Quantum critical dynamics for a prototype class of insulating antiferromagnets

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(Received 11 April 2018; revised manuscript received 21 May 2018; published 6 June 2018)

Quantum criticality is a fundamental organizing principle for studying strongly correlated systems. Nevertheless, understanding quantum critical dynamics at nonzero temperatures is a major challenge of condensed-matter physics due to the intricate interplay between quantum and thermal fluctuations. The recent experiments with the quantum spin dimer material TlCuCl$_3$ provide an unprecedented opportunity to test the theories of quantum criticality. We investigate the non-zero-temperature quantum critical spin dynamics by employing an effective $O(N)$ field theory. The on-shell mass and the damping rate of quantum critical spin excitations as functions of temperature are calculated based on the renormalized coupling strength and are in excellent agreement with experiment observations. Their $T \ln T$ dependence is predicted to be dominant at very low temperatures, which will be tested in future experiments. Our work provides confidence that quantum criticality as a theoretical framework, which is being considered in so many different contexts of condensed-matter physics and beyond, is indeed grounded in materials and experiments accurately. It is also expected to motivate further experimental investigations on the applicability of the field theory to related quantum critical systems.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevB.97.224405

I. INTRODUCTION

Quantum and thermal fluctuations combine to determine the overall non-zero-temperature quantum dynamics as well as the thermodynamics of strongly correlated many-body systems. A quantum critical point occurs at zero temperature when matter goes from one quantum ground state to another upon tuning a nonthermal parameter \cite{1,2}. An illustration of a generic phase diagram of a quantum phase transition is presented in Fig. 1. Physical properties around quantum critical points are of extensive current interest. For instance, quantum criticality gives rise to unusual spin dynamics in heavy-fermion metals \cite{3–5} and one-dimensional quantum magnets \cite{6,7}, criticality gives rise to unusual spin dynamics in heavy-fermion metals \cite{3–5} and one-dimensional quantum magnets \cite{6,7}, as well as the non-Fermi-liquid behavior and unconventional superconductivity in a variety of strongly correlated electron systems \cite{1,8–10}. The corresponding real-frequency dynamics is, in general, difficult to calculate, especially at nonzero temperatures ($T > 0$). Indeed, even for quantum systems in one spatial dimension, analytical understandings of such dynamical properties are still limited \cite{7,11–14}.

Recently, the neutron scattering experiments with the three-dimensional quantum magnetic dimer compound TlCuCl$_3$ have provided an ideal test bed of quantum critical theory at an unprecedented level \cite{16–19}. TlCuCl$_3$ undergoes a continuous quantum phase transition from the quantum disordered phase to the Néel ordered one with increasing pressure. At ambient pressure, the ground state is a dimerized singlet paramagnet with gapped low-energy triplon (triplet state) excitations. Upon increasing pressure, the triplon band bottom is lowered, and at a critical pressure, these excitations become gapless, leading to a quantum phase transition into the Néel ordered ground state. Correspondingly, the low-energy phase is captured by a generic $[3 \text{ (space)} + 1 \text{ (time)}]$-dimensional relativistic $O(3)$ quantum $\phi^4$ theory \cite{20,21} (Appendix A). While a great deal of effort, such as theoretical proposals for detection of the Higgs mode and the ratio of gaps in disorder and order regimes, has been made towards understanding the experiments \cite{22–27}, the dynamics in the quantum critical regime have not been understood properly \cite{28}.

In this paper, we study the critical dynamics of quantum antiferromagnetism at zero temperatures by employing a generic $[3 \text{ (space)} + 1 \text{ (time)}]$-dimensional relativistic $O(N)$-invariant quantum $\phi^4$ theory. Both the on-shell and off-shell quantum critical dynamics at $T > 0$ are calculated in a broad dynamical regime. Our on-shell results for the mass and damping rate allow not only a qualitative understanding of the experimental observation but also a quantitative description of their magnitudes, and the $T \ln T$ dominance is found at very low temperatures. Moreover, the effective coupling of the field theory appropriate for systems such as TlCuCl$_3$ is determined, which will be important for further experimental means to test the applicability of the field theory to these materials. Studying the material and the quantum field theory serves as a means to explore the Higgs physics in a tabletop setting \cite{29}.

