

# The Caismir Effect

Marcell Howard

August 16, 2025

## 1 Introduction

Here we derive the Caismir effect for a scalar field in Minkowski spacetime by following the derivation in Leonard Parker's textbook *Quantum Field Theory in Curved Spacetime Quantum Fields and Gravity*. The set up for the Caismir effect is two square neutral, conducting plates situated at  $z = 0$  and  $z = a$  whose area  $L^2$  are situated in the  $x - y$  plane. We do it two different ways: solving the Klein-Gordon equation and utilizing the Heat Kernel method. First we solve the Klein-Gordon equation.

**Conventions** We use the mostly plus metric signature, i.e.  $\eta_{\mu\nu} = (-, +, +, +)$  and units where  $c = 1$ . The reduced four dimensional Planck mass is  $M_{\text{Pl}} = (8\pi G)^{-1/2} \approx 2.43 \times 10^{18} \text{ GeV}$ . We use boldface letters  $\mathbf{r}$  to indicate 3-vectors and  $x$  and  $p$  to denote 4-vectors. Conventions for the curvature tensors, covariant and Lie derivatives are all taken from Carroll.

## 2 The Klein-Gordon Equation

We start with a massless scalar field in Minkowski space

$$\square\phi = (-\partial_t^2 + \nabla^2)\phi = 0. \tag{2.1}$$

We use the usual ansatz  $\phi(x) = A_{\mathbf{p}}e^{i(\omega_{\mathbf{p}}t - \mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r})}$ . We have to impose periodic boundary conditions

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi(x+L, y+L, z+a) &= \phi(x, y, z) \Leftrightarrow \exp(i(\omega_{\mathbf{p}}t - (p_x x + p_x L + p_y y + p_y L + p_z z + p_z a))) \\
&= \exp[i(\omega_{\mathbf{p}}t - \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{r})],
\end{aligned} \tag{2.2}$$

which implies the different components of the momenta must satisfy

$$p_x = \frac{2\pi\ell}{L}, \quad p_y = \frac{2\pi m}{L}, \quad p_z = \frac{2\pi n}{a}, \tag{2.3}$$

where  $(\ell, m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^3$ . Plugging this into the Klein-Gordon equation yields

$$\omega_{\ell, m, n}(a) = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2\pi}{L}\right)^2 (\ell^2 + m^2) + \left(\frac{2\pi}{a}\right)^2 n^2}. \tag{2.4}$$

Thus, our solution looks like

$$\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{V}}} \sum_{\ell, m, n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega_{\ell, m, n}}} (\hat{a}_{\ell, m, n} e^{-ip \cdot x} + \hat{a}_{\ell, m, n}^\dagger e^{ip \cdot x}), \quad \mathcal{V} = aL^2. \tag{2.5}$$

Recall that the Hamiltonian (density) is given by

$$\frac{\hat{H}}{\mathcal{V}} = \frac{1}{\mathcal{V}} \sum_{\ell, m, n} \omega_{\ell, m, n}(a) \left( \hat{a}_{\ell, m, n}^\dagger \hat{a}_{\ell, m, n} + \frac{1}{2} \right). \tag{2.6}$$

Thus, the energy density as a function of the spacing of the plates is

$$\rho(a) \equiv \frac{1}{\mathcal{V}} \langle 0 | \hat{H} | 0 \rangle = \frac{1}{2aL^2} \sum_{\ell, m, n} \omega_{\ell, m, n}(a). \tag{2.7}$$

Now this is a badly divergent quantity and we need to regulate this quantity. Therefore we will write

$$\rho(a) = -\frac{1}{2aL^2} \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{d}{d\alpha} \sum_{\ell, m, n} e^{-\alpha \omega_{\ell, m, n}}, \tag{2.8}$$

and define the function

$$S(\alpha, a) \equiv \frac{1}{L^2} \sum_{\ell, m, n} e^{-\alpha \omega_{\ell, m, n}(a)}. \tag{2.9}$$

We shall take the continuum limit in  $p_x, p_y$

$$S(\alpha, a) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \int dp_x \int dp_y \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( p_x^2 + p_y^2 + \left( \frac{2\pi}{a} \right)^2 n^2 \right)^{1/2} \right]. \quad (2.10)$$

