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**Some weird small things looking for
counterdiabatic elements**

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Some notes to the notation

Symbol		Meaning	Defining formula
\mathcal{A}		Gauge (calibrational) potential	$\mathcal{A}_\mu = i\hbar\partial_\mu$

Introduction

1. Motivation

It's fun!

2. Mathematical introduction

The modern approach to the closed system dynamics is using differential geometry formalism. Before we get to the quantum mechanics itself, let's breathly define the formalism recapitulate some definitions of this part of mathematics. Recommended further reading is for example [?].

Let's have a manifold \mathcal{M} and curves

$$\gamma : \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{\text{open}} I \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \quad \xi \mapsto \gamma(\xi).$$

The space of functions is $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{M}) \equiv \{f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$, where

$$f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow U \xrightarrow{\text{open}} \mathbb{R} \quad x \mapsto f(x).$$

To define *vectors* on \mathcal{M} , we need to make sence of the *direction*. It is defined using curves satisfying

$$\gamma_1(0) = \gamma_2(0) \equiv P$$

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} x^i(\gamma_1(t)) \right|_{t=0} = \left. \frac{d}{dt} x^i(\gamma_2(t)) \right|_{t=0}.$$

Taking the equivalence class created by those two rules, sometimes noted as $[\gamma] = v$, we have element of the tangent space to \mathcal{M} . We will use standart notation for the tangent space to \mathcal{M} in some point xP as $\mathbb{T}_P \mathcal{M}$ and contangent space as $\mathbb{T}_P^* \mathcal{M}$. Unifying all those spaces over all x we get tangent and cotangent bundle, $\mathcal{T}\mathcal{M}$ and $\mathcal{T}^* \mathcal{M}$ respective. To generalize this notation to higher tensors, we denote $\mathbb{T}_P \mathcal{M} \in \mathcal{T}^1 \mathcal{M}$, $\mathbb{T}_P^* \mathcal{M} \in \mathcal{T}_1 \mathcal{M}$, thus the space of p -times contravariant and q -times covariant tensors is denoted $\mathcal{T}_q^p \mathcal{M}$.

Using the congruence of the curves on \mathcal{M} , the expression

$$\left. \frac{d}{d\xi} f \circ \gamma(\xi) \right|_{\xi=0} \tag{2.1}$$

has a good meaning and we can define the *derivative* in some $P \in \mathcal{M}$ as

$$\mathbf{v} : \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad f \mapsto \mathbf{v}[f] \equiv \left. \frac{df(\gamma(\xi))}{d\xi} \right|_P \equiv \partial_\xi \Big|_P f. \tag{2.2}$$

It holds, that $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{T}_P \mathcal{M}$ and can be expressed as the *derivative in direction*,¹ which can be understood in coordinates as

$$\mathbf{v}[f] = \left. \frac{d}{d\mathbf{v}} f \circ \gamma(\xi) \right|_{\xi=0} = v^\mu \left. \frac{d}{dx^\mu} f(\mathbf{x}) \right|_P. \tag{2.4}$$

To get some physical application, we need to define one strong structure on manifolds – differentiable metric tensor $g_{\mu\nu} \in \mathcal{T}_2^0 \mathcal{M}$ – so the covariant derivatives and parallel transport are well defined everywhere.

¹ The direction itself is usually denoted as

$$\frac{D}{d\alpha} \gamma(\xi), \tag{2.3}$$

where the big D notation is used to point out that it's not a classical derivative, but it maps curves to some entirely new space of directions.

