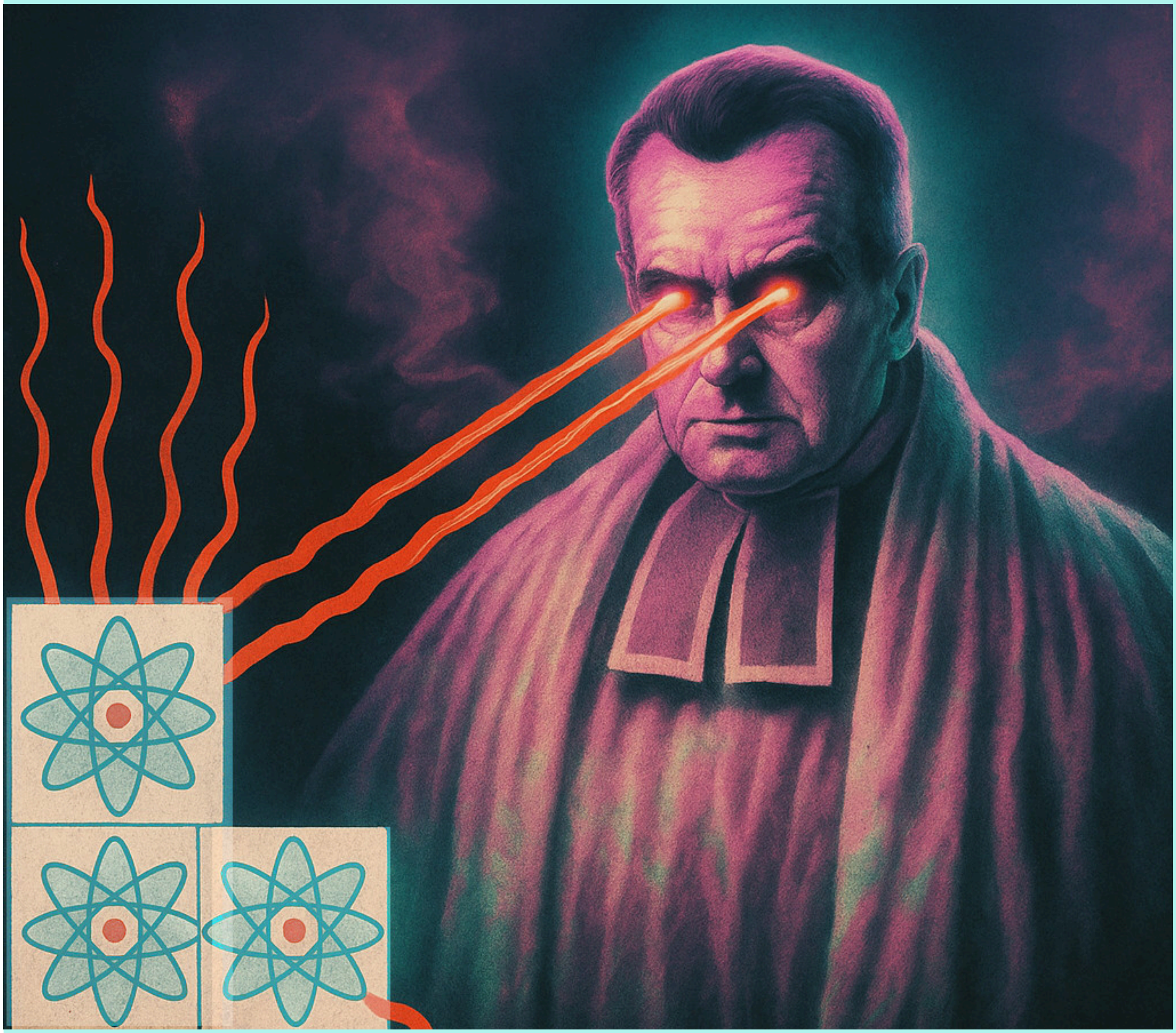
BAYESUVIUS QUANTICO

A VISUAL DICTIONARY OF QUANTUM BAYESIAN NETWORKS



ROBERT R. TUCCI

Bayesuvius Quantico,

a visual dictionary of Quantum Bayesian Networks

Robert R. Tucci
www.ar-tiste.xyz

August 25, 2025

This book is constantly being expanded and improved. To download the latest version, go to
`https://github.com/rrtucci/bayes-quantico`

Bayesuvius Quantico
by Robert R. Tucci

Contents

Appendices

Appendix A

Notational Conventions and Preliminaries

This book is a sequel to my book entitled "Bayesuvius" (see Ref.[3]). For consistency, I have tried to follow in this book the same notational conventions used in the prior book. If any notation is not defined in this book, check in the prior book. It might be defined there.

A.1 Set notation

The number of elements in any set S is denoted by $|S|$.

$\mathbb{Z}$ = integers
$\mathbb{Z}_{>}0$ = positive integers
$\mathbb{Z}_{[a,b]} = a, a+1, \ldots, b$ for some integers a, b such that $a \leq b$
$\mathbb{R}$ = reals
$\mathbb{C}$= complex numbers
$\mathbb{C}^{n\times m} = n \times m$ matrices of complex numbers

A.2 Group

A **group** $\mathcal{G}$ is a set of elements with a multiplication map $\mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ such that

1. the multiplication is **associative** ; i.e.,

$$(ab)c = a(bc) \tag{A.1}$$

for $a, b, c \in \mathcal{G}$.

2. there exists an **identity element** $e \in \mathcal{G}$ such that

$$ea = ae = a \tag{A.2}$$

for all $a \in \mathcal{G}$

3. for any $g \in \mathcal{G}$, there exists an **inverse** $a^{-1} \in \mathcal{G}$ such that

$$aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = e \tag{A.3}$$

$|\mathcal{G}|$ (i.e., number of elements in $\mathcal{G}$) is called the **order** of the group.

If multiplication is **commutative** (i.e., $ab = ba$ for all $a, b \in \mathcal{G}$), the group is said to be **abelian**.

A **subgroup** $\mathcal{H}$ of $\mathcal{G}$ is a subset of $\mathcal{G}$ ($\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{G}$) which is also a group. It's easy to show that any $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{G}$ is a group if it contains the identity and is **closed under multiplication** (i.e., $ab \in \mathcal{H}$ for all $a, b \in \mathcal{H}$)

A.3 Group Representation

A **group representation** of a group $\mathcal{G}$ is a map $\phi : \mathcal{G} \to \mathbb{C}^{n\times n}$[1] such that

$$\phi(a)\phi(b) = \phi(ab), \quad \phi(e) = I \tag{A.4}$$

where e is the identity of the group and I is the identity matrix. Such a map is called a **homomorphism** (because it preserves an operation). The map ϕ partitions $\mathcal{G}$ into disjoints subsets (equivalence classes), such that all elements of $\mathcal{G}$ in each disjoint subset are represented by the same matrix.

If the map ϕ is 1-1, onto, we call it a **faithful representation**

When a group is defined using matrices, those matrices are called the **defining representation** (defrep). For example, the group of **General Linear Transformations** is defined by

$$GL(n, \mathbb{C}) = \{M \in \mathbb{C}^{n\times n} : \det M \neq 0\} \tag{A.5}$$

The **adjoint representation** (adjrep) is defined in terms of the structure constants of the Lie Algebra. If the Lie Algebra satisfies $[T^i, T^j] = if_{ijk}T^k$, then the adjrep is given by the matrices with i, j entries $M^k_{ij} = -i{f^k}_{ij}$.

Irreducible representations (irreps) are define in Ch. 12

The **fundamental representation** (funrep) is defined as the smallest irrep.. The defrep equals the funrep for $SU(n), SO(n), SP(n)$, but not for E_8.

A.4 Group Theory References

Much of this book deals with Group Theory (GT).

[1] More generally, the $\mathbb{C}^{n\times n}$ can be replaced by $\mathbb{R}^{n\times n}$ or by $\mathbb{F}^{n\times n}$ for any field $\mathbb{F}$

GT is a vast subject. Who would have thought that the simple definition of a group would generate so many elegant, highly applicable and useful results and consequences.

GT books by mathematicians are very different from GT books by physicists, even though, of course, they agree on the definitions. Mathematicians are, as to be expected, more rigorous and abstract. But it goes much further than that. Physicists are much more interested in applications to physical systems, especially Quantum Mechanics (QM). Soon after QM was invented, it was realized that Linear Algebra (LA) and GT (especially Group Representation Theory, which combines GT and LA) are extremely relevant and useful in QM. Hermann Weyl, Eugene Wigner, Hans Bethe, Linus Pauling, etc. combined QM and GT to understand the spectra and chemistry of atoms and molecules, and later GT was heavily used in Quantum Field Theory and Particle Physics to devise the Standard Model. Condensed Matter physicists have also used it to understand crystalline solids and to devise quasi particles that can be detected in the lab.

My PhD is in physics so in this book I cover GT topics that are mainly of interests to physicists and engineers. Furthermore, I am nowhere as abstract and rigorous as mathematicians usually are.

My favorite books about GT for physicists are the Elliott & Dawber's (ED) 2 volume series Ref. [2] and Predrag Cvitanovic's Birdtracks book Ref.[1]. I highly recommend both of these references. I think both of them are excellent.

The Birdtracks book explains key concepts in GT representation theory using network diagrams (Cvitanovic calls such diagrams birdtracks) whereas the ED book doesn't use any diagrams. Many people don't use diagrams either, they only use algebra. But since this is a book about visualization using network diagrams (quantum bnets), we use birdtracks. In fact, many of the chapters in this book were heavily influenced by Ref.[1] by Cvitanovic. I hope he doesn't mind. I really love his book.

A.5 Vector Space and Algebra over a field $\mathbb{F}$

A vector space (a.k.a. linear space) $\mathcal{V}$ is defined as a set endowed with two operations: vector addition $+ : \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$, and scalar multiplication $\mathbb{F} \times \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$, such that

- $\mathcal{V}$ is an abelian group under $+$ with identity 0 and inverse of $x \in \mathcal{V}$ equal to $-x \in \mathcal{V}$
- For $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$ and $x, y \in \mathcal{V}$

$$\alpha(x+y) = \alpha x + \alpha y \tag{A.6}$$

$$(\alpha+\beta)x = \alpha x + \beta x \tag{A.7}$$

$$\alpha(\beta x) = (\alpha\beta)x \tag{A.8}$$

$$1x = x \tag{A.9}$$

$$0x = 0 \tag{A.10}$$

In this book, we will always use either $\mathbb{C}$ or $\mathbb{R}$ for $\mathbb{F}$. Both of these fields are infinite but some fields are finite.

An **algebra** $\mathcal{A}$ is a vector space which, besides being endowed with vector addition and scalar multiplication as all vector spaces are, it has a **bilinear vector product**. A bilinear vector product is a product that is linear on both sides; i.e.,

$$(\alpha x + \beta y) \cdot z = \alpha x \cdot z + \beta y \cdot z \tag{A.11}$$

and

$$z \cdot (\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha z \cdot x + \beta z \cdot y \tag{A.12}$$

for $x, y, z \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$. The cross product (but not the dot product) for vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$, the multiplication of 2 complex numbers, the product or commutator of 2 square matrices, are all good examples of bilinear vector products.

Let $B = \{\tau_i : i = 1, 2, \ldots, r\}$ be a basis for the vector space $\mathcal{A}$. Then note that B is closed under vector multiplication.

$$\tau_i \cdot \tau_j = \sum_k {c_{ij}}^k \tau_k \tag{A.13}$$

where ${c_{ij}}^k \in \mathbb{C}$. The ${c_{ij}}^k$ are called **structure constants** of B.

An **associative algebra** satisfies $(x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$ for $x, y, z \in \mathcal{A}$.

- Not associative: cross product for vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$.
- Associative: the product or commutator of 2 square matrices and the product of complex numbers

A.6 Tensors

Let

$(x_a) = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = x^{:n} \in V^n = \mathbb{C}^{n\times 1}$

Reverse of vector $rev(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = (x_n, x_{n-1}, \ldots, x_1)$

$y^b = \sum_a g^{ba} x_a$

$(y^b) = (y^1, y^2, \ldots, y^n) = y^{\dagger :n} \in V^{\dagger n} = \mathbb{C}^{n\times 1}$. V^n is the lower indices vector space and $V^{\dagger n}$ is its **dual vector space** (i.e., with upper indices).

${M_a}^b \in \mathbb{C}^{n\times n}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{[1,n]}$

Implicit Summation Convention

$${M_a}^b x_b = \sum_{b=1}^{n} {M_a}^b x_b \tag{A.14}$$

If the Hermitian conjugate $\dagger$ equals $*T$ where $*$ is complex conjugation and T is transpose, then define

$${(M^\dagger)_b}^a = ({M_a}^b)^*, \quad {(M^T)_b}^a = {M_a}^b, \tag{A.15}$$

Thus, † and T do two things: (1) reverse the horizontal order of the indices (2) reverse vertical positions of the indices; i.e., lower upper indices and raise lower indices. Hermitian conjugation also complex conjugates the tensor components.

If M is a Hermitian matrix (i.e., $M^\dagger = M$),

$$M^b{}_a = (M_a{}^b)^* \tag{A.16}$$

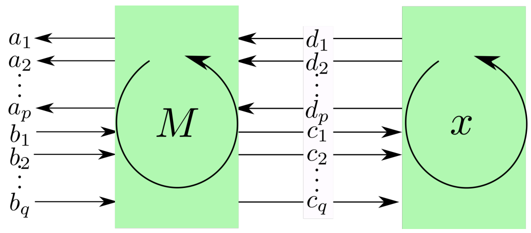


Figure A.1: Index labels for Mx where $M \in \mathbb{C}^{n^{p+q} \times n^{p+q}}$ and $x \in V^{n^p} \otimes V^{\dagger n^q}$. Note that we list indices in counterclockwise (CC) direction, starting at the top.

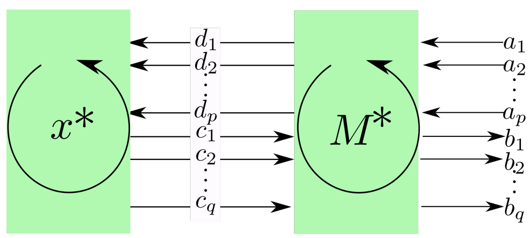


Figure A.2: Index labels for $x^\dagger M^\dagger$ corresponding to Fig.A.2. Note that we list indices in counterclockwise (CC) direction, starting at the top.

Suppose $a_i, b_i, c_i, d_i \in \mathbb{Z}_{[1,n]}$. From Fig.A.1

$$y_{a^{:p}}{}^{b^{:q}} = M_{a^{:p}}{}^{b^{:q}}{}_{rev(c^{:q})}{}^{rev(d^{:p})} x_{d^{:p}}{}^{c^{:q}} \tag{A.17}$$

If we define X_α and x^α by

$$X_\alpha = X_{a^{:p}}{}^{b^{:q}}, \quad X^\alpha = X_{rev(b^{:q})}{}^{rev(a^{:p})} \tag{A.18}$$

then

$$x_\alpha = M_\alpha{}^\beta x_\beta \tag{A.19}$$

Hermitian conjugation (see Fig.A.2)

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (M^\dagger)_a{}^d = (M_d{}^a)^* \\ (M^\dagger)_\alpha{}^\delta = (M_{rev(\delta)}{}^{rev(\alpha)})^* \end{array} \right. \tag{A.20}$$

Note that † does 3 things to the birdtrack:

1. It flips the horizontal axis of the figure. (In the algebraic expression of the tensor, this corresponds to reversing the horizontal order of the indices.)

2. For each node, it changes incoming arrows to outgoing ones and vice versa. (In the algebraic expression of the tensor, this corresponds reversing the vertical positions of the indices; i.e., lowering upper indices and raising lower ones.)

