

Lecture 5. Application of Group Theory to Quantum Mechanics. Part II

1 Matrix elements of operators

1.1 Irreducible operators

Let us consider a group \mathbf{G} of transformations in the space, i.e. for each element G :

$$\vec{r} \xrightarrow{G} \vec{r}' = G\vec{r}. \quad (1)$$

These transformations induce the corresponding transformations in the space of wave functions, which we denote by the operator $\hat{D}(G)$:

$$\psi(\vec{r}) \xrightarrow{G} \psi'(\vec{r}) = \hat{D}(G)\psi(\vec{r}) = \psi(G^{-1}\vec{r}). \quad (2)$$

If \hat{T} is an operator in the space of functions, then under transformation of the coordinates G , this operator will also be transformed as

$$\hat{T} \xrightarrow{G} \hat{T}' = \hat{D}(G)\hat{T}\hat{D}^{-1}(G). \quad (3)$$

Let us suppose that there exists a set of operators $\hat{T}_i^{(\alpha)}$ such that each transformed operator will be a superposition of the operators of the set,

$$\hat{T}_i^{(\alpha)} \xrightarrow{G} \hat{T}'_i^{(\alpha)} = \hat{D}(G)\hat{T}_i^{(\alpha)}\hat{D}^{-1}(G) = \sum_j D_{ji}^{(\alpha)}(G)\hat{T}_j^{(\alpha)}, \quad (4)$$

where $D_{ji}^{(\alpha)}(G)$ are the matrix elements of the irreducible representation $D^{(\alpha)}(G)$. Then the set of operators $\hat{T}_i^{(\alpha)}$ is called an *irreducible set* of operators. The operators $\hat{T}_i^{(\alpha)}$ satisfying (4) are said to transform according to the irreducible representation $D^{(\alpha)}(G)$ of the group \mathbf{G} . The number of the operators $\hat{T}_i^{(\alpha)}$ is equal to the dimension of the irreducible representation $D^{(\alpha)}(G)$.

In general, if an operator \hat{T} is not irreducible, then it can be represented as a superposition of irreducible operators:

$$\hat{T} = \sum_{\alpha} \hat{T}^{(\alpha)}. \quad (5)$$

Example 1

Find the transformation properties of the electric dipole operator with respect to the group \mathbf{C}_{3v} .

1. The electric dipole operator

$$\vec{d} = e\vec{r} \quad (6)$$

is a vector and therefore is represented by three components, or by a set of three operators: (d_x, d_y, d_z) . The operators $d_x = ex$, $d_y = ey$, $d_z = ez$ transform as operators x , y and z , respectively. It is known that x , y are the basis functions of the irreducible representation E , while z is the basis function of the irreducible representation A_1 of the group \mathbf{C}_{3v} (see

Example 2 of Section 1.4 of lecture 3). This means that two operators (d_x, d_y) form an *irreducible set* and they transform according to the 2-dimensional irreducible representation E , while d_z is also an *irreducible operator* and it transforms according to the 1-dimensional irreducible representation A_1 of \mathbf{C}_{3v} :

$$\begin{aligned} d_z &\rightarrow \hat{T}^{(A_1)} \\ d_x, d_y &\rightarrow \hat{T}_1^{(E)}, \hat{T}_2^{(E)}. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Example 2

Find the character of the electric dipole operator with respect to the group $\mathbf{SO}(2)$.

Let us consider how the vectors \vec{e}_x , \vec{e}_y and \vec{e}_z transform under operations of the group $\mathbf{SO}(2)$. If the axis of rotation coincides with axis z , then

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{D}(a)\vec{e}_x &= \cos a\vec{e}_x + \sin a\vec{e}_y \\ \hat{D}(a)\vec{e}_y &= -\sin a\vec{e}_x + \cos a\vec{e}_y \\ \hat{D}(a)\vec{e}_z &= \vec{e}_z \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

or for the linear combinations of \vec{e}_x and \vec{e}_y we have

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{D}(a)(\vec{e}_x + i\vec{e}_y) &= \exp(-ia)(\vec{e}_x + i\vec{e}_y) \\ \hat{D}(a)(\vec{e}_x - i\vec{e}_y) &= \exp(ia)(\vec{e}_x - i\vec{e}_y) \\ \hat{D}(a)\vec{e}_z &= \vec{e}_z \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

