

Today: more on solving Eigenvalue problems

Many ways to solve diff. eq's — focus on those giving physical insight

Only some can be solved exactly

- Today: some approximate methods for low-dimensional systems
[next week: Quantum MC by uen]

Symmetry:

A key principle is to exploit any available symmetry.

Unitary representation \mathcal{R} of gr. G on \mathcal{H} :

$\mathcal{R}(g)$ is a linear op. on $\mathcal{H} \quad \forall g \in G.$

$$\mathcal{R}(gh) = \mathcal{R}(g) \mathcal{R}(h)$$

$$\mathcal{R}^\dagger(g) = \mathcal{R}(g^{-1})$$

$$\mathcal{R}(\text{id}) = \mathbb{1}$$

If $H = \mathcal{R}^\dagger(g) H \mathcal{R}(g) \quad \forall g \in G$
then G is a ^{group of} symmetries of the physical system.

If $H|\psi\rangle = E|\psi\rangle$

then $H \mathcal{R}(g) |\psi\rangle = \mathcal{R}(g) (\mathcal{R}^\dagger(g) H \mathcal{R}(g)) |\psi\rangle$
 $= E \mathcal{R}(g) |\psi\rangle.$

so $\mathcal{R}|\psi\rangle$ has same energy as $|\psi\rangle.$

Example: \mathbb{Z}_2 parity symmetry

Group \mathbb{Z}_2 has 2 elements: 1, a.
mult. rule $a^2 = 1.$

	1	a
1	1	a
a	a	1

mult table for \mathbb{Z}_2

Representation of parity \mathbb{Z}_2 on \mathcal{H} for single particle:

Parity operator $\Pi = \mathcal{P}_\pi(a)$

$$\Pi |x\rangle = |-x\rangle \quad (\text{note: phase is convention})$$

$$\Pi^2 = \mathbb{1}.$$

Theorem: If $[\Pi, H] = 0$ ($\Pi H \Pi = H$)

then when $H|\psi_n\rangle = E_n|\psi_n\rangle$, E_n nondegenerate,

then $\psi_n(x) = \pm \psi_n(-x)$. (parity even/odd)

PF. Can choose $\psi_n(x)$ phase to be real,

$$\Pi|\psi_n\rangle = \pm |\psi_n\rangle.$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi_n(-x) = \pm \psi_n(x)$$

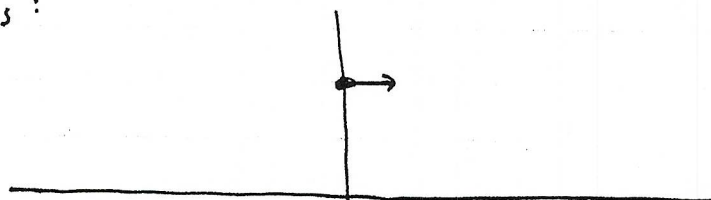
(Euler-Crom)

"Shooting method" for solving 1D problems

$$\left(\frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x)\right)|\psi\rangle = E|\psi\rangle,$$

where $V(x) = V(-x)$ (even potential)

Even states:
($\psi(x) = \psi(-x)$)



Fix E , solve $\psi''(x) = \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} [V(x) - E] \psi(x)$

with initial conditions

$$\psi(0) = 1, \quad \psi'(0) = 0$$

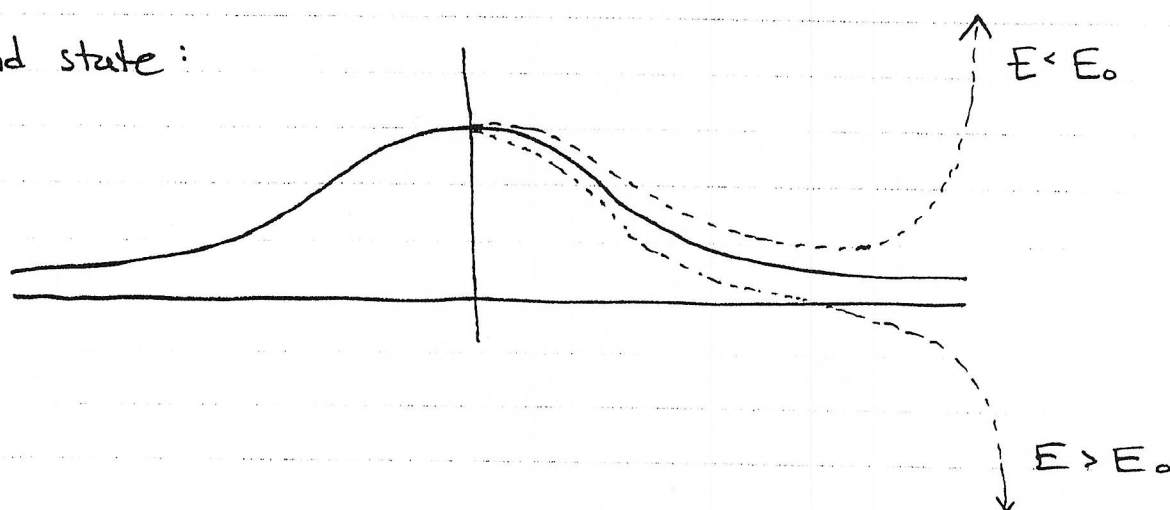
Naive Newton algorithm:

$$\psi^{(0)}(x + \Delta x) = \psi^{(0)}(x) + \Delta x \psi^{(1)}(x)$$

$$\psi^{(1)}(x + \Delta x) = \psi^{(1)}(x) + \Delta x \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (V(x + \Delta x/2) - E) \psi^{(0)}(x)$$

[Can use Runge-Kutta, etc... to be more exact]

Ground state:

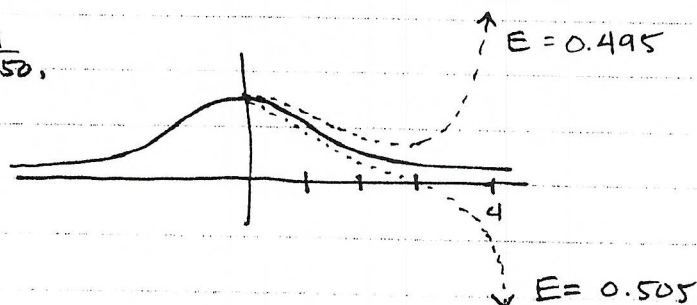


Can triangulate quickly on E_0 .
Increased accuracy as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$.

Ex. SHO

$$-\frac{1}{2} \psi'' + \left(\frac{1}{2} x^2 - E\right) \psi = 0 \quad (k=m=\omega=1)$$

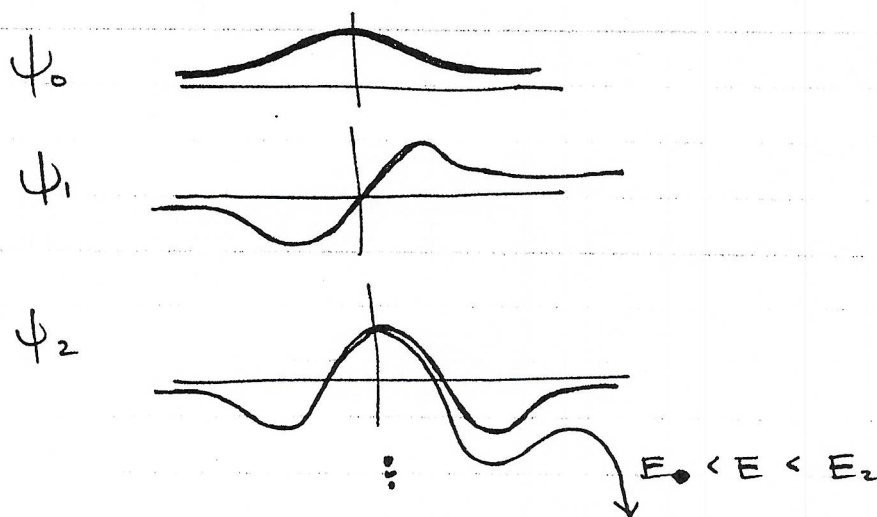
with $\Delta x = \frac{1}{250}$,



1000 steps \rightarrow within 1% of E_0 .

Similar story for n^{th} excited state.

Can show: n^{th} excited state has n ϕ 's.



Shooting method works well in 1D, not in higher dimensions.

Variational method (Rayleigh - Ritz)

Basic theorem:

define $\bar{H} = \frac{\langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle}$ for any $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$.

If E_0 is the ground state energy then $\bar{H} \geq E_0$.

Proof:

Suffices to show when $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$.

