

QUANTUM FIELD THEORIES AND SPACES WITH NEUTRAL SIGNATURE

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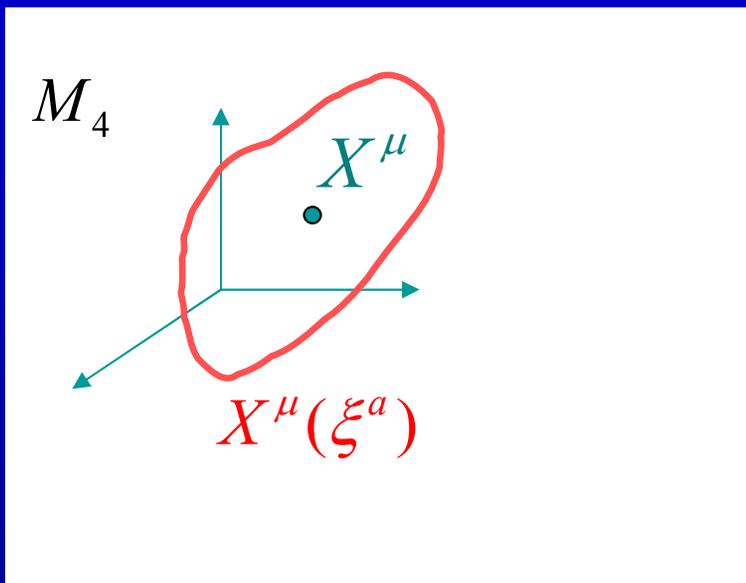
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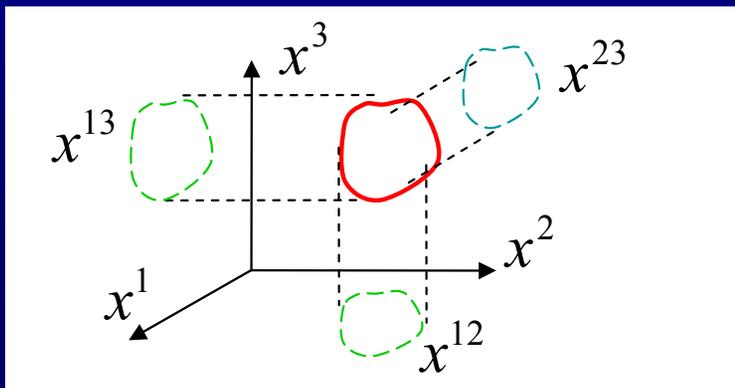
Clifford space: a quenched configuration space of extended objects

Strings and branes have infinitely many degrees of freedom.

But at first approximation we can consider just the centre of mass.

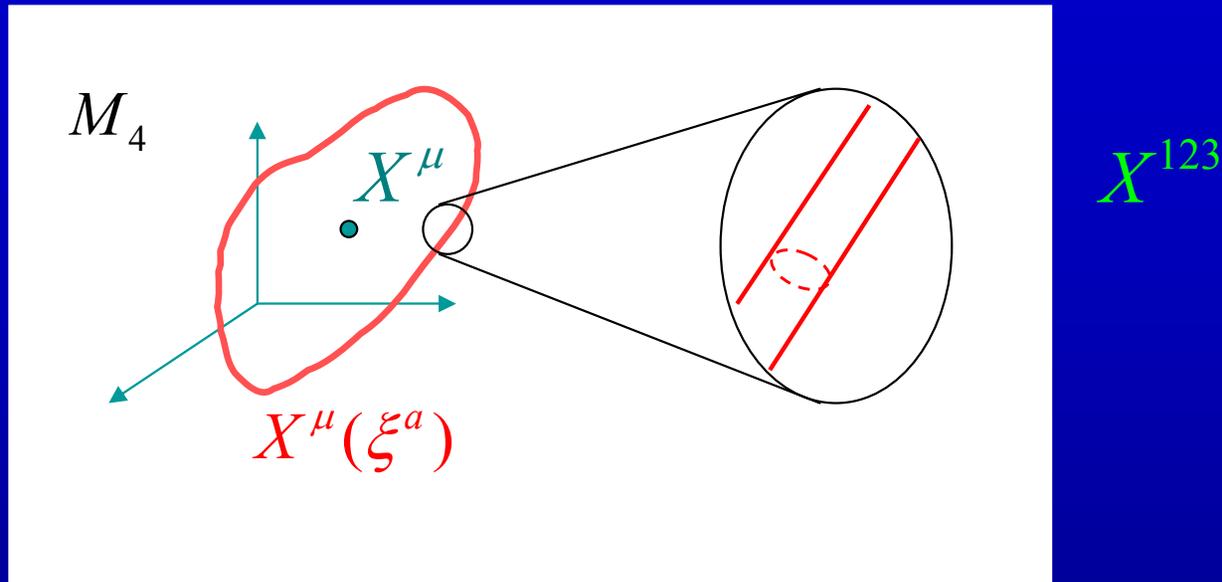


Next approximation is in considering the holographic coordinates of the oriented area enclosed by the string.



We may go further and search for eventual thickness of the object.

If the string has finite thickness, i.e., if actually it is not a string, but a 2-brane, then there exist the corresponding **volume degrees of freedom**.



In general, for an extended object in M_4 , we have 16 coordinates

$$x^M \equiv x^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r}, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$$

Polyvector coordinates

They are the projections of r -dimensional volumes (areas) onto the coordinate planes.

Oriented r -volumes can be elegantly described by Clifford algebra.

Instead of the usual relativity formulated in spacetime in which the interval is

$$ds^2 = dx^\mu \eta_{\mu\nu} dx^\nu = dx^\mu \gamma_\mu \gamma_\nu dx^\nu$$

we are studying the theory in which the interval is extended to the space of r-volumes (called Clifford space):

$$dS^2 = dx^M G_{MN} dx^N = \langle dx^M \gamma_M \gamma_N dx^N \rangle_0 \quad dx^M \equiv dx^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r}, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$$

Coordinates of Clifford space can be used to model extended objects. They are a generalization of the concept of center of mass.

Instead of describing extended objects in "full detail", we can describe them in terms of the center of mass, area and volume coordinates.

In particular, extended objects can be fundamental strings or branes.

Instead of the usual relativity formulated in spacetime in which the interval is

$$ds^2 = dx^\mu \eta_{\mu\nu} dx^\nu = dx^\mu \gamma_\mu \gamma_\nu dx^\nu$$

we are studying the theory in which the interval is extended to the space of r-volumes (called Clifford space):

$$dS^2 = dx^M G_{MN} dx^N = \langle dx^M \gamma_M^\dagger \gamma_N dx^N \rangle_0 \quad dx^M \equiv dx^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r}, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$$

Metric

$$G_{MN} = \gamma_M^\dagger * \gamma_N \equiv \langle \gamma_M^\dagger \gamma_N \rangle_0$$

Reversion

$$(\gamma_{\mu_1} \gamma_{\mu_2} \dots \gamma_{\mu_r})^\dagger = \gamma_{\mu_r} \dots \gamma_{\mu_2} \gamma_{\mu_1}$$

Signature:

+ + + + + + + + - - - - - - - - - -

(8,8)

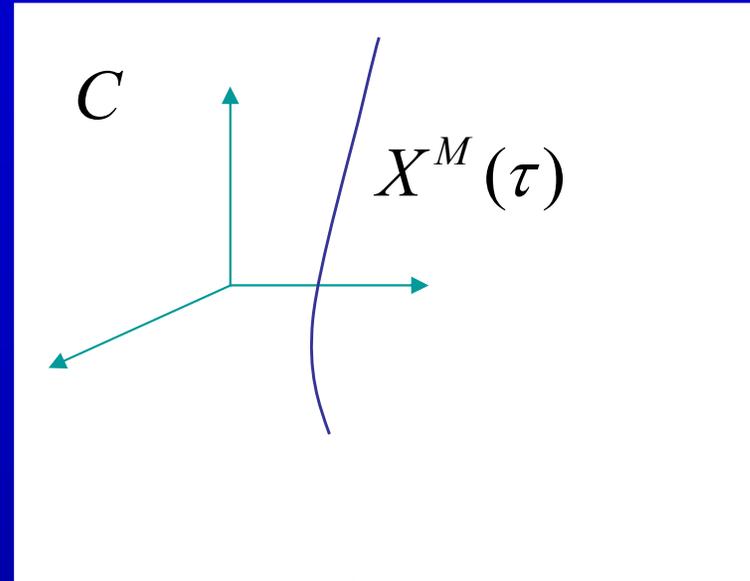
In flat C-space:

$$\gamma_{\mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_r} = \gamma_{\mu_1} \wedge \gamma_{\mu_2} \wedge \dots \wedge \gamma_{\mu_r}$$

at every point $\mathcal{E} \in \mathcal{C}$

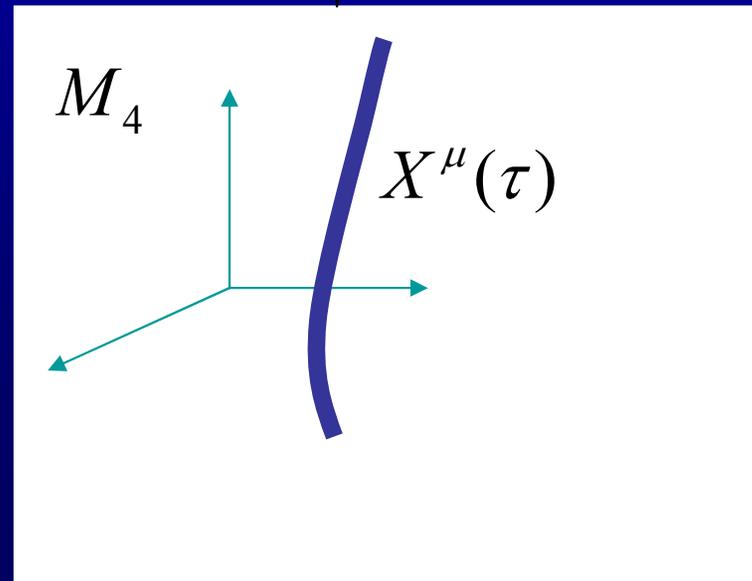
Thick point particles

A world line in C represents the evolution of a 'thick' particle in spacetime M_4

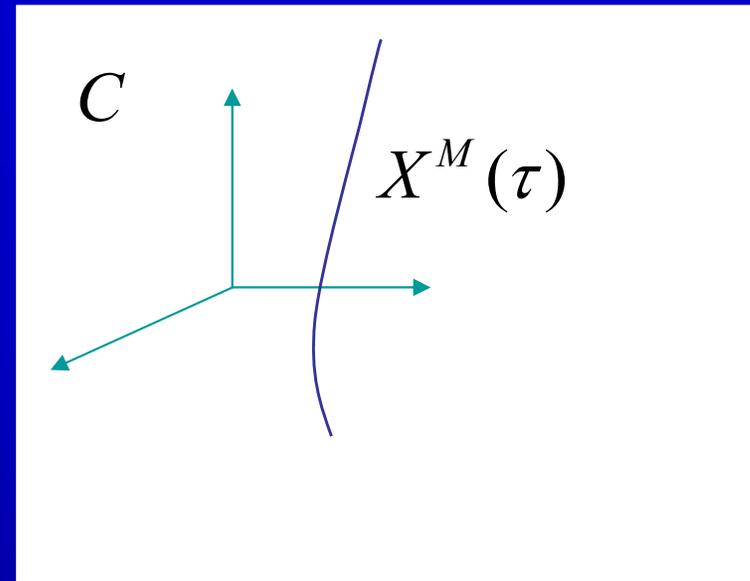


Thick particle can be an aggregate p -branes for various $p=0,1,2,\dots$

But such interpretation is not obligatory.

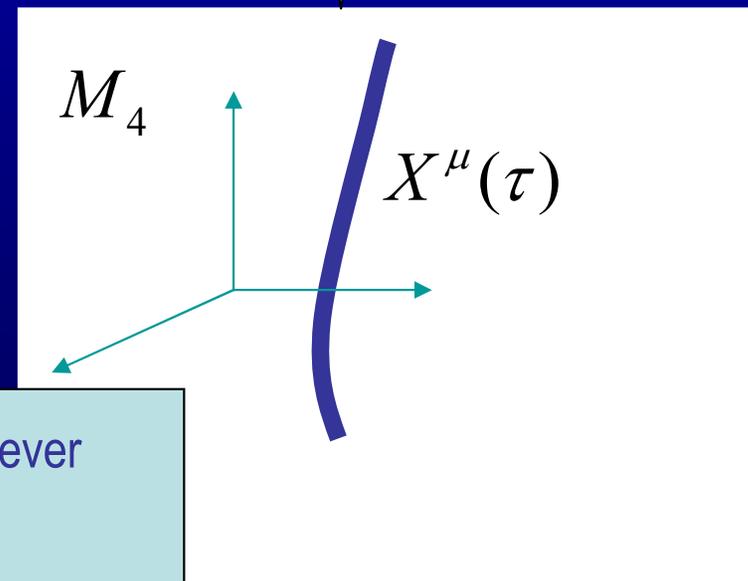


A world line in C represents the evolution of a 'thick' particle in spacetime M_4



Thick particle can be an aggregate p -branes for various $p=0,1,2,\dots$

But such interpretation is not obligatory.



Thick particle may be a conglomerate of whatever extended objects that can be sampled by polyvector coordinates $X^M \equiv X^{\mu_1 \mu_2 \dots \mu_r}$

A Toy Model: Harmonic Oscillator in Pseudo-Euclidean Space¹

Case $M_{1,1}$

$$L = \frac{1}{2}(\dot{x}^2 - \dot{y}^2) - \frac{1}{2}\omega^2(x^2 - y^2)$$

Equations of motion

$$\ddot{x} + \omega^2 x = 0, \quad \ddot{y} + \omega^2 y = 0$$

The change of sign in front of the y-term has no influence on the equation of motion

Difference occurs when we calculate the canonical momenta

$$p_x = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} = \dot{x}, \quad p_y = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{y}} = -\dot{y}$$

and the Hamiltonian

$$H = p_x \dot{x} + p_y \dot{y} - L = \frac{1}{2}(p_x^2 - p_y^2) + \frac{\omega^2}{2}(x^2 - y^2)$$

The kinetic term for the y-component has negative sign, whilst that for the x-component has positive sign. Therefore, the equations of motion are

$$\ddot{x} = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}, \quad \ddot{y} = \frac{\partial V}{\partial y}$$

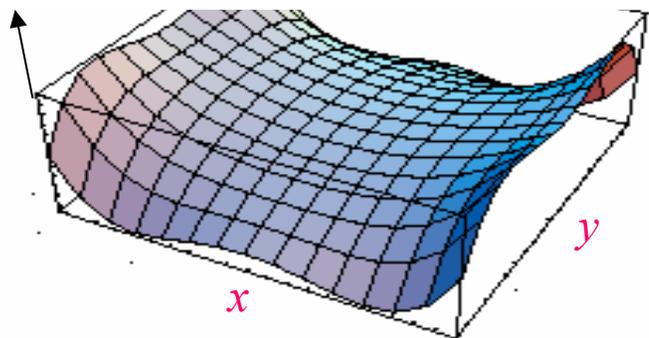
$$V = \frac{1}{2}\omega^2(x^2 - y^2)$$

The criterion for the stability of motion for the y-degree of freedom is that the potential has to have a *maximum* in the (y,V)-plane².

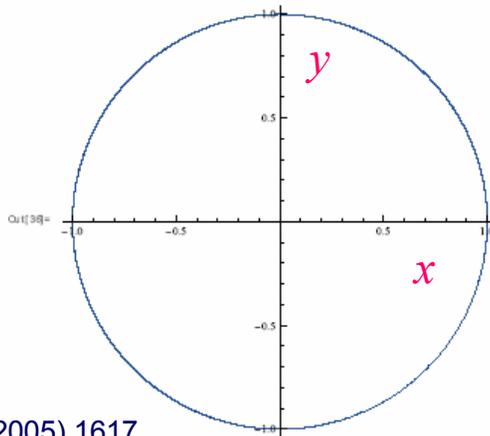
Stability could be destroyed, if we include an extra interactive term into V .
Let us demonstrate that even in the presence of an interaction, stability can be preserved.

