

Density matrix (density operator)

In this course we described a quantum state by a wavefunction. Wavefunction does not contain any randomness (entropy is zero, randomness only for measurement result). However, we often need to also describe a classical randomness (thermodynamics, decoherence, etc.)

A possible way: list of states with probabilities

State $|\psi_1\rangle$ with probability p_1 , state $|\psi_2\rangle$ with prob. p_2 , etc.

$$\text{state } |\psi_i\rangle \text{ with probability } p_i, \sum_i p_i = 1$$

However, this is a very lengthy description. Possible to use a shorter way.

Instead of this list, let us define an operator $\hat{\rho} = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$ (density matrix)

Somewhat surprisingly, this is a complete description of a quantum state (for different lists giving the same $\hat{\rho}$, all experimental predictions coincide).

Some properties of density operator $\hat{\rho}$

1. Hermitian (obvious, since a sum of projectors)
2. Positive semidefinite (all eigenvalues are non-negative)
3. $\text{Tr } \hat{\rho} = 1$ (proof later)

Averages via density matrix

$$\hat{\rho} = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i| \quad \text{for state } |\psi_i\rangle \text{ with probability } p_i, \sum_i p_i = 1$$

Theorem

For any observable \hat{A} , its average (expectation) value is $\langle\hat{A}\rangle = \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}\hat{A})$

(this is why $\hat{\rho}$ is a complete description)

Proof

$$\langle\hat{A}\rangle = \sum_i p_i \langle\psi_i|\hat{A}|\psi_i\rangle \quad \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}\hat{A}) = \sum_k \langle e_k|\hat{\rho}\hat{A}|e_k\rangle$$

orthonormal basis

$$\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}\hat{A}) = \sum_k \langle e_k|\hat{\rho}\hat{A}|e_k\rangle = \sum_{k,i} \underbrace{\langle e_k|\psi_i\rangle}_{\hat{\rho}} p_i \langle\psi_i|\hat{A}|e_k\rangle =$$

$$= \sum_i p_i \sum_k \underbrace{\langle\psi_i|\hat{A}|e_k\rangle}_{\hat{1}} \langle e_k|\psi_i\rangle = \sum_i p_i \langle\psi_i|\hat{A}|\psi_i\rangle = \langle\hat{A}\rangle$$

QED

Corollary

$$\langle\hat{1}\rangle = \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}\hat{1}) = \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}) \quad \text{Therefore} \quad \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}) = 1$$

Evolution of density matrix

$$\hat{\rho} = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt}\hat{\rho} &= \sum_i p_i \left(\frac{d|\psi_i\rangle}{dt} \langle\psi_i| + |\psi_i\rangle \frac{d\langle\psi_i|}{dt} \right) = \\ &= -\frac{i}{\hbar} \sum_i p_i \left(\hat{H}|\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i| - |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|\hat{H} \right) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} [\hat{H}, \hat{\rho}] \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\frac{d}{dt}\hat{\rho} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} [\hat{H}, \hat{\rho}]}$$

(Schrödinger equation
for density matrix)

Pure and mixed states

Pure state: a state, which can be represented by a wavefunction

$|\psi\rangle$ with probability $p = 1$, so $\hat{\rho} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$

Then $\hat{\rho}^2 = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \hat{\rho}$ $\boxed{\hat{\rho}^2 = \hat{\rho}}$ $\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}^2) = 1$

Mixed state: a state, which can not be represented by a wavefunction

Then $\hat{\rho}^2 \neq \hat{\rho}$ $\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}^2) < 1$ (proof via eigenbasis, $\sum p_i^2 < (\sum p_i)^2 = 1$)

Thermal distribution (equilibrium d.m.)

$$\hat{\rho} = e^{-\hat{H}/T} / \text{Tr}(e^{-\hat{H}/T}) \quad \text{or} \quad \hat{\rho} = e^{-(\hat{H} - \mu\hat{N})/T} / \text{Tr}(e^{-(\hat{H} - \mu\hat{N})/T})$$

Next subject: Schrödinger and Heisenberg pictures

What we considered in this course is called **Schrödinger picture**.

