

2. Introduction to Time-Dependent Quantum Mechanics

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The Schrödinger Equation

In his 1924 thesis, de Broglie suggested that a particle can behave like a wave whose wavelength is

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p}.$$

Based on this observation, Schrödinger constructed an equation of motion which the matter wave of a particle must satisfy.

We start from the generalized expression of a wave along the x -axis

$$\psi(x, t) = \exp \left[2\pi i \left(\frac{x}{\lambda} - \nu t \right) \right] = \exp \left(\frac{i(px - Et)}{\hbar} \right),$$

where we have used the relation $E = h\nu$ in the last step.

The Schrödinger Equation

If we calculate the derivatives with respect to x and t , we obtain

$$-i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial x} = p\psi(x, t), \quad i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} = E\psi(x, t).$$

From the first equation, we can deduce that the quantum operator for the momentum is

$$\hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}.$$

For the second equation, we can express the total energy E as the sum of kinetic and potential energies,

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x, t).$$

The Schrödinger Equation

If we substitute the classical momentum in the total energy with the momentum operator and use its definition, we get

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} = \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x, t) \right) \psi(x, t) = \hat{H}(x, t) \psi(x, t)$$

which is the famous (time-dependent) Schrödinger equation.

At the last step, we have defined the **Hamiltonian operator**, which corresponds to the total energy of a matter wave (wavefunction).

Note: It is not possible to “derive” the TDSE, and the previous steps should be thought as just a heuristic way to validate the TDSE.

Linear Algebraic Representation

To solve the Schrödinger equation, we introduce a set of **basis functions** $\{\phi_j\}$ and express the wavefunction as their linear combination

$$\psi(t) = \sum_j c_j(t) \phi_j.$$

This converts the problem into finding the time-dependence of the coefficients $\{c_j(t)\}$.

We assume that the basis functions satisfy orthonormality in the whole space

$$\int \phi_k^* \phi_j d\tau = \delta_{jk}.$$

Linear Algebraic Representation

If we insert the basis representation of the wavefunction into the TDSE, we obtain the equation of motion for the coefficients

$$i\hbar \sum_j \phi_j \dot{c}_j(t) = \hat{H} \sum_j \phi_j c_j(t),$$

where $\dot{c}_j(t)$ is a shorthand notation for $\partial c_j(t)/\partial t$.

Multiplying by ϕ_k from the left and integrating over the entire space leads to

$$i\hbar \dot{c}_k(t) = \sum_j \left(\int \phi_k^* \hat{H} \phi_j d\tau \right) c_j(t).$$

which cannot be simplified any more as $\{\phi_j\}$ are not the eigenfunctions of the Hamiltonian operator.

Linear Algebraic Representation

We now represent the wavefunction as a vector $|\psi^\phi(t)\rangle$ whose components are the coefficients of the basis $\{c_k(t)\}$,

and consider a matrix \hat{H}^ϕ whose elements are

$$(H^\phi)_{kj} = \int \phi_k^* \hat{H} \phi_j d\tau.$$

By taking this viewpoint, the TDSE is converted to an equivalent **linear algebraic representation**

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\psi^\phi(t)\rangle = \hat{H}^\phi |\psi^\phi(t)\rangle.$$

The superscript ϕ marks that the elements are evaluated by using the particular basis set $\{\phi_j\}$.

Linear Algebraic Representation

We briefly introduce some properties regarding the linear algebraic representation of quantum mechanics (matrix mechanics).

A quantum state is represented as a **state vector (ket)** $|\psi\rangle$.

We can also consider the **conjugate-transposed vector (bra)** $\langle\psi|$.

A normalized state ket $|\psi\rangle$ can be thought as a **column vector** of unit length in the space defined by the unit basis vectors $\{|\phi_j\rangle\}$.

The components of the generalized position vector $|\psi^\phi\rangle$ can be calculated as the inner product $\langle\phi_j|\psi\rangle$.

The components depend on the choice of basis (coordinate axes).

