

## The geometrical properties of parity and time reversal operators in two dimensional spaces

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**Abstract.** The parity operator  $\mathcal{P}$  and time reversal operator  $\mathcal{T}$  are two important operators in the quantum theory, in particular, in the  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric quantum theory. By using the concrete forms of  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{T}$ , we discuss their geometrical properties in two dimensional spaces. It is showed that if  $\mathcal{T}$  is given, then all  $\mathcal{P}$  links with the quadric surfaces; if  $\mathcal{P}$  is given, then all  $\mathcal{T}$  links with the quadric curves. Moreover, we give out the generalized unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric condition of an operator. The unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetry of a Hermitian operator is also showed in this way.

### §1 Introduction

Quantum theory is one of the most important theories in physics. It is a fundamental axiom in quantum mechanics that the Hamiltonians should be Hermitian, which implies that the values of energy are real numbers. However, non-Hermitian Hamiltonians are also studied in physics. One of the attempts is Bender's  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric theory [1]. In this theory, Bender and his colleagues attributed the reality of the energies to the  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric property, where  $\mathcal{P}$  is a parity operator and  $\mathcal{T}$  is a time reversal operator. Since then, many physicists discussed the properties of  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric quantum systems [2]. It also has theoretical applications in quantum optics, quantum statistics and quantum field theory [4,5,9,10]. Recently, Bender, Brody and Muller constructed a Hamiltonian operator  $H$  with the property that if its eigenfunctions obey a suitable boundary condition, then the associated eigenvalues correspond to the nontrivial zeros of the Riemann zeta function, where  $H$  is not Hermitian in the conventional sense, while  $iH$  has a broken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetry. This result may shed light on the new application of  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric theory in discussing the Riemann hypothesis [3]. It was discovered by Mostafazadeh that the  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric case can be generalized to a more general pseudo-Hermitian quantum theory, and the generalized  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetry was also discussed [6,8]. Smith studied the time

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reversal operator  $\mathcal{T}$  satisfying that  $\mathcal{T}^2 = -I$  and the corresponding  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric quantum theory [10].

In this paper, by using the concrete forms of  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{T}$  in two dimensional spaces, we discuss their geometry properties. It is showed that if  $\mathcal{T}$  is given, then all  $\mathcal{P}$  links with the quadric surfaces; if  $\mathcal{P}$  is given, then all  $\mathcal{T}$  links with the quadric curves. Moreover, we give out the generalized unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric condition of an operator  $H$ . The unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetry of a Hermitian operator is also showed in this way.

## §2 Preliminaries

In this paper, we only consider finite dimensional complex Hilbert space  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , whose elements will be denoted by bold fonts. Let  $L(\mathbb{C}^n)$  be the complex vector space of all linear operators on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ ,  $I$  be the identity operator on  $\mathbb{C}^n$ ,  $\bar{z}$  be the complex conjugation of complex number  $z$ .

An operator  $\mathcal{T}$  on  $\mathbb{C}^2$  is said to be anti-linear if  $\mathcal{T}(s\mathbf{u}_1 + t\mathbf{u}_2) = \bar{s}\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{u}_1) + \bar{t}\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{u}_2)$ . It is obvious that the composition of two anti-linear operators is a linear operator and the composition of an anti-linear operator and a linear operator is still anti-linear. Similar to linear operators, anti-linear operators can also correspond to a matrix with slightly different laws of operation [11].

A time reversal operator  $\mathcal{T}$  is an anti-linear operator which satisfies  $\mathcal{T}^2 = I$  or  $\mathcal{T}^2 = -I$ . A parity operator  $\mathcal{P}$  is a linear operator which satisfies  $\mathcal{P}^2 = I$  [6,8,10,12].

The Pauli operators will be used frequently in our discussions. Given the basis  $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}_{i=1}^2$  of  $\mathbb{C}^2$ , they are usually defined as follows [7]:

$$\sigma_1(x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + x_2\mathbf{e}_2) = x_2\mathbf{e}_1 + x_1\mathbf{e}_2, \quad (1)$$

$$\sigma_2(x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + x_2\mathbf{e}_2) = -ix_2\mathbf{e}_1 + ix_1\mathbf{e}_2, \quad (2)$$

$$\sigma_3(x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + x_2\mathbf{e}_2) = x_1\mathbf{e}_1 - x_2\mathbf{e}_2. \quad (3)$$

