

## 10 Quantum fields in curved space

### 10.1 Quantum fields in flat space

- We will focus on a real scalar field  $\varphi$  with

$$S = \int d^4x \mathcal{L} \quad ; \quad \mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2} \eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial_\nu \varphi - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \varphi^2$$

with wave equation (Lagrange density)  
 $(\square - m^2) \varphi = 0$ .

- We can view this as a classical mechanical system with many variables,  $\varphi(t, \bar{x})$ , labelled by the continuous index  $\bar{x}$ .
- The canonical momenta are

$$\pi(t, \bar{x}) = \frac{\delta}{\delta \dot{\varphi}(t, \bar{x})} L \quad ; \quad L = \int d^3\bar{x} \mathcal{L}$$

- It is easy to see that

$$\pi = \frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{\varphi}} \mathcal{L} = \dot{\varphi}.$$

- The Hamilton-fct. is

$$H = \int d^3\bar{x} \pi \dot{\varphi} - L = \int d^3\bar{x} (\pi \dot{\varphi} - \mathcal{L})$$

$$H = \int d^3\bar{x} \left( \frac{1}{2} \pi^2 + \frac{1}{2} (\nabla \varphi)^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \varphi^2 \right)$$

⏟  
 $\mathcal{H}$  is the Hamilton density

- A set of solutions is easily found:

$$\varphi(x) = \varphi_0 e^{ikx} = \varphi_0 e^{-i\omega t + i\vec{k}\bar{x}}$$

with  $k = (\omega, \vec{k})$  and  $\omega^2 = \vec{k}^2 + m^2$  and  $\omega > 0$ .

- It is convenient to define scalar product on the space of solutions by

$$(\varphi_1, \varphi_2) = -i \int_{\Sigma} (\varphi_1 \dot{\varphi}_2^* - \varphi_2^* \dot{\varphi}_1) d^3x$$

( $\Sigma$  is some constant- $t$  hypersurface)

- With respect to this inner product, we want to find an orthonormal set of solutions. In the flat case considered here this is easy:

$$f_{\vec{k}}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2\omega}} e^{i\vec{k}x}$$

satisfy  $(f_{\vec{k}_1}, f_{\vec{k}_2}) = \delta^3(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2)$ .

- The fcts.  $f_{\vec{k}}(x)^*$  are also solutions. They satisfy

$$(f_{\vec{k}_1}, f_{\vec{k}_2}^*) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad (f_{\vec{k}_1}^*, f_{\vec{k}_2}^*) = -\delta^3(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2).$$

- Together,  $f_{\vec{k}}$  &  $f_{\vec{k}}^*$  form a complete set.
- $f_{\vec{k}}$  &  $f_{\vec{k}}^*$  are called positive- and negative-frequency solutions (because of the sign-change in the exponent  $e^{-i\omega t}$  by " $*$ ").

- Canonical quantization proceeds by promoting  $\varphi$  &  $\pi$  to operators and demanding

$$[\varphi(t, \vec{x}), \varphi(t, \vec{x}')] = 0$$

$$[\pi(t, \vec{x}), \pi(t, \vec{x}')] = 0$$

$$[\varphi(t, \vec{x}), \pi(t, \vec{x}')] = i\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{x}')$$

(In fact, it suffices to demand this at some fixed  $t$ . The validity for all  $t$  then follows from EOM's in the Heisenberg picture.  $\varphi(t, \vec{x})$  and  $\pi(t, \vec{x})$  have to be understood as

Heisenberg-picture operators.)

- We can expand  $\varphi(t, \bar{x})$  in the previous solutions:

$$\varphi(t, \bar{x}) = \int d^3 \bar{k} \left\{ a_{\bar{k}} f_{\bar{k}}(t, \bar{x}) + a_{\bar{k}}^{\dagger} f_{\bar{k}}^{*}(t, \bar{x}) \right\}$$

$\uparrow$  operators                       $\uparrow$  functions

- The previous commutation relations then imply

$$[a_{\bar{k}}, a_{\bar{k}'}] = 0 ; [a_{\bar{k}}^{\dagger}, a_{\bar{k}'}^{\dagger}] = 0 ; [a_{\bar{k}}, a_{\bar{k}'}^{\dagger}] = \delta^3(\bar{k} - \bar{k}')$$

