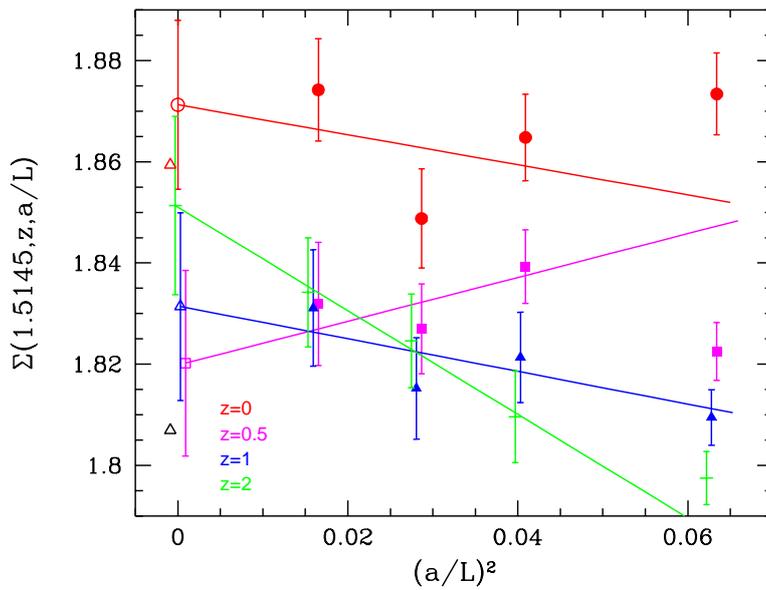


Figure 5.2: Step scaling function at $u = 1.5145$ for $z = 0, 0.5, 1, 2$ with fits linear in $(a/L)^2$. Please note that this figure is meant to be viewed in color.

leave out the $L/a = 4$ point, the extrapolated values appear in the “wrong” order, but with a statistical error that is roughly of the same magnitude as the difference between the values.

In [14], the lattice artefacts parametrized as in (4.63) were calculated to 1-loop for the massive step scaling function, both for an improved and unimproved action. The mass definition used there is the pole mass, which is to 1-loop equivalent to our mass definition with the background field switched off. At least for $z = 0$, the lattice artefacts do not differ much between different mass definitions, so that the qualitative behavior is probably independent of it [72].

The lattice artefacts we see in our simulations are of the same magnitude as those computed perturbatively. The perturbative lattice artefacts also behave like $(a/L)^2$, which is consistent with our observation that an ansatz linear in $(a/L)^2$ works. It would be desirable to have the $\delta_1(a/L)$ values or even $\delta_2(a/L)$ for $z \neq 0$ with our mass definition. Then one could use the

method described in section 4.9 to cancel the perturbative contributions to the lattice artefacts. Since the lattice artefacts cause the step scaling function at finite a/L to decouple faster than in the continuum, this method should reduce the slope of the fit, which here depends on the mass parameter.

We would also like to note here that the size of lattice artefacts depends on the number of flavors. With $N_f = -2$ used here, the quark contribution has the same sign as the pure gauge theory contribution. This situation changes for $N_f = 2$ and $N_f = 4$. There, the perturbative lattice artefacts, for instance with $z = 2$, are *smaller* than in the pure gauge theory.

A quantitative comparison of our extrapolated data with perturbation theory is difficult. In table 5.3, the perturbative results for the step scaling in 1-loop to 3-loop are listed, according to the definitions (2.18) and (2.19).

