

Lecture 2: Axiomatic framework and QCD

- 2.1. Prove that the smeared fields transform under translation in the same way as local fields, i.e.

$$\phi^f(x+a) = e^{iPa} \phi^f(x) e^{-iPa}. \quad (1)$$

What happens under Lorentz transformation?

Solution: The smeared field at x is defined

$$\phi^f(x) = \int d^4y f(x-y) \phi(y). \quad (2)$$

So the smeared field at $x+a$ can be written

$$\phi^f(x+a) = \int d^4y f(x+a-y) \phi(y) \quad (3)$$

$$y' = y - a \implies = \int d^4y' f(x-y') \phi(y' + a). \quad (4)$$

Now consider the translation:

$$e^{iPa} \phi^f(x) e^{-iPa} = e^{iPa} \left(\int d^4y f(x-y) \phi(y) \right) e^{-iPa} \quad (5)$$

$$= \int d^4y f(x-y) e^{iPa} \phi(y) e^{-iPa} \quad (6)$$

$$= \int d^4y f(x-y) \phi(y+a) \quad (7)$$

$$= \phi^f(x+a). \quad (8)$$

Recalling that the Lorentz translation of the regular field is

$$U(\Lambda, a) \phi(x) U^{-1}(\Lambda, a) = R(\Lambda^{-1}) \phi(\Lambda x + a), \quad (9)$$

we consider the Lorentz transformation of the smeared field:

$$U(\Lambda, a) \phi^f(x) U^{-1}(\Lambda, a) = U(\Lambda, a) \left(\int d^4y f(x-y) \phi(y) \right) U^{-1}(\Lambda, a) \quad (10)$$

$$= \int d^4y f(x-y) U(\Lambda, a) \phi(y) U^{-1}(\Lambda, a) \quad (11)$$

$$= \int d^4y f(x-y) R(\Lambda^{-1}) \phi(\Lambda y + a) \quad (12)$$

$$= R(\Lambda^{-1}) \int d^4y f(x-y) \phi(\Lambda y + a) \quad (13)$$

$$y' = \Lambda y \implies = R(\Lambda^{-1}) \int d^4y' f(x - \Lambda^{-1}y') \phi(y') \quad (14)$$

$$= R(\Lambda^{-1}) \int d^4y' f_{\Lambda}(x - y') \phi(y') \quad (15)$$

$$= R(\Lambda^{-1}) \phi^{f_{\Lambda}}(x), \quad (16)$$

where we have transformed the test function $f \rightarrow f_{\Lambda}(x) = f(\Lambda^{-1}x)$. The smeared field transforms like a field at Λx with a transformed smearing profile.

2.2. Define the Fourier transform of a field operator $\phi(x)$ as

$$\tilde{\phi}(p) = \int d^4x e^{ipx} \phi(x). \quad (17)$$

Let $|p\rangle$ be an eigenstate of the four-momentum operator P_μ with eigenvalue p_μ . Prove that $\tilde{\phi}(q)|p\rangle$ and $\tilde{\phi}^\dagger(q)|p\rangle$ are eigenstates of P_μ and calculate the corresponding eigenvalues. Argue that $\tilde{\phi}^\dagger(q)$ and $\tilde{\phi}(q)$ act as creation and annihilation operators for the four momentum.

Solution: The momentum operator generates translations as

$$[P^\mu, \phi(x)] = -i\partial^\mu \phi(x), \quad (18)$$

which implies a commutator also exists for the Fourier-transformed field:

$$[P^\mu, \tilde{\phi}(q)] = \int d^4x e^{iqx} [P^\mu, \phi(x)] = -i \int d^4x e^{iqx} \partial^\mu \phi(x). \quad (19)$$

