

Quantum Field Theory, Note 2

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Klein Gordon Equation

Classically,

$$E = \frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m} + V(\vec{r})$$

Quantization : $E \rightarrow i\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$, $\vec{p} \rightarrow -i\vec{\nabla}$ and act on ψ

$$i\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} = \left[-\frac{1}{2m}\nabla^2 + V(\vec{r})\right]\psi \quad \text{Schrodinger equation}$$

x and time t are not on equal footing.

For relativistic case, use

$$E^2 = \vec{p}^2 + m^2, \quad \implies \quad (-\nabla^2 + m^2)\psi = -\partial_0^2\psi$$

Or

$$(\square + m^2)\psi = 0, \quad \text{where} \quad \square = \partial_0^2 - \nabla^2 = \partial^\mu\partial_\mu = \partial^2$$

This is known as Klein-Gordon equation.

Probability interpretation

Klein-Gordon equation

$$(\partial_0^2 - \nabla^2 + m^2)\psi = 0$$

complex conjugate,

$$(\partial_0^2 - \nabla^2 + m^2)\psi^* = 0$$

gives the continuity equation,

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{j} = 0$$

where

$$\rho = i(\psi \partial_0 \psi^* - \psi^* \partial_0 \psi), \quad \vec{j} = i(\psi \vec{\nabla} \psi^* - \psi^* \vec{\nabla} \psi)$$

Define

$$P = \int d^3x \rho(x)$$

Then

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = \int_V \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} d^3x = - \int_V \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{j} d^3x = - \oint_S \vec{j} \cdot d\vec{s} = 0 \quad \text{if } \vec{j} = 0, \text{ on } S$$

P is conserved, probability ? But P is not positive, e.g.

$$\text{if } \psi = e^{iEt} \phi(x), \quad \text{then} \quad \rho = -2E |\phi(x)|^2 \leq 0$$

if we take $\rho = \psi \psi^*$ then it is not conserved,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int \psi \psi^* d^3x \neq 0$$

Solutions to Klein-Gordon Equation

$$(\square + m^2)\psi(x) = (-\nabla^2 + \partial_0^2 + m^2)\psi(x) = 0$$

plain wave solution,

$$\phi(x) = e^{-ipx} \quad \text{if} \quad p_0^2 - P^2 - m^2 = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad p_0 = \pm\sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$$

- ① Positive energy solution: $P_0 = \omega_p = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$, \vec{p} arbitrary

$$\phi^{(+)}(x) = \exp\left(-i\omega_p t + i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}\right) = e^{-ikx}$$

- ② Negative energy solution: $P_0 = -\omega_p = -\sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$

$$\phi^{(-)}(x) = \exp\left(i\omega_p t - i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}\right) = e^{ikx}$$

general solution is ,

$$\phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3k}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k}} [a(k)e^{-ikx} + a(k)^+ e^{ikx}] \quad , \quad kx = \omega_k t - \vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}$$

Orthogonality relation

For any 2 solutions ϕ_1, ϕ_2 of Klein-Gordon equation,

$$(\partial_0^2 - \nabla^2 + m^2)\phi_1 = 0$$

and

$$(\partial_0^2 - \nabla^2 + m^2)\phi_2^* = 0$$

we get

$$\int d^3x \{ [\phi_2^* \partial_0^2 \phi_1 - \phi_1 \partial_0^2 \phi_2^*] - [\phi_2^* \nabla^2 \phi_1 - \phi_1 \nabla^2 \phi_2^*] \} = 0$$

Or

$$\int d^3x \left\{ \partial_0 [\phi_2^* \partial_0 \phi_1 - \phi_1 \partial_0 \phi_2^*] - \vec{\nabla} \cdot [\phi_2^* \vec{\nabla} \phi_1 - \phi_1 \vec{\nabla} \phi_2^*] \right\} = 0$$

Use Gauss' theorem and dropping the surface terms at spatial infinity,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int d^3x [\phi_2^* \partial_0 \phi_1 - \phi_1 \partial_0 \phi_2^*] = 0$$