2.1 Pull-back and push forward

Push-forward and pull-back are used to transport vectors and covectors between manifolds. Let's have two manifolds \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N} , a smooth mapping ϕ and functions f, \tilde{f} such that

$$\begin{aligned}\phi : \mathcal{M} &\rightarrow \mathcal{N} & x &\mapsto \phi x \\ \tilde{f} : \mathcal{N} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}\end{aligned}$$

Pull-back of the function then defines a new function $f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as

$$\phi^* : \mathcal{FN} \rightarrow \mathcal{FM} \quad \tilde{f} \mapsto f = (\phi^* \tilde{f})(x) \equiv \phi^* \tilde{f}(x) = \tilde{f}(\phi x).$$

Push-forward of a vector is defined as

$$\phi_* : \mathbb{T}_x \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{T}_{\phi x} \mathcal{N} \quad \phi_* \frac{D\gamma(\xi)}{d\xi} \Big|_x = \frac{D\phi\gamma(\xi)}{d\xi} \Big|_x$$

and *pull-back of a covector* $\tilde{\alpha} \in \mathbb{T}_{\phi x}^* \mathcal{N}$ is

$$\phi^* : \mathbb{T}_{\phi x}^* \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{T}_x^* \mathcal{M} \quad (\phi^* \tilde{\alpha})_\mu v^\mu \Big|_x = \tilde{\alpha}_\mu (\phi_* v)^\mu \Big|_{\phi x}.$$

If ϕ has a smooth inversion, i.e. it is a diffeomorphism, we can define pull-back of vectors as

$$\phi^* = \phi_*^{-1} \tag{2.5}$$

and push-forward of covectors

$$\phi_* = (\phi^{-1})^* \tag{2.6}$$

2.2 Covariant derivative and parallel transport

Covariant derivative is generally... Metric covariant derivative is... Affine connection can be expressed as

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\alpha = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} (g_{\beta\mu,\nu} + g_{\nu\beta,\mu} - g_{\mu\nu,\beta}), \tag{2.7}$$

where we used comma notation for the coordinate derivative. The covariant derivative of $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{T}_P \mathcal{M}$ is then defined

$$\frac{Da^\mu}{dx^\nu} = a^\mu_{,\nu} - \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu x^\alpha a^\beta \tag{2.8}$$

and for $\alpha \in \mathbb{T}_P^* \mathcal{M}$ it is

$$\frac{D\alpha_\mu}{dx^\nu} = \alpha_{\mu,\nu} - \Gamma_{\mu\beta}^\alpha x^\beta \alpha_\alpha \tag{2.9}$$

The vector $v \in \mathbb{T}_P \mathcal{M}$ is said to be parallel transported along curve $\gamma(\lambda)$, if its covariant derivative

$$\frac{Dv^\mu}{d\xi} = 0 \tag{2.10}$$

vanishes along γ .

2.3 Antisymmetric tensors and wedge product

p-form $A \in \mathcal{T}_p\mathcal{M}$ is called *antisymmetric*, if changing the order of the indices has impact only on the sign, symbolically

$$A_{i_1 \dots i_p} = \text{sign}(\sigma) A_{i_{\sigma_1} \dots i_{\sigma_p}},$$

where σ is some permutation. *Antisymmetrisation* is defined as a normalized sum over all permutation

$$A^{[i_1 \dots i_p]} \equiv \frac{1}{p!} \sum_{\sigma} A^{i_{\sigma_1} \dots i_{\sigma_p}}. \quad (2.11)$$

The *wedge product* of $A \in \mathcal{T}_p\mathcal{M}$ and $B \in \mathcal{T}_q\mathcal{M}$ is antisymmetrisation of the tensor product in the sence

$$A \wedge B \equiv \frac{(p+q)!}{p!q!} A^{[i_1 \dots i_p} \otimes B^{i_{p+1} \dots i_{p+q}]} \quad (2.12)$$

3. Physical introduction

Most parts of this chapter are inspired by [Student, 1908] Now we will assign some physical background to the structure defined in the first chapter.

Assume manifold \mathcal{M} generated by eigenstates of some closed system Hamiltonian $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$, meaning the Hamiltonian is bounded and dimension of the space is finite. Let's assume the existence of \mathcal{C}^1 mapping¹ (parametrisation) $B : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\lambda} \equiv (\lambda^1, \dots, \lambda^n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Therefore we will denote eigenvectors $|\iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\rangle$ and their energies $E(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$.

