

QFT-Canonical Quantization

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Chapter 3 Canonical Quantization

Quantization of Free Fields

The quantization of field is a generalization of the quantization in the non-relativistic quantum mechanics where we impose the commutation relations for coordinates $q_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and their conjugate momenta p_j ,

$$[q_i, p_j] = i\delta_{ij}$$

where p_j is defined by

$$p_j = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_j}, \quad L : \text{Lagrangian}$$

The Hamiltonian is

$$H = \sum_i p_i \dot{q}_i - L$$

The dynamics is determined by the Schrodinger equation,

$$H\Psi = i\frac{\partial\Psi}{\partial t}$$

Here wave function $\Psi(t)$ gives time evolution while operators p_i, q_j are time independent. This is known as the **Schrodinger picture**. Alternatively, we can go to **Heisenberg picture** where

$p_i(t)$ and $q_j(t)$ carry the time dependence instead of state vector Ψ . This is known as the Heisenberg picture which is related to the Schrodinger picture by unitary transformation,

$$\Psi_S(t) = e^{-iHt}\Psi_H$$

and

$$O_H(t) = e^{iHt}O_S e^{-iHt}$$

In this picture the canonical commutation relation is then

$$[q_i(t), p_j(t)] = i\delta_{ij}$$

In relativistic field theory we will use Heisenberg picture so that both spatial coordinate \vec{x} and t both appear as arguments of the field operator $\phi(\vec{x}, t)$

Thus in field theory we replace $q_i(t)$ by $\phi(\vec{x}, t)$. To make this correspondence more transparent, divide the 3-dim space into cells of volume ΔV_i and define the i th coordinate $\phi_i(t)$ by averaging $\phi(\vec{x}, t)$ over the i th cell

$$\phi_i(t) = \frac{1}{\Delta V_i} \int_{\Delta V_i} d^3x \phi(\vec{x}, t)$$

Similarly, $\partial_0 \phi_i(t)$ is the average of $\partial \phi(\vec{x}, t) / \partial t$ over the i th cell. Write the Lagrangian L as integration of Lagrangian density \mathcal{L} ,

$$L = \int d^3x \mathcal{L}$$

and let \mathcal{L}_i be the average of \mathcal{L} in the i th cell. We define the conjugate momenta as

$$p_i(t) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial(\partial_0 \phi_i(t))} = \Delta V_i \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_i}{\partial(\partial_0 \phi_i(t))} \equiv \Delta V_i \pi_i(t)$$

The Hamiltonian is then defined as

$$H = \sum_i p_i(t) \partial_0 \phi_i(t) - L = \sum_i \Delta V_i (\pi_i \partial_0 \phi_i(t) - \mathcal{L}_i) \longrightarrow \int d^3x \mathcal{H}$$

and

$$\mathcal{H} = \pi_i \partial_0 \phi_i(t) - \mathcal{L}$$

Canonical commutation relations are

$$[\phi_i(t), p_j(t)] = i \delta_{ij}, \quad [\phi_i(t), \phi_j(t)] = 0, \quad [p_i(t), p_j(t)] = 0$$

Or in terms of π_i

$$[\phi_i(t), \pi_j(t)] = i \frac{\delta_{ij}}{\Delta V_i}$$

These become in the continuum language,

$$\left[\phi(\vec{x}, t), \pi(\vec{x}', t) \right] = i\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{x}'), \quad \left[\phi(\vec{x}, t), \phi(\vec{x}', t) \right] = 0,$$

$$\left[\pi(\vec{x}, t), \pi(\vec{x}', t) \right] = 0$$

where the Dirac delta function emerges as the limit of $\frac{\delta_{ij}}{\Delta V_i}$ as $\Delta V_i \rightarrow 0$, according to

$$\int d^3x' \delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{x}') f(\vec{x}') = f(\vec{x})$$

Also we have

$$\pi(\vec{x}, t) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_0 \phi)}$$

Scalar field

Consider a scalar field ϕ satisfies the Klein-Gordon equation

$$(\partial^\mu \partial_\mu + \mu^2) \phi = 0$$

Lagrangian density is

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

Euler-Lagrange equation for this \mathcal{L}

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

gives the Klein-Gordon equation.

$$\partial^\mu \partial_\mu \phi + \mu^2 \phi = 0$$

Canonical quantization

Conjugate momentum

$$\pi(\vec{x}, t) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_0 \phi)} = (\partial_0 \phi)$$

Impose commutation relations,

$$\begin{aligned} [\phi(\vec{x}, t), \pi(\vec{y}, t)] &= i\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y}), & [\phi(\vec{x}, t), \phi(\vec{y}, t)] &= 0, \\ [\pi(\vec{x}, t), \pi(\vec{y}, t)] &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Hamiltonian density is

$$\mathcal{H} = \pi \partial_0 \phi - \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \left[(\partial^0 \phi)^2 + \left(\vec{\nabla} \phi \right)^2 \right] + \frac{1}{2} \mu^2 \phi^2$$

We can compute the commutator

$$[H, \phi(\vec{x}, t)] = \int d^3y [\mathcal{H}, \phi(\vec{x}, t)] = -i\partial_0 \phi$$

Thus Hamiltonian generates the time translation.

