

Symmetries in $N \sim Z$ nuclei

P. Van Isacker, GANIL, France

Symmetry in quantum mechanics

Symmetries of the nuclear shell model

Interacting boson model

Applications to $N \sim Z$ nuclei

Symmetry in quantum mechanics

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Symmetries, groups and algebras

Degeneracy and state labelling

Dynamical symmetry breaking

Selection rules

Example: isospin $SU(2)$ symmetry

Symmetry

- Greek origin: « σ with proportion, with order σ ».
- *Oxford Dictionary of Current English*:
 - Symmetry: « σ .right correspondence of parts; quality of harmony or balance (in size, design etc.) between parts σ ».
- Symmetry in physics via group theory (mathematical theory of symmetry).
- Two main protagonists of group theory:
 - Evariste Galois (1831): **Galois** theory.
 - Sophus Lie (1873): **Lie** algebra.

Definition of symmetry

- Assume a hamiltonian H which commutes with operators g_i that form a Lie algebra G :

$$\forall g_i \in G : [H, g_i] = 0$$

- $\square$ H has *symmetry* G or is *invariant under* G .
- Three mathematical concepts:
 - Group.
 - Lie group: infinite, continuous and connected.
 - Lie algebra: from a subset of group elements close to the identity element.

Definition of a group

- A set $\{g\} \equiv G$ and a *multiplication* $\circ$ satisfying

- Closure:

$$\forall g, g' \in G : g \circ g' \in G$$

- Associativity:

$$\forall g, g', g'' \in G : g \circ (g' \circ g'') = (g \circ g') \circ g''$$

- Existence of an identity element e :

$$\forall g \in G : e \circ g = g \circ e = g$$

- Existence of unique inverse for every element g :

$$\forall g \in G : g^{-1} \circ g = g \circ g^{-1} = e$$

- Examples: permutations S_n , rotations $D_n, \dots$

Lie groups

- A Lie group contains an *infinite* number of elements characterized by a set of *continuous* variables.
- Additional conditions:
 - Connection to the identity element.
 - Analytic multiplication function.
- Example: rotations in 2 dimensions, SO(2).

$$g(\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\varphi & \sin\varphi \\ -\sin\varphi & \cos\varphi \end{pmatrix}$$

Lie algebras

- Idea: obtain properties of the *infinite* number of elements g of a Lie *group* in terms of those of a *finite* number of elements g_i (called generators) of a Lie *algebra*.
- All properties of a Lie algebra follow from the commutation relations between its generators:

$$[g_i, g_j] \equiv g_i \circ g_j - g_j \circ g_i = \sum_k c_{ij}^k g_k$$

- Generators satisfy the **Jacobi** identity:

$$[g_i, [g_j, g_k]] + [g_j, [g_k, g_i]] + [g_k, [g_i, g_j]] = 0$$

Rotations in 2 dimensions, SO(2)

- Matrix representation of finite elements:

$$g(\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\varphi & \sin\varphi \\ -\sin\varphi & \cos\varphi \end{pmatrix}$$

- Infinitesimal element and generator:

$$\lim_{\varphi \rightarrow 0} g(\varphi) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \varphi \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = e + \varphi g_1$$

- Exponentiation leads back to finite elements:

$$g(\varphi) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(e + \frac{\varphi}{n} g_1 \right)^n = \exp(\varphi g_1) = \exp \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \varphi \\ -\varphi & 0 \end{pmatrix} = g(\varphi)$$

Rotations in 3 dimensions, SO(3)

- Matrix representation of finite elements:

$$g(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\alpha_3 & \sin\alpha_3 & 0 \\ -\sin\alpha_3 & \cos\alpha_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\alpha_2 & 0 & \sin\alpha_2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sin\alpha_2 & 0 & \cos\alpha_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\alpha_1 & \sin\alpha_1 \\ 0 & -\sin\alpha_1 & \cos\alpha_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Generators:

$$g_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad g_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad g_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- The *structure constants* are given by the 3-space **Levi-Civita** tensor ϵ_{ijk} :

$$[g_i, g_j] = \sum_{k=1}^3 \epsilon_{ijk} g_k \quad (\epsilon_{123} = \epsilon_{231} = \epsilon_{312} = \epsilon_{132} = \epsilon_{321} = \epsilon_{213} = 1)$$