Write $|\psi\rangle = \sum c_n |n\rangle$, $H|n\rangle = E_n|n\rangle$
 ($\sum |c_n|^2 = 1$) (note: not s.t.o basis necessarily)

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle &= \sum E_n |c_n|^2 \\ &= E_0 + \sum (E_n - E_0) |c_n|^2 \geq E_0 \end{aligned}$$

Variational method for finding upper bound on E_0 :

A) Define a multi-parameter space of "trial functions"
 $|\psi(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k)\rangle$

B) Calculate $\bar{H}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_k)$

C) Minimize \bar{H} by solving $\partial \bar{H} / \partial \lambda_i = 0 \quad i=1, \dots, k$.

Can often get very good approx. to E_0 with a few parameters

Helpful to use physical intuition to pick states.

Ex of variational method (others in book: pp. 313-316)

Consider SHO

$$H = \frac{1}{2} p^2 + 2x^2 \quad [k=m=1, \omega=2]$$

Use linear combination of $\omega=1$ eigenstates $|n\rangle$ as trial function:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum c_n |n\rangle, \quad \sum |c_n|^2 = 1.$$

$$\langle n | H | m \rangle = \langle n | [N + 1/2] + \frac{3}{2} x^2 | m \rangle$$

$$= \frac{5}{2} (m + 1/2) \delta_{n,m} + \frac{3}{4} \sqrt{m(m-1)} \delta_{m,n+2} + \frac{3}{4} \sqrt{n(n-1)} \delta_{n,m+2}$$

In even sector, including $|0\rangle$, $|2\rangle$, $|4\rangle$, for example:

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 5/4 & \frac{3}{2\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ \frac{3}{2\sqrt{2}} & 25/4 & \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2} & 45/4 \end{pmatrix}$$

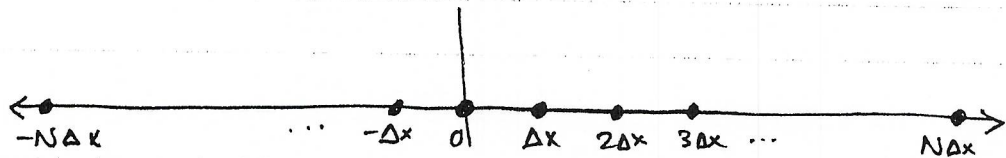
Exact energy: $E_0 = \frac{\omega}{2} = 1.$

Keeping:	1 state:	$E_{\min} = 5/4 = 1.25$
	2 states:	$E_{\min} \approx 1.0343$
	3 states:	$E_{\min} \approx 1.00471$
	4 "	$E_{\min} \approx 1.000615$
	5 "	$E_{\min} \approx 1.0000773$
		⋮

Converges rapidly.

Compare with simple numerical finite difference method

Divide space into gridpoints (1D example, easy to generalize to higher D)



Sample wavefunction at gridpoints $\psi(k\Delta x)$, $-N \leq k \leq N$.

(Assume $\psi = 0$ for $|k| > N$).

$V(x)$ is diagonal matrix

$$V_{kk'} = V(k\Delta x) \delta_{kk'}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} f \rightarrow \frac{1}{\Delta x} (f((k+1/2)\Delta x) - f((k-1/2)\Delta x))$$

$$-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \text{ is tridiagonal matrix (in 1D)}$$

(pentadiagonal in 2D, etc)

$$D_{kk'} = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{\Delta x^2}, & k=k' \\ -\frac{1}{\Delta x^2}, & |k-k'|=1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Ex. 1D SHO $H = \frac{1}{2} p^2 + \frac{1}{2} x^2$ ($\hbar = m = \omega = 1$)

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} + 2\Delta x^2 & -\frac{1}{2\Delta x^2} & 0 & \dots & \dots \\ -\frac{1}{2\Delta x^2} & \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} + \frac{1}{2}\Delta x^2 & -\frac{1}{2}\Delta x^2 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2\Delta x^2} & \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} & -\frac{1}{2\Delta x^2} & 0 \\ \dots & 0 & -\frac{1}{2\Delta x^2} & \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} + \frac{1}{2}\Delta x^2 & -\frac{1}{2\Delta x^2} \\ \dots & \dots & 0 & -\frac{1}{2\Delta x^2} & \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} + 2\Delta x^2 & \dots \end{pmatrix}$$

Sample results

Δx	$N_{\Delta x}$	$2N+1$	E_{\min}	$E_{(2)}$
0.5	1	5	0.674	2.304
0.2	2	21	0.517	1.635
0.1	5	101	0.4997	1.4984
note:				
0.05	5	201	0.49992	1.4996
0.1	10	201	0.4997	1.4984

- Useful to sample points more carefully where wf is large
- Generally, variational method much more efficient.

2. Time evolution (Quantum dynamics)

2.1 Time evolution & the Schrödinger equation

Time in QM is a parameter ($|\psi(t)\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$).
not an observable like x .

