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## A SHORT INTRODUCTION TO GROUP THEORY

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BMinNT: group theory is the perfect illustration of a Bridging Method in Nuclear Theory !

## OUTLINE

- General considerations on group theory
- Some simple quantum mechanical applications
- Rotations in 2 and 3 dimensions
- Dynamical symmetries
- The unitary group $U(n)$


## GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS ON GROUP THEORY

## WHAT IS A GROUP?

## THIS IS A VERY NICE GROUP!



## WHAT IS A GROUP ?

A group $G$ is an ensemble of elements $G=\{E, A, B, C, D \ldots\}$ with an internal multiplication law o such that:

- $\forall A, B \in G, A \circ B \in G$ and $B \circ A \in G$ (closure relation).
- $\forall A, B, C \in G, A \circ(B \circ C)=(A \circ B) \circ C$ (associativity).
- There exists an identity element $E$ (from the german word Einheit) such that $\forall A \in G, A \circ E=E \circ A=A$.
- $\forall A \in G$, there exists an inverse $A^{-1} \in G$ such that $A \circ A^{-1}=A^{-1} \circ A=E$.

Remarks:
$\longrightarrow$ Often the symbol $\circ$ is omitted.
$\longrightarrow$ In general the commutation is NOT commutative. If it is the case, the group is called abelian.

## A FEW EXAMPLES...

- All integers under addition (infinite, discrete, abelian group).
- The $n$ complex numbers $\exp (2 \pi m i / n), m=0,1, \ldots, n-1$ under multiplication (cyclic group $C_{n}$, abelian).
- Two-dimensional rotation group $R_{2}$ (abelian).
- Three-dimensional rotation group $R_{3}$ (non-abelian !).
- Etc. etc. etc.


## AN EXAMPLE OF A POINT GROUP

Symmetry group of the Eiffel Tower in Paris: $C_{4 v}$ (point-group)

$$
C_{4 v}=\left\{E, C_{4}, C_{4}^{2}, C_{4}^{3}, \sigma_{v}^{(1)}, \sigma_{v}^{(2)}, \sigma_{v}^{(3)}, \sigma_{v}^{(4)}\right\}
$$



EXERCISE: explain what are the elements of the group $C_{4 v}$ !

- The number of elements of a group $g \equiv|G|$ is the order of the group. If $g$ is (in)finite, the groupe is called (in)finite.
- For a given element $A$, the different powers $A^{2}, A^{3}$ etc. belong to the group! Therefore, for a finite group, there exists an integer $n$ such that $A^{n} \in G$. The smallest integer for which this relation holds is the order of the element $A$.
- The ensemble $\left\{E, A, A^{2}, A^{3} \ldots\right\}$ forms the cyclic group of order $n$. Cyclic groups are abelian!
- An ensemble $\{A, B, C, D \ldots\}$ of elements of $G$ is an ensemble of generators of the group if every element of $G$ is expressible as a finite product of powers of $\{A, B, C, D \ldots\}$.
Note that a cyclic group is generated by a unique generator.
- $G_{S}$ is a subgroup of $G$ if it is itself a group with the same multiplication law $\circ$. Notation: $G \supset G_{S}$.


## INVARIANT SUBGROUPS

- A subgroup $H$ of a group $G$ is an invariant subgroup in $G$ when $g\{H\} g^{-1}=\{H\}, \forall g \in G$, i.e. $g h g^{-1} \in H, \forall g \in G$ and $\forall h \in H$.
- A group possessing no invariant subgroup apart from $E$ and $G$ itself is called simple.
- A group is called semi-simple if its invariant subgroups are non-abelian.


## COSETS, CONJUGATED ELEMENTS AND CLASSES

- Be $H$ a (proper) sub-group of $G(|H|<|G|)$, and $g \in G(g \notin H)$. $\{g \circ H\}$ is called the left coset of $H$ in $G$ and $\{H \circ g\}$ is called the right coset of $H$ in $G$, with respect to $g$.
- An element $B \in G$ is the conjugated of $A$ if one can find $g \in G$ such that $B=g A g^{-1}$.

Remark: since $A=g^{-1} B g, A$ is also the conjugated element of the element $B$.

- Conjugated elements form a class of conjugated elements or, simply, a class.


## LINEAR AND MATRIX REPRESENTATIONS OF A GROUP

- An application $F$ (which associates to each element $g$ an image $F(g))$ is said to be homomorphic if

$$
F\left(g_{1}\right) F\left(g_{2}\right)=F\left(g_{1} g_{2}\right)
$$

- Be now a linear vector space $\mathcal{V}$ with an ensemble of transformations $\mathcal{A}=\left\{T, T^{\prime}, T^{\prime \prime}, \ldots\right\}$ acting in $\mathcal{V}$, i.e. $T(\alpha u+\beta v)=\alpha T u+\beta T v, \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ and $u, v \in \mathcal{V}$.
If $\mathcal{A}$ is homomorphic to a group $G$, then $\mathcal{A}$ is called a linear representation of $G$.
- If $\mathcal{V}$ is of finite dimension, the relation $v^{\prime}=T v$ can be expressed, within a given basis, as $v_{i}^{\prime}=\sum_{j} D_{i j}(g) v_{j}$.
The set of matrices $\{D(g), g \in G\}$ forms a group under matrix multiplication, and the correspondance $g \rightarrow D(g)$ is called a matrix representation of $G$.


## REDUCIBLE/IRREDUCIBLE and EQUIVALENT REPRESENTATIONS

## Reducible/irreducible representations

- $\mathcal{A}$ is said to be a reducible representation of a group $G$ in a vector space $\mathcal{V}$ if there exists in $\mathcal{V}$ a subspace $\mathcal{V}^{\prime}$ invariant with respect to the transformations $\mathcal{A}$.
- If $\mathcal{A}$ is not reducible (i.e. only $\mathcal{V}$ itself is invariant), then $\mathcal{A}$ is an irrreducible representation (irrep) of $G$.


