

Phy 981 Assignment 2

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Exercise 3

(a) For $N = 3$, Φ^{AS} is

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi_{\lambda}^{\text{AS}} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{3!}} \sum_p (-)^p \hat{P} \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_2) \psi_{\alpha_3}(x_3) \\ \Phi_{\lambda}^{\text{AS}} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} [\psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_2) \psi_{\alpha_3}(x_3) - \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_2) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_3}(x_3) \\ &\quad - \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_3) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_2) \psi_{\alpha_3}(x_1) - \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_3) \psi_{\alpha_3}(x_2) \\ &\quad + \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_3) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_3}(x_2) + \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_2) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_3) \psi_{\alpha_3}(x_1)]\end{aligned}$$

(b) The integral can be written out as

$$\int dx_1 \dots dx_N \frac{1}{N!} \left[\sum_p (-)^p \hat{P} \prod_{i=1}^N \psi_{\alpha_i}^*(x_i) \right] \left[\sum_p (-)^p \hat{P} \prod_{i=1}^N \psi_{\alpha_i}(x_i) \right].$$

However, since the basis functions $\psi_{\alpha_i}(x_i)$ are orthogonal, the only terms that will survive the integration are those with corresponding permutations from each sum. In other words, the integral can be written as

$$\frac{1}{N!} \int dx_1 \dots dx_N \sum_p (-)^{2p} \hat{P} \prod_{i=1}^N \psi_{\alpha_i}^*(x_i) \psi_{\alpha_i}(x_i).$$

Now, using the normality of the basis functions, this can be rewritten as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{N!} \sum_p \int dx_1 \dots dx_N \hat{P} \prod_{i=1}^N \psi_{\alpha_i}^*(x_i) \psi_{\alpha_i}(x_i) \\ = \frac{1}{N!} \sum_p \prod_{i=1}^N \int dx_i \psi_{\alpha_i}^*(x_i) \psi_{\alpha_i}(x_i) \\ = \frac{1}{N!} \sum_p (1) = \frac{N!}{N!} = 1\end{aligned}$$

(c) For the one-body operator $\hat{F} = \hat{f}(x_1) + \hat{f}(x_2)$,

$$\begin{aligned} & \langle \Phi_{\alpha_1 \alpha_2}^{AS} | \hat{f}(x_1) + \hat{f}(x_2) | \Phi_{\alpha_1 \alpha_2}^{AS} \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int dx_1 dx_2 [\psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_2) - \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_2)] (\hat{f}(x_1) + \hat{f}(x_2)) \\ & \quad \times [\psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_2) - \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_2)]. \end{aligned}$$

Since the functions ψ_{α_i} are orthogonal, the cross terms drop out. Thus, the above becomes

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \int dx_1 dx_2 [\psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_2)] (\hat{f}(x_1) + \hat{f}(x_2)) [\psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_2)] \right. \\ & \quad \left. + \int dx_1 dx_2 [\psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_2)] (\hat{f}(x_1) + \hat{f}(x_2)) [\psi_{\alpha_2}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_2)] \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

However, since x_1 and x_2 are arbitrary bound variables, we can just switch them in the second term and find

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 2 \int dx_1 dx_2 [\psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_2)] (\hat{f}(x_1) + \hat{f}(x_2)) [\psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_2)] \right\} \\ &= \boxed{\langle \alpha_1 \alpha_2 | \hat{f}(x_1) | \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \rangle + \langle \alpha_1 \alpha_2 | \hat{f}(x_2) | \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \rangle} \end{aligned}$$

The calculation is similar for the two-body operator. This time,

$$\hat{G} = \sum_{i>j}^N \hat{g}(x_i, x_j) = \hat{g}(x_1, x_2)$$

since \hat{g} is invariant under an exchange of x_1 and x_2 . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} & \langle \Phi_{\alpha_1 \alpha_2}^{AS} | \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) | \Phi_{\alpha_1 \alpha_2}^{AS} \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int dx_1 dx_2 [\psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_2) - \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_2)] \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) \\ & \quad \times [\psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_2) - \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_2)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int dx_1 dx_2 \psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_2) \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_2) \\ & \quad + \frac{1}{2} \int dx_1 dx_2 \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_2) \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_2) \\ & \quad - \frac{1}{2} \int dx_1 dx_2 \psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_2) \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_2) \\ & \quad - \frac{1}{2} \int dx_1 dx_2 \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_2) \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_2). \end{aligned}$$

