5 Scalar fields

5.1 Kallen-Lehmann representation of a two-point function

Consider for simplicity the case of one particle with mass m and spin 0. Suppose that, at each point x, we can define a hermitian operator $\phi(x)$, a quantum field. If we change coordinates, $x \to x' = \Omega(\Lambda, a)x$, then physical states will change accordingly

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow |\psi'\rangle = U(\Lambda, a)|\psi\rangle$$

What is then $\phi(x')$? We impose it is a scalar field, i.e. its expectation values do not change with coordinates

$$\langle \chi' | \phi(x') | \psi' \rangle = \langle \chi | U^{-1}(\Lambda, a) \phi(x') U(\Lambda, a) | \psi \rangle = \langle \chi | \phi(x) | \psi \rangle.$$

This gives the transformation rule

$$\phi(x') = U(\Lambda, a)\phi(x)U^{-1}(\Lambda, a) \,.$$

In particular, note that

$$\phi(x+a) = e^{iP_{\mu}a^{\mu}}\phi(x)e^{-iP_{\mu}a^{\mu}}.$$

Consider now the vacuum expectation value of the commutator of two scalar hermitian quantum fields at two different space-time points x and y:

$$G(x - y) \equiv \langle 0 | [\phi(x), \phi(y)] | 0 \rangle.$$

The fact that G depends only on the difference x - y is a consequence of the invariance of the vacuum under translations, in fact

$$\langle 0|\phi(x)\phi(y)|0\rangle = \langle 0|e^{iP\cdot x}\phi(0)e^{-iP\cdot x}e^{iP\cdot y}\phi(0)e^{-iP\cdot y}|0\rangle = \langle 0|\phi(0)e^{-iP\cdot (x-y)}\phi(0)|0\rangle.$$

We study then the function

$$G(x) = \langle 0 | [\phi(x), \phi(0)] | 0 \rangle.$$

We insert between the two fields a complete set of states:

$$\mathbb{1} = \sum_{n} |n\rangle \langle n| = |0\rangle \langle 0| + \int \frac{d^{3}\vec{p}}{(2\pi)^{3} 2E_{\vec{p}}} |\vec{p}\rangle \langle \vec{p}| + \dots$$

and we get

$$\begin{split} \langle 0|\phi(x)\phi(0)|0\rangle &= \sum_{n} \langle 0|\phi(x)|n\rangle \langle n|\phi(0)|0\rangle \\ &= \sum_{n} \langle 0|e^{iP\cdot x}\phi(0)e^{-iP\cdot x}|n\rangle \langle n|\phi(0)|0\rangle = \sum_{n} e^{-ip_{n}\cdot x}|\langle 0|\phi(0)|n\rangle|^{2} \,. \end{split}$$

This gives

$$\langle 0|[\phi(x),\phi(0)]|0\rangle \sum_{n} \left(e^{-ip_n \cdot x} - e^{ip_n \cdot x}\right) |\langle 0|\phi(0)|n\rangle|^2 = \int \frac{d^4q}{(2\pi)^3} \left(e^{-iq \cdot x} - e^{iq \cdot x}\right) \tilde{\rho}(q) \,,$$

where

$$\tilde{\rho}(q) = (2\pi)^3 \sum_{n} \delta^4(q - p_n) |\langle 0|\phi(0)|n\rangle|^2$$

We now use the fact that the eigenvalues of P^2 and P^0 are non-negative, and that $\tilde{\rho}(q)$ is invariant under proper orthochronous Lorentz transformations, to recast $\tilde{\rho}(q)$ in terms of a spectral density $\rho(q^2)$, as follows:

$$\tilde{\rho}(q) = \rho(q^2)\Theta(q^0)$$
.

This implies

$$\langle 0|[\phi(x),\phi(0)]|0\rangle = \int \frac{d^4q}{(2\pi)^3} \left(e^{-iq\cdot x} - e^{iq\cdot x}\right)\rho(q^2)\Theta(q^0)$$

We now change variable to $\mu^2 \equiv q^2$, and obtain the *Kallen-Lehmann* representation of the vacuum expectation value of the commutator of two scalar fields at different space-time points

$$\langle 0 | [\phi(x), \phi(0)] | 0 \rangle = \int_0^\infty d\mu^2 \, \rho(\mu^2) \, i \Delta(x, \mu^2) \, d\mu^2 \, \phi(\mu^2) \, d\mu^2 \, d\mu^2 \, \phi(\mu^2) \, d\mu^2 \, d\mu^$$

The function $\Delta(x, \mu^2)$ is defined as

$$i\Delta(x,\mu^2) = \int \frac{d^4q}{(2\pi)^3} \left(e^{-iq\cdot x} - e^{iq\cdot x} \right) \Theta(q^0) \delta(q^2 - \mu^2) = \int \frac{d^4q}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-iq\cdot x} \epsilon(q^0) \,,$$

with $\epsilon(q^0) \equiv \Theta(q^0) - \Theta(-q^0)$ the sign of q^0 . The function $\Delta(x, \mu^2)$ has a set of remarkable propertiess

