

## Quantum Ensembles

The classical ensemble was a probability distribution in phase space  $f(q_i, p_i)$  such that thermodynamic averages of an observable  $X$  are given by

$$\langle X \rangle = \left( \prod_i \int dp_i dq_i \right) X(q_i, p_i) f(q_i, p_i)$$

The ensemble interpretation of thermodynamics imagines that we make many (ideally infinitely many) copies of our system, each prepared identically as far as macroscopic parameters one concerned. The distribution  $f(q_i, p_i)$  is then the probability that a given copy will be found at coordinates  $(q_i, p_i)$  in phase space. The average  $\langle X \rangle$  above is the average over all copies of the system. The ergodic hypothesis states that this ensemble average over many copies will give the same result as averaging  $X$  over the time trajectory of the system in just one copy.

In quantum mechanics, states are described by wavefunctions  $|4\rangle$  rather than points in phase space  $(q_i, p_i)$ . To describe a quantum ensemble imagine making many copies of the system. Let  $|4^k\rangle$  be the state of the system in copy  $k$ .

The ensemble average of an observable operator  $\hat{X}$  would then be

$$\langle \hat{X} \rangle = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^M \langle \psi^k | \hat{X} | \psi^k \rangle$$

where in the above we took  $M$  copies of the system to make our ensemble. In general  $M \rightarrow \infty$ .

In quantum mechanics it is convenient to express wavefunctions as a linear superposition of some complete set of <sup>orthonormal</sup> basis wavefunctions  $|\psi_n\rangle$ . Define

$$|\psi^k\rangle = \sum_n a_n^k |\psi_n\rangle \quad \langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle = \delta_{mn}$$

$a_n^k$  is probability amplitude for  $|\psi^k\rangle$  to be in state  $|\psi_n\rangle$ .

$|a_n^k|^2$  is probability for  $|\psi^k\rangle$  to be found in state  $|\psi_n\rangle$

$$\text{normalization } \langle \psi^k | \psi^k \rangle = 1 \Rightarrow \sum_n |a_n^k|^2 = 1$$

Now express  $\langle \hat{X} \rangle$  in terms of the basis states

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \hat{X} \rangle &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^M \sum_{n,m} a_n^k a_m^{k*} \langle \psi_m | \hat{X} | \psi_n \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_k \sum_{n,m} a_n^k a_m^{k*} X_{mn} \end{aligned}$$

where  $X_{mn} = \langle \varphi_m | \hat{X} | \varphi_n \rangle$  is the matrix of  $\hat{X}$  in the basis  $|\varphi_n\rangle$ .

We can now define the density matrix that describes the ensemble

$$f_{nm} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^M a_n^k a_m^{k*}$$

$f_{nm}$  is just the matrix of the density operator  $\hat{\rho}$  in the basis  $|\varphi_n\rangle$

$$\hat{\rho} = \sum_{n,m} |\varphi_n\rangle f_{nm} \langle \varphi_m|$$

We can write for ensemble averages

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \hat{X} \rangle &= \sum_{n,m} f_{nm} X_{mn} \\ &= \sum_{n,m} \langle \varphi_n | \hat{\rho} | \varphi_m \rangle \langle \varphi_m | \hat{X} | \varphi_n \rangle \\ &= \sum_n \langle \varphi_n | \hat{\rho} \hat{X} | \varphi_n \rangle \\ &= \text{tr} [\hat{\rho} \hat{X}] \quad \text{tr} = \text{"trace"} \end{aligned}$$

Note:  $f_{nn}$  is the probability that a state, selected at random from the ensemble, will be found to be in  $|\varphi_n\rangle$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{tr } \hat{\rho} &= \sum_n p_{nn} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^M \sum_n a_n^k a_n^{k*} \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^M \sum_n |a_n^k|^2 \\ &= 1\end{aligned}$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned}f_{nm} &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_k a_n^k a_m^{k*} \\ \Rightarrow f_{mn}^* &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_k a_m^{k*} a_n^k = f_{nm}\end{aligned}$$

so  $\hat{\rho}$  is an Hermitian operator

$\Rightarrow p_{nn}$  can be diagonalized and its eigenvalues are real.

So a quantum mechanical ensemble is described by a Hermitian density matrix  $\hat{\rho}$  such that  $\text{tr } \hat{\rho} = 1$ , and ensemble averages are given by  $\text{tr}[\hat{\rho} \hat{X}]$ . What additional conditions must  $\hat{\rho}$  satisfy if it is to describe thermal equilibrium?

