

## Why quantum field theory (QFT)?

- There are fields in nature: electromagnetic (EM), gravitational
- They should obey the rules of quantum mechanics (QM)

Example: electromagnetic wave

Maxwell's eqs (Heaviside-Lorentz):

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \vec{E} &= \rho & \nabla \times \vec{B} - \frac{1}{c} \dot{\vec{E}} &= \vec{J} \\ \nabla \times \vec{E} + \frac{1}{c} \dot{\vec{B}} &= 0 & \nabla \cdot \vec{B} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

without charge:  $\rho = 0$ ,  $\vec{J} = 0$  :

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{E} &= \nabla \underbrace{\nabla \cdot \vec{E}}_{=0} - \Delta \vec{E} \\ \frac{1}{c} \nabla \times \dot{\vec{B}} &= \frac{1}{c} \partial_t \frac{1}{c} \dot{\vec{E}} \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \left( \frac{1}{c^2} \partial_t^2 - \Delta \right) \vec{E} = 0$$

Fourier transform:  $\vec{E}(t, \vec{k}) = \int d^3x e^{-i\vec{k}\vec{x}} \vec{E}(t, \vec{x}) \Rightarrow$

$$(\partial_t^2 + c^2 \vec{k}^2) \vec{E}(t, \vec{k}) = 0$$

For each  $\vec{k}$  we have a harmonic oscillator (HO)\*, with

frequency  $\omega = c |\vec{k}|$ .

QM: their possible energies are  $E_n = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega$

We call these energy eigenstate  $n$ -photon states.

Photons are quanta of the EM field. They have particle-like properties.

\* more precisely:  $\text{Re}[\vec{E}(t, \vec{k})]$  and  $\text{Im}[\vec{E}(t, \vec{k})]$

each describe two HO's for the two transverse polarisations. The momenta of the corresponding photons are  $\pm \vec{k}$ .

Remarkable: all known particles can be understood  
as quanta of some fields!

(in the Standard Model of particle physics)

- nature is relativistic

S. Weinberg " QFT [...] is the only way to reconcile  
the principles of QM [...] with those of special  
relativity. "

- QFT is a powerful tool many-particle systems,  
also non-relativistic ones.

# 1 Classical field theory, symmetries

## 1.1 Principle of least action

reminder: classical mechanics with 1 degree of freedom, coordinate  $q$ .

Lagrangian  $L(q, \dot{q}, t)$

action  $S[q] := \int dt L(q(t), \dot{q}(t), t)$

equation of motion follows from the principle of least action

$\delta S = 0$  with  $\delta S = S[q + \delta q] - S[q]$ , linearized in  $\delta q$ .

multiple degrees of freedom: coordinates  $q_i(t)$

generalization for fields:  $q_i(t) \rightarrow \varphi(t, \vec{x})$

The role of the discrete index  $i$  is taken over by the continuous index  $\vec{x}$ .  $\varphi$  represents infinitely many degrees of freedom, one for each point in space  $\vec{x}$ .

In general we will have several fields  $\varphi_a$  with a discrete index  $a = 1, \dots, N$

Example: electric field  $\vec{E}$  has  $N=3$  vector components  $E_i$

action:  $S[\varphi] = \int dt L[\varphi, \dot{\varphi}, t]$

We assume that  $L$  is local, meaning that

$L[\varphi, \dot{\varphi}, t] = \int d^3x \mathcal{L}(\varphi(t, \vec{x}), \dot{\varphi}(t, \vec{x}), \nabla\varphi(t, \vec{x}), \dots, t, \vec{x})$

where the Lagrangian density  $\mathcal{L}$  only depends on a finite number of derivatives of  $\varphi$ .

example: (\*)  $L = \frac{1}{2} [\dot{\varphi}^2 - (\nabla\varphi)^2 - m^2\varphi^2]$ ,  $\varphi \in \mathbb{R}$

Notation: space-time coordinates  $x^\mu$ ,  $\mu \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$

$x^0 = t$ ,  $\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x^1 \\ x^2 \\ x^3 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\frac{\partial \varphi_a}{\partial x^\mu} := \partial_\mu \varphi_a$

$S = \int d^4x L$

Specialize to  $L = L(\varphi, \partial\varphi, x)$

equations of motion (EOM)

$\delta S = S[\varphi + \delta\varphi] - S[\varphi]$

$= \int d^4x \{ L(\varphi + \delta\varphi, \partial\varphi + \delta\partial\varphi, x) - L(\varphi, \partial\varphi, x) \}$

$= \int d^4x \left\{ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \varphi_a} \delta\varphi_a + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \partial_\mu \varphi_a} \underbrace{\delta \partial_\mu \varphi_a}_{= \partial_\mu \delta\varphi_a} \right\}$  (Einstein convention)

