

Groups and Symmetries: Lectures 6 and 7

$SO(3)$ and Conserved Quantities
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Recap – Last Time

Lecture 4: Operators and Vector spaces

- Operators within Vector Spaces
- Linking Operators and Matrices, and Groups
- Types of Operators – Hermitian, Unitary

Lecture 5:

- Conservation in a classical physics context
- Conservation in a Quantum Mechanical context, and Ehrenfest's theorem.
- Key Implications : the link between symmetries (unitary transformations that commute with the Hamiltonian) and conserved quantities.

Today

Lecture 6:

- Rotations in 3D – $SO(3)$
- Interpretations in terms of conserved quantities
- Why spin is a form of angular momentum

Lecture 7:

- Spherical Harmonics and $SO(3)$
- Structure Constants
- Regular Representation
- Rank of a group, and Casimir Operators

Rotations in Three Dimensions

- This is governed by the group of three dimensional rotational matrices – which are orthogonal matrices with determinant 1.
- This is the group $SO(3)$.
- We will now look at this group in some detail.

Rotations in Three Dimensions

- Let's start by looking at the defining representation – the rotation matrices for three dimensional space.
- And we can start that by looking at rotations about the z-axis – which rotates the x and y axes.
 - This is just the two dimensional rotation we've already looked at – $SO(2)$ is a subgroup of $SO(3)$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{R}_3(\alpha_3) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha_3 & -\sin \alpha_3 & 0 \\ \sin \alpha_3 & \cos \alpha_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotations in Three Dimensions

- We can also find the generator by considering an infinitesimal rotation:

$$g(\delta\alpha) \approx e - i\delta\alpha X$$

$$\mathbf{R}_3(\delta\alpha_3) \approx \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\delta\alpha_3 & 0 \\ \delta\alpha_3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \delta\alpha_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$-i\mathbf{X}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{X}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotations in Three Dimensions

- Similarly, rotations around the x and y axes give:

$$\mathbf{X}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{X}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -i & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- These matrices are all Hermitian, and we can write them as $(X_i)_{jk} = -i\varepsilon_{ijk}$, where ε_{ijk} is completely anti-symmetric.
- The three generators can be thought of as forming a $3 \times 3 \times 3$ tensor.

Rotations in Three Dimensions

- In three dimensions the order we apply rotations matters:
 - A rotation about the x axis, followed by a rotation about the y axis, is different to the same rotation about the y axis followed by the same rotation about the x axis.
 - Mathematically, this is captured by the rotation matrices in three dimensions not commuting. This is a general property, and means the group is non-Abelian.
- This property is captured by the generators as well:

$$[X_i, X_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}X_k$$

Rotations in Three Dimensions

- A general rotation can be written as:

$$\mathbf{R}(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3) = e^{-i(\alpha_1 \mathbf{X}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{X}_2 + \alpha_3 \mathbf{X}_3)} = e^{-i\alpha_i \mathbf{X}_i}$$

though this is not the same as the three rotations applied sequentially.

- Let's look at some other representations of $SO(3)$, and learn more about this symmetry, and its implications for physics.

Rotations in Three Dimensions - Scalars

- We considered transformations of different objects in $SO(2)$: a vector, a tensor, a scalar field...
- Let's take a step back as we look at $SO(3)$.
- How does a scalar transform? What is the generator? $S' = \left[I - i\delta\alpha X_i^{(S)} \right] S$
- The scalar's value doesn't change: $S' = S$

$$\Rightarrow X_i^{(S)} = 0$$

- Therefore in this representation, all generators are 0, and all group elements are mapped onto the identity element.
- The generators trivially obey the same commutation relation we saw in the defining representation: $[X_i, X_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}X_k$

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Scalar Function

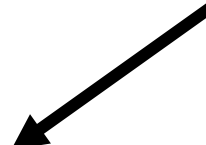
- What about a scalar function? This is a less trivial object, as the value of the scalar does change through space.
- Therefore, as with $SO(2)$, the value of the function changes after rotation because the rotation takes us to a new point in space.
- However, we can write – as with $SO(2)$ – that the value of the function after the rotation, at the rotated coordinates, is the same as the value before the rotation:

$$f'(\vec{r}') = f(\vec{r})$$

Or:

$$f'(\vec{r}') = f(\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\vec{\alpha})\vec{r}') = \mathbf{U}(\vec{\alpha})f(\vec{r})$$

The form of this transformation is what we're seeking to find.



