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Instantons - Coleman's lectures.

Begin with Feynman's formula for $H = \frac{p^2}{2} + V(x)$:

$$\langle x | e^{-TH/\hbar} | x' \rangle = \int_{\substack{x(0)=x' \\ x(T)=x}} \mathcal{D}x \ e^{-\frac{1}{\hbar} \int_0^T [\frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 + V(x)] dt}$$

The left side is $\sum_n e^{-TE_n/\hbar} \phi_n(x) \overline{\phi_n(x')}$

which has leading term $e^{-TE_0/\hbar} \phi_0(x) \overline{\phi_0(x')}$ as $T \rightarrow +\infty$. Use stationary phase to get at the right side - think of $\hbar \rightarrow 0$. Critical points of the exponential are given by Euler DE

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = \ddot{x} - V'(x) = 0$$

which describes classical motion of a particle in the potential $-V(x)$. (Actually - one maybe should be suspicious because you want to minimize the exponential in the Feynman integral not just find stationary points).

Let's assume there is one classical path $\bar{x}(t)$ with boundary values x' at 0, x at T and expand around it: $x(t) = \bar{x}(t) + y(t)$

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 + V(x) = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\bar{x}}^2 + V(\bar{x}) + \dot{\bar{x}} \dot{y} + V'(\bar{x})y + \frac{1}{2} \dot{y}^2 + \frac{1}{2} V''(\bar{x})y^2$$

Then

$$\int_0^T [\frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 + V(x)] dt = \int_0^T [\frac{1}{2} \dot{\bar{x}}^2 + V(\bar{x})] dt + 0 + \int_0^T [\frac{1}{2} \dot{y}^2 + V''(\bar{x})y^2] dt + \dots + O(y^3)$$

where the linear term disappears because the first variation around \bar{x} is zero. so we get

$$\langle x | e^{-TH/\hbar} | x' \rangle \approx e^{-\frac{1}{\hbar} S(\bar{x})} \int \mathcal{D}y e^{-\frac{1}{\hbar} \int_0^T \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{y}^2 + V''(\bar{x}) y^2 \right) dt}$$

~~and~~ and if this works

$$y(0) = 0$$

$$y(T) = 0$$

like standard stationary phase problems, the error will be a multiplicative factor $(1 + O(\hbar))$. The path integral on the right is the ~~path~~ path integral belonging to the oscillator like Hamiltonian

$$H = \frac{1}{2} p^2 + \frac{1}{2} V''(\bar{x}(t)) q^2$$

The path integral is a Gaussian integral and can be evaluated by inspection to be

$$N \det \left(-\partial_t^2 + V''(\bar{x}) \right)^{-1/2}$$

with 0 bdry conditions
at ends of $[0, T]$

and the N has to be adjusted along with the normalization occurring in the $\mathcal{D}y$ so as to give the correct result for free motion.

$$\langle x | e^{-T \frac{p^2}{2\hbar}} | x' \rangle = \int \frac{dp}{2\pi\hbar} e^{i \frac{p}{\hbar} (x' - x) - \frac{T}{\hbar} \frac{p^2}{2}}$$

$$= \int \frac{d\xi}{2\pi} e^{i \xi (x' - x) - \hbar T \frac{\xi^2}{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \hbar T}} e^{-\frac{(x' - x)^2}{2\hbar T}}$$

Hence

$$\langle x=0 | e^{-T \frac{p^2}{2\hbar}} | x'=0 \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \hbar T}} = \int \mathcal{D}y e^{-\frac{1}{\hbar} \int_0^T \frac{1}{2} \dot{y}^2 dt}$$

$$y(0) = 0$$

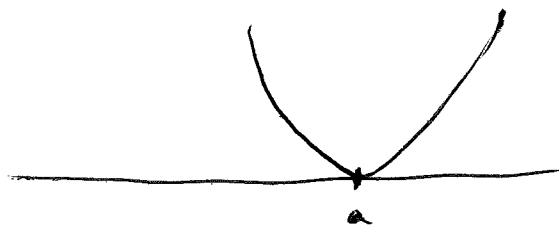
$$y(T) = 0$$

$$= N \det \left(-\partial_x^2 \text{ on } [0, T] \text{ with Dirichlet cond.} \right)^{-1/2}$$

So it seems that

$$(+) \quad \langle x | e^{-TH/\hbar} | x' \rangle \approx e^{-\frac{1}{\hbar} S(\bar{x})} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar T}} \det \left(1 + (-\partial_x^2)^{-1} V''(\bar{x}) \right)^{-1/2} \text{ on } [0, T]$$

Consider the case where V has a minimum value $= 0$ at $x = a$:



Then $\bar{x} = a$ and $S(\bar{x}) = 0$. Also $V''(\bar{x}) = V''(a) = \omega^2 > 0$. Let's compute eigenvalues for $-\partial_x^2$ and $-\partial_x^2 + \omega^2$ on $[0, T]$ with Dirichlet bdy conditions. The eigenfunctions are $\sin n\frac{\pi}{T}x$ and the eigenvalues are

$$\left(n\frac{\pi}{T}\right)^2 \text{ and } \left(n\frac{\pi}{T}\right)^2 + \omega^2 \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

respectively, so that

$$\frac{\det(-\partial_x^2 + \omega^2)}{\det(-\partial_x^2)} = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} 1 + \left(\frac{\omega T}{n\pi}\right)^2 = \frac{\sinh(\omega T)}{\omega T}$$

Consider the oscillator $H_0 = \frac{p^2}{2} + \omega^2 \frac{q^2}{2}$.

$$H_0 = -\frac{1}{2} \hbar^2 \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 x^2$$

has the ground state $e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\omega}{\hbar} x^2} / \text{norm}$

$$\int e^{-\frac{\omega}{\hbar} x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi} \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{\omega}} = \left(\frac{\pi \hbar}{\omega}\right)^{1/2}$$

so $\phi_0(x) = \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/4} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{\omega}{\hbar}x^2}$

