

Cartan-classification of simple Lie-Algebras

(69)

Here we always assume a complex Lie-algebra $\tilde{\mathfrak{L}}$

Definition Cartan subalgebra: \mathfrak{H}

maximal Abelian subalgebra of $\tilde{\mathfrak{L}}$

(maximal = every subalgebra containing \mathfrak{H} is non-Abelian)

Definition the rank of a Lie-algebra is the dimension of its Cartan subalgebra.

Let h_i be a basis of \mathfrak{H} then

$$[h_i, h_j] = 0 \quad i, j = 1..l$$

also write the elements of $\tilde{\mathfrak{L}}$ as

$$h_1, \dots, h_l, a_1', \dots, a_{n-l}'$$

then $[h_i, a_{\alpha}'] = \alpha_{\alpha}(h_i) a_{\alpha}'$

for fixed α there must be at least one $\alpha_{\alpha}(h_i) \neq 0$

Note: since $[h_i, h_j] = 0$ it follows that all h_i matrices $\text{ad}(h_i)$ are diagonal

$$\forall h \in \mathfrak{H} \quad [h, a_{\alpha}'] = \alpha_{\alpha}(h) a_{\alpha}'$$

$\alpha_{\alpha}(h) \dots$ linear functional on \mathfrak{H} $\sum_{i=1}^l \mu_i \alpha_{\alpha}(h_i)$

$\alpha_{\alpha}(h_i) \dots$ non-zero root

root subspace $\hat{\mathfrak{X}}_\alpha [h, \alpha_\alpha] = \alpha(h) \alpha_\alpha$

$\alpha(h)$ specified by $\alpha(h_i)$ for some basis h ;

think: \mathbb{R} -dimensional vector

Δ ... set of all root subspaces

$\hat{\mathfrak{X}}_0$... set of zero-roots = \mathfrak{H}

$$\hat{\mathfrak{X}} = \hat{\mathfrak{X}}_0 \oplus \Delta$$

Let $\alpha_\alpha \in \hat{\mathfrak{X}}_\alpha$ and $\alpha_\beta \in \hat{\mathfrak{X}}_\beta$ then $[\alpha_\alpha, \alpha_\beta]$ is in $\hat{\mathfrak{X}}_{\alpha+\beta}$ if $\alpha+\beta \in \Delta$ otherwise it is zero

Proof: $[h, [\alpha_\alpha, \alpha_\beta]] = [[h, \alpha_\alpha], \alpha_\beta] + [\alpha_\alpha, [h, \alpha_\beta]] =$
 $= \alpha [\alpha_\alpha, \alpha_\beta] + \beta [\alpha_\alpha, \alpha_\beta] =$
 $= (\alpha + \beta) [\alpha_\alpha, \alpha_\beta]$

\rightarrow if $\alpha_\alpha, \alpha_\beta$ do not commute then $(\alpha + \beta)$ is a root otherwise they commute.

If $\alpha_\alpha \in \hat{\mathfrak{X}}_\alpha$ $\alpha_\beta \in \hat{\mathfrak{X}}_\beta$ and if $\alpha + \beta \neq 0$ then $\kappa(\alpha_\alpha, \alpha_\beta) = 0$

\Rightarrow

Proof $\text{ad}(\alpha_\alpha) \cdot \text{ad}(\alpha_\beta) \cdot \alpha_\gamma = [\alpha_\alpha, [\alpha_\beta, \alpha_\gamma]]$

this is in $\hat{\mathfrak{X}}_{\alpha+\beta+\gamma}$ if $\alpha+\beta+\gamma$ is a root

but since $\alpha+\beta \neq 0$ $\hat{\mathfrak{X}}_{\alpha+\beta+\gamma} \cap \hat{\mathfrak{X}}_\gamma = \{0\}$

if $\alpha+\beta+\gamma$ is not a root then it is just zero

\Rightarrow $\text{ad}(\alpha_\alpha) \text{ad}(\alpha_\beta) \alpha_\gamma$ does not contain α_γ

so all diagonal elements are zero

$$\text{tr}(\text{ad}(\alpha_\alpha) \text{ad}(\alpha_\beta)) = 0$$

In particular $\kappa(h, \alpha_\alpha) \neq 0$

and $\kappa(\alpha_\alpha, \alpha_\alpha) = 0$

$\Rightarrow \kappa$ is non-degenerate on \mathfrak{H}

Proof suppose κ is degenerate, then $\exists h'$ such that $\kappa(h', h) = 0 \quad \forall h \in \mathfrak{H}$ but also $\kappa(h', \alpha_\alpha) = 0 \Rightarrow \kappa$ would be degenerate on \mathfrak{H} . But we know that κ is non-degenerate on $\mathfrak{H} \Rightarrow$ it is non-degenerate on \mathfrak{H} .

This means that we can choose a basis h_α such that $\kappa(h_\alpha, h) = \alpha(h)$

if α/β is a root $h_{\alpha+\beta} = h_\alpha + h_\beta$

and $\alpha(h_\beta) = \beta(h_\alpha) = \kappa(h_\alpha, h_\beta)$

$$\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \langle \beta, \alpha \rangle = \kappa(h_\alpha, h_\beta)$$

$$\Rightarrow [h_\beta, \alpha_\alpha] = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \alpha_\alpha \quad \forall \alpha, \beta \in \Delta$$

If $\alpha \in \Delta$ then $-\alpha \in \Delta$

Proof: suppose $\alpha \in \Delta$ but $-\alpha \notin \Delta$ then

$$\kappa(\alpha_\alpha, \alpha) = 0 \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathfrak{H}$$

\Rightarrow But κ is non-degenerate

So $-\alpha \in \Delta$

Example $su(2)$ $\frac{i}{2}\sigma_1, \frac{i}{2}\sigma_2, \frac{i}{2}\sigma_3$ linearly independent
over \mathbb{C} , good basis for $\tilde{\mathfrak{K}}$ $su(2; \mathbb{C})$

Center subalgebra: $\mathfrak{a}_3 = \frac{i}{2}\sigma_3$ but since we

we can actually make complex linear combinations
we can also take $\frac{1}{2}\sigma_3$

adjoint: $-\sum_{i,j} \epsilon_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \kappa(\mathfrak{a}_3, \mathfrak{a}_3) = -2$

roots: $\mathfrak{a}_1 \pm i\mathfrak{a}_2 : \mathfrak{a}_{\pm}$

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathfrak{a}_3, \mathfrak{a}_1 + i\mathfrak{a}_2] &= -\epsilon_{312}\mathfrak{a}_2 + i\epsilon_{321}\mathfrak{a}_1 = \\ &= -\mathfrak{a}_2 + i\mathfrak{a}_1 = i(\mathfrak{a}_1 + i\mathfrak{a}_2) \end{aligned}$$

$$[\mathfrak{h}_\alpha, \mathfrak{a}_{\pm\alpha}] = \pm i\mathfrak{a}_{\pm\alpha}$$

$$\mathfrak{d}_\alpha(\mathfrak{h}_\alpha) = i \quad \mathfrak{K}_\alpha: 2\mathfrak{a}_+$$

$$\mathfrak{K}_{-\alpha}: -2\mathfrak{a}_- \quad \text{constant } i\mathfrak{a}_\pm$$

$$\kappa(\mathfrak{h}_\alpha, \mathfrak{h}_\alpha) = \alpha(\mathfrak{h}_\alpha)$$

$$\mathfrak{h}_\alpha = \lambda \mathfrak{h}_\alpha \quad \lambda^2(-2) = \lambda i \quad = \lambda = -\frac{i}{2}$$

$$\langle \mathfrak{d}_\alpha, \mathfrak{d}_\alpha \rangle = \frac{\kappa(\mathfrak{h}_\alpha, \mathfrak{h}_\alpha)}{-2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Physics convention $\frac{1}{2}\sigma_i = \tau_i$

$$[\tau_i, \tau_j] = i \epsilon_{ijk} \tau_k$$

$$\begin{aligned} [\tau_3, \tau_1 \pm i\tau_2] &= i\epsilon_{312} \tau_2 + i(i\epsilon_{321}) \tau_1 \\ &= i\tau_2 + \tau_1 = \tau_1 + i\tau_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$[\tau_3, (\tau_1 \pm i\tau_2)] = \pm \tau_{\pm}$$

roots have one $+1 = \alpha$

$$h_{\alpha}: +2\lambda^2 = \lambda \quad \lambda = +\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\kappa(h_{\alpha}, h_{\alpha}) = \lambda^2 (-2) = +\frac{1}{2}$$

$$h_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

More complicated example: $su(3; \mathbb{C})$

$su(3)$: 3×3 traceless Hermitian (Gell-Mann matrices)

$$\lambda_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_5 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_6 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_7 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_8 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$[\lambda_p, \lambda_q] = i 2 f_{pqr} \lambda_r$$

f_{pq}	123	147	156	246	257	345	367	458	678
f_{pqr}	1	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$

f_{pqr} totally antisymmetric

math conventions $a_p = i\lambda_p$

$$\kappa(a_p, a_q) = \pm 12 \delta_{pq} \quad (\text{phys math})$$

Cartan subalgebra λ_3 and λ_8

λ_p are linearly independent over \mathbb{C} ; $\dim(\mathfrak{su}(6)) = 8$

roots: $\lambda_1 \pm i\lambda_2$; $\lambda_6 \pm i\lambda_7$; $\lambda_4 \pm i\lambda_5$

$$[h_{\lambda_1}, (\lambda_1 \pm i\lambda_2)] = \pm 2 (\lambda_1 \pm i\lambda_2)$$

