

Group $U(N)$:

$$U^\dagger U = U U^\dagger = 1$$

$$U = e^{-i \sum a^a t^a}$$

$$a = 0, 1, \dots, N^2 - 1$$

By convention:

$$t^0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2N}} \mathbb{1}_N$$

$$\text{Tr}[t^a t^b] = \frac{1}{2} \delta^{ab}$$

$$[t^a, t^b] = i f^{abc} t^c$$

Group $SU(N)$

$$\begin{cases} U U^\dagger = U^\dagger U = 1 \\ \det U = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$U = e^{-i \sum_{a=1}^{N^2-1} a^a t^a} \text{ with } a = 1, \dots, N^2 - 1$$

From $U U^\dagger = 1$ we get

$$\det(U U^\dagger) = \det U \det U^\dagger = \det U \det U^* = |\det U|^2 = 1$$

which means $\det U = e^{i\psi} \neq 1$ in general.

Example:

$$U = e^{-i \omega t^0}$$

$$\det U = e^{-i \omega \text{Tr}[t^0]} = e^{-i \omega N / \sqrt{2N}} = e^{-i \omega \sqrt{N} / 2} \neq 1!$$

Now, let us consider $SU(N)$ and concentrate our attention to a subgroup of it.

Let us study only a phase:

$$Z = e^{i\theta} 1_N = e^{i\theta 1_N} = e^{i\theta \sqrt{2N} t_0}$$

$$Z^{\dagger} Z = Z Z^{\dagger} = (e^{i\theta} 1_N)(e^{-i\theta} 1_N) = 1_N \quad \checkmark$$

$$\det Z = (e^{i\theta})^N = e^{iN\theta} \quad (\neq 1 \text{ in general!})$$

if, more, θ is "special" we can still get that $\det Z = 1$.

Namely, the following requirement must be fulfilled:

$$\text{if } \theta = \frac{2\pi m}{N} \quad \text{with } m = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1 \quad \rightarrow \quad e^{iN\theta} = e^{iN \left(\frac{2\pi m}{N} \right)} = e^{i2\pi m} = 1$$

Note: we have to stop at $N-1$ in order to have N distinct elements...

In fact, $e^{iN \left(\frac{2\pi m}{N} \right)} = 1 \quad \forall m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ but they are not distinct.

For instance, for $m=0$ and $m=N$ you get the same element, see below.

$$e^{i0} = e^{iN \left(\frac{2\pi N}{N} \right)} = 1$$

N elements:

$$z_m = e^{i \frac{2\pi m}{N}} 1_N$$

$$C = \left\{ \underset{m=0}{1_N}, \underset{m=1}{e^{i \frac{2\pi}{N}} 1_N}, \underset{m=2}{e^{i \frac{4\pi}{N}} 1_N}, \dots, \underset{m=N-1}{e^{i \frac{2\pi(N-1)}{N}} 1_N} \right\} = Z_N$$

⌈ We see that if you put, say, $m=N$, you get $z_N = e^{i \frac{2\pi N}{N}} 1_N = 1_N$, which is just the first element ⌋

C is a group:

There is an internal operation, there is the unity, and the inverse...

Example:

$$z_1 \cdot z_2 = e^{i \frac{2\pi}{N}} 1_N \cdot e^{i \frac{4\pi}{N}} 1_N = e^{i \frac{2\pi}{N} (1+2)} 1_N = e^{i \frac{2\pi}{N} \cdot 3} 1_N = z_3$$

$$z_1^{-1}$$

which is the wrong?

$$z_1^{-1} = e^{-i2\pi/N} \quad z_1 = e^{i2\pi/N} \quad z_2 = e^{-i4\pi/N} \quad z_2^{-1} = e^{i4\pi/N} \quad \dots \quad z_{N-1} = e^{i2\pi(N-1)/N}$$

↳ very beautiful mathematical properties... still, the interesting fact is that they are relevant for physics!!! It has to do with confinement!!!