II. THE MODEL

We start with the following $D$-dimensional ($D = d + 1$) Euclidean relativistic Lagrangian with an $N$-component $O(N)$ real field ($\phi_1, \phi_2, \ldots, \phi_N$) (Appendix A),

$$
\mathcal{L}_0 = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \partial_\tau \phi_i(\tau, \vec{x}) \right]^2 + \frac{\mu^2}{4!} \phi_i^4(\tau, \vec{x}) \phi_j^4(\tau, \vec{x}),
$$

(1)

where the mass is set to zero at zero temperature, corresponding to the quantum critical point, $\partial_\tau \rightarrow (\partial_\tau, \partial_\vec{x})$, and $\mu$ is the energy-scale parameter. In addition, $g$ is the dimensionless coupling constant at the energy scale of $\mu$. The ultraviolet (UV) divergent terms in the renormalization process will be absorbed by counterterms order by order in the framework of
the case of TlCuCl$_3$ corresponds to [36–40]. We consider the field theory with a general
massified theory at Figs. 6(a)–6(h) in Appendix B. The finite-temperature renor-
malized diagrams up to two-loop contributions are shown in temperature
transition, while the dot-dashed curves illustrate crossover regions
The solid curve is used to denote a second-order classical phase
transition, which arises in broad classes of systems
different regions, which is manifestly illustrated with different colors.
The solid curve is used to denote a second-order classical phase
tum fluctuations, the whole diagram has been de facto divided into
different regions, which is manifestly illustrated with different colors.
FIG. 1. A generic phase diagram with a second-order quan-
tum phase transition, which arises in broad classes of systems
we study in the main text.

dimensional regularization, and $\epsilon$ is taken to be zero for com-
paring theoretical results with experimental measurements. At
the quantum critical point, the mass is renormalized to zero by
definition. At nonzero temperatures, the mass depends only on
temperature; therefore, the region we shall investigate is the one
illustrated by Fig. 1. The counterterms are not displayed but will be determined following the minimal-
subtraction scheme [30].

We study $L_0$ for the dynamics at nonzero temperatures within the Braaten-Pisarski resummation program, which is
systematic calculation machinery taking advantage of dimen-
sional regularization and resummation [31–35]. The relevant
diagrams up to two-loop contributions are shown in Figs. 6(a)–6(h) in Appendix B. The finite-temperature renor-
malized theory at $N = 1$ was obtained previously in Refs.
[36–40]. We consider the field theory with a general $N$, and
the case of TiCuCl$_3$ corresponds to $N = 3$. Starting from $L_0$, a
one-loop calculation for the self-energy, or the thermal mass, is
based on the diagram in Fig. 6(a) in Appendix B, giving rise to
\begin{equation}
    m_r^2 = -\Sigma_0(q) = a_N g^2(\mu) T^2, \tag{2}
\end{equation}
with $a_N = (N + 2)/72$. By using the thermal mass, an
effective field theory is constructed:
\begin{equation}
    L_2 = \frac{1}{2} [ (\partial_\mu \phi_i)^2 + m_r^2 \phi_i^2 ] + \frac{1}{4N} g^2 \mu^2 \phi_i^2 \phi_j^2 - \frac{m_r^2 \phi_i^2}{2}, \tag{3}
\end{equation}
with a new vertex $-\frac{1}{2} m_r^2 \phi_i^2$ illustrated by Fig. 6(b). $L_2$
naturally cures the infrared (IR) divergence, equivalent to resumming the
daisy diagrams (Fig. 7 in Appendix B based

on $L_0$ [40]). This procedure leads to a nonanalytic (in $g^2$)
one-loop renormalized mass,
\begin{equation}
    m_r^2 = m_r^2 - 3m_r^4/(\pi T) + O(g^4 \ln g), \tag{4}
\end{equation}
showing the nonperturbative nature of the quantum $\phi^4$
theory [37,40,41]. In order to determine the quantum
dynamics, we proceed to the two-loop level. Recognizing the
one-loop correction for the interaction [Fig. 6(c)], a one-loop
zero-temperature interaction counter-term [Fig. 6(d)] is
incorporated to obtain the full one-loop renormalized effective
field theory $L_3$,
\begin{equation}
    L_3 = \frac{1}{2} [ (\partial_\mu \phi_i)^2 + m_r^2 \phi_i^2 ] + \frac{g^2}{4} \mu^2 \phi_i^2 \phi_j^2
    - \frac{1}{2} m_r^2 \phi_i^2 + \frac{g^2 \mu^2 \phi_i^2}{4} \left[ \frac{N + 8}{6} \right] \frac{1}{(4\pi)^2 \delta} \frac{1}{6} \phi_i^2 \phi_j^2, \tag{5}
\end{equation}
which serves as the starting point for further calculations at
the two-loop level.

