QM1 Problem Set 1 solutions — Mike Saelim

If you find any errors with these solutions, please email me at mjs496@cornell.edu.

(1) (a) We can assume that the function is smooth enough to Taylor expand:

$$f(A) = \sum_{n} c_n A^n.$$

The rest is a straightforward evaluation, using the property $A|a\rangle = a|a\rangle$:

$$\langle a|f(A)|a'\rangle = \sum_{n} c_n \langle a|A^n|a'\rangle = \sum_{n} c_n \langle a|a'^n|a'\rangle$$
$$= \sum_{n} c_n a'^n \langle a|a'\rangle = f(a')\delta_{aa'}.$$

(b) Since the operator can be written as a diagonal matrix of its eigenvalues, $A = \sum_{a} a |a\rangle \langle a|$, the determinant is simply the product of all these eigenvalues.

The trace of the logarithm of the operator is

$$\operatorname{Tr} \ln A = \sum_{a} \langle a | \ln A | a \rangle = \sum_{a} \ln a,$$

so taking the exponential of that gives

$$\exp(\operatorname{Tr}\ln A) = \exp(\sum_{a}\ln a) = \prod_{a} a = \det A.$$

(c) e^{iA} is unitary if $e^{iA}(e^{iA})^{\dagger} = 1$, where **1** is the identity operator. To show this, let's decompose the exponentials into their spectral decompositions.

The spectral decomposition of any function f(A) is $\sum_{a} f(a)|a\rangle\langle a|$, which can be reasoned out from what we proved in part (a). (You can also compute it out directly by replacing A with its spectral decomposition in the Taylor expansion of f(A).) So,

$$e^{iA} = \sum_{a} e^{ia} |a\rangle \langle a|$$
$$(e^{iA})^{\dagger} = \sum_{a} (e^{ia} |a\rangle \langle a|)^{\dagger} = \sum_{a} e^{-ia} |a\rangle \langle a|.$$

Putting these together,

$$\begin{split} e^{iA}(e^{iA})^{\dagger} &= \sum_{a} \sum_{b} e^{ia} e^{-ib} |a\rangle \langle a|b\rangle \langle b| = \sum_{a} \sum_{b} e^{ia} e^{-ib} |a\rangle \delta_{ab} \langle b| \\ &= \sum_{a} |a\rangle \langle a| = \mathbf{1}. \end{split}$$

Alternatively, given that we showed $(e^{iA})^{\dagger} = e^{-iA}$, we could just say that $e^{iA}(e^{iA})^{\dagger} = e^{iA}e^{-iA} = e^{0} = 1$, but we would have to specify that we can only combine the two exponentials naively because their arguments commute. $(e^{X}e^{Y} = e^{X+Y})$ is not true if $[X, Y] \neq 0$.)

2 I find it easiest to start with the right-hand side and work to the left-hand side of this equation. We can even use our friends the Taylor expansion and spectral decomposition again.

$$f(U^{-1}AU) = \sum_{n} c_n (U^{-1}AU)^n = \sum_{n} c_n U^{-1}AUU^{-1}AUU^{-1}AU \dots U^{-1}AU$$
$$= U^{-1}\sum_{n} c_n A^n U = U^{-1}f(A)U.$$

3 (a) Calculating $e^{i\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma}\phi}$ involves using the Taylor expansion of the exponential, which will necessitate calculating $(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})^2$. One way to do this is by brute force. If we let $\hat{n} = (n_x, n_y, n_z)$,

$$\hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} n_z & n_x - in_y \\ n_x + in_y & -n_z \end{pmatrix}$$
$$(\hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma})^2 = \begin{pmatrix} n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2 & 0 \\ 0 & n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

since \hat{n} is a unit vector. Thus, factors of $(\hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma})^n$ will simply alternate between the identity matrix and $\hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma}$.

The other way to do this is to cheat (sorta) and use the identity you prove in part (b).

$$(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})^2 = (\hat{n}\cdot\hat{n})\cdot\mathbf{1} + i\vec{\sigma}\cdot(\hat{n}\times\hat{n}) = \mathbf{1}$$

Either way,

$$\begin{aligned} e^{i(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})\phi} &= \mathbf{1} + i(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})\phi - \frac{1}{2}(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})^2\phi^2 - \frac{i}{3!}(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})^3\phi^3 + \dots \\ &= \mathbf{1} + i(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})\phi - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{1}\phi^2 - \frac{1}{3!}i(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})^3\phi^3 + \dots \\ &= \cos\phi\cdot\mathbf{1} + i(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})\sin\phi \end{aligned}$$

where the bold 1 signifies the 2x2 identity matrix.

