Gauss Linking Number and 
Electro-magnetic Uncertainty Principle

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Abstract

It is shown that there is a precise sense in which the Heisenberg uncertainty between fluxes of electric and magnetic fields through finite surfaces is given by (one-half $\hbar$ times) the Gauss linking number of the loops that bound these surfaces. To regularize the relevant operators, one is naturally led to assign a framing to each loop. The uncertainty between the fluxes of electric and magnetic fields through a single surface is then given by the self-linking number of the framed loop which bounds the surface.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In 1833, Gauss noticed a striking fact about electro-magnetism. He considered a loop \( L_1 \) carrying a constant current \( I \) and computed the work \( W \) done in moving a magnetic monopole of strength \( m \) along a closed path \( L_2 \) in the magnetic field produced by the current:

\[
W = \frac{mI}{4\pi} \oint_{L_1} ds \oint_{L_2} dt \epsilon_{abc} \dot{L}_1^a(s) \dot{L}_2^b(t) \frac{L_1^c(s) - L_2^c(t)}{|L_1(s) - L_2(t)|^3}.
\] (1.1)

He then made a deep observation which can be stated in the modern mathematical terminology as follows: although the double integral

\[
G(L_1, L_2) := \frac{1}{mI} W
\] (1.2)

makes use of Euclidean geometry in several ways, its value is in fact a topological invariant, a measure of the linking between the loops \( L_1 \) and \( L_2 \). In particular, even if one deforms the loops, the value of the double integral does not change so long as the loops do not touch or cross each other. This is a remarkable property and Gauss expressed the belief that the quantity \( G(L_1, L_2) \) may have a fundamental significance. The view was shared by others. In particular, in his celebrated treatise on electricity and magnetism, Maxwell returns to this property and further elaborates on it.

It turns out that the double integral \( G(L_1, L_2) \) does have a fundamental significance in electro-magnetism, which however, could not have been guessed before the advent of quantum field theory. To see this, consider source-free Maxwell theory (in Minkowski space-time). In the Hamiltonian treatment, the vector potential \( A_a(\bar{x}) \) and the electric field \( E^a(\bar{x}) \) (on a constant time hyper-plane) serve as the basic canonically conjugate fields with the Poisson bracket relations:

\[
\{A_a(\bar{x}), E^b(\bar{y})\} = \delta^b_a \delta^3(\bar{x}, \bar{y}).
\] (1.3)

(Throughout this paper, curly brackets will denote Poisson brackets.) The vector potential itself is not an observable since it fails to be gauge invariant. However, we can integrate it over a closed loop \( \alpha \) to obtain a gauge invariant functional:

\[
B[\alpha] := \oint_{\alpha} A_a d\ell^a \equiv \int_{S_\alpha} B^a d^2 S_a
\] (1.4)

where \( S_\alpha \) is any 2-surface bounded by the loop \( \alpha \). Similarly, given any 2-surface \( S_\beta \) bounded by a closed loop \( \beta \) we can define the flux of the electric field:

\[
E[\beta] := \int_{S_\beta} E^a d^2 S_a
\] (1.5)

which depends only on the loop \( \beta \) (and not on the specific surface \( S_\beta \) with boundary \( \beta \)) because \( E^a \) is divergence-free. The observables \( B[\alpha] \) and \( E[\beta] \) are (over)complete in the sense that their values at a point \( (B^a, E^a) \) of the physical phase space suffice to determine that point uniquely.
It is straightforward to compute the Poisson brackets between these observables if $\alpha$ and $\beta$ have no point in common. The result is:

$$\{B[\alpha], E[\beta]\} = \oint_{\alpha} d\ell^a (\bar{x}) \int_{S_\beta} d^2 S_a (\bar{y}) \delta^3 (\bar{x}, \bar{y})$$

$$= I(\alpha, S_\beta)$$

(1.6)

where $I(\alpha, S_\beta)$ denotes the oriented intersection number between the loop $\alpha$ and the surface $S_\beta$. But, as a geometrical picture makes it clear (see figure 1), this intersection number is precisely the linking number between loops $\alpha$ and $\beta$. (An analytic calculation showing the equality of $I(\alpha, S_\beta)$ with $GL(\alpha, \beta)$ is given in the Appendix.) Thus, we have:

$$\{B[\alpha], E[\beta]\} = GL(\alpha, \beta)$$

(1.7)

The fact that the Poisson bracket is metric independent may seem surprising at first. But note that, since the vector potential $A_a$ is a 1-form and the electric field $E^a$ (being canonically conjugate to $A_a$) is naturally a vector density of weight one, neither the symplectic structure (1.3) nor the definitions of the observables $E[\alpha]$, $B[\beta]$ require a metric (or any other background field) for their definitions. Hence, if well-defined, the right side of (1.7) has to be a topological invariant of loops labeling the observables.