(i) $(\Box + \mu^2)\Delta(x, \mu^2) = 0;$

(ii)
$$\Delta(\Lambda x, \mu^2) = \Delta(x, \mu^2)$$
 if $\Lambda \in L^{\uparrow}_+$;

(iii)
$$\Delta(x,\mu^2)$$
 is a function of x^2 and $\epsilon(x^0)$ only:

(iv)
$$\Delta(x, \mu^2) = -\Delta(-x, \mu^2);$$

(v)
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^0} \Delta(x-y,\mu^2)|_{x^0=y^0} = -\delta^3(\vec{x}-\vec{y});$$

(vi)
$$\Delta(x, \mu^2) = 0$$
 if $x^2 < 0$.

Property (vi) ensures that the commutator of two fields at points separated by a space-like distance, i.e. that cannot be connected by a light-ray, vanishes. This ensures the *causality* of the theory.

Let us isolate the contribution of one-particle states

$$|\langle 0|\phi(0)|1\rangle|^2 = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3 2E_{\vec{p}}} |\langle 0|\phi(0)|\vec{p}\rangle|^2 \,.$$

Since $\phi(x)$ is a scalar quantum field

$$\langle 0|\phi(0)|\vec{p}\rangle = \sqrt{Z_{\phi}}$$
 (independent of \vec{p}).

This gives

$$(2\pi)^{3}\delta^{4}(q-p_{1})|\langle 0|\phi(0)|1\rangle|^{2} = \frac{Z_{\phi}}{2E_{\vec{q}}}\delta(q^{0}-E_{\vec{q}})\Theta(q^{0}) = Z_{\phi}\delta(q^{2}-m^{2})\Theta(q^{0}).$$

This, and the fact that, for states with more than one particle, $\mu^2 \ge (2m)^2$, gives the final form of the K'allen-Lehmann representation for the vacuum expectation value of the commutator of two scalar fields:

$$\langle 0|[\phi(x),\phi(y)]|0\rangle = iZ_{\phi}\,\Delta(x-y,m^2) + \int_{4\mu^2}^{\infty} d\mu^2\rho(\mu^2)\,i\Delta(x-y,\mu^2)$$

Suppose that $\phi(x)$ is normalised so as to satisfy *canonical commutation rules*

$$[\dot{\phi}(x), \phi(y)]|_{x^0=y^0} = -i\delta^3(\vec{x}-\vec{y}).$$

We then obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^0} \langle 0|[\phi(x),\phi(y)]|0\rangle|_{x^0=y^0} &= -i\delta^3(\vec{x}-\vec{y}) \\ &= \left(Z_\phi + \int_{4\mu^2}^\infty d\mu^2 \rho(\mu^2)\right) - i\delta^3(\vec{x}-\vec{y}) \,. \end{aligned}$$

This gives the normalisation condition

$$1 = Z_{\phi} + \int_{4\mu^2}^{\infty} d\mu^2 \rho(\mu^2) \,.$$

Since $\rho(\mu^2)$ is non-negative, and Z_{ϕ} is by construction non-negative, we obtain the constraint $0 \leq Z_{\phi} \leq 1$. If $Z_{\phi} = 1$, then the field $\phi(x)$ creates states that do not overlap with two- or more-particle states. It is therefore a *free field*.

Infinitesimal transformations.

5.2 Free scalar fields

Consider now a free quantum scalar field $\phi(x)$, satisfying

$$U(\Lambda, a)\phi(x)U^{-1}(\Lambda, a) = \phi(\Lambda x + a),$$

with the additional condition

$$\langle 0 | \phi(0) | \vec{p} \rangle = 1 \implies \langle 0 | \phi(x) | \vec{p} \rangle = e^{-i p \cdot x} \, .$$

The effect of this field is to transform $|\vec{p}\rangle$ into the vacuum. We then construct an *annihilation operator* $a(\vec{p})$ that "destroys" a particle of momentum \vec{p} , as follows:

$$\begin{split} a(\vec{p})|0\rangle &= 0 \,, \\ a(\vec{p})|\vec{p}'\rangle &= (2\pi)^3 2 E_{\vec{p}} \delta^3 (\vec{p}-\vec{p}')|0\rangle \,. \end{split}$$

Given this operator, a free hermitian scalar quantum field $\phi(x)$ is given by

$$\phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^2 2E_{\vec{p}}} \left(e^{-ip \cdot x} a(\vec{p}) + e^{ip \cdot x} a^{\dagger}(\vec{p}) \right) \,.$$

From the definition of an adjoint operator, we get that $a^{\dagger}(\vec{p})$ "creates" a particle of momentum \vec{p} , as follows

$$a^{\dagger}(\vec{p})|0\rangle = |\vec{p}\rangle,$$

and is therefore called *creation operator*. We can construct two-particle states by successive application of creation operators

$$a^{\dagger}(\vec{p_1})a^{\dagger}(\vec{p_2})|0\rangle = a^{\dagger}(\vec{p_1})|\vec{p_2}\rangle = |\vec{p_1},\vec{p_2}\rangle.$$

