

Special Mathematics Lecture

Groups and their representations

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Handwritten notes taken by L. Zhang

Groups & Representations

I) Groups

I.1) Basic def

Def. A group is a set G together with

a map $G \times G \rightarrow G$ (denoted by " \cdot ", " \ast ", or " $+$ ") && satisfying:

$$\forall a, b, c \in G$$

$$1) (ab)c = a(bc)$$

ASSOCIATIVITY

$$2) \exists e \in G: ea = ae = a$$

IDENTITY ELEMENT

$$3) \forall a \in G \exists a^{-1} \in G: aa^{-1} = e$$

EXISTANCE of INVERSE

Δ If use " $+$ " notation, $a^{-1} =: -a$, $e =: 0$; for " \cdot " notations $e =: 1$

Remark

$$1) e^{-1} = e, a^{-1}a = e, (a^{-1})^{-1} = a, (ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}, a^{-1}, e \text{ are unique.}$$

$$2) \text{If } ab = ac \text{ then } b = c; \text{If } ba = ca \text{ then } b = c$$

Def.

G is Abelian (or commutative) if $\forall a, b \in G: ab = ba$

G is finite if containing only a finite number of elements, ($\Leftrightarrow: \overbrace{|G|}^{\text{number of elements of } G} < \infty$)

Examples

$$1) (\mathbb{Z}, +) \quad (\mathbb{R}, +) \quad (\mathbb{R}_+, \cdot) \quad \mapsto := (0, +\infty)$$

$$2) \text{Cyclic group } C_n \text{ with } C_n = \{e, a, a^2 = aa, a^3, a^4, \dots, a^{n-1}\} \quad (e \equiv a^0 \equiv a^n)$$

$$\text{with } a^j a^k = a^{j+k \bmod n}, \quad (a^j)^{-1} = a^{n-j} \quad (\text{Abelian group})$$

3) Symmetric group $S_n =$ group of permutations of n elements

• It contains $n!$ elements

• Not Abelian (if $n \geq 3$)

For example, $n=3$, the elements are:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

"e"

$$\text{with } \begin{pmatrix} \downarrow 1 & \downarrow 2 & \downarrow 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

4) $GL(n, \mathbb{R}), GL(n, \mathbb{C})$: $n \times n$ invertible matrices with multiplication

$SL(n, \mathbb{R}), SL(n, \mathbb{C})$: invertible matrices with $\det = 1$

$U(n)$: inv. matrices s.t. $U^* = U^{-1}$ ($U^* := \overline{U^T}$) \rightarrow complex conjugate ($\Rightarrow |\det U| = 1$)

$SU(n) := \{M \in U(n) \mid \det M = 1\}$

$O(n) \subset GL(n, \mathbb{R})$ with $A^t = A^{-1}$ ($\Rightarrow \det A = \pm 1$)

$SO(n) \subset O(n)$ with $\det(A) = 1$

Def. A subgroup G_0 is a subset of group G which ^(G_0) is a group.

G_0 is proper if $G_0 \neq G$ and non-trivial if $G_0 \neq \{e\}$

Check in examples: which are subgroups? Does C_n contain subgroups?

Def. For $a, b \in G$, a is conjugate to b if

$$\exists c \in G: a = cbc^{-1}$$

Then we write $a \sim b$ when a is conjugate to b .

Remark: \sim is an equivalence relation, indeed:

1) $a \sim a$ (choose $c = e$) REFLEXIVITY

2) $b \sim a$ ($a = cbc^{-1} \Leftrightarrow c^{-1}ac = b$) SYMMETRY

3) $b \sim d \Rightarrow a \sim d$ (check it) TRANSITIVITY

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a = mbm^{-1} \\ b = ndn^{-1} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow a = mndn^{-1}m^{-1} = mnd(mn)^{-1}$$

Def. a, b are in the same **equivalence class** (or **conjugacy class**) if $a \sim b$.

Remark:

• Each element $a \in G$ is in a single conjugacy class.

• e generates a class on its own.

• If G is Abelian, each element generates its own class.

More generally, let G_0 be subgroup of G

and set $cG_0c^{-1} := \{cac^{-1} \mid a \in G_0\}$, ($\forall a, b \in G_0: cac^{-1}cbc^{-1} = cabc^{-1} \in G_0$)

Then cG_0c^{-1} is also a subgroup of G

Def: cG_0c^{-1} is a subgroup conjugated to G_0 .

• If $\forall c \in G: cG_0c^{-1} = G_0$ then G_0 is called normal or invariant.

(written $G_0 \triangleleft G$)

Examples:

Ex: Consider $(\mathbb{R}, +) = G$, and $(\mathbb{Z}, +) = G_0$ is a normal subgroup.

• $G = GL(n, \mathbb{C})$, $G_0 = \mathbb{C}^* I_{n \times n}$ is normal (and Abelian)

↳ not necessary for normal subgroup

Def. The center $Z(G)$ of a group G is defined by

$$\{a \in G \mid ab = ba \forall b \in G\}$$

Exercise: $Z(G)$ is an Abelian & normal subgroup of G

Def: G is simple if $\{e\}$ is the only proper normal subgroup of G .

• G is semi-simple if $\{e\}$ is the only proper normal Abelian subgroup of G .

Def. Let G_0 be a subgroup of G , and $a, b \in G$

We set $a \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} b$ iff $a^{-1}b \in G_0$, then observe

$$1) a \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} a$$

$$2) b \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} a \quad (b^{-1}a = (a^{-1}b)^{-1} \in G_0)$$

$$3) b \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} c \Rightarrow a \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} c \quad (a^{-1}c = a^{-1}bb^{-1}c \in G_0)$$

$\Rightarrow \stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ is an equivalence relation.

Denote by $G_0[a]$ the equivalence class of $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ containing a

Indeed $G_0[a] = aG_0 =: \text{Left Coset}$

$$(b \in G_0 \Rightarrow a^{-1}ab \in G_0 \Rightarrow a \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} ab \Rightarrow ab \in G_0[a])$$

Similarly, $a \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} b$ iff $ba^{-1} \in G_0$

$\rightsquigarrow \stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ is an equivalence relation with equivalence class $[a]_{G_0} = G_0 a =: \text{Right Coset}$

⚠ aG_0 & $G_0 a$ are usually not subgroups of G .

Prop.

$$1) G_0[a] = [a]_{G_0} \Leftrightarrow G_0 \triangleleft G \text{ (normal subgroup)}$$

$$2) G_0 \triangleleft G \Rightarrow [a]_{G_0} [b]_{G_0} = [ab]_{G_0}$$

This makes $\{[a]_{G_0} \mid a \in G\}$ a group.

This group is denoted by G/G_0 and called quotient group (or factor group)

Example: $G = (\mathbb{R}, +)$, $G_0 = (\mathbb{Z}, +)$, then $G/G_0 = ([0, 1), + \text{ mod } 1)$

$$\simeq \mathbb{S} := (\{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1\}, \cdot) \simeq \mathbb{T}$$

Prop. If $|G| =: g < \infty$, $G_0 \triangleleft G$ with $|G_0| =: g_0 \leq g$ then $|G/G_0| = g/g_0$

Def. Let G, G' be 2 groups

A homomorphism is a map $\phi: G \rightarrow G'$ ^{such that} s.t. $\phi(ab) = \phi(a)\phi(b)$

If ϕ is bijective, ϕ is called an isomorphism, and we write $G \cong G'$

If $G = G'$, ϕ is called an endomorphism

and an automorphism if bijective ($G = G'$: elements & multiplication are same)

Prop. Let ϕ be a group homomorphism from G to G'

1) If G_0 a subgroup of G , then $\phi(G_0)$ is a subgroup of G'

2) $\phi(e_G) = e_{G'}$ and $\phi(a^{-1}) = (\phi(a))^{-1}$

3) $\text{Ker}(\phi) = \{a \in G \mid \phi(a) = e_{G'}\}$ is normal subgroup of G ,

and $G/\text{Ker}(\phi)$ is isomorphic to $\phi(G)$

the isomorphism $\tilde{\phi}([a]_{\text{Ker}(\phi)}) := \phi(a)$

Note: For $m \times m$ matrices A, B ,

$$\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B) \Rightarrow \det \text{ is a homomorphism from } GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \text{ to } \mathbb{C}^*$$

⚠ $\det(A+B) \neq \det(A) + \det(B)$ generally

Question: How to construct 1 group from 2 groups?

Def. Let G, G' be 2 groups, and set

$$G \otimes G' := \{a \otimes a' \mid a \in G, a' \in G'\}$$

$$\text{with } (a \otimes a')(b \otimes b') := ab \otimes a'b', \quad e = e \otimes e', \quad (a \otimes a')^{-1} = a^{-1} \otimes (a')^{-1}$$

Then $G \otimes G'$ can be proved to be a group, called the DIRECT PRODUCT of G & G'

Conversely, if G is group and G_1, G_2 are subgroups of G with

$$1) G_1 \cap G_2 = \{e\}$$

$$2) \forall a_j \in G_j: a_1 a_2 = a_2 a_1$$

$$3) \forall a \in G \exists a_1 \in G_1, a_2 \in G_2: a = a_1 a_2$$

Then $G \cong G_1 \otimes G_2$

Observe this G_1, G_2 is unique (hint: from $G_1 \cap G_2 = \{e\}$)

and G_1, G_2 are normal.

Def. (INNER SEMI-DIRECT PRODUCT)

G is a semi-direct product if $\exists G_1, G_2$ subgroups with

$$1) G_1 \text{ normal} \quad 2) G_1 \cap G_2 = \{e\}$$

$$3) \forall a \in G, a = a_1 a_2 \text{ with } a_j \in G_j \quad \left. \vphantom{3)} \right\} \text{ We write } G = G_1 \circ G_2 = G_1 \rtimes G_2$$

Abstract (OUTER SEMI-DIRECT PRODUCT)

Let H, N be 2 groups and let

$\phi: H \rightarrow \text{Aut}(N)$ be a homomorphism

↳ = {automorphism on N } Check that $\text{Aut}(N)$ is a group.

Then we set $N \rtimes_{\phi} H = \{(n, h) \in N \times H\}$ with the product

$$(n_1, h_1)(n_2, h_2) = (n_1 \phi(h_1)(n_2), h_1 h_2) \text{ and note that}$$

$$e = (e_N, e_H), \quad (n, h)^{-1} = (\phi(h^{-1})(n^{-1}), h^{-1})$$

↳ For $h \in H, \phi(h) \in \text{Aut}(N) \therefore \phi(h)$ is a map $N \rightarrow N$

Also, if we set $G_1 = \{(n, e_H) \mid n \in N\}$ and $G_2 = \{(e_N, h) \mid h \in H\}$

then G_1 is normal in $N \rtimes_{\phi} H$ and

$$G_1 \circ G_2 = N \rtimes_{\phi} H.$$

Prop.

The map $R: SU(2) \rightarrow SO(3)$ defined by

$$R(U)_{jk} = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(\sigma_j U \sigma_k U^{-1}) \rightarrow \text{trace}$$

$$\text{with } \sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

is a surjective map with $\ker(R) = \{\mathbb{1}, -\mathbb{1}\}$

(typical in quantum mechanics)
↳ (homomorphism) ↑

Lemma: $O(3) \cong SO(3) \rtimes J$ with $J = \{\mathbb{1}, -\mathbb{1}\}$

$$SL(n, \mathbb{C}) \triangleleft GL(n, \mathbb{C})$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{↳ } \cong a \\ &(\because \det(cac^{-1}) = \det(a) \therefore \text{normal}) \end{aligned}$$

Back to examples

5) Euclidean group $E(n) = \{(A, b) \mid A \in O(n), b \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$

$$\text{with } (A, b)(A', b') = (AA', b + Ab')$$

$$e = (\mathbb{1}, \mathbf{0}) \text{ and } (A, b)^{-1} = (A^{-1}, -A^{-1}b)$$

Observe $E(n) = (\mathbb{1}, \mathbb{R}^n) \rtimes (O(n), \mathbf{0})$ (inner semi-direct product)

Exercise: represent it as an outer semi-direct product (find ϕ)

6) If $g = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \in M_4(\mathbb{R})$, the Lorentz group L is given by
↳ $\cong M_{4 \times 4}(\mathbb{R}) \cong \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}$

$$L = \{\Lambda \in M_4(\mathbb{R}) \mid \Lambda^t g \Lambda = g\}$$

1) Poincaré group $P = \{(\Lambda, b) \mid \Lambda \in L, b \in \mathbb{R}^4\}$

$$\text{with } (\Lambda, b)(\Lambda', b') = (\Lambda\Lambda', b + \Lambda b')$$

$$\Rightarrow P = (\mathbb{1}, \mathbb{R}^4) \rtimes (L, \mathbf{0})$$

Def. A group of transformation of a set X is a set X , a group G , and a map $\circ: G \times X \rightarrow X$ s.t.

$$a \circ (\underbrace{b \circ x}_{\in X}) = (\underbrace{ab}_{\in G}) \circ x, \text{ and } e \circ x = x$$

Also called: X is a G -set.

Def. $\forall x \in X$ The set $O(x) \equiv O_x := \{a \circ x \mid a \in G\} \subset X$ called the ORBIT of x .

$S(x) \equiv G_x := \{a \in G \mid a \circ x = x\} \subset G$, called the STABILIZER of x .

Lemma:

- 1) The set of orbits defines a partition of X .
- 2) $S(x)$ is a subgroup of G
- 3) If $x' \in O(x)$ then $S(x) \cong S(x')$

Lemma:

Let G be a finite group of transformation of X , then

$$\forall x \in X: |S(x)| \cdot |O(x)| = |G|$$

Remark:

The Euclidean group is the group of transformation of \mathbb{R}^n leaving $\|x-y\|$ invariant

The Poincaré group is " " of \mathbb{R}^4

leaving $x^\nu y_\nu := x_1 y_1 - x_2 y_2 - x_3 y_3 - x_4 y_4$ invariant.

Remark: $O(3) = SO(3) \sqcup \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & \\ & -1 & \\ & & -1 \end{pmatrix} SO(3)$ (\sqcup : disjoint union) $A \cup B$ means $A \cup B$ with $A \cap B = \emptyset$

$\forall R \in SO(3) \exists n \in \mathbb{R}^3$ with $\|n\| = 1$ s.t. $Rn = n$

Then in a basis (n, e_2, e_3) R takes the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos(\delta) & -\sin(\delta) \\ 0 & \sin(\delta) & \cos(\delta) \end{pmatrix} \exists \delta \in [0, 2\pi)$$

We can parameterize R with n and δ .

I.2 Crystallographic Groups

Def. Let b_1, b_2, b_3 be 3 lin. indep. vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 , and set

$$\mathcal{L} = \{m_1 b_1 + m_2 b_2 + m_3 b_3 \mid m_j \in \mathbb{Z}\} \Rightarrow (0,0,0) \in \mathcal{L}$$

\mathcal{L} is called a LATTICE in \mathbb{R}^3 . (used for describing a crystal)

Def. A CRYSTALLOGRAPHIC POINT GROUP is a subgroup of $O(3)$

which leaves a lattice \mathcal{L} invariant.

$$\uparrow \forall A \in \text{CPG}: A\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}$$

(We'll find 32 such groups)

Remark: Given a c.p.g., the lattice \mathcal{L} is not arbitrary

\rightsquigarrow determination of all finite subgroups of $O(3)$ and $SO(3)$

Let's construct \uparrow

Consider G finite non-trivial subgroup of $SO(3)$, and let's identify

$$\{n \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid \|n\| = 1\} \text{ with } S^2$$

We set $X = \{n \in S^2 \mid Rn = n \exists R \in G \setminus \{1\}\}$

At most $|X| \leq 2(g-1)$ with $g = |G|$

\uparrow because of identity

Observe that G is a group of transformation of X .

Take $n \in X: Rn = n$. Consider $R'n$ and check $R'n \in X$.

Indeed, $\underbrace{(R'RR^{-1})}_{\in G} R'n = R'Rn = R'n \Rightarrow R'n \in X$

$\Rightarrow X = O_1 \cup O_2 \cup \dots \cup O_r$ with each O_j the orbit of a point $n \in X$.

