

Tensor Operators are sets of operators that transform among each other in a special way under rotations.

Recall that vectors in rectangular coordinates obey:

$$V_i \rightarrow \sum_{j=x,y,z} R_{ij} V_j \quad \text{under a rotation parameterized by the orthogonal matrix } R.$$

States transform like:

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(R) |\psi\rangle$$

↑  
operator for rotation R.

So, the expectation value of a vector operator transforms like:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | V_i | \psi \rangle &\rightarrow \langle \psi | \mathcal{D}^\dagger(R) V_i \mathcal{D}(R) | \psi \rangle \\ &= \langle \psi | \sum_j R_{ij} V_j | \psi \rangle \quad (\text{for any state } |\psi\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So, } \mathcal{D}^\dagger(R) V_i \mathcal{D}(R) = \sum_j R_{ij} V_j$$

For an infinitesimal rotation  $\epsilon$  about an axis direction  $\hat{n}$ ,

$$\mathcal{D}(R) = 1 - \frac{i\epsilon}{\hbar} \vec{J} \cdot \hat{n}. \quad \text{Plug this into previous equation:}$$

$$V_i - \frac{i\epsilon}{\hbar} [V_i, \vec{J} \cdot \hat{n}] = \sum_j R_{ij} V_j$$

↑  
for  $\epsilon$  about  $\hat{n}$ .

$$\text{For example, if } \hat{n} = \hat{z}, \text{ then } R = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\epsilon & 0 \\ +\epsilon & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{So, look at } i=x: \quad V_x - \frac{i\epsilon}{\hbar} [V_x, J_z] = V_x - \epsilon V_y.$$

$$\text{Therefore, } [V_x, J_z] = -i\hbar V_y.$$

Looking at other combinations the same way gives

$$\boxed{[V_i, J_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} V_k} \quad (\text{summed over } k)$$

Could take this as the defining requirement for  $V_i$  to be a vector.  
(Can't just take any triplet of operators and call it a vector!)

For example,  $V_i = J_i$  works. So does  $V_i = R_i$ , and  $V_i = P_i$ .

More generally, one can define Cartesian tensors as multi-index objects that satisfy:

$$T_{ijk\dots} = R_{ii'} R_{jj'} R_{kk'} \dots T_{i'j'k'\dots} \quad (\text{primed indices summed})$$

The number of indices = rank of the tensor.

However, it is more convenient to discuss tensors in the spherical representation.

Recall how rotation operators act on angular momentum eigenstates:

$$\underbrace{D(R)}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{rotation} \\ \text{operator}}} |l, m\rangle = \sum_{m'} |l, m'\rangle \underbrace{D_{m'm}^{(l)}(R)}_{\substack{\text{numbers} \\ \text{(matrix elements)}}$$

This motivates the following...

Definition A spherical tensor operator of rank  $k$  is a

set of  $2k+1$  operators  $T_q^{(k)}$  ( $q = -k, -k+1, \dots, k-1, k$ )

that satisfy:

$$D(R) T_q^{(k)} D^\dagger(R) = \sum_{q'=-k}^k D_{qq'}^{(k)}(R) T_{q'}^{(k)}$$

An alternate version is obtained by taking  $D(R) = 1 + \frac{i\epsilon}{\hbar} \vec{J} \cdot \hat{n}$  again. Plugging in, we get

$$[\vec{J} \cdot \hat{n}, T_q^{(k)}] = \sum_{q'} T_{q'}^{(k)} \langle kq' | \vec{J} \cdot \hat{n} | kq \rangle$$

Or, using  $\hat{n} = \hat{z}$  and then  $\hat{n} = \hat{x} \pm i\hat{y}$ ,

$$[J_z, T_q^{(k)}] = \hbar q T_q^{(k)}$$

$$[J_\pm, T_q^{(k)}] = \hbar \sqrt{(k \mp q)(k \pm q + 1)} T_{q \pm 1}^{(k)}$$

Note the similarity between operators  $T_q^{(k)}$  and states  $|k, q\rangle$ .

Example Can form a dyadic rank 2 tensor from any two vectors  $V_i$  and  $U_i$ . Let  $T_{ij} = U_i V_j =$  Cartesian rank 2.

This is reducible; it can be divided into subsets which only transform among themselves under rotations:

$$T_{ij} = U_i V_j = \underbrace{\frac{1}{3} U \cdot V \delta_{ij}}_{\substack{\text{multiple} \\ \text{of} \\ \text{identity tensor} \\ (q=0)}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} (U_i V_j - U_j V_i)}_{\substack{\text{antisymmetric} \\ \text{tensor} \\ (q=1)}} + \underbrace{\left[ \frac{1}{2} (U_i V_j + U_j V_i) - \frac{1}{3} U \cdot V \delta_{ij} \right]}_{\substack{\text{symmetric} \\ \text{traceless} \\ (q=2)}}$$

Actually, these correspond to spherical tensors with  $q=0, 1, 2$ .

