

Standard Model of Particle Physics

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2. Relativistic Quantum Fields

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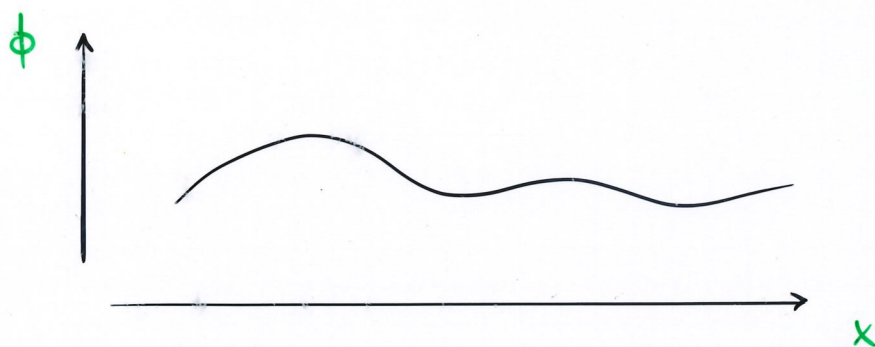
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Classical Field Theory



- * Consider waves on string, density ρ , tension T , displacement $\phi(x,t)$.

$$\text{K.E.} \quad T = \int \frac{1}{2} \rho \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)^2 dx$$

$$\text{P.E.} \quad V = \int \frac{1}{2} T \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 dx = \int \frac{1}{2} \rho c^2 \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 dx$$

wave velocity $c = \sqrt{T/\rho}$

* Lagrangian $L = T - V = \int \mathcal{L} dx$

with Lagrangian density

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \rho \left[\left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)^2 - c^2 \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 \right]$$

For brevity, write

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \dot{\phi}, \quad \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} = \phi'$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \rho (\dot{\phi}^2 - c^2 \phi'^2)$$

* Equations of motion given by least action

$$\delta S = 0 \quad \text{where} \quad S = \int \mathcal{L} \, dx \, dt$$

$$\rightarrow \delta S = \int \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} \delta \phi + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \delta \phi' + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \delta \dot{\phi} \right) dx \, dt$$

But

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \delta \phi' \, dx &= \int \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \delta \phi \, dx \\ &= \underbrace{\left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \delta \phi \right]_{-\infty}^{+\infty}}_{=0} - \int \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \right) \delta \phi \, dx \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\int \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \delta \dot{\phi} \, dt = - \int \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \right) \delta \phi \, dt$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta S = \int \left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \right) \right] \delta \phi \, dx \, dt$$

This has to vanish for any $\delta \phi(x, t)$, so we obtain Euler-Lagrange equation of motion for the field $\phi(x, t)$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \right) = 0$$

* For the string $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \rho (\dot{\phi}^2 - c^2 \phi'^2)$

$$\rightarrow \rho c^2 \frac{\partial \phi'}{\partial x} - \rho \frac{\partial \dot{\phi}}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow c^2 \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2} = 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{Wave equation}$$

* We shall also need Hamiltonian

$$H = \int \mathcal{H} dx$$

↑ Hamiltonian density

Recall that for a single coordinate q

we have $L = L(\dot{q}, q)$ and

$$H = p \dot{q} - L$$

where p is the generalized momentum

$$p = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}}$$

* Similarly, for field $\phi(x, t)$ we define momentum density $\pi(x, t) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}}$

Then

$$\mathcal{H}(\pi, \phi) = \pi \dot{\phi} - \mathcal{L}$$

* For the string $\pi = p \dot{\phi}$ (as expected)

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \mathcal{H} &= \pi \left(\frac{\pi}{p} \right) - \frac{1}{2} p \left(\frac{\pi^2}{p} \right) + \frac{1}{2} p c^2 \phi'^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2p} \pi^2 + \frac{1}{2} p c^2 \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

for string

Klein-Gordon Field

We choose the Lagrangian density ($\hbar = c = 1$)

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2$$

to obtain the Klein-Gordon equation of motion:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -m^2 \phi + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2} = 0$$

The momentum density is

$$\pi = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t}$$

and so the Klein-Gordon Hamiltonian density is

$$\mathcal{H} = \pi^2 - \mathcal{L}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \pi^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2$$

* In 3 spatial dimensions $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \rightarrow \underline{\nabla} \phi$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial \phi / \partial x)} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial \phi / \partial y)} \right) \\ - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial \phi / \partial z)} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \right) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow -m^2 \phi + \underline{\nabla}^2 \phi - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2} = 0$$

* Covariant notation :

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} (\partial^\mu \phi) (\partial^\nu \phi) - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2$$

Euler - Lagrange equation :

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} - \partial^\mu \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial^\mu \phi)} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -m^2 \phi - \partial^\mu (g_{\mu\nu} \partial^\nu \phi) = 0$$

i.e. $\partial^\mu \partial_\mu \phi + m^2 \phi = 0$ (KG equation)

* Note that the Lagrangian density \mathcal{L} and the action $S = \int \mathcal{L} d^3x dt = \int \mathcal{L} d^4x$ are scalars (invariant functions), like ϕ .

* On the other hand the momentum density $\pi = \partial \phi / \partial t$ and the Hamiltonian density

$$\mathcal{H} = \frac{1}{2} \pi^2 + \frac{1}{2} (\nabla \phi)^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2$$

are not.

(Time development \Rightarrow frame dependence)

Fourier Analysis

- * We can express any real field $\phi(x, t)$ as a Fourier integral

$$\phi(x, t) = \int dk N(k) [a(k) e^{ikx - i\omega t} + a^*(k) e^{-ikx + i\omega t}]$$

where $N(k)$ is a convenient normalizing factor for the Fourier transform $a(k)$.

The frequency $\omega(k) \geq 0$ is obtained by solving the equation of motion

* KG equation $\Rightarrow -m^2 - k^2 + \omega^2 = 0$
 $\Rightarrow \omega = +\sqrt{k^2 + m^2}$

- * The Hamiltonian

$$H = \int \left(\frac{1}{2} \pi^2 + \frac{1}{2} \phi'^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2 \right) dx$$

takes a simpler form in terms of the Fourier amplitudes $a(k)$.

