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Quantum field theory meets Hopf algebra

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This paper provides a primer in quantum field theory (QFT) based on Hopf algebra and describes new Hopf algebraic constructions inspired by QFT concepts. The following QFT concepts are introduced: chronological products, S-matrix, Feynman diagrams, connected diagrams, Green functions, renormalization. The use of Hopf algebra for their definition allows for simple recursive derivations and leads to a correspondence between Feynman diagrams and semi-standard Young tableaux. Reciprocally, these concepts are used as models to derive Hopf algebraic constructions such as a connected coregular action or a group structure on the linear maps from $\mathcal{S}(V)$ to V . In many cases, noncommutative analogues are derived.

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1 Introduction

Although Hopf algebraic concepts were used in quantum field theory (QFT) as early as 1969 [56], the real boom in the collaboration between Hopf algebra and QFT started with the work of Connes and Kreimer in 1998 [15], that spurred an enthusiastic activity partly reviewed by Figueroa and Gracia-Bondia [27]. In these works, Hopf algebraic structures were discovered in QFT and used to reinterpret some aspects of renormalization theory.

The aim of the present paper is a bit different. As a first purpose, it tries to convince the reader that Hopf algebra is a natural language for QFT. For that purpose, it uses Hopf algebraic techniques to express important concepts of QFT: chronological products, S-matrix, Feynman diagrams, connected diagrams, Green functions, renormalization. The power of Hopf algebra manifests itself through the ease and economy with which complete proofs can be given, with full combinatorial factors.

The second purpose of this paper is to demonstrate that QFT concepts can help designing new Hopf algebraic objects. As a first example, the connected Feynman diagrams lead us to the definition of two coproducts on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ and $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ (where \mathcal{C} is a coalgebra, $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ the symmetric algebra over \mathcal{C} and $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ the tensor algebra over \mathcal{C}). These two coproducts are in a comodule coalgebra relation and enable us to define “connected” coregular actions on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ and $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$. As a second example, the Bogoliubov approach to renormalization leads to a group structure on the linear maps from $\mathcal{S}(V)$ to V and from $\mathcal{T}(V)$ to V , where V is a vector space. There, the infinitesimal bialgebraic structure of $\mathcal{T}(V)$ plays an essential role [41]. As a last example we recall that renormalization can be considered as a functor on bialgebras [11].

It might be useful to explain why Hopf algebra is so powerful to deal with quantum field theory. The first reason was given long ago by Joni and Rota [36]: the coproduct splits an object into subobjects and the product merges two objects into a new one. These operations are fundamental in most combinatorial problems. Therefore, Hopf algebra is a convenient framework to deal with combinatorics in general and with the combinatorial problems of QFT in particular. The second reason has to do with the fact that Hopf algebraic techniques efficiently exploit the recursive nature of perturbative QFT. If we express this property in terms of Feynman diagrams, Hopf algebra makes it very easy to add a new vertex to a diagram and to deduce properties of diagrams with n vertices from properties of diagrams with $n-1$ vertices. Such recursive procedure can also be carried out directly on Feynman diagrams, without using Hopf algebra, but it is much harder and is the source “egregious errors by

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distinguished savants”, as Wightman put it [63]. As a consequence, many textbooks give detailed proofs for very simple diagrams and leave as an exercise to the reader the proof of the general case. No such thing happens with Hopf algebras: the present paper makes clear that a proof for one million vertices is as simple as for two vertices. Finally, the Hopf algebraic approach uses naturally the fact that the unrenormalized chronological product is an associative product. This property is usually overlooked.

The use of Hopf algebraic techniques reveals also that many quantum field concepts can be defined on any cocommutative coalgebra. Sometimes, natural noncommutative analogues of the commutative constructions of quantum field theory can be found.

The Hopf algebra background of this paper can be learnt from the first chapters of any book on the subject, but Majid’s monograph [43] is particularly well suited.

2 A primer in quantum field theory

This section provides a self-contained introduction to QFT using Hopf algebraic tools. Some aspects of this section were already published in a conference proceedings [4], but complete proofs are given here for the first time. We deliberately avoid the delicate analytical problems of quantum field theory.

For some well-known physicists [61], Feynman diagrams are the essence of QFT. Indeed, Feynman diagrams contain a complete description of perturbative QFT, which provides its most spectacular success: the calculation of the gyromagnetic factor of the electron [45, 23]. Therefore, this primer goes all the way to the derivation of Feynman diagrams. However, it is not restricted to a particular quantum field theory but is valid for any cocommutative coalgebra \mathcal{C} over \mathbb{C} . By extending the coproduct and counit of \mathcal{C} to the symmetric algebra $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$, we equip $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ with the structure of a commutative and cocommutative bialgebra. Then, we twist the product of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ using a Laplace pairing (or coquasitriangular structure) to define the chronological product \circ . This chronological product enables us to describe the S-matrix of the theory, that contains all the measurable quantities. The S-matrix is then expanded over Feynman diagrams and the Green functions are defined.

2.1 The coalgebra \mathcal{C}

In the QFT of the scalar field, the counital coalgebra \mathcal{C} is generated as a vector space over \mathbb{C} by the symbols $\varphi^n(x_i)$ where n runs over the nonnegative integers and x_i runs over a finite number of points in \mathbb{R}^4 . The choice of a finite number of points is meant to avoid analytical problems and is consistent with the framework of perturbative QFT. The coproduct Δ' of \mathcal{C} is

$$\Delta' \varphi^n(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} \varphi^j(x_i) \otimes \varphi^{n-j}(x_i),$$

the counit ε' of \mathcal{C} is $\varepsilon'(\varphi^n(x_i)) = \delta_{n0}$. The coalgebra \mathcal{C} is cocommutative (it is a direct sum of binomial coalgebras). Moreover, \mathcal{C} is a pointed coalgebra because all its simple subcoalgebras are one-dimensional (each simple subcoalgebra is generated by a $\varphi^0(x_i)$).

This coalgebra is chosen for comparison with QFT, but the following construction is valid for any cocommutative coalgebra. From the coalgebra \mathcal{C} we now build a commutative and cocommutative bialgebra $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$.

2.2 The bialgebra $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$

The symmetric algebra $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C}) = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{S}^n(\mathcal{C})$ can be equipped with the structure of a bialgebra over \mathbb{C} . The product of the bialgebra $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ is the symmetric product (denoted by juxtaposition) and its coproduct Δ is defined on $\mathcal{S}^1(\mathcal{C}) \cong \mathcal{C}$ by $\Delta a = \Delta' a$ and extended to $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ by algebra morphism: $\Delta 1 = 1 \otimes 1$ and $\Delta(uv) = \sum u_{(1)} v_{(1)} \otimes u_{(2)} v_{(2)}$. The elements of $\mathcal{S}^n(\mathcal{C})$ are said to be of degree n . The counit ε of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ is defined to be equal to ε' on $\mathcal{S}^1(\mathcal{C}) \cong \mathcal{C}$ and extended to $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ by algebra morphism: $\varepsilon(1) = 1$ and $\varepsilon(uv) = \varepsilon(u)\varepsilon(v)$. It can be checked that Δ is coassociative and cocommutative [62]. Thus, $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ is a commutative and cocommutative bialgebra which is

graded as an algebra. In the case of the coalgebra of the scalar field, we have

$$\Delta(\varphi^{n_1}(x_1) \dots \varphi^{n_k}(x_k)) = \sum_{j_1=0}^{n_1} \dots \sum_{j_k=0}^{n_k} \binom{n_1}{j_1} \dots \binom{n_k}{j_k} \varphi^{j_1}(x_1) \dots \varphi^{j_k}(x_k) \otimes \varphi^{n_1-j_1}(x_1) \dots \varphi^{n_k-j_k}(x_k).$$

The powers Δ^k of the coproduct are called *iterated coproducts* and are defined by $\Delta^0 = \text{Id}$, $\Delta^1 = \Delta$ and $\Delta^{k+1} = (\text{Id}^{\otimes k} \otimes \Delta)\Delta^k$. Their action on an element u of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ is denoted by $\Delta^k u = \sum u_{(1)} \otimes \dots \otimes u_{(k+1)}$. In the case of the scalar field, we have

Lemma 2.1 *If k is a positive integer, the k -th iterated coproduct of $\varphi^n(x)$ is*

$$\Delta^{k-1} \varphi^n(x) = \sum_{\mathbf{m}} \frac{n!}{m_1! \dots m_k!} \varphi^{m_1}(x) \otimes \dots \otimes \varphi^{m_k}(x),$$

where $\mathbf{m} = (m_1, \dots, m_k)$ runs over all k -tuples of nonnegative integers m_1, \dots, m_k such that $\sum_{i=1}^k m_i = n$.

Proof. For $k = 1$, we have $\Delta^0 = \text{Id}$. Thus, the left hand side of the equality is $\varphi^n(x)$. On the other hand, we have only one integer m_1 that must be equal to n because of the constraint $\sum_{i=1}^k m_i = n$. Therefore, the right hand side is also $\varphi^n(x)$ and the lemma is true for $k = 1$. Assume that the lemma is true up to Δ^{k-1} . From the definition of Δ^k and the recursion hypothesis, we have

$$\Delta^k \varphi^n(x) = \sum_{\mathbf{m}} \sum_{i=0}^{m_k} \frac{n!}{m_1! \dots m_k!} \binom{m_k}{i} \varphi^{m_1}(x) \otimes \dots \otimes \varphi^{m_{k-1}}(x) \otimes \varphi^i(x) \otimes \varphi^{m_k-i}(x).$$

If we define the tuple $\mathbf{m}' = (m'_1, \dots, m'_{k+1})$ with $m'_j = m_j$ for $j < k$, $m'_k = i$ and $m'_{k+1} = m_k - i$, then we see that \mathbf{m}' runs over all tuples of $k+1$ nonnegative integers such that $\sum_{j=1}^{k+1} m'_j = n$ and we can rewrite

$$\Delta^k \varphi^n(x) = \sum_{\mathbf{m}'} \frac{n!}{m'_1! \dots m'_{k+1}!} \varphi^{m'_1}(x) \otimes \dots \otimes \varphi^{m'_{k+1}}(x),$$

and the lemma is proved for Δ^k . □

Now, we equip $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ with a Laplace pairing that will be used to twist the commutative product of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$.

2.3 Laplace pairing

The concept of Laplace pairing was introduced by Rota and collaborators [16, 30]. In the quantum group literature, it is called a coquasitriangular structure [43].

Definition 2.2 A Laplace pairing is a linear map $(|)$ from $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C}) \otimes \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ to the complex numbers such that $(1|u) = (u|1) = \varepsilon(u)$, $(uv|w) = \sum (u|w_{(1)})(v|w_{(2)})$ and $(u|vw) = \sum (u_{(1)}|v)(u_{(2)}|w)$ for any u, v and w in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$.

The Laplace pairing of products of elements of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ is calculated with the following lemma

Lemma 2.3 *For u^i and v^j in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$, we have*

$$(u^1 \dots u^k | v^1 \dots v^l) = \sum_{i=1}^k \prod_{j=1}^l (u_{(j)}^i | v_{(i)}^j),$$

where $u_{(j)}^i$ is the term in position j of the iterated coproduct $\Delta^{l-1} u^i$ and $v_{(i)}^j$ is the term in position i of the iterated coproduct $\Delta^{k-1} v^j$.

For example $(uvw|st) = \sum (u_{(1)}|s_{(1)})(u_{(2)}|t_{(1)})(v_{(1)}|s_{(2)})(v_{(2)}|t_{(2)})(w_{(1)}|s_{(3)})(w_{(2)}|t_{(3)})$.

Proof. The proof is recursive. If $k = l = 1$, we have $\Delta^0 u^1 = u^1$ and $\Delta^0 v^1 = v^1$, so that lemma 2.3 becomes $(u^1|v^1) = (u^1|v^1)$, which is true. Now assume that the lemma is true up to k and l and write $u^k = st$ with s and t in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$. Lemma 2.3 becomes

$$(u^1 \dots u^k | v^1 \dots v^l) = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=1}^l (u_{(j)}^i | v_{(i)}^j) \prod_{j=1}^l ((st)_{(j)} | v_{(k)}^j). \quad (2.1)$$

By algebra morphism $(st)_{(j)} = s_{(j)}t_{(j)}$ and by the definition of the Laplace pairing and by the coassociativity of the coproduct $(s_{(j)}t_{(j)} | v_{(k)}^j) = \sum (s_{(j)} | v_{(k)}^j)(t_{(j)} | v_{(k+1)}^j)$. If we introduce this equation in (2.1) and redefine $u^k = s$ and $u^{k+1} = t$, we obtain Lemma 2.3 for $k+1$ and l . If we apply the same reasoning to $v^l = st$, we see that the lemma is true for k and $l+1$. Thus, it is true for all k and l . \square

If we write lemma 2.3 with all u^i and v^j in \mathcal{C} , we see that the Laplace pairing is entirely determined by its value on \mathcal{C} . In other words, once we know $(a|b)$ for all a and b in \mathcal{C} , lemma 2.3 enables us to calculate the Laplace pairing on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$. In the case of the algebra of the scalar field, we can use an additional structure to determine the usual QFT expression for $(\varphi^n(x)|\varphi^m(y))$.