The ground energy is $E_0 = \frac{1}{2}\omega\hbar$. Thus

$$\langle x | e^{-TH_0/\hbar} | x' \rangle \approx e^{-\frac{1}{2}\omega T} \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{\omega}{\hbar}(x^2+x'^2)}$$

Notice this checks with (+) on the previous page:

Here $S(\bar{x}) = 0$ and

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar T}} \left(\frac{\det(-\partial_x^2 + \omega^2)}{\det(-\partial_x^2)} \right)^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar T}} \left(\frac{\sinh \omega T}{\omega T} \right)^{-1/2}$$

$$\sim \frac{\sqrt{\omega}}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \left(\frac{1}{e^{\omega T}/\omega} \right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\omega T}$$

So the conclusion is that if the potential $V(x)$ has a unique ^{abs.} minimum at $x=a$ and $V(a)=0$ $V''(a) = \omega^2 > 0$, then

$$\langle x=a | e^{-TH/\hbar} | x'=a \rangle = \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\omega T} (1 + o(\hbar))$$

and the ground energy is $\frac{1}{2}\omega\hbar (1 + o(\hbar))$.

Next project is the double well.

Consider the oscillator $H_0 = \frac{P^2}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 q^2$. The formula

$$\langle x | e^{-iH_0 T/\hbar} | x' \rangle = \int_{\substack{q(0)=x' \\ q(T)=x}} Dq e^{-i/\hbar \int_0^T [\frac{1}{2} \dot{q}^2 - \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 q^2] dt}$$

should allow the exact evaluation of the amplitude on the left, because the ^{path} integral is Gaussian. Since $V(x) = \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 x^2$ one has $V''(\bar{x}) \equiv \omega^2$, so that ~~expanding~~ expanding around the classical solution

$$x(t) = \bar{x}(t) + y(t)$$

one sees the amplitude is $e^{i/\hbar S(\bar{x})}$ times a factor independent of x, x' , namely the path integral over paths $y(t)$ vanishing at the ends 0, T.

Let's compute $S(\bar{x})$.

$$\bar{x} = A \sin \omega t + B \cos \omega t$$

$$A \sin \omega T + B \cos \omega T = x$$

$$B = x'$$

$$\bar{x}(t) = \left(\frac{x - x' \cos \omega T}{\sin \omega T} \right) \sin \omega t + x' \cos \omega t$$

$$\dot{\bar{x}}(t)^2 = \omega^2 (A \cos \omega t - B \sin \omega t)^2$$

$$\omega^2 \bar{x}(t)^2 = \omega^2 (A \sin \omega t + B \cos \omega t)^2$$

$$\dot{\bar{x}}(t)^2 - \omega^2 \bar{x}(t)^2 = \omega^2 [A^2 \cos 2\omega t - B^2 \cos 2\omega t - 4AB \sin \omega t \cos \omega t]$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_0^T (\dot{x}^2 - \omega^2 x^2) dt = \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 \left[(A^2 - B^2) \frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2\omega} - 2AB \frac{\sin^2 \omega t}{\omega} \right]_0^T$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \omega \left[(A^2 - B^2) \sin \omega T \cos \omega T - 2AB \sin^2 \omega T \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \omega \sin \omega T \left[\left(\frac{x - x' \cos}{\sin} \right)^2 - x'^2 \right] \cos - 2 \left(\frac{x - x' \cos}{\sin} \right) x' \sin$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \omega \sin \left\{ \left(\frac{x^2}{\sin^2} - \frac{2xx' \cos}{\sin^2} + \frac{x'^2 \cos^2}{\sin^2} - x'^2 \right) \cos - 2xx' + 2x'^2 \cos \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \omega \sin \left\{ \frac{x^2 \cos}{\sin^2} - 2xx' \underbrace{\left(\frac{\cos^2}{\sin^2} + 1 \right)}_{1/\sin^2} + x'^2 \underbrace{\left(\frac{\cos^3}{\sin^2} + \cos \right)}_{\cos/\sin^2} \right\}$$

$$S(\bar{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \omega \frac{1}{\sin \omega T} \left(x^2 \cos \omega T - 2xx' + x'^2 \cos \omega T \right)$$

Now

$$\int Dq e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_0^T \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{q}^2 - \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 q^2 \right) dt} = \left[\frac{\det(-\partial_x^2 - \omega^2)}{\det(-\partial_x^2)} \right]^{-1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar T}}$$

$q(0) = q(T) = 0$

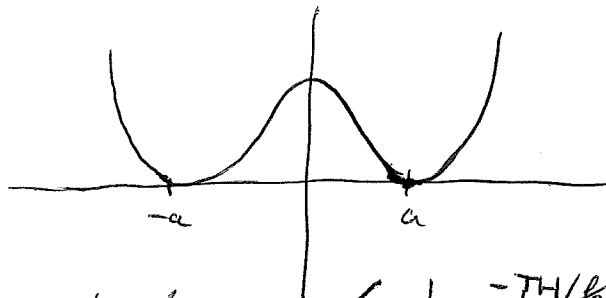
$$= \left[\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\left(\frac{n\pi}{T} \right)^2 - \omega^2}{\left(\frac{n\pi}{T} \right)^2} \right]^{-1/2} = \left[\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \left(\frac{\omega T}{n\pi} \right)^2 \right) \right]^{-1/2}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\sin \omega T}{\omega T} \right)^{-1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar T}}$$

