

NOTES ON LIE ALGEBRAS

Lie Algebra \mathcal{G} . A vector space \mathcal{G} with a bilinear operation $[\ , \] : \mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ such that

(i): $[x, x] = 0$, for all $x \in \mathcal{G}$ (antisymmetry),

(ii) $[x, [y, z]] + [y, [z, x]] + [z, [x, y]] = 0$, for all $x, y, z \in \mathcal{G}$ (Jacobi identity).

Typically the vector space is over the real numbers (a real vector space) or over the complex numbers (a complex vector space).

A **Lie subalgebra of \mathcal{G}** is a vector subspace of \mathcal{G} which is itself a Lie algebra under $[\ , \]$.

The **generators** T_a of \mathcal{G} with $a = 1, 2, \dots, d$ are a set of basis vectors in \mathcal{G} . Here d is the dimension of \mathcal{G} . The Lie algebra is defined if we give the Lie brackets $[T_a, T_b]$ of all the generators. One writes

$$[T_a, T_b] = f_{ab}{}^c T_c, \quad (1)$$

where the **structure constants** $f_{ab}{}^c$ are real if the Lie algebra is a real vector space, or complex if the Lie algebra is a complex vector space.

An **ideal \mathcal{I} of \mathcal{G}** is an invariant subalgebra of \mathcal{G} , namely, $[\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{I}] \subset \mathcal{I}$. An ideal is **proper** if it is not equal to $\{0\}$ nor to \mathcal{G} (both of which are trivial ideals of \mathcal{G}). The quotient space \mathcal{G}/\mathcal{I} is readily checked to be a Lie algebra.

The **derived algebra $\mathcal{G}^{(1)}$** of \mathcal{G} is the set of all linear combinations of brackets of \mathcal{G} . We write $\mathcal{G}^{(1)} \equiv [\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{G}]$. $\mathcal{G}^{(1)}$ is an ideal of \mathcal{G} . One defines $\mathcal{G}^{(i+1)} = [\mathcal{G}^{(i)}, \mathcal{G}^{(i)}]$ for $i \geq 1$. In the **derived series** of ideals $\mathcal{G}^{(1)}, \mathcal{G}^{(2)}, \dots$ each term is an ideal of \mathcal{G} (this is proven using induction and the Jacobi identity). \mathcal{G} is **solvable** if its derived series ends up with $\{0\}$.

If \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{J} are ideals of \mathcal{G} then $\mathcal{I} + \mathcal{J}$ is also an ideal of \mathcal{G} . If, in addition both \mathcal{I} and \mathcal{J} are solvable, then $\mathcal{I} + \mathcal{J}$ is also solvable (show by induction that $(\mathcal{I} + \mathcal{J})^{(n)} \subset \mathcal{I}^{(n)} + \mathcal{J}$. Since \mathcal{I} is solvable, at some stage the derived series of $(\mathcal{I} + \mathcal{J})$ goes into the derived series of \mathcal{J} , which also terminates).

The **radical \mathcal{G}_r** of a Lie algebra \mathcal{G} is the maximal solvable ideal of \mathcal{G} , *i.e.* one enclosed in no larger solvable ideal. It follows from the above additivity property that \mathcal{G}_r is unique.

The **center \mathcal{Z}** of \mathcal{G} is the set of all elements of \mathcal{G} that have zero bracket with all of \mathcal{G} . The center of \mathcal{G} is clearly an ideal of \mathcal{G} .

An **abelian** Lie algebra \mathcal{G} is a Lie algebra whose derived algebra $\mathcal{G}^{\{1\}} \equiv [\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{G}]$ vanishes (the Lie bracket of any two elements of \mathcal{G} is always zero). For arbitrary \mathcal{G} , the quotient $\mathcal{G}/\mathcal{G}^{\{1\}}$ is an abelian Lie algebra. There is a unique one-dimensional Lie algebra, the abelian algebra u_1 with a single generator T and bracket $[T, T] = 0$. Any d dimensional abelian Lie algebra is (isomorphic to) the d -fold direct sum of one-dimensional Lie algebras.

