

# The Vacuum and normal ordering

Tong 2.3

There are actually two sources of divergence here

- infrared (IR)  $\swarrow$  IR = long wavelength = large scale

The Hamiltonian will give an infinite vacuum energy:

$$H|0\rangle = \underbrace{\int \frac{d^3\vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\omega_{\vec{p}}}{2} (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{0})}_{\text{infinite "E}_0\text{"}} |0\rangle$$

Q: what happened to the other term in H?

and the  $\delta^{(3)}(\vec{0})$  part of this comes from the fact we've assumed the Universe is infinitely large. We can deal with this by using a finite box

$$(2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{0}) = \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} d^3\vec{x} e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} \Big|_{\vec{p}=\vec{0}} = \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} d^3\vec{x} = V$$

↑  
volume of our box

and studying the energy density

$$E_0 = \frac{E_0}{V} = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\omega_{\vec{p}}}{2}$$

but this is still infinite!

← UV = short wavelength = short scale

- ultraviolet (UV)

The integral  $\int d^3\vec{p} \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$  diverges at  $|\vec{p}| \rightarrow \infty$ .

This UV divergence arises because we have assumed our theory is valid up to some arbitrarily large momentum (small distance scale) - but this is almost certainly not true, so we can remove this divergence by introducing a cutoff

$$\int d^3\vec{p} \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} = \int d\Omega_3 \int_0^\infty dp \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} \stackrel{\rightarrow = 4\pi}{=} \infty$$

$$\rightarrow 4\pi \int_0^\Lambda dp \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} = 2\pi \left( \Lambda \cdot \Lambda_m + m^2 \log\left(\frac{\Lambda + \Lambda_m}{m}\right) \right)$$

$\Lambda_m \equiv \sqrt{\Lambda^2 + m^2}$

$\Lambda$  is our cutoff

Note that this result now depends on the cutoff. The method for dealing with this is called renormalisation and is a topic for next semester.

A more "practical" way to handle these infinities is to introduce normal ordering.

A normal ordered string of operators has all annihilation operators on the right.

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

↑ ↑  
symbol for normal ordering

↑  
Generally justified "because we only measure energy differences"

← normal ordered operators acting on the vacuum tend to give zero, because the annihilation operators act directly on the vacuum.

Tony discusses a counterexample, the Casimir effect, but

Our Hamiltonian satisfies

$$[H, a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger}] = \omega_{\vec{p}} a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger}$$

$$[H, a_{\vec{p}}] = -\omega_{\vec{p}} a_{\vec{p}}$$

so when we act on the vacuum, we get exactly what we expect:

- create a state with momentum  $\vec{p}$  ( $|\vec{p}\rangle = \sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{p}}} a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} |0\rangle$ )

- state has energy

$$H |\vec{p}\rangle = \omega_{\vec{p}} |\vec{p}\rangle \quad \text{with} \quad \omega_{\vec{p}} = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$$

↑ relativistic momentum eigenstate!

We can create multiparticle states by acting multiple times on the vacuum

$$|\vec{p}_1, \dots, \vec{p}_n\rangle \propto a_{\vec{p}_1}^{\dagger} \dots a_{\vec{p}_n}^{\dagger} |0\rangle$$

↑ commute, so  $|\vec{p}_1, \vec{p}_2\rangle = |\vec{p}_2, \vec{p}_1\rangle$   
 $\Rightarrow$  bosons!

The set of all  $|p\rangle, |p_1, p_2\rangle, \dots$  is called a Fock space.

number operator

We can also introduce the operators

$$\bullet N = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} a_{\vec{p}}$$

$$N |\vec{p}_1, \dots, \vec{p}_n\rangle = n |\vec{p}_1, \dots, \vec{p}_n\rangle$$

$$\bullet P^i = - \int d^3\vec{x} \pi \nabla^i \phi = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} p^i a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} a_{\vec{p}}$$

total momentum operator

# Time dependence

So far, we have been working with equal-time commutation relations and treated time evolution as separate from the spatial dependence. This is not ideal in a relativistic theory. In fact, we have been working in the Schrödinger picture, where the one-particle states evolve with time.

$$\leftarrow \frac{d}{dt} |\bar{p}\rangle_t = H |\bar{p}\rangle_t \Rightarrow |\bar{p}\rangle_t = e^{-i\omega_p t} |\bar{p}\rangle_0$$

We want to work with a Lorentz covariant theory, so it is better to work in the Heisenberg picture, in which the operators depend on time as well as space

Recall  $O_H(t) = e^{iHt} O_S e^{-iHt}$  ← Schrödinger picture

with  $\frac{d}{dt} O_H(t) = i [H, O_H]$

↑ Heisenberg picture      ↑ Hamiltonian

We don't usually bother with subscripts, we write  $\phi(x)$  or  $\phi(\bar{x})$ .