Some examples:

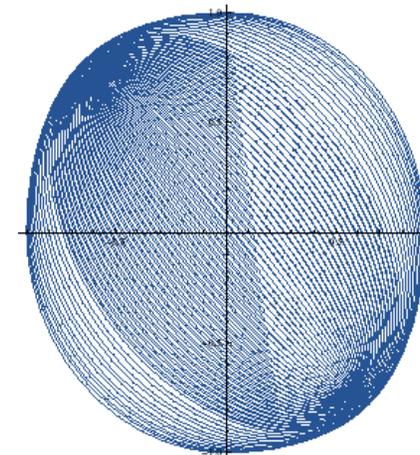
$$V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + 0.1(x^4 y^2 - x^2 y^4)$$



$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{x} &= -x - 0.1(4x^3 y^2 - 2x y^4), \\ \ddot{y} &= -y + 0.1(2x^4 y - 4x^2 y^3) \\ \dot{x}(0) &= 1, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0, \\ x(0) &= 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 400] \end{aligned}$$

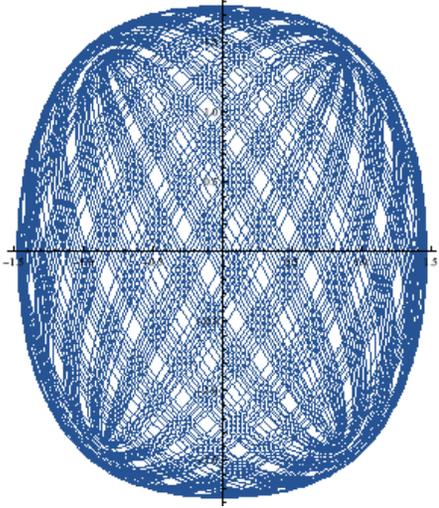


$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{x} &= -x - 0.1(4x^3 y^2 - 2x y^4), \\ \ddot{y} &= -y + 0.1(2x^4 y - 4x^2 y^3) \\ \dot{x}(0) &= 0.9, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0, \\ x(0) &= 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 400] \end{aligned}$$

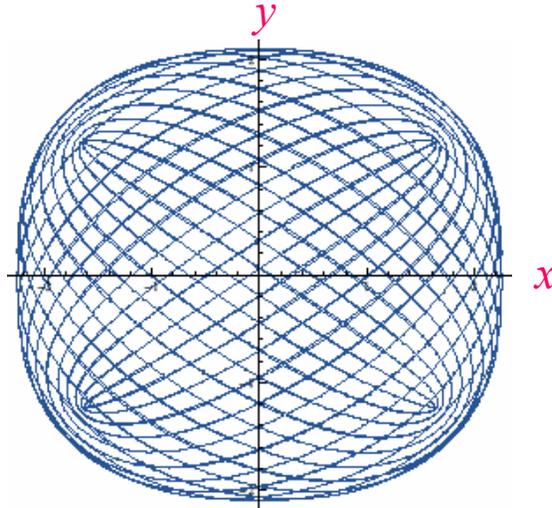


Calculations executed by Mathematica,
by using NDSolve and ParametricPlot

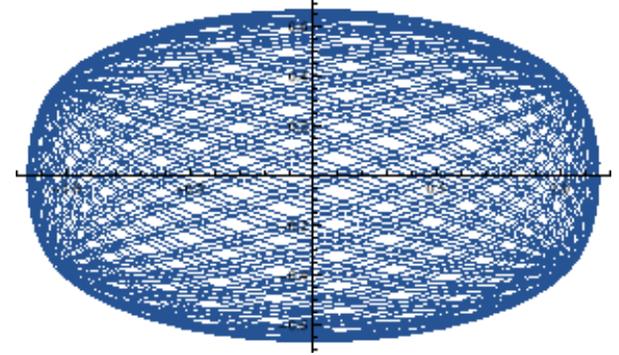
$$\begin{aligned}\ddot{x} &= -x - 0.1(4x^3y^2 - 2xy^4), \\ \ddot{y} &= -y + 0.1(2x^4y - 4x^2y^3) \\ \dot{x}(0) &= 0.9, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0.2, \\ x(0) &= 0.6, \quad y(0) = 1.5, \quad t \in [0, 514]\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}\ddot{x} &= -x - 0.1(4x^3y^2 - 2xy^4), \\ \ddot{y} &= -y + 0.1(2x^4y - 4x^2y^3) \\ \dot{x}(0) &= 2, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 1, \\ x(0) &= 0.3, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 200]\end{aligned}$$

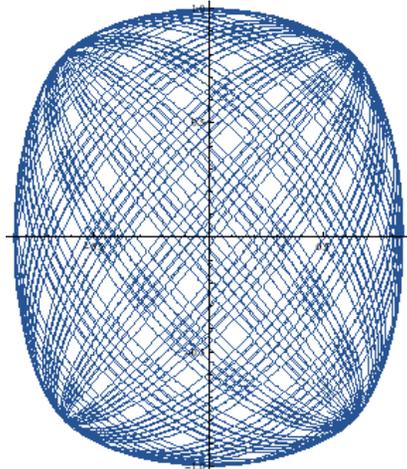


$$\begin{aligned}\ddot{x} &= -x - 0.1(4x^3y^2 - 2xy^4), \\ \ddot{y} &= -y + 0.1(2x^4y - 4x^2y^3) \\ \dot{x}(0) &= 0.2, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0.2, \\ x(0) &= 0.3, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 400]\end{aligned}$$



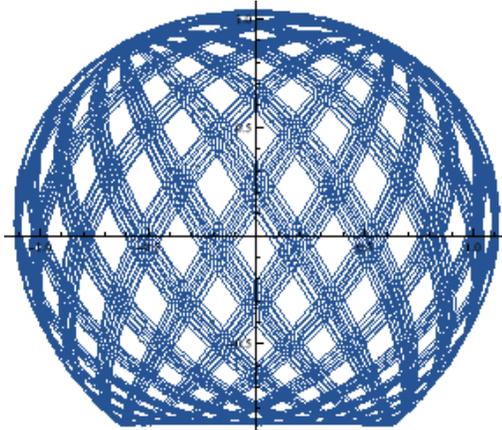
$$V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + 0.1(x^4y^2 + x^2y^4)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\ddot{x} &= -x - 0.1(4x^3y^2 + 2xy^4), \\ \ddot{y} &= -y + 0.1(2x^4y + 4x^2y^3) \\ \dot{x}(0) &= 0.9, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0, \\ x(0) &= 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 400]\end{aligned}$$



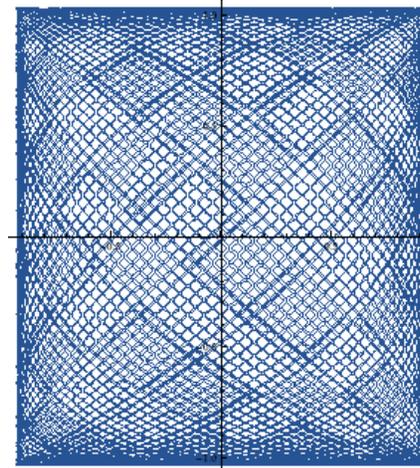
$$V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + 0.1(x^4y - x^3y^2)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\ddot{x} &= -x - 0.1(4x^3y - 3x^2y^2), \\ \ddot{y} &= -y + 0.1x^4 \\ \dot{x}(0) &= 0.8, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0.2, \\ x(0) &= 0.2, \quad y(0) = 0.9, \quad t \in [0, 700]\end{aligned}$$



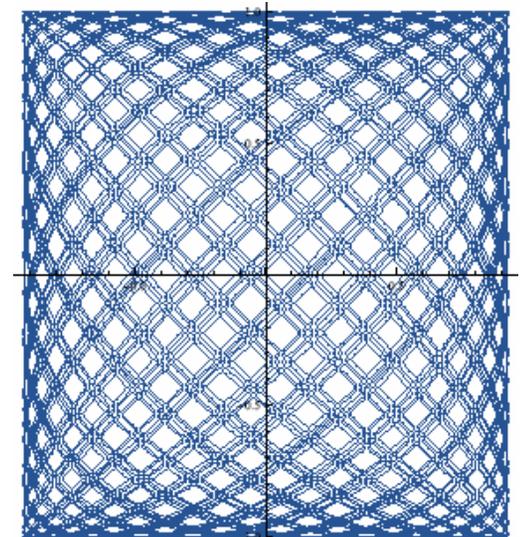
$$V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + 0.1(x^4 + y^4)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\ddot{x} &= -x - 0.1 \times 4x^3, \\ \ddot{y} &= -y + 0.1 \times 4y^3 \\ \dot{x}(0) &= 1, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0.2, \\ x(0) &= 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 700]\end{aligned}$$



$$V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + 0.1x^4$$

$$\begin{aligned}\ddot{x}(t) &= -x - 0.1 \times 4x(t)^3, \quad \ddot{y} = -y(t) \\ \dot{x}(0) &= 1, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0, \\ x(0) &= 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 400]\end{aligned}$$



The Hamilton form of the equations of motion¹

$$\dot{x} = \{x, H\} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_x} = p_x, \quad \dot{y} = \{y, H\} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_y} = -p_y$$

$$\dot{p}_x = \{p_x, H\} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = -\omega^2 x, \quad \dot{p}_y = \{p_y, H\} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial y} = \omega^2 y$$

Poisson brackets are defined as usual

$$\{x, p_x\} = 1, \quad \{y, p_y\} = 1$$

In the quantized theory we have commutators

$$[x, p_x] = i, \quad [y, p_y] = i$$

Introducing¹

$$c_x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\sqrt{\omega} x + \frac{i}{\sqrt{\omega}} p_x \right), \quad c_x^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\sqrt{\omega} x - \frac{i}{\sqrt{\omega}} p_x \right)$$

$$c_y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\sqrt{\omega} y + \frac{i}{\sqrt{\omega}} p_y \right), \quad c_y^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\sqrt{\omega} y - \frac{i}{\sqrt{\omega}} p_y \right)$$

we have

$$[c_x, c_x^\dagger] = 1, \quad [c_y, c_y^\dagger] = 1,$$

$$[c_x, c_y] = [c_x^\dagger, c_y^\dagger] = 0$$

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \omega (c_x^\dagger c_x + c_x c_x^\dagger - c_y^\dagger c_y - c_y c_y^\dagger)$$

$$c_x |0\rangle = 0, \quad c_y |0\rangle = 0$$

$$H = \omega (c_x^\dagger c_x - c_y^\dagger c_y)$$

Vacuum

Using $p_x = -i\hbar \partial / \partial x$, $p_y = -i\hbar \partial / \partial y$

and writing $\langle x, y | 0 \rangle \equiv \psi_0(x, y)$

we have

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{\omega} x + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\omega}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \psi_0(x, y) = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{\omega} y + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\omega}} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \psi_0(x, y) = 0$$

$$\psi_0 = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\omega(x^2+y^2)}$$

Normalization: $\int \psi_0^2 dx dy = 1$

All states have positive norm, e.g.,:

$$\langle 0 | c c^\dagger | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | [c, c^\dagger] | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | 0 \rangle = \int \psi^2 dx dy = 1.$$

Generalization to $M_{r,s}$

signature (r,s) , $a,b=1,2,\dots,r+s$

Procedure with generalizing the operators $c_x, c_x^\dagger, c_y, c_y^\dagger$ of the 2-dimensional case¹:

$$H = \frac{1}{2} p^a p_a + \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 x^a x_a$$

A.

$$\begin{cases} c^a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\sqrt{\omega} x^a + \frac{i}{\sqrt{\omega}} p_a \right) \\ c^{a\dagger} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\sqrt{\omega} x^a - \frac{i}{\sqrt{\omega}} p_a \right) \end{cases}$$

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \omega (c_a^\dagger c^a + c^a c_a^\dagger)$$

$$[c^a, c^{b\dagger}] = \delta^{ab}$$

$$c^a |0\rangle = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} c^a c_a^\dagger &= \eta_{ab} c^a c^{b\dagger} = \eta_{ab} (c^{b\dagger} c^a + \delta^{ab}) \\ &= c^{a\dagger} c_a + r - s \end{aligned}$$

$$H = \omega \left(c_a^\dagger c^a + \frac{r}{2} - \frac{s}{2} \right)$$

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^a \dot{x}_a - \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 x^a x_a$$

$$p_a = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}^a} = \dot{x}_a = \eta_{ab} \dot{x}^b$$

Upon quantization:

$$[x^a, p_b] = i\delta^a_b \quad \text{or} \quad [x^a, p^b] = i\eta^{ab}$$

Procedure with an alternative definition of creation and annihilation operators²:

$$H = \frac{1}{2} p^a p_a + \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 x^a x_a$$

B.

$$\begin{cases} a^a = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{\omega} x^a + \frac{i}{\sqrt{\omega}} p^a \right) \\ a^{a\dagger} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{\omega} x^a - \frac{i}{\sqrt{\omega}} p^a \right) \end{cases}$$

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \omega (a^{a\dagger} a_a + a_a a^{a\dagger})$$

$$[a^a, a_b^\dagger] = \delta^a_b \quad \text{or} \quad [a^a, a^{b\dagger}] = \eta^{ab}$$

I. $a^a |0\rangle = 0$

$$H = \omega \left(a^{a\dagger} a_a + \frac{r}{2} + \frac{s}{2} \right)$$

II. $a^a = (a^{\bar{a}}, a^{\underline{a}})$
 $a^{\bar{a}} |0\rangle = 0, \quad a^{\underline{a}\dagger} |0\rangle = 0$

$$H = \omega \left(a^{\bar{a}\dagger} a_{\bar{a}} + a_{\underline{a}} a^{\underline{a}\dagger} + \frac{r}{2} - \frac{s}{2} \right)$$

In **Case A**, the creation and annihilation operators are superpositions of the coordinates x^a and the **covariant** components of momenta p_a .

In **Case B**, the creation and annihilation operators are superpositions of the coordinates x^a and the **contravariant** components of momenta p^a .

In **Case B**, there are two possible definitions of vacuum:

Possibility I.

This is the usual definition $a^a |0\rangle = 0$. The eigenvalues of

$$H = \omega \left(a^{a\dagger} a_a + \frac{r}{2} + \frac{s}{2} \right)$$

are all positive. There exist negative norm states or ghosts.

Possibility I
All energies are positive.
Negative norms.

Possibility II.

This is the Cangemi-Jackiw-Zwiebach definition³

$$a^{\bar{a}} |0\rangle = 0, \quad a^{a\dagger} |0\rangle = 0, \quad \bar{a} = 1, 2, \dots, r, \quad \underline{a} = 1, 2, \dots, s$$

The eigenvalues of

$$H = \omega \left(a^{\bar{a}\dagger} a_{\bar{a}} + a_{\underline{a}} a^{a\dagger} + \frac{r}{2} - \frac{s}{2} \right)$$

can be positive or negative. There are no negative norm states. The presence of negative energies does not automatically imply instability of the system.

Possibility II
Positive and negative energies.
No negative norms.

If $r = s$, then the zero point energy vanishes.

³D. Cangemi, R. Jackiw, and B. Zwiebach, Ann. of Phys. 245 (1996) 408
R. Jackiw, and H.-J. Lee, Phys. Rev. D 54 (1996) 6213

Quantum Field Theory

A system of scalar fields

Action

$$I[\phi^a] = \frac{1}{2} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} (g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \phi^a \partial_\nu \phi^b - m^2 \phi^a \phi^b) \gamma_{ab}$$

Metric in the space of fields ϕ^a

$$\pi_a = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\phi}^a} = \partial^0 \phi_a = \partial_0 \phi_a \equiv \dot{\phi}_a \quad \text{canonical momenta}$$

$$a = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$\mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2, 3$$

Upon quantization, the following equal time commutation relations are satisfied:

$$[\phi^a(\mathbf{x}), \pi_b(\mathbf{x}')] = i \delta^3(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') \delta^a_b$$

The Hamiltonian is

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3x (\dot{\phi}^a \dot{\phi}^b - \partial_i \phi^a \partial^i \phi^b + m^2 \phi^a \phi^b) \gamma_{ab}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} \phi^a &= \int \frac{d^3\mathbf{k}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{2\omega_{\mathbf{k}}} (a^a(\mathbf{k}) e^{-ikx} + a^{a\dagger}(\mathbf{k}) e^{ikx}) \\ [a^a(\mathbf{k}), a_b^\dagger(\mathbf{k}')] &= (2\pi)^3 2\omega_{\mathbf{k}} \delta^3(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}') \delta^a_b \\ [a^a(\mathbf{k}), a^{b\dagger}(\mathbf{k}')] &= (2\pi)^3 2\omega_{\mathbf{k}} \delta^3(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{k}') \gamma^{ab} \end{aligned} \right.$$

$$i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$$

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{d^3\mathbf{k}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\omega_{\mathbf{k}}}{2\omega_{\mathbf{k}}} (a^{a\dagger}(\mathbf{k}) a^b(\mathbf{k}) + a^a(\mathbf{k}) a^{b\dagger}(\mathbf{k})) \gamma_{ab}$$

$$a^{\bar{a}}(\mathbf{k}) |0\rangle = 0, \quad a^{a\dagger}(\mathbf{k}) |0\rangle = 0$$

$$a^a(\mathbf{k}) = (a^\alpha, a^{\bar{\alpha}})$$

$$H = \int \frac{d^3\mathbf{k}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\omega_{\mathbf{k}}}{2\omega_{\mathbf{k}}} (a^{\bar{a}\dagger}(\mathbf{k}) a_{\bar{a}}(\mathbf{k}) + a^a(\mathbf{k}) a_a^\dagger) + \frac{1}{2} \int d^3\mathbf{k} \omega_{\mathbf{k}} \delta^3(0) (r - s)$$

$$r = \delta^\alpha_\alpha, \quad s = \delta^{\bar{\alpha}}_{\bar{\alpha}}$$

If signature has equal number of plus and minus signs, i.e., if $r = s$, then the zero point energies cancel out from the Hamiltonian¹.