Next we move to polar coordinates with  $p_x = p \cos \theta$  and  $p_y = p \sin \theta$

$$S(\alpha, a) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \int_0^\infty dp \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta p \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( p^2 + \left( \frac{2\pi}{a} \right)^2 n^2 \right)^{1/2} \right] \quad (2.11)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \int_0^\infty dp p \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( p^2 + \left( \frac{2\pi}{a} \right)^2 n^2 \right)^{1/2} \right]. \quad (2.12)$$

Now we notice the integrand is an even function in  $n$ . Therefore we can write

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} + \sum_{n=-1}^{-\infty} + \sum_{n=0} = 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} + \sum_{n=0}, \quad (2.13)$$

and we get

$$S(\alpha, a) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{n>0} \int_0^\infty dp p \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( p^2 + \left( \frac{2\pi}{a} \right)^2 n^2 \right)^{1/2} \right] + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty p e^{-\alpha p} dp. \quad (2.14)$$

We can do a u-sub with  $u = \alpha p$  and end up with the Gamma function evaluated at 2 i.e.  $\Gamma(2) = 1!$ . The result is  $1/\alpha^2$ . We also define the function

$$F(n) = \int_0^\infty p \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( p^2 + \left( \frac{2\pi}{a} \right)^2 n^2 \right)^{1/2} \right] dp, \quad (2.15)$$

which simplifies our expression for  $S$  with

$$\pi S(\alpha, a) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(n) + \frac{1}{2} F(0). \quad (2.16)$$

Now we will make use of the Euler-Maclaurin Formula i.e. when  $F(n)$  where  $b \leq n < \infty$  is an analytic function and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(b+n)$  is a convergent sum, then

$$\frac{1}{2} F(b) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(b+n) = \int_b^\infty F(x) dx - \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_{2m}}{(2m)!} F^{(2m-1)}(b), \quad (2.17)$$

where  $B_{2m}$  are the Bernoulli numbers with  $B_2 = 1/6$ ,  $B_4 = -1/30$ , and so on with  $F^{(2m-1)}$  being the  $2m-1$  derivative of  $F$ . Thus, we're left with

$$\pi S(\alpha, a) = \int_0^\infty F(x) dx - \sum_{m=1}^\infty \frac{B_{2m}}{(2m)!} F^{(2m-1)}(0). \quad (2.18)$$

Before proceeding, let's find the explicit form of the function  $F(x)$ :

$$F(x) = \int_0^\infty p \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( p^2 + \left( \frac{2\pi}{a} \right)^2 x^2 \right)^{1/2} \right] dp. \quad (2.19)$$

This integral can be easily solved using a change of variables with  $p^2 \rightarrow p^2 + \left( \frac{2\pi}{a} \right)^2 x^2$  which leads to

$$F(x) = \int_{\frac{2\pi x}{a}}^\infty p e^{-\alpha p} dp. \quad (2.20)$$

We can finish the job using integration by parts with  $u = p$  and  $dv = e^{-\alpha p} dp$

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\alpha} \left[ \frac{2\pi x}{a} + \frac{1}{\alpha} \right] \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( \frac{2\pi x}{a} \right) \right]. \quad (2.21)$$

Looking at the Euler-Maclaurin formula, we need to take some derivatives of  $F(x)$ . The first few derivatives are

$$F'(x) = \left( \frac{2\pi}{a} \right) x \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( \frac{2\pi x}{a} \right) \right], \quad F'(0) = 0, \quad (2.22)$$

$$F'''(x) = \frac{16\pi^3 \alpha}{a^3} \left[ 1 - \frac{\pi \alpha x}{a} \right] \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( \frac{2\pi x}{a} \right) \right], \quad F^{(3)}(0) = 2 \left( \frac{2\pi}{a} \right)^3 \alpha, \quad (2.23)$$

$$F^{(5)}(x) = \frac{64\pi^5 \alpha^3}{a^5} \left[ 2 - \frac{\pi \alpha x}{a} \right] \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( \frac{2\pi x}{a} \right) \right], \quad F^{(5)}(0) = \mathcal{O}(\alpha^3). \quad (2.24)$$