The **direct sum** $\mathcal{G}_1 \oplus \mathcal{G}_2 \oplus \dots$ of Lie algebras with brackets $[\cdot, \cdot]_1, [\cdot, \cdot]_2 \dots$ is the sum of the vector spaces with a bracket $[\cdot, \cdot]$ defined as: (i) $[x, y] = [x, y]_i$ when $x, y \in \mathcal{G}_i$, and (ii) $[\mathcal{G}_i, \mathcal{G}_j] = 0$, for $i \neq j$. Each summand is an ideal of the direct sum.

A Lie algebra \mathcal{G} is **simple** if it has no proper ideals and is not abelian. Note the following obvious consequences:

- (i) the derived algebra of \mathcal{G} (an ideal) must equal \mathcal{G} ; \mathcal{G} is not solvable,
- (ii) being not solvable and having no proper ideals, its radical \mathcal{G}_r vanishes,
- (iii) the center of \mathcal{G} must vanish,
- (iv) \mathcal{G} cannot be broken into two sets of commuting generators.

A Lie algebra \mathcal{G} is **semisimple** if its radical \mathcal{G}_r vanishes. Simple Lie algebras are semisimple. It can be shown that semisimple algebras are **direct sums** of simple Lie algebras.

A **reductive** Lie algebra is the direct sum of an abelian algebra and a semisimple algebra, with both nonvanishing. This is the case of interest for non-abelian gauge theory. In these algebras the radical equals the center (the abelian algebra).

Comments. The general Lie algebra \mathcal{G} is either solvable or not solvable. The solvable algebras are not easy to classify. If the algebra \mathcal{G} is not solvable then either the radical vanishes, in which case the algebra is semisimple, or the radical does not vanish, in which case the quotient $(\mathcal{G}/\mathcal{G}_r)$ is semisimple (it can be shown that it has zero radical). Any Lie algebra \mathcal{G} has a Levi decomposition $\mathcal{G} = P \oplus_{\sigma} \Lambda$, as the **semidirect sum** of a solvable algebra P and a semisimple algebra Λ . In the semidirect sum the bracket of elements within summands are the brackets of the respective algebras, and the bracket of mixed elements are defined using a representation σ of Λ on the vector space of P .

Example: The Poincare algebra \mathcal{P} . It has two familiar subalgebras spanning together \mathcal{P} as a vector space; the Lorentz algebra Λ (semisimple) and the translation algebra P (abelian). The Poincare algebra is not solvable since Λ is not, is not semisimple since its radical equals the non-vanishing algebra P , and is not reductive since it is cannot be written as a direct sum of a semisimple and an abelian part. One has $\mathcal{P} = P \oplus_{\sigma} \Lambda$.

THE CLASSICAL LIE ALGEBRAS

Let V be a vector space over a field F (\mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C}). The **general linear** algebra $gl(V)$ is the algebra of endomorphisms (linear transformations, not necessarily invertible) of V . As a vector space over F , $\text{End}(V)$ has dimension $(\dim(V))^2$. The Lie bracket is just the commutator of the linear transformations. More concretely, when V is a vector space of dimension n over F , one can think of $gl(V)$ as the algebra $gl(n, F)$ of $n \times n$ matrices with entries in F . The classical algebras fall into four families \mathbf{A}_ℓ , \mathbf{B}_ℓ , \mathbf{C}_ℓ and \mathbf{D}_ℓ . These are all subalgebras of $gl(V)$. Any subalgebra of $gl(V)$ is called a **linear** Lie algebra.

\mathbf{A}_ℓ : Let $\dim V = \ell + 1$, the algebra is called $sl(\ell + 1, F)$ (for special linear) and is that of endomorphisms of zero trace (a basis independent restriction). Its dimension is $(\ell + 1)^2 - 1$. To describe the next three families of algebras we will use bilinear forms $f(v, w)$ on an n -dimensional vector space V :

$$f(v, w) = v^t s w, \quad (2)$$

where, for a chosen basis, s is a fixed invertible $n \times n$ matrix and $v, w \in V$. We then consider V endomorphisms x such that for all v and w

$$f(x(v), w) = -f(v, x(w)) \quad \rightarrow \quad sx = -x^t s. \quad (3)$$

We claim that the set of endomorphisms that satisfy (3) form a Lie algebra under commutation. Indeed, if x_1 and x_2 satisfy $f(x_i(v), w) = -f(v, x_i(w))$ so does $[x_1, x_2]$. Additionally, tracing the relation $sxs^{-1} = -x^t$ we deduce that x has zero trace. The Lie algebra in question is thus a subalgebra of $sl(n, F)$. The bilinear form $f(v, w)$ is symmetric (antisymmetric) under the exchange of v and w if s is a symmetric (antisymmetric) matrix.

