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Particle–antiparticle symmetry of the multi-dimensional fermionic Newton oscillator

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Abstract

We consider the d -dimensional Newton oscillator, which is invariant under the group $U(d)$, and construct a symmetry operator R which corresponds to particle–antiparticle interchange.

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The development of the quantum inverse method and the study of solutions of the Yang–Baxter equation are the origin of the concept of quantum groups and algebras [1, 2]. It was also found that these new mathematical structures have important applications in exactly solvable statistical models [3] and in two-dimensional conformal field theories [4]. An interesting realization of the quantum algebra $SU_q(2)$ in terms of a q -analogue of the usual bosonic harmonic oscillator and the Jordan–Schwinger mapping [5–7] has led naturally to the introduction of a q -deformed fermionic equivalent of the q -deformed bosonic oscillator to construct the oscillator representation of the q -deformed superalgebras [8], quantum exceptional algebras [9] and some q -deformed classical Lie algebras [10].

The multi-dimensional fermionic Newton oscillator is defined by the commutation relations

$$\begin{aligned} a_j a_k^* + q a_k^* a_j &= q^N \delta_{jk} \\ a_j N &= (N + 1) a_j \\ a_j a_k + a_k a_j &= 0 \\ j, k &= 1, 2, \dots, d \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where a_j^* is the creation operator and a_j is the annihilation operator of the i th fermion and N is the total number operator in d dimensions. It enjoys the following properties:

- (1) For $q = 1$ it reduces to the usual d -dimensional fermion algebra.
- (2) The usual fermionic operators a and a^* satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} a a^* + a^* a &= 1 \\ [N, a^*] &= a^* \\ a^2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

are equivalent to fermionic q -oscillators satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} aa^* + qa^*a &= q^N \\ [N, a^*] &= a^* \\ a^2 &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, Jing and Xu proved that the well known q -deformed fermionic oscillator given by

$$\begin{aligned} aa^* + a^*a &= q^N \\ aa^* + q^{-1}a^*a &= q^{-N} \\ a^2 &= a^2 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

is nothing but the usual fermionic oscillator [11].

Although the fermionic Newton oscillator for $d = 1$ is isomorphic [11, 12] to the usual fermionic oscillator, for $d > 1$ the ‘deformed’ total particle operator

$$\tilde{N} = \sum_j a_j^* a_j = Nq^{N-1} \quad (2)$$

gives deformed integer eigenvalues.

(3) It is invariant under the $U(d)$ group, which acts on the oscillators through

$$a_j \rightarrow \alpha_{jk} a_k \quad a_j^* \rightarrow \alpha_{jk}^{-1} a_k^* \quad (3)$$

where α_{jk} is a $d \times d$ unitary matrix. This property, which is also possessed by the d -dimensional classical harmonic oscillator, justifies the name Newton. For the bosonic version it can be shown that the deformation can be understood using the quantization of the classical Newton equation [13].

The coherent states for the one-dimensional bosonic Newton oscillator were constructed in [14]. The multi-dimensional bosonic version of this oscillator was derived in [13] using the quantization of the harmonic oscillator through its Newton equation and its invariance properties. A different multi-dimensional fermionic q -oscillator not invariant under $U(d)$ has been considered in [15].

Although the usual d -dimensional fermionic oscillator obeys the (particle–antiparticle) symmetry $a_j \leftrightarrow a_j^*$ and $N \leftrightarrow d - N$, the q -deformed oscillator does not. In this paper we show that the algebra (1) can be extended such that the system has the symmetry

$$a_j \rightarrow b_j \quad N \rightarrow d - N \quad (4)$$

where b_j are ‘inverse’ lowering operators, and construct a symmetry operator R which interchanges the a_j with the b_j . For $q = 1$, R becomes the operator which interchanges a_j and a_j^* .