Let S_j be the stabilizer for one point of the orbit O_j , then

$$2 \leq |S_j| =: g_j \leq g$$

\uparrow identity + at least one R

Aim: find all finite subgroups of $O(3)$

$\forall n \in O_j \subset X$, the number of $R (\neq 1)$ which leaves n invariant is $g_j - 1$

Let $p_j := |O_j|$. Then $\sum_{j=1}^r p_j (g_j - 1) = 2(g-1)$ (★)

↳ # of elements of S^2 invariant by ≥ 1 element of G , multiplicity counted

$$\Leftrightarrow \sum_{j=1}^r g - p_j = 2(g-1)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow rg - \sum_{j=1}^r p_j = 2(g-1)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 2 - \frac{2}{g} = r - \sum_{j=1}^r \frac{1}{g_j} \quad (*)$$

Since $g_j \geq 2$, $\sum_{j=1}^r \frac{1}{g_j} \leq \frac{r}{2} \Leftrightarrow -\sum_{j=1}^r \frac{1}{g_j} \geq -\frac{r}{2}$

$$\Rightarrow 2 - \frac{2}{g} = r - \sum_{j=1}^r \frac{1}{g_j} \geq r - \frac{r}{2} = \frac{r}{2}$$

$\Rightarrow r < 4$. At most X is decomposed to 3 orbits.

Also: $r > 1$. Since otherwise $2 - \frac{2}{g} = 1 - \frac{1}{g_1} \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{g_1} = \frac{2}{g} - 1 \leq 0$

$$\Rightarrow r \in \{2, 3\}$$

If $r=2$: $2 - \frac{2}{g} = 2 - \frac{1}{g_1} - \frac{1}{g_2} \Leftrightarrow \frac{2}{g} = \frac{1}{g_1} + \frac{1}{g_2}$ (*)

We have $g_j \leq g \Rightarrow g_1 = g_2 = g$

\Rightarrow Each element of X is invariant under all elements of G

$\Rightarrow G \simeq C_g = \text{Cyclic group: rotations by } \frac{2\pi}{g}k \text{ for } k \in \{0, \dots, g-1\}$

If $r=3$: (*) $\Leftrightarrow 2 - \frac{2}{g} = 3 - \frac{1}{g_1} - \frac{1}{g_2} - \frac{1}{g_3} \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{g_1} + \frac{1}{g_2} + \frac{1}{g_3} = 1 + \frac{2}{g}$

Wlog (Without loss of generality) $g_1 \leq g_2 \leq g_3 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{g_1} \geq \frac{1}{g_2} \geq \frac{1}{g_3}$

If $g_1 > 2$ ($\Leftrightarrow g_1 \geq 3$) $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{g_1} + \frac{1}{g_2} + \frac{1}{g_3} \leq \frac{3}{g_1} \leq 1 \Rightarrow g < 0$ contradiction

$\Rightarrow g_1 = 2$. (*) $\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{g_2} + \frac{1}{g_3} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{g}$

If $g_2 \geq 4 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{g_2} + \frac{1}{g_3} \leq \frac{2}{g_2} \leq \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow g < 0$ contradiction again

$\Rightarrow g_2 \in \{2, 3\}$.

Similarly, if $g_2 = 3$, then $g_3 \leq 5$

\Rightarrow All possibilities of (g_1, g_2, g_3) :

$(2, 2, l)$ for $l \in \mathbb{N}_+ \setminus \{1\}$; $\Rightarrow g = 2l$ group D_l (dihedral)

$(2, 3, 3) \Rightarrow g = 12$ group T (tetrahedral)

$(2, 3, 4) \Rightarrow g = 24$ group O (octahedral)

$(2, 3, 5) \Rightarrow g = 60$ group I (icosahedral)

Lemma: Let G be a cpg and consider $\{R \equiv (n, \frac{2\pi}{l}k) \mid k \in \{0, 1, \dots, l-1\}\} \subset G$ be subgroup.

Then $l \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 6\}$

Proof: Compute $\text{trace}(R)$ in two different bases.

According to prop of trace, they are equal.

$$\text{In 1 basis } R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \delta & -\sin \delta \\ 0 & \sin \delta & \cos \delta \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{tr}(R) = 1 + 2 \cos \delta$$

Recall $\mathcal{L} = \{c_1 b_1 + c_2 b_2 + c_3 b_3 \mid c_j \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ and $b_1 \sim b_3$ 3 lin. indep. elements of \mathbb{R}^3

Then $Rb_j = \sum_{k=1}^3 c_{jk} b_k$ with $c_{jk} \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\Rightarrow \text{tr}(R) = c_{11} + c_{22} + c_{33} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + 2 \cos \delta \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow 2 \cos \delta \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow \delta \in \left\{ \frac{2\pi}{l} k \mid k = \{0, \dots, l-1\}, l \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 6\} \right\} \quad \square$$

Remark: Same result for matrix $-1R$ for $R \in \text{SO}(3)$

In summary: The cpg of 1st type are

$C_1, C_2, C_3, C_4, C_6, D_2, D_3, D_4, D_6, T, O$

\downarrow
trivial group

(I has a rotation with $\ell=5$)

Let us now study the finite subgroups of $O(3)$.

Recall $O(3) = \text{SO}(3) \cup \{1, -1\} = \text{SO}(3) \cup (-1)\text{SO}(3)$

$$\det \begin{matrix} \pm 1 & +1 & -1 \\ O(3) & \text{SO}(3) & O(3) \setminus \text{SO}(3) \end{matrix} \quad \hookrightarrow =: \Pi$$

2 cases: Either $G = G_+ \cup G_-$ contains Π or does not contain Π

1) If $\Pi \in G$ then $\Pi \in G_-$ and $G_- = \Pi G_+$ by using $\det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$

\Rightarrow 11 new cpg made of $G_+ \cup \Pi G_+$ with G_+ in the list of 1st type.

They are called cpg of 2nd type with inversion.

2) If $\Pi \notin G$

Let us set $\phi: G \rightarrow \text{SO}(3)$, $\phi(R) = \begin{cases} R & \text{if } R \in G_+ \\ \Pi R & \text{if } R \in G_- \end{cases}$ and set $G := \phi(G)$.

Observe $G_+ \cap \Pi G_- = \emptyset$ (empty set)

(Indeed if $G_+ \ni a = \Pi b$, $b \in G_-$ then $\Pi = ab^{-1} \in G$)

and also ϕ is a homomorphism and an isomorphism between $G \leftrightarrow G$

Also $|G_+| = |G_-|$ (exercise)

$$\hookrightarrow G = G_+ \cup \phi(G_-), |G| = 2g$$

$\Rightarrow G$ is a finite subgroup of $\text{SO}(3)$ containing a subgroup G_+ and a subset $\phi(G_-)$

By inspection, the possible pairs (G_+, G) are

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} (C_n, C_{2n}) \text{ for } n \in \{1, 2, 3\} \\ (C_n, D_{2n}) \quad \quad \quad \text{"} \\ (D_n, D_{2n}) \quad \quad \quad \text{"} \\ (T, O) \end{array} \right\} 10 \text{ solutions}$$

Implicit: Column 1 are subgroups of column 2

Now we have all 32 finite subgroups of $O(3)$ which leave a lattice invariant

Next step: for a given subgroup, find the corresponding invariant lattice

→ 7 lattice systems

14 Bravais lattices

Exercise: Do the same thing with $E(3)$ (containing translation) instead of $O(3)$

→ 230 finite subgroups leaving a lattice invariant.

Or for $O(2)$

Chapter II: Linear representation

II.1 Generalities

Def. A Hilbert space is a complex vector space together with an inner product

$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ (linear in the second argument)

and complete for the norm $\|f\| = \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle}$

Example: $(\mathbb{R}^n$ "real Hilbert space")

• \mathbb{C}^n with $a = (a_1, \dots, a_n), b = (b_1, \dots, b_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n$ $\langle a, b \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n \bar{a}_j b_j$

• $L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ with $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \overline{f(x)} g(x) dx$

• $l^2(\mathbb{Z}^n)$ with $\langle a, b \rangle = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}^n} \bar{a}_j b_j$

Remark: $\langle a, b \rangle = \overline{\langle b, a \rangle}$ and $\langle a, a \rangle \geq 0$ with equality iff $a = 0$

II. Linear representation

Def. A bounded linear operator is a ^{linear} map $T: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ s.t.

$$\exists c < \infty \forall f \in \mathcal{H} : \|Tf\| \leq c \|f\|$$

The infimum over c is called the NORM of $T = \|T\|$

$B(\mathcal{H}) (\equiv M_n(\mathbb{C})) :=$ the set of all b. l. op. on \mathcal{H} . (It is a group).

Def. Linear map T^* satisfying $\langle T^*f, g \rangle = \langle f, Tg \rangle \forall f, g \in \mathcal{H}$

is called the ADJOINT of T . (always exist)

⚡ In finite dimension, $[T^*] = \overline{[T]^t}$
→ complex conjugate
→ transposition

Def. If $\langle f, Tf \rangle \geq 0 \forall f \in \mathcal{H}$, T is POSITIVE. (then $T^* = T$)

Def. Let $T \in B(\mathcal{H})$

1) T is UNITARY if $T^*T = TT^* = \mathbb{1}$.

2) T is an ORTHOGONAL PROJECTION if $T^2 = \overset{T \cdot T}{T} = T^*$

3) T is INVERTIBLE (in $B(\mathcal{H})$) if

$$T: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \text{ is bijective} \Leftrightarrow \exists T^{-1} \in B(\mathcal{H}) : TT^{-1} = T^{-1}T = \mathbb{1}$$

For linear representation

Def. Let G be a group and \mathcal{H} a Hilbert space.

A [LINEAR] REPRESENTATION of G in \mathcal{H} is a homomorphism

$$U: G \mapsto B(\mathcal{H})$$

it means $U(ab) = U(a)U(b)$ and $U(e) = \mathbb{1} \Rightarrow U(a^{-1}) = U(a)^{-1}$

Remark: This definition can be generalized to non-linear or to projective, ... representation

If $U(a)$ is unitary, $\forall a \in G$, we speak about a unitary representation.

$$U: G \rightarrow U(\mathcal{H}) \subset B(\mathcal{H})$$

Def. $U: G \mapsto B(\mathcal{H})$ is TRIVIAL if $U(a) = \mathbb{1} \forall a \in G$

• $U: G \mapsto B(\mathcal{H})$ is FAITHFUL if $U(a) \neq \mathbb{1} \forall a \in G \setminus \{e\} \Rightarrow$ injective

• The DIMENSION of the representation is the dimension of \mathcal{H} .

Lemma $U: G \mapsto B(\mathcal{H})$.

1) If $G_0 \triangleleft G$, and if $V_0: G/G_0 \mapsto B(\mathcal{H})$ is a representation

Then $V(a) := ([a]_{G_0})$ defines a representation of G in \mathcal{H} ($a \in G$)

2) The set $G_0 := \{a \in G \mid U(a) = \mathbb{1}\} \triangleleft G$.

3) In particular if G is simple, then all non-trivial representations are faithful.

see lecture 1

Def. Let G be a group, $U: G \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ and $U': G \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}')$ 2 representations of G .

They are SIMILAR or EQUIVALENT if

$\exists S: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}'$ a linear operator which is bijective and s.t. \forall

$$U'(a) = S \cdot U(a) \cdot S^{-1} \quad \forall a \in G.$$

They are UNITARILY EQUIVALENT if in addition

$$S^* = S^{-1}$$

Thm. Let G be finite and $U: G \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ be a linear representation

Then U is similar to a unitary representation $U': G \rightarrow \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$

↑
set of unitary elements in \mathcal{H}

II.2 Reducible or Irreducible Representation

Recall if \mathcal{H}_0 is a closed subspace of \mathcal{H} , there exists \mathcal{H}_1 also closed subspace of \mathcal{H} such that $\mathcal{H}_0 \oplus \mathcal{H}_1 = \mathcal{H}$

↑
orthogonal sum

If $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ then T can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} T_{00} & T_{01} \\ T_{10} & T_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

(always true for matrices, but be careful when infinitely dimensional)

Def. Let (G, U, \mathcal{H}) be a group and a linear representation.

• A closed subspace $\mathcal{H}_0 \subset \mathcal{H}$ is INVARIANT under the representation if

$$U(a)\mathcal{H}_0 \subset \mathcal{H}_0 \quad (\Leftrightarrow \forall f \in \mathcal{H}_0: U(a)f \in \mathcal{H}_0) \quad \exists a \in G$$

• \mathcal{H}_0 is PROPER if $\mathcal{H}_0 \neq \mathcal{H}$ and NON-TRIVIAL if $\mathcal{H}_0 \neq \{0\}$

• \mathcal{H}_0 is MINIMAL if $\nexists \mathcal{H}_1: \{0\} \neq \mathcal{H}_1 \subsetneq \mathcal{H}_0$ with \mathcal{H}_1 invariant

• (U, \mathcal{H}) (\equiv the linear representation) is IRREDUCIBLE if

$\{0\}$ and \mathcal{H} are the only invariant closed subspaces.

($\equiv \mathcal{H}$ is minimal) Otherwise it is REDUCIBLE.

Lemma: If G is finite, and (U, \mathcal{H}) is an irreducible representation of G , then

• $\dim \mathcal{H} \leq |G|$. Proof as exercise

Observation: Consider (G, U, \mathcal{H}) and $\mathcal{H}_0 \subset \mathcal{H}$ invariant, then

$$\forall a \in G: U(a) = \begin{pmatrix} U(a)_{00} & U(a)_{01} \\ 0 & U(a)_{11} \end{pmatrix} \text{ in } \mathcal{H}_0 \oplus \mathcal{H}_0^\perp$$

→ not implying the existence of \mathcal{H}_0

Def. (G, U, \mathcal{H}) is COMPLETELY REDUCIBLE if $\forall \mathcal{H}_0 \subset \mathcal{H}$ invariant one has

$$U(a) = \begin{pmatrix} U(a)|_{\mathcal{H}_0} & 0 \\ 0 & U(a)|_{\mathcal{H}_0^\perp} \end{pmatrix} \forall a \in G \quad (\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{H}_0^\perp \text{ is invariant too})$$

Thm: ¹⁾If (G, U, \mathcal{H}) is a unitary representation then it's completely reducible.

2) If G is finite then (G, U, \mathcal{H}) is completely reducible.

Schrur Lemma

Let (G, U, \mathcal{H}) be a finite dimensional irreducible rep of G ,

(U', \mathcal{H}') be another (maybe $\dim = \infty$) irreducible rep of G .

Let $Z: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}'$ be linear satisfying $ZU(a) = U'(a)Z \quad \forall a \in G$

Then either $Z=0$ or Z is a similarity transformation. ($\Rightarrow U$ and U' are similar)

Corollary

1) Let (G, U, \mathcal{H}) be a finite dimensional irreducible rep of G

Let $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ s.t. $U(a)T = TU(a) \quad \forall a \in G$

Then $T = \lambda \mathbb{1} \quad \exists \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. (and λ is the eigenvalue of T)

Proof

Since $\dim \mathcal{H} < \infty$, T is a matrix and has at least one eigenvalue λ .

Then $(T - \lambda \mathbb{1})U(a) = U(a)(T - \lambda \mathbb{1}) \quad \forall a \in G$

$\Leftrightarrow (T - \lambda \mathbb{1})v = 0$
 \Rightarrow not invertible

By Schrur Lemma, since $T - \lambda \mathbb{1}$ cannot be a similarity transformation,

(since $T - \lambda \mathbb{1}$ is not invertible), one has

$$T - \lambda \mathbb{1} = 0$$

□

2) If G is abelian, any finite dimensional irreducible rep of G is of dimension 1. (Proof as exercise)

Prop: Let G be a finite group and G_0 an abelian subgroup.

Then any finite dim. irreducible rep. of G is of dimension $\leq \frac{|G|}{|G_0|}$

II.3 Representations of Finite Group

Prop. (U, \mathcal{H}) (U', \mathcal{H}') be 2 lin. rep. of a finite group G , and let

$T: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}'$ bounded

$$Z_T := \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{a \in G} U'(a) T U(a)^{-1}$$

Then not similar

1) If $(U, \mathcal{H}) \not\sim (U', \mathcal{H}')$ then $Z_T = 0$ trace

2) If $(U, \mathcal{H}) = (U', \mathcal{H}')$, then $Z_T = \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(T) \mathbb{1}$ with $n = \dim \mathcal{H}$.

Proof: ¹⁾ One checks $U'(b) Z_T = Z_T U(b) \quad \forall b \in G$

By Schur Lemma $\Rightarrow Z_T = 0$.

2) By the previous corollary, $Z_T = \lambda \mathbb{1}$. Then

$$\text{tr}(Z_T) = \lambda \text{tr}(\mathbb{1}) = \lambda n$$

||

$$\text{tr}\left(\frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{a \in G} U(a) T U(a)^{-1}\right) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{a \in G} \text{tr}(T U(a)^{-1} U(a)) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{a \in G} \text{tr}(T) = \text{tr}(T)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{\text{tr}(T)}{n} \Rightarrow Z_T = \frac{1}{n} \text{tr}(T) \mathbb{1} \quad \square$$

Let (U^k, \mathcal{H}^k) be a unitary and irreducible representation of G ,

and $\{\mathcal{H}^k\}_k$ with $\mathcal{H}^k := [(U^k, \mathcal{H}^k)]_{\sim}$ equivalence class be an enumeration of such rep.

