

## Physical Interpretation of Bessel's Inequality:

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Consider a 3-dim vector  $V = \sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha_i x_i$

$$\alpha_i = \langle x_i | V \rangle = v_i$$

$$x_i = \hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$$

Then we can also write  $V = \sum_{i=1}^3 v_i x_i$

(9)

$$\rightarrow |\vec{V}|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^3 |v_i|^2$$

this holds if  $\{x_i\}$  is a complete orthonormal (CON) basis.

Suppose now that  $\{x_i\}$  are orthonormal, but not complete:  $\Sigma x_i$ :

$\{x_i\} = \{\hat{i}, \hat{j}\}$  (but not  $\hat{k}$ ) in 3-dim. Then:

$$\sum_{i=1}^2 |v_i|^2 = v_x^2 + v_y^2 = |\vec{V}|^2 - v_z^2 \Rightarrow \boxed{\sum_{i=1}^2 |v_i|^2 \leq |\vec{V}|^2} \quad (10)$$

The equality would hold iff  $v_z = 0$ .

Continuing this example, the second part of Bessel's inequality states that the vector  $x' = x - \sum_j \alpha_j x_j$  is orthogonal to the other  $x_j$ 's

In this example

$$\vec{x}' = \vec{V} - \sum_{i=1}^2 v_i x_i = \vec{V} - v_x \hat{i} - v_y \hat{j} \equiv v_z \hat{k}$$

Obviously this vector is orthogonal to  $v_x \hat{i} + v_y \hat{j}$ . ✓

# COMPLETENESS :

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This is a crucial concept. The following statements are equivalent descriptions of completeness:

Let  $X = \{x_i\}$  be a set of  $m$  orthonormal vectors in a finite vector space  $V$ .

(1)  $X$  is complete

(2) If  $\langle x_i | x \rangle = 0$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m \Rightarrow x = 0$

(3)  $X$  spans  $V$

(4) If  $x \in V$  then  $x = \sum_i \langle x_i | x \rangle x_i$

(5) If  $x, y \in V$  then  $\langle y | x \rangle = \sum_i \langle y | x_i \rangle \langle x_i | x \rangle$  (1)

## PARSEVAL'S IDENTITY

(6) If  $x \in V$  then  $|x|^2 = \sum_i |\langle x_i | x \rangle|^2 = \sum_i |x_i|^2$  (2)

Proof: We show (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (4)  $\Rightarrow$  (5)  $\Rightarrow$  (6)  $\Rightarrow$  (1)

(1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) [We show not(2)  $\Rightarrow$  not(1)]: If  $\langle x_i | x \rangle = 0$  but  $x \neq 0$  then we can adjoin  $x/|x|$  to  $X$  to form a larger set  $X'$  bigger than  $X$ , so  $X$  is not complete.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3) If  $X$  does not span  $V \Rightarrow \exists$  an  $x$  which cannot be written as  $x = \sum_i \alpha_i x_i = \sum_i \langle x_i | x \rangle x_i \Rightarrow x' = x - \sum_i \langle x_i | x \rangle x_i \neq 0$  (3)

However, we can still show that  $\langle x_j | x' \rangle = 0$  even though  $x' \neq 0$  (4)

$$\langle x_j | x' \rangle = \langle x_j | x \rangle - \sum_i \langle x_j | x \rangle \underbrace{\langle x_i | x_i \rangle}_{\delta_{ji}} = \langle x_j | x \rangle - \langle x_j | x \rangle = 0 \quad (5)$$

$\therefore$  not(3)  $\Rightarrow$  not(2)

(3) ⇒ (4): If every  $x$  has the form  $x = \sum_j \alpha_j x_j$

(with  $\alpha_j$  not yet specified) then from

$$\langle x_i | x \rangle = \sum_j \alpha_j \underbrace{\langle x_i | x_j \rangle}_{\delta_{ij}} = \alpha_i \longrightarrow \boxed{x = \sum_i \langle x_i | x \rangle x_i} \quad (6)$$

(4) ⇒ (5): If  $x = \sum_i \alpha_i x_i$  &  $y = \sum_j \beta_j x_j$  ;  $\alpha_i = \langle x_i | x \rangle$   $\beta_j = \langle x_j | y \rangle$  (7)

Hence  $\langle y | x \rangle = \langle \sum_j \beta_j x_j | \sum_i \alpha_i x_i \rangle = \sum_{i,j} \beta_j^* \alpha_i \underbrace{\langle x_j | x_i \rangle}_{\delta_{ji}} = \sum_i \beta_i^* \alpha_i$  (8)

$\therefore \boxed{\langle y | x \rangle = \sum_i \langle y | x_i \rangle \langle x_i | x \rangle}$  (9) ← "inserting complete set of states"  
**VERY USEFUL IN QM!!**  
 PARSEVAL'S IDENTITY

(5) ⇒ (6): Set  $y = x$  in PARSEVAL:  $\langle x | x \rangle = |x|^2 = \sum_i \underbrace{\langle x | x_i \rangle}_{\alpha_i^*} \underbrace{\langle x_i | x \rangle}_{\alpha_i} = \sum_i |\alpha_i|^2$  (10)

(6) ⇒ (1): If  $X$  was not complete and was therefore contained in a larger set  $X' = \{x_i, x_0\}$  where  $\langle x_0 | x_i \rangle = 0$ . Then

$$|x_0|^2 = \sum_i |\langle x_i | x_0 \rangle|^2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_0 = 0$$

Hence the only vector ~~is~~ not in  $X$  which is orthogonal to all the  $x_i$  is the zero vector (which is trivial).

