

Recall orthogonality relation for matrix elements of UIR:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{g \in G} D_{\mu\nu}^i(g) D_{\rho\sigma}^{j*}(g) = \frac{1}{d_i} \delta_{ij} \delta_{\mu\rho} \delta_{\nu\sigma}$$

Recall Peter-Weyl-Theorem: $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

$$\begin{aligned} f(g) &= \sum_{\text{all UIR } i} d_i \sum_{\mu, \nu=1}^{d_i} \tilde{f}_{\nu\mu}^i D_{\mu\nu}^i(g) \\ \tilde{f}_{\nu\mu}^i &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{g \in G} f(g) (D_{\mu\nu}^i(g))^* \end{aligned}$$

For Abelian groups all UIR are 1-dimensional, i.e. D^i is a complex number and $d_i = 1$.
Peter-Weyl-Theorem for Abelian groups:

$$\begin{aligned} f(g) &= \sum_{\text{all UIR } i} \tilde{f}^i D^i(g) \\ \tilde{f}^i &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{g \in G} f(g) (D^i(g))^* \end{aligned}$$

Example: $Z_2 = \{-1, +1\}$, or $g = \sigma = \pm 1$. 2 classes \Rightarrow 2 UIR: $D^0(g) = 1$ and $D^1(g) = \sigma$.
Let $f(g) := f_\sigma$ with $f_\sigma \in \mathbb{C}$.

$$f(g) = \tilde{f}^0 + \tilde{f}^1 \sigma \quad \text{where} \quad \tilde{f}^0 = \frac{1}{2} (f_+ + f_-), \quad \tilde{f}^1 = \frac{1}{2} (f_+ - f_-)$$

Check: $f(g) = \frac{1}{2} (f_+ + f_-) + \frac{\sigma}{2} (f_+ - f_-)$

2.7.3 Characters of representations

Definition: The function

$$\chi^j : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ g \mapsto \chi^j(g) := \text{Tr } D^j(g)$$

is called *Character* of representation D^j with finite dimension d_j .

Comments:

- Equivalent reps have the same character as $\text{Tr } S^{-1} D(g) S = \text{Tr } D(g)$.
- Characters are *class functions* (functions on classes of a group) as for g_1 and g_2 being within same class exists a $g \in G$ with $g_1 = gg_2g^{-1}$. Hence $\chi^j(g_1) = \chi^j(gg_2g^{-1}) = \chi^j(g_2)$, that is, is constant within the class.
- Characters of UIR are orthogonal

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{g \in G} \chi^i(g) \chi^{j*}(g) = \delta_{ij}$$

That is, $\{\chi^i\}$ is complete orthogonal set for class functions. Recall orthogonality relation above. (Proof as little Exercise)

- UIR are uniquely characterised by the characters. Consider fully reducible reps $D(g) = \bigoplus_j c_j D^j(g)$ with D^i UIR, then $\chi(g) = \sum_j c_j \chi^j(g)$ with

$$c_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{g \in G} \chi(g) \chi^{j*}(g)$$

The decomposition of D into UIR is unique!

Example: Let us consider the regular representation

$$g_\mu g_\nu =: \sum_{\rho=1}^n D_{\rho\nu}^{\text{reg}}(g_\mu) g_\rho$$

which is fully reducible and n -dimensional. Then, $\chi^{\text{reg}}(e) = n$ and $\chi^{\text{reg}}(g) = 0$ for all $g \neq e$. That is,

$$c_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_g \chi^{\text{reg}}(g) \chi^{j*}(g) = \frac{1}{n} n \chi^{j*}(e) = d_j$$

for all UIR j . Hence, all UIR of a finite group have multiplicity d_j (their dimension) in the regular representation. That is,

$$\chi^{\text{reg}}(g) = \sum_{\text{all UIR}} d_j \chi^j(g)$$

In above let $g = e$, then

$$\chi^{\text{reg}}(e) = n = \sum_{\text{all UIR}} d_j \chi^j(e) = \sum_{\text{all UIR}} d_j^2$$

which proves the theorem of Burnside.

The problem of finding all UIR is equivalent to the full reduction of the regular representation.

Theorem: The number of inequivalent UIR of a finite group is identical to the number of classes.

