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CHAPTER 1

Relativistic symmetry

[S]ome good news: quantum field theory is based on the same quantum mechanics that was invented by Schrödinger, Heisenberg, Pauli, Born, and others in 1925–26, and has been used ever since in atomic, molecular, nuclear, and condensed matter physics. – Steven Weinberg in [Wei05, §2.1]

Physicists often describe quantum field theory as the inevitable consequence of reconciling the formalism of quantum mechanics with the strictures of special relativity. This applies most clearly to the description of isolated particles – a kinematical problem whose solution will be covered in later lectures. Electrons, neutrinos, and quarks have many different properties, from charge to color, but they are all “spin-1/2.” The force carriers in the standard model of particle physics all are “spin-1.” The notion of particle spin, which (despite the suggestive terminology) has no true analogue in classical mechanics, arises naturally from the conjunction of quantum mechanics and a fragment of relativistic covariance.

For our purposes, the conjunction can be encoded in a single definition:

A *relativistic quantum mechanical system* consists of a separable Hilbert space \mathcal{H} together with a strongly-continuous projective unitary representation

$$\rho : \mathrm{P}(1, d) \rightarrow \mathrm{PU}(\mathcal{H}) = \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H}) / (\mathrm{U}(1)I) \quad (1.1)$$

of the (restricted) Poincaré group

$$\mathrm{P}(1, d) = \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes \mathrm{SO}(1, d), \quad (1.2)$$

where $d \in \mathbb{N}^+$ is the number of spatial dimensions.

Isolated particles (whether elementary or composite) are relativistic quantum mechanical systems in this sense, as are full-fledged quantum fields.

The goal of this lecture is to unpack the definition above. We do not assume familiarity with the Poincaré group.

1. The Poincaré group

Special relativity is most easily summarized as the requirement that the laws of physics admit as a group of symmetries the (restricted) Poincaré group $\mathrm{P}(1, d)$. From a modern perspective, the central insight contained in Einstein’s groundbreaking 1905 paper [Ein05] is that the Poincaré group is among the symmetries of Maxwellian electrodynamics, and, if the same applies to all other fundamental laws of physics, then any observer moving at constant velocity (“inertial frame of reference,” see §A.1) will observe no departure from Maxwell’s theory. In particular, the speed of light

$$c \approx 2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s} \quad (1.3)$$

will appear the same to all. We will work in units where $c = 1$.

The Poincaré group is a particular subgroup of the group

$$\mathrm{Aff}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}) = \{\text{bijective affine } T : \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{1,d}\} \quad (1.4)$$

of affine transformations of Minkowski spacetime,

$$\mathbb{R}^{1,d} = \mathbb{R}_t \times \mathbb{R}_{\mathbf{x}}^d. \quad (1.5)$$

A spacetime coordinate $x = (t, \mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ consists of two components, a “temporal” component $t = x^0$, saying *when* some event occurs, and a “spatial” component $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, saying *where*. On Minkowski spacetime is defined the *Minkowski interval*

$$\begin{aligned} d : (\mathbb{R}^{1,d})^2 &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ d(x, y) &= (x - y)^2, \end{aligned} \quad (1.6)$$

where $z^2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -t^2 + \|\mathbf{z}\|^2$ for $z = (t, \mathbf{z}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$. The Minkowski interval should be compared with the Euclidean interval $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \mapsto \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$. Note the signs.

Just as the Euclidean group is defined to be the group of isometries of Euclidean space, the Poincaré group

$$P_{\text{full}}(1, d) = \{\text{bijections } T : \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \text{ s.t. } d(T(x), T(y)) = d(x, y)\} \quad (1.7)$$

[Problem 1.2] is defined to be the group of “isometries” of Minkowski spacetime, bijections which preserve the Minkowski interval. Such T are automatically affine, making the Poincaré group a (Lie) subgroup of the affine group $\text{Aff}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d})$.

This group is not connected. The *restricted* Poincaré group $P = P(1, d)$ is then defined to be the connected component of $P_{\text{full}}(1, d)$ containing the identity.

1.1. Basic Poincaré transformations.

EXAMPLE 1.1 (Spacetime translation). A spacetime translation $T_a : x \mapsto x + a$ is an example of an element of the restricted Poincaré group. This is clear from the translation invariance of the Minkowski interval. The set of translations $T_a, a \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ is a (Lie) subgroup of the restricted Poincaré group, forming a copy of the abelian group $(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}, +)$. Indeed,

$$T_a T_b = T_{a+b}. \quad (1.8)$$

■

Recall the orthogonal group $O(d) = \{R \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} : R^{-1} = R^\top\}$. The subgroup $SO(d) = \{R \in O(d) : \det R = 1\}$ consists of the orientation-preserving orthogonal transformations, i.e. rotations.

EXAMPLE 1.2 (Spatial rotations). Let $R \in SO(d)$. The transformation

$$T_R : \begin{bmatrix} t \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & R \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} t \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ R\mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.9)$$

which rotates the spatial coordinate \mathbf{x} (but leaves time invariant), is also in the restricted Poincaré group. This is obvious from the rotation invariance of the Minkowski interval. The $T_R, R \in SO(d)$ form a (Lie) subgroup of the Poincaré group, a copy of $SO(d)$. Indeed,

$$T_R T_{R'} = T_{RR'}. \quad (1.10)$$

■

Let $\mathbb{B}^d = \{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d : \|\mathbf{v}\| < 1\}$ denote the open unit ball.

EXAMPLE 1.3 (Boosts). A (Lorentz) *boost* (with velocity $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{B}^d$) is a map $T_{\Lambda(\mathbf{v})}$ of the form

$$T_{\Lambda(\mathbf{v})} : \begin{bmatrix} t \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \Lambda(\mathbf{v}) \begin{bmatrix} t \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \Lambda(\mathbf{v}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \|\mathbf{v}\|^2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\mathbf{v}^\top \\ -\mathbf{v} & \hat{\gamma} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \|\mathbf{v}\|^2}{I_d - \mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}^\top}}. \quad (1.11)$$

[Exercise 1.2] This lies in the restricted Poincaré group, as a short computation reveals. The factor

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \|\mathbf{v}\|^2}} \quad (1.12)$$

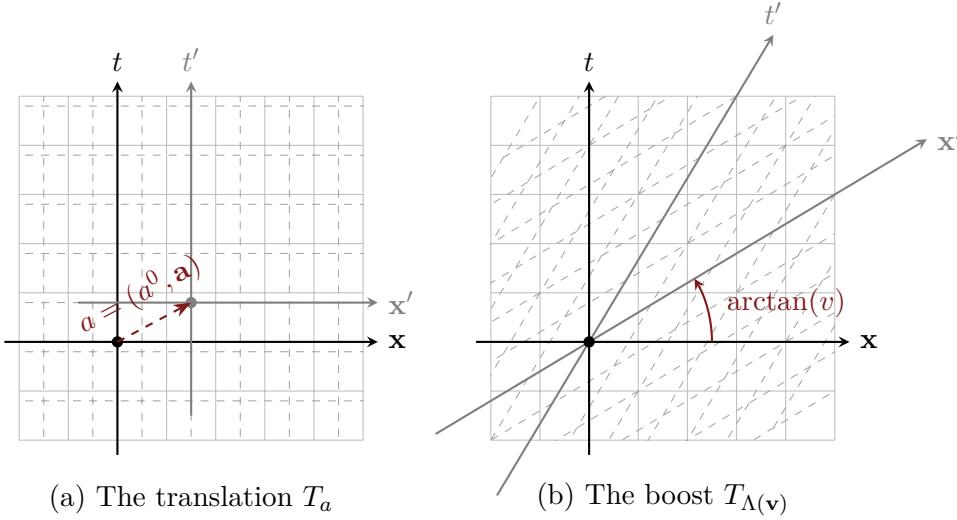


FIGURE 1.1

is known as the *Lorentz factor*. The matrix $\hat{\gamma}$ is defined via the functional calculus for symmetric matrices. It acts as the identity on $\text{span}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbf{v}$ and is multiplication by γ^{-1} on $(\text{span}_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbf{v})^\perp \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, so its matrix elements are

$$\hat{\gamma}^{ij} = \delta_{ij} + (\gamma - 1) \frac{v_i v_j}{v^2}. \quad (1.13)$$

When $\mathbf{v} = (v, 0, \dots, 0)$,

$$\Lambda(\mathbf{v}) = \Lambda_{\text{std}}(v) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{bmatrix} \gamma & -\gamma v & 0 \\ -\gamma v & \gamma & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_{d-1} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1.14)$$

That is,

$$\Lambda_{\text{std}}(v) : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{d-1} \ni (t, x, \mathbf{y}) \mapsto \left(\frac{t - vx}{\sqrt{1 - v^2}}, \frac{x - vt}{\sqrt{1 - v^2}}, \mathbf{y} \right). \quad (1.15)$$

Restricting attention to $\Lambda_{\text{std}}(v)$ is without essential loss of generality, because any boost $\Lambda(\mathbf{v})$ has the form

$$\Lambda(\mathbf{v}) = T_R T_{\Lambda_{\text{std}}(v)} T_{R^{-1}} \quad (1.16)$$

for some $v \in (-1, 1)$ and $R \in \text{SO}(d)$. If $d \geq 2$, then we can take $v \in [0, 1)$.

■ [Exercise 1.2(b)]

The Lorentz boost $\Lambda_{\text{std}}(v)$ should be contrasted with the Galilei boost:

$$(t, x, \mathbf{y}) \mapsto (t, x - vt, \mathbf{y}). \quad (1.17)$$

This is a symmetry of non-relativistic classical and quantum mechanics. Compared to the Galilei boost, the Lorentz boost has two differences:

- (i) the presence of the Lorentz factors $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1 - v^2}$,
- (ii) the correction $-\gamma vx$ to the time coordinate.¹

The first difference is responsible for length contraction. A moving object will appear to a stationary observer as squashed along its direction of motion, as compared to its shape at rest, by a factor of γ . A conceptual consequence of the second difference is the relativity of simultaneity; events which are simultaneous in one frame need not be simultaneous in other frames. This can be seen by the tilting of the \mathbf{x}' -axis in Section 1.1(b).

WARNING: Boosts do not form a subgroup of the Lorentz group (unless $d = 1$). The product of two [Exercise 1.3]

¹When factors of the speed of light c are restored, this is $-\gamma vx/c^2$, so very small in everyday life.

collinear boosts is a boost, but the product of two non-collinear boosts is a boost times a rotation (a *Wigner–Thomas rotation*). At the level of the Lie algebra, this can be seen from the fact that the commutators of generators of boosts involve the generators of rotations.

[Problem 1.3] and [Problem 1.4]

EXAMPLE 1.4 (Time-reversal). Consider $T_{\mathcal{T}} : (t, \mathbf{x}) \mapsto (-t, \mathbf{x})$. This is an element of the full Poincaré group but not the *restricted* group, as we will discuss below. ■

EXAMPLE 1.5 (Parity). Let $\mathcal{R} \in O(d)$ denote a spatial reflection across an odd number of Cartesian coordinates, say

$$\mathcal{R}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} (-x^1, x^2, \dots) & (d \text{ even}), \\ -\mathbf{x} & (d \text{ odd}). \end{cases} \quad (1.18)$$

Consider $T_{\mathcal{P}} : (t, \mathbf{x}) \mapsto (t, \mathcal{R}\mathbf{x})$. This is also in the full Poincaré group, but not the restricted Poincaré group. ■

Spacetime translations, spatial rotations, and boosts together generate the restricted Poincaré group — see the problems at the end of this chapter. Any restricted Poincaré transformation T can be written uniquely as

$$T = T_a T_R T_{\Lambda(\mathbf{v})} \quad (1.19)$$

for some $a \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, $R \in SO(3)$, and $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{B}^d$. Moreover, any Poincaré transformation can be written uniquely as

$$T = T_{\mathcal{T}}^{\eta} T_{\mathcal{P}}^{\xi} T_a T_R T_{\Lambda(\mathbf{v})} \quad (1.20)$$

for $\eta, \xi \in \{0, 1\}$, $a \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, $R \in SO(3)$, and $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{B}^d$. So the time-reversal and parity transformations, together with spacetime translations, spatial rotations, and boosts generate the full Poincaré group. The order in which the operators are listed in the expressions above is not important; they do not generally commute, but things can still be rearranged, owing to the following computation:

PROPOSITION 1.6. *Consider the five types of operator above, $T_{\mathcal{T}}$, $T_{\mathcal{P}}$, T_a for $a \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, T_R for $R \in SO(3)$, and $T_{\Lambda(\mathbf{v})}$ for $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{B}^d$. For any A, B of these types, $AB = B'A'$ for A' as the same type as A and B' as the same type of B .* ■

PROOF. Straightforward casework. □

1.2. Lorentz transformations. Any affine transformation $T \in \text{Aff}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d})$ can be written (uniquely) as

$$T = T_a T_{\Lambda}, \quad (1.21)$$

where $a = T(0)$ is the image of the spacetime origin under T and $T_{\Lambda} = T_{-a} T$ is some linear transformation. When T is a Poincaré transformation, T_{Λ} is known as a *Lorentz transformation*. Equation (1.20) shows that any Lorentz transformation has the form

$$T_{\Lambda} = T_{\mathcal{T}}^{\eta} T_{\mathcal{P}}^{\xi} T_R T_{\Lambda(\mathbf{v})}, \quad (1.22)$$

a product of a pure boost, a spatial rotation, and possibly some reflections. If T_{Λ} is in the restricted Poincaré group P , then it is a *restricted* Lorentz transformation. This means that $\eta, \xi = 0$ in eq. (1.22):

$$T_{\Lambda} = T_R T_{\Lambda(\mathbf{v})}. \quad (1.23)$$

REMARK: Physicists often speak of “Lorentz covariance” instead of Poincaré covariance. Insofar as these terms are not used interchangeably, the latter means the former together with translation-invariance.

Being linear, any Lorentz transformation T_{Λ} has the form $T_{\Lambda} : \mathbb{R}^{1+d} \ni x \mapsto \Lambda x$ for some (unique) matrix $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{(1+d) \times (1+d)}$. Since $x \mapsto x^2$ is a quadratic form $x^2 = x^T \eta x$ represented by the matrix

$$\eta = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & I_d \end{bmatrix}, \quad (1.24)$$

the requirement that T_Λ preserves the Minkowski interval can be rewritten

$$\Lambda^\top \eta \Lambda = \eta. \quad (1.25)$$

A Lorentz matrix is a matrix satisfying this condition. Spatial rotations, $R \in \mathrm{SO}(d)$,² and boosts $\Lambda(\mathbf{v})$, for $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{B}^d$, are two sorts of Lorentz matrices. Equation (1.23) says that every restricted Lorentz matrix has the form $\Lambda = R\Lambda(\mathbf{v})$ for unique $R \in \mathrm{SO}(d)$ and $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{B}^d$. The parity and time-reflection matrices \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} are examples of non-restricted Lorentz transformations.

If Λ is a Lorentz matrix, then taking the determinant of both sides yields $(\det \Lambda)^2 = 1$. So,

$$\det \Lambda = \pm 1. \quad (1.26)$$

In particular, all Lorentz matrices are invertible.

PROPOSITION 1.7. *The Lorentz matrices form a subgroup of the group of invertible $(1+d)$ -by- $(1+d)$ -matrices. That is:*

- (a) I_{1+d} is a Lorentz matrix.
- (b) The product of two Lorentz matrices is a Lorentz matrix.
- (c) If Λ is a Lorentz matrix, then Λ^{-1} is a Lorentz matrix.

■

PROOF. (a) Obvious.

- (b) If Λ, A are both Lorentz, then $(\Lambda A)^\top \eta (\Lambda A) = A^\top \Lambda^\top \eta \Lambda A = A^\top \eta A = \eta$.
- (c) Multiplying $\eta = \Lambda^\top \eta \Lambda$ by Λ^{-1} on the right and $(\Lambda^\top)^{-1}$ on the left yields

$$(\Lambda^\top)^{-1} \eta \Lambda^{-1} = \eta. \quad (1.27)$$

Since $(\Lambda^{-1})^\top = (\Lambda^\top)^{-1}$, this says

$$(\Lambda^{-1})^\top \eta \Lambda^{-1} = \eta. \quad (1.28)$$

□

The group of Lorentz matrices is denoted

$$\mathrm{O}(1, d) = \{\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{(1+d) \times (1+d)} : \Lambda^\top \eta \Lambda = \eta\}. \quad (1.29)$$

This is a matrix Lie group, as is easily checked. Since

$$T_\Lambda T_{\Lambda'} = T_{\Lambda \Lambda'} \quad (1.30)$$

for all $\Lambda, \Lambda' \in \mathrm{O}(1, d)$, it is canonically isomorphic to the subgroup of the Poincaré group consisting of Lorentz transformations. Either group is called *the Lorentz group*, and no confusion will arise from conflating the two. We will identify T_\bullet with \bullet .

We use $\mathrm{SO}(1, d) \subseteq \mathrm{O}(1, d)$ to denote the subgroup of restricted Lorentz matrices. This is precisely the connected component of the Lorentz group containing the identity matrix I_{1+d} . (This is usually how the restricted Lorentz group is defined. We defined it via connectivity in the Poincaré group P , but this is the same thing — two Lorentz transformations are connected by a path in $\mathrm{O}(1, d)$ if and only if they are connected by a path in the Poincaré group.)

WARNING: This notation is not standard; “ $\mathrm{O}_\dagger^+(1, d)$ ” is more common, but we will use the less-decorated notation.

PROPOSITION 1.8. *If Λ is a Lorentz matrix, then Λ^\top is a Lorentz matrix.* ■

²Strictly speaking, $1 \oplus R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & R \end{pmatrix}$ is the Lorentz matrix describing a spatial rotation, but we will abuse notation and just write this as R .

PROOF. Taking the inverse of both sides of $\Lambda^\top \eta \Lambda = \eta$ yields $\Lambda^{-1} \eta (\Lambda^\top)^{-1} = \eta$, having used $\eta^{-1} = \eta$. Plugging in $\Lambda^{-1} = (\Lambda^\top)^{-1\top}$, this reads

$$(\Lambda^\top)^{-1\top} \eta (\Lambda^\top)^{-1} = \eta. \quad (1.31)$$

This means that $(\Lambda^\top)^{-1}$ is Lorentz; applying Proposition 1.7(c), we deduce that Λ^\top is Lorentz. \square

Multiplying both sides of eq. (1.25) by the invertible matrix η on the left yields $\eta \Lambda^\top \eta \Lambda = I_{1+d}$, so

$$\Lambda \in O(1, d) \iff \Lambda^{-1} = \eta \Lambda^\top \eta. \quad (1.32)$$

This is reminiscent of the relationship $R^{-1} = R^\top$ that characterizes orthogonal matrices $R \in O(d)$.

1.3. Semidirect product structure. In summary, the Poincaré group consists of all maps $T : \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ of the form

$$T : \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \ni x \mapsto a + \Lambda x \quad (1.33)$$

for $a \in \mathbb{R}^{1+d}$ and $\Lambda \in O(1, d)$ a Lorentz matrix.

PROPOSITION 1.9. Let $T = T_a T_\Lambda$ and $T' = T_{a'} T_{\Lambda'}$. Then, $TT' = T_{a+\Lambda a'} T_{\Lambda \Lambda'}$. \blacksquare

PROOF. $TT'(x) = \Lambda(\Lambda'x + a') + a = \Lambda\Lambda'x + (a + \Lambda a') = T_{a+\Lambda a'} T_{\Lambda \Lambda'}(x)$. \square

PROPOSITION 1.10. $T_\Lambda T_a = T_{\Lambda a} T_\Lambda$. \blacksquare

PROOF. $T_\Lambda T_a(x) = \Lambda(x + a) = \Lambda x + \Lambda a = T_{\Lambda a} T_\Lambda(x)$. \square

PROPOSITION 1.11. The subgroup of $P(1, d)$ consisting of translations is normal. \blacksquare

PROOF. Immediate from above: $T_\Lambda T_a(T_\Lambda)^{-1} = T_{\Lambda a} T_\Lambda(T_\Lambda)^{-1} = T_{\Lambda a}$. \square

This should be “obvious,” because everyone agrees what a translation is — turning your head upside down or taking two steps back does not make a translation look like something else. It may change your description of the direction of the translation, but not whether or not it is a translation. In contrast, two non-collocated observers will not agree about whether an affine transformation of spacetime is linear; being linear means fixing the origin, but there is no objectively correct choice of spacetime origin. Mathematically, this means that the Lorentz subgroup $O(1, d) \subset P(1, d)$ is not normal. Indeed, if $a \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ is not fixed by Λ , then

$$T_a T_\Lambda T_{-a}(x) = \Lambda x + (a - \Lambda a) \quad (1.34)$$

is affine, but not linear, so not in the Lorentz group.

PROPOSITION 1.12. The Poincaré group is an inner semidirect product of the subgroup of translations with the subgroup of Lorentz transformations:

$$P_{\text{full}}(1, d) = \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes O(1, d). \quad (1.35)$$

The multiplication law is $(a, \Lambda)(a', \Lambda') = (a + \Lambda a', \Lambda \Lambda')$. \blacksquare

PROOF. Immediate from above. \square

Consequently, $P(1, d) = \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes SO(1, d)$.

REMARK: It is easy to forget which of ‘ \rtimes ,’ ‘ \ltimes ’ is correct. You can figure it out if you remember two things:

- The tip in the triangle points towards the normal subgroup, as it does in “ $N \triangleleft G$,”
- The subgroup of translations is the normal one, not the Lorentz group (and see above for the intuition why).

2. Quantum building blocks

Compared to special relativity, quantum mechanics is a bit harder to define. One can easily spend an inordinate amount of time debating what its essentials are — wave/particle duality, superposition, entanglement, or something else? — but that runs orthogonal to our concerns here. The most philosophically vexing features of quantum mechanics, those having to do with the wavefunction’s apparent collapse upon measurement by an external observer, are no more vexing when relativity is in play than when it is not. So, we will focus on what quantum mechanics says about the state space.

2.1. The state space. Physical theories typically come with a set whose elements are identified with the states of the system being modeled. This is the state space. In Hamiltonian mechanics, the state space is some finite-dimensional symplectic manifold. One of the defining features of quantum mechanics is that states can be *superposed*. The Schrödinger cat thought experiment involves a superposition of a state in which the cat lives and a state in which the cat dies. As far as we are concerned, quantum mechanics consists of the following principle: *in order to accommodate superposition, each quantum mechanical system is associated with a (separable³) Hilbert space \mathcal{H} , and the state space is built from it.* More precisely, the distinct (pure) states of the system consist of different *lines*

$$\mathbb{C}\Psi \subseteq \mathcal{H}, \quad \Psi \in \mathcal{H} \setminus \{0\} \tag{1.36}$$

in \mathcal{H} (not unit vectors!). Thus, each pure state $\omega \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ is described – non-uniquely – by a nonzero vector in \mathcal{H} , namely a spanning vector $\Psi \in \omega$,

$$\omega = \mathbb{C}\Psi \tag{1.37}$$

The ability to add vectors corresponds to the ability to form quantum superpositions. If $\Phi, \Psi \in \mathcal{H}$ are linearly independent vectors, then their linear combination $\Phi + \Psi$ describes the quantum superposition of the two states described by Φ, Ψ , respectively.

We will also use $[\Psi]$ to denote $\mathbb{C}\Psi$.

The set

$$P\mathcal{H} = \{\mathbb{C}\Psi : \Psi \in \mathcal{H} \setminus \{0\}\} \tag{1.38}$$

of complex lines in \mathcal{H} is known as the *projectivization* of \mathcal{H} . Thus, quantum states are identified with points in $P\mathcal{H}$. When $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^N$ is finite-dimensional, then

$$P\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}P^{N-1} \tag{1.39}$$

is a familiar complex manifold, the complex projective space with real dimension $2N - 2$. The infinite-dimensional case can be thought of as a “Hilbert manifold,” a topological space locally homeomorphic to $\ell^2(\mathbb{N})$, but this is not necessary. We have no need to consider $P\mathcal{H}$ as anything more than a set.

Not all superpositions need be allowed — model builders are allowed to forbid certain superpositions by fiat. (Whether or not nature adheres to that restriction is another matter.) Then, the state space will be some proper subset of $P\mathcal{H}$. This is the case of *superselection rules*. Superselection rules are discussed briefly in §D. For now, the reader may assume the absence of superselection rules. Then, the state space is the entirety of $P\mathcal{H}$.

³In these notes, all Hilbert spaces are separable, non-trivial (i.e. not zero dimensional), and, unless stated otherwise, over the complex numbers.

2.2. Wigner morphisms. Many different lines of reasoning converge as to what the natural notion of a symmetry of $P\mathcal{H}$ is: a permutation $[U]$ of the state space induced by a unitary operator $U \in U(\mathcal{H})$. In the absence of superselection rules, this means

$$\begin{aligned} [U] &= U \text{ mod } U(1)I \\ [U] &\in PU(\mathcal{H}). \end{aligned} \tag{1.40}$$

One sometimes begins with a more basic notion of symmetry and then proves that all symmetries are unitarizable in this way (barring special symmetries that invert the arrow of time). This is called *Wigner's theorem* [Wig59]. See [Wei05, §2.A] for an exposition.

The group $PU(\mathcal{H})$ inherits from $U(\mathcal{H})$ a topology which makes it into a topological group. Specifically, the topology on the former is the quotient of the strong operator topology on the latter. The strong and weak operator topologies agree on $U(\mathcal{H})$. The uniform (a.k.a. norm) topology is too strong to be useful. Whenever we reference topologies on these groups, we are referring to the strong/weak operator topology or its quotient.

REMARK: When \mathcal{H} is finite-dimensional, then $PU(\mathcal{H}) = PSU(\mathcal{H})$, where $SU(\mathcal{H}) = \{U \in U(\mathcal{H}) : \det U = 1\}$ is the special unitary group. However, “ $\det U$ ” does not make sense when \mathcal{H} is infinite-dimensional, except for special classes of unitary operators. So, we refrain from writing “ $PSU(\mathcal{H})$.”

Finally: the natural notion of a (topological) group G of quantum symmetries is a (continuous) homomorphism

$$\rho : G \rightarrow PU(\mathcal{H}). \tag{1.41}$$

Applied to $G = P(1, d)$, the result is the definition of relativistic quantum mechanical system given at the beginning of the lecture.

There exist two, dual, ways of interpreting the Poincaré action on the state space $P\mathcal{H}$. Let Larry be a scientist working in the laboratory frame, and Moe be a scientist working in some other inertial frame of reference. (Moe for moving.) Let $T \in P(1, d)$ denote the Poincaré transformation such that, if Larry perceives a spacetime event at coordinates x , Moe will perceive the same event at coordinates $T(x)$. Then:

- (i) If Larry perceives some quantum system in state $\mathbb{C}\Psi \in P\mathcal{H}$, Moe will perceive the same system in state $\mathbb{C}\rho(T)\Psi$.

The dual way of interpreting the Poincaré-action is this:

- (ii) Any state of the system can be translated, rotated, and/or boosted.
 - Given some state which Larry labels $\mathbb{C}\Psi$, there exists another state $\mathbb{C}\rho(T_{-a})\Psi$ which Larry sees as a translated version of the original state.
 - Similarly, if Larry describes the initial state as possessing energy-momentum $p = (E, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, there exists another state $\mathbb{C}\rho(T_{\Lambda}^{-1})\Psi$ which Larry perceives as possessing energy-momentum $\Lambda^{-1}p$.

This distinction is sometimes referred to as that between the *passive* and *active* interpretations of group elements. More colorful phraseology is “alias versus alibi” — if a crime was committed at what Larry describes as $x \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, but Larry saw me at $T(x)$, then I am exonerated (assuming $T(x) \neq x$), for I have an alibi. But if Moe takes the witness stand and says that he saw me at $T(x)$, and T relates Moe’s coordinates to Larry’s, then I am in trouble.

2.3. Anti-unitary maps and Wigner representations (★). An anti-unitary operator on \mathcal{H} is a complex anti-linear bijection $V : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ such that

$$\langle \phi, \psi \rangle = \langle V\psi, V\phi \rangle \tag{1.42}$$

for all $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{H}$. This is equivalent to being of the form $V = C \circ U$ (or equivalently $U \circ C$, for some other U), where $U \in \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H})$ is unitary and $C : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ is a map that conjugates the coefficients of vectors when expanded in some fixed orthonormal basis.

Together, the unitary and anti-unitary operators form a group $\mathrm{UaU}(\mathcal{H}) \cong C_2 \ltimes \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H})$.

If V is anti-unitary, then

$$\begin{aligned} [V] &: P\mathcal{H} \rightarrow P\mathcal{H} \\ [\Psi] &\mapsto [V\Psi] \end{aligned} \tag{1.43}$$

is a well-defined permutation of $P\mathcal{H}$. Together with the unitarizable automorphisms $[U] \in \mathrm{PU}(\mathcal{H})$, these form a group

$$\mathrm{Aut}(P\mathcal{H}) = [\mathrm{UaU}(\mathcal{H})] \cong C_2 \ltimes \mathrm{PU}(\mathcal{H}). \tag{1.44}$$

Wigner's theorem also allows anti-unitary maps as symmetries. However, these are always associated with "time-reversal symmetry." When considering the symmetries of a quantum system with time-reversal symmetry, one has a group

$$G \cong C_2 \ltimes G_0 \tag{1.45}$$

arising as a semidirect product of $C_2 = \{1, \mathsf{T}\}$ and a group G_0 . Then, T is interpreted as time-reversal. Rather than a projective representation of G , the incarnation of G as a group of quantum symmetries takes the form of a (continuous) homomorphism

$$\rho : G \rightarrow \mathrm{Aut}(P\mathcal{H}) \tag{1.46}$$

in which the elements of G_0 are mapped to unitarizable symmetries and T is mapped to an anti-unitarizable symmetry, and hence the other elements of $G \setminus G_0$ are as well. We will call these *Wigner representations* of (G, G_0) , or just of G for short, leaving the designated subgroup G_0 of unitarizable symmetries implicit.

3. Parity and time-reversal (\star)

Above, we were careful to stipulate only that relativistic systems have the restricted Poincaré group $\mathrm{P}(1, d)$ as a symmetry group, not the full Poincaré group

$$\mathrm{P}_{\text{full}}(1, d) \ni T_{\mathcal{T}}, T_{\mathcal{P}} \tag{1.47}$$

for the simple reason that the current reigning theory of particle physics, the standard model, has neither time-reversal nor reflection symmetry, nor a combination thereof.

However, many simplified theories, including QED and QCD, *do* have these fundamental symmetries, in which case the symmetry group is augmented from $\mathrm{P}(1, d)$ to some larger subgroup of $\mathrm{P}_{\text{full}}(1, d)$. This possibility is the topic of this section. The simplest case is where the symmetry group is that generated by \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{T} . Such theories have *chiral* symmetry — they look the same as their mirror image, modulo a relabeling of states. A theory with \mathcal{T} symmetry looks the same when run in reverse, modulo a relabeling of states. It has *time-reversal* symmetry. It is also possible for a system to have \mathcal{PT} symmetry — a "particle-hole" symmetry — without having \mathcal{P} or \mathcal{T} symmetry individually. Understanding these possibilities, and the interplay between parity and time-reversal symmetry, is surprisingly involved.

3.1. The $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}$ matrices. The parity and time-reversal matrices $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} \in \mathrm{O}(1, d)$ are

$$\mathcal{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathcal{R} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathcal{T} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & I_d \end{bmatrix}, \tag{1.48}$$

respectively; $\mathcal{R} \in O(d)$ is as in eq. (1.18). The product of \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} is a third Lorentz matrix, $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}$,

$$\mathcal{C} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathcal{R} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} -I_2 & 0 \\ 0 & I_{d-2} \end{bmatrix} & (d \text{ even}), \\ \begin{bmatrix} -I_{1+d} & 0 \\ 0 & I_{d-2} \end{bmatrix} & (d \text{ odd}). \end{cases} \quad (1.49)$$

We also use $\mathcal{I} = I_{1+d}$ to denote the identity matrix. The matrices $\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}$ constitute a subgroup of $O(1, d)$ isomorphic to the Klein four-group, $V_4 = C_2 \times C_2$. Together with the identity component, which – as a reminder – we are calling $SO(1, d)$, they generate the full Lorentz group.

We provide the proof below that $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}$ are not in the identity component of the Lorentz group. From this it follows that the full Lorentz group $O(1, d)$, as well as the full Poincaré group, have exactly *four* connected components – one component for each

$$\mathcal{A} \in \{\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}\}, \quad (1.50)$$

namely the connected component containing that \mathcal{A} . No two of these components can coincide, since that would imply that one of $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}$ lies in the identity component. No other components can exist, by the last sentence of the previous paragraph.

It follows from the above that the full Lorentz group $O(1, d)$ arises as the (inner) semidirect product

$$O(1, d) = V_4 \ltimes SO(1, d) \quad (1.51)$$

of its identity component $SO(1, d)$ and the subgroup $\{\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}\} \cong V_4$. Here $SO(1, d)$ is the normal subgroup. The identity component of a topological group is always normal.

The four components of the Lorentz group can be denoted

$$SO = O_{\uparrow}^+ \ni \mathcal{I}, \quad O_{\downarrow}^+ \ni \mathcal{T}, \quad O_{\uparrow}^- \ni \mathcal{P}, \text{ and } O_{\downarrow}^- \ni \mathcal{C}. \quad (1.52)$$

From these components, one can form the following three index-two subgroups of $O(1, d)$:

$$\begin{aligned} O_{\uparrow}(1, d) &= SO(1, d) \sqcup O_{\uparrow}^-(1, d), \\ O^+(1, d) &= SO(1, d) \sqcup O_{\downarrow}^+(1, d), \\ sO(1, d) &= SO(1, d) \sqcup O_{\downarrow}^-(1, d). \end{aligned} \quad (1.53)$$

This information is summarized in Figure 1.2.

WARNING: “ $SO(1, d)$ ” is often used to denote $sO(1, d)$.

Similar notation can be used for the components of $P(1, d)$, and the corresponding index-two subgroups.

3.2. Relativistic quantum mechanical systems with parity and/or time-reversal. Let G denote one of $P, P_{\uparrow}, P^+, sP, P_{\text{full}}$. Each of these has a distinguished subgroup $G_{\uparrow} = G \cap P_{\uparrow}$. A relativistic quantum mechanical system with the reflection symmetries

$$Z = G \cap \{\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}\} \quad (1.54)$$

is a Wigner representation of G , i.e. a continuous homomorphism $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(P\mathcal{H})$ in which the elements of G_{\uparrow} are mapped to unitarizable symmetries and the elements of $G \setminus G_{\uparrow}$ are mapped to anti-unitarizable symmetries. The possible pairs $(Z, Z_{\uparrow} = Z \cap P_{\uparrow})$ are

- Z, Z_{\uparrow} both trivial,
- $Z = \{\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{P}\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, and $Z_{\uparrow} = Z$,
- $Z = \{\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{A}\} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ for $\mathcal{A} \in \{\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}\}$, and Z_{\uparrow} trivial,
- $Z = \{\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}\} \cong V_4$, and $Z_{\uparrow} = \{\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{P}\}$.

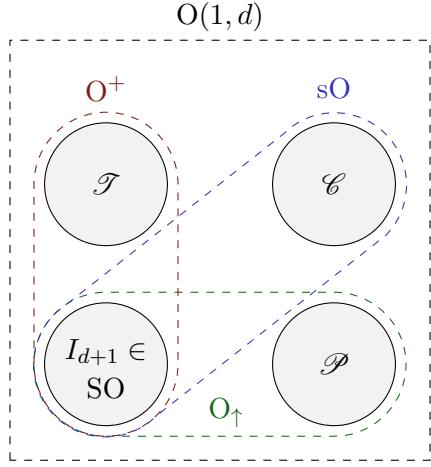


FIGURE 1.2. The various components of the full Lorentz group $O(1, d)$, and the important subgroups thereof.

In the first case, we have neither chiral symmetry nor time-reversal symmetry. In the second and third cases, we have one of P, T, C . In the fourth case, we have all three.

For each $\mathcal{A} \in Z$, let

$$A = \rho(\mathcal{A}). \quad (1.55)$$

The map $\mathcal{A} \mapsto A$ is a Wigner representation of Z . Since each Poincaré transformation $T \in G$ can be written $T = \mathcal{A}T_0$ for exactly one such \mathcal{A} and restricted Poincaré transformation $T_0 \in P$, and since

$$\rho(\mathcal{A}T_0) = A\rho(T_0), \quad (1.56)$$

the full Wigner representation is determined by $\rho|_P$ and the various A .