Rotations in Three Dimensions – Scalar Function

- We already know the form of this transformation for rotations about the z-axis, as this is just a two dimensional transformation of a scalar function, and takes the form we saw in $SO(2)$.
- The generator of an infinitesimal transformation about the z-axis is $L_z = xp_y - yp_x$
- It turns out that this generalises and the three generators of $SO(3)$ for a scalar function are L_i .

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Scalar Function

- We could also derive this by looking at the Taylor series.
 - Reminder: the generator describes infinitesimal transformations.

So the generator will be:

$$f(\mathbf{R}^{-1}\vec{r}) \approx f(\vec{r}) + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} \delta \alpha_i$$

$$-iX_i = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} &= \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial r_j} \frac{\partial r_j}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} \\ &= \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial r_j} r'_k \frac{\partial (R^{-1})_{jk}}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} \\ &= \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial r_j} r_k \frac{\partial (R^{-1})_{jk}}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} \quad \leftarrow r'_k = r_k \text{ when } \vec{\alpha} = 0 \\ &= \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial r_j} r_k \frac{\partial (R^T)_{jk}}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} \quad \leftarrow \text{We have orthogonal matrices} \end{aligned}$$


Rotations in Three Dimensions – Scalar Function

$$\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} = \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial r_j} r_k \frac{\partial (R^T)_{jk}}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0}$$

- But we know:

$$\left. \frac{\partial \mathbf{R}}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} = -i \mathbf{X}_i$$


This is the definition of how we found X_i - the infinitesimal rotation of the position vector



- And since:

$$\left. \frac{\partial \mathbf{R}^{-1}}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} = \left. \frac{\partial \mathbf{R}^T}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} = -i \mathbf{X}_i^T = i \mathbf{X}_i$$

$$(X_i)_{jk} = -i \varepsilon_{ijk}$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} = i (X_i)_{jk} r_k \frac{\partial f}{\partial r_j} = -(\vec{r} \times \vec{\nabla} f)_i$$


- The generators are $X_i = i \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial \alpha_i} \right|_{\vec{\alpha}=0} = -i(\vec{r} \times \vec{\nabla})_i = (\vec{X} \times \vec{P})_i = L_i$

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Scalar Function

- So, we have found that for a scalar function,

$$f'(\vec{r}') = f(\mathbf{R}^{-1}(\vec{\alpha})\vec{r}') = \mathbf{U}(\vec{\alpha})f(\vec{r})$$

$$U(\vec{\alpha}) = e^{-i\vec{\alpha} \cdot \vec{L}}$$

- The generators of the group are the angular momentum operators.
- Note that these operators obey the same commutation relation as the three generators did for the defining representation:

$$[L_i, L_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}L_k$$

- We've worked here in Gaussian coordinates, but could have also used Spherical Polars.

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Scalar Function

- What is the conservation argument here? What's the symmetry, and what's the conserved quantit(ies) if the symmetry commutes with the Hamiltonian?

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Scalar Function

- What is the conservation argument here? What's the symmetry, and what's the conserved quantit(ies) if the symmetry commutes with the Hamiltonian?
- If the Hamiltonian is invariant under rotations in 3 dimensions, then, for scalar functions/scalar fields, the quantity is $\langle L_i \rangle$ does not change with time; we see conservation of angular momentum about each axis.

