

Now we are going to shift gear a bit, and go into what is called *representation theory*.

Chapter 5: Representation theory (You can read Fuchs and Schweigert chapters 2 and 3, for the first part of this chapter here.)

Recall the angular momentum algebra in Quantum Mechanics:

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{q} \times \mathbf{p}$$

This is in three dimensions, so

$$L^i = \varepsilon^{ijk} q^j p^k \quad \text{i.e.} \quad L^1 = q^2 p^3 - q^3 p^2$$

In Quantum Mechanics with operators $[\hat{p}^i, \hat{q}^j] = i\delta^{ij}$, where we have put $\hbar = 1$.

$$\Rightarrow [\hat{L}^i, \hat{L}^j] = i\varepsilon^{ijk} \hat{L}^k$$

SO(3) algebra (or SU(2)). The same algebra is obtained for the classical version using the Poisson bracket $[\cdot, \cdot]_{\text{PB}}$ instead of the quantum mechanical commutator.

Note: The Witt algebra is the classical version of the Virasoro algebra. Here, when computing the commutator $[\hat{L}_m, \hat{L}_n]$ we get an answer that needs normal ordering. That leads to a “second” commutator, which leads to the central term or anomaly (or $c/12\dots$).

Recall also that we have seen at least two other realizations of the angular momentum algebra.

$$[T^a, T^b] = i\varepsilon^{abc} T^c$$

We have seen SO(3) where the $(T^a)^b_c = -i\varepsilon^{abc}$ with $a, b, c = 1, 2, 3 = x, y, z$. This is the vector representation. We have also seen SU(2), where $(T^a)^b_c = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma^a)^{\beta\gamma}$ with $\beta, \gamma = 1, 2$. This is the spinor representation. Having found these representations can we derive or construct all possible representations of this algebra?

(Sakurai $\rightarrow Y_m^{(l)}(\theta, \varphi)$, $l = 1, m = -1, 0, +1$).

To find all representations (finite dimensional) we form

$$L_{\pm} = L_1 \pm iL_2, \quad L_0 = 2L_3$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} [L_0, L_{\pm}] = \pm 2L_{\pm} \\ [L_+, L_-] = L_0 \end{cases}$$

$\rightarrow \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$.

Comment: SO(3), SU(2) and $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$ are isomorphic as complex Lie algebras (i.e. as complex vector spaces), but not so if real vector spaces. So as complex vector space we denote this algebra $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \equiv A_1$ in Cartan’s classification.

Let us now view L_0, L_{\pm} as linear operators, i.e. matrices, acting on some d -dimensional vector space (module). Then L_0 will have at least one non-zero eigenvalue.

$$L_0 v_{\lambda} = \lambda v_{\lambda}$$

where λ is the eigenvalue, or *weight*, and v_{λ} is the eigenvector, or state.

EXAMPLE: Spin $\frac{1}{2}$. ($j = \frac{1}{2}$).

$$J^a = \frac{1}{2} \sigma^a, \quad \sigma^1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So we define new operators J^0 , J_{\pm} as follows:

$$J^0 \equiv \sigma^3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow J^0 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow J^0 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = (-1) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Step operators:

$$\begin{cases} J_+ = J_1 + i J_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ J_- = J_1 - i J_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} J_+ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0 \\ J_+ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{cases}$$

(Stepping up operator.)

We want to generalise this to any possible dimension d ($d = 2$ above).

But then $L_{\pm} v_{\lambda}$ is also an eigenvector of L_0 .

$$L_0(L_{\pm} v_{\lambda}) = (\lambda \pm 2)(L_{\pm} v_{\lambda})$$

Check: $L_0(L_+ v_{\lambda}) = L_+ L_0 v_{\lambda} + [L_0, L_+] v_{\lambda} = L_+ \lambda v_{\lambda} + 2L_+ v_{\lambda} = (\lambda + 2)L_+ v_{\lambda}$.