To put it another way, the representation matrices of  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2$  and  $\sigma_3$  are:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Pauli operators have the following useful properties [7]:

$$\sigma_i\sigma_j = -\sigma_j\sigma_i = i\epsilon_{ijk}\sigma_k, \quad i \neq j, \quad (4)$$

$$\sigma_i^2 = I, \quad (5)$$

where  $i, j, k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $\epsilon_{ijk}$  is the Levi-Civita symbol:

$$\epsilon_{ijk} = \begin{cases} \epsilon_{123} = \epsilon_{231} = \epsilon_{312} = 1, \\ \epsilon_{132} = \epsilon_{213} = \epsilon_{321} = -1, \\ 0, \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The well known commutation and anti-commutation relations are:

$$\sigma_i\sigma_j - \sigma_j\sigma_i = 2i\epsilon_{ijk}\sigma_k,$$

$$\sigma_i\sigma_j + \sigma_j\sigma_i = 2\delta_{ij}I,$$

where  $i, j, k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\delta_{ij}$  is the Kronecker symbol.

Denote  $I$  by  $\sigma_0$ , then  $\{\sigma_0, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3\}$  is a basis of  $L(\mathbb{C}^2)$ . Moreover, an operator  $\sigma = t\sigma_0 + x\sigma_1 + y\sigma_2 + z\sigma_3 \in L(\mathbb{C}^2)$  is Hermitian if and only if the coefficients  $\{t, x, y, z\}$  are real numbers.

Given the basis  $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}_{i=1}^2$  of  $\mathbb{C}^2$  and any vector  $x = \sum x_i \mathbf{e}_i$ , one can define an important anti-linear operator, namely the conjugation operator  $\mathcal{T}_0$ , by  $\mathcal{T}_0(x) = \sum \overline{x_i} \mathbf{e}_i$ .

Similar to  $\mathcal{T}_0$ , one can define another important anti-linear operator  $\tau_0$  by

$$\tau_0(x_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + x_2 \mathbf{e}_2) = -\overline{x_2} \mathbf{e}_1 + \overline{x_1} \mathbf{e}_2. \tag{6}$$

Furthermore, define  $\tau_1 = \tau_0 \sigma_1, \tau_2 = \tau_0 \sigma_2, \tau_3 = \tau_0 \sigma_3$ , that is,  $\tau_i$  is defined to be the composition of  $\tau_0$  and  $\sigma_i$ . The anti-linear operators  $\{\tau_0, \tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3\}$  forms a basis of the anti-linear operator space of  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . This basis has the following properties [11]:

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_0^2 &= -I, \\ \tau_0 \sigma_i &= -\sigma_i \tau_0 = \tau_i, \\ \tau_i \tau_0 &= -\tau_0 \tau_i = \sigma_i, \\ \tau_i \tau_j &= \sigma_i \sigma_j = i \epsilon_{ijk} \sigma_k \quad (i \neq j), \\ \tau_i \tau_j - \tau_j \tau_i &= 2i \epsilon_{ijk} \sigma_k, \end{aligned}$$

where  $i, j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ .

All the equations above can be verified by the using the definitions of Pauli operators and  $\tau_0$ . However, for further use, we show that  $\tau_0 \sigma_i = -\sigma_i \tau_0 = \tau_i$  in detail. Consider  $\tau_2 = \tau_0 \sigma_2$ . By (2) and (6), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_0 \sigma_2(x_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + x_2 \mathbf{e}_2) &= i \overline{x_1} \mathbf{e}_1 + i \overline{x_2} \mathbf{e}_2, \\ \sigma_2 \tau_0(x_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + x_2 \mathbf{e}_2) &= -i \overline{x_1} \mathbf{e}_1 - i \overline{x_2} \mathbf{e}_2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\tau_0 \sigma_2 = -\sigma_2 \tau_0 = \tau_2$ . Along similar lines, one can verify that  $\tau_0 \sigma_i = -\sigma_i \tau_0 = \tau_i$  is also valid for  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_3$ .

Moreover, it follows from  $\tau_0 \sigma_i = -\sigma_i \tau_0 = \tau_i$  that  $\sigma_j \tau_i = \sigma_j \tau_0 \sigma_i = -\tau_0 \sigma_j \sigma_i$ . Combining with (4) and (5), one can further obtain the following relations:

$$\sigma_j \tau_i = \tau_i \sigma_j = -i \epsilon_{ijk} \tau_k, \quad i \neq j, \tag{7}$$

$$\tau_i \sigma_i = -\sigma_i \tau_i = \tau_0, \tag{8}$$

where  $i, j, k \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ .

