

# Classical Free Fields in a 1+1D Background Spacetime Flow

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(Dated: December 15, 2022)

# Abstract

The equation of motion for some classical free fields in a 1+1D spacetime-dependent background flow are presented. Special attentions are paid to their non-relativistic limit.

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## I. THE BACKGROUND

We consider a metric of the form

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + [dx - v(x, t)dt]^2 = -(1 - v^2)dt^2 + dx^2 - 2vdt dx \quad (1)$$

which is actually a vacuum solution of the Einstein equation, though in 1+1D the Schwartzchild metric corresponds to  $v(r) = -\sqrt{\frac{r_s}{r}}$  and the dS spacetime has  $v(r) = Hr$ . Under coordinate transformation  $d\tau = dt + \frac{v}{1-v^2}dx$ , the line element turns into

$$ds^2 = -(1 - v^2)d\tau^2 + \frac{1}{1 - v^2}dx^2 \quad (2)$$

which can however be mapped conformally to an arbitrary diagonal 1+1D metric

$$ds^2 = -F(x, \tau)d\tau^2 + G(x, \tau)dx^2 \mapsto -\sqrt{\frac{F}{G}}d\tau^2 + \sqrt{\frac{G}{F}}dx^2 \quad (3)$$

provided that both  $F$  and  $G$  are positive-definite, with the correspondence

$$v = \sqrt{1 - \sqrt{\frac{F}{G}}} \quad (4)$$

if  $F/G < 1$ . As an example, the radial FLRW spacetime is

$$ds^2 = -d\tau^2 + \frac{a^2(\tau)}{1 - kx^2} dx^2 \quad (5)$$

then  $v(\tau, x) = \sqrt{1 - \sqrt{\frac{1-kx^2}{a^2}}}$ . It's possible to find the explicit form of  $\tau(x, t)$ . Hence, the background (1) is of general interest.

Note that a horizon is realized at  $v(x) = 1$ , the case for  $v(t, x)$  is perhaps different, but the behaviour of solution near horizon is not our focus here.

We compute the geometrical quantities for this spacetime, the Ricci tensor is

$$R_{ab} = g_{ab} (v_{,x}^2 + vv_{,,x} + v_{,t,x}) \quad (6)$$

The Ricci scalar is

$$R = 2 (v_{,x}^2 + vv_{,,x} + v_{,t,x}) \quad (7)$$

So  $G_{ab} = R_{ab} - \frac{1}{2}g_{ab}R = 0$ . Note that by taking the trace of vacuum Einstein equation,  $R - g^{ab}g_{ab}R/2 = 0$ , we get  $R = 0$  only if the spacetime dimension  $n \neq 2$ , since otherwise  $g^{ab}g_{ab} = 2$ , which is the present case. This is as expected since  $g_{ab} = \text{diag}(-f(t, x), 1/f(t, x))$  is a vacuum solution of the Einstein equation.

## II. SCALAR WAVE EQUATION

### A. Relativistic Scalar

We consider at first a real scalar field, the action is given by

$$S = \int d^4x \sqrt{-g} \left[ -\frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \phi \partial_\nu \phi - V(\phi) \right] \quad (8)$$

For metric (1),  $g_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} v^2-1 & -v \\ -v & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $g = -1$ ,  $g^{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -v \\ -v & 1-v^2 \end{pmatrix}$ , the effective lagrangian is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ (v^2 - 1)(\phi_{,x})^2 + 2v\dot{\phi}\phi_{,x} + \dot{\phi}^2 \right] - V \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ ((\partial_t + v\partial_x)\phi)^2 - (\partial_x\phi)^2 \right] - V \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

The Klein-Gordon equation reads

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}v\right)\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + v\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)\phi - \frac{\partial^2\phi}{\partial x^2} = -V_{,\phi} \quad (10)$$

The Hamiltonian is

$$\mathcal{H} = \frac{1}{2} [(\partial_t\phi)^2 + (1-v^2)(\partial_x\phi)^2] + V \quad (11)$$

For a complex scalar field, the lagrangian is

$$\mathcal{L} = [ |(\partial_t + v\partial_x)\phi|^2 - |\partial_x\phi|^2 ] - V \quad (12)$$

the conjugate momentum  $\pi = \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\phi^*} = (\partial_t + v\partial_x)\phi$ , we can define a conserved U(1) KG norm

$$(\phi_1, \phi_2) \equiv i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx [\phi_1^* (\partial_t + v\partial_x)\phi_2 - \phi_2 (\partial_t + v\partial_x)\phi_1^*] \quad (13)$$

## B. Nonrelativistic Scalar

For a real field, making the usual ansatz  $\phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2m}}(e^{-imt}\psi + \text{c.c.})$ , in the limit  $\dot{\psi} \ll m\psi$ , and assuming the potential is  $V = \frac{1}{2}m^2\phi^2 + m\phi^2U$ , the lagrangian becomes

