

2 Free scalar field

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2.1 Classical theory - Lagrangian formulation

- You (should) already know from electrodynamics:

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \int d^4x F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} \quad \text{with} \quad F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu$$

- Quantization of this theory is complicated by the fact that A_μ has 4 components & the action is gauge invariant ($A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu + \partial_\mu \chi$).
- Hence, let's start with a toy model (which is, however, also relevant for Higgs & pions):

$$A_\mu(x) \longrightarrow \varphi(x)$$

- We formulate the theory in analogy to mechanics:

(1-dim.) mechanics

scalar FT

$$x: t \mapsto x(t)$$

$$\varphi: x \rightarrow \varphi(x) \quad (x \in \mathbb{R}^4)$$

$$S = S[x] = \int dt L(x, \dot{x})$$

$$S = S[\varphi]$$

$$= \int dt L[\varphi(t, \vec{x}), \dot{\varphi}(t, \vec{x})]$$

- Crucially, we assume that L is "local in x ", i.e.

$$L = \int d^3\vec{x} \mathcal{L}(\varphi(x), \dot{\varphi}(x), \nabla\varphi(x), \nabla\dot{\varphi}(x), \dots),$$

with only finitely many higher derivatives.

- We could say that we generalize the "locality of $S[x]$ in t to locality in $\mathbb{R}^{1,3}$.

- Next we define $V(\varphi) \equiv -\mathcal{L}(\varphi = \text{const.})$ and assume that V has a minimum at $\varphi = \varphi_0$. W.L.O.G. let $\varphi_0 = 0$ and $V(\varphi_0) = 0$, such that

$$V(\varphi) = \frac{1}{2}m^2\varphi^2 + \dots$$

- Since we are first interested in small excitations of the ground state or vacuum $\varphi = 0$, we assume φ to be small, thus ignoring higher terms in the Taylor expansion for now.
- However, we should allow for some dependence on $\dot{\varphi}$. Clearly, to have a chance of Poinc. inv., we must allow for $\partial_\mu\varphi$ to appear ($\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$).
- Simple fact: $(\partial_\mu\varphi)(\partial_\nu\varphi)\eta^{\mu\nu}$ is the lowest-order invariant term (in powers of φ).

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{S = \int d^4x \mathcal{L} = \int d^4x \left(\frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu\varphi)(\partial^\mu\varphi) - \frac{m^2}{2}\varphi^2 \right)}$$

is the unique $\mathcal{O}(\varphi^2)$ Poinc.-inv. action, which is also a (mostly) sensible approx. to the general, local, interacting theory.

- To gain some intuition, let's separate time & space ($\varphi(x) = \varphi(t, \bar{x})$) and discretize the latter:

$$\int d^3 \bar{x} \longrightarrow \sum_{\bar{x} \in 3 \text{ dim. lattice}}$$

with $\bar{x} = \Delta \cdot (0, 0, 0) ; \Delta \cdot (0, 0, 1) ; \Delta \cdot (0, 0, -1) ; \dots$
 $\uparrow$
lattice spacing.

- This corresponds to

$$L = \int d^3 \bar{x} \mathcal{L} = \int d^3 \bar{x} \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{\varphi}^2 - \frac{1}{2} (\vec{\nabla} \varphi)^2 - \frac{m^2}{2} \varphi^2 \right)$$

$$\downarrow$$
$$L = \underbrace{\sum_{\bar{x}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \dot{\varphi}(t, \bar{x})^2 \right\}}_T - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^3 \left(\frac{\varphi(t, \bar{x} + \hat{e}_i \Delta) - \varphi(t, \bar{x})}{\Delta} \right)^2}_{V_{\text{class. Med.}}} - \frac{m^2}{2} \varphi^2$$

$\Rightarrow$ We have a "med. system" with infinitely many degrees of freedom ($\varphi(t, \bar{x}) ; \bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3$).
The free dynamics is simply that of a set of coupled harm. oscillators. It will be easy to decouple them - see below.

- Equation of motion:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\stackrel{!}{=} \delta S = \delta \int d^4 x \left(\frac{1}{2} (\partial \varphi)^2 - \frac{m^2}{2} \varphi^2 \right) \\ &= \int d^4 x \left((\partial_\mu \varphi) \eta^{\mu\nu} (\partial_\nu \delta \varphi) - m^2 \varphi \delta \varphi \right) \\ &= - \int d^4 x \left(\eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu \varphi + m^2 \varphi \right) \delta \varphi \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{(\partial^2 + m^2)\varphi = 0} \quad \text{Klein-Gordon-equ.}$$

- Solutions are plane waves, e.g.

$$\varphi(x) = \varphi_0 \sin kx \quad \text{with} \quad k^2 - m^2 = 0.$$

- Here $k = (k^0, \vec{k})$ corresponds to the 4-momentum of a particle (see later); Choosing $k^0 = m, \vec{k} = 0$ corr. to a particle/particles at rest. m will turn out to be the particle mass.