Let $\{e_j^k\}_{j=1}^{n_k}$ be orthonormal a basis of \mathcal{H}^k : with $n_k = \dim \mathcal{H}^k$.

Let us set

$$U_j^k(a) = \langle e_i^k, U^k(a)e_j^k \rangle$$

and $(U_{ij}(a))_{a \in G} \in \ell^2(G) \rightarrow := \{(a_1, \dots, a_{|G|}) \mid a_j \in \mathbb{C}, \sum_{j=1}^{|G|} |a_j|^2 < \infty\}$

$\ell^2(G)$ is a \mathcal{H} with $\langle a, b \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{|G|} \overline{a_j} b_j$. $\dim \ell^2(G) = |G| =: g$

Consider $T := |e_s^l \rangle \langle e_j^k| \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}^k, \mathcal{H}^l)$

If $l \neq k$ then $Z_T = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow 0 &= \langle e_r^l, Z_T e_i^k \rangle = \frac{1}{g} \sum_a \langle e_r^l, U^l(a) e_s^l \rangle \langle e_j^k, U^k(a)^{-1} e_i^k \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{g} \sum_a U_{rs}^l(a) \overline{U_{ij}^k(a)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow (U_{ij}^k(a))_{a \in G} \perp (U_{rs}^l(a))_{a \in G}$$

If $l = k$ then $Z_T = \frac{1}{n_k} \text{tr}(|e_s^k \rangle \langle e_j^k|) \mathbb{1} = \frac{1}{n_k} \delta_{sj} \mathbb{1}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{g} \sum_a U_{rs}^l(a) \overline{U_{ij}^k(a)} = \langle e_r^k, Z_T e_i^k \rangle = \frac{1}{n_k} \delta_{sj} \delta_{ri}$$

In summary, $\frac{1}{g} \sum_a U_{rs}^l(a) \overline{U_{ij}^k(a)} = \frac{1}{n_k} \delta_{kl} \delta_{sj} \delta_{ri}$ (*)

Corollary: $\exists N < \infty$ inequivalent unitary irreducible representations of G

$$\text{with } \sum_{k=1}^N r_k^2 = g$$

Proof of \Leftarrow

\rightarrow of dimension g

For each rep. (U^k, \mathcal{H}^k) one has n_k^2 elements of $\ell^2(G)$ which are orthogonal

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^N r_k^2 \leq \dim \ell^2(G) = g \quad \square$$

For any finite dimensional representation of G we set $\chi(a) := \text{tr}(U(a))$

$\{\chi(a)\}_{a \in G}$ is called the set of the characters of G in \mathcal{H} .

Again $\chi(\cdot) \in \ell^2(G)$

Corollary: Let (U^k, \mathcal{H}^k) (U^l, \mathcal{H}^l) be 2 unitary irreducible rep of G then

$$\frac{1}{g} \sum_a \chi^l(a) \overline{\chi^k(a)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (U^k, \mathcal{H}^k) \sim (U^l, \mathcal{H}^l) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Proof

Observe that the character depends only on the equivalent class of rep.

and not on the representative.

Since $\chi^k(a) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} U_{jj}^k(a)$ one has

$$\frac{1}{g} \sum_{\alpha \in G} \chi^\ell(\alpha) \overline{\chi^k(\alpha)} = \frac{1}{g} \sum_{\alpha \in G} \sum_{j=1}^{n_\ell} \sum_{r=1}^{n_k} \underbrace{U_{rr}^\ell(\alpha) \overline{U_{jj}^k(\alpha)}}_{\leftarrow \frac{1}{n_k} \delta_{k\ell} \delta_{rj} \delta_{rj} \leftarrow} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} \frac{1}{n_k} \delta_{k\ell} = \delta_{k\ell} \quad \square$$

If (U, \mathcal{H}) is a completely reducible and finite dim rep of G , then

$$\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus_{k=1}^N \nu_k \mathcal{H}^k, \quad U = \bigoplus_{k=1}^N \nu_k U^k$$

\uparrow modulo rearrangement \downarrow multiplicity of the representation of type η^k

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} U_1 & & & \\ & U_1 & & \\ & & U_2 & \\ & & & \ddots \\ & & & & U_s \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \nu_1 = 2 \\ \nu_2 = \nu_5 = 1 \\ \nu_3 = \nu_4 = 0 \end{matrix}$$

Thm. Let (U, \mathcal{H}) be a finite dim rep of G , then

1) $\nu_k := \frac{1}{g} \sum_{\alpha \in G} \overline{\chi(\alpha)} \chi^k(\alpha) \leftarrow$ character in rep \mathcal{H}^k

2) This rep is irreducible iff $\frac{1}{g} \sum |\chi(\alpha)|^2 = 1$

3) If (U', \mathcal{H}') is another finite dim rep of G , then $(U, \mathcal{H}) \sim (U', \mathcal{H}')$ iff their χ are equal.

We introduce the regular representation of G

Def. Let G be finite group and set $\mathcal{H}^{\text{reg}} := \ell^2(G)$

and $[U^{\text{reg}}(a)f](b) = f(a^{-1}b)$ for $f \in \mathcal{H}^{\text{reg}}$

Exercise: Check if it is a representation.

$(U^{\text{reg}}, \mathcal{H}^{\text{reg}})$ is called the regular representation.

This representation is completely reducible since G is finite.

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{H}^{\text{reg}} = \bigoplus_{k=1}^N \nu_k \mathcal{H}^k, \quad U^{\text{reg}} = \bigoplus_{k=1}^N \nu_k U^k \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^N \nu_k n_k = g = \dim \mathcal{H}^{\text{reg}}$$

Let us define $\delta_a \in \ell^2(G)$ by $\delta_a(b) = 1$ if $a=b$ and $\delta_a(b) = 0$ otherwise

and $\{\delta_a\}_{a \in G}$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H}^{reg}

One has $U_{bc}^{\text{reg}}(a) = \langle \delta_b, U^{\text{reg}}(a) \delta_c \rangle = \langle \delta_b, \delta_c(a^{-1} \cdot) \rangle = \sum_{d \in G} \delta_b(d) \delta_c(a^{-1}d) = \delta_c(a^{-1}b) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } c = a^{-1}b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

In particular if $b=c$, $U_{bb}^{\text{reg}}(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } b = a^{-1}b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a=e \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \chi^{\text{reg}}(a) = \begin{cases} g & \text{if } a \in e \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Thm. 1) $\sum_{k=1}^N n_k^2 = g$

2) $U^{\text{reg}} = \bigoplus_{k=1}^N n_k U^k$

\leftarrow multiplicity = $\dim \mathcal{H}^k$ (only true for regular rep)

Proof: $\nu_k = \frac{1}{g} \sum_{\alpha \in G} \overline{\chi^{\text{reg}}(\alpha)} \chi^k(\alpha) = \frac{1}{g} g \chi^k(e) = n_k \quad \square$

\Rightarrow The regular representation contains all irreducible representations.

Lemma

Let C^1, \dots, C^M be the list of conjugacy classes of finite group G with $d_i := |C^i|$. Then

$$\frac{1}{g} d_i \sum_{k=1}^N \overline{\chi^k(C^i)} \chi^k(C^i) = \delta_{ii}$$

↗ character on any element of C^i (same)

Thm. For any finite group $N = M$

Proof:

$$\sum_{p=1}^M \frac{1}{g} d_p \sum_{k=1}^N |\chi_k(C^p)|^2 = M$$

Also

$$\sum_{a \in G} = \sum_{l=1}^M \sum_{a \in C^l}, \text{ then}$$

$$N = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{g} \sum_{a \in G} \overline{\chi^k(a)} \chi^k(a) = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{g} \sum_{p=1}^M \sum_{a \in C^p} |\chi^k(a)|^2 = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{g} \sum_{p=1}^M d_p |\chi^k(C^p)|^2$$

$$= \sum_{p=1}^M \frac{1}{g} d_p \sum_{k=1}^N |\chi^k(C^p)|^2 = M \quad \square$$

II.4 Tensor Product of Representations

Let $\mathcal{H}_1, \mathcal{H}_2$ 2 Hilbert space, let $\varphi_1 \in \mathcal{H}_1, \varphi_2 \in \mathcal{H}_2$

Set $\varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2: \mathcal{H}_1 \times \mathcal{H}_2 \mapsto \mathbb{C}, \varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2(\psi_1, \psi_2) := \langle \psi_1, \varphi_1 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_1} \langle \psi_2, \varphi_2 \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_2}$

Then $\varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2$ is a bi-antilinear map.

($\Leftrightarrow \varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2(\psi_1 + \lambda \psi_1', \psi_2) = \varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2(\psi_1, \psi_2) + \lambda \varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2(\psi_1', \psi_2)$ and same for ψ_2)

Let ε be the set of finite linear combination of $\varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2 (= \{ \sum_{j=1}^N \lambda_j \varphi_{1,j} \otimes \varphi_{2,j} \mid N \in \mathbb{N}^*, \lambda_j \in \mathbb{C} \})$

(Observe ε is a Hilbert space)

and define the scalar product $\langle \varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2, \varphi_1' \otimes \varphi_2' \rangle_{\varepsilon} = \langle \varphi_1, \varphi_1' \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_1} \langle \varphi_2, \varphi_2' \rangle_{\mathcal{H}_2}$

Lemma: $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\varepsilon}$ is well-defined and positive definite.

$$\hookrightarrow \Leftrightarrow \langle \varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2, \varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2 \rangle_{\varepsilon} \geq 0$$

Def. $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$ is the completion of ε with respect to the norm associated with $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\varepsilon}$.

\hookrightarrow called the tensor product of \mathcal{H}_1 with \mathcal{H}_2 .

Lemma: If $\{\varphi_{1,j}\}_j$ & $\{\varphi_{2,k}\}_k$ are orthonormal bases of \mathcal{H}_1 & \mathcal{H}_2 , respectively, then

$\{\varphi_{1,j} \otimes \varphi_{2,k}\}_{j,k}$ is an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$.

Let $A_j \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_j)$, and set $A_1 \otimes A_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2)$ with

$(A_1 \otimes A_2)(\varphi_1 \otimes \varphi_2) := A_1 \varphi_1 \otimes A_2 \varphi_2$ and then by linearity \rightarrow Exercise: Prove it's bounded

we define $A_1 \otimes A_2$ on any element of $\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$.

If $A_1 \otimes A_2, B_1 \otimes B_2 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2)$ Then $(A_1 \otimes A_2)(B_1 \otimes B_2) = A_1 B_1 \otimes A_2 B_2$

and if \mathcal{H}_1 & \mathcal{H}_2 are finite dimensional then $\text{tr}(A_1 \otimes A_2) = \text{tr}_{\mathcal{H}_1}(A_1) \text{tr}_{\mathcal{H}_2}(A_2)$

Let $(G, U, \mathcal{H}) (G', U', \mathcal{H}')$ be 2 representations of 2 groups

For $(a, a') \in G \otimes G'$ we set $U(a, a') = U(a) \otimes U(a') \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}')$

Then $(G \otimes G', U, \mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}')$ is a linear representation

And if $\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{H}'$ are finite dimensional, $\chi_{U(a, a')} = \chi_U(a) \chi_{U'}(a')$

Prop. If $(G, U, \mathcal{H}) (G', U', \mathcal{H}')$ are irreducible representations of finite groups then

1) $(G \otimes G', U, \mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}')$ is irreducible.

2) All irreducible rep. of $G \otimes G'$ is of this form.

Consider now the rep of a single group.

Let $G \ni a \mapsto U(a) \otimes U'(a) \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}')$

This defines a rep of G , and if U, U' are irreducible then $(U, \mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}')$ might be reducible

If (U, \mathcal{H}) (U', \mathcal{H}') are finite dim, then since $\chi_U(a) = \chi_{U'}(a)$ one gets
 $U \otimes U'$ is equivalent to $U' \otimes U$. The decomposition of $U = \bigoplus_k \nu_k U^k$ can be
 computed with $\nu_k = \frac{1}{g} \sum_a \overline{\chi_U(a)} \chi_{U'}(a) \chi^k(a)$

Remark

Consider 2 irreducible representation (U^k, \mathcal{H}^k) (U^j, \mathcal{H}^j)

Since $\mathcal{H}^j \otimes \mathcal{H}^k = \bigoplus_p \nu_p \mathcal{H}^p$ and $U^j \otimes U^k = \bigoplus_p \nu_p U^p$

One can express a suitable basis of $\bigoplus_p \nu_p \mathcal{H}^p$ in terms of the basis $\{e_r^j \otimes e_s^k\}_{r,s}$

The coefficients relate to the change of basis are called the

CLEBSCH-GORDAN COEFFICIENTS.

Selection Rules

Let G be a group and (U, \mathcal{H}) one representation.

Let $\mathcal{U}: G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}))$ (automorphism 自同構)

with $\mathcal{U}(a)T := U(a)TU(a)^{-1}$ for $\forall T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$

one has $\mathcal{U}(ab) = \mathcal{U}(a)\mathcal{U}(b)$, $\mathcal{U}(e)T = U(e)TU(e)^{-1} = T$

We have a linear rep of G on a vector space $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$

⚠ $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is not a Hilbert space!

If \mathcal{H} is finite then $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is of finite dimension n^2 and then

$\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ can be decomposed $= \bigoplus_k \nu_k \mathcal{L}^k$ and $U = \bigoplus_k \nu_k U^k$

is the decomposition into irreducible rep. with $(U^k, \mathcal{L}^k) \in \mathcal{L}^k = [(U^k, \mathcal{H}^k)]$

It means $\exists \phi: \mathcal{H}^k \rightarrow \mathcal{L}^k$ bijective: $\phi(U^k(a)f) = U^k(a)\phi(f) = U(a)\phi(f)U(a)^{-1}$

Thus we have a decomposition of $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$

which is based on irreducible rep. of G .

Thm (Selection Rule)

Let (G, U, \mathcal{H}) be a unitary rep and consider $\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus_k \nu_k \mathcal{H}^k$, $U = \bigoplus_k \nu_k U^k$

Let (G, U^j, \mathcal{H}^j) be one irred. rep. of G and

Let $\phi: \mathcal{H}^j \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ with $\phi(U^j(a)f_j) = U(a)\phi(f_j)U(a)^{-1} \forall f_j \in \mathcal{H}^j$

Then $\forall f_k \in \mathcal{H}^k \subset \mathcal{H} \forall f_i \in \mathcal{H}^i \subset \mathcal{H}: \langle f_i, \phi(f_j)f_k \rangle = 0$

EXCEPT if (\mathcal{H}^i, U^i) appears in the decomposition of $(\mathcal{H}^j \otimes \mathcal{H}^k) \& (U^j \otimes U^k)$
 in a sum of irred. rep.

Remark: This result is also related to the Clebsch-Gordan coef. (Wigner-Eckart Thm.)

II.5 Symmetries and Projective Representation

Consider \mathcal{H} a Hilbert space, and $\hat{\mathcal{H}} := \mathcal{H}/\mathbb{C}$

which means $\hat{\mathcal{H}} \ni \hat{\psi} = \{\psi \in \mathcal{H} \mid \varphi = \alpha \psi \exists \alpha \in \mathbb{C}\}$

This interest of $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$ is that its elements are in bijection with all pure states, which means with all 1D projection of the form

$$P_{\hat{\psi}} = |\varphi\rangle\langle\varphi| \text{ with } \varphi \in \hat{\psi} \text{ and } \|\varphi\| = 1.$$

For 2 such pure states $P_{\hat{\psi}}$ and $P_{\hat{\varphi}}$

the transition probability is defined by

$$\text{Tr}(P_{\hat{\varphi}} P_{\hat{\psi}}) = |\langle\varphi, \psi\rangle|^2 \text{ with } \varphi \in \hat{\varphi}, \psi \in \hat{\psi}, \|\varphi\| = 1 = \|\psi\|$$

Def. A SYMMETRY is a map

$S: \hat{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow \hat{\mathcal{H}}$ satisfying

$$\text{Tr}(P_{S\hat{\psi}} P_{S\hat{\varphi}}) = \text{Tr}(P_{\hat{\psi}} P_{\hat{\varphi}})$$

Consider U a unitary operator ⁱⁿ \mathcal{H} ($\Leftrightarrow U \in B(\mathcal{H}), U^* = U^{-1}$)

And set $S_U: \hat{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow \hat{\mathcal{H}}, S_U \hat{\psi} = \widehat{U\psi}$ with $\psi \in \hat{\psi}$

Then S_U is a symmetry. Indeed

$$\text{Take } f = \alpha U\psi \text{ with } \|f\| = |\alpha| \|U\psi\| = |\alpha| \|\psi\|$$

$$g = \beta U\psi \text{ with } \|g\| = |\beta| \|\psi\|$$

$$\text{Then } T_2(P_S \hat{\psi} P_S \hat{\psi}) = |f, g|^2 = |\langle \alpha U\psi, \beta U\psi \rangle| = |\langle \alpha \psi, \beta \psi \rangle| = T_r(P_{\hat{\psi}} P_{\hat{\psi}})$$

The same holds if U is anti-unitary

$$\text{(which means } U(f + \alpha g) = Uf + \bar{\alpha} Ug, \langle Uf, Ug \rangle = \overline{\langle f, g \rangle})$$

Thm. (Wigner's Thm)

Let $S: \hat{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow \hat{\mathcal{H}}$ be a symmetry.