This can be evaluated using IBP:

$$[P^\mu, \tilde{\phi}(q)] = -i \left(- \int d^4x (\partial^\mu e^{iqx}) \phi(x) \right) \quad (20)$$

$$= i \int d^4x i q^\mu e^{iqx} \phi(x) \quad (21)$$

$$= -q^\mu \tilde{\phi}(q). \quad (22)$$

So then we can consider

$$P^\mu (\tilde{\phi}(q)|p\rangle) = (P^\mu \tilde{\phi}(q)) |p\rangle \quad (23)$$

$$= (\tilde{\phi}(q) P^\mu + [P^\mu, \tilde{\phi}(q)]) |p\rangle \quad (24)$$

$$= \tilde{\phi}(q) P^\mu |p\rangle + [P^\mu, \tilde{\phi}(q)] |p\rangle \quad (25)$$

$$= p^\mu \tilde{\phi}(q) |p\rangle - q^\mu \tilde{\phi}(q) |p\rangle \quad (26)$$

$$= (p^\mu - q^\mu) \tilde{\phi}(q) |p\rangle. \quad (27)$$

Similarly, with the commutator

$$[P^\mu, \phi^\dagger(x)] = i\partial_\mu \phi^\dagger(x) \implies [P^\mu, \tilde{\phi}^\dagger(q)] = q^\mu \tilde{\phi}^\dagger(q). \quad (28)$$

Then,

$$P^\mu (\tilde{\phi}^\dagger(q)|p\rangle) = (p^\mu + q^\mu) \tilde{\phi}^\dagger(q) |p\rangle. \quad (29)$$

So $\tilde{\phi}^\dagger(q)$ and $\tilde{\phi}(q)$ act as creation and annihilation operators on the four-momentum by injecting or removing momentum from the state.

2.3. Consider two observables A and B which, for simplicity, are assumed to have only discrete non-degenerate eigenvalues. Denote by a_n and b_m the eigenvalues of A and B , respectively, and by $|a_n\rangle$ and $|b_m\rangle$ the corresponding eigenstates. Consider a generic normalised state $|\psi\rangle$. We imagine two different measurement protocols:

1. We measure A on the state $|\psi\rangle$ first, and then B ;

2. We measure B on the state $|\psi\rangle$ first, and then A .

Recall that the state changes as a consequence of the measurement procedure. Let $p_{n,m}$ (resp. $q_{n,m}$) be the probability of obtaining a_n as the result of the measurement of A and b_m as the result of the measurement of B in the first (resp. second) protocol. Write a formula for $p_{n,m}$ and $q_{n,m}$ in terms of the eigenstates $|a_n\rangle$ and $|b_m\rangle$ and the state $|\psi\rangle$. Show that the order in which the observables are measured does not matter (for any state $|\psi\rangle$) if and only if the two observables commute.

Solution: Let's look at the two protocols separately:

1. First, measure A . The probability of outcome a_n is

$$P(a_n) = |\langle a_n | \psi \rangle|^2, \quad (30)$$

and the post-measurement state collapses to $|a_n\rangle$. Now, measure B on $|a_n\rangle$. The probability of outcome b_m is

$$P(b_m | a_n) = |\langle b_m | a_n \rangle|^2. \quad (31)$$

The total joint probability is then

$$p_{n,m} = P(a_n)P(b_m | a_n) = |\langle a_n | \psi \rangle|^2 \cdot |\langle b_m | a_n \rangle|^2. \quad (32)$$

2. First, measure B . The probability of outcome b_m is

$$P(b_m) = |\langle b_m | \psi \rangle|^2, \quad (33)$$

and the post-measurement state collapses to $|b_m\rangle$. Now, measure A on $|b_m\rangle$. The probability of outcome a_n is

$$P(a_n | b_m) = |\langle a_n | b_m \rangle|^2. \quad (34)$$

The total joint probability is then

$$q_{n,m} = P(b_m)P(a_n | b_m) = |\langle b_m | \psi \rangle|^2 \cdot |\langle a_n | b_m \rangle|^2. \quad (35)$$

Now let's show that these are equivalent if A and B commute. If $[A, B] = 0$, then there exists a common orthonormal basis $\{|c_k\rangle\}$ such that

$$A|c_k\rangle = a_k|c_k\rangle, \quad B|c_k\rangle = b_k|c_k\rangle \implies |a_n\rangle = |b_m\rangle \text{ if } a_n = a_m \text{ etc.} \quad (36)$$

Therefore, $\langle a_n | b_m \rangle = \delta_{nm}$ and then the probabilities are

$$p_{n,m} = |\langle a_n | \psi \rangle|^2 \cdot \delta_{n,m}, \quad (37)$$

$$q_{n,m} = |\langle b_m | \psi \rangle|^2 \cdot \delta_{n,m} = |\langle a_n | \psi \rangle|^2 \cdot \delta_{n,m}. \quad (38)$$

So $p_{n,m} = q_{n,m}$ if $[A, B] = 0$.