Generalization to Clifford Space

$$\phi = \phi^A \gamma_A \quad \text{Clifford algebra-valued field}$$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} (g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \phi^A \partial_\nu \phi^B - m^2 \phi^A \phi^B) G_{AB}$$

Signature (R, S)
with $R = S$

Using the Cangemi-Jackiw-Zwiebach definition of vacuum, and following the same procedure as before, we obtain^{2,4} that the zero point energies cancel out:

Vacuum energy vanishes.

Therefore, in such theory there is no cosmological constant problem. The small observed cosmological constant could be a residual effect of something else.

Cancellation of vacuum energies in this theory does not exclude¹ the existence of the well known vacuum effects, such as the Casimir effect.

Generalized Dirac equation (Dirac-Kähler equation⁷)

$$(i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \Phi = 0$$

$$\Phi = \phi^A \gamma_A = \psi^{\tilde{A}} \xi_{\tilde{A}} = \psi^{\alpha i} \xi_{\alpha i}$$

Spinor basis^{2,4-6} of $Cl(1,3)$

α is spinor index of a left minimal ideal.
 i runs over four left ideals of $Cl(1,3)$

$$\langle (\xi^{\tilde{A}})^\dagger \gamma^\mu \xi_{\tilde{B}} \rangle_S \equiv (\gamma^\mu)^{\tilde{A}}_{\tilde{B}}$$

$$(i (\gamma^\mu)^{\tilde{A}}_{\tilde{B}} \partial_\mu - m \delta^{\tilde{A}}_{\tilde{B}}) \psi^{\tilde{B}} = 0$$

$$(\gamma^\mu)^{\tilde{A}}_{\tilde{B}} = (\gamma^\mu)^\alpha_\beta \delta^i_j$$

$$(i (\gamma^\mu)^\alpha_\beta \partial_\mu - m \delta^\alpha_\beta) \psi^{\beta i} = 0$$

Metric in spinor space⁴

$$(i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \psi^i = 0$$

Here we omit spinor index α

$$(\xi_{\tilde{A}})^\dagger * \xi_{\tilde{B}} = Z_{\tilde{A}\tilde{B}} = Z_{(\alpha i)(\beta j)} = Z_{\alpha\beta} Z_{ij}$$

$$Z_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad Z_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Action

$$I = \int d^4x \bar{\psi}^i (i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \psi^j Z_{ij}$$

⁷E. Kähler, Rendiconti di Matematica 21 (1962) 425;
 S.I. Kruglov, Dirack-Kähler Equation, arXiv: hep-th/0110251 (and many references therein)
 D. Spehler, and G.C. Marques, Eur. Phys. J. 61 (2009) 75

Hamiltonian

$$H = \int d^3x \bar{\psi}^i (-i\gamma^r \partial_r + m) \psi^j z_{ij}$$

We expand ψ^i in terms of the annihilation and creation operators

$$H = \sum_{n=1}^2 \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} m (b_n^{i\dagger}(\mathbf{p}) b_n^j(\mathbf{p}) - d_n^i(\mathbf{p}) d_n^{j\dagger}) z_{ij}$$

Index i distinguishes the spinors of different left ideals of $Cl(1,3)$.

Index $n=1,2$ is the usual one that distinguishes 'spin up' and 'spin down' states.

$i = (\bar{i}, \underline{i}), \quad \bar{i} = 1,2; \quad \underline{i} = 3,4$ We split the index

$$b_n^{\bar{i}} |0\rangle = 0, \quad d_n^{\bar{i}} |0\rangle = 0$$

$$b_n^{\underline{i}\dagger} |0\rangle = 0, \quad d_n^{\underline{i}\dagger} |0\rangle = 0$$

We define vacuum according to Cangemi-Jackiw-Zwiebach.

Index \underline{i} refers to the negative signature sector.

$$H = \sum_{n=1}^2 \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} m (b_n^{\bar{i}\dagger}(\mathbf{p}) b_n^{\bar{j}}(\mathbf{p}) - b_n^{\underline{i}}(\mathbf{p}) b_n^{\underline{j}\dagger}(\mathbf{p}) + d_n^{\bar{i}\dagger}(\mathbf{p}) d_n^{\bar{j}} - d_n^{\underline{i}}(\mathbf{p}) d_n^{\underline{j}\dagger}(\mathbf{p}) + \delta(\mathbf{0})(z^{ij} - z^{\underline{i}\underline{j}})) z_{ij}$$

$$\langle 0 | H | 0 \rangle = 0$$

Vacuum expectation of this Hamiltonian is zero

This term vanishes

Each fermion ψ^i couples to the corresponding gauge field. The Casimir force between two metallic plates, consisting of $\psi^i, i=1$, is not expected¹ to vanish in this general theory.

$\langle T^{00} \rangle = \langle H \rangle$ is the source of the gravitational field. Because $\langle 0 | H | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | T^{00} | 0 \rangle = 0$, the cosmological constant vanishes. There is no problem of the huge cosmological constant. It remains to explain the small observed cosmological constant.

Besides resolving the problem of the cosmological constant, the Dirac-Kähler equation⁷ and its generalization^{4,5} may provide a theoretical framework that could be used for the unification of fundamental particles and forces.

⁴M. Pavšič, Int. J. Mod. Phys. 21 (2006) 5905 (and references therein)

⁵M. Pavšič, Phys. Lett. B 614 (2005) 85

⁶M. Pavšič, Phys. Lett. B 692 (2010) 212

Presence of interactions

Classical Oscillator

$$L = \frac{1}{2}(\dot{x}^2 - \dot{y}^2) - V, \quad V = \frac{\omega}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + V_1$$

Interaction

Equation of motion:

$$\ddot{x} + \omega^2 x + \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial x} = 0$$
$$\ddot{y} + \omega^2 y - \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$V_1 = \frac{\lambda}{4}(x^2 - y^2)^2$$

As an example we will study this form of interaction

$$\ddot{x} + \omega^2 x + \lambda x(x^2 - y^2) = 0$$
$$\ddot{y} + \omega^2 y + \lambda y(x^2 - y^2) = 0$$

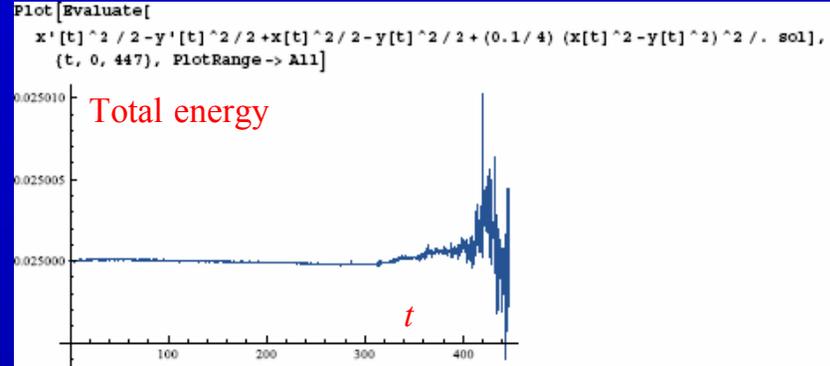
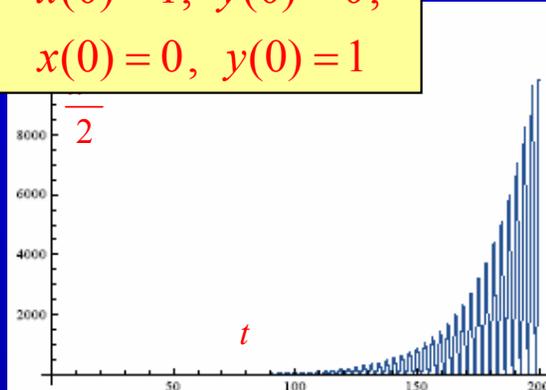
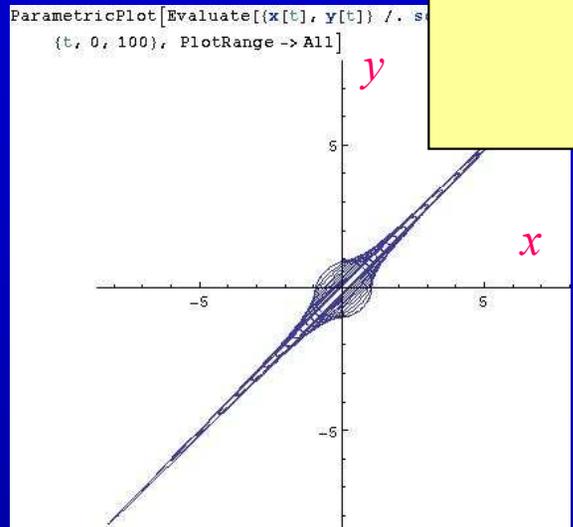
```
sol = NDSolve[{x''[t] + x[t] + 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0,
  y''[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0, x[0] == 0, y[0] == 1},
  {x, y}, {t, 1000}]
```

$$\ddot{x} + x + 0.1x(x^2 - y^2) = 0$$

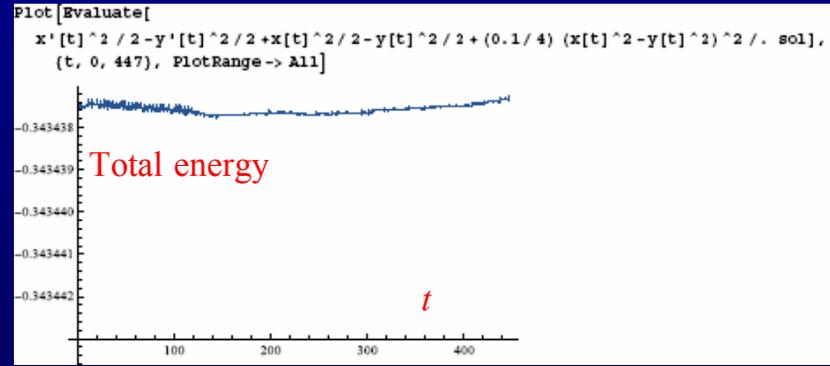
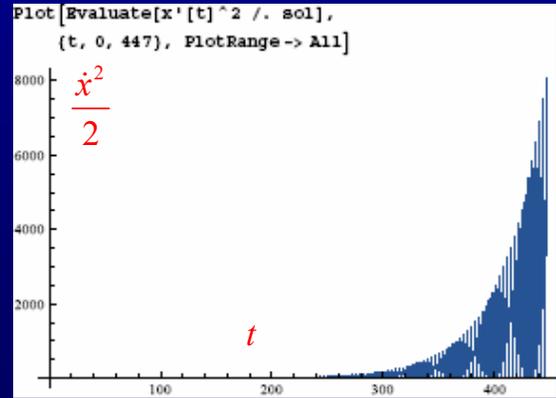
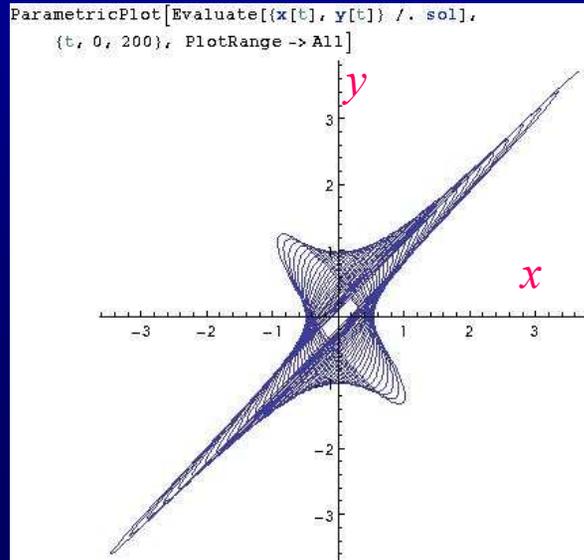
$$\ddot{y} + y + 0.1y(x^2 - y^2) = 0$$

$$\dot{x}(0) = 1, \dot{y}(0) = 0,$$

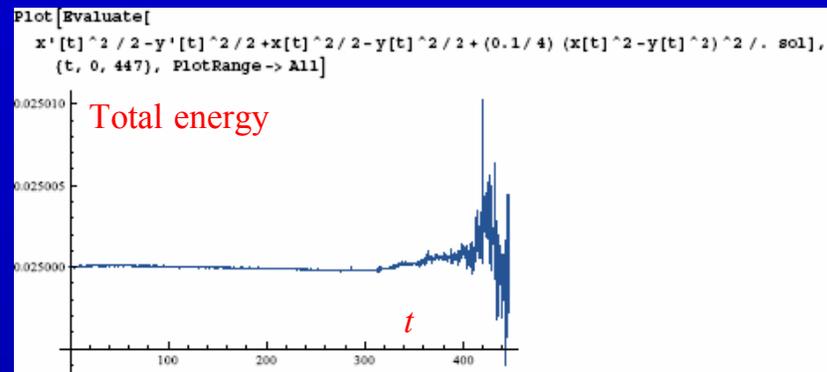
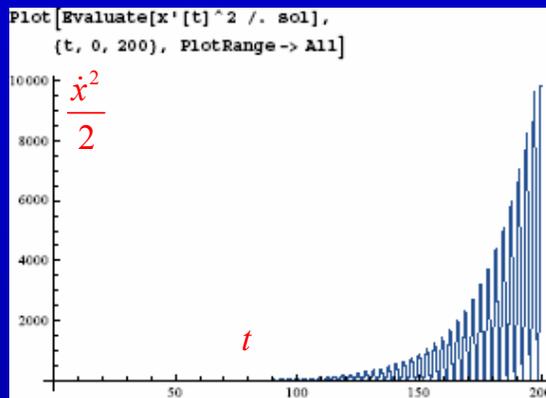
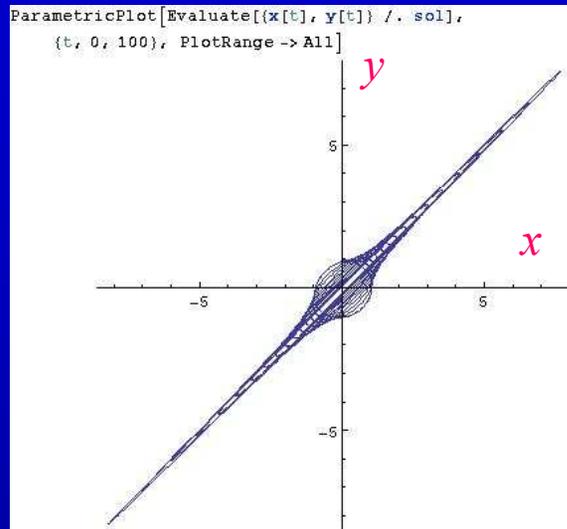
$$x(0) = 0, y(0) = 1$$