$= \int d^4x \partial_\mu \left[ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \partial_\mu \varphi_a} \delta\varphi_a \right] + \int d^4x \delta\varphi_a \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \varphi_a} - \partial_\mu \frac{\partial L}{\partial \partial_\mu \varphi_a} \right)$

$= 0$  assuming that  $\delta\varphi \neq 0$  only inside a bounded region

$\delta S = 0$  for any infinitesimal  $\delta\varphi \Rightarrow$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \varphi_a} - \partial_\mu \frac{\partial L}{\partial \partial_\mu \varphi_a} = 0$$

Euler-Lagrange equations

For our example (\*):  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \varphi} = m^2\varphi$

$\partial_\mu \frac{\partial L}{\partial \partial_\mu \varphi} = \partial_t \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\varphi}} + \partial_m \frac{\partial L}{\partial \partial_m \varphi} = \ddot{\varphi} - \Delta\varphi$

EOM:  $m^2\varphi - \ddot{\varphi} + \Delta\varphi = 0$  (real) Klein-Gordon equation

Lorentz invariance

space-time coordinates of an event  $x^\mu$  ( $\mu=0,1,2,3$ )

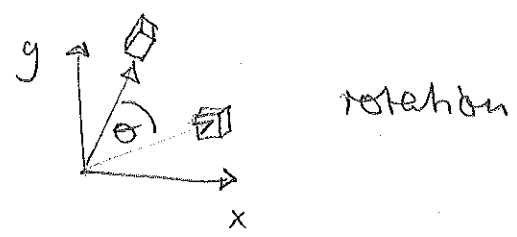
$x^0 = t$  ( $c=1$ )  $x^m$  ( $m=1,2,3$ ) cartesian coordinates

Oftentimes Lorentz transformations (LT.)

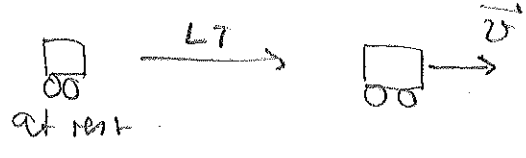
are considered to be passive, that is, the coordinate system is transformed and the physical system is left unchanged.

We use the active point of view, the physics is transformed

Example (i)



(ii) Lorentz boost



coordinates of the transformed event (Einstein summation conv.)

$$x'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu \quad \text{or} \quad x' = \Lambda x$$

with  $x = \begin{pmatrix} x^0 \\ \vec{x} \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\Lambda = (\Lambda^\mu_\nu)$ ,  $4 \times 4$  matrix

Any quantity transforming like  $x$  is called a 4-vector

examples: 4 momentum  $p^\mu$

$p^0 = \text{energy}$

$\vec{p} = \text{spatial momentum}$

LT leave scalar product

$$a \cdot b = a^0 b^0 - \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}$$

invariant,  $a' \cdot b' = a \cdot b$ .

Def.  $(\gamma_{\mu\nu}) := \text{diag}(1, -1, -1, -1)$  metric tensor. Then

$$a \cdot b = \gamma_{\mu\nu} a^\mu b^\nu$$

$$\begin{aligned} a' \cdot b' &= \gamma_{\mu\nu} \Lambda^\mu_\rho \Lambda^\nu_\sigma a^\rho b^\sigma = a^\rho (\Lambda^\tau_\rho \gamma_{\mu\nu} \Lambda^\mu_\sigma) b^\sigma \\ &= a \cdot b \quad \forall a, b \Leftrightarrow \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\Lambda^\tau_\rho \gamma_{\mu\nu} \Lambda^\mu_\sigma = \gamma_{\tau\sigma}}$$

Consequence:  $(\det \Lambda)^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \det \Lambda = \pm 1$

LT which are continuously connected to  $\mathbb{1}$  have  $\det \Lambda = 1$

examples: rotations, Lorentz boosts

examples with  $\det \Lambda = -1$ : time reversal  $t \rightarrow -t$

space reflection  $\vec{x} \rightarrow -\vec{x}$

Def.  $x_\mu := \gamma_{\mu\nu} x^\nu$ . Then

$$a \cdot b = a_\mu b^\mu$$

inverse metric:  $\gamma^{\mu\nu} := \gamma_{\mu\nu}$ ,  $\gamma^{\mu\nu} \gamma_{\nu\rho} = \delta^\mu_\rho$

A second rank tensor  $T^{\mu\nu}$  transforms like

$$T'^{\mu\nu} = \Lambda^\mu_\rho \Lambda^\nu_\sigma T^{\rho\sigma}$$

example: electromagnetic field strength tensor  $F^{\mu\nu}$