Lemma 2.4 For nonnegative integers n and m ,

$$(\varphi^n(x)|\varphi^m(y)) = \delta_{nm} n! g(x, y)^n,$$

where $g(x, y) = (\varphi(x)|\varphi(y))$.

Proof. The coalgebra \mathcal{C} was not supposed to be a bialgebra. However, the algebra of the scalar field can be equipped with the structure of a bialgebra. This additional structure will be described in section 4.5. At this point, we only need the obvious product structure $\varphi^n(x) \cdot \varphi^m(x) = \varphi^{n+m}(x)$. We do not need to know what is the product of fields at different points and the product is only used here as a heuristic to determine $(\varphi^n(x)|\varphi^m(y))$. We consider that the Laplace pairing satisfies its defining properties for the product \cdot of \mathcal{C} : $(a \cdot b|c) = \sum (a|c_{(1)})(b|c_{(2)})$ and $(a|b \cdot c) = \sum (a_{(1)}|b)(a_{(2)}|c)$ for a, b and c in \mathcal{C} . Within this point of view, $\varphi^0(x)$ is a sort of unit at point x and $(\varphi^0(x)|\varphi^n(y)) = (\varphi^n(x)|\varphi^0(y)) = \delta_{0,n}$.

The lemma is clearly true for $n = m = 1$. Assume that it is true up to n and m and calculate $(\varphi^{n+1}(x)|\varphi^m(y)) = (\varphi(x) \cdot \varphi^n(x)|\varphi^m(y))$. From the definition of a Laplace pairing, we have

$$(\varphi(x) \cdot \varphi^n(x)|\varphi^m(y)) = \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{m}{j} (\varphi(x)|\varphi^j(y)) (\varphi^n(x)|\varphi^{m-j}(y)).$$

The recursion hypothesis gives us $j = 1$ and $n = m - 1$, so that

$$(\varphi^{n+1}(x)|\varphi^m(y)) = mn! \delta_{n,m-1} (\varphi(x)|\varphi(y)) (\varphi^n(x)|\varphi^n(y)) = \delta_{m,n+1} (n+1)! (\varphi(x)|\varphi(y))^{n+1},$$

and the lemma is proved for $n+1$. The same reasoning leads to the lemma for $m+1$. \square

In QFT, the function $g(x, y)$ is a distribution [35]. Two distributions are commonly used: the Wightman function and the Feynman propagator. The product $g(x, y)^n$ is well-defined for Wightman functions but not for Feynman propagators [53]. The solution of this problem is the first step of the renormalization theory. In the following, we assume that $g(x, y)$ was regularized to make it a smooth function, so that $g(x, y)^n$ is well defined.

2.4 Twisted product

The Laplace pairing induces a twisted product \circ on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$.

Definition 2.5 If u and v are elements of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$, the twisted product of u and v is denoted by $u \circ v$ and defined by $u \circ v = \sum (u_{(1)}|v_{(1)}) u_{(2)} v_{(2)}$.

This product was introduced by Sweedler [60] as a crossed product in Hopf algebra cohomology theory because a Laplace pairing is a 2-cocycle. It was defined independently by Rota and Stein as a *circle product* [55]. To become familiar with this twisted product, we first prove a useful relation

Lemma 2.6 For u and v in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$, we have

$$\varepsilon(u \circ v) = (u|v)$$

Proof. The proof is straightforward. By linearity and algebra morphism property of the counit

$$\varepsilon(u \circ v) = \sum (u_{(1)}|v_{(1)})\varepsilon(u_{(2)}v_{(2)}) = \sum (u_{(1)}|v_{(1)})\varepsilon(u_{(2)})\varepsilon(v_{(2)}).$$

Now, by linearity of the Laplace pairing and the definition of the counit

$$\varepsilon(u \circ v) = \left(\sum u_{(1)}\varepsilon(u_{(2)}) \middle| \sum v_{(1)}\varepsilon(v_{(2)}) \right) = (u|v).$$

□

For completeness, we now prove the classical

Proposition 2.7 The twisted product \circ endows $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ with the structure of an associative and unital algebra with unit 1.

The proof is the consequence of several lemmas. The first lemma is

Lemma 2.8 For u and v in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$,

$$\Delta(u \circ v) = \sum u_{(1)} \circ v_{(1)} \otimes u_{(2)}v_{(2)}.$$

Proof. By the definition of the twisted product,

$$\Delta(u \circ v) = \sum (u_{(1)}|v_{(1)})\Delta(u_{(2)}v_{(2)}) = \sum (u_{(1)}|v_{(1)})u_{(2)}v_{(2)} \otimes u_{(3)}v_{(3)} = \sum u_{(1)} \circ v_{(1)} \otimes u_{(2)}v_{(2)},$$

where we used the coassociativity of the coproduct. □

The second lemma is

Lemma 2.9 For u, v and w in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$,

$$(u|v \circ w) = (u \circ v|w).$$

Proof. From the definitions of the twisted product and of the Laplace pairing we find

$$\begin{aligned} (u|v \circ w) &= \sum (v_{(1)}|w_{(1)})(u|v_{(2)}w_{(2)}) = \sum (v_{(1)}|w_{(1)})(u_{(1)}|v_{(2)})(u_{(2)}|w_{(2)}) \\ &= \sum (v_{(1)}|w_{(2)})(u_{(2)}|v_{(2)})(u_{(1)}|w_{(1)}), \end{aligned}$$

where we used the cocommutativity of the coproduct of u and w . The definition of the Laplace pairing gives now

$$(u|v \circ w) = \sum (u_{(1)}v_{(1)}|w)(u_{(2)}|v_{(2)}) = (u \circ v|w).$$

□

These two lemmas enable us to prove the associativity of the twisted product as follows

$$u \circ (v \circ w) = \sum (u_{(1)}|(v \circ w)_{(1)})u_{(2)}(v \circ w)_{(2)} = \sum (u_{(1)}|v_{(1)} \circ w_{(1)})u_{(2)}v_{(2)}w_{(2)},$$

by lemma 2.8. Lemma 2.9 is used to transform $(u_{(1)}|v_{(1)} \circ w_{(1)})$ into $(u_{(1)} \circ v_{(1)}|w_{(1)})$, so that

$$u \circ (v \circ w) = \sum (u_{(1)} \circ v_{(1)}|w_{(1)})u_{(2)}v_{(2)}w_{(2)} = \sum ((u \circ v)_{(1)}|w_{(1)})(u \circ v)_{(2)}w_{(2)} = (u \circ v) \circ w,$$

where we used again lemma 2.8 and the definition of the twisted product. Finally, the fact that 1 is the unit of the twisted product follows from the condition $(u|1) = \varepsilon(u)$ by

$$u \circ 1 = \sum (u_{(1)}|1)u_{(1)} = \sum \varepsilon(u_{(1)})u_{(2)} = u.$$

2.5 Iterated twisted products

In quantum field theory, we start from an element a of \mathcal{C} , called the Lagrangian, and the S-matrix is defined (in the sense of formal power series in the complex number λ) as

$$S = \exp_{\circ} \lambda a = 1 + \lambda a + \frac{\lambda^2}{2!} a \circ a + \frac{\lambda^3}{6!} a \circ a \circ a + \dots \quad (2.2)$$

To compare this expression with that given in QFT textbooks [35, 48], take $\lambda = i$. Therefore, it is important to investigate iterated twisted products. We shall see that Feynman diagrams arise from these iterated products. The main properties of iterated twisted product are consequences of the following three lemmas

Lemma 2.10 For u^1, \dots, u^k in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ we have

$$\Delta(u^1 \circ \dots \circ u^k) = \sum u_{(1)}^1 \circ \dots \circ u_{(1)}^k \otimes u_{(2)}^1 \dots u_{(2)}^k.$$

Proof. The lemma is true for $k = 2$ by lemma 2.8. Assume that it is true up to k and put $u^k = v \circ w$. Then, lemma 2.8 and the associativity of the twisted product imply that lemma 2.10 is true for $k + 1$. \square

The next lemma gives an explicit expression for $\varepsilon(u^1 \circ \dots \circ u^k)$

Lemma 2.11 For u^1, \dots, u^k in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ we have

$$\varepsilon(u^1 \circ \dots \circ u^k) = \sum \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i+1}^k (u_{(j-1)}^i | u_{(i)}^j),$$

where $u_{(i)}^j$ is the term in position i of the iterated coproduct $\Delta^{k-2} u^j$.

For example, $\varepsilon(u \circ v) = (u | v)$ and $\varepsilon(u \circ v \circ w) = \sum (u_{(1)} | v_{(1)}) (u_{(2)} | w_{(1)}) (v_{(2)} | w_{(2)})$. In general, $\varepsilon(u^1 \circ \dots \circ u^k)$ is a sum of products of $k(k-1)/2$ Laplace pairings.

Proof. For $k = 2$, lemma 2.11 is true because of lemma 2.6. Assume that it is true up to k and write $U = u^1 \circ \dots \circ u^k$. From lemma 2.6 and $U = \sum \varepsilon(U_{(1)}) U_{(2)}$ we find

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon(U \circ u^{k+1}) &= (U | u^{k+1}) = \sum \varepsilon(U_{(1)}) (U_{(2)} | u^{k+1}) = \sum \varepsilon(u_{(1)}^1 \circ \dots \circ u_{(1)}^k) (u_{(2)}^1 \dots u_{(2)}^k | u^{k+1}) \\ &= \sum \varepsilon(u_{(1)}^1 \circ \dots \circ u_{(1)}^k) \prod_{n=1}^k (u_{(2)}^n | u_{(n)}^{k+1}), \end{aligned}$$

where we used lemmas 2.10 and 2.3. By the recursion hypothesis, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon(u^1 \circ \dots \circ u^{k+1}) &= \sum \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i+1}^k (u_{(j-1)}^i | u_{(i)}^j) \prod_{n=1}^k (u_{(2)}^n | u_{(n)}^{k+1}) \\ &= \sum \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i+1}^{k+1} (u_{(j-1)}^i | u_{(i)}^j) (u_{(k)}^k | u_{(k)}^{k+1}) = \sum \prod_{i=1}^k \prod_{j=i+1}^{k+1} (u_{(j-1)}^i | u_{(i)}^j) \end{aligned}$$

and the identity is proved for the twisted product of $k + 1$ elements. \square

The last lemma completes the calculation of $u^1 \circ \dots \circ u^k$ by expressing it as a linear combination of elements of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$.

Lemma 2.12 For u^1, \dots, u^k in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ we have

$$u^1 \circ \dots \circ u^k = \sum \varepsilon(u_{(1)}^1 \circ \dots \circ u_{(1)}^k) u_{(2)}^1 \dots u_{(2)}^k.$$

Proof. To show lemma 2.12 recursively, we observe that it is true for $k = 1$ by the definition of the counit. We assume that the property is true up to k and we define $U = u^1 \circ \dots \circ u^k$. Since, by definition, $U \circ v = \sum (U_{(1)} | v_{(1)}) U_{(2)} v_{(2)}$, lemma 2.10 yields $U \circ v = \sum (u_{(1)}^1 \circ \dots \circ u_{(1)}^k | v_{(1)}) u_{(2)}^1 \dots u_{(2)}^k v_{(2)}$ and the result follows for the twisted product of $k + 1$ terms because of lemma 2.6. \square

2.6 Application to the scalar field

If we apply these results to the coalgebra of the scalar field, we obtain the following expression for the iterated twisted product

Proposition 2.13

$$\begin{aligned} \phi^{n_1}(x_1) \circ \dots \circ \phi^{n_k}(x_k) &= \sum_{p_1=0}^{n_1} \dots \sum_{p_k=0}^{n_k} \binom{n_1}{p_1} \dots \binom{n_k}{p_k} \varepsilon(\phi^{p_1}(x_1) \circ \dots \circ \phi^{p_k}(x_k)) \\ &\quad \phi^{n_1-p_1}(x_1) \dots \phi^{n_k-p_k}(x_k), \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

with

$$\varepsilon(\phi^{p_1}(x_1) \circ \dots \circ \phi^{p_k}(x_k)) = p_1! \dots p_k! \sum_M \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i+1}^k \frac{g(x_i, x_j)^{m_{ij}}}{m_{ij}!}, \quad (2.4)$$

where the sum is over all symmetric $k \times k$ matrices M of nonnegative integers m_{ij} such that $\sum_{j=1}^k m_{ij} = p_i$ with $m_{ii} = 0$ for all i .

