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**Problem Sheet 1**  
**Quantum Field Theory**

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### Question 1. Dirac delta function

The Dirac delta function  $\delta(x)$  is an infinite spike of weight 1 located at  $x = 0$ . It is really a distribution, not a regular function, and strictly only makes sense inside integrals - which means that the relationships discussed below are only supposed to be true inside integrals. For a function  $f(x)$  that is sufficiently well-behaved in the region of  $x = 0$ ,

$$I_f[\delta(x)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)\delta(x)dx = f(0)$$

By considering integrals of this form show that

- a)  $I_f[\delta(ax)] = |a|^{-1} I_f[\delta(x)]$ ;
- b)  $I_f[\delta(g(x))] = \sum_{n=1}^N |g'(x_n)|^{-1} I_f[\delta(x - x_n)]$ , where  $g(x)$  has zeroes at  $\{x = x_n, n = 1 \dots N\}$ ;
- c)  $I_f[\delta(x)] = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} K I_f\left[\frac{\epsilon}{x^2 + \epsilon^2}\right]$ , and find the value of  $K$ . What limitations on  $f(x)$  are necessary?
- d)  $I_f[\delta(x)] = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \hat{K} I_f\left[\epsilon^{-1} e^{-x^2/\epsilon^2}\right]$ , and find the value of  $\hat{K}$ . What limitations on  $f(x)$  are necessary?

Note that the results in c) and d) are often used in physics, but that the true Dirac delta function does not have the same limitations.

*Proof.* The commonly used domain for distributions is  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R}) = C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ , the space of compactly-supported smooth functions on an open set  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . Then all distributions are infinitely differentiable in the sense of distributions.

For clarity we use  $T_g$  to denote the regular distribution induced by the function  $g$ . That is,  $T_g[f] := I_f[g]$ . Likewise we denote  $\delta[f] := I_f[\delta(x)]$ .

It is worth noting that expressions like  $\delta(g(x))$  is not well-defined in an obvious sense. One possible definition is via mollification. We need the following lemma:

#### Lemma 1. Approximating the $\delta$ -Function

Let  $\rho_\epsilon$  be the *standard mollifiers* in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then  $T_{\rho_\epsilon}$  converges to  $\delta$  in  $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$  as  $\epsilon \searrow 0$ .

*Proof.* We know that the standard mollifiers are given by  $\rho_\epsilon(x) = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \rho\left(\frac{x}{\epsilon}\right)$ , and  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} \rho(x) dx = 1$ . For  $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ , we have

$$T_{\rho_\epsilon}[f] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \rho\left(\frac{x}{\epsilon}\right) f(x) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \rho(y) f(\epsilon y) dy$$

Note that  $f(\epsilon y) \rightarrow f(0)$  as  $\epsilon \searrow 0$ , and  $|\rho(y)f(\epsilon y)|$  is integrable. By Dominated Convergence Theorem,

$$\lim_{\epsilon \searrow 0} T_{\rho_\epsilon}[f] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \rho(y) f(0) dy = f(0) = \delta[f]$$

□

In this way we **define**  $\delta(g(x))$  to be the distributional limit of  $T_{\rho_\epsilon \circ g}$  as  $\epsilon \searrow 0$ , provided it exists.

a)

$$\begin{aligned} I_f[\delta(ax)] &= \lim_{\epsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \rho\left(\frac{ax}{\epsilon}\right) f(x) dx = |a|^{-1} \lim_{\epsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \rho(x) f\left(\frac{\epsilon x}{a}\right) dx \\ &\stackrel{\text{(DCT)}}{=} |a|^{-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lim_{\epsilon \searrow 0} \rho(x) f\left(\frac{\epsilon x}{a}\right) dx = |a|^{-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \rho(x) f(0) dx = |a|^{-1} f(0) \\ &= |a|^{-1} I_f[\delta(x)] \end{aligned}$$

b) We assume that  $g(x)$  is piecewise invertible and the zeros  $x_1, \dots, x_N$  are simple. Let  $I_1, \dots, I_m$  be the intervals

on which  $g$  is invertible, with inverses  $g_1^{-1}, \dots, g_m^{-1}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} I_f[\delta(g(x))] &= \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \rho_{\varepsilon}(g(x)) f(x) dx = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^m \int_{I_i} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \rho\left(\frac{g(x)}{\varepsilon}\right) f(x) dx \\ &\stackrel{y=g(x)/\varepsilon}{=} \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^m \int_{g(I_i)/\varepsilon} \rho(y) \cdot \frac{f \circ g_i^{-1}(\varepsilon y)}{|g' \circ g_i^{-1}(\varepsilon y)|} dy \end{aligned}$$

