

1.4 Weights and roots

Outline:

We would like to

- (i) classify all irreducible representations* of a given group;
- (ii) find a way to reduce a general representation into a "block diagonal" sum of irreducible representations.

* sometimes this very long concept is abbreviated as "irrep".

We have already defined one characteristic of a representation, its dimension d (cf. p.10), but in general this is not sufficient for enumerating all cases.

Example:

From quantum mechanics, we are already familiar with representations of $SU(2)$ [spin] and $SO(3)$ [rotations]: these are classified through a "quantum number"
 $s = 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, \dots$ or $l = 0, 1, 2, \dots$.

The corresponding dimension is $d = 2s + 1$ or $d = 2l + 1$, i.e. the number of possible z -components.

Definitions:

Let T^a be the generators of the fundamental representation (p.9), F^a those of the adjoint one (p.10), and $\mathcal{D}(T^a)$ those of a general representation.

Let us diagonalize simultaneously as many T^a as possible.

We denote the diagonal ones by $H_i, i=1, \dots, m$, where m is called the rank of the group. If the T^a are hermitean (p.11), the H_i are real. Since the H_i are diagonal, they satisfy

$$[H_i, H_j] = 0 \Rightarrow [\mathcal{D}(H_i), \mathcal{D}(H_j)] = 0.$$

The H_i span the "maximal Abelian subalgebra" or the "Cartan subalgebra".

Examples:

* $SU(2) \Rightarrow H_1 = \frac{\tau_3}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{rank} = 1.$

* $SU(3): (T^a)^\dagger = T^a, \text{tr} T^a = 0, \text{tr}(T^a T^b) = \frac{\delta^{ab}}{2}$

A possible choice is

$$H_1 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, H_2 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\Rightarrow \text{rank} = 2.$

There are in total $n^2 - 1 \stackrel{n=3}{=} 8$ generators, so 6 independent non-diagonal ones left over.

Weights:

In a general representation, $\mathcal{D}(H_i)$, $i=1, \dots, m$, are $d \times d$ matrices. Because they commute, they are diagonal; the diagonal components are the eigenvalues of the given $\mathcal{D}(H_i)$. In total, we have then $m \times d$ eigenvalues.

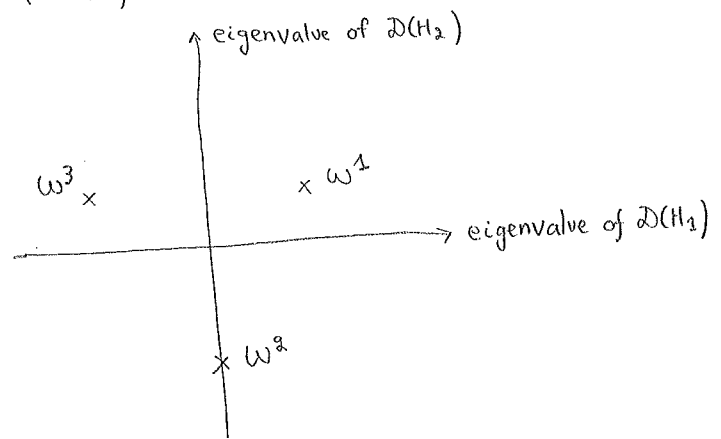
We now define d weight vectors*, ω^j , $j=1, \dots, d$, each of which has m components ω_i^j , namely the eigenvalues ("weights") from a chosen row*^j of $\mathcal{D}(H_i)$, $i=1, \dots, m$.

The weight vectors can be drawn in m -dimensional space.

Example:

For H_1, H_2 of $SU(3)$ from p.13 we get ($d=3$)³

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

Ordering:

We choose ω^1 to be the weight vector with the largest component along the x -axis; if the same, then the largest along the y -axis; etc.

If so ordered, we say that $\omega^1 > \omega^2 > \omega^3$.

Physical interpretation:

The simultaneously diagonalized operators $\mathcal{D}(H_i)$ represent physical observables (e.g. S_z for $SU(2)$).

The corresponding eigenvalues are possible values of measurements. The weight vectors ω^i

are the possible eigenstates with respect to these physical observables. In a d -dimensional representation, there are d eigenstates,

some of which might be degenerate

(i.e. with the same eigenvalues).

