

Discrete Spacetime Symmetries P, C, T. ①

5/8/2024

○ Parity P: Inversion of spatial coordinates

$$P: (t, \vec{x}) \rightarrow (t, -\vec{x}) \quad (1)$$

* P can be viewed as a Lorentz transf. that's not connected to identity

* P is better viewed as a reflection

$$R: (x, y, z) \rightarrow (x, y, -z)$$

followed by a rotation of 180° in the (x, y) plane

Advantage: R works in all dim. of spacetime

Whereas, P only works in odd-dim of spatial dim.

But P treats all spatial coordinates symmetrically

* P isn't a symmetry in weak processes, but it is a perfect sym in QED and almost perfect in QCD.

Consider QED: $D_\mu = \partial_\mu - ieQ A_\mu \quad (2)$

Let $Q = -1$ for simplicity. $\Rightarrow D_\mu = \partial_\mu + ie A_\mu \quad (2')$

As is well known, under

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \psi(x) &\rightarrow e^{i\alpha(x)} \psi(x) \\ A_\mu(x) &\rightarrow A_\mu(x) - \frac{1}{e} \partial_\mu \alpha(x) \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (3)$$

we have

$$D_\mu \psi \rightarrow e^{i\alpha(x)} D_\mu \psi \quad (4)$$

Under parity, ∂_0 unchanged while $\partial_i \rightarrow -\partial_i$. This tells us that parity must act as

○ $P: A_0(t, \vec{x}) \rightarrow + A_0(t, -\vec{x}), \vec{A}(t, \vec{x}) \rightarrow -\vec{A}(t, -\vec{x})$

(5)

electric field

Magnetic field

(2)

Recall that $\vec{E} = -\nabla\phi - \partial\vec{A}/\partial t$ & $\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$, we have

○ $\vec{P}: \vec{E}(t, \vec{x}) \rightarrow -\vec{E}(t, -\vec{x}), \vec{B}(t, \vec{x}) \rightarrow +\vec{B}(t, -\vec{x})$ (6)

$\Rightarrow \vec{E}$ is a vector while \vec{B} is a pseudovector.

* Another example of pseudovector is the angular momentum $\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$. Under parity, $\vec{L} \rightarrow \vec{L}$ doesn't change sign too!

(Wigner's theorem)

In quantum theory, P is implemented as an unitary operator on the infinite dim. Hilbert space:
i.e. acting

○ $\hat{P} A_0(t, \vec{x}) \hat{P}^\dagger = A_0(t, -\vec{x})$ (7)

$\hat{P} \vec{A}(t, \vec{x}) \hat{P}^\dagger = -\vec{A}(t, -\vec{x})$ (8)

unitary

where \hat{P}, A_0, \vec{A} are now operators!

Next, spinors. Consider a left-handed Weyl spinor ψ_L which satisfies the massless Weyl eq.

Weyl proposed his eq. in 1929. But Pauli rejected it because

$\sigma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi_L = 0, \quad \sigma^\mu = (\mathbb{1}, -\vec{\sigma})$ (9)

Under Parity $P, \partial_0 \rightarrow \partial_0, \partial_i \rightarrow -\partial_i$, so, Weyl eq. is not invariant under parity. Similarly, for ψ_R

$\sigma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi_R = 0, \quad \sigma^\mu = (\mathbb{1}, +\vec{\sigma})$ (10)

* The different signs in the spatial comp. of σ^μ & $\bar{\sigma}^\mu$ suggests that one can compensate for a parity transf. of one also exchange ψ_L & ψ_R !

Thus, we want under parity P ,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \hat{P} \psi_L(t, \vec{x}) \hat{P}^\dagger &= \psi_R(t, -\vec{x}) \\ \hat{P} \psi_R(t, \vec{x}) \hat{P}^\dagger &= \psi_L(t, -\vec{x}) \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (11)$$

Recall the Dirac spinor ψ is defined as

$$c = P^{-1} \psi = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_L \\ \psi_R \end{pmatrix} \quad (12)$$

(11) implies that

$$\hat{P} \psi \hat{P}^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} P \psi_L(t, \vec{x}) P^\dagger \\ P \psi_R(t, \vec{x}) P^\dagger \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_R(t, -\vec{x}) \\ \psi_L(t, -\vec{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \gamma^0 \begin{pmatrix} \psi_L(t, -\vec{x}) \\ \psi_R(t, -\vec{x}) \end{pmatrix} = \gamma^0 \psi(t, -\vec{x})$$

where

$$\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbb{I} \\ \mathbb{I} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