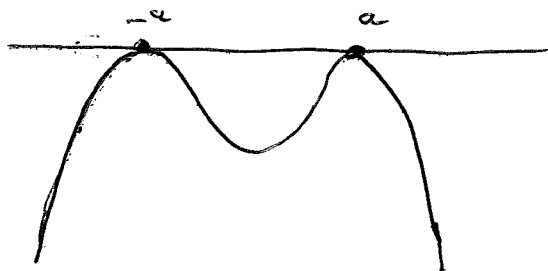
So these two things together one gets an explicit formula for $\langle x | e^{-iH_0 T/\hbar} | x' \rangle$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar T}} \left(\frac{\sin \omega T}{\omega T} \right)^{-1/2} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} S(\bar{x})}$$

Double well:



The idea is to compute $\langle a | e^{-TH/\hbar} | a \rangle$, $\langle +a | e^{-TH/\hbar} | -a \rangle$ approximately. Consider the latter with T very large. Recall in the Euclidean situation one looks at the classical motion in the potential $-V(x)$



and there is an obvious path \bar{x} starting at $-a$ at $t = -T/2$ and ending at $+a$ at $t = T/2$. Let's compute its action

$$\ddot{\bar{x}} = -V'(\bar{x})$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{\bar{x}}^2 - V(\bar{x}) = \text{constant} = \text{initial} + \text{final kin. energy.}$$

For T very large, we ignore the initial kin. energy and so

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{\bar{x}}^2 - V(\bar{x}) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} S(\bar{x}) &= \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\bar{x}}^2 + V(\bar{x}) \right] dt = \int_{-a}^a 2V(\bar{x}) dt = \int_{-a}^a 2V(\bar{x}) \frac{dt}{dx} dx \\ &= \int_{-a}^a \sqrt{2V(x)} dx \end{aligned}$$

[What would have happened if we took
 $\frac{1}{2} \dot{\bar{x}}^2 - V(\bar{x}) = E$?

Then $\frac{d\bar{x}}{dt} = \sqrt{2(E+V(\bar{x}))}$ and

$$S(\bar{x}) = \int_a^a \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\bar{x}}^2 + V(\bar{x}) \right] dt = \int [E + 2V(\bar{x})] dt$$

$$= \int_{-a}^a \frac{E + 2V(x)}{\sqrt{2(E+V(x))}} dx .]$$

So the leading term as $\hbar \rightarrow 0$ in the $-a$ to a amplitude is

$$(*) \quad e^{-\frac{1}{\hbar} \int_{-a}^a \sqrt{2V(x)} dx} N \det(-\cancel{d^2} + V''(\bar{x}))^{-1/2}$$

except that a new phenomenon occurs with the case where one wants to let $T \rightarrow \infty$.

One wants to consider ~~approximate~~ approximate classical motions which begin at $-a$ then jump to a around a time t_1 , then remain near a until t_2 jump back to $-a$, etc. For some reasons, not clear at the moment, these other possibilities have to be included to get the good $T \rightarrow \infty$ limit.

Set $S_0 = \int_{-a}^a \sqrt{2V} dx$. I want to compute the contribution ~~to~~ to the $-a \rightarrow a$ amplitude have n instantons (= jumps ~~to~~ between $-a, a$). These instantons occur nearly infinitesimally when viewed on a large time scale. Take 3 instantons occurring at time $-T/2 < t_1 < t_2 < t_3 < T/2$ and calculate the amplitude contribution. I need the amplitude to

stay at a for a time interval $\Delta t = t_i - t_{i-1}$.
We've computed this to be

$$\langle a | e^{-H\Delta t/\hbar} | a \rangle \approx \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi\hbar} \right)^{1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\omega\Delta t}$$

where $\omega^2 = V''(a)$. The instanton contribution is

$$e^{-S_0/\hbar} K$$

where K is the determinantal factors in (*). The 3-instanton contribution is

$$\left(e^{-S_0/\hbar} K \right)^3 \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi\hbar} \right)^{3/2} \int_{-\frac{T}{2} < t_1 < t_2 < t_3 < \frac{T}{2}} dt_1 dt_2 dt_3 e^{-\frac{\omega}{2} \sum \Delta t_i}$$

so the n -instanton contribution is

$$\left(e^{-S_0/\hbar} K \right)^n \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi\hbar} \right)^{n+1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\omega T} \frac{T^n}{n!}$$

so we get

$$\langle -a | e^{-TH/\hbar} | a \rangle = \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi\hbar} \right)^{1/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\omega T} \sum_{n \text{ odd}} \frac{1}{n!} \left(e^{-S_0/\hbar} K \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi\hbar} \right)^{1/2} T \right)^n$$

A comparison with Coleman shows the above to be deficient mainly because the role of the $T \rightarrow \infty$ isn't understood. Let's concentrate on the reason multiple instantons occur (actually one has both instantons going from $-a$ to a and anti-instantons going backwards). It has something to do with the fact that the operator $-\partial_t^2 + V''(\bar{x})$ on $(-\infty, \infty)$ has the eigenvalue 0. What does this operator look like?

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \right)^2 = V(x)$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \sqrt{2V} \quad t = \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{2V}}$$

Use symmetry and require $t=0$ when $x=0$, so that

$$t = \int_0^x \frac{dx}{\sqrt{2V}}$$

As $x \rightarrow a$ one has $V(x) = \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 (x-a)^2 + \dots$

$$\sqrt{2V} \approx \omega(a-x)$$

$$t = \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{2V}} = \int \frac{1}{\omega} \frac{dx}{a-x} = \frac{1}{\omega} (-\log(a-x)) + C$$

$$a-x = C e^{-\omega t}$$

so that $x \rightarrow a$ exponentially as $t \rightarrow +\infty$. Similarly $x \rightarrow -a$ exponentially as $t \rightarrow -\infty$, with $x+a = O(e^{\omega t})$ as $t \rightarrow -\infty$.