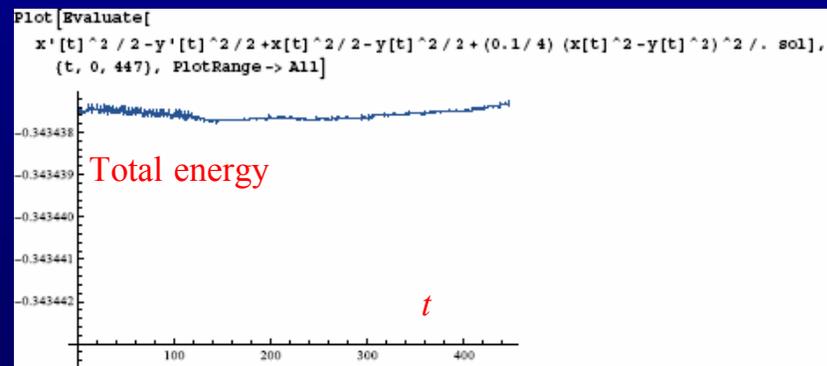
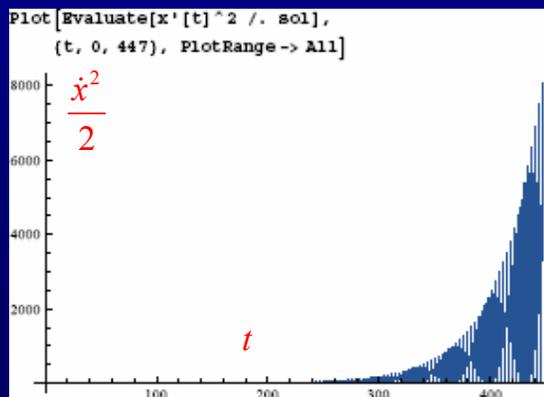
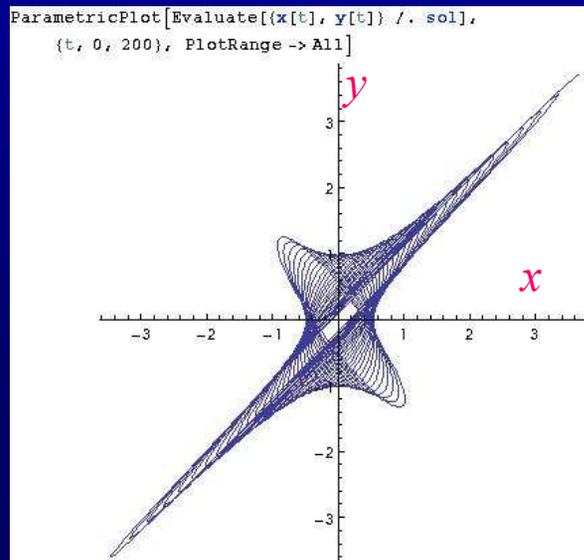
```
sol = NDSolve[{x''[t] + x[t] + 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0,
  y''[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0, x'[0] == 1, y'[0] == -1.2, x[0] == 0, y[0] == 0.5},
  {x, y}, {t, 3000}]
```



```
sol = NDSolve[{x''[t] + x[t] + 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0,
  y''[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0, x'[0] == 1, y'[0] == 0, x[0] == 0, y[0] == 1},
  {x, y}, {t, 1000}]
```



```
sol = NDSolve[{x''[t] + x[t] + 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0,
  y''[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0, x'[0] == 1, y'[0] == -1.2, x[0] == 0, y[0] == 0.5},
  {x, y}, {t, 3000}]
```



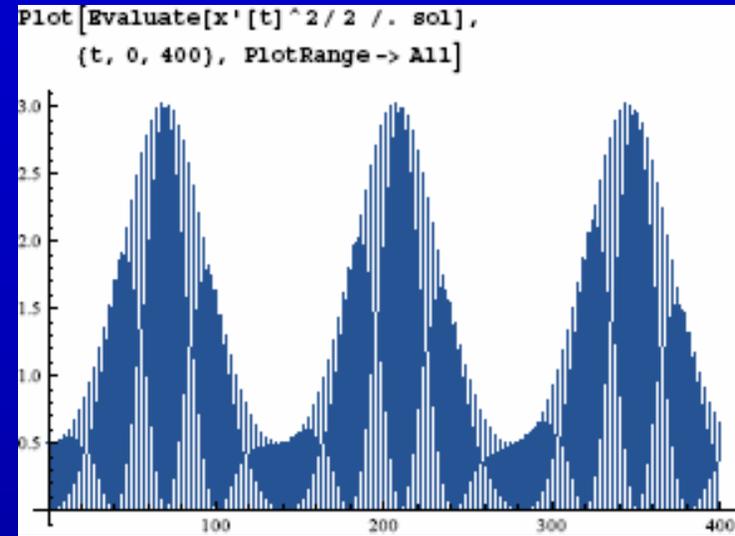
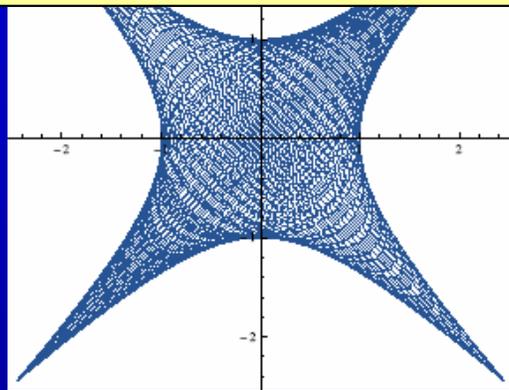
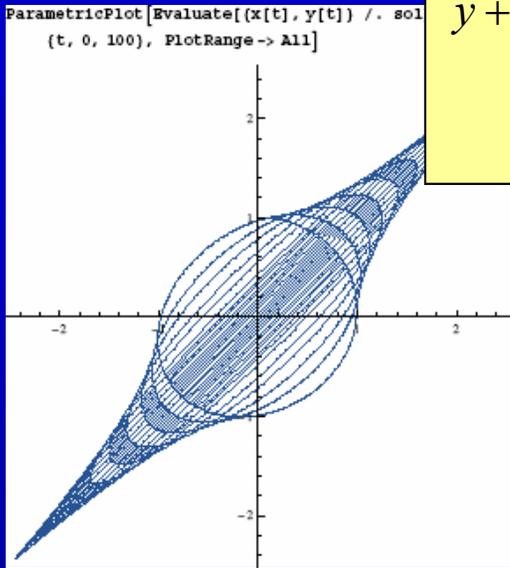
```
sol = NDSolve[(x''[t] + 1.01 x[t] + 1.01 * 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0,
  Y'[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0,
  Y'[0] == 0, x[0] == 0, y[0] == 1), {x, y}, {t, 0, 400}]
```

$$\ddot{x} + 1.01x + 1.01 \times 0.1 x(x^2 - y^2) = 0$$

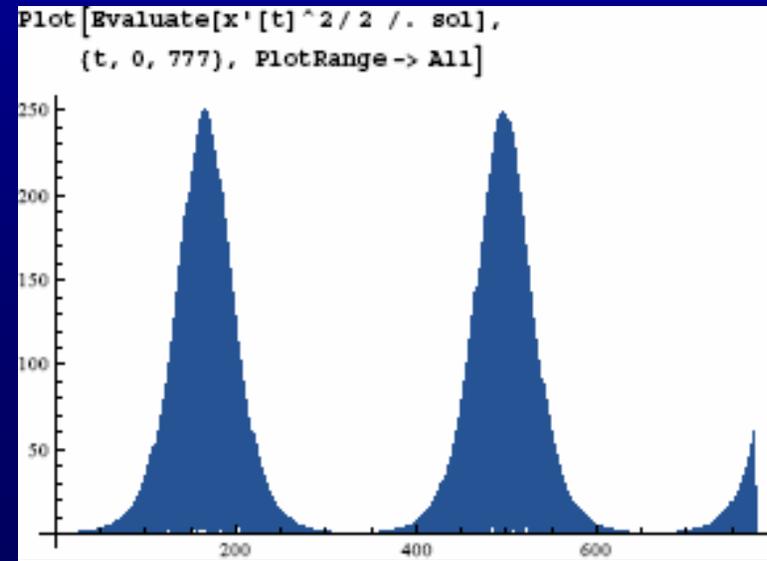
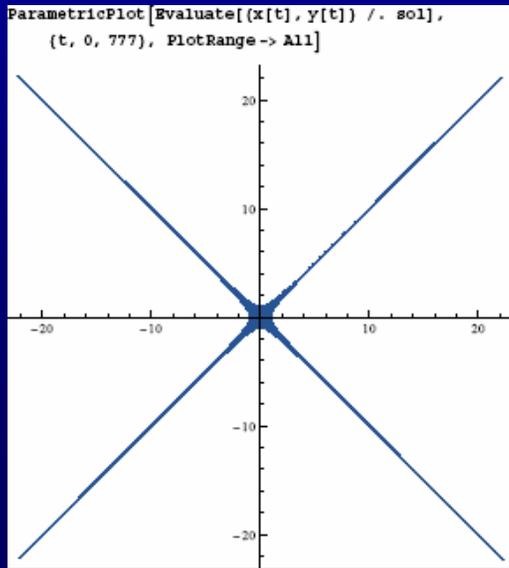
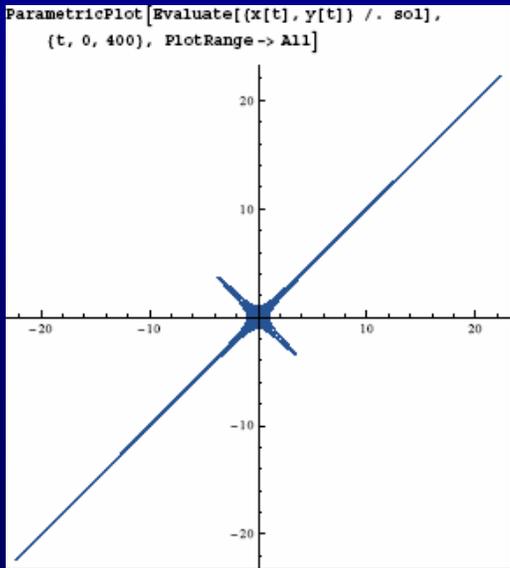
$$\ddot{y} + y + 0.1 y(x^2 - y^2) = 0$$

$$\dot{x}(0) = 1, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0,$$

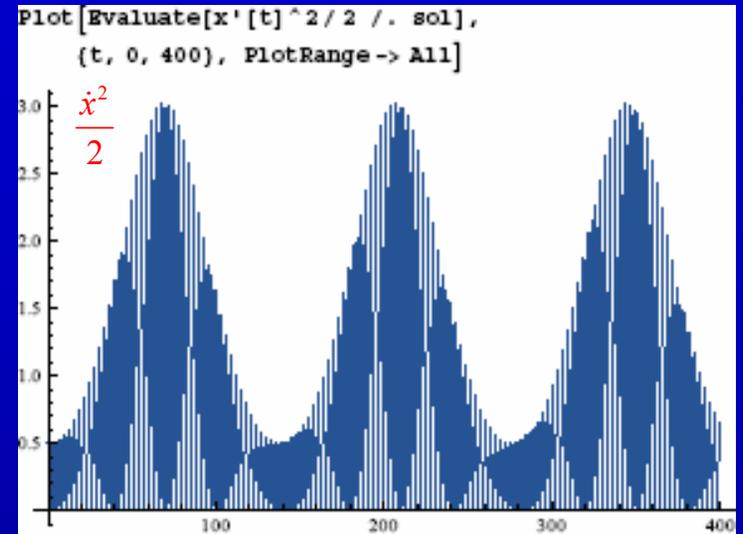
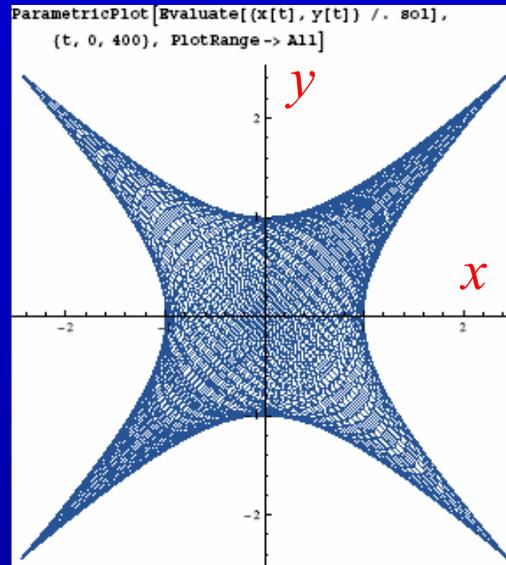
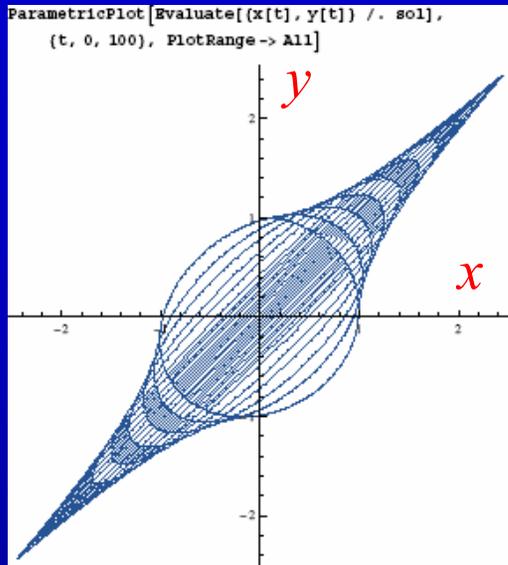
$$x(0) = 0, \quad y(0) = 1$$



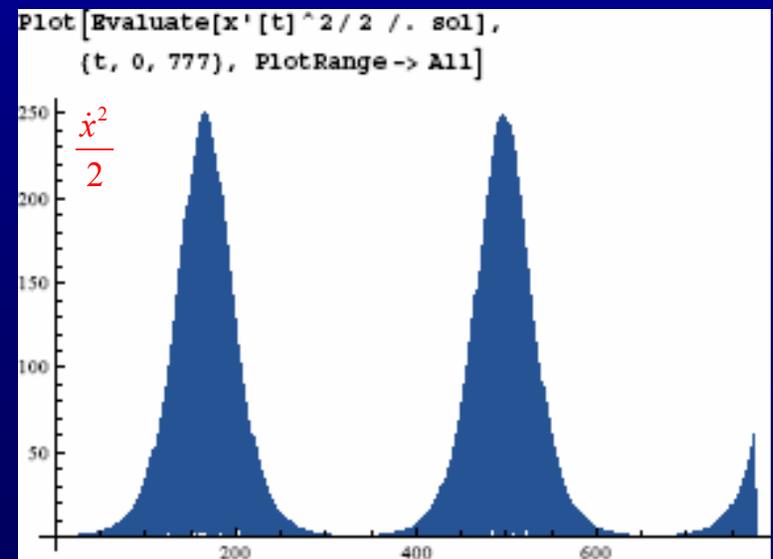
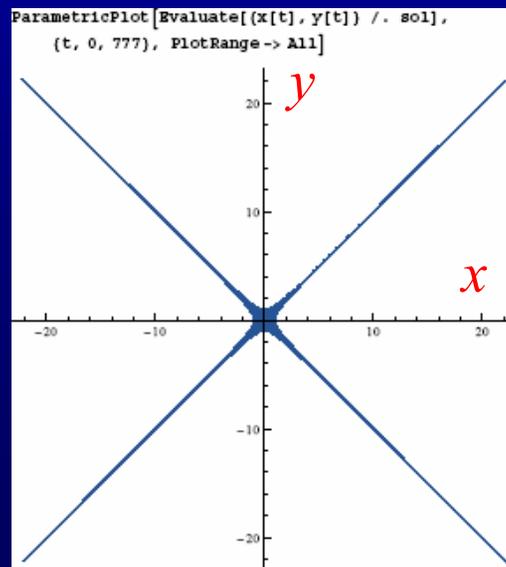
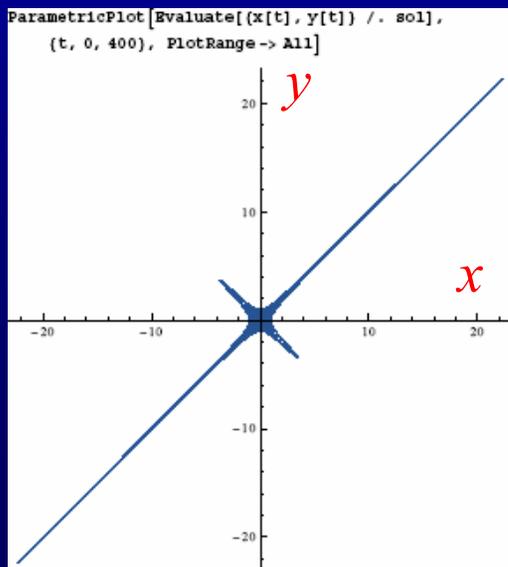
```
sol = NDSolve[(x''[t] + 1.0001 x[t] + 1.0001 * 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0,
  Y'[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0,
  x'[0] == 1, Y'[0] == 0, x[0] == 0, Y[0] == 1), {x, y}, {t, 0, 1000}]
```



```
sol = NDSolve[(x'[t] + 1.01 x[t] + 1.01 + 0.1 * x[t] + (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0,
  Y'[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] + (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0, x'[0] = 1,
  Y'[0] == 0, x[0] == 0, y[0] = 1), {x, y}, {t, 1000}]
```



```
sol = NDSolve[(x'[t] + 1.0001 x[t] + 1.0001 + 0.1 * x[t] + (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0,
  Y'[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] + (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) == 0, x'[0] = 1,
  Y'[0] == 0, x[0] == 0, y[0] = 1), {x, y}, {t, 1000}]
```



Stueckelberg action in higher dimensions

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \int d\tau g_{\mu\nu} \dot{X}^\mu \dot{X}^\nu$$

$$\mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2, \dots, D-1$$

$$g_{\mu\nu} \dot{X}^\mu \dot{X}^\nu = \gamma_{ab} \dot{X}^a \dot{X}^b + \frac{\dot{X}_0^2}{g_{00}}$$

$$\gamma_{ab} = g_{ab} - \frac{g_{0a}g_{0b}}{g_{00}}$$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \left(\int d\tau \gamma_{ab} \dot{X}^a \dot{X}^b + \frac{\dot{X}_0^2}{g_{00}} \right)$$

If $g_{\mu\nu,0} = 0$, then \dot{X}_0^2 is a constant of motion

$a, b = 1, 2, \dots, D-1$

Signature (r, s)

