

Title: Quantum Field Theory for Cosmology - Lecture 20240208

Speakers: Achim Kempf

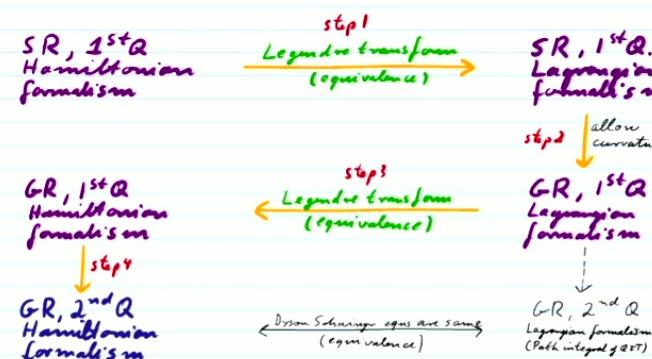
Collection: Quantum Field Theory for Cosmology (PHYS785/AMATH872)

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QFT for Cosmology, Achim Kempf, Lecture 10Recall:

- \* Hamiltonian formulations are suitable for quantization.
- \* Lagrangian formulations are suitable to achieve general relativistic covariance.

Strategy:We already started step 1:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \phi(x,t) := \frac{\delta H}{\delta \pi(x,t)} & (T) & \\ \Leftrightarrow & & \Leftrightarrow \\ H[\phi, \pi, t] & & L[\phi, \beta, t] \\ \pi(x,t) := \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{\phi}(x,t)} & (T^{-1}) & \end{array}$$

Proposition: These equations of motion are equivalent:

Hamiltonian eqns. of motion:

$$\dot{\phi}(x,t) = \frac{\delta H[\phi, \pi, t]}{\delta \pi(x,t)} \quad (H1)$$

$$\dot{\pi}(x,t) = -\frac{\delta H[\phi, \pi, t]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} \quad (H2)$$

Lagrangian eqns. of motion:

$$\dot{\phi}(x,t) = \beta(x,t) \quad (L1)$$

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{\phi}(x,t)} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi(x,t)} \quad (L2)$$

Proof: We need to show that  $(H1 \wedge H2) \Leftrightarrow (L1 \wedge L2)$ .The case "⇒"

□ Show  $L1$ :  $\dot{\phi} \stackrel{(H1)}{=} \frac{\delta H}{\delta \pi} \stackrel{(T)}{=} \beta \checkmark$

Show  $L2$ :

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L(\phi, \beta, t)}{\delta \beta} \stackrel{(T^{-1})}{=} \frac{d}{dt} \pi$$

(eqns. of motion)

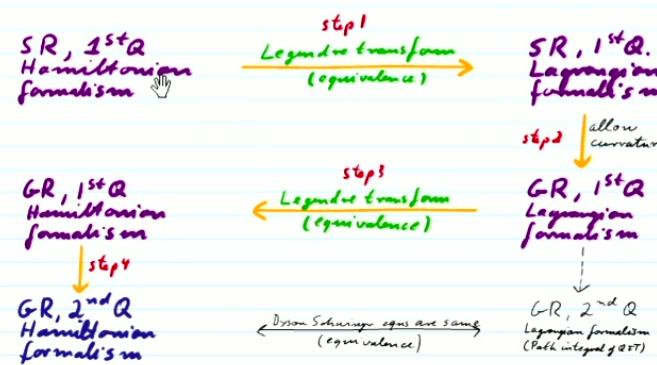
Exercise: The case "⇐".Result so far:

□ Legendre transform to Lagrangian formulation

⇒ Eqns. of motion can be cast in the form  $L1, L2$ , i.e.:

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{\phi}} = \beta \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi} = \pi$$

(Notice: Only a  $\beta$  in the first line)

Strategy:

Proof: We need to show that  $(H1 \wedge H2) \xrightleftharpoons{T} (L1 \wedge L2)$ .