Without loss of generality and to ease the calculations, let us introduce the number operators N_j for $j = 1, 2, \dots, d$ defined by

$$N_j = q^{1-N} a_j^* a_j. \quad (5)$$

From (1), it follows that $N_j^2 = N_j$ so N_j has eigenvalues 0 and 1 and the total number operator N can be expressed as

$$N = \sum_{j=1}^d N_j. \quad (6)$$

With a choice like that in (5) and (6) for the number operator N_j , one can easily show the following by using the definitive relations for N_j as well as the commutation relations defined by (1):

$$\begin{aligned}
N_j a_j &= 0 & a_j N_j &= a_j \\
a_j^* N_k &= N_k a_j^* & j &\neq k \\
[N_j, N_k] &= 0 & N_j^* &= N_j \\
N_j &= (N_j)^k & k &= 1, 2, \dots \\
q^{N_j} &= 1 + (q - 1)N_j \\
a_j a_j^* &= (1 - N_j)q^{M_j} & a_j^* a_j &= N_j q^{M_j} \\
q^{N_j} a_j^* &= q a_j^* & a_j^* &= a_j^* q^{N_j}
\end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

where

$$M_j = N_1 + N_2 + \dots + N_{j-1} + N_{j+1} + \dots + N_d \tag{8}$$

is an operator with integer eigenvalues.

Before constructing the symmetry operator R interchanging a_j and a_j^* , it is worth noting that for $d = 3$ and by setting

$$b_j^* = q^{1-N} a_j \tag{9}$$

the following algebraic relations which both a_j and b_j satisfy are found:

$$\begin{aligned}
a_j b_k + b_k a_j &= q \delta_{jk} \\
a_j b_k^* &= -q^{-1} b_k^* a_j = q^{-1} b_j^* a_k = -a_k b_j^*.
\end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Similarly the commutation relations which b_j itself satisfies are obtained as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
b_j b_k^* + q b_k^* b_j &= q^{3-N} \delta_{jk} \\
b_j^* N &= (N + 1) b_j^* \\
b_j b_k &= -b_k b_j.
\end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

If the same procedure is carried out for different values of the dimension d , it provides that if b_j^* defined by (9) for $d = 3$ is replaced by

$$b_j^* = q^{(d-1-2N)/2} a_j \tag{12}$$

the structure of the commutation relations can be generalized for any d by

$$\begin{aligned}
b_j b_k^* + q b_k^* b_j &= q^{d-N} \delta_{jk} \\
b_j^* N &= (N + 1) b_j^* \\
b_j b_k &= -b_k b_j
\end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

with

$$\sum_{j=1}^d b_j^* b_j = (d - N) q^{d-1-N}. \tag{14}$$

By a similar procedure, it can easily be shown that the commutation relations between a_j and b_j are given by

$$\begin{aligned}
b_j^* a_k^* + a_k^* b_j^* &= q^{(d-1)/2} \delta_{jk} \\
a_j b_k^* &= -q^{-1} b_k^* a_j = q^{-1} b_j^* a_k = -a_k b_j^*.
\end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

This algebraic structure can then be used to solve the problem of constructing a symmetry operator, denoted by R , which interchanges the a_j with the b_j . Such an operator R can be characterized by

$$\begin{aligned} R &= R^* = R^{-1} \\ Ra_j R &= \varphi_j b_j \\ RNR &= d - N \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

where the operator φ_j is a phase which commutes with b_j and turns out to be given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{for } d = 2k + 1 \quad \varphi_j &= e^{i\pi M_j} \\ \text{for } d = 4k + 4 \quad \varphi_j &= \begin{cases} e^{i\pi M_j} & M_j < \frac{d}{2} \\ -e^{i\pi M_j} & M_j \geq \frac{d}{2} \end{cases} \\ \text{for } d = 4k + 2 \quad \varphi_j &= \begin{cases} i & \frac{d}{2} - 1 \leq M_j \leq \frac{d}{2} \\ e^{i\pi M_j} & M_j < \frac{d}{2} - 1 \\ -e^{i\pi M_j} & M_j > \frac{d}{2} \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

with M_j as defined in (8). It should be noted that R will depend on the dimension d but not on the index j of the oscillator creation and annihilation operators a_j and a_j^* .

The definition above of the symmetry operator R will lead to the following relations:

$$\begin{aligned} RN^k R &= (d - N)^k \\ R(N + k)R &= (d + k) - N. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

The equations (16) and (18) for the symmetry operator R as well as the creation, annihilation and 'inverse' lowering operators suggest that for a two-dimensional system $R = R(2)$ can be characterized as

$$R(2) \equiv \alpha(a_1^* a_2^* + a_2 a_1) + \beta(a_j a_1^* a_2^* a_j - a_j^* a_2 a_1 a_j^*) \quad (19)$$

where the Einstein summation convention over repeated indices holds and the coefficients α and β are to be determined.