Then $\exists U: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ with which is either unitary or anti-unitary s.t. $S = S_U$.

U is unique ^(up to) modulo $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ with $|\alpha| = 1$,

since U and αU define the same symmetry.

Now consider a group of symmetries, which means a

homomorphism $S: G \mapsto \{\text{symmetries on } \mathcal{H}\}$

(each $S(a): \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$)

$$\text{s.t. } S(a)S(b) = S(ab) \quad \forall a, b \in G; \quad S(e) = \mathbb{1}$$

By Wigner's Thm, $\forall a \in G \exists U(a)$ unitary or anti-unitary s.t. $S(a) = S_{U(a)}$.

Suppose all $U(a)$ are unitary.

Natural question: $U(a)U(b) = U(ab)$? **No in general** (problem of phase)

\rightarrow Projective representations

Indeed if we fix $U(\cdot)$ we usually have

$$U(a)U(b) = w(a, b) U(ab) \text{ with } w(a, b) \in \mathbb{C}, |w(a, b)| = 1$$

and if we set $U'(a) = p(a)U(a)$ with $p: G \mapsto \mathbb{T} := \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1\}$

$$\text{then } U'(a)U'(b) = p(a)U(a)p(b)U(b) = p(a)p(b)w(a, b)U(ab)$$

$$\downarrow = \frac{p(a)p(b)}{p(ab)} w(a, b) U'(ab)$$

$$= w'(a, b) U'(ab)$$

$$\Rightarrow w'(a, b) = \frac{p(a)p(b)}{p(ab)} w(a, b)$$

Def. Let V be a complex vector space and let G be a group.

A PROJECTIVE REPRESENTATION of G in V is a map

$U: G \mapsto GL(V) \rightarrow$ set of invertible operators in V s.t.

$$U(a)U(b) = w(a,b)U(ab) \text{ with } w(a,b) \in \mathbb{C}^* \text{ and}$$

$$U(e) = 1.$$

called 2-cocycle (Ma) or Schur (Ph) multiplier.

Def. Two 2-cocycles $w, w': G \times G \mapsto \mathbb{C}^*$ are EQUIVALENT if

$$\exists p: G \mapsto \mathbb{C}^*: w'(a,b) = \frac{p(a)p(b)}{p(ab)} w(a,b) \quad \forall a, b \in G$$

w is TRIVIAL if it is equivalent to 1, which means

$$\exists p: G \mapsto \mathbb{C}^*: w(a,b) = \frac{p(a)p(b)}{p(ab)}$$

Remarks

• Projective representations are essential in QM.

• A linear representation is a special case of a proj. rep.

• If w is trivial, then by setting $U'(a) = p(a)^{-1}U(a)$

we get a linear representation. Indeed,

$$U'(a)U'(b) = \underbrace{p(ab)p(a)^{-1}p(b)^{-1}}_{=1} w(ab) p(ab)^{-1} U(ab) = U'(ab)$$

• If $(U, \mathcal{H}), (U', \mathcal{H})$ are proj. rep. and if $U'(a) = p(a)U(a) \exists p: G \mapsto \mathbb{C}^*$ then the 2 proj. rep. are EQUIVALENT.

Question: Can one always trivialize a 2-cocycle?

(\Leftrightarrow Do we always have $\exists p: G \mapsto \mathbb{C}^*: w(a,b) = \frac{p(a)p(b)}{p(ab)}$?) No

For a given group, the answer is in the study of GROUP COHOMOLOGY.

What is often useful is to consider a larger group and its lin. rep.

Example: Consider G and a second group \tilde{G} with a normal subgroup \tilde{G}_0 s.t.

$$\tilde{G}/\tilde{G}_0 \cong G \text{ (Let's denote by } \phi: \tilde{G}/\tilde{G}_0 \mapsto G \text{ the isomorphism)}$$

Let (\tilde{U}, \mathcal{H}) be a linear rep. of \tilde{G} s.t.

$$\forall a \in \tilde{G}_0: \tilde{U}(a) = \sigma(a) \mathbb{1} \quad \exists \sigma(a) \in \mathbb{C}^* \quad (\Leftrightarrow \tilde{U}(\tilde{G}_0) \subset \mathbb{C}^* \mathbb{1})$$

$\forall a \in G$ let's choose $\tilde{a} \in \tilde{G}$ with $\phi([\tilde{a}]_{\tilde{G}_0}) = a$ and $\mathcal{H} \mapsto \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ with $U(a) :=$

$$U: G \mapsto \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) \text{ with } U(a) := \tilde{U}(\tilde{a}).$$

Then U defines a projective rep. of G .

Indeed let $a, b \in G$ and set $d := ab$. Consider $\tilde{a}, \tilde{b}, \tilde{d}$ in \tilde{G} . Then

$$\phi([\tilde{a}]_{\tilde{G}_0}) = d = ab = \phi([\tilde{a}]_{\tilde{G}_0}) \phi([\tilde{b}]_{\tilde{G}_0}) = \phi([\tilde{a}]_{\tilde{G}_0} [\tilde{b}]_{\tilde{G}_0}) = \phi([\tilde{a}\tilde{b}]_{\tilde{G}_0})$$

$$\Rightarrow [\tilde{a}]_{\tilde{G}_0} = [\tilde{a}\tilde{b}]_{\tilde{G}_0} \text{ (for } \phi \text{ is an isomorphism } \Rightarrow \text{ bijective)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists c \in \tilde{G}_0 : \tilde{a}\tilde{b} = c\tilde{d} \text{ (for they are the same equivalent class)}$$

↳ depends on a and b

$$\text{Finally } \underline{U(a)U(b)} = \tilde{U}(\tilde{a})\tilde{U}(\tilde{b}) = \tilde{U}(\tilde{a}\tilde{b}) = \tilde{U}(c\tilde{d}) = \tilde{U}(c)\tilde{U}(\tilde{d}) = \sigma(c)U(\tilde{d}) \\ = \sigma(c)\tilde{U}(\tilde{d}) = \sigma(c)U(d) = \underline{\sigma(c)U(ab)} \quad \exists \sigma(c) \in \mathbb{C}^* \quad \square$$

Remark: If \tilde{U} is unitary then U is also unitary.

Question: Can we always do this construction? **No**

but if \tilde{G} exists (\Leftrightarrow any proj. rep. of G is induced by a lin. rep. of \tilde{G}) then we call \tilde{G} the **UNIVERSAL COVER** of G .

(Important in many places)

Remark: If f G is finite, a universal cover exists.

The universal cover of $SO(3)$ is $SU(2)$.

We are going to construct the universal cover of finite groups.

Observe that if $U(a)U(b) = w(a,b)U(ab)$

and $a=e$ or $b=e$, then we know $w(a,e) = w(e,b) = 1$ ①

Also $U(a)U(b)U(c) = w(a,b)U(ab)U(c) = w(a,b)w(ab,c)U(abc)$

↳ $U(a)w(b,c)U(bc) = w(a,bc)w(b,c)U(abc)$

$\Rightarrow w(a,b)w(ab,c) = w(a,bc)w(b,c)$ (2-cocycle relation) ②

Def. A 2-COCYCLE on G is map $w: G \times G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^*$ satisfying ①②.

$w \sim w'$ (EQUIVALENCE) if $\exists \rho: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^* : w'(a,b) = \frac{\rho(a)\rho(b)}{\rho(ab)} w(a,b)$

and we denote by $[w]$ the equivalence class containing w .

We can check $[w][\check{w}] := [w\check{w}]$ defines a PRODUCT ON THE EQUIVALENCE CLASSES of 2-cocycles on G .

Prop.¹⁾ $\{[w]\}$ with the above multiplication is a Abelian group, denoted by $M(G)$ called the **SCHUR MULTIPLIER** or the **SECOND COHOMOLOGY GROUP** $H^2(G, \mathbb{C}^*)$.

2) If G is finite, then $M(G)$ is also finite, and

$$\forall [w] \in M(G) \exists \underline{w} \in [w], k \in \mathbb{N} : \underline{w}(a,b) \in \{e^{i2\pi n/k} \mid n \in \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}\} \quad \forall a, b \in G$$

↳ called the **ORDER** of $[w]$.

Proof as exercise

Let G be a ^{finite} group and let ξ, η, ζ denote the elements of $M(G)$ (Abelian) ^{→ equivalence classes}
 Let $\{\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n\} \subset M(G)$ be a minimal generating set of $M(G)$, which means
 $\forall \xi \in M(G) : \xi = \xi_1^{n_1} \xi_2^{n_2} \dots \xi_n^{n_n} \exists n_1, \dots, n_n \in \mathbb{N}$
 and one cannot do it with less elements.

For each ξ_s one sets K_s for the K (order) defined by Prop (*) for ξ_s
 and set $S_s := e^{2\pi i/k_s}$

In addition $\exists \omega_s \in \xi_s$ s.t. $\omega_s(a, b) = \xi_s^{n(a, b)} \exists n: G \times G \mapsto \{0, 1, \dots, k_s - 1\}$

By the 2-cocycles relations, one has

$$n(a, e) = 0 = n(e, b)$$

$$n(a, b) + n(ab, c) = n(a, bc) + n(b, c)$$

Finally we set $\phi: G \times G \mapsto M(G)$ by

$$\phi(a, b) = \prod_{s=1}^n \xi_s^{n_s(a, b)} \in M(G)$$

Thm. Let G be a finite group and $M(G)$ its Schur multiplier

Let $\tilde{G} := \{(\xi, a) \in M(G) \times G\}$ with the product

$$(\xi, a) \cdot (\eta, b) = (\xi \eta \phi(a, b), ab). \quad \square$$

Then

1) \tilde{G} with the above multiplication is a group;
 $\Rightarrow \tilde{G}_0 := \{(\xi, e) \mid \xi \in M(G)\} \triangleleft \tilde{G}$, and $\tilde{G}/\tilde{G}_0 \cong G$. Proof as exercise

2) If (U, \mathcal{H}) is a proj. rep. of G then

$\exists p: G \mapsto \mathbb{C}^*$ and \downarrow This defines an equivalent proj. rep
 (\tilde{U}, \mathcal{H}) a linear rep. of G s.t. $U(a) = p(a) \tilde{U}([1], a)$ Proof as exercise

III. Lie groups

III.1: Main Definitions and Properties

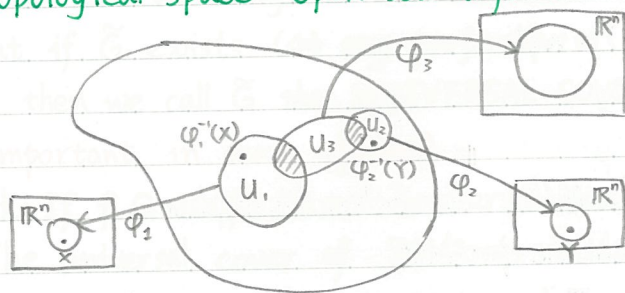
Examples: $O(3)$, $SU(n)$, $SO(25)$ are Lie groups.

Roughly, a lie group is a group together with a differential structure compatible with the group operation and with taking the inverse.

Def. G is a SMOOTH MANIFOLD if G is a second-countable Hausdalf topologica space with local bijective and bi-continuous maps from the manifold to \mathbb{R}^n s.t. $\varphi_j^{-1} \circ \varphi_i$ and $\varphi_i^{-1} \circ \varphi_j$ are C^∞ where def. \hookrightarrow : M and M^{-1} are continuous

Hausdalf: 2 points always have disjoint neighborhood $\otimes \otimes$

Topological space: Open sets defined



$\varphi_1^{-1} \circ \varphi_3$ defined on a subset of $\varphi_1(U_1)$

A manifold is not necessarily a group.

Also (U_j, φ_j) is called a LOCAL CHART,

$\{(U_j, \varphi_j)\}$ with the compatibility $(\varphi_j^{-1} \circ \varphi_i, \varphi_i^{-1} \circ \varphi_j \in C^\infty)$ conditions is called an ATLAS, and we have

$$G = \bigcup_j U_j.$$

\Rightarrow Locally the manifold can be parameterized by n real parameters.

When G is also a group, and the map

$$G \times G \ni (a, b) \mapsto ab \in G \quad \text{and} \quad G \ni a \mapsto a^{-1} \in G \quad \text{are smooth,}$$

It means $\forall (U_j, \varphi_j)$ for $j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$

$$1) \Omega_{123} := \{(X, Y) \in \varphi_1(U_1) \times \varphi_2(U_2) \mid \varphi_1^{-1}(X) \varphi_2^{-1}(Y) \in U_3\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2n} \quad \text{and then}$$

$$\Omega_{123} \ni (X, Y) \mapsto \varphi_3(\varphi_1^{-1}(X) \varphi_2^{-1}(Y)) \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{is smooth;}$$

$$2) \Omega_{12} := \{X \in \varphi_1(U_1) \mid (\varphi_1^{-1}(X))^{-1} \in U_2\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{and then}$$

$$\Omega_{12} \ni X \mapsto \varphi_2((\varphi_1^{-1}(X))^{-1}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{is smooth.}$$

Then G is a LIE GROUP.

Examples

$(\mathbb{R}, +)$, (\mathbb{R}_+, \cdot) , (\mathbb{T}, \cdot) are Lie groups, with $\mathbb{T} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} \mid |z| = 1\}$

Def. G is a COMPACT LIE GROUP if it is a group and every cover of G by open sets admits a finite subcover.

For subsets of \mathbb{R}^n , compactness means bounded and open.



$\Rightarrow (\mathbb{T}, \cdot)$ is a compact Lie group but $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ and (\mathbb{R}_+, \cdot) are not.

A fundamental property of compact Lie group G :

Prop. $C(G) := \{f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \text{ is continuous}\}$

$\exists I: C(G) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ s.t.

1) $I(f_1 + \alpha f_2) = I(f_1) + \alpha I(f_2) \quad \forall f_i \in C(G), \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ **Linearity**

2) $f \geq 0 \Rightarrow I(f) \geq 0$ and $f = 1 \Rightarrow I(f) = 1$ **Positivity & Normalization**

3) $I(f(a \cdot)) = I(f) = I(f(\cdot a))$ **Invariance under Left & Right Multiplication**

4) $I(f(\cdot^{-1})) = I(f)$ **Invariance under Taking the Inverse**

\Rightarrow This map I corresponds to "integration" and is often denoted by

$\int_G f(a) da$ (called the Haar measure)

The Haar measure can be explicitly constructed locally if G is not compact (but ~~not~~ locally compact), and such a measure also exists but with less properties

$(f = 1 \not\Rightarrow I(f) = 1)$

(3)(4) are not true and it is divided to left Haar & right Haar measures).

A Haar measure is very convenient because

$$\frac{1}{g} \sum_{a \in G} U(a) T U(a)^{-1} \text{ (if } G \text{ is finite)} \rightsquigarrow \int_G U(a) T U(a)^{-1} da$$

$\hookrightarrow \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ $\hookrightarrow \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ linear maps on a vector space

Lie groups and Lie algebras are useful in QM and in particle physics.

Lemma: Let $T: G \mapsto \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ with G a compact group, s.t.

this map is weakly continuous. → inner product on Hilbert space \mathcal{H}

Weakly continuous: $\Leftrightarrow G \ni a \mapsto \langle f, T(a)g \rangle \in \mathbb{C}$ is continuous $\forall f, g \in \mathcal{H}$

Then $\exists \mathbf{T} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) : \langle f, \mathbf{T}g \rangle = \int_G \langle f, T(a)g \rangle da \forall f, g \in \mathcal{H}$.