The operator $\hat{D}(a)$ is a rotation operator

$$\hat{D}(a) = \exp\left(-a\frac{\partial}{\partial\phi}\right). \quad (10)$$

The representations of the group $\mathbf{SO}(2)$ can be labelled by the integer m :

$$D^m(a) = \exp(-ima). \quad (11)$$

Therefore, vector \vec{e}_z is the basis vector of the irreducible representation D^0 , while vectors $(\vec{e}_x \pm i\vec{e}_y)$ are the basis vectors of the irreducible representations $D^{\pm 1}$.

This means that operators $d_x + id_y$, $d_x - id_y$ and d_z are *irreducible operators* and they transform according to the irreducible representations D^1 , D^{-1} and D^0 , respectively, of the group $\mathbf{SO}(2)$:

$$\begin{aligned} d_x + id_y &\rightarrow \hat{T}^1 \\ d_x - id_y &\rightarrow \hat{T}^{-1} \\ d_z &\rightarrow \hat{T}^0. \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Example 3

Find the character of the electric dipole operator with respect to the group $\mathbf{SO}(3)$.

Let us define the operators

$$\mathcal{Y}_{lm}(\vec{r}) = r^l Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi). \quad (13)$$

Under rotations, the spherical functions transform as

$$Y_{lm}(\vec{r}) \rightarrow \hat{D}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi) = \sum_{m'} D_{m'm}^{(l)}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) Y_{lm'}(\theta, \phi), \quad (14)$$

i.e. they form a basis of the irreducible representations of the group $\mathbf{SO}(\mathbf{3})$. The transformation properties of the operators (13) are similar:

$$\mathcal{Y}_{lm}(\vec{r}) \rightarrow \hat{D}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \mathcal{Y}_{lm}(\vec{r}) \hat{D}^{-1}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) = \sum_{m'} D_{m'm}^{(l)}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \mathcal{Y}_{lm'}(\vec{r}). \quad (15)$$

This means that operators $\mathcal{Y}_{lm}(\vec{r})$ for each l form an irreducible set of operators and they transform according to the irreducible representation $D^{(l)}$ of the group $\mathbf{SO}(\mathbf{3})$, or in other words, they are tensors of rank l :

$$\mathcal{Y}_{lm}(\vec{r}) \rightarrow \hat{T}^{(l)}. \quad (16)$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{Y}_{10}(\vec{r}) &= \sqrt{\frac{3}{4\pi}} z \\ \mathcal{Y}_{11}(\vec{r}) &= \sqrt{\frac{3}{8\pi}} (x + iy) \\ \mathcal{Y}_{1-1}(\vec{r}) &= \sqrt{\frac{3}{8\pi}} (x - iy) \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

three spherical components of the radius-vector $x + iy$, $x - iy$ and z form an irreducible set with respect to the group $\mathbf{SO}(\mathbf{3})$ and they transform according to the irreducible representation $D^{(1)}$ of this group. Thus, the radius-vector \vec{r} transforms according to the irreducible representation $D^{(1)}$ of $\mathbf{SO}(\mathbf{3})$. Since $\vec{d} = e\vec{r}$, the electric dipole operator also transforms according to the irreducible representation $D^{(1)}$ of this group:

$$\vec{d} \rightarrow \hat{T}^{(1)}. \quad (18)$$

1.2 Calculation of matrix elements of operators

In order to calculate transition probabilities W_{IF} , we need to calculate the matrix elements of the operator, responsible for this transition between the states of interest, since

$$W_{IF} \sim |\langle \psi_F | \hat{T} | \psi_I \rangle|^2. \quad (19)$$

ALGORITHM

1. Find the symmetry character of initial and final states, e.g. $\psi_I = \psi_i^{(\alpha)}$ and $\psi_F = \psi_k^{(\gamma)}$.
2. Find the tensor character of the transition operator, e.g. $\hat{T} = \hat{T}^{(\beta)}$ or decompose it into irreducible components according to (5) if necessary.
3. Calculate the matrix elements of the type

$$\langle \psi_k^{(\gamma)} | \hat{T}_j^{(\beta)} | \psi_i^{(\alpha)} \rangle. \quad (20)$$

