

# The Klein-Gordon equation and the meson $\pi^-$

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## Abstract

The study of the free motion of the meson  $\pi^-$  through the equation of Klein-Gordon, leads to its antiparticle i.e. the meson  $\pi^+$ .

## 1 The Klein-Gordon equation

Let us remember that the quantum-mechanical state of a non-relativistic particle of mass  $m$  and spin 0 is a solution of the Schrödinger equation which we write here in operational form:

$$\hat{H}\psi = i\hbar\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} \quad (1)$$

where

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{p}}^2}{2m} + V(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \quad (2)$$

is the Hamiltonian operator, while  $\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)$  is the wave function of the particle. Let us quickly recall the representation of the various operators in the coordinate base [1]

$$\hat{\mathbf{p}} \doteq -i\hbar\nabla \implies \hat{H} \doteq -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2 + V(\mathbf{x})$$

so we find the well-known form of the Schrödinger equation:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2\psi + V(\mathbf{x})\psi = i\hbar\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} \quad (3)$$

In 1926 Klein, Gordon and Fok (and perhaps even Schrödinger himself before writing his famous equation (3)) used the following device ( $E$  is energy):

$$E \rightarrow i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}, \quad p \rightarrow -i\hbar\nabla \quad (4)$$

where for simplicity we are considering the one-dimensional case. From relativistic mechanics [3]:

$$E^2 = m^2c^4 + c^2p^2$$

It follows that substitution (4) returns

$$\frac{\partial^2\psi}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{c^2}\frac{\partial^2\psi}{\partial t^2} - \left(\frac{mc}{\hbar}\right)^2\psi = 0$$

The generalization to three-dimensional motion is immediate:

$$\nabla^2\psi - \frac{1}{c^2}\frac{\partial^2\psi}{\partial t^2} - \left(\frac{mc}{\hbar}\right)^2\psi = 0 \quad (5)$$

known as **Klein-Gordon equation**. A notable difference from that of Schrödinger is that the K-G is of the second order in the time derivative. And this will present probl

After some manipulation, we arrive at the continuity equation for magnitude

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}, t) = \psi(\mathbf{x}, t) \psi^*(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{i\hbar}{2mc^2} \left( \psi^* \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} - \psi \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t} \right)$$

Precisely:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \operatorname{div} \mathbf{j} = 0 \quad (6)$$

where

$$\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \frac{\hbar}{2im} (\psi^* \nabla \psi - \psi \nabla \psi^*) \quad (7)$$

We are tempted to call  $\rho$  «probability density», but the presence of the second derivative with respect to time in the K-G leads to an inconsistency. Precisely, since the second order equation "resembles" the D'Alembert one, we have that a Cauchy problem is characterized by initial conditions (with obvious meaning of the symbols):

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}, 0) = \varphi(\mathbf{x}), \quad \left. \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \right|_{(\mathbf{x}, 0)} = \chi(\mathbf{x})$$

where functions are assigned arbitrarily. This implies that the quantity  $\rho$  is not positive definite, so it is not a probability density. A possible re-interpretation consists in redefining:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(\mathbf{x}, t) &= \frac{iq\hbar}{2mc^2} \left( \psi^* \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} - \psi \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t} \right) \\ \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{x}, t) &= \frac{q\hbar}{2im} (\psi^* \nabla \psi - \psi \nabla \psi^*) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

being  $q$  the electric charge (possibly zero) of the particle. We are interested in solutions of the monochromatic plane wave type which, as is known, are quantum states with a defined momentum value. Without violating generality, let's consider the one-dimensional case:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} - \left( \frac{mc}{\hbar} \right)^2 \psi = 0 \quad (9)$$

