

12.3 Week 3

12.3.1 Selected solutions

Exercise 4.4: Let $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{H}$. Then, for any $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{H}$ with $\|\mathbf{w}\| = 1$, Cauchy–Schwarz’ inequality shows that

$$|\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\| = \|\mathbf{v}\|;$$

thus,

$$\sup_{\|\mathbf{w}\|=1} |\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{v}\|. \quad (12.4)$$

If $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$, the stated result clearly holds, so let us assume that $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Put $\mathbf{w} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$. Then $\|\mathbf{w}\| = 1$, and

$$|\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle| = |\langle \mathbf{v}, \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \rangle| = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \|\mathbf{v}\|.$$

This implies that

$$\sup_{\|\mathbf{w}\|=1} |\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle| \geq \|\mathbf{v}\|. \quad (12.5)$$

Put together, the two inequalities (12.4) and (12.5) prove the result.

Exercise 4.9:(i) By definition, $\|\mathbf{e}_1\| = \|\mathbf{e}_2\| = 1$. Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle &= \left\langle \frac{\mathbf{v}_2 - \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle \mathbf{e}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_2 - \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle \mathbf{e}_1\|}, \mathbf{e}_1 \right\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}_2 - \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle \mathbf{e}_1\|} (\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle - \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle \langle \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

By definition,

$$\text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\} \subseteq \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\};$$

since both spaces have dimension equal to two, it follows that

$$\text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\} = \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}.$$

(ii) Since $\{\mathbf{v}_k\}_{k=1}^{n+1}$ are linearly independent,

$$\mathbf{v}_{n+1} \notin \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_k\}_{k=1}^n = \text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_k\}_{k=1}^n.$$

This implies that

$$\mathbf{v}_{n+1} \neq \sum_{k=1}^n \langle \mathbf{v}_{n+1}, \mathbf{e}_k \rangle \mathbf{e}_k.$$

(iii) We now proceed with an induction argument. Assume that for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the family $\{\mathbf{e}_k\}_{k=1}^n$ is constructed via the stated formula, that $\{\mathbf{e}_k\}_{k=1}^n$ is an orthonormal system, and that

$$\text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_k\}_{k=1}^n = \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_k\}_{k=1}^n.$$

With \mathbf{e}_{n+1} given by the stated formula, we have that $\|\mathbf{e}_{n+1}\| = 1$; furthermore, for each $\ell = 1, \dots, n$,

$$\begin{aligned} & \langle \mathbf{e}_{n+1}, \mathbf{e}_\ell \rangle \\ &= \left\langle \frac{\mathbf{v}_{n+1} - \sum_{k=1}^n \langle \mathbf{v}_{n+1}, \mathbf{e}_k \rangle \mathbf{e}_k}{\|\mathbf{v}_{n+1} - \sum_{k=1}^n \langle \mathbf{v}_{n+1}, \mathbf{e}_k \rangle \mathbf{e}_k\|}, \mathbf{e}_\ell \right\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}_{n+1} - \sum_{k=1}^n \langle \mathbf{v}_{n+1}, \mathbf{e}_k \rangle \mathbf{e}_k\|} \left(\langle \mathbf{v}_{n+1}, \mathbf{e}_\ell \rangle - \sum_{k=1}^n \langle \mathbf{v}_{n+1}, \mathbf{e}_k \rangle \langle \mathbf{e}_k \mathbf{e}_\ell \rangle \right) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

This shows that $\{\mathbf{e}_k\}_{k=1}^{n+1}$ is an orthonormal system. Since

$$\text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_k\}_{k=1}^{n+1} \subseteq \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_k\}_{k=1}^{n+1}$$

and

$$\dim(\text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_k\}_{k=1}^{n+1}) = \dim(\text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_k\}_{k=1}^{n+1}) = n + 1,$$

we finally obtain that

$$\text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_k\}_{k=1}^{n+1} = \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_k\}_{k=1}^{n+1}$$

(iv) The result in (iii) together with the definition of the span of an *infinite* collection of vectors show that

$$\text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_k\}_{k=1}^\infty = \text{span}\{\mathbf{v}_k\}_{k=1}^\infty.$$

Therefore also the closure of these two sets are identical.

Exercise 4.12: Assume that $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{H}$. Then $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{w} \rangle = 0$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{H}$. Taking $\mathbf{v} =: \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{w}$ this shows that

$$\langle \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{w} \rangle = 0.$$

By definition of the inner product this implies that $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$, i.e., that $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{w}$.

