Representation Theory and its Applications in Physics

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Presented by

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Outline:

- 1. Introduction to Representation Theory
- 2. Examples in Physics
- 3. The Braid Group
- 4. Physical Applications of the Braid Group



Definition

Introduction to Representation Theory

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Let G be a group. A representation of G is a homomorphism from G to a group of operators on a linear vector space *V*. The dimension of *V* is the *dimension* or *degree* of the representation.

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Definition of a Representation

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$$g \in G \xrightarrow{X} X(g),$$

where X(g) is an operator on the V.

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where X(a) is an operator on the V.

Remark

If V is finite-dimensional with basis $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$, then X(g) can be realized as an $n \times n$ matrix.

Introduction to Representation Theory

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Group Multiplication

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Representations are group morphisms, so they satisfy the group multiplication rule:

$$X(gh) = X(g)X(h), \quad \forall g, h \in G.$$

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Properties of Representations

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If X is a representation of G, then $X(g)^{-1} = X(g^{-1}), \forall g \in G$.

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- 1. X(e) = I, where e is the identity element of the group and I is the identity operator.
- **2.** In the matrix presentation of X, X(g) is invertible for all $g \in G$.

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Trivial Representation of a Group

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For any group G, the trivial representation takes $g \mapsto 1$ for all $g \in G$.

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If a representation is injective, then it is a *faithful representation*.

Example: A Faithful Representation of S_n

Defining representation of S_n

The defining representation D of S_n encodes the action of the symmetric group on the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n . If a permutation sends i to i, then place a 1 the i-th column and i-th row of the representation matrix.

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E.g., in S_3 :

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$$D((23)) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad D((123)) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- The defining representation of S_n is *n*-dimensional.
- This representation is faithful.

Introduction to Representation Theory

Example: Representation of Continuous Rotation Group

Representations also work for continuous groups!

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Let $G = \{R(\phi), 0 \le \phi < 2\pi\}$ be the group of continuous rotations in the xy-plane (V_2) about the origin.

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Representation: Let X be a representation of G on V_2 with¹

$$X(\phi)\mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{e}_1 \cdot \cos \phi + \mathbf{e}_2 \cdot \sin \phi$$

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 $^{{}^{1}\}mathbf{e}_{1}$ and \mathbf{e}_{2} are orthonormal basis vectors of V_{2} .

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Thoughts

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Question

How do we classify representations of a group?

Equivalent Representations

Definition

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Two representations are equivalent if they are related by a similarity transformation.

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If two representations are equivalent, then their matrix forms have the same *trace*.

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- If two representations have the same character for all $q \in G$, then they are equivalent.
- We can use characters to classify representations.

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A representation X(G) on V is irreducible if there is no non-trivial invariant subspace² in V with respect to X(G). Otherwise, X(G) is *reducible*.

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- A reducible representation can be decomposed into a direct sum of irreducible representations.
- The decomposition of a representation into irreducibles is unique up to equivalence.

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Note: The subspace spanned by \mathbf{e}_1 (or \mathbf{e}_2) is *not* invariant under rotations!

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Invariance of e+

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. Then, $X(\phi)\mathbf{e}_{\pm}=e^{\pm i\phi}\mathbf{e}_{\pm}$.

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. Then, $X(\phi)\mathbf{e}_{\pm}=e^{\pm i\phi}\mathbf{e}_{\pm}$.

Decomposition of X

The span of each \mathbf{e}_{\perp} is an X-invariant subspace of V_2 . In this basis, we rewrite X as a direct sum of the 1D irreducible representations3:

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$$X(\phi) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\phi} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\phi} \end{bmatrix}.$$

³1-dimensional representations are always irreducible!

Schur's Lemmas (pt. 1)

Lemma

Let $X: G \to V$ and $Y: G \to W$ be irreducible representations of a group G. If there exists a fixed linear transformation $T: V \to W$ such that TX(g) = Y(g)T for all $g \in G$, then T is either the zero map or invertible.

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Proof (sketch)

1. The kernel of T is invariant under X(G).

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- **1.** The kernel of T is invariant under X(G).
- **2.** The image of T is invariant under Y(G).
- 3. Since X and Y are irreducible, $ker(T) = \{0\}$ and im(T) = V or ker(T) = V and $im(T) = \{0\}.$

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Let $X: G \to V$ and $Y: G \to W$ be irreducible representations of a group G. If there exists a fixed linear transformation $T: V \to W$ such that TX(g) = Y(g)T for all $g \in G$, then T is either the zero map or invertible.