Conversely, suppose we are given

- a projective unitary representation $\rho : P \rightarrow PU(\mathcal{H})$,
- together with a Wigner representation $\mathcal{A} \mapsto A \in \text{Aut}(P\mathcal{H})$ of Z .

We can attempt to extend ρ to all of G by taking eq. (1.56) as a definition for $\mathcal{A} \neq \mathcal{I}$. This is a well-defined continuous function $G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(P\mathcal{H})$. It is a homomorphism, and therefore Wigner representation, if and only if

$$\rho(\mathcal{A}_1 T \mathcal{A} T_2) = A_1 \rho(T) A \rho(T_2) \quad (1.57)$$

for all $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A} \in Z$ and $T, T_2 \in P$. Note that $T\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}\tilde{T}_1$, where $\tilde{T} = \mathcal{A}T\mathcal{A} \in P$. So,

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(\mathcal{A}_1 T \mathcal{A} T_2) &= \rho((\mathcal{A}_1 \mathcal{A}) \tilde{T} T_2) = A_1 A \rho(\tilde{T} T_2) \\ &= A_1 A \rho(\tilde{T}) \rho(T_2), \end{aligned} \quad (1.58)$$

where the second equality used that $\mathcal{A} \mapsto A$ is a homomorphism, and the third used that $\rho|_P$ is a homomorphism. So, the desired equality holds if and only if $\rho(T)A = A\rho(\tilde{T})$, i.e.

$$A\rho(T)A = \rho(\mathcal{A}T\mathcal{A}) \quad (1.59)$$

for all T, \mathcal{A} .

To summarize, a Wigner representation of G is the same thing as a projective unitary representation of the restricted Poincaré group P together with a Wigner representation of Z , such that eq. (1.59) holds.

The rest of this section is devoted to the study of the Wigner representations of the group Z . A Wigner representation of the group Z is the same thing as an assignment to each $\mathcal{A} \in Z$ a Wigner automorphism $A \in \text{Aut}(P\mathcal{H})$ such that

- P is unitarizable and involution (if defined),

- T, C (whichever are defined) are anti-unitarizable and involutive,
- $C = PT = TP$ if all three are defined.

3.3. Wigner representations of $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}$ individually.

PROPOSITION 1.13. *If $P \in PU(\mathcal{H})$ is an involution, then there exists a unitary involution $\mathcal{P} \in U(\mathcal{H})$ such that $P = [\mathcal{P}]$.* ■

PROOF. By the assumption of unitarity, we have $P = [\mathcal{P}_0]$ for a unitary operator \mathcal{P}_0 . Since $P^2 = \text{id}$, this must satisfy $\mathcal{P}_0^2 = cI$ for some $c \in U(1)$. Let $\mathcal{P} = c^{-1/2}\mathcal{P}_0$. (The branch of the square root does not matter.) Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}^2 &= c^{-1/2}\mathcal{P}_0(c^{-1/2}\mathcal{P}_0) \\ &= c^{-1}\mathcal{P}_0^2 = I, \end{aligned} \tag{1.60}$$

which is what it means to be an involution. □

The proof above would not work if \mathcal{P} were *anti-unitary*, because the equality going between the two lines in eq. (1.60) would break. Indeed, if A is anti-unitary, then

$$(c^{-1/2}A)^2 = c^{-1/2}A(c^{-1/2}A) = |c|^{-1}A^2 = A^2 \tag{1.61}$$

whenever $c \in U(1)$ is a phase. Instead:

PROPOSITION 1.14. *Suppose that A is an anti-unitary operator such that $A = [A]$ satisfies $A^2 = 1$. Then, $A^2 = \pm I$.* ■

It is automatic that $A^2 = \omega I$ for some $\omega \in U(1)$. Equation (1.61) shows that we cannot get rid of the phase ω by replacing A with $c^{-1/2}A$ for some $c \in U(1)$. So, ω is actually uniquely determined by A .

PROOF. As mentioned above, we have $A^2 = \omega I$ for some $\omega \in U(1)$. We get a restriction on ω from computing A^3 in two different ways:

$$\begin{aligned} A^3 &= A(A^2) = A(\omega I) = \omega^{-1}A, \\ A^3 &= (A^2)A = (\omega I)A = \omega A. \end{aligned} \tag{1.62}$$

So, $\omega^{-1} = \omega$, which means that $\omega^2 = 1$, so $\omega \in \{-1, +1\}$. □

If $A^2 = I$, then A is a *real structure* on \mathcal{H} . If $A^2 = -I$, it is a *quaternionic structure*. Because the sign of A^2 is an invariant of A , every anti-unitary Wigner transformation comes from a real structure or a quaternionic structure, but not both. Thus, we have two sorts of anti-unitary involutions.

3.4. The tenfold way. Now suppose that our system has *both* mirror and time-reversal symmetry. So, we have Wigner automorphisms P, T , implementing parity and time-reversal, respectively, satisfying the requirements above, including $PT = TP$. These constitute a Wigner representation of $(V_4, C_2 \times \{1\})$. By the discussion above, we have $P \in U(\mathcal{H})$ and $T \in aU(\mathcal{H})$ related to P, T by $P = [\mathcal{P}], T = [\mathcal{T}]$ and satisfying

$$\mathcal{P}^2 = I, \text{ and } \mathcal{T}^2 = \varepsilon_T I \tag{1.63}$$

for some $\varepsilon_T \in \{-1, +1\}$.

The condition $PT = TP$ is equivalent to the existence of $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$ such that

$$\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T} = e^{i\theta}\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}. \tag{1.64}$$

But computing $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}$ in two ways, we get a constraint on θ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T} &= e^{i\theta}\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}^2\mathcal{T} = e^{i\theta}\varepsilon_T I \\ \mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T} &= \mathcal{P}(e^{-i\theta}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T})\mathcal{T} = e^{-i\theta}\mathcal{P}^2\mathcal{T}^2 = e^{-i\theta}\varepsilon_T I, \end{aligned} \tag{1.65}$$

so that $e^{i\theta} = \pm 1$. Let us call this ϵ_{PT} . To summarize: for some $\varepsilon_T, \epsilon_{PT} \in \{-1, +1\}$,

$$\boxed{\mathcal{P}^2 = I, \quad \mathcal{T}^2 = \varepsilon_T I, \quad \mathcal{PT} = \epsilon_{PT} \mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}.} \quad (1.66)$$

The operator $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{PT}$ also has to square to $\pm I$:

$$\mathcal{C}^2 = \mathcal{PT}\mathcal{PT} = \epsilon_{PT} \mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}^2 \mathcal{T} = \epsilon_{PT} \varepsilon_T I. \quad (1.67)$$

So, let

$$\boxed{\varepsilon_C = \epsilon_{PT} \varepsilon_T} \quad (1.68)$$

denote the sign of \mathcal{C}^2 . (Note the typographical difference between ‘ ε ’ and ‘ ϵ .’) We can equally well use $(\varepsilon_T, \varepsilon_C)$, instead of $(\varepsilon_T, \epsilon_{PT})$, to describe the situation. It should be emphasized that $\varepsilon_T, \varepsilon_C$ are *invariants* — they depend only on $P, T \in \text{Aut}(P\mathcal{H})$ (as the notation indicates) and not on the operators \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} used to represent them. Thus, they are invariants of the given Wigner representation, and can be used to classify them.

Each of the four possible cases of $(\varepsilon_T, \varepsilon_C)$ can be realized, already with $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^2$.

What eq. (1.66) tells us is that \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} constitute a (faithful) representation of some group related to the Klein 4-group. We will call the group generated by \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} the “ \mathcal{PT} -group.” Doing the casework, and using conventional labels [nLab25] for the various cases:

- (Class BDI.) If $\varepsilon_T, \varepsilon_C = 1$, then \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} generate the group $\{I, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{PT}\}$, which is just a copy of the Klein 4-group.
- (Class DIII.) If $\varepsilon_T, \varepsilon_C = -1$, then \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} commute but generate a slightly larger group: the \mathcal{PT} -group is

$$\{I, \mathcal{T}, -I, -\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{PT}, -\mathcal{P}, -\mathcal{PT}\}. \quad (1.69)$$

This is a copy of $C_4 \times C_2$, with \mathcal{T} generating the \mathbb{Z}_4 factor $\{I, \mathcal{T}, -I, -\mathcal{T}\}$ and \mathcal{P} generating the C_2 factor $\{I, \mathcal{P}\}$.

- (Class CII.) If $\varepsilon_T = -1$ but $\varepsilon_C = 1$, then \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} no longer commute, but rather anti-commute:

$$\mathcal{PT} = -\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}. \quad (1.70)$$

As a *set*, the \mathcal{PT} -group generated is still given by eq. (1.69), but now the group structure is non-abelian. It turns out to be isomorphic to the dihedral group D_8 :

$$\begin{aligned} D_8 &= \langle x, a : a^4 = x^2 = 1, xax = a^{-1} \rangle \\ &= \{1, x, a, xa, a^2, xa^2, a^3, xa^3\}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.71)$$

The group D_8 can be interpreted as the group of symmetries of a square; x is a reflection across a median, and a is a 90° rotation. An isomorphism with the \mathcal{PT} -group is given by $\mathcal{T} \mapsto a$ and $\mathcal{P} \mapsto x$.

- (Class CI.) If $\varepsilon_T = 1$ and $\varepsilon_C = -1$, then everything in the previous item applies. Just interchange \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C} . The isomorphism between the \mathcal{PT} -group and D_8 is now different, because of the interchange (in particular, $\mathcal{T}^2 = I$). An explicit isomorphism is given by $\mathcal{T} \mapsto xa$ and $\mathcal{P} \mapsto x$.

Altogether, we have ten possibilities, including those without some of $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}$ -symmetry. These possibilities are summarized in Table 1.1. The cases where Z is trivial or the parity group $\{1, P\}$ each contribute a single possibility. The cases where $Z = \{1, A\}$ for $A \in \{T, C\}$ each contribute two possibilities, one for each possible sign ε_A . The case where Z is maximal, $Z = V_4$, contributes four possibilities, one for each possible pair $(\varepsilon_T, \varepsilon_C)$. This sort of tenfold classification is known as a *tenfold way* [Bae20]. Recently, condensed matter theorists working on topological superconductivity have popularized closely related tenfold ways. The one here goes back to Wigner [Wig59].

All of the listed classes appear in physically significant examples. For examples, fermions tend to have $\mathcal{T}^2 = -1$, whereas bosons have $\mathcal{T}^2 = 1$. Breaking symmetries is easy — *chiral* terms in the standard model Lagrangian break parity. Some of these, like the axial vector term in the weak sector,

Class	ε_T	ε_C	ε_P	Cover	Example
A	0	0	0	Trivial	Standard model
AI	+1	0	0	C_2	Fermi theory, bosonic sector
AII	-1	0	0	C_4	Fermi theory, fermionic sector
D	0	+1	0	C_2	Yang–Mills θ -term,
C	0	-1	0	C_4	$\bar{\psi}\sigma^{\mu\nu}\gamma^5\psi F_{\mu\nu}$ -theory
AIII	0	0	1	C_2	$2\Re(e^{i\theta}\phi)$ -theory, $\theta \in (0, \pi/2)$
BDI	+1	+1	1	$V_4 = C_2 \times C_2$	Free spin-0 particle
CI	+1	-1	1	D_8	Symplectic boson
CII	-1	+1	1	D_8	Majorana fermion
DIII	-1	-1	1	$C_4 \times C_2$	Electron

TABLE 1.1. The tenfold classification of Wigner representations of the PT-group ($V_4, C_2 \times \{1\}$) and subgroups thereof. For each generator \mathcal{A} , $\varepsilon_A = \pm 1$ if \mathcal{A} is present and $\varepsilon_A = 0$ otherwise. For $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}$, the sign of ε_A , if nonzero, denotes whether A is implementable by an involution. For $A = P$, it always is. The covering group is the group that the Wigner representation lifts to an ordinary unitary/anti-unitary representation of.

$W_\mu \bar{\psi} \gamma^\mu \gamma^5 \psi$, break parity without breaking time-reversal. Others, like the θ -term $\theta \varepsilon^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} F_{\mu\nu} F_{\alpha\beta}$ break both.

WARNING: Different conventions exist for defining \mathcal{P} , given P . In classes CI, CII, some authors prefer to use $\mathcal{P}_{\text{alt}} = i\mathcal{P}$ instead of \mathcal{P} . This only satisfies $\mathcal{P}_{\text{alt}}^4 = I$, not $\mathcal{P}_{\text{alt}}^2 = I$, but it has the advantage that it commutes with time-reversal:

$$\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}_{\text{alt}} = \mathcal{T}i\mathcal{P} = -i\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P} = i\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}_{\text{alt}}\mathcal{T}. \quad (1.72)$$

For example, when physicists say that the parity of a Majorana spinor is $\pm i$, this is the convention they are following.

3.5. Classification of Wigner representations within each way. The tenfold way here is *not* a complete classification of the Wigner representations of V_4 or subgroups thereof. A single “way” in the tenfold way can apply to more than one possible representation of Z via Wigner automorphisms. An obvious exception is class A, describing a system with none of the extra symmetries $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}$. We will see below that all of the classes except AIII, BDI, and DIII have a unique representation, modulo equivalence, on each \mathcal{H} , if a representation exists at all.

Consider class AIII, a system with chiral symmetry but neither \mathcal{T} nor \mathcal{C} symmetry. We saw that any Wigner representation in this class lifts to an ordinary unitary representation of $C_2 = \{I, \mathcal{P}\}$. There are two different irreps of C_2 , the one-dimensional representations where $\mathcal{P} = \pm 1$. Call these $\mathbf{1}_\pm$. The two irreps are said to differ in terms of parity; $\mathbf{1}_+$ is even parity, $\mathbf{1}_-$ is odd. The most general finite-dimensional representation, modulo equivalence, is

$$\mathbf{1}_-^{N_-} \oplus \mathbf{1}_+^{N_+}, \quad (1.73)$$

where $N_\pm \in \mathbb{N}$. (The infinite-dimensional cases are analogous.)

Consider now classes AI, AII, D, and C. Regardless of $\dim \mathcal{H}$ (recall this is the complex dimension), then the only representation of classes AI and D modulo equivalence is: $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}^N$, $\mathcal{A} = * \otimes I_N$, where $\mathcal{A} = [\mathcal{A}]$ is whichever of \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C} is in Z . If $\dim \mathcal{H} = 2N$ is even, then we have the following unique representation in classes AII and C: $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{H}^N$, $\mathcal{A} = j$ where \mathbb{H} is the quaternions, considered as a complex vector space. Here, $j \in \mathbb{H}$ is a unit quaternion anti-commuting with i and satisfying $j^2 = -1$. This is a complex-antilinear map, acting on \mathbb{H}^N , since $jaq = aqj$ and

$j(iaq) = -iajq$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $q \in \mathbb{H}$. If $\dim \mathcal{H} < \infty$ is odd, then we have no representation of classes AII and C.

Classes BDI and DIII are similarly easy, since \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{T} commute. A representation in these classes is just a combination (really, a tensoring) of the possibilities above. Regardless of $\dim \mathcal{H}$, we have a representation of class BDI: $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} (\mathbb{R}^{N_-} \oplus \mathbb{R}^{N_+})$, $\mathcal{T} = * \otimes I$, and

$$\mathcal{P} = 1 \otimes \begin{bmatrix} -I_{N_-} & 0 \\ 0 & 1_{N_+} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1.74)$$

If $\dim \mathcal{H} = 2N$ is even, then we have the following representation of class DIII: $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{H}^{N_-} \oplus \mathbb{H}^{N_+}$, $\mathcal{T} = j$, and

$$\mathcal{P} = \begin{bmatrix} -\text{id}_{\mathbb{H}^{N_-}} & 0 \\ 0 & \text{id}_{\mathbb{H}^{N_+}} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1.75)$$

These are the only possibilities, modulo equivalence. The comments above regarding absolute vs. relative parity apply here as well; $\mathcal{P}, -\mathcal{P}$ define the same Wigner representation, so should not be considered inequivalent.

Classes CI, CII are more interesting, since \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} now anti-commute. In terms of the \mathcal{P} -action, $\mathcal{H} = \mathbf{1}_-^{N_-} \oplus \mathbf{1}_+^{N_+}$. We can identify this with $\mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} (\mathbb{R}^{N_-} \oplus \mathbb{R}^{N_+})$. Then,

$$\mathcal{P} = 1 \otimes \begin{bmatrix} -I_{N_-} & 0 \\ 0 & I_{N_+} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1.76)$$

The anti-commutation $\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P} = -\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}$ tells us that $\mathcal{T} = * \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathcal{T}_{-+} \\ \mathcal{T}_{+-} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, where $\mathcal{T}_{\pm\mp} : \mathbf{1}_{\pm}^{N_{\pm}} \rightarrow \mathbf{1}_{\mp}^{N_{\mp}}$ are two *unitary* maps. This forces $N_- = N_+$. Call their shared value N . Without loss of generality, we can assume that $\mathcal{T}_{-+} = I_N$. Thus,

$$\mathcal{T}^2 = 1 \otimes \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{T}_{+-} & 0 \\ 0 & \mathcal{T}_{-+} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1.77)$$

We can therefore read off \mathcal{T}_{+-} :

- In class CI, $\mathcal{T}^2 = I$, so $\mathcal{T}_{+-} = I_N$, and thus $\mathcal{T} = * \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I_N \\ I_N & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.
- In class CII, $\mathcal{T}^2 = -I$, so $\mathcal{T}_{+-} = -I_N$, and thus $\mathcal{T} = * \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I_N \\ -I_N & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

These indeed define representations in the desired classes, the unique ones of the given dimension, modulo equivalence.

Class	Space hosting irrep	irrep
A	$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}$	Trivial
AI	$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}$	$\mathcal{T} = *$
AII	$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{H}$	$\mathcal{T} = j$
D	$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}$	$\mathcal{C} = *$
C	$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{H}$	$\mathcal{C} = j$
AIII	$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}$	$\mathcal{P} = \pm 1$
BDI	$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}$	$\mathcal{T} = *, \mathcal{P} = \pm 1$
CI	$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}^2$	$\mathcal{T} = * \otimes \sigma_1, \mathcal{P} = 1 \otimes \sigma_3$
CII	$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{R}^2$	$\mathcal{T} = * \otimes i\sigma_2, \mathcal{P} = 1 \otimes \sigma_3$
DIII	$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{H}$	$\mathcal{T} = j, \mathcal{P} = \pm 1$

TABLE 1.2. The irreps found above. Each Wigner representation of the stated classes is induced (possibly non-uniquely) by a direct sum of irreps of the stated forms. In this table, $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$ are the three Pauli matrices (eq. (A.1)).

WARNING: Not all of the possibilities above describe distinct Wigner representations. For example, every case with $\dim \mathcal{H} = 1$ is identical, since then $P\mathcal{H}$ is a singleton.

Also, in the classes AIII, BDI, and DIII, replacing \mathcal{P} with $-\mathcal{P}$ leads to the same Wigner representation, since $[\mathcal{P}] = [-\mathcal{P}]$. As a consequence, only *relative* parity is defined. In quantum field theory, everyone agrees that the vacuum state has even parity, so parities of states involving an even number of spinors are defined relative to that. The univalence superselection rule (see §D) forbids superposing states with an odd number of fermions with the vacuum, so the parities of spinor states are only defined relative to each other.

A. More about special relativity

A.1. Inertial frames of reference. Consider an observer moving at some velocity $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ relative to some fiducial reference frame (the “laboratory frame”). The term *inertial frame of reference* refers to the standpoint of such an observer.

REMARK: More accurately, you should imagine a frame of reference as consisting of an army of comoving experimentalists, spread throughout space, each equipped with their own clock (all of which are synchronized from their collective point-of-view) and instructed to record the times of events occurring at their location. Then, for an event to occur at $(t, \mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ means that the observer whom they perceive to be at location $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ records a hit when their clock reads time $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let’s call the moving observer Moe, and a scientist working in the lab frame Larry. One difference between the two observers is that they might not agree to synchronize their clocks. Let $a^0 \in \mathbb{R}$ be the time, according to Larry’s clock, when Moe’s clock reads $t = 0$. Moe’s worldline, the path they trace out in spacetime from the perspective of Larry, is

$$\Gamma = \{(t, t\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{a}_0) : t \in \mathbb{R}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{1,d}, \quad (1.78)$$

where \mathbf{a}_0 is their position at time $t = 0$. We are measuring velocity in units relative to the speed of light (“natural units”), so

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| < 1 \quad (1.79)$$

imposes the physical requirement that Moe be moving slower than the speed of light. Let $\mathbf{a} = a^0\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{a}_0$. We combine this with a^0 to form

$$a = (a^0, \mathbf{a}) \in \Gamma. \quad (1.80)$$

This is Larry’s description of the point that Moe labels as the spacetime origin.

Conceivably, Larry and Moe could be using different Cartesian directions to coordinate space — what one labels as the “ x^1 -direction” could be labeled by the other as the “ x^2 -direction” — but this just amounts to a spatial rotation, and we understand these. So, let us assume the following “no rotation” condition: any event that Larry perceives at $(0, \mathbf{y})$ for $\mathbf{y} \perp \mathbf{v}$ will be perceived by Moe at $(t', \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{a} + w\mathbf{v})$, for some $t', w \in \mathbb{R}$.

In summary: an inertial frame of reference (barring rotations) is specified by two pieces of data, $(\mathbf{v}, a) \in \mathbb{B}^d \times \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, Moe’s velocity and his spacetime origin. **Q.** If Larry perceives an event as occurring at spacetime coordinates $x \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, at what spacetime coordinates will Moe perceive that event?

Let $T : \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ denote the map such that if Larry perceives an event at x , Moe perceives the same event at $T(x)$. We know the following:

- (i) The spacetime point labeled a by Larry will be labeled 0 by Moe, so $T(a) = 0$.
- (ii) The worldline Γ will be described as the time axis $\mathcal{T} = \{(t, \mathbf{0}) : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ by Moe, so $T(\Gamma) = \mathcal{T}$,
- (iii) If $\mathbf{y} \perp \mathbf{v}$, then $T(0, \mathbf{y}) = (t', \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{a} + w\mathbf{v})$ for some $t', w \in \mathbb{R}$.
- (iv) T preserves the arrow of time and spatial orientations.

These are the only reasonable requirements, besides that Moe should be using the same laws of physics as Larry. Consider the restricted Poincaré transformation

$$T_0 : (t, \mathbf{x}) \mapsto T_{\Lambda(-\mathbf{v})} T_{-a} \quad (1.81)$$

This obeys (i), (ii), (iii), and (iv). In fact, it is the unique Poincaré transformation with these properties. “Covariance” is a technical term meaning retaining form under a coordinate transformation. A consequence of the Poincaré-covariance of the laws of physics is that Moe can adequately describe the world using the coordinates furnished by T_0 . A corollary is that the moving observer Moe cannot tell that it is he that is moving, not Larry. There may exist no objectively correct answer to the question as to which observer is moving.

Special relativity is often expressed as the slightly stronger requirement that Moe will *perceive* at $T_0(x)$ an event that Larry perceives at x . This is a consequence of another assumption: that, besides being Poincaré-covariant, the laws of physics are not covariant under a larger group of spacetime symmetries. The map T_0 is not the only affine transformation satisfying the three properties above — consider, for $Z > 0$, the scaling transformation $T_Z : (t, \mathbf{x}) \mapsto (Zt, Z\mathbf{x})$. Unless $Z = 1$, this is *not* a Poincaré transformation. But, like T_0 ,

$$T_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} T_Z T_{\Lambda(-\mathbf{v})} T_{-a} \quad (1.82)$$

also satisfies properties (i), (ii), and (iii), and therefore serves as a candidate coordinate transformation. Why shouldn’t Moe use the coordinate system derived from T_1 , instead of T_0 , to describe the world?

The answer is: the very fact that we have the ability to measure distances and durations means that nontrivial dilations cannot be symmetries of the laws of physics. This is implicit in the way that we talk about frames of reference. When we ask how an observer perceives the world, we are assuming that there exists an unambiguous answer. Consequently, there exists exactly one adequate T , namely $T = T_0$.

Scaling symmetries are typically symmetries of theories involving only massless particles. A creature made entirely of massless particles would not be able to measure distances or durations. This applies to light. Since light is massless, the symmetry group of classical electrodynamics *without matter* (!) is the full conformal group, including the scaling symmetries T_Z . This means that the behavior of light is not by itself sufficient to derive special relativity. Fortunately, scaling is not a symmetry of theories involving massive particles. The existence of massive charged particles like the electron allows us to design clocks and rulers that, together with the behavior of light, single out Poincaré-covariance.

B. Poincaré Lie algebra [*]

Physicists almost always work at the level of the complexified Poincaré Lie algebra $\mathfrak{p}_{\mathbb{C}}$ rather than the Lie group.

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathsf{P}^\mu, \mathsf{P}^\nu] &= 0, \\ i[\mathsf{M}^{\mu\nu}, \mathsf{P}^\rho] &= \eta^{\mu\rho}\mathsf{P}^\nu - \eta^{\nu\rho}\mathsf{P}^\mu, \\ i[\mathsf{M}^{\mu\nu}, \mathsf{M}^{\rho\sigma}] &= \eta^{\mu\rho}\mathsf{M}^{\nu\sigma} - \eta_{\mu\sigma}\mathsf{M}^{\nu\rho} - \eta_{\nu\rho}\mathsf{M}^{\mu\sigma} + \eta_{\nu\sigma}\mathsf{M}^{\mu\rho}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.83)$$

In terms of the rotation generators $J^{k\ell} = M^{k\ell}$, boost generators $K^j = M^{0j}$, and “Hamiltonian” $H = P^0$, this reads

$$\begin{aligned} [H, P^j] &= [H, J^{km}] = [P^j, P^k] = 0, \\ i[J^{jk}, J^{lm}] &= \delta^{km} J^{jl} - \delta^{jm} J^{kl} - \delta^{kl} J^{jm} + \delta^{jl} J^{km}, \\ i[J^{jk}, P^l] &= \delta^{kl} P^j - \delta^{jl} P^k, \\ i[J^{jk}, K^l] &= \delta^{kl} K^j - \delta^{jl} K^k, \\ i[K^j, H] &= -P^j, \quad i[K^j, P^k] = -\delta^{jk} H, \quad i[K^j, K^k] = J^{jk}. \end{aligned} \tag{1.84}$$

When $d = 3$, this can be written using $J^k = \varepsilon_{jk\ell} J^{\ell m}$, where $\varepsilon_{jk\ell}$ is the Levi–Civita symbol. I.e. $(J^1, J^2, J^3) = (J^{23}, J^{31}, J^{12})$. Then, the Lie algebra reads

$$\begin{aligned} [H, P^j] &= [H, J^{km}] = [P^j, P^k] = 0, \\ i[J^j, J^k] &= -\epsilon_{jkl} J^l, \\ i[J^j, P^k] &= -\epsilon_{jkl} P^l, \\ i[J^j, K^k] &= -\epsilon_{jkl} K^l, \\ i[K^j, H] &= -P^j, \\ i[K^j, P^k] &= -\delta^{jk} H, \\ i[K^j, K^k] &= \epsilon_{jkl} J^l. \end{aligned} \tag{1.85}$$

C. More on the Poincaré group

C.1. Dimensions. The dimension of the Lorentz group $O(1, d)$ is

$$\dim O(1, d) = \dim P(1, d) - d - 1 = \frac{d^2}{2} + \frac{d}{2}. \tag{1.86}$$

In the physical case, $d = 3$, this is $\dim O(1, d) = 6$. Three of these dimensions are from the subgroup of rotations and three from the boosts. Rotations outnumber boosts for $d \geq 4$, and boosts outnumber rotations if $d = 1, 2$.

Since $SO(d)$ has dimension $d(d - 1)/2$, the Poincaré group has dimension

$$\dim P(1, d) = \frac{d^2}{2} + \frac{3d}{2} + 1. \tag{1.87}$$

In the physical case, $d = 3$, this is $\dim P(1, d) = 10$. Four of these dimensions are from the subgroup of translations and the remaining six are from the subgroup of Lorentz transformations.

For the Lie algebras, see [Wei05, §2.4].

C.2. Topology. A Lorentz matrix Λ is called

- (i) *orthochronous* if $\Lambda^0{}_0 > 0$, where $\Lambda^0{}_0$ is the upper-leftmost entry of Λ ,
- (ii) *orthochorous* if $\det \Lambda > 0$, where $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ consists of the bottom-right d -by- d submatrix of Λ ,
- (iii) *special* if $\det \Lambda > 0$, which, by eq. (1.26), means $\det \Lambda = 1$.

An orthochronous Lorentz matrix is one which preserves the arrow of time, and an orthochorous Lorentz matrix is one which preserves spatial orientation. A special Lorentz matrix is one which preserves spacetime orientations.

Among $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}$, the only orthochronous matrix is \mathcal{P} , the only orthochorous matrix is \mathcal{T} , and the only special matrix is \mathcal{C} .

PROPOSITION 1.15. *For any Lorentz matrix Λ , $|\Lambda^0{}_0| \geq 1$.*

■

PROOF. Let $N = (1, 0, 0, \dots)$. This satisfies $N^2 = -1$. Since Λ is a Lorentz matrix, $(\Lambda N)^2 = N^2 = -1$ as well;

$$\Lambda N = (\Lambda^0{}_0, \vec{\Lambda}) \quad (1.88)$$

is the first column of Λ ; letting $\vec{\Lambda} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ denote the spatial part, $(\Lambda N)^2 = -|\Lambda^0{}_0|^2 + \|\vec{\Lambda}\|^2$. Setting the left-hand side to -1 , we get

$$|\Lambda^0{}_0|^2 = 1 + \|\vec{\Lambda}\|^2 \geq 1. \quad (1.89)$$

□

SECOND PROOF. We know that $\Lambda = \mathcal{T}^\eta R \Lambda(\mathbf{v})$ for some $\eta \in \{0, 1\}$, $R \in O(d)$, and $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{B}^d$. Thus,

$$\Lambda^0{}_0 = N^\top \Lambda N = \pm N^\top \Lambda(\mathbf{v}) N = \pm \gamma, \quad (1.90)$$

where $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1 - \|\mathbf{v}\|^2} \geq 1$ is the Lorentz factor.

□

PROPOSITION 1.16. *For any Lorentz matrix Λ , $|\det \Lambda| \geq 1$.* ■

PROOF. Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ be a unit vector, and $x = (0, \mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$. Then $x^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 = 1$. Since Λ is Lorentz, $(\Lambda x)^2 = x^2 = 1$ as well. The spatial component of Λx is $\Lambda \mathbf{x}$, so

$$1 = (\Lambda x)^2 \leq \|\Lambda \mathbf{x}\|^2. \quad (1.91)$$

Since \mathbf{x} was an arbitrary unit vector, this implies that every eigenvalue λ of Λ has $|\lambda| \geq 1$. As $\det \Lambda$ is the product of the eigenvalues of Λ (with multiplicity), $|\det \Lambda| \geq 1$ follows. □

PROPOSITION 1.17. *Let \bullet stand for “orthochronous,” “orthochorous,” or “special.” Let C be a connected component of $O(1, d)$. If one matrix in C is \bullet , then all are.* ■

PROOF. The three maps $\Lambda \mapsto \Lambda^0{}_0$, $\det \Lambda$, $\det \Lambda$ are all continuous functions $O(1, d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. By the results above, they are non-vanishing, so they cannot swap signs on any connected component of $O(1, d)$. □

Since the identity matrix \mathcal{I} is orthochronous, orthochorous, and special, we conclude that matrices in the same connected component are as well. This shows that $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}$ are not in the identity component $SO(d)$.

PROPOSITION 1.18. (a) *A Lorentz matrix lies in the identity component of the Lorentz group if it is orthochronous, orthochorous, and special.*
(b) *Any two of these imply the third.*

■

PROOF. This follows from the representation theorem $\Lambda = \mathcal{T}^\xi \mathcal{P}^\eta R \Lambda(\mathbf{v})$ holding for general Lorentz matrices. Since $SO(d)$ is connected, $R \Lambda(\mathbf{v})$ lies in the same connected component as the pure boost $\Lambda(\mathbf{v})$, which lies in the same connected component as \mathcal{I} (just take $\mathbf{v} \rightsquigarrow 0$). Thus, $R \Lambda(\mathbf{v})$ is orthochronous, orthochorous, and special. Multiplying this by one of $\mathcal{T}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}$ on the left ruins two of these. So, the only way Λ can be two or three is if $\Lambda = R \Lambda(\mathbf{v})$. □

Let

$$\begin{aligned} O_\uparrow(1, d) &= \{\Lambda \in O(1, d) : \Lambda^0{}_0 > 0\}, \\ O^+(1, d) &= \{\Lambda \in O(1, d) : \det \Lambda > 0\}, \\ SO(1, d) &= \{\Lambda \in O(1, d) : \det \Lambda = 1\}, \end{aligned} \quad (1.92)$$

denote the subsets of $O(1, d)$ consisting of orthochronous, orthochorous, and special Lorentz matrices, respectively. By what we have discussed so far, each of these subsets consists of a disjoint union of components of the Lorentz group. It follows that they are all subgroups, and subgroups of index two. (This can also be checked algebraically.) Each is generated by the restricted Lorentz matrices together with whichever of $\mathcal{A} \in \{\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C}\}$ it contains.

The decompositions $T = T_a T_\Lambda$ and $T_\Lambda = T_R T_{\Lambda(\mathbf{v})}$ yield:

PROPOSITION 1.19. • $P(1, d)$ is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^{1+d} \times SO(1, d)$,
• $SO(1, d)$ is homeomorphic to $\mathbb{R}^d \times SO(d)$.

■□

Consequently,

$$\pi_1(P(1, d)) \cong \pi_1(SO(d)) \cong \begin{cases} \text{trivial} & (d = 1), \\ \mathbb{Z} & (d = 2), \\ \mathbb{Z}_2 & (d \geq 3). \end{cases} \quad (1.93)$$

C.3. The Haar measure [*].

PROPOSITION 1.20. *The left Haar measure on each of the groups $G = P, P^*, SO(1, d)$, $Spin(1, d)$ is also right-invariant.* ■

D. Superselection rules

If we are given two unitary representations $\rho : G \rightarrow U(\mathcal{V})$, $\varrho : G \rightarrow U(\mathcal{W})$ of some group, then we can form their direct sum

$$\rho \oplus \varrho : G \rightarrow U(\mathcal{V} \oplus \mathcal{W}). \quad (1.94)$$

The Hilbert space $\mathcal{V} \oplus \mathcal{W}$ is used to model a system whose state can lie in either summand, \mathcal{V} or \mathcal{W} , or be a quantum superposition thereof. The matrices in the image of the combined representation $\rho \oplus \varrho$ are block diagonal:

$$(\rho \oplus \varrho)(g) = \begin{bmatrix} \rho(g) & 0 \\ 0 & \varrho(g) \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1.95)$$

That is, they lie in the image of the natural embedding $U(\mathcal{V}) \times U(\mathcal{W}) \hookrightarrow U(\mathcal{V} \oplus \mathcal{W})$.

Projective unitary representations, in contrast, cannot generally be summed (unless we are willing to enlarge our group G). The reason is that we lack a natural embedding

$$PU(\mathcal{V}) \times PU(\mathcal{W}) \hookrightarrow PU(\mathcal{V} \oplus \mathcal{W}). \quad (1.96)$$

The natural attempt, $([V], [W]) \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} V & 0 \\ 0 & W \end{bmatrix}$, is not well-defined because

$$id_{\mathcal{V}} \oplus e^{i\theta} id_{\mathcal{W}} = \begin{pmatrix} id_{\mathcal{V}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta} id_{\mathcal{W}} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.97)$$

is not a scalar multiple of $id_{\mathcal{V} \oplus \mathcal{W}}$ if $e^{i\theta} \neq 1$.

EXAMPLE 1.21. Consider the double cover $\pi : SU(2) \twoheadrightarrow SO(3)$. Because $\ker \pi = \{I_2, -I_2\}$ is in the center of $SU(2)$ (this is a general property of the kernels of covering maps), Schur's lemma tells us that, in any irreducible unitary representation of $SU(2)$, both $I_2, -I_2$ are mapped to scalars. Consequently, we get a projective unitary representation of $SO(3)$.

We have two classes of $SU(2)$ -irreps:

- those, like the trivial representation, where $-I_2$ is mapped to the identity I ,
- those, like the fundamental representation, where $-I_2$ is mapped to $-I$.

