QUANTUM FIELD THEORIES AND SPACES WITH NEUTRAL SIGNATURE

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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 \textit{volume degrees of freedom}.

\[ M_4 \]

\[ X^\mu (\xi^a) \]

\[ X^{123} \]

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

\[ x^M \equiv x^{\mu_1 \ldots \mu_r} , \quad r = 0,1,2,3,4 \]

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):

\[ dS^2 = dx^M G_{MN} dx^N = \langle dx^M \gamma^M \gamma^N dx^N \rangle_0 \quad dx^M \equiv dx^{\mu_1 \ldots \mu_r}, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 \]

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

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

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

\[ dS^2 = dx^M G_{MN} dx^N = \langle dx^M \gamma^+_M \gamma^+_N dx^N \rangle_0 \]

\[ dx^M \equiv dx^{\mu_1 \ldots \mu_r}, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 \]

**Metric**

\[ G_{MN} = \gamma^+_M * \gamma^+_N \equiv \langle \gamma^+_M \gamma^+_N \rangle_0 \]

**Reversion**

\[ (\gamma_{\mu_1} \gamma_{\mu_2} \ldots \gamma_{\mu_r})^\dagger = \gamma_{\mu_r} \ldots \gamma_{\mu_2} \gamma_{\mu_1} \]

**Signature:**

\[ + + + + + + + + + + + + - - - - - - - - \]

(8,8)

**In flat C-space:**

\[ \gamma_{\mu_1 \mu_2 \ldots \mu_r} = \gamma_{\mu_1} \wedge \gamma_{\mu_2} \wedge \ldots \wedge \gamma_{\mu_r} \]

at every point \( E \in C \)
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 $p=0,1,2,...$

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 $p=0, 1, 2, \ldots$ 

But such interpretation is not obligatory. 

Thick particle may be a conglomerate of whatever extended objects that can be sampled by polyvector coordinates $X^M \equiv X^\mu_{\mu_2 \ldots \mu_r}$.
A Toy Model: Harmonic Oscillator in Pseudo-Euclidean Space

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

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

\(^1\text{M. Pavšič, Phys. Lett. A 254 (1999) 119}\)
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 \textit{maximum} in the (y,V)-plane\(^2\).

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:**

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

\[
\dot{x} = -x - 0.1(4x^3 y^2 - 2x y^4), \quad \dot{y} = -y + 0.1(2x^4 y - 4x^2 y^3)
\]

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

\[
x(0) = 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 400]
\]

Calculations executed by Mathematica, by using NDSolve and ParametricPlot

\(^2\text{M. Pavšič, Found. Phys. 35 (2005) 1617}\)
\[ \ddot{x} = -x - 0.1(4x^3y^2 - 2x y^4), \]
\[ \ddot{y} = -y + 0.1(2x^4y - 4x^2y^3) \]
\[ x(0) = 0.9, \quad \dot{x}(0) = 0.2, \]
\[ x(0) = 0.6, \quad y(0) = 1.5, \quad t \in [0, 514] \]

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

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

\[ V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + 0.1(x^4 y^2 + x^2 y^4) \]
\[ x(0) = 0.9, \quad y(0) = 0, \]
\[ x(0) = 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 400] \]

\[ V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + 0.1(x^4 y - x^3) \]
\[ x(0) = 0.8, \quad y(0) = 0.2, \]
\[ x(0) = 0.2, \quad y(0) = 0.9, \quad t \in [0, 700] \]

\[ V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + 0.1(x^4 + y^4) \]
\[ x(0) = 1, \quad y(0) = 0.2, \]
\[ x(0) = 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 700] \]

\[ V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + 0.1x^4 \]
\[ x(0) = 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad t \in [0, 400] \]
The Hamilton form of the equations of motion\(^1\)

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

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

Poisson brackets are defined as usual

\[
\{x, p_x\} = 1, \quad \{y, p_y\} = 1
\]

In the quantized theory we have commutators

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

Introducing\(^1\)

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

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

we have

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

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

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

\[
H = \omega (c_x^\dagger c_x - c_y^\dagger c_y)
\]

