

Lecture 3

Canonical quantization, particles

One of the things that we did in the previous lecture was the computation of the energy stored in the scalar field

$$E = \int d^3\vec{x} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial\varphi}{\partial t} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\vec{\nabla}\varphi \right)^2 + \frac{m^2\varphi^2}{2} + V(\varphi) \right]. \quad (1)$$

We will identify this quantity with the Hamiltonian of the system.

The Hamiltonian should be a function of canonical momenta and canonical coordinates. The canonical momentum is computed in a standard way

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta \partial_t \varphi(t, \vec{x})} = \partial_t \varphi(t, \vec{x}) = \pi(t, \vec{x}). \quad (2)$$

We then obtain

$$E = H = \int d^3\vec{x} \left[\frac{1}{2} \pi^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\vec{\nabla}\varphi \right)^2 + \frac{m^2\varphi^2}{2} + V(\varphi) \right] \quad (3)$$

The quantization procedure amounts to the choice of the *equal-time* commutator of operators φ and π

$$[\pi(t, \vec{x}), \varphi(t, \vec{y})] = -i\delta^{(3)}(\vec{x} - \vec{y}). \quad (4)$$

Moreover,

$$[\pi(t, \vec{x}), \pi(t, \vec{y})] = 0, \quad [\varphi(t, \vec{x}), \varphi(t, \vec{y})] = 0. \quad (5)$$

We will now consider a free theory ($V(\varphi) = 0$) and derive equations that φ and π satisfy. We will use the fact that the commutator of any operator with H gives a time derivative of this operator. For example

$$i\partial_t \pi(t, \vec{x}) = [\pi(t, \vec{x}), H]. \quad (6)$$

It is important that the Hamiltonian is time-independent (energy is conserved). This observation simplifies the computation of the commutator since we can take operators π and φ in the integrand of H at *any* time. It is this possibility that allows us to use Eq. (3) to compute the commutator of H with π and φ .

Indeed, we write

$$[\pi(t, \vec{x}), H] = \int d^3\vec{y} \left[\frac{1}{2} [\pi(t, \vec{x}), \pi(t, \vec{y})^2] + \frac{1}{2} [\pi(t, \vec{x}), \left(\vec{\nabla}\varphi(t, \vec{y}) \right)^2] + \frac{m^2}{2} [\pi(t, \vec{x}), \varphi(t, \vec{y})^2] \right]. \quad (7)$$

The first commutator vanishes since $\pi(t, \vec{x})$ commutes with $\pi(t, \vec{y})$. To compute the second and the third terms, we use the following equations

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2}[\pi(t, \vec{x}), (\vec{\nabla} \varphi(t, \vec{y}))^2] &= \vec{\nabla}_y \varphi(t, \vec{y}) \cdot [\pi(t, \vec{x}), \vec{\nabla}_y \varphi(t, \vec{y})] \\ &= \vec{\nabla}_y \varphi(t, \vec{y}) \cdot \vec{\nabla}_y [\pi(t, \vec{x}), \varphi(t, \vec{y})] = -i \vec{\nabla}_y \varphi(t, \vec{y}) \cdot \vec{\nabla}_y \delta^{(3)}(\vec{x} - \vec{y}). \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

and

$$\frac{1}{2}[\pi(t, \vec{x}), \varphi(t, \vec{y})^2] = \varphi(t, \vec{y}) [\pi(t, \vec{x}), \varphi(t, \vec{y})] = -i \varphi(t, \vec{y}) \delta^{(3)}(\vec{x} - \vec{y}). \quad (9)$$

We substitute Eqs. (8, 9) into Eq. (7), integrate by parts once and obtain

$$\partial_t \pi(t, \vec{x}) = [\vec{\nabla}^2 - m^2] \varphi(t, \vec{x}). \quad (10)$$

Since $\pi = \partial_t \varphi$, we find

$$\left[\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \vec{\nabla}^2 \right) + m^2 \right] \varphi = [\partial_\mu \partial^\mu + m^2] \varphi = 0. \quad (11)$$

This is the Klein-Gordon equation for the field operator φ .

