

## Abelian Gauge Theory

An important aspect of the SM is the notion of gauge symmetry. Classically, the Dirac eq. has the gauge symmetry

$$\psi(x) \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \psi(x)$$

for any constant  $\alpha$ . This transformation leaves all observable physics unchanged, and  $e^{i\alpha} \in U(1)$  is an Abelian group. This transformation is called a gauge symmetry. Specifically, the Lagrange density is invariant under a global U(1) symmetry,

$$e^{i\alpha} \in U(1).$$

Let us check that  $\mathcal{L} = \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \overleftrightarrow{\partial} \psi - m \bar{\psi} \psi$  is invariant.

$$\psi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \psi$$

$$\bar{\psi} = \psi^\dagger \gamma^0 \rightarrow (e^{i\alpha} \psi)^\dagger \gamma^0 = e^{-i\alpha} \bar{\psi}$$

$$\text{So, } \bar{\psi} \psi \rightarrow (e^{-i\alpha} \bar{\psi})(e^{i\alpha} \psi) = \bar{\psi} \psi$$

$$\bar{\psi} \overleftrightarrow{\partial} \psi \rightarrow (e^{-i\alpha} \bar{\psi}) \overleftrightarrow{\partial} (e^{i\alpha} \psi)$$

$$= e^{-i\alpha} \bar{\psi} e^{i\alpha} \overleftrightarrow{\partial} \psi = \bar{\psi} \overleftrightarrow{\partial} \psi$$

$\alpha = \text{constant}$

$\Rightarrow$   $\mathcal{L}$  is invariant

Recall: Noether's theorem

If  $\mathcal{L}$  is invariant under a continuous symmetry transformation, then  $\exists$  a conserved charge and current, and vice versa.

For a spinor field, the conserved current is

$$\underline{J^\mu = -\frac{\delta \mathcal{L}}{\delta(\partial_\mu \psi)} \frac{\delta \psi}{\delta \alpha} - \frac{\delta \bar{\psi}}{\delta \alpha} \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}}{\delta(\partial_\mu \bar{\psi})}}$$

With a charge  $Q = \int d^3x J^0$ .

So, for  $U(1)$  symmetry,

$$\begin{aligned} \psi \rightarrow \psi' &\equiv e^{i\alpha} \psi \\ &\approx (1 + i\alpha) \psi + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^2) \\ &\equiv \psi + \alpha \frac{\delta \psi}{\delta \alpha} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\psi} \rightarrow \bar{\psi}' &\equiv e^{-i\alpha} \bar{\psi} \\ &\approx (1 - i\alpha) \bar{\psi} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^2) \\ &\equiv \bar{\psi} + \alpha \frac{\delta \bar{\psi}}{\delta \alpha} \end{aligned}$$

With

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi - \frac{i}{2} \partial_\mu \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi - m \bar{\psi} \psi,$$

We have

$$J^\mu = -\frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu (i\psi) + \frac{i}{2} (-i\bar{\psi}) \gamma^\mu \psi$$

$$= \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$J^\mu = \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi$$

*conserved U(1) current*

Current is conserved,  $\partial_\mu J^\mu = 0$

Check

$$\partial_\mu J^\mu = \partial_\mu \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi + \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi$$

$$= \bar{\psi} \overleftarrow{\partial} \psi + \bar{\psi} \overrightarrow{\partial} \psi$$

$$\text{Dirac eq. } (i\overrightarrow{\partial} - m)\psi = 0 \text{ and } \bar{\psi}(i\overleftarrow{\partial} + m) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \partial_\mu J^\mu = im \bar{\psi} \psi + (-im) \bar{\psi} \psi$$

$$= 0 \quad \blacksquare$$

The corresponding charge  $Q = \int d^3x \bar{\psi} \gamma^0 \psi$

is conserved,  $\frac{dQ}{dt} = 0$ .

Notice, when  $\psi$  (at particular  $x$ )  $\rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \psi$ ,  
all  $\psi$  (at other  $x$ ) also rotate the same way  
by the same amount.

This seems to contradict the "spirit of relativity",  
i.e., would expect to do this transformation only locally.  
So, might expect  $\alpha = \alpha(x)$ , with

$$\psi(x) \rightarrow e^{i\alpha(x)} \psi(x)$$

which is a local gauge transformation.

Notice: Promotes  $\alpha$  to a scalar field.

There is a consequence though.