For the matrix elements of the irreducible operators the *Wigner-Eckart theorem* holds:

$$\langle \psi_k^{(\gamma)} | \hat{T}_j^{(\beta)} | \psi_i^{(\alpha)} \rangle = \sum_t (\alpha i \beta j | \gamma k t) \langle \psi^{(\gamma)} || \hat{T}^{(\beta)} || \psi^{(\alpha)} \rangle_t, \quad (21)$$

where $(\alpha i \beta j | \gamma k t)$ are the Clebsch-Gordan coefficients of the group \mathbf{G} and $\langle \psi^{(\gamma)} || \hat{T}^{(\beta)} || \psi^{(\alpha)} \rangle_t$ is called a *reduced matrix element*.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE WIGNER-ECKART THEOREM

1. The Wigner-Eckart theorem gives a simple receipt to calculate all matrix elements of the type (20). To do this, we should first calculate one matrix element (20) for particular values i, j and k . The Clebsch-Gordan coefficients for any groups are usually tabulated. So, we can find a value of the reduced matrix element $\langle \psi^{(\gamma)} || \hat{T}^{(\beta)} || \psi^{(\alpha)} \rangle_t$. Then using the tabulated Clebsch-Gordan coefficients, it is simple to compute all the rest matrix elements (20).
2. Often in the calculation of reaction cross-sections or transition probabilities, it is required to know not matrix elements themselves, but the sum of matrix elements on the i or j . Such problems appear in the calculation of reaction cross-sections if the beam and the target are not polarized and the detector is not sensible to the polarization of the incoming particles. The Wigner-Eckart theorem allows to perform the summations automatically.

Example

If the nuclear Hamiltonian is invariant with respect to **SO(3)** group, then the states can be characterized by a value of the total angular momentum J and they are $(2J+1)$ -fold degenerate. If operator $\hat{T}(LM)$ describes a transition from an initial state $|\alpha_i; J_i M_i\rangle$ to a final state $|\alpha_f; J_f M_f\rangle$, then the reduced transition probability for a given (J_i, M_i) should be averaged over all projections M_i and summed over all values M_f of the final state and all values M of the transition operator:

$$B(L; J_i \rightarrow J_f) = \frac{1}{2J_i + 1} \sum_{M_i, M, M_f} |\langle \alpha_f; J_f M_f | \hat{T}(LM) | \alpha_i; J_i M_i \rangle|^2. \quad (22)$$

The reduced matrix element of the **SO(3)** group is defined with an additional square root in front of it (by some historical reasons), i.e.

$$\langle \alpha_f; J_f M_f | \hat{T}(LM) | \alpha_i; J_i M_i \rangle = \frac{(J_i M_i J M | J_f M_f)}{\sqrt{2J_f + 1}} \langle \alpha_f; J_f || \hat{T}(LM) || \alpha_i; J_i \rangle. \quad (23)$$

Applying the Wigner-Eckart theorem and using the formulae (21) and (22) for the **SO(3)** Clebsch-Gordan coefficients from the first lecture, we get

$$\begin{aligned} B(L; J_i \rightarrow J_f) &= \frac{1}{2J_i + 1} \sum_{M, M_f} \frac{(J_i M_i J M | J_f M_f)^2}{2J_f + 1} |\langle \alpha_f; J_f || \hat{T}(L) || \alpha_i; J_i \rangle|^2 = \\ &= \frac{1}{2J_i + 1} |\langle \alpha_f; J_f || \hat{T}(L) || \alpha_i; J_i \rangle|^2. \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

3. Selection rules

The matrix element (20) will be zero unless $D^{(\gamma)}(G)$ is contained in the decomposition of $D^{(\alpha \times \beta)}$:

$$D^{(\alpha \times \beta)}(G) = \sum_{\gamma} m_{\gamma} D^{(\gamma)}(G) \quad (25)$$

This means that if $\hat{T}^{(\beta)}$ is a transition operator, then from a state $\psi^{(\alpha)}$, transitions only to those states $\psi^{(\gamma)}$ are *allowed* for which (25) holds.

