

## PHYSICS 234 HOMEWORK 3 SOLUTIONS

**Q1.** First of all we assume  $\Omega$  is an  $n$  dimensional operator that can be diagonalized, or in other words there exist  $n$  eigenvectors  $|e_i\rangle$  whose  $j^{\text{th}}$  component is  $|e_i\rangle_j$  where  $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ . Now let us consider the matrix  $U$  formed from  $|e_i\rangle$  as the columns, so that

$$(1) \quad U_{ji} = |e_i\rangle_j.$$

The eigenvalue equation gives us

$$(2) \quad \Omega|e_i\rangle = e_i|e_i\rangle$$

$$(3) \quad \Rightarrow \sum_k \Omega_{jk}|e_i\rangle_k = e_i|e_i\rangle_j$$

$$(4) \quad \Rightarrow \sum_k \Omega_{jk}U_{ki} = e_iU_{ji}.$$

So now if we consider the equation

$$(5) \quad (U^\dagger \Omega U)_{ij} = \sum_{kl} U_{ik}^{-1} \Omega_{kl} U_{lj}$$

$$(6) \quad = \sum_k U_{ik}^{-1} e_j U_{kj}$$

$$(7) \quad = e_j \delta_{ij}$$

where in eqn. 6 we have used eqn. 4. So the matrix  $\Omega$  is diagonalized by  $U$  whose columns are made from  $\Omega$ 's eigenvectors using the usual similarity transformation  $U^{-1}\Omega U$ .

**Q2.** Using the same notation as we did in Q1. we have

$$(8) \quad U_{ij} = |v\rangle_i \langle u|_j = |v\rangle_i |u\rangle_j^*$$

and therefore the trace of  $U$  is

$$(9) \quad \text{Tr}(U) = \sum_i U_{ii} = \sum_i |v\rangle_i |u\rangle_i^* = \langle u|v\rangle$$

**Q3.** As  $H$  is a positive definite hermitian matrix its eigenvalues  $h_i \geq 0$  for all  $i$ . Now the trace of any matrix is invariant under a similarity transformations and therefore from the diagonal form  $\text{Tr}(H) = \sum_i h_i$  which has to be greater than 0.

**Q4.**

a). To impose a vector space structure on  $V = \{\text{Set of all complex } n \times n \text{ matrices}\}$  we need to define the operations of addition and scalar multiplication. For this space the obvious operations are the usual matrix addition and scalar multiplication in which each component is multiplied by the scalar. With these definitions the zero vector is the zero matrix and the additive inverse of say a vector  $U_{ij}$  is  $-U_{ij}$ . There are a total of  $n$  rows and  $n$  columns so the total number of independent elements is  $n^2$ .

b). We have two matrices  $A$  and  $B$  and if the inner product is defined as

$$(10) \quad \langle A|B \rangle = \text{Tr}(A^\dagger B) = \sum_{ij} A_{ij}^* B_{ij}.$$

So the first condition is satisfied because

$$(11) \quad \langle A|B \rangle = \text{Tr}(A^\dagger B)$$

$$(12) \quad = \sum_{ij} A_{ij}^* B_{ij}$$

$$(13) \quad = \left( \sum_{ij} B_{ij}^* A_{ij} \right)^* = \langle B|A \rangle^*,$$

the second condition is satisfied as

$$(14) \quad \langle A|A \rangle = \text{Tr}(A^\dagger A) = \sum_{ij} |A_{ij}|^2 \geq 0$$

and the third condition is true just because of the trace being distributive.

c). For  $n = 2$  a general state is

$$(15) \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} a + ib & c + id \\ e + if & g + ih \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{(a + g) + i(b + h)}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{(a - g) + i(b - h)}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} +$$

$$(16) \quad \frac{(c + e) + i(f + d)}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{(f - d) + i(c - e)}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(17) \quad = \frac{(a + g) + i(b + h)}{2} 1 + \frac{(a - g) + i(b - h)}{2} \sigma_x +$$

$$(18) \quad \frac{(c + e) + i(f + d)}{2} \sigma_y + \frac{(f - d) + i(c - e)}{2} \sigma_z.$$

Therefore every  $2 \times 2$  complex matrix can be expressed as a linear superposition of the  $\{1, \sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z\}$ . So they form a basis as they clearly linearly independent.

d). We have

$$(19) \quad \sigma_x \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} = i \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = i \sigma_z$$

$$(20) \quad \sigma_y \sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = i \sigma_x$$

$$(21) \quad \sigma_z \sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} = i \sigma_y$$

so we find that  $\sigma_\alpha \sigma_\beta = i \sigma_\gamma$ . As if we switch the order of operators we get a negative sign, so  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  must be order cyclically.

**Q5.** Since  $U$  is a  $3 \times 3$  orthogonal matrix it has a cubic characteristic equation with real coefficients. From the fundamental theorem of algebra there must be three roots, one of which is real and the other two are complex conjugates of each other.

