

# Relativistic Quantum Mechanics

## KIAS Particle Physics Summer Camp 2025

Jeonghyeon Song

Konkuk University

August 25 & 26, 2025

# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Natural Units
- 3 Spacetime Four-Vectors & Minkowski Metric
- 4 Lorentz Transformations
- 5 Conserved Current and Charge
- 6 From Energy–Momentum to the Schrödinger Equation
- 7 Klein–Gordon Equation
- 8 Klein–Gordon Current
- 9 Dirac: Motivation & Linearization
- 10 Dirac Matrices & Representations
- 11 Spin & Lorentz Transformations
- 12 Dirac Adjoint, Bilinears & Current
- 13 Negative Energies & Positron
- 14 Helicity and Chirality

# 1. Introduction

# Why Relativistic Quantum Mechanics?

- Non-relativistic quantum mechanics does not respect special relativity.
- The Schrödinger equation is built from the non-relativistic energy relation:

$$E = \frac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2m} + V(\mathbf{x}).$$

- To describe high-energy particles, we need a framework that combines:
  - ① Quantum mechanics
  - ② Lorentz invariance
- This naturally points toward **quantum field theory**, but the first step is to study **relativistic single-particle equations**.

## 2. Natural Units

# Definition

- **Natural units** set fundamental constants to 1:

$$\hbar = 1, \quad c = 1 \quad (\text{often also } k_B = 1).$$

- Consequences:

- Energy, momentum, and mass share the same unit (GeV is standard).
- Length and time carry inverse energy units:

$$[t] = [\ell] = \frac{1}{\text{mass}}$$

- Derivatives carry energy dimension:

$$[\partial_\mu] = \text{mass}$$

.

# Quick Conversions and Heuristics

- Useful constants:

$$\hbar c \approx 0.1973269804 \text{ GeV fm.}$$

- Core conversions:

$$1 \text{ GeV}^{-1} \approx 0.1973 \text{ fm} \approx 6.582 \times 10^{-25} \text{ s.}$$

- Cross sections:

$$[\sigma] = \text{mass}^{-2} \Rightarrow 1 \text{ GeV}^{-2} \approx 0.3894 \text{ mb.}$$

# Action is Dimensionless

- In the path integral,

$$\mathcal{Z} = \int \mathcal{D}\phi \exp\left\{\frac{i}{\hbar} S[\phi]\right\}.$$

- The exponent must be dimensionless. Therefore,

$$[S] = [\hbar].$$

- In natural units  $\hbar = 1$ , hence  $S$  is **dimensionless**.



### 3. Spacetime Four-Vectors & Minkowski Metric

# Spacetime Coordinates

- In relativity, space and time combine into a single **contravariant four-vector**:

$$x^\mu = (t, \mathbf{x}) = (t, x, y, z).$$

- We use natural units with  $c = 1$ .
- Index convention:

$$\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x^0 = t, \quad x^1 = x, \quad x^2 = y, \quad x^3 = z.$$

- Contravariant vector = components with an *upper* index ( $^\mu$ ).
- Later, covariant vectors will be written with a lower index ( $_\mu$ ).

# Minkowski Metric (Definition)

- In special relativity, spacetime is described by the **Minkowski metric**:

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(1, -1, -1, -1).$$

- This defines the invariant spacetime interval:

$$s^2 = g_{\mu\nu} x^\mu x^\nu = t^2 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2.$$

- Using the metric, we can **lower indices**:

$$x_\mu = g_{\mu\nu} x^\nu.$$

- For the spacetime coordinate:

$$x^\mu = (t, x, y, z) \longrightarrow x_\mu = (t, -x, -y, -z).$$

- The key: the time component keeps its sign, while spatial components change sign.

# Four-Momentum and Invariant Mass

- Define the **contravariant four-momentum**:

$$p^\mu = (E, p_x, p_y, p_z).$$

- Lowering the index with the Minkowski metric:

$$p_\mu = g_{\mu\nu} p^\nu = (E, -p_x, -p_y, -p_z).$$

- Lorentz-invariant scalar  $\Rightarrow$  **rest mass squared**

$$p_\mu p^\mu = g_{\mu\nu} p^\mu p^\nu = E^2 - \vec{p}^2 = m^2.$$

- Thus, the relativistic energy-momentum relation:

$$E^2 = \vec{p}^2 + m^2.$$

# Covariant and Contravariant Derivatives

- Define the derivative operator:

$$\partial_\mu \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu}.$$

- Explicitly:

$$\partial_\mu = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right).$$

- Raising the index with the Minkowski metric

$$g^{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(1, -1, -1, -1):$$

$$\partial^\mu = g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t}, -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, -\frac{\partial}{\partial y}, -\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right).$$

- The **d'Alembertian operator** (wave operator) is defined as

$$\square \equiv \partial_\mu \partial^\mu = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2.$$

# 4. Lorentz Transformations

# Definition of Lorentz Transformations

- A **Lorentz transformation** is any linear map

$$x^\mu \longrightarrow x'^\mu = \sum_{\nu} \Lambda^\mu{}_{\nu} x^\nu = \Lambda^\mu{}_{\nu} x^\nu$$

that preserves the Minkowski metric:

$$g_{\rho\sigma} = g_{\mu\nu} \Lambda^\mu{}_{\rho} \Lambda^\nu{}_{\sigma}.$$

- Invariance of the interval:

$$\begin{aligned} s'^2 &\equiv g_{\alpha\beta} x'^\alpha x'^\beta \\ &= g_{\alpha\beta} (\Lambda^\alpha{}_{\mu} x^\mu) (\Lambda^\beta{}_{\nu} x^\nu) \\ &= (g_{\alpha\beta} \Lambda^\alpha{}_{\mu} \Lambda^\beta{}_{\nu}) x^\mu x^\nu = g_{\mu\nu} x^\mu x^\nu = s^2. \end{aligned}$$

- The Lorentz group therefore contains:
  - **Rotations** in 3D space (leave  $t$  unchanged).
  - **Boosts** (mix  $t$  with a spatial direction).