*a convenient ordering is defined below

Roots:

Let E_k be the remaining (non-diagonal) generators of the fundamental representation. We choose them as linear combinations of the T^a , with in general complex coefficients, so that they satisfy

$$[H_i, E_k] = \alpha_i^k E_k, \quad i=1, \dots, m; \quad k=1, \dots, \dim-m.$$

The root vectors α^k live in the same space as the w_j , and have the α_i^k as their components, i.e. $\alpha^k = (\alpha_1^k, \dots, \alpha_m^k)$.

Properties:

The way that E_k have been defined, they are not necessarily Hermitean! The α_i^k are real (see below) \Rightarrow

$$\alpha_i^k E_k^\dagger = (H_i E_k - E_k H_i)^\dagger = E_k^\dagger H_i - H_i E_k^\dagger$$

$$\Leftrightarrow [H_i, E_k^\dagger] = -\alpha_i^k E_k^\dagger$$

It follows that if α^k is a root vector, $-\alpha^k$ is also so. We choose the normalization as $\text{tr}(E_k E_k^\dagger) = \frac{\delta_{kk}}{2}$.

Example:

SU(3)

$$\{E_k\} = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

In other words, $(E_k)_{ij} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \delta_{im} \delta_{jn}$, with $m \neq n$.

With this choice, we can work out the commutator:

$$[H_i, E_k]_{ab} = (H_i)_{aj} (E_k)_{jb} - (E_k)_{aj} (H_i)_{jb}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\underbrace{(H_i)_{aj} \delta_{jm} \delta_{bn}}_{(H_i)_{aa} \delta_{aj}} - \delta_{am} \delta_{jn} \underbrace{(H_i)_{jb}}_{(H_i)_{bb} \delta_{jb}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[(H_i)_{aa} - (H_i)_{bb} \right] \delta_{am} \delta_{bn}$$

$$= \underbrace{\left[(H_i)_{aa} - (H_i)_{bb} \right]}_{\alpha_i^k} (E_k)_{ab}$$

Why $\alpha^k \in \mathbb{R}$?

Let us consider the definition of weights (as eigenvalues of $H_i = \vec{T} \cdot \vec{i}$) in the adjoint representation (p.10):

$$\mathcal{D}(H_i) v = F^i v \stackrel{\text{p.10}}{=} T^b (F^i)^{bc} v^c$$

$$\stackrel{\text{p.10}}{=} T^b (-if^{ibc}) v^c = if^{icb} v^c T^b$$

$$\stackrel{\text{p.6}}{=} [T^i, T^c] v^c = [H_i, v]$$

In other words, if $[H_i, E_k] = \alpha_i^k E_k$, then

$$\mathcal{D}_{\text{adj}}(H_i) E_k = \alpha_i^k E_k$$

\Rightarrow roots \equiv weights of the adjoint representation!

$\Rightarrow \alpha^k \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

Relationship:

Let v^j be one of the eigenvectors of $\mathcal{D}(H_i)$, i.e.

$$\mathcal{D}(H_i)v^j = w_i^j v^j \quad (\text{no sum over } j)$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}(H_i)\mathcal{D}(E_k)v^j &= \mathcal{D}([H_i, E_k])v^j + \mathcal{D}(E_k)\mathcal{D}(H_i)v^j \\ &= \alpha_i^k \mathcal{D}(E_k)v^j + w_i^j \mathcal{D}(E_k)v^j \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{D}(E_k)v^j$ is also an eigenvector (if it is $\neq 0$), with weight vector $w_i^j + \alpha^k$

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{D}(E_k^+)v^j$ is also an eigenvector (if it is $\neq 0$), with weight vector $w_i^j - \alpha^k$.

What we learned:

- * all weights are of the form $w^l = w_i^j \pm \alpha^k$, all roots are of the form $\alpha^k = \pm(w^l - w_i^j)$.
- * since roots are the weights of the adjoint representation, their number is the dimension of the adjoint representation, i.e. the dimension "dim" of the group manifold.
- * among the "dim" roots, "m" are zero vectors, since $[H_i, H_j] = 0 \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, m$.
- * positive roots^{*}: $w^l - w_i^j$, with $l < j$ ($w^1 > w^2 > \dots$).
- * simple roots: positive and not sums of other positive roots, i.e. linearly independent. There are "m" such roots, and we can find them from the set $\{w^l - w^{l+1}\}$.

* it is convenient to enumerate positive α^k with indices $k > 0$

Example:

$SU(3), \quad w^1 = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}\right), \quad w^2 = \left(0, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right), \quad w^3 = \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}}\right)$

As simple roots we can choose e.g. $\alpha^1 = w^1 - w^2 = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$
 $\alpha^2 = w^2 - w^3 = \left(\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$

