Homework 2

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1 Polarization of electromagnetic field

1.1 The general form of a pure state

We have (assuming $\hat{k} = \hat{z}$)

$$\boldsymbol{E} = E_x \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + E_y \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \sqrt{|E_x|^2 + |E_y|^2} e^{i\varphi_x} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{|E_x|}{\sqrt{|E_x|^2 + |E_y|^2}} \\ e^{i(\varphi_y - \varphi_x)} \frac{|E_y|}{\sqrt{|E_x|^2 + |E_y|^2}} \end{pmatrix},$$

and by defining

$$E_0 = \sqrt{|E_x|^2 + |E_y|^2} e^{i\varphi_x}, \tag{1}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{|E_x|}{\sqrt{|E_x|^2 + |E_y|^2}},\tag{2}$$

and

$$\phi = \varphi_y - \varphi_x,\tag{3}$$

we find

$$\mathbf{E} = E_0 \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta \\ e^{i\phi} \sin \theta \end{pmatrix}. \tag{4}$$

We have

$$|H\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |V\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix}, \tag{5}$$

and therefore after normalization, we have

$$\rho = (\cos\theta | H) + e^{i\phi} \sin\theta | V)(\cos\theta \langle H| + e^{-i\phi} \sin\theta \langle V|) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2\theta & e^{-i\phi} \sin\theta \cos\theta \\ e^{i\phi} \sin\theta \cos\theta & \sin^2\theta \end{pmatrix}.$$
(6)

1.2 The pure state $\rho^2 = \rho$ condition

We can prove the pure state condition $\rho^2 = \rho$ explicitly:

$$\rho^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^{4}\theta + \sin^{2}\theta \cos^{2}\theta & e^{-i\phi}\sin\theta\cos^{3}\theta + e^{-i\phi}\sin^{3}\theta\cos\theta \\ e^{i\phi}\sin\theta\cos^{3}\theta + e^{i\phi}\sin^{3}\theta\cos\theta & \sin^{2}\theta\cos^{2}\theta + \sin^{4}\theta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \cos^{2}\theta & e^{-i\phi}\sin\theta\cos\theta \\ e^{i\phi}\sin\theta\cos\theta & \sin^{2}\theta \end{pmatrix} = \rho.$$
(7)

1.3 Mixed state

The condition that ρ is Hermite means it can be written as

$$\rho = R(\sigma^0 + x\sigma^x + y\sigma^y + z\sigma^z),$$

where $R, x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$, because the σ matrices constitute a basis for all Hermite matrices in $\mathbb{C}^{2\times 2}$. Since $\sigma^{x,y,z}$ are traceless, from the condition $\operatorname{tr} \rho = 1$, we have

$$1 = \operatorname{tr} \rho = R \operatorname{tr} \sigma^0 = 2R \Rightarrow R = \frac{1}{2},$$

SO

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma^0 + x\sigma^x + y\sigma^y + z\sigma^z). \tag{8}$$

In the matrix form, we have

$$\rho = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1+z}{2} & \frac{x-\mathrm{i}y}{2} \\ \frac{x+\mathrm{i}y}{2} & \frac{1-z}{2} \end{pmatrix},$$

and by substitution of variables (this is a three variables to three variables mapping, and therefore is valid)

$$\frac{1}{2}(1-p) + p\cos^2\theta = \frac{1+z}{2}, \quad x = p\cos\phi\sin2\theta, \quad y = p\sin\phi\sin2\theta,$$

we get

$$\frac{1-z}{2} = \frac{1}{2}(1-p) + p\sin^2\theta,$$

and therefore

$$\rho = (1 - p) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \\ & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} + p \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta & e^{-i\phi} \sin \theta \cos \theta \\ e^{i\phi} \sin \theta \cos \theta & \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (9)