With the help of  $\{\sigma_i\}$  and  $\{\tau_i\}$ , ones can determine the concrete forms of  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{T}$ :

**Lemma 2.1.** *Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a parity operator and  $\mathcal{T}$  be a time reversal operator on  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . Then*

(i). *Either  $\mathcal{P} = \pm I$  or  $\mathcal{P} = \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i$ , where  $a_i$  satisfying  $\sum_{i=1}^3 a_i^2 = 1$ . The latter case is referred to as the nontrivial  $\mathcal{P}$ . A nontrivial  $\mathcal{P}$  has the following matrix representation:*

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} a_3 & a_1 - ia_2 \\ a_1 + ia_2 & -a_3 \end{pmatrix}. \tag{9}$$

(ii).  $\mathcal{T} = \epsilon \sum_{i=0}^3 c_i \tau_i$ , where  $c_i$  are real numbers, if  $\mathcal{T}^2 = I$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^3 c_i^2 - c_0^2 = 1$ ; if  $\mathcal{T}^2 = -I$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^3 c_i^2 - c_0^2 = -1$ ,  $\epsilon$  is a unimodular complex number [11].

*Proof.* (i). Suppose  $\mathcal{P} = \sum_{i=0}^3 a_i \sigma_i$ . According to the properties of Pauli operators, we have  $I = \mathcal{P}^2 = (\sum_{i=0}^3 a_i^2)I + 2a_0(\sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i)$ . Note that  $\{\sigma_0, \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3\}$  is a basis of  $L(\mathbb{C}^2)$ , we conclude that  $\sum_{i=0}^3 a_i^2 = 1$  and  $a_0 a_1 = a_0 a_2 = a_0 a_3 = 0$ . If  $a_0 \neq 0$ , then  $a_1 = a_2 = a_3 = 0$ , which implies that  $\mathcal{P} = \pm I$ . If  $a_0 = 0$ , then the only constraint is  $\sum_{i=1}^3 a_i^2 = 1$  and the matrix takes the form in (9).

(ii). The proof can be found in [11]. □

**Example 1.** In (9), if we take  $a_2 = 0$ ,  $a_1, a_3$  are real numbers satisfying that  $a_1^2 + a_3^2 = 1$ , and denote  $a_1$  by  $\sin \alpha$ ,  $a_3$  by  $\cos \alpha$ , then  $\mathcal{P}$  has the matrix representation  $\begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & -\cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ . Thus  $\mathcal{P}$  is composed of a reflection and a rotation.

**Example 2.** In (9), if  $a_1 = a_2 = 0$ ,  $a_3 = 1$ , then  $P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ . If  $a_2 = a_3 = 0$ ,  $a_1 = 1$ , then  $P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . These two parity operators were widely used in [2].

### §3 The existence of $\mathcal{P}$ commuting with $\mathcal{T}$

In physics, it is demanded that  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $\mathcal{T}$  are commutative, that is,  $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}$ . In finite dimensional spaces case, by using the canonical forms of matrices, one can show that if  $\mathcal{T}^2 = I$ , then such  $\mathcal{P}$  always exists. In two dimensional case, we can prove it by utilizing Pauli operators.

**Theorem 3.1.** For each time reversal operator  $\mathcal{T}$ , if  $\mathcal{T}^2 = I$ , then there exists a nontrivial parity operator  $\mathcal{P}$  such that  $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}$ . If  $\mathcal{T}^2 = -I$ , then there is no  $\mathcal{P}$  commuting with  $\mathcal{T}$  except  $\mathcal{P} = \pm I$ .

*Proof.* We will use the following well known equation frequently,

$$(\sigma \cdot \mathbf{A})(\sigma \cdot \mathbf{B}) = (\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B})I + i\sigma \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}), \tag{10}$$

where the bold letters  $\mathbf{A}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$  denote vectors in  $\mathbb{C}^3$  and  $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_3)$ . The symbols  $\cdot$  and  $\times$  represent the dot and cross product of vectors, respectively.

(i). When  $\mathcal{T}^2 = I$ .

Let  $\mathcal{T} = \epsilon \sum_{i=0}^3 c_i \tau_i$  and  $\mathcal{P} = \sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i$ , as was given in Lemma 2.1.

According to (7) and (8),  $\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}$  is equivalent to

$$(-c_0\sigma_0 + \sum_{j=1}^3 c_j \sigma_j) (\sum_{i=1}^3 \bar{a}_i \sigma_i) \tau_0 = (\sum_{i=1}^3 a_i \sigma_i) (c_0\sigma_0 - \sum_{j=1}^3 c_j \sigma_j) \tau_0.$$

Denote  $f_i = \text{Re}(a_i)$ ,  $b_i = \text{Im}(a_i)$ ,  $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, f_2, f_3)$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$  and  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, c_2, c_3)$ . Utilizing (10) to expand the equation above, we have

$$(\mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{c})\sigma_0 - \sigma \cdot [\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c} + c_0 \mathbf{f}] = 0. \tag{11}$$

It follows that  $\mathcal{T}\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}$  is equivalent to

$$c_0 \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c} = 0, \tag{12}$$

$$\mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{c} = 0. \tag{13}$$

Similarly, by utilizing (10) and Lemma 2.1, the constraints  $\mathcal{P}^2 = I$  and  $\mathcal{T}^2 = I$  can be reduced to the equations as follows,

$$\mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0, \tag{14}$$

$$\|\mathbf{f}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{b}\|^2 = 1, \tag{15}$$

$$\|\mathbf{c}\|^2 - c_0^2 = 1. \tag{16}$$

Thus, the problem of finding a parity operator  $\mathcal{P}$  commuting with  $\mathcal{T}$  reduces to finding the vectors  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  satisfying (12) – (15).