Example 1

Find the selection rules for electric dipole transitions for a system of C_{3v} symmetry.

The states of the system can be associated with the irreducible representations of the group C_{3v} : A_1 , A_2 , E . From Example 1 of section 1.1 we know that the components of the electric dipole operator

$$\vec{d} = e\vec{r} \quad (26)$$

has the following transformation properties: operators d_x and d_y transform according to the irreducible representation E , while d_z transforms according to the irreducible representation A_1 of C_{3v} .

From the table

$A_1 \times A_1$	A_1
$A_2 \times A_1$	A_2
$E \times A_1$	E
$A_1 \times E$	E
$A_2 \times E$	E
$E \times E$	$A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus E$

we find the selection rules. The operator of the radiation linear polarized along z axis is d_z , transforming as A_1 . It can connect only the states which have the same symmetry. So, allowed transitions are

$$d_z : \quad A_1 \leftrightarrow A_1 , \quad A_2 \leftrightarrow A_2 , \quad E \leftrightarrow E . \quad (27)$$

The operator of the radiation polarized in the xy -plane is characterized by d_x, d_y , transforming as E . The allowed transitions are

$$(d_x, d_y) : \quad A_1 \leftrightarrow E , \quad A_2 \leftrightarrow E , \quad E \leftrightarrow E . \quad (28)$$

Example 2

Find the selection rules for electric dipole transitions for an axially symmetric system.

The states of the system can be associated with the irreducible representations of the group $SO(2)$ and thus can be labelled by an integer or half-integer m . From Example 2 of section 1.1 we know that the components of the electric dipole operator

$$\vec{d} = e\vec{r} \quad (29)$$

has the following transformation properties: operators $(d_x + id_y)$, $(d_x - id_y)$ and d_z transform according to the irreducible representation D^1 , D^{-1} and D^0 of $SO(2)$, respectively. For $SO(2)$ the Clebsch-Gordan series (25) looks like follows

$$D^{m_1} \times D^{m_2} = D^{m_1+m_2} . \quad (30)$$

Thus the transitions of linear polarized radiation (d_z) are allowed between the states with $\Delta m = 0$, while the radiation polarized in the xy -plane ($d_x \pm id_y$) can be emitted or absorbed only between the states with $\Delta m = \pm 1$.

Example 3

Find the selection rules for the electric and magnetic multipole transitions in a spherically symmetric system.

The electric and magnetic transition operators have a form:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{T}(\mathcal{E}; LM) &= \frac{1}{c} \sqrt{\frac{L}{L+1}} \frac{(2L+1)!!}{q^L} \int \vec{j}(\vec{r}) \cdot \vec{A}_{LM}^{\mathcal{E}}(q\vec{r}) d\vec{r} \\ \hat{T}(\mathcal{M}; LM) &= -\frac{i}{c} \sqrt{\frac{L}{L+1}} \frac{(2L+1)!!}{q^L} \int \vec{j}(\vec{r}) \cdot \vec{A}_{LM}^{\mathcal{M}}(q\vec{r}) d\vec{r}\end{aligned}\quad (31)$$

where $q = \omega/c = 2\pi/\lambda$, and

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{A}_{LM}^{\mathcal{E}}(q\vec{r}) &= \frac{1}{q\sqrt{L(L+1)}} \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{L} j_L(qr) Y_{LM}(\vec{r}) \\ \vec{A}_{LM}^{\mathcal{M}}(q\vec{r}) &= \frac{\vec{L}}{\sqrt{L(L+1)}} j_L(qr) Y_{LM}(\vec{r}).\end{aligned}\quad (32)$$

From here it is seen that the operators $\hat{T}(\mathcal{E}; LM)$ and $\hat{T}(\mathcal{M}; LM)$ transform according to the irreducible representations $D^{(L)}$ of the group $\mathbf{SO}(3)$.

