

Chapter 7

Noether's Theorem

7.1 Continuous Symmetry Implies Conserved Charges

Consider a particle moving in two dimensions under the influence of an external potential $U(r)$. The potential is a function only of the magnitude of the vector \mathbf{r} . The Lagrangian is then

$$L = T - U = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{r}^2 + r^2\dot{\phi}^2) - U(r) , \quad (7.1)$$

where we have chosen generalized coordinates (r, ϕ) . The momentum conjugate to ϕ is $p_\phi = m r^2 \dot{\phi}$. The generalized force F_ϕ clearly vanishes, since L does not depend on the coordinate ϕ . (One says that L is 'cyclic' in ϕ .) Thus, although $r = r(t)$ and $\phi = \phi(t)$ will in general be time-dependent, the combination $p_\phi = m r^2 \dot{\phi}$ is constant. This is the conserved angular momentum about the \hat{z} axis.

If instead the particle moved in a potential $U(y)$, independent of x , then writing

$$L = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2) - U(y) , \quad (7.2)$$

we have that the momentum $p_x = \partial L / \partial \dot{x} = m\dot{x}$ is conserved, because the generalized force $F_x = \partial L / \partial x = 0$ vanishes. This situation pertains in a uniform gravitational field, with $U(x, y) = mgy$, independent of x . The horizontal component of momentum is conserved.

In general, whenever the system exhibits a *continuous symmetry*, there is an associated *conserved charge*. (The terminology 'charge' is from field theory.) Indeed, this is a rigorous result, known as *Noether's Theorem*. Consider a one-parameter family of transformations,

$$q_\sigma \longrightarrow \tilde{q}_\sigma(q, \zeta) , \quad (7.3)$$

where ζ is the continuous parameter. Suppose further (without loss of generality) that at $\zeta = 0$ this transformation is the identity, *i.e.* $\tilde{q}_\sigma(q, 0) = q_\sigma$. The transformation may be nonlinear in the generalized coordinates. Suppose further that the Lagrangian L is invariant

under the replacement $q \rightarrow \tilde{q}$. Then we must have

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= \frac{d}{d\zeta} \Big|_{\zeta=0} L(\tilde{q}, \dot{\tilde{q}}, t) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_\sigma} \frac{\partial \tilde{q}_\sigma}{\partial \zeta} \Big|_{\zeta=0} + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \frac{\partial \dot{\tilde{q}}_\sigma}{\partial \zeta} \Big|_{\zeta=0} \\
&= \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \right) \frac{\partial \tilde{q}_\sigma}{\partial \zeta} \Big|_{\zeta=0} + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial \tilde{q}_\sigma}{\partial \zeta} \right) \Big|_{\zeta=0} \\
&= \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \frac{\partial \tilde{q}_\sigma}{\partial \zeta} \right) \Big|_{\zeta=0} .
\end{aligned} \tag{7.4}$$

Thus, there is an associated conserved charge

$$\Lambda = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \frac{\partial \tilde{q}_\sigma}{\partial \zeta} \Big|_{\zeta=0} . \tag{7.5}$$

7.1.1 Examples of one-parameter families of transformations

Consider the Lagrangian

$$L = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2) - U(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}) . \tag{7.6}$$

In two-dimensional polar coordinates, we have

$$L = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{r}^2 + r^2\dot{\phi}^2) - U(r) , \tag{7.7}$$

and we may now define

$$\tilde{r}(\zeta) = r \tag{7.8}$$

$$\tilde{\phi}(\zeta) = \phi + \zeta . \tag{7.9}$$

Note that $\tilde{r}(0) = r$ and $\tilde{\phi}(0) = \phi$, *i.e.* the transformation is the identity when $\zeta = 0$. We now have

$$\Lambda = \sum_{\sigma} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \frac{\partial \tilde{q}_\sigma}{\partial \zeta} \Big|_{\zeta=0} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{r}} \frac{\partial \tilde{r}}{\partial \zeta} \Big|_{\zeta=0} + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \frac{\partial \tilde{\phi}}{\partial \zeta} \Big|_{\zeta=0} = mr^2\dot{\phi} . \tag{7.10}$$

Another way to derive the same result which is somewhat instructive is to work out the transformation in Cartesian coordinates. We then have

$$\tilde{x}(\zeta) = x \cos \zeta - y \sin \zeta \tag{7.11}$$

$$\tilde{y}(\zeta) = x \sin \zeta + y \cos \zeta . \tag{7.12}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{x}}{\partial \zeta} = -\tilde{y} \quad , \quad \frac{\partial \tilde{y}}{\partial \zeta} = \tilde{x} \tag{7.13}$$

and

$$\Lambda = \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \frac{\partial \tilde{x}}{\partial \zeta} \right|_{\zeta=0} + \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{y}} \frac{\partial \tilde{y}}{\partial \zeta} \right|_{\zeta=0} = m(xy - yx) . \quad (7.14)$$

But

$$m(xy - yx) = m\hat{\mathbf{z}} \cdot \mathbf{r} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}} = mr^2\dot{\phi} . \quad (7.15)$$

As another example, consider the potential

$$U(\rho, \phi, z) = V(\rho, a\phi + z) , \quad (7.16)$$

where (ρ, ϕ, z) are cylindrical coordinates for a particle of mass m , and where a is a constant with dimensions of length. The Lagrangian is

$$\frac{1}{2}m(\dot{\rho}^2 + \rho^2\dot{\phi}^2 + \dot{z}^2) - V(\rho, a\phi + z) . \quad (7.17)$$

This model possesses a helical symmetry, with a one-parameter family

$$\tilde{\rho}(\zeta) = \rho \quad (7.18)$$

$$\tilde{\phi}(\zeta) = \phi + \zeta \quad (7.19)$$

$$\tilde{z}(\zeta) = z - \zeta a . \quad (7.20)$$

Note that

$$a\tilde{\phi} + \tilde{z} = a\phi + z , \quad (7.21)$$

so the potential energy, and the Lagrangian as well, is invariant under this one-parameter family of transformations. The conserved charge for this symmetry is

$$\Lambda = \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\rho}} \frac{\partial \tilde{\rho}}{\partial \zeta} \right|_{\zeta=0} + \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \frac{\partial \tilde{\phi}}{\partial \zeta} \right|_{\zeta=0} + \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{z}} \frac{\partial \tilde{z}}{\partial \zeta} \right|_{\zeta=0} = m\rho^2\dot{\phi} - ma\dot{z} . \quad (7.22)$$

We can check explicitly that Λ is conserved, using the equations of motion

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \right) = \frac{d}{dt} (m\rho^2\dot{\phi}) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \phi} = -a \frac{\partial V}{\partial z} \quad (7.23)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{z}} \right) = \frac{d}{dt} (m\dot{z}) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial z} . \quad (7.24)$$

Thus,

$$\dot{\Lambda} = \frac{d}{dt} (m\rho^2\dot{\phi}) - a \frac{d}{dt} (m\dot{z}) = 0 . \quad (7.25)$$

7.2 Conservation of Linear and Angular Momentum

Suppose that the Lagrangian of a mechanical system is invariant under a uniform translation of all particles in the $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ direction. Then our one-parameter family of transformations is given by

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_a = \mathbf{x}_a + \zeta \hat{\mathbf{n}} , \quad (7.26)$$

and the associated conserved Noether charge is

$$\Lambda = \sum_a \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{x}}_a} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} = \hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{P} , \quad (7.27)$$

where $\mathbf{P} = \sum_a \mathbf{p}_a$ is the *total momentum* of the system.

