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On the number operators of single-mode q-oscillators

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Abstract. This paper presents the available solutions to the problem of expressing the number operator in terms of the creation and annihilation operators in the case of the various single-mode q-oscillators. This study reveals interesting number theoretic aspects of the problem.

Recently it has been shown [1, 2] that for a single-mode q-oscillator defined by the relations

$$[N, a^{\dagger}] = a^{\dagger} \qquad [N, a] = -a \qquad (1a)$$

$$aa^{\dagger} - qa^{\dagger}a = 1 \tag{1b}$$

with real $q \in [-1, \infty)$, the excitation number operator N can be expressed in terms of the creation (a^{\dagger}) and the annihilation (a) operators as

$$N = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{(1-q)^m}{(1-q^m)} (a^{\dagger})^m a^m.$$
 (2)

The spectrum of N has been assumed to be (0, 1, 2, ...) and the ground state $|0\rangle (N|0\rangle = 0$, $a|0\rangle = 0$) is taken to be non-degenerate. It is straightforward to derive the expression (2) by substituting the ansatz

$$N = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \nu_m (a^{\dagger})^m a^m$$
(3)

in (1*a*) and using (1*b*) to obtain the coefficients $\{\nu_m\}$ recursively. In this paper we obtain N in the same form as in (3) for other kinds of deformed oscillators different from (1). In general, we shall take a deformed oscillator algebra to be defined by the relations (1*a*) and

$$aa^{\dagger} - \xi a^{\dagger}a = \mu(N). \tag{4}$$

 ξ and $\mu(N)$ should be such that the function

$$h(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \xi^k \mu(n-k-1) \qquad n \ge 1, \ h(0) = 0 \tag{5}$$

is real and non-negative. This study reveals interesting number theoretic aspects of the problem of expressing N in terms of (a, a^{\dagger}) in the case of deformed oscillator algebras. For certain special choices of ξ and $\mu(N)$ other types of expression for N in terms of (a, a^{\dagger}) , different from (3), are also possible as we shall see below.

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Generalized oscillators of the type (1) have been the subject of study in different contexts: dual resonance models in high energy physics [3], generalized coherent states [4], exploration of new methods of quantization [5-8], and new forms of quantum statistics [9-11]. The emergence of quantum algebras, as common structures underlying several mathematical and physical theories, has led to the development of the q-boson oscillator algebra [12-17] with

$$aa^{\dagger} - qa^{\dagger}a = q^{-N}. \tag{6}$$

The fermionic counterpart of (6), the q-fermion oscillator algebra, with

$$aa^{\dagger} + qa^{\dagger}a = q^{-N} \tag{7}$$

has also been studied [17, 18] in connection with quantum superalgebras. The boson and the fermion oscillators are obtained as the q = 1 limit of (6) and (7) respectively. In the case of the algebra (1) both the boson and the fermion algebras are obtained as special cases in the limits q = 1 and q = -1 respectively. Another q-oscillator with

$$aa^{\dagger} - qa^{\dagger}a = q^{-2N} \tag{8}$$

has been studied in [10]; this algebra (8) also has both the boson and the fermon algebras as limiting cases corresponding to q = 1 and q = -1 respectively.

As a generalization of the deformed oscillator algebras (1, 6-8) we introduced in [19] the (p, q)-oscillator with

$$aa^{\dagger} - qa^{\dagger}a = p^{-N}. \tag{9}$$

As shown by us in detail in [19], through several examples, the (p, q)-oscillator algebra (9) provides a convenient language for studying the two-parameter (p, q) extensions of the standard quantum algebras with a single deformation parameter (q). The (p, q)-oscillator algebra (9) has also been noted in [20], as the two-parameter generalization of the standard $(su_q(2)$ -related) q-oscillator algebra (6). In [20] the study is, primarily, to obtain the time-evolution of such deformed oscillator systems using the formalism of Lie-admissible algebras.

The general deformed oscillator algebra (4) has been used in [21] to provide a unified picture of all the known (that is, standard (usual boson, fermion, parafermion and paraboson) and single-parameter (q)) quantizations of the simple harmonic oscillator (see also [20, 22, 23]). The two-parameter oscillator (9) is also a special case of (4). Further, it is noted in [21] that the general structure (4) may also be used to construct new deformations of the oscillator algebra; for example, a new oscillator called the Tamm-Dancoff cut-off q-oscillator is introduced corresponding to the choice $\xi = q$, $\mu(N) = q^N$. This Tamm-Dancoff cut-off q-oscillator may also be considered as the limiting case of (9) with $p = q^{-1}$. To build a physical theory based on these deformed algebras it is necessary to express N in terms of (a, a^{\dagger}) and the first step is the treatment of the single-mode case.