Proof. Equation (2.3) is a simple rewriting of lemma 2.12 for $u^1 = \phi^{(n_1)}(x_1), \dots, u^k = \phi^{(n_k)}(x_k)$. For the proof of (2.4), we first recall from lemma 2.1 that

$$\Delta^{k-2} \phi^{p_i}(x_i) = \sum \frac{p_i!}{q_{i1}! \dots q_{ik-1}!} \phi^{q_{i1}}(x_i) \otimes \dots \otimes \phi^{q_{ik-1}}(x_i),$$

where the sum is over all nonnegative integers q_{ij} such that $\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} q_{ij} = p_i$. Thus, lemma 2.11 becomes

$$\varepsilon(\phi^{p_1}(x_1) \circ \dots \circ \phi^{p_k}(x_k)) = \sum_Q \left(\prod_{i=1}^k \frac{p_i!}{\prod_{j=1}^{k-1} q_{ij}!} \right) \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i+1}^k (\varphi^{q_{ij-1}}(x_i) | \varphi^{q_{ji}}(x_j)),$$

where the sum is over all $k \times (k-1)$ matrices Q with matrix elements q_{ij} such that $\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} q_{ij} = p_i$. Lemma 2.4 implies that $q_{ij-1} = q_{ji}$. It is very convenient to associate to each matrix Q a $k \times k$ matrix M with matrix elements $m_{ji} = q_{ji}$ if $i < j$, $m_{ii} = 0$ and $m_{ji} = q_{ji-1}$ if $j < i$. With this definition, the condition $q_{ij-1} = q_{ji}$ implies that the matrix M is symmetric. The condition $\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} q_{ij} = p_i$ implies $\sum_{j=1}^k m_{ji} = p_i$ and we recover the condition of proposition 2.13. It remains to show that the combinatorial factors come out correctly. Lemma 2.4 gives us the combinatorial factor $\prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i+1}^k m_{ij}!$. On the other hand, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{i=1}^k \prod_{j=1}^{k-1} q_{ij}! &= \left(\prod_{i=2}^k \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} q_{ij}! \right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i}^{k-1} q_{ij}! \right) = \left(\prod_{i=2}^k \prod_{j=1}^{i-1} m_{ij}! \right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i}^{k-1} m_{ij+1}! \right) \\ &= \left(\prod_{j=1}^{k-1} \prod_{i=j+1}^k m_{ij}! \right) \left(\prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i+1}^k m_{ij}! \right) = \left(\prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i+1}^k m_{ij}! \right)^2, \end{aligned}$$

by symmetry of M . This completes the proof \square

If p_1 is zero, equation (2.4) gives us $\varepsilon(\phi^0(x_1) \circ \phi^{p_2}(x_2) \circ \dots \circ \phi^{p_k}(x_k)) = \varepsilon(\phi^{p_2}(x_2) \circ \dots \circ \phi^{p_k}(x_k))$. Thus, for any $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$, we have $\varepsilon(\phi^0(x) \circ u) = \varepsilon(u)$. In other words, by lemma 2.6, the definition of the Laplace pairing is supplemented with the condition $(\phi^0(x)|u) = \varepsilon(u)$. This is consistent with the remark made in the proof of lemma 2.4. To generalize this convention we use the fact that any cocommutative coalgebra \mathcal{C} over \mathbb{C} is pointed (see [1], p. 80). As a consequence, if $G(\mathcal{C})$ denotes the set of group-like elements of \mathcal{C} , then the coradical \mathcal{C}_0 of \mathcal{C} is generated by the elements of $G(\mathcal{C})$ and there is a coideal I of \mathcal{C} such that $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}_0 \oplus I$ and $\varepsilon(I) = 0$. Moreover, $\varepsilon(g) = 1$ for $g \in G(\mathcal{C})$ (see [46], section 5.4 and [47]). Then, for any element $g \in G(\mathcal{C})$ and $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$, we define $(g|u) = \varepsilon(u)$, so that $\varepsilon(g \circ u) = \varepsilon(u)$ and $g \circ u = gu$.

2.7 Relation with Feynman diagrams

To clarify the relation between equation (2.4) and Feynman diagrams, we first give a definition of the type of Feynman diagrams we consider. In this paper, a Feynman diagram is a vertex-labelled undirected graph without loop. The word loop is used here in the graph-theoretical sense of an edge that goes from a vertex to itself. Such a loop is called a tadpole in the QFT jargon. The vertices are labelled by spacetime points x_i . If k is the number of vertices of a Feynman diagram γ , the adjacency matrix M of γ is a $k \times k$ integer matrix where m_{ij} denotes the number of edges between vertex i and vertex j . The absence of loops means that the diagonal of M is zero. The valence of a vertex is the number of edges incident to it.

The vertex-labelled Feynman diagrams that we use here are well known ([35], p. 265) but not as common in the literature as the Feynman diagrams where the edges are labelled by momenta ([35], p. 268). However, the latter Feynman diagrams are not as general as the vertex-labelled ones because they assume that the physical system is translation invariant and this is not true in the presence of an external potential or in curved spacetime.

It is now clear that, in proposition 2.13, each matrix M is the adjacency matrix of a Feynman diagram γ . The value of γ is the quantity

$$U(\gamma) = p_1! \dots p_k! \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \prod_{j=i+1}^k \frac{g(x_i, x_j)^{m_{ij}}}{m_{ij}!}. \quad (2.5)$$

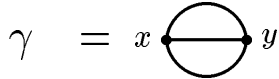
To clarify this matter, it is convenient to give a few examples.

Example 2.14 We consider the case of $\varepsilon(\varphi^3(x) \circ \varphi^3(y))$. If we compare with proposition 2.13, we have $k = 2$, $p_1 = 3$ and $p_2 = 3$. The only nonnegative integer 2×2 symmetric matrix M with zero diagonal such that $\sum_{j=1}^k m_{ij} = p_i$ is

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, according to the general formula, $\varepsilon(\varphi^3(x) \circ \varphi^3(y)) = 3!g(x, y)^3$.

The matrix M is the adjacency matrix of the following Feynman diagram γ , which is called the *setting sun*.

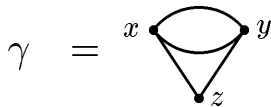


Example 2.15 We consider $\varepsilon(\varphi^3(x) \circ \varphi^3(y) \circ \varphi^2(z))$. We have now $k = 3$, $p_1 = 3$, $p_2 = 3$ and $p_3 = 2$. The only matrix that satisfies the conditions is

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, according to the general formula, $\varepsilon(\varphi^3(x) \circ \varphi^3(y) \circ \varphi^2(z)) = 3!3!g(x, y)^2g(x, z)g(y, z)$.

The matrix M is the adjacency matrix of the following Feynman diagram γ , which is called the *ice cream*.



Example 2.16 Finally, we consider $\varepsilon(\varphi^2(x_1) \circ \varphi^2(x_2) \circ \varphi^2(x_3) \circ \varphi^2(x_4))$. Six matrices M satisfy the conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} M_1 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & M_2 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & M_3 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \\ M_4 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & M_5 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & M_6 &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

The matrices M_i enable us to write the value of $\varepsilon(\varphi^2(x_1) \circ \varphi^2(x_2) \circ \varphi^2(x_3) \circ \varphi^2(x_4))$ as

$$\begin{aligned} &4g(x_1, x_4)^2 g(x_2, x_3)^2 + 16g(x_1, x_3)g(x_1, x_4)g(x_2, x_3)g(x_2, x_4) + 4g(x_1, x_3)^2 g(x_2, x_4)^2 \\ &+ 16g(x_1, x_2)g(x_1, x_4)g(x_2, x_3)g(x_3, x_4) + 16g(x_1, x_2)g(x_1, x_3)g(x_2, x_4)g(x_3, x_4) \\ &+ 4g(x_1, x_2)^2 g(x_3, x_4)^2. \end{aligned}$$

The matrices M_i are the adjacency matrices of the following Feynman diagrams γ .

$$\sum_{\gamma} \gamma = \begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ \text{---} \text{---} \\ x_4 \end{array} \begin{array}{c} x_2 \\ \text{---} \text{---} \\ x_3 \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} \diagup \quad \diagdown \\ \diagdown \quad \diagup \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} \diagup \quad \diagdown \\ \diagup \quad \diagdown \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} \square \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} \diagup \quad \diagdown \\ \diagdown \quad \diagup \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} \text{---} \text{---} \\ \text{---} \text{---} \end{array}$$

Note that the first, third and last Feynman diagrams are disconnected. This will be important in the following. For a specific Lagrangian (for example φ^n [35]), the value of a Feynman diagram defined in textbooks [35] is a bit different from equation (2.5) because an integral over the spacetime points labelling vertices with valence n is added. We do not use this convention here because we consider a general Lagrangian.

2.8 Enumeration of Feynman diagrams

Various authors [50, 51, 52, 14] studied the number of matrices M (or of Feynman diagrams) corresponding to $\varepsilon(\varphi^{n_1}(x_1) \circ \dots \circ \varphi^{n_k}(x_k))$.

Proposition 2.17 *The number of Feynman diagrams generated by $\varepsilon(\varphi^{n_1}(x_1) \circ \dots \circ \varphi^{n_k}(x_k))$ is the coefficient of $z_1^{n_1} \dots z_k^{n_k}$ in $\prod_{i < j} (1 - z_i z_j)^{-1}$.*

Since we do not know of any published simple proof of this proposition, we provide the following one.

Proof. Let $N_k(n_1, \dots, n_k)$ denote the number of Feynman diagrams of $\varepsilon(\varphi^{n_1}(x_1) \circ \dots \circ \varphi^{n_k}(x_k))$ and $f_k(z_1, \dots, z_k)$ the generating function

$$f_k(z_1, \dots, z_k) = \sum_{n_1 \dots n_k} N_k(n_1, \dots, n_k) z_1^{n_1} \dots z_k^{n_k}.$$

When $k = 2$, we have $\varepsilon(\varphi^{n_1}(x_1) \circ \varphi^{n_2}(x_2)) = \delta_{n_1, n_2} n_1! (\varphi(x_1) | \varphi(x_2))^{n_1}$ so there is no diagram if $n_1 \neq n_2$ and 1 if $n_1 = n_2$ (n_1 lines linking x_1 and x_2). Therefore

$$f_2(z_1, z_2) = \sum_{n_1, n_2} N_2(n_1, n_2) z_1^{n_1} z_2^{n_2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z_1^n z_2^n = \frac{1}{1 - z_1 z_2}.$$

Assume that you know $N_l(n_1, \dots, n_l)$ up to $l = k - 1$. To calculate it for k , take a matrix representing a diagram for k and call i_1, \dots, i_{k-1} its last line (recall that the diagonal is zero so that $i_k = 0$). The matrix obtained by removing the last line and the last column encodes a diagram for $\varepsilon(\varphi^{n_1 - i_1}(x_1) \dots \varphi^{n_{k-1} - i_{k-1}}(x_{k-1}))$. Therefore,

$$N_k(n_1, \dots, n_k) = \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_{k-1} = n_k} N_{k-1}(n_1 - i_1, \dots, n_{k-1} - i_{k-1}).$$

This gives us

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_k(z_1, \dots, z_k) &= \sum_{n_1, \dots, n_k} N_k(n_1, \dots, n_k) z_1^{n_1} \dots z_k^{n_k} \\
 &= \sum_{n_1, \dots, n_k} z_1^{n_1} \dots z_k^{n_k} \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_{k-1} = n_k} N_{k-1}(n_1 - i_1, \dots, n_{k-1} - i_{k-1}) \\
 &= \sum_{n_k} z_k^{n_k} \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_{k-1} = n_k} z_1^{i_1} \dots z_{k-1}^{i_{k-1}} \sum_{j_1, \dots, j_{k-1}} N_{k-1}(j_1, \dots, j_{k-1}) z_1^{j_1} \dots z_{k-1}^{j_{k-1}},
 \end{aligned}$$

where we put $n_l = i_l + j_l$ for $l = 1, \dots, k-1$. The sum over j_l is the generating function f_{k-1} so

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_k(z_1, \dots, z_k) &= \sum_{n_k} z_k^{n_k} \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_{k-1} = n_k} z_1^{i_1} \dots z_{k-1}^{i_{k-1}} f_{k-1}(z_1, \dots, z_{k-1}) \\
 &= \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_{k-1}} (z_1 z_k)^{i_1} \dots (z_{k-1} z_k)^{i_{k-1}} f_{k-1}(z_1, \dots, z_{k-1}) \\
 &= \frac{f_{k-1}(z_1, \dots, z_{k-1})}{(1 - z_1 z_k) \dots (1 - z_{k-1} z_k)}.
 \end{aligned}$$

So finally

$$f_k(z_1, \dots, z_k) = \prod_{j=2}^k \prod_{i=1}^{j-1} \frac{1}{1 - z_i z_j}.$$

□

Note that, by a classical identity of the theory of symmetric functions (see [42], p. 77),


$$\prod_{i < j} (1 - z_i z_j)^{-1} = \sum_{\lambda} s_{\lambda},$$

where s_{λ} is the Schur function for partition λ and where the sum runs over all partitions λ having an even number of parts of any given magnitude, for example $\{1^2\}$, $\{2^2\}$, $\{1^4\}$, $\{2^2 1^2\}$, $\{3^2\}$, $\{1^6\}$.