**Q6.**

a. We know that  $\sigma_y^2 = 1$  where 1 is the identity matrix, so have that

$$(22) \quad (i\sigma_y\theta)^{2n} = (-1)^n \theta^{2n}$$

$$(23) \quad (i\sigma_y\theta)^{2n+1} = i(-1)^n \sigma_y \theta^{2n+1}.$$

Therefore

$$(24) \quad e^{i\sigma_y\theta} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\sigma_y\theta)^n}{n!}$$

$$(25) \quad = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\sigma_y\theta)^{2n}}{2n!} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\sigma_y\theta)^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

$$(26) \quad = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\theta)^{2n}}{2n!} + i\sigma_y \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\theta)^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

$$(27) \quad = \cos \theta + i\sigma_y \sin \theta$$

b. As the a unitary matrix  $U$  must leave the norm of a vector invariant. So the eigenvalues of a unitary matrix must have the form  $e^{i\theta_i}$ , where  $i$  enumerates the different eigenvalues. Therefore if we diagonalize  $U$  by the similarity transformation  $V^\dagger U V$  we have  $e^{i\theta_j}$  along diagonal. So if we choose the hermitian operator to be  $H_{ij} = \theta_i \delta_{ij}$  then clearly in the new basis  $U = e^{iH}$ . So in the old basis if we find  $U = e^{V H V^\dagger}$ . So every unitary matrix can be write as the exponential of a hermitian operator. The second part of question we did on HW2.

### Q7.

1. As  $L_z$  is diagonal we are in the  $L_z$  basis and the eigenvalues of  $L_z = 1, 0, -1$  are the physically measurable values.

2. As  $L_z = 1$  state is

$$(28) \quad |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

So the expectation values of  $L_x, L_x^2$  are

$$(29) \quad \langle L_x \rangle = (1, 0, 0) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$(30) \quad \langle L_x^2 \rangle = (1, 0, 0) \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Therefore we have

$$(31) \quad \Delta L_x = \sqrt{\langle L_x^2 \rangle - \langle L_x \rangle^2}$$

$$(32) \quad = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

3. We have the characteristic equation of  $L_x$

$$(33) \quad \omega(1 - \omega^2) = 0$$

so the eigenvalues of  $L_x$  are  $1, 0, -1$ . The eigenvector for  $L_x = 1$  we find by

$$(34) \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -\sqrt{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -\sqrt{2} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$(35) \quad \Rightarrow a = \frac{b}{\sqrt{2}} = c$$

$$(36) \quad \Rightarrow |L_x = 1\rangle = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Similarly we have

$$(37) \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & \sqrt{2} & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$(38) \quad \Rightarrow a = -\frac{b}{\sqrt{2}} = c$$

$$(39) \quad \Rightarrow |L_x = -1\rangle = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -\sqrt{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(40)

and

$$(41) \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$(42) \quad \Rightarrow a = -c$$

$$(43) \quad \Rightarrow b = 0$$

$$(44) \quad \Rightarrow |L_x = 0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

4. Clearly the only possible values of  $L_x$  are  $1, 0, -1$  and to find the probabilities we expand  $|L_z = -1\rangle$  in the  $L_x$  basis to find

$$(45) \quad |L_z = -1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(46) \quad = \frac{1}{2} (|L_x = 1\rangle + |L_x = -1\rangle) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |L_x = 0\rangle$$

So the probabilities are  $P(L_x = 1) = \frac{1}{4} = P(L_x = -1)$  and  $P(L_x = 0) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

5. We have the initial state is

$$(47) \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

and a measurement of  $L_z^2$  is performed to find that it is 1. Now using the idea on p. 124 of Shankar we have

$$(48) \quad |\psi\rangle \rightarrow \frac{\mathcal{P}|\psi\rangle}{\langle\mathcal{P}\psi|\mathcal{P}\psi\rangle}$$

where  $\mathcal{P}$  is the projection operator. For the  $L_z^2 = 1$  the projection operator has two pieces due to  $L_z = \pm 1$ . So we have

$$(49) \quad \mathcal{P} = |1\rangle\langle 1| + |-1\rangle\langle -1|$$

$$(50) \quad = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

So we find that

$$(51) \quad \mathcal{P}|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(52) \quad = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 \\ 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

So the state after measurement is then

$$(53) \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

The probability that  $L_z^2 = 1$  is  $3/4$ , now if  $L_z$  was measured we would find that  $P(L_z = 1) = 1/4$ ,  $P(L_z = -1) = 1/4$ ,  $P(L_z = 0) = 0$

6. We have that

$$(54) \quad |\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\delta_1} \\ \sqrt{2}e^{i\delta_2} \\ e^{i\delta_3} \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore the probability of being in the  $L_x = 0$  state is

$$(55) \quad |\langle L_x = 0 | \psi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{8} |e^{i\delta_1} - e^{i\delta_3}|^2$$

$$(56) \quad = \frac{1}{4} (1 - \cos(\delta_3 - \delta_1)).$$

So clearly the the probabilities depend on the relative phases. The overall phase is physically unimportant, but the relative phases have physical significance.