

Homework 11 — PHYS373 2021

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Linear Spaces

- Suppose we have an inner product space, and two vectors in that space $|u\rangle$ and $|v\rangle$.
 - Suppose $\langle u | v \rangle = 0$, and let $|u + v\rangle = |u\rangle + |v\rangle$. Prove that $\langle u + v | u + v \rangle = \langle u | u \rangle + \langle v | v \rangle$. This is the *Pythagorean theorem*.

Solution: Using linearity of inner products, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \langle u + v | u + v \rangle &= \langle u | u + v \rangle + \langle v | u + v \rangle \\ &= \langle u | u \rangle + \langle u | v \rangle + \langle v | u \rangle + \langle v | v \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Since $|u\rangle$ and $|v\rangle$ are orthogonal, we have

$$= \langle u | u \rangle + 0 + 0 + \langle v | v \rangle = \langle u | u \rangle + \langle v | v \rangle$$

- Let the vector $|\mu\rangle = |u\rangle - \mu|v\rangle$ for two generic vectors $|u\rangle$ and $|v\rangle$ (not necessarily orthogonal) and any complex number μ . Since $\langle \mu | \mu \rangle$ is the inner product of a vector with itself, it is at least 0; $\langle \mu | \mu \rangle \geq 0$. Show that this implies $\langle u | u \rangle - \mu \langle u | v \rangle - \mu^* \langle v | u \rangle + |\mu|^2 \langle v | v \rangle \geq 0$ for any μ at all whatsoever.

Solution:

Since $|\mu\rangle = |u\rangle - \mu|v\rangle$, $\langle \mu | = \langle u | - \mu^* \langle v |$
 $\langle \mu | \mu \rangle \geq 0$ for any μ , so

$$\begin{aligned} &(\langle u | - \mu^* \langle v |)(|u\rangle - \mu|v\rangle) \\ &= \langle u | u \rangle - \mu \langle u | v \rangle - \mu^* \langle v | u \rangle + \mu^* \mu \langle v | v \rangle \\ &= \langle u | u \rangle - \mu \langle u | v \rangle - \mu^* \langle v | u \rangle + |\mu|^2 \langle v | v \rangle \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- By a tricky choice of $\mu = \langle v | u \rangle / \langle v | v \rangle$ (which is *some* number as long as $\langle v | v \rangle \neq 0$!) show that one finds $0 \leq |\langle u | v \rangle|^2 \leq \langle u | u \rangle \langle v | v \rangle$. This is called *Schwarz's Inequality*.

Solution: From the last part,

$$\langle u | u \rangle - \mu \langle u | v \rangle - \mu^* \langle v | u \rangle + |\mu|^2 \langle v | v \rangle \geq 0$$

Using $\mu = \langle v | u \rangle / \langle v | v \rangle$,

$$\langle u | u \rangle - \frac{\langle v | u \rangle}{\langle v | v \rangle} \langle u | v \rangle - \frac{\langle v | u \rangle^*}{\langle v | v \rangle} \langle v | u \rangle + \frac{|\langle v | u \rangle|^2}{\langle v | v \rangle^2} \langle v | v \rangle \geq 0$$

Also, since $\langle v | u \rangle \langle v | u \rangle^* = \langle v | u \rangle^* \langle v | u \rangle = |\langle v | u \rangle|^2$, and $\langle u | v \rangle = \langle v | u \rangle^*$,

$$\langle u | u \rangle - \frac{|\langle v | u \rangle|^2}{\langle v | v \rangle} - \frac{|\langle v | u \rangle|^2}{\langle v | v \rangle} + \frac{|\langle v | u \rangle|^2}{\langle v | v \rangle} \geq 0$$

$$\langle u | u \rangle - \frac{|\langle v | u \rangle|^2}{\langle v | v \rangle} \geq 0$$

$$\langle u | u \rangle \geq \frac{|\langle v | u \rangle|^2}{\langle v | v \rangle}$$

$$\langle u | u \rangle \langle v | v \rangle \geq |\langle v | u \rangle|^2$$

If you want to think in terms of familiar geometric language, $|\langle u | v \rangle|^2$ is like the (magnitude) square of the dot product of two vectors. That's got to be at least zero. Since $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = ab \cos \theta$ where θ is the angle between them, the dot product is at most ab (when $\theta = 0$ —the vectors are parallel).

