

Lecture 17 - Entropy & The Schrödinger Equation

1. Entropy
2. Schrödinger's Equation
3. Time Evolution of Density Matrices

1. Entropy of Density Matrices

Density matrices take "pure states"

↓ change to ↓

mixed states (which have classical probabilities)

- For the Bloch Sphere:

Surface of the sphere ($\vec{a}^2=1$)

= pure states

interior of the sphere = mixed states

- For density matrices:

ρ is Hermitian — i.e., we can diagonalize it

$$= \sum_j p_j |\Psi_j\rangle \langle \Psi_j|$$

$$\text{Tr}(\rho) = 1 \Leftrightarrow \sum_j p_j = 1$$

State is a "Pure State" IFF $p_j = 1$ for some j

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

, all other values of
 $j=0$

For mixed states: $p_j < 1$

$$\rightarrow p_j^2 < p_j$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Tr}(\rho^2) = \sum_j p_j^2 < 1$$

But how mixed are these states?

Use entropy to quantify the amount of mixing!

- Entropy from classical stat mech:

$$S(E) = k_B \ln(Q(E))$$

$\hookrightarrow Q = \# \text{ of configurations}$

\rightarrow quantifies how random a system is, $\ln(\# \text{ of states})$

for a classical system, $j=1 \dots P$, have probabilities p_j

* Entropy is "extensive"

\hookrightarrow entropy of system

N copies of the system $\leftrightarrow N \cdot S$

$$N \rightarrow \infty, Q = \frac{N!}{\prod_i (N p_i)!} \text{ — combinatorics}$$

n_i

- Entropy of Density Matrices -

$$S = \frac{1}{N} \ln \left[\frac{N!}{\prod_i (N p_i)!} \right]$$

Use Stirling's approximation: $\ln(N!) \sim N \ln(N) - N$...

$$S \approx -k_B \sum_j p_j \ln(p_j)$$

↑ set Boltzmann const. = 1

$$S = -\sum_j p_j \ln(p_j)$$

$$= -\text{Tr}(\sum_j p_j \ln(p_j) |\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|)$$

↑ Remember: a function on the eigenkets is just a function on the eigenvalues × the eigenkets

$$= -\text{Tr}(\rho \ln(\rho))$$

↑ the von Neumann entropy vs thermodynamic entropy

/ but not infinitely so!

$$S \geq 0 \rightarrow \text{minimal } S = 0$$

only occurs for $p_j = 1$ for some j

↳ a.k.a. a pure state! $\rho = |\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|$

$$\rightarrow \text{maximal } S @ p_j = \frac{1}{P}$$

$$S_{\text{max}} = \ln(P)$$

$$\rho_{\text{max}} = \sum_j \frac{1}{P} |\Psi_j\rangle\langle\Psi_j|$$

$$= \underbrace{\frac{1}{P} \sum_j |\Psi_j\rangle\langle\Psi_j|}_{1} = \frac{1}{P}$$

⇒ the maximally mixed state! (unique)

(max randomness - Bloch Sphere $\vec{a} = 0$)

mms @ origin →
for 2x2 system

Connection to Entanglement

Using the "reduced density matrix"

States A & B → $|\Psi\rangle$, which has a reduced DM ρ_A
a pure state

$$\rightarrow \text{Entanglement entropy} = -\text{Tr}(\rho_A \ln(\rho_A))$$

$$= S_{\text{ent}}$$



$S_{\text{ent}} = 0$ for product states

$$\hookrightarrow |\Psi\rangle = |\Psi_A\rangle \otimes |\Psi_B\rangle$$

Theorem: (property of density matrices)

$$S_{\text{ent}}(A) = S_{\text{ent}}(B)$$

$$\leq \ln(D_A) \quad \leq \ln(D_B)$$

→ Using this, we can check that $\rho_A = |\Psi_A\rangle \langle \Psi_A|$

$$\text{if } \dim\{\mathcal{H}_A\} = D_A, \dim\{\mathcal{H}_B\} = D_B$$

then the entanglement entropy of the maximally entangled state is $S_{\text{ent},\max} = \min\{\ln(D_A), \ln(D_B)\}$

* The EPR (Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen) state was a maximally entangled state; the "poster child entangled state"

2. Schrödinger's Equation

Hamiltonian as the generator of time translation

$$|\alpha\rangle = |\alpha; t=t_0\rangle$$

↳ arbitrary state; explicit time-dependence

$$\rightarrow t=t,$$

$|\alpha; t=t_1\rangle$ The superposition principle tells us that if we have two states

$$C_0|\alpha; t=t_0\rangle + C_0'|\alpha'; t=t_0\rangle$$

then after some time t those states will be

$$C_0|\alpha; t=t_1\rangle + C_0'|\alpha'; t=t_1\rangle$$

↳ time translation must be linear! (if it's a superposition, it stays a superposition, etc.)