3. It replaces the tensor component by its complex conjugate

Hermitian matrix

$$M^\dagger = M, \quad \begin{cases} ({M_d}^a)^* = {M_a}^d \\ ({M_{rev(\delta)}}^{rev(\alpha)})^* = {M_\alpha}^\delta \end{cases} \tag{A.21}$$

Unitary matrix

$$M^\dagger M = 1, \quad \begin{cases} ({M_d}^a)^* {M_a}^d = 1 \\ ({M_{rev(\delta)}}^{rev(\alpha)})^* {M_\alpha}^\delta = 1 \end{cases} \tag{A.22}$$

Note that for $x \in V^n$, $y \in {V^\dagger}^n$, and $G \in \mathcal{G} \subset GL(n, \mathbb{C})$,

$$(x')_a (y')^b = G^b_{\ c} {G_a}^d x_d y^c \tag{A.23}$$

If $x \in V^{n^p} \otimes {V^\dagger}^{n^q}$, $\mathbb{G} \in \mathcal{G} \subset GL(n^{p+q}, \mathbb{C})$,

$$(x')_{a^{\cdot p}}{}^{b^{\cdot q}} = \mathbb{G}_{a^{\cdot p}}{}^{b^{\cdot q}}{}_{rev(c^{\cdot q})}{}^{rev(d^{\cdot p})} x_{d^{\cdot p}}{}^{c^{\cdot q}}, \quad (x'_\alpha = {\mathbb{G}_\alpha}^\beta x_\beta) \tag{A.24}$$

where we define

$$\mathbb{G}_{a^{\cdot p}}{}^{b^{\cdot q}}{}_{rev(c^{\cdot q})}{}^{rev(d^{\cdot p})} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^{p} {G_{a_i}}^{d_i} \prod_{i=1}^{q} {G^\dagger}^{b_i}{}_{c_i} \tag{A.25}$$

An issue that arises with tensors is this: When is it permissible to represent a tensor by T^{cd}_{ab}? If we define T^{cd}_{ab} by

$$T^{cd}_{ab} = T_{ab}{}^{cd} \tag{A.26}$$

then it's always permissible. Then one can define tensors like $T_a{}^{bcd}$ as

$$T_a{}^{bcd} = g^{bb'} T_{ab'}{}^{cd} = g^{bb'} T^{cd}_{ab'} \tag{A.27}$$

Hence, one drawback of using the notation T^{cd}_{ab} is that if one is interested in using versions of T^{cd}_{ab} with some indices raised or lowered, one has to write down explicitly the metric tensors that do the lowering and raising. Instead of writing $T_a{}^{bcd}$, you'll have to write $g^{bb'}T^{cd}_{ab'}$. This is not very onerous when explaining a topic in which not much lowering and raising of indices is done. But in topics like General Relativity that do use a lot of raising and lowering of indices, it might not be too succinct.

A.7 Permutations

Some well known notation and results about permutations are these.

$(1, 2)$ stands for a **transposition**; i.e., a map that swaps 1 and 2:

$$\left(\begin{tikzcd} 1 \arrow[dr] & 2 \arrow[dl] & 3 \arrow[d] & \dots & p \arrow[d] \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & \dots & p \end{tikzcd} \right) \tag{A.28}$$

$(3, 2, 1)$ stands for a **permutation**; i.e., a map that maps $3 \to 2 \to 1 \to 3$.

$$\left(\begin{tikzcd} 1 \arrow[drr] & 2 \arrow[dl] & 3 \arrow[dl] & 4 \arrow[d] & \dots & p \arrow[d] \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \dots & p \end{tikzcd} \right) \tag{A.29}$$

Any reordering of $(1, 2, 3, \dots, p)$ is a permutation of p letters (or numbers or elements).

The set S_p of all permutation of p letters is called the **symmetric group in p letters**. It has $p!$ elements (i.e., $|S_p| = p!$) and is a group, where the group's product is map composition and the group's identity element is the identity map.

Any permutation can be expressed as a product of transpositions, For example, $(3, 2, 1) = (3, 2)(2, 1)$.

An **even permutation** such as $(3, 2, 1)$ can be expressed as a product of an even number of transpositions. An **odd permutation** can be expressed as a product of an odd number of transpositions.

Appendix B

Birdtracks

This chapter is based on Cvitanovic Birdtracks book Ref. [1] and my paper Ref. [4]

The tensor notation discussed in Sec.A.6 is succinct and straightforward, but it's not visually illuminating. The birdtrack notation that we shall discuss in this chapter, is not as succinct as the tensor notation, and can lead to sign errors if you are careless, but it is very visually illuminating. Thus, the tensor and birdtrack notations complement each other well. We will often display results using both, side by side.

B.1 Classical Bayesian Networks and their Instantiations

Classical Bayesian Networks (bnets) are discussed exhaustively in the first book of this series, Ref.[3]. This is a brief section to remind the reader of how they are defined.

Let PD stand for probability distribution.

We call $P_{\underline{y}|\underline{x}} : val(\underline{y}) \times val(\underline{x}) \to [0,1]$ a **Transition Probability Matrix** (TPM)[1] if

$$\sum_{y \in val(\underline{y})} P_{\underline{y}|\underline{x}}(y|x) = 1 \tag{B.1}$$

In other words, a TPM is a conditional PD. A TPM of the form

$$P(y|x) = \delta(y, f(x)) \tag{B.2}$$

for some function $f : val(\underline{x}) \to val(\underline{y})$ is said to be **deterministic**.

A bnet is a **Directed Acyclic Graph** (DAG) with the nodes labelled by random variables[2]. Each bnet stands for a full PD of the node random variables expressed as a product of a TPM for each node. For example, the bnet

[1] A TPM is also known as a Conditional Probability Table (CPT).

[2] As in the first volume of this series, we indicate random variables by underlined letters

$$\mathcal{C} = \begin{tikzcd} & \underline{b} \arrow[dl] & \\ \underline{c} & & \underline{a} \arrow[ul] \arrow[ll] \end{tikzcd} \tag{B.3}$$

stands for the full PD

$$P(a,b,c) = P(c|b,a)P(b|a)P(a) \tag{B.4}$$

Bnets do not have free indices because their nodes are labelled by random variables. It is convenient to draw the DAG for a bnet but with the underlining removed from the random variables, and then to assign a numerical value to this new DAG. The resultant DAG now has free indices. We call it an **instantiation of the bnet**. For example, from the bnet $\mathcal{C}$ of Eq.(B.3), we get the instantiation[3]

$$P(a,b,c) = P(c|b,a)P(b|a)P(a) = \begin{tikzcd} & b \arrow[dl] & \\ c & & a \arrow[ul] \arrow[ll] \end{tikzcd} \quad P(a) \tag{B.5}$$

Let $a^{:2} = (a_1, a_2)$. Based on the bnet $\mathcal{C}$ of Eq.(B.3), define a new bnet $\mathcal{C}'$ as follows

$$\mathcal{C}' = \begin{tikzcd} & \underline{b} \arrow[dl] & \\ \underline{c} & & \underline{a}^{:2} \arrow[ul, "\underline{a}_1"] \arrow[ll, "\underline{a}_2"] \end{tikzcd} \tag{B.6}$$

$\mathcal{C}'$ represents the the full PD

$$P(a^{:2}, b, c) = P(c|b, a_2)P(a_2|a^{:2})P(b|a_1)P(a_1|a^{:2})P(a^{:2}) \tag{B.7}$$

The 2 new nodes $\underline{a}_1$ and $\underline{a}_2$ of bnet $\mathcal{C}'$ are called **marginalizer nodes**. We assign to them the following TPMs (printed in blue):

$$P[a'_i|\underline{a}^{:2} = (a_1, a_2)] = \delta(a'_i, a_i) \tag{B.8}$$

for $i = 1, 2$. We can also define an instantiation of $\mathcal{C}'$ as follows:

$$P'(a^{:2}, b, c) = \begin{tikzcd} & b \arrow[dl] & \\ c & & a^{:2} \arrow[ul, "a_1"] \arrow[ll, "a_2"] \end{tikzcd} \quad P(a^{:2}) \tag{B.9}$$

[3]Note that we don't include the root node probabilities as part of the graph value. Thus, $P(a,b) = \underbrace{b \to a}_{P(b|a)} P(a)$

B.2 Quantum Bayesian Networks and their Instantiations

As far as I know, Quantum Bayesian Networks (qbnets) were invented by me in Ref.[4].

qbnets are closely analogous to classical bnets, but the TPM are replaced by **Transition Amplitude Matrices (TAM)**.

Let PA stand for probability amplitude.

We call $A_{\underline{y}|\underline{x}} : val(\underline{y}) \times val(\underline{x}) \to \mathbb{C}$ a TAM if

$$\sum_{y \in val(\underline{y})} |A(y|x)|^2 = 1 \tag{B.10}$$

Note that if A is the matrix with entries $\langle y|A|x\rangle = A(y|x)$, then

$$\left\langle y|A^\dagger A|x \right\rangle = \sum_{y \in val(\underline{y})} |A(y|x)|^2 = 1 \tag{B.11}$$

If A is a unitary matrix, then $A^\dagger A = AA^\dagger = 1$ so "half" ($A^\dagger A = 1$) of the definition of unitary matrix is satisfied by a TAM. If both parts were satisfied, A would have to be a square matrix.

A qbnet is a DAG with the nodes labelled by random variables. Each qbnet stands for a full PA of the node random variables expressed as a product of a TAM for each node. For example, the qbnet

$$\mathcal{Q} = \begin{tikzcd} & \underline{b} \arrow[dl] & \\ \underline{c} & & \underline{a} \arrow[ul] \arrow[ll] \end{tikzcd} \tag{B.12}$$

stands for the full PA

$$A(a, b, c) = A(c|b, a)A(b|a)A(a) \tag{B.13}$$

Qbnets do not have free indices because their nodes are labelled by random variables. It is convenient to draw the DAG for a qbnet but with the underlining removed from the random variables, and then to assign a numerical value to this new DAG. The resultant DAG now has free indices. We call it an **instantiation of the qbnet**. For example, from the bnet $\mathcal{Q}$ of Eq.(B.12), we get the instantiation

$$A(a, b, c) = A(c|b, a)A(b|a)A(a) = \begin{tikzcd} & b \arrow[dl] & \\ c & & a \arrow[ul] \arrow[ll] \end{tikzcd} \quad A(a) \tag{B.14}$$

Let $a^{:2} = (a_1, a_2)$. Based on the qbnet $\mathcal{Q}$ of Eq.(B.12), define a new qbnet $\mathcal{Q}'$ as follows

$$\mathcal{Q}' = \begin{tikzcd} & \underline{b} \arrow[dl] & \\ \underline{c} & & \underline{a}^{:2} \arrow[ul, "\underline{a}_1"'] \arrow[ll, "\underline{a}_2"] \end{tikzcd} \tag{B.15}$$

$\mathcal{Q}'$ represents the the full PA

$$A(a^{:2}, b, c) = A(c|b, a_2)A(a_2|a^{:2})A(b|a_1)A(a_1|a^{:2})A(a^{:2}) \tag{B.16}$$

The 2 new nodes $\underline{a}_1$ and $\underline{a}_2$ of qbnet $\mathcal{Q}'$ are called **marginalizer nodes**. We assign to them the following TAMs (printed in blue):

$$A[a'_i|\underline{a}^{:2} = (a_1, a_2)] = \delta(a'_i, a_i) \tag{B.17}$$

for $i = 1, 2$. We can also define an instantiation of $\mathcal{Q}'$ as follows:

$$A(a^{:2}, b, c) = \begin{tikzcd} & b \arrow[dl] & \\ c & & a^{:2} \arrow[ul, "a_1"'] \arrow[ll, "a_2"] \end{tikzcd} \quad A(a^{:2}) \tag{B.18}$$

B.3 Birdtracks

Tensors written in **algebraic notation** such as $T_a{}^{bc}$ were already discussed in Section A.6

Birdtracks are a DAG used to represent algebraic tensor equations. The nodes of the DAG are labelled by tensors and the arrows are labeled by the indices of the tensors: upper indices of a tensor are pictured as incoming arrows of the node, and lower indices as outgoing arrows.

We've already discussed in Section A.6 what we will call the **Counter Clockwise (CC) convention** of drawing birdtrack nodes. Now that we have discussed classical and quantum bnets, we would like to introduce an equivalent, more bnet like, convention that we will call the **Fully Label (FL) convention**. Cvitanovic's birdtracks book Ref.[1] uses the CC convention. We will use both. No confusion will arise, as long as it is clear from context which convention is being used.

Next we review the CC convention and then describe the FL convention for the first time.

1. **CC convention**

   In the CC convention, we must specify for each the node, which arrow is first, and then the CC order in which the arrows enter or leave the node is drawn so that it reproduces the horizontal order of the indices in the algebraic notation for the tensor.

   For example,

$$\delta(b, a) = \mathbb{1}(a = b) = \delta_a^b = \; a \leftarrow\!\bullet\!\!-\!\!- b \tag{B.19}$$

$$X_{ab}{}^{c} = \begin{tikzcd} a & X_{\underline{ab}}{}^{\underline{c}} \arrow[l, "(1)"'] \arrow[dl] \\ b & \\ c \arrow[uur] & \end{tikzcd} \tag{B.20}$$

In this picture, the (1) indicates which tensor index is first horizontally in the algebraic representation of the tensor.

2. **FL convention**

   In the FL convention, the arrows must be labelled by random (underlined) variables, and the names of the nodes must also indicate by underlined variables what is the the order of the indices

   For example,

$$\delta(b,a) = \mathbb{1}(a=b) = \delta_a^b = \begin{tikzcd} a & \bullet \arrow[l] & b \arrow[l, dash] \end{tikzcd} \tag{B.21}$$

$$\langle a,b|X_{\underline{ab}}{}^{\underline{c}}|c\rangle = X_{ab}{}^{c} = \begin{tikzcd} \underline{a}=a & X_{\underline{ab}}{}^{\underline{c}} \arrow[l] \arrow[dl] \\ \underline{b}=b & \\ \underline{c}=c \arrow[uur] & \end{tikzcd} \tag{B.22}$$

   Sometimes, we will denote this node simply by X. This is okay as long as we state that $X = X_{\underline{ab}}{}^{\underline{cd}}$, and we don't start using X to represent a different version of $X_{\underline{ab}}{}^{\underline{cd}}$ with some of the indices raised or lowered or their horizontal order changed.

   Often, we will write simply a instead of $\underline{a} = a$. This is similar to the shorthand $P(\underline{a} = a) = P(a)$.

   Note that, unlike in the CC convention, in the FL convention, the CC order in which the arrows enter or leave the node, is meaningless. All orders are equivalent. This is akin to the notation for bnets and qbnets.

If we don't do either 1 or 2, we won't be able to distinguish between the graphical representations of $T^{1,2,3}$ and $T^{2,1,3}$, for example.

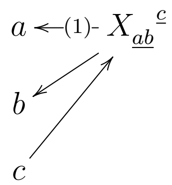
Two other features of the CC and FL conventions that we would like to discuss before ending this section are how to indicate

- **noncyclic index contractions**; i.e., index contractions (i.e., summations) that do not introduce cycles, and
- **traces**; i.e., index contractions that do introduce cycles.

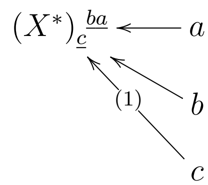
Noncyclic index contractions will be indicated by an arrow connecting two nodes, with the symbol $\sum a$ midway in the arrow if the index a is being contracted. For simplicity, we often omit writing the $\sum a$ altogether.

