QUATERNION HIGGS  
AND  
THE ELECTROWEAK GAUGE GROUP  

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Abstract  

We show that, in quaternion quantum mechanics with a complex geometry, the minimal four Higgs of the unbroken electroweak theory naturally determine the quaternion invariance group which corresponds to the Glashow group. Consequently, we are able to identify the physical significance of the anomalous Higgs scalar solutions. We introduce and discuss the complex projection of the Lagrangian density.
1 Introduction

One of the primary objectives of the present authors in recent years has been to demonstrate the possibility (if not necessity) of using quaternions in the description of elementary particles, both in $1^{st}$ and $2^{nd}$ quantization. An essential ingredient in the version of quaternion quantum mechanics used by the authors is what Rembéliński called long ago the adoption of a complex geometry (complex scalar product). This choice is certainly less ambitious than that of Adler who advocates the use of a quaternion geometry and seeks a completely new quantum mechanics. However, we recall that up to a decade ago the use of quaternions in QM seemed doomed to failure. The non commutative nature of quaternions (and hence quaternion wave functions) made the definition of tensor products ambiguous and self destructive, e.g. in general an algebraic product of fermionic wave functions no longer satisfies the single particle wave equations.

A complex geometry thus seems necessary, if not sufficient, to reproduce standard QM. In fact we have recently shown that with the use of generalized quaternions (see Section II) a translation exists between even-dimensional quantum mechanics and our quaternion version. This by no means concludes the study of this subject. Apart from the eventual extension beyond standard QM to, for example, the study of intrinsically quaternion field equations (in the sense in which the Schrödinger equation is intrinsically complex because of the explicit appearance of the imaginary unit) we have to admit a difference in the bosonic sector (odd-dimensional) in which additional anomalous solutions appear. There is also a somewhat surprising difference in the physical content of Lie group representations again associated with the odd-dimensional (bosonic) sector, notwithstanding the isomorphism of the corresponding Lie algebras.

The authors have long been puzzled by the significance of the anomalous solutions. Although the initial fear of non conservation of momentum has been overcome, we have not been able to identify an anomalous particle before this work. We had considered the possibility that with quaternions one might be able to distinguish between particles and pseudoparticles. This would be very attractive since in QM the distinction is by definition. Furthermore, where anomalous solutions do not occur, such as in the quaternion Dirac equation, we have as a physical justification that both parities appear (for particle and antiparticle). However to date such an identification has not been possible and the results of this paper lead elsewhere. Indeed we shall argue that to reproduce the Weinberg-Salam model, or more precisely the Higgs sector, we require anomalous Higgs solutions of the Klein-Gordon equation and that these are the charged Higgs that eventually lead to massive $W^\pm$ gauge bosons.

Another possible justification for the use of quaternions would be if certain (correct) choices became natural with them. Now while we are well aware that naturalness has no rigorous definition and is often synonymous with habit or some form of anal-
ogy, we will argue in just these terms for the gauge group of the electroweak model. We shall show that the invariance group of the Klein-Gordon equation (for a given four-momentum) is $U(1,q)\bar{U}(1,c)$. The bar separates the left-acting unitary quaternion group in one dimension from the right-acting complex group $U(1,c)$. Here left and right have nothing to do with helicity. This group substitutes the Glashow group $SU(2) \times U(1)$. We recall that the Lie algebra $u(1,q)$ is isomorphic to that of $su(2,c)$ as long as one uses antihermitian generators. We shall then assume that this global group is an invariance group of the Lagrangian density, and this will imply the need of a complex projection of the dynamic Higgs term. For quite different reasons a complex projection is needed in the fermionic sector, but this will be explained elsewhere. Analogy with the standard theory then tells us how we must proceed for the potential terms.

In the next Section we recall some previous results about the quaternion Dirac equation. We then discuss the quaternion Kemmer equation and show that anomalous scalar (and vector) solutions can be avoided if necessary. We also recall in this Section our rules for translation from complex to quaternion $QM$ and vice-versa mentioned above. In Section III we discuss the Higgs particles and derive the above quoted results. Furthermore we shall obtain a particularly elegant form of $U(1)_{em}$ and hence the corresponding rule for minimal coupling which is a priori ambiguous with quaternions. In Section IV we shall describe the introduction of the gauge fields by gauging the above group. Our conclusion are drawn in Section V.