From the Clebsch-Gordan series for the $\mathbf{SO}(3)$ group

$$D^{(J_i \times L)}(G) = \sum_{J_f=|J_i-L|}^{J_i+L} D^{(J_f)}(G) \quad (33)$$

it follows that the transitions from the level J_i will go only to the levels with $J_f = |J_i - L|, \dots, J_i + L$.

Suppose that the system is also invariant with respect to inversion \mathbf{I} (the group of inversion consists of two elements: identity E and a space inversion I , which corresponds to the transformation $x \rightarrow -x, y \rightarrow -y, z \rightarrow -z$).

The group \mathbf{I} has two 1-dimensional irreducible representations,

	E	I
$D^{(1)}$	1	1
$D^{(2)}$	1	-1

If the Hamiltonian of the system is invariant with respect to inversion, then its eigenstates will belong to either the irreducible representation $D^{(1)}$ or to the irreducible representation $D^{(2)}$. In other words, they will be characterized by a certain parity, +1 or -1 for

$$\hat{P}\psi(\vec{r}) = +\psi(\vec{r}) \quad \text{or} \quad \hat{P}\psi(\vec{r}) = -\psi(\vec{r}), \quad (34)$$

respectively, where \hat{P} is a parity operator:

$$\hat{P}\psi(\vec{r}) = \psi(-\vec{r}). \quad (35)$$

From the table

$D^{(1)} \times D^{(1)}$	$D^{(1)}$
$D^{(2)} \times D^{(1)}$	$D^{(2)}$
$D^{(2)} \times D^{(2)}$	$D^{(1)}$

the selection rules for a matrix element follows:

$$\langle \psi_f | \hat{T} | \psi_i \rangle = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad P_i P_T P_f = -1 . \quad (36)$$

From equations (31)–(32) follows that $\hat{T}(\mathcal{E}; LM)$ possesses parity $(-1)^L$ and $\hat{T}(\mathcal{M}; LM)$ possesses parity $(-1)^{L+1}$. Thus, the selection rules with respect to the group \mathbf{I} are

$$\begin{aligned} P_i P_f &= (-1)^L & \text{for electric } 2^L \text{ pole transitions} \\ P_i P_f &= (-1)^{L+1} & \text{for magnetic } 2^L \text{ pole transitions.} \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

4. Equivalent operator method

If operators $\hat{T}^{(\beta)}$ and $\hat{S}^{(\beta)}$ has the same transformation properties with respect to the group \mathbf{G} , then their matrix elements are proportional:

$$\frac{\langle \psi_k^{(\gamma)} | \hat{T}_j^{(\beta)} | \psi_i^{(\alpha)} \rangle}{\langle \psi_k^{(\gamma)} | \hat{S}_j^{(\beta)} | \psi_i^{(\alpha)} \rangle} = \frac{\langle \psi^{(\gamma)} | \hat{T}^{(\beta)} | \psi^{(\alpha)} \rangle}{\langle \psi^{(\gamma)} | \hat{S}^{(\beta)} | \psi^{(\alpha)} \rangle} \equiv A_{\alpha\beta\gamma} , \quad (38)$$

where $A_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$ is just a constant depending on α , β and γ .

The advantage of the formula (38) is the following. Sometimes it is difficult or even impossible to calculate the matrix elements of an operator $\hat{T}^{(\beta)}$, but it is simple to calculate the matrix elements of an equivalent operator $\hat{S}^{(\beta)}$. Then, the matrix elements of interest are

$$\langle \psi_k^{(\gamma)} | \hat{T}_j^{(\beta)} | \psi_i^{(\alpha)} \rangle = A_{\alpha\beta\gamma} \langle \psi_k^{(\gamma)} | \hat{S}_j^{(\beta)} | \psi_i^{(\alpha)} \rangle . \quad (39)$$

Example

Calculate the spin-orbit splitting in a many-electron atom.