Let us now consider the construction of N in the case of the general deformed oscillator (4). The commutation relations (4) imply that, up to phase factors, the orthonormal eigenstates of N, $\{|n\rangle|N|n\rangle = n|n\rangle$, n = 0, 1, 2, ..., are given by

$$\sqrt{h(n)} |n\rangle = a^{\dagger} |n-1\rangle$$
 $n = 1, 2, 3, ...$ (10)

where h(n) is defined, uniquely, by (5) such that

$$h(n+1) - \xi h(n) = \mu(n)$$
 $n = 0, 1, 2, ...$ (11)

In the space of the Fock states $\{|n\rangle\}$,

$$|\langle m|a|n\rangle|^2 = h(n)\delta_{n,m+1} \qquad \langle m|a^{\dagger}|n\rangle = \langle n|a|m\rangle^* \qquad m, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
(12)

With this matrix realization (12), the coefficients $\{v_m\}$ in the expression (3) for N are seen to obey the relations

$$\sum_{m=1}^{n} \frac{\nu_m}{h(n-m)!} = \frac{n}{h(n)!} \qquad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

$$h(n)! = h(n)h(n-1)\dots h(2)h(1) \qquad h(0)! = 1.$$
(13)

The unique solution for $\{\nu_m\}$ is obtained by solving (13) recursively. The result is

$$\nu_{m} = \frac{m}{h(m)!} + \frac{(m-1)}{h(m-1)!} \left\{ -\frac{1}{h(1)!} \right\} + \frac{(m-2)}{h(m-2)!} \left\{ -\frac{1}{h(2)!} + \frac{1}{h(1)!h(1)!} \right\} \\ + \frac{(m-3)}{h(m-3)!} \left\{ -\frac{1}{h(3)!} + \frac{1}{h(1)!h(2)!} + \frac{1}{h(2)!h(1)!} - \frac{1}{h(1)!h(1)!} \right\} + \dots + \frac{1}{h(1)!} \left\{ -\frac{1}{h(m-1)!} + \dots \right\} \\ = \frac{m}{h(m)!} + \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{(m-k)}{h(m-k)!} \left(\sum_{\substack{c_{1}+c_{2}+\dots+c_{p}=k}} \frac{(-1)^{p}}{h(c_{1})!h(c_{2})!\dots h(c_{p})!} \right).$$
(14)

Thus, the equations (3) and (14) define N in terms of (a, a^{\dagger}) in the case of the general deformed oscillator algebra (4).

Now, for the (p, q)-oscillator algebra (9) $h(n) = (q^n - p^{-n})/(q - p^{-1})$, p and q can be real, or $p^*q = 1$ for complex p and q, subject to the condition that this h(n) is non-negative. For the q-oscillator (1), corresponding to p = 1, q has to be real $(q \in [-1, \infty))$, and $h(n) = (q^n - 1)/(q - 1) = [n]$. Comparing the results (2) and (14) in this case one has the identity

$$\frac{(1-q)^m}{(1-q^m)} = \frac{m}{[m]!} + \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{(m-k)}{[m-k]!} \left(\sum_{\substack{c_1+c_2+\ldots+c_p=k\\c_j>0}} \frac{(-1)^p}{([c_1]![c_2]!\ldots[c_p]!)} \right).$$
(15)

The q-deformed number [n], referred to as the *basic number* in the number theory literature, was introduced originally the Heine [24]. Using the notation of number theory the identity (15) can be written as

$$\frac{1}{(1-q^m)} = \frac{m}{(q;q)_m} + \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{(m-k)}{(q;q)_{m-k}} \left(\sum_{\substack{c_1+c_2+\ldots+c_p=k \ c_j>0}} \frac{(-1)^p}{((q;q)_{c_1}\ldots(q;q)_{c_p})} \right)$$
(16)

where

$$(q; q)_n = (1-q)(1-q^2) \dots (1-q^n) = (1-q)^n ([n]!).$$
 (17)

The identity (15) has also been noted in [2] in a slightly different form. In the case of the usual boson corresponding to the limit p=1 and q=1, h(n)=n, $\nu_m = \delta_{m1}$, and the identity (15) reduces to

$$\frac{1}{(m-1)!} + \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \frac{1}{(m-k-1)!} \left(\sum_{\substack{c_1+c_2+\ldots+c_p=k \\ c_j>0}} \frac{(-1)^p}{(c_1!c_2!\ldots c_p!)} \right) = \delta_{m1}.$$
(18)

For an oscillator with q = 0 and p = 1 (see [9]) h(n) = 1 for any $n \ge 1$ and $\nu_m = 1$ for all *m*. Correspondingly, the identity (15) becomes

$$m + \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} (m-k) \left\{ \sum_{p=1}^{k} (-1)^{p} \binom{k-1}{p-1} \right\} = 1 \qquad \forall m \ge 1.$$
 (19)

Here, we have used the result [25] that the number of compositions (partitions considering also the order of the summands) of k with exactly p parts is $\binom{k-1}{p-1}$. It would be worthwhile to see whether number theory can help to reduce the sum on the right-hand side of (14) to a more closed form for generic values of p and q.