If the Lagrangian of a mechanical system is invariant under rotations about an axis $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_a &= R(\zeta, \hat{\mathbf{n}}) \mathbf{x}_a \\ &= \mathbf{x}_a + \zeta \hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \mathbf{x}_a + \mathcal{O}(\zeta^2) , \end{aligned} \quad (7.28)$$

where we have expanded the rotation matrix $R(\zeta, \hat{\mathbf{n}})$ in powers of ζ . The conserved Noether charge associated with this symmetry is

$$\Lambda = \sum_a \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{x}}_a} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \mathbf{x}_a = \hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \sum_a \mathbf{x}_a \times \mathbf{p}_a = \hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{L} , \quad (7.29)$$

where \mathbf{L} is the *total angular momentum* of the system.

7.3 Advanced Discussion : Invariance of L vs. Invariance of S

Observant readers might object that demanding invariance of L is too strict. We should instead be demanding invariance of the action S ¹. Suppose S is invariant under

$$t \rightarrow \tilde{t}(q, t, \zeta) \quad (7.30)$$

$$q_\sigma(t) \rightarrow \tilde{q}_\sigma(q, t, \zeta) . \quad (7.31)$$

Then invariance of S means

$$S = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} dt L(q, \dot{q}, t) = \int_{\tilde{t}_a}^{\tilde{t}_b} dt L(\tilde{q}, \dot{\tilde{q}}, t) . \quad (7.32)$$

Note that t is a dummy variable of integration, so it doesn't matter whether we call it t or \tilde{t} . The endpoints of the integral, however, do change under the transformation. Now consider an infinitesimal transformation, for which $\delta t = \tilde{t} - t$ and $\delta q = \tilde{q}(\tilde{t}) - q(t)$ are both small. Thus,

$$S = \int_{t_a}^{t_b} dt L(q, \dot{q}, t) = \int_{t_a + \delta t_a}^{t_b + \delta t_b} dt \left\{ L(q, \dot{q}, t) + \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_\sigma} \delta q_\sigma + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \delta \dot{q}_\sigma + \dots \right\} , \quad (7.33)$$

¹Indeed, we should be demanding that S only change by a function of the endpoint values.

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 \bar{\delta}q_\sigma(t) &\equiv \tilde{q}_\sigma(t) - q_\sigma(t) \\
 &= \tilde{q}_\sigma(\tilde{t}) - \tilde{q}_\sigma(\tilde{t}) + \tilde{q}_\sigma(t) - q_\sigma(t) \\
 &= \delta q_\sigma - \dot{q}_\sigma \delta t + \mathcal{O}(\delta q \delta t)
 \end{aligned} \tag{7.34}$$

Subtracting eqn. 7.33 from eqn. 7.32, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 &= L_b \delta t_b - L_a \delta t_a + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \Big|_b \bar{\delta}q_{\sigma,b} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \Big|_a \bar{\delta}q_{\sigma,a} + \int_{t_a+\delta t_a}^{t_b+\delta t_b} dt \left\{ \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_\sigma} - \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \right) \right\} \bar{\delta}q_\sigma(t) \\
 &= \int_{t_a}^{t_b} dt \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \left(L - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \dot{q}_\sigma \right) \delta t + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \delta q_\sigma \right\},
 \end{aligned} \tag{7.35}$$

where $L_{a,b}$ is $L(q, \dot{q}, t)$ evaluated at $t = t_{a,b}$. Thus, if $\zeta \equiv \delta\zeta$ is infinitesimal, and

$$\delta t = A(q, t) \delta\zeta \tag{7.36}$$

$$\delta q_\sigma = B_\sigma(q, t) \delta\zeta, \tag{7.37}$$

then the conserved charge is

$$\begin{aligned}
 A &= \left(L - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \dot{q}_\sigma \right) A(q, t) + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} B_\sigma(q, t) \\
 &= -H(q, p, t) A(q, t) + p_\sigma B_\sigma(q, t).
 \end{aligned} \tag{7.38}$$

Thus, when $A = 0$, we recover our earlier results, obtained by assuming invariance of L . Note that conservation of H follows from time translation invariance: $t \rightarrow t + \zeta$, for which $A = 1$ and $B_\sigma = 0$. Here we have written

$$H = p_\sigma \dot{q}_\sigma - L, \tag{7.39}$$

and expressed it in terms of the momenta p_σ , the coordinates q_σ , and time t . H is called the *Hamiltonian*.

7.3.1 The Hamiltonian

The Lagrangian is a function of generalized coordinates, velocities, and time. The canonical momentum conjugate to the generalized coordinate q_σ is

$$p_\sigma = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma}. \tag{7.40}$$

The Hamiltonian is a function of coordinates, *momenta*, and time. It is defined as the Legendre transform of L :

$$H(q, p, t) = \sum_{\sigma} p_{\sigma} \dot{q}_{\sigma} - L . \quad (7.41)$$

Let's examine the differential of H :

$$\begin{aligned} dH &= \sum_{\sigma} \left(\dot{q}_{\sigma} dp_{\sigma} + p_{\sigma} d\dot{q}_{\sigma} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_{\sigma}} dq_{\sigma} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_{\sigma}} d\dot{q}_{\sigma} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial t} dt \\ &= \sum_{\sigma} \left(\dot{q}_{\sigma} dp_{\sigma} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_{\sigma}} dq_{\sigma} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial t} dt , \end{aligned} \quad (7.42)$$

where we have invoked the definition of p_{σ} to cancel the coefficients of $d\dot{q}_{\sigma}$. Since $\dot{p}_{\sigma} = \partial L / \partial q_{\sigma}$, we have *Hamilton's equations of motion*,

$$\dot{q}_{\sigma} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_{\sigma}} \quad , \quad \dot{p}_{\sigma} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_{\sigma}} . \quad (7.43)$$

Thus, we can write

$$dH = \sum_{\sigma} \left(\dot{q}_{\sigma} dp_{\sigma} - \dot{p}_{\sigma} dq_{\sigma} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial t} dt . \quad (7.44)$$

Dividing by dt , we obtain

$$\frac{dH}{dt} = -\frac{\partial L}{\partial t} , \quad (7.45)$$

which says that the Hamiltonian is *conserved* (*i.e.* it does not change with time) whenever there is no *explicit* time dependence to L .