* Note = $\psi_L \pm 1$ (13)
 due to the fact that fermions always come in bilinears! (14)
 See Peskin-Schroeder chp 3

Recall that for a stationary fermion $u \propto \begin{pmatrix} \xi^s \\ \eta^s \end{pmatrix}$ where ξ^s, η^s are 2-comp. spinors describing the orientation of the spin of the particle. ($s=1,2$)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \xi^1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \xi^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ \eta^1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \eta^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \right\} \left. \begin{aligned} \gamma^0 \begin{pmatrix} \xi^s \\ \eta^s \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \xi^s \\ \eta^s \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{particle's intrinsic parity} = +1 \\ \gamma^0 \begin{pmatrix} \eta^s \\ -\eta^s \end{pmatrix} &= - \begin{pmatrix} \eta^s \\ -\eta^s \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{antiparticle's intrinsic parity} = -1 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (15)$$

If $\hat{P} \psi(t, \vec{x}) \hat{P}^\dagger = \gamma^0 \psi(t, -\vec{x})$, then

$$\hat{P} \bar{\psi}(t, \vec{x}) \hat{P}^\dagger = \bar{\psi}(t, -\vec{x}) \gamma^0 \quad (16)$$

One can show that $\psi \rightarrow +\psi$ scalar, $\bar{\psi} \rightarrow +\bar{\psi}$ scalar, $\psi \rightarrow -\psi$ pseudoscalar, $\bar{\psi} \rightarrow -\bar{\psi}$ pseudoscalar, $\psi \rightarrow (\bar{\psi} \gamma^0 \psi, -\bar{\psi} \gamma^i \psi)$ vector, $\bar{\psi} \rightarrow (\bar{\psi} \gamma^0 \gamma^5 \psi, \bar{\psi} \gamma^i \gamma^5 \psi)$ pseudovector, $P: A^\mu, \partial^\mu \rightarrow (A^0, -\vec{A}), (\partial^0, -\vec{\partial})$. This means $\bar{\psi}(t, -\vec{x}) \psi(t, -\vec{x})$. Arguments are often omitted!

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{scalar } P: \psi &\rightarrow +\psi \\ \text{pseudoscalar } P: \bar{\psi} \gamma^5 \psi &\rightarrow -\bar{\psi} \gamma^5 \psi \\ \text{vector } P: \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \psi &\rightarrow (\bar{\psi} \gamma^0 \psi, -\bar{\psi} \gamma^i \psi) \\ \text{pseudovector } P: \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \gamma^5 \psi &\rightarrow (-\bar{\psi} \gamma^0 \gamma^5 \psi, \bar{\psi} \gamma^i \gamma^5 \psi) \\ P: A^\mu, \partial^\mu &\rightarrow (A^0, -\vec{A}), (\partial^0, -\vec{\partial}) \end{aligned} \right\} \text{(See Peskin-Schroeder chp. 3.)} \quad (17)$$

$$* \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d^4x \rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dt \int_{+\infty}^{-\infty} d^3\vec{x} (-1)^3 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dt \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d^3\vec{x} \quad (18)$$

($\vec{x} \rightarrow \vec{x}' \equiv -\vec{x}$)

$$* S = \int d^4x (i \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu D_\mu \psi - M \bar{\psi} \psi) \quad \text{with } D_\mu = \partial_\mu - i e A_\mu \quad (19)$$

S is invariant under parity (13) & (16)

$$* S' = \int d^4x (i \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \partial_\mu \psi - M \bar{\psi} \gamma^5 \psi) \quad \text{(Exercise)} \quad (20)$$

is not invariant under parity defined by (13) & (16). However, define a new parity operator P' as

$$P' \psi(t, \vec{x}) P'^\dagger = \gamma^5 \gamma^0 \psi(t, -\vec{x}) \quad (21)$$

(20) is invariant under this modified parity P' .

$$\text{In (21), } \gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbb{1} \\ \mathbb{1} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ \& } \gamma^5 = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{1} & 0 \\ 0 & -\mathbb{1} \end{pmatrix} \text{ in} \quad (22)$$

Weyl representation (or chiral basis): $\gamma^5 \gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbb{1} \\ -\mathbb{1} & 0 \end{pmatrix} = -\gamma^0 \gamma^5$