• C_N is a sub-group of $SU(N)$... also also of $U(N)$.

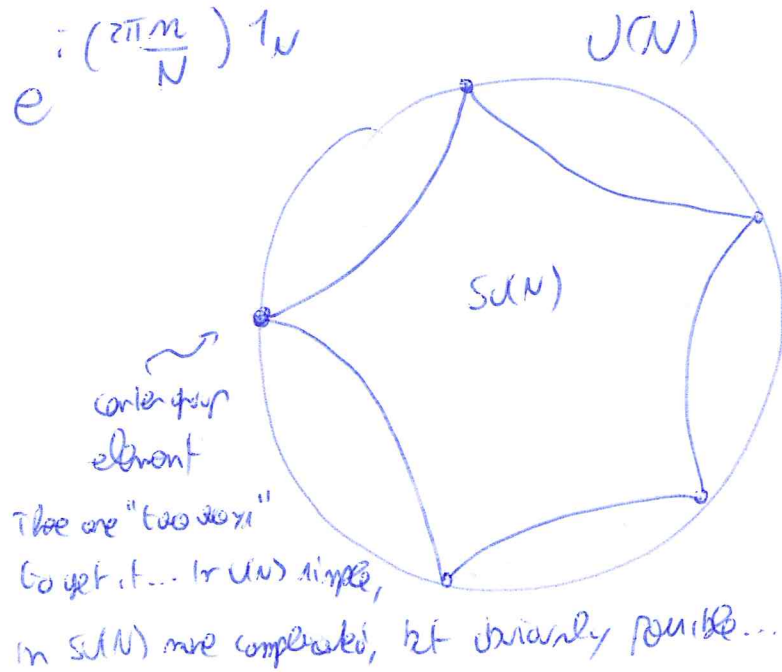
• In the framework of $U(N)$ it is very simple to get a center member...

subset $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_{N-1} = 0$ and $\alpha_0 = \frac{2\pi m}{N} \cdot \sqrt{2N}$

$$U = e^{-i\alpha_0 t^0} = e^{-i\alpha_0 t^0} = e^{+i(2\pi m/N) t_N} = 1_N$$

However, this is also possible for a choice of $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_{N-1}$; namely there is a special choice for which in $SU(N)$ only ($\alpha_0 = 0$)

$$e^{-i\alpha_0 t^0} = e^{+i(2\pi m/N) t_N}$$



Explicit example: $N=2$

$$C_{SU(2)} = \{1_N, e^{i\pi} 1_N\} = \{1_N, -1_N\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$$

This is actually the smallest non-trivial group!

$$1_N = e^{-i\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{a}} \text{ for } \vec{a} = 0!$$

In this case, by rotating that $t^a = \frac{Y^a}{2}$ also Y^a are the Pauli matrices, we have:

$$e^{-i\vec{\sigma} \cdot \frac{Y^a}{2}} = e^{-i\frac{\sigma}{2} \vec{m} \cdot \vec{Y}} \text{ where } \vec{m} \text{ such that } |\vec{m}|=1$$

$$= Y_0 \cos \frac{\sigma}{2} - i(\vec{m} \cdot \vec{Y}) \sin \frac{\sigma}{2}$$

eg, we see that for $\sigma=0$ we get $1_2 = Y_0$

but for $\sigma=2\pi$ we have:

$$e^{-i\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{a}} = -1_2 \dots \text{ (it is a different element of it...)}$$

↳ Non trivial...

