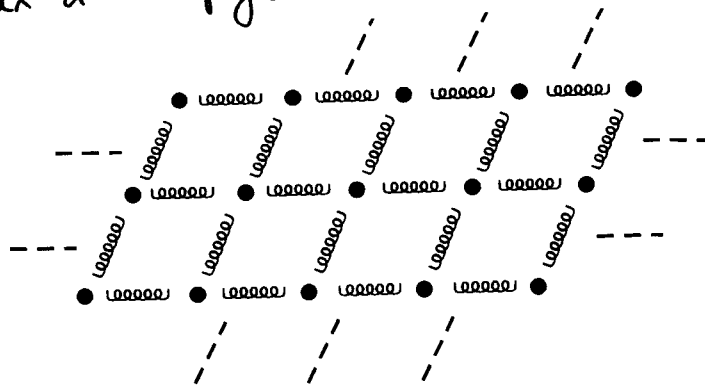


Transition to continuum. The concept of field

Consider a 2-dimensional lattice of point masses connected to each other by springs. Denote by $q_a(t)$ the displacement of the point mass "a" from the position of equilibrium and denote by l the spacing of the lattice. The index "a" simply labels the masses on the lattice.



- 1 -

The Lagrangian of the system is:

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_a m_a \dot{q}_a^2 - \sum_{a,b} k_{ab} q_a q_b - \sum_{a,b,c} g_{abc} q_a q_b q_c \dots \right)$$

Take the continuum limit, $l \rightarrow 0$ (suppose we are interested in phenomena on length scales much greater than the lattice spacing l).

In this limit, we can replace the label "a" by a 2-dimensional position vector \vec{x}

$$q_a(t) \rightarrow q(t, \vec{x}) \equiv \varphi(t, \vec{x})$$

The function $\varphi(t, \vec{x})$ is called a field.

- Replace \sum_a by $\frac{1}{l^2} \int d^2x$

- Denote the mass per unit area

$$\sigma = \frac{m a}{l^2}$$

(assume all m_a 's to be equal, so that σ is not a function of position)

- The kinetic energy $\sum_a \frac{1}{2} m a \dot{q}_a^2$ becomes then

$$\int d^2x \frac{1}{2} \sigma \left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} \right)^2$$

- Take the first term of the potential, $\sum_{ab} \frac{1}{2} k_{ab} q_a q_b$.

- Write $-2 q_a q_b = (q_a - q_b)^2 - q_a^2 - q_b^2$ and assume that k_{ab} connect only nearest neighbours in the lattice

- For nearest-neighbours pairs, in the continuum limit

$$\left(\frac{q_a - q_b}{l} \right)^2 \rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x} \right)^2$$

with the derivative taken in the direction that joins the lattice sites "a" and "b".

Then the Lagrangian becomes:

$$L = \int d^2x \mathcal{L}(\varphi) = \int d^2x \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \sigma \left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} \right)^2 - \rho \left[\left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial y} \right)^2 \right] - \tau \varphi^2 - \xi \varphi^3 - \dots \right\}$$

$$= \int d^2x \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} \right)^2 - \left[\left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial y} \right)^2 \right] - \tau' \varphi^2 - \xi' \varphi^3 - \dots \right\}$$

(where we took $\rho/\sigma = c^2$ and then set $c=1$)

Remark 1 : In field theory, the dynamical variable is the field $\varphi(t, \vec{x})$ and not the coordinate \vec{x} . Since \vec{x} appearing in $\varphi(t, \vec{x})$ is a mere label (just like a in $q_a(t)$ for usual particle systems) and since \vec{x} can take any value in \mathbb{R}^2 (for the present 2-dimensional case), a field is a system with an infinite number of degrees of freedom (d.o.f.).

In other words, when passing to the continuum limit, we have the correspondences:

$$\begin{aligned}
 q &\rightarrow \varphi \\
 a &\rightarrow \vec{x} \\
 q_a(t) &\rightarrow \varphi(t, \vec{x}) = \varphi(x); \quad (x = (t, \vec{x})) \\
 \sum_a &\rightarrow \int d^D x \quad (\text{for } D\text{-dim. space})
 \end{aligned}$$

This crucial distinction in the role of the coordinate \vec{x} will be better seen at quantum level: in quantum mechanics (finite no. of d.o.f.) the coordinate \hat{x}_i and the conjugate momentum \hat{p}_j are operators, satisfying the commutation relation

$$[\hat{x}_i, \hat{p}_j] = i \delta_{ij} \quad (\hbar = 1)$$

In quantum field theory (infinite no. of d.o.f.), the coordinates x are c-numbers and $\varphi(x)$ and the canonically conjugate momentum $\pi(x)$ are operators, depending on the coordinates x as parameters and satisfying the commutation relations (at equal times)

$$[\varphi(\vec{x}, t), \pi(\vec{x}', t)] = i \delta(\vec{x} - \vec{x}')$$

Remark 2: The role of this example was to emphasize the fact that a field is a system with an infinite no. of degrees of freedom, depending on the coordinates as parameters. Of course nobody believes that the fields observed in Nature (e.g. a meson or a photon field) are actually constructed of point masses tied together with springs!