- * Write e.g.

$$\phi^2 = \int dk N(k) [\dots] \int dk' N(k') [\dots]$$

and use

$$\int dx e^{i(k \pm k')x} = 2\pi \delta(k \pm k')$$

$$\rightarrow \int \phi^2 dx = 2\pi \int dk dk' N(k) N(k') * \\ + [a(k) a(k') \delta(k+k') e^{-i(\omega+\omega')t} + a^*(k) a^*(k') \delta(k+k') e^{+i(\omega+\omega')t} \\ + a(k) a^*(k') \delta(k-k') e^{-i(\omega-\omega')t} + a^*(k) a(k') \delta(k-k') e^{+i(\omega-\omega')t}]$$

* Noting that $\omega(-k) = \omega(k)$ and choosing $N(k)$ such that $N(k) = N(-k)$, this gives

$$\int \phi^2 dx = 2\pi \int dk [N(k)]^2 \cdot [a(k) a(-k) e^{-2i\omega t} + \\ + a^*(k) a^*(-k) e^{+2i\omega t} + a(k) a^*(k) + a^*(k) a(k)]$$

* Similarly,

$$\int \phi'^2 dx = 2\pi \int dk [k N(k)]^2 [- " -]$$

while

$$\int \dot{\phi}^2 dx = 2\pi \int dk [\omega(k) N(k)]^2 \cdot [- a(k) a(-k) e^{-2i\omega t} + \\ - a^*(k) a^*(-k) e^{+2i\omega t} + a(k) a^*(k) + a^*(k) a(k)]$$

and hence (using $k^2 = \omega^2 - \omega'^2$)

$$H = 2\pi \int dk [N(k) \omega(k)]^2 [a(k) a^*(k) + a^*(k) a(k)]$$

or, choosing

$$N(k) = \frac{1}{2\pi \cdot 2\omega(k)}$$

$$H = \int dk N(k) \frac{1}{2} \omega(k) [a(k) a^*(k) + a^*(k) a(k)]$$

$$H = \int d\underline{k} \underbrace{N(\underline{k})}_{\text{density of modes}} \underbrace{\omega(\underline{k})}_{\text{mode energy}} |a(\underline{k})|^2$$

* Each normal mode of the system behaves like an independent harmonic oscillator with amplitude $a(\underline{k})$.

* In 3 spatial dimensions we write

$$\phi(\underline{r}, t) = \int d^3\underline{k} N(\underline{k}) \left[a(\underline{k}) e^{i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - i\omega t} + a^*(\underline{k}) e^{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} + i\omega t} \right]$$

and use

$$\int d^3\underline{r} e^{i(\underline{k} \pm \underline{k}') \cdot \underline{r}} = (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(\underline{k} \pm \underline{k}')$$

Therefore we should choose

$$N(\underline{k}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega(\underline{k})}$$

$$\Rightarrow H = \int \underbrace{\frac{d^3\underline{k}}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega(\underline{k})}}_{\text{usual relativistic phase space (density of states)}} \cdot \omega(\underline{k}) |a(\underline{k})|^2$$

usual relativistic
phase space
(density of states)

Second Quantization

- * First quantization was the procedure of replacing classical dynamical variables q and p for a particle by quantum operators \hat{q} and \hat{p} such that

$$[\hat{q}, \hat{p}] = i \quad (t=1)$$

- * Second quantization is replacing the field variable $\phi(x,t)$ and its conjugate momentum density $\pi(x,t)$ by operators such that

$$[\hat{\phi}(x,t), \hat{\pi}(y,t)] = i \delta(x-y)$$

NB: x and y are not dynamical variables but labels for the field values at different points. Compare (and contrast)

$$[\hat{q}_j, \hat{p}_k] = i \delta_{jk} \quad (j,k=1,2,3)$$

- * The wave function ϕ satisfying the Klein-Gordon equation is replaced by the field operator $\hat{\phi}$, satisfying the same equation.

* The Fourier representation becomes

$$\hat{\phi}(x,t) = \int dk N(k) \left[\hat{a}(k) e^{ikx - i\omega t} + \hat{a}^\dagger(k) e^{-ikx + i\omega t} \right]$$

i.e. $\hat{\phi}$ is hermitian but the Fourier conjugate operator \hat{a} is not.

* Keeping track of the order of operators, the Hamiltonian operator is

$$\hat{H} = \int dk N(k) \cdot \frac{1}{2} \omega(k) \left[\hat{a}(k) \hat{a}^\dagger(k) + \hat{a}^\dagger(k) \hat{a}(k) \right]$$

* Compare this with the simple harmonic oscillator:

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

→ $\hat{a}^\dagger(k)$ and $\hat{a}(k)$ are ladder operators for the mode of wave number k :

They add/remove one quantum of excitation of the mode.

These quanta are the particles corresponding to that field,

$\hat{a}^\dagger(k) =$ creation operator

$\hat{a}(k) =$ annihilation operator

for Klein-Gordon particles.

Ladder operators of simple harmonic oscillator satisfy

$$[\hat{a}, \hat{a}^+] = 1$$

The analogous commutation relation for the creation and annihilation operators is

$$N(k) [\hat{a}(k), \hat{a}^+(k')] = \delta(k - k')$$

i.e. $[\hat{a}(k), \hat{a}^+(k')] = 2\pi \cdot 2\omega(k) \delta(k - k')$

or in 3 dimensions

$$[\hat{a}(\underline{k}), \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}')] = (2\pi)^3 \cdot 2\omega(k) \delta^3(\underline{k} - \underline{k}')$$

On the other hand

$$[\hat{a}(\underline{k}), \hat{a}(\underline{k}')] = [\hat{a}^+(\underline{k}), \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}')] = 0$$

* These correspond to the field commutation relation

$$[\hat{\phi}(\underline{x}, t), \hat{\pi}(\underline{y}, t)] = \int d^3\underline{k} d^3\underline{k}' N(\underline{k}) N(\underline{k}')$$

$$* [\hat{a}(\underline{k}) e^{i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{x} - i\omega t} + \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}) e^{-i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{x} + i\omega t}, -i\omega' \hat{a}(\underline{k}') e^{i\underline{k}' \cdot \underline{y} - i\omega' t} + i\omega' \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}') e^{-i\underline{k}' \cdot \underline{y} + i\omega' t}]$$

$$= i \int d^3\underline{k} N(\underline{k}) \omega(\underline{k}) (e^{i\underline{k} \cdot (\underline{x} - \underline{y})} + e^{-i\underline{k} \cdot (\underline{x} - \underline{y})})$$

$$= i \delta^3(\underline{x} - \underline{y}) \quad \text{as expected}$$

N.B. On the other hand

$$[\hat{\phi}(\underline{x}, t), \hat{\phi}(\underline{y}, t)] = 0$$

- * The fact that the field operator has positive - and negative - frequency parts now appears quite natural:

$$\hat{\phi}(x,t) = \int dk N(k) \left[\underbrace{\hat{a}(k) e^{ikx - i\omega t}}_{\substack{\text{positive-frequency} \\ \text{part}}} + \underbrace{\hat{a}^\dagger(k) e^{-ikx + i\omega t}}_{\substack{\text{negative-frequency} \\ \text{part}}} \right]$$

annihilates particles
creates particles

- * $\pm \hbar\omega$ is the energy released/absorbed in the annihilation/creation process.