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_\mu \psi &\rightarrow \partial_\mu (e^{i\alpha(x)} \psi) \\ &= \underbrace{i(\partial_\mu \alpha) e^{i\alpha} \psi}_{\text{"extra piece"}} + e^{i\alpha} \partial_\mu \psi \end{aligned}$$

↑ as before

$$\partial_\mu \psi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \partial_\mu \psi$$

Therefore,  $\mathcal{L}$  is No longer invariant



check,  $\bar{\psi}\psi \rightarrow e^{-i\alpha}\bar{\psi}e^{i\alpha}\psi = \bar{\psi}\psi$  ✓ as before

and

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{\psi}\overleftrightarrow{\partial}\psi &= \bar{\psi}\partial\psi - (\partial_\mu\bar{\psi})\gamma^\mu\psi \\ &\rightarrow e^{-i\alpha}\bar{\psi}[i(\partial_\mu\alpha)e^{i\alpha}\psi + e^{i\alpha}\partial\psi] \\ &\quad - [-i(\partial_\mu\alpha)e^{-i\alpha}\bar{\psi} + e^{-i\alpha}\partial_\mu\bar{\psi}]\gamma^\mu e^{i\alpha}\psi \\ &= \bar{\psi}\overleftrightarrow{\partial}\psi + 2i\bar{\psi}\gamma^\mu\psi\partial_\mu\alpha \quad \times\end{aligned}$$

So,

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{i}{2}\bar{\psi}\overleftrightarrow{\partial}\psi - m\bar{\psi}\psi$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{i}{2}\bar{\psi}\overleftrightarrow{\partial}\psi - m\bar{\psi}\psi - \bar{\psi}\gamma^\mu\psi\partial_\mu\alpha$$

$$= \mathcal{L} - \bar{\psi}\gamma^\mu\psi\partial_\mu\alpha$$

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{L}$  is NOT Invariant!

Promoting  $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha(x)$  destroys U(1) invariance.

Can we fix this conflict?

Yes. Define a modified derivative, the covariant derivative  $D_\mu$ , that does transform covariantly.

Define  $D_\mu$  such that

$$D_\mu \psi \xrightarrow[\text{local U(1)}]{} e^{i\alpha(x)} D_\mu \psi$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\psi} D \psi \rightarrow \bar{\psi} D \psi$$

Simplest choice

$$D_\mu = \partial_\mu + ig A_\mu(x)$$

"correction factor"

gauge field (real)

convenient choice of phase

AND require that

$$A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu - \frac{1}{g} \partial_\mu \alpha$$

Note: sign in  $D_\mu$  chosen such that

$$D_\mu \psi = \partial_\mu \psi + ig A_\mu \psi$$

for  $\bar{\psi}$ , we have

$$D_\mu \bar{\psi} = \partial_\mu \bar{\psi} - ig A_\mu \bar{\psi}$$

Claim

If  $D_\mu = \partial_\mu + ig A_\mu$  and  $A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu - \frac{1}{g} \partial_\mu \alpha$

under  $\psi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \psi$ , then

$$D_\mu \psi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} D_\mu \psi.$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} D_\mu \psi &= (\partial_\mu + ig A_\mu) \psi \\ &\rightarrow (\partial_\mu + ig (A_\mu - \frac{1}{g} \partial_\mu \alpha)) e^{i\alpha} \psi \\ &= \cancel{i(\partial_\mu \alpha) e^{i\alpha} \psi} + e^{i\alpha} \partial_\mu \psi \\ &\quad + ig A_\mu e^{i\alpha} \psi - \cancel{i(\partial_\mu \alpha) e^{i\alpha} \psi} \\ &= e^{i\alpha} [\partial_\mu + ig A_\mu] \psi \\ &= e^{i\alpha} D_\mu \psi \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

So, we consider a new theory which is invariant under a local  $U(1)$  symmetry

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{D} \psi + \text{h.c.} - m \bar{\psi} \psi$$

where  $\not{D} = \gamma^\mu D_\mu$

This  $\mathcal{L}$  is invariant under local  $U(1)$  symmetry.

But, this is not the same theory we started with.

To see, write out  $D_\mu$

$$\frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{\partial} \psi = \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{\partial} \psi - \frac{1}{2} g \bar{\psi} A \psi$$

$$\left( \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{\partial} \psi \right)^\dagger = \left( \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{\partial} \psi \right)^\dagger - \frac{1}{2} g \bar{\psi} A \psi$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{L} = \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{\partial} \psi + \text{h.c.} - m \bar{\psi} \psi - g \bar{\psi} A \psi$$

Recall the Noether current,  $J^\mu = \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi$ .

$$\text{So, } \mathcal{L} = \underbrace{\frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{\partial} \psi + \text{h.c.} - m \bar{\psi} \psi}_{\text{original theory}} - \underbrace{g A_\mu J^\mu}_{\text{new term}}$$

The new term is an interaction of the fermion field with the gauge field.