So we define "scalar product" as

$$\langle \phi_2 | \phi_1 \rangle = \int d^3x [\phi_2^* \partial_0 \phi_1 - \phi_1 \partial_0 \phi_2^*]$$

It is straightforward to derive the orthogonality relations as

$$\langle \phi_{p'}^{(+)} | \phi_p^{(+)} \rangle = \delta^3(p - p')$$

$$\langle \phi_{p'}^{(-)} | \phi_p^{(-)} \rangle = -\delta^3(p - p')$$

$$\langle \phi_{p'}^{(+)} | \phi_p^{(-)} \rangle = 0$$

Dirac Equation

Dirac(1928) wants first order derivative in t and in x, y, z . Ansatz

$$E = \alpha_1 p_1 + \alpha_2 p_2 + \alpha_3 p_3 + \beta m = \vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{p} + \beta m \quad (1)$$

where α_i, β are matrices. Then

$$E^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha_i \alpha_j + \alpha_j \alpha_i) p_i p_j + \beta^2 p^2 + (\alpha_i \beta + \beta \alpha_i) m$$

To get energy momentum relation, need

$$\alpha_i \alpha_j + \alpha_j \alpha_i = 2\delta_{ij} \quad (2)$$

$$\alpha_i \beta + \beta \alpha_i = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$\beta^2 = 1 \quad (4)$$

From Eq(2) we get

$$\alpha_i^2 = 1 \quad (5)$$

Together with Eq(4) α_i, β all have eigenvalues ± 1 . s

$$\alpha_1 \alpha_2 = -\alpha_2 \alpha_1 \implies \alpha_2 = -\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_1$$

Taking the trace

$$\text{Tr} \alpha_2 = -\text{Tr} (\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_1) = -\text{Tr} (\alpha_2 \alpha_1^2) = -\text{Tr} (\alpha_2)$$

Thus

$$\text{Tr} (\alpha_i) = 0 \quad (6)$$

Similarly,

$$\text{Tr} (\beta) = 0$$

α_i, β even dimension. Pauli matrices $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$ are all traceless and anti-commuting. But need 4 such matrices. $\implies \alpha_i, \beta$, 4×4 matrices. Bjorken and Drell representation,

$$\alpha_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_i \\ \sigma_i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Dirac equation ; $E \rightarrow i \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$, $\vec{p} \rightarrow -i \vec{\nabla}$

$$(-i \vec{\alpha} \cdot \nabla + \beta m) \psi = i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$$

For convenience, define a new set of matrices

$$\gamma^0 = \beta, \quad \gamma^i = \beta \alpha_i$$

and in Bjorken and Drell notation,

$$\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \gamma^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_i \\ -\sigma_i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (7)$$

Dirac equation

$$(-i\gamma^i \partial_i - i\gamma^0 \partial_0 + m)\psi = 0, \quad \text{or} \quad (-i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu + m)\psi = 0$$

Note that the anti-commutations are

$$\{\gamma_\mu, \gamma_\nu\} = 2g_{\mu\nu}$$

Probability interpretation

From Dirac equation

$$-i \frac{\partial \psi^\dagger}{\partial t} = \{-i \vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{\nabla} + \beta m\} \psi^\dagger$$

and

$$i \left(\frac{\partial \psi^\dagger}{\partial t} \psi + \psi^\dagger \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \right) = \psi^\dagger (-i \vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{\nabla} + \beta m) \psi - \{(-i \vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{\nabla} + \beta m) \psi^\dagger\}^\dagger \psi$$

Integrate over space,

$$i \frac{d}{dt} \int d^3x (\psi^\dagger \psi) = -i \int \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\psi^\dagger \vec{\alpha} \psi) d^3x = 0$$

The probability $\int d^3x (\psi^\dagger \psi)$ is conserved and positive.