Note, this is independent on \vec{m} so, it's the same for all \vec{m}

$\vec{m} = (0, 0, 1)$ we have

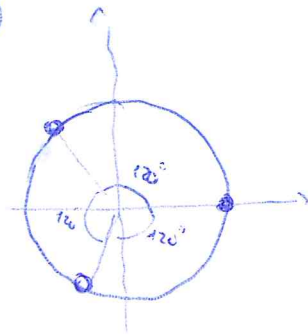
$$e^{-i \frac{\alpha}{2} \sigma_z} = \cos \frac{\alpha}{2} - i \sigma_z \sin \frac{\alpha}{2} = -\cos \frac{\alpha}{2} \quad \text{for } \alpha = 2\pi.$$

[This is the same for all \vec{m} so, it's the same for all \vec{m}]

Explicit example: $N=3$

$$\mathbb{Z}_3 \cong C_{\text{Sym}(3)} \cong \left\{ 1_3, e^{i2\pi/3} 1_3, e^{i4\pi/3} 1_3 \right\}$$

$$e^{i2\pi/3} = \cos\left(\frac{2}{3}\pi\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{2}{3}\pi\right) = -\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$



$$\frac{2}{3}\pi = \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{3\pi + \pi}{6} = \frac{2}{3}\pi$$

$$e^{-i2\pi/3} = -\frac{1}{2} - i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

Am, we'll similar discussion on the $N=2$ case.

QCD Lagrangian for arbitrary N

8

$$\mathcal{L}_{YM} = -\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} [G_{\mu\nu} G^{\mu\nu}]$$

$$G_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu - i g [A_\mu, A_\nu] \quad A_\mu = A_\mu^a T^a$$

$$A_\mu \mapsto U A_\mu U^\dagger - \frac{i}{g} (\partial_\mu U) U^\dagger$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{L}_{QCD} = \mathcal{L}_{YM} + \bar{q} (\not{D}_\mu - m) q \quad q \mapsto U q \\ D_\mu = \partial_\mu - i e A_\mu \end{array} \right.$$

\mathcal{L}_{QCD} is invariant under local gauge transf., $U = U(x) = e^{-i\theta^a(x) T^a}$

obviously, \mathcal{L}_{QCD} is invariant also if

$$G_{\mu\nu} \mapsto U G_{\mu\nu} U^\dagger$$

$$U(x) = U = \mathbb{1}_N!$$

This is trivial because $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A_\mu \mapsto A_\mu \\ q \mapsto e^{i2\pi m/N} q \rightarrow \bar{q} q \text{ is invariant.} \end{array} \right.$

Then, why all the discussion of chiral symmetry in QCD?

In the vacuum everything is trivial... but after going at some temperature things change.

$$Z(\eta) = \int_{\text{FBC}} \mathcal{D}A_\mu \mathcal{D}\psi \mathcal{D}\bar{\psi} e^{-S_{\text{QCD}}^E} \quad (t=0, \beta)$$

$$S_{\text{QCD}}^E = \int_0^\beta dY \int d^3x \mathcal{L}_{\text{QCD}}^E \quad \beta = \frac{1}{T}$$

FBC means:

$$A_\mu(0, \vec{x}) = A_\mu(\beta, \vec{x}) \quad \text{periodic for bosons}$$

$$\psi(0, \vec{x}) = -\psi(\beta, \vec{x}) \quad \text{antiperiodic for fermions (quarks)}$$

Now, let us consider a Y -dependent gauge transformation with $U(x)$:

$$U(0, \vec{x}) = 1_N$$

$$U(\beta, \vec{x}) = \sum_m z_m \mapsto \text{center element with } z_m \neq 1.$$

$$A_\mu^i(\vec{x}) = U A_\mu U^\dagger - \frac{i}{g} U \partial_\mu U^\dagger$$

suppose that the derivative vanishes at $Y=0$ and $Y=\beta$

$$\begin{cases} A_\mu^i(0, \vec{x}) = U(0, \vec{x}) A_\mu^i U^\dagger(0, \vec{x}) = A_\mu^i(0, \vec{x}) \\ A_\mu^i(\beta, \vec{x}) = z_m A_\mu^i(\beta, \vec{x}) z_m^\dagger = A_\mu^i(\beta, \vec{x}) \end{cases}$$

No problem... I can do this transformation, the YM part of the Lagrangian is filled!!!

But for the general situation is \neq !

