

Chiral Symmetry in QCD

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First recall the chiral symmetry for Dirac equation

Best to use Weyl representation of γ matrices in which γ_5 is diagonal.

$$\gamma_5 = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{I} & 0 \\ 0 & -\mathbb{I} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\sigma_i \\ \sigma_i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbb{I} \\ \mathbb{I} & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

with Dirac equation being (write $\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_R \\ \phi_L \end{pmatrix}$).

$$\left(i\gamma^0 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^0} + i\gamma^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} - \frac{mc}{\hbar} \right) \psi = 0$$

This becomes

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & i\partial_0 \\ i\partial_0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_R \\ \phi_L \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \\ i\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\nabla} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_R \\ \phi_L \end{pmatrix} = \frac{mc}{\hbar} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_R \\ \phi_L \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow i\frac{\partial}{\partial x^0} \phi_L - i\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi_L = \frac{mc}{\hbar} \phi_R$$

$$i\frac{\partial}{\partial x^0} \phi_R + i\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi_R = \frac{mc}{\hbar} \phi_L$$

Thus for $m=0$, ϕ_L and ϕ_R are decoupled.

We see that when $m=0$ then the equations for ϕ_R and ϕ_L are completely decoupled.

These are known as Weyl equations for massless spin- $1/2$ particles.

In the Weyl representation we can write:

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_R \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \phi_L \end{pmatrix}$$

[Each ϕ_R and ϕ_L are 2-component spinors].

$$\text{or, } \psi = \frac{(1+\gamma_5)}{2} \psi + \frac{(1-\gamma_5)}{2} \psi$$

Thus, $\frac{(1 \pm \gamma_5)}{2} \psi$ respectively pick up ϕ_R and ϕ_L . These are known as chiral projection of ψ .

In Pauli representation of Dirac matrices:

$$\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{I} & 0 \\ 0 & -\mathbb{I} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \gamma^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^i \\ -\sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma^5 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbb{I} \\ \mathbb{I} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

By writing $\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_A \\ \psi_B \end{pmatrix}$, Dirac equation becomes,

$$(i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m) \psi = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x^0} \psi_A = -i \hbar \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \psi_B + m c \psi_A$$

$$\text{and } i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x^0} \psi_B = -i \hbar \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \psi_A - m c \psi_B$$

Note even with $m=0$, eqn. for ψ_A and ψ_B do not decouple. However, one can define.

$$\phi_R = \frac{1}{2} \cdot (\psi_A + \psi_B) \quad \text{and} \quad \phi_L = \frac{1}{2} \cdot (\psi_A - \psi_B)$$

Then ϕ_L and ϕ_R satisfy the same equation as alone for Weyl. representation.

Note: Even in the Pauli representation with $\gamma^5 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbb{I} \\ \mathbb{I} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{1+\gamma^5}{2} \right) \begin{pmatrix} \psi_A \\ \psi_B \end{pmatrix} &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{I} & \mathbb{I} \\ \mathbb{I} & \mathbb{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \psi_A \\ \psi_B \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \psi_A + \psi_B \\ \psi_A + \psi_B \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \phi_R \\ \phi_R \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\left(\frac{1-\gamma_5}{2}\right) \begin{pmatrix} \psi_A \\ \psi_B \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} I & -I \\ -I & I \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \psi_A \\ \psi_B \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \psi_A - \psi_B \\ -\psi_A + \psi_B \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_L \\ -\phi_L \end{pmatrix}$$

So, $\frac{1 \pm \gamma_5}{2}$ still projects out ϕ_R and ϕ_L .

Further note that for $m=0$ case Dirac equation becomes:

$$i \gamma^\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \psi = 0$$

If we multiply this equation on the left by γ_5 , we get,

$$i \gamma_5 \gamma^\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \psi = 0 \quad (\{\gamma_\mu, \gamma_5\} = 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow -i \gamma^\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \cdot \gamma_5 \psi = 0$$

$\Rightarrow \gamma_5 \psi$ is a solution of the Dirac equation. Note that this is not true when $m \neq 0$

$$\left(i \gamma^\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} - \frac{mc}{\hbar} \right) \psi = 0$$

$\gamma_5 \times \dots$

$$\Rightarrow \left[-i \gamma^\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \cdot \gamma_5 \psi - \frac{mc}{\hbar} \gamma_5 \right] \psi = 0$$

This is not the same as the Dirac equation for $\gamma_5 \psi$.

Thus for massless case Dirac equation is invariant under the transformation:

$$\psi \rightarrow \gamma_5 \psi$$

This is known as chiral transformation.