12.3.2 Examples and slides from the lecture

Example 12.3.1 Let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space and $\{\mathbf{v}_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ a sequence of vectors in \mathcal{H} with $\|\mathbf{v}_k\| = 1$. Consider the mapping

$$\Phi : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \quad \Phi \mathbf{v} := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle.$$

We want to show the following that Φ is a bounded functional on \mathcal{H} , and proceed by the following steps. We show

- (i) That Φ is well defined, i.e., that $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle$ is convergent if $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{H}$;
- (ii) That Φ is linear;
- (iii) That Φ is bounded.

In order to prove (i), we will show that $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle$ is absolutely convergent using Cauchy–Schwarz’ inequality:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{1}{k^2} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle \right| &\leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{v}_k\| \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \|\mathbf{v}\| \\ &< \infty. \end{aligned} \tag{12.6}$$

Since an absolutely convergent series is convergent, we have proved (i).

(ii) follows by direct verification: for any $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(\alpha \mathbf{v} + \beta \mathbf{w}) &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \langle \alpha \mathbf{v} + \beta \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} (\alpha \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle) \\ &= \alpha \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle + \beta \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle \\ &= \alpha \Phi \mathbf{v} + \beta \Phi \mathbf{w}. \end{aligned}$$

In order to prove (iii), we use the triangle inequality and the calculation in (i), see (12.6):

$$\begin{aligned} |\Phi \mathbf{v}| &= \left| \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{1}{k^2} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \|\mathbf{v}\|. \end{aligned}$$

This proves that Φ is bounded, with

$$\|\Phi\| \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}.$$

Note that, according to Riesz' representation theorem, Φ has the form

$$\Phi \mathbf{v} = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$$

for some $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{H}$. Let us calculate \mathbf{w} :

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi \mathbf{v} &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \langle \mathbf{v}, \frac{1}{k^2} \mathbf{v}_k \rangle \end{aligned} \tag{12.7}$$

$$= \langle \mathbf{v}, \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \mathbf{v}_k \rangle. \tag{12.8}$$

Note that the step from (12.7) to (12.8) uses the result in Exercise 4.25. Thus,

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \mathbf{v}_k.$$

□

Quantum Mechanics

Classical Physics: The position (Danish: "sted") and momentum (Danish: "impuls") of a physical object can in principle be determined with arbitrary precision simultaneously.

Works well for large-scale objects!

Quantum Mechanics for small-scale objects like particles: A measurement of position and momentum affects the physical object, so exact values of position and momentum can not be given.

(Danish: En måling af f.eks. sted eller impuls påvirker det der måles på, så en eksakt fastlæggelse af sted og impuls er umulig)

We can only predict that a particle will have a certain position or momentum in a probabilistic sense.

(Danish: Sted og impuls kan kun fastlægges i en sandsynlighedsteoretisk forstand, altså ud fra en bestemt sandsynlighedsfordeling. Med andre ord - vi kan kun angive en sandsynlighed for at partiklen til et givet tidspunkt vil befinde sig et givet sted.)

From now on - consider a "physical system."

Physical system: Think about a particle that moves around in a potential.

Quantum Mechanics:

- Consists of a series of postulates (axioms)
- The postulates are justified by experimental verification of their consequences.

Postulate 1: To a physical system we can associate a *wave function* (Danish: "bølgefunktion") that contains all the relevant information about the system.

Consider a physical system consisting of a single particle. Let

- \mathbf{r} denote the position of the particle;
- t denote the time.

The wave function has the form $\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ and

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 d\mathbf{r} < \infty, \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

If this is independent of t : by proper normalisation,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 d\mathbf{r} = 1, \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Interpretation: $|\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2$ is a probability density, i.e., $|\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 d\mathbf{r}$ measures the probability of finding the particle in the volume element $d\mathbf{r}$ around \mathbf{r} .

Postulate 3: To every observable (for example position, momentum, energy) we can associate a linear operator

$$A : L^2(\mathbb{R}^3) \rightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R}^3).$$

For example, the position of a particle moving in a potential $V(\mathbf{r}, t)$ is described by the *Schrödinger operator*

$$A\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) + V(\mathbf{r}, t) \right] \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$$

$$\left(= i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \right),$$

where \hbar is a physical constant.

Postulate 4: The only possible values of the observables are eigenvalues for the associated operator A , i.e., the numbers λ_n for which there exist functions $\psi_n \neq 0$ such that

$$A\psi_n = \lambda_n\psi_n.$$

Conclusion: Quantum mechanics deals with the Hilbert space $L^2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ and the operators on that space. Other Hilbert spaces appear if we consider collections of particles.

We cite Roger Penrose, who said:

Quantum theory has two things in its favour and only one against.

First, it agrees with all the experiments

Second, it is a theory of astonishing and profound mathematical beauty

The only thing to be said against the theory is that it makes absolutely no sense.