Proof: Consider arbitrary class function $f(g) = f(g_0^{-1} g g_0)$ for all $g, g_0 \in G$. From Peter-Weyl theorem follows

$$f(g) = \sum_j d_j \sum_{\mu\nu} \tilde{f}_{\nu\mu}^j D_{\mu\nu}^j(g_0^{-1} g g_0)$$

Now take group average over g_0

$$\begin{aligned} f(g) &= \sum_j d_j \sum_{\mu\nu} \tilde{f}_{\nu\mu}^j \frac{1}{n} \sum_{g_0} \sum_{\alpha\beta} D_{\mu\alpha}^j(g_0^{-1}) D_{\alpha\beta}^j(g) D_{\beta\nu}^j(g_0) \\ &\quad \text{use } \frac{1}{n} \sum_{g_0} D_{\mu\alpha}^j(g_0^{-1}) D_{\beta\nu}^j(g_0) = \delta_{\mu\nu} \delta_{\alpha\beta} \\ &= \sum_j d_j \sum_{\mu\nu} \tilde{f}_{\nu\mu}^j \sum_{\alpha\beta} \frac{1}{d_j} \delta_{\mu\nu} \delta_{\alpha\beta} D_{\alpha\beta}^j(g) \\ &= \sum_j \sum_{\mu} \tilde{f}_{\mu\mu}^j \sum_{\alpha} D_{\alpha\alpha}^j(g) \\ &= \sum_j \text{Tr}(\tilde{f}^j) \chi^j(g) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{with } \text{Tr}(\tilde{f}^j) := \sum_{\mu} \tilde{f}_{\mu\mu}^j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{g \in G} f(g) \chi^j(g^{-1})$$

Peter-Weyl theorem for class functions $f(g) = f(g_0^{-1} g g_0)$:

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} f(g) &= \sum_{\text{all UIR } i} a_i \chi^i(g) \\ a_i &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{g \in G} f(g) \chi^{i*}(g) \end{aligned}}$$

$\Rightarrow \{\chi^j(g)\}$ is a complete orthonormal set for class functions, which are constant on a class
 $\Rightarrow \vec{f} = (f(g_1), f(g_2), \dots, f(g_k))$, $g_i \in K_i$ (i -th class), $i = 1, 2, \dots, k = \#$ of classes of G ,
 \vec{f} is an element of a k -dimensional vector space $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathbb{C}^n$, $k \leq n$
 \Rightarrow there exist exact k UIR for a finite group.

Character tables: Are used for finite groups of low order to classify their UIR

G	$g_1 = e$	$g_2 \in K_2$	\dots	$g_k \in K_k$	
D^0	1	1	\dots	1	trivial reps
\vdots					
D^i	d_i	$\chi^i(g_2)$		$\chi^i(g_k)$	i -th reps

Construction:

- # of UIR = # classes \Rightarrow quadratic table
- Burnside: $\sum_i d_i^2 = n = \text{ord } G$
- $\sum_{g \in G} \chi^i(g) \chi^{j*}(g) = \sum_{\ell=1}^k m_\ell \chi^i(g_\ell) \chi^{j*}(g_\ell) = n \delta_{ij}$,
 where $g_\ell \in K_\ell$ and $m_\ell = \#$ of elements in class K_ℓ .
 \Rightarrow sum rule for each row i

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^k m_\ell |\chi^i(g_\ell)|^2 = n$$

Example: $C_3 = \{e, d, d^2\}$ has 3 classes, abelian, $n = 3$ and $d^3 = e \Rightarrow [\chi^i(d)]^3 = 1$
 $\Rightarrow \chi^i(d) \in \{1, e^{2\pi i/3}, e^{4\pi i/3}\}$

C_3	e	d	d^2
D^0	1	1	1
D^1	1	$e^{2\pi i/3}$	$e^{4\pi i/3}$
D^2	1	$e^{4\pi i/3}$	$e^{2\pi i/3}$

Projection Operators: Let G be a finite group, D a unitary fully reducible reps in some vector space V , χ^j the character of the UIR labeled with j and dimension d_j .