This completes the proof (1) ⇒ (2) ⇒ (3) ⇒ (4) ⇒ (5) ⇒ (6) ⇒ (1).

# SCHWARZ'S INEQUALITY:

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[This is a generalization of  $|\cos \theta| \leq 1$ ]

Theorem: For  $x, y \in V$  then  $|\langle x|y \rangle| \leq \sqrt{\langle x|x \rangle \langle y|y \rangle} = \|x\| \|y\|$

Proof: if  $y=0$  both sides vanish ✓

if  $y \neq 0$  then the set consisting of  $y/\|y\|$  by itself is orthonormal and therefore satisfies Bessel's inequality:

$$|\langle x|y \rangle|^2 \leq \|x\|^2 \|y\|^2 \Rightarrow$$

||

$$|\langle x|\frac{y}{\|y\|} \rangle|^2 \leq \|x\|^2 \quad \text{on} \quad \|\frac{y}{\|y\|}\|^2 \leq \|x\|^2 \quad \text{Q.E.D}$$

## EXAMPLES:

1) Euclidean space  $\Rightarrow |\cos \theta| \leq 1$

2) Unitary Space  $C^n \Rightarrow$  CAUCHY INEQUALITY:

for  $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \neq (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_n)$

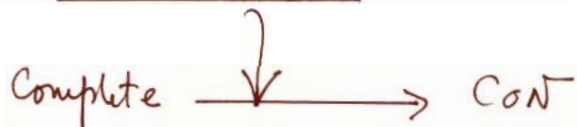
$$\Rightarrow \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* \beta_i \right|^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i|^2 \cdot \sum_{j=1}^n |\beta_j|^2$$

3) In the space of polynomials:

$$\left| \int_0^1 dt x^*(t) y(t) \right|^2 \leq \int_0^1 dt |x(t)|^2 \cdot \int_0^1 dt |y(t)|^2$$

COMPLETE ORTHONORMAL SETS:

For convenience we want a starting point in calculations where our basis vectors are not only complete, but form a complete orthonormal (CON) set. The formal method for converting a complete set to a CON set is the GRAM-SCHMIDT method:



Let  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  be any basis in  $V$  (hence complete). We want to use these to form a  $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\} \ni \langle y_i | y_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$  (1)

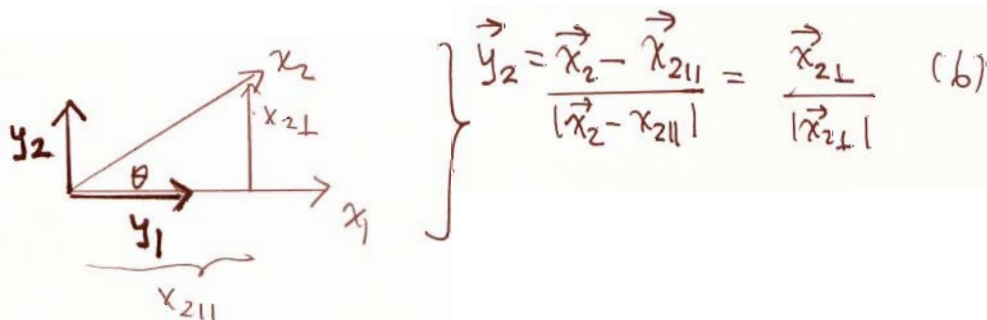
Start: (1) use  $x_1 \rightarrow y_1 = x_1 / |x_1|$  (2)

(2) Next take  $x_2$  and form  $y_2 = (x_2 - \alpha_1 y_1) / |x_2 - \alpha_1 y_1|$  (3)

We determine  $\alpha_1 \ni \langle y_1 | y_2 \rangle = 0 = \frac{\langle y_1 | x_2 \rangle - \alpha_1}{|x_2 - \alpha_1 y_1|} \Rightarrow \alpha_1 = \langle y_1 | x_2 \rangle$  (4)

Hence:  $y_2 = \frac{x_2 - y_1 \langle y_1 | x_2 \rangle}{|x_2 - y_1 \langle y_1 | x_2 \rangle|}$  (5)\*

Pictorially:



$\vec{x}_{2||} = \hat{y}_1 |\vec{x}_{2||}| = \hat{y}_1 |\vec{x}_2| \cos \theta = \hat{y}_1 |\vec{x}_2| \hat{x}_2 \cdot \hat{y}_1 = \hat{y}_1 \vec{x}_2 \cdot \hat{y}_1$  (7)

$\therefore (6) \& (7) \Rightarrow y_2 = \frac{\vec{x}_2 - \vec{x}_2 \cdot \hat{y}_1 \hat{y}_1}{|\vec{x}_2 - \vec{x}_2 \cdot \hat{y}_1 \hat{y}_1|}$  (b)\*

## GRAM-SCHMIDT (continued)

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This procedure can be repeated: At each step we start with one of the  $x_k$  and form the corresponding  $y_k$  by subtracting off the components of  $x_k$  that lie along the directions of the previously computed  $y_k$ .