Let us understand physical meaning of ϕ_L and ϕ_R

Consider Weyl equation for ϕ_L :

$$i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^0} \phi_L - i \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi_L = 0$$

The plane wave solution of this can be written as,

$$\phi_L(x) = \omega(p) e^{i/k (\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x} - Et)}$$

where, $\omega(p)$ is a 2-component spinor which satisfy the following equation ($x^0 = ct$)

$$\left(\frac{E}{c} + \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p} \right) \omega(p) = 0$$

(By using above solution in the Weyl equation for ϕ_L).

$$\text{or, } \frac{E}{c} \omega(p) = - \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p} \omega(p)$$

Non trivial solutions of this equation exists only when

$$E^2 = p^2 c^2$$

(Square both sides to get $\frac{E^2}{c^2} \omega(p) = p^2 \omega(p)$)

Thus, these are two solutions, one corresponding to possible energy $E = c|p|$ and the other to negative energy $E = -c|p|$.

Note: $\frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{|\vec{p}|} \omega(p) = -\frac{E}{c|\vec{p}|} \omega(p)$

Recall: $\vec{\Sigma} \cdot \hat{p} = \frac{\vec{\Sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{|\vec{p}|}$ is the Helicity operator

where $\vec{\Sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_k & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_k \end{pmatrix}$

Acting on the two component spinors $\omega(p)$, it reduces to $\frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{|\vec{p}|}$.

This gives spin projection along \hat{p} . The operator $\vec{\Sigma} \cdot \hat{p}$ commutes with the free particle Hamiltonian and hence can be simultaneously diagonalized.

The eigenvalues of helicity operator are +1 and -1, which are referred to, respectively, as the right handed state (spin parallel to motion) and the left handed state (spin opposite to motion).

The equation:

$$\frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{|\vec{p}|} \omega(p) = -\frac{E}{c|\vec{p}|} \cdot \omega(p)$$

implies that for positive energy solutions ($E = c|\vec{p}|$), the helicity is negative (i.e. $\omega(p)$ is eigen function of the helicity operator $\frac{\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{|\vec{p}|}$ with eigen value = -1), while

$$\Sigma_3 = \frac{1}{2} (\gamma_1 \gamma_2 - \gamma_2 \gamma_1) \equiv \sigma_{12}$$

$$\sigma_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} [\gamma_\mu, \gamma_\nu]$$

Under Lorentz transformation $x'^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu x^\nu$

We have,

$$\psi'(x') = S(\Lambda) \psi(x)$$

$$S(\Lambda) = e^{-\frac{i}{4} (\sigma_{\mu\nu} \omega^{\mu\nu})}$$

$\frac{\Sigma_3}{2}$ is the infinitesimal generator of a rotation about the z-axis acting as the space-time independent part of the Dirac wave function.

for the negative energy states ($E = -c|\vec{p}|$), the helicity is positive.

Thus if we deal with a zero mass spin $1/2$ particle then ϕ_L describes a particle (with positive energy) which is left handed (negative helicity), while it describes a particle with negative energy which is right handed (positive helicity).

Using the hole theory interpretation of negative energy particles, a negative energy particle is related to an antiparticle.

Thus from equation for ϕ_L we get that particle is left handed while the antiparticle is right handed.

This is true for particles which satisfy 2-component Weyl equation for $\phi_L(x)$ or equivalently, satisfy the Dirac equ. for the positive chiral projection ~~$\frac{1+\gamma_5}{2}\psi(x)$~~
 $\frac{1}{2}(1-\gamma_5)\psi(x)$.

Similarly, one can check that the wave function ϕ_R , or equivalently $\frac{1+\gamma_5}{2}\psi(x)$ describes a right handed particle and a left handed antiparticle.

We ~~know~~ know that neutrino may be massless. If $m_\nu = 0$, then neutrino can be described by Weyl equ. A theory of neutrino based on $\phi_L \neq 0$, $\phi_R = 0$ is called the two component theory of neutrino. Experiments ^{show} that neutrino is left handed while antineutrino is right handed.