For sufficiently well-behaved  $g^1$ ,  $\rho(y) \cdot \frac{f \circ g_i^{-1}(\varepsilon y)}{|g' \circ g_i^{-1}(\varepsilon y)|} \mathbf{1}_{g(I_i/\varepsilon)}$  is integrable. Note that

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \rho(y) \cdot \frac{f \circ g_i^{-1}(\varepsilon y)}{|g' \circ g_i^{-1}(\varepsilon y)|} \mathbf{1}_{g(I_i/\varepsilon)} = \begin{cases} \rho(y) \cdot \frac{f(x_j)}{|g'(x_j)|} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbb{R}} & 0 = g(x_j) \in g(I_i), x_j \in \{x_1, \dots, x_N\} \\ 0 & 0 \notin g(I_i) \end{cases}$$

By Dominated Convergence Theorem, we have

$$I_f[\delta(g(x))] = \sum_{j=1}^N \int_{\mathbb{R}} \rho(y) \cdot \frac{f(x_j)}{|g'(x_j)|} dy = \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{f(x_j)}{|g'(x_j)|} = \frac{I_f[\delta(x - x_j)]}{|g'(x_j)|}$$

c) The condition that  $f \in C_c^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$  is too strong for this part. Following the proof of Lemma 1 we give two conditions on  $f$ :

- $\frac{f(x)}{1+x^2} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ ;
- $f$  is continuous at 0.

The proof is essentially identical to Lemma 1.

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} I_f \left[ \frac{\varepsilon}{x^2 + \varepsilon^2} \right] = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \frac{\varepsilon}{x^2 + \varepsilon^2} dx = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(\varepsilon x) \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$$

By assumption  $\frac{f(\varepsilon x)}{1+x^2}$  is integrable. By Dominated Convergence Theorem,

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} I_f \left[ \frac{\varepsilon}{x^2 + \varepsilon^2} \right] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} f(\varepsilon x) \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = f(0) \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = f(0) \arctan x \Big|_{-\infty}^{+\infty} = \pi f(0) = \pi I_f[\delta(x)]$$

Hence we take  $K = 1/\pi$  and obtain that

$$I_f[\delta(x)] = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \frac{1}{\pi} I_f \left[ \frac{\varepsilon}{x^2 + \varepsilon^2} \right]$$

d) The conditions on  $f$ :

- $f(x) e^{-x^2} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ ;
- $f$  is continuous at 0.

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} I_f \left[ \varepsilon^{-1} e^{-x^2/\varepsilon^2} \right] = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \varepsilon^{-1} e^{-x^2/\varepsilon^2} dx = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(\varepsilon x) e^{-x^2} dx$$

By assumption  $f(\varepsilon x) e^{-x^2}$  is integrable. By Dominated Convergence Theorem,

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} I_f \left[ \varepsilon^{-1} e^{-x^2/\varepsilon^2} \right] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} f(\varepsilon x) e^{-x^2} dx = f(0) \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi} f(0) = \sqrt{\pi} I_f[\delta(x)]$$

<sup>1</sup>We essentially invoke the DCT unjustified. Perhaps the best way is to treat the identity in (b) as **definition**.

Hence we take  $K = 1/\pi$  and obtain that

$$I_f[\delta(x)] = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} I_f \left[ \varepsilon^{-1} e^{-x^2/\varepsilon^2} \right] \quad \checkmark$$

□

### Question 2. Lorentz transformations

The four vectors  $p^\mu = (E, \mathbf{p})$  and  $p'^\mu = (E', \mathbf{p}')$  are related by a Lorentz transformation  $\Lambda$ . We frequently will have to deal with integrals of the form

$$\int F(p) d^4 p = \int F(p) dE d^3 \mathbf{p}$$

Find the  $4 \times 4$  matrix representation of  $\Lambda$  explicitly for a boost  $\beta$  along the  $z$ -axis and the Jacobian for the change of variables  $p^\mu \rightarrow p'^\mu$ . Hence show that the 4-volume element  $d^4 p$  is Lorentz invariant. Now, by making a suitable Lorentz invariant choice of  $F(p)$ , show that  $(2E_{\mathbf{p}})^{-1} d^3 \mathbf{p}$  is Lorentz invariant if  $E_{\mathbf{p}} = \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$

*Proof.* The Lorentz boost along the  $z$ -axis is given by

$$\Lambda(\beta) = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & 0 & 0 & -\beta\gamma \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\beta\gamma & 0 & 0 & \gamma \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$ .

