

Lecture 32

Special relativity

* Inertial coordinate systems - free particles move with constant velocity

* Experiment \Rightarrow different inertial coordinate systems are related by Poincaré transformation

$$(x^0, \vec{x}) = (ct, \vec{X})$$

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Poincaré group =

group of transformations

that preserve

$$c^2 \Delta_{AB}^2 = \sum_{\mu\nu} \eta_{\mu\nu} (X_A - X_B)^\mu (X_A - X_B)^\nu$$

Homework - these have
the form

$$\left. \begin{aligned} X^\mu &\rightarrow X'^\mu = \sum_\nu \Lambda^\mu_\nu X^\nu + a^\mu \\ \eta_{\mu\nu} &= \sum_{\alpha\beta} \Lambda^\alpha_\mu \Lambda^\beta_\nu \eta_{\alpha\beta} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

where Λ^μ_ν , a^μ are constants

Λ^μ_ν is called a Lorentz
transformation

Lorentz transformations
can be classified by

$$\det \Lambda = \pm 1$$

$$\Lambda^0_0 \geq 1, \leq -1$$

The transformations relevant to special relativity are the transformations satisfying

$$\det \lambda = 1, \lambda^0_0 \geq 1$$

this set contains the identity. The other sets contain space and time reflections which do not leave the weak interaction invariant.

4 vectors are quantities like x^μ that transform under Lorentz transformations

like

$$x^\mu \rightarrow x'^\mu = \frac{g}{c} \lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu$$

since $\gamma^2 c^2 = \sum_{\mu\nu} \eta_{\mu\nu} x^\mu x^\nu$

is an invariant quantity,

$$\frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \quad ; \quad \frac{d^2 x^\mu}{d\tau^2} \quad \frac{d}{d\tau} (m x^\mu) = p^\mu$$

(4 velocity, 4 acceleration, 4 momenta)

are all 4 vectors

Note

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} &= \left(\frac{dx^0}{d\tau}, \frac{d\vec{x}}{d\tau} \right) = \\ &= \left(\frac{dx^0}{dt}, \frac{dx^0}{dt} \frac{d\vec{x}}{dx^0} \right) \\ &= \frac{dx^0}{dt} \left(1, \frac{\vec{v}}{c} \right) \end{aligned}$$

to find $\frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau}$

$$\frac{c^2 \Delta\tau^2}{(\Delta x^0)^2} = \frac{(\Delta x^0)^2}{(\Delta x^0)^2} - \frac{(\Delta x^i)^2}{(\Delta x^0)^2}$$

taking the limit $(\Delta x^0) \rightarrow \infty$

$$\left(c \frac{d\tau}{dt} \right)^2 = 1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}$$

$$\frac{d\tau}{dx^0} = \frac{1}{c} \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

$$\frac{dx^0}{d\tau} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

This means

$$\frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} (c, \vec{v})$$
$$p^\mu = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} (mc, m\vec{v})$$

The relativistic form of Newton's second law is

$$\frac{dp^\mu}{d\tau} = f^\mu$$

where $f^\mu = (0, \vec{F})$ in

the particle's rest frame

and transforms like

a 4 vector.

In the absence of force

$$\frac{dP^\mu}{ds} = 0 \Rightarrow$$

P^μ is conserved.

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$
$$p^0 = \gamma m c$$
$$\vec{p} = \gamma m \vec{v}$$

$p^0 c$ is identified with the energy and \vec{p} is the conserved relativistic momentum $\neq m\vec{v}$

Principle of special relativity in quantum mechanics (Wigner 1939)

In an isolated system
quantum observables
cannot be used to
distinguish different
inertial reference frames

(this is different than
the classical formulation
which focuses on preserving
the form of the equations
in all inertial coordinate
systems (as is the case
with Maxwell's equations
and the relativistic
form of Newton's
second law

The quantities that can be measured in quantum mechanics are

(1) probabilities $P_{AB} = | \langle A|B \rangle |^2$

(2) expectation values

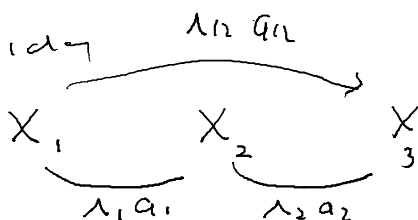
$$\langle A|B|A \rangle = \sum | \langle A|B|a_n \rangle |^2 \langle a_n |$$