Rotations in 3 dimensions, SO(3)

- Exponentiation leads back to finite elements:

$$g(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3) = \exp \left(\sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha_i g_i \right)$$

- Quantum mechanical angular momentum operators are related to SO(3) generators:

$$J_k = i g_k, \quad [J_j, J_k] = i \sum_{l=1}^3 \epsilon_{jkl} J_l$$

Consequences of symmetry

- H has symmetry G implies

- H has degeneracy structure: if $|\alpha\rangle$ is an eigenstate of H with energy E , so is $g_i |\alpha\rangle$

$$H|\alpha\rangle = E|\alpha\rangle \quad Hg_i|\alpha\rangle = g_i H|\alpha\rangle = E g_i|\alpha\rangle$$

- Degeneracy structure and labels of eigenstates of H are determined by the symmetry G :

$$H|\alpha\rangle = E(\alpha)|\alpha\rangle$$

$$g_i|\alpha\rangle = \sum_{\alpha'} a_{\alpha\alpha'}^i(g_i)|\alpha'\rangle$$

- Degenerate eigenstates correspond to *irreducible* representations of G (**Wigner's principle**).

The hydrogen atom

- The hamiltonian of the hydrogen atom is

$$H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2M} \nabla^2 - \frac{Ze^2}{r}, \quad \square = Ze^2$$

- Eigenstates $\psi_{nlm}(r, \vartheta, \varphi)$ [for $n=1,2,\dots$, $l=0,1,\dots, n-1$, $m=-l,-l+1,\dots,+l$] with energy $-M\square^2/2\hbar^2n^2$.

- H has rotational symmetry $SO(3)$:

$$[H, \vec{L}] \equiv [H, \vec{r} \times \vec{p}] = 0 \quad m \text{ degeneracy}$$

- What is the origin of additional l -degeneracy?
According to Wigner's principle it *must* be related to a symmetry.

Symmetry of the hydrogen atom

- The **Runge-Lenz** vector **A**:

$$\vec{A} = \frac{1}{2M} (\vec{p} \times \vec{L} - \vec{L} \times \vec{p}) \times \frac{\vec{r}}{r} \quad [H, \vec{A}] = 0$$

- **L** and **A** close under commutation (almost):

$$[L_j, L_k] = i\hbar \sum_{l=1}^3 \epsilon_{jkl} L_l, \quad [L_j, A_k] = i\hbar \sum_{l=1}^3 \epsilon_{jkl} A_l, \quad [A_j, A_k] = i\hbar \sum_{l=1}^3 \epsilon_{jkl} \frac{-2H}{M} L_l$$

- **L** and **B** $\equiv (-2H/M)^{-1/2} \mathbf{A}$ form an SO(4) algebra:

$$[L_j, L_k] = i\hbar \sum_{l=1}^3 \epsilon_{jkl} L_l, \quad [L_j, B_k] = i\hbar \sum_{l=1}^3 \epsilon_{jkl} B_l, \quad [B_j, B_k] = i\hbar \sum_{l=1}^3 \epsilon_{jkl} L_l$$

- □ The hamiltonian of the hydrogen atom has SO(4) symmetry.

Spectrum of the hydrogen atom

- Isomorphism of $SO(4)$ and $SO(3) \oplus SO(3)$:

$$\vec{F}^{\pm} = \frac{1}{2}(\vec{L} \pm \vec{B}) \quad [F_j^{\pm}, F_k^{\pm}] = i\hbar \sum_{l=1}^3 \epsilon_{jkl} F_l^{\pm}, \quad [F_j^+, F_k^{\pm}] = 0$$

- Since $\mathbf{L}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ are orthogonal:

$$\langle \vec{F}^{\pm} \cdot \vec{F}^{\pm} \rangle = j_{\pm}(j_{\pm} + 1) \hbar^2 \quad \langle \vec{F}^+ \cdot \vec{F}^+ \rangle = \langle \vec{F}^- \cdot \vec{F}^- \rangle \equiv j(j + 1) \hbar^2$$

- Since the following operator relation is valid,

$$A^2 = \frac{2H}{M} (L^2 + \hbar^2) + \epsilon^2$$

- ...the hydrogen spectrum follows:

$$\frac{1}{4} \left\langle L^2 + \frac{M}{2H} A^2 \right\rangle = j(j + 1) \hbar^2 \quad E = - \frac{M \epsilon^2}{2\hbar^2 (2j + 1)^2}, \quad j = 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, \dots$$

Casimir or invariant operators

- Operators that commute with all generators of a Lie algebra G are called **Casimir** operators $C_n[G]$ where n is the order in the generators.