If p and q are complex and $(pq)^{1/2}$ is an mth primitive root of unity then h(n) becomes zero at n = m for odd m and at n = m/2 for even m. Then the corresponding oscillator system has only m (for odd m) or m/2 (for even m) states in view of equation (10), and expression (3) for N contains only a finite number of terms. This has been noted in [1] in the case of the usual fermion (p = 1, q = -1).

Besides expression (3) one can write N in terms of (a, a^{\dagger}) in other ways also for particular cases; such expressions may not be valid for all admissible values of p and q. For example, in the case of the oscillator (1) with q > 0

$$N = \ln\{1 - (1 - q)a^{\dagger}a\} / \ln q$$
(20)

as noted in [10]. In general, when $p = q^r$, with q (real) > 0 and r as any integer ≥ 0 , we have

$$N = \ln\{1 - (q^{-r} - q)(aa^{\dagger} - q^{-r}a^{\dagger}a)^{r}a^{\dagger}a\}/((r+1)\ln q).$$
(21)

To see this, one has to observe from the matrix realization (12) that for the (p, q)-oscillator, in general,

$$aa^{\dagger} - p^{-1}a^{\dagger}a = q^{N}$$

$$a^{\dagger}a = h(N) = (q^{N} - p^{-N})/(q - p^{-1}).$$
 (22)

The oscillators (1), (6) and (8) correspond respectively to r=0, 1 and 2. Another expression for N in this case is

$$N = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{(1-q^{r+1})^m}{(1-q^{m(r+1)})} q^{-rm(m+1)/2} (a^{\dagger})^m a^m (aa^{\dagger}-q^{-r}a^{\dagger}a)^{rm}.$$
 (23)

This result is obtained by replacing in (2) q by q^{r+1} and a by $(q^{rN/2}a)$ and using the relations

$$q^{rN/2}aa^{\dagger}q^{rN/2} - q^{r+1}a^{\dagger}q^{rN}a = 1 \qquad aa^{\dagger} - q^{-r}a^{\dagger}a = q^{N}.$$
(24)

Let us now make a few remarks on expression (3) for N written in the form

$$N = a^{\dagger} A = A^{\dagger} a \tag{25}$$

following [1]. Generalizing the observation in [1] in the case of N given by (2) for the oscillator (1), one has

$$[A, a^{\dagger}] = [a, A^{\dagger}] = 1$$
(26)

and hence the coherent states of the corresponding oscillators may be obtained by defining $|z\rangle \sim \{\exp(zA^{\dagger})\}|0\rangle$. There is another interesting application of the result (2)

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in connection with the q-analysis [26–28]. Defining the q-derivative (or the q-difference) operator

$$D_{q}\psi(x) = \frac{\psi(qx) - \psi(x)}{qx - x} = \frac{(q^{xd/dx} - 1)\psi(x)}{(q - 1)x}$$
(27)

following Jackson [26], one has a realization of the relations (1) in the identification

$$a = D_q$$
 $a^{\dagger} = x$ $N = x \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}$ (28)

Now the relations $N = a^{\dagger}A$ and $[A, a^{\dagger}] = 1$ imply that we must identify A with d/dx in this realization. Thus one has the identity

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\psi}{\mathrm{d}x} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{(1-q)^m}{(1-q^m)} x^{m-1} (D_q)^m \psi$$
⁽²⁹⁾

as the inverse relation for (27); this result may be of relevance for numerical analysis.

Finally, to conclude, let us make the observation that the (a, a^{\dagger}) commutation relations of the (p, q)-oscillator, namely $aa^{\dagger} - qa^{\dagger}a = p^{-N}$ and $aa^{\dagger} - p^{-1}a^{\dagger}a = q^{N}$, may be written in an N-independent form as

$$[a, [a, a^{\dagger}]_{q}]_{p^{-1}} \equiv [a, [a, a^{\dagger}]_{p^{-1}}]_{q} = 0$$
(30)

with the notation $[A, B]_{\alpha} = AB - \alpha BA$. Written in the form (30), the $q \leftrightarrow p^{-1}$ symmetry of the (p, q)-oscillator is manifest. Furthermore, it may be noted that in view of the relation [a, N] = a, or $a\alpha^{N} - \alpha^{N+1}a = 0$ for any α , the (a, a^{\dagger}) commutation relations follow uniquely from (30).

Note added in proof. For multimode systems of deformed oscillators covariant under several quantum groups the number operators have been constructed in [29].

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