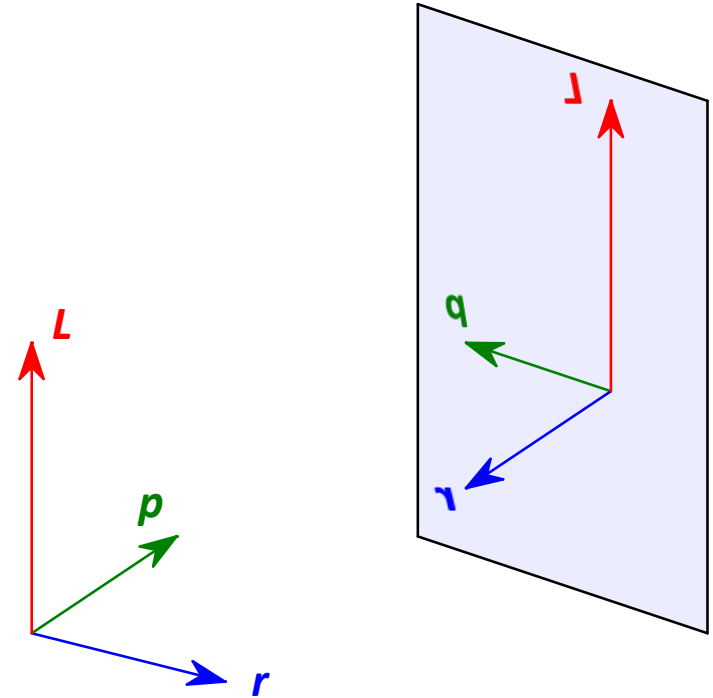


Today in Physics 237: parity

- Conservation laws, more generally
- Inversion symmetry and parity conservation
- Vectors and pseudovectors
- Parity selection rules:
 - Radiative transitions between quantum states
 - Permitted and forbidden transitions



Two things we may mean by Conservation

- Here are two ways to express conservation. We can easily [show](#) them to be equivalent:
 1. Q is conserved if its expectation value $\langle Q \rangle$ is independent of time.
 2. Q is conserved if the probability of observing any particular value of Q in a state f , say $q|f\rangle = \hat{Q}|f\rangle$, is independent of time.
- Let's suppose for simplicity that there is no explicit time dependence: $\partial Q/\partial t = 0$.
- In this case, the Ehrenfest theorem ([Lecture 11](#)) says that $d\langle Q \rangle/dt = 0$ if $[\hat{H}, \hat{Q}] = 0$.
- What would $[\hat{H}, \hat{Q}] = 0$ imply about the probability of observing any particular value of Q ?
 - Recall that if $[\hat{H}, \hat{Q}] = 0$, then there is a complete set of states which are eigenstates of both \hat{H} and \hat{Q} .
 - If $\hat{Q}|f_n\rangle = q_n|f_n\rangle$, then the probability of observing q_n is $P(q_n) = |\langle f_n | \Psi(t) \rangle|^2$.

Conservation (continued)

- In terms of the stationary eigenstates of \hat{H} , $|\psi_n\rangle$, and the energy eigenvalues E_n ,

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_m e^{-iE_m t/\hbar} c_m |\psi_m\rangle .$$

- Then assume $[\hat{H}, \hat{Q}] = 0$ and choose $|f_n\rangle = |\psi_n\rangle$:

$$P(q_n) = |\langle \psi_n | \Psi(t) \rangle|^2 = \left| \sum_m e^{-iE_m t/\hbar} c_m \langle \psi_n | \psi_m \rangle \right|^2 = |c_n|^2 \neq f(t), \text{ q.e.d.}$$

Parity in 1-D

- In 1-D, and in the same language as used for translation \hat{T} , parity works like this: $\hat{\Pi}\psi(x) = \psi'(x) = \psi(-x)$.
- Because $\hat{\Pi}\psi(-x) = \psi'(-x) = \psi(x)$, $\hat{\Pi}\hat{\Pi}\psi(x) = \psi(x)$, so $\hat{\Pi}^{-1} = \hat{\Pi}$.
- In G&S problem 6.8, on this week's assignment, you will show that the parity operator is Hermitian too: $\hat{\Pi} = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger$.
- And it can transform operators as well as states: $\hat{Q}' = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{Q} \hat{\Pi}$.
 - This, of course, is very similar to how the translation operator works.
- In G&S problem 6.10, also on this week's assignment, you will show that the position and momentum operators have **odd parity**, meaning that their sign changes when $\hat{\Pi}$ is applied:

$$\hat{x}' = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{x} \hat{\Pi} = -\hat{x} \quad , \quad \hat{p}' = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{p} \hat{\Pi} = -\hat{p} \quad .$$

