Beyond the gauge principle

Sunil Mukhi Tata Institute of Fundamental Research

Subhashis Nag Memorial Endowment Lecture, IMSc Chennai, January 21, 2011

Outline

Introduction

- Gauge symmetry in non-relativistic physics
- Gauge symmetry in relativistic physics
- Local Lorentz symmetry
- Yang-Mills gauge symmetry
- Supergravity: a new gauge principle

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- String theory
- 3-algebras
- Conclusions

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Vladimir Fock (1926)



Fritz London (1928)

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- These equations were based on the principle of general relativity which basically asserts that the laws of nature take the same form in any choice of space-time coordinates.
- This principle can in fact be re-cast as a type of gauge invariance.



Hermann Weyl (1918)





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▶ In 1955, shortly before his death, Weyl wrote:

[I attempted] to attain this goal by a new principle which I called gauge invariance (Eichinvarianz). This attempt has failed.

There holds, as we now know, a principle of gauge invariance in nature; but it does not connect the electromagnetic potentials $\phi_{\mu\nu}$, as I had assumed, with Einstein's gravitational potentials $g_{\mu\nu}$, but ties them to the four components of the wave field ... which ... represent the electron.



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► However, Weyl's nomenclature "gauge invariance" survived.

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Thus, the gauge principle governs all the basic interactions observed in nature. This is experimentally verified beyond a shadow of doubt.

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Notice that these are invariant under the transformations:

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This is the simplified form of gauge transformations in a situation where only electromagnetism (and no matter) is present. Now suppose a particle of mass m and electric charge e propagates in an electromagnetic field. Experimentally we know it obeys the Lorentz force law:

$$m\ddot{\vec{x}} = e\,\dot{\vec{x}} \times \vec{B} + e\vec{E}$$

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In quantum mechanics the above equation should take the form of Heisenberg's equation of motion:

$$\frac{dO}{dt} = \frac{i}{\hbar}[H,O] + \frac{\partial O}{\partial t}$$

where $O = m\dot{\vec{x}}$ and H is some Hamiltonian operator.

• A simple calculation tells us that the Hamiltonian must be:

$$H = \frac{1}{2m} \left[\vec{p} - e\vec{A}(\vec{x}) \right]^2 + e\phi(\vec{x})$$

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where $\vec{p} = -i\hbar \vec{\nabla}$.

The observation of Fock and London amounts to saying that this equation is invariant under:

$$\psi \to e^{-i\frac{e}{\hbar}\lambda(\vec{x},t)}\psi, \quad \vec{A} \to \vec{A} - \vec{\nabla}\lambda, \quad \phi \to \phi + \dot{\lambda}$$

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for an arbitrary function λ . This now is the full gauge transformation and we see that it includes a phase multiplication on the wave-function.

Let's examine what this invariance means.

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- Geometrically, a phase multiplying a (complex) wave function just rotates it in the complex plane:

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- A gauge transformation performs this rotation independently at each point of space and time. Therefore it is also called a local symmetry transformation.
- One should keep in mind that the rotation is not in real space but in "internal space" in which the wave function is valued.

► Notice that ψ(x,t) can always be multiplied by a constant phase without changing anything.

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- So gauge invariance is interesting only when the phase is non-constant.
- In this case, the derivatives acting on ψ would bring down extra factors. The transformation of (\vec{A}, ϕ) just cancels these factors.
- ► Without the electromagnetic field (*A*, φ) we could not possibly have gauge invariance! Conversely, imposing gauge invariance on matter fields requires the electromagnetic field to exist.

All configurations related by gauge transformations are supposed to describe the same physical situation:

 $(\psi,\vec{A},\phi) \to (\psi',\vec{A'},\phi')$

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 Therefore gauge symmetry is not really a symmetry but a redundancy. All configurations related by gauge transformations are supposed to describe the same physical situation:

$$(\psi, \vec{A}, \phi) \rightarrow (\psi', \vec{A'}, \phi')$$

- Therefore gauge symmetry is not really a symmetry but a redundancy.
- In non-relativistic physics gauge symmetry is just an elegant property, but as we will soon see, in relativistic physics it is crucial for consistency and has predictive power.

