Unruh-DeWitt detectors in cosmological spacetimes

UTF Special Topics Lecture 3

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UNIVERZITA KARLOVA Matematicko-fyzikální fakulta

1. What is Quantum Field Theory on curved spacetime?

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What is Quantum Field Theory on curved spacetime?
 What is the Unruh-DeWitt particle detector model?

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- 2. What is the Unruh-DeWitt particle detector model?
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- 1. What is Quantum Field Theory on curved spacetime?
- 2. What is the Unruh-DeWitt particle detector model?
- 3. How do we model the temperature of the detector?
- 4. Analyse how the detector behaves in de Sitter space.

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What is Quantum Field Theory in Curved Spacetime?

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Quantum Field Theory in Curved Spacetime (QFTCS) Introduction

▶ QFTCS is a framework to understand how quantum fields behave as they propagate through a classical spacetime.

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Quantum Field Theory in Curved Spacetime (QFTCS) Introduction

- ▶ QFTCS is a framework to understand how quantum fields behave as they propagate through a classical spacetime.
- ▶ In this sense, QFTCS is an approximation of a quantum theory of gravity where the quantum nature of fields and the effects of gravitation are important but the quantum nature of gravity itself is assumed to be negligible.

Quantum Field Theory in Curved Spacetime (QFTCS)

QFTCS has enjoyed particular success in analysing quantum phenomena such as

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 - ▶ The expansion of the Universe can result in the evolution of a vacuum and the creation of particles.

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- 2. Hawking radiation
 - ▶ Tiny fluctuations on the event horizon of a black hole lead to low-energy radiation and the evaporation of the black hole.
- 3. Unruh effect
 - ▶ This is the radiation experienced by uniformly accelerated observers.

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- 2. No well-defined notion of a particle
- 3. The Unruh-DeWitt detector model gives an *operational* meaning to the notion of a particle

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 - (a) No natural choice which corresponds to the physical absence of 'particles'
 - (b) This is true even in flat space were the vacuum is chosen not because it is uniquely defined but because it agrees with all measuring devices passing along an inertial trajectory.
 - (c) While a 'particle' may be observed by a detector tuned to one vacuum, it may not be observed by a detector tuned to another vacuum.

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2. No well-defined notion of a particle

3. The Unruh-DeWitt detector model gives an *operational* meaning to the notion of a particle

2. No well-defined notion of a particle¹

¹This is a consequence of the lack of global symmetries in curved space. In particular, one cannot identify a global time function to distinguish between positive frequency and negative frequency modes leading to an ambiguity in the particle concept $\Box \rightarrow \langle \Box \rangle \rightarrow \langle \Xi \rangle \rightarrow \langle \Xi \rangle \rightarrow \langle \Xi \rangle$

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- 2. No well-defined notion of a particle¹
 - (a) The canonical path of QFT is to treat fields rather than particles as the fundamental object of interest
 - (b) However, we needn't entirely dispense with the particle concept as...

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- Picture a simple, idealised quantum mechanical measuring device travelling through spacetime on a given trajectory.
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a particle is what a particle detector detects!

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- ▶ Just as an electron moves from its ground to its excited state through the absorption of a photon...
- ▶ The absorption of field quanta by the atom can promote the atom from ground state to excited state .

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- ▶ The absorption of field quanta by the atom can promote the atom from ground state to excited state .
- We interpret this atomic excitation as a detector registering a particle.
- ▶ Conversely, the detector can de-excite by emitting quanta.

How do we interpret the response?

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Particle Detector Theory & Response

Suppose that the particle detector travels along a world line $x^{\mu}(\tau)$. Interaction between the detector and the quantum field $\hat{\varphi}(x)$ is governed by the Hamiltonian²

$$H_{int} = c\chi(\tau)\hat{\mu}(\tau)\hat{\varphi}(x).$$

Interaction is turned on and off via the switching function $\chi(\tau)$. The probability that the detector will transition from ground state to excited state is described by

$$P(\omega) = c^2 |\langle E|\mu(0)|E_0\rangle|^2 \mathcal{F}(\omega),$$

where the *response function* is defined via

$$\mathcal{F}(\omega) = 2 \lim_{\epsilon \to 0^+} \Re \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} du \, \chi(u) \int_{0}^{\infty} ds \, \chi(u-s) e^{-i\,\omega\,s} W_{\epsilon}(u,u-s).$$

 c^{2} is a coupling constant and $\hat{\mu}(\tau)$ the detector's monopole moment operator.