The modern view is to start with the desired symmetry, e.g. Poincaré invariance if we want to do particle physics, decide on the fields we want by specifying their transformation properties under that symmetry and then write down the invariant action (or Lagrangian density) involving no more than two time derivatives (because we do not know how to quantize actions with more than two time derivatives).

Lagrangian and Hamiltonian formalism for fields

- In order to extend the commutation relations of QM

$$[\hat{q}_i(t), \hat{p}_j(t)] = i\delta_{ij}$$

to systems with infinite no. of degrees of freedom, we have to work with Heisenberg operators and use the Hamiltonian formalism, in which time has a privileged role, compared to the space coordinates. Due to this privileged role of time, the Hamiltonian formalism is not manifestly relativistic (Poincaré) covariant. However, one can construct manifestly Poincaré invariant Lagrangian densities for relativistic fields and then go to the Hamiltonian formalism

$$S = \int_{t_0}^t dt L = \int_{t_0}^t dt \int_V d^3x \mathcal{L}(x) = \int_{\Omega} d^4x \mathcal{L}(x)$$

S - relativistically invariant action

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{L}(x)$ - relativistically invariant Lagrangian density

Point-like particle mechanics

q_a - generalized coordinate, dynamical var.

t - time variable

$$L(t) = L(q_a(t), \dot{q}_a(t))$$

Relativistic classical fields

φ - the field - generalized coordinate!

$x^\mu \equiv x$ space-time coordinates

$$L(t) = \int_V d^3x \mathcal{L}(x)$$

$$\mathcal{L}(x) = \mathcal{L}(\varphi(x), \partial_\mu \varphi(x))$$

• Furthermore we assume :

- Lagrangean density is a real function
- Lagr. density contains fields and their derivatives taken at one point only \Rightarrow LOCAL field theories.
- Lagr. density depends only on the fields $\varphi_a(x)$ and their derivatives $\partial_\mu \varphi_a(x)$. We also restrict ourselves to theories with two derivatives at most.
- Lagr. density does not depend EXPLICITLY on the space-time coord. x^μ (explicit dependence on x^μ would spoil the translational invariance)
- Principle of least action \Rightarrow field equations of motion (Euler-Lagrange equations)

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 = \delta S &= \int_{\Omega} d^4x \delta \mathcal{L}(\varphi_a, \partial_\mu \varphi_a) \\
 &= \int_{\Omega} d^4x \left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \varphi_a} \delta \varphi_a + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \varphi_a)} \delta \partial_\mu \varphi_a \right] \\
 &= \int_{\Omega} d^4x \left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \varphi_a} \delta \varphi_a - \partial_\mu \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \varphi_a)} \right) \delta \varphi_a + \partial_\mu \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \varphi_a)} \delta \varphi_a \right) \right] \\
 &= \int_{\Omega} d^4x \left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \varphi_a} - \partial_\mu \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \varphi_a)} \right) \right] \delta \varphi_a + \int_{\partial \Omega} dS_\mu \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \varphi_a)} \delta \varphi_a \right) \\
 &= \int_{\Omega} d^4x \left[\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \varphi_a} - \partial_\mu \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \varphi_a)} \right) \right] \delta \varphi_a \quad \text{(since } \delta \varphi_a|_{\partial \Omega} = 0)
 \end{aligned}$$

Since $\delta \varphi_a$ are arbitrary variations, it follows that

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \varphi_a} - \partial_\mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \varphi_a)} = 0$$

Euler-Lagrange equations for the fields φ_a

• Hamiltonian formalism -15-

Point like particle mechanics

Relativistic classical field

canonically conjugated momentum

- to the coordinate q_a

$$p_a(t) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_a(t)}$$

- to the field φ_a

$$\pi_a(x) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(x)}{\partial (\partial_0 \varphi_a(x))}$$

Hamiltonian

$$H(q_a(t), p_a(t)) = \sum_a p_a(t) \dot{q}_a(t) - L(q_a, \dot{q}_a)$$

$$H = \int d^3x \mathcal{H}(x)$$

$$\mathcal{H}(x) = \sum_a \pi_a(x) \partial_0 \varphi_a(x) - \mathcal{L}(\varphi_a(x), \partial_\mu \varphi_a(x))$$

Hamilton equations

$$\dot{p}_a(t) = - \frac{dH}{dq_a}$$

$$\partial_0 \pi_a(x) = - \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \varphi_a(x)} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial (\partial_i \varphi_a)}$$

$$\dot{q}_a(t) = \frac{dH}{dp_a}$$

$$\partial_0 \varphi_a(x) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \pi_a(x)}$$

