

We then again have: $\vec{S} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{j} = 0$.

(13)

Thus, for the Klein-Gordon-Equation one gets a different definition of the probability density!

Insertion of $\phi = N e^{i(\vec{p}\vec{x} - Et)}$ yields:

$$S = 2E_{\pm} |N|^2 \rightarrow \text{negative probability density! Problem!}$$

$$\vec{j} = 2\vec{p} |N|^2$$

Normalization

This negative probability density is an inherent problem of the Klein-Gordon equation; this problem is not present for the Schrödinger equation, as here: $S = |N|^2$ with $\psi = N e^{i(\vec{p}\vec{x} - Et)}$, $N = \sqrt{V}$.

C. Dirac Equation

won't work

Idea: Avoid negative probabilities (and energies) using a linearized ansatz...

$$\text{Ansatz: } \hat{H}\psi = (\vec{\alpha}\vec{p} + \beta m)\psi \quad \text{or}$$

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

Could have been only mathematical construction w/o physical meaning, but...

where α, β are determined requiring that also Klein-Gordon equation, i.e. $\hat{H}^2\psi = (\vec{p}^2 + m^2)\psi$ is satisfied.

$$\rightarrow \alpha_i^2 = \beta^2 = 1; \quad \alpha_i \alpha_k + \alpha_k \alpha_i = 0 \quad \text{for } i \neq k$$

$$\alpha_i \beta + \beta \alpha_i = 0$$

As α_i and β do not commute these relations cannot be satisfied by numbers $\rightarrow 4 \times 4$ matrices.

$$\text{i.e.: } \alpha_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_i \\ \sigma_i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad i=1,2,3; \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

with σ_i = Pauli matrices.

$$\sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Covariant form of Dirac equation:
[Multiplication with β]

$$i\gamma^0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi + i\vec{\gamma} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \psi - m\psi = 0 \quad \text{with } \gamma^\mu = (\beta, \beta\vec{\alpha})$$

$$\rightarrow \boxed{i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi - m\psi = 0} \quad \text{Dirac equation}$$

Remark on notation:
Def.: $\gamma^\mu \alpha_\mu = \beta$
 $\rightarrow (i\partial - m)\psi = 0$

with $\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{1} & 0 \\ 0 & -\mathbb{1} \end{pmatrix}$, $\gamma^1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_1 \\ -\sigma_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\gamma^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_2 \\ -\sigma_2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\gamma^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_3 \\ -\sigma_3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
and:

$$\{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = \gamma^\mu \gamma^\nu + \gamma^\nu \gamma^\mu = 2\eta^{\mu\nu}$$

$$\gamma^{0\dagger} = \gamma^0; \quad \gamma^{k\dagger} = -\gamma^k; \quad \gamma^{\mu\dagger} = \gamma^0 \gamma^\mu \gamma^0;$$

Reminder:
 $A^\dagger = (A^*)^T$

- Solution: Four-component spinors $\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \\ \psi_3 \\ \psi_4 \end{pmatrix}$
- Describes free relativistic spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particles; operator: $\hat{S} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma \end{pmatrix}$
- Again one gets solutions with negative energies [H. Thomson, Ch. 4.4]
- But: probability density always positive. $\hat{S}^2 \psi = \frac{3}{4} \psi$

Continuity equation:

$$\text{Use: } i\partial_0 \psi + i\alpha_\mu \partial_\mu \psi - m\psi = 0 \quad (*)$$

See H. Thomson, ch. 4.3

As we now have spinors for ψ complex conjugates have to be replaced by hermitian conjugates: $\psi^\dagger \rightarrow \psi^\dagger = (\psi^*)^T$.

$$\rightarrow -i\partial_0 \psi^\dagger - i\partial_\mu \psi^\dagger \alpha_\mu^\dagger - m\psi^\dagger \beta^\dagger = 0 \quad (**)$$

$\psi^\dagger(*) - (**)\psi$ yields:

hermitian!

$$i\psi^\dagger \partial_0 \psi + i\partial_0 \psi^\dagger \psi + (i\psi^\dagger \alpha_\mu \partial_\mu \psi + i\partial_\mu \psi^\dagger \alpha_\mu^\dagger \psi) = 0$$

Use: $\alpha_i^\dagger = \alpha_i$
 $\beta^\dagger = \beta$

$$\partial_0(\psi^\dagger \psi) + \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\psi^\dagger \vec{\alpha} \psi) = 0 \quad (\text{continuity eq.})$$