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

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

**Vacuum**

Using \(p_x = -i\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \quad p_y = -i\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\)

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:

\[
\int \psi_0^2 \, dx \, dy = 1
\]
Generalization to $M_{r,s}$

Signature $(r,s), \quad a,b = 1,2,...,r+s$

Procedure with generalizing the operators $c_x, c_x^\dagger, c_y, c_y^\dagger$ of the 2-dimensional case $^1$:

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

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

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

**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 operators $^2$:**

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

**A.**

$$a^a = \frac{1}{2} \left( \sqrt{\omega} x^a + \frac{i}{\sqrt{\omega}} p_a \right)$$

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

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

**B.**

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

I. $a^a \ket{0} = 0$

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

II. $a^a = (a^\sigma, a^\pi)$

$$a^\sigma \ket{0} = 0, \quad a^{a\dagger} \ket{0} = 0$$

$$H = \omega \left( a^{\sigma\dagger} a_\sigma + a_\sigma a^{\sigma\dagger} + \frac{r}{2} + \frac{s}{2} \right)$$
In \textit{Case A}, the creation and annihilation operators are superpositions of the coordinates $x^a$ and the covariant components of momenta $p_a$.

In \textit{Case B}, the creation and annihilation operators are superpositions of the coordinates $x^a$ and the contravariant components of momenta $p^a$.

In \textit{Case B}, there are two possible definitions of vacuum:

\textbf{Possibility I.}

This is the usual definition $a^a \ket{0} = 0$. 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.

\textbf{Possibility II.}

This is the Cangemi-Jackiw-Zwiebach definition\textsuperscript{3}

$$a^\pi \ket{0} = 0, \quad a^{\pi \dagger} \ket{0} = 0, \quad \bar{a} = 1,2,\ldots,r, \quad a = 1,2,\ldots,s$$

The eigenvalues of

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

can be positive or negative. There are no negative norm states.

The presence of negative energies does not automatically imply instability of the system.

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

\textsuperscript{3}D. Cangemi, R. Jackiw, and B. Zwiebach, Ann. of Phys. 245 (1996) 408

Quantum Field Theory

A system of scalar fields

Action

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

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

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

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

The Hamiltonian is

\[ H = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3x \left( \dot{\phi}^a \dot{\phi}^b - \partial_i \phi^a \partial_i \phi^b + m^2 \phi^a \phi^b \right) \gamma_{ab} \]

\[ \phi^a = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{2\omega_k} (a^a(k)e^{-ikx} + a^a(k)\tilde{e}^{ikx}) \]

\[ [a^a(k), a^b(k')] = (2\pi)^3 2\omega_k \delta^3(k - k') \delta^a_b \]

\[ [a^a(k), a^{b\dagger}(k')] = (2\pi)^3 2\omega_k \delta^3(k - k') \gamma^{ab} \]

\[ H = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3k \frac{\omega_k}{2\omega_k} \left( a^{a\dagger}(k) a^b(k) + a^a(k) a^{b\dagger}(k) \right) \gamma_{ab} \]

\[ a^\alpha(k) |0\rangle = 0, \quad a^{a\dagger}(k) |0\rangle = 0 \]

\[ H = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\omega_k}{2\omega_k} (a^{a\dagger}(k) a^\alpha(k) + a^\alpha(k) a^{a\dagger}(k)) + \frac{1}{2} \int d^3k \omega_k \delta^3(0)(r - s) \]

If signature has equal number of plus and minus signs, i.e., if \( r = s \), then the zero point energies cancel out from the Hamiltonian\(^1\).
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:

\[
\text{Vacuum energy vanishes.}
\]

