

PHY 745 Group Theory
11-11:50 AM MWF Olin 102

Plan for Lecture 28:

**Time reversal symmetry and
Magnetic groups
Chap. 16 in DDJ**

- 1. Effects of time reversal symmetry on point groups and space groups**
- 2. Effects of magnetic configurations on point groups and space groups**

Note: These slides contain materials from an electronic version of the Dresselhaus textbook.

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23	Mon: 03/20/2017	Chap. 7.7	Jahn-Teller Effect	#15	03/24/2017
24	Wed: 03/22/2017	Chap. 7.7	Jahn-Teller Effect		
25	Fri: 03/24/2017		Spin 1/2	#16	03/27/2017
26	Mon: 03/27/2017		Dirac equation for H-like atoms	#17	03/29/2017
27	Wed: 03/29/2017	Chap. 14	Angular momenta	#18	03/31/2017
28	Fri: 03/31/2017	Chap. 16	Time reversal symmetry	#19	04/07/2017
29	Mon: 04/03/2017				
30	Wed: 04/05/2017				
31	Fri: 04/07/2017				
32	Mon: 04/10/2017				
33	Wed: 04/12/2017				
	Fri: 04/14/2017		Good Friday Holiday -- no class		
34	Mon: 04/17/2017				
35	Wed: 04/19/2017				
36	Fri: 04/21/2017				
	Mon: 04/24/2017		Presentations I		
	Wed: 04/26/2017		Presentations II		

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Time reversal symmetry in physics:

$$-t \leftrightarrow t$$

There are many examples of physical systems in which the behavior at time t and at time $-t$ are the same. For example, in absence of a magnetic field or of internal spin, the time dependent Schoedinger equation:

$$H\psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad H\psi^* = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial(-t)}$$

Denote time reversal operator as \hat{T}

$$\hat{T}\psi(\vec{r}, t) = \psi(\vec{r}, -t) = \psi^*(\vec{r}, t).$$

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Properties of the time-reversal symmetry

The important properties of the time reversal operator include:

1. commutation: $[\hat{T}, \mathcal{H}] = 0$

Because of **energy conservation**, the time reversal operator \hat{T} commutes with the Hamiltonian $\hat{T}\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}\hat{T}$. Since \hat{T} commutes with the Hamiltonian, eigenstates of the time reversal operator are also eigenstates of the Hamiltonian.

2. anti-linear: $\hat{T}i = -i\hat{T}$

From Schrödinger's equation (Eq. 21.1), it is seen that the reversal of time corresponds to a change of $i \rightarrow -i$, which implies that $\hat{T}i = -i\hat{T}$. We call an operator **anti-linear** if its operation on a complex number yields the complex conjugate of the number rather than the number itself $\hat{T}a = a^*\hat{T}$.

3. action on wave functions: $\hat{T}\psi = \psi^*\hat{T}$

Since $\hat{T}\psi = \psi^*\hat{T}$, the action of \hat{T} on a scalar product is

$$\hat{T}(\psi, \phi) = \int \phi^*(\vec{r})\psi(\vec{r})d^3r \hat{T} = (\psi, \phi)^*\hat{T} \quad (21.4)$$

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More details

For a wavefunction not involving electron spin

$$\hat{T} = \hat{K} \quad (\text{complex conjugation})$$

For a wavefunction including spin:

$$\hat{T} = \hat{K}\sigma_y \quad \text{where } \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Commutation relations with time reversal:

Coordinates: $T\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}T$

Momenta: $T\mathbf{p} = -\mathbf{p}T$

Spin: $T\boldsymbol{\sigma} = -\boldsymbol{\sigma}T$

Krammer's theorem: All energy levels of a system containing an odd number of electrons must be at least doubly degenerate (unless magnetic fields remove the degeneracy).

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Effects of time reversal symmetry on point groups

Consider a point group with h members $\{R_i\}$ with basis functions ψ_α :

For representation $D_{\alpha\beta}^i(R_k)$: $\psi_\alpha = \sum_{\beta} D_{\alpha\beta}^i(R_k)\psi_\beta$

What about $D_{\alpha\beta}^i(TR_k)$?

