

# Problem Set 1

Oskar Idland

### Problem 1.1 (L)

We define  $|u\rangle$  and  $\langle u|$ .

$$|u\rangle = \alpha |u_1\rangle + \beta |u_2\rangle \quad , \quad \langle u| = |u\rangle^\dagger = \alpha^* \langle u_1| + \beta^* \langle u_2|$$

Using the distributive property of the inner product, we get

$$\langle u|w\rangle = (\alpha^* \langle u_1| + \beta^* \langle u_2|) |w\rangle = \alpha^* \langle u_1|w\rangle + \beta^* \langle u_2|w\rangle$$

### Problem 1.2 (L)

Defining  $|w\rangle$ .

$$|w\rangle = \alpha |w_1\rangle + \beta |w_2\rangle$$

Defining the relationship between  $|w\rangle$  and  $\langle w|$ .

$$\langle w| = |w\rangle^\dagger = (\alpha |w_1\rangle + \beta |w_2\rangle)^\dagger$$

Using the distributive property of the conjugate transpose, we arrive at

$$\langle w| = (\alpha |w_1\rangle)^\dagger + (\beta |w_2\rangle)^\dagger = \alpha^* \langle w_1| + \beta^* \langle w_2|$$

### Problem 1.3 (L)

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f|g\rangle &= \int_a^b f(x)^* g(x) \, dx \\ \langle f|f\rangle &= \int_a^b f(x)^2 \, dx \end{aligned}$$

All values of  $f(x)^2$  are greater or equal to zero. Therefore, the integral is only zero if  $f(x) = 0$  for all  $x$ .

### Problem 1.4 (L)

$$\langle a_i|V\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^N \langle a_i|v_i|a_j\rangle$$

As all the basis vectors are orthonormal, the only non-zero term in the sum is when  $i = j$ . As the basis vectors are orthonormal their magnitude is one. Therefore, we get the following.

$$v_i \langle a_i|a_i\rangle = v_i$$

### Problem 1.5 (L)

$$\langle x|f\rangle = \int dx' f(x') \langle x|x'\rangle = \int dx' f(x') \delta(x-x')$$

The Dirac delta picks out the only value of  $x'$  that gives a non-zero value. Therefore, we get the following.

$$\therefore \langle x|f\rangle = f(x)$$

Applying the identity **I** operator to  $|f\rangle$ , we get the following.

$$\mathbf{I}|x\rangle = \int_0^L dx' |x'\rangle \langle x'|x\rangle = \int_0^L dx' |x'\rangle \delta(x-x') = |x\rangle$$

### Problem 1.6 (H)

a)

Using trig identities we know that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta_{\epsilon}(x) dx = \frac{1}{\pi} [\arctan(x/\epsilon)]_{-\infty}^{\infty} = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \left( -\frac{\pi}{2} \right) \right] = 1$$

b)

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{\epsilon/k}(x) &= k\delta_{\epsilon}(kx) \\ \frac{1}{k\pi} \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon^2 + x^2} &= \frac{k}{\pi} \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon^2 + (kx)^2} \\ \frac{1}{k\pi} \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon^2 + x^2} &= \frac{k}{k^2\pi} \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon^2 + x^2} = \underline{\underline{\frac{1}{k\pi} \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon^2 + x^2}}} \end{aligned}$$

c)

