

ECOE 505 - Linear Systems and Estimation Theory

Course Plan • Linear and Matrix Theory Review

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• Linear System Theory

• Linear Estimation Theory

Linear Algebra Review • Intro

• Vector Space

• Analysis of $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ problem (its existence and uniqueness)

Goal: To use geometric intuition to analyse algebraic problems, especially

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

Historical progress followed the reverse path

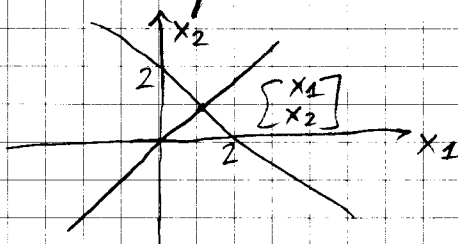
Geometric problem \rightarrow Algebra involved

In our case we will look at algebra \rightarrow geometry

Consider a linear system of equations

$$x_1 + x_2 = 2$$

$$x_1 - x_2 = 0$$



Vector Space $(V, R, +, \cdot)$

Definition: A linear vector space V over a set R (set of scalars) is a collection of objects known as vectors together with an additive operation $+$ and scalar multiplicative operation \cdot that satisfy the following properties

$$+ : V \times V \rightarrow V$$

$$\cdot : V \times V \rightarrow V$$

1. V forms a group under addition $(V, +)$

• (closed) For any $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in V$ $\vec{x} + \vec{y} \in V$

• (Identity element) There is an identity element in V , which is denoted by $\vec{0}$,

such that for any $\vec{x} \in V$ $\vec{x} + \vec{0} = \vec{0} + \vec{x} = \vec{x}$

• (Inverse) For any element $\underline{x} \in V$, there is another element $y \in V$ such that $\underline{x} + y = \underline{0}$.

• (Associative) $(\underline{x} + \underline{y}) + \underline{z} = \underline{x} + (\underline{y} + \underline{z}) \quad \forall \underline{x}, \underline{y}, \underline{z} \in V$

2. For any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in V$

• $a \cdot \underline{x} \in V$ Multiplication defined in \mathbb{R}

• $a \cdot (b \cdot \underline{x}) = (ab) \cdot \underline{x}$

• $(a+b) \cdot \underline{x} = a \cdot \underline{x} + b \cdot \underline{x}$

• $a \cdot (\underline{x} + \underline{y}) = a \cdot \underline{x} + a \cdot \underline{y}$

3. There is a multiplicative identity $1 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $1 \cdot \underline{x} = \underline{x} \quad \forall \underline{x} \in V$. There is an element $0 \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $0 \cdot \underline{x} = \underline{0}$.

Notation: We can use Vector Space and Signal Space interchangeably.

Example N dimensional Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^N where

$$\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} \quad x_1, \dots, x_N \in \mathbb{R} \quad \begin{matrix} \mathbb{R} \\ \downarrow \\ (\mathbb{R}^N, \mathbb{R}, +, \cdot) \end{matrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N + y_N \end{bmatrix} \quad a \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ax_1 \\ \vdots \\ ax_N \end{bmatrix}$$

Example The set of $M \times N$ matrices

$$(\mathbb{R}^{M \times N}, \mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$$

Example the set of polynomials up to degree n .

$$a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$$

$$b_n x^n + b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + b_0$$

+

$$(a_n + b_n) x^n + (a_{n-1} + b_{n-1}) x^{n-1} + \dots + (a_0 + b_0)$$

Linear Algebra Review

$$Ax = b$$

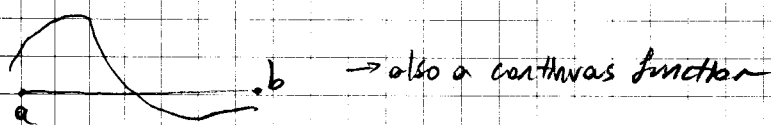
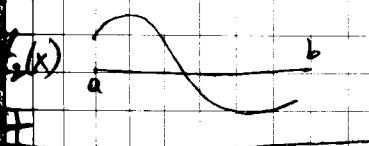
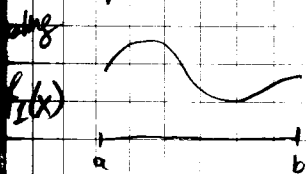
Vector Space $(V, R, +, \cdot)$

$$\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^3$$

$$\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

Polynomials with degree up to n .

Example: The set of continuous functions defined over the interval $[a, b]$.



We can talk about 2 functions being orthogonal to each other.

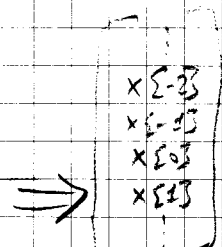
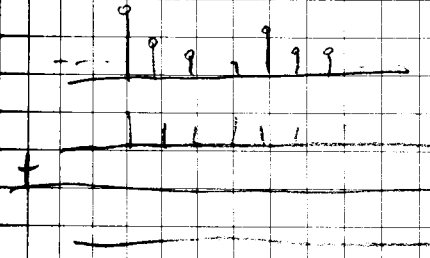
Example: Finite energy signals in the interval $[a, b]$, i.e., the collection

$$\{f(x) \in \mathbb{C} : x \in [a, b]\} \text{ where } \int_a^b |f(t)|^2 dt < \infty \quad (\text{Energy definition in EE})$$

Also form a vector space. \rightarrow Starting vector space for many signal processing tasks.

Example: The set of discrete time sequences with finite energy; i.e.

