

# 现代数学物理方法

## 第二章, 群论基础

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# Parity:

## Parity:

Parity is the operation of reflection in a mirror. *Reflecting twice gets you back to where you started,*

$$p^2 = e$$

The group including parity operation is  $Z_2$ :

	$e$	$p$
$e$	$e$	$p$
$p$	$p$	$e$

## Representations of $Z_2$ :

- $Z_2$  has only 2 irreducible representations. The first one is trivial,

$$D_1(e) = D_1(p) = 1.$$

- The second irreducible representation of  $Z_2$  consists of

$$D_2(e) = 1, \quad D_2(p) = -1.$$

- *Any representation of  $Z_2$  is completely reducible.* The Hilbert space of any parity invariant system can be decomposed into states that behave like irreducible representations, on which  $D(p)$  is either 1 or  $-1$ .
  - ① The energy eigensates on which  $D(p) = 1$  have an even parity.
  - ② The energy eigensates on which  $D(p) = -1$  have an odd parity.

**Definition:**

$S_3$  is the permutation group (or symmetric group) on 3 objects,

$$a_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = (123) = (231) = (312)$$

$$a_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = (132) = (213) = (321)$$

$$a_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = (12) = (21)$$

$$a_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = (23) = (32)$$

$$a_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = (13) = (31)$$

$$e = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Properties:

Basically,

- ❶  $(ab) = (ba)$
- ❷  $(ab)(ba) = e$
- ❸  $(ab)(bc) = (abc)$

In general,

- ❶  $(123 \cdots N) = (12)(23)(34) \cdots (N-1, N)$
- ❷  $(123 \cdots N) = (1N)(1, N-1)(1, N-2) \cdots (13)(12)$

$$\rightsquigarrow a_1 a_2 = (123)(321) = e, \quad a_1 a_3 = (123)(12) = (13) = a_5$$

## Generators:

$S_3$  has *two* generators. They can be chosen as

$$\{a_1 = (123), \quad a_3 = (12)\}$$

From these generators, we have  $a_2 = a_1 a_1$ ,  $a_4 = a_3 a_1$ ,  $a_5 = a_1 a_3$  and  $e = a_1 a_1 a_1 = a_3 a_3$ .

## Non-Abelian:

$S_3$  is non-abelian because its multiplication law is not commutative.  
*e.g.*,

$$a_4 = a_3 a_1 \neq a_1 a_3 = a_5$$

It is the lack of commutativity that makes group theory very useful in *physics*.

## Multiplication Table of $S_3$ :

	$e$	$a_1$	$a_2$	$a_3$	$a_4$	$a_5$
$e$	$e$	$a_1$	$a_2$	$a_3$	$a_4$	$a_5$
$a_1$	$a_1$	$a_2$	$e$	$a_5$	$a_3$	$a_4$
$a_2$	$a_2$	$e$	$a_1$	$a_4$	$a_5$	$a_3$
$a_3$	$a_3$	$a_4$	$a_5$	$e$	$a_1$	$a_2$
$a_4$	$a_4$	$a_5$	$a_3$	$a_2$	$e$	$a_1$
$a_5$	$a_5$	$a_3$	$a_4$	$a_1$	$a_2$	$e$

Permutation group is an important transformation group in quantum mechanics, in particular in the system of **identical particles**.

## An irreducible representation of $S_3$ :

$$D(e) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad D(a_1) = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D(a_2) = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \\ -\sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \quad D(a_3) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D(a_4) = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \quad D(a_5) = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ -\sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Discussions:

- The nontrivial representations of a non-Abelian group must be *matrices* rather than numbers. Only matrices can reproduce the non-commutative multiplication laws.
- In an irreducible representation, Not all of the matrices are diagonal.



### Question:

How to obtain this representation ?

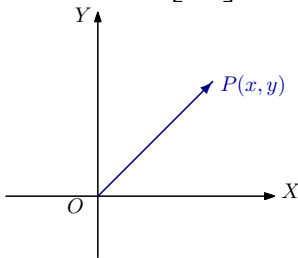
### My Explanation:

The two generators of  $S_3$  obey,

$$(a_1)^3 = (a_3)^2 = 1$$

We can identify  $a_1$  by a rotation in  $XY$  plane at an angle  $2\pi/3$  with respect to  $X$ -axis, and  $a_3$  a reflection about  $Y$ -axis. Therefore, on

an arbitrary vector,  $\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} \sim \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ ,



we have:

$$D(a_3) \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence,

$$D(a_3) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarly,

$$D(a_1) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\pi/3) & -\sin(2\pi/3) \\ \sin(2\pi/3) & \cos(2\pi/3) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Based on these two generators, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} D(a_2) &= [D(a_1)]^2 \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \\ -\sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} D(a_4) &= D(a_3)D(a_1) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(a_5) &= D(a_1)D(a_3) \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ -\sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Of course,

$$\begin{aligned}
 D(e) &= [D(a_3)]^2 \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

# Addition of integers:

The integers form an infinite group  $\mathbb{Z}$  under addition:

$$x \circ y := x + y$$

## Checking:

- 1 If  $x$  and  $y$  are integers,  $x + y$  is also an integer.
- 2 For three integers  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$ ,  $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$ .
- 3 Identity element exists,  $e = 0$ .
- 4 Inverse elements exist,  $x^{-1} = -x$ .