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 exclude\(^1\) the existence of the well known vacuum effects, such as the Casimir effect.
Generalized Dirac equation (Dirac-Kähler equation\textsuperscript{7})

\[(i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)\Phi = 0\]
\[\Phi = \phi^A \gamma^A = \psi^{A \xi} \xi^A = \psi^{\alpha i} \xi^{\alpha i}\]
\[\langle (\xi^A \rangle_{\alpha A} \gamma^\mu \xi^B_{\beta B} \rangle_S = (\gamma^\mu)^A_B \]
\[\left( i (\gamma^\mu)^A_B \partial_\mu - m \delta^A_B \right) \psi^B = 0\]
\[(\gamma^\mu)^A_B = (\gamma^\mu)_{\alpha \beta} \delta^i_j\]
\[\left( i (\gamma^\mu)^{\alpha \beta} \partial_\mu - m \delta^{\alpha}_{\beta} \right) \psi^{B \beta} = 0\]
\[(i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)\psi^i = 0\]

Here we omit spinor index \(\alpha\)

Action

\[I = \int d^4 x \, \overline{\psi}^i (i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)\psi^j z_{ij}\]

\textsuperscript{7}E. Kähler, Rendiconti di Matematica 21 (1962) 425;
S.I. Kruglov, Dirac-Kähler Equation, arXiv: hep-th/0110251 (and many references therein)
Hamiltonian

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

We expand \( \psi^i \) in terms of the annihilation and creation operators

\[ H = \sum_{n=1}^{2} \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} m \left( b_{n}^{i\dagger}(p) b_{n}^j(p) - d_{n}^i(p) d_{n}^{j\dagger}(p) \right) z_{ij} \]

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.

\[ i = (i, \bar{i}) , \quad \bar{i} = 1,2 ; \quad i = 3,4 \]

We split the index

\[ b_{n}^\dagger \ket{0} = 0 , \quad d_{n}^\dagger \ket{0} = 0 \]
\[ b_{n}^{i\dagger} \ket{0} = 0 , \quad d_{n}^{i\dagger} \ket{0} = 0 \]

We define vacuum according to Cangemi-Jackiw-Zwiebach.
Index \( \bar{i} \) refers to the negative signature sector.

\[ H = \sum_{n=1}^{2} \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} m \left( b_{n}^{\dagger\dagger}(p) b_{n}^j(p) - b_{n}^{i\dagger}(p) b_{n}^{j\dagger}(p) + d_{n}^{\dagger\dagger}(p) d_{n}^j(p) - d_{n}^{i\dagger}(p) d_{n}^{j\dagger}(p) + \delta(0) (z^{ij} - z^{ji}) \right) z_{ij} \]

This term vanishes

\( \langle 0 \mid H \mid 0 \rangle = 0 \)

Vacuum expectation of this Hamiltonian is zero

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

\( \langle T^{00} \rangle = \langle H \rangle \) is the source of the gravitational field. Because \( \langle 0 \mid H \mid 0 \rangle = \langle 0 \mid T^{00} \mid 0 \rangle = 0 \), 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 equation\textsuperscript{7} and its generalization\textsuperscript{4,5} may provide a theoretical framework that could be used for the unification of fundamental particles and forces.

\textsuperscript{4}M. Pavšič, Int. J. Mod. Phys. 21 (2006) 5905 (and references therein)
\textsuperscript{5}M. Pavšič, Phys. Lett. B 614 (2005) 85
Presence of interactions

Classical Oscillator

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

Equation of motion:

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

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

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

As an example we will study this form of interaction.
\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{x} + x + 0.1 y (x^2 - y^2) &= 0, \\
\dot{y} + y + 0.1 y (x^2 - y^2) &= 0, \\
(\dot{x}(0) = 1, \dot{y}(0) = 0), \\
(x(0) = 0, y(0) = 1).
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{sol} &= \text{NDSolve}[\{x''[t] + x[t] + 0.1 \cdot x[t] \cdot (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) = 0, \\
y''[t] + y[t] + 0.1 \cdot y[t] \cdot (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) = 0, \\
x'[0] = 1, y'[0] = -1.2, x[0] = 0, y[0] = 0.5\}, \{x, y\}, \{t, 1000\}] \\
\text{sol} &= \text{NDSolve}[\{x''[t] + x[t] + 0.1 \cdot x[t] \cdot (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) = 0, \\
y''[t] + y[t] + 0.1 \cdot y[t] \cdot (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) = 0, \\
x'[0] = 1, y'[0] = 0, x[0] = 0, y[0] = 1\}, \{x, y\}, \{t, 3000\}] 
\end{align*}
\]
\begin{align*}
\dot{x} + 1.01 x + 1.01 \times 0.1 \times x(x^2 - y^2) &= 0 \\
\dot{y} + y + 0.1 \times y(x^2 - y^2) &= 0 \\
\dot{x}(0) &= 1, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0, \\
x(0) &= 0, \quad y(0) = 1
\end{align*}
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{sol} &= \text{NDSolve}[\{x'[t] + 1.01 x[t] + 1.01 * 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) = 0, \\
y'[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) = 0, x'[0] = 1, \\
y'[0] = 0, x[0] = 0, y[0] = 1\}, (x, y), \{t, 1000\}] \\
\text{ParametricPlot}[
\text{Evaluate}[(x[t], y[t]) /. \text{sol}], \\
\{t, 0, 100\}, \text{PlotRange} \to \text{All}]
\end{align*}
\]
Stueckelberg action in higher dimensions