(b) The quickest way to prove this identity is to use two identities that define the Pauli matrices:

$$[\sigma_i, \sigma_j] = \sum_k 2i\varepsilon_{ijk}\sigma_k \qquad \{\sigma_i, \sigma_j\} = 2\delta_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{1}.$$

Then,

$$(\vec{a} \cdot \vec{\sigma})(\vec{b} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) = \sum_{ij} a_i b_j \sigma_i \sigma_j = \sum_{ij} a_i b_j \left(\frac{1}{2} \{ \sigma_i, \sigma_j \} + \frac{1}{2} [\sigma_i, \sigma_j] \right)$$
$$= \sum_{ij} a_i b_j \left(\delta_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{1} + \sum_k i \varepsilon_{ijk} \sigma_k \right) = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} \cdot \mathbf{1} + i \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{a} \times \vec{b}.$$

4 (a) Again with the Taylor expansions:

$$\frac{de^{xB}}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \left(1 + xB + \frac{1}{2}x^2B^2 + \frac{1}{3!}x^3B^3 + \dots \right)$$
$$= B + xB^2 + \frac{1}{2}x^2B^3 + \dots = Be^{xB}.$$

Or, this can also be done with the definition of the derivative, extended to functions of operators:

$$\frac{de^{xB}}{dx} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} [e^{(x+\epsilon)B} - e^{xB}]$$
$$= e^{xB} \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} [e^{\epsilon B} - 1]$$
$$= e^{xB} \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left[\epsilon B + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 B^2 + \dots \right]$$
$$= B e^{xB}$$

but one must be careful to specify that you can split $e^{(x+\epsilon)B}$ into $e^{xB}e^{\epsilon B}$ only because xB and ϵB commute.

(b) This will require us to use the definition of the derivative, as well as a Taylor expansion of the operators A(x) and B(x):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dAB}{dx} &= \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} [A(x+\epsilon)B(x+\epsilon) - A(x)B(x)] \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \bigg[\bigg(A(x) + \epsilon \frac{dA(x)}{dx} + O(\epsilon^2) \bigg) \bigg(B(x) + \epsilon \frac{dB(x)}{dx} + O(\epsilon^2) \bigg) - A(x)B(x) \bigg] \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \bigg[A(x)B(x) + \epsilon \frac{dA(x)}{dx}B(x) + \epsilon A(x)\frac{dB(x)}{dx} + O(\epsilon^2) - A(x)B(x) \bigg] \\ &= A'B + AB'. \end{aligned}$$

(c) This relies on the identity in part (b). Since $AA^{-1} = 1$,

$$\frac{d}{dx}(AA^{-1}) = \frac{dA}{dx}A^{-1} + A\frac{dA^{-1}}{dx} = 0$$
$$\implies \frac{dA^{-1}}{dx} = -A^{-1}\frac{dA}{dx}A^{-1}.$$

5 Photon Filters

The linear polarizer can be represented by a matrix that picks out the component of the photon's state vector that is parallel to the axis rotated by α from the x-axis. In the x-y basis, it takes the x and y components of the input state vector, and spits out the x and y components of the output state vector. We can do this by rotating the state vector by $-\alpha$, picking out its x-component, and rotating the result back by α :

$$P_{\alpha}^{xy} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \\ -\sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \alpha & \sin \alpha \cos \alpha \\ \sin \alpha \cos \alpha & \sin^2 \alpha \end{pmatrix}.$$

What does the matrix look like if we have it take in and spit out R and L components instead? One way is to transform P_{α}^{xy} with the matrices that transform the components of the state vector. The prompt gives us the transformation for the basis states:

$$\begin{pmatrix} |R\rangle \\ |L\rangle \end{pmatrix} = U \ \begin{pmatrix} |x\rangle \\ |y\rangle \end{pmatrix} \qquad \qquad U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ 1 & -i \end{pmatrix}.$$

However, the components of the state vector will actually transform with U^* :

$$\begin{aligned} |\xi\rangle &= \begin{pmatrix} \xi_x & \xi_y \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} |x\rangle \\ |y\rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \xi_x & \xi_y \end{pmatrix} U^{\dagger} U \begin{pmatrix} |x\rangle \\ |y\rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \xi_R & \xi_L \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} |R\rangle \\ |L\rangle \end{pmatrix} \\ \implies \begin{pmatrix} \xi_R & \xi_L \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \xi_x & \xi_y \end{pmatrix} U^{\dagger} \\ \implies \begin{pmatrix} \xi_R \\ \xi_L \end{pmatrix} = U^* \begin{pmatrix} \xi_x \\ \xi_y \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