At this point, it's clear that taking higher and higher derivatives of  $F$ , will lead terms proportional to higher powers in  $\alpha$ . Therefore, in the limit where  $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ , they will vanish. Thus, we don't have to bother computing anymore derivatives of  $F$  since they will all be zero by the end. The only terms we need worry about are  $F'$  and  $F^{(3)}$  as they don't vanish in the limit of small  $\alpha$ . In fact, great care must be taken to deal with the divergence that's present in the  $F'$  term. We can compute it's integral now

$$\int_0^\infty F(x) dx = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\alpha} \left[ \frac{2\pi x}{a} + \frac{1}{\alpha} \right] \exp \left[ -\alpha \left( \frac{2\pi x}{a} \right) \right] dx. \quad (2.25)$$

A change of variables to make the exponential function dimensionless would be nice so  $s = \frac{2\pi\alpha x}{a}$  yielding

$$\int_0^\infty F(x) dx = \frac{a}{2\pi\alpha^3} \int_0^\infty (s+1)e^{-s} ds = \frac{a}{2\pi\alpha^3} (\Gamma(2) + \Gamma(1)) = \frac{a}{\pi\alpha^3}, \quad (2.26)$$

where we made use of the  $\Gamma$ -function's properties when  $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$ . Getting back to our original  $S$ -function, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \pi S(\alpha, a) &= \int_0^\infty F(x) dx - \sum_{m=1}^\infty \frac{B_{2m}}{(2m)!} F^{(2m-1)}(0) = \frac{a}{\pi\alpha^3} - \left( \frac{-1/30}{4!} \cdot \frac{16\pi^3\alpha}{a^3} \right) + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^3) \\ &= \frac{a}{\pi\alpha^3} + \frac{\pi^3\alpha}{45a^3} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^3). \end{aligned} \quad (2.27)$$

Thus, we're left with

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial \alpha} = -\frac{3a}{\pi^2\alpha^4} + \frac{\pi^2}{45a^3} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^2). \quad (2.28)$$

Now we can go back to the energy density that we started off calculating

$$\rho(a) = -\frac{1}{2a} \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{\partial S}{\partial \alpha} = -\frac{1}{2a} \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \left[ -\frac{3a}{\pi^2\alpha^4} + \frac{\pi^2}{45a^3} \right]. \quad (2.29)$$

The first term on the left still requires some massaging. We will do so by subtracting away this contribution by taking the  $a \rightarrow \infty$  limit in the following way. First we write the energy density by

$$\rho(a) = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \rho_0(\alpha, a) - \rho_0(\alpha, \infty), \quad \rho_0(\alpha, a) = -\frac{1}{2a} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} S(\alpha, a), \quad (2.30)$$

and the limit at infinity is

$$\rho_0(\alpha, \infty) = \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{1}{2a} \frac{d}{d\alpha} \frac{a}{\pi^2\alpha^3} = \frac{3}{2\pi\alpha^4}. \quad (2.31)$$

Thus, the energy density as a function of the plate separation is just

$$\rho(a) = \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{3}{2\pi^2\alpha^4} - \frac{\pi^2}{90a^4} - \frac{3}{2\pi^2\alpha^4} \right] = -\frac{\pi^2}{90a^4}, \quad (2.32)$$

which is the desired result. The energy density of the Caismir vacuum is negative! This results in an attractive force between the plates.

### 3 The Heat Kernel Method

For the heat kernel method, we seek to quantize a (charged) scalar field,  $\Phi(u, \mathbf{r})$ , in a constant gauge field background

$$F_{\mu\nu} = 0 \Rightarrow A^\mu = a\delta_u^\mu, \quad (3.1)$$

in  $\mathbb{R}^{d-1} \times \mathbb{S}^1$  where  $\mathbb{S}^1$  is the circle. We decompose the manifold in this particular way because we will be imposing periodic boundary conditions on the spatial coordinate  $u$  with periodicity  $L$ . We require the Lagrangian to be single-valued i.e.  $\mathcal{L}(u + L, \mathbf{r}) = \mathcal{L}(u, \mathbf{r})$ . This single-valued-ness on the Lagrangian imposes a constraint on the charged scalar by enforcing that it can only change by a phase<sup>1</sup>

