Quantum Entanglement Lecture 8 2006-11-12

Density matrix: a more general way to make probability statements about a system classical definition of entropy, probabilities entanglement and unentangled probabilities how states change with time H is called the Hamiltonian, it is Hermitian, and an observable, the energy of the system. $\frac{\partial|\psi\rangle}{\partial t} = \frac{-i H}{\hbar} |\psi\rangle \text{ governs how every quantum state evolves in time entropy is the measure of entanglement?}$

Prof. Leonard Susskind; videos on <u>Stanford on iTunes U</u> <u>Susskind's Blog: Physics for Everyone</u>

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Density matrix: a more general way to make probability statements about a system.

(1)Density matrix is the quantum analogy of the probability distribution: $F = \Sigma Fi * Pi$

(2) Tr P = 1 the trace of the density matrix (probabilities) adds up to one;

(3) The eignevalues of the Density Matrix can be though of as the probabilities of the different states;

(4) Density matrix is a Hermitian matrix (probabilities, the diagonal elements, are real);

 $i=1, \dots, N$ label the eigenvalues as λ

each eigenvalue corresponds to an eigen state vector;

= 1

n mutually orthogonal basis vector of sub space

each eigenvalue corresponds to the probability that the system was prepared in the direction of that particular basis.

(5) minimum knowledge – all eigenvalues equal; maximum knowledge – only one eigenvalue > 0

the probability matrix is the projection onto that basis state.

09:30 with any pure state the dot product with that vector is the vector. any other vector the result is zero.

10:47 The average value (expectation) of the observable M is the trace*density matrix*M

 $\overline{M} = \overline{T}_{r} \rho M = \zeta \langle i | \rho M \rangle$ $\overline{M} = Tr \rho M = \sum_{i} \langle i | \rho M | i \rangle$

13:39 example. for any M, in basis ψ (trace is the same in all basis) – summed over all indicies (basis)



14:04 the expression Σ |i><i| is the unit matrix I which can be cancelled out, leaving

The average of M is the expectation value of M (if a pure state)

16:19 General case, where there are mixed eigenvalues. you need to sum probabilities ρ against all indices in M:



if I am working in the basis in which ρ is diagonal (i.e. probabilities on the diagonal) then I know what the matrix element $\langle I|\rho|j \rangle$ is. In order for their to be a value I must equal j (because ρ , the probability, is diagonal) so this is the sum over the eigenvalues λj



Σ λj $\langle j|M|j \rangle$ when ρ , the density matrix, has probabilities on the

diagonal

17:46 <j|M|j> is the expectation value of M in the jth state, λj is the probability. so the above expression is the average of M in the jth state weighed with the probability of the jth state. the eigenvalues λ can be though of as the probabilities – but only in the case where ρ is diagonal.

19:56 classical definition of entropy



(minus because $Pi \le 1$ which means logPi is negative)

--- if only one Pi (=1) the entropy=0; complete knowledge of the system;

---if all Pi equal, entropy is maximum, complete ignorance.

22:00 entanglement

Say we have a system $|a b\rangle$ where a goes from 1 to N, and b goes from 1 to m. the total number of states for this system is N * m;

24:15 then the system is described as the sum, over a and b, of some function Ψ (the wave function) of a and b) – a nd b are discrete values (now, for our purposes) multiplied by the state vector a b



 $\Sigma \Psi(a,b) | a b >$ (summed over a and b)

to normalize the sum $\Sigma \ \Psi^* \Psi$, overa $\ \mbox{and} \ b,$ must add to one.

25:30 experiment which only involves sub-system a,



which means when M acts on a subsystem |a b>, M will act on the a coordinate but leave the b coordinate alone.

27:49 to determine the expectation of M on the combined system we need to construct a bra vector (introducing primed variables)



against M and the ket; sum over a' b' to find bra vector; sum over a b to find the ket vector



29:00 M does nothing to b, so b' and b must be the same.

aside:

for state vectors, not density matrices expectation for a state vector is: say we have a wave function $\Psi(a)|a>$ (simple system) and now we want to calculate the expectation of an observable M.



