

Gamma matrices

Schwarz 10.31
Torg 4.1 and P+S 3.2

We've introduced these 4x4 gamma matrices as a way to simplify notation, but, in fact, they are closely related to the structure of spacetime and the Lorentz group.

The gamma matrices are

$$\gamma^m = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^m \\ \bar{\sigma}^m & 0 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow \text{this is actually not a definition, but just one representation}$$

and in general they satisfy the Clifford algebra

$$\boxed{\{\gamma^m, \gamma^\nu\} = \gamma^m \gamma^\nu + \gamma^\nu \gamma^m = 2g^{m\nu}} \leftarrow \text{this is a definition}$$

↑
note there is an implicit 4x4 identity matrix here

Pauli sigma matrices have different representations - and so do gamma matrices. But the Clifford algebra is a general definition (like the Lie algebra) that any representation must satisfy. One example is the one we've seen - the Weyl representation

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

We now introduce

$$G^{MV} = \frac{i}{2} [\gamma^M, \gamma^V]$$

There are many conventions for the S^{MV} ! Tong uses $S^{MV} = \frac{1}{4} [\gamma^M, \gamma^V]$, while P+S use $S^{MV} = \frac{i}{4} [\gamma^M, \gamma^V]$.

and define

$$S^{MV} = \frac{1}{2} G^{MV} = \frac{i}{4} [\gamma^M, \gamma^V]$$

which satisfies the Lie algebra of the Lorentz group

$$[S^{MV}, S^{\mu\nu}] = i (g^{\nu\mu} S^{M\mu} - g^{\mu\nu} S^{M\nu} - g^{\nu\mu} S^{M\mu} + g^{\mu\nu} S^{M\nu})$$

In other words, the S^{MV} are the generators of the Lorentz group! In this case, in the spinor representation.

These generators are not the same as the V^{MV} generators (in the vector representation) - the S^{MV} are complex, although they are still specified by six matrices.

For example, in the Weyl representation

$$S^{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_k & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_k \end{pmatrix} \quad S^{0i} = -\frac{i}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_i & 0 \\ 0 & -\sigma_i \end{pmatrix}$$

Technically, the S^{MV} are the generators for $\psi(x) = (\psi_L(x), \psi_R(x))$ and $(S^{MV})^\dagger$ are the generators for $\psi(x) = (\psi_R(x), \psi_L(x))$. The algebra is the same.

One of my earlier claims was that indices are one of the trickiest parts of QFT. The properties of gamma matrices and spinors are a good example of this.

Note that $\{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = 2g^{\mu\nu}$ really means

$$(\gamma^\mu)_{\alpha\beta} (\gamma^\nu)_{\gamma\delta} + (\gamma^\nu)_{\alpha\beta} (\gamma^\mu)_{\gamma\delta} = 2g^{\mu\nu} \mathbb{1}_{\alpha\beta}$$

We want dot products of vectors to be Lorentz invariant, so this means that the spinor and vector representations have related Lorentz transformations, because

$$\begin{aligned} V \cdot V &= V_\mu V^\mu \\ &= V_\mu g^{\mu\nu} V_\nu \\ &= V_\mu \frac{1}{2} \{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} V_\nu \end{aligned}$$

In fact

$$\Lambda_S^{-1} \gamma^\mu \Lambda_S = (\Lambda_\nu)^{\mu\nu} \gamma_\nu$$

↑
Lorentz transformation
acting on spinor indices

← Lorentz transformation acting
on vector indices

↑ follows from $\bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi \rightarrow (\Lambda_\nu)^{\mu\nu} \bar{\psi} \gamma_\nu \psi$

We can also deduce

$$(\gamma^0)^2 = \mathbb{1} \quad \text{and} \quad (\gamma^i)^2 = -\mathbb{1}$$

↑ follows from $\{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = 2g^{\mu\nu}$ (40)

and that

$$(\gamma^0)^{\dagger} = \gamma^0 \quad \text{and} \quad (\gamma^i)^{\dagger} = -\gamma^i$$

This means that

$$\begin{aligned} (S^{\mu\nu})^{\dagger} &= \left(\frac{1}{4} [\gamma^{\mu}, \gamma^{\nu}] \right)^{\dagger} \\ &= -\frac{i}{4} [\gamma^{\nu\dagger}, \gamma^{\mu\dagger}] \\ &= \frac{i}{4} [\gamma^{\mu\dagger}, \gamma^{\nu\dagger}] \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow S^{ij\dagger} = S^{ij} \quad \text{and} \quad S^{0i\dagger} = -S^{0i}$$

