# Some orthogonal matrices and related orthogonal functions systems 

By Edgar Asplund and Harold S. Shapiro

In an earlier paper [3], one of the present authors showed that given any $n$ mutually orthogonal unit vectors in $\ell^{2}$, there exists a uniquely determined infinite orthogonal matrix (i.e. unitary transformation of $l^{2}$ onto itself) $\left\|a_{i j}\right\|$ having the given vectors as its first $n$ rows, and satisfying $a_{i j}=0$ for $j>i>n$. This matrix was used to show that every subspace of $L^{2}(\Gamma)$ (where $\Gamma$ is the circle group) having finite deficiency has a basis consisting of trigonometric polynomials. In [3] also several questions were raised concerning the behavior of the Fourier expansion of a smooth function, when the expansion is with respect to a complete orthonormal system of smooth functions and it was pointed out that certain other types of orthogonal matrices, if they could be constructed, might be relevant to these questions. In the present note these questions are answered, the essence of the results being that no amount of smoothness (not even the requirement that all functions involved be uniformly bounded trigonometric polynomials) can guarantee either smallness of the Fourier coefficients beyond what is implied by Bessel's inequality, nor convergence of the series at every point. We also show that the functions of a uniformly bounded complete orthonormal system of smooth functions may have a common zero; in such a system the Fourier series of "most" functions converges to the wrong value at a point, and a fortiori cannot converge uniformly. Questions of almost everywhere convergence in the context of the present investigation we have not, however, been able to settle.

Our main tool is the construction of an orthogonal matrix with $n$ prescribed (orthonormal) columns, and with $a_{i j}=0$ for $j>i+n$. Actually we only need these matrices for $n=1$, but as the matrix theorem has perhaps independent interest, we prove it for arbitrary $n$, and complex entries.

## 1. A class of unitary matrices

Theorem 1. Suppose $\left\|a_{i j}\right\|(1 \leqslant i<\infty, 1 \leqslant j \leqslant n)$ is a complex matrix whose columns are mutually orthogonal unit vectors. Then there exists a unique unitary matrix $A=\left\|a_{i j}\right\|(1 \leqslant i<\infty, 1 \leqslant j<\infty)$ having the given matrix as its first $n$ columns, and satisfying the additional conditions

## e. asplund, h. s. shapiro, Orthogonal matrices and orthogonal functions systems

(i) $a_{i j}=0$ for $j>j(i)=i+\operatorname{rank} J_{i}, J_{k}=\sum_{i=k+1}^{\infty} a_{i}^{*} a_{i}$.
(ii) If rank $J_{i-1}=\operatorname{rank} J_{i}$, then $a_{i, j(i)}$ is (strictly) negative.

Here $a_{i}$ denotes the $n$-dimensional i-th row

$$
a_{i}=\left(a_{i 1}, \ldots, a_{i n}\right)
$$

Proof. The heuristic background for the following construction of the matrix $A$ is found in [2]. Let $j>n$ and denote by $i(j)$ the smallest solution $i$ of the equation $j=i+\operatorname{rank} J_{i}$. The number $i(j)$ then satisfies

$$
\operatorname{rank} J_{i(f)-1}=\operatorname{rank} J_{i(j)} .
$$

Put $i(j)=k$. The above condition then means that if $d$ is an $n$-dimensional column vector,

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{k} d=0 \quad \text { implies } \quad\left(J_{k}+a_{k}^{*} a_{k}\right) d=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Condition (1), however, implies by the non-negativity of the matrices involved, that

$$
a_{k} d=0 \quad \text { if } \quad J_{k} d=0 .
$$

But this is just the condition for solvability of the systems of equations

$$
J_{k} d_{k}=a_{k}^{*} .
$$

Fix a set of solutions $d_{k}$ of these systems and put

$$
\lambda_{k} d_{k}=b_{k}, \quad \text { i.e., } \quad J_{k} b_{k}=\lambda_{k} a_{k}^{*},
$$

where the positive numbers $\lambda_{k}$ are determined by

$$
\lambda_{k}^{2}=\left(1+a_{k} d_{k}\right)^{-1}=\left(1+d_{k}^{*} J_{k} d_{k}\right)^{-1}, \quad k=i(j), \quad j>n .
$$

Evidently, $0<\lambda_{k}<1$ for all $k=i(j)$.
We now claim that the following matrix (which obviously satisfies conditions (i) and (ii) of Theorem 1 is unitary.