In this case Schrödinger equation for state: $\frac{d}{dt} |\Psi\rangle = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{H} |\Psi\rangle$

If \hat{H} is time-independent, then formally $|\Psi(t)\rangle = e^{-i\hat{H}t/\hbar} |\Psi(0)\rangle$

Then expectation value of an observable \hat{A} at time t is

$$\langle \hat{A} \rangle_t = \langle \Psi(t) | \hat{A} | \Psi(t) \rangle = \langle \Psi(0) | e^{i\hat{H}t/\hbar} \hat{A} e^{-i\hat{H}t/\hbar} | \Psi(0) \rangle$$

Heisenberg picture

We could get the same $\langle \hat{A} \rangle$ if we assume that the **state $|\Psi\rangle$ does not evolve**, but instead the observable \hat{A} evolves with time t :

$$\hat{A}(t) = e^{i\hat{H}t/\hbar} \hat{A} e^{-i\hat{H}t/\hbar}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \hat{A}(t) = \frac{i}{\hbar} [\hat{H}, \hat{A}(t)]$$

Interaction picture (main practical approach)

Interaction picture is a combination of both Schrödinger and Heisenberg pictures.

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_1$$

← simple (solvable); assume time-independent

Heisenberg-picture idea for \hat{H}_0 . For any observable \hat{A} ,

$$\hat{A}(t) \equiv e^{i\hat{H}_0 t/\hbar} \hat{A} e^{-i\hat{H}_0 t/\hbar} \quad \boxed{\frac{d}{dt} \hat{A}(t) = \frac{i}{\hbar} [\hat{H}_0, \hat{A}(t)]}$$

Also introduce $|\tilde{\Psi}(t)\rangle = e^{\frac{i\hat{H}_0 t}{\hbar}} |\Psi(t)\rangle$ (here usual Schrödinger $|\Psi(t)\rangle$)

So that $\langle \hat{A} \rangle_t = \langle \Psi(t) | \hat{A} | \Psi(t) \rangle = \langle \tilde{\Psi}(t) | \underbrace{e^{\frac{i\hat{H}_0 t}{\hbar}} \hat{A} e^{-\frac{i\hat{H}_0 t}{\hbar}}}_{\hat{A}(t)} | \tilde{\Psi}(t) \rangle$

Then evolution for $|\tilde{\Psi}(t)\rangle$ is

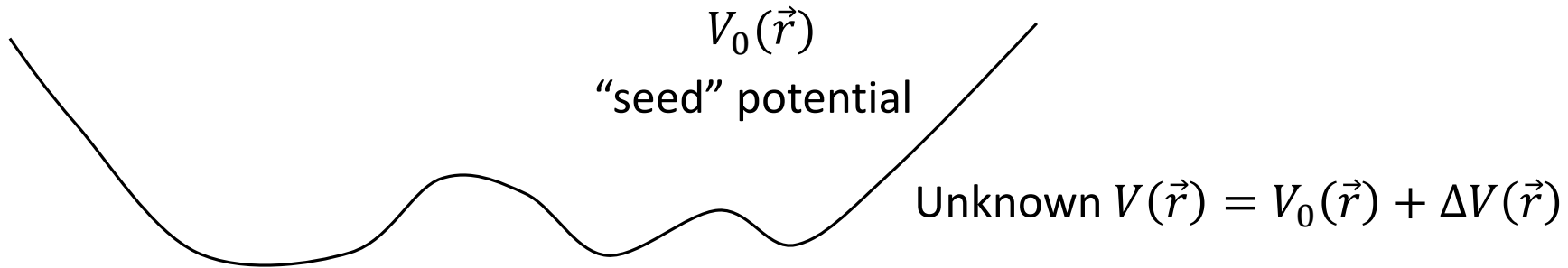
$$\frac{d}{dt} |\tilde{\Psi}\rangle = \frac{i\hat{H}_0}{\hbar} e^{\frac{i\hat{H}_0 t}{\hbar}} |\Psi\rangle + e^{\frac{i\hat{H}_0 t}{\hbar}} \underbrace{\frac{-i\hat{H}}{\hbar}}_{\text{SE}} |\Psi\rangle = e^{\frac{i\hat{H}_0 t}{\hbar}} \frac{-i\hat{H}_1}{\hbar} |\Psi\rangle =$$

$$= \underbrace{e^{\frac{i\hat{H}_0 t}{\hbar}} \frac{-i\hat{H}_1}{\hbar} e^{-\frac{i\hat{H}_0 t}{\hbar}}}_{\text{Heisenberg}} |\tilde{\Psi}\rangle$$

$$\boxed{\frac{d}{dt} |\tilde{\Psi}\rangle = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{H}_1(t) |\tilde{\Psi}\rangle}$$

