

Lecture 2.1 (Super) Lie algebras

Last time:

Tried to write super versions of various mathematical objects that are physically relevant. In particular: super vector spaces, super Hilbert space, super algebras and super commutator. Let us recall the definition of the supercommutator:

$$[A, B] = AB - (-)^{\sigma_A \sigma_B} BA \quad (0.1)$$

with $\sigma = 0$ for bosons and $\sigma = 1$ for fermions and $(-)^{\sigma_A \sigma_B}$ is the Koszul sign. The super commutator then satisfies the super Jacobi identity:

$$(-)^{\sigma_A \sigma_C} [[A, B], C] + (-)^{\sigma_A \sigma_B} [[B, C], A] + (-)^{\sigma_C \sigma_B} [[C, A], B] = 0 \quad (0.2)$$

This time:

1 The (super) Jacobi identity for (super) Lie algebras

First of all, why is the Jacobi identity important? Very often it happens that we have the concept of a bracket but we don't have a product, this structure is called a Lie algebra. It's important to note in fact that Lie algebras are not algebras.

Example. $\mathfrak{sl}(2)$: it's three dimensional, we can think of it as spanned by the Pauli matrices. We have $[L_x, L_y] = L_z$ and cyclic permutations of that. (written like this it's a real Lie algebra so I can represent it by real matrices)

Classically $\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$, so (considering p as the generator of translations) we have

$$L_x = y \frac{\partial}{\partial z} - z \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \quad (1.1)$$

$$L_y = z \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - x \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \quad (1.2)$$

$$L_z = x \frac{\partial}{\partial y} - y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \quad (1.3)$$

The commutator tells us something about rotations in space: the difference between doing first a rotation A through one axis and then another B through another axis, or doing B and then A is just a rotation through the third axis. Let's calculate it explicitly:

$$L_x L_y = \left(y \frac{\partial}{\partial z} - z \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \left(z \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - x \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \quad (1.4)$$

$$= y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + yz \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial z} - z^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial x} - yx \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} + zx \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial z} \quad (1.5)$$

$$L_y L_x = x \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + yz \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial z} - z^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial x} - yx \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} + zx \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y \partial z} \quad (1.6)$$

so if I just apply one after the other I get something quite complicated, but taking the commutator

$$[L_x, L_y] = y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - x \frac{\partial}{\partial y} = L_z \quad (1.7)$$

I get another rotation. This means that they're not an algebra but they're a Lie algebra. Actually this works more generally for vector fields: their product is not a vector field, but their commutator is again a vector field.

So more abstractly I don't have a commutator but I have a bracket and it's important to make sure that it satisfies the Jacobi identity.

Definition 1. A super Lie algebra is a super vector space \mathfrak{g} with a bracket operation $[\cdot, \cdot] : \mathfrak{g} \otimes \mathfrak{g} \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ that:

1. preserves parity
2. is super antisymmetric
3. satisfies the super Jacobi identity

(i.e. exactly like a Lie algebra but with everything super and parity preservation) Let's unpack that a bit. First of all, let $\mathfrak{g} = \mathfrak{g}_0 \oplus \mathfrak{g}_1$ and note that the bracket is actually three different maps:

$$\mathfrak{g}_0 \otimes \mathfrak{g}_0 \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}_0 \quad (1.8)$$

$$\mathfrak{g}_0 \otimes \mathfrak{g}_1 \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}_1 \quad (1.9)$$

$$\mathfrak{g}_1 \otimes \mathfrak{g}_1 \rightarrow \mathfrak{g}_0 \quad (1.10)$$

Now for the let's consider the different cases of the super Jacobi identity:

1. $+++$: \mathfrak{g}_0 is a normal Lie algebra
2. $++-$: $g, h \in \mathfrak{g}_0, \psi \in \mathfrak{g}_1$, so the super Jacobi is:

$$[[g, h], \psi] + [[h, \psi], g] + [[\psi, g], h] = 0 \quad (1.11)$$

or equivalently:

$$[[g, h], \psi] = [g, [h, \psi]] - [h, [g, \psi]] \quad (1.12)$$

I have two bosonic symmetries and I'm considering their action on the fermionic symmetries: on the right I'm considering the action of g and h on ψ taken in different orders and subtracting the two, on the left I'm saying that that is equal to the action of $[g, h]$ on ψ .

