

An Introduction to Group Theory:->

A group G is set of elements $\{a, b, c, \dots\}$ including multiplication or composition rule.

ie. if $a \in G$ and $b \in G$ then $ab \in G$.

It ^{may} also have a closure properties ie $ab = ba$. those group is called abelian and if $ab \neq ba$ then it is non-abelian.

Group always satisfy four properties.

- 1) Associativity:- multiplication rule is associative ie. $(ab)c = a(bc)$
- 2) Identity element:- if $ae = ea = a$ then e is identity element & it is unique for a group.
- 3) Inverse element:- there always lies inverse of a ($a \in G$) such that $a^{-1}a = aa^{-1} = e$.
- 4) Order:- it is no. of elements in a group G .

Representation of a group:-

representation is a mapping that takes group elements $g \in G$ into linear operators F that preserve the composition rule of the group in the sense that,

$$F(a)F(b) = F(ab) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

also $F(e) = I$ \rightarrow preserves identity.

if $F \in H$ and $a, b \in G$ and if it satisfy eq (1) then it is said that, G is homomorphic to H .

Group parameter:-

like $F(a)$, group G is also a fn of one or more inputs called parameters. Say G is a group with element $g \in G$ are specified by finite set of parameter say n as.

$$\{\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_n\}$$

Then the group element g is

$$g = G(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_n)$$

here identity is defined as, $e = G(0, 0, \dots, 0)$

Lie Groups

Consider the group of infinite number of elements. it has a finite set of continuously varying parameters.

Consider group element $g = G(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_n)$ here the angle θ varies continuously over a range $0-2\pi$. So G can be parameterized by a finite no of parameters, (here angle of rotation).

So, if a group G , (i) depends on a finite set of continuous parameter, θ_i

(ii) Derivatives of group element $\frac{\partial g}{\partial \theta_i}$ wrt. all the parameter exist

then the group is known as, lie group.

Consider a group G with single element θ .

then, $g(\theta) |_{\theta=0} = e = \text{identity}$.

Now generators of a group can be obtain by differentiating $g(\theta)$ w.r.t to its element θ at $\theta=0$.

$$X = \left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial \theta} \right|_{\theta=0}$$

if there is n no. of parameter ($n \rightarrow \infty$)

then generator will be $X_i = \left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial \theta_i} \right|_{\theta_i=0}$.

In rotation, length of vector remains constant and after having θ_i rot, it comes to same state as ^{was} before rotation.

So quantum mechanically rotation should not change the magnitude of a vector. hence it should be unitary and Hermitian.

$$\therefore X_i = -i \left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial \theta_i} \right|_{\theta=0}$$

this generator for finite θ , allow to define a group representation of a group (say D).

\therefore We can expand D in terms of $\epsilon \theta$ where ϵ very small +ve real no.

$$\therefore D(\epsilon \theta) = 1 + i \epsilon \theta X \quad X = \text{generators.}$$

[not $\epsilon \theta$ = amount of rotation, X = generators of rotation]

here $\epsilon = \frac{1}{n}$, n = no. of rotation produced.

So for n no. of successive rotation,

$$D(\theta) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + i \frac{\theta X}{n} \right)^n$$

$$= e^{i \theta X}$$

$$D^\dagger(\theta) = e^{-i \theta X^\dagger}$$

$$= e^{-i \theta X}$$

$\because X$ is hermitian
[fix is structural constant.]

$$\therefore D^\dagger(\theta) D(\theta) = D(\theta) D^\dagger(\theta) = 1$$

Note:- generators are imp. because they forms the Vector Space. It means adding 2 generators third gen can be obtained belonging to same group. and even by multiplying by some scales new obtained gen will be of same groups. Gen. follows commutation relation. $[X_i, X_j] = i f_{ijk} X_k$

Rotation Groups.

it preserves the lengths of vectors. thus it requires the operator to be unitary.

we know if $a \in G$ & $b \in G$ then $ab \in G$.
So let R_1 and R_2 be two rotations. Thus the combination of these two rotations should be the element of same group meaning combination should rise to new rotation.

$$\therefore R_3 = R_1 R_2 \quad \text{or} \quad R_3 = R_2 R_1$$

In general $R_1 R_2 \neq R_2 R_1$

i.e. rotation is a ^{non} commutative operator.