J. Louko, A. Satz, Classical and Quantum Gravity 25 055012 (2018). (🗇 > (🖹 > (🗄 >) ()



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- We also assume that W(x; x') follows the Hadamard singularity structure, i.e. singular behaviour at x = x' which require the $i\epsilon$ -regularisation.



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- ► This will be our main object of interest and we interpret it as the *rate of particle detection* of quantum particles that are 'produced' as a result of interaction with the quantum field.

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- ▶ Nevertheless, the derivative of the response function or transition rate is regular at this limit.
- ► This will be our main object of interest and we interpret it as the *rate of particle detection* of quantum particles that are 'produced' as a result of interaction with the quantum field.
- We can use this to understand quantum phenomena associated with the curvature of the spacetime (*Hawking effect*) or the acceleration of the detector itself (*Unruh effect*)

How do we model the temperature of the detector?

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Consider a transition rate of the form

$$\dot{\mathcal{F}}_{\tau}(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_0^{\Delta\tau} ds \left(\frac{\cos \omega s}{\sigma^2(\tau,s)} + \frac{1}{s^2}\right) + \frac{1}{2\pi^2 \Delta \tau} - \frac{\omega}{4\pi}$$

where we have defined $\sigma^2(\tau, s) \equiv a(\tau)a(\tau - s)(\Delta x)^2$ s.t. $(\Delta x)^2 \equiv \eta_{\mu\nu}\Delta x^{\mu}\Delta x^{\nu}$. Equivalently, we may write

$$\dot{\mathcal{F}}_{\tau}(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty ds \left(\frac{\cos \omega s}{\sigma^2(\tau,s)} + \frac{1}{s^2}\right) + J_{\tau} - \frac{\omega}{4\pi},$$

where we define the 'fluctuating tail'

$$J_{\tau} \equiv -\frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_{\Delta \tau}^{\infty} \frac{\cos \omega s}{\sigma^2(\tau, s)} ds,$$

which vanishes at the limit $\Delta \tau \to \infty$.

Next, by adding and subtracting a $\cos(\omega s)/s^2$ term in the integrand, we can re-write this like so

$$\dot{\mathcal{F}}_{\tau}(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty ds \cos \omega s \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2(\tau,s)} + \frac{1}{s^2}\right) + J_{\tau} + \frac{|\omega| - \omega}{4\pi},$$

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De Sitter space in FLRW coordinates is characterised by the scale factor $a(t) = e^{Ht}$, where H is now the Hubble constant.

This ensures that the 'world function' is independent of proper time, i.e. $\sigma^2(\tau, s) = \sigma^2(s)$, a simplification which is present also in the case of stationary (and static) black hole spacetimes.

For a comoving detector $t = \tau$, we have

$$\eta(\tau) = \int \frac{d\tau}{a(\tau)} = -H^{-1}e^{-H\tau}, \qquad \sigma^2(s) = -4H^{-2}\sinh^2\left(\frac{Hs}{2}\right),$$

and $r(\tau) = r_0$. After redefining the variable of integration s, we can write

$$\dot{\mathcal{F}}_{\tau}^{\rm corr}(\omega) \equiv \frac{H}{8\pi^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ds \; e^{-2i\omega s/H} \left(-\frac{1}{\sinh^2 s} + \frac{1}{s^2} \right) + J_{\tau},$$

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ight), \quad T_{dS} = H/2\pi,$$

where T_{dS} is the *de Sitter temperature*, i.e. the temperature an inertial observer in de Sitter space will read on their thermometer.

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We have also made some connection between the detector and temperature.

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Next Question: How do we model the temperature of the detector for finite times?