NB: The Hermitian field describes particles that are identical to their antiparticles, e.g. π^0 mesons.

- * More generally (as we shall see shortly) the negative - frequency part of $\hat{\phi}$ creates antiparticles

Single - Particle States

If $|0\rangle$ represents the state with no particles present (the vacuum), then $\hat{a}^+(\underline{k})|0\rangle$ is a state containing a particle of wave vector \underline{k} (i.e. momentum $\hbar\underline{k}$).

* More generally, to make a state with wave function $\phi(\underline{r}, t)$ where

$$\phi(\underline{r}, t) = \int d^3\underline{k} \tilde{\phi}(\underline{k}) e^{i\underline{k} \cdot \underline{r} - i\omega t}$$

we should operate on the vacuum with

$$\int d^3\underline{k} \tilde{\phi}(\underline{k}) \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}) .$$

Writing this state as

$$|\phi\rangle = \int d^3\underline{k} \tilde{\phi}(\underline{k}) \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}) |0\rangle$$

we can find the wave function using the relation

$$\langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(\underline{r}, t) | \phi \rangle = \phi(\underline{r}, t)$$

i.e. the field operator is an operator for "finding out the wave function" (for single-particle states).

Two - Particle States

Similarly we can make a state $|\phi_{12}\rangle$ of two particles:

$$|\phi_{12}\rangle = \int d^3\underline{k}_1, d^3\underline{k}_2 \tilde{\phi}(\underline{k}_1, \underline{k}_2) \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}_1) \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}_2) |0\rangle.$$

Since the two particles are identical bosons, this is symmetric in the labels 1 and 2 (even if $\tilde{\phi}$ isn't) because $\hat{a}^+(\underline{k}_1)$ and $\hat{a}^+(\underline{k}_2)$ commute

$$\begin{aligned} |\phi_{12}\rangle &= \int d^3\underline{k}_1, d^3\underline{k}_2 \tilde{\phi}(\underline{k}_1, \underline{k}_2) \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}_1) \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}_2) |0\rangle \\ &= \int d^3\underline{k}_1, d^3\underline{k}_2 \tilde{\phi}(\underline{k}_2, \underline{k}_1) \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}_2) \hat{a}^+(\underline{k}_1) |0\rangle \\ &= |\phi_{21}\rangle \end{aligned}$$

* The 2-particle wave function is

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(\underline{r}_1, \underline{r}_2, t) &= \langle 0 | \hat{\phi}(\underline{r}_1, t) \hat{\phi}(\underline{r}_2, t) | \phi_{12} \rangle \\ &= \phi(\underline{r}_2, \underline{r}_1, t) \end{aligned}$$

Thus quantum field theory is also a good way of dealing with systems of many identical particles.

Number Operator

- * Recall that for the simple harmonic oscillator the operator $\hat{a}^+ \hat{a}$ tells us the number of quanta of excitation:

$$\hat{a}^+ \hat{a} |\phi_n\rangle = n |\phi_n\rangle$$

↑ n^{th} excited state

- * Similarly, in field theory the operator

$$\hat{N} = \int dk N(k) \hat{a}^+(k) \hat{a}(k)$$

counts the number of particles in a state.

E.g.

$$\hat{N} |\phi_{12}\rangle = \int dk dk_1 dk_2 N(k) \tilde{\phi}(k_1, k_2) \hat{a}^+(k) \hat{a}(k) \hat{a}^+(k_1) \hat{a}^+(k_2) |0\rangle$$

$$N(k) \hat{a}^+(k) \hat{a}(k) \hat{a}^+(k_1) \hat{a}^+(k_2) =$$

$$= N(k) \hat{a}^+(k) \hat{a}^+(k_1) \hat{a}(k) \hat{a}^+(k_2) + \hat{a}^+(k) \hat{a}^+(k_2) \delta(k-k_1)$$

$$= N(k) \hat{a}^+(k) \hat{a}^+(k_1) \hat{a}^+(k_2) \hat{a}(k) +$$

$$+ \hat{a}^+(k) \hat{a}^+(k_1) \delta(k-k_2) + \hat{a}^+(k) \hat{a}^+(k_2) \delta(k-k_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{N} |\phi_{12}\rangle = 0 + |\phi_{12}\rangle + |\phi_{12}\rangle = \underline{\underline{2}} |\phi_{12}\rangle$$

because $\hat{a}(k) |0\rangle = 0$ ← definition of $|0\rangle$

NB: In general, states do not have to be eigenstates of \hat{N} — they need not contain a definite number of particles.

Electromagnetic Field

- * Each component of A^μ (in Lorenz gauge) is quantized like a massless Klein-Gordon field (i.e. with $\omega = |\underline{k}|$):

$$\hat{A}^\mu(\underline{r}, t) = \sum_{p=L,R} \int \frac{d^3\underline{k}}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega} \cdot \left[\epsilon_p^\mu(\underline{k}) \hat{a}_p(\underline{k}) e^{i\underline{k}\cdot\underline{r} - i\omega t} + \epsilon_p^{*\mu}(\underline{k}) \hat{a}_p^\dagger(\underline{k}) e^{-i\underline{k}\cdot\underline{r} + i\omega t} \right]$$

where $\hat{a}_p(\underline{k})$ annihilates a photon with momentum \underline{k} and polarization p ($= L$ or R) and $\hat{a}_p^\dagger(\underline{k})$ creates one.

