

From $SU(2)$ to $SU(3)$ and Beyond

We've seen that to understand irreps of $SU(2)$ it's good to use $SL(2, \mathbb{C}) \supseteq SU(2)$.

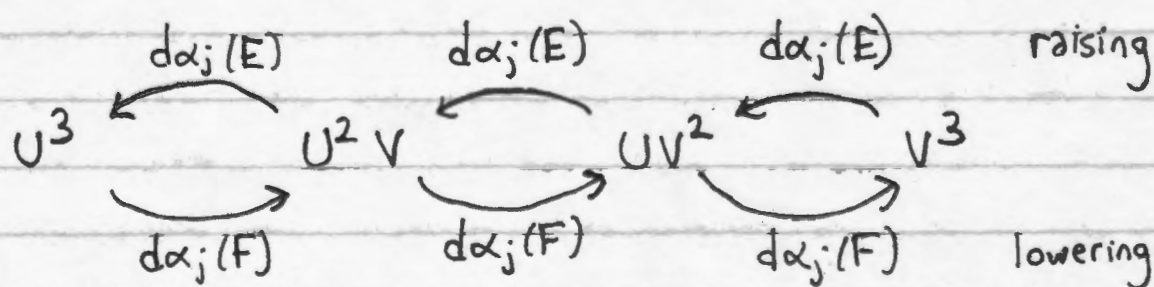
Complex irreps of $SU(2)$ correspond to complex-linear irreps of $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$, and $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ is nice because it has "raising and lowering operators". $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ has basis

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{raising operator}$$

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{lowering operator}$$

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

and the spin- j irrep of $\mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C})$ works like this:



when $j = 3/2$.

Since

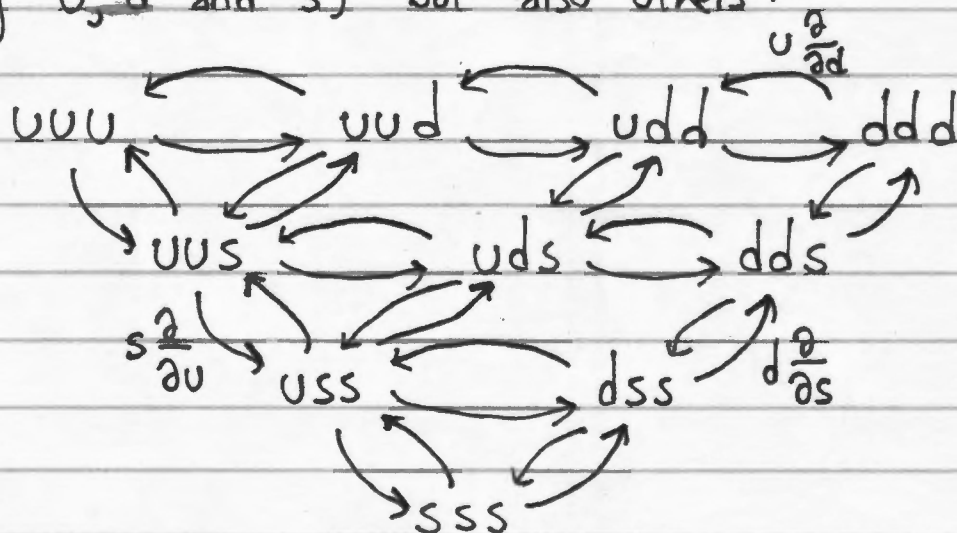
$$d\alpha_j : \mathfrak{sl}(2, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{gl}(S^n \mathbb{C}^2)$$

has

$$d\alpha_j(E) = u \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \quad (\text{raises power of } u)$$

$$d\alpha_j(F) = v \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \quad (\text{lowers power of } u)$$

The same idea works for $SU(3) \subseteq SL(3, \mathbb{C})$, which has irreps on $S^n \mathbb{C}^3$ (the space of degree- n homogeneous polynomials in 3 variables, say u, d and s) but also others:



This is the rep on $S^3 \mathbb{C}^3$.

This rep

$$d\rho : \mathfrak{sl}(3, \mathbb{C}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{ogl}(S^3 \mathbb{C}^3)$$

has 3 raising operators that work like this:

$$d\rho \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = u \frac{\partial}{\partial d}$$

$$d\rho \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = u \frac{\partial}{\partial s}$$

$$d\rho \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = d \frac{\partial}{\partial s}$$

and 3 lowering operators coming from lower triangular elementary matrices.

And so on for $SU(n) \subseteq SL(n, \mathbb{C})$.

But why am I calling the 3 variables u, d and s ? The answer lies in physics.

After physicists used $SU(2)$ to study spin, Heisenberg used it to study "isospin" in 1932. The proton and neutron have only the same mass, so it's natural to try considering them as 2 states in $\mathbb{C}^2$: two states of a single particle, the "nucleon".

$$p = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \uparrow \quad \text{"isospin up"}$$

$$n = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \downarrow \quad \text{"isospin down"}$$

In 1947 people discovered "pions", 3 particles, and described them as 3 states in the isospin-1 rep of $SU(2)$, $S^2 \mathbb{C}^2 \cong \mathbb{C}^3$. In the 1960s they discovered other particles including the " Δ baryons":

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta^{++} &= \uparrow\uparrow\uparrow \\
 \Delta^+ &= \uparrow\uparrow\downarrow \\
 \Delta^0 &= \uparrow\downarrow\downarrow \\
 \Delta^- &= \downarrow\downarrow\downarrow
 \end{aligned}
 \in S^3 \mathbb{C}^2 \cong \mathbb{C}^4$$

Then particles were discovered that didn't fit into this scheme, and in 1964 Gell-Mann introduced $SU(3)$. This has a tautologous rep on $\mathbb{C}^3$ with basis

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = u \quad \text{"up quark"}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = d \quad \text{"down quark"}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = s \quad \text{"strange quark"}$$

The proton & neutron were revealed to be made of quarks, and so were pions, Δ baryons & many other particles! Particles could be

grouped into irreps of $SU(3)$. For example, $SU(3)$ has an irrep on $S^3 \mathbb{C}^3$ which includes these particles (with funny names):

$$\begin{array}{c} \Delta^{++} \\ \hline uuu \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Delta^+ \\ \hline uud \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Delta^0 \\ \hline udd \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Delta^- \\ \hline ddd \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Sigma^{*+} \\ \hline uus \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Sigma^{*0} \\ \hline uds \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Sigma^{*-} \\ \hline dds \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Xi^{*0} \\ \hline \hline u s s \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Xi^{*-} \\ \hline \hline d s s \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \Omega^- \\ \hline s s s \end{array}$$

The Ω^- was not yet observed when Gell-Mann predicted its existence & its properties. It was soon seen, and he won the Nobel Prize for this in 1969.

Gell-Mann's $SU(3)$ was only an approximate symmetry and far from the last word in particle physics. The "Standard Model", our current best theory, has symmetry group $SU(3) \times SU(2) \times U(1)$ describing three aspects of nature:

$SU(3)$: the strong nuclear force

$SU(2)$: the weak nuclear force

$U(1)$: the electromagnetic force

The $SU(3)$ here is used in a completely different way than Gell-Mann's $SU(3)$!