## Multiplication table:

Since this group is infinite, the explicit *multiplication table* for it is impossible.

The additive group  $\mathbb{Z}$  has a representation as follows:

$$D(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}$$

**Checking:**

$$D(e) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & e \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D(x)D(y) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & y \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x+y \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = D(x+y)$$

This representation is reducible but it is not completely reducible.

# Reducibility:

Construct the projection operator  $P$  for subspace spanned by the base vectors  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ ,

$$P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad P_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Because

$$D(x)P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = P_1$$

this representation is reducible.

However,

$$D(x)P_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \neq P_2$$

Therefore, it is not completely reducible.

### Theorem 1:

Every representation of a finite group is equivalent to a unitary representation.

**Proof:**

Suppose  $D(G)$  is a representation of a finite group  $G = \{g\}$ , from which we can construct a hermitian matrix  $S$ ,

$$S = \sum_{g \in G} [D(g)]^\dagger D(g)$$

Consider the eigenvalue equation of this hermitian matrix,

$$S|\lambda_n\rangle = \lambda_n|\lambda_n\rangle, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Hence,

$$\lambda_n = \langle \lambda_n | S | \lambda_n \rangle = \langle \lambda_n | \sum_{g \in G} [D(g)]^\dagger D(g) | \lambda_n \rangle = \sum_{g \in G} \|D(g) | \lambda_n \rangle\|^2$$



**Proof (continued):**

i.e.,

$$\lambda_n = \|D(e) |\lambda_n\rangle\|^2 + \dots \geq \|D(e) |\lambda_n\rangle\|^2 = \| |\lambda_n\rangle \|^2 > 0$$

All of the eigenvalues of the hermitian matrix  $S$  are not only *real* but also *positive*.

As is well known, a hermitian matrix can be diagonalized via a unitary transformation,

$$S = U^\dagger \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} U$$

Relying on the fact that  $\lambda_n > 0$ , the square root of  $S$  is also a hermitian matrix

$$X = \sqrt{S} = U^\dagger \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda_1} & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & \sqrt{\lambda_2} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} U$$

**Proof (continued):**

This hermitian matrix is invertible,

$$X^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{S}} = U^\dagger \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_1}} & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_2}} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} U$$

Construct a similarity transformation with this invertible  $X$ , we have:

$$D'(g) = X D(g) X^{-1}, \quad \forall g \in G$$

The new representation  $D'(G)$  is equivalent to the old representation  $D(G)$ . Moreover, *it is unitary*.

Proof (continued):

$$\begin{aligned}[D'(g)]^\dagger D'(g) &= [XD(g)X^{-1}]^\dagger XD(g)X^{-1} \\&= (X^{-1})^\dagger [D(g)]^\dagger X^\dagger XD(g)X^{-1} \\&= X^{-1} [D(g)]^\dagger X^2 D(g) X^{-1} \\&= X^{-1} [D(g)]^\dagger S D(g) X^{-1} \\&= X^{-1} [D(g)]^\dagger \left\{ \sum_{h \in G} [D(h)]^\dagger D(h) \right\} D(g) X^{-1} \\&= X^{-1} \left\{ \sum_{h \in G} [D(hg)]^\dagger D(hg) \right\} X^{-1} \\&= X^{-1} S X^{-1} = 1\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 2:**

Every representation of a finite group is completely reducible.

### Proof:

- It is sufficient to consider unitary representations.
- If the representation is irreducible, the required proof is achieved because it is already in block diagonal form.
- If the representation  $D(G) = \{D(g)\}$  is reducible, there exists a projection operator  $P_1$  such that

$$(1 - P_1)D(g)P_1 = 0, \quad \forall g \in G$$

Taking its hermitian conjugation gives,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= P_1 [D(g)]^\dagger (1 - P_1) = P_1 [D(g)]^{-1} (1 - P_1) \\ &= P_1 D(g^{-1})(1 - P_1), \quad \forall g \in G \end{aligned}$$

**Proof (continued):**

- Equivalently,

$$P_1 D(g)(1 - P_1) = 0, \quad \forall g \in G$$

This equation demonstrates that the subspace of the complementary projection operator  $P_2 = (1 - P_1)$  is also invariant under  $D(G)$ :

$$(1 - P_2)D(g)P_2 = 0, \quad \forall g \in G$$

- By induction, we eventually completely reduce the representation  $D(G)$ .

