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## LETTER TO THE EDITOR

# $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(1,1)$ description of vibrational molecular spectra 

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#### Abstract

The $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(1,1)$ quantum algebra is used for the description of vibrational spectra of diatomic molecules, for which $\operatorname{SU}(1,1)$ is used in the classical approach. While in the classical case only the first two terms of the empirical Dunham expansion occur, in the quantum case all terms are obtained. The improved description of the empirical data is obtained with $q$ being a phase (and not a real number), in agreement with the situation occurring in the $\boldsymbol{q}$-rotor (having the symmetry $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(2)$ ), used for the description of rotational spectra of molecules and nuclei.


Quantum algebras [1-5], which mathematically are Hopf algebras [6], have been introduced with the aim of solving the quantum Yang-Baxter equation [7]. More recently, the realization of the quantum algebra $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(2)$ in terms of the $q$-analogue of the quantum harmonic oscillator [8 510 ] has initiated much work in this field [11-13]. The $\mathrm{SO}_{q}(3)$ quantum algebra has been found useful in describing the $q$-deformed spin-1 Heisenberg chain [14], while the $q$-rotor (the Hamiltonian of which is proportional to the second-order Casimir operator of $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(2)$ ) has been found suitable for the description of rotational spectra of deformed nuclei [15, 16], superdeformed nuclei [17] and diatomic molecules [18]. The success of the $q$-rotor in describing rotational spectra has been understood [16] to be due to its equivalence to the variable moment of inertia (VMI) model [19].

On the other hand, the Morse potential [20], which offers a widely accepted description of vibrational spectra of diatomic molecules [21], has been known to have the symmetry $S U(1,1)$ [22-28]. Vibrational spectra are then described by a Hamiltonian which is proportional to the second-order Casimir operator of $S U(1,1)$. It is therefore of interest to check the consequences and the physical content of generalizing $\operatorname{SU}(1,1)$ into the quantum algebra $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(1,1)$, which is already known [29, 30].

In the classical case [28] the $\operatorname{SO}(2,1)$ generators satisfy the commutation relations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[K_{1}, K_{2}\right]=-\mathrm{i} K_{3} \quad\left[K_{2}, K_{3}\right]=\mathrm{i} K_{1} \quad\left[K_{3}, K_{1}\right]=\mathrm{i} K_{2} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Defining

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{+}=K_{1}+\mathrm{i} K_{2} \quad K_{-}=K_{1}-\mathrm{i} K_{2} \quad K_{3}=K_{z} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

one obtains the $\operatorname{SU}(1,1)$ commutation relations

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[K_{z}, K_{ \pm}\right]= \pm K_{ \pm} \quad\left[K_{+}, K_{-}\right]=-2 K_{z} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The generators of $\operatorname{SU}(1,1)$ accept the following boson representation [24]

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{+}=a_{1}^{+} a_{2}^{+} \quad K_{-}=a_{1} a_{2} \quad K_{z}=\frac{1}{2}\left(a_{1}^{+} a_{1}+a_{2}^{+} a_{2}+1\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{1}^{+}, a_{1}, a_{2}^{+}, a_{2}$ satisfy usual boson commutation relations.
The second-order Casimir operator of $\mathrm{SO}(2,1)$ is [28]

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{2}[\operatorname{SO}(2,1)]=-\left(K_{1}^{2}+K_{2}^{2}-K_{3}^{2}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $N$ is the number of excitation quanta given to the system (which is equal to the total number of bosons in the case of the boson representation) and $v$ is the vibrational quantum number, the eigenvalues of the Casimir operator are given

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{2}[\operatorname{SO}(2,1)]|N \omega\rangle=\frac{1}{4} \omega(\omega+2)|N \omega\rangle \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the quantum number $\omega$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
v=\frac{1}{2}(N-\omega) . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