We are looking for solutions like this

$$\psi(x, t) = Ae^{i(kx - \omega t)} \quad (10)$$

After simple steps:

$$\omega^2 = c^2 \left[ k^2 + \left( \frac{mc}{\hbar} \right)^2 \right]$$

Multiplying the first and second members by Planck's reduced constant and remembering the relationship between pulsation and energy, and between wave number and impulse, we have

$$E^2 = c^2 p^2 + m^2 c^4,$$

that is, exactly what is expected. To remove ambiguity about the sign, we define

$$E_P \stackrel{def}{=} +\sqrt{m^2 c^4 + c^2 p^2} \quad (11)$$

so  $E = \pm E_P$ . It follows that the solutions (10) are written  $\psi_{\pm}(x, t) = Ae^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(px \mp E_P t)}$  or in the form more compact:

$$\psi_{\lambda}(x, t) = Ae^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(px - \lambda E_P t)}, \quad \lambda = \pm 1 \quad (12)$$

Here an interpretative problem arises since we still have two progressive plane waves, but one of the two has a “negative frequency”; precisely

$$\lambda = -1 \implies \psi_-(x, t) = Ae^{i(kx - (-\omega)t)} \text{ dove } -\omega = -\frac{E_p}{\hbar}$$

which describes a progressive plane wave with frequency  $-\omega$ . Replacing the (12) in the first of the (8)

$$\rho_\lambda(x, t) = \frac{\lambda q E_P}{mc^2} A^2 \quad (13)$$

where we have redefined the electric charge as  $q = e$  where  $e$  is the absolute value of the charge of the electron. We can then interpret  $\psi_+(x, t)$  as the wave function of a relativistic free particle of momentum  $p$  and electric charge  $q$ , while  $\psi_-(x, t)$  is the wave function of a relativistic free particle of momentum  $p$  and electric charge  $-q$ .

## 2 Covariant form of the Klein-Gordon equation

Since the Klein-Gordon equation is the relativistic extension of the Schrödinger equation for a particle of spin 0, we must write it in four-dimensional notation. For this purpose, we recall that the generic point-event of the spacetime of Special Relativity is determined by the 4-vector  $x^\mu = (x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$  where  $x^{(0)} = ct$  is the time coordinate, while  $(x^1, x^2, x^3)$  are the spatial coordinates which in many cases coincide with the usual Cartesian coordinates  $(x, y, z)$ . Here we have a metric tensor

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and therefore an element of “distance”:

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu = c^2 dt^2 - (dx)^2 - (dy)^2 - (dz)^2$$

which is manifestly invariant under Lorentz transformations. The 4-momentum of a particle of mass  $m$  is defined by the following 4-vector:

$$p^\mu = \left( \frac{E}{c}, \mathbf{p} \right)$$

being  $\mathbf{p} = (p^1, p^2, p^3)$  the usual 3-momentum, while  $E$  is the energy

$$E^2 = m^2 c^4 + c^2 \mathbf{p}^2$$

Performing the scalar product or the contraction of the 4-impulse vector:

$$p^\mu p_\mu = \frac{E^2}{c^2} - \mathbf{p}^2 = m^2 c^2$$

Given this, we need to write the differential equation

$$\nabla^2 \psi - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} - \left( \frac{mc}{\hbar} \right)^2 \psi = 0 \quad (14)$$

in 4-dimensional notation. Let’s remember the 4-gradient operator:

$$\partial^\mu = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_\mu} = g^{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_\nu},$$

where  $g^{\mu\nu}$  is the inverse metric tensor. We have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} = \left( \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^2}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^3} \right) = \left( \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t}, \nabla \right) \implies \partial^\mu = \left( \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t}, -\nabla \right)$$

It follows

$$\partial^\mu \partial_\mu = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 = -\square$$

Incidentally, passing from the individual physical quantities to the respective Hermitian operators:

$$\mathbf{p} \rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{p}} = -i\hbar\nabla \implies p^\mu \rightarrow \hat{p}^\mu = -i\hbar\partial^\mu$$

Ultimately, in 4-dimensional notation the Klein-Gordon equation is written:

$$(\partial^\mu \partial_\mu) \psi = - \left( \frac{mc}{\hbar} \right)^2 \psi$$

which is manifestly covariant.