It means that $\mathbf{T} = \int_G T(a) da$ different from the integral introduced in the last lecture? on $C(G)$ or representation

Idea of the proof:

Choose $\{f_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ basis of \mathcal{H} and compute $\alpha_{jk} := \int \langle f_j, T(a)f_k \rangle da$,

and we set $\langle f_j, \mathbf{T}f_k \rangle := \alpha_{jk}$. Then we should check \mathbf{T} is a bounded operator.

To give a meaning of $\int_G U(a)T U(a)^{-1} da$

For Lie group G we shall consider unitary representations

(it means $\forall a \in G : U(a) \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ is unitary)

which are strongly continuous, it means $G \ni a \mapsto U(a)f \in \mathcal{H}$ is continuous

$$\Leftrightarrow \lim_{b \rightarrow a} \|U(b)f - U(a)f\| = 0 \forall f \in \mathcal{H}$$

↑ When using ϵ - δ , δ can be dependent on f .

(If continuous on norm, δ is independent on f)

↑ can be defined by the local charts

Corollary: If $U: G \mapsto \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$ set of unitary operators on \mathcal{H} is strongly continuous

Proof as exercise

and G a compact Lie group, SC any

Then for any $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$: the map $G \ni a \mapsto U(a)T U(a)^{-1}$ is strongly continuous

(\Rightarrow weakly continuous) and

then $M_G(T) := \int U(a)T U(a)^{-1} da \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$

$$M_G(T) \text{ satisfies } U(b)M_G(T)U(b)^{-1} = M_G(T) \forall b \in G$$

A deep thm (Peter-Weyl theorem (Part II))

Let $U: G \mapsto \mathcal{U}(\mathcal{H})$ be a strongly continuous unitary representation of a compact Lie group G .

Then $\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{H}_n$ with $\dim \mathcal{H}_n < \infty$ Est-ce possible qu'il y a infini d' \mathcal{H}_n ?

and $U|_{\mathcal{H}_n}$ is an irreducible representation of G .

\Rightarrow All irreducible representations of a compact Lie group are finite dimensional.

We denote by $\eta_k = [(U_k, \mathcal{H}_k)]$ the equivalence class containing the irreducible representation (U_k, \mathcal{H}_k) . We set

Prop. Let (U, \mathcal{H}) be any finite dim rep of G . proof as exercise

Recall the character $\chi(a) := \text{tr}(U(a))$

$$1) \mathcal{H} = \bigoplus \nu_k \mathcal{H}_k \text{ with } \nu_k = \int_G \overline{\chi(b)} \chi_k(b) db$$

$$2) (U, \mathcal{H}) \text{ is irreducible iff } \int |\chi(b)|^2 db = 1$$

$$3) \int \overline{\chi_k(b)} \chi_l(b) db = \delta_{kl}$$

$$4) \int U(b)_{st}^p U(b)_{pq}^k db = \delta_{rk} \delta_{sp} \delta_{tq}$$

These relations can still be interpreted as orthogonal relations in $L^2(G)$

$$L^2(G) := \{f: G \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \int |f(b)|^2 db < \infty\} \text{ (} L^2\text{-integrable on } G\text{)}$$

$$\text{Note that } \dim(L^2(G)) = \infty$$

Now we pay attention to the props around the identity of a Lie group.

(which leads to Lie-Algebra)

Recall that G is CONNECTED: if any $a, b \in G$ can be connected by a continuous path, it means $\exists f: [0,1] \rightarrow G$ continuous with $f(0) = a, f(1) = b$.

G is SIMPLY CONNECTED if any closed curve can be deformed to a point in G .

In a Lie group, the IDENTITY COMPONENT $G_0 \equiv G_e$ is

the set of all elements of G which are connected to e .

Prop. $G_0 \triangleleft G$ proof as exercise

2) If (U, \mathcal{H}) is a representation or a projective representation of G ,

Then G_0 is always represented by unitary operators.

Proof of 2)

$\forall a \in G_e: a = a_1^2 a_2^2 \dots a_N^2$ for a finite family of elements in G_0 . will be shown later

Then we observe $U(a_i^2) = w(a_i, a_i) U(a_i) U(a_i)$ with

$$U(a_i) \text{ is } \begin{cases} \text{unitary} & : \Leftrightarrow \langle Uf, Ug \rangle = \langle f, g \rangle \Rightarrow U(a_i) U(a_i) \text{ is unitary} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{anti-unitary} & : \Leftrightarrow \langle Uf, Ug \rangle = \langle g, f \rangle \Rightarrow U(a_i) U(a_i) \text{ is unitary} \end{cases}$$

$\Rightarrow U(a)$ is unitary. \square

III.2 Linear (or matrix) Lie groups and Lie algebra

⚠ Most (if not all) statements are true for general Lie groups, but the statements are more complicated.

Def. A LINEAR (or MATRIX) LIE GROUP is a Lie subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ or $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$

⚠ Even in $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ we consider some parametrization with real coefficients. (up to $2n^2$ parameters)

Topology on $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ is induced by the distance $(\|\cdot\|_2)$

$$d: GL(n, \mathbb{C}) \times GL(n, \mathbb{C}), d(A, B) := \left(\sum_{j,k=1}^n |a_{jk} - b_{jk}|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \text{ with } A = (a_{jk}), B = (b_{jk})$$

Let G be a Lie subgroup of $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$ and let (U_0, φ_0) be a chart near $e = 1 \in G$.

Suppose (for simplicity) $\varphi_0(e) = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Let us set

$$Y_j := \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\varphi_0^{-1}(\epsilon E_j) - 1}{\epsilon} \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \quad \text{for } j = 1, \dots, m$$

Here the linear assumption plays a role:

$$(Y_j)_{tm} = [\partial_j (\varphi_0^{-1})_{tm}] (0)$$

$$\hookrightarrow: \mathbb{R}^m \mapsto \mathbb{C}$$

Facts:

proof as exercise

$$\rightarrow \alpha Y_j + \beta Y_k = 0 \text{ \& \& } \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \alpha = \beta = 0$$

1) The matrices Y_1, \dots, Y_m are linearly independent (over \mathbb{R})

(1 and i are linearly independent over \mathbb{R} but not over \mathbb{C})

but each Y_j can be made of complex numbers.

2) If $(-1, 1) \ni t \mapsto X(t) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ with $X(0) = 0$ is smooth

Then $(-1, 1) \ni t \mapsto \varphi_0^{-1} \circ X(t) \in G$ is a smooth map and

$$\varphi_0^{-1} \circ X(0) = e \text{ and } \left[\frac{d}{dt} \varphi_0^{-1} \circ X(t) \right] (0) = \sum_{j=1}^m Y_j X_j'(0)$$

It means that the derivative at 0 of any smooth curve in G passing to e at 0 is a linear combination (over \mathbb{R}) of $\{Y_j\}_{j=1}^m$.

The vector space generated by $\{Y_j\}$ is called the TANGENT SPACE at e .

Note: Tangent space is defined in any Lie group.

In compact Lie groups, like finite groups, all representations are equivalent to some unitary groups; but if the Lie group is not compact, not true. So we consider not only unitary valued but more general representations with values in $GL(V)$

example: $(\mathbb{R}, +) \ni x \mapsto e^x \in M_1(\mathbb{R})$

In III, 2 last time,

$$Y_j := \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\varphi_\epsilon^{-1}(\epsilon E_j) - \mathbb{1}}{\epsilon} \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$$

Let \mathbb{K} be either \mathbb{C} or \mathbb{R} .

Def. A LIE ALGEBRA \mathfrak{L} over \mathbb{K} is a (finite dim.) vector space over \mathbb{K} with a composition $[\cdot, \cdot]: \mathfrak{L} \times \mathfrak{L} \rightarrow \mathfrak{L}$ s.t. $\forall X, Y, Z \in \mathfrak{L}, \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{K}$:

- 1) $[\alpha X + \beta Y, Z] = \alpha [X, Z] + \beta [Y, Z]$
- 2) $[X, Y] = -[Y, X]$
- 3) $[X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0$ (Jacobian identity)

Remark: if $X, Y, Z \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ and $[X, Y] := XY - YX$ (COMMUTATOR)

then the 3 conditions are satisfied.

So we only have to check that

$$X, Y \in \mathfrak{L} \Rightarrow [X, Y] \in \mathfrak{L}$$

Def. Given a basis $\{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}$ of \mathfrak{L} , the coefficients

$\{c_{ij}^k\}_{i,j,k=1}^n$ defined by $[Y_i, Y_j] = \sum_{k=1}^n c_{ij}^k Y_k$ are called

STRUCTURE CONSTANTS or STRUCTURE COEFFICIENTS of \mathfrak{L} .

$\Rightarrow c_{ij}^k = -c_{ji}^k$ and relation from Jacobian identity.

Lemma: Let G be a linear Lie group and $\mathfrak{L}(G)$ be its tangent space.

Then $\mathfrak{L}(G)$ is a Lie algebra of the same dimension. (Proof as exercise)

Sketch of the proof: One just has to show $[Y_i, Y_j] \in \mathfrak{L}(G)$.

Consider smooth curves

$$(-1, 1) \ni t \mapsto A(t) \in G \text{ with } A(0) = \mathbb{1} \text{ and } A'(0) = Y_i$$

$$(-1, 1) \ni t \mapsto B(t) \in G \text{ with } B(0) = \mathbb{1} \text{ and } B'(0) = Y_j$$

$$\text{Consider } (-1, 1) \ni t \mapsto A(\sqrt{t}) B(\sqrt{t}) A(\sqrt{t})^{-1} B(\sqrt{t})^{-1} \quad (*)$$

$$\text{Then } A(\sqrt{t}) = \mathbb{1} + \sqrt{t} Y_i + \dots, B(\sqrt{t}) = \mathbb{1} + \sqrt{t} Y_j + \dots, A(\sqrt{t})^{-1} = \mathbb{1} - \sqrt{t} Y_i + \dots, B(\sqrt{t})^{-1} = \mathbb{1} - \sqrt{t} Y_j + \dots$$

$$\text{Then } (*) = \mathbb{1} + t [Y_i, Y_j] + \dots \Rightarrow (*)'(0) = [Y_i, Y_j] \quad \square$$

Important properties of G or $\mathfrak{L}(G)$:

Some proofs are very nice but too long.

Let G be a Lie group and $\mathfrak{L}(G)$ be its Lie algebra.

$$1) \forall X \in \mathfrak{L}(G), t \in \mathbb{R}: \exp(tX) := \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} (tX)^j \in G$$

$$2) \exp(sX) \exp(tX) \stackrel{\text{multiplication in } G}{=} \exp((s+t)X); \exp(tX)^{-1} \text{ in } G = \exp(-tX)$$

$$3) t \mapsto \exp(tX) \text{ is the only one-parameter subgroup of } G \text{ satisfying} \\ \frac{d}{dt} \exp(tX) \Big|_{t=0} = X.$$

Prop. (Same framework)

$$a) \exists \text{ an open set } \mathcal{U} \subset G \text{ containing } \mathbb{1} \text{ s.t.}$$

$$1) \forall A \in \mathcal{U} \exists X \in \mathfrak{L}(G) : A = \exp(X)$$

$$2) \forall A \in \mathcal{U} \exists B \in \mathcal{U} : A = B^2 := BB$$

$$b) \forall A \in G_0 \exists X_1, \dots, X_n \in \mathfrak{L}(G) : A = \exp(X_1) \exp(X_2) \dots \exp(X_n) \text{ (not always unique)}$$

$$c) \text{ If } G \text{ is compact, we can choose } N=1 (\Leftrightarrow A = \exp(X_1))$$

$$\Delta \exp(X_1) \dots \exp(X_n) \neq \exp(X_1 + \dots + X_n) \text{ in general}$$

$$\text{In fact } \exp(X) \exp(Y) = \exp(f(X, Y))$$

with $f(X, Y)$ called the CAMPBELL-BAKER-HAUSDORFF FORMULA. ($\in \mathfrak{L}(G)$)

Exercise: find $f(X, Y)$. (α series)

What about the relation between representations of G and ones of $\mathfrak{L}(G)$?

Def: a REPRESENTATION of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{L} is

a pair (\mathfrak{h}, V) with V a vector space and $\mathfrak{h}: \mathfrak{L} \rightarrow L(V)$ a homomorphism

$$\text{It means } \begin{cases} \mathfrak{h}(X + \alpha Y) = \mathfrak{h}(X) + \alpha \mathfrak{h}(Y) \\ \mathfrak{h}([X, Y]) = \mathfrak{h}(X)\mathfrak{h}(Y) - \mathfrak{h}(Y)\mathfrak{h}(X) \\ \mathfrak{h}(0) = 0 \end{cases} \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{linear map} \\ \downarrow \\ \mathfrak{L}(V) \end{array} \right) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \mathfrak{1}f = f \forall f \in V \\ 0f = 0 \forall f \in V \end{array} \right)$$

Lemma: Let (U, V) be a representation of a Lie group G

in a finite dimensional vector space V .

$$\text{Then } \Gamma: \mathfrak{L}(G) \rightarrow L(V), \quad \Gamma(X) := \left. \frac{d}{ds} U(\exp(sX)) \right|_{s=0}$$

defines a representation of $\mathfrak{L}(G)$.

$$\text{In addition } \underbrace{\exp(S\Gamma(X))}_{\in GL(V)} = \underbrace{U(\exp(sX))}_{\in GL(V)} \quad (*)$$

Proof as exercise

⚠ A kind of converse is not true:

a representation of a Lie algebra does not define a representation of a unique Lie group by (*).

If two Lie groups are isomorphic close to the identity, then the corresponding Lie algebras are isomorphic.

Application self-adjoint operator (extension of Hermitian matrix into ∞ -dim Hilbert spaces)

If $\{e^{-itH}\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ with $e^{-itH} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ describes the evolution of a quantum system

And if \exists a Lie group G and unitary rep. (U, \mathcal{H}) s.t.

$$U(a) e^{-itH} = e^{-itH} U(a) \quad \forall a \in G$$

Then any $X \in \mathfrak{L}(G)$ defines a constant of motion.

More precisely $\Gamma(X) : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ which satisfies (not necessarily $\Gamma(X) \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$)

$$e^{-itH} \Gamma(X) = \Gamma(X) e^{-itH} \Leftrightarrow e^{-itH} \Gamma(X) e^{itH} = \Gamma(X)$$

III.3 $SO(3)$, $O(3)$ and $SU(2)$

Recall that $\exists \phi : SU(2) \rightarrow SO(3)$ surjective and with kernel $\{\mathbb{1}, -\mathbb{1}\}$

Prop. (proofs as exercises)

\rightarrow maybe difficult to show

1) $O(3)$, $SO(3)$ and $SU(2)$ are compact Lie groups.

2) $O(3)$ is not connected.

3) $SO(3)$ is connected but not simply connected.

4) $SU(2)$ is simply connected.

the neighborhood (see the note for metric & topological spaces in the Tue seminar last term)

5) $SO(3)$ and $SU(2)$ isomorphic near the identity ($\mathfrak{L}(SO(3)) \cong \mathfrak{L}(SU(2))$)

6) The Pauli matrices $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$ generate $SU(2)$ in the following sense:

$$\left\{ \underbrace{-\frac{1}{2} \sigma_1}_{Y_1}, \underbrace{-\frac{1}{2} \sigma_2}_{Y_2}, \underbrace{-\frac{1}{2} \sigma_3}_{Y_3} \right\} \text{ generate } SU(2) \text{ with } [Y_i, Y_j] = \sum_k \epsilon_{ijk} Y_k \quad (*)$$

$$\text{with } \epsilon_{ijk} = \begin{cases} \epsilon_{123} = \epsilon_{231} = \epsilon_{312} = 1 \\ \epsilon_{132} = \epsilon_{213} = \epsilon_{321} = -1 \\ \epsilon_{ijk} = 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

7) The following 3 matrices define the Lie algebra of $SO(3)$

$$Y_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, Y_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, Y_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

with the same relations of (*)

IV Semisimple theory

→ $SU(n)$

IV. 1) Complexification and linear independence

Note: $SU(n)$ is a Lie group and $\mathfrak{su}(n)$ is a Lie algebra.

Recall that a basis of $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ is given by

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \text{ They are lin. indep. on } \mathbb{R} \text{ but also on } \mathbb{C}$$

On the other hand, a basis for $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

and they are lin. indep. on \mathbb{R} but not on \mathbb{C} .

Let us define the complexification of any real Lie algebra \mathfrak{L} of dim n .