## Example: Lorentz Boost in the $z$ -Direction

- Consider a boost along the  $z$  axis with velocity  $v$ .
- Define

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2}}, \quad \beta = v.$$

- The Lorentz transformation matrix is

$$\Lambda^\mu{}_\nu = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & 0 & 0 & -\gamma\beta \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\gamma\beta & 0 & 0 & \gamma \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Transformation of coordinates:

$$\begin{aligned} t' &= \gamma(t - \beta z), \\ x' &= x, \quad y' = y, \\ z' &= \gamma(z - \beta t). \end{aligned}$$



# 5. Conserved Current and Charge

# Conservation Law

- A **conserved quantity** is described by a continuity equation:

$$\partial_t j^0 + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} = 0.$$

- In relativistic notation, we combine density and current into a four-vector:

$$j^\mu(x) = (j^0, \mathbf{j}), \quad \partial_\mu j^\mu = 0.$$

# Conserved Charge

- Define the **charge** as the spatial integral of the time component:

$$Q(t) = \int d^3x j^0(t, \mathbf{x}).$$

- Take the time derivative:

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = \int d^3x \partial_t j^0(t, \mathbf{x}).$$

- Using  $\partial_\mu j^\mu = 0$ :

$$\partial_t j^0 = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}.$$

- Thus,

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = - \int d^3x \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}.$$

# Divergence Theorem and Conservation

- Apply Gauss's (divergence) theorem:

$$\int d^3x \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} = \oint_{\partial V} d\mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{j}.$$

- If the current  $\mathbf{j}$  vanishes sufficiently fast at spatial infinity:

$$\oint_{\infty} d\mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{j} = 0.$$

- Therefore:

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = 0.$$

$\Rightarrow$  The charge  $Q$  is a conserved quantity.

# Probability Current in Quantum Mechanics

- Start from the Schrödinger equation:

$$i\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} = \left(-\frac{\nabla^2}{2m} + V(\mathbf{x})\right)\psi.$$

- Define probability density:

$$\rho(t, \mathbf{x}) = |\psi(t, \mathbf{x})|^2.$$

- Derive the continuity equation:

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

$\Rightarrow$  Probability current:

$$\mathbf{j} = \frac{1}{2mi}(\psi^*\nabla\psi - \psi\nabla\psi^*).$$

# Interpretation: Probability Conservation

- The conserved “charge” in quantum mechanics is the total probability:

$$Q = \int d^3x \rho(t, \mathbf{x}) = \int d^3x |\psi|^2.$$

- Conservation law:

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = 0.$$

- Physical meaning:
  - Probability never disappears or appears spontaneously.
  - A particle is always found *somewhere* in space.
- This is the non-relativistic counterpart of current conservation.

6. From  $E = \frac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2m} + V$   
to the Schrödinger equation

# Four-Momentum as an Operator

- In quantum theory, promote the four-momentum to a differential operator:

$$p^\mu = (E, \mathbf{p}) = i \partial^\mu.$$

- With the Minkowski metric  $g^{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(1, -1, -1, -1)$ :

$$\partial^\mu = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_\mu} = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t}, -\nabla \right).$$

- Therefore:

$$p^\mu = (i \partial_t, -i \nabla).$$

- Components:

$$p^0 = i \partial_t \quad (\text{energy operator}), \quad \mathbf{p} = -i \nabla \quad (\text{momentum operator}).$$



# Schrödinger Equation from $E = \frac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2m} + V$

- Start from the non-relativistic energy relation:

$$E = \frac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2m} + V(\mathbf{x}).$$

- Substitute the operators:

$$E \rightarrow i \partial_t, \quad \mathbf{p} \rightarrow -i \nabla.$$

- Acting on a wavefunction  $\psi(t, \mathbf{x})$ :

$$i \partial_t \psi(t, \mathbf{x}) = \left( -\frac{\nabla^2}{2m} + V(\mathbf{x}) \right) \psi(t, \mathbf{x}).$$

- This is the time-dependent Schrödinger equation.

# 7. Klein–Gordon Equation

# Motivation: Relativistic Wave Equation

- Start from the **relativistic energy–momentum relation**:

$$E^2 = \mathbf{p}^2 + m^2.$$

- Historically, the Klein–Gordon (KG) equation was proposed **independently in 1926** by **Oskar Klein** and **Walter Gordon** as the relativistic analogue of the Schrödinger equation.
- Goal: promote  $E$  and  $\mathbf{p}$  to operators and derive a Lorentz-invariant wave equation for a scalar field  $\phi(x)$ .