Since the operator φ satisfies the Klein-Gordon equation, we can write

$$\varphi(t, \vec{x}) = \int \frac{d^3 \vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_k}} \left[a_{\vec{k}} e^{-i\omega_k t + i\vec{k}\vec{x}} + a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger e^{i\omega_k t - i\vec{k}\vec{x}} \right], \quad (12)$$

where $\omega_k = \sqrt{\vec{k}^2 + m^2}$, and the $a_{\vec{k}}$ and $a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger$ operators are referred to as “creation” and “annihilation” operators, respectively.¹ In writing Eq. (12) we have used the fact that the field φ is real; the consequence of this for the quantum operator φ is that it is hermitian

$$\varphi^\dagger(t, \vec{x}) = \varphi(t, \vec{x}). \quad (13)$$

The momentum operator $\pi(t, \vec{x})$ is obtained by computing $\partial_t \varphi$. We find

$$\pi(t, \vec{x}) = -i \int \frac{d^3 \vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_k}} \omega_k \left[a_{\vec{k}} e^{-i\omega_k t + i\vec{k}\vec{x}} - a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger e^{i\omega_k t - i\vec{k}\vec{x}} \right], \quad (14)$$

The momentum operator π and the field operator φ must satisfy canonical equal-time commutation relations, Eq. (4). To check that they do, we write

$$[a_{\vec{k}}, a_{\vec{q}}^\dagger] = f_{\vec{k}} (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k} - \vec{q}), \quad (15)$$

where the function $f_{\vec{k}}$ at this point is arbitrary. We also assume that $[a_{\vec{k}}, a_{\vec{q}}] = 0$ and $[a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger, a_{\vec{q}}^\dagger] = 0$.

¹We will see what is being “created” or “annihilated” by these operators shortly.

To make expressions more compact, we introduce four-vectors $x^\mu = (t, \vec{x})$, $y^\mu = (t, \vec{y})$ and $k^\mu = (\omega_k, \vec{k})$ and write

$$\omega_k t - \vec{k}\vec{x} = kx, \quad \omega_k t - \vec{k}\vec{y} = ky. \quad (16)$$

We then find

$$\begin{aligned} [\pi(t, \vec{x}), \varphi(t, \vec{y})] &= -i \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_k}} \frac{d^3\vec{q}}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_q}} \omega_k \left\{ [a_{\vec{k}}, a_{\vec{q}}^\dagger] e^{-ikx+iqy} + [a_{\vec{q}}, a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger] e^{ikx-iqy} \right\} \\ &= -i \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3 2} f_{\vec{k}} \left\{ e^{i\vec{k}(\vec{x}-\vec{y})} + e^{-i\vec{k}(\vec{x}-\vec{y})} \right\} = -i\delta^{(3)}(\vec{x}-\vec{y}), \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

where the last step requires $f_{\vec{k}} = 1$. Hence,

$$[a_{\vec{k}}, a_{\vec{q}}^\dagger] = (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}-\vec{q}). \quad (18)$$

To understand the meaning of creation and annihilation operators, we need to express the Hamiltonian H through them. We start with the term $m^2\varphi^2$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} &\int d^3\vec{x} \varphi^2(t, \vec{x}) \\ &= \int d^3\vec{x} \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}_1}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_1}} \frac{d^3\vec{k}_2}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_2}} \left\{ a_{\vec{k}_1} e^{-ik_1x} + a_{\vec{k}_1}^\dagger e^{ik_1x} \right\} \left\{ a_{\vec{k}_2} e^{-ik_2x} + a_{\vec{k}_2}^\dagger e^{ik_2x} \right\}, \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