To derive this, first note that

$$a_{\bar{k}} = (\varphi, f_{\bar{k}}) = -i \int d^3 \bar{x} (\varphi \dot{f}_{\bar{k}}^{*} - \dot{f}_{\bar{k}}^{*} \varphi) \quad (\varphi, \pi \text{ are hermitian!})$$

$$a_{\bar{k}'}^{\dagger} = \dots = i \int d^3 \bar{x}' (\varphi \dot{f}_{\bar{k}'} - \dot{f}_{\bar{k}'} \varphi)$$

$$[a_{\bar{k}}, a_{\bar{k}'}^{\dagger}] = \int d^3 \bar{x} \int d^3 \bar{x}' (-i) \delta^3(\bar{x} - \bar{x}') \left[ \dot{f}_{\bar{k}}^{*}(t, \bar{x}) f_{\bar{k}'}(t, \bar{x}') - f_{\bar{k}}^{*}(t, \bar{x}) \dot{f}_{\bar{k}'}(t, \bar{x}') \right]$$

$$= -i \int d^3 \bar{x} \left[ \dot{f}_{\bar{k}'}(t, \bar{x}) \dot{f}_{\bar{k}}^{*}(t, \bar{x}) - \dot{f}_{\bar{k}}^{*}(t, \bar{x}) \dot{f}_{\bar{k}'}(t, \bar{x}) \right]$$

$$= (f_{\bar{k}'}^{\dot{}} , f_{\bar{k}}^{\dot{*}}) = \delta^3(\bar{k} - \bar{k}'), \text{ as required.}$$

(and analogously for the other commutation relations)

- Thus, we have found an infinite set of harmonic-oscillator-algebras, labelled by  $\bar{k}$ . Introducing a vacuum state  $|0\rangle$ , with
 
$$a_{\bar{k}} |0\rangle = 0 \text{ for any } \bar{k},$$

we can define whole Hilbert space as the space spanned by the basis

$$|(n_1, \bar{k}_1), \dots, (n_e, \bar{k}_e)\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_1! \dots n_e!}} (a_{\bar{k}_1}^+)^{n_1} \dots (a_{\bar{k}_e}^+)^{n_e} |0\rangle$$

state, in which the harmonic osc.  $\bar{k}_i$  is excited to the level  $n_i$ , ... etc. ...

↑ normalization factor

- Phys interpretation: state, in which there are  $n_1$  particles with momentum  $\bar{k}_1$ , ...,  $n_e$  particles with momentum  $\bar{k}_e$ .

(Since we started with one real scalar field, there is only one type of particle; each particle is its own antiparticle.)

- The above basis is called Fock basis and the corresponding Hilbert space is frequently called the Fock space.

- Comment: Even though we have broken Poincaré symm. by choosing a frame in which to define  $H$ , our result is Poincaré-symmetric in the following sense:

- We can define quantum-mech. operators corresponding to the generators of the Poinc. group and use them to boost & rotate a given state. The resulting state will have the same # of particles (in particular  $|0\rangle = |0\rangle$ ), but with appropriately transformed momenta  $\bar{k}_i'$  instead of  $\bar{k}_i$ .
- This situation will be identical to what one would have found by quantizing in the appropriate different Lorentz frame from the very beginning.

- It is instructive to express the Hamiltonian through the creation & annihilation operators ( $\rightarrow$  problems):

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3\bar{k} \cdot \omega(\bar{k}) [a_{\bar{k}}^+ a_{\bar{k}} + a_{\bar{k}} a_{\bar{k}}^+] \quad (\text{recall: } \omega(\bar{k}) = \sqrt{\bar{k}^2 + m^2})$$

$$= \int d^3\bar{k} \omega(\bar{k}) \left[ n_{\bar{k}} + \frac{1}{2} \delta^3(\bar{0}) \right]$$

↑  
"number operator"

$$n_{\bar{k}} \equiv a_{\bar{k}}^+ a_{\bar{k}}$$

↑  
comes from  $[a_{\bar{k}}, a_{\bar{k}'}^+] = \delta^3(\bar{k} - \bar{k}')$ ,

The infinity of  $\delta^3(\bar{0})$  is not problematic: it is just a manifestation of the infinite volume!

$\hookrightarrow$  Had we started in finite volume, the values of  $\bar{k}$  would have been discrete and instead of  $\delta^3(\bar{0})$  we would have found  $V \cdot \delta_{ii}$  (where  $i$  labels the discrete momenta).