If the ground state is denoted by $| \rangle$ and the state $|1, 2\rangle$ by $|\bar{\rangle}$, by defining

$$\gamma |\bar{\rangle} = a_1^* a_2^* | \rangle = a_1^* |2\rangle$$

one finds that $\gamma = q^{1/2}$ by simply calculating γ from the following equation:

$$|\gamma|^2 |\bar{\rangle} = \langle |a_2 a_1 a_1^* a_2^* | \rangle.$$

In general,

$$|\gamma|^2 \langle 1, 2, \dots, d | 1, 2, \dots, d \rangle = \langle |a_d a_{d-1} \cdots a_2 a_1 a_1^* a_2^* \cdots a_{d-1}^* a_d^* | \rangle$$

which leads to

$$\gamma = q^{d(d-1)/4} \quad (20)$$

for all dimensions; that is

$$q^{d(d-1)/4} |1, 2, \dots, d\rangle = a_1^* a_2^* \cdots a_d^* | \rangle.$$

By imposing

$$R | \rangle \sim |\bar{\rangle}$$

$$R |\bar{\rangle} \sim | \rangle$$

and

$$R |1\rangle \sim |2\rangle$$

$$R |2\rangle \sim |1\rangle$$

it is found that α must be equal to $q^{-1/2}$ by using the first set whereas the action of R on $|1\rangle$ and $|2\rangle$ should be modified by phases such that

$$\begin{aligned} R|1\rangle &= -i|2\rangle \\ R|2\rangle &= +i|1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

to determine β . With this modification R is calculated to be

$$R(2) \equiv q^{-1/2}(a_1^*a_2^* + a_2a_1) + q^{-1}\frac{i}{2}(a_1a_2^*a_1^* - a_1^*a_2a_1a_2^*).$$

It is important to note that complex coefficients only appear when $d = 4k + 2$, where $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

For simplification in the formulation of R , let us define operators A_d and B_k as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} A_d^*(a) &= a_1^*a_2^*\dots a_d^* = \prod_{j=1}^d a_j^* \\ A_d(a) &= [A_d^*(a)]^* = \prod_{j=1}^d a_{d-j+1} \\ A_d^*(a_l) &= a_{l_1}^*a_{l_2}^*\dots a_{l_d}^* = \prod_{j=1}^d a_{l_j}^* \\ A_d(a_l) &= [A_d^*(a_l)]^* = \prod_{j=1}^d a_{l_{d-j+1}} \\ A_0(a) &= 1 \\ B_k &= A_k(a_l)A_d^*(a)A_k(a_l) \\ B_k^* &= A_k^*(a_l)A_d(a)A_k^*(a_l). \end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

By repeating similar calculations for different dimensions, the formula for the symmetry operator can be generalized to obtain

$$R(d) = S_d + \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor d/2-1 \rfloor} \frac{1}{k!} q^{-(d-1)(d/2+k)/2} (B_k + B_k^*) \tag{22}$$

where

$$S_d = \begin{cases} 0 & d = 2k + 1 \\ \frac{i}{2} \frac{1}{(d/2)!} q^{-d(d-1)/2} (B_{d/2} - B_{d/2}^*) & d = 4k + 2 \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{(d/2)!} q^{-d(d-1)/2} (B_{d/2} + B_{d/2}^*) & d = 4k + 4 \end{cases}. \tag{23}$$

The verification of the properties of R as given by (16) is rather tedious but relatively straightforward. We would like to recall that we have defined the operators b_j, b_j^* by (12) and have constructed R so that (16) is valid. In particular this definition implies the existence of the phases φ_j in (16). Alternatively (16) could be replaced by a similar set of relations with $\varphi_j = 1$ but then nontrivial phases would be present in (12).

We have shown that the algebra given by (1), (13) and (15) has a symmetry operator R which can be used to implement the symmetry associated with the reflection $a_j \leftrightarrow b_j$. When a classical system is quantized, the preferred method is to choose a scheme where the symmetries of the system remain unchanged. The d -dimensional bosonic Newton oscillator and the fermionic Newton oscillator both enjoy the $U(d)$ symmetry of the classical oscillator. Thus together with the particle–antiparticle interchange symmetry we have shown here, the resemblance of the d -dimensional fermionic Newton oscillator to the standard d -dimensional fermionic oscillator becomes manifest. This symmetry will be relevant for physical models utilizing the fermionic Newton oscillator.

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