

# **Quantum Field Theory Deserves Extra Help**

# John R. Klauder

Department of Physics and Department of Mathematics, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA Email: klauder@ufl.edu

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## Abstract

Today's quantum field theory (QFT) relies heavenly on canonical quantization (CQ), which fails for  $\varphi_4^4$  leading only to a "free" result. Affine quantization (AQ), an alternative quantization procedure, leads to a "non-free" result for the same model. Perhaps adding AQ to CQ can improve the quantization of a wide class of problems in QFT.

# **Keywords**

Quantum Field Theory, Canonical Quantization (CQ), Affine Quantization (AQ)

# 1. What is AQ?

The simplest way to understand AQ is to derive it from CQ. The classical variables, p & q, lead to self-adjoint quantum operators, P & Q, that cover the real line, *i.e.*,  $-\infty < P \& Q < \infty$ , and obey  $[Q, P] \equiv QP - PQ = i\hbar \mathbb{1}$ . Next we introduce several versions of  $Q[Q, P] = i\hbar Q$ , specifically

$$\frac{\{Q[Q,P] + [Q,P]Q\}/2 = \{Q^2P - QPQ + QPQ - PQ^2\}/2}{=\{Q(QP + PQ) - (QP + PQ)Q\}/2 = [Q,QP + PQ]/2.}$$
(1)

This equation serves to introduce the "dilation" operator  $D = (QP + PQ)/2^{-1}$ which leads to  $[Q, D] = i\hbar Q$ . While  $P(=P^{\dagger}) \& Q(=Q^{\dagger})$  are the foundation of CQ,  $D(=D^{\dagger}) \& Q(=Q^{\dagger})$  are the foundation of AQ. Another way to examine this story is to let  $p, q \to P, Q$ , while  $d = pq, q \to D, Q$ .

Observe, for CQ, that while q & Q range over the whole real line, that is not possible for AQ. If  $q \neq 0$  then d covers the real line, but if q = 0 then d = 0 and p is helpless. To eliminate this possibility we require  $q \neq 0 & Q \neq 0$ . While

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Even if *Q* does not cover the whole real line, which means that  $P^{\dagger} \neq P$ , yet  $P^{\dagger}Q = PQ$ . This leads to  $D = (QP + P^{\dagger}Q)/2 = D^{\dagger}$ .

this may seem to be a problem, it can be very useful to limit such variables, like  $0 < q \& Q < \infty$ , or  $-\infty < q \& Q < 0$ , or even both.<sup>2</sup>

### 2. A Look at Quantum Field Theory

#### 2.1. Selected Poor and Good Results

Classical field theory normally deals with a field  $\varphi(x)$  and a momentum  $\pi(x)$ , where x denotes a spatial point in an underlying space.<sup>3</sup>

A common model for the Hamiltonian is given by

$$H(\pi,\varphi) = \int \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \pi(x)^2 + \left( \vec{\nabla}(x) \right)^2 + m^2 \varphi(x)^2 \right] + g\varphi(x)^r \right\} \mathrm{d}^s x, \tag{2}$$

where  $r \ge 2$  is the power of the interaction term,  $s \ge 2$  is the dimension of the spatial field, and n = s + 1, which adds the time dimension. Using CQ, such a model is nonrenormalizable when r > 2n/(n-2), which leads to "free" model results [2]. Such results are similar for r = 4 and n = 4, which is a case where r = 2n/(n-2) [3] [4] [5]. When using AQ, the same models lead to "non-free" results [2] [6].

Solubility of classical models involves only a single path, while quantization involves a vast number of paths, a fact well illustrated by path-integral quantization. The set of acceptable paths can shrink significantly when a nonrenormalizable term is introduced. Divergent paths of integration are like those for which  $\varphi(x,t) = 1/z(x,t)$  when z(x,t) = 0. A procedure that forbids possibly divergent paths would eliminate nonrenormalizable behavior. As we note below, AQ provides such a procedure.