For example (in CC convention),

$$X_{ab}{}^{c} =$$

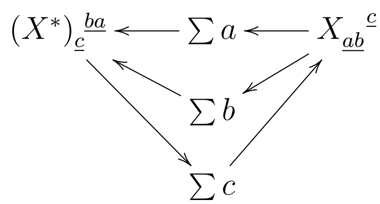


$$, \quad (X^*)_c{}^{ba} =$$



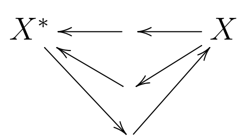
(B.23)

$$(X^*)_c{}^{ba} X_{ab}{}^{c} =$$



(B.24)

$$=$$

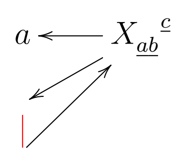


(B.25)

Birdtracks are DAGs until we are asked to take a trace of one of their indices. Tracing ruins their acyclicity. The acyclicity of DAGs is mandated by causality. The acyclicity of tracing hints to its acausal (or feedback) nature.

In this book, we will indicate tracing with a red undirected arrow. For example, in the CC convention,

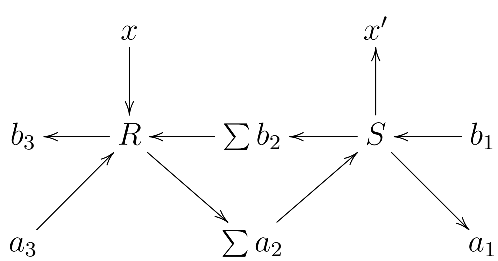
$$\mathrm{tr}_{\underline{b}} X_{a\underline{b}}{}^{\underline{b}} = \sum_b X_{ab}{}^{b} =$$



(B.26)

If

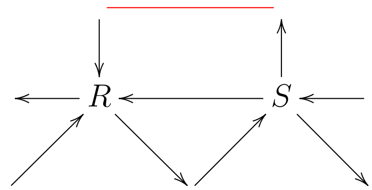
$$R^{x}{}_{b_3}{}^{a_3}{}_{a_2}{}^{b_2} S_{x' b_2}{}^{a_2}{}_{a_1}{}^{b_1} =$$



(B.27)

then

$$\mathrm{tr}_{\underline{x}} R^{\underline{x}}{}_{b_3}{}^{a_3}{}_{a_2}{}^{b_2} S_{\underline{x} b_2}{}^{a_2}{}_{a_1}{}^{b_1} = \tag{B.28}$$



When using the FL convention, it becomes clear that birdtracks can be understood as instantiations of qbnets, provided that we weaken slightly the definition of qbnets, by not requiring that the unitarity condition Eq.(B.10) be satisfied. Also, the outgoing arrows of the nodes of a birdtrack must be understood as the result of marginalizer nodes. For example, if the arrows leaving a node are labelled a_1 and a_2, then these two arrows must be understood as the result of marginalizing an arrow $a^{:2} = (a_1, a_2)$.

Chapter 1

Casimir Operators: COMING SOON

Chapter 2

Clebsch-Gordan Coefficients

This chapter is based on Ref.[1].

Suppose that for some $M \in \mathbb{C}^{d\times d}$, we have

$$M = C^\dagger D C \tag{2.1}$$

where D is a diagonal matrix and $C = C^{d\times d}$ is unitary. Then one can partition C into rectangular submatrices C_λ that have $d_\lambda < d$ rows, with one C_λ for each eigenvalue λ of C. Likewise, we can partition $C^\dagger$ into rectangular submatrices $C_\lambda^\dagger$ that have $d_\lambda < d$ columns, with one $C_\lambda^\dagger$ for each eigenvalue λ of C. Thus, if $I^{d_\lambda \times d_\lambda}$ is the $d_\lambda \times d_\lambda$ identity matrix,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ C_\lambda^{d_\lambda \times d} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}^{d\times d} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I^{d_\lambda\times d_\lambda} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{d\times d} C^{d\times d} \tag{2.2}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & (C^\dagger)_\lambda^{d\times d_\lambda} & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{d\times d} = (C^\dagger)^{d\times d} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I^{d_\lambda\times d_\lambda} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^{d\times d} \tag{2.3}$$

The matrices C_λ are called the **Clebsch-Gordan Coefficient** (CGC) matrices.

Let $b^{:nb} = (b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_{nb})$ where $b_i \in Z_{[0,N_i]}$ and $a \in Z_{[1,d_\lambda]}$. Hence,

$$d_\lambda = \prod_{i=1}^{:nb} N_i \tag{2.4}$$

Now define the birdtracks

$$(C_\lambda)_a{}^{rev(b^{:nb})} = \begin{tikzcd} & & b_1 \arrow[dl] \\ a & C_\lambda \arrow[l] & b_2 \arrow[l] \\ & & b_{nb} \arrow[ul] \end{tikzcd} \tag{2.5}$$

and

$$
(C^*_\lambda)^a{}_{b^{:nb}} = \quad
\begin{tikzcd}[row sep=small]
b_1 & \\
b_2 & (C^*_\lambda) \arrow[ul] \arrow[l] \arrow[dl] & a \arrow[l] \\
b_{nb} &
\end{tikzcd}
\tag{2.6}
$$

More generally, some of the b_i indices of C_λ and $C^\dagger_\lambda$ may be lowered or raised and their arrows changed from outgoing to incomming or vice versa. Each b_i represents a different representation of the group (not necessarily an irep).

Recall that if $|x\rangle$ for $x \in val(\underline{x})$ is a complete, orthonormal basis in Quantum Mechanics, then

$$
\langle x|y\rangle = \delta(x, y) \quad \text{(orthonormality)} \tag{2.7}
$$

and

$$
\sum_x |x\rangle\langle x| = 1 \quad \text{(completeness)} \tag{2.8}
$$

Furthermore, if we define

$$
\pi_x = |x\rangle\langle x| \tag{2.9}
$$

then π_x is a is a projection operator so

$$
\pi_x \pi_x = \pi_x \tag{2.10}
$$

and

$$
\pi_x|y\rangle = |y\rangle\delta(x, y), \quad \langle y|\pi_x = \langle y|\delta(x, y) \tag{2.11}
$$

If we identify C_λ with $\langle x|$, and $C^\dagger_\lambda$ with $|x\rangle$, then C_λ and $C^\dagger_\lambda$ satisfy analogous identities:

$$
\boxed{(C_\lambda)_a{}^{rev(b^{:nb})}(C^*_\mu)^{a'}{}_{b^{:nb}} = \delta(\lambda, \mu)\delta^{a'}_a, \quad C_\lambda C^\dagger_\mu = \delta(\mu, \lambda)}
$$

$$
\begin{tikzcd}[row sep=small]
 & & \sum b_1 \arrow[dl] & & & \\
a & C_\lambda \arrow[l] & \sum b_2 \arrow[l] & (C^*_\mu) \arrow[ul] \arrow[l] \arrow[dl] & a' \arrow[l] & = \delta(\mu, \lambda)\, a \longleftarrow\!\bullet\!\!-\!\!- a' \\
 & & \sum b_{nb} \arrow[ul] & & &
\end{tikzcd}
\tag{2.12}
$$

$$\boxed{\sum_\lambda (C^*_\lambda)^a{}_{b^{:nb}} (C_\lambda)_a{}^{rev((b')^{:nb})} = \delta^{rev((b')^{:nb})}_{b^{:nb}}, \quad \sum_\lambda C^\dagger_\lambda C_\lambda = 1}$$

$$\begin{tikzcd}
 & b_1 & & & & b'_1 \arrow[dl] & & b_1 & \bullet \arrow[l] & b'_1 \arrow[l, dash] \\
\sum_\lambda & b_2 & (C^*_\lambda) \arrow[ul] \arrow[l] \arrow[dl] & \sum a \arrow[l] & C_\lambda \arrow[l] & b'_2 \arrow[l] & = & b_2 & \bullet \arrow[l] & b'_2 \arrow[l, dash] \\
 & b_{nb} & & & & b'_{nb} \arrow[ul] & & b_{nb} & \bullet \arrow[l] & b'_{nb} \arrow[l, dash]
\end{tikzcd} \tag{2.13}$$

$$\boxed{(C_\lambda)_a{}^{rev((b')^{:nb})} (P_\mu)_{(b')^{:nb}}{}^{rev(b^{:nb})} = \delta(\mu,\lambda) (C_\mu)_a{}^{rev(b^{:nb})}, \quad C_\lambda P_\mu = \delta(\mu,\lambda) C_\mu}$$

$$\begin{tikzcd}
 & & \sum b'_1 \arrow[dl] & & b_1 \arrow[dl] & & & & b_1 \arrow[dl] \\
a & C_\lambda \arrow[l] & \sum b'_2 \arrow[l] & P_\mu \arrow[l] \arrow[ul] \arrow[dl] & b_2 \arrow[l] & = \delta(\mu,\lambda) & a & C_\lambda \arrow[l] & b_2 \arrow[l] \\
 & & \sum b'_{nb} \arrow[ul] & & b_{nb} \arrow[ul] & & & & b_{nb} \arrow[ul]
\end{tikzcd} \tag{2.14}$$

$$\boxed{(P_\mu)_{b^{:nb}}{}^{rev((b')^{:nb})} (C^*_\lambda)^a{}_{(b')^{:nb}} = \delta(\mu,\lambda) (C^*_\mu)^a{}_{b^{:nb}}, \quad P_\mu C^\dagger_\lambda = \delta(\mu,\lambda) C^\dagger_\mu}$$

$$\begin{tikzcd}
b_1 & & \sum b'_1 \arrow[dl] & & & & b_1 & & \\
b_2 & P_\mu \arrow[l] \arrow[ul] \arrow[dl] & \sum b'_2 \arrow[l] & (C^*_\lambda) \arrow[l] \arrow[ul] \arrow[dl] & a \arrow[l] & = \delta(\mu,\lambda) & b_2 & (C^*_\lambda) \arrow[l] \arrow[ul] \arrow[dl] & a \arrow[l] \\
b_{nb} & & \sum b'_{nb} \arrow[ul] & & & & b_{nb} & &
\end{tikzcd} \tag{2.15}$$

Chapter 3

Determinants: COMING SOON

Chapter 4

Dynkin Diagrams: COMING SOON

Chapter 5

General Relativity Nets: COMING SOON

Chapter 6

Group Integrals: COMING SOON

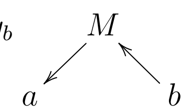
Chapter 7

Invariants

This chapter is based on Ref.[1].

A **bilinear form** is a linear function $m : V^{\dagger n} \times V^n \to \mathbb{C}$ with $V^{\dagger n}, V^n = \mathbb{C}^n$. For example,

$$m(x^{\dagger :n}, y^{:n}) = x^{\dagger a} M_a{}^b y_b \tag{7.1}$$

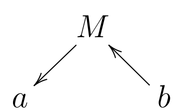


$m()$ is said to be invariant if

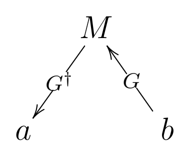
$$m(x^{\dagger :n}, y^{:n}) = m(x^{\dagger :n} G^\dagger, G y^{:n}) \tag{7.2}$$

$m()$ is invariant iff matrix M is a **matrix invariant**; i.e., iff

$$\boxed{M_a{}^b = (G^\dagger)_a{}^{a'} G_{b'}{}^b M_{a'}{}^{b'}} \tag{7.3}$$



$=$



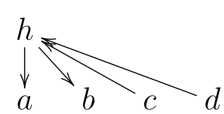
$$M = G^\dagger M G \tag{7.4}$$

If G is unitary,

$$GM = MG, \quad [G, M] = 0 \tag{7.5}$$

A **multilinear form** is a linear function $h : V^{\dagger n^p} \times V^{n^q} \to \mathbb{C}$ with $V^{\dagger d}, V^d = \mathbb{C}^d$. For example,

$$h(w^\dagger, x^\dagger, y, z) = h_{ab}{}^{cd} w^{\dagger a} x^{\dagger b} y_c z_d \tag{7.6}$$

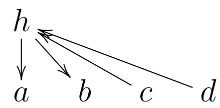


$h()$ is said to be invariant if

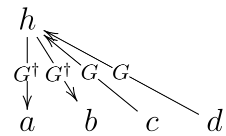
$$h(w^\dagger, x^\dagger, y, z) = h(w^\dagger G^\dagger, x^\dagger G^\dagger, Gy, Gz) \tag{7.7}$$

$h()$ is invariant iff tensor $h_{ab}{}^{cd}$ is a **tensor invariant** (TI); i.e., iff

$$\boxed{h_{ab}{}^{cd} = (G^\dagger)_a{}^{a'}(G^\dagger)_b{}^{b'} h_{a'b'}{}^{c'd'} G_{c'}{}^{c} G_{d'}{}^{d}} \tag{7.8}$$



=



A **composed TI** is a TI that can be written as a product or contraction of TIs.

A **tree TI** is a composed TIs without any loops.

A **primitive TI** is a TI that can be expressed as a linear combination of a finite number of tree TIs.

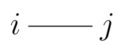
The **primitiveness assumption**: All TI are primitive.

Examples. Suppose $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $i, j, k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$.

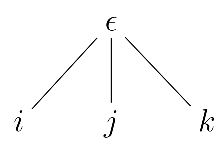
- Primitive TIs

$$length(x) = \delta_{ij} x_i x_i \quad volume(x, y, z) = \epsilon_{ijk} x_i y_j z_k \tag{7.9}$$

$\delta_{ij} =$



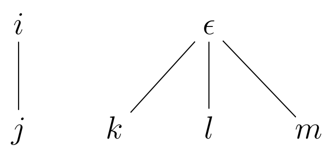
, $\epsilon_{ijk} =$



(7.10)

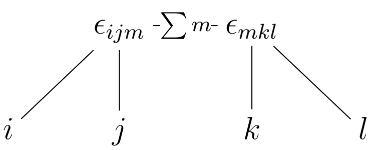
- Tree TIs

$\delta_{ij}\epsilon_{klm} =$



(7.11)

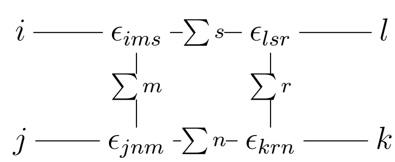
$\epsilon_{ijm}\delta_{mn}\epsilon_{nkl} =$



(7.12)

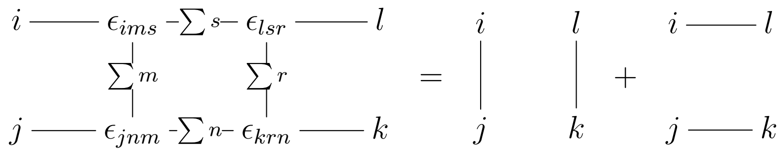
- Non-tree TI

$\epsilon_{ims}\epsilon_{jnm}\epsilon_{krn}\epsilon_{lsr} =$



(7.13)

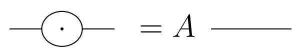
$$\boxed{\epsilon_{ims}\epsilon_{jnm}\epsilon_{krn}\epsilon_{lsr} = \delta_{ij}\delta_{kl} + \delta_{il}\delta_{jk}}$$



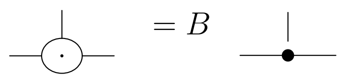
(7.14)

- Primitiveness Assumption

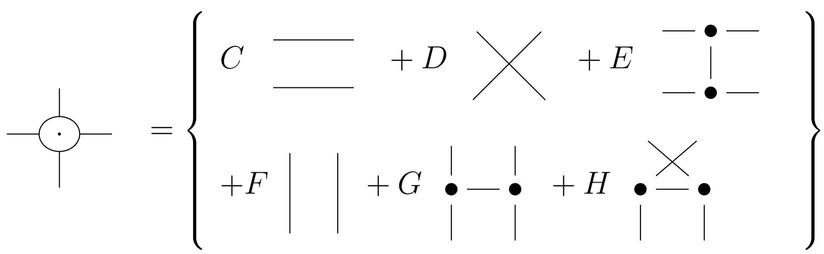
  Suppose $\mathcal{P} = \{\delta_{ij}, f_{ijk}\}$ where f_{ijk} is not ϵ_{ijk}. For some $A, B, C, \dots H \in \mathbb{C}$, one has



(7.15)



(7.16)



(7.17)

Let $\mathcal{P} = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k)$ be a **full set of primitive TIs**. By "full", we mean no others exist. $\mathcal{P}$ is a basis for an **algebra of invariants**.[1]

An **invariance group** $\mathcal{G}$ is the set of all linear transformation $G \in \mathcal{G}$ such that

$$p_1(x^\dagger, y) = p_1(x^\dagger G^\dagger, Gy) \tag{7.18}$$

$$p_2(w^\dagger, x^\dagger, y, z) = p_2(w^\dagger G^\dagger, x^\dagger G^\dagger, Gy, Gz) \tag{7.19}$$

$$\text{etc.} \tag{7.20}$$

Example. Consider an invariance group with a single primitive TI $p()$ defined by

$$p(x^\dagger, y) = \delta_a^b {x^\dagger}^a y_b = {x^\dagger}^b y_b \tag{7.21}$$

Then

$$(x')^{\dagger a} (y')_a = {x^\dagger}^b (G^\dagger G)_b{}^c y_c = {x^\dagger}^b y_b \tag{7.22}$$

[1]An algebra over a field is defined in Sec.A.5

so G must be unitary

$$G^\dagger G = 1 \tag{7.23}$$

The group of n dimensional unitary matrices is called $U(n)$

Chapter 8

Lie Algebras

This chapter is based on Ref.[1].

