

Quasiparticles, Casimir effect and all that: Conceptual insights

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A few words about me:

I feel like an outsider on this conference.

- I don't work on electron and phonon transport.
- I am not even a condensed-matter physicist.

I work on *foundations* of physics.

For instance, to study condensed matter one must first learn foundations such as

- principles of quantum mechanics
- principles of quantum field theory (= second quantization?)
- principles of statistical physics

I study such general principles of physics.

- Here I will talk about some conceptual foundations which may be relevant for general conceptual understanding of (some aspects of) condensed matter physics.

- What's the difference between particle and quasiparticle?
- Is quantum particle a pointlike object?
- Is quasiparticle (e.g. phonon) a pointlike object?
- Is vacuum a state without particles?
- Does Casimir effect originate from vacuum energy?

I will try to answer those and many related conceptual questions.

Part 1.

PARTICLES AND QUASIPARTICLES

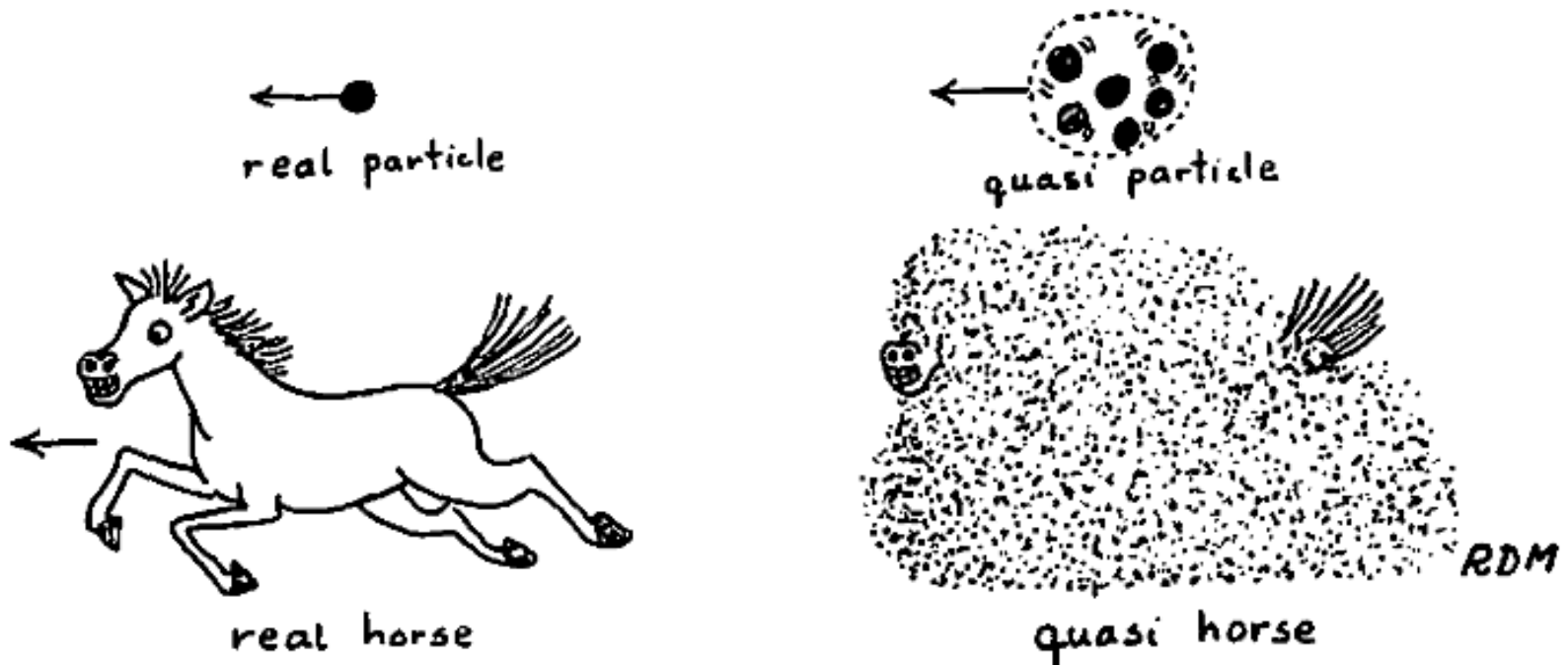
Standard and Bohmian Perspective

What is quasiparticle?

- Terminology is not unique.

