

## PHY1520H Graduate Quantum Mechanics. Lecture 11: Symmetries in QM. Taught by Prof. Arun Paramekanti

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*Disclaimer* Peeter's lecture notes from class. These may be incoherent and rough.

These are notes for the UofT course PHY1520, Graduate Quantum Mechanics, taught by Prof. Paramekanti, covering ch. 4 [1] content.

*Symmetry in classical mechanics* In a classical context considering a Hamiltonian

$$H(q_i, p_i), \tag{1.1}$$

a symmetry means that certain  $q_i$  don't appear. In that case the rate of change of one of the generalized momenta is zero

$$\frac{dp_k}{dt} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_k} = 0, \tag{1.2}$$

so  $p_k$  is a constant of motion. This simplifies the problem by reducing the number of degrees of freedom. Another aspect of such a symmetry is that it relates trajectories. For example, assuming a rotational symmetry as in fig. 1.1.

the trajectory of a particle after rotation is related by rotation to the trajectory of the unrotated particle.

*Symmetry in quantum mechanics* Suppose that we have a symmetry operation that takes states from

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow |U\psi\rangle \tag{1.3}$$

$$|\phi\rangle \rightarrow |U\phi\rangle, \tag{1.4}$$

we expect that

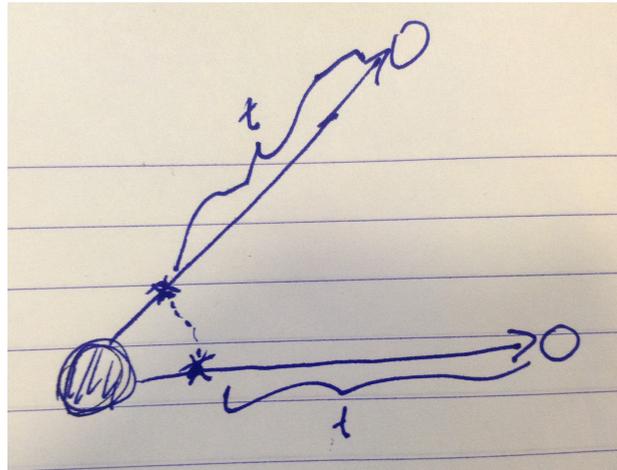
$$|\langle\psi|\phi\rangle|^2 = |\langle U\psi|U\phi\rangle|^2. \tag{1.5}$$

This won't hold true for a general operator. Two cases where this does hold true is when

- $\langle\psi|\phi\rangle = \langle U\psi|U\phi\rangle$ . Here  $U$  is unitary, and the equivalence follows from

$$\langle U\psi|U\phi\rangle = \langle\psi|U^\dagger U\phi\rangle = \langle\psi|1\phi\rangle = \langle\psi|\phi\rangle. \tag{1.6}$$

- $\langle\psi|\phi\rangle = \langle U\psi|U\phi\rangle^*$ . Here  $U$  is anti-unitary.



**Figure 1.1:** Trajectory under rotational symmetry

*Unitary case* If an “observable” is not changed by a unitary operation representing a symmetry we must have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi \rangle &\rightarrow \langle U\psi | \hat{A} | U\psi \rangle \\ &= \langle \psi | U^\dagger \hat{A} U | \psi \rangle, \end{aligned} \quad (1.7)$$

so

$$U^\dagger \hat{A} U = \hat{A}, \quad (1.8)$$

or

$$\boxed{\hat{A} U = U \hat{A}.} \quad (1.9)$$

An observable that is unchanged by a unitary symmetry commutes  $[\hat{A}, U]$  with the operator  $U$  for that transformation.

*Symmetries of the Hamiltonian* Given

$$[H, U] = 0, \quad (1.10)$$

$H$  is invariant.

Given

$$H |\phi_n\rangle = \epsilon_n |\phi_n\rangle. \quad (1.11)$$

$$\begin{aligned} UH |\phi_n\rangle &= HU |\phi_n\rangle \\ &= \epsilon_n U |\phi_n\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (1.12)$$

Such a state

$$|\psi_n\rangle = U |\phi_n\rangle \quad (1.13)$$

is also an eigenstate with the same energy.