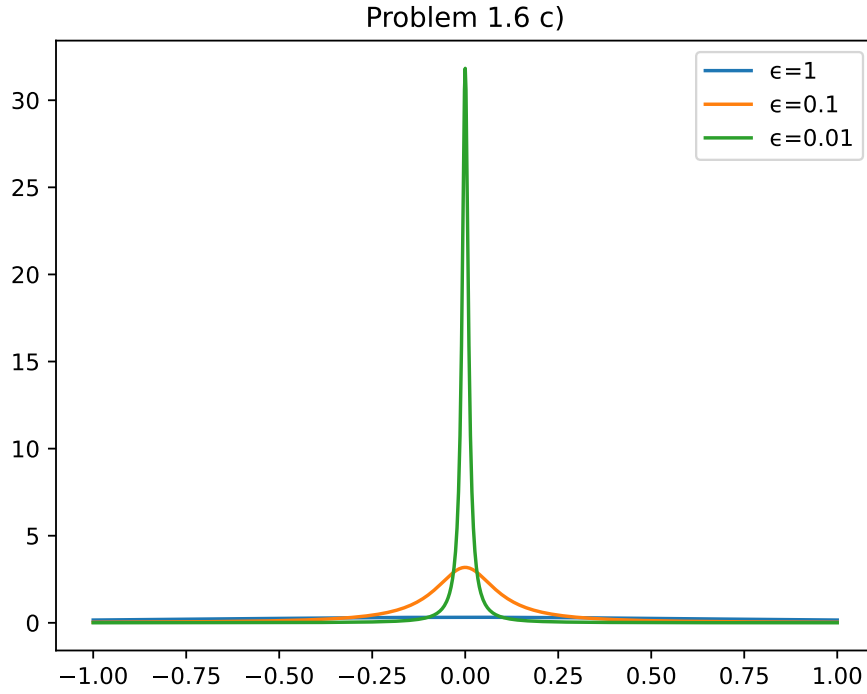


Figure 1: Numerical plot of  $\delta_\epsilon(x)$  for  $\epsilon = 1$ ,  $\epsilon = 0.1$  and  $\epsilon = 0.01$ .

d)

Assuming we have an infinite number of arguments  $x$  and values  $y = \delta_1(x)$ , we can use the conclusions from exercise b).

$$\delta_{0.1}(x) = 10\delta_1(10x).$$

To obtain a similar table for the new function  $\delta_{0.1}(x)$ , we map our new table's  $y$ -value to the table of  $\delta_1$   $y$ -value for the same  $x$ -argument times 10, and multiply that result again, by 10.

$$x_{0.1} \mapsto x_1 \quad , \quad y_{0.1} \mapsto 10y_1(10x_1)$$

### Problem 1.7 (H)

As the basis are orthonormal we know  $\langle b_i | b_j \rangle = 1$ , if  $i = j$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{P}_1 |A\rangle &= \sum_{i=1}^N |b_1\rangle \langle b_1 | \alpha_i | b_i \rangle = \underline{\underline{\alpha_1 |b_1\rangle}} \\ \hat{P}_1 \hat{P}_1 |A\rangle &= \hat{P}_1 \alpha_1 |b_1\rangle = \alpha_1 |b_1\rangle \underbrace{\langle b_1 | b_1 \rangle}_1 = \underline{\underline{\alpha_1 |b_1\rangle}}\end{aligned}$$

The operator  $\hat{P}_1$  can be considered as a projection operator. It finds the projection of the ket  $|A\rangle$  onto the basis vector  $|b_1\rangle$ . As the basis vectors are orthonormal, the operator  $\hat{P}_1$  only picks out the component of  $|A\rangle$  that is parallel to  $|b_1\rangle$  together with its magnitude.

### Problem 1.8 (E)

A quantum state is a complex vector (ket) in a Hilbert space. The ket vector contains all there is to know about the system. It contains the probabilities of all possible outcomes of a measurement. The difference between a quantum state and a classical state, is that the classical state does not change when measured, but the quantum state does. With a complete description of a classical state you know deterministically how it will behave in the past and future. With a quantum state it's only probabilistic what might happen in the future. To gather information of a classical state, you just need to look at the values. Its position is just its position. To gather information of a quantum state, we use operators, which acts on the ket, and gives us the probabilities of different outcomes.

### Problem 1.9 (E)

$$\begin{aligned}|u\rangle &\simeq \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad , \quad |v\rangle \simeq \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad , \quad \alpha = a + ib \\ \langle u | v \rangle &= \underline{\underline{u_1^* v_1 + u_2^* v_2}} \\ \langle u | \alpha | v \rangle &= \langle u | (a |v\rangle + ib |v\rangle) = a \langle u | v \rangle + ib \langle u | v \rangle \\ \langle u | \alpha | v \rangle &= \underline{\underline{au_1^* v_1 + ibu_2^* v_2}}\end{aligned}$$