- * $\epsilon_{L,R}^\mu(\underline{k})$ are the left/right-handed circular polarization 4-vectors for wave vector \underline{k} ,

[e.g. recall that for \underline{k} along the z -axis

$$\epsilon_{L,R}^\mu = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (0, 1, \mp i, 0)]$$

and

$$\boxed{[\hat{a}_p(\underline{k}), \hat{a}_{p'}^\dagger(\underline{k}')] = (2\pi)^3 2\omega \delta_{pp'} \delta^3(\underline{k} - \underline{k}')}]$$

different polarizations commute

* The Hamiltonian for the e.m. field is

$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3r (\hat{\underline{E}}^2 + \hat{\underline{B}}^2)$$

where (in $A^0 = 0$ gauge) from

$$\hat{\underline{E}} = -\frac{\partial \hat{\underline{A}}}{\partial t}, \quad \hat{\underline{B}} = \underline{\nabla} \times \hat{\underline{A}}$$

we have

$$\hat{\underline{E}} = \sum_{\rho} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega} i\omega [\underline{\epsilon}_{\rho} \hat{a}_{\rho} e^{-ik \cdot x} - \underline{\epsilon}_{\rho}^* \hat{a}_{\rho}^{\dagger} e^{+ik \cdot x}]$$

$$\hat{\underline{B}} = \sum_{\rho} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega} i\mathbf{k} \times [\underline{\epsilon}_{\rho} \hat{a}_{\rho} e^{-ik \cdot x} - \underline{\epsilon}_{\rho}^* \hat{a}_{\rho}^{\dagger} e^{+ik \cdot x}]$$

Using

$$\mathbf{k} \times \underline{\epsilon}_L = i\omega \underline{\epsilon}_L$$

$$\mathbf{k} \times \underline{\epsilon}_R = -i\omega \underline{\epsilon}_R$$

we find, as expected,

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{\rho} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \omega [\hat{a}_{\rho}(\mathbf{k}) \hat{a}_{\rho}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{k}) + \hat{a}_{\rho}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{k}) \hat{a}_{\rho}(\mathbf{k})]$$

Vacuum Energy and Normal Ordering

- * Using the above expression for the l.m. Hamiltonian and the commutation relation for the photon annihilation + creation operators, we find that the energy of the vacuum is

$$\hat{H} |0\rangle = \sum_{\underline{p}} \int d^3\underline{k} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \omega \cdot \lim_{\underline{k}' \rightarrow \underline{k}} \delta^3(\underline{k} - \underline{k}') |0\rangle$$

- * In a finite volume V , we should interpret

$$\delta^3(\underline{k} - \underline{k}') = \int_V \frac{d^3\underline{r}}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i(\underline{k} - \underline{k}') \cdot \underline{r}} \xrightarrow{\underline{k} \rightarrow \underline{k}'} \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3}$$

Hence the vacuum energy density is

$$\underline{u}_0 = \infty !$$

- * This is due to the zero-point fluctuations of the l.m. field ($\frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega$ per mode). In reality, we don't understand physics at very short distances (very large k) and presumably the integral gets cut off at some large $|\underline{k}| \sim \Lambda$. We shall see that quantities we can measure do not depend much on Λ or the form of the cut-off.

- * For most purposes we can throw away the vacuum energy term in \hat{H} , which corresponds to measuring all energies relative to the vacuum. This means writing

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{\underline{r}} \int \frac{d^3 \underline{k}}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega} \cdot \omega \hat{a}_{\underline{r}}^+(\underline{k}) \hat{a}_{\underline{r}}(\underline{k})$$

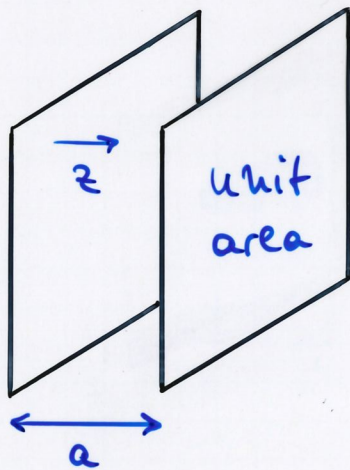
which is called the normal-ordered form of \hat{H} , i.e. a form with the annihilation operator \hat{a} on the right. (Note that \hat{H} is still hermitian.)

Clearly a normal-ordered operator has the vacuum as an eigenstate with eigenvalue zero.

- * However, we should not think that this means vacuum fluctuations are not there. They give rise to real effects, such as spontaneous transitions and... :

The Casimir Effect

Suppose a region of vacuum is bounded by the plane surfaces of two semi-infinite conductors. Then some (low-frequency) vacuum fluctuations are forbidden by the boundary conditions ($E_{\parallel} = B_{\perp} = 0$). Thus the vacuum energy is reduced, corresponding to an attractive force between the conductors.



* Since the vacuum energy density is proportional to $\frac{hc}{a^4}$, by dimensions this Casimir force per unit area must be

$$F_c \propto \frac{hc}{a^4}$$

* To find the constant of proportionality, note that $k_z = \frac{n\pi}{a}$, $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, so

$$\omega = c|\underline{k}| = c\sqrt{k_{\parallel}^2 + \left(\frac{n\pi}{a}\right)^2}$$

* For $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ there are 2 polarizations, for $n = 0$, only one polarization is allowed ($E_{\parallel} = 0$)

Hence the energy per unit area is

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \hbar c \int \frac{d^2 k_{\parallel}}{(2\pi)^2} \left\{ |k_{\parallel}| + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{k_{\parallel}^2 + \left(\frac{n\pi}{a}\right)^2} \right\}$$

This is assumed to be cut off by new physics at wave numbers $|k| > \Lambda$. Thus

$$E = \frac{\hbar c}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{2} F(0) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(n) \right]$$

where

$$F(n) = \int k_{\parallel} dk_{\parallel} \sqrt{k_{\parallel}^2 + \left(\frac{n\pi}{a}\right)^2} f\left(\sqrt{k_{\parallel}^2 + \left(\frac{n\pi}{a}\right)^2}\right)$$

with

$$f(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k \ll \Lambda \\ 0 & \text{for } k \gg \Lambda \end{cases}$$

