

## Scalar field

The procedure of canonical quantization, which was discussed in the previous lecture in the context of harmonic oscillator, is applied here to a free scalar field.

### Classical description of a scalar field

- The fundamental quantity of classical and quantum field theory is the action  $S$  defined through the Lagrangian density  $\mathcal{L}(x)$  as

$$S \equiv \int d^4x \mathcal{L}. \quad (1)$$

- The Lagrangian density of noninteracting scalar field  $\phi(x)$  is

$$\mathcal{L}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \partial^\mu \phi(x) \partial_\mu \phi(x) - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2(x). \quad (2)$$

The field is assumed to be real.

- Since the action  $S$  is dimensionless,  $\mathcal{L}$  is of the dimension  $m^4$  and consequently the field  $\phi$  is of the dimension  $m$ .
- The principle of the minimal action leads to the Eulera-Lagrange equation

$$\partial^\mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial^\mu \phi)} - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} = 0, \quad (3)$$

which gives the Klein-Gordon equation

$$[\partial_\mu \partial^\mu + m^2] \phi(x) = 0 \quad (4)$$

for the Lagrangian density (2).

- There is no conserved charge carried by the real field.
- One asks how  $\phi(x)$  transforms under the Lorentz transformation?
- To answer this question one postulates that the field  $\phi(x)$  satisfies the Klein-Gordon equation in any reference frame.
- If  $\phi(x) \rightarrow \phi'(x')$ , then

$$[\partial'_\mu \partial'^\mu + m^2] \phi'(x') = 0, \quad (5)$$

where  $m$  is assumed to be the Lorentz invariant.

- Since  $\partial'_\mu \partial'^\mu = \partial_\mu \partial^\mu$ , we find

$$\phi(x) \rightarrow \phi'(x') = \phi(\Lambda^{-1}x'), \quad (6)$$

where  $\Lambda$  is the transformation matrix of four-vectors that is  $x'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu{}_\nu x^\nu$ .

- The field which transforms according to the rule (6) is called scalar.
- One arrives to the same transformation rule (6) postulating that the Lagrangian density (2) is a Lorentz invariant or Lorentz scalar.

- To perform the canonical quantization we need to formulate the Hamiltonian or canonical formalism. For this reason we define the canonical momentum  $\pi(x)$  conjugate to  $\phi(x)$  as

$$\pi(x) \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(x)}{\partial \dot{\phi}(x)} = \dot{\phi}(x), \quad (7)$$

where the dot denotes the time derivative.

- The equal-time Poisson bracket of quantities  $A(x)$  and  $B(x)$  is

$$\{A(t, \mathbf{x}), B(t, \mathbf{x}')\}_{\text{PB}} \equiv \int d^3x'' \left( \frac{\delta A(t, \mathbf{x})}{\delta \phi(t, \mathbf{x}'')} \frac{\delta B(t, \mathbf{x}')}{\delta \pi(t, \mathbf{x}'')} - \frac{\delta A(t, \mathbf{x})}{\delta \pi(t, \mathbf{x}'')} \frac{\delta B(t, \mathbf{x}')}{\delta \phi(t, \mathbf{x}'')} \right), \quad (8)$$

where the functional differentiation is done according to standard rules of differentiation supplemented by the rule

$$\frac{\delta f(t, \mathbf{x})}{\delta f(t, \mathbf{x}')} = \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'). \quad (9)$$

The time  $t$  is not treated as a variable of differentiated function but as a parameter.

