

4 Symmetry in Quantum Mechanics

- (4.1) Symmetries, Conservation Laws, and Degeneracies
 - (4.2) Discrete Symmetries, Parity or Space Inversion
 - (4.3) Lattice Translation as a Discrete Symmetry
 - (4.4) The Time-Reversal Discrete Symmetry
- } general
(continuous)
- } specific
symmetries

4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 talk about discrete symmetries:



square

which rotation
angles give the
same "geometry"?

particular
angles \rightarrow discrete
symmetry



Same question
 \rightarrow

any angle
 \rightarrow continuous
symmetry

Start with 4.1 : Symmetries, Conservation Laws, and
Degeneracies

To set the stage : Look at classical mechanics

\rightarrow Lagrange's equations of motion

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} = 0$$

q_i cyclic $\Rightarrow p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i}$ conserved

this is equivalent to saying
that L has a symmetry
under $q_i \rightarrow q_i + \delta q_i$

Equivalently: $\frac{dp_i}{dt} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} = 0$

H has a symmetry
under $q_i \rightarrow q_i + \delta q_i$

Want to go to quantum case:

Consider unitary operator \hat{S} that differs infinitesimally from the identity transformation:

$$\hat{S} = \hat{1} - \frac{i\varepsilon}{\hbar} \hat{G}$$



Hermitian generator of
the "symmetry operator" \hat{S}

e.g.: $\hat{1} - i \frac{\vec{x}}{\hbar} \cdot \vec{p}$

infinitesimal translation by \vec{x} generated
by \vec{p}

Assume \hat{H} is invariant under \hat{g} , i.e., $\hat{g}^+ \hat{H} \hat{g} = \hat{H}$.

$$\Rightarrow [\hat{G}, \hat{H}] = 0$$

To see this, start with
 $\hat{g}^+ \hat{H} \hat{g} = \hat{H}$: plug in

$$\hat{g}^+ \hat{A} \hat{g} = \underbrace{(\hat{I} + i\frac{\varepsilon}{\hbar} \hat{G})}_{\text{multiplying out}} \hat{A} (\hat{I} - i\frac{\varepsilon}{\hbar} \hat{G})$$

$$= \hat{H} - i\frac{\varepsilon}{\hbar} (\hat{H} \hat{G} - \hat{G} \hat{H}) + O(\varepsilon^2)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{according to}}{\Rightarrow} \hat{g}^+ \hat{H} \hat{g} = \hat{H}$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{H} \hat{G} - \hat{G} \hat{H} = 0$$

Heisenberg eq. of motion

$$\frac{d\hat{G}}{dt} = \underbrace{\frac{i}{\hbar} [\hat{G}, \hat{H}]}_{=0 \text{ (see above)}} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial \hat{G}}{\partial t}}_{=0 \text{ by assumption}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\hat{G}}{dt} = 0$$

So:

$\hat{g}^+ \hat{H} \hat{g} = \hat{H} \Rightarrow \hat{G}$ is a constant of motion

symmetry

conservation law

e.g.: \hat{H} invariant under translation \Rightarrow momentum is constant of motion

\hat{H} invariant under rotation \Rightarrow angular momentum is constant of motion

We have a connection between "symmetry" and "conservation law".

Next, we want to bring in degeneracies.

Assume $[\hat{H}, \hat{\mathcal{G}}] = 0$ and let $|n\rangle$ be energy eigenket of \hat{H} with eigenvalue E_n

\uparrow
sum

act on $|n\rangle$

$$\hat{H} \hat{\mathcal{G}} |n\rangle = \hat{\mathcal{G}} \hat{H} |n\rangle$$

(

add
brackets
to enhance
readability

$$\hat{H} (\hat{\mathcal{G}} |n\rangle) = E_n (\hat{\mathcal{G}} |n\rangle)$$

$E_n |n\rangle$

E_n is a scalar
(can be moved)

→ If $|n\rangle$ is eigenvector of \hat{H} and $[\hat{H}, \hat{\mathcal{G}}] = 0$,

then $\hat{\mathcal{G}} |n\rangle$ is also an eigenvector of \hat{H}
with eigen energy E_n

→ If $|n\rangle$ and $\hat{\mathcal{G}} |n\rangle$ are different states,
we have a symmetry.

Specific case: $\hat{\mathcal{G}} = \hat{D}(R)$

$\underbrace{}$

rotation operator
(see chapter 3)

4-5

$$\text{e.g.: } \hat{D}_z(\phi) = \exp\left(-i \frac{\hat{S}_z \phi}{\hbar}\right)$$

rotation by angle ϕ about
the z-axis (spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ system)

$$D_{jm}^{(j)}(R) = \langle j, m | e^{-i \vec{j} \cdot \vec{n} \phi / \hbar} | j, m \rangle$$

matrix
elements

rotation speci-
fied by \vec{n} and
 ϕ

Assume $\underbrace{[\hat{D}(R), \hat{H}]}_{} = 0 \Rightarrow [\hat{j}, \hat{H}] = 0 \text{ and } [\hat{j}^2, \hat{H}] = 0$

Hamiltonian is
rotationally invariant

look at simultaneous eigen

sets of \hat{H} , \hat{j}^2 , and \hat{j}_z .

Call them $|n; j, m\rangle$

according to the above, the states

$\hat{D}(R) |n; j, m\rangle$ have the same
energy as $|n; j, m\rangle$.