Essentially this is saying that we have a representation of \mathfrak{g}_0 over \mathfrak{g}_1 (see appendix A.2): we have the map $\rho_{\mathfrak{g}_1} : \mathfrak{g}_0 \rightarrow \text{End}(\mathfrak{g}_1)$ given by $g \mapsto [g, \cdot]$ and it's supposed to satisfy

$$\rho_{[g, h]}(\psi) = \rho_g(\rho_h \psi) - \rho_h(\rho_g \psi) \quad (1.13)$$

in order to be a Lie algebra homomorphism. But this equality is exactly the one above.

3. $+--$: $g \in \mathfrak{g}_0, \psi, \xi \in \mathfrak{g}_1$, so we have

$$[[\psi, \xi], g] - [[\xi, g], \psi] + [[g, \psi], \xi] = 0 \quad (1.14)$$

or also

$$[g, [\psi, \xi]] = [\psi, [\xi, g]] + [[g, \psi], \xi] \quad (1.15)$$

The bracket of fermions is compatible with the \mathfrak{g}_0 symmetry, so we're essentially in the situation of the representation of the tensor product $\mathfrak{g}_1 \otimes \mathfrak{g}_1$ and this relation is what we wrote for the representation of the tensor product.

4. $--$: $\psi, \xi, \lambda \in \mathfrak{g}_1$, so we have

$$[[\psi, \xi], \lambda] + [[\xi, \lambda], \psi] + [[\lambda, \psi], \xi] = 0 \quad (1.16)$$

equivalently:

$$[[\psi, \psi], \psi] = 0, \quad \forall \psi \in \mathfrak{g}_1 \quad (1.17)$$

which would be trivial for bosons since already the commutator gives 0. Instead here $[\psi, \psi]$ is in general nontrivial, however it shouldn't act nontrivially on the fermion itself. Or said differently "no fermionic symmetry can only generate one bosonic symmetry but not more than that", or "a fermionic symmetry commutes with its own square".

Recipe: take a Lie algebra \mathfrak{g}_0 , take a representation and call it \mathfrak{g}_1 and check that every symmetry commutes with its own square.

2 Four ways of looking at $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$

In general given V a vector space, $\mathfrak{gl}(V) =$ linear maps $V \rightarrow V =$ matrices acting in V . So $\mathfrak{gl}(n) = \mathfrak{gl}(\mathbb{C}^n)$ or $\mathfrak{gl}(\mathbb{R}^n)$. So then $\mathfrak{gl}(n|m) = \mathfrak{gl}(C^{n|m})$ with n dimensional even part and m dimensional odd.

Take matrices:

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad E = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad F = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad R = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (2.1)$$

and we have $[E, F] = P$, $[R, E] = E$, $[R, F] = -F$ and P commutes with everything.

In the bosonic case I could take $\mathfrak{sl}(2) \subseteq \mathfrak{gl}(2)$ which is the traceless part. Instead here the identity is on the RHS of a commutator, so I can't throw it away. Same goes for all the others. So $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$ is NOT a product, also it is

not simple, there are no invariant subalgebras, so I can't take any quotients. Semisimple means if there are invariant subalgebras then....

In supersymmetric quantum mechanics we have that P is the hamiltonian, it generates time translations, but it has a fermionic square root, which is a general feature. But then the commutator that we need to check to have a super Lie algebras is trivial, since translations commute with everything.