1.4 Jones parameters and Stokes formalism

The definition of Stokes parameters are

$$I = \langle E_x^2 \rangle + \langle E_y^2 \rangle,$$

$$Q = \langle E_x^2 \rangle - \langle E_y^2 \rangle,$$

$$U = \langle E_a^2 \rangle - \langle E_b^2 \rangle,$$

$$V = \langle E_l^2 \rangle - \langle E_r^2 \rangle,$$
(10)

where

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{a}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} + \hat{\boldsymbol{y}}), \quad \hat{\boldsymbol{b}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} - \hat{\boldsymbol{y}}), \tag{11}$$

and

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{l}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} + i\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}), \quad \hat{\boldsymbol{r}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} - i\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}).$$
 (12)

Note that $E_{x,y}$ etc. above may be regarded as operators, and we have

$$E_x^2 + E_y^2 = \sigma^0,$$

$$E_x^2 - E_y^2 = \sigma^z,$$

$$E_a^2 - E_b^2 = \sigma^x,$$

$$E_l^2 - E_r^2 = \sigma^y.$$
(13)

From these definitions and the fact that $(\sigma^i)^2 = \sigma^0$ and all other products of σ matrices are traceless, we find

$$I = \langle \sigma^0 \rangle = 1,\tag{14}$$

$$Q = \langle \sigma^z \rangle = \frac{1}{2} z \cdot 2 = 2p \cos^2 \theta - p = p \cos 2\theta, \tag{15}$$

$$U = \frac{1}{2}x \cdot 2 = p\cos\phi\sin 2\theta,\tag{16}$$

and

$$V = \frac{1}{2}y \cdot 2 = p\sin\phi\sin 2\theta. \tag{17}$$

Here I is constantly 1, because we are working with the single-photon density matrix.

1.5 Mueller calculus

As is shown above, Mueller calculus actually works on the coefficients in (8), and therefore a Mueller matrix essentially gives the coefficients of $\rho \to U \rho U^{\dagger}$. It makes sense as long as after its application, the σ^0 component in ρ is still 1/2.

1.6 Transformation and measurement

We have

$$|45\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\text{rcp}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\-i \end{pmatrix}.$$
(18)

The correspond density matrices are

$$\rho_{45} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix},\tag{19}$$

and

$$\rho_{\rm rcp} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{20}$$

The operator

$$U_{\rm rcp} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & -i \end{pmatrix} \tag{21}$$

then turns ρ_{45} to $\rho_{\rm rcp}$:

$$U_{\rm rcp}\rho_{45}U_{\rm rcp}^{\dagger} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & -\mathrm{i} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & \mathrm{i} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \mathrm{i} \\ -\mathrm{i} & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \rho_{\rm rcp}. \tag{22}$$

The horizontal polarizer operator

$$\mathcal{O} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \tag{23}$$

is not unitary, because it has non-unitary eigenvalue 0. It is a projection operator: it takes in a beam polarized light and returns its x component. It also represents a measurement: we can use it in a projective measurement setting. In a projective measurement with operator \mathcal{O} , $\operatorname{tr}(\rho\mathcal{O})$ is the probability that after measurement, the final state of the system falls into the subspace determined by \mathcal{O} . In our case, the subspace determined by \mathcal{O} is the subspace of horizontal polarization, so $\operatorname{tr}(\rho\mathcal{O})$ is the probability that after measurement, we find ρ to be a horizontally polarized state.

Application of \mathcal{O} on (9) is

$$\mathcal{O}\rho\mathcal{O}^{\dagger} = (1-p)\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0\\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + p\begin{pmatrix} \cos^2\theta & 0\\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} + \frac{p}{2}\cos 2\theta \end{pmatrix}\mathcal{O}.$$
 (24)

So after the application of \mathcal{O} , we get a horizontally polarized state, as is expected. The result is not normalized; the factor before \mathcal{O} is just $\operatorname{tr}(\rho\mathcal{O})$, which is the probability that after measurement, we find ρ to be horizontally polarized. When p=0, it's 1/2, which is expected for the unpolarized state; when p=1, it's $\cos^2\theta$, again the correct answer.