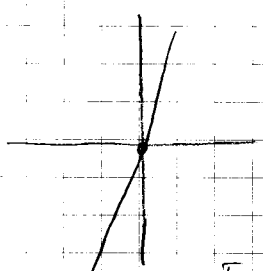
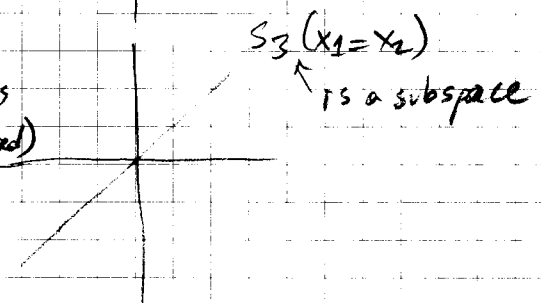
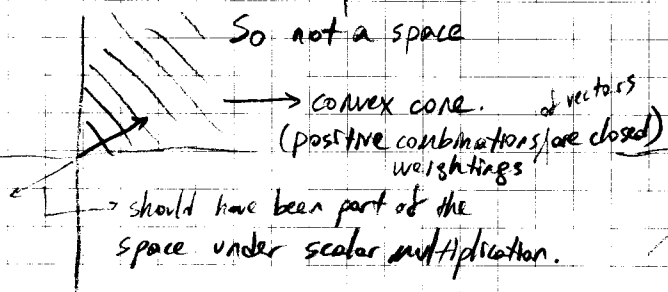
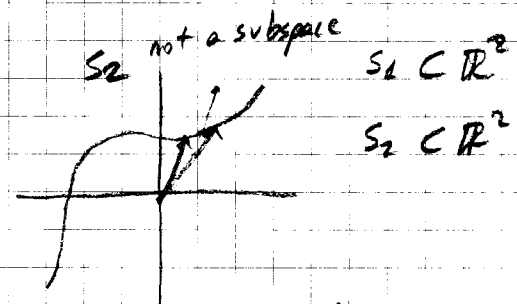
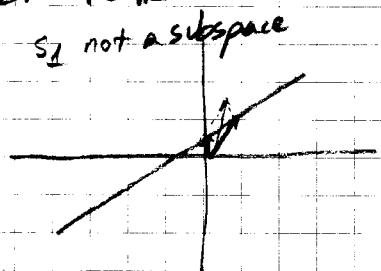
$$\text{the collection of } \{x_i \in \mathbb{C}, i \in \mathbb{Z}\} \text{ where } \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} |x_i|^2 < \infty.$$



It's easy to visualize discrete-time sequences as vectors.

Subspace Let V be a vector space, if $S \subset V$ and if S itself is a vector space then S is a subspace of V .

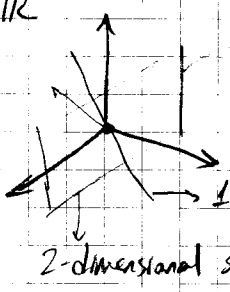
Example: $V = \mathbb{R}^2$



Any line that goes through the origin is a vector space (subspace)?

For a set to qualify as a vector space, it needs to contain the identity element (origin).

Example: \mathbb{R}^3



Any line or plane that goes through the origin.

$$\rightarrow 0_1 x_1 + 0_2 x_2 + a_3 x_3 = b_1$$

\rightarrow 2 equations will give a line.

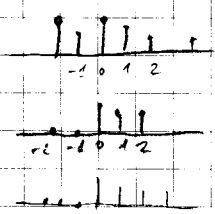
\rightarrow 3 " " " " a point.

For \mathbb{R}^n , $n-1$ -dimensional subspaces are called hyperplanes.

We can view a line as the intersection of two planes.

We can view a plane as the vectors orthogonal to the normal of the plane.

Example: The set of causal finite energy discrete time sequences.



all 0 before time 0.

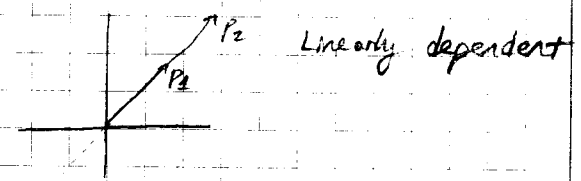
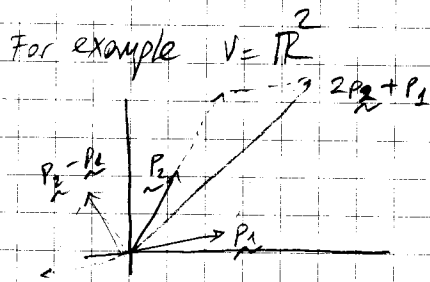
finite energy

\rightarrow subset of discrete time sequences

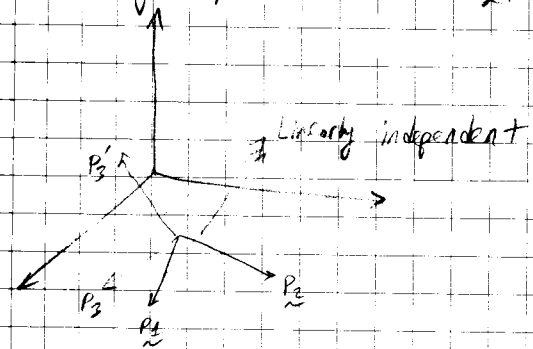
\rightarrow subspace of finite energy discrete time sequences (closed under +, .)

Definition (Linear Combination) Given a vector space V , $\underline{x} \in V$ is called a linear combination of vectors $\underline{p}_1, \underline{p}_2, \dots, \underline{p}_m \in V$ if it can be written as

Linear combination $\underline{x} = \alpha_1 \underline{p}_1 + \alpha_2 \underline{p}_2 + \dots + \alpha_m \underline{p}_m$
 = weighted sum



If linearly independent vectors $\underline{p}_1, \underline{p}_2$ I can represent any point on the $\underline{p}_1 - \underline{p}_2$ plane.



Definition (Linear Dependence) Let V be a vector space, and $T \subset V$. The set T is linearly independent if for each nonempty subset of T , $\{\underline{p}_1, \dots, \underline{p}_m\}$, the only set of scalars satisfying the equation

$$\alpha_1 \underline{p}_1 + \alpha_2 \underline{p}_2 + \dots + \alpha_m \underline{p}_m = \underline{0}$$

is the trivial solution $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = \alpha_m = 0$.

$\alpha_1 = 1$
 $\alpha_2 = -2$
 $\alpha_3 = 2$

$$\underline{p}_1 - 2\underline{p}_2 + 2\underline{p}_3 = \underline{0}$$

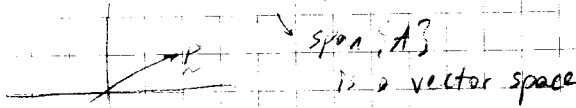
$$\underline{p}_1 = 2\underline{p}_2 - 2\underline{p}_3$$

\underline{p}_1 is a linear combination of \underline{p}_2 and \underline{p}_3 .

