

### III Time evolution of density matrices

#### III.1 Time evolution in closed quantum systems.

A observable,  $\langle A \rangle = \text{Tr}(\rho A)$ .

Time evolution in Heisenberg picture

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

$H = H^*$  the Hamiltonian. More generally,

$$A(t) = U(t, t_0)^* A(t_0) U(t, t_0)$$

with  $U(t, t_0) = e^{-i\frac{1}{\hbar}(t-t_0)H}$  if  $H$  is time-independent, and

$$U(t, t_0) = \mathcal{T} \exp\left(-i\int_{t_0}^t H(s) ds\right)$$

if  $H$  is time-dependent.

By cyclicity of the trace,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A(t) \rangle &= \text{Tr}(\rho U(t, t_0)^* A U(t, t_0)) \\ &= \text{Tr}(U(t, t_0) \rho U(t, t_0)^* A) \end{aligned}$$

for all  $A$ . Thus the time evolution for  $\rho$  is

$$\rho(t) = U(t, t_0) \rho(t_0) U(t, t_0)^*$$

(note: for  $\rho$ ,  $U^*$  is on the right, opposite to the eq. for  $A$ )

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The time evolution in commutator form is

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

By the same cyclicity argument, get

$$\dot{\rho}(t) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} [H(t), \rho(t)]$$

(von Neumann equation).

Example for Spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ : Choose a basis such that

$H$  is diagonal,  $H = \begin{pmatrix} E_1 & 0 \\ 0 & E_2 \end{pmatrix}$ . Then

$\rho = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{11} & \rho_{12} \\ \rho_{21} & \rho_{22} \end{pmatrix}$  with  $\rho_{11}, \rho_{22} \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\rho_{12} = \overline{\rho_{21}}$ .

$\rho_D = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & \rho_{22} \end{pmatrix}$  commutes with  $H$ , so

$\rho_{11}$  and  $\rho_{22}$  are time-independent.

The off-diagonal elements oscillate

$$\rho_{12}(t) = \rho_{12}(0) \cdot e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} t (E_1 - E_2)}$$

Assume  $H$  to be time-independent.

$$\dot{\rho} = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad [H, \rho] = 0.$$

This is the case if  $\rho$  depends only on conserved quantities. Thus the question how many conserved quantities there are is essential. Integrable systems have many of them; large (thermodynamic) ones, very few.

If only  $H$  is conserved,  $\rho = \rho(H)$ . The canonical density matrix is

$$\rho = \frac{1}{Z_C} e^{-\beta H}$$

where  $\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$  and  $Z_C = \text{Tr} e^{-\beta H}$ .

Strictly speaking, one needs  $H$  to have discrete spectrum. This is the reason why one usually starts out in a finite volume or with a confining potential.

For the harmonic oscillator,  $H = (\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega$ ,  
(drop the  $\frac{\hbar \omega}{2}$  by an energy shift),

$$Z_C = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}}.$$

(32) For a system of harmonic oscillators,

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{P_i^2}{2m} + \frac{m}{2} \omega_i^2 X_i^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N \hbar \omega_i \left( a_i^\dagger a_i + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

with  $[a_i, a_j^\dagger] = \delta_{ij}$  and  $[a_i, a_j] = 0$ ,

$N = \sum_i a_i^\dagger a_i$  is conserved ( $[N, H] = 0$ ).

$$\text{Thus } \rho_{gc}(\beta, \mu) = \frac{1}{Z_{gc}} e^{-\beta(H - \mu N)}$$

is stationary.

For a spin system, e.g.

$$H = - \sum_{x,y} J_{xy} \vec{S}_x \cdot \vec{S}_y$$

the total spin  $\vec{S} = \sum_x \vec{S}_x$  commutes with  $H$  since it is natural to consider in general a magnetic field  $\vec{B}$ :

$$\rho_{J, \vec{B}} = \frac{1}{Z_{J, \vec{B}}} e^{-\beta(H - \vec{B} \cdot \vec{S})}$$

etc.

