

## Cartesian Tensors Versus Irreducible Tensor

In classical physics,  $V_i \rightarrow \sum_j R_{ij} V_j$

$$T_{ijk} \dots \rightarrow \sum_{i'j'k' \dots} R_{ii'} R_{jj'} R_{kk'} \dots T_{i'j'k' \dots}$$

rank (of the tensor)  $\equiv$  # of indices

The simplest rank 2 Cartesian tensor is dyadic, formed out of two vectors  $\vec{U}$  and  $\vec{V}$ ,

$$T_{ij} \equiv \underbrace{U_i}_{3 \times 3} \underbrace{V_j}_{3} = 9 \text{ d.o.f.}$$

The trouble is that it is reducible, namely, it can be decomposed into objects that transform differently under rotations.

$$U_i V_j = \underbrace{\frac{\vec{U} \cdot \vec{V}}{3}}_{\text{a scalar}} \delta_{ij} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} [U_i V_j - U_j V_i]}_{\text{a vector}} + \underbrace{\left[ \frac{U_i V_j + U_j V_i}{2} - \frac{\vec{U} \cdot \vec{V}}{3} \delta_{ij} \right]}_{\text{3x3 symmetric matrix + traceless}}$$

$$9 = 1 + 3 + 5 \text{ d.o.f.}$$

$\sim l=0$                        $\sim l=1$                        $\sim l=2$

$|10\rangle, |11\rangle, |1,-1\rangle$                        $|20\rangle, |2\pm 1\rangle, |2\pm 2\rangle$

This is the motivation of introducing irreducible spherical tensors.

m-independence

$|\alpha, j, m\rangle$ : Subspace of angular momentum  $j$   
 $\alpha$ : complementary information

$|\beta, j, m'\rangle$ : Another subspace of another  $\beta$  of the same  $j$

consider the matrix elements:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \beta, j, m-1 | \alpha, j, m-1 \rangle &= \frac{\langle \beta, j, m-1 | J_- | \alpha, j, m \rangle}{\sqrt{j(j+1) - m(m-1)}} \\ &= \frac{(\langle \beta, j, m-1 |, J_- | \alpha, j, m \rangle)}{\sqrt{j(j+1) - m(m-1)}} \overset{\text{Hermitian conjugate of } J_-}{=} \frac{(J_+ | \beta, j, m-1 \rangle, | \alpha, j, m \rangle)}{\sqrt{j(j+1) - (m-1)(m-1+1)}} \\ &\overset{\text{equal}}{=} \frac{( | \beta, j, m \rangle, | \alpha, j, m \rangle )}{\sqrt{j(j+1) - (m-1)(m-1+1)}} = \langle \beta, j, m | \alpha, j, m \rangle \end{aligned}$$

⇒ The matrix element is invariant under equal rotations of both the bra and the ket.

⇒ Both matrix elements behave identically under rotation

⇒ have the same angular momentum.

\* More over, the matrix element is independent of  $m$  because rotations mix values of  $m$ .

⇒ We can denote  $\langle \beta, j, m | \alpha, j, m \rangle = \langle \beta, j || \alpha, j \rangle$   
 $\alpha, \beta$  are additional information to specify the states.

Vector operators

like  $\vec{x}, \vec{p}, \vec{L}$  etc...

transform infinitesimally by

$$e^{i\theta \vec{n} \cdot \vec{J}} \vec{V} e^{-i\theta \vec{n} \cdot \vec{J}} = \vec{V} + \theta \cdot \vec{n} \times \vec{V}$$

$$\Rightarrow i[\vec{n} \cdot \vec{J}, \vec{V}] = \vec{n} \times \vec{V}$$

$$i[\vec{n}_\alpha \cdot \vec{J}_\alpha, \vec{V}_\beta] = \epsilon_{j\alpha\beta} \vec{n}_\alpha \vec{V}_\beta$$

or  $[J_n, V_i] = i \epsilon_{nik} V_k$

It works for  $\vec{V} = \vec{J}$ , just the ordinary angular momentum.

as  $[J_z, J_\pm] = \pm J_\pm$        $J_\pm = J_x \pm i J_y$

and  $[J_+, J_-] = 2J_z$

We also have

$$[J_+, \underbrace{V_x - iV_y}_{\sqrt{2}V_-}] = 2 \overset{V_0}{V_z}, \quad [J_+, V_z] = -V_x - iV_y$$

$$[J_-, V_x + iV_y] = -2V_z, \quad [J_-, V_z] = V_x - iV_y$$

...

define  $V_0 \equiv V_z, \quad V_{+1} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(V_x + iV_y), \quad V_{-1} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(V_x - iV_y)$

then,

$$[J_\pm, V_g] = \sqrt{(g \mp 1)(g \pm 1)} V_{g \pm 1}$$

$$[J_z, V_g] = g V_g$$

$\Rightarrow$  vector operator acts like  $\frac{V}{g}$  spin-1 object.

# Tensor operator $T_k^{\delta}$

Spherical harmonics  $Y_l^m \rightsquigarrow Y_k^{\delta}(\hat{r}, \hat{\phi})$

Wave function  $\Rightarrow$  operators.

The spherical harmonics (as operators) satisfy the following commutation relations:

$$[J_z, Y_k^{\delta}] = \delta Y_k^{\delta}, \quad [J_{\pm}, Y_k^{\delta}] = \sqrt{k(k+1) - \delta(\delta \pm 1)} Y_k^{\delta \pm 1}$$

Similarly, the tensor operators  $T_k^{\delta}$  are defined in the same manner. (just  $\hat{x} \rightarrow V_x$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{y} &\rightarrow V_y \\ \hat{z} &\rightarrow V_z \end{aligned}$$

and

$$[J_z, T_k^{\delta}] = \delta T_k^{\delta}, \quad [J_{\pm}, T_k^{\delta}] = \sqrt{k(k+1) - \delta(\delta \pm 1)} T_k^{\delta \pm 1}$$

Examples are

- ①  $L_z \sim T_1^0$
- ②  $\mp \frac{L_{\pm}}{\sqrt{2}} \sim T_1^{\pm 1}$
- ③  $r^2 \sim T_0^0$
- ④  $x$  or  $p_x \sim -T_1^1 + T_1^{-1}$
- ⑤  $x^2 \sim$  linear combination of  $T_2^m$

$\Rightarrow$  Any analytic function of  $x, y$  and  $z$  can be expanded in terms of irreducible tensor operators.

(under rotations, the operators mix only amongst irreducible subset)

Since  $T_k^{\mathfrak{g}}$  rotates like an angular momentum state,  
one can define the state

$$\underline{|\beta, J, M\rangle} \equiv \sum_{\mathfrak{g}, m} \langle k, j; \mathfrak{g}, m | J, M \rangle T_k^{\mathfrak{g}} |\beta, j, m\rangle$$

rotates as an object with angular momentum  $J$  and  
projection  $M$ .

The Clebsch-Gordan coefficients is denoted as

$$\langle k, j; \mathfrak{g}, m | J, M \rangle$$

$\Rightarrow$   $T_k^{\mathfrak{g}}$  can be treated as an state  $|\mathfrak{g}, k\rangle$