# Derivation from $E^2 = \mathbf{p}^2 + m^2$

- Use the four-momentum operator  $p^\mu = i \partial^\mu$ , with

$$g^{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(1, -1, -1, -1) \Rightarrow \partial^\mu = (\partial_t, -\nabla).$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$E \rightarrow i\partial_t, \quad \mathbf{p} \rightarrow -i\nabla.$$

- Act on a scalar field  $\phi(t, \mathbf{x})$ :

$$(i\partial_t)^2 \phi = [(-i\nabla)^2 + m^2] \phi \implies -\partial_t^2 \phi = (-\nabla^2 + m^2) \phi.$$

- Rearranging:

$$(\partial_t^2 - \nabla^2 + m^2) \phi(t, \mathbf{x}) = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{(\partial_\mu \partial^\mu + m^2) \phi = 0}$$

# Covariant Form and Solutions

- Let's interpret the KG equation

$$(\partial_\mu \partial^\mu + m^2) \phi = 0$$

- Plane-wave ansatz  $\phi(x) = e^{-ip \cdot x}$  with

$$p \cdot x = p_\mu x^\mu = Et - \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x}$$

- The KG equation gives

$$(-p_\mu p^\mu + m^2) \phi = 0 \implies p_\mu p^\mu = m^2 \implies E^2 = \mathbf{p}^2 + m^2.$$

- OOPS! Solutions come with  $E = \pm \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$ . (Negative-frequency solutions are physical; in QFT they correspond to antiparticles.)

## 8. Klein–Gordon Current and Continuity Equation

# Step 1: Klein–Gordon Equation and Its Conjugate

- Klein–Gordon equation for a (complex) scalar field:

$$(\partial_\mu \partial^\mu + m^2) \phi(x) = 0.$$

- Its complex conjugate:

$$(\partial_\mu \partial^\mu + m^2) \phi^*(x) = 0.$$

- Multiply the first by  $\phi^*$  and the second by  $\phi$ :

$$\phi^* \partial_\mu \partial^\mu \phi + m^2 \phi^* \phi = 0, \quad \phi \partial_\mu \partial^\mu \phi^* + m^2 \phi \phi^* = 0.$$

- Subtract:

$$\phi^* \partial_\mu \partial^\mu \phi - \phi \partial_\mu \partial^\mu \phi^* = 0 \quad (m^2 \text{ terms cancel}).$$

## Step 2: Turn It Into a Divergence

- Product rule identity:

$$\partial_\mu(\phi^* \partial^\mu \phi - \phi \partial^\mu \phi^*) = \phi^* \partial_\mu \partial^\mu \phi - \phi \partial_\mu \partial^\mu \phi^*.$$

- We get the **continuity equation**:

$$\partial_\mu j^\mu = 0, \quad \boxed{j^\mu \equiv i(\phi^* \partial^\mu \phi - \phi \partial^\mu \phi^*)}.$$

- Components (with  $g_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(1, -1, -1, -1)$  so  $\partial^\mu = (\partial_t, -\nabla)$ ):

$$j^0 = i(\phi^* \partial_t \phi - \phi \partial_t \phi^*), \quad \mathbf{j} = -i(\phi^* \nabla \phi - \phi \nabla \phi^*).$$



## Step 3: Conserved Charge

- Define the charge (time component integrated over space):

$$Q(t) \equiv \int d^3x j^0(t, \mathbf{x}).$$

- Since  $\partial_\mu j^\mu = 0$ , we have

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad Q \text{ is conserved.}$$

- $j^0(t, \mathbf{x})$  is the probability density?

# KG Current: $j^0$ is not positive definite

- Take a plane-wave solution:

$$\phi(x) = A e^{-iEt + i\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x}}, \quad E = \pm \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}.$$

- With  $\partial_t \phi = -iE\phi$ ,  $\nabla \phi = i\mathbf{p}\phi$  and  $j^\mu = i(\phi^* \partial^\mu \phi - \phi \partial^\mu \phi^*)$ ,

$$j^0 = i(\phi^* \partial_t \phi - \phi \partial_t \phi^*) = 2E |A|^2,$$

$$\mathbf{j} = -i(\phi^* \nabla \phi - \phi \nabla \phi^*) = 2\mathbf{p} |A|^2.$$

- Since  $E$  has both signs in relativistic theory,  $j^0 = 2E|A|^2$  can be negative  $\Rightarrow j^0$  **is not a probability density**.

# Why $j^0$ is not positive: second order in time

- **Schrödinger (first order in time):**

$$i \partial_t \psi = H \psi \Rightarrow \partial_t |\psi|^2 + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} = 0, \quad \rho_S = |\psi|^2 \geq 0.$$

- **Klein-Gordon (second order in time):**

$$(\partial_t^2 - \nabla^2 + m^2) \phi = 0 \Rightarrow \partial_\mu j^\mu = 0, \quad j^0 = i(\phi^* \partial_t \phi - \partial_t \phi^* \phi).$$

- Because KG is *second order*, the conserved density necessarily involves  $\partial_t \phi$ , so it is not  $|\phi|^2$  and need not be positive.
- Hence the non-positivity of  $j^0$  is a structural consequence of the second-order time evolution, *independent* of any particular solution.

# Interpretation & Nonrelativistic Limit

- **Interpretation:**

- For a complex scalar,  $j^\mu$  is the conserved **U(1) charge current**.
- For a real scalar ( $\phi = \phi^*$ ),  $j^\mu \equiv 0$  (no global phase symmetry).

- **NR limit (recover Schrödinger):**

$$\phi(x) = \frac{e^{-imt}}{\sqrt{2m}} \Psi(t, \mathbf{x}) \quad \Longrightarrow \quad j^0 \approx |\Psi|^2, \quad \mathbf{j} \approx \frac{1}{m} \text{Im}(\Psi^* \nabla \Psi).$$

- Thus, in the nonrelativistic regime the KG current reduces to the familiar **probability density and current**.

# 9. Dirac: Motivation & Linearization

# Historical Prelude (1926–1933)

- **1926:** Klein & Gordon propose the first relativistic wave eq. for a scalar. Good Lorentz covariance, but  $j^0$  not positive.
- **Dirac's aim (1928):** Find a *first-order in time & first-order in space* relativistic equation with a positive density  
 $\Rightarrow$  linearize  $E^2 = \mathbf{p}^2 + m^2$ .
- **Negative energies:** Dirac's hole theory ( $\sim 1930$ )  
 $\Rightarrow$  prediction of antiparticles.
- **1932:** Anderson discovers the *positron*, confirming Dirac's picture.
- **Modern view:** Negative-frequency solutions  $\Rightarrow$  antiparticles in QFT (no hole sea needed).