Lecture 2.2 Four ways of looking at $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$

$\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$ = matrices acting on a $1|1$ dimensional super vector space $V = V_0 \oplus V_1$ with a convenient basis written above.

four ways of looking at $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$:

1. linear transformations of a $1|1$ dim vector space
2. differential operators on the odd line $\mathbb{C}^{0|1}$
3. the algebra of creation and annihilation operators for one fermionic state (we talked about the creation operators in general terms already). The Fock space is $\mathbb{C}^{1|1}$ and the single particle Hilbert space is $\mathbb{C}^{0|1}$. Essentially this says " $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$ is the simplest Clifford algebra".
4. the algebra of spacetime symmetries as " $N = 2$ supersymmetric quantum mechanics". Essentially this says " $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$ is the simplest supersymmetry algebra".

We'll also see that it's in some ways like representation theory of $SU(2)$ but there will be some key differences: we'll have only two representations spin 0 and spin $1/2$, in this sense it'll be simpler.

The logical order would be to do first 3. and then 4. because 3. introduces Clifford algebra which is needed for 4. But we'll start with 4. to examine the physical supersymmetric system and get a feel for it, to then go back to 3.

2.1 Linear algebra

In the normal case, $\mathfrak{gl}(2)$ is a product of Lie algebras:

- $\mathfrak{sl}(2)$ = traceless part
- $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ = center (commutes with everything)

We can study them separately, find representations of the two factors and then use those representations to get representations of $\mathfrak{gl}(2)$.

In the super case this doesn't quite work. The trace should vanish on commutators $\text{tr}([A, B]) = 0$, so the traceless matrices form a subalgebra.

We would like for the same to be true for the super trace, but $P = [E, F]$ is not traceless with the normal definition. So let's consider odd matrices and see the result:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ C & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B' \\ C' & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} BC' & 0 \\ 0 & CB' \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.2)$$

so the anticommutator (anti since we have two odd matrices) is

$$\begin{pmatrix} BC' + B'C & 0 \\ 0 & CB' + C'B \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.3)$$

so that suggests the following formula for the supertrace:

$$\text{str} \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} = \text{tr}(A) - \text{tr}(D) = \text{tr} \left((-)^F \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{pmatrix} \right) \quad (2.4)$$

where $(-)^F$ is the parity operator

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.5)$$

on the supervector space.

So now let $\mathfrak{sl}(1|1) = \{X \in \mathfrak{gl}(1|1) : \text{str}(X) = 0\}$ which is spanned by E, F, P since $\text{str}(R) = 1 \neq 0$. For now it looks similar to $\mathfrak{sl}(2)$ since we have three matrices, but it's different since we have the identity, meaning we still have a central element. While what is taken out, R , is NOT central.

Another element of superlinear algebra which is different is the transpose. So the key property of the trace was that it vanishes on commutators, what is then the key property of the transpose? Normally we have $(XY)^T = Y^T X^T$, but because we're moving the matrices past one another, then for the super transpose we need to insert a sign

$$(XY)^T = (-)^{\sigma_x \sigma_y} Y^T X^T \quad (2.6)$$

Let's take a product of odd matrices:

$$\left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ C & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B' \\ C' & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right]^T = \begin{pmatrix} BC' & 0 \\ 0 & CB' \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} C'^T B^T & 0 \\ 0 & B'^T C^T \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.7)$$

$$= - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -C'^T \\ B'^T & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -C^T \\ B^T & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.8)$$

We can see that the following choice works:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ C & 0 \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -C^T \\ B^T & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.9)$$

But this seems arbitrary, I could have put the $-$ on B^T . To see why this is the better choice, let's examine another property which is what happens in the euclidean scalar product: $g(v, Xw) = g(X^T v, w)$. Here also we need a sign for the super case:

$$g(v, Xw) = (-)^{\sigma_v \sigma_X} g(X^T v, w) \quad (2.10)$$

Let's consider v and X odd and w even:

$$g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & B \\ C & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) = C = C^T = -g\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -C^T \\ B^T & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) \quad (2.11)$$

So here we see that the above choice works.

Note: it's no longer true that $(X^T)^T = X$, I actually get a $-$, but applying it four times I get back the original matrix. This is typical of fermions! When doing a certain operation gives the identity in the normal case, in the case of fermions it gives a $-$.