For a Kodama detector, we have a less simple relation between cosmic time t and proper time τ , i.e. $\tau = \sqrt{V_{dS}}t$ where $V_{dS} \equiv 1 - H^2 K^2$. We then have

$$a(\tau) = e^{\frac{H\tau}{\sqrt{V_{dS}}}}, \quad \eta(\tau) = -\frac{1}{H}e^{-\frac{H\tau}{\sqrt{V_{dS}}}}, \quad r(\tau) = \frac{\sqrt{1-V_{dS}}}{H}e^{-\frac{H\tau}{\sqrt{V_{dS}}}},$$

from which we find

A Kodama detector in de Sitter space

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from which we find

$$\dot{\mathcal{F}}_{\tau}(\omega) \equiv \frac{\omega}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{e^{\omega/T_{dS}^{\mathrm{loc}}} - 1} \right], \quad T_{dS}^{\mathrm{loc}} \equiv \frac{H}{2\pi\sqrt{V_{dS}}},$$

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as $\Delta \tau \to \infty$.

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as $\Delta \tau \to \infty$.

This is a very similar expression to the comoving case but where the temperature has been red-shifted away from the de Sitter temperature so that it is now the *locally-measured KMS temperature*.

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This corresponds to the local temperature of the field at the location of the detector and is red-shifted away from the de Sitter temperature.

From here, we reason that we can estimate the temperature of the detector using

$$T_{EDR} = -\frac{\omega}{\ln \mathcal{R}}, \qquad \mathcal{R} = \dot{\mathcal{F}}_{\tau}(\omega)/\dot{\mathcal{F}}_{\tau}(-\omega)$$

where T_{EDR} must be independent of ω .

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In the Kodama (or comoving) case, we find $T_{EDR} = T_{loc}$ meaning

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the detector has thermalised to the local field temperature $T_{loc}.$

Some results

Black hole vs. Cosmological spacetimes Some things to bear in mind

Black hole

- In general, the propagator is not known in closed form and requires significant numerical work.
- + In stationary black hole spacetimes, the existence of a Killing vector allows us to define physical quantities such as surface gravity and temperature on the event horizon.

Cosmology

- + FRW spacetime is conformally-flat and so we can use the conformal mode decomposition, easing numerical burden.
- Due to the dynamical nature of the cosmological apparent horizon, surface gravity and temperature become ambiguous.



▶ Here, we plot the transition rate as a function of the energy gap.

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▶ Recall that the energy gap $\omega = E - E_0$ is the difference in energy between the ground state and excited state.



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- ▶ Recall that the energy gap $\omega = E E_0$ is the difference in energy between the ground state and excited state.
- Here we see that in both cases, we have the expected behaviour of a detector being generically more likely to emit quanta $(\omega < 0)$ than it is to absorb $(\omega > 0)$.

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- ▶ Here, we plot the transition rate as a function of the energy gap.
- ▶ Recall that the energy gap $\omega = E E_0$ is the difference in energy between the ground state and excited state.
- Here we see that in both cases, we have the expected behaviour of a detector being generically more likely to emit quanta (ω < 0) than it is to absorb (ω > 0).
- In the comoving case (right), the detector more closely resembles the static case when the scale factor approaches flat space (yellow).





• In the static case (left), we observe that the once transient effects associated with turning on the detector are distilled by a suitably long detection time, the temperature of the detector thermalises to T_{loc}

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- In the static case (left), we observe that the once transient effects associated with turning on the detector are distilled by a suitably long detection time, the temperature of the detector thermalises to T_{loc}
- ▶ Similarly, in the case of a comoving detector coupled to a field in the de Sitter Universe, the detector thermalises to the de Sitter temperature T_{dS} .



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- ▶ Similarly, in the case of a comoving detector coupled to a field in the de Sitter Universe, the detector thermalises to the de Sitter temperature T_{dS} .
- ► This is the temperature an inertial observer in de Sitter space will read on their thermometer.

Thermalisation of the detector



▶ In Phys.Rev.D 105 (2022) 12, 123513 arXiv:2204.00359, we show that for a broader class of asymptotically-de Sitter spacetimes, that the temperature of the detector thermalises to the Hayward-Kodama temperature, discussed in Lecture 1.

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