Since we can write

mixes the
different m values

$$\hat{D}(R)|n; j, m\rangle = \sum_{m'} D_{m'm}^{(j)}(R) |n; j, m'\rangle,$$

the degeneracy is $2j+1$.

we know that m'
can take $2j+1$
different values

e.g.: isotropic 3D H₂O oscillator

→ the energy levels can be

labeled by n and l :

$$E_{n,l} = (2n + l + \frac{3}{2}) \hbar \omega$$

for each l , we have $2l+1$
different m_l levels

→ if we add an external electric
or magnetic field, the symmetry
is broken (preferred axis) and
the energy levels get split

Very, very special case: SO(4) symmetry in
the Coulomb potential

$$E_n = -\frac{E_h}{2} \frac{1}{n^2} ; E_h = \text{Hartree energy}$$

the fact that E_n does not depend on

ℓ is not accidental!

Classically: Closed elliptical orbits \leftrightarrow Runge-Lenz vector \vec{M}

is constant of motion.

$$\vec{M} = \frac{1}{m} \vec{p} \times \vec{L} - \frac{2e^2}{r} \vec{r}$$

Quantum mechanically: $SO(4)$ symmetry

Spatial dim.
↓

Recall: Section 3.3 $\rightarrow SO(3)$

↑ ↗

special orthogonal
(no inversion).

$O(3)$ includes
inversion

$SO(4)$: group of rotation operators
in four spatial dimensions (i.e., group of
orthogonal 4×4 matrices
with unit determinant)

What do we need to do to "understand" $SO(4)$?

We need to identify the symmetry and we need
to construct generators.

This is quite a bit of work.

I will only mention a few key things.

- Need to symmetrize \hat{M} : $\hat{M} = \frac{1}{2m} (\hat{\vec{p}} \times \hat{\vec{L}} - \hat{\vec{L}} \times \hat{\vec{p}}) - \frac{e^2}{r} \vec{r}$

$$\text{use } (\hat{\vec{A}} \times \hat{\vec{B}})^* = -\hat{\vec{B}} \times \hat{\vec{A}}$$

($\hat{\vec{A}}, \hat{\vec{B}}$ Hermitian)

- One can verify $[\hat{M}, \hat{H}] = 0 \rightarrow \hat{M}$ is q.m. constant of motion

$$\circ \text{Also: } \hat{L} \cdot \hat{M} = \hat{M} \cdot \hat{L} = 0 \quad \& \quad \hat{M}^2 = \frac{2}{m} \hat{H} (\hat{L}^2 + t^2) + Z^2 e^4$$

- Part of the algebra is known: $[\hat{L}_i, \hat{L}_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} \hat{L}_k$

$$\circ \text{One can show: } [\hat{M}_i, \hat{L}_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} \hat{M}_k$$

$$\& [\hat{M}_i, \hat{M}_j] = -i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} \frac{Z}{m} \hat{t}_i \hat{L}_k$$

now a closed algebra

"deal" with this
by restricting state space to states with negative energies: $\hat{t}_i \rightarrow E$

Defining $\hat{N} = \left(-\frac{m}{2e}\right)^{1/2} \hat{M}$, one finds a closed

$$\text{algebra: } [\hat{L}_i, \hat{L}_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} \hat{L}_k$$

$$[\hat{N}_i, \hat{L}_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} \hat{N}_k$$

$$[\hat{N}_i, \hat{N}_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} \hat{L}_k$$

} group $SO(4)$

($= SU(2) \times SU(2)$)

It turns out (this is non-trivial!) that this algebra generates a "rotation in four spatial dimensions"

As stated earlier: the discussion given only provides a "glimpse". We will now look at a few other symmetries in a bit more detail.

4.2 Discrete Symmetries, Parity or Space Inversion

Parity operator acting on coordinate system: Right-handed coordinate system turns into left-handed coordinate system.

Throughout: looking for action of operators on ^{state} kets.

$\hat{\pi}$: parity operator (unitary)

$\hat{\pi} |\alpha\rangle$: space inverted state

Demand: $\langle \alpha | \hat{\pi}^+ \hat{x} \hat{\pi} | \alpha \rangle = - \langle \alpha | \hat{x} | \alpha \rangle$

$\underbrace{\text{expectation value}}_{\text{of } \hat{x} \text{ with respect to space inverted state should yield minus sign of } \langle \alpha | \hat{x} | \alpha \rangle}$

$$\text{or } \hat{\pi}^+ \hat{x} \hat{\pi} = -\hat{x} \Rightarrow \hat{x} \hat{\pi} = -\hat{\pi} \hat{x}$$

using that
 $\hat{\pi}$ is unitary

So : we demand that \hat{x} and $\hat{\pi}$ anti-commute.

To see how $\hat{\pi}$ acts on eigenket of \hat{x} , let's work out $\hat{x} \hat{\pi} |\vec{x}'\rangle$:

$$\hat{x} \hat{\pi} |\vec{x}'\rangle = -\hat{\pi} \left(\hat{x} |\vec{x}'\rangle \right) = -\vec{x}' \hat{\pi} |\vec{x}'\rangle$$

\nearrow
using
 $\hat{x} \hat{\pi} = -\hat{\pi} \hat{x}$

\swarrow
 $\vec{x}' |\vec{x}'\rangle$

Rewrite: $\hat{x} (\hat{\pi} |\vec{x}'\rangle) = -\vec{x}' (\hat{\pi} |\vec{x}'\rangle)$

So: $(\hat{\pi} |\vec{x}'\rangle)$ is an eigenket of \hat{x} with eigenvalue $-\vec{x}'$

