

Recall that

$$\phi(t, \vec{x}) = \sqrt{\hbar c} \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_k}} (a(\vec{k}) e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega_k t)} + b(\vec{k})^\dagger e^{-i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega_k t)})$$

where  $\phi$  is our complex scalar field

*Dirac field:*

$$\psi(t, \vec{x}) = \sqrt{\hbar c} \int \frac{d^3 k}{\sqrt{2\omega_k}} (a^s(\vec{k}) u^s(k) e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega_k t)} + b^s(\vec{k})^\dagger v^s(k) e^{-i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega_k t)})$$

satisfies

$$(i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - \kappa)\psi = 0$$

for a Lagrangian density

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

Also recall that, for our complex scalar field, the following commutation relations hold

$$[\phi(0, \vec{x}), \pi(0, \vec{y})] = i\hbar \delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y}); \quad \text{analogous to } [q_j, p_l] = i\hbar \delta_{jl}$$

and that

$$[\phi(0, \vec{x}), \phi(0, \vec{y})] = [\pi(0, \vec{x}), \pi(0, \vec{y})] = 0$$

$$a(\vec{k}), a(\vec{k}')^\dagger = (2\pi)^3 \delta(\vec{k} - \vec{k}')$$

What's the importance of having particles and antiparticles?

The commutator of two Hermitian operators being zero in the linear algebra sense is that you can find a common eigenbasis that diagonalizes both of them. From a physical point of view, we can do observations of  $A$  and  $B$  simultaneously then the measurement of  $A$  does not influence the measurement of  $B$ .

Now then comes special relativity and says, “Wait a minute”, Everything that happens outside the causality (any point that is separated by a space-like separation) cannot be causally connected. A point that's below the  $x = ct$  line cannot be influenced by say, a point that is at the origin of the worldline.

Otherwise,  $\exists$  a frame where the cause happens outside the effect.

Which is why, if you look at  $[\phi(t, \vec{x}), \phi(t', \vec{y})] = 0$ , it's zero in the region  $(\vec{x} - \vec{y})^2 > (t - t')^2$ .

It's only zero because there's a cancellation in the commutator of the contribution from the particles and the antiparticles

The relativistic field theory is thus a construction which automatically satisfies the “marriage” of quantum mechanics and relativity. Constructing a  $\mathcal{L}$  that helps satisfy these conditions is otherwise

a very difficult task.

Now, while constructing a field theory for the electron, we couldn't impose the commutator relation because for describing fermions, what we *do* need to impose is an *anti-commutation* relation.

What happens if you impose a commutator? e.g. the Hamiltonian is no longer bounded from below. The lowest eigenvalue is not finite but is rather  $-\infty$ . That expresses the fact that you can't have a theory such as Dirac's theory which describes bosons. This is an illustration of the *spin-statistics theorem*

We want to describe the electron (spin-1/2 fermion)  $\rightarrow$  impose "equal-time" anticommutator relations:

$$\{\psi_a(0, \vec{x}), \underbrace{\pi_b(0, \vec{y})}_{\frac{i}{c}\psi_b^\dagger}\} = i\hbar\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y})$$

which immediately implies that

$$\{\psi_a(0, \vec{x}), \psi_b^\dagger(0, \vec{y})\} = \hbar c \delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y})$$

along with

$$\{\psi_a(0, \vec{x}), \psi_b(0, \vec{y})\} = 0$$

(and same for the complex conjugates).

What do these anticommutation relations imply for the  $a^s(\vec{k})$ ,  $b^s(\vec{k})$ ?

