

## Gauge invariance and spin-1

11

Recall our scalar Lagrangian from last time:

$$\mathcal{L}[\Phi] = \partial_\mu \Phi^\dagger \partial^\mu \Phi - m^2 \Phi^\dagger \Phi - \lambda (\Phi^\dagger \Phi)^2$$

We saw that  $\delta \Phi = iQ\alpha \Phi$  was a symmetry. What if we let  $\alpha = \alpha(x^\mu)$  depend on spacetime position? This is a local transformation because it's a different action at each point, in contrast to global which is the same everywhere.

The spacetime dependence doesn't affect the second and third terms, which remain invariant, but it does change the first one:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(\partial_\mu \Phi^\dagger \partial^\mu \Phi) &= \partial_\mu \delta \Phi^\dagger \partial^\mu \Phi + \partial_\mu \Phi^\dagger \partial^\mu (\delta \Phi) \\ &= \partial_\mu (-iQ\alpha(x) \Phi^\dagger) \partial^\mu \Phi + \partial_\mu \Phi^\dagger \partial^\mu (iQ\alpha(x) \Phi) \\ &= -iQ \partial_\mu \alpha \Phi^\dagger \partial^\mu \Phi + iQ \partial^\mu \alpha \partial_\mu \Phi^\dagger \Phi \end{aligned}$$

*Not invariant anymore!*

We can fix this with a trick: swap out all instances of  $\partial_\mu$  with

$$D_\mu \equiv \partial_\mu - iQ A_\mu(x) \quad (\text{covariant derivative})$$

and define  $A_\mu$  to have the transformation rule  $\delta A_\mu = \partial_\mu \alpha$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \delta(D_\mu \Phi) &= \delta(\partial_\mu \Phi) - \delta(iQ A_\mu \Phi) \\ &= \partial_\mu (iQ\alpha \Phi) - iQ \delta(A_\mu) \Phi - iQ A_\mu \delta \Phi \\ &= iQ\alpha \partial_\mu \Phi + \cancel{iQ \partial_\mu \alpha \Phi} - \cancel{iQ \partial_\mu \alpha \Phi} + Q^2 \alpha A_\mu \Phi \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(D_\mu \Phi^\dagger D^\mu \Phi) &= (-iQ\alpha \partial_\mu \Phi^\dagger + Q^2 \alpha A_\mu \Phi^\dagger)(\partial^\mu \Phi - iQ A^\mu \Phi) \\ &\quad + (\partial_\mu \Phi^\dagger + iQ A_\mu \Phi^\dagger)(iQ\alpha \partial^\mu \Phi + Q^2 \alpha A^\mu \Phi) \\ &= 0 \quad (\text{check this yourself!}) \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, can show that  $D_\mu \Phi \rightarrow e^{iQ\alpha(x)} D_\mu \Phi$ , so  $(D_\mu \Phi)^\dagger D_\mu \Phi$  is invariant.

12

So, we can promote a global symmetry  $\Phi \rightarrow e^{iQ\alpha} \Phi$  to a local symmetry  $\Phi \rightarrow e^{iQ\alpha(x)} \Phi$ , at the cost of introducing another field  $A_\mu$  which has its own non-homogeneous transformation rule  $A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu + \partial_\mu \alpha$ .

Why in the world would we do this?

- Turns out this is the correct way to incorporate interactions with spin-1 fields:  $A_\mu$  will be the photon, and  $Q$  is the electric charge.
- In fact, this transformation rule for  $A_\mu$  is required for a consistent, unitary theory of a massless spin-1 particle: invariance under this local transformation is known as gauge invariance.

Let's put  $\Phi$  aside for now and just consider what form the Lagrangian for  $A_\mu$  must take.

- Lorentz invariance:  $A_\mu$  is a Lorentz vector, so  $A_\mu(x) \rightarrow \Lambda_\mu^\nu A_\nu(\Lambda^{-1}x)$ . So the "principle of contracted indices" holds:  $A_\mu A^\mu$  is Lorentz-invariant, as is  $(\partial_\mu A_\nu)(\partial^\mu A^\nu)$ , etc.
- Gauge invariance: we want  $\mathcal{L}$  to be invariant under  $A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu + \partial_\mu \alpha$ .

Try writing down a mass term:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta\left(\frac{1}{2} m^2 A_\mu A^\mu\right) &= \frac{1}{2} m^2 (\delta A_\mu A^\mu + A_\mu \delta A^\mu) \\ &= m^2 \partial_\mu \alpha A^\mu \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

**Surprise!** A mass term is not allowed by gauge invariance.

What about terms with derivatives? Something like  $\partial_\mu A_\nu$  will pick up  $\partial_\mu \partial_\nu \alpha$ . Can cancel this with a compensating term  $\partial_\nu \partial_\mu \alpha$ , which comes from  $\partial_\nu A_\mu$ . This leads to  $\mathcal{L}_a = -\frac{1}{4} (\partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu)(\partial^\mu A^\nu - \partial^\nu A^\mu)$

↑
↖
↗

conventional  $F_{\mu\nu}$ , field strength tensor

With  $A_m = (\phi, \vec{A})$ , the electromagnetic potentials, you will find that  $\mathcal{L}$  is none other than the Maxwell Lagrangian,  $\mathcal{L}_{EM} = \frac{1}{2}(\vec{E}^2 - \vec{B}^2)$ .

But the photon has 2 polarizations, i.e. 2 independent components of  $A_m$ , which is a 4-vector. How do we get rid of the 2 extraneous components?