Mode expansion

To find physical contents, expand in classical solutions,

$$\phi(\vec{x}, t) = \int \frac{d^3k}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k}} \left[a(\vec{k}) e^{-ik \cdot x} + a^\dagger(\vec{k}) e^{ik \cdot x} \right], \quad k_0 = \sqrt{\vec{k}^2 + \mu^2}$$

$a(k)$ and $a^\dagger(k)$ are operators. Note that term $a^\dagger(\vec{k})e^{ik \cdot x}$ corresponds to the negative energy solution. This will become the creation operator while the first term $a(\vec{k})e^{-ikx}$ correspond to destruction operator.

Solve $a(k)$ and $a^\dagger(k)$ in ϕ and $\partial_0\phi$. This can be carried out as follows. The derivative of ϕ is

$$\partial_0\phi(\vec{x}, t) = \int \frac{d^3k}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2w_k}} (-ik_0) \left[a(\vec{k}) e^{-ik\cdot x} - a^\dagger(\vec{k}) e^{ik\cdot x} \right], \quad k_0 = \sqrt{\vec{k}^2 + \mu^2} = w_k$$

Combining these two relations and integrating over x after multiplying $e^{ik'\cdot x}$, we get

$$\int e^{ik'\cdot x} d^3x (\partial_0\phi - ik_0\phi) = \int \frac{d^3k}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2w_k}} (-2ik_0) \delta^3(k - k') a(k)$$

From this we get

$$a(k) = i \int d^3x \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2w_k}} \left[e^{ikx} \partial_0\phi - (\partial_0 e^{ik\cdot x}) \right]$$

If we introduce the notation

$$f \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_0 g \equiv f \partial_0 g - (\partial_0 f) g$$

we can write

$$a(k) = i \int d^3x \frac{e^{ik\cdot x}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2w_k}} \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_0 \phi(x)$$

Hermitian conjugate

$$a^\dagger(\vec{k}) = -i \int \frac{d^3x e^{-ik \cdot x}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k}} \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_0 \phi(x)$$

where

$$f \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_0 g \equiv f \partial_0 g - (\partial_0 f) g$$

Commutators can be calculated as

$$\left[a(\vec{k}), a^\dagger(\vec{k}') \right] = \delta^3(\vec{k} - \vec{k}'), \quad \left[a(\vec{k}), a(\vec{k}') \right] = 0$$

For example,

$$\begin{aligned} \left[a(\vec{k}), a^\dagger(\vec{k}') \right] &= \int \frac{d^3x d^3x' e^{ikx} e^{-ik'x'}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k (2\pi)^3 2\omega_{k'}}} \left[\partial_0 \phi(x) - ik_0 \phi(x), \partial_0 \phi(x') - ik'_0 \phi(x') \right] \\ &= \int \frac{d^3x d^3x' e^{ikx} e^{-ik'x'}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k (2\pi)^3 2\omega_{k'}}} (ik'_0 (-i) - ik_0 i) \delta^3(x - x') \\ &= \delta^3(\vec{k} - \vec{k}') \end{aligned}$$

Same as harmonic oscillators.

The Hamiltonian is

$$H = \int d^3k \mathcal{H}_k = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3k w_k \left[a^\dagger(\vec{k}) a(\vec{k}) + a(\vec{k}) a^\dagger(\vec{k}) \right]$$

superposition of oscillators with frequency w_k .

We can compute the commutator

$$\left[H, a^\dagger(k) \right] = \int d^3k' w_{k'} \left[a^\dagger(k') a(k'), a^\dagger(k) \right] = w_k a^\dagger(k)$$

If we have an eigenstate of H with eigenvalue E ,

$$H|E\rangle = E|E\rangle,$$

then applying the commutator, we get

$$\left(H a^\dagger(k) - a^\dagger(k) H \right) |E\rangle = w_k a^\dagger(k) |E\rangle$$

which gives

$$H a^\dagger(k) |E\rangle = (E + w_k) a^\dagger(k) |E\rangle$$

Thus the operator $a^\dagger(k)$ will increase the energy eigenvalue by w_k , **creation operator**.

Similarly,

$$[H, a(k)] = \int d^3k' w_{k'} [a^\dagger(k')a(k'), a(k)] = -w_k a(k)$$

and $a(k)$ will decrease the energy eigenvalue by w_k , **destruction operator**.

