CAS PY 452 — Quantum Physics II

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Time-dependent perturbation theory for the two-level system

Problem: Consider a two-level system with energy eigenstates $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ and energy eigenvalues $\{E_0, E_1\}$. That is, it's Hamiltonian in the basis $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ is,

$$\hat{H} = \begin{pmatrix} H_{00} & H_{01} \\ H_{10} & H_{11} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} E_0 & 0 \\ 0 & E_1 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{1}$$

The system is then subject to a time-dependent perturbation $\hat{V}(t)$ which couples the unperturbed states:

$$\hat{V}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} \left\{ \frac{1}{2}\alpha\eta e^{\eta t} & t < 0\\ \frac{1}{2}\alpha\eta e^{-\eta t} & t \ge 0 \right\} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1\\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\alpha}{2}\eta e^{-\eta|t|} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1\\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (2)

Assume that $\eta > 0$, $\alpha \ll \hbar$ and $\hbar \eta \ll E_0, E_1$ so that we can apply first-order time-dependent perturbation theory. Given that the system is in state $|0\rangle$ at $t \to -\infty$, find the probability that the state will be in state $|1\rangle$ at $t \to \infty$ using time-dependent perturbation theory. Analyze these results as $\eta \to 0$ and $\eta \to \infty$. What type of perturbation does $\hat{V}(t)$ look like as $\eta \to \infty$?

Reminder: In time-dependent perturbation theory, we attempt to solve $i\hbar\partial_t |\psi(t)\rangle = (\hat{H} + \hat{V}(t)) |\psi(t)\rangle$. We find a systematic method by moving to the interaction representation:

$$|\psi(t)\rangle_I = e^{i\hat{H}t/\hbar} |\psi(t)\rangle, \qquad \hat{V}_I(t) = e^{i\hat{H}t/\hbar}\hat{V}(t)e^{-i\hat{H}t/\hbar},$$
 (3)

so the TDSE becomes,

$$i\hbar\partial_t |\psi(t)\rangle_I = \hat{V}_I(t) |\psi(t)\rangle_I.$$
 (4)

If we write $|\psi(t)\rangle_I = \sum_n c_n(t) |n\rangle$, where $|n\rangle$ is the *n*th stationary state, then $\langle m|i\hbar\partial_t |\psi(t)\rangle_I = \langle m|\hat{V}_I(t)|\psi(t)\rangle_I$, becomes,

$$i\hbar\partial_t c_m(t) = \sum_n V_{mn}(t)e^{i\omega_{mn}t}c_n(t), \qquad (5)$$

where $V_{mn}(t) = \langle m|\hat{V}(t)|n\rangle$ and $\omega_{mn} = (E_m - E_n)/\hbar$. If a system begins in state $|i\rangle$, we can form a perturbative approximation by solving iteratively. This approximation gives $c_n(t) = c_n^{(0)} + c_n^{(1)} + c_n^{(2)} + \cdots$, where,

$$c_n^{(0)}(t) = \delta_{ni},\tag{6}$$

$$c_n^{(1)}(t) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t dt' e^{i\omega_{ni}t'} V_{ni}(t')$$
 (7)

$$c_n^{(2)}(t) = \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar}\right) \sum_{m} \int_{t_0}^{t} dt' e^{i\omega_{nm}t'} V_{nm}(t') \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar}\right) \int_{t_0}^{t'} dt'' e^{i\omega_{mi}t''} V_{mi}(t''). \tag{8}$$

This is called the Dyson series.¹

¹The Dyson series is related to Feynman diagrams. If you're curious about this connection, consider reading these notes (https://web2.ph.utexas.edu/~vadim/Classes/2022f/dyson.pdf) from a class at UT Austin.