Therefore, promoting global  $\rightarrow$  local gauge symmetry introduces interactions with gauge field  $A_\mu(x)$ . The fields are coupled through coupling (or coupling constant\*)  $g$ .

\* These are not constant in QFT...

We have now introduced the gauge field  $A_\mu(x)$ . If we want to think of  $A_\mu$  as some physical field, then we should think about adding some more dynamics of the field, i.e., a kinetic term. Since  $A_\mu$  must transform as a Lorentz vector, we must build in not only a term invariant under gauge transformations, but also under Poincaré transformations. Let's review a famous vector field, the electromagnetic field.

# Electromagnetic Field

Consider the four-potential  $A_\mu(x)$ .

The field-strength tensor is

$$F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu \\ = -F_{\nu\mu}$$

In natural units,  $A^\mu = (\varphi, \vec{A})$  (cf. Jackson)

and,  $\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}\varphi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t}$

$$\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

so,

$$F^{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -E^1 & -E^2 & -E^3 \\ & 0 & -B^3 & -B^2 \\ & & 0 & -B^1 \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



Now,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\delta(F_{\alpha\beta}F^{\alpha\beta})}{\delta(\partial_\mu A_\nu)} &= 2F^{\alpha\beta} \frac{\delta F_{\alpha\beta}}{\delta(\partial_\mu A_\nu)} \\ &= 2F^{\alpha\beta} \left( \frac{\delta(\partial_\alpha A_\beta)}{\delta(\partial_\mu A_\nu)} - \frac{\delta(\partial_\beta A_\alpha)}{\delta(\partial_\mu A_\nu)} \right) \\ &= 2F^{\alpha\beta} (\delta_\alpha^\mu \delta_\beta^\nu - \delta_\beta^\mu \delta_\alpha^\nu) \\ &= 2F^{\mu\nu} - 2F^{\nu\mu} \\ &= 4F^{\mu\nu} \quad \text{L } F^{\nu\mu} = -F^{\mu\nu}\end{aligned}$$

So,

$$\partial_\mu \left( \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}}{\delta(\partial_\mu A_\nu)} \right) = -\partial_\mu F^{\mu\nu}$$

and

$$\frac{\delta \mathcal{L}}{\delta A_\nu} = -J^\nu$$

Therefore,

$$\partial_\mu \left( \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}}{\delta(\partial_\mu A_\nu)} \right) - \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}}{\delta A_\nu} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\partial_\mu F^{\mu\nu} = J^\nu}$$

The eqns. of motion contains two Maxwell eqns.

$$\partial_\mu F^{\mu\nu} = J^\nu \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \rho \\ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} - \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = \vec{J} \end{cases}$$



Note:

$$\underbrace{\partial_\mu \partial_\nu F^{\mu\nu}}_{\text{symmetric}} = 0 \Rightarrow \partial_\nu J^\nu = 0$$

*antisymmetric*

so, current must be conserved for consistency

$$\partial_\nu J^\nu = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = 0$$

Definition: Dual field strength

$$\tilde{F}^{\mu\nu} \equiv \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} F_{\alpha\beta} = -\tilde{F}^{\nu\mu}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -B^1 & -B^2 & -B^3 \\ & 0 & +E^3 & -E^2 \\ & & 0 & +E^1 \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Can show it obeys identity  $\partial_\mu \tilde{F}^{\mu\nu} = 0$ ,  
get other two Maxwell eqns.

$$\partial_\mu \tilde{F}^{\mu\nu} = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = \vec{0} \end{cases}$$

## Interacting Spinor Field theory

Going back to our spinor field theory which is invariant under local  $U(1)$  gauge transformations

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L} &= \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{\partial} \psi + \text{h.c.} - m \bar{\psi} \psi \\ &= \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{\partial} \psi + \text{h.c.} - m \bar{\psi} \psi - g A_\mu J^\mu\end{aligned}$$

with conserved current  $J^\mu = \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi$ .

If  $A_\mu$  is dynamical, we should add gauge invariant kinetic term.

Consider  $F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu$ , which is gauge invariant, with kinetic Lagrange density

$$\mathcal{L}_G = -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu}$$

This is locally  $U(1)$  invariant, Poincaré invariant, and is an appropriate kinetic term for  $A_\mu$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}_G &= -\frac{1}{4} (\partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu) (\partial^\mu A^\nu - \partial^\nu A^\mu) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\partial_\mu A_\nu \partial^\mu A^\nu}_{\text{kinetic term}} + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{(\partial_\mu A^\mu)^2}_{\text{other term?}}\end{aligned}$$

This Lagrange density is of a free electromagnetic field!

