

# Ph125: Problem Set 1 Solutions

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## Problem 1

Note that,

$$|3\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ -2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = 2|1\rangle + |2\rangle .$$

Therefore, vector  $|3\rangle$  is a linear combination of vectors  $|1\rangle$  and  $|2\rangle$ . This indicates that  $|1\rangle, |2\rangle$  and  $|3\rangle$  are not linearly independent.

## Problem 2

(a) The characteristic equation is,

$$\det[\Lambda - \lambda I] = \begin{vmatrix} 4 - \lambda & 1 \\ -1 & 2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 ,$$

which gives,

$$(\lambda - 3)^2 = 0 ,$$

with roots  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 3$ . Those are the eigenvalues of the matrix  $\Lambda$ . The eigenspace is two-fold degenerate. Since  $\lambda = 3$  is the only eigenvalue, we find that the components  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  of the corresponding eigenvectors must obey the matrix equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 - 3 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 - 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0} .$$

It is now evident that all eigenvectors are of the form  $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ -a \end{pmatrix}$ .

(b) This time the characteristic equation has the form,

$$\det[\Omega - \lambda I] = \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} 2 - 2\lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 - 2\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 - 2\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 ,$$

i.e.,

$$(\lambda - 1)^2(\lambda - 2) = 0 .$$

Thus the eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 1$ ,  $\lambda_3 = 2$ . The space spanned by eigenstates corresponding to eigenvalues  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  is degenerate. For  $\lambda = 1$  we get,

$$\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 2 - 2 \cdot 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 - 2 \cdot 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 3 - 2 \cdot 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0},$$

which yields the first two normalized eigenvectors,

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{v}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

For  $\lambda = 2$  the third normalized eigenvector turns out to be,

$$\vec{v}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

### Problem 3

- (a) Take  $i = j$ , we have  $M^{i2} = I$ . Since the eigenvectors of a Hermitian matrix form a complete basis, we can write  $M^i$  as  $U^{i\dagger} D^i U^i$ , where  $D^i$  is diagonal and  $U^i$  is unitary. The condition  $M^{i2} = I$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} M^{i2} &= U^{i\dagger} D^{i2} U^i = I, \\ D^{i2} &= \text{Diag}(\lambda_1^2, \lambda_2^2, \dots, \lambda_i^2, \dots) = I, \\ \lambda_i^2 &= 1, \forall i. \\ \lambda_i &= \pm 1, \forall i. \end{aligned}$$

- (b) For a given matrix  $M^i$ , pick another matrix  $M^j$  ( $j \neq i$ ). Use  $M^i M^j = -M^j M^i$ ,  $M^{j2} = I$  and cyclic property of trace, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(M^i) &= \text{Tr}(M^i M^j M^j) \\ &= \text{Tr}(M^j M^i M^j) \\ &= \text{Tr}(-M^i M^j M^j) = -\text{Tr}(M^i), \end{aligned}$$

where we use the cyclic property of trace in the second equality and  $M^i M^j = -M^j M^i$  in the third equality. It is clear that  $\text{Tr}(M^i)$  has to be zero, i.e.,  $M^i$  is traceless.

- (c) The trace is related to eigenvalues by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(M^i) &= \text{Tr}(U^{i\dagger} D^i U^i) = \text{Tr}(U^i U^{i\dagger} D^i) \\ &= \text{Tr}(D^i) = \sum_i \lambda_i. \end{aligned}$$

The vanishing trace implies the sum of eigenvalues are zero. However, we know from a.) that  $\lambda_i = \pm 1$ . The only case for  $\sum_i \lambda_i = 0$  is that the number of +1 eigenvalues equals to the number of -1. Therefore, the dimension of the matrices, which is the total number of eigenvalues, must be even.