- Mattuck (*A Guide to Feynman Diagrams in the Many-Body Problem*) distinguishes quasiparticles from collective excitations.

quasiparticle = original individual particle
+ cloud of disturbed neighbors



- Collective excitation (e.g. phonon) is not centered around individual particle

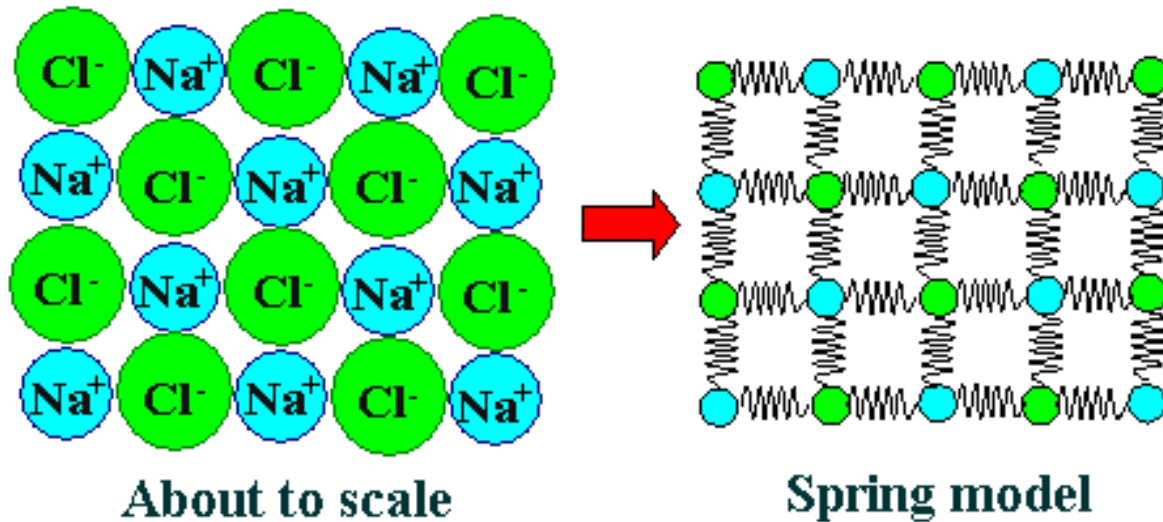
Alternative terminology (this talk):

- **collective excitations (e.g. phonons) also called quasiparticles.**

What makes phonons similar to particles?

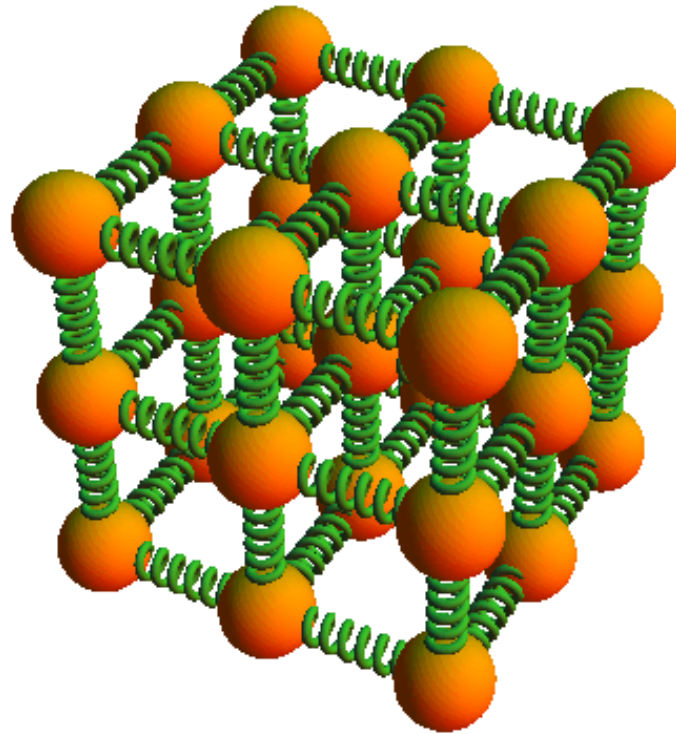
- The key is to approximate the system by a collection of harmonic oscillators.

2-dimensional lattice:



- For each h.o. the potential energy proportional to $(x_i - x_{i+1})^2$.

3-dimensional lattice:



Elementary QM: Each h.o. has energy spectrum of the form

$$E_n = \hbar\omega \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right), \quad n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$\Rightarrow n$ can be thought of as a number of “quanta”.

$\Rightarrow n$ behaves like a number of “particles”.

More formally:

- the h.o.'s decouple in new collective coordinates

$k = 1, \dots, N$ - labels N decoupled harmonic oscillators \Rightarrow

$$\hat{H} = \sum_k \hbar\omega_k \left(\hat{n}_k + \frac{1}{2} \right), \quad \hat{n}_k = \hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_k, \quad [\hat{a}_k, \hat{a}_{k'}^\dagger] = \delta_{kk'}$$

Complete set of eigenstates:

- groundstate: $|0\rangle$, satisfies $\hat{a}_k|0\rangle = 0$

- 1- "particle" states: $|k\rangle = \hat{a}_k^\dagger|0\rangle$

- 2- "particle" states: $|k_1, k_2\rangle = \hat{a}_{k_1}^\dagger \hat{a}_{k_2}^\dagger|0\rangle$

- 3- "particle" states: ...

- The formalism looks identical to QFT (quantum field theory) of elementary particles (e.g. **photons**).

- Due to this analogy, the above quanta of lattice vibrations are called **phonons**.

\Rightarrow Formally, a phonon is not less a particle than a photon.

