

## RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SUPERSYMMETRY AND THE INVERSE METHOD IN QUANTUM MECHANICS

Michael Martin NIETO

*Theoretical Division, Los Alamos National Laboratory, University of California,  
Los Alamos, NM 87545, USA*

Received 18 June 1984

In supersymmetric QM the bosonic hamiltonian  $H_+ = A^\dagger A$  yields the fermionic hamiltonian  $H_- = AA^\dagger$ . However, the most general  $B_\lambda$  that satisfies  $B_\lambda B_\lambda^\dagger = H_-$  yields an  $H_{B+}(\lambda) = B_\lambda^\dagger B_\lambda$  which in general is *not*  $H_+$ . This new hamiltonian can be understood as a special case of the application of the inverse method to  $H_+$  to obtain new hamiltonians, one of which is  $H_{B+}(\lambda)$ . When  $\lambda = 0$  the new hamiltonian has the original bosonic spectrum but with the ground state removed.

The description of supersymmetric quantum mechanics [1] can start with the standard Schrödinger form

$$H_\pm \Psi = i\partial_t \Psi = [-\partial_x^2 + V_\pm(x)] \Psi, \quad (1)$$

with  $V_\pm(x)$  given by

$$V_\pm(x) = (\frac{1}{2}U')^2 \mp \frac{1}{2}U'' . \quad (2)$$

(The prime means  $d/dx$ .) Eq. (2), often motivated by the Fokker–Planck equation [2]<sup>†</sup>, automatically guarantees that the ground state of  $H_+$  has zero energy, since a solution to eq. (1) using  $H_+$  is

$$\Psi_0 = N_0 \exp[-\frac{1}{2}U], \quad E_0 = 0 . \quad (3)$$

The hamiltonian  $H_+$  (and the associated  $H_-$ ) can be written as

$$H_+ = A^\dagger A, \quad H_- = AA^\dagger,$$

$$A = \partial_x + \frac{1}{2}U', \quad A^\dagger = -\partial_x + \frac{1}{2}U', \quad [A, A^\dagger] = U'' . \quad (4)$$

The hamiltonians  $H_+$  and  $H_-$  are boson and fermion

supersymmetric partners. This can be seen by going to a two component wave function and writing [3]

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ A & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Q^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & A^\dagger \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

The supersymmetric hamiltonian is then

$$H_{ss} = Q^\dagger Q + QQ^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} H_+ & 0 \\ 0 & H_- \end{bmatrix}. \quad (6)$$

The charges  $Q$  and  $Q^\dagger$  have the supersymmetric properties  $Q^2 = (Q^\dagger)^2 = 0$  and  $[Q, H_{ss}] = [Q^\dagger, H_{ss}] = 0$ . The two hamiltonians have the same spectra, except for the ground state eigenvalue. Only the boson hamiltonian ( $H_+$ ) has a normalizable ground state with eigenvalue  $E_0 = 0$ .

The decomposition of  $H_\pm$  into  $A$  and  $A^\dagger$  actually is a type of factorization that goes back to Schrödinger [4]. However, as Mielnik [5] observed for the harmonic oscillator, the solutions that can be generated from such a factorization are more general than usually realized. Such generalizations will allow us to show the connection to the inverse method.

Consider a hamiltonian

$$H_{B-} \equiv BB^\dagger = H_- , \quad B = \partial_x + f(x) . \quad (7)$$

Combining eqs. (4) and (7) yields

$$f^2 + f' = (\frac{1}{2}U')^2 + \frac{1}{2}U'' . \quad (8)$$

<sup>†</sup> A clear derivation of the Fokker–Planck equation from the more general master equation is given by Kittel [2]. Given the FP equation, one makes a simple transformation of variables to get the imaginary time Schrödinger equation. See the footnote on p. 788 of Tomita et al. [2].

Eq. (8) is a Ricatti equation [6], with the obvious solution  $f = (U'/2)^{+2}$ . However, the general solution is  $f = (U'/2) - \phi$ , where  $\phi$  is to be determined. Writing  $\phi$  as  $1/y$ , the differential equation (8) becomes

$$y' = U'y - 1, \quad (9)$$

whose solution is

$$1/y = \phi = \exp[-U(x)]$$

$$\times \left( \lambda + \int_x^\infty dz \exp[-U(z)] \right)^{-1}, \quad (10)$$

where  $\lambda$  is a constant. Since  $\phi$  has the property

$$\phi' = \phi(\phi - U'), \quad (11)$$

one has

$$H_{B+}(\lambda) = B_\lambda^\dagger B_\lambda = -\partial_x^2 + V_+ + 2\phi' \neq H_+. \quad (12)$$

If  $H_{B+} \neq H_+$ , what is it? The answer can be found by using the Gel'fand-Levitan inverse method [7], as was done by Abraham and Moses [8]. This program [8] does the following.

Given an unperturbed hamiltonian  $H_0 = -\partial_x^2 + V_0$ , with discrete eigenvalues-eigenvectors  $(E_n, \Psi_n)$  and continuous eigenvalues-eigenvectors  $(E_k, \Psi_k)$ , one can generate a new perturbed hamiltonian  $H_1 = H_0 + V_1$  with new eigenvectors  $\chi_n$  and  $\chi_k$  for the same eigenvalues  $E_n$  and  $E_k$ , *except that*:

- (i) the normalizations of a finite number of the discrete  $\chi_j$ , having the same  $E_j$ , are changed; or
- (ii) a finite number of the discrete  $E_j$  are subtracted from the spectrum; or
- (iii) a finite number of discrete  $E_j$  are added to the spectrum; or
- (iv) combinations of (i), (ii), and (iii) above are done.

