

5° Discrete symmetries of the Dirac equation

- Goals:
- Identify symmetries that facilitate the solution of the relativistic Coulomb problem.
 - Gain further insight into the physical meaning of the internal degrees of freedom associated with the Dirac spinor.

Notation: Here and in the following we use "natural units" where $\hbar = c = 1$. The Dirac Hamiltonian then reads

$$\underline{H = \vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{p} + \beta m + V(\vec{r})}$$

a) Parity: The parity transformation (= space inversion)

$$\underline{\vec{r} \rightarrow -\vec{r}}$$

transforms a right-handed coordinate system into a left-handed one: In non-relativistic quantum mechanics the parity operator $\tilde{P}$ acts on wave functions as

$$\underline{\tilde{P} \psi(\vec{r}) = \psi(-\vec{r})}$$

Because $\tilde{P}^2 = 1$, the eigenvalues of $\tilde{P}$ are ± 1 :

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \psi(-\vec{r}) = \psi(\vec{r}) \\ \psi(-\vec{r}) = -\psi(\vec{r}) \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \underline{\text{even}} \\ \underline{\text{odd}} \end{array} \text{ parity state}$$

More generally, $\tilde{P}: |\psi\rangle \rightarrow \tilde{P}|\psi\rangle$

and we require that

$$\langle \psi | \tilde{P}^\dagger \vec{r} \tilde{P} | \psi \rangle = - \langle \psi | \vec{r} | \psi \rangle$$

for any $|\psi\rangle$, which implies

$$\tilde{P}^\dagger \vec{r} \tilde{P} = -\vec{r} \Rightarrow \underline{\vec{r} \tilde{P} = -\tilde{P} \vec{r}}$$

using the fact that $\tilde{P}$ is unitary.

Thus $\vec{r}$ is odd under parity. Because $\vec{p} = -i\nabla$ describes spatial translations, likewise

$$\underline{\vec{p} \tilde{P} = -\tilde{P} \vec{p} \Rightarrow \vec{p} \text{ is odd}}$$

On the other hand, for inversion-symmetric potentials with $V(-\vec{r}) = V(\vec{r})$ we expect H to be even. Because H is linear in $\vec{p}$, this requires a unitary action in spin space. We therefore define

$$\underline{P = \tilde{P} U_P}$$

$\tilde{P}$: space inversion
 U_P : unitary 4×4 matrix

and require

$$P^\dagger H P = U_P^\dagger \underbrace{\tilde{P}^\dagger (\vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{p}) \tilde{P}}_{-(\vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{p})} U_P +$$

$$+ U_p^\dagger \underbrace{\tilde{\rho}^\dagger \beta_m \tilde{\rho}}_{=\beta_m} U_p + U_p^\dagger \underbrace{\tilde{\rho}^\dagger V(\vec{r}) \tilde{\rho}}_{V(-\vec{r}) = V(\vec{r})} U_p$$

$$= - (U_p^\dagger \vec{\alpha} U_p) \cdot \vec{p} + (U_p^\dagger \beta U_p) m + \underbrace{U_p^\dagger U_p}_= 1 V(\vec{r})$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{U_p^\dagger \vec{\alpha} U_p = -\vec{\alpha}, \quad U_p^\dagger \beta U_p = \beta, \quad U_p^2 = 1}$$

Since the α^k anticommute with β ,

$$\alpha^k \beta = -\beta \alpha^k \Rightarrow \alpha^k = -\beta \alpha^k \beta$$

we can choose $U_p = \beta$ and identify the parity operator as

$$\underline{P = \tilde{\rho} \beta}$$

A spinor state is an eigenstate of P if

$$\psi(\vec{r}) = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1(\vec{r}) \\ \psi_2(\vec{r}) \\ \psi_3(\vec{r}) \\ \psi_4(\vec{r}) \end{pmatrix} = \pm \beta \psi(-\vec{r}) = \pm \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1(-\vec{r}) \\ \psi_2(-\vec{r}) \\ -\psi_3(-\vec{r}) \\ -\psi_4(-\vec{r}) \end{pmatrix}$$