In the case of our field operators, we know that the creation/annihilation operators are simple harmonic oscillators so they depend on time as

$$a_p(t) = e^{-i\omega_p t} a_p$$
$$a_p^\dagger(t) = e^{i\omega_p t} a_p^\dagger$$

Q: why the change of sign with respect to  $\phi(\bar{x})$ ?

$$\Rightarrow \phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3\bar{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_p}} (a_p e^{-ip \cdot x} + a_p^\dagger e^{ip \cdot x})$$

We can now calculate the equation of motion for our time-dependent free field

$$i \partial_t \phi = [\phi, :H:] = \pi$$

$$\begin{aligned} i \partial_t \phi &= i \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{p}}}} \left( a_{\vec{p}} (-i\omega_{\vec{p}}) e^{-i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} + a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} (i\omega_{\vec{p}}) e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} \right) \\ &= \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \sqrt{\frac{\omega_{\vec{p}}}{2}} \left( a_{\vec{p}} e^{-i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} + a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} e^{i\vec{p}\cdot\vec{x}} \right) \\ &\quad \uparrow = \pi(\vec{x}) \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

and

$$[\phi, :H:] = \int \frac{d^3 \vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{p}}}} \left[ \omega_{\vec{p}} a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} a_{\vec{p}}, a_{\vec{k}} e^{-i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}} + a_{\vec{k}}^{\dagger} e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}} \right]$$

$$= \int \frac{d^3 \vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{p}}}} \left\{ \omega_{\vec{p}} [a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} a_{\vec{p}}, a_{\vec{k}}] e^{-i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}} + \omega_{\vec{p}} [a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} a_{\vec{p}}, a_{\vec{k}}^{\dagger}] e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}} \right\}$$

$$\left( \begin{aligned} [ab, c] &= a[b, c] + [a, c]b \\ \text{and } [a_{\vec{p}}, a_{\vec{k}}] &= [a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger}, a_{\vec{k}}^{\dagger}] = 0 \end{aligned} \right)$$

$$= \int \frac{d^3 \vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \sqrt{\frac{\omega_{\vec{p}}}{2}} \left\{ [a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger}, a_{\vec{k}}] a_{\vec{p}} e^{-i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}} + a_{\vec{p}}^{\dagger} [a_{\vec{p}}, a_{\vec{k}}^{\dagger}] e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}} \right\}$$

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

clearly equal to  $i \partial_t \phi$ !

Similarly, one can show that

try it! (or see Tong page 35)

$$\begin{aligned} i \partial_t \pi &= [\pi, :H:] \\ &= (\vec{\nabla}^2 - m^2) \phi \end{aligned}$$

Note that these Heisenberg equations of motion are completely consistent with the Klein-Gordon equation:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \partial_+ \phi &= \pi \\ \partial_+ \pi &= (\bar{\nabla}^2 - m^2) \phi \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} \partial_+ (\partial_+ \phi) &= \partial_+ \pi \\ &= (\bar{\nabla}^2 - m^2) \phi \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{(\partial_+^2 - \bar{\nabla}^2 + m^2)}_{(\partial^2 + m^2)} \phi = 0$$

Our two pictures of the operators agree at a fixed time, say  $t=0$ . The commutation relations we have introduced are equal-time commutation relations, so they apply equally to both pictures, provided we work at a fixed time. We will study how this changes when we introduce interactions later in the course.

## Complex scalar field

Schwarz 8.4, 9.11

Tong 2.5

Before we look at quantising spinor fields, which embed spin- $1/2$  particles, let's look at a different kind of scalar field - the complex scalar field.