8

$$\psi'(Y, \vec{x}) = U(Y, \vec{x}) \cdot \psi(Y, \vec{x})$$

$$\begin{cases} \psi'(0, \vec{x}) = \psi(0, \vec{x}) \\ \psi'(\beta, \vec{x}) = z_m \psi(\beta, \vec{x}) = -z_m \psi(0, \vec{x}) \end{cases}$$

It is not anymore symmetric...

Then we see, with a center transformation leaves $Z(T)$ invariant only in the YM sector but is not an invariant of full QCD.

Note, finite T is crucial for this... at zero T you don't have this issue...

So, the center symmetry combined with local g.t. of non-zero T is the basis of the discussion. It is not center transformation by itself... one needs also the modified geometry of $T \neq 0$ (thus and the ABC of the fields).

Alternative way to the YM Lagrangian

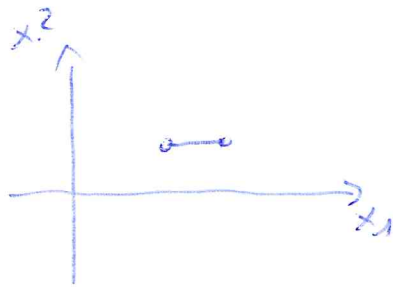
$$\Omega_\mu(x) = e^{i g A_\mu(x) dx^\mu}$$

Achtung: no sum over μ ...

$$\Omega_1 = e^{i g A_1 dx^1}$$

$\Omega_\mu(x)$ correct x^μ to $x^\mu + dx^\mu$

"gauge correction"



Now, we can write:

$$\Omega_\mu = 1 + i g A_\mu(x) dx^\mu \quad \text{because } dx^\mu \text{ is infinitesimal.}$$

$$\Omega_\mu \in SU(N) \quad \text{because } A_\mu = A_\mu^a T^a$$

$$\Omega_\mu \text{ transforms as: } \Omega_\mu(x) \mapsto U(x) \Omega_\mu U^\dagger(x) \quad (\text{this is an h.p.})$$

$$\text{I.e. it transforms exactly as } q(x) \bar{q}(x + dx^\mu) \mapsto U(x) q(x) \bar{q}(x + dx^\mu) U^\dagger(x)$$

L

which is the transf. of A_μ in order that to be true?

10

$$\Omega_\mu = e^{i g A_\mu dx^\mu} = 1 + i g A_\mu dx^\mu \mapsto \Omega'_\mu = U(x) (1 + i g A_\mu dx^\mu) U^\dagger(x + dx^\mu)$$

$$\Omega'_\mu = 1 + i g A'_\mu dx^\mu$$

$$U(x + dx^\mu) = U(x) + \partial_\mu U \cdot dx^\mu$$

$$U^\dagger(x + dx^\mu) = U^\dagger(x) + \partial_\mu U^\dagger dx^\mu$$

Eq 0:

$$U(x) (1 + i g A_\mu dx^\mu) U^\dagger(x + dx^\mu) = U(x) U^\dagger(x + dx^\mu) + i g (U(x) A_\mu \frac{U^\dagger(x + dx^\mu)}{U^\dagger(x)}) dx^\mu$$

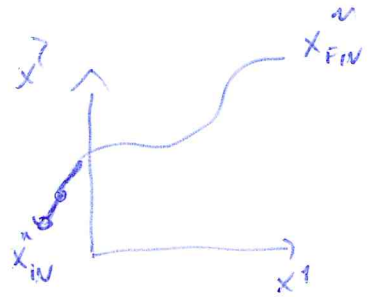
$$= 1 + U \partial_\mu U^\dagger \cdot dx^\mu + i g U A_\mu U^\dagger dx^\mu = 1 + i g A'_\mu dx^\mu$$

$$i g A'_\mu = i g U A_\mu U^\dagger + U \partial_\mu U^\dagger$$

$$A'_\mu = U A_\mu U^\dagger - \frac{i}{g} U \partial_\mu U^\dagger$$

one can also define the following Wilson line:

$$W = P e^{i g \int_L A_\mu dx^\mu}$$



↳ Path ordering

$$= e^{i g A_\mu(x_{in}) \delta x_{in}^\mu} e^{i g A_\mu(x_{in} + \delta x_{in}^\mu) \delta x_{in}^\mu} \dots e^{i g A_\mu(x_{fin} - \delta x_{fin}^\mu) \delta x_{fin}^\mu}$$