↑
rotations are unitary

↑
boosts are not unitary

Moreover

$$\begin{aligned} (\gamma^i)^{\dagger} &= -\gamma^i \\ &= \gamma^0 \gamma^i \gamma^0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and} \quad \begin{aligned} (\gamma^0)^{\dagger} &= \gamma^0 \\ &= \gamma^0 \gamma^0 \gamma^0 \end{aligned}$$

↑ so $\gamma^{\mu\dagger} = \gamma^0 \gamma^{\mu} \gamma^0$

From this we can also prove that

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma^0 (S^{\mu\nu})^{\dagger} \gamma^0 &= \gamma^0 \frac{i}{4} [\gamma^{\mu\dagger}, \gamma^{\nu\dagger}] \gamma^0 \\ &= \frac{i}{4} [\gamma^0 \gamma^{\mu\dagger} \gamma^0, \gamma^0 \gamma^{\nu\dagger} \gamma^0] \\ &= \frac{i}{4} [\gamma^{\mu}, \gamma^{\nu}] = S^{\mu\nu} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow (\gamma^0 \Lambda_s \gamma^0)^{\dagger} &= \gamma^0 \exp [i \theta_{\mu\nu} S^{\mu\nu}]^{\dagger} \gamma^0 \\ &= \exp [-i \theta_{\mu\nu} \gamma^0 S^{\mu\nu\dagger} \gamma^0] \\ &= \exp [-i \theta_{\mu\nu} S^{\mu\nu}] = \Lambda_s^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Finally, this allows us to show that $\bar{\psi} \gamma^0 \psi$ is Lorentz invariant

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\psi} \gamma^0 \psi &\rightarrow (\bar{\psi} \Lambda_S^+) \gamma^0 (\Lambda_S \psi) = \bar{\psi} \gamma^0 \Lambda_S^{-1} \Lambda_S \psi \\ &= \bar{\psi} \gamma^0 \psi \end{aligned}$$

Then we recall that $\bar{\psi} \psi$ was also Lorentz invariant and we see that $\bar{\psi} = \bar{\psi} \gamma^0$!!
 ↑ which you can check explicitly.

Let's summarise our gamma matrix stuff

- $\{\gamma^m, \gamma^n\} = 2g^{mn}$

- $\gamma^m = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^m \\ \bar{\sigma}^m & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma^m = (1, \sigma^i) \quad \bar{\sigma}^m = (1, -\sigma^i)$

- $(\gamma^0)^2 = \mathbb{1} \quad (\gamma^i)^2 = -\mathbb{1}$

- $(\gamma^0)^+ = \gamma^0 \quad (\gamma^i)^+ = -\gamma^i$

- $(\gamma^m)^+ = \gamma^0 \gamma^m \gamma^0$

- $\Lambda_S^{-1} \gamma^m \Lambda_S = (\Lambda_S)^{mn} \gamma_n$

$$\Lambda_S^{-1} = (\gamma^0 \Lambda_S \gamma^0)^+$$

- $S^{mn} = \frac{i}{4} [\gamma^m, \gamma^n] = \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{mn}$

$$\sigma^{mn} = \frac{i}{2} [\gamma^m, \gamma^n]$$

- $(S^{ij})^+ = S^{ij} \quad (S^{0i})^+ = -S^{0i}$

- $S^{mn} = \gamma^0 (S^{mn})^+ \gamma^0$

(a) "Weyl basis"

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

$$\gamma^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0_{2 \times 2} & \sigma^i \\ -\sigma^i & 0_{2 \times 2} \end{pmatrix}$$

There are no unitary representations of the Lorentz group

$$\frac{1}{2} J^{0i} = -\frac{i}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^i & 0 \\ 0 & -\sigma^i \end{pmatrix}$$

- generates boosts
- block diagonal
- not Hermitian
- $S(\Lambda_{\text{boost}})$ not unitary

$$\frac{1}{2} J^{ij} = \frac{\epsilon_{ijk}}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_k & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_k \end{pmatrix}$$

- generates rotations
- block diagonal
- Hermitian
- $S(\Lambda_{\text{rot}})$ unitary

$$\gamma^5 \equiv i \gamma^0 \gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^3 = \begin{pmatrix} -1_{2 \times 2} & 0_{2 \times 2} \\ 0_{2 \times 2} & 1_{2 \times 2} \end{pmatrix}$$

• block diagonal

(b) "Dirac basis"

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

$$\gamma^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0_{2 \times 2} & \sigma^i \\ -\sigma^i & 0_{2 \times 2} \end{pmatrix}$$