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Vector Field

- Now let's consider what happens if we rotate a vector field.
- This is a field that takes different values at each point in space, and, crucially, has a direction at each point in space.
- We could think of this therefore as a (different) vector at each position in space.
- Examples of Vector Fields in Classical Fields include the Electric Field, and the Magnetic Field.
- In Particle Physics, we use Vector Fields to describe spin-1 particles – the Vector Bosons, which have Spin 1.

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Vector Field

- Consider a general vector field, $\vec{A}(\vec{r})$.
- We can consider a rotation of this field in two steps: first we rotate the space (to get what we will call A'), then we rotate the vector at each point in space (to get A'').
- For now, let's just consider rotations about the z-axis.
- For the first stage, the transformation of the space, each component of A transforms like the scalars functions we have just considered.

$$A'_i = A_i - i\delta\alpha_3 L_3 A_i$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} A'_x \\ A'_y \\ A'_z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{pmatrix} - i\delta\alpha_3 \begin{pmatrix} L_3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & L_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & L_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{pmatrix}$$

Note: we still need to rotate the vector itself at each point in space.

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Vector Field

- We can then apply the rotation of the vector at each point in space.
- This is the same as rotating a vector that we saw before in the defining representation.

$$\begin{pmatrix} A''_x \\ A''_y \\ A''_z \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{R}_3(\delta\alpha_3) \begin{pmatrix} A'_x \\ A'_y \\ A'_z \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} A'_x \\ A'_y \\ A'_z \end{pmatrix} - i\delta\alpha_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A'_x \\ A'_y \\ A'_z \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Vector Field

- We can put both pieces together:

$$\begin{aligned}\begin{pmatrix} A''_x \\ A''_y \\ A''_z \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} A'_x \\ A'_y \\ A'_z \end{pmatrix} - i\delta\alpha_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A'_x \\ A'_y \\ A'_z \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{pmatrix} - i\delta\alpha_3 \begin{pmatrix} L_3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & L_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & L_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{pmatrix} - i\delta\alpha_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{pmatrix} - i\delta\alpha_3 (\mathbf{I}L_3 + \mathbf{X}_3) \begin{pmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{pmatrix} = [\mathbf{I} - i\delta\alpha_3 (\mathbf{I}L_3 + \mathbf{X}_3)] \begin{pmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \\ A_z \end{pmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

- So the generator of infinitesimal rotations about z is: $\mathbf{J}_3 = \mathbf{I}L_3 + \mathbf{X}_3$

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Vector Field

- Similarly, rotations about the other two axes yield similar results.

$$\mathbf{J}_i = \mathbf{I}L_i + \mathbf{X}_i$$

- For a rotation of a vector field, the generator is the angular momentum operator added to the operator describing the rotation of the vector at each point.
- The unitary operator describing the general rotation is $e^{-i\alpha_i \mathbf{J}_i}$
- Does anyone want to tell us what this means in terms of conservation laws?

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Vector Field

- If I have a Hamiltonian describing a vector field that is invariant under rotations in three dimensions, then there is a conserved quantity associated with this field.
- This conserved quantity is not the orbital angular momentum alone, but has an additional component attached to the direction of the vector itself at each point in space.

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Vector Field

- We can now see mathematically why spin behaves like an additional source of angular momentum (though spin $\frac{1}{2}$ particles aren't described by a vector field).
- For a rotationally invariant Hamiltonian in 3D, vector fields (which do describe spin 1 particles) have a conserved quantity which is the orbital angular momentum plus the spin.
- Aside: we know that vector fields are needed for spin 1 particles, because the \mathbf{X} operator has 3 eigenvalues – one for each of $s=1,0,-1$.