How does that disect transform under gauge transf?

$$\rightarrow U(x_{in}^\mu) e^{i g A_\mu(x_{in}) \delta x_{in}^\mu} U(x_{in} + \delta x_{in}^\mu) \cdot U(x_{in} + \delta x_{in}^\mu) e^{i g A_\mu(x_{fin} - \delta x_{fin}^\mu) \delta x_{fin}^\mu} U(x_{fin}^\mu)$$

Ergo

$$W \mapsto U(x_{in}^\mu) W U^\dagger(x_{fin}^\mu)$$

For $\mu=0$ we have:

$$L(\vec{x}) = Pe^{i g \int_0^\beta dY A_4(Y, \vec{x})}$$

For $\mu=0$
 Polyakov line
 (thermal Wilson line)

I simply integrate along the "0" "4" direction.

Under a gauge transformation we have:

$$L(\vec{x}) \mapsto U(0, \vec{x}) L(\vec{x}) U^\dagger(\beta, \vec{x}) = \sum_m^+ L(\vec{x}) = e^{i 2\pi m / N} L(\vec{x})$$

phase

Gamma:

$$Pe^{i g \int_0^\tau dt A_0} \rightarrow Pe^{-i g \int_0^\beta dY A_4}$$

$$\begin{cases} t = -iY \\ A^0 = -iA^4 \end{cases}$$

$$dt A_0 = -dY A_4$$

Polyakov loop \rightarrow trace over the Polyakov line

$$P = \frac{1}{N} \text{Tr} L$$

Now, which is the expectation of the Polyakov loop? $\langle l \rangle$?

For very high T , $g \rightarrow 0$, one expects $\langle l \rangle = 1$!

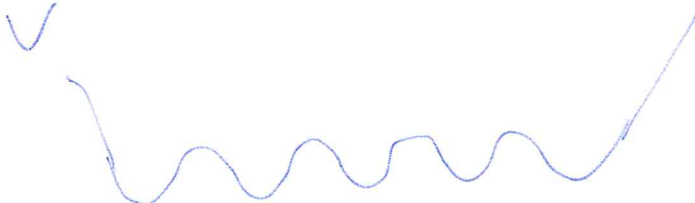
However, every other value of the center is allowed...

$$\langle l \rangle = e^{2\pi i m/N}$$

is possible for $T \rightarrow \infty$.

One has a degeneracy... all of them are ok.

The real one is the usual pher. of spont. symm. breaking,
but real one at high T ...

For high $T \rightarrow$ 

N distinct minima!

Indeed this is also understandable in the following way:

$$\langle l \rangle = e^{\frac{z_{eff} m / N}{R}} l_0$$

l_0 fixed (for confinement...)

$\langle l \rangle \sim e^{-F_{conf}/T}$ → Free energy...