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- **1.** The kernel of T is invariant under X(G).
- **2.** The image of T is invariant under Y(G).
- 3. Since X and Y are irreducible, $ker(T) = \{0\}$ and im(T) = V or ker(T) = V and $im(T) = \{0\}.$
- **4.** By the rank-nullity theorem, conclude that *T* is either the zero map or invertible.

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Schur's Lemma's (pt. 2)

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- **1.** Consider λ to be an eigenvalue of T.
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- **3.** By assumption, $(T \lambda I)X(g) = X(g)(T \lambda I)$ for all $g \in G$.

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- **2.** Then $T \lambda I$ is not invertible.
- **3.** By assumption, $(T \lambda I)X(g) = X(g)(T \lambda I)$ for all $g \in G$.
- **4.** By previous lemma, $T \lambda I = 0 \implies T = \lambda I$.

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Consequence of Schur's Lemmas

Corollary

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- **3.** Schur's second lemma implies $X(h) = \lambda_h I$ for some scalar λ_h .

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- **5.** X(G) is equivalent to the representation $g \mapsto \lambda_g$ for all $g \in G$.

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- **4.** The element h was arbitrary, so $X(q) = \lambda_q I$ for all $q \in G$.
- **5.** X(G) is equivalent to the representation $g \mapsto \lambda_g$ for all $g \in G$.
- 6. One-dimensional representations are irreducible.

A Note About Irreducibility

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- Similarity transforms

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- Similarity transforms

How does this help in physics?

Irreducible representations can describe symmetries of physical systems with remarkably fundamental implications.

⁴If the representation matrices have entries in ℂ.



2 Examples in Physics

Let *R* denote the familiar rotation matrix representation from before.

Properties of 2D Rotations

Let *R* denote the familiar rotation matrix representation from before.

Definition

An *orthogonal matrix O* satisfies $O^{\top} = O^{-1}$.

Let R denote the familiar rotation matrix representation from before.

Definition

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An orthogonal matrix O satisfies $O^{\top} = O^{-1}$.

Rotation matrices are orthogonal:

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Rotations preserve vector lengths:

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This special property is summarized by noting det $R(\phi) = 1$ for all $\phi \in [0, 2\pi)$.

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Introduction to Representation Theory

The *special orthogonal group* in two dimensions, denoted SO(2), is the group of all 2×2 orthogonal matrices with determinant equal to +1.5

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Recovering the Rotation Matrix from J

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Introduction to Representation Theory

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Irreducible Representations of SO(2)

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Theorem

Introduction to Representation Theory

The single-valued irreducible representations of SO(2) are defined as

$$U^m(\phi) = e^{-im\phi}, \ \forall \ m \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

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Definition

Introduction to Representation Theory

The special orthogonal group in three dimensions, denoted SO(3), is the group of all 3×3 orthogonal matrices with determinant equal to +1. SO(3) rotations are generated by the components of the Hermitian generator $\mathbf{J} = [J_x, J_y, J_z]^{\top}$.

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Introduction to Representation Theory

The irreducible representations of SO(3) are labeled by $j = 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, 2, \dots$, and the 2j + 1eigenvectors spanning an invariant subspace are labelled by their eigenvalues: $m = -i, -i + 1, \ldots, i - 1, j.$

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- ightharpoonup Quantum spin is a property that is labeled by j and has possible spin states $|m\rangle$.

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But that's not all folks!

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Introduction to Representation Theory

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- 3. Similar arguments can be made for the continuous group of translations in space, leading to the conservation of linear momentum for translationally invariant systems.

Additional Applications

We can take tensor products of the irreducibles of SO(3) to obtain multi-particle states, arriving at results such as:

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This is the tip of the icebera!



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Definition

Introduction to Representation Theory

The *configuration space* of *n* ordered distinct points in the complex plane \mathbb{C} is defined as $M_n = \{(z_1, \ldots, z_n) \in \mathbb{C}^n; z_i \neq z_i, \forall i \neq j\}.$

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- ▶ A braid β is a loop⁷ in M_n and can be thought of as a configuration that evolves over time:

$$eta: [0,1] o M_n$$

$$t \mapsto eta(t) = ig(eta_1(t), eta_2(t), \dots, eta_n(t)ig),$$

⁷The topological formalisms that define the braid group are omitted for times sake.

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The Braid Group

Definition

The braid group B_n is the (fundamental) group of all complex-valued n-tuples (M_n) up to homotopy.

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Visualization of Braids

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► Each path traced out by a point in the configuration space is a strand.