This stepping procedure goes on until we have produced all the d vectors in the d -dimensional vector space (because eigenvectors with different eigenvalues are linearly independent; compare Quantum Mechanics).

Then it must stop at some eigenvalue Λ (λ -max), i.e. $L_+ v_{\Lambda} = 0$.

Figure 1.

So we suppose it takes N steps to reach the lowest λ -value:

$$(L_-)^N v_{\Lambda} = v_{\Lambda - 2N}$$

That this coefficient is one is a definition used for the now. If we do $L_- v_{\Lambda - 2N} = 0$. $v_{\Lambda - 2N}$ is the lowest weight state, while v_{Λ} is the highest weight state.

So defining the vector obtained using L_- with coefficient *one*, $L_- v_{\lambda} = v_{\lambda - 2}$, then we can derive the coefficient obtained using L_+ :

$$L_+ v_{\Lambda - 2n} = L_+ L_- v_{\Lambda - 2n + 2} = \underbrace{[L_+, L_-]}_{=L_0} v_{\Lambda - 2n + 2} + L_- L_+ v_{\Lambda - 2n + 2} = (L_0 + L_- L_+) v_{\Lambda - 2n + 2}$$

We define the coefficient r_n by $L_+ v_{\Lambda - 2n} = r_n v_{\Lambda - 2n + 2}$.

$$L_+ v_{\Lambda - 2n} = \dots = (L_0 + L_- L_+) v_{\Lambda - 2n + 2} = (\Lambda - 2n + 2 + r_{n-1}) v_{\Lambda - 2n + 2}$$

$$\Rightarrow r_n = r_{n-1} + \Lambda - 2n + 2$$

defined $r_n, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. To solve this we need a starting point. We use that $L_+ v_\Lambda = 0 \Rightarrow r_0 = 0$.
 $n = 1: r_1 = r_0 + \Lambda = \Lambda$.

$$r_n = n(\Lambda - n + 1)$$

Now we have two numbers describing the size of this representation, N and Λ . These can be related as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \underbrace{L_+ L_-}_{=0} v_{\Lambda-2N} = (L_0 + L_- L_+) v_{\Lambda-2N} = (r_N + \Lambda - 2N) v_{\Lambda-2N} \\ &\Rightarrow r_N + \Lambda - 2N = 0 \\ \Lambda &= 2N - r_N = 2N - N(\Lambda - N + 1) \\ &\Rightarrow N^2 + (1 - \Lambda)N - \Lambda = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow N = -\frac{(1 - \Lambda)}{2} \pm \frac{1 + \Lambda}{2} = \Lambda \text{ (or } -1) \\ &N = \Lambda. \end{aligned}$$

They are the same thing, and we will not use N any more. The dimension of the representation is $d = N + 1 = \Lambda + 1$.

Highest weight state v_Λ , lowest weight state $v_{\Lambda-2N} = v_{-\Lambda}$.

Comment: In quantum mechanics we use the spin j as the parameter describing the size: $\lambda = 2j$, since $d = 2j + 1$, $j = 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, \dots$. We have states $|j, m\rangle$ with j acting as Λ and m as λ .

m is measured by L_0 , and j by the Casimir operator $\mathbf{L}^2 = (L^1)^2 + (L^2)^2 + (L^3)^2$ which commutes with L_0 but does *not* belong to the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{so}(3)$ or $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$ — it is not linear in L^i .

Recall (Quantum Mechanics) One is always interested in finding the maximal set of commuting operators because they can be diagonalised at the same time.