$$[h_{\lambda_2}, (\lambda_1 \pm i\lambda_2)] = 0$$

$$[h_{\lambda_6}, (\lambda_6 \pm i\lambda_7)] = \mp (\lambda_6 \pm i\lambda_7)$$

$$[h_{\lambda_7}, (\lambda_6 \pm i\lambda_7)] = \pm \sqrt{3} (\lambda_6 \pm i\lambda_7)$$

$$[h_{\lambda_4}, (\lambda_4 \pm i\lambda_5)] = \pm (\lambda_4 \pm i\lambda_5)$$

$$[h_{\lambda_5}, (\lambda_4 \pm i\lambda_5)] = \mp (\lambda_4 \pm i\lambda_5)$$

roots: $d_1 = (2, 0)$; $d_2 = (-1, \sqrt{3})$; $d_3 = (1, \sqrt{3})$

note $d_1 + d_2 = d_3$

$$h_{d_1}, h_{d_2}, h_{d_3}; \quad \kappa(h_{d_1}, h_{d_1}) = \kappa(h_{d_2}, h_{d_2}) = +12$$

$$h_{d_1} = \mu_1 h_1 + \mu_2 h_2$$

$$\kappa(h_{d_1}, h_{d_1}) = d_1(h_{d_1})$$

$$\kappa(h_{d_1}, h_2) = d_1(h_2)$$

$$\mu_1 \kappa(h_1, h_1) + \mu_2 \kappa(h_2, h_2) = 2$$

$$\mu_1 \kappa(h_1, h_2) + \mu_2 \kappa(h_2, h_2) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_2 = 0 \quad \mu_1 = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$h_{d_1} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$h_{d_2} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$h_{d_3} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$h_{d_1} + h_{d_2} = h_{d_3}$$

$$\langle d_1, d_1 \rangle = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\langle d_2, d_2 \rangle = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\langle d_1, d_2 \rangle = -\frac{1}{6}$$

$$\langle d_2, d_1 \rangle = -\frac{1}{6}$$

For further notice

$$\frac{2\langle d_1, d_2 \rangle}{\langle d_1, d_1 \rangle} = -1$$

"canonical" normalization of

Killing form: $\|\alpha\| = 2$ for long roots

\Rightarrow representation

$$\text{tr}(t_p, t_q) = 2h^v \kappa_{pq}^{\text{canonical}}$$

$h^v \dots$ "dual Coxeter number"

Now since the Killing form κ is non-degenerate on \mathfrak{g} we can choose generators H_i such that $\kappa(H_i^+, H_j) = \delta_{ij}$

$$\kappa(H_i, H_j) = \delta_{ij}$$

$$[H_i, E_\alpha] = \alpha_i E_\alpha \quad \forall \alpha \in \Delta$$

think of roots as "vectors"

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} \text{note } H_i^+ = H_i \text{ unitary representation} \\ \Rightarrow E_\alpha^+ = E_{-\alpha} \end{array} \right)$$

$$h_\alpha \dots \alpha_i H_i$$

$$H_\alpha = 2 \frac{\alpha_i H_i}{\alpha_i^2}$$

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} [H_\alpha, E_{\pm\alpha}] = \pm 2 E_{\pm\alpha} \\ [E_\alpha, E_{-\alpha}] = H_\alpha \end{array}}$$

Δ_α - subalgebra for each root $\alpha \in \Delta$
(physics $su(2)$ subalgebra)

Note here $H_\alpha \cong 2 A_3$ operators

\Rightarrow eigenvalues of H_α are integers!

$$\text{Proof: } \text{tr}([E_\alpha, E_{-\alpha}], h_\alpha) = \text{tr}(E_{-\alpha} [h_\alpha, E_\alpha]) = \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \text{tr}(E_\alpha E_{-\alpha})$$

$$= \text{tr}(h_\alpha, h_\alpha) \text{tr}(E_\alpha E_{-\alpha})$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{tr}([E_\alpha, E_{-\alpha}] - \text{tr}(E_\alpha E_{-\alpha}) h_\alpha, h_\alpha) = 0$$

normalise to $\frac{2}{\langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle}$

highest formula

Def: α -string of roots through β
all roots $\beta + k\alpha$ $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

\rightarrow correspond to an $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ representation of $(H_\alpha, E_{\pm\alpha})$; this will be characterized by some highest weight j (Note integer now)
since

$$[E_\alpha, E_\beta] = E_{\alpha+\beta}$$

$$[E_\alpha, \dots [E_\alpha, E_\beta] \dots] = E_{p\alpha+\beta}$$

suppose $E_{p\alpha+\beta}$ is the highest weight

$$[H_\alpha, E_{p\alpha+\beta}] = p + \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} = 2j$$

similarly

$$[E_{-\alpha}, E_\beta] = E_{\beta-\alpha}$$

and so on until we reach $-j$

$$\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}: -q + \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} = -j$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{p - q + \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} = 0}$$

Theorem $\frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2}$ can take only the values

$$0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3$$

$\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$ is inner product therefore

$$|\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle|^2 \leq \langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle \langle \beta, \beta \rangle \quad \text{Schwarzian inequality}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} \right| \left| \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\beta^2} \right| \leq 4 \quad \text{if } \alpha \neq \beta$$

$$\frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} \dots 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3$$

angle:

$$\frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} = -(p-q)$$

$$\frac{2\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle}{\beta^2} = -(p'-q')$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle^2}{\alpha^2 \beta^2} = \frac{(p-q)(p'-q')}{4}$$

$$\left(\cos \theta_{\alpha\beta} \right)^2 = \frac{(p-q)(p'-q')}{4}$$

since $(p-q)(p'-q')$ is an integer positive integer

$$\Rightarrow (p-q)(p'-q') = 0 \Rightarrow \theta_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{\pi}{2} \left(\frac{3\pi}{2} \right) \text{ (roots are unique)} \\ (\pi \text{ is } \alpha - \alpha)$$

$$\Rightarrow (p-q)(p'-q') = 1 \quad \frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow (p-q)(p'-q') = 2 \quad \frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{3\pi}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow (p-q)(p'-q') = 3 \quad \frac{\pi}{6}, \frac{5\pi}{6}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = 0 \quad (-\alpha)$$

$$p-q, p'-q' \in 0, 1, 2, 3$$

Furthermore: $\beta - \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} \alpha$ is also a root!

Note β belongs to an $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ representation of H_α, E_α

$$[H_\alpha, E_\beta] = \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} E_\beta$$

therefor $-\frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2}$ must also be an eigenvalue of $\text{ad}(H_\alpha)$ (Eigenvalues: $j, j-1, \dots, -j+1, -j$)

$$\Rightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \quad -\frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} = \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} + 2k$$

after applying k -times E_α (or $E_{-\alpha}$)

$$\Rightarrow k = -\frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2}$$

Simple roots: Let h_{α_i} be a basis for the Cartan subalgebra such that every root can be written as

$$\beta = \sum \kappa_i \alpha_i$$

since every $h_\beta = \sum \kappa_i h_{\alpha_i}$

$$\kappa(h_{\alpha_i}, h_\beta) = \sum \kappa_i (h_{\alpha_i}, h_{\alpha_i})$$

β is a root, eigenvalues of a Hermitian matrix

β_i are real $\Rightarrow \kappa_i$ are real

(one can show that they are rational)

Positive roots: choose a basis h_{α_i} $i=1 \dots l$

the root β is called positive if the first non-vanishing coefficient k_1, \dots, k_l is positive. ($\beta > 0$)

Example $A_2 \sim su(3)$ d_1, d_2 as basis
positive roots d_1, d_2, d_3
are here d_1, d_1+d_2 as basis
note that $-d_2$ is a positive root
 $-d_2 = \underset{\uparrow}{d_1} - (d_1+d_2) = -d_2$
 > 0

Notion of positive roots is basis dependent!

Useful: if $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta > 0$ then $\alpha + \beta > 0$
if $\alpha > 0$ then $-\alpha < 0$

$\Rightarrow \mathfrak{g}$ decomposes into $\Delta_+ \oplus \mathfrak{h}_{\mathbb{C}} \oplus \Delta_-$
 Δ_+ ... set of positive roots

also if $(\alpha - \beta) > 0$ then we $\alpha > \beta$

Definition: Pos. Simple root:

α is called a simple root if $\alpha \in \Delta_+$
but $\alpha \neq \beta + \gamma$ with $\beta, \gamma \in \Delta_+$

Examples A_2 : d_1, d_2 simple roots
 $d_1 + d_1$
 $-d_1 - d_2$
 $-(d_1 + d_2)$

Theorem: If α, β are simple roots then

-) $\alpha - \beta$ is not a root
-) $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \leq 0$

Proof: -) suppose $\alpha - \beta$ is a positive root; then $\alpha = (\alpha - \beta) + \beta$
 so α cannot be a simple root, but α is a simple root by assumption $\Rightarrow (\alpha - \beta) \notin \Delta_+$
 If $\alpha - \beta \in \Delta_- \Rightarrow \beta - \alpha \in \Delta_+ \Rightarrow \beta$ could not be a simple root

\rightarrow let $\beta - q\alpha, \dots, \beta + p\alpha$ be the α -string through β , but $q = 0$ since $\alpha - \beta$ is not a root

$$p = - \frac{2\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle}{\alpha^2}$$

but α^2 is positive since α is a real

$$\Rightarrow \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \leq 0$$

This means that the angle between two simple roots can only be

$$\theta : \frac{2\pi}{3}, \frac{3\pi}{4}, \frac{5\pi}{6}$$

also note that

$$\frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} = q - p \quad \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\beta^2} = q' - p'$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{\alpha^2}{\beta^2} = \frac{q' - p'}{q - p}}$$

Remark: $q' - p', q - p \in \{1, 2, 3\}$

the only possible ratios of root-lengths are $1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}$

It follows hence that every root $\in \Delta_+$ can be written as

$$\beta = \sum \alpha_i d_i$$

$d_i \dots$ non-negative integer

$H_{\alpha_i}, E_{\pm \alpha_i}$ decomposes the algebra in representations of $su(2)^k$

$\Rightarrow 2\alpha_i$ is not a root because $H_{\alpha_i}, E_{\pm \alpha_i}$ is a spin 1-representation (adjoint)

\Rightarrow If α, β are simple roots then $\alpha + \beta$ is a root only if $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \neq 0$

$$[H_{\alpha}, [E_{\alpha}, E_{\beta}]] = E_{\alpha + \beta}$$

$$\begin{aligned} [H_{\alpha}, [E_{\alpha}, E_{\beta}]] &= [[H_{\alpha}, E_{\alpha}], E_{\beta}] + [E_{\alpha}, [H_{\alpha}, E_{\beta}]] \\ &= \lambda [E_{\alpha}, E_{\beta}] + \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} [E_{\alpha}, E_{\beta}] \end{aligned}$$

so if $\frac{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\alpha^2} = 0$ it would mean that

$H_{\alpha}, E_{\alpha + \beta}$ is another $su(2)$ sub algebra.