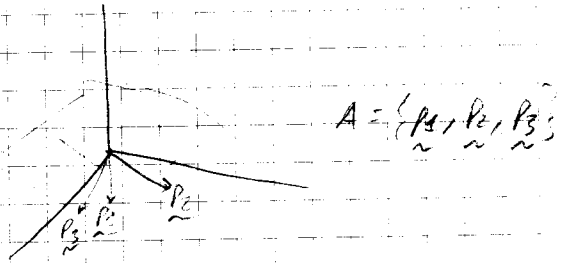
Definition (Span) Let A be a set of vectors in a vector space V . The set of vectors γ that is obtained by taking all possible linear combinations of vectors in A is called the span of A and we use the notation

$$\gamma = \text{Span}\{A\}$$

$V = \mathbb{R}^2$ $A = \{ \underline{p} \}$



$V = \mathbb{R}^3$ $A = \{ \underline{p}_1, \underline{p}_2 \}$



$\text{Span}(A)$ is the smallest linear space that contains A .

If you can eliminate a vector from the set without changing the span, then that vector is linearly dependent.

Definition (Basis and Dimension) Let V be a vector space if the set A is linearly independent and $V = \text{span}(A)$ then A is a basis for V .
(# of elements for finite sets)
 The cardinality of A is called the dimension of the vector space V , which is the number of independent vectors to span V .

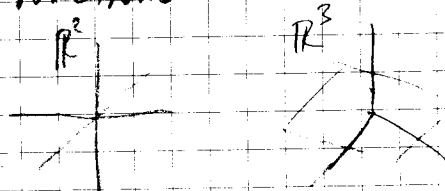
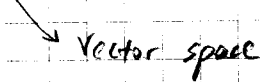
$\text{span}(\{ \underline{p}_1, \underline{p}_2 \})$ is a 2-dimensional vector space.

Linear Algebra Review

$A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$

• Vector space \mathbb{R}^n , $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, polynomials, functions

• Subspace \rightarrow Subset of a vector space



• Linear combination: $(V, R, +, \cdot)$

$\alpha_1 \underline{x}_1 + \alpha_2 \underline{x}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \underline{x}_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \underline{x}_i$

span is a linear space

• Span: set A $\text{span}(A) \rightarrow$ 1. All possible linear combinations of elements of set A .

\rightarrow 2. The smallest linear space that contains A .

• Linear independence: $\alpha_1 \underline{x}_1 + \alpha_2 \underline{x}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \underline{x}_n = \underline{0}$ iff $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n = 0$.

• Basis: A set A is a basis for vector space V iff

1. $\text{span}(A) = V$

2. A is linearly independent

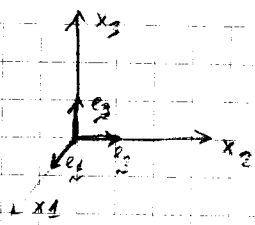
of elements
 cardinality of $A = \text{dimension of } V$.

... is a linear space \rightarrow isomorphism with integers. (1-to-1 correspondence)

Example: For $V = \mathbb{R}^3$

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad\qquad}_{e_1 \quad e_2 \quad e_3}$

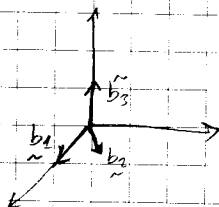


Standard basis for \mathbb{R}^3 - an orthogonal basis - Descartes proposed the orthogonal coordinates.

$$\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + x_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + x_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \underline{e}_1 + x_2 \underline{e}_2 + x_3 \underline{e}_3$$

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad\qquad}_{b_1 \quad b_2 \quad b_3}$



$$\underline{x} = \alpha_1 \underline{b}_1 + \alpha_2 \underline{b}_2 + \alpha_3 \underline{b}_3$$

Example: $V =$ vector space of polynomials

$$A = \{ 1, t, t^2, \dots \}$$

the set of monomials

→ not necessarily orthogonal to each other.

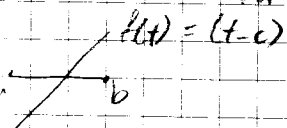
Example: For $L_2[a, b] : \{ f(x) : x \in [a, b], \int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx < \infty \}$

finite energy
Lebesgue integration is an alternative for Riemann integration (Analysis course)

$$A = \left\{ e^{j \frac{2\pi k t}{b-a}} ; k \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

$$f(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} d_k e^{j \frac{2\pi k t}{b-a}} \rightarrow \text{Fourier series} \rightarrow \text{periodic function}$$

Non periodic function
for each k , we have a different basis element. → Represents a function as a linear combination of basis functions.



Why do I need complex exponentials to represent functions?

eigenvectors of linear time invariant systems → ?

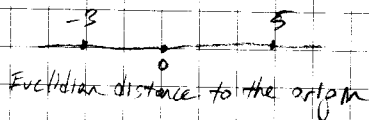
$$\sum_k e^{st} \rightarrow \text{LTI} \rightarrow A e^{st} \text{ (form of the function is not going to change)}$$

Eigenfunction concept (I give a waveform, I get a waveform)

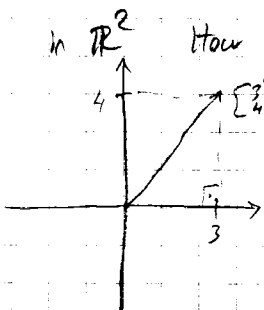
Euclidian Norm of a Vector

Before that, how big a real number is?

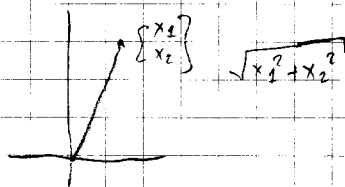
5, -3, 2



In \mathbb{R}^2 How big is $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$? There are infinitely many ways of saying how big a vector is.