Fig. 1 The Gauss linking number $GL(\alpha, \beta)$ equals the oriented intersection number $I(\alpha, S_\beta)$. In the case (a) this number is 1 and in (b) it is 0.

Let us pass to the quantum theory heuristically. One would expect that (if $\alpha$ and $\beta$ have no point in common), the commutator between the magnetic and electric flux operators would be given by:

$$\left[ \hat{B}[\alpha], \hat{E}[\beta] \right] = i\hbar GL(\alpha, \beta)$$

(1.8)

and hence the Heisenberg uncertainties should satisfy:

$$\langle \Delta \hat{B}[\alpha] \rangle \langle \Delta \hat{E}[\beta] \rangle \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} GL(\alpha, \beta).$$

(1.9)

This implies that there is an intrinsic uncertainty in the simultaneous measurements of fluxes of electric and magnetic fields across finite surfaces if the Gauss linking numbers of the loops
bounding the two surfaces is not zero (see figure 2). In this sense, as suspected by Gauss
and others, the linking number does have a fundamental significance in electro-magnetism.

Fig. 2 The (absolute value of the) Gauss linking number between loops \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) is 1. In this case, the Heisenberg uncertainty between the magnetic flux through the surface \( S_\alpha \) and the electric flux through \( S_\beta \) is \( \frac{\hbar}{2} \).

A number of questions arise immediately. Can one make these quantum considerations precise? If the quantization is based on the algebra of operators generated by \( \hat{B}[\alpha] \) and \( \hat{E}[\beta] \), the answer is clearly in the affirmative. However, in such representations, the Maxwell Hamiltonian operator fails to be well-defined. In the standard Fock representation where the Hamiltonian is well-defined, operators \( \hat{E}[\alpha] \) and \( \hat{B}[\beta] \) fail to be well-defined! (See, e.g., [5].) Can one nonetheless give meaning to the topological uncertainty relations (1.9) in the Fock representation in a suitable limiting sense? Secondly, the uncertainty relation given above fails to be meaningful if the loops \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) coincide. However, it is known that the Gauss self-linking number of a loop is well-defined if the loop is framed [3]. Is there perhaps a framing that is naturally introduced in the process of regularization of the operators in question? If so, can one give meaning to the commutator of \( \hat{B}[\alpha] \) and \( \hat{E}[\alpha] \)?

The purpose of this note is to analyze these issues. We will find that the specific questions raised here can be answered affirmatively.

In Sec. II, we will consider the Fock space of photons and show that suitably ‘thickened’, regulated versions of the above ‘flux operators’ are indeed well-defined on the Fock space. This will enable us to regard \( \hat{B}[\alpha] \), and \( \hat{E}[\beta] \) as certain limits of well-defined operators. We will see that the commutation relations (1.8) also holds in a limiting sense. In this limit, the thickening of surfaces goes to zero. However, the loop that bounds the limiting surface carries the ‘memory’ of the thickening in the form of a framing. We will see in Sec. III that the limits of the commutators of the regulated flux operators are functionals of these framed loops. In particular, the framing enables one to evaluate the (limits of) commutators without ambiguities even when the loops intersect and overlap. We should emphasize however that the level of rigor in this note is that generally used in theoretical physics rather than mathematical physics.

We will conclude this section with a few remarks.

i) One often defines dimension-less observables: \( B'[\alpha] \equiv \frac{\xi}{\epsilon} B[\alpha] \) and \( E'[\beta] \equiv \frac{1}{\epsilon} E[\beta] \), which can be exponentiated to obtain Weyl commutation relations. (The exponential of \( iB'[\alpha] \equiv i\frac{\xi}{\epsilon} \oint \alpha d\gamma A_\gamma \), for example, is the \( U(1) \) holonomy.) In terms of these primed observables, the uncertainty principle reads: \( (\Delta B'[\alpha])(\Delta E'[\beta]) \geq (1/2\alpha_{\text{fine}}) G \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta) \), where \( \alpha_{\text{fine}} \) is the fine structure constant.

ii) In the non-Abelian case, one can replace exp \( iB'[\alpha] \) by the trace of the holonomy of the connection along the loop \( \alpha \). The analog of \( E'[\beta] \) is trickier. To ensure gauge invariance, one now
has thicken the loop to a ribbon. (See, e.g., [4,5].) The commutator is then again ‘topological’. However, the physical meaning of these observables is now less transparent.

iii) Over the last five years, the uncertainty relation (1.9) was used by one of us (AA) to motivate the loop representation for gauge theories and gravity in a number of conferences (see e.g. [4]). It was pointed out that a similar observation on the Maxwell uncertainties was made by Jürgen Löffelholz from the Leipzig mathematical physics group and also by condensed matter theorists interested in flux quantization. Unfortunately, however, we have not been able to find specific references.