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{llrl}
a_{1} & & 0 &  \tag{2}\\
a_{2} & & 0 & \\
\vdots & & 0 & \\
a_{r} & a_{r} b_{i(n+1)} \ldots & a_{r} b_{i(j-1)} & -\lambda_{r} \\
0 & 0
\end{array}\right], \quad r=i(j)
$$

Let us first verify that the $j$ th column is orthogonal to the first $n$ columns; we have

$$
-\lambda_{r} a_{r}^{*}+\sum_{i=r+1}^{\infty} a_{i}^{*} a_{i} b_{r}=-\lambda_{r} a_{r}^{*}+J_{r} b_{r}=0 .
$$

For the orthogonality of the columns $j$ and $h$, with $h>j>n, r=i(j), s=i(h)$, we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
-\lambda_{s}\left(a_{s} b_{r}\right)^{*}+\sum_{i=1}^{\infty}\left(a_{s+i} b_{r}\right)^{*}\left(a_{s+i} b_{s}\right) \\
=-\lambda_{s} b_{r}^{*} a_{s}^{*}+\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} b_{r}^{*} a_{s+i}^{*} a_{s+i} b_{s} \\
=-b_{r}\left(\lambda_{s} a_{s}^{*}-J_{s} b_{s}\right)=0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

In the same way, we see that the $j$ th column is a unit vector:

$$
\lambda_{r}^{2}+\sum_{i=0}^{\infty}\left(a_{r+i} b_{r}\right)^{*}\left(a_{r+i} b_{r}\right)=\lambda_{r}^{2}+a_{r} \lambda_{r} b_{r}=\lambda_{r}^{2}\left(1+a_{r} d_{r}\right)=1 .
$$

Finally, we have to show that the system of column vectors in the matrix $A$ is complete. Assume, then, that

$$
e=\left\{e_{1}, \ldots, e_{r}, \ldots\right\}
$$

is orthogonal to all columns in $A$, and that $e_{r}$ is actually the first non-vanishing entry. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{r}^{*}=-\frac{1}{e_{r}} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} e_{r+i} a_{r+i}^{*} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

by the orthogonality with the first $n$ columns in $A$. If $d$ is an $n$-dimensional vector in the null space of $J_{r}$, we have by the positivity of the matrices involved

$$
a_{s} d=0 \quad \text { for } \quad s>r
$$

But, by (3), this shows that $a_{r} d=0$ so that, in fact, $J_{r} d=0$ implies $J_{r-1} d=0$ which in turn means that

$$
\operatorname{rank} J_{r-1}=\operatorname{rank} J_{r} \quad \text { or } \quad r=i(j) \text { for some } j>n .
$$

Now we use the orthogonality of the vector $e$ with the $j$ th column in $A$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =-\lambda_{r} e_{r}+\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} b_{r}^{*} a_{r+i}^{*} e_{r+i} \\
& =-e_{r}\left(\lambda_{r}+b_{r}^{*} a_{r}^{*}\right)=-e_{r} \lambda_{r}\left(1+d_{k}^{*} J_{k} d_{k}\right)=-e_{r} \lambda_{r}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

This contradiction proves that $A$ is a unitary matrix. To see that $A$ is unique, suppose that we have constructed another matrix $A^{\prime}$ which satisfies the conditions of Theorem l. Assume that this new matrix coincides with $A$ (as given by
equation (2)) in all columns of index less than $j$ for some $j>n$. Then the elements in the $j$ th column of $A^{\prime}$ with row index less than $r=i(j)$ must vanish, since the squares of the absolute values of the elements in each of these rows sum to one already over the first $j-1$ columns. The element in position $(r, j)$ of $A^{\prime}$ must be $-\lambda_{r}$ since the subsequent elements in the $r$ th row vanish by hypothesis. Finally, the remaining elements in the $j$ th column of $A^{\prime}$ are determined by the orthogonality of the corresponding rows with the $r$ th row, and hence coincide with their counterparts in $A$. Thus $A^{\prime}=A$, as asserted.

