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Solid State Physics II Chapter 4 Second Quantization

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Second Quantization

- What is it?
- Why do we need it? What for?
- How to represent the first-quantization form of observables in terms of second quantization operators?
- How to calculate the expectation values of (a function of) operators in a secondquantization form?
- How do we take account of the statistics: Boson vs. Fermion?

Observables

 Single-Particle Systems: 1st quantization picture The observables are position and momentum, i.e., {X, P}.

According to the uncertainty principle, measurements of a (conjugate) pair of observables (e.g., X and P) in different sequences give different results:

 $\mathbf{XP}|\psi\rangle\neq\mathbf{PX}|\psi\rangle$

Therefore, in general, we can write

$$[\mathbf{X},\mathbf{P}]=i\hbar\neq 0$$

(Note that **P** and **X** are hermitian.)

- Many-Particle Systems: 2nd quantization picture
 - \Rightarrow The observables are "amplitudes" in a certain normal mode.
 - What is the "normal mode"?
 - * eigenstate or eigenmode
 - * often described as a decoupled/independent motion with a fixed frequency, e.g.,

$$\eta_k(t) \sim \eta_o e^{i\omega_k t}$$

For examples, such normal modes are determined by the equation-ofmotion with boundary conditions:

$$\left(\mathcal{H} - i\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\right)\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0$$

$$\left(\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2}\right)\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}, t) = 0$$



- How is the "amplitude" represented in quantum mechanics?
 - Consider a normal mode oscillation in classical mechanics, which is nothing but a simple harmonic oscillator.

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2}u_k(t) + \omega_k^2 u_k(t) = 0$$

– By replacing $u_k(t) \to \hat{X}$ and $m\dot{u}_k(t) \to \hat{P}$, we can write down a quantum mechanical Hamiltonian \mathcal{H}

$$\mathcal{H} = \frac{\hat{P}^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}m\omega_k^2\hat{X}^2$$

where the amplitude of oscillator can be measured by the observables \hat{X} and \hat{P} .

• Alternatively, the quantum mechanical harmonic oscillator can be represented by the creation and annihilation operators a^+ and a satisfying the relation

$$[a, a^+] = 1$$

so that the Hamiltonian can be rewritten as

$$\mathcal{H} = \hbar \omega_k (a^+ a + \frac{1}{2})$$

(Please refer to the quantum mechanics textbook for the detailed descriptions of a and a^+ operators.)

• Thus, the "amplitude" of the k-th normal mode can be measured by the nonhermitian observable a_k . Indeed the *so-called* number operator $\hat{n_k} = a_k^+ a_k$ is a measure of the number of quanta in the k-th normal mode, which corresponds to the number state $|n_k\rangle$. One may adopt a set of **coherent states** as basis for the representation of manyparticle states. The coherent state $|\alpha\rangle$ is defined by

$$a_k |\alpha\rangle = \alpha |\alpha\rangle,$$

i.e., an eigenstate of the annihilation operator a_k .

$$|\alpha\rangle = \exp(\alpha a_k^+)|0\rangle$$

 $= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^n}{\sqrt{n!}}|n\rangle$

Please note that $|\alpha\rangle$ has a *semi-classical limit* with the classical state $\{X, P\}$:

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{\hbar}} X + i \frac{1}{\sqrt{m\hbar\omega}} P \right)$$

N-particle quantum states

Suppose that we have N (non-interacting) particles in a system with a set of available (single-particle) quantum states {ψ_n}. Then, the N-particle state can be specified by the "amplitudes" of each quantum state, i.e., normal mode |ψ_n⟩ such as

$$|\Psi_N\rangle = |n_{k=1}, n_{k=2}, n_{k=3}, \dots\rangle$$

so that the expectation value of \hat{n}_k becomes

$$\langle \Psi_N | \hat{n}_k | \Psi_N \rangle = n_k.$$

In general, an arbitrary N-particle state can be represented by

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{\{n_k\}} c(\{n_k\}) |\Psi_N(\{n_k\})\rangle$$

• Therefore all the observables of the *N*-particle system can be represented by the operators $\{a_k\}$ and $\{a_k^+\}$:

$$\hat{O}_N = O(\{a_k^+, a_k\})$$

• Note: Uncertainty principle in *N*-particle system can be regarded as an uncertainty in measuring numbers:

$$aa^+|\psi\rangle \neq a^+a|\psi\rangle$$

That is, $[a, a^+] = 1 \neq 0$ (real).