Example #1 : For a simple $d = 1$ system with $L = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2 - U(x)$, we have $p = m\dot{x}$ and

$$H = p\dot{x} - L = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2 + U(x) = \frac{p^2}{2m} + U(x) . \quad (7.46)$$

Example #2 : Consider now the mass point – wedge system analyzed above, with

$$L = \frac{1}{2}(M + m)\dot{X}^2 + m\dot{X}\dot{x} + \frac{1}{2}m(1 + \tan^2\alpha)\dot{x}^2 - mgx \tan\alpha , \quad (7.47)$$

The canonical momenta are

$$P = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{X}} = (M + m)\dot{X} + m\dot{x} \quad (7.48)$$

$$p = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} = m\dot{X} + m(1 + \tan^2\alpha)\dot{x} . \quad (7.49)$$

The Hamiltonian is given by

$$\begin{aligned} H &= P\dot{X} + p\dot{x} - L \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(M + m)\dot{X}^2 + m\dot{X}\dot{x} + \frac{1}{2}m(1 + \tan^2\alpha)\dot{x}^2 + mgx \tan\alpha . \end{aligned} \quad (7.50)$$

However, this is not quite H , since $H = H(X, x, P, p, t)$ must be expressed in terms of the coordinates and the *momenta* and not the coordinates and velocities. So we must eliminate \dot{X} and \dot{x} in favor of P and p . We do this by inverting the relations

$$\begin{pmatrix} P \\ p \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} M + m & m \\ m & m(1 + \tan^2 \alpha) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \dot{X} \\ \dot{x} \end{pmatrix} \quad (7.51)$$

to obtain

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{X} \\ \dot{x} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{m(M + (M + m)\tan^2 \alpha)} \begin{pmatrix} m(1 + \tan^2 \alpha) & -m \\ -m & M + m \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} P \\ p \end{pmatrix}. \quad (7.52)$$

Substituting into 7.50, we obtain

$$H = \frac{M + m}{2m} \frac{P^2 \cos^2 \alpha}{M + m \sin^2 \alpha} - \frac{Pp \cos^2 \alpha}{M + m \sin^2 \alpha} + \frac{p^2}{2(M + m \sin^2 \alpha)} + mgx \tan \alpha. \quad (7.53)$$

Notice that $\dot{P} = 0$ since $\frac{\partial L}{\partial X} = 0$. P is the total horizontal momentum of the system (wedge plus particle) and it is conserved.

7.3.2 Is $H = T + U$?

The most general form of the kinetic energy is

$$\begin{aligned} T &= T_2 + T_1 + T_0 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} T_{\sigma\sigma'}^{(2)}(q, t) \dot{q}_\sigma \dot{q}_{\sigma'} + T_\sigma^{(1)}(q, t) \dot{q}_\sigma + T^{(0)}(q, t), \end{aligned} \quad (7.54)$$

where $T^{(n)}(q, \dot{q}, t)$ is homogeneous of degree n in the velocities². We assume a potential energy of the form

$$\begin{aligned} U &= U_1 + U_0 \\ &= U_\sigma^{(1)}(q, t) \dot{q}_\sigma + U^{(0)}(q, t), \end{aligned} \quad (7.55)$$

which allows for velocity-dependent forces, as we have with charged particles moving in an electromagnetic field. The Lagrangian is then

$$L = T - U = \frac{1}{2} T_{\sigma\sigma'}^{(2)}(q, t) \dot{q}_\sigma \dot{q}_{\sigma'} + T_\sigma^{(1)}(q, t) \dot{q}_\sigma + T^{(0)}(q, t) - U_\sigma^{(1)}(q, t) \dot{q}_\sigma - U^{(0)}(q, t). \quad (7.56)$$

The canonical momentum conjugate to q_σ is

$$p_\sigma = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} = T_{\sigma\sigma'}^{(2)} \dot{q}_{\sigma'} + T_\sigma^{(1)}(q, t) - U_\sigma^{(1)}(q, t) \quad (7.57)$$

which is inverted to give

$$\dot{q}_\sigma = T_{\sigma\sigma'}^{(2)-1} \left(p_{\sigma'} - T_{\sigma'}^{(1)} + U_{\sigma'}^{(1)} \right). \quad (7.58)$$

²A homogeneous function of degree k satisfies $f(\lambda x_1, \dots, \lambda x_n) = \lambda^k f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$. It is then easy to prove Euler's theorem, $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = kf$.

The Hamiltonian is then

$$\begin{aligned} H &= p_\sigma \dot{q}_\sigma - L \\ &= \frac{1}{2} T_{\sigma\sigma'}^{(2)-1} \left(p_\sigma - T_\sigma^{(1)} + U_\sigma^{(1)} \right) \left(p_{\sigma'} - T_{\sigma'}^{(1)} + U_{\sigma'}^{(1)} \right) - T_0 + U_0 \end{aligned} \quad (7.59)$$

$$= T_2 - T_0 + U_0 . \quad (7.60)$$

If T_0 , T_1 , and U_1 vanish, *i.e.* if $T(q, \dot{q}, t)$ is a homogeneous function of degree two in the generalized velocities, and $U(q, t)$ is velocity-independent, then $H = T + U$. But if T_0 or T_1 is nonzero, or the potential is velocity-dependent, then $H \neq T + U$.

7.3.3 Example: A bead on a rotating hoop

Consider a bead of mass m constrained to move along a hoop of radius a . The hoop is further constrained to rotate with angular velocity $\dot{\phi} = \omega$ about the \hat{z} -axis, as shown in Fig. 7.1.

