

Homework 2

Jinyuan Wu

February 19, 2023

1 Polarization of electromagnetic field

1.1 The general form of a pure state

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

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

and by defining

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

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

and

$$\phi = \varphi_y - \varphi_x, \quad (3)$$

we find

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

We have

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

and therefore after normalization, we have

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^2 &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos^4 \theta + \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta & e^{-i\phi} \sin \theta \cos^3 \theta + e^{-i\phi} \sin^3 \theta \cos \theta \\ e^{i\phi} \sin \theta \cos^3 \theta + e^{i\phi} \sin^3 \theta \cos \theta & \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \theta + \sin^4 \theta \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta & e^{-i\phi} \sin \theta \cos \theta \\ e^{i\phi} \sin \theta \cos \theta & \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix} = \rho. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

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 $\text{tr } \rho = 1$, we have

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

so

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

In the matrix form, we have

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

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

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

we get

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

and therefore

$$\rho = (1-p) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \\ & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} + p \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta & e^{-i\phi} \sin \theta \cos \theta \\ e^{i\phi} \sin \theta \cos \theta & \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}. \quad (8)$$

1.4 Jones parameters and Stokes formalism

1.5 Transformation and measurement

We have

$$\begin{aligned} |45\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ |\text{rcp}\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

The correspond density matrices are

$$\rho_{45} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (10)$$

and

$$\rho_{\text{rcp}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (11)$$

The operator

$$U_{\text{rcp}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & -i \end{pmatrix} \quad (12)$$

then turns ρ_{45} to ρ_{rcp} :

$$U_{\text{rcp}} \rho_{45} U_{\text{rcp}}^\dagger = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & -i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \rho_{\text{rcp}}. \quad (13)$$

The horizontal polarizer operator

$$\mathcal{O} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (14)$$

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} , $\text{tr}(\rho\mathcal{O})$ 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 $\text{tr}(\rho\mathcal{O})$ is the probability that after measurement, we find ρ to be a horizontally polarized state.

Application of \mathcal{O} on (8) is

$$\mathcal{O}\rho\mathcal{O}^\dagger = (1-p) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + p \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{p}{2} \cos 2\theta \right) \mathcal{O}. \quad (15)$$

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 $\text{tr}(\rho\mathcal{O})$, 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

$$\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|, \quad |\psi\rangle = \sum_m a_m |m\rangle. \quad (16)$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^2 &= \sum_{m,n} a_m^* a_n |n\rangle \langle m| \sum_{j,k} a_j^* a_k |k\rangle \langle j| \\ &= \sum_{m,n,j,k} a_m^* a_n a_j^* |n\rangle \langle m|k\rangle \langle j| \\ &= \sum_{m,n,j,k} a_m^* a_n a_j^* a_k |n\rangle \langle j| \delta_{mk} \\ &= \sum_m \underbrace{a_m^* a_m}_{=\langle\psi|\psi\rangle=1} \sum_{n,j} a_n a_j^* |n\rangle \langle j| \\ &= \sum_{n,j} a_n a_j^* |n\rangle \langle j| = \rho. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

3 Ammonia molecule

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

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \Delta/2 \\ \Delta/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (18)$$

where we set

$$|L\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |R\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (19)$$

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

$$|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|L\rangle + |R\rangle), \quad |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|L\rangle - |R\rangle), \quad (20)$$

and the energies are

$$E_+ = \Delta/2, \quad E_- = -\Delta/2. \quad (21)$$

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

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} dE/2 & \Delta/2 \\ \Delta/2 & -dE/2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (22)$$

Solving

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

we get

$$E_{\pm} = \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\Delta^2 + d^2 E^2}, \quad (23)$$

and hence

$$|-\rangle = \frac{dE - \sqrt{\Delta^2 + d^2 E^2}}{\sqrt{\Delta^2 + (\sqrt{\Delta^2 + d^2 E^2} - dE)^2}} |L\rangle + \frac{\Delta}{\sqrt{\Delta^2 + (\sqrt{\Delta^2 + d^2 E^2} - dE)^2}} |R\rangle, \quad (24)$$

and

$$|+\rangle = \frac{dE + \sqrt{\Delta^2 + d^2 E^2}}{\sqrt{\Delta^2 + (\sqrt{\Delta^2 + d^2 E^2} + dE)^2}} |L\rangle + \frac{\Delta}{\sqrt{\Delta^2 + (\sqrt{\Delta^2 + d^2 E^2} + dE)^2}} |R\rangle. \quad (25)$$

When E is large, we have

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

and therefore

$$E_+ = \frac{1}{2}dE, \quad |+\rangle = |L\rangle, \quad (26)$$

and

$$E_- = -\frac{1}{2}dE, \quad |-\rangle = |R\rangle. \quad (27)$$

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

$$mR\ddot{\theta} = (-mg + F_0 \sin \omega t) \sin \theta \quad (28)$$

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

$$\theta = \theta_f + \theta_s, \quad (29)$$

where θ_f is the fast variable. Observing (28), we find the EOM of θ_f should be

$$mR\ddot{\theta}_f = F_0 \sin \omega t \sin(\theta_f + \theta_s), \quad (30)$$

because the first term on the RHS of (28) has a much lower frequency magnitude compared with ω . We take the first order approximation of (30) and ignore the θ_f dependency on the RHS, and this gives

$$\theta_f = -\frac{F_0}{mR\omega^2} \sin \theta_s \sin \omega t. \quad (31)$$

Putting this back to (28), we get

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

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

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

so the final EOM for θ_s is

$$mR\ddot{\theta}_s = -mg \sin \theta_s - \frac{1}{2} \frac{F_0^2}{mR\omega^2} \sin \theta_s \cos \theta_s. \quad (32)$$

4.2 Stable positions of θ_s

We let the LHS of (32) 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 $F_0 \rightarrow 0$, the second factor on the LHS can't be zero, so the equation becomes

$$\sin \theta_s = 0 \Rightarrow \theta_s = 0, \pi. \quad (33)$$

Around $\theta_s = 0$, (32) is approximately

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

and therefore

$$\omega_{\theta=0} = \sqrt{\frac{g}{R} + \frac{F_0^2}{m^2 R^2 \omega^2}}. \quad (34)$$

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

Around $\theta_s = \pi$, we rewrite (32) 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

$$\omega_{\theta_s=\pi} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \frac{F_0^2}{m^2 R^2 \omega^2} - \frac{g}{R}}. \quad (35)$$

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

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{F_0^2}{m^2 R^2 \omega^2} \geq \frac{g}{R}, \quad (36)$$

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

5 Relaxation of a spin polarization due to an electric field

The magnetic field felt by an electron with velocity \mathbf{v} when an electric field \mathbf{E} is present is

$$\mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{E} / c^2. \quad (37)$$

From

$$H = -\boldsymbol{\mu} \cdot \mathbf{B}, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu} = -g\mu_B \mathbf{S}, \quad (38)$$

we have

$$\frac{d\mathbf{S}}{dt} = \frac{g\mu_B}{\hbar} \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{S} = \frac{g\mu_B}{\hbar} \mathbf{S} \times \frac{\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{E}}{c^2}. \quad (39)$$