$\Rightarrow \alpha + \beta$ is not a root if $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = 0$

alternatives $q - p = \frac{2\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle}{\beta^2}$

$\alpha, \beta \neq 0$ but $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow q = p = 0$

0 is the symmetric point of each $su(2)$

representations $+j, \dots, -j$ $q = p$

symmetric point is an element of the Cartan sub algebra (zero-root)

Definition Cartan - matrix

$l \times l$ matrix $A_{j_1 j_2}$

$$A_{j_1 j_2} := \frac{2 \langle \alpha_{j_1}, \alpha_{j_2} \rangle}{\alpha_{j_1}^2}$$

$\alpha_{j_1}, \alpha_{j_2}$ simple roots

$$A_{j_1 j_2} \in \{0, -1, -2, -3\} \quad j_1 \neq j_2$$

a) equal length $A_{j_1 j_2} = 2 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = -1$

→ ratio $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$: $A_{j_1 j_2} = 2 \cos\left(\frac{3\pi}{4}\right) \frac{|\alpha_{j_1}|}{|\alpha_{j_2}|} = -2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{cases} \sqrt{2} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{cases}$

see next -1 if j is the long root
 or -2 if j is the short root

→ ratio $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ $A_{j_1 j_2} = -1$ if j is the long root
 $A_{j_1 j_2} = -3$ if j is the short root

It is possible to construct all admissible Cartan - matrices → classification of all simple (complex) Lie - algebras (and therefore of the connected part of Lie - groups)

The Cartan matrix is encoded in a Dynkin diagram.

The whole Lie-algebra can be deduced from the Dynkin diagram

- Each simple root is a dot
- dots j and k are connected by $|A_{jk}|$ lines
- length of the roots is indicated by an index

It turns out that there are 4 infinite series and 5 exceptional

$$A_n: \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{2}{\circ} - \overset{3}{\circ} - \overset{4}{\circ} - \dots - \overset{n}{\circ}$$

$$B_n: \overset{2}{\circ} - \overset{2}{\circ} - \overset{2}{\circ} - \overset{2}{\circ} - \dots - \overset{1}{\circ} = \overset{1}{\circ}$$

$$C_n: \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \dots - \overset{1}{\circ} = \overset{2}{\circ}$$

$$D_n: \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \dots - \overset{1}{\circ} \begin{matrix} \diagup \circ \\ \diagdown \circ \end{matrix}$$

$$E_6: \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} = \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ}$$

$$E_7: \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} = \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ}$$

$$E_8: \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} = \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ}$$

$$F_4: \overset{2}{\circ} = \overset{2}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ} - \overset{1}{\circ}$$

$$G_2: \overset{1}{\circ} = \overset{3}{\circ}$$

A, D, E are called "simply laced"
all roots of equal length

Example: A_2 $\overset{1}{0} \text{---} \overset{1}{0}$

2x2 matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

A_3 $\overset{1}{0} \text{---} \overset{1}{0} \text{---} 0$ $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

B_2 : $\overset{2}{0} \text{---} \overset{1}{0}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ ~~matrix~~

C_2 : $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

G_2 : $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

Constructing the roots from the Cartan matrix:

A_3 : $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ 3 simple roots d_1, d_2, d_3
simple roots "level 1"

consider the α_2 -string containing d_1
 $d_1 + r d_2$:

$$(q-p) = \frac{2 \langle d_1, d_2 \rangle}{d_2^2} = -1 = A_{21}$$

note $d_1 - d_2$ is not a root $\Rightarrow q = 0$

$$\Rightarrow p = 1$$

only $d_1 + d_2$

α_2 string containing d_1 is $(d_1, d_1 + d_2)$

d_3 -string containing d_1 $d_1 + r d_3$

$$(q-p) = 2 \frac{(d_1, d_1)}{d_1^2} = 0, \quad q=0$$

$$\Rightarrow p=0$$

d_3 -string containing d_1 is d_1

d_3 -string containing d_2 is $d_1 + d_2$

at level 2 $d_1 + d_2$; $d_2 + d_3$

d_3 -string through $d_1 + d_2$ is $d_1 + d_2 + r d_3$

$$q-p = 2 \frac{(d_3, d_1 + d_2)}{d_3^2} = \frac{d_{31}}{d_3} + \frac{d_{32}}{d_3} = -1$$

$d_1 + d_2 - d_3$ is not a positive nor a negative root \Rightarrow not a root $q=0$ $p=1$

$\Rightarrow (d_1 + d_2, d_1 + d_2 + d_3)$ is the d_3 -string containing $d_1 + d_2$

positives

d_1, d_2, d_3 level 1

$d_1 + d_2, d_2 + d_3$ level 2

$d_1 + d_2 + d_3$ level 3

Roots and $SU(3)$ - diagram

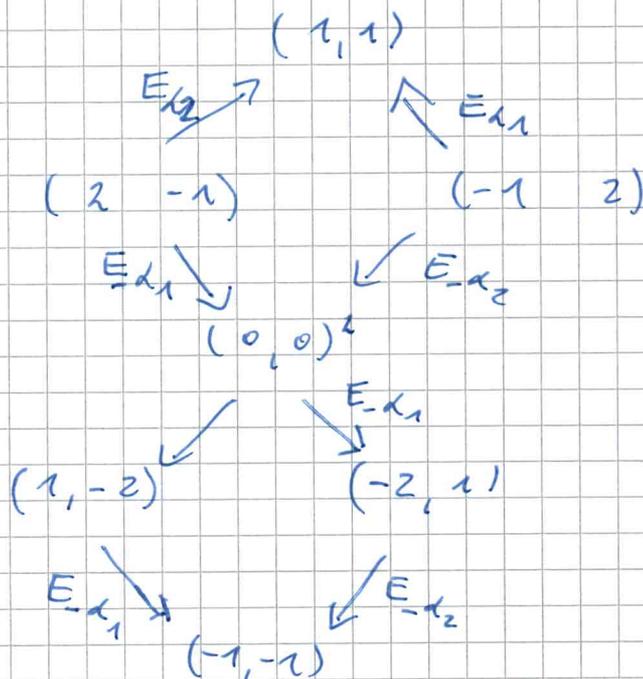
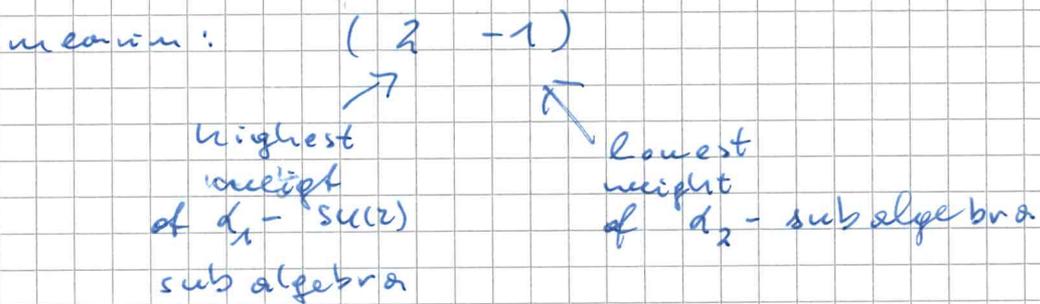
for a particular root $\beta = \sum \beta_i \alpha_i$

$$q^i - p^i = 2 \frac{\langle \beta, \alpha_i \rangle}{\|\alpha_i\|^2} = \sum h_{ij} A_{ji}$$

$$[H_{\alpha_i}, E_{\alpha_j}] = 2 \frac{\langle \alpha_i, \alpha_j \rangle}{\|\alpha_i\|^2} E_{\alpha_j}$$

\rightarrow Eigenvalue of $H_{\alpha_i} =$
 = entry in Cartan matrix

$$A_2(SU(3)) : \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} \alpha_1 = (2, -1) & \text{1st root} \\ \alpha_2 = (-1, 2) & \text{2nd root} \end{matrix}$$



8 states = $N^2 - 1$ for $N=3$

root diagram.