# Subgroups:

## Subgroup :

A group  $H$  whose elements are all elements of a group  $G$  is called a **subgroup** of  $G$ .

## Examples :

- ① The identity  $e$ . (trivial)
- ② The group  $G$  itself. (trivial)
- ⑤  $S_3 = \{e, a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5\}$  has the following **nontrivial** subgroups:

$$G_1 = \{e, a_1, a_2\}$$

$$G_2 = \{e, a_3\}$$

$$G_3 = \{e, a_4\}$$

$$G_4 = \{e, a_5\}$$

## Right Coset of subgroup $H$ :

The **right coset** of subgroup  $H$  in  $G$  is the set of elements of the form  $Hg$  for some *fixed* element  $g \in G$ .

## Examples:

The cosets of subgroup  $Z_3 = \{e, a_1, a_2\}$  of the permutation group  $S_3$  consist of the following elements,

$$Z_3 a_1 = \{e, a_1, a_2\} a_1 = \{a_1, a_2, e\} = Z_3$$

$$Z_3 a_4 = \{e, a_1, a_2\} a_4 = \{a_4, a_3, a_5\}$$

## Properties:

- The number of elements in each coset is the order of subgroup  $H$ .
- Every element of  $G$  must belong to one and only one coset.
- For a finite group  $G$ , the order of its subgroup  $H$  must be a factor of the order of  $G$ .

## Coset space $G/H$ :

It is the linear space in which each coset of subgroup  $H$  is taken as a single element.

## Normal Subgroup:

A subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  is called an **invariant** or **normal** subgroup if for every  $g \in G$ ,

$$gH = Hg$$

- The trivial subgroups  $e$  and  $G$  are normal for any group  $G$ .
- If  $H$  is normal,  $gH = Hg$ , the coset space  $G/H$  forms a group under the same multiplication law in  $G$ :

$$(Hg_1)(Hg_2) = H(g_1H)g_2 = H(Hg_1)g_2 = H(g_1g_2) \in G/H$$

In this case, the coset space  $G/H$  is called **Factor group** of  $G$  by  $H$ .



## Normal subgroup of $S_3$ :

- 1 Among the nontrivial subgroups of  $S_3$ , only is  $Z_3$  the normal subgroup:

$$eZ_3 = e\{e, a_1, a_2\} = \{e, a_1, a_2\} = \{e, a_1, a_2\}e = Z_3e$$

$$a_1Z_3 = a_1\{e, a_1, a_2\} = \{a_1, a_2, e\} = \{e, a_1, a_2\}a_1 = Z_3a_1$$

$$a_2Z_3 = a_2\{e, a_1, a_2\} = \{a_2, e, a_1\} = \{e, a_1, a_2\}a_2 = Z_3a_2$$

$$a_3Z_3 = a_3\{e, a_1, a_2\} = \{a_3, a_4, a_5\} = \{e, a_2, a_1\}a_3 = Z_3a_3$$

$$a_4Z_3 = a_4\{e, a_1, a_2\} = \{a_4, a_5, a_3\} = \{e, a_2, a_1\}a_4 = Z_3a_4$$

$$a_5Z_3 = a_5\{e, a_1, a_2\} = \{a_5, a_3, a_4\} = \{e, a_2, a_1\}a_5 = Z_3a_5$$

- 2 The other subgroups of  $S_3$  are not normal subgroups. e.g.,

$$a_5\{e, a_4\} = \{a_5, a_2\} \neq \{a_5, a_1\} = \{e, a_4\}a_5$$

- 3 The factor group  $S_3/Z_3$  is,

$$S_3/Z_3 = Z_2 \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad Z_2 \text{ is parity group.}$$

### Center of a group:

The **center** of a group  $G$  is the set of all elements of  $G$  that commute with all elements of  $G$ .

#### Discussions:

- ① The center is always an Abelian, normal subgroup of  $G$ .
- ② It may be trivial, consisting only of the identity, or of the whole group  $G$ .

# Homework:

- ① There is a simple  $n$ -dimensional representation  $D$  of  $S_n$  called the **defining representation**, where the objects being permuted are just the basis vectors of an  $n$ -dimensional vector space:

$$|1\rangle, |2\rangle, \dots, |n\rangle$$

The representation  $D$  is defined as  $D[(\xi_j \xi_k)] |j\rangle = |k\rangle$ . Show that this representation is reducible.