If we take a direct sum of irreps in *one* of these classes — it can be either class, but all of the irreps have to be from the same class — then $-I_2$ is still mapped to a scalar, and so the $SU(2)$ -rep factors through to a projective unitary representation of $SO(3)$. *But*, if we take a direct sum of irreps from *both* classes, then $-I_2$ is not mapped to a scalar, and it follows that the resulting $SU(2)$ -rep does not factor through. ■

This is the motivation for superselection rules. It is an empirical fact that spinors exist. One would like to construct a theory in which one-particle spinor states coexist with the vacuum. But the corresponding projective space does not admit a projective representation of the Poincaré group. The problem consists of states involving a quantum superposition of states with an even number of spinors with one with an odd number of spinors. For example, consider the vacuum $|\emptyset\rangle$ and a one-electron state $|e\rangle$. Under a 360° rotation,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\emptyset\rangle + |e\rangle) \rightsquigarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\emptyset\rangle - |e\rangle). \quad (1.98)$$

These vectors are *not* linearly dependent, so they span different states $\in P\mathcal{H}$.

Q. So why does the world appear to be Lorentz invariant? **A.** Because the offending superpositions are not seen in nature.

The interactions present in the standard model of particle physics guarantee that spinors are only created in pairs. This is one way in which Lorentz invariance is preserved. So, we have three choices.

- (1) Declare that the actual state space consists *either* of only states in which the parity of the spinor number is even, or states in which the parity is odd.
- (2) Accept that Lorentz invariance might hold only at the level of experimental predictions, not the state space.
- (3) Cut down the state space by excluding the offending superpositions. This is known as the *univalence* superselection rule [WWW52; SW00].

Until we observe some failure of Lorentz invariance, the choice between these possibilities is an aesthetic one. The first is unappealing because it implies the existence of two different theories, one in which the total number of spinors in the universe is even, and one in which the total number is odd. Good luck figuring out which holds! Regarding the second possibility, manifest Lorentz symmetry is a great simplification arguably not worth abandoning due to the conceivability of quantum superpositions never found in nature. Our preference is (3), but no consensus exists [Ear08]. Physicists seem to like (2), replacing manifest Lorentz covariance with manifest $\text{Spin}(1, 3)$ covariance. Nonobservability of problematic superpositions then amounts to a conservation law and concomitant restriction on practical observables.

More generally, a model with superselection rules in force is one in which the state space is defined to be a disjoint union of projectivizations of Hilbert spaces:

$$\text{state space} = P\mathcal{H}[1] \sqcup P\mathcal{H}[2] \sqcup \dots \quad (1.99)$$

The choice between the different components

$$\mathcal{H}[n] \subsetneq \mathcal{H} \quad (1.100)$$

(*superselection sectors*) is a classical OR, not a quantum OR. The system must lie in some definite superselection sector. No quantum superpositions between the different possibilities are allowed. Thus, the univalence superselection rule accommodates possibility (1) above at the level of the state space. The theory of symmetries of quantum systems with superselection rules is developed in parallel to the version without superselection rules — see [SW00, Thm. 1.1]. The only new complication is that symmetries can permute superselection sectors, but we do not need to consider this possibility.

In the C*-algebra framework for quantum mechanics (which we have not broached), the existence of multiple superselection sectors can become a theorem holding for various models. This applies to QED, where the superselection sectors are labeled by the total charge Q . A rigorous result to this effect is due to Strocchi–Wightman [SW74], but the basic idea goes back to Haag [Haa63]: letting ρ

denote the charge density and \mathbf{E} denote the electric field, we should have

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{|\mathbf{x}| < R} \rho(t, \mathbf{x}) d^3\mathbf{x} = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{|\mathbf{x}| < R} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}(t, \mathbf{x}) d^3\mathbf{x} \\ &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{|\mathbf{x}| = R} \mathbf{E}(t, \mathbf{x}) \cdot dA(\mathbf{x}), \end{aligned} \quad (1.101)$$

using $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \rho$. This is Gauss's law. Consequently, for any observable O , one expects

$$[Q, O] = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{|\mathbf{x}| = R} [\mathbf{E}(t, \mathbf{x}), O] \cdot dA(\mathbf{x}). \quad (1.102)$$

But, if observables are local things, then, if we take R large enough, $[\mathbf{E}(t, \mathbf{x}), O] = 0$. So, $[Q, O] = 0$. The main task taken up by Strocchi–Wightman is showing that the foregoing reasoning can be rigorized.

In non-abelian gauge theories, topological properties of field configurations are also expected to constitute superselection sectors. An example is the θ -angle in QCD [Col85, §7.3.3].

Exercises and Problems

EXERCISE 1.1: For $v \in (-1, 1)$, define the *rapidity* $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ by $v = \tanh \beta$. Show that the standard boost $\Lambda_{\text{std}}(v)$ defined in eq. (1.14) can be written

$$\Lambda_{\text{std}}(v) = \begin{bmatrix} \cosh \beta & -\sinh \beta & 0 \\ -\sinh \beta & \cosh \beta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_{d-1} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1.103)$$

This is a “hyperbolic rotation.”

EXERCISE 1.2: (a) Prove that $\Lambda_{\text{std}}(v)$ preserves the Minkowski interval, hence lies in the Lorentz group.
(b) Let $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$. Show that

$$\Lambda(\mathbf{v}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & R \end{bmatrix} \Lambda_{\text{std}}(\|\mathbf{v}\|) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & R^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.104)$$

for $R \in O(3)$ any orthogonal transformation that takes $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (1, 0, \dots)$ to $\hat{\mathbf{v}} = \mathbf{v}/\|\mathbf{v}\|$. So, $\Lambda(\mathbf{v})$ lies in the Lorentz group as well.

EXERCISE 1.3: Let $v, u \in (-1, 1)$. Show the following:

- $-1 < (v + u)/(1 + vu) < 1$.
-

$$\Lambda_{\text{std}}(v)\Lambda_{\text{std}}(u) = \Lambda\left(\frac{v + u}{1 + vu}\right). \quad (1.105)$$

This is the *velocity addition formula* (for collinear boosts).

In particular, $\Lambda_{\text{std}}(v)^{-1} = \Lambda_{\text{std}}(-v)$.

Hint: the use of rapidities is very convenient here.

EXERCISE 1.4: Let \mathcal{H} denote an infinite-dimensional (separable, as always) Hilbert space over $\mathbb{K} \in \{\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}\}$.

- (a) Show that the strong and weak operator topologies agree on $U(\mathcal{H})$.
- (b) Show that $U(\mathcal{H})$ is a topological group under the strong/weak operator topology.
- (c) Explain why, when $P(U(\mathcal{H}))$ is endowed with the quotient topology, it is also a topological group.

EXERCISE 1.5: For each $a \in \mathbb{R}$, let $T_a \in U(L^2(\mathbb{R}))$ be the map

$$T_a \psi(x) = \psi(x - a) \quad (1.106)$$

that translates functions to the right by a units. Is the map $a \mapsto T_a$ continuous with respect to the strong operator topology? Uniform operator topology?

EXERCISE 1.6: Let \mathcal{T} denote an anti-unitary operator on \mathcal{H} such that $\mathcal{T}^2 = \varepsilon I$ for $\varepsilon = \pm 1$. If $\varepsilon = +1$, use \mathcal{T} to write \mathcal{H} as the complexification of some real subspace. If $\varepsilon = -1$, use \mathcal{T} to endow \mathcal{H} with the structure of a left \mathbb{H} -module.

EXERCISE 1.7: When working with spinors in 1+3 spacetime dimensions, the time-reversal operator \mathcal{T} satisfies $\mathcal{T}^2 = -I$.

- (a) Suppose one has a parity operator \mathcal{P} satisfying $\mathcal{P}^2 = I$ and commuting with \mathcal{T} . According to Table 1.1, in which tenfold way class do we land?
- (b) When working with Majorana spinors, physicists like to define the parity operator \mathcal{P} so that it commutes with \mathcal{T} but satisfies $\mathcal{P}^2 = -I$. Let $\tilde{\mathcal{P}} = i\mathcal{P}$. Show that $\mathcal{T}, \tilde{\mathcal{P}}$ anti-commute. Using Table 1.1, determine which tenfold way class this spinor system falls into, when analyzed using the pair $(\mathcal{T}, \tilde{\mathcal{P}})$.

PROBLEM 1.1: Prove rigorously that

- $O(1, d)$ is a Lie subgroup of $GL(1+d, \mathbb{R})$
- $P(1, d)$ is a Lie subgroup of $Aff(\mathbb{R}^{1,d})$.

While you are at it, prove eq. (1.86), eq. (1.87).

PROBLEM 1.2:

- (a) (Optional.) Show that any bijection $T : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ preserving the Euclidean distance must have the form $\mathbf{x} \mapsto R\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{a}$ for some $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $R \in O(d)$.

Let $T : \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ denote a bijection preserving the Minkowski interval $d(x, y) = (x - y)^2$, i.e. a Minkowski isometry. Our goal is to show that T is affine.

- (b) Reduce the general case to the case where T fixes the spacetime origin.

Now assume that T fixes the spacetime origin. Our goal is to show that T is *linear*.

- (c) Let $\mathbf{e} = (1, \mathbf{0})$. Show that there exists a boost $\Lambda(\mathbf{v})$ such that $\mathcal{T}^j \Lambda(\mathbf{v}) \mathbf{e} = T(\mathbf{e})$, for $j = 0, 1$. So, $\Lambda(\mathbf{v})^{-1} T$ is a Minkowski isometry fixing \mathbf{e} .
- (d) Let $\Sigma = \{(0, \mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$. Show that if T is any Minkowski isometry fixing \mathbf{e} and the spacetime origin, then there exists some $R \in O(d)$ such that $T|_{\Sigma} = R$.
- (e) Then,

$$T_0 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} R^{-1} \Lambda(\mathbf{v})^{-1} \mathcal{T}^j T$$

is a Minkowski isometry which fixes the spacetime origin, \mathbf{e} , and Σ . Show that T_0 is the identity.

So, $T = \mathcal{T}^j \Lambda(\mathbf{v}) R$ is linear. This also shows that the time-reflection and parity operators, spacetime translations, boosts, and rotations together generate the full Poincaré group.

PROBLEM 1.3: Let $\mathbb{B}^d = \{\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d : \|\mathbf{v}\| < 1\}$.

- (a) (Velocity addition formula.) Show that, for any $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{B}^d$ (not necessarily collinear!),

$$\Lambda(\mathbf{v}) \Lambda(\mathbf{u}) = W \Lambda(\mathbf{v} \oplus \mathbf{u}) \quad (1.107)$$

for some $W \in SO(3)$, where

$$\mathbf{v} \oplus \mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{1 + \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}} \left[\left(1 + \frac{\gamma}{\gamma + 1} \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \right) \mathbf{v} + \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\gamma} \right] \quad (1.108)$$

and $\gamma = \gamma(\mathbf{v})$ is the Lorentz factor associated to \mathbf{v} . Prove that $\mathbf{v} \oplus \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{B}^d$.

(b) Show that

$$\gamma(\mathbf{u} \oplus \mathbf{v}) = \gamma(\mathbf{u})\gamma(\mathbf{v})(1 + \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}). \quad (1.109)$$

(c) Show that $\mathbf{u} \oplus \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{v} \oplus \mathbf{u}$ in general, but they have the same magnitude.

PROBLEM 1.4: This problem continues Problem 1.3. The rotation W is called a *Thomas–Wigner rotation*. Prove that, if \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} are non-collinear, then W is a rotation of the plane in which \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} lie by an angle $\epsilon \in (-\pi, \pi)$ satisfying

$$\cos \epsilon = \frac{(1 + \gamma(\mathbf{u}) + \gamma(\mathbf{v}) + \gamma(\mathbf{v} \oplus \mathbf{u}))^2}{(1 + \gamma(\mathbf{v} \oplus \mathbf{u}))(1 + \gamma(\mathbf{u}))(1 + \gamma(\mathbf{v}))} - 1. \quad (1.110)$$

Moreover, the correct sign is the one such that W rotates \mathbf{u} towards \mathbf{v} .

PROBLEM 1.5: Consider the matrix exponential

$$e^\Lambda = \sum_{j=1} \frac{\Lambda^j}{j!}.$$

Prove that this is a surjective map $\mathfrak{o}(1, 3) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(1, 3)$. *Hint:* consensus is that no short proof of this exists. You may wish to use the double cover $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C}) \twoheadrightarrow \mathrm{SO}(1, 3)$ that we discuss in the next lecture.

CHAPTER 2

Deprojectivization

In the previous lecture, we defined the notion of a relativistic quantum system in $d \in \mathbb{N}^+$ spatial dimensions: a (continuous) projective unitary representation $\rho : P(1, d) \rightarrow PU(\mathcal{H})$ of the restricted Poincaré group $P(1, d)$. In this lecture, we present:

THEOREM (Wigner–Bargmann [Wig39; Bar54]). *If $d \geq 2$, then ρ can be lifted to an ordinary unitary representation of the universal cover $\pi : P^*(1, d) \twoheadrightarrow P(1, d)$.* ■

Classifying the projective unitary representations of the restricted Poincaré group is thereby reduced to the more amenable problem of classifying *ordinary* unitary representations of a slightly bigger group,

$$P^*(1, d) = \mathbb{R}^{1, d} \rtimes \widetilde{SO(1, d)}. \quad (2.1)$$

To this latter problem, the ample mathematical tools of linear representation theory apply. This will be the topic of the next chapter.

We will call $P^*(1, d)$ the *universal* Poincaré group, for lack of standard terminology. The Lorentz part of this is

$$\widetilde{SO(1, d)} \cong \begin{cases} \widetilde{SL(2, \mathbb{R})} & (d = 2), \\ \text{Spin}(1, d) & (d \geq 3). \end{cases} \quad (2.2)$$

“Universal” is synonymous with *spinorial* if $d \geq 3$, in which case the relevant covers are all double covers. For each $d \geq 2$, there exists a unique connected double cover

$$\text{Spin}(1, d) \twoheadrightarrow SO(1, d). \quad (2.3)$$

As the name indicates, the existence of this cover has to do with spinors.

In the physical $d = 3$ case, $\text{Spin}(1, 3)$ is isomorphic to the group

$$SL(2, \mathbb{C}) = \{S \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2} : \det S = 1\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} : a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C}, ad - bc = 1 \right\} \quad (2.4)$$

of unimodular two-by-two matrices with complex entries. This isomorphism, which plays the same role that $\text{Spin}(3) \cong SU(2)$ plays in non-relativistic quantum mechanics, is the basis for many computations involving spinors.

REMARK: Conversely, unitary representations of $P^*(1, d)$ induce projective unitary representations of $P(1, d)$ as long as the elements of $\ker \pi$ are mapped to c-numbers.

WARNING: The notation “ $\text{Spin}(1, d)$ ” is also used (by some authors, not us) to refer to a particular double cover of the *full* Lorentz group $O(1, d)$.

WARNING: It is sometimes said that spinors do not return to themselves upon performing a 360° rotation, only after a 720° rotation. This is misleading. The state of a spinor, as element of $P\mathcal{H}$, does return to itself upon a full rotation. The confusion arises from mistaking vectors in \mathcal{H} as states.

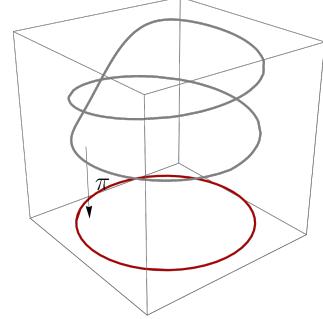


FIGURE. The double cover $\text{Spin}(2) \twoheadrightarrow SO(2)$.

1. The Wigner–Bargmann theorem

Let \mathcal{H} denote an arbitrary Hilbert space. Suppose we are given a (continuous, as always) projective unitary representation $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{PU}(\mathcal{H})$ of some topological group G .

Definition. Let E denote a set and

$$\pi : E \twoheadrightarrow G \tag{2.5}$$

a surjection. A *lift* of ρ (to E , via π) is a map of sets $\varrho : E \rightarrow \text{U}(\mathcal{H})$ such that

$$[\varrho(g)] = \rho(\pi(g)) \tag{2.6}$$

for all $g \in E$. In other words:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E & \xrightarrow{\varrho} & \text{U}(\mathcal{H}) \\ \pi \downarrow & & \downarrow U \mapsto [U] \\ G & \xrightarrow{\bar{\rho}} & \text{PU}(\mathcal{H}) \end{array} \tag{2.7}$$

commutes.

Note that, in this definition, we are not requiring anything of ϱ other than that it be a map of sets. By the axiom of choice, at least one lift exists. The phase of the operator $\varrho(g)$ is however completely arbitrary:

$$\varrho_{\text{alt}}(g) = e^{i\theta(g)} \varrho(g) \tag{2.8}$$

is also a lift of ρ , for any function $\theta : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Consequently, there is no reason why ϱ , given what we have said so far, would be a homomorphism, or even continuous.

The question of deprojectivization is whether there exists a choice of lift that is a continuous homomorphism. In other words, can we, by choosing θ carefully, arrange that ϱ_{alt} is an ordinary unitary representation of E ? A far-reaching theorem of Bargmann [Bar54] states:

Lemma. (*Bargmann’s theorem.*) Any continuous projective unitary representation of a connected Lie group G lifts to a continuous unitary representation of G itself if the following two conditions are satisfied:

- (I) the Lie group is simply connected: the fundamental group $\pi_1(G)$ is trivial,
- (II) a certain cohomology group $H^2(\mathfrak{g}) = H^2(\mathfrak{g}; \mathbb{R})$ (defined below) associated to the Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} of G is trivial.

We will provide an outline of a proof of Bargmann’s theorem, omitting the difficult technical bits.

What matters for us is that the hypotheses are satisfied when $G = P^*(1, d)$ for $d \geq 2$. The topological condition, (I), is automatic: the definition of the universal cover includes that π_1 vanish. For (II): the Lie algebra of $P^*(1, d)$ is the same as the Lie algebra \mathfrak{p} of $P(1, d)$, so it suffices to check that

$$H^2(\mathfrak{p}) = \{0\}. \tag{2.9}$$

This calculation is rather involved, but it is just a calculation. We have included it in §A. If the reader is willing to take for granted that Bargmann’s theorem applies to $P^*(1, d)$, then it is not important to understand what $H^2(\mathfrak{p})$ is.

PROOF OF THE BARGMANN–WIGNER THEOREM. Assume that $H^2(\mathfrak{p}) = \{0\}$. For any continuous projective representation ρ , let

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\rho} : P^*(1, d) &\rightarrow \text{PU}(\mathcal{H}) \\ \bar{\rho} &= \rho \circ \pi. \end{aligned} \tag{2.10}$$

This is a continuous projective unitary representation of $P^*(1, d)$. By Bargmann’s theorem, there exists a (continuous) unitary representation $\varrho : P^*(1, d) \rightarrow \text{U}(\mathcal{H})$ lifting $\bar{\rho}$. That is, $[\varrho(g)] = \bar{\rho}(g)$. Since $\bar{\rho}(g) = \rho(\pi(g))$, we conclude eq. (2.6). \square

The two hypotheses of Bargmann’s theorem each reflect an obstruction to lifting a projective representation to an ordinary representation:

- (I) The first hypothesis indicates a global topological obstruction to choosing a continuous lift.
- (II) The second indicates an “infinitesimal” algebraic obstruction to making the lift a homomorphism.

We discuss these in turn.

Since the calculation of $H^2(\mathfrak{p})$ is rather involved, let us say a few words about what would happen were it *nontrivial*. Projective unitary representations ρ of simply connected Lie groups G with nontrivial $H^2(\mathfrak{g})$ lift to unitary representations not of G itself but of some $U(1)$ -fiber bundle $E \rightarrow G$ (which can depend on ρ). This Lie group has dimension $\dim E = \dim G + 1$ rather than $\dim G$. In physicists’ language, projective representations of G involve a “central charge.” Examples of G where this happens include the Galilean group, where the additional central charge is interpreted as the *mass* of the representation, the Virasoro algebra (the symmetry algebra of conformal field theory on the worldsheet $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{S}^1$ of a string), and the Poincaré group in $d = 1$ spatial dimensions, $P^*(1, 1)$, where the central charge can be interpreted as the slope of an energy gradient across space¹. So, *what the proof of eq. (2.9) is doing is ruling out the presence of spurious central charges in projective representations of the Poincaré group*.

1.1. The topological obstruction, $\pi_1(G)$. Topological obstructions show up as a matter of course in lifting problems, so the presence of a topological obstruction here is unsurprising. Some lifting problems are topologically trivial, but this is not one of those: for each $N \in \mathbb{N}^+$, the covering map $U(N) \rightarrow PU(N)$ is a nontrivial $U(1)$ -bundle. It has no continuous sections. So, if a projective unitary representation ρ is to be lifted, this imposes a topological constraint on ρ .

The ur-example, essential to understanding spinors, is:

EXAMPLE 2.1 ($SU(2) \rightarrow SO(3)$). Famously, the two groups

$$\begin{aligned} SU(2) &= \{U \in U(2) : \det U = 1\} \\ SO(3) &= \{R \in O(3) : \det R = 1\} \end{aligned} \tag{2.11}$$

are related by a (smooth, homomorphic) double cover $\pi : SU(2) \rightarrow SO(3)$. Correspondingly, while $SU(2)$ is simply connected, $SO(3)$ is doubly connected:

$$\pi_1(SU(2)) = \text{trivial}, \quad \pi_1(SO(3)) \cong C_2. \tag{2.12}$$

The kernel of π is $\ker \pi = \{I_2, -I_2\}$. Consequently,

$$SO(3) \cong PU(2), \tag{2.13}$$

with an explicit isomorphism $\rho : SO(3) \rightarrow PU(2)$ being $\rho(\pi(U)) = [U]$. The map ρ is a projective unitary representation of $SO(3)$.

Q. Does this lift to a continuous map $\mu : SO(3) \rightarrow SU(2)$? **A.** No.

Suppose, to the contrary, that there did exist such a μ . This would mean that $[\mu(R)] = \rho(R)$ for all $R \in SO(3)$. I.e.

$$[\mu(\pi(U))] = [U] \tag{2.14}$$

for all $U \in SU(2)$. That is, $\mu(\pi(U)), U$ differ by a phase. But $U, \mu(\pi(U))$ are *special* two-by-two unitary matrices, not just general unitary matrices. So differing by a phase implies $\mu(\pi(U)) = \pm U$. That is,

$$U^{-1}\mu(\pi(U)) = \pm I_2. \tag{2.15}$$

A priori, the sign \pm could depend on U — but it is easy to see that it cannot, because the left-hand side depends continuously on U . Since $SU(2)$ is connected, this means that the sign is constant.

¹When $d \geq 2$, this sort of thing is ruled out by rotation covariance.

Without loss of generality, we can assume the + case, which means $\mu(I_3) = I_2$. Then,

$$\mu(\pi(U)) = U. \quad (2.16)$$

But this is impossible, because $\pi(-I_2) = \pi(I_2)$. ■

REMARK 2.2. The reader may have noticed an artificial restriction in the previous example: we required $\mu : \mathrm{SO}(3) \rightarrow \mathrm{SU}(2)$. But why not weaken this to land in $\mathrm{U}(2)$? The distinction does not matter: *there does not exist any continuous map $\mathrm{SO}(3) \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(2)$ lifting ρ* , but proving this requires a bit more topology. ■

[Problem 2.1] **REMARK 2.3.** If we demand that $\mu : \mathrm{SO}(3) \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(2)$ be a homomorphism, then the lack of a lift follows from representation theoretic facts: the only two-dimensional representation of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ is the trivial one.

One way of proving this is the argument above. Note that $\det \circ \mu : \mathrm{SO}(3) \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(1)$ is a one-dimensional representation of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$, and the only one-dimensional representation of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ is the trivial one (see Exercise 2.1). Consequently, any two-dimensional unitary representation of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ must land in $\mathrm{SU}(2)$, and then the argument above applies. ■

The fundamental group $\pi_1(G)$ is, as a set, the set of homotopy classes of continuous maps $\mathbb{S}^1 \rightarrow G$. (Recall that G is connected, so we do not need to worry about the choice of base point.) In the proof of Bargmann's theorem, the vanishing of the fundamental group is used to reduce the problem to one about representations of the Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} . This is what we discuss next.

1.2. The algebraic obstruction, $H^2(\mathfrak{g})$. Given a finite-dimensional Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} over $\mathbb{K} \in \{\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}\}$, the vector space $H^2(\mathfrak{g}) = H^2(\mathfrak{g}; \mathbb{K})$ is defined as follows. Identify elements of $(\wedge^2 \mathfrak{g})^*$ with anti-symmetric bilinear maps $\mathfrak{g}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$. Then,

$$B^2(\mathfrak{g}) = \{\omega \in (\wedge^2 \mathfrak{g})^* : \exists \lambda \in \mathfrak{g}^* \text{ s.t. } \omega(X, Y) = \lambda([X, Y])\}, \quad (2.17)$$

and

$$Z^2(\mathfrak{g}) = \{\omega \in (\wedge^2 \mathfrak{g})^* : \omega([X, Y], Z) + \omega([Y, Z], X) + \omega([Z, X], Y) = 0\} \quad (2.18)$$

are the spaces of “coboundaries” and “cocycles” respectively. These are both vector subspaces of $(\wedge^2 \mathfrak{g})^*$. Note that $B^2(\mathfrak{g}) \subseteq Z^2(\mathfrak{g})$. Indeed, if $\omega \in B^2(\mathfrak{g})$,

$$\begin{aligned} \omega([X, Y], Z) + \omega([Y, Z], X) + \omega([Z, X], Y) \\ = \lambda([[X, Y], Z]) + \lambda([[Y, Z], X]) + \lambda([[Z, X], Y]) = \lambda(J), \end{aligned} \quad (2.19)$$

where $J = [[X, Y], Z] + [[Y, Z], X] + [[Z, X], Y]$. But $J = 0$ is the Jacobi identity. So, $\omega \in Z^2(\mathfrak{g})$. Then,

$$H^2(\mathfrak{g}; \mathbb{K}) = Z^2(\mathfrak{g}) / B^2(\mathfrak{g}) \quad (2.20)$$

is the quotient of the vector space of cocycles by the subspace of coboundaries.

The general theory of Lie algebra cohomology is due to Chevalley–Eilenberg [CE48]. The special case of $H^\bullet(\mathfrak{g}; \mathbb{K})$ goes further back, to Cartan, in his work on the de Rham cohomology of compact Lie groups.

The relevance of $H^2(\mathfrak{g})$ to lifting projective representations has to do with its role in classifying central extensions of \mathfrak{g} via \mathbb{K} . Recall that a short exact sequence of Lie algebras consists of the data

$$\mathbb{K} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{e} \xrightarrow{\pi} \mathfrak{g}, \quad (2.21)$$

where $\ker \pi$ is exactly the image of \mathbb{R} under the first embedding. If $\ker \pi$ lies in the *center* of \mathfrak{e} , then this is called a central extension.

EXAMPLE 2.4. The *trivial* extension is $\mathfrak{e} = \mathfrak{g} \oplus \mathbb{K}$. More precisely, it is the short exact sequence in which

- the embedding $\mathbb{K} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{e}$ is $x \mapsto (0, x)$ and
- the projection $\mathfrak{e} \twoheadrightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ is $(X, x) \mapsto X$.

■

Two central extensions $\mathbb{K} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{e}_\bullet \twoheadrightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ are called *equivalent* if they fit together into a commutative diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \mathfrak{e}_1 & \\ \mathbb{K} \curvearrowleft & \downarrow \phi & \twoheadrightarrow \mathfrak{g} \\ \mathfrak{e}_2 & & \end{array} \quad (2.22)$$

where ϕ is an isomorphism of Lie algebras. A central extension \mathfrak{e} is also called trivial if it is equivalent to the trivial extension $\mathfrak{g} \oplus \mathbb{K}$. Equivalently, a central extension is trivial if and only if it splits, which means that there exists a map $\mathfrak{g} \ni X \mapsto \bar{X} \in \mathfrak{e}$ of Lie algebras such that $\pi(\bar{X}) = X$.

Given any central extension $\mathbb{K} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{e} \twoheadrightarrow \mathfrak{g}$, let $Z \in \mathfrak{e}$ denote a nonzero element in the image of the first embedding. Choose an embedding of vector spaces $\mathfrak{g} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{e}$, and denote this $X \mapsto \bar{X}$. Note that this will typically not be a map of Lie algebras. Measure its failure to be a map of Lie algebras by defining $\omega : \mathfrak{g}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{K}$ by

$$\omega(X, Y)Z = [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}] - \overline{[X, Y]}, \quad (2.23)$$

where the first Lie bracket is \mathfrak{e} 's and the second is \mathfrak{g} 's. The right-hand side lies in the kernel of the projection $\mathfrak{e} \twoheadrightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ (this being a map of Lie algebras), so, by exactness, lies in the image of $\mathbb{K} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{e}$, which is why it has the form $\mathbb{K}Z$.

PROPOSITION 2.5. (a) *The map ω defined above is a cocycle.*
 (b) *It is a coboundary if and only if the extension is trivial.*

■

PROOF SKETCH. The first part of the proposition is the Jacobi identity for ω , as defined by eq. (2.23). This will follow from combining the Jacobi identities for $\mathfrak{e}, \mathfrak{g}$. The second part of the proposition comes from the following observation: an alternative to the lift $X \mapsto \bar{X}$ is $X \mapsto \bar{X} + \lambda(X)Z$, for any $\lambda \in \mathfrak{g}^*$. This alternative has a different ω , one differing from the original by a coboundary. So, we can choose a lift eliminating ω (in which case the lift is a splitting map) if and only if ω is a coboundary. □

PROOF. (a) We want to show that ω satisfies the Jacobi identity $\omega([W, X], Y) + \omega([X, Y], W) + \omega([Y, W], X) = 0$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \omega([W, X], Y) &= [[\bar{W}, \bar{X}], \bar{Y}] - \overline{[[W, X], Y]} \\ &= [[\bar{W}, \bar{X}] - \omega(W, X)Z, \bar{Y}] - \overline{[[W, X], Y]} \\ &= [[\bar{W}, \bar{X}], \bar{Y}] - \overline{[[W, X], Y]}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.24)$$

Likewise,

$$\begin{aligned} \omega([X, Y], W) &= [[\bar{X}, \bar{Y}], \bar{W}] - \overline{[[X, Y], W]} \\ \omega([W, X], Y) &= [[\bar{W}, \bar{X}], \bar{Y}] - \overline{[[W, X], Y]}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.25)$$

The Jacobi identity for ω therefore follows from three things: the Jacobi identity for \mathfrak{e} 's Lie bracket, the Jacobi identity for \mathfrak{g} 's Lie bracket, and the linearity of the map $X \mapsto \bar{X}$.

- (b) • ('If.') It suffices to consider the case where $\mathfrak{e} = \mathfrak{g} \oplus \mathbb{K}$ is literally the trivial extension, in which case we can choose $Z = (0, 1)$. Because $X \mapsto \bar{X}$ is linear, there must exist

some $\lambda \in \mathfrak{g}^*$ such that $\bar{X} = (X, \lambda(X))$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\omega(X, Y)Z &= [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}] - \overline{[X, Y]} = ([X, Y], 0) - ([X, Y], \lambda([X, Y])) \\ &= (0, \lambda([X, Y])).\end{aligned}\tag{2.26}$$

We conclude that $\omega(X, Y) = \lambda([X, Y])$, which is what it means to be a coboundary.

- ('Only if.') Suppose that $\omega(X, Y) = \lambda([X, Y])$ for some $\lambda \in \mathfrak{g}^*$. Now define $\phi : \mathfrak{g} \oplus \mathbb{K} \rightarrow \mathfrak{e}$ by

$$\phi(X, s) = \bar{X} + (s + \lambda(X))Z.\tag{2.27}$$

This is an isomorphism of vector spaces, fitting into a commutative diagram of vector spaces, as in eq. (2.22). It is also a map of Lie algebras:

$$[\phi(X, s), \phi(Y, t)] = [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}]\tag{2.28}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\phi([(X, s), (Y, t)]) &= \phi([X, Y], 0) = \overline{[X, Y]} + \lambda([X, Y])Z \\ &= \overline{[X, Y]} + \omega(X, Y)Z = [\bar{X}, \bar{Y}].\end{aligned}\tag{2.29}$$

□

It turns out that any continuous projective unitary representation of a Lie group induces an ordinary representation not of \mathfrak{g} but of a one-dimensional central extension thereof. Indeed, consider the topological group

$$E = \{(U, g) \in \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H}) \times G : [U] = \rho(g)\},\tag{2.30}$$

whose (natural, continuous) unitary representation $\varrho : (U, g) \mapsto U$ lifts ρ . This sits in a central extension

$$\mathrm{U}(1) \hookrightarrow E \twoheadrightarrow G\tag{2.31}$$

in the category of topological groups. It turns out that E is canonically a Lie group of dimension $\dim G + 1$, and the maps in eq. (2.31) are smooth.² Consequently, they can be “differentiated” to yield a central extension $\mathbb{R} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{e} \twoheadrightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ of the corresponding Lie algebras. The representation ϱ induces a representation of \mathfrak{e} on \mathcal{H} .

If the central extension $\mathbb{R} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{e} \twoheadrightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ is trivial, so that $\mathfrak{e} \cong \mathbb{R} \oplus \mathfrak{g}$, then we can ignore the extra \mathbb{R} factor and get a representation on \mathcal{H} of \mathfrak{g} itself. Exponentiating this (using Lie’s second theorem) yields an ordinary unitary representation of the universal cover of G . If G is already simply connected, this is G itself. So:

$$\rho \text{ is guaranteed to lift} \iff \text{all 1D central extensions of } \mathfrak{g} \text{ are trivial.}$$

Conversely, nontrivial central extensions of \mathfrak{g} typically yield projective representations of G which only lift to ordinary unitary representations of some central extension of G by $\mathrm{U}(1)$, namely E .

EXAMPLE 2.6 (The Heisenberg group). In this example, we exhibit a projective representation of the abelian group $(\mathbb{R}^2, +)$ that does not lift to a unitary representation of $(\mathbb{R}^2, +)$ but rather of a three-dimensional Lie group H known as the “Heisenberg group.” The existence of such an intrinsically projective representation has to do with the fact that the abelian Lie algebra $\mathfrak{t} = \mathbb{R}^2$ has nontrivial cohomology,

$$H^2(\mathfrak{t}) \cong \mathbb{R}\tag{2.32}$$

(see Exercise 2.3) and therefore admits a nontrivial central extension, namely the Lie algebra of the Heisenberg group.

²Establishing this is the main technical step in the proof of Bargmann’s theorem. First, one shows straightforwardly that E is a topological manifold [Sim71], being a $\mathrm{U}(1)$ -bundle over G . Then, the solution of Hilbert’s fifth problem (the Montgomery–Zippin theorem) guarantees that E is canonically a Lie group. The special case relevant here – that of a central extension of a Lie group by another Lie group – is considerably easier than the full problem, and a complete exposition can be found in [Tao14, §2.6].

The *Heisenberg group* H is the group

$$H = \left\{ \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & c \\ 0 & 1 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{M(a,b,c)} : a, b, c \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \quad (2.33)$$

of 3-by-3 matrices $M \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ such that $M - I_3$ is upper triangular. The group law is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & c \\ 0 & 1 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a' & c' \\ 0 & 1 & b' \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & a + a' & c + c' + ab' \\ 0 & 1 & b + b' \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.34)$$

So, if we define $\pi : H \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ by $M(a, b, c) \mapsto (a, b)$, this is a homomorphism onto the abelian group $(\mathbb{R}^2, +)$. This fits into a central extension

$$(\mathbb{R}, +) \hookrightarrow H \xrightarrow{\pi} (\mathbb{R}^2, +) \quad (2.35)$$

of groups, where the first map is $c \mapsto M(0, 0, c)$. Differentiating yields a central extension

$$\mathbb{R} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{h} \twoheadrightarrow \mathfrak{t} = \mathbb{R}^2 \quad (2.36)$$

of Lie algebras. Concretely, $\mathfrak{h} \subset \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ is the Lie algebra of upper-triangular 3-by-3 matrices

$$m(a, b, c) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & a & c \\ 0 & 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2.37)$$

in which the Lie bracket is the usual commutator. The first map in eq. (2.36) is $c \mapsto m(0, 0, c)$ and the second map is $m(a, b, c) \mapsto (a, b)$. The central extension \mathfrak{h} is nontrivial, because \mathfrak{h} is not abelian.