In general, spherical tensors are nice because:

- 1) easier to work with in spherically-symmetric systems
- 2) irreducible

Writing  $U_0 = U_z$ ,  $U_{+1} = \frac{-(U_x + iU_y)}{\sqrt{2}}$ ,  $U_{-1} = \frac{U_x - iU_y}{\sqrt{2}}$ ,

1  $T_0^{(0)} = -\frac{1}{3} U \cdot V = \frac{1}{3} (-U_0 V_0 + U_{+1} V_{-1} + U_{-1} V_{+1})$  ( $q=0$ )

3  $\left\{ T_q^{(1)} = -\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} (\vec{U} \times \vec{V})_q \right.$  ( $q = +1, 0, -1$ ) (note antisymmetric)

5  $\left\{ \begin{aligned} T_{\pm 2}^{(2)} &= U_{\pm 1} V_{\pm 1} \\ T_{\pm 1}^{(2)} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (U_{\pm 1} V_0 + U_0 V_{\pm 1}) \\ T_0^{(2)} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} (2U_0 V_0 + U_{+1} V_{-1} + U_{-1} V_{+1}) \end{aligned} \right.$  symmetric traceless

(Not all rank 2 tensors can be formed by multiplying vectors, however.)

Given spherical tensors  $X, Z$  of ranks  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ , can form a product tensor of rank  $k$  by:

$$T_q^{(k)} = \sum_{q_1} \sum_{q_2} \underbrace{\langle k_1, k_2; q_1, q_2 | k, k_2; k, q \rangle}_{\text{Clebsch-Gordan coefficients like } \langle l_1, l_2; m_1, m_2 | l, l_2; l, m \rangle} X_{q_1}^{(k_1)} Z_{q_2}^{(k_2)}$$

Proof: show that the given  $T_q^{(k)}$  satisfies the defining transformation law:

$$\begin{aligned}
D^{\dagger}(R) T_q^{(k)} D(R) &= \sum_{q_1, q_2} \langle k, k_2, q_1, q_2 | k, k_2, k_q \rangle D^{\dagger}(R) X_{q_1}^{k_1} D(R) D^{\dagger}(R) Z_{q_2}^{k_2} D(R) \\
&= \sum_{q_1, q_2} \sum_{q'_1, q'_2} \langle k, k_2, q_1, q_2 | k, k_2, k_q \rangle X_{q'_1}^{k_1} D_{q'_1, q_1}^{(k_1)}(R^{-1}) Z_{q'_2}^{k_2} D_{q'_2, q_2}^{(k_2)}(R^{-1})
\end{aligned}$$

Now recall the Clebsch-Gordan series: (Sakurai 3.7.69)

$$\begin{aligned}
D_{m_1, m'_1}^{(j_1)} D_{m_2, m'_2}^{(j_2)} &= \sum_j \sum_m \sum_{m'} \langle j_1, j_2, m_1, m_2 | j, m \rangle \langle j_1, j_2, m'_1, m'_2 | j, m' \rangle D_{m, m'}^{(j)}(R) \\
&\quad \uparrow \\
&\quad \text{runs from } |j_1 - j_2| \text{ to } j_1 + j_2.
\end{aligned}$$

Use this with  $(j_1, j_2, m_1, m'_1, m_2, m'_2, j, m, m') \rightarrow (k_1, k_2, q'_1, q_1, q'_2, q_2, k, q, q')$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
D^{\dagger}(R) T_q^{(k)} D(R) &= \sum_{\substack{k'', q', q'' \\ q'_1, q'_2}} \left( \sum_{q_1, q_2} \langle k, k_2, q_1, q_2 | k, k_2, k_q \rangle \langle k, k_2, q_1, q_2 | k, k_2, k'' q'' \rangle \right) \\
&\quad \langle k, k_2, q'_1, q'_2 | k, k_2, k'' q'' \rangle D_{q', q''}^{(k'')} X_{q'_1}^{k_1} X_{q'_2}^{k_2} \\
&= \delta_{kk''} \delta_{qq''} \quad (\text{C-G orthonormality; Sakurai 3.7.42}) \\
&= \sum_{q'} \sum_{q_1, q_2} \underbrace{\langle k, k_2, q_1, q_2 | k, k_2, k_q \rangle X_{q'_1}^{(k_1)} X_{q'_2}^{(k_2)} D_{q', q}^{(k)}(R^{-1})}_{T_{q'}^{(k)}} \\
&= \sum_{q'} T_{q'}^{(k)} D_{q', q}^{(k)}(R^{-1}) = \text{defining transformation law under rotations } \checkmark
\end{aligned}$$

Note: same C-G coefficients appear as for addition of angular momentum.

Spherical tensors are "eigen-operators of angular momentum".

$$\begin{aligned}
T_q^{(k)} &\longleftrightarrow |l m\rangle \\
k &\longleftrightarrow l \\
q &\longleftrightarrow m
\end{aligned}$$

## Selection rules for spherical tensor matrix elements.

Consider states  $|\alpha, j, m\rangle$  that are eigenstates of  $H, J^2, J_z$ .  
 $\uparrow$   
 other e-values, for example  $n$   
 in the Hydrogen atom.