Clearly, the 2-loop and higher contributions are so significant that a comparison of non-perturbative results to the 1-loop results is impossible. On the other hand, the massive β -function has not been computed beyond 1-loop. An alternative to studying absolute values of $\sigma(u, z)$ might be to consider only the mass dependent contribution $\sigma(u, z) - \sigma(u, 0)$. But also for this quantity, higher order terms are a problem. We expect

$$\sigma(u, z)|_{N_f=-2} - \sigma(u, 0)|_{N_f=-2} \stackrel{z \rightarrow \infty}{\approx} \sigma(u, 0)|_{N_f=0} - \sigma(u, 0)|_{N_f=-2}. \quad (5.20)$$

But to 1-loop,

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\sigma}^{1\text{-loop}}(1.5145, 0)|_{N_f=0} - \hat{\sigma}^{1\text{-loop}}(1.5145, 0)|_{N_f=-2} &= -0.038 \\ \sigma^{1\text{-loop}}(1.5145, 0)|_{N_f=0} - \sigma^{1\text{-loop}}(1.5145, 0)|_{N_f=-2} &= -0.027. \end{aligned} \quad (5.21)$$

This indicates that $O(u^3)$ corrections to this difference are of the same order of magnitude as the z -dependence we want to investigate.

Chapter 6

Summary and Outlook

In this thesis, we have investigated aspects of the step scaling function in the Schrödinger functional scheme.

In chapter 3 we have compared the efficiency of various algorithms in pure SU(3) gauge theory. The emphasis in this study is on the coupling \bar{g} , which is directly relevant for the computation of the step scaling function. The favored method for this kind of theories is the Hybrid Overrelaxation (HOR) algorithm. However, this algorithm is not easily generalizable to theories with an action that is quadratic in the individual link variables. The other algorithms in this study are based on molecular dynamics. While the global Hybrid Monte Carlo (HMC) is the standard algorithm for the simulation of dynamical fermions, the Local Hybrid Monte Carlo (LHMC) is a local version of it. The important results of this study are a factor of 3 in the cost of LHMC, and even a factor of 26 for HMC compared to the HOR algorithm, for the lattice size $L/a = 8$. These numbers may for instance serve as a guideline for the choice of suitable algorithms for actions with a pure gauge theory like term plus a correction. The fermion model studied in this work is an example for such a theory.

Chapter 4 is devoted to the step scaling function for two flavors of massless fermions with $O(a)$ improvement. The motivation for considering this model is the reduced computational cost in comparison with dynamical fermions. We have studied in detail the approach to the continuum limit and lattice artefacts. We have found that lattice artefacts follow the expected behavior and an extrapolation linearly in $(a/L)^2$ works well and yields results compatible with renormalized perturbation theory. A comparison with unimproved Wilson fermions illustrates the success of $O(a)$ Symanzik improvement and confirms that the unimproved and improved theory converge to a universal continuum limit. Unfortunately, algorithmic difficulties arising from the inclusion of the clover term cause a large overhead of our simulation pro-

gram compared to the unimproved one, so that the efficiency advantage over fermions is only a factor 10. Consequently, we cannot reach lattice sizes much larger than with dynamical fermions. Nevertheless, our results put the methods used in the $N_f = 2$ case on a firmer ground and increase our trust that a solid determination of the Λ parameter for two massless fermions can soon be finished. The running coupling for $N_f = 2$ will also serve as the basis for quark mass renormalization and phenomenological investigations.

In chapter 5 we have investigated the massive step scaling function in the fermion model. Since heavy quarks are expected to decouple at low energies, this quantity can be used to move through a flavor threshold, below which one can switch to an effective theory without the heavy quark. Our aim was to corroborate statements from previous perturbative studies, which are essential for the feasibility of the recursive evaluation of the running coupling in QCD with several massive quarks. We have found lattice artefacts to be of tractable magnitude in our range of simulated masses. The extrapolation of the massive step scaling function showed that the decoupling effect is not totally different from our expectation. Resolving different values of the mass correctly would require to increase our statistical precision significantly in comparison to the mass dependence of the step scaling function.

Appendix A

Notation

As a convention, we use letters μ, ν, \dots from the middle of the greek alphabet to denote Lorentz indices running from 0 to 3. When we are referring to spatial components only, we use latin letters k, l, \dots . Dirac spinors carry indices A, B, \dots . Color vectors in the fundamental representation of $SU(N)$ have indices α, β from the beginning of the greek alphabet. Repeated indices are always summed over.

