

~~\Rightarrow putting all this together write the Lagrangian for Quantum Chromodynamics (QCD) - the theory of strong interactions:~~

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{QCD}} = \bar{\psi}^{af} (i\gamma^\mu \partial_\mu - m_f) \psi^{af} - \frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu}^i F^{\mu\nu i} + g \bar{\psi}^{bf} \gamma^\mu A_\mu^i (T^i)_{ba} \psi^{af}$$

Elements of Group Theory

Def. A Group G is a set of elements with a multiplication law having the following properties:

- (i) Closure: if $f, g \in G \Rightarrow h = f \cdot g \in G$
- (ii) Associativity: $f, g, h \in G \Rightarrow f \cdot (g \cdot h) = (f \cdot g) \cdot h$
- (iii) Identity: $\exists e \in G \forall f \in G : ef = fe = f$
- (iv) Inverse element: $\forall f \in G \exists f^{-1} \in G : ff^{-1} = f^{-1}f = e$.

Example: $\{1, e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}, e^{i\pi}, e^{i\frac{3}{2}\pi}\}$ form a group (why?). \mathbb{Z}_4 " $\{1, i, -1, -i\}$.

Integers: $\{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ form a group.

What is e there? **Def.** $H \subset G \Rightarrow H$ is a subgroup.

What is "normal subgroup"?

Def. A group is called Abelian if for any

$$f, g \in G : f \cdot g = g \cdot f$$

otherwise it is called non-Abelian ($f \cdot g \neq g \cdot f$)

Example (important!) $n \times n$ unitary matrices

form a group: $U U^\dagger = U^\dagger U = \mathbb{1}$ (unitary matrices)

Def. Such group is denoted $U(n)$, ($e = \mathbb{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$) and is called the unitary group.

Sub-example $U(1)$: 1×1 matrices $\Rightarrow e^{i\varphi}$, $\varphi \in \mathbb{R}$

$\varphi \in \mathbb{R}$ ~ form a group, $e = 1$.

Def. $n \times n$ unitary matrices with unit determinant ($U U^\dagger = U^\dagger U = \mathbb{1}$, $\det U = +1$) form a group too!

It is called special unitary group and is denoted

$SU(n)$. (Orthogonal matrices $U^T U = U U^T = \mathbb{1}$ with $\det U = +1$ form $SO(n)$, $O =$ orthogonal)

Def. A representation of group G is a mapping D

of group elements: $f \in G : f \rightarrow D(f)$, where

$D(f)$ is a space of linear operators (e.g. matrices)

such that:

(i) $D(e) = \mathbb{1}$

(ii) $D(g_1) D(g_2) = D(g_1 g_2)$ for $g_1, g_2 \in G$.

Take a group \mathbb{Z}_4 : it has $\{e, g_1, g_2, g_3\}$ (17)

Our example $\{1, e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}, e^{i\pi}, e^{i\frac{3\pi}{2}}\} = \{D(e), D(g_1), D(g_2), D(g_3)\}$

is one of the many possible representations of \mathbb{Z}_4 .

(Def.) Dimension of representation is the dimension of the space of D -matrices.

(Def.) Representation is called reducible if

$\exists M$ (matrix) such that

$$M D(g) M^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} D_1(g) & 0 \\ 0 & D_2(g) \\ & \dots \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for } \forall g \in G.$$

$\Rightarrow D = D_1 \oplus D_2 \oplus \dots$

a representation is called irreducible if

no such matrix M exists.

(Def.) For two groups $G = \{g_1, g_2, \dots\}$, $H = \{h_1, h_2, \dots\}$

define direct-product group $G \times H = \{g_i h_j\}$

such that $g_k h_i \cdot g_m h_n = g_k g_m \cdot h_i h_n$.

Lie Groups

Imagine a group G with elements smoothly dependent on a continuous set of parameters d_i , $i=1, \dots, N$: $g(d_i) \in G$.

⇒ assume that $g(d_i=0) = e$ (the identity element) (18)

⇒ for a representation of the group:

$$D(d_i=0) = \mathbb{1}.$$

Taylor expand $D(d_i)$ near 0:

$$D(Sd_i) = \mathbb{1} + i S d_i \bar{X}_i + \dots = \mathbb{1} + i S \vec{d} \cdot \vec{X}$$

(summation over repeating indices assumed)

Def.

