

$\|\phi_\alpha\| \neq 0$  for every  $\alpha$ , then  $\{\phi_\alpha/\|\phi_\alpha\|\}$  is orthonormal. Henceforth, we will assume that  $\|\phi_\alpha\| \neq 0$  for all  $\alpha$  for an orthogonal system  $\{\phi_\alpha\}$ . This implies that no element is zero and that no two elements are equal.

**(8.21) Theorem** Any orthogonal system  $\{\phi_\alpha\}$  in  $L^2$  is countable.

*Proof.* We may assume that  $\{\phi_\alpha\}$  is orthonormal. Then for  $\alpha \neq \beta$ , we have

$$\|\phi_\alpha - \phi_\beta\|^2 = \int (\phi_\alpha - \phi_\beta)(\bar{\phi}_\alpha - \bar{\phi}_\beta) = \|\phi_\alpha\|^2 + \|\phi_\beta\|^2 = 2,$$

so that  $\|\phi_\alpha - \phi_\beta\| = \sqrt{2}$ . Since  $L^2$  is separable, it follows that  $\{\phi_\alpha\}$  must be countable.

A collection  $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_N$  is said to be *linearly independent* if  $\sum_{k=1}^N a_k \psi_k(x) = 0$  (a.e.) implies that every  $a_k$  is zero. An infinite collection of functions is called *linearly independent* if each finite subcollection is. No function in a linearly independent set can be zero a.e.

**(8.22) Theorem** If  $\{\psi_k\}$  is orthogonal, it is linearly independent.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $a_1 \psi_{k_1} + \dots + a_N \psi_{k_N} = 0$ . Multiplying both sides by  $\bar{\psi}_{k_1}$  and integrating, we obtain by orthogonality that  $a_1 = 0$ . Similarly,  $a_2 = \dots = a_N = 0$ .

The converse of (8.22) is not true. However, the next result shows that if  $\{\psi_k\}$  is linearly independent, then the system formed from suitable linear combinations of its elements is orthogonal.

**(8.23) Theorem (Gram-Schmidt Process)** If  $\{\psi_k\}$  is linearly independent, then the system  $\{\phi_k\}$  defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_1 &= \psi_1 \\ \phi_2 &= a_{21}\psi_1 + \psi_2 \\ &\vdots \\ \phi_k &= a_{k1}\psi_1 + \dots + a_{k,k-1}\psi_{k-1} + \psi_k \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

is orthogonal for proper selection of the  $a_{ij}$ .

*Proof.* Having  $\phi_1 = \psi_1$ , we proceed by induction, assuming that  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_{k-1}$  have been chosen as required. We will determine constants  $b_{k1}, \dots, b_{k,k-1}$  so that the function  $\phi_k$  defined by

$$\phi_k = b_{k1}\phi_1 + \dots + b_{k,k-1}\phi_{k-1} + \psi_k$$

is orthogonal to  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_{k-1}$ . If  $j < k$ ,

$$\langle \phi_k, \phi_j \rangle = b_{kj} \langle \phi_j, \phi_j \rangle + \langle \psi_k, \phi_j \rangle$$

by orthogonality. Since  $\langle \phi_j, \phi_j \rangle \neq 0$ ,  $b_{kj}$  can be chosen so that  $\langle \phi_k, \phi_j \rangle = 0$ ,

$j < k$ . Since each  $\phi_j$  with  $j < k$  is a linear combination of  $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_j$ , the theorem follows.

When the  $\phi_k$  are selected by the Gram-Schmidt process, we shall say that they are *generated* from the  $\psi_k$ . Note that the triangular character of the matrix in (8.23) means that each  $\psi_k$  can also be written as a linear combination of the  $\phi_j$ ,  $j \leq k$ .

We call an orthogonal system  $\{\phi_k\}$  *complete* if the only function which is orthogonal to every  $\phi_k$  is zero; that is,  $\{\phi_k\}$  is complete if  $\langle f, \phi_k \rangle = 0$  for all  $k$  implies that  $f = 0$  a.e. Thus, a complete orthogonal system is one which is maximal in the sense that it is not properly contained in any larger orthogonal system.

The *span* of a set of functions  $\{\psi_k\}$  is the collection of all finite linear combinations of the  $\psi_k$ . In speaking of the span of  $\{\psi_k\}$ , we may always assume that  $\{\psi_k\}$  is orthogonal by discarding any dependent functions and applying the Gram-Schmidt process to the resulting linearly independent set.

A set  $\{\psi_k\}$  is called a *basis* for  $L^2$  if its span is dense in  $L^2$ ; that is,  $\{\psi_k\}$  is a basis if given  $f \in L^2$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exist  $N$  and  $\{a_k\}$  such that  $\|f - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \psi_k\| < \varepsilon$ . The  $a_k$  can always be chosen with rational real and imaginary parts. Any countable dense set in  $L^2$  is of course a basis. It follows that  $L^2$  has an orthogonal basis.

**(8.24) Theorem** Any orthogonal basis in  $L^2$  is complete. In particular, there exists a complete orthonormal basis for  $L^2$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\{\psi_k\}$  be an orthogonal basis for  $L^2$ . We may assume that  $\{\psi_k\}$  is orthonormal. To show that it is complete, let  $\langle f, \psi_k \rangle = 0$  for all  $k$ . Then  $\langle f, f \rangle = \langle f, f - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \psi_k \rangle$  for any  $N$  and  $a_k$ . By Schwarz's inequality,  $|\langle f, f \rangle| \leq \|f\| \|f - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \psi_k\|$ , and so, since the term on the right can be chosen arbitrarily small,  $\langle f, f \rangle = 0$ . Therefore,  $f = 0$  a.e., which completes the proof.

## 6. Fourier Series; Parseval's Formula

Let  $\{\phi_k\}$  be any orthonormal system for  $L^2$ . If  $f \in L^2$ , the numbers defined by

$$c_k = c_k(f) = \langle f, \phi_k \rangle = \int_E f \bar{\phi}_k$$

are called the *Fourier coefficients* of  $f$  with respect to  $\{\phi_k\}$ . The series  $\sum_k c_k \phi_k$  is called the *Fourier series* of  $f$  with respect to  $\{\phi_k\}$ , and denoted  $S[f] = \sum_k c_k \phi_k$ . We also write

$$f \sim \sum_k c_k \phi_k.$$

The first question we ask is how well  $S[f]$ , or more precisely, the sequence