If  $c_0 = 0$ , then we can choose  $\mathbf{b} = 0$  and a unit vector  $\mathbf{f}$  orthogonal to  $\mathbf{c}$ . Thus all the conditions (12) – (15) are satisfied.

If  $c_0 \neq 0$ . Let  $\mathbf{b}$  be a vector such that  $\mathbf{b}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{c}$  and  $\|\mathbf{b}\| = |c_0|$ . Moreover, take  $\mathbf{f} = \frac{1}{c_0}(\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{b})$ . Direct calculations show that such vectors  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  satisfy (12) – (15), which completes the proof of the existence of  $\mathcal{P}$ .

(ii). When  $\mathcal{T}^2 = -I$ .

The equation (16) is replaced by the following:

$$\|\mathbf{c}\|^2 - c_0^2 = -1. \tag{17}$$

Thus  $c_0 \neq 0$ . On the other hand, it follows from (12) that

$$\mathbf{f} = \frac{1}{c_0}(\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{b}). \tag{18}$$

Substituting (17) and (18) into (15), we have  $\|\mathbf{f}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{b}\|^2 = 1 < -\frac{1}{c_0^2}\|\mathbf{b}\|^2$ , which is a contradiction. Thus, when  $\mathcal{T}^2 = -I$ , there is no  $\mathcal{P}$  commuting with  $\mathcal{T}$  except  $\mathcal{P} = \pm I$ .

□

**Remark 3.1.** When the space is  $\mathbb{C}^4$ , although  $\mathcal{T}^2 = -I$ , one can find nontrivial  $\mathcal{P}$  commuting with  $\mathcal{T}$  [10].

### §4 The geometrical properties of $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{T}$

**Theorem 4.1.** *Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be a time reversal operator satisfying  $\mathcal{T}^2 = I$ . The set of parity operators  $\mathcal{P}$  commuting with  $\mathcal{T}$  correspond uniquely to a hyperboloid in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .*

*Proof.* As was mentioned above, the determination of  $\mathcal{P}$  is equivalent to finding out  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  satisfying (12) – (15). Now consider  $\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{b}$ . We shall prove that all the  $\mathbf{m}$  form a hyperboloid.

To this end, construct a new coordinate system by taking the direction of  $\mathbf{c}$  as that of the  $X'$  axis. The  $Y' - Z'$  plane is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{c}$  and contains the origin point of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Assume that  $\mathbf{m} = (x', y', z')$  in the new  $X'Y'Z'$  coordinate system.

(i). If  $c_0 = 0$ , then it follows from (12) – (14) that  $\mathbf{b}$  is proportional to  $\mathbf{c}$  and that  $\mathbf{f}$  is orthogonal to both  $\mathbf{c}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ . Thus, in the new  $X'Y'Z'$  coordinate system,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{b} &= (x', 0, 0), \\ \mathbf{f} &= (0, y', z').\end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, equation (15), namely  $\|\mathbf{f}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{b}\|^2 = 1$ , implies that

$$y'^2 + z'^2 - x'^2 = 1. \quad (19)$$

It is apparent that one pair of  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  correspond to one point  $\mathbf{m} = (x', y', z')$ , and vice versa. In addition, (19) represents a hyperboloid in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

(ii). If  $c_0 \neq 0$ , then it follows from (16) that  $\mathbf{c} = (\sqrt{1+c_0^2}, 0, 0)$  in the  $X'Y'Z'$  coordinate system. In addition, suppose  $\mathbf{b} = (x_0, y_0, z_0)$  in the  $X'Y'Z'$  coordinate system. By (18), we have  $\mathbf{f} = \frac{1}{c_0}(\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{b}) = \frac{\sqrt{1+c_0^2}}{c_0}(0, -z_0, y_0)$ . Substituting  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{f}$  into (15), we have