II. REGULATED FLUX OPERATORS

A. Preliminaries

Let us begin by recalling a few facts about the Fock representation of photons. Since we are interested in (fluxes of) electric and magnetic operators, it will be convenient to adapt the discussion to a canonical framework. A vector \( V \) in the 1-photon Hilbert space \( \mathcal{H} \) is then represented by a pair \( (A_a, E_a) \) of divergence-free vector fields on a constant time hyper-plane and the Hilbert space norm is given by (see, e.g., [6]):

\[
\langle V|V \rangle = \frac{1}{\hbar} \int_{\Sigma} d^3x \left[ A_a(\nabla^{1/2} A^a) + E^a(\nabla^{-1/2} E_a) \right].
\] (2.1)

Denote by \( \mathcal{F}_H \) the symmetric Fock space based on \( H \). Electric and magnetic fields are represented by operator valued distributions involving the standard linear combinations of creation and annihilation operators on \( \mathcal{F}_H \). Consider, for example, the smeared object,

\[
\hat{E}[f] := \int d^3x \hat{E}^a(x) f_a(x)
\] (2.2)

where \( f_a \) is a test-field, i.e., vector field of compact support. Since \( E^a \) is divergence-free, we have: \( E[f] = E[f + \partial g] \), for any test function \( g \). This is a well-defined operator on \( \mathcal{F}_H \) provided the vector \( V = (T f_a, 0) \) lies in the Hilbert space \( \mathcal{H} \), i.e., provided the norm

\[
\langle V|V \rangle = \frac{1}{\hbar} \int d^3x \left[ T f_a(\nabla^{1/2} T f^a) \right] = \frac{1}{\hbar} \int d^3k |k| |T \tilde{f}_a|^2
\] (2.3)

is finite, where \( T f_a \) is the transverse part of \( f \), and \( T \tilde{f} \), its Fourier transform. (The transverse projection removes the ‘gauge freedom’ of adding a gradient to \( f_a \).) In that case, \( \hat{E}[f] \) is expressible as a sum of the creation and annihilation operators associated with the state \( V \).

The situation with the magnetic field operator is completely analogous. The commutator between smeared electric and magnetic fields is given by:

\[
[\hat{B}[f], \hat{E}[g]] = i\hbar \int d^3x \epsilon^{abc} (\partial_a f_b(\vec{x})) g_c(\vec{x}) = \hbar \int d^3k \epsilon^{abc} k_a(\tilde{f}_b(\vec{k}))^* \tilde{g}_c(\vec{k})
\] (2.4)

where \( \tilde{f}_b \) denotes the Fourier transform of \( f_b \) and \( * \) denotes complex conjugation.
B. Regularization

Let us now consider the formal expression of the electric flux operator:

$$\hat{E}[\beta] = \int_{S_\beta} \hat{E}^a d^2S_a.$$  \hfill (2.5)

It can be expressed as a smeared electric field,

$$E[\beta] = \int d^3x E^a(\bar{x}) f_a^{(\beta)}(\bar{x}),$$

where, however, the test field \( f_a^{(\beta)}(\bar{x}) \) is a distribution with support on \( S_\beta \):

$$f_a^{(\beta)}(\bar{x}) = \int_{S_\beta} d^2S_a \delta^3(\bar{x}, \bar{s}_\beta),$$  \hfill (2.6)

where \( \bar{s}_\beta \) denotes a point on the surface \( S_\beta \). Hence, the corresponding operator \( \hat{E}[\beta] \) is only formal; it fails to be well-defined on the Fock space. We must regulate it.