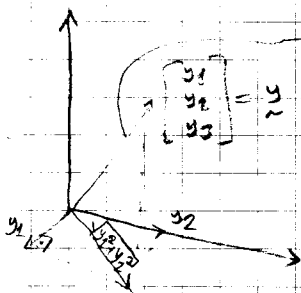


$$\sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = 5$$



$$\|\underline{x}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$$

\mathbb{R}^3



$$\|\underline{y}\| = \sqrt{y_1^2 + y_2^2 + y_3^2} \quad \text{in } \mathbb{C}^3$$

$$\|\underline{y}\| = \sqrt{|y_1|^2 + |y_2|^2 + |y_3|^2} \quad \text{Gives?}$$

Extend this definition for \mathbb{R}^n

$$\|\underline{x}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

$$x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \underline{x}^T \underline{x}$$

$$\|\underline{x}\| = \sqrt{\underline{x}^T \underline{x}} \Leftrightarrow \|\underline{x}\|^2 = \underline{x}^T \underline{x}$$

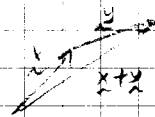
Note that Euclidian norm satisfies

- $\|\alpha \underline{x}\| = |\alpha| \|\underline{x}\| \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \quad (\text{Homogeneity})$

- $\|\underline{x}\| \geq 0 \quad (\text{Nonnegative})$

- $\|\underline{x}\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \underline{x} = \underline{0} \quad (\text{Definiteness})$

- $\|\underline{x} + \underline{y}\| \leq \|\underline{x}\| + \|\underline{y}\| \quad (\text{Triangle Inequality})$



Inner Product

$\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ Def: $\langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle = \underline{x}^T \underline{y} = \underline{y}^T \underline{x} \neq \underline{x} \underline{y}^T$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n$$

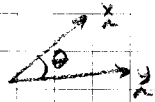
$$= \sum_{k=1}^n x_k y_k$$

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} \iff \|x\|^2 = \langle x, x \rangle$$

Properties of Inner Product

- $\langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle$
- $\langle x+y, z \rangle = (x+y)^T z = (x^T + y^T) z = x^T z + y^T z = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$
- $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle \rightarrow$ in the complex case it matters.
- $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$
- $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = 0$

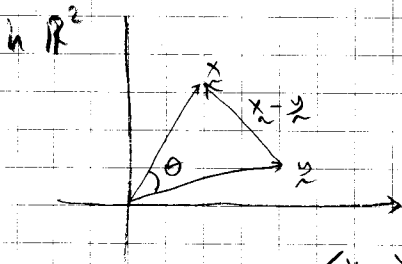
$$\langle x, y \rangle = \|x\| \|y\| \cos \theta$$



$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \|y\|}$$

Span(A) = A if A is a vector space!

$$\begin{aligned} \|x-y\|^2 &= \langle x-y, x-y \rangle \\ &= \langle x-y, x \rangle - \langle x-y, y \rangle \\ &= \langle x, x \rangle - \langle y, x \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle \\ &= \|x\|^2 - 2\langle x, y \rangle + \|y\|^2 \end{aligned}$$



Cosine theorem:

$$\|x-y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 - 2\|x\| \|y\| \cos \theta$$

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \|x\| \|y\| \cos \theta$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \|y\|} = \frac{\langle x, x \rangle^{1/2} \langle y, y \rangle^{1/2}}{\|x\| \|y\|}$$

$$\theta = 90^\circ \Rightarrow \langle x, y \rangle = 0 \iff \begin{matrix} x \\ \perp \\ y \end{matrix}$$

orthogonal vectors

$$\boxed{\langle x, y \rangle \leq \|x\| \|y\|} \quad \text{Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality (Bunjakowski)}$$

$$\int f(x)g(x) dx \leq \left(\int f(x)^2 dx \right)^{1/2} \left(\int g(x)^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\|x-y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 - 2\langle x, y \rangle + \|y\|^2 \geq 0$$

$$\langle x, y \rangle \leq \frac{\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2}{2}$$

$$\hat{x} = \frac{x}{\|x\|} \quad \hat{y} = \frac{y}{\|y\|} \implies \text{Unit norm vectors} \implies \text{Normalization procedure}$$

$$\|\hat{x}\| = 1$$

$$\left\langle \frac{u}{\|u\|}, \frac{v}{\|v\|} \right\rangle \leq \frac{\|u\|^2}{2} + \frac{\|v\|^2}{2}$$

$$\left\langle \frac{u}{\|u\|}, \frac{v}{\|v\|} \right\rangle \leq 1$$

$$\frac{1}{\|u\| \|v\|} \langle u, v \rangle \leq 1 \Rightarrow \langle u, v \rangle \leq \|u\| \|v\|$$

Matrices

Notation: A matrix $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ is a rectangular array of numbers

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

A matrix can be partitioned in many different ways. Two particular useful partitions are

$$1. A = [c_1 \ c_2 \ c_3 \ \dots \ c_n] \quad c_i = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$$

$$c_i = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1i} \\ a_{2i} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mi} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2. A = \begin{bmatrix} r_1^T \\ r_2^T \\ r_3^T \\ \vdots \\ r_m^T \end{bmatrix} \quad r_i = \begin{bmatrix} a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \dots & a_{in} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$$

$$r_i^T \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$$

Two alternative ways to perceive matrix vector product Ax

$$1. A = [c_1 \ c_2 \ \dots \ c_n]$$

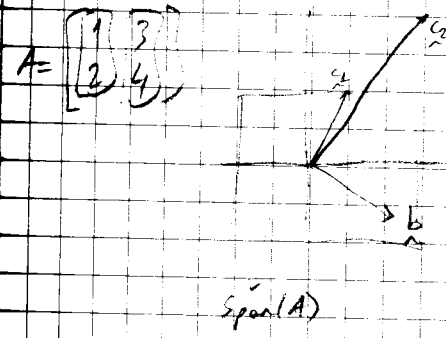
$$Ax = [c_1 \ c_2 \ \dots \ c_n] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [x_1 c_1 + x_2 c_2 + \dots + x_n c_n] \quad (\text{Linear weighted combination of the columns of } A)$$

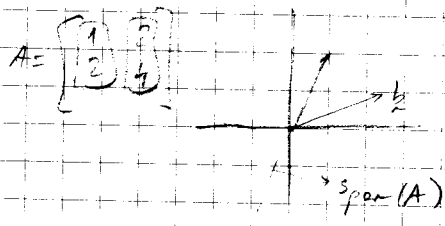
$Ax \cong b \rightarrow$ Can I find a collection of weights that will give me b from A ?

$$2. A = \begin{bmatrix} r_1^T \\ r_2^T \\ \vdots \\ r_m^T \end{bmatrix} \quad Ax = \begin{bmatrix} r_1^T \\ r_2^T \\ \vdots \\ r_m^T \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} r_1^T x \\ r_2^T x \\ \vdots \\ r_m^T x \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle x, r_1 \rangle \\ \langle x, r_2 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle x, r_m \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