We distinguish space-like 3-vectors $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ from 4-vectors $x = (x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3)$ by a bold font.

SU(2) matrices

Any 2×2 matrix can be written in the form

$$w = w_0 + iw_k \sigma_k. \quad (\text{A.1})$$

where σ_k are the Pauli matrices

$$\sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{A.2})$$

The set of complex coefficients are called the quaternionic representation. In this representation,

$$\begin{aligned} \det w &= w_\mu w_\mu \\ \text{Tr } w &= 2w_0. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

For $SU(2)$ matrices w , these coefficients are real and fulfill $w_\mu w_\mu = 1$.

Another possible parametrization of $SU(2)$ is the exponential mapping with group generators. This will not be used here, but only in the $SU(N)$ case where $N \geq 3$.

SU(N) matrices

Every SU(N) matrix U can be parametrized by

$$U = \exp \left\{ \sum_{a=1}^{N^2-1} iT_a \omega_a \right\}. \quad (\text{A.4})$$

The coefficients ω_a are real-valued. $T_a \in \mathfrak{su}(N)$ are called generators of the Lie algebra associated with the group. Their representation is as $N \times N$ matrices. They fulfill

$$X^\dagger = -X \text{ and } \text{Tr}X = 0. \quad (\text{A.5})$$

For SU(3), we write $T_j = \lambda_j$, where λ_j are the Gell-Mann matrices

$$\lambda_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{A.6})$$

$$\lambda_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_5 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_6 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{A.7})$$

$$\lambda_7 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_8 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/\sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2/\sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{A.8})$$

Haar measure

As integration measure for SU(N), we use the Haar measure dU . It has the (for a gauge theory natural) property of being invariant under left and right multiplication with group elements,

$$\int dU f(U) = \int dU f(gUh^{-1}), \quad g, h \in \text{SU}(N) \quad (\text{A.9})$$

and it is normalized,

$$\int dU = 1. \quad (\text{A.10})$$

In the quaternionic representation of SU(2), the Haar measure takes the form

$$dw = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \delta(w^2 - 1) d^4w. \quad (\text{A.11})$$

Dirac matrices

We choose Dirac matrices in the chiral representation, where

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_{1,2,3} &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i\sigma_{1,2,3} \\ i\sigma_{1,2,3} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \gamma_0 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\end{aligned}\tag{A.12}$$

$$\gamma_5 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.\tag{A.13}$$

These matrices fulfill

$$\gamma_\mu^\dagger = \gamma_\mu, \quad \gamma_\mu^2 = 1, \quad \{\gamma_\mu, \gamma_\nu\} = 2\delta_{\mu,\nu}.\tag{A.14}$$

Also, in this representation, $\gamma_5 = \gamma_0\gamma_1\gamma_2\gamma_3$ has the property $\gamma_5^\dagger = \gamma_5$ and $\gamma_5^2 = 1$. The matrices

$$\sigma_{\mu\nu} = \frac{i}{2}[\gamma_\mu, \gamma_\nu]\tag{A.15}$$

are hermitian and are explicitly given by

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_{ok} &= \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_k & 0 \\ 0 & -\sigma_k \end{pmatrix} \\ \sigma_{ij} &= \epsilon_{ijk} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_k & 0 \\ 0 & -\sigma_k \end{pmatrix},\end{aligned}\tag{A.16}$$

where ϵ_{ijk} is the totally antisymmetric tensor.

Lattice derivatives

On the lattice, derivatives have to be discretized. We define forward and backward derivatives by

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_\mu f(x) &= \frac{f(x + a\hat{\mu}) - f(x)}{a} \\ \partial_\mu^* f(x) &= \frac{f(x) - f(x - a\hat{\mu})}{a},\end{aligned}\tag{A.17}$$

where $\hat{\mu}$ denotes the unit vector in direction μ .