2.2 Differential operators on the super line

Let's consider $\mathbb{C}^{0|1}$. How is it different from a line? We see it by considering polynomial functions on the line $V = \mathbb{C}^{1|0}$: we have $1, x, x^2, \dots =: \mathbb{C}[x]$ = algebra of creation operators, considering x as a creation operator. But where does x live? Well it's a functional on a vector space so it lives in the dual. So the algebra is generated by V^\vee (the dual vector space which is simply made up of the linear coordinates).

So now what are the functions on $V = \mathbb{C}^{0|1}$? Well we have the algebra of fermionic creation operators generated by V^\vee ("Grassmann numbers"). It is two dimensional, I only have $1, \theta$ with $\theta^2 = 0$ by supercommutativity.

For the normal line, a "point on the line" is a map from functions to numbers $\mathbb{C}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, it sends x to some number that is its coordinate.

Instead, the odd line has only one point! We only have the map $\mathbb{C}[\theta] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ which sends θ to 0.

Recall: if I want a map $\mathbb{R}[x]/(x^2 + 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ there are no possibilities, since on the left $x^2 = -1$ and on the right nothing squares to -1 . This is way of saying that the space on the left has "no real points" and the solution is to use complex points.

The same reasoning applies above! The odd line has only one *even* point, but we should actually be looking for odd points!

Now let's move to the concept of differential operators. We have $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}$. So in total we can construct the following:

$$1, \theta, \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}, \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \quad (2.12)$$

of which the first and the last are even while the middle ones are odd. These have the following commutators:

$$[1, \cdot] = 0 \quad (2.13)$$

$$\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}, \theta \right] = 1 = \left[\theta, \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right] \quad (2.14)$$

$$\left[\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}, \theta \right] = \theta \quad (2.15)$$

$$\left[\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}, \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right] = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \quad (2.16)$$

which are exactly the commutators we have on $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$ with the following identifications!

$$1 = P, \quad \theta = E, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} = F, \quad \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} = R \quad (2.17)$$

2.3 Creation and annihilation

We can see the action of F :

$$F : \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.18)$$

and I can rename the two states and call the first one $|0\rangle$ "vacuum" and call the second $|\psi\rangle$ "one particle fermionic state". We then have:

$$F : |0\rangle \mapsto |\psi\rangle \quad (2.19)$$

$$E : |\psi\rangle \mapsto |0\rangle, \quad |0\rangle \mapsto 0 \quad (2.20)$$

So E does the opposite of F . Instead $-R$ somehow "counts fermions", but in order to understand this we actually have to define

$$\tilde{R} = R - \frac{1}{2}P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.21)$$

which has the same commutation relations as R since P is central. Now we have:

$$\tilde{R}|0\rangle = 0 \quad (2.22)$$

$$\tilde{R}|\psi\rangle = \tilde{R}F|0\rangle = (F\tilde{R} - F)|0\rangle = -F|0\rangle = -\psi \quad (2.23)$$

So $-\tilde{R}$ tells us that $|0\rangle$ has 0 fermionic particles and $|\psi\rangle$ has 1.

Lecture 3.1/2 Unitarity (and other things)

Now we want to consider $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$ as $N = 2$ supersymmetric quantum mechanics. But in order to have a qm theory we need to have unitarity.

Let us first clear up the difference between observables and infinitesimal symmetries. The first are Hermitian operators, while infinitesimal symmetries are represented by anti hermitian operator. And clearly I can get a Hermitian operator from an anti hermitian one and vice versa, but the way of doing this is not unique: i can multiply by i or $-i$. Typically in physics I multiply observable by i and then I exponentiate it to get a non infinitesimal symmetry, i.e. a unitary operator.

Reminder: Real Lie algebras

First of all note that the observables (e.g. Hermitian operators) are a real, not complex, algebra (vector space). Symmetry algebras usually have a real form, normally dictated by unitarity.

Example of two real lie algebras that are not the same but when I complexify they become the same?