## Equivalent representations

- Be 2 matrix representations $T=\{T(E), T(A), T(B) \ldots\}$ and $T^{\prime}=\left\{T^{\prime}(E), T^{\prime}(A), T^{\prime}(B) \ldots\right\}$ of a group $G$.
- Suppose the existence of a non-singular matrix $S$ such that $T(A)=S^{-1} T^{\prime}(A) S$ (and identical relations with $B, C \ldots$ ).
- Then $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ are 2 equivalent representations of $G$.


## NOW TWO SHORT EXERCICES!

## EXERCISE 1

Show that $T(E)=\mathbb{I}$ (unity matrix).

## EXERCISE 2

Show that $T\left(A^{-1}\right)=[T(A)]^{-1}$.

## SOLUTION TO EXERCISE 1

$\forall A \in G, E A=A E=A$ implies that

$$
T(E) T(A)=T(A) T(E)=T(A)
$$

If one supposes $\operatorname{det} T(A) \neq 0$, this matrix equation can only be satisfied for $T(E)=\mathbb{I}$, q.e.d.

## SOLUTION TO EXERCISE 2

Since we have $A A^{-1}=E$, it follows that
$T\left(A A^{-1}\right)=T(A) T\left(A^{-1}\right)=T(E)=\mathbb{I}$.
Again, with the assumption $\operatorname{det} T(A) \neq 0$, we obtain immediately $T\left(A^{-1}\right)=[T(A)]^{-1}$, q.e.d.

## DIRECT PRODUCT OF GROUPS

- Be two groups $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$. We define the product of pair elements as

$$
\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right) \times\left(g_{1}^{\prime}, g_{2}^{\prime}\right) \equiv\left(g_{1} \circ g_{1}^{\prime}, g_{2} \bullet g_{2}^{\prime}\right)
$$

for $g_{1}, g_{1}^{\prime} \in G_{1}$ and $g_{2}, g_{2}^{\prime} \in G_{2}$.

- The ensemble $G_{1} \otimes G_{2}$ of pairs $\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right)$ form a group under the multiplication $\times$, called direct product of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$.


## CHARACTERS

Let us start wit two equivalent representations $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ : $\forall A \in G, T^{\prime}(A)=S T(A) S^{-1}$ (similarity transformation).

EXERCISE: show that the trace is invariant with respect to the similarity transformation, i.e. $\operatorname{Tr} T^{\prime}=\operatorname{Tr} T$.

## CHARACTERS

## SOLUTION:

We have $T^{\prime}=S T S^{-1}$, and therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Tr} T^{\prime} & =\sum_{i} T_{i i}^{\prime} \\
& =\sum_{i}\left[S T S^{-1}\right]_{i i} \\
& =\sum_{i}\left[\sum_{k} S_{i k}\left(T S^{-1}\right)_{k i}\right] \\
& =\sum_{i} \sum_{k} S_{i k} \sum_{l} T_{k l}\left(S^{-1}\right)_{l i} \\
& =\sum_{k l} T_{k l} \sum_{i}\left(S^{-1}\right)_{l i} S_{i k}
\end{aligned}
$$

## CHARACTERS

Using now the fact that $S^{-1} S=\mathbb{I}$, or, explicitly,

$$
\left(S^{-1} S\right)_{l k}=\delta_{l k}=\sum_{i} S_{i k}\left(S^{-1}\right)_{l i}
$$

we end up with

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Tr} T^{\prime} & =\sum_{k l} T_{k l} \sum_{i}\left(S^{-1}\right)_{l i} S_{i k} \\
& =\sum_{k l} T_{k l} \delta_{l k} \\
& =\sum_{k} T_{k k} \\
& =\operatorname{Tr} T \quad \text { q.e.d. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## CHARACTERS

## Definition

Be $g \in G$ and $D(g)$ its representation, of matrix $(D(g))_{i j}$. The character of $g \in G$ in the representation $D(g)$ is defined as the trace

$$
\chi(g) \equiv \operatorname{Tr}[D(g)] \equiv \sum_{i}(D(g))_{i i}
$$

## Theorem

Be $g, h, g^{\prime} \in G$ such that $g^{\prime}=h \circ g \circ h^{-1}$, meaning that $g$ and $g^{\prime}$ belong to the same class of equivalence. One has $\chi\left(g^{\prime}\right)=\chi(g)$.
$\rightarrow$ One says that all elements in a class have the same character in a given representation.
$\rightarrow$ The character is therefore a function of classes, similarly to the fact that a representation is a function of the elements of a group.

## SCHUR'S LEMMAS and CRITERIA OF IRREDUCIBILITY

## Schur's lemma (a)

If $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ are two irreps of a group $G$ of different dimensions, and if matrix $A$ satisfies $D(g) A=A D^{\prime}(g), \quad \forall g \in G$, then $A=0$.

## Schur's lemma (b)

If $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ are two irreps of a group $G$ of equal dimensions, and if matrix $A$ satisfies $D(g) A=A D^{\prime}(g), \quad \forall g \in G$, then
i) Either $A=0$,
ii) or $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ are inequivalent, and $\operatorname{det} A \neq 0$.

If the matrices $D(g)$ form an irrep of a group $G$, and if $D(g) A=A D(g), \quad \forall g \in G$, then $A=\lambda \mathbb{I}$ or $A=0(\lambda$ being a constant).

## PROPERTIES

## Property 1

The number of non-equivalent irreducible representations of a given group is EQUAL to the number of classes in the group.

## Property 2

If $d_{\mu}$ denotes the dimension of irrep $[\mu], n_{i r r}$. the number of irreps and $n_{G}$ the order of a group, it can be shown that

$$
\sum_{\mu=1}^{n_{i r r}} d_{\mu}^{2}=n_{G}
$$

For an ABELIAN group, we have $\forall g, g^{\prime} \in G, g g^{\prime}=g^{\prime} g$ and thus $g^{\prime}=g g^{\prime} g^{-1}$. This means that for an abelian group, each element forms its own class.

Consequently, for an abelian group, the number of equivalence classes is equal to $n_{G}$, the order of the group (=number of elements of the group).

Therefore, for an abelian group, the number of non-equivalent irreducible representations is equal to the order of the group $\left(n_{\text {irr. }}=N_{G}\right)$.