Let  $\rho_c = \frac{1}{Z_c} e^{-\beta H}$ . Then

$$\ln \rho_c = -\ln Z_c - \beta H$$

so

$$S(\rho_c) = -\text{Tr}(\rho_c \ln \rho_c) = +\ln Z_c + \beta \langle H \rangle_{\rho_c}$$

(where  $\langle H \rangle_{\rho} = \text{Tr}(\rho H)$ ). For any DM  $\rho$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} S(\rho_c) - S(\rho) &= \text{Tr}(\rho \ln \rho) - \text{Tr}(\rho_c \ln \rho_c) \\ &= \underbrace{\text{Tr}(\rho \ln \rho)}_{S(\rho)} - \text{Tr}(\rho \ln \rho_c) + \text{Tr}(\rho \ln \rho_c) \\ &\quad - \text{Tr}(\rho_c \ln \rho_c) \end{aligned}$$

$$\geq \text{Tr}(\rho \ln \rho_c) + S(\rho_c)$$

$$= -\ln Z_c - \beta \langle H \rangle_{\rho} + \ln Z_c + \beta \langle H \rangle_{\rho_c}$$

$$= \beta (\langle H \rangle_{\rho_c} - \langle H \rangle_{\rho}).$$

This implies:

Theorem:

(i) Among all states  $\rho$  with fixed mean value of the energy,  $E = \langle H \rangle_{\rho}$ , the canonical state  $\rho_c$  has the largest entropy.

(ii) Let  $F(\rho) = \langle H \rangle_{\rho} - \frac{1}{\beta} S(\rho)$ .

Then  $F(\rho) \geq F(\rho_c)$  for all DM  $\rho$ ,

i.e.  $\rho_c$  minimizes the free energy.

(Gibbs variational principle).

Obviously, if  $\dot{\rho} = 0$ , then also

$$\frac{d}{dt} S(\rho) = 0.$$

But even if  $\rho = \rho(t) = e^{-itH} \rho_0 e^{itH}$

$$S(\rho(t)) = \text{Tr}(\rho(t) \ln \rho(t)) = S(\rho_0)$$

because the eigenvalues remain unchanged,  $\rho(t) = \rho(0)$ , and the trace can be taken in the time-dependent orthonormal basis.

Thus <sup>unitary time evolution and</sup> von Neumann entropy tell us nothing about approach to a stationary state or to a <sup>thermal</sup> equilibrium state (thermalization). To get dissipative phenomena and approach to some stationary state, one needs to take limits where unitarity is no longer true.

### III.2 Time evolution in open quantum systems

An "open quantum system" consists of a system  $\mathcal{S}$  and an environment  $\mathcal{R}$ ,<sup>\*</sup> which are coupled. The distinction is that only  $\mathcal{S}$  is accessible to our measurements.

We assume that the total time evolution on  $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{S}} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{R}}$  is unitary. The question is what its reduction to  $\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is like. That is, we are after

$$\mathcal{K}(t, \rho) = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{R}}(\rho(t))$$

$t \mapsto \mathcal{K}(t, \rho)$  is the time evolution of the reduced DM for  $\mathcal{S}$ .

Let  $(e_k)_k$  be an ONB for  $\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{S}}$  and  $(f_\ell)_\ell$  one for  $\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{R}}$  then

$$(\mathcal{K}(t, \rho))_{kk'} = \sum_{\ell} \langle e_k \otimes f_{\ell} | U(t)(\rho \otimes P_{f_0}) U(t)^* e_{k'} \otimes f_{\ell} \rangle$$

Here we have assumed that the environment is in a pure state; this is allowed, since we may purify it. Also, the joint state at initial time is  $\rho \otimes P_{f_0}$ , which means that the preparation involves correlations between  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{R}$ . Of course, the time evolution generates such

<sup>\*</sup>  $\mathcal{R}$  from "reservoir"

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correlations whenever there is a term in the Hamiltonian that couples  $S$  and  $R$ .