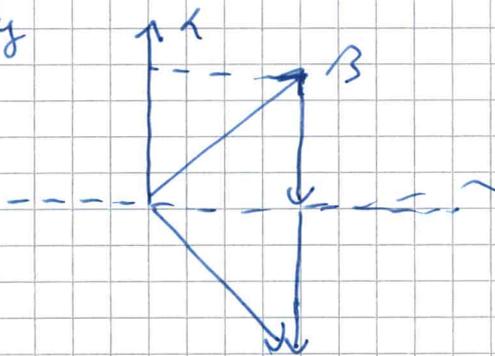


The Weyl group

Def.: $S_d(\beta) = \beta - \frac{2\langle \beta, d \rangle}{d^2} d$

is called a Weyl reflection on d
 α, β are roots

geometrically



reflection on the hyperplane orthogonal to d

•) $S_\alpha(\alpha) = \alpha - 2\alpha = -\alpha$

•) $S_d(S_\alpha(\beta)) = S_d\left(\beta - \frac{2\langle \beta, d \rangle}{d^2} d\right) = \beta - \frac{2\langle \beta, d \rangle}{d^2} d + \frac{2\langle \beta, d \rangle}{d^2} d$

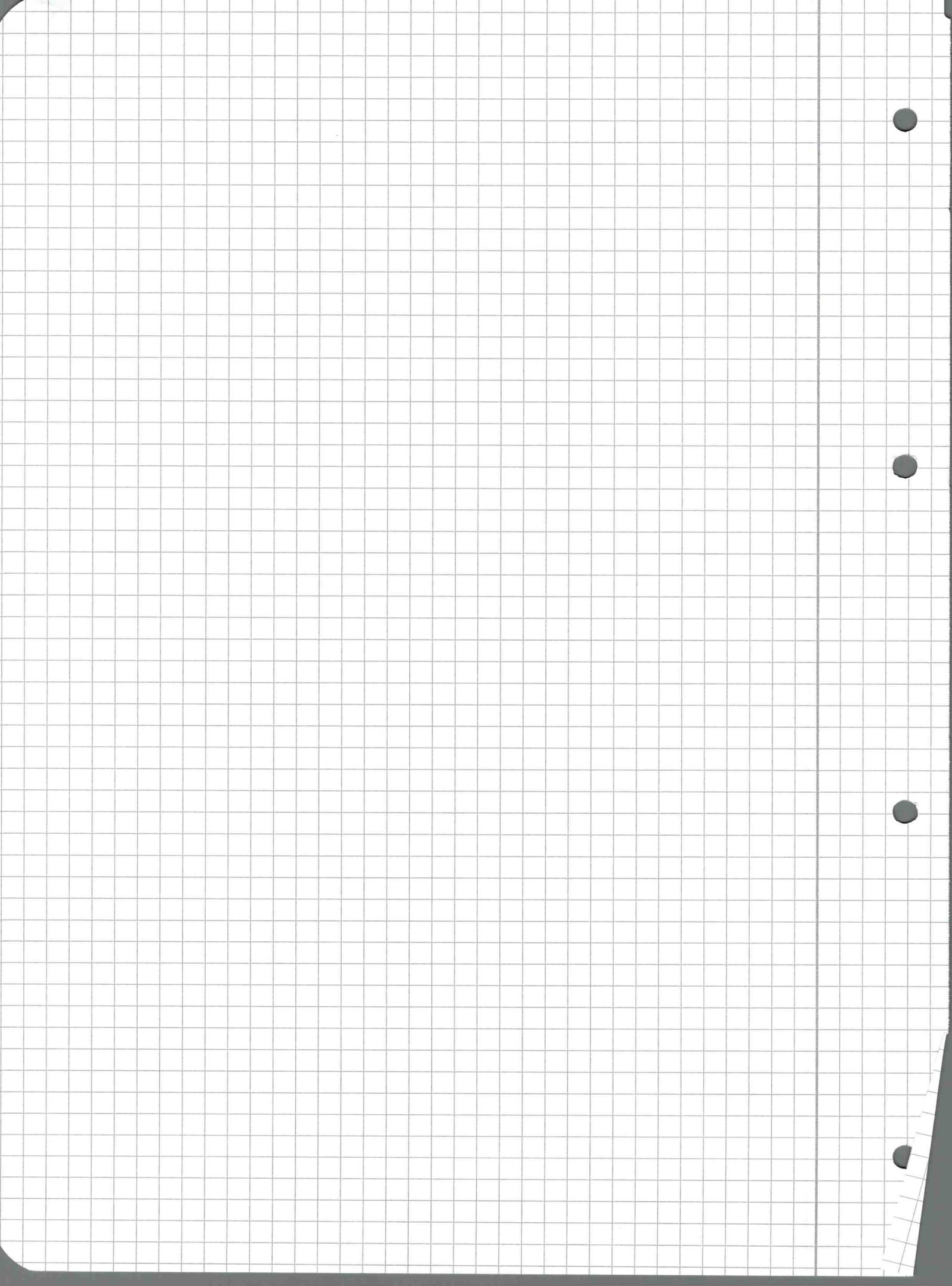
$S_d^2 = 1$

•) $\langle S_d(\beta), S_\alpha(\gamma) \rangle = \langle \beta, \gamma \rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} & \left\langle \beta - \frac{2\langle \beta, d \rangle}{d^2} d, \gamma - \frac{2\langle \gamma, \alpha \rangle}{\alpha^2} \alpha \right\rangle = \\ & = \langle \beta, \gamma \rangle - 2 \frac{\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle}{d^2} \langle \alpha, \gamma \rangle - \frac{2\langle \beta, d \rangle}{d^2} \langle \beta, d \rangle + \frac{4\langle \alpha, d \rangle \langle \beta, d \rangle}{d^4} \end{aligned}$$

Weyl group is a finite group generated by S_{α_i} where α_i are the simple roots

$S_{\alpha_i}(\alpha_i) = \alpha_i - A_{ij} \alpha_j$



Real Lie-algebras

91

Def: A Lie-algebra is called 'compact' if its Killing form is negative definite.

$$B(a_p, a_q) < 0 \quad \forall a_p, a_q \in \mathfrak{g}$$

example $su(2)$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad | \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad | \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

a_1 a_2 a_3

$$\text{tr} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \text{tr} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = -2 = B(a_1, a_1)$$

$$\text{tr} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \text{tr} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0 = B(a_1, a_2)$$

\vdots

$$\text{tr}(\text{ad} \circ \text{ad}) \quad B(a_p, a_q) = -2 \delta_{pq}$$

→ Now it is possible to go to a basis in which

$$B(a_p, a_q) = -\delta_{pq}$$

orthonormal basis

This has the important consequence that now the structure constants are totally anti-symmetric

Proof: $B([a_p, a_q] a_s) = -B(a_q [a_p, a_s])$

$$\text{Tr}(a_p a_q a_s - a_q a_p a_s) = \text{Tr}(a_q a_s a_p - a_q a_p a_s)$$

$$c_{pq}{}^r B(a_r a_s) = -c_{ps}{}^r B(a_q a_r) =$$

$$= -c_{pqs} = +c_{psq}$$

In the orthonormal basis the structure constants

- $c_{pqr} = -c_{qpr}$
- $c_{pqr} = -c_{prq}$

strictly speaking only in the orthonormal basis
of a compact Lie-algebra

(Physics $[t_a, t_b] = i f_{abc} t_c$

assume f_{abc} totally anti-symmetric
 t_a hermitian)

the adjoint representation is given by a set
of anti-symmetric matrices

$$\text{ad}(a_p)_{rs} = c_{rps} = -c_{rsp} = c_{srp} = -c_{spr}$$

Theorem (Weyl) A ^(semi-) simple Lie group is compact if
and only if its corresponding Lie-algebra
is compact

(Remember the Lie-algebra is always non-compact
as vector space \mathbb{R}^n)

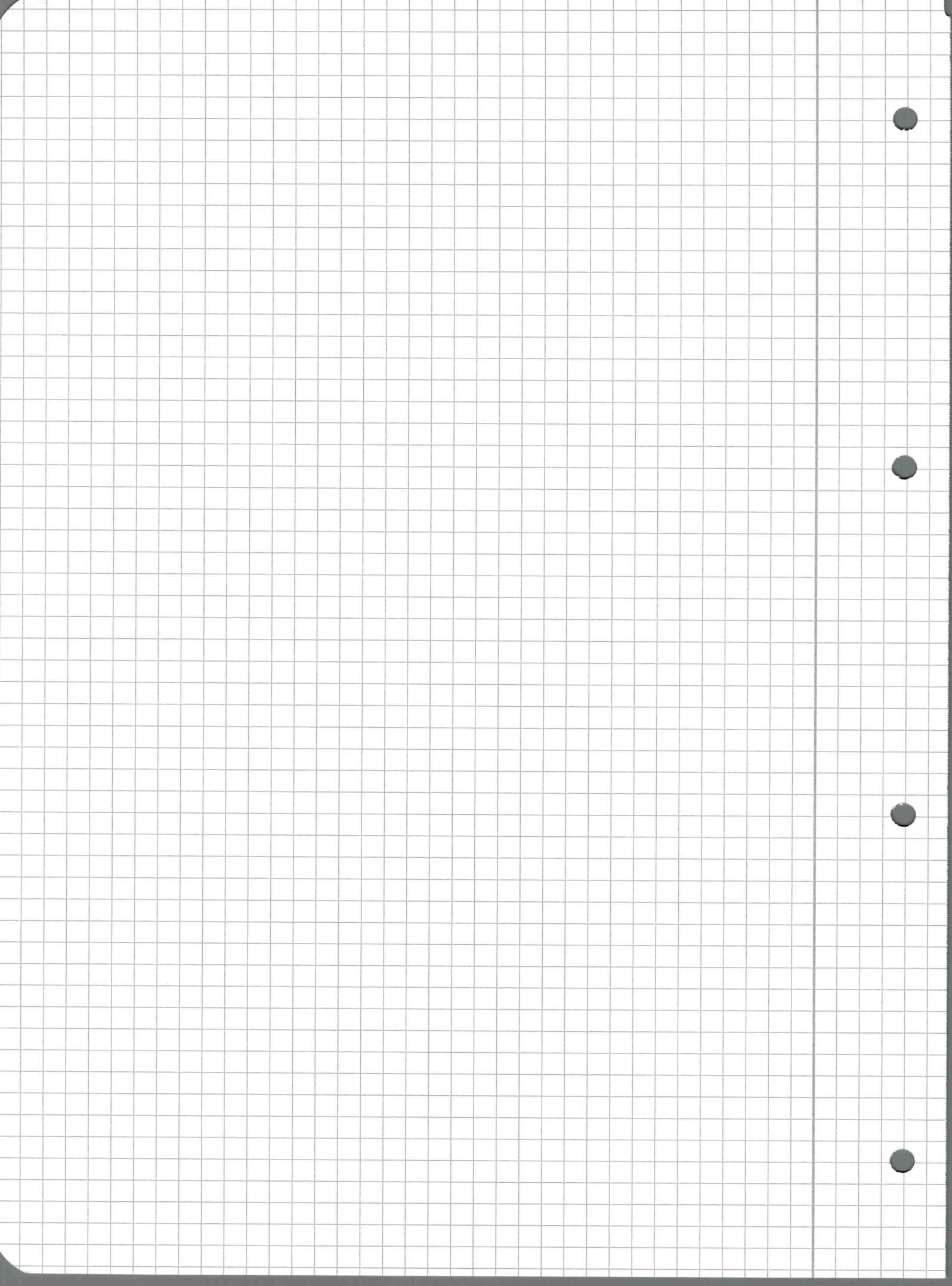
Sketch of proof: since the adjoint representation is given by anti-symmetric matrices it is a sub group of $SO(N) \rightarrow$ Lie algebra $\mathfrak{so}(N)$ (anti-symmetric = anti-hermitian) adjoint representation is faithful