\[ I = \frac{1}{2} \int d\tau \, g_{\mu\nu} \dot{X}^\mu \dot{X}^\nu \quad \mu, \nu = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, D - 1 \]

\[
\begin{align*}
 g_{\mu\nu} \dot{X}^\mu \dot{X}^\nu &= \gamma_{ab} \dot{X}^a \dot{X}^b + \frac{\dot{X}_0^2}{g_{00}} \\
 \gamma_{ab} &= g_{ab} - \frac{g_{0a}g_{0b}}{g_{00}}
\end{align*}
\]

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

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

Equations of motion

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

\( \gamma_{ab,c} = 0 \)

\[
\dot{X}^a + \frac{1}{2} \frac{C}{g_{00}} g_{00,b} \gamma^{ab} = 0
\]

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

\[
\dot{X}^a + V_{,b} \gamma^{ab} = 0
\]

This corresponds to the equations of motion on the previous slide
Quantum oscillator

\[ i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = H \psi \]

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

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

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

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

Basis functions of the 2D harmonic oscillator

We will investigate the case:

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

\[
\text{Plot3D}\left[ (1/2) \text{Sign}[x^2-y^2] \left( 1 - \text{Exp}\left[ -\text{Abs}[x^2-y^2] \right] \right),\{x,-7,7\},\{y,-7,7\}\right]
\]

PlotRange -> All
\[ \psi = \sum_{m,n=0}^{4} c_{mn}(t) \psi_{mn} \]

Initial condition
\[ c_{00}(0) = 1, \text{ the other coefficients} = 0 \]
$t = 0$

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

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

$t = 1$

$t = 0.5$

$t = 1.8$

$t = 0.7$

$t = 3.5$
$t = 500$

$|\psi|^2$

$x$  

$y$

$|\psi|^2$

$x$  

$y$

$|\psi|^2$

$t = 700$

$|\psi|^2$

$x$  

$y$

$|\psi|^2$

$t$

time

$|\psi|^2$

$t$

time
Interacting quantum fields

Example: scalar fields

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

Upon quantization:

\[ |\Psi\rangle = \sum |P \rangle \langle P | \Psi \rangle \]

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

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

\[ |\Psi(t_0)\rangle = |0\rangle \]

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

Fock space basis

\[ |P\rangle = |p_1, p_2, ..., p_n\rangle \]

\[ H \] is the Hamilton operator corresponding to the field action

\[ \langle P| \] contains particles with positive and negative energies.

Vacuum decays into a superposition of many particle states:

\[ |\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |p_1, p_2, ..., p_n\rangle \langle p_1, p_2, ..., p_n|\Psi(t)\rangle \]
Interacting quantum fields

Example: scalar fields

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

Upon quantization:

\[ |\Psi\rangle = \sum |P\rangle \langle P |\Psi\rangle \]

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

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

\[ |\Psi(t_0)\rangle = |0\rangle \]

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

Vacuum decays into a superposition of many particle states:

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

The amplitude that we will measure the multi particle state \( |p_1, p_2, ..., p_n \rangle \)
Interacting quantum fields