where $k_i x = \omega_i t - \vec{k}_i \vec{x}$. We integrate over \vec{x} and obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int d^3\vec{x} \varphi^2(t, \vec{x}) &= \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}_1}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_1}} \frac{d^3\vec{k}_2}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_2}} \left[a_{\vec{k}_1} a_{\vec{k}_2} e^{-i(\omega_1+\omega_2)t} (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 + \vec{k}_2) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + a_{\vec{k}_1}^\dagger a_{\vec{k}_2}^\dagger e^{i(\omega_1+\omega_2)t} (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 + \vec{k}_2) + a_{\vec{k}_1}^\dagger a_{\vec{k}_2} \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2) + a_{\vec{k}_1} a_{\vec{k}_2}^\dagger (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

As you see, this operator is *explicitly* time-dependent. As we have argued earlier, the Hamiltonian should be independent of time; therefore, we should expect important cancellation of the time-dependence of $\int d^3x \varphi^2$ and the time-dependences of other contributions to H .

The next contribution is

$$\begin{aligned} \int d^3\vec{x} (\vec{\nabla}\varphi)^2(t, \vec{x}) &= - \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}_1}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_1}} \frac{d^3\vec{k}_2}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_2}} \vec{k}_1 \cdot \vec{k}_2 \left[a_{\vec{k}_1} a_{\vec{k}_2} e^{-i(\omega_1+\omega_2)t} (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 + \vec{k}_2) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + a_{\vec{k}_1}^\dagger a_{\vec{k}_2}^\dagger e^{i(\omega_1+\omega_2)t} (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 + \vec{k}_2) - a_{\vec{k}_1}^\dagger a_{\vec{k}_2} \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2) - a_{\vec{k}_1} a_{\vec{k}_2}^\dagger (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

A similar computation for $\int d^3\vec{x} \pi^2$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int d^3x \pi^2(t, \vec{x}) = & - \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}_1}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_1}} \frac{d^3\vec{k}_2}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_2}} \omega_1 \omega_2 [a_{\vec{k}_1}^- a_{\vec{k}_2}^- e^{-i(\omega_1+\omega_2)t} (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 + \vec{k}_2) \\ & + a_{\vec{k}_1}^+ a_{\vec{k}_2}^+ e^{i(\omega_1+\omega_2)t} (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 + \vec{k}_2) - a_{\vec{k}_1}^+ a_{\vec{k}_2}^- \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2) - a_{\vec{k}_1}^- a_{\vec{k}_2}^+ (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2)]. \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

To obtain the Hamiltonian H , we add the relevant contributions together, integrate over \vec{k}_2 and, using that $\omega_k^2 - m^2 - \vec{k}^2 = 0$, find that all time-dependent contributions cancel. The result becomes

$$H = \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}_1}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\omega_1}{2} [a_{\vec{k}_1}^+ a_{\vec{k}_1}^- + a_{\vec{k}_1}^- a_{\vec{k}_1}^+] = \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}_1}{(2\pi)^3} [\omega_1 a_{\vec{k}_1}^+ a_{\vec{k}_1}^- + \frac{\omega_1}{2} \delta^{(3)}(\vec{0})]. \quad (23)$$

In the last step we used the commutation relation Eq. (18) to re-order creation and annihilation operators; $\delta^{(3)}(\vec{0})$ is $\delta^{(3)}(\vec{q} - \vec{k})$, for $\vec{q} = \vec{k}$. To interpret $\delta^{(3)}(\vec{0})$, we write

$$(2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{0}) = (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2) |_{\vec{k}_1 = \vec{k}_2} = \int d^3\vec{x} e^{i(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2)\vec{x}} |_{\vec{k}_1 = \vec{k}_2} = \int d^3\vec{x} = V, \quad (24)$$

where V is the volume of the region where the field φ is defined.