As for any operator in the Heisenberg picture, its equation of motion is

$$i\hbar \frac{d\hat{\rho}}{dt} = [\hat{H}, \hat{\rho}]$$

quantum analog  
of Liouville's eqn  
 $\hat{H}$  is Hamiltonian

$\Rightarrow$  if  $\hat{p}$  is to describe a stationary equilibrium, it is necessary that  $\hat{p}$  commutes with  $\hat{H}$ ,  $[\hat{H}, \hat{p}] = 0$ , so  $\partial \hat{p} / \partial t = 0$ .

$\Rightarrow \hat{p}$  is diagonal in the basis formed by the energy eigenstates. If these states are  $|\alpha\rangle$  then

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \alpha | \hat{H} \hat{p} | \beta \rangle &= E_\alpha \langle \alpha | \hat{p} | \beta \rangle \\ &= \langle \alpha | \hat{p} H | \beta \rangle = E_\beta \langle \alpha | \hat{p} | \beta \rangle\end{aligned}$$

$$E_\alpha \langle \alpha | \hat{p} | \beta \rangle = E_\beta \langle \alpha | \hat{p} | \beta \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \alpha | \hat{p} | \beta \rangle = 0 \text{ unless } E_\alpha = E_\beta$$

So  $\hat{p}$  only couples eigenstates of equal energy (i.e. degenerate states) but since  $\hat{p}$  is Hermitian, it is diagonalizable  $\Rightarrow$  we can always take appropriate linear combinations of degenerate eigenstates to make eigenstates of  $\hat{p}$ . In this basis  $\hat{p}$  is diagonal.

$$\hat{H} |\alpha\rangle = E_\alpha |\alpha\rangle, \quad \hat{p} |\alpha\rangle = f_\alpha |\alpha\rangle$$

$$\langle \alpha | \hat{H} | \beta \rangle = E_\alpha \delta_{\alpha\beta}, \quad \langle \alpha | \hat{p} | \beta \rangle = f_\alpha \delta_{\alpha\beta}$$

$$\delta_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{cases} 1 & \alpha = \beta \\ 0 & \alpha \neq \beta \end{cases} \quad \text{Kronecker delta}$$

Even though a stationary  $\hat{P}$  is diagonal in the basis of energy eigenstates, we can always express it in terms of any other complete basis states

$$f_{nm} = \langle n | \hat{P} | m \rangle = \sum_{\alpha, \beta} \langle n | \alpha \rangle \langle \alpha | \hat{P} | \beta \rangle \langle \beta | m \rangle \\ = \sum_{\alpha} \langle n | \alpha \rangle f_{\alpha} \langle \alpha | m \rangle$$

in this basis,  $\hat{P}$  need not be diagonal

This will be useful because we may not know the exact eigenstates for  $\hat{H}$ . If  $\hat{H} = \hat{H}^0 + \hat{H}'$  we might know the eigenstates of the simpler  $\hat{H}^0$ , but not the full  $\hat{H}$ . In this case it may be convenient to express  $\hat{P}$  in terms of the eigenstates of  $\hat{H}^0$  and treat  $\hat{H}'$  in perturbation. In general it is useful to have the above representation for  $\hat{P}$  and  $\langle \hat{X} \rangle = \text{tr}(\hat{X} \hat{P})$  in an operator form that is indep of its representation in any particular basis.

Microcanonical ensemble:

$$\hat{P} = \sum_{\alpha} |\alpha \rangle p_{\alpha} \langle \alpha | \quad \text{with } p_{\alpha} = \begin{cases} \text{const} & E \leq E_{\alpha} \leq E + \Delta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{and } \sum_{\alpha} p_{\alpha} = 1$$

Canonical ensemble:

$$\hat{P} = \sum_{\alpha} |\alpha \rangle p_{\alpha} \langle \alpha | \quad \text{with } p_{\alpha} = \frac{e^{-\beta E_{\alpha}}}{Q_N}$$

$$\text{where } Q_N = \sum_{\alpha} e^{-\beta E_{\alpha}}$$

$$\text{can also write } Q_N = \sum_{\alpha} e^{-\beta E_{\alpha}} = \sum_{\alpha} \langle \alpha | e^{-\beta \hat{H}} | \alpha \rangle \\ = \text{trace}(e^{-\beta \hat{H}})$$

$$\hat{f} = \frac{e^{-\beta \hat{H}}}{Q_N}$$

$$\langle \hat{x} \rangle = \frac{\text{tr}(\hat{x} e^{-\beta \hat{H}})}{\text{tr}(e^{-\beta \hat{H}})}$$

### Grand Canonical ensemble

Here  $\hat{f}$  is an operator in a space that includes wavefunctions with any number of particles  $N$ .