2.9 Feynman diagrams and Young tableaux

Burge [14] proposed algorithms to generate different types of graphs based on a correspondence with semi-standard Young tableaux. We recall that a Young diagram is a collection of boxes arranged in left-justified rows,



with a weakly decreasing number of boxes in each row [28]. For example  is a Young diagram. A Young tableau is a Young diagram where each box contains a strictly positive integer. A Young tableau is semi-standard if the numbers contained in the boxes are weakly increasing from left to right in each row and strictly increasing



down each column. For example, $Y =$  is a semi-standard Young tableau. The number of semi-standard Young tableaux of a given shape and content is given by the Kostka numbers [28].

To obtain all the Feynman diagrams contributing to $t(\varphi^{n_1}(x_1) \dots \varphi^{n_k}(x_k))$, list all the semi-standard Young tableaux with $n_1 + \dots + n_k = 2n$ boxes, where all columns of Y have an even number of boxes, filled with n_1 times the symbol 1, \dots , n_k times the symbol k . For instance, our example tableau Y corresponds to $t(\varphi^2(x_1)\varphi^2(x_2)\varphi^2(x_3)\varphi^2(x_4))$. There are efficient algorithms to generate this list [25].

Then, for each tableau Y of the list, use the Robinson-Schensted-Knuth correspondence [38] for the pair (Y, Y) to generate the Feynman diagram. This relation between Feynman diagrams and semi-standard Young tableaux is not widely known. Thus, it is useful to give it here in some detail.

A box in a Young tableau is a *boundary box* if it is the rightmost box of a row and if it has no box below it. If a box is referenced by a pair (r, c) where r is the row number and c the column number (counted from the

upper-left corner), then the boundary boxes of our example tableau Y are the boxes $(2, 3)$ and $(4, 1)$ containing the numbers 4 and 4, respectively. We define now the algorithm `delete` taking a tableau Y and a boundary box (r, c) and building a tableau Y' and a number k . If $r = 1$, then c is the last column of the first row. The result of `delete`($Y; (1, c)$) is the tableau Y' obtained from the tableau Y by removing box $(1, c)$ and k is the number contained in box $(1, c)$ of Y . If $r > 1$, box (r, c) is removed from Y and the number i contained in box (r, c) replaces the first number in row $r-1$ (from right to left) that is strictly smaller than i . The number j it replaces is then moved to row $r-2$ with the same rule, until row 1 is reached. The tableau thus obtained is Y' and the number replaced in the first row is k (see Knuth's paper [38] for a more computer-friendly algorithm).

In our example Y , if we choose the boundary box $(2, 3)$, the number 4 of box $(2, 3)$ is moved to the first row,

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 4 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & \\ \hline 3 & & \\ \hline 4 & & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

where it replaces the number 3, so that $Y' =$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 3 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & 4 \\ \hline 4 & & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

and $k = 3$. If we choose the boundary box $(4, 1)$, we have

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 3 \\ \hline 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \hline 4 & & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

successively $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 3 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & 4 \\ \hline 4 & & \\ \hline \end{array}$, where 4 replaces a 3; moving this 3 to the second row gives $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 3 \\ \hline 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \hline 4 & & \\ \hline \end{array}$, where 3 replaces a 2; moving this 2 to the first row gives $Y' =$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \hline 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \hline 4 & & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

and the replaced number in the first row is $k = 1$.

To generate the Feynman diagram corresponding to a given tableau Y (with $2n$ boxes), we first need to define n pairs of integers (u_k, v_k) , where $k = 1, \dots, n$ (each pair represents an edge of the diagram). Let u_n be the largest number contained in the boxes of Y and, among the boxes of Y containing the number u_n , let (r, c) be the one with largest c . Let Y_1 be the tableau obtained from Y by removing box (r, c) . Calculate `delete`($Y_1; (r-1, c)$) to obtain a tableau Y'_1 and a number k . Assign $v_n = k$ and repeat the procedure on Y'_1 . This gives n pairs $(u_1, v_1), \dots, (u_n, v_n)$, with $u_n > v_n$.

Let us apply this procedure to our example tableau Y . It contains 8 boxes, so that $n = 4$. Its largest number is 4, the rightmost box containing it is $(2, 3)$ and the Young tableau obtained by removing this box from Y is $Y_1 =$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 3 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & \\ \hline 3 & & \\ \hline 4 & & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 \\ \hline 2 & 2 \\ \hline 3 & \\ \hline 4 & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

. If we apply `delete` to Y_1 and boundary box $(1, 3)$ we obtain $Y'_1 =$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline 1 & 2 \\ \hline 2 & 3 \\ \hline 4 & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

and $k = 3$. Thus, $(u_4, v_4) = (4, 3)$. We have now $u_3 = 4$ and the box $(4, 1)$. We apply the same procedure to get $Y'_2 =$

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline 1 & 2 \\ \hline 2 & 3 \\ \hline 4 & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

and $k = 1$, so that $(u_3, v_3) = (4, 1)$. Doing this again gives us $Y'_3 =$

$$\begin{array}{|c|} \hline 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

and $(u_2, v_2) = (3, 1)$. Finally $(u_1, v_1) = (2, 1)$.

Then, the Feynman diagram is generated as follows: let k be the largest number contained in Y , draw k points labelled x_1, \dots, x_k . Then, for each pair (u_i, v_i) , draw an edge between x_a and x_b , where $a = u_i$ and $b = v_i$. Note that our example tableau Y corresponds to the fourth diagram of example 2.16.

Similarly, the adjacency matrix M is built as follows: let k be the largest number contained in Y and M the $k \times k$ null matrix. For $i = 1$ to n increase m_{ab} and m_{ba} by one, where $a = u_i$ and $b = v_i$.

The semi-standard Young tableaux corresponding to the diagrams of examples 2.14, 2.15 and 2.16 are, respec-

tively, $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$, $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & 3 & 3 \\ \hline \end{array}$ and $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$, $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ \hline 3 & 3 & 4 & 4 & 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$, $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$, $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline 1 & 1 & 3 & 3 \\ \hline 2 & 2 & 4 & 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$.

2.10 Chronological product and Green functions

If the Laplace coupling is symmetric, i.e. if $(u|v) = (v|u)$ for all u and v in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$, then the twisted product is commutative and we can define a map T from $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ to $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ by $T(uv) = T(u) \circ T(v)$ and $T(a) = a$ for $a \in \mathcal{C}$. In particular, if a_1, \dots, a_k are elements of \mathcal{C} , then $T(a_1 \dots a_k) = a_1 \circ \dots \circ a_k$. Using lemma 2.12, we see that $T(u) = \sum t(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}$, where t is a linear map from $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ to \mathbb{C} defined by $t(u) = \varepsilon(T(u))$. For historical reasons, the map T is called the *chronological product* or the *time-ordered product* [22, 35]. The map t is an element of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})^*$, the dual of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$. In that sense, the chronological product is the right coregular action of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})^*$ on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ by $T(u) = u \triangleleft t = \sum t(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}$ and $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ is a right $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})^*$ -module if $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})^*$ is endowed with the convolution product (see [43] p. 21). The Hopf algebraic properties of T were discussed in detail in [7].

If we take the convention that $(g|u) = \varepsilon(u)$ for any element $g \in G(\mathcal{C})$ and $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ (see the end of section 2.6), then $T(gu) = gT(u)$ and $t(gu) = t(u)$. In particular, for the algebra of fields, $T(\varphi^0(x)u) = \varphi^0(x)T(u)$ and $t(\varphi^0(x)u) = t(u)$.

The map T enables us to write the S-matrix as $S = T(\exp(\lambda a))$, where $\exp(\lambda a) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\lambda^n/n!)a^n$, where the product a^n is the product in $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$. Moreover, the map t is useful to define the Green functions of a theory:

Definition 2.18 The n -point Green function of the scalar field theory with Lagrangian a is the function

$$G(x_1, \dots, x_k) = t(\varphi(x_1) \dots \varphi(x_k) \exp(\lambda a)).$$

In the usual definition of the Green function, the right hand side of the previous equation is divided by $t(\exp(\lambda a))$, because of the Gell-Mann and Low theorem [29]. We omit this denominator for notational convenience. The usefulness of the Green functions stems from the fact that most important physical quantities can be expressed in terms of Green functions with a small number of arguments. For instance, the charge density is proportional to $G(x, x)$ [26], the optical spectrum is a linear function of $G(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$ [58], etc.

Let us consider the example of the φ^4 theory with Lagrangian $a = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \varphi^4(x) dx$. Strictly speaking, we are not allowed to consider an infinite number of points as in the integral over \mathbb{R}^4 , but this drawback can be cured in the perturbative regime, where $\exp(\lambda a)$ is expanded as a series in λ and each term a^n is rewritten

$$a^n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{4n}} dy_1 \dots dy_n \varphi^4(y_1) \dots \varphi^4(y_n).$$

Thus, the perturbative expansion of the Green function is

$$G(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{4n}} dy_1 \dots dy_n t(\varphi(x_1) \dots \varphi(x_k) \varphi^4(y_1) \dots \varphi^4(y_n)).$$

Then, in each term of the expansion, the coregular action t acts on a finite number of points and the present formulation is valid (up to renormalization). For instance, the first nonzero terms of $G(x_1, x_2)$ are

$$\begin{aligned} G(x_1, x_2) &= t(\varphi(x_1)\varphi(x_2)) + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^8} dy_1 dy_2 t(\varphi(x_1)\varphi(x_2)\varphi^4(y_1)\varphi^4(y_2)) + O(\lambda^3), \\ &= g(x_1, x_2) + \lambda^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^8} dy_1 dy_2 (48g(x_1, y_1)g(y_1, y_2)^3g(y_2, x_2) \\ &\quad + 48g(x_1, y_2)g(y_1, y_2)^3g(y_1, x_2) + 12g(x_1, x_2)g(y_1, y_2)^4) + O(\lambda^3) \end{aligned}$$

In terms of Feynman diagrams, this gives us

$$G(x_1, x_2) = \text{diagram 1} + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \int dy_1 dy_2 (\text{diagram 2} + \text{diagram 3} + \text{diagram 4}) + O(\lambda^3)$$

For the clarity of the figure, the labels y_1 and y_2 were given explicitly only for the last diagram. The three diagrams under the integral sign correspond to the three matrices

$$M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad M_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad M_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Note that the first and second integrals have the same value because $g(y_1, y_2) = g(y_2, y_1)$. Their sum would be counted as a single diagram in the standard theory. The advantage of the present procedure is that we do not have to determine the number of elements of the symmetry group of the diagrams. Note also that the last term is not connected. If we had used the standard definition of Green functions, the disconnected graph (i.e. the third term of the integral) would be cancelled by the denominator $t(\exp(\lambda a))$.

We considered only Feynman diagrams without tadpoles (a tadpole is an edge going from a vertex to itself). For some applications, it is useful to consider diagrams that can possibly contain tadpoles. Burge defined a similar correspondence for this more general case [14]. The semi-standard tableaux are now required to have an even number of boxes in each row (and no condition on the columns). In the corresponding adjacency matrix, the tadpoles attached to vertex x_k are described by assigning to the diagonal matrix element m_{kk} the value of twice the number of tadpoles attached to x_k .

2.11 The noncocommutative case

When the coalgebra \mathcal{C} is not cocommutative, the above construction is not valid because the twisted product is not associative. However, it is still possible to define a bialgebra $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ from any coalgebra \mathcal{C} over \mathbb{C} as follows. As an algebra, $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ is the tensor algebra of \mathcal{C} : $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C}) = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{T}^n(\mathcal{C})$. The coproduct Δ of $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ is defined by extending the coproduct of \mathcal{C} by algebra morphism and the counit ε of $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ is defined by extending the counit of \mathcal{C} by algebra morphism. With this coproduct and counit, the algebra $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ becomes a bialgebra. This bialgebra was used by Ritter [54] in the framework of noncommutative QFT.

For any element t of $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})^*$, the dual of $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$, we can define the right coregular action of $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})^*$ on $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ by $T(u) = u \triangleleft t = \sum t(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}$. If $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})^*$ is endowed with the convolution product $(t * t')(u) = \sum t(u_{(1)})t'(u_{(2)})$, then $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})^*$ is a unital associative algebra with unit ε . Moreover,

Lemma 2.19 $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ is a right $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})^*$ -module, i.e. $u \triangleleft \varepsilon = u$ and $(u \triangleleft t) \triangleleft t' = u \triangleleft (t * t')$.

Proof. By definition of the action and of the counit, we have $u \triangleleft \varepsilon = \sum \varepsilon(u_{(1)})u_{(2)} = u$. By definition of the action,

$$\begin{aligned} (u \triangleleft t) \triangleleft t' &= \sum (t(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}) \triangleleft t' = \sum t(u_{(1)})(u_{(2)} \triangleleft t') = \sum t(u_{(1)})t'(u_{(2)})u_{(3)} \\ &= \sum (t * t')(u_{(1)})u_{(2)} = u \triangleleft (t * t'). \end{aligned}$$

□

3 Connected chronological products

In example 2.16, we saw that some of the Feynman diagrams are disconnected. According to a basic result of QFT, all Green functions can be written in terms of connected Green functions, i.e. Green functions that are the sum of connected Feynman diagrams. In this section, we show that this elimination can be carried out by a purely algebraic method, using the fact that $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ can be equipped with a second coproduct.

