

Phonons and field theory

In these notes we will talk about systems of coupled harmonic oscillators. These systems have collective excitations, called phonons, which behave a lot like actual particles. We call them quasi-particles. We will also learn how, in certain limits, the system of harmonic oscillators behave like a continuum. This will lead us to the concept of field theory.

We start with a single quantum harmonic oscillator

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 q^2 \quad (1)$$

Here q and p are operators satisfying the canonical commutation relations

$$[q, p] = i\hbar \quad (2)$$

(I reintroduce \hbar for completeness. But I'll get rid of it again soon).

We now introduce the so-called creation and annihilation operators

$$\begin{aligned} q &= \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{m\omega}} \frac{(a^\dagger + a)}{\sqrt{2}} & a &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{\hbar}} q + i \frac{p}{\sqrt{m\hbar\omega}} \right) \\ p &= i\sqrt{m\hbar\omega} \frac{(a^\dagger - a)}{\sqrt{2}} & a^\dagger &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{\hbar}} q - i \frac{p}{\sqrt{m\hbar\omega}} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Note that q and p are Hermitian, but a is not.

The constants are chosen so that a is dimensionless. Moreover, they are such that (2) implies

$$[a, a^\dagger] = 1 \quad (4)$$

We now have

$$q^2 = \frac{\hbar}{2m\omega} (a^\dagger a + a a^\dagger + a a + a^\dagger a^\dagger) \quad (5)$$

$$p^2 = \frac{m\hbar\omega}{2} (a^\dagger a + a a^\dagger - a a - a^\dagger a^\dagger)$$

so

$$\frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar\omega}{4} (a^\dagger a + a a^\dagger - a a - a^\dagger a^\dagger) \quad (6)$$

$$\frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 q^2 = \frac{\hbar\omega}{4} (a^\dagger a + a a^\dagger - a a - a^\dagger a^\dagger)$$

and then (1) becomes

$$H = \frac{\hbar\omega}{2} (a^\dagger a + a a^\dagger) \quad (7)$$

Finally, using (4) we can write

$$a a^\dagger = 1 + a^\dagger a \quad (8)$$

Hence

$$H = \hbar\omega (a^\dagger a + \frac{1}{2}) \quad (9)$$

An algebraic problem

The whole treatment of the QHO has therefore been reduced to a mathematical problem.

"Given an operator a satisfying $[a, a^\dagger] = 1$, what are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $a^\dagger a$?"

Note that $a^\dagger a$ is Hermitian and so its eigenvalues will be real and the eigenvectors should form an orthonormal basis. It is quite cool that all we need is the algebra of the operators [Eq (4)]. Everything follows from the algebra.

Let us write

$$a^\dagger a |\lambda\rangle = \lambda |\lambda\rangle \quad (10)$$

we want to know λ and $|\lambda\rangle$. The first piece of information is that λ must be non-negative: multiplying (10) by $\langle\lambda|$ we get

$$\langle\lambda| a^\dagger a |\lambda\rangle = \lambda \langle\lambda|\lambda\rangle = \lambda$$

But if we let $|\psi\rangle = a |\lambda\rangle$ then $\langle\lambda| a^\dagger = \langle\psi|$ so

$$\langle\lambda| a^\dagger a |\lambda\rangle = \langle\psi|\psi\rangle \geq 0$$

Hence

$$\lambda \geq 0 \quad (11)$$

Any operator which can be decomposed as $A^\dagger A$ is by construction a positive semi-definite operator