Linear Algebraic Representation

The change from one basis representation to another can be easily done by using the **resolution of identity**

$$\hat{I} = \sum_j |\phi_j\rangle \langle \phi_j|.$$

The meaning of this expression becomes clear if we represent $|\phi_j\rangle$ as a unit vector \mathbf{e}_j and define the **outer product** of the two vectors as

$$\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{v}^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_N \end{pmatrix} \otimes (v_1^* \quad v_2^* \quad \cdots \quad v_M^*) = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 v_1^* & u_1 v_2^* & \cdots & u_1 v_N^* \\ u_2 v_1^* & u_2 v_2^* & \cdots & u_2 v_N^* \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_M v_1^* & u_M v_2^* & \cdots & u_M v_N^* \end{pmatrix}.$$

Linear Algebraic Representation

The state vector and wavefunction are connected by

$$\psi(x) = \langle x|\psi\rangle,$$

where $|x\rangle$ is an eigenvector of the position operator \hat{x} which satisfies the orthonormality for a continuous variable (**Dirac delta function**)

$$\langle x'|x\rangle = \delta(x - x').$$

For a continuous variable, the resolution of identity becomes

$$\hat{I} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x\rangle \langle x| dx,$$

with which we can express the inner product between two states as

$$\langle \psi_a|\psi_b\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \langle \psi_a|x\rangle \langle x|\psi_b\rangle dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_a^*(x)\psi_b(x) dx.$$

Linear Algebraic Representation

Lastly, we consider the representation of an operator by considering the expression

$$C = \langle \psi_a | \hat{A} | \psi_b \rangle ,$$

which can be expanded by introducing a basis set

$$C = \sum_j \sum_k \langle \psi_a | \phi_j \rangle \langle \phi_j | \hat{A} | \phi_k \rangle \langle \phi_k | \psi_b \rangle = \langle \psi_a^\phi | \hat{A}^\phi | \psi_b^\phi \rangle .$$

We notice that the operator is represented as a matrix whose elements are

$$A_{jk}^\phi = \langle \phi_j | \hat{A} | \phi_k \rangle .$$

The change of basis affects the representation, but does not alter the physical property (C).

Linear Algebraic Representation

In the positional basis, the expression is converted to

$$C = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx' \langle \psi_a | x \rangle \langle x | \hat{A} | x' \rangle \langle x' | \psi_b \rangle .$$

Almost all of the physical operators are **local** and satisfy the property

$$\langle x | \hat{A} | x' \rangle = \langle x | \hat{A} | x \rangle \delta(x - x'),$$

so that

$$C = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \langle \psi_a | x \rangle \langle x | \hat{A} | x \rangle \langle x | \psi_b \rangle dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_a^*(x) \hat{A}^x \psi_b(x) dx,$$

where we have introduced the positional representation of an operator

$$\hat{A}^x = \langle x | \hat{A} | x \rangle .$$

Basis Rotation

Suppose that we have two different representations of a state vector $|\psi^\phi\rangle$ and $|\psi^{\phi'}\rangle$, and also an operator \hat{A}^ϕ and $\hat{A}^{\phi'}$.

How are these two representations connected?

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_j \langle \phi_j | \psi \rangle |\phi_j\rangle = \sum_{j,k} \langle \phi'_k | \phi_j \rangle \langle \phi_j | \psi \rangle |\phi'_k\rangle$$

$$\hat{A} = \sum_{j,m} |\phi_j\rangle \langle \phi_j | \hat{A} | \phi_m \rangle \langle \phi_m | = \sum_{j,m} \sum_{k,n} |\phi'_k\rangle \langle \phi'_k | \phi_j \rangle \langle \phi_j | \hat{A} | \phi_m \rangle \langle \phi_m | \phi'_n \rangle \langle \phi'_n |$$

This shows that the two representations are connected via

$$|\psi^{\phi'}\rangle = \hat{X}^\dagger |\psi^\phi\rangle, \quad \hat{A}^{\phi'} = \hat{X}^\dagger \hat{A}^\phi \hat{X}, \quad \text{where} \quad X_{jk} = \langle \phi_j | \phi'_k \rangle.$$

Basis Rotation

$$|\psi^{\phi'}\rangle = \hat{X}^\dagger |\psi^\phi\rangle, \quad \hat{A}^{\phi'} = \hat{X}^\dagger \hat{A}^\phi \hat{X}, \quad \text{where} \quad X_{jk} = \langle \phi_j | \phi'_k \rangle.$$

Note that \hat{X} is unitary when the basis sets are orthonormal, as

$$\begin{aligned} (\hat{X}^\dagger \hat{X})_{jk} &= \sum_m (\hat{X}^\dagger)_{jm} \hat{X}_{mk} = \sum_m \langle \phi'_j | \phi_m \rangle \langle \phi_m | \phi'_k \rangle \\ &= \langle \phi'_j | \phi'_k \rangle = \delta_{jk}, \end{aligned}$$

and similarly

$$(\hat{X} \hat{X}^\dagger)_{jk} = \delta_{jk}.$$

Combining these two results give

$$\hat{X}^\dagger \hat{X} = \hat{X} \hat{X}^\dagger = \hat{I}.$$

Two-Level System

We will now study the time-dependent behavior of a two-level quantum system, which is the most basic problem of quantum dynamics.