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

unitary time-evolution operator

Because it is linear, $t_0 \rightarrow t_1 \rightarrow t_2$, $U(t_0, t_2) = U(t_0, t_1)U(t_1, t_2)$

$$U(t_0, t_0) = \mathbb{1} \quad (\text{II})$$

Also, if $|\alpha; t=t_0\rangle$ is normalized, so is $|\alpha; t=t_1\rangle$
 $\Rightarrow U(t_0, t_1)$ is unitary

↳ Unitarity allows us to say

$$U(t_0, t_1)U^\dagger(t_0, t_1) = \mathbb{1}$$

$U^\dagger(t_0, t_1) = U(t_1, t_0)$ - time can be represented
in reverse here! (but is time reversal
invariant per symmetry requirements)

Consider $t_1 = t_0 + \Delta t$ ($\Delta t \rightarrow 0$)

↳ infinitesimal shift

→ Taylor expand ↴

$$U(t_0, t_0 + \Delta t) \approx \mathbb{I} - \frac{i\Delta t}{\hbar} \mathcal{H}(t_0) + \dots$$

from (II) definition of Hamiltonian

Using equation (I):

$$\begin{aligned} U(t_0, t_1 + \Delta t) &= U(t_0, t_1 + \Delta t) U(t_1, t_1) \\ &\Rightarrow \left[\mathbb{I} - \frac{i\Delta t}{\hbar} \mathcal{H}(t_1) \right] U(t_0, t_1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{U(t_0, t_1 + \Delta t) - U(t_0, t_1)}{\Delta t} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \mathcal{H}(t_1) U(t_0, t_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \partial_t U(t_0, t_1) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \mathcal{H}(t_1) U(t_0, t_1)$$

↳ Schrödinger equation for the unitary time evolution operator

define: $\mathcal{H}(t) \equiv i\hbar(\partial_t U) U^\dagger$

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

$$\Rightarrow i\hbar \partial_t |\alpha; t=t_1\rangle = \mathcal{H}(t_1) |\alpha; t=t_1\rangle$$

↳ general time-dependent Schrödinger equation recovered

Working with the Schrödinger Equation

Case 1: $\mathcal{H}(t) = \mathcal{H}$ (independent of t)

Guess/Check

$$U(t_0, t_1) = \exp(-i/\hbar \mathcal{H}(t_1 - t_0))$$

↳ only valid for \mathcal{H} time-independent

$$= \sum_n \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar} \right)^n \frac{1}{n!} (t_1 - t_0)^n \mathcal{H}^n$$

$$i\hbar \partial_t U = \dots = \mathcal{H} U(t_0, t_1)$$

↑ "Some stuff happens with the factorial, etc.,
and then the answer falls out!"

Case 2: $[\mathcal{H}(t), \mathcal{H}(t')] = 0$

- \mathcal{H} is time-dependent but commutes at different times

"trick":

$$U(t_0, t_f) = (U^\dagger(t_0, t_0 + \Delta t) U^\dagger(t_0 + \Delta t, t_0 + 2\Delta t) \cdots U^\dagger(t_f - \Delta t, t_f))^T$$

$$= e^{-i\mathcal{H}(t_0)\Delta t/\hbar} e^{-i\Delta t\mathcal{H}(t_0+\Delta t)/\hbar} \cdots e^{-i\mathcal{H}(t_f)\Delta t/\hbar}$$

→ use Campbell-Baker-Hausdorff →

for $[A, B] = 0$, $e^A e^B = e^{A+B}$, then

$$U(t_0, t_f) = e^{-i\Delta t \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}(t_0 + n\Delta t)}$$

$$\xrightarrow{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} e^{-i/t_0 \int^{t_f} \mathcal{H}(t) dt} = U(t_0, t_f)$$

$$\text{e.g. } \vec{B}(t) = \lambda(t) \hat{z}$$

field direction flips with t

Case 3: The general case

$$\partial_t U(t_0, t_f) = -i/\hbar \mathcal{H}(t_f) U(t_0, t_f)$$

- solve iteratively

$$\text{gives } U^{(0)}(t_0, t_f) = 1$$

$$U(t_0, t_f) = 1 - i/\hbar \int_{t_0}^{t_f} d\tau \mathcal{H}(\tau) U(t, \tau) + 1$$

$$U^{(1)}(t_0, t_f) = 1 - i/\hbar \int_{t_0}^{t_f} d\tau \mathcal{H}(\tau)$$

$$U(t_0, t_f) = 1 - i/\hbar \int_{t_0}^{t_f} d\tau_1 \mathcal{H}(\tau_1) + (-i/\hbar)^2 \int_{t_0}^{t_f} d\tau_1 \int_{t_0}^{\tau_1} d\tau_2 \mathcal{H}(\tau_2) \mathcal{H}(\tau_1) \dots$$

↳ this is known as the Dyson Series.

