

### 3 Wave equations for particles with spin 1

The wave equations for the massless ( $m = 0$ ) spin-1 field are the Maxwell equations, and for the massive ( $m > 0$ ) spin-1 field the Proca equations.

#### 3.1 Maxwell equations (in vacuum)

The first set of Maxwell equations for the electric and magnetic fields is

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} + \dot{\vec{B}} &= 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} &= 0\end{aligned}\tag{3.1}$$

The second set of Maxwell equations is

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} - \dot{\vec{E}} &= 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} &= 0\end{aligned}\tag{3.2}$$

The 4-vector potential  $A^\mu = (\phi, \vec{A})$  is defined by the equations (see Sect. 10 or RQM1)

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}\phi - \dot{\vec{A}}, \quad \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}\tag{3.3}$$

Then the first set of equations (3.1) is satisfied automatically!

In order to express the equations (3.2) in terms of the vector potential, we use the field strength tensor  $F^{\mu\nu}$  defined by

$$F^{\mu\nu} = \partial^\mu A^\nu - \partial^\nu A^\mu\tag{3.4}$$

The components  $F^{\mu\nu}$  are related to the electric and magnetic fields by (see Eq.(3.3))

$$F^{i0} = -\nabla^i A^0 - \partial^0 A^i = E^i, \quad F^{ij} = \partial^i A^j - \partial^j A^i = -(\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A})^k = -B^k$$

[[ $(i, j, k)$  is a cyclic permutation of  $(1, 2, 3)$ .] Then the second set of Maxwell equations (3.2) can be expressed in the compact form

$$\partial_\nu F^{\nu\mu} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \square A^\mu - \partial^\mu (\partial \cdot A) = 0\tag{3.5}$$

because of:  $\partial_i F^{i0} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = 0$  and  $\partial_0 F^{0i} + \partial_j F^{ji} = 0 \Rightarrow -\dot{E}^i + (\nabla^j B^k - \nabla^k B^j) = 0$ , which gives  $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} - \dot{\vec{E}} = 0$ . One can choose a gauge ("Lorentz gauge") where  $\partial \cdot A = 0$ , then (3.5) simplifies to  $\square A^\mu = 0$ .

### 3.2 Massive spin-1 field equation (Proca equation)

If we add a “mass term” (similar to the Klein-Gordon equation)  $m^2 A^\mu$  to the Maxwell equation (3.5), we get the Proca equation

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_\nu F^{\nu\mu} + m^2 A^\mu &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \square A^\mu - \partial^\mu (\partial \cdot A) + m^2 A^\mu &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (3.6)$$

If we apply  $\partial_\mu$  to this equation, we get the relation  $\partial_\mu A^\mu = 0$ . For the massless case (Maxwell equation), this was only a choice of gauge, but for the massive case it must be satisfied. Therefore the Proca equations (3.6) are equivalent to the following set of equations:

$$(\square + m^2) A^\mu = 0 \quad (3.7)$$

$$\partial_\mu A^\mu = 0 \quad (3.8)$$

Relations like (3.8) are called constraints. Because of the constraint, there are three independent components (degrees of freedom) of the field  $A^\mu$ , namely 4 (components of  $A^\mu$ ) - 1 (constraint) = 3 (degrees of freedom), as it should be for a massive spin-1 particle: The component of the spin vector along the “spin quantization axis” (we will use the  $z$ -axis) has three possible values  $\lambda = -1, 0, +1$ .

Plane wave solutions of the Proca equation:

The solutions with definite momentum  $\vec{p}$  and spin component  $\lambda = -1, 0, +1$  are

$$A^\mu(x) = \varepsilon^\mu(\vec{p}, \lambda) e^{-i(Et - \vec{p} \cdot \vec{x})} \quad (3.9)$$

Here  $E = \pm \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2} = \pm E_p$  because of (3.7). Similar to the Klein-Gordon case, we call the solution with  $E = +E_p$  the “positive frequency solution”, and the other with  $E = -E_p$  the “negative frequency solution”. (We will show later that both solutions have positive energy.)  $\varepsilon^\mu(\vec{p}, \lambda)$  is the spin part of the wave function, called the “polarization 4-vector”, which must satisfy the constraint (from Eq.(3.8))

$$p_\mu \varepsilon^\mu(\vec{p}, \lambda) = 0 \quad (3.10)$$

(i) In the rest frame of the particle  $p_\mu = (m, \vec{0})$ , the polarization vector has the form

$$\varepsilon^\mu(\vec{p} = 0, \lambda) = (0, \vec{e}_\lambda) \quad (3.11)$$

Here the set of three vectors  $(\vec{\epsilon}_{-1}, \vec{\epsilon}_0, \vec{\epsilon}_1)$  is not determined by the Proca equation, but can be chosen as eigenvectors of the  $z$ -component of the spin operator ( $\hat{S}_3$ ) with eigenvalues  $-1, 0, +1$ . Here we use the following spin matrices  $\hat{S} = (\hat{S}_1, \hat{S}_2, \hat{S}_3)$  for a spin-1 particle (“adjoint representation”):  $(\hat{S}_i)_{jk} = -i\epsilon_{ijk}$ , which satisfy the commutation relations  $[\hat{S}_i, \hat{S}_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}\hat{S}_k$ . The explicit forms are

$$\hat{S}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{S}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -i & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{S}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.12)$$