Wigner's possibilities:

- a.** D and D^* are equivalent to the same real irreducible representation.
- b.** D and D^* are inequivalent.
- c.** D and D^* are equivalent but cannot be made real.

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Wigner's possibilities:

- a. D and D^* are equivalent to the same real irreducible representation.
- b. D and D^* are inequivalent.
- c. D and D^* are equivalent but cannot be made real.

Example:

Table 21.1: Character table for point group C_4 .

$C_4 (4)$		E	C_2	C_4	C_4^3	Time reversal	
$x^2 + y^2, z^2$	R_z, z	A	1	1	1	1	(a)
$x^2 - y^2, xy$	$\left. \begin{matrix} (x, y) \\ (R_x, R_y) \end{matrix} \right\}$	B	1	1	-1	-1	(a)
(xz, yz)		E	1	-1	i	$-i$	(b)
			1	-1	$-i$	i	(b)

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Some details:

We can distinguish three different possibilities in the case of **no spin**:

- (a) All of the matrices in the representation D can be written as real matrices. In this case, the time reversal operator leaves the representation D invariant and no additional degeneracies in $E(\vec{k})$ result.
- (b) If the representations D and D^* cannot be brought into equivalence by a unitary transformation, there is a doubling of the degeneracy of such levels due to time reversal symmetry. Then the representations D and D^* are said to form a **time reversal symmetry pair** and these levels will stick together.
- (c) If the representations D and D^* can be made equivalent under a suitable unitary transformation, but the matrices in this representation cannot be made real, then the time reversal symmetry also requires a doubling of the degeneracy of D and the bands will stick together.

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Time reversal symmetry effects on the group of the wavevector

Suppose $Q_0 \mathbf{k} = -\mathbf{k}$
 $Q_0^2 \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k}$

Note that if inversion is a member of the group, then Q_0 corresponds to inversion. Otherwise Q_0 may not be a member of the group of the wavevector.

Possibilities according to C. Herring:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{Q_0} \chi(Q_0^2) &= h && \text{case (a)} \\ &= 0 && \text{case (b)} \\ &= -h && \text{case (c)} \end{aligned}$$

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Effects of time reversal symmetry on a Bloch state

$$\hat{T}\psi_{n,\mathbf{k}\uparrow}(\vec{r}) = \psi_{n,-\mathbf{k}\downarrow}(\vec{r})$$

so that the time reversal conjugate states are

$$E_{n\downarrow}(\vec{k}) = E_{n\uparrow}(-\vec{k})$$

and

$$E_{n\uparrow}(\vec{k}) = E_{n\downarrow}(-\vec{k}).$$

If inversion symmetry exists as well,

$$E_n(\vec{k}) = E_n(-\vec{k})$$

then

$$E_{n\uparrow}(\vec{k}) = E_{n\uparrow}(-\vec{k}) \text{ and } E_{n\downarrow}(\vec{k}) = E_{n\downarrow}(-\vec{k})$$

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Table 21.2: Summary of rules regarding degeneracies and time reversal.

Case	Relation between D and D^*	Frobenius-Schur test	Spinless electron	Half-integral spin electron
Case (a)	D and D^* are equivalent to the same real irreducible representation	$\sum_R \chi(Q_R^2) = h$	No extra degeneracy	Doubled degeneracy
Case (b)	D and D^* are inequivalent	$\sum_R \chi(Q_R^2) = 0$	Doubled degeneracy	Doubled degeneracy
Case (c)	D and D^* are equivalent to each other but not to a real representation	$\sum \chi(Q_R^2) = -h$	Double degeneracy	No extra degeneracy

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Examples:

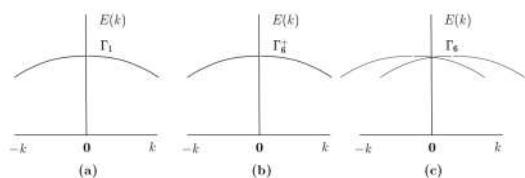


Figure 21.2: Schematic example of Kramer's degeneracy in a crystal in the case of: (a) no spin-orbit interaction where each level is doubly degenerate (\uparrow, \downarrow) , (b) both spin-orbit interaction and inversion symmetry are present and the levels are doubly degenerate, (c) spin-orbit interaction and no spatial inversion symmetry where the relations 21.23 and 21.24 apply.