Example: scalar fields

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

Upon quantization:

\[ \Psi(t) = \psi(t_0) \]

\[ \Psi(t) = e^{-iH(t-t_0)} \Psi(t_0) \]

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

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

\[ \Psi(t_0) = | 0 \rangle \]

\[ | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | \]

\[ | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | \]

\[ H \text{ is the Hamilton operator corresponding to the field action} \]

Vacuum decays into:\n
\[ \sum_{p_1} |p_1| \Psi|^2 + \sum_{p_1, p_2} |p_1, p_2| \Psi|^2 + \sum_{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n} |p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n| \Psi|^2 + \ldots = 1 \]

Probabilities that vacuum decays into any of the states\n
\[ |p_1\rangle, \quad |p_1, p_2\rangle, \quad |p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n\rangle, \ldots \] are not drastically different.
Generalized field action

We will write the usual field action

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

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:

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

\[ G^{\mu\nu}_{AB} = \left( \begin{array}{c} \gamma^{\mu\nu}_{ab} + A_a^A A_b^B \phi^{\mu\nu}_{AB} \\ A_b^B \phi^{\mu\nu}_{AB} + A_a^A \phi^{\mu\nu}_{AB} \end{array} \right) \]

\[ I_\varphi = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi^{a(x)} \partial_\nu \varphi^{b(x')} \gamma^{\mu\nu}_{a(x)b(x')} + \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi_A^A \partial_\nu \varphi_B^B \phi^{\mu\nu}_{AB} \]

\[ -U[\varphi] \]

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

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

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.

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.
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 leaded to the current situation with no mixing.

This was not so clear when Dirac proposed his theory. Here is what Fermi wrote:

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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

\[ \Psi = \psi^{r(x)} h_{r(x)} \]

\[ r = 1, 2; \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^3 \text{ or } x \in \mathbb{R}^{1,3} \]

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

**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

\[ \Psi = \psi^{(x)} h(x) + \psi^{*(x)} h^*(x) \]

\[ h(x) \cdot h^*(x') = \rho_{(x)^*(x')} \]

\[ h(x) \cdot h(x) = h^*(x) \cdot h^*(x') = 0 \]

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

\[ \Omega = \prod_x h_{*}(x) \quad \quad h_{*}(x) \Omega = 0 \]

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

The second part of \( \Psi \) disappears

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

Let us consider a more general case:

\[ \Psi \Omega = (\psi_{0} + \psi^{(x)} h_{(x)} + \psi^{(x)(x')} h_{(x)} h_{(x')} + \ldots ) \Omega \]

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

Other possible vacuums:

\[ \Omega = \prod_x h_{(x)} , \quad \quad h_{(x)} \Omega = 0 \]

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

Analogous holds in momentum representation.
In the usual notation we have

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

\[ \Omega = \prod_{n,p} b_n^\dagger (p^0 > 0, p) \prod_{n,p} d_n^\dagger (p^0 < 0, p) \prod_{n,p} b_n^{i\dagger} (p^0 < 0, p) \prod_{n,p} d_n^{i\dagger} (p^0 > 0, p) \]

One particle Fock states:

\[ b_n^\dagger \Omega, \quad d_n^\dagger \Omega, \quad b_n^i \Omega, \quad d_n^i \Omega \]

\[ b_n^\dagger \Omega, \quad d_n^\dagger \Omega, \quad b_n^{i\dagger} \Omega, \quad d_n^{i\dagger} \Omega \]

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, \( |p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_{\infty} \rangle \), is the state in which all operators were removed from the vacuum \( \Omega \):

\[ \Psi(t) = b_{n_1}^\dagger (p_1) b_{n_2}^\dagger (p_2) \ldots d_{n_1}^\dagger (p_1) d_{n_2}^\dagger (p_2) \ldots b_{n_1}^{i\dagger} (p_1) d_{n_2}^{i\dagger} (p_2) \ldots \Omega = 1 \]

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

\[ b_n^\dagger, \quad d_n^\dagger, \quad b_n^i, \quad d_n^i, \quad \ldots, \quad \text{and all many operator states} \]
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.
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 cases:
- 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

