

现代数学物理方法

第二章, 群论基础

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Projection Operator:

- Characters can be used to decompose an reducible representation into its irreducible ingredients. The key bridge to this end is the **Projection Operator** of an irreducible component representation.

Let $D(G)$ be an arbitrary representation of finite group $G = \{g\}$ (of order N) that contains an n_a -dimensional irreducible representation $D_a(G)$ with characters $\{\chi_a(g)\}$. Then

$$P_a = \frac{n_a}{N} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{D_a}^*(g) D(g)$$

is the projection operator onto the subspace of $D_a(G)$.

The matrix elements of P_a in a given representation space of $D(G)$ read

$$[P_a]_{ij} = \frac{n_a}{N} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{D_a}^*(g) [D(g)]_{ij}$$

Explanation:

Recall that every representation of a finite group is equivalently unitary and completely reducible,

$$D(g) = \bigoplus_{a=1}^s c_a D_a(g), \quad \forall g \in G$$

we see,

$$[P_a]_{ij} = \frac{n_a}{N} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{D_a}^*(g) [D(g)]_{ij} = \frac{n_a}{N} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{D_a}^*(g) [\bigoplus_{b=1}^s c_b D_b(g)]_{ij}$$

Recall the orthogonality relations between irreducible representations:

$$\frac{n_a}{N} \sum_{g \in G} [D_a(g)]_{jk}^* [D_b(g)]_{lm} = \delta_{ab} \delta_{jl} \delta_{km}$$

We have

$$\frac{n_a}{N} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{D_a}^*(g) [D_b(g)]_{lm} = \delta_{ab} \delta_{lm}$$

Hence, P_a gives 1 on the subspaces that transform like $D_a(G)$ and 0 on all the other subspaces.

An example:

Question:

Here is a 3-dimensional representation of S_3 ,

$$D(e) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad D(a_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad D(a_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D(a_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad D(a_4) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad D(a_5) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- 1 Is it irreducible ?
- 2 Is it the regular representation of S_3 ?
- 3 Evaluate the projection operators of the irreducible representations of S_3 in this 3-dimensional reducible representation.

Solution:

- ❶ No. It is not an irreducible because its dimension is $n = 3$, violating the required relation $\sum_a n_a^2 = 6$.
- ❷ No. The regular representation of S_3 should be 6-dimensional.
- ❸ The **projection operators** of 3 irreducible representations of S_3 are evaluated from $P_a = \frac{n_a}{N} \sum_{g \in G} \chi_{D_a}^*(g) D(g)$. The results are as follows:

$$P_0 = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{g \in S_3} D(g) = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$P_1 = \frac{1}{6} \left[D(e) + \sum_{j=1}^2 D(a_j) - \sum_{j=3}^5 D(a_j) \right] = 0$$
$$P_2 = \frac{2}{6} \left[2D(e) - \sum_{j=1}^2 D(a_j) \right] = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Simple calculations lead to $(P_j)^2 = P_j = (P_j)^\dagger$ for $j = 0, 1, 2$. Hence, $D = D_0 \oplus D_2$.

QM Background:

In QM, we are interested in the eigenstates of an invariant hermitian operator, in particular the invariant hamiltonian under group G ,

$$[D(g), H] = 0$$

where

$$H |n\rangle = \lambda_n |n\rangle, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Theorem:

- 1 If H commutes with all the elements $\{D(g)\}$ of a representation of group G , then you can choose the eigenstates of H to transform according to irreducible representations of G .
- 2 If an irreducible representation appears only once in the Hilbert space, every state in the irreducible representation is an eigenstate of H with the same eigenvalue.

Proof:

- Due to the assumption that $[D(g), H] = 0$, the transformations in the representation $D(G)$ do not change the eigenvalues of operator H ,

$$\begin{aligned}H |n\rangle &= \lambda_n |n\rangle, \\H [D(g) |n\rangle] &= D(g)H |n\rangle = \lambda_n [D(g) |n\rangle]\end{aligned}$$

- If G is finite, $D(G)$ can be decomposed into a direct sum of some irreducible representations $D_i(G)$:

$$D(G) = \oplus_i D_i(G)$$

Thus we can divide up the Hilbert space into some subspaces:

- ① The i -th subspace is labelled by the eigenvalue λ_i of H .
- ② The i -th subspace furnishes an irreducible representation $D_i(G)$ of group G .

