

## On a $q$ -deformed harmonic oscillator with variable linear momentum

HAROLD EXTON

*“Nyuggel”, Lunabister, Dunrossness, Shetland ZE2 9JH, United Kingdom*

Received February 11, 1992

### ABSTRACT

A quantum mechanical model is introduced which includes variable momentum. This may be associated notionally with the variable moment of inertia model and is applied to give exact solutions to a  $q$ -deformed harmonic oscillator. The eigenfunctions are given in terms of a class of  $q$ -Hermite polynomials. When the base  $q \rightarrow 1$ , the classical case is recovered.

### 1. Introduction

Recently, a great deal of interest has been manifested in various  $q$ -deformed quantum systems, in particular the  $q$ -deformed harmonic oscillator in relation to the quantum group  $SU_q(2)$ . See, for example, [6]. Connections of the same group with the variable moment of inertia model have also been indicated by Bonatsos, Argyres, Drenska, Raychev and Rousev in [1]. These suggested the possibility of considering variable linear momentum models which might in certain cases yield exactly soluble quantum systems. In this study, a  $q$ -analogue of the harmonic oscillator is discussed and an analytic solution arises quite naturally.

For this purpose, the momentum operator in dimensionless form is replaced by

$$P_q = \{1 - \alpha x^2(1 - q^2)\} B_{q,x}, \quad (1.1)$$

in which the  $q$ -differential operator  $\mathbb{B}_{q,x}$  is given by

$$\mathbb{B}_{q,x} y(x) = \frac{y(qx) - y(x)}{x(q-1)}. \quad (1.2)$$

F.H. Jackson was the first author to introduce a coherent notation on the subject of  $q$ -functions (see [4]). This has been developed by several mathematicians including Jain ([5]) and Exton ([3]) to which the reader is referred. It must be pointed out, however, that in this field, the notation is far from standardised.

The  $q$ -analogue of the governing equation of the harmonic oscillator considered here is

$$\{P_q^2 - (\lambda - \alpha x^2)\} \psi(x) = 0. \quad (1.3)$$

As is usual with the theory of  $q$ -functions, the corresponding classical form of any expression is recovered on putting  $q = 1$ . Hence, as expected, (1.2) then reduces to the ordinary differential operator and (1.3) to the usual form of the equation associated with the classical harmonic oscillator.

## 2. The solution of (1.3)

If (1.3) is expanded, bearing the rules of manipulation of  $q$ -derivatives ([3]), we have, after a little algebra,

$$\begin{aligned} & \{1 - \alpha x^2(1 - q)\} \{1 - \alpha q^2 x^2(1 - q)\} \mathbb{B}_{q,x}^2 \psi(x) \\ & - \alpha x(1 - q^2) \{1 - \alpha x^2(1 - q)\} \mathbb{B}_{q,x} \psi(x) - (\alpha x^2 - \lambda) \psi(x). \end{aligned} \quad (2.1)$$

The classical technique of making an exponential substitution in order to solve the differential equation governing the ordinary harmonic oscillator suggests that a similar approach using a suitable  $q$ -analogue of the exponential function should be made here. Hence, put

$$\psi(x) = E_{1/q} 2 \left( \frac{-\alpha x^2}{1+q} \right) u(x), \quad (2.2)$$

where

$$E_{1/q}(x) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^m}{[m; q]!} q^{m(m-1)/2}, \quad (2.3)$$

and

$$[a; q] = [a] \quad (1 - q^a) / (1 - q), \quad [n; q]! = [1][2] \cdots [n]. \quad (2.4)$$

The series (2.3) is convergent for all values of  $x$  if  $|q| \leq 1$ . After some manipulation, the left-hand member of (2.1) becomes

$$E_{1/q} 2 \left( \frac{-\alpha x^2}{1+q} \right) \{ B^2 u - \alpha(1+q)x B u - \alpha(1-\alpha x^2)u \} \tag{2.5}$$

and (2.1) then takes the form

$$B^2 u(x) - \alpha(1+q)x B u(x) = (\alpha - \lambda)u(x). \tag{2.6}$$

A power series solution of (2.6) is then possible (see [3, Chapter 2]). The even solution is found to be the  $q$ -Hermite function

$$u_1 = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{[-\nu/2; q^2, r] (\alpha q^\nu x^2)^r}{[1/2; q^2, r] [r; q^2]!}, \tag{2.7}$$

where, for convenience, we have put  $\lambda = \alpha \{1 + (1+q)[\nu; q]\}$ . The  $q$ -Pochhammer symbol is given by

$$[a; q, n] = [a; q] [a+1; q] [a+2; q] \cdots [a+n-1; q], \quad [a; q, 0] = 1. \tag{2.8}$$

The  $q$ -Hermite equations and its solutions have been discussed elsewhere (see [2] for example). If  $T_r$  is the  $r^{\text{th}}$  term of (2.7), then

$$T_{r+1} / T_r = \frac{\alpha q^\nu x^2 [r - \nu/2; q^2]}{[r + 1/2; q^2] [1 + r; q^2]} = \frac{\alpha q^\nu x^2 (1 - q^{2r-\nu})(1 - q^2)}{(1 - q^{2r+1})(1 - q^{2r+2})}. \tag{2.9}$$

When  $|q| < 1$ ,

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} (T_{r+1} / T_r) = \alpha q^\nu x^2 (1 - q^2) \tag{2.10}$$

and the series (2.7) then converges if

$$|x^2| < \frac{1}{\alpha q^\nu x^2 (1 - q^2)}. \tag{2.11}$$

When  $|q| \geq 1$ , (2.7) converges for all values of  $x$ .

Following the usual classical procedure, the boundary conditions require that the series representation of the eigenfunction must terminate, so that for the even solution,  $\nu$  must be an even non-negative integer. Similarly, in the case of the odd solution,  $\nu$  must be an odd positive integer. Hence, the eigenvalues  $\{\lambda\}$  are given by

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 \{1 + [2; q] [N; q]\}, \quad N = 0, 1, 2, \dots \tag{2.12}$$

which is an exact  $q$ -analogue of the classical result.

### 3. Conclusion

Unless  $q = 1$ , the classical case, the eigenvalues as given by (2.12) are not evenly spaced. The base  $q$  may assume any value, real or complex, but in the present context, it will be taken that  $q$  is real. If  $|q| < 1$ , the eigenvalues become successively more closely spaced, and reach a limiting value of

$$\lambda_0 \left( 1 + \frac{1 + q}{1 - q} \right). \quad (3.1)$$

When  $|q| > 1$ , the eigenvalues become progressively less closely spaced, and the above analysis remains substantially the same, except that  $E_{1/q}(x)$  must be replaced by  $1 / E_q(-x)$  for reasons of convergence (see [4]).

### References

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