Now the **only if**: Suppose $p_{n,m} = q_{n,m}$ for all normalised states $|\psi\rangle$, then

$$|\langle a_n | \psi \rangle|^2 \cdot |\langle b_m | a_n \rangle|^2 = |\langle b_m | \psi \rangle|^2 \cdot |\langle a_n | b_m \rangle|^2. \quad (39)$$

Choose for example $|\psi\rangle = |a_k\rangle$, then find

$$\delta_{nk} \cdot |\langle b_m | a_n \rangle|^2 = |\langle b_m | a_k \rangle| \cdot |\langle a_n | b_m \rangle|^2. \quad (40)$$

If we assume $|\langle b_m | a_k \rangle|^2 \neq 0$, then we find

$$\delta_{nk} = |\langle a_n | b_m \rangle|^2. \quad (41)$$

Or otherwise,

$$|\langle a_n | b_m \rangle|^2 = \delta_{n,f(m)}, \quad (42)$$

for some unique mapping $f(m) \rightarrow n$.

2.4. In the free scalar case, prove the formulae:

$$\langle \Omega | T \{ \phi(x) \phi(0) \} | \Omega \rangle = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{i e^{-ip \cdot x}}{p^2 - m^2 + i\epsilon}, \quad (43)$$

$$\langle \Omega | \phi(x) \phi(0) | \Omega \rangle = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} \theta(p_0) 2\pi \delta(p^2 - m^2) e^{-ip \cdot x}. \quad (44)$$

Solution:

- First, we will compute eq. (44). The scalar field operator has the expansion

$$\phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 2E(\mathbf{p})} [a(\mathbf{p}) e^{-ip \cdot x} + a^\dagger(\mathbf{p}) e^{ip \cdot x}]. \quad (45)$$

We insert this into eq. (44), finding

$$\langle \Omega | \phi(x) \phi(0) | \Omega \rangle = \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 2E(\mathbf{p})} \frac{d^3 q}{(2\pi)^3 2E(\mathbf{q})} \langle \Omega | [a(\mathbf{p}) e^{-ip \cdot x} + a^\dagger(\mathbf{p}) e^{ip \cdot x}] [a(\mathbf{q}) + a^\dagger(\mathbf{q})] | \Omega \rangle \quad (46)$$

The only non-zero contribution comes from

$$\langle \Omega | a(\mathbf{p}) a^\dagger(\mathbf{q}) | \Omega \rangle = 2E(\mathbf{p}) (2\pi)^3 \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{q}), \quad (47)$$

leading to

$$\langle \Omega | \phi(x) \phi(0) | \Omega \rangle = \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 2E(\mathbf{p})} e^{-ip \cdot x}. \quad (48)$$

This is the standard result of the Wightman function in terms of a 3-momentum integral, but now we want to express this as a 4-momentum integral. We require:

- ➡ a delta function $\delta(p^2 - m^2)$ to enforce the mass-shell condition $p^0 = \pm \sqrt{p^2 + m^2}$;
- ➡ a $\theta(p_0)$ to pick out the positive frequency $p_0 > 0$;
- ➡ the Jacobian of the delta function integral yields

$$\int d^4 p \delta(p^2 - m^2) \theta(p_0) f(p) = \int \frac{d^3 p}{2E(\mathbf{p})} f(E(\mathbf{p}), p). \quad (49)$$

So now we can write the 4-momentum integral as

$$\langle \Omega | \phi(x) \phi(0) | \Omega \rangle = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} \theta(p_0) 2\pi \delta(p^2 - m^2) e^{-ip \cdot x}. \quad (50)$$