Thus, $P' \psi_L(t, \vec{x}) P'^\dagger = \psi_L(t, -\vec{x})$, $P' \psi_R(t, \vec{x}) P'^\dagger = -\psi_R(t, -\vec{x})$ # (23)

Finally, for scalar fields, we can define parity as

$$(23) \quad \hat{P} \phi(t, \vec{x}) \hat{P}^\dagger = \begin{matrix} + \text{scalar} \\ - \text{pseudoscalar} \end{matrix} \phi(t, -\vec{x})$$

Obviously, $(\partial_\mu \phi)^2$ doesn't distinguish scalar or pseudoscalar fields. One needs Yukawa interactions to tell the differences. For example $\bar{\psi} \psi \phi$ versus $\bar{\psi} \gamma_5 \psi \phi$.

If parity is conserved in ^{all} the interactions in nature, like all conservation laws, this put constraints (selection rules) on the elementary processes, like in QED & QCD.

However, parity can be broken explicitly or due to anomaly!
quantum

5/9/2024 ⑥

Charge Conjugation C : particle \xleftrightarrow{C} antiparticle

○ We expect, for scalar field (complex) ϕ

$$C: \phi \rightarrow \pm \phi^\dagger \quad (24)$$

+ or - will be fixed by the interactions of ϕ with other fields.

How about gauge fields?

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow D_\mu \phi &= (\partial_\mu - ieQ A_\mu) \phi \\ \Rightarrow (D_\mu \phi)^\dagger &= (\partial_\mu + ieQ A_\mu) \phi^\dagger \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

(24) implies that under C , (regardless the \pm ambiguity in (24))

$$C: A_\mu \rightarrow -A_\mu \quad (26)$$

so that $|D_\mu \phi|^2$ is invariant under C .

○ In quantum theory, C is promoted to an unitary operator:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{C} \phi \hat{C}^\dagger &= \pm \phi^\dagger \\ \hat{C} A_\mu \hat{C}^\dagger &= -A_\mu \quad (\text{Abelian theories}) \\ \text{or } \hat{C} A_\mu \hat{C}^\dagger &= -A_\mu^\dagger \quad (\text{for nonabelian theories}) \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

* Check $F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu}$ & $\text{Tr}(F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu})$ are C -invariant!

* $\hat{C} W_\mu^\pm \hat{C}^\dagger = -W_\mu^\mp$, $\hat{C} Z_\mu \hat{C}^\dagger = -Z_\mu$, $\hat{C} A_\mu \hat{C}^\dagger = -A_\mu$
in Standard model

○ * What about gluon fields $G_\mu^a = G_\mu^a T^a$?

Finally, spinor fields.

Dirac eq. reads

$$i\gamma^\mu(\partial_\mu - ieQA_\mu)\psi - M\psi = 0 \quad (28)$$

Under charge conjugation, we look for a 4x4 matrix \tilde{C} such that

$$C: \psi \rightarrow \tilde{C}\psi^* \quad \begin{matrix} \longmapsto \text{column spinor} \\ \longmapsto 4 \times 4 \text{ matrix (Same notation as the operator!)} \end{matrix} \quad (29)$$

Taking the complex conjugation of (28)

$$-i(\gamma^\mu)^*(\partial_\mu + ieQA_\mu)\psi^* - M\psi^* = 0 \quad (30)$$

Taking the charge conjugation of (28)

$$\begin{aligned} & i\gamma^\mu(\partial_\mu - ieQ(-A_\mu))\tilde{C}\psi^* - M\tilde{C}\psi^* = 0 \\ \Rightarrow & i\gamma^\mu\tilde{C}(\partial_\mu + ieQA_\mu)\psi^* - \tilde{C}M\psi^* = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow i\tilde{C}^{-1}\gamma^\mu\tilde{C}(\partial_\mu + ieQA_\mu)\psi^* - M\psi^* = 0 \quad (31)$$

Comparing (31) with (30), we need

$$\tilde{C}^{-1}\gamma^\mu\tilde{C} = -(\gamma^\mu)^* \quad (32)$$

* \tilde{C} depends on your choices of basis for the γ^μ ! In the Chiral (Weyl) basis, all Γ 's are real except γ^2 which is purely imaginary. This leads to the possibility of

$$\text{Note: } \tilde{C}^2 = i^2\gamma^2\gamma^2 = (-1)(-1) = 1$$

Note: \pm because fermions always come in pairs!