Theorem: The operator

$$\mathbb{E}^j := \frac{d_j}{n} \sum_{g \in G} \chi^{j*}(g) D(g)$$

fulfills following relations

1. $\mathbb{E}^{j\dagger} = \mathbb{E}^j$ self-adjoint
2. $\mathbb{E}^j \mathbb{E}^k = \mathbb{E}^j \delta_{jk}$ ortho-normal projector
3. $\sum_j \mathbb{E}^j = \mathbf{1}$ completeness
4. $D(g) \mathbb{E}^j = \mathbb{E}^j D(g)$

Proof: See Homework Problem 7

Comments:

- \mathbb{E}^j is ortho-normal projector onto invariant subspace of V spanned by the UIR j within D (with possible multiplicities)

- \mathbb{E}^j can be used to find invariant subspaces
- Extension to compact groups obvious

$$\mathbb{E}^j = d_j \int_G dg \chi^{j*}(g) D(g)$$

- $\mathbb{E}^0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_g D(g)$ or $\mathbb{E}^0 = \int_G dg D(g)$
projects on invariant subspace of trivial reps = average of D on group

Short BREAK

3 Lie Groups

3.1 Pragmatic Approach to Lie Groups

For some more details please see, e.g., book by Lucha & Schöberl.

A *continuous* or *topological* group has uncountable infinite group elements.

Parametrisation and Notation:

- $g = g(\alpha) = g(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$,
- $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)$ independent group parameters, that is, $g(\alpha) \neq g(\alpha') \Leftrightarrow \alpha \neq \alpha'$
- $\alpha \in I \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, I is *group space*, one or more not necessarily connected subsets of \mathbb{R}^n
- $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is the *dimension* of the group
- Convention for neutral element $e = g(0) = g(0, 0, \dots, 0)$

Examples:

- $SO(2)$: $g = g(\varphi)$, $\varphi \in [0, 2\pi[\subset \mathbb{R}$, $I = S^1$ unit circle, 1-dim. continuous group
- T^3 : $g = g(\vec{x})$, $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3$, $I = \mathbb{R}^3$, 3-dim. continuous group

Composition laws and composition functions:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{multiplication} & g(\gamma) = g(\alpha)g(\beta) & \Rightarrow \exists \Phi : \begin{array}{l} I \times I \rightarrow I \\ (\alpha, \beta) \mapsto \gamma = \Phi(\alpha, \beta) \end{array} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{inverse element} & g(\alpha') = g^{-1}(\alpha) & \Rightarrow \exists \Psi : \begin{array}{l} I \rightarrow I \\ \alpha \mapsto \alpha' = \Psi(\alpha) \end{array} \end{array}$$

Properties:

$$\begin{array}{lll} g(\gamma)g(\beta)g(\alpha) = (g(\gamma)g(\beta))g(\alpha) & \Rightarrow & \Phi(\gamma, \Phi(\beta, \alpha)) = \Phi(\Phi(\gamma, \beta), \alpha) \\ g(0)g(\alpha) = g(\alpha)g(0) & \Rightarrow & \Phi(0, \alpha) = \alpha = \Phi(\alpha, 0) \\ g(\alpha)g^{-1}(\alpha) = g^{-1}(\alpha)g(\alpha) & \Rightarrow & \Phi(\alpha, \Psi(\alpha)) = 0 = \Phi(\Psi(\alpha), \alpha) \end{array}$$

These are rather strong conditions!

Definition: *Topological* or *Continuous* group

- I is *topological* space not necessarily connected (limits, continuity, connectedness)
- Composition functions are *continuous*

Definition: *Lie Group* is topological group with

- I is *analytical manifold* not necessarily connected (manifold with analytic atlas = analytic transformation functions)
- Composition functions are *analytic*

Examples:

- $SO(2)$:

$$g(\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{pmatrix}$$

Composition laws = trigonometric addition theorems

- $O(2)$:

$$g_d(\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi & -\sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & \cos \varphi \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{pure rotations} \quad \det g_d(\varphi) = 1$$

$$g_s(\varphi) = g_d(\varphi) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \varphi & \sin \varphi \\ \sin \varphi & -\cos \varphi \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{rot. \& refl.} \quad \det g_d(\varphi) = -1$$

Group space not connected, $SO(2)$ is normal subgroup $O(2)/SO(2) \simeq Z_2$

Comment: Let $G_0 \subset G$ be the connected subset containing $e = g(0) \Rightarrow G_0$ is normal subgroup of G .

Compact Groups: A topological group is called compact when its group space I is compact. The group space may consist of several compact components.

- $SO(2)$: $I = S^1$ unit circle is compact
- $SO(1,1)$: Boosts in $(1+1)$ dimensions

$$g(\beta) := \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \beta & \sinh \beta \\ \sinh \beta & \cosh \beta \end{pmatrix}. \quad \beta \in \mathbb{R}$$

$I \simeq \mathbb{R}$ hyperbola unbounded, is NOT compact but locally compact

Locally compact Groups: If for all $g \in G$ there exists a compact environment (incl. boundaries) which is completely within G , then G is called *locally compact*.