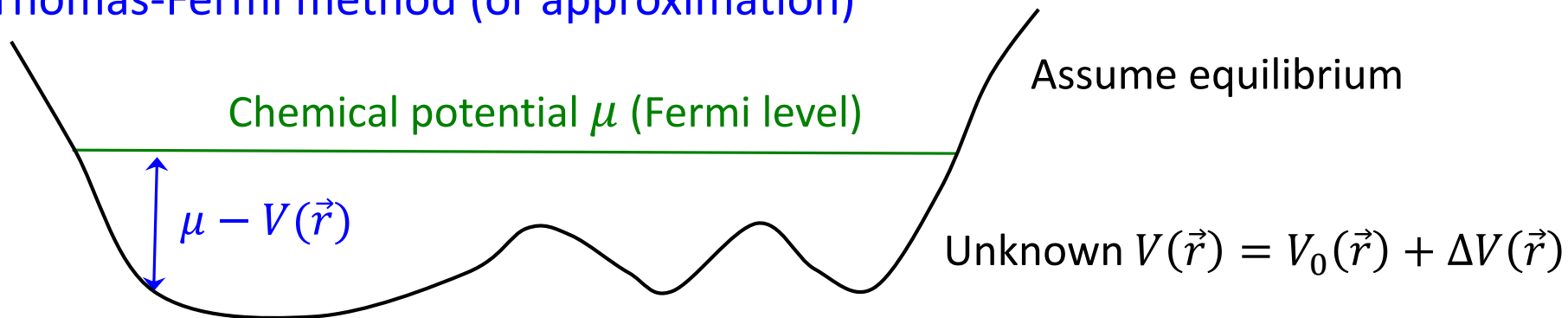
Heisenberg

Next subject: Methods for interacting electrons (terminology and ideas)



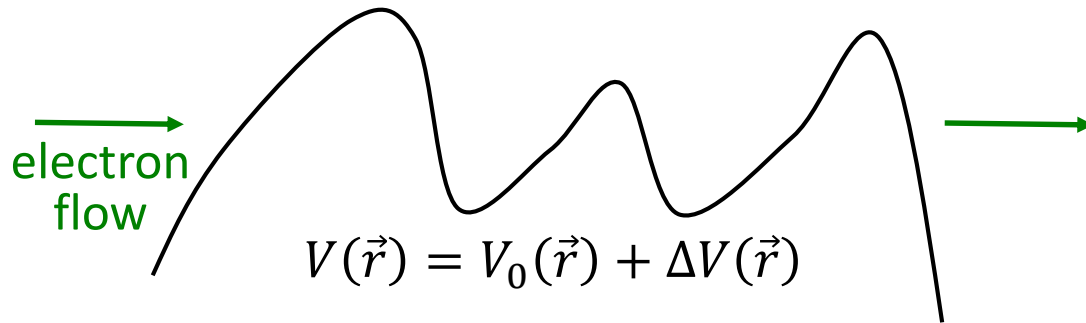
Problem: $V(\vec{r})$ changes because of electron-electron interaction, so need some self-consistent approach.

Thomas-Fermi method (or approximation)



Idea: $\mu - V(\vec{r})$ determines density of electrons, $n(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{3\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m(\mu - V)}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2}$, then solve Poisson equation to find $\Delta V(\vec{r})$; self-consistency: $V \rightarrow n \rightarrow V$.

Hartree method (or approximation)



Non-equilibrium,
but stationary case
no chemical potential
all electrons alike

Idea: solve Schrödinger equation $\hat{H}\psi = E\psi$ to find $\psi(\vec{r})$, then $n(\vec{r}) \propto |\psi(\vec{r})|^2$, then solve Poisson equation to find $\Delta V(\vec{r})$; self-consistency $V \rightarrow \psi \rightarrow n \rightarrow V$.

Hartree-Fock method (or approximation)

Idea: almost the same as Hartree, but excludes e - e interaction for an electron with itself, so that electron feels only field produced by other electrons

Density functional theory

Even better (more accurate), uses functionals of electron density $n(\vec{r})$

Next subject: Language of second quantization

This is a technique to describe states with variable number of particles.
(Later it was found to be useful for a fixed number of particles as well.)