Next consider the state $|\phi\rangle = a|\lambda\rangle$. Applying $a^\dagger a$ we get

$$a^\dagger a |\phi\rangle = a^\dagger a a |\lambda\rangle$$

we now use the algebra (4) to move things around. Recall that

$$[AB, C] = A[B, C] + [A, C]B$$

Thus

$$[a^\dagger a, a] = \underbrace{a^\dagger [a, a]}_0 + \underbrace{[a^\dagger, a]}_{-1} a = -a$$

$$\therefore [a^\dagger a, a] = -a \quad (12)$$

or, more explicitly

$$a^\dagger a a = a a^\dagger a - a = a(a^\dagger a - 1)$$

then

$$a^\dagger a |\phi\rangle = a^\dagger a a |\lambda\rangle = a(a^\dagger a - 1) |\lambda\rangle$$

but $a^\dagger a |\lambda\rangle = \lambda |\lambda\rangle$ so

$$a^\dagger a |\phi\rangle = a(\lambda - 1) |\lambda\rangle = (\lambda - 1) |\phi\rangle \quad (13)$$

Thus, we reach the important conclusion that if $|\lambda\rangle$ is an eigenvector, then so is $a|\lambda\rangle$, but with eigenvalue $\lambda - 1$. That is why a acts as a lowering operator for the spectrum of $a^\dagger a$: it lowers the eigenvalue by one unit

We would therefore be inclined to label $|\phi\rangle$ as $|\lambda-1\rangle$. But $|\phi\rangle = a|\lambda\rangle$ is not normalized, so we better write

$$|\phi\rangle = c_\lambda |\lambda-1\rangle$$

for some c_λ . To figure out this constant we take the absolute value on both sides

$$\langle \lambda-1 | \lambda-1 \rangle |c_\lambda|^2 = \langle \phi | \phi \rangle = \langle \lambda | a^\dagger a | \lambda \rangle = \lambda$$

Thus $|c_\lambda|^2 = \lambda$. The phase of c_λ is arbitrary so we choose c_λ to be real. Then we finally get

$$a|\lambda\rangle = \sqrt{\lambda} |\lambda-1\rangle \quad (14)$$

So here is what we know so far: we know the eigenvalues must be non-negative and we know that if λ is an eigenvalue, then $(\lambda-1)$ will also be one, with eigenvector $a|\lambda\rangle$.

Now let's apply a again:

$$a^2|\lambda\rangle = \sqrt{\lambda} a|\lambda-1\rangle = \sqrt{\lambda(\lambda-1)} |\lambda-2\rangle$$

or, if we apply a k times, we get

$$a^k |\lambda\rangle = \sqrt{\lambda(\lambda-1)\dots(\lambda-k+1)} |\lambda-k\rangle \quad (15)$$

But we cannot keep doing this forever because the eigenvalues cannot be negative. This means that for any given λ there should be some integer m such that

$$a^m |\lambda\rangle \neq 0$$

but $a^{m+1} |\lambda\rangle = 0$

However

$$a^m |\lambda\rangle = \sqrt{\lambda(\lambda-1)\dots(\lambda-m+1)} |\lambda-m\rangle$$

$$a^{m+1} |\lambda\rangle = \sqrt{\lambda(\lambda-1)\dots(\lambda-m)} |\lambda-m-1\rangle$$

Thus we see that the only way for this to happen is to have λ itself be an integer m . If the λ 's were not integers then the hierarchy (15) would never stop and we would get negative eigenvalues.

Thus we conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} a^\dagger a |m\rangle &= m |m\rangle \\ m &= 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots \end{aligned}$$

(16)

the eigenvalues of $a^\dagger a$ are simply the natural numbers. We also know that (14) takes m to $m-1$:

$$a |m\rangle = \sqrt{m} |m-1\rangle$$

(17)

Now let's do the same for a^\dagger . First

$$[a^\dagger a, a^\dagger] = a^\dagger \underbrace{[a, a^\dagger]}_1 + \underbrace{[a^\dagger, a^\dagger]}_0 a = a^\dagger$$

so

$$a^\dagger a a^\dagger = a^\dagger a a^\dagger + a^\dagger = a^\dagger (a^\dagger a + 1)$$

Then

$$a^\dagger a (a^\dagger |n\rangle) = a^\dagger (a^\dagger a + 1) |n\rangle = a^\dagger (n+1) |n\rangle$$

thus

$$a^\dagger |n\rangle = d_n |n+1\rangle$$

for some constant d_n . That is, a^\dagger raises the eigenvector by one unit. The value of d_n is computed as before

$$\langle n+1 | n+1 \rangle |d_n|^2 = \langle n | a a^\dagger |n\rangle = \langle n | (a^\dagger a + 1) |n\rangle = n+1$$

thus

$$a^\dagger |n\rangle = \sqrt{n+1} |n+1\rangle \quad (18)$$

Of all states (16), the one with $n=0$ is special. It is called the vacuum state, and is characterized by the fact that

$$a |0\rangle = 0$$

We say "a annihilates the vacuum", which sounds really cool, like a sci-fi movie.