2.2. Classical theory - Hamiltonian formulation

- Class. mech.: $L(q_i, \dot{q}_i) \rightarrow H(q_i, \pi_i) = \sum_i \pi_i \dot{q}_i - L$
with $\pi_i = \frac{\partial L(q_i, \dot{q}_i)}{\partial \dot{q}_i}$

- FT on lattice: $L(\varphi, \dot{\varphi}) = \sum_{\vec{x}} \frac{1}{2} \dot{\varphi}(\vec{x})^2 + \dots$
 $\uparrow$
plays the role of index "i".

$$\pi(\vec{x}) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\varphi}(\vec{x})} = \dot{\varphi}(\vec{x})$$

$$H = \sum_{\vec{x}} \pi(\vec{x}) \dot{\varphi}(\vec{x}) - L$$

$$= \sum_{\vec{x}} \frac{1}{2} \pi(\vec{x})^2 - \dots$$

- Continuum FT:

- We need to generalize $\frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i}$ to the case where i becomes continuous, i.e., L is a functional.

Mathem. interlude: let $F: f \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be a functional. The functional derivative $\frac{\delta F}{\delta f(x)}$ is defined by

$$F[f+\varepsilon] - F[f] = \int dx \frac{\delta F}{\delta f(x)} \cdot \varepsilon(x) + O(\varepsilon^2)$$

- If we, in addition, use the natural generalization

$$\sum_i \pi_i \dot{q}_i \longrightarrow \int d^3x \pi(\bar{x}) \dot{\varphi}(\bar{x}),$$

then we arrive at the following continuum version of the lagrangian/hamiltonian transition:

$$\pi(\bar{x}) = \frac{\delta}{\delta \dot{\varphi}(\bar{x})} L[\varphi, \dot{\varphi}] ; \quad H[\varphi, \pi] = \int d^3x \pi \dot{\varphi} - L$$

- In full generality, $F = \int dx A(f(x))$ implies

$$\frac{\delta F}{\delta f(x)} = \frac{\partial A}{\partial f}(x). \quad [\text{Check this if it's not obvious!}]$$

- Hence, $\pi(\bar{x}) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\varphi}}(\bar{x}) = \dot{\varphi}(\bar{x})$ and

$$H[\varphi, \pi] = \int d^3x \pi \dot{\varphi} - L = \int d^3x \frac{1}{2} (\pi^2 + (\nabla \varphi)^2 + m^2 \varphi^2) = \dots$$

$\dots = \int d^3x \mathcal{H}$ with $\mathcal{H}$ the "hamiltonian density".

2.3 Quantization (canonical)

- The usual postulates: $[q_i, \pi_j] = i\delta_{ij}$
 $(\hbar = c = 1)$ $[q_i, q_j] = 0$
 $[\pi_i, \pi_j] = 0$
- Obvious generalization to our continuum case:
 $[\varphi(\vec{x}), \pi(\vec{y})] = i\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y})$
 $[\varphi(\vec{x}), \varphi(\vec{y})] = 0$
 $[\pi(\vec{x}), \pi(\vec{y})] = 0$

- With $H = \int d^3\vec{x} \frac{1}{2} (\pi^2 + |\vec{\nabla}\varphi|^2 + m^2\varphi^2)$ the similarity to a set of harm. oscillators is obvious.
- They are coupled due to " $\vec{\nabla}$ " and can thus be easily decoupled by Fourier trf.:

$$\varphi(\vec{x}) = \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} \tilde{\varphi}(\vec{p}), \quad \tilde{\varphi}(\vec{p}) = \int d^3x e^{-i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} \varphi(\vec{x})$$

$$(\text{analogously } \pi(\vec{x}) \leftrightarrow \tilde{\pi}(\vec{p}))$$

- The commutation relations for $\tilde{\varphi}, \tilde{\pi}$ read:

$$\begin{aligned} [\tilde{\varphi}(\vec{p}), \tilde{\pi}(\vec{q})] &= \int d^3x d^3y e^{-i(\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x} + \vec{q}\cdot\vec{y})} [\varphi(\vec{x}), \pi(\vec{y})] \\ &= i \int d^3x e^{-i(\vec{p} + \vec{q})\cdot\vec{x}} = i(2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\vec{p} + \vec{q}) \end{aligned}$$

$$[\tilde{\varphi}(\vec{p}), \tilde{\varphi}(\vec{q})] = [\tilde{\pi}(\vec{p}), \tilde{\pi}(\vec{q})] = 0 \quad (\text{obvious})$$

