

# Why Quantum Field Theory

- ① To treat physics that cannot be treated using <sup>non-relativistic</sup> quantum mechanics.
- ② To treat physics that can be treated using quantum mechanics but more easily (naturally).
- ③ The fundamental shortcoming of <sup>non-relativistic</sup> quantum mechanics is its inability to treat systems where the number of particles changes.  
- e.g.,  $\gamma\gamma \leftrightarrow e^+e^-$

Under relativistic conditions, we can expect this to happen.

Consider a particle in a box of size  $L$ . The uncertainty in its momentum is

$$\Delta p \geq \hbar/L$$

For a relativistic particle

$$E \approx pc$$

Then

$$\Delta p \geq \hbar/L \Rightarrow \Delta E \geq \hbar c/L$$

When

$$\Delta E = 2mc^2$$

where  $m$  is the mass of the particle, the uncertainty in energy

is above the threshold for particle-antiparticle production.

At what  $L$  will this happen? When

$$\Delta E = 2mc^2 = \hbar c / L$$

Solving for  $L$

$$\frac{\hbar c}{L} = 2mc^2$$

$$L = \frac{\hbar c}{2mc^2} = \frac{\hbar}{2mc}$$

The quantity

$$\lambda_{\text{Compton}} \equiv \hbar / mc$$

is the Compton wavelength.

$\Rightarrow$  When  $L \sim \lambda_{\text{Compton}}$ , we should expect to see a swarm of particle-antiparticle pairs surrounding the original particle.

Note that

$$\lambda_{\text{deBroglie}} \equiv \hbar / p > \lambda_{\text{Compton}} = \hbar / mc$$

since  $p < mc$  ( $p = \gamma m_0 v = m_0 v$ ).

virtual particles  
whose existence is  
limited by the uncertainty  
principle

$\lambda_{\text{de Broglie}}$  - the distance at which the wavelike nature of the particle becomes apparent



$$\lambda \ll \lambda_c$$

$$\lambda \sim \lambda_c$$

$$\lambda \sim \lambda$$

$$\lambda \gg \lambda$$

RQM A.K.A.  
QFT

NRQM

Classical

de Broglie

de Broglie

(3)

$\lambda$  - the distance at which the concept of a single particle breaks down  
Compton

- (2) The treatment of systems of  $N$  identical bosons or fermions ( $N \gg 1$ ) in quantum mechanics is truly cumbersome (if not impossible for  $N$  sufficiently large).

We work with symmetrized (antisymmetrized) sums of products of single-particle wave functions. The symmetry (antisymmetry) is just in by hand.

There is a better way, known as the Number Representation, which handles  $N$ -particle systems in a much easier and more natural way. This representation is used in conjunction with quantum field operators, and symmetry (antisymmetry) is built into the theory!

Other Reasons:

- (3) Causality

Consider the amplitude in quantum mechanics for a free particle to propagate from  $\vec{x} = \vec{x}_0$  at  $t = 0$  to  $\vec{x}$  at  $t$ :

$$\langle \vec{x} | e^{-i\hat{H}t} | \vec{x}_0 \rangle \quad \text{position eigenstate}$$

$$= \langle \vec{x} | e^{-i[\hat{p}^2 + m^2]^{1/2}t} | \vec{x}_0 \rangle$$

$$= \int d^3\vec{y} \langle \vec{x} | e^{-i[\hat{p}^2 + m^2]^{1/2}t} | \vec{y} \rangle \langle \vec{y} | \vec{x}_0 \rangle$$

(3a) >

$$\int d^3\vec{r} |\vec{r}\rangle \langle \vec{r}| = 1 \quad ?$$

$$\langle \vec{r}' | \left( \int d^3\vec{r} |\vec{r}\rangle \langle \vec{r}| \right) | \vec{r} \rangle$$

$$= \int d^3\vec{r} \langle \vec{r}' | \vec{r} \rangle \langle \vec{r} | \vec{r} \rangle \quad \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} e^{-i\vec{r}' \cdot \vec{r}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3\vec{r} e^{+i\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}'} e^{-i\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3\vec{r} e^{-i\vec{r} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}')}$$

$$= \delta^{(3)}(\vec{r} - \vec{r}')$$

$$= \langle \vec{r}' | \vec{r} \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \int d^3\vec{r} |\vec{r}\rangle \langle \vec{r}| = 1$$



for a free particle  $[\hat{H}, \hat{x}] = 0$

$$= \int d^3 p e^{-i[p^2 + m^2]^{1/2} t} \underbrace{\langle \vec{x} | \vec{p} \rangle}_{\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} e^{-i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}}} \underbrace{\langle \vec{p} | \vec{x}_0 \rangle}_{\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} e^{i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}_0}}$$

$$= \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{-i[p^2 + m^2]^{1/2} t} e^{-i\vec{p} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_0)}$$

$$= \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\{-[p^2 + m^2]^{1/2} t - \vec{p} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_0)\}}$$

To make the math easy, let's assume we are in one spatial dimension,  $x$ , with  $x \gg t$  (i.e., outside the light cone) and  $x_0 = 0$ .