$$\tilde{C} = \pm i\gamma^2 = \pm \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \epsilon \\ -\epsilon & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \epsilon = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (33)$$

$$\text{such that } C: \psi \rightarrow \psi^c = \pm i\gamma^2\psi^*, \quad \text{with } \gamma^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^2 \\ -\sigma^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(34)$$

Decompose ψ into ψ_L & ψ_R , we have

$$\pm i\gamma_2 \psi^* = \pm i\gamma_2 \begin{pmatrix} \psi_L^* \\ \psi_R^* \end{pmatrix} = \pm i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^2 \\ -\sigma^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \psi_L^* \\ \psi_R^* \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \pm i\sigma^2 \psi_R^* \\ \mp i\sigma^2 \psi_L^* \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus, like parity, under charge-conjugation, one exchanges the two Weyl spinors in ψ . i.e.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} C: \psi_L &\longrightarrow \pm i\sigma^2 \psi_R^* \\ \psi_R &\longrightarrow \mp i\sigma^2 \psi_L^* \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (35)$$

In QFT, this becomes

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \hat{C} \psi_L \hat{C}^\dagger &\longrightarrow \pm i\sigma^2 \psi_R^* \\ \hat{C} \psi_R \hat{C}^\dagger &\longrightarrow \mp i\sigma^2 \psi_L^* \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (36)$$

(35) & (36) can be combined to form a CP operation

as:

$$\begin{aligned} CP: \psi_L(t, \vec{x}) &\longrightarrow (\hat{C}\hat{P})\psi_L(\hat{C}\hat{P})^\dagger \\ &= \hat{C}\hat{P}\psi_L(t, \vec{x})\hat{P}^\dagger\hat{C}^\dagger \\ &= \hat{C}\psi_R(t, -\vec{x})\hat{C}^\dagger = \mp i\sigma^2 \psi_L^*(t, -\vec{x}) \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \& \psi_R(t, \vec{x}) &\longrightarrow (\hat{C}\hat{P})\psi_R(\hat{C}\hat{P})^\dagger \\ &= \hat{C}\hat{P}\psi_R(t, \vec{x})\hat{P}^\dagger\hat{C}^\dagger \\ &= \hat{C}\psi_L(t, -\vec{x})\hat{C}^\dagger = \pm i\sigma^2 \psi_R^*(t, -\vec{x}) \end{aligned} \quad (38)$$

* While a single Weyl fermion is invariant under neither parity nor charge conjugation, it is possible to couple a single Weyl fermion to a gauge field in a CP invariant way! But, anomalies -----!
quantum