The case " $\Rightarrow$ "

>Show  $L1$ :  $\dot{\phi} \stackrel{(H1)}{=} \frac{\delta H}{\delta \pi} \stackrel{(T)}{=} \dot{\phi} \checkmark$

Show  $L2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L(\phi, \beta, t)}{\delta \beta} \stackrel{(T^{-1})}{=} \frac{d}{dt} \pi \\ & \stackrel{(H2)}{=} -\frac{\delta H(\phi, \pi, t)}{\delta \phi} \\ & \stackrel{by def.}{=} -\frac{\delta}{\delta \phi} \left( \int \beta(t, \pi) \pi dx^3 - L(\phi, \beta(\phi, \pi), t) \right) \\ & = -\cancel{\frac{\delta \phi}{\delta \phi} \pi} + \frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi} + \cancel{\frac{\delta L}{\delta \beta} \frac{\delta \beta}{\delta \phi}} \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Proposition: These equations of motion are equivalent:

Hamiltonian eqns. of motion:

$$\dot{\phi}(x, t) = \frac{\delta H[\phi, \pi, t]}{\delta \pi(x, t)} \quad (H1)$$

$$\dot{\pi}(x, t) = -\frac{\delta H[\phi, \pi, t]}{\delta \phi(x, t)} \quad (H2)$$

Lagrangian eqns. of motion:

$$\dot{\phi}(x, t) = \beta(x, t) \quad (L1)$$

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi(x, t)} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \beta(x, t)} \quad (L2)$$

Exercise: The case " $\Leftarrow$ ".

Result so far:

Show Legendre transform to Lagrangian formulation

$\Rightarrow$  Eqns of motion can be cast in the form  $L1, L2$ , i.e.:

(Notice: Only a time derivative, no occurrence of space derivatives?)  $\Rightarrow \frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi(x, t)} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \beta(x, t)}, \quad \dot{\phi}(x, t) = \beta(x, t)$

But: How is that advantageous? These equations still seem to treat time differently than space!

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L(\phi, \dot{\phi}, t)}{\delta \dot{\phi}} \xrightarrow{(T^{-1})} \frac{d}{dt} \pi$$

$\xrightarrow{(H2)} -\frac{\delta H(\phi, \pi, t)}{\delta \phi}$

$$\xrightarrow{\frac{d}{dt} \frac{d\phi}{dt}} -\frac{d}{dt} \left( \int \beta(t, \pi) \pi dx \right) - L(\phi, \dot{\phi}, \pi, t)$$

$$= -\frac{\delta \phi}{\delta \dot{\phi}} \pi + \frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi} + \frac{\delta L}{\delta \pi} \frac{\pi}{\delta \dot{\phi}} \checkmark$$

$\Rightarrow$  eqns of motion can be cast in the form  $L_1, L_2$ , i.e.:

(Notice: Only a time derivative, no occurrence of space derivatives?)

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi(x, t)} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L}{\delta \dot{\phi}(x, t)}, \quad f(x, t) = \dot{\phi}(x, t)$$

But: How is that advantageous? These equations still seem to treat time differently than space!

### Analysis of $L_1, L_2$ :

We notice: \* The term  $\frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi(x, t)}$  is the total derivative with respect to all occurrences of  $\phi$  in  $L$ , including occurrences of  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \phi(x, t)$  in  $L$ .

\* Why? Because of the definition of  $\frac{\delta}{\delta \phi}$ :

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi(x, t)} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left[ L\left[\{\phi(x, t) + \varepsilon \delta^3(x-x')\}_{x \neq x'}\right] - L\left[\{\phi(x', t)\}_{x \neq x'}\right] \right]$$

E.g.:  $F[u] := \int \sin(x) \left( \frac{d}{dx} u(x) \right) dx$  Is  $\frac{\delta F}{\delta u(x)} = 0$ ? No:  
 $= - \int \cos(x) u(x) dx$  (We assume  $u(x) \rightarrow 0$  at boundaries)  
 $\Rightarrow \frac{\delta F}{\delta u(x)} = -\cos(x)$

$\Rightarrow L_1, L_2$  will contain nontrivial time and space derivatives.

\* Is there a systematic way to evaluate the derivatives with respect to  $\frac{\delta \phi}{\delta x}$ ?

Lemma: Consider any functional  $Z$  of the form:

$$Z[f] = \int \text{polynomial} \left( \frac{d}{dx} f \right) dx$$

Then:  $\frac{\delta Z}{\delta f(x)} = -\frac{d}{dx} \frac{\delta Z}{\delta \left( \frac{d}{dx} f \right)}$  On the right hand side we view  $\frac{d}{dx} f$  as an independent function.

occurrences of  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \phi(v, t)$  in  $L$ .