$r + s = D-1$

We take $r = s$

Equations of motion

$$\frac{d}{d\tau} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{X}^a} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial X^r} = 0$$

$$\gamma_{ab,c} = 0$$

$$\ddot{X}^a + \frac{1}{2} \frac{C}{g_{00}^2} g_{00,b} \gamma^{ab} = 0$$

$$V = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\dot{X}_0^2}{g_{00}} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{C}{g_{00}}$$

$$\ddot{X}^a + V_{,b} \gamma^{ab} = 0$$

This corresponds to the equations of motion on the previous slide

Quantum oscillator

$$i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = H \psi$$

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \left(-\frac{\partial}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^2} \right) + V(x, y)$$

$$\psi = \sum_{mn} c_{mn}(t) \psi_{mn}$$

$$H_{mn;rs} = \int dx dy \psi_{mn}^* H \psi_{rs}$$

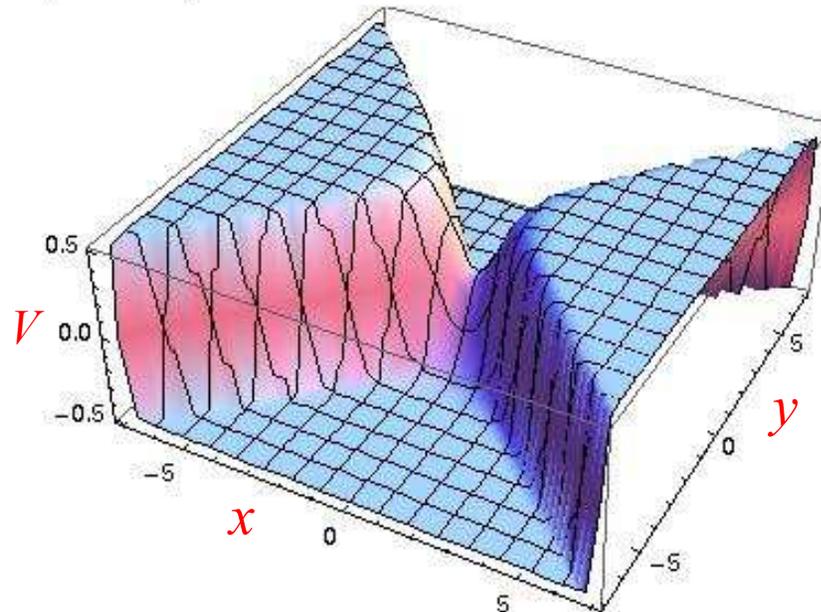
Basis functions of the 2D harmonic oscillator

$$i \dot{c}_{mn} = \sum_{rs} H_{mn;rs} c_{rs}$$

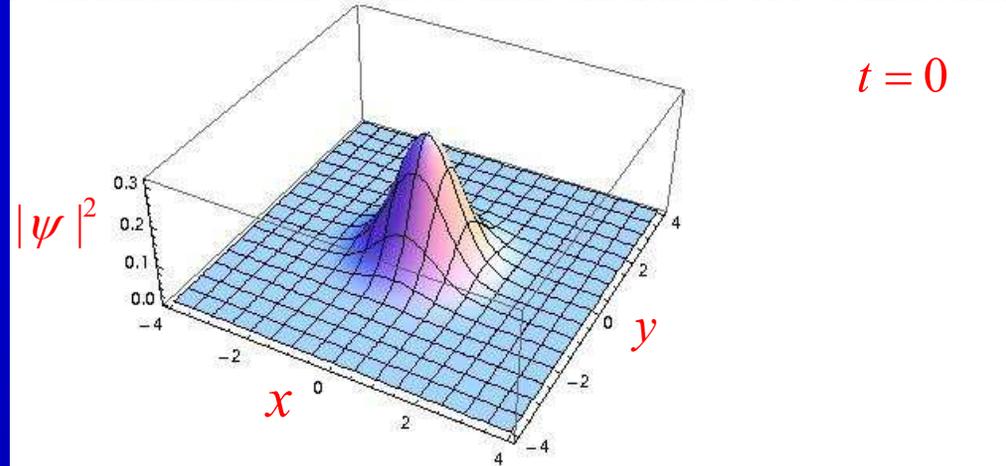
We will investigate the case:

$$V(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon \left(1 - e^{-\varepsilon(x^2 - y^2)} \right)$$

```
Plot3D[(1/2)*Sign[x^2 - y^2]*(1 - Exp[-Abs[x^2 - y^2]]), {x, -7, 7}, {y, -7, 7},
PlotRange -> All]
```



```
Plot3D[Abs[ff[0, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotPoints -> 50, PlotRange -> All]
```



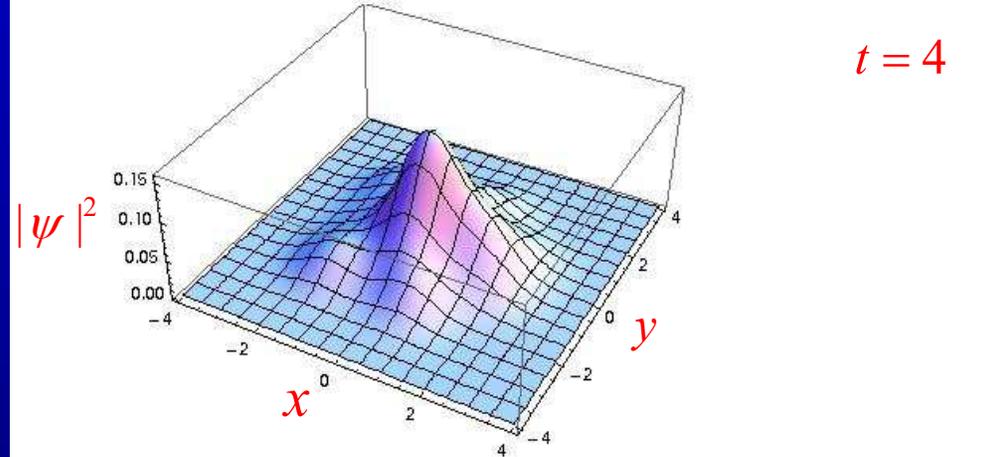
$t = 0$

$$\psi = \sum_{m,n=0}^4 c_{mn}(t) \psi_{mn}$$

Initial condition

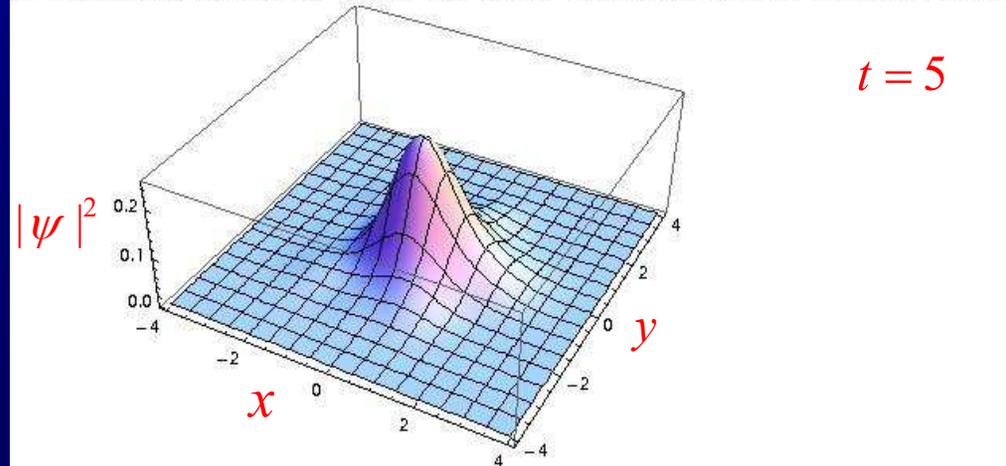
$c_{00}(0) = 1$, the other coefficients = 0

```
Plot3D[Abs[ff[4, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotPoints -> 50, PlotRange -> All]
```



$t = 4$

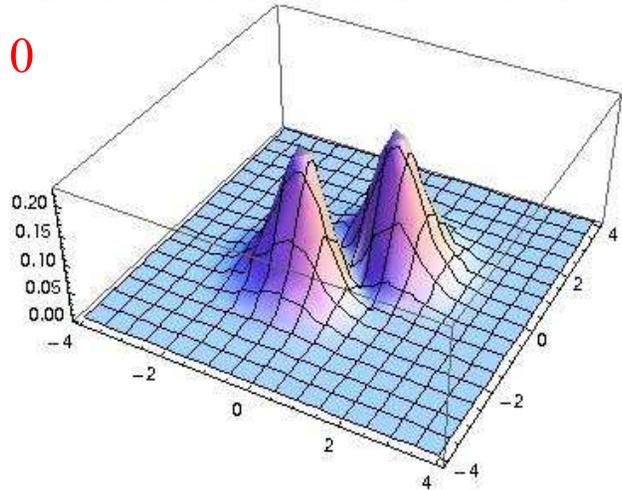
```
Plot3D[Abs[ff[5, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotPoints -> 50, PlotRange -> All]
```



$t = 5$

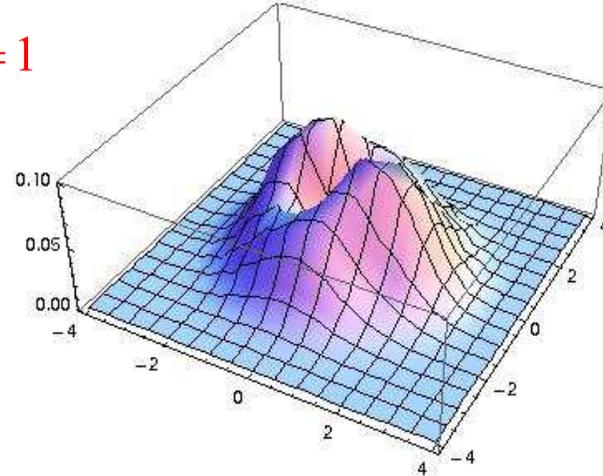
```
Plot3D[Abs[f[0, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]
```

$t = 0$



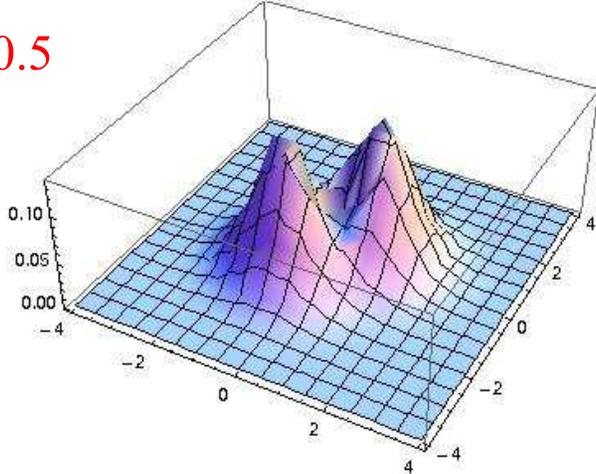
```
Plot3D[Abs[f[1, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]
```

$t = 1$



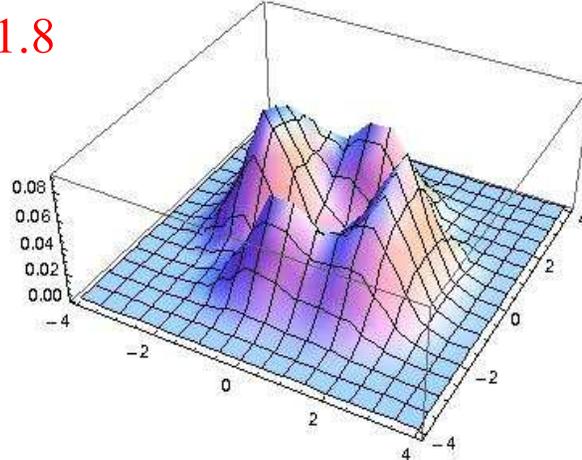
```
Plot3D[Abs[f[0.5, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]
```

$t = 0.5$



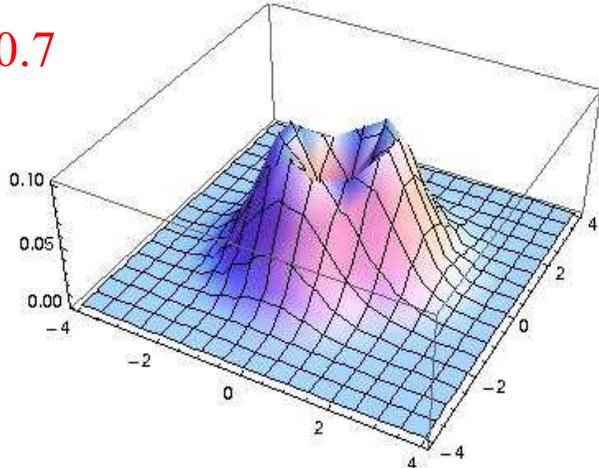
```
Plot3D[Abs[f[1.8, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]
```

$t = 1.8$



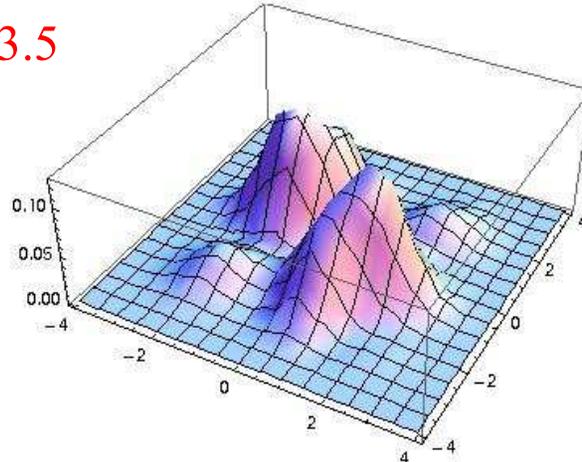
```
Plot3D[Abs[f[0.7, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]
```

$t = 0.7$



```
Plot3D[Abs[f[3.5, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]
```

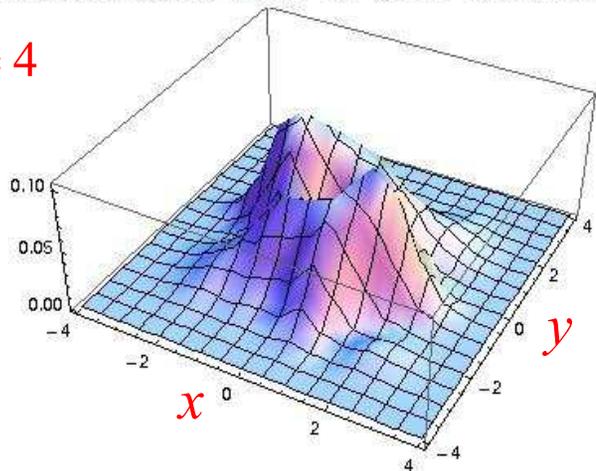
$t = 3.5$



$$c_{01}(0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$
$$c_{10}(0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

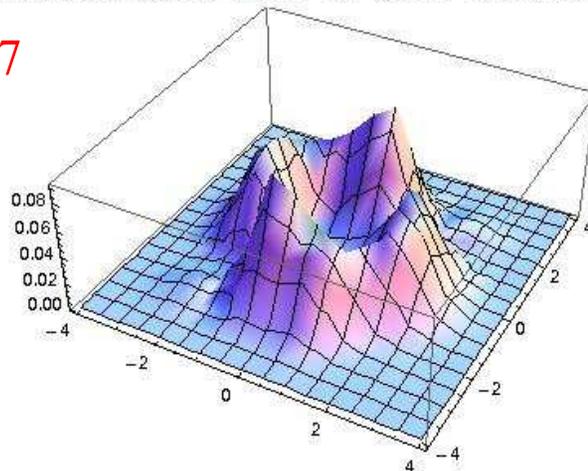
Plot3D[Abs[f[4, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]

$t = 4$



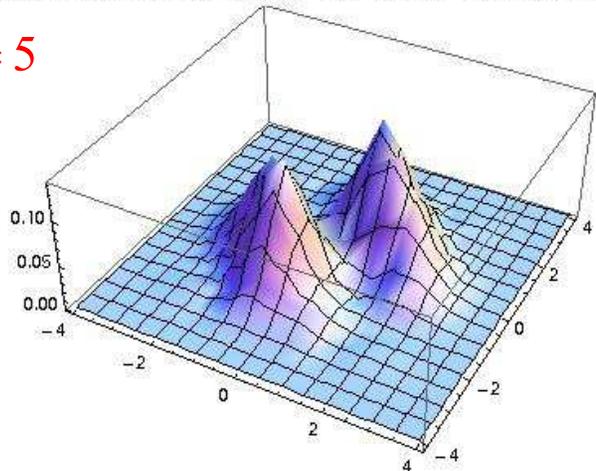
Plot3D[Abs[f[7, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]