\mathbf{C}_ℓ : Let $\dim V = 2\ell$ and choose some specific basis in which

$$s = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_\ell \\ -I_\ell & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4)$$

The Lie algebra of endomorphisms that satisfy (3) is called $sp(2\ell, F)$ (for symplectic). Also, $sp(2\ell, F) \subset sl(2\ell, F)$. For a general matrix $x \in sp(2\ell, F)$ we find that the $\ell \times \ell$ blocks take the form

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ p & q \end{pmatrix} \quad \rightarrow \quad n = n^t, \quad p = p^t, \quad m^t = -q. \quad (5)$$

The dimension is readily found; we need two symmetric $\ell \times \ell$ matrices p and n giving $\ell(\ell + 1)$, and one arbitrary matrix m (that determines q) giving ℓ^2 . Thus $\dim sp(2\ell, F) = \ell(2\ell + 1)$.

\mathbf{B}_ℓ : Let $\dim V = 2\ell + 1$. This time

$$s = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_\ell \\ 0 & I_\ell & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (6)$$

The Lie algebra of V endomorphisms x that satisfy (3) is called $o(2\ell + 1, F)$ (for orthogonal). Note that $o(2\ell + 1, F) \subset sl(2\ell + 1, F)$. Moreover, $\dim o(2\ell + 1, F) = \ell(2\ell + 1)$ (the same dimension as that of $sp(2\ell, F)$).

$\mathbf{D}_\ell(\ell \geq 2)$: Let $\dim V = 2\ell$. This time

$$s = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & I_\ell \\ I_\ell & 0 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (7)$$

The Lie algebra of V endomorphisms x that satisfy (3) is called $o(2\ell, F)$. Note that $o(2\ell, F) \subset sl(2\ell, F)$ and that $\dim o(2\ell, F) = \ell(2\ell - 1)$.

The above description given for the orthogonal algebras actually correspond to the maximal noncompact forms. The real orthogonal algebra $o(\ell)$ is obtained with a real vector space V with $\dim V = \ell$ and $s = I_\ell$. This is the algebra of real antisymmetric matrices $x = -x^t$.

COMPLEX AND REAL LIE ALGEBRAS

The relevant issues are clarified with an example involving Lie algebras with three generators. Consider the Lie algebra $sl(2, C)$ of complex traceless 2×2 matrices. The Lie bracket is commutator (preserves tracelessness). This is naturally a vector space over the complex numbers as traceless matrices remain traceless by multiplication by a complex number. The algebra is therefore a complex Lie algebra. We can choose a basis of generators

$$J_+ = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad J_- = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad J_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (8)$$

The brackets are given

$$[J_+, J_-] = J_3, \quad [J_3, J_\pm] = \pm 2J_\pm. \quad (9)$$

It is possible to show this complex Lie algebra is the unique simple complex Lie algebra with three generators. Even though the algebra is complex we can easily get a real algebra since the brackets in (9) have only real numbers. We can declare the vector space to be real and say that the abstract basis vectors (J_+, J_-, J_3) have the brackets in (9). This is now a

real Lie algebra. More concretely we can define the real algebra as the algebra $sl(2, R)$ of traceless 2×2 real matrices (naturally a real vector space). The generators in (8) are good ones for this algebra.

There is a way to construct another real algebra from $sl(2, C)$, this time take

$$\begin{aligned} 2S_1 &= -i(J_+ + J_-) = -i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & 2S_2 &= J_- - J_+ = -i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \\ 2S_3 &= -iJ_3 = -i \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

We recognize $S_k = -i\sigma_k/2$, with σ_k the (hermitian and traceless) Pauli matrices. The brackets have real structure constants

$$[S_i, S_j] = \epsilon_{ijk} S_k, \tag{11}$$

Declaring the S_k to be basis vectors of a real vector space we get the familiar simple real Lie algebra $su(2)$, described as the algebra of 2×2 traceless *antihermitian* matrices. Although the matrices have complex entries, the vector space is naturally real – complex multiplication ruins antihermiticity. The real algebras $sl(2, R)$ and $su(2)$ are *not* isomorphic over the reals, they are the two real forms associated with $sl(2, C)$.

