

Determining symmetries of multi-Higgs potentials

Igor Ivanov

CFTP, Instituto Superior Técnico, Universidade de Lisboa

Bethe Forum Discrete Symmetries, Bonn, April 3-7, 2017



INVESTIGADOR
FCT



- 1 Introduction
- 2 Determining abelian symmetries
- 3 Non-abelian symmetries in 3HDM
- 4 Further developments

bSM model building

Why caring about discrete symmetry groups?

- The SM has many **weak points**: does not describe DM and baryogenesis, cannot explain the origin of fermion masses, mixing, CP -violation. In particular, the **Higgs sector** of the SM is overstretched and does not help with these issues.
- Constructions beyond the SM (bSM) based on several new fields, in particular, on **extended scalar sectors**, offer natural solutions (to some of them), see [Ishimori et al, 1002.0211](#); [Altarelli, Feruglio, 1003.3552](#); [King, Luhn, 1301.1340](#) for classical reviews and [King, 1701.04413](#), [Ivanov, 1702.03776](#) for very recent ones.
- Many new fields \rightarrow many interaction terms \rightarrow **lots of free parameters**. Imposing **extra global symmetries** helps constrain the models.

Model-building with multiple Higgses

Two approaches:

- 1 **postulate some symmetry setting**, add extra fields to encode it and generate the desired symmetry breaking pattern,
- 2 fix a designed class of bSM models, **then explore all symmetries** which are possible with this field content.

I will show the second approach at work in two problems:

- finding all abelian symmetry groups in **any** class of bSM models, with illustrations from NHDM,
- finding all non-abelian discrete symmetry groups in 3HDM scalar sector.

The focus is on the **method** of recognizing symmetries and on establishing **exhaustive lists of possibilities**, not on the specific bSM models.

Model-building with multiple Higgses

Two approaches:

- 1 **postulate some symmetry setting**, add extra fields to encode it and generate the desired symmetry breaking pattern,
- 2 fix a designed class of bSM models, **then explore all symmetries** which are possible with this field content.

I will show the second approach at work in two problems:

- finding all abelian symmetry groups in **any** class of bSM models, with illustrations from NHDM,
- finding all non-abelian discrete symmetry groups in 3HDM scalar sector.

The focus is on the **method** of recognizing symmetries and on establishing **exhaustive lists of possibilities**, not on the specific bSM models.

Abelian (rephasing) symmetries

Rephasing symmetries in NHDM

NB: NHDM scalar potential is an illustration; the method itself is general.

Higgs potential V in NHDM is built of ϕ_j , $j = 1, \dots, N$:

$$V = Y_{ij}(\phi_i^\dagger \phi_j) + Z_{ijkl}(\phi_i^\dagger \phi_j)(\phi_k^\dagger \phi_l),$$

It may be invariant under $\phi_j \mapsto e^{i\alpha_j} \phi_j$ with some α_j . The first task is to find **rephasing symmetry group A** of a given potential.

- If V depends only on $|\phi_j|^2$, then $A = [U(1)]^N$: any rephasing will do.
- If not, $V = V_0 + k$ rephasing-sensitive terms. For each term, write invariance condition and solve the system of k such conditions for α_j .

Seems straightforward so far...

Rephasing symmetries in NHDM

For example, $(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_3)$ changes under a general rephasing as

$$(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_3) \mapsto e^{i(-2\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3)} (\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_3).$$

Write it as $\sum_{j=1}^N d_{1j} \alpha_j$, with $d_{1j} = (-2, 1, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$. Then if

$$d_{1j} \alpha_j = 2\pi n_1$$

with any integer n_1 , this term remains invariant. Repeat for all terms to obtain

$$d_{ij} \alpha_j = 2\pi n_i \quad \text{with} \quad n_i \in \mathbb{N}.$$

The task is to solve this system for α_j and deduce the symmetry group.

NB: the rephasing group is encoded in the $k \times N$ matrix d_{ij} .

Rephasing symmetries in NHDM

For example, $(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_3)$ changes under a general rephasing as

$$(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_3) \mapsto e^{i(-2\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3)} (\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_3).$$

Write it as $\sum_{j=1}^N d_{1j} \alpha_j$, with $d_{1j} = (-2, 1, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$. Then if

$$d_{1j} \alpha_j = 2\pi n_1$$

with any integer n_1 , this term remains invariant. Repeat for all terms to obtain

$$d_{ij} \alpha_j = 2\pi n_i \quad \text{with} \quad n_i \in \mathbb{N}.$$

The task is to solve this system for α_j and deduce the symmetry group.

