Role of Symmetries in Rotational Spectra A.K. Jain

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## Outline

- Basics concepts of symmetries in quantum systems
- Unitary transformations, degeneracy and multiplets
- Discrete symmetries in nuclei
- Consequences of discrete symmetries


## Beauty $\longleftrightarrow$ Symmetry

How the two are linked is difficult to define
Yet, both are intimately linked
Also linked are,
Conserved quantities $\longrightarrow$ Symmetries Quantities which remain invariant play an important role in defining the properties of a system
This is also the origin of quantum numbers

## Conserved quantities

- Some quantities remain unchanged with the passage of time
- Many conserved quantities are related to Global symmetries
- Energy, which is linked to invariance under time translation
- Linear momentum, which is linked to invariance under space translation
- Angular momentum, which is linked to invariance under rotation in space
- These are all continuous symmetries of space-time, and are valid in both the classical and the quantum world.


## Theorem of Emmy Noether

Each continuous symmetry is related to a conserved quantity

## www.EmmyNoether.com

## Unitary Transformation, Degeneracy and

## Multiplets

- A useful unitary transformation arising from the Hamiltonian H is the time evolution operator

$$
U=\exp (-i H t / \hbar)
$$

- An operator $Q$ evolves from time $t=0$ to $t$ as,

$$
U^{\dagger} Q U=Q_{0}
$$

- While a state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ evolves as

$$
|\psi(t)\rangle=U(t)|\psi(t=0)\rangle
$$

- If $Q$ is conserved i.e. $d Q / d t=0$, we have

$$
[Q, H]=Q H-H Q=0
$$

If the symmetry transformations represented by
$Q$ is unitary then $Q^{\dagger} H Q=H$, and hamiltonian remains invariant.

- As an example, a very useful group of transformations which leaves the hamiltonian invariant is rotation, represented by the rotation operator. It generator is the angular momentum operator $L$ or, J.


## Rotation Group

- Rotation about z-axis can be represented by

$$
\Psi^{\prime}=e^{-i \theta j_{z} / \hbar} \Psi=\left(1-i \theta J_{z} / \hbar\right) \Psi
$$

- It is a Lie group whose algebra is defined by

$$
\left[J_{k}, J_{l}\right]=i \varepsilon_{k l m} J_{m}
$$

- Casimir operator, which commutes with all the generators of the group, is

$$
J^{2}=J_{x}^{2}+J_{y}^{2}+J_{z}^{2}
$$

- The states $|j, m\rangle$ are simultaneous eigenstates of $J^{2}$ and $J_{z}$.


## Degeneracy and Multiplets

- If $H \Psi=E \Psi$ then $H \Psi^{\prime}=H\left(1+i \theta J_{z}\right) \Psi=E \Psi^{\prime}$ Thus $\Psi$ and $\Psi '$ are both simultaneous eigenstates with the same eigenvalue.
- A degeneracy arises in the m-substates.
- An energy eigenstate can have $n$-fold degeneracy if $n$-fold rotation of $\Psi$ in some space leaves it invariant.
- Degeneracy is lifted if the corresponding symmetry is broken and a multiplet arises


## Example: Transition from

## Shell Model to Nilsson Model

$J$ is a good quantum number for spherically symmetric potential. Even a small deformation breaks the symmetry. If the deformation has an axial symmetry about the $z$-axis, $J_{z}$ is the only conserved quantity. The $(2 j+1)$ fold degeneracy is lifted and

deformation multiplet arises. Therefore, the quantum number $\Omega$ is used to label the states.

# The basic nucleon-nucleon interaction must 

 exhibit invariance under translation, rotation, reflection in space and time etc.THE MEAN FIELD EMERGING FROM A
COLLECTION OF NUCLEONS IN A CONFIGURATION MAY BREAK ONE OR MORE OF THESE SYMMETRIES

## Breaking of spherical symmetry

- Rotational motion becomes possible
- Rotational Bands built on intrinsic states make an appearance
- Therefore, patterns of rotational bands are typical of a given type of symmetry
- A given rotational band can be labeled by the conserved quantum numbers


## Patterns in spectra

## PATTERN RECOGNITION

is an important step towards
IDENTIFICATION OF
SYMMETRIES
or,
BREAKING OF SYMMETRIES EXAMPLE:
Spectrum of 168Er


## Symmetries

in the quantum world lead to discreteness in conserved quantities and are local

- Point Group Symmetries in Crystal structure
- Space Inversion - Parity
- Time Reversal - Kramer's Degeneracy
- Rotation by any angle about the symmetry axis of a spheroid
- Rotation by 180 about an axis normal to the symmetry axis of a spheroid
- Reflection about a plane of a pear shape


## NUCLEAR SHAPES

## Radius vector of an arbitrarily deformed surface

$$
R(\theta, \varphi)=R_{0}\left[1+\sum_{\lambda, \mu} \alpha_{\lambda, \mu} Y_{\lambda \mu}^{*}(\theta, \varphi)\right]
$$

- Different spherical harmonics have different geometric symmetries and may be present in the mean field of a nucleus.
- Most common is the $\lambda=2$ quadrupole term. Higher order terms also occur in specific situations in many nuclei.
- Empirical evidence exists for the
- quadrupole,
- quadrupole + hexadecapole,
- quadrupole + octupole.
- While axial shapes are most common, evidence exists for non-axial shapes also.