### 3 Integration of the Klein-Gordon equation

After examining the covariant writing of the Klein - Gordon equation, let's rewrite it in three-dimensional notation:

$$\nabla^2 \psi - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = \left( \frac{mc}{\hbar} \right)^2 \psi \quad (15)$$

Let them be

$$\varphi, \chi \mid \psi = \varphi + \chi, \quad i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = mc^2 (\varphi - \chi)$$

It follows

$$\begin{aligned} & \nabla^2 (\varphi + \chi) - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[ -\frac{i}{\hbar} mc^2 (\varphi - \chi) - \frac{m^2 c^2}{\hbar^2} (\varphi + \chi) \right] = 0 \\ \implies & \nabla^2 \varphi + \nabla^2 \chi + \frac{i}{\hbar} m \left( \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial t} \right) - \frac{m^2 c^2}{\hbar^2} \varphi - \frac{m^2 c^2}{\hbar^2} \chi = 0 \\ \implies & \left[ \frac{\hbar^2}{2} \nabla^2 (\varphi + \chi) - m^2 c^2 \varphi + i\hbar m \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} \right] - \left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2} \nabla^2 (\varphi + \chi) + i\hbar m \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial t} + m^2 c^2 \chi \right] = 0 \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that the terms in brackets must cancel identically, obtaining:

$$\begin{cases} i\hbar \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 (\varphi + \chi) + mc^2 \varphi \\ i\hbar \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial t} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 (\varphi + \chi) - mc^2 \chi \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

which is a system of two differential equations of the Schrödinger type.

### 4 Operational form of the Klein-Gordon equation

The mathematical device used in the previous number returns the sensational advantage of reducing the order of the Klein-Gordon differential equation in the time derivative by one unit (reducing it to a Schrödinger equation). The price you pay is the integration of a system of coupled differential

equations. The particular shape of this system suggests a matrix writing of the same. To do this, we define the column vector

$$\Psi = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi \\ \chi \end{pmatrix} \quad (17)$$

whose elements are the unknown functions that appear in the aforementioned system that we rewrite here:

$$\begin{cases} i\hbar \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 (\varphi + \chi) + mc^2 \varphi \\ i\hbar \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial t} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 (\varphi + \chi) - mc^2 \chi \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

Let's write a Schrödinger-type equation

$$\hat{X} \Psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} \quad (19)$$

where

$$\hat{X} = \begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

whose matrix elements are second-order differential operators acting on the elements of the Hilbert space  $L^2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ . Expliciting the product rows by columns, we obtain:

$$\begin{cases} X_{11}\varphi + X_{12}\chi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} \\ X_{21}\varphi + X_{22}\chi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial t} \end{cases}$$

from which

$$\begin{aligned} X_{11} &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + mc^2, & X_{12} &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \\ X_{21} &= \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2, & X_{22} &= \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 - mc^2 \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

To separate matrices by the differential operator nabla, we write

$$\hat{X} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} Y \nabla^2 + mc^2 Z,$$

where  $Y, Z$  are matrices (to be determined) of order 2 on the complex field. One possible determination is

$$Y = \tau_3 + i\tau_2, \quad Z = \tau_3$$

having introduced the matrices:

$$\tau_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \tau_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \tau_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (21)$$

which verify the following properties:

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_k^2 &= I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \tau_k \tau_l &= -\tau_l \tau_k = i\tau_m, \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad \text{in ordine ciclico} \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that the operational form of the Klein - Gordon equation is:

$$\hat{H}_f \Psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} \quad (22)$$

where the Hamiltonian operator is

$$\hat{H}_f = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (\tau_3 + i\tau_2) \nabla^2 + mc^2 \tau_3 \quad (23)$$