NB: the rephasing group is encoded in the $k \times N$ matrix d_{ij} .

Rephasing symmetries in NHDM

A 4HDM example:

$$V = V_0 + \lambda_1(\phi_4^\dagger\phi_1)(\phi_3^\dagger\phi_1) + \lambda_2(\phi_4^\dagger\phi_2)(\phi_1^\dagger\phi_2) + \lambda_3(\phi_4^\dagger\phi_3)(\phi_2^\dagger\phi_3) + \text{h.c.}$$

gives

$$d_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Rephasing symmetries in NHDM

The matrix d_{ij} always has integer entries. By certain elementary steps

- permutation of rows or columns,
- sign flips of rows or columns,
- adding a column/row to another column/row

it can be diagonalized: $d = R \cdot D \cdot C$, where $|\det R| = |\det C| = 1$ and

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & & & & & \\ & d_2 & & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & & \\ & & & d_r & & & \\ & & & & 0 & & \\ & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & 0 & \dots \end{pmatrix}, \quad r = \text{rank } d$$

with $d_i > 0$ and such that d_i divides d_{i+1} .

D is known as the **Smith Normal Form** (SNF) of d_{ij} .
It exists and is unique for any integer-valued matrix.

Rephasing symmetries in NHDM

The key observation: elementary steps do not change the set of solutions.

Now the equations are decoupled; each $d_i \tilde{\alpha}_i = 2\pi \tilde{n}_i$ has solutions $\tilde{\alpha}_i = 2\pi \tilde{n}_i / d_i$, which generates the group \mathbb{Z}_{d_i} .

The rephasing group is therefore

$$A = \mathbb{Z}_{d_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{d_2} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{d_r} \times [U(1)]^{N-r}.$$

The 4HDM example

$$V = V_0 + \lambda_1 (\phi_4^\dagger \phi_1) (\phi_3^\dagger \phi_1) + \lambda_2 (\phi_4^\dagger \phi_2) (\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2) + \lambda_3 (\phi_4^\dagger \phi_3) (\phi_2^\dagger \phi_3) + \text{h.c.}$$

gives

$$D \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A = \mathbb{Z}_7 \times U(1).$$

Rephasing symmetries in NHDM

The key observation: elementary steps do not change the set of solutions.

Now the equations are decoupled; each $d_i \tilde{\alpha}_i = 2\pi \tilde{n}_i$ has solutions $\tilde{\alpha}_i = 2\pi \tilde{n}_i / d_i$, which generates the group \mathbb{Z}_{d_i} .

The rephasing group is therefore

$$A = \mathbb{Z}_{d_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{d_2} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{d_r} \times [U(1)]^{N-r}.$$

The 4HDM example

$$V = V_0 + \lambda_1 (\phi_4^\dagger \phi_1) (\phi_3^\dagger \phi_1) + \lambda_2 (\phi_4^\dagger \phi_2) (\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2) + \lambda_3 (\phi_4^\dagger \phi_3) (\phi_2^\dagger \phi_3) + \text{h.c.}$$

gives

$$D \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A = \mathbb{Z}_7 \times U(1).$$

3HDM with quarks

Another example: 3HDM quark sector

$$-\mathcal{L}_Y = \Gamma_{jLj_d}^{(j_\phi)} \bar{Q}_{LjL} \phi_{j_\phi} d_{Rj_d} + \Delta_{jLj_u}^{(j_\phi)} \bar{Q}_{LjL} \tilde{\phi}_{j_\phi} u_{Rj_u} + h.c.$$

with the following textures:

$$\Gamma^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \times \\ 0 & \times & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Gamma^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \times & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Gamma^{(3)} = \begin{pmatrix} \times & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \times \\ 0 & \times & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\Delta^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} \times & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \times \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Delta^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \times & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \times & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Delta^{(3)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \times \\ 0 & \times & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

There are 12 Yukawa terms; 6 with d_R 's and 6 with u_R 's.

3HDM with quarks

We order the 12 fields as $(\phi_{j_\phi}; Q_{Lj_L}; d_{Rj_d}; u_{Rj_u})$, where $j_\phi, j_L, j_d, j_u = 1, 2, 3$. Each Yukawa term produces a row d_{ij} with entries ± 1 or 0.