## Axial and Reflection symmetry

- Most well known result for the axially symmetric e-e nuclei is the $\mathrm{K}=0$ assignment to the ground rotational band - since no rotation is possible about axis of symmetry
- Additional restriction for the quadrupole axial symmetric shapes is the $R_{1}(\pi)$ symmetry which forbids odd-I states. This is evident in the observation of $\mathrm{I}=0,2,4, \ldots$ levels in a $\mathrm{K}=0$ band.


## Discrete Symmetries in Nuclei

- Most commonly encountered discrete symmetries in nuclei are

1. Parity $P$
2. Rotation by $\pi$ about the body fixed $x, y, z$ axes,
3. $R_{x}(\pi), R_{y}(\pi),, R_{z}(\pi)$
4. Time reversal $T$
5. $T R_{x}(\pi), T R_{y}(\pi), T R_{z}(\pi)$.

- These are all two fold discrete symmetries, and their breaking causes a doubling of states.
See Dobaczewski et al (Phys. Rev. C62, 014310, and 014311 (2000)) for a complete classification


## Simple rules to work out the consequences of these symmetries

1. When $P$ is broken, we observe a parity doubling of states. A sequence like $4+, 5+, 6+$, ... turns into $4 \pm, 5 \pm, 6 \pm$, ... . (in e-e nuclei)
2. When $R_{X}(\pi)$ is broken, states of both the signatures occur. The two sequences like $1 / 2,5 / 2$,...etc. and $3 / 2,7 / 2, \ldots$ etc. having different signatures, merge into one sequence like 1/2, 3/2, 5/2, $7 / 2$... etc. (in odd-A nuclei)
3. When $R_{Y}(\pi) T$ is broken, a doubling of states of the allowed angular momentum occurs. A sequence like $I, I+2, I+4, \ldots$ etc. becomes 2(I), $2(I+2), 2(I+4), . .$. , each state now occurring twice (chiral doubling).
4. When $P=R_{X}(\pi)$, the two signature partners will have different parity. Thus states of alternate parity occur. We obtain a sequence like $2+, 3$-, $4+$, 5- ... etc.
$4^{\pi}$
$3^{\pi}$

$$
P=1
$$

$\qquad$
$2^{\pi}$

$$
\pi=+1 \text { or, }-1
$$

$P \neq 1$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$3^{ \pm}$
$2^{ \pm}$ $\qquad$

RULE NO. 1

| $R_{X}(\pi)=1$ |
| :--- |
| $8^{\pi}$ |



$2^{\pi}$ $\qquad$

$$
\pi=+1 \text { or, }-1
$$

$$
\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{x}}(\pi) \neq 1
$$

$\qquad$
$5^{\pi}$ $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$3^{\pi}$
$2^{\pi}$ $\qquad$

## RULE NO. 2

$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{y}}(\pi) \mathrm{T}=1, \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{x}}(\pi)=1$
$8^{+}$ $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$2^{+}$
$\qquad$
$2^{+}$

$$
\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{y}}(\pi) \mathrm{T} \neq 1, \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{x}}(\pi)=1
$$


$\longrightarrow$



RULE NO. 3

$$
\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{y}}(\pi) \mathrm{T}=1, \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{x}}(\pi) \neq 1
$$

$$
5^{+}
$$

$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$2^{+}$ $\qquad$

$$
\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{y}}(\pi) \mathrm{T} \neq 1, \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{x}}(\pi) \neq 1
$$

$$
5^{+} \square
$$

$$
4^{+} \square
$$

$$
\longrightarrow
$$

$$
3^{+} \square
$$

$$
2^{+} \square
$$

RULE NO. 3

$$
P=1, R_{x}(\pi)=1
$$

$\qquad$
$6^{+}$

$$
\mathbf{P}=\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{x}}(\pi)
$$

$\qquad$
5
$\qquad$
$\longrightarrow$
$\qquad$
$2^{+}$
$\qquad$
$2^{+}$


RULE NO. 4

## Parity and Signature

- Total wave-function is a product of intrinsic and rotational part $|I M K\rangle=D_{M K}^{I} \chi_{K}$.
- Information of the parity of a state resides in the intrinsic part and not the rotational part.
- Besides axial symmetry, a spheroid also has a reflection symmetrv in the 1-2 plane, which is represented by $R_{1}(\pi)$. It operates on the intrinsic and the rotational part differently and invariance of the wave-function leads to the signature quantum number.
- For $\mathrm{K}=0$ intrinsic states, $R_{1}(\pi) \chi_{K=0}=r \chi_{K=0,} r= \pm 1$.