(3) ensemble averages

$$\text{Tr}(\rho B) = \sum P_n^{\text{cl}} \langle a_n | B | a_n \rangle$$

The only transformation that preserve these are unitary or antiunitary transformations

Consider



$$X_2 = \lambda_1 X_1 + a_1$$

$$X_3 = \lambda_2 X_2 + a_2$$

$$= \lambda_2 (\lambda_1 X_1 + a_1) + a_2$$

$$= \lambda_2 \lambda_1 X_1 + \lambda_2 a_1 + a_2$$

$$= \lambda_{12} X_1 + a_{12}$$

comparing these

$$\lambda_{12} = \lambda_2 \lambda_1$$

$$a_{12} = \lambda_2 a_1 + a_2$$

this means

$$U(\lambda_2 a_2) U(\lambda_1 a_1) |\Psi_i\rangle =$$

$$U(\lambda_2 \lambda_1, \lambda_2 a_1 + a_2) |\Psi_i\rangle$$

remarks

* each (λa) can be expressed as a product of squares of elementary transformations

∴ $U(\lambda a)$ cannot be antiunitary

* The states could differ
by a phase

$$U(\lambda_2, a_2) | U(\lambda_1, a_1) = U(\lambda_2, \lambda_1 a_1) e^{i\phi(\lambda_1)}$$

It turns out for the
Poincaré group the
phases can be eliminated
by redefining the phases
of the individual $U(\lambda, a)$
(up to the phases that
aris in half integral
spins in rotations by 2π)

A relativistic quantum
theory is defined by
a unitary representation
of the Poincaré group
acting on the Hilbert space

$$U(\lambda_2 a_2) U(\lambda_1 a_1) = U(\lambda_2 \lambda_1, \lambda_2 a_1 + a_2)$$

$$U^\dagger(\lambda a) U(\lambda a) = I$$

$SL(2, \mathbb{C})$ It is useful to represent 4 vectors by 2×2 Hermitian matrices

$$\underline{X} = \begin{pmatrix} x^0 + x^3 & x^1 - ix^2 \\ x^1 + ix^2 & x^0 - x^3 \end{pmatrix} = \sum x^\mu \sigma_\mu$$

where

$$\sigma_\mu = (I, \vec{\sigma})$$

and $\vec{\sigma} = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3)$ are Pauli matrices. Note

$$\underline{X} = \underline{X}^\dagger$$

$$x^\mu = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}(\sigma_\mu \underline{X})$$

$$\det X = (x^0)^2 - \vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} = c^2 t^2$$

This means that any linear transformation that preserves

$$X = X^{\dagger}, \det X$$

is a Lorentz transformation

$$X' = AXA^{\dagger}$$

with $\det A = 1$ satisfies these conditions since

$$(X')^{\dagger} = (A^{\dagger})^{\dagger} X^{\dagger} A^{\dagger} = AXA^{\dagger}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det X' &= \det(A) \det X \det A^{\dagger} \\ &= 1 \cdot \det X \cdot 1^* \\ &= \det X \end{aligned}$$

* while we could multiply A by $\alpha \neq 0$ and A^{\dagger} by $1/\alpha$ this would not change the transformation.

comments

(1) The group of 2×2 complex matrices with $\det A = 1$ is called $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$

(2) A and $-A$ correspond to the same Lorentz transformation

(3) We can write $A = e^B$
 $\det A = e^{\text{Tr} B}$

a general matrix $B = \sum b^{\mu} \sigma_{\mu}$ where in the general case the b^{μ} are complex

$$\text{Tr} B = \sum b^{\mu} \text{Tr}(\sigma_{\mu}) = 2b^0$$

$$\det A = 1 = e^{2b^0}$$

this means $b_0 = 0 \rightarrow i\pi$

It follows that a general $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$ matrix has the

form

$$A = \pm e^{\bar{b} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}$$

where \bar{b} is a complex \mathbb{R}^3 vector - properties

$$\textcircled{1} \quad X' = AXA^\dagger \Rightarrow$$

$$\sum X'^{\mu} \sigma_{\mu} = \sum A \sigma_{\nu} A^\dagger X^{\nu}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}(\sigma_{\alpha} X'^{\mu} \sigma_{\mu}) = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}(\sigma_{\alpha} A \sigma_{\nu} A^\dagger X^{\nu})$$

$$X'^{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}(\sigma_{\alpha} A \sigma_{\nu} A^\dagger) X^{\nu}$$

$$A^{\alpha}_{\nu} = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}(\sigma_{\alpha} A \sigma_{\nu} A^\dagger)$$