Appendix B

Random numbers

Generator

All updating algorithms used in this work require a large number of random numbers. In practice, it is only feasible to use *pseudo* random numbers, which are produced by deterministic process. Here we use the generator by Lüscher [83, 84] which is based on one proposed by Marsaglia and Zaman [85]. It is known to have a large periodicity time and its underlying dynamical system is chaotic, so it is assumed to generate numbers which do not introduce a bias into simulation results.

Gaussian distribution

Random numbers with a distribution proportional to e^{-y^2} can be generated in pairs. This means, we generate the combined distribution

$$P(y_1, y_2) = \exp(-y_1^2 - y_2^2), \quad (\text{B.1})$$

which gives two independent random numbers with the desired distribution. The variables y_1 and y_2 can be interpreted as coordinates in a two-dimensional plane, i.e. they can be transformed into polar coordinates

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= \rho \cos \theta \\ y_2 &= \rho \sin \theta. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.2})$$

The transformed variables have a distribution $\tilde{P}(\rho, \theta)$ with

$$\begin{aligned} P(y_1, y_2) dy_1 dy_2 &= \tilde{P}(\rho, \theta) d\rho d\theta \\ \det \frac{\partial(y_1, y_2)}{\partial(\rho, \theta)} &= \rho. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B.3})$$

The distribution for the polar coordinates is thus given by

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{P}(\rho, \theta) &= \rho e^{-\rho^2} \\ &\propto \frac{d}{d\rho}(1 - e^{-\rho^2}).\end{aligned}\tag{B.4}$$

θ can simply be computed by multiplying a uniformly in $[0, 1[$ distributed number by 2π . ρ can be obtained by drawing u from a uniform distribution in $[0, 1[$ and computing¹

$$\rho = (-\log(1 - u))^{\frac{1}{2}}.\tag{B.5}$$

¹The usage of $1 - u$ avoids logarithms of zero, since u takes values smaller than 1.

Appendix C

Error analysis

An important aspect of the extraction of results from Monte Carlo runs is the estimation of errors. As the set of data from a finite simulation run is a sample from a statistical ensemble, there is of course a naive statistical error proportional to $\sqrt{1/N}$.

Furthermore, any Monte Carlo run needs some time before it reaches the thermal equilibrium, where field configurations are distributed according to the ensemble given by the Boltzmann factor. Including the thermalization phase into the average of an observable leads to an initialization bias. The only practical way to avoid this is to throw away a sufficiently high number of measurements at the beginning of the run.

Another source of errors is the correlation between successive measurements. In general, an updating algorithm does not generate a chain of configurations which are really independent of each other. One can express the real statistical error of an observable \mathcal{O} as the product of the “naive error” and a factor $2\tau_{\text{int}}$, where τ_{int} is an integrated autocorrelation time as described below. The autocorrelation time may differ between different observables.

In the evaluation of autocorrelation times, it is essential to distinguish between primary quantities and secondary quantities. Primary quantities, such as the inverse coupling or the average plaquette, are directly extracted from a field configuration, i.e. they are expectation values of functions of the field variables. Secondary quantities are functions of two or more, in general correlated, primary quantities. In this work, an example for a secondary quantity is the current mass which is calculated as a quotient of fermionic correlation functions f_A and f_P .

Primary quantities

Let us a sequence of measurements $a^i, i = 1 \dots N$ of an observable \hat{A} which has the exact mean value $A = \langle A \rangle$. We assume that these stem from a large enough ensemble in the thermal equilibrium, such that they have a Gaussian distribution following the central limit theorem. The natural estimator for A is the sample average,

$$A \approx \bar{a} := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N a^i. \quad (\text{C.1})$$

This is the best estimator in the sense that the expectation value of \bar{a} over an infinite ensemble of Monte Carlo runs is the correct value,

$$\langle \bar{a} - A \rangle_{\text{MC}} = 0. \quad (\text{C.2})$$

If all configurations in the sample are uncorrelated, the variance of the normal distribution is