$$\Phi(u + L, \mathbf{r}) = \exp(2\pi i \delta) \Phi(u, \mathbf{r}), \quad (3.2)$$

where  $\delta \in [0, 1)$ . Thus, the heat kernel must satisfy

$$K(\tau; u+L, \mathbf{r}, v, \mathbf{r}') = \exp(2\pi i \delta) K(\tau; u, \mathbf{r}, v, \mathbf{r}'), \quad K(\tau; u, \mathbf{r}, v+L, \mathbf{r}') = \exp(-2\pi i \delta) K(\tau; u, \mathbf{r}, v, \mathbf{r}'). \quad (3.3)$$

We can expand the kernel in a Fourier series in the periodic coordinates  $u, v$ ,

$$K(\tau; u, \mathbf{r}, v, \mathbf{r}') = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} K_n(\tau; \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \exp\left[\frac{2\pi i}{L}(n + \delta)(u - v)\right], \quad (3.4)$$

where we regard  $K_n(\tau; \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}')$  as the Fourier coefficients that satisfy the heat equation for the kernel

$$i \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} K(\tau; \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') = (-D^\mu D_\mu + m^2) K(\tau; \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}'), \quad D_\mu = \partial_\mu - ieA_\mu. \quad (3.5)$$

We can expand out the covariant derivative-squared term

$$\begin{aligned} D_\mu D^\mu &= (\partial_\mu - ieA_\mu)(\partial^\mu - ieA^\mu) = \partial^\mu \partial_\mu - ie\partial^\mu A_\mu - ieA^\mu \partial_\mu - e^2 A^\mu A_\mu \\ &= \square_{d-1} - \partial_u^2 i2iea\partial_u - e^2 a^2 = \square_{d-1} - (\partial_u + iea)^2, \end{aligned} \quad (3.6)$$

and the action this term has on the exponential is

---

<sup>1</sup>This is due to the fact that  $\mathcal{L}$  contains terms like  $\Phi^\dagger \Phi$ .

$$(\partial_u + iea)^2 \exp \left[ \frac{2\pi i}{L}(n + \delta)(u - v) \right] = (\partial_u^2 + 2iea\partial_u - e^2a^2) \exp \left[ \frac{2\pi i}{L}(n + \delta)(u - v) \right] \quad (3.7)$$

$$= - \left( \frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^2 \left[ (n + \delta)^2 - 2(n + \delta) \frac{eaL}{2\pi} + \frac{e^2a^2L^2}{(2\pi)^2} \right] \exp \left[ \frac{2\pi i}{L}(n + \delta)(u - v) \right] \quad (3.8)$$

$$= - \left( \frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^2 \left[ n + \delta + \frac{eaL}{2\pi} \right]^2 \exp \left[ \frac{2\pi i}{L}(n + \delta)(u - v) \right]. \quad (3.9)$$

Thus, acting the covariant derivative on the kernel yields

$$\begin{aligned} & (-D_\mu D^\mu + m^2) K_n(\tau; \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \exp \left[ \frac{2\pi i}{L}(n + \delta)(u - v) \right] \\ &= \left[ -\square_{d-1} + \left( \frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^2 \left[ n + \delta + \frac{eaL}{2\pi} \right]^2 + m^2 \right] K_n(\tau; \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \exp \left[ \frac{2\pi i}{L}(n + \delta)(u - v) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.10)$$

The additional constants can be absorbed into a new definition of the mass

$$m_n^2 \equiv m^2 + \left( \frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^2 \left[ n + \delta + \frac{eaL}{2\pi} \right]^2, \quad (3.11)$$

which reduces the heat equation to the form

$$i \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} K_n(\tau; \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') = [-\square_{d-1} + m_n^2] K_n(\tau; \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}'). \quad (3.12)$$

The right hand side is the equation for a free particle with mass  $m_n^2$ . Therefore, we know what the heat kernel should be

$$K_n(\tau; \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') = \frac{i}{(4\pi i\tau)^{\frac{d-1}{2}}} \exp \left[ -\frac{i}{4\tau} |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|^2 - im_n^2 \tau \right], \quad (3.13)$$

where

$$K_n(\tau; \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \xrightarrow{\tau \rightarrow 0} \delta^{(d-1)}(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'). \quad (3.14)$$