The *Schrödinger representation* of the Heisenberg group H is defined on $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R})$. Actually, we have many different Schrödinger representations, one for each $\hbar > 0$. Specifically, let $\varrho_\hbar : H \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H})$ be defined by

$$\varrho_\hbar \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & a & c \\ 0 & 1 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) \psi(x) = e^{i\hbar c} e^{ibx} \psi(x + \hbar a) \text{ for all } \psi \in L^2(\mathbb{R}) \quad (2.38)$$

for all $\psi \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$. This is indeed a continuous unitary representation. [Problem 2.3(b)]

Let $\rho_\hbar : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathrm{PU}(\mathcal{H})$ be defined by $\rho_\hbar(a, b) = \varrho_\hbar(M(a, b, 0)) \bmod \mathrm{U}(1)$. This is a (continuous) projective unitary representation of $(\mathbb{R}^2, +)$. While it lifts to an ordinary representation of H , by construction, it does not lift to an ordinary representation of \mathbb{R}^2 . The physical interpretation of ρ_\hbar is that it describes the Galilean symmetry of Schrödinger's wave mechanics on the real line. One factor of \mathbb{R}^2 is carrying out a translation, and the other is carrying out a Galilean boost. ■ [Problem 2.3(c)]

2. Parity and time-reversal (\star)

We now discuss how the considerations above are modified in the presence of parity and/or time-reversal symmetry. In §3, we discussed how these additional symmetries lift to unitary/anti-unitary transformations of the ambient Hilbert space. The possibilities were classified according to a “tenfold way.” Excluding class A, a system with no additional symmetries beyond the restricted Poincaré group, there were nine cases: AI, AII, AIII, BDI, C, CI, CII, D, DIII. The goal of this section is to discuss how, in each class, a Wigner representation of the relevant subgroup of the full Poincaré group lifts to an ordinary unitary/anti-unitary representation of some cover thereof.

In each of the ten ways, we have a subgroup $Z \subseteq \{\mathcal{I}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{PT}\}$ telling us which symmetries are present. In Table 1.1 is listed a covering group $c : E \twoheadrightarrow Z$. This is either an

isomorphism or a double cover, depending on which way we are in. For each $\mathcal{A} \in Z$, we have an automorphism

$$T \mapsto T_{\mathcal{A}}TT_{\mathcal{A}} \quad (2.39)$$

of $P(1, d)$. This induces an automorphism of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{p}(1, d)$, which exponentiates (by Lie's second theorem) to an automorphism $\Phi_{\mathcal{A}} \in \text{Aut}(P^*(1, d))$ of $P^*(1, d)$. The map $\mathcal{A} \mapsto \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}$ associating \mathcal{A} with this automorphism is a homomorphism

$$Z \rightarrow \text{Aut}(P^*(1, d)). \quad (2.40)$$

Precomposing with c yields a homomorphism $E \rightarrow \text{Aut}(P^*(1, d))$. Let $E \ltimes P^*(1, d)$ denote the corresponding semidirect product. This is a double or quadruple cover of the subgroup G of the full Poincaré group containing the identity component and the members of Z .

Recall that we have been assuming $d \geq 2$.

PROPOSITION 2.7. *Every Wigner representation of G lifts to an ordinary unitary/anti-unitary representation of $E \ltimes P^*(1, d)$.* ■

PROOF. By the discussion in the previous lecture, and by the Wigner–Bargmann theorem, we have:

- an ordinary unitary representation $\varrho : P^*(1, d) \rightarrow U(\mathcal{H})$, lifting the restriction of the given Wigner representation to $P(1, d)$,
- for each $\mathcal{A} \in Z$, an operator \mathcal{A} (as described in the tenfold way) such that

$$\mathcal{A}\varrho(T)\mathcal{A} = \varepsilon_{\mathcal{A}}\varrho(\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}(T))e^{i\theta(T; \mathcal{A})} \quad (2.41)$$

for each $T \in P^*(1, d)$, where $\theta(T; \mathcal{A})$ is some phase, and where $\varepsilon_{\mathcal{A}} \in \{-1, +1\}$ is the sign of $\mathcal{A}^2 \propto I$.

The group generated by the \mathcal{A} 's is the covering group E .

Let us restrict $\theta(T; \mathcal{A})$. Note that $e^{i\theta(I; \mathcal{A})} = 1$. Compute

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon_{\mathcal{A}}e^{i\theta(T_1T_2; \mathcal{A})} &= \mathcal{A}\varrho(T_1T_2)\mathcal{A}\varrho(\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}(T_2^{-1}T_1^{-1})) = \varepsilon_{\mathcal{A}}\mathcal{A}\varrho(T_1)\mathcal{A}\varrho(T_2)\mathcal{A}\varrho(\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}(T_2^{-1}))\varrho(\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}(T_1^{-1})) \\ &= \mathcal{A}\varrho(T_1)\mathcal{A}e^{i\theta(T_2; \mathcal{A})}\varrho(\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}(T_1^{-1})) \\ &= e^{i\theta(T_2; \mathcal{A})}\mathcal{A}\varrho(T_1)\mathcal{A}\varrho(\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}(T_1^{-1})) \\ &= \varepsilon_{\mathcal{A}}e^{i\theta(T_1; \mathcal{A})+i\theta(T_2; \mathcal{A})} \end{aligned} \quad (2.42)$$

for all $T_1, T_2 \in P^*(1, d)$. That is, $T \mapsto e^{i\theta(T; \mathcal{A})}$ is a one-dimensional unitary representation of $P^*(1, d)$. Every such representation must be trivial (skip ahead to Proposition 3.8 for the proof).

Having now shown that $e^{i\theta(T; \mathcal{A})} = 1$, it suffices to observe that what we have in the \mathcal{A} 's, ϱ is a unitary/anti-unitary representation of $E \ltimes P^*(1, d)$. Explicitly,

$$E \ltimes P^*(1, d) \ni (\mathcal{A}, \varrho(T)) \mapsto \mathcal{A}\varrho(T) \in \text{UaU}(\mathcal{H}) \quad (2.43)$$

is a unitary/anti-unitary representation lifting the given Wigner representation. □

3. $\text{Spin}(1, 3) \cong \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$

The trick to connect the Lorentz group with $\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is to identify $\mathbb{R}^{1,3}$ with the real vector space $H_2 = \{M \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2} : M = M^\dagger\}$ of Hermitian 2-by-2 matrices with complex entries. Let $\Sigma : \mathbb{R}^{1,3} \rightarrow H_2$ denote the *Bloch map*,

$$\Sigma(t, x^1, x^2, x^3) = tI_2 + x^1\sigma_1 + x^2\sigma_2 + x^3\sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} t + x^3 & x^1 - ix^2 \\ x^1 + ix^2 & t - x^3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (2.44)$$

where σ_\bullet are the three Pauli matrices,

$$\sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (2.45)$$

which satisfy $\sigma_j \sigma_k = \delta_{jk} I_2 + i \varepsilon_{jkl} \sigma_l$, where $\varepsilon_{jkl} \in \{-1, 0, +1\}$ is the Levi-Civita symbol. The Bloch map is a linear isomorphism between $\mathbb{R}^{1,3}$ and H_2 . Its inverse is

$$\Sigma^{-1} : \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \beta^* & \gamma \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \left(\frac{\alpha + \gamma}{2}, \Re \beta, -\Im \beta, \frac{\alpha - \gamma}{2} \right). \quad (2.46)$$

Let $S \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$. Whenever $M \in H_2$, then $SMS^\dagger \in H_2$. Consequently, if $x \in \mathbb{R}^{1,3}$, then $\Sigma^{-1}(S\Sigma(x)S^\dagger) \in \mathbb{R}^{1,3}$ is well-defined. The map

$$x \mapsto \Sigma^{-1}(S\Sigma(x)S^\dagger) \quad (2.47)$$

is linear and so can be represented by a matrix, which we denote $\pi(S) \in \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}$. Evidently, $\pi : \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{4 \times 4}$ is smooth. (An explicit formula will be below.) We can now state:

PROPOSITION 2.8. $\pi : \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathrm{SO}(1, 3)$ is a surjective 2-to-1 homomorphism of Lie groups. \blacksquare

We will prove this below.

PROPOSITION 2.9. $\pi(S^\dagger) = \pi(S)^\dagger$. \blacksquare

PROOF. Note that $\Sigma(x)^{-1}$ exists if $x^2 \neq 0$, and $\Sigma(x)^{-1} \propto \Sigma(\mathcal{P}x)$. By definition, $\pi(S^{-1}) : x \mapsto \Sigma^{-1}(S^{-1}\Sigma(x)(S^\dagger)^{-1})$, and the right-hand side is, if $x^2 \neq 0$,

$$\Sigma^{-1}((S^\dagger \Sigma(x)^{-1} S)^{-1}) = \mathcal{P} \Sigma^{-1}(S^\dagger \Sigma(\mathcal{P}x) S) = \mathcal{P} \pi(S^\dagger) \mathcal{P}x. \quad (2.48)$$

So, $\pi(S^{-1}) = \mathcal{P} \pi(S^\dagger) \mathcal{P}$. Equivalently, $\pi(S^\dagger) = \mathcal{P} \pi(S^{-1}) \mathcal{P}$. The right-hand side is $\mathcal{P} \pi(S)^{-1} \mathcal{P}$ (since π is a homomorphism, which implies $\pi(S^{-1}) = \pi(S)^{-1}$). Now we can use the identity $\Lambda^{-1} = \eta \Lambda^\dagger \eta$ that holds for all Lorentz matrices to get $\pi(S^\dagger) = (-I_4) \pi(S)^\dagger (-I_4) = \pi(S)^\dagger$. \square

WARNING: Many facts about the representation theory of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ can be deduced from facts about the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$. For example, it is possible to prove Proposition 2.8 by exhibiting an explicit isomorphism

$$\mathfrak{o}(1, 3) \cong \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}). \quad (2.49)$$

However, care is required, because the exponential map $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is not surjective. For example, $(\begin{smallmatrix} -1 & s \\ 0 & -1 \end{smallmatrix})$ is not in the image of the exponential map whenever $s \in \mathbb{C}^\times$. (This does not contradict Problem 1.5.)

3.1. Proof of Proposition 2.8. Observe: if $x \in \mathbb{R}^{1,3}$, then the Minkowski norm $x^2 = -x_0^2 + \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$ is given by $-\det \Sigma(x)$.

LEMMA 2.10. Whenever $S \in \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$, we have $\pi(S) \in \mathrm{SO}(1, 3)$. \blacksquare

PROOF. For any $x \in \mathbb{R}^{1,3}$, the Minkowski norm of $\pi(S)x = \Sigma^{-1}(S\Sigma(x)S^\dagger)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \det \Sigma(\Sigma^{-1}(S\Sigma(x)S^\dagger)) &= \det(S\Sigma(x)S^\dagger) \\ &= |\det S|^2 \det(\Sigma(x)) = \det \Sigma(x) = -x^2, \end{aligned} \quad (2.50)$$

the Minkowski norm of x . So, $\pi(S)$ preserves the Minkowski norm. This means that $\pi(S) \in \mathrm{O}(1, 3)$ is a Lorentz matrix.

Since $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is connected, the image of π must be a connected subset of $\mathrm{O}(1, 3)$, and must therefore lie entirely in one of the four connected components of $\mathrm{O}(1, 3)$. Because $\pi(I_2) = I_4$, the relevant component is the one containing the identity I_4 , i.e. the restricted Lorentz group $\mathrm{SO}(1, d)$. \square

LEMMA 2.11. The map $\pi : \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C}) \ni S \mapsto \pi(S) \in \mathrm{SO}(1, 3)$ is a homomorphism. \blacksquare

PROOF. Firstly, $\pi(I_2) = I_4$.

If $S, Q \in \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$, then the Lorentz matrices $\pi(SQ)$, $\pi(S)\pi(Q)$ implement the maps

$$\begin{aligned} x &\mapsto \Sigma^{-1}(SQ\Sigma(x)(QS)^\dagger) = \Sigma^{-1}(SQ\Sigma(x)Q^\dagger S^\dagger), \\ x &\mapsto \Sigma^{-1}(S\Sigma(\Sigma^{-1}(Q\Sigma(x)Q^\dagger))S^\dagger) = \Sigma^{-1}(SQ\Sigma(x)Q^\dagger S^\dagger), \end{aligned} \quad (2.51)$$

which agree. So, $\pi(SQ) = \pi(S)\pi(Q)$. \square

LEMMA 2.12. Fix $N \in \mathbb{N}^+$. Let $S \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$, and suppose that $SMS^\dagger = M$ for all $M \in H_N$. Then, $S = e^{i\theta}I_N$ for some $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$. \blacksquare

PROOF. Try $M = vv^\dagger$ for $v \in \mathbb{C}^N$. Then, $SMS^\dagger = (Sv)(Sv)^\dagger$. This map, whose range is the span of Sv , is equal to M , whose range is the span of v , if and only if

$$Sv = e^{i\theta}v \quad (2.52)$$

for some $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$. So, every nonzero element of \mathbb{C}^N is an eigenvector of S . This implies that S is a scalar multiple of the identity: $S = cI_N$ for some $c \in \mathbb{C}$, which, by eq. (2.52), must be a phase. \square

COROLLARY. $\ker \pi = \{-I_2, I_2\}$. \blacksquare

PROOF. Evidently, $\pm I_2 \in \ker \pi$, so the main order of business is the converse.

If $S \in \ker \pi$, then it satisfies the hypotheses of lemma 2.12 with $N = 2$. So $S = e^{i\theta}I$ for some $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $\det S = e^{2i\theta}$, so S is unimodular only if $S = \pm I_2$. \square

LEMMA 2.13. π is onto $\mathrm{SO}(1, 3)$. \blacksquare

PROOF. This can be shown in several ways. It follows from the fact that $\mathrm{SO}(1, 3)$ is connected and $D\pi : \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{o}(1, 3)$ is surjective (which must be true because both Lie algebras have real dimension 6 and $\ker \pi$ is discrete; alternatively, $D\pi$ is computed below). \square

This completes the proof of Proposition 2.8.

3.2. $D\pi$. The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ can be taken to consist of $X \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$ such that $e^{sX} \in \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ for all $s \in \mathbb{R}$. Since

$$e^{(s+\delta s)X} = e^{sX}e^{X\delta s} = e^{sX}(I_2 + X\delta s + O(\delta s^2)), \quad (2.53)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det e^{(s+\delta s)X} &= (\det e^{sX})(\det(I_2 + X\delta s) + O(\delta s^2)) \\ &= (\det e^{sX})(1 + (\delta s) \operatorname{tr} X + O(\delta s^2)) \end{aligned} \quad (2.54)$$

the derivative

$$\frac{d}{ds} \det e^{sX} = (\det e^{sX}) \operatorname{tr} X \quad (2.55)$$

can be computed. So, the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ consists of traceless matrices:

$$\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) = \{X \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2} : \operatorname{tr} X = 0\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & -a \end{bmatrix} : a, b, c \in \mathbb{C} \right\}. \quad (2.56)$$

Over the complex numbers, this is spanned by the three Pauli matrices.

Since $e^{sX} = I_2 + sX + O(s^2)$, we can compute $\pi(e^{sX})$ modulo $O(s^2)$ by throwing out all terms in eq. (2.61) that are quadratic in s . This results in

$$\pi(e^{sX}) = I_4 + s \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \Re(b^* + c) & \Im(b^* + c) & 2\Re a \\ \Re(c^* + b) & 0 & 2\Im a & \Re(c^* - b) \\ -\Im(c^* + b) & -2\Im a & 0 & \Im(b - c^*) \\ 2\Re a & \Re(b^* - c) & \Im(b^* - c) & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{(D\pi)X} + O(s^2). \quad (2.57)$$

The matrix in the previous line is supposed to lie in the Lie algebra

$$\mathfrak{o}(1, 3) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{a}^\top \\ \mathbf{a} & \mathbf{X} \end{bmatrix} : \mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^3, \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}, \mathbf{X} = -\mathbf{X}^\top \right\} \quad (2.58)$$

of $O(1, 3)$, and indeed, it does, with

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} \Re(b^* + c) \\ \Im(b^* + c) \\ 2\Re a \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2\Im a & \Re(c^* - b) \\ -2\Im a & 0 & \Im(b - c^*) \\ -\Re(c^* - b) & -\Im(b - c^*) & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.59)$$

In summary:

PROPOSITION 2.14. *The differential $D\pi : \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{o}(1, 3)$ is given by*

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & -a \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{a}^\top \\ \mathbf{a} & \mathbf{X} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (2.60)$$

where \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{X} are as above. So:

- The generators of Lorentz boosts, in $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$, are those X with $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $b = c^*$, i.e. satisfying $X \in \text{span}_{\mathbb{R}}\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3\}$.
- The generators of rotations, in $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$, are those X with $a \in i\mathbb{R}$ and $b = -c^*$, i.e. satisfying $X \in \text{span}_{\mathbb{R}}\{i\sigma_1, i\sigma_2, i\sigma_3\}$.

■

COROLLARY. The pre-image $\pi^{-1}(\text{SO}(3))$ of the subgroup $\text{SO}(3) \subseteq \text{SO}(1, 3)$ of rotations is the subgroup $\text{SU}(2) \subset \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$. ■□

PROOF. We know that $\pi^{-1}(\text{SO}(3))$ is a Lie subgroup of $\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$. By the previous proposition, its Lie algebra is $\text{span}_{\mathbb{R}}\{i\sigma_1, i\sigma_2, i\sigma_3\}$, which exponentiates to $\text{SU}(2)$. □

3.3. An explicit formula (*).

PROPOSITION 2.15. *For $S = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, the matrix $\pi(S)$ is*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2^{-1}(|a|^2 + |b|^2 + |c|^2 + |d|^2) & \Re(ab^* + cd^*) & \Im(ab^* + cd^*) & 2^{-1}(|a|^2 - |b|^2 + |c|^2 - |d|^2) \\ \Re(ac^* + bd^*) & \Re(ad^* + bc^*) & \Im(ad^* - bc^*) & \Re(ac^* - bd^*) \\ -\Im(ac^* + bd^*) & -\Im(ad^* + bc^*) & \Re(ad^* - bc^*) & \Im(bd^* - ac^*) \\ 2^{-1}(|a|^2 + |b|^2 - |c|^2 - |d|^2) & \Re(ab^* - cd^*) & \Im(ab^* - cd^*) & 2^{-1}(|a|^2 - |b|^2 - |c|^2 + |d|^2) \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.61)$$

■

PROOF. Concretely,

$$S\Sigma(x)S^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t + x^3 & x^1 - ix^2 \\ x^1 + ix^2 & t - x^3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a^* & c^* \\ b^* & d^* \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \beta^* & \gamma \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.62)$$

for

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= |a|^2(t + x^3) + |b|^2(t - x^3) + 2\Re[(x^1 - ix^2)ab^*], \\ \beta &= (t + x^3)ac^* + (t - x^3)bd^* + (x^1 - ix^2)ad^* + (x^1 + ix^2)bc^*, \\ \gamma &= |c|^2(t + x^3) + |d|^2(t - x^3) + 2\Re[(x^1 - ix^2)cd^*]. \end{aligned} \quad (2.63)$$

Consequently, $\Sigma^{-1}(S\Sigma(x)S^\dagger) = (t', (x^1)', (x^2)', (x^3)')$ for

$$\begin{aligned} t' &= (|a|^2 + |b|^2 + |c|^2 + |d|^2) \frac{t}{2} + (|a|^2 - |b|^2 + |c|^2 - |d|^2) \frac{x^3}{2} + \Re[(x^1 - ix^2)(ab^* + cd^*)], \\ (x^1)' - i(x^2)' &= (t + x^3)ac^* + (t - x^3)bd^* + (x^1 - ix^2)ad^* + (x^1 + ix^2)bc^*, \\ (x^3)' &= (|a|^2 + |b|^2 - |c|^2 - |d|^2) \frac{t}{2} + (|a|^2 - |b|^2 - |c|^2 + |d|^2) \frac{x^3}{2} + \Re[(x^1 - ix^2)(ab^* - cd^*)]. \end{aligned} \quad (2.64)$$

The matrix implementing the transformation $x \mapsto x'$ is eq. (2.61). \square

A. Calculation of $H^2(\mathfrak{p})$

One of the hypotheses of Bargmann's theorem is that the second cohomology group $H^2(\mathfrak{p}) = H^2(\mathfrak{p}; \mathbb{R})$ of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{p}(1, d)$ of $P(1, d)$ is trivial. It will be, if $d \geq 2$. Carrying out this computation is the purpose of this appendix.

Because \mathfrak{p} is finite-dimensional, $(\wedge^2 \mathfrak{p})^*$ is finite-dimensional, so the subspaces $B^2(\mathfrak{p}), Z^2(\mathfrak{p})$ of “coboundaries” and “cocycles” are both finite-dimensional. The latter is defined by finitely many linear constraints, and the former is defined as the image of \mathfrak{p}^* under a particular map. So, computing

$$H^2(\mathfrak{p}) = Z^2(\mathfrak{p}) / B^2(\mathfrak{p}) \quad (2.65)$$

is a matter of finite-dimensional Lie algebra, for each individual d , and could be done with a computer.

Rather than phrasing the computation this way, we revert to the perspective of $H^2(\mathfrak{p})$ as classifying central extensions (by \mathbb{R}). Proving that it is trivial amounts to proving that every central extension is equivalent to the trivial one. Proving that it is *non-trivial* amounts to constructing a central extension that is provably inequivalent to the trivial one. Either way, the computations involved are equivalent to computations done using the cohomological language, the difference being a matter of presentation.

REMARK 2.16 (Complexification). Physicists usually prefer to work with the complexification $\mathfrak{p}_{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C} \otimes \mathfrak{p}$ of the Lie algebra rather than \mathfrak{p} itself. This does not matter because

$$H^2(\mathfrak{p}_{\mathbb{C}}; \mathbb{C}) \cong \mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} H^2(\mathfrak{p}; \mathbb{R}) \quad (2.66)$$

[Exercise 2.4] naturally. So, the triviality of H^2 does not depend on the choice of base field. Below, we work with $\mathfrak{p}_{\mathbb{C}}$ in place of \mathfrak{p} , so as to match physicists' notation (specifically that in [Wei05, §2.7]). Thus, *all Lie algebras in this appendix will be complexified*, and we will not write the ‘ \mathbb{C} ’ subscript. \blacksquare

EXAMPLE 2.17 ($d = 1$). If $d = 1$, then, the Poincaré algebra $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{p}(1, 1)$ is three-dimensional. It is spanned over \mathbb{C} by three generators, P^0, P^1, K , the two generators of translations and the generator of boosts, respectively, satisfying

$$i[P^0, K] = P^1, \quad i[P^1, K] = P^0 \quad (2.67)$$

and $[P^0, P^1] = 0$. Let us try to centrally extend \mathfrak{p} . A central extension of \mathfrak{p} consists of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{e} with one more generator than \mathfrak{p} — call it Z (physicists call this a “central charge”) — in the center, whose Lie bracket can be written

$$\begin{aligned} i[P^0, K] &= P^1 + DZ, \quad i[P^1, K] = P^0 + EZ, \\ i[P^0, P^1] &= CZ \end{aligned} \quad (2.68)$$

for some $C, D, E \in \mathbb{C}$. Usually, the new coefficients would be constrained by the Jacobi identity, but the Jacobi identity is automatically satisfied in this case. So, eq. (2.68) defines a valid Lie algebra.

The extension \mathfrak{e} is trivial if and only if it is possible to replace each of P^0, P^1, K with a linear combination with Z so as to eliminate the C, D, E . This is easy to do for D, E . Indeed, letting

$$\tilde{P}^1 = P^1 + DZ, \quad \tilde{P}^0 = P^0 + EZ, \quad (2.69)$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} i[\tilde{P}^0, K] &= \tilde{P}^1, & i[\tilde{P}^1, K] &= \tilde{P}^0, \\ i[\tilde{P}^0, \tilde{P}^1] &= CZ. \end{aligned} \quad (2.70)$$

Thus, we have eliminated D, E .

But, C cannot be so eliminated — replacing the generators P^j with some linear combinations with Z , we do not change $[P^0, P^1]$. So,

$$H^2(\mathfrak{p}(1, 1)) \cong \mathbb{C} \quad (2.71)$$

is one-dimensional. \blacksquare

The fact that $H^2(\mathfrak{p}(1, 1))$ is non-trivial should make us appreciate:

LEMMA 2.18. For each $d \geq 2$, $H^2(\mathfrak{p}(1, d)) \cong \{0\}$. \blacksquare

PROOF. Let $\mathbb{R} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{e} \twoheadrightarrow \mathfrak{p}$ denote a central extension of \mathfrak{p} . Let Z denote a central charge, and let $J^{\mu\nu}, P^\mu$ denote arbitrarily chosen elements of the preimages of the identically named generators of \mathfrak{p} . The Lie bracket of \mathfrak{e} then takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} i[J^{\mu\nu}, J^{\sigma\lambda}] &= \eta^{\mu\lambda}J^{\nu\sigma} - \eta^{\mu\sigma}J^{\nu\lambda} + \eta^{\nu\sigma}J^{\mu\lambda} - \eta^{\nu\lambda}J^{\mu\sigma} + C^{\mu\nu,\sigma\lambda}Z \\ i[P^\mu, J^{\nu\sigma}] &= \eta^{\mu\nu}P^\sigma - \eta^{\mu\sigma}P^\nu + C^{\mu,\nu\sigma}Z \\ i[P^\mu, P^\nu] &= C^{\mu,\nu}Z \end{aligned} \quad (2.72)$$

for some $C^{\mu\nu,\sigma\lambda}, C^{\mu,\nu\sigma}, C^{\mu,\nu} \in \mathbb{C}$. The game is to show that there exist other choices of generators,

$$\tilde{J}^{\mu\nu} = J^{\mu\nu} + D^{\mu\nu}Z, \quad \tilde{P}^\mu = P^\mu + D^\mu Z \in \mathfrak{e}, \quad D^{\mu\nu} = -D^{\nu\mu}, D^\mu \in \mathbb{C}, \quad (2.73)$$

each differing from $J^{\mu\nu}, P^\mu$ by a multiple of the central charge Z , such that, when rewritten in terms of these new generators, eq. (2.72) becomes the usual Poincaré algebra,

$$i[\tilde{J}^{\mu\nu}, \tilde{J}^{\sigma\lambda}] = \eta^{\mu\lambda}\tilde{J}^{\nu\sigma} - \eta^{\mu\sigma}\tilde{J}^{\nu\lambda} + \eta^{\nu\sigma}\tilde{J}^{\mu\lambda} - \eta^{\nu\lambda}\tilde{J}^{\mu\sigma} \quad (2.74)$$

$$i[\tilde{P}^\mu, \tilde{J}^{\nu\sigma}] = \eta^{\mu\nu}\tilde{P}^\sigma - \eta^{\mu\sigma}\tilde{P}^\nu \quad (2.75)$$

$$i[\tilde{P}^\mu, \tilde{P}^\nu] = 0. \quad (2.76)$$

But note that the commutators above do not change when we replace $J^{\mu\nu}, P^\mu$ with $\tilde{J}^{\mu\nu}, \tilde{P}^\mu$:

$$[J^{\mu\nu}, J^{\sigma\lambda}] = [\tilde{J}^{\mu\nu}, \tilde{J}^{\sigma\lambda}], \quad [P^\mu, J^{\nu\sigma}] = [\tilde{P}^\mu, \tilde{J}^{\nu\sigma}], \quad [P^\mu, P^\nu] = [\tilde{P}^\mu, \tilde{P}^\nu]. \quad (2.77)$$

So, what we want to do is choose the coefficients $D^{\mu\nu}, D^\mu$ so that, upon rewriting the right-hand side of eq. (2.72) in terms of $\tilde{J}^{\mu\nu}, \tilde{P}^\mu$, the effect is to absorb the terms involving the central charge Z .

- ($C^{\mu,\nu} = 0$.) The most dangerous terms in eq. (2.72) are the $C^{\mu,\nu}$, because there are no terms on the right-hand side of $i[P^\mu, P^\nu] = C^{\mu,\nu}Z$ besides the central charge. If any of these were nonzero, we would not be able to eliminate them by redefining $J^{\mu\nu}, P^\mu$.

Fortunately, $C^{\mu,\nu}$ must be zero, so eq. (2.76) holds automatically. In order to prove this, consider the Jacobi identity

$$[J^{\mu\nu}, [P^\sigma, P^\lambda]] - [P^\lambda, [P^\sigma, J^{\mu\nu}]] + [P^\sigma, [P^\lambda, J^{\mu\nu}]] = 0. \quad (2.78)$$

The terms here, as computed using eq. (2.72), are $[J^{\mu\nu}, [P^\sigma, P^\lambda]] = 0$ and

$$\begin{aligned} [P^\lambda, [P^\sigma, J^{\mu\nu}]] &= i[P^\lambda, \eta^{\sigma\nu}P^\mu - \eta^{\sigma\mu}P^\nu] = (C^{\lambda,\mu}\eta^{\sigma\nu} - C^{\lambda,\nu}\eta^{\sigma\mu})Z, \\ [P^\sigma, [P^\lambda, J^{\mu\nu}]] &= i[P^\sigma, \eta^{\lambda\nu}P^\mu - \eta^{\lambda\mu}P^\nu] = (C^{\sigma,\mu}\eta^{\lambda\nu} - C^{\sigma,\nu}\eta^{\lambda\mu})Z. \end{aligned} \quad (2.79)$$

So, the Jacobi identity eq. (2.78) says

$$C^{\lambda,\mu}\eta^{\sigma\nu} - C^{\lambda,\nu}\eta^{\sigma\mu} = C^{\sigma,\mu}\eta^{\lambda\nu} - C^{\sigma,\nu}\eta^{\lambda\mu}. \quad (2.80)$$

Contracting with $\eta_{\mu\sigma}$ yields $(d-1)C^{\lambda,\nu} = 0$, so $C^{\lambda,\nu} = 0$. (This is the only place in the argument where we use that $d \geq 2$.)

- (**Eliminating $C^{\mu,\nu\sigma}$.**) Next, we check that, by defining $\tilde{P}^\mu = P^\mu + D^\mu Z$ for appropriate D^μ , we can arrange eq. (2.75). However, we only have $1+d$ different D^μ 's, and many more $C^{\mu,\nu\sigma}$'s, so it had better be the case that the $C^{\mu,\nu\sigma}$'s are severely restricted by the Jacobi identity. We win if (and only if, as reversing the reasoning shows) the Jacobi identity implies that $C^{\mu,\nu\sigma}$ has the form

$$C^{\mu,\nu\sigma} = \eta^{\mu\nu}\xi^\sigma - \eta^{\mu\sigma}\xi^\nu \quad (2.81)$$

for some $\xi^\bullet \in \mathbb{C}$. Indeed, we can then define $D^\mu = \xi^\mu$, and this has the desired effect:

$$\begin{aligned} \eta^{\mu\nu}P^\sigma - \eta^{\mu\sigma}P^\nu + C^{\mu,\nu\sigma}Z &= \eta^{\mu\nu}P^\sigma - \eta^{\mu\sigma}P^\nu + (\eta^{\mu\nu}\xi^\sigma - \eta^{\mu\sigma}\xi^\nu)Z \\ &= \eta^{\mu\nu}\tilde{P}^\sigma - \eta^{\mu\sigma}\tilde{P}^\nu. \end{aligned} \quad (2.82)$$

To prove eq. (2.81), consider the Jacobi identity

$$[J^{\mu\nu}, [P^\sigma, J^{\lambda\rho}]] + [P^\sigma, [J^{\lambda\rho}, J^{\mu\nu}]] - [J^{\lambda\rho}, [P^\sigma, J^{\mu\nu}]] = 0. \quad (2.83)$$

The terms here are given by

$$\begin{aligned} [J^{\mu\nu}, [P^\sigma, J^{\lambda\rho}]] &= (\eta^{\sigma\rho}\eta^{\lambda\nu} - \eta^{\sigma\lambda}\eta^{\rho\nu})P^\mu + (\eta^{\sigma\lambda}\eta^{\rho\mu} - \eta^{\sigma\rho}\eta^{\lambda\mu})P^\nu \\ &\quad + (\eta^{\sigma\lambda}C^{\rho,\mu\nu} - \eta^{\sigma\rho}C^{\lambda,\mu\nu})Z, \\ [J^{\lambda\rho}, [P^\sigma, J^{\mu\nu}]] &= (\eta^{\sigma\nu}\eta^{\mu\rho} - \eta^{\sigma\mu}\eta^{\nu\rho})P^\lambda + (\eta^{\sigma\mu}\eta^{\nu\lambda} - \eta^{\sigma\nu}\eta^{\mu\lambda})P^\rho \\ &\quad + (\eta^{\sigma\mu}C^{\nu,\lambda\rho} - \eta^{\sigma\nu}C^{\mu,\lambda\rho})Z, \\ [P^\sigma, [J^{\lambda\rho}, J^{\mu\nu}]] &= (\eta^{\rho\nu}\eta^{\sigma\lambda} - \eta^{\lambda\nu}\eta^{\sigma\rho})P^\mu + (\eta^{\lambda\mu}\eta^{\sigma\rho} - \eta^{\rho\mu}\eta^{\sigma\lambda})P^\nu \\ &\quad + (\eta^{\lambda\nu}\eta^{\sigma\mu} - \eta^{\lambda\mu}\eta^{\sigma\nu})P^\rho + (\eta^{\rho\mu}\eta^{\sigma\nu} - \eta^{\rho\nu}\eta^{\sigma\mu})P^\lambda \\ &\quad + (\eta^{\lambda\mu}C^{\sigma,\rho\nu} - \eta^{\lambda\nu}C^{\sigma,\rho\mu} + \eta^{\rho\nu}C^{\sigma,\lambda\mu} - \eta^{\rho\mu}C^{\sigma,\lambda\nu})Z, \end{aligned} \quad (2.84)$$

so the Jacobi identity eq. (2.83) reads

$$\begin{aligned} \eta^{\sigma\lambda}C^{\rho,\mu\nu} - \eta^{\sigma\rho}C^{\lambda,\mu\nu} - \eta^{\sigma\mu}C^{\nu,\lambda\rho} + \eta^{\sigma\nu}C^{\mu,\lambda\rho} \\ + \eta^{\lambda\mu}C^{\sigma,\rho\nu} - \eta^{\lambda\nu}C^{\sigma,\rho\mu} + \eta^{\rho\nu}C^{\sigma,\lambda\mu} - \eta^{\rho\mu}C^{\sigma,\lambda\nu} = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (2.85)$$

Contracting with $\eta_{\mu\sigma}$ yields $dC^{\nu,\lambda\rho} - \eta^{\lambda\nu}C^{\sigma,\rho\sigma} + \eta^{\rho\nu}C^{\sigma,\lambda\sigma} = 0$. (Here we are using standard conventions regarding raised and lowered indices. A review is in §??.) Rearranging and renaming dummy variables ($\nu \rightsquigarrow \mu$, $\lambda \rightsquigarrow \nu$, $\sigma \rightsquigarrow \lambda$, $\rho \rightsquigarrow \sigma$), this last equation becomes

$$C^{\mu,\nu\sigma} = d^{-1}(\eta^{\mu\nu}C^{\lambda,\sigma}_\lambda - \eta^{\mu\sigma}C^{\lambda,\nu}_\lambda) \quad (2.86)$$

This says that eq. (2.81) holds for $\xi^\sigma = d^{-1}C^{\lambda,\sigma}_\lambda$.

- (**Eliminating $C^{\mu,\nu\lambda}$.**) This is equivalent to showing that the cohomology $H^2(\mathfrak{o}(1+d))$ of the Lorentz Lie algebra is trivial. We have separated this as its own lemma, Lemma 2.19.

□

LEMMA 2.19. For any $d \geq 1$, $H^2(\mathfrak{o}(1+d)) = \{0\}$.

■

REMARK 2.20. Whitehead's second lemma [Jac79] says that $H^2(\mathfrak{g})$ is trivial whenever \mathfrak{g} is a semisimple Lie algebra. Since the Lorentz Lie algebra $\mathfrak{o}(D)$ is semisimple for $D \geq 3$ (in fact simple, with the one exception $D = 4$), when $d \geq 2$, Lemma 2.19 is a special case of this. The Lie algebra $\mathfrak{o}(2)$ relevant to the $d = 1$ case is abelian and therefore not considered semisimple, but this case is trivial regardless.

Note that $\mathfrak{p}(1, d)$ is *not* semisimple, because of the abelian subalgebra of translations. So, Whitehead's lemma does not apply, and indeed we saw that $\mathfrak{p}(1, 1)$ has nontrivial H^2 . ■

PROOF OF LEMMA 2.19. The only two-dimensional Lie algebra with nontrivial center is the abelian one, hence a trivial central extension of $\mathfrak{o}(2) \cong \mathbb{R}$. This gives the $d = 1$ case of the lemma. For the rest of the proof, suppose $d \geq 2$.