- Eigenvectors $\{|i, \alpha\rangle; \alpha = 1, 2, \dots, n_i\}$ of H belonging to λ_i

$$H |i, \alpha\rangle = \lambda_i |i, \alpha\rangle$$

can be chosen in terms of the irreducible representation $D_i(G)$:

$$g : D_i(g) |i, \alpha\rangle = |i, \beta\rangle, \quad \forall g \in G$$

where $\alpha, \beta = 1, 2, \dots, n_i$ and $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$.

- Consider an arbitrary vector in the whole Hilbert space,

$$|a, j, x\rangle, \quad 1 \leq j \leq n_a,$$

where x stands for the times the $D_i(G)$ appearing in Hilbert space. Then,

$$H |a, j, x\rangle = \sum_y c_y |a, j, y\rangle$$

If x and y take only one value, $|a, j, x\rangle$ becomes an eigenvector of H .

Tensor product representation:

Question:

How to put known representations together to form a new representation (with higher dimensions) ?

Suppose that D_1 is an m -dimensional representation acting on a space with basis vectors

$$|i\rangle, \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, m)$$

D_2 is an n -dimensional representation acting on a space with basis vectors

$$|\alpha\rangle, \quad (\alpha = 1, 2, \dots, n)$$

We can make an mn -dimensional representation space, called the **tensor product space**, by defining its basis vectors as,

$$|i, \alpha\rangle = |i\rangle \otimes |\alpha\rangle, \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, m; \alpha = 1, 2, \dots, n)$$

In this space we define the so-called **tensor product representation** $D_{1 \times 2} = D_1 \otimes D_2$,

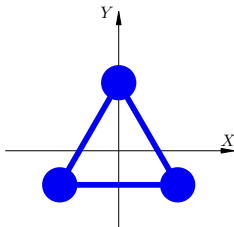
$$\langle i, \alpha | D_{1 \times 2}(g) | j, \beta \rangle \equiv \langle i | D_1(g) | j \rangle \cdot \langle \alpha | D_2(g) | \beta \rangle$$

Remarks:

- 1 The tensor product representation is indeed a representation of group G [Homework (optional)].
- 2 In general, the tensor product representation is not an irreducible representation.
- 3 One of our favorite pastimes is to decompose a reducible tensor representation into the direct sum of irreducible representations of the group G .

Example:

Three blocks are connected by springs in a triangle. The system is supposed to be free to slide on a frictionless surface.

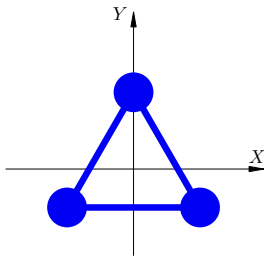


Properties of the model:

- The system has an S_3 symmetry.
- The system has 6 degrees of freedom, described by the x and y coordinates of the 3 blocks:

$$|\vec{r}\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \\ x_2 \\ y_2 \\ x_3 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} \\ r_{12} \\ r_{21} \\ r_{22} \\ r_{31} \\ r_{32} \end{bmatrix} = |r_{i\alpha}\rangle$$

where i labels coordinate x or y , and α labels the blocks.



- This 6-dimensional configuration space can be viewed as a **tensor product space** of a 3-dimensional space of the blocks

$$|\xi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \xi_1 \\ \xi_2 \\ \xi_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and a 2-dimensional space of coordinates x and y ,

$$|\zeta\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \zeta_1 \\ \zeta_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

That is:

$$|r_{i\alpha}\rangle = |\xi\rangle \otimes |\zeta\rangle$$

Namely,

$$r_{i\alpha} = \xi_i \zeta_\alpha, \quad (i = 1, 2, 3; \alpha = 1, 2.)$$

- Suppose that the representations of S_3 on 3-dimensional space $\{|\xi\rangle\}$ and 2-dimensional space $\{|\zeta\rangle\}$ could *respectively* be given by the previous D_3 ,

$$D_3(e) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad D_3(a_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D_3(a_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad D_3(a_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D_3(a_4) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad D_3(a_5) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and D_2 ,