- Indeed, photon is also a collective excitation.
- It is a collective excitation of electromagnetic field.
- Electromagnetic field $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x})$, $\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x})$ lives on a continuum 3d space, which can be thought of as a 3d lattice with spacing $l \rightarrow 0$.
- Why then photon is a “true” particle and phonon a “quasiparticle”?
- The difference is in the nature of lattice **vertices!**
- For phonons, the vertices are particles themselves - atoms.
- Phonons emerge from atoms (not the other way around), so atoms are **more fundamental** particles than phonons.
- In this sense, a phonon is “less” particle than an atom, so it makes sense to call it “quasiparticle”.
- For photons, the “vertices” are simply fields \mathbf{E} , \mathbf{B} at point \mathbf{x} .
- There are no more fundamental particles at field vertices.
- Hence photon can be considered a fundamental particle, not “quasiparticle”.
- At least this is our current understanding of photons.
- The future physicists might discover that photons are quasiparticles too, just like phonons.

Practical consequences:

- For experiments at large distances ($d \gg l$), phonons behave as particles just as photons do.
- In principle you can measure phonon position, but only with precision $\Delta x \gg l$.
- Position measurement may induce a phonon wave-function collapse, to a narrow (but not too narrow!) Gaussian with a width $\Delta x \gg l$.

Why does measurement induce a collapse?

- Is it just an axiom of QM?
- Or can it be explained by Schrodinger equation?

- To answer those questions we need to understand what is going on during a measurement.

Quantum theory of measurement:

Measure observable \hat{K} with eigenstates $|k\rangle$.

$|k\rangle$ - states of any quantum object

(electron, photon, **phonon**, ..., quantum “cat”, ... whatever)

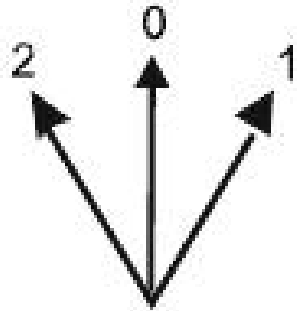
Measuring apparatus in initial state $|\Phi_0\rangle$.

Interaction \Rightarrow unitary continuous transition

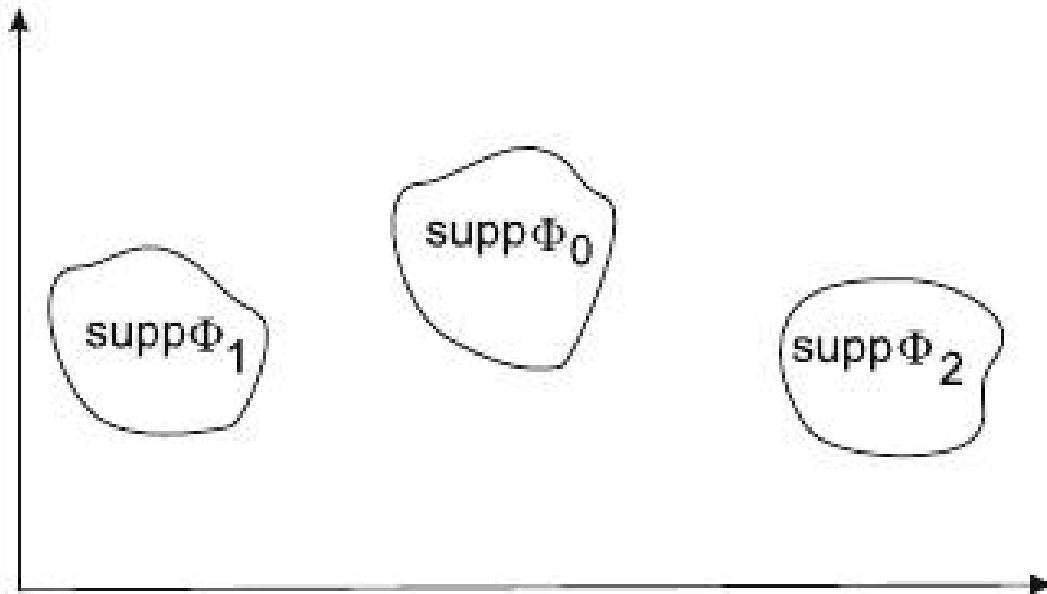
$$|k\rangle|\Phi_0\rangle \rightarrow |k'\rangle|\Phi_k\rangle$$

$|\Phi_0\rangle$ and $|\Phi_k\rangle$ are **macroscopically distinguishable** pointer states
 \Rightarrow wave functions have a negligible overlap in **configuration space**

physical space



configuration space



$$\Phi_{k_1}(\vec{x})\Phi_{k_2}(\vec{x}) \simeq 0 \quad \text{for} \quad k_1 \neq k_2$$

where $\Phi_k(\vec{x}) \equiv \langle \vec{x} | \Phi_k \rangle$, $\vec{x} \equiv (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$,

n = number of particles constituting the apparatus

For a superposition $|\psi\rangle = \sum_k c_k |k\rangle$:

$$|\psi\rangle|\Phi_0\rangle \rightarrow \sum_k c_k |k'\rangle|\Phi_k\rangle$$

Why this “collapses” to $|k'\rangle|\Phi_k\rangle$?

$|\Phi_k\rangle$ are macroscopically distinguishable.