Now we need to find some reasonable way to measure the distance on \mathcal{M} . Our first guess might be

$$d\tilde{s}^2 = \langle \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda} + d\boldsymbol{\lambda}) | \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda} + d\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \rangle = 1 - 2\Re \langle \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda} + d\boldsymbol{\lambda}) | \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \rangle. \quad (3.1)$$

This is not *gauge dependent*, meaning that it depends on our choice of the wave phase. Gauge independent choice would be for example

$$f = \langle \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda} + d\boldsymbol{\lambda}) | \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \rangle, \quad (3.2)$$

sometimes referred to as the *fidelity*. We can see it's physical meaning imagining *quantum quench* (rapid change of some Hamiltonian parameters), in which case f^2 is the probability that system will remain in the new ground state. $1 - f^2$ is therefore probability to excite the system during this quench, which leads to the definition of *distance on \mathcal{M}*

$$ds \equiv 1 - f^2 = 1 - |\langle \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda} + d\boldsymbol{\lambda}) | \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \rangle|. \quad (3.3)$$

Using $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} d\lambda^\mu d\lambda^\nu + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$, we get the metric tensor

$$g_{\mu\nu}^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \Re (\langle \partial_{\lambda^\mu} \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) | \partial_{\lambda^\nu} \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \rangle - \langle \partial_{\lambda^\mu} \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) | \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \rangle \langle \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) | \partial_{\lambda^\nu} \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \rangle). \quad (3.4)$$

Let's have a initial state described by Hamiltonian $\mathcal{H}_i = \mathcal{H}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$ in eigenstate $|\iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\rangle$, which undergoes the change of parameters $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\lambda} + d\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ resulting in the Hamiltonian \mathcal{H}_f with eigenstates $|\psi_n(\boldsymbol{\lambda} + d\boldsymbol{\lambda})\rangle$, $n \in \{1, \dots, \dim(\mathcal{H}_f)\}$. Probability amplitude of going to some specific excited state is

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \langle \psi_n(\boldsymbol{\lambda} + d\boldsymbol{\lambda}) | \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \rangle \approx d\lambda^\mu \langle \partial_\mu \psi_n(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) | \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \rangle \\ &= -d\lambda^\mu \langle \psi_n(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) | \partial_\mu | \iota(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \rangle \equiv -d\lambda^\mu \langle n | \partial_\mu | \iota \rangle, \end{aligned} \quad (3.5)$$

where we introduced shorthand notation for eigenstates of the Hamiltonian \mathcal{H}_0 . If we introduce the *gauge potential*, a.k.a *calibration potential* as

$$\hat{\mathcal{A}}_\mu \equiv i\hbar \partial_\mu \quad (3.6)$$

and rescale units to $\hbar = 1$, as we will use further on, we get

$$a_n = \sum_\mu i \langle n | \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\mu | \iota \rangle d\lambda^\mu, \quad (3.7)$$

¹is continuous to the first derivative

which has meaning of matrix elements of the gauge potential. Probability of the excitation i.e. transition to any state $n > 0$ is then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \neq 0} |a_n|^2 &= \sum_{n \neq 0} d\lambda^\mu d\lambda^\nu \langle \iota | \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\mu | n \rangle \langle n | \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\nu | \iota \rangle + \mathcal{O}(|d\lambda^3|) = d\lambda^\mu d\lambda^\nu \langle \iota | \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\mu \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\nu | \iota \rangle_c \\ &= d\lambda^\mu d\lambda^\nu \chi_{\mu\nu} + \mathcal{O}(|d\lambda^3|) = ds^2 + \mathcal{O}(|d\lambda^3|), \end{aligned} \quad (3.8)$$

where we defined *connected correlation function*, or *covariance*

$$\langle \iota | \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\mu \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\nu | \iota \rangle_c \equiv \langle \iota | \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\mu \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\nu | \iota \rangle - \langle \iota | \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\mu | \iota \rangle \langle \iota | \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\nu | \iota \rangle. \quad (3.9)$$