Using property 2 seen previously, we get $\sum_{\mu=1}^{n_{G}} d_{\mu}^{2}=n_{G}$, which is only possible with $d_{\mu}=1, \forall \mu$ !

Thus, for an abelian group, the irreducible representations are all one-dimensional.

## REPRESENTATIONS OF ABELIAN GROUPS

Consider now a FINITE abelian group. In such a case, the order of each element, say $k$, is finite, and we have the property

$$
g^{k}=E \longleftrightarrow D\left(g^{k}\right)=D(E) \longleftrightarrow[D(g)]^{k}=1
$$

Of course, for one-dimensional representations, matrix and character will coincide:

$$
[D(g)]_{11}=\chi(g)
$$

Therefore we get the result

$$
\chi(g)=\exp 2 \pi i l / k, \quad l=1, \ldots, k
$$

In other words: for such representations, the numerical values of the characters are the complex roots of unity.

## A SIMPLE ILLUSTRATION

Let us consider the point-group $C_{2}=\left\{E, \hat{C}_{2}\right\}$.
For this particular example we have $n_{i r r}=2$, and each of these two irreps is one-dimensional, since the group is abelian. We denote them by $D^{[1]}$ and $D^{[2]}$.

We have $D^{[1]}(E)=\chi^{(1)}(E)=\mathbb{I}$ and $D^{[2]}(E)=\chi^{(2)}(E)=\mathbb{I}$.
Furthermore one has $\hat{C}_{2}^{2}=E$, wherefrom $\left[\chi\left(\hat{C}_{2}\right)\right]^{2}=1$, and thus $\chi\left(\hat{C}_{2}\right)= \pm 1$. We will then attribute arbitrarily $\chi\left(\hat{C}_{2}\right)=+1$ to $\chi^{(1)}$, and $\chi\left(\hat{C}_{2}\right)=-1$ to $\chi^{(2)}$.

The results are usually summarized in a character table:

| $\mathrm{C}_{2}$ | E | $\hat{C}_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $D^{(1)}$ | +1 | +1 |
| $D^{(1)}$ | +1 | -1 |

# QUANTUM MECHANICAL APPLICATIONS 

## SPECTROSCOPIC PROPERTIES

- Consider a hamiltonian $H$ of a quantal system invariant under all symetry transformations $g$ of a group $G$. One says also that $G$ is the symmetry group of $H:[H, D(g)]=0, \forall g \in G$.
- The irreps of the group are denoted by $D_{i j}^{[\mu]}(g)$, and the corresponding invariant subspaces by $\left\{\varphi^{[\mu]} ; \mu=1, \ldots, n_{i r r}\right\}$ : $\{\varphi\}=\left\{\varphi^{\left[\mu_{1}\right]}\right\} \oplus \ldots \oplus\left\{\varphi^{\left[\mu_{n_{i r r}}\right]}\right\}$.
- In each sub-space one can introduce a basis:

$$
B^{[\mu]} \equiv\left\{\psi_{i}^{[\mu]} ; i=1, \ldots, n_{\mu}\right\}
$$

Using Schur's lemma, one can demonstrate the following theorem:

$$
\left\langle\psi_{i}^{[\mu]}\right| H\left|\psi_{j}^{[\nu]}\right\rangle=\delta_{\mu \nu}\left\langle\psi_{i}^{[\mu]}\right| H\left|\psi_{j}^{[\mu]}\right\rangle
$$

## SPECTROSCOPIC PROPERTIES

One demonstrates the following property:

$$
\sum_{g \in G} D_{I m}^{[\mu]^{*}} D(g) \psi_{i}^{[\nu]}=\frac{n_{G}}{n_{\nu}} \delta_{\mu \nu} \delta_{m i} \psi_{l}^{[\nu]}
$$

$\operatorname{Be} \varphi_{i}^{[\mu]}$ a solution of the Schrödinger equation $H \varphi_{i}^{[\mu]}=e^{[\mu]} \varphi_{i}^{[\mu]}$. One demonstrates that $H \varphi_{j}^{[\mu]}=e^{[\mu]} \varphi_{j}^{[\mu]}$, which means that:

- All members of the multiplet can be generated starting from one of it's member (this is demonstrated with the help of the above property). ( $\rightarrow$ A multiplet is in fact an an irreducible invariant subspace of a given group).
- All members of the multiplet are degenerate with respect to the same eigen-energy.


## LIE GROUPS

A Lie group G of order $r$ is a special case of of continuous group whose elements are noted $R(a) ; a \equiv\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{r}\right)$ represent $r$ real parameters. It obeys the following 5 postulates:

- There exists an identity element $R\left(a_{0}\right)$ such that $R\left(a_{0}\right) R(a)=R(a) R\left(a_{0}\right)=R(a), \quad \forall R(a) \in G$.
NB: usually one takes $a_{0}=0$.
- For all a one can find $\bar{a}$ such that $R(\bar{a}) R(a)=R(a) R(\bar{a})=R(0)$, which means that for all $R(a)$ there exists an inverse $R(\bar{a})=R^{-1}(a)$.
- For given parameters $a$ and $b$ one can find parameters $c$ such that $R(c)=R(b) R(a)$, where $c$ are real functions of $a$ and $b$, i.e. $c=\varphi(a, b)$ (combination law for the group parameters).
- Associativity: $R(a)[R(b) R(c)]=[R(a) R(b)] R(c)$ and $\varphi(\varphi(c, b), a)=\varphi(c, \varphi(b, a))$.
- Parameters $c$ above are analytical functions of $a$ and $b$, and $\bar{a}$ are analytical functions of $a$.