Remark. In the finite-dimensional case this proves the existence and uniqueness (up to postmultiplication by a diagonal unitary matrix) of a unitary completion of a given orthonormal set of vectors with (in view of the results of [2]) the largest possible domain of zeros in the upper right corner, if one measures the domain by the number of those index pairs $(i, j)$ such that $a_{r s}=0$ for $r \leqslant i, s \geqslant j$.

## 2. Some orthogonal function systems

In the present section we shall examine the case $n=1$ in more detail; suppose now that $a_{i}$ are real numbers with $a_{i} \geqslant 0, a_{i}>0$ for infinitely many $i$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_{i}^{2}=1$. We have in this case

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda_{k}^{2}=\frac{c_{k}^{2}}{c_{k-1}^{2}}, \quad k \geqslant 1, \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we have introduced the notation

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{k}^{2}=\sum_{i=k+1}^{\infty} a_{i}^{2}, \quad k \geqslant 0 . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

We define $c_{k}$ to be the positive number defined by (5). Note that $\left\{c_{k}\right\}$ is nonincreasing and tends to zero. We have from (2), $b_{k}=a_{k} /\left(c_{k-1} c_{k}\right)$ so that our orthogonal matrix takes the form

Actually it is more convenient to express the element of the matrix in terms of other parameters defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{n}=\frac{a_{n}}{c_{n-1} c_{n}}, \quad n \geqslant 1 ; \quad p_{0}=1 . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that, since

$$
p_{n}^{2}=\frac{c_{n-1}^{2}-c_{n}^{2}}{c_{n-1}^{2} c_{n}^{2}}=\frac{1}{c_{n}^{2}}-\frac{1}{c_{n-1}^{2}},
$$

we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=0}^{n} p_{i}^{2}=c_{n}^{-2}=\left(\sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} a_{i}^{2}\right)^{-1} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} p_{i}^{2}=\infty \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Any sequence of non-negative numbers $p_{i}$ satisfying (9) thus uniquely determines an orthogonal matrix of the form (6), where $a_{n}$ and $c_{n}$ are then determined by (8).

We shall now use the matrix (6) to define an orthogonal function system, as was done similarly in [3]. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{0}(x)=\sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi}}, \quad f_{n}(x)=\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cos n x, \quad n=1,2, \ldots \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

This system is a complete orthonormal system (CONS) on $[0, \pi]$, and hence so is the system $\left\{g_{n}(x)\right\}, n=1,2, \ldots$ where

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{n}(x)=\sum_{j=1}^{n+1} a_{n j} f_{j-1}(x) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here we use $\left\|a_{i j}\right\|$ to denote the matrix $A$. More concretely, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{n}(x)=a_{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} p_{i} f_{i}(x)-\frac{c_{n}}{c_{n-1}} f_{n}(x), \quad n \geqslant 1 . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $g_{n}(x)$ is a trigonometric (cosine) polynomial of order $n$. The necessary and sufficient condition that the $g_{n}$ be uniformly bounded is clearly the existence of a positive $M$ with

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} p_{i} \leqslant M \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let now $f(x) \in L^{2}[0, \pi]$ and denote by $s_{n}(x), t_{n}(x)$ respectively the $n$th partial sum of the Fourier development of $f$ in the $f$-system and in the $g$-system. Now, $s_{n}$ is the orthogonal projection of $f$ on $S_{n}$, the span of $f_{0}, f_{1}, \ldots f_{n}$ and $t_{n}$ is the orthogonal projection of $f$ on $T_{n}$, the span of $g_{1}, \ldots g_{n}$. Moreover, the function