Conversely: a compact Lie-group has unitary representations (all representations are equivalent to unitary ones)

$\mathfrak{g} \in \mathfrak{g}$ \mathfrak{g} is unitary matrix
 $\mathfrak{a} \in \mathfrak{X}_{\mathfrak{g}}$ is anti hermitian

Since \mathfrak{g} is (semi)-simple all $\mathfrak{a} \in \mathfrak{X}$ can be expressed as a commutator of two other elements of \mathfrak{L} . \Rightarrow $\text{ad}(\mathfrak{X})$ are traceless matrices traceless, anti hermitian matrices = subalgebra of $\mathfrak{su}(n)$, Killing form of $\mathfrak{su}(n)$ is negative definite (will be shown later)

Any two compact real forms of \mathfrak{L} are isomorphic
 "the (unique) compact real form of \mathfrak{L} ,"



Representations of (semi-) simple Lie-algebras

(95)

So far we have based our discussion on the adjoint representation.

Now we want to study the other representations.

Suppose \mathfrak{g} acts on a vector space V , $\psi \in V$

since $[H_i, H_j] = 0$ the H_i can be diagonalized simultaneously

$$\Rightarrow H_i \psi = \lambda_i \psi$$

$\lambda_i \dots$ are called weights

$$H_\alpha = \sum_i \frac{\vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{H}_i}{\alpha^2} \quad H_\alpha \psi = \lambda \frac{\langle \lambda, \alpha \rangle}{\alpha^2} \psi$$

Since $(H_\alpha, E_{\pm\alpha})$ form an $\mathfrak{su}(2)$ subalgebra it follows that

$$\lambda \frac{\langle \lambda, \alpha \rangle}{\alpha^2} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

in particular the smallest possible representation (non-trivial)

$$\text{is } \mathfrak{spin} \frac{1}{2} \quad (1, -1)$$

Definition Fundamental weight

Suppose $\vec{\alpha}_i$ are simple roots

the $\vec{\lambda}_j$ is called a fundamental weight if

$$\lambda \frac{\langle \vec{\alpha}_i, \vec{\alpha}_j \rangle}{\alpha_j^2} = \delta_{ij}$$

Let λ be a weight and $\lambda + \alpha d$ be in the d -string containing λ then there exist two ^{positive} integers p, q such that

$$\lambda + \frac{\alpha \cdot \lambda}{\alpha^2} = q - p$$

that $-q \leq h \leq p$

Definition "highest weight", suppose d_i are simple roots of a simple Lie algebra, λ is called a highest weight if $\lambda + d_j$ is not a weight

ψ_λ is the state corresponding to λ

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{E_{d_j} \psi_\lambda = 0} \quad \forall \text{ simple roots } d_j$$

highest weight state ψ_λ

Definition Dynkin label e^i

$$\lambda \frac{(\alpha_i^\vee, \lambda)}{\alpha_i^\vee} = e^i \quad (\text{integer})$$

In terms of fundamental weights

$$\lambda = \sum_{i=1}^r e^i \lambda(\alpha_i)$$

the weights of the adjoint representation are just the roots.

The rows in the Cartan matrix are the Dynkin coefficients of the simple roots.

$$H_{\alpha_1} = \frac{1}{2} \lambda_3 + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \lambda_8 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

~~Handwritten scribbles~~

$$H_{\alpha_2} = \frac{1}{2} \lambda_3 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \lambda_8 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

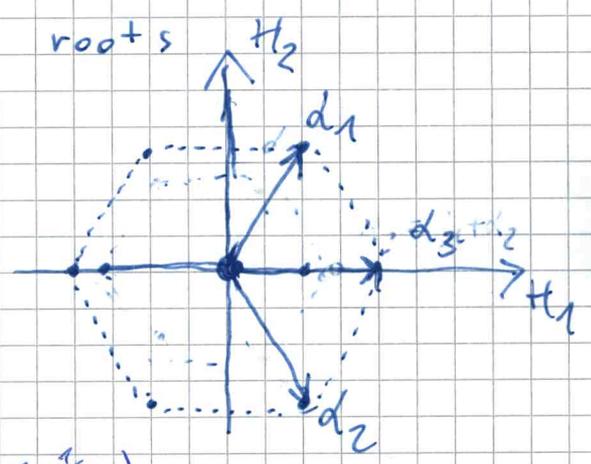
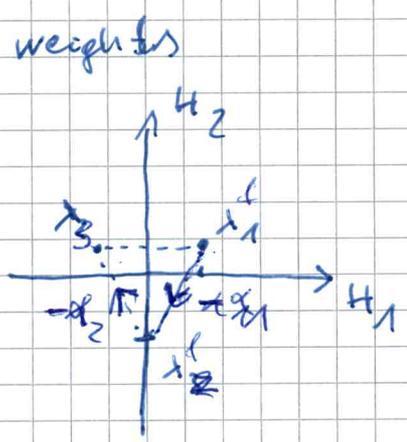
$$H_{\alpha_3} = \lambda_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$E_{\alpha_1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$E_{\alpha_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$E_{\alpha_3} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ highest weight $E_{\alpha_1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = E_{\alpha_2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = E_{\alpha_3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0$



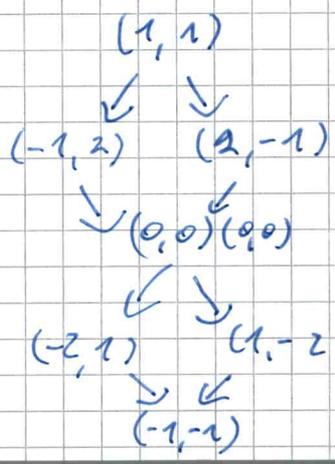
$$\lambda_1 = \left(1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right), \lambda_2 = \left(0, -\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}\right), \lambda_3 = \left(-1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)$$

root diagram:

eigenvalues under H_{α} 's

$$\alpha_1 = (\lambda_1, -1) \quad \alpha_2 = (-1, \lambda_2)$$

$$\alpha_3 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = (1, 1)$$



We can do the same for the representation

fundamental: $(1, 0)$ (Dynkin label)

$$-d_1 \downarrow \\ (-1, 1)$$

$$-d_2 \downarrow \\ (0, -1)$$

(anti-) fundamental $(0, 1)$

$$\downarrow \\ (1, -1)$$

$$\downarrow \\ (-1, 0)$$

Note: if λ is a weight of the fundamental $(1, 0)$ representation $-\lambda$ is a weight of the $(0, 1)$ representation

"Complex representation"

compact real form $t_p^{\mathbb{R}} = i a_p^{\mathbb{R}}$

$$[t_p, t_q] = i c_{pq} t_r$$

$$[t_p^*, t_q^*] = -i c_{pq} t_r^*$$

and $[-t_p^*, -t_q^*] = i c_{pq} (-t_r^*)$

$\Rightarrow -t_p^*$ is another representation of the compact real form

We know already that the trace of the generators in the adjoint representation vanishes.