We will proceed in two steps (the first of which is the crucial one). Geometrically, the problem arises because \( f_a^{(\beta)} \) is a distribution with two-dimensional support. We can remedy this situation by an appropriate ‘thickening’ of the surface \( S_\beta \). Let us therefore replace the loop \( \beta \) by a strip (or ribbon) \( \Sigma_\beta \) of height \( \epsilon \) (see figure 3). More precisely, let us proceed as follows. Let us first equip \( \beta \) with a framing (i.e., let us introduce, at each point of \( \beta \), a vector in a direction transverse to \( \dot{\beta}^a \), the tangent to \( \beta \).) Then, for each \( \tau \in [0, \epsilon] \), let us denote by \( \beta_\tau \) the loop obtained by displacing \( \beta \) a distance \( \tau \) along the framing. (Thus \( \beta_0 \equiv \beta \).) This construction uses the flat Euclidean metric on the spatial hyper-plane. But the key final results will not depend on this flat metric.) Let \( S_\tau \) denote a surface bounded by the loop \( \beta_\tau \) (such that the assignment \( \tau \rightarrow S_\tau \) is smooth.) The family of loops \( \beta_\tau \) constitute the strip \( \Sigma_\beta \) and the three-dimensional region swept out by the family of surfaces \( S_\tau \) constitutes a ‘pill-box’ \( P_\beta \) with boundary \( \Sigma_\beta \).

![Fig. 3](image)

Fig. 3 The surface \( S_\beta \) with boundary \( \beta \) is thickened to a three dimensional pill-box \( P_\beta \) bounded by the strip \( \Sigma_\beta \). As \( \epsilon \) tends to zero, \( P_\beta \) shrinks to \( S_\beta \) and \( \Sigma_\beta \) tends to the loop \( \beta \). The ‘memory’ of the strip is retained by the initial framing attached to \( \beta \).

We can now consider the flux of the electric field through the three dimensional pill-box region

$$E[P_\beta] = \int_0^\epsilon d\tau \int_{S_\tau} d^2S_a E^a(\bar{s}_\tau).$$  \hfill (2.7)
(From now on, loops will be assumed to be framed. However, for simplicity of notation, we will continue to denote them just by greek letters $\alpha, \beta,...$) This yields a smearing of the electric field with a test field $f_{\alpha}^{(P_\beta)}$ with support in three-dimensions,

$$E[P_\beta] = \int d^3 x E^a(x)f_{\alpha}^{(P_\beta)}(x), \text{ with } f_{\alpha}^{(P_\beta)} = \int_0^\epsilon d\tau \int_{S_\tau} (dS_\tau)_a \delta^3(\vec{x}, \vec{s}_\tau),$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.8)

and one can hope that the corresponding operator would be well-defined in quantum theory. This completes our first step in regularization.

The key question now is the following: Is $V = (Tf_{\alpha}^{(P_\beta)}, 0)$ normalizable with respect to the inner product (2.3)? This calculation is carried out in the Appendix. It turns out that, although the 3-dimensional pill-box $f_{\alpha}^{(P_\beta)}$ is supported, has sharp boundaries. This is where the second step in the regularization procedure comes in. The problem can be handled in a number of ways. We will use the simplest one and just introduce an ultra-violet cut-off at $|k| = \Lambda$. That is, we begin with $f_{\alpha}^{(P_\beta)}$ as in (2.8), take the Fourier transform of its transverse part, multiply it by the step function which is unity if $|\vec{k}| \leq \Lambda$ and zero otherwise and consider the inverse Fourier transform $f_{\alpha}^{(P_\beta, \Lambda)}$ of the resulting function. Then, $\hat{E}[f^{(P_\beta, \Lambda)}]$ is a well-defined operator on the Fock space. This operator can be regarded as the regulated version of the heuristic expression $\hat{E}[\beta]$ since, in the classical theory, we have:

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left( \lim_{\Lambda \rightarrow \infty} \int d^3 x E^a(x)f_{\alpha}^{(P_\beta, \Lambda)}(x) \right) = \hat{E}[\beta]$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.9)

The situation with the magnetic-flux operator, of course, is identical. Thus, given a framed loop $\alpha$, we can introduce a strip $\Sigma_\alpha$ of height $\epsilon$ and consider a pill-box $P_\alpha$ it bounds. Then, $\hat{B}[f^{(P_\alpha, \Lambda)}]$ is a well-defined operator on the Fock space.

