Summary of SI2380 Advanced Quantum Mechanics

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Abstract

This is a summary of SI2380 Advanced Quantum Mechanics.

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1 Basic Concepts 1

1 Basic Concepts

Observables An observable is a Hermitian operator whose orthonormal eigenvectors form a basis.

The Postulates of Quantum Mechanics The postulates of quantum mechanics are:

- At any fixed time the state of a physical system is specified by a ket in Hilbert space.
- Every measurable physical quantity corresponds to an operator on Hilbert space. This is a Hermitian observable. The possible outcomes of a measurement are the eigenvalues of A.
- The probability of measuring the value a of operator A in a normalized state $|\Psi\rangle$ is $P(a) = \langle \Psi | P_a | \Psi \rangle$, where P_a is the projector onto the subspace corresponding to the eigenvalue a given by $P_a = |a\rangle\langle a|$.
- If a measurement of an observable A gives an outcome a, the state of the system immediately after the measurement is the projection of the state onto the subspace with eigenvalue a.
- The time evolution of a state is governed by the Schrödinger equation.

Consequences of the Probability Picture The form of writing the projection operator implies $P(a) = |\langle a|\Psi\rangle|^2$, or $P(a) da = |\langle a|\Psi\rangle|^2 da$ in the continuous case. In order for the probability interpretation to be consistent, i.e. for the sum of all probabilities to amount to 1, it must hold that $\langle \Psi|\Psi\rangle = 1$.

Expectation Values Expectation values are given by

$$\langle A \rangle = \sum a P(a) = \sum a \langle \Psi | P_a | \Psi \rangle = \langle \Psi | \sum a | a \rangle \langle a | \Psi \rangle = \langle \Psi | A | \Psi \rangle.$$

Physical States Modifying a state by a phase factor $e^{i\alpha}$ does not change any expectation values.

Mixed States

Density Matrix The density matrix is defined as

$$\rho = |\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|$$
.

It has some cool properties. For instance:

$$\begin{split} \operatorname{tr}\{\rho\} &= \sum_{n} \, \langle n | \rho | n \rangle = \left\langle \psi \left| \sum_{n} | n \rangle \langle n | \right| \psi \right\rangle = \langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle = 1, \\ \rho^{\dagger} &= \rho, \\ \langle A \rangle &= \sum_{n,m} \, \langle \Psi | n \rangle \, \, \langle n | A | m \rangle \, \langle m | \Psi \rangle = \sum_{n,m} \, \langle m | \Psi \rangle \, \langle \Psi | n \rangle \, \, \langle n | A | m \rangle = \sum_{n,m} \, \langle m | \rho | n \rangle \, \, \langle n | A | m \rangle = \operatorname{tr}(\rho A), \\ \rho^{2} &= \rho. \end{split}$$

Note that the latter is only true for pure states. Mixed states have a density matrix of the form

$$\rho = \sum_{j} P_{j} |\Psi_{j}\rangle\langle\Psi_{j}|.$$

The Time Evolution Operator Suppose that there exists an operator $u_{t'}(t)$ which evolves $|\Psi(t')\rangle$ to $|\Psi(t)\rangle$. Such an operator should satisfy

- $u_{t'}(t) = u_{t''}(t)u_{t'}(t'')$ for consistency.
- $u_{t'}(t)$ is unitary to preserve the normalization.
- $u_t(t) = 1$.

Inserting this into the Schrödinger equation yields

$$i\hbar \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} u_{t'}(t) \left| \Psi(t') \right\rangle = H u_{t'}(t) \left| \Psi(t') \right\rangle,$$

 $i\hbar \partial_t t' = H u_{t'}(t).$

In the case of a time-independent Hamiltonian, the solution must be of the form $u_{t'}(t) = u(t - t')$, and the equation above can be integrated to yield

$$u_{t'}(t) = e^{-i\frac{t-t'}{\hbar}H}.$$

Symmetries in Quantum Mechanics A symmetry in a quantum mechanics context is any transformation acting on Hilbert space that leaves all probabilities invariant.

Wigner's Theorem Wigner's theorem states that any operator that is a symmetry is either unitary or anti-unitary ($\langle \Phi | U^{\dagger} U | \Psi \rangle = \langle \Psi | \Phi \rangle$).

Transformation of Operators Consider a symmetry operator u. In order for this to be a symmetry, it must also act on all operators according to $A \to uAu^{\dagger}$.

Time Evolution From Symmetry Consider some system with time translation symmetry - that is, any system for which time translations do not change the theory. Introduce the transformation operator

$$u_{\tau} |\Psi(t)\rangle = |\Psi(t+\tau)\rangle$$
.