$t = 7$



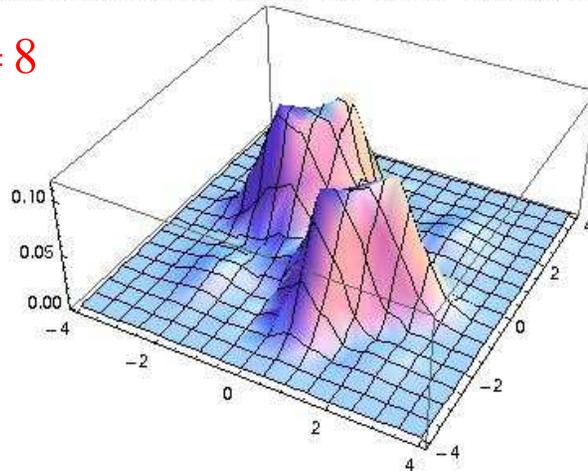
Plot3D[Abs[f[5, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]

$t = 5$



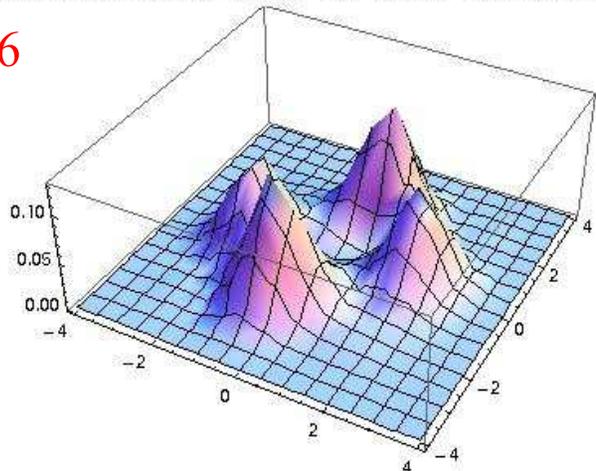
Plot3D[Abs[f[8, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]

$t = 8$



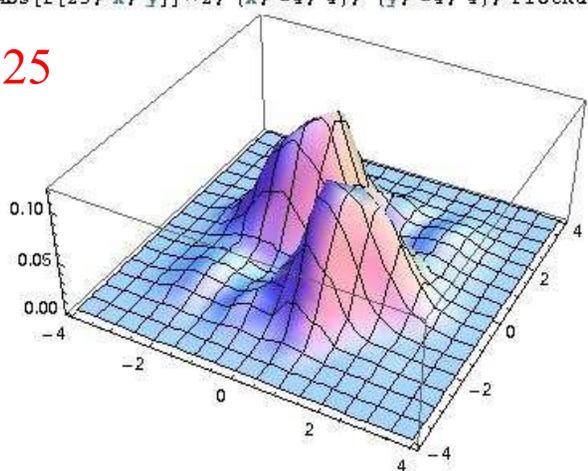
Plot3D[Abs[f[6, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]

$t = 6$



Plot3D[Abs[f[25, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]

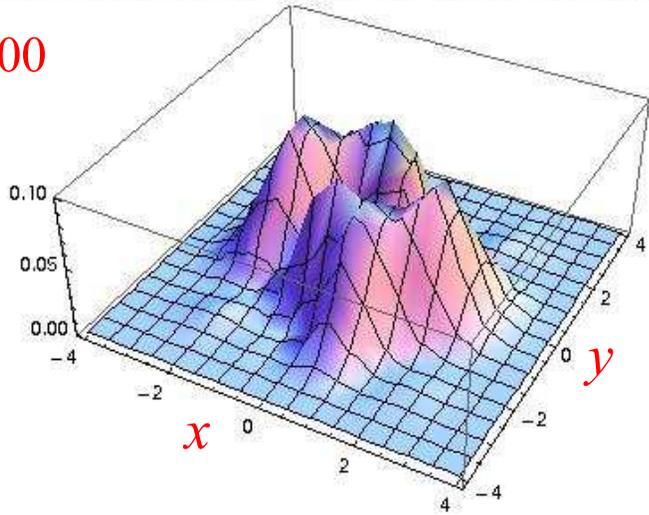
$t = 25$



```
Plot3D[Abs[f[500, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]
```

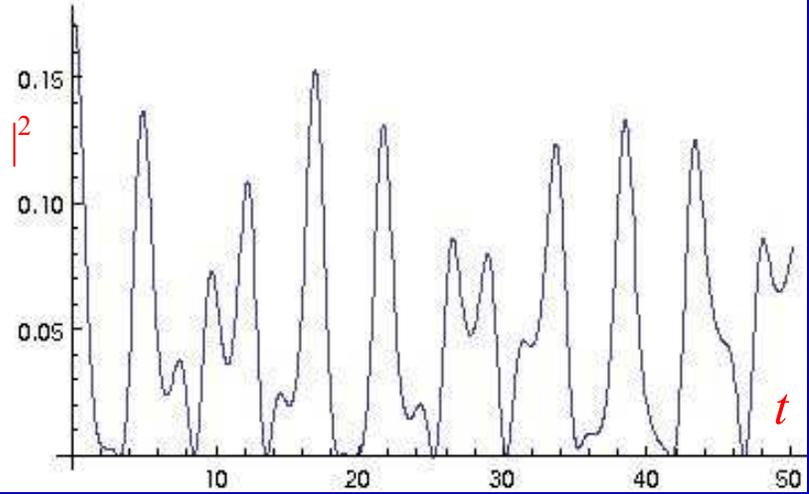
$t = 500$

$|\psi|^2$



```
Plot[Abs[f[tt, 1, 1]]^2, {tt, 0, 50}, PlotRange -> All]
```

$|\psi|^2$

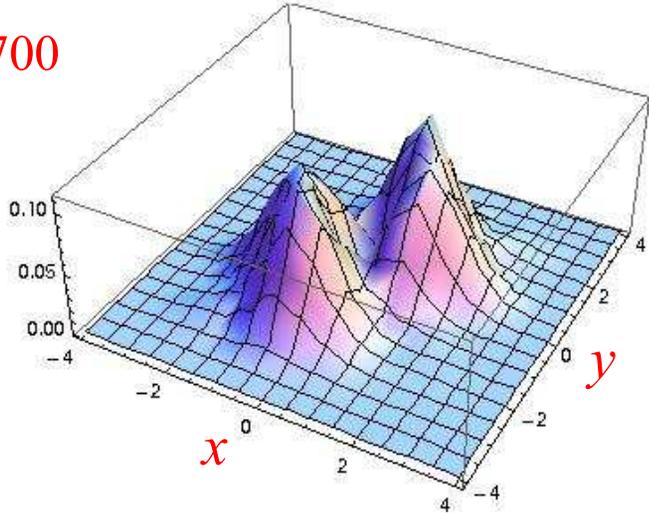


time

```
Plot3D[Abs[f[700, x, y]]^2, {x, -4, 4}, {y, -4, 4}, PlotRange -> All]
```

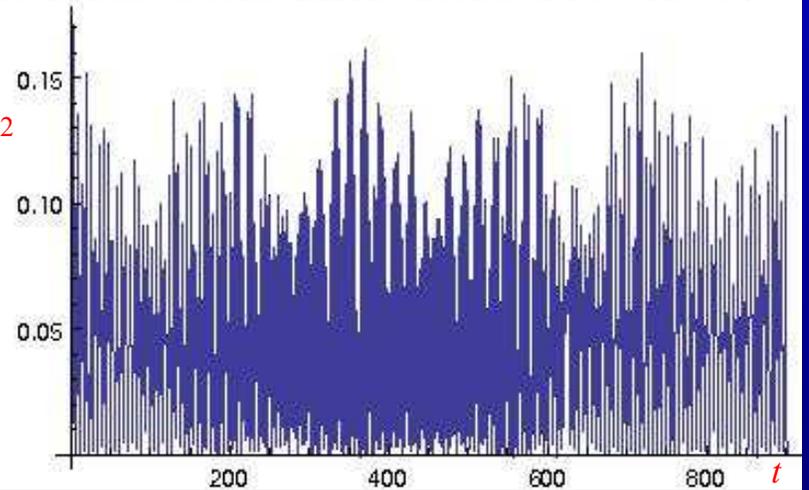
$t = 700$

$|\psi|^2$



```
Plot[Abs[f[tt, 1, 1]]^2, {tt, 0, 900}, PlotRange -> All]
```

$|\psi|^2$



time

Interacting quantum fields

Example: scalar fields

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \int dx^4 [g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \phi^a \partial_\nu \phi^b G_{ab} + V(\phi)]$$

Fock space basis

Upon quantization:

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum |P\rangle \langle P | \Psi\rangle$$

$$|P\rangle = |p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle$$

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = e^{-iH(t-t_0)} |\Psi(t_0)\rangle$$

H is the Hamilton operator corresponding to the field action

$$\langle P | \Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{P'} \langle P | e^{-iH(t-t_0)} | P'\rangle \langle P' | \Psi(t_0)\rangle$$

$|\Psi(t_0)\rangle = |0\rangle$ vacuum

$$\langle P | \Psi(t)\rangle = \langle P | e^{-iH(t-t_0)} | 0\rangle$$

Such transition is possible, because $\langle P |$ contains particles with positive and negative energies.

Vacuum decays into a superposition of many particle states:

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle \langle p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n | \Psi(t)\rangle$$

Interacting quantum fields

Example: scalar fields

$$I = \int dx^4 \frac{1}{2} [g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \varphi^a \partial_\nu \varphi^b \gamma_{ab} - V(\varphi)]$$

Fock space basis

$$|P\rangle = |p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle$$

Upon quantization:

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum |P\rangle \langle P | \Psi\rangle$$

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = e^{-iH(t-t_0)} |\Psi(t_0)\rangle$$

H is the Hamilton operator corresponding to the field action

$$\langle P | \Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{P'} \langle P | e^{-iH(t-t_0)} | P'\rangle \langle P' | \Psi(t_0)\rangle$$

$|\Psi(t_0)\rangle = |0\rangle$ vacuum

$$\langle P | \Psi(t)\rangle = \langle P | e^{-iH(t-t_0)} | 0\rangle$$

Such transition is possible, because $\langle P |$ contains particles with positive and negative energies.

Vacuum decays into a superposition of many particle states:

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle \langle p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n | \Psi(t)\rangle$$

The amplitude that we will measure the multi particle state $|p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle$

Interacting quantum fields

Example: scalar fields

$$I = \int dx^4 \frac{1}{2} [g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \varphi^a \partial_\nu \varphi^b \gamma_{ab} - V(\varphi)]$$

Fock space basis

$$|P\rangle = |p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle$$

Upon quantization:

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum |P\rangle \langle P | \Psi\rangle$$

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = e^{-iH(t-t_0)} |\Psi(t_0)\rangle$$

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$$\langle P | \Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{P'} \langle P | e^{-iH(t-t_0)} | P'\rangle \langle P' | \Psi(t_0)\rangle$$

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$$\langle P | \Psi(t)\rangle = \langle P | e^{-iH(t-t_0)} | 0\rangle$$

Such transition is possible, because $\langle P |$ contains particles with positive and negative energies.

Vacuum decays into

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle$$

$$\sum_{p_1} |\langle p_1 | \Psi\rangle|^2 + \sum_{p_1, p_2} |\langle p_1, p_2 | \Psi\rangle|^2 + \sum_{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n} |\langle p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n | \Psi\rangle|^2 + \dots = 1$$

Probabilities that vacuum decays into any of the states $|p_1\rangle, |p_1, p_2\rangle, |p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\rangle, \dots$ are not drastically different.

Generalized field action

We will write the usual field action

$$I = \int dx^4 \left[\frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \varphi^a \partial_\nu \varphi^b G_{ab} - V(\varphi) \right]$$

Integration over the repeated continuous "index" (x) is implied here.

in a more compact notation:

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi^{a(x)} \partial_\nu \varphi^{b(x')} \gamma^{\mu\nu}_{a(x)b(x')} - U[\varphi]$$

This comes from a higher dimensional action:

$$I_\varphi = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi^{A(x)} \partial_\nu \varphi^{B(x')} G^{\mu\nu}_{A(x)B(x')}$$

Kaluza-Klein split of the metric

$$G^{\mu\nu}_{AB} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma^{\mu\nu}_{ab} + A_a^{\bar{A}} A_b^{\bar{B}} \phi^{\mu\nu}_{\bar{A}\bar{B}}, & A_a^{\bar{B}} \phi^{\mu\nu}_{\bar{A}\bar{B}} \\ A_b^{\bar{B}} \phi^{\mu\nu}_{\bar{A}\bar{B}}, & \phi^{\mu\nu}_{\bar{A}\bar{B}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$I_\varphi = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi^{a(x)} \partial_\nu \varphi^{b(x')} \gamma^{\mu\nu}_{a(x)b(x')} + \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi_{\bar{A}} \partial_\nu \varphi_{\bar{B}} \phi^{\mu\nu \bar{A}\bar{B}}$$

$-U[\varphi]$

Total action:

$$I[\varphi, G] = I_\varphi + I_G$$

Since the metric $G^{\mu\nu}_{AB}$ is dynamical, the potential $U[\varphi]$ is not fixed, but it changes with evolution of the system.

Generalized Dirac field

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi^{11} & \psi^{12} & \psi^{13} & \psi^{14} \\ \psi^{21} & \psi^{22} & \psi^{23} & \psi^{24} \\ \psi^{31} & \psi^{32} & \psi^{33} & \psi^{34} \\ \psi^{41} & \psi^{42} & \psi^{43} & \psi^{44} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Energy} = \begin{pmatrix} + & + & - & - \\ + & + & - & - \\ - & - & + & + \\ - & - & + & + \end{pmatrix}$$

I. Dirac spinors
of the usual
energy type

II. Dirac spinors
of the opposite
energy type

Positive and negative energy states of the usual Dirac spinors do not mix in our Universe. Even if they did mix, the evolution of the Universe has led to the current situation with no mixing.

Dirac sea

This was not so clear when Dirac proposed his theory.

Here is what Fermi wrote:

It is well known that the most serious difficulty in Dirac's relativistic wave equation lies in the fact that it yields besides the normal positive states also negative ones, which have no physical significance. This would do no harm if no transition between positive and negative states were possible (as are, e.g., transitions between states with symmetrical and antisymmetrical wave function). But this is unfortunately not the case: Klein has shown by a very simple example that electrons impinging against a very high potential barrier have a finite probability of going over in a negative state.

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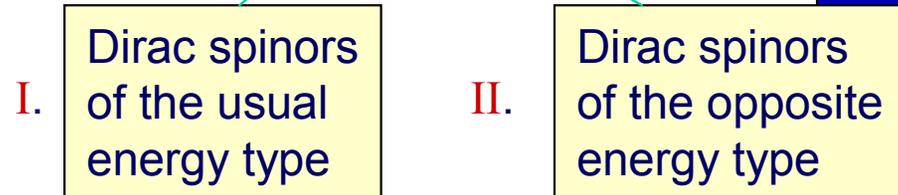
E. Fermi, Rev. Mod. Phys., 4, 87 (1932)

This problem was resolved by the Dirac sea of negative energy particles.

Generalized Dirac field

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi^{11} & \psi^{12} & \psi^{13} & \psi^{14} \\ \psi^{21} & \psi^{22} & \psi^{23} & \psi^{24} \\ \psi^{31} & \psi^{32} & \psi^{33} & \psi^{34} \\ \psi^{41} & \psi^{42} & \psi^{43} & \psi^{44} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Energy} = \begin{pmatrix} + & + & - & - \\ + & + & - & - \\ - & - & + & + \\ - & - & + & + \end{pmatrix}$$



Positive and negative energy states of the usual Dirac spinors do not mix in our Universe. Even if they did mix, the evolution of the Universe has led to the current situation with no mixing.

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During the evolution, the sea of type I negative and type II positive energy states have formed.

The existence of type I and type II Dirac spinors also should not be considered as a priori problematic.