- Of the 3 terms in H we only check the most

interesting one:

$$\int d^3x (\bar{\psi} \psi)^2 = \int d^3x \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} (i\bar{p}) e^{i\bar{p}x} \tilde{\psi}(\bar{p}) \int \frac{d^3q}{(2\pi)^3} (i\bar{q}) \cdot$$

$$x\text{-integration} \Rightarrow (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\bar{p} + \bar{q}) \quad \cdot e^{i\bar{q}x} \tilde{\psi}(\bar{q}) = \dots$$

$$\dots = \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} \bar{p}^2 \tilde{\psi}(\bar{p}) \tilde{\psi}(-\bar{p}).$$

- Observe that $\psi(\bar{x})^\dagger = \psi(\bar{x}) \Rightarrow \tilde{\psi}^\dagger(\bar{p}) = \tilde{\psi}(-\bar{p})$.
- Thus, including also the other two terms, we have:

$$H = \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \frac{1}{2} (|\tilde{\pi}|^2 + (\bar{p}^2 + m^2) |\tilde{\psi}|^2)$$

to be read either literally or as $\tilde{\pi}\tilde{\pi}^\dagger$, depending on whether we are before or after quantization.

- To make the analogy to a system of harm. oscillators even more perfect, let

$$\omega_{\bar{p}} \equiv \sqrt{\bar{p}^2 + m^2}.$$

(oscillation frequency of classical wave solution, see above)

$$\Rightarrow H = \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \frac{1}{2} (|\tilde{\pi}|^2 + \omega_{\bar{p}}^2 |\tilde{\psi}|^2)$$

Reminder: $H = \frac{1}{2} (\pi^2 + \omega^2 q^2) \quad ; \quad [q, \pi] = i$

$$\downarrow \quad a = \frac{1}{2} (\sqrt{2\omega} q + i\sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega}} \pi), \quad a^\dagger = \dots$$

$$H = \omega (a^\dagger a + \frac{1}{2}) \quad ; \quad [a, a^\dagger] = 1$$

- Motivated by this, let us make the ansatz

$$a_{\vec{p}} = \frac{1}{2} (\sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{p}}} \tilde{\varphi}(\vec{p}) + i\sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega_{\vec{p}}}} \tilde{\pi}(\vec{p}))$$

$$a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} = \frac{1}{2} (\sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{p}}} \tilde{\varphi}(-\vec{p}) - i\sqrt{\frac{2}{\omega_{\vec{p}}}} \tilde{\pi}(-\vec{p})) \quad \left[\text{Note that } \vec{p} \rightarrow -\vec{p}! \right]$$

Comment: It is not yet totally clear that this will work since our analogy is not perfect: Unlike " p, q " our $\tilde{\varphi}, \tilde{\pi}$ are not real and they are not (quite) conjugate variables: $\delta^3(\vec{p} + \vec{q}) = \delta^3(\vec{p} - (-\vec{q}))$, i.e. $\tilde{\varphi}(\vec{p})$ is conjugate to $\tilde{\pi}(-\vec{p})$. We could keep "massaging" our class. system into perfect agreement with a set of oscillators and only then introduce $a, a^{\dagger}$, but we wouldn't gain much new information.

- It is easy to derive the commutation relations:

$$[a_{\vec{p}}, a_{\vec{q}}^{\dagger}] = (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\vec{p} - \vec{q})$$

$$[a_{\vec{p}}, a_{\vec{q}}] = [a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger}, a_{\vec{q}}^{\dagger}] = 0.$$

- Furthermore, we have

$$\tilde{\varphi}(\vec{p}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{p}}}} (a_{\vec{p}} + a_{-\vec{p}}^{\dagger}), \quad \tilde{\pi}(\vec{p}) = -i\sqrt{\frac{\omega_{\vec{p}}}{2}} (a_{\vec{p}} - a_{-\vec{p}}^{\dagger})$$

and hence

$$H = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{\omega_{\vec{p}}}{2} (a_{\vec{p}} - a_{-\vec{p}}^{\dagger})(a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} - a_{-\vec{p}}) + \omega_{\vec{p}}^2 \frac{1}{2\omega_{\vec{p}}} (a_{\vec{p}} + a_{-\vec{p}}^{\dagger})(a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} + a_{-\vec{p}}) \right\}$$