Let $\mathbb{R} \hookrightarrow \mathfrak{e} \twoheadrightarrow \mathfrak{o}(1+d)$ denote a central extension of $\mathfrak{o}(1+d)$, $Z \in \mathfrak{e}$ denote a central charge, and $J^{\mu\nu}$ denote arbitrarily chosen elements of the preimages of the identically named generators of $\mathfrak{o}(1+d)$. The Lie bracket of \mathfrak{e} then takes the form

$$i[J^{\mu\nu}, J^{\sigma\lambda}] = \eta^{\mu\lambda}J^{\nu\sigma} - \eta^{\mu\sigma}J^{\nu\lambda} + \eta^{\nu\sigma}J^{\mu\lambda} - \eta^{\nu\lambda}J^{\mu\sigma} + C^{\mu\nu,\sigma\lambda}Z, \quad (2.87)$$

for some structure constants $C^{\mu\nu,\sigma\lambda}$. The game is to show that we can choose $D^{\mu\nu} = D^{-\nu\mu} \in \mathbb{C}$ such that, if we define $\tilde{J}^{\mu\nu} = J^{\mu\nu} + D^{\mu\nu}Z$, then eq. (2.87) can be written

$$i[\tilde{J}^{\mu\nu}, \tilde{J}^{\sigma\lambda}] = \eta^{\mu\lambda}\tilde{J}^{\nu\sigma} - \eta^{\mu\sigma}\tilde{J}^{\nu\lambda} + \eta^{\nu\sigma}\tilde{J}^{\mu\lambda} - \eta^{\nu\lambda}\tilde{J}^{\mu\sigma}, \quad (2.88)$$

which says that $\tilde{J}^{\mu\nu}$ satisfy the usual Lorentz algebra. However, we only have $d(d-1)/2$ different $D^{\mu\nu}$'s, and many more $C^{\mu\nu,\sigma\lambda}$'s that we want to eliminate, so it had better be the case that the latter are severely restricted. By $J^{\mu\nu} = -J^{\nu\mu}$ and the anti-symmetry of \mathfrak{e} 's Lie bracket, $C^{\mu\nu,\sigma\lambda}$ switches sign under interchanging the two Lorentz indices on either side of the comma, or under interchanging the two sides of the comma.

Owing to the centrality of Z , we have $[J^{\mu\nu}, J^{\sigma\lambda}] = [\tilde{J}^{\mu\nu}, \tilde{J}^{\sigma\lambda}]$, so what we want to do is choose $D^{\mu\nu}$ such that the right-hand sides of eq. (2.87), eq. (2.88) agree. This means

$$C^{\mu\nu,\sigma\lambda} = \eta^{\mu\lambda}D^{\nu\sigma} - \eta^{\mu\sigma}D^{\nu\lambda} + \eta^{\nu\sigma}D^{\mu\lambda} - \eta^{\nu\lambda}D^{\mu\sigma}. \quad (2.89)$$

So, we win if the $C^{\mu\nu,\sigma\lambda}$ can be shown to have this form.

The restriction comes from the Jacobi identity

$$[J^{\mu\nu}, [J^{\sigma\lambda}, J^{\rho\tau}]] + [J^{\sigma\lambda}, [J^{\rho\tau}, J^{\mu\nu}]] + [J^{\rho\tau}, [J^{\mu\nu}, J^{\sigma\lambda}]] = 0. \quad (2.90)$$

Note that this is \mathfrak{e} 's Lie bracket. Let $\mathcal{J} = \text{span}_{\mathbb{C}}\{J^{\mu\nu} : 0 \leq \mu < \nu \leq d\} \subseteq \mathfrak{e}$ denote the span of the $J^{\mu\nu}$'s. Define $J_I, J_{II}, J_{III} \in \mathcal{J}$ and $\xi_I, \xi_{II}, \xi_{III} \in \mathbb{C}$ by

$$\begin{aligned} [J^{\mu\nu}, [J^{\sigma\lambda}, J^{\rho\tau}]] &= J_I + \xi_I Z \\ [J^{\sigma\lambda}, [J^{\rho\tau}, J^{\mu\nu}]] &= J_{II} + \xi_{II} Z \\ [J^{\rho\tau}, [J^{\mu\nu}, J^{\sigma\lambda}]] &= J_{III} + \xi_{III} Z. \end{aligned} \quad (2.91)$$

The Jacobi identity for $\mathfrak{so}(1+d)$ guarantees that $J_I + J_{II} + J_{III} = 0$, so eq. (2.90) (which was the Jacobi identity for \mathfrak{e}) says $\xi_I + \xi_{II} + \xi_{III} = 0$. Let us compute what these ξ 's are:

$$\begin{aligned} [J^{\mu\nu}, [J^{\sigma\lambda}, J^{\rho\tau}]] &= -i[J^{\mu\nu}, \eta^{\rho\lambda}J^{\tau\sigma} - \eta^{\rho\sigma}J^{\tau\lambda} + \eta^{\tau\sigma}J^{\rho\lambda} - \eta^{\tau\lambda}J^{\rho\sigma}] \\ &= -(\eta^{\rho\lambda}C^{\mu\nu,\tau\sigma} - \eta^{\rho\sigma}C^{\mu\nu,\tau\lambda} + \eta^{\tau\sigma}C^{\mu\nu,\rho\lambda} - \eta^{\tau\lambda}C^{\mu\nu,\rho\sigma})Z \text{ mod } \mathcal{J}, \\ [J^{\sigma\lambda}, [J^{\rho\tau}, J^{\mu\nu}]] &= -i[J^{\sigma\lambda}, \eta^{\mu\tau}J^{\nu\rho} - \eta^{\mu\rho}J^{\nu\tau} + \eta^{\nu\rho}J^{\mu\tau} - \eta^{\nu\tau}J^{\mu\rho}] \\ &= -(\eta^{\mu\tau}C^{\sigma\lambda,\nu\rho} - \eta^{\mu\rho}C^{\sigma\lambda,\nu\tau} + \eta^{\nu\rho}C^{\sigma\lambda,\mu\tau} - \eta^{\nu\tau}C^{\sigma\lambda,\mu\rho})Z \text{ mod } \mathcal{J}, \\ [J^{\rho\tau}, [J^{\mu\nu}, J^{\sigma\lambda}]] &= -i[J^{\rho\tau}, \eta^{\sigma\nu}J^{\lambda\mu} - \eta^{\sigma\mu}J^{\lambda\nu} + \eta^{\lambda\mu}J^{\sigma\nu} - \eta^{\lambda\nu}J^{\sigma\mu}] \\ &= -(\eta^{\sigma\nu}C^{\rho\tau,\lambda\mu} - \eta^{\sigma\mu}C^{\rho\tau,\lambda\nu} + \eta^{\lambda\mu}C^{\rho\tau,\sigma\nu} - \eta^{\lambda\nu}C^{\rho\tau,\sigma\mu})Z \text{ mod } \mathcal{J}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.92)$$

That is,

$$\begin{aligned} -\xi_I &= \eta^{\rho\lambda}C^{\mu\nu,\tau\sigma} - \eta^{\rho\sigma}C^{\mu\nu,\tau\lambda} + \eta^{\tau\sigma}C^{\mu\nu,\rho\lambda} - \eta^{\tau\lambda}C^{\mu\nu,\rho\sigma}, \\ -\xi_{II} &= \eta^{\mu\tau}C^{\sigma\lambda,\nu\rho} - \eta^{\mu\rho}C^{\sigma\lambda,\nu\tau} + \eta^{\nu\rho}C^{\sigma\lambda,\mu\tau} - \eta^{\nu\tau}C^{\sigma\lambda,\mu\rho}, \\ -\xi_{III} &= \eta^{\sigma\nu}C^{\rho\tau,\lambda\mu} - \eta^{\sigma\mu}C^{\rho\tau,\lambda\nu} + \eta^{\lambda\mu}C^{\rho\tau,\sigma\nu} - \eta^{\lambda\nu}C^{\rho\tau,\sigma\mu}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.93)$$

So, the Jacobi identity $\xi_I + \xi_{II} + \xi_{III} = 0$ says

$$\begin{aligned} \eta^{\rho\lambda}C^{\mu\nu,\tau\sigma} - \eta^{\rho\sigma}C^{\mu\nu,\tau\lambda} + \eta^{\tau\sigma}C^{\mu\nu,\rho\lambda} - \eta^{\tau\lambda}C^{\mu\nu,\rho\sigma} + \eta^{\mu\tau}C^{\sigma\lambda,\nu\rho} - \eta^{\mu\rho}C^{\sigma\lambda,\nu\tau} + \eta^{\nu\rho}C^{\sigma\lambda,\mu\tau} - \eta^{\nu\tau}C^{\sigma\lambda,\mu\rho} \\ + \eta^{\sigma\nu}C^{\rho\tau,\lambda\mu} - \eta^{\sigma\mu}C^{\rho\tau,\lambda\nu} + \eta^{\lambda\mu}C^{\rho\tau,\sigma\nu} - \eta^{\lambda\nu}C^{\rho\tau,\sigma\mu} = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (2.94)$$

Contracting with $\eta_{\mu\sigma}$ gives

$$-(d-1)C^{\rho\tau,\lambda\nu} = \eta^{\tau\lambda}C_\sigma^{\nu,\rho\sigma} + \eta^{\nu\tau}C_\sigma^{\lambda,\sigma\rho} - \eta^{\rho\lambda}C_\sigma^{\nu,\tau\sigma} - \eta^{\nu\rho}C_\sigma^{\lambda,\sigma\tau}, \quad (2.95)$$

having used the various anti-symmetries of C^\bullet under interchanging various Lorentz indices. Renaming dummy variables ($\rho \rightsquigarrow \mu$, $\tau \rightsquigarrow \nu$, $\lambda \rightsquigarrow \sigma$, $\nu \rightsquigarrow \lambda$, $\sigma \rightsquigarrow \rho$) and rearranging, we end up with

$$(d-1)C^{\mu\nu,\sigma\lambda} = \eta^{\mu\lambda}C_\rho^{\sigma,\rho\nu} - \eta^{\mu\sigma}C_\rho^{\lambda,\rho\nu} + \eta^{\nu\sigma}C_\rho^{\lambda,\rho\mu} - \eta^{\nu\lambda}C_\rho^{\sigma,\rho\mu}. \quad (2.96)$$

So, eq. (2.89) holds with $D^{\nu\sigma} = (d-1)^{-1}C_\rho^{\sigma,\rho\nu} = -(d-1)^{-1}C_\rho^{\nu,\rho\sigma}$. \square

Exercises and problems

EXERCISE 2.1: Show that the only one-dimensional continuous representation of $SU(2)$ is the trivial one.

Hint: see the proof of Proposition 3.8.

EXERCISE 2.2: Show that $SO(1, 3) \cong PSL(2, \mathbb{C})$.

EXERCISE 2.3: Let $\mathfrak{t} = \mathbb{R}^2$ denote the abelian two-dimensional Lie algebra. Show that $H^2(\mathfrak{t}; \mathbb{R}) \cong \mathbb{R}$.

EXERCISE 2.4: Prove eq. (2.66) ($H^2(\mathfrak{p}_\mathbb{C}; \mathbb{C}) \cong \mathbb{C} \otimes_{\mathbb{R}} H^2(\mathfrak{p}; \mathbb{R})$).

PROBLEM 2.1: Prove the claim in Remark 2.2: there does not exist a continuous map $\mu : SO(3) \rightarrow U(2)$ such that, for all $U \in SU(2)$, $\mu(\pi(U))$ differs from U by a phase.

Hint: show that such an existence would imply a homeomorphism $U(2) \cong U(1) \times SO(3)$. This contradicts

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_1(U(2)) &\cong \mathbb{Z} \\ \pi_1(U(1) \times SO(3)) &\cong \pi_1(U(1)) \times \pi_1(SO(3)) \\ &\cong \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_2, \end{aligned}$$

since $\mathbb{Z}_2 \not\cong \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}_2$.

PROBLEM 2.2: This problem discusses a few isomorphisms similar to $Spin(1, 3) \cong SL(2, \mathbb{C})$ that hold for other numbers of spatial dimensions besides the physical $d = 3$ case.

- (a) Show that $Spin(1, 2) \cong SL(2, \mathbb{R})$.
- (b) Show that $Spin(1, 4)$ is isomorphic to the group

$$Sp(1, 1) = \left\{ A \in M_2(\mathbb{H}) : A^\dagger \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \quad (2.97)$$

consisting of 2-by-2 quaternionic ‘‘Lorentz matrices.’’

- (c) (Optional.) Show that the group $Spin(1, 5)$ is isomorphic to the group

$$SL(2, \mathbb{H}) = \{M \in M_2(\mathbb{H}) : \det_D(M) = 1\} \quad (2.98)$$

of 2-by-2 quaternionic unimodular ‘‘matrices.’’ Note: the correct notion of determinant for quaternionic matrices is the Dieudonné determinant, $\det_D(M)$. This is the same thing as $\sqrt{\det(M_\mathbb{C})}$, where $M_\mathbb{C}$ is the 4-by-4 complex matrix representing M .

- (d) (Optional.) Combining the results of (a), (c), the following pattern appears: for the three division algebras $\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H}$, the isomorphism $Spin(1, 1 + \dim \mathbb{K}) \cong SL(2, \mathbb{K})$ holds, where $\dim \mathbb{K} \in \{1, 2, 4\}$ is the dimension of \mathbb{K} as a real vector space. What does this suggest about $Spin(1, 9)$?

PROBLEM 2.3: This problem continues Example 2.6.

- (a) Consider the following elements of $\mathfrak{h}_{\mathbb{C}}$:

$$\mathbf{x} = -i \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{p} = -i \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{Z} = -i \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.99)$$

Show that these satisfy the “canonical commutation relation”

$$i[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}] = \mathbf{Z}. \quad (2.100)$$

- (b) Check that the Schrödinger representation is in fact a representation of the Heisenberg group.
(c) Show that in the Schrödinger representation,

$$i[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}] = \hbar. \quad (2.101)$$

Why does this imply that the projective representation $\rho_{\hbar} : (\mathbb{R}^2, +) \rightarrow \text{PU}(\mathcal{H})$ cannot be lifted to a unitary representation of $(\mathbb{R}^2, +)$?

PROBLEM 2.4: (a) Formulate a category relQM of relativistic quantum mechanical systems, and show that, if $d \geq 2$, then this category is equivalent to the category of (continuous) unitary representations of $P^*(1, d)$.
(b) (Optional.) Formulate and prove a similar statement for $d = 1$.

PROBLEM 2.5: The *celestial sphere* $\mathcal{CS}^2 = \{\Gamma_y : y \in \mathbb{S}^2\}$ is the set of null lines $\Gamma_y = \{(t, ty) : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ in $\mathbb{R}^{1,3}$. This is naturally given a smooth manifold structure, identifying it with \mathbb{S}^2 via the map $\Gamma_y \mapsto y$.

- (a) Show that any restricted Lorentz transformation induces a conformal transformation of the celestial sphere.

Hint: $\mathbb{S}^2 \cong \mathbb{CP}^1$, with conformal transformations being those on $\mathbb{CP}^1 = \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$ induced by Möbius transformations

$$z \mapsto \frac{az + b}{cz + d} \quad a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{C} \text{ s.t. } ad - bc \neq 0. \quad (2.102)$$

- (b) (Optional.) Show that this yields a surjective map $\text{SO}(1, 3) \rightarrow \text{PSL}(2, \mathbb{C})$.

CHAPTER 3

The spectrum

In the previous lecture, we covered how every projective unitary representation of the restricted Poincaré group lifts to an ordinary unitary representation of the universal cover $P^*(1, d)$.¹ This lecture begins our analysis of the lift. We concentrate on the subgroup

$$(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}, +) \subset P^*(1, d) \tag{3.1}$$

of translations, whose representation theory we understand. The decomposition of a unitary representation of this group into irreps is an abstract version of Fourier analysis. The *spectrum*

$$\sigma \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \tag{3.2}$$

is the (closed) set keeping track of which irreps show up. A rigorous definition appears below; roughly, it is the support of the Fourier transforms of states in our space. This is an invariant of the representation, meaning that the spectra of two unitarily equivalent representations agree.

On an intuitive level, the spectrum consists of the possible “energy-momentum” vectors $p = (E, \mathbf{p})$ of states of our system. In classical-mechanical special relativity, a physical system of mass $m > 0$ and velocity $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{B}^d$ has momentum

$$\mathbf{p} = \gamma m \mathbf{v} = \frac{m \mathbf{v}}{\sqrt{1 - \|\mathbf{v}\|^2}}. \tag{3.3}$$

The energy E is

$$\begin{aligned} E = \gamma m &= \frac{m}{\sqrt{1 - \|\mathbf{v}\|^2}} \approx \underbrace{m}_{\text{Rest energy}} + \underbrace{\frac{m\|\mathbf{v}\|^2}{2}}_{\text{Newtonian kinetic energy}} + \dots \\ &= \sqrt{\|\mathbf{p}\|^2 + m^2}. \end{aligned} \tag{3.4}$$

These are collected into $p(\mathbf{v}) = (E, \mathbf{p})$. If our relativistic quantum mechanical system is modeling the quantum analogue of the classical system described above, then $p(\mathbf{v})$ should be in the spectrum σ , for any $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{B}^d$.

Throughout this lecture, we use $\rho : P^*(1, d) \rightarrow U(\mathcal{H})$ to denote our unitary representation of $P^*(1, d)$ and $\varrho = \rho|_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d}}$ to denote the restriction of ρ to the subgroup of translations.

1. The technical challenge

Given a unitary representation of a group G , the simplest hope for decomposing the representation into irreps would be that the representation decomposes as a direct sum of its irreducible subspaces.² Unitary representations of finite groups and more generally compact Lie groups do decompose in this way, but non-compact groups are more subtle.

To see why, consider the representation of the abelian group $(\mathbb{R}, +)$ on $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ acting via translation: $(T_a\psi)(x) = \psi(x + a)$. Since the irreps of abelian groups are one-dimensional, this infinite-dimensional representation is certainly reducible. An irrep $\mathcal{X} \subset L^2(\mathbb{R})$ would be the span of

¹As long as $d \geq 2$.

²Or primary subspaces.

a nonzero element $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$, that, when translated by any amount, yields a multiple of f : for each $a \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$f(x+a) \in \mathbb{C}f(x). \quad (3.5)$$

Some functions $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ do have this property, for instance $f(x) = e^{\alpha x}$ for $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, but such f never lie in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$. Consequently, $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ does not contain *even one* irrep of $(\mathbb{R}, +)$. It is not the sum of its irreducible subspaces.

The Fourier transform allows us to write, for any $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$,

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ix\xi} \hat{f}(\xi) d\xi, \quad (3.6)$$

for some $\hat{f} \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$.³ This *looks* like a decomposition of f into components in irreps. Indeed, the function $\chi_\xi(x) = e^{ix\xi}$, when translated by $a \in \mathbb{R}$ units, changes by a factor of $e^{ia\xi}$:

$$\chi_\xi(x+a) = e^{ia\xi} \chi_\xi(x). \quad (3.7)$$

Now, χ_ξ is not in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$, but we can consider $\text{span}_{\mathbb{C}} \chi_\xi$ its own Hilbert space (isomorphic to \mathbb{C}), hosting the one-dimensional irrep $\mathbb{R} \ni a \mapsto e^{ia\xi}$ of $(\mathbb{R}, +)$. So, the (inverse) Fourier transform acts like a decomposition of f into an *integral* of irreducible components χ_ξ that fail to lie in \mathcal{H} . The coefficient of χ_ξ is $\hat{f}(\xi) \in \mathbb{C}$, which is defined for almost all $\xi \in \mathbb{R}$. The moral is:

We need to use a direct integral to carry out the decomposition into irreps, instead of a direct sum.

Note that the example of $G = (\mathbb{R}, +)$ is of direct relevance to $G = P^*(1, d)$, because $P^*(1, d)$ contains the former as a subgroup.

2. Abstract plane waves

Consider the group $(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}, +)$. Because it is abelian, its irreps are all one-dimensional. For each p ,

$$\chi_p : \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \ni x \mapsto e^{i\langle x, p \rangle} \in \mathbb{C} \quad (3.8)$$

is a one-dimensional irrep of $(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}, +)$, and every irrep has this form.

As far as the previous sentence is concerned, the bilinear form $\langle -, - \rangle : (\mathbb{R}^{1+d})^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is arbitrary, as long as it is non-degenerate. Different choices lead to different parametrizations of the set of irreps by p . However, one choice is particularly natural: the *Lorentzian* “inner product”

$$\langle x, p \rangle = x \cdot p = -x^0 p_0 + \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{p}. \quad (3.9)$$

For this choice of $\langle -, - \rangle$,

$$\chi_p(x) = e^{ix \cdot p} \quad (3.10)$$

is described as a plane wave with “momentum” $p = (p_0, \mathbf{p})$. The temporal component $p_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ is the temporal frequency of the wave, while $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the velocity. The quantity $\|\mathbf{p}\|$ is the spatial frequency. Plane waves are standing waves, not wavepackets, so the wave never “goes anywhere,” in the sense that the amplitude is constant in time. Nevertheless, it makes sense to talk about the wave’s velocity, speed, direction of travel $\mathbf{p}/\|\mathbf{p}\| \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$ (unless $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0}$), etc.

What makes the Lorentzian inner product natural is:

PROPOSITION 3.1. *For any $\Lambda \in O(1, d)$, we have $\chi_p \circ \Lambda^{-1} = \chi_{\Lambda p}$.* ■

³Recall that, though the integral

$$\hat{f}(\xi) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ix\xi} f(x) \frac{dx}{2\pi}$$

might not make literal sense for all $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$, it makes sense for f lying in some dense subset $\mathcal{D} \subset L^2(\mathbb{R})$, and that is good enough; the Fourier transform $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{D} \ni f \mapsto \hat{f}$, defined initially only for $f \in \mathcal{D}$, is bounded $L^2 \rightarrow L^2$ (say by Parseval–Plancherel), and therefore extends boundedly to all $f \in L^2$.

In words, acting (via precomposition with Λ^{-1}) on a plane wave with momentum p results in a plane wave with momentum Λp .

PROOF. $\chi_p \circ \Lambda^{-1}(x) = e^{i(\Lambda^{-1}x) \cdot p} = e^{ix \cdot (\Lambda p)} = \chi_{\Lambda p}(x)$. \square

By an *abstract plane wave* with momentum p , we mean a unitary representation of $(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}, +)$ consisting of a direct sum of countably many copies of the same χ_p . These model polarized plane waves.

EXAMPLE 3.2 (Light). A light wave with frequency $\omega > 0$ traveling in the direction $\theta \in \mathbb{S}^2$ is modeled by a function $A_{\varepsilon, \theta} \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^{1,3}; \mathbb{C})$ of the form

$$A_{\varepsilon, \theta}(x) = \varepsilon e^{-i\omega t + i\omega \mathbf{x} \cdot \theta}, \quad (3.11)$$

where $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{C}^3$ satisfies $\varepsilon \perp \theta$ (meaning that the vectors $\Re \varepsilon, \Im \varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^3$ are both orthogonal to θ). So, $A_{\varepsilon, \theta}(x) = \varepsilon e^{i(x, p)}$ for $p = (\omega, \omega\theta)$. The vector ε is known as the *polarization* of the plane wave. It specifies the direction orthogonal to the wavevector θ in which the electric field is oscillating. The magnetic field is oscillating in the remaining orthogonal direction. Because the space

$$\mathcal{H}[p] = \{A_{\varepsilon, \theta} : \varepsilon \perp \theta\} \quad (3.12)$$

of light waves traveling in the fixed direction θ is two-dimensional, one says that light admits two distinct polarizations. The group $(\mathbb{R}^{1,3}, +)$ of spacetime translations acts on the space \mathcal{H}_θ in the obvious way. This representation is equivalent to $\chi_p \oplus \chi_p$. We have two copies of χ_p , one for each “polarization.” \blacksquare

EXAMPLE 3.3 (Dirac plane waves). In Dirac’s theory of the electron, an electron traveling with velocity exactly $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is described by a plane wave

$$u_{\phi, \mathbf{p}}(x) = e^{-it\sqrt{m_e^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2} + i\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{p}} \begin{pmatrix} \phi \\ \frac{\sigma \cdot \mathbf{p}}{\omega + m_e} \phi \end{pmatrix}, \quad \phi \in \mathbb{C}^2, \quad (3.13)$$

where $m_e > 0$ is the mass of the electron (in natural units), $\omega = \sqrt{m_e^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2}$. This has energy-momentum $p = (\omega, \mathbf{p})$. (When thinking about an electron, you probably have in mind a *wavepacket*, not a plane wave. But because we are specifying the velocity exactly, the Heisenberg uncertainty principle forces the particle to be de-localized, like a plane wave, rather than a wavepacket.) Here, $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3)$ is the vector of Pauli matrices.

A “spin up” electron is $u_{(1,0), \mathbf{p}}$, and a “spin down” electron is $u_{(0,1), \mathbf{p}}$. The group $(\mathbb{R}^{1,3}, +)$ of spacetime translations acts on

$$\mathcal{H}[p] = \{u_{\phi, \mathbf{p}} : \phi \in \mathbb{C}^2\} \quad (3.14)$$

in the obvious way. This representation is equivalent to $\chi_p \oplus \chi_p$. We have two copies of χ_p , corresponding to the two degrees-of-freedom present in the pair $\phi \in \mathbb{C}^2$. One for the spin-up electron, and one for the spin-down electron. \blacksquare

EXAMPLE 3.4 (Phonons). Phonons represent oscillations of a crystal lattice, or massive analogues of the photon. The plane waves have the form

$$A_{\varepsilon, \mathbf{p}}(x) = \varepsilon e^{-it\sqrt{m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2}} e^{i\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{p}}, \quad (3.15)$$

where $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{C}^3$ is *not* required to be orthogonal to $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^3$. Thus, compared to the photon, we have an extra polarization, $\varepsilon \parallel \mathbf{p}$, whose interpretation is that it describes a pressure wave, in which the density of the crystal is oscillating along the wave’s direction of propagation. Imagine the atoms in the crystal oscillating back and forth. The interpretation of the polarizations $\varepsilon \perp \mathbf{p}$ is that they represent transverse waves, in which the crystal lattice is oscillating orthogonally to the direction in which the wave is propagating. \blacksquare

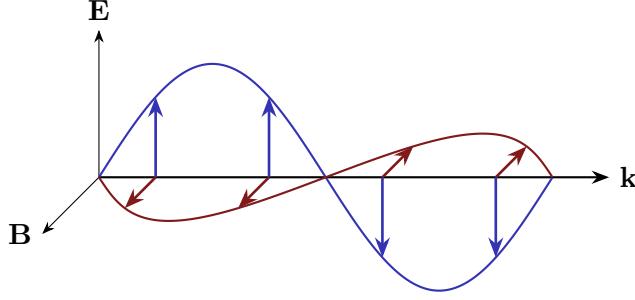


FIGURE 3.1. A plane wave of the electromagnetic field, showing the electric and magnetic fields oscillating in orthogonal directions, both in the plane \mathbf{k}^\perp perpendicular to the wavevector \mathbf{k} . Not depicted is the wave's variation in time.

3. Definition of the spectrum

3.1. The spectrum: incorrect method. We would like to decompose $\varrho = \rho|_{(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}, +)}$ into isotypic components, i.e. generalized plane waves. Each generalized plane wave is described by a (unique) $p \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$. Define

$$\mathcal{H}[p] = \{\psi \in \mathcal{H} \text{ s.t. } \varrho(-)\psi = \chi_p(-)\psi\}. \quad (3.16)$$

This consists of all of the generalized plane waves in \mathcal{H} with energy-momentum exactly p .

As a preliminary attempt at defining the spectrum, let

$$\sigma_0 = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \text{ s.t. } \mathcal{H}[p] \neq \{0\}\}. \quad (3.17)$$

This will not quite work, but it is instructive to push ahead.

PROPOSITION 3.5. *If $\Lambda \in \text{Spin}(1, d)$ and $\psi \in \mathcal{H}[p]$, then $\rho(\Lambda)\psi \in \mathcal{H}[\Lambda p]$.* ■

PROOF. Using $T_a T_\Lambda = T_\Lambda T_{\Lambda^{-1}a}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \varrho(a)\rho(\Lambda)\psi &= \rho(T_a\Lambda)\psi = \rho(\Lambda(\Lambda^{-1}T_a\Lambda))\psi = \rho(\Lambda T_{\Lambda^{-1}a})\psi = \rho(\Lambda)\varrho(\Lambda^{-1}a)\psi \\ &= e^{i\langle p, \Lambda^{-1}a \rangle} \rho(\Lambda)\psi = e^{i\langle \Lambda p, a \rangle} \rho(\Lambda)\psi. \end{aligned} \quad (3.18)$$

□

So, σ_0 is closed under the action of the restricted Lorentz group:

$$p \in \sigma_0 \implies \Lambda p \in \sigma_0 \text{ for all } \Lambda \in \text{SO}(1, d). \quad (3.19)$$

By the same logic, if $S \subset \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ is closed under the action of the restricted Lorentz group, then the subspace

$$\overline{\bigoplus_{p \in S} \mathcal{H}[p]} \subseteq \mathcal{H} \quad (3.20)$$

consisting of superpositions of finitely many of the generalized plane waves with momentum $p \in S$ is a subspace closed under the action of $\text{P}^*(1, d)$.

If ρ is irreducible, this subspace can only be $\{0\}$ or all of \mathcal{H} :

$$\overline{\bigoplus_{p \in S} \mathcal{H}[p]} = \begin{cases} \{0\}, \\ \mathcal{H}. \end{cases} \quad (3.21)$$

(If we are only assuming that ρ is primary, the reasoning is similar.) It follows that either $\sigma_0 = \emptyset$ or it consists of the closure of precisely one orbit O of the Lorentz group.

Here's the major technical snag: $\sigma_0 \subseteq \{0\}$. No irreps exist as actual subspaces of \mathcal{H} , with the one possible exception $p = 0$:

$$\mathcal{H}[p] = \{0\} \text{ for all } p \neq 0, \quad (3.22)$$

exactly as in the example of the Fourier transform that we discussed earlier. Indeed, if $q \neq p$, then $\mathcal{H}[p]$ and $\mathcal{H}[q]$ must be orthogonal; this is the usual computation that eigenvectors of a self-adjoint operator with different eigenvalues must be orthogonal. Because every Lorentz orbit $\subset \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ besides the singleton $\{0\}$ consists of uncountably many different points, $\mathcal{H}[p] \neq \{0\}$ would imply that \mathcal{H} is not separable.

While \mathcal{H} will be decomposable into irreps, it will be via a direct integral, not direct sum. So, σ_0 is *not* a good definition of the spectrum. This does not mean that the preceding discussion was without purpose. It will apply, with the technical details modified, once we have a rigorous definition of σ . The equality $\sigma = \sigma_0$ may be false, but it is false for technical reasons rather than moral ones, and so it does not lead us far astray.

3.2. The spectrum: correct method. To define σ , we can use the following version of the spectral theorem. Recall that a projection-valued Borel measure is a map $\Pi : \text{Borel}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ assigning to each Borel subset $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ an orthogonal projection $\Pi(E)$, satisfying some axioms analogous to those a measure is required to satisfy. The spectral theorem for locally compact abelian groups [Fol95, Thm. 4.45] ("SNAG theorem"), like $(\mathbb{R}^{1,+}, +)$, tells us that there exists a projection-valued Borel measure Π such that

$$\varrho(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d}} e^{ix \cdot p} d\Pi(p). \quad (3.23)$$

This expression can be interpreted in the following way: for $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{H}$, $\text{Borel}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}) \ni E \mapsto \langle \phi, \Pi(E)\psi \rangle \in \mathbb{C}$ defines an ordinary complex measure (with finite mass) $\mu_{\phi,\psi} : \text{Borel}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, and this satisfies

$$\langle \phi, \varrho(x)\psi \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d}} e^{ix \cdot p} d\mu_{\phi,\psi}(p). \quad (3.24)$$

Part of the spectral theorem is the *functional calculus*: for any $f \in L^\infty \cap C^0(\mathbb{R}^{1,d})$, we can define an operator $\Pi(f) \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$ by

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi(f) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d}} f(p) d\Pi(p) \\ \langle \phi, \Pi(f)\psi \rangle &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d}} f(p) d\mu_{\phi,\psi}(p). \end{aligned} \quad (3.25)$$

For example, $\Pi(e^{ix \cdot \bullet}) = \varrho(x)$. The operator $\Pi(f)$ depends linearly on f , and, for all other $g \in L^\infty \cap C^0$,

$$\Pi(fg) = \Pi(f)\Pi(g), \quad (3.26)$$

as suggested by the formal idempotency identity

$$d\Pi(p) d\Pi(q) = \delta^{1+d}(p - q) d\Pi(p) \quad (3.27)$$

that ought to hold on account of Π being *projection*-valued. Moreover, for $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})$,

$$\begin{aligned} [A, \varrho(x)] = 0 \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d} &\iff [A, \Pi(f)] = 0 \text{ for all } f \in L^\infty \cap C^0 \\ &\iff [A, \Pi(E)] = 0 \text{ for all Borel } E. \end{aligned} \quad (3.28)$$

The spectrum σ is defined – correctly, now – as the support of the measure Π . That is, the complement $\sigma^c = \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \setminus \sigma$ is defined by

$$\sigma^c = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d} : \exists \text{ open } U \ni p \text{ s.t. } \Pi(U) = 0\}. \quad (3.29)$$

Note that σ is nonempty, because $\Pi(\mathcal{H})$ is the identity operator on \mathcal{H} (via a standard argument using countable additivity).

[Exercise 3.6]

LEMMA 3.6. $\rho(a, \Lambda)^{-1}\Pi(E)\rho(a, \Lambda) = \Pi(\Lambda^{-1}E)$ for all Borel sets $E \subset \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$. ■

PROOF. It suffices to show that

$$\langle \rho(a, \Lambda)\phi, \Pi(E)\rho(a, \Lambda)\psi \rangle = \langle \phi, \Pi(\Lambda^{-1}E)\psi \rangle \quad (3.30)$$

for all $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{H}$ and $E \in \text{Borel}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d})$. Phrased in terms of spectral measures, this is $\mu_{\rho(a, \Lambda)\phi, \rho(a, \Lambda)\psi} = \mu_{\phi, \psi} \circ \Lambda^{-1}$. It suffices to check that their Fourier transforms

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d}} e^{ix \cdot p} d\mu_{\rho(a, \Lambda)\phi, \rho(a, \Lambda)\psi}(p) &\stackrel{\text{eq. (3.24)}}{=} \langle \rho(a, \Lambda)\phi, \varrho(x)\rho(a, \Lambda)\psi \rangle \\ &= \langle \phi, \rho(a, \Lambda)^{-1}\varrho(x)\rho(a, \Lambda)\psi \rangle \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d}} e^{ix \cdot p} d\mu_{\phi, \psi}(\Lambda^{-1}p) &\stackrel{\det \Lambda = 1}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d}} e^{ix \cdot (\Lambda p)} d\mu_{\phi, \psi}(p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d}} e^{i(\Lambda^{-1}x) \cdot p} d\mu_{\phi, \psi}(p) \\ &\stackrel{\text{eq. (3.24)}}{=} \langle \phi, \varrho(\Lambda^{-1}x)\psi \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (3.31) \quad (3.32)$$

agree. This holds because $\rho(a, \Lambda)^{-1}\varrho(x)\rho(a, \Lambda) = \varrho(\Lambda^{-1}x)$. □

PROPOSITION 3.7. *The spectrum σ is Lorentz-closed.* ■

PROOF. We prove the contrapositive: $\Lambda p \in \sigma(P)^\complement \Rightarrow p \in \sigma(P)^\complement$.

Suppose that $\Lambda p \in \sigma(P)^\complement$, so that there exists an open neighborhood $U \ni \Lambda p$ such that $\Pi(U) = 0$. Lemma 3.6 gives

$$\Pi(\Lambda^{-1}U) = \rho(0, \Lambda^{-1})\Pi(U)\rho(0, \Lambda) = 0. \quad (3.33)$$

Since $\Lambda^{-1}U$ is an open neighborhood of p , we can conclude that $p \in \sigma(P)^\complement$. □

Note that

$$\mathcal{H}[p] = \Pi(\{p\})\mathcal{H} \quad (3.34)$$

The fact that this is usually trivial means $\Pi(\{p\}) = 0$. This is consistent with $\Pi(\sigma) = \text{id}_{\mathcal{H}}$, because σ (if not Ω) has uncountably many different p 's in it, and measures are only *countably* additive.

4. Orbits of the Lorentz group

In the previous section, we proved that the spectrum $\sigma \subset \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ of a unitary representation of the Poincaré group is closed under the action of the Lorentz group on $\mathbb{R}^{1,d}$. Consequently, σ is a union of orbits $O \subset \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ of the Lorentz group. Since $d \geq 2$, these orbits are:

- the origin $\mathcal{O} = \{0\}$,
- the forward/backward “light cones” $V_\pm = \{(E, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \setminus \{0\} : \pm E = \|\mathbf{p}\|\}$ (which in this context are defined to exclude the origin $p = 0$ and are therefore not closed),
- the *mass shell*

$$X_{m, \pm} = \left\{ (E, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d} : E = \pm \sqrt{m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2} \right\}, \quad (3.35)$$

labeled by a parameter $m > 0$ (the “mass”),

- the one-component hyperboloid $Y_\Gamma = \{(E, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d} : \|\mathbf{p}\| = \sqrt{\Gamma^2 + E^2}\}$.