3.2 Invariant Measure for Topological Groups

Basic Assumption:

There exists a positive measure μ on G , that is, for any μ -measurable function

$$f: \begin{array}{l} G \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \\ g \mapsto f(g) \end{array}$$

the integration over a topological group is well-defined:

$$\int_G d\mu(g) f(g) = \int_I d^n \alpha \rho(\alpha) f(g(\alpha))$$

$d^n \alpha$: usual Lebesgue measure

$\rho(\alpha)$: density of group elements at α

Definitions: For all μ -measurable f and all $g_0 \in G$

- *Left-invariant Haar measure:*

$$\int_G d\mu(g) f(g_0 g) = \int_G d\mu(g) f(g) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mu(g_0 g) = \mu(g)$$

- *Right-invariant Haar measure:*

$$\int_G d\mu(g) f(g g_0) = \int_G d\mu(g) f(g) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mu(g g_0) = \mu(g)$$

- *Invariant Haar measure:*

$$\int_G d\mu(g) f(g_0 g g_1) = \int_G d\mu(g) f(g) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mu(g_0 g g_1) = \mu(g)$$

Example: $G = SO(2)$, $g = g(\varphi)$.

Let $g_0 = g(\alpha)$ and $g_1 = g(\beta)$ then $g_0 g g_1 = g(\alpha + \varphi + \beta)$ and $f(g) = f(g(\varphi)) = f(g(\varphi + 2\pi))$ periodic function on unit circle
 $\Rightarrow d\mu(g) = \frac{1}{2\pi} d\varphi$ is invariant Haar measure for $SO(2)$ as

$$\int_{SO(2)} d\mu(g) f(g_0 g g_1) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi f(g(\alpha + \varphi + \beta)) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} d\tilde{\varphi} f(g(\tilde{\varphi})) = \int_{SO(2)} d\mu(g) f(g)$$

Theorem:

For each *locally compact group* there exists a (non-trivial) positive left-invariant measure which is, up to a (normalization) constant, unique.

Proof: See for example,

J. Dieudonné, *Grundzüge der modernen Analysis II*, Chapter 14.1, pp249-255.

Normalization:

- For compact groups: $\int_G d\mu(g) = 1 = \mu(G)$
- For finite groups: $\frac{1}{\text{ord } G} \sum_{g \in G} 1 = 1$
- For infinite discrete groups: $\mu(e) = 1$

Comments:

- Construction of a left-invariant measure for Lie groups always possible in principle (see E. Wigner, *Group Theory*, p. 95-99 and optional tutorial after test). In practice this might be difficult for non-abelian groups
- The existence is often sufficient even without explicitly knowing the density ρ .
- An educated guess of the measure is usually faster than its formal construction a la Wigner

Modular function of a locally compact group G

Let μ be the left-invariant measure on G , i.e. $\mu(g_0 g) = \mu(g)$.

Then obviously $\mu(g_0 g g_1) = \mu(g g_1)$ is also left-invariant.

Hence, uniqueness implies that $\mu(g g_1) = \Delta_G(g_1) \mu(g)$, where

$$\Delta_G : \begin{array}{l} G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+ \\ g \mapsto \Delta_G(g) \end{array}$$

is called the *modular* function of G .

Definition:

$$G \text{ uni-modular} \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad \Delta_G(g) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \mu(g g_1) = \mu(g) \text{ is also right-invariant} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{invariant Haar measure}$$

Notation: For uni-modular groups $d\mu(g) = dg$ from now on and

$$\boxed{\int_G dg f(g) = \int_G dg f(g_0 g) = \int_G dg f(g g_0) = \int_G dg f(g^{-1})}$$

Example: $SU(2)$

$$g = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ -b^* & a^* \end{pmatrix}, \quad |a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{C}$$

Choose parametrization with Euler angles (bi-polar coordinates on $S^3 \subset \mathbb{R}^4$):

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \exp \left\{ i \frac{\varphi + \psi}{2} \right\} & 0 \leq \varphi < 2\pi \\ b &= i \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \exp \left\{ i \frac{\varphi - \psi}{2} \right\} & 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi \\ & & -2\pi \leq \psi < 2\pi \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$dg = \frac{1}{16\pi^2} \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi d\psi$$