From $L_3$, via Figs. 6(a), 6(b) 6(e), 6(f), 6(g), and 6(h),
we obtain the renormalized self-energy to the order of $g^4$,
$\Sigma_2 = \Sigma_2^r + i \Sigma_2^\gamma$. Detailed expressions of $\Sigma_2^r$ and $\Sigma_2^\gamma$
are presented in Appendix C. For the long-wavelength physics,
we fix the momenta of the external legs to zero in the sunset
diagram [Fig. 6(h)]. The divergent terms associated with $\epsilon \to 0$ are absorbed by counterterms for the wave-function
and momentum renormalizations, respectively. The detailed
renormalization calculation up to the two-loop level is given in
Appendix C. The dynamical structure factor (DSF) is related to
the self-energy through
\begin{equation}
    S(\omega, \vec{p} = 0) = \frac{2 \text{Im}[\chi(\omega, \vec{p} = 0)]}{1 - e^{-\beta \omega}}, \tag{6}
\end{equation}
where $\chi^{-1}(\omega, \vec{p} = 0) = -\omega^2 + m_r^2 - \Sigma_2(\omega)$; then the damping
rate follows $\gamma = \Sigma_2^\gamma/(2\omega)$. In the following we will
present the on-shell mass and damping rates in three different
frequency regimes. A comparison with the experiments on TiCuCl$_3$
will be discussed.

III. ON-SHELL DYNAMICS AND THE DAMPING RATE

A complex pole $\omega = M - i \gamma$ can be obtained from the
zeros of $\chi^{-1}(\omega, \vec{p} = 0) = 0$. Up to the two-loop level, the on-shell
mass $M$ is determined as
\begin{equation}
    M^2(T) = a_N T^2 g^2(\mu) [1 + b_N g^2(\mu) \ln(T/\mu)]
    + c_1 g(\mu) + c_2 g^2(\mu) \ln g^2(\mu) + c_3 g^2(\mu), \tag{7}
\end{equation}
where $b_N = (N + 8)/(48\pi^2)$, $c_1 = -3a_N^2/\pi$, $c_2 = 1/(8\pi^2)$, $c_3 = -b_N/2 \ln(4\pi) + \ln a_N/(8\pi^2) + [\frac{1}{2} a_N \delta_0 + \delta_1(\mu)]$, with $\delta_0 = 5.242$ and $\delta_1 = 3.644$. In addition the
$\ln T$ dependence in the curly brackets arises from the sunset
diagram [Eq. (C3)], signaling physics beyond the scaling
ansatz, as will be discussed later. Around the complex pole,
the renormalized propagator is well approximated by
\begin{equation}
    \chi^{-1}(\omega, \vec{p} = 0) = -\omega^2 + M^2 - i \Sigma_2^\gamma(\omega). \tag{8}
\end{equation}
Substituting the expression of $\Sigma_2^\gamma$ in Appendix C, the on-shell
damping rate reads
\begin{equation}
    \gamma(\omega^2 = M^2, \vec{p} = 0) = g^2 m_r/(64\pi). \tag{9}
\end{equation}
In fact, the renormalized mass $M^2(T)$ in Eq. (7) is independent of the choice of the energy scale $\mu$. To verify this at the two-loop level, we employ the $\mu$ dependence of coupling strength $g(\mu)$ by solving the one-loop renormalization-group equation [41–43],

$$g^2(\mu) = \frac{g^2(\mu_0)}{1 + b_N g^2(\mu_0) \ln(\mu_0/\mu)},$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

Here, $\mu_0$ is a reference energy scale, which for convenience is set at $\mu_0 = T_1$ throughout the rest of the paper [44]. From Eq. (10), to the order of $g^4$, we arrive at

$$g^2(\mu = T) = g^2(\mu_0)[1 + b_N g^2(\mu_0) \ln(T/\mu_0)] + O(g^6(\mu)), \hspace{1cm} (11)$$

which apparently pushes the $\mu$ dependence of the two-loop mass (7) to the next order $g^8 \ln g$.

While our theoretical renormalization procedure is general, the strategy for comparison with the experimental data is as follows. We start with a particular temperature $T = T_1$, set as $\mu_0$. The value of $g(\mu_0 = T_1)$ is fitted by comparing the thermal mass (7) in which $\mu$ is set as $\mu_0$ with the experimental data at $T = T_1$. For data measured at a different temperature, say, $T_2$, Eq. (10) is used to determine $g(\mu = T_2)$, on the basis of which the mass and damping rates at $T_2$ are calculated and compared with the experimental data. As will be clear later, excellent agreement with experimental results is achieved for independent data points of masses and damping rates.