Clifford algebra description of fermionic fields

$$\Psi = \psi^{r(x)} h_{r(x)} \quad r = 1, 2; \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^3 \quad \text{or} \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{1,3}$$

particular case

$$h_{r(x)} \cdot h_{s(x')} = \rho_{r(x)s(x')} \quad \text{metric} \quad \rho_{r(x)s(x')} = \delta_{rs} \delta(x - x')$$

New basis:

$$h_{(x)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (h_{1(x)} + i h_{2(x)})$$

$$h_{*(x)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (h_{1(x)} - i h_{2(x)})$$

Witt basis

$$\Psi = \psi^{(x)} h_{(x)} + \psi^{*(x)} h_{*(x)}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} h_{(x)} \cdot h_{*(x')} &= \rho_{(x)*(x')} \\ h_{(x)} \cdot h_{(x')} &= h_{*(x)} \cdot h_{*(x')} = 0 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$\rho_{(x)*(x')} \equiv \delta(x - x')$$

$$\rho_{(x)*(x')} = \rho_{*(x)(x')}$$

Fermionic commutation relations

Scalar product:

$$\langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle_S = \psi^{(x)} \rho_{(x)*(x')} \psi^{*(x')} + \psi^{*(x)} \rho_{*(x)(x')} \psi^{(x)}$$

$$\psi^{(x)} h_{(x)} \rightarrow |\Psi\rangle$$

$$\psi^{*(x)} h_{*(x)} \rightarrow \langle \Psi |$$

Both vectors bring the same information about the state

$$\langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle = \psi^{*(x)} h_{*(x)} \cdot h_{(x')} \psi^{(x')} = \psi^{*(x)} \rho_{*(x)(x')} \psi^{(x')} = \int dx \psi^*(x) \psi(x)$$

Vacuum

$$\Omega = \prod_x h_{*(x)}$$

$$h_{*(x)}\Omega = 0$$

$$\Psi \Omega = \psi^{(x)} h_{(x)} \Omega$$

The second part of Ψ disappears

$$\Psi = \psi^{(x)} h_{(x)} + \psi^{*(x)} h_{*(x)}$$

Let us consider a more general case:

$$\Psi \Omega = (\psi_0 + \psi^{(x)} h_{(x)} + \psi^{(x)(x')} h_{(x)} h_{(x')} + \dots) \Omega$$

This state is the infinite dimensional space analog of the spinor as an element of a left ideal of Clifford algebra

Other possible vacuums:

$$\Omega = \prod_x h_{(x)},$$

$$h_{(x)}\Omega = 0$$

$$\Omega = \left(\prod_{x \in R_1} h_{*(x)} \right) \left(\prod_{x \in R_2} h_{(x)} \right)$$

Analogous holds in momentum representation.

In the usual notation we have

$$b_n^{\bar{i}}(p^0 > 0, \mathbf{p}), \quad d_n^{\bar{i}}(p^0 < 0, \mathbf{p}) \quad \text{annihilate } \Omega$$

$$b_n^{i\dagger}(p^0 < 0, \mathbf{p}), \quad d_n^{i\dagger}(p^0 > 0, \mathbf{p})$$

Vacuum

$$\Omega = \left(\prod_{n,\mathbf{p}} b_n^{\bar{i}}(p^0 > 0, \mathbf{p}) \right) \left(\prod_{n,\mathbf{p}} d_n^{\bar{i}}(p^0 < 0, \mathbf{p}) \right) \left(\prod_{n,\mathbf{p}} b_n^{i\dagger}(p^0 < 0, \mathbf{p}) \right) \left(\prod_{n,\mathbf{p}} d_n^{i\dagger}(p^0 > 0, \mathbf{p}) \right)$$

One particle Fock states:

$$b_n^{i\dagger} \Omega, \quad d_n^{\bar{i}\dagger} \Omega, \quad b_n^i \Omega, \quad d_n^{\bar{i}} \Omega, \quad \dots, \quad \text{and all many particle states}$$

Positive energies

Negative energies

$$\Omega \xrightarrow{\text{decays}} \text{Superposition of positive and negative energy states}$$

The final state with infinitely many positive and negative energy particles, $|p_1, p_2, \dots, p_\infty\rangle$, is the state in which all operators were removed from the vacuum Ω :

$$\Psi(t) = b_{n_1}^{\bar{i}\dagger}(p_1) b_{n_2}^{\bar{i}\dagger}(p_2) \dots d_{n_1}^{\bar{i}\dagger}(p_1) d_{n_2}^{\bar{i}\dagger}(p_2) \dots d_{n_1}^{\bar{i}}(p_1) d_{n_2}^{\bar{i}}(p_2) \dots \Omega = 1$$

The latter state also is 'unstable' and can evolve into another state that is a superposition of the following basis states:

$$b_n^{\bar{i}\dagger}, \quad d_n^{\bar{i}\dagger}, \quad b_n^i, \quad d_n^{\bar{i}}, \quad \dots, \quad \text{and all many operator states}$$





Although according to Newton's dynamics such a configuration cannot be stable, Nature has found a way to make it stable for some time.



Although according to Newton's dynamics such a configuration cannot be stable, Nature has found a way to make it stable for some time.

Although according to QFT, interacting field configurations with negative energies are unstable, they might not be so vigorously unstable in properly generalized QFTs.

Conclusion

Field theories in spaces with neutral signature may not have so vigorously unstable solutions, as believed so far.

Moreover, they could explain the occurrence of Big Bang or the fact that the Universe is not stable (Einstein's ``Biggest blunder’’).

We have demonstrated stability on the example of the classical oscillator $x^a(t)$ for two case:

- unequal metric coefficients
- collisions of the oscillator with surrounding particles

We expect that ---because of the correspondence principle--- this is also true for the quantized oscillator.

Field theories should be suitable generalized, so to included the kinetic term for the metric in the field space.

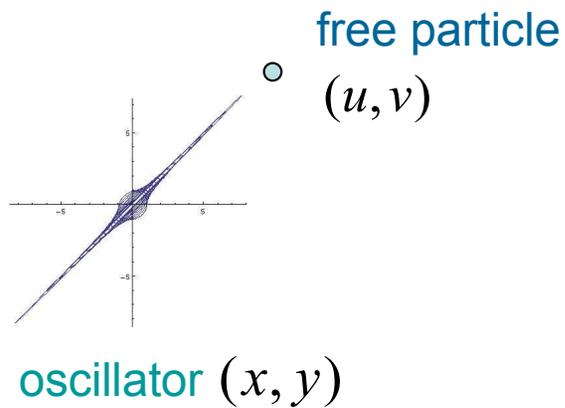
Then the corresponding field potential is not fixed, but changes during the evolution of the system.

Clifford algebra formulation of fermionic fields and vacuums brings novel insight into the evolution of such systems.

Further studies, including (generalized) quantum gravity, are necessary to give us a deeper and more detailed insight into the nature of field theories in spaces with neutral signature.

The following are auxiliary slides that were not presented in the talk

Collision of the oscillator with a free particle



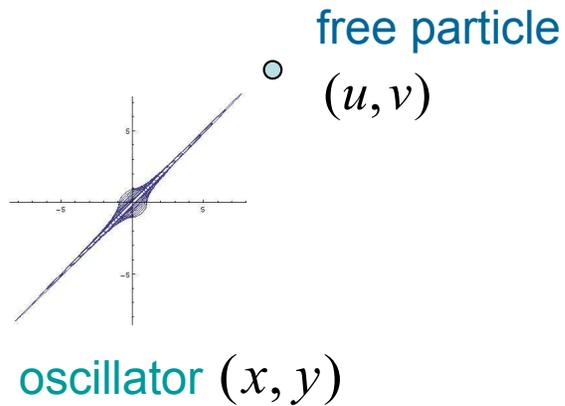
Particle is practically free before and after the collision

This part of the Lagrangian models the collision interaction

Model Lagrangian:

$$L = \frac{1}{2}(\dot{x}^2 - \dot{y}^2) - \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) - \frac{\lambda}{4}(x^2 - y^2)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\dot{u}^2 + \dot{v}^2) - \frac{\alpha/5}{[(u-x)^2 + (v-y)^2 + a]^5}$$

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Model Lagrangian:

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$$\ddot{x} + x + \lambda x(x^2 - y^2) + \frac{\alpha(u-x)}{[(u-x)^2 + (v-y)^2 + a]^{5/2}} = 0$$

$$\ddot{y} + y + \lambda y(x^2 - y^2) + \frac{\alpha(v-y)}{[(u-x)^2 + (v-y)^2 + a]^{5/2}} = 0$$

$$\ddot{u} - \frac{\alpha(u-x)}{(u-x)^2 + (v-y)^2 + a} = 0$$

$$\ddot{v} - \frac{\alpha(v-y)}{[(u-x)^2 + (v-y)^2 + a]^{5/2}} = 0$$

```
sol = NDSolve[{x'[t] + x[t] + 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) +
  (u[t] - x[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2))
= 0, y'[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) -
  (v[t] - y[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2))
= 0, u''[t] - (u[t] - x[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2))
= 0, v''[t] - (v[t] - y[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2))
= 0, x[0] == 0, y[0] == 1, u[0] == 12, v[0] == 11.5,
  x'[0] == 1, y'[0] == 0, u'[0] == 0, v'[0] == 0},
  {x, y, u, v}, {t, 1000}]
```

```
ParametricPlot[Evaluate[{x[t], y[t]} /. sol],
  {t, 0, 150}, PlotRange -> All]
```

$$\ddot{x} + x + 0.1x(x^2 - y^2) + \frac{u - x}{[(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1]^{5/2}} = 0$$

$$\ddot{y} + y + 0.1y(x^2 - y^2) + \frac{v - y}{[(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1]^{5/2}} = 0$$

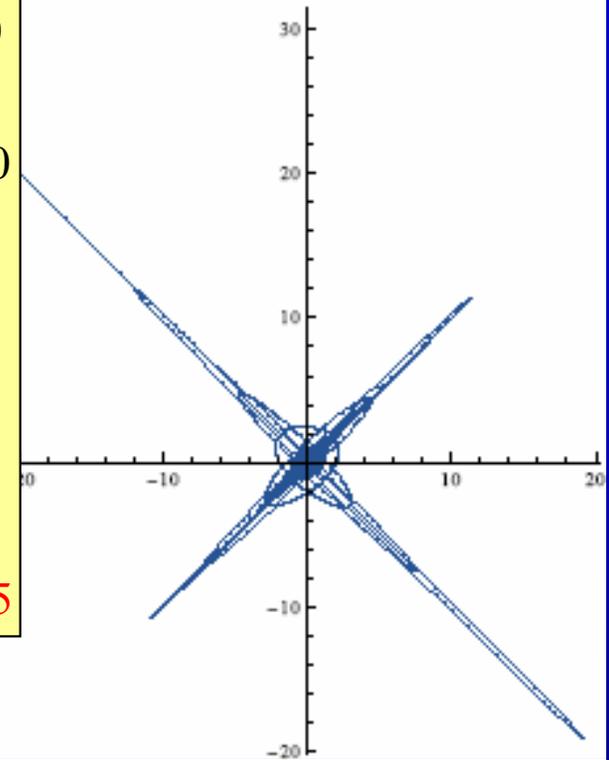
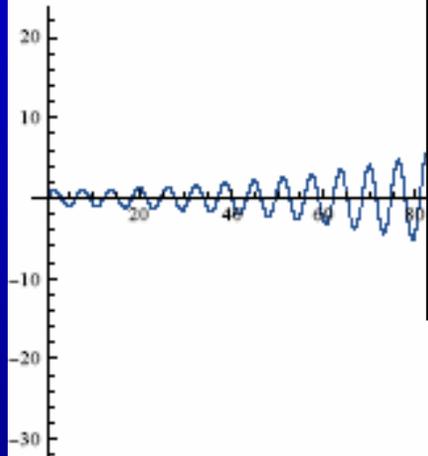
$$\ddot{u} - \frac{u - x}{(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1} = 0$$

$$\ddot{v} - \frac{v - y}{[(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1]^{5/2}} = 0$$

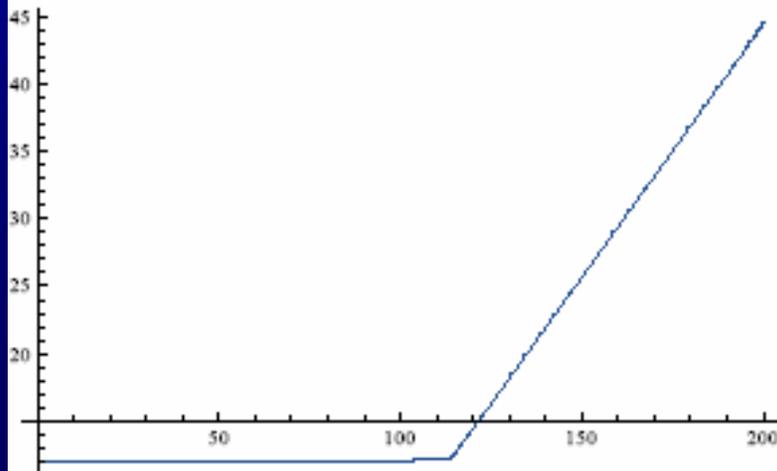
$$\dot{x}(0) = 1, \dot{y}(0) = 0, \dot{u}(0) = 0, \dot{v}(0) = 0,$$

$$x(0) = 0, y(0) = 1, u(0) = 12, v(0) = 11.5$$

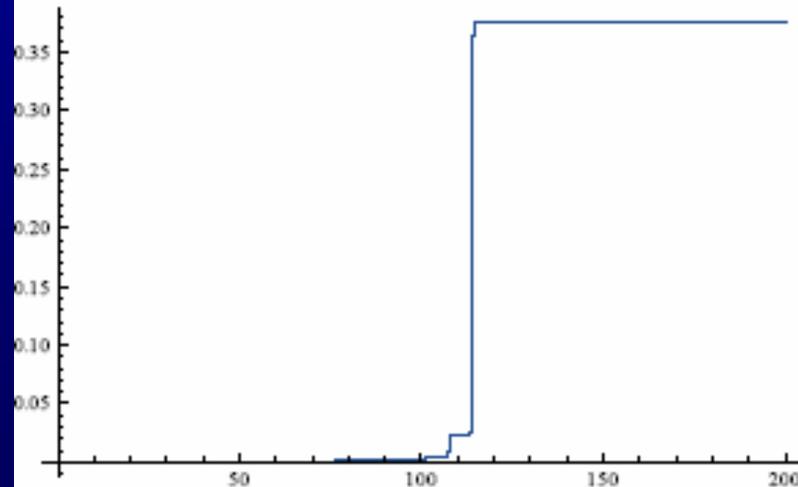
```
Plot[Evaluate[x[t] /. sol],
  {t, 0, 152}, PlotRange -> All]
```



```
Plot[Evaluate[u[t] /. sol],
  {t, 0, 200}, PlotRange -> All]
```



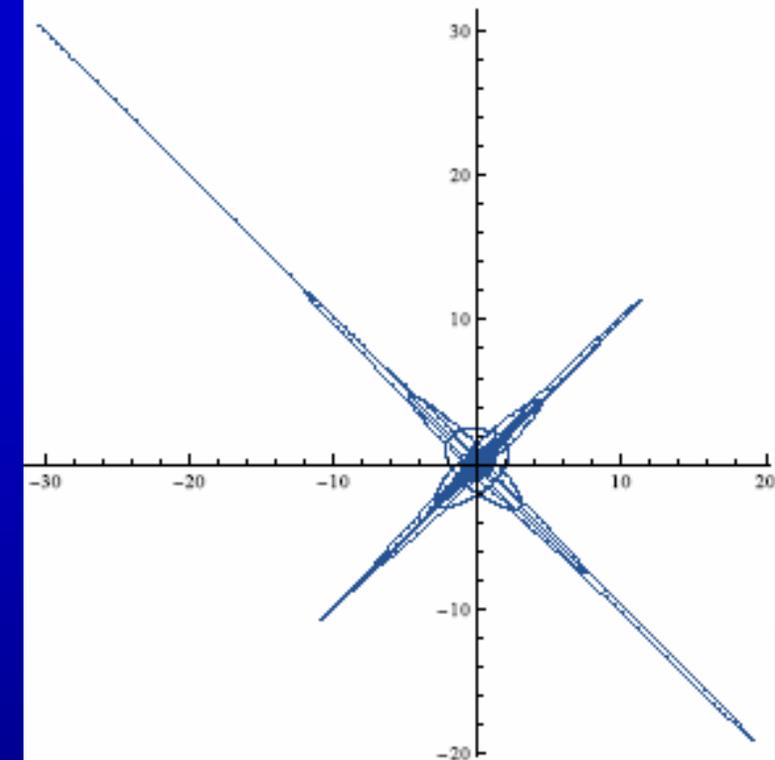
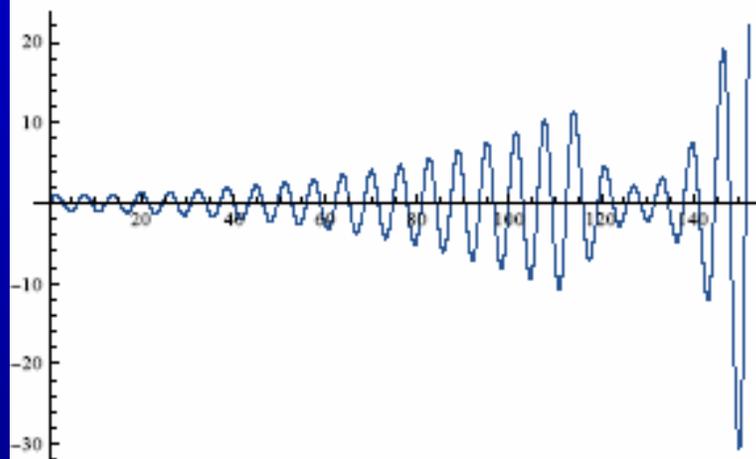
```
Plot[Evaluate[u'[t] /. sol],
  {t, 0, 200}, PlotRange -> All]
```