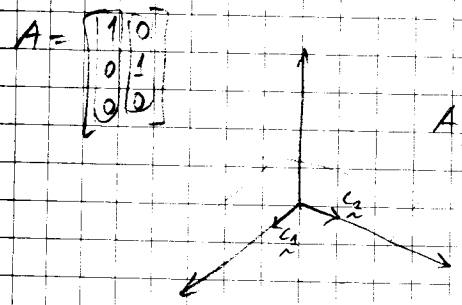
(Taking inner products of x with the rows of A)



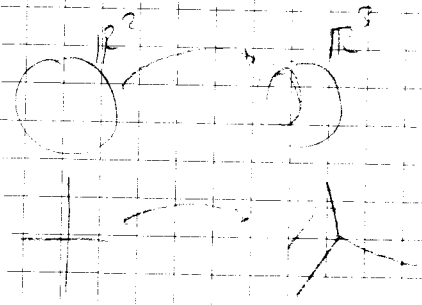
$Ax \cong b \rightarrow$ can find for any b



Is b in the span (columns of A)?



$Ax \cong b$?

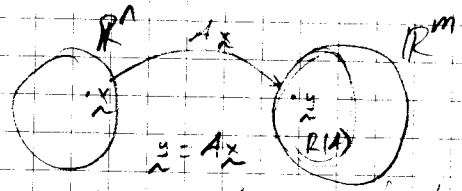


Range Space of a Matrix

The range of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is the set

$$R(A) = \{ Ax \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n \}$$

$R(A) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$



$R(A) = \text{Span}(\{c_1, \dots, c_n\})$ - i.e., the range space is the span of columns of A .

$R(A)$ can be defined as the collection of b vectors for which $Ax \cong b$ has a solution.

If $R(A) = \mathbb{R}^m$ then that implies

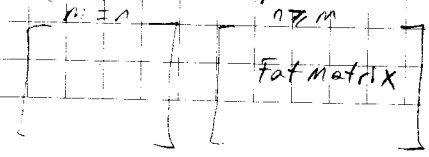
- $Ax \cong b$ has solution for any $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

- Span of columns of A is \mathbb{R}^m

- $n \geq m$

(Range space is a span of n vectors)

(m unknowns / m equations)



- A has a right inverse, i.e., there exists an $n \times m$ matrix B such that

$$AB = I_m$$

Linear System of Equations

$$Ax = b \begin{cases} \rightarrow \text{Existence} \\ \rightarrow \text{Uniqueness} \end{cases}$$

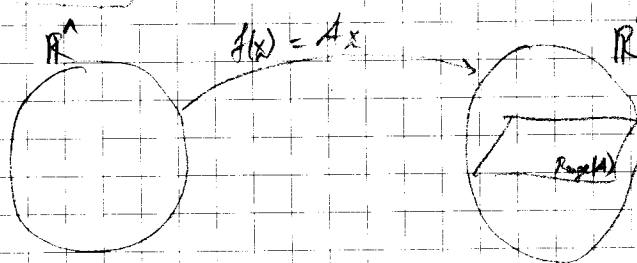
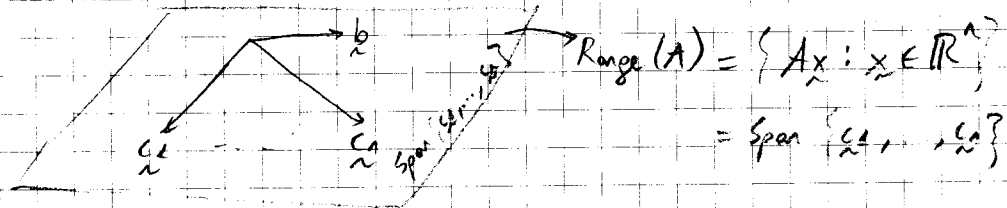
Will be used for the analysis of Existence

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | \\ c_1 & c_2 \\ | & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_m \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | \\ | \\ | \end{bmatrix}$$

Perception 2. Uniqueness

$$A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1^T \\ c_2^T \\ \vdots \\ c_m^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle c_1, x \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle c_m, x \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$



If $R(A) = \mathbb{R}^m$, we have solution for any $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$

- $n \geq m$
- $\exists D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, right inverse, $AD = I$

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ \vdots \\ d_m \end{bmatrix} \quad Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ d_m \end{bmatrix} \quad \dots \quad Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ d_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

There may be more than one solution d_i for all tall matrices

$$A \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & d_2 & \dots & d_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A d_1 & A d_2 & \dots & A d_m \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$- R(A) = \mathbb{R}^m \iff \det(AA^T) \neq 0. \quad (\text{Prove this})$$

Null Space

$$N(A) = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax = \underline{0} \right\}$$

$$f(x) = Ax \quad \begin{matrix} \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \end{matrix}$$

$$\underline{x} \in N(A), \alpha \underline{x}$$

$$A(\alpha \underline{x}) = \alpha A\underline{x} = \underline{0}$$

$$\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2 \in N(A)$$

$$A(\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2) = A\underline{x}_1 + A\underline{x}_2 = \underline{0}$$

Vector space

$$A\underline{0} = \underline{0}, \text{ origin is also included}$$

$$A\underline{z} = \underline{b}, \text{ assume } \underline{y} \in N(A)$$

$$A(\underline{z} + \underline{y}) = A\underline{z} + A\underline{y} = A\underline{z} = \underline{b}$$

$$N(A) = \underline{0} \text{ or } N(A) = \{ \dots \}$$

Trivial null space

Non-trivial

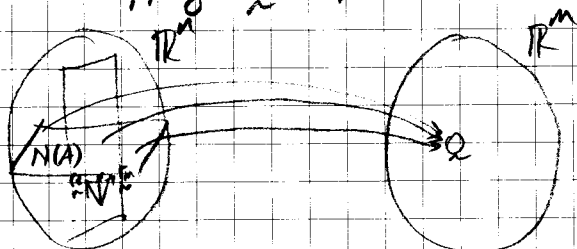
Infinitely many solutions

(i.e. $N(A) = \underline{0}$ & scaled versions of \underline{z})
Since $N(A)$ is a vector space

Properties of Null Space:

$$- N(A) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \text{ (subspace)}$$

- It can be interpreted as collection of vectors which are mapped to zero under the mapping $\underline{y} = A\underline{x}$



- Alternative interpretation: (Due to Perception 2) Collection of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n that are orthogonal to all rows of A (A null space vector is orthogonal to row space of A)

$$\underline{x}^T (\alpha_1 \underline{r}_1 + \alpha_2 \underline{r}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \underline{r}_n) = \alpha_1 \underbrace{\underline{x}^T \underline{r}_1}_0 + \alpha_2 \underbrace{\underline{x}^T \underline{r}_2}_0 + \dots + \alpha_n \underbrace{\underline{x}^T \underline{r}_n}_0$$

$\underline{x} \in N(A)$

- $N(A) = \{0\}$ implies

* We can uniquely determine \underline{x} from \underline{b} if $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$ has a solution.