$N$ is related to the maximum number of vibrational states by

$$
\begin{equation*}
N=2 v_{\max } \quad \text { or } \quad N=2 v_{\max }+1 . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The vibrational spectrum is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(N, \omega)=E_{0}-A\left\langle C_{2}[S O(2,1)]\right\rangle=E_{0}-\frac{A}{4} \omega(\omega+2) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where by $\rangle$ we denote the eigenvalue of the enclosed operator. Using (7) this can be rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(N, v)=E_{0}-A \frac{N^{2}-1}{4}+A N\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)-A\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Rotational-vibrational molecular spectra are usually described in terms of the Dunham expansion [31,32]

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(v, J)=\sum_{i k} Y_{i k}\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{i}(J(J+1))^{k} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $J$ is the angular momentum and $Y_{i k}$ are the Dunham coefficients, which are fitted to experiment. (For empirical values of Dunham coefficients for several molecules see [33].) Ignoring rotation (i.e. ignoring the rotational bands built on the vibrational bandheads) one obtains the vibrational spectrum

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(v)=\sum_{i} Y_{i 0}\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{i} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

We remark that (10) corresponds to the first two non-vanishing powers of ( $v+\frac{1}{2}$ ) contained in the Dunham expansion. The same result is obtained by solving [34] the Schrödinger equation for the Morse potential [20]. It is also obtained in the $O(4)$ limit of the vibron model [35] for diatomic molecules, which has been extended to triatomic molecules [ 36,37 ] and to higher-order terms [38]. The ratio $Y_{20} / Y_{10}$ (the anharmonicity constant [22]) is in the present case proportional to $1 / N$, a result similar to the one obtained in the vibron model [35].

In the quantum case, the generators of $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(1,1)$ satisfy the commutation relations [29, 30]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[K_{0}, K_{ \pm}\right]= \pm K_{ \pm} \quad\left[K_{+}, K_{-}\right]=-\left[2 K_{0}\right] \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $q$-numbers are defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
[x]=\frac{q^{x}-q^{-x}}{q-q^{-1}} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $q$ is real ( $q=\mathrm{e}^{\tau}$, where $\tau$ is real), $q$-numbers take the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
[x]=\frac{\sinh (\tau x)}{\sinh (\tau)} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

while in the case that $q$ is a phase ( $q=\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} \tau}$ with $\tau$ real), $q$-numbers are

$$
\begin{equation*}
[x]=\frac{\sin (\tau x)}{\sin (\tau)} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the limit $q \rightarrow 1$, relations (13) tends to the classical case (3).
The generators of $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(1,1)$ accept the following boson representation [29, 30]

$$
\begin{equation*}
K_{+}=a_{1}^{+} a_{2}^{+} \quad K_{-}=a_{1} a_{2} \quad K_{0}=\frac{1}{2}\left(N_{1}+N_{2}+1\right) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the bosons $a_{i}^{+}, a_{i}(i=1,2)$ satisfy the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{i} a_{i}^{+}-q a_{i}^{+} a_{i}=q^{-N_{i}} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[N_{i}, a_{i}^{+}\right]=a_{i}^{+} \quad\left[N_{i}, a_{i}\right]=-a_{i} . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

The second-order Casimir operator of $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(1,1)$ is [30]

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{2}\left[\mathrm{SU}_{q}(1,1)\right]=\left[K_{0}\right]\left[K_{0}-1\right]-K_{+} K_{-}=\left[K_{0}\right]\left[K_{0}+1\right]-K_{-} K_{+} . \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Its eigenvalues are given in [30] as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\left.C_{2}\left[S U_{q}(1,1)\right] \mid \kappa \mu\right)=[\kappa][\kappa-1] \mid \kappa \mu\right) \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa=\frac{1+\left|n_{1}-n_{2}\right|}{\underline{2}} \quad \mu=\frac{1+n_{1}+n_{2}}{2} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

since the basis has the form $|\kappa \mu\rangle=\left|n_{1}\right\rangle\left|n_{2}\right\rangle$, with [30]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|n_{i}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{\left[n_{i}\right]!}}\left(a_{i}^{+}\right)^{n_{1}}|0\rangle \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the definition $[n]!=[1][2] \ldots[n]$ holds. The vibrational spectrum is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=E_{0}-A C_{2}\left[\mathrm{SU}_{q}(1,1)\right] \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the relation $\left|n_{1}-n_{2}\right|=\omega+1$ one obtains