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- ► Each path traced out by a point in the configuration space is a *strand*.
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Introduction to Representation Theory

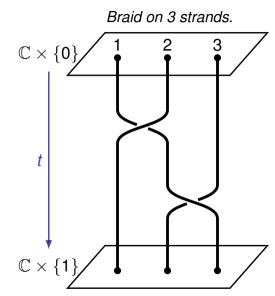
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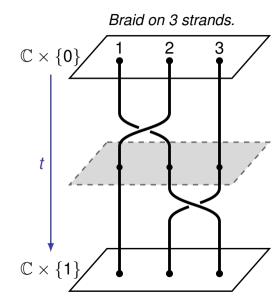
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The Braid Group

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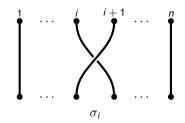
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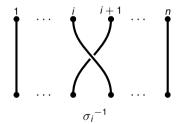
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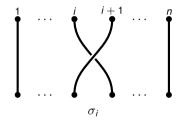
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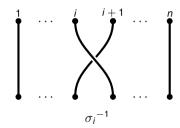
Introduction to Representation Theory

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The Braid Group

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▶ The <u>degree</u> of a braid $\beta \in B_n$ is the sum of the powers of the standard generators in the decomposition of β .

Definition

Introduction to Representation Theory

The braid group on n strands, denoted B_n , is generated by the standard generators that follow the *braid relations*, summarized below:

$$B_n = \left\langle \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{n-1} \middle| \begin{array}{l} \sigma_i \sigma_j = \sigma_j \sigma_i, \ |i-j| > 1 \\ \sigma_i \sigma_{i+1} \sigma_i = \sigma_{i+1} \sigma_i \sigma_{i+1} \end{array} \right\rangle.$$

Alternative Description of B_n

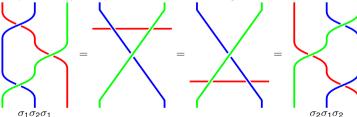
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The Braid Group

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Comment: $\sigma_i \sigma_{i+1} \sigma_i = \sigma_{i+1} \sigma_i \sigma_{i+1}$ is known as the *Yang-Baxter equation*, visualized below:



One-Dimensional Representations of the Braid Group

The Braid Group

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Introduction to Representation Theory

For $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$, we define some *one-dimensional representations* of B_n :

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Hence, for any $\beta \in B_n$ with degree k:

$$p_{\theta}(\beta) = p_{\theta}(\sigma_1^{m_1}\sigma_2^{m_2}\cdots\sigma_{n-1}^{m_{n-1}}) = e^{i\theta(m_1+m_2+\cdots+m_{n-1})} = e^{ik\theta}.$$

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Definition

A matrix $M \in GL_n(\mathbb{C})$ is *unitary* if $M^{\dagger} = M^{-1}$.

Unitary Representation of the Braid Group

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Introduction to Representation Theory

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The Braid Group

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The Braid Group

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Define the unitary representation $\mathcal{U}: B_3 \to U(2)$ by

$$\mathcal{U}(\sigma_1) = rac{1}{2}e^{-irac{\pi}{6}}egin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3}\,e^{i\,\mathsf{arctan}\left(rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}
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The Braid Group

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The Braid Group

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Introduction to Representation Theory

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Introduction to Representation Theory

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The Braid Group

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What are the physical implications of this nonabelian unitary representation?

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The Braid Group

Question

What are the physical implications of this nonabelian unitary representation?

Answer: Unitary matrices preserve inner products, so the unitary representations of the braid group can act on a quantum system by braiding particles!



4 Physical Applications of the Braid Group

(Abelian) Braiding Action on a Quantum System

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1D Representation: Let $p_{\theta}: B_n \to \mathbb{C}$ be defined by $\sigma_i \mapsto e^{i\theta}$ for some θ , for all j.

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Introduction to Representation Theory

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The Braid Group

Braiding action: For any degree-k braid $\beta \in B_n$, we have

$$\psi(r_{1'}, r_{2'}, \ldots, r_{n'}) = p_{\theta}(\beta) \, \psi(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n) = \underbrace{e^{ik\theta}}_{\substack{\text{phase} \\ \text{shift}}} \psi(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_n),$$

2D Representation: Consider the 2×2 unitary representation \mathcal{U} from before.