$$\frac{1}{c_0^2}(y_0^2 + z_0^2) - x_0^2 = 1. \quad (20)$$

Note that  $x_0 = x', y_0 = \frac{\lambda z' + y'}{1 + \lambda^2}, z_0 = \frac{z' - \lambda y'}{1 + \lambda^2}$ , where  $\lambda = \frac{\sqrt{1+c_0^2}}{c_0}$ . Thus, one pair of  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  correspond to one point  $\mathbf{m} = (x', y', z')$ , and vice versa. Moreover, it follows from (20) that

$$\frac{1}{1 + 2c_0^2}(y'^2 + z'^2) - x'^2 = 1. \quad (21)$$

That is, all the  $\mathbf{m}$  form a hyperboloid. □

**Theorem 4.2.** *Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a nontrivial parity operator and let us consider the time reversal operators of the form  $\mathcal{T} = \sum_{i=0}^3 c_i \tau_i$  commuting with  $\mathcal{P}$ . All the points  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, c_2, c_3)$  form an ellipse. The length of the semi-major axis is  $\|\mathbf{f}\|$  and the length of the semi-minor axis is 1.*

*Proof.* By (13) and (14), we know that both  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$  are orthogonal to  $\mathbf{f}$ .

Construct a new  $X'Y'Z'$  coordinate system by taking the direction of  $\mathbf{f}$  as that of the  $Z'$  axis and the direction of  $\mathbf{b}$  as that of the  $X'$  axis ( If  $\mathbf{b} = 0$ , take any vector orthogonal to  $\mathbf{f}$  as the direction vector of the  $X'$  axis ). Then we have  $\mathbf{b} = (x, 0, 0)$ ,  $\mathbf{f} = (0, 0, z)$  and  $\mathbf{c} = (c'_1, c'_2, c'_3)$

in the  $X'Y'Z'$  coordinate system. Now the conditions (12) – (16) will reduce to

$$xc'_3 = 0, \tag{22}$$

$$xc'_2 + c_0z = 0, \tag{23}$$

$$zc'_3 = 0, \tag{24}$$

$$z^2 - x^2 = 1, \tag{25}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^3 (c'_i)^2 - (c_0)^2 = 1, \tag{26}$$

Note that (25) ensures that  $z \neq 0$ . Thus, (22) and (24) imply that  $c'_3 = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{c} = (c'_1, c'_2, 0)$ . In addition, it follows from (23) that  $c_0 = -\frac{x}{z}c'_2$ . Substituting  $c'_3 = 0$ ,  $c_0 = -\frac{x}{z}c'_2$  and (25) into (26), we have

$$(c'_1)^2 + \frac{(c'_2)^2}{(z)^2} = 1. \tag{27}$$

This is an equation of ellipse. Moreover, since  $|z| = \|\mathbf{f}\| > 1$ , the length of the semi-major axis is  $\|\mathbf{f}\|$  and the length of the semi-minor axis is 1.

□

In the following theorem, we only consider the  $\mathcal{T}$  with real coefficients.

**Theorem 4.3.** *Let  $\mathcal{T}_1, \mathcal{T}_2$  be two time reversal operators,  $\mathcal{T}_1 \neq \pm\mathcal{T}_2$ . If there exist two nontrivial parity operators  $\mathcal{P}_1$  and  $\mathcal{P}_2$  such that  $\mathcal{P}_i$  commutes with  $\mathcal{T}_1$  and  $\mathcal{T}_2$  simultaneously, then  $\mathcal{P}_1 = \pm\mathcal{P}_2$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{T}_1 = \sum_{i=0}^3 c_i^{(1)}\tau_i, \mathcal{T}_2 = \sum_{i=0}^3 c_i^{(2)}\tau_i$ . Denote  $\mathbf{c}^{(1)} = (c_1^{(1)}, c_2^{(1)}, c_3^{(1)})$  and  $\mathbf{c}^{(2)} = (c_1^{(2)}, c_2^{(2)}, c_3^{(2)})$ .

(i). If  $c_0^{(1)} \neq 0$  and  $c_0^{(2)} = 0$ .

Suppose that  $\mathcal{P}$  commute with  $\mathcal{T}_i$  simultaneously. By (12), we have  $\mathbf{c}^{(2)} \times \mathbf{b} = 0$ . It follows that  $\mathbf{b} = m\mathbf{c}^{(2)}$ . On the other hand, (12) implies that  $\mathbf{f} = \frac{1}{c_0^{(1)}}(\mathbf{c}^{(1)} \times \mathbf{b})$ . Thus,  $\mathbf{f} = \frac{m}{c_0^{(1)}}(\mathbf{c}^{(1)} \times \mathbf{c}^{(2)})$ . Substituting  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  into (15), then we have

$$m^2(\|\frac{1}{c_0^{(1)}}\mathbf{c}^{(1)} \times \mathbf{c}^{(2)}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{c}^{(2)}\|^2) = 1.$$

The equation has at most two real roots, which are opposite to each other. Thus, there exist at most two parity operators  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $-\mathcal{P}$  commuting with  $\mathcal{T}_i$  simultaneously.