If we leave out \hbar , we have the *geometric tensor*²

$$\chi_{\mu\nu} \equiv \langle \partial_\mu \iota | \partial_\nu \iota \rangle_c = \langle \partial_\mu \iota | \partial_\nu \iota \rangle - \langle \partial_\mu \iota | \iota \rangle \langle \iota | \partial_\nu \iota \rangle, \quad (3.10)$$

where $|\partial_\nu \iota\rangle \equiv \partial_\nu |\iota\rangle$. Because χ is Hermitian ($\chi_{\mu\nu} = \chi_{\nu\mu}^*$), only the symmetric part adds up to the distance between states

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} d\lambda^\mu d\lambda^\nu = \chi_{\mu\nu} d\lambda^\mu d\lambda^\nu. \quad (3.11)$$

and only the symmetric part determines the distance between the states. Therefore it's practical to decompose it as

$$\chi_{\mu\nu} \equiv g_{\mu\nu} - i \frac{1}{2} \nu_{\mu\nu}, \quad (3.12)$$

where the *Fubini-Study tensor*, as it's called, is

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \frac{\chi_{\mu\nu} + \chi_{\nu\mu}}{2} = \Re \langle \partial_\mu \iota | \partial_\nu \iota \rangle_c = \Re \sum_{i \neq j} \frac{\langle \iota | \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \lambda^\mu} | j \rangle \langle j | \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \lambda^\nu} | \iota \rangle}{(E_i - E_j)^2}, \quad (3.13)$$

and the *curvature tensor* a.k.a. *Berry curvature* is

$$\nu_{\mu\nu} = 2i(\chi_{\mu\nu} - \chi_{\nu\mu}) = \Im \langle \iota | [\overleftarrow{\partial}_\nu, \partial_\mu] | \iota \rangle_c = -2\Im \sum_{i \neq j} \frac{\langle \iota | \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \lambda^\mu} | j \rangle \langle j | \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \lambda^\nu} | \iota \rangle}{(E_i - E_j)^2}, \quad (3.14)$$

where $\overleftarrow{\partial}_\nu$ is the derivative of the covector on the left.

Fubini-Study tensor can be seen as the Pull-back of the elements of the full Hilbert space to \mathcal{M} .

Next we define the *Berry connection*

$$A_\mu \equiv \langle \iota | \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\mu | \iota \rangle, \quad (3.15)$$

which empowers us to write

$$\nu_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu \quad (3.16)$$

²sometimes defined directly as the expression in eq. 3.9

and *Berry phase* ³

$$\phi_B \equiv - \oint_{\mathcal{C}} A_\mu d\lambda^\mu = \int_{\mathcal{S}} F_{\mu\nu} d\lambda^\mu \wedge d\lambda^\nu, \quad (3.19)$$

where we used the Stokes theorem defining, that the curve \mathcal{C} surrounds some area \mathcal{S} .

Wave-functions are elements of the tangent bundle $\mathcal{T} \in \mathcal{M}$, the gauge potentials are affine connections defining the parallel transport. Covariant derivative is

$$D_\mu = \partial_\mu + \frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\mu, \quad (3.20)$$

which yields $D_\mu |\psi_n\rangle = 0$ for every eigenstate, which encloses the circle and **justifies our initial choice for the distance on \mathcal{M} .**

3.1 Gauge potentials

Adiabatic transformation is such a transformation from \mathcal{M} to \mathcal{M} , which does not excite the system. Generally it can be achieved by two ways – infinitely slow transformation of states, or adding some *counterdiabatic elements* to the Hamiltonian to counter the excitation.

In case of adiabatic gauge potential we choose the basis for \mathcal{M} as eigenstates of the Hamiltonian of the full system \mathcal{H} . Adiabatic transformation can be understood as parallel transport and adiabatic potentials as affine connection. To understand it more, let's first consider classical system and then move to the quantum mechanics.

move elsewhere: In the case of simple systems, the adiabatic potentials can be found analytically, but for more complicated Hamiltonians we will be forced to use approximations, or some perturbational and variational methods.