So, to transform P_{α} into a matrix that transforms between R-L components, we use the U^* matrix that transforms x-y components into R-L components, and its inverse U^T that transforms R-L components into x-y components:

$$\begin{split} P_{\alpha}^{RL} &= U^* \; P_{\alpha}^{xy} \; U^T \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ 1 & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \alpha & \sin \alpha \cos \alpha \\ \sin \alpha \cos \alpha & \sin^2 \alpha \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & e^{-2i\alpha} \\ e^{2i\alpha} & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \end{split}$$

Another way, which pretty much does the same thing but avoids the confusion over what matrix to use, involves playing with bras and kets. Notice that $P_{\alpha} = |\alpha\rangle\langle\alpha|$ where $|\alpha\rangle = \cos \alpha |x\rangle + \sin \alpha |y\rangle$ in the x-y basis. We can transform this to the R-L basis:

$$\begin{aligned} |\alpha\rangle &= \cos\alpha \; \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|R\rangle + |L\rangle) + \sin\alpha \; \frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}} (|R\rangle - |L\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (e^{-i\alpha} |R\rangle + e^{i\alpha} |L\rangle). \end{aligned}$$

Using this $|\alpha\rangle$, P_{α} gives the same result.

We can do a similar transformation from Q^{xy} to Q^{RL} to account for the behavior of the quarterwave plate.

$$Q^{xy} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix} \implies Q^{RL} = U^* \ Q^{xy} \ U^T = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1+i & 1-i \\ 1-i & 1+i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\pi/4} & e^{-i\pi/4} \\ e^{-i\pi/4} & e^{i\pi/4} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now let's consider the combination $QP_{\pi/4}Q$. Plugging and chugging,

$$(Q P_{\pi/4} Q)^{xy} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$(Q P_{\pi/4} Q)^{RL} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

So, we can summarize the effects of this system in a table:

Input	Output	Transmission probability = $ Output ^2$
$ x\rangle$	$\frac{1}{2} R\rangle$	$\frac{1}{2}$
y angle	$rac{i}{2} R angle$	$\frac{1}{2}$
$ R\rangle$	0	Ō
$ L\rangle$	R angle	1

This filter blocks right-circularly polarized light, and turns left-circularly polarized light into rightcircularly polarized light. Indeed, this fits with what we would expect $Q P_{\pi/4} Q$ to do. We've set the fast and slow axes of our quarter wave plates to be parallel to the x and y axes, so light linearly polarized parallel to the x and y axes will be unaffected by the first quarter-wave plate: the plate cannot induce a shift between two components if only one is present. Then, it is halved in intensity by the 45° linear polarizer, and turned into circularly-polarized light by the second quarter-wave plate. The first quarter-wave plate will also shift left-circularly polarized light into linearly polarized light parallel to the axis of the linear polarizer, while it shifts right-circularly polarized light into linearly polarized light perpendicular to that axis.

6 Sakurai 1.7

Since we can decompose any state into a linear combination of eigenstates of A, $|\alpha\rangle = \sum_{a} c_{a} |a\rangle$, let's consider these operators' effects on eigenstates first.

(a) For some eigenstate $|a\rangle$,

$$\prod_{a'} (A - a') |a\rangle = \prod_{a'} (a - a') |a\rangle$$

which equals 0 because of the term a' = a. Since this holds for all the eigenstates, the operator will return 0 for any state.

(b) For some eigenstate $|a\rangle$,

$$\prod_{a'' \neq a'} \frac{(A - a'')}{(a' - a'')} |a\rangle = \prod_{a'' \neq a'} \frac{(a - a'')}{(a' - a'')} |a\rangle$$

We have two possible cases: either a = a' and all the terms will be 1, or $a \neq a'$, and one term will have 0 in the numerator. So,

$$\prod_{a''\neq a'} \frac{(A-a'')}{(a'-a'')} = |a'\rangle\langle a'|,$$

is the projection operator. Note that this is only possible if the states are nondegenerate, because if two different states have the same eigenvalue, the product will have 0/0 for one of its terms.

(c) The null operator,

$$\prod_{a'} (S_z - a') = \left(S_z + \frac{\hbar}{2}\right) \left(S_z - \frac{\hbar}{2}\right),$$

will return 0 for either state.

The projection operator for $S_z \to -\frac{\hbar}{2}$,

$$\prod_{a'' \neq -\hbar/2} \frac{(S_z - a'')}{(-\frac{\hbar}{2} - a'')} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{S_z}{\hbar},$$

will return $|-\hbar/2\rangle$ when acting on $|-\hbar/2\rangle$ and 0 when acting on $|\hbar/2\rangle$.