- So, similar to translation ([Lecture 25](#), p. 7; see also [Lecture 2](#), p. 12), we know how $\hat{\Pi}$ transforms any operator \hat{Q} :

$$\hat{Q}'(\hat{x}, \hat{p}) = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{Q}(\hat{x}, \hat{p}) \hat{\Pi} = \hat{Q}(\hat{x}', \hat{p}') = \hat{Q}(-\hat{x}, -\hat{p}) \quad .$$

Parity in 1-D (continued)

- A system is said to be **inversion-symmetric** if the Hamiltonian does not change under parity transformation, meaning that \hat{H} and $\hat{\Pi}$ commute:

$$\hat{H}' = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{H} \hat{\Pi} = \hat{H} \Rightarrow (\hat{\Pi} \hat{\Pi}^\dagger) \hat{H} \hat{\Pi} = \hat{\Pi} \hat{H} \Rightarrow [\hat{H}, \hat{\Pi}] = 0 \quad .$$

- If this Hamiltonian includes a 1-D potential energy $V(x)$, then $V(x)$ is inversion symmetric too, meaning that it is an **even** function of x : $V(x) = V(-x)$.
- And since in the case of inversion symmetry $[\hat{H}, \hat{\Pi}] = 0$, there is a complete set of states which are simultaneously eigenstates of \hat{H} and $\hat{\Pi}$. Call those states ψ_n :

$$\hat{\Pi} \psi_n(x) = \psi_n(-x) = \pm \psi_n(x) \quad ,$$

since the eigenvalues of $\hat{\Pi}$ are ± 1 , as you will also show in G&S problem 6.8.

- Finally, parity is conserved, by either of our definitions, e.g. by the Ehrenfest theorem, $\frac{d}{dt} \langle \Pi \rangle = \frac{i}{\hbar} [\hat{H}, \hat{\Pi}] = 0$.

Parity in 3-D

- Much the same as 1-D, $\hat{\Pi}\psi(\mathbf{r}) = \psi'(\mathbf{r}) = \psi(-\mathbf{r})$.
- And if we proceed one by one through the Cartesian coordinates, we find that position and momentum still have odd parity:

$$\hat{\mathbf{r}}' = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{r}} \hat{\Pi} = -\hat{\mathbf{r}} \quad , \quad \hat{\mathbf{p}}' = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{p}} \hat{\Pi} = -\hat{\mathbf{p}} \quad .$$

- Which once again means we know everything about every operator in 3-D, since

$$\hat{Q}'(\hat{\mathbf{r}}, \hat{\mathbf{p}}) = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{Q}(\hat{\mathbf{r}}, \hat{\mathbf{p}}) \hat{\Pi} = \hat{Q}(\hat{\mathbf{r}}', \hat{\mathbf{p}}') = \hat{Q}(-\hat{\mathbf{r}}, -\hat{\mathbf{p}}) \quad .$$

- For example (G&S example 6.2), consider the angular momentum \mathbf{L} : how does it transform under parity?

$$\hat{\mathbf{L}}' = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{L}} \hat{\Pi} = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger (\hat{\mathbf{r}} \times \hat{\mathbf{p}}) \hat{\Pi} = \hat{\mathbf{r}}' \times \hat{\mathbf{p}}' = (-\hat{\mathbf{r}}) \times (-\hat{\mathbf{p}}) = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \times \hat{\mathbf{p}} = \hat{\mathbf{L}} \quad .$$

- So in contrast to the archetypal vectors \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{p} , \mathbf{L} has even parity. We call such an object a **pseudovector**, which transforms under rotation like a vector, but has even parity. Cross products of vectors are pseudovectors.

Parity in 3-D (continued)

- Similarly, scalars like $r^2 = \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r}$ have even parity: $(r^2)' = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger r^2 \hat{\Pi} = \hat{\mathbf{r}}' \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}' = (-\hat{\mathbf{r}}) \cdot (-\hat{\mathbf{r}}) = r^2$. But the inner product of a vector and a pseudovector has odd parity, e.g.

$$(\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{L}})' = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{L}} \hat{\Pi} = \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot (\hat{\mathbf{r}} \times \hat{\mathbf{p}}) \hat{\Pi} = \hat{\mathbf{r}}' \cdot (\hat{\mathbf{r}}' \times \hat{\mathbf{p}}') = (-\hat{\mathbf{r}}) \cdot [(-\hat{\mathbf{r}}) \times (-\hat{\mathbf{p}})] = -\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot (\hat{\mathbf{r}} \times \hat{\mathbf{p}}) = -\hat{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{L}} \quad .$$

Naturally we call such objects **pseudoscalars**.