We can consider V_\pm as $X_{0, \pm}$.

[Exercise 3.3]

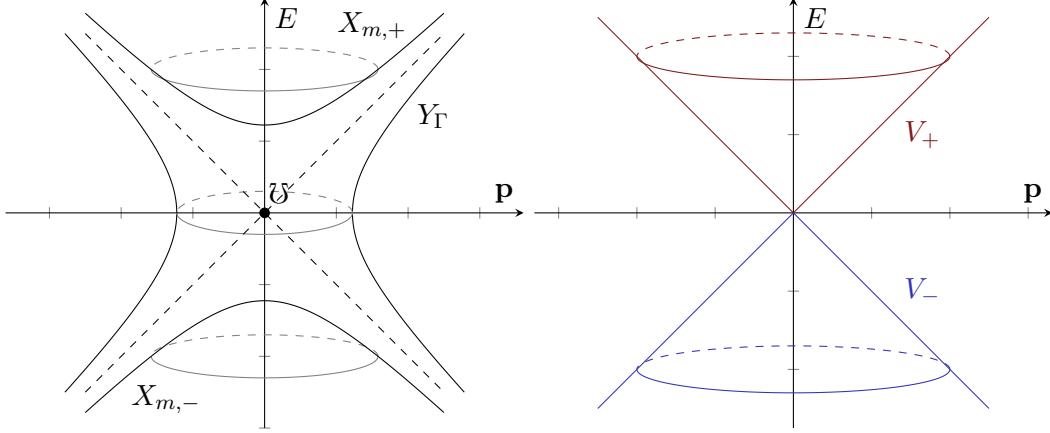


FIGURE 3.2. The Lorentz orbits U , $X_{m,\pm}$, Y_Γ , V_+ , V_- , plotted in $\mathbb{R}_p^{1,d}$, $p = (E, \mathbf{p})$, for particular m, Γ .

5. Vacua

An important theoretical role is played by the subspace $\mathcal{H}[0] = \Pi(\{0\})$ consisting of translation-invariant states. These are called *vacuum states*. Intuitively, the vacuum is homogeneous, so it should remain unchanged under the application of any translation.

Because all Lorentz transformations $\Lambda \in \widetilde{\text{SO}(1, d)}$ map $\mathcal{H}[0]$ to itself, this space hosts a unitary representation of the (universal) Lorentz group. Vacuum states are typically isotropic in addition to homogeneous. That is, they remain unchanged under the application of any Lorentz transformation. Recalling that states are complex lines in \mathcal{H} , a Lorentz-invariant vacuum state is the same thing as a one-dimensional representation of the (universal) Lorentz group inside $\mathcal{H}[0]$. Of course, the trivial representation is an example.

PROPOSITION 3.8. *For $d \geq 2$, the only (continuous) one-dimensional representation of $\widetilde{\text{SO}(1, d)}$ is the trivial one.* ■

PROOF. Any (continuous) one-dimensional representation of this connected group induces one of the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{o}(1, d)$. It suffices to show that this induced representation is zero, as it then follows by exponentiating that the original representation is trivial (by Lie's second theorem). Complexifying, we have a one-dimensional representation of $\mathfrak{o}(1 + d)_\mathbb{C}$.

Fact: no such representation exists if $d \geq 2$, except for the zero representation.

Given this fact, we are done. □

One way of proving the fact stated above is to use semisimplicity. For $d \geq 2$, the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{o} = \mathfrak{o}(1 + d)_\mathbb{C}$ is semisimple, a consequence of which is that \mathfrak{o} is “perfect;” this means

$$[\mathfrak{o}, \mathfrak{o}] = \mathfrak{o}. \quad (3.36)$$

The left-hand side is the subspace of \mathfrak{o} spanned by the commutators of the various elements of \mathfrak{o} . In any one-dimensional representation of a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} , the commutator subalgebra $[\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}]$ must be mapped to 0, since scalars commute. So if the commutator subalgebra is everything, no nonzero one-dimensional representations exist.

The key identity eq. (3.36) can be proven directly from the Lie algebra

$$i[J^{\mu\nu}, J^{\sigma\lambda}] = \eta^{\mu\lambda} J^{\nu\sigma} - \eta^{\mu\sigma} J^{\nu\lambda} + \eta^{\nu\sigma} J^{\mu\lambda} - \eta^{\nu\lambda} J^{\mu\sigma}. \quad (3.37)$$

Here $J^{\mu\nu} = -J^{\nu\mu}$ are the generators of \mathfrak{o} . For any distinct values of ν, σ , choose a third distinct value (which exists because $d \geq 2$) and plug it in for μ, λ to get

$$i[J^{\mu\nu}, J^{\sigma\lambda}] = \pm J^{\nu\sigma}. \quad (3.38)$$

Thus, $J^{\nu\sigma} \in [\mathfrak{o}, \mathfrak{o}]$.

REMARK: Actually, there are no nontrivial finite-dimensional unitary representations of $\widetilde{SO(1, d)}$, but this requires a different argument. [*]

6. Wigner's concept of particle

Wigner identifies particle species with irreducible (continuous, as always) unitary representations of $P^*(1, 3)$. We will use “irrep” as an abbreviation. Note that this includes unitarity. Because the Poincaré group is noncompact, unitarizability of representations is not automatic, and non-unitarizable representations do exist.

The irreducibility requirement in Wigner’s definition is sometimes conveyed as the particle being elementary. However, composite particles can be modeled as elementary if their internal structure can be ignored. Baryons are bound states of quarks held together by a matrix of gluons; they have a rich internal structure, but that structure is not visible to low-energy experiments, so, for the purpose of such experiments, they can be treated as elementary. Within *high energy* particle colliders, like the LHC, baryons cannot be treated as elementary — the whole purpose of the LHC is to break protons apart.

Besides irreducibility, we include in Wigner’s definition the following postulates:

- (Stability.) $\sigma \subseteq \{(E, \mathbf{p}) : E \geq 0\}$.
- (Localizability.) $\sigma \neq \{0\}$.

The first of these says that the particle has non-negative energy. The second ends up being equivalent to the particle not having exactly zero energy. We can summarize their combination by saying that the particle is “positive-energy.” This does *not* mean that $0 \notin \sigma$. Indeed, $0 \in \sigma$ happens for massless particles.

In isolation, a negative-energy particle would behave sensibly. After all, the difference between positive/negative energy amounts to a sign convention, like $+i$ vs. $-i$. However, once a coupling has been turned on between particles and some external field, then the *relative* signs matter. For example, if we have chosen sign conventions such that the electromagnetic field has positive energy, then an atomic system whose energy spectrum is unbounded below would be expected to radiate away an infinite amount. This is the sort of runaway instability that the stability axiom is supposed to prevent.

What $\sigma = \{0\}$ would mean is that translations act trivially. Vacua are examples. There is nothing physically wrong with vacua — they exist in any QFT — but these sorts of delocalized entities do not deserve to be called “particles.” Barring these is the purpose of the localizability requirement, and the rationale for its name.

7. The typical spectrum of QFTs

The spectrum of quantum field theories takes two typical forms.

- (1) The first form describes a theory with a *mass gap* with mass $m > 0$. The spectrum σ takes the form

$$\sigma = \{0\} \cup X_{m,+} \cup X_{2m,+}^+, \quad (3.39)$$

where

$$X_{2m,+}^+ = X_{m,+} + X_{m,+} = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d} : p^0 > 0 \text{ and } p^2 \leq -4m^2\}. \quad (3.40)$$

The origin $0 \in \sigma$ is point spectrum, meaning that it is associated with the eigenspace $\mathcal{H}[0] \subset \mathcal{H}$ of states which are left invariant under all translations. Typically, $\mathcal{H}[0] = \mathbb{C}\Omega$ is the span of a single vacuum state Ω , which is invariant under the whole Poincaré group.

The “mass shells” $X_{m,+}$ describe stable massive particles.

The region $X_{2m,+}^+$ consists of spectrum which is continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure $d^{1+d}p$ (except possibly for some embedded mass shells $X_{M,+}$, $M \geq 2m$). These describe multi-particle configurations.

Note: it is possible to have additional mass shells $X_{m',+} \subset \sigma$ for $m' \in (m, 2m)$ in between m and the two-particle threshold.

- (2) The second form describes a theory with massless particles. As $m \rightarrow 0^+$, the mass shell $X_{m,+}$ converges to the (closed) lightcone

$$\bar{V}_+ = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d} : p^0 \geq 0 \text{ and } p^2 = 0\}, \quad (3.41)$$

and the two-particle region $X_{2m,+}^+$ converges to

$$\bar{V}_+^+ = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d} : p^0 \geq 0 \text{ and } p^2 \leq 0\}. \quad (3.42)$$

In this case, the spectrum is just $\sigma = \bar{V}_+^+$. Usually, one expects that σ° consists entirely of continuous spectrum. It is possible that there exist some exceptional mass shells $X_{m,+}$ describing stable particles.

If QED exists as a well-defined theory, it is expected that the spectrum has a logarithmic singularity as

$$p \rightarrow X_{m_e,+} \text{ from above,} \quad (3.43)$$

i.e. as $p^2 \rightarrow -m_e^2$, where $m_e > 0$ is the mass of the electron. In this sort of situation, where the spectrum is continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure $d^{1+d}p$, with an L_{loc}^1 density, but the density blows up at $X_{m,+}$, one says that an *infraparticle* is present. In QED, electrons are expected to be inseparable from a dressing of low-energy (a.k.a. “soft”) photons, resulting in a smearing of the spectrum upwards in energy.

A. The Lebesgue decomposition (\star)

Let \mathcal{O} denote the set of all Lorentz orbits $O \subset \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ such that $\Pi(O) \neq 0$. For each $O \in \mathcal{O}$, let

$$\mathcal{H}[O] = \text{range}(\Pi(O)) \quad (3.44)$$

denote the range of $\Pi(O)$. Each of these is closed under the action of the Poincaré group.

If O, O' are distinct Lorentz orbits, then $\mathcal{H}[O] \perp \mathcal{H}[O']$, by the generalization to infinite-dimensions of the usual computation that eigenvectors of a Hermitian matrix with distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

Now consider the subspaces

$$\mathcal{H}_{pp} = \overline{\bigoplus_{O \in \mathcal{O}}} \mathcal{H}[O], \quad \mathcal{H}_c = \mathcal{H}_{pp}^\perp. \quad (3.45)$$

By construction, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_{pp} \oplus \mathcal{H}_c$. Since \mathcal{H}_{pp} is closed under the action of the Poincaré group (and our representation is unitary), \mathcal{H}_c is also closed under that action.

PROPOSITION 3.9 (Lebesgue decomposition theorem). *There exists a decomposition $\mathcal{H}_c = \mathcal{H}_{sc} \oplus \mathcal{H}_{ac}$ into orthogonal subspaces, each of which is closed under the action of the Poincaré group, such that*

- the spectral projector $\Pi_{sc} = \Pi|_{\mathcal{H}_{sc}}$ associated with \mathcal{H}_{sc} is singular with respect to the Lebesgue measure on $\mathbb{R}^{1,d}$,
- for any $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{H}_{ac}$, the spectral measure $\mu_{\phi, \psi} = \langle \phi, \Pi(-)\psi \rangle$ is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure on $\mathbb{R}^{1,d}$.

PROOF. [*]

In standard quantum field theory, the singular continuous spectrum is assumed to be trivial. Physical examples with singular continuous spectrum are somewhat exotic and usually associated with chaotic or quasi-periodic systems like quasicrystals.

B. Differentiating a Lie group representation

Let G denote an arbitrary Lie group, and let $\mathfrak{g} = T_e G$ denote its Lie algebra. Our goal here is to prove that any continuous unitary representation

$$\rho : G \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H}) \quad (3.46)$$

of G on a separable Hilbert space \mathcal{H} induces a representation ϱ of $\mathfrak{g}_{\mathbb{C}}$ (and ultimately its universal enveloping algebra) via (usually unbounded) operators, defined on some common dense domain $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$.

The prototype for this is *Stone's theorem*:

EXAMPLE 3.10. Suppose that $G = (\mathbb{R}, +)$. A strongly-continuous unitary representation $\rho : G \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H})$ is the same thing as a strongly-continuous one-parameter family of unitary operators

$$\{U_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \subset \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H}), \quad (3.47)$$

meaning that

- $U_0 = I$,
- $U_t U_s = U_{t+s}$ for all $t, s \in \mathbb{R}$,
- $\lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} U_t \psi = U_{t_0} \psi$ for all $t_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\psi \in \mathcal{H}$ (strong continuity).

Stone's theorem [Sto32] says that any such family has the form $U_t = e^{itA}$ for some (possibly unbounded) self-adjoint operator $A : \mathcal{D}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ with domain

$$\mathcal{D}(A) = \{\psi \in \mathcal{H} : \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t^{-1}(U_t - I)\psi \text{ exists}\}. \quad (3.48)$$

Specifically, $A\psi = -i \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t^{-1}(U_t - I)\psi$ for $\psi \in \mathcal{D}$.

If $\rho : G \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H})$ is a strongly-continuous unitary representation of a Lie group G , and if $j : (\mathbb{R}, +) \rightarrow G$ is a non-trivial smooth homomorphism, then we can form $\rho \circ j$. By Stone's theorem, there exists a self-adjoint operator $A : \mathcal{D}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ such that

$$\rho \circ j(t) = e^{itA} \quad (3.49)$$

for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Any element of X of the Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} generates a one-parameter group via exponentiation: $j(t) = e^{tX}$. So, we can define $\varrho(X) = iA$. This is anti-self-adjoint and satisfies

$$\rho(e^{tX}) = e^{t\varrho(X)}. \quad (3.50)$$

One would like to say that ϱ is a representation of \mathfrak{g} , but now domain issues, stemming from the possible unboundedness of the generator A , rear their head. The problem is that the domain $\mathcal{D}(A)$ in Stone's theorem depends on A . Consequently, it is not clear that we can compose two elements $\varrho(X), \varrho(Y)$. This leaves the interpretation of their commutator unclear.

EXAMPLE 3.11. Let $G = (\mathbb{R}^d, +)$, $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$, and G act on \mathcal{H} via translation. Then, $\mathfrak{g} = \mathbb{R}^d$, and

$$\varrho(X) = X^j \partial_j = \partial_X \quad (3.51)$$

for any $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$, where X^j is the j th component of X . So, $\varrho(X)$ is a differential operator and therefore unbounded (except if $X = 0$). The domain $\mathcal{D}(X)$ on which ∂_X is anti-self-adjoint is the set of $u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ such that $\partial_X u$, which makes sense as a distribution, lies in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

EXAMPLE 3.12. Let $G = \mathrm{SO}(2)$, $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}_{x,y}^2)$, and G act on \mathcal{H} via rotations around the origin. Then, \mathfrak{g} has a single generator, L , satisfying

$$\varrho(L) = \partial_\theta = -y\partial_x + x\partial_y, \quad (3.52)$$

where ∂_θ is the usual angular partial derivative in polar coordinates (r, θ) , i.e. $r\hat{\theta}$. As in the previous example, $\varrho(L)$ is an unbounded operator. ■

Of course, no domain issues are present in the finite-dimensional setting:

EXAMPLE 3.13. Let $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^N$ for $N \in \mathbb{N}$, so that $\mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H}) = \mathrm{U}(N)$. It turns out that any continuous finite-dimensional unitary representation of any Lie group must be smooth, but rather than prove this, let us just assume that $\rho : G \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(N)$ is some smooth unitary representation. Differentiating then yields a map

$$D\rho : TG \rightarrow T\mathrm{U}(N). \quad (3.53)$$

Restricting to the fibers over the identity element $e \in G$ gives a linear map $\mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{u}(N)$, denoted $D\rho(e)$. Because ρ is a homomorphism, $D\rho(e)$ must preserve the Lie bracket, so is a homomorphism of Lie algebras. ■

All domain issues are resolved by:

PROPOSITION 3.14 (Gårding [Gr47]). *There exists a dense domain $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ such that:*

- (i) *for each $X \in \mathfrak{g}$, the operator $\varrho(X)$ contains \mathcal{D} in its domain and maps \mathcal{D} back to itself,*
- (ii) *$\varrho(X)$ is essentially anti-self-adjoint when restricted to \mathcal{D} ,*
- (iii) *$\rho(g)\mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D}$, for all $g \in G$.*
- (iv) *The map $\varrho : \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathrm{End}(\mathcal{D})$ is a map of Lie algebras, from \mathfrak{g} to the algebra of linear endomorphisms of \mathcal{D} .*

We will provide the proof below. In the two examples above, one can take $\mathcal{D} = C_c^\infty$, the domain of smooth compactly supported functions.

The proof uses a *smoothing procedure*: for $\psi \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\chi \in C_c^\infty(G)$, let

$$\mathrm{avg}_\chi \psi = \int_G \chi(g)\rho(g)\psi \, d\mu(g). \quad (3.54)$$

Here, μ denotes a fixed left-invariant Haar measure $\mu : \mathrm{Borel}(G) \rightarrow [0, \infty]$, so that

$$\int_G \chi(hg) \, d\mu(g) = \int_G \chi(g) \, d\mu(g) \quad (3.55)$$

for any $\chi \in L^1(G, \mu)$ and $h \in G$.

REMARK 3.15 (The Bochner/Pettis-integral). The integrand on the right-hand side of eq. (3.54) is \mathcal{H} -valued, so an iota of care is required in interpreting it. The simplest way of doing so is via duality: consider the map $\Lambda : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ given by

$$\Lambda(\phi) = \int_G \chi(g)\langle \rho(g)\psi, \phi \rangle \, d\mu(g). \quad (3.56)$$

The map $g \mapsto \langle \rho(g)\psi, \phi \rangle$ is continuous (since we are assuming that ρ is strongly-continuous), so the integral on the right-hand side of eq. (3.56) is a well-defined, ordinary numerical integral on G . Evidently, Λ is linear, and, using the unitarity of ρ , the estimate

$$|\Lambda(\phi)| \leq \|\chi\|_{L^1} \|\psi\| \|\phi\| \quad (3.57)$$

holds. So, $\Lambda \in \mathcal{H}^*$, and the Riesz representation theorem guarantees the existence of a (unique) vector $\mathrm{avg}_\chi \psi \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $\Lambda(\phi) = \langle \mathrm{avg}_\chi \psi, \phi \rangle$ for all $\phi \in \mathcal{H}$. ■

In order to understand why the map

$$\text{avg}_\chi : \psi \mapsto \text{avg}_\chi \psi \quad (3.58)$$

is described as smoothing, consider the example above, where $G = (\mathbb{R}^d, +)$ and $\mathcal{H} = L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$. Then, averaging is convolution:

$$\text{avg}_\chi \psi(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \chi(a)(\rho(a)\psi)(x) d^d a = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \chi(a)\psi(x+a) d^d a = \tilde{\chi} * \psi(x), \quad (3.59)$$

where $\tilde{\chi}(x) = \chi(-x)$. Convolution smooths, since derivatives fall on χ :

$$L(\tilde{\chi} * \psi) = (L\tilde{\chi}) * \psi \quad (3.60)$$

for any constant-coefficient differential operator L . So, in this example, $\text{avg}_\chi \psi$ lands in the set

$$H^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d) = \bigcap_{m \in \mathbb{N}} H^m(\mathbb{R}^d) \subset L^2 \quad (3.61)$$

of functions all of whose derivatives (including zeroth derivatives, second derivatives, third derivatives, etc.) lie in L^2 as well. We saw previously that, in this example, the Stone generators $A = -i\partial_t e^{tX}|_{t=0}$ are constant-coefficient vector fields, such as ∂_{x_j} , $j = 1, \dots, d$. These do in fact act on $H^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$, and they map $H^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$ to itself.

This suggests: in the proof of Proposition 3.14, the subset $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{H}$ will be defined by

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\text{avg}_\chi \psi : \chi \in C_c^\infty(G), \psi \in \mathcal{H}\}. \quad (3.62)$$

This is manifestly invariant under the application of any $\rho(g)$, $g \in G$.

Now let us prove the theorem.

PROOF OF PROPOSITION 3.14. (I) *Claim: \mathcal{D} is dense.*

Because ρ is strongly-continuous, if $\{\chi_j\}_{j=1}^\infty \subseteq C_c^\infty(G)$ are chosen so that $\chi_j d\mu \rightarrow \delta$ weakly, where δ is a Dirac- δ function at the identity element of G , then

$$\text{avg}_{\chi_j} \psi \rightarrow \psi \quad (3.63)$$

in \mathcal{H} . So, \mathcal{D} is a dense subspace of \mathcal{H} .

(II) *Claim: if $X \in \mathfrak{g}$ and $\phi = \text{avg}_\chi \psi \in \mathcal{D}$, then*

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\rho(e^{tX})\phi - \phi}{t} = -\text{avg}_{\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{X}}\chi} \psi \in \mathcal{D}, \quad (3.64)$$

where $\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{X}}\chi$ is the Lie derivative of χ by the right-invariant vector field \tilde{X} with $\tilde{X}(e) = X$. So, not only is \mathcal{D} a subspace of the domain described in Stone's theorem, but the generator A in that theorem maps \mathcal{D} back to itself. Indeed,

$$\frac{\rho(e^{tX})\phi - \phi}{t} = \frac{1}{t} \int_G \chi(g)(\rho(e^{tX}g) - \rho(g))\psi d\mu(g), \quad (3.65)$$

and using the left- invariance of the Haar measure,

$$\int_G \chi(g)(\rho(e^{tX}g) - \rho(g))\psi d\mu(g) = \int_G (\chi(e^{-tX}g) - \chi(g))\rho(g)\psi d\mu(g). \quad (3.66)$$

We can write

$$\chi(e^{-tX}g) = \chi(g) - t\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{X}}\chi(g) + O_{L^1}(t^2), \quad (3.67)$$

where the error term $O_{L^1}(t^2)$ has $L^1(G, \mu)$ -norm bounded above by Ct^2 , for some $C > 0$. So,

$$\frac{\rho(e^{tX})\phi - \phi}{t} = - \int_G \mathcal{L}_{\tilde{X}}\chi(g)\rho(g)\psi d\mu(g) + O(t) = -\text{avg}_{\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{X}}\chi} \psi + O(t). \quad (3.68)$$

(III) *Claim:* The Hermitian generators $A = -i\rho(X)$ are essentially self-adjoint on \mathcal{D} , i.e. \mathcal{D} is a core for A .

We already know that A is self-adjoint on the domain $\mathcal{D}(A)$ from Stone's theorem. Moreover, \mathcal{D} is invariant under G . A general theorem from functional analysis [RS80, Thm. VIII.11] then guarantees that \mathcal{D} is a core.

(IV) *Claim:* ρ is a map of Lie algebras. We want to show that if $X, Y \in \mathfrak{g}$, then

$$(\rho(X)\rho(Y) - \rho(Y)\rho(X))\phi = \rho([X, Y])\phi, \quad (3.69)$$

for all $\phi \in \mathcal{D}$. Let $\phi = \text{avg}_\chi \psi$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(X)\rho(Y)\phi &= -\rho(X) \text{avg}_{\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{Y}}\chi} \psi = \text{avg}_{\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{X}}\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{Y}}\chi} \psi \\ \rho(Y)\rho(X)\phi &= -\rho(Y) \text{avg}_{\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{X}}\chi} \psi = \text{avg}_{\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{Y}}\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{X}}\chi} \psi. \end{aligned} \quad (3.70)$$

So, $(\rho(X)\rho(Y) - \rho(Y)\rho(X))\phi$ is $\text{avg}_{[\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{X}}, \mathcal{L}_{\tilde{Y}}]\chi} \psi$. Since

$$[\mathcal{L}_{\tilde{X}}, \mathcal{L}_{\tilde{Y}}] = \mathcal{L}_{[\tilde{X}, \tilde{Y}]} = \mathcal{L}_{-\widetilde{[X, Y]}} = -\mathcal{L}_{\widetilde{[X, Y]}}, \quad (3.71)$$

this is

$$-\text{avg}_{\mathcal{L}_{\widetilde{[X, Y]}}\chi} \psi = \rho([X, Y])\phi. \quad (3.72)$$

The sign in eq. (3.71) is due to the fact that the Lie bracket of right-invariant vector fields on G corresponds to minus the Lie bracket on \mathfrak{g} . \square

In representation theory, three different sorts of representations act as building blocks. A (not-necessarily unitary) representation $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{GL}(\mathcal{H}) = \{\text{invertible } A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H})\}$ of a group G on a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is said to be:

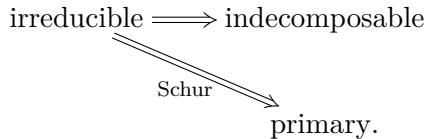
- *irreducible* if the only G -closed subspaces $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ are $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{0}\}, \mathcal{H}$,
- *indecomposable* if, whenever \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} are G -closed subspaces such that $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{X} \oplus \mathcal{Y}$, then one of \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} is $\{\mathbf{0}\}$, in which case the other is \mathcal{H} ,
- *primary* (a.k.a. factorial) if the centralizer

$$\mathcal{C} = \{A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{H}) : [A, \rho(g)] = 0 \text{ for all } g \in G\} \quad (3.73)$$

has a center consisting only of scalar multiples of the identity.

Here, a subspace $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ is described as “ G -closed” (or “ ρ -closed”) if it is closed and $\rho(g)\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ for all $g \in G$.

For finite-dimensional representations:



None of the other implications hold in general. Fortunately, more can be said when ρ is a *unitary* representation. Firstly, Schur's lemma holds, even if \mathcal{H} is infinite-dimensional (Lemma 3.18). Secondly:

PROPOSITION 3.16. *When ρ is a (continuous) unitary representation, irreducibility and indecomposability are equivalent.* \blacksquare

PROOF. If \mathcal{X} is a proper G -closed subspace, so is \mathcal{X}^\perp , owing to

$$\begin{aligned} v \in \mathcal{X}^\perp &\iff \langle v, w \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } w \in \mathcal{X} \iff \langle \rho(g)v, \rho(g)w \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } w \in \mathcal{X}, g \in G \\ &\iff \langle \rho(g)v, w \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } w \in \mathcal{X}, g \in G \implies \rho(g)v \in \mathcal{X}^\perp. \end{aligned} \quad (3.74)$$

So $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{X} \oplus \mathcal{X}^\perp$ is a decomposition of \mathcal{H} into proper G -closed subspaces. \square

Any unitary representation of a Lie group decomposes as a direct integral of irreducible representations [Fol95, Thm. 7.38]. The irreps, rather than being subrepresentations, will be found by a limiting procedure. We will take a hands-on attitude towards direct integrals in these notes, preferring to avoid any general theory.

The *uniqueness* of the direct integral decomposition is subtle for general Lie groups [Fol95, §7]. What is always unique is the decomposition into primary components. Fortunately, for all of the groups we work with in these notes, all primary decompositions decompose canonically as a direct sum of countably many copies of a single irrep. Such groups are called “Type I.” Finite groups, locally compact abelian groups, and compact groups are all Type I. Wigner showed in [Wig39] that $P^*(1, 3)$ is Type I (and the same proof works for $P^*(1, d)$).

Indecomposability does not imply irreducibility or primality in general:

EXAMPLE 3.17. Consider the two-dimensional non-unitary representation $\rho : (\mathbb{R}, +) \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(2)$ given by

$$\rho(a) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & a \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3.75)$$

This is not irreducible, because the span of $\mathbf{e} = (1, 0)$ is an invariant subspace, but it is indecomposable. Indeed, the span of \mathbf{e} is the only ρ -closed proper subspace, and none of its linear-algebraic complements are closed under the group action.

In this example, \mathcal{C} is the image of ρ . Since this contains non-diagonalizable matrices, ρ is not primary. \blacksquare

Schur’s lemma holds for unitary representations on Hilbert spaces:

LEMMA 3.18. For any group G , if $\rho : G \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{H})$ is irreducible, then $\mathcal{C}(\rho) = \{c \mathrm{id}_{\mathcal{H}} : c \in \mathbb{C}\}$. \blacksquare

[Exercise 3.5] **PROOF.** If $A \in \mathcal{C}$, then $A^\dagger \in \mathcal{C}$ as well. Consequently, $B = (A + A^\dagger)/2$ and $C = (A - A^\dagger)/(2i)$ are both in \mathcal{C} . If both of these are scalar multiples of the identity, then the same applies to $A = B + iC$. Note that B, C are self-adjoint. So, it suffices to prove every self-adjoint element of \mathcal{C} is a scalar multiple of the identity I .

Let $O \in \mathcal{C}$ be self-adjoint, and let Π denote its spectral projectors. *Claim: its spectrum $\sigma(O)$ consists of only one element*, hence $O \propto I$. Suppose, to the contrary, that $|\sigma(O)| \geq 2$. Then, let $U \subset \mathbb{R}$ denote an open set containing part of $\sigma(O)$ whose closure does not contain all of $\sigma(O)$. Then, the ranges

$$\mathcal{X} = \Pi(U)\mathcal{H}, \quad \mathcal{Y} = \Pi(\mathbb{R} \setminus U)\mathcal{H} \quad (3.76)$$

are orthogonal and satisfy $\mathcal{X} \oplus \mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{H}$. Both of these must be proper (by the definition of U). \square

If ρ is irreducible, then $\rho \oplus \rho$, $\rho \oplus \rho \oplus \rho$, and so on are examples of primary representations that are not irreducible. Indeed, the direct sum of d copies of ρ is equivalent to $\rho \otimes (\mathbf{1}^{\oplus d})$, whose centralizer is

$$\mathcal{C}(\rho \otimes (\mathbf{1}^{\oplus d})) = \{c \mathrm{id}_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes A : A \in \mathbb{C}^{d \times d}\}, \quad (3.77)$$

and the center of this consists only of scalar multiples of the identity. There are more exotic possibilities, but only for somewhat wild groups like a free group on multiple generators.

LEMMA 3.19. A representation of an abelian group is primary if and only if it is a direct sum of countably many instances of the same irreducible representation. \blacksquare

PROOF. Suppose that $\rho : A \rightarrow \mathrm{GL}(\mathcal{H})$ is a primary representation of an abelian group A . Then, $\rho(a)$ is in the center of the centralizer $\mathcal{C}(\rho)$, for each $a \in A$. So, primacy implies that $\rho(a) = \chi(a) \mathrm{id}_{\mathcal{H}}$, for some $\chi(a) \in \mathbb{C}$. Thus, given any nonzero $\phi \in \mathcal{H}$, the span $\mathbb{C}\phi$ is a sub-representation and, since it is one-dimensional, irreducible. So, any orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H} gives a decomposition of ρ into copies of the character χ . \square

Exercises and problems

EXERCISE 3.1: (a) Use the Fourier transform to show that the only tempered distributions having the property that $f(x+a) = cf(x)$ are $f(x) = e^{i\xi x}$ for $\xi \in \mathbb{R}$.
 (b) Show that $\chi_\xi : x \mapsto e^{ix\xi}$ are all of the irreps of $(\mathbb{R}, +)$.

EXERCISE 3.2: Let $\rho : P^*(1, d) \rightarrow U(\mathcal{H})$ be a (continuous) unitary representation of $P^*(1, d)$. Suppose that \mathcal{X} is a Poincaré-closed (norm-closed) subspace of \mathcal{H} . Thus, \mathcal{X} constitutes a subrepresentation. Show that the spectrum of this subrepresentation is a subset of the spectrum of the whole representation.

EXERCISE 3.3: (a) Prove that, if $d \geq 2$, the orbits $O \subset \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ of the restricted Lorentz group are $\Omega, V_\pm, X_{m,\pm}, Y_\Gamma$, for $m, \Gamma > 0$.
 (b) What about $d = 1$?

EXERCISE 3.4: Show that the (complexified) Poincaré algebra $\mathfrak{p}_{\mathbb{C}} = \mathfrak{p}(1, d)_{\mathbb{C}}$ satisfies $[\mathfrak{p}, \mathfrak{p}] = \mathfrak{p}$, thus proving that it has no nonzero one-dimensional representations.

EXERCISE 3.5: Consider the setup of Lemma 3.18. Prove the claim that $A \in \mathcal{C} \Rightarrow A^\dagger \in \mathcal{C}$. *Hint:* this uses unitarity.

EXERCISE 3.6: Use the definition of the spectrum σ , eq. (3.29), to prove that $\sigma \neq \emptyset$.

CHAPTER 4

Wigner's classification of particles

In the previous lecture, we presented Wigner's definition of a relativistic particle: a positive-energy irreducible (continuous) unitary representation – or “irrep” for short – of the universal Poincaré group

$$P^*(1, d) = \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes \underbrace{\widetilde{\mathrm{SO}(1, d)}}_{=\mathrm{Spin}(1, d) \text{ when } d \geq 3}.$$
(4.1)

This lecture is devoted to Wigner's classification of such irreps, a result contained in the seminal paper [Wig39]. Put more colorfully, this lecture is devoted to the classification of particles in terms of their kinematics.

In the physical $d = 3$ case (and ignoring one irrep not known to have physical relevance):

For each $m \geq 0$ and

$$s \in \begin{cases} 2^{-1}\mathbb{N} & (m > 0), \\ 2^{-1}\mathbb{Z} & (m = 0), \end{cases}$$
(4.2)

we have one irrep, $\pi_{m,s}$. The parameter m is the “mass,” which identifies the spectrum $\sigma = X_{m,+}$, and s is the “spin” (if $m > 0$) or “helicity” (if $m = 0$), which will have to do with the action of rotations.

This classification has two parts:

- (i) the construction of the irreps $\pi_\bullet : P^*(1, d) \rightarrow U(\mathcal{H}_\bullet)$, and
- (ii) a proof that every irrep is unitarily equivalent to (exactly) one of them.

These notes will go through both. Beginning with an irrep of $P^*(1, d)$, we will attempt to understand its structure. This guides us to the definition of π_\bullet .

Particle	Representation	# of internal d.o.f.
Higgs bosons	$\pi_{m,0}$	1
quarks, leptons	$\pi_{m,1/2}$	2
photons, gluons	$\pi_{0,-1} \oplus \pi_{0,1}$	2
W^\pm, Z bosons	$\pi_{m,1}$	3
<hr/>		
pions	$\pi_{m,0}$	1
ρ, ω mesons	$\pi_{m,1}$	3
Δ, Ω^- baryons	$\pi_{m,3/2}$	4
<hr/>		
sterile neutrinos	$\pi_{0,1/2}$	1
gravitinos	$\pi_{0,-3/2} \oplus \pi_{0,3/2}$	2
gravitons	$\pi_{0,-2} \oplus \pi_{0,2}$	2

TABLE 4.1. Some elementary and composite particles and their respective π_\bullet 's.

WARNING: The usage of similar notation belies the differences between $\pi_{0,\pm s}$ and $\pi_{m,s}$, $m > 0$. Whereas a particle described by the latter representation has $2s + 1$ internal degrees-of-freedom, a

particle described by the former has only a single internal degree-of-freedom. Much of our intuition about massive particles comes from their “non-relativistic limit.” Massless particles always travel the speed of light and admit no non-relativistic limit.

We will provide below a similar classification for any number $d \geq 4$ of spatial dimensions. Massive particles are classified by their mass $m > 0$ and an irrep of $\text{Spin}(d)$, and massless particles (barring one unphysical possibility) are classified by irreps of $\text{Spin}(d-1)$. A simpler statement holds when $d = 2$. However, we will not enumerate these irreps explicitly, except in the physical $d = 3$ case. For that, see [BB21].

1. The method of induced representations: summary

The strategy of the classification involves exploiting the semidirect product structure of P^* . The key is to understand how irreps of P^* are assembled from irreps of the subgroup $(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}, +)$ of translations and irreps of a certain (m -dependent) subgroup $L \subset \text{Spin}(1, d)$ known as the “little group.” This method is known by several names — the one we will use is the *method of induced representations*.

Suppose we are given an irreducible representation

$$\rho : P^*(1, d) \rightarrow U(\mathcal{H}). \quad (4.3)$$

The steps in the analysis of ρ are:

- (I) Restrict ρ to the abelian subgroup consisting of translations, giving a representation

$$\begin{aligned} \varrho : (\mathbb{R}^{1,d}, +) &\rightarrow U(\mathcal{H}) \\ : a &\mapsto \rho(T_a) \end{aligned} \quad (4.4)$$

of $(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}, +)$. We discussed in the last lecture how to decompose ϱ into irreps via the spectral measure. The support of that measure is the spectrum $\sigma \subset \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$.