Example: Take $V(x) = \frac{\omega^2}{8a^2} (x+a)^2 (x-a)^2$

so that

$$t = \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{2V}} = \int \frac{dx}{\frac{\omega}{2a} (x+a)(a-x)}$$

$$= \frac{2a}{\omega} \int \left[\frac{1}{a-x} + \frac{1}{a+x} \right] \frac{dx}{2a} = \frac{1}{\omega} \log \left(\frac{a+x}{a-x} \right)$$

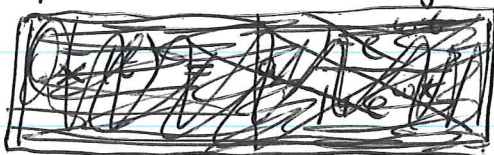
$$\frac{a+x}{a-x} = e^{\omega t}$$

$$\frac{2a}{a+x} = 1 + e^{\omega t}$$

$$a-x = \frac{2a}{1+e^{\omega t}}$$

$$x = \frac{-2a}{1+e^{\omega t}} + a = a \frac{-1+e^{\omega t}}{1+e^{\omega t}} = a \tanh \frac{\omega t}{2}$$

so for this potential we get



$$\boxed{x(t) = a \tanh \left(\frac{\omega t}{2} \right)}$$

since $V''(x) = \omega^2 + O((x-a)^3)$ as $x \rightarrow a$
 one has $V''(\bar{x}(t)) = \omega^2 + O(e^{-3\omega t})$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

Therefore the spectrum of the operator $-\partial_t^2 + V(\bar{x}(t))$ on $(-\infty, \infty)$ is continuous. It should be closely related to that of the operator $-\partial_t^2$ via scattering data.

Digression to review some solitons.

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} + p\right)\left(-\frac{d}{dx} + p\right) = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + p^2 + p'$$

Hence $-\partial_x^2 + q$ can be factored in the above form when one has a non-vanishing solution ϕ of

$$(-\partial_x^2 + q)\phi = 0.$$

One then sets $p = \frac{\phi'}{\phi}$. Better: if one has the factorization then $\phi = e^{\int p}$ is killed by $-\partial_x^2 + q$.

Conversely $\left(\frac{\phi'}{\phi}\right)^2 + \cancel{\left(\frac{\phi'}{\phi}\right)'} = \frac{\phi'^2}{\phi^2} + \frac{\phi\phi'' - \phi'^2}{\phi^2} = \frac{\phi''}{\phi}$.

Start with $-\partial_x^2 + V$ with $V \rightarrow 0$ rapidly as $|x| \rightarrow \infty$ and assume no bound states. Better pick $-\omega^2 <$ spectrum of $-\partial_x^2 + V$. Then we can find non-vanishing solutions of

$$(-\partial_x^2 + V + \omega^2)\phi = 0,$$

in fact the ψ -solution $\approx e^{-\omega x}$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ won't vanish; otherwise one can show $-\omega^2$ is not below the

spectrum. Then one factors

$$(-\partial_x^2 + V + \omega^2) = (\partial_x + \rho)(-\partial_x + \rho)$$

where $\rho = \frac{\phi'}{\phi}$. Then $\overbrace{X^*} \overbrace{X}$ if
we form

$$XX^* = (-\partial_x + \rho)(\partial_x + \rho) = \del{ } = -\partial_x^2 + (\rho^2 - \rho')$$

we know the spectrum of X^*X and XX^* are the same except for 0 eigenvalue. The operator XX^* kills

$$e^{-\int \rho} = e^{-\int \frac{\phi'}{\phi}} = \frac{1}{\phi}$$

One can arrange $\phi \approx C_{\pm} e^{\omega|x|}$ as $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$, so that $\frac{1}{\phi}$ is square integrable. Also notice

$$XX^* = -\partial_x^2 + \underbrace{(\rho^2 - \rho' - \omega^2)}_{\substack{\rho^2 + \rho' - 2\rho' - \omega^2 \\ V + \omega^2}} + \omega^2 = -\partial_x^2 + V - 2\rho'$$

since $\phi \approx C_{\pm} e^{\omega|x|}$, $\rho \approx \pm\omega$, so $\rho' \approx 0$.

Typical example if $V=0$

$$(-\partial_x^2 + \omega^2)\phi = 0 \text{ has soln } \phi = c_1 e^{\omega x} + c_2 e^{-\omega x}$$

which is non-vanishing for $c > 0$. Then

$$\rho' = \left(\frac{\omega e^{\omega x} - c_2 \omega e^{-\omega x}}{e^{\omega x} + c_2 e^{-\omega x}} \right)'$$

Better: Use $\phi = \cosh(\omega x + \alpha)$

$$\phi' = \omega \sinh(\omega x + \alpha)$$

$$\rho = \omega \tanh(\omega x + \alpha)$$

$$\rho' = \frac{\omega^2}{\cosh^2(\omega x + \alpha)}$$

and so the new potential is

$$V = -2p' = -2\omega^2 \frac{1}{\cosh^2(\omega x + a)}$$

In the example on 337 we have

$$V''(x) = \frac{\omega^2}{8a^2} (12x^2 - 4a^2)$$

$$\bar{x}(t) = a \tanh\left(\frac{\omega}{2}t\right)$$

$$V''(\bar{x}) = \frac{\omega^2}{8} (12 \tanh^2\left(\frac{\omega}{2}t\right) - 4)$$

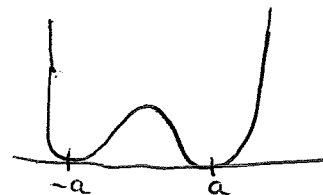
$$\begin{aligned} V''(\bar{x}) - \omega^2 &= \frac{3}{2} \omega^2 \left(\tanh^2\left(\frac{\omega}{2}t\right) - 1 \right) \\ &= -\frac{3}{2} \omega^2 \operatorname{sech}^2\left(\frac{\omega}{2}t\right) \end{aligned}$$

So this is close to the soliton example but not exactly the same.