The real forms of $sl(\ell + 1, C)$ are $sl(\ell + 1, R)$ and $su(\ell + 1)$, defined as the algebra of traceless antihermitian $(\ell + 1) \times (\ell + 1)$ matrices (a compact subalgebra of $sl(\ell + 1, C)$).

The real Lie algebra $u(\ell)$ is defined as the algebra of $\ell \times \ell$ antihermitian (complex) matrices. It has real dimension ℓ^2 (the associated Lie group is the unitary matrix group $U(\ell)$).

The real Lie algebra $usp(2\ell)$ is the algebra of antihermitian matrices in $sp(2\ell, C)$. Using (5) the antihermiticity gives

$$\begin{pmatrix} m & n \\ -n^\dagger & -m^t \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad m^\dagger = -m, \quad n^t = n. \tag{12}$$

The real dimension of $usp(2\ell)$ is $\ell(2\ell + 1)$. The algebras $usp(2\ell)$ and $sp(2\ell, R)$ are two real forms of $sp(2\ell, C)$. Actually $usp(2\ell)$ is a compact real form while $sp(2\ell, R)$ is a non-compact real form.

REPRESENTATIONS

A **representation** of a Lie algebra \mathcal{G} on a vector space V is a linear map $\psi : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow gl(V)$ which is a homomorphism of Lie-algebras ($\psi([x_1, x_2]) = [\psi(x_1), \psi(x_2)]$, for all $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{G}$). It is an **irreducible** representation if the image of \mathcal{G} in $gl(V)$ acts on V without a proper invariant subspace.

Schur's lemma. Let $\psi : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow gl(V)$ be an irreducible representation on a finite dimensional complex vector space V . Let $\alpha : V \rightarrow V$ be a linear mapping commuting with $\psi(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{G}$. Then α is proportional to the identity map: $\alpha = aI$ for some number a . *Proof:* α must have one eigenvector in V with some eigenvalue a since $\det(\alpha - \lambda I) = 0$ must have at least one (complex) root $\lambda = a$). Then show that the set of vectors in V with α eigenvalue a form a nonvanishing invariant subspace. Conclude that the invariant subspace must be the whole V , so $\alpha(v) = av$ for any vector in V , which means α is a multiple of the identity.)

The **adjoint** representation of the Lie algebra is a representation where the vector space in question is precisely the Lie algebra: $V = \mathcal{G}$. We write $\text{ad} : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow gl(\mathcal{G})$ and define $\text{ad } x$ as the linear map

$$\text{ad } x : y \rightarrow [x, y] \quad \text{or} \quad \text{ad } x(y) = [x, y]. \quad (13)$$

To verify it is a representation we must check that the linear maps satisfy

$$[\text{ad } x, \text{ad } y] = \text{ad } [x, y]. \quad (14)$$

This is verified acting on an element of the algebra and using the Jacobi identity.

The adjoint representation of a **simple** Lie algebra is irreducible for otherwise, by (13), the invariant subspace would be an ideal. For semisimple algebras the adjoint representation is reducible.

The **kernel** of ad is formed by the elements x of the algebra that generate the zero map, and therefore must have zero brackets with everything. So the kernel of ad coincides with the center \mathcal{Z} of the Lie algebra. If \mathcal{G} is simple its center vanishes and the map $\text{ad} : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow gl(\mathcal{G})$ is one to one; any simple Lie algebra \mathcal{G} is isomorphic to a subalgebra of $gl(\mathcal{G})$.

Looking at the generators we have

$$\text{ad } T_a (T_b) = [T_a, T_b] = T_c f_{ab}^c. \quad (15)$$

To find the explicit matrix form of the adjoint action we view T_b as the column vector with all entries equal to zero except for a 1 in the b -th entry. Then $\text{ad } T_a (T_b) = T_c(\text{ad } T_a)_{cb}$ and we thus conclude that

$$(\text{ad } T_a)_{cb} = f_{ab}{}^c. \quad (16)$$

An arbitrary representation r of \mathcal{G} of dimension d_r is defined by $d_r \times d_r$ matrices t_a^r that represent the generators:

$$[t_a^r, t_b^r] = f_{ab}{}^c t_c^r. \quad (17)$$

On the Lie algebra there is a well defined symmetric bilinear form $\kappa(\cdot, \cdot)$ called the **Killing metric** and defined as (with \circ denoting composition of linear maps)

$$\kappa(x, y) = -\text{Tr} \left(\text{ad } x \circ \text{ad } y \right). \quad (18)$$