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ i\dot{\psi}\psi^* - \frac{1-v^2}{m}|\psi_{,x}|^2 - iv\psi_{,x}^*\psi + \frac{v}{m}\psi_{,x}^*\dot{\psi} + \text{c.c.} \right] - |\psi^2|U \quad (14)$$

The Schrodinger equation reads

$$i(\partial_t + v\partial_x)\psi = \frac{1}{2}\partial_x \left( -\frac{1-v^2}{m}\partial_x\psi - iv\psi + \frac{v}{m}\dot{\psi} \right) + \frac{1}{2}\partial_t \left( \frac{v}{m}\partial_x\psi \right) + U\psi \quad (15)$$

or

$$i[(1 - \frac{v_{,x}}{2m})\partial_t + (\frac{3}{2}v - \frac{v_{,t}}{2m})\partial_x]\psi = -\frac{1-v^2}{2m}\partial_x^2\psi + \frac{v}{m}\partial_t\partial_x\psi + (U - \frac{iv_{,x}}{2})\psi \quad (16)$$

or with  $\dot{\psi} \ll m\psi$ ,

$$i[\partial_t + (\frac{3}{2}v - \frac{v_{,t}}{2m})\partial_x]\psi \approx -\frac{1-v^2}{2m}\partial_x^2\psi + (U - \frac{iv_{,x}}{2})\psi \quad (17)$$

The exact U(1) current  $j^a = \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_a\psi)}i\psi - \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial(\partial_a\psi^*)}i\psi^*$  is

$$\rho = -j^0 = |\psi|^2, \quad j = -j^x = v|\psi|^2 \quad (18)$$

which satisfies  $-\partial_a j^a = \dot{\rho} + \partial_x j = 0$ .

### C. Slow Flow

We consider a low-speed approximation,  $v \ll 1$ , then

$$i[\partial_t + (\frac{3}{2}v - \frac{v_{,t}}{2m})\partial_x]\psi = -\frac{1}{2m}\partial_x^2\psi + (U - \frac{iv_{,x}}{2})\psi \quad (19)$$

which is of the form

$$i(\partial_t - u(t, x)\partial_x)\psi = -\frac{1}{2}\partial_x^2\psi + \mathcal{U}\psi \quad (20)$$

with  $u \equiv \frac{3}{2}v - \frac{v_{,t}}{2m}$  and  $\mathcal{U} \equiv U - \frac{iv_{,x}}{2}$ , where for convenience, we have set  $m = 1$ . However, we note this approximated equation of motion cannot be derived from a lagrangian if the potential  $\mathcal{U}$  is complex while the action is required to be real.

If  $u = u(x)$ , introducing  $\psi = y \exp(-i \int^x u(x')dx')$ , the wave equation turns into

$$i\partial_t y = -\frac{1}{2}\partial_x^2 y + \left(-\frac{u^2}{2} + \mathcal{U} + \frac{iu_{,x}}{2}\right)y \quad (21)$$

hence the dissipation comes from both the x-dependence of  $v$  and  $u$ .

If  $v = v(t)$ , in this case  $u = u(t)$ ,  $\mathcal{U} = U$ , there is no dissipation. The drift term in the wave equation can be removed by a local Galilean transformation (i.e., in the comoving frame)  $dx' = dx + udt$ ,  $t' = t$ , with  $\partial_{t'} = -u\partial_x + \partial_t$ , the potential however generally becomes time-dependent unless it's constant.

The velocity-drift can have interesting consequences in the background frame, for which we consider a simple example here, an oscillating flow  $u = \alpha + \beta \cos \mu t$ , where  $\alpha, \beta, \mu$  are constants (note it's required that  $\alpha, \beta \ll 1$ ), with a harmonic oscillator potential  $U = \frac{1}{2}\omega^2 x^2$ . We can choose  $x' = x + \alpha t + \frac{\beta}{\mu} \sin \mu t$ , then in the co-moving frame,  $i\partial_{t'}\psi = -\frac{1}{2}\partial_{x'}^2\psi + U\psi$ , with

$$U(x', t') = \frac{1}{2}\omega^2(x' - \alpha t' - \frac{\beta}{\mu} \sin \mu t')^2 \quad (22)$$

Now at  $t' = 0$ , this is a harmonic potential, the potential minimum is at  $x' = \alpha t' + \frac{\beta}{\mu} \sin \mu t'$ . If the time-variation of the potential is slow enough, the state at  $t' = 0$  may evolve adiabatically. For  $\alpha = 0$  the perturbation is periodic but a Berry phase of course does not exist since there is only one parameter.