Thus: $S = \psi^\dagger \psi$; $\vec{j} = \psi^\dagger \vec{\alpha} \psi$ with $S = |\psi_1|^2 + |\psi_2|^2 + |\psi_3|^2 + |\psi_4|^2 > 0$.

$$\boxed{j^\mu = (\underline{S}, \vec{j}) = \psi^\dagger \gamma^0 \gamma^\mu \psi = \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi}$$

with $\alpha_i = \gamma^0 \gamma^i$, $(\gamma^0)^2 = \mathbb{1}$

Dirac
4-vector
current

(Covariant
current)

adjoint
spinor

Using:

$$\boxed{\bar{\psi} = \psi^\dagger \gamma^0}$$

Adjoint
Spinor!

Solutions to the Dirac equation:

All four components ψ_i satisfy the Klein-Gordon equation; this was the original intuition of the Ansatz...

i.e.: $(\square + m^2)\psi_i = 0$ for $i=1,2,3,4$

From: $(\gamma_0^2 + \gamma_3^2)(\gamma_0^2 + \gamma_3^2)$
and $\partial_\mu \partial_\nu = \partial_\nu \partial_\mu$

Proof:
$$0 = \gamma^\nu \partial_\nu (\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m)\psi = \frac{1}{2}(\gamma^\nu \gamma^\mu + \gamma^\mu \gamma^\nu) \partial_\nu \partial_\mu \psi - m \gamma^\nu \partial_\nu \psi$$
$$= \underbrace{\gamma^{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu \partial_\mu + i m^2 \psi}_{2g^{\mu\nu}}$$
$$= i(\partial^\mu \partial_\mu + m^2)\psi$$

Hence for the solutions of the Dirac-equation, we can make the following Ansatz:

4-vectors!
Thomson $u(p) = u(E, \vec{p})$

(i) $\psi = u(p) e^{-ipx}$ and (ii) $\psi = v(p) e^{ipx}$

Spinor x plane wave solution

Where $u(p), v(p)$ are four-component spinors independent of x , i.e. time and space coordinates.

Insertion of (i) into Dirac-equation yields:

$\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu e^{-ipx}$
 $= -i \gamma^\mu p_\mu e^{-ipx}$
 $= \gamma^\mu p_\mu e^{-ipx}$

$$(i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) u(p) e^{-ipx} = 0$$
$$(\gamma^\mu p_\mu - m) u(p) = 0$$

or in short-hand notation: $(\not{p} - m)u = 0$.

Furthermore, we use:

$$\gamma^\mu p_\mu = E \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} - \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p} \quad \text{and} \quad u(p) = \begin{pmatrix} u_A(p) \\ u_B(p) \end{pmatrix}$$

Where $\vec{\sigma} = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3)$ represent the Pauli-matrices and $u_A(p), u_B(p)$ are two-component spinors.

Now consider particle at rest; i.e.: $\vec{p} = 0, E = m$

Remember: Two particle states for $E = -m$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -2m \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_A \\ u_B \end{pmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow u(p) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

with the eigenvalue $E = m$ for $\psi = u(p) e^{-ipx}$

with $\vec{p} \neq 0$: $\gamma^\mu u + \vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma} u$

[Energy operator: $\gamma^0 p_0$; eigenvalue equation: $i \gamma^0 \partial_0 u e^{-ipx} = m u e^{-ipx}$]

Similar with $\psi = v(p) e^{+ipx}$; $v(p) = \begin{pmatrix} v_A(p) \\ v_B(p) \end{pmatrix}$...

(16)

$$(i\hbar \partial_\mu - m) v(p) e^{+ipx} = 0$$

$$(\gamma^\mu p_\mu + m) v(p) = 0$$

or again
in short: $(\not{p} + m)v = 0$

Again considering particle at rest,
i.e. $\vec{p} = 0$, $E = m$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2m\mathbb{1} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_A \\ v_B \end{pmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow v(p) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Attention:
spin!

... again with eigenvalue $E = +m$ for $\psi = v(p) e^{ipx}$
[here, we need to use diff. operator; eigenvalue eq.: $-i\hbar \partial_0 v e^{+ipx} = +m v e^{+ipx}$]

See
Thomson
4.7.4

Remark: The Dirac-equation has 4 independent solutions.
These can be formulated in different ways; only using the
ansatz $u(p) e^{-ipx}$ yields two extra solution with neg. energy
eigenvalues $E = -m$ which are difficult to interpret; using
only $v(p) e^{ipx}$ the same happens.