This transformation is a smooth map acting on a manifold - namely, Hilbert space. Hence we can use the language of Lie algebra to treat this (if you know nothing about Lie algebra, pretend that I didn't write this and carry on. If you want some reference material, please look at my summary of SI2360). We expand the transformation operator around the identity as

$$u_{\tau} = 1 - i \frac{\tau}{\hbar} H$$

for some operator H. The requirement that this be unitary yields $H^{\dagger} - H = 0$, and hence the generator H is self-adjoint. By continuous application of this we obtain

$$u_{\tau} = e^{-i\frac{\tau}{\hbar}H}.$$

This reproduces the Schrödinger equation, tying it all together neatly. It also demonstrates that the Hamiltonian generates time translation in a mathematical sense.

Space Translation Consider the space operator x^i . A space translation u transforms x^i to $x^i + a^i$, meaning $ux^iu^{\dagger} = x^i + a^i$. Expanding the translation around the identity yields

$$u = 1 + i \frac{a^i}{\hbar} p_i$$

for some operator p_i . The requirement that u be unitary implies that p is self-adjoint. The transformation rule yields

$$(1 + i\frac{a^i}{\hbar}p_i)x^i(1 - i\frac{a^i}{\hbar}p_i) = x^i + i\frac{a^i}{\hbar}\{p_i, x^i\}$$

and the requirement

$$[p_i, x^i] = -i\hbar.$$

Time Evolution of the Density Matrix The time evolution of the density matrix is given by

$$\rho(t) = \sum P_i u_{t_0}(t) |\Psi_i\rangle \langle \Psi_i| u_{t_0}(t)^{\dagger} = u_{t_0}(t) \rho(t_0) u_{t_0}(t)^{\dagger}.$$

This implies

$$i\hbar \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \rho = H u_{t_0}(t) \rho(t_0) u_{t_0}(t)^{\dagger} - u_{t_0}(t) \rho(t_0) u_{t_0}(t)^{\dagger} H = H \rho(t) - \rho(t) H = [H, \rho].$$

The Heisenberg Equation Heisenberg's outlook starts from preserving expectation values under time translations in such a way that all (total) time evolution is contained in the operators, arriving at the transformation rule

$$A_{\rm H} = u_{t_0}^{\dagger}(t) A_{\rm S} u_{t_0}(t).$$

 $A_{\rm H}$ is the operator according to Heisenberg and $A_{\rm S}$ is the operator according to Schrödinger. We now have

$$i\hbar \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \langle A_{\mathrm{H}} \rangle = -u_{t_{0}}^{\dagger}(t) H A_{\mathrm{S}} u_{t_{0}}(t) + u_{t_{0}}^{\dagger}(t) (i\hbar \partial_{t} A_{\mathrm{S}}) u_{t_{0}}(t) + u_{t_{0}}^{\dagger}(t) A_{\mathrm{S}} H u_{t_{0}}(t)$$

$$= -u_{t_{0}}^{\dagger}(t) H u_{t_{0}}(t) u_{t_{0}}^{\dagger}(t) A_{\mathrm{S}} u_{t_{0}}(t) + u_{t_{0}}^{\dagger}(t) (i\hbar \partial_{t} A_{\mathrm{S}}) u_{t_{0}}(t) + u_{t_{0}}^{\dagger}(t) A_{\mathrm{S}} u_{t_{0}}(t) u_{t_{0}}^{\dagger}(t) H u_{t_{0}}(t)$$

$$= -H_{\mathrm{H}} A_{\mathrm{H}} + u_{t_{0}}^{\dagger}(t) (i\hbar \partial_{t} A_{\mathrm{S}}) u_{t_{0}}(t) + A_{\mathrm{H}} H_{\mathrm{H}}$$

$$= -H_{\mathrm{H}} [A_{\mathrm{H}}, +] (i\hbar \partial_{t} A_{\mathrm{S}})_{\mathrm{H}}.$$

Propagators The probability amplitude at some point x at time t is given by

$$\Psi(x,t) = \langle x | \Psi(t) \rangle = \langle x | u_0(t) | \Psi(0) \rangle = \int dx' \langle x | u_0(t) | x' \rangle \langle x' | \Psi(0) \rangle.$$

Defining the propagator $G_{x',t'}(x,t) = \langle x|u_{t'}(t)|x'\rangle$, we arrive at

$$\Psi(x,t) = \int \mathrm{d}x' \, G_{x',0}(x,t) \, \langle x' \big| \Psi(0) \rangle = \int \mathrm{d}x' \, G_{x',0}(x,t) \Psi(x',0).$$

Hence the propagator acts as a Green's function with respect to time, in some sense.

Arriving at Path Integrals The general propagator of some state is given by

$$G_{x',t'}(x,t) = \sum_{\gamma} G_{\gamma;x',t'}(x,t),$$

where the summation is performed over all possible paths γ between the two points.