Model Lagrangian:

\[ L = \frac{1}{2}(\dot{x}^2 - \dot{y}^2) - \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) - \frac{\lambda}{4}(x^2 - y^2)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\dot{u}^2 + \dot{v}^2) - \frac{\alpha}{5} \left[ \frac{1}{(u-x)^2 + (v-y)^2 + a} \right]^5 \]
Collision of the oscillator with a free particle

Particle is practically free before and after the collision

Model Lagrangian:

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

\[
\begin{align*}
\ddot{x} + x + \lambda x (x^2 - y^2) + \frac{\alpha (u - x)}{[\langle u - x \rangle^2 + \langle v - y \rangle^2 + a]^{5/2}} &= 0 \\
\ddot{y} + y + \lambda y (x^2 - y^2) + \frac{\alpha (v - y)}{[\langle u - x \rangle^2 + \langle v - y \rangle^2 + a]^{5/2}} &= 0 \\
\dot{u} - \frac{\alpha (u - x)}{(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + a} &= 0 \\
\dot{v} - \frac{\alpha (v - y)}{[\langle u - x \rangle^2 + \langle v - y \rangle^2 + a]^{5/2}} &= 0
\end{align*}
\]
\[ \dot{x} + x + 0.1 x (x^2 - y^2) + \frac{u - x}{[(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1]^{5/2}} = 0 \]
\[ \dot{y} + y + 0.1 y (x^2 - y^2) + \frac{v - y}{[(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1]^{5/2}} = 0 \]
\[ \ddot{u} - \frac{u - x}{(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1} = 0 \]
\[ \ddot{v} - \frac{v - y}{[(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1]^{5/2}} = 0 \]
\( x(0) = 1, \ y(0) = 0, \ \dot{x}(0) = 0, \ \dot{y}(0) = 0, \ x(0) = 0, \ y(0) = 1, \ u(0) = 12, \ v(0) = 11.5 \)
\[ \text{sol} = \text{NSolve}[(x'[t] + x[t] + 0.1 * x[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) +
(u[t] - x[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2)) = 0,
(y'[t] + y[t] + 0.1 * y[t] * (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) -
(v[t] - y[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2)) = 0,
(u''[t] - (u[t] - x[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2)) = 0,
(v''[t] - (v[t] - y[t]) / (((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^(5/2)) = 0,
x'[0] = 1, y'[0] = 0, u'[0] = 0, v'[0] = 0, x[0] = 0, y[0] = 1, u[0] = 12, v[0] = 11.5),
\{x, y, u, v\}, \{t, 0, 1000\}] \]
Total energy is conserved

Kinetic energy of the oscillator increases to infinity
\begin{align*}
\dot{x} + 1.0001x + 1.0001 \times 0.1 \times (x^2 - y^2) + \frac{u - x}{[(u - x)^2 + (v - y)^2 + 0.1]^{5/2}} &= 0 \\
\dot{y} + y + 0.1 \times (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, \quad \dot{y}(0) = 0, \quad \dot{u}(0) = 0, \quad \dot{v}(0) = 0, \\
x(0) &= 0, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad u(0) = 12, \quad v(0) = 11.5
\end{align*}
\[ \text{sol} = \text{NDSolve}[\{x'[t] + 1.0001 x[t] + 1.0001 \cdot 0.1 \cdot x[t] \cdot (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) + \\
(u[t] - x[t])/(((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^{5/2}) = 0, \ y'[t] + y[t] + 0.1 \cdot y[t] \cdot (x[t]^2 - y[t]^2) - \\
(v[t] - y[t])/(((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^{5/2}) = 0, \ u''[t] - (u[t] - x[t])/(((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^{5/2}) = 0, \ v''[t] - (v[t] - y[t])/(((u[t] - x[t])^2 + (v[t] - y[t])^2 + 0.1)^{5/2}) = 0, \}
\]
\[ x[0] = 1, \ y[0] = 0, u[0] = 12, v[0] = 11.5 \}, \{x, y, u, v\}, \{t, 1000\}] \]