EXAMPLE: $d = 3$ representation of $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$: v_2, v_0, v_{-2}

$$\Rightarrow H = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

(Now we use H instead of L_0). This is the notation for all commuting operators called *Cartan algebra*. Also

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

(Instead of L_-) which is a stepping down, or lowering operator. Also called negative. $[H, F] = -2F$. Note

$$F^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and the positive or raising operators

$$E = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

(Instead of L_+)

Here

$$E \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = E v_{-2} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

In quantum mechanics it is standard to divide the r_n coefficients between E 's and F 's.

$$E = \sqrt{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad F = \sqrt{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Compare $\mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{R})$. Here we have $H^1, H^2, E^1, E^2, F^1, F^2$. $[E^1, E^2] = E^\theta \in \mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{R})$.

$$E^1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad E^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow E^\theta = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{R})$$

EXERCISE: Use $[a^\dagger, a] = 1$ to construct the $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$ algebra.

The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{R})$

Physics: if we have two particles, like the proton and the neutron, that are rather similar, we should construct a quantum field theory that is almost symmetric under rotations in the two-dimensional complex space $\begin{pmatrix} \psi_n \\ \psi_p \end{pmatrix}$. \Rightarrow SU(2)-symmetry, which is roughly $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$.

But suppose that there are three similar objects, like quarks. Then we need rotations in

$$\begin{pmatrix} \psi_b \\ \psi_r \\ \psi_g \end{pmatrix}$$

\Rightarrow SU(3) or $\sim \mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{R})$.

Try to combine two $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$ algebras to get $\mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{R})$.

- First $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$:

$$\begin{cases} [H^1, E_\pm^1] = \pm 2E_\pm^1 \\ [E_+^1, E_-^1] = H^1 \end{cases}, \quad E_+^1 \equiv E^1, E_-^1 \equiv F^1$$

To get a second independent quantum number we need a second Cartan generator H^2

$$[H^1, H^2] = 0$$

i.e. reank = 2. (dimension of the space of commuting operators).

Now, if H^2 commutes with also E_\pm^1 and no E_\pm^2 exists, then nothing happens, in the sense that the eigenvalue of H^2 is the same for all states.

So to get new, larger representations and algebras we need the full second $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$.

$$\begin{cases} [H^2, E_\pm^2] = \pm 2E_\pm^2 \\ [E_+^2, E_-^2] = H^2 \end{cases}$$

One possible case is that $[\mathfrak{sl}_1(2, \mathbb{R}), \mathfrak{sl}_2(2, \mathbb{R})] = 0$. Then we get just the sum of two algebras not talking to each other. $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}_1 \oplus \mathfrak{g}_2$. We have to do something non-trivial, with the E 's.

To get something really new we need some non-trivial commutators: mixing $\mathfrak{sl}_1(2, \mathbb{R})$ and $\mathfrak{sl}_2(2, \mathbb{R})$:

$$[H^i, E_{\pm}^j] = \pm A^{ji} E_{\pm}^j \quad (\text{no sum over } j)$$

with some $A^{ji} \neq 0$ for $i \neq j$. So A^{21} and/or $A^{12} \neq 0$. Note: A^{ji} need not be symmetric. Also note $A^{11} = A^{22} = 2$ — that's the two $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$'s.

Consider the other possible mixings of the two $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R})$'s:

$$\begin{cases} [E_{\pm}^1, E_{\pm}^2] = E_{\pm}^{\theta} \\ [E_{\pm}^1, E_{\mp}^2] \text{ "and here I will not write anything"} \end{cases}$$

We can now compute the eigenvalues of these two new operators:

1)

$$\begin{aligned} [H^i, [E_{\pm}^1, E_{\pm}^2]] &= [\text{Jacobi}] = -[E_{\pm}^1, [E_{\pm}^2, H^i]] - [E_{\pm}^2, [H^i, E_{\pm}^1]] = \\ &= -[E_{\pm}^1, -A^{2i} E_{\pm}^2] - [E_{\pm}^2, \pm A^{1i} E_{\pm}^1] = \pm (A^{2i} + A^{1i}) \underbrace{[E_{\pm}^1, E_{\pm}^2]}_{\equiv E_{\pm}^{\theta}} \end{aligned}$$

2) also

$$[H^i, [E_{\pm}^1, E_{\mp}^2]] = \pm (A^{1i} - A^{2i}) [,]$$