In principle, the temperature for any data point can serve as a renormalization reference point. For later convenience, we choose the maximal temperature, $T = T_{\text{exp}}^{\text{max}} \approx 12$ K, at which the data were measured. Correspondingly, based on Eq. (7), the initiative $g(\mu_0 = T_{\text{exp}}^{\text{max}}) \approx 4.15$ by substituting $N = 3$, and Fig. 2 illustrates the flow of $g(\mu)$ at different energy scales. The advantage of this choice is that the coupling constant $g(\mu)$ determined at lower energy scales becomes smaller, which improves the accuracy of the perturbative calculation. In particular, the validity of the perturbation theory can be justified only at $\mu$ far less than the scale of the Landau pole. Our calculation shows that the Landau pole based on Eq. (10) is located at an energy scale about $\mu_L = 12.25 T_{\text{exp}}^{\text{max}}$, which is well beyond the temperature scope measured.

Following this procedure, we plug the obtained coupling constant at each temperature into Eq. (7) to obtain the two-loop renormalized mass as plotted in Fig. 3. For later convenience, the calculated masses can be approximated by (the mass here is reduced by $T_{\text{exp}}^{\text{max}}$)

$$M(T) = 1.00g/[1.00 + 0.30 \ln(1/t)], \hspace{1cm} (12)$$

with $t = T/T_{\text{exp}}^{\text{max}}$. The linear-$T$ behavior dominates at the relatively high temperature at which the experiment measurements were performed. Lowering the temperature, the $T \ln T$ correction becomes important and dominates in the very low temperature region. This expression can be understood as follows: By setting $\mu = T$ in Eq. (7), the leading contribution to $M(\mu = T)$ decreases according to the running coupling-constant expression (10). The corresponding crossover temperature scale can be determined as

$$T_{\text{cr}} \sim \mu_0 e^{-1/[b_N g^2(\mu_0)]}, \hspace{1cm} (13)$$

with $\mu_0 = T_{\text{exp}}^{\text{max}}$. In our case, $T_{\text{cr}} \approx 1$ K, corresponding to $t \approx 0.08$, which is about a half order smaller than the lowest temperature in the experiments. Therefore, in the range of the experimental measurement temperatures Eq. (12) gives a theoretical prediction of mass $M_0 \approx 1.00 t$ which excellently agrees with the experimental result $M_{\text{exp}} = T$ [16]. However, for the material of TlCuCl$_3$, there exists a small gap induced by anisotropy $\Delta \approx 0.38$ meV [19], which spoils the $O(3)$ invariance. Since this temperature scale $\Delta$ is much larger than $T_{\text{cr}}$, we are not optimistic about the experimental observation of the $T \ln T$ behavior in the material of TlCuCl$_3$. However, we expect that the $T \ln T$ behavior should be observed for the material which can be effectively described by $\mathcal{L}_0$ [Eq. (1)] at low enough temperatures.

We proceed to analyze the damping rates in the experimentally relevant region, namely, the linear-$T$-dominant region in Fig. 3. After some calculations, we arrive at $\gamma_0(\mu = T) \approx 0.08 T$ for $N = 3$. Correspondingly, the full width at half
maximum (FWHM) scales as $\text{FWHM}_{\text{th}} \approx 0.16T$, which excellently agrees with the experimental observation of $\text{FWHM}_{\text{exp}} \approx 0.15T$ [16] (Fig. 4). Our calculation is exact at two loops, $g^4$. However, from Eq. (9), it is observed that the mass at the one-loop level ($g^3$) has already resulted in a damping rate on the order of $g^4$ (two loops). Nevertheless, the mass will exhibit logarithmic dependence at low temperatures; therefore, we still expect the linear-$T$ behavior for the on-shell damping rate will also be spoiled when temperature is decreased further to the $T$ in $T$-dominant region, which should be verified when the field-theory approach is pushed to the order of $g^6$ (three loops).

The striking agreement between our theoretical results and the experiment indicates that the $(3 + 1)$-dimensional $O(3)$ relativistic quantum field theory excellently takes into account the underlying physics near the pressure-induced quantum critical point of TiCuCl$_3$. Furthermore, for the initiative $g$, we have $g^2/4! \approx 0.7$. This value implies that the interaction among the critical modes is significant but still moderate, allowing for a loop expansion to extract semiquantitative results for the pertinent physical properties. Furthermore, one must proceed to at least two loops ($g^3$) to obtain a physical prediction of the $T$ in $T$ dominance. Following our two-loop renormalization analysis we expect a clear $T$ in $T$-dominant behavior for the mass at low temperatures, which goes well beyond the conventional scaling ansatz.