⇒ Superposition consists of many distinguishable branches.

Each branch evolves as if other branches did not exist.

⇒ From perspective of any branch, other branches do not exist.

Explains the collapse if one remaining question can be answered:

Why should we take a view from the perspective of a branch as the physical one?

Further conceptual issues:

- In QM, particle becomes localized due to measurement.
 - In classical physics, particle is localized even without measurement.
- Can we think of quantum particle as localized without measurement?
- In standard formulation of QM - no!
 - In Bohmian formulation of QM - yes!

How does Bohmian formulation work?

Wave function: $\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) = \sqrt{\rho(\mathbf{x}, t)} e^{iS(\mathbf{x}, t)/\hbar}$

Complex Schrodinger equation

$$-\frac{\hbar^2 \nabla^2 \psi}{2m} + V\psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$$

can be rewritten as two real equations;

1. “Continuity” equation:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla(\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0, \quad \mathbf{v} \equiv \frac{\nabla S}{m}$$

2. “Hamilton-Jacobi” equation:

$$\frac{(\nabla S)^2}{2m} + V + Q = -\frac{\partial S}{\partial t}, \quad Q \equiv -\frac{\hbar^2 \nabla^2 \sqrt{\rho}}{2m \sqrt{\rho}}$$

Bohmian formulation interprets these equations as “classical”, i.e. it postulates that \mathbf{v} is the velocity of point-like particle with trajectory $\mathbf{X}(t)$

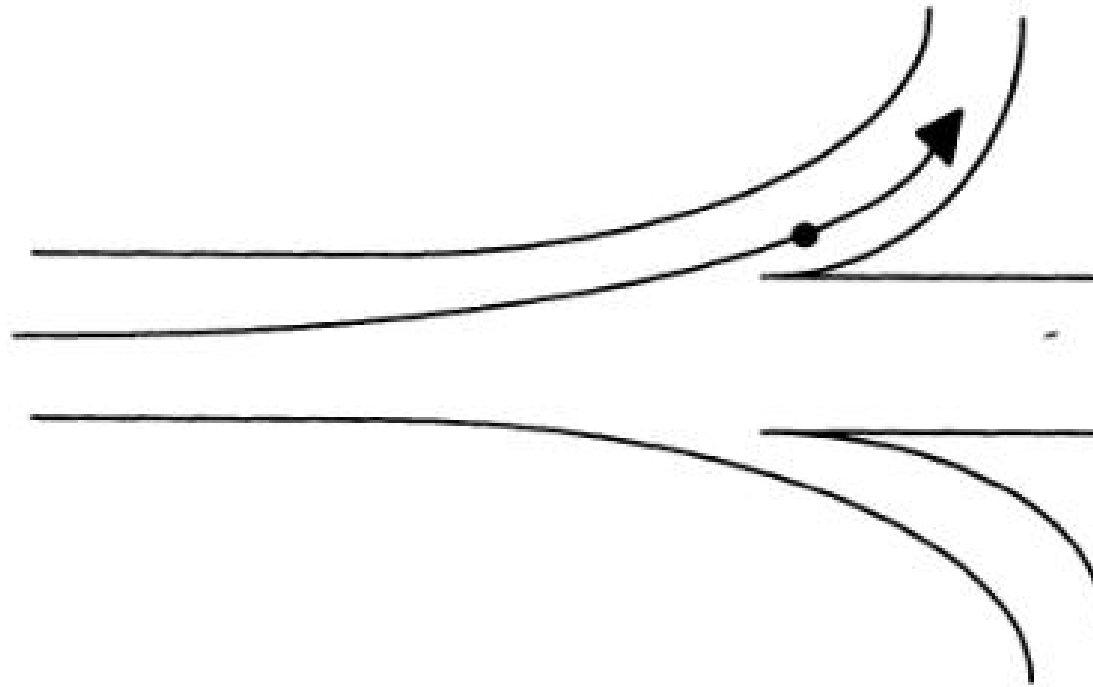
$$\boxed{\frac{d\mathbf{X}(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{X}(t), t)}$$

Quantum uncertainty interpreted as in classical statistical physics:

- Fundamental dynamics is deterministic.
- Uncertainty is emergent due to our ignorance of initial positions.

Let me show that measurable statistical predictions are identical to standard QM:

- Particular branch becomes physical because it becomes **filled with** something physical - pointlike particles:



⇒ Filling entity is described by position

$$\vec{X} \equiv (\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n)$$

n = number of particles constituting the **apparatus**.

⇒ Apparatus made of pointlike particles.

- If apparatus particles are real and pointlike,
does it make sense to assume that so are other particles?

$$\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n, \mathbf{X}_{n+1}, \dots, \mathbf{X}_N$$

N = total number of particles in the laboratory

Probability density of particle positions:

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N, t) = |\Psi(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N, t)|^2$$

- cannot be tested in practice

(one cannot observe all particles in the whole laboratory).

- One really observes macroscopic observable describing
the measuring apparatus.