For simplicity I choose  $\alpha = 0$ , and an initial eigenstate

$$\psi_n(x) = \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!2^n}} H_n(x) e^{-i\omega(1/2+n)t} \quad (23)$$

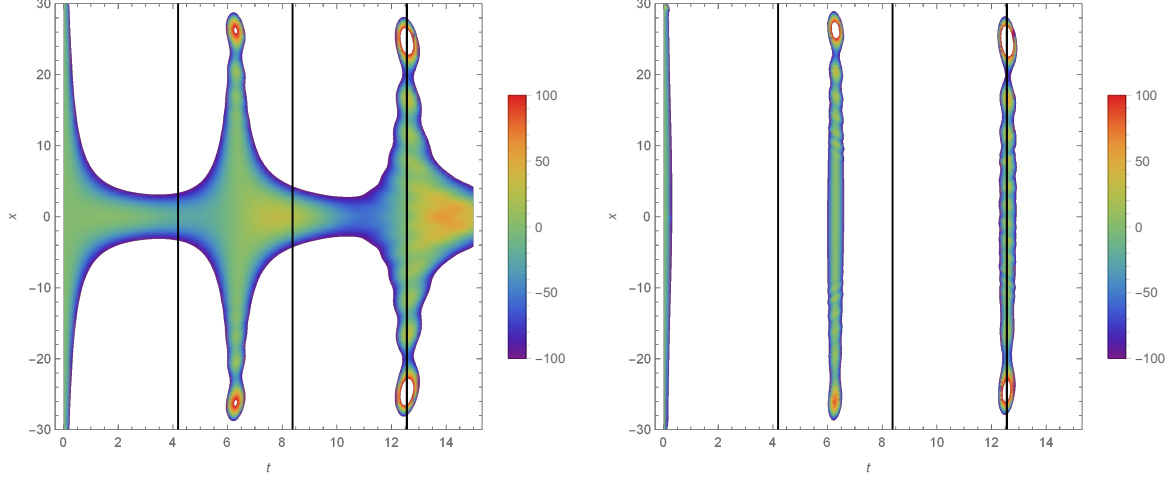


FIG. 1.  $\omega = 3$ ,  $\mu = 100$ . Left:  $\beta = 0$ , right:  $\beta = 30$ . This plot only shows value of  $\text{Re}(\psi)$  in the range  $(-100, 100)$ . Interval between the black lines is  $T = 2\pi/(\omega/2)$ , which should be the oscillation period for  $\beta = 0$ , the numerical error, however, is clearly too large (I used periodic boundary condition with a finite box length). After  $\beta$  is switched on, the wavefront is more flat, but with original oscillation frequency (whatever it is).

where  $H_n(x)$  is the Hermite polynomial, is evolved. For simplicity I choose  $n = 0$ , the ground state:

$$\psi_0(x) = \left(\frac{\omega}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} e^{-i\omega t/2} \quad (24)$$

The figures above are computed in `mma`. More precise simulation is needed.

### III. DIRAC EQUATION

For a diagonal metric, the concrete form of Dirac equation is easily obtained, see, e.g., [ref]. The key is to find a proper set of dyad  $e_\mu^{(a)}$  satisfying

$$g_{\mu\nu} = e_\mu^{(a)} e_\nu^{(b)} \eta_{ab}, \quad \gamma^\mu = e_{(a)}^\mu \gamma^a, \quad \{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = 2g^{\mu\nu}, \quad \{\gamma^a, \gamma^b\} = 2\eta^{ab} \quad (25)$$

The first one is the defining condition. For 1+1D Minkowski spacetime, we can choose the  $\gamma^a$  to be  $\gamma^0 = -i\sigma_z = -i \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\gamma^1 = \sigma_y = -i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . Let  $e_\mu^{(0)} = (a, b)$ ,  $e_\mu^{(1)} = (c, d)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} g_{00} &= -e_0^{(0)} e_0^{(0)} + e_0^{(1)} e_0^{(1)} = b^2 - a^2 = v^2 - 1 \\ g_{11} &= -e_1^{(0)} e_1^{(0)} + e_1^{(1)} e_1^{(1)} = d^2 - c^2 = 1 \\ g_{01} &= -e_0^{(0)} e_1^{(0)} + e_0^{(1)} e_1^{(1)} = cd - ab = -v \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

We choose  $d = 1$ , so  $c = 0, a^2 = 1, b^2 = v^2$ , we choose  $a = 1, b = v$ . Now  $e_\mu^{(0)} = (1, v), e_\mu^{(1)} = (0, 1)$ . Note  $e_{(a)}^\mu \neq g^{\mu\nu} e_\nu^{(a)}$ , but its inverse:  $e_\mu^{(a)} e_\nu^{(a)} = \delta_\mu^\nu$ . Hence  $e_{(0)}^\mu = (1, v), e_{(1)}^\mu = (0, 1)$ .