Chirality and helicity

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Note: Dirac equation for massless case:

$$(i\gamma^0 \frac{\partial}{\partial x^0} + i\gamma^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}) \psi = 0$$

using plane wave solution $\psi \sim \psi(p) e^{i/2 (\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x} - Et)}$
we get:

$$(\gamma^0 \frac{E}{c} - \gamma^i p_i) \psi(p) = 0$$

Multiply this by $\gamma^5 \gamma^0 = i\gamma^0 \gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^3 \gamma^0 = -i\gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^3$
we get (using $\gamma^0{}^2 = 1$)

$$(\gamma^5 \gamma^0{}^2 \frac{E}{c} - \gamma^5 \gamma^0 \gamma^i p_i) \psi = 0$$

$$\text{or, } \gamma^5 \frac{E}{c} \psi = \gamma^5 \gamma^0 \gamma^i p_i \psi \quad [\text{recall: } \{\gamma^\mu, \gamma^\nu\} = 2\eta^{\mu\nu}]$$

Now, $\gamma^5 \gamma^0 = -i\gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^3$, so

$$\gamma^5 \gamma^0 \gamma^i p_i = -i\gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^3 \gamma^i p_i$$

$$= -i\gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^3 (\gamma^1 p_1 + \gamma^2 p_2 + \gamma^3 p_3) \quad (\gamma^i{}^2 = -1)$$

$$= i\gamma^2 \gamma^3 p_1 - i\gamma^1 \gamma^3 p_2 + i\gamma^1 \gamma^2 p_3$$

We have: $\Sigma_3 = \frac{i}{2} (\gamma_1 \gamma_2 - \gamma_2 \gamma_1)$ and cyclic permutation

since $\gamma_1 \gamma_2 = -\gamma_2 \gamma_1$ we have $\Sigma_3 = i\gamma_1 \gamma_2$, so

$$\gamma^5 \gamma^0 \gamma^i p_i = \Sigma_1 p_1 + \Sigma_2 p_2 + \Sigma_3 p_3 = \vec{\Sigma} \cdot \vec{p}$$

so we get, $\gamma^5 \frac{E}{c} \psi = \vec{\Sigma} \cdot \vec{p} \psi$

For massless case we have $E = |\vec{p}|c$, so we get:

$$\boxed{\frac{\vec{\Sigma} \cdot \vec{p}}{|\vec{p}|} \psi = \gamma^5 \psi}$$

Therefore, the chirality equals the helicity (For negative energy solution it is opposite). In particular, eigen spinors of $\vec{\Sigma} \cdot \hat{p}$ are also eigen spinors of γ^5 with same eigenvalue (for positive energy solution). Thus $(1 - \gamma^5)$ acting on the free particle spinors for a right handed particle gives zero, while $(1 + \gamma^5)$ gives zero ~~on~~ a left handed particle.

γ^5 transformation ~~on~~ on ψ basically means

$$\gamma^5 \begin{pmatrix} \phi_R \\ \phi_L \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \phi_R \\ -\phi_L \end{pmatrix}$$

Invariance of the Dirac equ. under this transformation holds only when $m = 0$.

Basically chiral symmetry means that ϕ_R and ϕ_L can be transformed independently.

chiral symmetry in QCD

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Fermionic (quark) part of the QCD Lagrangian is,

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{\alpha} \bar{\Psi}_{\alpha} (i\gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu} - m_{\alpha}) \Psi_{\alpha}$$

where $\alpha = u, d, c, s, t, b$ is the flavour index.

$$\partial_{\mu} \Psi_{\alpha} = \left(\partial_{\mu} - ig_s \frac{\lambda^a}{2} \cdot A_{\mu}^a \right) \Psi_{\alpha}$$

Now, $m_u, m_d \sim 5-10 \text{ MeV}$

and, $m_s \sim 200 \text{ MeV}$

$m_c \sim 1.3 \text{ GeV}$ and $m_t, m_b > m_c$

Thus in comparison to the QCD scale of $\Lambda_{\text{QCD}} \sim 200 \text{ MeV}$, m_u, m_d are negligible.

One can approximate $m_u \simeq m_d \simeq 0$.

To some (poor) approximation, one may also neglect m_s , taking $m_s \simeq 0$.

First we take $m_u \simeq m_d \simeq 0$,

Then,

$$\mathcal{L} = \bar{\Psi} (i\gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu}) \Psi + \sum_{\beta} \bar{\Psi}_{\beta} (i\gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu} - m_{\beta}) \Psi_{\beta}$$

where $\Psi = \begin{pmatrix} \Psi_u \\ \Psi_d \end{pmatrix}$, $\bar{\Psi} = (\bar{\Psi}_u \quad \bar{\Psi}_d)$

and, $\beta = s, c, t, b$

For each ψ_u and ψ_d we can define,

$$\psi_L = \frac{1-\gamma_5}{2} \psi \quad \text{and} \quad \psi_R = \frac{1+\gamma_5}{2} \psi.$$