The Hamiltonian of a many-electron atom can be presented as

$$H = \sum_i \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta_i \right) - \sum_i \frac{Ze^2}{r_i} + \sum_{i<j} \frac{e^2}{r_{ij}} + \sum_i f(r_i) (\vec{l}_i \cdot \vec{s}_i) , \quad (40)$$

where the first term is a kinetic energy of electrons, the second term is the Coulomb attraction between the nucleus and each electron, the third term is a Coulomb repulsion between the electrons and the last term is the spin-orbit interaction. The nucleus is assumed to be fixed. This Hamiltonian can be represented in a form

$$H = H_0 + H_1 + H_2 , \quad (41)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
H_0 &= \sum_i \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta_i - \frac{Ze^2}{r_i} + U(r_i) \right) \\
H_1 &= \sum_{i < j} \frac{e^2}{r_{ij}} - \sum_i U(r_i) \\
H_2 &= \sum_i f(r_i) (\vec{l}_i \cdot \vec{s}_i).
\end{aligned} \tag{42}$$

Here we added $U(r_i)$ term to the Coulomb repulsion between the electrons, because the summed repulsion between the electrons is similar to the effective repulsion of an electron from a center. With such a definition, H_1 is rather small. Usually $H_0 \gg H_1 \gg H_2$.

The eigenfunctions of the Hamiltonian H_0 is just a linear combination of the direct products of single-electron eigenfunctions

$$\prod \psi_i, \tag{43}$$

where ψ_i is a product of radial, angular and spin wave functions:

$$\psi_i = u_{nl}(r_i) Y_{lm_l}(\theta_i, \phi_i) \chi_{m_s}^{(1/2)}. \tag{44}$$

Taking into account the Hamiltonian H_1 will bring to the LS -coupling between the orbital angular momenta and spins of individual electrons. The eigenfunctions of $H_0 + H_1$ can be characterized by the value of the total orbital angular momentum L , total spin S , and their projections:

$$|\alpha L M_L S M_S\rangle, \tag{45}$$

where $\vec{L} = \sum_i \vec{l}_i$, $\vec{S} = \sum_i \vec{s}_i$, while α denotes all other quantum numbers. The states (45) will be $(2L + 1)(2S + 1)$ -fold degenerate.

Taking into account the Hamiltonian H_2 will bring to the spin-orbit splitting of the $(2L + 1)(2S + 1)$ -fold degenerate multiplets of levels. The final wave function of a many-electron atom can be characterized by the value of the total orbital angular momentum L , total spin S , total angular momentum J and its projection M on the quantization axis:

$$|\alpha L S J M\rangle = \sum_{M_L, M_S} (L M_L S M_S | J M) |\alpha L M_L S M_S\rangle. \tag{46}$$

The value of the spin-orbit splitting is given by a matrix element

$$\Delta_J = \langle \alpha L S J M | \sum_{i=1}^Z (\vec{l}_i \cdot \vec{s}_i) | \alpha L S J M \rangle. \tag{47}$$

In order to calculate the matrix elements (47), we will make use of the Wigner-Eckart theorem. The operator $\sum_{i=1}^Z (\vec{l}_i \cdot \vec{s}_i)$ has the same transformation properties as the operator $(\vec{L} \cdot \vec{S})$ under groups $\mathbf{SO}_L(\mathbf{3})$ and $\mathbf{SO}_S(\mathbf{3})$, i.e. these operators are equivalent. This means that

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta_J &= \langle \alpha L S J M | \sum_{i=1}^Z (\vec{l}_i \cdot \vec{s}_i) | \alpha L S J M \rangle = A_{\alpha L S} \langle \alpha L S J M | (\vec{L} \cdot \vec{S}) | \alpha L S J M \rangle \\
&= \frac{1}{2} A_{\alpha L S} [J(J + 1) - L(L + 1) - S(S + 1)],
\end{aligned} \tag{48}$$

where the coefficients $A_{\alpha LS}$ are just the ratios of the corresponding reduced matrix elements and they depend only on α , L and S . The difference

$$\Delta_J - \Delta_{J-1} = JA_{\alpha LS} \quad (49)$$

is known as Lande formula.