Solution to Dirac equation

The Dirac equation is,

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

solution in the plane wave,

$$\psi(x) = e^{-ip \cdot x} \omega(p)$$

Then

$$(\not{p} - m)\omega(p) = 0 \quad \text{where} \quad \not{p} = \gamma^\mu p_\mu = \gamma^0 p_0 - \vec{\gamma} \cdot \vec{p}$$

and

$$(p_0 - \vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{p} - \beta m)\omega(p) = 0, \quad \text{where} \quad \vec{\alpha} = \gamma_0 \vec{\gamma}, \quad \beta = \gamma_0$$

rewrite this in terms of Hamiltonian

$$H\omega(p) = p_0\omega(p), \quad \text{with} \quad H = \vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{p} + \beta m$$

This is an eigenvalue equation. Eigenvectors for different eigenvalues are orthogonal to each other,

$$\omega^{(i)\dagger}(p)\omega^{(j)}(p) = \delta_{ij}, \quad \text{where} \quad H\omega^{(i)}(p) = p_0^{(i)}\omega^{(i)}(p)$$

To find the eigenvalues and eigen vectors, we write

$$H = \vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{p} + \beta m = \begin{pmatrix} m & \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p} \\ \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p} & -m \end{pmatrix}, \quad \omega(p) = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ l \end{pmatrix}$$

where u (upper components) and l (lower components) are 2 components column vectors. Then we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} m & \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p} \\ \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p} & -m \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ l \end{pmatrix} = p_0 \begin{pmatrix} u \\ l \end{pmatrix}$$

Or

$$\begin{cases} (p_0 - m)u - (\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p})l = 0 \\ -(\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p})u + (p_0 + m)l = 0 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

These are homogeneous linear equations. Non-trivial solution exists if

$$\begin{vmatrix} p_0 - m & -\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p} \\ -\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p} & (p_0 + m) \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

This condition gives

$$p_0^2 = \vec{p}^2 + m^2 \quad \text{or} \quad p_0 = \pm \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$$

- 1 Positive energy solution $p_0 = E = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$,
Substitute this into Eqs(??),

$$l = \frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{E + m} u$$

Write the solution in the form,

$$\omega^{(s)}(p) = N \left(\frac{1}{\frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{E+m}} \right) \chi_s, \quad s = 1, 2 \quad \chi_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \chi_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Here N is a normalization constant. The solution in coordinate space is

$$\psi = e^{-ipx} \omega^{(s)}(p) = e^{-iEt} e^{i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}} \left(\frac{1}{\frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{E+m}} \right) \chi_s$$

In the non-relativistic limit $|\vec{p}| \ll E$, lower component much smaller than the upper component.

- 2 Negative energy solution $p_0 = -E = -\sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$,

Similarly, the solution can be written as,

$$u = \frac{-(\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p})}{E + m} l$$

We write the solution as,

$$\omega^{(3)}(p) = N \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{E+m} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \omega^{(4)}(p) = N \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{E+m} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and in the coordinate space we get

$$\psi = e^{iEt} e^{i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}} N \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{E+m} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \chi_s$$

Orthogonality of different eigenvectors then implies that

$$\omega^{(3)}(p)^\dagger \omega^{(1)}(p) = N^2 \chi_1^\dagger \begin{pmatrix} \frac{-\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{E+m} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{E+m} \end{pmatrix} \chi_s = 0$$

The standard notation for these 4-component column vector, *spinors* are,

$$u(p,s) = \omega^{(s)}(p) = N \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{E+m} \end{pmatrix} \chi_s, \quad s = 1, 2$$

$$v(p, s) = N \left(\begin{array}{c} \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p} \\ E+m \\ 1 \end{array} \right) \chi_s \quad N = \sqrt{E+m}$$

Note that v - spinor is defined with \vec{p} reversed and the plane wave factor becomes $e^{iEt} e^{-i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}} = e^{ipx}$.