Then u, d part of QCD Lagrangian can be written as:
(γ_5 is Hermitian)

$$\mathcal{L}_{u,d} = \bar{\psi}_L (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu) \psi_L + \bar{\psi}_R (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu) \psi_R$$

$$\left(\bar{\psi}_L = \psi_L^\dagger \gamma^0 = \psi^\dagger \left(\frac{1-\gamma_5}{2} \right) \gamma^0 = \bar{\psi} \left(\frac{1+\gamma_5}{2} \right) \right)$$

$$= \bar{\psi} \left(\frac{1+\gamma_5}{2} \right) (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu) \left(\frac{1-\gamma_5}{2} \right) \psi + \bar{\psi} \left(\frac{1-\gamma_5}{2} \right) (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu) \left(\frac{1+\gamma_5}{2} \right) \psi$$

$$= \frac{\bar{\psi}}{4} \cdot \left[(1+\gamma_5)(1+\gamma_5) i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi \right] + \bar{\psi} (1-\gamma_5)(1-\gamma_5) i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \bar{\psi} \left[1 + \gamma_5^2 + 2\gamma_5 + 1 + \gamma_5^2 - 2\gamma_5 \right] i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi$$

$$= \bar{\psi} i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi.$$

Thus ψ_L and ψ_R are completely decoupled (as came same earlier with Dirac equation)

Note: with mass term this does not happen:

$$m\bar{\psi}\psi = m\bar{\psi}_R\psi_L + m\bar{\psi}_L\psi_R$$

Thus mass term couples ψ_R and ψ_L .

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\Psi}_R \Psi_L + \bar{\Psi}_L \Psi_R &= \bar{\Psi} \left(\frac{1-\gamma_5}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1-\gamma_5}{2} \right) \Psi + \bar{\Psi} \left(\frac{1+\gamma_5}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1+\gamma_5}{2} \right) \Psi \\ &= \frac{\bar{\Psi}}{4} \left[1 + \gamma_5^2 - 2\gamma_5 + 1 + \gamma_5^2 + 2\gamma_5 \right] \Psi \\ &= \bar{\Psi} \Psi. \end{aligned}$$

$m\bar{\Psi}\Psi$ term Breaks this chiral symmetry.

so,

$$\mathcal{L}_{ud} = \bar{\Psi}_L i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi_L + \bar{\Psi}_R i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi_R$$

where, $\Psi_L = \begin{pmatrix} u_L \\ d_L \end{pmatrix}$ and $\Psi_R = \begin{pmatrix} u_R \\ d_R \end{pmatrix}$.

This Lagrangian is clearly invariant under separate Unitary transformation on Ψ_L and Ψ_R .

In the absence of mass term $m\bar{\Psi}\Psi = m\bar{\Psi}_R\Psi_L + m\bar{\Psi}_L\Psi_R$

That is \mathcal{L}_{ud} and hence total \mathcal{L}_{QCD} has the symmetry of the group $SU(2) \times SU(2) \equiv SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R$. Under which the quark field transforms as,

$$\Psi_L \rightarrow \Psi_L' = U_L \Psi_L \text{ and, } \Psi_R \rightarrow \Psi_R' = U_R \Psi_R$$

where, $U_L \in SU(2)_L$

and, $U_R \in SU(2)_R$

Note: These are global transformations.

These are chiral transformations, as Ψ_L and Ψ_R are transformed independently.

Other way of looking at chiral transformation is to take:

$$\mathcal{L}_{ud} = \bar{\Psi} i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi, \quad \Psi = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix}$$

\mathcal{L} is invariant under $SU(2)_V$ transformation

$$\Psi \rightarrow \Psi' = U \Psi \quad U = e^{i \vec{\theta} \cdot \vec{\tau} / 2}$$

\mathcal{L} is also invariant under $SU(2)_A$ transformation

$$\Psi \rightarrow \Psi' = U_5 \Psi \quad \text{where } U_5 = e^{i \vec{\theta} \cdot \vec{\tau} / 2 \gamma_5}$$

$$\bar{\Psi} = \Psi^\dagger \gamma^0 \rightarrow \bar{\Psi}' = \Psi'^\dagger \gamma^0$$

$$= \Psi^\dagger e^{-i \vec{\theta} \cdot \vec{\tau} / 2 \gamma_5} \gamma^0 = \bar{\Psi} e^{i \vec{\theta} \cdot \vec{\tau} / 2 \gamma_5}$$

$$\text{So, } \bar{\Psi} i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi \rightarrow \bar{\Psi}' i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi'$$

$$= \bar{\Psi} e^{i \vec{\theta} \cdot \vec{\tau} / 2 \gamma_5} e^{-i \vec{\theta} \cdot \vec{\tau} / 2 \gamma_5} (i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu) \Psi$$

$$= \bar{\Psi} i \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \Psi$$

Let us go back to the $SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R$ form of the symmetry ~~of~~ of \mathcal{L}_{QCD} .