- Thus H has symmetry G if

$$H = \sum_n C_n[G] \quad \forall g_i \in G : [H, g_i] = 0$$

- Second-order Casimir operator ($n=2$):

$$C_2[G] = \sum_{ij} \tilde{c}^{ij} g_i g_j, \quad \tilde{c}_{ij} = \sum_{kl} c_{ik}^l c_{jl}^k \quad \tilde{c}^{ij} \tilde{c}_{jk} = \delta_{ik}$$

- Second-order Casimir operator of $SO(3)$:

$$C_2[SO(3)] = \sum_{i=1}^3 J_i^2 \equiv \vec{J}^2$$

Dynamical symmetry

- Assume (at least) two algebras G_1 G_2 and the hamiltonian:

$$H = \sum_{n_1} \omega_{n_1} C_{n_1}[G_1] + \sum_{n_2} \omega'_{n_2} C_{n_2}[G_2]$$

- H has symmetry G_2 but *not* symmetry G_1 !
- Eigenstates $|\omega_1 \omega_2 \omega'_2\rangle$ of H are independent of parameters ω_n and ω'_n in the hamiltonian.
- Dynamical symmetry (DS) breaking “*splits but does not admix eigenstates*”.
- Better name: spectrum generating algebra.

Isospin symmetry in nuclei

- Empirical observations:
 - About equal masses of n(eutron) and p(roton).
 - n and p have spin 1/2.
 - Equal (to $\sim 1\%$) nn, np, pp strong forces.
- This suggests introduction of isospin label and isospin symmetry of nuclear hamiltonian:
$$\begin{aligned} n : \quad t = \frac{1}{2}, m_t = +\frac{1}{2}; \quad p : \quad t = \frac{1}{2}, m_t = -\frac{1}{2} \\ \square \quad t_+ n = 0, \quad t_+ p = n, \quad t_- n = p, \quad t_- p = 0, \quad t_z n = \frac{1}{2} n, \quad t_z p = -\frac{1}{2} p \end{aligned}$$

W. Heisenberg, Z. Phys. **77** (1932) 1
E.P. Wigner, Phys. Rev. **51** (1937) 106

Isospin SU(2) symmetry

- Isospin operators form an SU(2) algebra:

$$[t_z, t_{\pm}] = \pm t_{\pm}, \quad [t_+, t_-] = 2t_z$$

- Assume the nuclear hamiltonian satisfies

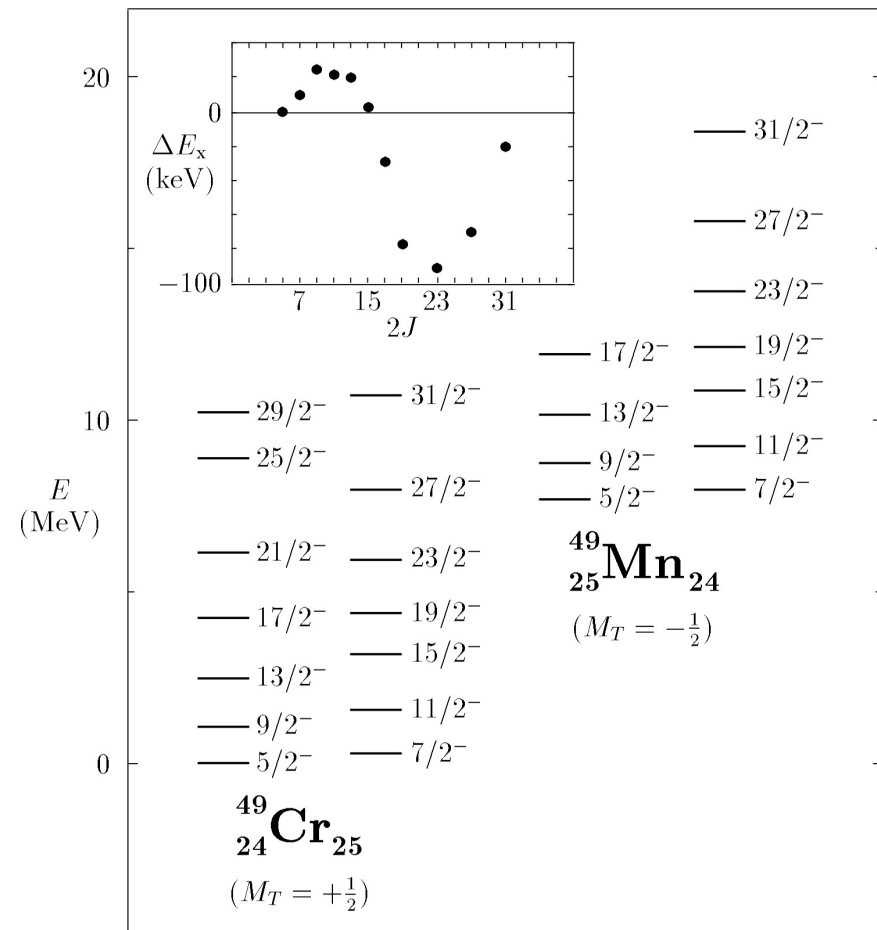
$$[H_{\text{nuc}}, T_{\pm}] = 0, \quad T_{\pm} = \sum_{k=1}^A t_{\pm}(k)$$