- Now for eq. (43), we want to compute the Feynman propagator in position space,

$$i\Delta_F(x) = \langle \Omega | T \{ \phi(x) \phi(0) \} | \Omega \rangle. \quad (51)$$

The time-ordered product $T \{ \phi(x) \phi(0) \}$ is defined

$$T \{ \phi(x) \phi(0) \} = \begin{cases} \phi(x) \phi(0), & \text{if } x^0 > 0, \\ \phi(0) \phi(x), & \text{if } x^0 < 0, \end{cases} \quad (52)$$

so the VEV of this is

$$\langle \Omega | T \{ \phi(x) \phi(0) \} | \Omega \rangle = \theta(x_0) \langle \Omega | \phi(x) \phi(0) | \Omega \rangle + \theta(-x_0) \langle \Omega | \phi(0) \phi(x) | \Omega \rangle. \quad (53)$$

We know from the 3-momentum Wightman function above that

$$\langle \Omega | \phi(x) \phi(0) | \Omega \rangle = \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 2E(\mathbf{p})} e^{-ip \cdot x}, \quad (54)$$

$$\langle \Omega | \phi(0) \phi(x) | \Omega \rangle = \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 2E(\mathbf{p})} e^{ip \cdot x}, \quad (55)$$

and so the time-ordered expression is

$$\langle \Omega | T \{ \phi(x) \phi(0) \} | \Omega \rangle = \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3 2E(\mathbf{p})} [\theta(x_0) e^{-ip \cdot x} + \theta(-x_0) e^{ip \cdot x}]. \quad (56)$$

Again, we want to rewrite this as a 4-momentum integral. If we consider the p_0 integral of eq. (43) explicitly,

$$\int \frac{dp_0}{2\pi} \frac{e^{-ip_0 x_0}}{(p_0)^2 - E(\mathbf{p})^2 + i\epsilon}. \quad (57)$$

This integral can be done via contour integration with poles at $p_0 = \pm E(\mathbf{p}) \mp i\epsilon$. By closing the contour:

- ➡ If $x^0 > 0$, we close in the lower half-plane and pick up $p^0 = E(\mathbf{p}) - i\epsilon$;
- ➡ If $x^0 < 0$, we close in the upper half-plane and pick up $p^0 = -E(\mathbf{p}) + i\epsilon$.

The residues give

$$\int \frac{dp_0}{2\pi} \frac{e^{-ip_0 x_0}}{(p_0)^2 - E(\mathbf{p})^2 + i\epsilon} = \frac{1}{2E(\mathbf{p})} [\theta(x_0) e^{-iE(\mathbf{p})x_0} + \theta(-x_0) e^{iE(\mathbf{p})x_0}] \quad (58)$$

and then reincluding the 3-momentum integral, this will return us to eq. (56). Thus, eq. (56) is equivalent to eq. (43).

2.5. In operatorial formalism and temporal gauge ($A_0 = 0$), QCD can be described in terms of the following fundamental fields in the Schrödinger picture:

- the gluon field $A_k(x) = \sum_a A_k^a(x) T^a$, where $k = 1, 2, 3$ is the spatial index, $a = 1, \dots, 8$ is the colour index, and T^a are the generators the gauge group SU(3 with the normalisation $\text{tr}(T^a T^b) = \frac{1}{2} \delta^{ab}$; for instance, one can choose $T^a = \lambda^a/2$ where λ^a are the Gell-Mann matrices;
- the chromoelectric field $E_k(x) = \sum_a E_k^a(x) T^a$, with the same conventions as for the gluon field;
- the quark fields $\psi_{\alpha if}(x)$, where $\alpha = 1, 2, 3, 4$ is the Dirac spinor index, $i = 1, 2, 3$ is the colour index and $f = u, d$ is the flavour index.

The fundamental fields satisfy canonical equal-time (anti-)commutation relations:

$$[A_j^a(x), E_k^b(y)] = i \delta_{jk} \delta^{ab} \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}), \quad (59)$$

$$\{\psi_f(x), \psi_g^\dagger(y)\} = I_{12 \times 12} \delta_{fg} \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}). \quad (60)$$

Consider the operator

$$G(x) = \sum_a G^a(x) \lambda^a, \quad (61)$$

$$G^a(x) = D_k E_k^a(x) + \sum_f \psi_f^\dagger(x) T^a \psi_f(x), \quad (62)$$

and its smeared version

$$G(\omega) = 2 \int d^3x \operatorname{tr}[\omega(x) G(x)], \quad (63)$$

where $\omega(x) = \sum_a \omega^a(x) T^a$ is a test function which is smooth and vanishes at infinity. Notice that we smear here only in space, not in time.