- What is much more serious is the diverging prefactor

$$\int d^3\bar{k} \omega(\bar{k}).$$

This is a true "UV divergence of QFT". It corresponds to adding up zero-point energies of infinitely many harmonic oscillators (with higher and higher frequencies). It can be removed by renormalization [adding a compensating classical piece]. However, the (by definition) finite difference of these two infinite contributions is naturally expected to be large ( $\sim M_p^4$ ; since we expect  $|\bar{k}|_{\max} \sim M_p$ ). Experimentally, this energy density (the cosmological constant) is found to be  $\sim (\text{meV})^4$ .  $\rightarrow$  "cosmol. constant problem".

## 10.2 Quantum fields in curved space

- Let  $S = \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left( -\frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\partial_\mu \varphi)(\partial_\nu \varphi) - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \varphi^2 \right)$   
on some Lorentzian manifold with metric  $g_{\mu\nu}$ . This corresponds to "minimal coupling" to gravity. (We ignore possible non-minimal terms  $\sim R\varphi^2$  etc.)
- We consider the metric as fixed and quantize  $\varphi$  as usual:

$$\pi = \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{\varphi}} \quad ; \quad \begin{aligned} [\varphi(t, \bar{x}), \varphi(t, \bar{x}')] &= 0 \\ [\pi(t, \bar{x}), \pi(t, \bar{x}')] &= 0 \\ [\varphi(t, \bar{x}), \pi(t, \bar{x}')] &= \frac{i}{\sqrt{-g}} \delta^3(\bar{x} - \bar{x}') \end{aligned}$$

(necessary for covariance, as one can easily convince oneself by considering, e.g.,  $t \rightarrow \alpha t$  &  $\bar{x} \rightarrow \beta \bar{x}$ )

Note: Even though the above clearly relies on choosing a specific (timelike!) coordinate and calling it time, general covariance is respected. This should be intuitively clear from the fact that the crucial statement

$$[\varphi, \pi] \sim \delta^3(\dots)$$

is essentially local ( $\delta$ -fct. & equal times).

However, locally our manifold looks like Minkowski space and we already know that field quantization in Minkowski space is not affected different choices of  $t$ .

- As before, we consider the space of solutions, this time of the eqn.

$$0 = (\square - m^2) \varphi = (D_\mu \partial^\mu \varphi - m^2) \varphi = 0.$$

- On this space, we define a scalar product

$$(\varphi_1, \varphi_2) = i \int_{\Sigma} \sqrt{\gamma} d^3x \underbrace{(\varphi_1 \partial_\mu \varphi_2^* - \varphi_2^* \partial_\mu \varphi_1)}_{\text{induced metric on } \Sigma} n^\mu$$

$\uparrow$  spacelike hypersurface       $\uparrow$  unit normal vector for  $\Sigma$

This is often written as  $\varphi_1 \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_\mu \varphi_2^*$   
 (where  $A \overleftrightarrow{\partial} B \equiv A \partial B - (\partial A) B$ .)

[The scalar product is independent of the choice of  $\Sigma$ !]

- As before, one can always find a set of solutions, labelled by a (discrete or continuous) index  $i$  (instead of the wave number  $\vec{k}$ , which we don't have in general geometries):

$$f_i = f_i(x^\mu) ; \quad (f_i, f_j) = \delta_{ij} ; \quad (f_i^*, f_j^*) = -\delta_{ij} ;$$

$$(f_i, f_j^*) = 0$$

- The (quantum) field can be expanded as

$$\varphi(x) = \sum_i (a_i f_i(x) + a_i^* f_i^*(x)).$$

$\uparrow$  operators       $\uparrow$  fcts.

- As before, the canonical commut. relations imply

$$[a_i, a_j] = 0 ; \quad [a_i^*, a_j^*] = 0 ; \quad [a_i, a_j^*] = \delta_{ij}.$$

- As before, we can define a Fock space on the basis of the

vacuum  $|0\rangle$  with  $a_i|0\rangle = 0$  (any  $i$ ).

- Clearly, different choices of complete sets exist, consider e.g.

$$\psi = \sum_i (b_i g_i + b_i^+ g_i^*) \quad \text{with} \quad [b_i, b_j] = 0, \quad [b_i^+, b_j^+] = 0$$

$\begin{array}{ccc} \uparrow & \nearrow & \uparrow \\ \text{operators} & & \text{fcts.} \end{array}$

$$[b_i, b_j^+] = \delta_{ij}$$

(and, of course,  $g_i \neq f_i$  in general).