The most convenient set of generalized coordinates is spherical polar (r, θ, ϕ) , in which case

$$\begin{aligned} T &= \frac{1}{2} m (\dot{r}^2 + r^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} m a^2 (\dot{\theta}^2 + \omega^2 \sin^2 \theta) . \end{aligned} \quad (7.61)$$

Thus, $T_2 = \frac{1}{2} m a^2 \dot{\theta}^2$ and $T_0 = \frac{1}{2} m a^2 \omega^2 \sin^2 \theta$. The potential energy is $U(\theta) = m g a (1 - \cos \theta)$. The momentum conjugate to θ is $p_\theta = m a^2 \dot{\theta}$, and thus

$$\begin{aligned} H(\theta, p) &= T_2 - T_0 + U \\ &= \frac{1}{2} m a^2 \dot{\theta}^2 - \frac{1}{2} m a^2 \omega^2 \sin^2 \theta + m g a (1 - \cos \theta) \\ &= \frac{p_\theta^2}{2 m a^2} - \frac{1}{2} m a^2 \omega^2 \sin^2 \theta + m g a (1 - \cos \theta) . \end{aligned} \quad (7.62)$$

For this problem, we can define the *effective potential*

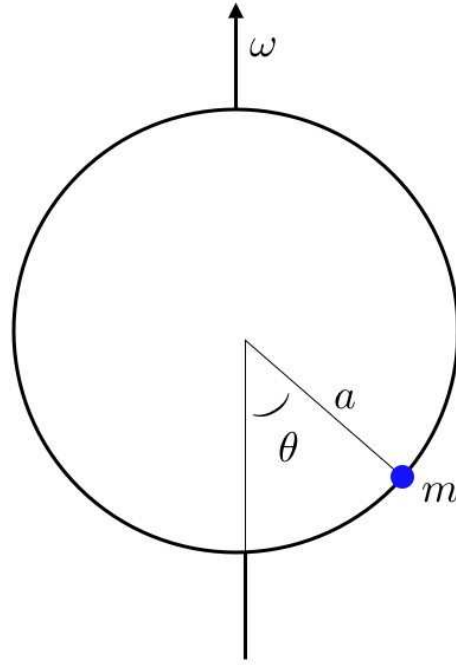
$$\begin{aligned} U_{\text{eff}}(\theta) &\equiv U - T_0 = m g a (1 - \cos \theta) - \frac{1}{2} m a^2 \omega^2 \sin^2 \theta \\ &= m g a \left(1 - \cos \theta - \frac{\omega^2}{2 \omega_0^2} \sin^2 \theta \right) , \end{aligned} \quad (7.63)$$

where $\omega_0^2 \equiv g/a$. The Lagrangian may then be written

$$L = \frac{1}{2} m a^2 \dot{\theta}^2 - U_{\text{eff}}(\theta) , \quad (7.64)$$

and thus the equations of motion are

$$m a^2 \ddot{\theta} = - \frac{\partial U_{\text{eff}}}{\partial \theta} . \quad (7.65)$$

Figure 7.1: A bead of mass m on a rotating hoop of radius a .

Equilibrium is achieved when $U'_{\text{eff}}(\theta) = 0$, which gives

$$\frac{\partial U_{\text{eff}}}{\partial \theta} = mga \sin \theta \left\{ 1 - \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_0^2} \cos \theta \right\} = 0, \quad (7.66)$$

i.e. $\theta^* = 0$, $\theta^* = \pi$, or $\theta^* = \pm \cos^{-1}(\omega_0^2/\omega^2)$, where the last pair of equilibria are present only for $\omega^2 > \omega_0^2$. The stability of these equilibria is assessed by examining the sign of $U''_{\text{eff}}(\theta^*)$. We have

$$U''_{\text{eff}}(\theta) = mga \left\{ \cos \theta - \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_0^2} (2 \cos^2 \theta - 1) \right\}. \quad (7.67)$$

Thus,

$$U''_{\text{eff}}(\theta^*) = \begin{cases} mga \left(1 - \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_0^2} \right) & \text{at } \theta^* = 0 \\ -mga \left(1 + \frac{\omega^2}{\omega_0^2} \right) & \text{at } \theta^* = \pi \\ mga \left(\frac{\omega^2}{\omega_0^2} - \frac{\omega_0^2}{\omega^2} \right) & \text{at } \theta^* = \pm \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\omega_0^2}{\omega^2} \right). \end{cases} \quad (7.68)$$

Thus, $\theta^* = 0$ is stable for $\omega^2 < \omega_0^2$ but becomes unstable when the rotation frequency ω is sufficiently large, *i.e.* when $\omega^2 > \omega_0^2$. In this regime, there are two new equilibria, at $\theta^* = \pm \cos^{-1}(\omega_0^2/\omega^2)$, which are both stable. The equilibrium at $\theta^* = \pi$ is always unstable, independent of the value of ω . The situation is depicted in Fig. 7.2.