Note that  $\Lambda(\beta)$  is a linear transformation on the Minkowski spacetime  $(\mathbb{R}^4, \eta)$ . The Jacobian is given by the determinant:

$$\det J = \det \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & 0 & 0 & -\beta\gamma \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\beta\gamma & 0 & 0 & \gamma \end{pmatrix} = \gamma^2 - \beta^2 \gamma^2 = 1$$

The volume form is given by

$$d^4 p' = \det J \cdot d^4 p = d^4 p$$

so it is invariant under a Lorentz boost.

We consider the distribution  $F(p) = F(E, \mathbf{p})$  defined by

$$F(p) = \delta(p^\mu p_\mu - m^2) \theta_0(E)$$

where  $\theta_0$  is the Heaviside step function. The delta measure is clearly Lorentz invariant as  $p^\mu p_\mu$  is, and  $\theta_0(E)$  is invariant under proper orthochronous Lorentz transformations. Then we have the Lorentz invariant scalar

$$\begin{aligned} \int F(p) dE d^3 \mathbf{p} &= \int \delta(E^2 - \mathbf{p}^2 - m^2) \theta_0(E) dE d^3 \mathbf{p} \\ &= \int \left( \frac{\delta(E - \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2})}{2E} - \frac{\delta(E + \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2})}{2E} \right) \theta_0(E) dE d^3 \mathbf{p} \\ &= \int \frac{\delta(E - E_{\mathbf{p}})}{2E} dE d^3 \mathbf{p} = \int \frac{1}{2E_{\mathbf{p}}} d^3 \mathbf{p} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the 3-form  $\frac{1}{2E_{\mathbf{p}}} d^3 \mathbf{p}$  is Lorentz invariant. ✓

□

### Question 3. Simple Harmonic Oscillator

(See Gasiorowicz Chapter 6 for annihilation and creation operators in the SHO) This problem combines a review of the harmonic oscillator with that of complex coordinates. In ordinary classical mechanics, consider a two-dimensional harmonic oscillator with Lagrangian

$$L = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{q}_1^2 + \dot{q}_2^2) - \frac{1}{2}m\omega_0^2(q_1^2 + q_2^2)$$

where to get you in the field-theory mood I've labeled  $x$  and  $y$  as  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ . Now rewrite these coordinates as

$$z \equiv (q_1 + iq_2)/\sqrt{2}, \quad z^* \equiv (q_1 - iq_2)/\sqrt{2}$$

- Find the classical equations of motion in terms of  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ .
- Then rederive them in terms of  $z$  and  $z^*$ , not by just plugging into the preceding, but by rewriting  $L$  in terms of  $z$  and  $z^*$ , and then minimising the action under variations  $z \rightarrow z + \delta z$  and  $z^* \rightarrow z^* + \delta z^*$ . Treat these variations as independent.
- Find the Hamiltonian in terms of  $z, z^*$  and the corresponding canonical momenta.
- Now write the quantum Hamiltonian using lowering and raising operators defined in the usual way;  $a_1, a_1^\dagger$  for  $q_1$  and  $a_2, a_2^\dagger$  for  $q_2$ . Then rewrite in terms of

$$A \equiv (a_1 + ia_2)/\sqrt{2}, \quad B \equiv (a_1 - ia_2)/\sqrt{2}$$

- Find the commutations relation for  $A, A^\dagger, B$  and  $B^\dagger$  from those for  $a_1$  etc., and check that indeed they are an independent pair of raising/lowering operators.