The orthogonality for these spinors are

$$u^\dagger(p, s') v(-p, s) = 0$$

In the expansion of general solution to the Dirac equation, we write

$$\psi(\vec{x}, t) = \sum_s \int \frac{d^3 p}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_p}} \left[b(p, s) u(p, s) e^{-ip \cdot x} + d^\dagger(p, s) v(p, s) e^{ip \cdot x} \right]$$

To solve for $b(p, s)$, we multiply this by $u^\dagger(p', s') e^{-p' \cdot x}$ and integrate over x ,

$$\int u^\dagger(p', s') e^{-p' \cdot x} \psi(\vec{x}, t) d^3 x = \sum_s \int \frac{d^3 p}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_p}} \left[\begin{array}{l} b(p, s) u^\dagger(p', s') u(p, s) \delta^3(p - p') \\ + d^\dagger(p, s) u^\dagger(p', s') v(p, s) \delta^3(p + p') \end{array} \right]$$

The last term vanishes because, $u^\dagger(p', s') v(p, s) = u^\dagger(-p, s) v(p, s) = 0$ and we get

$$b(p, s) = \int \frac{d^3 x e^{ip \cdot x}}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^3 2E_p}} u^\dagger(p, s) \psi(\vec{x}, t).$$

Dirac conjugate

Dirac equation in momentum space

$$(\not{p} - m)\psi(p) = 0$$

is not hermitian. In the Hermitian conjugate

$$\psi^\dagger(p)(\not{p}^\dagger - m) = 0$$

γ'_μ s are not hermitian,

$$\gamma_0^\dagger = \gamma_0 \quad \gamma_i^\dagger = -\gamma_i$$

But we can write

$$\gamma_\mu^\dagger = \gamma_0 \gamma_\mu \gamma_0$$

Then

$$\psi^\dagger(p)(\gamma_0 \gamma_\mu \gamma_0 p^\mu - m) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \psi^\dagger(p)\gamma_0(\gamma_\mu p^\mu - m) = 0$$

Or

$$\bar{\psi}(\not{p} - m) = 0 \quad \text{where} \quad \bar{\psi} = \psi^\dagger \gamma_0 \quad \text{Dirac conjugate}$$

Dirac equation under Lorentz transformation

How Dirac equation

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

behaves under Lorentz transformation?

$$x^\mu \rightarrow x'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu$$

In the new coordinate system, Dirac equation is

$$(i\gamma^\mu \partial'_\mu - m)\psi'(x') = 0 \quad (9)$$

Assume

$$\psi'(x') = S\psi(x)$$

Invert the Lorentz transformation

$$x^\gamma = \Lambda^\gamma_\mu x'^\mu \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^\mu} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\gamma} \frac{\partial x^\gamma}{\partial x'^\mu} = \Lambda^\gamma_\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\gamma}$$

Then Eq(9) becomes

$$(i\gamma^\mu \Lambda^\alpha_\mu \partial_\alpha - m)S\psi(x) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad (i(S^{-1}\gamma^\mu S)\Lambda^\alpha_\mu \partial_\alpha - m)\psi(x) = 0$$

equivalent to the original Dirac equation, if

$$(S^{-1}\gamma^\mu S)\Lambda_\mu^\alpha = \gamma^\alpha \quad \text{or} \quad (S^{-1}\gamma^\mu S) = \Lambda_\alpha^\mu \gamma^\alpha \quad (10)$$

infinitesimal transformation

$$\Lambda_\nu^\mu = g_\nu^\mu + \epsilon_\nu^\mu + O(\epsilon^2) \quad \text{with} \quad |\epsilon_\nu^\mu| \ll 1$$

Pseudo-orthogonality implies

$$g_{\mu\nu}(g_\alpha^\mu + \epsilon_\alpha^\mu)(g_\beta^\nu + \epsilon_\beta^\nu) = g_{\alpha\beta}$$

Or

$$\epsilon_{\alpha\beta} + \epsilon_{\beta\alpha} = 0, \quad \implies \quad \epsilon_{\alpha\beta} \text{ antisymmetric}$$