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(N, \omega)=E_{0}-A\left[\frac{\omega}{2}\right]\left[\frac{\omega+2}{2}\right] \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

which in the limit $q \rightarrow 1$ tends to (9). Using, further, (7) one has

$$
\begin{equation*}
E(N, v)=E_{0}-A\left[v-\frac{N}{2}\right]\left[v+1-\frac{N}{2}\right] \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the $q$-generalization of (10).

It is interesting to check how (26) is related to (10) and to the Dunham expansion (12). This can be done by replacing the $q$-numbers in (26) by their equals from (15) (or (16)), subsequently taking the Taylor expansions of the hyperbolic (or trigonometric) functions, collecting together terms containing the same power of ( $v+\frac{1}{2}$ ), and finally summing up the coefficients of each power of $\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)$. In the case of real $q$ the final result is

$$
\begin{align*}
E(N, v)=E_{0} & +\frac{A}{\sinh (\tau)^{2}}\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\cosh (\tau)-\cosh (\tau N))+\tau \sinh (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)\right. \\
& -\tau^{2} \cosh (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}+\frac{2}{3} \tau^{3} \sinh (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{3}-\frac{1}{3} \tau^{4} \cosh (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{4} \\
& \left.+\frac{2}{15} \tau^{2} \sinh (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{5}-\frac{2}{45} \tau^{6} \cosh (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{6}+\ldots\right] \tag{27}
\end{align*}
$$

while in the case of $q$ being a phase the final result is

$$
\begin{align*}
E(N, v)=E_{0}+ & \frac{A}{\sin (\tau)^{2}}\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\cos (\tau)-\cos (\tau N))+\tau \sin (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)\right. \\
& -\tau^{2} \cos (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}+\left(-\frac{2}{3}\right) \tau^{3} \sin (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{3}-\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right) \tau^{4} \cos (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{4} \\
& \left.+\frac{2}{15} \tau^{5} \sin (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{5}-\frac{2}{45} \tau^{6} \cos (\tau N)\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)^{6}+\ldots\right] \tag{28}
\end{align*}
$$

The following remarks can now be made:
(i) Both (27) and (28) reduce to (10) in the limit $q \rightarrow 1(\tau \rightarrow 0)$.
(ii) While (10) contains only the first two non-vanishing powers of $\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right),(27)$ and (28) contain all possible powers. Thus (27) and (28) correspond to the full Dunham expansion (12). However, while the $Y_{i k}$ coefficients in (12) are not related to each other, their counterparts in (27) (or (28)) are interrelated, since they all depend on $\tau$ and $N$.
(iii) The anharmonicity constant (i.e. the ratio $Y_{20} / Y_{10}$ ), which in the classical case (10) is fixed to $-1 / N$, is here $-\tau / \sinh (\tau N)($ in (27)) or $-\tau / \sin (\tau N)($ in (28)). Therefore the anharmonicity constant is not fixed by $N$ (or, equivalently through (8), by $v_{\text {max }}$ ). This extra freedom is useful when one attempts to fit experimental data, as will be demonstrated below.

We now attempt the briefest possible comparison with experimental data. We consider the case of $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ in its $X^{1} \Sigma_{\mathrm{g}}^{+}$state, which has been considered in the case of the vibron model [35] as well. Since in this state of $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ it is experimentally known that $v_{\max }=14$, from (8) one finds that $N=28$ or $N=29$. As in the case of the vibron model [35], we consider $N=29$. ( $N=28$ also gives very similar results.) As data we use the results for the vibrational levels obtained through the Rydberg-Klein-Rees (RKR) method [39] reported in [40]. We first fitted the data using the classical expression (10). When attempting to use (27) one is driven to failure, while (28) gives a result much better than (10), as can be seen in table 1 , where the quality of the fits is indicated by the quantity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sigma=\sqrt{\frac{1}{M} \sum_{v_{\text {min }}}^{v_{\text {max }}}\left(E_{v}(\exp )-E_{v}(\mathrm{th})\right)^{2}} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $M$ is the number of states used in the fit. Thus the data indicate that $q$ should be a phase, and not a real number. This conclusion is the same as the one drawn from the comparison of the $q$-rotor (having the symmetry $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(2)$ ) with the rotational spectra of deformed $[15,16]$ and superdeformed [17] nuclei, as well as to the rotational spectra of diatomic molecules [18]. It should also be pointed out that the parameter $\tau$ remains small in all cases.

