

# The density matrix and its application

## to quantum transport

### PART I : BASIC CONCEPTS AND METHODS

#### CH. 1 : GENERAL DENSITY MATRIX THEORY

- 1.1 Pure and mixed states
- 1.2 The density matrix and its basic properties
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- 4.5 Differential conductance in fourth order
- 4.6 The resonant tunneling approximation
- 4.7 The Kondo regime

### Literature:

- K. Blum: Density matrix theory and its applications, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Plenum Press, (1996)
- H.-P. Breuer and F. Petruccione: The theory of open quantum systems, Oxford Univ. Press (2002)
- P. Nozieres and Ya. Blanter, Quantum Transport, Cambridge Univ. Press (2009)
- H. Brüns and K. Flensberg: Many-body quantum theory in condensed matter. Oxford graduate texts (2007)
- C. Beenakker: Theory of Coulomb-blockade oscillations in the conductance of a quantum dot, Phys. Rev. B 44, 1646 (1991)
- C. Timm: Tunneling through molecules and quantum dots: master equation approaches, Phys. Rev. B 77, 195417 (2008)

- H. Schoeller: Transport theory of interacting quantum dots, Habilitationsschrift (1997)
- S. Koller et al.: Density-operator approaches to transport through interacting quantum dots: simplifications in fourth-order perturbation theory  
Phys. Rev. B 82, 045316 (2010)

Other recent research articles will be suggested upon request for further reading.

Exercises: The exercise sheet is given each Friday during the lecture and written solutions should be handed in by 12:00 of the Friday in the following week. The solutions are discussed in the Exercises class of the following Tuesday.

Regular participation to the class + 50% of the exercises (more than half of the exercises in more than half of the sheets) is the requirement to pass the course.

Fixed class and exercise times:

Classes:	Mo	8:15 - 9:45	4. 1. 13 (seminar room Richter)
	Fz	12:15 - 13:45	5. 0. 20
Exercises:	Tu	10:15 - 11:45	5. 0. 21

## PART I

BASIC CONCEPTS AND  
METHODS

## Chapter 1: GENERAL DENSITY MATRIX THEORY

### 1.1. Pure and mixed states

In classical mechanics a microscopic definition of a state involves the knowledge of the position and momentum of all particles comprising the system.

▲ Which is the "maximum available information" obtained by measuring a quantum mechanical system?

In QM a precise simultaneous measurement of two physical variables is only possible if the variables are NOT conjugated (i.e. the associated operators commute). In other words, if  $[\hat{Q}_1, \hat{Q}_2] = 0 \Rightarrow$  it is possible to find states  $|q\rangle$  such that  $\hat{Q}_1|q\rangle = q_1|q\rangle$  and  $\hat{Q}_2|q\rangle = q_2|q\rangle$ .  $|q\rangle$  is both an eigenstate of  $\hat{Q}_1$  and  $\hat{Q}_2$ .

$\Rightarrow$  In general the maximum available information that can be achieved consists of the eigenvalues  $q_1, \dots, q_N$  of the largest set of mutually commuting independent observables  $Q_1, \dots, Q_N$ . The system is completely specified by assigning the state vector:

$$|q\rangle = |q_1, q_2, \dots, q_N\rangle \text{ fr it.}$$

Def: A **PURE STATE** is a state of maximum knowledge

U. Fano  
1957

Note: The choice of a complete set of commuting operators is not unique.

Thus,  $|\psi\rangle$  can be specified by the eigenvalues  $q_1, q_2, \dots, q_N$  of a complete operator set or by giving the amplitudes  $a_n (\in \mathbb{C})$  and the orthonormal eigenstates basis  $|\phi_n\rangle$  of another set of observables

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_n a_n |\phi_n\rangle \quad (1.1)$$

$|\phi_n\rangle$  is constructed as  $|\{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N\}\rangle$  with all possible eigenvalues of a complete set of observables.

Refresh:  $|\phi_n\rangle$  orthonormal basis implies  $\langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle = \delta_{nm}$  and

$$1 = \sum_n |\phi_n\rangle \langle \phi_n|$$

The normalization of  $|\psi\rangle$  implies  $1 = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \sum_n |a_n|^2 \quad (1.2)$

$\Rightarrow |a_n|^2$  is the probability that a measurement will give the result  $p_1, \dots, p_N$ , or, in other terms <sup>the probability</sup> to find the system in  $|\phi_n\rangle$ .

► Is it feasible to completely prepare a system in a pure state?

Similarly to classical mechanics, in most cases we only have a partial knowledge of the quantum mechanical state of a system.