For example, the term with $\Gamma_{13}^{(1)}$ is $\bar{Q}_{L1}\phi_1 d_{R3}$, and its row d_{ij} is

$$\left(\overbrace{(1, 0, 0)}^{\phi} \mid \overbrace{(-1, 0, 0)}^{Q_L} \mid \overbrace{(0, 0, 1)}^{d_R} \mid \overbrace{(0, 0, 0)}^{u_R} \right),$$

and the term with $\Delta_{31}^{(2)}$ is $\bar{Q}_{L3}\tilde{\phi}_2 u_{R1}$, and its row d_{ij} is

$$(0, -1, 0 \mid 0, 0, -1 \mid 0, 0, 0 \mid 1, 0, 0).$$

3HDM with quarks

The entire matrix d_{ij} is a 12×12 matrix:

$$d_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

3HDM with quarks

$D = \text{diag}(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 5, 0, 0)$.

The symmetry group is $A = \mathbb{Z}_5 \times U(1)_Y \times U(1)_B$.

The \mathbb{Z}_5 -charges of the fields are: $q_{\mathbb{Z}_5} = (0, 2, 4 | 2, 1, 0 | 3, 1, 2 | 2, 4, 0)$.

More examples and applications:

- Remnant discrete symmetries in GUT models: [Petersen, Ratz, Schieren, 0907.4049](#),
- NHDM scalar sector: [Ivanov, Keus, Vdovin, 1112.1660](#); [Ivanov, Lavoura, 1302.3656](#); [Branco, Ivanov, 1511.02764](#),
- 3HDM quark sector: [Ivanov, Nishi, 1309.3682](#), [Nishi, 1411.4909](#),
- flavor symmetry groups in $SO(10)$ GUT models with any number of Higgses in $10, \overline{126}, 120$ irreps. [Ivanov, Lavoura, 1511.02720](#).

Beyond case-by-case checks

Next task: find **all** rephasing symmetry groups possible with the given field content, and do it **efficiently**, avoiding case-by-case checks.

This is encoded in the structures of **all** possible matrices d_{ij} built of rows of special type, such as

$$(2, -2, 0, 0, \dots), \quad (2, -1, -1, 0, \dots), \quad (1, 1, -1, -1, 0, \dots),$$

up to permutations, for NHDM scalar potential, or

$$(1, -1, 1, 0, \dots), \quad (-1, -1, 1, 0, \dots),$$

up to permutations, for NHDM Yukawa sector.

Beyond case-by-case checks

The main point:

$$|\det d| = |\det D| = \prod_j d_j.$$

The procedure is then the following:

- get rid of all “automatic” $U(1)$'s. For NHDM scalar sector it implies $U(N) \rightarrow U(N)/U(1) \simeq PSU(N)$;
- using the structure of d , find all values of $|\det d| = |A|$;
- if the prime decomposition of $|A|$ involves only first powers, then A is **uniquely determined** without the need to explicitly find the SNF,
- if its prime decomposition involves higher powers, then one needs to explicitly find the SNF to resolve the ambiguity.

This analysis can be often done **manually**, without computer-algebra assistance.

Beyond case-by-case checks

For example,

- if $|A| = 5$, then the group A must be \mathbb{Z}_5 ;
- if $|A| = 30$, then the group A must be $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_5$;
- if $|A| = 4$, then the group A can be either $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ or \mathbb{Z}_4 . One needs to check whether SNF is $(\dots, 1, 2, 2)$ or $(\dots, 1, 1, 4)$.

In addition, one can often place the exact upper bound on $|A|$.

- scalar sector of NHDM: $|A| \leq 2^{N-1}$ for any N ;
- NHDM with quarks: $|A| \leq (N+1)^2/3$ for any N .

Beyond case-by-case checks

For example,

- if $|A| = 5$, then the group A must be \mathbb{Z}_5 ;
- if $|A| = 30$, then the group A must be $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_5$;
- if $|A| = 4$, then the group A can be either $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ or \mathbb{Z}_4 . One needs to check whether SNF is $(\dots, 1, 2, 2)$ or $(\dots, 1, 1, 4)$.

In addition, one can often place the exact **upper bound on $|A|$** .

- scalar sector of NHDM: $|A| \leq 2^{N-1}$ for any N ;
- NHDM with quarks: $|A| \leq (N+1)^2/3$ for any N .

What initially seemed to require a massive computer-assisted case by case check **turns into an arithmetical exercise**.

Non-abelian symmetries in 3HDM scalar sector

Strategy

The main problem

find all discrete symmetry groups G which can be implemented in 3HDM scalar sector **without producing accidental symmetries**.