- H_{nuc} has SU(2) symmetry with degenerate states belonging to isobaric multiplets:

$$|ITM_T\rangle, \quad M_T = -T, -T+1, \dots, +T$$

Isospin symmetry breaking

- Empirical evidence for isospin symmetry breaking from isobaric multiplets.
- Example: $T=1/2$ doublet of $A=49$ nuclei.



C.D. O'Leary *et al.*, Phys. Rev. Lett. **79** (1997) 4349

Isospin SU(2) dynamical symmetry

- The Coulomb interaction can be written *approximately* as

$$H_{\text{Coul}} \approx \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 T_z + \alpha_2 T_z^2 \quad [H_{\text{Coul}}, T_z] = 0, \quad [H_{\text{Coul}}, T_{\pm}] \neq 0$$

- H_{Coul} has SU(2) dynamical symmetry and SO(2) symmetry.

- M_T -degeneracy is lifted according to

$$H_{\text{Coul}} |\alpha T M_T\rangle = (\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 M_T + \alpha_2 M_T^2) |\alpha T M_T\rangle$$

- Summary of state labelling:

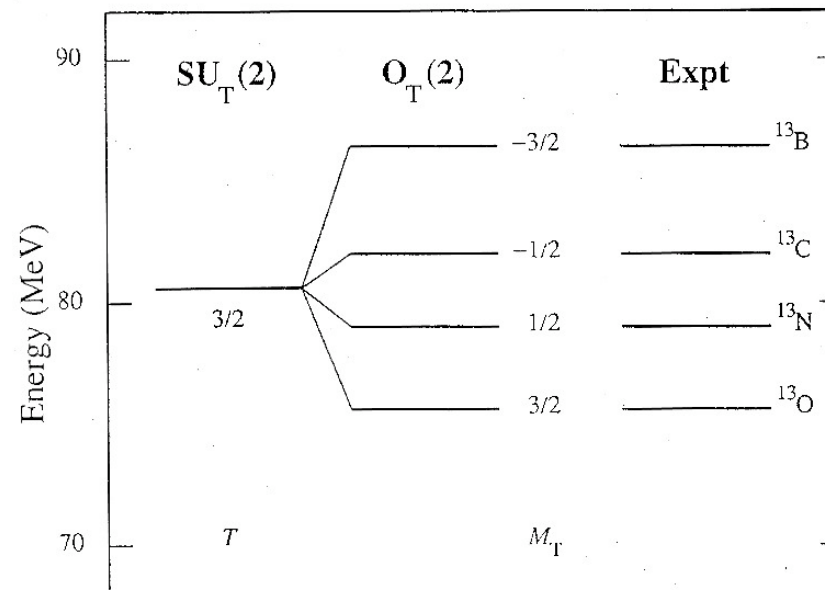
SU(2)	SO(2)
α	α
T	M_T

Isobaric multiplet mass equation

- Isobaric multiplet mass equation:

$$E(\pi T M_T) = \pi(\pi, T) + \pi_1 M_T + \pi_2 M_T^2$$

- Example: $T=3/2$ multiplet for $A=13$ nuclei.