For (hermitian) observables we have:

$$[L_i, L_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}L_k \quad (2.24)$$

while for infinitesimal symmetries we have:

$$[R_i, R_j] = \epsilon_{ijk}R_k \quad (2.25)$$

but mathematically they're just different conventions. They're both REAL Lie algebras.

The same complex Lie algebra can have different real forms! Take for example $\mathfrak{su}(2) = \mathfrak{so}(3)$ represented by $\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z$, but there's also $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{R}) = \mathfrak{so}(2, 1)$ that can be represented by:

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad E = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad F = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.26)$$

with commutators:

$$[H, E] = 2E, \quad [H, F] = -2F, \quad [E, F] = H \quad (2.27)$$

But if i can make a complex change of basis of L_x, L_y, L_z to get the same algebra: i simply take $L_z, L_{\pm} = L_x \pm iL_y$. Note however that $\mathfrak{so}(2, 1)$ is not compact, while $\mathfrak{so}(3)$ IS. (Essentially compact means if I do the non infinitesimal transformation I eventually get back to the same point, which is true for rotations, but not for boosts)

Why is unitarity in QM such a big deal? Conservation of probability. H has a hermitian inner product: $H \times H \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with the following properties:

$$\langle u, \alpha v \rangle = \alpha \langle u, v \rangle \quad (2.28)$$

$$\langle u, v \rangle = \alpha \langle \bar{u}, v \rangle \quad (2.29)$$

$$\langle u, u \rangle > 0 \quad (2.30)$$

A non infinitesimal symmetry M preserves the inner product if

$$\langle Mu, Mv \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle \quad \forall u, v \quad (2.31)$$

Using the adjoint

$$\langle u, Mv \rangle = \langle M^+u, v \rangle \quad (2.32)$$

we can write

$$\langle M^+Mu, Mv \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle \implies M^+M = 1 \quad (2.33)$$

which is what we call unitarity.

For infinitesimal symmetries we have $M = 1 + \epsilon X$, which inserted above gives:

$$\dots \quad (2.34)$$

What happens in super Hilbert space. First of all a super Hilbert space structure is an inner product $g : H \times H \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ with the properties:

1. \dots
2. $g(u, v) = (-)^{|u||v|} g(\bar{u}, v)$ (conjugate super symmetric)
3. $g(u, u) > 0$ for $u \in H_+$
4. $i\sigma g(\psi, \psi) > 0$ for $\psi \in H_-$ with $\sigma = \pm 1$ is a sign that we can choose. (σ -positive-definite)

But we should be worried since there's not a canonical choice.

If $H, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is a Hibert space with a splitting $H = H_0 \oplus H_1$, then H with the inner product $g_\sigma(\cdot, \cdot) = \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_0 - i\sigma \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_1$ is a σ -positive-definite Hilbert space (and i can also go in the opposite direction).

So what about infinitesimal symmetries?

$$g(Xu, v) + (-)^{|X||u|} g(u, Xv) = 0 \quad (2.35)$$

We then call X a super anti hermitian matrix or an infinitesimal susy.

We can write X as

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.36)$$

by taking a basis for H . We then have four cases to study for the super anti hermitian matrix.

1. u and v even:

$$\langle \alpha u, v \rangle_0 + \langle u, \alpha v \rangle_0 = 0 \quad (2.37)$$

2. ψ and ξ odd:

$$-i\sigma(\langle \delta\psi, \xi \rangle_0 + \langle \psi, \delta\xi \rangle_0) = 0 \quad (2.38)$$

these two basically say that α and δ are anti hermitian matrices, which is what we expected.

3. ψ odd and u even:

$$-i\sigma\langle\psi, \beta u\rangle_1 - \langle\gamma\psi, u\rangle_0 = 0 \quad (2.39)$$

but they can also be in opposite order:

$$\langle u, \gamma\psi\rangle_0 - i\sigma\langle\beta u, \psi\rangle_1 = 0 \quad (2.40)$$

In fact these are the same condition, since we can first rewrite the last equation as

$$\langle\gamma^+ u, \psi\rangle_1 + \langle i\sigma\beta u, \psi\rangle_1 = 0 \quad (2.41)$$

and then we get that

$$\gamma^+ = -i\sigma\beta \quad (2.42)$$

or equivalently

$$\beta^+ = -i\sigma\gamma \quad (2.43)$$

...