From Noether's theorem, momentum operator is,

$$P_i = \int d^3x T_{0i} = \int d^3x \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_0 \phi)} \partial_i \phi = \int d^3x \pi \partial_i \phi$$

and we have the commutator,

$$\begin{aligned} [P_i, \phi(\vec{x}, t)] &= \int d^3y [\pi(\vec{y}, t) \partial_i \phi(\vec{y}, t), \phi(\vec{x}, t)] \\ &= \int d^3y \partial_i \phi(\vec{y}, t) (-i) \delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) = -i \partial_i \phi(\vec{x}, t) \end{aligned}$$

In terms of creation and annihilation operators,

$$\vec{p} = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3k \vec{k} [a^\dagger(k) a(k) + a(k) a^\dagger(k)] = \int d^3k \vec{k} \vec{p}_k$$

with

$$\vec{p}_k = \frac{\vec{k}}{2} [a^\dagger(k) a(k) + a(k) a^\dagger(k)]$$

Note

$$a(k) a^\dagger(k) = a^\dagger(k) a(k) + \delta^3(0)$$

Interpret $\delta^3(0)$ as

$$\delta^3(\vec{k}) = \int \frac{d^3x}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{x}}$$

as $\vec{k} \rightarrow 0$

$$\delta^3(0) = (2\pi)^{-3} \int d^3x = \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3}$$

V total volume of the system. Then

$$H = \int d^3k \omega_k \left[a^\dagger(k) a(k) + \frac{(2\pi)^{-3}}{2} V \right]$$

Last term will be dropped.

To achieve this more formally, use normal ordering.

Normal ordering

In normal ordering : (\dots) : move all $a^\dagger(k)$ to the left of $a(k)$.

For example,

$$: a(k)a^\dagger(k) := a^\dagger(k)a(k)$$

$$: a^\dagger(k)a(k) := a^\dagger(k)a(k)$$

Vacuum is defined by

$$a(k)|0\rangle = 0 \quad \forall \vec{k} \quad \implies \langle 0|a^\dagger(k) = 0$$

Then

$$\langle 0| : f(a, a^\dagger) : |0\rangle = 0$$

Define Hamiltonian by normaling ordering

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3k \omega_k : [a^\dagger(k)a(k) + a(k)a^\dagger(k)] := \int d^3k \omega_k a^\dagger(k)a(k)$$

Similarly,

$$\vec{p} = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3k \vec{k} : [a^\dagger(k)a(k) + a(k)a^\dagger(k)] := \int d^3k \vec{k} a^\dagger(k)a(k)$$

Then vacuum has zero energy and momentum.

Particle interpretation

State defined by

$$|\vec{k}\rangle = \sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2w_k} a^\dagger(k) |0\rangle$$

is eigenstate of H & \vec{p} ,

$$H|\vec{k}\rangle = w_k|\vec{k}\rangle, \quad \vec{p}|\vec{k}\rangle = \vec{k}|\vec{k}\rangle \quad \text{where } w_k = \sqrt{\vec{k}^2 + \mu^2}$$

Interpret this as one-particle state because eigenvalues are related by

$$w_k^2 + \vec{k}^2 = \mu^2$$

Similarly, we can define 2 particle state by

$$|\vec{k}_1, \vec{k}_2\rangle = \sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2w_{k_1}} \sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2w_{k_2}} a^\dagger(\vec{k}_1) a^\dagger(\vec{k}_2) |0\rangle$$

Generalization to multiparticle states,

$$|\vec{k}_1, \dots, \vec{k}_n\rangle = \sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2w_{k_1}} \dots \sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2w_{k_n}} a^\dagger(\vec{k}_1) \dots a^\dagger(\vec{k}_n) |0\rangle$$

Bose statistics

Expand arbitrary state

$$|\Phi\rangle = \left[C_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int d^3 k_1 \dots d^3 k_n C_n(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n) a^\dagger(\vec{k}_1) \dots a^\dagger(\vec{k}_n) |0\rangle \right]$$

$C_n(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n)$ the momentum space wavefunction.

Since

$$[a^\dagger(k_i), a^\dagger(k_j)] = 0$$

$$C_n(k_1, \dots, k_j, \dots, k_j, \dots, k_n) = C_n(k_1, \dots, k_j, \dots, k_j, \dots, k_n)$$

$C_n(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n)$ satisfies Bose statistics

Scalar fields with symmetry

Suppose there are 2 scalar fields with Lagrangian,

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} (\partial^\mu \phi_1) (\partial_\mu \phi_1) - \frac{\mu_1^2}{2} \phi_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} (\partial^\mu \phi_2) (\partial_\mu \phi_2) - \frac{\mu_2^2}{2} \phi_2^2$$

Here both ϕ_1, ϕ_2 are Hermitian fields. The Euler-Lagrange equations are

$$\partial^\mu \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial^\mu \phi_i)} \right) - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_i} = 0, \quad i = 1, 2$$

which give

$$\partial^\mu \partial_\mu \phi_1 + \mu_1^2 \phi_1 = 0, \quad \partial^\mu \partial_\mu \phi_2 + \mu_2^2 \phi_2 = 0$$

It is clear that in the quantization, ϕ_1, ϕ_2 each will have their own creation and destruction operators, $a_1^\dagger(\vec{k}_1), a_2^\dagger(\vec{k}_2), a_1(\vec{k}_1), a_2(\vec{k}_2)$.