Recall: $SU(2)$ (or $SU(3)$) isospin symmetry of hadrons

(by taking $m_u \simeq m_d$, or $m_u \simeq m_d \simeq m_s$ for $SU(3)$ case).

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This had implied that hadrons should form multiplet structure of $SU(2)$, or $SU(3)$.

Symmetry of a Theory and multiplet structure:

Let U be an element of the symmetry group which leaves the Hamiltonian H invariant. Then,

$$UHU^\dagger = H$$

U connects states that form an irreducible representation (Basis) of the group.

for if $U|A\rangle = |B\rangle$ then,

$$\begin{aligned} E_A &= \langle A | H | A \rangle \\ &= \langle A | U^\dagger H U | A \rangle \\ &= \langle B | H | B \rangle = E_B \end{aligned}$$

Thus $|A\rangle$ and $|B\rangle$ are degenerate.

Thus the symmetry of the Hamiltonian H is manifest in the degeneracies of the energy eigenstates corresponding to the irreducible representation of the symmetry group.

==== Rotation group and angular momentum states
($m = -l, \dots, l$)

Recall: for $SU(2)$ Isospin symmetry, 3 pions formed isospin 1 multiplet structure. Similarly, we had Eightfold way of $SU(3)$ Isospin multiplet structure ~~because~~ because QCD Lagrangian with approximation $m_u = m_d = m_s$ has $SU(3)$ global Isospin symmetry. =

Get Back to the case when we have assumed $m_u \approx m_d \approx 0$ leading to $SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R$ symmetry of \mathcal{L}_{QCD} .

This implies that the hadronic spectrum should show multiplet structure corresponding to $SU(2) \times SU(2)$ (L, R will correspond to parity doublets).

\Rightarrow corresponding to 3 pions (isospin-1 representation of $SU(2)$) there should be a partner multiplet (with opposite parity (intrinsic parity)). Clearly there is no such multiplet in hadronic spectrum.

Similarly, if we were considering $SU(3)_L \times SU(3)_R$ case (by assuming $m_u \approx m_d \approx m_s = 0$) then for every hadron multiplet, say for octet and decuplet of baryon there should be partner multiplets.

There is simply no evidence for such doubling of multiplets.

Note: This problem cannot be solved by taking non zero m_u, m_d, m_s etc. (say, by saying that the symmetry is broken anyway). This is because ~~even~~ even for $SU(2)$ and $SU(3)$ isospin case, non zero or non equal masses mean that degeneracy is not strict.

But for small violation of the symmetry

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compared to the relevant scale; i.e. QCD scale, approximate multiplet structure should be visible.

This is exactly how hadron ~~was~~ spectrum were classified according to $SU(2)$ and $SU(3)$ isospin while no two hadrons were strictly degenerate (apart from particle-antiparticle case). So how do we solve this puzzle?

let us reconsider the argument for multiplet structure:

$$U H U^\dagger = H \Rightarrow$$

using $U|A\rangle = |B\rangle$ we get

$$E_A = \langle A | H | A \rangle = \langle A | U H U^\dagger | A \rangle = \langle B | H | B \rangle = E_B$$

=

However, in the above arguments we have implicitly assumed the following:

Now, $|A\rangle$ and $|B\rangle$ must be related to the ground state (vacuum) $|0\rangle$ through some appropriate creation operators ϕ_A and ϕ_B i.e.

$$|A\rangle = \phi_A |0\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad |B\rangle = \phi_B |0\rangle$$

$$\text{and, } U \phi_A U^\dagger = \phi_B$$

$$\text{Then, } U|A\rangle = |B\rangle \Rightarrow$$

$$U \phi_A |0\rangle = \phi_B |0\rangle \Rightarrow$$

$$U \phi_A U^\dagger U |0\rangle = \phi_B |0\rangle$$

[This symmetry structure of operators translates to the symmetry structure of states only if the ground state $|0\rangle$ is invariant under the symmetry transformation]

Note: starting point is the symmetry of the Hamiltonian i.e.

$$U H U^\dagger = H]$$

[symmetry transformation U acts on operator ϕ_A and ϕ_B transforming them to each other i.e. .

$$U \phi_A U^\dagger = \phi_B]$$

with this, we get $U|A\rangle = |B\rangle$

~~and~~. only if $U|0\rangle = |0\rangle$

~~Thus~~ Thus only when the vacuum of the theory $|0\rangle$ is invariant under the symmetry transformation, then only the argument for the degenerate multiplets can be carried through.