Suppose now that the time evolution is divided into steps such that

$$u_{t'}(t) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} u_{t_{k-1}}(t_k), \ t_0 = t', \ t_n = t, \ t_k - t_{k-1} = \delta t.$$

Then

$$G_{x',t'}(x,t) = \left\langle x \middle| \prod_{k=1}^{n} u_{t_{k-1}}(t_k) \middle| x' \right\rangle.$$

For every k we now introduce an identity according to

$$G_{x',t'}(x,t) = \left\langle x \middle| \prod_{k=1}^{n} u_{t_{k-1}}(t_k) \int dx_k |x_{k-1}\rangle \langle x_{k-1}| \middle| x' \right\rangle$$
$$= \left\langle x \middle| \prod_{k=1}^{n} \int dx_k u_{t_{k-1}}(t_k) |x_{k-1}\rangle \langle x_{k-1}| \middle| x' \right\rangle$$
$$= \int \prod_{k=1}^{n} dx_k \langle x_k | u_{t_{k-1}}(t_k) |x_{k-1}\rangle.$$

The time translation operator has the form $u_{t_{k-1}}(t_k) = e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}H}$. For a Hamiltonian of the form $H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(\mathbf{x})$, the terms do not necessarily commute. However, to second order we have

$$\begin{split} e^{\alpha A} e^{\alpha B} &= \left(1 + \alpha A + \frac{1}{2} \alpha^2 A^2 + \dots \right) \left(1 + \alpha B + \frac{1}{2} \alpha^2 B^2 + \dots \right), \\ e^{\alpha (A+B)} &= 1 + \alpha A + \alpha B + \frac{1}{2} \alpha^2 (A^2 + B^2 + AB + BA) + \dots, \\ &= e^A e^B \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \alpha^2 AB + \frac{1}{2} \alpha^2 BA + \dots \right) \\ &= e^{\alpha A} e^{\alpha B} e^{\frac{1}{2} \alpha^2 [A,B]}. \end{split}$$

Ignoring the second-order term yields

$$\begin{split} G_{x',t'}(x,t) &= \int \prod_{k=1}^n \mathrm{d}x_k \ \langle x_k| e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}(T+V)}|x_{k-1}\rangle \\ &= \int \prod_{k=1}^n \mathrm{d}x_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}V(x_{k-1})} \ \langle x_k| e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}T}|x_{k-1}\rangle \\ &= \int \prod_{k=1}^n \mathrm{d}x_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}V(x_{k-1})} \ \langle x_k| e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}T} \int \mathrm{d}p_k \ |p_k\rangle\langle p_k| \ |x_{k-1}\rangle \\ &= \int \prod_{k=1}^n \mathrm{d}x_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}V(x_{k-1})} \ \langle x_k| \int \mathrm{d}p_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}T} \ |p_k\rangle\langle p_k| \ |x_{k-1}\rangle \\ &= \int \prod_{k=1}^n \mathrm{d}x_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}V(x_{k-1})} \int \mathrm{d}p_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{2m\hbar}p_k^2} \ \langle x_k|p_k\rangle \ \langle p_k|x_{k-1}\rangle \\ &= \int \prod_{k=1}^n \mathrm{d}x_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}V(x_{k-1})} \int \mathrm{d}p_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{2m\hbar}p_k^2} \frac{1}{2\pi\hbar} e^{i\frac{p_k(x_k-x_{k-1})}{\hbar}} \\ &= \int \prod_{k=1}^n \mathrm{d}x_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}V(x_{k-1})} e^{i\frac{m}{2\hbar\Delta t}(x_k-x_{k-1})^2} \frac{1}{2\pi\hbar} \int \mathrm{d}p_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{2m\hbar}(p_k-\frac{m}{\Delta t}(x_k-x_{k-1}))^2} \\ &= \int \prod_{k=1}^n \mathrm{d}x_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}V(x_{k-1})} e^{i\frac{m}{2\hbar\Delta t}(x_k-x_{k-1})^2} \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi^2\hbar\Delta ti}} \int \mathrm{d}v_k \ e^{-v_k^2} \\ &= \int \prod_{k=1}^n \mathrm{d}x_k \ e^{-i\frac{\Delta t}{\hbar}V(x_{k-1})} e^{i\frac{m}{2\hbar\Delta t}(x_k-x_{k-1})^2} \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi\hbar\Delta ti}} \\ &= \int \prod_{k=1}^n \mathrm{d}x_k \ \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi\hbar\Delta ti}} e^{i\frac{\hbar}{\hbar}\sum_{k=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{2}m\left(\frac{x_k-x_{k-1}}{\Delta t}\right)^2 - V(x_{k-1})\right)\Delta t}. \end{split}$$

In the continuous limit the exponent becomes

$$i\frac{1}{\hbar} \int \mathrm{d}t \, \frac{1}{2} m \dot{x}^2 - V(x) = i\frac{S}{\hbar}$$

where S is the action. The remaining factor, termed the measure, is

$$D(x(t)) = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \prod_{k=1}^{n} dx_k \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi\hbar\Delta ti}}.$$

Finally the propagator is given by

$$G_{x',t'}(x,t) = \int D(x(t))e^{-i\frac{S}{\hbar}}.$$

This is termed the path integral.

As a side note, if the action is large compared to \hbar , the action varies strongly, causing destructive interference from all paths except for the one such that

$$\frac{\delta S}{\delta x} = 0.$$

This is Hamilton's principle, the fundamental postulate of classical mechanics.