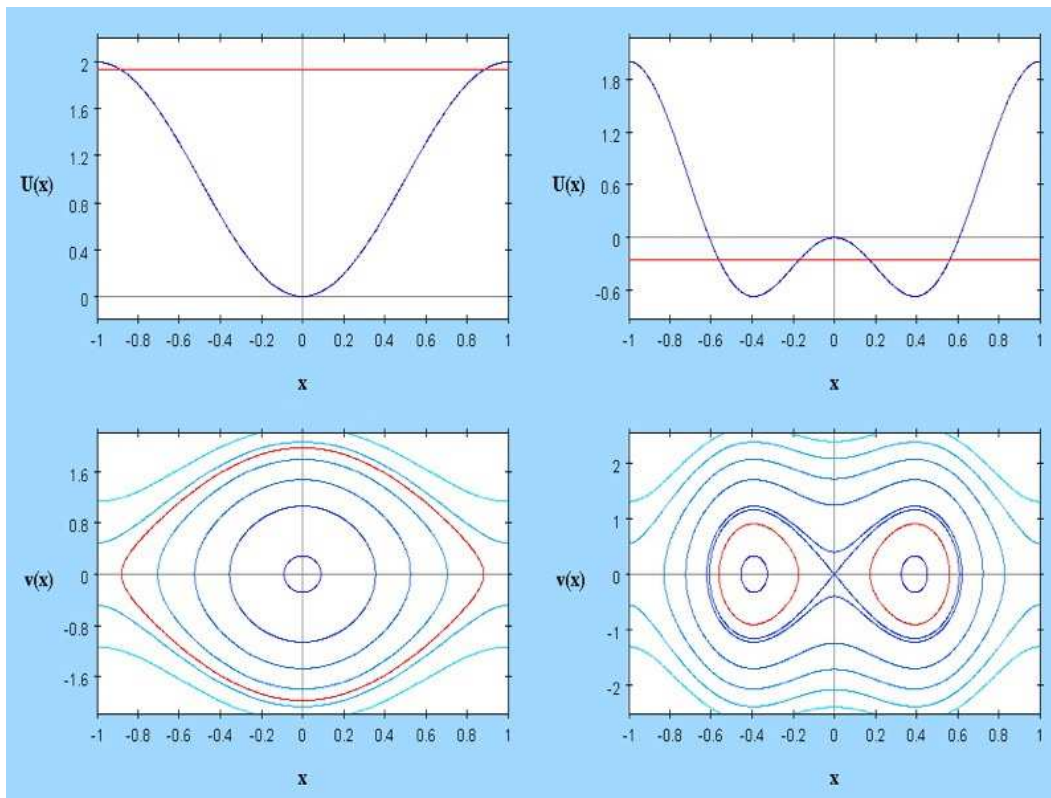


Figure 7.2: The effective potential $U_{\text{eff}}(\theta) = mga\left[1 - \cos\theta - \frac{\omega^2}{2\omega_0^2} \sin^2\theta\right]$. (The dimensionless potential $\tilde{U}_{\text{eff}}(x) = U_{\text{eff}}/mga$ is shown, where $x = \theta/\pi$.) Left panels: $\omega = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}\omega_0$. Right panels: $\omega = \sqrt{3}\omega_0$.

7.4 Charged Particle in a Magnetic Field

Consider next the case of a charged particle moving in the presence of an electromagnetic field. The particle's potential energy is

$$U(\mathbf{r}, \dot{\mathbf{r}}) = q\phi(\mathbf{r}, t) - \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, t) \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}, \quad (7.69)$$

which is velocity-dependent. The kinetic energy is $T = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{\mathbf{r}}^2$, as usual. Here $\phi(\mathbf{r})$ is the scalar potential and $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r})$ the vector potential. The electric and magnetic fields are given by

$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla\phi - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}. \quad (7.70)$$

The canonical momentum is

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{r}}} = m\dot{\mathbf{r}} + \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{A}, \quad (7.71)$$

and hence the Hamiltonian is

$$\begin{aligned}
 H(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{p}, t) &= \mathbf{p} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}} - L \\
 &= m\dot{\mathbf{r}}^2 + \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{A} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}} - \frac{1}{2}m\dot{\mathbf{r}}^2 - \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{A} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}} + q\phi \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}m\dot{\mathbf{r}}^2 + q\phi \\
 &= \frac{1}{2m} \left(\mathbf{p} - \frac{q}{c} \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, t) \right)^2 + q\phi(\mathbf{r}, t) .
 \end{aligned} \tag{7.72}$$

If \mathbf{A} and ϕ are time-independent, then $H(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{p})$ is conserved.

Let's work out the equations of motion. We have

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{r}}} \right) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{r}} \tag{7.73}$$

which gives

$$m\ddot{\mathbf{r}} + \frac{q}{c} \frac{d\mathbf{A}}{dt} = -q\nabla\phi + \frac{q}{c} \nabla(\mathbf{A} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}) , \tag{7.74}$$

or, in component notation,

$$m\ddot{x}_i + \frac{q}{c} \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial x_j} \dot{x}_j + \frac{q}{c} \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial t} = -q \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x_i} + \frac{q}{c} \frac{\partial A_j}{\partial x_i} \dot{x}_j , \tag{7.75}$$

which is to say

$$m\ddot{x}_i = -q \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x_i} - \frac{q}{c} \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial t} + \frac{q}{c} \left(\frac{\partial A_j}{\partial x_i} - \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial x_j} \right) \dot{x}_j . \tag{7.76}$$

It is convenient to express the cross product in terms of the completely antisymmetric tensor of rank three, ϵ_{ijk} :

$$B_i = \epsilon_{ijk} \frac{\partial A_k}{\partial x_j} , \tag{7.77}$$

and using the result

$$\epsilon_{ijk} \epsilon_{imn} = \delta_{jm} \delta_{kn} - \delta_{jn} \delta_{km} , \tag{7.78}$$

we have $\epsilon_{ijk} B_i = \partial_j A_k - \partial_k A_j$, and

$$m\ddot{x}_i = -q \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x_i} - \frac{q}{c} \frac{\partial A_i}{\partial t} + \frac{q}{c} \epsilon_{ijk} \dot{x}_j B_k , \tag{7.79}$$

or, in vector notation,

$$\begin{aligned}
 m\ddot{\mathbf{r}} &= -q\nabla\phi - \frac{q}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} + \frac{q}{c} \dot{\mathbf{r}} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) \\
 &= q\mathbf{E} + \frac{q}{c} \dot{\mathbf{r}} \times \mathbf{B} ,
 \end{aligned} \tag{7.80}$$

which is, of course, the Lorentz force law.

7.5 Fast Perturbations : Rapidly Oscillating Fields

Consider a free particle moving under the influence of an oscillating force,

$$m\ddot{q} = F \sin \omega t . \quad (7.81)$$

The motion of the system is then

$$q(t) = q_h(t) - \frac{F \sin \omega t}{m\omega^2} , \quad (7.82)$$

where $q_h(t) = A + Bt$ is the solution to the homogeneous (unforced) equation of motion. Note that the amplitude of the response $q - q_h$ goes as ω^{-2} and is therefore small when ω is large.

Now consider a general $n = 1$ system, with

$$H(q, p, t) = H_0(q, p) + V(q) \sin(\omega t + \delta) . \quad (7.83)$$

We assume that ω is much greater than any natural oscillation frequency associated with H_0 . We separate the motion $q(t)$ and $p(t)$ into slow and fast components:

$$q(t) = \bar{q}(t) + \zeta(t) \quad (7.84)$$

$$p(t) = \bar{p}(t) + \pi(t) , \quad (7.85)$$

where $\zeta(t)$ and $\pi(t)$ oscillate with the driving frequency ω . Since ζ and π will be small, we expand Hamilton's equations in these quantities:

$$\dot{\bar{q}} + \dot{\zeta} = \frac{\partial H_0}{\partial \bar{p}} + \frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{p}^2} \pi + \frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{q} \partial \bar{p}} \zeta + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{q}^2 \partial \bar{p}} \zeta^2 + \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{q} \partial \bar{p}^2} \zeta \pi + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{p}^3} \pi^2 + \dots \quad (7.86)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\bar{p}} + \dot{\pi} = & -\frac{\partial H_0}{\partial \bar{q}} - \frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{q}^2} \zeta - \frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{q} \partial \bar{p}} \pi - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{q}^3} \zeta^2 - \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{q}^2 \partial \bar{p}} \zeta \pi - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{q} \partial \bar{p}^2} \pi^2 \\ & - \frac{\partial V}{\partial \bar{q}} \sin(\omega t + \delta) - \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \bar{q}^2} \zeta \sin(\omega t + \delta) - \dots \end{aligned} \quad (7.87)$$