- (d) The zero vector is the vector whose length is zero. It gets a lot of special treatment. For example, a lot of times we don't write it as a ket, we just write 0, so $|u\rangle = |u\rangle + 0$. Rarely, you might find texts that write just $| \rangle$ (with nothing inside), 'the null ket'.¹ When we say its length is zero we mean $\langle | \rangle = 0$.

Use the inequality proved in part (c) to show that the inner product of the zero vector with *any* vector is zero. Note that you cannot let $|v\rangle$ be the null ket because $\langle v | v \rangle$ is in the denominator for μ —you've got to let $|u\rangle$ be the null ket.

Solution:

Let $|u\rangle = | \rangle$ and $|v\rangle$ is an arbitrary vector. By the Schwarz inequality,

$$\langle u | u \rangle \langle v | v \rangle \geq |\langle v | u \rangle|^2 \geq 0$$

$$\langle | \rangle \langle v | v \rangle \geq |\langle v | \rangle|^2 \geq 0$$

Clearly $\langle | \rangle = 0$, thus

$$0 \geq |\langle v | \rangle|^2 \geq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow |\langle v | \rangle|^2 = 0 \Rightarrow \langle v | \rangle = 0$$

This is what *justifies* writing the null ket as just 0 (without the $|$ funny brackets \rangle) in the first place! Otherwise, we'd be adding a vector to a number which...?

2. Consider a four-dimensional inner product space with orthonormal kets $|1\rangle$, $|2\rangle$, $|3\rangle$, and $|4\rangle$ which satisfy

$$\langle m | n \rangle = \delta_{mn} \quad (\text{that's 16 equations, one for each combination of } m, n \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}) \quad (1)$$

¹But! We *do not* usually write the zero vector as $|0\rangle$. In quantum mechanics, for example, we often write $|0\rangle$ for the ground state—which is a state just like any other generic state, in that its norm isn't zero

Suppose we have two vectors $|f\rangle$ and $|g\rangle$ given in that basis in terms of their (complex) components f_i and g_i ,

$$|f\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^4 f_i |i\rangle \quad |g\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^4 g_i |i\rangle \quad (2)$$

- (a) Show that $\langle f | g \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^4 f_i^* g_i$.

Solution: Given $|f\rangle, \langle f| = \sum_{i=1}^4 f_i^* \langle i|$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f | g \rangle &= \sum_{i=1}^4 f_i^* \langle i | \sum_{j=1}^4 g_j | j \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^4 \sum_{j=1}^4 f_i^* \langle i | g_j | j \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^4 \sum_{j=1}^4 f_i^* g_j \langle i | j \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^4 \sum_{j=1}^4 f_i^* g_j \delta_{ij} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^4 f_i^* g_i \end{aligned}$$

- (b) Suppose we restricted ourselves to the space of vectors where the third and fourth components were always equal. In other words, vectors of the form $|g\rangle = g_1 |1\rangle + g_2 |2\rangle + g_3(|3\rangle + |4\rangle)$. This subspace is 3-dimensional, in the sense that you've only got to specify 3 numbers (components) to determine any vector in it. However, they don't have the 'usual' inner product! Show that for these vectors the inner product can be written $\langle f | g \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^4 f_i^* g_i = \sum_{i=1}^3 f_i^* g_i w_i$ where $w_1 = 1$, $w_2 = 1$, and $w_3 = 2$.

Solution: $f_3^* = f_4^*$, so $f_3^* + f_4^* = 2f_3^*$, and the same is valid for g , so

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f | g \rangle &= f_1^* g_1 + f_2^* g_2 + f_3^* g_3 + f_4^* g_4 \\ &= f_1^* g_1 + f_2^* g_2 + 2f_3^* g_3 = \sum_{i=1}^3 f_i^* g_i w_i \end{aligned}$$

where $w_1 = 1$, $w_2 = 1$, and $w_3 = 2$.

