# 2 Classical Dynamics of Scalar Fields

We will study classical dynamics of Klein-Gordon scalar field.

#### 2.1 Klein-Gordon equation

Quantum dynamics can be determined from *canonical quantization* of classical system by promoting set of *canonical variables* (q, p), satisfy Poisson bracket  $\{q, p\} = 1$ , to be set of *canonical operator*  $(\hat{q}, \hat{p})$  satisfy algebra (commutation relation)  $[\hat{q}, \hat{p}] = i$ . These operators have their own eigen-value equations

$$\hat{q}|q
angle = q|q
angle, \; \hat{p}|p
angle = p|p
angle$$

And their alternative applications are

$$\hat{q}|p\rangle = i\partial_p|p\rangle, \ \hat{p}|q\rangle = -i\partial_q|q\rangle \mapsto \langle q|p\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{ipq}$$

The system Hamiltonian H = H(q, p) is also promoted to be an operator and has its own eigen-value equation

$$\ddot{H}|\psi_E\rangle = E|\psi_E\rangle$$

which is known in the name of *Schrodinger's equation*. For non-relativistic equation we have

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(q) \mapsto \hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + V(\hat{q})$$
$$\mapsto \left(\frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + V(\hat{q})\right) |\psi_E\rangle = E|\psi_E\rangle$$
$$\langle q|\left(\frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + V(\hat{q})\right) |\psi_E\rangle = \langle q|E|\psi_E\rangle \mapsto \left(-\frac{1}{2m}\partial_q^2 + V(q)\right) \psi_e(q) = E\psi_E(q)$$

when  $\psi_E(q) = \langle q | \psi_E \rangle$ . For relativistic particle, with relativistic energy-momentum relation

$$E^2 = p^2 + m^2 \mapsto E^2 - p^2 - m^2 = 0$$

Under canonical quantization, together with promoting an energy E to be an energy operator  $\hat{E} = i\partial_t$  when viewd from time-dependent state  $|\phi(t)\rangle$ , we will have an operator equation

$$(\hat{E}^2 - \hat{p}^2 - m^2)|\phi(t)\rangle = 0 \mapsto -(\partial_t^2 - \partial_q^2 + m^2)\phi(t,q) = 0$$

when  $\phi(t,q) = \langle q | \phi(t) \rangle$ . In Lorentz covariant form  $(t,q) = x^{\mu}$  and  $\partial_t^2 - \partial_q^2 = \partial_{\mu} \partial^{\mu} = \partial^2$  is d'Alembertian which is Lorentz scalar. So that this equation can be Lorentz invariant when  $\phi(x)$  is simply Lorentz scalar function. Then this equation become to know in the name of *Klein-Gordon equation*. To be quantum equation, the function  $\phi(x)$  must be interpreted as probability density

function, satisfy conserved probability condition. In case of complex scalar field, we have  $\phi^* \neq \phi$  satisfy the same equation, and the probability current density is determined as

$$\begin{split} \phi^*(\partial^2 + m^2)\phi &= 0 \xrightarrow{subtraction \ with}_{its \ conjugation} \phi^*\partial^2\phi - \phi\partial^2\phi^* = 0 \\ &\mapsto \partial_\mu(\phi^*\partial^\mu\phi - \phi\partial^\mu\phi^*) \equiv \partial_\mu j^\mu = 0 \ \text{continuity equation} \\ j^\mu\phi^*\partial^\mu\phi - \phi\partial^\mu\phi^* &= (\phi^*\partial_0\phi - \phi\partial_0\phi^*, -(\phi^*\nabla\phi - \phi\nabla\phi^*)) \equiv (j^0, \vec{j}) \end{split}$$

Note that  $j^0 = \phi^* \partial_0 \phi - \phi \partial_0 \phi^*$  is not positive definite so that it cannot be interpreted as probability density. This is the fail point of Klein-Gordon equation for using as relativistic quantum equation. Another problem of Klein-Gordon equation is the negative energy part of quantum particle, since  $E = \pm \sqrt{p^2 + m^2}$ , in which Klein-Gordon cannot discuss this point in their time of writing their equation.