\* Why? Because of the definition of  $\frac{\delta}{\delta \phi}$ :

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi(v, t)} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left[ L\left[\left\{ \phi(v, t) + \varepsilon \delta^3(v - v') \right\}_{v \neq v'}\right] - L\left[\left\{ \phi(v, t) \right\}_{v \neq v'}\right] \right]$$

E.g.:  $F[u] := \int \sin(x) \left( \frac{d}{dx} u(x) \right) dx$  Is  $\frac{\delta F}{\delta u(b)} = 0$ ? No:  
 $= - \int \cos(x) u(x) dx$  (We assume  $u(x) \rightarrow 0$  at boundaries)  
 $\Rightarrow \frac{\delta F}{\delta u(b)} = -\cos(b)$

### Example:

Notation:  $\partial_x f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$

$$Z[f] := \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\partial_x f(x))^2 dx$$

□ If we view  $\partial_x f$  as an independent function, then we obtain of course:

$$\frac{\delta Z[\partial_x f]}{\delta (\partial_x f(x))} = 2 \partial_x f(x)$$

□ Our lemma claims, therefore:

$$\frac{\delta Z[f]}{\delta f(x)} = -2 \frac{\delta Z[\partial_x f]}{\delta (\partial_x f(x))} = -2 \partial_x \partial_x f(x)$$

\* Is there a systematic way to evaluate the derivatives with respect to  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \phi$ ?

Lemma: Consider any functional  $Z$  of the form:

$$Z[f] = \int \text{polynomial } \left( \frac{d}{dx} f \right) dx$$

Then:  $\frac{\delta Z}{\delta f(x)} = -\frac{d}{dx} \frac{\delta Z}{\delta \left( \frac{d}{dx} f \right)}$

On the right hand side we view  $\frac{d}{dx} f$  as an independent function.

□ Let us verify this from first principles!

Indeed:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\delta}{\delta f(x)} Z[f] &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left[ \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left( \partial_x (f(x) + \varepsilon \delta(x-x')) \right)^2 dx' \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\partial_x f(x'))^2 dx' \right] \\ &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\partial_x f(x')) (\partial_x \delta(x-x')) dx' \\ &\stackrel{\text{int. by parts}}{=} -2 \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\partial_x^2 f(x')) \delta(x-x') dx' + \underset{\text{boundary}}{\cancel{\int_{x \neq 0}}} \\ &= -2 \partial_x^2 f(x) \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

If we view  $\partial_x f$  as an independent function, then we obtain of course:

$$\frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\partial_x f]}{\delta (\partial_x f(x))} = 2 \partial_x f(x)$$

Our lemma claims, therefore:

$$\frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[f]}{\delta f(x)} = -2 \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\partial_x f]}{\delta (\partial_x f(x))} = -2 \partial_x \partial_x f(x)$$

Recall L2:  $\frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x, t)} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \beta(x, t)}$

Use lemma:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x, t)} &= \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\phi, \partial_i \phi, \partial_i \beta, \partial_i t, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x, t)} \\ &- \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\phi, \partial_i \phi, \partial_i \beta, \partial_i t, \beta, t]}{\delta (\partial_i \phi(x, t))} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$  L2 takes the form:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{line 1: } L_R \\ &- \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\partial_x f(x'))^2 dx' \\ &= 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\partial_x f(x')) (\partial_x \delta(x-x')) dx' \\ &\stackrel{\text{int. by parts}}{=} -2 \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\partial_x^2 f(x')) \delta(x-x') dx' + \text{boundary terms} \\ &= -2 \partial_x^2 f(x) \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\phi, \partial_i \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x, t)} - \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\phi, \partial_i \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta (\partial_i \phi(x, t))} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\phi, \partial_i \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \beta(x, t)}$$

Recall also L1:  $\beta(x, t) = \dot{\phi}(x, t)$

$\Rightarrow$  One is tempted to write:

$$\frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\phi, \partial_i \phi, t]}{\delta \phi(x, t)} \stackrel{?}{=} \sum_{i=0}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \frac{\delta \mathcal{L}[\phi, \partial_i \phi, t]}{\delta (\partial_i \phi(x, t))} \quad \text{with: } \partial_0 := \frac{d}{dt}$$

However:

Here, we must remember that here the true variable is  $\beta$ , and that we can set  $\beta = \dot{\phi}$  only after functional differentiation.

Recall L2:  $\frac{\delta L[\phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L[\phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \beta(x,t)}$

Use lemma:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\delta L[\phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} &= \frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, \partial_1 \phi, \partial_2 \phi, \partial_3 \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} \\ &- \sum_{j=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, \partial_1 \phi, \partial_2 \phi, \partial_3 \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta (\partial_j \phi(x,t))} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$  L2 takes the form:

Ramification? □ Can we use the lemma to write

$$\frac{\delta L[\phi, t]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = 0$$

for the Euler-Lagrange field equations? No!