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Examples:

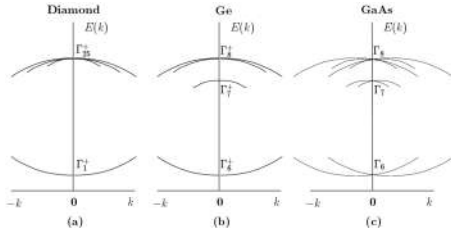


Figure 21.3: Schematic examples of energy bands $E(\vec{k})$ in diamond, Ge and GaAs near $\vec{k} = 0$. (a) Without spin-orbit coupling, each band in diamond has a two-fold spin degeneracy. (b) Splitting by spin-orbit coupling in Ge, with each band remaining doubly degenerate. (c) Splitting of the valence bands by the spin-orbit coupling in GaAs. The magnitudes of the splittings are not to scale.

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Table 21.3: Character table for C_4

C_4	E	\bar{E}	C_4	\bar{C}_4	C_2	\bar{C}_2	C_4^{-1}	\bar{C}_4^{-1}	Time Inv.	Bases for C_4
Γ_1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	a	z or S_z
Γ_2	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	a	xy
Γ_3	1	1	i	i	-1	-1	$-i$	$-i$	b	$-i(x + iy)$ or $-(S_x + iS_y)$
Γ_4	1	1	$-i$	$-i$	-1	-1	i	i	b	$i(x - iy)$ or $(S_x - iS_y)$
Γ_5	1	-1	ω	$-\omega$	i	$-i$	$-\omega^3$	ω^3	b	$\phi(1/2, 1/2)$
Γ_6	1	-1	$-\omega^3$	ω^3	$-i$	i	ω	$-\omega$	b	$\phi(1/2, -1/2)$
Γ_7	1	-1	$-\omega$	ω	i	$-i$	ω^3	$-\omega^3$	b	$\phi(3/2, -3/2)$
Γ_8	1	-1	ω^3	$-\omega^3$	$-i$	i	$-\omega$	ω	b	$\phi(3/2, 3/2)$

$$i = e^{i\pi/2} \quad \omega = e^{i\pi/4}$$

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Some details

	E	\bar{E}	C_4	\bar{C}_4	C_2	\bar{C}_2	C_4^{-1}	\bar{C}_4^{-1}
Γ_5 :	ω^0	ω^4	ω	ω^5	ω^2	ω^6	ω^7	ω^3
Γ_6 :	ω^0	ω^4	ω^7	ω^3	ω^5	ω^2	ω	ω^5
Γ_7 :	ω^0	ω^4	ω^5	ω	ω^2	ω^6	ω^3	ω^7
Γ_8 :	ω^0	ω^4	ω^3	ω^7	ω^6	ω^2	ω^5	ω

Application of the Frobenius-Schur test for Γ_5 yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum \chi(Q_0^2) &= (1)(-1) + (1)(-1) - \omega^2 - \omega^2 + 1 + 1 - \omega^6 - \omega^6 \\ &= -1 - 1 - i - i + 1 + 1 + i + i = 0 \end{aligned}$$