$$D_2(e) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad D_2(a_1) = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D_2(a_2) = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \\ -\sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \quad D_2(a_3) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D_2(a_4) = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & \sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \quad D_2(a_5) = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ -\sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

we have a 6-dimensional representation $D_6(S_3)$ whose elements read,

$$[D_6(S_3)]_{i\alpha j\beta} = [D_3(S_3)]_{ij} \cdot [D_2(S_3)]_{\alpha\beta}$$

The characters of $D_6(S_3)$ are:

$$\begin{aligned} \chi_6(S_3) &= \sum_{i\alpha} [D_6(S_3)]_{i\alpha i\alpha} = \left\{ \sum_i [D_3(S_3)]_{ii} \right\} \cdot \left\{ \sum_{\alpha} [D_2(S_3)]_{\alpha\alpha} \right\} \\ &= \chi_3(S_3) \chi_2(S_3) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem:

The characters of a tensor product representation are the products of the characters of the factor representations,

$$\chi_{D_1 \times D_2} = \chi_{D_1} \chi_{D_2}$$

The characters of $D_6(S_3)$ are then given by,

	$\{e\}$	$\{a_1, a_2\}$	$\{a_3, a_4, a_5\}$
χ_3	3	0	1
χ_2	2	-1	0
χ_6	6	0	0

$D_6(S_3)$ has the same characters as the regular representation $D_{\text{reg}}(S_3)$.
Consequently,

- 1. $D_6(S_3)$ and $D_{\text{reg}}(S_3)$ are equivalent to each other (because the similarity transformations do not change the characters).
- 2. $D_6(S_3)$ contains D_0 and D_1 once but D_2 twice.

For completeness, we write down explicitly an element of $D_6(\mathcal{S}_3)$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 D_6(a_1) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 \\ -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1/2 & -\sqrt{3}/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3}/2 & -1/2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

Permutation group S_n :

- Any element of the permutation group S_n on n -objects can be expressed in terms of **cycles**. e.g.,

$$\begin{cases} e = (1)(2) \cdots (n) \\ a_1 = (12)(3)(4) \cdots (n) \\ a_j = (1243)(5)(6)(79)(8) \cdots (n) \end{cases}$$

- Each cycle is written as a set of numbers in parentheses, indicating the set of objects that are cyclically permuted.
- Each element of S_n involves each integer from 1 to n in exactly one cycle.

Illustration:

- (1) means $x_1 \rightarrow x_1$.
- (1372) means $x_1 \rightarrow x_3 \rightarrow x_7 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow x_1$.

j -cycle:

Definition of j -cycle in S_n :

In S_n , a j -cycle is defined as

$$(\xi_1 \xi_2 \xi_3 \cdots \xi_j), \quad 1 \leq j \leq n.$$

If an element of S_n has k_j j -cycles, then

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j k_j = n$$

An Example in S_9 :

$$(123)(456)(78)(9) \rightsquigarrow \begin{cases} k_1 = k_2 = 1 \\ k_3 = 2 \\ k_4 = k_5 = \cdots = k_9 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Interchange:

An interchange is a 2-cycle, the permutation between two objects,

$$(\xi_i \xi_j), \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n, \quad (i \neq j)$$

Remarks:

- Except the trivial 1-cycle, each group element in S_n can be written out in terms of the **ordered** product of interchanges. *e.g.* in S_9 ,

$$(123)(456)(78)(9) = (12)(23)(45)(56)(78)(9)$$

- The inner automorphism built from “interchanges” does not change the *cycle structure* $\{k_1 k_2 \cdots k_n\}$ of any element in S_n .

$$\begin{aligned}
& (\xi_j \xi_i) (\cdots \xi_1 \xi_i \xi_2 \cdots) (\cdots \xi_3 \xi_j \xi_4 \cdots) (\xi_i \xi_j) \\
& \quad = (\cdots \xi_1 \xi_j \xi_2 \cdots) (\cdots \xi_3 \xi_i \xi_4 \cdots) \\
& (\xi_j \xi_i) (\cdots \xi_1 \xi_i \xi_2 \cdots \xi_3 \xi_j \xi_4 \cdots) (\xi_i \xi_j) \\
& \quad = (\cdots \xi_1 \xi_j \xi_2 \cdots \xi_3 \xi_i \xi_4 \cdots)
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the inner automorphism gg_1g^{-1} built from an arbitrary permutation $g \in S_n$ does not change the cycle structure of element $g_1 \in S_n$.