Note: SR relates x, t ; restored in relativistic QFT, where x is no longer an observable.

Question: how does a state $|\psi(t)\rangle$ evolve in time?

Postulate (Schrödinger eq.)

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\psi(t)\rangle = H |\psi(t)\rangle$$

Write

In terms of time-evolution operator $U(t, t_0)$;

If state at time t_0 , $|\alpha, t_0\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$
 becomes at time t $|\alpha, t_0; t\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$\text{write } |\alpha, t_0; t\rangle = U(t, t_0) |\alpha, t_0\rangle.$$

Properties of $U(t, t_0)$:

i) Unitary - conserves probability, norm

$$\boxed{U^\dagger(t, t_0) U(t, t_0) = \mathbb{1}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha, t_0 | \alpha, t_0; t \rangle &= \langle \alpha, t_0 | U^\dagger(t, t_0) U(t, t_0) | \alpha, t_0 \rangle \\ &= \langle \alpha, t_0 | \alpha, t_0 \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

ii) composition law

$$U(t, t_1) U(t_1, t_0) = U(t, t_0)$$

$$|\alpha, t_0; t\rangle = U(t, t_1) |\alpha, t_0; t_1\rangle$$

$$= U(t, t_1) U(t_1, t_0) |\alpha, t_0\rangle$$

$$= U(t, t_0) |\alpha, t_0\rangle$$

iii) identity at $t=t_0$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} U(t, t_0) = \mathbb{1} \quad \text{since} \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} |\alpha, t_0; t\rangle = |\alpha, t_0\rangle$$

Properties i) - iii) satisfied when infinitesimal form is

$$U(t_0 + dt, t_0) = 1 - \frac{i H(t_0) dt}{\hbar}$$

(equivalent to Schrödinger.)

Appearance of \hbar — needed on dimensional grounds.

— discuss further in ^{context of} classical-quantum correspondence

Schrödinger $\Leftarrow U(t, t_0)$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} U(t, t_0) = H(t) U(t, t_0) \quad (*)$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\alpha, t_0; t\rangle = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} U(t, t_0) |\alpha, t_0\rangle$$

$$= H(t) U(t, t_0) |\alpha, t_0\rangle$$

$$= H(t) |\alpha, t_0; t\rangle$$

Solutions of (*).

1) Time-independent $H(t) = H$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left[1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} H \frac{(t-t_0)}{N} \right]^N = e^{-\frac{iH}{\hbar}(t-t_0)}$$

so

$$U(t, t_0) = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} H (t-t_0)}$$

(can easily verify solves $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} U(t, t_0) = H U(t, t_0)$).

2) Time-dependent, but $[H(t), H(t')] = 0$.

(Ex: particle in magnetic field, constant direction, varying strength)
 $H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + B(t) S_z$

similar solution but now

$$U(t, t_0) = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t H(t') dt'}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{verify: } i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} U(t, t_0) &= \frac{d}{dt} \left[\int_{t_0}^t H(t') dt' \right] U(t, t_0) \\ &= H(t) U(t, t_0) \end{aligned}$$

3) Time-dependent $H(t)$, $[H(t), H(t')] \neq 0$.

(Ex: particle in B field, direction changes in time.)

Solve iteratively

$$\int_{t_0}^t dt' \left[\frac{d}{dt'} U(t', t_0) \right] = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t dt' H(t') U(t', t_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow U(t, t_0) = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t dt' H(t') U(t', t_0)$$

defines $U(t, t_0)$ in terms of $U(t', t_0)$, $t' \leq t$.

iterating:

$$U(t, t_0) = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t dt' H(t') \\ + \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar}\right)^2 \int_{t_0}^t dt'' \int_{t_0}^{t''} dt^{(2)} H(t'') H(t^{(2)}) U(t^{(2)}, t_0)$$

$$\vdots \\ = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar}\right)^n \int_{t_0}^t dt_1 \dots \int_{t_0}^{t_{n-1}} dt_n H(t_1) \dots H(t_n)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar}\right)^n T \left(\int_{t_0}^t dt_1 \dots \int_{t_0}^{t_{n-1}} dt_n H(t_1) H(t_2) \dots H(t_n) \right) \\ \text{(Dyson Series)}$$

where T is time-ordering operator - orders following ops so time goes up to left.

can write answer in compact form

$$U(t, t_0) = T \left[e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t dt' H(t')} \right]$$

(looks same as (2), but T carries extra info above)