$\langle l \rangle$ is finite at high T → F_{conf} is finite

In the case

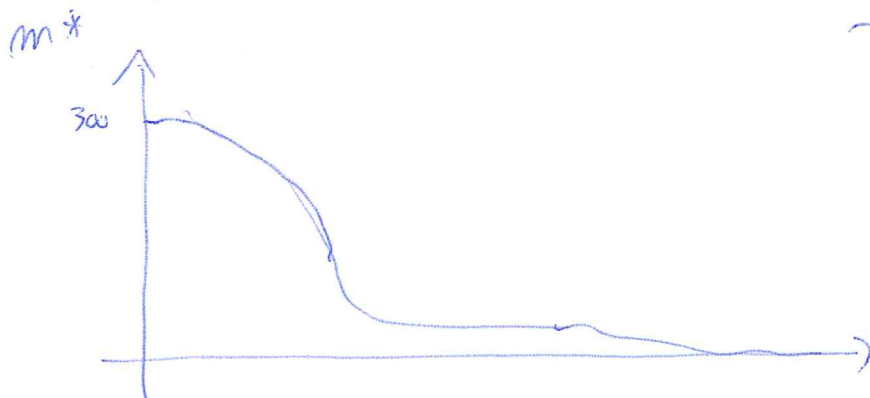
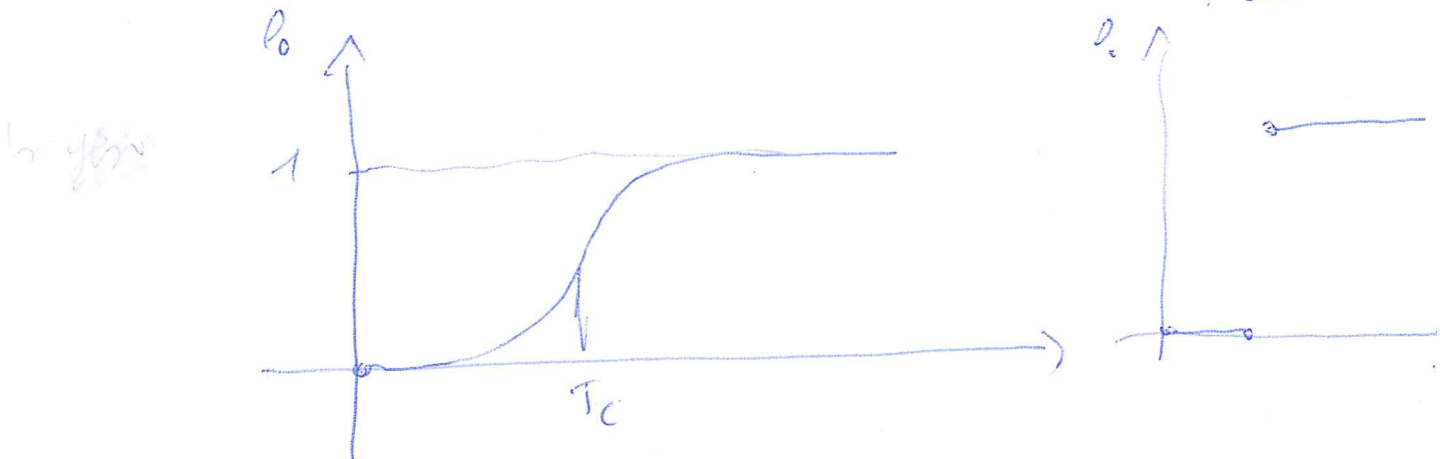
$$\langle l \rangle = 1$$

→ $F_{conf} = 0$ → deconfinement!

Then, for small T we have confinement:

$\langle l \rangle = 0$ because $F_{conf} = \infty$!!!