2 The $\rho^2 = \rho$ condition for pure states

Suppose

$$\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|, \quad |\psi\rangle = \sum_{m} a_{m} |m\rangle.$$
 (25)

We have

$$\rho^{2} = \sum_{m,n} a_{m}^{*} a_{n} |n\rangle \langle m| \sum_{j,k} a_{j}^{*} a_{k} |k\rangle \langle j|$$

$$= \sum_{m,n,j,k} a_{m}^{*} a_{n} a_{j}^{*} |n\rangle \langle m|k\rangle \langle j|$$

$$= \sum_{m,n,j,k} a_{m}^{*} a_{n} a_{j}^{*} a_{k} |n\rangle \langle j| \delta_{mk}$$

$$= \sum_{m} a_{m}^{*} a_{m} \sum_{n,j} a_{n} a_{j}^{*} |n\rangle \langle j|$$

$$= \sum_{n,j} a_{n} a_{j}^{*} |n\rangle \langle j| = \rho.$$
(26)

3 Ammonia molecule

The Hamiltonian of the two low-energy states of ammonia is

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \Delta/2 \\ \Delta/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix},\tag{27}$$

where we set

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

This Hamiltonian is just a scaled σ^x matrix, and its eigenstates are straightforwardly given by

$$|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|L\rangle + |R\rangle), \quad |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|L\rangle - |R\rangle),$$
 (29)

and the energies are

$$E_{+} = \Delta/2, \quad E_{-} = -\Delta/2.$$
 (30)

After an electric field is added, in $|L\rangle$ we have an additional energy contribution, and since the molecular configuration in $|R\rangle$ is the opposite of the one in $|L\rangle$, we have

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} dE/2 & \Delta/2 \\ \Delta/2 & -dE/2 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{31}$$

Solving

$$\det\begin{pmatrix} dE/2 - \lambda & \Delta/2 \\ \Delta/2 & -dE/2 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0,$$

we get

$$E_{\pm} = \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\Delta^2 + d^2 E^2},\tag{32}$$

and hence

$$|-\rangle = \frac{dE - \sqrt{d^2 E^2 + \Delta^2}}{\sqrt{\Delta^2 + (\sqrt{d^2 E^2 + \Delta^2} - dE)^2}} |L\rangle + \frac{\Delta}{\sqrt{\Delta^2 + (\sqrt{d^2 E^2 + \Delta^2} - dE)^2}} |R\rangle, \quad (33)$$

and

$$|+\rangle = \frac{dE + \sqrt{d^2 E^2 + \Delta^2}}{\sqrt{\Delta^2 + (\sqrt{d^2 E^2 + \Delta^2} + dE)^2}} |L\rangle + \frac{\Delta}{\sqrt{\Delta^2 + (\sqrt{d^2 E^2 + \Delta^2} + dE)^2}} |R\rangle.$$
 (34)

When E is large, we have

$$\begin{split} dE - \sqrt{d^2 E^2 + \Delta^2} &\approx 0, \\ dE + \sqrt{d^2 E^2 + \Delta^2} &\approx 2 dE, \end{split}$$

and therefore

$$E_{+} = \frac{1}{2}dE, \quad |+\rangle = |L\rangle,$$
 (35)

and

$$E_{-} = -\frac{1}{2}dE, \quad |-\rangle = |R\rangle. \tag{36}$$

This is expected, because when $Ed \gg \Delta$, the non-diagonal terms in the Hamiltonian can be safely ignored.

4 Kaptiza's pendulum

4.1 Integrating out the fast variable

In the $\omega \to \infty$, $F_0 \to 0$ limit, the high-frequency part and the low-frequency part of the solution of

$$mR\ddot{\theta} = (-mg + F_0 \sin \omega t) \sin \theta \tag{37}$$

are not strongly coupled and the high-frequency degree of freedom can be integrated out to get an effective theory of the low-frequency part. We do the decomposition

$$\theta = \theta_f + \theta_s, \tag{38}$$

where θ_f is the fast variable. Observing (37), we find the EOM of θ_f should be

$$mR\ddot{\theta}_f = F_0 \sin \omega t \sin(\theta_f + \theta_s), \tag{39}$$

because the first term on the RHS of (37) has a much lower frequency magnitude compared with ω . We take the first order approximation of (39) and ignore the θ_f dependency on the RHS, and this gives