Changing variable $k_{\parallel} \rightarrow k = \sqrt{k_{\parallel}^2 + \left(\frac{n\pi}{a}\right)^2}$

$$F(n) = \int_{\frac{n\pi}{a}}^{\infty} k^2 dk f(k)$$

Removing the boundary conditions would allow n to be a continuous variable:

$$E_0 = \frac{\hbar c}{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} dn F(n)$$

Hence the change in the vacuum energy is

$$\delta E = E - E_0 = \frac{\hbar c}{2\pi} \left[\frac{1}{2} F(0) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(n) - \int_0^{\infty} dn F(n) \right]$$

* The Euler - MacLaurin formula is

$$\int_0^{\infty} dx F(x) = \frac{1}{2} F(0) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ F(n) + \frac{1}{(2n)!} B_{2n} F^{(2n-1)}(0) \right\}$$

where B_{2n} are Bernoulli numbers

$$B_2 = \frac{1}{6}, \quad B_4 = -\frac{1}{30}, \quad \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta E = \frac{hc}{2\pi} \left[-\frac{1}{12} F'(0) + \frac{1}{720} F'''(0) + \dots \right]$$

Now

$$F(n) = \int_{n\pi/a}^{\infty} k^2 f(k) dk$$

$$\Rightarrow F'(n) = -\frac{\pi}{a} \left(\frac{n\pi}{a} \right)^2 f\left(\frac{n\pi}{a} \right)$$

Hence $F'(0) = 0$ and $F'''(0) = -2 \left(\frac{\pi}{a} \right)^3$

$$\Rightarrow \delta E = -\frac{\pi^2}{720} \frac{hc}{a^3}$$

$$F_c = \frac{d}{da} \delta E = \frac{\pi^2}{240} \frac{hc}{a^4}$$

* This is very small,

$$F_c = \frac{1.3 \times 10^{-27}}{a^4} \text{ Pa m}^4$$

but it has been measured (Sparnay, 1957)

Complex Fields

Suppose $\hat{\phi}$ is the second-quantized version of a complex field, i.e. $\hat{\phi}^\dagger \neq \hat{\phi}$.

We can always decompose it into

$$\hat{\phi} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{\phi}_1 + i \hat{\phi}_2)$$

where $\hat{\phi}_1$ and $\hat{\phi}_2$ are Hermitian. Then

$$\hat{\phi}(x,t) = \int dk N(k) \left[\hat{a}(k) e^{ikx - i\omega t} + \hat{b}^\dagger(k) e^{-ikx + i\omega t} \right]$$

where $\hat{a} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{a}_1 + i \hat{a}_2)$, $\hat{b}^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{a}_1^\dagger + i \hat{a}_2^\dagger) \neq \hat{a}^\dagger$.

* From the canonical commutation relations

$$[\hat{\phi}_j(x,t), \hat{\pi}_e(\gamma,t)] = i \delta_{je} \delta(x-\gamma) \quad (j,e=1,2)$$

we can deduce

$$N(k) [\hat{a}_j(k), \hat{a}_e^\dagger(k')] = \delta_{je} \delta(k-k')$$

and hence

$$N(k) [\hat{a}(k), \hat{a}^\dagger(k')] = N(k) [\hat{b}(k), \hat{b}^\dagger(k')] = \delta(k-k')$$

$$[\hat{a}(k), \hat{b}^\dagger(k')] = [\hat{a}(k), \hat{b}(k')] = [\hat{a}^\dagger(k), \hat{b}^\dagger(k')] = 0$$

* Hence \hat{a}^\dagger and \hat{b}^\dagger are creation operators for different particles.

* The Lagrangian density

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}[\phi_1] + \mathcal{L}[\phi_2]$$

can be written as

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}^+}{\partial t} \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}^+}{\partial x} \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}}{\partial x} - m^2 \hat{\phi}^+ \hat{\phi}$$

The canonical momentum density is thus

$$\hat{\pi} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\hat{\phi}}} = \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}^+}{\partial t}$$

and the Hamiltonian density is

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathcal{H}} &= \hat{\pi} \dot{\hat{\phi}} + \dot{\hat{\phi}}^+ \hat{\pi}^+ - \mathcal{L} \\ &= \hat{\pi}^+ \hat{\pi} + \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}^+}{\partial x} \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}}{\partial x} + m^2 \hat{\phi}^+ \hat{\phi} \end{aligned}$$

* Using the Fourier expansion of $\hat{\phi}$ and integrating over all space, we find

$$\hat{H} = \int dx \hat{\mathcal{H}} = \frac{1}{2} \int dk N(k) \omega(k) \cdot$$

$$\cdot [\hat{a}(k) \hat{a}^+(k) + \hat{a}^+(k) \hat{a}(k) + \hat{b}(k) \hat{b}^+(k) + \hat{b}^+(k) \hat{b}(k)]$$

or after normal ordering

$$\hat{H} = \int dk N(k) \omega(k) [\hat{a}^+(k) \hat{a}(k) + \hat{b}^+(k) \hat{b}(k)]$$

i.e. both \hat{a}^+ and \hat{b}^+ create particles with positive energy $\hbar \omega(k)$.

Symmetries and Conservation Laws

We want to find a current and a density that satisfy the continuity equation for the complex Klein-Gordon field.

We use an important general result called Noether's Theorem (Emmy Noether, 1918), which tells us that there is a

conserved current associated with every continuous symmetry of the Lagrangian, i.e. with symmetry under transformations of the form

$$\phi \rightarrow \phi + \delta\phi$$

where $\delta\phi$ is infinitesimal. Symmetry means

$$\delta\mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\phi} \delta\phi + \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\phi'} \delta\phi' + \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\dot{\phi}} \delta\dot{\phi} = 0$$

where

$$\delta\phi' = \delta\left(\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial x}\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \delta\phi$$

$$\delta\dot{\phi} = \delta\left(\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t}\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \delta\phi$$

which is easily generalized to 3 spatial dimensions.