E.P. Wigner, *Proc. Robert A. Welch Foundation Conf. On Chemical Research*, (Welch Foundation, Houston, 1958) p. 88

Symmetries in $N \sim Z$ nuclei (I), Valencia, September 2003

Flavour SU(3) dynamical symmetry

- Enlarge isospin SU(2) to SU(3) to connect more ‘elementary’ particles:

$$\text{SU}(3) = \{T_z, T_{\pm}, Y, U_{\pm}, V_{\pm}\}$$

- Mass operator M with SU(3) symmetry:

$$\forall g_i \in \text{SU}(3): [M, g_i] = 0$$

- Mass operator M with SU(3) DS:

SU(3)	U(1)	[SU(2)	SO(2)]
$\square$	$\square$	$\square$	$\square$
$(\square, \square)$	Y	T	M_T

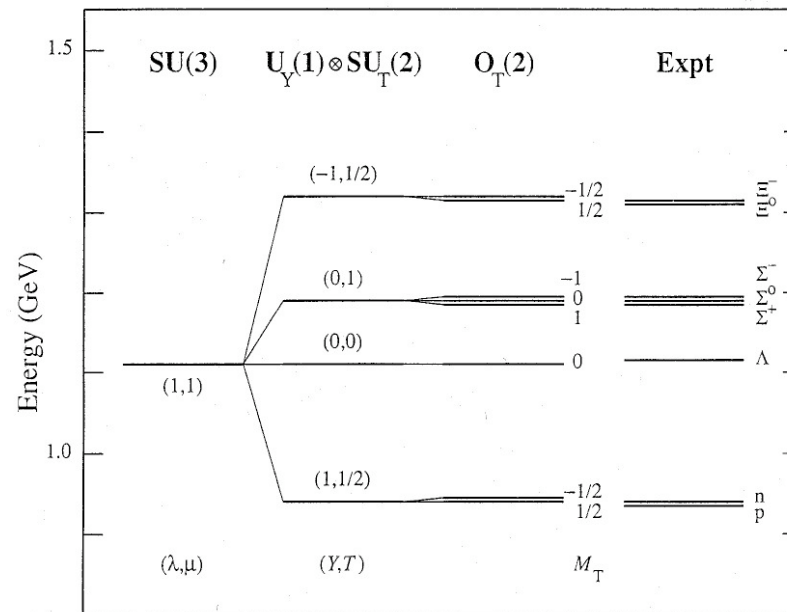
M. Gell-Mann, Phys. Rev. **125** (1962) 1067
S. Okubo, Prog. Theor. Phys. **27** (1962) 949

Gell-Mann-Okubo mass formula

- Gell-Mann-Okubo mass formula:

$$E(\lambda\mu Y T M_T) = a(\lambda, \mu) + b_1 Y + b_2 \left(T(T+1) - \frac{1}{4} Y^2 \right) + b_3 M_T + b_4 M_T^2$$

- Example: (1,1) octet.



Selection rules

- The most important consequence of a (dynamical) symmetry is the existence of *conserved quantum numbers*. These lead to selection rules in radiative-transition and particle-transfer processes.
- Assume that eigenstates and transition/transfer operators (tensors) carry labels $\square$ and $\square$:

G_1	G_2
$\square$	$\square$
$\square$	$\square$

Selection rules

- Assume a transition/transfer process:

$$|i i\rangle \rightarrow |f f\rangle$$

- The process is allowed if and only if

$$J_f \geq J_i \pm 1$$

- The *intensity* of the process is governed by the generalized **Wigner-Eckart** theorem:

$$\langle f f | T_q | i i \rangle = \langle i i \rangle \langle f f | T_q | i i \rangle \langle f || T || i \rangle$$

$$\langle i i \rangle \langle f f | T_q | i i \rangle : \text{generalized } \mathbf{Clebsch} \text{ } \mathbf{Gordan} \text{ coefficients}$$

$$\langle f || T || i \rangle : \text{reduced matrix element (no } q \text{ dependence)}$$