$$\theta_f = -\frac{F_0}{mR\omega^2}\sin\theta_s\sin\omega t. \tag{40}$$

Putting this back to (37), we get

$$mR\left(\frac{F_0}{mR}\sin\theta_s\sin\omega t + \ddot{\theta}_s\right) = (-mg + F_0\sin\omega t)\sin\left(\theta_s - \frac{F_0}{mR\omega^2}\sin\theta_s\sin\omega t\right)$$
$$= (-mg + F_0\sin\omega t)\left(\sin\theta_s - \cos\theta_s \cdot \frac{F_0}{mR\omega^2}\sin\theta_s\sin\omega t\right).$$

Now we average over all high-frequency time dependencies. The first term on the LHS averages zero, and so do the $-mg\sin\omega t$ term and the $F_0\sin\omega t\sin\theta_s$ term on the RHS. On the other hand, the $\sin^2\omega t$ term on the RHS averages

$$-\frac{F_0^2}{mR\omega^2}\sin\theta_s\cos\theta_s\left\langle\sin^2\omega t\right\rangle = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{F_0^2}{mR\omega^2}\sin\theta_s\cos\theta_s,$$

so the final EOM for θ_s is

$$mR\ddot{\theta}_s = -mg\sin\theta_s - \frac{1}{2}\frac{F_0^2}{mR\omega^2}\sin\theta_s\cos\theta_s. \tag{41}$$

4.2 Stable positions of θ_s

We let the LHS of (41) be zero, and the equation becomes

$$\sin \theta_s \left(mg + \frac{1}{2} \frac{F_0^2}{mR\omega^2} \cos \theta_s \right) = 0.$$

Since $F_0 \to 0$, the second factor on the LHS can't be zero, so the equation becomes

$$\sin \theta_s = 0 \Rightarrow \theta_s = 0, \pi. \tag{42}$$

Around $\theta_s = 0$, (41) is approximately

$$mR\ddot{\theta}_s = -mg\theta_s - \frac{1}{2} \frac{F_0^2}{mR\omega^2} \theta_s,$$

and therefore

$$\omega_{\theta=0} = \sqrt{\frac{g}{R} + \frac{F_0^2}{m^2 R^2 \omega^2}}. (43)$$

This is always real, and therefore the $\theta_s=0$ position is always stable.

Around $\theta_s = \pi$, we rewrite (41) in terms of $\theta'_s = \pi - \theta_s$, and get

$$-mR\ddot{\theta}'_{s} = mg\theta'_{s} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{F_{0}^{2}}{mR\omega^{2}} \theta'_{s} = 0,$$

and

$$\omega_{\theta_s = \pi} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \frac{F_0^2}{m^2 R^2 \omega^2} - \frac{g}{R}}.$$
 (44)

It can be seen that when $F_0 = 0$, the frequency is imaginary and therefore $\theta_s = \pi$ is not a stable position. However, when

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{F_0^2}{m^2 R^2 \omega^2} \ge \frac{g}{R},\tag{45}$$

we do have oscillation behavior around $\theta_s = \pi$.

5 Relaxation of a spin polarization due to an electric field

5.1 The spin-magnetic field coupling

We have

$$H = -\boldsymbol{\mu} \cdot \boldsymbol{B}, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu} = -g\mu_{\rm B}\boldsymbol{S},\tag{46}$$

and this means

$$H = \frac{1}{2}g\mu_{\rm B}\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \boldsymbol{B}.\tag{47}$$

This gives

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{S}}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{g\mu_{\mathrm{B}}}{\hbar}\boldsymbol{B} \times \boldsymbol{S}.\tag{48}$$