## Intrinsic Wavefunction and its consequences

The total wavefunction

$$
\Psi_{M K}^{I}=\mathcal{X}_{\Omega} D_{M K}^{I}
$$

where $\chi_{\Omega}$ is the intrinsic part. Axial symmetry is assumed so that $K=\Omega$ The total wavefunction must remain invariant under $R_{x}(\pi)$ and $R_{e}(\pi)$ acting on internal and collective coordinates with the condition that

$$
R_{x}(\pi)=R_{e}(\pi)
$$

Since j is not a good q.n.,

$$
\chi_{K}=\sum_{J} C_{J} \chi_{J K}
$$

For $K=0$, the following holds

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{R}_{x}(\pi) \chi_{K=0}=r \chi_{K=0}, \\
& R_{x}^{2}(\pi) \chi_{K=0}=r^{2} \chi_{K=0},
\end{aligned}
$$

so that $\boldsymbol{r}^{2}=\mathbf{1}$ and $\quad r= \pm \mathbf{1}$
One may also write these expressions as
$R_{x}(\pi) \chi_{K=0}=e^{-i \pi J_{x}} \chi_{K=0}=e^{-i \pi \alpha} \chi_{K=0}$
which leads to values $\alpha=0$ and $\alpha=1$ corresponding to $r=+1$ and $r=-1$.
Both $\alpha$ and $r$ are termed as the signature quantum number.

Signature and angular momentum get connected by the relation

$$
R_{e}(\pi) D_{M K=0}^{I}=e^{-i \pi I} Y_{M}^{I}=(-1)^{I} Y_{M}^{I}
$$

Therefore,

$$
r=(-1)^{I}
$$

and the $\mathrm{K}=0$ band can be classified as

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha=0, r=+1, & I=0,2,4, \ldots \ldots \\
\alpha=1, & r=-1, \\
I=1,3,5, \ldots \ldots .
\end{array}
$$

The GSB of even-even nuclei is the best example of $r=+1$ signature.
$A K=0$ band in an odd-odd nucleus has both $r=+1$ and $r=-1$ signature.

For $K \neq 0$, the intrinsic states are two fold degenerate because of $\hat{R}_{x}(\pi)$ symmetry. Note that $\hat{\boldsymbol{R}}_{x}(\pi)$ and time-reversal $T$ have the same effect on the wave-function. The time-reversed state $K$ has the negative value
of $j_{z}$, so that

$$
\begin{gathered}
\chi_{\bar{K}}=R_{x}^{-1} \chi_{K} \\
\text { and } \quad \begin{array}{l}
\text { so that } \\
\\
\chi_{\bar{K}}=e^{i \pi j_{x}} \cdot \chi_{K}=\sum_{j}(-1)^{j+K} \cdot \chi_{j-K}
\end{array}
\end{gathered}
$$

The rotational wave function changes as

$$
R_{e} D_{M K}^{I}=e^{-i \pi l} D_{M K}^{I}=(-1)^{I+K} D_{M-K}^{I}
$$

so that a rotationally invariant wave function may be constructed as

$$
\Psi_{M K}^{I}=\left(\frac{2 I+1}{16 \pi^{2}}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\left[\chi_{K} D_{M K}^{I}+(-1)^{I+K} \chi_{\bar{K}} D_{M-K}^{I}\right]
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { For odd-A nuclei, } \quad R_{x}^{2} \chi_{K}=(-1)^{2 j} \chi_{K},{ }^{2 j \text { odd. }} \\
& \text { Now, } \quad R_{x}=e^{-i \pi j_{x}}=e^{-i \pi \alpha} \\
& \text { and, } \quad R_{e}=e^{-i \pi I} \\
& \text { together with, } \quad R_{x}^{-1} R_{e}=1 \text { lead us to the classification } \\
& I=\frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{2}, \frac{9}{2}, \ldots \ldots \ldots, \quad \alpha=\frac{1}{2}, \quad r=-i \\
& I=\frac{3}{2}, \frac{7}{2}, \frac{11}{2}, \ldots \ldots \ldots, \alpha=-\frac{1}{2}, \quad r=+i \\
& \quad \text { In general, } \quad \mathrm{I}=(\alpha+\text { even number }) \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$


${ }_{66}^{155} \mathrm{Dy}$

## Consequences of the signature q.n.

- For $K=0$ bands, $r=+1$ corresponds to $\mathrm{I}=0,2,4, \ldots$ and $r=-1$ corresponds to $\mathrm{I}=1,3,5, \ldots$
- Only $r=+1$ sequence is seen in even-even nuclei, while both $r= \pm 1$ are observed in odd-odd nuclei.
- However, its full advantage is seen in odd-A (and oddodd nuclei also) nuclei.
- In odd-A, K=1/2 bands, the decoupling term plays the role of splitting the two signatures of a band.
- Sign and value of the decoupling parameter decides the odd-even splitting
- For high-j states, the splitting could be so large that the unfavored signature is not seen at all.


## Fixed point structure from SCM



Fig. 1. Schematic diagram showing the projections of $\varepsilon$-cylindrical parabolae and $j$-sphere constituting the invariant region for $\omega_{c} / 2 Q j<1$. The $j$-space is seen to be divided into four distinct regions - three arising from the separatrix and one from the critical parabola ( $K=0$ ). The four fixed points are shown by the labels $a, b$ and $c_{ \pm}$.