8.1 Generators (infinitesimal transformations)

For some group $\mathcal{G}$, assume that any group element $G \in \mathcal{G}$ that is infinitesimal close to the identity 1 can be parametrized by

$$G = 1 + i \sum_i \epsilon_i T^i \tag{8.1}$$

where $T^i \in \mathbb{C}^{n\times n}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$, $\epsilon_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and $|\epsilon_i| << 1$.

The T^i matrices are called the **generators** of infinitesimal transformations for group $\mathcal{G}$. The generators of a group $\mathcal{G}$ span a vector space called a Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$.[1] For example, the generators of the group SU(2) span the **Lie algebra** $\mathfrak{su}(2)$.

Assume that the T^i matrices are Hermitian and that they satisfy

$$\mathrm{tr}(T^i T^j) = K\delta(i,j) \tag{8.2}$$

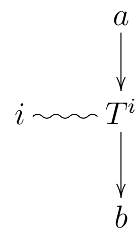
It's customary to choose generators so that $K = \frac{1}{2}$.[2] However, we will often set $K = 1$ for intermediate calculations and restore $K \neq 1$ at the end by dimensional analysis. Just remember that each T^j scales as $\sqrt{K}$. For example, given the equation $\mathrm{tr}(T^i T^j) = \delta(i,j)$, we know that when $K \neq 1$, $\mathrm{tr}(T^i T^j) = K\delta(i,j)$ so both sides of the equation scale as K.

We will use the following scaled version of T^j as a birdtrack. Define

[1]See Sec.A.5 for the definition of an algebra over a field.

[2]For $SU(2)$, it is customary to choose $T^i = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_i$, where σ_i for $i = 1, 2, 3$ are the Pauli matrices. For $SU(3)$, it is customary to choose $T^i = \frac{1}{2}\lambda_i$ where λ_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, 8$ are the Gell-Mann matrices. For both of these choices, $K = \frac{1}{2}$.

$$(C^i_{Adj})_b{}^a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}}(T^i)_b{}^a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{K}} \tag{8.3}$$

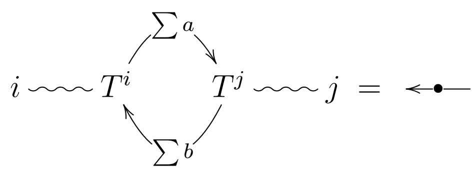


In the CC convention, we will always start reading the indices of this node at the wavy undirected leg.

Adj stands the Adjoint. In this node (vertex), an adjoint representation (adjrep) particle (wavy line, gluon) is generated (released) by a defining representation (defrep) particle (straight solid line, arrow).

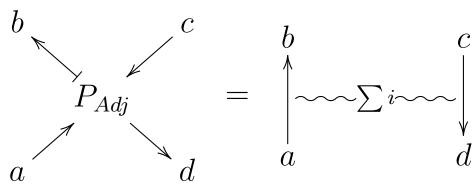
In terms of birdtracks, Eq.(8.2) becomes

$$\boxed{(T^i)^b{}_a(T^j)^a{}_b = \mathrm{tr}(T^iT^j) = \delta(i,j)} \tag{8.4}$$



We can now define the projection operator for the adrep (gluon exchange between 2 defrep particles)

$$\boxed{(P_{Adj})_b{}^a{}_d{}^c = \sum_i (T^i)_b{}^a(T^i)_d{}^c} \tag{8.5}$$



The arrow that starts with a bar as in $\longleftarrow\!\!\dashv$ indicates this is the first index in the CC convention.

Note that if $x \in V^n \otimes V^{\dagger n}$, then

$$(P_{Adj})_b{}^a{}_d{}^c x_c{}^d = \sum_i (T^i)_b{}^a \underbrace{\left[(T^i)_d{}^c x_c{}^d\right]}_{\epsilon_i \in \mathbb{R}} \tag{8.6}$$

Recall Eq.(A.24). If $x \in V^{n^p} \otimes V^{\dagger n^q}$, and $\mathbb{G} \in \mathcal{G} \subset GL(n^{p+q}, \mathbb{C})$,

$$(x')_{a^{:p}}{}^{b^{:q}} = \mathbb{G}_{a^{:p}}{}^{b^{:q}}{}_{rev(c^{:q})}{}^{rev(d^{:p})} x_{d^{:p}}{}^{c^{:q}}, \quad x'_\alpha = \mathbb{G}_\alpha{}^\beta x_\beta \tag{8.7}$$

where we define

$$\mathbb{G}_\alpha{}^\beta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \prod_{i=1}^p G_{a_i}{}^{d_i} \prod_{i=1}^q G^{\dagger b_i}{}_{c_i} \tag{8.8}$$

If $\mathbb{G}$ is infinitesimally close to the identity, then we can parametrize it as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{G}_\alpha{}^\beta &= 1 + i \sum_j \epsilon_j (\mathbb{T}^j)_\alpha{}^\beta && (8.9)\\
G_{a_i}{}^{d_i} &= 1 + i \sum_j \epsilon_j (T^j)_{a_i}{}^{d_i} && (8.10)\\
G^{\dagger b_i}{}_{c_i} &= 1 - i \sum_j \epsilon_j (T^j)^{b_i}{}_{c_i} && (8.11)
\end{aligned}
$$

Define

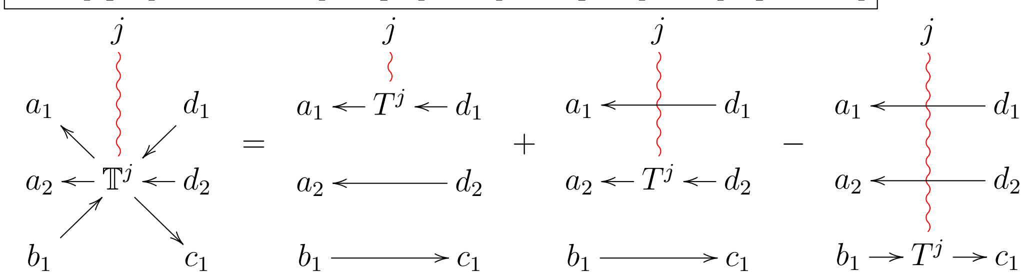
$$
(\mathbb{T}^j)_\alpha{}^\beta = \left[(T^j)_{a_i}{}^{d_i} \frac{1}{\delta_{a_i}^{d_i}} - (T^j)^{b_i}{}_{c_i} \frac{1}{\delta_{c_i}^{b_i}} \right] \delta_{a^{:p}}^{d^{:p}} \delta_{c^{:q}}^{b^{:q}} \qquad (8.12)
$$

When $x'_\alpha = x_\alpha$, to first order in ϵ_i,

$$
0 = (\mathbb{T}^j)_\alpha{}^\beta x_\beta = \left[(T^j)_{a_i}{}^{d_i} \frac{1}{\delta_{a_i}^{d_i}} - (T^j)^{b_i}{}_{c_i} \frac{1}{\delta_{c_i}^{b_i}} \right] \delta_{a^{:p}}^{d^{:p}} \delta_{c^{:q}}^{b^{:q}} x_{d^{:p}}{}^{c^{:q}} \qquad (8.13)
$$

For example, if we define

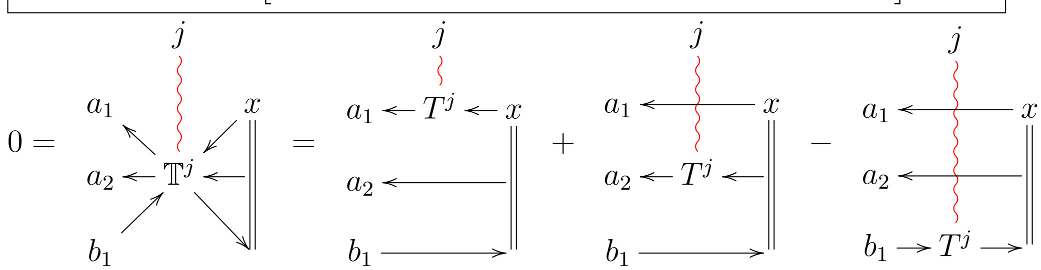
$$
\boxed{(\mathbb{T}^j)_{a_1 a_2}{}^{b_1}{}_{c_1}{}^{d_2 d_1} = (T^j)_{a_1}{}^{d_1} \delta_{a_2}^{d_2} \delta_{c_1}^{b_1} + \delta_{a_1}^{d_1} (T^j)_{a_2}{}^{d_2} \delta_{c_1}^{b_1} - \delta_{a_1}^{d_1} \delta_{a_2}^{d_2} (T^j)^{b_1}{}_{c_1}}
$$



(8.14)

then

$$
\boxed{0 = (\mathbb{T}^j x)_{a_1 a_2}{}^{b_1} = \left[(T^j)_{a_1}{}^{d_1} \delta_{a_2}^{d_2} \delta_{c_1}^{b_1} + \delta_{a_1}^{d_1} (T^j)_{a_2}{}^{d_2} \delta_{c_1}^{b_1} - \delta_{a_1}^{d_1} \delta_{a_2}^{d_2} (T^j)^{b_1}{}_{c_1} \right] x_{d_1 d_2}{}^{c_1}}
$$



(8.15)

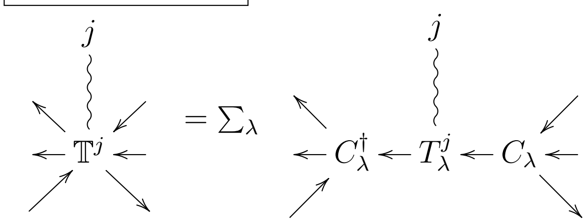
8.2 Clebsch-Gordan Coefficients

The Clebsch Gordan coefficients (CBC) are introduced in Ch.2. Note that the generators ${(T^i)_a}^b$ are a simple kind of CGC matrix, one with

- a gluon (adjrep) particle instead of a general λ rep particle emanating from the i index,
- a particle of the defrep entering and another leaving the node, instead of any number of defrep particles entering and leaving.

Since $\mathbb{G} = 1 + i\sum_j \epsilon_j \mathbb{T}^j$, generators decompose in the same way as the group elements

$$\boxed{\mathbb{T}^j = \sum_\lambda C_\lambda^\dagger T_\lambda^j C_\lambda}$$



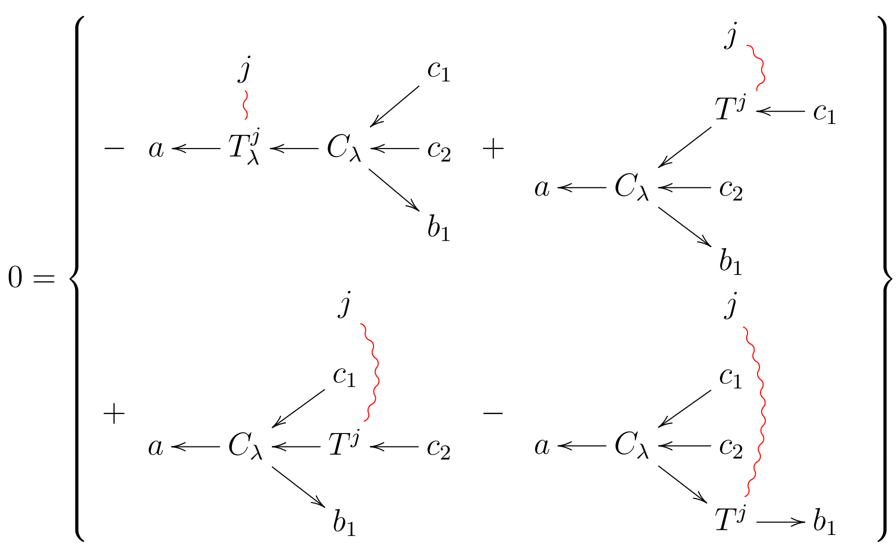
(8.16)

The CGC matrices are matrix invariants.

$$C_\lambda = G_\lambda^\dagger C_\lambda G \tag{8.17}$$

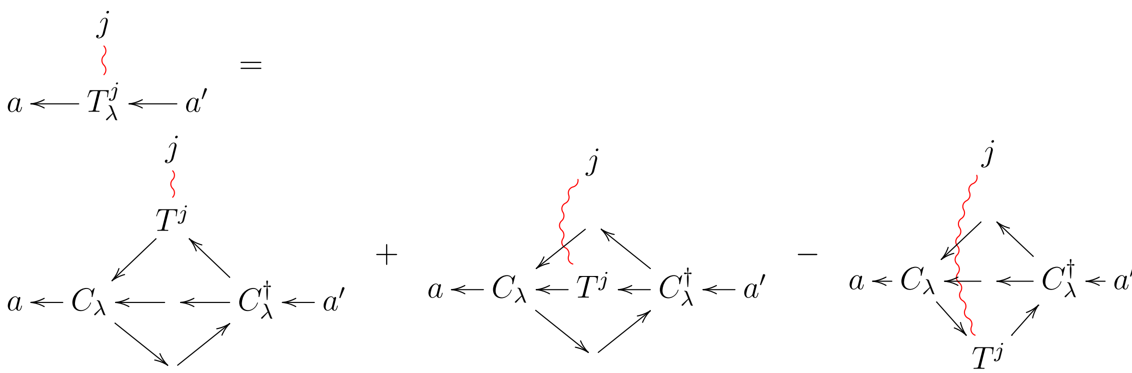
Hence,

$$0 = -T_\lambda^j C_\lambda + C_\lambda T^j \tag{8.18}$$



(8.19)

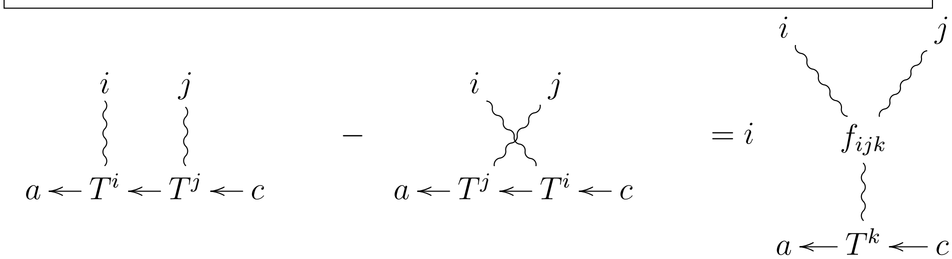
Multiplying on the left by $C_\lambda^\dagger$, we obtain an expression for the generator T_λ^i in term the generators T^j (and C_λ CGC matrices).