Now the trace of the generators vanishes in all representations

Note: $(H_\alpha, E_{\pm\alpha})$ form a $su(2)$ subalgebra, but all representations of $su(2)$ are traceless since the spins run from j to $-j$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}([E_\alpha, E_{-\alpha}]) &= \text{tr}([E_{-\alpha}, E_\alpha]) = \text{tr}(H_\alpha) = 0 \\ \text{tr}([H_\alpha, E_{\pm\alpha}]) &= \pm 2E_{\pm\alpha} \Rightarrow \text{tr}(E_{\pm\alpha}) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Example $SU(3) = A_2$

$su(3)$: traceless, (anti-)hermitian matrices

generated by the Gell-Mann matrices

$$\lambda_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \lambda_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \lambda_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \lambda_5 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \lambda_6 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_7 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & i & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \lambda_8 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} \text{In physics } T_a = \frac{1}{2} \lambda_a \\ \\ \text{tr}(T_a, T_b) = \frac{1}{2} \delta_{ab} \\ \\ S = \frac{1}{2} \int \text{tr}(F_{\mu\nu}^a F^{a\mu\nu}) \end{array} \right)$$

orthonormal

Cartan-generators λ_3 and λ_8

$$H_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \lambda_3 \quad H_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \lambda_8$$

Eigen system

$$H_1: \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right\}, \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right\}$$

$$H_2: \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \right\}, \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \right\}; \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \right\}$$

$$\lambda_1 = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \right); \quad \lambda_2 = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \right); \quad \lambda_3 = \left(0, -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \right)$$

$$\lambda_\emptyset = \lambda_1 - d_1 \quad d_\emptyset = \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 = (\sqrt{2}, 0)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{E_{-d_1}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$E_{-\lambda_1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$E_{\lambda_2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{H}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$[\tilde{H}_1, E_1] = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = 2E_1$$

$$\lambda_1 - \lambda_3 = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \right) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$\lambda_2 - \lambda_3 = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

positive roots

$$\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}} \right), \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}} \right), \left(\sqrt{2}, 0 \right)$$

d_1

d_2

d_3

$$d_1 + d_2 = d_3$$

$$d_1 - d_2 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{3}{2} = -1$$

$$d_1^2 = d_2^2 = d_3^2 = 2$$

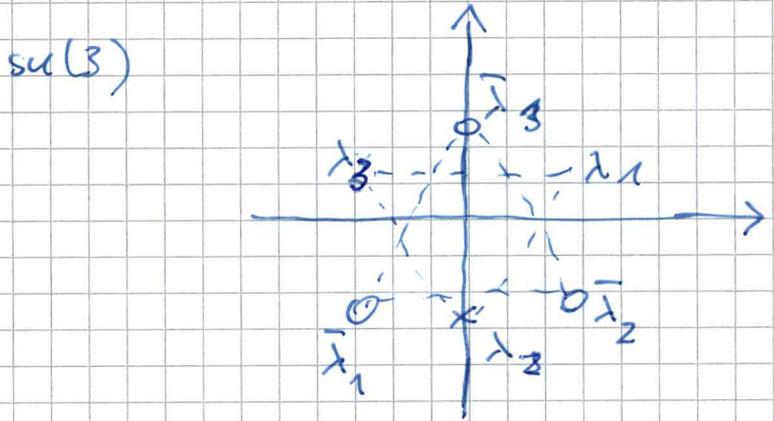
$$\frac{d_1 - d_2}{d_1^2} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

Since the Cartan-generators are diagonal and real (even hermitian) it follows that

if $H_i \psi = \lambda_i \psi$

$-H_i \psi^* = (-\lambda_i) \psi^* \quad H_i^* = H_i$

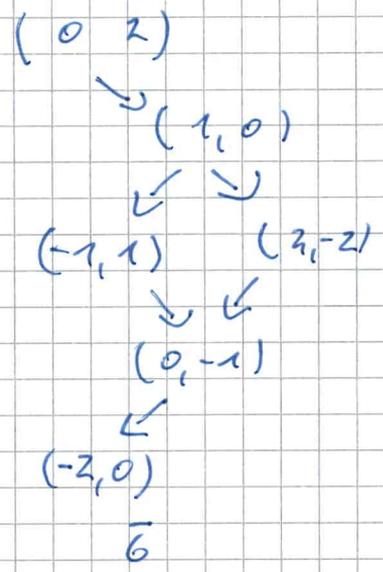
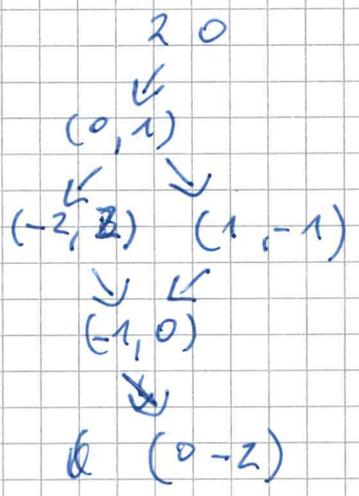
\Rightarrow if λ is a weight of the representation R
 $-\lambda$ is a weight of the representation R^*



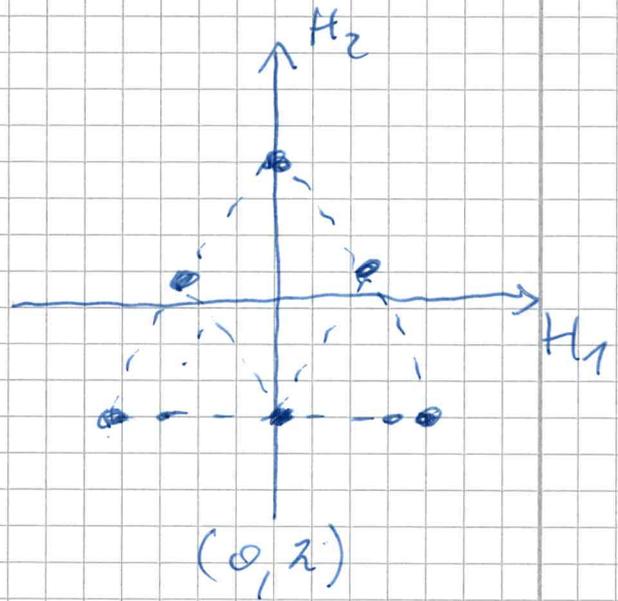
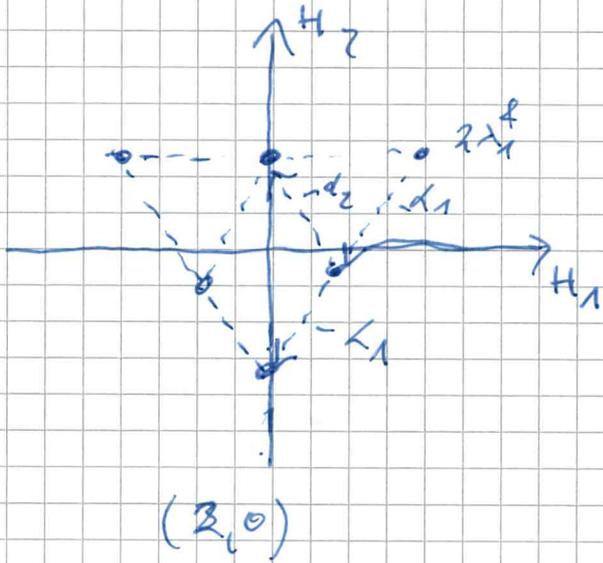
Note: the adjoint representation is "real": it always contains the positive and negative roots.

All representations of the form (n, n) are real (for $Su(3)$)

Some other representations



Weight diagrams



Problem $(3,0)$ representation = Decuplet

find an application in particle physics

The correspondence of the classical groups
to the Dynkin diagrams

SU(N) group $g \in \mathbb{R}$ $\det g = 1 \Rightarrow \text{tr } a = 0$; $a^\dagger = -a$

defining properties: $N \times N$ anti-hermitian ^{traceless} matrices

Basis of matrices e.g. $(e_{lm})_{ij} = (\delta_{ei} \delta_{lj} - \delta_{ej} \delta_{li})$; $l \neq m$
diagonal $(\hat{e}_{lm})_{ij} = i(\delta_{ei} \delta_{mj} - \delta_{ej} \delta_{mi})$

$$H_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1, -1, 0, \dots, 0)$$

$$H_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} (1, 1, -2, \dots, 0)$$

$$H_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{12}} (1, 1, 1, -3, 0, \dots, 0)$$

⋮

$$H_{N-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N(N-1)}} (1, 1, \dots, -N+1)$$

$\text{tr}(H_i H_j) = \delta_{ij}$ orthonormal basis

eigen vectors $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$w^{(1)} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{12}}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{N(N-1)}} \right) \quad (N-1)\text{-vector}$$

$$w^{(2)} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{12}}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{N(N-1)}} \right)$$

$$w^{(3)} = \left(0, -\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{12}}, \dots, \frac{1}{\sqrt{N(N-1)}} \right)$$

$$w^{(N-1)} = \left(0, \dots, \dots, \frac{-N+1}{\sqrt{N(N-1)}} \right)$$

In total these are $\frac{1}{2} N(N-1) + \frac{1}{2} N(N+1) - N + N - 1 = \underline{N^2 - 1}$
matrices. $N \times N - 1$ constraint $\text{tr}(a) = 0$

In all star normalization the length of the weight vectors is

$$\omega^{(i)} \cdot \omega^{(i)} = \frac{N-1}{N} \text{ each}$$

easy: $\omega^{(N)} \cdot \omega^{(N)} = \frac{N-1}{N}$

sum: $\sum_{n=1}^{N-1} = \frac{N-1}{N}$

Proof: induction $N \rightarrow N+1$ $\frac{N-1}{N} + \frac{1}{N(N+1)} = \frac{N}{N+1}$ ✓

roots $\omega^i - \omega^{i+1} = d^{(i)}$

~~$$d^{(N-1)} = \omega^{N-1} - \omega^0 = \omega^{N-1} - 1$$~~

$$d^{(1)} = (\sqrt{2}, 0, 0, 0, \dots)$$

$$d^{(2)} = \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, \dots, 0\right)$$

etc...