III. REMOVAL OF THE REGULATORS

Let us compute the commutator between the regularized flux operators using (2.4) and then, in the result, remove the regulators by taking appropriate limits. Removing the ultra-violet cut-off yields:

$$\lim_{\Lambda \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \hat{B}[f^{(P_\alpha, \Lambda)}], \hat{E}[f^{(P_\beta, \Lambda)}] \right] = \hbar \lim_{\Lambda \rightarrow \infty} \int d^3 k \epsilon^{abc} k_0 (\tilde{f}^{(P_\alpha)}(\vec{k}))^* \tilde{f}^{(P_\beta)}(\vec{k})$$

$$= \hbar \int d^3 x \epsilon^{abc} (\partial_a f_{\beta}^{(P_\alpha)}(\vec{x})) f_c^{(P_\beta)}(\vec{x})$$

$$= \hbar \int_0^\epsilon d\tau \int_{\alpha, \beta} \int_0^\epsilon d\tau f_{\alpha}^{(\beta \tau)}$$

$$= \hbar \int_0^\epsilon d\tau \int_{\alpha, \beta} d\tau \{ B[\alpha, \beta], \hat{E}[\beta] \}$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.1)

where, in the first step, the subscript $\Lambda$ denotes that the integration is carried out over the ball $|K| < \Lambda$. The final result is not surprising: the right side is just $\hbar$ times the well-defined Poisson bracket between the classical ‘thickened flux’ observables:

$$\lim_{\Lambda \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \hat{B}[f^{(P_\alpha, \Lambda)}], \hat{E}[f^{(P_\beta, \Lambda)}] \right] = \hbar \{ B[f^{(P_\alpha)}], \hat{E}[f^{(P_\beta)}] \}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.2)
Thus, as far as the commutator is concerned, the ultra-violet cut-off plays no essential role.

To remove the regulator \( \epsilon \), we have to compute:

\[
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left( \lim_{\Lambda \to \infty} \left[ \hat{B}[f(P_{\alpha, \Lambda})], \hat{E}[f(P_{\beta, \Lambda})] \right] \right) = i\hbar \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left( \int_0^\epsilon d\sigma \int_0^\epsilon d\tau \left\{ B[\alpha_\sigma], E[\beta_\tau] \right\} \right) = i\hbar \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left( \int_0^\epsilon d\sigma \int_0^\epsilon d\tau \mathcal{P}(\alpha_\sigma, \beta_\tau) \right), \quad \text{say.} \quad (3.3)
\]

This calculation is more subtle. We will divide the discussion in four cases which bring out the role of framing in handling pathologies that arise when the loops intersect and overlap.

i) The simplest case arises when the loops have no point in common. Then, for a sufficiently small \( \epsilon \), there is no intersection between any of the loops \( \alpha_\sigma \) and \( \beta_\tau \). Hence, the Poisson bracket \( \mathcal{P}(\alpha_\sigma, \beta_\tau) \) can be calculated exactly as in Sec. I. It is independent of \( \sigma \) and \( \tau \) and equals \( \mathcal{G}\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta) \). Hence,

\[
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \int_0^\epsilon d\sigma \int_0^\epsilon d\tau \mathcal{P}(\alpha_\sigma, \beta_\tau) = \mathcal{G}\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta). \quad (3.4)
\]

Thus, in this case, the limiting procedure gives a precise meaning to the calculation of Sec. I: The uncertainty relation (1.3) holds in the sense that:

\[
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left( \lim_{\Lambda \to \infty} \left[ \hat{B}[f(P_{\alpha, \Lambda})], \hat{E}[f(P_{\beta, \Lambda})] \right] \right) = i\hbar \mathcal{G}\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta) \quad (3.5)
\]

ii) Let us now consider the case when \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) intersect at a single point, say \( p \). (Intersections at a finite number of points requires only a trivial extension of this case.) Now, the result depends on the thickening, or more precisely, on the framing at \( p \) initially chosen to carry out the thickening. Let \( \hat{\alpha}^a \) and \( \hat{\beta}^a \) denote the tangent vectors to the two loops at \( p \). Consider the two dimensional plane they span in the tangent space of \( p \). Suppose that the frame vectors of the loops \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) lie on opposite sides of the plane. Then (for sufficiently small \( \epsilon \)) among loops \( \alpha_\sigma \) and \( \beta_\tau \), the only ones which intersect are \( \alpha_0 \) and \( \beta_0 \), the original loops. Hence, \( \mathcal{P}(\alpha_\sigma, \beta_\tau) \) is well-defined in the \( \sigma, \tau \) space except at the single point, \( (\sigma = 0, \tau = 0) \), which is of measure zero. Furthermore, at all other points, \( \mathcal{P}(\alpha_\sigma, \beta_\tau) \) is independent of \( \sigma \) and \( \tau \). Its value is precisely the Gauss linking number \( \mathcal{G}\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta') = \mathcal{G}\mathcal{L}(\alpha', \beta) \), where the primed loops are obtained by moving the unprimed ones slightly along the framing vectors. Thus, we have:

\[
\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left( \lim_{\Lambda \to \infty} \left[ \hat{B}[f(P_{\alpha, \Lambda})], \hat{E}[f(P_{\beta, \Lambda})] \right] \right) = i\hbar \mathcal{G}\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta') = i\hbar \mathcal{G}\mathcal{L}(\alpha', \beta), \quad (3.6)
\]

which, in this case, is \((i\hbar \text{ times})\) the natural Gauss linking number associated with the framed loops.

