

Lecture 20 (Nov. 20, 2017)

20.1 Matrix Elements of Angular Momentum Operators

Assume that we have normalized $|j, m\rangle$. By definition, since these are eigenstates of \mathbf{J}^2 and J_z , these operators are diagonal, with

$$\begin{aligned}\langle j', m' | \mathbf{J}^2 | j, m \rangle &= j(j+1)\hbar^2 \delta_{jj'} \delta_{mm'}, \\ \langle j', m' | J_z | j, m \rangle &= m\hbar \delta_{jj'} \delta_{mm'}.\end{aligned}\quad (20.1)$$

Now we only need to compute the matrix elements of J_x and J_y . We will make use of the identity

$$\langle j, m | J_+ J_- | j, m \rangle = \langle j, m | \mathbf{J}^2 - J_z^2 - \hbar J_z | j, m \rangle = \hbar^2(j(j+1) - m^2 - m). \quad (20.2)$$

We also know that

$$J_+ | j, m \rangle = c_{j,m}^{(+)} | j, m+1 \rangle. \quad (20.3)$$

We still need to determine the coefficient $c_{j,m}^{(+)}$. Using (20.2) and $J_- = J_+^\dagger$, we see that

$$\left| c_{j,m}^{(+)} \right|^2 = \hbar^2(j(j+1) - m(m+1)) = \hbar^2(j-m)(j+m+1). \quad (20.4)$$

We will choose (by convention) for $c_{j,m}^{(+)}$ to be real and positive, which then gives us

$$J_+ | j, m \rangle = \hbar \sqrt{(j-m)(j+m+1)} | j, m+1 \rangle. \quad (20.5)$$

A similar argument gives us

$$J_- | j, m \rangle = \hbar \sqrt{(j+m)(j-m+1)} | j, m-1 \rangle. \quad (20.6)$$

Packaging these results together, we have

$$\langle j', m' | J_\pm | j, m \rangle = \hbar \sqrt{(j \mp m)(j \pm m + 1)} \delta_{jj'} \delta_{m', m \pm 1}. \quad (20.7)$$

We see that when $m = +j$, the state is annihilated by J_+ , and when $m = -j$, the state is annihilated by J_- , exactly as required.

We can now easily calculate the matrix elements of J_x and J_y , as they are linear combinations of J_\pm . This allows us to explicitly write matrix representations of \mathbf{J} for fixed j . As an example, consider $j = 1$. In this case,

$$J_z = \hbar \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (20.8)$$

where the basis is ordered as $m = +1, 0, -1$. Using the matrix elements for J_\pm , we can write down

$$\begin{aligned}J_x &= \frac{J_+ + J_-}{2} = \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ \sqrt{2} & 0 & \sqrt{2} \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \\ J_y &= \frac{J_x - J_y}{2i} = \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -\sqrt{2}i & 0 \\ \sqrt{2}i & 0 & -\sqrt{2}i \\ 0 & \sqrt{2}i & 0 \end{pmatrix}.\end{aligned}\quad (20.9)$$

For any fixed j , we can now also construct matrix elements of the finite rotation operator $\mathcal{D}(R)$. For a fixed j , the angular momentum operators are $(2j+1) \times (2j+1)$ Hermitian matrices, and so the rotation matrix $\mathcal{D}(R)$ will be $(2j+1) \times (2j+1)$ unitary matrices. Consider a rotation by angle θ about the axis $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$. First, we construct an infinitesimal rotation by $\delta\theta$ about the axis $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$:

$$\mathcal{D}(R_{\delta\theta}) = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar}(\mathbf{J} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}})\delta\theta + O(\delta\theta^2). \quad (20.10)$$

We can then build up a finite rotation by multiplying infinitesimal rotations N times and taking $N \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}(R(\theta, \hat{\mathbf{n}})) &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (\mathcal{D}(\theta/N, \hat{\mathbf{n}}))^N \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{i}{\hbar}(\mathbf{J} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}})\frac{\theta}{N} + O((\theta/N)^2) \right)^N \\ &= e^{-i\theta\mathbf{J} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}/\hbar}. \end{aligned} \quad (20.11)$$

20.2 Rotation Groups

In general, symmetry operations form a mathematical structure called a *group*.

