Chapter 5. Photons: Covariant Theory
5.1. The classical fields ✓
5.2. Covariant quantization
5.3. The photon propagator

Chapter 6. The S-Matrix Expansion
6.1. Natural Dimensions and Units ✓
6.2. The S-matrix expansion ✓
6.3. Wick's theorem ✓

Chapter 7. Feynman Diagrams and Rules in QED7.1. Feynman diagrams in configuration space7.2. Feynman diagrams in momentum space7.3. Feynman rules for QED7.4. Leptons

Chapter 8. QED Processes in Lowest Order 8.1. The cross section 8.2 Spin sums 8.3. Photon polarization sums 8.4-7. Examples 8.8-9. Bremsstrahlung SECTION 5.2. COVARIANT QUANTIZATION

Review the covariant equations for the classical electromagnetic field

 $F = curl A ; \qquad F^{\mu\nu} = \partial^{\nu}A^{\mu} - \partial^{\mu}A^{\nu}$

In the Lorentz gauge ($\partial_{\mu}A^{\mu} = 0$) we can use the Lagrangian density

 $\mathbf{L} = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\partial_{v} \mathbf{A}_{\mu} \right) \left(\partial^{v} \mathbf{A}^{\mu} \right) - \mathbf{s}_{\mu} \mathbf{A}^{\mu}$

Now apply canonical quantization to this Lagrangian density. Then calculate

 $[A^{\mu}(x), A^{\nu}(y)] = i D^{\mu\nu} (x-y)$

and

 $<0|T A^{\mu}(x) A^{\nu}(y) |0> = i D_{F}^{\mu\nu}(x-y)$

 $\mathbf{L} = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\partial_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{A}_{\mu} \right) \left(\partial^{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{A}^{\mu} \right) - \mathbf{s}_{\mu} \mathbf{A}^{\mu}$ Recall the real scalar field, $L_{\rho} = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_{\nu} \varphi) (\partial^{\nu} \varphi) - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \varphi^2$ $[\phi(\mathbf{x}),\phi(\mathbf{y})] = i \Delta(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y})$ <0| T $\varphi(x) \varphi(y) | 0> = i \Delta_F(x-y)$ Note that the free e.m. field has $\mathbf{L} = -\frac{1}{2} (\partial_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{A}^{0}) (\partial^{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{A}^{0}) + \frac{1}{2} (\partial_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{A}^{i}) (\partial^{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{A}^{i})$ (sum i = 123) $A^{i}(x)$ is just like $\varphi(x)$ with m=0 $[A^{i}(x),A^{i}(y)] = i \Delta(x-y)$ •••

 \therefore <0| T Aⁱ(x) Aⁱ(y) | 0> = i $\Delta_F(x-y)$

(no sum on i)

Different i and j are independent

- $\therefore \quad [A^{i}(x), A^{j}(y)] = i \, \delta_{ij} \, \Delta(x y)$
- & <0| T Aⁱ(x) A^j(y) | 0> = i $\delta_{ij} \Delta_F(x-y)$
- $A^{0}(x)$ is a little different (the sign) $\Pi^{0} = \partial L / \partial (\partial A^{0} / \partial t) = -\partial A^{0} / \partial t$ (compare $\Pi_{\phi} = \partial \phi / \partial t$) So the commutator is $[A^{0}(x), A^{0}(y)] = -i \Delta(x-y)$

 $\frac{\text{Commutator result}}{[A^{\mu}(x), A^{\nu}(y)] = -i g^{\mu\nu} \Delta(x-y)}$ $= i D^{\mu\nu} (x-y)$ $\therefore D^{\mu\nu} (x-y) = -g^{\mu\nu} \Delta(x-y)$ (with m = 0),

• As for the propagator,
same thing
$$\Rightarrow$$

<0| T A^µ(x) A^v(y) | 0> = -i g^{µv} $\Delta_F(x-y)$
= i D_F^{µv}(x-y)
D_F^{µv}(x-y) = - g^{µv} $\Delta_F(x-y)$
(with m = 0)
The Fourier integral,
D_F^{µv}(x-y) = $\int -\frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} D_F^{µv}(k) e^{-ikx}$
D_F^{µv}(k) = $\frac{-g^{µv}}{k^2+i\epsilon}$

Expansion in plane waves $A^{\mu}(x) = \sum_{E} \sum_{r=0}^{3} \left(\frac{\hbar c^{2}}{2\Omega \omega}\right)^{k_{2}} \in_{r}^{\mu}(\vec{k})$ $\begin{cases} q_{r}(E) e^{-i\vec{k}\cdot x} + q_{r}^{+}(E) e^{-i\vec{k}\cdot x} \end{cases}$ where $k^{\circ} = |\vec{k}| = \omega$.

