

P423 - Lecture 3

Propagators; charged particle in a magnetic field.

Propagators and quantum dynamics

Previous class: $|\psi(t)\rangle = \hat{U}(t, t_0) |\psi(t_0)\rangle$

where $\hat{U}(t, t_0) = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar}(t-t_0)\hat{H}}$ when \hat{H} does not depend explicitly on time.

Now assume that at $t=t_0$, $|\psi\rangle = |\vec{r}_0\rangle$.

What is the probability of measuring $|\psi\rangle = |\vec{r}\rangle$ at $t > t_0$? It is given by the modulus squared of the propagator:

$$\langle \vec{r} | \hat{U}(t, t_0) | \vec{r}_0 \rangle \equiv G(\vec{r}, t; \vec{r}_0, t_0)$$

We can show that this is the Green's function associated to the Schrödinger's eqn., in that

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 + V(\vec{r}) - i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right] G(\vec{r}, t; \vec{r}_0, t_0) = -i\hbar \delta(\vec{r} - \vec{r}_0) \delta(t - t_0),$$

with the boundary condition $G(\vec{r}, t; \vec{r}_0, t_0) = 0$ for $t < t_0$.

Note:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \vec{r} | \psi(t) \rangle &= \langle \vec{r} | \hat{U}(t, t_0) | \psi(t_0) \rangle = \int d^3r' \underbrace{\langle \vec{r} | \hat{U} | \vec{r}' \rangle}_{G(\vec{r}, t; \vec{r}', t_0)} \langle \vec{r}' | \psi(t_0) \rangle \\ &= \int d^3r' G(\vec{r}, t; \vec{r}', t_0) \psi(\vec{r}', t_0) \end{aligned}$$

Just like your usual Green's function.

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For a free particle ^{in d=1} we can show that [Problem 1 in A2]:

$$G(x, t; x_0, t_0) = \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi i \hbar (t-t_0)}} e^{\frac{i m (x-x_0)^2}{2\hbar (t-t_0)}}$$

Note that G is the wave func for a propagating mode that was $|\vec{r}_0\rangle$ at $t=t_0$.

Feynman showed that the propagator can be expressed exactly as

$$\langle \vec{r} | U(t, t_0) | \vec{r}_0 \rangle = \int_{\vec{r}_0}^{\vec{r}} \mathcal{D}[\vec{r}(t)] e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t dt L[\vec{r}, \dot{\vec{r}}]}$$

= $\sum_{\text{all paths}}$ action with non-classical trajectories allowed!

where the integral is a sum over all possible paths $\vec{r}(t)$, including non-classical ones.

This is called a Feynman path integral. The nice thing about it is that in the limit

$\hbar \rightarrow 0$, the exponent blows up; so for the case that $\int_{t_0}^t dt L$ is minimal for a classical

trajectory we will get

$$\langle \vec{r} | U(t, t_0) | \vec{r}_0 \rangle \approx a e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} S(\vec{r}, t)} \quad (\text{semiclassical limit, } \hbar \rightarrow 0).$$

Because the "classical path" minimizes the oscillatory exponent.

Thus as we can see, the Feynman formulation of quantum mechanics makes the semiclassical limit more explicit.

► If you want to know more about Feynman path integrals, I recommend Sakurai's 2.5. (and see the proof that they satisfy Schrödinger's eqn.)

For the purposes of our course we will use the result

$$\langle \vec{r} | U(t, t_0) | \vec{r}_0 \rangle \propto \sum_{\text{all } \vec{r}(t)} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t dt L[\vec{r}, \dot{\vec{r}}]}$$

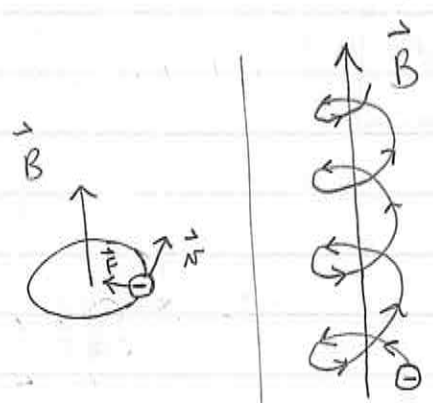
Charged particle in a magnetic field

Why study quantum mechanics of a particle in a B field? Ans: Because it provides the best way to measure h and it gives us the standard of resistance, a fundamental unit of measure (the nonkilling).

The Lorentz force acting on a charged particle is

$$\vec{F}_{\text{Lorentz}} = q \vec{v} \times \vec{B} \quad (q = e = -e \text{ for an electron}).$$

In a constant \vec{B} field, the classical trajectories are circular or screw like:



Case $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$ ($\vec{v} \perp \vec{B}$)

$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{B} \neq 0$ (\vec{v} has a component along \vec{B})

We can not write $\vec{F}_{\text{Lorentz}} = -\nabla_{\vec{r}} V(\vec{r})$. How do we find the quantum eigenstates?

while \vec{F} depends on \vec{v} , it is conservative in the sense that

$$W = \int_{\vec{r}_i}^{\vec{r}_f} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_i^f \vec{F} \cdot \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} dt$$

$$= \int (\vec{v} \times \vec{B}) \cdot \vec{v} dt = 0 \text{ for all paths!}$$

$\Rightarrow \vec{F}_{\text{Lorentz}}$ never does work on the particle!