This is the value <s' |M|a>, where, in this case: (you have 2 sums to do)

31:00 b' b being the same means b is a diagonal and M is only a matrix of a' a

N (4'5) Marg

ignore that the sum goes over a' a; and just do the sum over b

rearranging values that depend on b;



we call the expression $\Psi(a \ b) \ \Psi^*(a' \ b) \
ho_{a \ a'}$

34:50 this function is the trace of M times P

$$\sum_{aa'} M_{a'a} \rho_{aa'} = Tr M\rho$$

36:00 checking the above identity



insert a complete set of states a |a><a|, a DYAD

<a' | M | a> is just Ma'a (M containing only a' a <a | P|a'> is just P a a' (P containing only a a'

37:00 when you have a pure state of |a b> but you focus only on the a subsystem the system is described by a density matrix.

you obtain the density matrix by taking the full wave function and summing over b

sum over b: $\sum_b \psi(a b) \psi^*(a'b)$

37:46 when you have a combined composite system |a b>, say Shrodinger's cat and a gun; then the cat and the gun is described by an entangled system but the cat alone is described by a density matrix.

in general, that density matrix will be of mixed phase. There is a specific case which it will describe a as a pure state.

38:50 the trace of a product is not the product of a trace (non-communative) $(Tr MP \neq MP Tr)$

40:20 you may have complete knowledge of the combined system $\Psi(a b)$ – but when you select a subsystem a; you must describe that sub-system by a density matrix.

---in classical systems, if you have complete knowledge of a system you also have complete knowledge of the sub-systems.

42:30 is there a condition on $\Psi(a b)$ so that the sub-systems are in pure states? yes – anytime the wave function factorizes into products:

 ψ factors into $\varphi(a) \chi(b)$ suppose: expand the density matrix Pa a' (b) $\phi(a) \chi(b) = \sum_{b} \phi(a) \chi(b) \phi^{*}(a') \chi^{*}(b)$ seperating $\Phi(a)$ – as sum does not depend on a;

 $\phi(a)\phi^*(a')\sum_b \chi(b)\chi^*(b)$ but $\sum_b \chi(b)\chi^*(b)$ is just one; so the density matrix of a product is just the product of wave functions $\Phi(a) \Phi^*(a)$



calculate the expectation value of M with these Φ functions:

 $\overline{M} = \langle \phi^*(a') | M_{a'a} | \phi(a) \rangle = \langle \phi | M | \phi \rangle$ which is exactly the same if the state vector was just Φ

Rule: When a pure system can be expressed by two factors of functions then each system can be described as a pure state of each function.

--- the density matrix has only one value, all the others are zero. (i.e. zero entropy)

49:00 One way of determining how close you are to a pure state is to calculate the entropy of the state. If the entropy is low you are close to a pure state.
--- deeply entangled means close to maximum entropy.
(calculate entropy by determing change increment over time)

50:00 Example. Calculate a Density Matrix and the Entropy

ex.1 highly entangled singlet state of 2 electrons:

write in terms of a 2 variable wave function

$$\begin{aligned}
\Psi(u \, u) &= \circ \\
\Psi(u \, d) &= \frac{1}{16} \\
\text{value of } u \text{ d component} \\
\Psi(d \, u) &= -\frac{1}{16} \\
\Psi(d \, d) &= \circ \\
\Psi(d \, d) &= \circ \\
\text{no } d \text{ d component}
\end{aligned}$$

calculate the density matrix of the a system; the a system being spin (of particle) #1

Puu is the a a' density matrix - start first with spin up (note a' is *)
we sum over b.
calculation of the P (uu dd ud du) components:
calculate for P{u d}
set a = Ψu Ψ*d + Ψu Ψ*d
set b = Ψuu Ψ*uu + Ψud Ψ*dd
Puu = Ψuu Ψ*uu + Ψud Ψ*dd
Pud = Ψdu Ψ*du + Ψdd Ψ*dd
Pud = Ψuu Ψ*du + Ψud Ψ*dd

 $Pdu = \Psi du \Psi^* uu + \Psi dd \Psi^* ud$



Pud = Pdu = 0

55:39 Density matrix is:

trace is 1; proportional to the unit matrix.

entropy is log 2 ($1/2\log 1/2 + 1/2\log 1/2$) = $\frac{1}{2}(-\log 2) + \frac{1}{2}(-\log 2) = -\log 2$ (but entropy has - sign in definition)

because the diagonal elements are both non-zero, and equal this means the singlet state is a non-pure.



the singlet state is a maximally mixed state, maximum ignorance

57:00 what is the expectation value of spin #1

 $P = \frac{1}{2}$ (x unit matrix)

expectation value (along a σ matrix) is trace x P x sigma matrix which is:

½ Tr σ.n

but trace of any sigma matrix is zero - so - expectation value is zero

59:00 in the singlet state, the spin of any component is equally likely to be along that direction or opposite to that direction.



