

Lecture 4Part 1

There are certain matrices that are extremely important in quantum mechanics.

We already know about Hermitian matrices.

E.g. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$A^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues:

$$\begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & i \\ -i & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 1, -1 \quad (\text{real})$$

Unitary matrices matrix

If the matrix U satisfies $U^\dagger = U^{-1}$ then U is called a unitary matrix.

Example

$$U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|U| = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

$$U^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$U^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj } U}{|U|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix} \left[\begin{aligned} \text{adj } U &= (U^c)^T \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix}^T \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \right]$$

Orthogonal matrix

If $A^T = A^{-1}$ or $AA^T = I$, A is called an orthogonal matrix.

Example

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$AA^T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = I$$

Normal matrix

A matrix A is normal if it satisfies

$$AA^\dagger = A^\dagger A$$

Theorem: Let A be a normal matrix. Then its eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.

Proof

$$A |\lambda_i\rangle = \lambda_i |\lambda_i\rangle$$
$$\Rightarrow (A - \lambda_i) |\lambda_i\rangle = 0$$

$$\sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_y^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_y \sigma_y^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_y^\dagger \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Spectral decomposition of a normal matrix is quite a powerful technique in several applications.

Let A be a normal matrix with eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}$ and eigenvectors $\{|\lambda_i\rangle\}$ which are assumed to be orthonormal. Then A is decomposed as:

$$A = \sum_i \lambda_i |\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i|$$

which is called the spectral decomposition of A .

Proof

We know, $I = \sum_{i=1}^n |\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i|$

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \sum_{i=1}^n A |\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i| \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i| \end{aligned}$$

Proved

$P_i = |\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i|$ is called the projection operator in the direction of λ_i .

Thus,

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i P_i$$

Show that
 $AP_i = \lambda_i P_i$

$$\begin{aligned} AP_j &= \sum_i (\lambda_i P_i) P_j = \sum_i \lambda_i (|\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i|) (|\lambda_j\rangle \langle \lambda_j|) \\ &= \sum_i \lambda_i |\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle \langle \lambda_j| \\ &= \sum_i \lambda_i |\lambda_i\rangle \delta_{ij} \langle \lambda_j| \\ &= \lambda_j P_j \end{aligned}$$

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Show that if A is a normal matrix
then for an arbitrary $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$A^n = \sum_i \lambda_i^n P_i$$

Proof

$$\begin{aligned} \cancel{A^n P_i} &= \cancel{A^{n-1} A P_i} \\ &= \cancel{\lambda_i A^{n-1} P_i} \end{aligned}$$

$$A P_i = \lambda_i P_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^n P_i &= A^{n-1} A P_i = \lambda_i A^{n-1} P_i \\ &= \lambda_i^2 A^{n-2} P_i \\ &= \lambda_i^n P_i \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} A^n &= A^n \sum_i P_i = \sum_i A^n P_i \\ \Rightarrow \boxed{A^n &= \sum_i \lambda_i^n P_i} \end{aligned}$$

Examples

Find the spectral decomposition of $\sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Solution

Eigenvalues of $\sigma_y = 1, -1$

Eigenvector corresponding to $\lambda_1 = 1$

$$|\lambda_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}$$

Similarly, for $\lambda_2 = -1$

$$|\lambda_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \cancel{\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ \Rightarrow -iy_2 = y_1 \\ \Rightarrow y_2 = iy_1 \\ \gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} \end{array} \right.$$

Thus,

$$P_1 = |\lambda_1\rangle \langle \lambda_1| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1 \quad -i)$$

$$P_2 = |\lambda_2\rangle \langle \lambda_2| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-i \quad 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow P_1 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P_2 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus,

$$\cancel{\sigma_y} = \cancel{\frac{1}{2}} \cancel{P_1 \lambda}$$

$$\sigma_y = \lambda_1 P_1 + \lambda_2 P_2$$

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

Show that

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$$e^{i\alpha \sigma_y} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \\ -\sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} e^{i\alpha \sigma_y} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\alpha \sigma_y)^k}{k!} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\alpha)^k}{k!} (\sigma_y)^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\alpha)^k}{k!} \left[\lambda_1^k P_1 + \lambda_2^k P_2 \right] \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\alpha)^k}{k!} \left[P_1 + (-1)^k P_2 \right] \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\alpha)^k}{k!} P_1 + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-i\alpha)^k}{k!} P_2 \\ &= e^{i\alpha} P_1 + e^{-i\alpha} P_2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} e^{i\alpha} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} e^{-i\alpha} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{e^{i\alpha} + e^{-i\alpha}}{2} & -i \frac{e^{i\alpha} - e^{-i\alpha}}{2} \\ i \frac{e^{i\alpha} - e^{-i\alpha}}{2} & \frac{e^{i\alpha} + e^{-i\alpha}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \\ -\sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Pauli matrices

These are very important class of matrices for us!
Any 2×2 matrix could be written or expressed in terms of Pauli matrices and the unit matrix.

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

Prove that

$$e^{i\alpha \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma}} = \cos \alpha I + i (\hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) \sin \alpha$$

where $\vec{\sigma} = (\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z)$, \hat{n} is a unit vector and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

Proof

$$\vec{n} = n_x \hat{x} + n_y \hat{y} + n_z \hat{z}$$

Say, $A = \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} = n_x \sigma_x + n_y \sigma_y + n_z \sigma_z$

$$\Rightarrow A = \begin{pmatrix} n_z & n_x - in_y \\ n_x + in_y & -n_z \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenvalues of A are $\pm \sqrt{n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2} = \pm 1$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 1, \quad \lambda_2 = -1$$

$$P_1 = |\lambda_1\rangle \langle \lambda_1| = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} n_z + 1 & n_x - in_y \\ n_x + in_y & 1 - n_z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P_2 = |\lambda_2\rangle \langle \lambda_2| = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 - n_z & -n_x + in_y \\ -n_x - in_y & 1 + n_z \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus,
$$e^{i\alpha A} = \sum \frac{(i\alpha A)^k}{k!} = \sum \frac{(i\alpha)^k}{k!} (\lambda_1^k P_1 + \lambda_2^k P_2)$$

$$= \cos \alpha I + i (\hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) \sin \alpha$$