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 &= \frac{\langle (\hat{A} - A)^2 \rangle}{N} \\ &= \frac{\langle (\bar{a} - A)^2 \rangle_{\text{MC}}}{N}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{C.3})$$

In the realistic case, where configurations are correlated, this underestimates the error. We introduce the autocorrelation function

$$\Gamma(i - j) = \langle (a^i - A)(a^j - A) \rangle_{\text{MC}} \quad (\text{C.4})$$

between the i 'th and the j 'th measurement. Γ depends only on the distance between the measurements. Its value at zero is

$$\Gamma(0) = \langle (\hat{A} - A)^2 \rangle. \quad (\text{C.5})$$

An estimator for Γ is

$$\Gamma(t) \approx \frac{1}{N - t} \sum_{i=t+1}^N (a_i - \bar{a})(a_{i-t} - \bar{a}). \quad (\text{C.6})$$

In general, we neglect the error of $\Gamma(t)$. The integrated autocorrelation time is defined as¹

$$\tau_{\text{int}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(i)}{\Gamma(0)}. \quad (\text{C.7})$$

¹This definition is one common convention, where τ_{int} becomes $1/2$ when there are no autocorrelations.

We can now express the “true” variance of the estimator \bar{a} by the auto-correlation function,

$$\begin{aligned}
\sigma^2 &= \frac{1}{N^2} \left\langle \left(\sum_{i=1}^N (a_i - A)^2 \right) \right\rangle \\
&= \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \Gamma(i - j) \\
&= \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{t=-(N-1)}^{N-1} (N - |t|) \Gamma(t) \\
&\approx \Gamma(0) \frac{2\tau_{\text{int}}}{N} \quad \text{for } N \gg t.
\end{aligned} \tag{C.8}$$

A comparison with (C.3) shows that the error behaves as if the effective number of measurements was $N/(2\tau_{\text{int}})$ instead of N . Intuitively speaking, generating a completely decorrelated configuration from a given one requires $2\tau_{\text{int}}$ update steps.

A popular method called *binning* takes this statement verbatim: in the binning method, one averages measurements over bins of length N_{bin} and looks at the naively computed error of the binned data set. When N_{bin} is increased, subsequent bins should gradually become uncorrelated after it reaches the value $2\tau_{\text{int}}$. One expects the error in dependence of the bin length to converge to a plateau. In practice, the autocorrelation function has statistical errors which are enhanced for increasing N_{bin} (which implies a decreasing number of bins) and the plateau is washed out. The determination of τ_{int} and in particular its error is therefore difficult.

Here, we use a different method explained in [61]. The main point here is not to sum up Γ over the whole possible range of times, but only over a window $[-M, M]$,

$$\hat{\tau}_{\text{int}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=-M}^M \frac{\Gamma(t)}{\Gamma(0)}. \tag{C.9}$$

Making this window larger increases the variance of the estimated τ_{int} , making it smaller increases its bias. As a compromise, Madras and Sokal [86] propose to choose the window to be the smallest one which fulfills the condition $M \geq c\hat{\tau}_{\text{int}}$, with a suitably chosen c . As $\hat{\tau}_{\text{int}}$ depends on the choice of M , this plays the role of a self-consistency condition. We usually choose $c = 6$. With this method, the error of τ_{int} can be estimated as

$$\frac{\delta\tau_{\text{int}}}{\tau_{\text{int}}} = \sqrt{\frac{2(2M + 1)}{N}}. \tag{C.10}$$

Secondary quantities

Let us consider a set of primary quantities \hat{A}_α with exact mean values A_α . For each of them, there are measurement data $a_\alpha^i, i = 1 \dots N$, which have sample means \bar{a}_α . Now we want to study a secondary quantity which is given as a function $f = f(\{\hat{A}_\alpha\})$. A natural estimator for the value $F = f(\{A_\alpha\})$ is $f(\{\bar{a}_\alpha\})$. For primary quantities, we have seen in (C.2) that the expectation value of the estimator is identical with the exact mean and the variance goes with $1/N$,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \bar{a}_\alpha - A_\alpha \rangle_{\text{MC}} &= 0 \\ \langle (\bar{a}_\alpha - A_\alpha)^2 \rangle_{\text{MC}} &= \text{O}(1/N). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{C.11})$$