#### 2.2 Classical aspects of scalar field

Reinterpretation of Klein-Gordon equation appear later as classical Lorentz scalar field equation, not a relativistic quantum equation any more. In case of real scalar field  $\phi = \phi^*$ , Klein-Gordon equation can be derived from the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \partial_{\mu} \phi \partial^{\mu} \phi - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2$$

From Euler-Lagrange equation

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} - \partial_{\mu} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \partial_{\mu} \phi} = 0 \mapsto \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} = -m^2 \phi, \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial_{\mu} \phi} = \partial^{\mu} \phi \mapsto -(\partial^2 \phi + m^2 \phi) = 0$$

Its Hamiltonian is

$$\pi = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \partial_0 \phi} = \partial_0 \phi \mapsto \mathcal{H} = \phi \partial_0 \phi - \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \pi^2 + \frac{1}{2} \nabla \phi \cdot \nabla \phi + \frac{1}{2} m^2 \phi^2$$

Free field solution is determined from trial solution

$$\phi(x) \sim a(k)e^{-ik \cdot x} \mapsto (-k^2 + m^2)a(k) = 0$$
$$\mapsto -k^2 + m^2 = -\omega^2 + \vec{k}^2 + m^2 = 0 \mapsto \omega^2 = \omega_k^2, \ \omega_k = \sqrt{\vec{k}^2 + m^2}$$

after using notation of the 4-momentum  $k^{\mu} = (\omega, \vec{k})$ . The general solution is written in the form of Fourier transformation

$$\phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} \left( a(k)e^{-ikx} + a^*(k)e^{ikx} \right) (2\pi)\delta(\omega^2 - \omega_k^2)$$

Using identity of the delta function

$$\delta(f(x)) = \sum_{i} \frac{f(a_i)}{|f'(a_i)|}, \ f(a_i) = 0 \text{ for all } i$$

$$\delta(\omega^2 - \omega_k^2) = \frac{1}{2\omega_k} [\delta(\omega - \omega_k) + \delta(\omega + \omega_k)]$$

The we have from above

$$\phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k} \left(a(k)e^{-ikx} + a^*(k)e^{ikx}\right)_{\omega=\omega_k}$$

We also have

$$\pi = \partial_0 \phi = -\frac{i}{2} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \left( a(k)e^{-ikx} - a^*(k)e^{ikx} \right)_{\omega = \omega_k}$$
$$\nabla \phi(x) = i \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k} \vec{k} \left( a(k)e^{-ikx} - a^*(k)e^{ikx} \right)_{\omega = \omega_k}$$

The expression of amplitude a(k) can be derived from the inverse Fourier transformation as

$$a(k) = i \int d^3x e^{ikx} (\partial_0 \phi(x) - i\omega_k \phi(x)) \equiv i \int d^3x e^{ikx} \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_0 \phi(x)$$
$$\mapsto a^*(k) = -i \int d^3x e^{-ikx} \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_0 \phi(x), \text{ when } \phi^* = \phi$$

after we have used the notation  $f(x)\overleftrightarrow{\partial}_0 g(x) = f(x)\overrightarrow{\partial}_0 g(x) - f(x)\overleftarrow{\partial}_0 g(x)$ . From complex scalar field  $\phi \neq \phi^*$ , we have field Lagrangian in the form

$$\mathcal{L} = \partial_{\mu}\phi^*\partial^{\mu}\phi - m^2\phi^*\phi$$

The conjugate momentum field is

$$\pi = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \partial_0 \phi} = \partial_0 \phi^* \mapsto \pi^* = \partial_0 \phi$$

and the field Hamiltonian is

$$\mathcal{H} = \pi \partial_0 \phi + \pi^* \partial_0 \phi^* - \mathcal{L} = \pi^* \pi + \nabla \phi^* \cdot \nabla \phi + m^2 \phi^* \phi$$

The general free field solution will appear in the form

$$\phi(x) = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3 2\omega_k} \left(a(k)e^{-ikx} + b^*(k)e^{ikx}\right)_{\omega=\omega_k}$$

And the amplitudes a(k) and b(k) are derived as above. On the other hand the complex scalar field can be written in term of two real scalar fields as  $\phi(x) = \phi_1(x) + i\phi_2(x) \mapsto \phi^*(x) = \phi_1(x) - i\phi_2(x) \neq \phi(x).$ 

#### 2.3 Conserved Noether's current

#### 2.3.1 Energy-momentum tensor

Lorentz symmetry of the scalar field results to the conserved energy-momentum tensor and the angular momentum tensor of the form, in case of complex scalar field,

$$T^{\mu}{}_{\nu} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \partial_{\mu} \phi} \partial_{\nu} \phi + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \partial_{\mu} \phi^*} \partial_{\nu} \phi^* - \delta^{\mu} \nu \mathcal{L} = \partial^{\mu} \phi^* \partial_{\nu} \phi - \delta^{\mu} \nu \mathcal{L}$$
$$Q = \int d^3 x T^{00} = \int d^3 x (\pi^* \pi + \nabla \phi^* \cdot \nabla \phi + m^2 \phi^* \phi) = \int d^3 x \mathcal{H}$$
$$P^i = \int d^3 x T^{0i} = \int d^3 x (\partial^0 \phi^* \partial^i \phi + \partial^0 \phi \partial^i \phi^*)$$

These are the conserved Noether's charge Q (Hamiltonian H) and Noether's current  $J^i$  (momentum  $P^i$ ).