NB: if the parameters are bounded the Lie group is called compact. $30 / 69$

## LIE ALGEBRAS

A (real or complex) vector space $\mathcal{A}$ is called a Lie algebra if it has been defined a Lie multiplication or commutator $[X, Y]$ satisfying, $\forall X, Y, Z \in \mathcal{A}$ :

- $[X, Y] \in \mathcal{A}$.
- $[\alpha X+\beta Y, Z]=\alpha[X, Z]+\beta[Y, Z], \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$ (bilinearity).
- $[X, Y]=-[Y, X]$.
- $[[X, Y], Z]+[[Y, Z], X]+[[Z, X], Y]=0$
(Jacobi associativity).
STRUCTURE CONSTANTS
Within the basis $\left\{e_{i} ; i=1, \ldots, n\right\}, X=\sum_{i} a_{i}^{X} e_{i}$ and $Y=\sum_{j} a_{j}^{Y} e_{j}$. One then writes $Z=[X, Y]=\sum_{k} a_{k}^{Z} e_{k}=\sum_{i j} a_{i}^{X} a_{j}^{Y}\left[e_{i}, e_{j}\right]$. Defining now the structure constants of the Lie algebra $\left[e_{i}, e_{j}\right]=\sum_{k} c_{i j}^{k} e_{k}$, one can write $a_{k}^{Z}=\sum_{i j} c_{i j}^{k} a_{i}^{X} a_{j}^{Y}$.


## GENERATORS OF LIE GROUPS

With the requirement of analyticity, each element $g$ in the neighborhood of the identity $E$ can be expressed as

$$
g\left(0, \ldots, \varepsilon_{j}, \ldots, 0\right) \simeq E+i \varepsilon_{j} l_{j}
$$

where

$$
\iota_{j} \equiv \frac{1}{i}\left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial \varepsilon_{j}}\right)_{(0)}
$$

are called the generators of the Lie group.
By successive application of the product one can reach an element of the group at finite distance from the identity:

$$
g(a) \equiv g\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{r}\right)=e^{i \sum_{i=1}^{r} a_{i} l_{i}}
$$

NB: a Lie group with $r$ parameters has $r$ generators.

## CASIMIR OPERATORS OF LIE GROUPS

- The maximal number of generators of a Lie group commuting with each other is it's rank.
- An operator commuting with all the generators of a Lie group is called a Casimir operator.

> Theorem of Racah
> The number of independent Casimir operators of a (semi-simple) Lie group is equal to the rank of this Lie group.

Fundamental interest: the eigenvalues of the Casimir operators can be used to label the irreps of a Lie group.

## LINK WITH LIE ALGEBRAS

It can be shown that for a given $r$-parameter Lie group, the generators $I_{i}$ have the following properties: if one defines the commutator (bracket) $\left[I_{i}, I_{j}\right] \equiv I_{i} I_{j}-I_{j} I_{i}$, then:

- $\left[I_{i}, I_{j}\right]$ is a linear combination of $I_{1}, I_{2}, \ldots, I_{r}$.
- $\left[I_{i}, I_{j}\right]=-\left[I_{j}, I_{i}\right]$.
- $\left[\left[I_{i}, I_{j}\right], I_{k}\right]+\left[\left[I_{j}, I_{k}\right], I_{i}\right]+\left[\left[I_{k}, I_{i}\right], I_{j}\right]=0$.
- The operators $I_{i}$ are independent, and can be chosen to form a basis of a vector space $\mathcal{A}$.

If, furthermore, one introduces the bracket [, ] as a product defined such that $K=\sum_{i}^{r} \alpha_{i} I_{i}, J=\sum_{j}^{r} \beta_{j} I_{j} \rightarrow[K, J]=\sum_{i j} \alpha_{i} \beta_{j}\left[I_{i}, I_{j}\right]$, then $\mathcal{A}$ is called the Lie algebra of the Lie group.

## LINK WITH LIE ALGEBRAS

- $\mathcal{A}$ is the ensemble of linear combinations of the generators of its corresponding Lie group.
- The relation $a_{k}^{Z}=\sum_{i j} c_{i j}^{k} a_{i}^{X} a_{j}^{Y}$ seen previously defines the multiplication table of this algebra.
- The relation $\left[I_{i}, I_{j}\right]=\sum_{k} c_{i j}^{k} I_{k}$ defines the structure constants $c_{i j}^{k}$ of the Lie group.
- Suppose now that one is able to find an ensemble of $r$ matrices of order $p$ satisfying the commutation relations of a Lie algebra. Then these matrices form a represenation of dimension $p$ of the Lie group, i.e.

A representation of a Lie algebra can be used to generate a representation of the associated Lie group.

Remark: structure constants characterize a Lie group; they do not depend on a specific representation. However they are not unique, similarly to the group generators.

THE GROUP $R_{2}$

- Consider the ensemble of rotations of a circle around an axis perpendicular to the circle, passing through its center.
- Each element of this ensemble can be characterized by a certain parameter taken as the rotation angle $\theta \in[0,2 \pi]$.
- This ensemble of elements constitutes an example of a continous, abelian, compact, doubly connected, one parameter Lie group, the group of axial rotations, or group of 2-dimensional rotations $R_{2}$.

EXERCISE: find out what is meant by doubly connected by making a simple figure!

- Be $T(\theta)$ an element of this group. The composition law is given by

$$
\begin{gathered}
T(\theta) T(\phi)=T(\phi) T(\theta)=T(\theta+\phi) \quad \text { if } \quad \theta+\phi<2 \pi \\
T(\theta) T(\phi)=T(\phi) T(\theta)=T(\theta+\phi-2 \pi) \quad \text { if } \quad \theta+\phi \geqslant 2 \pi
\end{gathered}
$$

- The identity is $E=T(0)$ and the inverse of $T(\theta)$ is $T(2 \pi-\theta)_{37 / 69}$


## A REPRESENTATION OF $R_{2}$

- What can be a representation of this group ?
- Consider a transformation of the cartesian coordinates $(x, y)$ of a point in a plane, under the rotations of $R_{2}$. This transformation is given (in a passive view) by

$$
T(\theta)\binom{x}{y} \equiv\binom{x^{\prime}}{y^{\prime}}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\cos \theta & \sin \theta \\
-\sin \theta & \cos \theta
\end{array}\right)\binom{x}{y}
$$

- To every element $T(\theta)$ one can associate an orthogonal $2 \times 2$ matrix of determinant +1 , this association being one-to-one. (Orthogonal matrix: $A^{T}=A^{-1}$ ).
- The ensemble of such matrices is called $\mathbf{S O ( 2 )}$ (Special means det $=+1$ ), and is isomorphic to the group $R_{2}$. It provides therefore a 2-dimensional representation of the group $R_{2}$.
- We have already observed that $R_{2}$ is an abelian group, which implies that its irreps must be one-dimensional.
- To find them, we can make use of the composition law, and remark that the only numbers (matrices $1 \times 1$ !) that satisfy to it have the form

$$
\chi(\theta)=e^{c \theta}
$$

where $c$ is a given number and $\chi(\theta)$ the character of $T(\theta)$.