$\textcircled{2}$ if \bar{b} is real

$$A = A^\dagger$$

and

$$\text{if } A = e^{\vec{r} \cdot \vec{\sigma}} = A \frac{\vec{r} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}{2} A \\ = RR = R^{\dagger}R \geq 0$$

in this case A is a positive Hermitian matrix

③ if \vec{b} is imaginary

$$A = e^{i\vec{r} \cdot \vec{\sigma}} \quad A = e^{-i\vec{r} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}$$

$$A^{\dagger}A = I$$

then A is unitary

④ $A(\lambda) = e^{\lambda \vec{b} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}$

$$* A(\lambda) = A(\lambda/2)A(\lambda/2)$$

$$* A(\lambda) \rightarrow I \text{ continuously} \\ \text{as } \lambda \rightarrow 0$$

(this shows that any Lorentz transformation is a square.)

For Poincaré transformations

$$\underline{X} \rightarrow \underline{X}' = \underline{A} \underline{X} \underline{A}^\dagger + \underline{B}$$

where \underline{B} is a constant
Hermitian matrix

Construction of $U(\Lambda)$
for a single particle

consider a particle
like an electron. In
order to characterize
the state of an electron
we need to know its
linear momentum
and the projection
of its spin on a
given axis

By changing frames

the 3 component of the
4 momentum can take an any value.

$$p^{\mu} = \left(mc \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}, m\vec{v} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}} \right)$$

(note while $v \ll c$, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}$ gets
large as $v \rightarrow c$)

Also the J_z can take
on 2 values

The Hilbert space for a
single electron is finite

$$\Psi_{\mu}(p)$$

$$\sum_{\mu=-1/2}^{1/2} \int_{1/c}^{\infty} \Psi_{\mu}(\vec{p}) \Psi_{\mu}(\vec{p}) d^3p < \infty$$

we write these as $\langle \vec{p} | \mu \rangle$

$$\sum p^{\mu} p^{\nu} n_{\mu\nu} = \frac{m^2 v^2 - m^2 c^2}{1 - v^2/c^2} =$$

$$= m^2 c^2 \frac{v^2/c^2}{c^2 - v^2} = -m^2 c^2$$

up to a factor of c
 this is the rest mass
 of the electron. We
 write the basic state

$$| (m, \frac{1}{2}) \vec{p} u \rangle$$

where $m, \frac{1}{2}$ are the
 fixed mass and spin
 of the electron

$$U(u, \theta) \rightarrow U(R, \theta) \quad (\text{rotation})$$

Consider

$$U(R) | (m, \frac{1}{2}) \vec{0} u \rangle$$

* Rotations do not
 change $\vec{0}$

$$U(R) | (m, \frac{1}{2}) \vec{0} u \rangle =$$

$$\sum_{v=-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} | (m, \frac{1}{2}) \vec{0} v \rangle M_{vu}(R)$$

$M_{uv}(R)$ is a unitary 2×2 matrix representing a rotation in the basis of eigenstates of $\hat{J}_z \rightarrow$ we know that this is just $M_{uv}(R) = D_{uv}^{1/2}(R)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore U(R, 0) | (m \pm \frac{1}{2}) 0 \mu \rangle &= \\
 \sum_{\nu} | (m \pm \frac{1}{2}) 0 \nu \rangle D_{\nu \mu}^{\pm}(R)
 \end{aligned}$$

Note - because rotations by 2π changes the sign of $D(R)$ it is useful to replace Lorentz transformations labels by $su(2c)$ labels