Thus, the complete kernel is

$$K(\tau; u, \mathbf{r}, v, \mathbf{r}') = \frac{i}{(4\pi i\tau)^{\frac{d-1}{2}}} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \exp \left[ -\frac{i}{4\tau} |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|^2 - im_n^2 \tau + \frac{2\pi i}{L}(n + \delta)(u - v) \right]. \quad (3.15)$$

This is a horribly complicated and unwieldy expression. Thankfully we're only interested in the coincident limit i.e.  $v \rightarrow u$ ,  $\mathbf{r}' \rightarrow \mathbf{r}$ ,

$$K(\tau; u, \mathbf{r}, u, \mathbf{r}) = \frac{i}{(4\pi i \tau)^{\frac{d-1}{2}}} \frac{1}{L} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-im_n^2 \tau}, \quad (3.16)$$

which is the much simpler and reasonable expression to evaluate. Now we calculate the effective potential

$$V = i\hbar \int_0^\infty \frac{d\tau}{\tau} K(\tau; u, \mathbf{r}, u, \mathbf{r}) = -\frac{\hbar}{L} \frac{1}{(4\pi i)^{(d-1)/2}} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_0^\infty \tau^{-\frac{d-1}{2}-1} e^{-im_n^2 \tau} d\tau. \quad (3.17)$$

Under a change of variables  $s = im_n^2 \tau$

$$V = \frac{-\hbar}{(4\pi i)^{(d-1)/2} L} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (im_n^2)^{(d-1)/2} \int_0^\infty s^{\frac{1-d}{2}-1} e^{-s} ds, \quad (3.18)$$

it's obvious that this integral is the Gamma function  $\Gamma(z)$  evaluated at  $z = (1-d)/2$  i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} V &= -\frac{\hbar \Gamma(\frac{1-d}{2})}{(4\pi i)^{(d-1)/2}} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ i \left( m^2 + \left( \frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^2 \left( n + \delta + \frac{eaL}{2\pi} \right) \right)^2 \right]^{\frac{d-1}{2}} \\ &= -\frac{\hbar}{L} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1-d}{2})}{(4\pi)^{(d-1)/2}} \left( \frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^{d-1} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ \left( \frac{mL}{2\pi} \right)^2 + \left( n + \delta + \frac{eaL}{2\pi} \right)^2 \right]^{\frac{d-1}{2}}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.19)$$

Now we define the function

$$F(\lambda; \alpha, \beta) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} [(n + \beta)^2 + \alpha^2]^{-\lambda}, \quad (3.20)$$

where

$$\lambda = -\frac{d-1}{2}, \quad \alpha = \frac{mL}{2\pi}, \quad \beta = \delta + \frac{eaL}{2\pi}. \quad (3.21)$$

This sum converges for  $\text{Re}\{\lambda\} > \frac{1}{2}$ ,

$$F(\lambda; \alpha, \beta) = \sqrt{\pi} \frac{\Gamma(\lambda - \frac{1}{2})}{\Gamma(\lambda)} \alpha^{1-2\lambda} + 4 \sin \pi \lambda f_\lambda(\alpha, \beta), \quad (3.22)$$

with



$$f_\lambda(\alpha, \beta) = \text{Re} \int_\alpha^\infty \frac{(x^2 - \alpha^2)^{-\lambda} dx}{\exp(2\pi(x + i\beta)) - 1}. \quad (3.23)$$

Thus, the effective potential becomes

$$\begin{aligned} V &= -\frac{\hbar}{L} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1-d}{2})}{(4\pi)^{(d-1)/2}} \left(\frac{2\pi}{L}\right)^{d-1} \left[ \sqrt{\pi} \frac{\Gamma(-d/2)}{\Gamma(\frac{1-d}{2})} - 4 \sin \frac{\pi(d-1)}{2} f_{(1-d)/2}(\alpha, \beta) \right] \\ &= -\hbar \Gamma\left(-\frac{d}{2}\right) \left(\frac{m^2}{4\pi}\right)^{d/2} - \frac{4\hbar}{L} \left(\frac{\pi}{L^2}\right)^{\frac{d-1}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{1-d}{2}\right) \cos \frac{\pi d}{2} f_{\frac{1-d}{2}}\left(\frac{mL}{2\pi}, \delta + \frac{eaL}{2\pi}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (3.24)$$