- The scalar potential in any NHDM is symmetric under the simultaneous rephasing $\alpha_j = \alpha$, which is a part of $U(1)_Y$. We are interested in **additional** symmetries. Therefore, we will search, within 3HDM, for G 's which are subgroups not of $U(3)$ but of $PSU(3) = U(3)/U(1) = SU(3)/\mathbb{Z}_3$.
- Various families of discrete subgroups of $SU(3)$ were studied in much detail, see e.g. the recent works [Grimus, Ludl, 1006.0098](#), [1110.6376](#), and used in “group scans” in search of observed flavor-physics patterns. This body of literature **does not help us** much with our problem we face. We need a **constructive approach** to find all G 's which answer the question.

“Abelian LEGO” strategy

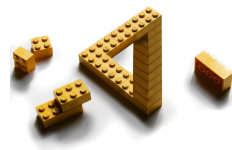
Step 1: find all possible discrete **abelian** groups $A_i \subset PSU(3)$; any allowed G can have only those abelian subgroups. These are “LEGO bricks” with which we will build a non-abelian model.



Step 2: build G by **combining various** A_i but avoid producing abelian groups not in the list!



Step 3: for each G built, **check** that it fits $PSU(3)$ and that it does not produce accidental symmetry.



Step 1: Abelian groups in 3HDM

For $N = 3$ we get the following finite $A_i \subset PSU(3)$:

$$A_i = \mathbb{Z}_2, \quad \mathbb{Z}_3, \quad \mathbb{Z}_4, \quad \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2, \quad \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3.$$

The last one is **not** a rephasing subgroup. Its full preimage in $SU(3)$ is the famous $\Delta(27)$:

$$\Delta(27)/Z(SU(3)) \simeq \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3.$$

For $PSU(3)$, this is the only “new” group in addition to the rephasing groups
[Ivanov](#), [Keus](#), [Vdovin](#), [1112.1660](#).

This list is complete: imposing any other finite abelian symmetry group on the potential **unavoidably leads to continuous symmetry group**.

Step 2: Group-theoretic part

- Any finite (non-abelian) G must contain only these A_i ,
- their orders have only two prime factors: 2 and 3 \Rightarrow by Cauchy's theorem, $|G| = 2^a 3^b$,
- \Rightarrow by Burnside's $p^a q^b$ theorem, G is solvable (see introduction in Ivanov, Vdovin, 1210.6553): it contains a **normal** abelian subgroup A

$$g^{-1}Ag = A \quad \forall g \in G.$$

- \Rightarrow so far, we don't have any restriction on the size and structure of G/A .
- We proved in Ivanov, Vdovin, 1210.6553, that, inside $PSU(3)$, a stronger statement holds: G contains a **normal maximal abelian subgroup** (= normal self-centralizing subgroup).

Step 2: Group-theoretic part

- Any finite (non-abelian) G must contain only these A_i ,
- their orders have only two prime factors: 2 and 3 \Rightarrow by Cauchy's theorem, $|G| = 2^a 3^b$,
- \Rightarrow by Burnside's $p^a q^b$ theorem, G is solvable (see introduction in Ivanov, Vdovin, 1210.6553): it contains a normal abelian subgroup A

$$g^{-1}Ag = A \quad \forall g \in G.$$

- \Rightarrow so far, we don't have any restriction on the size and structure of G/A .
- We proved in Ivanov, Vdovin, 1210.6553, that, inside $PSU(3)$, a stronger statement holds: G contains a normal maximal abelian subgroup (= normal self-centralizing subgroup).

Step 2: Group-theoretic part

- Any finite (non-abelian) G must contain only these A_i ,
- their orders have only two prime factors: 2 and 3 \Rightarrow by Cauchy's theorem, $|G| = 2^a 3^b$,
- \Rightarrow by Burnside's $p^a q^b$ theorem, G is solvable (see introduction in [Ivanov, Vdovin, 1210.6553](#)): it contains a **normal** abelian subgroup A

$$g^{-1}Ag = A \quad \forall g \in G.$$

- \Rightarrow so far, we don't have any restriction on the size and structure of G/A .
- We proved in [Ivanov, Vdovin, 1210.6553](#), that, inside $PSU(3)$, a stronger statement holds: G contains a **normal maximal abelian subgroup** (= normal self-centralizing subgroup).