(8.20)

8.3 Structure Constants (3 gluon vertex)

$$\boxed{\underbrace{T^iT^j - T^jT^i}_{[T^i,T^j]} = if_{ijk}T^k \quad \textbf{(Lie Algebra commutation relations)}}$$



(8.21)

The f_{ijk} tensors are called the **structure constants** of the Lie Algebra. They define a 3 gluon vertex in term of the generators T^i.[3]

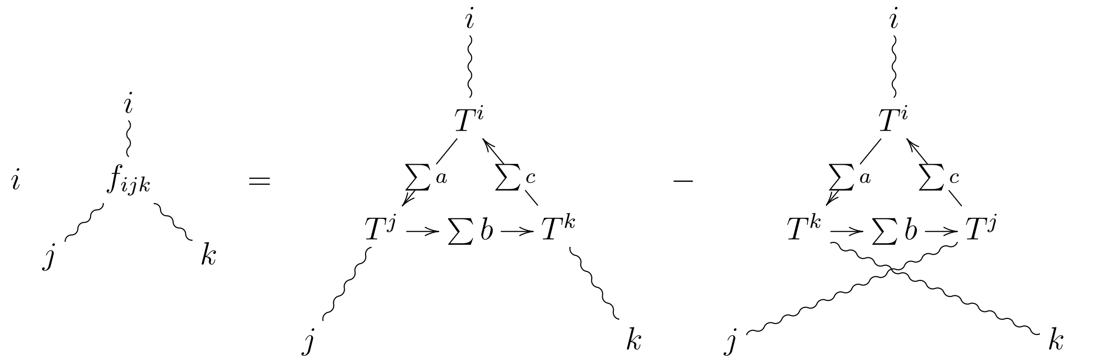
If $(T^j)_a{}^b$ are the matrix rep (the defrep) of the generators of a group $\mathcal{G}$, then Eq.(8.21) shows that the matrices $(M^k)_{ij} = -iC_{ijk}$ are also a matrix rep (the adrep) of the generators of $\mathcal{G}$.

Since $\mathrm{tr}(T^kT^{k'}) = \delta(k,k')$, Eq.(8.21) implies

$$\mathrm{tr}([T^i,T^j]T^k) = if_{ijk} \tag{8.22}$$

[3]It's possible to distinguish between upper and lower gluon indices (i.e., to give the gluon arrows a direction. In that case, the Lie Algebra commutation relations would be $[T^i,T^j] = f^{ij}{}_kT^k$ and the gluon indices could be lowered and raised using the metric (called the **Cartan-Killing form**) $g_{ij} = \mathrm{tr}((T^i)^\dagger T^j)$. But since we are assuming $g_{ij} = K\delta_i^j$, there is no need to do this.

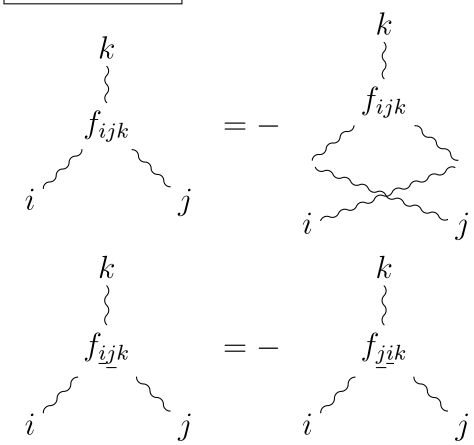
$$\boxed{if_{ijk} = \mathrm{tr}([T^i, T^j]T^k) = (T^i)_a{}^c (T^j)_b{}^a (T^k)_c{}^b - (T^j)_c{}^b (T^i)_a{}^c (T^k)_b{}^a}$$



(8.23)

Note that

$$\boxed{f_{ijk} = -f_{jik}}$$



(Convention CC)

(8.24)

(Convention L)

In fact, the tensor f_{ijk} is **totally antisymmetric** (i.e., it changes sign under a transposition of any two indices).

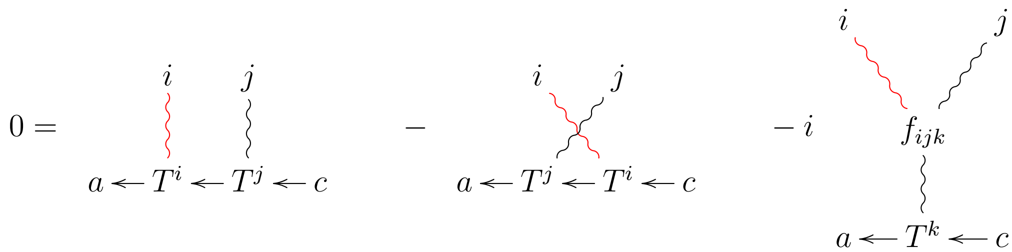
Claim 1 *f_{ijk} is a real number.*

proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \Big[i\mathrm{tr}([T^i, T^j]T^k)\Big]^\dagger &= (-i)\mathrm{tr}(T^k[T^j, T^i]) && (8.25)\\ &= (-i)\mathrm{tr}([T^j, T^i]T^k) && (8.26)\\ &= i\mathrm{tr}([T^j, T^k]T^k) && (8.27) \end{aligned}$$

QED

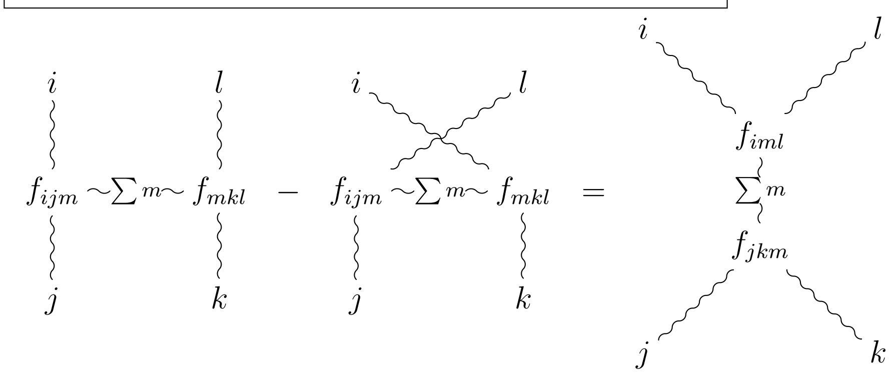
Note that the birdtrack for the Lie Algebra commutation relations Eq.(8.21) can be understood as the statement that the generators T^j are matrix invariants. Below we restate Eq.(8.21) to make that obvious



(8.28)

Claim 2

$$\boxed{f_{ijm}f_{mkl} - f_{ljm}f_{mki} = f_{iml}f_{jkm} \quad \textbf{(Jacobi identity)}}$$



(8.29)

proof:

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{tr}\left([[T^i,T^j],T^k]T^l\right) &= \mathrm{tr}\left(f_{ijm}[T^m,T^k]\right) && (8.30)\\ &= \mathrm{tr}\left(f_{ijm}f_{mkl'}T^{l'}T^l\right) && (8.31)\\ &= f_{ijm}f_{mkl} && (8.32)\end{aligned}$$

so the Jacobi identity can be restated as

$$\mathrm{tr}\left(\left\{[[T^i,T^j],T^k] + [[T^j,T^k],T^i] + [[T^k,T^i],T^j]\right\}T^l\right) = 0 \tag{8.33}$$

Hence, the claim follows if we can prove that

$$\underbrace{[[T^i,T^j],T^k] + [[T^j,T^k],T^i] + [[T^k,T^i],T^j]}_{\text{cyclic permutations of } ijk} = 0 \tag{8.34}$$

If we expand the left hand side on Eq.(8.34), we find 6 terms that cancel in pairs.
QED

Note Claim 2 can be undertood as the Lie Algebra commutation relations Eq.(8.21), but stated in the adrep instead of the defrep. Indeed, if

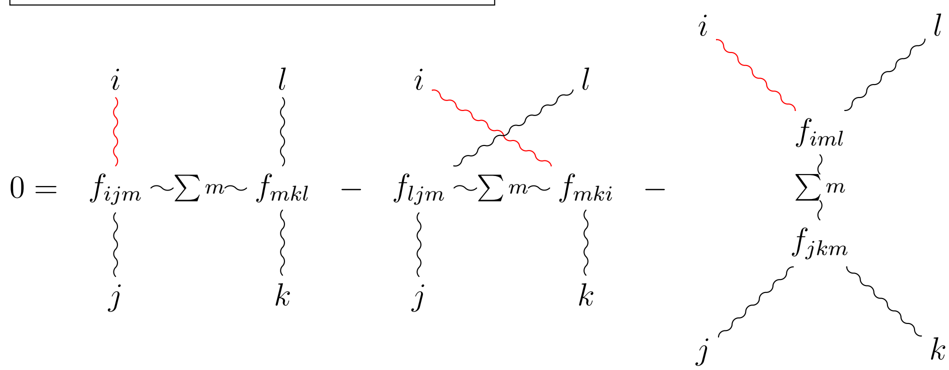
$$\mathbb{T}^i_{jk} = -if_{ijk} \tag{8.35}$$

then Claim 2 becomes

$$(\mathbb{T}^i\mathbb{T}^l - \mathbb{T}^l\mathbb{T}^i)_{jk} = iC_{ilm}(\mathbb{T}^m)_{jk} \tag{8.36}$$

Note that Claim 2 can be understood as a statement of the fact that f_{ijk} is a tensor invariant.

$$\boxed{0 = f_{ijm}f_{mkl} - f_{ljm}f_{mki} - f_{iml}f_{jkm}}$$

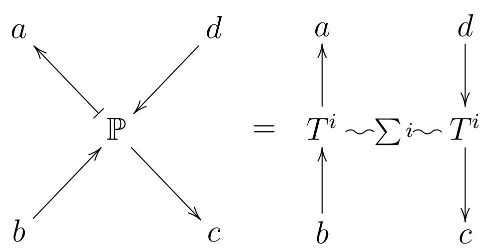


(8.37)

8.4 Two types of gluon exchanges

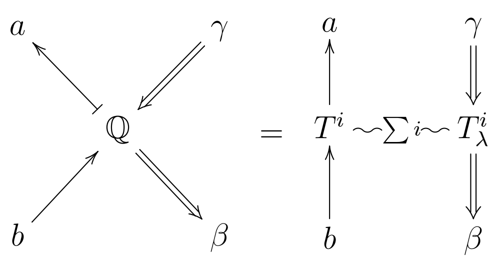
Consider the following two gluon exchange operators. Note that $\mathbb{P}^2 = \mathbb{P}$, but $\mathbb{Q}^2 \neq \mathbb{Q}$, so $\mathbb{P}$ is a bonafide projection operator but not $\mathbb{Q}$. $\mathbb{Q}\mathbb{Q}^\dagger = \mathbb{P}$ so $\mathbb{Q}$ is like half of a projection operator.

$$\boxed{\mathbb{P}_{a\ c}^{\ b\ d} = \sum_i (T^i)_a^{\ b}(T^i)_c^{\ d}}$$



(8.38)

$$\boxed{\mathbb{Q}_{a\ \beta}^{\ b\ \gamma} = \sum_i (T^i)_a^{\ b}(T^i_\lambda)_\beta^{\ \gamma}}$$



(8.39)

Claim 3 *If $\mathbb{Q}_b{}^a$ is the matrix with (ν, γ) entries $\mathbb{Q}_b{}^a{}_\nu{}^\gamma$, then*

$$[\mathbb{Q}_b{}^a, \mathbb{Q}_d{}^c] = \mathbb{P}_{b'}{}^a{}_d{}^c \mathbb{Q}_b{}^{b'} - \mathbb{Q}_{a'}{}^a \mathbb{P}_b{}^{a'}{}_c{}^d \tag{8.40}$$

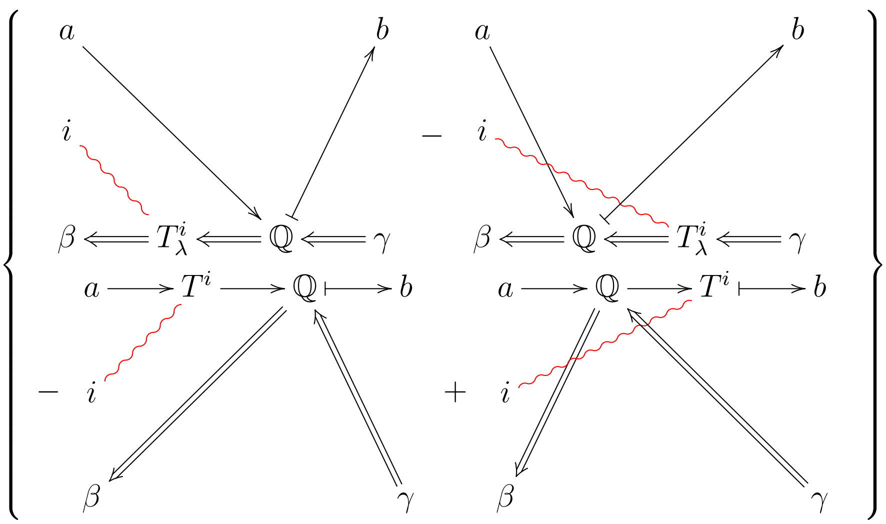
proof:

$$(T^j)_b{}^a (T^i)_d{}^c [T^j_\lambda, T^i_\lambda] = \left[(T^i)_{b'}{}^a (T^k)_b{}^{b'} - (T^k)_{a'}{}^a (T^i)_b{}^{a'} \right] (T^i)_d{}^c T^k_\lambda \tag{8.41}$$

$$(T^j)_b{}^a (T^i)_d{}^c i f_{jik} T^k_\lambda = i f_{ikj} (T^j)_b{}^a (T^i)_d{}^c T^k_\lambda \tag{8.42}$$

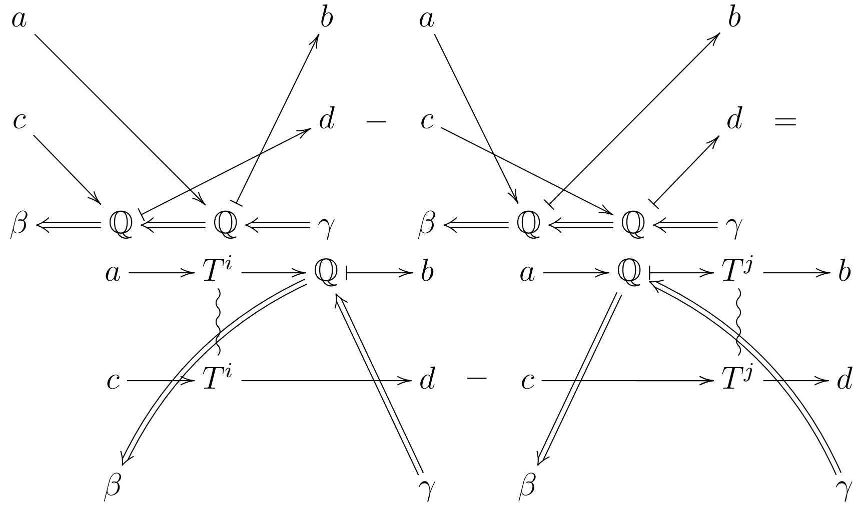
QED

This claim can be visualized as follows. $\mathbb{Q}$ is a tensor invariant so

$0 =$  (8.43)

Now multiplying by $(T^i)_c{}^d$, we get

$$\boxed{\mathbb{Q}_{d}{}^{c}{}_{\beta}{}^{\nu}\mathbb{Q}_{b}{}^{a}{}_{\nu}{}^{\gamma} - \mathbb{Q}_{b}{}^{a}{}_{\beta}{}^{\nu}\mathbb{Q}_{d}{}^{c}{}_{\nu}{}^{\gamma} = \mathbb{P}_{a'}{}^{a}{}_{d}{}^{c}\mathbb{Q}_{b}{}^{a'}{}_{\beta}{}^{\gamma} - \mathbb{Q}_{b'}{}^{a}{}_{\beta}{}^{\gamma}\mathbb{P}_{b}{}^{b'}{}_{d}{}^{c}}$$



(8.44)

Chapter 9

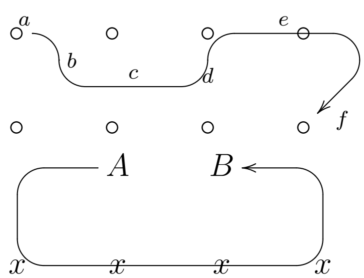
Orthogonal Groups: COMING SOON

Chapter 10

Quantum Shannon Information Theory: COMING SOON

Chapter 11

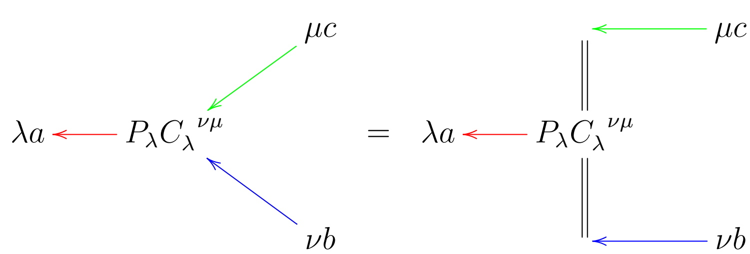
Recoupling Equations: COMING SOON



$$\lambda = red, \quad \mu = green, \quad \nu = blue \tag{11.1}$$

no implicit sum over Greek indices

$$P_\lambda C_{\lambda a}{}^{\nu b \mu c} = \tag{11.2}$$



$$\mathcal{C}_\lambda{}^{\nu\mu} = P_\lambda C_\lambda{}^{\nu\mu} \tag{11.3}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_\lambda \mathcal{C}_\lambda^\dagger = P_\lambda^2 = P_\lambda \tag{11.4}$$

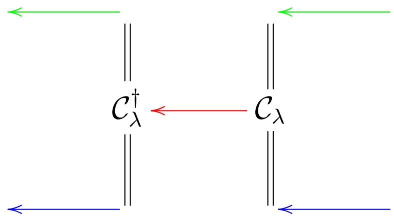
$$\mathrm{tr}(P_\lambda) = d_\lambda \tag{11.5}$$

where d_λ is the dimension of rep λ. Actually, $\mathcal{C}_\lambda = P_\lambda C_\lambda = C_\lambda$, but we make the P_λ explicit for pedagogical purposes.