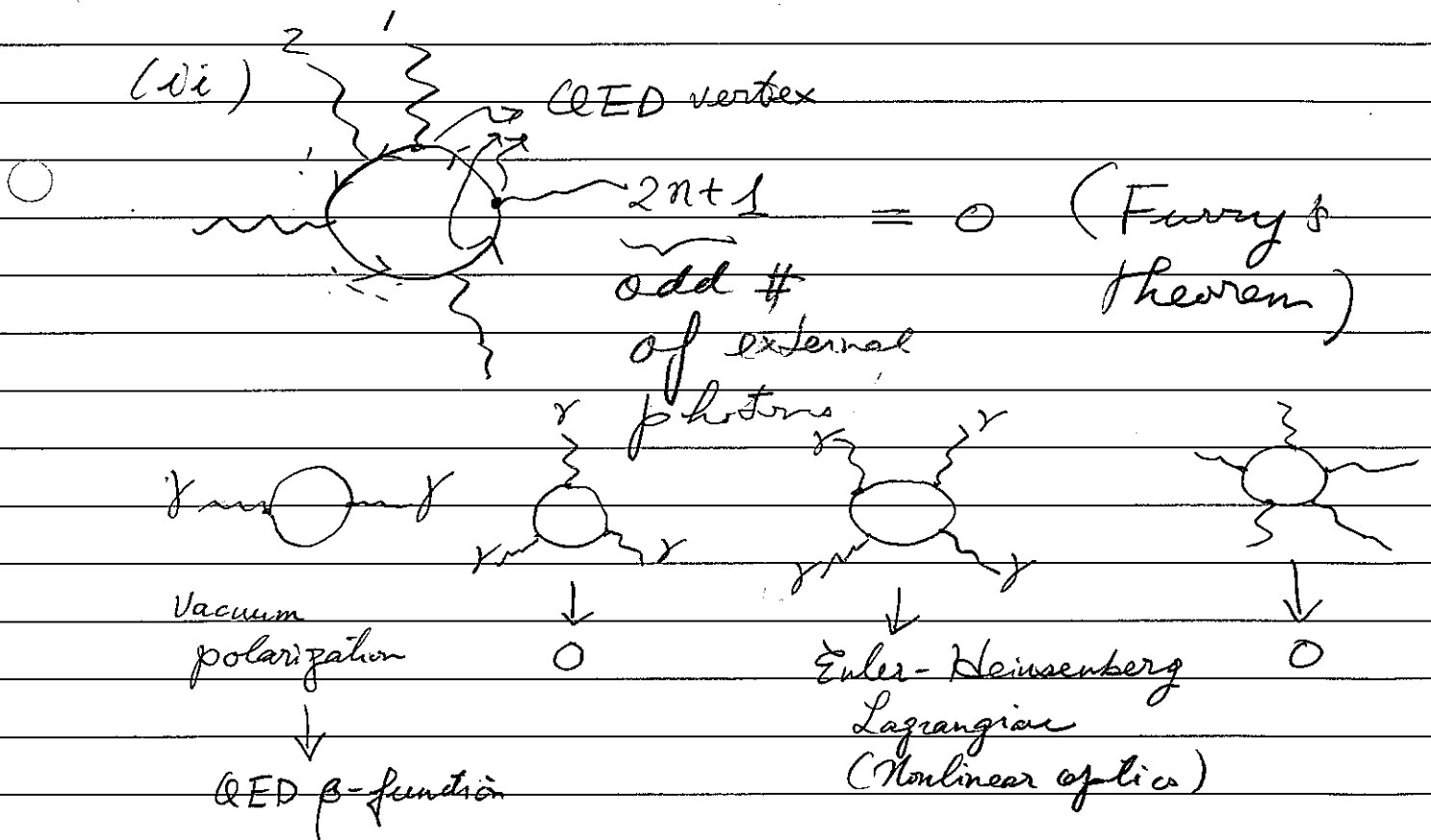
For theories that are invariant under charge conjugation, one can assign $C = \pm 1$ to each particle, usually referred to as C-parity in the literature. For example in QED & QCD, we have

$$\pi\pi \rightarrow \pi\pi \quad \hookrightarrow \quad C(\pi^0) = +1 \quad \& \quad C(A_\mu) = -1 \quad (39)$$

Charge conjugation invariant implies selection rules in elementary processes. For example,

$$(i) \quad \pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma \quad (40)$$

$$\rightarrow \gamma\gamma\gamma \quad (\text{forbidden by C-parity})$$



* In the literature, we also see ψ^c so defined as $\psi^c = C \bar{\psi}^T$.

Compare with (34) we have

$$\psi^c = C \bar{\psi}^T = C (\psi^\dagger \gamma^0)^T = C \gamma^{0T} \psi^* = C \gamma^0 \psi^*$$

$$\Rightarrow C \gamma^0 = \pm i \gamma^2 \quad \text{i.e.} \quad C = \pm i \gamma^2 \gamma^0 \quad \boxed{\text{Note: } (C)^2 = -1 \quad (34')}$$

5/10/2024

18

Time Reversal T (Wigner's T)

By definition, time reversal means

$$T: (t, \vec{x}) \rightarrow (-t, \vec{x}) \quad (41)$$

In QFT, according to Wigner's theorem, T has to be implemented as anti-unitary operator, rather than the more familiar unitary operator.

Anti-unitary means (anti-linear)

$$T(\alpha|\psi_1\rangle + \beta|\psi_2\rangle) = \alpha^* T|\psi_1\rangle + \beta^* T|\psi_2\rangle \quad (42)$$

$$\& \langle T\psi_2 | T\psi_1 \rangle = \langle \psi_2 | \psi_1 \rangle^* \quad (43)$$

* Note that (43) preserves probability $|\langle \psi_2 | \psi_1 \rangle|^2$ transition

* (42) implies $i \rightarrow -i$!