Write

$$S = 1 - \frac{i}{4}\sigma_{\mu\nu}\epsilon^{\mu\nu} + O(\epsilon^2) \text{ then } S^{-1} = 1 + \frac{i}{4}\sigma_{\mu\nu}\epsilon^{\mu\nu}$$

$\sigma_{\mu\nu}$: 4×4 matrices. Then Eq(10) yields,

$$(1 + \frac{i}{4}\sigma_{\alpha\beta}\epsilon^{\alpha\beta})\gamma^\mu(1 - \frac{i}{4}\sigma_{\alpha\beta}\epsilon^{\alpha\beta}) = (g_\alpha^\mu + \epsilon_\alpha^\mu)\gamma^\alpha$$

Or

$$\epsilon^{\alpha\beta} \frac{i}{4} [\sigma_{\alpha\beta}, \gamma^\mu] = \epsilon_\alpha^\mu \gamma^\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^{\alpha\beta} (g_\alpha^\mu \gamma_\beta - g_\beta^\mu \gamma_\alpha)$$

coefficient of $\varepsilon^{\alpha\beta}$

$$[\sigma_{\alpha\beta}, \gamma_\mu] = 2i(g_{\beta\mu}\gamma_\alpha - g_{\alpha\mu}\gamma_\beta) \quad (11)$$

Solution

$$\sigma_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{i}{2}[\gamma_\alpha, \gamma_\beta]$$

satisfy Eq(11). To see this, we need to use the identity,

$$[AB, C] = A\{B, C\} - \{A, C\}B$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} [\sigma_{\alpha\beta}, \gamma_\mu] &= \frac{i}{2}[(\gamma_\alpha\gamma_\beta - \gamma_\beta\gamma_\alpha), \gamma_\mu] = \frac{i}{2}(\gamma_\alpha\{\gamma_\beta, \gamma_\mu\} - \{\gamma_\alpha, \gamma_\mu\}\gamma_\beta - (\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta)) \\ &= \frac{i}{2}(2\gamma_\alpha g_{\beta\mu} - 2g_{\alpha\mu}\gamma_\beta) \times 2 = 2i(g_{\beta\mu}\gamma_\alpha - g_{\alpha\mu}\gamma_\beta) \end{aligned}$$

Finite Lorentz transformation,

$$\psi'(x') = S\psi(x), \quad \text{with} \quad S = \exp[-\frac{i}{4}\sigma_{\mu\nu}\epsilon^{\mu\nu}] \quad (12)$$

$$\sigma_{\mu\nu}^\dagger = \gamma_0\sigma_{\mu\nu}\gamma_0 \quad \text{and} \quad S^\dagger = \gamma^0 S^{-1}\gamma^0$$

S is not unitary. From $\psi'(x') = S\psi$ we get

$$\psi'^\dagger(x') = \psi^\dagger S^\dagger = \psi^\dagger \gamma^0 S^{-1} \gamma^0, \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{\psi}'(x') = \bar{\psi}(x) S^{-1}$$

$\bar{\psi}$ Dirac conjugate

Fermion bilinears

The fermion bi-linears $\bar{\psi}_\alpha(x)\psi_\beta(x)$ has simple transformation. For example,

$$\bar{\psi}'(x')\psi'(x') = \bar{\psi}(x)S^{-1}S\psi(x) = \bar{\psi}(x)\psi(x)$$

$\bar{\psi}(x)\psi(x)$ is Lorentz invariant. Similarly, .

$\bar{\psi}\gamma_\mu\psi$ 4-vector

$\bar{\psi}\gamma_\mu\gamma_5\psi$ axial vector

$\bar{\psi}\sigma_{\mu\nu}\psi$ 2nd rank antisymmetric tensor

$\bar{\psi}\gamma_5\psi$ pseudo scalar

where $\gamma_5 = i\gamma^0\gamma^1\gamma^2\gamma^3$

Hole Theory (Dirac 1930)

Dirac proposed

vacuum = ($E < 0$ states all filled and $E > 0$ states are empty)

Pauli exclusion principle makes vacuum stable.