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An example observed in nature:

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An example observed in nature:



Gauge transformation being performed on a coach of the trans-Siberian railway

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Gauge symmetry in relativistic physics

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- The electromagnetic potentials (*A*, φ) also combine into a quantum field A_μ that creates and destroys photons.
- ► The photons created by A_µ would have four polarisations, one for each µ = 0, 1, 2, 3. This flatly contradicts experiment! It also contradicts unitarity because the state:

 $|\mu\rangle \sim A_{\mu}|0\rangle$

must, by Lorentz invariance, satisfy:

 $\langle \mu |
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angle \sim \eta_{\mu
u}$ (Minkowski metric)

and therefore some components have a negative norm.

$$A_{\mu}$$
 and $A_{\mu} - rac{\partial \lambda}{\partial x^{\mu}}$

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Indeed the electric and magnetic fields, encoded in:

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One can show that gauge invariance removes two polarisations of the photon, including the one which would have had a negative norm.

$$A_{\mu}$$
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are the same physical configuration.

Indeed the electric and magnetic fields, encoded in:

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- One can show that gauge invariance removes two polarisations of the photon, including the one which would have had a negative norm.
- As a result we are in agreement with experiment, as well as with positivity of probabilities.
- It is curious that gauge symmetry requires the photon to exist in the first place, thereby creating a potential problem with unitarity, and then solves that same problem!

In mathematics, the gauge principle is related to connections on vector bundles.



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The statement of gauge invariance becomes a statement about cohomology. So it would not be wrong to say the photon has two polarisations rather than four because it is a cohomology class!

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- Gauge symmetry in non-relativistic physics
- Gauge symmetry in relativistic physics

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- Yang-Mills gauge symmetry
- Supergravity: a new gauge principle

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- String theory
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 In special relativity, the rotation algebra is enhanced to a larger algebra containing both rotations and Lorentz boosts.

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- Special relativity is equivalent to saying that Lorentz transformations are a symmetry of nature.
- Now consider a transformation for which the amount of rotation or boost is different at different points of space-time.

 This generalisation of Lorentz symmetry is called "local Lorentz symmetry".

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- Although the formulae are more complicated, local Lorentz symmetry (like gauge symmetry) requires there to be a new field in nature: the gravitational field $g_{\mu\nu}$.
- Indeed, when we implement local Lorentz symmetry we get Einstein's general theory of relativity, which is experimentally verified to high precision.
- Therefore here too, a type of gauge symmetry correctly predicts a field and its interactions.

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- For example, one can take the fields of an electron and an electron-type neutrino and consider them as a 2-component vector:

$$\Psi(\vec{x},t) = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_e \\ \psi_{\nu_e} \end{pmatrix}$$

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If U depends on (x, t) then this is a local gauge transformation. It requires a compensating field A_µ(x, t) which is a 2 × 2 Hermitian matrix. A new feature with respect to electrodynamics is that two transformations by matrices U⁽¹⁾ and U⁽²⁾ do not necessarily commute:

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► For SU(2) and more generally for any Lie group, such matrices can be parametrised in terms of a linear space called a Lie algebra:

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They obey the relation:

$$[\boldsymbol{T}^a, \boldsymbol{T}^b] = f^{ab}_{\ c} \, \boldsymbol{T}^c$$

where $f^{ab}_{\ c}$ are the structure constants of the algebra.

The key observation of Yang and Mills was that the gauge transformation must be non-linear and the associated field strength is given by:

$$\boldsymbol{F}_{\mu
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 Gauge-invariant interactions can be made out of products of traces. The simplest one is:

$$\operatorname{tr} \boldsymbol{F}^{\mu
u} \boldsymbol{F}_{\mu
u}$$

which contains the terms (inside the trace):