$\kappa(x, y)$ is simply minus the trace of the operator $[x, [y, \cdot]]$. This metric is uniquely defined, up to a multiplicative constant, by two properties:

(i) invariance under automorphisms σ of the Lie algebra ($\sigma : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{G}$ is an automorphism if $[x, y] = z$ implies that $[\sigma(x), \sigma(y)] = \sigma(z)$. σ defines an element in $gl(\mathcal{G})$.)

$$\kappa(\sigma(x), \sigma(y)) = \kappa(x, y), \quad (19)$$

(ii) associativity, in the sense that

$$\kappa([x, y], z) = \kappa(x, [y, z]). \quad (20)$$

One readily verifies that (18) satisfies (19) (note that $\text{ad } \sigma(x) = \sigma \circ \text{ad } x \circ \sigma^{-1}$) and (20).

A fundamental result of Killing and Cartan is that a Lie algebra is **semisimple** if and only if its Killing form is **nondegenerate**. A bilinear form $\kappa(\cdot, \cdot)$ is degenerate if there is a non-zero vector x such that $\kappa(x, \cdot) = 0$. A particular case is readily verified; algebras with *abelian* ideals (thus not semisimple) have degenerate Killing forms. To see this split the algebra generators into two groups : those in the abelian ideal I and those outside I . With $x \in I$, $\kappa(x, y) = 0$ for all y or, equivalently, the trace of the operator $[x, [y, \cdot]]$ vanishes. This is clear because acting on elements of I this operator gives zero, and acting on elements outside I it gives elements inside I . Thus κ is degenerate.

A Lie algebra is said to be **compact semisimple** if the Killing form is **positive definite**, that is $\kappa(x, x) > 0$ for $x \neq 0$. The corresponding Lie group is a compact manifold.

While the product of elements $x, y \in \mathcal{G}$ is not defined, having representations $\psi(x), \psi(y)$ we can multiply them together and the Lie bracket becomes a commutator. This suggests the definition of the **universal enveloping algebra** $U(\mathcal{G})$ associated with the Lie algebra \mathcal{G} . It is the associative algebra spanned by monomials in the generators of \mathcal{G} , (say, x, y, x^2, xy, yx, \dots) where monomials are identified upon use of the brackets as commutators (if $[x, y] = z$, we can say that in the enveloping algebra $xy = yx + z$).

A representation of a Lie **group** G on a vector space V is a map $G \rightarrow GL(V)$ which is a homomorphism of Lie groups. Here the **general linear group** $GL(V)$ is the group of *invertible* linear maps $V \rightarrow V$. Concretely, a representation r of dimension d_r a Lie group G is defined by an invertible $d_r \times d_r$ matrix $D^r(g)$ for each $g \in G$ such that

$$D^r(g_1)D^r(g_2) = D^r(g_1g_2), \quad \text{for all } g_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{G}. \quad (21)$$

Given a Lie group G with Lie algebra \mathcal{G} the **adjoint representation of the group** is a map $\text{Ad}: G \rightarrow \text{Aut}(\mathcal{G})$ that associates to each element $g \in G$ an invertible linear transformation $\text{Ad } g$ which is an automorphism of the Lie algebra \mathcal{G} :

$$\text{Ad } g [x, y] = [\text{Ad } g(x), \text{Ad } g(y)]. \quad (22)$$

It follows immediately from this and (19) that the Killing form is Ad-invariant:

$$\kappa(\text{Ad } g(x), \text{Ad } g(y)) = \kappa(x, y). \quad (23)$$

As befits a representation, one must have

$$\text{Ad}(g_1g_2) = \text{Ad}(g_1)\text{Ad}(g_2). \quad (24)$$

The representation can be described concretely as (with repeated indices summed)

$$\text{Ad } g : T_a \rightarrow \text{Ad } g(T_a) = T_b \bar{D}_{ba}(g), \quad (25)$$

where $\bar{D}_{ab}(g)$ denotes $\dim(\mathcal{G}) \times \dim(\mathcal{G})$ matrix representation of $\text{Ad } g$. One readily checks that the above two equations imply that, as expected, $\bar{D}_{ab}(g_1g_2) = \bar{D}_{ac}(g_1)\bar{D}_{cb}(g_2)$.