3.1 A second coproduct on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$

For the calculation of connected diagrams, it is convenient to define a second coproduct δ on the symmetric algebra $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ by $\delta a = 1 \otimes a + a \otimes 1$ for a in \mathcal{C} , extended to $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ by algebra morphism. Besides, the counit ε_δ is defined by $\varepsilon_\delta(1) = 1$, $\varepsilon_\delta(a) = 0$ for a in \mathcal{C} and extended by algebra morphism. We denote by $\mathcal{S}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ the resulting bialgebra. This is the standard symmetric algebra on \mathcal{C} considered as a vector space. The Sweedler notation for the action of δ on an element u of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ is $\delta u = \sum u_{\{1\}} \otimes u_{\{2\}}$.

We prove now the following crucial

Proposition 3.1 $\mathcal{S}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ is a right $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ -comodule coalgebra for the right coaction $\beta = \Delta$.

Proof. The map $\beta : \mathcal{S}_\delta(\mathcal{C}) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_\delta(\mathcal{C}) \otimes \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ defined by $\beta = \Delta$ is a right coaction of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ on $\mathcal{S}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ because we obviously have (see ref.[43] p.22 or ref.[37] p.29) $(\beta \otimes \text{Id})\beta = (\text{Id} \otimes \Delta)\beta$ and $(\text{Id} \otimes \varepsilon)\beta = \text{Id}$. Thus, $\mathcal{S}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ is a right $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ -comodule coalgebra if we can prove the two properties (see ref.[43] p.23 or ref.[37] p.352)

$$(\varepsilon_\delta \otimes \text{Id})\beta = 1\varepsilon_\delta, \quad (3.1)$$

$$(\delta \otimes \text{Id})\beta = (\text{Id} \otimes \text{Id} \otimes \mu)(\text{Id} \otimes \tau \otimes \text{Id})(\beta \otimes \beta)\delta, \quad (3.2)$$

where μ is the algebra product of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ and τ is the flip. In Sweedler's notation this becomes

$$\sum \varepsilon_\delta(u_{(1)})u_{(2)} = \varepsilon_\delta(u)1, \quad (3.3)$$

$$\sum u_{\{1\}\{1\}} \otimes u_{\{1\}\{2\}} \otimes u_{(2)} = \sum u_{\{1\}(1)} \otimes u_{\{2\}(1)} \otimes u_{\{1\}(2)}u_{\{2\}(2)}. \quad (3.4)$$

We first show equation (3.3). Take $u \in \mathcal{S}^k(\mathcal{C})$ with $k > 0$. An example of such a u in the scalar field algebra is $u = \varphi^{n_1}(x_1) \dots \varphi^{n_k}(x_k)$. Then $\varepsilon_\delta(u) = 0$ by definition of ε_δ . Moreover, $\beta u = \Delta u = \sum u_{(1)} \otimes u_{(2)}$, where all $u_{(1)}$ and $u_{(2)}$ belong to $\mathcal{S}^k(\mathcal{C})$ by definition of the coproduct Δ . Thus, $\varepsilon_\delta(u_{(1)}) = 0$ and $\sum \varepsilon_\delta(u_{(1)})u_{(2)} = 0 =$

$\varepsilon_\delta(u)1$. The remaining case is $u \in \mathcal{S}^0(\mathcal{C})$, so that $u = \lambda 1$ for some complex number λ . Then $\sum \varepsilon_\delta(u_{(1)})u_{(2)} = \lambda \varepsilon_\delta(1)1 = \varepsilon_\delta(u)1$ and equation (3.3) is proved.

To show equation (3.4) we use a recursive proof. It is obviously true for $u = 1$, assume that it is true for all elements of $\mathcal{S}^k(\mathcal{C})$ up to $k = n$. Take $u \in \mathcal{S}^n(\mathcal{C})$ and $a \in \mathcal{C}$. From $\delta(au) = (\delta a)(\delta u) = \sum au_{\{1\}} \otimes u_{\{2\}} + u_{\{1\}} \otimes au_{\{2\}}$ we can calculate

$$\begin{aligned} (\delta \otimes \text{Id})\Delta(au) &= \sum \delta(a_{(1)}u_{(1)}) \otimes a_{(2)}u_{(2)} \\ &= \sum (a_{(1)}u_{(1)\{1\}} \otimes u_{(1)\{2\}} + u_{(1)\{1\}} \otimes a_{(1)}u_{(1)\{2\}}) \otimes a_{(2)}u_{(2)} \\ &= \sum (a_{(1)}u_{\{1\}(1)} \otimes u_{\{2\}(1)} + u_{\{1\}(1)} \otimes a_{(1)}u_{\{2\}(1)}) \otimes a_{(2)}u_{\{1\}(2)}u_{\{2\}(2)} \\ &= (\text{Id} \otimes \text{Id} \otimes \mu)(\text{Id} \otimes \tau \otimes \text{Id})(\Delta \otimes \Delta)\delta(au), \end{aligned}$$

where we go from the first line to the second with the expression for $\delta(a_{(1)}u_{(1)})$, from the second line to the third with the recursion hypothesis and from the third to the fourth with the expression for $\delta(au)$. Thus, by linearity, equation (3.4) is true for all elements of $\mathcal{S}^{n+1}(\mathcal{C})$. \square

For the coalgebra of the scalar field, one might be tempted to replace all $\varphi^0(x_i)$ by 1, the unit of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$. However, if we do this the coproduct of an element u will contain the terms $u \otimes 1$ and $1 \otimes u$ that spoil the validity of eq. (3.3).

3.2 The connected chronological product

We denote the reduced coproduct $\underline{\delta}u = \delta u - 1 \otimes u - u \otimes 1$ with Sweedler's notation $\underline{\delta}u = \sum u_{\{\underline{1}\}} \otimes u_{\{\underline{2}\}}$.

Definition 3.2 For $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ with $\varepsilon_\delta(u) = 0$, we define the connected chronological product $T_c(u)$ as

$$T_c(u) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} T(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T(u_{\{\underline{n}\}}).$$

For notational convenience, we sometimes omit from now on the sum sign corresponding to the coproduct: we write $T(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T(u_{\{\underline{n}\}})$ for $\sum T(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T(u_{\{\underline{n}\}})$. This is called the enhanced Sweedler notation. Note that the connected chronological product is related to the Eulerian idempotent [60] for $u \in \ker \varepsilon_\delta$

$$e(u) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} u_{\{\underline{1}\}} \dots u_{\{\underline{n}\}},$$

in the sense that the operator T is applied to each term $u_{\{\underline{i}\}}$. Recall that the first Eulerian idempotent projects onto the primitive elements of a connected cocommutative bialgebra. Reciprocally, we can express T in terms of T_c by

Lemma 3.3 For $u \in \ker \varepsilon_\delta$

$$T(u) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} T_c(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T_c(u_{\{\underline{n}\}}).$$

Proof. From the definition of T_c , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} T_c(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T_c(u_{\{\underline{n}\}}) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_n} \frac{(-1)^{i_1 + \dots + i_n}}{i_1 \dots i_n} T(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T(u_{\{\underline{i_1 + \dots + i_n}\}}), \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} T(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T(u_{\{\underline{k}\}}) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+n}}{n!} \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_n = k} \frac{1}{i_1 \dots i_n}. \end{aligned}$$

The sum over n and i_1, \dots, i_n is the coefficient of x^k in the series expansion of $e^{\log(1+x)}$. From $e^{\log(1+x)} = 1+x$ we deduce that the sum is $\delta_{k,1}$. Therefore

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} T_c(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T_c(u_{\{\underline{n}\}}) = T(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) = T(u).$$

□

For example,

$$\begin{aligned} T(a) &= T_c(a), \\ T(ab) &= T_c(ab) + T_c(a)T_c(b), \\ T(abc) &= T_c(abc) + T_c(ab)T_c(c) + T_c(a)T_c(bc) + T_c(ac)T_c(b) + T_c(a)T_c(b)T_c(c), \end{aligned}$$

where a, b and c are elements of \mathcal{C} . The relations between T and T_c were given by Haag [31], Epstein and Glaser [24], Brunetti and Fredenhagen [12], Dütsch and Fredenhagen [18] and Mestre and Oeckl [44].

The chronological product $T(u)$ is a coregular action: $T(u) = \sum t(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}$, where the coproduct is Δ . The connected chronological product $T_c(u)$ is defined in terms of $T(u)$ through the coproduct δ . Therefore, it is rather surprising that T_c is also a coregular action: there is an element t_c of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})^*$ such that $T_c(u) = \sum t_c(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}$. As we shall see, this is a consequence of the fact that $\mathcal{S}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ is a comodule coalgebra over $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$.

Proposition 3.4 *The connected chronological product is a coregular action: $T_c(u) = \sum t_c(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}$ for $u \in \ker \varepsilon$, with*

$$t_c(u) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} t(u_{\{1\}}) \dots t(u_{\{n\}}).$$

Proof. From $\delta u = \underline{\delta}u + 1 \otimes u + u \otimes 1$, it is straightforward to show that equation (3.2) implies

$$(\text{Id} \otimes \text{Id} \otimes \mu)(\text{Id} \otimes \tau \otimes \text{Id})(\beta \otimes \beta)\underline{\delta} = (\underline{\delta} \otimes \text{Id})\beta.$$

In Sweedler's notation,

$$\sum u_{\{1\}(1)} \otimes u_{\{2\}(1)} \otimes u_{\{1\}(2)} u_{\{2\}(2)} = \sum u_{(1)\{1\}} \otimes u_{(1)\{2\}} \otimes u_{(2)}. \quad (3.5)$$

Take now two coregular actions $A(u) = \sum a(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}$ and $B(u) = \sum b(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}$. We have, using equation (3.5) for $u \in \ker \varepsilon$,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum A(u_{\{1\}})B(u_{\{2\}}) &= \sum a(u_{\{1\}(1)})b(u_{\{2\}(1)})u_{\{1\}(2)}u_{\{2\}(2)} \\ &= \sum a(u_{(1)\{1\}})b(u_{(1)\{2\}})u_{(2)} = \sum c(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}, \end{aligned}$$

with $c(u) = \sum a(u_{\{1\}})b(u_{\{2\}})$. Therefore, $\sum A(u_{\{1\}})B(u_{\{2\}})$ is a coregular action. Using this argument recursively, we obtain that, if $A_1(u) = \sum a_1(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}, \dots, A_k(u) = \sum a_k(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}$ are k coregular actions, then $\sum A_1(u_{\{1\}}) \dots A_k(u_{\{k\}})$ is a coregular action $\sum c(u_{(1)})u_{(2)}$, with $c(u) = \sum a_1(u_{\{1\}}) \dots a_k(u_{\{k\}})$. This proves that all terms of T_c are coregular actions, so that their sum is also a coregular action. □

3.3 The linked-cluster theorem

The name of the connected chronological product comes from the fact that, for the coalgebra of the scalar field, $t_c(u)$ is made of exactly the connected diagrams of $t(u)$. This was proved, for example by Mestre and Oeckl [44]. We sketch an alternative proof of this. For a S-matrix $S = T(\exp(\lambda a))$, with $a \in \mathcal{C}$, we can calculate an expression relating $t(e^{\lambda a})$ and $t_c(e^{\lambda a})$. First, we have for $k > 0$ and $n > 0$,

$$\underline{\delta}^{k-1} a^n = \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_k = n} \frac{n!}{i_1! \dots i_k!} a^{i_1} \otimes \dots \otimes a^{i_k}, \quad (3.6)$$

where all i_j are strictly positive integers. Therefore,

$$t(a^n) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_k = n} \frac{n!}{i_1! \dots i_k!} t_c(a^{i_1}) \dots t_c(a^{i_k}).$$

If we write $E = \exp(\lambda a)$, this gives us

$$\begin{aligned} t(E) &= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1+\dots+i_k=n} \frac{n!}{i_1! \dots i_k!} t_c(a^{i_1}) \dots t_c(a^{i_k}) \\ &= 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \sum_{i_1+\dots+i_k=n} \frac{1}{i_1! \dots i_k!} t_c((\lambda a)^{i_1}) \dots t_c((\lambda a)^{i_k}) \\ &= 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} (t_c(E-1))^k = e^{t_c(E-1)}. \end{aligned}$$

The last line was obtained because all $i_j > 0$. This result can also be obtained from the identity $\underline{\delta}(E-1) = (E-1) \otimes (E-1)$. The fact that $t_c(E-1)$ contains only connected Feynman diagrams follows from the fact that the logarithm of $t(E)$ is the sum of all connected vacuum diagrams [35].

The same proof holds for the T -products, so that

$$S = T(E) = \exp(T_c(E-1)).$$

If we define a connected S -matrix by $S_c = T_c(E-1)$, we obtain the linked-cluster theorem [39] $S = e^{S_c}$.