⇒ The EM field arises naturally by  
requiring global  $U(1) \rightarrow$  local  $U(1)$ .

We will see that other forces of the  
Standard Model arise in a similar way.

This theory is spinor electrodynamics. The  
corresponding quantum theory is Quantum Electrodynamics.

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{\partial} \psi + \text{h.c.} - m \bar{\psi} \psi - g A_\mu \hat{J}^\mu - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu}$$

└ This is then the electromagnetic  
coupling of matter to the gauge field.  
⇒ electromagnetic charge  
of the fermion field!



Notice that  $A_\mu$  must be a massless field, because a mass term is not  $U(1)$  invariant.

$$m_A^2 A_\mu A^\mu \longrightarrow m_A^2 (A_\mu - \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \alpha) (A^\mu - \frac{1}{2} \partial^\mu \alpha) \\ \neq m_A^2 A_\mu A^\mu$$

Therefore, the excitation of the quantum theory, i.e., the photon, must be massless because of exact local  $U(1)$  symmetry.

All together, our local  $U(1)$  invariant theory is

### Spinor Electrodynamics

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} i \bar{\psi} \not{D} \psi + \text{h.c.} - m \bar{\psi} \psi - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu}$$

$$\text{with } F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu$$

$$\text{and } D_\mu \psi = \partial_\mu \psi + i q A_\mu \psi$$

↑ charge of fermion field

This is our first example of a gauge field theory.

This theory describes charged fermions interacting with the EM field.

## Functional Quantization of Abelian Gauge theories

We proceed with constructing the quantum theory of spinor electrodynamics. Let us consider the path integral for pure electrodynamics

$$\int \mathcal{D}A e^{iS[A]}$$

where  $\mathcal{D}A = \prod_{\mu=0}^3 \mathcal{D}A_{\mu} = \mathcal{D}A_0 \mathcal{D}A_1 \mathcal{D}A_2 \mathcal{D}A_3$ ,  
and the action is

$$\begin{aligned} S[A] &= \int d^4x \left[ -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} \right] \\ &= \int d^4x \frac{1}{2} A_{\mu} (\partial^2 g^{\mu\nu} - \partial^{\mu} \partial^{\nu}) A_{\nu} \\ &= \int \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{1}{2} A_{\mu}(k) \underbrace{(-k^2 g^{\mu\nu} + k^{\mu} k^{\nu})}_{= i D_{\mu\nu}^{-1}(k)} A_{\nu}(k) \end{aligned}$$

Can we interpret this as a transition amplitude?

The action vanishes when  $A_{\mu}(k) = k_{\mu} \alpha$ , i.e., when  $A_{\mu}(x)$  is a pure gauge  $\partial_{\mu} \alpha$ .

Because this set is infinite (arbitrary  $\alpha(x)$ ), the PI is badly divergent,  $\int \mathcal{D}A e^{iS} \propto \int \mathcal{D}\alpha \dots \rightarrow \infty \times \dots$   
 Similarly, each field  $A_\mu \neq \partial_\mu \alpha$  can be associated with an infinite set of equivalent configurations

$$A_\mu^\alpha = A_\mu - \frac{1}{g} \partial_\mu \alpha$$

The PI is thus badly divergent and not normalizable. This obviously results from it containing integrals over  $\infty$  many physically equivalent configurations.

Indeed, if we tried to include a source term and perform the Gaussian integral of the PI, we would fail because the function

$$-iD_{\mu\nu}^{-1}(k) = -k^2 g_{\mu\nu} + k_\mu k_\nu$$

is singular. That is, it does not have an inverse, i.e., no propagator!

In the PI formalism, this problem is formally trivial to solve - we only need to constrain the PI with a suitable gauge constraint

$$G(A^\alpha) = 0$$

such that out of each  $\alpha$ -path, only one member contributes. So, we "only" need to set a functional  $\delta$ -function  $\delta(G(A^\alpha))$  into