$\rightarrow (\hat{\pi} |\vec{x}'\rangle)$ must be the same as

$|\vec{x}'\rangle$ up to a phase factor

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\pi} |\vec{x}'\rangle = e^{i\delta} |\vec{x}'\rangle$$

set equal to one by convention

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\pi} (\hat{\pi} |\vec{x}'\rangle) = |\vec{x}'\rangle \Rightarrow \hat{\pi}^2 = \hat{1}$$

1 eigenvalues of $\hat{\pi}$ are ± 1

Since $\hat{\pi}^{-1} = \hat{\pi}^+ = \hat{\pi}$, the parity operator is Hermitian

We found: $\hat{\pi}^+ \hat{x} \hat{\pi} = -\hat{x}$ $\rightarrow \hat{x}$ is odd under parity
(or postulated)

We can find: $\hat{\pi}^+ \hat{p} \hat{\pi} = -\hat{p}$

However: $\hat{\pi}^+ \hat{j} \hat{\pi} = \hat{j}$

{

angular momentum:

classically, think of $\underbrace{\vec{r} \times \vec{p}}$

two minus
signs

more generally, \hat{j} generates
rotation:

$$R^{(\text{parity})} R^{(\text{rotation})} = R^{(\text{rotation})} R^{(\text{parity})}$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{array} \right)$$

↑
this equal
sign holds for
3x3 orthogonal
matrices

QM: $\hat{\pi} \hat{D}(R) = \hat{D}(R) \hat{\pi}$

$$\underbrace{e^{-i \hat{j} \cdot \hat{n} E/4}}$$

\hat{x}, \hat{p} are odd under parity; \hat{j} is even under parity

"polar vectors"

"axial vectors/pseudo vectors"

"condensed matter spin-orbit coupling"

Also:

$$\hat{\pi}^{-1} \hat{p} \cdot \hat{s} \hat{\pi} = (-) \hat{p} \cdot \hat{s}$$

$$\hat{\pi}^{-1} \hat{L} \cdot \hat{s} \hat{\pi} = (+) \hat{L} \cdot \hat{s}$$

"atomic physics spin-orbit coupling"

) Same name: spin-orbit coupling

But: distinct transformation properties!

We will encounter both types of spin-orbit couplings in tHW / later in class.

What happens to wave function under parity?

Let $\psi(\vec{x}') = \langle \vec{x}' | \alpha \rangle$ ($|\alpha\rangle$ = state ket of spinless particle)

Let $\hat{\pi} |\alpha\rangle$ be space inverted state ket.

Then: $\langle \vec{x}' | \hat{\pi} | \alpha \rangle = \langle -\vec{x}' | \alpha \rangle = \psi(-\vec{x}')$

(yields $\langle -\vec{x}' |$)

If $|\alpha\rangle$ eigenket of $\hat{\pi}$, then $\hat{\pi} |\alpha\rangle = \pm |\alpha\rangle \Rightarrow \langle \vec{x}' | \hat{\pi} | \alpha \rangle = \pm \langle \vec{x}' | \alpha \rangle$

$$\psi(-\vec{x}') = \begin{cases} \psi(\vec{x}') & \text{even parity} \\ -\psi(\vec{x}') & \text{odd parity} \end{cases}$$

Examples: Parity of gr. st. ^{1D}H₀ fct.? \rightarrow pos. parity

Parity of first exc. st. wave fct. of 1D H₀? \rightarrow neg. parity

Momentum eigenket (i.e., $e^{ik \cdot \vec{x}}$)?
 \rightarrow does not have definite parity

Eigen kets of H-atom? $R_{nl}(r) Y_l^m(\hat{\varphi})$
 \rightarrow parity is given by $(-1)^l$

Look at the last example in more detail:

Let's consider $\vec{x}' \xrightarrow{\text{parity}} -\vec{x}'$

in Cartesian coordinates, we just have a minus sign

In spherical coordinates: $r \rightarrow r$

$\theta \rightarrow \pi - \theta$

$\phi \rightarrow \phi + \pi$

It can be shown readily:

$$Y_l^m(\hat{\varphi}) \rightarrow Y_l^m(-\hat{\varphi}) = (-1)^l Y_l^m(\hat{\varphi})$$

$$\hat{\varphi} |l\alpha, l_m\rangle = (-1)^l |l\alpha, l_m\rangle$$

Parity properties of energy eigenstates and degeneracies?

Theorem 4.1: If $[\hat{H}, \hat{\pi}] = 0$ and if $|n\rangle$ is a non-degenerate eigenket of \hat{H} ($\hat{H}|n\rangle = E_n|n\rangle$), then $|n\rangle$ is also a parity eigenket.

Consider two examples:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} \quad \rightarrow \text{energy eigenstates are } e^{i\hat{p} \cdot \vec{x}}$$

we already said:
these states do
not have definite
parity

Easy to check: \hat{p} is invariant under parity.

But: eigenstates have indefinite parity (are not eigenstates of $\hat{\pi}$).

Our theorem cannot be applied since $|\vec{p}'\rangle$ and $|-\vec{p}'\rangle$ are degenerate!

$\textcircled{2}$ 1D HO Hamiltonian \rightarrow all energy eigenstates are one-fold degenerate

$$\rightarrow [\hat{H}, \hat{\pi}] = 0$$

\uparrow
easy to check:
 \hat{H} is quadratic

\rightarrow theorem applies, i.e., the eigenstates of 1D HO have

definite parity.

Proof of theorem 4.1:

Consider $\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle$.