3.4 A noncommutative analogue

If the tensor bialgebra $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ is used instead of the symmetric bialgebra $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$, the construction is similar. We start from the bialgebra $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ and we define the coalgebra $\mathcal{T}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ to be the vector space $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ endowed with the deconcatenation coproduct: $\delta 1 = 1 \otimes 1$, $\delta a = a \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes a$ for $a \in \mathcal{C}$ and

$$\delta u = u \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes u + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_1 \dots a_k \otimes a_{k+1} \dots a_n,$$

for $u = a_1 \dots a_n \in \mathcal{T}^n(\mathcal{C})$ and $n > 1$. The counit ε_δ of $\mathcal{T}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ is defined by $\varepsilon_\delta(1) = 1$ and $\varepsilon_\delta(u) = 0$ if $u \in \mathcal{T}^n(\mathcal{C})$ with $n > 0$. If $\mathcal{T}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ is equipped with the concatenation product, then $\mathcal{T}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ is not a bialgebra because the coproduct is not an algebra morphism. Loday and Ronco [41] showed that the deconcatenation coproduct and the concatenation product satisfy the compatibility rule $\delta(uv) = (u \otimes 1)\delta v + \delta(u)(1 \otimes v) - u \otimes v$, which makes $\mathcal{T}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ a unital infinitesimal bialgebra. Note that, if $u = a$, the compatibility rule becomes

$$\delta(av) = (a \otimes 1)\delta v + 1 \otimes av, \quad (3.7)$$

for $a \in \mathcal{C}$ and $v \in \mathcal{T}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$.

We have the following

Proposition 3.5 $\mathcal{T}_\delta(\mathcal{C})$ is a right $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$ -comodule coalgebra for the right coaction $\beta = \Delta$.

Proof. The proof of condition (3.3) on the counit is exactly the same as for the symmetric case. We prove (3.4) recursively. It is obviously true for $u = 1$, assume that this is true for elements of degree up to n . Take u an element of degree n and $a \in \mathcal{C}$. We rewrite equation (3.7) as $\delta(au) = \sum au_{\{1\}} \otimes u_{\{2\}} + 1 \otimes au$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} (\Delta \otimes \Delta)\delta au &= \sum a_{(1)}u_{\{1\}(1)} \otimes a_{(2)}u_{\{1\}(2)} \otimes u_{\{2\}(1)} \otimes u_{\{2\}(2)} + \sum 1 \otimes 1 \otimes a_{(1)}u_{(1)} \otimes a_{(2)}u_{(2)}. \\ (\text{Id} \otimes \tau \otimes \text{Id})(\Delta \otimes \Delta)\delta au &= \sum a_{(1)}u_{\{1\}(1)} \otimes u_{\{2\}(1)} \otimes a_{(2)}u_{\{1\}(2)} \otimes u_{\{2\}(2)} \\ &\quad + \sum 1 \otimes a_{(1)}u_{(1)} \otimes 1 \otimes a_{(2)}u_{(2)}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.8)$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} (\delta \otimes \text{Id})\Delta(au) &= \sum \delta(a_{(1)}u_{(1)}) \otimes a_{(2)}u_{(2)} \\ &= \sum a_{(1)}u_{(1)\{1\}} \otimes u_{(1)\{2\}} \otimes a_{(2)}u_{(2)} + \sum 1 \otimes a_{(1)}u_{(1)} \otimes a_{(2)}u_{(2)} \\ &= \sum a_{(1)}u_{\{1\}(1)} \otimes u_{\{2\}(1)} \otimes a_{(2)}u_{\{1\}(2)} \otimes u_{\{2\}(2)} + \sum 1 \otimes a_{(1)}u_{(1)} \otimes a_{(2)}u_{(2)} \\ &= (\text{Id} \otimes \text{Id} \otimes \mu)(\text{Id} \otimes \tau \otimes \text{Id})(\Delta \otimes \Delta)\delta(au), \end{aligned}$$

where we go from the first line to the second using equation (3.7), from the second to the third with the recursion hypothesis and from the third to the fourth using equation (3.8). This completes the proof. \square

Inspired by the analogue of the first Eulerian idempotent defined by Loday and Ronco [41] for connected unital infinitesimal bialgebras, (for $u \in \ker \varepsilon_\delta$)

$$e = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n u_{\{\underline{1}\}} \dots u_{\{\underline{n}\}},$$

we define the connected chronological product T_c by

$$T_c(u) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n T(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T(u_{\{\underline{n}\}}),$$

or, reciprocally,

$$T(u) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} T_c(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T_c(u_{\{\underline{n}\}}),$$

still for $u \in \ker \varepsilon_\delta$. Again, T_c is a coregular action if T is a coregular action.

4 Renormalization

Renormalization is a fundamental aspect of quantum field theory. It was discovered because the values of many Feynman diagrams are divergent. After several attempts, notably by Dyson [22], the problem was essentially solved by Bogoliubov [3]. The renormalization theory found in most textbooks [35] is a development of the Bogoliubov approach called the BPHZ renormalization. However, it appeared recently that the original Bogoliubov approach has decisive advantage over the BPHZ renormalization. In particular, it can be used for the renormalization of quantum field theory in curved spacetime [13, 34].

We first present Bogoliubov's solution in Hopf algebraic terms, then we consider in more detail a simplified model.

4.1 The Bogoliubov formula

Bogoliubov ([3], section 26.2) and Epstein-Glaser [24] showed that the relation between the bare (i.e. divergent) chronological product T and the renormalized chronological product T' is

$$T'(u) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} T(\Lambda(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots \Lambda(u_{\{\underline{n}\}})), \quad (4.1)$$

for $u \in \ker \varepsilon$ and $T'(1) = T(1) = 1$. In equation (4.1), Λ is a linear operator $\ker \varepsilon_\delta \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$ called a generalized vertex [3]. Epstein and Glaser proved that the standard BPHZ renormalization is a consequence of this formula [24]. Note that the renormalized chronological product T' is not in general a coregular action.

To see the effect of the operator Λ we calculate $T'(E)$ for $E = e^{\lambda a}$, with $a \in \mathcal{C}$. We first use equation (3.6) to write

$$T'(a^n) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_k = n} \frac{n!}{i_1! \dots i_k!} T(\Lambda(a^{i_1}) \dots \Lambda(a^{i_k})),$$

where all $i_j > 0$. This gives us

$$\begin{aligned} T'(E) &= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^n}{n!} T'(a^n) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_k = n} \frac{1}{i_1! \dots i_k!} T(\Lambda((\lambda a)^{i_1}) \dots \Lambda((\lambda a)^{i_k})) \\ &= 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_k} \frac{1}{i_1! \dots i_k!} T(\Lambda((\lambda a)^{i_1}) \dots \Lambda((\lambda a)^{i_k})) \\ &= 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} T(\Lambda(e^{\lambda a} - 1) \dots \Lambda(e^{\lambda a} - 1)) = T(\exp(\Lambda(e^{\lambda a} - 1))). \end{aligned}$$

If we define $a' \in \mathcal{C}$ by

$$a' = \frac{1}{\lambda} \Lambda(e^{\lambda a} - 1) = \Lambda(a) + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{n-1}}{n!} \Lambda(a^n), \quad (4.2)$$

the previous equality can be rewritten $T'(e^{\lambda a}) = T(e^{\lambda a'})$. In other words, the change of chronological product from T to T' amounts to a change of Lagrangian from a to a' . This result was obtained by Hollands and Wald [34] who showed that it holds also in curved spacetime.

In flat spacetime, the chronological product satisfies $T(a) = T'(a) = a$ for $a \in \mathcal{C}$. Therefore, $a = T'(a) = T(\Lambda(a)) = \Lambda(a)$ because $\Lambda(a) \in \mathcal{C}$. This implies $\Lambda(a) = a$ and the renormalized Lagrangian starts with the unrenormalized one. The terms with $n > 1$ in equation (4.2) are called the renormalization *counterterms*. In curved spacetime the situation is more complicated and Hollands and Wald [33] showed that we have in general $T'(a) = \sum t'(a_{(1)})T(a_{(2)})$, where t' is a linear map from \mathcal{C} to \mathbb{C} . In that case $\Lambda(a) = \sum t'(a_{(1)})a_{(2)}$.

4.2 The renormalization group: preparation

In this section, we define a product on linear maps $\Lambda : \mathcal{S}(V)^+ \rightarrow V$ for any vector space V on the complex numbers, where $\mathcal{S}(V) = \mathbb{C}1 \oplus \mathcal{S}(V)^+$ is the symmetric Hopf algebra on V , with coproduct δ and counit ε_δ . The Sweedler notation for the coproduct δ is again $\delta u = \sum u_{\{1\}} \otimes u_{\{2\}}$.

Definition 4.1 If $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V))$ denotes the set of linear maps from $\mathcal{S}(V)$ to $\mathcal{S}(V)$, the *convolution product* of two elements f and g of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V))$ is the element $f * g$ of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V))$ defined by $(f * g)(u) = \sum f(u_{\{1\}})g(u_{\{2\}})$, where $u \in \mathcal{S}(V)$. The *convolution powers* of an element f of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V))$ are the elements f^{*n} of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V))$ defined by $f^{*0} = \varepsilon_\delta 1$ and $f^{*n} = f * f^{*(n-1)}$ for any integer $n > 0$.

In particular, if we denote by $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ the set of linear maps from $\mathcal{S}(V)^+$ to V , we first extend Λ to $\mathcal{S}(V)$ by $\Lambda(1) = 0$. Then, we define the convolution powers Λ^{*n} as above and the *convolution exponential* $e^{*\Lambda}$ by

$$e^{*\Lambda}(u) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \Lambda^{*n}(u).$$

Note that the exponential is well defined (i.e. the sum is finite) because $\Lambda(1) = 0$ implies that, for $u \in \mathcal{S}^k(V)$, $\Lambda^{*n}(u) = 0$ for $n > k$. The following special cases are illustrative: $e^{*\Lambda}(1) = 1$, $e^{*\Lambda}(a) = \Lambda(a)$, $e^{*\Lambda}(ab) = \Lambda(ab) + \Lambda(a)\Lambda(b)$ and

$$e^{*\Lambda}(abc) = \Lambda(abc) + \Lambda(a)\Lambda(bc) + \Lambda(b)\Lambda(ac) + \Lambda(c)\Lambda(ab) + \Lambda(a)\Lambda(b)\Lambda(c),$$

for a, b and c in V . Note also that $e^{*\Lambda}$ maps $\mathcal{S}(V)^+$ to $\mathcal{S}(V)^+$. We first prove the useful lemma

Lemma 4.2 For $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ and $u \in \mathcal{S}(V)$, we have $\delta(e^{*\Lambda}(u)) = \sum e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{1\}}) \otimes e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{2\}})$.

Proof. The space $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V))$ equipped with the convolution product is a commutative algebra with unit $1 = \varepsilon_\delta 1$. We denote by \mathcal{A} the subalgebra generated by $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ (where the elements Λ of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ are extended to $\mathcal{S}(V)$ by $\Lambda(1) = 0$). For any Λ of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$, $\Lambda(u)$ is an element of V . Thus, it is primitive and

$$\delta \Lambda(u) = \Lambda(u) \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes \Lambda(u) = (\Lambda \otimes \varepsilon_\delta 1 + \varepsilon_\delta 1 \otimes \Lambda) \delta u = (\Lambda \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes \Lambda) \delta u.$$

Therefore, it is natural to equip \mathcal{A} with the structure of a Hopf algebra by defining the coproduct $\Delta \Lambda = \Lambda \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes \Lambda$ for $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ and extending it to \mathcal{A} by algebra morphism. The equality $\Delta e^{*\Lambda} = e^{*\Lambda} \otimes e^{*\Lambda}$ follows from the fact that the exponential of a primitive element is group-like. The lemma is a consequence of the fact that $\mathcal{S}(V)$ is a \mathcal{A} -module coalgebra for the action $\Lambda \triangleright u = \Lambda(u)$. \square

A second lemma will be useful to derive recursive proofs.

Lemma 4.3 For $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$, $a \in V$ and $u \in \mathcal{S}(V)$, we have $e^{*\Lambda}(au) = \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{2\}})$.

Proof. We first show recursively that, for $a \in V$, $u \in \mathcal{S}(V)$ and $n > 0$, then

$$\Lambda^{*n}(au) = n \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*(n-1)}(u_{\{2\}}). \quad (4.3)$$

This is true for $n = 1$ because $\Lambda(au) = \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) \varepsilon(u_{\{2\}}) = \sum \Lambda^{*1}(au_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*0}(u_{\{2\}})$. Assume that equation (4.3) is true up to n . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda^{*(n+1)}(au) &= \sum \Lambda((au)_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*n}((au)_{\{2\}}) = \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*n}(u_{\{2\}}) + \sum \Lambda(u_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*n}(au_{\{2\}}) \\ &= \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*n}(u_{\{2\}}) + n \sum \Lambda(u_{\{1\}}) \Lambda(au_{\{2\}}) \Lambda^{*(n-1)}(u_{\{3\}}) \\ &= (n+1) \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*n}(u_{\{2\}}), \end{aligned}$$

where we used the coassociativity and cocommutativity of the coproduct and the commutativity of the product. The lemma follows because

$$\begin{aligned} e^{*\Lambda}(au) &= \varepsilon_\delta(au) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \Lambda^{*n}(au) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*(n-1)}(u_{\{2\}}) \\ &= \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{2\}}), \end{aligned}$$

where we used the fact that $\varepsilon_\delta(au) = \varepsilon_\delta(a) \varepsilon_\delta(u) = 0$ because $\varepsilon_\delta(a) = 0$. \square

We are now ready to define a product on $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ by

Definition 4.4 If Λ' and Λ are in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$, the product of Λ' and Λ is the element $\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda$ of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ defined by

$$(\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)(u) = \Lambda'(e^{*\Lambda}(u)).$$

This definition enables us to write the last lemma of this section.