Homework

$$\Lambda_{\nu}^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \left(\sigma_{\mu} e^{\frac{\rho}{2} \sigma_2} \sigma_{\nu} e^{\frac{\rho}{2} \sigma_2} \right)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \rho & 0 & 0 & \sinh \rho \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sinh \rho & 0 & 0 & \cosh \rho \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Lambda_{\nu}^{\mu} \begin{pmatrix} mc \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} mc \cosh \rho \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ mc \sinh \rho \end{pmatrix}$$

these transformations
change the 4 velocity

$$p^0 = mc \cosh \rho$$

$$\vec{p} = mc \sinh \rho \hat{p}$$

We call $A = e^{\frac{\vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}{2}}$ a
rotationless Lorentz
boost

It transforms $(mc, 0, 0, 0)$
to $p^\mu = (\gamma mc, \gamma m \vec{v}) = (p^0, \vec{p})$

$$\text{Let } B(\vec{p}/m) = e^{\vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma} / 2}$$

We define $U(B(\vec{p}/m))$

$$|(m \pm) \vec{p} \pm \rangle \equiv$$

$$U(B(\frac{\vec{p}}{m})) |(m \pm) \vec{0} \pm \rangle N(\vec{p})$$

* With this definition
the spin projection
does not change

* The normalization
constant must be
chosen so $U(B(\vec{0}))$
is unitary

To choose to note

$$\Theta(p^0) \delta(m^2 c^2 + \vec{p}^2 - (p^0)^2) d^4 p =$$

$$\Theta(p^0) \delta(m^2 c^2 + \vec{p}'^2 - (p^0)^2) d^4 p'$$

$$d^4 p \frac{\delta(p^0 - \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2 c^2})}{2\sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2 c^2}} = \frac{\delta(p^0 - \sqrt{\vec{p}'^2 + m^2 c^2})}{2\sqrt{\vec{p}'^2 + m^2 c^2}} d^4 p'$$

Integration over p^0, p^0'

$$\frac{d^3 p}{2\sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2 c^2}} = \frac{d^3 p'}{2\sqrt{\vec{p}'^2 + m^2 c^2}}$$

define $\omega_m(\vec{p}) = \sqrt{m^2 c^2 + \vec{p}^2}$

$$\int |\vec{p}\rangle d^3 p \langle \vec{p}| = \mathbb{I} = U(\lambda) \mathbb{I} U^\dagger(\lambda)$$

$$\int |\lambda p\rangle N d^3 p N \langle \lambda p| \quad \lambda p = p'$$

$$\int |\lambda p'\rangle N^2 \frac{d^3 p}{d^3 p'} d^3 p' \langle \lambda p'|$$

$$N = \sqrt{\frac{d^3 p'}{d^3 p}} = \sqrt{\frac{\omega(\lambda p)}{\omega(p)}}$$

$$U(\lambda) |\lambda p\rangle = |\lambda p\rangle \sqrt{\frac{\omega(\lambda p)}{\omega(p)}}$$

This means:

$$U(m, \frac{1}{2}) \bar{p} u \rangle =$$

$$U(B(p/m)) U(m, \frac{1}{2}) \bar{0} u \rangle \sqrt{\frac{m}{\omega_m(p)}}$$

This ensures unitarity.

Finally we consider translations of rest state

$$U(\mathbb{I}, a) | (m, \frac{1}{2}) 0 u \rangle =$$

$$e^{i p \cdot a / \hbar} | (m, \frac{1}{2}) 0 u \rangle =$$

$$e^{-i p \cdot a / \hbar} | (m, \frac{1}{2}) 0 u \rangle =$$

$$e^{-i m c a / \hbar} | (m, \frac{1}{2}) 0 u \rangle$$

$$U(\mathbb{I}, a) | (m, \frac{1}{2}) 0 u \rangle$$

$$= e^{-i m c a / \hbar} | (m, \frac{1}{2}) 0 u \rangle$$

Note : The definition

$$\begin{aligned} U(\mathcal{B}(\hat{p}), \bar{0}) |(\mathcal{M}_z) \bar{0} u\rangle \\ = |(\mathcal{M}_z) \bar{0} u\rangle \sqrt{\frac{\omega(\hat{p})}{m}} \end{aligned}$$

means that u is the \hat{z} component of the electron spin that would be measured in the electron's rest frame if we used $\mathcal{B}^{-1}(\hat{p}/m)$ to transform to the rest frame