iii) Let us now consider the case where the two loops intersect at a single point \( p \) as before but where frame vectors at \( p \) (lie on the same side of the plane spanned by the two tangents and) are parallel. Then the two strips \( \Sigma_\alpha \) and \( \Sigma_\beta \) intersect in a line rather than a single point. In this case the limit is more delicate. A loop \( \alpha_\sigma \) on \( \Sigma_\alpha \) intersects a loop \( \beta_\tau \) on \( \Sigma_\beta \) if and only if \( \sigma = \tau \). Thus, the calculation of Sec. I for computing \( \mathcal{P}(\alpha_\sigma, \beta_\tau) \) goes through for the entire region of the parameter space \((\sigma, \tau) \in [0, \epsilon] \times [0, \epsilon] \) except for the diagonal. Again, since the diagonal is a set of measure zero, we can ignore it. However, now the integrand \( \mathcal{P}(\alpha_\sigma, \beta_\tau) \) is no longer a constant on the entire parameter space. As a simple geometric picture reveals, it takes one value, \( \mathcal{G}\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta') \),
on one side of the diagonal and another value, $\mathcal{GL}(\alpha', \beta)$, on the other, where as before the primed loops are obtained by displacing the unprimed loops slightly in the direction of framing. Hence, we now have:

$$\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left( \lim_{\Lambda \to \infty} \left[ \hat{B}[f(P_{\alpha}, \Lambda)], \hat{E}[f(P_{\beta}, \Lambda)] \right] \right) = \frac{i\hbar}{2} \left( \mathcal{GL}(\alpha, \beta') + \mathcal{GL}(\alpha', \beta) \right).$$

(3.7)

The right side is $(i\hbar$ times) the average of the two possible linking numbers one can obtain by displacing the loops $\alpha$ and $\beta$ infinitesimally using the assigned framing, i.e., the ‘natural’ (extension of the) Gauss linking number associated with the two given framed loops.

iv) Finally, let us consider the commutator between fluxes of electric and magnetic associated with the same framed loop $\alpha$. In this case the strips $\Sigma_{\alpha}$ and $\Sigma_{\beta}$ as well as the ‘pill-boxes’ $P_{\alpha}$ and $P_{\beta}$ coincide. Now, if $\sigma \neq \tau$ the loops $\alpha_{\sigma}$ and $\beta_{\tau}$ have no points in common. Hence, the integrand $P(\alpha_{\sigma}, \beta_{\tau})$ is well-defined everywhere except along the diagonal. However, in this case, (outside the diagonal which we can ignore) the value of the integrand is in fact constant, namely, the Gauss linking number $\mathcal{GL}(\alpha, \alpha')$, where $\alpha'$ is again obtained by displacing $\alpha$ slightly along the framing. Thus, in this case, we have:

$$\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left( \lim_{\Lambda \to \infty} \left[ \hat{B}[f(P_{\alpha}, \Lambda)], \hat{E}[f(P_{\alpha}, \Lambda)] \right] \right) = ih \mathcal{GL}(\alpha, \alpha').$$

(3.8)

The right side is precisely the self-linking number of the framed loop $\alpha$. Note in particular that if the framing is trivial (e.g., if all the frame vectors are parallel in the three dimensional Euclidean space), the right side vanishes (even before taking the limit $\epsilon \to 0$). Thus, in this case, one can simultaneously measure the fluxes of electric and magnetic fields with arbitrary accuracy.

There are of course other cases one can analyze. For example, one can consider loops with isolated intersections, where, however, framing at the intersection points is not of the type considered in cases ii) and iii) above. Given the two framings, the calculation of the limit of the commutator is generally straightforward. Since the regularization is geometric and the final limiting procedure refers only to properties of ribbons obtained from framing, it is natural to interpret the result as the Gauss linking number of framed loops in those cases as well.