Step 2: Group-theoretic part

- Any finite (non-abelian) G must contain only these A_i ,
- their orders have only two prime factors: 2 and 3 \Rightarrow by Cauchy's theorem, $|G| = 2^a 3^b$,
- \Rightarrow by Burnside's $p^a q^b$ theorem, G is solvable (see introduction in Ivanov, Vdovin, 1210.6553): it contains a normal abelian subgroup A

$$g^{-1}Ag = A \quad \forall g \in G.$$

- \Rightarrow so far, we don't have any restriction on the size and structure of G/A .
- We proved in Ivanov, Vdovin, 1210.6553, that, inside $PSU(3)$, a stronger statement holds: G contains a normal maximal abelian subgroup (= normal self-centralizing subgroup).

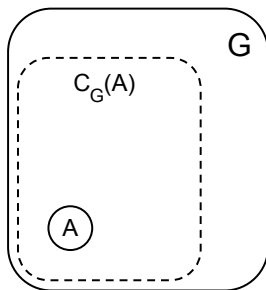
Step 2: Group-theoretic part

- Any finite (non-abelian) G must contain only these A_i ,
- their orders have only two prime factors: 2 and 3 \Rightarrow by Cauchy's theorem, $|G| = 2^a 3^b$,
- \Rightarrow by Burnside's $p^a q^b$ theorem, G is solvable (see introduction in [Ivanov, Vdovin, 1210.6553](#)): it contains a **normal** abelian subgroup A

$$g^{-1}Ag = A \quad \forall g \in G.$$

- \Rightarrow so far, we don't have any restriction on the size and structure of G/A .
- We proved in [Ivanov, Vdovin, 1210.6553](#), that, inside $PSU(3)$, a stronger statement holds: G contains a **normal maximal abelian subgroup** (= normal self-centralizing subgroup).

Consequences of a normal maximal abelian subgroup

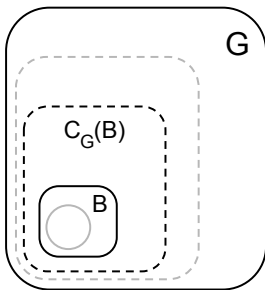


Consider A , abelian subgroup of G . **Centralizer** of A in G is the subgroup of all elements $g \in G$ which commute with all elements $x \in A$. We get

$$A \subseteq C_G(A) \subset G.$$

If $A = C_G(A)$, then A is **self-centralizing**.

Consequences of a normal maximal abelian subgroup

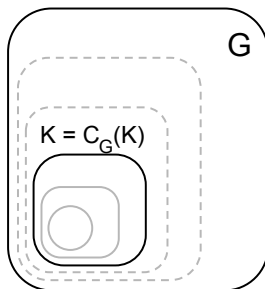


If $A \subset C_G(A)$, pick up some $b \in C_G(A)$, $b \notin A$ and consider $B = \langle A, b \rangle$, which is also an abelian subgroup of G .

We then get:

$$A \subset B \subseteq C_G(B) \subseteq C_G(A) \subset G.$$

Consequences of a normal maximal abelian subgroup



If $B \subset C_G(B)$, pick up some $c \in C_G(B)$, $c \notin B$ and consider $C = \langle B, c \rangle$, which is also an abelian subgroup of G .

Repeat until we hit a self-centralizing (maximal) abelian subgroup:

$$A \subset B \subset \cdots \subset K = C_G(K) \subseteq \cdots \subseteq C_G(B) \subseteq C_G(A) \subset G.$$

Consequences of a normal maximal abelian subgroup

What happens if a maximal abelian (=self-centralizing) subgroup A is **normal** in G ?

- If A is normal in G , then $g^{-1}Ag = A$, so g acts on elements of A by some group-preserving permutation (**automorphism of A**).
- So, for every $g \in G$ we get an automorphism $\in \text{Aut}(A)$. We get a map $f : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(A)$.
- Note that $\text{Ker } f = C_G(A)$. Indeed, $\text{Ker } f$ contains all elements g which induce the trivial permutation on A : $g^{-1}ag = a$ for all $a \in A$.
- If A is self-centralizing, $\text{Ker } f = A$. Therefore, map $\tilde{f} : G/A \rightarrow \text{Aut}(A)$ is **injective**: different elements of G/A map to different elements of $\text{Aut}(A)$.
- Thus, $G/A \subseteq \text{Aut}(A)$, and G can be constructed as an **extension of A by a subgroup of $\text{Aut}(A)$** .

Consequences of a normal maximal abelian subgroup

What happens if a maximal abelian (=self-centralizing) subgroup A is **normal** in G ?