Lemma 4.5 For Λ' and Λ in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ and $u \in \mathcal{S}(V)$, we have $e^{*\Lambda'}(e^{*\Lambda}(u)) = e^{*(\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)}(u)$.

Proof. The lemma is true for $u = 1$ and $u = a \in V$ because $e^{*\Lambda'}(e^{*\Lambda}(1)) = e^{*\Lambda'}(1) = 1 = e^{*(\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)}(1)$ and $e^{*\Lambda'}(e^{*\Lambda}(a)) = e^{*\Lambda'}(\Lambda(a)) = \Lambda'(\Lambda(a)) = (\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)(a) = e^{*(\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)}(a)$. Assume that the lemma is true for all elements of $\mathcal{S}^k(V)$ up to $k = n$. Take $a \in V$, $u \in \mathcal{S}^n(V)$ and use lemma 4.3 to calculate

$$e^{*\Lambda'}(e^{*\Lambda}(au)) = \sum e^{*\Lambda'}(\Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{2\}}))$$

If we denote $\Lambda(au_{\{1\}})$ by a' and $e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{2\}})$ by u' , we can use lemma 4.3 again

$$e^{*\Lambda'}(a'u') = \sum \Lambda'(a'u'_{\{1\}}) e^{*\Lambda'}(u'_{\{2\}}).$$

Lemma 4.2 enables us to calculate $\sum u'_{\{1\}} \otimes u'_{\{2\}} = \delta u' = \delta e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{2\}}) = \sum e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{2\}}) \otimes e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{3\}})$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} e^{*\Lambda'}(e^{*\Lambda}(au)) &= \sum \Lambda'(\Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{2\}})) e^{*\Lambda'}(e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{3\}})) \\ &= \sum \Lambda'(\Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{2\}})) e^{*(\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)}(u_{\{3\}}), \end{aligned}$$

where we used the recursion hypothesis to evaluate $e^{*\Lambda'}(e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{3\}}))$. Lemma 4.3 and the definition of $\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda$ yield

$$\begin{aligned} e^{*\Lambda'}(e^{*\Lambda}(au)) &= \sum \Lambda'(e^{*\Lambda}(au_{\{1\}})) e^{*(\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)}(u_{\{2\}}) = \sum (\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)(au_{\{1\}}) e^{*(\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)}(u_{\{2\}}) \\ &= e^{*(\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)}(au), \end{aligned}$$

where we used lemma 4.3 again to conclude. Thus, the lemma is true for $au \in \mathcal{S}^{n+1}(V)$. \square

These lemmas lead us to the main result of this section,

Proposition 4.6 *The vector space $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ endowed with the product \bullet is a unital associative algebra. The unit of this algebra is the map Λ_0 such that $\Lambda_0(a) = a$ for $a \in V$ and $\Lambda_0(u) = 0$ for $u \in \mathcal{S}^n(V)$ with $n > 1$. The invertible elements of this algebra are exactly the Λ such that the restriction of Λ to V is invertible as a linear map from V to V .*

Proof. Associativity follows essentially from lemma 4.5 because, for Λ_1, Λ_2 and Λ_3 in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} ((\Lambda_1 \bullet \Lambda_2) \bullet \Lambda_3)(u) &= (\Lambda_1 \bullet \Lambda_2)(e^{*\Lambda_3}(u)) = \Lambda_1(e^{*\Lambda_2}(e^{*\Lambda_3}(u))) = \Lambda_1(e^{*(\Lambda_2 \bullet \Lambda_3)}(u)) \\ &= (\Lambda_1 \bullet (\Lambda_2 \bullet \Lambda_3))(u). \end{aligned}$$

Λ_0 is the unit of the algebra because $e^{*\Lambda_0}(u) = u$ for any $u \in \mathcal{S}(V)$. This is true for $u = 1$ by the definition of $e^{*\Lambda_0}$ and for $u = a \in V$ by the definition of Λ_0 . Assume that this is true for u of degree up to n . Take u of degree n and use lemma 4.3: $e^{*\Lambda_0}(au) = \sum \Lambda_0(au_{i_1})e^{*\Lambda_0}(u_{i_2})$. $\Lambda_0(au_{i_1}) = 0$ if the degree of u_{i_1} is larger than 0. Thus $e^{*\Lambda_0}(au) = \sum \Lambda_0(a)e^{*\Lambda_0}(u) = au$ by the recursion hypothesis. Thus $(\Lambda \bullet \Lambda_0)(u) = \Lambda(e^{*\Lambda_0}(u)) = \Lambda(u)$. Similarly, $(\Lambda_0 \bullet \Lambda)(u) = \Lambda_0(e^{*\Lambda}(u))$. Λ_0 is the identity on the elements of degree 1 and 0 on the elements of degree different from 1. The element of degree 1 of $e^{*\Lambda}(u)$ is $\Lambda(u)$, thus $(\Lambda_0 \bullet \Lambda)(u) = \Lambda(u)$.

To prove the invertibility property, consider an invertible element Λ with inverse Λ^{-1} . Then $\Lambda^{-1} \bullet \Lambda = \Lambda_0$ and, on any element a of V , $(\Lambda^{-1} \bullet \Lambda)(a) = \Lambda_0(a) = a$. Thus, $\Lambda^{-1}(\Lambda(a)) = a$ and Λ is invertible as a map from V to V . Reciprocally, take a Λ invertible as a map from V to V with inverse Λ' . We shall construct recursively the inverse Λ^{-1} of Λ in the algebra $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$. For $a \in V$ we have $\Lambda^{-1}(a) = \Lambda'(a)$. To see how the recurrence works, we calculate the next term. For a and b in V we are looking for a Λ^{-1} such that $(\Lambda^{-1} \bullet \Lambda)(ab) = \Lambda_0(ab) = 0$. Thus, $0 = \Lambda^{-1}(e^{*\Lambda}(ab)) = \Lambda^{-1}(\Lambda(ab) + \Lambda(a)\Lambda(b))$. This defines $\Lambda^{-1}(\Lambda(a)\Lambda(b)) = -\Lambda'(\Lambda(ab))$, because Λ^{-1} is Λ' on V . The map Λ being bijective on V , this defines Λ^{-1} on $\mathcal{S}^2(V)$. Assume now that Λ^{-1} is defined on $\mathcal{S}^k(V)$ for all $k < n$, take a_1, \dots, a_n in V and put $u = a_1, \dots, a_n$ in $\mathcal{S}^n(V)$. We want to solve $(\Lambda^{-1} \bullet \Lambda)(u) = 0$, with $(\Lambda^{-1} \bullet \Lambda)(u) = \Lambda^{-1}(e^{*\Lambda}(u))$. The term of highest degree in $e^{*\Lambda}(u)$ is $\Lambda(a_1) \dots \Lambda(a_n)$. The inverse Λ^{-1} is defined on all the other terms, thus the equation $(\Lambda^{-1} \bullet \Lambda)(u) = 0$ defines Λ^{-1} on $\Lambda(a_1) \dots \Lambda(a_n)$. In other words, Λ^{-1} is now uniquely defined on $\mathcal{S}^n(V)$. Therefore, Λ^{-1} is uniquely defined on $\mathcal{S}(V)^+$. \square

4.3 Renormalization group: QFT

If Λ is a linear map from $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})^+$ to \mathcal{C} , we saw in equation (4.2) that the renormalization encoded in Λ can be considered as a change of Lagrangian from a to a' with

$$a' = \Lambda(a) + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{n-1}}{n!} \Lambda(a^n).$$

Thus, it is possible to consider a' as the result of the action of Λ on a : $a' = \Lambda \triangleright a$. If we renormalize the Lagrangian a' with the renormalization encoded in a map Λ' , we obtain a new Lagrangian $a'' = \Lambda' \triangleright a' = \Lambda' \triangleright (\Lambda \triangleright a)$. The first terms of a'' are

$$\begin{aligned} a'' &= \Lambda'(\Lambda(a)) + \frac{\lambda}{2}(\Lambda'(\Lambda(a^2)) + \Lambda'(\Lambda(a)\Lambda(a))) \\ &\quad + \frac{\lambda^2}{6}(\Lambda'(\Lambda(a^3)) + 3\Lambda'(\Lambda(a)\Lambda(a^2)) + \Lambda'(\Lambda(a)\Lambda(a)\Lambda(a))) + O(\lambda^3) \end{aligned}$$

The main result of this section is

Proposition 4.7 *If Λ and Λ' are in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{S}(V)^+, V)$ and $a \in \mathcal{C}$, then $\Lambda' \triangleright (\Lambda \triangleright a) = (\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda) \triangleright a$.*

Proof. Equation (3.6) for $\underline{\delta}^{k-1}a^n$ gives us

$$e^{*\Lambda}(a^n) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1 + \dots + i_k = n} \frac{n!}{i_1! \dots i_k!} \Lambda(a^{i_1}) \dots \Lambda(a^{i_k}),$$

where all the i_j are strictly positive integers. Thus, for $E = e^{\lambda a}$,

$$\begin{aligned} e^{*\Lambda}\left(\frac{E-1}{\lambda}\right) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda^{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1+\dots+i_k=n} \frac{\Lambda(a^{i_1})}{i_1!} \dots \frac{\Lambda(a^{i_k})}{i_k!} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_k} \lambda^{i_1+\dots+i_k-1} \frac{\Lambda(a^{i_1})}{i_1!} \dots \frac{\Lambda(a^{i_k})}{i_k!}. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand,

$$\Lambda' \triangleright a' = \Lambda' \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{k-1}}{k!} (a')^k \right),$$

with $a' = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda^{i-1} \Lambda(a^i)/i!$. Therefore,

$$\Lambda' \triangleright a' = \Lambda' \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_k} \lambda^{i_1+\dots+i_k-1} \frac{\Lambda(a^{i_1})}{i_1!} \dots \frac{\Lambda(a^{i_k})}{i_k!} \right).$$

Thus,

$$\Lambda' \triangleright a' = \Lambda' \left(e^{*\Lambda} \left(\frac{E-1}{\lambda} \right) \right) = (\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda) \left(\frac{E-1}{\lambda} \right) = (\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda) \triangleright a,$$

where we used lemma 4.5 and the fact that, for any Λ , $\Lambda \triangleright a = (1/\lambda)\Lambda(E-1)$. \square

In standard QFT, the linear maps Λ satisfy $\Lambda(a) = a$. Thus, they are invertible for the product \bullet and they form a group, which is one of the many faces of the *renormalization group*.

4.4 Connected renormalization

We argued that, in QFT, the connected chronological product is physically more useful than the standard chronological product. Thus, it is important to investigate how connected chronological products are renormalized.

Proposition 4.8 *The relation between the connected renormalized chronological product T'_c and the connected chronological product T_c is, for $u \in \ker \varepsilon_\delta$,*

$$T'_c(u) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} T_c(\Lambda(u_{\{1\}}) \dots \Lambda(u_{\{n\}})),$$

Proof. We first note that we can use definition 4.1 to rewrite equation (4.1) under the form $T'(u) = T(e^{*\Lambda}(u))$. Lemma 3.3 expresses $T(e^{*\Lambda}(u))$ in terms of connected chronological products. To evaluate this expression we need $\underline{\delta}^{n-1} e^{*\Lambda}(u)$. The identity $\delta v = v \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes v + \underline{\delta} v$ transforms lemma 4.2 into $\underline{\delta} e^{*\Lambda}(u) = (e^{*\Lambda} \otimes e^{*\Lambda}) \underline{\delta} u$. By iterating and using the coassociativity of $\underline{\delta}$ we find

$$\underline{\delta}^{n-1} e^{*\Lambda}(u) = \sum e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{1\}}) \otimes \dots \otimes e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{n\}}), \quad (4.4)$$

and we can rewrite the renormalized chronological product in terms of the bare connected chronological products as

$$T'(u) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} T_c(e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{1\}})) \dots T_c(e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{n\}})).$$

To conclude, we use definition 3.2 to express $T'_c(u)$ in terms of T' . Then, we expand each $T'(u_{\{\underline{i}\}})$ using the last equation

$$\begin{aligned} T'_c(u) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} T'(u_{\{\underline{1}\}}) \dots T'(u_{\{\underline{n}\}}) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_n} \frac{1}{i_1! \dots i_n!} T_c(e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{\underline{1}\}})) \dots T_c(e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{\underline{i_1+\dots+i_n}\}})) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} T_c(e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{\underline{1}\}})) \dots T_c(e^{*\Lambda}(u_{\{\underline{k}\}})) \sum_{n=1}^k \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} \sum_{i_1+\dots+i_n=k} \frac{1}{i_1! \dots i_n!}. \end{aligned}$$

The sum over n and i_1, \dots, i_n is the coefficient of x^k in the series expansion of $\log(e^x) = \log(1 + (e^x - 1))$. From $\log(e^x) = x$ we deduce that the sum is $\delta_{k,1}$. Therefore $T'_c(u) = T_c(e^{*\Lambda}(u))$ and the lemma is proved. \square

In other words, the connected chronological product is renormalized with the same formula and the same generalized vertices Λ as the standard chronological product. Such an expression for the renormalization of the connected chronological product was used, for instance, by Hollands [32].