For this case, we can incorporate a velocity dependent force in the Lagrangian.

So we will find this Lagrangian, and from it we will get the Hamiltonian to be used in Schrödinger's eqn.

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We want to find L such that $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\vec{r}}} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\vec{r}}} \right) \Rightarrow q \vec{v} \times \vec{B} = m \ddot{\vec{r}}$.

For this, recall that $\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$ where \vec{A} is vector potential ($\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$ so we can always do that).

It's easy to see that the Lagrangian is

$$L = \frac{1}{2} m (\dot{\vec{r}})^2 + q \vec{A} \cdot \dot{\vec{r}}$$

where $\vec{A} = \vec{A}(\vec{r})$.

$$\vec{p} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\vec{r}}} = m \dot{\vec{r}} + q \vec{A},$$

and the eqn of motion is

$$\frac{d}{dt} (\vec{p}) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \vec{r}} \Rightarrow m \ddot{\vec{r}} + q \frac{d\vec{A}}{dt} = q \frac{\partial (\vec{A} \cdot \dot{\vec{r}})}{\partial \dot{\vec{r}}}$$

Let's compute the x component:

$$m \ddot{x} + q \frac{dA_x}{dt} = q \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\vec{A} \cdot \dot{\vec{r}})$$

$$m \ddot{x} + q \left(\frac{\partial A_x}{\partial x} \dot{x} + \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} \dot{y} + \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial z} \dot{z} \right) = q \left(\frac{\partial A_x}{\partial x} v_x + \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} v_y + \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} v_z \right)$$

$$m \ddot{x} = q \left[\underbrace{v_y \left(\frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial z} \right)}_{(\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A})_z = B_z} - \underbrace{v_z \left(\frac{\partial A_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial A_z}{\partial x} \right)}_{(\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A})_y = B_y} \right] = q (\vec{v} \times \vec{B})_x$$

Do cyclic permutations and conclude that

$$m \ddot{\vec{r}} = q \vec{v} \times \vec{B} //$$

Hence the Hamiltonian is

$$H = \vec{p} \cdot \dot{\vec{r}} - L = \vec{p} \cdot \dot{\vec{r}} - \frac{1}{2} m (\dot{\vec{r}})^2 - q \vec{A} \cdot \dot{\vec{r}} = (\vec{p} - q \vec{A}) \cdot \dot{\vec{r}} - \frac{1}{2} m (\dot{\vec{r}})^2$$

Plug $\dot{\vec{r}} = \frac{1}{m} (\vec{p} - q \vec{A})$:

$$H = (\vec{p} - q \vec{A})^2 \frac{1}{m} - \frac{1}{2} m \frac{(\vec{p} - q \vec{A})^2}{m^2} = \frac{1}{2m} (\vec{p} - q \vec{A})^2$$

$$H = \frac{1}{2m} (\vec{p} - q \vec{A})^2$$

Note: the canonical momentum $\vec{p} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\vec{r}}} = m \dot{\vec{r}} + q \vec{A}$ is different from the kinetic momentum $m \dot{\vec{r}}$. And also note that $H = \frac{1}{2} m (\dot{\vec{r}})^2$ (Because \vec{B} field does no work, no energy can not depend on \vec{B} !)

Energy levels in a constant \vec{B} field.

Assume $\vec{B} = B \hat{z}$. Since $\vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A} = \left(\frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} \right) \hat{z}$ we can choose $A_z = 0$.

Thus

$$H = \frac{1}{2m} (\hat{p}_\perp - q \vec{A})^2 + \frac{1}{2m} \hat{p}_z^2, \quad \text{so the energy eigenstates can be written}$$

$$\varphi_E(\vec{r}) = \psi_\perp(\vec{r}_\perp) e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} p_z z} \quad \text{and the energy is } E = E_\perp + \frac{\hbar^2 p_z^2}{2m}.$$

So we can focus on the motion in the $\vec{r}_\perp = (x, y)$ plane. We need to find

$$H_\perp \psi_\perp = E \psi_\perp \quad \text{where } \psi_\perp = \psi_\perp(\vec{r}_\perp).$$

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$$H_{\perp} = \frac{m}{2} (\hat{\dot{x}}^2 + \hat{\dot{y}}^2), \text{ where}$$

$$\begin{cases} m \hat{\dot{x}} = \hat{p}_x - q \hat{A}_x \\ m \hat{\dot{y}} = \hat{p}_y - q \hat{A}_y \end{cases}$$

But

$$\begin{aligned} [m \hat{\dot{x}}, m \hat{\dot{y}}] &= [\hat{p}_x - q \hat{A}_x, \hat{p}_y - q \hat{A}_y] = [\hat{p}_x, \hat{p}_y - q \hat{A}_y] - q [\hat{A}_x, \hat{p}_y - q \hat{A}_y] \\ &= \underbrace{[\hat{p}_x, \hat{p}_y]}_{=0} - q [\hat{p}_x, \hat{A}_y] - q \underbrace{[\hat{A}_x, -q \hat{A}_y]}_{=0} - q [\hat{A}_x, \hat{p}_y] \end{aligned}$$