Upper and lower components of the Dirac spinor have opposite parity.

b) Charge conjugation

We look for a transformation that transforms particle solutions into antiparticle solutions.
The latter satisfy the Dirac equation with opposite charge. In covariant notation and in the presence of an electromagnetic field

$$A_\mu = (\Phi, -\vec{A})$$

the equations are

$$\textcircled{P} \quad (i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - e \gamma^\mu A_\mu - m) \psi = 0 \quad \text{particle}$$

$\downarrow C$

$$\textcircled{AP} \quad (i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu + e \gamma^\mu A_\mu - m) \psi = 0 \quad \text{antiparticle}$$

Taking the complex conjugate of $\textcircled{P}$ yields

$$(-i (\gamma^\mu)^* \partial_\mu - e (\gamma^\mu)^* A_\mu - m) \psi^* = 0$$

If we can find a 4×4 matrix $\tilde{C}$ such that

$$\tilde{C} (\gamma^\mu)^* \tilde{C}^{-1} = -\gamma^\mu$$

then the state $C\psi := \tilde{C} \psi^*$ satisfies

$$0 = \tilde{C} (-i (\gamma^\mu)^* \partial_\mu - e (\gamma^\mu)^* A_\mu - m) \tilde{C}^{-1} \underbrace{\tilde{C} \psi^*}_{= C\psi}$$

$$= (i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu + e \gamma^\mu A_\mu - m) C\psi \Leftrightarrow \textcircled{AP}$$

To identify $\tilde{C}$, recall that

$$\gamma^0 = \beta, \quad \gamma^k = \beta \alpha^k, \quad k = 1, 2, 3$$

where α^1, α^3 are real and α^2 imaginary.

Moreover $\{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = 2g^{\mu\nu} \mathbb{1}$. If we set

$$\tilde{C} = i \gamma^2$$

it follows that

$$(\tilde{C})^2 = -(\gamma^2)^2 = \mathbb{1} \Rightarrow \tilde{C}^{-1} = \tilde{C}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{C} (\gamma^\mu)^* \tilde{C}^{-1} &= i \gamma^2 \gamma^\mu i \gamma^2 = \quad (\mu \neq 2) \\ &= -\gamma^2 \gamma^\mu \gamma^2 = (\gamma^2)^2 \gamma^\mu = \underline{-\gamma^\mu} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } \tilde{C} (\gamma^2)^* \tilde{C}^{-1} = -\gamma^2 \underbrace{(\gamma^2)^*}_{-\gamma^2} \gamma^2 = (\gamma^2)^2 \gamma^2 = \underline{-\gamma^2}$$

$\Rightarrow$ charge conjugation can be realized by

$$\underline{C: \psi \rightarrow \tilde{C} \psi^* = i \gamma^2 \psi^*}$$

c) Time reversal

Recall: A dynamical problem is time-reversal invariant if, given a solution $X(t)$, the time-reversed trajectory $X(-t)$ is also a solution.

Examples • Newtonian mechanics

$$m \frac{d^2 \vec{r}}{dt^2} = \vec{F}(\vec{r})$$

is time-reversal invariant because the LHS is a second order derivative. This property is spoiled by velocity-dependent forces (e.g. friction or magnetic fields)

- The non-relativistic Schrödinger equation

$$i \frac{d}{dt} \psi = H \psi$$

is first order in time and hence not time-reversal invariant. However, if H is real, time reversal $t \rightarrow -t$ is equivalent to complex conjugation:

$$-i \frac{d}{dt} \psi^* = i \frac{d}{dt} \psi^* = H \psi^*$$

$\Rightarrow \psi^*$ is the time-reversed solution.

- For the Dirac equation this does not work because the α^k cannot all be real.

We therefore make the ansatz

$$T = U_T K$$

for the time-reversal operator, where K is complex conjugation and U_T is unitary.

