Quantum Field Theory - Lecture 1

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What is RFT?

• A mathematically consistent framework in which fields are understood as the basic degrees of freedom that participate in dynamical processes.

Why QFT?

- It is what we get when we try to combine QM with special relativity.
- It is highly successful in describing nature.
- · Specific QFTs, like QED, have made predictions that match experiment to shocking precision.
- The theoretically computed value of the anomalous magnetic moment of the electron matches the experimentally measured value to more than 10

Notation

We live in 4 dimensions and special relativity has taught us that space and time are not absolute but that spacetime is. The need to treat space and time in equal footing gives rise to the notion of a 4-vector, which is used to define events:  $x^{h} = (x^{0}, x^{i}) = (t, \vec{x})$ ,  $\mu = 0, 4, 2, 3$ , i = 4, 2, 3. Spacetime is Minkowskian with metric  $\eta_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(1, -1, -1, -1)$ and all observers agree on the Minkowski distance between events.

The dot product of two vectors is defined with respect to the Minkowski metric:

$$k \cdot x \equiv \eta_{\mu\nu} k^{\mu} x^{\nu} = k^{\circ} x^{\circ} - \sum_{i=1}^{3} k^{i} x^{i}$$

We can use the Minkowski metric to lower indices:  $\chi_{\mu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} \chi^{\nu} \Longrightarrow (\chi_{0}, \chi_{i}) = (\eta_{00} \chi^{0}, \eta_{ij} \chi^{j}) = (\chi^{0}, -\chi^{i}).$ The inverse metric,  $\eta^{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(4, -1, -1, -1)$  (so that  $\eta_{\mu\nu} \eta^{\nu l} = \delta_{\mu}^{l}$ ) can be used to raise indices:  $\chi^{\mu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} \chi_{\nu}.$ 

 $\frac{\text{Recap: classical mechanics}}{\text{Lagrangian mechanics}}$  The central object here is the Lagrangian  $\text{L} = L(q, \dot{q}, t).$ 

q: generalised coordinates, e.g. x, y, Z, r, D, p, ...  $\dot{q}$ :  $\dot{q} = dq/dt$ . The Lagrangian is typically given by L = T - V kinetic potential energy energy <u>Example</u>: SHO  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2$ ,  $V = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$  $L = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^{2} - \frac{1}{2}kx^{2}$ Equations of motion follow from principle of least action : S = 0,  $S = S(q) = \int_{t}^{t_2} dt L(q, \dot{q}, t)$ .  $\delta S = 0 \xrightarrow{q \to q + \delta q} \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{2L}{2q} \right) - \frac{2L}{2q} = 0$  $\frac{Example}{\sum} = SHO \quad \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} = m\dot{x}, \quad \frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = -kx$ E-L equations give  $m\ddot{x} + kx = 0$ which is Newton's 2nd law. • <u>Hamiltonian mechanics</u> As we just saw,  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}}$  = momentum. We may generalise this so that  $\frac{2L}{\partial \dot{q}}$  is a generalised momentum:  $p = \frac{2L}{2}$ . In Hamiltonian mechanics ve trade à for p:  $H(p,q,t) = p\dot{q} - L(q,\dot{q},t).$ 

Now the equations of notion follow from Hamilton's equations:  $\dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p}, \quad \dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q} \stackrel{\text{follows from}}{E-L equation}$  $\frac{Example: SH0}{H(p_1 \times , t)} = p\dot{x} - \frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2 + \frac{1}{2}Ex^2$  $= \frac{p^2}{m} - \frac{1}{2}m\frac{p^2}{m^2} + \frac{1}{2}Ex^2$  $= \frac{p^2}{m} - \frac{1}{2}m\frac{p^2}{m^2} + \frac{1}{2}Ex^2$  $\dot{x} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} = \frac{p}{m}$  $\dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = -Ex$ These imply  $\ddot{x} = \frac{\dot{P}}{m} = \frac{1}{m}(-Ex) \Rightarrow m\ddot{x} + Ex = 0.$ 

Summary  
Lagrangian 
$$L = L(q, \dot{q}, t) = T - V$$
 (usually)  
EOM:  $\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}}\right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} = 0.$ 

Hamiltonian 
$$H = H(p,q,t) = p\dot{q} - L(q,\dot{q},t)$$
  
with  $p = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}}$ .  
EOM:  $\dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p}$ ,  $\dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}$