

Title

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Chapter 1

Background Info

Definition 1.1 (Representations of a Group). If there is a homomorphism from a group G to a group of operators $U(G)$ on a linear vector space V , we say that $U(G)$ forms a *representation* of G with dimension $\dim V$.

The representation is a map

$$g \in G \xrightarrow{U} U(g) \quad (1.1)$$

in which $U(g)$ is an operator on the vector space V . For a set of basis vectors $\{\hat{e}_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$, we can realize each operator $U(g)$ as an $n \times n$ matrix $D(g)$.

$$U(g) |e_i\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n |e_j\rangle D(g)^j_i = |e_j\rangle D(g)^j_i, \quad (1.2)$$

where the first index j is the row index and the second index i is the column index. We use the Einstein summation convention, so repeated indices are summed over. Note that the operator multiplication is defined as

$$U(g_1)U(g_2) = U(g_1g_2), \quad (1.3)$$

which satisfies the group multiplication rules.

Definition 1.2. If the homomorphism defining the representation is an isomorphism, then the representation is *faithful*. Otherwise, it is *degenerate*.

Example 1.1. Let G be the group of continuous rotations in the xy -plane about the origin. We can write $G = \{R(\phi), 0 \leq \phi \leq 2\pi\}$ with group operation $R(\phi_1)R(\phi_2) = R(\phi_1 + \phi_2)$. Consider the 2-dimensional Euclidean vector space V_2 . Then we define a representation of G on V_2 by the familiar rotation operation

$$\hat{e}'_1 = U(\phi)\hat{e}_1 = \hat{e}_1 \cdot \cos \phi + \hat{e}_2 \cdot \sin \phi \quad (1.4)$$

$$\hat{e}'_2 = U(\phi)\hat{e}_2 = -\hat{e}_1 \cdot \sin \phi + \hat{e}_2 \cdot \cos \phi. \quad (1.5)$$

This gives us the matrix representation

$$D(\phi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.6)$$

To further illustrate this representation, if we consider an arbitrary vector $\hat{e}_i x^i = \vec{x} \in V_2$, then we have

$$\vec{x}' = U(\phi)\vec{x} = \hat{e}_j x'^j, \quad (1.7)$$

where $x'^j = D(\phi)^j_i x^i$.

Definition 1.3 (Equivalence of Representations). For a group G , two representations are *equivalent* if they are related by a similarity transformation. Equivalent representations form an equivalence class.

To determine whether two representations belong to the same equivalence class, we define

Definition 1.4 (Characters of a Representation). The *character* $\chi(g)$ of an element $g \in G$ in a representation $U(g)$ is defined as $\chi(g) = \text{Tr } D(g)$.

Since trace is independent of basis, the character serves as a class label.

Vector space representations of a group have familiar substructures, which are useful in constructing representations of the group.

Definition 1.5 (Invariant Subspace). Let $U(G)$ be a representation of G on a vector space V , and W a subspace of V such that $U(g)|x\rangle \in W$ for all $\vec{x} \in W$ and $g \in G$. Then W is an *invariant subspace* of V with respect to $U(G)$. An invariant subspace is *minimal* or *proper* if it does not contain any non-trivial invariant subspace with respect to $U(G)$.

The identification of invariant subspaces on vector space representations leads to the following distinction of the representations.

Definition 1.6 (Irreducible Representation). A representation $U(G)$ on V is *irreducible* if there is no non-trivial invariant subspace in V with respect to $U(G)$. Otherwise, it is *reducible*. If $U(G)$ is reducible and its orthogonal complement to the invariant subspace is also invariant with respect to $U(G)$, then the representation is *fully reducible*.

Example 1.2. Under the group of 2-dimensional rotations, consider the 1-dimensional subspace spanned by \hat{e}_1 . This subspace is not invariant under 2-dimensional rotations, because a rotation of \hat{e}_1 by $\pi/2$ results in the vector \hat{e}_2 that is clearly not in the subspace spanned by \hat{e}_1 . A similar argument shows that the subspace spanned by \hat{e}_2 is not invariant under 2-dimensional rotations.

However, consider the linear combination of basis vectors

$$\hat{e}_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\mp \hat{e}_1 + i \hat{e}_2), \quad (1.8)$$

where $i = \sqrt{-1}$. Then a rotation by angle ϕ , denoted in operator form as $U(\phi)$, acts on \hat{e}_{\pm} by

$$\begin{aligned} U(\phi) |\hat{e}_+\rangle &= U(\phi) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-\hat{e}_1 + i \hat{e}_2) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-U(\phi) |\hat{e}_1\rangle + i U(\phi) |\hat{e}_2\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-\hat{e}_1 \cos \phi - \hat{e}_2 \sin \phi - i \hat{e}_1 \sin \phi + i \hat{e}_2 \cos \phi) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-\hat{e}_1 (\cos \phi + i \sin \phi) + i \hat{e}_2 (\cos \phi - i \sin \phi)) \end{aligned} \quad (1.9)$$

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$$\begin{aligned} &= \hat{e}_+ (\cos \phi - i \sin \phi) \\ &= \hat{e}_+ e^{-i\phi}, \end{aligned} \quad (1.10)$$

$$\text{and } U(\phi) |\hat{e}_-\rangle = \hat{e}_- e^{i\phi}. \quad (1.11)$$

The irreducible representation matrices satisfy orthonormality and completeness relations. **Thm. 3.5?**

