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Example: Elementary particle physics.

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The Standard Model (SM) of elementary particle physics and the Minimal Supersymmetric Standard Model (MSSM).

Lepton.  $G_{\rm SM} = U_Y(1) \times SU_w(2) \times SU_c(3)$  – hypercharge, weak and colour

 $SU(2) \times SU(3)$  singlets  $(e_R)_Y$  — non-zero hypercharge,  $(u_R)_Y$ ,  $(d_R)_Y$ , etc for the families.

SU(2) doublet: 
$$\begin{pmatrix} e \\ \nu \end{pmatrix}_{L,Y}$$
. L is left-handed, R is right-handed. SU(3) singlet  
SU(2) doublets:  $\begin{pmatrix} u \\ d \end{pmatrix}_{L,Y}$ , SU(3) triplets.

In general we have fields with many indices.

Example: The up quark:

$$u_{\alpha b} \rightarrow \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}\alpha Y}(u_2)_{\alpha}{}^{\beta}(u_3)_{a}{}^{b}u_{\beta b}$$

 $u_2 \in SU(2), u_3 \in SU(3)$ . Plus a hidden index for the Lorentz representation.

*Note:* In general it is very important to be able to "multiply" representations: this we will do later. Recall, in SU(2):  $\frac{1}{2} \otimes \frac{1}{2} = 1 \oplus 0$ .

*Note:* Matrices  $\in G$  are in some representation of the group, but the fields correspond to the vector space these matrices act on, called *modules*. In physics we refer to both representations and modules as representations.

We will now define general classes of groups by generalising SU(2) and SO(3) matrices: these are called *matrix groups*. They provide almost all finite dimensional groups; the other ones (see later) are called *exceptional groups*. (Read FS section 9.7.)

We start by considering completely general  $n \times n$  matrices.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_1^1 & a_1^2 & \cdots & a_1^n \\ a_2^1 & & & \\ \vdots & & & \\ a_n^1 & \cdots & & a_n^n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{with} \, a_i^{\ j} \in \mathbb{R}$$

Using matrix multiplication  $A \cdot B = C$  reads

$$(A \cdot B)_i{}^j = \sum_k a_i{}^k b_k{}^j = c_i{}^j$$

we see that we get a group from all such matrices provided det  $A \neq 0$ . So  $A \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  if det  $A \neq 0$ .

Recall

$$\det A = \sum_{\substack{i_1,\dots,i_n\\j_1,\dots,j_n}} \frac{1}{n!} \varepsilon^{i_1\dots i_n} a_{i_1}^{j_1} \cdots a_{i_n}^{j_n} \varepsilon_{j_1\dots j_n}$$

 $\varepsilon^{i_1 \cdots i_n}$  (and  $\varepsilon_{i_1 \cdots i_n}$ ) are totally antisymmetric with  $\varepsilon^{12 \cdots n} = +1$ . Normally we simplify this a bit, doing the sum over j:

$$\det A = \sum_{i_1 \cdots i_n} \varepsilon^{i_1 \cdots i_n} a_{i_1}^{-1} a_{i_2}^{-2} \cdots a_{i_n}^{-n}$$

Exercise: Write out det A for n = 5.

Then det  $A \neq 0 \Rightarrow A^{-1}$  exists, since

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det A} \left( \begin{array}{cc} \dots & \dots \\ \vdots & \ddots \end{array} \right)$$

Now we can use instead other kinds of "numbers".ng  $% i=1,\ldots,i=1,\ldots,i$  For instance let  $z_{i}{}^{j}\in\mathbb{C}.$ 

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} z_1^1 & \cdots & z_1^n \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ z_n^1 & \cdots & z_n^n \end{array}\right)$$

In fact we can also use (FS p. 48),  $\mathbb{H}$  (quaternions), or some finite field (in the mathematical sense) like  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ .

If has three units i, j, k with  $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1, ij = k$ . In effect  $(i, j, k) = i\sigma^i$  (Pauli matrices).

$$q \in \mathbb{H}$$
  $q = a + bi + cj + dk$ ,  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$ 

We get groups like  $\operatorname{GL}(n, \mathbb{H})$ , and  $\operatorname{GL}(n, \mathbb{Z}_p)$ .  $\mathbb{Z}_p = \{0, 1, 2, ..., p-1\}, \mathbb{Z} \mod p$ .

Read FS page 48, about rings and fields.

 $\mathbbm{Z}$  s not a field, and thus not good in  $\mathrm{GL}(n,\mathbbm{Z}).$ 

We get special linear groups by setting det A = 1.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 SL $(n, \mathbb{R}),$  SL $(n, \mathbb{C}),$  SL $(n, \mathbb{H})$ 

(Can't use octonions, since groups are defined to be associative.)

Division algebras (FS page 71–73):  $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H}, \mathbb{O}$ . In  $\mathbb{O}$  we have seven complex units,  $e_1, \ldots, e_7$ .