- If A is normal in G , then $g^{-1}Ag = A$, so g acts on elements of A by some group-preserving permutation (**automorphism of A**).
- So, for every $g \in G$ we get an automorphism $\in \text{Aut}(A)$. We get a map **$f : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(A)$** .
- Note that **$\text{Ker } f = C_G(A)$** . Indeed, $\text{Ker } f$ contains all elements g which induce the trivial permutation on A : $g^{-1}ag = a$ for all $a \in A$.
- If A is self-centralizing, $\text{Ker } f = A$. Therefore, map **$\tilde{f} : G/A \rightarrow \text{Aut}(A)$** is **injective**: different elements of G/A map to different elements of $\text{Aut}(A)$.
- Thus, **$G/A \subseteq \text{Aut}(A)$** , and G can be constructed as an **extension of A** by a **subgroup of $\text{Aut}(A)$** .

Consequences of a normal maximal abelian subgroup

What happens if a maximal abelian (=self-centralizing) subgroup A is **normal** in G ?

- If A is normal in G , then $g^{-1}Ag = A$, so g acts on elements of A by some group-preserving permutation (**automorphism of A**).
- So, for every $g \in G$ we get an automorphism $\in \text{Aut}(A)$. We get a map $f : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(A)$.
- Note that $\text{Ker } f = C_G(A)$. Indeed, $\text{Ker } f$ contains all elements g which induce the trivial permutation on A : $g^{-1}ag = a$ for all $a \in A$.
- If A is self-centralizing, $\text{Ker } f = A$. Therefore, map $\tilde{f} : G/A \rightarrow \text{Aut}(A)$ is **injective**: different elements of G/A map to different elements of $\text{Aut}(A)$.
- Thus, $G/A \subseteq \text{Aut}(A)$, and G can be constructed as an **extension of A by a subgroup of $\text{Aut}(A)$** .

Consequences of a normal maximal abelian subgroup

What happens if a maximal abelian (=self-centralizing) subgroup A is **normal** in G ?

- If A is normal in G , then $g^{-1}Ag = A$, so g acts on elements of A by some group-preserving permutation (**automorphism of A**).
- So, for every $g \in G$ we get an automorphism $\in \text{Aut}(A)$. We get a map $f : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(A)$.
- Note that $\text{Ker } f = C_G(A)$. Indeed, $\text{Ker } f$ contains all elements g which induce the trivial permutation on A : $g^{-1}ag = a$ for all $a \in A$.
- If A is self-centralizing, $\text{Ker } f = A$. Therefore, map $\tilde{f} : G/A \rightarrow \text{Aut}(A)$ is **injective**: different elements of G/A map to different elements of $\text{Aut}(A)$.
- Thus, $G/A \subseteq \text{Aut}(A)$, and G can be constructed as an **extension of A by a subgroup of $\text{Aut}(A)$** .

Consequences of a normal maximal abelian subgroup

What happens if a maximal abelian (=self-centralizing) subgroup A is **normal** in G ?

- If A is normal in G , then $g^{-1}Ag = A$, so g acts on elements of A by some group-preserving permutation (**automorphism of A**).
- So, for every $g \in G$ we get an automorphism $\in \text{Aut}(A)$. We get a map $f : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(A)$.
- Note that $\text{Ker } f = C_G(A)$. Indeed, $\text{Ker } f$ contains all elements g which induce the trivial permutation on A : $g^{-1}ag = a$ for all $a \in A$.
- If A is self-centralizing, $\text{Ker } f = A$. Therefore, map $\tilde{f} : G/A \rightarrow \text{Aut}(A)$ is **injective**: different elements of G/A map to different elements of $\text{Aut}(A)$.
- Thus, $G/A \subseteq \text{Aut}(A)$, and G can be constructed as an **extension of A by a subgroup of $\text{Aut}(A)$** .

Automorphism groups

$$G = A \cdot P, \quad \text{extension of } A \text{ by } P, \quad P \subseteq \text{Aut}(A).$$

Overview of possibilities:

A	$\text{Aut}(A)$	“usable” subgroups P
\mathbb{Z}_2	$\{1\}$	—
\mathbb{Z}_3	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2
\mathbb{Z}_4	\mathbb{Z}_2	\mathbb{Z}_2
$\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$	$GL_2(2) \simeq S_3$	$\mathbb{Z}_2, \mathbb{Z}_3, S_3$
$\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$	$GL_2(3)$	$\mathbb{Z}_2, \mathbb{Z}_4$

Step 3: Constructing G by extensions, \mathbb{Z}_4 example

Example: $A = \mathbb{Z}_4$. Then $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_4) = \mathbb{Z}_2$, so G is extension of \mathbb{Z}_4 by \mathbb{Z}_2 .

