Symmetry is an incredibly powerful tool to help simplify calculations.

But, symmetry also plays a more fundamental role in determining the type of dynamics in certain physical theories. For example special relativity is nothing more than a statement about the symmetries of spacetime. And the SM forces can be seen to arise as the consequence of certain symmetries. We will discuss both of these in due time.

Your first exposure to symmetry was probably static type, e.g. \( \triangle \xrightarrow{2\text{ trans}} \triangle \) (geometry, shapes, etc.)

Static symmetries are easy to visualise, but...

We will be more interested in dynamic symmetries, e.g. Lagrangian: \( L \xrightarrow{\text{trans}} L' = L \).

No matter what type of symmetry we consider, the spirit is the same, i.e. we enact a transformation on something and afterwards that something looks the same.

Now naively it may seem that our something must only be built out of things which themselves are invariant. If this were the case, it would be terribly restrictive. Fortunately, we can build an invariant something out of pieces which are not invariant so long as we combine them in an appropriate way, e.g. we can build a rotationally invariant scalar from vector components with a dot product!

So our preliminary focus will be on describing transformations. We will come back to making sure they are symmetries of a Lagrangian a bit later.
Transformations come in many different types: global, local, discrete, continuous, finite, infinite, compact, non-compact, internal, spacetime.

To clarify most of these words we will look at static symmetry examples:

**Global vs. Local**

- **Example 1:** Transformation = translate each dot
  
  Original: \[ \bullet \bullet \bullet \]
  
  Symmetric: \[ \bullet \rightarrow \bullet \bullet \bullet \]
  
  Local: \[ \bullet \rightarrow \bullet \]
  
  Not symmetric: \[ \bullet \rightarrow \bullet \bullet \bullet \]

- **Example 2:** Transformation = rotate each circle in place
  
  Original: \[ \bullet \bullet \bullet \]
  
  Symmetric: \[ \bullet \rightarrow \bullet \bullet \bullet \]
  
  Local: \[ \bullet \rightarrow \bullet \bullet \bullet \]
  
  Not symmetric: \[ \bullet \rightarrow \bullet \bullet \bullet \]

*Note:* If a system is symmetric under local transformations then it is automatically symmetric under global transformations, but the reverse is not true!

**Discrete vs. Continuous**

- **Discrete (finite or infinite)**
  
  - Example 1: \[ \triangle \rightarrow \triangle \text{ finite size } \{ 1, R_{180}, R_{360} \} \]
  
  - Example 2: \[ \infty \rightarrow \infty \text{ infinite size } \{ \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2}, \frac{5\pi}{2}, \ldots \} \]

- **Continuous (compact or non-compact)**
  
  - Example 1: \[ \bigcirc \rightarrow \bigcirc \text{ compact } \{ \theta \in [0, 2\pi) \} \]
  
  - Example 2: \[ \infty \rightarrow \infty \text{ non-compact } \{ \theta \in (-\pi, \pi) \} \]

**Spacetime vs. Internal**

If we coordinatize spacetime, then spacetime transformations also change coordinates while internal transformations do nothing to the coordinates.

*Note:* Special Relativity is associated with spacetime symmetries. The strong, weak and electromagnetic forces are associated with internal symmetries.
For our purposes we can treat transformations mathematically using the concepts of groups and representations.

A group $G$ is a collection of elements $\{A, B, \ldots\}$ with a composition $\cdot$ that satisfies:

1. **Closure** - if $A, B \in G \Rightarrow A \cdot B \in G$
2. **Identity** - there is some $I \in G$ such that $I \cdot A = A$ for any $A \in G$
3. **Inverse** - for any $A \in G$ there is an $A^{-1} \in G$ such that $A^{-1} \cdot A = I$
4. **Associativity** - $A \cdot (B \cdot C) = (A \cdot B) \cdot C$

We could add commutativity, i.e. $A \cdot B = B \cdot A$, in which case we have an abelian group, but we actually need groups that don't commute, i.e. they are non-abelian.

If we can take a subset of the elements of a group and they form a group themselves then this is a subgroup of the original group. Note: subgroups always have to include the identity and inverses and how to be careful to remain closed!
We can abstractly specify a group, e.g. rotations in 2D with composition that we add the rotation angles.

But more often we think (and calculate) in terms of how the group transformations act on things. These are called representations of the group.

A single group can often have many different representations. Some are more useful since they fully illustrate the content of the group, these are called faithful representations.

Example: \( G = \) Rotations in plane by 90° with usual composition (addition of angles).

- \( \text{Rep } r_1: \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ D & C \end{bmatrix} \equiv \{ E, R_{90}, R_{180}, R_{270} \} \) This is the only faithful representation!
- \( \text{Rep } r_2: \begin{bmatrix} A & D \\ B & C \end{bmatrix} \equiv \{ E, R_{90} \} \) This is a degenerate representation.
- \( \text{Rep } r_3: \begin{bmatrix} A & A \\ A & A \end{bmatrix} \equiv \{ E \} \) This is the highly degenerate identity representation.
We can often work with representations where the transformations act linearly using matrices:

\[
\begin{align*}
 I &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, & R_{\theta} &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}, & R_{\theta_0} &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta_0 & -\sin \theta_0 \\ \sin \theta_0 & \cos \theta_0 \end{pmatrix}, & R_{\theta_0 \theta} &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta \cos \theta_0 + \sin \theta \sin \theta_0 & -\cos \theta_0 \sin \theta + \sin \theta_0 \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta_0 \cos \theta + \cos \theta_0 \sin \theta & \cos \theta_0 \cos \theta - \sin \theta_0 \sin \theta \end{pmatrix}
\end{align*}
\]

Notice that the matrices behave as expected, e.g. \( R \circ R_{\theta_0} = R_{\theta_0} \circ R \), etc.

Note: This is an abelian group since any \( R \circ R' = R' \circ R \).

In this case we utilized column matrices with real components. Sometimes we will make use of complex components.
For finite groups we can construct a "multiplication" table.

Example: For an earlier group G

\[
\begin{array}{c|ccc}
\text{I} & \text{R}_{90} & \text{R}_{180} & \text{R}_{270} \\
\hline
\text{I} & \text{I} & \text{R}_{90} & \text{R}_{180} \\
\text{R}_{90} & \text{R}_{90} & \text{I} & \text{R}_{270} \\
\text{R}_{180} & \text{R}_{270} & \text{R}_{180} & \text{I} \\
\text{R}_{270} & \text{R}_{270} & \text{I} & \text{R}_{90}
\end{array}
\]

Note:
* For an abelian group the multiplication table must be symmetric across the diagonal \( I \).
* In this example \( \{ I, R_{90} \} \) would be a subgroup, but \( \{ I, R_{90} \} \) would not.
* If we thought of the square in 3D, we could extend the group with four more transformations. There would be 180° rotations around the axes:

If two discrete groups have the same multiplication table then they are isomorphic. For continuous groups we can't form a multiplication table so we have to work harder to compare them.