Act with $\hat{\pi}$:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\pi} \left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle}_{\text{multiplying out}} \right) &= \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{2}\hat{\pi} \pm \frac{1}{2}\hat{\pi}\hat{\pi} \right)}_{1}|n\rangle \\ &= \pm \frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle \\ &\xrightarrow{\substack{\text{reordering} \\ \text{terms}}} = \pm \left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle}_{\substack{\text{adding brackets} \\ \text{for clarity}}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

So: $\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle$ is an eigenket of $\hat{\pi}$
with eigenvalues ± 1 .

Now look at \hat{H} acting on $\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H} \left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle}_{\text{multiplying out}} \right) &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\hat{H} \pm \frac{1}{2}\hat{H}\hat{\pi} \right)|n\rangle \\ &\quad + \hat{\pi}\hat{H} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\hat{H} \pm \hat{\pi}\hat{H})|n\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})\hat{H}|n\rangle \\ &= E_n \frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle \\ &= E_n \left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle}_{\text{multiplying out}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

So: $\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle$ is an eigenket of \hat{H} with

eigenvalues E_n .

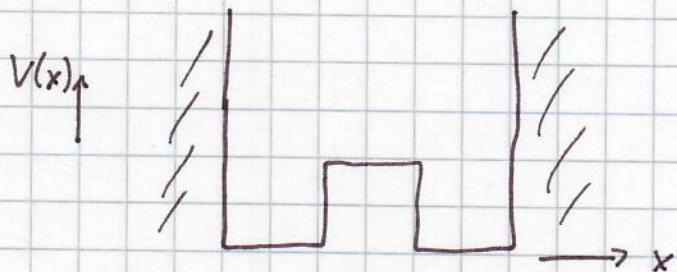
Thus: $\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle$ is an eigenket of \hat{P} as well as an eigenket of $\hat{\pi}$.

By our assumption, the eigenstates of \hat{P} are non-degenerate. Since $|n\rangle$ and $\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle$ are both eigenkets of \hat{P} , they can only differ by a phase (otherwise we would have a degeneracy, which contradicts our assumption).

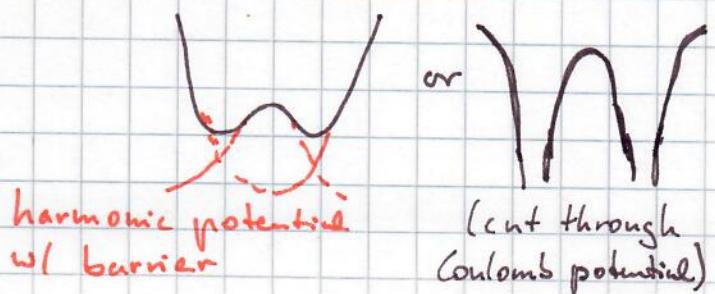
Since $|n\rangle$ is identical to $\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle$ (except for phase) and since $\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \hat{\pi})|n\rangle$ is parity eigenket, $|n\rangle$ must also be a parity eigenket.

This proves the theorem.

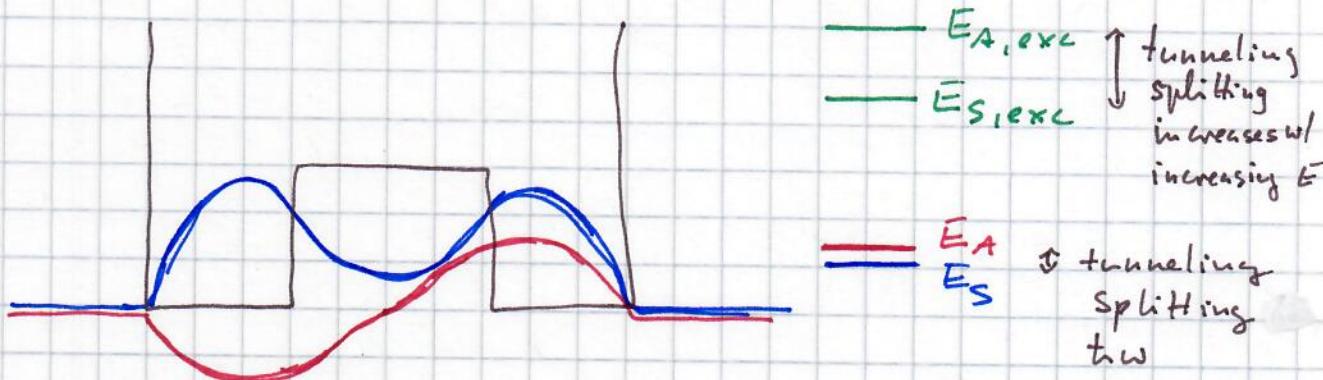
Application: Symmetrical double-well potential
(1D for simplicity)



Alternatively:



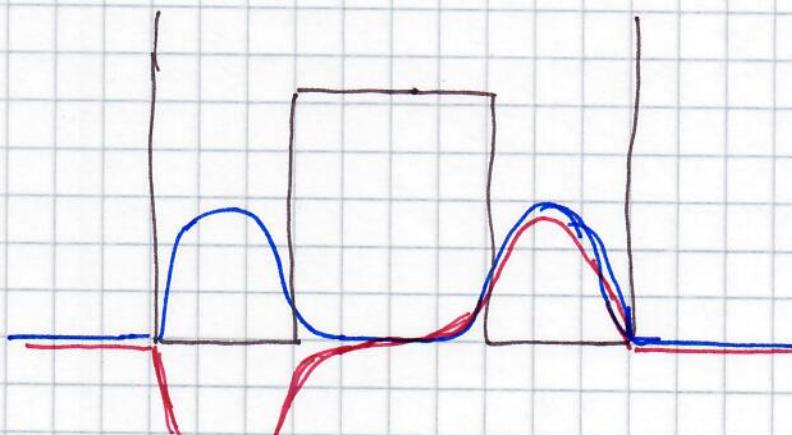
What are the eigenenergies and eigenstates?



