

1.4: Exponential Operators

Throughout our work, we will make use of exponential operators of the form

$$\hat{T} = e^{-i\hat{A}} \quad (1.4.1)$$

We will see that these exponential operators act on a wavefunction to move it in time and space, and are therefore also referred to as propagators. Of particular interest to us is the time-evolution operator, $\hat{U} = e^{-i\hat{H}t/\hbar}$, which propagates the wavefunction in time. Note the operator \hat{T} is a function of an operator, $f(\hat{A})$. A function of an operator is defined through its expansion in a [Taylor series](#), for instance

$$\hat{T} = e^{-i\hat{A}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-i\hat{A})^n}{n!} = 1 - i\hat{A} - \frac{\hat{A}\hat{A}}{2} - \dots \quad (1.4.2)$$

Since we use them so frequently, let's review the properties of exponential operators that can be established with Equation 1.4.2. If the operator \hat{A} is Hermitian, then $\hat{T} = e^{-i\hat{A}}$ is unitary, i.e., $\hat{T}^\dagger = \hat{T}^{-1}$. Thus the Hermitian conjugate of \hat{T} reverses the action of \hat{T} . For the time-propagator \vec{U} , \vec{U}^\dagger is often referred to as the **time-reversal operator**.

The eigenstates of the operator \hat{A} also are also eigenstates of $f(\hat{A})$, and eigenvalues are functions of the eigenvalues of \hat{A} . Namely, if you know the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of \hat{A} , i.e., $\hat{A}\varphi_n = a_n\varphi_n$, you can show by expanding the function

$$f(\hat{A})\varphi_n = f(a_n)\varphi_n \quad (1.4.3)$$

Our most common application of this property will be to exponential operators involving the Hamiltonian. Given the eigenstates φ_n , then $\hat{H}|\varphi_n\rangle = E_n|\varphi_n\rangle$ implies

$$e^{-i\hat{H}t/\hbar}|\varphi_n\rangle = e^{-iE_nt/\hbar}|\varphi_n\rangle \quad (1.4.4)$$

Just as $\hat{D}_x(\lambda)$ is the time-evolution operator that displaces the wavefunction in time, $\hat{D}_x = e^{-i\hat{p}_x x/\hbar}$ is the spatial displacement operator that moves ψ along the x coordinate. If we define $\hat{D}_x = e^{-i\hat{p}_x x/\hbar}$, then the action of is to displace the wavefunction by an amount λ

$$|\psi(x-\lambda)\rangle = \hat{D}_x(\lambda)|\psi(x)\rangle \quad (1.4.5)$$

Also, applying $\hat{D}_x(\lambda)$ to a position operator shifts the operator by λ

$$\hat{D}_x^\dagger \hat{x} \hat{D}_x = x + \lambda \quad (1.4.6)$$

Thus $e^{-i\hat{p}_x \lambda/\hbar}|x\rangle$ is an eigenvector of \hat{x} with eigenvalue $x + \lambda$ instead of x . The operator

$\hat{D}_x = e^{-i\hat{p}_x \lambda/\hbar}$ is a displacement operator for x position coordinates. Similarly, $\hat{D}_y = e^{-i\hat{p}_y \lambda/\hbar}$ generates displacements in y and \hat{D}_z in z . Similar to the time-propagator \hat{U} , the displacement operator \hat{D} must be **unitary**, since the action of $\hat{D}^\dagger \hat{D}$ must leave the system unchanged. That is if \hat{D}_x shifts the system to x from x_0 , then \hat{D}_x^\dagger shifts the system from x back to x_0 .

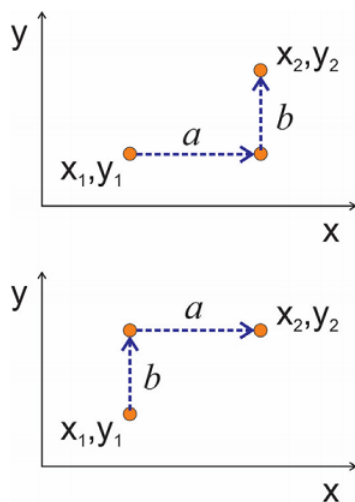


Figure 7. (Top) Displacement first along x by an amount a , then along y by b . (Bottom) Displacement in the reverse order yields the same state.