Solution: To compute the transition probability, we compute the integral:

$$c_{1}^{(1)}(t \to \infty) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt' e^{i\omega_{10}t'} \langle 1|\hat{V}(t)|0\rangle = -\frac{i\alpha\eta}{2\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt' e^{i\omega_{10}t'} e^{-\eta|t|}$$

$$= -\frac{i\alpha\eta}{2\hbar} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{0} dt e^{(i\omega_{10} + \eta t)t} + \int_{0}^{\infty} dt e^{(i\omega_{10} - \eta t)t} \right) = -\frac{i\alpha\eta}{2\hbar} \left(\int_{0}^{\infty} dt e^{-(i\omega_{10} + \eta)t} + \int_{0}^{\infty} dt e^{-(-i\omega_{10} + \eta)t} \right)$$

$$= -\frac{i\alpha\eta}{2\hbar} \left(\frac{1}{\eta + i\omega_{10}} + \frac{1}{\eta - i\omega_{10}} \right) = -\frac{i\alpha}{\hbar} \left(\frac{\eta^{2}}{\eta^{2} + \omega_{10}^{2}} \right). \tag{9}$$

This means the probability of transition is,

$$p_{0\to 1} = |c_1^{(1)}(t \to \infty)|^2 = \frac{\alpha^2}{\hbar^2} \left(\frac{\eta^2}{\eta^2 + \omega_{10}^2}\right)^2.$$
 (10)

We can see that as $\eta \to 0$, the probability of transition goes to zero: $c_1^{(1)}(t \to \infty) \to 0$. When $\eta \to \infty$, $\alpha \eta e^{-\eta |t|}/2 \to \alpha \delta(t)$, so we have a delta-function perturbation at t=0. The integral $\alpha \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) e^{i\omega_{10}t} dt = \alpha$ is consistent with $c_1^{(1)}(t \to \infty) = -i\alpha/\hbar$ as $\eta \to \infty$.

Time-dependent perturbation theory for the quantum harmonic oscillator

Problem: Consider the quantum harmonic oscillator:

$$\hat{H}_0 = \frac{1}{2m}\hat{p}^2 + \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2\hat{x}^2,\tag{11}$$

which is being perturbed by a linear electric field $\mathcal{E}(t)$ that is turned on and then turned back off:

$$\hat{V}(t) = q\mathcal{E}(t)\hat{x},\tag{12}$$

where,

$$\mathcal{E}(t) = \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{\tau \sqrt{\pi}} e^{-(t/\tau)^2},\tag{13}$$

where $q\mathcal{E}_0 \ll \sqrt{m\omega\hbar}$. If the system starts in the ground state $|0\rangle$ at $t \to -\infty$, find the probability the state will be in an excited state $|n\rangle$ using first-order time-dependent perturbation theory. Examine the behavior when $\tau \ll 1/\omega$ and $\tau \gg 1/\omega$.

Solution: As usual, we introduce ladder operators:

$$\hat{a} = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}}(\hat{x} + \frac{i}{m\omega}\hat{p}), \qquad \hat{a}^{\dagger} = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}}(\hat{x} - \frac{i}{m\omega}\hat{p}), \tag{14}$$

$$\hat{x} = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}} (\hat{a}^{\dagger} + \hat{a}), \qquad \hat{p} = i\sqrt{\frac{\hbar m\omega}{2}} (\hat{a}^{\dagger} - \hat{a}), \tag{15}$$

$$\hat{a}|n\rangle = \sqrt{n}|n-1\rangle, \qquad \hat{a}^{\dagger}|n\rangle = \sqrt{n+1}|n+1\rangle, \qquad \hat{a}|0\rangle = 0.$$
 (16)

This makes the relevant matrix elements of $\hat{V}(t)$:

$$V_{mn}(t) = \langle m|\hat{V}(t)|n\rangle = q\mathcal{E}(t)\langle m|\hat{x}|n\rangle = q\mathcal{E}(t)\sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}}\langle m|(\hat{a}^{\dagger} + \hat{a})|n\rangle = q\mathcal{E}(t)\sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}}\langle m|(\sqrt{n+1}|n+1) + \sqrt{n}|n-1\rangle)$$

$$= q\mathcal{E}(t)\sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}}\left(\sqrt{n+1}\delta_{m,n+1} + \sqrt{n}\delta_{m,n-1}\right). \tag{17}$$

For the ground state,

$$V_{n0}(t) = q\mathcal{E}(t)\sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}}\left(\sqrt{1}\delta_{n1} + \sqrt{0}\delta_{n,-1}\right) = q\mathcal{E}(t)\sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}}\delta_{n1}.$$
 (18)