In this picture hole in the negative sea,

absence of an electron $-|e|$ and $-|E| \equiv$ presence of particle $|E|$ and $+|e|$

new particle is called "positron" also called *anti-particle*. This correspondence of particle and anti-particle is called *charge conjugation*.

Lorentz group

In Dirac equation, it is not clear what is the origin of Dirac γ matrices. It turns out that they are related to representations of Lorentz group. The Lorentz group is a collection of linear transformations of space-time coordinates

$$x^\mu \rightarrow x'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu$$

which leaves the proper time

$$\tau^2 = (x^0)^2 - (\vec{x})^2 = x^\mu x^\nu g_{\mu\nu} = x^2$$

invariant. This requires Λ^μ_ν satisfies the pseudo-orthogonality relation

$$\Lambda^\mu_\alpha \Lambda^\nu_\beta g_{\mu\nu} = g_{\alpha\beta}$$

Generators

For infinitesimal transformation, write

$$\Lambda^\mu_\alpha = g^\mu_\alpha + \epsilon^\mu_\alpha \quad \text{with } |\epsilon^\mu_\alpha| \ll 1$$

As before, the pseudo-orthogonality relation implies, $\epsilon_{\alpha\beta} = -\epsilon_{\beta\alpha}$. Consider $f(x^\mu)$, an arbitrary function of x^μ . Under infinitesimal Lorentz transformation, the change in f is

$$\begin{aligned} f(x^\mu) &\rightarrow f(x'^\mu) = f(x^\mu + \epsilon^\mu_\alpha x^\alpha) \approx f(x^\mu) + \epsilon_{\alpha\beta} x^\beta \partial_\alpha f + \dots \\ &= f(x^\mu) + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{\alpha\beta} [x^\beta \partial^\alpha - x^\alpha \partial^\beta] f(x) + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Introduce operator $M_{\mu\nu}$ to represent this change,

$$f(x') = f(x) - \frac{i}{2} \epsilon_{\alpha\beta} M^{\alpha\beta} f(x) + \dots$$

then

$$M^{\alpha\beta} = -i(x^\alpha \partial^\beta - x^\beta \partial^\alpha) \quad (13)$$

generators $M_{\mu\nu}$ are called the generators of Lorentz group operating on functions of coordinates. Note that for $\alpha, \beta = 1, 2, 3$ these are just the angular momentum operator. Using the generators given in Eq(13) we can work out commutators of these generators,

$$[M_{\alpha\beta}, M_{\gamma\delta}] = -i\{g_{\beta\gamma} M_{\alpha\delta} - g_{\alpha\gamma} M_{\beta\delta} - g_{\beta\delta} M_{\alpha\gamma} + g_{\alpha\delta} M_{\beta\gamma}\}$$

Define

$$M_{ij} = \epsilon_{ijk} J_k, \quad M_{0i} = K_i$$

where J'_k 's correspond to the usual rotations and K_i the Lorentz boost operators. We can solve for J_i to get

$$J_i = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} M_{jk}$$

We can compute the commutator of J'_i 's,

$$[J_i, J_j] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \epsilon_{ikl} \epsilon_{jmn} [M_{kl}, M_{mn}] = (-i) \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \epsilon_{ikl} \epsilon_{jmn} (g_{lm} M_{kn} - g_{km} M_{ln} - g_{ln} M_{km} + g_{kn} M_{lm})$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 (-i) [-\epsilon_{ikl}\epsilon_{jln}M_{kn} + \epsilon_{ikl}\epsilon_{jkn}M_{ln} + \epsilon_{ikl}\epsilon_{jml}M_{km} - \epsilon_{ikl}\epsilon_{jmk}M_{lm}]$$

Using identity

$$\epsilon_{abc}\epsilon_{alm} = (\delta_{bl}\delta_{cm} - \delta_{bm}\delta_{cl})$$

we get

$$[J_i, J_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}J_k \quad (14)$$

Thus we can identify J_i as the angular momentum operator. Similarly, we can derive

$$[K_i, K_j] = -i\epsilon_{ijk}J_k, \quad [J_i, K_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}K_k \quad (15)$$

Eqs(14,15) are called the Lorentz algebra.