However, when $\mu_1^2 = \mu_2^2$, the Lagrangian becomes,

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} [(\partial^\mu \phi_1) (\partial_\mu \phi_1) + (\partial^\mu \phi_2) (\partial_\mu \phi_2)] - \frac{\mu^2}{2} (\phi_1^2 + \phi_2^2)$$

and is invariant under the rotation in ϕ_1, ϕ_2 , space,

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_1 &\longrightarrow \phi_1' = \cos \theta \phi_1 + \sin \theta \phi_2 \\ \phi_2 &\longrightarrow \phi_2' = -\sin \theta \phi_1 + \cos \theta \phi_2 \end{aligned}$$

Here θ is independent of x^μ and is usually called the global $O(2)$ symmetry. To find the conserved current, take the rotation to be infinitesimal

$$\delta\phi_1 = \phi'_1 - \phi_1 = \theta \phi_2, \quad \delta\phi_2 = \phi'_2 - \phi_2 = -\theta \phi_1$$

and get the conserved current,

$$j_\mu = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial^\mu \phi_i)} \delta\phi_i = (\partial_\mu \phi_1) \phi_2 - (\partial_\mu \phi_2) \phi_1$$

Sometime we combine these two fields into a single complex field,

$$\phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\phi_1 + i\phi_2)$$

and the Lagrangian becomes,

$$\mathcal{L} = (\partial^\mu \phi^\dagger) (\partial_\mu \phi) - \mu^2 \phi^\dagger \phi$$

The symmetry becomes the phase transformation,

$$\phi \longrightarrow \phi' = e^{-i\theta} \phi$$

and is called the global $U(1)$ transformation. The Noether's current is then,

$$j_\mu = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial^\mu \phi)} \delta\phi + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial^\mu \phi^\dagger)} \delta\phi^\dagger = i[(\partial^\mu \phi^\dagger) \phi - (\partial^\mu \phi) \phi^\dagger]$$

Thus $O(2)$ symmetry is equivalent to $U(1)$ symmetry.

Fermion fields

To quantize fermion field we can proceed the same way as the scalar field. Start with Dirac equation for free particles,

$$(i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \psi = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{\psi} \left(-i\gamma^\mu \overleftarrow{\partial}_\mu - m \right) = 0$$

Lagrangian density for this equation is

$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{\psi}_\alpha (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)_{\alpha\beta} \psi_\beta$$

Then

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \psi_\gamma^\dagger} = (\gamma^0)_{\gamma\alpha} (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)_{\alpha\beta} \psi_\beta, \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \psi_\gamma)} = 0$$

and Euler-Lagrange equation gives,

$$(i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)_{\alpha\beta} \psi_\beta = 0$$

Conjugate momentum density is

$$\pi_\alpha = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_0 \psi_\alpha)} = i\psi_\alpha^\dagger$$

If we impose the commutation relation like scalar field, will get Dirac particles satisfying Bose statistics which is not correct physically.

Impose anticommutation relations to get Fermi-Dirac statistics,

$$\{\pi_\alpha(\vec{x}, t), \psi_\beta(\vec{y}, t)\} = i\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y})\delta_{\alpha\beta}, \quad \{\psi_\alpha(\vec{x}, t), \psi_\beta(\vec{y}, t)\} = 0$$

Hamiltonian density

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_\alpha \pi_\alpha \dot{\psi}_\alpha - \mathcal{L} = i\psi^\dagger \gamma_0 \gamma_0 \partial_0 \psi - \bar{\psi} (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \psi = \bar{\psi} (i\vec{\gamma} \cdot \vec{\nabla} + m) \psi$$

Mode expansion

Expansion in terms of classical solutions,

$$\psi(\vec{x}, t) = \sum_s \int \frac{d^3 p}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_p}} \left[b(p, s) u(p, s) e^{-ip \cdot x} + d^\dagger(p, s) v(p, s) e^{ip \cdot x} \right]$$

$$\psi^\dagger(\vec{x}, t) = \sum_s \int \frac{d^3 p}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_p}} \left[b^\dagger(p, s) u^\dagger(p, s) e^{ip \cdot x} + d(p, s) v^\dagger(p, s) e^{-ip \cdot x} \right]$$

Invert these relations to get the field operators in the momentum space. Multiply ψ by $u^\dagger(p', s') e^{ip' \cdot x}$ and integrate over x ,

$$\int d^3 x e^{ip' \cdot x} u^\dagger(p', s') \psi(\vec{x}, t) = \sum_s \int \frac{d^3 p}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_p}} b(p, s) u^\dagger(p', s') u(p, s) (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(p - p')$$

where we have used the relation,

$$u^\dagger(-p, s') v(p, s) = 0$$

From the Dirac equation we have

$$\bar{u}(p, s') \gamma^\mu (\not{p} - m) u(p, s) = 0$$

and

$$\bar{u}(\boldsymbol{p}, s') (\not{\boldsymbol{p}} - m) \gamma^{\mu} u(\boldsymbol{p}, s) = 0$$

Add these two equations we get

$$\boldsymbol{p}^{\mu} \bar{u}(\boldsymbol{p}, s') u(\boldsymbol{p}, s) = m \bar{u}(\boldsymbol{p}, s') \gamma^{\mu} u(\boldsymbol{p}, s)$$

Take the time component,

$$u^{\dagger}(\boldsymbol{p}', s') u(\boldsymbol{p}, s) = 2p^0$$

Using this relation, we get

$$b(\boldsymbol{p}, s) = \int \frac{d^3x e^{ip \cdot x}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_p}} u^{\dagger}(\boldsymbol{p}, s) \psi(\vec{x}, t)$$