We start from the Dirac equation

$$i \partial_t \psi = H \psi \quad \textcircled{D}$$

with $H = \vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{p} + \beta m = -i \vec{\alpha} \cdot \nabla + \beta m$ }
 and express $\alpha^k = \gamma^0 \gamma^k$, $\beta = \gamma^0$.

Application of T to the LHS of $\textcircled{D}$ yields

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{T i \partial_t \psi} &= T i \partial_t (T^{-1} T) \psi = \\ &= U_T K i \partial_t K U_T^{-1} U_T K \psi = \\ &= U_T (-i \partial_t) \psi^* = i \partial_{-t} (U_T \psi^*) = \underline{i \partial_{-t} (T \psi)} \end{aligned}$$

as in the Schrödinger case. Now U_T has to be chosen such that the RHS of $\textcircled{D}$ remains invariant. This requires

$$\begin{aligned} T H \psi &= \underline{T H T^{-1}} (T \psi) \stackrel{D}{=} \underline{H} (T \psi) \\ \Rightarrow \begin{cases} T (i \gamma^0 \gamma^k) T^{-1} = i \gamma^0 \gamma^k, & k=1,2,3 \\ T \gamma^0 T^{-1} = \gamma^0 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

The complex conjugation K induces a sign change for $k=1,2,3$ but not for γ^0 :

$$\begin{cases} U_T^{-1} \gamma^k U_T = -(\gamma^k)^* & k=1,2,3 \\ U_T^{-1} \gamma^0 U_T = \gamma^0^* \end{cases}$$

In the standard representation $\gamma^0, \gamma^1, \gamma^3$ are real and γ^2 is imaginary. We therefore set

$$\underline{U_T = \gamma^1 \gamma^3, \quad U_T^{-1} = \gamma^3 \gamma^1}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \underline{U_T^{-1} \gamma^1 U_T} = \gamma^3 (\gamma^1)^2 \gamma^1 \gamma^3 = -\gamma^3 \gamma^1 \gamma^3 = \\ = \gamma^1 (\gamma^3)^2 = -\gamma^1 = \underline{-(\gamma^1)^*}$$

$$\underline{U_T^{-1} \gamma^2 U_T} = \gamma^3 \gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^1 \gamma^3 = \gamma^2 (\underbrace{\gamma^3 \gamma^1 \gamma^3}_{=1}) \\ = \gamma^2 = \underline{-(\gamma^2)^*}$$

$$\underline{U_T^{-1} \gamma^0 U_T} = \underline{\gamma^0}$$

d) CPT invariance

In summary, we have found the following representations of the three discrete symmetries:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} P: \psi(\vec{r}, t) &\rightarrow \gamma^0 \psi(-\vec{r}, t) \\ C: \psi(\vec{r}, t) &\rightarrow i \gamma^2 (\psi(\vec{r}, t))^* \\ T: \psi(\vec{r}, t) &\rightarrow \gamma^1 \gamma^2 (\psi(\vec{r}, t))^* \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Combining all three yields

$$(CPT) \psi(\vec{r}, t) = \underbrace{i \gamma^0 \gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^3}_{=: \gamma^5} \psi(-\vec{r}, t)$$

with $\gamma^5 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ in the standard

representation.

Exercise

Remark: Although individual symmetries can be broken e.g. by the weak interaction, any Lorentz-invariant quantum field theory is also CPT-invariant.

6° The relativistic Coulomb problem

Goal: To solve the stationary Dirac equation

$$\underline{H \psi(\vec{r}) = (\vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{p} + \beta m + V(\vec{r})) \psi(\vec{r}) = E \psi(\vec{r})}$$

for radially symmetric $V(\vec{r})$, specifically $V = -\frac{Ze^2}{r}$

Because of the symmetry of the potential, the eigenfunctions can be chosen to be eigenfunctions of parity and total angular momentum.

Parity invariance implies

$$\psi(\vec{r}) = \begin{pmatrix} \phi(\vec{r}) \\ \chi(\vec{r}) \end{pmatrix} = \pm \begin{pmatrix} \phi(-\vec{r}) \\ -\chi(-\vec{r}) \end{pmatrix}$$

where ϕ, χ are 2-spinors.

