

Thursday, January 18, 2018
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$$\begin{array}{c} I \quad R_\pi \\ I \quad \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline I & R_\pi \\ \hline R_\pi & I \\ \hline \end{array} \\ R_\pi \end{array}$$

2 Rot. in 2D

$$\begin{array}{c} E \quad O \\ E \quad \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline E & O \\ \hline O & E \\ \hline \end{array} \\ O \end{array}$$

E, O w/ +

$$\begin{array}{c} 1 \quad -1 \\ 1 \quad \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline 1 & -1 \\ \hline -1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ -1 \end{array}$$

$1, -1$ w/ \times

$$\mathbb{Z}_2: \{I, g\} \text{ w/ } g^2 = I$$

So far we have a formal way to describe how elements of a representation transform under an element of a group. But how can we build an invariant?

Given some thought, it might seem that combining two objects which transform "oppositely" would give an invariant. In fact this is exactly what we do!

We will take a cue from the familiar dot product, i.e. $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \sum v_i w_i$ or $(v_1, v_2, v_3) \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{pmatrix} = v_1 w_1 + v_2 w_2 + v_3 w_3$

For any matrix representation r we can form the dual representation \tilde{r} as follows:

If $A \in G$ then $r \rightarrow Ar$, $\tilde{r} \rightarrow (A^{-1})^T \tilde{r}$.

Then if we form $\tilde{r}^T r \rightarrow (A^{-1})^T \tilde{r}^T Ar = \tilde{r}^T A^{-1} Ar = \tilde{r}^T A^{-1} A r = \tilde{r}^T r$

In our example: $r = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$, $\tilde{r} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$

If we choose $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} e \\ f \\ g \\ h \end{pmatrix} \in r$ and $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix} \in \tilde{r}$ then:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{r}^T r &= (e \ f \ g \ h) \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} e \\ f \\ g \\ h \end{pmatrix} \right]^T \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \underbrace{ea + fb + gc + hd}_{\text{some !!}} \\ &= \left[\begin{pmatrix} h & f & g & e \end{pmatrix} \right]^T \begin{pmatrix} d \\ c \\ b \\ a \end{pmatrix} = (h \ e \ f \ g) \begin{pmatrix} d \\ a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{hd + ea + fb + gc}_{\text{some !!}} \end{aligned}$$

Note: We can do this for complex representations as well, but since Lagrangians must be real, we only want real invariants so we form $\tilde{r}^\dagger r$ instead.
 $\left. \begin{matrix} \tilde{r}^\dagger \\ r \end{matrix} \right\} \left. \begin{matrix} \dagger \\ \end{matrix} \right\} = *^T$

As an example, consider vectors in 3D, $v = \begin{pmatrix} v^1 \\ v^2 \\ v^3 \end{pmatrix}$ with metric $g = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbb{I}$

Then we can form dual vectors $\tilde{v} = g v$ and hence invariants $\tilde{v}^T v = v^T g v$
under any transformation A that satisfies $A^T g A = g$ or $A^T A = \mathbb{I}$ in this case.

This is the orthogonal condition.

In 3D, the A 's would be 3×3 real matrices so the full set of transformations would be $O(3)$.

You might think that the A 's in this case would be ordinary rotations in 3D, but we have to be careful.

Rotations in 3D:

Form a compact, continuous, non-abelian group. We will denote rotations by R .

From our previous discussion we know $R^T R = I$ so $R \in O(3)$, but $O(3)$ contains more than just rotations.

Consider: $R_x(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ 0 & -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow R^T R = I$

$R'_x(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ 0 & -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow R'^T R' = I$ but this is not a rotation (we'll see what it is soon!)

How can we take $O(3)$ and pick out only rotations? Note: $\det R = +1$, $\det R' = -1$
So we can restrict to the elements of $O(3)$ that satisfy $\det = +1 \Rightarrow SO(3)$ special orthogonal group
But does this form a subgroup?

1. Closure $A, B \in SO(3) \Rightarrow \det(AB) = \det A \det B = +1$
2. Identity $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \in SO(3)$
3. Inverse $R^T R = I \Rightarrow R^{-1} = R^T$, but $\det(R^T R) = \det I = +1 = \det R^T \det R \Rightarrow \det R^{-1} = +1$
4. Associativity (Matrix multiplication is naturally associative)

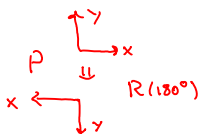
So what did we throw out? Essentially $P = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ reflection in x, y, z

Note: $P^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \underbrace{(P, I)}_{\mathbb{Z}_2}$ is a discrete subgroup of $O(3)$

To get any element of $O(3)$ we can start with some element of $SO(3)$ and combine it with P . Thus $O(3) = SO(3) \times \mathbb{Z}_2$
decomposition of $O(3)$ to subgroups

Note: $O(3)$ with $\det = -1$ is not a subgroup!

The identity $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is not part of it. ~~X~~
Also $\det(AB) = \det A \det B = (-1)(-1) = +1$

Back to 2D: $R(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \det R = +1$
 $R(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} -\cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & -\cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \det R = +1$ } both are in $SO(2)$!


What's the difference between 3D and 2D? In 2D, P which reflects x, y is just $R(180^\circ) \in SO(2)$
In 3D, P which reflects x, y, z is not a rotation

We could consider $R(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & -\cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \in O(2)$ with $\det R = -1$. This can be associated with $P_y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ and used to decompose $O(2) = SO(2) \times \mathbb{Z}_2$

As another example, suppose we have a complex 2D representation $V = \begin{pmatrix} v^1 \\ v^2 \end{pmatrix}$ where v^1 and v^2 are complex numbers and we take the metric $g = \mathbb{I}$. The $\tilde{U}^T V$ will be invariant under transformations by 2x2 complex matrices A provided $A^+ A = (A^T)^* A = \mathbb{I}$.

The condition $A^+ A = \mathbb{I}$ defines the unitary group $U(2)$.

Just as for $O(3)$, in order to restrict to continuous transformations we impose $\det A = +1$ and then have $SU(2)$ or the special unitary group in 2D. Clearly we can also have $SU(N)$.

Wednesday, January 20, 2016
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If we take 4D vectors with $g = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ then the transformations Λ which satisfy $\Lambda^T g \Lambda = g$ and $\det \Lambda = +1$ form $SO(1,3)$ or the Lorentz group. We will develop this in much more detail in the next lectures.