- One easily checks that the Poisson bracket of the pair of canonical variables  $\phi(x)$  and  $\pi(x)$  is

$$\{\phi(t, \mathbf{x}), \pi(t, \mathbf{x}')\}_{\text{PB}} = \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'), \quad (10)$$

and

$$\{\phi(t, \mathbf{x}), \phi(t, \mathbf{x}')\}_{\text{PB}} = \{\pi(t, \mathbf{x}), \pi(t, \mathbf{x}')\}_{\text{PB}} = 0. \quad (11)$$

- The Hamiltonian density  $\mathcal{H}$  is defined by means of the Legendre transformation

$$\mathcal{H}(x) \equiv \pi(x) \dot{\phi}(x) - \mathcal{L}(x) \quad (12)$$

and the Hamiltonian equals

$$H = \int d^3x \mathcal{H}(x). \quad (13)$$

- Using the Lagrangian density (2), one finds

$$\mathcal{H}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \pi^2(x) + \frac{1}{2} (\nabla \phi(x))^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2(x). \quad (14)$$

- The canonical equations of motion are

$$\dot{\phi}(x) = \frac{\delta H}{\delta \pi(x)} = \pi(x), \quad (15)$$

$$\dot{\pi}(x) = -\frac{\delta H}{\delta \phi(x)} = (\nabla^2 - m^2) \phi(t, \mathbf{x}). \quad (16)$$

The first equation determines the relation between the canonical momentum  $\pi(x)$  and the position  $\phi(x)$  while the first one combined with the second one gives the Klein-Gordon equation (4).

- The canonical equations of motion can be written by means of the Poisson brackets as

$$\dot{\phi}(t, \mathbf{x}) = \{\phi(t, \mathbf{x}), H\}_{\text{PB}} = \pi(t, \mathbf{x}), \quad (17)$$

$$\dot{\pi}(t, \mathbf{x}) = \{\pi(t, \mathbf{x}), H\}_{\text{PB}} = (\nabla^2 - m^2) \phi(t, \mathbf{x}). \quad (18)$$

- In Lecture I there was discussed a solution of the Klein-Gordon equation which now we write down as

$$\phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_{\mathbf{k}}}} \left[ e^{-ikx} a(\mathbf{k}) + e^{ikx} a^*(\mathbf{k}) \right], \quad (19)$$

where  $k^\mu = (\omega_{\mathbf{k}}, \mathbf{k})$  with  $\omega_{\mathbf{k}} \equiv \sqrt{m^2 + \mathbf{k}^2}$ , and  $a(\mathbf{k})$  is unknown complex valued function of the dimension  $m^{-3/2}$ .

- One checks that the field (19) is real that is  $\phi^*(x) = \phi(x)$ .
- The solution (19) has been written in the form which guarantees that the Hamiltonian (13) obtained from the Hamiltonian density (14) is

$$H = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \omega_{\mathbf{k}} a(\mathbf{k}) a^*(\mathbf{k}). \quad (20)$$

- The Hamiltonian (20) is obviously nonnegative. Consequently, the total system's energy is nonnegative even so there seem to be the negative energy components in the solution (19).

Exercise: Derive the formula (20).

### Quantization of scalar field

- The classical field  $\phi(x)$  and its conjugate momentum  $\pi(x)$  are replaced by the operators  $\hat{\phi}(x)$  and  $\hat{\pi}(x)$  that is

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(x) &\longrightarrow \hat{\phi}(x), \\ \pi(x) &\longrightarrow \hat{\pi}(x). \end{aligned}$$

The operators act in the space of states also called the Fock space.

- We postulate the equal-time commutation relations

$$[\hat{\phi}(t, \mathbf{x}), \hat{\pi}(t, \mathbf{x}')] = i\delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'), \quad (21)$$

$$[\hat{\phi}(t, \mathbf{x}), \hat{\phi}(t, \mathbf{x}')] = 0, \quad (22)$$

$$[\hat{\pi}(t, \mathbf{x}), \hat{\pi}(t, \mathbf{x}')] = 0, \quad (23)$$

which are obtained by replacing the Poisson brackets (10, 11) by the commutators multiplied by  $-\frac{i}{\hbar}$  that is

$$\{\dots, \dots\}_{\text{PB}} \longrightarrow -\frac{i}{\hbar} [\dots, \dots].$$