The Hermitian conjugate yields

$$b^{\dagger}(\boldsymbol{p}, s) = \int \frac{d^3x e^{-ip \cdot x}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_p}} \psi^{\dagger}(\vec{x}, t) u(\boldsymbol{p}, s)$$

From these, we can compute the anti-commutation relations for b , d ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\{b(p, s), b^\dagger(p', s')\} &= \int \frac{d^3x' d^3x e^{ip \cdot x}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_p}} \frac{e^{-ip' \cdot x'}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_{p'}}} \{u^\dagger(p, s) \psi(\vec{x}, t), \psi^\dagger(\vec{x}', t) u(p', s')\} \\
&= \int \frac{d^3x e^{ip \cdot x}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_p}} \int \frac{d^3x' e^{-ip' \cdot x'}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_{p'}}} (2\pi)^3 \delta^3(x - x') u^\dagger(p, s) u(p', s') \\
&= \delta_{ss'} \delta^3(\vec{p} - \vec{p}'),
\end{aligned}$$

Similarly

$$\{d(p, s), d^\dagger(p', s')\} = \delta_{ss'} \delta^3(\vec{p} - \vec{p}')$$

and all other anticommutators vanish.

Hamiltonian

$$H = \sum_s \int d^3p \mathcal{H}_{ps}$$

where

$$\mathcal{H}_{ps} = E_p \left[b^\dagger(p, s) b(p, s) - d(p, s) d^\dagger(p, s) \right]$$

Similarly,

$$\vec{p} = \sum_s d^3p \vec{p}_p$$

where

$$\vec{p}_p = \vec{p} \left[b^\dagger(p, s) b(p, s) - d(p, s) d^\dagger(p, s) \right]$$

Commutators of H with $b^\dagger(p, s)$

$$\left[H, b^\dagger(p, s) \right] = \sum_{s'} d^3 p' \left[b^\dagger(p', s') b(p', s'), b^\dagger(p, s) \right] E_p = b^\dagger(p, s) E_p$$

$$\left[\vec{p}, b^\dagger(p, s) \right] = \vec{p} b^\dagger(p, s)$$

where we have used the identity

$$[AB, C] = A\{B, C\} - \{A, C\}B$$

$b^\dagger(p, s)$ creates a particle with E_p and \vec{p} with relation $E_p = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$.

$d^\dagger(p, s)$ creates a particle with same mass but opposite charge as $b^\dagger(p, s)$.

Symmetry

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

is invariant under,

$$\psi(x) \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \psi(x) \implies \psi^\dagger(x) \rightarrow \psi^\dagger(x) e^{-i\alpha} \quad \alpha : \text{some real constant}$$

Noether's theorem, \implies conserved current,

$$\partial^\mu j_\mu = 0, \quad \text{where} \quad j_\mu = \bar{\psi} \gamma_\mu \psi$$

To see this consider the infinitesimal transformation

$$\delta\psi = i\alpha\psi, \quad \delta\psi^\dagger = -i\alpha\psi^\dagger$$

Then from Noether's theorem, the conserved current is

$$j_\mu = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \psi_\alpha)} \delta\psi_\alpha = -i\alpha \bar{\psi} \gamma_\mu \psi$$

We can compute the conserved charge

$$\begin{aligned}
Q &= \int j_0(x) d^3x = \int d^3x : \psi^\dagger(\vec{x}, t) \psi(\vec{x}, t) : \\
&= \int d^3x \sum_{ss'} \int \frac{d^3p'}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3} 2E_{p'}} : [b^\dagger(p', s') u^\dagger(p', s') e^{ip' \cdot x} + d(p', s') v^\dagger(p', s') e^{-ip' \cdot x}] \\
&\quad \times \int \frac{d^3p}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3} 2E_p} [b(p, s) u(p, s) e^{-ip \cdot x} + d^\dagger(p, s) v(p, s) e^{ip \cdot x}] : \\
&= \sum_s \int d^3p : [b^\dagger(p, s) b(p, s) + d(p, s) d^\dagger(p, s)] := \sum \int d^3p [N^+(p, s) - N^-(p, s)]
\end{aligned}$$

where

$$N_{ps}^+ = b^\dagger(p, s) b(p, s) \quad N_{ps}^- = d^\dagger(p, s) d(p, s)$$

are the number operators \implies particle and anti-particle have opposite "charge".