Inserting  $\mathbb{1} = \sum_{m,n} |e_m \otimes f_n\rangle \langle e_m \otimes f_n|$   
we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 R(t, \rho)_{kk'} &= \sum_{\ell} \sum_{\substack{m,n \\ m',n'}} \langle g_{k\ell} | U g_{mn} \rangle \langle g_{mn} | \rho \otimes P_{f_0} g_{m'n'} \rangle \\
 &\quad \langle g_{m'n'} | U^* g_{k'\ell} \rangle \\
 &= \sum_{\ell} \sum_{m,m'} \langle e_k \otimes f_{\ell} | U e_m \otimes f_0 \rangle \langle e_m | \rho e_{m'} \rangle \\
 &\quad \langle e_{m'} \otimes f_0 | U^* e_{k'} \otimes f_{\ell} \rangle \\
 &= \sum_{\ell} (K_{\ell})_{km} \rho_{mm'} (K_{\ell}^*)_{m'k}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$R(t, \rho) = \sum_{\ell} K_{\ell} \rho K_{\ell}^*$$

with "Kraus operators"

$$(K_{\ell})_{kk'} = \langle e_k \otimes f_{\ell} | U (e_{k'} \otimes f_0) \rangle$$

The  $K_{\ell}$  are often written by abuse of notation

as  $K_{\ell} = \langle f_{\ell} | U f_0 \rangle.$

They satisfy  $\left( \sum_{\ell} K_{\ell}^* K_{\ell} = \mathbb{1} \right)$



## Remarks.

1) If in some limit the  $K_t$  become projections, we get back to von Neumann measurement in a limiting time evolution.

2) The map  $\rho \mapsto R(t, \rho)$  satisfies

(a) it is convex linear (i.e. linear on cones)

$$R(t, \sum_i p_i \rho_i) = \sum_i p_i R(t, \rho_i)$$

if  $p_i \geq 0, \sum p_i = 1$ .

(b) it conserves the trace

$$\text{Tr}(R(t, \rho)) = \text{Tr}(\rho)$$

(c) it is completely positive

i.e. the extension to  $R(t, \cdot) \otimes \mathbb{1}_N$  is positive for all  $N \in \mathbb{N}$

(c) is a stronger condition than just  $R(t, \rho) \geq 0$ .

### III.3 Markovian approximation and Lindblad dissipators.

The Kraus operators are ~~in general~~ time-dependent, and this dependence can be over long timescales, depending on the properties of the environment (ex. of conserved quantities, etc.).

The assumption that the environment has a dynamics on a much shorter timescale than the system motivates the Markovian approximation that  $\rho(t)$  is determined only by  $\rho(t')$ , irrespective of  $\rho(t'')$ ,  $t' < t$ , i.e.

$$\dot{\rho} = L(\rho)$$

(This assumption is in general untrue, there are memory effects, discussed below).

If it holds, we can find the form of  $L(\rho)$ . This was first done in a well-known paper by Lindblad (1976) in a precise setting. Here, we give a heuristic argument. Consider a time  $\delta t$  which is <sup>small, but</sup> much larger than the R-scale of time, so that  $\dot{\rho}$  can be calculated as

$$\dot{\rho}(0) = \frac{\rho(\delta t) - \rho(0)}{\delta t}$$

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Then

$$\rho(\delta t) = \rho(0) + \delta t \cdot L(\rho(0))$$

$$= \sum_l K_l \rho(0) K_l^*$$

with Kraus op's,  $K_l$  that depend on  $\delta t$ .

Then one of them, say,  $K_0$  must be  $\mathbb{1} + O(\delta t)$ , and all the others  $O(\sqrt{\delta t})$ . So set

$$K_l = \sqrt{\delta t} R_l \quad l \geq 1$$

and  $R_0 = \mathbb{1} + M \cdot \delta t$

We decompose  $M$  into its hermitian and antihermitian parts:

$$A = \frac{1}{2}(M + M^*) \quad H = i\hbar \frac{M - M^*}{2}$$

so that  $M = -\frac{i}{\hbar} H + A$

(NB:  $H$  and  $A$  are operators on  $\mathcal{H}_p$ , i.e. for the effective system dynamics).