Calculate the commutators of $G(\omega)$ with the fundamental fields $A_k^a(x)$, $E_k^a(x)$, and $\psi_f(x)$. Argue that $G(x)$ can be interpreted as the generator of gauge transformations and that physical states must satisfy the condition $G(x)|\Psi\rangle = 0$.

Solution: First, we will rewrite $G(\omega)$ by propagating $\omega^a(x)$ through the expression for $G^a(x)$:

$$G(\omega) = \int d^3x \left\{ -E_k^a(x) (D_k \omega(x))^a + \sum_f \psi_f^\dagger(x) \omega(x) \psi_f(x) \right\}, \quad (64)$$

where we have reordered the derivative on the gauge field part using IBP and vanishing boundary terms.

- Commutator with $A_j^b(y)$. Since $A_j^b(y)$ commutes with the fermion fields ψ , we are only concerned with the gauge field part of $G(\omega)$:

$$[G(\omega), A_j^b(y)] = - \int d^3x [E_k^a(x), A_j^b(y)] (D_k \omega(x))^a = i D_j \omega^b(y), \quad (65)$$

where we have used eq. (59). Note that this is exactly how the gauge field transforms under an infinitesimal gauge transformation, $\delta_w A_j^b = D_j \omega^b$.

- Commutator with $E_j^b(y)$. Again, $E_j^b(y)$ commutes with the fermion fields, and also with itself, and so naively it would be 0. However, we should realise that $E_j^b(x)$ does not commute with $A_i^c(y)$ and so we should expand the covariant derivative, $(D_k E^k)^a = \partial_k E^{k,a} + f^{abc} A_i^b E^{i,c}$:

$$[G(\omega), E_j^d(y)] = \int d^3x \omega^a(x) g f^{abc} [A_i^b(x) E^{i,c}(x), E_j^d(y)] \quad (66)$$

$$= i \int d^3x \omega^a(x) f^{abc} \delta^{bd} \delta_{ij} \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) E^{i,c}(x) \quad (67)$$

$$= i f^{abc} \omega^a(y) E^{j,c}(y). \quad (68)$$

This again represents an infinitesimal gauge transformation in the adjoint representation.

- Commutator with $\psi_f(y)$. First we can recognise that the quark field fully commutes with the gauge field part of $G(\omega)$, so we are left with

$$[G(\omega), \psi_f(x)] = \int d^3y \omega^a(y) [\psi_g^\dagger(y) T^a \psi_g(y), \psi_f(x)] \quad (69)$$

. Using the identity

$$[\psi_g^\dagger(y)T^a\psi_g(y), \psi_{\beta,f}(x)] = -\delta_{fg}T_{\beta\gamma}^a\delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})\psi_{\gamma,g}(y), \quad (70)$$

we find

$$[G(\omega), \psi_{\beta,f}(x)] = -\int d^3y \omega^a(y)\delta_{fg}T_{\beta\gamma}^a\delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})\psi_{\gamma,g}(y) \quad (71)$$

$$= -\omega^a(x)\lambda_{\beta\gamma}^a\psi_{\gamma,f}(x) \quad (72)$$

$$= -\omega(x)\psi(x). \quad (73)$$

This is the infinitesimal gauge transformation of $\psi(x)$ in the fundamental representation.

So we see that for all three cases, $G^a(x)$ generates gauge transformation. However, gauge transformations are not physical symmetries and therefore physical states must be invariant under gauge transformations. In order for this to be true, then

$$G(x)|\Psi\rangle = 0, \quad (74)$$

$$G(\omega)|\Psi\rangle = 0. \quad (75)$$

This is analagous to Gauss' law in QED.