## Problem 4

The function  $g_\Delta$  is exactly the Gaussian distribution. From the property of Gaussian distribution, it satisfies

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} g_\Delta(x - x') dx' = 1.$$

As  $\Delta \rightarrow 0$ , the width of the Gaussian distribution goes to zero. Thus for  $x \neq x'$ ,  $g_\Delta(x - x')$  approaches to zero. (One can show it rigorously by taking limit of  $e^{-1/\Delta^2}/\Delta$ .) Since  $g_\Delta(x - x')$  is nonzero only at  $x = x'$ , the above integral in the limit of  $\Delta \rightarrow 0$  can be generalize to

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} g_\Delta(x - x') dx' = \int_b^a g_\Delta(x - x') dx' = 1,$$

where  $a > x > b$ . We find  $g_\Delta$  in the limit of  $\Delta \rightarrow 0$  satisfies the properties of delta function.

One can prove  $\int_b^a f(x') g_\Delta(x - x') dx' = f(x)$  by Taylor expanding the test function  $f(x')$  around  $x$ . All the terms after integration over  $x'$  scale with  $\Delta$  to positive powers, except for the constant term  $f(x)$ . Thus, the integration goes to the result of Dirac delta function in the limit of  $\Delta \rightarrow 0$ . (This part is not required for full credit.)

## Problem 5

- (a) We define the addition and multiplication as the usual operation on functions. The differentiation is also a linear operator. Obviously, all the axioms of vector space are satisfied.

However, we need to check if the boundary condition  $f(0) = f(2\pi) = 0$  still holds under addition and multiplication.

For  $f, g, h \in V$  and  $a, b \in \mathcal{R}$ , we have

- Commutativity:  $f(x) + g(x) = g(x) + f(x) \equiv [f + g](x)$ . Note that  $[f + g](x)$  is still real, twice differentiable, and  $[f + g](0) = f(0) + g(0) = 0$  (similarly for  $[f + g](2\pi)$ ). Thus, the addition is close.
- Associativity:  $(f(x) + g(x)) + h(x) = f(x) + (g(x) + h(x))$
- Identity:  $I(x) \equiv 0$  is the identity of the vector space.  $f(x) + I(x) = I(x) + f(x) = f(x)$ ,  $\forall f \in V$ .
- Inverse: For every  $f(x)$ , define  $f^{-1}(x) \equiv -f(x)$ . We find  $f(x) + f^{-1}(x) = f^{-1}(x) + f(x) = 0 = I(x)$ .
- Associativity of multiplication:  $a(bf(x)) = b(af(x))$
- Distributivity of scalar sums:  $(a + b)f(x) = af(x) + bf(x)$
- Distributivity of vector sums:  $a(f(x) + g(x)) = af(x) + ag(x)$
- Distributivity of vector sums:  $1 \cdot f(x) = f(x)$

Note that the multiplication is also close.  $af(x)$  is real, twice differentiable, and vanishes at 0 and  $2\pi$ .

- (b) The axioms of an inner product are

- $\langle f|g \rangle = \langle g|f \rangle^*$ : By definition we know  $\langle f|g \rangle = \int_0^{2\pi} f(x)g(x)dx = \int_0^{2\pi} (g(x)f(x))^* dx = \langle g|f \rangle^*$ . The functions are real so their complex conjugate are the same.

- Linearity: For  $a, b \in \mathcal{R}$  and  $f, g, h \in V$ ,  $\langle af + bg|h \rangle = \int_0^{2\pi} (af(x) + bg(x))h(x) dx = \int_0^{2\pi} (af(x)h(x) + bg(x)h(x))dx = a\langle f|h \rangle + b\langle g|h \rangle$
- Positive definiteness:  $\langle f|f \rangle = \int_0^{2\pi} f^2(x)dx \geq 0$ , since  $f$  is real. And  $\langle f|f \rangle = 0$  only happens for  $f(x) = 0 = I(x)$ .