However it follows the associative law,

$$R_1 (R_2 R_3) = (R_1 R_2) R_3.$$

In rotation group there lies a identity operation meaning operation giving no rotation. Similarly by opposite rotation one can give no rotation so there lies an inverse of a rotation.

Rotation Representation:-

Consider x_i be the two dimensional p.v. which is rotated by an angle θ by rotational operator (matrix) R_{ij} to transform it to new p.v. x'_j .

$$x'_j = R_{ij} x_i$$

In two dimension for θ angle rotation $R(\theta)$ matrix is given by

$$R(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

Such that

$$x_1' = \cos \theta x_1 + \sin \theta x_2$$

$$x_2' = -\sin \theta x_1 + \cos \theta x_2$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta x_1 + \sin \theta x_2 \\ -\sin \theta x_1 + \cos \theta x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Consider the transpose of $R(\theta)$

$$[R(\theta)]^T = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

Now

$$R(\theta) R(\theta)^T = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta & -\cos \theta \sin \theta + \sin \theta \cos \theta \\ -\sin \theta \cos \theta + \sin \theta \cos \theta & +\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I$$

Thus $[R(\theta)]^T$ is an inverse of a $R(\theta)$. This can easily be proved if inverse of angle i.e. $(-\theta)$ rotation is produced i.e. $R(-\theta) = R(\theta)^T$

In group theory various groups are classified according to determination of matrices

$$\text{So } \det R(\theta) = \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$$

However in general the det. is not equal to ± 1 . For this case it is said that rot-matrix is a proper rotation.

Let us represent $R(\theta) \equiv R_1$

$\therefore R_1 R_2$ represents the rotation $R_3 = R(\theta_1 + \theta_2)$

$$\therefore \det [R_3] = \det [R_1 R_2] = \det [I] [I] = I$$

Thus one can say the matrix representation preserves the properties of a rotation group.

————— X ————— X ————— X —————

SO(N)

~~So~~ The group $SO(N)$ are special orthogonal $N \times N$ matrices. here special refers to the fact the matrices has determinant +1. $SO(N)$ is a subgroup of $O(N)$ having $N \times N$ orthogonal matrix with any arbitrary det. Clearly Rotation belongs to $SO(3)$ group. (In 3Dm).

[Note for O to be orthogonal matrix $OO^T = O^T O = I$ & for it to belong to $SO(N)$ group $\det O = +1$]

There in 3 dimension there lies three types of rotation about x, y, z axis say α, ϕ & θ . So three rotation matrix is given by.

$$R_{oc}(\xi) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \xi & \sin \xi \\ 0 & -\sin \xi & \cos \xi \end{pmatrix} \quad R_y(\phi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & 0 & \sin \phi \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\sin \phi & 0 & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}$$

$$R_z(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So here generator is defined as,

$$\frac{dR_{z\epsilon}}{d\zeta} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\sin\zeta & \cos\zeta \\ 0 & -\cos\zeta & -\sin\zeta \end{pmatrix}$$

now setting $\zeta \rightarrow 0$

$$\left. \frac{dR_{z\epsilon}}{d\zeta} \right|_{\zeta=0} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Here $J_{z\epsilon} = -i \left. \frac{dR_{z\epsilon}}{d\zeta} \right|_{\zeta=0} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Similarly $J_y = -i \left. \frac{dR_y}{d\phi} \right|_{\phi \rightarrow 0} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$J_z = -i \left. \frac{dR_z}{d\theta} \right|_{\theta \rightarrow 0} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Recall, J_x, J_y, J_z is a familiar angular momentum matrices. This proves that angular momentum operator is a generator of rotation. So we can produce a small rotation using this generators say about z axis by $\epsilon\theta$ angle then

$$R_z(\epsilon\theta) = 1 + i J_z(\epsilon\theta).$$

from Quantum mechanics we also know,

$$[J_i, J_j] = i \epsilon_{ijk} J_k$$

where $\epsilon_{ijk} =$ structural constant

$= +1$ for cyclic order of 123

$= -1$ " only " " " 123

$= 0$ for random.