$|S\rangle$: symmetrical (there exists "tunneling" into the classically forbidden region) \rightarrow pos. parity

$|A\rangle$: anti-symmetrical \rightarrow neg. parity

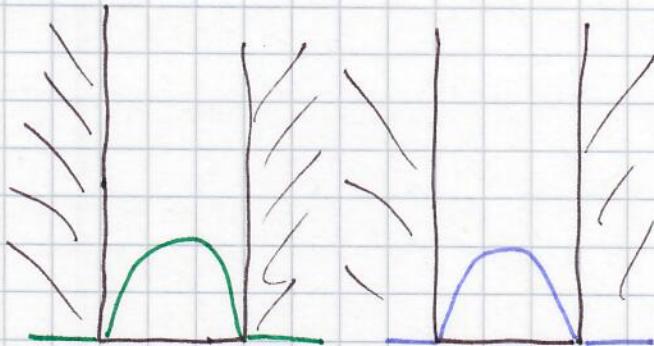
What happens when we make the barrier inside larger?



$|S\rangle$: compared to the case above, less tunneling into the classically disallowed region

$|A\rangle$: same as for $|S\rangle$; in addition, the states $|S\rangle$ and $|A\rangle$ become more similar (except for phase) in the classically allowed region \rightarrow tw is smaller than above

What happens when we make the barrier infinitely large?



$|L\rangle$: state located in left well
(not a parity eigenstate)

the wave function must be zero here

$$\psi_w = 0$$

$|R\rangle$: state located in right well (not a parity eigenstate)

the two wells are truly disconnected, i.e., the Hilbert space separates into two distinct pieces.

$|L\rangle$ and $|R\rangle$ have the same energy \rightarrow ground state has degeneracy of two

$|L\rangle$ and $|R\rangle$ are not parity eigenstates

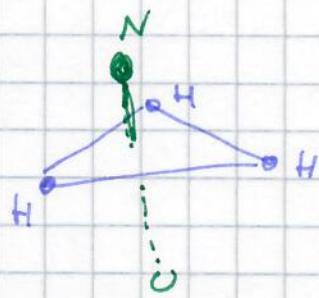
(note: this is all consistent w/ theorem 4.1)

Even though the potential is symmetric, the ground state wave functions are neither symmetric nor anti-symmetric.

Degeneracy \leftrightarrow broken symmetry!

Many examples in Nature:

e.g.: NH_3



"N wants to sit above and below the plane spanned by the three H atoms"

\rightarrow oscillation frequency has wavelength of 1cm (microwave regime)

Transition matrix elements can be interpreted as parity selection rules:

$$\int \psi_0^*(x) \times \psi_0(x) dx = 0$$

$\underbrace{\quad}_{\text{1st HO}}$

1st HO

\uparrow
very easy to show

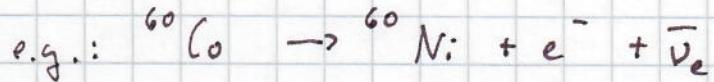
odd operator \hat{x} only leads to non-zero transition probability when initial and final

state have opposite parity.

Are the fundamental forces invariant under parity?

Electromagnetic? Yes (straightforward to check!)

Weak interaction? No!

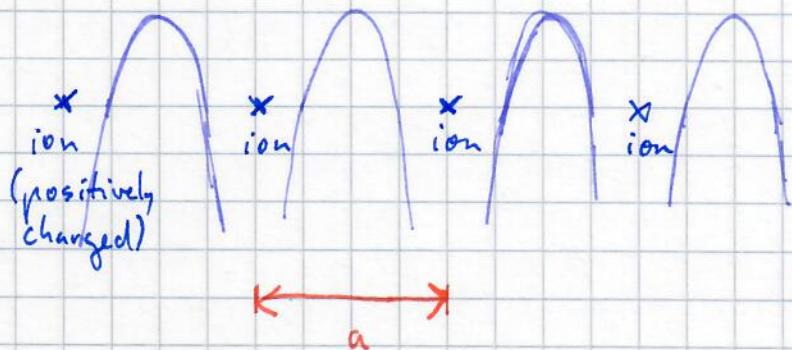


(see Wu et al., PR105, 1413 (1957))

4.3 : Lattice translation as a discrete

Symmetry

Let us consider an ion crystal:

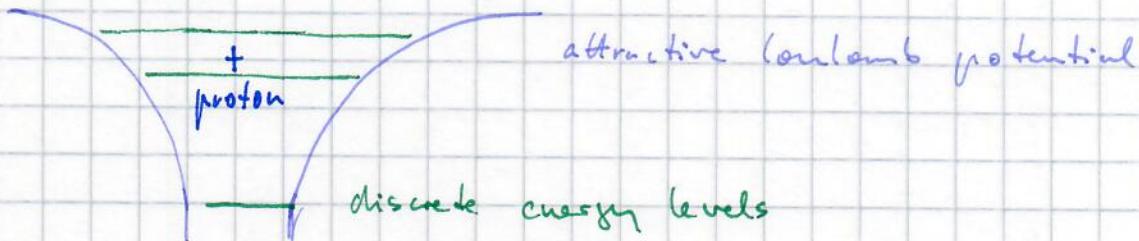


This is
the potential
that an
electron
might feel

periodicity
of a

shift by $a \rightsquigarrow$
Same lattice

- We are very familiar w/ one electron + positive ion (= proton)
 $\hat{=} \text{H-atom}$