Why do we need it?

 \Rightarrow For the sake of convenience. In Fermion systems, for example, each $|\Psi_N\rangle$ basis state corresponds to a Slater's determinant of *N*-orbital states $\{|\psi_n\rangle|n = 1, 2, ..., N\}$, which contains *N*!-terms in it. Thus, to represent an arbitrary state $|\Psi\rangle$, we have to make a linear combination of such Slater's determinants.

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{\{n_k\}} c(\{n_k\}) |\Psi_N(\{n_k\})\rangle$$

 \Rightarrow Too complicated to deal with!

Observables in 2nd Quantization Form

• Consider an operator, e.g., momentum operator $\hat{p} = -i\nabla$, in the 1st quantization picture such that

$$\hat{p}|\phi_k\rangle = k|\phi_k\rangle$$

Then the total momentum P can be found by

$$P = \sum_{k} k n_k.$$

That is, the total momentum operator \hat{P} in the 2nd quantization form becomes

$$\hat{P} = \sum_{k} k a_k^+ a_k$$

This is obvious because all we need to do is **just counting** number of particles in the k-th mode and add them up.

- What if we have a set of normal modes which are not the eigenstates of \hat{p} ?
 - Consider an operator $\hat{\alpha}$ such that

$$\hat{\alpha}|\phi_{\alpha}\rangle = \alpha|\phi_{\alpha}\rangle$$

– One-particle state and the vacuum:

$$|\phi_k\rangle = a_k^+|0\rangle$$
$$|\phi_\alpha\rangle = a_\alpha^+|0\rangle$$

From the closure relation

$$1 = \sum_{k} |\phi_{k}\rangle \langle \phi_{k}| = \sum_{\alpha} |\phi_{\alpha}\rangle \langle \phi_{\alpha}|,$$

we know $|\phi_k
angle = \sum_lpha |lpha
angle \langle lpha |\phi_k
angle$, that is,

$$a_k^+ = \sum_{\alpha} a_{\alpha}^+ \langle \alpha | k \rangle$$

$$a_k = \sum_{\alpha} \langle k | \alpha \rangle a_{\alpha}$$

• The total momentum operator \hat{P} :

$$\hat{P} = \sum_{k} k a_{k}^{+} a_{k}$$

$$= \sum_{k} k \sum_{\alpha \alpha'} a_{\alpha}^{+} \langle \alpha | k \rangle a_{\alpha'} \langle k | \alpha' \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha \alpha'} a_{\alpha}^{+} \langle \alpha | k \rangle k \langle k | \alpha' \rangle a_{\alpha}$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha \alpha'} a_{\alpha}^{+} \langle \alpha | \hat{p} | \alpha' \rangle a_{\alpha}$$

• When substituting $\alpha \rightarrow \mathbf{x}$,

$$\hat{\psi}(\mathbf{x}) = a_{\mathbf{x}}$$
$$\hat{P} = \int d\mathbf{x} \hat{\psi}^{+}(\mathbf{x}) \left(\frac{\nabla}{i}\right) \hat{\psi}(\mathbf{x})$$

Note that $\hat{\psi}(\mathbf{x})$ is a so-called field operator:

$$\hat{\psi}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k} \langle \mathbf{x} | \phi_k \rangle a_k = \sum_{k} \phi_k(\mathbf{x}) a_k$$

• One-particle operator \hat{O}_1 : In the 1st quantization representation, we write

$$\hat{O}_1 = \sum_i \hat{o}_i$$

In the 2nd quantization form,

$$\hat{O}_{1} = \int d\mathbf{x}\hat{\psi}^{+}(\mathbf{x})o(\mathbf{x})\hat{\psi}(\mathbf{x})$$
$$= \sum_{\alpha\alpha'} \langle \alpha | \hat{o} | \alpha' \rangle a_{\alpha}^{+} a_{\alpha'}$$