*Proof.* a) Euler-Lagrange equations:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} = 0, \quad i = 1, 2$$

Substituting  $L$  into the equation:

$$m\ddot{q}_i + m\omega_0^2 q_i = 0, \quad i = 1, 2$$

The classical equations of motion are given by

$$\ddot{q}_1 + \omega_0^2 q_1 = 0, \quad \ddot{q}_2 + \omega_0^2 q_2 = 0$$

b) We have

$$q_1 = \frac{z + z^*}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad q_2 = \frac{z - z^*}{\sqrt{2}i}$$

which gives

$$q_1^2 + q_2^2 = \left(\frac{z + z^*}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{z - z^*}{\sqrt{2}i}\right)^2 = 2zz^*$$

In the new coordinates the Lagrangian is given by

$$L = m\dot{z}\dot{z}^* - m\omega_0^2 zz^*$$

Substituting into the Euler-Lagrange equations we obtain the equations of motion:

$$\ddot{z} + \omega_0^2 z = 0, \quad \ddot{z}^* + \omega_0^2 z^* = 0$$

*How do argue that  $z$  and  $z^*$  are independent?*

c) The canonical momenta are given by

$$p_z = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{z}} = m\dot{z}^*, \quad p_z^* = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{z}} = m\dot{z}$$

The Hamiltonian is given by the Legendre transformation:

$$H = \dot{z}p_z + \dot{z}^*p_z^* - L = 2m\dot{z}\dot{z}^* - (m\dot{z}\dot{z}^* - m\omega_0^2 z z^*) = m\dot{z}\dot{z}^* + m\omega_0^2 z z^* = \frac{p_z p_z^*}{m} + m\omega_0^2 z z^* \quad \checkmark$$

d) The classical Hamiltonian in the original coordinates is given by

$$H = \frac{p_1^2 + p_2^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}m\omega_0^2(q_1^2 + q_2^2) \quad \checkmark$$

In the canonical quantisation, the phase space  $\mathbb{R}^2$  corresponds to the Hilbert space  $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ . The quantum Hamiltonian operator is given by

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}_1^2 + \hat{p}_2^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}m\omega_0^2(\hat{q}_1^2 + \hat{q}_2^2)$$

with the canonical commutation relation

$$[\hat{q}_i, \hat{p}_j] = i\hbar\delta_{ij}$$

From now on we only consider the quantum system and drop the hats for simplicity. The ladder operators are defined by

$$a_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2m\omega_0\hbar}}(m\omega_0 q_i + ip_i), \quad a_i^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2m\omega_0\hbar}}(m\omega_0 q_i - ip_i), \quad i = 1, 2$$

Then

$$a_i^\dagger a_i = \frac{1}{2m\omega_0\hbar}(m^2\omega_0^2 q_i^2 + p_i^2 + im\omega_0[q_i, p_i]) = \frac{1}{\hbar\omega_0}\left(\frac{1}{2}m\omega_0 q_i^2 + \frac{p_i^2}{2m}\right) - \frac{1}{2}$$

Therefore the Hamiltonian operator is given by

$$H = \hbar\omega_0(a_1^\dagger a_1 + a_2^\dagger a_2 + 1)$$

Using

$$a_1 = \frac{A+B}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad a_2 = \frac{A-B}{\sqrt{2}i}$$

We have

$$H = \hbar\omega_0\left(\frac{(A^\dagger + B^\dagger)(A+B)}{2} + \frac{(A^\dagger - B^\dagger)(A-B)}{2} + 1\right) = \hbar\omega_0(A^\dagger A + B^\dagger B + 1)$$

e) The commutation relations for the ladder operators are given by

$$[a_i, a_i^\dagger] = \frac{1}{2m\omega_0\hbar} \cdot 2m\omega_0 i[q_i, p_i] = 1, \quad [a_i, a_j^\dagger] = 0, \quad [a_i, a_j] = 0$$


Now we verify these relations for our new ladder operators:

$$[A, A^\dagger] = \left[ \frac{a_1 + ia_2}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{a_1^\dagger - ia_2^\dagger}{\sqrt{2}} \right] = \frac{1}{2}([a_1, a_1^\dagger] + [a_2, a_2^\dagger]) = 1$$

$$[B, B^\dagger] = \left[ \frac{a_1 - ia_2}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{a_1^\dagger + ia_2^\dagger}{\sqrt{2}} \right] = \frac{1}{2}([a_1, a_1^\dagger] + [a_2, a_2^\dagger]) = 1$$

$$[A, B] = \left[ \frac{a_1 + ia_2}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{a_1 - ia_2}{\sqrt{2}} \right] = 0$$

$$[A, B^\dagger] = \left[ \frac{a_1 + ia_2}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{a_1^\dagger + ia_2^\dagger}{\sqrt{2}} \right] = \frac{1}{2} ([a_1, a_1^\dagger] - [a_2, a_2^\dagger]) = 0$$

Therefore  $A, A^\dagger$  and  $B, B^\dagger$  are indeed independent pairs of ladder operators. 