IV. OFF-SHELL DYNAMICS AT FREQUENCIES FAR AWAY FROM $M$

We first determine the damping rate in the zero-frequency limit, $\omega \ll M$. The imaginary part of the self-energy $\Sigma_2(q = 0, \omega)$ can be organized into the imaginary parts of $G_0$, $G_1$, and $G_2$, as shown in Eqs. (C6)–(C9), which arise from the contribution of the sunset diagram [Fig. 6(h)]. In the low-frequency limit, due to the on-shell energy-momentum conservations, there is no contribution from $G_0$ because of a three-particle threshold. The phase space that satisfies the on-shell constraints lies in the large-momentum regime. Because of the Bose-distribution factor, the contributions from $G_1$ and $G_2$ are exponentially suppressed. Our calculation shows that

$$
\gamma \sim T^2 \exp\left[-(m_T/T)(m_T/\omega)/(2\omega)\right] \sim T \exp\left[-(g^2T/\omega)/(2(\omega/T))\right] \to 0 \quad (\omega \to 0).
$$

This exponentially small result is subleading compared to the perturbative renormalized theory we carried out on the order of $g^4$. As a consequence of the suppressed spectral weight in this regime, the analysis is beyond the scope of the procedure outlined here.

We next consider the damping rate in the large-frequency limit, $\omega \gg M$, for which the physical energy scale should be set as $\mu = \omega$. On the other hand, the perturbative framework stops working at the energy scale of the Landau pole $\mu_L = \exp[1/[b_N g(T)^2]]$ determined by Eq. (10). Thus, we work in the range $M(\mu = \omega) \ll \omega \ll \mu_L$. In the large-frequency limit, the dominant contribution to $\Sigma_2^\prime$ comes from $\text{Im}G_0$. Evaluating the integration for $\text{Im}G_0$ exactly yields $\text{Im}G_0(\omega^2, \bar{p} = 0) \sim g^2(\omega)\omega^2$ (Appendix C); correspondingly, $\gamma \sim g^2(\omega)\omega$, and $\Sigma(\omega, \bar{p} = 0) \sim \omega^2$. In this regime, the system is overdamped. A logarithmic correction naturally arises from $g^3(\omega)$ determined from Eq. (10) but is of the order $g^6$. The overall behavior of the DSF is shown in Fig. 5, which we expect to be experimentally observed in the near future in proper strongly correlated systems.

V. DISCUSSION

We note that any physical observable should be cutoff independent. Our results satisfy this requirement at the two-loop level, while, in contrast, previous results along these lines are cutoff independent only on the order of one loop [28]. Improvement is significant and fundamental rather than technical since it brings qualitatively new behavior of the mass as well as the dynamic information: The $T$ in $T$ behavior beyond the scaling ansatz emerges only at the two-loop level; it cannot be accessed by the method of [28], being correct at only one loop and accurate up to the order of $g^3$ (or $\omega^{3/2}$ in the notation of that study); accordingly, the two-loop renormalization-group-invariant mass as presented in Eq. (7) here is not obtained by the method of [28]. There are also differences between our study and that of [28] as far as the
potential for guiding experiments is concerned, and we believe that there are considerable advantages in using our approach.

We now remark on a few points. First, the two-loop calculation has incorporated all the pertinent terms on the order of \( g^4 \). There are an infinite number of other diagrams which can contribute to the order of \( g^4 \); for example, if we add one more bubble in Figs. 6(e), 6(f), and 6(h) or one more blob (two-point interaction vertex) in Fig. 6(h), their contribution is on the order of \( g^4 \). However, when summing over all of these kinds of diagrams, their contributions on the order of \( g^4 \) exactly cancel each other [37], leaving a final contribution at the three-loop level. The procedure can, in principal, be carried out order by order, leading to any desired accuracy for the (on-shell) quantum critical dynamics at nonzero temperatures based on a generic \((3+1)\)-dimensional \( O(N) \) quantum \( \phi^4 \) theory [35]. In our study, the result at the two-loop level is already in excellent agreement with the experiments. We have also demonstrated that the effective coupling constant provides a justification for the two-loop calculation.

Second, our analysis is asymptotically exact for \( D = 3 + 1 \) dimensions, where all the UV divergences are systematically absorbed by counterterms controlled by the small quantity \( \epsilon \). These UV divergences associated with \( \epsilon \) yield proper wave-function and momentum renormalizations order by order in the form of counterterms [37], which in turn modify the next-leading-order behavior. In other words, \( \epsilon \) can be taken to zero only when, at each order, the contributions from the previous-order counterterms have been incorporated. For lower-dimensional systems, say, in two spatial dimensions, the corresponding problem can be analyzed by setting \( \epsilon = 1/2 \). We want to emphasize the difficulty in removing the IR singularities. One cannot remove IR singularities in every field theory [40]. It is fortunate that there is a systematic way to regularize the \((3+1)\)-dimensional quantum \( \phi^4 \) theory. However, the resummation in the calculation paradigm is essentially nonperturbative, which gives rise to nonanalytical corrections beyond the perturbation series; therefore, the procedure can become very involved when one tries to push to higher orders.