• Two-particle operator \hat{O}_2 : In the 1st quantization representation,

$$\hat{O}_2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} \hat{o}_{ij}$$

In the 2nd quantization form,

$$\hat{O}_{2} = \frac{1}{2} \int d\mathbf{x}_{1} d\mathbf{x}_{2} \hat{\psi}^{+}(\mathbf{x}_{1}) \hat{\psi}^{+}(\mathbf{x}_{2}) o(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{2}) \hat{\psi}(\mathbf{x}_{2}) \hat{\psi}(\mathbf{x}_{1})$$
$$= \sum_{\alpha \alpha' \beta \beta'} \langle \alpha \beta | \hat{o} | \alpha' \beta' \rangle a_{\alpha}^{+} a_{\beta}^{+} a_{\beta'} a_{\alpha'}$$

N-electron system

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_{i} -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_i^2 + \sum_{i} v(\mathbf{x}_i) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij}' \frac{e^2}{|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j|}$$

$$v_{kk'} = \langle k | v(\mathbf{x}) | k' \rangle$$
$$V_{kk'k''k'''}^C = \langle kk' | \frac{e^2}{|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2|} | k''k''' \rangle$$

Statistics

Pauli Exclusion Principle

$$a_k^+|n_k=1\rangle = 0$$

Since $|n_k = 1\rangle = a_k^+ |0\rangle$, the Pauli principle states that

$$(a_k^+)^2 = 0$$

Accordingly, we can generalize the commutation rule for Fermions:

$$[a_k, a_{k'}]_+ = 0$$
$$[a_k^+, a_{k'}^+]_+ = 0$$
$$[a_k, a_{k'}^+]_+ = \delta_{kk'}$$

Note that $[A, B] \equiv [A, B]_{-} = AB - BA$ and $[A, B]_{+} = AB + BA$.

An Example: Hartree Fock Theory

Consider an electron gas in a homogeneous, positively charged medium (jellium model).

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_o + \mathcal{H}_1$$
$$\mathcal{H}_o = \sum_i h_i = \sum_i \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_i^2 + v(\mathbf{x}_i) \right]$$
$$\mathcal{H}_1 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} \frac{e^2}{|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j|}$$

where the external potential $v(\mathbf{x})$ is given by

$$v(\mathbf{x}) = -e^2 \int d\mathbf{x}' \; \frac{n_b}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|}$$

with n_b is a positive charge density equal to the average electron density.

First Quantization Method: Slater's Determinant

Hartree Approximation

• Solving the one-particle Hamiltonian:

$$\mathbf{H}_o |\Phi\rangle = E_o |\Phi\rangle$$

$$\Phi(\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_N) = \varphi_1(\mathbf{x}_1) \dots \varphi_N(\mathbf{x}_N) = \prod_i \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}_k)$$
$$h_i \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) = \epsilon_k \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

(Note that Φ has no permutation symmetry.)

• With the orthogonality constraint $\langle \varphi_k | \varphi_l \rangle = \delta_{kl}$, obtain a variational equation for φ for the total energy $E = \langle \Phi | \mathcal{H} | \Phi \rangle$:

$$\delta \left[\langle \Phi | \mathcal{H} | \Phi \rangle - \sum_{k} \lambda_k (\langle \varphi_k | \varphi_k \rangle - 1) \right]$$

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 + \sum_{l}'\int d\mathbf{x}' \frac{|\varphi_l(\mathbf{x}')|^2}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|} - \int d\mathbf{x}' \frac{n_b}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|}\right]\varphi_k(\mathbf{x}) = \epsilon_k \varphi_k(\mathbf{x})$$

• If we look for a homogeneous solution, i.e.,

$$\sum_{l} |\varphi_l(\mathbf{x}')|^2 = n_b,$$

then the Hartree equation becomes a simple plane wave equation:

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2\right]\varphi_k(\mathbf{x}) = \epsilon_k\varphi_k(\mathbf{x})$$

Hartree-Fock Approximation

• Since the electrons are "indistinguishable" particles obeying the Pauli exclusion principle,

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N!}} \begin{vmatrix} \varphi_1(\mathbf{x}_1) & \dots & \varphi_N(\mathbf{x}_1) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \varphi_1(\mathbf{x}_N) & \dots & \varphi_N(\mathbf{x}_N) \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N!}} \sum_{P(1,\dots,N)} (-)^P \prod_{i=1}^N \varphi_i(\mathbf{x}_{Pi})$$

(Here we assume that all the particles have the same spin!)