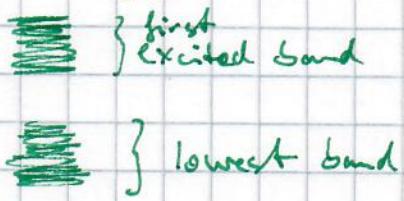


- Two ions / protons:



- Three ions \rightarrow more splitting

- Infinite number of ions (lattice) \rightarrow energy bands



More formally: $\hat{\mathcal{E}}(l) \rightarrow$ translation operator

$$\text{In general: } \hat{\mathcal{E}}^+(l) \times \hat{\mathcal{E}}(l) = x + l$$

$$\hat{\mathcal{E}}(l) |x\rangle = |x + l\rangle$$

$$\text{If } l=a : \hat{\mathcal{E}}^+(a) V(x) \hat{\mathcal{I}}(a) = V(x+a) = V(x)$$

Since kinetic energy operator is invariant under translation, it follows

$$\hat{\mathcal{E}}^+(a) \hat{H} \hat{\mathcal{I}}(a) = \hat{H}$$

using that
 $\hat{\mathcal{E}}(a)$ is unitary

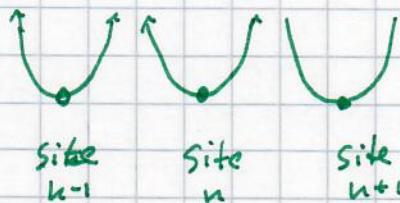
$$[\hat{H}, \hat{\mathcal{E}}(a)] = 0$$

Recall: $\hat{\mathcal{E}}(a)$ unitary

$\hat{\mathcal{E}}(a)$ not Hermitian

} expect eigenvalues to be complex numbers of modulus 1

Let's start with lattice with infinitely high barriers:



→ the sites don't talk to each other

Let: $\hat{H}|n\rangle = E_0|n\rangle$ → similarly, we have $\hat{H}|n+1\rangle = E_0|n\rangle$

→ we have an infinite degeneracy if the number of sites is infinitely large

$\hat{\mathcal{I}}(a)|n\rangle \neq |n\rangle$



$|n\rangle$ is not an eigenket of $\hat{\mathcal{I}}(a)$

$$\text{Instead: } \hat{T}(a) |n\rangle = |n+1\rangle$$

We want to construct simultaneous eigenkets of \hat{H} and $\hat{T}(a)$.

To this end, define:

$$|\theta\rangle = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{in\theta} |n\rangle$$

easy to see that
this is eigen
ket of \hat{H}

$$\Rightarrow \hat{T}(a) |\theta\rangle = \hat{T}(a) \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{in\theta} |n\rangle$$

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{in\theta} |n+1\rangle$$

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-in\theta} e^{i(n+1)\theta} |n+1\rangle$$

$$= e^{-i\theta} \underbrace{\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{in\theta} |n\rangle}_{|\theta\rangle}$$

$$= e^{-i\theta} |\theta\rangle$$

$|\theta\rangle$ is eigen^{ket} of \hat{H} and $\hat{T}(a)$.

$|\theta\rangle$ is parametrized by continuous variable θ .

E_0 is independent of θ .

So far: infinite barrier height \rightarrow unrealistic!

Let's consider finite barrier height.

As before construct localized state $|n\rangle$ with the property

$$\hat{t}(a)|n\rangle = |n+1\rangle.$$

we demand that $|n\rangle$ has this property.

We still have $\langle n|\hat{H}|n\rangle = E_0$.

However, due to "leakage", there will be off-diagonal elements:

$$\langle n'|\hat{H}|n\rangle \neq 0 \text{ (in general)}$$

Make the

approximation: $\langle n'|\hat{H}|n\rangle = 0$ if $|n'-n| > 1$



this is called
the tight binding
approximation

idea: since the basis
 $|\psi_n\rangle$ are (semi-)loc-
alized, the matrix
elements should be-
come smaller w/
increasing $|n-n'|$.

Diagonal element $\langle n|\hat{H}|n\rangle = E_0$ (see above).

Nearest neighbor element $\langle n\pm 1|\hat{H}|n\rangle = -\Delta$

(this defines Δ)

Since $\hat{H}|n\rangle = E_0|n\rangle - \Delta|n+1\rangle - \Delta|n-1\rangle$, $|n\rangle$ is not an eigenket of \hat{H} .

What about $\hat{H}|\theta\rangle$?

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{H}|\theta\rangle &= \hat{H} \sum_n e^{in\theta} |n\rangle \\
 &= E_0 \sum_n e^{in\theta} |n\rangle - \Delta \sum_n e^{in\theta} |n+1\rangle \\
 &\quad - \Delta \sum_n e^{in\theta} |n-1\rangle \\
 &= E_0 \sum_n e^{in\theta} |n\rangle - \Delta \sum_n \underbrace{(e^{-i\theta} + e^{i\theta})}_{2\cos\theta} |n\rangle \\
 &= (E_0 - 2\Delta \cos\theta) \sum_n e^{in\theta} |n\rangle \\
 &= \underbrace{(E_0 - 2\Delta \cos\theta)}_{\text{is eigenvalue of } \hat{H}} |\theta\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

$E_0 - 2\Delta \cos\theta$ is eigenvalue of \hat{H} .

