Classical Relativistic Field Theory

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• Srednicki, Chapter 8

Review of Classical Lagrangian Mechanics

- Consider a classical point particle with mass m in a one-dimensional potential V(x)
- The force F on the particle is given by

$$F = -\frac{dV}{dx}.$$
(8.1)

• Newton's law then gives the equations of motion for the particle

$$F = m\ddot{x} = -\frac{dV}{dx}, \qquad (8.2)$$

where
$$\dot{x} = \frac{dx}{dt}$$
, $\ddot{x} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$

Review of Classical Lagrangian Mechanics

• We may write down the Lagrangian L for this system as

$$L(x, \dot{x}) = \text{kinetic energy} - \text{potential energy} = \frac{m}{2}\dot{x}^2 - V(x)$$
 (8.3)

• The action for the system is given by

$$S = \int dt L \tag{8.4}$$

• Note: the equations of motion for the particle (8.2) follow from the extremum of the action S:

Review of Classical Lagrangian Mechanics

• Extremum of the action:

$$0 \stackrel{!}{=} \delta S = \int dt \delta L(x, \dot{x}) = \int dt \left[\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \delta \dot{x} \right],$$

$$= \int dt \left[\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} \delta x + \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \delta x \right) - \delta x \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \right],$$

$$= \int dt \delta x \left[\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \right] + \text{boundary terms}, \quad (8.5)$$

- Since any variation $\delta x(t)$ is allowed, the expression in brackets must vanish identically
- This leads to the Lagrangian equations of motion

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial x} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} = 0 = -\frac{dV}{dx} - m\ddot{x}.$$
(8.6)

- Lagrangian mechanics is for a point particle, which is localized at a point
- Field theory is for a field that need not be localized, but can extend to all of space
- A real-world example for a field is the temperature field $T(t, \vec{x})$, which gives the temperature T at a position \vec{x} and time t. The temperature is an example for a (non-relativistic) scalar field
- An example for a (non-relativistic) vector field would be the wind field *v*(t, *x*), which depends on position *x* and time t but has three components instead of just one
- In the following we restrict ourselves to field theories that are **relativistic** (though it is perfectly possible to consider non-relativistic field theories)

- A relativistic field theory has the property that its classical action S is invariant under the symmetry group of special relativity (Lorentz transformations plus translations)
- In this course, I assume you are familiar with special relativity; if not, please review chapter 2 in the textbook
- In special relativity, time and space are not independent, so writing the action as $S = \int dtL$ is not a good starting point since the volume element dt does not transform properly
- What does transform properly under the symmetries of special relativity is the volume element of space-time $dtd^3x \equiv d^4x$ such that the action for a classical field theory can be written as

$$S = \int d^4 x \mathcal{L} \,, \tag{8.7}$$

where \mathcal{L} is the Lagrangian **density**.

- In order to set up a proper relativistic field theory, we have to declare the **content** of the field theory
- Do we have scalar fields (like temperature), vector fields (like wind) or tensor fields?
- Arguably the simplest case is to start with a scalar field, which we denote by φ(x), and which corresponds to a single degree of freedom at every point in space-time x^μ
- Given the field content, we can construct a Lagrangian density *L* from φ(x) and its derivatives
- \bullet At this point, the only rule is that ${\cal L}$ must be a scalar under special relativity transformations

- If \mathcal{L} contains combinations of $\phi(x)$ and $\partial_{\mu}\phi(x)$, allowed terms are $\mathcal{L} \propto \phi^{2}(x), \ln \phi(x), e^{-\phi(x)}, \partial_{\mu}\phi(x)\partial^{\mu}\phi(x), \partial_{\mu}\partial_{\nu}\partial_{\rho}\partial^{\mu}\partial^{\nu}\partial^{\rho}\phi \dots$ (8.8)
- On the other hand, disallowed terms would be

$$\mathcal{L} \propto \partial_{\mu} \phi(\mathbf{x}), \partial_{\mu} \partial^{\mu} \phi \partial^{\rho} \phi \dots$$
 (8.9)

 To simplify the discussion, we will first limit the discussion to theories with Lagrangians of the form

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{2}\partial_{\mu}\phi(x)\partial^{\mu}\phi(x) - V(\phi), \qquad (8.10)$$

where $V(\phi)$ can be arbitrary at this point

• For Lagrangian densities of the form (8.10), the action is

$$S = -\int d^4x \left[\frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \phi(x) \partial^\mu \phi(x) + V(\phi) \right]$$
(8.11)

• Demanding that $0 \stackrel{!}{=} \delta S$, one finds the equations of motion for the field ϕ as

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} - \partial_{\mu} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \partial_{\mu} \phi} = 0 = -\frac{dV(\phi)}{d\phi} - \partial_{\mu} \partial^{\mu} \phi.$$
 (8.12)

In the following, I sometimes denote the operator

$$\partial_{\mu}\partial^{\mu} \equiv \Box \,, \tag{8.13}$$

which is called "Quabla" operator in a wordplay on $\nabla = \partial_i \partial_i$ ("nabla")

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• The Euclidean action for (8.11) is readily calculated using Eq. (5.11):

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{E}}(\tau) = -\lim_{t \to -i\tau} \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \partial_{\tau} \phi \partial_{\tau} \phi + \frac{1}{2} \partial_{i} \phi \partial_{i} \phi + V(\phi)$$
(8.14)

so that

$$S_{E} = \int_{0}^{\beta} d\tau d^{3}x \left[\frac{1}{2} \partial_{\tau} \phi \partial_{\tau} \phi + \frac{1}{2} \partial_{i} \phi \partial_{i} \phi + V(\phi) \right].$$
(8.15)

 Since the integrand in the Euclidean action involves a four-dimensional Euclidean quadratic form, a common notation is

$$S_E = \int d^4 x_E \left[\frac{1}{2} \partial_a \phi \partial_a \phi + V(\phi) \right] , \qquad (8.16)$$

where $dx_E = d\tau d^3x$ is the Euclidean integral measure and a = 1, 2, 3, 4 is a four-dimensional Euclidean index

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