We can combine these three elementary transformations to construct a unitary representation of the Poincaré group on the electron's Hilbert space

$$U(\lambda a) | (m_j) \bar{P} u \rangle =$$

$$U(\mathbb{I}, a) U(\lambda, 0) | (m_j) \bar{P} u \rangle =$$

$$U(\mathbb{I} a) U(\lambda, 0) U(B(\frac{p}{m})_0) | (m_j) \bar{0} u \rangle \sqrt{\frac{m}{\omega(p)}} =$$

$$U(\mathbb{I} a) U(B(\frac{\lambda p}{m})_0) \underbrace{U(\bar{B}(\frac{\lambda p}{m})_0)} \times$$

$$\underbrace{U(\lambda, 0) U(B(\frac{p}{m})_0)} | (m_j) 0 u \rangle \sqrt{\frac{m}{\omega(p)}}$$

$$U(B(\frac{\lambda p}{m})_0) U(\mathbb{I}, \bar{B}(\frac{\lambda p}{m})_0) \times$$

$$U(\bar{B}(\frac{\lambda p}{m})_0 \wedge B(\frac{p}{m})_0) | (m_j) 0 u \rangle \sqrt{\frac{m}{\omega(p)}}$$

$$U(B(\frac{\lambda p}{m})_0) U(\mathbb{I}, \bar{B}(\frac{\lambda p}{m})_0)$$

$$| (m_j) 0 v \rangle D_{\gamma u}^{\lambda} (\underbrace{\bar{B}(\frac{\lambda p}{m})_0 \wedge B(\frac{p}{m})_0}_{\text{rotation}}) \sqrt{\frac{m}{\omega(p)}}$$

rotation
 $0 \rightarrow p \rightarrow \lambda p \rightarrow 0$

(called Wigner

$$U(B(\frac{\lambda p}{m})_0) \in \sum_{\gamma} | (m_j) 0 v \rangle$$

$$D_{\gamma u}^{\lambda} (\bar{B}(\frac{\lambda p}{m})_0 \wedge B(\frac{p}{m})_0) \sqrt{\frac{m}{\omega(p)}}$$

note

$$(m_1, 0) \cdot (B^{-1}(\lambda p/m) a) =$$
$$(B(\lambda p/m)(m_1, 0) \cdot (a |$$
$$(1 p \cdot a)$$

so we get

$$U(u, a) | (m \pm) \bar{P} u \rangle =$$

$$\sum e^{i \lambda p \cdot a/m} | (m \pm) \bar{\lambda} p v \rangle \times$$

$$D_{v m}^{\pm} \left(B^{-1} \left(\frac{\lambda p}{m} \right) \wedge B \left(\frac{p}{m} \right) \right) \sqrt{\frac{\omega(\lambda p)}{\omega(p)}}$$

U_{ms} is unitary since it involves products of unitary operators

This generalizes to arbitrary spins

$$U(\lambda, a) |(m_j) \bar{p} u\rangle =$$

$$\sum_v e^{i \lambda \cdot p \cdot a} |(m_j) \bar{\lambda} v\rangle \sqrt{\frac{\omega_m(\lambda m)}{\omega_m(m)}} \times$$

$$D_{v\mu}^j(B^{-1}(\frac{\lambda}{m}) \wedge B(\frac{p}{m}))$$

If we take $U(\lambda, a) = U(I, t, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0})$

$$U(t) |(m_j) p u\rangle =$$

$$e^{-i p^0 t / \hbar} |(m_j) p u\rangle$$

where $p^0 c = \gamma m c^2 = m c^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$

which is the relativistic energy

$$e^{-i E t / \hbar}$$

It follows that

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \langle (m_j) p u | U(t) | \Psi \rangle$$

$$E \langle (m_j) p u | U(t) | \Psi \rangle$$

which is the ordinary
Schrödinger equation with

$$E = p^0 c \quad ; \quad m^2 c^4 = (p^0 c)^2 - (\vec{p} c)^2$$

$$E = c \sqrt{m^2 c^2 + \vec{p}^2}$$

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \langle (m_j) p u | U(t) | \Psi \rangle$$

$$c \sqrt{m^2 c^2 + \vec{p}^2} \langle (m_j) p u | U(t) | \Psi \rangle$$

This is called the relativistic
Schrödinger equation. It
is a valid equation, but
it gave the wrong
magnetic moment using

$$\vec{p} \rightarrow \vec{p} - \frac{e}{c} \vec{A}$$