□

#### Question 4. Dirac wave equation

(See the notes on Relativistic Quantum Mechanics) A plane wave solution for the Dirac equation takes the form

$$\psi(t, \mathbf{x}) = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar}(Et - \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{x})} \psi_{\mathbf{p}}$$

where  $\psi_{\mathbf{p}}$  is a 4-component Dirac spinor satisfying the eigenvalue equation

$$(\mathbf{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha} + m\beta - EI_4) \psi_{\mathbf{p}} = 0 \quad (1)$$

with

$$I_4 = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I \\ I & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \alpha_i = \begin{pmatrix} -\sigma_i & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_i \end{pmatrix}$$

where 0 and  $I$  represent  $2 \times 2$  null and identity matrices respectively, and  $\sigma_i$  are the Pauli sigma matrices. Show explicitly that the determinant condition for solutions to (1) is

$$(E^2 - (\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2))^2 = 0$$

and thus that two eigenspinors  $\psi_{\mathbf{p}}$  have  $E = \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$  and two have  $E = -\sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$ . Show that the eigenspinors  $\psi_{\mathbf{p}}$  can be chosen so that they are also eigenspinors of the spin projection operator

$$h = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p} & 0 \\ 0 & \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p} \end{pmatrix}$$

Find all four independent eigenspinors of definite  $h$  for  $\mathbf{p} = (0, 0, p)$ .

*Proof.* We compute the determinant for the eigenvalue equation:

$$\det(\mathbf{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha} + m\beta - EI_4) = \det \begin{pmatrix} -\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p} - EI_2 & mI_2 \\ mI_2 & \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p} - EI_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Since  $mI_2$  and  $\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p} - EI_2$  commute, we have in fact


$$\det(\mathbf{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha} + m\beta - EI_4) = \det((-\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p} - EI_2)(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p} - EI_2) - m^2 I_2) = \det(-(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p})^2 + (E^2 - m^2)I_2)$$

Note that

$$(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^3 p_i^2 \sigma_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^3 p_i^2 I_2 = \mathbf{p}^2 I_2$$

We have

$$\det(\mathbf{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha} + m\beta - EI_4) = \det((E^2 - \mathbf{p}^2 - m^2)I_2) = (E^2 - \mathbf{p}^2 - m^2)^2 \quad \text{✓}$$

which is the characteristic polynomial of the operator  $(\mathbf{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha} + m\beta)$ . Note that  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha} + m\beta$  is symmetric and hence diagonalisable. The eigenvalues are  $E_{\pm} = \pm \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 + m^2}$ , each of which corresponds to an eigenspace of dimension two. 

For  $h = \text{diag}\{\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}, \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}\}$ , it is clear that it commutes with  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \text{diag}\{-\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}, \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}\}$  and  $\beta$ . Hence  $h$  and  $\mathbf{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha} + m\beta$  are simultaneously diagonalisable. In other words, we can choose a basis of eigenspinors  $\{\psi_{\mathbf{p}}\}$  such that the spin

projection operator is diagonalised.

For  $\mathbf{p} = (0, 0, p)$  and  $\sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ , we have

$$\mathbf{p} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha} + m\beta - E_{\pm} I_4 = \begin{pmatrix} -p - E_{\pm} & 0 & m & 0 \\ 0 & p - E_{\pm} & 0 & m \\ m & 0 & p - E_{\pm} & 0 \\ 0 & m & 0 & -p - E_{\pm} \end{pmatrix}$$

We can directly read out the eigenspaces:

$$V_{\pm} = \text{span}\{(m, 0, p + E_{\pm}, 0)^{\top}, (0, m, 0, -p + E_{\pm})^{\top}\}$$

Since

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p} = p \text{diag}\{1, -1, 1, -1\}$$

it is automatically diagonalised in the basis chosen above. In summary the eigenspinors are given by

$$\psi^1 = \begin{pmatrix} m \\ 0 \\ p + \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \psi^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ m \\ 0 \\ -p + \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \psi^3 = \begin{pmatrix} m \\ 0 \\ p - \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \psi^4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ m \\ 0 \\ -p - \sqrt{p^2 + m^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

□

### Question 5. $\gamma$ matrices

- (1) Show that the two sets of  $\gamma$  matrices

$$\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I \\ I & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_i \\ -\sigma_i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\bar{\gamma}^0 = \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & -I \end{pmatrix}, \quad \bar{\gamma}^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_i \\ -\sigma_i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

are unitarily equivalent i.e. there exists a unitary matrix  $U$  such that  $\bar{\gamma}^{\mu} = U^{\dagger} \gamma^{\mu} U$ .

