

## QUANTUM DYNAMICS

The quantum theories of an isolated system have been explicitly determined. In fact, a further task must be accomplished: it must be established how "the system changes in time"; in other word the law of time evolution.

In a quantum theory time evolution must be described by making use of the quantum basic concepts, observables and quantum states.

Let us begin by considering a quantum state  $\rho \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$ . The density operator  $\rho$  represents an expectation value identified with a selection procedure that selects single specimens of the physical system for which the expectation value of every observable  $A$  is  $\text{Tr}(\rho A)$ . Now, let the physical conditions be such that the specimen selected at time  $0$  continues to exist

for the future time, so that the measurement of  $A$  can be performed at time  $t > 0$ .

Since  $\text{Tr}(\rho A)$  is the expectation value of the measurements performed at  $t=0$ , it cannot be stated a priori that the expectation value of the measurements at  $t$ ,  $E_U(t)A$ , coincides with  $E_U(A) = \text{Tr}(\rho A)$

Therefore another density operator  $\hat{S}_t$  such that

$$E_{V_t}(A) = \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}_t A).$$

So, a bijective mapping  $S_{(t_0, t_1)}^{(1)} : \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$

must exists such that if  $f$  is the quantum state representing the expectation value of the measurements performed at time  $t_0$ , then

$S_{(t_0, t_1)}^{(1)}[f]$  represents the expectation value of the measurements performed waiting a time  $t_1 - t_0$ .

However, the delay  $t_1 - t_0$  can be equivalently thought as a part of the measurement procedure! Once the specimen is selected at time  $t_0$  in the quantum state  $f$ , given the measurement procedure of  $A$ , we introduce a new observable  $A_{t_1}$  that consists in performing the measurement procedure of  $A$ , but with a delay  $t_1 - t_0$  which is a part of the procedure of  $A_{t_1}$ . So, if  $A_{t_1}$  is the self-adjoint operator representing  $A_{t_1}$ ,

$$E_{V_{t_1}}(A) = \text{Tr}(S_{(t_0, t_1)}^{(1)}[\hat{S}]A) = \text{Tr}_{(t_0, t_1)}(\hat{\rho} A_{t_1}).$$

Therefore, another mapping  $R_{(t_0, t_1)} : \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{H})$  must exists such that

$$\text{Tr}(S_{(t_0, t_1)}^{(1)}[\hat{S}]A) = \text{Tr}_{(t_0, t_1)}(\hat{\rho} R_{(t_0, t_1)}[A]).$$

Conceptual consistency entails that also  $R_{(t_0, t_1)}$  must be bijective; this property enables us to define

$$S^{(1)} = S_{(t_0, t_1)}, \quad S^{(2)} = R_{(t_0, t_1)}^{-1}.$$

Now, given any  $A \in \mathcal{R}(M)$ ,  $A = R_{(t_0, t_1)}^{-1}[B]$ ; then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(\mathfrak{S}B) &= \text{Tr}(\mathfrak{S}R_{(t_0, t_1)}[A]) = \text{Tr}(S^{(2)}\mathfrak{S}A) \\ &= \text{Tr}(S^{(2)}[\mathfrak{S}]S^{(2)}[A]). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the pair  $(S^{(1)}, S^{(2)})$  defined above is a quantum symmetry transformation. By making use of Wigner theorem, we imply that a unitary or antiunitary operator  $U_{(t_0, t_1)}$  must exist such that

$$S^{(2)}[\mathfrak{S}] = U_{(t_0, t_1)} \mathfrak{S} U_{(t_0, t_1)}^{-1}, \quad S^{(2)}[B] = U_{(t_0, t_1)} B U_{(t_0, t_1)}^{-1},$$

i.e.

$$S_{(t_0, t_1)}[\mathfrak{S}] = U_{(t_0, t_1)} \mathfrak{S} U_{(t_0, t_1)}^{-1}, \quad R_{(t_0, t_1)}[A] = U_{(t_0, t_1)}^{-1} A U_{(t_0, t_1)}.$$

So, in quantum theory, time evolution is ruled over a mapping

$$U: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}(M), \quad t \mapsto U_t = U_{(0, t)} \quad \text{such that} \\ \mathfrak{S}_t = S_{(0, t)}[\mathfrak{S}] = U_t \mathfrak{S} U_t^{-1}, \quad A_t = R_{(0, t)}[A] = U_t^{-1} A U_t -$$