Using the same trick of swapping the indices as above, this becomes

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \int dx_1 dx_2 \psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_2) \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_2) \\
 & - \int dx_1 dx_2 \psi_{\alpha_1}^*(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_2}^*(x_2) \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) \psi_{\alpha_2}(x_1) \psi_{\alpha_1}(x_2) \\
 & = \langle \alpha_1 \alpha_2 | \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) | \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \rangle - \langle \alpha_1 \alpha_2 | \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) | \alpha_2 \alpha_1 \rangle \\
 & = \boxed{\langle \alpha_1 \alpha_2 | \hat{g}(x_1, x_2) | \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \rangle_{\text{AS}}}
 \end{aligned}$$

The shorthand notation for the Slater determinant, $\Phi_{\alpha_1 \alpha_2}^{\text{AS}}$, indicates that the determinant is antisymmetric and is taken over two particles with quantum numbers α_1 and α_2 .

In addition to permutation symmetry, I would expect that the one-body operator will be diagonal in the basis of single-particle states, and the two-body operator will be symmetric to reflect the permutation symmetry.

Exercise 4

- (a) This is a problem of combinatorics. Since the Pauli principle forbids putting more than one particle into a state with a particular p and spin, the number of possible Slater determinants is

$$\binom{6}{2} = \frac{6!}{2!(6-2)!} = \boxed{15}.$$

If we limit ourselves to only states with paired particles, as below, then there would be three possible Slater determinants.

- (b) Based on the assumption that the one-body part of the Hamiltonian has the form

$$\hat{h}_0 \psi_{p\sigma} = p d \psi_{p\sigma}, \quad (1)$$

the matrix elements it produces should be

$$\langle \Phi_0 | \hat{H}_0 | \Phi_0 \rangle = \sum_i \langle p_i \sigma_i | h_0 | p_i \sigma_i \rangle. \quad (2)$$

If we assume that both particles must be in the same state p , then this can only take values of $2d$ or $4d$, so

$$\hat{H}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 2d & 0 \\ 0 & 4d \end{pmatrix} \quad (3)$$

The problem states that the two-body part of the Hamiltonian has matrix elements uniformly equal to $-g$. Therefore, the overall Hamiltonian is

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_I = \boxed{\begin{pmatrix} 2d - g & -g \\ -g & 4d - g \end{pmatrix}} \quad (4)$$

Using Mathematica, one can show that this matrix has eigenvalues

$$\lambda_{\pm} = 3d - g \pm \sqrt{d^2 + g^2} \quad (5)$$

and eigenvectors

$$v_{\pm} = \begin{pmatrix} d \mp \sqrt{d^2 + g^2} & 1 \end{pmatrix}^T. \quad (6)$$

The state with two particles in $p = 2$ mixes with the state with two particles in $p = 1$ through the off-diagonal elements of the Hamiltonian matrix. Thus,

$$\langle 22 | H | 11 \rangle = -g \quad (7)$$

The eigenvectors of the Hamiltonian can be interpreted as a linear combination of the Slater determinants for two particles in each of the states $p = 1$ and $p = 2$. Since there is some mixing between these two states (the interaction part of the Hamiltonian), the “true” eigenvectors of the system are a linear combination of the basis states of the non-interacting particles.

(c) Based on the math above, we can write, by inspection,

$$\hat{H} = \begin{pmatrix} 2d - g & -g & -g \\ -g & 4d - g & -g \\ -g & -g & 6d - g \end{pmatrix} \quad (8)$$

for the case with the $p = 3$ state available. There is no closed-form analytic solution to the eigenvalue problem for this matrix, but it can be diagonalized numerically if we choose values for d and g . I'll set $d = 1$ and look at two values of g :

Small g : The case of small g corresponds to weak interactions between the particles. If we set $g = 0.001$, then the matrix is approximately diagonal. The eigenvalues in this case are, to three figures, 2.00, 4.00, and 6.00 (the diagonal of the matrix), and the eigenvectors are

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1.00 \\ 0.00 \\ 0.00 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0.00 \\ 1.00 \\ 0.00 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} 0.00 \\ 0.00 \\ 1.00 \end{pmatrix}$$

when taken to the same precision. This is expected since if the particles barely interact, then the single-particle states are a good basis.

Large g : If we set $g = 10$, then things are much less clean. This produces eigenvalues of -26.09 , 5.20 , and 2.89 , and eigenvectors

$$\begin{pmatrix} -0.616 \\ -0.575 \\ -0.539 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -0.204 \\ -0.544 \\ 0.814 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ and } \begin{pmatrix} 0.761 \\ -0.611 \\ -0.218 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Unsurprisingly, a strong interaction term produces a strong mixing of the single-particle states.