- Now, since $T(2 \pi)=E$, and knowing that $E$ has to be represented by 1 in any one-dimensional representation, we get $e^{2 \pi c}=1$, wherefrom $c=i m$ with $m$ integer, or

$$
\chi^{(m)}(\theta)=e^{i m \theta}
$$

$\rightarrow$ For all integer value $m$, this equation provides an irrep of $R_{2}$ !

## GENERATORS OF $R_{2}$

- Since $S O(2)$ is a 1-parameter group, it has only 1 generator.
- However, this generator will depend on the group that has been taken as isomorphic to $R_{2}$.

EXAMPLE 1: the group $S O(2)$ itself. The generator is then given by

$$
I=\frac{1}{i} \lim _{\phi \rightarrow 0}\left\{\frac{\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\cos \theta & \sin \theta \\
-\sin \theta & \cos \theta
\end{array}\right)}{\phi}-\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right)\right\}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
+i & 0
\end{array}\right)=\sigma_{y}
$$

(Pauli matrix).
Any orthogonal $2 \times 2$ matrix with det $=+1$ can be written as

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\cos \theta & \sin \theta \\
-\sin \theta & \cos \theta
\end{array}\right)=e^{i \phi \sigma_{y}}
$$

## GENERATORS OF $R_{2}$

## EXAMPLE 2:

- Consider a certain function $f=f(x, y)$ and an orthogonal transformation of the coordinates as seen previously:

$$
T(\phi)\binom{x}{y} \equiv\binom{x^{\prime}}{y^{\prime}}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\cos \phi & \sin \phi \\
-\sin \phi & \cos \phi
\end{array}\right)\binom{x}{y}
$$

- The action of $T(\phi)$ on the function $f$ reads

$$
T(\phi) f(x, y)=f(x \cos \phi+y \sin \phi,-x \sin \phi+y \cos \phi)
$$

- The generator can be obtained using the relations

$$
\begin{aligned}
I f(x, y) & =\frac{1}{i} \lim _{\phi \rightarrow 0}\left\{\frac{f(x \cos \phi+y \sin \phi,-x \sin \phi+y \cos \phi)-f(x, y)}{\phi}\right\} \\
& =\frac{1}{i} \lim _{\phi \rightarrow 0}\left\{\frac{y \phi \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}-x \phi \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}}{\phi}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## GENERATORS OF $R_{2}$

- This expression then reduces to

$$
I f(x, y)=\frac{1}{i}\left(y \frac{\partial}{\partial x}-x \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right) f(x, y)
$$

- Introducing the $z$ component of the orbital angular momentum operator

$$
L_{z}=\frac{\hbar}{i}\left(x \frac{\partial}{\partial y}-y \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)=\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}
$$

it is seen that an orthogonal transformation of the coordinates in the $(x, y)$ plane is given by

$$
T(\phi)=e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \phi L_{z}}
$$

- The rank of $\mathrm{SO}(2)$ is 1 , because there is only 1 generator $L_{z}$. The eigenvalues are given by $m$.

THE GROUP $R_{3}$

- The group of all orthogonal spatial transformations in 3-dimensional space is usually denoted by $\mathrm{O}(3)$.
- Alternatively, $\mathrm{O}(3)$ can be defined as the group of all $3 \times 3$ orthogonal matrices.
- These two groups are isomorphic.
- In fact, one has $O(3)=S O(3) \otimes(E, \hat{l})$.

EXERCISE: explain why the ensemble of matrices of $\mathrm{O}(3)$ with det $=-1$, does NOT form a group, in contrast to $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ !

## PARAMETERS OF SO(3)

- According to the isomorphism between orthogonal matrices and orthogonal transformations, it is seen that an orthogonal matrix with det $=+1$ corresponds to a pure or proper rotation of the coordinate system.
- Orthogonal matrices with det $=-1$ correspond improper rotation of the coordinate system.
- $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ is a 3-parameter group which can be taken as follows: 2 angles (polar and azimuthal) characterizing the position of the rotation axis, plus the angle of rotation about this axis. This is known as the Darboux parametrization.


## PARAMETERS OF SO(3)

Another choice is given by the 3 Euler angles $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)$ : rotation about the $z$ axis by angle $\alpha$, followed by a rotation about the $y^{\prime}$ axis by angle $\beta$, followed by a rotation about the $z^{\prime \prime}$ axis by angle $\gamma$.

The Euler matrix rotation (general element of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ ) is

$$
R(\alpha, \beta, \gamma)=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
\cos \alpha \cos \beta \cos \gamma-\sin \alpha \sin \gamma & \sin \alpha \cos \beta \cos \gamma+\cos \alpha \sin \gamma & -\sin \beta \cos \gamma \\
-\cos \alpha \cos \beta \sin \gamma-\sin \alpha \cos \gamma & -\sin \alpha \cos \beta \sin \gamma+\cos \alpha \cos \gamma & \sin \beta \sin \gamma \\
\cos \alpha \sin \beta & \sin \alpha \sin \beta & \cos \beta
\end{array}\right)
$$

## GENERATORS OF SO(3)

- The generators of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ can be obtained by considering an infinite rotation of angle $\varepsilon$ about an axis $\vec{u}$.
- The group of rotations $R_{\vec{u}}(\phi)(0 \leqslant \phi<2 \pi)$ is in fact a sub-group of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$, isomorphic to $\mathrm{SO}(2)$ and therefore we have

$$
I_{\vec{u}}=-\frac{1}{\hbar} L_{u}, \quad L_{u}=\vec{L} \cdot \vec{u}
$$

- Since any rotation can be expressed as the product of 3 rotations about the cartesian axes, we need the 3 operators

$$
I_{x}=-\frac{1}{\hbar} L_{x}, \quad I_{y}=-\frac{1}{\hbar} L_{y}, \quad I_{z}=-\frac{1}{\hbar} L_{z}
$$

