

## Recap

$$(\gamma^\mu k_\mu - \kappa)u(k) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & k \cdot \sigma \\ k \cdot \bar{\sigma} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{k \cdot \sigma} \\ \sqrt{k \cdot \bar{\sigma}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} (k \cdot \sigma) \sqrt{k \cdot \bar{\sigma}} \\ (k \cdot \bar{\sigma}) \sqrt{k \cdot \sigma} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(k \cdot \sigma)k \cdot \bar{\sigma} = k^2 \mathbb{1}_{2 \times 2}$$

**Indeed:**  $k_\mu \sigma^\mu k_\nu \bar{\sigma}^\nu = k_\mu k_\nu \frac{1}{2} \{\sigma^\mu, \bar{\sigma}^\nu\}$

$$= k_\mu k_\nu \frac{1}{2} (\sigma^\mu \bar{\sigma}^\mu + \sigma^\nu \bar{\sigma}^\nu)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \mathbb{1} & \mu = \nu = 0 \\ -\delta^{ij} & \mu = i, \nu = j \\ 0 & \mu = 0, \nu = j \\ 0 & \mu = i, \nu = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$= g^{\mu\nu} \mathbb{1}_{2 \times 2}$$

Another ansatz:

$$\psi(x) = v(k) e^{+ikx}$$

for the antiparticle case, but also with  $k^0 = +\sqrt{k^2 + \kappa^2}$ .

That is to say,  $k^0$  is still kept positive (positive energy, negative frequency).

Putting this back into the Dirac equation

$$(-\gamma^\mu k_\mu - \kappa)v(k) = 0$$

$$\implies (\gamma^\mu k_\mu + \kappa) v(k) = 0$$

At  $\vec{k} = 0$ :

$$(\gamma^0 + 1) v(\vec{k} = 0) = 0$$

the eigenvector of  $\gamma^0$  with eigenvalue 1

$$v(\vec{k} = 0) = \begin{pmatrix} \eta \\ -\eta \end{pmatrix}, \eta \in \mathbb{C}^2$$

Apply boost to obtain  $v(k)$  for a general  $k$  (not at rest).

$$v(k) = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{k \cdot \sigma} \eta \\ -\sqrt{k \cdot \bar{\sigma}} \eta \end{pmatrix}$$

## The full set of solutions of Dirac equation

$$\psi(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{k \cdot \sigma} \\ \sqrt{k \cdot \bar{\sigma}} \end{pmatrix} e^{-ik \cdot x}$$

and

$$\psi(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{k \cdot \sigma} \eta \\ -\sqrt{k \cdot \sigma} \eta \end{pmatrix} e^{ik \cdot x}$$

$$\text{Basis of solutions } \xi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \eta = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } \eta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \eta = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Orthogonality and completeness of the solutions

$$\bar{u}^r(k) u^s(k) = 2\kappa \xi^{r\dagger} \cdot \xi^s = 2\kappa \delta^{rs}; \quad \bar{u} \equiv u^\dagger \cdot \gamma^0$$

The same also holds for  $\bar{v}^r(k) v^s(k) = -2\kappa \delta^{rs}$

Additionally

$$\bar{u}^r(k) v^s(k) = 0, \quad \forall r, s \in \{1, 2\}$$

and same goes the other way

Another set of relations

$$u^{r\dagger}(k) u^s(k) = 2 \frac{\omega_k}{c} \delta^{rs} = 2k^0 \delta^{rs}$$

$$v^{r\dagger}(k) v^s(k) = 2k^0 \delta^{rs}$$

**Note:**  $u^{r\dagger} v^s(k) \neq 0$  but  $u^r(\vec{k})^\dagger v^s(\vec{k}) = 0$

“Spin sum rules”:  $\gamma^\mu k_\mu \equiv \not{k}$  (Feynman notation)

$$\sum_{s=1,2} u^s(k) \bar{u}^s(k) = \not{k} + \kappa$$

note that this  $\not{k} + \kappa$  is a projector (i.e.,  $P^2 = P$ )

$$\not{p} \cdot \not{k} = (p \cdot k) \mathbb{1}_{4 \times 4}$$

$$\left( \frac{\not{k} + \kappa}{2\kappa} \right) = \frac{1}{4\kappa^2} (\underbrace{k^2}_{\kappa^2} + 2\kappa k + \kappa^2) = \frac{1}{2\kappa} (k + \not{k})$$

$$\boxed{\sum_{r=1,2} v^r(k) \bar{v}^r(k) = \not{k} - \kappa}$$

This is analogous to

$$\sum_{\lambda=1,2} e_\lambda^i(k) e_\lambda^j(k) = \delta^{ij} \frac{k^i \cdot j}{\vec{k}^2}$$

## Behavior of the solutions for $k^3 \rightarrow \infty$

We've already discussed the special case when our  $\vec{k} = 0$ .

For  $k^3 \rightarrow \infty$ , we can forget  $k^1 = k^2 = 0$

$$u(k)^{s=1} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{k^0 - k^3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ \sqrt{k^0 + k^3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{k^3 \rightarrow \infty} = \sqrt{2|k^3|} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$u^{s=2}(k) = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{k^0 + k^3} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \sqrt{k^0 - k^3} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{k^3 \rightarrow +\infty} = \sqrt{2|k^3|} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

This also corresponds to the limit  $\kappa \rightarrow 0$

In this limit, only two components survive.

$\Rightarrow$  Why did Dirac choose a 4 dimensional representation of the Lorentz group? This looks like a waste of 2 degrees of freedom.

It's because we wanted to describe a particle of a finite mass (e.g. electron). If we wanted to describe a massless fermion of spin-1/2 then we could make do with just the upper two components in the block-diagonal

$$S^{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} * & 0 \\ 0 & * \end{pmatrix}$$

and that would be a perfectly fine representation of the Lorentz group.

The mass term in the  $\mathcal{L}$ , that is  $-\kappa \bar{\psi} \psi$  couples the upper two and the lower two components. Otherwise we wouldn't need that many degrees of freedom.

$\Rightarrow$  To describe waves (read: particles) with a dispersion relation  $\kappa \neq 0$ , it is necessary to use four-component spinors.

For  $\kappa = 0$ , a two-component spinor suffices.

**Define :**  $\gamma^5 := i\gamma^0\gamma^1\gamma^2\gamma^3$

$$= i\epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}\gamma^\mu\gamma^\nu\gamma^\rho\gamma^\sigma$$

= Lorentz scalar

Actually, this is a pseudo-scalar. Under  $T$  and  $P$  reversal, this picks up a  $-$  sign. But for the purpose of a *proper orthochronous* Lorentz group, this is sufficient.

$$\gamma^5 = \begin{pmatrix} -\mathbb{1}_{2 \times 2} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbb{1}_{2 \times 2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\mathbb{1} + \gamma^5}{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbb{1} \end{pmatrix} : \text{Projector onto the 2 lower components}$$

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$$\frac{1 - \gamma^5}{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} : \text{Projector onto the upper two components}$$