There are several possibilities.

(1) extensions which lead to larger abelian groups ($\mathbb{Z}_8, \mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$) are immediately excluded;

(2) split extension $\mathbb{Z}_4 \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_2 \simeq D_4$:

$$D_4 = \langle a, b \mid a^4 = 1, b^2 = 1, ab = ba^3 \rangle.$$

If $a = \text{diag}(i, -i, 1)$, then

$$b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & e^{i\delta} & 0 \\ e^{-i\delta} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with arbitrary } \delta.$$

Step 3: Constructing G by extensions, \mathbb{Z}_4 example

Example: $A = \mathbb{Z}_4$. Then $\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_4) = \mathbb{Z}_2$, so G is extension of \mathbb{Z}_4 by \mathbb{Z}_2 .

There are several possibilities.

(1) extensions which lead to larger abelian groups ($\mathbb{Z}_8, \mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$) are immediately excluded;

(2) split extension $\mathbb{Z}_4 \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_2 \simeq D_4$:

$$D_4 = \langle a, b \mid a^4 = 1, b^2 = 1, ab = ba^3 \rangle.$$

If $a = \text{diag}(i, -i, 1)$, then

$$b = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & e^{i\delta} & 0 \\ e^{-i\delta} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with arbitrary } \delta.$$

Step 3: Constructing G by extensions, \mathbb{Z}_4 example

A generic \mathbb{Z}_4 potential can be brought to the form $V_0 + V_{\mathbb{Z}_4}$, where

$$V_0 = - \sum_a m_a^2 (\phi_a^\dagger \phi_a) + \sum_{a,b} \lambda_{ab} (\phi_a^\dagger \phi_a) (\phi_b^\dagger \phi_b) + \sum_{a \neq b} \lambda'_{ab} (\phi_a^\dagger \phi_b) (\phi_b^\dagger \phi_a),$$

and

$$V_{\mathbb{Z}_4} = \lambda_1 (\phi_3^\dagger \phi_1) (\phi_3^\dagger \phi_2) + \lambda_2 (\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)^2 + h.c.$$

The λ_1 term is invariant under b , while the λ_2 term transforms as

$$(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)^2 \mapsto e^{-4i\delta} (\phi_2^\dagger \phi_1)^2.$$

If we restrict parameters of V_0 ($m_{11}^2 = m_{22}^2$, $\lambda_{11} = \lambda_{22}$, $\lambda_{13} = \lambda_{23}$, $\lambda'_{13} = \lambda'_{23}$) then the potential is symmetric under one particular D_4 group in which the value of $\delta = \arg \lambda_2/2$.

Step 3: Constructing G by extensions, \mathbb{Z}_4 example

A generic \mathbb{Z}_4 potential can be brought to the form $V_0 + V_{\mathbb{Z}_4}$, where

$$V_0 = - \sum_a m_a^2 (\phi_a^\dagger \phi_a) + \sum_{a,b} \lambda_{ab} (\phi_a^\dagger \phi_a) (\phi_b^\dagger \phi_b) + \sum_{a \neq b} \lambda'_{ab} (\phi_a^\dagger \phi_b) (\phi_b^\dagger \phi_a),$$

and

$$V_{\mathbb{Z}_4} = \lambda_1 (\phi_3^\dagger \phi_1) (\phi_3^\dagger \phi_2) + \lambda_2 (\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)^2 + h.c.$$

The λ_1 term is invariant under b , while the λ_2 term transforms as

$$(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)^2 \mapsto e^{-4i\delta} (\phi_2^\dagger \phi_1)^2.$$

If we restrict parameters of V_0 ($m_{11}^2 = m_{22}^2$, $\lambda_{11} = \lambda_{22}$, $\lambda_{13} = \lambda_{23}$, $\lambda'_{13} = \lambda'_{23}$) then the potential is **symmetric under one particular D_4 group in which the value of $\delta = \arg \lambda_2/2$.**

Step 3: Constructing G by extensions, \mathbb{Z}_4 example

(3) quaternion group $Q_4 = \langle a, b \mid a^4 = 1, b^2 = a^2, ab = ba^3 \rangle$.