□ Because: to apply the lemma to the derivative  $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi$ , one would need

to know  $L[\phi]$  at  $t+dt$ .

$$\frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, \partial_1 \phi, \partial_2 \phi, \partial_3 \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} - \sum_{j=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, \partial_1 \phi, \partial_2 \phi, \partial_3 \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta (\partial_j \phi(x,t))} = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \beta(x,t)}$$

Recall also L1:  $\beta(x,t) = \dot{\phi}(x,t)$

$\Rightarrow$  One is tempted to write:

$$\frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, t]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = \sum_{j=0}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, t]}{\delta (\partial_j \phi(x,t))} \quad \text{with: } \partial_0 := \frac{d}{dt}$$

However:

Here, we must remember that here the true variable is  $\beta$ , and that we can set  $\beta = \dot{\phi}$  only after functional differentiation.

$\Rightarrow$  The "Action functional":

□ Definition:  $S[\phi] := \int_a^b L[\phi, t] dt$

$S[\phi]$  is called the "action of the field evolution  $\phi(x,t)$ "

□ Then, the "Euler-Lagrange field equations" are

derivative  $\frac{d}{dt}$   $\Rightarrow$  EEL

Analysis of L<sub>1</sub>, L<sub>2</sub>:

We notice: \* The term  $\frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi(x,t)}$  is the total derivative with respect to all occurrences of  $\phi$  in  $L$ , including occurrences of  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \phi(x,t)$  in  $L$ .

\* Why? Because of the definition of  $\frac{\delta}{\delta \phi}$ :

$$\frac{\delta L}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} [L[\{\phi(x,t) + \epsilon \delta^3(x-x')\}_{x \neq x'}] - L[\{\phi(x,t)\}_{x \neq x'}]]$$

E.g.:  $F[u] := \int \sin(x) \left( \frac{d}{dx} u(x) \right) dx$  Is  $\frac{\delta F}{\delta u(x)} = 0$ ? No:  
 $= - \int \cos(x) u(x) dx$  (We assume  $u(x) \rightarrow 0$  at boundaries)  
 $\Rightarrow \frac{\delta F}{\delta u(x)} = -\cos(x)$

Example:

Notation:  $\partial_x f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$



$$Z[f] := \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\partial_x f(x))^2 dx'$$

□ If we view  $\partial_x f$  as an independent function, then we obtain of course:

$\Rightarrow$  L<sub>1</sub>, L<sub>2</sub> will contain nontrivial time and space derivatives.

\* Is there a systematic way to evaluate the derivatives with respect to  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \phi$ ?

Lemma: Consider any functional Z of the form:

$$Z[f] = \int \text{polynomial } \left( \frac{d}{dx} f \right) dx$$

Then:  $\frac{\delta Z}{\delta f(x)} = -\frac{d}{dx} \frac{\delta Z}{\delta (\frac{d}{dx} f)}$

On the right hand side we view  $\frac{d}{dx} f$  as an independent function.

□ Let us verify this from first principles!

Indeed:

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta f(v)} Z[f] = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left[ \int_{\mathbb{R}} (\partial_x(f(v) + \epsilon \delta(v-v')))^2 dx' \right]$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} (2 \cdot f(v))^2 dx'$$

$$\frac{\delta L[\phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = \frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, \partial_1 \phi, \partial_2 \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} - \sum_{j=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, \partial_1 \phi, \partial_2 \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta (\partial_j \phi(x,t))}$$

$\Rightarrow L_2$  takes the form:

Ramification? □ Can we use the lemma to write

$$\frac{\delta L[\phi, \beta]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = 0$$

for the Euler-Lagrange field equations? No!

□ Because: to apply the lemma to the derivative  $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi$ , one would need that  $L$  possesses a  $t$ -integration:

Lemma: For any functional  $Z$  of the form:

$$Z[f] = \int \text{polynomial} \left( \frac{dx}{dt} f \right) dx$$

$$\text{we have: } \frac{\delta Z}{\delta f(t)} = - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\delta Z}{\delta (\frac{dx}{dt} f)}$$

→ One is tempted to write:

$$\frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, \partial_1 \phi, \partial_2 \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = \sum_{k=0}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^k} \frac{\delta L[\phi, \partial_0 \phi, \partial_1 \phi, \partial_2 \phi, \beta, t]}{\delta (\partial_k \phi(x,t))} \quad \text{with: } \partial_0 := \frac{d}{dt}$$

However:

Here, we must remember that here the true variable is  $\phi$ , and that we can set  $\beta = \phi$  only after functional differentiation.