Consider $\mathfrak{L} \oplus \mathfrak{L}$ with

$$(\lambda + i\mu)(X, Y) := (\lambda X - \mu Y, \mu X + \lambda Y) \quad \forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}, X, Y \in \mathfrak{L}$$

Exercise: Check that this defines a complex vector space of dim n with $(X_1, 0), \dots, (X_n, 0)$ with $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ a basis of \mathfrak{L} .

$$[(X, Y), (X', Y')] := ([X, X'] - [Y, Y'], [X, Y'] + [Y, X'])$$

Lemma: $\mathfrak{L} \oplus \mathfrak{L}$ with the above scalar mult. & the above $[\cdot, \cdot]$

is a Lie algebra over \mathbb{C} of dim n .

Proof as exercise

Def. This $\mathfrak{L} \oplus \mathfrak{L}$ is called the COMPLEXIFICATION of \mathfrak{L} and denoted by $\mathfrak{L}_{\mathbb{C}}$.

Lemma: Iff \mathfrak{L} has a basis also \downarrow lin. indep. over \mathbb{C} and is a real linear Lie algebra then the map

$$\phi: \mathfrak{L}_{\mathbb{C}} \mapsto M_n(\mathbb{C}), \quad \phi(X, Y) = X + iY$$

defines an injective homomorphism,

and it is an isomorphism on its image on $M_n(\mathbb{C})$.

Proof as exercise

Exercise

$$\mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{R})_{\mathbb{C}} \cong \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{C}) \quad \mathfrak{su}(n)_{\mathbb{C}} \cong \mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{C})$$

$$\mathfrak{u}(n)_{\mathbb{C}} \cong \mathfrak{gl}(n, \mathbb{C}) \quad \mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{R})_{\mathbb{C}} \cong \mathfrak{sl}(n, \mathbb{C})$$

IV.2

Exercise

1) $X \in \mathfrak{su}(n) \Leftrightarrow X^* = -X$ and $\text{tr}(X) = 0$ (us exponential)

2) $\mathfrak{su}(n)$ is of real dimension $n^2 - 1$

3) Any basis of $\mathfrak{su}(n)$ is lin. indep. over \mathbb{C} \rightsquigarrow the second lemma applies

IV. 2) Properties of Lie algebra

Def. "a SUBALGEBRA of a Lie algebra ^{of \mathfrak{L}} is a subspace \mathfrak{L}' s.t.

$$[X, Y] \in \mathfrak{L}' \Leftarrow X, Y \in \mathfrak{L}'$$

2) A subspace \mathfrak{L}' of \mathfrak{L} is an IDEAL if

$$[X, Y] \in \mathfrak{L}' \quad \forall X \in \mathfrak{L}' \text{ and } Y \in \mathfrak{L}$$

It is a PROPER IDEAL if $\mathfrak{L}' \neq \mathfrak{L}$ 3) The CENTER of \mathfrak{L} is defined by

$$\{X \in \mathfrak{L} \mid [X, Y] = 0 \quad \forall Y \in \mathfrak{L}\}$$

Note that the center is always an abelian ideal.

Def. A Lie algebra \mathfrak{L} with $\dim \mathfrak{L} > 1$ is SIMPLE if $\{0\}$ is the only proper ideal of \mathfrak{L} .And \mathfrak{L} with $\dim \mathfrak{L} > 1$ is SEMI-SIMPLE if $\{0\}$ is the only abelian proper ideal of \mathfrak{L} .Def. A connected Lie group ^{is} SIMPLE ifit does not contain any proper normal Lie subgroup. $\mathbb{R} \triangleright \mathbb{Z}$ but \mathbb{Z} is not a Lie group
 \mathbb{R} is still simple

A connected Lie group is SEMI-SIMPLE if

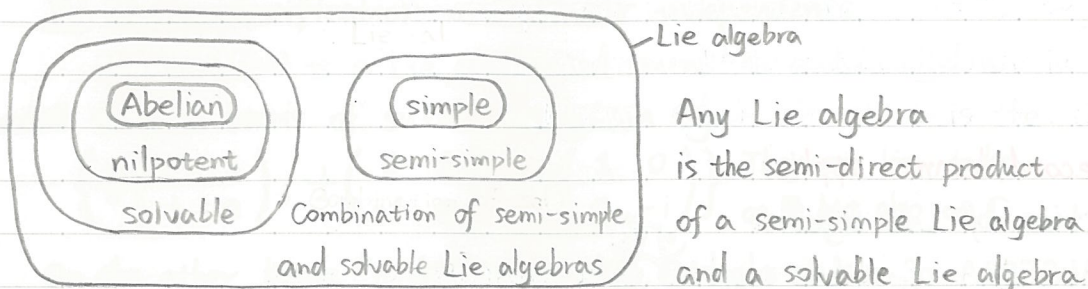
it does not contain any normal abelian proper Lie subgroup.

Lemma. Let G be a connected ^{linear} Lie group and $\mathfrak{L}(G)$ its Lie algebra (over \mathbb{R})1) A Lie subgroup G' is normal ^{linear} iff $\mathfrak{L}(G')$ is an ideal in $\mathfrak{L}(G)$ 2) G is simple iff $\mathfrak{L}(G)$ is simple3) G is semi-simple iff $\mathfrak{L}(G)$ is semi-simple4) $\mathfrak{L}(G)_{\mathbb{C}}$ is semi-simple iff \uparrow 5) If $\mathfrak{L}(G)_{\mathbb{C}}$ is simple then $\mathfrak{L}(G)$ is simple

} small exercises

} more deep

Remark (task for mathematicians)



Let \mathcal{L} be a Lie algebra and consider its adjoint representation defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ad}: \mathcal{L} &\mapsto L(\mathcal{L}) \quad \text{linear operators on the vector space } \mathcal{L} \\ X &\mapsto \text{ad}_X \quad \text{with } \text{ad}_X(Y) = [X, Y] \end{aligned}$$

indeed $\text{ad}_X \in L(\mathcal{L})$ since

$$\text{ad}_X(Y + \lambda Z) = [X, Y + \lambda Z] = [X, Y] + \lambda [X, Z]$$

It is a representation since

$$\cdot \text{ad}_0 = 0$$

$$\cdot \text{ad}_{X+\alpha Y} = \text{ad}_X + \alpha \text{ad}_Y \quad (\text{since } [,] \text{ is bi-linear}) \quad (*)$$

$$\cdot \text{ad}_{[X, Y]} = \text{ad}_X \text{ad}_Y - \text{ad}_Y \text{ad}_X \quad (\text{use Jacobian identity})$$

Note that

$$\text{ad}_X([Y, Z]) = [\text{ad}_X(Y), Z] + [Y, \text{ad}_X(Z)] \quad \text{because of Jacobian identity}$$

Def. the KILLING FORM of \mathcal{L} is the symmetric bi-linear map

$$K: \mathcal{L} \times \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \quad K(X, Y) = \text{tr}(\text{ad}_X \text{ad}_Y) \in \mathbb{C} \quad (*)$$

Exercise: ⁰⁾ Illustrate the theory with $\mathcal{L} = \mathfrak{su}(2)$ in this page

1) If $\{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}$ is a basis of \mathcal{L} with

$$[Y_i, Y_j] = \sum_{k=1}^n c_{ij}^k Y_k$$

$$\text{Then } g_{ij} := K(Y_i, Y_j) = \sum_{k,r} c_{ir}^k c_{jk}^r$$

2) $K([X, Y], Z) = K(X, [Y, Z]) \quad \forall X, Y, Z \in \mathcal{L}$

3) $[K(X, Y) = 0 \quad \forall Y \in \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow X = 0] \Leftrightarrow \det(g_{ij})_{i,j=1}^n \neq 0$

In such a case we say that the Killing form is non degenerate

A quite important thm (Cartan's criterion) :

A Lie algebra \mathfrak{L} is semi-simple iff its Killing form is non-degenerate.

Lemma: A semi-simple connected Lie group is compact

iff the Killing form of its Lie algebra is negative definite. It means

$$K(X, X) < 0 \quad \forall X \in \mathfrak{L}, X \neq 0$$

Example: $su(n)$, one has $K(X, Y) = 2n \cdot \text{tr}(XY)$ and it follows that

$$K(X, X) = 2n \cdot \text{tr}(XX) = -2n \cdot \text{tr}(X^*X) \neq$$

$$= -2n \sum_{j=1}^n \langle e_j, X^* X e_j \rangle = -2n \sum_{j=1}^n \langle X e_j, X e_j \rangle = -2n \sum_{j=1}^n \|X e_j\|^2 < 0$$

By knowing that $SU(n)$ is semi-simple, it follows that it is compact.

IV.3

Thm. \mathfrak{L} is semi-simple iff $\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}_1 \oplus \mathfrak{L}_2 \oplus \dots \oplus \mathfrak{L}_N$ with each \mathfrak{L}_i simple Lie algebra

Example: For $\mathfrak{L}_1 \oplus \mathfrak{L}_2$ ↓ ↓ ↓
They don't speak to each other

$$[X_1 + X_2, Y_1 + Y_2] := [X_1, Y_1] + [X_2, Y_2]$$

Corollary: Any semi-simple Lie algebra of dim 2 or 3 is simple.

(Since any simple Lie algebra is of dim > 1)

IV.3 Roots of semi-simple complex Lie algebra

Recall that any real Lie algebra can be complexified.

Recall that for any $X \in \mathfrak{L}$, $\text{ad}_X : \mathfrak{L} \rightarrow \mathfrak{L}$ linear

\Rightarrow We can look at eigenvalues of ad_X , which means

$$\lambda \in \mathbb{C} : [X, Y] = \text{ad}_X(Y) = \lambda Y \quad \exists Y \in \mathfrak{L}$$

If \mathfrak{L} is of dim n , then $\det(\text{ad}_X - \lambda \mathbb{1})$ is a polynomial with deg n , with n roots

Clearly 0 is an eigenvalue since $\text{ad}_X(X) = [X, X] = 0 = 0X$

Recall also that ad_X admits n generalized eigenvectors

(Jordan normal form of a matrix) $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & & \\ & \lambda & \\ & & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$

Def. Let \mathfrak{L} be a semi-simple complex Lie algebra.

A CARTAN SUBALGEBRA \mathfrak{L}_0 of \mathfrak{L} is a maximal abelian subalgebra of \mathfrak{L} with all ad_X with $X \in \mathfrak{L}_0$ simultaneously diagonalizable.

It means \mathfrak{L}_0 is a complex vector space s.t.

1) $\forall X_1, X_2 \in \mathfrak{L}_0 : [X_1, X_2] = 0$

2) If for $Y \in \mathfrak{L}$, $[X, Y] = 0 \quad \forall X \in \mathfrak{L}_0$, then $Y \in \mathfrak{L}_0$.

3) $\forall X \in \mathfrak{L}_0 : \text{ad}_X$ is diagonalizable

Remark: One should show that for semi-simple Lie algebras, such Cartan subalgebra always exists;

and if there are > 1 , then they have the same dimension.

We call the RANK of $\mathfrak{L} =: n_0 < n$ the dim of \mathfrak{L}_0 .

↳ because of semi-simple

Let us fix \mathfrak{L}_0 a Cartan subalgebra in \mathfrak{L} , \rightarrow for ad_x is diagonalizable $\textcircled{3}$
 and choose a basis $\{Y_1, \dots, Y_n\}$ of \mathfrak{L} s.t. $\text{ad}_x(Y_j) = \lambda_j(x)Y_j \forall X \in \mathfrak{L}_0$.

Let us observe that if $X, X' \in \mathfrak{L}_0$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ then $X + \alpha X' \in \mathfrak{L}_0$, so

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_j(X + \alpha X')Y_j &= \text{ad}_{X + \alpha X'}(Y_j) = [X + \alpha X', Y_j] = [X, Y_j] + \alpha[X', Y_j] \\ &= \text{ad}_X(Y_j) + \alpha \text{ad}_{X'}(Y_j) = (\lambda_j(X) + \alpha \lambda_j(X'))Y_j \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_j(X + \alpha X') = \lambda_j(X) + \alpha \lambda_j(X') \Rightarrow \lambda_j: \mathfrak{L} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \text{ is linear } \forall j = 1, \dots, n$$

$\Leftrightarrow \lambda_j \in \mathfrak{L}_0^*$ (DUAL of \mathfrak{L}_0) (of dim n_0)

Remark: Since $\text{ad}_X(Y) = 0$ if $X, Y \in \mathfrak{L}_0$, we can choose a basis of \mathfrak{L} s.t.

$$\underbrace{\{Y_1, \dots, Y_{n_0}\}}_{\in \mathfrak{L}_0}, Y_{n_0+1}, \dots, Y_n$$

Remark: Observe that $\lambda_j(X) = 0$ if $j \in \{1, \dots, n_0\}$ and $X \in \mathfrak{L}_0$.

Is it possible that $\lambda_j(X) = 0 \forall j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ and $X \in \mathfrak{L}_0$?

No. Because any $Y \in \mathfrak{L}_0^\perp$ cannot commute with all elements of \mathfrak{L}_0 .

(maximality assumption) $\textcircled{2}$

Def. (independent of the choice of a basis)

A ROOT of \mathfrak{L} (relative to a fixed Cartan subalgebra \mathfrak{L}_0) is an element $\alpha \in \mathfrak{L}_0^*$, $\alpha \neq 0$ s.t. $\exists Y \in \mathfrak{L} \setminus \{0\}: \text{ad}_X(Y) = \alpha(X)Y \forall X \in \mathfrak{L}_0$.

The set of all roots is denoted by $\mathcal{R} \subset \mathfrak{L}_0^*$.

It corresponds to the generalization of an eigenvalue.

For any $\alpha \in \mathcal{R}$ we set

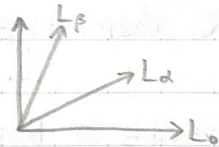
$$\mathfrak{L}_\alpha := \{Y \in \mathfrak{L} \mid \text{ad}_X(Y) = \alpha(X)Y \forall X \in \mathfrak{L}_0\} \neq \mathfrak{L}_0 \text{ (or } \alpha = 0)$$

\Rightarrow Since all ad_X can be diagonalized simultaneously, one infers that

$$\mathfrak{L} = \mathfrak{L}_0 \oplus \left(\bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{R}} \mathfrak{L}_\alpha \right)$$

Δ No notion of orthogonality

In this representation $\text{ad}_X = 0 \oplus \bigoplus_{\alpha \in \mathcal{R}} \alpha(X)$



Exercise: think about this.

We now generalize $\mathfrak{L}_\alpha = \begin{cases} \mathfrak{L}_\alpha & \text{if } \alpha \in \mathcal{R} \\ \{0\} & \text{if } \alpha \notin \mathcal{R} \text{ but } \alpha \in \mathfrak{L}_0^* \end{cases}$

Lemma: $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathfrak{L}_0^*$, $X_\alpha \in \mathfrak{L}_\alpha$, $X_\beta \in \mathfrak{L}_\beta$:

Do the several cases separately, and

$[X_\alpha, X_\beta] \in \mathfrak{L}_{\alpha+\beta}$ Proof as exercise, use Jacobi identity.

\Rightarrow If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{R}$ but $\alpha + \beta \notin \mathcal{R}$ then $[X_\alpha, X_\beta] = 0$; but if $\alpha + \beta = 0$ then $[X_\alpha, X_\beta] \in \mathfrak{L}_0$

- Prop. ¹⁾ If $\alpha \in \mathcal{R}$ then $-\alpha \in \mathcal{R}$
 2) $\dim \mathcal{L}_\alpha = 1$
 3) $\text{span}(\alpha | \alpha \in \mathcal{R}) = \mathcal{L}_0^*$ } Book of Hall, P165~166

With an additional change of basis, one can construct a basis

$\{H_1, \dots, H_{n_0}, E_\alpha, \dots, E_{\beta_n}\}$ of \mathcal{L} s.t.

$$1) [H_j, H_k] = 0$$

$$2) [H_j, E_\alpha] = \alpha(H_j) E_\alpha \text{ with } \alpha(H_j) \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$3) [E_\alpha, E_\beta] = \begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^{n_0} \alpha(H_j) H_j & \text{if } \alpha + \beta = 0 \\ \gamma_{\alpha\beta} E_{\alpha+\beta} & \text{if } \alpha + \beta \in \mathcal{R} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In this basis $(g_{ij})_{ij} = (\text{tr}(\text{ad}_{x_i} \text{ad}_{x_j}))_{ij} =$

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc} \underbrace{\begin{matrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{matrix}}_{n_0} & & & \\ & & \begin{matrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{matrix} & & \\ & & & & \begin{matrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{matrix} & & \\ & & & & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & & & & \begin{matrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{matrix} \end{array} \right) \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$$

Def. Since $\alpha(H_j) \in \mathbb{R}$ in this basis, we say that the root α is

POSITIVE ($\Leftrightarrow \alpha \in \mathcal{R}_+$) if the first non-zero entry of $\alpha(H_j)$ is positive \rightarrow for $j \in \{1, \dots, n_0\}$

NEGATIVE ($\Leftrightarrow \alpha \in \mathcal{R}_-$) if negative

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{R} = \mathcal{R}_+ \cup \mathcal{R}_-$$

If $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{R}$, then $\alpha > \beta \Leftrightarrow \alpha - \beta \in \mathcal{R}_+$

\hookrightarrow called the LEXICOGRAPHIC ORDER on \mathbb{R}^n

Def. With respect to this basis a root is SIMPLE

if it cannot be expressed as a linear combination of other positive roots.