So this is what it means for a matrix to be super anti hermitian, where it's important to note that β and γ are not independent.

Let us study the case $\mathfrak{sl}(1|1)$.

In particular we now know what it means to take all super unitary $1|1$ matrices, i.e. $\mathfrak{u}(1|1)$ starting from $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1, \mathbb{C})$. So it's relatively simple since $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ are just numbers. In particular α and δ have to be anti hermitian, which for numbers means they're purely imaginary $\alpha\delta \in i\mathbb{R}$. We can then start writing a basis:

$$\begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix}, \quad \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.44)$$

while for γ and β we have $\bar{\gamma} = -i\sigma\beta$. We then get

$$q_1 := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ i\sigma & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad q_2 := \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ \sigma & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.45)$$

we see that they have the following commutators:

$$[q_1, q_1] = 2q_1^2 = 2\sigma \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.46)$$

$$[q_2, q_2] = 2q_2^2 \quad (2.47)$$

$$[q_1, q_2] = 0 \quad (2.48)$$

and these are different commutation relations than the ones we had for $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$, but I can make them the same by a complex change of coordinates $(q_1 \pm iq_2)$ which of course is not allowed in the real Lie algebra because it messes up the unitary structure. So this is its unitary real form, but as a complex Lie algebra it's the same one we were writing before.

Same idea as in $\mathfrak{su}(2)$! We first complexify it and study the representations of $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ which is easier because we can build ladder operators. At the end of the day you then demand that the lowering operator is the adjoint of the raising operator which makes it a real representation of the thing you started with.

The reason it's called $N = 2$ supersymmetric quantum mechanics is that if we think of

$$p = \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.49)$$

as the hamiltonian, then we now have 2 anticommuting square roots of the time translation operator. So $N = 2$ supersymmetric quantum mechanics is really just the unitary real form of $\mathfrak{gl}(1|1)$, but we have to be careful with the unitarity constraints. First, remember that an infinitesimal bosonic symmetry is represented by an anti hermitian matrix and we could get an observable out of it by dividing by $\pm i$. So hopefully there's a similar way of associating an observable matrix to something that generates a fermionic symmetry.

If X is odd anti super hermitian we the constraint:

$$\langle u, X\psi \rangle - i\sigma \langle Xu, \psi \rangle = 0 \quad (2.50)$$

and we want to use this to say that some matrix related to X is hermitian (and therefore an observable). Let j be a square root of $i\sigma$.

...

$$\langle u, X\psi \rangle = j^2 \langle Xu, \psi \rangle \quad (2.51)$$

$$j^{-1} \langle u, X\psi \rangle = j \langle Xu, \psi \rangle \quad (2.52)$$

$$\langle u, j^{-1}X\psi \rangle = \langle j^{-1}Xu, \psi \rangle \quad (2.53)$$

where in the last step we used the fact that since j is a square root of i then its inverse is just its complex conjugate. So $j^{-1}X$ is hermitian and observable.

So just as in the standard case there's a correspondance between generators of odd symmetries (i.e. super anti hermitian things) and observables, this time with a fourth root of -1 . And this is why when you're not careful of thinking when an observable is an observable and when it's generating a symmetry you get confused.

So let's see what observables correspond to the two matrices we got before. Also, traditionally we use Q to represent supercharges, meaning hermitian operators, so that's why before we used lowercase letters. Let

$\sigma = +1$, so $j^2 = i$, then we have

$$Q_1 = \frac{q_1}{j} = j^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ j^2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & j^{-1} \\ j & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.54)$$

$$Q_2 = \frac{q_2}{j} = j^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & j^2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & j \\ j^{-1} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.55)$$

$$(2.56)$$

Which are in fact hermitian since $\bar{j} = j^{-1}$. If I square them I then get the identity, whereas if I squared the previous ones I would get i times the identity, which is i times a hermitian operator, which is now absorbed in the Q s. This is why in the physics convention if I write down the structure constants for a real super Lie algebra then I get is for the bosonic things and no i for the fermionic things: commutators of hermitian matrices are anti hermitian, while anticommutators of hermitian matrices are hermitian. Also we get the weird result that the structure constants of a real super Lie algebra are all purely real or purely imaginary.