→ The "Action functional":

□ Definition:  $S[\phi] := \int_a^b L[\phi, t] dt$

$S[\phi]$  is called the "action of the field evolution  $\phi(x,t)$ "

□ Then, the "Euler-Lagrange field equations" are

$$\frac{\delta S[\phi, \partial_i \phi]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} - \sum_{i=0}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \frac{\delta S[\phi, \partial_i \phi]}{\delta (\partial_i \phi)} = 0$$

or equivalently:

$$\frac{\delta S[\phi]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = 0$$

"The action principle"

the derivative  $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \phi$ , one would need that  $L$  possesses a  $t$ -integration:

Lemma: For any functional  $Z$  of the form:

$$Z[\int f] = \int \text{polynomial} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f \right) dx$$

we have:  $\frac{\delta Z}{\delta f(x)} = -\frac{d}{dx} \frac{\delta Z}{\delta \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f \right)}$

Then, the "Euler Lagrange field equations" are

$$\frac{\delta S[\phi, \partial_t \phi]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} - \sum_{n=0}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^n} \frac{\delta S[\phi, \partial_t \phi]}{\delta (\partial_n \phi)} = 0$$

or equivalently:

$$\frac{\delta S[\phi]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = 0$$

"The action principle"

□ Notice that the action principle, spelled out, reads:

$$0 = \frac{\delta S[\phi]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left( S[\{\phi(x') + \varepsilon \delta^\alpha(x-x')\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^4}] - S[\{\phi(x)\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^4}] \right)$$

Example:

The Klein Gordon action:

$$S[\phi] := \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} (\partial_\mu \phi)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^3 (\partial_i \phi)^2 - m^2 \phi^2 d^4 x$$

□ Using either the action principle or directly the Euler Lagrange field equations, one obtains the Klein Gordon equation (Exercise: verify):

$$\partial_\mu^2 \phi - \Delta \phi + m^2 \phi = 0, \text{ i.e., } (\square + m^2) \phi(x,t) = 0$$

□ Definitions:

\* The action's integrand is called the "Lagrange density"  $\mathcal{L}(x,t)$ :

$$S[\phi] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \mathcal{L}(x,t) d^4 x$$

\* One often formally writes:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi} - \sum_{n=0}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^n} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \partial_n \phi} = 0 \quad (2)$$



$$-S[\{\phi(x)\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^4}]$$

### Example:

The Klein Gordon action:

$$S[\phi] := \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} (\partial_\mu \phi)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^3 (\partial_i \phi)^2 - m^2 \phi^2 d^4x$$

\* Notation often used in General Relativity:

a.)  $\phi_{,\mu}(x,t) := \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \phi(x,t)$

b.) Twice occurring indices are to be summed over (Einstein summation convention):

E.g., equation (2) can be written as:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \partial_\mu \phi} = 0$$

c.) One defines the metric tensor  $g_{\mu\nu}(x,t)$ .

More about it soon. In special relativity in inertial rectangular coordinate system, we have:

$$\partial_\mu \phi - \Delta \phi + m^2 \phi = 0, \text{ i.e., } (\square + m^2) \phi(x,t) = 0$$

### Definitions:

\* The action's integrand is called the "Lagrange density"  $\mathcal{L}(x,t)$ :

$$S[\phi] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \mathcal{L}(x,t) d^4x$$

\* One often formally writes:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \phi} - \sum_{\mu=0}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \partial_\mu \phi} = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x,t) = g_{\mu\nu} := \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Using these definitions, the K.G. action now reads:

$$S[\phi] = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} g^{\mu\nu} \phi_{,\mu} \phi_{,\nu} - m^2 \phi^2 d^4x$$

↑ the inverse matrix to  $g_{\mu\nu}$ . In special relativity, both are the same:  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