- The second step of the quantization procedure is a construction of the space of states.
- The field operator  $\hat{\phi}(x)$ , which obeys the Klein-Gordon equation

$$[\partial_\mu \partial^\mu + m^2] \hat{\phi}(x) = 0, \quad (24)$$

is written analogously to its classical counterpart (19) as

$$\hat{\phi}(x) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_{\mathbf{k}}}} \left[ e^{-ikx} \hat{a}(\mathbf{k}) + e^{ikx} \hat{a}^\dagger(\mathbf{k}) \right], \quad (25)$$

where  $\hat{a}(\mathbf{k})$  and  $\hat{a}^\dagger(\mathbf{k})$  are the annihilation and creation operators and  $\dagger$  denotes the Hermitian conjugation.

- The commutation relations (21, 22, 23) lead to the commutation relations of  $\hat{a}(\mathbf{k})$  and  $\hat{a}^\dagger(\mathbf{k})$

$$[\hat{a}(\mathbf{k}), \hat{a}^\dagger(\mathbf{k}')] = (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}'), \quad (26)$$

$$[\hat{a}(\mathbf{k}), \hat{a}(\mathbf{k}')] = 0, \quad (27)$$

$$[\hat{a}^\dagger(\mathbf{k}), \hat{a}^\dagger(\mathbf{k}')] = 0. \quad (28)$$

- Eqs. (21, 22, 23) almost immediately follow from Eqs. (26, 27, 28). The prove of the inverse theorem is more difficult.

Exercise: Derive Eqs. (21, 22, 23) from Eqs. (26, 27, 28).

Exercise: Derive Eqs. (26, 27, 28) from Eqs. (21, 22, 23).

- Since the operators  $\hat{a}(\mathbf{k})$  and  $\hat{a}^\dagger(\mathbf{k})$  do not commute with each other, the quantum analogue of the classical Hamiltonian (20) is

$$\hat{H} = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\omega_{\mathbf{k}}}{2} \left( \hat{a}(\mathbf{k}) \hat{a}^\dagger(\mathbf{k}) + \hat{a}^\dagger(\mathbf{k}) \hat{a}(\mathbf{k}) \right). \quad (29)$$

- Further procedure becomes very similar to that applied to the harmonic oscillator (known from the Lecture II) if the continuous momentum  $\mathbf{k}$  is replaced by a set of discrete values  $\{\mathbf{k}_1, \mathbf{k}_2, \mathbf{k}_3, \dots\}$ .

- So, we assume that the field is periodic with the period  $L$  in every direction that is

$$\hat{\phi}(t, \mathbf{x}) = \hat{\phi}(t, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{e}_k L), \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \quad (30)$$

where  $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, 0)$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1, 0)$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_3 = (0, 0, 1)$ .

- The field (25) satisfies the condition (30) if  $e^{\pm i\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{e}_k L} = 1$ . Consequently,  $\mathbf{k}$  takes the discrete values

$$\mathbf{k}_{n_1, n_2, n_3} = \frac{2\pi}{L} (n_1, n_2, n_3), \quad n_k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots \quad (31)$$

- When the discrete values of  $\mathbf{k}$  are used, the integrals over  $\mathbf{k}$  are changed into the sums and the Dirac deltas into the Kronecker deltas

$$\int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \dots \rightarrow \frac{1}{L^3} \sum_i \dots, \quad (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}') \rightarrow L^3 \delta^{ij}, \quad (32)$$

where the triple index  $(n_1, n_2, n_3)$  is replaced by  $i$ .

- We introduce the dimensionless creation and annihilation operators as

$$\hat{a}_i \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{L^3}} \hat{a}(\mathbf{k}_i), \quad \hat{a}_i^\dagger \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{L^3}} \hat{a}^\dagger(\mathbf{k}_i), \quad (33)$$

which obey the relations

$$[\hat{a}_i, \hat{a}_j^\dagger] = \delta^{ij}, \quad (34)$$

$$[\hat{a}_i, \hat{a}_j] = 0, \quad (35)$$

$$[\hat{a}_i^\dagger, \hat{a}_j^\dagger] = 0, \quad (36)$$

obtained from Eqs. (26, 27, 28).