$\hat{f}$  should commute with both  $\hat{H}$  (so it is stationary) and with  $\hat{N}$  (so it doesn't mix states with different  $N$ )

$$\hat{f} = \frac{e^{-\beta(\hat{H}-\mu\hat{N})}}{Z}$$

$$\text{with } Z = \text{trace}(e^{-\beta(\hat{H}-\mu\hat{N})}) = \sum_{\alpha} e^{-\beta(E_{\alpha}-\mu N_{\alpha})}$$

$$\langle \hat{x} \rangle = \frac{\text{tr}(\hat{x} e^{-\beta \hat{H}} e^{+\beta \mu \hat{N}})}{\text{tr}(e^{-\beta \hat{H}} e^{\beta \mu \hat{N}})}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{N=0}^{\infty} z^N \langle \hat{x} \rangle_N Q_N}{\sum_{N=0}^{\infty} z^N Q_N}$$

↑ state  $\alpha$  has energy  $E_{\alpha}$   
and number of particles  $N_{\alpha}$   
Sum over all states  
with any number  $N_{\alpha}$

### Example : The harmonic oscillator

Suppose we have a single harmonic oscillator.

The energy eigenstates are  $E_n = \hbar\omega(n + 1/2)$

The canonical partition function will be

$$Q = \sum_n e^{-\beta E_n} = \sum_n e^{-\beta \hbar\omega(n + 1/2)} = e^{-\beta \hbar\omega/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (e^{-\beta \hbar\omega})^n$$

$$Q = \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar\omega/2}}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle E \rangle &= -\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial \beta} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \left[ -\frac{\beta \hbar\omega}{2} - \ln(1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}) \right] \\ &= \frac{\hbar\omega}{2} + \frac{\hbar\omega e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}} = \frac{\hbar\omega}{2} + \frac{\hbar\omega}{e^{\beta \hbar\omega} - 1} \end{aligned}$$

We could write

$$\langle E \rangle = \hbar\omega(\langle n \rangle + 1/2) \quad \text{where } \langle n \rangle \text{ is the average level of occupation of the h.o.}$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle n \rangle = \frac{1}{e^{\beta \hbar\omega} - 1}$$

## Quantum many particle systems

N identical particles described by a wavefunction

(~~position & spin~~)

$$\psi(\vec{r}_1, s_1, \vec{r}_2, s_2, \dots, \vec{r}_N, s_N) \quad \vec{r}_i = \text{position particle } i \\ = \psi(1, 2, \dots, N) \quad s_i = \text{spin of particle } i$$

Indentical particles  $\Rightarrow$  prob distribution  $|\psi|^2$  should be symmetric under interchange of any pair of coordinates:  $|\psi(1, \dots, i, \dots, j, \dots, N)|^2 = |\psi(1, \dots, j, \dots, i, \dots, N)|^2$

$\Rightarrow$  two possible symmetries for  $\psi$

1)  $\psi$  is symmetric under pair interchanges

$$\psi(1, \dots, i, \dots, j, \dots, N) = \psi(1, \dots, j, \dots, i, \dots, N)$$

2)  $\psi$  is antisymmetric under pair interchanges

$$\psi(1, \dots, i, \dots, j, \dots, N) = -\psi(1, \dots, j, \dots, i, \dots, N)$$

(1) = Bose-Einstein statistics - particle called "bosons"

(2) = Fermi-Dirac statistics - particles called "fermions"

For a general permutation  $P$  that interchanges any number of pairs of particles

(1) BE  $\Rightarrow P\psi = \psi$

(2) FD  $\Rightarrow P\psi = \begin{cases} (-1)^P \psi & \text{where } P = \# \text{ pair interchanges} \\ +4 & \text{for even permutation} \\ -4 & \text{for odd permutation} \end{cases}$

BE statistics are for particles with integer spin,  $s=0, 1, 2, \dots$   
 FD statistics are for particles with half integer spin,  $s=\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2}, \dots$   
 (proved by quantum field theory)

Consider non-interacting particles

$$H(1, 2, 3, \dots, N) = H^{(1)}(1) + H^{(1)}(2) + \dots + H^{(1)}(N)$$

sum of single particle Hamiltonians

$$\Rightarrow \Psi(1, 2, \dots, N) = \phi_{i_1}(1) \phi_{i_2}(2) \dots \phi_{i_N}(N)$$

where  $\phi_i$  is an eigenstate of single particle  $H^{(1)}$  with energy  $E_i$ .