Angular momentum selection rules

- SO(3) symmetry implies eigenstates $|JM_J\rangle$
- Consider *e.g.* the $E2$ transition operator:

$$T_{\square}^{E2} = \sum_{k=-2}^2 e_k r^2(k) Y_{2\square}(\square_k, \square_k)$$

- Wigner-Eckart theorem:

$$\langle J_f M_{Jf} | T_{\square}^{E2} | J_i M_{Ji} \rangle = \langle J_i M_{Ji} 2\square | J_f M_{Jf} \rangle \langle J_f || T^{E2} || J_i \rangle$$

- Selection rule:

$$J_f \square J_i \square 2 \square \quad J_f = |J_i \square 2|, |J_i \square 1|, J_i, J_i + 1, J_i + 2$$

Isospin selection rules

- SU(2) symmetry implies eigenstates $|T M_T\rangle$

- Internal $E1$ transition operator is isovector:

$$T_{\square}^{E1} = \sum_{k=1}^A e_k r_{\square}(k) = \frac{e}{2} \left(\sum_{k=1}^A r_{\square}(k) + 2 \sum_{k=1}^A t_z(k) r_{\square}(k) \right)$$

- Wigner-Eckart theorem:

$$\langle T_f M_{Tf} | T_0^{E1} | T_i M_{Ti} \rangle = \langle T_i M_{Ti} 10 | T_f M_{Tf} \rangle \langle T_f || T^{E1} || T_i \rangle$$

- Selection rule for $N=Z$ nuclei:

$$M_{Ti} = M_{Tf} = 0: \quad \langle T_i 0 10 | T_f 0 \rangle = 0 \text{ for } T_i = T_f$$

- *No $E1$ transitions are allowed between $N=Z$ states with the same isospin.*

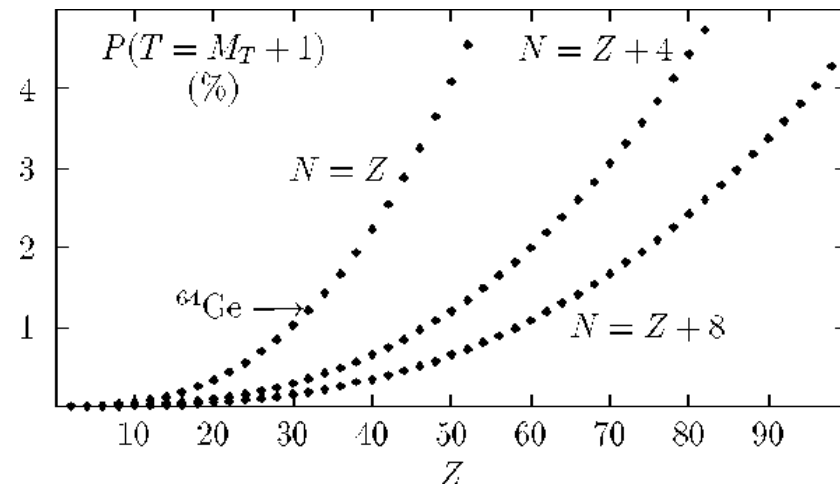
L.E.H. Trainor, Phys. Rev. **85** (1952) 962
L.A. Radicati, Phys. Rev. **87** (1952) 521

Coulomb isospin mixing

- Coulomb interaction has isoscalar, isovector and isotensor parts:

$$H_{\text{Coul}} = \sum_{k < l} e_k e_l / r_{kl} = e^2 \sum_{k < l} \left(\frac{1}{2} + t_z(k) \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} + t_z(l) \right) / r_{kl}$$

- Isovector part is main responsible of mixing.
- Many approaches to calculate mixing. All give maximum for $N=Z$.