- (c) The general construction $\langle f | g \rangle = \sum_i f_i^* g_i w_i$ is called a *weighted* inner product; w_i is called the *weight* of component i . Show that if all the weights are real and positive, this inner product satisfies
1. $\langle f | g \rangle = \langle g | f \rangle^*$ (complex conjugation property)
 2. $\langle f | f \rangle \geq 0$ (positive-semidefiniteness)
 3. $\langle f | f \rangle = 0$ if and only if all the components of f are 0 (uniqueness of the zero vector).
 4. $\langle f | g + h \rangle = \langle f | g \rangle + \langle f | h \rangle$ (linearity; $|g + h\rangle$ means $|g\rangle + |h\rangle$)
 5. $\langle f | \alpha g \rangle = \alpha \langle f | g \rangle$ (linearity; $|\alpha g\rangle$ means $\alpha |g\rangle$)

(Notice that linearity in the bra, $\langle f + g | h \rangle = \langle f | h \rangle + \langle g | h \rangle$ and $\langle \alpha f | g \rangle = \alpha^* \langle f | g \rangle$ follow from combining the complex conjugation property with the linearity properties you showed for the ket.)

Solution:

1. $\langle g | f \rangle = \sum_i g_i^* f_i w_i$, so $\langle g | f \rangle^* = \sum_i g_i f_i^* w_i^*$. But since w_i is real, $w_i = w_i^*$ and

$$\langle g | f \rangle^* = \sum_i g_i f_i^* w_i = \sum_i g_i f_i^* w_i = \langle f | g \rangle$$

- 2.

$$\langle f | f \rangle = \sum_i f_i^* f_i w_i = \sum_i |f_i|^2 w_i \geq 0$$

since w_i is positive, this is a sum of all positive terms.

3. If $f = 0$, $\langle f | f \rangle = 0$ is clear per 1(d). (multiplying zeros by weights wouldn't change anything)

Now suppose $\langle f | f \rangle = 0$, thus

$$\langle f | f \rangle = \sum_i |f_i|^2 w_i = 0$$

Since $w_i > 0$, $|f_i|^2 = 0$, for all i . Therefore $f = 0$.

- 4.

$$\langle f | g + h \rangle = \sum_i f_i^* (g_i + h_i) w_i = \sum_i f_i^* g_i w_i + \sum_i f_i^* h_i w_i = \langle f | g \rangle + \langle f | h \rangle$$

- 5.

$$\langle f | \alpha g \rangle = \sum_i f_i^* \alpha g_i w_i = \alpha \sum_i f_i^* g_i w_i = \alpha \langle f | g \rangle$$

- (d) Which property/properties in part (c) wouldn't be true if the weights w were allowed to be complex?

Solution: 1, since we use the fact that $w_i = w_i^*$.

- (e) Which property/properties in part (c) wouldn't be true if the weights w were allowed to be negative?

Solution: Considering non-zero negatives, 2, since we use that $w_i > 0$ to ensure it's a sum of positive terms.

- (f) Which property/properties in part (c) wouldn't be true if the weights were all real but some of the weights were allowed to be zero?

Solution: 3. If a weight is zero, it can 'kill' a non-zero term of a vector. A vector with a non-zero term isn't the null vector, but this way it could have a 0 product.

- (g) You don't have to write anything, but convince yourself that for functions, the *weighted inner product* $\langle f | g \rangle = \int f^*(x) g(x) w(x) dx$ for some finite or infinite interval of x has all the nice part-(c)-properties as long as the *weight function* $w(x)$ is a real, positive function.

3. Suppose you have a complete orthogonal (but not orthonormal) basis of kets $\{|i\rangle\}$, $\langle i|j\rangle = n_i^2 \delta_{ij}$ for all i and j , where n_i is the *normalization* of $|i\rangle$; n_i is a positive, real number. Since it's a complete basis we can write any vector $|f\rangle = \sum_i f_i |i\rangle$ in that basis.