To appreciate the physics of anti-unitary operator, we compare the Schrödinger eq.

$$i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi \quad (44)$$

with the heat equation that describes ^{how} the temperature field $T(t, \vec{x})$ diffuses in a system,

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \kappa \nabla^2 T \quad (45)$$

Obviously, the heat eq. violates time-reversal and it is expected typically since diffusion process increases entropy and hence it provides a time direction / preferred.

On the other hand, we don't expect Schrödinger eq. to violate time reversal since it is just a quantum system for a single particle. However, if $\psi(t)$ is a solution, $\psi(-t)$ is certainly not a solution! But there's a 'i' in Schrödinger eq. while there's no 'i' in the diffusion heat eq. Thus, in QM, we expect under time reversal,

$$T: \psi(t, \vec{x}) \longrightarrow \psi^*(-t, \vec{x}) \quad (46)$$

for the wave function.

How about the U(1) gauge field? Again, let's look at the covariant derivative ($Q = -1$)

$$D_\mu = \partial_\mu + ieA_\mu \quad (47)$$

Under time reversal, $\partial_0 \rightarrow -\partial_0$, $i \rightarrow -i$. So we would like to have

$$T: A_0(t, \vec{x}) \longrightarrow +A_0(-t, \vec{x}), \quad \vec{A}(t, \vec{x}) \longrightarrow -\vec{A}(-t, \vec{x}) \quad (48)$$

to preserve the form of covariant derivative.

To check if (48) makes sense physically, we can see ^{how} the electric & magnetic fields transform under T:

$$\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}\phi - \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t}, \quad \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} \quad (49)$$

So, under T,

$$T: \vec{E}(t, \vec{x}) \longrightarrow +\vec{E}(-t, \vec{x}), \quad \vec{B}(t, \vec{x}) \longrightarrow -\vec{B}(-t, \vec{x}) \quad (50)$$

i.e. \vec{E}, \vec{B} behave like a pseudovector & vector respectively under time-reversal. This is consistent with the Lorentz force $m\ddot{\vec{x}} = q(\vec{E} + \dot{\vec{x}} \times \vec{B})$

What about Dirac fermions? Dirac eq. reads

$$i \gamma^\mu (\partial_\mu + i e A_\mu) \psi(t, \vec{x}) - M \psi(t, \vec{x}) = 0 \quad (51)$$

Under time reversal, we seek for an anti-linear anti-unitary operator T of the form

$$T: \psi(t, \vec{x}) \rightarrow T \psi^*(-t, \vec{x}) \quad (52)$$

where

T is a 4×4 matrix in the Dirac spinor space.

(consistent with Schwartz's QFT)

Note to be consistent with the simple Dirac eq. in Schwartz

Note that there's no complex conjugation in (52) compared with the NR Schrödinger eq case in (46)

Under T , (51) goes to

$$(-i) [(\gamma^0)^* (-D_0) + (\gamma^i)^* (D_i)] T \psi(t) - M T \psi(t) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow i T^{-1} [(\gamma^0)^* D_0 - (\gamma^i)^* D_i] T \psi(t) - M \psi(t) = 0 \quad (53)$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} T^{-1} (\gamma^0)^* T &= \gamma^0 \\ T^{-1} (\gamma^i)^* T &= -\gamma^i \end{aligned} \right\} \boxed{T^{-1} i T = +i}$$

but

(53) will go back to the original (51) for $\psi(-t)$ & $A_\mu(-t, \vec{x})$

* In the Weyl basis, $\gamma^0 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma^3 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbb{1} \end{pmatrix}$, $\gamma^i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^i \\ -\sigma^i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$,

$\gamma^0, \gamma^1, \gamma^3$ are real, γ^2 is pure imaginary, one can check

$$T = \gamma^1 \gamma^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^1 \\ -\sigma^1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma^3 \\ -\sigma^3 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\sigma^1 \sigma^3 & 0 \\ 0 & -\sigma^1 \sigma^3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (55)$$

$$\text{does the magic!} = \begin{pmatrix} -i\sigma^2 & 0 \\ 0 & -i\sigma^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{up to } \pm 1)$$

Splitting $\psi = (\psi_L, \psi_R)^T$ in (52), we obtain Wigner's T

$$\begin{aligned} T = \psi_L(t, \vec{x}) &\rightarrow -i\sigma^2 \psi_L(-t, \vec{x}) \\ \psi_R(t, \vec{x}) &\rightarrow -i\sigma^2 \psi_R(-t, \vec{x}) \end{aligned}$$

* Don't flip particle into (+6) antiparticle!
* Only flip spin and 3-momenta

* Like CP, ^{Wigner's} T doesn't exchange the two Weyl spinors! T only flips the spins of particles (by $-i\sigma^2$)!