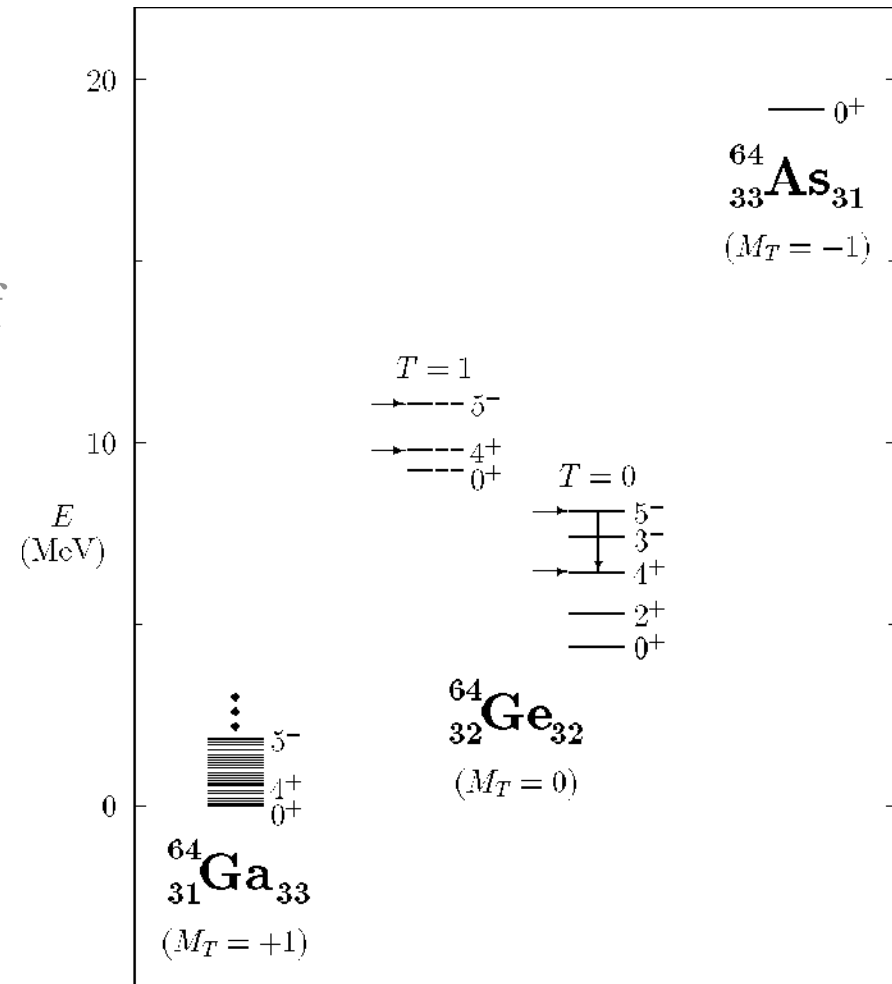


$E1$ transitions and isospin mixing

- $B(E1; 5^- \rightarrow 4^+)$ in ^{64}Ge from:
 - lifetime of 5^- level;
 - $\square(E1/M2)$ mixing ratio of $5^- \rightarrow 4^+$ transition;
 - relative intensities of transitions deexciting 5^- .

- Estimate of minimum isospin mixing:

$$P(T = 1, 5^-) \square P(T = 1, 4^+) \square 2.5\%$$



Quantal many-body systems

- Generic many-body hamiltonian:

$$H = \sum_i \epsilon_i c_i^\dagger c_i + \sum_{ijkl} \epsilon_{ijkl} c_i^\dagger c_j^\dagger c_k c_l + \dots$$

- Rewrite H as (bosons: $q=0$; fermions: $q=1$)

$$H = \sum_{il} \epsilon_{il} \sum_{\sigma} c_{i\sigma}^\dagger c_{i\sigma} c_{l\sigma}^\dagger c_{l\sigma} + \sum_j \epsilon_j \sum_{\sigma} c_j^\dagger c_j + \dots$$

- Operators $u_{ij} \equiv c_i^\dagger c_j$ generate $U(n)$ for $q=0,1$:

$$[u_{ij}, u_{kl}] = u_{il} \delta_{jk} - u_{kj} \delta_{il} + \underbrace{(1 - \delta_{ij})}_{0} [c_i^\dagger c_k^\dagger c_l c_j + c_i^\dagger c_k^\dagger c_j c_l]$$

Quantal many-body systems

- Given a chain of nested algebras:

$$U(n) = G_{\text{SGA}} = G_1 \supset G_2 \supset \cdots \supset G_{\text{sym}}$$

- A *particular* class of many-body hamiltonians is of the form:

$$H = \sum_{n_1} C_{n_1}[G_1] + \sum_{n_2} C_{n_2}[G_2] + \cdots$$

- H is a sum of commuting operators,

$$\forall n_a, n_b, a, b : [C_{n_a}[G_a], C_{n_b}[G_b]] = 0$$

- ...and is thus integrable and solvable!