For secondary quantities, this is a bit different. To see this, we follow [73] and expand $f(\{\bar{a}_\alpha\})$ around the set of A_α . We denote the derivative of f with respects to its α 'th argument as f_α . Then the Taylor expansion to first order reads

$$f(\{\bar{a}_\alpha\}) = F + \sum_\alpha (\bar{a}_\alpha - A_\alpha) f_\alpha(\{A_\alpha\}) + \text{O}\left(\sum_\alpha (\bar{a}_\alpha - A_\alpha)^2\right). \quad (\text{C.12})$$

Thus, the estimate has an unavoidable bias

$$\langle f(\{\bar{a}_\alpha\}) - F \rangle_{\text{MC}} = \text{O}(1/N). \quad (\text{C.13})$$

This can be reduced by making N large enough. The variance is

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 &= \langle (f(\{\bar{a}_\alpha\}) - F)^2 \rangle_{\text{MC}} \\ &= \left\langle \left[\sum_\alpha (\bar{a}_\alpha - A_\alpha) f_\alpha(\{A_\alpha\}) \right]^2 \right\rangle_{\text{MC}} + \text{O}(1/N^2). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{C.14})$$

This can be written in a more intuitive form by defining projected observables

$$\begin{aligned} A_{\text{H}} &= \sum_\alpha A_\alpha f_\alpha(\{A_\alpha\}) & A_{\bar{\text{h}}} &= \sum_\alpha A_\alpha f_\alpha(\{\bar{a}_\alpha\}) \\ \bar{a}_{\text{H}} &= \sum_\alpha \bar{a}_\alpha f_\alpha(\{A_\alpha\}) & \bar{a}_{\bar{\text{h}}} &= \sum_\alpha \bar{a}_\alpha f_\alpha(\{\bar{a}_\alpha\}), \end{aligned} \quad (\text{C.15})$$

such that

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 &= \langle (A_{\text{H}} - \bar{a}_{\text{H}})^2 \rangle_{\text{MC}} + \text{O}(1/N^2) \\ &\approx \langle (A_{\bar{\text{h}}} - \bar{a}_{\bar{\text{h}}})^2 \rangle_{\text{MC}}. \end{aligned} \quad (\text{C.16})$$

This is formally the same situation as in the case of primary observables. Consequently, the same methods can be applied here. In particular, given the analytical form of the derivatives of f with respect to all its arguments, we can compute the projected data a_h^i and use them to determine the autocorrelation function $\Gamma(t)$ according to (C.6). This allows to compute the autocorrelation time τ_{int} and the error σ^2 .

As is argued in [73], the advantage of this “summation method” compared to jackknife is that the error of τ_{int} decays much faster with the number of data points. Therefore, error estimates can be be accurate, which is particularly important for performance studies, where τ_{int} directly enters the definition of the cost of an algorithm.

In this thesis, this aspect is less important. In the algorithms used here, the Schrödinger functional coupling can be measured as a primary quantity (in contrast to e.g. the PHMC algorithm, where the coupling is obtained by a reweighting procedure). Nevertheless, we have used the method described here e.g. for the determination of c_{sw} in section 4.3. The variable ΔM used there is computed from 12 primary observables, which means that 12 derivatives have to be implemented for the computation of the projected observables. This shows the increased complexity compared to the more “universal” jackknife method.

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Selbständigkeitserklärung

Hiermit erkläre ich, die vorliegende Arbeit selbständig ohne fremde Hilfe verfaßt zu haben und nur die angegebene Literatur und Hilfsmittel verwendet zu haben.

Bernd Gehrman
6. März 2002