- The Hamiltonian (29) becomes

$$\hat{H} = \sum_i \frac{\omega_i}{2} (\hat{a}_i \hat{a}_i^\dagger + \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i) = \sum_i \omega_i \left( \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i + \frac{1}{2} \right), \quad (37)$$

where  $\omega_i \equiv \sqrt{\mathbf{k}_i^2 + m^2}$ .

- The formula (37) shows that the system's energy is a sum of energies of independent harmonic oscillators.
- We postulate an existence of an energy state  $|E\rangle$  and using the annihilation operators we produce states of lower energies.
- Since the Hamiltonian (37) is positive definite there exists a state of the lowest energy  $|0\rangle$  – the ground state which is called the vacuum state in the quantum field theory.
- An operator  $\hat{A}$  is positive definite if

$$\langle \alpha | \hat{A} | \alpha \rangle \geq 0 \quad (38)$$

for any  $|\alpha\rangle$ .

- Since there is no state of the energy lower than that of  $|0\rangle$ , any annihilation operator  $\hat{a}_i$  annihilates the state that is

$$\hat{a}_i |0\rangle = 0, \quad (39)$$

where the zero in the right-hand-side is the number zero.

- The Hermitian conjugate of Eq. (39) is

$$\langle 0 | \hat{a}_i^\dagger = 0. \quad (40)$$

- The vacuum energy is

$$\langle 0 | \hat{H} | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | \sum_i \omega_i \left( \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i + \frac{1}{2} \right) | 0 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \omega_i, \quad (41)$$

which, as the infinite sum of zero point energies  $\omega_i/2$ , is infinite.

- To eliminate the zero point infinite energy we introduce the normal ordering of operators which requires that annihilation operators are on the right hand side of creation operators.
- The normally ordered Hamiltonian (37) is

$$\hat{H} = \sum_i \omega_i \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i, \quad (42)$$

and  $\langle 0 | \hat{H} | 0 \rangle = 0$ .

- The Fock space is spanned by the states of orthonormal basis  $|n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots\rangle$  which are the energy and particle number eigenstates of the eigenvalues  $\sum_i \omega_i n_i$  and  $\sum_i n_i$ , respectively. It means

$$\hat{H} |n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots\rangle = \left( \sum_i \omega_i n_i \right) |n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots\rangle, \quad (43)$$

$$\hat{N} |n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots\rangle = \left( \sum_i n_i \right) |n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots\rangle, \quad (44)$$

where  $\hat{N} = \sum_i \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{a}_i$ .

- The annihilation and creation operators act as

$$\hat{a}_i |n_1, n_2, \dots, n_i, \dots\rangle = \sqrt{n_i} |n_1, n_2, \dots, n_i - 1, \dots\rangle, \quad (45)$$

$$\hat{a}_i^\dagger |n_1, n_2, \dots, n_i, \dots\rangle = \sqrt{n_i + 1} |n_1, n_2, \dots, n_i + 1, \dots\rangle. \quad (46)$$

- The states  $|n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots\rangle$  can be all obtained from the vacuum state as

$$|n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_1! n_2! n_3!}} (\hat{a}_1^\dagger)^{n_1} (\hat{a}_2^\dagger)^{n_2} (\hat{a}_3^\dagger)^{n_3} \dots |0\rangle. \quad (47)$$

- There can be an unlimited number of particles of a given momentum  $\mathbf{k}_i$  in the state  $|n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots\rangle$ . Therefore, the real scalar field quantized by means of the commutation relations describes a system of bosons – particles which obey the Bose-Einstein statistics.