Proof: Consider bi-polar coordinates in \mathbb{R}^4

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= r \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{\varphi + \psi}{2} \\ x_2 &= r \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{\varphi + \psi}{2} \\ x_3 &= r \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{\varphi - \psi}{2} \\ x_4 &= r \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{\varphi - \psi}{2} \end{aligned} \quad d^4x = \underbrace{\left| \frac{\partial(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)}{\partial(r, \theta, \varphi, \psi)} \right|}_{= \frac{r^3}{8} \sin \theta} dr d\theta d\varphi d\psi$$

Hence $d^4x = d^3\Omega r^3 dr$ with $d^3\Omega = \frac{1}{8} \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi d\psi$

Obviously d^4x is invariant under $SU(2)$ rotations in \mathbb{R}^4 leaving r fixed.

Hence, $d^3\Omega$ is also $SU(2)$ invariant measure on $SU(2) \simeq S^3$.

Noting that $\int_{S^3} d^3\Omega = 2\pi^2$ provides us with above normalised Haar measure

List of some uni-modular groups:

- All discrete groups
- All compact groups
- All Abelian groups
- $GL(n, \mathbb{R}) = \{X | \text{real } n \times n \text{ matrices with } \det x \neq 0\}$
- ...

Left-invariant measure of $GL(n, \mathbb{R})$:

$$g_X = X = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_{1n} & \cdots & x_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow dg_X = |\det X|^{-n} \prod_{i,j=1}^n dx_{ij}$$

Left-invariance: Let $Y = AX$ that is $y_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} x_{kj}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial(y_{11}, \dots, y_{nn})}{\partial(x_{11}, \dots, x_{nn})} = (\det A)^n$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} dg_Y &= |\det Y|^{-n} \prod_{i,j=1}^n dy_{ij} = |\det A \cdot \det X|^{-n} \left| \frac{\partial(y_{11}, \dots, y_{nn})}{\partial(x_{11}, \dots, x_{nn})} \right| \prod_{i,j=1}^n dx_{ij} \\ &= |\det X|^{-n} \prod_{i,j=1}^n dx_{ij} = dg_X = dg_{AX} \end{aligned}$$

Right-invariance analogous

Consider subgroup of triangular matrices

$$g_Z = Z = \begin{pmatrix} z_{11} & z_{12} & \cdots & z_{1n} \\ 0 & z_{22} & \cdots & z_{2n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & z_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{is NOT uni-modular}$$

Left-invariant measure: $d\mu_L(g_Z) = |z_{11}^n z_{22}^{n-1} \cdots z_{nn}|^{-1} \prod_{i \leq j} dz_{ij}$

Right-invariant measure: $d\mu_R(g_Z) = |z_{11} z_{22}^2 \cdots z_{nn}^n|^{-1} \prod_{i \leq j} dz_{ij}$

Remark: Subgroups of uni-modular groups are not necessarily uni-modular!

Short BREAK

3.3 Transformation Groups

Transformation: Bijective mapping of a set \mathcal{M} onto \mathcal{M}

$$g : \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \\ x \mapsto gx \end{array}$$

Transformation Group: Exists for all $g \in G$ a transformation on \mathcal{M} such that $ex = x$ for all $x \in \mathcal{M}$ (identical transformation) and $(g_1 g_2)x = g_1(g_2)x$ for all $g_1, g_2 \in G$, then G is called transformation group acting on \mathcal{M} .

Examples:

- $\mathcal{M} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ $G = S_n$ Permutations
- $\mathcal{M} = \mathbb{R}^3$ $G = SO(3)$ or $G = T^3$
- $\mathcal{M} = G$ obvious, for example $SU(2) \simeq S^3$

Transformation groups are called

$$\text{effective} \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad \forall g \neq e \exists x \in \mathcal{M} \text{ such that } gx \neq x$$

$$\text{transitive} \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad \forall x, y \in \mathcal{M} \exists g \in G \text{ such that } gx = y$$

Obviously $SO(3)$ is NOT transitive on $\mathcal{M} = \mathbb{R}^3$ but it is transitive on $\mathcal{M} = S^2$

Homogenous Space:

Exists a transitive group G acting on \mathcal{M} then \mathcal{M} is called *homogenous* space

From now on we will ONLY consider homogenous spaces \mathcal{M} and transitive transformation groups G

Stationary Subgroup: Also called little group or isotropy group

Let $x_0 \in \mathcal{M}$ and G be transitive on \mathcal{M} , then

$$H := \{h \in G | hx_0 = x_0\}$$

is a subgroup of G called *stationary subgroup* of G with respect to $x_0 \in \mathcal{M}$.