2 The Dirac and Kemmer Equation

We use standard nomenclature for quaternions $q$,

$$q = r_0 + ir_1 + jr_2 + kr_3$$

$$\begin{cases} \quad r_m \in \mathbb{R}(reals) & m = 0...3 \end{cases}$$

with $i, j, k$ the quaternion imaginary units $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$ which satisfy

$$ij = -ji = k \quad (and \ cyclic) .$$

This form implies a choice of one of the imaginary units ($i$ in this case) which occurs quite naturally in complex wave or field equations such as Schrödinger or Dirac. For us, the unit $i$ will always correspond to the imaginary unit in standard (complex) $QM$. 

$$q = z_1 + jz_2$$

$$\begin{cases} \quad z_m \in \mathbb{C}(1,i) & m = 1, 2 \end{cases}$$
We shall now justify the choice of a complex geometry by recalling a particular derivation of the (irreducible) quaternion Dirac equation. Non commutativity implies an a priori ambiguity in the form of the Dirac equation with quaternions. One possibility is

\[ i \partial_t \psi = H \psi = (\bar{\alpha} \cdot \vec{\varphi} + \beta m) \psi \]  

(4)

where (for covariance arguments) we must define the momentum operator \( \vec{\varphi} \) in the standard way (quaternion hermitian)

\[ \vec{\varphi} \equiv -i \vec{\partial} \]  

(5)

Unfortunately this choice leads to the non conservation of the norm \( N \)

\[ N = \int \bar{\psi} \psi \, d\bar{x} \]  

(6)

if \( H \) is not complex (i.e. if \( \bar{\alpha} \) and \( \beta \) are not the standard matrices). Furthermore if \( H \) is assumed quaternionic then \( \vec{\varphi} \) is not even a conserved quantity and so forth. This choice therefore obliges one to adopt the standard 4 dimensional complex Dirac matrices. Thus only the wave function \( \psi \) would be quaternion. This use of the standard \( \gamma^\mu \) matrices even with quaternions goes back many decades.

An alternative choice which automatically conserves the norm is

\[ \partial_t \psi_i = H \psi = (\bar{\alpha} \cdot \vec{\varphi} + \beta m) \psi \]  

(7)

this requires for consistency (and covariance)

\[ \vec{\varphi} \equiv -\bar{\partial} |i \]  

(8)

where the \( \text{bar} \) separates left and right-acting elements. We are thus lead to define as generalized quaternions \( Q \) the numerical operators

\[ Q = q_1 + q_2 |i \]  

(9)

\[ q_m \in \mathcal{H} \quad m = 1, 2 \]

such that applied to a state vector \( \psi \):

\[ Q \psi = q_1 \psi + q_2 \psi_i \]  

(10)

\[ (\text{note that} \quad q_1 \equiv q_1 |1 \). \]

The choice (8) for the momentum operator (in 1\textsuperscript{st} quantization) would not be hermitian unless one introduces the complex scalar product indicated by the subscript \( C \)

\[ (\psi, \phi)_C \equiv \frac{1 - i |i|}{2} < \psi, \phi > \]  

(11)
where,
\[ <\psi,\phi> \equiv \int \psi^+ \phi \ d\bar{x} \]  
(12)
is the quaternion scalar product. \( H \) may now be quaternion and we are hence allowed to use the irreducible two dimensional quaternion Dirac matrices which in turn define a real Dirac algebra. As an aside, we note that algebraic theorems which demonstrate that the minimum dimensions of the Dirac matrices are four, assume the existence of a complex Dirac algebra.

Our choice for \( \varphi^\mu \ (\varphi^0 \equiv \partial_t |i\) displays the fact that, in order to retain the standard QM commutation relations, a special imaginary unit must be selected from the quaternions. Momentum eigenstates will all then be characterized by standard plane wave functions on the right of any spinor or polarization vector (on the left for the adjoint wave functions).