The Braid Group

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$$\begin{split} |1'\rangle &= \mathcal{U}(\sigma_1)_{1,1} \, |1\rangle + \mathcal{U}(\sigma_1)_{1,2} \, |2\rangle = \frac{1}{2} e^{-i\frac{\pi}{6}} \left(\sqrt{3} \, e^{i \operatorname{\mathsf{arctan}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)} \, |1\rangle + |2\rangle \right), \\ |2'\rangle &= \mathcal{U}(\sigma_1)_{2,1} \, |1\rangle + \mathcal{U}(\sigma_1)_{2,2} \, |2\rangle = \frac{1}{2} e^{-i\frac{\pi}{6}} \left(|1\rangle - \sqrt{3} \, e^{-i \operatorname{\mathsf{arctan}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)} \, |2\rangle \right). \end{split}$$

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The Braid Group

Remark

The action of a nonabelian braid group representation on a quantum system leads to nontrivial rotations in the many-particle Hilbert space that describes the quantum system8.

⁸Nayak et al., 2008, Non-abelian anyons and topological quantum computation, Reviews of Modern Physics

The Braid Group

Definition

Particles that obey the braid group permutation rules are known as *anyons*.

The Braid Group

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Introduction to Representation Theory

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- Edge cases: bosons and fermions.

Recall: A braid is only well-defined if all particle trajectories are known.

The Braid Group

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Consequences:

Introduction to Representation Theory

1. A permutation of two anyons requires the knowledge of the positions of all other anyons in the system.

The Braid Group

Nontrivial Braiding Effects in 1D Representations

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The Braid Group





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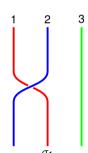
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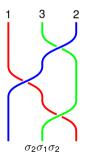
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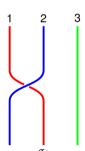
1D representation:

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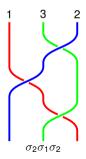
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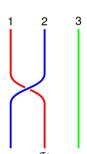
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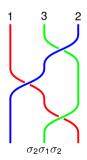
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Introduction to Representation Theory

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The Braid Group

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Introduction to Representation Theory

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- Specific fusion rules + nonabelian anyons = fault-tolerant topological quantum computer. This is an ongoing area of research.

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Summary

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Thank you for your attention!

Consider two identical non-interacting anyons with positions $\mathbf{r}_1 = (x_1, y_1)$ and $\mathbf{r}_2 = (x_2, y_2)$ in a harmonic potential. Let $\phi = \arctan\left(\frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}\right)$ be the relative angle between the two anyons and $\dot{\phi} = \frac{d\phi}{dt}$.

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Lagrangian:

$$\mathcal{L}\left(\textit{r}_{1},\textit{r}_{2},\dot{\textbf{r}}_{1},\dot{\textbf{r}}_{2},\dot{\phi}\right) = \textit{T} + \mathcal{L}_{int} - \textit{V}(\textbf{r}_{1},\textbf{r}_{2}) = \frac{1}{2}\textit{m}\left(\dot{\textbf{r}}_{1}^{2} + \dot{\textbf{r}}_{2}^{2}\right) + \hbar\alpha\dot{\phi} - \frac{1}{2}\textit{m}\omega^{2}\left(\textbf{r}_{1}^{2} + \textbf{r}_{2}^{2}\right)$$

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Generalize to *N* anyons: Let $\phi_{ij} = \arctan\left(\frac{y_i - y_i}{x_i - x_i}\right)$,

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{m}{2} \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{i}^{2} + \hbar \alpha \sum_{i \neq j}^{N} \dot{\phi}_{ij} - \frac{m\omega^{2}}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{r}_{i}^{2}$$

Rewrite N-anyon \mathcal{L} :

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{m}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\dot{\mathbf{r}}^2 - \omega^2 \mathbf{r}_i^2 \right] + \alpha \sum_{i < i}^{N} \dot{\mathbf{r}}_{ij} \cdot \frac{\left(-y_{ij}\hat{\mathbf{x}} + x_{ij}\hat{\mathbf{y}} \right)}{r_{ij}^2}$$

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i-th anyon Hamiltonian:
$$\mathcal{H}_i = \frac{1}{2m} \left(\underbrace{\mathbf{p}_i - \mathbf{A}_i(\mathbf{r}_i)}_{\text{canonical parameter}} \right)^2 + \frac{m\omega^2}{2} r_i^2$$

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Nontrivial braiding effects emerge from the *long-range interaction* term when $N \ge 3$.

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Question

Why is this useful?