□ The E.L. eqns read

$$\frac{\delta S[\phi, \delta \phi]}{\delta \phi(x,t)} = \partial_\mu \frac{\delta S[\phi, \delta \phi]}{\delta (\phi_{,\mu}(x,t))}$$

and yield

$$-m^2 \phi = \partial_\mu g^{\mu\nu} \phi_{,\nu}$$

i.e., of course:  $(\square + m^2) \phi = 0$

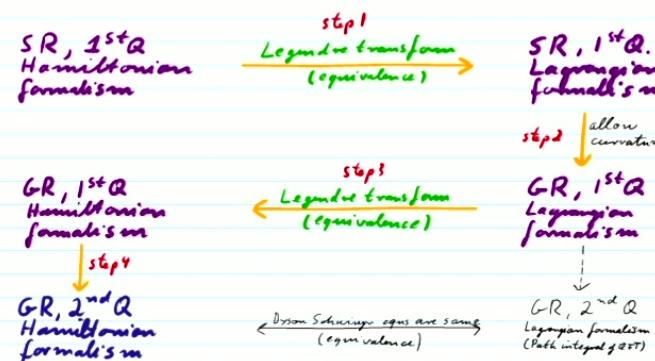
E.g., equation (2) can be written as:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}_\mu} = 0$$

c.) One defines the metric tensor  $g_{\mu\nu}(x, t)$ .

More about it soon. In special relativity in inertial rectangular coordinate system, we have:

We have now completed Step 1:



$\Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\lambda}$  [the inverse metric to  $g_{\mu\nu}$ . In special relativity, both are the same:  $(\delta^{\mu}_{\nu})_{\mu,\nu}$ ]

The E.L. eqns read

$$\frac{\delta S[\phi, \dot{\phi}, x]}{\delta \dot{\phi}^\mu(x,t)} = \partial_\mu \frac{\delta S[\phi, \dot{\phi}, x]}{\delta \phi_\mu(x,t)}$$

and yield

$$-m^2 \ddot{\phi} = \partial_\mu g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu \phi,$$

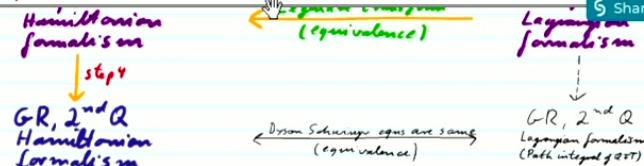
i.e., of course:  $(\square + m^2) \phi = 0$

Now that we have a beautifully covariant Lagrangian formulation:

Step 2: How to allow for curvature of space-time?

Strategy:

- A. Within special relativity, allow not just inertial rectangular coordinate systems but allow arbitrary coordinate systems.
- B. Allow arbitrary coordinate systems and allow curvature.

changes:

- A. Within special relativity, allow not just inertial rectangular coordinate systems but allow arbitrary coordinate systems.
- B. Allow arbitrary coordinate systems and allow curvature.

## A. Arbitrary coordinate systems

□ Reconsider the K.G. action:

$$S[\phi] = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathcal{M}} g^{\mu\nu} \phi_{,\mu} \phi_{,\nu} - m^2 \phi^2 d^4x$$

□ If we change to arbitrary coordinates

$$x^\mu \rightarrow \tilde{x}^\mu = \tilde{x}^\mu(x)$$

then:  $\phi(x) \rightarrow \tilde{\phi}(\tilde{x}) = \phi(x(\tilde{x}))$  (recall that  $\sum_i$  is implied)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \phi(x) \rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu} \tilde{\phi}(\tilde{x}) = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} \phi(x(\tilde{x})) \right) \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}$$

□ Therefore, if we transform

$$g^{\mu\nu}(x) \rightarrow \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu}{\partial x^\nu} g^{\mu\nu}(x(\tilde{x}))$$

then we have that this term in the action

$$g^{\mu\nu}(x) \phi_{,\mu}(x) \phi_{,\nu}(x)$$

is numerically the same in all coordinate systems:

$$\begin{aligned} g^{\mu\nu}(x) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \phi(x) \right) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} \phi(x) \right) &\rightarrow \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu}(\tilde{x}) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu} \tilde{\phi}(\tilde{x}) \right) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu} \tilde{\phi}(\tilde{x}) \right) \\ &= \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu}(\tilde{x}) \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu}{\partial x^\nu} \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \phi(x) \right) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} \phi(x) \right) \\ &= g^{\mu\nu}(x) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \phi(x) \right) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} \phi(x) \right) \text{ because } \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu} = \delta_\nu^\mu \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

$$S[\phi] = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} g^{\mu\nu} \phi_{,\mu} \phi_{,\nu} - m^2 \phi^2 d^n x$$

□ If we change to arbitrary coordinates

$$x^\mu \rightarrow \tilde{x}^\mu = \tilde{x}^\mu(x)$$

then:  $\phi(x) \rightarrow \tilde{\phi}(\tilde{x}) = \phi(x(\tilde{x}))$  (recall that  
 $\tilde{x}$  is implied)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \phi(x) \rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu} \tilde{\phi}(\tilde{x}) = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} \phi(x(\tilde{x})) \right) \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}$$

□ Terminology:

- \* We say that we let  $g^{\mu\nu}(x)$  transform as a contravariant tensor of rank 2.  
↑ because upper indices      ↑ because lower indices
- \* With  $g^{\mu\nu}(x) g_{\nu\lambda}(x) = \delta_\lambda^\mu$ , we have

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x) \rightarrow \tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu} g_{\mu\nu}(x(\tilde{x}))$$

which is called a covariant rank 2 tensor.