Refs: P. A. M. Dirac, Proc. R. Soc. A **117** (1928) 610; Dirac, Proc. R. Soc. A 126 (1930) 360; C. D. Anderson, Science **76** (1932) 238.

# Motivation: First Order in Time

- The Klein–Gordon (KG) equation is second order in time:

$$(\partial_t^2 - \nabla^2 + m^2) \phi = 0,$$

whose conserved density  $j^0$  is *not* positive definite.

- **Goal:** Find a *relativistic* wave equation that is **first order in time derivative**, so we can have a positive-definite density and a probability interpretation, like Schrödinger's theory.
- **Strategy:** *Linearize* the relativistic energy:

$$E^2 = \mathbf{p}^2 + m^2 \Rightarrow E = \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{p} + \beta m,$$

with suitable matrices  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \beta$ .

# Linearization Ansatz: $E = \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{p} + \beta m$

- Postulate a Hamiltonian linear in  $\mathbf{p}$ :

$$H = \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{p} + \beta m, \quad \boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\alpha^1, \alpha^2, \alpha^3).$$

- Require that squaring reproduces the dispersion:

$$H^2 = (\boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{p} + \beta m)^2 = \mathbf{p}^2 + m^2 \mathbf{1}.$$



# Squaring the Linear Hamiltonian: Expansion

- Start with

$$H = \alpha^i p_i + \beta m \quad (i = 1, 2, 3),$$

and expand:

$$H^2 = (\alpha^i p_i)(\alpha^j p_j) + \alpha^i p_i \beta m + \beta m \alpha^j p_j + \beta^2 m^2.$$

- Since

$$(\alpha^i p_i)(\alpha^j p_j) = \alpha^i \alpha^j p_i p_j, \quad \alpha^i p_i \beta m + \beta m \alpha^j p_j = m p_i (\alpha^i \beta + \beta \alpha^i),$$

we have

$$H^2 = \underbrace{\alpha^i \alpha^j p_i p_j}_{\text{quadratic in } \mathbf{p}} + \underbrace{m p_i (\alpha^i \beta + \beta \alpha^i)}_{\text{linear in } \mathbf{p}} + \beta^2 m^2.$$

# Why the linear term must vanish (and the mass term)

- To match  $H^2 = \mathbf{p}^2 + m^2 \mathbf{1}$ , there must be *no* term linear in  $p_i$ :

$$m p_i (\alpha^i \beta + \beta \alpha^i) = 0 \text{ for all } \mathbf{p}$$

$$\implies$$

$$\boxed{\{\alpha^i, \beta\} = 0, \text{ for each } i}$$

where the anti-commutator is  $\{A, B\} = AB + BA$ .

- The mass term must equal  $m^2 \mathbf{1}$ :

$$\beta^2 m^2 = m^2 \mathbf{1} \implies \boxed{\beta^2 = \mathbf{1}}.$$

# For the $p^2$ piece: using commutator & anticommutator

- Quadratic part:

$$(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{p})^2 = \alpha^i \alpha^j p_i p_j.$$

- Decompose a product of matrices into symmetric/antisymmetric parts:

$$\alpha^i \alpha^j = \frac{1}{2} \{ \alpha^i, \alpha^j \} + \frac{1}{2} [ \alpha^i, \alpha^j ].$$

- Since  $p_i p_j = p_j p_i$  is **symmetric** in  $(i, j)$ , the antisymmetric part drops:

$$\alpha^i \alpha^j p_i p_j = \frac{1}{2} \{ \alpha^i, \alpha^j \} p_i p_j.$$

- To reproduce  $\mathbf{p}^2 \mathbf{1} = \delta^{ij} p_i p_j \mathbf{1}$  for *all*  $\mathbf{p}$ :

$$\frac{1}{2} \{ \alpha^i, \alpha^j \} = \delta^{ij} \mathbf{1} \iff \boxed{\{ \alpha^i, \alpha^j \} = 2 \delta^{ij} \mathbf{1}}.$$

# Sufficiency: Algebra $\Rightarrow$ Dispersion

- Assume  $\{\alpha^i, \alpha^j\} = 2\delta^{ij}\mathbf{1}$ ,  $\{\alpha^i, \beta\} = 0$ ,  $\beta^2 = \mathbf{1}$ .

- The quadratic term becomes

$$(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{p})^2 = \alpha^i \alpha^j p_i p_j = \frac{1}{2} \{\alpha^i, \alpha^j\} p_i p_j = \delta^{ij} p_i p_j \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{p}^2 \mathbf{1}.$$

- The cross term vanishes:

$$\alpha^i p_i \beta m + \beta m \alpha^j p_j = m p_i \{\alpha^i, \beta\} = 0.$$

- And the mass term:  $\beta^2 m^2 = m^2 \mathbf{1}$ .

- Therefore

$$H^2 = (\boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{p} + \beta m)^2 = \mathbf{p}^2 + m^2 \mathbf{1}.$$

# 10. Dirac Matrices & Representations

# Why $4 \times 4$ Matrices?

- We need four independent, mutually anticommuting Hermitian matrices:  $\alpha^1, \alpha^2, \alpha^3, \beta$ , with  $(\alpha^i)^2 = \beta^2 = 1$ .
- $2 \times 2$  Pauli matrices provide at most three anticommuting matrices.
- Hence the **minimal representation** is  $4 \times 4$
- Dirac spinors have **four components**.