(c) To check whether an operator is Hermitian or not in infinite dimensional vector space, we need to verify that the matrix element satisfies

$$\begin{aligned}\langle f|\hat{O}|g \rangle &= \langle f|\hat{O}^\dagger|g \rangle \\ \langle f|\hat{O}g \rangle &= \langle g|\hat{O}f \rangle^* \\ \langle f|\hat{O}g \rangle &= \langle g|\hat{O}f \rangle^*.\end{aligned}$$

In our definition of inner product, this means we need to check

$$\int_0^{2\pi} f(x) \frac{d^2g}{dx^2} dx = \left( \int_0^{2\pi} g(x) \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} dx \right)^*.$$

*Proof:*

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^{2\pi} f \frac{d^2g}{dx^2} dx &= f \frac{dg}{dx} \Big|_0^{2\pi} - \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{df}{dx} \frac{dg}{dx} dx \\ &= - \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{df}{dx} \frac{dg}{dx} dx \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} g \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} dx \\ &= \left( \int_0^{2\pi} g \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} dx \right)^*.\end{aligned}$$

The boundary term vanishes by boundary condition. In the third equality, we use the fact that the second line is symmetric of  $f$  and  $g$ , so it equals the term in right-hand-side but with  $f$  and  $g$  swapped. The final equality is again from the reality of the functions.

(d) The eigenvalue problem is the same as solving the differential equation

$$\hat{O}f(x) = \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} = \lambda f(x),$$

with boundary condition  $f(0) = f(2\pi) = 0$ .

The nontrivial solution is  $F_n(x) = \sin(\omega_n x)$  with  $\lambda = -\omega_n^2$ , where  $\omega_n = n/2, n \in \mathcal{N}$  is fixed by the condition  $f(2\pi) = 0$ . Note that  $\omega = 0$  gives trivial eigenfunction and  $\omega = -1/2, -1, -3/2, \dots$  corresponds to the same eigenfunctions as  $\omega_n$ , so they shouldn't be included.

Note that hyperbolic functions solve the differential equation but doesn't satisfy the boundary condition.

(e) For  $n \neq m$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle F_n(x)|F_m(x)\rangle &= \int_0^{2\pi} \sin(n/2x) \sin(m/2x) dx \\
&= 2 \int_0^\pi \sin(ny) \sin(my) dy \\
&= \int_0^\pi \cos((n-m)y) - \cos((n+m)y) dy \\
&= \left[ \frac{1}{n-m} \sin((n-m)y) - \frac{1}{n+m} \sin((n+m)y) \right]_0^\pi
\end{aligned}$$

This is zero if  $n \neq m$ .

For  $n = m$ , we can use the fact that  $\sin^2(x)$  has average  $1/2$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle F_n(x)|F_n(x)\rangle &= \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2(n/2x) dx \\
&= \frac{1}{2} 2\pi = \pi.
\end{aligned}$$

To normalize  $F_n$ , we rescale it to be

$$F_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sin\left(\frac{n}{2}x\right), n \in \mathcal{N}.$$

(f) We can extend the definition of  $f(x)$  to  $[-2\pi, 0]$  by defining  $f(-x) \equiv -f(x)$  for  $x \in [0, 2\pi]$ . The Fourier theorem states that any periodic function in  $[-2\pi, 2\pi]$  can be written as

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum a_n \sin(n/2x) + \sum b_n \cos(n/2x).$$

Given the boundary condition  $f(0) = f(\pm 2\pi) = 0$ , we find  $a_0 = b_n = 0$ . So every function in  $V$  can be written as a series of sine functions, which are the eigenfunctions  $F_n(x)$ .

(g) We know  $f(x) = \sum_n a_n F_n(x)$  and  $\langle F_n(x)|F_m(x)\rangle = \delta_{nm}$ . The norm of  $f(x)$  reads

$$\begin{aligned}
|f(x)|^2 &= \langle f(x)|f(x)\rangle \\
&= \sum_{n,m} a_n a_m \langle F_n(x)|F_m(x)\rangle \\
&= \sum_{n,m} a_n a_m \delta_{nm} \\
&= \sum_n a_n^2.
\end{aligned}$$

This gives  $|f(x)| = \sqrt{\sum_n a_n^2}$ .