* Dipole Moments (MDM & EDM)

	C	P	T	(C)
$(\vec{S} = \sigma/2)$	$+\vec{S}$	$+\vec{S}$	$-\vec{S}$	$-\vec{S}$
A^μ	$(-A^0(t, \vec{x}), -\vec{A}(t, \vec{x}))$	$(A^0(t, \vec{x}), -\vec{A}(t, \vec{x}))$	$(A^0(-t, \vec{x}), -\vec{A}(-t, \vec{x}))$	$-A^\mu(-x)$
\vec{E}	$-\vec{E}(t, \vec{x})$	$-\vec{E}(t, \vec{x})$	$+\vec{E}(-t, \vec{x})$	$+\vec{E}$
\vec{B}	$-\vec{B}$	$+\vec{B}$	$-\vec{B}$	$+\vec{B}$ (5-7)
EDM $\vec{S} \cdot \vec{E}$	$-\vec{S} \cdot \vec{E}$	$-\vec{S} \cdot \vec{E}$	$-\vec{S} \cdot \vec{E}$	$-\vec{S} \cdot \vec{E}$
MDM $\vec{S} \cdot \vec{B}$	$-\vec{S} \cdot \vec{B}$	$+\vec{S} \cdot \vec{B}$	$+\vec{S} \cdot \vec{B}$	$-\vec{S} \cdot \vec{B}$
$\vec{P} = i\vec{\nabla}$	$+\vec{P}$	$-\vec{P}$	$-\vec{P}$	$+\vec{P}$

* Thus an electric dipole moment of an elementary particle would imply both (P) & (T)

* SM particles have very tiny EDMs: $|d_n/e| < 10^{-34}$ cm.

* Experimental limits: Present limit Future Sensitivity

$\mathcal{H}_{int} = -d \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{E}$ $= -2d \vec{S} \cdot \vec{E}$	$ d_n/e $ [cm] $(0.0 \pm 1.1) \times 10^{-26}$	
	$ d_e/e $ [cm] $< 1.1 \times 10^{-29}$	(Advanced ACME)
	$ d_p/e $ [cm] $< 1.8 \times 10^{-19}$	$\sim 6 \times 10^{-23}$ (PSI)

* SM contribution to quark EDM starts at 3 loops.

Classic paper: (1) Ellis, Gaillard, Nanopoulos, NPB109, 213 (1976)

中央研究院物理研究所 (2) Shabalin, Sov. J. Nucl. Phys. 32, 228 (1980)

CPT Invariant $\textcircled{H} \equiv \text{CPT}$

For U(1) gauge field, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_\mu(t, \vec{x}) &\xrightarrow{(15) \text{ P}} (A_0(t, -\vec{x}), -\vec{A}(t, -\vec{x})) \\
 &\xrightarrow{(48) \text{ T}} (A_0(-t, -\vec{x}), +\vec{A}(-t, -\vec{x})) \\
 &\xrightarrow{(27) \text{ C}} (-A_0(-t, -\vec{x}), -\vec{A}(-t, -\vec{x}))
 \end{aligned}$$

i.e.

$$\textcircled{H} : A_\mu(x) \longrightarrow -A_\mu(-x) \quad (59)$$

For Dirac fermion $\psi(t, x)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \psi(t, x) &\xrightarrow{(13) \text{ P}} \gamma^0 \psi(t, -\vec{x}) \xrightarrow{(52) \text{ T}} \gamma^1 \gamma^3 \gamma^0 \psi(-t, -\vec{x}) \\
 &\xrightarrow{(34) \text{ C}} (\pm i \gamma^2 \gamma^1 \gamma^3 \gamma^0 \psi^*(-t, -\vec{x})) \\
 &= \pm i \gamma^0 \gamma^1 \gamma^2 \gamma^3 \psi^*(-t, -\vec{x}) \\
 &= \pm \gamma^5 \psi^*(-t, -\vec{x})
 \end{aligned}$$

* $\gamma^0, \gamma^1, \gamma^3$ are real in Weyl basis

i.e.

$$\textcircled{H} : \psi(t, \vec{x}) \longrightarrow \pm \gamma^5 \psi^*(-t, -\vec{x}) \quad (60)$$

with $\gamma^5 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & +1 \end{pmatrix}$ in the Weyl representation

Exercise = Check $\bar{\psi}\psi, i\bar{\psi}\gamma_5\psi, i\bar{\psi}\not{\partial}\psi, \bar{\psi}A\psi, \bar{\psi}A\gamma_5\psi, \bar{\psi}\not{\partial}\not{A}\psi, \bar{\psi}\not{\partial}\not{A}\gamma_5\psi$ are all invariant under $\textcircled{H} \equiv \text{CPT}$.