In general  $U_t$  is unitary or antiunitary.  
 Let us consider the case of a quantum theory where all  $U_t$  are unitary. We can fix  $U_0 = \mathbb{1}$ .  
 the operator  $B_t U_t^{-1}$ , where  $B_t = \frac{d}{dt} U_t$ , is skew-hermitean:

$$U_{t+\Delta t} = U_t + B_t \Delta t + O(\Delta t),$$

$$U_{t+\Delta t}^{-1} = U_{t+\Delta t}^* = U_t^* + B_t^* \Delta t + O^*(\Delta t), \text{ so}$$

$$\mathbb{1} = U_{t+\Delta t}^{-1} U_{t+\Delta t} = \mathbb{1} + (U_t B_t^* + B_t U_t^{-1}) \Delta t + O(\Delta t);$$

therefore  $(B_t U_t^{-1})^* = U_t B_t^* = -B_t U_t^{-1}$ . The operator  $H_t = i B_t U_t^{-1}$  is hermitean  $H_t^* = H_t$ .

To describe evolution of quantum state the correspondence  $t \rightarrow \delta_t$  is to be found.

$$\text{Now } \delta_t = \langle U_t | U_t^{-1} = U_t \sum_i \mu_i |\psi^{(i)}\rangle \langle \psi^{(i)}| U_t^{-1} \\ = \sum_i \mu_i |\psi^{(i)}\rangle \langle U_t \psi^{(i)}|.$$

The  $\psi_t^{(i)} = U_t \psi^{(i)}$  are determined by the equation  $i \frac{d \psi_t^{(i)}}{dt} = H_t \psi_t^{(i)}$ , indeed

$$i \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\psi_t}{U_t} = i \frac{d}{dt} (U_t \psi) = i B_t \psi = i B_t U_t^{-1} U_t \psi \\ = i (-i H_t) \psi = H_t \psi.$$

Exercise. Prove that  $\frac{d A_t}{dt} = i [\hat{H}_t, A_t]$ , when  $\hat{H}_t = U_t^{-1} \hat{A}_t U_t$ .

$i \frac{d \psi_t}{dt} = H_t \psi_t$  is Schrödinger equation.

$\frac{d A_t}{dt} = i [\hat{H}_t, A_t]$  is Heisenberg equation.

## 1. HOMOGENEOUS TIME

According to quantum time evolution, the following relations hold if  $t_0 \leq t_1 \leq t_2$

$$S_{(t_0, t_2)} = S_{(t_2, t_1)} S_{(t_0, t_1)} \Rightarrow R_{(t_0, t_2)} = R_{(t_2, t_1)} R_{(t_0, t_1)},$$

$$\text{which implies } S_{(t_0, t_2)}[S] = U_{(t_0, t_1)}^{-1} U_{(t_0, t_2)}^{-1} = (U_{(t_1, t_2)} U_{(t_0, t_1)})^{-1} (U_{(t_1, t_2)} U_{(t_0, t_1)}).$$

According to Wigner theorem,

$$U_{(t_1, t_2)} U_{(t_0, t_1)} = \omega_{(t_0, t_1, t_2)} U_{(t_0, t_2)}, \quad |\omega_{(t_0, t_1, t_2)}| = 1 \quad (1)$$

Time is homogeneous if  $S_{(t_0, t_0+\Delta t)} = S_{(t_1, t_1+\Delta t)}$ ,

that is to say if it is independent of the time chosen as origin of time. Accordingly,  $U_{(t_0, t_0+\Delta t)} = e^{iH\Delta t} U_{(t_0, t_0)}$ .

Therefore equation (1) implies

$$U_{t_1} U_{t_2} = e^{iH(t_2-t_1)} U_{t_1+t_2}. \quad (2)$$

A first consequence of time homogeneity is

that  $U_t$  is unitary: put  $t_1=t_2=\frac{\hbar}{2}$  in (2).

Another consequence is that, by (2), a  $\phi(t) \in \mathbb{C}$ , with  $|\phi(t)|=1$ , exists such that  $V_t = \phi(t) U_t$  satisfies  $S_t[S] = V_t^{-1} V_t$ ,  $V_t = e^{iHt}$ , where  $H$  is a self-adjoint operator, called Hamiltonian operator. The Schrödinger and Heisenberg equations takes a simpler form:

$$i \frac{d\psi_t}{dt} = H \psi_t, \quad \frac{dA_t}{dt} = i[H, A_t].$$

Time is homogeneous for an isolated system, but it can be homogeneous also if other transformations are not symmetries.