Examples in S_4 :

- ❶ $(12) \cdot (1234) \cdot (12) = (1342)$
- ❷ $(12) \cdot (23) \cdot (12) = (13)$
- ❸ $(12) \cdot (13)(24) \cdot (12) = (14)(23)$

Conjugacy classes in S_n :

- ① In S_n , the conjugacy classes consist of all possible permutations with a particular cycle structure.
- ② The conjugacy classes can be labeled by the set of integers $\{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n\}$, where k_i is the number of i -cycle but i the *length* of i -cycle¹.
- ③ The number of group elements in each conjugacy class $\{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n\}$ of S_n is,

$$\# = \frac{n!}{\prod_{j=1}^n j^{k_j} (k_j)!}$$

¹For example, the group elements (1)(234), (2)(341), (3)(412) and (4)(123) in S_4 are in the same conjugacy class.

Proof:

Each permutation of objects (from 1 to n) gives a permutation in the class, the total number is $n!$. Hence, the number of group elements in class $\{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n\}$ should be proportional to $n!$,

$$\# \propto n!$$

But cyclic order doesn't matter within a cycle, e.g., (1234) is the same as (2341), (3412) and (4123),

$$\# \propto \frac{n!}{\prod_{j=1}^n j^{k_j}}$$

Furthermore, the order does not matter also at all between cycles of the same length, e.g., (12)(34) is the same as (34)(12),

$$\rightsquigarrow \# = \frac{n!}{\prod_{j=1}^n j^{k_j}} \cdot \frac{1}{\prod_{j=1}^n (k_j)!} = \frac{n!}{\prod_{j=1}^n j^{k_j} (k_j)!}$$

Example: S_3

In S_3 , there are totally 3 conjugacy classes²:

$$C_1 = \{e\}, \quad C_2 = \{(12), (23), (31)\}, \quad C_3 = \{(123), (321)\}$$

The number of group elements in each class is calculated as,

$$\#C_1 = \frac{3!}{(1^3 \cdot 3!)(2^0 \cdot 0!)(3^0 \cdot 0!)} = 1$$

$$\#C_2 = \frac{3!}{(1^1 \cdot 1!)(2^1 \cdot 1!)(3^0 \cdot 0!)} = 3$$

$$\#C_3 = \frac{3!}{(1^0 \cdot 0!)(2^0 \cdot 0!)(3^1 \cdot 1!)} = 2$$

²In S_3 , $e = (1)(2)(3)$ and the group element (12) stands for $(12)(3)$, and so on.

Example: S_4

There are totally 5 conjugacy classes in S_4 ,

$$\mathcal{C}_1 = \{e\}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_2 = \{(12), (13), (14), (23), (24), (34)\}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_3 = \{(123), (124), (134), (234), (321), (421), (431), (432)\}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_4 = \{(12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)\}$$

$$\mathcal{C}_5 = \{(1234), (1243), (1324), (1342), (1423), (1432)\}$$

The number of group elements in each class is calculated as follows:

$$\#\mathcal{C}_1 = \frac{4!}{(1^4 \cdot 4!)(2^0 \cdot 0!)(3^0 \cdot 0!)(4^0 \cdot 0!)} = 1$$

$$\#\mathcal{C}_2 = \frac{4!}{(1^2 \cdot 2!)(2^1 \cdot 1!)(3^0 \cdot 0!)(4^0 \cdot 0!)} = 6$$

$$\#\mathcal{C}_3 = \frac{4!}{(1^1 \cdot 1!)(2^0 \cdot 0!)(3^1 \cdot 1!)(4^0 \cdot 0!)} = 8$$

Homework:

$$\#C_4 = \frac{4!}{(1^0 \cdot 0!)(2^2 \cdot 2!)(3^0 \cdot 0!)(4^0 \cdot 0!)} = 3$$

$$\#C_5 = \frac{4!}{(1^0 \cdot 0!)(2^0 \cdot 0!)(3^0 \cdot 0!)(4^1 \cdot 1!)} = 6$$

Problems:

- ① How many conjugacy classes are there in symmetric group S_6 ?
How many group elements are there in each of these classes ?