Rotations in Three Dimensions – Vector Fields

- Let's consider the commutation relations of the generators for the representation of $SO(3)$ that describes transformations of vector fields.
- The two separate parts of the generator (L, X) clearly commute themselves, so:

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbf{J}_i, \mathbf{J}_j] &= [\mathbf{I}L_i + \mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{I}L_j + \mathbf{X}_j] \\ &= \mathbf{I}[L_i, L_j] + [\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{X}_j] \\ &= i\mathbf{I}\epsilon_{ijk}L_k + i\epsilon_{ijk}\mathbf{X}_k \\ &= i\epsilon_{ijk}\mathbf{J}_k \end{aligned}$$

- Once again, the generators obey the same commutation relation as they did in the defining representation.
- This is generally true: the commutation relation of generators is the same in all representations, and can also be used to define the group.

QUESTIONS and BREAK

SO(3) Representations

- When we consider the effect of rotations in 3D it's useful to describe an arbitrary wavefunction with the spherical harmonic basis states Y_{lm}
- Just considering the angular part of a wavefunction, we can write

$$\psi(\theta, \phi) = \sum_{l,m} a_{lm} Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)$$

- Since the functional form of the Y_{lm} is independent of any rotation, when we make a rotation, we simply change the values of a_{lm} associated with a state.
- Since rotation cannot increase the total angular momentum (l) the rotations will mix states of different m , for a given l .

SO(3) Representations

$$\begin{pmatrix} a'_{00} \\ a'_{11} \\ a'_{10} \\ a'_{1-1} \\ a'_{22} \\ a'_{21} \\ a'_{20} \\ a'_{2-1} \\ a'_{2-2} \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} M^{(0)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & M_{11}^{(1)} & M_{12}^{(1)} & M_{13}^{(1)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & M_{21}^{(1)} & M_{22}^{(1)} & M_{23}^{(1)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & M_{31}^{(1)} & M_{32}^{(1)} & M_{33}^{(1)} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & M_{11}^{(2)} & M_{12}^{(2)} & M_{13}^{(2)} & M_{14}^{(2)} & M_{15}^{(2)} & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & M_{21}^{(2)} & M_{22}^{(2)} & M_{23}^{(2)} & M_{24}^{(2)} & M_{25}^{(2)} & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & M_{31}^{(2)} & M_{32}^{(2)} & M_{33}^{(2)} & M_{34}^{(2)} & M_{35}^{(2)} & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & M_{41}^{(2)} & M_{42}^{(2)} & M_{43}^{(2)} & M_{44}^{(2)} & M_{45}^{(2)} & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & M_{51}^{(2)} & M_{52}^{(2)} & M_{53}^{(2)} & M_{54}^{(2)} & M_{55}^{(2)} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_{00} \\ a_{11} \\ a_{10} \\ a_{1-1} \\ a_{22} \\ a_{21} \\ a_{20} \\ a_{2-1} \\ a_{2-2} \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

- If we write this out, the form is already in block diagonal form.
- Each sub-matrix provides another representation of SO(3), for objects of different angular momentum.
- The matrices are of size $(2l + 1) \times (2l + 1)$.
- In SO(3), it turns out only odd dimensions matrices provide representations.

Structure Constants

- In $SO(3)$ we found that the matrices in the defining representation had generators which obeyed:

$$[\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{X}_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}\mathbf{X}_k$$

- Likewise, we saw this in other representations, and also when we considered operators:

$$[L_i, L_j] = i\epsilon_{ijk}L_k$$

- And we noted that this was a general rule associated with a group, that the commutation relation of the generators was independent of the representation.
- We call the numbers ϵ_{ijk} the structure constants of the group.

Structure Constants

- Any multiplicative combination of group elements is a member of the group (from the group rules).
- Therefore any commutation relation must be able to be written as a sum over the group elements.
- The idea of structure constants is therefore common to all groups.

Structure Constants

- Let's consider the the more general case of a Lie group in general.
- For simplicity, let's take the same parameter α as multiplying two generators.