Example 1.3 (Generator of $\text{SO}(2)$). Consider the rotations of a 2-dimensional Euclidean vector space about the origin. Let \hat{e}_1 and \hat{e}_2 be orthonormal basis vectors of this space. Using geometry, we can determine how a rotation by some angle ϕ , written in operator form as $R(\phi)$, acts on the basis vectors:

$$R(\phi)\hat{e}_1 = \hat{e}_1 \cos \phi + \hat{e}_2 \sin \phi \quad (1.12)$$

$$R(\phi)\hat{e}_2 = -\hat{e}_1 \sin \phi + \hat{e}_2 \cos \phi. \quad (1.13)$$

In matrix form, we can write

$$R(\phi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.14)$$

which allows us to write Eqn. 1.12 and Eqn. 1.13 in a condensed form

$$R(\phi)\hat{e}_i = \hat{e}_j R(\phi)^j_i, \quad (1.15)$$

where we are summing over $j = 1, 2$.

Now, let \vec{x} be an arbitrary vector in the plane. Then \vec{x} has components x^i in the basis $\{\hat{e}_i\}$, where $i = 1, 2$. Equivalently, we can write $\vec{x} = \hat{e}_i x^i$. Then under rotations, \vec{x} transforms in accordance to the basis vectors

$$\begin{aligned} R(\phi)\vec{x} &= R(\phi)\hat{e}_i x^i \\ &= \hat{e}_j R(\phi)^j_i x^i \\ &= (\hat{e}_1 R(\phi)^1_i + \hat{e}_2 R(\phi)^2_i) x^i \\ &= (\hat{e}_1 \cos \phi + \hat{e}_2 \sin \phi) x^1 + (\hat{e}_1 (-\sin \phi) + \hat{e}_2 \cos \phi) x^2 \\ &= (x^1 \cos \phi - x^2 \sin \phi) \hat{e}_1 + (x^1 \sin \phi + x^2 \cos \phi) \hat{e}_2. \end{aligned} \quad (1.16)$$

Observe that $R(\phi)R^\top(\phi) = E$ where E is the identity matrix. This is precisely what defines *orthogonal matrices*. For 2-dimensional vectors in the plane, it is clear that these rotations do not change the length of said vectors. This can be verified by using Eqn. 1.16:

$$\begin{aligned} |R(\phi)\vec{x}|^2 &= |\hat{e}_j R(\phi)^j_i x^i|^2 \\ &= |(x^1 \cos \phi - x^2 \sin \phi) \hat{e}_1 + (x^1 \sin \phi + x^2 \cos \phi) \hat{e}_2|^2 \\ &= (x^1 \cos \phi - x^2 \sin \phi)^2 + (x^1 \sin \phi + x^2 \cos \phi)^2 \\ &= (\cos^2 \phi + \sin^2 \phi) x^1 x_1 + (\sin^2 \phi + \cos^2 \phi) x^2 x_2 \\ &= x^1 x_1 + x^2 x_2 = |\vec{x}|^2. \end{aligned} \quad (1.17)$$

Similarly, notice that for any continuous rotation by angle ϕ , $\det R(\phi) = \cos^2 \phi + \sin^2 \phi = 1$. In general, orthogonal matrices have determinant equal to ± 1 . However, the result of the above determinant of $R(\phi)$ implies that all continuous rotations in the 2-dimensional plane have determinant equal to $+1$. These are the *special orthogonal matrices of rank 2*. This family of matrices is denoted $\text{SO}(2)$. Furthermore, there is a one-to-one correspondence with $\text{SO}(2)$ matrices and rotations in a plane.

We define the group of continuous rotations in a plane by letting $R(0) = E$ be the identity element corresponding to no rotation (i.e., a rotation by angle $\phi = 0$), and defining the inverse of a rotation as $R^{-1}(\phi) = R(-\phi) = R(2\pi - \phi)$. This group can be called the $\text{SO}(2)$ group. Lastly, we define group multiplication as $R(\phi_1)R(\phi_2) = R(\phi_1 + \phi_2)$ and note that $R(\phi) = R(\phi \pm 2\pi)$, which can be verified geometrically. Thus, group elements of $\text{SO}(2)$ can be labelled by the angle of rotation $\phi \in [0, 2\pi)$.

Now we can find a generator of *so*(2) by considering an infinitesimal rotation, labelled by some infinitesimal angle $d\phi$. Then this is equivalent to the identity plus some small rotation, which we can write as

$$R(d\phi) = E - id\phi J \quad (1.18)$$

where the scalar quantity $-i$ is introduced for later convenience and J is some quantity independent of the rotation angle. If we consider the rotation $R(\phi + d\phi)$, then there are two equivalent ways to interpret this rotation

$$R(\phi + d\phi) = R(\phi)R(d\phi) = R(\phi)(E - id\phi J) = R(\phi) - id\phi R(\phi)J \quad (1.19)$$

$$R(\phi + d\phi) = R(\phi) + dR(\phi) = R(\phi) + d\phi \frac{dR(\phi)}{d\phi} \quad (1.20)$$

where the second equation can be thought of as a Taylor expansion of $R(\phi + d\phi)$ about ϕ . Equating the two expressions for $R(\phi + d\phi)$ yields

$$dR(\phi) = -id\phi R(\phi)J. \quad (1.21)$$

Solving this differential equation (with boundary condition $R(0) = E$) provides us with an equation for any group element involving J :

$$R(\phi) = e^{-i\phi J}, \quad (1.22)$$

where J is called the *generator* of the group.