How is $|\vec{p_1}, \vec{p_2}\rangle$ related to $|\vec{p_2}, \vec{p_1}\rangle = a^{\dagger}(\vec{p_1})a^{\dagger}(\vec{p_2})|0\rangle$? This depends on the relation between $a^{\dagger}(\vec{p_1})a^{\dagger}(\vec{p_2})$ and $a^{\dagger}(\vec{p_1})a^{\dagger}(\vec{p_2})$. If we impose commutation relations

$$[a(\vec{p}), a(\vec{p}')] = 0$$
, and $[a(\vec{p}), a^{\dagger}(\vec{p}')] = (2\pi)^3 2E_{\vec{p}}\delta^3(\vec{p} - \vec{p}')$,

we obtain $\langle 0|[\phi(x),\phi(y)]|0\rangle = 0$ if $(x-y)^2 < 0$, which preserves causality. These commutation relations imply

$$\left|\vec{p}_{2},\vec{p}_{1}\right\rangle = \left|\vec{p}_{1},\vec{p}_{2}\right\rangle,$$

which implies these particles are bosons.

We now construct an operator that gives us the total energy of a state $|\vec{p_1}, \vec{p_2}, \ldots, p_N\rangle$. This is the Hamiltonian

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

$$H|\vec{p}_1, \vec{p}_2, \dots, p_N\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N E_{\vec{p}_i} |\vec{p}_1, \vec{p}_2, \dots, p_N\rangle \implies \langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle \ge 0$$

.

Also, a direct calculation yields

 $[H, \phi(x)] = -i\partial_0\phi(x) \implies H = P_0 \text{ (generator of time translations)}.$

Similarly, we can construct the *momentum operator*:

$$\vec{P} = \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^2 2E_{\vec{p}}} \vec{p} \, a^{\dagger}(\vec{p}) a(\vec{p}) \, .$$

If we build the operator $P^{\mu} \equiv (H, \vec{P})$, we obtain $[P^{\mu}, \phi(x)] = -i\partial^{\mu}\phi(x)$, which means that P^{μ} is the generator of translations. Similarly, $J_{\mu\nu} = x_{\mu}P_{\nu} - x_{\nu}P_{\mu}$ is the generator of Lorentz transformations, and since these particles have spin zero, there is no other contribution to $J_{\mu\nu}$. Consistently, $W_{\mu} = 0$. Note that this representation of fields is a appropriate for both massive and massless particles.

A direct computation show that the Hamiltonian H can be expressed in terms of a Hamiltonian density $\mathcal{H}(x)$ as follows:

$$H = \int d^{3}\mathcal{H}(x) , \qquad \mathcal{H}(x) = \frac{1}{2}\dot{\phi}^{2} + \frac{1}{2}(\vec{\nabla}\phi)^{2} + \frac{1}{2}m^{2}\phi^{2} \dots$$

where the dots give a constant contribution to the energy, which we can neglect. Since $\mathcal{H}(x)$ can be expressed in terms of local fields

$$[\phi(x), \phi(y)] = 0$$
, $(x - y)^2 < 0 \implies [\mathcal{H}(x), \mathcal{H}(y)] = 0$, $(x - y)^2 < 0$.

Therefore, Hamilitonian densities made of local operators are causal.

Last, we observe that $\phi(x)$ satisfies the equation $(\Box + m^2)\phi(x) = 0$. But this is the classical equation of motion obtained from the most general Lorentz-invariant quadratic Lagrangian for a classical scalar field:

$$\mathcal{L} = c_1(\partial_\mu \phi)(\partial^\mu \phi) + c_2 \phi^2 \,,$$

by computing the corresponding equations of motions, and setting

$$c_1 = \frac{1}{2}, \quad c_2 = -\frac{1}{2}m^2$$

In fact, one could start from \mathcal{L} , solve the corresponding equation of motion, and promote the solution $\phi(x)$ to an operator by introducing the operators of creation and annihilation, and interpreting their action as before. Such a procedure is called *canonical quantisation*. Note that, if we wish to interpret the solutions of a classical Lagrangian as a quantum field, we obtain important constraints on the coefficients c_1 and c_2 . In fact, from the Lagrangian, we can compute the Hamiltonian density as follows

$$\pi(x) \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_0 \phi(x))}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{H} = \pi \dot{\phi} - \mathcal{L}.$$

In the present case

$$\pi(x) = \dot{\phi}$$
, and $\mathcal{H} = c_1 \pi^2 + c_1 (\vec{\nabla} \phi)^2 - c_2 \phi^2$.

If the term containing π^2 is to be interpreted as the kinetic energy, we must have $c_1 > 0$. Also, if we want that the energy is bounded from below, we need to have $c_2 < 0$. The actual value $c_2 = -m^2 c_1$ is set by imposing that this quantised Hamiltonian is the energy of particles of mass m.