The four-vector polarization vectors are defined like

this:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{E}_{o}^{\mu}(\vec{k}) &= \eta^{\mu} \equiv (1,0,0,0) \\ & \text{pure time like} \\ \mathcal{E}_{e}^{\mu}(\vec{k}) &= (0, \widehat{\mathcal{E}}_{1}(\vec{k})) \text{ two space like } (i=123) \\ \widehat{\mathcal{E}}_{3}(\vec{k}) &= \vec{k}/\omega \text{ longitudinal} \quad \widehat{\mathcal{E}}_{1} \stackrel{\mathcal{E}}{\underset{k=1}{\leftarrow}} \stackrel{\mathcal{E}}{\underset{k=1}{\leftarrow}} \\ \widehat{\mathcal{E}}_{1}, \stackrel{\mathcal{E}}{\underset{k=2}{\leftarrow}}, \stackrel{\mathcal{E}}{\underset{k=1}{\leftarrow}} \text{ from an orthogonal} \quad \widehat{\mathcal{E}}_{2} \\ & \text{triad.} \end{aligned}$$

The canonical commutation relation [$A^{\mu}(\mathbf{x}), A^{\nu}(\mathbf{y})$] = -i $g^{\mu\nu} \Delta(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y})$ implies [$a_r(\mathbf{k}), a^{\dagger}_s(\mathbf{k'})$] = $\delta_{rs} \delta_{kk'} \zeta_r$ where $\zeta_r =$ -1 for 0 = r +1 for 123 <u>The constraint</u> $\partial_{\mu} A^{\mu} = 0;$

i.e., Lorentz gauge quantization

 ${\scriptstyle \circ}$ We cannot set $\partial_{\mu} {\bf A}^{\mu} = {\bf 0}$ as an operator equation.

• The Gupta-Bleuler formalism: (Comment: it's not a theory; it's not a model; it's a formalism.) Apply the constraint, $\partial_{\mu} A^{\mu} = 0$, to the states of the Hilbert space; require

 $\partial_{\mu} \mathbf{A}^{(+)\mu} \mid \Psi > = \mathbf{0}$,

for any physical state $|\Psi>$.

Theorem
[$a_3(\mathbf{k}) - a_0(\mathbf{k})$] |Ψ> = 0 for all **k**Proof

$$\begin{split} \partial_{\mu} A^{(+)\mu} &= \partial_{\mu} \sum_{F} \sum_{r=0}^{S} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\Omega\omega}} \in_{\Gamma}^{\mu}(F) a_{\Gamma}(\bar{k}) e^{-i\bar{k}\cdot \chi} \\ &= \sum_{F} \sum_{r} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\Omega\omega}} (-i\bar{k}_{\mu}) \in_{\Gamma}^{\alpha}(F) a_{r}(\bar{k}) e^{-i\bar{k}\cdot \chi} \\ &= \sum_{F} \sum_{r=0,3} \frac{(-i)}{\sqrt{2\Omega\omega}} \left[k^{0} e^{0} - \bar{k} \cdot \bar{e}_{r}^{T} \right] a_{r}(\bar{k}) e^{-i\bar{k}\cdot \chi} \\ &= \sum_{F} \frac{(-i)}{\sqrt{2\Omega\omega}} \left\{ k^{0} a_{0}(\bar{k}) - \bar{k} \cdot \bar{e}_{3}^{T} a_{3}(\bar{k}) \right\} e^{-i\bar{k}\cdot \chi} \\ &= \sum_{F} \frac{(-i)}{\sqrt{2\Omega\omega}} \left\{ k^{0} a_{0}(\bar{k}) - \bar{k} \cdot \bar{e}_{3}^{T} a_{3}(\bar{k}) \right\} e^{-i\bar{k}\cdot \chi} \\ &= \omega \left(a_{0}(\bar{k}) - a_{3}(\bar{k}) \right) \\ \partial_{\mu} A^{(4)} a_{0}^{(4)}(\bar{k}) = 0 \qquad \text{implies} \\ &\left[a_{0}(\bar{k}) - a_{3}(\bar{k}) \right] |\bar{k}\rangle = 0 \quad \text{all } \bar{k} \end{split}$$

4

 $[a_{3}(\mathbf{k}) - a_{0}(\mathbf{k})] | \Psi > = 0,$ (★) for any physical state; arb **k**. What does it mean? \circ Recall the free vacuum $|0\rangle$; it has $a_r(\mathbf{k}) \mid 0 \ge 0$ for r = 0.123so $|0\rangle$ obeys (\bigstar) • Now consider $a^{\dagger}_{r}(\mathbf{k}) \mid 0>$. For r = 1, 2, it obeys (\star). Creating any transverse photons will yield a physical state. For r = 3, 0, the state does not obey (\star). Creating single longitudinal or scalar photons will yield an unphysical state; or, a physical state requires creating longitudinal and scalar together.

 Example. Consider $|\psi\rangle = [a^{\dagger}_{3}(\mathbf{p}) - a^{\dagger}_{0}(\mathbf{q})]|0\rangle$ It has $a_{3}(\mathbf{k}) | \psi > = \delta_{\mathbf{k},\mathbf{p}} | 0 >$ $a_{0}(\mathbf{k}) | \psi > = \delta_{\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{q}} | 0 >$ So $|\psi\rangle$ is a physical state (\bigstar) provided that $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{q}$. (M. & Sh. problem 5.2; homework) • But that is just a gauge transformation. (M. & Sh. problem 5.3; homework)

5

Results of the formalism

In the Gupta-Bleuler formalism,

- we only calculate transition amplitudes between states with transverse photons;
- i.e., longitudinal and scalar photons are not included in asymptotic states;
- but longitudinal and scalar photons do exist as virtual particles;
- i.e., we use the full propagator $-g^{\mu\nu}/(k^2+i\epsilon)$.

This is all we need to proceed.

So now we could forget about the Gupta-Bleuler formalism.

But note what Mandl and Shaw say at the end of Section 5.2:

"…

For most purposes, the complete formalism is not required. [footnote: if interested, read 3 other books.]

An alternative approach (which is required for QCD but optional for QED) is to use *functional integration* with the *Faddeev-Popov formalism*. (M.&Sh. chapters 10 - 14)