## 2. QUANTUM DYNAMICS OF AN ISOLATED SYSTEM

From a group theoretical point of view, time evolution from time  $t$  to time  $t+\alpha_0$  is identifiable with the transformation of a spatial vectors at time  $t$ , identified by  $\begin{bmatrix} t \\ x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , into  $\begin{bmatrix} t+\alpha_0 \\ x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

Therefore, this transformation can be realized through the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \alpha_0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{h}_0(\alpha_0), \text{ indeed}$$

$$\hat{h}_0(\alpha_0) \begin{bmatrix} t \\ x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t+\alpha_0 \\ x \\ y \\ z \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hence, the transformation is a time translation - To describe also time translations, the transformation group  $\mathcal{G}$  must be extended to the group  $\mathcal{G}_0$  generated by  $\mathcal{G}$  and the sub-group  $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_0 = \{\hat{h}_0(s) | s \in \mathbb{R}\}$  of time translations:  $\mathcal{G}_0 = \mathcal{G} (\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_0, \mathcal{G})$ .

Any element  $\hat{g} \in \mathcal{G}_0$  can be factorized as

$$\hat{g} = \hat{h}_0(x_0) \hat{h}_1(x_1) \hat{h}_2(x_2) \cdots \hat{h}_g(x_g).$$

Since for an isolated time is always homogeneous, the transformation  $\hat{g}$  can be realized on observables as

$$S_g [A] = U_g A U_g^{-1}, \text{ where }$$

$U_g = e^{i P_0 x_0} e^{i P_1 x_1} \cdots e^{i P_g x_g}$ .  $P_0$  is the self-adjoint generator of  $U_t = e^{i H t}$ , i.e.  $P_0 = H$ .

For an isolated system we can find the commutation relation of  $P_0$  with the other generators by following the method used to find relations (12)

Let us begin with  $[J_s, P_0]$ . The product

$\hat{h}_0(s) \hat{h}_6(s) \hat{h}_0(-s) \hat{h}_6(-s)$  can be easily computed since  $\hat{h}_0(x) \hat{h}_6(y) = \hat{h}_6(y) \hat{h}_0(x)$ , so that

$$\hat{h}_0(s) \hat{h}_6(s) \hat{h}_0(-s) \hat{h}_6(-s) = 1\|, \text{ therefore } [P_0, A_6] = i \alpha_z.$$

Analogously we find

$$[J_x, P_0] = i \alpha_x, [J_y, P_0] = i \alpha_y, \text{ besides } [J_z, P_0] = i \alpha_z.$$

$$\text{Now, } [J_x, P_0] = -i [[J_y, J_z], P_0] = i [[J_z, P_0], J_y] + i [[P_0, J_y], J_z] = 0.$$

Since  $\hat{h}_0(x) \hat{h}_j(y) = \hat{h}_j(y) \hat{h}_0(x)$ , for  $j = x, y, z$ ,

$$\text{we have } [P_j, P_0] = i \beta_j.$$

$$\text{Now } [P_x, P_0] = -i [[J_y, P_z], P_0] = i [[P_z, P_0], J_y] + i [[P_0, J_y], P_z] = 0$$

$$\text{Hence } [P_j, P_0] = 0, [J_j, P_0] = 0 \text{ hold.}$$

For the product  $\hat{h}_0(s) \hat{h}_2(s) \hat{h}_0(-s) \hat{h}_2(-s)$  we find

$$\begin{array}{c} \boxed{\begin{array}{cc} s & s \\ s & 1 \end{array}} \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array}} \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array}} \\ \boxed{\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array}} \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array}} \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array}} \end{array} = \boxed{\begin{array}{cc} 1 & -s^2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{array}} = 1\| + (-1) \hat{\alpha}_1 s^2.$$

Therefore, according to Prop. 3.3 in TQ.5,

$$[G_x, P_0] = -i (\alpha_x + A_1) = i (\alpha_x + P_x);$$

Analogously we find  $[G_y, P_0] = i (\alpha_y + P_y), [G_z, P_0] = i (\alpha_z + P_z)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Now, } [F_x, P_0] &= -i [[J_y, G_z], P_0] \\
 &= i [[G_z, P_0], J_y] + i [[P_0, J_y], G_z] \\
 &= i [i(\alpha z + P_z), J_y] = -[P_z, J_y] \\
 &= i P_x,
 \end{aligned}$$

i.e.  $\alpha x = 0$ , so that  $[F_x, P_0] = i P_x$ .

Analogously we find

$$[G_y, P_0] = i P_y, \quad [G_z, P_0] = i P_z.$$

The commutation relations derived are

$$\text{a) } [P_j, P_0] = [J_j, P_0] = 0, \quad \text{b) } [F_j, P_0] = i P_j \quad (3)$$

## 2.1 COMPLETENESS OF MULTIPLICATION OPERATOR

In order to explicitly identify  $P_0$  in the quantum theory of an isolated system, we shall make use of the "completeness" of the multiplication operators in  $L_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ .

In the Hilbert space  $L_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$  the following statement holds:

Let  $A$  be a self-adjoint operator.