(ii). If  $c_0^{(1)} = c_0^{(2)} = 0$  and  $\mathbf{c}^{(1)} = t\mathbf{c}^{(2)}$ , where  $t$  is a real number.

It follows from (16) that  $\mathcal{T}_1 = \pm\mathcal{T}_2$ , which contradicts with the assumption of the theorem.

(iii). If  $c_0^{(1)} \neq 0, c_0^{(2)} \neq 0$  and  $\mathbf{c}^{(1)} = t\mathbf{c}^{(2)}$ .

By (12), we have  $\mathbf{f} = \frac{1}{c_0^{(1)}}(\mathbf{c}^{(1)} \times \mathbf{b}) = \frac{1}{c_0^{(2)}}(\mathbf{c}^{(2)} \times \mathbf{b}) = \frac{t}{c_0^{(1)}}(\mathbf{c}^{(2)} \times \mathbf{b})$ . It follows that  $c_0^{(1)} = tc_0^{(2)}$ .

Thus, we have  $c_i^{(1)} = tc_i^{(2)}, (i = 0, 1, 2, 3)$ . On the other hand, (16) implies that  $t^2 = 1$ . Hence  $\mathcal{T}_1 = \pm\mathcal{T}_2$ , which is a contradiction.

(iv). If  $c_0^{(1)} = c_0^{(2)} = 0$  and  $\mathbf{c}^{(1)} \neq t\mathbf{c}^{(2)}$ .

By (12), we have  $\mathbf{c}^{(1)} \times \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{c}^{(2)} \times \mathbf{b} = 0$ . However, since  $\mathbf{c}^{(1)} \neq t\mathbf{c}^{(2)}$ , we have  $\mathbf{b} = 0$ . Thus (15) implies that  $\|\mathbf{f}\| = 1$ . Moreover, (13) implies that  $\mathbf{f}$  is orthogonal to both  $\mathbf{c}^{(1)}$  and  $\mathbf{c}^{(2)}$ . So

$\mathbf{f}$  can only have two directions, which are opposite to each other. Thus, there exist at most two parity operators  $\mathcal{P}$  and  $-\mathcal{P}$  commuting with  $\mathcal{T}_i$  simultaneously.

(v). If  $c_0^{(1)} \neq 0, c_0^{(2)} \neq 0$  and  $\mathbf{c}^{(1)} \neq t\mathbf{c}^{(2)}$ .

Let  $\mathcal{P}_1$  and  $\mathcal{P}_2$  be two parity operators, which are determined by  $(\mathbf{f}^{(1)}, \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$  and  $(\mathbf{f}^{(2)}, \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$  respectively. Moreover, suppose that both  $\mathcal{P}_1$  and  $\mathcal{P}_2$  commute with  $\mathcal{T}_i$  simultaneously.

By (12), we have  $\mathbf{f}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{c_0^{(1)}}(\mathbf{c}^{(1)} \times \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$  and  $\mathbf{f}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{c_0^{(2)}}(\mathbf{c}^{(2)} \times \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$ . It follows that

$$\frac{1}{c_0^{(1)}}\mathbf{c}^{(1)} - \frac{1}{c_0^{(2)}}\mathbf{c}^{(2)} = t_1\mathbf{b}^{(1)},$$

where  $t_1$  is a nonzero real number.

Similarly, we have  $\mathbf{f}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{c_0^{(1)}}(\mathbf{c}^{(1)} \times \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$  and  $\mathbf{f}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{c_0^{(2)}}(\mathbf{c}^{(2)} \times \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$ . It follows that

$$\frac{1}{c_0^{(1)}}\mathbf{c}^{(1)} - \frac{1}{c_0^{(2)}}\mathbf{c}^{(2)} = t_2\mathbf{b}^{(2)},$$

So  $t_1\mathbf{b}^{(1)} = t_2\mathbf{b}^{(2)}$ , which implies that  $\mathbf{b}^{(1)} = k\mathbf{b}^{(2)}$ . Now  $\|\mathbf{f}^{(1)}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{b}^{(1)}\|^2 = k^2(\|\mathbf{f}^{(2)}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{b}^{(2)}\|^2) = 1$ , hence  $k = \pm 1$ . Thus it is apparent that  $\mathcal{P}_1 = \pm\mathcal{P}_2$ .

Note that (i) – (v) contain all the situations, which completes the proof. □

If we denote  $com(\mathcal{T}) = \{\mathcal{P}|\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{P}^2 = I\}$ , then the following corollary can be obtained.

