

The Free Klein Gordon Field Theory

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Abstract

A single-particle relativistic theory turns out to be inadequate for many situations. Thus, we begin to develop a multi-particle relativistic description of quantum mechanics starting from classical analogies. We start with a Lagrangian description, and use it to build a Hamiltonian description we can then quantize. We then illustrate the decomposition of the field into its positive and negative energy components, and define the creation and annihilation operators.

1 Introduction

Relativistic quantum mechanics turns out to be inadequately described by a single-particle theory. One of the primary reasons for this is that a relativistic particle may have enough energy to create other particles, and thus any theory describing it must account for this.

A theory which describes an infinite-degree-of-freedom system could be built out of a function defined over allersystebuitoile5205tow8(era7(y)-4408(bsuc7(y)hTJ 0 -11.955 Td [(pais.ng-44

We will assume there exists an action S defined as normal, which we can write in terms of L :

$$S = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} dt L = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} dt d^{\beta} x L = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} d^{\alpha} x L \quad (2)$$

We will further assume that L depends only on the field variable and its first derivative, i.e.

$$L = L(x; \dot{x}) \quad (3)$$

Now we will change the field arbitrarily and infinitesimally to find what conditions will result in a stationary action

$$\delta x \neq 0 \quad \delta L(x) = \delta L(x) + \delta L(x) \quad (4)$$

and apply the vanishing boundary condition

$$\delta x(t_i) = \delta x(t_f) = 0 \quad (5)$$

Now we can look at an infinitesimal change in S :

$$\delta S = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} d^{\alpha} x \delta L \quad (6)$$

We can expand this using the total derivative of L :

$$= \int_{t_i}^{t_f} d^{\alpha} x \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \delta \dot{x} \right)$$

We will pick the Lagrangian density

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 - \frac{1}{2} m^2 x^2 \quad (11)$$

This choice can be motivated by looking at the Lagrangian for a classical harmonic oscillator,

$$L = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 - \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 x^2 \quad (12)$$

We see that if we treat x as x , \dot{x} is analogous to v , and doing so gives us (11).

Evaluating both sides to be

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = -m^2 x \quad (13a)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} = \dot{x} \quad (13b)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{x}} \dot{x}^2 + \frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{x}} \left(-\frac{1}{2} m^2 x^2 \right) \quad (13c)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (2 \dot{x}) \quad (13d)$$

$$= \dot{x} \quad (13e)$$

$$= \dot{x} \quad (13f)$$

with the Hamiltonian itself defined as

$$H = \int d^3x H \quad (17)$$

Clearly, these are defined very similarly to their classical definitions.

equations with :

$$\begin{aligned}
 -\dot{x} &= \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left(\frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{y}^2 + \frac{1}{2} (r(y) - r'(y))^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{x}^2 \right) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left(\frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{x}^2 + f(x); \dot{y}^2 g_{x^0=y^0} \right) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left(\frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{x}^2 + f(x); \dot{y}^2 g_{x^0=y^0} \right) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left(\frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{x}^2 + f(x); \dot{y}^2 g_{x^0=y^0} \right) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left(\frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{x}^2 + f(x); \dot{y}^2 g_{x^0=y^0} \right) \\
 &= \dot{x} \tag{25}
 \end{aligned}$$

Here we have used that the Hamiltonian is time-independent, so we can assert that $x^0 = y^0$, allowing us to use the equal-time relation (19). We can go through a similar process to find - :

$$\begin{aligned}
 -\dot{x} &= \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left(\frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{y}^2 + \frac{1}{2} (r(y) - r'(y))^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{x}^2 \right) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left(\frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{x}^2 + f(x); \dot{y}^2 g_{x^0=y^0} \right) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left(\frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{x}^2 + f(x); \dot{y}^2 g_{x^0=y^0} \right) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} \left(\frac{1}{2} m^2 \dot{x}^2 + f(x); \dot{y}^2 g_{x^0=y^0} \right) \\
 &= \dot{x} \tag{26}
 \end{aligned}$$

These first-order Hamilton equations give us the second-order equation

$$\begin{aligned}
 \ddot{x} &= -\dot{x} = r^2(x) - m^2(x) \\
 &= \left(\ddot{x} - r^2(x) \right) + \frac{1}{m} \left(\ddot{x} \right) \text{ equations}
 \end{aligned}$$

4 Field Decomposition

The following plane wave equation set forms a complete basis for solutions to the Klein-Gordon equation [1]:

$$\phi(x) = e^{ikx} \quad (30)$$

We can use this basis to expand $\phi(x)$ in this basis:

$$\phi(x) = C \int d^4k e^{ikx} \tilde{\phi}(k) \quad ; \quad C = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} \quad (31)$$

This is essentially a Fourier transform of $\tilde{\phi}(k)$, with C introduced for later convenience. We can now plug this into the Klein-Gordon equation:

$$\begin{aligned} C \int d^4k (\partial_\mu \partial^\mu + m^2) e^{ikx} \tilde{\phi}(k) &= 0 \\ \int d^4k (\partial_\mu \partial^\mu + m^2) e^{ikx} \tilde{\phi}(k) &= 0 \\ \int d^4k (k^2 + m^2) \tilde{\phi}(k) e^{ikx} &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

So at least one of the following must be true:

$$k^2 = m^2 \quad (33)$$

$$\tilde{\phi}(k) = 0 \quad (34)$$

So, $\tilde{\phi}$ is only non-vanishing when $k^2 = m^2$; we'll define $\tilde{\phi}$ in the following way to capture this:

$$\tilde{\phi}(k) = \delta(k^2 - m^2) \tilde{\phi}(k)$$

Now we can plug this new form into (35b):

$$\begin{aligned}
 \psi(x) &= C \int d^3k \frac{1}{2E_k} (k^0 - E_k) e^{i(k^0 x^0 - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})} a(k^0; \mathbf{k}) \\
 &+ C \int d^3k \frac{1}{2E_k} e^{i(E_k x^0 + \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})} a(E_k; \mathbf{k}) + e^{i(E_k x^0 + \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})} a(-E_k; \mathbf{k}) \quad (39)
 \end{aligned}$$

We will replace E_k with k^0 and switch \mathbf{k} to $-\mathbf{k}$ in the second term to obtain

$$\psi(x) = C \int d^3k \frac{1}{2E_k} (k^0 - E_k) e^{i(k^0 x^0 - \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})} a(k^0; \mathbf{k}) + e^{i(k^0 x^0 + \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x})} a(k^0; -\mathbf{k})$$

References

- [1] Ashok Das. *Lectures on Quantum Field Theory*. World Scientific, 2008.
- [2] Ben Saltzman. Second quantization of the klein-gordon equation. 2018.