# Explicit Matrices (Dirac / Standard Representation)

- Choose

$$\beta = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{1}_2 & 0 \\ 0 & -\mathbf{1}_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \alpha^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^i \\ \sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (i = 1, 2, 3).$$

- Quick checks (using  $\sigma^i \sigma^j = \delta^{ij} \mathbf{1}_2 + i\epsilon^{ijk} \sigma^k$ ):

$$(\alpha^i)^2 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^i \sigma^i & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^i \sigma^i \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{1}_4, \quad \beta^2 = \mathbf{1}_4,$$

$$\alpha^i \alpha^j + \alpha^j \alpha^i = \begin{pmatrix} \{\sigma^i, \sigma^j\} & 0 \\ 0 & \{\sigma^i, \sigma^j\} \end{pmatrix} = 2\delta^{ij} \mathbf{1}_4,$$

$$\alpha^i \beta + \beta \alpha^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^i \\ -\sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\sigma^i \\ \sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

# From Hamiltonian to Covariant Dirac Equation

- Covariant notation (from the Hamiltonian form):

$$\gamma^0 \equiv \beta, \quad \gamma^i \equiv \beta \alpha^i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha^i = \gamma^0 \gamma^i, \quad \beta = \gamma^0.$$

- Start with the Hamiltonian form**

$$i \partial_t \psi = \left( -i \boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \nabla + \beta m \right) \psi.$$

- Multiply on the left by  $\gamma^0 = \beta$  and use  $\alpha^i = \gamma^0 \gamma^i$ :

$$\gamma^0 (i \partial_t) \psi = \left( -i \gamma^0 \alpha^i \partial_i + \gamma^0 \beta m \right) \psi = \left( -i \gamma^i \partial_i + m \right) \psi.$$

- Bring all terms to the left:

$$(i \gamma^0 \partial_t + i \gamma^i \partial_i - m) \psi = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \boxed{(i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \psi(x) = 0}.$$



# Dirac Matrices: Representations & Equivalence

- Covariant notation (from the Hamiltonian form):

$$\gamma^0 \equiv \beta, \quad \gamma^i \equiv \beta \alpha^i.$$

- Clifford algebra (metric  $g^{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(1, -1, -1, -1)$ ):

$$\{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = 2 g^{\mu\nu} \mathbf{1}.$$

- **Not unique:** any set  $\{\gamma^\mu\}$  obeying the Clifford algebra is a valid *representation*.

# Two Common Representations (Examples)

- Dirac (standard) representation**

$$\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^i \\ -\sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma^5 \equiv i\gamma^0\gamma^1\gamma^2\gamma^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(Here  $\gamma^5$  is *off-diagonal*.)

- Chiral (Weyl) representation**

$$\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^i \\ -\sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma^5 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(Here  $\gamma^5$  is *diagonal*.)

# 11. Spin & Lorentz Transformations of a Dirac spinor

# Dirac Equation: Degrees of Freedom & Spin

- Relativistic wave equation with  $4 \times 4$  matrices:

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

- The energy and three-momentum must satisfy

$$E^2 = \mathbf{p}^2 + m^2$$

- Four-component spinor**  $\psi$  yields, at fixed  $\mathbf{p}$ , *four* independent solutions:
  - two **positive-energy** solutions  $E = +\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$  with spin  $s = \pm \frac{1}{2}$ ;
  - two **negative-energy** solutions  $E = -\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$  with spin  $s = \pm \frac{1}{2}$ .
- Spin is automatic:** the  $\gamma^\mu$  contain Pauli matrices; rotations act via

$$\Sigma^i = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^i & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^i \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow s = \pm \frac{1}{2}.$$

# How Spinors Change under Lorentz Transformations

- Under a Lorentz transformation (a rotation or a boost), the spinor changes by a  $4 \times 4$  matrix:

$$\psi \longrightarrow \psi' = S(\Lambda) \psi$$

(think: a matrix that mixes the 4 components of  $\psi$ .)

- Finite transformation generated by  $\Sigma^{\mu\nu} \equiv \frac{i}{2}[\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu]$ :

$$S(\Lambda) = \exp\left(-\frac{i}{4} \omega_{\mu\nu} \Sigma^{\mu\nu}\right), \quad \omega_{\mu\nu} = -\omega_{\nu\mu}$$

which leads to

$$\text{rotations: } J^i \equiv \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^{ijk} \Sigma^{jk}, \quad \text{boosts: } K^i \equiv \Sigma^{0i}.$$

# Explicit $\Sigma^i$ in the Dirac Representation

- The **spin operator** is the rotation generator  $J^i$ .
- Using the  $\gamma$  matrices in the Dirac representation:

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

one finds

$$\Sigma^{ij} = \frac{i}{2}[\gamma^i, \gamma^j] = \epsilon^{ijk} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^k & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^k \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Therefore the rotation generators are

$$\boxed{J^i = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^i & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^i \end{pmatrix}} \Rightarrow \text{eigenvalues } s = \pm \frac{1}{2}.$$

# The Triumph of Dirac: Spin (vs. Schrödinger)

- **Schrödinger (spinless):**

$$i \partial_t \psi = \left( -\frac{\nabla^2}{2m} + V \right) \psi,$$

where  $\psi$  is a *scalar*. Spin is *not* built in.