The outcome is

$$\{a^s(\vec{k}), a^{s'}(\vec{k}')\} = (2\pi)^3 \delta_{ss'} \delta^{(3)}(\vec{k} - \vec{k}')$$

The  $a$ 's and the  $b$ 's have 0 anticommutators

$$\{a^s(\vec{k}), b^{s'}(\vec{k}')\} = 0$$

regardless of whether either of these have a  $\dagger$  or not.

$$a^s(\vec{k})^\dagger b^s(\vec{k}')^\dagger |0\rangle = -b^{s'}(\vec{k}')^\dagger a^s(\vec{k})^\dagger |0\rangle$$

The Hilbert space in which these states live:

$$\mathcal{F}_-(\mathcal{H}_a) \otimes \mathcal{F}_-(\mathcal{H}_b)$$

with  $\mathcal{H}_a, \mathcal{H}_b$  being one particle Hilbert spaces e.g.  $L^2(\mathbb{R}^3) \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cdot \\ \vdots \\ \cdot \end{pmatrix} \quad \psi(0, \vec{x}) = \sqrt{\hbar c} \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_k}} \sum_{s=1,2} (a^s(\vec{k}) u_e^s(\vec{k}) + b^s(-\vec{k})^\dagger v_e^s(-\vec{k})) e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}}$$

(we're doing it for each component  $e$  of the spinors  $u$  and  $v$ )

similar for  $\psi^\dagger(0, \vec{y})$

$$\begin{aligned}
\{\psi_e(0, \vec{x}), \psi_f(0, \vec{y})\} &= \hbar c^2 \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_k}} \int \frac{d^3 q}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_q}} \sum_{r=1,2} \sum_{s=1,2} \left( (2\pi)^3 \delta(\vec{k} - \vec{q}) \delta^{rs} u_e^s(\vec{k}) u_f^r \dagger(\vec{q}) \right) \\
&= \hbar c^2 \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_k}} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{y})} \sum_{s=1,2} \left( u^s(\vec{k}) u^s(\vec{k})^\dagger + v^s(-\vec{k}) v^s(-\vec{k})^\dagger \right) \\
&= \hbar c^2 \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{y})} \underbrace{\sum_{s=1,2} \left( \underbrace{u^s(\vec{k}) \bar{u}^s(\vec{k})}_{\cancel{k^0 \gamma^0 - \vec{k} \cdot \vec{\gamma} + \kappa}} + \underbrace{v^s(-\vec{k}) \bar{v}^s(-\vec{k})}_{\cancel{k^0 \gamma^0 - \vec{k} \cdot \vec{\gamma} - \kappa}} \right)}_{2k^0 \delta^{ef} = 2 \frac{\omega_k}{c} \delta^{ef}} \\
&= \hbar c^2 \delta_{ef} \underbrace{\int \frac{d^3 \vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{y})}}_{\delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{y})}
\end{aligned}$$

The Hamiltonian

$$\begin{aligned}
H &= \int d^3 \vec{x} \bar{\psi}(\vec{x}) (-i \vec{\nabla}_x \cdot \vec{\gamma} + \kappa) \psi(\vec{x}) \\
&= \int d^3 \vec{x} \hbar c^2 \int \frac{d^3 q}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{2\omega_q}} e^{-i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{x}} \sum_{r=1,2} (a^r(\vec{q})^\dagger \bar{u}^r(\vec{q}) + b^r(-\vec{q}) \bar{v}^r(-\vec{q})) \\
&\quad \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3 \sqrt{(2\omega_k)}} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} (\vec{k} \cdot \vec{\gamma} + \kappa) \sum_{s=1,2} (a^s(\vec{k}) + u^s(\vec{k}) + b^s(-\vec{k}) v^s(-\vec{k})) \\
&= \hbar c^2 \int \frac{d^3 k}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k} \sum_{r,s} (a^r(\vec{k})^\dagger \bar{u}^r(\vec{k}) + b^r(-\vec{k}) \bar{v}^r(-\vec{k})) \underline{(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{\gamma} + \kappa)} (a^s(\vec{k}) u^s(\vec{k}) + b^s(-\vec{k})^\dagger v^s(-\vec{k}))
\end{aligned}$$

for the underlined part, recall that

$$(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{\gamma} + \kappa) u(k) = k^0 \gamma^0 u(\vec{k}) \implies (\not{k} - \kappa) u(\vec{k}) = 0$$

for particles; while for antiparticles

$$(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{\gamma} - \kappa) v(-\vec{k}) = -k^0 \gamma^0 v(\vec{k}) \implies (\not{k} + \kappa) v(\vec{k}) = 0$$