Hence, we write

$$H = V E_0 + \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}_1}{(2\pi)^3} \omega_1 a_{\vec{k}_1}^+ a_{\vec{k}_1}^-, \quad (25)$$

where

$$E_0 = \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}_1}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\omega_1}{2}. \quad (26)$$

We would like to find eigenstates of the Hamiltonian H . To this end, we define a quantum state with the minimal energy (the vacuum state) $|0\rangle$ as a state which is annihilated by *all* annihilation operators²

$$a_{\vec{k}}^- |0\rangle = 0, \quad \forall \vec{k}. \quad (27)$$

The energy of the vacuum state easily follows

$$H|0\rangle = V E_0 |0\rangle. \quad (28)$$

It is interesting to know how large is the energy of the vacuum state. An unexpected answer to this question is that E_0 is *infinite* since the integral over $|\vec{k}|$ in Eq. (26) does not converge. We will discuss this issue in the next lecture. For now just note that the absolute value of the vacuum energy is not important for us; rather, we are interested in

²If this point is not clear to you, go back to your Quantum Mechanics lectures and check out the discussion of a quantum oscillator based on creation and annihilation operators. Then generalize.

how much energy is needed to *excite* the vacuum. Hence, we redefine the Hamiltonian by subtracting the vacuum energy and define

$$H - E_0V \rightarrow H = \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}_1}{(2\pi)^3} \omega_1 a_{\vec{k}_1}^\dagger a_{\vec{k}_1}. \quad (29)$$

The excited states of the new Hamiltonian are constructed by acting with creation operators $a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger$ on the vacuum state

$$|\vec{k}_1, \dots, \vec{k}_N\rangle = a_{\vec{k}_1}^\dagger \dots a_{\vec{k}_N}^\dagger |0\rangle. \quad (30)$$

It is easy to see that these quantum states are eigenstates of the Hamiltonian

$$H|\vec{k}_1, \dots, \vec{k}_N\rangle = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \omega_i \right) |\vec{k}_1, \dots, \vec{k}_N\rangle. \quad (31)$$

For example, a state $a_{\vec{k}_1}^\dagger |0\rangle$ is an eigenstate of the Hamiltonian with the energy $\omega_1 = \sqrt{\vec{k}_1^2 + m^2}$. If we interpret \vec{k}_1 as the three-momentum of the state $|\vec{k}_1\rangle$, the above formula shows that the relation between energy and momentum of this state is identical to the relation between energy and momentum of a relativistic particle with the mass m . We will show below that \vec{k}_1 is indeed the three-momentum of the state $|\vec{k}_1\rangle$.

Before we discuss this, it is useful to say a few things about the normalization. If we compute $\langle \vec{k}_1 | \vec{k}_2 \rangle$ and use $\langle 0 | 0 \rangle = 1$, we easily find

$$\langle \vec{k}_1 | \vec{k}_2 \rangle = \langle 0 | a_{\vec{k}_1} a_{\vec{k}_2}^\dagger | 0 \rangle = \langle 0 | [a_{\vec{k}_1}, a_{\vec{k}_2}^\dagger] | 0 \rangle = (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2). \quad (32)$$

Unfortunately, this normalization is not Lorentz invariant. We therefore redefine the states

$$|\vec{k}\rangle = \sqrt{2\omega_k} a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger |0\rangle. \quad (33)$$

The relativistic normalization now reads

$$\langle \vec{k}_1 | \vec{k}_2 \rangle = 2\omega_{k_1} (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k}_1 - \vec{k}_2). \quad (34)$$

From now on, we will always use states that are normalized in a Lorentz-invariant way.

Note that with this normalization the following result is valid

$$\langle 0 | \varphi(t, \vec{x}) | \vec{k} \rangle = e^{-i\omega_k t + i\vec{k}\vec{x}}, \quad (35)$$

which looks like a wave function of a relativistic particle with momentum \vec{k} and energy ω_k .