To simplify the Lorentz algebra, we define the combinations

$$A_i = \frac{1}{2}(J_i + iK_i), \quad B_i = \frac{1}{2}(J_i - iK_i)$$

Then we get following commutation relations,

$$[A_i, A_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}A_k, \quad [B_i, B_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}B_k, \quad [A_i, B_j] = 0$$

For example,

$$\begin{aligned} [A_1, A_2] &= \frac{1}{4} [J_1 + iK_1, J_2 + iK_2] = \frac{1}{4} ([J_1, J_2] + i[J_1, K_2] + i[K_1, J_2] + i^2[K_1, K_2]) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} (iJ_3 + i^2K_3 + i^2K_3 - i^3J_3) = \frac{1}{2}i(J_3 + iK_3) = iA_3 \end{aligned}$$

Thus algebra of Lorentz generators factorizes into 2 independent $SU(2)$ algebra. The representations are just the tensor products of the representation of $SU(2)$ algebra. Thus we label the irreducible representation by (j_1, j_2) which transforms as $(2j_1 + 1)$ -dim representation under A_i algebra and $(2j_2 + 1)$ -dim representation under B_i algebra.

Simple representations

① $(\frac{1}{2}, 0)$ representation χ_a

This 2-component object has the following properties,

$$A_i \chi_a = \left(\frac{\sigma_i}{2}\right)_{ab} \chi_b \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2}(J_i + iK_i)\chi_a = \left(\frac{\sigma_i}{2}\right)_{ab} \chi_b$$

$$B_i \chi_a = 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2}(J_i - iK_i)\chi_a = 0$$

Combining these relations

$$\vec{J}\chi = \left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2}\right)\chi, \quad \vec{K}\chi = -i\left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2}\right)\chi$$

② $(0, \frac{1}{2})$ representation η_a

Similarly, we can get

$$A_i \eta_a = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2}(J_i + iK_i)\eta_a = 0$$

$$B_i \eta_a = \left(\frac{\sigma_i}{2}\right)_{ab} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2}(J_i - iK_i)\eta_a = \left(\frac{\sigma_i}{2}\right)_{ab}\eta_b$$

$$\vec{J}\eta = \left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2}\right)\eta, \quad \vec{K}\eta = i\left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2}\right)\eta$$

If we define a 4-component ψ by putting together these 2 representations,

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \chi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix}$$

Then action of the Lorentz generators are

$$\vec{J}\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \psi, \quad \vec{K}\psi = \begin{pmatrix} -i\frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & i\frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \psi \quad (16)$$

ψ are related to the 4-component Dirac field we studied before, but with different representation for the γ matrices. This can be seen as follows.

Consider Dirac matrices in the following form

$$\gamma^\mu = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^\mu \\ \bar{\sigma}^\mu & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{where } \sigma^\mu = (1, \vec{\sigma}), \bar{\sigma}^\mu = (1, -\vec{\sigma})$$

More explicitly,

$$\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{\gamma} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \vec{\sigma} \\ -\vec{\sigma} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

It is straightforward to check that in this case.

$$\gamma_5 = i\gamma^0\gamma^1\gamma^2\gamma^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

This means that in 4-component field $\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \chi \\ \eta \end{pmatrix}$, χ is right-handed and η is left-handed. In this representation, it is easy to check that

$$\sigma_{0i} = i\gamma_0\gamma_i = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^i \\ -\sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -i\sigma^i & 0 \\ 0 & i\sigma^i \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_{ij} = i\gamma_i\gamma_j = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_i \\ -\sigma_i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_j \\ -\sigma_j & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \epsilon_{ijk} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_k & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_k \end{pmatrix}$$