We have

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + M \delta t) \rho (1 + M^* \delta t) &= \rho + (M \rho + \rho M^*) \delta t + O(\delta t)^2 \\ &= \rho + \left( -\frac{i}{\hbar} [H, \rho] + \{M, \rho\} \right) \delta t + O(\delta t)^2 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
1 &= \sum_{l \geq 0} K_l^* K_l \\
&= 1 + (M^* + M) \delta t + O(\delta t)^2 + \sum_{l \geq 1} R_l^* R_l \delta t
\end{aligned}$$

so

$$A = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{l \geq 1} R_l^* R_l.$$

In summary, we have Lindblad's master equation

$$\dot{\rho} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} [H, \rho] + D(\rho)$$

with the dissipator

$$D(\rho) = \{A, \rho\} + \sum_{l \geq 1} R_l \rho R_l^*$$

where  $A = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{l \geq 1} R_l^* R_l$

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Let us define

$$\tilde{H} = H - \frac{i}{2} \sum_{l \geq 1} R_l^* R_l.$$

Then

$$\dot{\rho} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} (\tilde{H} \rho - \rho \tilde{H}^*) + \sum_{l \geq 1} R_l \rho R_l^*$$

$\tilde{H}$  is not selfadjoint; its antihermitian part is  $-\frac{1}{2} \sum R_l^* R_l \leq 0$ .

if  $[H, \Gamma] = 0$ ,

$$e^{-it(H-i\Gamma)} = e^{-itH} e^{-t\Gamma}$$

which already suggests some damping.

The least part is necessary to ensure that  $\text{Tr } \dot{\rho} = 0$ ; this would not be the case if  $\sum R_l \rho R_l^*$  were omitted (if any of the  $R_l$  is nonzero).

The sol. of  $\dot{\rho} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} (\tilde{H} \rho - \rho \tilde{H}^*)$  is of course

$$\rho(t) = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} t \tilde{H}} \rho(0) \left( e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} t \tilde{H}} \right)^*$$

but  $(\cdot)^*$  is now no longer equivalent to  $(\cdot)^{-1}$

## Remarks.

1. In general, the effective dynamics will not be Markovian, but there are interesting systems for which this has been proven (this is very hard)

[Pulé, Davies]

2. Lindblad's result gives the most general form; can now consider examples.

Example: "spontaneous decay by emission"

We reduce an atom to a two-level system, which then has Hilbert space  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .

We assume the basis chosen such that the Hamiltonian is diagonal, and set the zero of energy such that

$$H = -\frac{\hbar\omega}{2} \sigma_3$$

Then  $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is the ground state, w. energy  $-\frac{\hbar\omega}{2} = E_0$   
and  $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  is an excited state, w. energy  $\frac{\hbar\omega}{2} = E_1$

A photon emitted in the transition from  $|1\rangle$  to  $|0\rangle$  will have energy

$$E_1 - E_0 = \hbar\omega.$$

The operator that sends  $|1\rangle$  to  $|0\rangle$  is  $|0\rangle\langle 1|$ , which is  $\sigma_+ = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_1 + i\sigma_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Define

$$R_1 := \sqrt{\Gamma} \sigma_+$$

where  $\Gamma = \frac{1}{\tau} > 0$ . Then  $R_1^* = \sqrt{\Gamma} \sigma_-$ .

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$$\dot{\rho}(t) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} [H, \rho] - \frac{\Gamma}{2} (\sigma_- \sigma_+ \rho + \rho \sigma_- \sigma_+) + \Gamma \sigma_+ \rho \sigma_-$$

Write  $\rho = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{00} & \rho_{01} \\ \rho_{10} & \rho_{11} \end{pmatrix}$ . Then