When vacuum $|0\rangle$ is not invariant under the symmetry transformation then even if the Hamiltonian H is invariant under the symmetry, the spectrum of H need not show the multiplet structure corresponding to irrep. of the symmetry group.

This brings ^{us} to the notion of spontaneous symmetry breaking. When a symmetry of the theory (i.e. L or H) is not respected by the ground state then that symmetry is said to be spontaneously broken.

If \mathcal{L} or \mathcal{H} is invariant under a symmetry G and the vacuum of the theory is not invariant under full G , but invariant only under a subgroup $K \subset G$. Then one says that symmetry G of the theory is spontaneously broken to K .

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All this suggest the solution of our problem with the chiral symmetry of QCD Lagrangian.

\mathcal{L}_{QCD} was invariant under $SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R$. But multiplet structure of $SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R$ is not seen in nature. This can be explained by saying that the vacuum of QCD (full quantum vacuum) is not invariant the chiral symmetry $SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R$.

However, we do see the multiplet structure of $SU(2)$ isospin in nature (say pion being isospin 1 multiplet). Thus vacuum of QCD must be invariant under $SU(2)$ isospin global symmetry.

All this implies that in QCD, $SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R$ chiral symmetry is spontaneously broken to the $SU(2)$ isospin subgroup.

→ ⇒ Goldstone bosons: which are pions.

similarly for $SU(3)$ case we conclude that (with $m_u \cong m_d \cong m_s = 0$) in QCD, $SU(3)_L \times SU(3)_R$ chiral symmetry is spontaneously broken to the $SU(3)$ isospin subgroup.

Spontaneous Symmetry Breaking:

Consider SSB of a $U(1)$ symmetry:

$$\mathcal{L} = \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi^* - m^2 \phi^* \phi - \lambda (\phi^* \phi)^2$$

$$\rightarrow \propto (|\phi|^2 - a^2)^2$$

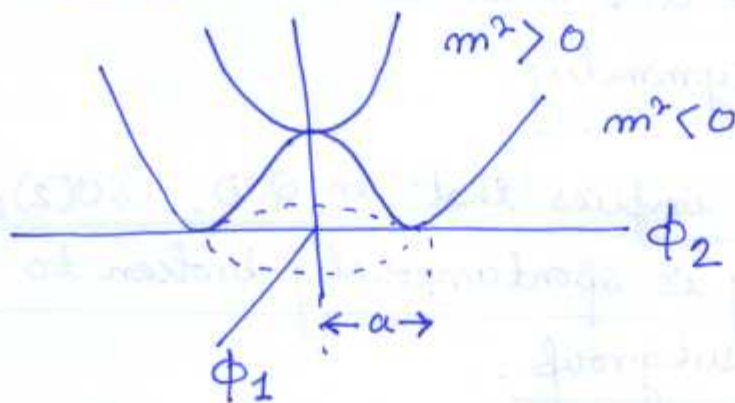
(can write in this form.)

$$= \partial_\mu \phi \partial^\mu \phi^* - v(|\phi|)$$

\mathcal{L} is invariant under $U(1)$ transformation

$$\phi \rightarrow \phi' = e^{i\alpha} \phi$$

consider $v(\phi)$ for two case $m^2 > 0$ and $m^2 < 0$



$$\phi = \phi_1 + i\phi_2$$

one can define two different fields ρ and θ where,

$$\phi(x) = \rho(x) e^{i\theta(x)}$$

when $m^2 > 0$ then this transformation is not well defined for the vacuum state

$$\rho(x) = 0$$

Note: particle spectrum is identified by considering oscillations around a stable (at least locally) minimum of $V(\phi)$. ~~for $m^2 > 0$, the minimum of $V(\phi)$ occurs at $\rho = 0$ where $\theta(x)$ is not defined.~~ So $\rho(x)$ and $\theta(x)$ are not good variables to use for $m^2 > 0$ case. There we deal with ϕ, ϕ^* or ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 .

for $m^2 < 0$ case, we see that $\phi = 0$ point is unstable, so there are no plane wave excitations around $\phi = 0$.