**Corollary 4.4.** *If  $\mathcal{T}_1 = \sum_{i=0}^3 c_i^{(1)}\tau_i, \mathcal{T}_2 = \sum_{i=0}^3 c_i^{(2)}\tau_i$  are two time reversal operators,  $\mathcal{T}_j^2 = I, j = 1, 2$ . Then  $com(\mathcal{T}_1) = com(\mathcal{T}_2)$  if and only if for each  $i, c_i^{(1)} = \epsilon c_i^{(2)}$ , where  $\epsilon$  is a unimodular coefficient.*

### §5 $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric operators and unbroken $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric condition

A linear operator  $H$  is said to be  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric if  $H\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}H$ . As is known, in standard quantum mechanics, the Hamiltonians are assumed to be Hermitian such that all the eigenvalues are real and the evolution is unitary. In the  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric quantum theory, Bender replaced the Hermiticity of the Hamiltonians with  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetry. However, the  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetry of a linear operator does not imply that its eigenvalues must be real. Thus, Bender introduced the unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric condition. The Hamiltonian  $H$  is said to be unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric if there exists a collection of eigenvectors  $\Psi_i$  of  $H$  such that they span the whole space and  $\mathcal{P}\mathcal{T}\Psi_i = \Psi_i$ . It was shown that for a  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric Hamiltonian  $H$ , its eigenvalues are all real if and only if  $H$  is unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric [2]. In two dimensional space case, this condition has

a much simpler description and an important illustrative example. That is, if  $\mathcal{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{T}_0, H = \begin{pmatrix} re^{i\theta} & s \\ s & re^{-i\theta} \end{pmatrix}$ , then  $H$  is unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric iff  $s^2 \geq r^2 \sin^2 \theta$  [2].

In the following part, we shall give the unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetry condition for general  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric operators. To this end, we need the following proposition.



For a Hamiltonian  $H = \sum_{i=0}^3 h_i \sigma_i$  which is written in terms of Pauli operators, we denote  $\mathbf{f}_H = (Re(h_1), Re(h_2), Re(h_3))$  and  $\mathbf{b}_H = (Im(h_1), Im(h_2), Im(h_3))$ .

**Proposition 5.1.** *If  $H$  is a  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric operator, then it has four real parameters. Moreover, if  $H = \sum_{i=0}^3 h_i \sigma_i$ , then we have*

$$Im(h_0) = 0, \tag{28}$$

$$\mathbf{f}_H \cdot \mathbf{b}_H = 0. \tag{29}$$

*Proof.* It is apparent that  $\mathcal{PT}$  is also a time reversal operator. Thus we can assume that  $\mathcal{PT} = \sum_{j=0}^3 c_j \tau_j$ . Now the condition  $\mathcal{PT}H = H\mathcal{PT}$  is equivalent to

$$\left(\sum_{j=0}^3 c_j \tau_j \sigma_j\right) \left(\sum_{i=0}^3 h_i \sigma_i\right) = \left(\sum_{i=0}^3 h_i \sigma_i\right) \left(\sum_{j=0}^3 c_j \tau_j \sigma_j\right).$$

According to (10), this equation can be reduced to

$$c_0(\bar{h}_0 - h_0) + \sum_{i=1}^3 c_i(h_0 - \bar{h}_0)\sigma_i + \sum_{i=1}^3 c_i(h_i + \bar{h}_i) + i\sigma \cdot [\mathbf{c} \times (\bar{\mathbf{h}} - \mathbf{h})] - \sum_{i=1}^3 c_0(h_i + \bar{h}_i)\sigma_i = 0,$$

where  $\mathbf{h} = (h_1, h_2, h_3)$  and  $\bar{\mathbf{h}} = (\bar{h}_1, \bar{h}_2, \bar{h}_3)$ .

The equation above is equivalent to

$$Im(h_0) = 0, \tag{30}$$

$$\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{f}_H = 0, \tag{31}$$

$$\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{b}_H - c_0 \mathbf{f}_H = 0. \tag{32}$$

(i). When  $c_0 \neq 0$ . It follows (32) that  $\mathbf{f}_H = \frac{1}{c_0}(\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{b}_H)$ . Thus, the four parameters  $Im(h_1)$ ,  $Im(h_2)$ ,  $Im(h_3)$  and  $Re(h_0)$  determine  $H$ .

Note that (28) is the same as (30). On the other hand,  $\mathbf{f}_H = \frac{1}{c_0}(\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{b}_H)$  implies that  $\mathbf{f}_H \cdot \mathbf{b}_H = 0$ . Thus, (29) is also valid.