• Hartree-Fock equation:

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}) &+ \sum_l \int d\mathbf{x}' \frac{\left(|\varphi_l(\mathbf{x}')|^2 - n_b \right)}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|}] \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}) \\ &- \sum_{l(\sigma_l = \sigma_k)} \int d\mathbf{x}' \frac{\varphi_l^*(\mathbf{x}' \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}'))}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|} \varphi_l(\mathbf{x}) = \epsilon_k \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}) \end{aligned}$$

(It is noted that, when looking for a homogeneous solution, $\varphi_k(\mathbf{x}) = e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}}$ becomes a solution!)

2nd Quantization Method

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_o + \mathcal{H}_1$$
$$\mathcal{H}_o = \sum_{k\sigma} \epsilon_{ok} c^+_{k\sigma} c_{k\sigma}$$

$$\mathcal{H}_1 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{kp,q\neq 0} \sum_{\sigma\sigma'} V_q c^+_{k+q\sigma} c^+_{p-q\sigma'} c_{p\sigma'} c_{k\sigma}$$

$$\epsilon_{ok} = \frac{k^2}{2}$$
$$V_q = \frac{4\pi e^2}{q^2}$$

From the Hartree-Fock solution of the 1st quantization calculation, we know that $\varphi_k = e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{x}}$ is a good candidate of normal modes and can assume the ground state:

$$|\Phi_o\rangle = \prod_{k\sigma} \theta(k_F - k)c^+_{k\sigma}|0\rangle$$



Note that the cut-off in momentum space is different from the energy cut-off $\theta(\epsilon_F - \epsilon_k)$. This is valid when we assume the translation and rotation symmetry of the ground state.

Perturbation Expansion

• 0th order:

$$E^{(0)} = \langle \Phi_o | \mathcal{H}_o | \Phi_o \rangle$$

=
$$\sum_{k\sigma} \epsilon_{ok} \langle \Phi_o | c_{k\sigma}^+ c_{k\sigma} | \Phi_o \rangle$$

=
$$\sum_{k\sigma} \epsilon_{ok} \theta (k_F - k)$$

• 1st order correction: (Hartree-Fock term)

$$E^{(1)} = \langle \Phi_o | \mathcal{H}_1 | \Phi_o \rangle$$

= $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{kp,q \neq 0} \sum_{\sigma\sigma'} V_q \langle \Phi_o | c_{k+q\sigma}^+ c_{p-q\sigma'}^+ c_{p\sigma'} c_{k\sigma} | \Phi_o \rangle$
= $-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\sigma} \sum_{kq} V_q \theta(k_F - |\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{q}|) \theta(k_F - |\mathbf{k}|)$



 $\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{q}\sigma_1 = \mathbf{k}\sigma_1, \quad \mathbf{p} - \mathbf{q}\sigma_2 = \mathbf{p}\sigma_2 \quad (\times)$ $\mathbf{k} + \mathbf{q}\sigma_1 = \mathbf{p}\sigma_2, \quad \mathbf{p} - \mathbf{q}\sigma_2 = \mathbf{k}\sigma_1 \quad (O)$

$$|i\rangle = c_{\mathbf{p}\sigma_2}c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma_1}|\Phi_0\rangle, \quad |f\rangle = c_{\mathbf{p}-\mathbf{q}\sigma_2}c_{\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{q}\sigma_1}|\Phi_0\rangle$$

$$\rightarrow \langle f | i \rangle = \delta_{\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{q},\mathbf{p}} \delta_{\sigma_1,\sigma_2} \langle \Phi_0 | c^+_{\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{q}\sigma_1} c^+_{\mathbf{k}\sigma_1} c_{\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{q}\sigma_1} c_{\mathbf{k}\sigma_1} | \Phi_0 \rangle$$

$$= \delta_{\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{q},\mathbf{p}} \delta_{\sigma_1,\sigma_2} \langle \Phi_0 | \hat{n}_{\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{q}\sigma_1} \cdot (-\hat{n}_{\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{q}\sigma_1}) | \Phi_0 \rangle$$

$$= -\delta_{\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{q},\mathbf{p}} \delta_{\sigma_1,\sigma_2} \Theta(k_F - |\mathbf{k}+\mathbf{q}|) \Theta(k_F - |\mathbf{k}|)$$