Note that $\omega_{0n} = \omega n$, where ω is the frequency of the oscillator. We are left to compute the integral,

$$c_{n}^{(1)}(t \to \infty) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt e^{i\omega_{n0}t} V_{n0}(t) = -iq\delta_{n1} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m\omega\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt e^{in\omega t} \mathcal{E}(t)$$

$$= -i\delta_{n1} \frac{q\mathcal{E}_{0}}{\tau} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi m\omega\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt e^{in\omega t - t^{2}/\tau^{2}} = -i\delta_{n1} \frac{q\mathcal{E}_{0}}{\tau} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi m\omega\hbar}} e^{-n^{2}\tau^{2}\omega^{2}/4} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt e^{-(t/\tau - in\tau\omega/2)^{2}}$$

$$= -i\delta_{n1} \frac{q\mathcal{E}_{0}}{\tau} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi m\omega\hbar}} e^{-n^{2}\tau^{2}\omega^{2}/4} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt e^{-(t/\tau)^{2}} = -i\delta_{n1} q\mathcal{E}_{0} \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m\omega\hbar}} e^{-n^{2}\tau^{2}\omega^{2}/4}.$$
(20)

This means that the probability of transition to state $|1\rangle$ is,

$$p_{0\to 1} = |c_1^{(1)}(t \to \infty)|^2 = \frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}_0^2}{2m\omega\hbar} e^{-\tau^2 \omega^2/2},\tag{21}$$

and the probability of transition to any other excited state is 0. When $\tau \to 0$ (i.e., $\tau \ll 1/\omega$), V(t) becomes a delta perturbation and $c_1^{(1)}(t \to \infty) = -iq\mathcal{E}_0/\sqrt{2m\omega\hbar}$ which is consistent with the integral $-(i\mathcal{E}_0q/\sqrt{2m\omega\hbar})\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}dt e^{i\omega t}\delta(t)$. When $\tau \gg 1/\omega$, we see $|\mathcal{E}'(t)| = \frac{2|t|\mathcal{E}_0e^{-\frac{t^2}{\tau^2}}}{\sqrt{\pi}\tau^3} \le \sqrt{\frac{2}{e\pi}}\frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{\tau^2}$, so the perturbation is varied very slowly. In this case, $c_1^{(1)}(t \to \infty) = 0$, so there is no change made after a long time. This can be seen as a case of the adiabatic theorem.

Appendix: How do we know what functions have a δ distribution behavior as a limit?

The δ distribution function is defined so that $\delta(x) = 0$ for all $x \neq 0$, and for all functions g,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x)g(x)dx = g(0). \tag{22}$$

Equivalently,

$$\int_{-\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} \delta(x)g(x)dx = g(0), \tag{23}$$

for all $\varepsilon > 0$. If f_{η} is a collection of functions parameterized by η , f_{η} converges to a δ distribution function as $\eta \to a$

$$\lim_{\eta \to a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_{\eta}(x) dx = g(0), \tag{24}$$

for all functions g. In most cases, $a = \infty$ or 0. Here are two nice ways to check this behavior:

Taylor series: If we play fast-and-loose mathematically, we can say that all functions q of interest can be written as,

$$g(x) = g(0) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g^{(n)}(0) \frac{x^n}{n!},$$
(25)

in some neighborhood of x = 0. Therefore, if we can show,

$$\lim_{n \to a} f_{\eta}(x) = 0, \qquad x \neq 0 \tag{26}$$

$$\lim_{\eta \to a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\eta}(x) dx = 1 \tag{27}$$

$$\lim_{\eta \to a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\eta}(x) x^{n} dx = 0, \qquad n \ge 1$$
 (28)

then,

$$\lim_{\eta \to a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_{\eta}(x) = g(0) \lim_{\eta \to a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\eta}(x) dx + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{g^{n}(0)}{n!} \lim_{\eta \to a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\eta}(x) x^{n} dx = g(0).$$
 (29)

Fourier transform: Consider that,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2\pi i k x} \delta(x) dx = 1, \tag{30}$$

which says that the Fourier transform of the δ distribution function is 1, so by the Fourier inversion theorem,

$$\delta(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{2\pi i k x} dk = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ikx} dk.$$
 (31)

Therefore, f_{η} converges to a δ distribution function as $\eta \to a$ if,

$$\lim_{\eta \to a} \mathcal{F}[f_{\eta}](k) = \lim_{\eta \to a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ikx} f_{\eta}(k) dk = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}.$$
 (32)