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Double-well potential V :



has instanton solution $\bar{x}(t)$

obtained by solving $\ddot{x} = -V'(x)$ with 0 energy:

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 = V(x) \quad \text{so} \quad dt = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2V}} dx$$

Then one looks at $-\partial_t^2 + V''(\bar{x}(t))$ on $(-\infty, \infty)$.

From
$$-\partial_t^2 \bar{x} + V'(\bar{x}) = 0$$

we get
$$-\partial_t^2 (\dot{\bar{x}}) + V''(\bar{x}) \dot{\bar{x}} = 0$$

so that $\dot{\bar{x}}(t)$ is an eigenfunction for $-\partial_t^2 + V''(\bar{x})$ with the eigenvalue zero. Moreover as $\dot{\bar{x}} = 1/\sqrt{2V}$ it is non-vanishing and it's also square-integrable because we ~~see~~ saw $\bar{x}(t) = a + O(e^{-\omega t})$ at $t \rightarrow \infty$ and similarly as $t \rightarrow -\infty$. Thus Sturm-theory says that the spectrum of $-\partial_t^2 + V''(\bar{x})$ is ≥ 0 . In fact ~~we~~ since $V''(\bar{x}) \rightarrow \omega^2$ as $|\bar{x}| \rightarrow \infty$ we know ~~there~~ there ~~is~~ is continuous spectrum starting at ω^2 and possibly bound states between 0 and ω^2 .

One can remove the 0 eigenvalue by factorization

$$V''(\bar{x}) = p^2 + p' \quad \text{where} \quad p = \frac{\ddot{\bar{x}}}{\dot{\bar{x}}} = \frac{V'(\bar{x})}{\sqrt{2V(\bar{x})}}$$

New potential is

$$p^2 - p' = V''(\bar{x}) - 2p' = V''(\bar{x}) - 2 \left(\frac{\ddot{\bar{x}}}{\dot{\bar{x}}} - \left(\frac{\ddot{\bar{x}}}{\dot{\bar{x}}} \right)^2 \right)$$

$$= 2p^2 - V''(\bar{x}) = \text{[scribbled out]}$$

$$= \frac{V'(\bar{x})^2}{V(\bar{x})} - V''(\bar{x}) = \frac{V'(\bar{x})^2 - V(\bar{x})V''(\bar{x})}{V(\bar{x})}$$

But $(\log V)'' = \left(\frac{V'}{V}\right)' = \frac{VV'' - (V')^2}{V^2}$

So $p^2 - p' = (-V(\log V)'')(\bar{x}(t))$

For $V(x) = \frac{\omega^2}{8a^2} (x-a)^2 (x+a)^2$

$$(\log V)'' = \left(\frac{2}{x-a} + \frac{2}{x+a}\right)' = \frac{-2}{(x-a)^2} + \frac{-2}{(x+a)^2} < 0.$$

In fact ~~the~~

$$-V(\log V)'' = \frac{\omega^2}{4a^2} \left((\bar{x}+a)^2 + (\bar{x}-a)^2 \right)$$

$$= \frac{\omega^2}{4a^2} 2(\bar{x}^2 + a^2)$$

$$= \frac{\omega^2}{2a^2} \left(a^2 \tanh^2 \frac{\omega t}{2} + a^2 \right)$$

$$= \omega^2 - \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 \operatorname{sech}^2 \left(\frac{\omega t}{2} \right)$$

So $p^2 - p' - \omega^2 = -\frac{1}{2} \omega^2 \operatorname{sech}^2 \left(\frac{\omega t}{2} \right)$.

which seems to be in the good form at the top of page 340. so it seems that the basic potential

$$V''(\bar{x}) - \omega^2 = -\frac{3}{2} \omega^2 \operatorname{sech}^2 \left(\frac{\omega t}{2} \right)$$

is obtained from 0 by introducing two bound states at energies $(\frac{1}{2}\omega)^2$ and $(\omega)^2$.

I just noticed that $\langle x | e^{-TH/\hbar} | x' \rangle$ depends only on T/\hbar so that $T \rightarrow +\infty$ should be the same as $\hbar \rightarrow 0$ at first glance. But this isn't correct because when $H = \frac{p^2}{2}$, then

$$\langle x | e^{-\frac{T}{\hbar} \frac{p^2}{2}} | x' \rangle = \int \frac{dp}{2\pi\hbar} e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} p(x-x') - \frac{T}{\hbar} \frac{p^2}{2}}$$

$$= \int \frac{d\xi}{2\pi} e^{-i\xi(x-x') - T\hbar \frac{\xi^2}{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar T}} e^{-\frac{(x-x')^2}{2\hbar T}}$$

depends on $T\hbar$. In general you have

$$\langle x | e^{-\frac{T}{\hbar} H} | x' \rangle = \int \mathcal{D}g e^{-\int_0^{\hbar T} [\frac{1}{2} (\frac{dg}{dt})^2 + \frac{1}{\hbar^2} V(g)] dt}$$

$$g(0) = x'$$

$$g(\hbar T) = x$$

where $\mathcal{D}g$ has no \hbar dependence.

Another way of writing this is

$$= \int_{g(0)=x'}^{g(\hbar T)=x} d\mu e^{-\frac{1}{\hbar^2} \int_0^{\hbar T} V(g) dt}$$

$d\mu =$ Wiener measure
on paths

$$\text{gives } \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar T}} e^{-\frac{(x-x')^2}{2\hbar T}}$$

when $V=0$

It's still not clear how to evaluate first the $T \rightarrow \infty$ limit and then the $\hbar \rightarrow 0$ limit, i.e. why multiple instantons occur.

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Electrodynamics: Review:

force on a particle of charge e is

$$\vec{F} = e(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

non-relativistic equation of motion:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(mv) = e(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

To rewrite in Lagrangian + Hamiltonian form.