60:00 lets define a wave function as:

Y(u u) = =	
Y(ud): +	
¥(du) = 'z	
ヤ(11)= 之	

a normalized state with all entries equal to ½

recalculating:

Puu = Ψuu	Ψ*uu + Ψud	Ψ*ud	$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$
Pdd = Ψdu	Ψ*du + Ψdd	Ψ*dd	= $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$
Pud = Ψuu	Ψ*du + Ψud	Ψ*dd	= $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$
Pdu = Ψdu	Ψ^* uu + Ψ dd	Ψ*ud	= $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$

the density matrix is: $\rho = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{vmatrix}$

62:00 the trace is still equal to one, but the eigenvectors are different: theorems:

- 1. the product of the eigenvalues is equal to the determinant;
- 2. the sum of the eigenvalues is equal to the trace

(in this case determinant = 0) so the eigenvalues are 1 0 corresponds to the product state of 2 unentangled electrons aligned along the x-axis ??? (why)

 σ 3 x P – the trace is zero; so the expectation value of σ 3 is 0; same is true for σ 2

 $\binom{1}{0} \binom{1}{1/2} \binom{1}{1/2} = \binom{1}{1/2} \binom{1}{1/2} = \binom{1}{1/2}$

 σ 3 x P; Tr=0 same result for σ 2

65:00 expectation value for $\sigma 1$ is 1; trace is equal to 1 entropy is zero, because it has one eigenvalue of 1, the other zero a pair of spins which are both lying along the x-axis non-entangled



66:00 if you slightly change the wave function, say Ψ ud = Ψ du = .4 you would find a small degree of entanglement, the entropy would have a small value. *Entropy and entanglement go together (called entanglement entropy)*

68:00 in general entropy does not add, in particular entanglement entropy. a system may have an entropy of zero – but the sub-systems each may have entropy.

70:00 how states change with time

a discrete system goes from state to state, but not necessarily continuous. i.e. the dimension of the vector space is finite, not continuous



classical – note 2 different states do not evolve to the same state.

but you can have a possibility of a continuous space.

The space {d u} can be measured as spin up or spin down but there can be a continuous number of states in between.

73:00

assumption: the logical relationships between states doesn't change with time;

(1) if 2 states are equal they will stay that way;

(2) if 2 states are orthogonal they will evolove into orthogonal states (if 2 states are measurably different they will remain measurably different)

in classical systems this is called conservation of phase state volume; in quantum mechanics refers to unit parity.

77:00 Second principle of time evolution

what it means is the inner product between two states (magnitude) stays the same with time.

78:00 first principle of time evolution.

governed by a linear operator.

take a space $|\Psi 0\rangle$ (at time zero). after a while it evolves to a new state, $|\Psi t\rangle$ $|\Psi$ t> is always equal to U (some linear operator) times $|\Psi$ 0>



 ψ evolves linearly governed by an time oprator

note U(0)=1; $|\Psi t\rangle = U(0) |\Psi 0\rangle$

Principle 1: there exists a linear operator U(t) which describes the system evolution. (sort of an observed, empirical theory)

Principle 2: if there are any 2 systems that evolve in time – the dot product remains the same



assumption (repeated): The logical relations between states are invariant in time.

82:00 determine what happens to operator U (a matrix) in time; take the bra



which makes the last relation as U^{t} U being the unit operator. U is a unitary operator.



the time evolution of a system is governed by unitary operators that depend on time

85:00 lets take a very small interval of time ϵ , and define: U(ϵ) = 1 – I ϵ H

18

minus sign arbitrary, as is i

87:00 determine the conditions on H



multiplying out, remember $U^T U = 1$

ignoring ε squared term (very small)

or $H^{T} = H$, the H is Hermitian.

89:55 H is called the Hamiltonian, it is Hermitian, and an observable, the energy of the system. The eigenvalues of the matrx H are the energy levels of the system.



93:00 hamiltonian $\frac{\partial |\psi\rangle}{\partial t} = \frac{-i H}{\hbar} |\psi\rangle \text{ governs how every quantum state evolves in time.}$

98:00 entropy is the measure of entanglement? entropy is dimensionless.

in classical thermodynamics:



the difference in energy = time x difference in entropy;

time has units of energy;

formula for KE contains Boltzman constant – which is only necessary to convert time from units of enegry to units of time.

100:00

say we have an eigenvector $\boldsymbol{\Psi}$; H hamiltonian, E (energy) is an eigenvector



equation for Ψ evolving with time;

substituting with $\partial |\Psi \rangle / \partial t = -i H |\Psi \rangle / \hbar$



if you start with a start with an eigenvector of the hamiltonian then it evolves with time just like multiplying with a phase.

the value (- I E/ \hbar), when modifying time in the above, ~ is called the angular frequency ω --- E = $h\lambda$