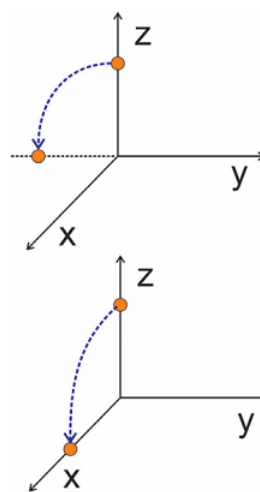


Figure 8. (Top) Rotation first about x by $\pi/2$, then about y by $\pi/2$, leaves the particle on the $-x$ axis. (Bottom) Changing order by first rotating about y , then about x , leads to particle along $-y$ axis.

Figure 1.4.1

We know intuitively that linear displacements commute. For example, if we wish to shift a particle in two dimensions, x and y , the order of displacement does not matter. We end up at the same position, whether we move along x first or along y , as illustrated in Figure 7. In terms of displacement operators, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} |x_2, y_2\rangle &= e^{-ibp_y/\hbar} e^{-iap_x/\hbar} |x_1, y_1\rangle \\ &= e^{-iap_x/\hbar} e^{-ibp_y/\hbar} |x_1, y_1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

These displacement operators commute, as expected from $[p_x, p_y] = 0$.

Similar to the displacement operator, we can define rotation operators that depend on the angular momentum operators, L_x , L_y , and L_z . For instance,

$$\hat{R}_x(\phi) = e^{-i\phi L_x/\hbar} \quad (1.4.7)$$

gives a rotation by angle ϕ about the x axis. Unlike linear displacement, rotations about different axes do not commute. For example, consider a state representing a particle displaced along the z axis, $|z_0\rangle$. Now the action of two rotations \hat{R}_x and \hat{R}_y by an angle of $\phi = \pi/2$ on this particle differs depending on the order of operation, as illustrated in Figure 8. If we rotate first about x , the operation

$$e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}L_y/\hbar} e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}L_x/\hbar} |z_0\rangle \rightarrow |-y\rangle \quad (1.4.8)$$

leads to the particle on the $-y$ axis, whereas the reverse order

$$e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}L_x/\hbar} e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}L_y/\hbar} |z_0\rangle \rightarrow |+x\rangle \quad (1.4.9)$$

leads to the particle on the $+x$ axis. The final state of these two rotations taken in opposite order differ by a rotation about the z axis. Since rotations about different axes do not commute, we expect the angular momentum operators not to commute. Indeed, we know that

$$[L_x, L_y] = i\hbar L_z \quad (1.4.10)$$

where the commutator of rotations about the x and y axes is related by a z -axis rotation. As with rotation operators, we will need to be careful with time-propagators to determine whether the order of time-propagation matters. This, in turn, will depend on whether the Hamiltonians at two points in time commute.

Properties of exponential operators

1. If \hat{A} and \hat{B} do not commute, but $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}]$ commutes with \hat{A} and \hat{B} , then

$$e^{\hat{A}+\hat{B}} = e^{\hat{A}} e^{\hat{B}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}[\hat{A}, \hat{B}]} \quad (1.4.11)$$

$$e^{\hat{A}} e^{\hat{B}} = e^{\hat{B}} e^{\hat{A}} e^{-[\hat{B}, \hat{A}]} \quad (1.4.12)$$

2. More generally, if \hat{A} and \hat{B} do not commute,

$$e^{\hat{A}} e^{\hat{B}} = \exp \left[\hat{A} + \hat{B} + \frac{1}{2}[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] + \frac{1}{12}([\hat{A}, [\hat{A}, \hat{B}]] + [\hat{A}, [\hat{B}, \hat{B}]]) + \dots \right] \quad (1.4.13)$$

3. The Baker–Hausdorff relationship:

$$e^{i\hat{G}\lambda} \hat{A} e^{-i\hat{G}\lambda} = \hat{A} + i\lambda[\hat{G}, \hat{A}] + \left(\frac{i^2 \lambda^2}{2!} \right) [\hat{G}, [\hat{G}, \hat{A}]] + \dots + \left(\frac{i^n \lambda^n}{n!} \right) [\hat{G}, [\hat{G}, [\hat{G}, \hat{A}]] \dots] + \dots \quad (1.4.14)$$

where λ is a number.

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