- To include spin in NR QM, we *add it by hand*:  $\psi \rightarrow \Psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_{\uparrow} \\ \psi_{\downarrow} \end{pmatrix}$

- **Dirac (spin built in):**

$$(i \gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu} - m) \psi = 0, \quad \psi : \text{four-component spinor.}$$

As shown earlier, the rotation generators  $J^i$  for the Dirac spinor have eigenvalues  $\pm \frac{1}{2}$ . **Intrinsic spin- $\frac{1}{2}$  appears automatically.**

# Boost vs. Rotation Generators: Hermiticity & Unitarity

- **Rotation generators**  $J^i \equiv \frac{1}{2}\epsilon^{ijk}\Sigma^{jk}$ .

$$J^i = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^i & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma^i \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow (J^i)^\dagger = J^i \text{ (Hermitian)}.$$

- **Boost generators**  $K^i \equiv \Sigma^{0i}$ .

$$K^i = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^i \\ \sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow (K^i)^\dagger = -K^i \text{ (anti-Hermitian)}.$$

- Finite Lorentz transformations on spinors,  $S(\Lambda) = e^{-\frac{i}{4}\omega_{\mu\nu}\Sigma^{\mu\nu}}$ 
  - **Pure rotation** ( $\omega_{ij} = \theta_{ij}$ ): Hermitian generator  $\Rightarrow S$  **unitary**.
  - **Pure boost** ( $\omega_{0i} = \varphi_i$  rapidity): anti-Hermitian generator  $\Rightarrow S$  is **not unitary** (Lorentz group is non-compact).



# 12. Dirac Adjoint & Conserved Current

# Lorentz-covariant density via the Dirac adjoint $\bar{\psi}$

- $\psi^\dagger \psi$  is not Lorentz invariant. Why?
- Under a Lorentz transformation  $\Lambda$ , a Dirac spinor changes

$$\psi \longrightarrow \psi' = S(\Lambda) \psi.$$

- Then

$$\psi'^\dagger \psi' = \psi^\dagger S^\dagger S \psi \quad \text{equals } \psi^\dagger \psi \text{ only if } S^\dagger S = \mathbf{1}.$$

- For **pure rotations**,  $S$  is unitary ( $S^\dagger S = \mathbf{1}$ ).
- For **boosts**,  $S$  is *not* unitary, so  $\psi'^\dagger \psi' \neq \psi^\dagger \psi$ .
- What can we do?

# Spinor Boost Along $z$ from the Explicit Generator

- In the Dirac representation,

$$K^3 \equiv \Sigma^{03} = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^3 \\ \sigma^3 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \equiv i M, \quad (M)^\dagger = M \quad (\text{Hermitian}).$$

- A boost of rapidity  $\eta$  along  $+z$  acts as  $\psi' = S_z(\eta) \psi$ ,

$$S_z(\eta) = \exp\left(\frac{\eta}{2} M\right) = \cosh\frac{\eta}{2} \mathbf{1} + M \sinh\frac{\eta}{2}.$$

- Since  $M$  is Hermitian,  $S_z^\dagger(\eta) = S_z(\eta)$  and

$$S_z^\dagger S_z = \exp(\eta M) \neq \mathbf{1} \text{ for } \eta \neq 0$$

If  $S^{-1} \neq S^\dagger$ , what is  $S^{-1}$ ?

- For a  $z$ -boost with  $M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^3 \\ \sigma^3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $S_z(\eta) = \exp(\frac{\eta}{2}M)$ :

$$\gamma^0 S_z^\dagger \gamma^0 = \gamma^0 S_z \gamma^0 = \exp\left(\frac{\eta}{2} \gamma^0 M \gamma^0\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{\eta}{2} M\right) = S_z^{-1},$$

since  $\gamma^0 M \gamma^0 = -M$ .

- This relation holds true in general:

$$\boxed{S^{-1} = \gamma^0 S^\dagger \gamma^0}.$$

# Dirac adjoint and covariant bilinears

- Define the **Dirac adjoint**:  $\bar{\psi} \equiv \psi^\dagger \gamma^0$ .
- Using  $S^{-1} = \gamma^0 S^\dagger \gamma^0$ , we can show that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \bar{\psi}' \psi' &= \psi^\dagger S^\dagger \gamma^0 S \psi \\
 &= \psi^\dagger \gamma^0 \gamma^0 S^\dagger \gamma^0 S \psi \\
 &= \bar{\psi} S^{-1} S \psi = \bar{\psi} \psi.
 \end{aligned}$$

- Define a proper Lorentz 4-vector current:

$$j^\mu = \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi$$

# Current Conservation from the Dirac Equation

- Dirac equation and its adjoint:

$$(i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)\psi = 0, \quad \partial_\mu \bar{\psi} i\gamma^\mu + m \bar{\psi} = 0.$$

- Compute the divergence of  $j^\mu \equiv \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi$ :

$$\partial_\mu j^\mu = (\partial_\mu \bar{\psi}) \gamma^\mu \psi + \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu \psi).$$

- Use the two equations:

$$(\partial_\mu \bar{\psi}) \gamma^\mu = -i m \bar{\psi}, \quad \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi = i m \psi.$$

- Hence the **continuity equation** holds true:

$$\partial_\mu j^\mu = (-i m \bar{\psi}) \psi + \bar{\psi} (i m \psi) = 0.$$

- Identify the **probability density** and **current**:

$$j^0 = \bar{\psi} \gamma^0 \psi = \psi^\dagger \psi \geq 0, \quad \text{unlike Klein-Gordon}$$

# 13. Negative Energies & the Positron

# Dirac Plane Waves: Positive & Negative Energy

- Seek plane-wave solutions of  $(i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)\psi = 0$ :

$$\psi(x) = u_s(\mathbf{p}) e^{-ip \cdot x} \quad \text{or} \quad \psi(x) = v_s(\mathbf{p}) e^{+ip \cdot x}, \quad p \cdot x \equiv p_\mu x^\mu.$$