When B is fixed (instead of the motion magnetic field in (55)), we find the oscillation frequency is

$$\omega = \frac{g\mu_{\rm B}}{\hbar}B,\tag{49}$$

and therefore

$$\gamma = \frac{g\mu_{\rm B}}{\hbar}.\tag{50}$$

5.2 The σ_{\pm} representation

We define

$$\sigma_{\pm} = \frac{\sigma_x \pm i\sigma_y}{2},\tag{51}$$

and the commutation relations are

$$[\sigma_+, \sigma_-] = \sigma_z, \quad [\sigma^z, \sigma_{\pm}] = \pm 2\sigma_{\pm}. \tag{52}$$

The Hamiltonian is then

$$H = b^* \sigma_+ + b\sigma_- + b_z \sigma_z, \tag{53}$$

where

$$b = \frac{1}{2}g\mu_{\rm B}(B_x + iB_y), \quad b_z = \frac{1}{2}g\mu_{\rm B}B_z.$$
 (54)

5.3 Eliminating the static magnetic field

The magnetic field felt by an electron wit velocity v when an electric field E is present is

$$\boldsymbol{B}_1 = -\boldsymbol{v} \times \boldsymbol{E}/c^2. \tag{55}$$

We also have a static magnetic field B_0 pointing towards \hat{z} . Here we assume B_0 and the motion magnetic field are orthogonal to each other, and this means the Hamiltonian is

$$H = b^* \sigma_+ + b\sigma_- + \frac{1}{2}\hbar \gamma B_0 = b^* \sigma_+ + b\sigma_- + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega_0\sigma_z}_{H_0}.$$
 (56)

The time evolution corresponding to that ω_0 term is trivial, and using the interaction picture we can get rid of it. We have

$$e^{iH_0t/\hbar} = \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\omega_0t/2} & & \\ & e^{-i\omega_0t/2} \end{pmatrix}. \tag{57}$$

The new Hamiltonian is now

$$H = e^{iH_0t/\hbar} (b^* \sigma_+ + b\sigma_-) e^{-iH_0t/\hbar}$$

= $e^{i\omega_0 t} b^* \sigma_+ + e^{-i\omega_0 t} b\sigma_-.$ (58)

We will work with this Hamiltonian later.

5.4 Time evolution

Now we use

$$\frac{\partial \rho(t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{\hbar^2} \int_0^t dt' \left[H(t), \left[H(t'), \rho(t) \right] \right] = -\frac{1}{\hbar^2} \int_0^t dt' \left[H(t), \left[H(t - t'), \rho(t) \right] \right]$$
 (59)

to find the time evolution of ρ , considering only second-order correlation in the random variable in H. We again do decomposition

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_0 + \rho_+ \sigma_+ + \rho_- \sigma_- + \rho_z \sigma_z, \tag{60}$$

and we have (here b' and b'^* are values taken at t - t')

$$[H(t-t'),\rho(t)] = -\rho_{+} \mathrm{e}^{-\mathrm{i}\omega_{0}(t-t')}b'\sigma_{z} + \rho_{-}\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}\omega_{0}(t-t')}b'^{*}\sigma_{z} - 2\rho_{z}\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}\omega_{0}(t-t')}b'^{*}\sigma_{+} + 2\rho_{z}\mathrm{e}^{-\mathrm{i}\omega_{0}(t-t')}b'\sigma_{-},$$

and by component, we get

$$\dot{\rho}_{+} = -\frac{1}{\hbar^{2}} \int_{0}^{t} dt' \left(2\rho_{+} e^{i\omega_{0}t'} b' b^{*} - 2\rho_{-} e^{2i\omega_{0}t - i\omega_{0}t'} b^{*} b'^{*} \right), \tag{61}$$

$$\dot{\rho}_{-} = -\frac{1}{\hbar^{2}} \int_{0}^{t} dt' \left(2\rho_{-} e^{-i\omega_{0}t'} bb'^{*} - 2\rho_{+} e^{-2i\omega_{0}t + i\omega_{0}t'} bb' \right), \tag{62}$$

and

$$\dot{\rho}_z = -\frac{1}{\hbar^2} \int_0^t dt' \left(2\rho_z e^{-i\omega_0 t'} bb'^* + 2\rho_z e^{i\omega_0 t'} b^* b' \right). \tag{63}$$