⇒ Phenomenologically more interesting is apparatus probability density

$$\rho^{(\text{appar})}(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, t) = \int d^3x_{n+1} \cdots d^3x_N \rho(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_{n+1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N, t)$$

⇒

$$\rho^{(\text{appar})}(\vec{x}) \simeq \sum_k |c_k|^2 |\Phi_k(\vec{x})|^2$$

⇒ Probability to find the apparatus particles in the support of $\Phi_k(\vec{x})$:

$$p_k = \int_{\text{supp } \Phi_k} d^{3n}x \rho^{(\text{appar})}(\vec{x}) \simeq |c_k|^2$$

- this is the Born rule.

⇒ We **derived** Born rule in arbitrary k -basis from assumption of Born rule in position basis.

⇒ It is crucial that **apparatus particles** exist and have the quantum probability distribution.

- not so important whether positions of the observed system (photon, phonon, ...) exist.

Bohmian formulation used in two ways:

- As a fundamental interpretation of QM (alternative to Copenhagen): assumes that particle trajectories really exist in Nature.
- As a practical tool for computations (e.g. Xavier Oriols *et al*).

- Bohmian formulation often used for electrons.
- Can Bohmian formulation be used for phonons?

As a fundamental interpretation of phonons:

- No, because we know that phonon is not a fundamental particle, but emerges from collective motion of atoms.

As a practical tool for phonon computations:

- Yes, because

(when phonon can be described by a Schrodinger-like equation)

Bohmian formulation will lead to same measurable predictions as standard theory of phonons.

Final warnings:

- Be careful not to take seriously the phonon theory (either standard or Bohmian) at small distances.
- Take phonons seriously only at distances much larger than the interatomic distance.
- At smaller distances reformulate your problem in terms of more fundamental particles (atoms, electrons, photons, ...).

Part 2.

THE ORIGIN OF CASIMIR EFFECT

Vacuum Energy or van der Waals Force?

- Spectrum of h.o.

$$E_n = \hbar\omega \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

⇒ Energy of the ground state $E_0 = \hbar\omega/2$.

- Is this energy physical?

- Standard answer - no, because we only measure energy **differences**.

⇒ We can subtract this constant without changing physics

$$\Rightarrow E_n = \hbar\omega n$$

- On the other hand, often claimed in literature that Casimir effect is a counter-example.

- Is Casimir effect evidence that vacuum energy is physical?

Casimir effect = attractive force between electrically neutral plates

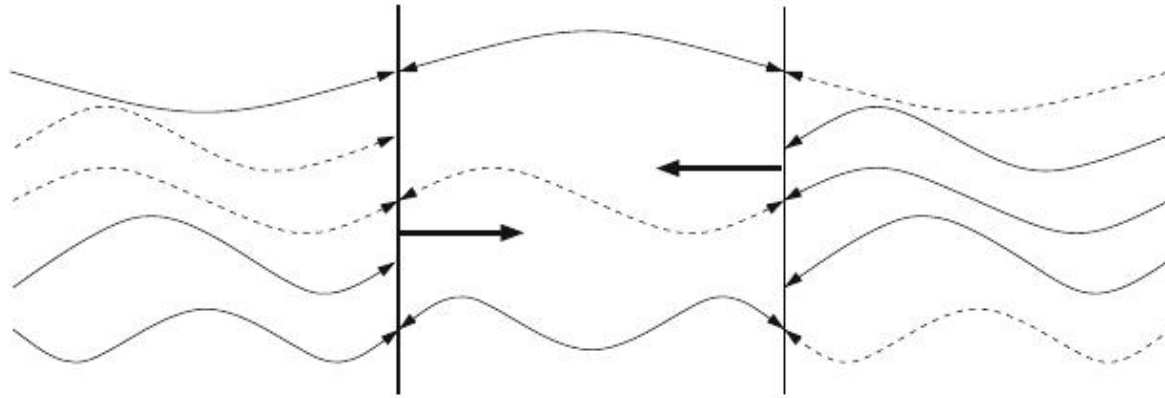
Two explanations:

1) vacuum energy of electro-magnetic field

2) van der Waals force

- Which explanation is correct?

1) Vacuum-energy explanation:



- field vanishes at perfectly conducting plates
- ⇒ some wavelengths impossible between the plates
- ⇒ Hamiltonian does not contain those modes
- ⇒ those modes do not contribute to vacuum energy E_{vac}
- ⇒ E_{vac} depends on the distance y between the plates
- ⇒ Casimir force

$$F_{\text{vac}} = -\frac{\partial E_{\text{vac}}(y)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\pi^2 \hbar c}{240 y^4}$$

Advantages:

- calculation relatively simple
- presented in many textbooks

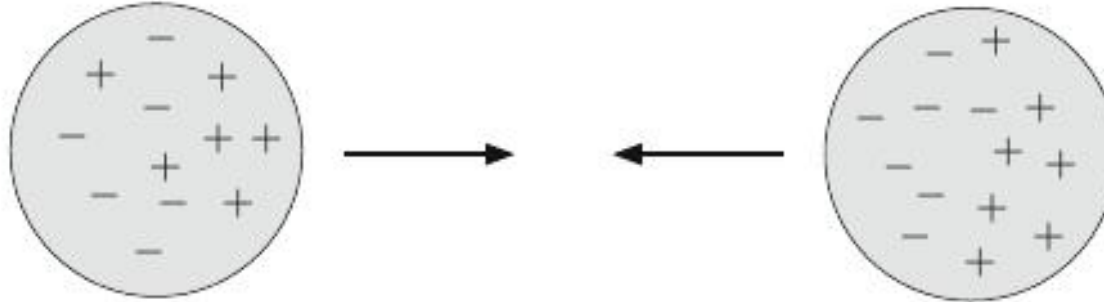
Disadvantages:

- Electromagnetic forces are forces between charges, but where are the charges?
 - Force originates from boundary conditions, but microscopic origin of boundary conditions not taken into account.
- ⇒ Vacuum-energy explanation is not a fully microscopic explanation.

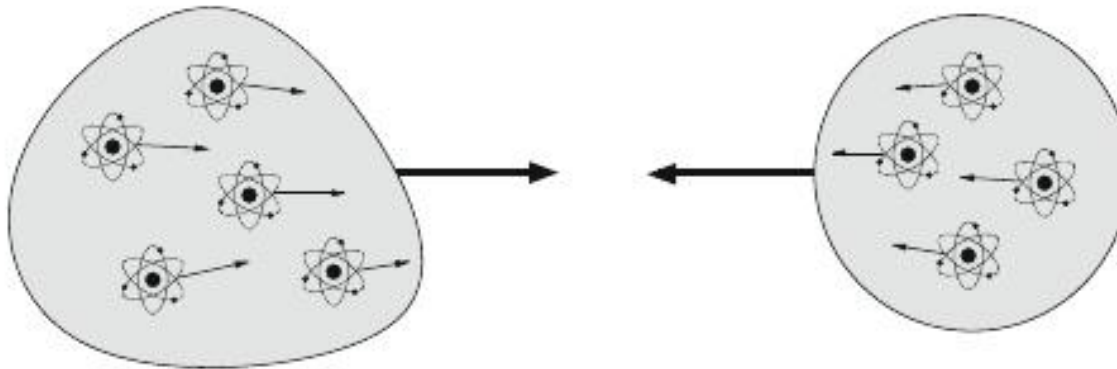
Those disadvantages avoided by van der Waals force approach.

2) Van der Waals force explanation:

- Force explained by polarization of the medium:



- Polarizability of the medium traced down to microscopic polarizability of atoms:



- calculation more complicated (Lifshitz theory)
- the final result is the same $F_{\text{vdW}} = F_{\text{vac}}$

Why do two different explanations give the same result?

Qualitative explanation:

- vacuum-energy explanation originates from boundary conditions
- boundary conditions originate from $\mathbf{E} = 0$ in a perfect conductor
- $\mathbf{E} = 0$ originates from rearrangement of charges so that any external \mathbf{E}_{ext} is canceled
- rearrangement of charges = polarization $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x})$ (electric dipole moment per volume)
- such a system is simpler to describe by electric displacement

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{P}$$

- \mathbf{P} is induced by \mathbf{E} , so approximately $\mathbf{P} \propto \mathbf{E}$
 $\Rightarrow \mathbf{D} = \epsilon \mathbf{E}$ (ϵ is dielectric constant) \Rightarrow

$$\mathbf{P} = (\epsilon - 1)\mathbf{E}$$

- energy density in dielectric medium (Jackson, *Classical Electrodyn.*)

$$\mathcal{H} = \frac{\mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{E}}{2}$$

- combining all the equations above \Rightarrow

$$\mathcal{H} = \frac{\mathbf{E}^2}{2} + \frac{\mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{E}}{2}$$

- assume there is no external electric field \Rightarrow average field vanishes, i.e.

$$\langle \mathbf{E} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{P} \rangle = 0$$

- however there are quantum fluctuations $\langle \mathbf{E}^2 \rangle \neq 0 \Rightarrow$

$$\langle \mathcal{H}_{\text{int}} \rangle = \frac{\langle \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{E} \rangle}{2} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{P}^2 \rangle}{2(\epsilon - 1)} = \frac{\epsilon - 1}{2} \langle \mathbf{E}^2 \rangle$$

\Rightarrow interaction energy originates from correlation $\langle \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{E} \rangle$

- this is van der Waals energy
- this is **fundamental** because it does not depend on phenomenological macroscopic parameter ϵ .

At a **phenomenological** macroscopic ϵ -dependent level, can also be interpreted as:

- energy of polarization fluctuations $\langle \mathbf{P}^2 \rangle$, or
- energy of electric field fluctuations $\langle \mathbf{E}^2 \rangle$
(the “vacuum”-energy description of Casimir effect)

A toy model:

- The full quantum description is very complicated.
- To gain intuitive understanding of full quantum description, I present a simple toy model with many qualitative features analogue to Casimir effect.