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{00} & \rho_{01} \\ \rho_{10} & \rho_{11} \end{pmatrix} = i\omega \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \rho_{01} \\ -\rho_{10} & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \Gamma \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{11} & -\frac{1}{2}\rho_{01} \\ -\frac{1}{2}\rho_{10} & -\rho_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\dot{\rho}_{11} = -\Gamma \rho_{11} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \rho_{11} = \rho_{11}(0) e^{-\Gamma t}$$

$$\dot{\rho}_{00} = \Gamma \rho_{11} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \rho_{00} = \rho_{00}(0) + \rho_{11}(0) (1 - e^{-\Gamma t})$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \rho_{01} \\ \rho_{10} & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & (i\omega - \frac{\Gamma}{2})\rho_{01} \\ (-i\omega - \frac{\Gamma}{2})\rho_{10} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rho_{01} = e^{i\omega t} e^{-\frac{\Gamma}{2}t} \rho_{01}(0)$$

$$\rho_{10} = e^{-i\omega t} e^{-\frac{\Gamma}{2}t} \rho_{10}(0)$$

decay of excited state on twice scale  $\frac{1}{\Gamma}$

Decoherence with timescale  $\frac{2}{\Gamma}$ , twice as long



A remark on Schrödinger's cat.

$$\psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|\text{dead}\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |\text{alive}\rangle \otimes |1\rangle)$$

$$\rho_{\psi} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \frac{1}{2} [ |\text{alive}, 1\rangle\langle\text{alive}, 1| + |\text{dead}, 0\rangle\langle\text{dead}, 0| \\ + |\text{alive}, 1\rangle\langle\text{dead}, 0| + |\text{dead}, 0\rangle\langle\text{alive}, 1| ]$$

The whole detector gets coupled to photons. Those little guys are like an environment of harmonic oscillators.

→ decoherence, off-diagonal, vanish fast

⇒  $\rho_{\psi}$  → diagonal state.

[often-studied model: spin-boson model]

$$H = \Delta \sigma_x + \sum_i a_i^\dagger a_i b_i + \sigma_x \otimes \sum_i (a_i^\dagger + a_i) f_i$$

In an ironic way, it is not the little atom that has the cat on its conscience, but all the photons that watched and went away without doing anything.

More generally

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{1} + \gamma) \quad \gamma = r \cdot \sigma \quad \text{so} \quad \dot{\rho} = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\gamma}$$

$$H = \mathcal{H} \quad , \quad R_\ell = \alpha_\ell \sigma_\ell \quad , \quad \alpha_\ell \in \mathbb{C}.$$

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^3 R_\ell^* R_\ell = |\alpha|^2 \cdot \mathbb{1} \quad (= \gamma^2) \quad |\alpha|^2 = |\alpha_1|^2 + |\alpha_2|^2 + |\alpha_3|^2$$

Lindblad

$$\dot{\rho} = -i[H, \rho] - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \{ |\alpha|^2 \mathbb{1}, \rho \}}_{|\alpha|^2 \cdot \rho} + \sum_{\ell=1}^3 \sigma_\ell \rho \sigma_\ell \cdot |\alpha_\ell|^2$$

$$-i[H, \rho] = (h \times r) \cdot \sigma$$

$$\dot{\rho} = \frac{1}{2}(h \times r) - \frac{|\alpha|^2}{2}(\mathbb{1} + \gamma) + \frac{|\alpha|^2}{2} \mathbb{1} + \frac{1}{2}(|\alpha|^2 \gamma - 2 \sum_j |\alpha_j|^2 r_j \sigma_j)$$

$$\dot{r} = h \times r - |\alpha_1|^2 e_1 \cdot r - |\alpha_2|^2 e_2 \cdot r - |\alpha_3|^2 e_3 \cdot r$$

Block equations.

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$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\ell} |\alpha_\ell|^2 \sigma_\ell \gamma \sigma_\ell &= \sum_{\ell j} |\alpha_\ell|^2 r_j \sigma_j (-1)^{\delta_{\ell j}} = \sum_j r_j \sigma_j (|\alpha|^2 - 2|\alpha_j|^2) \\ &= |\alpha|^2 \gamma - 2 \sum_j |\alpha_j|^2 r_j \sigma_j \end{aligned}$$