Third, the leading behavior we obtained for TiCuCl$_3$ is expected, from the perturbation viewpoint, to hold when \( m^2(T = 0) \ll T \) (Fig. 1; also called the high-\( T \) regime [2]). However, when one moves to the regime \( m^2(T = 0) \gg T \) (also called the low-\( T \) regime [2]), the noncritical background does become important. To obtain a correct understanding one not only needs to introduce new counterterms associated with the open gap to cure newly appearing UV divergences but also requires new techniques beyond the current approach to access the physics in the ordered regime, especially near the transition line [45]. These necessary new techniques and the expected new physics compose a challenging goal worthy of further exploration.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

We have studied the quantum critical dynamics at nonzero temperatures based on a generic \((3+1)\)-dimensional relativistic quantum \( \phi^4 \) theory and compared the results with the spin dynamics experiments on the insulating antiferromagnet TiCuCl$_3$. The theoretical coupling constant was determined from the temperature dependence of the thermal mass corresponding to the gap value. The resulting mass and damping rate are consistent with the experimental data. The logarithmic behavior is predicted to be dominant at extremely low temperature, which should be observable in the proper experimental setup. Finally, the damping behavior over a broad dynamical regime was also determined for comparison with future experiments. In turn, our results provided concrete evidence for the applicability of the underlying quantum field theory to the description of the observed quantum critical point. This, together with the quantitative determination of the effective coupling constant, will allow for the calculation of additional experimental observable such as the nuclear magnetic resonance relaxation rate. From a theoretical perspective, knowledge of the dynamical properties of generic quantum field theory deepens our understanding of not only condensed-matter systems but also the dynamical processes in high-energy and cosmology physics [46]. Our calculation represents progress in a theory that is grounded in a concrete and prototype condensed-matter system.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank R. R. Parwani for useful discussions, J. H. Pixley for his contributions during an early stage of the work, and C. Rüegg for a motivational discussion. This work has, in part, been supported by the NSF Grant No. DMR-1410375 (J.W., W.Y., and C.W.) and NSF Grant No. DMR-1611392 and the Robert A. Welch Foundation Grant No. C-1411 (J.W. and Q.S.). J.W. acknowledges the hospitality of the Rice Center for Quantum Materials.

APPENDIX A: BRIEF DERIVATION OF EQUATION (I) IN THE MAIN TEXT

Each unit cell of TiCuCl$_3$ consists of a dimer formed by two magnetic spin-$\frac{1}{2}$ Cu$^{2+}$ ions, and the centers of the dimers form a three-dimensional cubic lattice. The intra- and interdimer antiferromagnetic exchange interactions are modeled as

\[
H = J \sum_r \mathbf{S}_r \cdot \mathbf{S}_{r+2} + \lambda J \sum_{\{r,r\}; l=1,2} \mathbf{S}_r \cdot \mathbf{S}_{r+l},
\]

where \( r \) represents the central position of the dimer, \( l \) is the site index inside the dimer, \( \mathbf{S}_r \) are spin-$\frac{1}{2}$ operators, and \( \langle \cdots \rangle \) denotes summation over the nearest neighbors. In addition, \( J > 0 \) and \( \lambda J (0 \leq \lambda \leq 1) \) denote the intra- and interdimer coupling strengths respectively. The next-nearest-neighbor-interactions [47–50] are subleading and neglected. When \( \lambda = 0 \), the ground state is a paramagnetic state with separable singlet states; when \( \lambda = 1 \), \( H \) describes the cubic lattice antiferromagnet with a long-range Néel order. Therefore, a quantum phase transition arises when \( \lambda \) is tuned to a critical value \( \lambda_c \). The observed strong intradimer interaction [47–50] indicates the dominant low-lying excitations are spin triplets; therefore, it is proper to introduce bond operators \( s^\alpha(r) \) and \( t^\alpha(r) (\alpha = x, y, z) \) for the dimer spin-singlet and -triplet states. They satisfy \( s^x(r) |0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|↑↓\rangle_r - |↓↑\rangle_r) \), \( t^x(r) |0\rangle = -|↑↓\rangle_r \), \( t^y(r) |0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|↑↑\rangle_r + |↓↓\rangle_r) \), and \( t^z(r) |0\rangle = |↓↓\rangle_r \), with \( |0\rangle \) being a reference vacuum state with \( t^x_r = \tau_z \pm i \tau_y \) [51]. In the continuum limit we express the \( t^\alpha \) field with
FIG. 6. (a) One-loop self-energy diagram. (b) Two-point effective interaction in $\mathcal{L}_2$. (c) One-loop correction to the four-point vertex. There are two additional crossed channels, which are not shown. (d) UV vertex counterterm for the interaction. (e) Insertion of the finite two-point interaction in $\mathcal{L}_2$ into the one-loop self-energy (bubble) diagram. (f) Two-loop bubble diagram. (g) Self-energy contribution from the UV vertex counterterm. (h) Sunset diagram.