Occupation number representation

$|\vec{N}\rangle = |N_1, N_2, N_3, \dots\rangle$ State with N_1 particles on level 1, N_2 particles on level 2, etc. We do not distinguish which particle is where (indistinguishable).

This is now the basis, so that an arbitrary (pure) state is a superposition:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{\vec{N}} c(\vec{N}) |\vec{N}\rangle \quad |c(\vec{N})|^2 \text{ is probability}$$

This wavefunction lives in the occupation number space (Fock space)

Orthogonality: $\langle \vec{M} | \vec{N} \rangle = 0$ if $\vec{M} \neq \vec{N}$, $\langle \vec{N} | \vec{N} \rangle = 1$

Examples of (basis) states

$|0, 0, 0, \dots\rangle$ no particles, “vacuum”, $|\vec{0}\rangle$ or $|0\rangle$

$|0, 1, 0, \dots\rangle$ one particles in state 2

$|0, 2, 1, 0, \dots\rangle$ two particles in state 2, 1 particle in state 3

Second quantization (cont.)

Simple special case: one oscillator (main language in optics)

Basis: $|0\rangle, |1\rangle, |2\rangle, |3\rangle, \dots$

Instead of the level number, we think about number of photons

Wavefunction: $|\psi\rangle = \sum_n c(n) |n\rangle$ (Fock-space representation)

Creation and annihilation operators

$$\hat{a}_2^\dagger |0\rangle = |0, 1, 0, 0, \dots\rangle \quad \hat{a}_3^\dagger |0\rangle = |0, 0, 1, 0, \dots\rangle$$

For bosons $\hat{a}_k^\dagger |\dots N_k, \dots\rangle = \sqrt{N_k + 1} |\dots N_k + 1, \dots\rangle$
creates extra particle on level k (factor $\sqrt{N + 1}$ as for an oscillator)

For bosons $\hat{a}_k |\dots N_k, \dots\rangle = \sqrt{N_k} |\dots N_k - 1, \dots\rangle$
annihilates (kills) one particle on level k (factor \sqrt{N} as for an oscillator)

If $N_k = 0$, then $\hat{a}_k |\dots 0_k, \dots\rangle = 0$ (zero, not vacuum)

In particular, $\hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_k |\dots N_k, \dots\rangle = N_k |\dots N_k, \dots\rangle$, so $\hat{N}_k = \hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_k$

Commutation relations

$$\boxed{[\hat{a}_k, \hat{a}_l^\dagger] = \delta_{kl}, \quad [\hat{a}_k, \hat{a}_l] = [\hat{a}_k^\dagger, \hat{a}_l^\dagger] = 0}$$

Sufficient for the
whole theory

Second quantization (cont.)

Operators can often be expressed in terms of \hat{a}^\dagger and \hat{a}

$$\hat{H} = \sum_k \varepsilon_k \hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_k \quad (\text{non-interacting particles, basis of eigenstates})$$

If basis vectors are not eigenstates, then also terms $\sum_{kl} H_{kl} \hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_l$

Tight-binding model: $\hat{H} = \sum_j \varepsilon_j a_j^\dagger a_j + \sum_j (T_j a_j^\dagger a_{j+1} + T_j^* a_{j+1}^\dagger a_j)$

Coulomb interaction: $\hat{H} = \sum_{kl} H_{kl} \hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_k \hat{a}_l^\dagger \hat{a}_l$

For fermions similar, but commutation relations are

$$\{\hat{a}_k, \hat{a}_l^\dagger\}_+ = \delta_{kl}, \quad \{\hat{a}_k, \hat{a}_l\}_+ = \{\hat{a}_k^\dagger, \hat{a}_l^\dagger\}_+ = 0$$

where

$$\{\hat{A}, \hat{B}\}_+ \equiv \hat{A}\hat{B} + \hat{B}\hat{A}$$

For example, this means that $\hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_k^\dagger |0\rangle = -\hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_k^\dagger |0\rangle$, so $\hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_k^\dagger |0\rangle = 0$

(Pauli exclusion principle)

For one particle it does not matter if it is fermion or boson, so boson rules are often used for electrons (in single-particle approaches)

Why called “second quantization”? $\psi(x) \rightarrow \hat{\psi} = \sum_k \psi_k \hat{a}_k$