- Central potentials, like the electrostatic potential energy which is part of the Hamiltonian for the hydrogen atom, are scalars, and have even parity in 3-D as they do in 1-D: $V(\mathbf{r}) = V(-\mathbf{r})$.
- Thus such Hamiltonians are inversion symmetric, just as they are in 1-D, meaning that $[\hat{H}, \hat{\Pi}] = 0$, meaning furthermore that parity is still conserved in 3-D as in 1-D, and that we can still choose \hat{H} and $\hat{\Pi}$ to have a common set of eigenstates.
- Central potentials in 3-D lead to wavefunctions of the form $\psi_{n\ell m}(\mathbf{r}) = R_{n\ell}(r) Y_\ell^m(\vartheta, \varphi)$. We showed in [Lecture 23](#), in the context of the exchange operator \hat{P} , that $\hat{\Pi} Y_\ell^m(\vartheta, \varphi) = Y_\ell^m(\pi - \vartheta, \varphi + \pi) = (-1)^\ell Y_\ell^m(\vartheta, \varphi)$, so for the common eigenstate basis of \hat{H} and $\hat{\Pi}$,

$$\hat{\Pi} \psi_{n\ell m}(\mathbf{r}) = (-1)^\ell \psi_{n\ell m}(\mathbf{r}).$$

The electric dipole moment, parity, and selection rules

- Toward the end of PHYS 246 you will master time-dependent perturbation theory, with which you can work out the transition rate – probability per unit time – for a system to change from one state to another by emission or absorption of light, in photon form.
- But today you can derive the **selection rules** for those transitions, as this mostly depends on parity.
- The **strongest** transitions – largest probability per unit time, and often called **permitted** transitions – have rates proportional to the matrix element of the electric dipole moment operator, $\hat{\mathbf{p}}_e = q\hat{\mathbf{r}}$, where q is the electric charge of the quantum involved in the transition, usually an electron ($q = -e$).
- Call the rate \mathbf{R} , never mind the other physical constants and projection effects which enter, and consider hydrogenic states:

$$\mathbf{R} = \langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{\mathbf{p}}_e | n\ell m \rangle .$$

- Like $\hat{\mathbf{r}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{p}}_e$ has odd parity: $\hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{p}}_e \hat{\Pi} = -\hat{\mathbf{p}}_e$.

- Thus $\mathbf{R} = \langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{\mathbf{p}}_e | n\ell m \rangle = -\langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{p}}_e \hat{\Pi} | n\ell m \rangle = -\langle n'\ell'm' | (-1)^{\ell'} \hat{\mathbf{p}}_e (-1)^\ell | n\ell m \rangle = (-1)^{\ell'+\ell+1} \langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{\mathbf{p}}_e | n\ell m \rangle$.

The electric dipole moment, parity, and selection rules (continued)

- If $\ell'+\ell$ is an even number – that is, if the two states have the same parity – then

$$\langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{\mathbf{p}}_e | n\ell m \rangle = -\langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{\mathbf{p}}_e | n\ell m \rangle = 0 \quad ,$$

the transition has $R = 0$.

- So transitions of this sort – **electric dipole transitions** – are **forbidden** between states of like parity. This is called **Laporte's rule** by spectroscopists, and is an example of a selection rule.
- The same would be true for any vector operator on which the rate might depend.
- This also means that for transitions to happen at a nonzero rate, the initial and final states must have different parity: odd and even, or vice versa.
 - This does not mean that parity is not conserved; it means that the emitted or absorbed photon needs to be accounted for in the system's total parity.

The electric dipole moment, parity, and selection rules (continued)

Example (G&S problem 6.11):

Consider the matrix elements of \hat{L} between two definite-parity states: $\langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{L} | n\ell m \rangle$. Under what conditions is this matrix element guaranteed to vanish? Note that the same selection rule would apply to any pseudovector operator, or any (true) scalar operator.

- Easy: proceed the same way as with the dipole moment, using $\hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{L} \hat{\Pi} = \hat{L}$:

$$\langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{L} | n\ell m \rangle = \langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{\Pi}^\dagger \hat{L} \hat{\Pi} | n\ell m \rangle = (-1)^{\ell'+\ell} \langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{L} | n\ell m \rangle = -\langle n'\ell'm' | \hat{L} | n\ell m \rangle \neq 0 \text{ if } \ell' + \ell \text{ is odd.}$$

- Most atomic and molecular transitions involve matrix elements of electromagnetic multipoles, in different orders of approximation of time-dependent perturbation theory.
 - You will learn about scary-sounding things like magnetic dipole transitions, electric quadrupole transitions, and so forth, which can be nonzero when the electric dipole matrix elements are zero.
 - Thus forbidden transitions can happen, though at much slower rates than the permitted, electric-dipole types.