$\tau_0(\mathbf{r}) \sim d^d/2[\phi_0(\mathbf{r}) + i\pi_\alpha(\mathbf{r})]$, where $d$ is the spatial dimension and $a$ is the lattice constant. $\pi_\alpha$ are conjugate momentum to $\phi_0$ satisfying $[\phi_0(\mathbf{r}), \pi_\beta(\mathbf{r}')] = i\delta(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r'})\delta_{\alpha\beta}$. Taking advantage of the condensation of the $s$ field, we integrate over the $\pi$ field, leaving a Lagrangian density in the imaginary-time formalism as a functional of the $\phi$ field up to quartic order [52],

$$\mathcal{L} = \chi(\partial_\mu \phi_0)^2 + \rho_s(\nabla \phi_0)^2 + m^2\phi_0^2 + u\phi_0^2\phi_0^2, \quad (A2)$$

where the parameters are estimated as $\chi \approx 1/J, \rho_s \approx 20\alpha^2\lambda/2^d$, $m^2 \approx J/(1 - 4\zeta), \ z \approx 20\alpha^2\lambda$. After normalizing $\mathcal{L}$ by $\rho_s$, setting $c_0^2 = 1, m^2 = 0$, and generalizing the field to an $N$-component $O(N)$ field $(\phi_1, \phi_2, \ldots, \phi_N)$, we recover the Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}_0$ (1) presented in the main text.

APPENDIX B: RELEVANT FEYNMAN DIAGRAMS UP TO TWO LOOPS AND A TYPICAL DAISY DIAGRAM FOR $\mathcal{L}_0$ AND RESUMMATION

Figures 6(a)–6(h) illustrate relevant Feynman diagrams up to two loops.

A typical (one-loop) daisy diagram with $m$ dressing bubbles for $\mathcal{L}_0$ [Eq. (2) in the main text] is illustrated in Fig. 7. The “resummation” of a series of this kind of diagram helps remove the IR divergence for $\mathcal{L}_0$. Higher-order resummation diagrams can be similarly generated when we proceed to multiloop situations. After adding proper UV counterterms and resummation of all daisy diagrams at each order the Lagrangian can then be updated to the next leading order. In this way it provides a systematic way to renormalize the $(3 + 1)$-dimensional quantum $\phi^4$ theory.

APPENDIX C: REAL AND IMAGINARY PARTS OF SELF-ENERGY TO TWO LOOPS

Up to two loops, the renormalized real part of the self-energy gives

$$\Sigma_2(\omega^2) = \Sigma_{\text{ren}} + F_1 + F_2 + H, \quad (C1)$$

with

$$\Sigma_{\text{ren}} = \frac{3m^2_\tau}{\pi T} + \frac{3m^2_\tau}{4\pi^2} \left( \frac{m_T}{T} \right)^2 \ln \frac{4\pi \mu^2}{T^2} + \frac{3m^2_\tau}{2\pi^2} \left( \frac{m_T}{T} \right)^2 \times \left( 2c_1 - \frac{5}{2} - \frac{\gamma_E}{2} \right), \quad (C2)$$

$$F_1 = \frac{N + 2}{3} \frac{1}{(4\pi^2)^4} \frac{g_4^4 T^2}{24} \left[ \ln \left( \frac{4\pi \mu^2}{m^2_T} \right) + 2 - \gamma_E \right], \quad (C3)$$

$$F_2 = \frac{N + 2}{3} \frac{1}{(4\pi^2)^4} \frac{g_4^4}{8(2\pi^4)^4} \int_{\omega_0}^{\infty} n_{k\lambda} \frac{dk}{k} \int_{\omega_0}^{\infty} \frac{dq}{E_q} \ln \left( \frac{\gamma_{E}}{\rho_s} \right) - 4k, \quad (C4)$$