To show that \vec{k} is indeed the three-momentum of a particle described by the state $|\vec{k}\rangle$, we require the operator of the three-momentum. To find it, we will discuss certain properties of the action of a free field. The action reads

$$S = \int d^4x \mathcal{L}(\partial_\mu \varphi, \varphi). \quad (36)$$

The important point is that the Lagrangian density does not explicitly depend on x^μ . We can use this property to find quantities that do not change during the time evolution of the system – integrals of motion.

To this end, consider a general coordinate transformation

$$x^\mu = \tilde{x}^\mu + a^\mu(\tilde{x}). \quad (37)$$

We assume that a^μ is small. Then,

$$\varphi(x) = \varphi(\tilde{x} + a(\tilde{x})) \approx \varphi(\tilde{x}) + a^\mu(\tilde{x})\tilde{\partial}_\mu\varphi(\tilde{x}). \quad (38)$$

Now, writing

$$\varphi(\tilde{x} + a(\tilde{x})) = \tilde{\varphi}(\tilde{x}) = \varphi(\tilde{x}) + \delta\varphi(\tilde{x}), \quad (39)$$

we find

$$\delta\varphi(\tilde{x}) = a^\mu(\tilde{x})\tilde{\partial}_\mu\varphi(\tilde{x}). \quad (40)$$

To find the change in $\partial_\mu\varphi$, we need to be a bit more careful. We write

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial\varphi(x)}{\partial x^\mu} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu}\varphi(\tilde{x} + a^\mu(\tilde{x})) = \frac{\partial\tilde{x}^\nu}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial}{\partial\tilde{x}^\nu}\varphi(\tilde{x} + a^\mu(\tilde{x})) \\ &= \left(g_\mu^\nu - \tilde{\partial}_\mu a^\nu\right)\tilde{\partial}_\nu(\varphi + \delta\varphi) \approx \tilde{\partial}_\mu\varphi - (\tilde{\partial}_\mu a^\nu)\tilde{\partial}_\nu\varphi + \tilde{\partial}_\mu\delta\varphi, \end{aligned} \quad (41)$$

where in the last step we neglected $\mathcal{O}(a^2)$ contributions.

Finally, we need to calculate³

$$d^4x = \det\left[\frac{\partial x}{\partial\tilde{x}}\right] d^4\tilde{x} \approx d^4\tilde{x} \left(1 + \tilde{\partial}_\mu a^\mu\right). \quad (42)$$

Putting everything together, we find⁴

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \int d^4\tilde{x} \left(1 + \tilde{\partial}_\mu a^\mu\right) \mathcal{L}\left[\varphi(\tilde{x}) + \delta\varphi(\tilde{x}), \tilde{\partial}_\mu\varphi - (\tilde{\partial}_\mu a^\nu)\tilde{\partial}_\nu\varphi + \tilde{\partial}_\mu\delta\varphi\right] \\ &= \int d^4x \left\{ \mathcal{L}(\varphi, \partial\varphi) + \partial_\mu a^\mu \mathcal{L} - \left[\frac{\delta\mathcal{L}}{\delta\partial_\mu\varphi}\right] \partial_\mu a^\nu \partial_\nu\varphi + \left[\frac{\delta\mathcal{L}}{\delta\partial_\mu\varphi}\right] \partial^\mu\delta\varphi + \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\varphi}\delta\varphi \right\} \\ &= S + \int d^4x \left\{ \partial_\mu a^\mu \mathcal{L} - \left[\frac{\delta\mathcal{L}}{\delta\partial_\mu\varphi}\right] \partial_\mu a^\nu \partial_\nu\varphi - \partial^\mu \left[\frac{\delta\mathcal{L}}{\delta\partial_\mu\varphi}\right] \delta\varphi + \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\varphi}\delta\varphi \right\}, \end{aligned} \quad (43)$$

where in the last step we used integration-by-parts and neglected the integral of the total derivative. The last two terms cancel for arbitrary $\delta\varphi$ thanks to the equations of motion.