Note that if we divide $\mathcal{C}_\lambda$ by $\sqrt{d_\lambda}$, then

$$\mathrm{tr}\left(\frac{\mathcal{C}_\lambda}{\sqrt{d_\lambda}}\frac{\mathcal{C}_\lambda^\dagger}{\sqrt{d_\lambda}}\right) = 1 \tag{11.6}$$

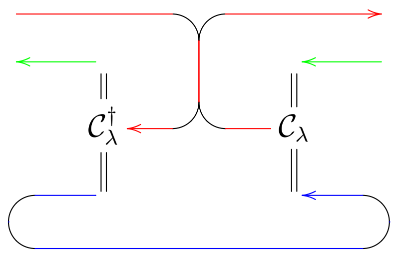
$\mathcal{P}_\lambda =$



(11.7)

$$\mathcal{P}_\lambda^2 = \mathcal{P}_\lambda \tag{11.8}$$

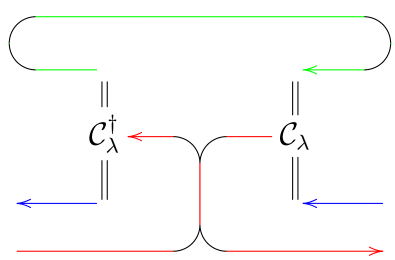
$\mathcal{P}_\nu = \frac{d_\nu}{d_\lambda}$



(11.9)

$$\mathcal{P}_\nu^2 = \mathcal{P}_\nu \tag{11.10}$$

$\mathcal{P}_\mu = \frac{d_\mu}{d_\lambda}$

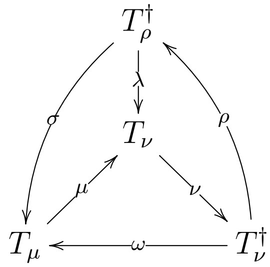


(11.11)

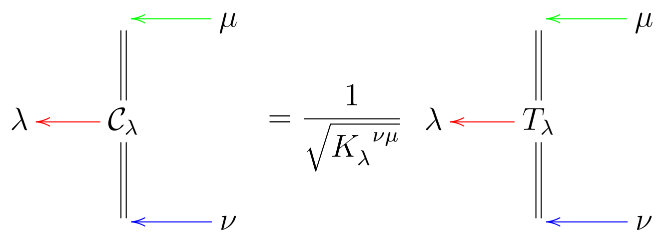
$$\mathcal{P}_\mu^2 = \mathcal{P}_\mu \tag{11.12}$$

The normalization of the projectors $\mathcal{P}_\lambda, \mathcal{P}_\nu, \mathcal{P}_\mu$ can be remembered if one takes the denominator d_λ and splits it into two factors of $\sqrt{d_\lambda}$ and puts one $\sqrt{d_\lambda}$ under $\mathcal{C}_\lambda$ and the other under $\mathcal{C}_\lambda^\dagger$. Then one "trades" $\frac{\mathcal{C}_\lambda}{\sqrt{d_\lambda}}$ by $\frac{\mathcal{C}_\nu}{\sqrt{d_\nu}}$ or $\frac{\mathcal{C}_\mu}{\sqrt{d_\mu}}$.

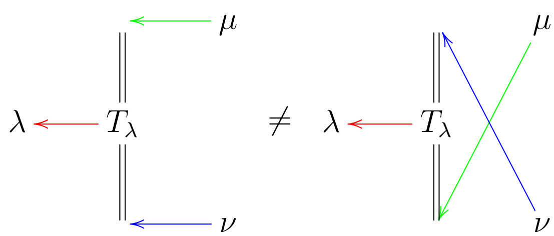
$$\begin{tikzcd} T_\lambda^\dagger \arrow[r, bend left, "\mu"] \arrow[r, bend right, "\nu"'] & T_\lambda \arrow[l, "\lambda"'] \end{tikzcd}$$



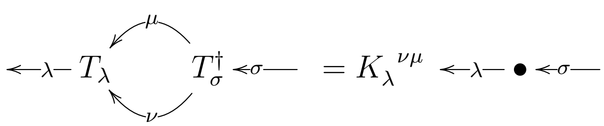
arrow directions for specific case being considered. they can be changed



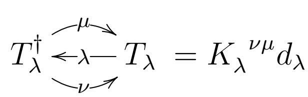
(11.13)



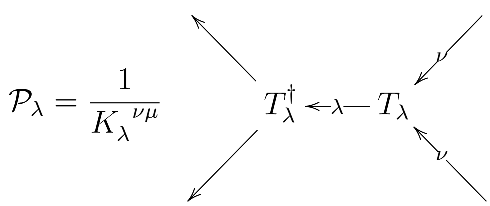
(11.14)



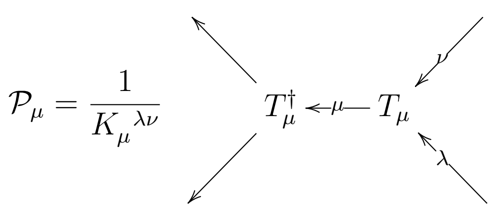
(11.15)



(11.16)



(11.17)



(11.18)

Chapter 12

Reducibility

This chapter is based on Ref.[1].

12.1 Eigenvalue Projectors

Suppose $M \in \mathbb{C}^{d\times d}$ has eigenvalues λ_i with corresponding eigenvectors $|\lambda_i\rangle$

$$M|\lambda_i\rangle = \lambda_i|\lambda_i\rangle \tag{12.1}$$

for $i \in \mathbb{Z}_{[1,r]}$. The characteristic polynomial of M is defined as

$$cp(\lambda) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \det(M-\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^{r}(\lambda-\lambda_i)^{d_i} \tag{12.2}$$

It must satisfy

$$cp(\lambda) = 0 \tag{12.3}$$

Note that if M is Hermitian ($M^\dagger = M$), then all its eigenvalues are real. (because $\lambda_i = \langle\lambda_i|M|\lambda_i\rangle \in \mathbb{R}$)

If M is a Hermitian, then there exists a matrix C that is a unitary ($CC^\dagger = C^\dagger C = 1$) and diagonalizes M

$$CMC^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} D_{\lambda_1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & D_{\lambda_2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & D_{\lambda_r} \end{bmatrix} \tag{12.4}$$

where

$$D_{\lambda_i} = \mathrm{diag}\,\underbrace{(\lambda_i, \lambda_i, \ldots, \lambda_i)}_{d_i \text{ times}} \tag{12.5}$$

$$d = \sum_{i=1}^{r} d_i \tag{12.6}$$

For example, when $d = 2$,

$$CMC^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{12.7}$$

Note that for $d = 2$,

$$CP_1C^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{CMC^\dagger - \lambda_2}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} \tag{12.8}$$

$$CP_2C^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{CMC^\dagger - \lambda_1}{\lambda_2 - \lambda_1} \tag{12.9}$$

P_1 and P_2 are a set of complete orthogonal projection operators

$$P_1 + P_2 = 1 \tag{12.10}$$

$$P_1^2 = P_1,\ P_2^2 = P_2,\ P_1P_2 = P_2P_1 = 0 \tag{12.11}$$

Similarly, for $d > 2$, we can define one projection operator P_i for each eigenvalue λ_i. If $I^{d_i \times d_i}$ is the d_i dimensional unit matrix, then

$$\begin{aligned} P_i &= C^\dagger diag(0, \ldots, 0, I^{d_i \times d_i}, 0, \ldots, 0)C && (12.12) \\ &= \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{M - \lambda_j}{\lambda_i - \lambda_j} && (12.13) \end{aligned}$$

As for $d = 2$, the P_i just defined are a complete set of orthogonal projection operators:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} P_i = 1 \quad \text{(completeness)} \tag{12.14}$$

$$P_iP_j = P_i\delta(i, j) \quad \text{(orthonormality)} \tag{12.15}$$

for all $i, j \in \mathbb{Z}_{[1,r]}$

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} d_i &= \mathrm{tr}[C^\dagger P_i C] && (12.16) \\ &= \mathrm{tr} P_i && (12.17) \end{aligned}$$

Note that the P_i's are Hermitian ($P_i^\dagger = P_i$) because M is Hermitian and its eigenvalues are real.

12.2 $[P_i, M] = 0$ consequences

Note that for any i, P_i and M commute

$$[P_i, M] = P_i M - M P_i = 0 \tag{12.18}$$

From the P_i's completeness and commutativity with M, we get

$$\begin{aligned} M &= \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{r} P_i M P_j & (12.19) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{r} P_i M P_i & (12.20) \end{aligned}$$

Claim 4 *For all i,*

$$M P_i = \lambda_i P_i \text{ (no } i \text{ sum)} \tag{12.21}$$

proof: We only show it for $d = 2$

$$\begin{aligned} C M P_1 C^\dagger &= \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} & (12.22) \\ &= \lambda_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} & (12.23) \\ &= \lambda_i C P_i C^\dagger & (12.24) \end{aligned}$$

QED

From the last claim, it immediately follows that if $f(x)$ can be expressed as a power series in x, then [1]

$$f(M) P_i = f(\lambda_i) P_i \text{ (no } i \text{ sum)} \tag{12.25}$$

Suppose $M^{(1)}, M^{(2)} \in \mathbb{C}^{d \times d}$ are Hermitian matrices that commute

$$[M^{(1)}, M^{(2)}] = 0 \tag{12.26}$$

Use $M^{(1)}$ to decompose $V = \mathbb{C}^{d \times d}$ into a direct sum of vector spaces $\bigoplus_i V_i$. Then we can use $M^{(2)}$ to decompose V_i into $\bigoplus_j V_{i,j}$. If $M^{(1)}$ and $M^{(2)}$ don't commute, let $P_i^{(1)}$ be an eigenvalue projection operator of $M^{(1)}$. Then replace $M^{(2)}$ by $P_i^{(1)} M^{(2)} P_i^{(1)}$. Now

$$[M^{(1)}, P_i^{(1)} M^{(2)} P_i^{(1)}] = 0 \tag{12.27}$$

[1] M must also satisfy some convergence conditions that we won't get into.

12.3 $[G, M] = 0$ consequences

An invariant matrix (see Ch.7) commutes with all the elements G of a group $\mathcal{G}$

$$[G, M] = 0 \tag{12.28}$$

If P_i are the projection operators of M, then $P_i = f_i(M)$ so

$$[G, P_i] = 0 \tag{12.29}$$

for all $G \in \mathcal{G}$ and i.

$$G = 1G1 = \sum_i \sum_j P_i G P_j = \sum_j \underbrace{P_j G P_j}_{\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} G_j} \tag{12.30}$$

Claim 5

$$G = C^\dagger diag(G_1, G_2, \ldots)C \tag{12.31}$$

$$G = \sum_i C_i^\dagger G_i C_i \tag{12.32}$$

where the matrices C_i are the Clebsch Gordan matrices of M (see Ch. 2)

proof:

$$C_i G C_i^\dagger = \sum_j C_i P_j G P_j C_i^\dagger = C_i G_i C_i^\dagger = G_i \tag{12.33}$$

QED

A **representation (rep)** G_i acts only on a d_i dimensional vector space $V^{d_i} = P_i V^d$. In this way, an invariant matrix $M \in \mathbb{C}^{d\times d}$ with r distinct eigenvalues, induces a decomposition of V^d into a direct sum of vector spaces

$$V^d \xrightarrow[M]{} V_1^{d_1} \oplus V_2^{d_2} \oplus \ldots \oplus V_r^{d_r} \tag{12.34}$$

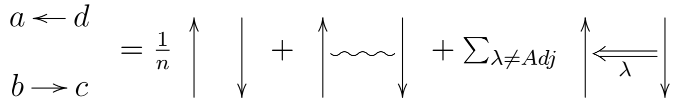
If a representation G_i cannot itself be reduced further, it is said to be an **irreducible representation (irrep)**.

Note that sometimes the term representation is used to refer to the vector space $V_i^{d_i}$ instead of the matrix G_i.

We've considered the decomposition of V^d into irreps. An example of such a decomposition is the decomposition of $V^n \otimes V^{\dagger n}$

$$\boxed{1 = \frac{1}{n}\uparrow\!\downarrow + P_{Adj} + \sum_{\lambda \neq Adj} P_\lambda,}$$

$$\boxed{\delta_d^a \delta_d^c = \frac{1}{n}\delta_b^a \delta_d^c + (P_{Adj})_a{}^b{}_c{}^d + \sum_{\lambda \neq Adj} (P_\lambda)_a{}^b{}_c{}^d} \qquad (12.35)$$



Chapter 13

Spinors: COMING SOON

Chapter 14

Squashed Entanglement: COMING SOON

Chapter 15

Symplectic Groups: COMING SOON

Chapter 16

Symmetrization and Antisymmetrization

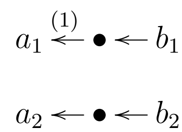
This chapter is based on Ref.[1]

As preparation for this chapter, read Sec.A.7.