□ Is  $S[\phi]$  now coordinate system independent?

No, not yet!

$$g^{\mu\nu}(x) \phi_{,\mu}(x) \phi_{,\nu}(x)$$

is numerically the same in all coordinate systems:

$$\begin{aligned} g^{\mu\nu}(x) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \phi(x) \right) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} \phi(x) \right) &\rightarrow \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu}(\tilde{x}) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu} \tilde{\phi}(\tilde{x}) \right) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu} \tilde{\phi}(\tilde{x}) \right) \\ &= \tilde{g}^{\mu\nu}(\tilde{x}) \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu}{\partial x^\nu} \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \phi(x) \right) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} \phi(x) \right) \\ &= g^{\mu\nu}(x) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \phi(x) \right) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} \phi(x) \right) \text{ because } \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu} = \delta_\mu^\nu \end{aligned}$$

□ Recall:

As  $x^\mu \rightarrow \tilde{x}^\mu(x)$  the integral measure changes by a Jacobian factor:

$$\int f(x) d^n x \rightarrow \int \underbrace{\tilde{f}(\tilde{x})}_{f(\tilde{x})} \underbrace{\det \left( \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \right)}_{\text{a coordinate-dependent term!}} d^n \tilde{x}$$

□ A compensating term is needed:

How can we modify the action  $S[\phi]$  so that:

- \* there is no modification in cartesian coordinates
- \* the modification compensates the jacobian term.

\* With  $g^{\mu\nu}(x) g_{\nu\sigma}(x) = \delta^\mu_\sigma$  we have

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x) \rightarrow \tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu} \frac{\partial x^\rho}{\partial \tilde{x}^\sigma} g_{\rho\sigma}(x(\tilde{x}))$$

which is called a covariant rank 2 tensor.

Is  $S[\phi]$  now coordinate system independent?

No, not yet!

Solution:

Modify the action to include a "Volume factor":

$$S[\phi] := \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \left( g^{\mu\nu} \phi_{,\mu} \phi_{,\nu} - m^2 \phi^2 \right) \sqrt{-\det(g_{\mu\nu})} d^4x$$

The volume factor:

\* When  $g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  then  $\sqrt{-\det(g)} = 1 \checkmark$

\* Lemma: When  $x^\mu \rightarrow \tilde{x}^\mu(x)$  then:

$$\sqrt{|g|} \rightarrow \sqrt{|\tilde{g}|} = \det \left( \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \right) \sqrt{|g|}$$

✓ short for  $\sqrt{-\det(g_{\mu\nu})}$

$$J[x] \rightarrow J[\phi] \underbrace{\det(\frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}{\partial x^\nu})}_{f(\tilde{x})} \underbrace{d^4x}_{\text{a coordinate-dependent term!}}$$

A compensating term is needed:

How can we modify the action  $S[\phi]$  so that:

- \* there is no modification in cartesian coordinates
- \* the modification compensates the jacobian term.

Therefore, we have now in special relativity that the action  $S[\phi]$  of a field  $\phi$  comes out the same number, independently of one's choice of coordinate system:

$$\begin{aligned} S[\phi] &\rightarrow \tilde{S}[\tilde{\phi}] = \int \tilde{L} \sqrt{|\tilde{g}|} d^4\tilde{x} \\ &= \int L \det \left( \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \right) \det \left( \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x^\rho} \right) \sqrt{g} d^4x \\ &= \int L \det \left( \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \right) \sqrt{g} d^4x \\ &= \int L \det \left( \delta^\mu_\nu \right) \sqrt{g} d^4x = \int L \sqrt{g} d^4x \\ &= S[\phi] \end{aligned}$$

## The volume factor.

\* When  $g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  then  $\sqrt{-\det(g)} = 1 \checkmark$

\* Lemma: When  $x^r \rightarrow \tilde{x}^r(x)$  then:

$$\sqrt{|g|} \rightarrow \sqrt{|\tilde{g}|} = \det\left(\frac{\partial \tilde{x}^r}{\partial x^\mu}\right) \sqrt{|g|}$$