The natural appearance of generalized quaternions has another useful by-product. While it has long been known that any quaternion can be represented by a subset of \( 2 \times 2 \) complex matrices we are now able to identify any two dimensional complex matrix with a generalized quaternion and vice versa. A particular choice is given by:

\[
\begin{align*}
1 & \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & . \\ . & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad i & \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} i & . \\ . & -i \end{pmatrix} \\
j & \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} . & -1 \\ 1 & . \end{pmatrix}, \quad k & \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} . & -i \\ -i & . \end{pmatrix}
\end{align*}
\]  
(13)

and

\[
\begin{align*}
1|i & \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} i & . \\ . & i \end{pmatrix}, \quad i|i & \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -1 & . \\ . & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\
j|i & \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} . & -i \\ i & . \end{pmatrix}, \quad k|i & \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} . & 1 \\ 1 & . \end{pmatrix}
\end{align*}
\]  
(14)

This translation is valid for all operators while for states we use the symplectic representation

\[ q = z_1 + j z_2 \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix}. \]  
(15)

This still leaves out all odd-dimensional (complex) operators in QM characteristic of the standard bosonic equations for particles with mass, such as the Klein-Gordon equation. There is an exception to this last comment that we wish to investigate further, the Kemmer equation \[12\]

\[ \beta^\mu \partial_\mu \phi = m\phi \]  
(16)
(here the $1|\imath$ of the momentum operator has been absorbed into $\beta^\mu$ whose elements must anyway be assumed to be generalized quaternions). The $\beta^\mu$ satisfy the Duffin-Kemmer-Petiau condition\cite{13, 14, 15}

$$\beta^\mu \beta^\nu \beta^\lambda + \beta^\lambda \beta^\nu \beta^\mu = -g^{\mu\nu} \beta^\lambda - g^{\lambda\nu} \beta^\mu. \quad (17)$$

This implies that the $\beta^\mu$ are not invertible so that this equation cannot be written in the Dirac form eq.(4). Equation (17) however guarantees that each element of $\psi$ satisfies the Klein-Gordon equation. The Kemmer equation has spin content 0 and 1 and the representations for the scalar particle is five dimensional. There exists however also a trivial one dimensional solution ($\beta^\mu \equiv 0$) which if added to the spin 0 representation yields a six dimensional representation which can be translated into $3 \times 3$ generalized quaternions:

$$\beta^0 = \begin{pmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ -a & \cdot & \cdot \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta^1 = j \begin{pmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ -d & \cdot & \cdot \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\beta^2 = \begin{pmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & a & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta^3 = j \begin{pmatrix} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & a \\ \cdot & -d & \cdot \end{pmatrix} \quad (18)$$

with

$$a = \frac{1 - i|\imath|}{2}, \quad d = \frac{1 + i|\imath|}{2}.$$

Now before proceeding we must digress to describe the so called anomalous solutions, and in particular those of the Klein-Gordon equation. In QM this equation

$$(\partial^\mu \partial_\mu + m^2)\phi = 0 \quad (19)$$

has two solutions (positive and negative energy)

$$\phi = e^{-ipx} \quad (20)$$

$$p_0 = \pm \sqrt{p^2 + m^2}.$$

With quaternions and with a complex geometry the number of solutions doubles, in addition to eq.(20) we have the complex-orthogonal solutions

$$\phi = j e^{-ipx} \quad (21)$$

$$p_0 = \pm \sqrt{p^2 + m^2}.$$

These are the anomalous or pure quaternion solutions.

This doubling of solutions does not occur for our Dirac equation. This is because the doubling of solutions is compensated there by the reduced number of spinor
components. The question is what happens in the Kemmer equation? Direct analogy with the Dirac equation is not possible because the number of solutions no longer correspond to the number of components of $\psi$. However we can begin with our Kemmer equation, find the explicit (non trivial) solutions and simply count them or express them in derivative terms (possible for Kemmer but not for Dirac) so as to obtain the 2\textsuperscript{nd} order equivalent equation.