Definition 1. A set $\{g_i\} := G$ forms a group if there exists a multiplication operation \cdot such that:

- for all $g_1, g_2 \in G$, $g_1 \cdot g_2 \in G$;
- multiplication is associative: for all $g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G$,

$$(g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3 = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3); \quad (20.12)$$

- there exists $1 \in G$ such that

$$1 \cdot g = g \cdot 1 = g; \quad (20.13)$$

- for every $g \in G$, there exists $g^{-1} \in G$ such that

$$g \cdot g^{-1} = g^{-1} \cdot g = 1. \quad (20.14)$$

For example, the set of 3×3 orthogonal matrices forms a group under the operation of matrix multiplication. This group is known as the *orthogonal group* $O(3)$. If we restrict our attention to rotations with $\det R = +1$, then we get a subgroup (a subset that is itself also a group under matrix multiplication) called the *special orthogonal group* $SO(3)$.

There is another pertinent group to the discussion of rotations, which is the group of 2×2 unitary matrices satisfying $\det U = 1$. Any matrix of this kind can be written in the form

$$U(a, b) = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ -b^* & a^* \end{pmatrix}, \quad (20.15)$$

with $|a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$. Such matrices form a group under matrix multiplication, known as the *special unitary group* $SU(2)$.

In quantum mechanics, rotations are represented by unitary operators $\mathcal{D}(R)$. These unitary operators must themselves form a group, because the product of two of these operators must give another, the composition is associative, there is an identity operation, and $\mathcal{D}(R^{-1})$ is the inverse of $\mathcal{D}(R)$. In particular, we can see that the $\mathcal{D}(R)$ must satisfy the same group identities as the group of rotations R .

The matrix elements of $\mathcal{D}(R)$ are

$$\mathcal{D}_{m',m}^{(j)}(R) = \langle j, m' | e^{-i\theta \mathbf{J} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} / \hbar} | j, m \rangle. \quad (20.16)$$

Note that we have chosen the same j for both the bra and ket; this is because $\mathcal{D}(R)$ commutes with \mathbf{J}^2 , so a rotation cannot change the value of \mathbf{J}^2 . As a result, in the full ket space, the (infinite-dimensional) matrix for $\mathcal{D}(R)$ is block diagonal in the (j, m) basis, where each block corresponds to one value of j . The block corresponding to j will be a $(2j + 1) \times (2j + 1)$ submatrix.

An explicit set of matrices that satisfies the same group identities as a group is called a (*linear*) *group representation*. Thus, the $\mathcal{D}(R)$ form a representation of $\text{SO}(3)$. In particular, this representation is called a *completely reducible* representation, because it can be written in block diagonal form. Each block on the diagonal of $\mathcal{D}(R)$, taken as a standalone matrix $\mathcal{D}_{m',m}^{(j)}$ for fixed j , is an *irreducible* representation (sometimes referred to as an *irrep*), as it has no invariant subspaces.

Consider $j = 1/2$. In this case, m and m' take on the values $\pm \frac{1}{2}$. The rotation operator matrix elements are

$$\mathcal{D}_{m',m}^{(1/2)}(\theta, \hat{\mathbf{n}}) = \langle m' | e^{-i\theta \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} / 2} | m \rangle. \quad (20.17)$$

That is, the rotation operators are

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}^{(1/2)}(\theta, \hat{\mathbf{n}}) &= e^{-i\theta \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} / 2} \\ &= \cos \frac{\theta}{2} - i(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}) \sin \frac{\theta}{2}. \end{aligned} \quad (20.18)$$

Explicitly,

$$\mathcal{D}^{(1/2)}(\theta, \hat{\mathbf{n}}) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} - in_z \sin \frac{\theta}{2} & (-in_x - n_y) \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \\ (-in_x + n_y) \sin \frac{\theta}{2} & \cos \frac{\theta}{2} + in_z \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (20.19)$$

This may seem unusual, because this is an $\text{SU}(2)$ matrix. The operators $\mathcal{D}^{(1/2)}(\theta, \hat{\mathbf{n}})$ form a representation of $\text{SU}(2)$, even though we originally set out to find a representation of $\text{SO}(3)$.

Rotations of 3D space can be characterized either by an $\text{SO}(3)$ matrix R (a three-dimensional irrep) or by an $\text{SU}(2)$ matrix U (a two-dimensional irrep). But $\text{SO}(3)$ and $\text{SU}(2)$ are not in one-to-one correspondence. Suppose we consider a rotation by $\theta = 2\pi$ along some axis $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$. For $\text{SO}(3)$,

$$R(2\pi, \hat{\mathbf{n}}) = \mathbb{1}_3, \quad (20.20)$$

while for $\text{SU}(2)$,

$$\mathcal{D}^{(1/2)}(2\pi, \hat{\mathbf{n}}) = e^{-i\pi \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}} = -\mathbb{1}_2. \quad (20.21)$$

The result is that for any spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ system, the phase of the wavefunction is rotated by π under a physical 2π rotation.

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