$\phi = \phi_0 \exp^{ip \cdot x}$ not possible around $\phi = 0$. In fact near $\phi = 0$, we will have exponentially growing modes $\phi = \phi_0 e^{\pm \alpha x}$

So, one needs to consider the new vacuum at $|\phi| = a$ and consider fluctuation around $|\phi| = a$ to define the particle spectra.

We need a well defined vacuum state: we define it by $\langle 0 | \phi | 0 \rangle = a$

or just $\phi = a$

So, $\phi_1 = a$
 $\phi_2 = 0$ being a choice.

Now note: For $m^2 > 0$ case

$\phi = 0$ is invariant under $\phi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} \phi$ which is the $U(1)$ symmetry of \mathcal{L} . So for $m^2 > 0$, the vacuum is also invariant under $U(1)$ and $U(1)$ symmetry is not spontaneously broken.

However for $m^2 < 0$ case, $\phi = a$ is not invariant under $U(1)$ transformation.

$\phi = a \rightarrow \phi' = e^{i\alpha} a \neq a$. Thus for $m^2 < 0$ case $U(1)$ symmetry is spontaneously broken down to 1 element only $\mathbb{1} \subset U(1)$ leaves $\phi = a$ invariant. We denote it by

$$\begin{array}{ccc} U(1) & & G \\ \downarrow & & \\ \mathbb{1} & & K \quad (K \subset G) \end{array}$$

The possible spectrum:

For $m^2 > 0$ case we have two particles ϕ and ϕ^* (or equivalently ϕ_1 and ϕ_2) each with mass m .

This can be seen by considering $\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \phi^2} = m$.

Basically we ~~we~~ look for ϕ^2 term.

Now, for $m^2 < 0$ case we need to consider fluctuation around $\phi = a$ vacuum.

(11)

To see the particle spectrum clearly, let us consider $\rho(x)$ and $\theta(x)$ variables, $\phi(x) = \rho(x) e^{i\theta(x)}$

To expand around $\phi(x) = a$ means consider new fields $\rho'(x) = \rho(x) - a$ and $\theta'(x) = \theta(x)$.

then,
$$\mathcal{L} = (\partial_\mu \rho')^2 + (a + \rho')^2 (\partial_\mu \theta')^2 - V(\rho' + a)$$

$$V(\rho' + a) = m^2 \rho'^2 + \dots$$

Note θ' field appear only as $(\partial_\mu \theta')^2$, so there is no term like θ'^2 .

Thus θ is a massless field, though ρ' has mass m .

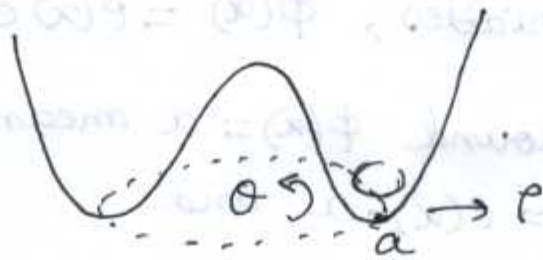
Note: originally there were two real scalars: ϕ and ϕ^* (or ϕ_1 and ϕ_2) both massive.

But due to SSB of $U(1)$ symmetry we have one massless field.

$\theta(x)$ is called a Goldstone boson. There is general theorem: Goldstone theorem.

If a ~~continuous~~ continuous symmetry G of Lagrangian is spontaneously broken to a subgroup K , then number of massless scalar fields will appear = no. of broken generators.

It is easy to understand this result as, for $U(1)$ case:



(Note) oscillation around P direction have nonzero value of curvature of V , $\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial P^2} \neq 0$ hence P is ~~massless~~ massive.

However, around θ direction V is constant due to symmetry of \mathcal{L} have ~~curvature~~ $\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \theta^2} = 0$.

Similarly, for arbitrary G and K , If we choose a vacuum state ϕ_0 s.t. $g\phi_0 \neq \phi_0$ unless $g \in K$ (i.e. G is spontaneously broken to K).

Then $\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \phi^2} = 0$ if we consider fluctuation around those directions which we obtained by

$$\phi' - \phi_0 \equiv \delta\phi = i T^a \epsilon^a \phi.$$

where T^a are generators of G . Now if T^a belong to K then $\delta\phi = 0$ itself due to remaining symmetry of the ground state ϕ_0 .

However, if $T^a \in G$ such that $T^a \notin K$

then $\delta\phi \neq 0$. So we can consider fluctuations around these directions. However,

$\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \phi^2} = 0$ along these directions since $\delta\phi$ is a symmetry transformation. So these fluctuations have $m = 0$.