Note: There are two other sub-Lie groups that can easily be identified. sol(n) (solvable). A solvable matrix is a special matrix ton the form

$$S = \left(\begin{array}{cccc} s_1^{1} & s_1^{2} & \cdots & s_n^{n} \\ 0 & s_2^{2} & \neq 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & s_n^{n} \end{array}\right)$$

nil(n): nilpotent:

$$n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ 0 & 1 & \neq 0 & \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \ddots & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Physics:

$$n_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a & b \\ 0 & 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad n_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \beta \\ 0 & 1 & \gamma \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow n_3 = n_1 n_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \alpha + a & \beta + b + a\gamma \\ 0 & 1 & \gamma + c \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

This example is called the Heisenberg group and is related to the harmonic oscillator operators  $a, a^{\dagger}, \hbar$  and to  $p, q, \hbar$ .

Another set of subgroups of  $\operatorname{GL}(n, \mathbb{F})$  for some field  $\mathbb{F}$   $(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H}, ...)$ 

Orthogonal groups  $O(n, \mathbb{F})$ .

$$O(n, \mathbb{R})$$
:  $R \in GL(n, \mathbb{R})$  such that  $G = \mathbf{1}$  is invariant, i.e.  $R^T G R = G \Rightarrow R^T R = \mathbf{1}$ 

$$O(p,q;\mathbb{R}): \quad G = \left( \begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{1}_p & 0 \\ 0 & -\mathbf{1}_q \end{array} \right) \equiv \mathbf{1}_{(p,q)}, \quad R^T G \, R = G$$

 $\mathrm{U}(n)\subset \mathrm{GL}(n,\mathbb{C}) \text{ such that } U^{\dagger}G\,U=G, G=\mathbf{1}.\ \mathrm{U}(p,q) \text{ has } G=\mathbf{1}_{(p,q)}.$ 

Symplectic:  $\operatorname{Sp}(2n, \mathbb{R}), \operatorname{Sp}(2n, \mathbb{C})$ 

$$M \in \operatorname{Sp}(2n, \mathbb{R})$$
 if  $M^T J M = J$  where  $J = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{1}_{n \times n} \\ -\mathbf{1}_{n \times n} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ 

*Note:*  $\operatorname{Sp}(2n, \mathbb{R})$  can be related to  $\operatorname{GL}(n, \mathbb{H})$ .

 $\mathit{Next:}$  we note a theorem.

**Theorem:**  $H_1 \subset G, H_2 \subset G$  then also  $H_1 \cap H_2$  is a subgroup of G.

Then we define groups like

$$SO(p,q) = O(p,q) \cap SL(p+q,\mathbb{R})$$

SO(p,q) has both conditions:  $A^T \mathbf{1}_{(p,q)} A = \mathbf{1}_{(p,q)}$  and det A = 1.

$$SU(p,q) = U(p,q) \cap SL(p+q,\mathbb{C})$$

Example: SU(1, 1).  $U \in SL(2, \mathbb{C})$  if

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{with } a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}, \quad a \, d - b \, c = 1$$

and

$$U^{\dagger} \mathbf{1}_{(1,1)} U = \mathbf{1}_{(1,1)}$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} a^{*} & c^{*} \\ b^{*} & d^{*} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow \quad \begin{pmatrix} |a|^{2} - |c|^{2} & a^{*}b - c^{*}d \\ \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow \quad U = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ b^{*} & a^{*} \end{pmatrix}$$

with  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1 \sim$  hyperbolic space. Exercise: Show this. (Recall SU(2):  $U = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ -b^* & a^* \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $|a|^2 + |b|^2 \sim S^3$ . *Comments:* The dimension of these groups can be determined:  $\dim = \text{number of real parameters}$ .

 $\begin{array}{lll} \operatorname{GL}(n,\mathbb{R}) & \operatorname{number}=n^2 \\ \operatorname{SL}(n,\mathbb{R}) & \operatorname{number}=n^2-1 \\ \operatorname{GL}(n,\mathbb{C}) & \operatorname{number}=2n^2 \\ \operatorname{SL}(n,\mathbb{C}) & \operatorname{number}=2n^2-2 \\ \operatorname{SO}(n) & \operatorname{number}=n^2-\frac{n(n+1)}{2}=\frac{n(n-1)}{2} \\ \operatorname{SU}(n) & \operatorname{number}=2n^2\underbrace{-n^2}_{\text{from}}\underbrace{-1}_{\text{det}}=n^2-1 \\ & U^{\dagger}U^{=1} \\ \end{array}$   $\begin{array}{lll} \operatorname{SU}(2) & \operatorname{number}=3 \; (\text{quantum mechanics}) \\ \operatorname{SU}(3) & \operatorname{number}=8 \; (\text{gluons in the Standard Model}) \\ \operatorname{SL}(2,\mathbb{C}) & \operatorname{number}=6 \; (\text{is actually related to SO}(1,3)) \end{array}$ 

Example:  $GL(n, \mathbb{C})$  has an invariant subgroup, namely  $SL(n, \mathbb{C})$ . Exercise: show this.

*Note:* The concepts from finite group theory appear also in Lie group theory:

DEFINITION: subgroup  $H \subset G$ .

DEFINITION: proper subgroup  $H \neq \{e\}, H \neq G$ .