The Dirac equation is

$$\left( -\gamma^a e_{(a)}^\mu \partial_\mu - \frac{1}{2} \gamma^a \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}} \partial_\mu \left( \sqrt{-g} e_{(a)}^\mu \right) - m \right) \psi = 0 \quad (27)$$

Now we have

$$\gamma^a \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}} \partial_\mu \left( \sqrt{-g} e_{(a)}^\mu \right) = \gamma^0 \partial_\mu \left( e_{(0)}^\mu \right) + \gamma^1 \partial_\mu \left( e_{(1)}^\mu \right) = \gamma^0 v_{,x} \quad (28)$$

$$\gamma^a e_{(a)}^\mu \partial_\mu = \gamma^0 e_{(0)}^\mu \partial_\mu + \gamma^1 e_{(1)}^\mu \partial_\mu = \gamma^0 (\partial_t + v \partial_x) + \gamma^1 \partial_x \quad (29)$$

the Dirac equation then reads

$$\left( \gamma^0 (\partial_t + v \partial_x) + \gamma^1 \partial_x + \frac{1}{2} \gamma^0 v_{,x} + m \right) \psi = 0 \quad (30)$$

or

$$\begin{pmatrix} im + \frac{1}{2} v_{,x} + \partial_t + v \partial_x & \partial_x \\ -\partial_x & im - (\frac{1}{2} v_{,x} + \partial_t + v \partial_x) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad (31)$$

or

$$i \partial_t \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \end{pmatrix} = -i \partial_x \begin{pmatrix} \psi_2 \\ \psi_1 \end{pmatrix} - i \left( \frac{1}{2} v_{,x} + v \partial_x \right) \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \end{pmatrix} + m \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ -\psi_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (32)$$

The Dirac representation of gamma matrices we have adopted is the standard choice to perform the NR limit. Making the ansatz  $\psi = \Psi e^{-imt}$ , the Dirac equation is now

$$i \partial_t \begin{pmatrix} \Psi_1 \\ \Psi_2 \end{pmatrix} = -i \partial_x \begin{pmatrix} \Psi_2 \\ \Psi_1 \end{pmatrix} - i \left( \frac{1}{2} v_{,x} + v \partial_x \right) \begin{pmatrix} \Psi_1 \\ \Psi_2 \end{pmatrix} - 2m \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \Psi_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (33)$$

For  $v = 0$ , the usual Pauli equation originates from the approximation  $-i \partial_x \Psi_1 - 2m \Psi_2 = 0$ , with  $\Psi_2$  being the “small” component. Now if we assume the  $\partial_t \Psi_2 \ll m \Psi_2$ , then

$$\left[ 2m + i \left( \frac{1}{2} v_{,x} + v \partial_x \right) \right] \Psi_2 = -i \partial_x \Psi_1 \quad (34)$$

But it's not straightforward to obtain a single decoupled equation for the “large” component  $\Psi_1$ , unless  $v = \text{const}$ , for which case (but there is no need since we could adopt a new time coordinate in which  $v = 0$ )

$$i(\partial_t + v \partial_x) \Psi_1 = -\frac{\partial_x^2 \Psi_1}{2m + iv \partial_x} \quad (35)$$

#### IV. PROCA EQUATION

The Proca Lagrangian is

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{4}(F_{ab})^2 - \frac{1}{2}m^2 A_a^2 = -\frac{1}{4}(\partial_a A_b - \partial_b A_a) [g^{ac} \partial_c (g^{bd} A_d) - g^{bd} \partial_d (g^{ac} A_c)] - \frac{1}{2}m^2 A_a^2 \quad (36)$$

The Proca equation reads

$$\nabla^d \nabla_d A^a - m^2 A^a - g^{ca} R_{dc} A^d = 0 \quad (37)$$

Explicitly, we find

$$\begin{pmatrix} \partial_x^2 + m^2 - \frac{1}{2}R & m^2 v - \partial_t \partial_x \\ m^2 v - \partial_t \partial_x & \partial_t^2 - m^2(v^2 - 1) + \frac{1}{2}R \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A^0 \\ A^1 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad (38)$$

But the Lorenz condition follows:

$$\nabla^a A_a = A_{,1}^1 + A_{,0}^0 = 0 \quad (39)$$

Then

$$\begin{pmatrix} \partial_x^2 + \partial_t^2 + m^2 - \frac{1}{2}R & m^2 v \\ m^2 v & \partial_t^2 + \partial_x^2 - m^2(v^2 - 1) + \frac{1}{2}R \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A^0 \\ A^1 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad (40)$$

But then  $A^0$  and  $A^1$  are not decoupled (in contrast to the case when  $v = 0$ ), so massive EM waves do exist!

#### V. OUTLOOKS

Explicit solutions may be found for some interesting choices of  $v(x, t)$ . The metric perturbation of this background can also be studied.