$$H = \frac{N + 2}{3} \frac{g_4^4}{(2\pi^4)^4} \int_{\omega_0}^{\infty} n_{k\lambda} \frac{dk}{k} \int_{\omega_0}^{\infty} \frac{dq}{E_q} \ln \left( \frac{\gamma_{E}}{\rho_s} \right), \quad (C5)$$

where $m^2_T = m^2_\tau - 3m^2_\tau/(\pi T) + O(g^4 \ln g)$ and $\Sigma_{\text{ren}}$ comes from the renormalized contribution of Figs. 6(a), 6(b), 6(e), 6(f), and 6(g). In addition $F_1, F_2(\omega^2)$, and $H(\omega^2)$ denote those from the real part of the sunset diagram [Fig. 6(h)], in which $c_1 = [2(\gamma_E - 2\ln(4\pi) - 1)/4], \ X_{\pm} = [\omega^2 - (E_k + E_q + E_{k\pm q})/2][\omega^2 - (E_k - E_q + E_{k\pm q})/2]$, and $Y_{\pm} = X_{\pm} + [\omega^2 - (E_k - E_q + E_{k\pm q})][\omega^2 - (E_k + E_q - E_{k\pm q})]$, with $E_{k\pm q}^2 = l^2 + m^2_\tau, n_1 = 1/(e^{E_{k\pm q}/T} - 1), l = k, q$. (Here, $\gamma_E$ is the Euler constant.)

The imaginary part of the self-energy gives

$$\Sigma_{\text{im}}(\omega^2) = \text{Im}(G_0) + \text{Im}(G_1) + \text{Im}(G_2), \quad (C6)$$

where

$$G_0 = g^4 \int d[k, q] S(E_k, E_q, E_r), \quad (C7)$$

$$G_1 = 3g^4 \int d[k, q] n_k [S(E_k, E_q, E_r) + S(-E_k, E_q, E_r)], \quad (C8)$$

$$G_2 = 3g^4 \int d[k, q] n_k n_q [S(E_k, E_q, E_r) + S(-E_k, E_q, E_r) + S(E_k, -E_q, E_r) + S(-E_k, -E_q, E_r)] \quad (C9)$$

Here, $S(E_k, E_q, E_r) = 1/(i\omega_n + E_k + E_q + E_r) + 1/(i\omega_n + E_k + E_q + E_r) + E_k E_q S(E_k, E_q, E_r) = (N + 2)/24 [\mu^4/3!](d^{\delta - 1} - k/(2\pi)^{\delta - 1})(d^{\lambda} - q/(2\pi)^{\lambda - 1})$, and $r = |\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{q}|$. When $N = 1$, our results are compatible with those of the scalar case [37].
In the large-frequency limit $|M(\mu = \omega) | \ll \omega \ll \mu_L$, the dominant contribution to $\Sigma^x$ comes from $\text{Im}(G_0)$ [Eq. (C7)]. Because of the on-shell energy-momentum conservations, $\epsilon$ can be simply set to zero for calculating the imaginary part of the self-energy with the mass term replaced by a physical one. Evaluating the integration for $\text{Im}(G_0)$ yields

$$
\text{Im}G_0(\omega^2, \tilde{p} = 0) = A g(\omega)^4 \pi M^2 \left[ \int_0^{\gamma_1} \frac{y}{\bar{E}_y} \left( \sqrt{f_1^2(y) + 1} - \sqrt{f_2^2(y) + 1} \right) dy + \int_{\gamma_1}^{\gamma_2} \frac{y}{\bar{E}_y} \left( \sqrt{f_1^2(y) + 1} - \sqrt{f_2^2(y) + 1} \right) dy \right],
$$

(D1)

where $\Lambda = (N + 2)/(1512\pi^4), x = k/M, y = q/M, y_1 = (\gamma_0 - 1)(\gamma_0 - 3)/2, y_2 = (\gamma_0^2 - 9)(\gamma_0^2 - 1)/(2\gamma_0)$, with $\gamma_0 = \omega/M$.

In addition $x = f_1(y), f_2(y)$ are two solutions of $x = \sqrt{x^2 + 1} + \sqrt{y^2 + 1} + \sqrt{(x - y)^2 + 1}$, with $f_2(y) = - f_1(y)$ and $f_1(y) < f_2(y)$. In the large-frequency limit we consider, $\gamma_0 \gg 1, y_1 \approx \gamma_0/2, \gamma_2 \approx y_1$; then the second integral is negligible. In addition, using $y_1 = \gamma_0/2 \ll \gamma_0$, we find $\text{Im}G_0(\omega^2, \tilde{p} = 0) \sim g(\omega)^4 \omega^2$.