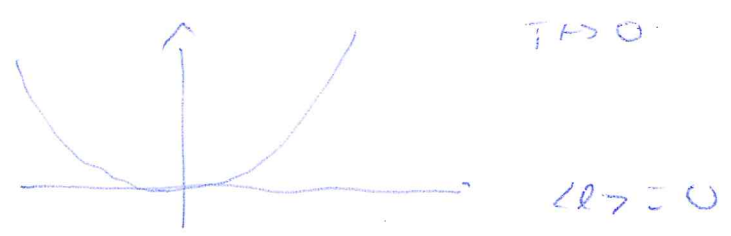
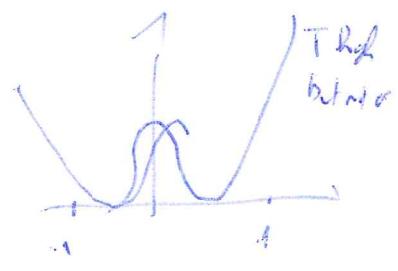
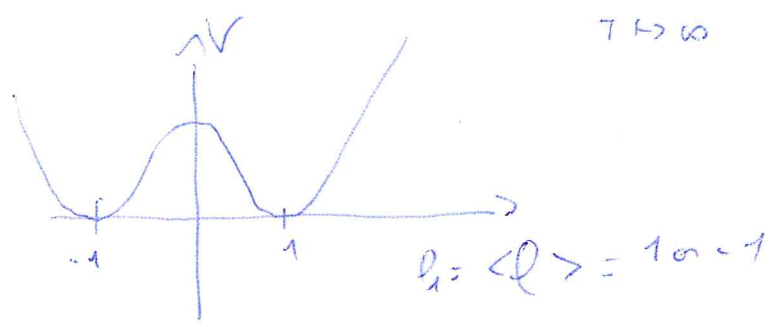
Then we expect that l_0 is 0 at $T=0$, up at high T



↳ it depends on N , or the presence of quarks

For $N=2$ the centers are $\{1/2, -1/2\}$

$\langle l \rangle$ at high T is either 1 or -1 .



$$V = \frac{m_1}{2} l_1^2 + \frac{k}{4} l_1^4$$

Symmetric under $l_1 \rightarrow -l_1$, which is Π also

N=3

$|l\rangle = l_0$

$\langle l \rangle = e^{i2\pi/3} l_0$

$\langle l \rangle = e^{i4\pi/3} l_0$

→ These are the minima of the potential...

l_1 is now complex

$V_1 = m_1^2 |l_1|^2 + K_1 (l_1^3 + (l_1^*)^3) + K_1 (|l_1|^2)^2$

Note, if I send:

$l_1 \mapsto e^{i2\pi/3} l_1$ → the first and the third term are invariant!

What about the second?

$l_1^3 \mapsto (e^{i2\pi/3} l_1)^3 = (e^{i2\pi} l_1^3) = l_1^3$ OK

$l_1^{*3} \mapsto$ the same

$l_1^3 + l_1^{*3} \mapsto$ ensure that it is real.

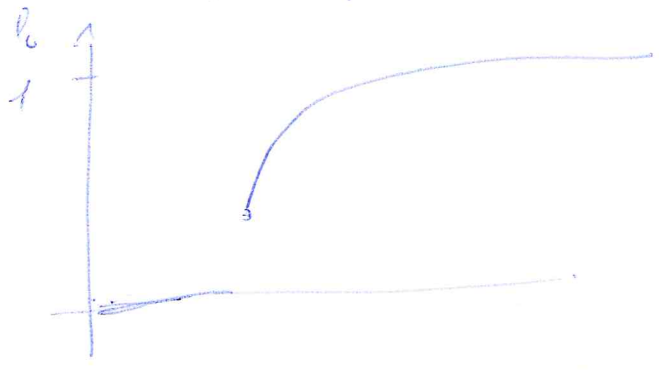


⇒ 1st order phase transition if l_0 real and $l_0 \neq 0$

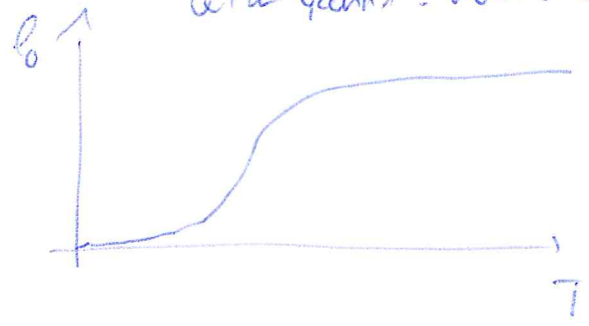
N=3 1st order for YM

But only 0 non-over if

without quotas = 1st order



with quotas - non over



PNSL model = contains at the same time both "MSB and PL"