From Maxwell:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0$$

The former by Poincaré's lemma allows one to express B as

$$\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

whence

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t}) = 0 \quad \text{whence}$$

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} \varphi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t}$$

for some function φ . Then

$$\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} = \vec{E} + \vec{v} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A})$$

$$= -\vec{\nabla} \varphi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla}(\vec{v} \cdot \vec{A}) - (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{A}$$

$$= -\vec{\nabla}(\varphi - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{A}) - \frac{d}{dt}(\vec{A})$$

Thus if we put $L = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - e(\varphi - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{A})$ we have

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \vec{v}} = m\vec{v} + e\vec{A}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \vec{x}} = -e\vec{\nabla}(\varphi - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{A})$$

and so Lagrange's equation is

$$\frac{d}{dt}(m\vec{v} + e\vec{A}) = -e\vec{\nabla}(\varphi - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{A})$$

agreeing with the above.

Relativistic motion of a particle: Path of particle is $x(t) = (t, \vec{x}(t))$. It has unit tangent vector

$$u = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2}}, \frac{\vec{v}}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} \right).$$

The energy-momentum vector is proportional to this

$$p = (E, \vec{p}) = m \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2}}, \frac{\vec{v}}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} \right), \quad m = \text{rest mass.}$$

(Two justifications are that $u \cdot p = m$ so

$$0 = u \cdot \frac{dp}{dt} \quad \blacksquare \quad \text{hence} \quad \frac{dE}{dt} = \vec{v} \cdot \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$$

which expresses the fact that $\text{force} \cdot \vec{v} = \text{rate of doing work}$.

Other justification

$$E = \frac{m}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} \approx m + \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \quad \text{for small } v.)$$

For free motion we have $H = E$ and

$$L = \vec{p} \cdot \vec{v} - E = \frac{mv^2}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} - \frac{m}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} = -m\sqrt{1-v^2}$$

Check: $\vec{p} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \vec{v}} = -m \frac{1}{2}(1-v^2)^{-1/2}(-2\vec{v}) = \frac{m\vec{v}}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} \quad \checkmark$

Thus the Lagrangian for a particle of mass m in an electromagnetic field is

$$L = -m\sqrt{1-v^2} - e(\phi - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{A})$$

because $\vec{p}_A = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \vec{v}} = \frac{m\vec{v}}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} + e\vec{A} = \vec{p} + e\vec{A}$

and $\frac{d}{dt}(\vec{p} + e\vec{A}) = -e\nabla(\phi - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{A})$

is the correct relativistic equation.

\vec{p}_A denotes the ^{canonical} momentum defined by this Lagrangian.

The Hamiltonian is

$$H = \vec{p}_A \cdot \vec{v} - L = \frac{m\vec{v}^2}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} + e\vec{A} \cdot \vec{v} + m\sqrt{1-v^2} + e\phi - e\vec{v} \cdot \vec{A}$$

$$= \frac{m}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} + e\phi$$

but we want it written with v ~~computed~~ computed in

terms of p_A . $m^2 + (p_A - eA)^2 = \frac{m^2 v^2}{1-v^2} + m^2 = \frac{m^2}{1-v^2}$

or

$$H = \sqrt{m^2 + (p_A - eA)^2} + e\phi$$

A truly invariant way to write this is to write a hypersurface in the cotangent bundle of space-time. Using $p = (E, \vec{p})$ to denote the fibre coordinates (so the form is

$$p \cdot dx = E dt - \vec{p} \cdot d\vec{x} \quad (\text{Thus } \vec{p}_A \text{ becomes } \vec{p})$$

the hypersurface is

$$E - e\phi = \sqrt{m^2 + (\vec{p} - e\vec{A})^2}$$

i.e. the covector ~~$(p - eA) \cdot dx$~~ $(p - eA) \cdot dx$ has norm m . Here

$$A = (\phi, \vec{A}).$$

Actually the action form $L dt$ can be written invariantly

$$L dt = -m ds - eA \cdot dx$$

where $ds = \sqrt{1-v^2} dt$ is arc-length. This is not

a true 1-form on space-time.

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October 17, 1979:

~~Relativistic notation $p_\mu = (E, \vec{p})$ $dx_\mu = (dt, d\vec{x})$~~

~~$p_\mu \cdot dx_\mu = E dt - \vec{p} \cdot d\vec{x}$.~~

~~Gradient $\nabla_\mu f$ is defined so that~~

~~$\nabla_\mu f \cdot dx_\mu = df$~~

~~hence $\nabla_\mu = (\partial_t, -\vec{\nabla})$. also~~

~~$\nabla_\mu e^{i p_\nu x_\nu} = i p_\mu$.~~

Dirac equation: start with

$$E = \sqrt{p^2 + m^2}$$

and you want matrices $\alpha_x, \alpha_y, \alpha_z, \beta$ such that

$$p^2 + m^2 = (\alpha p + \beta m)^2$$

Thus $\alpha_i^2 = 1$ $\alpha_i \alpha_j + \alpha_j \alpha_i = 0 \quad i \neq j$
 $\beta^2 = 1$ $\alpha_i \beta + \beta \alpha_i = 0$

Then the Dirac equation is

$$i \partial_t \psi = (\alpha \frac{1}{i} \partial_x + \beta m) \psi$$

So that the Hamiltonian H is self-adjoint you want α_i and β to be hermitian. Then $\psi^* \psi$ can be interpreted as probability of finding a particle, i.e. particle density, so the charge density is

$$\rho = e \psi^* \psi$$

Current density \vec{j} is defined so that $\partial_t \rho + \nabla \cdot \vec{j} = 0$. 348

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_t (\psi^* \psi) &= [(-\alpha \partial_x - i\beta m) \psi]^* \psi + \psi^* [(-\alpha \partial_x + i\beta m) \psi] \\ &= -(\partial_x \psi)^* \alpha \psi - \psi^* \alpha \partial_x \psi \\ &= -\partial_x [\psi^* \alpha \psi] \end{aligned}$$

hence $j_i = e \psi^* \alpha_i \psi$ $\rho = e \psi^* \psi$.