3.2 Classical gauge potential

In the Hamiltonian classical mechanics, we assume the manifold \mathcal{M} **to be an accessible part of the phase space** using the Hamiltonian $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}(p_i, q_i)$, where momentum p_i and position q_i are assumed to form the orthogonal basis of the phase space, i.e.

$$\{q^i, p_j\} = \delta_j^i, \quad (3.21)$$

³ The reasonability of this definition can be seen, if we assume the ground state of a free particle $\langle \mathbf{x} | \iota \rangle = \iota(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = |\iota(\mathbf{x})| e^{i\phi(\boldsymbol{\lambda})}$, then the Berry connection is

$$A_\mu = - \int d\mathbf{x} |\iota|^2 \partial_\mu \phi = - \partial_\mu \phi \quad (3.17)$$

and Berry phase

$$\phi_B = \oint_{\mathcal{C}} \partial_\mu \phi d\lambda^\mu, \quad (3.18)$$

which represents total phase accumulated by the wavefunction. It is really the analogy for Berry phase in classical mechanics, which for example for the Foucault pendulum on one trip around the Sun makes $\phi_B = 2\pi$

which also defines *calibrational freedom* in their choice. *Canonical transformations* then by definition preserve this formula. Using the *Poisson bracket*, defined as

$$\{A, B\} \equiv \frac{\partial A}{\partial q^j} \frac{\partial B}{\partial p_j} - \frac{\partial B}{\partial q^j} \frac{\partial A}{\partial p_j}, \quad (3.22)$$

we will examine continuous canonical transformations generated by gauge potential \mathcal{A}_λ

$$q^j(\lambda + \delta\lambda) = q^j(\lambda) - \frac{\partial \mathcal{A}_\lambda, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}}{\partial p_j} \delta\lambda \Rightarrow \frac{\partial q^j}{\partial \lambda} = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{A}_\lambda}{\partial p_j} = \{\mathcal{A}_\lambda, q^j\} \quad (3.23)$$

$$p_j(\lambda + \delta\lambda) = p_j(\lambda) - \frac{\partial \mathcal{A}_\lambda, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}}{\partial q^j} \delta\lambda \Rightarrow \frac{\partial p_j}{\partial \lambda} = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{A}_\lambda}{\partial q^j} = \{\mathcal{A}_\lambda, p_j\}. \quad (3.24)$$

Substituting this to eq. 3.21, we get

$$\{q^j(\lambda + \delta\lambda), p_j(\lambda + \delta\lambda)\} = \delta_j^i + \mathcal{O}(\delta\lambda^2). \quad (3.25)$$

Equations 3.23, 3.24 are identical to the Hamilton equations

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{q}^j &= -\{\mathcal{H}, q^j\} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial p_j} \\ \dot{p}_j &= -\{\mathcal{H}, p_j\} = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial q^j}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.26)$$

if $\mathcal{A}_t = -\mathcal{H}$. Because the Hamiltonian is generator of the movement in the phase space (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p}) , we can interpret \mathcal{A}_t as the generators of the movement on \mathcal{M} . Specially if we chose $\lambda = X^i$, we get $\mathcal{A}_{X^i} = p_i$.

3.3 Quantum gauge potential

The role of Poisson brackets in quantum mechanics is taken by commutators, canonical transformations are called *unitar transformations* and calibrational freedom is hidden in the choice of basis. Using Schmidt decomposition⁴, we can write the unitar transformation \hat{U} between two systems S and \tilde{S}

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{m,n} \psi_n \hat{U}_{nm}^* |m(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\rangle = \sum_m \overbrace{\tilde{\psi}_m(\boldsymbol{\lambda})}^{\langle m(\boldsymbol{\lambda})|\psi\rangle} |m(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\rangle. \quad (3.27)$$

We can interpret this in *active* resp. *passive* way, i.e. as a transformation between two different states describing different systems, resp. as a transformation between different observers with different choice of basis. In quantum mechanics the more usual terms are *Heisenberg* resp. *Schrodinger* picture, but we will stick to the interpretation terminology, which makes the physical meaning clearer.

