

1) Consider a system of spin 1/2 (e.g., an electron) prepared in some unknown state $|\psi\rangle$. A measurement of \hat{S}_x leads to the eigenvalue $+\hbar/2$. Subsequently, a measurement of $\hat{S}_\phi \equiv \hat{S}_x \cos\phi + \hat{S}_y \sin\phi$ with $\phi \in \mathbb{R}$, is carried out. What is the probability that the result is $+\hbar/2$?

- Solution -

After the first measurement of \hat{S}_x , the system must be in the eigenstate of \hat{S}_x with eigenvalue $+\hbar/2$, denoted $|X, +\rangle$. This means that:

$$\hat{S}_x |X, +\rangle = +\frac{\hbar}{2} |X, +\rangle$$

In the basis where \hat{S}_z is diagonal, we have:

$$\hat{S}_z \doteq \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\hbar}{2} \sigma_z \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{S}_x \doteq \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\hbar}{2} \sigma_x$$

$$\text{and} \quad \hat{S}_z |\pm\rangle = \pm \frac{\hbar}{2} |\pm\rangle$$

So, if we write:

$$|X, +\rangle = u |+\rangle + v |-\rangle \doteq \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix}$$

then to find $|X, +\rangle$ we have to solve the

eigenvalue equation:

$$\frac{\hbar}{2} \sigma_x \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = +\frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} v \\ u \end{pmatrix}$$

Then $\begin{pmatrix} v \\ u \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow u = v$

Since $|u|^2 + |v|^2 = 1$, we choose u real:

$$\begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and $|X, +\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|+\rangle + |-\rangle)$

Now, to calculate the probability $P_+(\phi)$ that a measurement of \hat{S}_ϕ gives $+\hbar/2$, we must expand $|X, +\rangle$ in the basis of the eigenvectors of \hat{S}_ϕ , denoted

$$\{|\phi, +\rangle, |\phi, -\rangle\}$$

and defined as:

$$\hat{S}_\phi |\phi, \pm\rangle = \pm \frac{\hbar}{2} |\phi, \pm\rangle$$

Once these states are known, it will be easy to calculate

(1720-3)

$$|x, +\rangle = |\phi, +\rangle \chi_{\phi, +} |x, +\rangle + |\phi, -\rangle \chi_{\phi, -} |x, +\rangle$$

where the completeness relation

$$\hat{I} = |\phi, +\rangle \chi_{\phi, +} + |\phi, -\rangle \chi_{\phi, -}$$

has been used.

Then, the sought probability is simply:

$$P_+(x) = |\langle \phi, + | x, + \rangle|^2$$

So, we want to solve the eigenvalue equation that determine $|\phi, s\rangle$, with s to be found:

$$(\hat{S}_x \cos \phi + \hat{S}_y \sin \phi) |\phi, s\rangle = s \frac{\hbar}{2} |\phi, s\rangle$$

← this is here for dimensional reasons!

$$\Leftrightarrow (\sigma_x \cos \phi + \sigma_y \sin \phi) \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = s \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \quad (1.3)$$

where we have defined:

$$|\phi, s\rangle \doteq \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

in the basis $| \pm \rangle$

Equation (1.3) is rewritten as:

H20-4)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & e^{-i\phi} \\ e^{i\phi} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = s \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} b e^{-i\phi} = s a \\ a e^{i\phi} = s b \end{cases}$$

Multiplying side-by-side these two equations we get:

$$ab = s^2 ab \Rightarrow s^2 = 1$$

Therefore $s = \pm 1$

The eigenvector corresponding to $s = 1$ satisfies

$$a e^{i\phi} = b \Leftrightarrow a e^{i\phi/2} = b e^{-i\phi/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \propto \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\phi/2} \\ e^{i\phi/2} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{normalize}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\phi/2} \\ e^{i\phi/2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Therefore:

$$|\phi, +\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(e^{-i\phi/2} |+\rangle + e^{i\phi/2} |-\rangle \right)$$

Finally, we can calculate:

$$\langle \phi, + | x, + \rangle = \frac{1}{2} (e^{i\phi/2} \langle + | + e^{-i\phi/2} \langle - |) (| + \rangle + | - \rangle)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (e^{i\phi/2} + e^{-i\phi/2})$$

$$= \cos\left(\frac{\phi}{2}\right)$$

This implies that:

$$P_+(\phi) = |\langle \phi, + | x, + \rangle|^2 = \cos^2\left(\frac{\phi}{2}\right)$$

2) Consider a charged particle in a simple harmonic oscillator, for which

$$\hat{H}_0 = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 \hat{x}^2,$$

subject to a constant electric field so that

$$\lambda \hat{V} = q\mathcal{E} \hat{x}. \quad (\lambda \equiv q\mathcal{E})$$

Calculate the energy shift for the n th level to first and second order in $\lambda = q\mathcal{E}$.