} we can declare them to be positive if we count from behind

$$d^{(1)} \cdot d^{(1)} = 2 \quad ; \quad d^{(2)} \cdot d^{(2)} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2} = 2$$

$$d^{(1)} \cdot d^{(2)} = -1$$

What is this in general?

$$\omega^{(N)} = \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{-N+1}{\sqrt{N(N-1)}} \right)$$

$$\omega^{(N-1)} = \left(0, \dots, 0, \frac{-N+2}{\sqrt{(N-1)(N-2)}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{N(N-1)}} \right)$$

$$\alpha^{(N-1)} = \left(\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{N-2}, \frac{-\sqrt{N-2}}{\sqrt{N-1}}, \frac{+\sqrt{N}}{\sqrt{N(N-1)}} \right) \quad \text{"last root"}$$

$$\alpha^{(N-1)2} = \frac{N-2}{N-1} + \frac{N}{N-1} = \frac{2(N-1)}{N-1} = 2$$

In general:

$$\omega^{(i)} = \left(\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{i-2}, \frac{-\sqrt{i-1}}{\sqrt{i}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{i(i+1)}}, \dots \right)$$

$$\omega^{(i+1)} = \left(\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{i-1}, \frac{-\sqrt{i}}{\sqrt{i+1}}, \dots \right)$$

$$\alpha^{(i)} = \left(\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{i-2}, -\frac{\sqrt{i-1}}{\sqrt{i}}, \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{i(i+1)}}, \dots \right) =$$

$$\alpha^{(i)} = \left(\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{i-2}, -\frac{\sqrt{i-1}}{\sqrt{i}}, \frac{\sqrt{i+1}}{\sqrt{i}}, 0, \dots \right)$$

$$\alpha^{(i)2} = \frac{i-1}{i} + \frac{i+1}{i} = 2$$

$$\alpha^{(i)} \cdot \alpha^{(j)} = 0 \quad |i-j| \geq 1$$

$$\alpha^{(i)} \cdot \alpha^{(i+1)} = -\frac{\sqrt{i}}{\sqrt{i+1}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{i+1}}{\sqrt{i}} = -1 \quad \checkmark$$

⇒ Cartan-matrix for $su(N)$: A_{N-1}



$$A_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & & & \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & & \\ & -1 & 2 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The Dynkin diagrams A_{N-1} corresponds to $su(N)$

$so(2n)$: group $O^T = -O \Rightarrow a^T = -a$

how many matrices are there $\frac{1}{2} (2n)(2n-1) = n(2n-1)$

Cartan basis $\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_z & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_z \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_x & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sigma_z \end{pmatrix}$

block of 2×2 matrices $\sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Eigenvectors of σ_z are

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \pm i \end{pmatrix} = \pm 1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \pm i \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(H_{ms})_{j\ell} = -i (\delta_{j, 2m-1} \delta_{\ell, 2m} - \delta_{j, 2m} \delta_{\ell, 2m-1})$$

$$\left(\pm e^{\frac{\sigma_z}{2}} \right)_j = \delta_{j, 2m-1} \pm i \delta_{j, 2m}$$

2 -th pair of eigen vectors

m, k run from $1 \dots n$; j, ℓ run from $1 \dots 2n$

Remark on Chevalley basis

eg. $SU(3)$

$$H_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & -1 & \\ & & 0 \end{pmatrix} ; H_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

but now: $\text{tr}(H_i H_j) \neq \delta_{ij} = g_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

so in order to define an inner product on root (weight) space we need the inverse metric

$$[H_i, E_\alpha] = \alpha_i E_\alpha \quad \text{"lower" index}$$

$\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = ?$ need to define $\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \alpha_i (g^{-1})^{ij} \beta_j$

$$g^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

weights are $\left. \begin{array}{l} \omega^{(1)} = (1, 0) \\ \omega^{(2)} = (-1, 1) \\ \omega^{(3)} = (0, -1) \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \alpha^1 = \omega^1 - \omega^2 = (2, -1) \\ \alpha^2 = \omega^2 - \omega^3 = (-1, 2) \end{array}$

$$(\alpha^1)^2 = (2, -1) \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} (3, 0) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \underline{\underline{2}}$$

$$(\alpha^1, \alpha^2) = (2, -1) \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} (3, 0) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = -1$$

It is also possible to embed the root system in the space of 1 higher dimension

$$\alpha^1 = \hat{e}^1 - \hat{e}^2$$

$$(\hat{e}^i, \hat{e}^j) = \delta^{ij}$$

$$\alpha^2 = \hat{e}^2 - \hat{e}^3$$

$$(\alpha^i)^2 = 2 ; (\alpha^i, \alpha^j) = -1$$

\vdots

all these are orthogonal to the vector $\sum_{i=1}^N \hat{e}^{(i)}$

\Rightarrow roots lie in the hyperplane orthogonal
to $\sum_{i=1}^n e^{(i)}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (H_m)_{ij} (\pm e^k)_j &= \pm i (\delta_{i, 2m-1} \delta_{j, 2m} - \delta_{i, 2m} \delta_{j, 2m-1}) (\delta_{j, 2k-1} \pm i \delta_{j, 2k}) \\
 &= \pm i (\delta_{i, 2m-1} \delta_{2m, 2k-1} - \delta_{i, 2m} \delta_{2m-1, 2k} \pm i \delta_{i, 2m-1} \delta_{2k, m} \\
 &\quad \mp i \delta_{i, 2m} \delta_{2m-1, 2k})
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \delta_{2m, 2k-1} &= 0 \quad (\text{even} - \text{odd}) \\
 &= \pm (\delta_{2k, m} \delta_{i, 2m-1} + i \delta_{2k, m} \delta_{i, 2m}) = \\
 &= \pm \delta_{2k, m} (e^k)_i
 \end{aligned}$$

⇒ the weight vectors are $w_{\pm}^k = \pm \delta_{2k, m}$

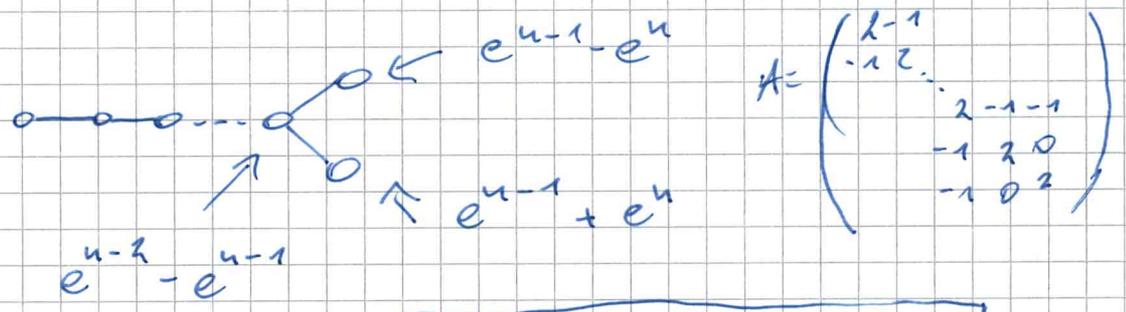
roots: $w_{\pm}^k - w_{\pm}^l \quad k \neq l$
 $w_{\pm}^k + w_{\pm}^l \quad \text{etc.}$

denote by e^j a unit vector in n -dimension
 weights $\pm e^j \quad j = 1..n \quad (2m)$

roots $\pm e^j \pm e^k \quad j \neq k$

positive roots $e^j \pm e^k \quad j < k$

simple roots $e^j - e^{j+1} \quad j = 1..n-1$
 $e^{n-1} + e^n$



The Dynkin diagram D_n corresponds to the $SO(2n)$ group.

$SO(2n+1)$ rotations in odd dimensions

$$\begin{pmatrix} \theta_2 & & & \\ & \theta_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \theta_2 \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & & & & \\ \theta_2 & & & & \\ & \theta_2 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & \theta_2 & \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} \theta_2 & & & & \\ & \theta_2 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & \theta_2 & \\ & & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

\Rightarrow weights are $\pm e^{\lambda_k}$ $k=1..n$
and an additional zero weight!

roots: $\pm e^{\lambda_k} \pm e^{\lambda_l}$ as before
but also $\pm e^{\lambda_k}$ because of the zero weight
weight

simple roots $e^{\lambda_j} - e^{\lambda_{j+1}}$ $j=1..n-1$
and e^{λ_n}

this gives the Dynkin diagram

$$\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ e^{\lambda_1} & - & e^{\lambda_2} & - & e^{\lambda_n} \end{matrix}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & & & \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & & \\ & -1 & \ddots & & \\ & & & 2 & -1 \\ & & & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|e^{\lambda_n}| = 1$$

"short root"

Symplectic groups

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \mathbb{1}_n \\ -\mathbb{1}_n & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$g^T J g = J$$

$$USp(2n): \quad g^{\dagger} = \bar{g}^{-1}$$

on the level of Lie-algebra

$$g = 1 + a$$

$$(1 + a^T) J (1 + a) = J$$

$$\boxed{a^T J + J a = 0}$$

and for $USp(2n)$ $a^{\dagger} = -a$ antihermitian

$$a = \begin{pmatrix} P & W \\ -W^{\dagger} & Q \end{pmatrix} \quad P^{\dagger} = -P; \quad Q^{\dagger} = -Q$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} P^T & -W^* \\ W^{\dagger} & Q^T \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} P & W \\ -W^{\dagger} & Q \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} +W^* & P^T \\ -Q^T & W^T \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} W^{\dagger} & -Q^T \\ +P & W \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow W = W^T \quad P^T = -Q$$

$$\frac{n}{2}(n+1) + \frac{n^2}{2} = \left(n^2 + \frac{n}{2}\right) \text{ complex parameters}$$

\Rightarrow in total $n(2n+1)$ parameters

the algebra is generated by

$$A \otimes \mathbb{1}_2, \quad iS_1 \otimes \sigma_1, \quad iS_2 \otimes \sigma_2, \quad iS_3 \otimes \sigma_3$$

A - antisymmetric, $S_{1,2,3}$ real symmetric

parameters $\frac{n}{2}(u-1) + 3\frac{u}{2}(u+1) =$
 $= \frac{u^2}{2} - \frac{u}{2} + \frac{3u^2}{2} + \frac{3u}{2} = u(2u+1) \checkmark$

Check that these indeed generate a ~~group~~ algebra \leftarrow

In 2×2 block notation

$$\begin{pmatrix} A + iS_3 & iS_1 + S_2 \\ iS_1 - S_2 & A - iS_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Cartan - subalgebra: diagonal $\begin{pmatrix} u & 0 \\ 0 & -u^T \end{pmatrix}$

u is a $u(n)$ matrix! (not $su(n)$!)