#### 2.2. The Classical and Quantum Affine Story

Classical affine field variables are  $\kappa(x) \equiv \pi(x)\varphi(x)$  and  $\varphi(x) \neq 0$ . The quantum versions are  $\hat{\kappa}(x) \equiv [\hat{\varphi}(x)\hat{\pi}(x) + \hat{\pi}(x)\hat{\varphi}(x)]/2$  and  $\hat{\varphi}(x) \neq 0$ , with  $[\hat{\varphi}(x), \hat{\kappa}(y)] = i\hbar\delta^s(x-y)\hat{\varphi}(x)$ . The affine quantum version of (2) becomes

$$\phi(x), \kappa(y) = i n \delta(x - y) \phi(x)$$
. The annie quantum version of (2) becomes

$$\mathcal{H}(\hat{\kappa},\hat{\varphi}) = \int \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \hat{\kappa}(x) \hat{\varphi}(x)^{-2} \hat{\kappa}(x) + \left( \vec{\nabla} \hat{\varphi}(x) \right)^2 + m^2 \hat{\varphi}(x)^2 \right] + g \hat{\varphi}(x)^r \right\} d^s x.$$
(3)

The spacial differential term restricts  $\hat{\varphi}(x)$  to continuous operator functions, maintaining  $\hat{\varphi}(x) \neq 0$ . In that case, it follows that  $0 < \hat{\varphi}(x)^{-2} < \infty$  which implies that  $0 < |\hat{\varphi}(x)|^r < \infty$  for all  $r < \infty$ , a most remarkable feature because it forbids nonrenormalizability!<sup>4</sup>

Adopting a Schrödinger representation, where  $\hat{\varphi}(x) \rightarrow \varphi(x)$ , simplifies  $\hat{\kappa}(x)\varphi(x)^{-1/2} = 0$ , which also implies that  $\hat{\kappa}(x)\Pi_{y}\varphi(y)^{-1/2} = 0$ . This relation

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>For example, affine quantization of gravity can restrict operator metrics to positivity, *i.e.*,

 $<sup>\</sup>hat{g}_{ab}(x)dx^a dx^b > 0$ , straight away [1].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>In order to avoid problems with spacial infinity we restrict our space to the surface of a large, (s+1)-dimensional sphere.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>For Monte Carlo studies, concern for the term  $\hat{\varphi}(x)^{-2} \neq 0$  has been resolved by successful usage of  $\left[\hat{\varphi}(x)^2 + \varepsilon\right]^{-1}$ , where  $\varepsilon = 10^{-10}$  [2] [6].

suggests that a general wave function is like  $\Psi(\varphi) = W(\varphi) \Pi_y \varphi(y)^{-1/2}$ , as if  $\Pi_y \varphi(y)^{-1/2}$  acts as the representation of a family of similar wave functions.

We now take a Fourier transformation of the absolute square of a regularized wave function that looks like<sup>5</sup>

$$F(f) = \Pi_{\mathbf{k}} \int \left\{ e^{if_{\mathbf{k}}\varphi_{\mathbf{k}}} \left| w(\varphi_{\mathbf{k}}) \right|^{2} \left( ba^{s} \right) \left| \varphi_{\mathbf{k}} \right|^{-(1-2ba^{s})} \mathrm{d}\varphi_{\mathbf{k}} \right\}.$$
(4)

Normalization ensures that if all  $f_{\mathbf{k}} = 0$ , then F(0) = 1, which leads to

$$F(f) = \Pi_{\mathbf{k}} \int \left\{ 1 - \int \left( 1 - e^{if_{\mathbf{k}}\varphi_{\mathbf{k}}} \right) \left| w(\varphi_{\mathbf{k}}) \right|^{2} \left( ba^{s} \right) \mathrm{d}\varphi_{\mathbf{k}} / \left| \varphi_{\mathbf{k}} \right|^{\left( 1 - 2ba^{s} \right)} \right\}.$$
(5)

Finally, we let  $a \rightarrow 0$  to secure a complete Fourier transformation<sup>6</sup>

$$F(f) = \exp\left\{-b\int \mathrm{d}^{s} x \left(1 - \mathrm{e}^{if(x)\varphi(x)}\right) \left|w(\varphi(x))\right|^{2} \mathrm{d}\varphi(x) / |\varphi(x)|\right\}.$$
(6)

This particular process side-steps any divergences that may normally arise in  $|w(\varphi(x))|$  when using more traditional procedures.

# 3. The Absence of Nonrenormalizablity, and the Next Fourier Transformation

Observe the factor  $|\varphi_{\mathbf{k}}|^{-(1-2ba^s)}$  in (4) which is prepared to insert a zero divergence for each and every  $\varphi_{\mathbf{k}}$  when  $a \to 0$ . However, the factor  $ba^s$  in (4) turns that possibility into a very different story given in (6).

Another Fourier transformation can take us back to a suitable function of the field,  $\varphi(x)$ . That task involves pure mathematics, and it deserves a separate analysis of its own.

# **Conflicts of Interest**

The author declares no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>The remainder of this article updates and improves a recent article by the author [7]. <sup>6</sup>Any change of  $w(\varphi)$  due to  $a \to 0$  is left implicit.

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