In fact the solutions to our Kemmer equation are only two,

$$\psi = \left( \begin{array}{c} -ip_0 + kp_x \\ ip_0 - kp_x \\ \frac{m}{1} \end{array} \right) e^{-ipx} \quad (22)$$

$$p_0 = \pm \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}.$$ 

This can be rewritten in terms of the $\phi$ in equation (21)

$$\psi = \left( \begin{array}{c} (\partial_t + j\partial_x)\phi \\ (\partial_t + j\partial_y)\phi \\ \frac{m}{\phi} \end{array} \right). \quad (23)$$

From which we derive the necessary and sufficient equation for the scalar field $\phi$

$$\frac{1 - i|i}{2} (\partial^\mu \partial_\mu + m^2)\phi = 0. \quad (24)$$

This is what we shall call the modified Klein-Gordon equation. It does not have anomalous solutions because the projection operator $\frac{1 - i|i}{2}$ kills all $j,k$ terms.

There also exists the alternative modified Klein-Gordon equation

$$\frac{1 + i|i}{2} (\partial^\mu \partial_\mu + m^2)\phi = 0. \quad (25)$$

which kills the complex solutions. Note that equations (24) and (23) are related by a “quaternion similarity” transformation

$$\frac{1 - i|i}{2} \rightarrow -j\left(\frac{1 - i|i}{2}\right)j = \frac{1 + i|i}{2}$$

and

$$\phi \rightarrow -j\phi. \quad (26)$$

All of this tells us that we may readily eliminate the anomalous solutions by invoking the modified bosonic equations. The correct equation and the corresponding Lagrangian is thus in practice determined only when the number of particles in the theory is fixed. For the Higgs of the next Section we shall use the standard Klein-Gordon equation which contains four particles (parity apart).
3 The Higgs Sector

We know that before spontaneous symmetry breaking the minimal number of higgs is four \( \mathcal{H}^0, \mathcal{H}^+, \bar{\mathcal{H}}^0, \mathcal{H}^- \). We therefore adopt as a consequence of the count of states of the previous Section a free Higgs Lagrangian which yields the Klein-Gordon equation

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{free}} = \partial_\mu \phi^+ \partial^\mu \phi \tag{27}
\]

where \( \phi \) is a massless quaternion field. The field equation

\[
\partial_\mu \partial^\mu \phi = 0 \tag{28}
\]

is obviously invariant under the global group \( U(1,q)|U(1,c) \)

\[
\phi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha + j\beta + k\gamma} \phi e^{-i\delta} \tag{29}
\]

\( \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta \) real parameters.

The limitation of the right-acting group to \( U(1,c) \) instead of \( U(1,q) \) follows from the implicit additional requirement that the complex plane-wave structure be conserved. In 1\textsuperscript{st} quantization this would correspond to maintaining the given momentum. In 2\textsuperscript{nd} quantization to the desire of not assigning a creation or annihilation operator with the incorrect plane wave structure which would then violate the corresponding Heisenberg equation\[6\] (or yield negative energies).

In order to impose this maximal group invariance of the field equation upon the free Lagrangian we must \textit{assume} that the Lagrangian is defined as a complex projection (in addition to the hermitian nature of \( \mathcal{L} \) which however involves the creation and annihilation operators).

Thus in fact we can define the Lagrangian density \( \mathcal{L} \) as:

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\text{free}} = \frac{1 - i|\bar{i}|}{2} (\partial_\mu \phi^+ \partial^\mu \phi) \equiv (\partial_\mu \phi^+ \partial^\mu \phi)_c \tag{30}
\]

This complex projection is automatic for spin \( \frac{1}{2} \) fields in order to reproduce the standard form of the Dirac equation from the variational principle. In fact \( \psi \) and \( \psi i \) must be varied independently in analogy with \( \psi^+ \) and \( \psi \), but we shall not enter into detail here.

Any complex projection under extreme right or left multiplication by a complex number behaves as follows,

\[
(z\mathcal{L}z')_c = z(\mathcal{L})_c z' = zz'(\mathcal{L})_c . \tag{31}
\]

Thus if \( zz' = 1 \) we have invariance. When the transformation is attributed to the \( \phi \) field in eq.(30), this implies that \( z' = z^* \) and hence

\[
z \in U(1,c) . \tag{32}
\]
It is obvious that if this complex projection is generalized to all terms in $\mathcal{L}$ the standard Higgs Lagrangian is an invariant under $U(1,q)|U(1,c)$, since $(\phi^+\phi)c$ is.$^4$

Hence at this level our global invariance group is isomorphic with the Glashow group $SU(2,c) \times U(1,c)$. We must however remember that the group representations are not totally isomorphic.