For example: $\bar{\psi}(x)\psi(x) \xrightarrow{\textcircled{H}} \bar{\psi}(-x)\psi(-x)$
 $\bar{\psi}(x)\gamma_5\psi(x) \xrightarrow{\textcircled{H}} \bar{\psi}(-x)\gamma_5\psi(-x)$ etc

$\psi = \text{Dirac}$

中央研究院物理研究所 $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d^4x \rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d^4x' \quad (x'_\mu = -x_\mu)$

CPT theorem = All relativistic QFTs must be invariant under the combined action of CPT. [Consequence of Lorentz inv. & unitarity] (Creutz & Wightman, 1989)

Consequences of CPT invariance:

① $M_{particle} = M_{antiparticle}$

$\tau_{particle} = \tau_{antiparticle}$

$Q(particle) = -Q(antiparticle)$

$\mu(particle) = \mu(anti-particle)$

$d(particle) = d(anti-particle)$

eg 1

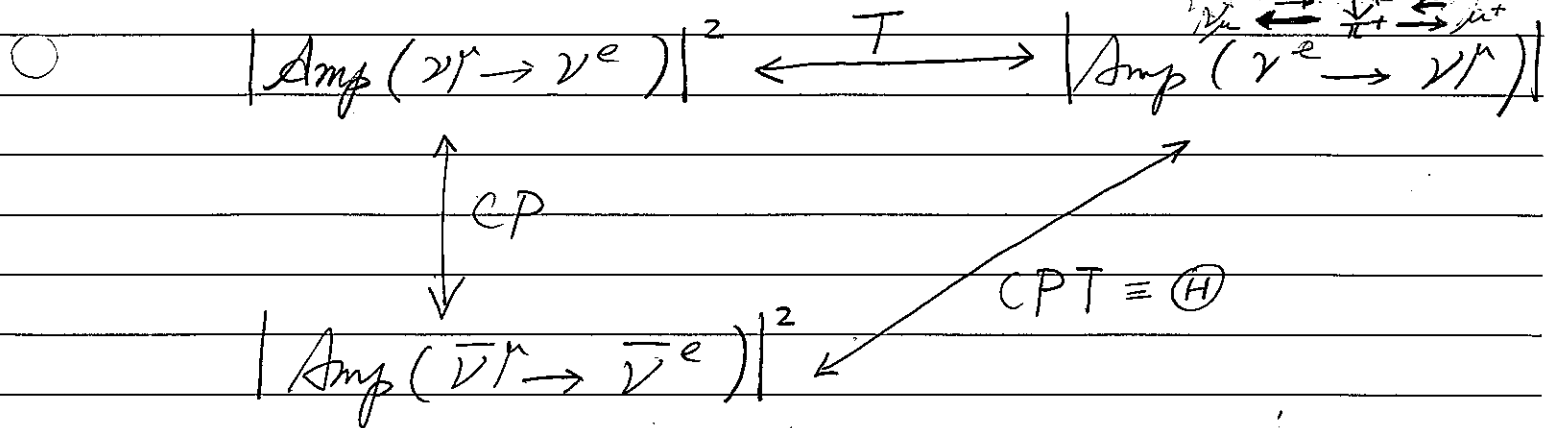
$$\left| \frac{m(K^0) - m(\bar{K}^0)}{m(K^0)} \right| < 10^{-18}$$

eg 2

(61)

(62)

② Neutrino oscillations



CPT inv. implies

$$|Amp(\bar{\nu}_\mu \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_e)|^2 = |Amp(\bar{\nu} \rightarrow e \mu)|^2$$

③ CPT theorem implies a massless particle has 2 helicities h & $-h$! (62)

* Thus far, all experimental tests have failed to find any violations of CPT.