**IV. DISCUSSION**

In this note we have pointed out that there is a remarkable relation between the Gauss linking number, the simplest link invariant, and the Heisenberg uncertainty between fluxes of electric and magnetic fields, the basic observables of the quantum Maxwell theory. This uncertainty is intrinsic in that it arises because of the fundamental quantum fluctuations and persists even in the vacuum state.

The precise sense in which this relation holds is rather subtle especially if the loops in question intersect or overlap. In the classical theory, given any closed loop $\alpha$, we can compute the fluxes $B[\alpha]$ and $E[\alpha]$ of magnetic and electric fields through any surface $S_\alpha$ bounded by the loop $\alpha$. To obtain the corresponding quantum observables, however, we have to ‘thicken’ the surfaces in question. A natural strategy is to frame the initial loop since a framing provides a canonical thickening. When this is done (and an ultra-violet cut-off is introduced) one obtains regulated flux operators which are well-defined on the Fock space. We can compute their commutators and then remove the regulators. The limit is the just $(i\hbar$ times) the Gauss link invariant of the framed loops. Even
when the loops intersect or coincide (as in cases ii), iii) and iv) considered in Sec. III), the limit of
the commutator equals the Gauss linking number of the framed loops.

For simplicity, we worked in Minkowski space-time. However, the entire discussion can be
carried over without any difficulty to general stationary space-times (where the norm of the Killing
field is bounded away from zero). In this case, one can use geodesics tangential to the framing to
thicken the the loops and work in the canonical Fock representation selected by the Killing field
In the non-stationary context, there is no canonical representation of the CCR. However,
one can again construct the algebra of smeared flux operators and the basic results will hold on
any Hilbert space on which this algebra can be represented. This is to be expected because the
final results are topological and do not refer to the Minkowskian geometry used in the intermediate
stages.

Finally, we wish to point out that the Gauss linking number also plays a key role in the
expression of the measure which dictates the inner product on the photon Hilbert space in the so-
called self-dual representation (where states are appropriate functionals of self-dual connections)

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Appendix:

1. From Intersection to Gauss-linking Number

In this sub-section we shall show the analytic equivalence between the intersection number
\( I(\alpha, S_\beta) \) of Eq (1.6) and the Gauss linking number of Eqs (1.1,1.2). We start by re-writing the
intersection number,

\[
I(\alpha, S_\beta) = \{B[\alpha], E[\beta]\} \\
= \int d^3x F^a[\alpha, \bar{x}]w_a[\beta, \bar{x}] \tag{A1}
\]

where \( F^a[\alpha, \bar{x}] \) is the so-called form factor of the loop \( \alpha \):

\[
F^a[\alpha, \bar{x}] = \int_a d\alpha^a \delta^3(\alpha, \bar{x}) \tag{A2}
\]

and \( w_a[\beta, \bar{x}] \) is given by

\[
w_a[\beta, \bar{x}] = \int_{S_\beta} dS_a \delta^3(\bar{x}, \bar{s}_\beta) \tag{A3}
\]

Also, note that \( w_a \) is a potential for the form factor, since,

\[
F^a[\alpha, \bar{x}] = \epsilon^{abc} \partial_b w_c[\alpha, \bar{x}] \tag{A4}
\]
There is an extra ‘gauge freedom’ since \( w_a \) and \( w'_a = w_a + \partial_a f \) give rise to the same form factor \( F^a \).

So far, the intersection number does not depend on any background structure and is therefore, topological in nature. The expression (1.1) is, however, written in terms of an Euclidean metric. Let us therefore introduce such a metric. Then,

\[
\delta^3(\bar{x} - \bar{y}) = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \nabla^2 \frac{1}{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|} = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \partial_a \partial^a \left( \frac{1}{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|} \right). \tag{A5}
\]

We can now re-write the intersection number as,

\[
I(\alpha, S_\beta) = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x \int d^3y \, F^a[\alpha, \bar{x}] \, w_a[\bar{\beta}, \bar{y}] \, \partial_a \partial^d \left( \frac{1}{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|} \right)
= \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x \int d^3y \, F^a[\alpha, \bar{x}] \, \partial_d w_a[\bar{\beta}, \bar{y}] \, \partial^d \left( \frac{1}{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|} \right) \tag{A6}
\]

where in the second step we have integrated by parts. Now,

\[
I(\alpha, S_\beta) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x \, F^a[\alpha, \bar{x}] \int d^3y \left( 2\partial_d w_a[\bar{\beta}, \bar{y}] + (\partial_a w_d[\bar{\beta}, \bar{y}]) \partial^d \left( \frac{1}{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|} \right) \right) \tag{A7}
\]

The last term can be again integrated by parts

\[
\int d^3y (\partial_a w_d[\bar{\beta}, \bar{y}]) \partial^d \left( \frac{1}{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|} \right) = -\int d^3y \frac{1}{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|} (\partial_a \partial^d w_d[\bar{\beta}, \bar{y}]) = 0, \tag{A8}
\]

where we have used the gauge freedom to select \( w_a \) such that \( \partial^a w_a = 0 \).