X_i are called generators of the group.

definition too

$$S \vec{d} = \frac{\vec{d}}{k}, k \text{ integer}$$

$$D(d_i) = D(Sd_i) D(Sd_i) \dots D(Sd_i) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\mathbb{1} + i S \vec{d} \cdot \vec{X} \right)^k \\ = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\mathbb{1} + i \frac{\vec{d}}{k} \cdot \vec{X} \right)^k = e^{i \vec{d} \cdot \vec{X}}$$

Def. A group with elements depending smoothly on continuous set of parameters $d_i, i=1, \dots, N$, with generators X_i is called a Lie group.

$$D(\vec{d}) = e^{i \vec{d} \cdot \vec{X}} \Rightarrow \text{as } D \text{ can be a matrix}$$

⇒ \vec{X} can be a matrix; therefore in

general $[X_i, X_j]$ does not have to be 0.
" $X_i X_j - X_j X_i$ "

\Rightarrow however $D(\vec{\alpha}) D(\vec{\beta}) = e^{i\vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{X}} e^{i\vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{X}}$ is (19)

also a group element $\Rightarrow e^{i\vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{X}} e^{i\vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{X}} = e^{i\vec{\gamma} \cdot \vec{X}}$

\Rightarrow can show that for this to work we need

$$[X_a, X_b] = i f_{abc} X_c \quad \text{Lie algebra of generators}$$

$f_{abc} \sim$ structure constants of the group

$f_{abc} = -f_{bac}$; Def. Commutator: $[A, B] = A \cdot B - B \cdot A$.

f_{abc} are real for unitary representations D

(for hermitean X_a): $D^\dagger D = D D^\dagger = 1$

Example take the group $SU(2)$: unitary 2×2 matrices with $\det = +1$ ($U U^\dagger = U^\dagger U = 1, \det U = 1$).
(defining representation)

Using Pauli matrices we can define a representation of $SU(2)$:

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

$\Rightarrow D(\vec{\alpha}) = e^{i \frac{\vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}{2}}$, $\vec{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)$ a 3-vector.

rotations around $\frac{\vec{\alpha}}{|\vec{\alpha}|}$ axis by angle $|\vec{\alpha}|$.

as $\sigma_i^\dagger = \sigma_i$ (hermitean) \Rightarrow any 2×2

unitary matrix with $\det = +1$ can be represented

as $e^{i \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}{2}} = U$

Check: $U U^\dagger = e^{i \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}{2}} e^{-i \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}{2}} = \mathbb{1}$

$\det U = \det e^{i \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}{2}} = \left[\text{as } \det e^A = e^{\text{tr} A} \right] = 1$

as $\text{tr } \sigma_i = 0$.
 $\begin{matrix} \text{comp's} & \text{cond's} \\ \downarrow & \swarrow \\ 8-4=4-1=3 & \end{matrix}$ (linearly independent)

\Rightarrow there are $2^2 - 1 = 3$ different $n \times n$ traceless hermitean matrices $\Rightarrow \{ \sigma_i \}$ use up all possibilities

Generators: $J_i = \frac{\sigma_i}{2} \Rightarrow D(\vec{a}) = e^{i \vec{a} \cdot \vec{J}}$

$\Rightarrow SU(2)$ is a Lie group

We know that $[\sigma_i, \sigma_j] = 2i \epsilon_{ijk} \sigma_k \Rightarrow$

$\Rightarrow [\mathbb{J}_i, \mathbb{J}_j] = i \epsilon_{ijk} \mathbb{J}_k$

\Rightarrow generators of $SU(2)$ form a Lie algebra with structure constants ϵ_{ijk}

ϵ_{ijk} : totally anti-symmetric Levi-Civita symbol, $\epsilon_{123} = 1$, $\epsilon_{ijk} = -\epsilon_{jik} = \epsilon_{kji} \dots$
 $\epsilon_{i12} = 0 \dots$

Another example: $SU(3)$: 3×3 unitary matrices (21)

with $\det = +1$

Define Gell-Mann matrices:

$$\lambda_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \lambda_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{cf. Pauli matrices})$$

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

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

Normalization convention $\text{tr}[\lambda_i \lambda_j] = 2 \delta_{ij}$.