Proof: Consider arbitrary $h_1, h_2 \in H$

- $h_1^{-1}h_1x_0 = h_1^{-1}x_0 \Rightarrow h_1x_0 = x_0 \Rightarrow h_1^{-1} \in H$
- $h_1h_2x_0 = h_1x_0 = x_0 \Rightarrow h_1h_2 \in H$
- $ex_0 = x_0 \Rightarrow e \in H$

$\Rightarrow H$ is a group

Example: Let $\mathcal{M} = S^2$, $G = SO(3)$ and choose $x_0 = \vec{e}_z$

$\Rightarrow H = SO(2)$ all rotation about z -axis keeping x_0 fixed (stationary)

In general, let $gx_0 = x$, that is for all $\tilde{g} = gh$ with $h \in H$ we have $\tilde{g}x_0 = x$.

That is, the set of all transformations mapping $x_0 \rightarrow x$ is represented by gH (left coset).

For each pair (x, x_0) exists a left coset gH such that $gHx_0 = x$

\Rightarrow The homogenous space $\mathcal{M} \simeq$ set of all cosets

Notation: $\mathcal{M} = G/H := \{gH | g \in G\}$ for homogenous spaces

is in general NOT a (factor) group as in general H is NOT a normal subgroup.

Recall:

- $S^2 = SO(3)/SO(2)$
- $S^3 = SO(4)/SO(3)$
- $S^3 = SU(2)$ here $H = \{e\}$ effective transformation group

Choice of x_0 :

Consider two different x_0 and \tilde{x}_0 and let $hx_0 = x_0$ for all $h \in H$.

Let $gx_0 = \tilde{x}_0$ then $ghg^{-1}\tilde{x}_0 = ghx_0 = gx_0 = \tilde{x}_0$.

Hence the stationary subgroup for \tilde{x}_0 is $\tilde{H} := gHg^{-1}$, H is conjugate to \tilde{H}

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{M} = G/H \simeq G/\tilde{H}$

homogenous space is uniquely defined by transitive G and one stationary subgroup H .

Invariant Measure on \mathcal{M} :

Let $gA := \{gx | x \in A \subset \mathcal{M}\}$ arbitrary transformation of subset A in \mathcal{M}

A measure μ is called G -invariant measure on \mathcal{M} if for all $g \in G$ and all $A \subset \mathcal{M}$

$$\mu(A) = \mu(gA)$$

This implies for a μ -measurable function f on \mathcal{M} and all $g \in G$

$$\int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) f(x) = \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) f(gx)$$

Connection with invariant Haar measure

$$\int_{\mathcal{M}=G/H} d\mu(x) f(x) = \int_G dg f(gx_0)$$

In essence $dg = d\mu(x)dh$.

3.4 Representations of Transformation Groups

Consider $\mathcal{H} = L^2(G/H)$ being invariant under transformation, that is,

$$\psi(x) \in \mathcal{H} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \psi(gx) \in \mathcal{H} \quad \forall g \in G$$

Unitary Representations in \mathcal{H}

$$(D(g)\psi)(x) := \psi(g^{-1}x)$$

or

$$\langle x|D(g)\psi\rangle = \langle g^{-1}x|\psi\rangle = \psi(g^{-1}x)$$

Representation:

$$(D(g_1)D(g_2)\psi)(x) = \langle g_2^{-1}g_1^{-1}x|\psi\rangle = \psi((g_1g_2)^{-1}x) = (D(g_1g_2)\psi)(x)$$

Unitarity: scalar product via G -invariant measure on G/H

$$\langle \psi_1|\psi_2\rangle = \int_{G/H} d\mu(x) \psi_1^*(x)\psi_2(x) = \int_{G/H} d\mu(x) \psi_1^*(g^{-1}x)\psi_2(g^{-1}x) = \langle D(g)\psi_1|D(g)\psi_2\rangle$$

Comments:

- For $H = \{e\}$ $G \simeq \mathcal{M} \Rightarrow D(g)$ is (left) regular representation

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_{\text{all UIR } j} d_j \mathcal{H}^j \quad d_j = \dim \mathcal{H}^j$$

- General Case

$$D(g) = \sum_{\ell \in \Lambda} D^\ell(g), \quad \mathcal{H} = \sum_{\ell \in \Lambda} \mathcal{H}^\ell, \quad \dim \mathcal{H}^\ell = d_\ell = \dim D^\ell$$

Λ : Set of all *class 1 representations*, appear with multiplicity 1 in \mathcal{H} .