* The Euler - Lagrange equation of motion

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \right) = 0$$

then implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \mathcal{L} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \right) \delta \phi + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\delta \phi) \\ &+ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \right) \delta \phi + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\delta \phi) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \delta \phi \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \delta \phi \right) = 0$$

* Comparing with the conservation equation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (J_x) + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = 0 \quad (\text{in 1 dim.})$$

shows that the conserved density and current are (proportional to)

$$\rho = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \delta \phi$$

$$J_x = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi'} \delta \phi$$

* In 3 spatial dimensions

$$J_x = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial\phi/\partial x)} \delta\phi, \quad J_y = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial\phi/\partial y)} \delta\phi, \dots$$

and hence in covariant notation

$$J^\mu = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_\mu \phi)} \delta\phi$$

* If the Lagrangian involves several fields ϕ_1, ϕ_2, \dots , the symmetry involves changing them all in general:

invariance w.r.t. $\phi_j \rightarrow \phi_j + \delta\phi_j$

\Rightarrow conserved Noether current

$$J^\mu = \sum_j \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_\mu \phi_j)} \delta\phi_j$$

* After second quantization, the same procedure (being careful about the order of operators!) can be used to define conserved current and density operators.

Phase (Gauge) Invariance

* The Klein-Gordon Lagrangian density

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}^+}{\partial t} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}^+}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}}{\partial x} - m^2 \hat{\phi}^+ \hat{\phi}$$

or in 3 spatial dimensions

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}^+}{\partial t} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}}{\partial t} - \underline{\nabla} \hat{\phi}^+ \cdot \underline{\nabla} \hat{\phi} - m^2 \hat{\phi}^+ \hat{\phi} \\ &= \partial_\mu \hat{\phi}^+ \cdot \partial^\mu \hat{\phi} - m^2 \hat{\phi}^+ \hat{\phi} \end{aligned}$$

is invariant w.r.t. a global phase

change in $\hat{\phi}$:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\phi} \rightarrow e^{-i\varepsilon} \hat{\phi} \approx \hat{\phi} - i\varepsilon \hat{\phi} \\ \hat{\phi}^+ \rightarrow e^{+i\varepsilon} \hat{\phi}^+ \approx \hat{\phi}^+ + i\varepsilon \hat{\phi}^+ \end{cases} \quad \begin{array}{l} \delta \hat{\phi} \\ \delta \hat{\phi}^+ \end{array} \quad (\varepsilon \text{ const.})$$

* The corresponding conserved Noether current is just that derived earlier:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{j}^\mu &= \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_\mu \hat{\phi})} \delta \hat{\phi} + \delta \hat{\phi}^+ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_\mu \hat{\phi}^+)} \\ &= -i (\partial^\mu \hat{\phi}^+) \hat{\phi} + i \hat{\phi}^+ (\partial^\mu \hat{\phi}) \end{aligned}$$

- * We can define an associated conserved charge, which is the integral of $\hat{\rho}$ over all space:

$$\hat{Q} = \int \hat{\rho} d^3r$$

$$\left[\Rightarrow \frac{d\hat{Q}}{dt} = \int \frac{\partial \hat{\rho}}{\partial t} d^3r = - \int \nabla \cdot \underline{j} d^3r = \int \underline{j} \cdot d\underline{s} = 0 \right]_{\infty \text{ sphere}}$$

- * In this case

$$\hat{Q} = -i \int \left(\frac{\partial \hat{\phi}^+}{\partial t} \hat{\phi} - \hat{\phi}^+ \frac{\partial \hat{\phi}}{\partial t} \right) d^3r$$

Inserting the Fourier decomposition of the field,

$$\hat{\phi} = \int d^3k N(\underline{k}) \left[\hat{a}(\underline{k}) e^{-ik \cdot x} + \hat{b}^+(\underline{k}) e^{+ik \cdot x} \right]$$

where $N(\underline{k}) = \left[(2\pi)^3 2\omega(\underline{k}) \right]^{-1}$, we find

$$\hat{Q} = \int d^3k N(\underline{k}) \left[\hat{a}^+(\underline{k}) \hat{a}(\underline{k}) - \hat{b}(\underline{k}) \hat{b}^+(\underline{k}) \right]$$

i.e. after normal ordering

$$\hat{Q} = \int d^3k N(\underline{k}) \left[\hat{a}^+(\underline{k}) \hat{a}(\underline{k}) - \hat{b}^+(\underline{k}) \hat{b}(\underline{k}) \right]$$

- * Comparing with energy

$$\hat{H} = \int d^3k N(\underline{k}) \omega(\underline{k}) \left[\hat{a}^+(\underline{k}) \hat{a}(\underline{k}) + \hat{b}^+(\underline{k}) \hat{b}(\underline{k}) \right]$$

we see that the particles created by \hat{a}^+ and \hat{b}^+ have opposite charge.

- * Thus we see that in quantum field theory all the 'problems' with the negative-energy solutions of the Klein-Gordon equation are resolved, as follows:

The object ϕ that satisfies the K-G. equation is in fact the field operator $\hat{\phi}$.

The Fourier decomposition of $\hat{\phi}$,

$$\hat{\phi} = \int d^3\mathbf{k} N(\mathbf{k}) \left[\hat{a}(\mathbf{k}) e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r} - i\omega t} + \hat{b}^\dagger(\mathbf{k}) e^{-i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r} + i\omega t} \right],$$

has a positive-frequency part that annihilates a particle (with energy $\hbar\omega$, momentum $\hbar\mathbf{k}$ and charge $+1$), and a negative-frequency part that creates an antiparticle (with energy $\hbar\omega$, momentum $\hbar\mathbf{k}$ and charge -1).

- * Similarly $\hat{\phi}^\dagger$ creates a particle or annihilates an antiparticle.

The Dirac Field

The Lagrangian density that gives the Dirac equation of motion,

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

is

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

As in the Klein-Gordon case we should treat ψ and $\bar{\psi} = \psi^\dagger \gamma^0$ as independent fields. The Euler-Lagrange equation for $\bar{\psi}$ gives the Dirac equation for ψ :

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_D}{\partial \bar{\psi}} - \partial_\mu \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_D}{\partial (\partial_\mu \bar{\psi})} \right)}_{=0} = 0$$

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

while that for ψ gives the Dirac equation for $\bar{\psi}$:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_D}{\partial \psi} - \partial_\mu \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_D}{\partial (\partial_\mu \psi)} \right) \\ = -m\bar{\psi} - i\partial_\mu (\bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Check: } -i\partial_\mu \psi^\dagger \gamma^{\mu\dagger} - m\psi^\dagger = 0, \quad \bar{\psi} = \psi^\dagger \gamma^0,$$

$$\gamma^{\mu\dagger} \gamma^0 = \gamma^0 \gamma^\mu \Rightarrow -i\partial_\mu \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu = m\bar{\psi}$$