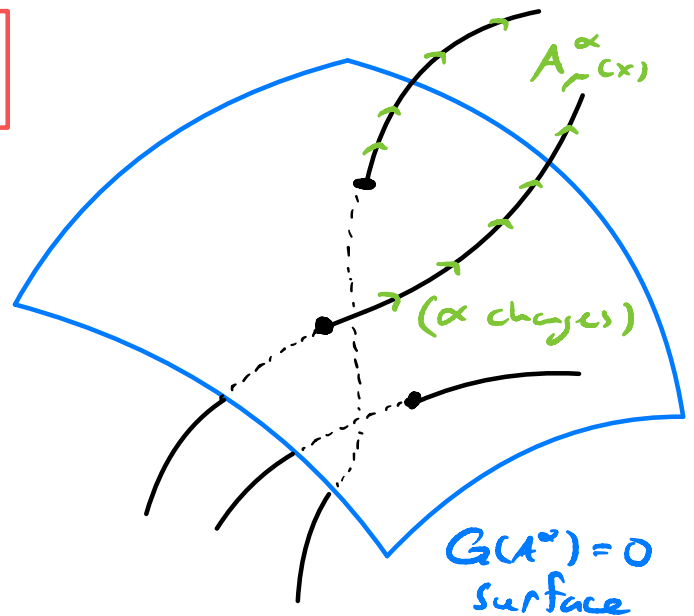
the PI to constrain it surface  $G(A^\alpha) = 0$ .

This has to be done without changing the PI measure.

To define a consistent procedure, we introduce the following identity

$$1 \equiv \Delta_{FP}(A_r) \int D\alpha \delta(G(A_r^\alpha))$$

where the Faddeev-Popov determinant  $\Delta_{FP}$  guarantees that the measure of the PI is preserved.





The Faddeev-Popov determinant is gauge invariant

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_{FP}^{-1}(A_r^{\alpha'}) &= \int \mathcal{D}\alpha \delta(G(A_r^{\alpha'\alpha})) \\ &= \int \mathcal{D}(\alpha'\alpha) \delta(G(A_r^{\alpha'\alpha})) \\ &= \int \mathcal{D}\alpha'' \delta(G(A_r^{\alpha''})) = \Delta_{FP}^{-1}(A_r) \end{aligned}$$

Formally,  $\Delta_{FP}$  takes the form

$$\Delta_{FP}(A_r) = \det \left( \frac{\delta G[A_r^\alpha]}{\delta \alpha} \right)$$

↳ understood as a limiting process from a discretal spacetime.

Inserting the identity into the PI, we get

$$\int \mathcal{D}A \left( \Delta_{FP}(A_r) \int \mathcal{D}\alpha \delta(G(A_r^{\alpha})) \right) e^{iS[A_r]}$$

All invariant under gauge transformation

$\Rightarrow A_r \rightarrow A_r^\alpha$  transformation

$$= \underbrace{\left( \int \mathcal{D}\alpha \right)}_{\text{unphysical so d.o.f. extracted}} \cdot \int \mathcal{D}A \Delta_{FP}(A_r) \underbrace{\delta(G(A_r)) e^{iS[A_r]}}_{\text{constraint to surface } G(A_r) = 0}$$

↑  
ensures measure is preserved

In general  $\Delta_{FP}$  can depend on  $A_\mu$ , and thus change the PI on the surface  $G(A_\mu)$ . We will see this behavior for non-Abelian gauge theories. For Abelian gauge theories, like QED, there is a class of Lorentz-covariant gauges for which  $\Delta_{FP} = \text{const. wrt } A_\mu$ .

Let us choose

$$G_\omega(A_\mu) = \partial_\mu A^\mu - \omega(x) = 0$$

Then,

$$\Delta_{FP} = \det\left(\frac{\delta G(A^\mu)}{\delta x}\right) = \det\left(\frac{1}{2} \partial^2\right)$$

↑ independent of  $A_\mu$ !

So, can take  $\Delta_{FP}$  out of integrals!

Example

Lorentz gauge:  $\omega(x) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow G(A) = \partial_\mu A^\mu = 0$$

We have now gauge-fixed the action. Note that  $\Delta_{FP}$  is also independent of  $w(x)$ . So, we can integrate over  $w$  with any weight function, effectively averaging over this function. Let us choose to average  $w(x)$  with a Gaussian weight

$$= N(\xi) \int \mathcal{D}w e^{-i \int d^4x \frac{w^2}{2\xi}} \left( \int \mathcal{D}\alpha \right) \det \left( \frac{1}{\xi} \partial^2 \right)$$

$$\times \int \mathcal{D}A \delta(\partial_\mu A^\mu - w) e^{iS[A]}$$

$$= N(\xi) \underbrace{\left( \int \mathcal{D}\alpha \right) \det \left( \frac{1}{\xi} \partial^2 \right)}_{\equiv \tilde{N} : A\text{-independent as constant}} \int \mathcal{D}A e^{iS[A] - i \int d^4x \frac{1}{2\xi} (\partial_\mu A^\mu)^2}$$