We now average over the fast degrees of freedom to obtain an equation of motion for the slow variables \bar{q} and \bar{p} , which we here carry to lowest nontrivial order in averages of fluctuating quantities:

$$\dot{\bar{q}} = \frac{\partial H_0}{\partial \bar{p}} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{q}^2 \partial \bar{p}} \langle \zeta^2 \rangle + \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{q} \partial \bar{p}^2} \langle \zeta \pi \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{p}^3} \langle \pi^2 \rangle \quad (7.88)$$

$$\dot{\bar{p}} = -\frac{\partial H_0}{\partial \bar{q}} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{q}^3} \langle \zeta^2 \rangle - \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{q}^2 \partial \bar{p}} \langle \zeta \pi \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^3 H_0}{\partial \bar{q} \partial \bar{p}^2} \langle \pi^2 \rangle - \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \bar{q}^2} \langle \zeta \sin(\omega t + \delta) \rangle . \quad (7.89)$$

The fast degrees of freedom obey

$$\dot{\zeta} = \frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{q} \partial \bar{p}} \zeta + \frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{p}^2} \pi \quad (7.90)$$

$$\dot{\pi} = -\frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{q}^2} \zeta - \frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{q} \partial \bar{p}} \pi - \frac{\partial V}{\partial \bar{q}} \sin(\omega t + \delta) . \quad (7.91)$$

Let us analyze the coupled equations³

$$\dot{\zeta} = A\zeta + B\pi \quad (7.92)$$

$$\dot{\pi} = -C\zeta - A\pi + F e^{-i\omega t} . \quad (7.93)$$

The solution is of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \zeta \\ \pi \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} e^{-i\omega t} . \quad (7.94)$$

Plugging in, we find

$$\alpha = \frac{BF}{BC - A^2 - \omega^2} = -\frac{BF}{\omega^2} + \mathcal{O}(\omega^{-4}) \quad (7.95)$$

$$\beta = -\frac{(A + i\omega)F}{BC - A^2 - \omega^2} = \frac{iF}{\omega} + \mathcal{O}(\omega^{-3}) . \quad (7.96)$$

Taking the real part, and restoring the phase shift δ , we have

$$\zeta(t) = \frac{-BF}{\omega^2} \sin(\omega t + \delta) = \frac{1}{\omega^2} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \bar{q}} \frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{p}^2} \sin(\omega t + \delta) \quad (7.97)$$

$$\pi(t) = -\frac{F}{\omega} \cos(\omega t + \delta) = \frac{1}{\omega} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \bar{q}} \cos(\omega t + \delta) . \quad (7.98)$$

The desired averages, to lowest order, are thus

$$\langle \zeta^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2\omega^4} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial \bar{q}} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{p}^2} \right)^2 \quad (7.99)$$

$$\langle \pi^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2\omega^2} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial \bar{q}} \right)^2 \quad (7.100)$$

$$\langle \zeta \sin(\omega t + \delta) \rangle = \frac{1}{2\omega^2} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \bar{q}} \frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{p}^2} , \quad (7.101)$$

along with $\langle \zeta \pi \rangle = 0$.

Finally, we substitute the averages into the equations of motion for the slow variables \bar{q} and \bar{p} , resulting in the time-independent *effective Hamiltonian*

$$K(\bar{q}, \bar{p}) = H_0(\bar{q}, \bar{p}) + \frac{1}{4\omega^2} \frac{\partial^2 H_0}{\partial \bar{p}^2} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial \bar{q}} \right)^2 , \quad (7.102)$$

and the equations of motion

$$\dot{\bar{q}} = \frac{\partial K}{\partial \bar{p}} , \quad \dot{\bar{p}} = -\frac{\partial K}{\partial \bar{q}} . \quad (7.103)$$

³With real coefficients A , B , and C , one can always take the real part to recover the fast variable equations of motion.

7.5.1 Example : pendulum with oscillating support

Consider a pendulum with a vertically oscillating point of support. The coordinates of the pendulum bob are

$$x = \ell \sin \theta \quad , \quad y = a(t) - \ell \cos \theta . \quad (7.104)$$

The Lagrangian is easily obtained:

$$L = \frac{1}{2}m\ell^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + m\ell\dot{a}\dot{\theta} \sin \theta + mg\ell \cos \theta + \frac{1}{2}m\dot{a}^2 - mga \quad (7.105)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}m\ell^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + m(g + \ddot{a})\ell \cos \theta + \overbrace{\frac{1}{2}m\dot{a}^2 - mga}^{\text{these may be dropped}} - \frac{d}{dt}(m\ell\dot{a} \sin \theta) . \quad (7.106)$$

Thus we may take the Lagrangian to be

$$\bar{L} = \frac{1}{2}m\ell^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + m(g + \ddot{a})\ell \cos \theta , \quad (7.107)$$

from which we derive the Hamiltonian

$$H(\theta, p_\theta, t) = \frac{p_\theta^2}{2m\ell^2} - mg\ell \cos \theta - m\ell\ddot{a} \cos \theta \quad (7.108)$$

$$= H_0(\theta, p_\theta, t) + V_1(\theta) \sin \omega t . \quad (7.109)$$

We have assumed $a(t) = a_0 \sin \omega t$, so

$$V_1(\theta) = m\ell a_0 \omega^2 \cos \theta . \quad (7.110)$$

The effective Hamiltonian, per eqn. 7.102, is

$$K(\bar{\theta}, \bar{p}_\theta) = \frac{\bar{p}_\theta^2}{2m\ell^2} - mg\ell \cos \bar{\theta} + \frac{1}{4}m a_0^2 \omega^2 \sin^2 \bar{\theta} . \quad (7.111)$$

Let's define the dimensionless parameter

$$\epsilon \equiv \frac{2g\ell}{\omega^2 a_0^2} . \quad (7.112)$$

The slow variable $\bar{\theta}$ executes motion in the *effective potential* $V_{\text{eff}}(\bar{\theta}) = mg\ell v(\bar{\theta})$, with

$$v(\bar{\theta}) = -\cos \bar{\theta} + \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \sin^2 \bar{\theta} . \quad (7.113)$$

Differentiating, and dropping the bar on θ , we find that $V_{\text{eff}}(\theta)$ is stationary when

$$v'(\theta) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sin \theta \cos \theta = -\epsilon \sin \theta . \quad (7.114)$$

Thus, $\theta = 0$ and $\theta = \pi$, where $\sin \theta = 0$, are equilibria. When $\epsilon < 1$ (note $\epsilon > 0$ always), there are two new solutions, given by the roots of $\cos \theta = -\epsilon$.

