Problem 1

Let $|v\rangle$ and $|w\rangle$ be any two nonzero vectors in an inner product space. We start by defining a vector orthogonal to $|w\rangle$, which will serve to project $|v\rangle$ onto a plane orthogonal to $|w\rangle$:

$$|u\rangle \equiv \left(\mathbb{I} - \frac{|w\rangle \langle w|}{\langle w|w\rangle}\right)|v\rangle . \tag{1}$$

One can check that indeed $\langle w|u\rangle = 0$. Now rearrange this as:

$$|v\rangle = |u\rangle + \frac{\langle w|v\rangle}{\langle w|w\rangle} |w\rangle , \qquad (2)$$

and take the inner product with $\langle v|$ on the left side, and the expression for $|v\rangle$ in turns of $|u\rangle$ and $|w\rangle$ on the right side. We find:

$$\langle v|v\rangle = \left(\langle u| + \frac{\langle v|w\rangle}{\langle w|w\rangle} \langle w|\right) \left(|u\rangle + \frac{\langle w|v\rangle}{\langle w|w\rangle} |w\rangle\right)$$

$$= \langle u|u\rangle + \frac{\langle v|w\rangle}{\langle w|w\rangle} \langle w|u\rangle + \frac{\langle w|v\rangle}{\langle w|w\rangle} \langle u|w\rangle + \frac{|\langle w|v\rangle|^2}{\langle w|w\rangle}$$

$$= \langle u|u\rangle + \frac{|\langle w|v\rangle|^2}{\langle w|w\rangle},$$
(3)

where in the last line we have made use of the orthogonality of $|u\rangle$ and $|w\rangle$. Thus we have:

$$\langle v|v\rangle = \langle u|u\rangle + \frac{|\langle w|v\rangle|^2}{\langle w|w\rangle}.$$
 (4)

Since the norm of a vector is non-negative, it's always true that:

$$\langle v|v\rangle = \langle u|u\rangle + \frac{|\langle w|v\rangle|^2}{\langle w|w\rangle} \ge \frac{|\langle w|v\rangle|^2}{\langle w|w\rangle},$$
 (5)

with the equal sign for the case that $\langle u|u\rangle=0$. Multiplying each side by $\langle w|w\rangle$ then taking the square root, we arrive at the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:

$$||v|| \cdot ||w|| \ge |\langle v|w\rangle|. \tag{6}$$

Problem 2

First, let's recall how the Gram-Schmidt procedure works. Starting from a given set of basis vectors $\{|e_i\rangle\}$, we construct a new orthogonal basis $\{|u_i\rangle\}$, where the k-th vector is determined by the previous k-1 vectors:

$$|u_k\rangle = |e_k\rangle - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{\langle u_i | e_k\rangle}{\langle u_i | u_i\rangle} |u_i\rangle . \tag{7}$$

This guarantees the basis is orthogonal. (Note that this always gives $|u_1\rangle = |e_1\rangle$.) Finally, to get an orthonormal basis $\{|v_i\rangle\}$ we need to normalize each vector

$$|v_k\rangle = \frac{|u_k\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle u_k|u_k\rangle}} \,. \tag{8}$$

(i)

Carrying out the procedure outlined above on the vectors

$$|e_1\rangle = (1, 1, 1), |e_2\rangle = (1, 1, 0), |e_3\rangle = (1, 0, 1),$$
 (9)

we find the orthonormal basis:

$$|v_1\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}(1,1,1), \quad |v_2\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{1}{6}}(1,1,-2), \quad |v_3\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}(1,-1,0).$$
 (10)

(ii)

For normalizable functions on [-1,1] with the standard inner product, we can start with a basis $\{|e_i\rangle\}$ with $\langle x|e_k\rangle=e_k(x)=x^k$. After applying Gram-Schmidt, we obtain the orthonormal basis:

$$p_0(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad p_1(x) = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}x, \quad p_2(x) = \frac{3}{2}\sqrt{\frac{5}{2}}\left(x^2 - \frac{1}{3}\right), \quad p_3(x) = \sqrt{\frac{7}{2}}\left(\frac{5}{2}x^3 - \frac{3}{2}x\right)...$$
(11)

(iii)

We define the weighted inner product:

$$\langle f|g\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^*(x)g(x)e^{-x^2} dx. \tag{12}$$

Homework 2 Solutions

In order to verify that this defines an inner product on functions from $(-\infty, \infty)$, we must check 3 properties:

$$(1) \langle f|g\rangle = \langle g|f\rangle^*$$

$$(2) \langle f|(a_1g_1 + a_2g_2)\rangle = a_1 \langle f|g_1\rangle + a_2 \langle f|g_2\rangle$$

$$(3) \langle f|f\rangle \ge 0, \text{ with } \langle f|f\rangle = 0 \text{ if and only if } f \equiv 0.$$

$$(13)$$

(1) follows from the fact that $(f(x)^*)^* = f(x)$, while (2) follows from the linearity of integrals. (3) is a simple consequence of the fact that the integrand $|f(x)|^2 e^{-x^2}$ is positive semi-definite, and so the integral must be also. Also, the integral of a non-negative quantity can only vanish if the integrand does.