- Any rotation operator reads then

$$
R_{\vec{u}}(\phi)=e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \phi \vec{L} \cdot \vec{u}}
$$

## LABELLING IRREPS OF SO(3)

- There are 3 generators, but each of them commutes with itself: the rank of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ is 1 .
- The only Casimir operator for $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ is $\vec{L}^{2}$. Its eigenvalues $I(I+1)$, or simply the label $I$, serve to characterize the irreps $\mathcal{D}^{(I)}$, which are of dimensions $(2 I+1)$.
- The common eigenstates $|/ m\rangle$ of $\vec{L}^{2}$ and $L_{z}$ are introduced in quantum mechanics. The group-theoretical justification for their use is very simple, and stems from the group chain

$$
S O(3) \supset S O(2)
$$

$\rightarrow I$ and $m$ are labels for the Casimir operators of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ and SO(2), respectively !

## IRREPS OF THE 3-DIMENSIONAL ROTATION GROUP

- Using Dirac ket notations, one can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
R(\alpha \beta \gamma)|I m\rangle & =\sum_{m^{\prime}}\left|I m^{\prime}\right\rangle\left\langle I m^{\prime}\right| R(\alpha \beta \gamma)|I m\rangle \\
& =\sum_{m^{\prime}} \mathcal{D}_{m^{\prime} m}^{\prime}(\alpha \beta \gamma)\left|I m^{\prime}\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

- $\mathcal{D}_{m^{\prime} m}^{\prime}$ are called Wigner functions.
- EXERCISE: give a justification for this relation!
- Projecting onto $|\theta \phi\rangle$, one gets for the spherical harmonics $Y_{I m}(\theta \phi) \equiv\langle\theta \phi \mid / m\rangle:$

$$
R(\alpha \beta \gamma) Y_{l m}(\theta \phi)=\sum_{m^{\prime}=-I}^{+1} Y_{l m^{\prime}}(\theta \phi) \mathcal{D}_{m^{\prime} m}^{(I)}(\alpha \beta \gamma)
$$

- The spherical harmonics span/generate an irrep of dimension $(2 /+1)$ denoted by $\mathcal{D}^{(I)}$.


## IRREDUCIBLE SPHERICAL TENSORS

- An irreducible spherical tensor $T^{k}$, of rank $k$, is defined such that its $(2 k+1)$ components transform under rotations as

$$
T_{q}^{\prime k}=\sum_{q^{\prime}=-k}^{+k} T_{q^{\prime}}^{k} \mathcal{D}_{q^{\prime} q}^{(k)}(\alpha \beta \gamma)
$$

- An alternative (and equivalent) definition has been given by Racah:

$$
\left[J_{z}, T_{q}^{k}\right]=q T_{q}^{k}, \quad\left[J_{ \pm}, T_{q}^{k}\right]=\hbar \sqrt{k(k+1)-q(q \pm 1)} T_{q \pm 1}^{k}
$$

## SO(3) VERSUS SU(2)

Let us make a short intermezzo at this point !
Consider the Special Unitary Group $\operatorname{SU}(2)$ composed of all $2 \times 2$ unitary matrices $\left(U^{\dagger}=U^{-1}\right)$ with det $=+1$. They can be expressed as

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
a & -b^{*} \\
b^{*} & a^{*}
\end{array}\right), \quad a a^{*}+b b^{*}=1
$$

- $\operatorname{SU}(2)$ is a 3-parameter group ( $a$ and $b$ are called the Cayley-Klein parameters).
- One can show that each SU(2) matrix can be put into correspondence with a unique rotation of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$.
- However, the inverse is only partly true, since to each rotation of $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ correspond 2 different $\mathrm{SU}(2)$ matrices ! For example, to a rotation about Euler angles ( $\alpha=0, \beta=0, \gamma=0$ ) and ( $\alpha=0, \beta=2 \pi, \gamma=0$ ) (NO ROTATION AT ALL !) one associates the 2 different $\mathrm{SU}(2)$ matrices $+(I)_{2 \times 2}$ and $-(I)_{2 \times 2}$.
- One says that there is a 1 to 2 homomorphisme between $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ and $\operatorname{SU}(2)$.


## CLEBSH-GORDAN SERIES

- It is well known from the theory of angular momentum that the coupled and uncoupled bases are related by

$$
|J M\rangle=\sum_{m_{1} m_{2}}\left|j_{1} m_{1} ; j_{2} m_{2}\right\rangle\left\langle j_{1} m_{1} ; j_{2} m_{2} \mid J M\right\rangle
$$

- The brackets $\left\langle j_{1} m_{1} ; j_{2} m_{2} \mid J M\right\rangle=C_{j_{1} m_{1} ; j_{2} m_{2}}^{J M}$ are the Clebsh-Gordan coefficients.
- It can be shown that the direct product of two $\operatorname{SU}(2)$ irreps $\mathcal{D}^{\left(j_{1}\right)}$ and $\mathcal{D}^{\left(j_{2}\right)}$, denoted by $\mathcal{D}^{\left(j_{1}\right)} \otimes \mathcal{D}^{\left(j_{2}\right)}$ can be decomposed into the Clebsh-Gordan series

$$
\mathcal{D}^{\left(j_{1}\right)} \otimes \mathcal{D}^{\left(j_{2}\right)}=\sum_{J=\left|j_{1}-j_{2}\right|}^{J=j_{1}+j_{2}} \mathcal{D}^{(J)}
$$

- Group theory gives the full justification for the angular momentum coupling procedure !