 $(\partial_{\mu}\boldsymbol{A}_{\nu} - \partial_{\nu}\boldsymbol{A}_{\mu})^{2} - 4g \,\partial_{\mu}\boldsymbol{A}_{\nu}[\boldsymbol{A}^{\mu}, \boldsymbol{A}^{\nu}] + g^{2}[\boldsymbol{A}_{\mu}, \boldsymbol{A}_{\nu}][\boldsymbol{A}^{\mu}, \boldsymbol{A}^{\nu}]$

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This time gauge invariance does three distinct things:

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(ii) Solves the potential unitarity problem associated to these particles,

(iii) Predicts a relation between the different possible self-interactions allowed by Lorentz invariance:

$$(\partial_{\mu}\boldsymbol{A}_{\nu} - \partial_{\nu}\boldsymbol{A}_{\mu})^{2} + \alpha \,\partial_{\mu}\boldsymbol{A}_{\nu}[\boldsymbol{A}^{\mu}, \boldsymbol{A}^{\nu}] + \beta[\boldsymbol{A}_{\mu}, \boldsymbol{A}_{\nu}][\boldsymbol{A}^{\mu}, \boldsymbol{A}^{\nu}]$$

namely,

$$\beta = \left(\frac{\alpha}{4}\right)^2$$

These interactions have been accurately tested by experiment!

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- This problem was resolved via the Higgs mechanism, a surprising mechanism in which gauge invariance, though present, appears to be "spontaneously broken".
- Something different ("confinement") takes place for strong interactions.
- We see that physical implementation of the gauge principle can take a long time and may require novel mechanisms.

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In each case, supersymmetry changes the spin by ¹/₂ (in units of ħ).

Supersymmetry is like a rotation in a space spanned by bosons and fermions.

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 $\{S,S^{\dagger}\}\sim T$

This is the first time in physics that a basic symmetry like translation has been written as a composite of another symmetry! Now let's transform the boson into a fermion by an amount that is different at each point of spacetime. This will be a gauge transformation.

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- Then a beautiful thing happens. Since two supersymmetries combine into a translation, local supersymmetry implies local translation symmetry.
- This in turn is the same as local Lorentz invariance which, as we have seen, implies the existence of gravity.
- Therefore local supersymmetry gives rise to a supersymmetric extension of gravity called supergravity.

As we saw, the "gauge particle" associated to gravity is the spin-2 graviton denoted g_{μν}.

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- In supergravity this is paired with a new particle, the spin-³/₂ gravitino denoted χ_{μα}:

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- Supersymmetry must at best be an approximate or broken symmetry, otherwise gravitinos would be massless (like gravitons) and contradict experiment.
- If gravitinos are found to exist, it will confirm that at the most fundamental level, Nature chooses to be governed by gauge theories!

Mathematically, the fact that two supersymmetries give a translation is related to the representation theory of the Lorentz algebra:

spinor \times spinor \supset vector



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- This is appealing because fermions occur rather abundantly in nature, and these arise automatically once we have supermanifolds.

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String theory

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- But what sort of particle theory? This is entirely dictated by the background in which the string propagates.

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- But what sort of particle theory? This is entirely dictated by the background in which the string propagates.
- The simplest background is a flat Minkowski space-time.
- Here we understand how to satisfy conformal invariance. All physical states of the string must be annihilated by an infinite set of "Virasoro operators":

 $L_n |\mathsf{phys}\rangle = 0$

$|\mu,k angle$

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Now consider a general linear combination of these states:

$$\sum_{\mu=0}^{3} \zeta_{\mu}(k) \left| \mu, k \right\rangle$$

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The first condition says the field is massless. Taken together, the two conditions give us the Maxwell equations:

$$k^{\mu} \left(k_{\mu} \zeta_{\nu} - k_{\nu} \zeta_{\mu} \right) = 0 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \partial^{\mu} F_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

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► This means it is equivalent to zero. Thus for arbitrary Λ(k), we have the equivalence of polarisation vectors:

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Thus open string theory has gauge invariance! We did not require it, rather it emerged upon quantising the theory. If we repeat the same procedure on the closed string, we find it has local Lorentz invariance at the linearised level.

- If we repeat the same procedure on the closed string, we find it has local Lorentz invariance at the linearised level.
- This leads one to suspect that at low energies, closed strings describe gravity, including its gauge symmetries. This is true and has by now been confirmed in many different ways.