The eigenvectors of  $\hat{S}_3$  with eigenvalues  $\lambda = -1, 0, +1$  are then obtained as

$$\vec{\epsilon}_{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -i, 0), \quad \vec{\epsilon}_0 = (0, 0, 1), \quad \vec{\epsilon}_{+1} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, i, 0) \quad (3.13)$$

They satisfy the orthogonality and completeness relations

$$\vec{\epsilon}_{\lambda'}^\dagger \cdot \vec{\epsilon}_\lambda = \delta_{\lambda'\lambda}, \quad \sum_\lambda \epsilon_\lambda^i \epsilon_\lambda^{j\dagger} = \delta_{ij} \quad (3.14)$$

(ii) In the frame where the particle has momentum  $\vec{p}$ , we must apply a Lorentz transformation with velocity  $\vec{v} = -\vec{p}/E_p$  to the 4-vectors (3.11):

$$\varepsilon^\mu(\vec{p}, \lambda) = \Lambda^\mu_\nu(\vec{v}) \varepsilon_\nu(\vec{p} = 0, \lambda) = \left( \frac{\vec{p} \cdot \vec{\epsilon}_\lambda}{m}, \vec{\epsilon}_\lambda + \frac{\vec{p}(\vec{p} \cdot \vec{\epsilon}_\lambda)}{m(E_p + m)} \right) \quad (3.15)$$

By construction, they satisfy the following relations (see (3.10) and (3.14)):

$$p_\mu \varepsilon^\mu(\vec{p}, s) = 0, \quad \varepsilon^{\mu*}(p, \lambda') \varepsilon_\mu(p, \lambda) = -\delta_{\lambda'\lambda}, \quad \varepsilon_\mu(\vec{p}, \lambda) = (-1)^\lambda \varepsilon_\mu^*(\vec{p}, -\lambda) \quad (3.16)$$

$$\sum_\lambda \varepsilon^{\mu*}(p, \lambda) \varepsilon^\nu(p, \lambda) = -g^{\mu\nu} + \frac{p^\mu p^\nu}{m^2} \quad (3.17)$$

### 3.3 Lagrangian and Hamiltonian for the Proca equation

The Proca equations (3.7), (3.8) follow from the following Lagrangian density:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} + \frac{m^2}{2} A_\mu A^\mu \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu A_\nu) (\partial^\mu A^\nu) + \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu A_\nu) (\partial^\nu A^\mu) + \frac{m^2}{2} A^2 \end{aligned} \quad (3.18)$$

Check this:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu A_\nu)} &= -\partial^\mu A^\nu + \partial^\nu A^\mu = -F^{\mu\nu} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial A_\nu} &= m^2 A^\nu\end{aligned}$$

and therefore the Euler-Lagrange equation for  $A^\nu$

$$\partial_\mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu A_\nu)} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial A_\nu}$$

becomes the Proca equation (3.6).

Using the definition of the field strength tensor (see Eq.(3.4)), the Lagrangian density (3.18) can be expressed as

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} (\vec{E}^2 - \vec{B}^2) + \frac{m^2}{2} (A_0^2 - \vec{A}^2) \quad (3.19)$$

where (see Eq.(3.3))

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} A_0 - \dot{\vec{A}}, \quad \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

The momenta conjugate to  $A_0$  and  $\vec{A}$  are then obtained as

$$\Pi^0 \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{A}_0} = 0, \quad \vec{\Pi} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{\vec{A}}} = -\vec{E} \quad (3.20)$$

Then the Hamiltonian density becomes

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{H} &= \Pi^0 \dot{A}_0 + \vec{\Pi} \cdot \dot{\vec{A}} - \mathcal{L} = -\vec{E} \cdot \dot{\vec{A}} - \mathcal{L} \\ &= (\vec{E} + \vec{\nabla} A_0) \cdot \dot{\vec{A}} - \frac{1}{2} (\vec{E}^2 - \vec{B}^2) - \frac{m^2}{2} (A_0^2 - \vec{A}^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\vec{E}^2 + \vec{B}^2 + m^2 \vec{A}^2) - \frac{m^2}{2} A_0^2 + \vec{E} \cdot \vec{\nabla} A_0\end{aligned} \quad (3.21)$$

The field  $A^0$  can be eliminated by using the Proca field equation (first equation in 3.6) for  $\mu = 0$ :

$$\partial_i F^{i0} + m^2 A^0 = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = -m^2 A^0 \quad (3.22)$$

Then the last term in (3.21) can be written in the form

$$\vec{E} \cdot \vec{\nabla} A_0 = \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{E} A_0) - A_0 (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}) = \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{E} A_0) + m^2 A_0^2$$

Finally, the Hamiltonian (3.21) becomes <sup>1</sup>

$$\mathcal{H} = \int d^3x \mathcal{H} = \frac{1}{2} \int d^3x \left[ \vec{E}^2 + \vec{B}^2 + m^2 (A_0^2 + \vec{A}^2) \right] \quad (3.23)$$

This is positive definite, and therefore there are no negative energies for the Proca field. The independent (dynamical) fields are  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{E}$ , while  $A_0$  and  $\vec{B}$  should be expressed as

$$A_0 = -\frac{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}}{m^2}, \quad \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$$

In quantum field theory, the fields  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{E}$  become the dynamical quantum fields.

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<sup>1</sup>The total derivative  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\vec{E} A_0)$  gives a surface term which vanishes after integration.