-Solution-

a) Let us remind that:

$$\hat{H}_0 |n\rangle = E_n^0 |n\rangle \quad n=0, 1, 2, \dots$$

where
$$E_n^0 = \hbar\omega \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

At first order, we need to calculate:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda E_n^1 &= \langle n | \lambda \hat{V} | n \rangle \\ &= q\mathcal{E} \langle n | \hat{x} | n \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Remembering that

$$\hat{x} = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}} (\hat{a} + \hat{a}^\dagger)$$

and that

$$\hat{a}|n\rangle = \sqrt{n}|n-1\rangle, \quad \hat{a}^+|n\rangle = \sqrt{n+1}|n+1\rangle$$

We easily calculate:

$$\langle n|\hat{x}|n\rangle \propto \langle n|\hat{a} + \hat{a}^+|n\rangle$$

$$= \langle n|(\sqrt{n}|n-1\rangle + \sqrt{n+1}|n+1\rangle)$$

$$= \underbrace{\sqrt{n}\langle n|n-1\rangle}_{=0} + \underbrace{\sqrt{n+1}\langle n|n+1\rangle}_{=0}$$

Therefore the first-order corrections are zero:

$$\lambda E_n^1 = 0$$

b) At second-order, we have to calculate:

$$\lambda^2 E_n^2 = \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{|\langle n|\hat{V}|k\rangle|^2}{E_n^0 - E_k^0}$$

$$= q^2 \epsilon^2 \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{|\langle n|\hat{x}|k\rangle|^2}{\hbar\omega(n-k)}$$

$$= \frac{q^2 \epsilon^2}{\hbar\omega} \frac{1}{2m\omega} \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{|\langle n|\hat{a} + \hat{a}^+|k\rangle|^2}{n-k}$$

In the term

$$\langle n | \hat{a} + \hat{a}^\dagger | k \rangle =$$

$$= \sqrt{k} \underbrace{\langle n | k-1 \rangle}_{=\delta_{k,n+1}} + \sqrt{k+1} \underbrace{\langle n | k+1 \rangle}_{=\delta_{k,n-1}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{|\langle n | \hat{a} + \hat{a}^\dagger | k \rangle|^2}{n-k} = \frac{|\sqrt{k}|^2}{n-k} \Big|_{k=n+1} + \frac{|\sqrt{k+1}|^2}{n-k} \Big|_{k=n-1}$$

$$= \frac{n+1}{n-n-1} + \frac{n}{n-n+1}$$

$$= -n-1 + n = -1$$

Therefore, the final result is:

$$\lambda^2 E_n = -\frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}^2}{2m\omega^2}$$

Notice that this number is indep of n . This is consistent with the fact that the Total potential is:

$$\frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \hat{x}^2 + q \mathcal{E} \hat{x} = \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \left(\hat{x}^2 + \frac{2q\mathcal{E}}{m\omega^2} \hat{x} \right) = \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \left(x + \frac{q\mathcal{E}}{m\omega^2} \right)^2 - \frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}^2}{2m\omega^2}$$

Thus, the perturbation shifts the center of the potential by $-q\mathcal{E}/(m\omega^2)$ and lowers the energy by $q^2 \mathcal{E}^2 / (2m\omega^2)$, which is in agreement with our second-order results.

3) Perturbation theory with two-parameters - (H20-8)

Instead of considering the problem with

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \lambda \hat{V},$$

which depends on the single parameter λ ,
consider the more general perturbation

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + x \hat{A} + y \hat{B}$$

where x, y are two "small" numerical parameters.