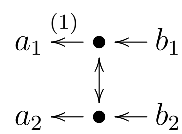
16.1 Symmetrizer

The set of permutations of 2 elements can be represented by the following $2! = 2$ birdtracks[1]

$$\mathbb{1}_{a_1,a_2}{}^{b_2,b_1} = \delta^{b_1}_{a_1}\delta^{b_2}_{a_2} = \tag{16.1}$$

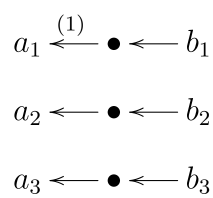


$$(\sigma_{(1,2)})_{a_1,a_2}{}^{b_2,b_1} = \delta^{b_2}_{a_1}\delta^{b_1}_{a_2} = \tag{16.2}$$

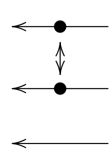


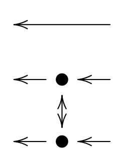
The set of permutations of 3 elements can be represented by the following $3! = 6$ birdtracks:

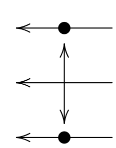
$$\mathbb{1} = \tag{16.3}$$



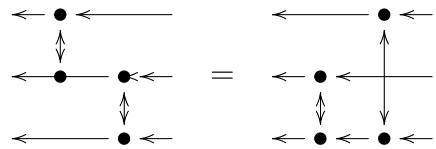
$$\sigma_{(1,2)} = \quad \sigma_{(2,3)} = \quad \sigma_{(1,3)} = \tag{16.4}$$

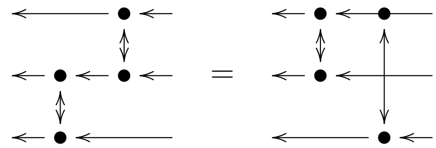




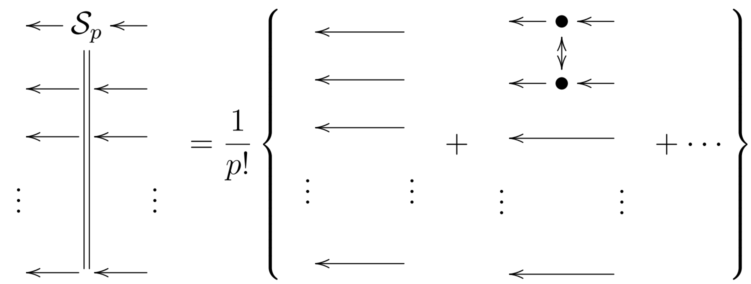


[1]Note that the set of values that a_i and b_i can assume can be anything, as long as, for some set V, $val(\underline{a}_i) = val(\underline{b}_i) = V$ for all i.

$\sigma_{(1,2,3)} =$  (16.5)

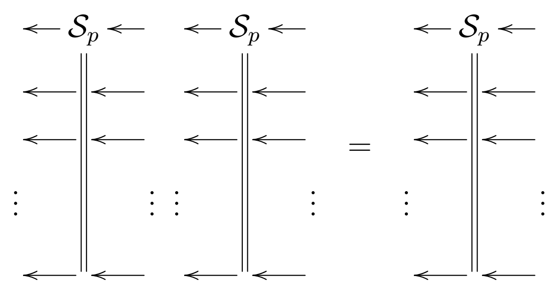
$\sigma_{(1,3,2)} =$  (16.6)

The p**-element symmetrizer** $\mathcal{S}_p$ is defined as the birdtrack

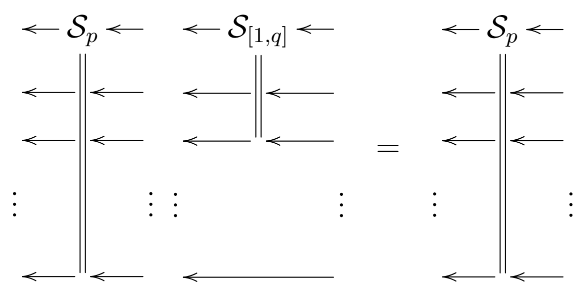


(16.7)

Note that $\mathcal{S}_p$ satisfies the following identities

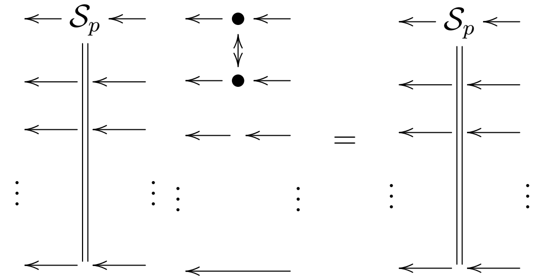
$\boxed{\mathcal{S}_p^2 = \mathcal{S}_p}$ 

(16.8)

$\boxed{\mathcal{S}_p \mathcal{S}_{[1,q]} = \mathcal{S}_p}$ 

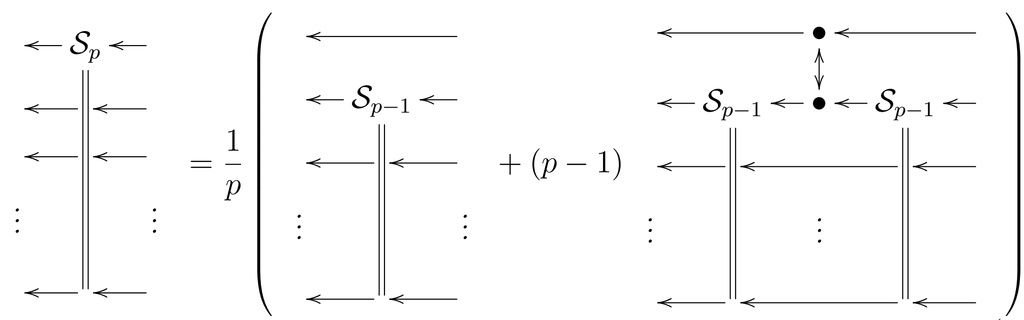
(16.9)

$\boxed{\mathcal{S}_p \sigma_{(1,2)} = \mathcal{S}_p}$



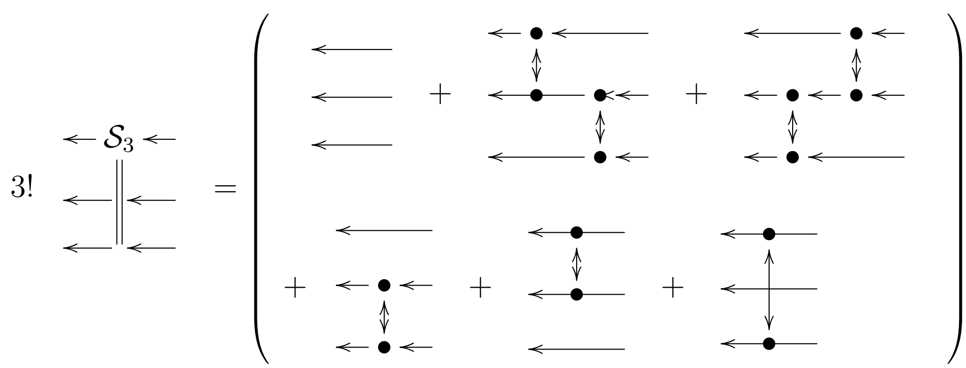
(16.10)

Claim 6

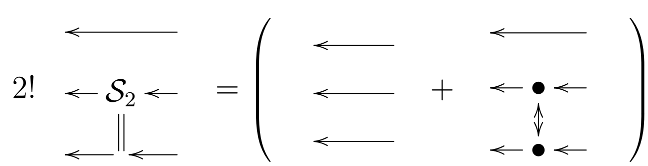


(16.11)

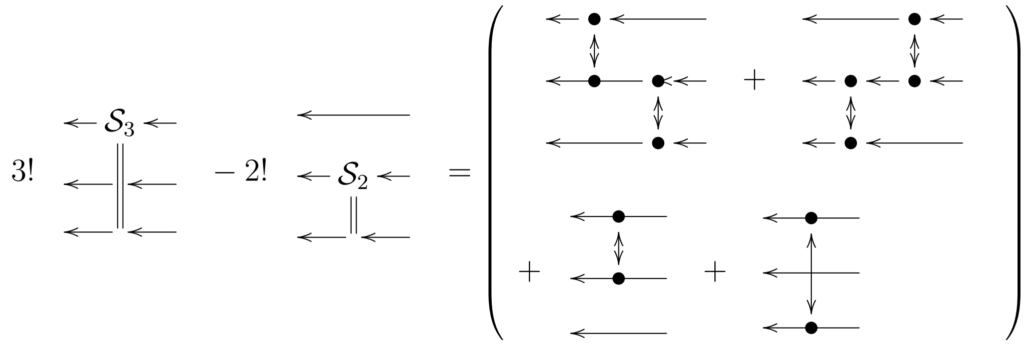
proof: We only prove it for $p = 3$.



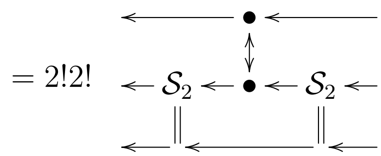
(16.12)



(16.13)



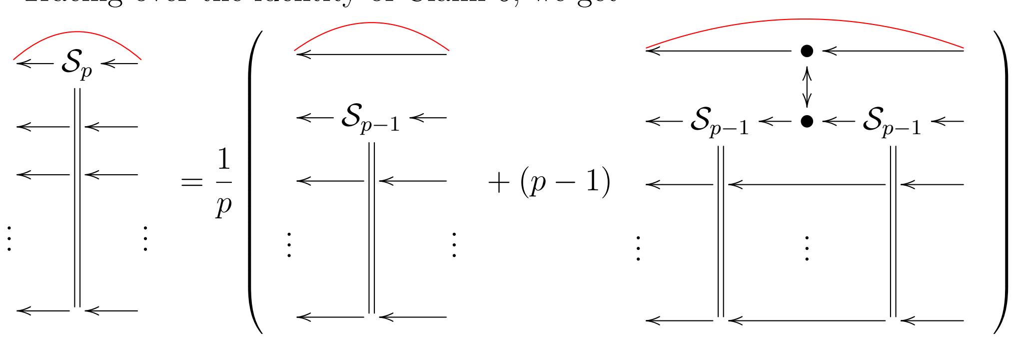
(16.14)



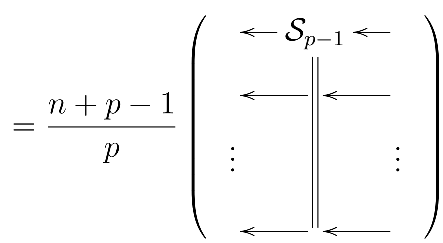
(16.15)

QED

Tracing over the identity of Claim 6, we get



(16.16)



(16.17)

Hence

$$\mathrm{tr}_{\underline{a}_1}\mathcal{S}_p = \frac{n+p-1}{p}\mathcal{S}_{p-1} \tag{16.18}$$

$$\mathrm{tr}_{\underline{a}_1,\underline{a}_2,\ldots,\underline{a}_k}\mathcal{S}_p = \frac{(n+p-1)(n+p-2)\ldots(n=p-k)}{p(p-1)\ldots(p-k+1)}\mathcal{S}_{p-k} \tag{16.19}$$

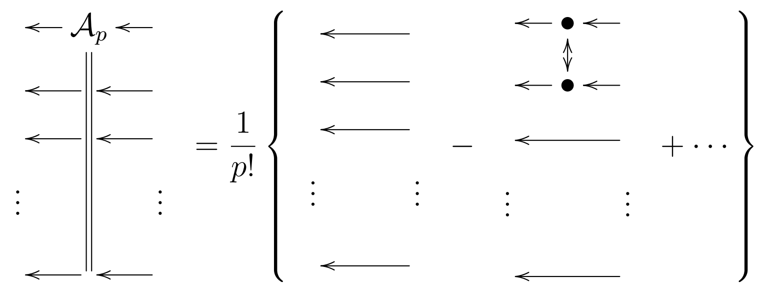
$$d_{\mathcal{S}_p} = \mathrm{tr}_{\underline{a}^p}\mathcal{S}_p = \frac{(n+p-1)!}{p!(n-1)!} = \binom{n+p-1}{p} \tag{16.20}$$

For $p = 2$,

$$d_{\mathcal{S}_2} = \frac{(n+1)n}{2} \tag{16.21}$$

16.2 Antisymmetrizer

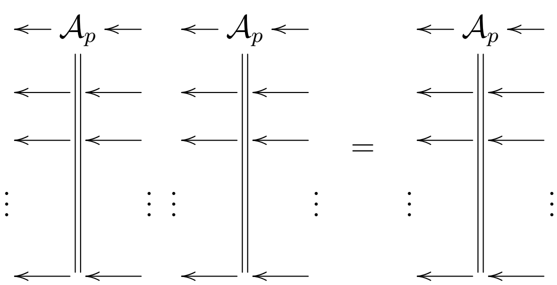
The p-**element antisymmetrizer** $\mathcal{A}_p$ is defined as the birdtrack



(16.22)

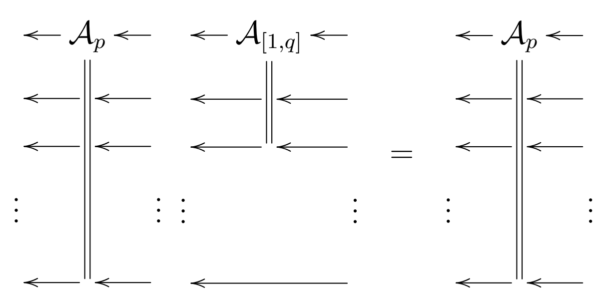
Note that $\mathcal{A}_p$ satisfies the following identities

$\boxed{\mathcal{A}_p^2 = \mathcal{A}_p}$



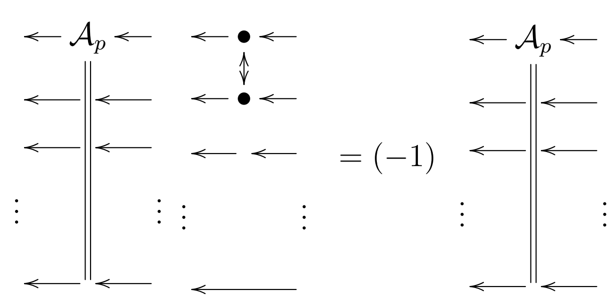
(16.23)

$\boxed{\mathcal{A}_p \mathcal{A}_{[1,q]} = \mathcal{A}_p}$



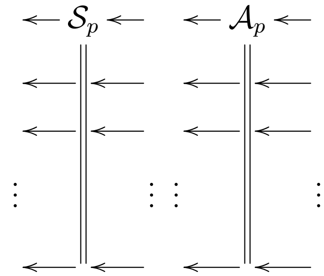
(16.24)

$\boxed{\mathcal{A}_p \sigma_{(1,2)} = -\mathcal{A}_p}$



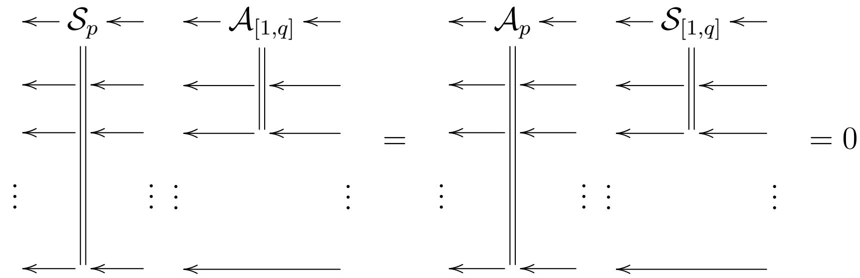
(16.25)

$\boxed{\mathcal{S}_p \mathcal{A}_q = \mathcal{A}_p \mathcal{S}_q = 0}$



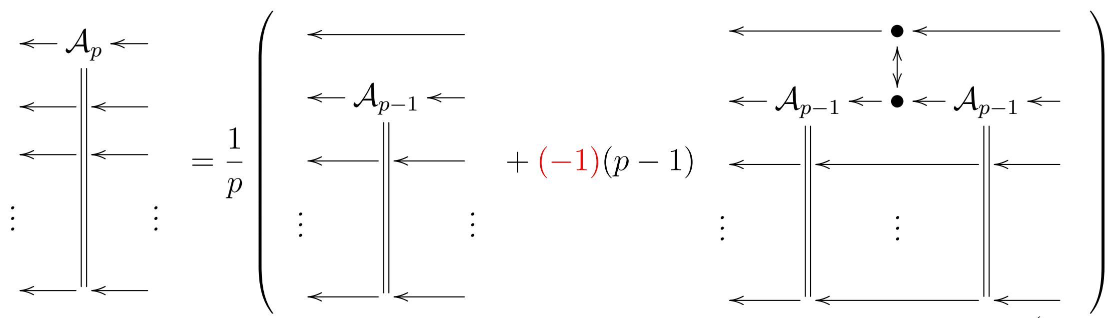
$= 0$ (16.26)