Electromagnetic fields

Maxwell's equations,

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0, \quad \nabla \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0, \quad (2)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = 0, \quad \frac{1}{\mu_0} \nabla \times \vec{B} - \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = 0 \quad (3)$$

Introduce \vec{A}, ϕ by

$$\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A}, \quad \vec{E} = -\nabla\phi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} \quad (4)$$

These solve equations in Eq(2). Write relations in Eq(4) as

$$F^{\mu\nu} = \partial^\mu A^\nu - \partial^\nu A^\mu \quad \text{with} \quad F^{0i} = \partial^0 A^i - \partial^i A^0 = -E^i, \quad F^{ij} = \partial^i A^j - \partial^j A^i = -\epsilon_{ijk} B_k$$

Other two sets of equations in Eq(3)

$$\partial_\nu F^{\mu\nu} = 0, \quad \mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$$

For example

$$\mu = 0, \quad \partial_i F^{0i} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \nabla \cdot \vec{E} = 0$$

$$\mu = i, \quad \partial_\nu F^{i\nu} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \nabla \times \vec{B} - \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = 0$$

Note $c^2 = \frac{1}{\mu_0 \epsilon_0} = 1$. $F^{\mu\nu}$ is invariant under the transformation,

$$A^\mu \longrightarrow A^\mu + \partial^\mu \alpha \quad \alpha = \alpha(x)$$

$\alpha(x)$ is arbitrary function. This is called gauge transformation. Given a set of \vec{B} and \vec{E} fields, \vec{A} , and ϕ are not unique. Different $\alpha(x)$ gives same \vec{B} and \vec{E} fields. This property is usually called the **gauge invariance**.

Lagrangian density given by,

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

will give Maxwell equations a la Euler-Lagrange equations.. To see this we compute

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu A_\nu)} = -(\partial^\mu A^\nu - \partial^\nu A^\mu), \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial A_\nu} = 0$$

Then

$$\partial_\mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu A_\nu)} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial A_\nu}, \quad \implies \partial_\mu (\partial^\mu A^\nu - \partial^\nu A^\mu) = \partial_\mu F^{\mu\nu} = 0$$

These are indeed the Maxwell equations as we discussed before.

Conjugate momenta

$$\pi_0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_0 A_0)} = 0, \quad \pi^i(x) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_0 A_i)} = -F^{0i} = E^i$$

No conjugate momenta for $A_0 \implies$ not a dynamical degree of freedom.

Hamiltonian density,

$$\mathcal{H} = \pi^k \dot{A}_k - \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}(\vec{E}^2 + \vec{B}^2) + (\vec{E} \cdot \nabla)A_0$$

Using $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0$, Hamiltonian becomes,

$$H = \int d^3x \mathcal{H} = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3x (\vec{E}^2 + \vec{B}^2)$$

Impose commutation relation,

$$[\pi^i(\vec{x}, t), A^j(\vec{y}, t)] = -i\delta_{ij}\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y}), \quad \dots$$

But this is not consistent with $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0$ because

$$[\nabla \cdot E(x, t), A_j(x, t)] = -i\partial_j\delta^3(x - y) \neq 0$$

δ -function in momentum space

$$\partial_j\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) = i \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{y})} k_j$$

To get zero for the commutator of $\nabla \cdot E$, replace,

$$\delta_{ij}\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) \rightarrow \delta_{ij}^{tr}\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{y})} (\delta_{ij} - \frac{k_i k_j}{k^2})$$

then

$$\partial_i \delta_{ij}^{tr} \delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) = i \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{y})} k_i (\delta_{ij} - \frac{k_i k_j}{k^2}) = 0$$

So commutator is modified to,

$$[E^i(x, t), A_j(y, t)] = -i\delta_{ij}^{tr}(\vec{x} - \vec{y})$$

which implies

$$[E^i(x, t), \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}(y, t)] = 0$$

Now that A_0 and $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}$ commute with all operators, they must be C-number. Choose a gauge such that

$$A_0 = 0 \text{ and } \nabla \cdot \vec{A} = 0 \quad \text{radiation gauge}$$

In this gauge

$$\pi^i = \partial^i A^0 - \partial^0 A^i = -\partial^0 A^i$$

$$[\partial_0 A^i(\vec{x}, t), A^j(\vec{y}, t)] = i\delta_{ij}^{tr}(\vec{x} - \vec{y})$$

Mode expansion

Equation of motion $\partial_\nu F^{\mu\nu} = 0$ gives

$$\partial_\nu (\partial^\nu A^\mu - \partial^\mu A^\nu) = \square A^\mu - \partial^\mu (\partial_\nu A^\nu) = 0$$

In radiation gauge ,

$$A_0 = 0, \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0$$

wave equation becomes

$$\square \vec{A} = 0 \quad \text{massless Klein-Gordon equation}$$

General solution

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}, t) = \int \frac{d^3k}{\sqrt{2\omega(2\pi)^3}} \sum_\lambda \vec{\epsilon}(\vec{k}, \lambda) [a(k, \lambda) e^{-ikx} + a^\dagger(k, \lambda) e^{ikx}] \quad \omega = k_0 = |\vec{k}|$$

Only two degrees of freedom

$$\vec{\epsilon}(k, \lambda), \lambda = 1, 2 \quad \text{with } \vec{k} \cdot \vec{\epsilon}(k, \lambda) = 0$$

Standard choice

$$\vec{\epsilon}(k, \lambda) \cdot \vec{\epsilon}(k, \lambda') = \delta_{\lambda\lambda'}, \quad \vec{\epsilon}(-k, 1) = -\vec{\epsilon}(k, 1), \quad \vec{\epsilon}(-k, 2) = \vec{\epsilon}(k, 2)$$