Thus customary way of writing the Dirac equation in order to show its Lorentz invariance is

$$(i \beta \partial_t + i \beta \alpha \partial_x - m) \psi = 0$$

and to put $\gamma^0 = \beta$, $\gamma^i = \beta \alpha_i$ so that

$$(\gamma^0)^2 = 1, \quad (\gamma^i)^2 = -1, \quad \gamma^i \gamma^j + \gamma^j \gamma^i = 0 \quad i \neq j$$

Then the Dirac equation becomes

$$\boxed{(i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \psi = 0.}$$

Also one introduces

$$\bar{\psi} = \psi^* \gamma^0$$

whence $J^\mu = e \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi = e(\rho, \vec{j})$ is the charge-current density.

Relativistic notation: Because coordinates are given on space-time we have frames dx^i and ∂_i in T^* and T hence geometric quantities such as vectors & covectors are described by components. We might

follow Feynman and think geometrically in terms of vectors. Then a vector is a gadget in the form

$$\sum_{\mu} a^{\mu} \partial_{\mu}$$

and should be described by superscripts. For example a displacement of position is a vector

$$\delta x^{\mu} = (\delta t, \delta \vec{x})$$

Normally I want to think of energy-momentum as a 1-form: $E dt - \vec{p} \cdot d\vec{x}$ hence

$$p_{\mu} dx^{\mu} = E dt - \vec{p} \cdot d\vec{x} \quad \text{or} \quad p_{\mu} = (E, -\vec{p})$$

The energy momentum vector is

$$p^{\mu} = (E, \vec{p})$$

similarly charge-current^{density} is a vector $J^{\mu} = (\rho, \vec{j})$, as well as $A^{\mu} = (\varphi, \vec{A})$ so that

$$A_{\mu} = (\varphi, -\vec{A})$$

Gradient of f is the vector corresponding to the 1-form $df = \partial_{\mu} f dx^{\mu}$, hence the gradient is

$$\partial^{\mu} f = (\partial_0 f, -\vec{\nabla} f)$$

Finally the 4-divergence is

$$\partial_{\mu} A^{\mu} = \partial_0 \varphi + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}$$

and

$$\partial_{\mu} \partial^{\mu} f = (\partial_0^2 - \vec{\nabla}^2) f.$$

When we want to go to quantum mechanics

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we make the replacements by operators as follows:

$$p_\mu \longmapsto i\hbar\partial_\mu \quad \text{i.e.} \quad E \longmapsto i\hbar\partial_0, \quad \vec{p} \longmapsto \frac{\hbar}{i}\vec{\nabla}.$$

Hence the Dirac equation can be written

$$(\underbrace{\gamma^\mu p_\mu}_{\not{p}} - m)\psi = 0$$

\not{p} (Feynman notation).

(Memory: Use upper indices for vectors.)

$$p^\mu = (E, \vec{p}) \quad A^\mu = (\varphi, \vec{A}) \quad J^\mu = (\rho, \vec{j})$$

so that equation of continuity is $\partial_\mu J^\mu = 0$

The next project is to get the field equations for electrodynamics - EM field A interacting with Dirac field ψ . The Dirac ~~equation~~^{equation} in the presence of a fixed A can be derived by analogy with the free case $A=0$ starting from

$$(E - e\varphi)^2 = \sqrt{(\vec{p} - e\vec{A})^2 + m^2}.$$

This says $p^\mu - eA^\mu = (E - e\varphi, \vec{p} - e\vec{A})$ has norm m . All you do is replace p_μ by $p_\mu - eA_\mu$ and you get

$$\blacksquare \quad [\gamma^\mu (p_\mu - eA_\mu) - m]\psi = 0$$

or

$$\boxed{[i\gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu + ieA_\mu) - m]\psi = 0}$$

To get the equation for A given ψ we need

to use the rest of Maxwell's equations:

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$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \rho \quad \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} + \vec{j}$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times A) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(-\nabla \phi - \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} \right) + \vec{j}$$

$$\nabla (\nabla \cdot A) - \nabla^2 A = -\partial_t^2 A - \nabla (\partial_t \phi) + \vec{j}$$

$$(\partial_t^2 - \nabla^2) A + \nabla (\partial_t \phi + \nabla \cdot A) = \vec{j}$$

also $\rho = \nabla \cdot (-\nabla \phi - \partial_t A) = -\nabla^2 \phi - \partial_t (\nabla \cdot A + \partial_t \phi) + \partial_t^2 \phi$

or $(\partial_t^2 - \nabla^2) \phi - \partial_t (\partial_t \phi + \nabla \cdot A) = \rho$

or finally

$$(\partial_t^2 - \vec{\nabla}^2)(\phi, \vec{A}) - (\partial_t, -\vec{\nabla})(\partial_t \phi + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) = (\rho, \vec{j})$$

or
$$\square A^\mu - \partial^\mu (\partial_\nu A^\nu) = J^\mu = e \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi$$

Next we need a Lagrangian to yield these field equations. Notice the last one can be written

$$\begin{aligned} J_\mu &= \square A_\mu - \partial_\mu (\partial^\nu A_\nu) = \partial^\nu \partial_\nu A_\mu - \partial^\nu \partial_\mu A_\nu \\ &= \partial^\nu (\partial_\nu A_\mu - \partial_\mu A_\nu) \end{aligned}$$

or better $J^\mu = \partial_\nu \partial^\nu A^\mu - \partial^\mu (\partial_\nu A^\nu)$

$$= \partial_\nu (\partial^\nu A^\mu - \partial^\mu A^\nu) = e \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi$$