#### 2.3.2 Angular momentum tensor

The angular momentum tensor is

$$M^{\mu}{}_{\nu\sigma} = T^{\mu}{}_{\nu}x_{\sigma} - T^{\mu}{}_{\sigma}x_{\nu} \mapsto L_{ij} = M^{0}{}_{ij} = \int d^{3}x \left(T^{0}{}_{i}x_{j} - T^{0}{}_{j}x_{i}\right)$$

More analysis can be done on quantum level.

#### 2.3.3 Spin angular momentum tensor

Since  $\phi'(x') = D(\Lambda)\phi(x) = \phi(x) \mapsto D(\Lambda) = 1$  for scalar fields, so that

$$S^{\mu}{}_{\nu\sigma} = 0$$

This shows that the scalar fields have spin s = 0.

## 2.4 Self-interaction, ground state configuration and spontaneous symmetry breaking

#### **2.4.1** $Z_2$ -symmetry

In  $\phi^4$ -self interaction model of the real scalar field, its Lagrangian appear in the form

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \partial_{\mu} \phi \partial^{\mu} \phi - \frac{1}{2} \mu^2 \phi^2 - \frac{1}{4} g \phi^4$$
$$\rightarrow \mathcal{V}(\phi) = \frac{1}{2} \mu^2 \phi^2 + \frac{1}{4} g \phi^4$$

This model has discrete  $Z_2$ -symmetry, i.e.,  $\phi \to -\phi$ . The ground state of system is determined from the minimum of potential  $\mathcal{V}(\phi = \phi_0)$ . We observe that

$$\mathcal{V}'(\phi_0) = 0 = \mu^2 \phi_0 + g \phi_0^3 = \phi_0 (\mu^2 + g \phi_0^2)$$

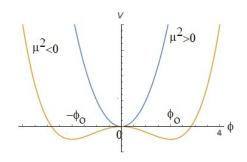


Figure 2.1:  $\phi^4$ - potential.

$$\mu^2 > 0 \mapsto \phi_0 = 0$$
, and  $\mu^2 < 0 \mapsto \phi_0^{\pm} = \pm \sqrt{|\mu^2|/g}$ 

In case of  $\mu^2 > 0$ , there is only one symmetric ground state configuration  $\phi_0 = 0$ , so there will be no symmetry breaking. But for  $\mu^2 < 0$ , there are  $Z_2$ -symmetric ground state configurations  $\phi_0 = \pm \sqrt{|\mu|^2/g}$ . The system must choose one of these result to the breaking of this symmetry, and this results to what is called *spontaneous symmetry breaking*. Let us choose one at  $\phi_0 = \pm \sqrt{|\mu|^2/g}$ , the field dynamics around this configuration can be determined from its fluctuation of the ground state as

$$\phi(x) \simeq \phi_0 + \eta(x)$$

Insertion into the field Lagrangian we will have

$$\partial_{\mu}\phi = \partial_{\mu}\eta, \ \phi^{2} = (\phi_{0} + \eta^{2}) = \phi_{0}^{2} + 2\phi_{0}\eta + \eta^{2} = \frac{|\mu|^{2}}{g} + 2\sqrt{\frac{|\mu|^{2}}{g}}\eta + \eta^{2}$$
$$\phi^{4} = \phi_{0}^{4} + 4\phi_{0}^{3}\eta + 6\phi_{0}^{2}\eta^{2} + 4\phi_{0}\eta^{3} + \eta^{4}$$
$$= \frac{|\mu|^{4}}{g^{2}} + 4\frac{|\mu|^{3}}{g\sqrt{g}}\eta + 6\frac{|\mu|^{2}}{g}\eta^{2} + 4\sqrt{\frac{|\mu|^{2}}{g}}\eta^{3} + \eta^{4}$$

Then the field Lagrangian after symmetry breaking will become

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4g}|\mu|^4 + \frac{1}{2}\partial_\mu\eta\partial^\mu\eta - |\mu|^2\eta^2 - \sqrt{g|\mu|^2}\eta^3 - \frac{1}{4}g\eta^4$$

The new system emerge with some ground state energy, differ in mass and extra cubic interaction.