So the Cartan subalgebra is

$$\left(\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \dots \\ \hline & -1 \\ \hline & 0 \dots \end{array} \right) \quad \left(\begin{array}{c|c} 0 & 1 \dots \\ \hline & 0 \\ \hline 0 & -1 \dots \end{array} \right) \quad , \quad \text{etc.} \dots$$

weights: $\omega^{(u)} = (1, 0, 0, \dots)$

$\omega^{(u^T)} = (-1, 0, \dots, 0)$

$\omega^{(2u)} = (2, \dots, -1, \dots)$

In weights in n -dimensional space

Note: $\text{tr}(H_i H_j) = \delta_{ij}$ already in the complex basis

roots: $e^{\lambda_i} - e^{\lambda_{i+1}}$ $i = 1 \dots n-1$ like $su(n)$

and $e^{\lambda_{(n)}} - e^{\lambda_{(n+1)}} = 2e^{\lambda^1}, 2e^{\lambda^2}, \dots$

\Rightarrow n -simple roots are $e^{\lambda_i} - e^{\lambda_{i+1}}$ $i = 1 \dots n-1$
 $2e^{\lambda^n}$

note: $(e^{\lambda_i} - e^{\lambda_{i+1}})^2 = 2$ \leftarrow short roots
 $(2e^{\lambda^n})^2 = 4$ \leftarrow long root

Dynkin diagram $\circ - \circ - \circ \dots - \circ \rightleftarrows \circ$

Cartan matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & & & & \\ -1 & 2 & & & & \\ & & \ddots & & & \\ & & & 2 & -2 & \\ & & & -1 & 2 & \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow C_n$

The Dynkin diagram C_n correspond to the $USp(2n)$ groups

Classical groups as "rotations"

Obviously: $SO(2n)$ and $SO(2n+1)$ preserve the real norm $v \cdot w$ of two vectors in a real vector space

Similarly: Let w_i, z_i be complex vectors and take the norm $\bar{w}_i \cdot z_i$ that is obviously preserved by unitary transformations

$$\bar{w}^T z \rightarrow \bar{w}^T U^T U z \Rightarrow U^T U = \mathbb{1}$$

So what about $USp(2n)$?

real \rightarrow complex \rightarrow quaternions

$$j_a : j_a j_b = -\delta_{ab} + i \epsilon_{abc} j_c$$

$$Q = A + \vec{B} \cdot \vec{j} \quad \text{"quaternion"}$$

obviously: $j_a = i \sigma_a$

quaternionic vectors: vector of 2×2 matrices

$$Q^i = A \mathbb{1}_2 + i B_a \sigma_a \quad i = 1..n$$

$$\bar{Q} = A \mathbb{1}_2 - i B_a \sigma_a$$

$$\bar{Q} Q = (A - i B_a \sigma_a) (A + i B_b \sigma_b) =$$

$$= A^2 - i B_a \sigma_a A + i A B_b \sigma_b + B_a B_b (\sigma_a \sigma_b + i \epsilon_{abc} \sigma_c)$$

$$= A^2 + (B^1)^2 + (B^2)^2 + (B^3)^2$$

$USp(2n)$ preserves $\bar{Q}^i Q^i$ = rotation in a quaternionic vector space.

Lie-algebra so(1,3)

$$g = e^{i\alpha M} \quad g^T \eta g = \eta$$

$$\Rightarrow i\alpha M^T \eta - i\alpha \eta M = 0$$

... $M^T \eta = \eta M$

$\Rightarrow \eta M$ has to be antisymmetric

if A is antisymmetric then $M = \eta A$ is a generator of the Lorentz group

$$(A^{\mu\nu})_{\rho\sigma} = \delta_{\rho}^{\mu} \delta_{\sigma}^{\nu} - \delta_{\sigma}^{\mu} \delta_{\rho}^{\nu}$$

here $\mu\nu \dots$ number the generators
 $\rho\sigma \dots$ are the metric indices

$$(M^{\mu\nu})_{\rho\sigma} = \eta^{\rho\lambda} A_{\lambda\sigma} = \eta^{\rho\mu} \delta_{\sigma}^{\nu} - \eta^{\rho\nu} \delta_{\sigma}^{\mu}$$

$$[M^{\mu\nu}, M^{\lambda\kappa}] = (\eta^{\mu\rho} \delta_{\sigma}^{\nu} - \eta^{\nu\rho} \delta_{\sigma}^{\mu})(\eta^{\lambda\sigma} \delta_{\alpha}^{\kappa} - \eta^{\kappa\sigma} \delta_{\alpha}^{\lambda}) - (\mu\nu \leftrightarrow \lambda\kappa)$$

$$= \eta^{\mu\rho} \eta^{\nu\lambda} \delta_{\alpha}^{\kappa} - \eta^{\mu\rho} \eta^{\nu\kappa} \delta_{\alpha}^{\lambda} - \eta^{\nu\rho} \eta^{\lambda\kappa} \delta_{\alpha}^{\mu} + \eta^{\nu\rho} \eta^{\lambda\mu} \delta_{\alpha}^{\kappa} - (\dots)$$

$$[M^{\mu\nu}, M^{\lambda\kappa}] = \eta^{\nu\lambda} M^{\mu\kappa} - \eta^{\nu\kappa} M^{\mu\lambda} - \eta^{\mu\lambda} M^{\nu\kappa} + \eta^{\mu\kappa} M^{\nu\lambda}$$

a better way of organizing is

$$K^i = M^{0i} \quad J^i = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^{ijk} M^{jk}$$

$$[K_i, K_j] = -i \epsilon_{ijk} J_k$$

$$[J_i, J_j] = i \epsilon_{ijk} J_k$$

$$[J_i, K_j] = i \epsilon_{ijk} K_k$$

→ two boosts commute into a rotation

(Physical effect: Thomas precession)

→ boost lies in Spin 1 representation

→ J_i ... generate an $SO(3)$ subgroup

In the complexified algebra define

$$A_i^\pm = J_i \pm i K_i$$

$$\text{then } [A_i^\pm, A_j^\pm] = i \epsilon_{ijk} A_k^\pm \quad [A_i^+, A_j^-] = 0$$

$$so(1,3)^\mathbb{C} \cong su(2) \otimes su(2)$$

representations are labelled by two copies of spins $(j, m; j', m')$

List the representations

$$\bullet) j = j' = 0 \quad \text{trivial} \quad \vec{J} = 0 \quad \vec{K} = 0$$

scalar field $\phi(t, x)$

this does not mean that the Lorentz group does not act on ϕ it only means that

$$\phi'(x') = \phi(x)$$

$$\phi'(x) = \phi(\bar{\Lambda}^1 x)$$

$$\circ) \quad \vec{j} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \vec{j}' = 0 \quad \left(\frac{1}{2}, 0\right)$$

$$A_i^+ = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_i \quad A^- = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{2} (j_i + i k_i) = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_i \quad j_i - i k_i = 0$$

$$j_i = i k_i$$

$$\Rightarrow j_i = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_i \quad k_i = \frac{1}{2} \sigma_i$$

$$\text{group element } g_1 = e^{i(\vec{\varphi} \cdot \sigma_i) + \Theta \cdot \sigma_i} = e^{i(\vec{\varphi} - i\vec{\Theta}) \cdot \frac{\sigma}{2}}$$

$\vec{\varphi}$ -- rotation

$\vec{\Theta}$ -- boost

"left handed" spinor

$$\circ) \quad \vec{j} = 0; \quad \vec{j}' = \frac{1}{2} \quad \left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

$$\text{by the same logic} \quad g_2 = e^{i(\vec{\varphi} + i\vec{\Theta}) \cdot \frac{\sigma}{2}}$$

$$g_2 = (g_1^{-1})^+$$

right-handed spinor

< inverse conjugate repr.

Parity: $\vec{x} \rightarrow -\vec{x} \Rightarrow \vec{K} \rightarrow -\vec{K}$
 So parity exchanges right- and left handed spinors.

In physics a field theory with an asymmetry between left- and right handed spinors violates parity

define 1-form $\Phi^\alpha \psi_\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$

$$\Phi^\alpha (g^{-1})^\alpha{}_\beta \psi_\alpha = \Phi^\beta \psi_\beta =$$

$$\Phi^\beta \text{ transforms as } (g^{-1})^T$$

~~ψ_α~~

4 objects ψ_α ; $\bar{\psi}^{\dot{\alpha}}$, ϕ^α , $\phi_{\dot{\alpha}}$

convention $\psi_\alpha \phi^\alpha$, $\bar{\psi}^{\dot{\alpha}} \bar{\phi}_{\dot{\alpha}}$

$$\phi^\alpha = \epsilon^{\alpha\beta} \phi_\beta$$

$$\bar{\phi}_{\dot{\alpha}} = \epsilon_{\dot{\alpha}\dot{\beta}} \bar{\psi}^{\dot{\beta}}$$

here \rightarrow insert van de Waerden notation

\vdots from SUSY-lectures

Then spinors in arbitrary dimensions