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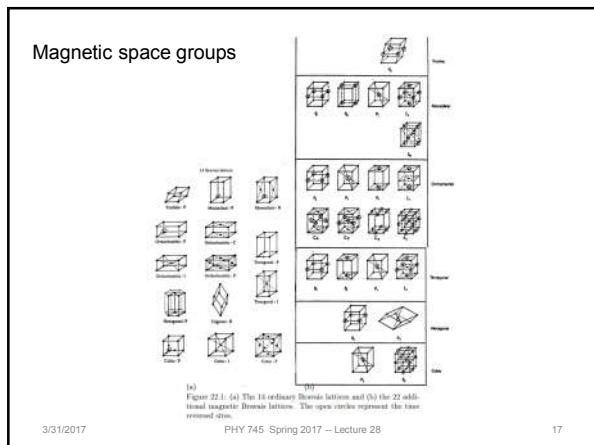
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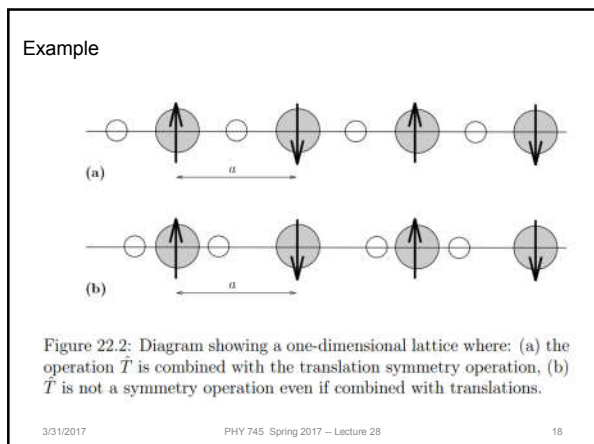
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Table 21.4: Character Table and Basis Functions for the Group D_{3d} .

D_{3d}	E	$2C_3$	$3C_2$	$3C_2'$	$3C_2''$	i	$2S_6$	$2S_6^5$	$3C_2$	$3C_2'$	$3C_2''$	Time Inv.	Bases	
A_1^+	Γ_1^+	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	a	R	
A_2^+	Γ_2^+	1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	1	1	-1	a	S_z	
E_g^+	Γ_3^+	2	2	-1	-1	0	0	2	2	-1	-1	0	a	$(S_x - iS_y),$ $-(S_x + iS_y)$
A_1^-	Γ_1^-	1	1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	a	zS_y	
A_2^-	Γ_2^-	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	a	x	
E_g^-	Γ_3^-	2	2	-1	-1	0	0	-2	-2	1	1	0	a	$(x - iy),$ $-(x + iy)$
A_1^+	Γ_4^+	2	-2	1	-1	0	0	2	-2	1	-1	0	e	$\phi(1/2, -1/2)$
A_2^+	Γ_5^+	1	-1	-1	1	i	-i	1	-1	-1	1	i	b	$\phi(3/2, -3/2)$
E_g^+	Γ_6^+	1	-1	-1	1	-i	i	1	-1	-1	1	-i	b	$-i\phi(3/2, 3/2)$
A_1^-	Γ_4^-	2	-2	1	-1	0	0	-2	2	-1	1	0	e	$-i\phi(3/2, -3/2)$
A_2^-	Γ_5^-	1	-1	-1	1	i	-i	-1	1	1	-1	i	b	$\Gamma_4^+ \times \Gamma_1^-$
E_g^-	Γ_6^-	1	-1	-1	1	-i	i	-1	1	1	-1	-i	b	$\Gamma_5^+ \times \Gamma_1^-$
A_1^+	Γ_7^+	1	-1	-1	1	-i	i	-1	1	1	-1	i	b	$\Gamma_6^+ \times \Gamma_1^-$
A_2^+	Γ_8^+	1	-1	-1	1	i	-i	-1	1	1	-1	-i	b	$\Gamma_7^+ \times \Gamma_1^-$

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Two types of group elements:

Unitary operators: A_i

Antiunitary operators: $M_k = TA_k$

$$A_i A_{i'} = A_{i''}$$

$$A_i M_k = M_{k'}$$

$$M_k A_i = M_{k''}$$

$$M_{k'} M_{k''} = A_{i''}$$

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Types of magnetic point groups

- (a) 32 ordinary point groups G' where \hat{T} is not an element
- (b) 32 ordinary point groups $G' \otimes \hat{T}$. In these magnetic point groups, all elements A_i of G' are contained together with all elements $\hat{T}A_i$.
- (c) 58 point groups G in which half of the elements are $\{A_i\}$ and half are $\{M_k\}$ where $M_k = \hat{T}A_k$ and the $\{A_i, A_k\}$ form an ordinary point group G' . Also $\{A_i\}$ is a subgroup of G' .

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