$\therefore$ "cross-terms" cancel; can use $\vec{p} \rightarrow -\vec{p}$ freely ...

$$\Rightarrow H = \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \omega_{\vec{p}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} (a_{\vec{p}}^+ a_{\vec{p}} + a_{\vec{p}} a_{\vec{p}}^+)$$

$$= \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \omega_{\vec{p}} \left(a_{\vec{p}}^+ a_{\vec{p}} + \frac{1}{2} [a_{\vec{p}}, a_{\vec{p}}^+] \right)$$

$$(2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\vec{0}) = \int d^3 x e^{i\vec{0} \cdot \vec{x}} = \text{Vol}(\mathbb{R}^3) = V$$

$$H = \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \omega_{\vec{p}} a_{\vec{p}}^+ a_{\vec{p}} + V \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \omega_{\vec{p}}$$

This is easy to derive "properly" using T^3 instead of $\mathbb{R}^3$, where $\delta^3(\vec{p}-\vec{q})$ becomes $\delta_{p^1, q^1} \delta_{p^2, q^2} \delta_{p^3, q^3}$.

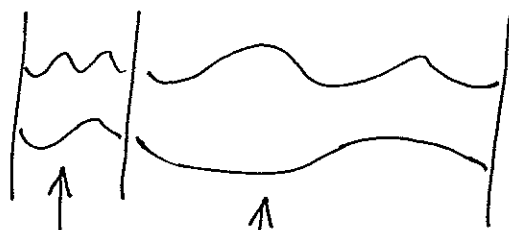
This is truly divergent if no "UV-cutoff" is introduced.

$\Rightarrow$ The vacuum energy density diverges due to contributions of zero-point-energies of "oscillators" with arbitrarily high frequency

Vacuum energy

- Irrelevant for QFT in $\mathbb{R}^3$ since it can be absorbed in overall constant shift of H .
- Relevant if QFT is coupled to gravity since it then curves space-time ("Cosm. constant problem").
- In non-trivial geometries (e.g. QED with conducting plates) the energies of the low-lying modes can be manipulated by moving the plates. This leads to a finite effect (force on the plates) independently

of the still present divergence at $|\vec{p}| \rightarrow \infty$:



p 's/ ω 's change if middle plate is moved
($\rightarrow$ Casimir energy / Casimir effect.)

So far, we have found:

$$\varphi(\vec{x}) = \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{p}}}} e^{i\vec{p}\vec{x}} (a_{\vec{p}} + a_{-\vec{p}}^\dagger) ; \quad \pi(\vec{x}) = \dots$$

$$\text{with } \omega_{\vec{p}} = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2} ; \quad [a_{\vec{p}}, a_{\vec{q}}^\dagger] = (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\vec{p} - \vec{q})$$

$$H = \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \omega_{\vec{p}} a_{\vec{p}}^\dagger a_{\vec{p}} \quad (\text{we discard the vac. energies})$$

- At the moment, this is just an (operator) algebra with one distinguished operator: H .
- Physics starts if we also provide a Hilbert-space representation of this algebra
- We start by postulating a ("vacuum") state $|0\rangle$ which obeys $a_{\vec{p}}|0\rangle = 0 \quad (\forall \vec{p})$
- Next we define "one-particle states" $a_{\vec{p}}^\dagger|0\rangle \quad (\forall \vec{p})$

It is easy to calculate the energy of these states:

$$H a_{\vec{p}}^\dagger|0\rangle = \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3} \omega_{\vec{k}} a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger a_{\vec{k}} a_{\vec{p}}^\dagger|0\rangle = \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3} \omega_{\vec{k}} a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger \delta^3(\vec{k} - \vec{p})|0\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow H a_{\vec{p}}^+ |0\rangle = \omega_{\vec{p}} a_{\vec{p}}^+ |0\rangle$$

Since $\omega_{\vec{p}} = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$ is the energy of a particle with mass m and momentum $\vec{p}$, the name of such states makes sense!

• Two-particle states: $a_{\vec{p}}^+ a_{\vec{q}}^+ |0\rangle \quad (\forall \vec{p}, \vec{q})$

Easy to check: $H a_{\vec{p}}^+ a_{\vec{q}}^+ |0\rangle = (\omega_{\vec{p}} + \omega_{\vec{q}}) a_{\vec{p}}^+ a_{\vec{q}}^+ |0\rangle$

↑
Idea: Commute $a_{\vec{k}}$, the annihilation operator, to the right until it hits the vacuum. Each time it passes one of the creation operators, pick up the δ^3 -fct. and hence the $\omega_{\vec{k}}$.

energy of two, non-interacting particles.