Say total of θ rotation is brought by a consecutive
 n no. of finite rotation ($n \rightarrow \infty$).

then

$$R_z(\theta) = \left[R_z\left(\frac{\theta}{n}\right) \right]^n$$

$$= \left[1 + i J_z \frac{\theta}{n} \right]^n$$

$$= 1 + i J_z \theta + \dots$$

$$= e^{i J_z \theta}$$

$$R(\vec{\theta}) = e^{i \vec{J} \cdot \vec{\theta}}$$

Unitary Group

Unitary operators preserve the inner products, meaning, that a unitary transformation leaves the probability for different ^{Hamiltonian} ~~invariant~~ among the states ~~invariant~~ unaffected. That is quantum physics is invariant under unitary transformation. Also unitary operators commutes with Hamiltonian. $[U, H] = 0$.

$$[U, H] = 0.$$

$U(N)$ consists of $N \times N$ unitary matrices. Special unitary groups denoted by $SU(N)$ are $N \times N$ unitary matrices with the unit determinant. Dimension of $SU(N)$ is given by $N^2 - 1$.

and is same to no. of generators.

i.e. $SU(2)$ has $2^2 - 1 = 3$ generators.

$SU(3)$ " $3^2 - 1 = 8$ " "

and the rank of $SU(N)$ is $N-1$

i.e. rank $SU(2)$ is $2-1 = 1$

" $SU(3)$ " $3-1 = 2$.

rank gives the no. of operators simultaneously diagonalized

Consider a simplest unitary operator $U(1)$ represented by a $U(1)$ symmetry in angle θ .

Say $U = e^{-i\theta}$

here $U_1 U_2 = e^{-i\theta_1} e^{-i\theta_2} = U_2 U_1$

$\boxed{U_1 U_2 = U_2 U_1}$ - abelian.

Note :- Many Lagrangian in QFT is invariant under $U(1)$ transformation.

Consider $z = r e^{i\alpha}$ be any arbitrary number with if multiplied by $e^{i\theta}$ then,
 $e^{i\theta} z = r e^{i(\theta+\alpha)}$

So new complex numbers have same length with increased angle.

For complex Lagrangian $\mathcal{L} = \partial_\mu \phi^\dagger \partial^\mu \phi - m^2 \phi^\dagger \phi$

It is invariant under transformation

$\phi \rightarrow U\phi = e^{-i\theta} \phi$

from Noether's theorem there lies a symmetry and in this case it is $U(1)$ symmetry.

It will be shown in electrodynamics, gauge boson (force mediating particles) associated with $U(1)$ symmetry is photon.

Unitary symmetry $U(1)$ results in conservation of various quantum numbers. say $U(1)$ symmetry is associated with quantum no. a then $U = e^{-ia\theta}$

Another significance is that Hamiltonian is invariant under transformation $e^{-ia\theta} H e^{ia\theta}$, i.e.e.

$$U H U^\dagger = H.$$

In this case adjoint of U is U^\dagger is inverse of U

$$\text{i.e. } U U^\dagger = U^\dagger U = I$$

$$\therefore U(-\theta) U(\theta) = U(\theta) U(-\theta) = I$$

Such symmetry exist with conservation of lepton & baryon numbers.

Say, an element of group $U(1)$ is a complex number of unit length i.e., $U = e^{-i\theta}$

Now consider a unitary group $U(2)$ which is a set of 2×2 unitary matrices.

$$\text{So } U^\dagger U = U U^\dagger = I$$

Now we are interested with subgroup of $U(2)$ with determinant +1. This group is $SU(2)$. In this case Pauli matrix is the generators.

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

Now there comes the rank of $SU(2)$ which is 1 which rep. the no. of diagonalized operator. which in this case is σ_3 .

Here we have chosen our generator as $\frac{1}{2} \sigma_i$ and the algebra is the familiar commutation relⁿ satisfied by pauli's matrix is

$$\left[\frac{\sigma_i}{2}, \frac{\sigma_j}{2} \right] = i \epsilon_{ijk} \frac{\sigma_k}{2}$$

Also pauli matrix does not commute i.e. $U_1 U_2 \neq U_2 U_1$

So $SU(2)$ is non abelian.