We can then pick $j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1+i)$ so we can write the Q s in terms of Pauli matrices:

$$Q_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\sigma_x + \sigma_y) \quad (2.57)$$

$$Q_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\sigma_x - \sigma_y) \quad (2.58)$$

A Useful definitions

A.1 Algebraic structures

Let us recall a few useful definitions.

Definition 2 (Field). A field \mathbb{F} is a set with two binary operations called addition and multiplication satisfying the following field axioms:

- Associativity of addition and multiplication
- Commutativity of addition and multiplication
- Additive and multiplicative identity (resp. 0 and 1)
- Additive inverse
- Multiplicative inverse for every element except 0
- Distributivity of multiplication over addition.

or, more simply:

- Abelian group under addition
- nonzero elements are an abelian group under multiplication
- Distributivity of multiplication over addition.

Given a field we can define a vector space over it:

Definition 3 (Vector space). A vector space V over a field \mathbb{F} is a set with two operations:

1. addition $+: V \times V \rightarrow V$,
2. multiplication by a scalar $\cdot : \mathbb{F} \times V \rightarrow V$

such that it is an abelian group with respect to addition and has the following properties: ($x, y \in \mathbb{F}$, $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$)

- $x \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = x \cdot \mathbf{v} + x \cdot \mathbf{w}$
- $(x + y) \cdot \mathbf{v} = x \cdot \mathbf{v} + y \cdot \mathbf{v}$
- $(xy) \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = x \cdot (y \cdot \mathbf{v})$
- $1 \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$

However there are more general concepts which can be useful.

A ring generalizes the concept of field, without requiring commutativity and inverses of multiplication.

Definition 4 (Ring). A ring is a set with two binary operations called addition and multiplication satisfying the following ring axioms:

- Abelian group under addition
- Semigroup under multiplication (i.e. is only associative)
- Distributivity of multiplication from left and right over addition.

In addition, if it has a multiplicative identity (i.e. it is a monoid under multiplication) it's called a ring with unity.

We also define *division ring* a ring in which every nonzero element has a multiplicative inverse (i.e. a field in which multiplication may be noncommutative).

Now, just as one can define vector spaces over fields, one can define the analogous but more general concept of modules over rings.

Definition 5 (Module). A left module over a ring R consists of an abelian group M and a "scalar multiplication" between elements of R and M that gives another element in M with the following properties: ($r, s \in R, x, y \in M$)

- $r \cdot (x + y) = r \cdot x + r \cdot y$
- $(r + s) \cdot x = r \cdot x + s \cdot x$
- $(rs) \cdot x = r \cdot (s \cdot x)$
- $1 \cdot x = x$

Then, it can happen that in a vector space we have a natural concept of a product between vectors that gives another vector, for example the vector product \times in \mathbb{R}^3 or the obvious product in the vector space of polynomials. This additional operation gives rise to the concept of an algebra.

Definition 6 (Algebra). An algebra is a vector space V with an additional operation (multiplication) $\cdot : V \times V \rightarrow V$ which is bilinear and associative.

Given an algebra we can then define the commutator

$$[A, B] = AB - BA \tag{A.1}$$

which satisfies

$$[A, B] = -[B, A] \tag{A.2}$$

and is another bilinear operation $[\cdot, \cdot] : V \times V \rightarrow V$. This then raises the question: is V with the operation $[\cdot, \cdot]$ also an algebra? But the answer is no since the operation is not associative. Instead we have:

$$[[A, B], C] = [A, [B, C]] + [B, [C, A]] \tag{A.3}$$

in which the last term ruins the associativity. Usually the equality above is written as:

$$[[A, B], C] + [[B, C], A] + [[C, A], B] = 0 \quad (\text{A.4})$$

which is called the Jacobi identity.