Solve for $a(k, \lambda)$ and $a^\dagger(k, \lambda)$

$$a(k, \lambda) = i \int \frac{d^3x}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2\omega}} [e^{ik \cdot x} \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_0 \vec{\epsilon}(k, \lambda) \cdot \vec{A}(x)]$$

$$a^\dagger(k, \lambda) = -i \int \frac{d^3x}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2\omega}} [e^{-ik \cdot x} \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_0 \vec{\epsilon}(k, \lambda) \cdot \vec{A}(x)]$$

Commutation relations,

$$[a(k, \lambda), a^\dagger(k', \lambda')] = \delta_{\lambda\lambda'} \delta^3(\vec{k} - \vec{k}'), \quad [a(k, \lambda), a(k', \lambda')] = 0,$$

Hamiltonian and momentum operators are

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3x : (E^2 + B^2) := \int d^3k \omega \sum_{\lambda} a^\dagger(k, \lambda) a(k, \lambda)$$

$$\vec{P} = \int d^3x : E \times B := \int d^3k \vec{k} \sum_{\lambda} a^\dagger(k, \lambda) a(k, \lambda)$$

The vacuum is defined by

$$a(\vec{k}, \lambda) |0\rangle = 0 \quad \forall \vec{k}, \lambda$$

and one photon state with momentum k polarization λ is given by, $a^\dagger(\vec{k}, \lambda) |0\rangle$.

Appendix 1– Simple Harmonic Oscillator

Here we review the creation and annihilation operators in the simple harmonic oscillator in one dimension. The Hamiltonian is

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

where for convenience we have set $m = 1$. Here p, x satisfy the commutation relation,

$$[x, p] = i$$

Define

$$a = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\omega}} (\omega x + ip), \quad a^\dagger = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\omega}} (\omega x - ip)$$

The commutator is ,

$$[a, a^\dagger] = \frac{1}{2\omega} [\omega x + ip, \omega x - ip] = 1$$

From

$$x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\omega}} (a + a^\dagger), \quad p = -i\sqrt{\frac{\omega}{2}} (a - a^\dagger)$$

we get for the Hamiltonian

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \left[-\frac{\omega}{2} (a - a^\dagger)^2 + \frac{\omega^2}{2\omega} (a + a^\dagger)^2 \right] = \frac{\omega}{2} (a^\dagger a + a a^\dagger)$$

Using the commutation relation we can write H as

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

The second term here is called the zero-point energy.

We can compute the commutator of H with a or a^\dagger ,

$$[H, a] = -\omega a, \quad [H, a^\dagger] = \omega a^\dagger$$

Suppose $|E\rangle$ is eigenstate of Hamiltonian with eigenvalue E ,

$$H|E\rangle = E|E\rangle$$

Then we get

$$(Ha^\dagger - a^\dagger H)|E\rangle = \omega a^\dagger |E\rangle, \quad \implies \quad H(a^\dagger |E\rangle) = (E + \omega)(a^\dagger |E\rangle)$$

Thus a^\dagger increases the energy eigenvalue by ω and is called **raising operator** (or **creation operator**). Similarly,

$$(Ha - aH)|E\rangle = -\omega a |E\rangle, \quad \implies \quad H(a |E\rangle) = (E - \omega)(a |E\rangle)$$

which implies that the operator a decreases the energy eigenvalue by ω . Since H is bounded below, there must exist a state with lowest energy eigen value, the ground state $|0\rangle$, defined by

$$a|0\rangle = 0$$

will have energy eigen value

$$H|0\rangle = \frac{1}{2}\omega|0\rangle$$

It is clear that the excited states are related to $|0\rangle$ by the action of a^\dagger . For example,

$$H|n\rangle = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)\omega|n\rangle, \quad \text{where} \quad |n\rangle = \frac{(a^\dagger)^n}{\sqrt{n!}}|0\rangle$$

The state $|n\rangle$ can be interpreted as state with n quanta, each with energy ω . So the operator $N = a^\dagger a$ is the number operator.

Appendix 2–U(1) local symmetry

The free Maxwell's equations are

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

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

Solve the first two equations by introducing \vec{A}, ϕ

$$\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A}, \quad \vec{E} = -\nabla\phi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} \quad (5)$$

Convenient to write

$$F^{\mu\nu} = \partial^\mu A^\nu - \partial^\nu A^\mu \quad \text{with} \quad F^{0i} = \partial^0 A^i - \partial^i A^0 = -E^i, \quad F^{ij} = \partial^i A^j - \partial^j A^i = -\epsilon_{ijk} B_k$$

For a charged particle moving in electromagnetic field, the equation of motion is,

$$m \frac{d^2 \vec{x}}{dt^2} = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)$$

The Lagrangian for these equations is

$$L = \frac{1}{2} m (\vec{v})^2 + e \vec{A} \cdot \vec{v} - e A_0$$

To see this, we compute the derivatives with respect to \vec{x} and \vec{v} ,

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_i} = m v_i + e A_i, \quad \frac{\partial L}{\partial x_i} = e \frac{\partial A_j}{\partial x_i} v_j - e \frac{\partial A_0}{\partial x_i}$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_i} \right) = m \frac{dv_i}{dt} + e \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial x_j} \frac{dx_j}{dt} + e \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial t}$$