This model consists of two orthogonal quantum states $|\phi_1\rangle$ and $|\phi_2\rangle$ which can have different energies and properties in general.

If these two quantum states are eigenstates of the Hamiltonian, the dynamics of each quantum states will be stationary:

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_1(0)\rangle = |\phi_1\rangle &\rightarrow |\psi_1(t)\rangle = \exp(-iE_1t/\hbar) |\phi_1\rangle, \\ |\psi_2(0)\rangle = |\phi_2\rangle &\rightarrow |\psi_2(t)\rangle = \exp(-iE_2t/\hbar) |\phi_2\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

However, if there are interactions (couplings) between the two states, these are not the eigenstates and there can be exchange of populations.

Two-Level System

Let us represent the quantum state at a time instance t as

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = c_1(t) |\phi_1\rangle + c_2(t) |\phi_2\rangle ,$$

where $c_1(t)$ and $c_2(t)$ are time-dependent coefficients.

The time-dependence of the coefficients are of course governed by TDSE:

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\psi(t)\rangle = \hat{H} |\psi(t)\rangle ,$$

$$i\hbar [\dot{c}_1(t) |\phi_1\rangle + \dot{c}_2(t) |\phi_2\rangle] = \hat{H} [\dot{c}_1(t) |\phi_1\rangle + \dot{c}_2(t) |\phi_2\rangle].$$

Note that we are implicitly assuming that the dynamics will be confined in these two quantum states.

The TDSE

Using the matrix-vector representation, the equation of motion becomes

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} c_1(t) \\ c_2(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} E_1 & V \\ V & E_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1(t) \\ c_2(t) \end{pmatrix},$$

where

$$E_1 = \langle \phi_1 | \hat{H} | \phi_1 \rangle, \quad E_2 = \langle \phi_2 | \hat{H} | \phi_2 \rangle,$$

$$V = \langle \phi_1 | \hat{H} | \phi_2 \rangle = \langle \phi_2 | \hat{H} | \phi_1 \rangle.$$

For convenience, we now redefine the zero of energy to be $(E_1 + E_2)/2$ and get

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} c_1(t) \\ c_2(t) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon & V \\ V & -\epsilon \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1(t) \\ c_2(t) \end{pmatrix}, \quad \epsilon = \frac{E_1 - E_2}{2}.$$

We will see later that the physical behavior is not affected by this adjustment.

The Propagator

The TDSE is then expressed as

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} c_1(t) \\ c_2(t) \end{pmatrix} = \hat{H}^\phi \begin{pmatrix} c_1(t) \\ c_2(t) \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{H}^\phi = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon & V \\ V & -\epsilon \end{pmatrix}.$$

To find the solution, we define the **propagator** $\hat{U}^\phi(t)$ which satisfies

$$\begin{pmatrix} c_1(t) \\ c_2(t) \end{pmatrix} = \hat{U}^\phi(t) \begin{pmatrix} c_1(0) \\ c_2(0) \end{pmatrix}$$

and find the expression for $\hat{U}^\phi(t)$.

The formal solution is

$$\hat{U}^\phi(t) = \exp\left(-\frac{i\hat{H}^\phi t}{\hbar}\right).$$

Note that this is only valid when \hat{H}^ϕ does not depend on time.

Eigenbasis of the Two-Level System

In short, solving the TDSE is equivalent to calculating the propagator

$$\hat{U}^\phi(t) = \exp\left(-\frac{i\hat{H}^\phi t}{\hbar}\right).$$

To evaluate the exponential, we first need to calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the Hamiltonian \hat{H}^ϕ .