In active interpretation we can assume the unitary transformation from some basis of $\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$ to the basis comoving with the state⁵, noted with *tilde*

$$\hat{U}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) : |\tilde{\psi}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\rangle \rightarrow |\psi\rangle.$$

⁴Schmidt decomposition can be performed in finite dimension, or if the Hamiltonian is compact, which is usually not satisfied. What's more, the Hamiltonian is usually not even bounded.

⁵Comoving in a sense, that the wavefunction is not changing in this coordinate system.

We can define gauge potentials analogically to the classical case as

$$i\hbar\partial_\lambda|\tilde{\psi}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\rangle = i\hbar\partial_\lambda\left(\hat{U}^+(\boldsymbol{\lambda})|\psi\rangle\right) = \underbrace{i\hbar\left(\partial_\lambda\hat{U}^+(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\right)\hat{U}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})}_{-\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_\lambda}|\tilde{\psi}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\rangle, \quad (3.28)$$

which can be rewritten to non-tilde basis as

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathcal{A}}_\lambda &= \hat{U}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_\lambda\hat{U}^+(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = -i\hbar\left(\hat{U}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\partial_\lambda\hat{U}^+(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\right) = \\ &= -i\hbar\left(\partial_\lambda\left(\underbrace{U^+(\boldsymbol{\lambda})U(\boldsymbol{\lambda})}_{\mathbb{1}}\right) - \partial_\lambda(U(\boldsymbol{\lambda}))U^+(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\right) = i\hbar\left(\partial_\lambda U\right)U^+ \end{aligned} \quad (3.29)$$

gauge potentials are Hermitean

$$\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_\lambda^+ = i\hbar U^+ \partial_\lambda \hat{U} = -i\hbar \partial_\lambda \hat{U}^+ \hat{U} = \tilde{\mathcal{A}}_\lambda, \quad (3.30)$$

analogically holds for $\hat{\mathcal{A}}_\lambda$. Using the eigenbasis of $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$, the matrix elements are

$$\langle n|\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_\lambda|m\rangle = i\hbar\langle n|\hat{U}^+\partial_\lambda\hat{U}|m\rangle = i\hbar\langle\tilde{n}(\lambda)|\partial_\lambda|\tilde{m}(\lambda)\rangle. \quad (3.31)$$

and because

$$\langle\tilde{n}(\lambda)|\hat{\mathcal{A}}_\lambda|\tilde{m}(\lambda)\rangle = \langle n|\tilde{\mathcal{A}}_\lambda|m\rangle, \quad (3.32)$$

we get

$$\mathcal{A}_\lambda = i\hbar\partial_\lambda. \quad (3.33)$$

It's good to point out, that we were applying tilde operators to non-tilde states et vice versa. This can be justified only if those states belong to the same Hilbert space, or in the geometrical language, to the same manifold, which we can define as $\hat{\mathcal{H}}_{full} = \hat{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \hat{\mathcal{H}}$.

3.4 Adiabatic gauge potential

3.4.1 Adiabatic potential

Important knowledge about symmetries of the system is encoded in canonical transformations, or in quantum mechanics more commonly referred to as *unitar transformations*. In our case, the generators of such canonical transformations are adiabatic potentials. In case of the Hamiltonian $\mathcal{H}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$ and it's adiabatic transformation $\mathcal{H}(\boldsymbol{\lambda} + d\boldsymbol{\lambda})$, we get

$$[\hat{\mathcal{H}}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}), \hat{\mathcal{H}}(\boldsymbol{\lambda} + d\boldsymbol{\lambda})] = 0, \quad (3.34)$$

meaning Hamiltonian commutes with it's canonically transformed version.⁶

3.4.2 Adiabatic transformation

⁶This can be easily reformulated to the world of classical physics, where the commutator is replaced by Poisson bracket.

Conclusion

Bibliography

Student. On the probable error of the mean. *Biometrika*, 6:1–25, 1908.

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A. Attachments

A.1 First Attachment