In def of POSITIVE (NEGATIVE) ROOT, the "first non-zero" entry is in the reverse order: $\alpha(H_{n_0}), \alpha(H_{n_0-1}), \dots, \alpha(H_1)$

Prop. Let \mathfrak{L} be a semi-simple complex Lie algebra,

and consider the canonical basis $\{H_1, \dots, H_{n_0}, E_\alpha, \dots, E_\beta\}$ or \mathfrak{L} .

1) There are n_0 simple roots $\alpha^1, \dots, \alpha^{n_0}$ \triangleq "n." \neq "no"

2) These n_0 roots generate $\mathfrak{L}_0^* \Rightarrow$ they are lin. indep.

3) If $\beta \in \mathcal{R}$ not simple, then $\exists a_1, \dots, a_{n_0} \in \mathbb{Z} : \beta = a_1 \alpha^1 + \dots + a_{n_0} \alpha^{n_0}$
with either $a_1, \dots, a_{n_0} \geq 0$ or $a_1, \dots, a_{n_0} \leq 0$

Recall that $\mathfrak{su}(n) = \{X \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid X^* = -X \text{ and } \text{tr}(X) = 0\}$ and $\dim(\mathfrak{su}(n)) = n^2 - 1$ (over \mathbb{R})
 \rightarrow not X^{-1} ! (unitary is in $SU(n)$)

What is the dimension of any Cartan subalgebra in $\mathfrak{su}(n)_{\mathbb{C}}$?

Observation: if $X \in \mathfrak{su}(n)$ then $(iX)^* = -i(-X) = iX \Rightarrow iX$ is Hermitian

How many elements in $\{Y \in M_n(\mathbb{C}) \mid Y^* = Y \text{ and } \text{tr}(Y) = 0\}$ are diagonal & lin. indep.?

Answer: $n-1 =: n_0$

Example:

1) $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ of dim 3, and $n_0 = 1$. A basis for $\mathfrak{su}(2)_{\mathbb{C}}$ is given by the Pauli matrices.

We choose the following basis:

$$H = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}; E_+ = \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_1 + i\sigma_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; E_- = \frac{1}{4}(\sigma_1 - i\sigma_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

(E_α) $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$ are Pauli matrices $(E_{-\alpha})$

In this basis $\alpha = \alpha(H) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$, $\text{ad}_H(E_\alpha) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}E_\alpha$, and $g = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

The roots are $\xrightarrow{-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}}$ $\xrightarrow{0}$ $\xrightarrow{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}}$; $[E_\alpha, E_{-\alpha}] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}H$

2) $\mathfrak{su}(3)$ of dim 8 and $n_0 = 2$. \mathcal{R} contains 6 elements. Choose

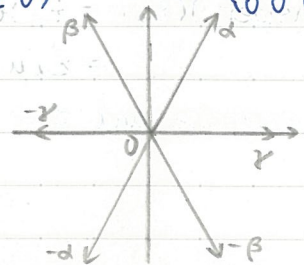
$$H_1 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; E_\alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; E_\beta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; E_\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix};$$

$$H_2 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}; E_{-\alpha} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; E_{-\beta} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; E_{-\gamma} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

In this basis g has expected form and

$$\alpha = \left(\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}, \frac{1}{2}\right); \beta = \left(-\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}, \frac{1}{2}\right); \gamma = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, 0\right)$$

$\hookrightarrow \beta + \gamma$ \hookrightarrow simple \hookrightarrow simple
positive roots



IV. 4 Weights of semi-simple complex Lie algebras

Let \mathfrak{L} be a complex Lie algebra, and let

$(\mathfrak{h}, \mathcal{V})$ be a representation in \mathcal{V} of finite dimension. It means

$$\mathfrak{h}: \mathfrak{L} \rightarrow L(\mathcal{V}) \text{ s.t. } \mathfrak{h}$$

$$\mathfrak{h}(\lambda X + Y) = \lambda \mathfrak{h}(X) + \mathfrak{h}(Y); \mathfrak{h}([X, Y]) = \mathfrak{h}(X)\mathfrak{h}(Y) - \mathfrak{h}(Y)\mathfrak{h}(X); \mathfrak{h}(0) = 0.$$

Def. As for adjoint map, we look for $v \in \mathcal{V}$ s.t.

$$v \neq 0 \text{ and } \mathfrak{h}(H)v = \underbrace{\mu(H)}_{\in \mathbb{C}} v \quad \forall H \in \mathfrak{L}.$$

In this case, v is called a WEIGHT VECTOR; and

the map $\mu: \mathfrak{L}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ a WEIGHT

In fact $\mu \in \mathfrak{L}_0^*$ ($\Leftrightarrow \mu(H_1 + \lambda H_2) = \mu(H_1) + \lambda \mu(H_2)$)

More generally, $\forall \mu \in \mathfrak{L}_0^*$ we set $\mathcal{V}_\mu = \{v \in \mathcal{V} \mid \mathfrak{h}(H)v = \underbrace{\mu(H)}_{\in \mathbb{C}} v\}$ and $\dim(\mathcal{V}_\mu) =: \text{MULTIPLICITY of } \mu$

Remark: Roots are special weights when $\mathcal{V} = \mathfrak{L}$. (\Rightarrow multiplicity $\in \{0, 1\}$)

Choose again the canonical basis $\{H_1, \dots, H_{n_0}, E_\alpha, \dots, E_\beta\}$ of \mathfrak{L} and set

$$\mathfrak{h}(H_j) =: \chi_j; \mathfrak{h}(E_\alpha) =: \varepsilon_\alpha; \mathfrak{h}(H) =: \chi \text{ for } H \in \mathfrak{L}.$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} [X, E_\alpha] = \alpha(H) E_\alpha; \mathbb{F} \\ [X_i, X_j] = 0; \\ [E_\alpha, E_\beta] = \begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^{n_0} \alpha(H_j) X_j & \text{if } \alpha + \beta = 0 \\ \sum_{\alpha+\beta \in \mathcal{R}} \tau_{\alpha\beta} E_{\alpha+\beta} & \text{if } \alpha + \beta \in \mathcal{R} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

$\Delta \{X_i, E_\alpha\}$ are not
always lin. indep.

Prop. Let $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathcal{V})$ be rep. of \mathfrak{L} ; let

Let μ be a weight with a weight vector $v \in \mathcal{V}_\mu \setminus \{0\}$.

1) $E_\alpha v \in \mathcal{V}_{\mu+\alpha}$, and $\mu+\alpha$ is a weight if $\dim(\mathcal{V}_{\mu+\alpha}) \neq 0$;

2) The weight vectors associated with different weights are lin. indep.;

3) There exists $\leq \dim(\mathcal{V})$ weights for $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathcal{V})$.

Proof: 1) Consider $X E_\alpha v = E_\alpha X v + [X, E_\alpha] v$

$$= E_\alpha \mu(H) v + \alpha(H) E_\alpha v = \underbrace{(\mu + \alpha)(H)}_{\in \mathfrak{L}_0^*} E_\alpha v \in \mathcal{V}_{\mu+\alpha}. \quad \square$$

2) as exercise and 2) \Rightarrow 3)

Def. For $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and any weight $\mu \in \mathfrak{L}_0^*$, we set

$$\alpha \cdot \mu := {}^T \alpha g \mu \in \mathbb{C} \quad (g: \text{upper part of the Killing form})$$

Exercise:

1) $\alpha \cdot \mu$ is independent of the choice of a basis in \mathfrak{L}_0 .

2) If we choose $\mathfrak{V} = \mathfrak{L}$, then $\|\alpha\|^2 := \alpha \cdot \alpha = \sum \alpha(H_j)^2 > 0$

Question: For which $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ one has $\mu + k\alpha$ is a weight

($\Leftrightarrow \mathfrak{V}_{\mu+k\alpha} \neq \{0\}$)?

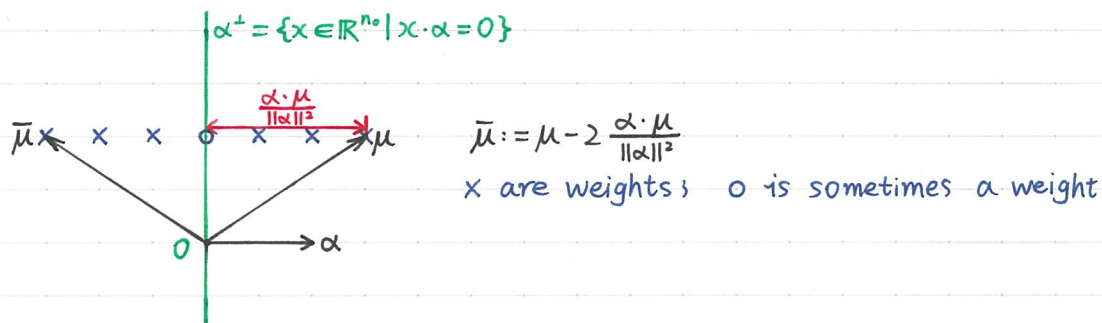
Lemma (technical but based only on $[X_j, E_\alpha] = \dots$ and $[E_\alpha, E_\beta] = \dots$)

1) $\alpha \cdot \mu \in \mathbb{R}$

2) $N := -2 \frac{\alpha \cdot \mu}{\|\alpha\|^2} \in \mathbb{Z}$ (can be positive or negative)

3) $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z} \cap [0, N]$: $\mu + k\alpha$ is a weight \leftarrow in this case replace $[0, N]$ by $[N, 0]$

4) In the standard basis with $\alpha_j := \alpha(H_j) \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $\mu_j := \mu(H_j) \in \mathbb{R}$ (\Rightarrow (1))



Example for $\mathfrak{su}(2)_{\mathbb{C}}$

Let $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathcal{V})$ be a finite irreducible rep. for $\mathfrak{su}(2)_{\mathbb{C}}$, and
and let μ_{\max} be the maximal weight (since $n_0 = 1$, $\mathcal{L}_0^* = \mathbb{C}$ and all $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$)

Since $\alpha = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$, $\Rightarrow \|\alpha\|^2 = \frac{1}{2}$ and for $\alpha = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ one has

$$N = -2 \frac{-\mu/\sqrt{2}}{1/2} = 2\sqrt{2} \mu \in \mathbb{N} \Rightarrow \mu \in \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4} \mathbb{N}$$

The other possible weights are

$$\mu, \mu - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \mu - \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}, \dots, \mu - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(2\sqrt{2}\mu) = -\mu$$

Or equivalently if $j := \sqrt{2}\mu$ then the possible values of $\sqrt{2}(\text{weight})$ are

$$j, j-1, j-2, \dots, -j \text{ with } 2j \in \mathbb{N}$$

The missing argument:

⊠ Lemma: for any $d \in \mathbb{N}^*$ there exists a unique irreducible representation of $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ (modulo equivalence), and in such a representation, $j = \frac{d-1}{2}$.

(This is usually in quantum mechanics)

In the setting we consider \mathcal{L} with the canonical basis

and let $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathcal{V})$ be an irreducible map of \mathcal{L} .

Let μ_{\max} be the maximal weight (once $\mathbb{R}^{n_0} = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_{n_0})$ with $\mu_j = \mu(H_j)$ is endowed with the lexicographic order).

Clearly if α is a positive root then $\mathcal{L}_{\mu_{\max} + \alpha} = \{0\}$, otherwise contradiction.

Exercise If $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathcal{V})$ is an irreducible rep. of \mathcal{L} , and

and μ is a weight with $v \in \mathcal{L}_{\mu}$.

$$1) \text{span}\{v, E_{\alpha}v, E_{\alpha}E_{\beta}v, \dots \mid \alpha, \beta, \dots \in \mathcal{R}\} = \mathcal{V}. \quad (\alpha = \beta \text{ also considered})$$

$$2) \mu = \mu_{\max} \Rightarrow \text{span}\{v, E_{\alpha}v, E_{\alpha}E_{\beta}v, \dots \mid \alpha, \beta, \dots \in \mathcal{R}_-\} = \mathcal{V}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{span}\{v, E_{\alpha}v, E_{\alpha}E_{\beta}v, \dots \mid \alpha, \beta, \dots \in \mathcal{R}_+ \text{ simple}\} = \mathcal{V}$$

In addition one has

Prop: Let $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathcal{V})$ be an irreducible map of \mathcal{L} and μ_{\max} the maximal weight.

$$1) \forall \mu \text{ weight: } \mu = \mu_{\max} - \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{R}_+, \alpha \text{ simple}} n_{\alpha} \alpha \text{ with } n_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$2) \dim \mathcal{V} = \sum_{\mu \text{ weight}} \dim \mathcal{L}_{\mu}$$

$$3) \dim \mathcal{L}_{\mu_{\max}} = 1.$$

Remark: In order to get all irreducible representations of \mathcal{L} , we

we should know all possible μ_{\max} . Such formulae exist and

(IV.5)

for a given μ_{\max} one has

$$\dim \mathcal{V} = \frac{\prod_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_+} \alpha \cdot (\mu_{\max} + \delta)}{\prod_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_+} \alpha \cdot \delta} \quad \text{with } \delta = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_+} \alpha \quad (\text{Weyl Formula})$$

and the multiplicity of each weight can be computed by the so-called Kostant's formula.

IV.5 Representations of $\mathfrak{su}(3)_{\mathbb{C}}$ Recall that $\dim(\mathfrak{su}(3)) = 8$ and $n_0 = 2$, and the matrices $H_1, H_2, E_{\pm\alpha}, E_{\pm\beta}, E_{\pm\gamma}$ are exhibited in IV.3The roots are $\alpha = (\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}, \frac{1}{2})$, $\beta = (-\frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}, \frac{1}{2})$, $\gamma = (\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, 0)$

We set

$$I_{\pm} := \sqrt{3} H_1, \quad I_{\pm} := \sqrt{6} E_{\pm\gamma} \quad (\text{I-spin})$$

$$U_{\pm} := \frac{3}{2} H_2 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} H_1, \quad U_{\pm} := \sqrt{6} E_{\pm\beta} \quad (\text{U-spin})$$

$$V_{\pm} := -\frac{3}{2} H_2 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} H_1, \quad V_{\pm} := \sqrt{6} E_{\mp\alpha} \quad (\text{V-spin})$$

Then

 U_{\pm}, U_3 leave $\{k \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \mid k \in \mathbb{C}\}$ invariant V_{\pm}, V_3 " $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ " I_{\pm}, I_3 " $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ "These 3 triples generate 3 representations of $\mathfrak{su}(2)_{\mathbb{C}}$ which are not irreducible since there is an invariant subspaceConsider a $< \infty$ dim. irred. rep. $(\mathfrak{h}, \mathcal{V})$ of $\mathfrak{su}(3)_{\mathbb{C}}$, and set

$$\mathcal{X}_j := \mathfrak{h}(H_j), \quad \mathcal{E}_{\alpha} := \mathfrak{h}(E_{\alpha}); \quad \mathcal{I}_3 := \mathfrak{h}(I_3), \quad \mathcal{U}_3 := \mathfrak{h}(U_3), \quad \mathcal{V}_3 := \mathfrak{h}(V_3)$$

As for $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ before, $\mathcal{I}_3, \mathcal{U}_3$ and \mathcal{V}_3 are diagonalizable with evals in $\mathbb{Z}/2$ (like j before) \Rightarrow if μ is a weight, $\sqrt{3} \mu_1 = \sqrt{3} \mu(H_1) \in \mathbb{Z}/2$ and

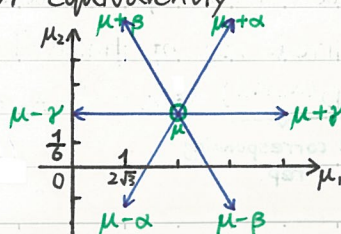
$$\frac{3}{2} \mu_2 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \mu_1 \in \mathbb{Z}/2 \Leftrightarrow 3\mu_2 \in \mathbb{Z} + \sqrt{3} \mu_1 \in \mathbb{Z}/2$$