(a) Show that $f_j = \langle j|f\rangle / \langle j|j\rangle$.

Solution:

$$\frac{\langle j|f\rangle}{\langle j|j\rangle} = \frac{\langle j|\sum_i f_i |i\rangle}{n_j^2} = \sum_i f_i \frac{\langle j|i\rangle}{n_j^2} = \sum_i f_i \frac{n_j^2 \delta_{ji}}{n_j^2} = \sum_i f_i \delta_{ji} = f_j$$

- (b) Suppose you have another vector $|g\rangle$ (defined like $|f\rangle$, but with components g_i in the basis we're discussing). Show that $\langle f|g\rangle = \sum_i f_i^* g_i w_i$ where $w_i = n_i^2$. *In other words, a weighted inner product comes up in a basis where the kets aren't necessarily normalized to 1.*

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f|g\rangle &= \sum_i f_i^* \langle i|\sum_j g_j |j\rangle \\ &= \sum_i \sum_j f_i^* \langle i|g_j |j\rangle \\ &= \sum_i \sum_j f_i^* g_j \langle i|j\rangle \\ &= \sum_i \sum_j f_i^* g_j n_i^2 \delta_{ij} = \sum_i f_i^* g_i n_i^2 \end{aligned}$$

Operators

4. In HW07Q9 and HW09Q1 we discussed the *translation operator*. We said $T(\Delta)f(x) = f(x-\Delta)$. Suppose that $|f\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx f(x) |x\rangle$. Consider the operator

$$T(\Delta) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx |x+\Delta\rangle \langle x| \quad (3)$$

which replaces any $|x\rangle$ with the ket $|x+\Delta\rangle$ instead. Show that when we apply the operator $T(\Delta)$ to $|f\rangle$ we get

$$T(\Delta)|f\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x-\Delta) |x\rangle. \quad (4)$$

Solution:

5. The differentiation operator D is the² *limit*,

$$D = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{T(0) - T(\epsilon)}{\epsilon}; \quad (5)$$

where what we *mean* is: first apply the operator $T(0)$ and $T(\epsilon)$, then take the limit $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. Show that when applied to $|f\rangle = \int dx f(x) |x\rangle$,

$$D|f\rangle = \int dx f'(x) |x\rangle \quad (6)$$

which we can call $|f'\rangle$. (Use the result from the previous question!; you can assume the limit commutes with any integration and the necessary limits exist)

Solution:

6. Consider the space of complex-valued functions on $x = (-\infty, +\infty)$. The *Laplacian* L is a linear operator given by

$$L = D^2 \quad (7)$$

where D is the differentiation operator from the previous question. (D^2 means: first apply D and then apply D again.)

- (a) Suppose we have a vector $|f\rangle = \int dx f(x) |x\rangle$. Show that $L|f\rangle = |f''\rangle = \int dx f''(x) |x\rangle$. (Use the result from the previous problem!)

Solution:

- (b) Recall that the *Fourier basis* is given by the vectors

$$|k\rangle = \int dx e^{ikx} |x\rangle \quad \langle p | k \rangle = 2\pi\delta(p-k) \quad (8)$$

for all $k \in \mathbb{R}$. Show that $L|k\rangle = -k^2|k\rangle$. (Hint: use the result from the previous part!) (In other words, the *Fourier basis* is made up of eigenstates of the Laplacian; the eigenvalue corresponding to $|k\rangle$ is $-k^2$. Since all the eigenvalues are real, the Laplacian is a Hermitian operator.)

²You could take a symmetrical definition $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} [T(-\epsilon) - T(+\epsilon)]/2\epsilon$ or some other sensible definition instead; they all agree in the $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ limit.