What is the Lagrangian? Start with

$$L = i \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi - m \bar{\psi} \psi.$$

$$\delta L = i(\delta \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi + \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \delta \psi) - m(\delta \bar{\psi} \psi + \bar{\psi} \delta \psi)$$

and recall $\bar{\psi} = \psi^* \gamma^0$ so this is

$$\begin{aligned} \delta L = & (\delta \psi)^* (\gamma^0 \gamma^\mu i \partial_\mu \psi) + \psi^* (\gamma^0 \gamma^\mu i \partial_\mu \delta \psi) \\ & + (\delta \psi)^* (-m \gamma^0 \psi) + \psi^* (-m \gamma^0 \delta \psi) \end{aligned}$$

Because $\gamma^0 \gamma^\mu i \partial_\mu$ is self-adjoint when we integrate δL we can integrate by parts to get

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \int L d^4x = & \int d^4x \{ (\delta \psi)^* (\gamma^0 \gamma^\mu i \partial_\mu \psi) + (\gamma^0 \gamma^\mu i \partial_\mu \psi)^* \delta \psi \} \\ & + \int d^4x \{ (\delta \psi)^* (-m \gamma^0 \psi) + (-m \gamma^0 \psi)^* \delta \psi \} \end{aligned}$$

Standard stuff on inner products says this vanishes for all $\delta \psi$ when

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

or

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

which is the Dirac equation. Clearly we can replace ∂_μ by $D_\mu = \partial_\mu + ie A_\mu$ and get that

$$L = i \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu D_\mu \psi - m \bar{\psi} \psi = \bar{\psi} (i \gamma^\mu D_\mu - m) \psi$$

leads to the Dirac equation with ~~an~~ an external field:

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

Notation: A determines a 1-form

$$\alpha = A_\mu dx^\mu = \varphi dt - \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{x}$$

so $A_\mu = (\varphi, -A)$. This 1-form determines the 2-form

$$d\alpha = d(A_\mu dx^\mu) = \partial_\nu A_\mu dx^\nu dx^\mu = \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{(\partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu)}_{F_{\mu\nu}} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

Compute $d\alpha$:

$$\begin{aligned} d\alpha &= d\varphi dt - dA_x dx - dA_y dy - dA_z dz \\ &= (-\partial_x \varphi - \partial_t A_x) dt dx + (\partial_x A_y - \partial_y A_x) dx dy \\ &\quad + (-\partial_y \varphi - \partial_t A_y) dt dy - (\partial_y A_z - \partial_z A_y) dy dz \\ &\quad + (-\partial_z \varphi - \partial_t A_z) dt dz - (\partial_z A_x - \partial_x A_z) dz dx \\ &= E_x dt dx - B_z dx dy \\ &\quad + E_y dt dy - B_x dy dz \\ &\quad + E_z dt dz - B_y dz dx \end{aligned}$$

The other term in the Lagrangian^{density} is

$$-\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mu < \nu} (\partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu) (\partial^\mu A^\nu - \partial^\nu A^\mu)$$

In forming $F^{\mu\nu}$ from $F_{\mu\nu}$ the space-like components dx, dy, dz change sign. Thus one gets

$$-\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (|\mathbf{E}|^2 - |\mathbf{B}|^2)$$

as in Goldstein p366. A more invariant way of writing it is

$$-\frac{1}{2} (d\alpha, d\alpha)$$

where $(,)$ is computed using the Minkowski inner product.

Combine the two densities to get

$$L = i \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu + ieA_\mu) \psi - \frac{1}{2} (d\alpha, d\alpha).$$

Now vary A keeping ψ fixed to get

$$\delta L = e \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi \delta A_\mu - \frac{1}{2} [(d\delta\alpha, d\alpha) + (d\alpha, d\alpha)]$$

After integration the ~~term~~ term in brackets becomes $2(d^*d\alpha, \delta\alpha)$.

Thus ~~the~~ the variational equation is

$$e \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi = d^*d\alpha$$

which is the Maxwell equation on the bottom of 351.

October 18, 1979

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Yesterday I saw that the Lagrangian for the EM field involves the term

$$-\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (|E|^2 - |B|^2)$$

The Lagrangian for the EM field in the presence of a fixed current $J_\mu = (\rho, -\vec{j})$ is

$$\mathcal{L} = J^\mu A_\mu - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} = \boxed{\text{ }} (J, \alpha) - \frac{1}{2} (d\alpha, d\alpha)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \delta\mathcal{L} &= \boxed{\text{ }} (J, \delta\alpha) - \frac{1}{2} (d\delta\alpha, d\alpha) - \frac{1}{2} (d\alpha, d\delta\alpha) \\ &= (J, \delta\alpha) - (d^*d\alpha, \delta\alpha) \quad \text{mod divergence} \end{aligned}$$

Question: Does the variational problem occurring in Hamilton's principle have a minimum or saddle point?

Calculate second variation around \bar{x} : $x = \bar{x} + y$

$$\begin{aligned} \int \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 - V(x) \right] dt &= \int \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\bar{x}}^2 - V(\bar{x}) \right] dt \\ &+ \int \frac{1}{2} (\dot{y}^2 - V''(\bar{x})y^2) dt + O(y^3) \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have a minimum when the operator

$$-\partial_t^2 - V''(\bar{x}(t)) \quad \text{with Dirichlet conditions}$$

on the interval one is working has eigenvalues > 0 . In any case there are only finitely many negative eigenvalues.

Example: $V(x) = \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 x^2$ so that $V'' = \omega^2$

On the interval $[0, T]$ ~~$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2}$~~ has eigenfunctions $\sin(n\frac{\pi}{T}t)$ and so $-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + \omega^2$ has the spectrum

$$n^2 \frac{\pi^2}{T^2} - \omega^2$$

so there can be negative eigenvalues. In fact the number of negative eigenvalues is given by the Morse index thm, i.e. you count the number of conjugate points along the ~~band~~ curves.