• This extends to any number of particles and gives the Fock space.

• Choosing the vacuum normalization $||0\rangle|^2 = \langle 0|0\rangle = 1$, we easily find

$$(a_{\vec{p}}^+ |0\rangle) \cdot (a_{\vec{q}}^+ |0\rangle) = \langle 0 | a_{\vec{p}} a_{\vec{q}}^+ |0\rangle = (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\vec{p} - \vec{q})$$

(δ -fct. normalization, as in QM of free particle)

• It will be convenient to use the notation & normalization $|\vec{p}\rangle \equiv \sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{p}}} a_{\vec{p}}^+ |0\rangle$

$$|\vec{p}, \vec{q}\rangle \equiv \sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{p}}} \sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{q}}} a_{\vec{p}}^+ a_{\vec{q}}^+ |0\rangle \text{ etc.}$$

such that, e.g.,

$$\langle \bar{p} | \bar{q} \rangle = 2\omega_{\bar{p}} (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\bar{p} - \bar{q}).$$

(The utility of the extra factor $\omega_{\bar{p}}$ will become clear later on. Some authors find it convenient to define $a_{\bar{p}}' \equiv \sqrt{2\omega_{\bar{p}}} a_{\bar{p}}$ such that $|p\rangle = a_{\bar{p}}'^{\dagger} |0\rangle$, but we won't do this. Be careful when comparing formulae from different books!)

2.4 Complex scalar

$$\mathcal{L} = \eta^{\mu\nu} (\partial_{\mu} \phi) (\partial_{\nu} \phi^*) - m^2 \phi \phi^* = |\partial_{\mu} \phi|^2 - m^2 |\phi|^2$$

(sloppy but widely used notation)

- Note the different normalization conventions compared to the real scalar
- With $\phi = (\varphi_1 + i\varphi_2)/\sqrt{2}$ this goes over into precisely twice the scalar lagrangian we already know.
- Nevertheless, it is useful to quantize this without giving up the complex notation:

$$\delta S = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} - \partial_{\mu} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_{\mu} \phi)} = 0$$

- Treating ϕ, ϕ^* as independent, we get

$$-m^2 \phi^* - \square \phi^* = 0 \quad (\square \equiv \partial_{\mu} \partial^{\mu}).$$

- Doing the same with ϕ^* (or just by complex conjugation) we also have: $(\square + m^2)\phi = 0$.

$$\bullet \pi = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} = \dot{\phi}^* ; \quad \pi^* = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}^*} = \dot{\phi}$$

$$\mathcal{H} = \pi \dot{\phi} + \pi^* \dot{\phi}^* - \mathcal{L} = |\pi|^2 + |\nabla \phi|^2 + m^2 |\phi|^2$$

- Quantization: $[\phi(\bar{x}), \pi(\bar{y})] = [\phi^+(\bar{x}), \pi^+(\bar{y})] = i\delta^3(\bar{x} - \bar{y})$

- Recall that, for the real scalar, we were successful with the ansatz

$$\varphi(\bar{x}) = \int \frac{d^3 \bar{p}}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_{\bar{p}}}} e^{i\bar{p}\bar{x}} (a_{\bar{p}} + a_{-\bar{p}}^+) = \int \frac{d^3 \bar{p}}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_{\bar{p}}}} (a_{\bar{p}}^+ e^{-i\bar{p}\bar{x}} + a_{\bar{p}} e^{i\bar{p}\bar{x}})$$

- Reality was encoded in $a_{\bar{p}}$ & $a_{\bar{p}}^+$ being conjugate to each other. Let's hence try to generalize by

$$\phi(\bar{x}) = \int \frac{d^3 \bar{p}}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_{\bar{p}}}} (a_{\bar{p}}^+ e^{-i\bar{p}\bar{x}} + b_{\bar{p}} e^{i\bar{p}\bar{x}})$$

- One finds: The ϕ, π, ϕ^*, π^* commut. relations imply that $a_{\bar{p}}, a_{\bar{p}}^+$ & $b_{\bar{p}}, b_{\bar{p}}^+$ represent two sets of independent oscillators.

$$\bullet \mathcal{H} = \int \frac{d^3 \bar{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \omega_{\bar{p}} (a_{\bar{p}}^+ a_{\bar{p}} + b_{\bar{p}}^+ b_{\bar{p}})$$

(As we will see, this model has a conserved charge, due to its sym. $\phi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \phi$. "a/b-particles" are pos./neg. charged.)