It will be shown that, as a consequence of Lorentz covariance, σ consists of the closure of precisely one orbit O of the restricted Lorentz group.

- (II) Pick any “reference momentum” $p_* \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ in the relevant one of $O = \Omega, V_{\pm}, X_{m,\pm}, Y_{\Gamma}$. Then, the *little group* $L = L[p_*]$ is defined to be the subgroup of $\text{Spin}(1, d)$ which stabilizes p_* ; that is,

$$L[p_*] = \{\Lambda \in \text{Spin}(1, d) \text{ s.t. } \Lambda p_* = p_*\}. \quad (4.5)$$

This depends on p_* , but only as a set; different choices of $p_* \in O$ lead to conjugate, and therefore isomorphic, subgroups of $\text{Spin}(1, d)$. The possible isomorphism classes are listed in Table 4.2.

It will be shown that the space of generalized plane waves with momentum exactly p_* hosts a representation of the little group:

$$\varsigma : L[p_*] \rightarrow U(\mathcal{V}). \quad (4.6)$$

(We are sweeping under the rug some major technical headache involved in making the definition of ς precise, but the gist of the foregoing discussion is correct. See §2.2 for the rigorous definition.) Different choices of reference momentum p_* lead to unitarily equivalent ς .

It will then be shown that ρ is unitarily equivalent to a representation, denoted π_{\bullet} , consisting of superpositions of plane waves with momenta $p \in O$ with $\dim \mathcal{V}$ “spin indices,” acted on via ς . Mathematically,

$$\pi_{\bullet} = \text{ind}_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes L}^{\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes \text{Spin}(1,d)}(\varrho \otimes \varsigma) \quad (4.7)$$

is the induced representation constructed from ς . The subscript ‘•’ will contain a label indicating ς as well as $O \in \{\Omega, V_{\pm}, X_{m,\pm}, Y_{\Gamma}\}$. The irreducibility of π_{\bullet} , and thus of the original representation ρ , will be equivalent to the irreducibility of ς .

[Exercise 4.1]

Orbit O	Eg. $p_* \in O$	Little group	Description	Example
$\Omega = \{0\}$	$(0, 0, 0, 0)$	$\text{Spin}(1, d)$		vacuum
V_{\pm}	$(\pm 1, 0, 0, 1)$	$\text{E}^*(d - 1)$	Massless	photon
$X_{m,\pm}, m > 0$	$(\pm m, 0, 0, 0)$	$\text{Spin}(d)$	Massive	electron
$Y_{\Gamma}, \Gamma > 0$	$(0, 0, 0, \Gamma)$	$\text{Spin}(1, d - 1)$	Tachyonic	string tachyon

TABLE 4.2. The six sorts of orbits O of the Lorentz group in $d \geq 2$ spatial dimensions, representative momenta p_* (in the physical $d = 3$ case, for simplicity), and the isomorphism classes of the corresponding little groups $L[p_*]$. Here, $\text{E}^*(j)$ is the double cover of the isometry group of $j \geq 2$ dimensional space; this is the universal cover if $j \geq 3$.

In summary, to each irrep ρ is associated two pieces of data, which characterize it:

- a Lorentz-orbit $O \subset \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, whose closure \bar{O} is the spectrum σ , describing which representations of the normal subgroup $\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \triangleleft \text{P}^*(1, d)$ are present,
- an irrep ς of a certain subgroup $L \subseteq \text{Spin}(1, d)$, describing the representation's "spin degrees-of-freedom."

Conversely, given these two pieces of data, O and ς , an irrep π_{\bullet} can be constructed from them — the Lorentz orbit associated to π_{\bullet} is O , and the little group representation is ς .

This reduces the classification of irreps of $\text{P}^*(1, d)$ to the classification of irreps of the various L . For example, when $O = X_{m,+}$ for $m > 0$, the little group is the group of rotations, or really the double cover

$$\text{Spin}(d) \twoheadrightarrow \text{SO}(d). \quad (4.8)$$

This is a compact simple Lie group, so its representation theory is relatively easy. In the physical $d = 3$ case, the little group is

$$\text{Spin}(3) = \text{SU}(2), \quad (4.9)$$

and we know the irreps of $\text{SU}(2)$; we have one, \mathbf{j} for each dimension $j \in \mathbb{N}$, the spin $s = 2^{-1}(j - 1)$ representation.

This completes our summary.

The reader may prefer to try their hand at the method of induced representations for semidirect products of finite groups. No new algebraic ideas are required to handle $\text{P}^*(1, d)$, only analytic technicalities owing to the existence of the noncompact abelian subgroup of translations, some of which we have already discussed. On the other hand, if the reader just wants to see the definition of π_{\bullet} without having to work through its motivation, they can skip directly to §2.5.

To cut down on the amount of notational casework, we will sometimes use " $X_{0,\pm}$ " to mean V_{\pm} .

2. The method of induced representations: details

Let $\rho : \text{P}^*(1, d) \rightarrow \text{U}(\mathcal{H})$ denote a (continuous) unitary representation of $\text{P}^*(1, d)$. We will not assume just yet that ρ is irreducible, but we will assume that it is primary.

2.1. Regarding the spectrum.

PROPOSITION 4.1. *Assuming that ρ is irreducible, σ consists of the closure of a single orbit of the Lorentz group.* ■

PROOF. We already know that σ consists of a (nonempty) union of orbits $\Omega, V_-, V_+, X_{m,+}, X_{m,-}, Y_{\Gamma}$ of the Lorentz group.

Suppose that $E \in \text{Borel}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d})$ is Lorentz-closed. This means that $E = \Lambda E$, so Lemma 3.6 says

$$\Pi(E)\rho(a, \Lambda) = \rho(a, \Lambda)\Pi(E). \quad (4.10)$$

Thus, $\text{range}(\Pi(E)) \subseteq \mathcal{H}$ is a Poincaré-closed subspace of \mathcal{H} . It will be proper if $\Pi(E) \neq 0, I$. Since we are assuming that ρ is irreducible, $\Pi(E)$ must be 0 or I . This applies to all of the operators $\Pi(\bullet)$ appearing in the rest of the proof.

Suppose that O_j are two distinct Lorentz orbits $O_j \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, such that neither of \bar{O}_0, \bar{O}_1 is a subset of the other (this just rules out the case where $O_0 = \Omega$ and $O_1 = V_\pm$, or vice versa). Unless $O_0 = V_-$ and $O_1 = V_+$, or vice versa, there exist disjoint Lorentz-closed open neighborhoods $U_j \supset \bar{O}_j$. Because

$$I = \Pi(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}) = \Pi(U_0) + \Pi(U_1) + \Pi(\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \setminus (U_0 \cup U_1)), \quad (4.11)$$

at most one of $\Pi(U_0), \Pi(U_1)$ can be nonzero. Consequently, at least one of O_0 or O_1 is not a subset of σ .

The previous paragraph shows that

$$\sigma \in \{\Omega, \bar{V}_\pm, V_- \cup V_+ \cup \Omega, X_{m,\pm}, Y_\Gamma : m, \Gamma > 0\}. \quad (4.12)$$

The last remaining thing to do is rule out the unwanted possibility $\sigma = V_- \cup V_+ \cup \Omega$. In this case, $\Pi(\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \setminus (\bar{V}_- \cup \bar{V}_+)) = 0$. If it were also the case that $\Pi(V_+) = 0$, then we would have

$$\Pi(\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \setminus \bar{V}_-) = \Pi(\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \setminus (\bar{V}_- \cup \bar{V}_+)) + \Pi(V_+) = 0. \quad (4.13)$$

But $\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \setminus \bar{V}_-$ is an open set containing all of V_+ , so this would imply $V_+ \cap \sigma = \emptyset$, contradicting our assumption.

So, $\Pi(V_+) \neq 0$. For the same reason, $\Pi(V_-) \neq 0$.

If it were the case that $\Pi(V_+) = I$, then we would have

$$\Pi(\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \setminus \bar{V}_-) = \Pi(\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \setminus (\bar{V}_- \cup \bar{V}_+)) + \Pi(V_+) = I. \quad (4.14)$$

But because $I = \Pi(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}) = \Pi(\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \setminus \bar{V}_-) + \Pi(V_-) + \Pi(\Omega)$, this would imply $\Pi(V_-) = 0$, which has already been ruled out. \square

REMARK: The conclusion of the previous proposition holds under the weaker assumption that ρ is primary.

2.2. The abstract Fourier transform. We have discussed the technical obstruction to decomposing wavefunctions into generalized plane waves — a direct integral, analogous to the Fourier transform, is required, as the required generalized plane waves do not sit in our Hilbert space \mathcal{H} . For each $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{H}$, we have a spectral measure $\mu_{\phi,\psi} : \text{Borel}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, such that $\mu_{\phi,\psi}(E) = \langle \phi, \Pi(E)\psi \rangle$ for all Borel subsets $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$. The support of $\mu_{\phi,\psi}$ is a subset of that of Π , which is the spectrum σ . When ρ is primary, and thus $\sigma = \bar{O}$ for a Lorentz orbit O , this means that $\mu_{\phi,\psi}$ is an ordinary complex measure supported on \bar{O} .

There is a natural choice of Lorentz-invariant measure $\mu : \text{Borel}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ supported on O . This comes from the homeomorphism

$$O \cong \text{SO}(1, d)/L_*, \quad (4.15)$$

where $L_* = L_*(p_*)$ is the stabilizer of p_* in the restricted Lorentz group $\text{SO}(1, d)$. The Haar measure on $\text{SO}(1, d)$ descends via this quotient to O . We will see explicit formulas later.

The following technical result is proven in §A:

PROPOSITION 4.2. *There exists a dense subspace $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{H}$, closed under the action of $\text{P}^*(1, d)$, such that, for all $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{D}$, the spectral measure $\mu_{\phi,\psi}$ has a continuous density*

$$\frac{d\mu_{\phi,\psi}}{d\mu} \in C^0(O) \cap L^1(O, \mu) \quad (4.16)$$

on O . That is, $\mu_{\phi,\psi}$ is absolutely continuous with respect to μ , and its Radon–Nikodym derivative is continuous. \blacksquare

PROOF IDEA. The subspace \mathcal{D} will be the Gårding domain (eq. (3.62)). This means that elements of \mathcal{D} arise via “smoothing” elements $\psi \in \mathcal{H}$ by applying a Poincaré transformation $\rho(T)$ and then averaging over T (pairing against a bump function). The averaging over translations doesn’t do much here; the important thing is the averaging over Lorentz transformations. Because Lorentz transformations act transitively on O , this averaging has an effect similar to convolution, smoothing things out over O . It is essential here that $\mu_{\phi,\psi}$ is supported on O , because we do not get any smoothing effect across O . \square

REMARK 4.3. The Radon–Nikodym derivative is characterized by:

$$\mu_{\phi,\psi}(E) = \int_E \frac{d\mu_{\phi,\psi}}{d\mu}(p) d\mu(p) \quad (4.17)$$

for all Borel $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$. The following direct construction may be employed. Fix $p \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, and consider a sequence $\{\chi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \subset C_c^0(\mathbb{R}^{1,d})$

- $\chi_n \geq 0$, $\|\chi_n\|_{L^1(O,\mu)} = 1$, where μ is a Lorentz invariant measure on O (see below),
- $\text{supp } \chi_n$ shrinks to $\{p\}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Then, the value of $d\mu_{\phi,\psi}/d\mu$ at p is $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle \psi, \Pi(\chi_n)\phi \rangle$. \blacksquare

Consider

$$\langle\langle \psi, \phi; p \rangle\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{d\mu_{\phi,\psi}}{d\mu}(p) \quad (4.18)$$

for $\psi, \phi \in \mathcal{D}$. This is a sesquilinear, positive semi-definite form on \mathcal{D} . Semi-definiteness means

$$\langle\langle \psi, \psi; p \rangle\rangle \geq 0 \quad (4.19)$$

(which holds because $\mu_{\psi,\psi}$ is an ordinary nonnegative measure). This form is *not* definite – and therefore not an inner product – so cannot be used to complete \mathcal{D} to a Hilbert space. This is because if the spectral measure $\mu_{\phi,\psi}$ is supported away from p , then $\langle\langle \psi, \phi; p \rangle\rangle = 0$. This is a feature, not a bug, because we want this to be measuring something like the density of the wavefunctions’ “Fourier transforms” near p . If these Fourier transforms are vanishing near p , we should get 0.

Fortunately, semi-definite forms are almost as good as inner products, and there exists a standard way of getting a Hilbert space from them. This relies on Cauchy–Schwarz,

$$|\langle\langle \phi, \psi; p \rangle\rangle| \leq \sqrt{\langle\langle \phi, \phi; p \rangle\rangle} \cdot \sqrt{\langle\langle \psi, \psi; p \rangle\rangle}, \quad (4.20)$$

which only requires *semi*-definiteness, as the standard proof shows. Let

$$\mathcal{N}[p] = \{\psi \in \mathcal{D}, \langle\langle \psi, \psi; p \rangle\rangle = 0\} \quad (4.21)$$

denote the subset of *degenerate* vectors. An immediate consequence of Cauchy–Schwarz is that $\langle\langle \psi, \phi; p \rangle\rangle = 0$ whenever at least one of $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{D}$ lie in \mathcal{N} . It follows that $\mathcal{N}[p]$ is a linear subspace of \mathcal{D} . We can therefore form the quotient space

$$\mathcal{Q}[p] = \mathcal{D}/\mathcal{N}[p]. \quad (4.22)$$

Note that this could be the trivial (zero-dimensional) vector space $\{0\}$, if $\mathcal{N}[p] = \mathcal{D}$. This will be the case if p is not in the spectrum σ of the representation.

The form $\langle\langle -, -; p \rangle\rangle$ descends to an actual inner product on $\mathcal{Q}[p]$, which we denote with the same symbols:

$$\langle\langle \psi \bmod \mathcal{N}[p], \phi \bmod \mathcal{N}[p]; p \rangle\rangle = \langle\langle \psi, \phi; p \rangle\rangle. \quad (4.23)$$

The key point is that this sesquilinear form is positive *definite*, not semidefinite. Finally, let $\mathcal{H}[p]$ denote the completion of $\mathcal{Q}[p]$ under $\langle\langle -, -; p \rangle\rangle$. This is a different Hilbert space than what we called $\mathcal{H}[p]$ in §3.2, but, unlike our first candidate, it will usually be nonzero. Going forward, this is what we mean by “ $\mathcal{H}[p]$,” not the original attempt.

We have a canonical map $\mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}[p]$, namely $\psi \mapsto \psi \bmod \mathcal{N}[p]$. We will denote

$$\mathcal{F}\psi(p) = \psi \bmod \mathcal{N}[p]. \quad (4.24)$$

The notation “ \mathcal{F} ” is meant to evoke the Fourier transform. For $\psi \in \mathcal{D}$,

$$\int_O \|\mathcal{F}\psi(p)\|_{\mathcal{H}[p]}^2 d\mu(p) = \int_O \underbrace{\langle\langle \psi, \psi; p \rangle\rangle}_{d\mu_{\psi,\psi}/d\mu} d\mu(p) = \int_O d\mu_{\psi,\psi}(p) = \|\psi\|^2. \quad (4.25)$$

So, \mathcal{F} is unitary, in a sense.

2.3. The little group representation.

PROPOSITION 4.4. *If $T = (a, \Lambda) \in P^*$, then $\rho(T) : \mathcal{N}[p] \rightarrow \mathcal{N}[\Lambda p]$. Consequently, $\rho(T)$ induces a unitary map*

$$\rho(T)[p] : \mathcal{H}[p] \rightarrow \mathcal{H}[\Lambda p], \quad (4.26)$$

as expected. \blacksquare

PROOF. There are two non-trivial things to check: (i) that $\rho(T) : \mathcal{N}[p] \rightarrow \mathcal{N}[\Lambda p]$, and (ii) that the induced map eq. (4.26), which is well-defined if we know (i), is unitary. Both claims follow from

$$\langle\langle \psi, \phi; p \rangle\rangle = \langle\langle \rho(T)\psi, \rho(T)\phi; \Lambda p \rangle\rangle, \quad (4.27)$$

, which is a consequence of the Lorentz-covariance of the spectral measures $\mu_{\phi,\psi}$. \square

A corollary of this is that all $\mathcal{H}[p]$'s, $p \in O$, are isomorphic.

The maps $\rho(T)[p]$ satisfy the following “groupoid” property:

PROPOSITION 4.5. $\rho(T_2 T_1)[p] = \rho(T_2)[\Lambda_1 p] \circ \rho(T_1)[p]$. \blacksquare

PROOF. Immediate from above. \square

PROPOSITION 4.6. $\rho(T_a)[p] = e^{i\langle a, p \rangle}$. \blacksquare

PROOF. Follows from $d\mu_{\phi,\rho(T_a)\psi}/d\mu(p) = e^{i\langle a, p \rangle} d\mu_{\phi,\psi}/d\mu(p)$. \square

COROLLARY. Fix $p_* \in O$, and let $L = L[p_*]$ be the stabilizer of p_* in $\text{Spin}(1, d)$. Then,

$$\rho(-)[p_*] : \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes L \rightarrow \text{U}(\mathcal{H}[p_*]) \quad (4.28)$$

is a unitary representation of $\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes L$, with all of the translation operators T_a acting via multiplication by $e^{i\langle a, p_* \rangle}$. $\blacksquare \square$

Restricting $\rho(-)[p]$ to the subgroup $(\mathbb{R}^{1,d}, +)$ of translations, the result is a direct sum of countably many copies of χ_p . We have a generalized plane wave with momentum exactly p , constructed from our original representation, but not as a subspace thereof.

Let $\varsigma : L[p_*] \rightarrow \text{U}(\mathcal{H}[p_*])$ be the restriction of this unitary representation to Lorentz transformations:

$$\varsigma(\Lambda) = \rho(\Lambda)[p_*]. \quad (4.29)$$

This is the “little group representation” that will help us in classifying ρ .

2.4. The group law. Next, we identify $\mathcal{F}\psi$ with a function on O valued in some *fixed* vector space.

REMARK 4.7. This can be couched in geometric terms. The various Hilbert spaces $\mathcal{H}[p], p \in O$ can be aggregated into a “bundle” $\mathcal{H}[\bullet] \rightarrow O$ over O , whose “fiber” over a point $p \in O$ is the Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}[p]$. Since

$$\mathcal{F}\psi(p) \in \mathcal{H}[p], \quad (4.30)$$

$\mathcal{F}\psi$ is a “section” of the bundle. What we want to do is trivialize the bundle, identifying it with $O \times \mathcal{V}$ for some vector space \mathcal{V} . \blacksquare

Fix a reference momentum $p_* \in O$, and abbreviate $\mathcal{H}[p_*] = \mathcal{V}$. Suppose that we have chosen, for each $p \in O$, a “standard boost” $D[p] \in \text{Spin}(1, d)$ with

$$D[p]p_* = p. \quad (4.31)$$

($D[p_*] = I_{d+1}$.) Then, $\rho(D[p]^{-1}) : \mathcal{H}[p] \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is some unitary map, for each $p \in O$. We assume that $D[p]$ has been chosen to depend continuously on p . (This can always be done.) From $\mathcal{F}\psi$, we can form a map $O \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ by

$$p \mapsto \rho(D[p]^{-1})\mathcal{F}\psi(p). \quad (4.32)$$

Call this function $U\psi$. It follows immediately from eq. (4.25) that $U\psi \in L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{V})$, with

$$U : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow L^2(O, \mu, \mathcal{V}) \quad (4.33)$$

a partial isometry onto its image. In fact, this map is surjective.

PROPOSITION 4.8. *U is onto $L^2(O, \mu, \mathcal{V})$.* ■

PROOF. Let \mathcal{X} denote the image of U and \mathcal{Y} its orthogonal complement. By Lorentz-smoothing, the subspace $C^0(O; \mathcal{V}) \cap \mathcal{Y}$ is dense in \mathcal{Y} . Suppose that Ψ is in this intersection. Suppose that $\Psi(p_*) \neq 0$. We can find a set of vectors $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots \in \mathcal{D}$ (not necessarily independent) such that the $\psi_j \bmod \mathcal{N}[p_*]$ span (this is the finite span) a dense subspace of $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{H}[p_*]$. So, there is an element of this span, Σ , such that $\langle (\mathcal{F}\Sigma)(p_*), \Psi(p_*) \rangle_{\mathcal{V}} > 0$. By continuity, there exists a $\varepsilon > 0$ and a neighborhood $U \ni p_*$ such that $\Re \langle \rho(D[p]^{-1})\mathcal{F}\Sigma(p), \Psi(p) \rangle_{\mathcal{V}} > \varepsilon$ for all $p \in U$. Now consider $\Pi(\chi)\Sigma$ for $\chi \in C_c^0(U)$ with $\chi(p_*) = 1$ and $\chi(p) \geq 0$ everywhere. Then, $\mathcal{F}(\Pi(\chi)\Sigma)(p) = \chi(p)\mathcal{F}\Sigma(p)$, so

$$\langle \rho(D[p]^{-1})\mathcal{F}\Pi(\chi)\Sigma, \Psi \rangle_{L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{V})} = \int_O \chi(p) \langle \rho(D[p]^{-1})\mathcal{F}\Sigma(p), \Sigma(p) \rangle_{\mathcal{V}} d\mu(p) \quad (4.34)$$

has positive real part. But this contradicts $\Psi \in \mathcal{X}^\perp$.

What we have shown is that $\Psi \in \mathcal{Y} \Rightarrow \Psi(p_*) = 0$. But there is nothing special about p_* , so $\Psi = 0$ identically. Thus, \mathcal{X} is all of $L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{V})$. □

We can therefore “transport” our original representation ρ on \mathcal{H} to one on the image of U (which will end up being all of $L^2(O, \mu, \mathcal{V})$):

$$\mathrm{P}^*(1, d) \ni T \mapsto U\rho(T)U^{-1} \in \mathrm{U}(L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{V})). \quad (4.35)$$

Note that $L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{V})$ carries no *obvious* representation of $\mathrm{P}^*(1, d)$, only the (usually proper) little group (including spacetime translations). Thus, we have no guess for what $U\rho(\Lambda)U^{-1}$ had ought to be. But we can just work it out:

PROPOSITION 4.9. *For any $\Psi \in L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{V})$ and $T = (a, \Lambda) \in \mathrm{P}^*$,*

$$(U\rho(T)U^{-1}\Psi)(p) = e^{i\langle a, p \rangle} \rho(D[p]^{-1}\Lambda D[\Lambda^{-1}p])\Psi(\Lambda^{-1}p) \quad (4.36)$$
■

PROOF. For any $\psi \in \mathcal{D}$,

$$\begin{aligned} (U\rho(T)\psi)(p) &= \rho(D[p]^{-1})\mathcal{F}(\rho(T)\psi)(p) = \rho(D[p]^{-1})\rho(T)\mathcal{F}\psi(T^{-1}p) \\ &= \rho(D[p]^{-1}T)\mathcal{F}\psi(T^{-1}p) \\ &= \rho(D[p]^{-1}TD[T^{-1}p])\rho(D[T^{-1}p])\mathcal{F}\psi(T^{-1}p) \\ &= \rho(D[p]^{-1}TD[T^{-1}p])((U\psi)(T^{-1}p)). \end{aligned} \quad (4.37)$$

Now write $T = T_a T_{\Lambda} = T_{\Lambda} T_{\Lambda^{-1}a}$. The right-hand side above is

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(D[p]^{-1}\Lambda D[\Lambda^{-1}p])\rho(D[\Lambda^{-1}p]^{-1}T_{\Lambda^{-1}a}D[\Lambda^{-1}p])((U\psi)(\Lambda^{-1}p)) \\ = \rho(D[p]^{-1}\Lambda D[T^{-1}p])\rho(T_{D[\Lambda^{-1}p]^{-1}\Lambda^{-1}a}) \underbrace{((U\psi)(\Lambda^{-1}p))}_{\in \mathcal{H}[p_*]}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.38)$$

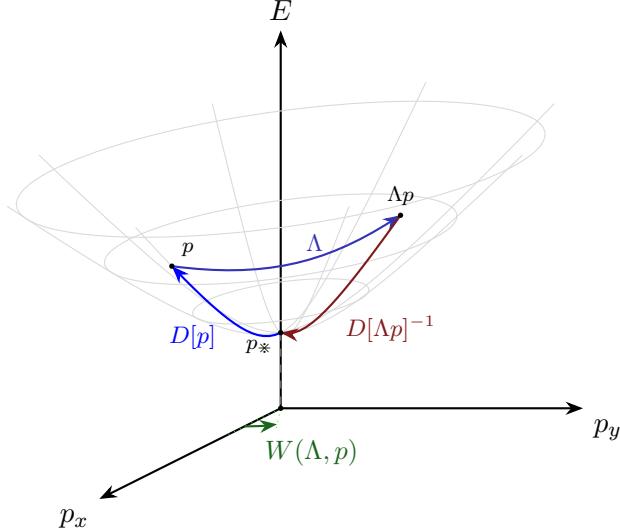


FIGURE 4.1. The Wigner rotation.

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho(T_{D[\Lambda^{-1}p]^{-1}\Lambda^{-1}a})((U\psi)(\Lambda^{-1}p)) &= e^{i\langle D[\Lambda^{-1}p]^{-1}\Lambda^{-1}a, p_* \rangle} (U\psi)(\Lambda^{-1}p) \\
 &= e^{i\langle \Lambda^{-1}a, D[\Lambda^{-1}p]p_* \rangle} (U\psi)(\Lambda^{-1}p) \\
 &= e^{i\langle \Lambda^{-1}a, \Lambda^{-1}p \rangle} (U\psi)(\Lambda^{-1}p) \\
 &= e^{i\langle a, p \rangle} (U\psi)(\Lambda^{-1}p).
 \end{aligned} \tag{4.39}$$

□

This looks god-awful, but let us press ahead. We can simplify the final formula somewhat by defining

$$W(\Lambda, p) = D[p]^{-1}\Lambda D[\Lambda^{-1}p]. \tag{4.40}$$

This lies in the little group:

PROPOSITION 4.10. *For any $\Lambda \in \text{Spin}(1, d)$, we have $W(\Lambda, p) \in L$.*

■

PROOF. Straightforwardly,

$$W(\Lambda, p)p_* = D[p]^{-1}\Lambda D[\Lambda^{-1}p]p_* = D[p]^{-1}\Lambda\Lambda^{-1}p = D[p]^{-1}p = p_*. \tag{4.41}$$

□

The matrix/“matrix” $W(\Lambda, p)$ is called a *Wigner rotation*. It depends on p_* through $D[p]$, but this dependence is left implicit. When $p_* = (m, \mathbf{0})$ for some $m > 0$, then the stabilizer L is naturally $\text{Spin}(d)$, and

$$W(\Lambda, p) \in \text{Spin}(d) \tag{4.42}$$

as well. So, $W(\Lambda, p)$ is “literally” a rotation, except it may be spinorial.

In terms of the Wigner rotation $W = W(\Lambda, p)$:

$$U\rho(T)U^{-1}\Psi(p) = e^{i\langle a, p \rangle} \varsigma(W)\Psi(\Lambda^{-1}p). \tag{4.43}$$

Note that the little group representation ς has arisen. To summarize:

THEOREM. *Our primary rep ρ is unitarily equivalent to a representation on $L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{V})$ of the form*

$$(T\Psi)(p) = e^{i\langle a, p \rangle} \varsigma(W)\Psi(\Lambda^{-1}p) \quad (4.44)$$

for $T = (a, \Lambda)$. The intertwining map is the U above. \blacksquare

So, it suffices to restrict attention to representations of this form.

2.5. Facts about induced representations. Next, we note that eq. (4.44) actually defines a representation of P^* . To repeat the definition:

Let

- $O \in \{\Omega, V_{\pm}, X_{m,\pm}, Y_{\Gamma} : m, \Gamma > 0\}$ and $L \subset \text{Spin}(1, d)$ be the corresponding little group, and
- $\varsigma : L \rightarrow U(\mathcal{V})$ denote a unitary representation of L on some Hilbert space \mathcal{V} .

Assume that a standard boost $D[p] : p_* \mapsto p$ has been chosen so as to depend continuously on $p \in O$. Consider the Hilbert space

$$\mathcal{H} = L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{V}). \quad (4.45)$$

For each $a \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ and $\Lambda \in \text{Spin}(1, d)$, consider the operator $\pi(a, \Lambda) \in U(\mathcal{H})$ on \mathcal{H} defined by

$$(\pi(a, \Lambda)\Psi)(p) = e^{i\langle a, p \rangle} \varsigma(W(\Lambda, p))\Psi(\Lambda^{-1}p), \quad (4.46)$$

where $W(\Lambda, p) = D[p]^{-1}\Lambda D[\Lambda^{-1}p]$.

PROPOSITION 4.11. *Then, $(a, \Lambda) \mapsto \pi(a, \Lambda)$ defines a continuous unitary representation of $P^*(1, d)$* \blacksquare

PROOF. Evidently, $\pi(a, \Lambda)$ is unitary, and depends continuously on a, Λ with respect to the strong-operator topology. That this defines a representation of P^* is the following calculation:

$$\begin{aligned} (\pi(a, \Lambda)\pi(a', \Lambda')\Psi)(p) &= e^{i\langle a, p \rangle} \varsigma(W(\Lambda, p))(\pi(a', \Lambda')\Psi)(\Lambda^{-1}p) \\ &= e^{i\langle a, p \rangle} \varsigma(W(\Lambda, p))e^{i\langle a', \Lambda^{-1}p \rangle} \varsigma(W(\Lambda', \Lambda^{-1}p))\Psi((\Lambda\Lambda')^{-1}p) \\ &= e^{i\langle a + \Lambda a', p \rangle} \varsigma(W(\Lambda, p)W(\Lambda', \Lambda^{-1}p))\Psi((\Lambda\Lambda')^{-1}p). \end{aligned} \quad (4.47)$$

Note that $W(\Lambda, p)W(\Lambda', \Lambda^{-1}p) = D[p]^{-1}\Lambda\Lambda'D[(\Lambda\Lambda')^{-1}p] = W(\Lambda\Lambda', p)$. So, the above is

$$\begin{aligned} &= e^{i\langle a + \Lambda a', p \rangle} \varsigma(W(\Lambda\Lambda', p))\Psi((\Lambda\Lambda')^{-1}p) \\ &= \pi(a + \Lambda a', \Lambda\Lambda')\Psi(p). \end{aligned} \quad (4.48)$$

\square

REMARK: If ς descends to a representation of $L_* \subseteq O(1, d)$, then π descends to a representation of $P(1, d)$.

The representation defined in the previous theorem is denoted

$$\pi = \text{Ind}_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes L}^{\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes \text{Spin}(1,d)}(\chi \otimes \varsigma), \quad (4.49)$$

where $\chi \otimes \varsigma : \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes L \rightarrow U(\mathcal{V})$ is given by $(x, A) \mapsto e^{i\langle x, p \rangle} \varsigma(A)$. See [Fol08], [Tal22] for alternative expositions.

Having succeeded in defining the representation π , one should check that it has the desired spectrum $\sigma = \bar{O}$ and little group representation ς . This is left as an exercise.

[Exercise 4.3]

PROPOSITION 4.12. *π is irreducible if and only if ς is.* \blacksquare

PROOF. If ς is reducible, so that there exists some ς -closed subspace $\mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$, then $L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{W})$ is evidently a π -closed subspace of $\mathcal{H} = L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{V})$.

Conversely, suppose that π is reducible, so that $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{X} \oplus \mathcal{Y}$ for proper subrepresentations \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} . These have to have the same spectrum. The space $\mathcal{H}[p_*] \cong \mathcal{V}$ splits as

$$\mathcal{H}[p_*] \cong \mathcal{X}[p_*] \oplus \mathcal{Y}[p_*], \quad (4.50)$$

each summand in which is ς -closed. We know that each $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}$ is unitarily equivalent to a subspace of $L^2(O, \mu; \mathcal{Z}[p_*])$, so $\mathcal{Z}[p_*]$ must be a proper subspace of $\mathcal{H}[p_*]$. We conclude that $\mathcal{H}[p_*]$, and hence \mathcal{V} , is reducible as a ς -representation. \square

[Problem 4.2]

REMARK: Similarly, π is primary if and only if ς is.

REMARK: The definition of eq. (4.46) does not depend on the choice of standard boosts $D[p] \in \text{Spin}(1, d)$, whose only defining properties (besides depending continuously on p) were that $D[p]p_* = p$. Call an alternative $\tilde{D}[p]$, leading to the alternative Wigner rotation $\tilde{W}(\Lambda, p)$. Then, we can rewrite eq. (4.46) as

$$\begin{aligned} (U(a, \Lambda)\Psi)(p) &= e^{i\langle a, p \rangle} \\ &\times \varsigma(D[p]^{-1}\tilde{D}[p])\varsigma(\underbrace{\tilde{D}[p]^{-1}\Lambda\tilde{D}[\Lambda^{-1}p]}_{\tilde{W}(\Lambda, p)})\varsigma(\tilde{D}[\Lambda^{-1}p]^{-1}D[\Lambda^{-1}p])\Psi(\Lambda^{-1}p). \end{aligned} \quad (4.51)$$

Note that this makes sense because

$$D[p]^{-1}\tilde{D}[p], \tilde{D}[\Lambda^{-1}p]^{-1}D[\Lambda^{-1}p] : p_* \mapsto p_* \quad (4.52)$$

and are therefore in the little group. So, if we define $\tilde{\Psi}(p) = \varsigma(\tilde{D}[p]^{-1}D[p])\Psi(p)$, then the unitary map $\Psi \mapsto \tilde{\Psi}$ intertwines the original representation with that constructed using $\tilde{D}[p]$.

So, every pair of a Lorentz orbit O and little group irrep ς is realized by some irrep of $P^*(1, d)$. Combining this with previous propositions, we have a complete classification of irreps: *for each Lorentz orbit O and corresponding little group irrep ς , we have (modulo unitary equivalence) exactly one irrep of $P^*(1, d)$ with those two pieces of data*, and it is the induced representation

$$\text{Ind}_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes L}^{\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes \text{Spin}(1,d)}(\chi \otimes \varsigma) \quad (4.53)$$

defined above.

2.6. An alternative construction. The homeomorphism $O \cong \text{Spin}(1, d)/L$ suggests attempting to build the representation in question as consisting of \mathcal{V} -valued functions on $\text{Spin}(1, d)$ satisfying some kind of L -invariance that allows us to pass to functions on the quotient. The correct notion is “equivariance” — a function $\Psi : \text{Spin}(1, d) \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is called *L-equivariant* if

$$\Psi(\Lambda A^{-1}) = \varsigma(A)\Psi(\Lambda) \quad (4.54)$$

for all $\Lambda \in \text{Spin}(1, d)$ (or almost all Λ) and $A \in L$.

Given a function $\Psi : \text{Spin}(1, d) \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$, a natural action of $\Lambda \in \text{Spin}(1, d)$ on Ψ is

$$(\Lambda\Psi)(\Lambda_0) = \Psi(\Lambda^{-1}\Lambda_0). \quad (4.55)$$

This suggests considering the big Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}_{\text{big}} = L^2(\text{Spin}(1, d); \mathcal{V})$. For any Λ , the map $\Psi \mapsto \Lambda\Psi$ is unitary by virtue of the invariance of the Haar measure. So, we get a manifest continuous unitary representation of $\text{Spin}(1, d)$. For any p_* , we can extend this to a representation \tilde{U} of the full Poincaré group by writing

$$(\tilde{U}(a, \Lambda)\Psi)(\Lambda_0) = e^{i\langle a, \Lambda_0 p_* \rangle}\Psi(\Lambda^{-1}\Lambda_0). \quad (4.56)$$

Clearly, $\tilde{U}(a, \Lambda)$ is unitary and depends continuously on a, Λ .

PROPOSITION 4.13. \tilde{U} is a representation of P^* . \blacksquare

PROOF. Calculate

$$\begin{aligned} (\tilde{U}(a, \Lambda)\tilde{U}(a', \Lambda')\Psi)(\Lambda_0) &= e^{i\langle a, \Lambda_0 p_* \rangle}(\tilde{U}(a', \Lambda')\Psi)(\Lambda^{-1}\Lambda_0) \\ &= e^{i\langle a, \Lambda_0 p_* \rangle}e^{i\langle a', \Lambda^{-1}\Lambda_0 p_* \rangle}(\Psi((\Lambda\Lambda')^{-1}\Lambda_0)) \\ &= e^{i\langle a + \Lambda a', \Lambda_0 p_* \rangle}(\Psi((\Lambda\Lambda')^{-1}\Lambda_0)) = (\tilde{U}(a + \Lambda a', \Lambda\Lambda')\Psi)(\Lambda_0). \end{aligned} \quad (4.57)$$

□

Note that we have not yet assumed that L is the stabilizer of p_* .