↑  
additional piece in the action

$$= \tilde{N} \int \mathcal{D}A e^{i \int d^4x \left( \mathcal{L}[A] - \frac{1}{2\xi} (\partial_\mu A^\mu)^2 \right)}$$

↑  
gauge as now here

↑  $\xi$  is an arbitrary constant

The net effect of gauge fixing is an additional term on the Lagrange density

$$\mathcal{L}[A] \rightarrow \mathcal{L}^\xi[A] = \mathcal{L}[A] - \frac{1}{2\xi} (\partial_\mu A^\mu)^2$$

The new term is very important. First note that for a pure gauge

$$\frac{1}{2\xi} (\partial_\mu A^\mu)^2 \rightarrow \frac{k^4}{2\xi} \alpha^2$$

If  $\xi \neq 0$ , the integral is now strongly damped.

Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned} iS[A] &= \frac{i}{2\xi} \int d^4x (\partial_\mu A^\mu)^2 \\ &= \frac{i}{2} \int d^4x A_\mu(x) \left( \partial^2 g^{\mu\nu} - \partial^\mu \partial^\nu + \frac{1}{\xi} \partial^\mu \partial^\nu \right) A_\nu(x) \\ &= \frac{i}{2} \int \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} \underbrace{\tilde{A}_\mu(k) \left( -k^2 g^{\mu\nu} + \left(1 - \frac{1}{\xi}\right) k^\mu k^\nu \right) \tilde{A}_\nu(k)}_{-iD_{\mu\nu}^{-1}(k)} \end{aligned}$$

The inverse propagator is no longer singular

$$\langle 0|T\{A_\mu(x)A_\nu(0)\}|0\rangle = \int \frac{d^4k}{(2\pi)^4} e^{-ik \cdot x} iD_{\mu\nu}^{\xi}(k)$$

with

$$iD_{\mu\nu}^{\xi}(k) = \frac{-i}{k^2 + i\epsilon} \left( g_{\mu\nu} - (1-\xi) \frac{k_\mu k_\nu}{k^2} \right)$$

photon propagator

The choice of  $\xi$  is a choice of averaging over gauge choices. Physical observables must be gauge-invariant, i.e., independent of  $\xi$ .

Some special cases

$$\xi = 1 : \quad iD_{\mu\nu} = -i \frac{g_{\mu\nu}}{k^2 + i\epsilon} \quad \text{Feynman Gauge}$$

$$\xi = 0 : \quad iD_{\mu\nu} = \frac{-i}{k^2 + i\epsilon} \left( g_{\mu\nu} - \frac{k_\mu k_\nu}{k^2} \right) \quad \text{Landau Gauge}$$

The momentum-space Feynman rule

$$iD_{\mu\nu}^{\xi}(k) = \overset{\mu}{\text{---}} \underset{\leftarrow k}{\text{---}} \overset{\nu}{\text{---}}$$

$$= \frac{-i}{k^2 + i\epsilon} \left( g_{\mu\nu} - (1-\xi) \frac{k_\mu k_\nu}{k^2} \right)$$

Physical observables must be gauge independent.

For a gauge invariant operator  $O(\hat{A})$ , then obviously

$$\langle 0|T[O(\hat{A})]|0\rangle = \frac{\int \mathcal{D}A O[A] e^{i \int d^4x (L - \frac{1}{2\epsilon} (\partial_\mu A^\mu)^2)}}{\int \mathcal{D}A e^{i \int d^4x (L - \frac{1}{2\epsilon} (\partial_\mu A^\mu)^2)}}$$

We can derive this as we did for the PI.

Eventually, all derivatives cancel in the ratio.

Note that gauge invariance of  $O(A)$  is an essential requirement for obtaining this.

$\Rightarrow$  From the LSZ theorem, we can get a unitary, gauge-invariant S-matrix.