(H.N., Annals of Physics 383 (2017) 181, arXiv:1702.03291)

- Electromagnetic field $\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow$ mimic by single degree x_1
- Charged particles \rightarrow mimic by single degree x_2
- Distance between the plates \rightarrow mimic by the third degree y

Hamiltonian:

$$H = \left(\frac{p_1^2}{2m} + \frac{kx_1^2}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{p_2^2}{2m} + \frac{kx_2^2}{2} \right) + \frac{p_y^2}{2M} + g(y)x_1x_2$$

Force on y :

$$F = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial y} = -g'(y)x_1x_2$$

To decouple x_1 and x_2 , introduce new canonical variables

$$x_{\pm} = \frac{x_1 \pm x_2}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad p_{\pm} = \frac{p_1 \pm p_2}{\sqrt{2}}$$

\Rightarrow

$$H = H_+ + H_- + \frac{p_y^2}{2M}$$

where

$$H_{\pm} = \frac{p_{\pm}^2}{2m} + \frac{k_{\pm}(y)x_{\pm}^2}{2}, \quad k_{\pm}(y) = k \pm g(y)$$

Force on y in new variables:

$$F = -\frac{g'(y)(x_+^2 - x_-^2)}{2}$$

To quantize the theory we make an approximation:

- treat y as a classical background

⇒ quantize only the effective Hamiltonian

$$H^{(\text{eff})} = H_+ + H_-$$

⇒ two (quantum) uncoupled harmonic oscillators

$$H_{\pm} = \hbar\Omega_{\pm}(y) \left(a_{\pm}^{\dagger} a_{\pm} + \frac{1}{2} \right), \quad \Omega_{\pm}^2(y) = \frac{k \pm g(y)}{m}$$

effective vacuum $a_{\pm}|\tilde{0}\rangle = 0 \Rightarrow$

$$E_{\text{vac}}^{(\text{eff})} = \langle \tilde{0} | H^{(\text{eff})} | \tilde{0} \rangle = \frac{\hbar\Omega_+(y)}{2} + \frac{\hbar\Omega_-(y)}{2}$$

⇒ Casimir-like force

$$F = -\frac{\partial E_{\text{vac}}^{(\text{eff})}}{\partial y} = -\frac{\hbar\Omega'_+(y)}{2} - \frac{\hbar\Omega'_-(y)}{2} = \frac{-\hbar g'(y)}{4m\Omega_+(y)} + \frac{\hbar g'(y)}{4m\Omega_-(y)}$$

- Not clear how is this quantum force related to the classical force?

A Lifshitz-like approach to calculate the force:

Quantum expectation of the “classical” force operator

$$F = -\frac{g'(y) \langle \tilde{0} | (x_+^2 - x_-^2) | \tilde{0} \rangle}{2}$$

Elementary property of harmonic oscillator:

$$\langle \tilde{0} | x_{\pm}^2 | \tilde{0} \rangle = \frac{\hbar}{2m\Omega_{\pm}}$$

⇒

$$F = \frac{-\hbar g'(y)}{4m\Omega_+(y)} + \frac{\hbar g'(y)}{4m\Omega_-(y)}$$

- the same result as with the Casimir-like approach

In both approaches, the force originates from coupling function $g(y)$.

The structure of the interacting vacuum:

In the absence of coupling $g(y) \rightarrow 0$,

- different frequency

$$\omega = \frac{k}{m} \neq \Omega_{\pm}$$

- different creation/destruction operators $a_{1,2} \neq a_{\pm}$:

$$a_j = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}} x_j + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2m\hbar\omega}} p_j$$

$$a_{\pm} = \sqrt{\frac{m\Omega_{\pm}}{2\hbar}} x_{\pm} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2m\hbar\Omega_{\pm}}} p_{\pm}$$

Related by a Bogoliubov transformation:

$$a_{\pm} = \sum_{j=1,2} \alpha_{j\pm} a_j + \beta_{j\pm} a_j^{\dagger}$$

Bogoliubov coefficients:

$$\alpha_{1\pm} = \frac{\Omega_{\pm} + \omega}{2\sqrt{2\Omega_{\pm}\omega}}, \quad \alpha_{2\pm} = \pm\alpha_{1\pm}$$

$$\beta_{1\pm} = \frac{\Omega_{\pm} - \omega}{2\sqrt{2\Omega_{\pm}\omega}}, \quad \beta_{2\pm} = \pm\beta_{1\pm}$$

Two different vacuums $|0\rangle \neq |\tilde{0}\rangle$:

$$a_j|0\rangle = 0, \quad a_{\pm}|\tilde{0}\rangle = 0$$

\Rightarrow The average number of free quanta $N_j = a_j^{\dagger}a_j$ is not zero in interacting vacuum $|\tilde{0}\rangle$:

$$\langle \tilde{0} | N_j | \tilde{0} \rangle = \beta_{j+}^2 + \beta_{j-}^2$$

How is this toy model related to the real Casimir effect?