Geometrically one understands the adjoint group action on the algebra as follows. Recall that the Lie algebra \mathcal{G} associated with a Lie group G can be identified with the tangent space of G at the identity. For any fixed $g \in G$ the transformation $h \rightarrow ghg^{-1}$ (conjugation by g)

is a map of G to itself leaving the identity element fixed and inducing a linear transformation from the tangent space at h to the tangent space at ghg^{-1} . Therefore, this map induces a linear transformation on the tangent space at the identity, a linear transformation on the Lie algebra¹.

The adjoint action can be described using any \mathcal{G} representation and a G representation of the same dimensionality. Let t_a^r be matrices representing the generators T_a in a representation r of \mathcal{G} and let $D^r(g)$ be matrices of the same dimension in the representation r of G . The action of $\text{Ad } g$ is via conjugation with $D^r(g)$, and (25) gives

$$D^r(g) t_a^r D^r(g)^{-1} = t_b^r \bar{D}_{ba}(g) . \quad (26)$$

If the representation r of \mathcal{G} is the adjoint, $D^r(g) = \bar{D}(g)$. Note that the $\bar{D}_{ba}(g)$ on the above right-hand side are numbers, not matrices.

For a matrix group G whose elements $V \in G$ are $k \times k$ matrices, the generators T_a of the associated Lie algebra \mathcal{G} are themselves $k \times k$ matrices (this is called the fundamental representation) and (25) and (26) read

$$\text{Ad } V(T_a) = V T_a V^{-1} = T_b \bar{D}_{ba}(V) . \quad (27)$$

COMPACT SEMISIMPLE LIE ALGEBRAS

Consider again the Killing metric

$$\kappa_{ab} \equiv \kappa(T_a, T_b) = -\text{Tr}(\text{ad } T_a \circ \text{ad } T_b) = -\text{Tr}(\bar{t}_a \bar{t}_b) . \quad (28)$$

where \bar{t}_a denotes the matrix representation of the adjoint action ($\text{ad } T_a$). By (16) we have $(\bar{t}_a)_{cb} = f_{ab}^c$. The metric is real since the structure constants are real. We note that

$$-\text{Tr}([\bar{t}_a, \bar{t}_b] \bar{t}_c) = f_{ab}^e \kappa_{ec} . \quad (29)$$

Cyclicity of the trace implies that the $f_{ab}^e \kappa_{ec}$ is totally antisymmetric in a, b and c .

¹More precisely the Lie Algebra \mathcal{G} associated with a group G is defined as the set of all left-invariant vector fields on the group manifold. The bracket is the Lie bracket of vector fields, viewed as differential operators. As a vector space, the set of left-invariant vector fields is isomorphic to the tangent space to the group at the identity (each tangent vector at the identity can be extended to a left-invariant vector field). By left-invariant one means invariant under diffeomorphisms of the group induced by left multiplication: $g \rightarrow ag, \forall g \in G$.

Since the matrix κ_{ab} is symmetric, real, and positive definite (\mathcal{G} is compact semisimple)² there is an real orthogonal \mathcal{O} matrix that diagonalizes κ , namely $\mathcal{O}\kappa\mathcal{O}^T = \mathcal{D}$, with \mathcal{D} a diagonal matrix with positive entries. We can define new generators $T'_a = \mathcal{O}_{ac}T_c$, and then we verify that

$$-\text{Tr}(\bar{t}'_a \bar{t}'_b) = \mathcal{D}_{ab}.$$

By a further (real) scaling all diagonal elements can be made equal to a constant denoted as $C(\mathcal{G})$. In the resulting basis, which we call again T_a , we have

$$-\text{Tr}(\bar{t}_a \bar{t}_b) = C(\mathcal{G}) \delta_{ab} = \kappa_{ab}. \quad (30)$$

In this basis we write $[T_a, T_b] = f_{ab}{}^c T_c$. Since $f_{ab}{}^e \kappa_{ec}$ is totally antisymmetric, (30) implies that $f_{ab}{}^e \delta_{ec} = f_{ab}{}^c$ is totally antisymmetric. We thus define a totally antisymmetric symbol

$$f_{abc} \equiv f_{ab}{}^c, \quad (31)$$

and write

$$[T_a, T_b] = f_{abc} T_c, \quad (\text{ad } T_a)_{bc} = -f_{abc}. \quad (32)$$

We have shown that for compact semisimple real Lie algebras there is a basis in which equations (30) and (32) hold.