* The canonical momentum densities are

$$\pi = \partial \mathcal{L}_D / \partial \dot{\psi} = \bar{\psi} i \gamma^0 = i \psi^\dagger$$

$$\bar{\pi} = \partial \mathcal{L}_D / \partial \dot{\bar{\psi}} = 0$$

* Hence the Hamiltonian density is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H}_D &= \pi \dot{\psi} - \mathcal{L}_D = \bar{\psi} i \gamma^0 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} - \mathcal{L}_D \\ &= -\bar{\psi} i \boldsymbol{\gamma} \cdot \nabla \psi + m \bar{\psi} \psi \end{aligned}$$

and the total energy is given by

$$\begin{aligned} H &= \int d^3 \underline{r} \mathcal{H}_D = \int d^3 \underline{r} \bar{\psi} (-i \boldsymbol{\gamma} \cdot \nabla + m) \psi \\ &= \int d^3 \underline{r} \psi^\dagger \underbrace{(-i \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \nabla + \beta m)} \psi \end{aligned}$$

original Dirac Hamiltonian

* Now we second quantize by expressing the field operator $\hat{\psi}$ as a Fourier integral over plane-wave spinors with operator coefficients:

$$\hat{\psi}(\underline{r}, t) = \int d^3 \underline{k} N(\underline{k}) \sum_s \left[\hat{c}_s(\underline{k}) u_s(\underline{k}) e^{-i \underline{k} \cdot \underline{x}} + \hat{d}_s^\dagger(\underline{k}) v_s(\underline{k}) e^{+i \underline{k} \cdot \underline{x}} \right]$$

where $s = 1, 2$ labels spin up/down, i.e.

$u_1 = u^\uparrow$ free particle spinor, etc.

- * We expect that the operator $\hat{c}_s(\underline{k})$ annihilates a particle (e.g. an electron) of momentum \underline{k} , spin orientation s , while $\hat{d}_s^\dagger(\underline{k})$ creates an antiparticle (positron) of the same momentum and spin.

However, the Hamiltonian operator is

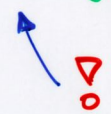
$$\hat{H} = \int d^3\underline{r} \hat{\psi}^\dagger (-i\underline{\alpha} \cdot \underline{\nabla} + \beta m) \hat{\psi}$$

and using the Dirac equation,

$$(-i\underline{\alpha} \cdot \underline{\nabla} + \beta m) u_s = E u_s = \omega u_s$$

$$(-i\underline{\alpha} \cdot \underline{\nabla} + \beta m) v_s = -E v_s = -\omega v_s$$

We find that

$$\hat{H} = \int d^3\underline{k} N(\underline{k}) \omega(\underline{k}) \sum_s \left[\hat{c}_s^\dagger(\underline{k}) \hat{c}_s(\underline{k}) - \hat{d}_s(\underline{k}) \hat{d}_s^\dagger(\underline{k}) \right]$$


- * Thus there appears to be a problem: unlike the Klein-Gordon case we get a negative contribution to the energy from the antiparticles.

* The Dirac Lagrangian also has phase (gauge) symmetry

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\psi} &\rightarrow e^{-i\varepsilon} \hat{\psi} \simeq \hat{\psi} - i\varepsilon \hat{\psi} \\ \hat{\psi}^\dagger &\rightarrow e^{+i\varepsilon} \hat{\psi}^\dagger \simeq \hat{\psi}^\dagger + i\varepsilon \hat{\psi}^\dagger\end{aligned}\quad (\varepsilon \text{ const.})$$

with corresponding Noether current

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{j}^\mu &= \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_\mu \hat{\psi})} \delta \hat{\psi} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_\mu \hat{\psi}^\dagger)}}_{=0} \delta \hat{\psi}^\dagger \\ &= \hat{\psi}^\dagger i \gamma^\mu (-i \hat{\psi}) = \hat{\psi}^\dagger \gamma^\mu \hat{\psi}\end{aligned}$$

and conserved charge

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{Q} &= \int d^3 \underline{r} \hat{j}^0 = \int d^3 \underline{r} \hat{\psi}^\dagger \hat{\psi} \\ &= \int d^3 \underline{k} N(\underline{k}) \sum_s [\hat{c}_s^\dagger(\underline{k}) \hat{c}_s(\underline{k}) + \hat{d}_s(\underline{k}) \hat{d}_s^\dagger(\underline{k})]\end{aligned}$$

which also seems to have the wrong sign for the antiparticle contribution.

* However, we actually need the normal-ordered operators, which involve $\hat{d}_s^\dagger \hat{d}_s$, not $\hat{d}_s \hat{d}_s^\dagger$. Hence if

$$\hat{d}_s^\dagger \hat{d}_s = - \hat{d}_s \hat{d}_s^\dagger + \text{const.}$$

then all signs are correct.

- * Thus we are forced to give the creation and annihilation operators for spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particles anti commutation relations :

$$\begin{aligned} \{\hat{c}_s(\underline{k}), \hat{c}_{s'}^+(\underline{k}')\} &= \hat{c}_s(\underline{k}) \hat{c}_{s'}^+(\underline{k}') + \hat{c}_{s'}^+(\underline{k}') \hat{c}_s(\underline{k}) \\ &= (2\pi)^3 \delta_{ss'} \delta^3(\underline{k} - \underline{k}') \\ &= \{\hat{d}_s(\underline{k}), \hat{d}_{s'}^+(\underline{k}')\} = \hat{d}_s(\underline{k}) \hat{d}_{s'}^+(\underline{k}') + \hat{d}_{s'}^+(\underline{k}') \hat{d}_s(\underline{k}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \{\hat{c}_s(\underline{k}), \hat{c}_{s'}(\underline{k}')\} &= \{\hat{d}_s(\underline{k}), \hat{d}_{s'}(\underline{k}')\} \\ &= \{\hat{c}_s^+(\underline{k}), \hat{c}_{s'}^+(\underline{k}')\} = \{\hat{d}_s^+(\underline{k}), \hat{d}_{s'}^+(\underline{k}')\} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