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{n}(x)=\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n} p_{i} f_{i}(x)}{\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} p_{i}^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

## E. ASPLUND, H. S. SHAPIRO, Orthogonal matrices and orthogonal functions systems

is in $S_{n}$ and orthogonal to $T_{n}$. Since $T_{n}$ is a subspace of $S_{n}$ of deficiency one, we conclude

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varepsilon_{n}(x)=t_{n}(x)+<f, h_{n}>h_{n}(x) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\langle f, g\rangle$ denotes the inner product $\int_{0}^{\pi} f g d x$.
By means of (15) it is quite simple to compare the behavior of the $t_{n}(x)$ with that of the ordinary Fourier partial sums $s_{n}(x)$.

Theorem 2. There exists, for each of the following properties a), b), c), d), e), a complete orthonormal system $\left\{g_{n}\right\}, n=1,2, \ldots$ on $[0, \pi]$ such that $g_{n}$ is a cosine polynomial of order $n$, and moreover with respect to this system:
a) The Fourier coefficients of $f_{0}(x) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ are a prescribed unit vector in $l^{2}$.
b) The Fourier series of $f_{0}(x) \equiv 1$ diverges to $-\infty$ at $x=0$.
c) The Fourier series of $f_{0}(x) \equiv 1$ oscillates between finite limits at $x=0$.
d) The $g_{n}(x)$ all vanish at $x=0$.
e) The Fourier series of $f_{0}(x) \equiv \mathbf{1}$ diverges on a dense set having the cardinality of the continuum.

Moreover, in cases b), c), d), e) we may take $g_{n}(x)$ uniformly bounded.
Proof. a) is just the observation that the first column in $A$ may be any unit vector. Now, for $f_{0} \equiv 1$, we have, taking $f=1$ in (15), and noting that $s_{n}(x) \equiv 1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{n}(x)=1-\frac{\sqrt{2}\left(\frac{p_{0}}{\sqrt{2}}+p_{1} \cos x+\ldots p_{n} \cos n x\right)}{p_{0}^{2}+p_{1}^{2}+\ldots p_{n}^{2}} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we choose $p_{n}=n^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, we have $t_{n}(0) \rightarrow-\infty$, proving b). On the other hand, the ratio

$$
\frac{\frac{p_{0}}{\sqrt{2}}+p_{1}+\ldots p_{n}}{p_{0}^{2}+\ldots p_{n}^{2}}
$$

may be made to oscillate between finite positive limits $a$ and $b$, by choosing $p_{n}=a^{-1}$ for a long block of $n$, then $p_{n}=b^{-1}$ for a suitably long block of $n$, and so on alternately. This proves c ). As for d ) we have simply to satisfy the equations (see (12)).

$$
a_{n}\left(\frac{p_{0}}{\sqrt{2}}+p_{1}+\ldots p_{n-1}\right)=\frac{c_{n}}{c_{n-1}}, \quad n \geqslant 1
$$

or, in terms of the $p_{i}$ (see (7), (8))

$$
p_{n}\left(\frac{p_{0}}{\sqrt{2}}+p_{1}+\ldots p_{n-1}\right)=p_{0}^{2}+p_{1}^{2}+\ldots p_{n-1}^{2}
$$

the solution of which is $p_{0}=1, p_{1}=p_{2}=\ldots=\sqrt{2}$. For this choice we have $c_{n}^{2}=$ $1 /(2 n+1), a_{n}^{2}=2 /\left(4 n^{2}-1\right)$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
g_{n}(x) & =\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\left(4 n^{2}-1\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}(1+2 \cos x+\ldots 2 \cos (n-1) x-(2 n-1) \cos n x) \\
& =\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}\left(4 n^{2}-1\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}\left[\frac{\sin \left(n-\frac{1}{2}\right) x-(2 n-1) \cos n x \sin \frac{1}{2} x}{\sin \frac{1}{2} x}\right], \quad n \geqslant 1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Of course, that these special $\left\{g_{n}(x)\right\}$ are a CONS could also be verified by direct computation. Thus d) has been proved. As for e), let $n_{k}$ denote an increasing sequence of positive integers, and define