• Examples of relativistically invariant Lagrangian densities:

- free case

i) real scalar field

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \varphi \partial^\mu \varphi - \frac{1}{2} m^2 \varphi^2 \Rightarrow (\square + m^2) \varphi = 0$$

ii) complex scalar field

$$\mathcal{L} = \partial_\mu \varphi^* \partial^\mu \varphi - m^2 \varphi^* \varphi \Rightarrow \begin{cases} (\square + m^2) \varphi = 0 \\ (\square + m^2) \varphi^* = 0 \end{cases}$$

iii) spinor field

$$\mathcal{L} = i \bar{\Psi} \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi - m \bar{\Psi} \Psi \Rightarrow (i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \Psi = 0$$

iv) electromagnetic field

$$\mathcal{L} = - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} \Rightarrow \partial_\mu F^{\mu\nu} = 0$$

$$F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu$$

- systems with interaction

i) $\lambda \varphi^4$ - theory

$$\mathcal{L} = \partial_\mu \varphi^* \partial^\mu \varphi - m^2 \varphi^* \varphi - \frac{\lambda}{4!} (\varphi^* \varphi)^2$$

ii) electrodynamics (int. of electrons with electromagnetic field)

$$\mathcal{L} = i \bar{\Psi} \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi - m \bar{\Psi} \Psi - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} - e \bar{\Psi} \gamma^\mu \Psi A_\mu$$

Dimensional analysis in natural units

The system of units best suited for particle physics is the system of natural units. In natural units, one takes

M - mass

A - action

V - velocity

as fundamental dimensions and chooses

\hbar as unit of action

c as unit of velocity

i.e. $\hbar = c = 1$

As a result, in natural units all quantities have the dimensions of a power of mass, M^n .

Quantity

Dimension in natural units
 M^n

Action

M^0

Velocity

M^0

Mass

M

Length

M^{-1}

Time

M^{-1}

Momentum

M

Energy

M

Lagrangian or
Hamiltonian density

M^4

Klein-Gordon field $\phi(x)$

M^1

Electromagnetic field $A^\mu(x)$

M^2

Dirac field $\psi(x)$

$M^{3/2}$

(The dimensions of the fields $\phi(x)$, $A^\mu(x)$, $\psi(x)$ can be obtained from the corresponding free Lagrangian densities)

Relativistic notation

Natural units $c = \hbar = 1$

- x^μ - space-time four-vector $\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$
 $x^\mu = (x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$
 $= (t, \vec{x})$
 $x^0 = t$ - time component
 $x^j, j=1, 2, 3$ - space coordinates

- $\eta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \text{diag}(1, -1, -1, -1)$ - metric tensor

$$x_\mu = \sum_{\nu=0}^3 \eta_{\mu\nu} x^\nu \equiv \eta_{\mu\nu} x^\nu$$

- Summation convention:
Repeated indices are always summed over

Note: A summation index cannot appear in a product more than twice!

$$\eta^{\lambda\mu} \eta_{\mu\sigma} = \delta_\sigma^\lambda \quad (\delta_\mu^\sigma - \text{Kronecker delta})$$

$$\eta^{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu}$$

- A Lorentz transformation

$$x^\mu \rightarrow x'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu, \quad \Lambda - \text{real matrix}$$

leaves the 4-dimensional interval

$$x^\mu x_\mu = (x^0)^2 - x^i x^i = (x^0)^2 - (\vec{x})^2$$

invariant, i.e. $x'^\mu x'_\mu = x^\mu x_\mu$ is a scalar quantity

$$\text{Hence } \Lambda^\lambda_\mu \Lambda^\mu_\nu = \delta^\lambda_\nu$$

- A four-component object v_μ , transforming like x^μ under Lorentz transformation (hence with $v^\mu v_\mu$ a scalar) is a four-vector

Example : energy-momentum vectr

$$p^\mu = (E, \vec{p})$$

- Scalar product

$$ab = a^\mu b_\mu = a_\mu b^\mu = \eta_{\mu\nu} a^\mu b^\nu = a^0 b^0 - \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}$$

The scalar product ab is an invariant under Lorentz transformations

- $\partial_\mu = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu}$ - the 4-dimensional generalization of the gradient $\nabla = (\frac{\partial}{\partial x^1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^2}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^3})$

∂^μ transforms like a 4-vector!

$\phi(x)$ - scalar function

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \phi(x)}{\partial x^\mu} &\equiv \partial^\mu \phi(x) \equiv \phi_{,\mu}^{(x)} \\ \frac{\partial \phi(x)}{\partial x_\mu} &\equiv \partial_\mu \phi(x) \equiv \phi_{,(\mu)}^{(x)} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{vector functions!}$$

- d'Alembertian operator \square is a scalar

$$\square = \partial^\mu \partial_\mu = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^i \partial x^i} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \Delta$$

$$(\partial_\mu = (\partial_t, \nabla))$$