* Columns of A are linearly independent. (Use Perception 1)

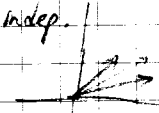
$\underline{c}_1, \dots, \underline{c}_n$ are linearly independent

$\alpha_1 \underline{c}_1 + \alpha_2 \underline{c}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \underline{c}_n = \underline{0}$ is $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \dots = 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \underline{c}_1 & \underline{c}_2 & \dots & \underline{c}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} = \underline{0}$$

$n=10, m=3 \Rightarrow n > m \Rightarrow N(A)$ is nontrivial

* $n \leq m$ (Based on the # of row vectors) \rightarrow Second view: Based on the # of column vectors. Since $\underline{c}_1, \dots, \underline{c}_n$ are lin. indep. $n \leq m$



$\exists D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}, DA = I$ (there exists a left inverse) (Prove this)

$R(A) = \mathbb{R}^m$ implies rows of A are linearly independent.

Suppose $R(A) = \mathbb{R}^m$ but rows of A are not linearly independent

$\exists \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ not all equal to zero

$$\alpha_1 \underline{r}_1 + \alpha_2 \underline{r}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \underline{r}_n = \underline{0}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \dots & \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{r}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{r}_n \end{bmatrix} = \underline{0}$$

$$AD = I$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \dots & \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{r}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \underline{r}_n^T \end{bmatrix} = \underline{0}$$

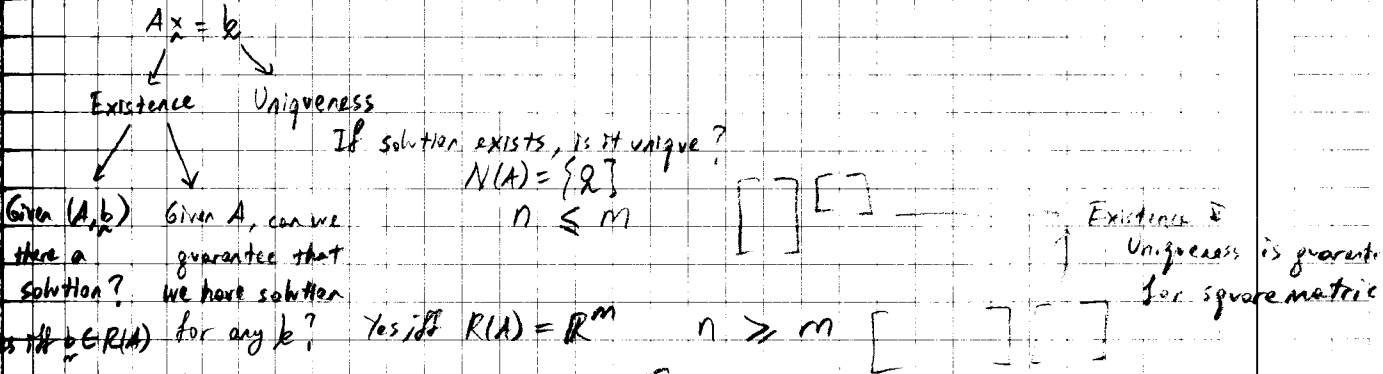
$$D^T A^T = I \rightarrow \text{tall}$$

$$\underline{\alpha}^T A = \underline{0}$$

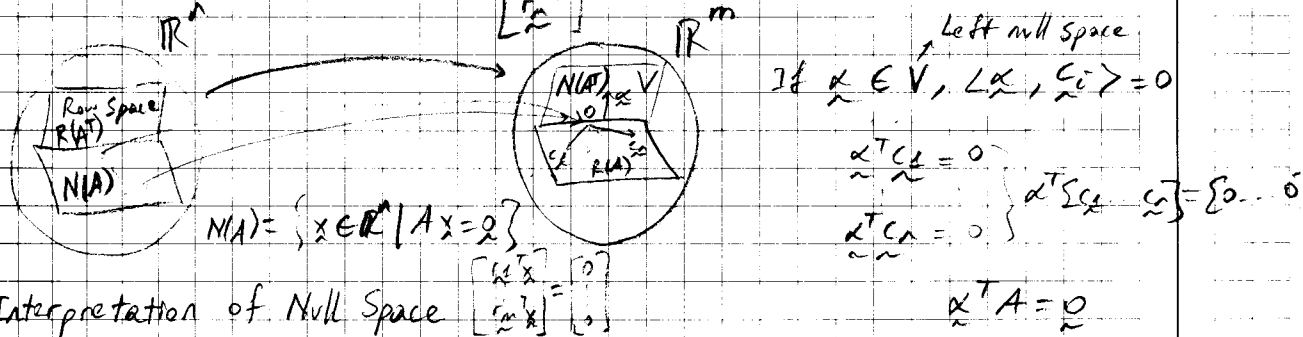
$$\underline{\alpha}^T \begin{bmatrix} \underline{c}_1 & \dots & \underline{c}_n \end{bmatrix} = \underline{0}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle \underline{\alpha}, \underline{c}_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle \underline{\alpha}, \underline{c}_n \rangle \end{bmatrix} = \underline{0}$$

Linear Algebra Review



$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ $A = [c_1 \dots c_n]^T = \begin{bmatrix} c_1^T \\ \vdots \\ c_n^T \end{bmatrix}$



(-) Suppose we want to measure x , but we have access to $y = Ax$.