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{n} & =0, & & n \neq \text { any } n_{k} \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}, & & n=n_{k} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Choosing $n_{k}$ rapidly increasing (e.g. $n_{k}=\boldsymbol{6}^{k}$ ) it is a simple exercise to show that there is a dense set $E$ having the cardinality of the continuum, such that for $x$ in $E, \cos n_{k} x \geqslant \frac{1}{2}$ for almost all indices $k$. For such $x, t_{n}(x) \rightarrow-\infty$, from (16) (similarly, we could make $t_{n}(x) \rightarrow+\infty$ on another such set $\left.E^{\prime}\right)$. This proves e). There remains only the question of uniform boundedness. By (13) the uniform boundedness of the $\left\{g_{n}\right\}$ is implied by the boundedness of the sequence $a_{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} p_{i}$. Now,

$$
a_{n}^{2}=\frac{p_{n}^{2}}{\left(p_{0}^{2}+\ldots p_{n-1}^{2}\right)\left(p_{0}^{2}+\ldots p_{n}^{2}\right)} \leqslant \frac{p_{n}^{2}}{\left(p_{0}^{2}+\ldots p_{n-1}^{2}\right)^{2}},
$$

hence a sufficient condition for the uniform boundedness of the $\left\{g_{n}\right\}$ is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{n}\left(p_{0}+p_{1}+\ldots p_{n-1}\right) \leqslant M\left(p_{0}^{2}+\ldots p_{n-1}^{2}\right) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the proof is now completed by remarking that (17) holds for the systems we have constructed in b), c), d), e).

Remarks 1. Note that the choice $p_{n}=1 / \sqrt{n+1}$ (which satisfies (17)) leads to $a_{n}$ which are asymptotically $n^{-\frac{1}{2}} \log n$. Thus we see that even for a uniformly bounded, smooth CONS the constant function may have Fourier coefficients $a_{n}$ satisfying $\sum a_{n}^{2} \log ^{2} n=\infty$, i.e. violating the hypothesis of the Menšov-Rademacher theorem ([1], p. 76). This suggests the possibility that in such a system the Fourier series of 1 might diverge everywhere, but we have not been able to construct an example giving divergence even on a set of positive measure.
2. By adjoining to the $\left\{g_{n}\right\}$ the functions $\sqrt{2 / \pi} \sin n x$ we can get CONS on the circle group which exhibit the same pathologies.

## e. asplund, h. s. shapiro, Orthogonal matrices and orthogonal functions systems

3. If we drop the requirement of uniform boundedness d) becomes quite trivial to prove: simply take functions complete in $L^{2}[0, \pi]$, all vanishing at 0 , and orthonormalize them. In this way we can also construct a CONS consisting of $\mathrm{C}^{\infty}$ functions, all of which vanish on a prescribed closed set of measure zero.
4. That smoothness alone cannot imply rapid decrease of the Fourier coefficients may be seen readily by simply permuting the ordinary trigonometric functions to form a new CONS. On the other hand, in all of the systems so obtained a twice differentiable function has an absolutely and uniformly convergent Fourier series.

## REfERENCES

1. Alexits, G., Konvergenzprobleme der Orthogonalreihen, Budapest (1960).
2. Asplund, E., Inverses of matrices $\left\{a_{i j}\right\}$ which satisfy $a_{i j}=0$ for $j>i+p$. Math. Scand. 7, 57-60 (1959).
3. Shapiro, H. S., Incomplete orthogonal families and a related question on orthogonal matrices. Michigan Math. J. 11, 15-18 (1964).

Added in proof: Paper [4] contains information on and applications of finite dimensional matrices of the type studied in [3].
4. Lancaster, H. O., The Helmert matrices. Amer. Math. Monthly. 72, 4-12 (1965).