We start by constructing the angular momentum eigenstates.

a) Eigenfunctions of total angular momentum

The total angular momentum is $\vec{J} = \vec{L} + \vec{S}$

with $\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$ and $\vec{S} = \frac{1}{2} \vec{\Sigma}$.

We need joint eigenstates of $\vec{J}^2$ and J_z with quantum numbers j and $m := m_j$. These are constructed as superpositions of the product states

$$\left. \begin{aligned} |l, m - \frac{1}{2}\rangle |\uparrow\rangle &= Y_l^{m - \frac{1}{2}}(\theta, \phi) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ |l, m + \frac{1}{2}\rangle |\downarrow\rangle &= Y_l^{m + \frac{1}{2}}(\theta, \phi) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

orbital
spin
spherical harmonics

The z -components add up as

$$m = m_j = m_l + m_s = m_l \pm \frac{1}{2}$$

and the possible values of j are

$$\left. \begin{aligned} j &= l \pm \frac{1}{2} & l &= 1, 2, 3 \\ j &= \frac{1}{2} & l &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

The appropriate linear combinations are the spin-angular functions defined by

$$Y_l^{j=l\pm\frac{1}{2}, m} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2l+1}} \begin{pmatrix} \pm \sqrt{l \pm m + \frac{1}{2}} \cdot Y_l^{m-\frac{1}{2}}(\theta, \phi) \\ \sqrt{l \mp m + \frac{1}{2}} \cdot Y_l^{m+\frac{1}{2}}(\theta, \phi) \end{pmatrix}$$

Clebsch-Gordan coefficients

These are joint eigenstates of $\vec{J}^2$, J_z and $\vec{L}^2$ but not of L_z .

We check the action of J_z :

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{J_z Y_l^{j=l\pm\frac{1}{2}, m}} &= \left(L_z + \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \right) Y_l^{j=l\pm\frac{1}{2}, m} = \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2l+1}} \begin{pmatrix} \pm \left(m - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) \sqrt{l \pm m + \frac{1}{2}} Y_l^{m-\frac{1}{2}} \\ \left(m + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) \sqrt{l \mp m + \frac{1}{2}} Y_l^{m+\frac{1}{2}} \end{pmatrix} = \underline{m Y_l^{j=l\pm\frac{1}{2}, m}} \end{aligned}$$

The parity of the spherical harmonics is determined by l ,

$$\underline{Y_l^m(-\vec{r}) = (-1)^l Y_l^m(\vec{r})}$$

Thus the two possible values $l = j \pm \frac{1}{2}$ associated with a given j lead to states of opposite parity. This leaves two possibilities for eigenstates of definite parity and angular momentum:

$$\psi_A(\vec{r}) = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_A(\vec{r}) \\ \chi_A(\vec{r}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_A(r) y_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{j\omega}(\theta, \phi) \\ -i v_A(r) y_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{j\omega}(\theta, \phi) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\psi_B(\vec{r}) = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_B(\vec{r}) \\ \chi_B(\vec{r}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_B(r) y_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{j\omega}(\theta, \phi) \\ -i v_B(r) y_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{j\omega}(\theta, \phi) \end{pmatrix}$$

where $u_{A,B}(r)$ and $v_{A,B}(r)$ are radial wave functions.

Note that ψ_A, ψ_B are not eigenstates of $\vec{L}^2$.

b) Derivation of the radial wave equations

Inserting the two-component ansatz into the Dirac equation yields

$$\left. \begin{aligned} (E - m - V(r)) \phi - (\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}) \chi &= 0 \\ (E + m - V(r)) \chi - (\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}) \phi &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

To evaluate the kinetic energy terms we use

$$(\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{a})(\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{b}) = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} + i \vec{\sigma} \cdot (\vec{a} \times \vec{b})$$

for vectors $\vec{a}$ with commuting coefficients