## DIRECT AND IRREDUCIBLE TENSOR PRODUCTS

- Two irreducible spherical tensors $R^{k}$ and $S^{k^{\prime}}$ can be coupled to an irreducible spherical tensor $T^{K}=\left[R^{k} \otimes S^{k^{\prime}}\right]^{K}$ according to the rule

$$
T_{Q}^{K}=\sum_{q q^{\prime}} C_{k q ; k^{\prime} q^{\prime}}^{K Q} R_{q}^{k} S_{q^{\prime}}^{k^{\prime}}
$$

- The direct product of $R^{k}$ and $S^{k^{\prime}}$ is defined as the set of $(2 k+1)\left(2 k^{\prime}+1\right)$ components $R_{q}^{k} S_{q^{\prime}}^{k^{\prime}}$.
- The direct product is in general reducible and can be decomposed as a sum of irreducible tensors according to

$$
R_{q}^{k} S_{q^{\prime}}^{k^{\prime}}=\sum_{K=\left|k-k^{\prime}\right|}^{K=k+k^{\prime}} C_{k q ; k^{\prime} q^{\prime}}^{K Q} T_{Q}^{K}
$$

## DYNAMICAL SYMMETRIES

## DYNAMICAL SYMMETRIES

- We have seen previously some examples of geometrical symmetries.
- They arise in many branches of physics: molecular, atomic, nuclear physics...
- In the context of nuclear physics, they arise for example in the context of mean-field theories through the symmetry properties of the mean-field potential.
- There exist other forms of symmetries, called dynamical symmetries, as they stem from particular forms of the interactions in the system.

We will give now two well known example.

## DYNAMICAL SYMMETRY OF THE HYDROGEN ATOM

- We have noticed already that for a physical system, the bunching of levels (eigenstates) is related to the dimensions of the irreps of the corresponding symmetry group.
- The hamiltonian of the reduced problem for the hydrogen atom reflects spherical symmetry, thus the bound states should show the typical $(2 I+1)$ degeneracy characteristic for the $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ irreps.
- Eigenenergies are $E_{n}=-\frac{1}{n^{2}} E_{l}(n=1,2,3, \ldots)$, with ionization energy $E_{I} \simeq 13.6 \mathrm{eV}$.
- Each shell, characterized by $n$, is composed of subshells corresponding to the values $I=0,1,2, \ldots,(n-1)$.
- Each subshell with given $I$ is composed of $(2 I+1)$ magnetic substates: $-I \leqslant m \leqslant+I$.
- Therefore, each level of energy $E_{n}$ has degeneracy $g_{n}=\sum_{l=0}^{n-1}(2 l+1)=n^{2}$.
- It can be shown that in fact the dynamical symmetry of the hydrogen atom is $\mathrm{O}(4)$, which contains $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ as a subgroup.


## DYNAMICAL SYMMETRY OF THE ISOTROPIC HARMONIC OSCILLATOR

- The 3-dimensional isotropic harmonic oscillator is another example where the degeneracies of the bound states are larger than expected from the geometrical $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ symmetry group.
- Eigenenergies are $E_{n}=\left(n+\frac{3}{2}\right) \hbar \omega$ with $n=n_{x}+n_{y}+n_{z}$, and thus the degeneracy of the level $E_{n}$ is $(n+1)(n+2) / 2$.
- It can be shown that the dynamical symmetry group of the 3-dimensional isotropic harmonic oscillator is in fact $\mathrm{SU}(3)$, and, more generally, the dynamical symmetry group of a n-dimensional isotropic harmonic oscillator is $\mathrm{SU}(\mathrm{n})$.


## THE UNITARY GROUP U(n)

## THE UNITARY GROUP U(n)

The unitary group $\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{n})$ is the ensemble of $n \times n$ complex matrices satisfying $U U^{\dagger}=U^{\dagger} U=\mathbb{I}_{n}$.

One can observe that any unitary matrix $U$ can be expressed with the help of Cartan-Weyl matrices $e_{i j}$ (element in line $i$ and column $j$ equal to 1 , all other elements null) as

$$
U=\exp \left(i \sum_{i j} a_{i j} e_{i j}\right)
$$

where $a_{i j}$ are complex numbers satisfying $a_{i j}=a_{j i}^{*}$.

The structure constants of the $U(n)$ can be evaluated with the help of the Cartan-Weyl matrices :

$$
\left[e_{i j}, e_{k l}\right]=\delta_{j k} e_{i l}-\delta_{i l} e_{k j}, \quad i, j, k, l=1, \ldots, n .
$$

## THE UNITARY GROUP U(n) AND THE MANY-BODY PROBLEM

- Let us introduce the bosonic or fermionic creation $a_{i}^{\dagger}$ and annihilation $a_{i}$ operators satisfying the commutation or anti-commutation relations

$$
\left\{a_{i}, a_{j}^{\dagger}\right\}_{ \pm}=\delta_{i j} \quad \text { and } \quad\left\{a_{k}^{\dagger}, a_{l}^{\dagger}\right\}_{ \pm}=0
$$

- Define the operators $A_{i j}=a_{i}^{\dagger} a_{j}$.
- It is straightforward to show that these operators satisfy the commutation rules characteristic for the unitary group $\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{n})$ :

$$
\left[A_{i j}, A_{k l}\right]=\delta_{j k} A_{i l}-\delta_{i l} A_{k j}, \quad i, j, k, l=1, \ldots, n
$$

showing that :
The operators $A_{i j}=a_{i}^{\dagger} a_{j}(i, j=1, \ldots, n)$ can be considered as generators of the unitary group $\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{n})$.

## CONSTRUCTING BASIS FOR U(n) IRREPS

- We begin by constricting an ensemble of polynomials $P$ of order $p=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho_{i}$ in the operators $a_{i}^{\dagger}$ :

$$
P=a_{1}^{\dagger \rho_{1}} a_{2}^{\dagger \rho_{2}} a_{3}^{\dagger \rho_{3}} \ldots a_{n}^{\dagger \rho_{n}} .
$$

- It can be shown that this ensemble constitutes a basis of representations for the algebra of $U(n)$. These representations are however in general not irreducible.
- From now on we will identify each polynomial with its weight $w=\left[\rho_{1}, \rho_{2} \ldots, \rho_{n}\right]$, and we call i-th partial weight in $P$ the value $\rho_{i}$.
- Consider now two polynomials $P$ and $P^{\prime}$ with weights $w$ and $w^{\prime}$, respectively and construct the difference
$w^{\prime \prime}=w-w^{\prime}=\left[\left(\rho_{1}-\rho_{1}^{\prime}\right),\left(\rho_{2}-\rho_{2}^{\prime}\right) \ldots,\left(\rho_{n}-\rho_{n}^{\prime}\right)\right]$.
- We say that the weight of $P$ is greater than the weight of $P^{\prime}$ if, in $w^{\prime \prime}$, the first non-zero partial weight is positive.