$\Rightarrow$  The state of the system is not pure (at least we cannot tell since, practically, we cannot prepare it). But we can say that the system has certain probabilities  $w_1, \dots, w_M$  of being in the pure states  $|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_M\rangle$ , respectively.

Def: Systems that cannot be characterized by a single state vector are called statistical mixtures

► Is there a consequence of this distinction between pure and mixed states in the measurement of a generic observable  $\hat{Q}$ ?

- pure state:
  - /  $|\psi\rangle$  is an eigenstate of the observable  $\hat{Q}$ 
    - each measurement gives the same eigenvalue  $q$ .
  - |  $|\psi\rangle$  is not an eigenstate of the observable  $\hat{Q}$ 
    - the measurements give different results. The average is given by the expectation value  $\langle \hat{Q} \rangle_{\text{pure}} = \langle \psi | \hat{Q} | \psi \rangle$  (1.3)
- statistical mixture: The measurements give different results whose average is given by the expectation value
$$\langle \hat{Q} \rangle_{\text{mix}} = \sum_n w_n \langle \psi_n | \hat{Q} | \psi_n \rangle \quad (1.4)$$

For a pure state the (possible) scattering of the measurement results has only a DM explanation as uncontrollable perturbation introduced by the very same measurement. For a statistical mixture one adds to this effect the lack of knowledge over the system.

## 1.2. The density matrix and its basic properties

► Is there a formalism able to treat on an equal footing both pure states and statistical mixtures?

Def. The density operator prescribing a statistical mixture of states is defined as:

$$\hat{\rho} = \sum_n w_n |\psi_n\rangle \langle \psi_n| \quad (1.5)$$

Note: if the system is in a pure state  $|\psi\rangle$   $\hat{\rho} = |\psi\rangle \langle \psi|$  (1.5b) which is just a special case of (1.5).

Matrix representation Let us consider the ON basis set  $\{|\phi_1\rangle, \dots, |\phi_N\rangle\}$  such that

$$|\psi_n\rangle = \sum_m a_m^{(n)} |\phi_m\rangle \Rightarrow \langle \psi_n | = \sum_m a_m^{(n)*} \langle \phi_m |$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{\rho} = \sum_n \sum_{m,m'} w_n a_m^{(n)} a_{m'}^{(n)*} |\phi_m\rangle \langle \phi_{m'}| \quad (1.6)$$

It follows on a def. of the density matrix

$$\rho_{ij} = \langle \phi_i | \hat{\rho} | \phi_j \rangle = \sum_n w_n a_i^{(n)} a_j^{(n)*} \quad (1.7)$$

Properties of  $\rho$ :

i)  $\rho_{ij} = \langle \phi_i | \hat{\rho} | \phi_j \rangle = \langle \phi_j | \hat{\rho} | \phi_i \rangle^* = \rho_{ji}^* \Rightarrow \rho$  is Hermitian

ii) The probability of finding the system in the pure state  $|\psi\rangle$  after (complete) measurement is

$$w(\psi) = \langle \psi | \hat{\rho} | \psi \rangle = \sum_n w_n |\langle \psi_n | \psi \rangle|^2 = \sum_i \rho_{ii} |\langle \phi_i | \psi \rangle|^2$$

$$\text{iii) } \text{Tr } \hat{\rho} = \sum_i \hat{\rho}_{ii} = 1$$

$$\text{proof: } \sum_i \hat{\rho}_{ii} = \sum_i \sum_n w_n |a_i^{(n)}|^2 = \sum_n w_n \underbrace{\left\langle \psi_n \left| \sum_i |\phi_i\rangle \langle \phi_i| \right| \psi_n \right\rangle}_{=1} = 1$$

where the lower result stems from completeness of  $|\phi_i\rangle$ , the upper from normalization of  $|\psi_n\rangle$  and the last equality from  $w_n$  being a probability distribution. Note: the notation extends often to  $\text{Tr } \hat{\rho} \equiv \sum_n \langle \phi_n | \hat{\rho} | \phi_n \rangle$

iv) The expectation value of any operator  $\hat{Q}$  is:

$$\langle \hat{Q} \rangle = \text{Tr } \{ \hat{\rho} \hat{Q} \} \quad (1.10)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{proof: } \langle \hat{Q} \rangle &\stackrel{(1.4)}{=} \sum_n w_n \langle \psi_n | \hat{Q} | \psi_n \rangle = \sum_n \sum_{m,m'} w_n a_m^{(n)} a_{m'}^{(n)*} \langle \phi_m | \hat{Q} | \phi_{m'} \rangle \\ &\stackrel{(1.7)}{=} \sum_{m,m'} p_{m,m'} \langle \phi_m | \hat{Q} | \phi_{m'} \rangle \stackrel{!}{=} \sum_{m,m'} \langle m | \hat{\rho} | m' \rangle \langle m' | \hat{Q} | m \rangle \\ &= \text{Tr } \{ \hat{\rho} \hat{Q} \}. \end{aligned}$$