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- This leads one to suspect that at low energies, closed strings describe gravity, including its gauge symmetries. This is true and has by now been confirmed in many different ways.
- Thus in string theory, both the original gauge principles (electromagnetism and gravity) emerge automatically (one from open strings and the other from closed strings).

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- Mathematicians associate Lie algebras to a root diagram. The above is a physical realisation of this root diagram!

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► Also in some backgrounds, string theory exhibits an infinite-dimensional W_∞ symmetry.

Outline

Introduction

- Gauge symmetry in non-relativistic physics
- Gauge symmetry in relativistic physics
- Local Lorentz symmetry
- Yang-Mills gauge symmetry
- Supergravity: a new gauge principle
- String theory
- 3-algebras
- Conclusions

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- ► Then the Poisson bracket can be naturally generalised:

$$[G,H] \rightarrow [F,G,H] = \frac{\partial F}{\partial p} \frac{\partial G}{\partial q} \frac{\partial H}{\partial r} \pm \cdots$$

The idea was revived recently in connection with an interesting open problem: to find a maximally supersymmetric, conformal-invariant field theory in (2+1) dimensions.

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- This field theory is supposed to describe membrane excitations of strongly coupled string theory.

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- This field theory is supposed to describe membrane excitations of strongly coupled string theory.
- The simplest such theory turns out to be uniquely determined by supersymmetry. It has eight real scalar particles and eight 2-component fermions.
- Now in (2+1) dimensions it is known that scalar fields have a scale dimension ¹/₂ and therefore the interaction φ⁶ is dimensionless a necessary (though not sufficient) requirement for conformal invariance.

The novel mathematical structure employed in these works is the concept of a 3-algebra:

$$[\boldsymbol{T}^a, \boldsymbol{T}^b, \boldsymbol{T}^c] = f^{abc}_{\ \ d} \, \boldsymbol{T}^d$$

generalising the notion of Lie algebra:

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• If we have a number of scalar fields ϕ^{Ia} and we write:

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}^{I} = \phi^{I\,a} \boldsymbol{T}^{a}$$

then it's natural to postulate a 6-th order coupling:

 $\label{eq:tr} {\rm tr}[\pmb{\phi}^I,\pmb{\phi}^J,\pmb{\phi}^K]^2 \sim f^{abc}_{g} f^{defg} \, \phi^I_a \, \phi^J_b \, \phi^K_c \, \phi^I_d \, \phi^J_e \, \phi^K_f$ by analogy with the 4th-order coupling:

$$tr[A_{\mu}, A_{\nu}]^2 \sim f^{abc} f^{de}{}_c A_{\mu a} A_{\nu b} A^{\mu}{}_d A^{\nu}{}_e$$

 The 3-algebra gauge symmetry is a gauge symmetry requires a gauge field non-dynamical (Chern-Simons) rather than dynamical Yang-Mills type.

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- The 3-algebra gauge symmetry is a gauge symmetry requires a gauge field non-dynamical (Chern-Simons) rather than dynamical Yang-Mills type.
- This theory has some remarkable properties including the possibility of the non-dynamical gauge field transmuting into a dynamical one. These will be discussed in my subsequent lectures here.
- 3-algebras are the most recent form of gauge symmetry to be introduced in physics. They could be relevant not only in the particle physics/string theory context but also for condensed-matter systems in the context of quantum criticality.

Outline

Introduction

- Gauge symmetry in non-relativistic physics
- Gauge symmetry in relativistic physics
- Local Lorentz symmetry
- Yang-Mills gauge symmetry
- Supergravity: a new gauge principle
- String theory
- 3-algebras

Conclusions

We have seen that the gauge principle is fundamental in nature.

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- We have seen that the gauge principle is fundamental in nature.
- This principle endows relativistic quantum field theory with new particles, consistency and predictive power.
- New gauge symmetries like supergravity and 3-algebra symmetries have been proposed and may well be tested.
- String theory naturally embodies the gauge principle and has given us clues about how it could be generalised.