In the classical field treatment of spontaneous symmetry breaking we want the field $\mathcal{H}^0$ to develop a constant real vacuum expectation value. This fixes the neutral Higgs to be purely complex fields (the anomalous fields have no real part). This in turn fixes the $U(1)_{em}$ gauge which will survive spontaneous symmetry breaking. Indeed the requirement of invariance of the neutral Higgs under $U(1)_{em}$ can only be achieved if $\mathcal{H}^0$ is a complex field in accordance with the above argument, and

$$U(1)_{em} = e^{ig\alpha}e^{-ig'\delta}$$  \hspace{1cm} (33)

with

$$g\alpha = g'\delta,$$  \hspace{1cm} (34)

so that the phases cancel after commuting with the Higgs field. The different signs of the arguments in eq.(33) is nothing other than a convention of the authors. Here we have explicitly used the (real) coupling strengths $g$, $g'$ characteristic of the Glashow group. We observe the analogy of the above result with the standard theory, where however one must assume the weak isospin, weak hypercharge and electric charge relationship. Here we appear to have no freedom of choice.

We have a certain number of observations to make,

1. The above result fixes the mode of minimal coupling (see below).

2. Since under $U(1)_{em}$ the complex Higgs is neutral the anomalous Higgs (pure $j,k$) are necessarily charged.

3. Had we imposed by fiat that the $U(1)_{em}$ be either the (weak hypercharge) right-acting $U(1,c)$ or the left-acting $U(1,c)$ subgroup of $U(1,q)$, we would have modified the sense of minimal coupling and imposed a common electric charge on all the Higgs fields. If $g\alpha \neq g'\delta$ we would also have had four charged Higgs fields but with different charges.

We return for some further comments upon the complex projection of the Lagrangian density. We already noted that this condition is obligatory in the Dirac sector, and therefore it is natural to assume it a property of the full Lagrangian. One may object that in classical field theory the Lagrangian is anyway real, so that a complex projection is irrelevant. However for quantum fields the reality of $\mathcal{L}$ is substituted by the hermiticity of $\mathcal{L}$, so that $\mathcal{L}$ is not in general real. Furthermore, even

$^1$The quartic term of the Higgs Lagrangian will also be assumed in the more restrictive form of $|\lambda|(\phi^+\phi)c^2$, so that the plane-wave factors of all $\phi$, $\phi^+$ fields may be factorized as in normal $QM$.  

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for classical field theory the reality of $\mathcal{L}$ does not in general extend to the variations $\delta \mathcal{L}$ which may be complex (and for us even quaternion). Thus it is for these variations that the complex projection plays a non trivial role.

We conclude this Section by explicitly writing the Higgs part of our electroweak Lagrangian density

$$\mathcal{L}^H = (\partial_\mu \phi^+ \partial^\mu \phi)_C - \mu^2 (\phi^+ \phi)_C - |\lambda| (\phi^+ \phi)_C^2. \quad (35)$$

Note that the quartic potential term is a product of complex projections and not merely the complex projection of a product (footnote 1).

4 Local Group Invariance and minimal coupling

The contents of this Section follows faithfully the standard procedure, so that we only sketch the various steps. We wish to impose a local gauge invariance (parameters $\vec{\theta} \equiv (\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ and $\delta$ with $x^\mu$ dependence). In order to compensate the derivative terms that then appear in the Lagrangian we introduce four hermitian vector fields by the following substitution:

$$\partial^\mu \rightarrow \partial^\mu + \frac{g}{2} \vec{Q} \cdot \vec{W}^\mu - \frac{g'}{2} \vec{B}^\mu |i \quad (36)$$

where $\vec{Q} \equiv (i, j, k)$ are the quaternion imaginary units. The gauge fields have the well known but peculiar gauge transformation properties. To find them we impose that

$$\left(\mathcal{D}_\mu \phi\right)' = U \left(\mathcal{D}_\mu \phi\right) V \quad (37)$$

where $U$ and $V$ characterize the transformation of the scalar field $\phi$

$$\phi(x) \rightarrow \exp\left(\frac{g}{2} \vec{Q} \cdot \vec{\theta}(x)\right) \phi(x) \exp\left(-\frac{g'}{2} \delta(x)\right) = U \phi V$$