DEFINITION: Invariant subgroup.  $h \in H, g \in G \Rightarrow ghg^{-1} \in H$ , for all h, g.

DEFINITION: G is simple if it has no proper invariant subgroups.

DEFINITION: G is semi-simple if it has no *abelian* proper invariant subgroup.

We will later classify all Lie groups by classifying their Lie algebras. (next time)

Example: SU(n), SO(n),  $Sp(n, \mathbb{R})$ ,  $SL(n, \mathbb{R})$  are all simple, except SO(4).

• Topological properties.

DEFINITION: A Lie group G is connected if all elements  $g \in G$  are continuously related. Example: SO(3) is connected, but O(3) is not connected, because det = + 1 and det = -1 are not related — no continuous way to transform the one into the other.

Example: U(2) and SU(2) ~  $S^3$  are both connected.

DEFINITION: A Lie group is *compact* if all elements in the matrix take values in finite ranges.

Example: U(1):  $U^{\dagger}U = 1 \Rightarrow |a_i^j| \leq 1$ . Exercise: Show this.

Example: SO(1,3) is not compact.

$$\Lambda_{\mu}{}^{\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & \beta\gamma & 0 & 0\\ \beta\gamma & \gamma & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \det \Lambda = \gamma^{2} (1 - \beta^{2}) = 1$$

and here

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}, \quad \beta = \frac{v}{c}, \quad -c \leqslant v \leqslant c$$

Example: SU(1, 1)

$$U = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ b^* & a^* \end{array}\right)$$

 $|a|^2 - |b|^2 = 1$  not compact.

Example:  $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$ 

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a & b \\ c & d \end{array}\right), \quad ad - bc = 1$$

not compact.

• Cosets

If  $H \subset G$ , then G/H is a "coset space".

Example: SO(8)/SO(7)  $\approx S^7$  (7-dimensional sphere). SO(n)/SO(n - 1)  $\approx S^n$ . These  $S^n$  are not groups, in general.

If H is an invariant (normal) subgroup then G/H = group. Example:

$$SO(4)/SO(3) \approx S^3 \approx SU(2)$$

Comments:  $SO(8)/SO(7) \sim S^7$  is not a group, but almost. (This has to do with octonions.  $S^7$  is a very curios object, very close to being a group.)

$$\begin{split} o &= a_0 + a_1 e_1 + \dots + a_7 e_7; \quad |o|^2 = 1 \Leftrightarrow S^7 \\ &\mathbb{C}; \quad |z|^2 = 1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad S^1 \sim \mathrm{U}(1) \\ &\mathbb{H}; \quad \sum_{i=0}^3 |e_i|^2 = 1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad S^3 \sim \mathrm{SU}(2) \end{split}$$

These coset spaces are crucial in Kaluza–Klein theories where one compactifies sometimes on coset spaces.

EXAMPLE: In supergravity in 11 dimensions: One can compactify

$$M_{11} = \underbrace{M_4}_{\substack{\text{space-}\\ \text{time}}} \times S^7$$

 $\Rightarrow$  a spacetime theory with gravity and an SO(8) gauge theory.

## Centre

Recall the relation between  $SU(2) \sim S^3$  and  $SO(3) \sim \mathbb{R}P^3$ . This is related to the centre  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  of SU(2). In general SU(N) has a number of elements  $g_n \in SU(N)$  that commute with all  $g \in SU(N)$ .

$$g_n = e^{2\pi i \frac{n}{N}} \mathbf{1}, \quad n = 0, 1, ..., N - 1$$

This set of elements is called the centre  $\mathbb{Z}_N = \{g_n\}$  of the Lie group SU(N).

*Note:*  $SU(N)/\mathbb{Z}_n$  is still a group since  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  is an invariant subgroup.

Example:  $SU(2)/\mathbb{Z}_2 \approx SO(3)$ .

## Figure 1.

Dividing out  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  turns the simply connected SU(N) into a multiply connected subgroup. The simply connected group is called the *universal covering group* of the others. *Note:* Groups with different names can (in low dimensions) be the same! Example:  $SL(2, \mathbb{R})$  and  $Sp(2, \mathbb{R})$ :

$$A \in \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R}): \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}, \quad ad - bc = 1$$
$$A \in \mathrm{Sp}(2, \mathbb{R}): \quad A^T J A^T = J, \quad J = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & ad - bc \\ bc - ad & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow ad - bc = 1$$

These were equivalent groups.

Example: Centre constructions

SO(N) has non-trivial cycles  $(\pi_1(SO(N)) = \mathbb{Z}_2)$ . Introduce Spin(N) as

$$\operatorname{Spin}(N)/\mathbb{Z}_2 = \operatorname{SO}(N)$$

Example: N = 3: Spin(3)=SU(2).

- N = 4:  $\operatorname{Spin}(4) = \operatorname{SU}(2) \times \operatorname{SU}(2)$ .
- N = 5:  $\operatorname{Spin}(5) = \operatorname{Sp}(4, \mathbb{R})$
- N = 6: Spin(6) = SU(4).

All Spin(N) for N > 6 are not related to other groups.