- Let's apply a sequence of small transformations:

$$g_i g_j g_i^{-1} g_j^{-1} = e^{i \delta \alpha X_i} e^{i \delta \alpha X_j} e^{-i \delta \alpha X_i} e^{-i \delta \alpha X_j}$$

- To second order this is (remembering to expand each term to second order, as cross terms cancel with individual expansions):

$$e^{i \delta \alpha X_i} e^{i \delta \alpha X_j} e^{-i \delta \alpha X_i} e^{-i \delta \alpha X_j} = 1 - \delta \alpha^2 [X_i, X_j]$$

- But we also know that this must be able to be expressed by a sum of group members itself:

$$1 - \delta \alpha^2 [X_i, X_j] = e^{-i \sum \delta \beta_k X_k}$$

- Where this $\delta \beta_k X_k$ will depend on i and j .

Structure Constants

$$1 - \delta\alpha^2 [X_i, X_j] = e^{-i \sum \delta\beta_k X_k}$$

- Where this $\delta\beta_k X_k$ will depend on i and j .
- Let us write: $\delta\beta_k = \delta\alpha^2 f_{ijk}$ (we know that this effect is second order in $\delta\alpha$), and we use this to define f_{ijk} .

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \delta\alpha^2 [X_i, X_j] &= e^{-i \sum \delta\beta_k X_k} = e^{-i \delta\alpha^2 \sum f_{ijk} X_k} \\ &= 1 - i \delta\alpha^2 \sum f_{ijk} X_k \end{aligned}$$

- So we can then write (though as a definition):

$$[X_i, X_j] = i \sum f_{ijk} X_k$$

where we expect f_{ijk} to be $O(1)$.

- This applies to all Lie groups, and each group has its own f_{ijk}

Structure Constants

$$[X_i, X_j] = i \sum f_{ijk} X_k$$

- By definition the structure constants are anti-symmetric under a swap of the first two indices, i and j .
- In $SO(3)$, the structure constants are anti-symmetric under a swap of any two indices.
- For the groups we will discuss here, we will have structure constants that are anti-symmetric in swaps of any indices.

Structure Constants

- Once the structure constants are known we can directly find a representation of a group.
- This follows from the Jacobi identity:

$$[[A, B], C] + [[B, C], A] + [[C, A], B] = 0$$

- We can apply this to the group generators:

$$[[X_i, X_j], X_k] + [[X_j, X_k], X_i] + [[X_k, X_i], X_j] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_l i f_{ijl} [X_l, X_k] + i f_{jkl} [X_l, X_i] + i f_{kil} [X_l, X_j] = 0$$

Applying the definition of the structure constants; we sum over l so it is a dummy variable.

$$\Rightarrow - \sum_{l,m} f_{ijl} f_{lkm} X_m + f_{jkl} f_{lim} X_m + f_{kil} f_{ljm} X_m = 0$$

We sum over m so it is a dummy variable.

$$\Rightarrow - \sum_{l,m} (f_{ijl} f_{lkm} + f_{jkl} f_{lim} + f_{kil} f_{ljm}) X_m = 0$$

Structure Constants

$$-\sum_{l,m} (f_{ijl}f_{lkm} + f_{jkl}f_{lim} + f_{kil}f_{ljm})X_m = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_l f_{ijl}f_{lkm} + f_{jkl}f_{lim} + f_{kil}f_{ljm} = 0$$

This is generally true for all X_m

$$\Rightarrow \sum_l f_{ijl}f_{lkm} - f_{jkl}f_{ilm} + f_{ikl}f_{jlm} = 0$$

Swapping indices

- Define matrices $(T_i)_{jk} = -if_{ijk}$ (or $f_{ijk} = i(T_i)_{jk}$)

$$\Rightarrow \sum_l if_{ijl}(T_l)_{km} + (T_j)_{kl}(T_i)_{lm} - (T_i)_{kl}(T_j)_{lm} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{T}_i\mathbf{T}_j - \mathbf{T}_j\mathbf{T}_i = [\mathbf{T}_i, \mathbf{T}_j] = \sum_l if_{ijl}(T_l)$$

The last two terms are matrix multiplication

- The matrices \mathbf{T} obey the group commutation relation, so are a representation.