- * This means that 2-particle states are antisymmetric :

$$\begin{aligned} |\phi_{12}\rangle &= \int d^3\underline{k}_1 d^3\underline{k}_2 \sum_{s_1, s_2} \tilde{\phi}_{s_1, s_2}(\underline{k}_1, \underline{k}_2) \hat{c}_{s_1}^+(\underline{k}_1) \hat{c}_{s_2}^+(\underline{k}_2) |0\rangle \\ &= - \int d^3\underline{k}_1 d^3\underline{k}_2 \sum_{s_1, s_2} \tilde{\phi}_{s_1, s_2}(\underline{k}_1, \underline{k}_2) \hat{c}_{s_2}^+(\underline{k}_2) \hat{c}_{s_1}^+(\underline{k}_1) |0\rangle \\ &= - \int d^3\underline{k}_1 d^3\underline{k}_2 \sum_{s_1, s_2} \tilde{\phi}_{s_2, s_1}(\underline{k}_2, \underline{k}_1) \hat{c}_{s_1}^+(\underline{k}_1) \hat{c}_{s_2}^+(\underline{k}_2) |0\rangle \\ &= - |\phi_{21}\rangle \end{aligned}$$

- * Thus spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particles must be fermions.
This is the spin-statistics theorem.

Interacting Fields

We introduce e.m. interactions into the Dirac Lagrangian density by the usual minimal substitution, $\partial^\mu \rightarrow \partial^\mu + ieA^\mu$:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_D &= \bar{\psi} i \gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu + ieA_\mu) \psi - m \bar{\psi} \psi \\ &= \mathcal{L}_0 - e A_\mu \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi\end{aligned}$$

where \mathcal{L}_0 is the free particle Lagrangian.

- * Notice that the canonical momentum $\pi = \partial \mathcal{L}_0 / \partial \dot{\psi}$ is unchanged, and so the Hamiltonian density is

$$\mathcal{H}_D = \pi \dot{\psi} - \mathcal{L}_D = \mathcal{H}_0 + \mathcal{H}_I$$

where the interaction Hamiltonian density is

$$\mathcal{H}_I = e A_\mu \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi$$

- * In the second-quantized theory, \mathcal{H}_I becomes an operator,

$$\hat{\mathcal{H}}_I = e \hat{A}_\mu \hat{\bar{\psi}} \gamma^\mu \hat{\psi}$$

where all the field operators are capable of creating or annihilating particles.

$$\hat{A}_\mu = \int d^3\mathbf{k} N(\mathbf{k}) \sum_{\mathcal{P}} \left[\hat{a}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{k}) \varepsilon_{\mathcal{P}\mu}(\mathbf{k}) e^{-i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}} + \hat{a}_{\mathcal{P}}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{k}) \varepsilon_{\mathcal{P}\mu}^* e^{+i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}} \right]$$

$$\hat{\psi} = \int d^3\mathbf{p}' N(\mathbf{p}') \sum_{s'} \left[\hat{c}_{s'}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{p}') \bar{u}_{s'}(\mathbf{p}') e^{+i\mathbf{p}'\cdot\mathbf{x}} + \hat{d}_{s'}(\mathbf{p}') \bar{v}_{s'}(\mathbf{p}') e^{-i\mathbf{p}'\cdot\mathbf{x}} \right]$$

$$\hat{\bar{\psi}} = \int d^3\mathbf{p} N(\mathbf{p}) \sum_s \left[\hat{c}_s(\mathbf{p}) u_s(\mathbf{p}) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{x}} + \hat{d}_s^{\dagger}(\mathbf{p}) v_s(\mathbf{p}) e^{+i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{x}} \right]$$

- * In first-order perturbation theory, the transition matrix element is

$$A_{fi} = -i \int d^4x \langle f | \hat{\mathcal{H}}_I | i \rangle$$

- * Suppose for example that the initial state $|i\rangle$ contains an electron of momentum \mathbf{p}_i , spin orientation s_i , and a photon of momentum \mathbf{q} , polarization \mathcal{R} :

$$|i\rangle = \hat{c}_{s_i}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{p}_i) \hat{a}_{\mathcal{R}}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{q}) |0\rangle$$

- * Using the (anti) commutation relations for the \hat{c} 's and \hat{a} 's, the positive-frequency parts of \hat{A} and $\hat{\psi}$ give

$$\hat{A}_\mu^{(+)} \hat{\psi}^{(+)} |i\rangle = \varepsilon_{\mathcal{R}\mu}(\mathbf{q}) u_{s_i}(\mathbf{p}_i) e^{-i(\mathbf{p}_i + \mathbf{q})\cdot\mathbf{x}} |0\rangle$$

- * Similarly, if $|f\rangle$ contains an electron of momentum \mathbf{p}_f , spin s_f

$$|f\rangle = \hat{c}_{s_f}^{\dagger}(\mathbf{p}_f) |0\rangle$$

Hence

$$\langle f | = \langle 0 | \hat{c}_{s_f}(p_f)$$

and hence the negative-frequency part of $\hat{\psi}$ gives

$$\langle f | \hat{\psi}^{(+)} = \bar{u}_{s_f}(p_f) e^{+ip_f \cdot x}$$

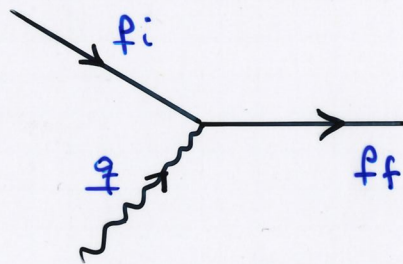
* Putting everything together,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f | \hat{A}_\mu^{(+)} \hat{\psi}^{(-)} \gamma^\mu \hat{\psi}^{(+)} | i \rangle &= \\ &= \epsilon_{R_f} \bar{u}_{s_f}(p_f) \gamma^\mu u_{s_i}(p_i) e^{i(p_f - p_i - q) \cdot x} \end{aligned}$$

which gives

$$A_{fi} = -ie (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(p_f - p_i - q) \epsilon_{R_f} \bar{u}_{s_f}(p_f) \gamma^\mu u_{s_i}(p_i)$$

corresponding to the Feynman rule for the vertex



* Similarly, if the initial and final fermions are positrons, then the term

$$\langle f | \hat{A}_\mu^{(+)} \hat{\psi}^{(+)} \gamma^\mu \hat{\psi}^{(-)} | i \rangle$$

gives the expected result

$$A_{fi} = -ie (2\pi)^4 \delta^4(p_f - p_i - q) \epsilon_{R_f} \bar{v}_{s_i}(p_i) \gamma^\mu v_{s_f}(p_f)$$