However such an operation appears often enough that the resulting structure deserves a name:

Definition 7 (Lie algebra). A Lie algebra is a vector space with a bilinear operation $[\cdot, \cdot] : V \times V \rightarrow V$ with the following properties: ($A, B \in V$)

1. $[A, B] = -[B, A]$
2. $[[A, B], C] + [[B, C], A] + [[C, A], B] = 0$

i.e. it is antisymmetric and satisfies the Jacobi identity. The operation is generally called *bracket*, but if it is constructed as above it is usually called *commutator*.

Note that a Lie algebra is not in fact an algebra, as it is not associative. In fact the Jacobi identity somehow measures the non-associativity of the bracket.

Also note that a bilinear operation $[\cdot, \cdot] : V \times V \rightarrow V$ is the same thing as a *linear* operation from the tensor product $[\cdot, \cdot] : V \otimes V \rightarrow V$. This is just the universal property defining the tensor product.

All these structures have their *super* counterpart which is constructed with the following guidelines:

- add a Koszul sign every time one operator is passed after another,
- preserve parity.

A.2 Representation theory

Given a group, the concept of its representation arises.

But what is a representation? When you think of symmetries, you can consider them as objects on their own, that's basically the idea of a group. Given a symmetry we can then ask what kind of objects have this symmetry: that's the idea of a representation. It basically tells us what kind of objects can I have in space. For example with systems of a certain spin we have that the same symmetry (rotations) is "represented" in different ways.

We can therefore give the following definition.

Definition 8. A representation of a group G on a vector space V is a map $\rho : G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(V)$, where the automorphism group of a vector space V , $\text{Aut}(V)$, is the group of invertible linear maps from V to V . The map must have the following property:

$$\rho(g \cdot g') = \rho(g) \circ \rho(g') \quad (\text{A.5})$$

where \circ is simply the composition.

In other words, we need a group homeomorphism from g to $\text{Aut}(V)$.

It is also useful to define the same concept for algebras and Lie algebras. The only difference is that we will have algebra homomorphisms and Lie algebra homomorphisms. Let us start by defining those.

Definition 9. An algebra homomorphism is a map $\phi : A \rightarrow B$ between algebras over a field \mathbb{F} that satisfies: $(x, y \in A, k \in \mathbb{F})$

1. $\phi(kx) = k\phi(x)$
2. $\phi(x + y) = \phi(x) + \phi(y)$
3. $\phi(xy) = \phi(x)\phi(y)$

i.e. it is a linear map that preserves the product.

Definition 10. A Lie algebra homomorphism is a linear map $\phi : A \rightarrow B$ between Lie algebras over a field \mathbb{F} that satisfies: $(x, y \in A, k \in \mathbb{F})$

$$\phi([x, y]_A) = [\phi(x)\phi(y)]_B \quad (\text{A.6})$$

We can then note that given a vector space V , the space of linear maps from V to itself, $\text{End}(V)$, naturally has a (Lie) algebra structure (with "product" given by composition and bracket given by the commutator). So the following definition makes sense.

Definition 11. A representation of a (Lie) algebra A on a vector space V is a (Lie) algebra homomorphism $\rho : A \rightarrow \text{End}(V)$.

More explicitly, for Lie algebras we have

$$\rho_g(\rho_h(v)) - \rho_h(\rho_g(v)) = \rho_{[g,h]}(v) \quad (\text{A.7})$$

i.e. "The matrix $\rho_{[g,h]}$ is the commutator of the matrices ρ_g and ρ_h ."

Furthermore, the following remarks are useful in practical situations:

1. A map $\rho : A \rightarrow \text{End}(A)$ is equivalent to a map $\rho : A \otimes V \rightarrow V$.
2. Given representations over vector spaces V and W it's possible to construct one over the duals, over the direct sum and over the tensor product. In particular for the tensor product we have:

$$\rho_{V \otimes W} = \rho_V \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes \rho_W \quad (\text{A.8})$$