- (2) Show that there are no three-dimensional matrix representations of the algebra  $\gamma^{\mu} \gamma^{\nu} + \gamma^{\nu} \gamma^{\mu} = 2\eta^{\mu\nu}$  for 4-dimensional space-time i.e.  $\mu, \nu \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ .

*Proof.* (1) It is easier to work with Kronecker products. We rewrite the  $\gamma$ -matrices as

$$\gamma^0 = \sigma_1 \otimes I_2, \quad \bar{\gamma}^0 = \sigma_3 \otimes I_2, \quad \gamma^i = \bar{\gamma}^i = -i\sigma_2 \otimes \sigma_i$$

We seek the unitary transformation of the form  $U = \alpha \otimes \beta$ , with  $\alpha, \beta \in M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{C})$ . We may further demand that  $\alpha, \beta$  are unitary. The condition that  $\bar{\gamma}^{\mu} = U^{\dagger} \gamma^{\mu} U$  implies that

$$\sigma_3 \otimes I_2 = \alpha^{\dagger} \sigma_1 \alpha, \quad \sigma_2 \otimes \sigma_i = \alpha^{\dagger} \sigma_2 \alpha \otimes \beta^{\dagger} \sigma_i \beta$$

It is tempting to set  $\beta = I_2$  and see if it works. We have now

$$\sigma_3 = \alpha^{\dagger} \sigma_1 \alpha, \quad \sigma_2 = \alpha^{\dagger} \sigma_2 \alpha$$

$\{I_2, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3\}$  is a basis of  $M_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{C})$ . The second equation will hold trivially if  $\alpha$  commutes with  $\sigma_2$ . In this



simple case we have

$$\alpha = mI_2 + n\sigma_2, \quad m, n \in \mathbb{C}$$

We substitute this into the first equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_3 &= (\bar{m}I_2 + \bar{n}\sigma_2)\sigma_1(mI_2 + n\sigma_2) \\ &= |m|^2\sigma_1 + |n|^2\sigma_2\sigma_1\sigma_2 + \bar{n}m\sigma_2\sigma_1 + \bar{m}n\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ &= (|m|^2 - |n|^2)\sigma_1 + \operatorname{Re}(\bar{m}n)\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2\} + \operatorname{Im}(\bar{m}n)i[\sigma_1, \sigma_2] \\ &= (|m|^2 - |n|^2)\sigma_1 + 2i\operatorname{Im}(\bar{m}n)\sigma_3 \end{aligned}$$

By comparing the coefficients we have

$$|m|^2 - |n|^2 = 0, \quad \operatorname{Im}(\bar{m}n) = -\frac{1}{2}i$$

We also note that  $\alpha$  is unitary:

$$I_2 = \alpha^\dagger \alpha = (\bar{m}I_2 + \bar{n}\sigma_2)(mI_2 + n\sigma_2) = (|m|^2 + |n|^2)I_2 + 2\operatorname{Re}(\bar{m}n)\sigma_2$$

which implies that

$$|m|^2 + |n|^2 = 1, \quad \operatorname{Re}(\bar{m}n) = 0$$

Hence  $|m| = |n| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ , and  $\bar{m}n = -\frac{i}{2}$ . We choose  $m = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$  and  $n = -\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}$ . Then  $\alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(I_2 - i\sigma_2)$ . The unitary transformation is given by<sup>2</sup>

$$U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(I_2 - i\sigma_2) \otimes I_2$$

In the matrix form,

$$U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} I_2 & -I_2 \\ I_2 & I_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \checkmark$$

- (2) The one-line answer is that the  $\gamma$ -matrices generate the 16-dimensional Clifford algebra  $\operatorname{Cl}_{1,3}(\mathbb{R})$  and hence cannot have a **faithful** representation in  $\operatorname{GL}_3(\mathbb{R})$ , which has dimension 9. □

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<sup>2</sup>We essentially reach this result by guessing. A rigorous proof might require writing down more variables and constraint equations.