Thus $\mu_1 \in \mathbb{Z}/2\sqrt{3}$ and $\mu_2 \in \mathbb{Z}/6$ Or equivalently

$$\text{and } \mu \pm \alpha = (\mu_1 \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \frac{1}{2}, \mu_2 \pm \frac{1}{2})$$

$$\mu \pm \beta = (\mu_1 \mp \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \frac{1}{2}, \mu_2 \pm \frac{1}{2})$$

$$\mu \pm \gamma = (\mu_1 \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} 1, \mu_2)$$



Weight diagram (for $su(3)$)

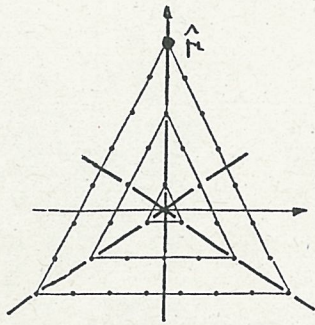


Figure 5.11(a)

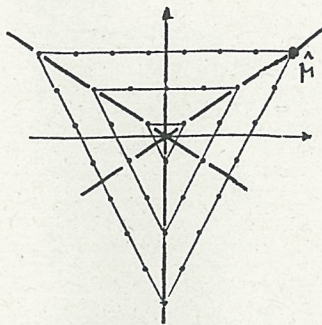


Figure 5.11(b)

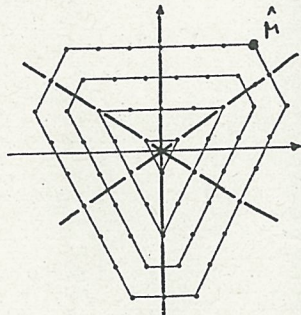


Figure 5.11(c)

$$\hat{\lambda} = \mu_{\max}$$

If we represent the maximal weights on a so-called weight diagram, because of symmetry there are only 3 different types of position (see picture). For simplicity we introduce the notation $(K_1, K_2) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ (?) with

$$\text{with } K_1 = 2\sqrt{3} \mu_{\max}(H_1), \quad K_2 = 3\mu_{\max}(H_2) - \sqrt{3} \mu_{\max}(H_1)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \mu_{\max} = \left(\frac{K_1}{2\sqrt{3}}, \frac{K_1 + 2K_2}{6} \right)$$

From any $(K_1, K_2) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ we can generate a weight diagram, and thus a irred. rep. of $su(3)_{\mathbb{C}}$

It means all irred. rep. of finite dim. are indexed by the 2 integers (K_1, K_2) and $\dim(D^{(K_1, K_2)}) =: n = \frac{1}{2}(K_1 + 1)(K_2 + 1)(K_1 + K_2 + 2)$

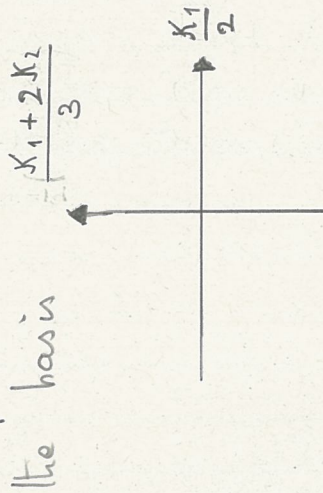
the corresponding
rep.

(from Weyl formula)

$D(k_1, k_2)$ with

$$D_{\max} = \left(\frac{k_1}{2\sqrt{3}}, \frac{k_1 + 2k_2}{6} \right)$$

Representation in



• = ρ_{\max}

⊙ = weight of multiplicity 2.

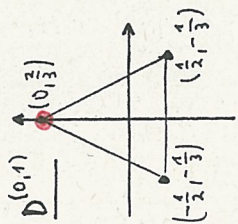


Figure 5.13(a)

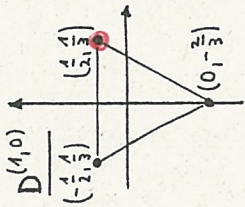


Figure 5.13(b)

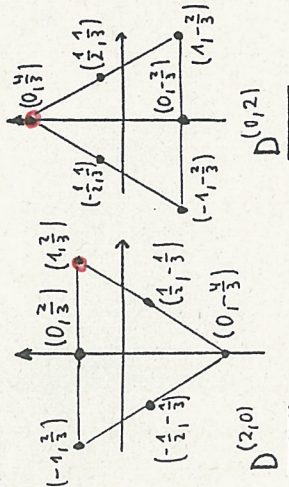


Figure 5.13(c)

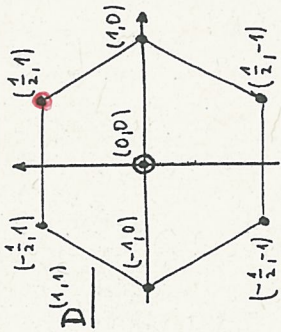


Figure 5.13(d)

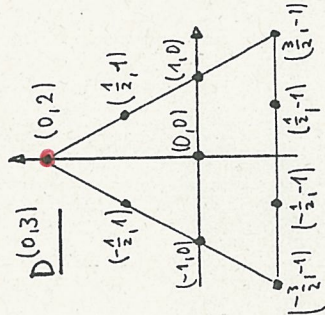


Figure 5.13(e)

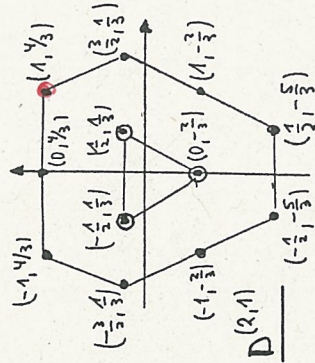


Figure 5.13(f)

Figure 5.13(g)

Lemma for $su(2)_\mathbb{C}$ last time

$\forall d \in \mathbb{N}^* \exists!$ irreducible unitary rep. of $su(2)$ in the space of dim. d

In rep. (h, \mathcal{V}) $h(H)$ has eigenvalues $j, j-1, \dots, -j$ for $j = \frac{d-1}{2}$ \triangleleft

Since we have, rep. of $su(3)$ of dim. $1, 3, \bar{3}, 6, \bar{6}, 8, 10, \bar{10}$

Recall that if $(h_1, \mathcal{V}_1), (h_2, \mathcal{V}_2)$ are irred. rep. of G , then

then $(h_1 \otimes h_2, \mathcal{V}_1 \otimes \mathcal{V}_2)$ is usually not an irred. rep. \Rightarrow can be decomposed

E.g. $3 \otimes 3 = 6 \oplus \bar{3}; 3 \otimes \bar{3} = 8 \oplus 1; 6 \otimes 3 = 10 \oplus 8;$

$$3 \otimes 3 \otimes 3 = (6 \oplus \bar{3}) \otimes 3 = (6 \otimes 3) \oplus (\bar{3} \otimes 3) = 10 \oplus 2 \cdot 8 \oplus 1$$

(unique modulo commutation and unitary equivalence)

Remark: Each semi-simple complex Lie algebra with a Cartan subalgebra of dim n_0 has n_0 indep. Casimir operators.

They are denoted by $C_2, C_3, \dots, C_{n_0+1}$ and can be constructed with elem. of \mathcal{L} .

They don't $\in \mathcal{L}$ but they commute with each element of \mathcal{L} , it means

$$[C_j, Y] = 0 \quad \forall Y \in \mathcal{L} \quad (\text{one has to give a meaning to } [C_j, Y])$$

In addition, in any finite rep. of \mathcal{L} , one has

$$h(C_j) = c_j \mathbb{1}_V \quad \text{with } c_j \in \mathbb{C}$$

E.g. for $su(2)$, $C_2 = J^2 = J_1^2 + J_2^2 + J_3^2$ and $c_2 = j(j+1)$

For $su(3)$, one has 2 Casimir operators

$$C_2 := H_1^2 + H_2^2 + E_\alpha E_{-\alpha} + E_{-\alpha} E_\alpha + E_\beta E_{-\beta} + E_{-\beta} E_\beta + E_\gamma E_{-\gamma} + E_{-\gamma} E_\gamma$$

and in $D^{(K_1, K_2)}$ one has

$$c_2 = \frac{1}{4} (K_1^2 + K_1 K_2 + K_2^2) + \frac{1}{3} (K_1 + K_2)$$

C_3 is a polynomial of degree 3 in the generators of the algebra, and in $D^{(K_1, K_2)}$ one has (too complicated)

$$c_3 = \frac{1}{4} (K_1 - K_2)(2K_1 + K_2 + 3)(K_1 + 2K_2 + 3)$$

IV.6 Application of $SU(3)$ to physics

Since the elements of a Cartan subalgebra can be diagonalized simultaneously, they are often used to index families of particles.

In particular $su(3)$ is often used. One has

$$I_3 := \sqrt{3} H_1 \text{ (isospin) and } Y := 2H_2 \text{ (hypercharge)}$$

People have observed that particles with similar properties gather

by families of 1, 8, or 10 members, (see figures 5.19)

Such families can be generated by

$$3 \otimes \bar{3} = 8 \oplus 1 \quad \text{or} \quad 3 \otimes 3 \otimes 3 = 10 \oplus 2 \cdot 8 \oplus 1$$

idea → Basic building block of the theory should be 3 quarks and 3 antiquarks
(see figure 5.20)

We give the names u, d, s or $\bar{u}, \bar{d}, \bar{s}$ for weights of 3 and $\bar{3}$

With this idea, Figure 5.19(a) corresponds to the decomposition $8 \oplus 1$ of $3 \otimes \bar{3}$

or more precisely it is called the family of MESONS of spin 0
made of 1 quark and 1 $\overline{\text{quark}}$. (see figure 5.21)

Figure 5.19(b): BARYON DECUPLET made of 3 quarks u, d, s .

" (c): BARYON OCTET

Recall that a basis of $V_1 \otimes V_2$ is given by $x \otimes y$

for x a basis of V_1 and y a basis of V_2 .

In picture 5.21, one uses the notation $d\bar{s}$ for $d \otimes \bar{s}$, etc.

Then for $3 \otimes \bar{3}$ the symmetric element $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(u\bar{u} + d\bar{d} + s\bar{s})$

corresponds to the representation 1 in $8 \oplus 1$.

Nowadays, models are much more complicated than this.

Also used $SU(5)$, ..., $SO(10)$

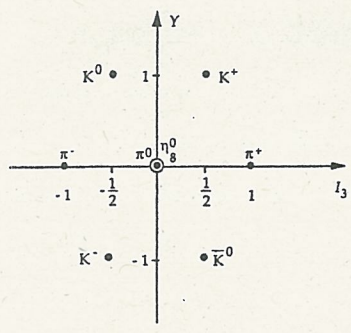


Figure 5.19(a)

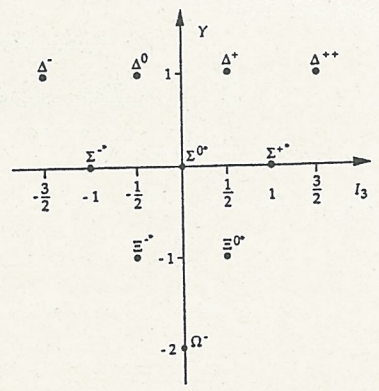


Figure 5.19(b)

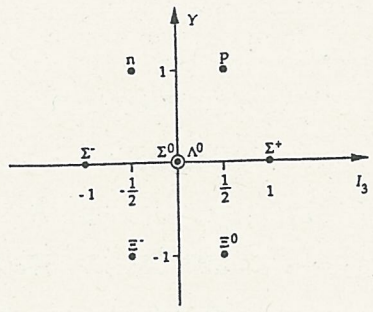


Figure 5.19(c)

Figure 5.20

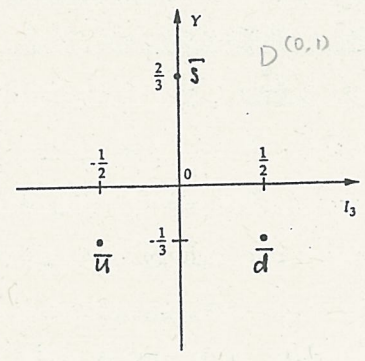
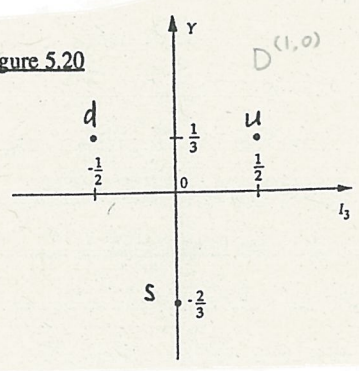
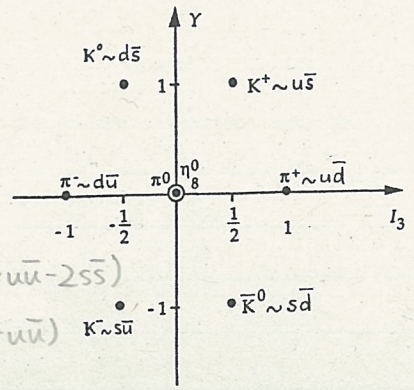


Figure 5.21



$\eta_8^0 \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(d\bar{d} - u\bar{u} - 2s\bar{s})$
 $\pi_0 \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(d\bar{d} - u\bar{u})$

IV.7 Classification thm

Recall that semi-simple Lie algebras consist of sum of simple Lie algebras
 \Rightarrow The building blocks are simple complex Lie algebras

$\hookrightarrow \{0\}$ is the only proper ideal

Recall also that roots have very special properties. In the standard basis

$-2 \frac{\alpha \cdot \beta}{\|\alpha\|^2} \in \mathbb{Z}, -2 \frac{\alpha \cdot \beta}{\|\beta\|^2} \in \mathbb{Z}$ for any roots (\Rightarrow weights) α, β

$\Leftrightarrow 2\alpha \cdot \beta = N_1 \|\alpha\|^2$ and $2\alpha \cdot \beta = N_2 \|\beta\|^2 \exists N_1, N_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$

$\Rightarrow \frac{\|\alpha\|}{\|\beta\|} = \sqrt{\frac{N_2}{N_1}}$ and $\frac{|\alpha \cdot \beta|^2}{\|\alpha\|^2 \|\beta\|^2} = \frac{N_1 N_2}{4}; N_1 = 0 \text{ iff } N_2 = 0$

Possible (N_1, N_2) : $\hookrightarrow =: |\cos(\phi_{\alpha\beta})|^2 \in [0, 1] \Rightarrow N_1, N_2 \in [0, 4]$

$N_2 \backslash N_1$	0	1	2	3	4	(N_1, N_2)	$(2, 2)$	$(1, 3)$	$(1, 2)$	$(1, 4)$	$(0, 0)$	$(1, 1)$
0		x	x	x	x	$\phi_{\alpha, \beta}$	0°	30°	45°	0°	$\rightarrow 90^\circ$	$\rightarrow 60^\circ$
1	x						180°	$\rightarrow 150^\circ$	$\rightarrow 135^\circ$	180°		$\rightarrow 120^\circ$
2	x			x	x							
3	x		x	x	x							
4	x		x	x	x							

$\|\alpha\| = \|\beta\| \Rightarrow \alpha = \beta$
 we don't want to consider (trivial)

$\|\alpha\| = 2\|\beta\| \Rightarrow \alpha = 2\beta$
 impossible for simple roots

One more information: $\alpha \cdot \beta \leq 0$ Prop. 8.11 in [Hall]

\Rightarrow only possible angles are $90^\circ, 120^\circ, 135^\circ, 150^\circ$

Then if we consider complex simple Lie algebras \mathfrak{L} and denote by α any simple root of \mathfrak{L}

- $\circ - \circ$ if $\phi_{\alpha\beta} = 90^\circ$
- $\circ = \circ$ if $\phi_{\alpha\beta} = 120^\circ$
- $\circ = \circ$ if $\phi_{\alpha\beta} = 135^\circ$ cannot exist (see book)
- $\circ = \circ$ if $\phi_{\alpha\beta} = 150^\circ$

By using this notation and that simple roots are linear indep, one can get the list of all simple complex Lie algebras \rightarrow

		dim \mathfrak{g}	nombre de racines
$A_n (n \geq 1)$		$n(n+2)$	$n(n+1)$
$B_n (n \geq 2)$		$n(2n+1)$	$2n^2$
$C_n (n \geq 3)$		$n(2n+1)$	$2n^2$
$D_n (n \geq 4)$		$n(2n-1)$	$2n(n-1)$
E_6		78	72
E_7		133	126
E_8		248	240
F_4		52	48
G_2		14	12

These algebras have been extensively studied and have applications in physics and in mathematics (see Wikipedia on E_8)

Conclusion

We have seen many concepts which can be used in physics (QM) but also in mathematics. Please remember all these, and come back to the literature as often as possible.