For a physical interpretation of the functions that make up  $\Psi$ , we take the electric charge density and the corresponding current density:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(\mathbf{x}, t) &= \frac{iq\hbar}{2mc^2} \left( \psi^* \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} - \psi \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t} \right) \\ \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{x}, t) &= \frac{q\hbar}{2im} (\psi^* \nabla \psi - \psi \nabla \psi^*) \end{aligned}$$

It follows

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \frac{iq\hbar}{2mc^2} \left[ \frac{mc^2}{i\hbar} (\varphi^* + \chi^*) (\varphi - \chi) + \frac{mc^2}{i\hbar} (\varphi + \chi) (\varphi^* - \chi^*) \right] \\ \rho &= q(\varphi\varphi^* - \chi\chi^*) \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

The obvious result

$$\begin{pmatrix} \varphi^* & \chi^* \end{pmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}}_{=\tau_3} \begin{pmatrix} \varphi \\ \chi \end{pmatrix} = \varphi\varphi^* - \chi\chi^*$$

allows us to express the charge density as

$$\rho = q\Psi^\dagger \tau_3 \Psi$$

being

$$\Psi^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi^* & \chi^* \end{pmatrix}$$

the conjugate Hermitian function of  $\Psi$ . The electric charge in a volume of physical space represented by a regular domain  $\Omega$ , is

$$Q_\Omega(t) = \int_\Omega \rho(\mathbf{x}, t) d^3x = q \int_\Omega (\varphi\varphi^* - \chi\chi^*) d^3x$$

Density and current are related by the continuity equation

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \text{div } \mathbf{j} = 0 \quad (25)$$

which expresses the conservation of electric charge. Integrating over all physical space manifestly results

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = 0, \quad (Q = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \rho d^3x) \quad (26)$$

with the normalization condition:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \rho d^3x = \pm e$$

i.e.

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \Psi^\dagger \tau_3 \Psi d^3x = \begin{cases} +1, & \text{if } +e \\ -1, & \text{if } -e \end{cases} \quad (27)$$

## 5 Free motion. Particle and antiparticle

The free motion of a particle is described by a «wave function»

$$\Psi(\mathbf{x}, t) = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi(\mathbf{x}, t) \\ \chi(\mathbf{x}, t) \end{pmatrix} \quad (28)$$

where

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x}, t) = \varphi_0 e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{x} - \varepsilon t)}; \quad \chi(\mathbf{x}, t) = \chi_0 e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{x} - \varepsilon t)} \quad (29)$$

being  $\varphi_0, \chi_0$  constant quantities. So

$$\Psi(\mathbf{x}, t) = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_0 \\ \chi_0 \end{pmatrix} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{x} - \varepsilon t)} \quad (30)$$

assuming that (30) is a solution of (22) we obtain the system of equations:

$$\begin{cases} (\varepsilon - mc^2) \varphi_0 = \frac{p^2}{2m} (\varphi_0 + \chi_0) \\ (\varepsilon + mc^2) \chi_0 = -\frac{p^2}{2m} (\varphi_0 + \chi_0) \end{cases} \quad (31)$$

It follows

$$\exists! (\varphi_0, \chi_0) \neq (0, 0) \iff \varepsilon = \pm E_P \quad \text{where } E_P = +\sqrt{m^2 c^4 + c^2 p^2}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi_{(+)}(\mathbf{x}, t) &= \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_{0(+)} \\ \chi_{0(+)} \end{pmatrix} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{x} - E_P t)} \\ \varphi_{0(+)} &= \frac{E_P + mc^2}{2\sqrt{mc^2 E_P}}, \quad \chi_{0(+)} = \frac{mc^2 - E_P}{2\sqrt{mc^2 E_P}} \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi_{(-)}(\mathbf{x}, t) &= \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_{0(-)} \\ \chi_{0(-)} \end{pmatrix} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{x} + E_P t)} \\ \varphi_{0(-)} &= \frac{E_P + mc^2}{2\sqrt{mc^2 E_P}}, \quad \chi_{0(-)} = \frac{mc^2 - E_P}{2\sqrt{mc^2 E_P}} \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