Solution:

(c) Check that in the Fourier basis we may write

$$L = \int \frac{dk}{2\pi} |k\rangle (-k^2) \langle k| \quad (9)$$

by applying this operator to $|p\rangle$ (a vector in the Fourier basis) to get $L|p\rangle = -p^2|p\rangle$. (Hint: it will be easier to stay in the Fourier basis and use the orthogonality relation $\langle k|p\rangle = 2\pi\delta(p-k)$.)

Solution:

Prep Work for Spherical Coordinates

7. Consider 3-dimensional space with coordinates x , y , and z . We can describe any point by its 3 cartesian coordinates (x, y, z) , but can also describe any point by its *spherical coordinates* (r, θ, ϕ) , as shown in the figure below. (Another figure is available in Boas 5.4 by equation 4.5.) While x , y , and z can take any value $(-\infty, +\infty)$, and each point has only one set of coordinates in that basis, we have to be more careful with the r , θ , and ϕ coordinates. First of all, ϕ is 2π -periodic—if you increase ϕ by 2π you get back to the same point. So ϕ can go from 0 to 2π (or from $-\pi$ to $+\pi$, or any other convenient choice—functions are always 2π -periodic in ϕ).

Next, θ can go from 0 to π ; you can describe a point which has a θ that's more than π by increasing ϕ by π and using a θ that's less than π . In other words, a point $(r, \theta > \pi, \phi)$ can also be described by $(r, 2\pi - \theta, \phi + \pi)$. Finally, r can go from 0 to ∞ ; a point with coordinates $(-r, \theta, \phi)$ can be described by $(+r, \pi - \theta, \phi + \pi)$ instead.

(You can either do part a using geometry and then part b via algebra, or part b using geometry and then part a via algebra, whichever you find easier! Maybe do both from geometry. Up to you!)

- (a) Use the normal rules of euclidean geometry to show

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \qquad \tan \phi = \frac{y}{x} \qquad \cos \theta = \frac{z}{r} \qquad (10)$$

Solution:

- (b) Show that these relationships may also be solved for x , y , and z to give

$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi \qquad y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi \qquad z = r \cos \theta \qquad (11)$$

Solution:

- (c) When we compute integrals over space using cartesian coordinates it's easy; $\int dV = \int dx dy dz$. But if we integrate over space it's not just $\int dV \neq \int dr d\theta d\phi$. For one thing, the units are wrong! dV is supposed to have dimensions of length³ but since θ and ϕ are angles they don't have dimension (or, if you like, their dimensions are radians; certainly not length, anyway!). So, what went wrong? We need to include the *Jacobian*.

The Jacobian is given by

$$J = \det \begin{pmatrix} \partial_r x & \partial_r y & \partial_r z \\ \partial_\theta x & \partial_\theta y & \partial_\theta z \\ \partial_\phi x & \partial_\phi y & \partial_\phi z \end{pmatrix} \qquad (12)$$

Show that $J = r^2 \sin \theta$. (See Boas 5.4 eq (4.14) for help.)

Solution:

Therefore, if we integrate some function f over some region of space $\int dV f$ we can either say the integral is $\int dx dy dz f(x, y, z)$ or $\int r^2 dr \sin \theta d\theta d\phi f(r, \theta, \phi)$ over the same region of space (but written in different coordinates). We usually say $f(r, \theta, \phi)$ doesn't mean plug in r where you see x , θ for y , and ϕ for z —instead it means you should plug in x , y , and z in terms of the r , θ , and ϕ variables, given by (11).

- (d) Sometimes it's convenient to think in terms of $u = \cos \theta$. What is du in terms of θ and $d\theta$? If θ goes from 0 to π , what values does u take? Rewrite $\int_0^\pi d\theta \sin \theta f(\cos \theta)$ as an integral over u .

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Solution:

As Always

8. How long did this problem set take you?

Optional Practice

9. Boas 3.10.7 and 3.10.8
10. Boas 3.10.10 (the triangle inequality; the notation $||f||$ means $\sqrt{\langle f | f \rangle}$, see 3.10 eqn 10.2.)
11. Find the Jacobian for *cylindrical coordinates*, $(r, \phi, z) = (\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \arctan y/x, z)$.

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