But  $\Psi$  above does not have proper symmetry.

for BE  $\Psi_{BE} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_p}} \sum_P P \Psi$   $\leftarrow \Psi = \phi_1 \phi_2 \dots \phi_N$  as above  
 $\sum_P$   $\leftarrow$  sum over all permutations  $P$   
 normalization  $N_p = \# \text{ possible permutations of } N \text{ particles} = N!$

for FD  $\Psi_{FD} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_p}} \sum_P (-1)^P P \Psi$

You can verify that the above symmetrizing operations give  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} P_0 \Psi_{BE} = \Psi_{BE} \\ P_0 \Psi_{FD} = (-1)^P \Psi_{FD} \end{array} \right\}$  as desired

for any permutation  $P_0$

For  $\Psi$  described by the  $N$  single particle eigenstates  $\phi_{i_1}, \phi_{i_2}, \dots, \phi_{i_N}$ , the total energy is

$$E = \epsilon_{i_1} + \epsilon_{i_2} + \dots + \epsilon_{i_N} = \sum_j n_j \epsilon_j$$

where  $n_j$  is the number of particles in state  $\phi_j$ .

For FD statistics,  $n_j = 0$  or  $1$  only possibilities.

This is because if  $\Psi(1, 2, \dots, N) = \phi_{i_1}(1)\phi_{i_2}(2)\phi_{i_3}(3)\dots\phi_{i_N}(N)$

then when we construct

$$\Psi_{FD} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_p}} \sum_P (-1)^P P \Psi$$

$P$   
particles  $\neq$  odd  $2$  in same state  $\phi_j$

then for every term in the sum  $\phi_{i_1}(i)\phi_{i_2}(j)\phi_{i_3}(k)\dots\phi_{i_N}(l)$

there must also be a term  $(-1)\phi_{i_1}(j)\phi_{i_2}(i)\phi_{i_3}(k)\dots\phi_{i_N}(l)$

so these cancel pair by pair

and we find  $\Psi_{FD} = 0$

$\Rightarrow$  Pauli Exclusion Principle - no two fermions can occupy the same state, or no two fermions can have the same "quantum numbers".

For BE statistics there is no such restriction  
and  $n_j = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$  any integer.

The specification of any non-interacting  $N$  particle quantum state is given by the occupation numbers  $\{n_j\}$ . Each set of  $\{n_j\}$  corresponds to one  $N$  particle state.

# An aside on doing Gaussian integrals

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d^3r e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}} = 4\pi \int_0^{\infty} dr r^2 e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right\} \text{in spherical coordinates}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d^3r r^2 e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}} = 4\pi \int_0^{\infty} dr r^4 e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

In Cartesian coords:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d^3r e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$= (\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2})(\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2})(\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{3/2}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d^3r r^2 e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

all 3 terms contribute equally

$$= 3 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx x^2 e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy e^{-\frac{y^2}{2\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz e^{-\frac{z^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$= 3 (\sigma^2 \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}) (\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}) (\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2})$$

$$= 3\sigma^2 (2\pi\sigma^2)^{3/2} = 3(2\pi)^{3/2} \sigma^5$$

All you need to remember is

normalized Gaussian  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} = 1$   $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} x^2 = \sigma^2$

In spherical coords

$$4\pi \int_0^\infty dr r^2 e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}} = (4\pi) \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \int_{-\infty}^\infty dr r^2 e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$
$$= 2\pi \sigma^2 \cdot \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2} = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{3/2} \text{ as before}$$

$$4\pi \int_0^\infty dr r^4 e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

would have to either remember this integral  
or get it into the form  $\int_0^\infty dr r^2 e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}}$   
by making two integrations by parts.

But even if we don't do integral exactly, we can find the  
important behavior by a substitution of variables,

$$x = \frac{r}{\sigma} \Rightarrow dr = \sigma dx, \quad r = \sigma x$$

integral is then  $4\pi\sigma^5 \int_0^\infty dx x^4 e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$   
a constant

so we know  $\int dr r^4 e^{-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}} \sim \sigma^5$

---- back to quantum mechanics!