The eigenvalues are calculated by solving

$$\det\begin{pmatrix} \epsilon - \lambda & V \\ V & -\epsilon - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = -(\epsilon^2 - \lambda^2) - V^2 = 0,$$

which yields

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_1 &= \sqrt{\epsilon^2 + V^2} = \tilde{\epsilon}, \\ \lambda_2 &= -\sqrt{\epsilon^2 + V^2} = -\tilde{\epsilon}. \end{aligned}$$

Eigenbasis of the Two-Level System

We denote the corresponding **normalized** eigenvectors as

$$|\phi'_1\rangle = d_{11} |\phi_1\rangle + d_{12} |\phi_2\rangle, \quad |\phi'_2\rangle = d_{21} |\phi_1\rangle + d_{22} |\phi_2\rangle.$$

By defining

$$\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{\epsilon^2 + V^2}} = \cos \alpha, \quad \frac{V}{\sqrt{\epsilon^2 + V^2}} = \sin \alpha,$$

the two sets of simultaneous equations become

$$\begin{aligned} (\cos \alpha)d_{11} + (\sin \alpha)d_{12} &= d_{11}, & (\cos \alpha)d_{21} + (\sin \alpha)d_{22} &= -d_{21}, \\ d_{11}^2 + d_{12}^2 &= 1, & d_{21}^2 + d_{22}^2 &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

If we assume $\epsilon > 0$ without the loss of generality, the solutions are

$$|\phi'_1\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) |\phi_1\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) |\phi_2\rangle, \quad |\phi'_2\rangle = -\sin\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) |\phi_1\rangle + \cos\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) |\phi_2\rangle.$$

Mixing Angle and Basis Transformation

It is convenient to define the “mixing angle”

$$\theta = \frac{\alpha}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{V}{\epsilon} \right),$$

which leads to a convenient expression

$$|\phi'_1\rangle = \cos \theta |\phi_1\rangle + \sin \theta |\phi_2\rangle, \quad |\phi'_2\rangle = -\sin \theta |\phi_1\rangle + \cos \theta |\phi_2\rangle.$$

The state vector and Hamiltonian in the original and eigenvector basis sets are connected by

$$|\psi^{\phi'}(t)\rangle = \hat{X}^\dagger |\psi^\phi(t)\rangle, \quad \hat{H}^{\phi'} = \hat{X}^\dagger \hat{H}^\phi \hat{X},$$

where \hat{X} is the rotational transformation matrix

$$\hat{X} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}.$$

Evaluating the Propagator

We can now calculate the propagator matrix by using

$$\hat{H}^{\phi'} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{\epsilon} & 0 \\ 0 & -\tilde{\epsilon} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{U}^{\phi'}(t) = \exp\left(-\frac{i\hat{H}^{\phi'}t}{\hbar}\right) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\tilde{\omega}t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\tilde{\omega}t} \end{pmatrix},$$

where we have defined $\tilde{\omega} = \tilde{\epsilon}/\hbar$.

The next step is transforming back to the original basis

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{U}^{\phi}(t) &= \hat{X}\hat{U}^{\phi'}(t)\hat{X}^{\dagger} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\tilde{\omega}t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\tilde{\omega}t} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\tilde{\omega}t) - i\cos(2\theta)\sin(\tilde{\omega}t) & -i\sin(2\theta)\sin(\tilde{\omega}t) \\ -i\sin(2\theta)\sin(\tilde{\omega}t) & \cos(\tilde{\omega}t) + i\cos(2\theta)\sin(\tilde{\omega}t) \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

which can be multiplied to an arbitrary initial condition $|\psi(0)\rangle$.

Characteristics of the Dynamics

If we assume a localized initial state $|\psi(0)\rangle = |\phi_1\rangle$,

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi(t)\rangle &= \hat{U}(t) |\psi(0)\rangle \\ &= [\cos(\tilde{\omega}t) - i \cos(2\theta) \sin(\tilde{\omega}t)] |\phi_1\rangle - i \sin(2\theta) \sin(\tilde{\omega}t) |\phi_2\rangle, \end{aligned}$$

so the populations of the states are

$$\begin{aligned} p_1(t) &= |\langle \phi_1 | \psi(t) \rangle|^2 = \cos^2(\tilde{\omega}t) + \cos^2(2\theta) \sin^2(\tilde{\omega}t), \\ p_2(t) &= |\langle \phi_2 | \psi(t) \rangle|^2 = \sin^2(2\theta) \sin^2(\tilde{\omega}t). \end{aligned}$$

It is not difficult to see that the sum of the populations is conserved,

$$p_1(t) + p_2(t) = 1,$$

and the dynamics is periodic with the period of $\frac{2\pi}{\tilde{\omega}} = \frac{h}{\tilde{\epsilon}}$.

Characteristics of the Dynamics

It is better to analyze the behavior of the population by expressing

$$p_2(t) = \sin^2(2\theta) \sin^2(\tilde{\omega}t) = \frac{\sin^2(2\theta)}{2} [1 - \cos(2\tilde{\omega}t)],$$
$$p_1(t) = 1 - p_2(t).$$

This shows that $p_2(t)$ oscillates between 0 and $\sin^2(2\theta)$.