- With  $p^0 \equiv E = \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2} > 0$ ,

$$(\gamma^\mu p_\mu - m) u_s(\mathbf{p}) = 0 \quad (\text{"positive-energy" branch}),$$

$$(\gamma^\mu p_\mu + m) v_s(\mathbf{p}) = 0 \quad (\text{"negative-energy" branch}).$$

- Key point:** despite the negative-energy eigenvalue, the density is always positive:

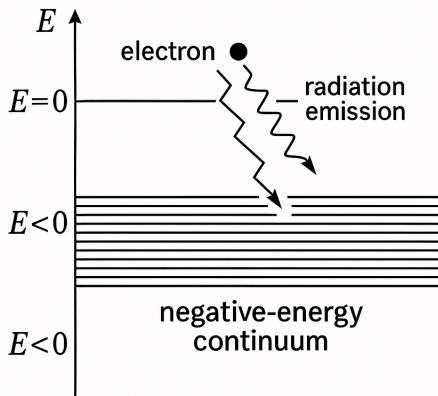
$$j^0 = \psi^\dagger \psi \geq 0.$$

The issue is *stability*: in a one-particle picture, why not fall into ever-lower (negative) energies?



If negative-energy states exist, why doesn't an electron radiate down to  $E < 0$ ?

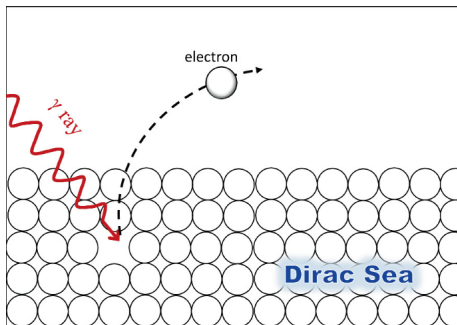
Problem: vacuum instability  
if  $E < 0$  states are empty



# Dirac's Idea: the “Sea” of Negative-Energy Electrons

- **Dirac's proposal (historical):**

- 1 All negative-energy electron states are *filled* in the vacuum (Pauli exclusion blocks further decays).
- 2 Removing one electron from the sea leaves a **hole**: it behaves like a particle with charge  $+e$  and energy  $+E$  (later identified as the *positron*).



# Modern View (QFT): Antiparticles without a Literal Sea

- Promote  $\psi$  to a **field operator**; expand in modes:

$$\psi(x) = \sum_s \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2E_{\mathbf{p}}}} \left[ b_s(\mathbf{p}) u_s(\mathbf{p}) e^{-ip \cdot x} + d_s^\dagger(\mathbf{p}) v_s(\mathbf{p}) e^{+ip \cdot x} \right].$$

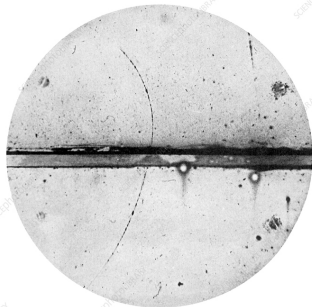
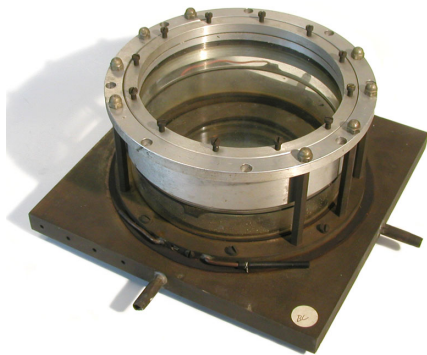
- Interpretation:**  $b_s^\dagger$  creates an electron;  $d_s^\dagger$  creates an *antiparticle* (positron). Negative-frequency modes are reinterpreted as *creation of antiparticles*, not negative-energy electrons.
- Charge and density:

$$Q = \int d^3x j^0 \propto \sum_{\mathbf{p}, s} [b_s^\dagger b_s - d_s^\dagger d_s].$$

- Bottom line:** QFT keeps  $j^0 = \psi^\dagger \psi \geq 0$ , preserves Lorentz covariance, and explains antiparticles *without* an infinitely filled sea—just creation/annihilation operators and a stable vacuum.

# Anderson (1932): Cloud Chamber Setup & Strategy

- **Apparatus:** vertical expansion (Wilson) cloud chamber in a strong magnetic field  $B$
- Cosmic rays provide charged particles.
- A **lead plate** is mounted midway through the chamber ( $\sim 6$  mm thick). (Energy loss in Pb makes tracks curve more after crossing the lead plate.)



# Why the Lead Plate? Direction from Curvature Change

- In a uniform  $B$  field, track radius  $r$  is set by momentum:

$$r = \frac{p}{|q|B}.$$

- Crossing the lead plate  $\Rightarrow$  energy loss ( $\Delta E < 0$ ) and thus momentum loss ( $\Delta p < 0$ ).

$$p_{\text{after}} < p_{\text{before}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad r_{\text{after}} < r_{\text{before}}.$$

- **Read the direction:** the track goes from the *larger-radius* arc (before plate) to the *smaller-radius* arc (after plate).
- **Then read the sign:** with the known  $B$  direction, the sense of bending gives  $\text{sign}(q)$ .

# Evidence from the Track: Light, Positively Charged

- **Famous photograph:** track curves *more* above the plate (lower momentum), and bends in the direction for *positive* charge.  
(Upward-going, left-curving in the published image.)
- **Mass inference: Proton?**
  - *Range/energy loss* in Pb and gas: protons with the same curvature would stop within mm, but the observed tracks are cm-scale.
- **Conclusion:** a light ( $\approx m_e$ ) particle with *positive* charge.
- It is a **positron**.