#### 2.4.2 SO(2)-symmetry

Let us determine complex scalar field  $\phi = \phi_1 + i\phi_2$  with quartic interaction, its Lagrangian appear in the form

$$\mathcal{L} = \partial_{\mu}\phi^*\partial^{\mu}\phi - \mu^2\phi^*\phi - g(\phi^*\phi)^2$$

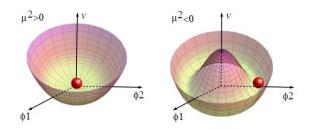


Figure 2.2: Ground state configuration of  $(\phi^* \phi)^2$ -interaction.

The ground state configuration appear as before but in two-dimensions.

In case of  $\mu^2 > 0$ , we see that

$$\phi_0^* \phi_0 = \phi_{01}^2 + \phi_{02}^2 = 0 \mapsto \phi_{01} = 0 = \phi_{02}$$

There are the symmetric ground state configurations. There will be no symmetry breaking. But in case of  $\mu^2 < 0$ , we see that

$$\phi_0^*\phi_0 = \phi_{01}^2 + \phi_{02}^2 = \frac{|\mu|^2}{2g}$$

We observe that  $\phi_{01}, \phi_{02}$  contribute to SO(2)-symmetric ground state configurations. There will be symmetry breaking. Let us break this symmetry by choosing the broken symmetry ground state configuration at

$$\phi_{01} = 0, \phi_{02} = a = +\sqrt{|\mu|^2/2g}, \mapsto \phi_1(x) \simeq \eta_1(x), \ \phi_2(x) \simeq a + \eta_2(x)$$
$$\partial_\mu \phi^* \partial^\mu \phi = \partial_\mu \eta_1 \partial^\mu \eta_1 + \partial_\mu \eta_2 \partial^\mu \eta_2$$
$$\phi^* \phi = \phi_1^2 + \phi_2^2 = \eta_1^2 + (a + \eta_2)^2 = \eta_1^2 + a^2 + 2a\eta_2 + \eta_2^2$$
$$(\phi^* \phi)^2 = \eta_1^4 + a^4 + 2a^2\eta_1^2 + 4a\eta_1^2\eta_2 + 2\eta_1^2\eta_2^2 + 6a^2\eta_2^2 + \eta_2^4 + 4a^3\eta_2 + 4a\eta_2^3$$

From the Lagrangian above we will have

$$\mathcal{L} = \partial_{\mu}\eta_{1}\partial^{\mu}\eta_{1} + \partial_{\mu}\eta_{2}\partial^{\mu}\eta_{2} + |\mu|^{2}\eta_{1}^{2} + |\mu|^{2}\eta_{2}^{2} + |\mu|^{2}a^{2} + 2|\mu|^{2}a\eta_{2}$$
$$-g\eta_{1}^{4} - ga^{4} - 2ga^{2}\eta_{1}^{2} - 4ga\eta_{1}^{2}\eta_{2} - 2g\eta_{1}^{2}\eta_{2}^{2} - 6ga^{2}\eta_{2}^{2} - g\eta_{2}^{4} - 4ga^{3}\eta_{2} - 4a\eta_{2}^{3}$$

After insertion the value of s, we get important terms of the Lagrangian as

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_0 + \partial_\mu \eta_1 \partial^\mu \eta_1 - g \eta_1^4 + \partial_\mu \eta_2 \partial^\mu \eta_2 - 5 |\mu|^2 \eta_2^2 - g \eta_2^4 - \mathcal{L}_I(\eta_1, \eta_2)$$

We observe that  $\eta_1$  becomes massless scalar, where its mass is eaten by  $\eta_2$ which get fat from mass  $|\mu|^2 \to 5|\mu|^2$ , and results with some constant energy  $\mathcal{L}_0$ from the ground state configuration  $\phi_{02}$  and coupling terms  $\mathcal{L}_I$ . The field  $\eta_1$  is known in the name of massless Goldstone's boson, which is emerged from the process of spontaneous symmetry breaking of the SO(2) continuous symmetry of ground state configuration of the original model.

### 2.4.3 Goldstone's theorem

The theorem state that

"breaking of any continuous symmetry of the degenerate ground state configuration spontaneously will result with massless boson" This is known as Goldstone or Nambu-Goldstone boson.