2.6. With the notation of the previous problem, the Hamiltonian of QCD in the temporal gauge ($A_0 = 0$) reads

$$\mathcal{H} = \int d^3x \left\{ g^2 \text{tr} E_k^2(x) + \frac{1}{2g^2} \text{tr} F_{jk}^2(x) + \sum_f \bar{\psi}_f(-i\gamma_k D_k - m_f)\psi_f(x) + \epsilon_0 \right\}, \quad (76)$$

with the following definitions:

$$F_{jk} = \partial_j A_k - \partial_k A_j + i[A_j, A_k], \quad (77)$$

$$D_k = \partial_k + iA_k, \quad (78)$$

$$\bar{\psi}_f(x) = \psi_f^\dagger(x)\gamma^0. \quad (79)$$

The additive constant ϵ_0 is chosen in such a way that the vacuum has zero energy.

Show that $[G(x), \mathcal{H}] = 0$, i.e. the Hamiltonian is invariant under gauge transformations.

Solution: The Hamiltonian is constructed entirely from gauge-invariant quantities such as $\text{tr} E^2$, $\text{tr} F^2$, $\bar{\psi}\psi$, and therefore any gauge transformation must leave \mathcal{H} invariant by definition.

An alternative argument is using Heisenberg evolution. Physically, this means that Gauss' law is preserved in time. If $|\Psi(t)\rangle$ satisfies $G^a(x)|\Psi(t)\rangle = 0$ at time $t = 0$, then

$$\frac{d}{dt}G^a(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{i}{\hbar}[\mathcal{H}, G^a(\mathbf{x}, t)] = 0 \implies G^a(\mathbf{x}, t) = G^a(\mathbf{x}, 0). \quad (80)$$

So the constraint is consistent with Hamiltonian evolution, it doesn't break from the dynamics.

2.7. With the notation of the previous two problems, consider the operators

$$Q_f = \int d^3x \psi_f^\dagger(x) \psi_f(x), \quad (81)$$

$$U_f(\alpha) = e^{-i\alpha Q_f}. \quad (82)$$

a) Calculate the commutators of Q_f with the fundamental fields $A_k^a(x)$, $E_k^a(x)$, $\psi_g(x)$, and $\psi_g^\dagger(x)$.

b) Calculate

$$U_f(\alpha) A_k^a(x) U_f^\dagger(\alpha), \quad U_f(\alpha) E_k^a(x) U_f^\dagger(\alpha), \quad U_f(\alpha) \psi_g(x) U_f^\dagger(\alpha), \quad U_f(\alpha) \psi_g^\dagger(x) U_f^\dagger(\alpha).$$

c) If P is a generic product of the fundamental fields and their derivatives, relate $[Q_f, P]$ to the number of quark fields of flavour f appearing in the operator P . The operators Q_u and Q_d are called *up-quark number* and *down-quark number* respectively.

d) Show that the Hamiltonian commutes with Q_f . Notice that this implies that $U_f(\alpha)$ is a symmetry of the theory and the corresponding generators Q_f are conserved charges. We say that the *up-quark number* and *down-quark number* are conserved in QCD.

e) Write the baryon-number and electric-charge operators in terms of Q_u and Q_d .

Solution:

a) The gluon $A_k^a(x)$ and chromoelectric $E_k^a(x)$ fields commute with the quark fields and therefore commute with Q_f :

$$[Q_f, A_k^a(x)] = 0, \quad (83)$$

$$[Q_f, E_k^a(x)] = 0. \quad (84)$$

With the anti-commutation relations of quark fields,

$$\{\psi_f(x), \psi_g(y)\} = 0, \quad (85)$$

$$\{\psi_f^\dagger(x), \psi_g(y)\} = -\delta_{fg} \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}), \quad (86)$$

we now compute

$$[Q_f, \psi_g(y)] = \int d^3x \left[\psi_f^\dagger(x) \psi_f(x), \psi_g(y) \right] \quad (87)$$

$$= \int d^3x \left\{ \psi_f^\dagger(x) [\cancel{\psi_f(x)}, \psi_g(y)] + [\psi_f^\dagger(x), \psi_g(y)] \psi_f(x) \right\} \quad (88)$$