Using two solutions of the form $u e^{-ipx}$ and two of the
form $v e^{+ipx}$ gets rid of the negative energy eigenvalues.
However we will have to see how to handle/interpret
the different signs in the exponent of the exponential.

Anyhow,
First consider now $\vec{p} \neq 0, \dots$

Using:

$$\left[E \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{1} & 0 \\ 0 & -\mathbb{1} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \vec{\sigma} \vec{p} \\ -\vec{\sigma} \vec{p} & 0 \end{pmatrix} - m \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{1} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbb{1} \end{pmatrix} \right] u = 0 \quad | \text{ i.e. } (\not{p} - m)u = 0$$

yields ...

$$\begin{pmatrix} (E-m)\mathbb{1} & -\vec{\sigma} \vec{p} \\ \vec{\sigma} \vec{p} & -(E+m)\mathbb{1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_A \\ u_B \end{pmatrix} = 0 \rightarrow u_A = \frac{\vec{\sigma} \vec{p}}{E-m} u_B \quad \&$$

$$u_B = \frac{\vec{\sigma} \vec{p}}{E+m} u_A$$

Since, ... by choosing one of the
two-component spinors u_A or u_B the
other one is fully defined.

both fulfilled at
the same time as
 $E^2 = \vec{p}^2 + m^2$...
try!

Choosing simplest expressions for $u_A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \dots$

(17)

PARTICLE SPINORS

$$u_1(p) = N_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \frac{p_z}{E+m} \\ \frac{p_x + ip_y}{E+m} \end{pmatrix} \quad u_2(p) = N_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \frac{p_x - ip_y}{E+m} \\ \frac{-p_z}{E+m} \end{pmatrix}$$

dep. on chosen normalization

Spin \uparrow for $\vec{p} = (0, 0, p_z)$
Spin \downarrow for $\vec{p} = (0, 0, p_z)$

N_1, N_2 :
if $\psi^\dagger \psi = 2E$
 $N_1 = N_2 = \sqrt{E+m}$.

important: u_1 and u_2 do not commute

The fact that u_1 and u_2 are spin $\frac{1}{2}$ states with spin \uparrow, \downarrow for $\vec{p} = (0, 0, p_z)$ can be shown by calculating $\hat{S}_z u_{1,2}$ with $\hat{S}_z = \frac{1}{2} \Sigma_z = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_z & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_z \end{pmatrix}$...

[compare Theorem 4.8 and 4.4]
[see below]

In a completely analogous way using $(p+m)v=0$ one obtains...

ANTIPARTICLE SPINORS

$$v_1(p) = N_1 \begin{pmatrix} \frac{p_x - ip_y}{E+m} \\ \frac{-p_z}{E+m} \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad v_2(p) = N_2 \begin{pmatrix} \frac{p_z}{E+m} \\ \frac{p_x + ip_y}{E+m} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

again with $N_1 = N_2 = \sqrt{E+m}$ for Lorentz-inv. normalization.

Spin \uparrow for $\vec{p} = (0, 0, p_z)$
Spin \downarrow for $\vec{p} = (0, 0, p_z)$

Remark! These solutions correspond to solutions one would get using $E < 0$ when deriving $u(p)$...

Advantage of this choice: Don't need to remember whether large E is positive or negative...

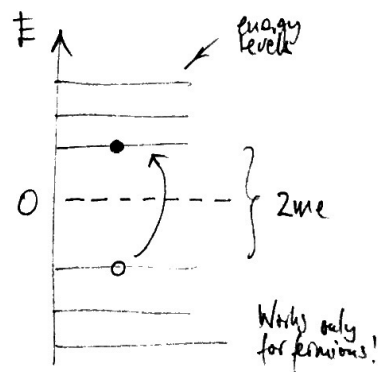
Interpretation of negative energies and/or different signs in the exponential of $\psi = u e^{-ipx}$ and $\psi = v e^{ipx}$?

A. Dirac Interpretation.

Vacuum = sea of occupied negative energy levels

Due to Pauli principle filled negative energy levels have no influence as long as all are occupied.

→ Prediction of antiparticles as hole in the sea of neg. energy states



(SIDE)