Let $z \in N(A)$. Since $A(x+z) = Ax$, $N(A)$ characterizes the ambiguity in x given $y = Ax$.

(+) Alternatively, we want to achieve an output $y = Ax$.

$x \rightarrow [Ax] \rightarrow y$ We could choose any input $x+z$ where $z \in N(A)$.

In this case $N(A)$ characterizes the degree of freedom in choosing x .

Row Space = $\text{Span}\{r_1, \dots, r_m\}$

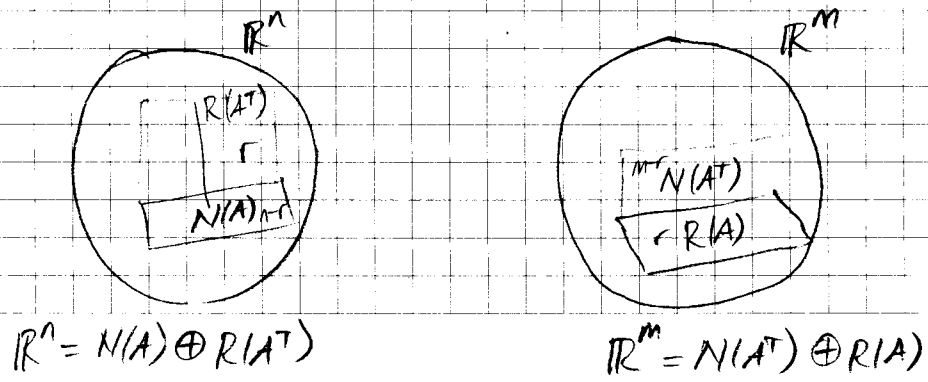
$A^T = [r_1 \dots r_m]$

$= R(A^T)$

$\alpha^T A = 0 \Rightarrow A^T \alpha = 0$

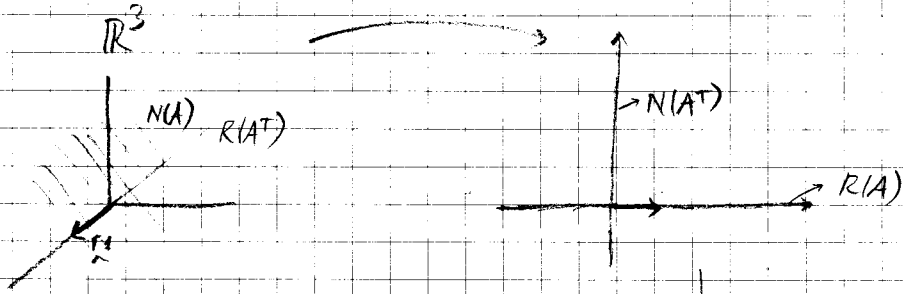
Left null space of $A =$ (right) null space of A^T .

4 Fundamental Spaces



↳ Direct sum \approx span of the union space

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$



$\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \tilde{x} = \tilde{x}_{N(A)} + \tilde{x}_{R(A)}$

Solution is not guaranteed to exist.

If it exists, it is not unique.

Rank of a Matrix

We define the rank of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rank}(A) &= \dim(R(A)) = r \\ &= \dim(R(A^T)) \end{aligned}$$

Some facts about rank:

- Rank is the maximum number of linearly independent columns (rows).

- $\text{Rank}(A) \leq \min\{m, n\}$

$\dim(R(A)) \leq m$

In case of equality we call "A has full rank".

$\dim(R(A^T)) \leq n$

Otherwise "A is rank deficient".

- $\dim(N(A)) = n - r$

- $\dim(N(A^T)) = m - r$

$A \tilde{x} = \tilde{b}$ Problem

$m > n$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \\ \tilde{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{b} \\ \tilde{x} \end{bmatrix}$$

$m = n$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \\ \tilde{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{b} \\ \tilde{x} \end{bmatrix}$$

of eqs = # of unknowns

$m < n$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \\ \tilde{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{b} \\ \tilde{x} \end{bmatrix}$$

more unknowns than equations

More equations than unknowns

Existence may be a problem

Uniqueness may be a problem.

Square case ($m=n$)

$$\begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b \end{bmatrix}$$

• Rank is equal to n (full rank)

- $R(A) = \mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow$ We have solution for any b .

- $\dim(N(A)) = n-r = 0 \Rightarrow N(A) = \{0\} \Rightarrow$ Solution is unique.

• Rank $< n$ (rank deficient)

- $R(A) \neq \mathbb{R}^n \Rightarrow \exists b \notin R(A) \Rightarrow$ There is no solution for some b .

- $\dim(N(A)) = n-r > 0 \Rightarrow N(A) \neq \{0\} \Rightarrow$ If solution exists it is not unique

If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is full rank it has a unique left and right inverse, denoted by A^{-1} , such that

$$AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$$

Such an A is called invertible or non-singular.

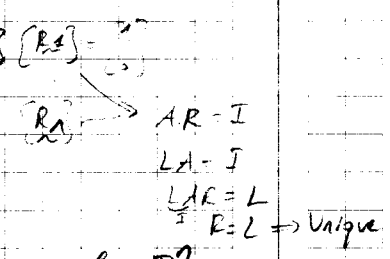
Equivalent conditions for invertibility:

- Columns of A are linearly independent and they form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

- $\det(A) \neq 0$

$$\det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} \right) = \det \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & 0 & \\ & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

can be $\neq 0 \Rightarrow \det(A) = 0$



$$Ax \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$f(x) = Ax$$

$\mathbb{R}^n \quad \mathbb{R}^m$

• If A is full rank, $\exists A^{-1}$ s.t. $A^{-1}A = AA^{-1} = I$ (unique solution for any b)
 $\det A \neq 0$ $N(A) = \{0\}$ $R(A) = \mathbb{R}^m$

• If A is not full rank (singular)

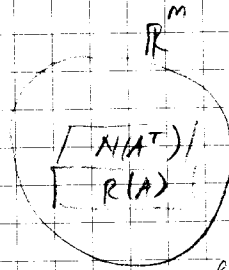
$$\det A = 0$$

$R(A) \neq \mathbb{R}^m \Rightarrow$ - For some b there is no solution

$N(A) \neq \{0\} \Rightarrow$ - If there is a solution, it is not unique

Tall A Case ($m > n$)

$$\begin{matrix} m=10 \\ n=5 \end{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} | \\ | \\ | \\ | \\ | \\ | \\ | \\ | \\ | \\ | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ x \\ x \\ x \\ x \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ b \\ b \\ b \\ b \\ b \\ b \\ b \\ b \\ b \end{bmatrix}$$