Then

$$\langle x | e^{-i\hat{H}t} | 0 \rangle$$

$$= \int \frac{dp}{2\pi} \underbrace{e^{-i[p^2 + m^2]^{1/2} t} e^{-ipx}}_{e^{i\{-p - [p^2 + m^2]^{1/2}\} (\frac{x}{t})}}$$

$$\equiv e^{ig(p)x} \Rightarrow g'(p) = -1 - p[p^2 + m^2]^{-1/2} \left(\frac{x}{t}\right)^{-1}$$

$$g'(p) = 0 \text{ when}$$

$$-1 - p[p^2 + m^2]^{-1/2} \left(\frac{x}{t}\right)^{-1} = 0$$

$$-p[p^2 + m^2]^{-1/2} = \frac{x}{t}$$

$$\frac{p^2}{p^2 + m^2} = \left(\frac{x}{t}\right)^2$$

$$x^2 = \left(\frac{x}{t}\right)^2 (x^2 + m^2)$$

$$\left[1 - \left(\frac{x}{t}\right)^2\right] x^2 = \left(\frac{xm}{t}\right)^2$$

$$x = \pm \frac{\frac{xm}{t}}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{x}{t}\right)^2}} = \pm \frac{xm}{\sqrt{x^2 - t^2}} \equiv x_s$$

The Method of Steepest Phase tells us that

$$I(x) = \int_a^b e^{ixg(x)} dx \quad x \gg 1 \quad g(x) \in \mathbb{R} \text{ real smooth}$$

$$\approx e^{ixg(x_s)} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ixg''(x_s)x^2} dx$$

$$= e^{ixg(x_s)} \left( \frac{2\pi i}{xg''(x_s)} \right)^{1/2}$$

where

$$g'(x_s) = 0$$

As, for us,

$$I(x) \approx \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{ixg(x_s)} \left( \frac{2\pi i}{xg''(x_s)} \right)^{1/2}$$

where



$$g(x_s) = - \left\{ \frac{\pm x m}{\sqrt{x^2 - t^2}} + \left[ \left( \frac{\pm x m}{\sqrt{x^2 - t^2}} \right)^2 + m^2 \right]^{1/2} \left( \frac{x}{t} \right)^{-1} \right\}$$

The important point is

$$|\langle x | e^{-i\hat{H}t} | 0 \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi x |g''(x_s)|} \neq 0!$$

-i.e., causality is violated.

Wp need to double check that  $|g''(x_s)|$  is not  $\infty$ .

$$g''(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left\{ -1 - \left[ x^2 + m^2 \right]^{-1/2} \left( \frac{x}{t} \right)^{-1} \right\}$$

$$= -x \left( \frac{x}{t} \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) 2x \left[ x^2 + m^2 \right]^{-3/2} - \left( \frac{x}{t} \right)^{-1} \left[ x^2 + m^2 \right]^{-1/2}$$

$$\stackrel{?}{=} \infty \text{ for } x = x_s$$

$$= \frac{x^2 - (x^2 + m^2)}{(x^2 + m^2)^{3/2}} \bigg|_{x=x_s} \left( \frac{x}{t} \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \frac{-m^2}{(x^2 + m^2)^{3/2}} \bigg|_{x=x_s} \left( \frac{x}{t} \right)^{-1}$$

$$x_s^2 + m^2 = \frac{x^2 m^2}{x^2 - t^2} + m^2 \quad (x \gg t)$$

NT.

④ Locality (related to causality)

$$g''(x_s) \approx -\frac{1}{(2)^{3/2}} \frac{1}{m} \frac{t}{x}$$

$$| \cdot |^2 \approx \sqrt{2} m / \pi t \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty$$

Instantaneous action at a distance is incompatible with relativity.

Classically we've solved this problem for Coulomb's Law and Newton's Law of Gravitation by introducing fields, whose evolution is

governed by Maxwell's Equations and Einstein's Equations, respectively.

Why wouldn't all interactions in Nature (gravitational, electromagnetic, weak, and strong) be describable through fields?

When we consider quantized fields, we will see that interactions are mediated by particles at a particular spacetime point - i.e., they are local.