↙ short for  $\sqrt{-\det(g_{\mu\nu})}$

$$\begin{aligned} S[\phi] \rightarrow \tilde{S}[\tilde{\phi}] &= \int \tilde{L} \sqrt{\tilde{g}} d^4\tilde{x} \\ &= \int L \det\left(\frac{\partial \tilde{x}^r}{\partial x^\mu}\right) \det\left(\frac{\partial \tilde{x}^s}{\partial x^\nu}\right) \sqrt{g} d^4x \\ &= \int L \det(\delta^r_\nu) \sqrt{g} d^4x = \int L \sqrt{g} d^4x \\ &= S[\phi] \end{aligned}$$

## B. How to allow curvature?

\* The trivial metric  $g_{\mu\nu}(x) = g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

can look very nontrivial in generic

coordinate systems:  $g_{\mu\nu}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$

\* But: Some metrics  $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$  are not obtainable from the trivial metric by a coordinate change!

→ These metrics belong to spaces with curvature. We need not change the action's formula: Just allow arbitrary metrics  $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$ .

we saw that in generic (i.e. arbitrarily chosen) coordinates  $\tilde{x}^r = \tilde{x}^r(x)$ , the metric tensor  $\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}(\tilde{x})$  is given by:

$$\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{\partial x^\mu(\tilde{x})}{\partial \tilde{x}^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\nu(\tilde{x})}{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu} g_{\mu\nu} \quad (c)$$

⇒ In special relativity, in arbitrary coordinates, the metric  $g_{\mu\nu}$  is a position-dependent matrix of the form (c).

\* We notice that  $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$  is always symmetric  $g_{\mu\nu}(x) = g_{\nu\mu}(x)$

coordinate systems:  $g_{\mu\nu}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix}$

\* But: Some metrics  $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$  are not obtainable from the trivial metric by a coordinate change!

→ These metrics belong to spaces with curvature. We need not change the action's formula: Just allow arbitrary metrics  $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$ .

### Key Question:

Can any arbitrary function obeying  $g_{\mu\nu}(x) = g_{\nu\mu}(x)$  arise from

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

by changing coordinates according to  $g_{\mu\nu}(x) = \frac{\partial x^{\mu}(x)}{\partial x^{\mu}} \frac{\partial x^{\nu}(x)}{\partial x^{\nu}} \eta_{\mu\nu}$ ?

Answer: No! The others describe "curved" spacetimes.

A given spacetime can be described by any one of an equivalence class  $[g]$  of metric functions  $\{g_{\mu\nu}(x)\}$ , which differ by a mere change of coordinates (i.e. which are related by a diffeomorphism).

Definition: Each equivalence class  $[g]$  is called a Riemannian or Lorentzian Structure, depending on the signature of the metric.

$$\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}(x) = \frac{\partial x^{\mu}(x)}{\partial x^{\mu}} \frac{\partial x^{\nu}(x)}{\partial x^{\nu}} \eta_{\mu\nu} \quad (c)$$

⇒ In special relativity, in arbitrary coordinates, the metric  $g_{\mu\nu}$  is a position-dependent matrix of the form (c).

\* We notice that  $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$  is always symmetric  $g_{\mu\nu}(x) = g_{\nu\mu}(x)$

### How many Lorentzian or Riemannian structures are there?

Q: How many independent degrees of freedom  $D$  (i.e. independent functions) describe a spacetime fully?

A: In  $n$  dimensions, the metric  $g$  has  $n^2$  component functions  $g_{\mu\nu}(x)$ .

Because of  $g_{\mu\nu}(x) = g_{\nu\mu}(x)$ , only  $n(n+1)/2$  are independent.

But we can choose  $n$  functions  $x^{\mu}(x)$  in  $\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}(x) = \frac{\partial x^{\mu}(x)}{\partial x^{\mu}} \frac{\partial x^{\nu}(x)}{\partial x^{\nu}} \eta_{\mu\nu}$ .

A:  $D = \underbrace{n(n+1)/2 - n}_{\rightarrow \text{# of change of coordinate functions } Y^{\mu} = Y^{\mu}(x)} - \underbrace{n}_{\rightarrow \text{# of indep elements of a symmetric } n \times n \text{ matrix } g_{\mu\nu}}$

Examples: For  $n=1+3$ , have  $D=6$ . For  $n=2$ , have  $D=1$ .