To simplify the first two terms, we use

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_\mu a^\mu \mathcal{L} &= \partial_\mu (a^\mu \mathcal{L}) - a^\mu \partial_\mu \mathcal{L}, \\ \left[\frac{\delta\mathcal{L}}{\delta\partial_\mu\varphi}\right] \partial_\mu a^\nu \partial_\nu\varphi &= \partial_\mu \left[\frac{\delta\mathcal{L}}{\delta\partial_\mu\varphi} a^\nu \partial_\nu\varphi\right] - a^\nu \partial_\mu \left[\frac{\delta\mathcal{L}}{\delta\partial_\mu\varphi} \partial_\nu\varphi\right]. \end{aligned} \quad (44)$$

³We note that $\det(1 + \epsilon A) \approx 1 + \epsilon \text{Tr}[A]$, for small ϵ .

⁴We replace \tilde{x} with x in the second step, for simplicity.

Hence, neglecting total derivatives, we arrive at

$$0 = \int d^4x a^\mu \left\{ \partial_\mu \mathcal{L} - \partial_\nu \left[\frac{\delta \mathcal{L}}{\delta \partial_\nu \varphi} \partial_\mu \varphi \right] \right\} = \int d^4x a^\mu \partial_\nu \left\{ g_\mu^\nu \mathcal{L} - \left[\frac{\delta \mathcal{L}}{\delta \partial_\nu \varphi} \partial_\mu \varphi \right] \right\}. \quad (45)$$

Since a^μ is arbitrary, it follows that

$$\partial_\mu T^{\mu\nu} = 0, \quad (46)$$

where

$$T^{\mu\nu} = \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}}{\delta \partial_\mu \varphi} \partial^\nu \varphi - g^{\mu\nu} \mathcal{L}, \quad (47)$$

is the *energy-momentum tensor*.

Conservation of the energy-momentum tensor Eq. (46) implies energy conservation. Indeed, Eq. (46) reads

$$\partial_t T^{00} = -\partial_i T^{i0}. \quad (48)$$

Now, integrating over the entire space and setting the integral of the total derivative to zero (we imagine that there is no flux through an infinitely-remote surface), we find

$$\partial_t \int d^3\vec{x} T^{00} = 0. \quad (49)$$

Hence, $\int d^3\vec{x} T^{00}$ is indeed time-independent; comparing it with Eq. (1), we find $H = \int d^3\vec{x} T^{00}$. This is the total energy stored in the field.

We can follow the same lines of reasoning to show that

$$P^i = \int d^3\vec{x} T^{0i} = - \int d^3\vec{x} \pi(t, \vec{x}) \vec{\nabla} \varphi(t, \vec{x}). \quad (50)$$

is also time-independent. To this end, we start with $\partial_\mu T^{\mu i} = 0$ and integrated over d^3x . Since the integral of the total derivative vanishes, we find

$$\partial_t \int d^3x T^{0i} = \partial_t P^i = 0. \quad (51)$$

The quantity P^i is the three-momentum operator,

To write P^i through creation and annihilation operators, we follow what we have done for the Hamiltonian. We find

$$\vec{P} = \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} \vec{k} a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger a_{\vec{k}}. \quad (52)$$

Hence, for $|\vec{k}\rangle = \sqrt{2\omega_{\vec{k}}} a_{\vec{k}}^\dagger |0\rangle$, we obtain

$$\vec{P}|\vec{k}\rangle = \vec{k}|\vec{k}\rangle. \quad (53)$$

It follows, that the state $|\vec{k}\rangle$ is an eigenstate of the momentum operator \vec{P} and the Hamiltonian H ; the relation between eigenvalues of \vec{P} and H corresponds to the relation between energy and momentum of a free relativistic particle with the mass m . We conclude that a quantum theory with the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial^\mu \varphi - \frac{m^2}{2} \varphi^2 \tag{54}$$

describes free relativistic particles with the mass m .