If we recall that

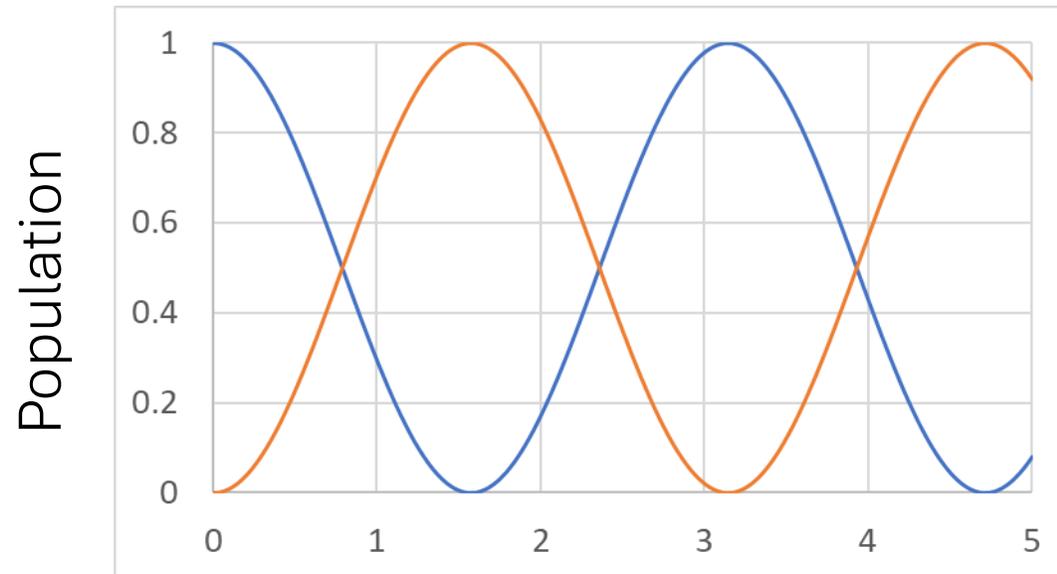
$$2\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{V}{\epsilon} \right),$$

we can observe that the population exchange becomes maximized when $\epsilon = 0$ or $V \rightarrow \infty$, and minimized when $\epsilon \rightarrow \infty$ or $V = 0$.

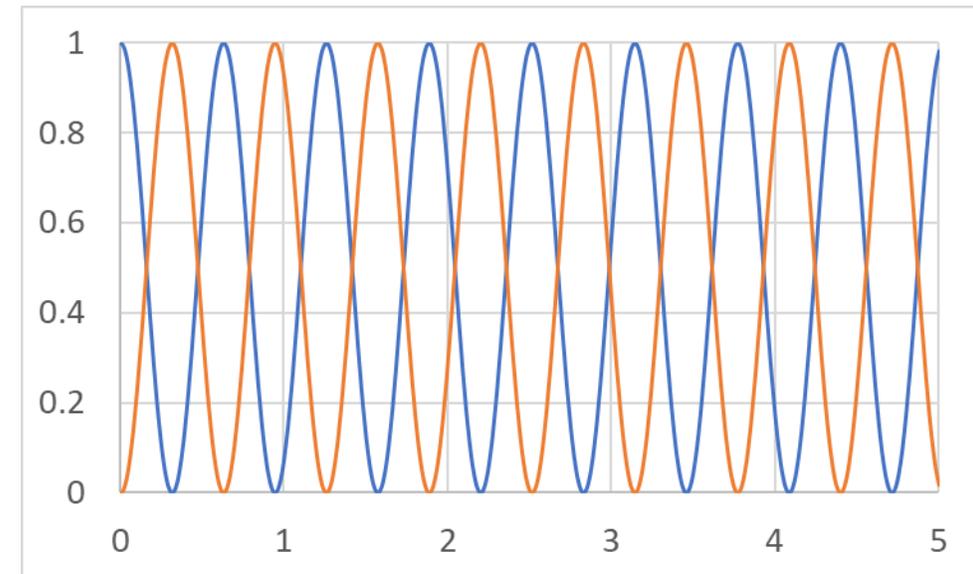
Simulation Results

The quantum dynamics simulations are usually performed by using **Planck atomic units** which sets $\hbar = k_B = 1$.

$$\epsilon = 0, \quad V = 1$$



$$\epsilon = 0, \quad V = 5$$



Simulation Results