Euler-Lagrange equation gives

$$m \frac{dv_i}{dt} + e \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial x_j} \frac{dx_j}{dt} + e \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial t} = e \frac{\partial A_j}{\partial x_i} v_j - e \frac{\partial A_0}{\partial x_i}$$

On the other hand,

$$\left(\vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)_i = \varepsilon_{ijk} v_j B_k = \varepsilon_{ijk} v_j \varepsilon_{klm} \partial_l A_m = v_j (\delta_{il} \delta_{jm} - \delta_{im} \delta_{jl}) \partial_l A_m = v_j (\partial_i A_j - \partial_j A_i)$$

Then we get

$$m \frac{dv_i}{dt} = -e \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial x_j} v_j - e \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial t} + e \frac{\partial A_j}{\partial x_i} v_j - e \frac{\partial A_0}{\partial x_i}$$

Or

$$m \frac{dv_i}{dt} = e (\partial_i A_j - \partial_j A_i) v_j + e (-\partial_i A_0 - \partial_0 A_i) = e \left(\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \right)_i$$

which is the correct equation of motion.

From Lagrangian define the conjugate momentum,

$$p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_i} = m v_i + e A_i, \quad \implies \quad v_i = \frac{1}{m} (p_i - e A_i)$$

The Hamiltonian is then

$$\begin{aligned} H &= p_i v_i - L = p_i v_i - \frac{1}{2} m \left(\vec{v} \right)^2 - e \vec{A} \cdot \vec{v} + e A_0 \\ &= \frac{1}{2m} \left(\vec{p} - e \vec{A} \right)^2 + e A_0 \end{aligned}$$

Note that we can obtain this Hamiltonian from the free Hamiltonian $H = \vec{p}^2 / 2m$ by the substitution,

$$\vec{p} \longrightarrow \vec{p} - e \vec{A}, \quad H \longrightarrow H - e A_0$$

Or

$$p^\mu \longrightarrow p^\mu - e A^\mu$$

This is usually called the **principle of minimal substitution**.

The Schrodinger equation for a charged particle moving in the electromagnetic field is,

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2m} \left(\vec{\nabla} - ie\vec{A}\right)^2 + eA_0\right]\psi = i\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t}$$

This shows that it is the potentials \vec{A}, A_0 , not the \vec{E}, \vec{B} fields show up in the Schrodinger equation. However, Schrodinger equation is not invariant under the gauge transformation,

$$A^\mu \longrightarrow A^\mu + \partial^\mu\alpha, \quad \text{or} \quad \vec{A} \longrightarrow \vec{A} - \vec{\nabla}\alpha, \quad A_0 \longrightarrow A_0 + \partial_0\alpha$$

But it turns out that we can recover the Schrodinger equation if we also change the wave function ψ by a phase,

$$\psi \longrightarrow \psi' = e^{-ie\alpha}\psi$$

This can be seen as follows. Define the covariant derivative as

$$\vec{D}\psi = \left(\vec{\partial} - ie\vec{A}\right)\psi$$

The covariant derivative for the new fields is then,

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{D}\psi' &= \left(\vec{\partial} - ie\vec{A}'\right)\psi' = e^{-ie\alpha}\left[\vec{\partial} - ie\vec{\nabla}\alpha - ie\left(\vec{A} - \vec{\nabla}\alpha\right)\right]\psi \\ &= e^{-ie\alpha}\left(\vec{D}\psi\right) \end{aligned}$$

So the covariant derivative $\vec{D}\psi$ transforms by a phase in the same way as the field ψ . In other words, the covariant derivative $\vec{D} = \left(\vec{\partial} - ie\vec{A}\right)$ does not change the transformation property of the object it acts on. It is then easy to see that

$$\vec{D}^2 \psi' = e^{-ie\alpha} \left(\vec{D}^2 \psi \right)$$

For the time derivative, we have

$$D_0\psi = (\partial_0 + ieA_0)\psi$$

and

$$D_0\psi' = e^{-ie\alpha} (\partial_0 + ie\partial_0\alpha - ieA_0 - ie\partial_0\alpha)\psi = e^{-ie\alpha} D_0\psi$$

With this phase transformation, the Schrodinger equation

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2m} \left(\vec{\nabla} - ie\vec{A}\right)^2 + eA_0\right]\psi' = i\frac{\partial\psi'}{\partial t}$$

becomes

$$e^{-ie\alpha} \left[-\frac{1}{2m} \left(\vec{\nabla} - ie\vec{A}\right)^2 + eA_0\right]\psi = e^{-ie\alpha} i\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t}$$

After cancelling out the phase $e^{-ie\alpha}$, we get back the original Schrodinger equation. The phase transformation of the wave function is a symmetry transformation and is a local symmetry because $\alpha = \alpha(\vec{x}, t)$. The phase transformation is usually referred to as $U(1)$ transformation and we call the electromagnetic possesses $U(1)$ local symmetry.