Finally, we have,

\[
I(\alpha, S_\beta) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x \int d^3y \, F^a[\alpha, \bar{x}] F^b[\beta, \bar{y}] \epsilon_{abc} \partial^c \left( \frac{1}{|\bar{x} - \bar{y}|} \right)
= \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x \int d^3y \, F^a[\alpha, \bar{x}] F^b[\beta, \bar{y}] \epsilon_{abc} \frac{(|x^c - y^c|)}{|x - y|^3}. \tag{A9}
\]

Now, the definition of the form factor implies that: \( \int d^3x F^a[\alpha, \bar{x}] f_a = \oint d\alpha^a f_a \). Hence, we have the desired equality:

\[
I(\alpha, S_\beta) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \oint_\alpha \int_\beta \, ds \, dt \, \epsilon_{abc} \hat{a}^a(s) \hat{b}^b(t) \frac{\alpha^c(s) - \beta^c(t)}{[\alpha(s) - \beta(t)]^3}. \tag{A10}
\]

2. Quantum Operators

Recall from Sec. II that the smeared operators \( \hat{E}[f^{(P_\beta)}] \) are well-defined on the Fock space \( \mathcal{F} \) if and only if the \( \mathcal{H} \)-norm of \( V = (T_\alpha^{(P_\beta)}), 0 \) is finite. In this sub-section we will compute this norm and show that it has a logarithmic divergence thereby establishing the necessity of an ultra-violet cut-off.

Let us consider the simplest case. In cylindrical coordinates \((\rho, \phi, z)\), let the strip \( \Sigma_\beta \) defining the pill-box region \( P_\beta \) be circles of radius \( \rho = R \) and \( z = \tau \); thus \( \alpha_\beta(s) = (R, 2\pi s, -\epsilon/2 + \tau) \). We can take the \( S_\tau \) surfaces to be parallel to the \( z = \text{const} \) plane. In this geometry, the smearing
co-vector field $f_a(x)$ is the ‘step function’: $f_a(x) = \nabla_a z$ if $\rho < R$ and $z \in [-\epsilon/2, \epsilon/2]$; $f_a(x) = 0$ otherwise. The Fourier transform will have non-vanishing component only in the $k_z$ direction:

$$\tilde{f}_{k_z}(k) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} \int_0^R \int_{\epsilon/2}^{\epsilon/2} \int_0^{2\pi} dz \, d\phi \, d\rho \, e^{ik_\rho \rho \cos \phi} e^{ik_z z} \quad (A11)$$

Using the identity,

$$J_0(z) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi e^{iz \cos \theta} d\theta \quad (A12)$$

and the recurrence formulae of Bessel functions we arrive at

$$\tilde{f}_{k_z}(k) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} R \frac{J_1(k_\rho R)}{k_\rho} \frac{\sin(k_z \epsilon)}{k_z} \quad (A13)$$

The transverse part any field $\tilde{f}_a^T(\bar{k})$ is the projection of the that field orthogonal to the radial vector $k^a$. Therefore,

$$|\tilde{f}_a|^2 = |\tilde{f}_{k_z}|^2 \frac{k_\rho^2}{(k_\rho^2 + k_z^2)} \quad (A14)$$

The expression $\int_{\Sigma} d^3k \, |k| \, |\tilde{f}_a^T(k)|^2$ now takes the form

$$\int_{\Sigma} d^3k \, |\tilde{f}_a(k)|^2 = 4R^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk_z \int_0^{\infty} dk_\rho \, \frac{k_\rho^2}{[k_\rho^2 + k_z^2]^{1/2}} \frac{J_1^2(\kappa R)}{k_\rho} \frac{\sin^2(k_z \epsilon)}{k_z^2} \quad (A15)$$

where $|k| = [k_z^2 + k_\rho^2]^{1/2}$. It is now obvious that the integral diverges logarithmically since $J_1(x) \sim x^{-1/2}$ when $x \to \infty$. 

\[12\]
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