Let $\mathcal{H}_{\text{small}}$ denote the subspace of \mathcal{H}_{big} consisting of L -equivariant functions. It is clear from the definition of equivariance (because the A^{-1} in ΛA^{-1} is on the *right*) that

$$\Psi \text{ } L\text{-equivariant} \implies (\Lambda\Psi) = \Psi \circ \Lambda^{-1} \text{ } L\text{-equivariant}, \quad (4.58)$$

so $\mathcal{H}_{\text{small}}$ is a P^* -subrepresentation of \mathcal{H}_{big} .

PROPOSITION 4.14. *This subrepresentation is unitarily equivalent to the one defined above.* ■

PROOF. See [Tal22, §9.8]. □

3. The massive case

Consider the Lorentz orbit $O = X_{m,+}$, for $m > 0$. Recall that this is

$$X_{m,+} = \{(\omega, \mathbf{p}) \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d} : \omega = \sqrt{m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2}\}, \quad (4.59)$$

one sheet of a hyperboloid. The most natural choice of reference momentum $p_* \in X_{m,+}$ is $p_* = (m, \mathbf{0}) \in X_{m,+}$. In this section, we discuss the (spinorial) Poincaré-irreps π_\bullet whose spectrum is O . By the classification theorem above, we get exactly one irrep from each irrep ς of the little group

$$L = \{\Lambda \in \text{Spin}(1, d) : \Lambda p_* = p_*\}, \quad (4.60)$$

the stabilizer of p_* in $\text{Spin}(1, d)$. In addition, we will write down explicitly the Lorentz-invariant measure μ on $X_{m,+}$ and the standard boosts $D[p]$. These are required to make explicit the description of π_\bullet .

3.1. Little group and its representations. Recall that $\text{Spin}(d)$ denotes the universal cover of $\text{SO}(d)$, for $d \geq 2$.

PROPOSITION 4.15. $L \cong \text{Spin}(d)$ if $d \geq 3$, and $L \cong (\mathbb{R}, +)$ if $d = 2$. ■

PROOF. The stabilizer of p_* in the restricted Lorentz group, L_* , is $\text{SO}(d)$. The group L is the pre-image of L_* under the universal cover. □

So, the method of induced representations has reduced the classification of irreps of the spinorial Poincaré group to that of irreps of the Lie group $\text{Spin}(d)$, which is compact, unless $d = 2$. The irreps of $\text{Spin}(d)$ are well-understood.

The physically-relevant $d = 3$ case, in which $\text{Spin}(3) = \text{SU}(2)$ can be exposed explicitly. For each $j \in \mathbb{N}^+$, we have exactly one j -dimensional irrep, labeled \mathbf{j} , and referred to as the “spin- s ”, $s = (j-1)/2$, irrep. In particle physics, one rarely needs the irreps $\mathbf{4}, \mathbf{5}, \mathbf{6}, \mathbf{7}, \dots$. The low-dimensional examples $\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{2}, \mathbf{3}$ can all be described simply:

- **1** is the trivial representation.
- **2** is the defining representation of $\text{SU}(2)$.
- **3** is the double cover $\text{SU}(2) \rightarrow \text{SO}(3)$.

(If j is odd, then \mathbf{j} has a real structure. Otherwise, if j is even, it has a quaternionic structure.)

Explicit formulas for general j are given by the *Wigner D-matrices*.

So, we have, for each $s \in 2^{-1}\mathbb{N}$, an irrep $\pi_{m,s}$ of the spinorial Poincaré group $P^*(1, d)$. The rest of this section is devoted to describing this representation more explicitly.

3.2. Invariant measure. Up to a multiplicative constant, the Lorentz-invariant measure $\mu = \mu_{X_{m,+}}$ on $\mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ supported on $X_{m,+}$ is given by

$$d\mu(p) = \Theta(p_0)\delta(p^2 + m^2) d^{1+d}p, \quad (4.61)$$

where $\Theta(\omega) = 1_{\omega>0}$ is a Heaviside step function. The δ -function $\delta(p^2 + m^2)$ is either defined as or, if defined in some other way, is proven to be equal to

$$\delta\left(p_0 \mp \sqrt{m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2}\right) \left(\frac{d}{dp_0} p^2 \Big|_{p^2=m^2}\right)^{-1} = \frac{\delta(p_0 - \sqrt{m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2})}{2(m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2)^{1/2}}. \quad (4.62)$$

So, we have the following concrete formula for μ : if $f \in L^1(X_{m,+}, \mu)$, then

$$\int_{X_{m,+}} f(p) d\mu(p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{f((m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2)^{1/2}, \mathbf{p}) d^d\mathbf{p}}{2(m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2)^{1/2}}. \quad (4.63)$$

The manipulations of δ -functions above are rigorously justifiable, but the reader may prefer to take eq. (4.63) as the *definition* of μ .

Why is μ Lorentz-invariant? If we know how to make sense of eq. (4.61), then this is more or less obvious, since the terms

$$\text{sign}(p_0), p^2, d^{1+d}p \quad (4.64)$$

out of which $d\mu = \Theta(p_0)\delta(p^2 + m^2) d^{1+d}p$ is built are individually invariant. (The invariance of the Lebesgue measure $d^{1+d}p$ on \mathbb{R}^{1+d} is due to special Lorentz matrices having unit determinant.) However, we would like to verify Lorentz-invariance without needing any general theory of δ -functions. It should be possible to deduce this directly from the formula/alternative definition eq. (4.63). Indeed:

PROPOSITION 4.16. *For any orthochronous, orthochorous Lorentz matrix Λ and $f \in L^1(X_{m,+}, \mu)$,*

$$\int_{X_{m,+}} f(p) d\mu(p) = \int_{X_{m,+}} f(\Lambda p) d\mu(p). \quad (4.65)$$

That is, the measure μ is Lorentz-invariant. ■

PROOF. Since the definition eq. (4.63) is manifestly *rotation* invariant, and since rotations together with boosts in a single direction generate the whole Lorentz group, it suffices to consider the boost

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} c & s & 0 \\ s & c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_{d-1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.66)$$

for $c = \cosh(\beta)$, $s = \sinh(\beta)$, $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Then, by definition,

$$\int_{X_{m,+}} f(\Lambda p) d\mu(p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(cp^0(\mathbf{p}) + sp^1, sp^0(\mathbf{p}) + cp^1, p^2, \dots) \frac{d^d\mathbf{p}}{2(m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2)^{1/2}}, \quad (4.67)$$

where $p^0(\mathbf{p}) = \pm(m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2)^{1/2}$. Let $q^1 = sp^0(\mathbf{p}) + cp^1$, $q^2 = p^2, \dots$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} cp^0(\mathbf{p}) + sp^1 &= (m^2 + \|\mathbf{q}\|^2)^{1/2}, \\ d^d\mathbf{p} &= (-sq^1(m^2 + \|\mathbf{q}\|^2)^{-1/2} + c) d^d\mathbf{q}, \\ p^0(\mathbf{p}) &= c(m^2 + \|\mathbf{q}\|^2)^{1/2} - sq^1. \end{aligned} \quad (4.68)$$

These give

$$\frac{d^d\mathbf{p}}{(m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2)^{1/2}} = \frac{d^d\mathbf{q}}{(m^2 + \|\mathbf{q}\|^2)^{1/2}}, \quad (4.69)$$

and consequently

$$\int_{X_{m,+}} f(\Lambda p) d\mu(p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \frac{f((m^2 + \|\mathbf{q}\|^2)^{1/2}, \mathbf{q}) d^d \mathbf{q}}{2(m^2 + \|\mathbf{q}\|^2)^{1/2}} = \int_{X_{m,+}} f(q) d\mu(q). \quad (4.70)$$

□

3.3. Standard boosts and Wigner rotations. Given some other $p \in O$, the standard boost $D[p]$ is supposed to take p_* to $p = ((m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2)^{1/2}, \mathbf{p})$, $\mathbf{p} \neq 0$. The standard boost $\Lambda(-\mathbf{v})$ has this property for $\mathbf{v} = (m^2 + \|\mathbf{p}\|^2)^{-1/2} \mathbf{p}$.

Note that this depends continuously on \mathbf{p} , as we required.

We now compute the Wigner rotation $W(\Lambda, p) = D[p]^{-1} \Lambda D[\Lambda^{-1} p]$. We consider two cases, (i) Λ a rotation, (ii) Λ a pure boost.

- (i) When $\Lambda = R$ is a rotation, then $D[\Lambda^{-1} p] = \Lambda(-R^{-1} \mathbf{v}) = R^{-1} \Lambda(-\mathbf{v}) R$, so the Wigner rotation is

$$W(R, p) = (\Lambda(-\mathbf{v}))^{-1} R (R^{-1} \Lambda(-\mathbf{v}) R) = \Lambda(\mathbf{v}) \Lambda(-\mathbf{v}) R = R, \quad (4.71)$$

just r itself.

- (ii) When $\Lambda = \Lambda(\mathbf{w})$ is a pure boost, $D[p]^{-1} \Lambda = \Lambda(\mathbf{v}) \Lambda(\mathbf{w}) = W \Lambda(\mathbf{v} \oplus \mathbf{w})$, by the velocity addition formula Problem 1.3, where W is the same matrix called the Wigner rotation there.

Above, we actually wanted $D[p]$ to be an element of $\text{Spin}(1, d)$, not $\text{SO}(1, d)$, but this is easily amended, as the map $p \mapsto \Lambda(-\mathbf{v})$ can be lifted to $\text{Spin}(1, d)$.

4. The massless case

4.1. Invariant measure. The construction of the invariant measure $\mu = \mu_{V_\pm}$ is the same in the massless case as the massive case:

$$d\mu(p) = \Theta(p_0) \delta(p^2) d^{1+d} p, \quad (4.72)$$

except it is a bit more difficult to make rigorous sense of $\delta(p^2)$, as compared to $\delta(p^2 + m^2)$, since the zero set of p^2 is not smooth. It is a bicone, which fails to be a submanifold of $\mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ at the origin, whereas the zero set of $p^2 - m^2$ is a two-sheeted hyperboloid. Making sense of the product $\Theta(p_0) \delta(p^2)$ is also not automatic, because the singular supports of the individual factors $\Theta(p_0)$, $\delta(p^2)$ are not disjoint.

So, we just take eq. (4.63), with $m = 0$, as our definition: μ is the Borel measure on V_\pm such that

$$\int_{V_+} f(p) d\mu(p) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(\|\mathbf{p}\|, \mathbf{p}) \frac{d^d \mathbf{p}}{2\|\mathbf{p}\|} \quad (4.73)$$

for all $f \in C_c^0(\mathbb{R}^{1,d})$. The same computation as in the massive case shows that μ , defined in this way, is Lorentz-invariant.

4.2. Little group. As our reference momentum $p_* \in O$, we can take $p_* = (1, 1, 0, \dots)$.

Unlike in the massive case, the stabilizer L_* of p_* in $\text{SO}(1, d)$ requires some work to compute. The obvious members of L_* are those Lorentz transformations

$$I_2 \oplus R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & R \end{pmatrix}, \quad R \in \text{SO}(d-1) \quad (4.74)$$

which fix the t - and x^1 -axes and rotate the remaining variables. Perhaps surprisingly, these are not the only elements of L_* (excluding the $d=1$ case, as we are assuming that $d \geq 2$). A natural candidate to try would be a boost along the x -axis, but this doesn't work — no nontrivial boost

along the x -axis preserves p_* . So, any remaining elements of the little group would have to mix x^1 with the other spatial components x^2, x^3, \dots in some interesting way.

EXAMPLE 4.17 ($d = 2$ case). The most general 3-by-3 real-valued matrix fixing $p_* = (+1, 1, 0)$ is

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} a & 1-a & b \\ c & 1-c & d \\ e & -e & f \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.75)$$

where $a, b, c, d, e, f \in \mathbb{R}$. The question is: for which values of these parameters is Λ a proper, orthochronous Lorentz matrix? For each $w \in \mathbb{R}^3$, we get a linear constraint from equating $\langle w, p_* \rangle$ with $\langle \Lambda w, \Lambda p_* \rangle = \langle \Lambda w, p_* \rangle$.

- Taking $w = (1, 0, 0)$, in which case $\langle w, p_* \rangle = -1$, we get the constraint $c = a - 1$.
- Taking $w = (0, 1, 0)$ yields the same constraint.
- Taking $w = (0, 0, 1)$ yields the constraint $d = b$.

So,

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} a & 1-a & b \\ a-1 & 2-a & b \\ e & -e & f \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4.76)$$

For each $w, v \in \mathbb{R}^3$, we get a quadratic constraint from equating $\langle w, v \rangle$ and $\langle \Lambda w, \Lambda v \rangle$.

- Taking $w, v = (0, 0, 1)$, we get $f = \pm 1$.
- Then, taking $w = (1, 0, 0)$ and $v = (0, 0, 1)$, we get $e = \pm b$. The sign here is the same as that of f .
- Finally, taking $w, v = (1, 0, 0)$, we get $a = 1 + e^2/2$.

We could continue in this way, but we would not get any more constraints. Anyways, we only have a single degree-of-freedom e , left, in addition to an undetermined sign:

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} 1+\zeta & -\zeta & \pm e \\ \zeta & 1-\zeta & \pm e \\ e & -e & \pm 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.77)$$

for $\zeta = e^2/2$. This turns out to be a Lorentz matrix (which is why trying different pairs w, v of vectors above fails to yield new constraints), as some straightforward algebra reveals.

We have not done anything to guarantee that Λ is proper or orthochronous. Apparently, orthochronicity is automatic, since $\Lambda_0^0 = 1 + \zeta > 0$. Properity must depend on the sign \pm , since the two possible choices lead to opposite determinants. If $e = 0$, then we get a positive determinant if the sign is $+$. Considering the whole continuous family of Lorentz matrices $\Lambda(e)$, the sign of the determinant cannot change (since Lorentz matrices have determinant ± 1), so the previous conclusion must hold for all e . ■

The discussion above generalizes:

PROPOSITION 4.18. *Let $d \geq 2$. For each $\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $R \in \text{SO}(d-1)$, let*

$$N(\mathbf{e}, R) = \begin{pmatrix} 1+\zeta & -\zeta & \mathbf{e}^\top R \\ \zeta & 1-\zeta & \mathbf{e}^\top R \\ \mathbf{e} & -\mathbf{e} & R \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.78)$$

where $\zeta = \|\mathbf{e}\|^2/2$. Then, $L_*(p_*) = \{N(\mathbf{e}, R) : \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{R}^d, R \in \text{SO}(d-1)\}$. ■

The matrix $N(\mathbf{e}, I_{d-1})$ is what is known as a *null rotation*.

PROOF. The claim is that if Λ is a proper, orthochronous Lorentz matrix such that $\Lambda p_* = p_*$, then there exist $\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $R \in \text{SO}(d-1)$ such that $\Lambda = N(\mathbf{e}, R)$.

The computation for general $d \geq 2$ is almost identical to the $d = 2$ case discussed above, so let us just explain where the R comes from. After going through the linear constraints on the entries of Λ imposed by $\langle \Lambda \bullet, p_* \rangle = \langle \bullet, p_* \rangle$, we get that

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} a & 1-a & \mathbf{b}^\top \\ a-1 & 2-a & \mathbf{b}^\top \\ \mathbf{e} & -\mathbf{e} & R \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4.79)$$

for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{R}^{d-1}$, $R \in \mathbb{R}^{(d-1) \times (d-1)}$. Equating $w^2 = (\Lambda w)^2$ for $w = (1, 0, 0, \dots)$ yields $a = 1 + \zeta$ for $\zeta = \|\mathbf{e}\|^2/2$. Now taking $w = (0, 0, \mathbf{z})$ for $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^{d-1}$ and equating $(\Lambda w)^2 = w^2$, we get that $\|R\mathbf{z}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{z}\|^2$. So, $R \in O(d-1)$. To see that

$$\mathbf{b} = R^\top \mathbf{e} = R^{-1} \mathbf{e}, \quad (4.80)$$

equate $0 = \langle w, v \rangle = \langle \Lambda w, \Lambda v \rangle$ for that same w and $v = (1, 0, \dots)$. The Lorentz product $\langle \Lambda w, \Lambda v \rangle$ is given explicitly by

$$\langle \Lambda w, \Lambda v \rangle = -\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{e} \cdot R\mathbf{z}. \quad (4.81)$$

So, $\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{e} \cdot R\mathbf{z} = (R^\top \mathbf{e}) \cdot \mathbf{z}$. Since this holds for all $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^{d-1}$, we must have $\mathbf{b} = R^\top \mathbf{e}$.

To see that $N(\mathbf{e}, R)$ is a Lorentz matrix, we can use $N(\mathbf{e}, R) = N(\mathbf{e}, I_{d-1})N(\mathbf{0}, R)$. The second factor, $N(\mathbf{0}, R)$, is a spatial rotation and therefore a Lorentz matrix, and to show that $N(\mathbf{e}, I_{d-1})$ is a Lorentz matrix, it suffices (via a coordinate change) to consider $\mathbf{e} = (e, 0, \dots)$. Then,

$$N(\mathbf{e}, I_{d-1}) = \begin{pmatrix} a & 1-a & e & \mathbf{0}^\top \\ a-1 & 2-a & e & \mathbf{0}^\top \\ e & -e & 1 & \mathbf{0}^\top \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & I_{d-2} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4.82)$$

The check that $N(\mathbf{e}, I_{d-1})$ is a Lorentz matrix therefore reduces to the $d = 2$ case above.

Finally, note that Λ is automatically orthochronous, and it is proper if and only if $R \in SO(d-1)$. Indeed, $N(\mathbf{e}, I_{d-1})$ is proper, and $N(\mathbf{0}, R)$ is proper if and only if $R \in SO(d-1)$. So, $N(\mathbf{e}, R)$ is proper and orthochronous if and only if R is orientation-preserving. \square

For the rest of the section, $d \geq 3$.

The spinorial little group

$$L = \pi^{-1}(L_*) \quad (4.83)$$

is then the pre-image of all of the null rotations $N(\mathbf{e}, R)$ under the cover $\pi : \text{Spin}(1, d) \twoheadrightarrow SO(1, d)$.

EXAMPLE 4.19. For concrete computations in the $d = 3$ case, the choice $p_* = (1, 0, 0, 1)$ is convenient with the matrix

$$I_2 + \sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.84)$$

and $L(p_*) \subseteq \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is the set of $S \in \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ such that $S(I_2 + \sigma_3) = (I_2 + \sigma_3)S^{-1\dagger}$. Concretely, for $S \in \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$,

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow S^{-1\dagger} = \begin{pmatrix} d^* & -c^* \\ -b^* & a^* \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.85)$$

so the condition for S to be in $L[p_*]$ becomes

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ c & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d^* & -c^* \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4.86)$$

Thus, we have $c = 0$, $d = a^*$, and b is unconstrained. Note that this implies $\det S = |a|^2$, so if S is to lie in $\text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$, then we must have $|a| = 1$. We conclude that

$$L[p_*] = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & a^* \end{pmatrix} : a, b \in \mathbb{C}, |a| = 1 \right\}. \quad (4.87)$$

■

Let $E(j) = \mathbb{R}^j \rtimes \mathrm{SO}(j)$ denote the group of orientation-preserving isometries of j -dimensional Euclidean space, and let

$$E^*(j) = \mathbb{R}^j \rtimes \mathrm{Spin}(j) \quad (4.88)$$

denote its double cover. (We will also use $\pi : E^*(j) \rightarrow E(j)$ to denote the covering map.)

PROPOSITION 4.20. *The little groups L_*, L are isomorphic to $E(d-1)$, $E^*(d-1)$, respectively. More precisely, letting $A(\mathbf{e}, R) \in E(d-1)$ denote the isometry $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \mathbf{e} + R\mathbf{x}$, consider the bijection $\iota : A(\mathbf{e}, R) \mapsto N(\mathbf{e}, R)$. Then, ι is an isomorphism, and there exists an isomorphism $\iota^* : E^*(d-1) \rightarrow L(p_*)$ such that $\pi \circ \iota^* = \iota \circ \pi$.* ■

PROOF. Since $A(\mathbf{e}, R)A(\mathbf{e}', R) = A(\mathbf{e} + R\mathbf{e}', RR')$, for ι to be a homomorphism (and thus an isomorphism) means that

$$N(\mathbf{e}, R)N(\mathbf{e}', R') = N(\mathbf{e} + R\mathbf{e}', RR'). \quad (4.89)$$

This identity is straightforwardly checked directly, just multiplying the two matrices $N(\mathbf{e}, R), N(\mathbf{e}', R')$ together. □

4.3. Representations of little groups. The classification of massless irreps of $P^*(1, d)$ has been reduced to the classification of irreps of the cover

$$E^*(d-1) = \mathbb{R}^{d-1} \rtimes \mathrm{Spin}(d-1) \quad (4.90)$$

of the group $E(d-1)$ of Euclidean isometries. This is because the stabilizer in $\mathrm{Spin}(1, d)$ of a nonzero null vector $k \in V_+$ happened to be isomorphic to $E^*(d-1)$. This isomorphism identified Euclidean translations with null rotations of spacetime and Euclidean rotations with rotations in space around the spatial component of k .

Like the Poincaré group, the group $E^*(d-1)$ is a semidirect product of \mathbb{R}^{d-1} and another (semisimple) Lie group, so its irreps can be classified using the method of induced representations. Since the analysis is almost identical to that of the Poincaré group, we can just state the upshot. The irreps are classified by two pieces of data: an orbit $o \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ of the group $\mathrm{SO}(d-1)$ of Euclidean rotations, and an irrep of the stabilizer

$$\ell(k_*) = \{R \in \mathrm{Spin}(d-1) : Rk_* = k_*\}, \quad k_* \in o, \quad (4.91)$$

called the *short little group* in this context. The orbit o is the spectrum of the restriction of the representation to Euclidean translations – i.e. to null rotations.

Unlike in the Lorentzian setting, where we had six sorts of possible orbits, in the Euclidean setting there are only two:

- the sphere $r\mathbb{S} = \{q \in \mathbb{R}^{d-1} : \|q\| = r\}$ of radius $r > 0$,
- the origin $\mathcal{O} = \{0\}$.

This is summarized in Section 4.3, together with the corresponding short little groups. In either case, the short little group is $\mathrm{Spin}(j)$ for some $j \in \mathbb{N}^+$, so its irreps can be looked up.

Orbit $o \subset \mathbb{R}^{d-1}$	Reference $k_* \in o$	Short little group ℓ
$r\mathbb{S}, r > 0$	$k_* = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$	$\mathrm{Spin}(d-2)$
$\mathcal{O} = \{0\}$	$k_* = 0$	$\mathrm{Spin}(d-1)$

TABLE 4.3. The orbit $o \subset \mathbb{R}^{d-1}$ and associated short little group ℓ .

The possibility $o = r\mathbb{S}$ leads to an irrep $\varsigma : E^*(1, d) \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{V})$ of the little group $E^*(d-1)$ which is *infinite*-dimensional, since it will consist of wavefunctions on $r\mathbb{S}$ valued in an irrep of the short little group. This exotic possibility leads to *continuous spin*. It does not appear to be realized in nature.

So, we focus on the case where the orbit o is $\mathcal{O} = \{0\}$. This means that null rotations act trivially on the little group irrep. The whole little group irrep is then unitarily equivalent to the

short little group irrep. So, we can conclude: *for each irrep of $\text{Spin}(d - 1)$, we get exactly one irrep of $E^*(d - 1)$.*

When $d = 3$, then the relevant short little group is $\text{Spin}(2) \cong \text{U}(1)$. The irreps of $\text{U}(1)$ have the form $\chi_j : e^{i\theta} \mapsto e^{ij\theta}$, where $j \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then, $\{\chi_j\}_{j \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a complete set of irreps.

PROPOSITION 4.21. *Choosing $p_* = (1, 0, 0, 1)$, so that $L \subseteq \text{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is given by eq. (4.87), the irrep $\varsigma : L \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ induced by χ_j has the form $S \mapsto a^j$.* ■

To summarize, in ς , the null rotations all act trivially, but the rotations around k act nontrivially.

4.4. Standard boosts and Wigner rotations. For each $p \in V_+ \setminus \{p_*\}$, we want to find a restricted Lorentz matrix $D[p]$ such that $D[p] : p_* \mapsto p$, where $p_* = (1, 0, \dots, 0, 1)$ is the future-directed null vector whose spatial component we call $\mathbf{z} = (0, 0, \dots, 1)$. If $p = (p_0, \mathbf{p})$ is a null vector, with $p_0 > 0$ and $\mathbf{p} \neq \mathbf{z}$, then there is a unique spatial rotation $R(\mathbf{p})$ acting as the identity on $\{\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{p}\}^\perp$ and mapping $R(\mathbf{p}) : \mathbf{z} \mapsto \hat{\mathbf{p}}$. Then, we can take

$$D[p] = R(\mathbf{p})D[q] \quad (4.92)$$

for $q = p_0 p_*$, if we have already defined $D[q]$. So, it suffices to define $D[q]$ for such q .

The natural choice is to define $D[q] = \Lambda(v\mathbf{z})$, the usual speed v pure boost in the z -direction (eq. (1.14) but with z in place of x), for some $v \in \mathbb{R}$. Specifically, $\Lambda(v)p_* = q$ when

$$\sqrt{\frac{1-v}{1+v}} = p_0, \quad \text{i.e.} \quad v = \frac{1-p_0^2}{1+p_0^2}. \quad (4.93)$$

So,

$$D[p] = R(\mathbf{p})\Lambda\left(\frac{1-p_0^2}{1+p_0^2}\mathbf{z}\right) = \Lambda\left(\frac{1-p_0^2}{1+p_0^2}\hat{\mathbf{p}}\right)R(\mathbf{p}). \quad (4.94)$$

The next ingredient is the Wigner rotation $W(\Lambda, p) = D[p]^{-1}\Lambda D[\Lambda^{-1}p]$. The computations of these can be found in [Tal22, §9.6.2].

5. Parity and time-reversal (\star) [\star]

A. Existence of the Radon–Nikodym derivative (Proof of Proposition 4.2)

Fix $p_* \in O$. Let $D[p] \in \text{Spin}(1, d)$ denote the standard boosts, with $D[p]p_* = p$, discussed above. We are assuming that these have been chosen to depend continuously on p . We prove the following, which is a more precise version of Proposition 4.2.

PROPOSITION 4.22. *Let \mathcal{D} denote the Gårding domain, eq. (3.62). Suppose that $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{D}$, with $\phi = \text{avg}_\theta \phi_0$ and $\psi = \text{avg}_\vartheta \psi_0$ for $\psi_0, \phi_0 \in \mathcal{H}$, $\theta, \vartheta \in C_c^\infty(G; \mathbb{R})$. Consider, for each $p, q \in O$, $h \in P^*$.*

$$f_p[h](q) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \times L[p_*]} \theta(D[p]\ell D[q]^{-1}h^{-1})\vartheta(D[p]\ell D[q]^{-1}) \, d\ell, \quad (4.95)$$

where the integral is done using the Haar measure on $\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \times L[p_*]$. Then:

- (i) For each fixed p , the function $P^* \times O \ni (h, q) \mapsto f_p[h](q)$ lies in $C_c^0(P^* \times O)$.
- (ii) Moreover, this depends continuously on p , in the sense that for each fixed $p_0 \in O$, there exists some open neighborhood $U \subset O$ of p_0 and a compact subset $K \Subset P^* \times O$ such that, for all $p \in U$, $\text{supp } f_p- \subseteq K$, and the map $(h, q, p) \mapsto f_p[h](q)$ lies in $C^0(P^* \times O^2)$.
- (iii) For any Borel $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$, $\mu_{\phi, \psi}(E) = \int_{E \cap O} \underbrace{\int_{P^*} \langle \phi_0, \rho(h)\Pi(f_p[h])\psi_0 \rangle}_{\in C_c^0(P^*)} \, dh \, d\mu(p)$.

In other words, the Radon–Nikodym derivative $d\mu_{\phi, \psi}/d\mu(p)$ exists and is

$$\frac{d\mu_{\phi, \psi}}{d\mu}(p) = \int_{P^*} \langle \phi_0, \rho(h)\Pi(f_p[h])\psi_0 \rangle \, dh. \quad (4.96)$$

■

PROOF. The statements (i) and (ii) on the regularity, needed to make sense of the integrals in (iii), are straightforward consequences of the compact support of θ, ϑ , so we will focus on the more difficult proof of (iii). Let $E \in \text{Borel}(\mathbb{R}^{1,d})$. We want to compute

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_O 1_E(p) \int_{P^*} \langle \phi_0, \rho(h) \Pi(f_p[h]) \psi_0 \rangle dh d\mu(p) \\ &= \int_{P^*} \left\langle \phi_0, \rho(h) \Pi \left(\int_O 1_E(p) \int_{\mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes L[p_*]} \theta(D[p]\ell D[\bullet]^{-1}h^{-1}) \vartheta(D[p]\ell D[\bullet]^{-1}) d\ell d\mu(p) \right) \psi_0 \right\rangle dh. \end{aligned} \quad (4.97)$$

The key thing is to recognize that, setting $g = D[p]\ell$, then $d\ell d\mu(p) = dg$ (this is one way in which $d\mu(p)$ is defined). So, the argument of $\Pi(\bullet)$ above is the function

$$q \mapsto \int_{P^*} 1_E(\Lambda(g)p_*) \theta(gD[q]^{-1}h^{-1}) \vartheta(gD[q]^{-1}) dg \quad (4.98)$$

where $\Lambda(g)$ is the linear part of g . Using the invariance of the Haar measure, we can replace $gD[q]^{-1}$ with g for each individual q , giving

$$\int_{P^*} 1_E(\Lambda(g)D[q]p_*) \theta(gh^{-1}) \vartheta(g) dg = \int_{P^*} 1_E(\Lambda(g)q) \theta(gh^{-1}) \vartheta(g) dg. \quad (4.99)$$

So,

$$\Pi(\dots) = \int_{P^*} \theta(gh^{-1}) \vartheta(g) \Pi(1_E \circ \Lambda(g)) dg = \int_{P^*} \theta(gh^{-1}) \vartheta(g) \rho(g^{-1}) \Pi(1_E) \rho(g) dg. \quad (4.100)$$

Plugging this into the above, we have arrived at:

$$\int_O 1_E(p) \int_{P^*} \langle \phi_0, \rho(h) \Pi(f_p[h]) \psi_0 \rangle dh d\mu(p) = \int_{P^*} \int_{P^*} \theta(gh^{-1}) \vartheta(g) \langle \phi_0, \rho(hg^{-1}) \Pi(1_E) \rho(g) \psi_0 \rangle dg dh. \quad (4.101)$$

We can now use Fubini's theorem to swap the order of integration, making the integral over h the inner integral, and then defining $t = gh^{-1}$; then $dt = dh$ (using the bi-invariance of the Haar measure), and the right-hand side above becomes

$$\int_{P^*} \int_{P^*} \theta(t) \vartheta(g) \langle \phi_0, \rho(t^{-1}) \Pi(1_E) \rho(g) \psi_0 \rangle dg dt = \langle \phi, \Pi(1_E) \psi \rangle = \mu_{\phi, \psi}(E). \quad (4.102)$$

□

B. Casimir operators [*]

Problems and exercises

EXERCISE 4.1: Prove that, if p, q lie in the same Lorentz orbit O , then, for either $G = \text{SO}(1, d)$, $\text{Spin}(1, d)$, the stabilizers of p, q in G are conjugate.

EXERCISE 4.2: Let $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^{1,d}$ be nonzero elements in distinct Lorentz orbits.

- (a) Show that, if $p \in V_\pm$ and $q \in V_\mp$, then no Lorentz-closed subsets $U \ni p$, $V \ni q$ satisfy $U \cap V = \emptyset$.
- (b) Prove that, excepting the case noted in the previous part, U, V can be chosen such that $U \cap V = \emptyset$.

EXERCISE 4.3: Check carefully that the induced representation π , eq. (4.46), has spectrum $\sigma = \bar{O}$ and little group representation ς .

EXERCISE 4.4: Show that the induced representation eq. (4.46) does not depend on the choice of reference momentum p_* in the following sense: if $p_{*,j} \in O$, $j = 1, 2$ are two choices of reference

momenta with little groups $L[p_{*,j}]$, then, given a continuous unitary representation $\varsigma : L[p_{*,1}] \rightarrow \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{V})$, if we define

$$\begin{aligned}\varsigma' : L[p_{*,2}] &\rightarrow \mathrm{U}(\mathcal{V}) \\ A &\mapsto \varsigma(D[p_{*,2}]^{-1}AD[p_{*,2}]),\end{aligned}$$

then the induced representation constructed using the data $(p_{*,2}, \varsigma')$ is unitarily equivalent to that using the data $(p_{*,1}, \varsigma)$.

EXERCISE 4.5: Check that the matrix Λ in eq. (4.77) lies in $\mathrm{O}(2, 1)$.

EXERCISE 4.6: Explain how the irreps of $\mathrm{P}^*(1, d)$ with spectrum $\sigma = X_{m,-}, V_-$ are related to those with spectrum $X_{m,+}, V_+$.

PROBLEM 4.1: Show that the conclusion of Proposition 4.1 holds under the weaker assumption that ρ is primary.

- PROBLEM 4.2:**
- (i) Show that the induced representation π (eq. (4.46)) is primary if and only if ς is.
 - (ii) Conclude that every finite-spin primary representation of $\mathrm{P}^*(1, d)$ with spectrum $\sigma \neq \{0\}, Y_\Gamma$ can be decomposed into a countable direct sum of copies of the same irrep.
 - (iii) (Optional.) Repeat the above for the remaining cases. You may use without proof any facts you want about the representation theory of $\mathrm{Spin}(1, d)$.

PROBLEM 4.3 (Tachyons): Classify the irreps of $\mathrm{P}^*(1, 3)$ whose spectrum is Y_Γ for some $\Gamma > 0$.

Hint: the little group is $\mathrm{Spin}(1, 2)$, so you need the (unitary) irreps of this group. Problem 2.2 says $\mathrm{Spin}(1, 2) \cong \mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{R})$, and you can just look up the irreps of this group.

PROBLEM 4.4 (Exotic vacua): Classify the nontrivial irreps of $\mathrm{P}^*(1, 3)$ whose spectrum is $\{0\}$.

Hint: look up the irreps of $\mathrm{SL}(2, \mathbb{C})$.

APPENDIX A

Notation

Matrices

- $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3$: the Pauli σ -matrices

$$\sigma_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{A.1})$$

- \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{T} : the parity and time-reversal matrices, $\in O(1, d)$.

$$\mathcal{T} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & I_d \end{bmatrix}.$$

- $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}$.

Groups.

- $O(1, d)$: The full Lorentz group

$$O(1, d) = \left\{ \Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{(1+d) \times (1+d)} : \Lambda^T \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & I_d \end{bmatrix} \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & I_d \end{bmatrix} \right\},$$

including parity and time-reversal.

- $SO(1, d)$: The identity component of the Lorentz group (restricted Lorentz group).
- $P(1, d)$: The restricted Poincaré group in $1+d$ spacetime dimensions;

$$P(1, d) \cong \mathbb{R}^{1,d} \rtimes SO(1, d)$$

naturally.

- $P_{\text{full}}(1, d)$: The full Poincaré group, including parity and time-reversal.

Spacetime and Geometry.

- $x = (t, \mathbf{x})$: A spacetime coordinate in Minkowski spacetime $\mathbb{R}^{1,d}$.
- z^2 : the squared Minkowski norm of a vector z (mostly plus convention), $z^2 = -(z^0)^2 + \|\mathbf{z}\|^2$.
- η : The Minkowski metric matrix $\text{diag}(-1, 1, \dots, 1)$.
- $\gamma = (1 - \|\mathbf{v}\|^2)^{-1/2}$: The Lorentz factor associated with velocity \mathbf{v} .

Function spaces.

- $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}_{\mathbf{x}}^N)$: The space of Schwartz functions on \mathbb{R}^N , i.e. functions which, along with all of their derivatives, are decaying as $\|\mathbf{x}\| \rightarrow \infty$ faster than any power of $\|\mathbf{x}\|$.
- $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^N)$: The space of tempered distributions, i.e. the dual space of $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^N)$.
- $H^m(\mathbb{R}^N)$, $m \in \mathbb{R}$: The Sobolev space $(1 - \Delta)^{-m/2} L^2(\mathbb{R}^N)$.

For each of these spaces, and for any finite-dimensional vector space \mathcal{T} , we have \mathcal{T} -valued analogues, denoted by adding “; \mathcal{T} ” between the parentheses.

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