From the vacuum we can construct all other states by applying a^\dagger multiple times. For instance

$$a^\dagger |0\rangle = \sqrt{0+1} |1\rangle = |1\rangle$$

$$(a^\dagger)^2 |0\rangle = a^\dagger |1\rangle = \sqrt{2} |2\rangle$$

and so on. Thus

$$|m\rangle = \frac{(a^\dagger)^m}{\sqrt{m!}} |0\rangle \quad (19)$$

And this concludes our algebraic problem.

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Summary

$$[a, a^\dagger] = 1$$

$$[a^\dagger a, a] = -a$$

(20)

$$[a^\dagger a, a^\dagger] = a^\dagger$$

$$a^\dagger a |m\rangle = m |m\rangle$$

$$m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

(21)

$$a |m\rangle = \sqrt{m} |m-1\rangle$$

(22)

$$a^\dagger |m\rangle = \sqrt{m+1} |m+1\rangle$$

$$a |0\rangle = 0$$

$$|m\rangle = \frac{(a^\dagger)^m}{\sqrt{m!}} |0\rangle$$

(23)

Thermal properties of the QHO

Now that we know all about creation and annihilation operators, let us go back to the QHO and the Hamiltonian (9). Its eigenvectors are $|m\rangle$ and the eigenvalues are

$$E_m = \omega(m + 1/2) \quad (\hbar = 1 \text{ now}) \quad (24)$$

The thermal state is

$$\rho = \frac{e^{-\beta H}}{Z} \quad (25)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \text{tr } e^{-\beta H} = \text{tr } e^{-\beta \omega (a^\dagger a + 1/2)} \\ &= \sum_m \langle m | e^{-\beta \omega (a^\dagger a + 1/2)} | m \rangle \\ &= \sum_m e^{-\beta \omega (m + 1/2)} \\ &= \frac{e^{-\beta \omega / 2}}{1 - e^{-\beta \omega}} \quad \leftarrow \text{we did this before} \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\rho = (1 - e^{-\beta \omega}) e^{\beta \omega a^\dagger a} \quad (26)$$

If we want to write it in terms of probabilities, we simply get

$$\rho = \sum_m P_m |m\rangle \langle m| \quad (27)$$

$$P_m = (1 - e^{-\beta \omega}) e^{-\beta \omega m}$$

Now we can compute any expectation value we want at equilibrium

$$\langle A \rangle = \text{tr}(A\rho) = (1 - e^{-\beta\omega}) \text{tr}(A e^{-\beta\omega a^\dagger a})$$

For instance we could compute something like

$$\langle a^\dagger a a a \rangle = (1 - e^{-\beta\omega}) \text{tr}\{a^\dagger a a a e^{-\beta\omega a^\dagger a}\}$$

At first this seems though. But using only $[a, a^\dagger] = 1$ one may show that

$$a^\dagger a a a = a^\dagger a (a^\dagger a - 1) \quad (28)$$

thus

$$\langle a^\dagger a a a \rangle = (1 - e^{-\beta\omega}) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \langle m | a^\dagger a (a^\dagger a - 1) e^{-\beta\omega a^\dagger a} | m \rangle$$

$$= (1 - e^{-\beta\omega}) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} m(m-1) e^{-\beta\omega m}$$

$$= 2 \bar{n}^2 \quad \bar{n} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta\omega} - 1}$$

where, in the last line I simply plugged the sum in Mathematica