## Quantum Electrodynamics

We are now ready to formulate QED. The gauge-fixed Lagrange density is

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{QED}}^{\text{I}} = \frac{i}{2} \bar{\psi} \not{D} \psi + \text{h.c.} - m \bar{\psi} \psi - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2\xi} (\partial_\mu A^\mu)^2$$

with

$$D_\mu = \partial_\mu + iq A_\mu,$$

and

$$F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu$$

The generating functional is

$$\begin{aligned} Z_{\text{QED}}^{\text{I}}[\tilde{J}^\mu, \eta, \bar{\eta}] &= \frac{1}{N_{\text{vac}}^{\text{I}}} \int \mathcal{D}A \mathcal{D}\psi \mathcal{D}\bar{\psi} e^{i \int_x \mathcal{L}_{\text{QED}}^{\text{I}} + \tilde{J}^\mu A_\mu + \bar{\eta} \psi + \bar{\psi} \eta} \\ &= \frac{1}{N_{\text{vac}}^{\text{I}}} e^{-iq \int d^4x \frac{\delta}{\delta \eta} \gamma^\mu \frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{\eta}} \frac{\delta}{\delta \tilde{J}^\mu}} Z_{\text{FP}}^{\text{I}}[\tilde{J}^\mu] Z_0[\eta, \bar{\eta}] \end{aligned}$$

↑  
interaction

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{int}} = -iq \bar{\psi} A \psi$$

where the gauge-fixed FP gauge-field generating function is

$$\begin{aligned} Z_{FP}^{\zeta}[J] &= \int \mathcal{D}A e^{i \int_{x,y} A^{\mu}(x) i D_{\mu\nu}^{-1}(x,y) A^{\nu}(y) + i \int_x J_{\mu}(x) A^{\mu}(x)} \\ &= e^{i \int_{x,y} J^{\mu}(x) i D_{\mu\nu}^{-1}(x,y) J^{\nu}(y)} \end{aligned}$$

and the Dirac (fermion) generating function is

$$\begin{aligned} Z_D[\eta, \bar{\eta}] &= \int \mathcal{D}\psi \mathcal{D}\bar{\psi} e^{i \int_{x,y} \bar{\psi}(x) i S(x,y) \psi(y) + i \int_x \bar{\eta}(x) \psi(x) + \bar{\psi}(x) \eta(x)} \\ &= e^{i \int_{x,y} \bar{\eta}(x) i S(x,y) \eta(y)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{with } iS(x,y) = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} e^{-ip \cdot (x-y)} iS(p)$$

$$\text{and } iS(p) = \frac{i}{\not{p} - m + i\epsilon} = \frac{i(\not{p} + m)}{p^2 - m^2 + i\epsilon}$$

and finally,  $N_{vac}^{\zeta}$  is the vacuum-to-vacuum transition

amplitude

$$N_{vac}^{\zeta} = e^{-iQ} \int d^4x \frac{\delta}{\delta \eta} \gamma^{\mu} \frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{\eta}} \frac{\delta}{\delta J^{\mu}} Z_{FP}^{\zeta}[J] Z_D[\eta, \bar{\eta}] \Big|_{J^{\mu} = \eta = \bar{\eta} = 0}$$

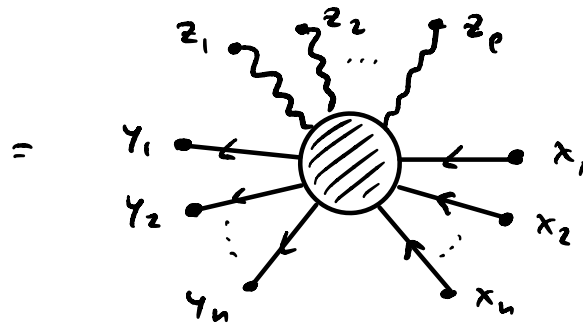


A generic correlation function with  $n$ -fermions,  $n$ -antifermions, and  $p$ -photon fields is

$$G^{n, \dots, m, p}(x_1, \dots, x_n, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n, z_1, \dots, z_p)$$

$$= \langle 0 | T \left\{ \prod_{j=1}^n \psi(x_j) \bar{\psi}(\gamma_j) \prod_{k=1}^p A_\mu(z_k) \right\} | 0 \rangle$$

$$= (-i)^{2n+p} \frac{\delta^{2n+p}}{\delta \eta_1 \dots \delta \eta_n \delta \bar{\eta}_1 \dots \delta \bar{\eta}_n \delta J_1 \dots \delta J_p} Z_{\text{GED}}^{\zeta} [J^{\mu}, \eta, \bar{\eta}]$$



The connected correlation functions are found by taking appropriate functional derivatives of  $W$ ,

$$W_{\text{GED}}^{\zeta} [J^{\mu}, \eta, \bar{\eta}] = -i\hbar Z_{\text{GED}}^{\zeta} [J^{\mu}, \eta, \bar{\eta}]$$

The LSZ reduction theorem then allows us to get  $S$ -matrix elements.