Suppose that  $y_j$  vectors have been constructed, with  $j=1, 2, \dots, r$  then

$$\boxed{|y_{r+1}\rangle = \frac{|x_{r+1}\rangle - \sum_{i=1}^r |y_i\rangle \langle y_i | x_{r+1}\rangle}{\left| |x_{r+1}\rangle - \sum_{i=1}^r |y_i\rangle \langle y_i | x_{r+1}\rangle \right|}} \quad \text{GRAM-SCHMIDT} \quad (7)$$

Check: We can verify that  $|y_{r+1}\rangle$  so constructed is indeed  $\perp$  to the

$y_k$  ( $k \leq r$ ): [Dropping the normalization]

$$\begin{aligned} \langle y_k | y_{r+1} \rangle &= \langle y_k | x_{r+1} \rangle - \sum_{i=1}^r \underbrace{\langle y_k | y_i \rangle}_{\delta_{ki}} \langle y_i | x_{r+1} \rangle \\ &= \langle y_k | x_{r+1} \rangle - \langle y_k | x_{r+1} \rangle = 0 \quad \checkmark \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

## CONVENIENCE OF CON BASES

Recall:  $Ax_i = \sum_k \alpha_{ki} x_k$   $\xrightarrow{\text{CON}}$   $\Rightarrow \langle x_i | Ax_j \rangle = \langle x_i | \sum_k \alpha_{kj} x_k \rangle$  (9)

$$= \sum_k \alpha_{kj} \underbrace{\langle x_i | x_k \rangle}_{\delta_{ik} [\text{CON}]} = \alpha_{ij}$$

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} \therefore \alpha_{ij} &= \langle x_i | Ax_j \rangle \\ &\equiv \langle x_i | A | x_j \rangle \end{aligned}} \quad (10) \quad \xrightarrow{\text{Useful in QM}}$$

# SELF-ADJOINT TRANSFORMATIONS

↳ These are important in QM

Def: Adjoint Transformation: Given a l.f.  $A$  on  $V$ , we define the

operator  $A^t$  by:  $\langle Ax | y \rangle \equiv \langle x | A^t y \rangle$  (1) ←

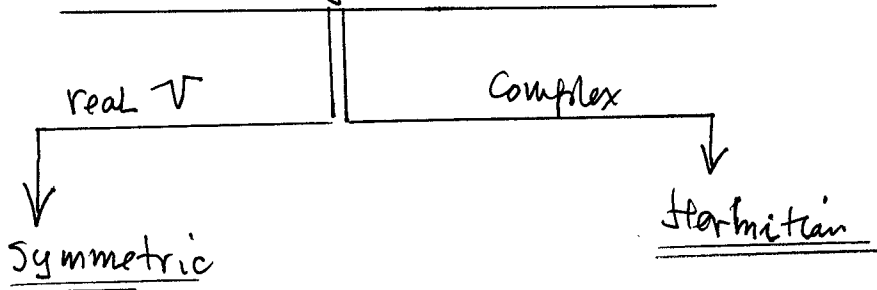
equivalent

Alternatively one can write:  $\langle Ay | x \rangle^* = \langle x | Ay \rangle$  (2)

$\downarrow$   
 $\langle y | A^t x \rangle^* = \langle A^t x | y \rangle$

$\therefore \langle x | Ay \rangle = \langle A^t x | y \rangle$  (3) ←

Def:  $A$  is self-adjoint if  $A = A^t$ .



## Properties of the Adjoint

1)  $A = A^t$  &  $B = B^t \Rightarrow (A+B) = (A+B)^t$

2)  $A = A^t$  &  $\alpha \neq 0 \Rightarrow (\alpha A) = (\alpha A)^t$  only if  $\alpha = \text{real}$

★ 3)  $(A)_{ij} = \alpha_{ij} \Rightarrow (A^t)_{ij} = \alpha_{ji}^*$

Proof:  $\alpha_{ij} = \langle x_i | Ax_j \rangle = \langle A^t x_i | x_j \rangle = \langle x_j | A^t | x_i \rangle^* = [(A^t)_{ji}]^*$

$\therefore (A)_{ij} = \alpha_{ij} \Leftrightarrow \alpha_{ij} = (A^t)_{ji}^* \Rightarrow \alpha_{ij}^* = (A^t)_{ji}$

$\Rightarrow (A^t)_{ij} = \alpha_{ji}^*$

If  $A$  is real  $\Rightarrow A^t = A^T$ .