## CONSTRUCTING BASIS FOR U(n) IRREPS

- Polynomials $P$ are eigenstates of the operators $A_{i i}$ with eigenvalues $\rho_{i}$. The operators $A_{i i}$ are therefore called weight generators.
- The operators $A_{i j}$ increase the weights of polynomials if $i<j$.
- The operators $A_{i j}$ decrease the weights of polynomials if $i>j$.
- A highest weight polynomial $P_{\max }$ is defined such that $A_{i j} P_{\max }=0, i<j$, polynomials with lower weights can be generated by repeated action of lowering-weight operators.

Each symbol $\left[\rho_{1}, \rho_{2} \ldots, \rho_{n}\right]_{\max }$ with $\rho_{1} \geqslant \rho_{2} \geqslant \ldots \geqslant \rho_{n}$ can serve to label an irrep of the group $\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{n})$. In each of these irreps, this symbol, called highest weight, is unique.

The so-called Gelfand-Zetlin approach is based on the following properties:

- As seen previously, each irrep of $U(n)$ can be characterized by its unique highest weight vector $\left[m_{1 n}, m_{2 n}, \ldots, m_{n n}\right.$, ] where $m_{1 n} \geqslant m_{2 n} \geqslant \ldots \geqslant m_{n n}$.
- Owing to the group chain $U(n) \supset U(n-1) \supset U(n-2) \supset \ldots \supset U(2) \supset U(1)$, it follows that each representation space of $U(n)$ can be decomposed into irreps with respect to $\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{n}-1)$, and so on. Therefore, in the irreps of $U(n)$ one only finds irreps of $U(n-1)$ where the partial weights of the heighest weights satisfy the betweeness conditions $m_{i n} \geqslant m_{i n-1} \geqslant m_{i+1 n}, \quad i=1, \ldots, n-1$.

One represents graphically the Gelfand-Zetlin states as follows

$$
(m)_{n}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccccc}
m_{1 n} & & m_{2 n} & & m_{3 n} & & \cdots & \\
& m_{1 n-1} & & m_{2 n-1} & & \ldots & & m_{n-1 n-1} \\
& & \ldots & & \ldots & & \ldots & \\
& & & m_{12} & & m_{22} & & \\
& & & & m_{11} & & &
\end{array}\right)
$$

or, in more compact form

$$
\left|(m)_{n}\right\rangle=\left|\binom{[m]_{n}}{(m)}\right\rangle
$$

## AN APPLICATION FOR MULTIFERMIONIC SYSTEMS

Consider a multifermionic hamiltonian with one-body and two-body interaction terms describing for example a mean-field plus a residual term:

$$
H=\sum_{\alpha \beta}\langle\alpha| h_{1}|\beta\rangle a_{\alpha}^{\dagger} a_{\beta}+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha \beta \gamma \delta}\langle\alpha \beta| h_{2}|\gamma \delta\rangle a_{\alpha}^{\dagger} a_{\beta}^{\dagger} a_{\delta} a_{\gamma} .
$$

QUESTION: what are the basis states allowing for the diagonalisation process of the many-body hamiltonian, in the case there are $p=2$ fermions located on $n=4$ valence orbitals ?

ANSWER: take the Gelfand-Zetlin construction for $\mathrm{U}(4)$, labelled by the highest weight [1100]!

## AN APPLICATION FOR MULTIFERMIONIC SYSTEMS

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |G Z\rangle_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccccc}
1 & & 1 & & 0 & & 0 \\
& 1 & & 1 & & 0 & \\
& & 1 & & 1 & &
\end{array}\right),|G Z\rangle_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & & 1 & & 0 & & 0 \\
& 1 & & 1 & & 0 & \\
& & & 1 & & 0 & \\
& & & & 1 & & \\
& & & & & &
\end{array}\right), \\
& |G Z\rangle_{3}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccccc}
1 & & 1 & & 0 & & 0 \\
& 1 & & 0 & & 0 & \\
& & 1 & & 0 & & \\
& & & 1 & & &
\end{array}\right),|G Z\rangle_{4}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
1 & & 1 & & 0 & \\
& 1 & & & & \\
& & & 1 & & 0
\end{array}\right) \\
& |G Z\rangle_{5}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccccc}
1 & & 1 & & 0 & & 0 \\
& 1 & & 0 & & 0 & \\
& & 1 & & 0 &
\end{array}\right),|G Z\rangle_{6}=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
1 & & 1 & & 0 & \\
& 1 & & 0 & & 0
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## A SIMPLE INTERPRETATION

Let us define the quantities

$$
\rho_{0}(m)=0 \quad \text { and } \quad \rho_{k}(m)=\sum_{j=1}^{k} m_{j k}, k=1, \ldots, n .
$$

Now, omitting the labels $m$, one defines the Gelfand-Zetlin weight vectors $|G Z\rangle_{i}$ as

$$
|G Z\rangle_{i}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\rho_{n}-\rho_{n-1} \\
\vdots \\
\rho_{2}-\rho_{1} \\
\rho_{1}-\rho_{0}
\end{array}\right)
$$

## A SIMPLE INTERPRETATION

In the case of the previous example, it is straightforward to get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& |G Z\rangle_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
1 \\
1
\end{array}\right), \quad|G Z\rangle_{2}=\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right) \\
& |G Z\rangle_{3}=\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right), \quad|G Z\rangle_{4}=\left(\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right) \\
& |G Z\rangle_{5}=\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right), \quad|G Z\rangle_{6}=\left(\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$\rightarrow$ Occupation representation !!!

## THANK YOU FOR YOUR ATTENTION!