Structure Constants

- The matrices $(T_i)_{jk} = -if_{ijk}$ form a representation of the group.
- This specific representation of the group uses $n \times n$ matrices.
- We label this representation the regular representation.
- For $SO(3)$, the regular representation is the defining representation. This is not necessary however.

Rank of a Group

- For a group with N generators, the number that mutually commute is the rank R . (If none commute, then the group has rank 1.)
- $SO(3)$ has three generators, but none commute. The group has rank 1.
- The rank of a group determines some of the physical properties of a system.

Casimirs

- In QM we define the state of a particle by its quantum numbers: E, q_2, \dots, q_n
- For these quantum numbers to be “good labels” they won’t change over time.
- The associated operators must commute with the Hamiltonian, and we have a mutual eigenstate of $n - 1$ operators (in addition to the Hamiltonian).
- In non-relativistic QM (in 3D), we can label the system with the Energy and J_z (once we choose J_z we do not have good quantum numbers from J_x and J_y).
- However, we also have another label, $J^2 = J_x^2 + J_y^2 + J_z^2$
- Let’s explore this operator and label in terms of group theory.

Casimirs

- For a spinless particle in a central potential, the state is labelled by: n , l , and m .
- l is determined from the operator L^2 , which takes eigenvalues $l(l + 1)$.
- For this system, $[H, L^2] = 0$
- $L^2 = L_x^2 + L_y^2 + L_z^2$ is not a generator of $SO(3)$, and is non-linear in the generators.
- We call this operator a Casimir operator.
- $SO(3)$ has only one Casimir operator, and this is the Casimir operator of $SO(3)$.

Casimirs

- Casimir Operators are typically formed from even powers of the generators of the group.
- Casimir Operators commute with all the generators of a group, so provide another label for a state.
- The rank of a group is related to the number of Casimir Operators associated with a group.
- $SO(3)$ is rank 1 and therefore has 1 Casimir Operator.

Casimirs

- The Casimirs commute with all the generators of a group.
- Consider the commutator of the Hamiltonian with a (quadratic) Casimir operator:

$$\begin{aligned}[H, X_i X_j] &= H X_i X_j - X_i X_j H \\ &= H X_i X_j - X_i X_j H + X_i H X_j - X_i H X_j \\ &= X_i [H, X_j] + [H, X_i] X_j\end{aligned}$$

- So the Casimir will commute with the Hamiltonian.
- So not only does the Casimir provide a label for the state when considering the symmetry, it is also a commuting operator with the Hamiltonian, and provides a label for the eigenstate in the overall QM system.

Casimirs

- For a Hamiltonian symmetric under a symmetry group of rank R , there will be $2R$ conserved variables (and labels) associated with each specific symmetry group: R from the generators, and R from the Casimirs.
- The R conserved variables that arise from the Casimirs (and not the generators) are invariant under the group symmetry operations.
- This is because the Casimirs commute with the group generators.
- e.g. in $SO(3)$, a rotation does not change the value of l , but does change the value of m .

Casimirs

- We've discussed Casimirs as quadratic operators.
- If these operators represent observables, then they must be Hermitian.
- We must therefore form them from Hermitian combinations of Hermitian operators:

$$i[X_i, X_j] \text{ or } \{X_i, X_j\}$$

- The first of these is only linear in the group elements (from the structure constants); Hermitian Casimirs are formed out of anti-commutators of group elements.

Summary

Lecture 6:

- Rotations in 3D – $SO(3)$. We looked at this in many different representations.
- Interpretations in terms of conserved quantities – we see why “spin is a form of angular momentum”
- The commutation relation between generators in a group is the same in all representations, and can be used to define the group.

Summary

Lecture 7:

- Spherical Harmonics and $SO(3)$
- Structure Constants
- Regular Representation
- Rank of a group, and Casimir Operators