In the Lorentz transformation of Dirac field,

$$\psi'(x') = S\psi = \exp\left\{-\frac{i}{4}\sigma_{\mu\nu}\varepsilon^{\mu\nu}\right\} = \exp\left\{-\frac{i}{4}(2\sigma_{0i}\varepsilon^{0i} + \sigma_{ij}\varepsilon^{ij})\right\}$$

Write $\varepsilon^{0i} = \beta^i$, $\varepsilon^{ij} = \varepsilon^{ijk}\theta^k$

$$\sigma_{ij}\varepsilon^{ij} = \varepsilon^{ijk}\theta^k\varepsilon_{ijl}\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_l & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_l \end{pmatrix} = 2\begin{pmatrix} \vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\theta} & 0 \\ 0 & \vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\theta} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_{0i}\varepsilon^{0i} = \begin{pmatrix} -i\vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\beta} & 0 \\ 0 & i\vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\beta} \end{pmatrix}$$

\Rightarrow

$$-\frac{i}{4}(2\sigma_{0i}\varepsilon^{0i} + \sigma_{ij}\varepsilon^{ij}) = \frac{-i}{2}\begin{pmatrix} \vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\theta} - i\vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\beta} & 0 \\ 0 & \vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\theta} + i\vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\beta} \end{pmatrix}$$

More precisely,

$$\psi'(x') = S\psi = \exp\left\{-\frac{i}{4}\sigma_{\mu\nu}\varepsilon^{\mu\nu}\right\}\psi = \exp\left[\frac{-i}{2}\begin{pmatrix} \vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\theta} - i\vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\beta} & 0 \\ 0 & \vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\theta} + i\vec{\sigma}\cdot\vec{\beta} \end{pmatrix}\right]\psi \quad (17)$$

If we write the Lorentz transformations in terms of generators,

$$L = \exp(-iM_{\mu\nu}\epsilon^{\mu\nu})$$

then in terms of the generators \vec{J}, \vec{K}

$$L = \exp\left[(-i)\left(\vec{J}\cdot\vec{\theta} + \vec{K}\cdot\vec{\beta}\right)\right]$$

We then see from Eq(17) that for this ψ , \vec{J}, \vec{K} are of the form,

$$\vec{J} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \vec{\sigma} & 0 \\ 0 & \vec{\sigma} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{K} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} -i\vec{\sigma} & 0 \\ 0 & i\vec{\sigma} \end{pmatrix}$$

These are the same as those in Eq(16).

Thus the wavefunction which satisfies Dirac equation is just the representation

$\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0\right) \oplus \left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ under Lorentz group. Furthermore, the right-handed components transform as $\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0\right)$ representation while left-handed components transform as $\left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ representation.

Alternative choice is to use ψ_R and the complex conjugate ψ_R^* (sometime dotted indice are used for this basis) instead of ψ_R and ψ_L . Since

$$\vec{J}\psi_R = \left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2}\right)\psi_R, \quad \vec{K}\psi_R = -i\left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}}{2}\right)\psi_R$$

we get for the complex conjugate

$$\vec{J}\psi_R^* = \left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}^*}{2}\right)\psi_R^*, \quad \vec{K}\psi_R^* = i\left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}^*}{2}\right)\psi_R^*$$

It is probably more clearer to use some other notation for ψ_R^* ,

$$\vec{J}\chi = \left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}^*}{2}\right)\chi, \quad \vec{K}\chi = i\left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}^*}{2}\right)\chi$$

Then

$$\vec{A}\chi = \frac{1}{2}(\vec{J} + i\vec{K})\chi = 0, \quad \vec{B}\chi = \frac{1}{2}(\vec{J} - i\vec{K})\chi = \left(\frac{\vec{\sigma}^*}{2}\right)\chi$$

and indeed χ belongs to the irrep $(0, \frac{1}{2})$.