- Note that  $A^0$  has no time derivatives:  $\partial_0 A_0$  never appears in Lagrangian, so its equation of motion doesn't involve time. Therefore  $A_0$  is not a propagating degree of freedom: this follows immediately from writing  $\langle [F_{\mu\nu}]$ . Can solve for  $A^0$  in terms of  $\vec{A}$ .
- Choose a gauge, for example  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0$ . Solve for one component of  $\vec{A}$  in terms of the other two, and what's left are the two propagating degrees of freedom, whose equations of motion are  $\square A^{(1,2)} = 0$ .

The counting is fairly straightforward as above, but not Lorentz invariant; under a Lorentz transformation,  $A^0$  mixes with  $\vec{A}$ ,  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0$  is not preserved, etc.

Repeat the above analysis using unitary representations of the Lorentz group.

A 4-vector  $A_m$  must have some Hilbert space representation  $|A_m\rangle$ , so we can write a state  $|\psi\rangle$  as a linear combination of the components:

$$|\psi\rangle = c_0 |A_0\rangle + c_1 |A_1\rangle + c_2 |A_2\rangle + c_3 |A_3\rangle$$

This state must have positive norm:

$$\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = |c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2 > 0.$$

But if the components of  $A_m$  change under a Lorentz transformation, we can change the norm, which is bad; the Lorentz transformation matrices are not unitary!

Alternatively, we could redefine the norm to be Lorentz-invariant,

$$\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = |c_0|^2 - |c_1|^2 - |c_2|^2 - |c_3|^2, \text{ but this is not positive-definite!}$$

Solution in two steps: (1) use fields as the representation, which do have unitary (infinite-dimensional) representations, and (2) project out the wrong-sign component. Since vectors live in the  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$  representation, which has  $j=0$  and  $j=1$  components, this is equivalent to projecting out the  $j=0$  component, leaving  $j=1$  as appropriate for spin-1.

Write  $A_m$  in Fourier space,  $A_m(x) = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} \epsilon_m(p) e^{i p \cdot x}$   
*momentum-dependent polarization vector*

A Lorentz transformation will act on this field as

$$A_m(x) \rightarrow \Lambda^{\nu}_m A_{\nu}(\Lambda^{-1}x) = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} \underbrace{\Lambda^{\nu}_m}_{\substack{\text{polarization} \\ \text{vectors rotate}}} \epsilon_{\nu}(p) e^{i p \cdot (\Lambda^{-1}x)}$$

How many linearly independent polarization vectors?

Equations of motion: (HW)

$$\square A_m - \partial_m(\partial^{\nu} A_{\nu}) = 0$$

Choose a gauge such that  $\partial^{\nu} A_{\nu} = 0$ . (can always do this: if  $\partial^{\nu} A_{\nu} = X$ , take  $A_{\nu} \rightarrow A_{\nu} + \partial_{\nu} \lambda$ ,  $\partial^{\nu} A_{\nu} \rightarrow X - \partial^2 \lambda$ . Solve for  $\lambda$  to cancel  $X$ .)

$\Rightarrow$  in Fourier space,  $p^2 = 0$  and  $p \cdot \epsilon = 0$ . This is an algebraic constraint which is Lorentz-invariant, so it projects out spin-0 as desired. Reduces four polarizations  $\epsilon_m^0 = (1, 0, 0, 0)$ ,  $\epsilon_m^1 = (0, 1, 0, 0)$ , ... to three. But we have one more gauge transformation left!

Can still have  $A_m = \partial_m \lambda$  consistent with  $\partial^{\nu} A_{\nu} = 0$  if  $\partial^2 \lambda = 0$ .

In this case,  $A_m$  is gauge-equivalent to 0 (or pure gauge) and not physical. Indeed, consider  $\lambda = e^{i p \cdot x}$ ; then  $\partial^2 \lambda = p^2 e^{i p \cdot x} = 0$  if  $p^2 = 0$ . So if  $A_m = \partial_m \lambda = i p_m e^{i p \cdot x}$ , then  $\epsilon_m$  is proportional to  $p_m$ ; these "forward" polarizations are unphysical.

We are thus left with two independent polarization vectors:

in a frame where  $p_\mu = (E, 0, 0, E)$ , they are

$$\begin{aligned} E_m^1 &= (0, 1, 0, 0) \\ E_m^2 &= (0, 0, 1, 0) \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} E_m^1 \\ E_m^2 \end{aligned}} \right\} \text{linear polarization}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} E_m^L &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0, 1, -i, 0) \\ E_m^R &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(0, 1, i, 0) \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} E_m^L \\ E_m^R \end{aligned}} \right\} \text{circular polarization}$$

In QFT, these polarization vectors represent physical states, so we can take linear combinations of them:

e.g.  $|E\rangle = c_1|1\rangle + c_2|2\rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle E|E\rangle &= |c_1|^2 \langle 1|1\rangle + |c_2|^2 \langle 2|2\rangle + c_1 c_2^* \langle 1|2\rangle + c_1^* c_2 \langle 2|1\rangle \\ &= |c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 \quad \left( \text{define norm with minus sign so it's positive} \right) \\ &= |c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 \end{aligned}$$

= 0 since  $E_m^1$  and  $E_m^2$  are orthogonal

This inner product is Lorentz-invariant because the basis vectors change under Lorentz, but not the coefficients! Moreover, gauge invariance let us get rid of the states with non-positive norm!

$$E_m^0 = (1, 0, 0, 0) \Rightarrow \langle 0|0\rangle = -1, \text{ bad!}$$

$$E_m^F = (1, 0, 0, 1) \Rightarrow \langle f|f\rangle = 0, \text{ bad!}$$

At long last, our new Lagrangian is

$$\mathcal{L} = |D_\mu \Phi|^2 - m^2 \Phi^\dagger \Phi - \lambda (\Phi^\dagger \Phi)^2 - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu}$$

Note:  $[A_\mu] = [D_\mu] = 1$  from covariant derivative, so  $[F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu}] = 4$ , as required.