# 14. Helicity and Chirality

# Helicity

- **Helicity**: projection of spin on momentum direction

$$h = \frac{\vec{\Sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{|\vec{p}|}, \quad \vec{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{\sigma} & 0 \\ 0 & \vec{\sigma} \end{pmatrix}$$



# From Dirac to Weyl: Setup (Chiral Rep.)

- Start from the momentum-space Dirac equation:

$$(\not{p} - m) u(p) = 0, \quad \not{p} = \gamma^\mu p_\mu$$

- Chiral (Weyl) representation:

$$\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{1} & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^i \\ -\sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma^5 = \begin{pmatrix} -\mathbf{1} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{1} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Spinor decomposition and Pauli 4-vectors:

$$u(p) = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_L \\ \psi_R \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma^\mu = (\mathbf{1}, \vec{\sigma}), \quad \bar{\sigma}^\mu = (\mathbf{1}, -\vec{\sigma}).$$

- With metric  $\text{diag}(+, -, -, -)$  and  $p_\mu = (E, -\vec{p})$ :

$$p \cdot \sigma = E \mathbf{1} - \vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma}, \quad p \cdot \bar{\sigma} = E \mathbf{1} + \vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma}.$$

# Block Form of $\not{p}$ and $(\not{p} - m)$

- Using the chiral  $\gamma^\mu$ :

$$\not{p} = p_\mu \gamma^\mu = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & p \cdot \sigma \\ p \cdot \bar{\sigma} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Therefore,

$$(\not{p} - m) = \begin{pmatrix} -m & p \cdot \sigma \\ p \cdot \bar{\sigma} & -m \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Acting on  $u(p) = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_L \\ \psi_R \end{pmatrix}$ :

$$\begin{pmatrix} -m & p \cdot \sigma \\ p \cdot \bar{\sigma} & -m \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \psi_L \\ \psi_R \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -m\psi_L + (p \cdot \sigma)\psi_R \\ (p \cdot \bar{\sigma})\psi_L - m\psi_R \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

# Extracting the Two Weyl Equations

- From upper two components:

$$(p \cdot \sigma) \psi_R = m \psi_L.$$

- From lower two components:

$$(p \cdot \bar{\sigma}) \psi_L = m \psi_R.$$

- Massless limit** ( $m = 0$ ) decouples the chiralities:

$$(p \cdot \sigma) \psi_R = 0, \quad (p \cdot \bar{\sigma}) \psi_L = 0,$$

i.e. two independent **Weyl equations**.

# From Weyl Equations to Helicity Eigenstates

- Massless Weyl equations:

$$(p \cdot \sigma) \psi_R = 0, \quad (p \cdot \bar{\sigma}) \psi_L = 0.$$

- For  $\vec{p} = |\vec{p}| \hat{\vec{p}}$ ,  $E = |\vec{p}|$ :

$$(E\mathbf{1} - \vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) \psi_R = 0 \implies (\vec{\sigma} \cdot \hat{\vec{p}}) \psi_R = +\psi_R,$$

$$(E\mathbf{1} + \vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) \psi_L = 0 \implies (\vec{\sigma} \cdot \hat{\vec{p}}) \psi_L = -\psi_L.$$

- Thus,  $\psi_R$  and  $\psi_L$  are helicity eigenstates with eigenvalues  $+1$  and  $-1$ .
- Interpreting  $\vec{\sigma}/2$  as spin for spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ :

$$\psi_R : h = +\frac{1}{2} \text{ (spin parallel to } \vec{p}), \quad \psi_L : h = -\frac{1}{2} \text{ (spin anti-parallel).}$$

# Chirality: Massless vs Massive Fermions

- **Massless case** ( $m = 0$ ): chiralities decouple

$$p_\mu \sigma^\mu \psi_R = 0, \quad p_\mu \bar{\sigma}^\mu \psi_L = 0,$$

so chirality is conserved and

chirality = helicity.

- **Massive case** ( $m \neq 0$ ): the mass term couples chiralities

$$p_\mu \sigma^\mu \psi_R = m \psi_L, \quad p_\mu \bar{\sigma}^\mu \psi_L = m \psi_R,$$

so chirality is *not* conserved.

# Left-handed Neutrinos in the Standard Model

- Experiment: weak interactions violate parity maximally.
  - Wu experiment (1957): beta decay asymmetry.
  - Goldhaber experiment (1958): neutrinos are left-helical.
- Theory: weak force is an  $SU(2)_L$  gauge interaction.

$$L_\ell = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_\ell \\ \ell^- \end{pmatrix}_L, \quad \ell = e, \mu, \tau$$

Only left-chiral doublets couple to  $W^\pm$ ,  $Z$  bosons.

- No right-handed neutrino field exists in the minimal SM.
- $\Rightarrow$  In the SM: only **left-handed neutrinos** exist.

# Summary: Why Chirality Matters

- **Helicity**: intuitive picture — spin along momentum.
- **Chirality**: fundamental in the Standard Model.
- Electroweak gauge structure:
  - Left-chiral fermions form  $SU(2)_L$  **doublets**:

$$L_\ell = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_\ell \\ \ell^- \end{pmatrix}_L, \quad Q_q = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix}_L$$

- Right-chiral fermions are  $SU(2)_L$  **singlets**:

$$e_R, u_R, d_R \quad (\text{no } \nu_R \text{ in SM})$$

- This chiral asymmetry explains:
  - **Maximal parity violation** in weak interactions.
  - Different coupling strengths of left- vs. right-handed fields.