Then:  $\langle \alpha', j', m' | T_q^{(k)} | \alpha, j, m \rangle = 0$  unless  $|j-k| \leq j' \leq j+k$   
and  $m' = q+m$ .

Comments: 1) These are necessary, not sufficient conditions for non-vanishing.  
 2) Note these are the same conditions for addition of angular momentum  $(j, m)$  and  $(k, q)$  to give  $(j', m')$ .

More generally, the Wigner-Eckhart Theorem says:

$$\langle \alpha', j', m' | T_q^{(k)} | \alpha, j, m \rangle = \underbrace{\langle jk; m, q | jk; j', m' \rangle}_{\text{Clebsch-Gordon coefficient}} \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2j+1}}}_{\text{convention}} \underbrace{\langle \alpha', j' || T^{(k)} || \alpha, j \rangle}_{\text{"reduced matrix element"}}$$

This defines the reduced matrix element, which is independent of  $m, m'$ , and  $q$ . (Otherwise, the theorem would be content-free.)

So one can evaluate the reduced matrix element for some particularly convenient choice of  $m, m', q$ , and use that together with the C-G coefficients to get  $\langle \alpha', j', m' | T_q^{(k)} | \alpha, j, m \rangle$  for any  $m, m', q$ .

The C-G coefficients are pure geometry (how are the states and operators oriented with respect to coordinates).

The reduced matrix element contains all the dynamics specific to the tensor operator  $T^{(k)}$ .

The selection rules now follow from those of the C-G coefficients.

Idea of proof: matrix elements of  $T_q^{(k)}$  satisfy same recursion relations as C-G coefficients, so they must be proportional.

Proof:  $\langle \alpha', j', m' | [J_{\pm}, T_q^{(k)}] | \alpha, j, m \rangle = k \sqrt{(k \mp q)(k \pm q + 1)} \langle \alpha', j', m' | T_{q \pm 1}^{(k)} | \alpha, j, m \rangle$   
 //  $\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\text{defining transformation law for tensor}}$

$\sqrt{(j' \pm m')(j' \mp m' + 1)} \langle \alpha', j', m' \mp 1 | T_q^{(k)} | \alpha, j, m \rangle$

$-\sqrt{(j \mp m)(j \pm m + 1)} \langle \alpha', j', m' | T_q^{(k)} | \alpha, j, m \pm 1 \rangle$

This has the same form as recursion relations for  $\langle j k; m q | j k; j' m' \rangle$ . Both are first-order linear homogeneous equations with the same coefficients.

If  $\sum_j a_{ij} x_j = 0$  and  $\sum_j a_{ij} y_j = 0$ , then  $x_j = c y_j$   
 $\left. \begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ \text{independent} \\ \text{of } j. \end{matrix} \right\}$

So  $\langle \alpha', j', m' | T_q^{(k)} | \alpha, j, m \rangle = \underbrace{\left( \text{constant independent of } q, m, m' \right)}_{\text{call this } \langle \alpha' j' || T^{(k)} || \alpha, j \rangle} \langle j k; m q | j k; j' m' \rangle$   
 $\frac{\langle \alpha' j' || T^{(k)} || \alpha, j \rangle}{\sqrt{2j+1}} \checkmark$

Example: Scalar operator (rank  $k=0$ )  $S$ :

$\langle \alpha', j', m' | S | \alpha, j, m \rangle = \delta_{j j'} \delta_{m m'} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2j+1}} \langle \alpha', j || S || \alpha, j \rangle$   
 evaluate once for  $j=m=m'$ , gives result for any  $m$ .

Example: Vector operator (rank  $k=1$ )  $V_0, V_{+1}, V_{-1}$ .

Then  $\langle \alpha', j', m' | V_q | \alpha, j, m \rangle \neq 0$  requires:

$\Delta j = j' - j = 0$  or  $\pm 1$ , and  $\Delta m = m' - m = q = 0$  or  $\pm 1$ , and

$j, j'$  not both 0. (The  $0 \rightarrow 0$  transition for  $j$  is forbidden).

This applies for electric dipole radiation, for example, with  $V=R$  = position operator  $R_0 = Z$ ,  $R_{+1} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(X + iY)$ ,  $R_{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(X - iY)$ .

Also, for  $j=j' \neq 0$ , one can evaluate the reduced matrix element explicitly:

$\langle \alpha', j, m' | V_q | \alpha, j, m \rangle = \frac{\langle \alpha', j, m | \vec{J} \cdot \vec{V} | \alpha, j, m \rangle}{k^2 j(j+1)} \langle j, m' | J_q | j, m \rangle$

with  $J_0 = J_z$  and  $J_{\pm 1} = \mp \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(J_x \mp iJ_y) = \mp \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} J_{\pm}$ . (Proof in Sakurai, p. 241.)