In this case we expect that if:

$$\hat{H}_0 |\phi_n\rangle = E_n^0 |\phi_n\rangle$$

Then

$$\hat{H} |\Psi_n(x, y)\rangle = E_n(x, y) |\Psi_n(x, y)\rangle$$

with

$$E_n(x, y) = E_n^0 + x E_n^x + y E_n^y + \frac{x^2}{2} E_n^{xx} + xy E_n^{xy} + \frac{y^2}{2} E_n^{yy} + \dots$$

and

$$|\Psi_n(x, y)\rangle = |\phi_n\rangle + x |\Psi_n^x\rangle + y |\Psi_n^y\rangle + \dots$$

* Example 1 *

Consider a two-dimensional system with

$$\hat{H}_0 = \begin{pmatrix} E_1^0 & 0 \\ 0 & E_2^0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{in the basis } \{|\phi_1\rangle, |\phi_2\rangle\}$$

and \hat{A}, \hat{B} are two Hermitian operators represented (H20-10) by:

$$\hat{A} \doteq \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{12}^* & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with } A_{11}, A_{22} \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\hat{B} \doteq \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21}^* & B_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with } B_{11}, B_{22} \in \mathbb{R}$$

The matrix $H: \hat{H} \doteq H$, with

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} E_1^0 + xA_{11} + yB_{11} & xA_{12} + yB_{12} \\ xA_{12}^* + yB_{12}^* & E_2^0 + xA_{22} + yB_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

can be diagonalized exactly, to find $E_1(x, y)$ and $E_2(x, y)$.

It is not instructive doing this calculation explicitly (Mathematica can do it in a few seconds).

So, suppose to have calculate exactly $E_1(x, y)$ and $E_2(x, y)$

If $x, y \ll 1$, we can make a Taylor expansion up to and including second-order terms:

$$E_1(x, y) \approx E_1^0 + xA_{11} + yB_{11} + x^2 \frac{|A_{12}|^2}{E_1^0 - E_2^0} + y^2 \frac{|B_{12}|^2}{E_1^0 - E_2^0} +$$

$$+ 2xy \operatorname{Re} \frac{A_{12}B_{21}}{E_1^0 + E_2^0} + \dots$$

From this expression we can see that troubles may arise in presence of degeneracy when $E_1^0 - E_2^0 = 0$. The usual technique to diagonalize the perturbation here does not work because if we diagonalize \hat{A} so that $A_{12} = 0$ we still have $B_{12} \neq 0$ and vice versa.

The only way to overcome this problem is to reduce it to the single-variable case by defining:

$$\lambda \hat{V} \equiv x \hat{A} + y \hat{B}$$

Then it is not difficult to show that:

$$E_1(x, y) \approx E_1^0 + \lambda V_{11}(x, y) + \lambda^2 \frac{|V_{12}|^2}{E_1^0 - E_2^0} + \dots$$

and now one can diagonalize $\lambda \hat{V}$ in the degenerate case.

* Example *

Consider the matrices:

$$H = H_0 + xA + yB$$

where

$$H_0 = \begin{pmatrix} E^0 & 0 \\ 0 & E^0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a \\ a^* & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b \\ b^* & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$a, b \in \mathbb{C}, \quad E^0 \in \mathbb{R}$$

We can easily diagonalize H .

$$H|u_{\pm}\rangle = E_{\pm}|u_{\pm}\rangle$$

where $E_{\pm} = E^0 \pm \Delta$

where $\Delta = |ax + by|$

$$= \sqrt{x^2|a|^2 + xy(ab^* + a^*b) + y|b|^2}$$

The function $\Delta(x, y)$ has a BRANCH POINT at $x=y=0$. This implies that a Taylor expansion of the form

$$\Delta(x, y) = \Delta(0, 0) + x\Delta_x(0, 0) + y\Delta_y(0, 0) + \dots$$

Does not exist!

For example, let us calculate.

$$\Delta_x(x, y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \Delta(x, y)$$

$$= \frac{2x|a|^2 + y(ab^* + a^*b)}{2|ax + by|}$$

It is easy to see that the limit

$$\lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow 0 \\ y \rightarrow 0}} \Delta_x(x, y) = \text{indeterminate}$$

In fact, if we parametrize x and y as

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta \quad \text{with } r \geq 0, \theta \in \mathbb{R}$$

Then:

$$\Delta_x(x, y) = \frac{2 \cos \theta |a|^2 + \sin \theta (ab^* + a^*b)}{2|a \cos \theta + b \sin \theta|}$$

independent of r !

for example:

$$\Delta_x(x, y) \Big|_{\theta=0} = |a|; \quad \Delta_x(x, y) \Big|_{\theta=\pi/2} = \frac{ab^* + a^*b}{2|b|}$$

So, the value of $\Delta_x(0,0)$ depends on the direction in the x, y plane approaching $x=y=0$.