The complex scalar field can be treated as two independent real fields

two real fields  
↓

either  $\phi(x) = \phi_1(x) + i\phi_2(x)$   
or  $\phi(x)$  and  $\phi^*(x)$

two degrees of freedom  
↑

We quantise our complex scalar as

$$\phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_p}} (a_p e^{-ip \cdot x} + b_p^\dagger e^{ip \cdot x})$$

and

$$\phi^*(x) = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_p}} (a_p^\dagger e^{ip \cdot x} + b_p e^{-ip \cdot x})$$

the full picture here requires coupling to a photon to see that the particle and antiparticle couple with opposite signs.

comparing these we see  $b_p^\dagger$  creates particles while  $a_p^\dagger$  creates antiparticles of the same mass

"particle travelling backwards in time"

An equivalent way to write this is

$$\phi_1(x) = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}_1}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_{p_1}}} (a_{p_1,1} e^{-ip_1 \cdot x} + a_{p_1,1}^\dagger e^{ip_1 \cdot x})$$

$$\phi_2(x) = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}_2}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_{p_2}}} (a_{p_2,2} e^{-ip_2 \cdot x} + a_{p_2,2}^\dagger e^{ip_2 \cdot x})$$

this is like a polarisation vector

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\phi}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1(x) \\ \phi_2(x) \end{pmatrix} = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}_i}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_p}} \sum_{j=1}^2 (\vec{\epsilon}_j a_{p,i,j} e^{-ip \cdot x} + \vec{\epsilon}_j a_{p,i,j}^\dagger e^{ip \cdot x})$$

$\vec{\epsilon}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \vec{\epsilon}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

## A summary

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \tilde{\phi} \partial^\mu \tilde{\phi} - m^2 \tilde{\phi}^2) \Rightarrow (\partial^2 + m^2) \tilde{\phi}^2 = 0 \quad \text{Klein-Gordon eq.}$$

Real scalar field

$$\hat{\phi}(\vec{x}, t) = \int \frac{d^3 \vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2E_{\vec{k}}}} \left( e^{-ik_\mu x^\mu} \hat{a}(\vec{k}) + e^{ik_\mu x^\mu} \hat{a}^\dagger(\vec{k}) \right)$$

with conjugate momentum

$$\hat{\pi}(\vec{x}, t) = -i \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\sqrt{E_{\vec{k}}}}{2} \left( e^{-ik_\mu x^\mu} \hat{a}(\vec{k}) - e^{ik_\mu x^\mu} \hat{a}^\dagger(\vec{k}) \right)$$

satisfy

$$[\hat{\phi}(\vec{x}, t), \hat{\pi}(\vec{y}, t)] = i \delta^{(3)}(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) \quad [\hat{a}(\vec{k}), \hat{a}^\dagger(\vec{p})] = (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k} - \vec{p})$$

- Single particle states are  $|\vec{k}\rangle = \hat{a}^\dagger(\vec{k})|0\rangle$   
and satisfy  $\langle p|k\rangle = 2E_k (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{p} - \vec{k})$

• Useful operators

- Hamiltonian 
$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3 \vec{x} \left( \hat{\pi}^2 + \tilde{\phi} (-\nabla^2 + m^2) \tilde{\phi} \right)$$

$$\hat{H} = \int \frac{d^3 \vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} E_{\vec{k}} \hat{a}^\dagger(\vec{k}) \hat{a}(\vec{k})$$

satisfies  $[\hat{H}, \hat{a}^{(\dagger)}] = E_{\vec{k}} \hat{a}^{(\dagger)}$

$$\hat{H}|\vec{k}\rangle = E_{\vec{k}}|\vec{k}\rangle$$

- Momentum operator

$$\hat{P}^i = - \int d^3 \vec{x} \hat{\pi} \nabla^i \tilde{\phi}$$

$$\hat{P}^i = \int \frac{d^3 \vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} k^i \hat{a}^\dagger(\vec{k}) \hat{a}(\vec{k})$$

satisfies  $[\hat{P}^i, \tilde{\phi}] = i \nabla^i \tilde{\phi}$

$$\hat{P}|\vec{k}\rangle = \vec{k}|\vec{k}\rangle$$

- Counting operator

$$\hat{N} = \int \frac{d^3 \vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} \hat{a}^\dagger(\vec{k}) \hat{a}(\vec{k})$$

satisfies  $[\hat{H}, \hat{N}] = 0$

$$\hat{N}|\vec{p}_1, \dots, \vec{p}_n\rangle = n|\vec{p}_1, \dots, \vec{p}_n\rangle$$