We now verify that the adjoint representation of G acts on \mathcal{G} via real orthogonal matrices. For this we begin with (30), insert \bar{D} matrices, and use (26) applied to the adjoint:

$$\begin{aligned} -C(\mathcal{G})\delta_{ab} &= \text{Tr}(\bar{t}_a \bar{t}_b) \\ &= \text{Tr}\left(\bar{D}(g)\bar{t}_a\bar{D}^{-1}(g)\bar{D}(g)\bar{t}_b\bar{D}^{-1}(g)\right) \\ &= \text{Tr}\left(\bar{t}_e \bar{t}_f\right)\bar{D}_{ea}(g)\bar{D}_{fb}(g) \\ &= -C(\mathcal{G})\bar{D}_{ea}(g)\bar{D}_{eb}(g), \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

showing that the matrix $\bar{D}(g)$ is indeed orthogonal ($\bar{D}^T \bar{D} = 1$).

For arbitrary representations of the Lie algebra we define the matrix $\kappa(r)$

$$\kappa_{ab}(r) \equiv -\text{Tr}(t_a^r t_b^r). \quad (34)$$

²Positivity also follows if the matrices in the adjoint representation of \mathcal{G} are antihermitian: any $x \in \mathcal{G}$ is represented in the adjoint by an $X(= -X^\dagger)$ and $\kappa(x, x) = -\text{Tr}(XX) = \text{Tr}(X^\dagger X) \geq 0$.

Inserting group matrices $D^r(g)$ as in (33) and using (26) we see that

$$\kappa_{ab}(r) = \kappa_{cd}(r) \bar{D}_{ca}(g) \bar{D}_{db}(g) \quad \rightarrow \quad \kappa(r) = \bar{D}^T(g) \kappa(r) \bar{D}(g).$$

Since $\bar{D}(g)$ is orthogonal it follows that $\kappa(r)$ commutes with all matrices $\bar{D}(g)$. For simple algebras the adjoint representation of the corresponding group acts irreducibly. By Schur's lemma this means that $\kappa(r)$ must be proportional to the identity. We thus define

$$-\text{Tr}(t_a^r t_b^r) = C(r) \delta_{ab}. \quad (35)$$

In the chosen basis, the element $T_a T_a$ (a summed!) of the enveloping algebra is called a **Casimir operator**. It commutes with all T_a 's and therefore with all elements of the enveloping algebra. Indeed, with repeated indices summed,

$$[T_a T_a, T_c] = T_a (f_{acb} T_b) + (f_{acb} T_b) T_a = (f_{acb} - f_{bca}) T_a T_b = 0. \quad (36)$$

More geometrically, for any semisimple algebra $\kappa^{ab} T_a T_b$ is a Casimir, where the inverse κ^{ab} of the Killing metric κ_{ab} exists because of semisimplicity.

Since $T_a T_a$ is a Casimir, in any irreducible representation r the Casimir matrix $t_a^r t_a^r$ commutes with all the matrices t_a^r representing generators. The Casimir matrix, by Schur's lemma, must be a multiple of the identity in *any* irreducible representation:

$$-t_a^r t_a^r = C_2(r) I_{d(r)}, \quad (37)$$

where $d(r)$ denotes the dimension of the representation r . The constants $C(r)$ and $C_2(r)$ are simply related; taking the trace of (37) and the contraction of (30) one finds

$$C_2(r) \dim(r) = C(r) \dim(\mathcal{G}). \quad (38)$$

For the adjoint representation (37) gives

$$f_{acd} f_{bcd} = C_2(\mathcal{G}) \delta_{ab} \quad \rightarrow \quad C_2(\mathcal{G}) = \frac{1}{\dim(\mathcal{G})} f_{abc} f_{abc}, \quad (39)$$

and (38) implies that $C_2(\mathcal{G}) = C(\mathcal{G})$. As defined, the constants C and C_2 are basis dependent.

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