- first free oscillator analogous to electromagnetic Hamiltonian

$$\frac{p_1^2/m + kx_1^2}{2} \leftrightarrow \int d^3x \frac{\mathbf{E}^2 + \mathbf{B}^2}{2}$$

- second free oscillator analogous to polarization field of charged matter (J.J. Hopfield, Phys. Rev. **112**, 1555 (1958))

- the interaction term analogous to interaction between charges and electromagnetic field

$$gx_1x_2 \leftrightarrow \int d^3x A_\mu j^\mu$$

A_μ is electromagnetic 4-potential, j^μ is charged 4-current

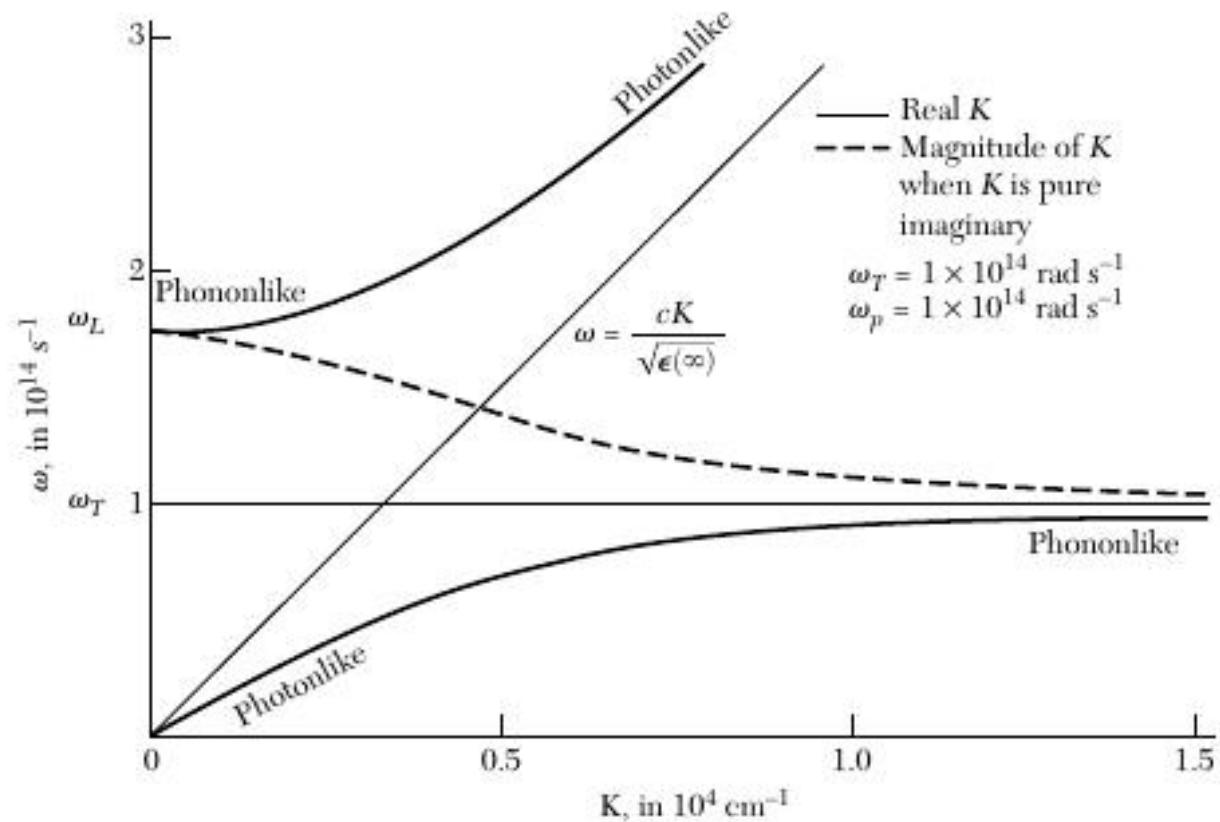
- mixture of fundamental degrees:

$$x_+ = \frac{x_1 + x_2}{\sqrt{2}} \leftrightarrow \mathbf{D} = \mathbf{E} + \mathbf{P}$$

$\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x})$ polarization (dipole moment per volume),

$\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{x})$ electric displacement (defined by Eq. above)

- More precisely, two frequencies $\Omega_{\pm} \leftrightarrow$ two branches $\omega_{\pm}(K)$ of the dispersion relation in a dielectric medium:



- free vacuum $|0\rangle \leftrightarrow$ state without photons and polarization quanta
- interacting vacuum $|\tilde{0}\rangle \leftrightarrow$ Casimir vacuum

\Rightarrow Casimir vacuum is not a state without photons

(H.N., Phys. Lett. B **761**, 197 (2016); arXiv:1605.04143)

- Casimir vacuum is a state without **polaritons**.

(W.M.R. Simpson (2015), *Surprises in Theoretical Casimir Physics*)

- Polariton is a **quasiparticle**, a complicated mixture of photons and polarization quanta.

The final question: What is vacuum?

In physics, there are different definitions of the word “vacuum”:

1) - state without any particles

2) - state without photons

3) - state annihilated by **some** lowering operators $a_k|0\rangle = 0$

4) - local minimum of a classical potential

5) - state with lowest possible energy (ground state)

- Casimir vacuum is only 3),
it has zero number of quasiparticles (polaritons).

- Casimir vacuum is **not** 5),
for otherwise Casimir force could not attract the plates
to a state of even lower energy.