If $a = \text{diag}(i, -i, 1)$, then

$$b(Q_4) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & e^{i\delta} & 0 \\ -e^{-i\delta} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Again, the \mathbb{Z}_4 part of the potential:

$$V_{\mathbb{Z}_4} = \lambda_1(\phi_3^\dagger \phi_1)(\phi_3^\dagger \phi_2) + \lambda_2(\phi_1^\dagger \phi_2)^2 + h.c.$$

Upon this b , the λ_1 term **changes its sign**. The only way to impose Q_4 is to set $\lambda_1 = 0$. But then the potential **becomes invariant under a continuous transformation**: $\text{diag}(e^{i\alpha}, e^{i\alpha}, 1)$.

We conclude that Q_4 **cannot be the finite symmetry group of potential**.

Finite symmetry groups for $N = 3$

We performed this kind of analysis for all abelian groups we have.

Results:

$$\mathbb{Z}_2, \quad \mathbb{Z}_3, \quad \mathbb{Z}_4, \quad \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2, \quad S_3, \quad D_4, \quad A_4, \quad S_4, \\ (\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3) \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_2 = \Delta(54)/\mathbb{Z}_3, \quad (\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3) \rtimes \mathbb{Z}_4 = \Sigma(36).$$

This list is complete: trying to impose any other finite symmetry group will lead to a potential symmetric under a continuous group.

For each G , we constructed the general G -invariant potential

⇒ this allows us to prove the **absence of accidental symmetries** in each case.

Further developments

Search for GCPs

It may happen that G -invariant potential is automatically invariant under a **generalized CP** (GCP) transformation:

$$J : \phi_i \mapsto X_{ij} \phi_j^* .$$

For each G , we searched for such J satisfying conditions:

$$J^2 = XX^* \in G, \quad J^{-1} \rho_g J = X \rho_g X^\dagger = \rho_{g'} .$$

and looked whether it implies new constraints.

$\mathbb{Z}_4, D_4, A_4, S_4, \Sigma(36)$ indeed **force** explicit CP -conservation. The others do not (this possibility was absent in 2HDM).

Search for GCPs

Matrix d plays a role in the problem.

$$d(A_4) = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad d(\Delta(54)) = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- For A_4 , $-d = d$ up to permutations \rightarrow explicit CP -conservation.
- For $\Delta(27)$, $-d \neq d$ \rightarrow possibility for explicit CP -violation.

CP4 3HDM

One peculiar possibility is 3HDM with **CP4** (= GCP of order 4) without any other symmetry, [Ivanov, Silva, 1512.09276](#).

- **assumes very little**: this is the minimal model realizing CP4. This is the first ever model based on CP4 without any accidental symmetry.
- CP4 can be extended to Yukawa sector, [Aranda, Ivanov, Jimenez, 1608.08922](#).
- It is **tractable analytically** and is **quite predictive**.

In short, a good balance of minimality, predictiveness, and peculiarity. We are exploring its phenomenology.

Symmetry breaking patterns in NHDM

The vacuum expectation value alignment $\langle \phi_i^0 \rangle = v_i e^{i\xi_i} / \sqrt{2}$ of a G -symmetric NHDM can be invariant under a **residual symmetry group** $G_v \subseteq G$.

Phenomenology depends on how much of G is broken! G -symmetric NHDM can lead to viable quark masses and CKM **only if G is broken completely** in the space of “active” doublets **Leurer, Nir, Seiberg, hep-ph/9212278; Gonzalez Felipe et al, 1401.5807.**

Symmetry breaking in 3HDM

Results on **strongest** and **weakest** breaking of discrete symmetries in 3HDM and on spontaneous *CP*-violation, [Ivanov, Nishi, 1410.6139](#).

group	$ G $	$ G_V _{min}$	$ G_V _{max}$	sCPv possible?
abelian	2, 3, 4, 8	1	$ G $	yes
$\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2^*$	6	1	6	yes
S_3	6	1	6	—
$\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2^*$	8	2	8	no
$S_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2^*$	12	2	12	yes
$D_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2^*$	16	2	16	no
$A_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2^*$	24	4	8	no
$S_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2^*$	48	6	16	no
<i>CP</i> -violating $\Delta(27)$	18	6	6	—
<i>CP</i> -conserving $\Delta(27)$	36	6	12	yes
$\Sigma(36)$	72	12	12	no

The moral

The moral

When building bSM models, do not ignore **unconventional mathematical tools**. They may help you answer questions which traditional “poor physicist’s methods” just cannot handle.