γ^5 intimately associated with chiral symmetry

$$\frac{1}{2} J^{0i} = \frac{i}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^i \\ \sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- generates boosts
- not block diagonal
- not Hermitian

$$\frac{1}{2} J^{ij} = \frac{\epsilon_{ijk}}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_k & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_k \end{pmatrix}$$

- generates rotations
- block diagonal
- Hermitian

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

- not block diagonal

Free particle solutions of the Dirac equation

Schwarz 11.21

Tong 4.3
P+S 3.2 and 3.3

To solve the Dirac equation, we first note that any solution of the Dirac equation is also a solution of the Klein-Gordon equation:

$$(i\not{\partial} - m)\psi = 0 \Rightarrow (i\not{\partial} + m)(i\not{\partial} - m)\psi = 0$$

Here we used

$$\not{\partial}\not{\partial} = a_\mu a_\nu \gamma^\mu \gamma^\nu$$
$$= a_\mu a_\nu (2g^{\mu\nu} - \gamma^\nu \gamma^\mu)$$
$$= 2a^2 - \not{\partial}\not{\partial} \Rightarrow \not{\partial}\not{\partial} = a^2$$

for any four-vector a^μ

$$\begin{aligned} & (-\not{\partial}\not{\partial} + im\not{\partial} - im\not{\partial} - m^2)\psi = 0 \\ & \Rightarrow -(\partial^2 + m^2)\psi = 0 \end{aligned}$$

the Klein-Gordon equation!

↑ This means we can write the solution in the general form

$$\psi(x) = \int \frac{d^3\vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} u(\vec{p}) e^{-ip \cdot x}$$

(with $p^0 = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2} > 0$)

Here $u(p)$ is a four-component spinor.

Working in the Weyl representation the Dirac equation is

$$\begin{pmatrix} -m & p \cdot \vec{\sigma} \\ p \cdot \vec{\sigma} & -m \end{pmatrix} u(\vec{p}) = 0$$

which simplifies in the rest frame, $\vec{p} = 0$, to

$$m \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} u(\vec{p}) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{solutions are constants!}$$

Recall that Weyl spinors have two components, so we usually write these constant solutions as

$$\Psi(\vec{p} = \vec{0}) = \begin{pmatrix} \xi \\ \zeta \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow$$

one example is to choose

$$\xi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ or } \xi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

which we will interpret as spin up or spin down positive energy solutions

To solve the Dirac equation more generally, we solve in a boosted frame, for example $p^\mu = (E, 0, 0, p^z)$

$$\Rightarrow \not{G} \cdot \not{p} = \begin{pmatrix} E - p^z & 0 \\ 0 & E + p^z \end{pmatrix} \quad \not{G} \cdot \not{\vec{p}} = \begin{pmatrix} E + p^z & 0 \\ 0 & E - p^z \end{pmatrix}$$

and use

$$m^2 = E^2 - (p^z)^2 = (E - p^z)(E + p^z)$$

to write

$$\begin{pmatrix} -m & \not{p} \cdot \not{G} \\ \not{p} \cdot \not{G} & -m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sqrt{(E-p^z)(E+p^z)} & 0 & E-p^z & 0 \\ 0 & -\sqrt{(E-p^z)(E+p^z)} & 0 & E+p^z \\ E+p^z & 0 & -\sqrt{(E-p^z)(E+p^z)} & 0 \\ 0 & E-p^z & 0 & -\sqrt{(E-p^z)(E+p^z)} \end{pmatrix}$$

and then one can check that

$$u(\vec{p}) = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{E-p^z} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{E+p^z} \end{pmatrix} \xi \\ \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{E+p^z} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{E-p^z} \end{pmatrix} \zeta \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{is indeed a solution of}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -m & \not{p} \cdot \not{G} \\ \not{p} \cdot \not{G} & -m \end{pmatrix} u(\vec{p}) = 0$$

More generally we can write

$$u(\vec{p}) = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{p \cdot \bar{v}} \xi \\ \sqrt{p \cdot \bar{v}} \zeta \end{pmatrix}$$

There is a second set of solutions

$$\chi(x) = \int \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} v(\vec{p}) e^{ip \cdot x}$$

with $p^0 = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2} > 0$, that satisfy

$$\begin{pmatrix} -m & -p \cdot \bar{v} \\ -p \cdot \bar{v} & -m \end{pmatrix} v(\vec{p}) = 0$$

which has solutions

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

η is a different two component constant spinor.

Q: what is the square root of a matrix?

OK - this is great! We have some solutions of the free Dirac equation, but what do we do with them?

Answering this requires a short detour into understanding chirality, helicity and spin.