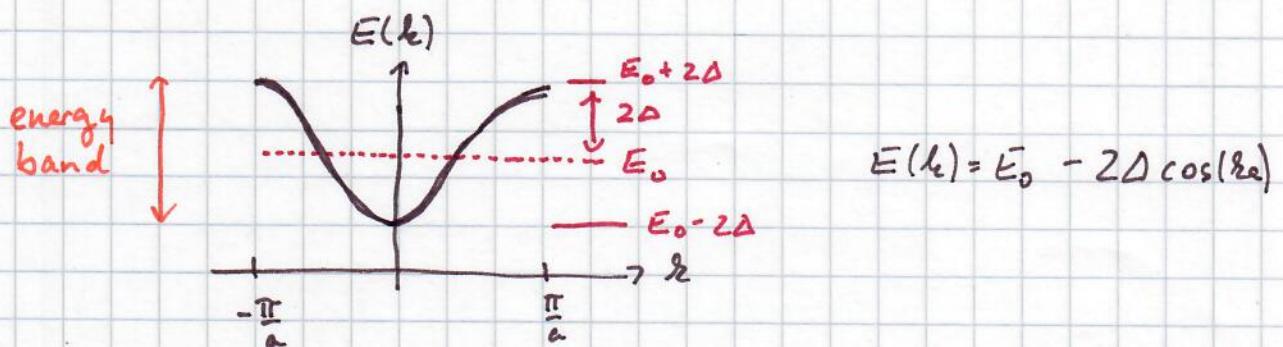
$|\theta\rangle$ is eigenket of \hat{H} .

What is this continuous parameter θ ?

It turns out $\theta = ka$

$$\rightarrow \theta \in [-\pi, \pi] \Rightarrow k \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{a}, \frac{\pi}{a}\right]$$

→ gives rise to energy band



$$\langle x' | \theta \rangle = e^{ikx'} u_k(x')$$

periodic function with period a

This is the Bloch theorem:

The wave fct. of $|\theta\rangle$ ($|\theta\rangle$ is an eigenket of $\hat{T}(\omega)$)

can be written as a plane wave $e^{ikx'}$ times

a periodic function with periodicity a.

Note: this theorem holds even if the tight binding approximation breaks down.

4.4 The time-reversal discrete symmetry

Time reversal \rightarrow should be called reversal of motion



it is not just $t \rightarrow -t$!!!

As a starter, let us consider the time-dependent SE:

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi(\vec{x}, t) = \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \vec{\nabla}^2 + V \right) \psi(\vec{x}, t)$$

Expand ψ :

$$\psi(\vec{x}, t) = \sum_n c_n e^{-iE_n t / \hbar} \underbrace{\phi_n(t)}_{\text{complete set of states}}$$

\rightarrow If $\psi(\vec{x}, t)$ is a solution to time-dep. SE, then $\psi^*(\vec{x}, -t)$ is as well.

Time reversal has s.th. to do with complex conjugation!

Take a step back: $|a\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{transf.}} |\tilde{a}\rangle$

$$|\beta\rangle \longrightarrow |\tilde{\beta}\rangle$$

If transformation is associated with unitary operator, then

$$\underbrace{\langle \tilde{\beta} | \tilde{\alpha} \rangle}_{\text{ }} = \langle \beta | \alpha \rangle$$

$$\underbrace{\langle \beta | \hat{h} + \hat{U} | \alpha \rangle}_{\text{ }} = \langle \beta | \alpha \rangle$$

Rotation, translation, parity: unitary operators

Time reversal: antiunitary

Definition:

The transformation $| \alpha \rangle \rightarrow | \tilde{\alpha} \rangle = \hat{\Theta} | \alpha \rangle$, $| \beta \rangle \rightarrow | \tilde{\beta} \rangle = \hat{\Theta} | \beta \rangle$

is antiunitary if

$$\langle \tilde{\beta} | \tilde{\alpha} \rangle = \langle \beta | \alpha \rangle^*$$

$$\hat{\Theta} (c_1 | \alpha \rangle + c_2 | \beta \rangle) = c_1^* \hat{\Theta} | \alpha \rangle + c_2^* \hat{\Theta} | \beta \rangle.$$

Antiunitary operator can be written as

$$\hat{\Theta} = \hat{h} \hat{K}$$

unitary operator

complex conjugate operator:
forms the complex conjugate
of any coefficient that
multiplies a ket (and
stands on the right of \hat{K})

The \hat{K} operator (and the time reversal operator) are
a bit tricky since the effect of \hat{K} changes with

the basis.

What does this mean?!? To understand this, let us look at two examples:

- 1) Let $|+\rangle$ and $|-\rangle$ be eigen kets of \hat{S}_z .

Let us use $|+\rangle$ and $|-\rangle$ as base kets
and let us form new kets

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |+\rangle \pm \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} |- \rangle .$$

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change

\hat{K} takes the
"prefactors" and converts
them to complex conjugate

- 2) Let us change our basis; Let our base

lets be $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |+\rangle \pm \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} |-\rangle$.

$$\Rightarrow K \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |+\rangle \pm \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} |-\rangle \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |+\rangle \left(\pm \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} |-\rangle \right)$$

base ket: \hat{K} takes
 the prefactor (namely, 1)
 and converts the prefactor
 to complex conjugate ($1^* = 1$)

Let's denote time reversal operator by $\hat{\Theta}^1$.

We require:

$$\hat{\theta}_1 \hat{x} \hat{\theta}_1^{-1} = \hat{x}$$

$$\hat{\theta}_1 \hat{p} \hat{\theta}_1^{-1} = -\hat{p}$$

$$\hat{\theta}_1 \hat{j} \hat{\theta}_1^{-1} = -\hat{j}$$

When we started the discussion, we noted that

$\psi^*(\vec{x}, -t)$ solves the time-dep. SE, provided $\psi(\vec{x}, t)$ does.