$$= - \int d^3x \delta_{fg} \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) \psi_f(x) \quad (89)$$

$$[Q_f, \psi_g(y)] = -\delta_{fg} \psi_g(y), \quad (90)$$

and similarly

$$[Q_f, \psi_g^\dagger(y)] = +\delta_{fg} \psi_g^\dagger(y). \quad (91)$$

b) Using the BCH formula, we can write

$$U_f X U_f^\dagger = e^{-i\alpha Q_f} X e^{i\alpha Q_f} = e^{-i\alpha [Q_f, \cdot]} X, \quad X \in \{A_k^a(x), E_k^a(x), \psi_g(x), \psi_g^\dagger(x)\}. \quad (92)$$

Since the gluon and chromoelectric fields commute with Q_f , we can see that they are left invariant under U_f :

$$U_f(\alpha)A_k^a(x)U_f^\dagger(\alpha) = A_k^a(x), \quad (93)$$

$$U_f(\alpha)E_k^a(x)U_f^\dagger(\alpha) = E_k^a(x). \quad (94)$$

With the results in eqs. (90) and (91), we can see that the quark fields $\psi_g(x)$ and $\psi_g^\dagger(x)$ will not be invariant under U_f :

$$U_f(\alpha)\psi_g(x)U_f^\dagger(\alpha) = e^{i\alpha\delta_{fg}}\psi_g(x), \quad (95)$$

$$U_f(\alpha)\psi_g^\dagger(x)U_f^\dagger(\alpha) = e^{-i\alpha\delta_{fg}}\psi_g^\dagger(x). \quad (96)$$

c) We recall the Leibniz rule

$$[Q_f, AB] = [Q_f, A]B + A[Q_f, B] \quad (97)$$

which can be performed recursively so it is sufficient to know how Q_f commutes with elementary fields to know how it commutes with a generic product P . As well as the commutators calculated above, we will need that derivatives commute with Q_f , i.e.

$$[Q_f, \partial_\mu\psi_f] = \partial_\mu[Q_f, \psi_f] = -\partial_\mu\psi_f. \quad (98)$$

Let P be a product of fields and derivatives, so it contains n_f factors of ψ_f and m_f factors of ψ_f^\dagger . Each ψ_f contributes -1 and each ψ_f^\dagger contributes $+1$ to the commutator, and therefore

$$[Q_f, P] = (m_f - n_f)P. \quad (99)$$

d) Recall the Hamiltonian defined in eq. (76). We can calculate $[Q_f, \mathcal{H}]$ term-by-term. The gauge field terms clearly commute with Q_f , i.e.

$$[Q_f, E^2(x)] = 0, \quad (100)$$

$$[Q_f, F_{jk}^2(x)] = 0. \quad (101)$$

The quark kinetic term commutes as

$$[Q_f, \psi_g^\dagger D_j \psi_g] = [Q_f, \psi_g^\dagger] D_j \psi_g + \psi_g^\dagger D_j [Q_f, \psi_g] = \delta_{fg} (\cancel{\psi_g^\dagger D_j \psi_g} - \cancel{\psi_g^\dagger D_j \psi_g}) = 0. \quad (102)$$

The quark mass term commutes as

$$[Q_f, \psi_g^\dagger m_g \psi_g] = [Q_f, \psi_g^\dagger] m_g \psi_g + m_g \psi_g^\dagger [Q_f, \psi_g] = \delta_{fg} (\cancel{\psi_g^\dagger m_g \psi_g} - \cancel{\psi_g^\dagger m_g \psi_g}) = 0. \quad (103)$$

Therefore,

$$[Q_f, \mathcal{H}] = 0. \quad (104)$$

e) Each (anti-)quark carries a baryon number $(-)\frac{1}{3}$, so the total baryon number is

$$B = \frac{1}{3} \sum_f Q_f. \quad (105)$$

Up-type quarks have electric charge $+\frac{2}{3}$ and down-type quarks have electric charge $-\frac{1}{3}$, so the electric-charge operator is

$$Q = \frac{2}{3}Q_u - \frac{1}{3}Q_d. \quad (106)$$