With this inner product, it is easy to compute

$$\langle x^2 | x^2 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x^2)^2 e^{-x^2} \dot{\mathbf{x}} = \Gamma\left(\frac{5}{2}\right) = \frac{3\sqrt{\pi}}{4} < \infty, \tag{14}$$

so we see that x^2 is indeed normalizable. In the above, I made use of the fact that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n e^{-x^2} \dot{\mathbf{x}} = \int_{0}^{\infty} y^{\frac{n-1}{2}} e^{-y} \dot{\mathbf{y}} = \Gamma(\frac{n+1}{2}), \qquad (15)$$

where the Euler Gamma function $\Gamma(x)$ satisfies $x\Gamma(x) = \Gamma(x+1)$ and $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$. These facts will greatly simplify the integrals you'll need to perform below.

Again, starting with the same basis from part (ii), namely $e_k(x) = x^k$, we can build the following orthonormal basis:

$$p_0(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}}}, \ p_1(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}} x, \ p_2(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}} \left(x^2 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \dots$$
 (16)

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Problem 3

We would like to prove that a matrix can be diagonalized by similarity transform if and only if it is normal. Let M be a normal matrix—i.e. a matrix which commutes with its Hermitian conjugate:

$$[M, M^{\dagger}] = 0. \tag{17}$$

Any matrix can be decomposed as M = A + iB, with A and B Hermitian. The normality condition then implies:

$$[M, M^{\dagger}] = [A + iB, A - iB] = -2i[A, B] = 0 \implies [A, B] = 0.$$
 (18)

Since A and B are commuting Hermitian matrices, they can be simultaneously diagonalized by a similarity transformation:

$$D_A = U^{-1}AU, \quad D_B = U^{-1}BU,$$
 (19)

with D_A and D_B diagonal. The fact that M is diagonalizable directly follows:

$$U^{-1}MU = U^{-1}(A+iB)U = U^{-1}AU + iU^{-1}BU = D_A + iD_B \equiv D_M,$$
 (20)

with D_M diagonal.

Just for fun, let's prove the other side of the iff too. Suppose we have a matrix M which can be diagonalized by a unitary matrix U via a similarity transformation as:

$$D_M = U^{-1}MU, (21)$$

with D_M diagonal. Taking the Hermitian conjugate of both sides, we have:

$$D_M^{\dagger} = (U^{-1}MU)^{\dagger} = U^{\dagger}M^{\dagger}(U^{-1})^{\dagger} = U^{-1}M^{\dagger}U, \qquad (22)$$

where we've used the property $U^{\dagger} = U^{-1}$. We see that the same U which diagonalizes M also diagonalizes M^{\dagger} . To show M is normal, write:

$$[M, M^{\dagger}] = [UD_{M}U^{-1}, UD_{M}^{\dagger}U^{-1}]$$

$$= UD_{M}U^{-1}UD_{M}^{\dagger}U^{-1} - UD_{M}^{\dagger}U^{-1}UD_{M}U^{-1}$$

$$= UD_{M}D_{M}^{\dagger}U^{-1} = UD_{M}^{\dagger}D_{M}U^{-1}$$

$$= U[D_{M}, D_{M}^{\dagger}]U^{-1}$$

$$= 0,$$
(23)

where in the last line we've made use the fact that diagonal matrices always commute. Thus, a matrix M which can be diagonalized by a similarity transform satisfies $[M, M^{\dagger}] = 0$ and so is normal.

Problem 4

The inner product space $V = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots) | finitely many x_i \neq 0 \}$ with $\langle x|y \rangle = \sum_k x_k^* y_k$ is not a Hilbert space since it is not *complete*. To demonstrate this, we must show there exists a Cauchy sequence in V which converges to a point not in V. There are infinitely many; take for instance the following sequence:

$$|x^{(k)}\rangle = (x_1^{(k)}, x_2^{(k)}, x_3^{(k)}, \dots), \text{ where } x_j^{(k)} = \begin{cases} 2^{-j/2}, & j \le k \\ 0, & j > k \end{cases}$$
 (24)

We'll now show that $\{|x^{(k)}\rangle\}$ converges to

$$|y\rangle = (y_1, y_2, y_3, ...), \text{ where } y_j = 2^{-j/2}, \forall j \in \mathbb{N}.$$
 (25)

To see this, consider

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \left\langle y - x^{(k)} \middle| y - x^{(k)} \right\rangle = \lim_{k \to \infty} \sum_{n=k+1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} = \lim_{k \to \infty} 2^{-k} = 0.$$
 (26)

So, indeed the sequence $\{|x^{(k)}\rangle\}$ converges to $|y\rangle$, but $|y\rangle \notin V$ since it contains an infinite number of non-zero entries. Thus, V is not a complete metric space, and so it is not a Hilbert space.