Suppose this process is repeated, finding other states

$$U |\psi_n\rangle = |\chi_n\rangle \tag{1.14}$$

$$U |\chi_n\rangle = |\alpha_n\rangle \tag{1.15}$$

Because such a transformation only generates states with the initial energy, this process cannot continue forever. At some point this process will enumerate a fixed size set of states. These states can be orthonormalized.

We can say that symmetry operations are generators of a group. For a set of symmetry operations we can

- Form products that lie in a closed set

$$U_1 U_2 = U_3 \tag{1.16}$$

- can define an inverse

$$U \leftrightarrow U^{-1}. \tag{1.17}$$

- obeys associative rules for multiplication

$$U_1(U_2 U_3) = (U_1 U_2)U_3. \tag{1.18}$$

- has an identity operation.

When  $H$  has a symmetry, then degenerate eigenstates form irreducible representations (which cannot be further block diagonalized).

*Some simple examples*

**Example 1.1: Inversion.**

Given a state and a parity operation  $\hat{\Pi}$ , with the transformation

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow \hat{\Pi} |\psi\rangle \tag{1.19}$$

In one dimension, the parity operation is just inversion. In two dimensions, this is a set of flipping operations on two axes fig. 1.2.



**Figure 1.2: 2D parity operation**

The operational effects of this operator are

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{x} &\rightarrow -\hat{x} \\ \hat{p} &\rightarrow -\hat{p}.\end{aligned}\tag{1.20}$$

Acting again with the parity operator produces the original value, so it is its own inverse, and  $\hat{\Pi}^\dagger = \hat{\Pi} = \hat{\Pi}^{-1}$ . In an expectation value

$$\langle \hat{\Pi}\psi | \hat{x} | \hat{\Pi}\psi \rangle = -\langle \psi | \hat{x} | \psi \rangle.\tag{1.21}$$

This means that

$$\hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{x} \hat{\Pi} = -\hat{x},\tag{1.22}$$

or

$$\hat{x} \hat{\Pi} = -\hat{\Pi} \hat{x},\tag{1.23}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{x} \hat{\Pi} |x_0\rangle &= -\hat{\Pi} \hat{x} |x_0\rangle \\ &= -\hat{\Pi} x_0 |x_0\rangle \\ &= -x_0 \hat{\Pi} |x_0\rangle\end{aligned}\tag{1.24}$$

so

$$\hat{\Pi} |x_0\rangle = |-x_0\rangle.\tag{1.25}$$

Acting on a wave function

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x | \hat{\Pi} | \psi \rangle &= \langle -x | \psi \rangle \\ &= \psi(-x).\end{aligned}\tag{1.26}$$

What does this mean for eigenfunctions. Eigenfunctions are supposed to form irreducible representations of the group. The group has just two elements

$$\{1, \hat{\Pi}\},\tag{1.27}$$

where  $\hat{\Pi}^2 = 1$ .

Suppose we have a Hamiltonian

$$H = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + V(\hat{x}),\tag{1.28}$$

where  $V(\hat{x})$  is even (  $[V(\hat{x}), \hat{\Pi}] = 0$  ). The squared momentum commutes with the parity operator

$$\begin{aligned}[\hat{p}^2, \hat{\Pi}] &= \hat{p}^2 \hat{\Pi} - \hat{\Pi} \hat{p}^2 \\ &= \hat{p}^2 \hat{\Pi} - (\hat{\Pi} \hat{p}) \hat{p} \\ &= \hat{p}^2 \hat{\Pi} - (-\hat{p} \hat{\Pi}) \hat{p} \\ &= \hat{p}^2 \hat{\Pi} + \hat{p}(-\hat{p} \hat{\Pi}) \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}\tag{1.29}$$

Only two functions are possible in the symmetry set  $\{\Psi(x), \hat{\Pi}\Psi(x)\}$ , since

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\Pi}^2 \Psi(x) &= \hat{\Pi} \Psi(-x) \\ &= \Psi(x).\end{aligned}\tag{1.30}$$

This symmetry severely restricts the possible solutions, making it so there can be only one dimensional forms of this problem with solutions that are either even or odd respectively

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_e(x) &= \psi(x) + \psi(-x) \\ \phi_o(x) &= \psi(x) - \psi(-x).\end{aligned}\tag{1.31}$$

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## Bibliography

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- [1] Jun John Sakurai and Jim J Napolitano. *Modern quantum mechanics*. Pearson Higher Ed, 2014. 1