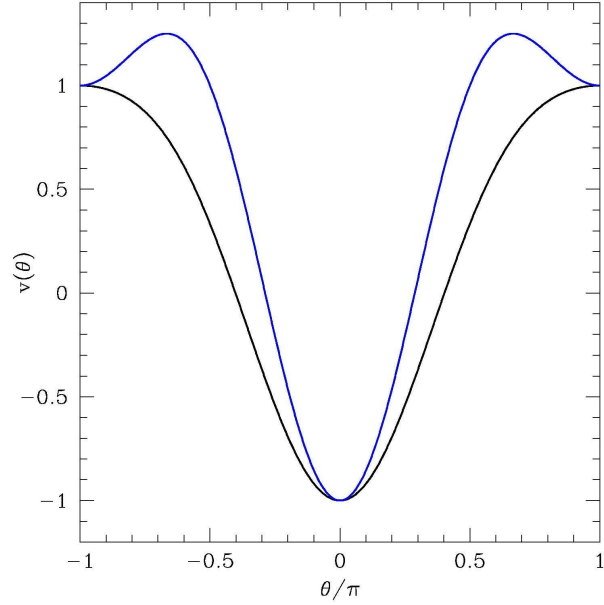


Figure 7.3: Dimensionless potential $v(\theta)$ for $\epsilon = 1.5$ (black curve) and $\epsilon = 0.5$ (blue curve).

To assess stability of these equilibria, we compute the second derivative:

$$v''(\theta) = \cos \theta + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \cos 2\theta . \quad (7.115)$$

From this, we see that $\theta = 0$ is stable (*i.e.* $v''(\theta = 0) > 0$) always, but $\theta = \pi$ is stable for $\epsilon < 1$ and unstable for $\epsilon > 1$. When $\epsilon < 1$, two new solutions appear, at $\cos \theta = -\epsilon$, for which

$$v''(\cos^{-1}(-\epsilon)) = \epsilon - \frac{1}{\epsilon} , \quad (7.116)$$

which is always negative since $\epsilon < 1$ in order for these equilibria to exist. The situation is sketched in fig. 7.3, showing $v(\theta)$ for two representative values of the parameter ϵ . For $\epsilon > 1$, the equilibrium at $\theta = \pi$ is unstable, but as ϵ decreases, a subcritical pitchfork bifurcation is encountered at $\epsilon = 1$, and $\theta = \pi$ becomes stable, while the outlying $\theta = \cos^{-1}(-\epsilon)$ solutions are unstable.

7.6 Field Theory: Systems with Several Independent Variables

Suppose $\phi_a(\mathbf{x})$ depends on several independent variables: $\{x^1, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$. Furthermore, suppose

$$S[\{\phi_a(\mathbf{x})\}] = \int_{\Omega} d\mathbf{x} \mathcal{L}(\phi_a, \partial_{\mu} \phi_a, \mathbf{x}) , \quad (7.117)$$

i.e. the Lagrangian density \mathcal{L} is a function of the fields ϕ_a and their partial derivatives $\partial\phi_a/\partial x^\mu$. Here Ω is a region in \mathbb{R}^K . Then the first variation of S is

$$\begin{aligned}\delta S &= \int_{\Omega} d\mathbf{x} \left\{ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_a} \delta \phi_a + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \phi_a)} \frac{\partial \delta \phi_a}{\partial x^\mu} \right\} \\ &= \oint_{\partial \Omega} d\Sigma n^\mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \phi_a)} \delta \phi_a + \int_{\Omega} d\mathbf{x} \left\{ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_a} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \phi_a)} \right) \right\} \delta \phi_a ,\end{aligned}\quad (7.118)$$

where $\partial\Omega$ is the $(n-1)$ -dimensional boundary of Ω , $d\Sigma$ is the differential surface area, and n^μ is the unit normal. If we demand $\partial\mathcal{L}/\partial(\partial_\mu\phi_a)|_{\partial\Omega} = 0$ or $\delta\phi_a|_{\partial\Omega} = 0$, the surface term vanishes, and we conclude

$$\frac{\delta S}{\delta \phi_a(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \phi_a} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \phi_a)} \right) . \quad (7.119)$$

As an example, consider the case of a stretched string of linear mass density μ and tension τ . The action is a functional of the height $y(x, t)$, where the coordinate along the string, x , and time, t , are the two independent variables. The Lagrangian density is

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}\mu \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2}\tau \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right)^2 , \quad (7.120)$$

whence the Euler-Lagrange equations are

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= \frac{\delta S}{\delta y(x, t)} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial y'} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \dot{y}} \right) \\ &= \tau \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} - \mu \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} ,\end{aligned}\quad (7.121)$$

where $y' = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$ and $\dot{y} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial t}$. Thus, $\mu \ddot{y} = \tau y''$, which is the Helmholtz equation. We've assumed boundary conditions where $\delta y(x_a, t) = \delta y(x_b, t) = \delta y(x, t_a) = \delta y(x, t_b) = 0$.

The Lagrangian density for an electromagnetic field with sources is

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{16\pi} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{c} j_\mu A^\mu . \quad (7.122)$$

The equations of motion are then

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial A^\mu} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial^\mu A^\nu)} \right) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \partial_\mu F^{\mu\nu} = \frac{4\pi}{c} j^\nu , \quad (7.123)$$

which are Maxwell's equations.

Recall the result of Noether's theorem for mechanical systems:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_\sigma} \frac{\partial \tilde{q}_\sigma}{\partial \zeta} \right)_{\zeta=0} = 0 , \quad (7.124)$$

where $\tilde{q}_\sigma = \tilde{q}_\sigma(q, \zeta)$ is a one-parameter (ζ) family of transformations of the generalized coordinates which leaves L invariant. We generalize to field theory by replacing

$$q_\sigma(t) \longrightarrow \phi_a(\mathbf{x}, t) , \quad (7.125)$$

where $\{\phi_a(\mathbf{x}, t)\}$ are a set of fields, which are functions of the independent variables $\{x, y, z, t\}$. We will adopt covariant relativistic notation and write for four-vector $x^\mu = (ct, x, y, z)$. The generalization of $d\Lambda/dt = 0$ is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \phi_a)} \frac{\partial \tilde{\phi}_a}{\partial \zeta} \right) \Big|_{\zeta=0} = 0 , \quad (7.126)$$

where there is an implied sum on both μ and a . We can write this as $\partial_\mu J^\mu = 0$, where

$$J^\mu \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \phi_a)} \frac{\partial \tilde{\phi}_a}{\partial \zeta} \Big|_{\zeta=0} . \quad (7.127)$$

We call $\Lambda = J^0/c$ the *total charge*. If we assume $\mathbf{J} = 0$ at the spatial boundaries of our system, then integrating the conservation law $\partial_\mu J^\mu$ over the spatial region Ω gives

$$\frac{d\Lambda}{dt} = \int_{\Omega} d^3x \partial_0 J^0 = - \int_{\Omega} d^3x \nabla \cdot \mathbf{J} = - \oint_{\partial\Omega} d\Sigma \hat{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{J} = 0 , \quad (7.128)$$

assuming $\mathbf{J} = 0$ at the boundary $\partial\Omega$.