If  $[A, F_j] = 0 \quad \forall j$ , then  $A = f(\vec{F})$ , i.e.  $A$  is an operator function of  $\vec{F}$ , so that

$$(A \psi)(\vec{x}) = f(\vec{x}) \psi(\vec{x}).$$

We shall sketch a proof for  $L_2(\mathbb{R})$ :

T Q.5

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Let  $D \subseteq D_A \cap D_F$  be a domain such that  $\bar{D} = \mathbb{R}^1$ ,  
and let  $\psi_0 \in D_A \cap D_F$  be a fixed vector such  
that  $\psi = \frac{\psi}{\psi_0} \in D_A \cap D_F$ ,  $\forall \psi \in D$ .

Define  $\varphi_0 = A\psi_0$ ;  $\varphi_0$  is fixed, independent of  $\psi$ .

The operator  $B^\Psi$ ,  $(B^\Psi \phi)(x) = \varphi(x)\phi(x)$  is  
a function of  $F$ :  $B^\Psi = \varphi(F)$ ; therefore

$$[B^\Psi, A] = [B^\Psi, F] = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } A\Psi &= A\left(\frac{\Psi}{\Psi_0}\Psi_0\right) = A(B^\Psi\Psi_0) = B^\Psi A\Psi_0 \\ &= B^\Psi\varphi_0; \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{hence } (A\Psi)(x) &= (B^\Psi\varphi_0)(x) = \varphi(x)\varphi_0(x) \\ &= \frac{\varphi_0(x)}{\varphi_0(x)}\Psi(x) = f(x)\Psi(x) \end{aligned}$$

where  $f(x) = \frac{\varphi_0(x)}{\varphi_0(x)}$ ; thus  $A = f(F)$ .

The proof can be extended to  $L_2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ :

[if  $[A, F] = 0$ ,  $\forall F$ , then  $A = f(F)$ .] (4)

This property of  $\bar{F}$  is called "completeness."

## 2.2. EXPLICIT IDENTIFICATION OF $H = P_0$

The commutation relations (3) are implied by the structural properties of  $\mathcal{G}_0$  in the quantum theory of an isolated system.

By making use of them, the hamiltonian operator  $H = P_0$  can be explicitly determined, at least in the simplest theory of an isolated system.

If the inducing representation  $L : SO(3) \rightarrow U(\mathcal{H}_0)$  is the trivial one, i.e.  $\mathcal{H}_0 = \mathbb{C}$  and  $L_R = 1 \forall R$ , the Hilbert space of the quantum theory of an isolated system is

$\mathcal{H} = L_2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ ; moreover

$$P_j = -i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}, \quad J_j = -i \left( x_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_l} - x_l \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \right), \quad j, k, l \text{ in cyclic order}, \quad G_j = \mu F_j.$$

According to (3.b),  $[G_j, P_0] = i P_j$ ;

now, the operator  $H_0 = \frac{P_x^2 + P_y^2 + P_z^2}{2\mu} \equiv \frac{P^2}{2\mu}$  satisfies

$$[G_j, H_0] = \mu [F_j, \frac{P^2}{2\mu}] = \mu i \frac{\partial}{\partial P_j} \left( \frac{P^2}{2\mu} \right) = i P_j = [G_j, P_0],$$

by Lemma 3.1 in TQ.4. Hence

$$[F_j, P_0 - H_0] = 0, \quad \forall j.$$

Completeness of  $\vec{F}$  implies that

$$P_0 - H_0 = \phi(\vec{F}).$$

TQ.5

However, also  $[P_j, P_0] = 0$  holds by (3.a);

therefore  $[P_j, \phi(\vec{F})] = [P_j, P_0] - [P_j, \frac{P^2}{2\mu}] = 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So, } ([P_j, \phi(\vec{F})]\psi)(\vec{x}) &= 0 = \\ &= (P_j \phi(\vec{F})\psi)(\vec{x}) - (\phi(\vec{F}) P_j \psi)(\vec{x}) \\ &= -i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\phi(\vec{x}) \psi(\vec{x})] - (i\phi(\vec{x})) \frac{\partial \psi(\vec{x})}{\partial x_j} \\ &= -i \frac{\partial \phi(\vec{x}) \psi(\vec{x})}{\partial x_j} - i\phi(\vec{x}) \frac{\partial \psi(\vec{x})}{\partial x_j} + i\phi(\vec{x}) \frac{\partial \psi(\vec{x})}{\partial x_j} \\ &= -i \frac{\partial \phi(\vec{x})}{\partial x_j} \psi(\vec{x}) = 0, \quad \forall j \end{aligned}$$

Then  $\phi(\vec{x}) = \text{constant, i.e., } \phi(\vec{F}) = E_0$ .

Thus

$$\boxed{P_0 = \frac{P^2}{2\mu} + E_0}$$