2 Some useful formulae for $\mathbf{SO}(3)$ tensorial operators

The irreducible operators with respect to $\mathbf{SO}(3)$ group are called *tensors of rank k* if they transform according to the irreducible representation $D^{(k)}$:

$$\hat{D}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \hat{T}_p^{(k)} = \sum_q D_{qp}^{(k)}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) \hat{T}_q^{(k)}(\theta, \phi) . \quad (50)$$

Examples

The tensor of rank 0 contains one component $T_0^{(0)}$ which does not change under rotations. It is usually either a scalar, or a pseudoscalar depending on its transformation properties under inversion (the scalar does not change its sign under inversion, while the pseudoscalar changes its sign under inversion).

The tensor of rank 1 contains three components $T_0^{(1)}$, $T_1^{(1)}$ and $T_{-1}^{(1)}$. Three cartesian coordinates of any vector $\vec{a} = \{a_x, a_y, a_z\}$ can be re-written in suitable form as

$$\begin{aligned} T_1^{(1)} &= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(a_x + ia_y) \\ T_{-1}^{(1)} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(a_x - ia_y) \\ T_0^{(1)} &= a_z . \end{aligned} \quad (51)$$

The tensor of rank 2 has five components $T_0^{(2)}$, $T_{\pm 1}^{(2)}$, $T_{\pm 2}^{(2)}$. They can be expressed in terms of the five components of the symmetric trace-less 2nd rank tensor defined in cartesian coordinates, e.g.

$$T_{ik} = x_{ik} - \frac{1}{3}r^2\delta_{ik} , \quad i, k = x, y, z , \quad (52)$$

and $SpT_{ik} = 0$. The corresponding relations are:

$$\begin{aligned} T_0^{(2)} &= 3T_{33} \\ T_{\pm 1}^{(2)} &= \mp\sqrt{6}(T_{13} \pm iT_{23}) \\ T_{\pm 2}^{(2)} &= \sqrt{6}(T_{11} + \frac{1}{2}T_{33} \pm iT_{12}) . \end{aligned} \quad (53)$$

In particular, the tensors of the rank 2 are related to spherical harmonics:

$$T_q^{(2)} = \sqrt{\frac{16\pi}{5}} \mathcal{Y}_{2q}(\vec{r}) . \quad (54)$$

For example, the quadrupole moment of the atom with Z electrons is usually defined as a symmetric 2nd rank tensor

$$Q_{ik} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^Z e_{\alpha} \left(3x_{i\alpha}x_{k\alpha} - \delta_{ik}r_{\alpha}^2 \right) . \quad (55)$$

In general, the operators (13) are examples of tensorial operators of rank l .

The *tensor product* of two irreducible operators $U^{(k_1)}$ and $V^{(k_2)}$ can be defined as

$$[U^{(k_1)} \times V^{(k_2)}]_q^{(k)} = \sum_{q_1, q_2} (k_1 q_1 k_2 q_2 | k q) U_{q_1}^{(k_1)} V_{q_2}^{(k_2)}. \quad (56)$$

The *scalar product* of two irreducible operators $U^{(k)}$ and $V^{(k)}$ can be defined as

$$(U^{(k)} \times V^{(k)}) \equiv (-1)^k \sqrt{2k+1} [U^{(k)} \times V^{(k)}]_0^{(0)} = \sum_q (-1)^q U_q^{(k)} V_{-q}^{(k)}. \quad (57)$$

The following formulae are useful for the calculations of matrix elements of different operators in quantum mechanics (of interaction or of transition operators).

1. If operators $U^{(k_1)}$ and $V^{(k_2)}$ act of the same coordinates of a system, then

$$\langle \alpha j || [U^{(k_1)} \times V^{(k_2)}]^{(k)} || \alpha' j' \rangle = \sqrt{2k+1} (-1)^{j+j'+k} \times \sum_{\alpha'', j''} \langle \alpha j || U^{(k_1)} || \alpha'' j'' \rangle \langle \alpha'' j'' || V^{(k_2)} || \alpha' j' \rangle \left\{ \begin{matrix} k_1 & k_2 & k \\ j' & j & j'' \end{matrix} \right\}. \quad (58)$$

Here α refers to the other quantum numbers.