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The *Burau representation* of the braid group B_n is defined on the standard generators:

$$\psi_n: B_n \to \mathrm{GL}_n(\mathbb{Z}[t, t^{-1}])$$

$$\sigma_i \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} I_{i-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & U & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_{n-i-1} \end{bmatrix}.$$

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The Burau representation satisfies the braid relations:

$$\psi_n(\sigma_i)\psi_n(\sigma_j) = \psi_n(\sigma_j)\psi_n(\sigma_i) \text{ for } |i-j| > 1,$$

$$\psi_n(\sigma_i)\psi_n(\sigma_{i+1})\psi_n(\sigma_i) = \psi_n(\sigma_{i+1})\psi_n(\sigma_i)\psi_n(\sigma_{i+1}) \text{ for } i \in \{1, \dots, n-2\}.$$

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⇒ Burau representation is reducible!

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- Equivalent ways to write the same thing:

$$\langle \mathbf{A}^{\dagger} \phi | \psi \rangle = \langle \phi | \mathbf{A} | \psi \rangle = \langle \phi | \mathbf{A} \psi \rangle.$$

Orthonormality, Completeness, and Wavefunctions

Definition

Let $\{\ket{1},\ket{2},\ket{3},\dots\}$ be an orthonormal basis for some quantum Hilbert space. In the context of physics, the orthonormality and completeness relations of the basis vectors allow any state vector $\ket{\psi}$ to be written as a linear combination of the basis vectors:

$$|\psi\rangle = \left(\sum_{n} |n\rangle \langle n|\right) |\psi\rangle = \sum_{n} |n\rangle \langle n|\psi\rangle,$$

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Definition

For a continuous basis labelled by $|x\rangle$ where x is a continuous parameter, the *wavefunction* $\psi(x)$ is the projection: $\langle x|\psi\rangle=\psi(x)$.

SO(2) Explicit form of J

The state $|\phi\rangle$ can be decomposed into a linear combination of the eigenvectors of *J*:

$$|\phi\rangle = \left(\sum_{m} |m\rangle \langle m|\right) |\phi\rangle = \sum_{m} \langle m|\phi\rangle |m\rangle,$$

where

$$\langle m|\phi\rangle = \langle m|U(\phi)|\mathcal{O}\rangle = \langle U^{\dagger}(\phi)m|\mathcal{O}\rangle = \langle e^{im\phi}m|\mathcal{O}\rangle = e^{-im\phi}\langle m|\mathcal{O}\rangle$$

is the projection of $|\phi\rangle$ onto the eigenvector $|m\rangle$ of J.

Thus,

$$\begin{split} J|\phi\rangle &= \sum_{m} e^{-im\phi} J|m\rangle = \sum_{m} m e^{-im\phi} |m\rangle = \sum_{m} i \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(e^{-im\phi} |m\rangle \right) = i \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} |\phi\rangle \\ &\Longrightarrow \langle \phi|J|\psi\rangle = \langle J^{\dagger}\phi|\psi\rangle = -i \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \langle \phi|\psi\rangle = -i \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \psi(\phi). \end{split}$$

SO(3) Invariance ⇒ Commute with Hamiltonian

$$\phi = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

$$\implies \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} = (\mathbf{r} \times \nabla) \cdot \mathbf{e}_z \implies J = -i\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} = -i(\mathbf{r} \times \nabla) \cdot \mathbf{e}_z = \frac{1}{\hbar}\hat{\mathcal{L}}_z \implies \hat{\mathbf{L}} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \times \hat{\mathbf{p}}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{p}} = -i\nabla \implies \hat{\mathcal{L}}_z = x\hat{p}_y - y\hat{p}_x$$

$$\hat{\mathcal{H}} = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{p}}^2}{2m} + \hat{V}(\mathbf{r}), \quad [V(\mathbf{r}), \hat{\mathcal{L}}_z] = 0, \quad [\hat{\mathbf{p}}^2, \hat{\mathcal{L}}_z] = 0 \implies [\hat{\mathcal{H}}, \hat{\mathcal{L}}_z] = 0,$$

where the last line easily generalizes to $\hat{\mathbf{L}}$.

From Invariant Subspace to the Lie Algebra

$$J^2 \ket{j} = (J_-J_+ + J_z + J_z^2)\ket{j} = (0 + j + j^2)\ket{j} = j(j+1)\ket{j},$$
 $J^2 \ket{j}, m\rangle = j(j+1)\ket{j}, m\rangle,$ $J_z \ket{j}, m\rangle = m\ket{j}, m\rangle,$ $J_{\pm} \ket{j}, m\rangle = \sqrt{j(j+1) - m(m\pm 1)}\ket{j}, m\pm 1\rangle,$ $[J_i, J_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}J_k, \quad [J^2, J_j] = 0.$