Let's look at this a bit more formally: Look at single spinless particle at time $t=0$ described by state $|\alpha\rangle$.

$$|\alpha\rangle = \int \underbrace{\langle \vec{x}' | \alpha \rangle}_{|\vec{x}'\rangle} |\vec{x}'\rangle d^3 \vec{x}'$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\theta}_1 |\alpha\rangle = \int \hat{\theta}_1 \underbrace{\langle \vec{x}' | \alpha \rangle}_{|\vec{x}'\rangle} |\vec{x}'\rangle d^3 \vec{x}'$$

$$= \int (\langle \vec{x}' | \alpha \rangle)^* \underbrace{\hat{\theta}_1}_{|\vec{x}'\rangle} |\vec{x}'\rangle d^3 \vec{x}'$$

$$= \int \underbrace{\langle \vec{x}' | \alpha \rangle^*}_{|\vec{x}'\rangle} |\vec{x}'\rangle d^3 \vec{x}'$$

$$\text{So: } \psi(\vec{x}') \rightarrow \psi^*(\vec{x}')$$

On the other hand:

$$|\alpha> = \int \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}' | \alpha > | \vec{p}'>}_{d^3 \vec{p}'} d^3 \vec{p}'$$

$$\Rightarrow |\hat{\theta}_1| \alpha > = |\hat{\theta}_1| \int \underbrace{\langle \vec{p}' | \alpha > | \vec{p}'>}_{d^3 \vec{p}'} d^3 \vec{p}'$$

$$= \int (\langle \vec{p}' | \alpha >)^* \underbrace{(\hat{\theta}_1 | \vec{p}'>)}_{|-\vec{p}'>} d^3 \vec{p}'$$

(see below)

$$= \int \langle \vec{p}' | \alpha >^* | -\vec{p}'> d^3 \vec{p}'$$

variable
transformation
 $\vec{p} \rightarrow -\vec{p}$
(three \vec{p} 's and
switch of integration)

$$= \int \underbrace{\langle -\vec{p}' | \alpha >^*}_{d^3 \vec{p}'} | \vec{p}'> d^3 \vec{p}'$$

$$\text{So: } \psi(\vec{p}) \rightarrow \psi^*(-\vec{p})$$

$$\text{Recall: } \psi(\vec{x}) \rightarrow \psi^*(\vec{x})$$

} the dependence
on representation is
clearly visible!

What is $|\hat{\theta}_1| \vec{p}>$?

$$|\hat{\theta}_1| \vec{p}> = \int \underbrace{\langle \vec{x}' | \vec{p}> | \vec{x}'>}_{\frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} e^{-i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}'/\hbar}} d^3 \vec{x}'$$

$$= \int \left(\hat{\theta}_1 \left(\frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} e^{-i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}'/\hbar} \right) \right) \underbrace{|\hat{\theta}_1| \vec{x}'>}_{\frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} e^{-i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}'/\hbar}} d^3 \vec{x}' = |-\vec{p}>$$

(from before)

$$= \langle \vec{x}' | -\vec{p}>$$

Theorem 4.2: If \hat{H} is invariant under $i\hat{\theta}_1$ and the eigenket $|n\rangle$ is non-degenerate, then the corresponding energy eigenfunction is a real function times a phase factor that is independent of \vec{x} .

For the proof of the theorem, see the text.

So far, we looked at spinless particle. Now look at particle with spin.

For \hat{S} , we demand (just as for \hat{J}): $i\hat{\theta}_1 \hat{S} i\hat{\theta}_1^{-1} = -\hat{S}$

It follows by inspection that $i\hat{\theta}_1$ cannot just be \hat{K} (e.g., $\hat{K} \hat{S}_z \hat{K} = \hat{S}_z$).

Instead: $i\hat{\theta}_1 = -i\gamma \frac{2\hat{S}_y}{\hbar} \hat{K} = \gamma e^{-i\pi \hat{S}_y/\hbar} \hat{K}$
 (in the representation where \hat{S}_z is diagonal)

arbitrary phase

(complex number of modulus 1)

for spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particle

It follows :

$$\hat{\Theta} \left(c_+ |+\rangle + c_- |-\rangle \right) = +\gamma c_+^* |-\rangle - \gamma c_-^* |+\rangle$$

most general spin $\frac{1}{2}$
ket ($|+\rangle$ and $|-\rangle$ are
eigen kets of \hat{S}_z)

using: $e^{-i\pi \hat{S}_y/\hbar} |+\rangle = +|-\rangle$

& $e^{-i\pi \hat{S}_y/\hbar} |-\rangle = -|+\rangle$

$$\hat{\Theta}^{1^2} \left(c_+ |+\rangle + c_- |-\rangle \right) = \hat{\Theta} \left(\gamma c_+^* |-\rangle - \gamma c_-^* |+\rangle \right)$$

$$= - \underbrace{\gamma \gamma^*}_{|\gamma|^2} c_+ |+\rangle - \underbrace{\gamma \gamma^*}_{|\gamma|^2} c_- |-\rangle$$

$$= - (c_+ |+\rangle + c_- |-\rangle)$$

$$= \textcircled{-} (\text{the state we started with})$$

Kramers' degeneracy theorem

An important consequence: Any system for which $\hat{\Theta}^{1^2} |\Psi\rangle = -|\Psi\rangle$, such as an odd number of spin $\frac{1}{2}$ particles, has only degenerate energy levels.

assumes \hat{H} and \hat{G}_1 commute

In \rightarrow energy eigenket