2. For a scalar product we have

$$\langle \alpha j || (U^{(k)} \cdot V^{(k)}) || \alpha' j' \rangle = \frac{\delta_{jj'}}{\sqrt{2j+1}} \sum_{\alpha'', j''} (-1)^{j+j''} \langle \alpha j || U^{(k)} || \alpha'' j'' \rangle \langle \alpha'' j'' || V^{(k)} || \alpha' j' \rangle. \quad (59)$$

3. If operators $U^{(k_1)}$ acts on the coordinates of the functions related to the angular momentum j_1 and $V^{(k_2)}$ acts on the coordinates of the functions related to the angular momentum j_2 , then

$$\langle \alpha j_1 j_2; j || [U^{(k_1)} \times V^{(k_2)}]^{(k)} || \alpha' j_1' j_2'; j' \rangle = \sum_{\alpha''} \left\{ \begin{matrix} j_1 & j_2 & j \\ j_1' & j_2' & j' \\ k_1 & k_2 & k \end{matrix} \right\} \times \sqrt{(2j+1)(2j'+1)(2k+1)} \langle \alpha j_1 || U^{(k_1)} || \alpha'' j_1' \rangle \langle \alpha'' j_2 || V^{(k_2)} || \alpha' j_2' \rangle \quad (60)$$

(the sum over α'' is included in case both operators acts on the same quantum number α).

4. For the scalar product of two operators $U^{(k)}$ and $V^{(k)}$ acting on the coordinates of the functions related to the angular momenta j_1 and j_2 , respectively, we have

$$\langle \alpha j_1 j_2; j m || (U^{(k)} \cdot V^{(k)}) || \alpha' j_1' j_2'; j' m' \rangle = \delta_{jj'} \delta_{mm'} (-1)^{j_2+j_1'+2k+j} \left\{ \begin{matrix} j_1 & j_2 & j \\ j_2' & j_1' & k \end{matrix} \right\} \times \sum_{\alpha''} \langle \alpha j_1 || U^{(k)} || \alpha'' j_1' \rangle \langle \alpha'' j_2 || V^{(k)} || \alpha' j_2' \rangle. \quad (61)$$

3 Conservation laws

The observable T is said to conserve if its mean value does not change in time in any state $\psi(\vec{r}, t)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt}\langle\psi|\hat{T}|\psi\rangle &= \langle\frac{d}{dt}\psi|\hat{T}|\psi\rangle + \langle\psi|\hat{T}|\frac{d}{dt}\psi\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{i\hbar}\{-\langle\hat{H}\psi|\hat{T}|\psi\rangle + \langle\psi|\hat{T}|\hat{H}\psi\rangle\} \\ &= \frac{1}{i\hbar}\langle\psi|[\hat{T}, \hat{H}]|\psi\rangle = 0 .\end{aligned}\tag{62}$$

This means that the observable T conserves if the operator \hat{T} commutes with the Hamiltonian.

If the system possesses a certain symmetry, i.e. the Hamiltonian is invariant with respect to a group \mathbf{G} , then for all elements G , the transformation operators $D(G)$ commute with the Hamiltonian. At first glance, this suggests an existence of a huge number of conserved quantities. However, not all of them are independent. For example, the conservation of $D(G_3)$ relates to the conservation of $D(G_1)$ and $D(G_2)$ if $G_1 \cdot G_2 = G_3$. So, if the group \mathbf{G} is of order n and $m \leq n$ elements of the group generate the rest of n elements, then the system will have only m conserved values, or integrals of motion.

Example

All elements of the group \mathbf{C}_3 can be generated from one element C_3 , since $C_3 \cdot C_3 = C_3^2$, $C_3 \cdot C_3^2 = E$. Thus, the invariance of a system with respect to the group \mathbf{C}_3 will give rise to one conserving quantity.

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