and $\mathcal{D}_\mu$ represents the covariant derivative

$$\partial_\mu \rightarrow \mathcal{D}_\mu = \partial_\mu + \vec{W}_\mu + \vec{B}_\mu$$

with

$$\vec{W}_\mu = \frac{g}{2} \vec{Q} \cdot \vec{W}^\mu$$

and

$$\vec{B}_\mu = -\frac{g'}{2} \vec{B}^\mu |i.$$

Therefore we have

$$\left(\mathcal{D}_\mu \phi\right)' = (\partial_\mu U)^{-1} \phi' + U (\partial_\mu \phi)V + \phi' V^{-1} (\partial_\mu V) + \vec{W}_\mu \phi' + \vec{B}_\mu \phi' \quad (38)$$

$$U (\mathcal{D}_\mu \phi)V = U (\partial_\mu \phi)V + U \vec{W}_\mu U^{-1} \phi' + U \vec{B}_\mu U^{-1} \phi'. \quad (39)$$
By confronting the eq. (38, 39) and noting that $U$ commutes with $\tilde{B}_\mu$ we find
\[ \tilde{W}''_\mu = U\tilde{W}_\mu U^{-1} - (\partial_\mu U)U^{-1} \] (40)
\[ \tilde{B}''_\mu = \tilde{B}_\mu - 1|V^{-1}(\partial_\mu V) . \] (41)

The infinitesimal transformation for the gauge fields are:
\[ \vec{Q} \cdot \tilde{W}^\mu \rightarrow \vec{Q} \cdot \tilde{W}^\mu - \vec{Q} \cdot \tilde{\theta} + \frac{g}{2}[\vec{Q} \cdot \partial^\mu \tilde{\theta}, \vec{Q} \cdot \tilde{W}^\mu] \] (42)
\[ (\tilde{W}^\mu \rightarrow \tilde{W}^\mu - \partial^\mu \tilde{\theta} + g\tilde{\theta} \wedge \tilde{W}^\mu) \]

and
\[ B^\mu \rightarrow B^\mu - \partial^\mu \delta \] (43)

Since we have already identified the electromagnetic gauge group we can already anticipate the residual gauge invariance in terms of the electromagnetic field $A^\mu$. By remembering that we can write $W^\mu_1$ and $B^\mu$ as a linear combination of $A^\mu$ and $Z^\mu$
\[ B^\mu = \cos\theta_W A^\mu - \sin\theta_W Z^\mu \] (44)
\[ W^\mu_1 = \sin\theta_W A^\mu + \cos\theta_W Z^\mu \]
we have
\[ \partial^\mu \rightarrow \partial^\mu + \frac{e}{2}A^\mu (i - 1|i) \] (45)
\[ (e \text{ electric charge}) \]

which can be written in terms of the quaternion projection operator $(1 + i|i)$ as
\[ \partial^\mu|i \rightarrow \partial^\mu|i + \frac{e}{2}A^\mu(1 + i|i) \] (46)
with $e = \frac{gg'}{\sqrt{g^2 + g'}} = g\sin\theta_W = g'\cos\theta_W$

but with the understanding that the projection operator acts upon the scalar field $\phi$, and guarantees the charge neutrality (invariance) of the pure complex fields. For simplicity it is convenient to think of the gauge fields as classical real fields. Thus their position within the Lagrangian density is irrelevant. In 2nd quantization the situation is somewhat more complicated. The gauge fields are hermitian operator that act upon the kets (essentially the vacuum) and are bare operators with the plane wave structures as right acting factors. In this way standard energy-momentum conservation occurs without the complication of non commutativity. Henceforth, unless slated otherwise, we therefore treat the gauge fields as real classical fields. It is non

\footnote{With our convention $W^\mu_1$ (and not $W^\mu_3$ as in the standard model) is the neutral member of the weak isospin triplet.}
the less interesting to note that if the $\vec{Q}$ factors are absorbed within the definition of the gauge fields then $W_1^\mu$ and $B^\mu$ become complex (indeed pure imaginary in this classical limit) while $W_2^\mu$ and $W_3^\mu$ are both pure quaternion ($j,k$) or anomalous in our terminology.