Known Example: $\mathcal{H} = L^2(S^2) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}^\ell$, $\dim \mathcal{H}^\ell = 2\ell + 1$

$$\mathcal{H}^\ell = \text{span} \{|\ell m\rangle | m = -\ell, \dots, \ell\}, \quad L_z |\ell m\rangle = m |\ell m\rangle, \quad L_z = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi}$$

$$\text{Spherical harmonics } \langle \theta \varphi | \ell m \rangle = Y_{\ell m}(\theta, \varphi) = (-1)^m \sqrt{\frac{(2\ell+1)(\ell-m)!}{4\pi(\ell+m)!}} P_\ell^m(\cos \theta) e^{im\varphi}$$

$$\text{Orthogonality relation: } \int_{S^2} d^2\Omega Y_{\ell m}^*(\theta, \varphi) Y_{\ell' m'}(\theta, \varphi) = \delta_{\ell\ell'} \delta_{mm'}, \quad d^2\Omega = \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi$$

$$\langle \theta \varphi | \ell 0 \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{2\ell+1}{4\pi}} P_\ell(\cos \theta) \quad \text{independent of } \varphi, \text{ rotations about } z\text{-axis}$$

$$D^\ell(h) |\ell 0\rangle = |\ell 0\rangle \quad \text{invariant under } h \in SO(2) \subset SO(3), \text{ rotations about } z\text{-axis}$$

3.4.1 Representations of class 1

Let $\mathcal{H} = L^2(G/H)$, $\mathcal{H}^\ell \subset \mathcal{H}$, \mathcal{H}^ℓ irreducible invariant subspace with UIR $D^\ell(g)$

Definition: Exists an invariant vector $|\varphi_0\rangle \in \mathcal{H}^\ell$, that is, $D^\ell(h)|\varphi_0\rangle = |\varphi_0\rangle$ for all $h \in H$, then $D^\ell(g)$ is called *representation of class 1* (relative to H).

Definition: Exists for each class 1 representation *exact one* invariant vector in \mathcal{H}^ℓ then H is called *massiv* subgroup.

Comment: $|\varphi_0\rangle \in \mathcal{H}^\ell$ corresponds to $x_0 \in G/H$ with $hx_0 = x_0$ for all $h \in H$.

Let us choose basis in \mathcal{H}^ℓ : $\{|\varphi_0\rangle, |\varphi_1\rangle, \dots, |\varphi_{d_\ell-1}\rangle\}$

Representation matrices: $D_{mn}^\ell(g) := \langle \varphi_m | D^\ell(g) | \varphi_n \rangle$

In particular: For all $h, h_1, h_2 \in H$

$$D_{m0}^\ell(gh) = \langle \varphi_m | D^\ell(gh) | \varphi_0 \rangle = D_{m0}^\ell(g)$$

$$D_{00}^\ell(h_1^{-1}gh_2) = \langle \varphi_0 | D^\ell(h_1^{-1}gh_2) | \varphi_0 \rangle = D_{00}^\ell(g)$$

Comment

- Associate spherical functions : $\Leftrightarrow f(gh) = f(g)$
- Zonal spherical functions : $\Leftrightarrow f(h_1gh_2) = f(g)$

Known Example: $G = SO(3)$, $\mathcal{M} = S^2$, $\vec{e}(\theta, \varphi) = g\vec{e}_z$

$$D_{m0}^\ell(g) = \langle \varphi_m | D^\ell(g) | \varphi_0 \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{2\ell+1}} Y_{\ell m}(\theta, \varphi)$$

$$D_{00}^\ell(g) = \langle \varphi_0 | D^\ell(g) | \varphi_0 \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{4\pi}{2\ell+1}} P_\ell(\cos \theta)$$

Orthogonality of UIR matrix elements: continuous version

$$\boxed{\int_G dg D_{mn}^\ell(g) D_{sr}^{k*}(g) = \frac{1}{d_\ell} \delta_{\ell k} \delta_{ms} \delta_{nr}}$$

*** End of Lecture 3 ***