To write the normalization condition, we first observe that the constant quantities  $\varphi_0, \chi_0$  are dimensionless. Since a wave function has the dimensions of  $V^{-1/2}$  where  $V$  is a volume, we must multiply by a constant quantity  $A$  having this dimension. To normalize it is however convenient to refer to the motion in a region  $\Omega$  of volume  $V$ , so

$$\Psi_{(\pm)}(\mathbf{x}, t) = V^{-1/2} \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_{0(\pm)} \\ \chi_{0(\pm)} \end{pmatrix} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{x} \mp E_P t)} \quad (34)$$

The normalization condition immediately follows

$$\varphi_{0(\pm)} \varphi_{0(\pm)} - \chi_{0(\pm)} \chi_{0(\pm)} = \pm 1 \quad (35)$$

We refer to the motion of the positively charged particle:

$$\Psi_{(+)}(\mathbf{x}, t) = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_{0(+)} \\ \chi_{0(+)} \end{pmatrix} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{x} - E_P t)} = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_{(+)}(\mathbf{x}, t) \\ \chi_{(+)}(\mathbf{x}, t) \end{pmatrix} \quad (36)$$

So let's define

$$\begin{aligned}\Psi_c(\mathbf{x}, t) &= \begin{pmatrix} \chi_{(+)}^*(\mathbf{x}, t) \\ \varphi_{(+)}^*(\mathbf{x}, t) \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \chi_{0(+)} \\ \varphi_{0(+)} \end{pmatrix} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}[(-\mathbf{p})\cdot\mathbf{x} + E_P t]}\end{aligned}$$

so  $\Psi_c$  describes the motion of a particle with negative charge and momentum  $-\mathbf{p}$ . The reverse is also true:

$$\Psi_{(-)} = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_{(-)} \\ \chi_{(-)} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \Psi_c = \begin{pmatrix} \chi_{(-)}^* \\ \varphi_{(-)}^* \end{pmatrix} \quad (37)$$

Here  $\Psi_c$  describes the motion of a positively charged particle. We conclude that there is a solution  $\Psi = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi \\ \chi \end{pmatrix}$  the solution corresponds uniquely  $\Psi_c = \begin{pmatrix} \chi^* \\ \varphi^* \end{pmatrix}$  which is called the solution of the *conjugated charge* relative to  $\Psi$ . Note that

$$\Psi_c = \tau_1 \Psi \quad (38)$$

**Definition 1** *If the relativistic motion of a particle of mass  $m$  and spins  $= 0$  is described by the "wave function"*

$$\Psi = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi \\ \chi \end{pmatrix},$$

*the particle described by the conjugate charge function  $\Psi_c = \tau_1 \Psi$ , it's called **antiparticle**.*

**Example 2** *The meson  $\pi^-$  has zero spin and charge  $q = -e$ . It follows that the meson  $\pi^+$  is the antiparticle.*

**Definition 3** *The transformation*

$$\Psi = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi \\ \chi \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow \Psi_c = \begin{pmatrix} \chi^* \\ \varphi^* \end{pmatrix} \quad (39)$$

*is called **conjugation particle – antiparticle**. The (39) transforms particles into antiparticles and vice versa. If the state of motion is invariant with respect to (39), the particle is said to be **effectively neutral**.*

**Example 4** *The neutron and neutrino are electrically neutral particles but not actually neutral. The photon is an electrically neutral and effectively neutral particle.*

## References

- [1] Sakurai J.J., *Modern Quantum Mechanics*.
- [2] Davydov A.S., *Meccanica Quantistica*. Editori Riuniti.
- [3] Landau L. D. Lifits M.L. *Fisica Teorica 2. Teoria dei campi*. Editori Riuniti.