Note that the "finite number" can be done repeatedly, one step at a time. Also, the combinations of (iv) can be done one step at a time. Further, (iii) is the opposite operation to (ii) and the continuous spectrum is irrelevant to what we are discussing. This means we can concentrate on (i) and (ii) with a single discrete

eigenvector affected. (As an aside, observe that in (i)  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  are *not* unitarily equivalent. This is reminiscent of phase equivalent potentials in inverse scattering theory [9].)

I refer to reader to ref. [8] for a derivation of the inverse method procedure. For our purposes it is enough to state the algorithm.

**ALGORITHM.** Consider an  $H_0$  with an orthonormal complete set  $(E_n, \Psi_n)$ . Let  $j$  be the discrete state affected and define (all  $\Psi$ 's real)

$$\Omega_j(x, y) = -D\Psi_j(x)\Psi_j(y), \quad (13)$$

where  $D$  is a real constant. Further, take  $K_j(x, y)$  as the solution of the integral equation

$$K_j(x, y) = -\Omega_j(x, y) - \int_{-\infty}^x K_j(x, z)\Omega_j(z, y) dz. \quad (14)$$

Then there exists an  $H_1 = H_0 + V_1$ , where  $V_1$  is

$$V_1(x) = 2d K_j(x, x)/dx, \quad (15)$$

with an ortho-complete set of eigenvectors

$$\chi_n(x) = \Psi_n(x) + \int_{-\infty}^x K_j(x, y)\Psi_n(y) dy, \quad (16)$$

and associated eigenvalues  $E_n$  which are the same as the original eigenvalues *except that*: (a) if  $D = 1$ , the  $\chi_n$  are orthonormal but there is no  $E_j$  or  $\chi_j$ ; and (b) if  $D \neq 1$ , all the eigenvalues obtain, but  $\|\chi_j\|^2 = 1/(1 - D) \neq 1$ <sup>‡3</sup>.

Now we can make the connection to supersymmetry. One can verify that the solution for  $K_j(x, y)$  is given by

$$K_j(x, y) = \Psi_j(x)\Psi_j(y) \left( \Lambda + \int_x^\infty \Psi_j^2(z) dz \right)^{-1}, \quad (17)$$

$$\Lambda = (1 - D)/D.$$

<sup>‡3</sup> This unusual normalization condition was also used [8] in properly resolving the identity. Also, since as  $D \rightarrow 1$  the  $j$ th eigenvalue is removed, one recalls the known phenomena where the spectrum of a hamiltonian with a singular perturbation going to zero is not the same spectrum as that of the unperturbed hamiltonian [10]. Indeed, as one can explicitly verify for the analytical examples of ref. [11],  $V_1(\Lambda \neq 0)$  can be singular, but  $V_1(\Lambda = 0)$  is not singular.

<sup>‡2</sup> The definition of  $A$  from  $H_+$  in terms of  $U$  amounts to taking the particular solution of a Ricatti equation instead of a general solution as we discuss for  $B$ . See p. 80 of ref. [6]. A general solution for  $A$  would not yield the standard  $H_-$ .

Table 1.

A flow chart showing the connection between supersymmetry and the inverse method in quantum mechanics. The SUSY bosonic hamiltonian  $H_+$  is equal to the inverse method unperturbed hamiltonian,  $H_0$ .  $H_+$  yields the fermionic hamiltonian  $H_-$  by the standard Schrödinger factorization method. Setting  $H_-$  identically equal to a new  $H_{B-}$  yields, upon solving the Riccati equation,  $B_\lambda$ . However, after refactoring  $H_{B-}$  into bosonic form one obtains a new hamiltonian  $H_{B+}(\lambda) \neq H_+$ . Simultaneously, if the inverse method is applied to  $H_0$ , one finds a new  $H_1(j, \Lambda)$ , with one original ( $j$ ) eigenvector affected. If one takes the eigenvector  $j$  as being the ground state and sets  $\Lambda = N_0^2 \lambda$ , one finds  $H_{B+}(\lambda) = H_1(0, N_0^2 \lambda)$ . Setting  $\lambda = 0$  gives a new normal hamiltonian with the ground state eigenvalue of  $H_+$  removed.

Supersymmetry	Inverse method
$H_+ = A^\dagger A$	$H_0$
$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$
$H_- = AA^\dagger$	$H_1(j, \Lambda)$
$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$
$H_{B-} = BB^\dagger \equiv H_-$	$H_1(0, \Lambda)$
$\downarrow$	$\downarrow$
$H_+ \neq H_{B+}(\lambda) = B^\dagger B$	$H_1(0, \lambda N_0^2)$
$\downarrow$	
$H_{B+} = H_1$	
ground state eigenvalue of $H_+$ removed	

But if we now specialize to  $j$  being the ground state (and take  $\Lambda = N_0^2 \lambda$ ), then  $V_1 = 2\phi'$ . Thus,  $H_{B+}(\lambda) = H_1(j=0, \Lambda = N_0^2 \lambda)$  and the connection is made to supersymmetry.

Examples of this inverse procedure are given in refs. [8] and [11]. Also, for  $\lambda = 0$ , graphs are given in ref. [11] showing the forms of  $V_0$ ,  $V_1$ ,  $V_0 + V_1$  and the spectra, for  $V_0 = x^2$  and  $V_0 = (x - 1/x)^2$ .

To summarize, the connection between supersymmetry and the inverse method in quantum mechanics is shown in the flow chart of table 1.

Among the many colleagues who have commented on this work I wish to specially thank David Campbell, Terry Goldman, Alan Kostelecký, and David Sharp. This work was supported by the US Department of Energy.

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