This no. of massless fields = numbers of broken generators.

Note: For this, we should have number of original scalar fields \equiv number of generator of the group. This must be true as given a field ϕ' we can always get a new field $\phi'' = g\phi'$, $g \in G$.

one word of Caution:

So far we have been ~~discussing~~ ^{discussing} using original Lagrangian, essentially using classical field.

This whole discussion of true vacuum has to be done by including all quantum correction.

Recall: quantum correction were discussed when we discussed renormalization, using 1PI diagram and vertex function Γ^n .

The generating functional for Γ^n includes all quantum ~~corro~~ corrections.

Recall generating functional,

$$Z[J] = \int \mathcal{D}\phi e^{i \int (\mathcal{L}(\phi) + J\phi) dx}$$

From that we define generating functional for connected Green's function.

$$e^{i\mathcal{W}[J]} = Z[J] = \langle 0^+ | 0^- \rangle_J$$

The generating functional for vertex function Γ^n is defined as (for detailed ^{discussion} Stone's Book)

$$\Gamma(\phi_c) = \mathcal{W}[J] - \int d^4x J(x) \phi_c(x)$$

$$\text{where, } \phi_c(x) = \frac{\delta \mathcal{W}}{\delta J(x)} = \left[\frac{\langle 0^+ | \phi(x) | 0^- \rangle}{\langle 0^+ | 0^- \rangle} \right]_J.$$

$\Gamma(\phi_c)$ is called the effective action.

Since it is generating functional for vertex function Γ^n we have the expansion.

$$\Gamma = \sum_n \frac{1}{n!} \int d^4x_1 \dots d^4x_n \Gamma^n(x_1 \dots x_n) \phi_c(x_1) \dots \phi_c(x_n)$$

↑
PI of Green's function.

one can also expand Γ as

$$\Gamma = \int d^4x \left[-V(\phi_c) + \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \phi_c)^2 Z(\phi_c) + \dots \right]$$

$V(\phi_c)$ is called the effective potential. It is an ordinary function of ϕ_c (and ~~not~~ not a functional).

$V(\phi_c)$ in tree approximation is just the original $V(\phi)$ appearing in the Lagrangian.

$V(\phi_c)$ includes all quantum correction, so gives the true ground state.

We will discuss the effective potential in detail later.



Get back to chiral symmetry in QCD.

We had ~~concluded~~ concluded that for u, d in QCD $SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R$ symmetry is spontaneously broken to $SU(2)$ isospin symmetry.

From Goldstone theorem: no. of massless fields
 $=$ no. of broken ~~generators~~ generators.

$$= 3 + 3 - 3 = 3.$$

So, for u, d case, we conclude, that there should be 3 massless Goldstone bosons.

So if ~~one~~ one solve problem of partner multiplets, one calculate there should be massless particles.

Interestingly there are exactly 3 pions which are unusually light compared to QCD scale of 200 MeV. $m_H \sim 140$ MeV

all other hadron have mass > 500 MeV etc.

Pions are not massless, though they are very light.

In fact their non-zero mass can be understood in term of explicit breaking of chiral symmetry due to non-zero u, d quark masses. (Recall exact chiral symmetry is only in the limit $m_u = m_d = 0$).

Similarly for 3 flavour case in QCD
 $SU(3)_L \times SU(3)_R$ symmetry is SSB to $SU(3)$ isospin.

No. of massless scalar = $8 + 8 - 8 = 8$

There are eight ~~mesons~~ mesons which are again light (including pions, kaons etc.).

Note: $SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R$ can be taken as ~~isospin~~

~~$SU(2)_L \times SU(2)_R$~~ transformation
 $SU(2)_V \times SU(2)_A$

\downarrow
 $e^{i\tau^a/2 \theta^a}$ \downarrow
 $e^{i\tau^a/2 \theta^a \gamma_5}$

\downarrow
this symmetry survives SSB so the axial symmetry is broken that means pions are not invariant under chiral transformation. Parity transformation changes -chirality, so pions are spinless but not invariant under parity transformation. So they are pseudoscalar. Similarly for $SU(3) \times SU(3)$ case ~~one~~ one gets pseudoscalar.

Symmetry restoration: $v(\phi)$ at finite T.

$$v(\phi) = -\frac{1}{2} m^2 |\phi|^2 + \lambda |\phi|^4 + \alpha \lambda T^2 |\phi|^2$$

s.t. for $T > T_c$ $(-\frac{m^2}{2} + 2\alpha T^2) > 0$ and $U(1)$ symmetry restored.