We also recall for completeness here the form of the gauge kinetic terms

$$L^B = -\frac{1}{4} B_{\mu\nu} B^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{4} W^+_{\mu\nu} \cdot W^{-\mu\nu}$$

(47)

where

$$B^{\mu\nu} = \partial^\mu B^\nu - \partial^\nu B^\mu$$

(48)

and

$$W^{\mu\nu} = \vec{Q} \cdot (\partial^\mu \vec{W}^\nu - \partial^\nu \vec{W}^\mu) + \frac{g}{2} [\vec{Q} \cdot \vec{W}^\mu, \vec{Q} \cdot \vec{W}^\nu] .$$

(49)

5 Conclusions

In this work we have studied the Higgs sector of the Electroweak theory from the point of view of quaternion quantum mechanics ($QQM$) with a complex geometry. The Higgs fields are assumed to be four and this coincides with the number of solutions (counting both positive and negative energies - particles and antiparticles) of the standard Klein-Gordon equation within $QQM$. We have also shown that the quaternion global invariance group of the one-component Klein-Gordon equation is $U(1,q)|U(1,c)$ isomorphic at the Lie algebra level with the Glashow group. The right acting phase transformation is limited to the complex numbers because it must not modify the 4-momentum of the specific solution considered.

The hypothesis that this group be the invariance group for the Lagrangian density, then imposes an overall complex projection of the Lagrangian density. This result is consistent with the need of a complex projection for the Dirac Lagrangian density in order to obtain the Dirac field equation. We have pointed out that the reason that a complex projection is non trivial is because it automatically kills the $j,k$ quaternion variations in $\delta L$ which naturally occur when fields and their adjoint are varied independently.

As an aside we have shown that there exist modified Klein-Gordon equations (the same applies to Maxwell etc.) with only half of the solutions of the standard equations. Thus anomalous solutions can always be eliminated if so desired. Although this result seems obvious a posteriori it was derived from a study of the quaternion Kemmer equation and we have sketched the essential steps in Section II. Thus the use of the standard Klein-Gordon equation is an assumption in $QQM$ with physical consequence (e.g. the invariance group) and not obligatory for scalars as in complex quantum mechanics. It is however to be emphasized that once the desired field equation has been chosen the invariance group is fixed, unlike the normal situation, in which there is no relationship between the Klein-Gordon equation and the multiplicity structure of Higgs fields under $SU(2) \times U(1)$.
Spontaneous symmetry breaking of the neutral Higgs field then determines the resultant form of the residual $U(1)_{em}$. Specifically it is the complex subgroup of $U(1, q)\mid U(1, c)$ with rotation angles equal in magnitude but opposite in signs. As a consequence the two other Higgs fields are anomalous and charged. The significance of anomalous Higgs fields is thus connected with their electric charge. This is the first time that a physical property has been associated to pure quaternion fields.

Our justification of a complex projected Lagrangian density in the case of the Higgs sector becomes a derivation within the Fermion sector which we have only outlined in this work. The assumption that all Lagrangian densities be complex projected then implies that all symmetry groups will necessarily have a $G\mid U(1, c)$ structure. This is particularly significant for grand unified theories[16]. We note that recently much attention has been paid to the complex group $SU(5) \times U(1)$[17]. Within QQM we suggest that $SU(3, Q)\mid U(1, c) \sim SU(6) \times U(1)$ be a natural candidate for grand unification.

We conclude by recalling the main point of this work. The need of four Higgs fields suggests the use of the standard Klein-Gordon equation. This equation is invariant under the group $U(1, q)\mid U(1, c)$. The alternative choice of two modified Klein-Gordon equations would be invariant only under $U(1, c)\mid U(1, c)$ which beyond being purely complex in contradiction with the spirit of the use of quaternions and quaternions groups would not give rise to the charged intermediate vectors bosons. We therefore claim that the natural group of any quaternion Lagrangian is of the form $G\mid U(1, c)$. The simplest (lowest dimensional) unitary group being $G = U(1, q) \sim SU(2, c)$. In this sense the Glashow gauge group appears naturally as the choice of the minimal quaternion unitary group for $G$.

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