- Now we have to distinguish two vacua,  $|0_f\rangle$  (called  $|0\rangle$  before) and  $|0_g\rangle$ :

$$a_i|0_f\rangle = 0 \quad ; \quad b_i|0_g\rangle = 0$$

(all  $i$ ) \qquad \qquad \qquad (all  $i$ ).

- So far, everything is still very similar to the flat case (where we also could choose different basis sets, e.g. by performing a Lorentz trf.). However, fcts. with positive frequency ( $\partial_t f = -i\omega f$ ;  $\omega > 0$ ) would transform among themselves, and so would fcts. with neg. frequency. This corresponds

$$|0_f\rangle = |0_g\rangle \quad \text{for Lorentz trfs.}$$

- In general, there is no unique (not even up to Lorentz trfs.) time variable, no concept of pos./neg. frequency and hence

$$|0_f\rangle \neq |0_g\rangle \quad \text{in general.}$$

- To see this more explicitly, expand  $g_i$  in terms of  $f_i, f_i^*$ :

$$g_i = \sum_j (\alpha_{ij} f_j + \beta_{ij} f_j^*).$$

(This is called a Bogoliubov trf.) By multiplic. with  $f_k^{(*)}$  we

find:  $\alpha_{ij} = (g_i, f_j) \quad ; \quad \beta_{ij} = - (g_i, f_j^*).$



- The above "Bogoliubov coefficients" can also be used to relate the relevant creation and annihilation operators:

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi &= \sum_i (a_i f_i + a_i^\dagger f_i^*) = \sum_i (b_i g_i + b_i^\dagger g_i^*) \\ &= \sum_{ij} \left( b_i \{ \alpha_{ij} f_j + \beta_{ij} f_j^* \} + b_i^\dagger \{ \alpha_{ij}^* f_j^* + \beta_{ij}^* f_j \} \right)\end{aligned}$$

Comparing the coefficients of  $f_i$ , we find

$$a_i = \sum_j (\alpha_{ji} b_j + \beta_{ji}^* b_j^\dagger)$$

[An analogous calculation gives

$$b_i = \sum_j (\alpha_{ij}^* a_j - \beta_{ij}^* a_j^\dagger). ]$$

- The crucial physical point is that the Bogoliubov trf. does not only mix creation operators among themselves (& annih. ops. among themselves), but that it mixes creation with annihilation operators. Hence the vacuum of one description does not correspond to the vacuum of the other description.
- To see this quantitatively, let's calculate the particle number of the "g-system" in the vacuum of the "f-system":

$$\begin{aligned}\langle 0_f | n_{g_i} | 0_f \rangle &= \langle 0_f | b_i^\dagger b_i | 0_f \rangle \\ &= \sum_{jk} \langle 0_f | (\alpha_{ij} a_j^\dagger - \beta_{ij} a_j) (\alpha_{ik}^* a_k - \beta_{ik}^* a_k^\dagger) | 0_f \rangle \\ &= \sum_{jk} \beta_{ij} \beta_{ik}^* \underbrace{\langle 0_f | a_j a_k^\dagger | 0_f \rangle}_{a_k^\dagger a_j + \delta_{jk}} = \sum_j \underline{\underline{|\beta_{ij}|^2}} \\ &\quad \text{This is generically non-zero!}\end{aligned}$$

- Observational consequence:

Let's assume that there exists a timelike Killing vector such that  $g_i$  &  $g_i^*$  are positive and negative frequency modes with respect to the corresponding time variable (this also requires that the space-time is static). More specifically,

$$g_i \sim e^{-i\omega t} \quad \& \quad g_i^* \sim e^{i\omega t}.$$

For a detector (observer) following orbits of the Killing vector field, the eigen time will be proportional to this time variable and it will detect particles according to the particle number defined in the  $g$ -system.

- If we know that the phys. system is in the state  $|0_p\rangle$ , then the detector will see particles as described by

$$\langle 0_p | n g_i | 0_p \rangle \neq 0 \quad (\text{see above}).$$

This is the basic argument behind Hawking radiation and the (technically similar but simpler) Unruh effect to be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.