The first term is divergent but gets renormalized away via the vacuum energy<sup>2</sup> just like in the flat space case. Thus the renormalized vacuum energy density is

$$V_{\text{ren}}(\delta, d, m, a) = -\frac{4\hbar}{L} \left(\frac{\pi}{L^2}\right)^{\frac{d-1}{2}} \Gamma\left(\frac{1-d}{2}\right) \cos \frac{\pi d}{2} f_{\frac{1-d}{2}}\left(\frac{mL}{2\pi}, \delta + \frac{eaL}{2\pi}\right). \quad (3.25)$$

The Casimir effect corresponds to the case where  $a = m = 0$  and  $\delta = 0$  for a (complex) scalar field and  $\delta = 1/2$  for a spin-1/2 field. The function  $f$  becomes

$$f_{\frac{1-d}{2}}(0, 0) = \int_0^\infty \frac{(x^2 - 0)^{\frac{d-1}{2}}}{\exp(2\pi x) - 1} dx = \int_0^\infty \frac{x^{d-1}}{e^{2\pi x} - 1} dx. \quad (3.26)$$

We can do an integral substitution,  $s = 2\pi x$ , to make the argument in the exponential to be dimensionless

$$f_{\frac{1-d}{2}}(0, 0) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int_0^\infty \frac{s^{d-1}}{e^s - 1} ds = \frac{\zeta(d)\Gamma(d)}{(2\pi)^d}, \quad (3.27)$$

where  $\zeta(d)$  and  $\Gamma(d)$  are given by

$$\zeta(d) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{n^d}, \quad \Gamma(d) = \int_0^\infty s^{d-1} e^{-s} ds. \quad (3.28)$$

For  $d = 4$ ,  $\zeta(4) = \frac{\pi^4}{90}$ ,  $\Gamma(4) = 3!$

$$f_{-\frac{3}{2}}(0, 0) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{\pi^4}{90} \cdot 3! = \frac{1}{2^4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}. \quad (3.29)$$

Recalling one of the special formulas for the Gamma function

---

<sup>2</sup>It's proportional to an overall constant so the only thing we *could* renormalize it would be another divergent constant a la the vacuum energy.

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2} - n\right) = \frac{(-2)^n \sqrt{\pi}}{(2n-1)!!} = \frac{(-4)^n n! \sqrt{\pi}}{(2n)!}, \quad (3.30)$$

the renormalized vacuum energy density for the two cases are then

$$V_{\text{ren}}(\delta = 0) = -\frac{4\hbar}{L} \left(\frac{\pi}{L^2}\right)^{3/2} \frac{4}{3} \sqrt{\pi} \frac{1}{240} = -\frac{\pi^2 \hbar}{45 L^4}. \quad (3.31)$$

We can do the same calculation for spin-1/2 particles but with  $\beta = 1/2$ . The function  $f$  becomes

$$f_{\frac{1-d}{2}}(0, 1/2) = -\int_0^\infty \frac{x^{d-1} dx}{e^{2\pi x} + 1} = -\frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \eta(d) \Gamma(d) = \frac{(2^{1-d} - 1) \zeta(d) \Gamma(d)}{(2\pi)^d}, \quad (3.32)$$

where we used the property of the  $\eta(d)$  function

$$\eta(d) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n^d} = (1 - 2^{1-d}) \zeta(d). \quad (3.33)$$

The associated vacuum energy density is then

$$V_{\text{ren}}(\delta = 1/2) = -\frac{4\hbar}{L} \left(\frac{\pi}{L^2}\right)^{3/2} \frac{4}{3} \sqrt{\pi} \left(-\frac{1}{16} \cdot \frac{7}{8} \cdot \frac{1}{15}\right) = \frac{7\pi^2 \hbar}{360 L^4}. \quad (3.34)$$

The result for a real-valued scalar field is simply 1/2 of what is shown here.