Back to Case 1: time-independent $\mathcal{H}(t) = \mathcal{H}$

$$U(t_0, t_f) = e^{-i/\hbar \mathcal{H}(t_f - t_0)}$$

closed-form time evolution operator

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \text{hermitian} \\ A \rightarrow \text{observable(s)} \end{array} \right\} [i\mathcal{H}, A] = 0$$

$$|a\rangle, A|a\rangle = a|a\rangle$$

$$\mathcal{H}|a\rangle = E_a|a\rangle$$

→ Diagonalize \mathcal{H} →

because they commute, A and \mathcal{H}
are simultaneously diagonalizable



$$U(t_0, t_1)|a\rangle = e^{-i\hbar(t_1-t_0)/\hbar}|a\rangle$$

= power series... $\Rightarrow \exp(-it/\hbar E_a)|a\rangle$

$$|a; t=t_1\rangle = e^{-i(t_1-t_0)\hbar E_a}|a; t=t_0\rangle$$

phases cancel

such that $\langle a; t=t_1 | B | a; t=t_0 \rangle = \langle a; t=t_0 | B | a; t=t_0 \rangle$
 ↳ some observable

⇒ This is our Stationary State.

$$|\alpha; t=t_1\rangle = \sum_a c_a |a; t=t_1\rangle$$

↳ the coefficient of expanding α in the a -basis
 $c_a = \langle a; t=t_0 | \alpha; t=t_0 \rangle$

Starting @ $t=t_0$, we can now calculate any state @ $t=t_1$, (for the time-independent Schrödinger equation)

$$\rightarrow -\sum_a c_a \underbrace{e^{-i(t_1-t_0)\hbar E_a/\hbar}}_{c_a(t=t_1)} |a; t=t_0\rangle$$

so if we want to calculate the expectation values of B with respect to these eigenstates:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha; t=t_1 | B | a; t=t_1 \rangle &= \sum_{aa'} \underbrace{c_a^*(t_1) c_{a'}(t_1)}_{c_a^*(t_1)} \langle a | b | a' \rangle \\ &= c_a^*(t_1) \underbrace{e^{+i(t_1-t_0)\hbar E_a/\hbar} e^{-i(t_1-t_0)\hbar E_{a'}/\hbar}}_{e^{-i\hbar(t_1-t_0)(E_{a'}-E_a)}} \\ &= e^{-i\hbar(t_1-t_0)(E_{a'}-E_a)} \end{aligned}$$

↳ a bunch of oscillations

3. Time Evolution of Density Matrices

Schrödinger's equation tells how pure states evolve in time, but what about mixed states?

$$\rho(t=t_0) = \sum_j p_j |\Psi_j(t=t_0)\rangle \langle \Psi_j(t=t_0)|$$

$\downarrow U(t_0, t_1) \downarrow$

$$\rho(t=t_1) = \sum_j p_j |\Psi_j(t=t_1)\rangle \langle \Psi_j(t=t_1)|$$

(under unitary evolution, the states are unchanged)

$$= \sum_j p_j |U(t_0, t_i) |\Psi_j(t=t_0) \rangle \langle \Psi_j(t=t_0) | U^\dagger(t_0, t_i)$$

$$= U(t_0, t_i) \rho(t=t_0) U^\dagger(t_0, t_i) \quad \begin{matrix} \text{picks up the complex} \\ \text{conjugate} \end{matrix}$$

$$\partial_t \rho(t=t_i) = -i/\hbar [H(t_i) U(t_0, t_i) \rho(t=t_0) U^\dagger(t_0, t_i)]$$

$$= \rho(t=t_i)$$

$$+ U(t_0, t_i) \rho(t=t_0) U^\dagger(t_0, t_i) (i/\hbar) H(t_i)$$

$$\Rightarrow i\hbar \partial_t \rho = [H(t_i), \rho(t=t_i)]$$

→ Bloch Sphere – rotation of $\vec{\alpha}(t)$