## The QED Vertex

To get the QED vertex, look at 3-point function

$$\langle 0 | T \{ \psi(x) \bar{\psi}(y) A^\mu(z) \} | 0 \rangle$$

$$= (-i)^3 \frac{\delta^3}{\delta J^\mu \delta \psi \delta \bar{\psi}} W_{QED}$$

$$= (-i)^4 \cdot (-iq) \int d^4 x' i S(x-x') \gamma^\nu i S(x'-y) i D_{\nu\mu}(x'-z)$$

$$= \text{Diagram: A wavy line representing a photon with index } \mu \text{ and position } z \text{ enters from the left. It meets a vertex at } x'. \text{ From this vertex, two fermion lines emerge: one going up and right to } x, \text{ and one going down and right to } y.$$

So, momentum-space vertex is

$$i\Gamma^\mu = -iq\gamma^\mu$$

$$= \text{Diagram: A wavy line representing a photon with index } \mu \text{ enters from the left. It meets a vertex. From this vertex, two fermion lines emerge: one going up and right, and one going down and right.$$

## Beyond QED

Quantum electrodynamics (QED) is our first example of a quantum gauge field theory. It is an Abelian gauge theory, with  $A_\mu$  being an element of  $u(1) \sim \mathbb{R}$ . Notice that we cannot add a polynomial potential  $V(\bar{\psi}\psi)$  if we desire a renormalizable theory.

Quantizing with  $\psi$  identified as  $e^-$  and  $e^+$  field with  $q = e < 0$ . QED, "the theory of photons and electrons," is the most accurate theory to date. The coupling  $-qA$  gives the correct gyromagnetic ratio for the electron. QED gives the usual Maxwell eqns., & predicts that the photon is massless. This all comes from imposing local gauge invariance.

We can extend QED to theory with more than one fermion species. Suppose we want  $e^-$ ,  $\mu^-$ ,  $\tau^-$ , so each species has field  $\psi_j$ ,  $j=1,2,3$ .

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} i \sum_j \bar{\psi}_j \gamma^\mu D_\mu \psi_j + \text{h.c.}$$

Can take this diagonal in  $j,k$  space.

$$- M_{jk} \bar{\psi}_j \psi_k - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu}$$

↑ Mass mixing term

$M_{jk} \bar{\psi}_j \psi_k$  form looks (possibly) like flavor oscillations, but in fact no flavor-changing mass terms are physical. To see this, define new fields

$$\begin{pmatrix} \psi_e \\ \psi_\mu \\ \psi_\tau \end{pmatrix} = U \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \\ \psi_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

↑ unitary matrix,  $U^\dagger U = \mathbb{1}$

and set

$$U^\dagger M U = \begin{pmatrix} m_e & & \\ & m_\mu & \\ & & m_\tau \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\psi}_j M_{jk} \psi_k \rightarrow \bar{\psi}_f [U^\dagger M U]_{f,f} \psi_f, \quad f=e,\mu,\tau$$

and  $[U^\dagger M U]_{f,f} = \delta_{f,f} m_f$

Diagonal mass term  
 $\Rightarrow$  No mixing!

For this to be true, need  $M$  Hermitian. T.D.,  
 $\mathcal{L}$  is Hermitian  $\Rightarrow \bar{\psi} M \psi$  is Hermitian

check:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\bar{\psi} M \psi)^\dagger &= (\psi^\dagger \gamma^0 M \psi)^\dagger \\
 &= \psi^\dagger M^\dagger \gamma^{0\dagger} \psi \\
 &= \psi^\dagger \gamma^0 M^\dagger \psi \\
 &= \bar{\psi} M^\dagger \psi \quad \Rightarrow \quad M^\dagger = M \quad \blacksquare
 \end{aligned}$$

Kinetic terms are unaffected since  $U^\dagger U = \mathbb{1}$

$\Rightarrow$  Can eliminate mass mixing terms as unphysical

So,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L} &= \frac{1}{2} i \sum_{f=e,\mu,\tau} \bar{\psi}_f \not{D} \psi_f + \text{h.c.} \\
 &\quad - \sum_{f=e,\mu,\tau} m_f \bar{\psi}_f \psi_f - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu}
 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that even though  $\mathcal{L}$  is diagonal in flavour,

there are still possible "flavour transitions", e.g.,

$$e^- e^+ \rightarrow \gamma^* \rightarrow \mu^- \mu^+$$

What we have is a simple overview of how gauge theory works. Why do we bother with such a theory? We have found that the interactions of the SM can be consistently described by such theories, and they are incredibly predictive and explain all\* the phenomena we observe.

We now explore QED consequences by examining selected processes.

\* Except gravity, Dark matter, universe expansion, ...