Table 1. Vibrational spectra in the $X^{1} \Sigma_{g}^{+}$state of $\mathrm{H}_{2} . v$ is the vibrational quantum number, $E_{v}$ (RKR) are the empirical data [40] (in units of $\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$ ), $E_{v}$ (th-q) are the theoretical predictions in the quantum case (26), while $E_{v}$ (th-c) are the predictions in the classical case (10). The parameters of the fits are shown in the lower part of the table. In both cases $N$ has been fixed to 29 , so that only $E_{0}, A$ and $\tau$ have been used as free parameters. $\sigma$ is the rms deviation defined in (29).

| $v$ | $E_{v}(\mathrm{RKR})$ | $E_{v}(\mathrm{th}-\mathrm{q})$ | $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{v}}(\mathrm{th}-\mathrm{c})$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 2170 | 2599 | 773 |
| 1 | 6331 | 6255 | 5684 |
| 2 | 10257 | 9936 | 10232 |
| 3 | 13952 | 13586 | 14416 |
| 4 | 17420 | 17147 | 18235 |
| 5 | 20662 | 20563 | 21692 |
| 6 | 23676 | 23782 | 24784 |
| 7 | 26458 | 26753 | 27512 |
| 8 | 29001 | 29429 | 29877 |
| 9 | 31294 | 31768 | 31878 |
| 10 | 33320 | 33734 | 33515 |
| 11 | 35057 | 35297 | 34788 |
| 12 | 36472 | 36430 | 35698 |
| 13 | 37521 | 37117 | 36244 |
| 14 | 38143 | 37348 | 36425 |
| $N$ |  | 29 | 29 |
| $E_{0}$ |  | 37290 | 36380 |
| $A$ |  | 230.3 | 181.9 |
| $\tau$ |  | 0.0626 | 0 |
| $\sigma$ |  | 369 | 933 |

In conclusion, we have shown that the quantum algebra $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(1,1)$ can be used for the description of vibrational spectra of diatomic molecules, in the same way as the quantum algebra $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(2)$ can be used for the description of rotational spectra of molecules [18] and nuclei [15-17]. The second-order Casimir operator of $\mathrm{SU}_{\mathrm{q}}(1,1)$ corresponds to a special form of the Dunham expansion containing all powers of $\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)$, while in the classical case of $\mathrm{SU}(1,1)$ only the first two non-vanishing powers of $\left(v+\frac{1}{2}\right)$ are obtained [22-28].

In the classical case the relation between the second-order Casimir operator of $\mathbf{S O}(2,1)$ and the eigenvalues of the Morse potential is known [28]. It is interesting to find the relation between the second-order Casimir operator of $\mathrm{SU}_{q}(1,1)$ and the eigenvalues of the Morse potential in the quantum case. For the latter, the $q$-Schrödinger equation [41] for the Morse potential should be solved. In addition, it is worth evaluating dissociation rates for the Morse potential in the quantum case, by generalizing the procedure outlined in [42]. It is also of interest to study the $q$-generalization of the $U(3)$ limit of the vibron model for diatomic molecules [35], since its $O(4)$ limit is equivalent to the $S O(2,1)$ approach of [28], which was generalized here. This opens the question of studying in addition the $q$-generalization of the vibrational, rotational and $\gamma$-unstable limits of the interacting Boson model (18м) of nuclear structure ([43], for recent overviews see $[44,45]$ ). Work in these directions is in progress.

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