An element of $SU(2)$ Group can be written as,

$$U = \exp(i \sigma_j \alpha_j / 2)$$

where σ_i is one of pauli matrix and α_j is a number. to understand the use of $1/2$, let us consider $SU(2)$ & $SO(3)$ correspondance. ~~both~~ ^{we know} $SO(3)$ ~~is~~ ~~is~~ ~~is~~ reserves the length of a vector.

if $\vec{r} = x\hat{x} + y\hat{y} + z\hat{z}$ consider a matrix $\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{r}$

$$\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{r} = \sigma_x x + \sigma_y y + \sigma_z z$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & x \\ x & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -iy \\ iy & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} z & 0 \\ 0 & -z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{r} = \begin{pmatrix} z & x-iy \\ x+iy & -z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \det \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{r} = \begin{vmatrix} z & x-iy \\ x+iy & -z \end{vmatrix} = -z^2 - (x^2 + y^2) \\ = -|\vec{\alpha}|^2$$

also $\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{r}$ is hermitian with zero trace. Now consider unitary transformation on this matrix.

$$\therefore U (\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{r}) U^\dagger = \sigma_x (\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{r}) \sigma_x \\ = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} z & x-iy \\ x+iy & -z \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ = \begin{pmatrix} -z & x+iy \\ x-iy & z \end{pmatrix}$$

this still has zero trace & is hermitian with same determinant. this means $SU(2)$ also preserves length.

Now consider the $SU(2)$ transformation on two component spinor, like

$$\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{where } x = \frac{1}{2} (\beta^2 - \alpha^2); \quad y = \frac{i}{2} (\alpha^2 + \beta^2); \quad z = \alpha\beta$$

So $SU(2)$ transformation on $\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$ is just like that of $SO(3)$ transformation of $\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$. So $SU(2)$ transformation is associated with three angles α, β & γ where $(1/2)$ the rotation produced by $SU(2)$ is equivalent to $SO(3)$. So for arbitrary angle α , a transformation generating this rot. along x axis in $SU(2)$ is given by,

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha/2 & i \sin \alpha/2 \\ i \sin \alpha/2 & \cos \alpha/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Similarly in y axis it is.

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \beta/2 & \sin \beta/2 \\ -\sin \beta/2 & \cos \beta/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

& for rot- in z axis $U = \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\gamma/2} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\gamma/2} \end{pmatrix}$

∴ one can rep. all above by two parameter

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ -b^* & a^* \end{pmatrix}$$

So $SU(2)$ $\det U = +1$ which req^{rs}
 $a^2 + b^2 = 1$

This symmetry is imp. in case of weak int.
 in case of electro weak interaction, gauge-bosons
 corresponds to W & Z bosons that carry weak int.

Now consider $SU(3)$, here we will have
 8 generators and its rank is 2. It is of importance in
 case of study of quarks and QCD. These generators
 is called Gell-Mann matrices.

$$\lambda_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \lambda_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \lambda_3 = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

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

Here λ_3 and λ_8 is a diagonal matrix, these matrices have len and it satisfy the commutation relation.

$$[\lambda_i, \lambda_j] = 2i \sum_{k=1}^8 f_{ijk} \lambda_k$$

where structure coefficient is such that

$$f_{123} = 1 \quad f_{147} = f_{165} = f_{246} = f_{257} = f_{345} = f_{376} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$f_{458} = f_{687} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \quad \text{not zero.}$$

Casimir Operators.

It is a non linear fn of generators of a group that commutes with all of other generators. The no. of Casimir operator is given by its rank.

Say for $SU(3)$

$$J^2 = J_x^2 + J_y^2 + J_z^2 \text{ is a Casimir operator}$$

& J^2 commutes with all J_x, J_y & J_z .

This operator is invariant. i.e. it is a multiple of group identity element.

Discrete Symmetries and Quantum Numbers:-

Additive and Multiplicative Quantum Numbers:-

$$\sum n_i = \sum m_i$$

$n_i =$ quantum no before reaction

$m_i =$ " " after "

then it is additive quantum number.

if $\prod n_i = \prod m_i$ then it is multiplicative.

for composite system, $\sum n_i$ or $\prod n_i$ is if conserved then it represent a symmetry of a system.

Parity

if the potential V is symmetric about origin such that $V(-x) = V(x)$ & if $\psi(x)$ be solⁿ of schrodinger eqⁿ then $\psi(-x)$ is also the solⁿ. i.e.