But remember that $[\hat{p}_x, f(x)] \psi = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx} [f(x) \psi] - f(x) \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx} \psi(x)$

$$= \frac{\hbar}{i} \left(\frac{df}{dx} \right) \psi + \frac{\hbar}{i} f(x) \frac{d\psi}{dx} - f(x) \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d\psi}{dx} = \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{df}{dx} \right) \psi$$

So

$$[m \hat{\dot{x}}, m \hat{\dot{y}}] = -q \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} + q \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} = i \hbar q \left(\frac{\partial A_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial A_x}{\partial y} \right) = i \hbar q (\vec{0} \times \vec{A})_z$$

$$[m \hat{\dot{x}}, m \hat{\dot{y}}] = i \hbar q B$$

Now if we define the operators: $\hat{T} = \frac{\text{sgn}(q) m \hat{\dot{x}}}{\sqrt{|q|B}}$ and $\hat{P}_{\pi} = \frac{m \hat{\dot{y}}}{\sqrt{|q|B}}$ they

$$\text{sgn}(q) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } q > 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } q < 0 \end{cases}$$

satisfy:


$$[\hat{T}, \hat{P}_{\pi}] = i \hbar$$

\downarrow \downarrow
 Like position Like momentum

\Rightarrow we say that \hat{P}_{π} is canonically conjugate to \hat{T} , and that \hat{T} and \hat{P}_{π} are canonical variables.

The Hamiltonian is $H_{\perp} = \frac{m}{2} (\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2) = \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\left(\frac{qB}{m} \right)}_{\text{dimension of frequency}} (\hat{P}^2 + \hat{\Pi}^2)$

For $q = -e$, the cyclotron frequency is

$$\omega_c = \frac{e \cdot B}{m} \quad \left(\text{In classical mechanics, } \omega_c \text{ is the frequency of rotation of a particle in a B field} \right)$$


Now we see that H_{\perp} is just like an harmonic oscillator. Define

$$\hat{a} = \frac{\hat{\Pi} + i \hat{P}_{\Pi}}{\sqrt{2\hbar}} \Rightarrow [\hat{a}, \hat{a}^{\dagger}] = 1, \text{ and}$$

$$H_{\perp} = \hbar \omega_c \left(\hat{a}^{\dagger} \hat{a} + \frac{1}{2} \right).$$

$$\Rightarrow E_{\perp} = \hbar \omega_c \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right) // \text{ "Landau levels" }$$

Is the problem solved? No! Because these levels are highly degenerate. Based on a free

particle ($B=0$) we expect two continuum quantum numbers (P_x, P_y). We just showed

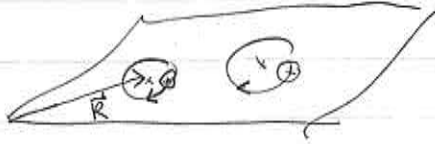
that one of them got quantized, so we should have another continuum parameter to label

the degeneracy - How to find?

Inspired by classical mechanics, let's look at the center of the classical trajectory of the

particle in the xy plane:

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Classical solution with $q_0 = -e_0$:

$$[\vec{R}_\perp(t) - \vec{R}_i]^2 = \left[\frac{\vec{R}(t=0)}{\omega_c} \right]^2 \quad \text{where} \quad \vec{R} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} x(0) \\ y(0) \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{m\omega_c} \begin{pmatrix} p_y(0) \\ -p_x(0) \end{pmatrix}$$

Note: $\vec{R}(t)$ is a constant of the motion! So $\vec{R}(t) = \vec{R}(t=0)$, i.e. $\frac{d\vec{R}}{dt} = 0$.

We make \vec{R} into an operator, and we get that (for all gauges):

$$[\hat{R}, H] = 0 \quad (\text{Because classical } \vec{R} \text{ is a constant of the motion!})$$

\hat{R} is denoted the "guiding centre operator".

We can diagonalize \hat{R}_x and H simultaneously (or \hat{R}_y and H). However,

$$[\hat{R}_x, \hat{R}_y] = \left[\frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{m\omega_c} p_y, \frac{y}{2} + \frac{1}{m\omega_c} p_x \right] = \frac{1}{2m\omega_c} [x, p_x] - \frac{1}{2m\omega_c} [p_y, y] = \frac{1}{2m\omega_c} 2i\hbar = \frac{i\hbar}{m\omega_c}$$

\Rightarrow You can't measure \hat{R}_x and \hat{R}_y simultaneously with high accuracy! We have to pick one of them as our "good" quantum number.

\triangleright We can label our wave functions by m and the \hat{R}_x eigenvalue (or alternatively, the \hat{R}_y eigenvalue, but not both!). The R_x will label the degeneracy.

m and R_x "are good quantum numbers" because they span the whole Hilbert space.