(ii). When  $c_0 = 0$ . (32) implies that  $\mathbf{b}_H = t\mathbf{c}$ . Thus, we only need one real parameter  $t$  to determine  $\mathbf{b}_H$ . (31) implies that  $\mathbf{f}_H$  should be orthogonal to  $\mathbf{c}$ . Hence two parameters are needed. With  $Re(h_0)$ , we have four parameters altogether.

In this case, (29) follows from the fact  $\mathbf{b}_H = t\mathbf{c}$  and the equation (31). □

**Theorem 5.2.** *If  $H$  is a  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric operator and  $\begin{pmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} \end{pmatrix}$  is the representation matrix of  $H$ , then  $H$  is unbroken if and only if  $(Re(h_{11} + h_{22}))^2 - 4Re(h_{11}h_{22} - h_{12}h_{21}) \geq 0$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\begin{pmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} \end{pmatrix}$  be the matrix of  $H$ ,  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue of  $H$ , then

$$\lambda^2 - (h_{11} + h_{22})\lambda + h_{11}h_{22} - h_{12}h_{21} = 0. \tag{33}$$

On the other hand, rewrite  $H = h_0\sigma_0 + h_1\sigma_1 + h_2\sigma_2 + h_3\sigma_3$ . It follows from (28) and (29) that

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Im}(h_{11} + h_{22}) &= 2\operatorname{Im}(h_0) = 0, \\ \operatorname{Im}(h_{11}h_{22} - h_{12}h_{21}) &= -\mathbf{f}_H \cdot \mathbf{b}_H = 0. \end{aligned}$$

The two equations above imply that

$$-\operatorname{Im}(h_{11} + h_{22})\lambda + \operatorname{Im}(h_{11}h_{22} - h_{12}h_{21}) = 0. \quad (34)$$

Substitute (34) into (33). Now the equation (33) reduces to

$$\lambda^2 - \operatorname{Re}(h_{11} + h_{22})\lambda + \operatorname{Re}(h_{11}h_{22} - h_{12}h_{21}) = 0, \quad (35)$$

According to (35),  $\lambda$  is a real number, that is,  $H$  is unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric, if and only if

$$(\operatorname{Re}(h_{11} + h_{22}))^2 - 4\operatorname{Re}(h_{11}h_{22} - h_{12}h_{21}) \geq 0. \quad (36)$$

□

**Remark 5.1.** Note that when the equality is valid in (36),  $H$  may be non-diagonalisable in general. In this case, the space  $\mathbb{C}^2$  is actually spanned an eigenvector  $\psi_1$  satisfying  $(H - \lambda_0 I)\psi_1 = 0$  and a generalized eigenvector  $\psi_2$  satisfying  $(H - \lambda_0 I)^2\psi_2 = 0$ , where  $\lambda_0 = \frac{1}{2}\operatorname{Re}(h_{11} + h_{22})$  is the eigenvalue.

**Remark 5.2.** Note that Bender's unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric condition in [2] is a special case of

(36). To see this, let  $H = \begin{pmatrix} re^{i\theta} & s \\ s & re^{-i\theta} \end{pmatrix}$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Re}(h_{11}) &= \operatorname{Re}(h_{22}) = r \cos \theta, \\ \operatorname{Re}(h_{11}h_{22} - h_{12}h_{21}) &= r^2 - s^2. \end{aligned}$$

Then (36) holds iff  $s^2 \geq r^2 \sin^2 \theta$ .

**Remark 5.3.** If  $H$  is a Hermitian operator, then it is also unbroken  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric. Usually, this can be shown by using canonical forms. However, in  $\mathbb{C}^2$ , it also follows from direct calculation.

In fact, since  $H = \sum_{i=0}^3 h_i\sigma_i$  is Hermitian, each  $h_i$  is a real number. Now we only need to find real coefficients  $c_0, c_1, c_2$  and  $c_3$  such that  $\sum_{i=1}^3 c_i^2 - c_0^2 = 1$  and equations (30) – (32) hold. Take  $c_0 = 0$  and  $c_1, c_2, c_3$  are such real numbers that  $\mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{f}_H = 0$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^3 c_i^2 = 1$ . Let  $\mathcal{PT} = \sum_{i=0}^3 c_i\tau_i$ . It is apparent that  $(\mathcal{PT})^2 = I$  and  $H$  is  $\mathcal{PT}$ -symmetric. Moreover, if we rewrite the Hermitian matrix as  $H = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ \bar{b} & a \end{pmatrix}$ , then  $[\operatorname{Re}(h_{11} + h_{22})]^2 - 4\operatorname{Re}(h_{11}h_{22} - h_{12}h_{21}) = 4a^2 - 4(a^2 - |b|^2) = 4|b|^2 \geq 0$  holds, so  $H$  is also unbroken.

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