

1. Let G be the set of complex 2×2 matrices of the form

$$g = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ -\bar{\beta} & \bar{\alpha} \end{pmatrix}$$

for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ and $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 \neq 0$.

- a) Show that G is a group using matrix multiplication as the group operation.
- b) Show that $SU(2)$ is a subgroup of G .
- c) Show that $V := \{\gamma | g = e^{i\gamma} \in G\}$ is a vector space (when ignoring the multi-valuedness of the logarithm) and find a basis for V .

solution:

- a) We can do this in a straight-forward way by checking the group properties in this explicit form. A little more elegant is to realize that these are exactly the complex 2×2 matrices that obey

$$g^\dagger = g^{-1} \det(g) \tag{0.1}$$

with $\det g \neq 0$. Writing

$$g = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \tag{0.2}$$

this implies that

$$g^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{a} & \bar{c} \\ \bar{b} & \bar{d} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix} \tag{0.3}$$

which results in the general form above.

Now this is clearly obeyed by the identity, if g obeys it then

$$(g^{-1})^\dagger = (g^\dagger)^\dagger \det g = g \det g^{-1} \tag{0.4}$$

so the inverse is in G as well. Matrix multiplication is associative and finally

$$(gh)^\dagger = h^\dagger g^\dagger = h^{-1} \det h \ g^{-1} \det g = (gh)^{-1} \det gh \tag{0.5}$$

so that composition of group elements makes new group elements.

Remark: this is nothing but the group of quaternions written as complex matrices.

- b) $SU(2)$ are those $g \in G$ with $\det g = |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. This feature is preserved when taking the inverse or multiplying two elements of $SU(2)$, so that $SU(2)$ is a subgroup.

- c) There are two ways of approaching this. Let me first use part c), which immediately tells me that I can use $i\sigma_j$ with σ_j the Pauli matrices in the exponential. We can write any $g \in G$ that is also in $SU(2)$ as

$$g_{SU(2)} = \exp \sum_j i a_j \sigma_j. \quad (0.6)$$

Now this is all of it for $SU(2)$ which is real 3-dimensional (there are three real a_j), but how about the present case? Any element of G is determined by fixing the complex numbers α and β s.t. $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 \neq 0$ and this is four real parameters. We are hence looking for one more direction. What do matrices in G look like that are not in $SU(2)$? Here is an example: for any $\alpha = e^r$ with $r \neq 0$ we are not in $SU(2)$:

$$g = \begin{pmatrix} e^r & 0 \\ 0 & e^r \end{pmatrix} = \exp r \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (0.7)$$

Now we can try writing a $g \in G$ as

$$g = \exp \left(\sum_j i a_j \sigma_j \right) \exp \left(r \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \exp \left(\sum_j i a_j \sigma_j + r \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) \quad (0.8)$$

as the identity matrix commutes with everything. We hence arrive at the set of all γ s as

$$\left\{ \sum_j a_j \sigma_j - i r \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \middle| a_j \in \mathbb{R}, r \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \quad (0.9)$$

We are free to choose the a_j and r in the real numbers so that the set of all γ just described is \mathbb{R}^4 , which is a vector space. Equally, you can show that addition and scalar multiplication preserves this set. A basis is given by $\sigma_j, j = 1, 2, 3$ and i times the identity matrix.

What is slightly unsatisfactory about this is that we don't know if we might have missed something, i.e. if the above is really V . What the above argument shows is that the general g we have constructed is a product of something in $SU(2)$ with the identity matrix times a positive number, so we can reach

$$e^{i\gamma} = g_{SU(2)} \begin{pmatrix} e^r & 0 \\ 0 & e^r \end{pmatrix} = e^r g_{SU(2)} \quad (0.10)$$

We can simply rescale any element in G by a positive number to reach an element in $SU(2)$, so the above is in fact general and we are done.

A faster way is to realize that

$$g^\dagger = (e^{i\gamma})^\dagger = e^{-i\gamma^\dagger} = g^{-1} \det g = e^{-i\gamma} e^{i \operatorname{tr} \gamma} \quad (0.11)$$

implies

$$\gamma^\dagger = \gamma - \mathbb{1} \operatorname{tr} \gamma \quad (0.12)$$

which forms a vector space: we have

$$(c\gamma)^\dagger = c\gamma - \mathbb{1} \operatorname{tr} c\gamma \quad (0.13)$$

for $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and

$$(\delta + \gamma)^\dagger = \delta^\dagger + \gamma^\dagger = \delta + \gamma - \mathbb{1} (\operatorname{tr} \gamma + \operatorname{tr} \delta) = \delta + \gamma - \mathbb{1} \operatorname{tr} (\gamma + \delta) \quad (0.14)$$

A basis of the vector space of solutions to $\gamma^\dagger = \gamma - \mathbb{1} \operatorname{tr} \gamma$ are the matrices we have found above, $\sigma_j, j = 1, 2, 3$ and $i\mathbb{1}$.

2. Which of the following sets are closed in the standard topology of \mathbb{R}^m ? Which are open?

- (a) $\{0 < x < \pi\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ with coordinate x
- (b) $\{x_1 < -2\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ with coordinates (x_1, x_2)
- (c) $\{0 < x \leq \pi\} \subset \mathbb{R}$
- (d) $\{0 < x_1 < 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ with coordinates (x_1, x_2)
- (e) $\mathbb{R}^n \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$
- (f) $\{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x_1^2 \leq 42 - x_2^2\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ with coordinates (x_1, x_2)
- (g) $\{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$

solution:

- (a) open, not closed
- (b) open, not closed
- (c) not open and not closed
- (d) open, not closed
- (e) open **and** closed; the same is true for the complement, \emptyset is also both open and closed; these are the only such sets
- (f) this is a closed disc of radius $\sqrt{42}$, closed, not open
- (g) closed, not open

3. Prove that arbitrary unions and finite intersections of open sets in \mathbb{R}^n are again open. Why is the intersection of an infinite number of open sets not open in general ?

solution:

Let $U = \bigcup_{u \in S} u$ be the union of an infinite set S of open sets u . Let \mathbf{p} be any point in U . Then it must be contained in one of the u and hence there is an open ball entirely contained in u because u is open. As U is the union of all of these, this ball is also contained in U .

For the second statement, let us start by considering a non-empty intersection between two open sets $U = U_1 \cap U_2$. For any point \mathbf{p} in this intersection we can find a ball $B_{r_1}(\mathbf{p})$ centered at \mathbf{p} that sits entirely in U_1 , and a ball $B_{r_2}(\mathbf{p})$ that is entirely in U_2 . Without loss of generality we can assume that $r_1 \leq r_2$. But this means that $B_{r_1}(\mathbf{p}) \subseteq B_{r_2}(\mathbf{p})$ so that $B_{r_1}(\mathbf{p}) \subset U$.

Now let $U = \bigcap_{u \in S} u$ for a finite set S . Consider any point $\mathbf{p} \in U$. By repeating the above argument a finite number of times, we will find a finite sized open ball sitting in U .

The latter argument fails for an arbitrary intersection $U_i, i \in \mathbb{N}$. Here, it can happen that the sizes r_i approach zero as $i \rightarrow \infty$. Letting $r_i \rightarrow 0$ for $i \rightarrow \infty$, the infinite intersection of open sets

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} B_{r_i}(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{p}$$

is just a point, which is not an open set. Note that each r_i is finite, so each U_i is open.

Here are some things to ponder:

1. What is the relationship between $SO(3)$ and $SU(2)$?
2. How do open and closed subsets of \mathbb{R}^m work?
3. What properties would you ask of open closed sets without reference to \mathbb{R}^m ?