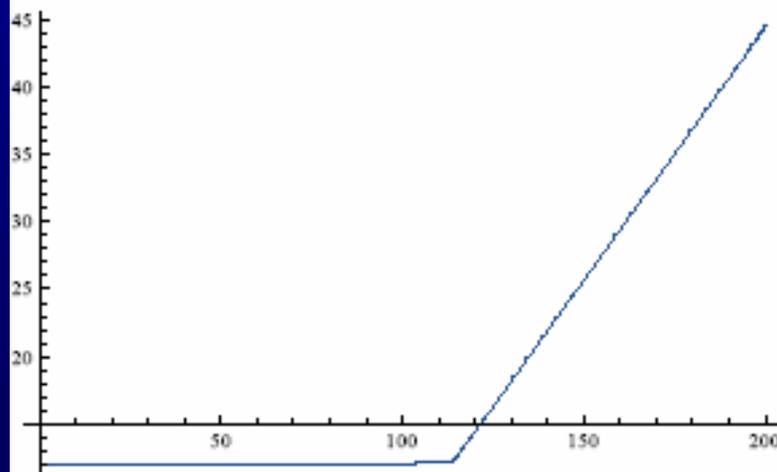
```
sol = NDSolve[{x'[t] + x[t] + 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) +
  (u[t] - x[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2))
= 0, y'[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) -
  (v[t] - y[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2)) = 0,
u''[t] - (u[t] - x[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2)) = 0,
v''[t] - (v[t] - y[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2)) = 0,
x'[0] = 1, y'[0] == 0, u'[0] = 0, v'[0] = 0, x[0] == 0, y[0] = 1, u[0] = 12, v[0] = 11.5},
{x, y, u, v}, {t, 1000}]
```

```
ParametricPlot[Evaluate[{x[t], y[t]} /. sol],
  {t, 0, 150}, PlotRange -> All]
```

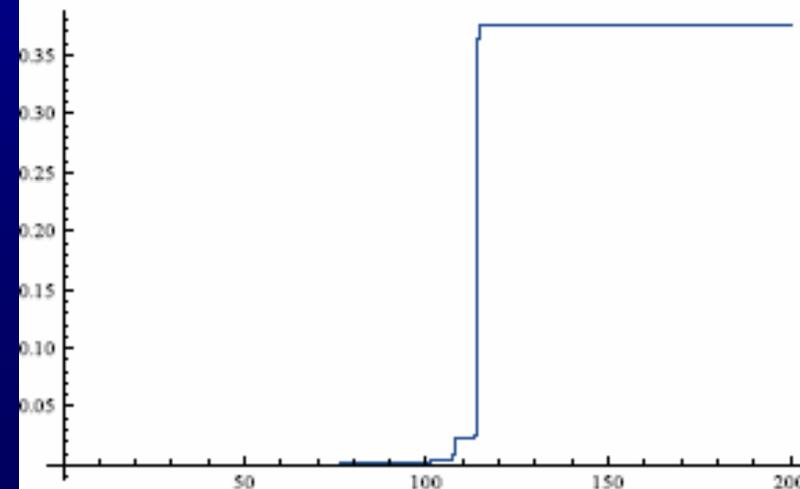
```
Plot[Evaluate[x[t] /. sol],
  {t, 0, 152}, PlotRange -> All]
```



```
Plot[Evaluate[u[t] /. sol],
  {t, 0, 200}, PlotRange -> All]
```

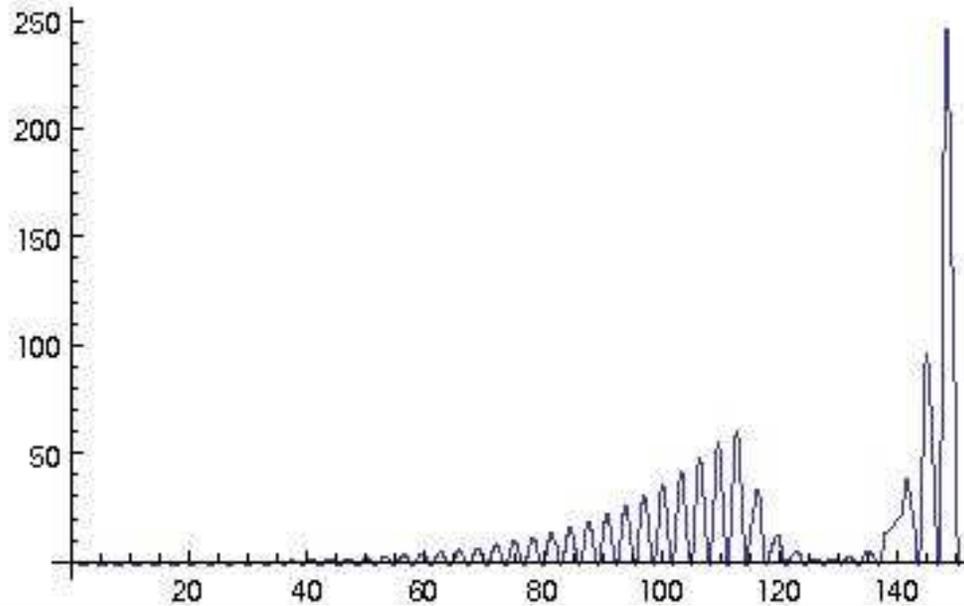


```
Plot[Evaluate[u'[t] /. sol],
  {t, 0, 200}, PlotRange -> All]
```

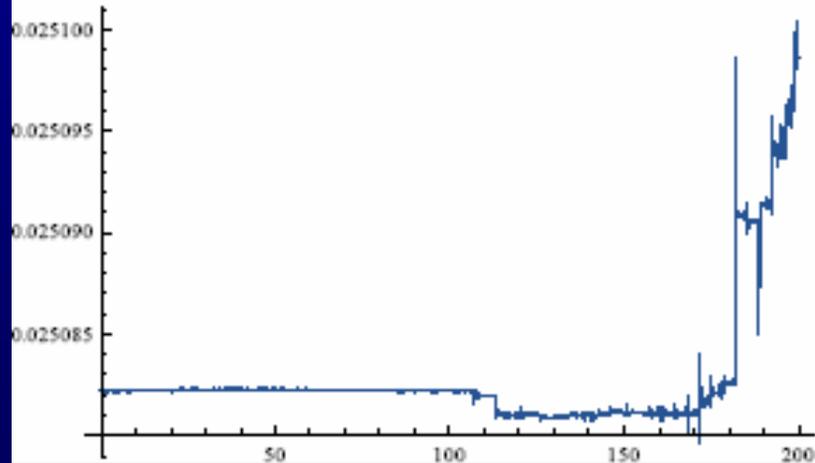


Kinetic energy of the oscillator increases to infinity

```
Plot[Evaluate[x'[t]^2/2 /. sol],  
{t, 0, 150}, PlotRange -> All]
```



```
Plot[Evaluate[(1/2) (x'[t]^2 - y'[t]^2 + u'[t]^2 + v'[t]^2 + x[t]^2 - y[t]^2)  
+ (0.1/4) (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2)^2 +  
(1/3) / ((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(3/2)) /. sol],  
{t, 0, 200}, PlotRange -> All]
```



Total energy is conserved

```
sol = NDSolve[{x''[t] + 1.0001 x[t] + 1.0001 + 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) +
(u[t] - x[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2))
= 0, y''[t] + 1.0001 y[t] + 1.0001 * 0.1 y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) +
(v[t] - y[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2))
= 0, u''[t] - 0.1 u[t] + 0.1 x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) +
(v[t] - y[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2))
= 0, v''[t] - 0.1 v[t] + 0.1 y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) +
(u[t] - x[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2))
= 0}, {x, y, u, v}, {t, 0, 746}, {x[0] == 0, y[0] == 1, u[0] == 12, v[0] == 11.5,
x'[0] == 1, y'[0] == 0, u'[0] == 0, v'[0] == 0}
```

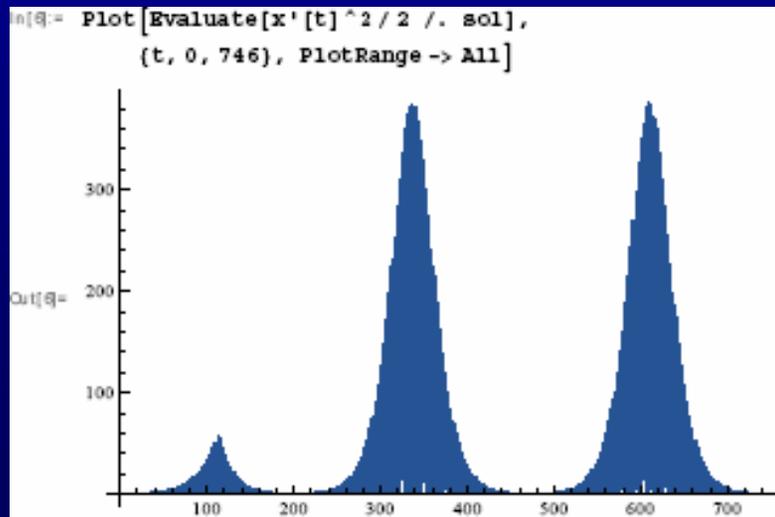
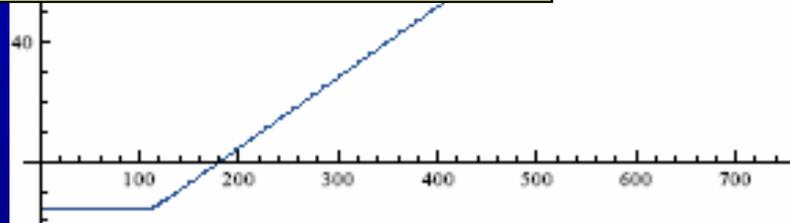
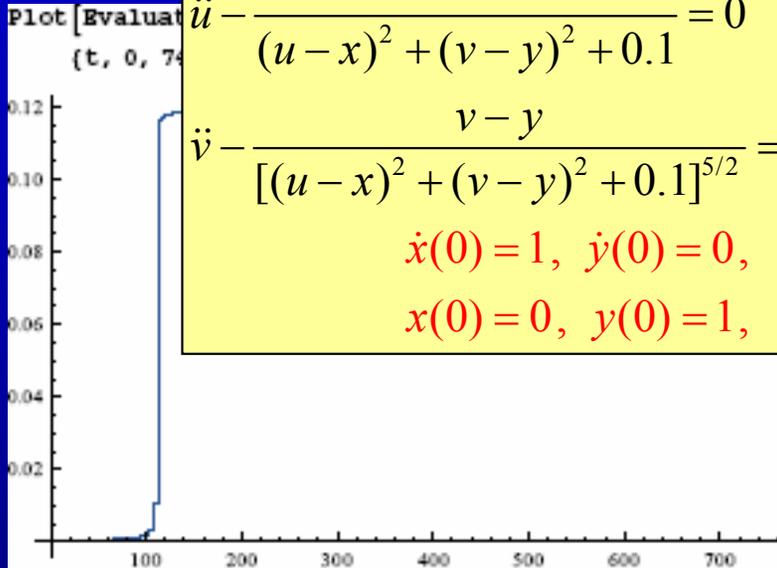
$$\ddot{x} + 1.0001x + 1.0001 \times 0.1x(x^2 - y^2) + \frac{u - x}{[(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1]^{5/2}} = 0$$

$$\ddot{y} + y + 0.1y(x^2 - y^2) + \frac{v - y}{[(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1]^{5/2}} = 0$$

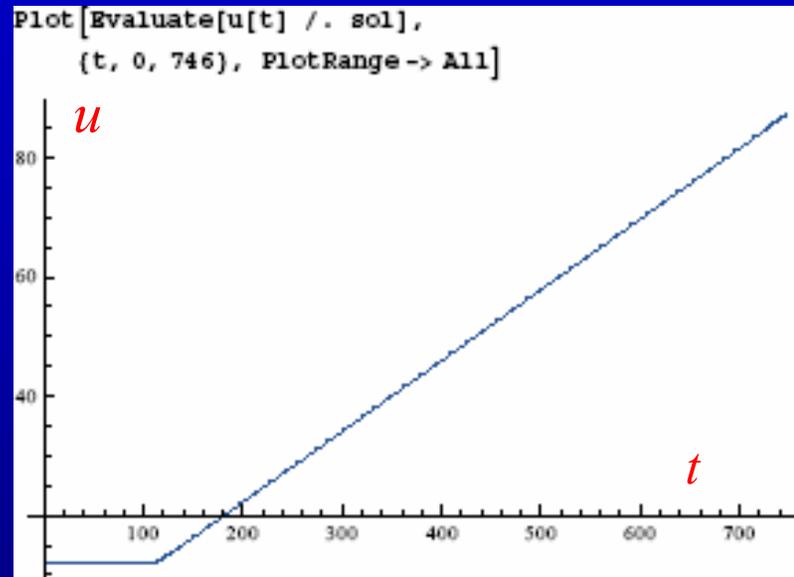
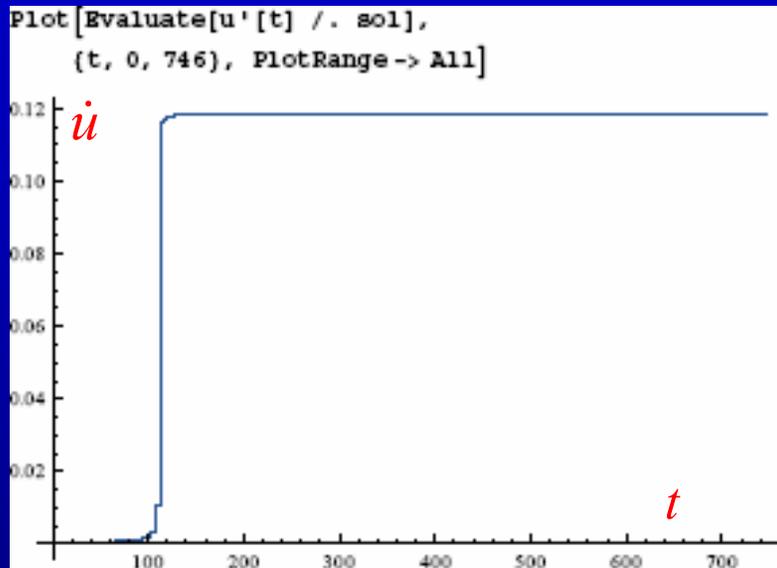
$$\ddot{u} - \frac{u - x}{(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1} = 0$$

$$\ddot{v} - \frac{v - y}{[(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1]^{5/2}} = 0$$

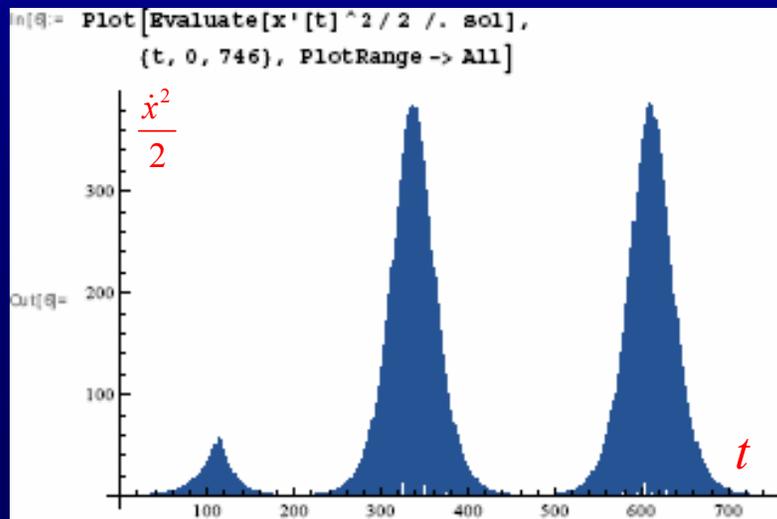
$\dot{x}(0) = 1, \dot{y}(0) = 0, \dot{u}(0) = 0, \dot{v}(0) = 0,$
 $x(0) = 0, y(0) = 1, u(0) = 12, v(0) = 11.5$



```
sol = NDSolve[{x''[t] + 1.0001 x[t] + 1.0001 + 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) +
  (u[t] - x[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2))
  = 0, y''[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) -
  (v[t] - y[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2)) = 0,
  u'''[t] - (u[t] - x[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2)) = 0,
  v'''[t] - (v[t] - y[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2)) = 0,
  x'[0] = 1, y'[0] == 0, u'[0] = 0, v'[0] = 0, x[0] == 0, y[0] = 1, u[0] = 12, v[0] = 11.5},
  {x, y, u, v}, {t, 1000}]
```



time



time