As an example, consider the case of a complex scalar field, with Lagrangian density⁴

$$\mathcal{L}(\psi, \psi^*, \partial_\mu \psi, \partial_\mu \psi^*) = \frac{1}{2} K (\partial_\mu \psi^*) (\partial^\mu \psi) - U(\psi^* \psi) . \quad (7.129)$$

This is invariant under the transformation $\psi \rightarrow e^{i\zeta} \psi$, $\psi^* \rightarrow e^{-i\zeta} \psi^*$. Thus,

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{\psi}}{\partial \zeta} = i e^{i\zeta} \psi \quad , \quad \frac{\partial \tilde{\psi}^*}{\partial \zeta} = -i e^{-i\zeta} \psi^* , \quad (7.130)$$

and, summing over both ψ and ψ^* fields, we have

$$\begin{aligned} J^\mu &= \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \psi)} \cdot (i\psi) + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu \psi^*)} \cdot (-i\psi^*) \\ &= \frac{K}{2i} (\psi^* \partial^\mu \psi - \psi \partial^\mu \psi^*) . \end{aligned} \quad (7.131)$$

The potential, which depends on $|\psi|^2$, is independent of ζ . Hence, this form of conserved 4-current is valid for an entire class of potentials.

⁴We raise and lower indices using the Minkowski metric $g_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(+, -, -, -)$.

7.6.1 Gross-Pitaevskii model

As one final example of a field theory, consider the Gross-Pitaevskii model, with

$$\mathcal{L} = i\hbar\psi^* \frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla\psi^* \cdot \nabla\psi - g(|\psi|^2 - n_0)^2. \quad (7.132)$$

This describes a Bose fluid with repulsive short-ranged interactions. Here $\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is again a complex scalar field, and ψ^* is its complex conjugate. Using the Leibniz rule, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \delta S[\psi^*, \psi] &= S[\psi^* + \delta\psi^*, \psi + \delta\psi] \\ &= \int dt \int d^d x \left\{ i\hbar\psi^* \frac{\partial\delta\psi}{\partial t} + i\hbar\delta\psi^* \frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla\psi^* \cdot \nabla\delta\psi - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla\delta\psi^* \cdot \nabla\psi \right. \\ &\quad \left. - 2g(|\psi|^2 - n_0)(\psi^*\delta\psi + \psi\delta\psi^*) \right\} \\ &= \int dt \int d^d x \left\{ \left[-i\hbar \frac{\partial\psi^*}{\partial t} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2\psi^* - 2g(|\psi|^2 - n_0)\psi^* \right] \delta\psi \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \left[i\hbar \frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2\psi - 2g(|\psi|^2 - n_0)\psi \right] \delta\psi^* \right\}, \quad (7.133) \end{aligned}$$

where we have integrated by parts where necessary and discarded the boundary terms. Extremizing $S[\psi^*, \psi]$ therefore results in the *nonlinear Schrödinger equation* (NLSE),

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2\psi + 2g(|\psi|^2 - n_0)\psi \quad (7.134)$$

as well as its complex conjugate,

$$-i\hbar \frac{\partial\psi^*}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2\psi^* + 2g(|\psi|^2 - n_0)\psi^*. \quad (7.135)$$

Note that these equations are indeed the Euler-Lagrange equations:

$$\frac{\delta S}{\delta\psi} = \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\psi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \left(\frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\partial_\mu\psi} \right) \quad (7.136)$$

$$\frac{\delta S}{\delta\psi^*} = \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\psi^*} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \left(\frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\partial_\mu\psi^*} \right), \quad (7.137)$$

with $x^\mu = (t, \mathbf{x})$ ⁵ Plugging in

$$\frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\psi} = -2g(|\psi|^2 - n_0)\psi^*, \quad \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\partial_t\psi} = i\hbar\psi^*, \quad \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\nabla\psi} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla\psi^* \quad (7.138)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\psi^*} = i\hbar\psi - 2g(|\psi|^2 - n_0)\psi, \quad \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\partial_t\psi^*} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial\mathcal{L}}{\partial\nabla\psi^*} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla\psi, \quad (7.139)$$

⁵In the nonrelativistic case, there is no utility in defining $x^0 = ct$, so we simply define $x^0 = t$.

we recover the NLSE and its conjugate.

The Gross-Pitaevskii model also possesses a U(1) invariance, under

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) \rightarrow \tilde{\psi}(\mathbf{x}, t) = e^{i\zeta} \psi(\mathbf{x}, t) \quad , \quad \psi^*(\mathbf{x}, t) \rightarrow \tilde{\psi}^*(\mathbf{x}, t) = e^{-i\zeta} \psi^*(\mathbf{x}, t) . \quad (7.140)$$

Thus, the conserved Noether current is then

$$J^\mu = \left. \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \partial_\mu \psi} \frac{\partial \tilde{\psi}}{\partial \zeta} \right|_{\zeta=0} + \left. \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \partial_\mu \psi^*} \frac{\partial \tilde{\psi}^*}{\partial \zeta} \right|_{\zeta=0}$$

$$J^0 = -\hbar |\psi|^2 \quad (7.141)$$

$$\mathbf{J} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2im} (\psi^* \nabla \psi - \psi \nabla \psi^*) . \quad (7.142)$$

Dividing out by \hbar , taking $J^0 \equiv -\hbar \rho$ and $\mathbf{J} \equiv -\hbar \mathbf{j}$, we obtain the continuity equation,

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} = 0 , \quad (7.143)$$

where

$$\rho = |\psi|^2 \quad , \quad \mathbf{j} = \frac{\hbar}{2im} (\psi^* \nabla \psi - \psi \nabla \psi^*) . \quad (7.144)$$

are the particle density and the particle current, respectively.