4.5 A simplified model

In QFT, the linear maps Λ have a very particular form. In the example of the $\varphi^4(x)$ theory, the Lagrangian is $a = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \varphi^4(x) dx$ and

$$\Lambda(a^n) = C_1^{(n)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \varphi^4(x) dx + C_3^{(n)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \varphi^2(x) dx + C_2^{(n)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \varphi(x) (\partial \cdot \partial - m^2) \varphi(x) dx,$$

where $C_1^{(n)}$, $C_2^{(n)}$ and $C_3^{(n)}$ are real numbers related to the charge, wavefunction and mass renormalization [3]. Such a Lagrangian cannot be manipulated directly with our approach because the integral over \mathbb{R}^4 involves an infinite number of points. However, as explained in section 2.10, it can be given a meaning in the perturbative approach. A more serious problem is the presence of derivatives in $\int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \varphi(x) (\partial \cdot \partial - m^2) \varphi(x) dx$. To deal with such terms, we must include derivatives of fields into our algebra \mathcal{C} . This poses several problems that are debated by Stora, Boas, Dütsch and Fredenhagen [17, 19, 20, 21], concerning the status of the Action Ward Identity or whether the fields should be taken on-shell or off-shell. Before the situation is fully clarified, we can propose a model without derivatives (i.e. where the divergences are only logarithmic, in the QFT parlance [35]). In that case, it was shown in a paper with Bill Schmitt [11], that the coalgebra \mathcal{C} has to be replaced by a bialgebra \mathcal{B} and that renormalization becomes a functor on bialgebras. In the case of the scalar field, the product is defined by $\varphi^n(x_i) \cdot \varphi^m(x_j) = \delta_{ij} \varphi^{n+m}(x_i)$. It can be checked that, with this product, the coalgebra of the scalar field becomes indeed a commutative bialgebra \mathcal{B} .

This simplified model can be extended to any commutative and cocommutative bialgebra \mathcal{B} by defining the maps Λ as $\Lambda(u) = \sum \lambda(u_{(1)}) \prod u_{(2)}$, where λ is a linear map from $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{B})^+$ to \mathbb{C} and $\prod u$ is defined as follows: if $u = a \in \mathcal{B}$, then $\prod u = a$, if $u = a_1 \dots a_n \in \mathcal{S}^n(\mathcal{B})$, then $\prod u = a_1 \cdot \dots \cdot a_n$ where the product \cdot is in \mathcal{B} . With this definition, it is clear that Λ is a linear map from $\ker \varepsilon_\delta$ to \mathcal{B} . The fact that such Λ form a subgroup of the renormalization group defined in the previous paragraph follows from the existence of a bialgebraic structure on $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{B})^+$, studied in detail in [11]. If the product of n elements u_1, \dots, u_n of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{B})^+$ in $\mathcal{S}^n(\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{B})^+)$ is denoted by $u_1 \vee \dots \vee u_n$, the renormalization coproduct Δ_R defined in [11] can be written, for $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{B})^+$,

$$\Delta_R u = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \sum u_{\{\underline{1}\}(1)} \vee \dots \vee u_{\{\underline{n}\}(1)} \otimes (\prod u_{\{\underline{2}\}(2)}) \dots (\prod u_{\{\underline{n}\}(2)}).$$

This construction has a functorial noncommutative analogue [11].

4.6 The renormalization group: the noncommutative case

In this section, we want to describe the renormalization group in the noncommutative case. We first define a product on linear maps $\Lambda : \mathcal{T}(V)^+ \rightarrow V$ for any vector space V on the complex numbers, where $\mathcal{T}(V) = \mathbb{C}1 \oplus \mathcal{T}(V)^+$ is the tensor algebra on V , with deconcatenation coproduct δ and counit ε_δ . Let us denote by $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$ the set of linear maps from $\mathcal{T}(V)^+$ to V .

For Λ in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$, we first define the noncommutative analogue of $e^{*\Lambda}$, that we denote by I_Λ .

Definition 4.9 Let $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$, we define the convolution powers Λ^{*n} as in definition 4.1, with the symmetric coproduct replaced by the deconcatenation coproduct. Moreover, we define the linear map $I_\Lambda : \mathcal{T}(V) \rightarrow \mathcal{T}(V)$ by

$$I_\Lambda(u) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \Lambda^{*n}(u),$$

for $u \in \mathcal{T}(V)$.

Note that I_Λ is well defined because, for $u \in \mathcal{T}^k(V)$, $\Lambda^{*n}(u) = 0$ if $n > k$. The following special cases are illustrative: $I_\Lambda(1) = 1$, $I_\Lambda(a) = \Lambda(a)$, $I_\Lambda(ab) = \Lambda(ab) + \Lambda(a)\Lambda(b)$ and

$$I_\Lambda(abc) = \Lambda(abc) + \Lambda(a)\Lambda(bc) + \Lambda(ab)\Lambda(c) + \Lambda(a)\Lambda(b)\Lambda(c)$$

for a, b and c in V . Note also that I_Λ maps $\mathcal{T}(V)^+$ to $\mathcal{T}(V)^+$. As for the commutative case, we have the useful lemma

Lemma 4.10 For $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$ and $u \in \mathcal{T}(V)$, we have $\delta I_\Lambda(u) = (I_\Lambda \otimes I_\Lambda)\delta u$.

Proof. We give a detailed proof because unital infinitesimal algebra are not as well studied as Hopf algebras. We first show recursively the identity

$$\delta \Lambda^{*n}(u) = \sum_{k=0}^n \sum \Lambda^{*k}(u_{\{1\}}) \otimes \Lambda^{*(n-k)}(u_{\{2\}}). \quad (4.5)$$

For $n = 0$, equation (4.5) is satisfied because

$$\delta \Lambda^{*0}(u) = \varepsilon_\delta(u)1 \otimes 1 = \sum \varepsilon_\delta(u_{\{1\}})1 \otimes \varepsilon_\delta(u_{\{2\}})1 = \sum \Lambda^{*0}(u_{\{1\}}) \otimes \Lambda^{*0}(u_{\{2\}}).$$

Equation (4.5) is obviously true for $u = 1$ and all $n > 0$. Thus, we take from now on $u \in \mathcal{T}(V)^+$. Assume that equation (4.5) is true up to n , then the definition of $\Lambda^{*(n+1)}(u)$, the relation $\delta(au) = (a \otimes 1)\delta u + 1 \otimes au$, and the recursion hypothesis imply

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \Lambda^{*(n+1)}(u) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \sum \Lambda(u_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*k}(u_{\{2\}}) \otimes \Lambda^{*(n-k)}(u_{\{3\}}) + \sum 1 \otimes \Lambda(u_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*n}(u_{\{2\}}) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \sum \Lambda^{*(k+1)}(u_{\{1\}}) \otimes \Lambda^{*(n-k)}(u_{\{2\}}) + 1 \otimes \Lambda^{*(n+1)}(u) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \sum \Lambda^{*k}(u_{\{1\}}) \otimes \Lambda^{*(n+1-k)}(u_{\{2\}}). \end{aligned}$$

The lemma follows by summing both sides of equation (4.5) over n . □

A second lemma is very close to its commutative analogue.

Lemma 4.11 For $\Lambda \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$, $a \in V$ and $u \in \mathcal{S}(V)$ we have $I_\Lambda(au) = \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}})I_\Lambda(u_{\{2\}})$.

Proof. We first show that, if $a \in V$, $u \in \mathcal{S}(V)^+$ and $n > 0$, then

$$\Lambda^{*n}(au) = \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*(n-1)}(u_{\{2\}}). \quad (4.6)$$

For any $n > 0$, the definition of the convolution powers and the compatibility rule $\delta(au) = (a \otimes 1)\delta u + 1 \otimes au$ imply

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda^{*n}(au) &= \sum \Lambda((au)_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*(n-1)}((au)_{\{2\}}) \\ &= \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*(n-1)}(u_{\{2\}}) + \sum \Lambda(1) \Lambda^{*(n-1)}(au) = \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*(n-1)}(u_{\{2\}}), \end{aligned}$$

because $\Lambda(1) = 0$. Thus,

$$I_\Lambda(au) = \varepsilon_\delta(au)1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \Lambda^{*n}(au) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) \Lambda^{*(n-1)}(u_{\{2\}}) = \sum \Lambda(au_{\{1\}}) I_\Lambda(u_{\{2\}}),$$

where we used $\varepsilon_\delta(au) = \varepsilon_\delta(a)\varepsilon_\delta(u) = 0$, since $\varepsilon_\delta(a) = 0$. \square

We are now ready to define a product on $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$ by

Definition 4.12 If Λ' and Λ are in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$, the product of Λ' and Λ is the element $\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda$ of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$ defined by

$$(\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda)(u) = \Lambda'(I_\Lambda(u)).$$

This definition enables us to write the last lemma of this section.

Lemma 4.13 For Λ' and Λ in $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$ and $u \in \mathcal{T}(V)$, we have $I_{\Lambda'}(I_\Lambda(u)) = I_{\Lambda' \bullet \Lambda}(u)$.

Proof. The proof is the same as for the commutative case. \square

We can now state the main result of this section,

Proposition 4.14 The vector space $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$ endowed with the product \bullet is a unital associative algebra. The unit of this algebra is the map Λ_0 such that $\Lambda_0(a) = a$ for $a \in V$ and $\Lambda_0(u) = 0$ for $u \in \mathcal{T}^n(V)$ with $n > 1$. The invertible elements of this algebra are exactly the Λ such that the restriction of Λ to V is invertible as a linear map from V to V . In particular, the subset of $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{T}(V)^+, V)$ characterized by $\Lambda(a) = a$ for $a \in V$ is a group.

Proof. The proof is the same as for the commutative case. \square

5 Conclusion

This paper described the first steps of a complete description of QFT in Hopf algebraic terms. Although these steps look encouraging, many open problems still have to be solved. The main one is analytical: the use of a finite number of points is not really satisfactory and we should allow for coalgebras containing elements such as $\int \varphi^n(x)g(x)dx$ for some test functions g .

Other open problems are easier. We list now three of them: (i) The renormalization approach presented here is equivalent to the Connes-Kreimer approach because both are equivalent to the standard BPHZ renormalization [11]. However, it would be quite interesting to describe this equivalence explicitly. (ii) We proved that a QFT is renormalized once its connected chronological product is renormalized. In fact, a deeper result is true: a QFT is renormalized once its one-particle irreducible diagrams are renormalized [35]. To cast this result into our framework, we would need to write the connected chronological product T_c in terms of a one-particle irreducible chronological product. Although such a connection was announced by Epstein and Glaser [24], it was described as complicated and was apparently never published. Three possible solutions to this problem have been explored [57, 6, 10] Similarly, it would be worthwhile to determine a Hopf algebraic expression of Green functions in terms of n -particle irreducible functions, which is usually done by Legendre transformation techniques [49]. (iii) It would be important to develop the analogue of the constructions presented in this paper to the case of gauge theories. Along that line, van Suijlekom obtained the remarkable result that the Ward and Slavnov-Taylor

identities generate a Hopf ideal of the Hopf algebra of renormalization [59]. It would be nice to see how this result can be adapted to our framework.

The most original aspect of this work is the determination of noncommutative analogues of some QFT concepts (i.e. the replacement of $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ by $\mathcal{T}(\mathcal{C})$, or of $\mathcal{S}(V)$ by $\mathcal{T}(V)$). Such a noncommutative analogue was first determined for quantum electrodynamics [8] and it lead to the definition of a noncommutative Faà di Bruno algebra [9], generalized to many variables by Anshelevich et al. [2]. These algebras provide an effective way to manipulate series in noncommutative variables. The noncommutative constructions defined in the present paper can also be useful for that purpose.

The present approach enables us to recover the Feynman diagram formulation of QFT, but its most interesting aspect is that it is defined at the operator level. For example, in our notation, the relation between connected and standard chronological product is given not only at the level of the coregular actions t and t_c , but at the level of the maps from $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ to $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ (i.e. the relation between T and T_c). As a consequence, we can calculate Green functions such as

$$G_\rho(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{\rho\left(T(\varphi(x_1) \dots \varphi(x_n)e^{\lambda a})\right)}{\rho\left(T(e^{\lambda a})\right)},$$

where ρ is a map from $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C})$ to \mathbb{C} . Such more general Green functions are the basic objects of the quantum field theory with initial correlations (or QFT of degenerate systems) which is well suited to the calculation of highly-correlated systems [5].

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