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \psi(-x) + V(-x) \psi(-x) = E \psi(-x).$$

Also both $\psi(-x)$ & $\psi(x)$ solves to same eigenvalue E . This requires that $\psi(x) \Delta \psi(-x)$ is different by a constant parameter say α .

$$\psi(x) = \alpha \psi(-x). \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

interchanging $x \rightarrow -x$

$$\psi(-x) = \alpha \psi(x) \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

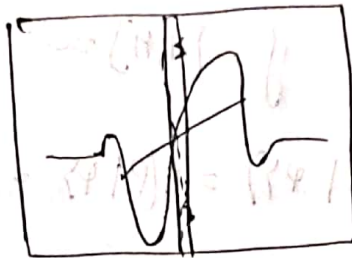
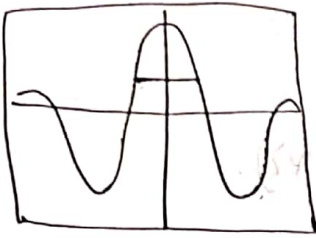
Therefore $\alpha^2 = 1$ from (i) & (ii)

$$\text{or } \alpha = \pm 1$$

ie. $\psi(-x) = -\psi(x) \rightarrow$ we say W.F. has odd parity.

$$\text{or } \psi(-x) = \psi(x) \quad \text{" " " " even " "}$$

even power leads to even parity & odd power leads to odd parity in W.F.



this leads us to one parity operator P with eigen value $+1$ or -1 and gives the test of odd or even parity.

applying the parity operator twice gives the original wave fn

$$P^2 \psi(x) = P \psi(-x) = \psi(x)$$

$$\therefore P^2 = 1$$

Also. if $|\psi\rangle$ be the wave fn. then

$$P |\psi\rangle = \pm |\psi\rangle$$

if $|\psi\rangle$ is an angular momentum state with momentum L then $P |L, m_z\rangle = (-1)^L |L, m_z\rangle$

ie. parity $= (-1)^L$. also if Parity Op. commute with H then parity is conserved.

$$[P, H] = PH - HP = 0.$$

Consequence of this is that for a state with parity α will remain same with evolution of time.

Also if $|\psi\rangle$ is nondegenerate eigenstate of H with eigen value E then,

$$P(H|\psi\rangle) = P(E|\psi\rangle) = E P(|\psi\rangle).$$

However if $[P, H] = 0$ then

$$P(H|\psi\rangle) = H(P|\psi\rangle) = E(P|\psi\rangle).$$

So eigen state of H is also the eigenstate of

P . So eigen state of P is $\alpha = \pm 1$ and is a important tool to identify the particles fermions and bosons. Thus it is a property of a particle and is intrinsic parity of the particle.

Notes \rightarrow Particle with spin $-\frac{1}{2}$ have positive parity.

i.e. electron and quarks has $\alpha = +1$.

Antiparticles with spin $\frac{1}{2}$ have -ve parity. therefore positron has $\alpha = -1$.

Bosons have same parity for both particles and antiparticles.

\rightarrow let $|\psi\rangle = |a\rangle|b\rangle$ be the composite system with parity of $|a\rangle$ & $|b\rangle$ be P_a & P_b respectively then the parity of the composite system is $P_\psi = P_a P_b$ i.e. parity is multiplicative in nature.

One can construct a new parity operator by combining P with one of the conserved charges of the standard model. Such as (1) elec. char. op. Q (2) lepton no. L (3) Baryon no. B .

usually parity is conserved in the electromagnetic & strong interactions but is not conserved in weak interaction.

Particles are labeled as, $J^P = \text{spin}^{\text{parity}}$

For spin-0 particle with negative parity is called pseudoscalar.

eg. π , K mesons etc. it is rep. by O^-

For spin-0 particle with the parity is called scalar. eg. Higgs Boson which is a field believed to provide mass generation. It is rep. by O^+ .

A vector boson has spin-1 & -ve parity (1^-). eg. photon similarly pseudo vector has spin-1 and +ve parity.

parity is not conserved in weak interaction & is called Parity violation. It is observed in weak decay of Θ^{60} . it is also found in weak decay of θ & τ mesons.

$$\theta^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^0$$

$$\tau^+ \rightarrow \pi^+ \pi^- \pi^+$$

} different final state of the θ^+ & τ^+ suggest that they were dif. particle. but parity violation resolves that they are same particle known as K^+ mesons.

Charge Conjugation.