Note: More generally one can drop the normalization of  $\{|\phi_n\rangle\}$  and define  $\langle \hat{Q} \rangle = \frac{\text{Tr } \{ \hat{\rho} \hat{Q} \}}{\text{Tr } \hat{\rho}}$ . (1.10b)

In QM all information on the behaviour of a system is given by the expectation values of a suitable set of operators. Since  $\hat{\rho}$  allows to calculate such expectation values  $\Rightarrow \hat{\rho}$  contains ALL physically relevant information on the system.

Nrk: Eq. (1.10) can be considered as an alternative definition of  $\hat{\rho}$  compared to Eq. (1.7).

## Illuminating example (1)

- Consider a system described by 2 quantum states: example an electron of which we neglect position or velocity.
- The number of real parameters necessary to describe the associated density matrix is 3. (In general  $N^2$ , where  $N$  is the size of the Hilbert space).

$\rho_{ij}$  are  $N^2$  but complex  $\pi$ , naively  $2N^2$

$\rho_{ii}$  are real | and  $\sum_i \rho_{ii} = 1$   $\rightarrow$  -1 since the  
 $\rho_{ij} = \rho_{ji}^*$  |  $N^2$  since for the diagonal entries one  
~~1000~~ needs only 1 number and 2 numbers for half  
of the off-diagonal entries.

- The density matrix can be defined by the expectation values of a given set of observables. For a spin system, the 3 components of the spin.

$$\langle \hat{S}_x \rangle = \frac{\hbar}{2} (\rho_{12} + \rho_{21}) = \hbar \operatorname{Re} \rho_{21}$$

$$\langle \hat{S}_y \rangle = \frac{\hbar}{2} i (\rho_{12} - \rho_{21}) = \hbar \operatorname{Im} \rho_{21}$$

$$\langle \hat{S}_z \rangle = \hbar \frac{\rho_{11} - \rho_{22}}{2}$$

$$1 = \rho_{11} + \rho_{22}$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\langle S_z \rangle}{\hbar} & \frac{1}{\hbar} (\langle S_x \rangle - i \langle S_y \rangle) \\ \frac{1}{\hbar} (\langle S_x \rangle + i \langle S_y \rangle) & \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\langle S_z \rangle}{\hbar} \end{pmatrix}$$

Discussion of the result:

- $\langle S_z \rangle = \langle S_x \rangle = \langle S_y \rangle = 0$   $\rho = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$   
it is a completely incoherent statistical mixture  $\frac{1}{2}|1\rangle\langle 1| + \frac{1}{2}|1\rangle\langle 1|$ .
- $\langle S_z \rangle = \frac{\hbar}{2}$  and  $\langle S_x \rangle = \langle S_y \rangle = 0$  pure state  $\rho = |1\rangle\langle 1|$ .

analogously  $\langle S_z \rangle = -\frac{\hbar}{2}$   $\langle S_x \rangle = \langle S_y \rangle = 0$   $\rho = |1\rangle\langle 1|$ .

- Yet another simple example  $\langle S_x \rangle = \frac{\hbar}{2}$  and  $\langle S_y \rangle = \langle S_z \rangle = 0$

$$\rho = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{\hbar}{2} \\ \frac{\hbar}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} \quad \rho = |x\rangle\langle x|$$

$$|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|1\rangle + i|1\rangle)$$

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2}|1\rangle\langle 1| + \frac{1}{2}|1\rangle\langle 1| + \frac{1}{2}|1\rangle\langle 1| + \frac{1}{2}|1\rangle\langle 1|$$

- But we can also work it out differently. Say we assume the statistical mixture

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2}|x\rangle\langle x| + \frac{1}{2}|y\rangle\langle y| = \frac{1}{2}\rho_{x\rangle} + \frac{1}{2}\rho_{y\rangle}$$

which are the expected  $\langle S_i \rangle$ ?

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{1}{4}(|1\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 1|)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{4}(|1\rangle\langle 1| - i|1\rangle\langle 1| + i|1\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 1|)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} + \frac{i}{4} \\ \frac{1}{4} - \frac{i}{4} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus, for example, by measuring  $\langle S_z \rangle$  alone, one could not distinguish:

$$\rho_{x\rangle} \text{ from } \frac{1}{2}\rho_{x\rangle} + \frac{1}{2}\rho_{y\rangle}$$