$\boxed{\mathcal{S}_p \mathcal{A}_{[1,q]} = \mathcal{A}_p \mathcal{S}_{[1,q]} = 0}$



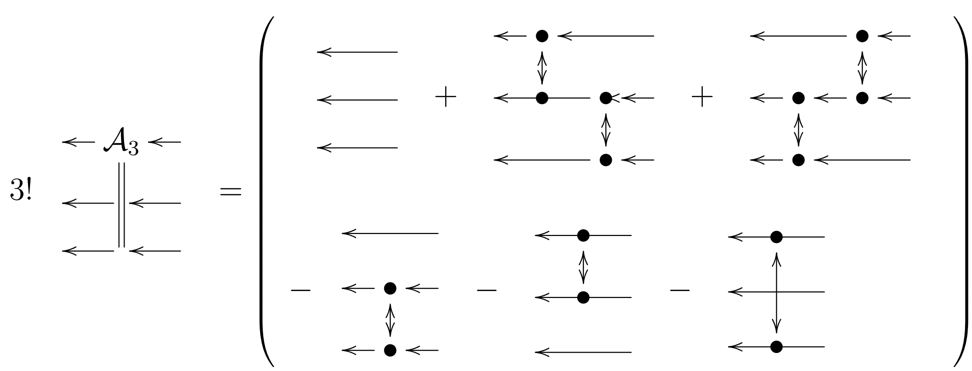
(16.27)

Claim 7

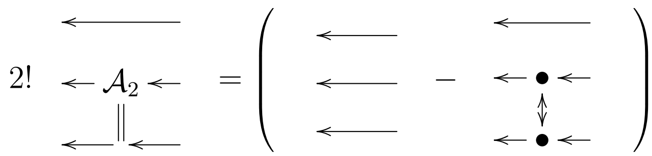


(16.28)

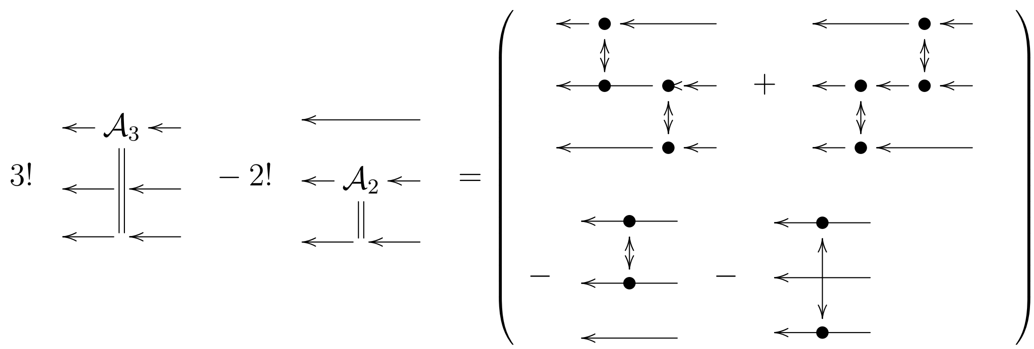
proof: We only prove it for $p = 3$.



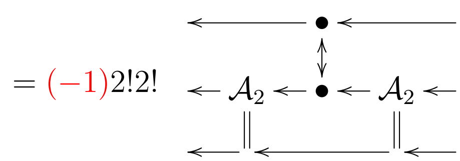
(16.29)



(16.30)



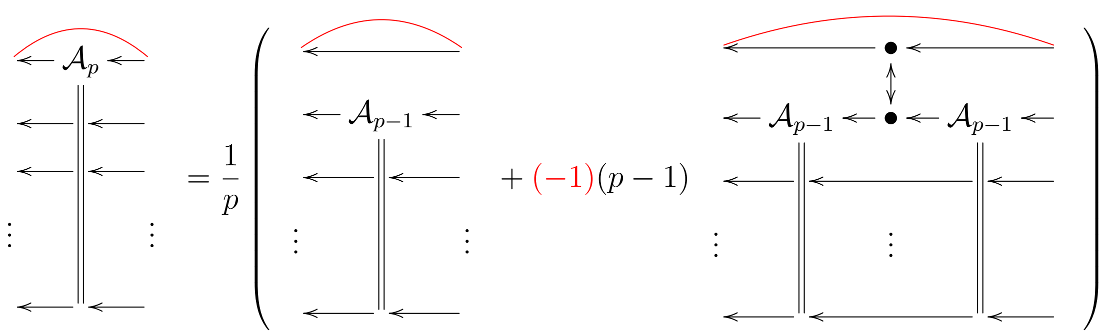
(16.31)



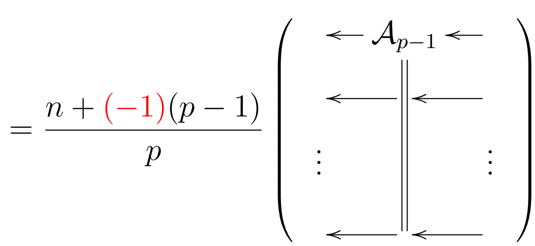
(16.32)

QED

Tracing over the identity of Claim 7, we get



(16.33)



(16.34)

Hence,

$$\mathrm{tr}_{\underline{a}_1}\mathcal{A}_p = \frac{n-p+1}{p}\mathcal{A}_{p-1} \tag{16.35}$$

$$\mathrm{tr}_{\underline{a}_1,\underline{a}_2,\ldots,\underline{a}_k}\mathcal{A}_p = \frac{(n-p+1)(n-p+2)\ldots(n-p+k)}{p(p-1)\ldots(p-k+1)}\mathcal{A}_{p-k} \tag{16.36}$$

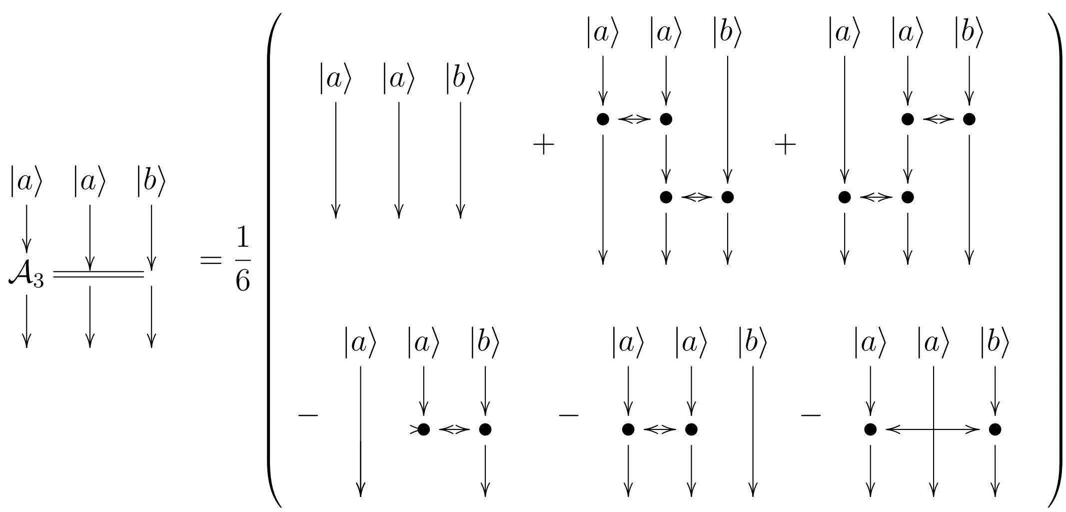
$$\begin{aligned} d_{\mathcal{A}_p} = \mathrm{tr}_{\underline{a}^p}\mathcal{A}_p &= \frac{\prod_{i=n-p+1}^{n} i}{p!} && (16.37)\\ &= \frac{\prod_{i=n}^{n-p+1} i}{p!} && (16.38)\\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{n!}{p!(n-p)!} = \binom{n}{p} & \text{if } p \le n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} && (16.39) \end{aligned}$$

For $p = 2 \le n$,

$$d_{\mathcal{A}_2} = \binom{n}{2} \tag{16.40}$$

$$\mathcal{A}_p = 0 \text{ if } n < p \tag{16.41}$$

For example, for $n = 2$ and $p = 3$



(16.42)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}_3|a,a,b\rangle &= \frac{1}{6}\begin{pmatrix} |a,a,b\rangle + |a,b,a\rangle + |b,a,a\rangle \\ -|a,b,a\rangle - |a,a,b\rangle - |b,a,a\rangle \end{pmatrix} && (16.43)\\ &= 0 && (16.44) \end{aligned}$$

16.3 Levi-Civita Tensor

The **Levi-Civita tensor** $\epsilon_{a^{:p}}$ where $a_i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, p\}$ equals $+1$ (resp., -1) if $a^{:p}$ is an even (resp., odd) permutation of $(1, 2, \ldots, p)$. Thus

$$\epsilon^{123\ldots p} = \epsilon_{123\ldots p} = 1 \tag{16.45}$$

and

$$\epsilon_{rev(a^{:p})} = (-1)^{\binom{p}{2}} \epsilon_{a^{:p}} \tag{16.46}$$

Define

$$(C_{\mathcal{A}_p})^1_{a^{:p}} = e^{i\phi}\frac{\epsilon_{a^{:p}}}{\sqrt{p!}} = \begin{array}{lc} a_1 \xleftarrow{(1)} & \mathcal{A}_p \\ a_2 \longleftarrow & \Vert \\ \vdots & \Vert \\ a_p \longleftarrow & \Vert \end{array} \tag{16.47}$$

and

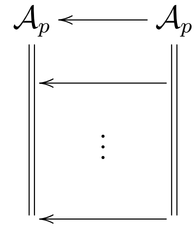
$$(C^\dagger_{\mathcal{A}_p})_1^{rev(a^{:p})} = e^{-i\phi}\frac{\epsilon^{rev(a^{:p})}}{\sqrt{p!}} = \begin{array}{cl} \mathcal{A}_p & \longleftarrow a_1 \\ \Vert & \longleftarrow a_2 \\ \Vert & \quad \vdots \\ \Vert & \xleftarrow{(1)} a_p \end{array} \tag{16.48}$$

Then

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{p!}\epsilon_{a^{:p}}\epsilon^{rev(b^{:p})} = (\mathcal{A}_p)_{a^{:p}}{}^{rev(b^{:p})}} \quad \begin{array}{lc} a_1 \longleftarrow & \mathcal{A}_p \\ a_2 \longleftarrow & \Vert \\ \vdots & \Vert \\ a_p \longleftarrow & \Vert \end{array} \begin{array}{cl} \mathcal{A}_p & \longleftarrow b_1 \\ \Vert & \longleftarrow b_2 \\ \Vert & \quad \vdots \\ \Vert & \longleftarrow b_p \end{array} = \begin{array}{lcl} a_1 \longleftarrow & \mathcal{A}_p & \longleftarrow b_1 \\ a_2 \longleftarrow & \Vert & \longleftarrow b_2 \\ \vdots & \Vert & \quad \vdots \\ a_p \longleftarrow & \Vert & \longleftarrow b_p \end{array} \tag{16.49}$$

and

$$\boxed{e^{i2\phi}\frac{1}{p!}\epsilon^{rev(a^{:n})}\epsilon_{a^{:n}} = \delta^1_1 = 1} \tag{16.50}$$



$$= 1$$

For the L Convention, we will use $\phi = 0$.
For the CC Convention, we must choose

$$e^{i2\phi} = (-1)^{\binom{p}{2}} = e^{i\pi\frac{p(p-1)}{2}} \tag{16.51}$$

so

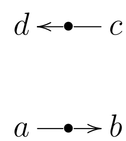
$$\phi = \frac{\pi}{4}p(p-1) \tag{16.52}$$

Chapter 17

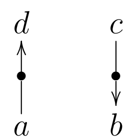
Unitary Groups: COMING SOON

17.1 SU(n)

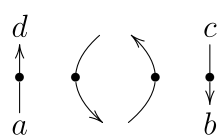
$$m(p,q) = \delta^a_b \sum_{a=1}^{n} (p_a)^* q_a \tag{17.1}$$

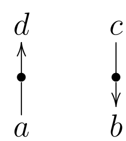
$$\mathbb{1}^{a,c}_{d,b} = \delta^a_b \delta^c_d =$$ 

(17.2)

$$\uparrow\downarrow^{a,c}_{d,b} = \delta^a_d \delta^c_b =$$ 

(17.3)

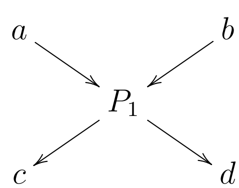
$$\boxed{\uparrow\downarrow^2 = n \uparrow\downarrow}$$ 

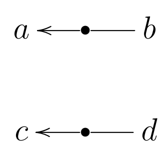
$= n$ 

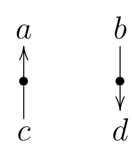
(17.4)

$$P_i = \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{M - \lambda_j}{\lambda_i - \lambda_j} \tag{17.5}$$

$\lambda_1 = n$

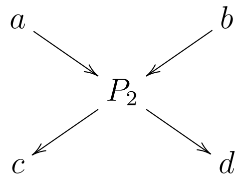
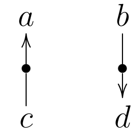
$$\boxed{P_1 = \frac{\uparrow\downarrow - n}{0 - n} = 1 - \frac{1}{n} \uparrow\downarrow}$$ 

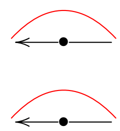
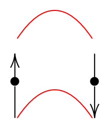
$=$ 

$- \frac{1}{n}$ 

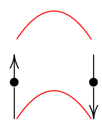
(17.6)

$\lambda_2 = 0$

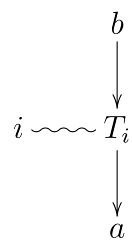
$$\boxed{P_2 = \frac{\uparrow\downarrow - 0}{n - 0} = \frac{1}{n}\uparrow\downarrow}$$  $= \frac{1}{n}$  (17.7)

$\mathrm{tr}P_1 \;=$  $-\frac{1}{n}$  (17.8)

$$= \; n^2 - 1 \tag{17.9}$$

$\mathrm{tr}P_2 \;=\; \frac{1}{n}$  (17.10)

$$= \; 1 \tag{17.11}$$

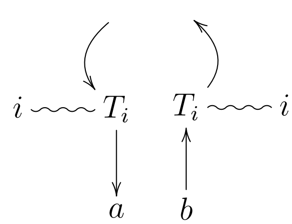
$(T_i)_a^b =$  (17.12)

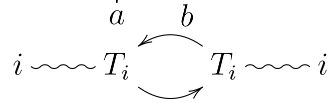
$$T_i^\dagger = T_i \tag{17.13}$$

Claim 8

$$C_F \delta_a^b = (T_i T_i)_a^b = \frac{n^2 - 1}{n}\delta_a^b \tag{17.14}$$

proof:

$(T_i T_i)_a^b \;=\; \sum_i$  (17.15)

$= \; \sum_i$  (17.16)

QED

Chapter 18

Wigner Coefficients: COMING SOON

Chapter 19

Wigner-Ekart Theorem: COMING SOON

Chapter 20

Young Tableau: COMING SOON

Bibliography

[1] Predrag Cvitanovic. *Group theory: birdtracks, Lie's, and exceptional groups.* Princeton University Press, 2008. `https://birdtracks.eu/course3/notes.pdf`.

[2] JP Elliott and PG Dawber. *Symmetry in Physics, vols. 1, 2.* Springer, 1979.

[3] Robert R. Tucci. Bayesuvius (free book). `https://github.com/rrtucci/Bayesuvius`.

[4] Robert R. Tucci. Quantum Bayesian nets. *International Journal of Modern Physics B*, 09(03):295–337, January 1995.