There are $3^2 - 1 = 8$ traceless hermitian ^{3×3} matrices

\Rightarrow these should work.

Generators of $SU(3)$: $T^a = \frac{\lambda^a}{2} \Rightarrow$

$\Rightarrow [T^a, T^b] = i f^{abc} T^c$ with structure

constants f^{abc} , which are anti-symmetric

under the interchange of any two indices.

$\Rightarrow SU(3)$ is a Lie group with the generator algebra given above.

a	b	c	f^{abc}
1	2	3	1
1	4	7	$1/2$
1	5	6	$-1/2$
2	4	6	$1/2$
2	5	7	$1/2$
3	4	5	$1/2$
3	6	7	$-1/2$
4	5	8	$\sqrt{3}/2$
6	7	8	$\sqrt{3}/2$

$f_{112} = 0 \dots$
 all other f^{abc} 's
 can be obtained from
 this table.

Casimir operator commutes
 with all generators:

$$\vec{T}^2 = T_1^2 + T_2^2 + \dots + T_n^2 = \frac{N^2 - 1}{2N}$$

\Rightarrow for $su(2)$ it is $3/4$
 for $su(3)$ it is $4/3$.

$$D(\vec{A}) = e^{i \vec{A} \cdot \vec{T}}, \text{ with } \vec{A} = (A_1, A_2, \dots, A_8)$$

\sim an 8-component vector.

Jacobi Identity and the Adjoint Representation

\sim go back to some general Lie group with
 the generators X_a obeying some Lie
 algebra $[X_a, X_b] = i f_{abc} X_c$.

One can then easily prove Jacobi identity:

$$[X_a, [X_b, X_c]] + [X_b, [X_c, X_a]] + [X_c, [X_a, X_b]] = 0.$$

(prove this by using definitions of commutators)

\Rightarrow plug in the commutator of Lie algebra to write

$$f_{bdc} f_{ade} + f_{abd} f_{cde} + f_{cad} f_{bde} = 0$$

these relations are obeyed by structure constants of any ^{Lie} group, e.g. $SU(n)$.

Define The generators in the adjoint representation

by $(t^a)_{bc} = -i f_{abc} \Rightarrow$ the above relation

gives $[t^a, t^b] = i f_{abc} t^c$

\Rightarrow they obey the Lie algebra too!

Def. $D(\hat{A}) = e^{i A^a t^a}$ gives the adjoint representation of Lie group. (irreducible representation)

Lorentz Group

(24)

Work in Minkowski space, $\eta_{\mu\nu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & -1 & & \\ & & -1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} \eta^{\nu\rho} = \delta_{\mu}^{\rho}; \quad x_{\mu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} x^{\nu} = (t, -\vec{x}), \quad x^{\mu} = (t, \vec{x}).$$

Def. Set of linear ^(real) transformations

$$x^{\mu} \rightarrow x'^{\mu} = \Lambda^{\mu}_{\nu} x^{\nu}$$

forms the Lorentz group if

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} x'^{\mu} x'^{\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} x^{\mu} x^{\nu}$$

(proper time is preserved).

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & -1 & & \\ & & -1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

metric tensor

Example $\Lambda^{\mu}_{\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & -\beta\gamma & 0 & 0 \\ -\beta\gamma & \gamma & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ for boosts along x^1 -axis.

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} x'^{\mu} x'^{\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} x^{\mu} x^{\nu}$$

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} \Lambda^{\mu}_{\alpha} \Lambda^{\nu}_{\beta} x^{\alpha} x^{\beta} = \eta_{\alpha\beta} x^{\alpha} x^{\beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\eta_{\alpha\beta} = \eta_{\mu\nu} \Lambda^{\mu}_{\alpha} \Lambda^{\nu}_{\beta}}$$

or, equivalently,

$$\boxed{\eta = \Lambda^T \eta \Lambda}$$

$$\text{As } \eta_{\mu\nu} \eta^{\nu\rho} = \delta_{\mu}^{\rho} \Rightarrow \eta \cdot \eta = \mathbb{1}$$