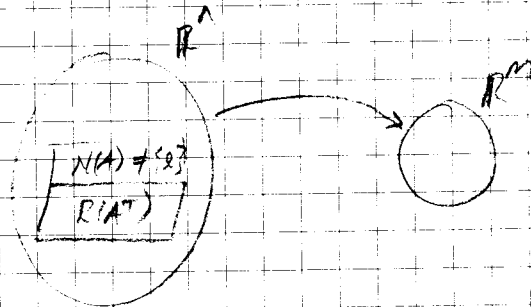


$N(A^T) \neq \{0\} \Rightarrow$ For some b there is no solution (i.e. for $b \notin N(A^T)$)
 - If A is full rank: $r = n$
 \Leftrightarrow Columns are linearly independent
 $\Leftrightarrow N(A) = \{0\}$
 \Leftrightarrow If there is a solution, it is unique.

- If A is not full rank: $r < n$
 $\Leftrightarrow N(A) \neq \{0\}$
 If there is a solution, it is not unique!

Flat A Case ($m < n$)

$$\begin{bmatrix} | \\ | \\ | \\ | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | \\ | \\ | \\ | \end{bmatrix}$$



Since $N(A) \neq \{0\} \Leftrightarrow$ If solution exists, it is not unique.

- If A is full rank, i.e., $r = m, \Leftrightarrow R(A) = \mathbb{R}^m$
 \Leftrightarrow Solution exists for any $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$
- If A is not full rank, i.e., $r < m, \Leftrightarrow R(A) \neq \mathbb{R}^m$
 \Leftrightarrow For some b there is no solution.

"1000 equations are enough to estimate the parameters" \rightarrow Ad hoc statement.

Obtaining the solution of $Ax = b$

Approach: Convert this problem into (multiple) simpler problems:

Simpler problems?

(1) A is diagonal

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & & & 0 \\ & a_{22} & & 0 \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} x_1 = \frac{b_1}{a_{11}} \\ x_2 = \frac{b_2}{a_{22}} \\ \vdots \\ x_n = \frac{b_n}{a_{nn}} \end{matrix}$$

(2) - A is (lower or upper) triangular

Gaussian elimination tries to convert $Ax = b$ into upper triangular system of equations.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ & a_{22} & & \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$$

No coupling with other variables

Solution by back substitution $x_n = \frac{b_n}{a_{nn}}$

$$a_{n-1,n-1} x_{n-1} + a_{n-1,n} x_n = b_{n-1}$$

$$x_{n-1} = \frac{1}{a_{n-1,n-1}} \left(b_{n-1} - \frac{a_{n-1,n} b_n}{a_{nn}} \right)$$

(3) - A is orthogonal (i.e. $AA^T = I$
 $A^{-1} = A^T$)

$$\hat{x} = A^T b$$

Conversion of $Ax = b \Rightarrow$ Factorization of A

$$PA = LU$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & L_1 & & \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & L_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & & & \\ & a_{22} & & \\ & & \dots & \\ & & & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = \hat{A}$$

$$L_1 \dots L_n A = U$$

Inverse of a lower triangular matrix is always a lower triangular matrix.

$$A = \underbrace{L_1^{-1} L_2^{-1} \dots L_n^{-1}}_L U$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Not all matrices can be written as $A = LU$ so we need P.

$$P^{-1} = P^T$$

$$PA = LU \quad A = P^T L U$$

$$Ax = b$$

$$P^T L U x = b$$

$$L U x = P b$$

(a1) $\hat{y} = L x = P b$

Obtain \hat{y} by forward substitution.

(a2) $U \hat{x} = \hat{y}$

Obtain \hat{x} by back substitution.

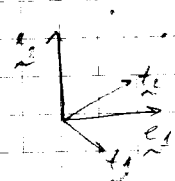
Basis and Coordinate Change

in \mathbb{R}^n , the standard basis is $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$

$$\tilde{e}_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow i\text{th position}$$

Any vector $\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be written as standard coordinates

$$\underline{x} = x_1 \tilde{e}_1 + x_2 \tilde{e}_2 + \dots + x_n \tilde{e}_n$$



Suppose $\{t_1, \dots, t_n\}$ is another basis for \mathbb{R}^n .
new coordinates w.r.t. basis $\{t_1, \dots, t_n\}$

$$\underline{x} = \tilde{x}_1 t_1 + \tilde{x}_2 t_2 + \dots + \tilde{x}_n t_n$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} t_1 & t_2 & \dots & t_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}_1 \\ \tilde{x}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{x}_n \end{bmatrix} = T \tilde{\underline{x}}$$

$$\underline{x} = T \tilde{\underline{x}} \Rightarrow \tilde{\underline{x}} = T^{-1} \underline{x}$$

Suppose we have a linear mapping $\underline{y} = A \underline{x}$ and we apply a basis change

$$\tilde{\underline{x}} = T^{-1} \underline{x} \Rightarrow \underline{x} = T \tilde{\underline{x}}$$

$$\tilde{\underline{y}} = \text{circled } \underline{y} \Rightarrow \underline{y} = T \tilde{\underline{y}}$$

$$T \tilde{\underline{y}} = A T \tilde{\underline{x}}$$

$$\tilde{\underline{y}} = \boxed{T^{-1} A T} \tilde{\underline{x}}$$

Question: Can I find a basis $\{t_1, \dots, t_n\}$ such that $T^{-1} A T$ is diagonal?

$A \underline{x} = \underline{b}$ \rightarrow Existence
 \rightarrow Uniqueness



Strategy: Convert it into simple forms (i.e. Matrix Factorizations for A)

1. Triangular Form $PA = LU$

$$PA = LU$$

2. Diagonal Form

$A = QR$ upper triangular
Orthogonal

3. Orthogonal Form $Q \underline{x} = \underline{b}$ $Q^T Q = I$

$$T^{-1} A T = \Lambda \leftarrow \text{diagonal}$$

$$\underline{x} = Q^T \underline{b}$$

$A = U \Sigma V^T$
Diagonal
Orthogonal

Simple is programming
 $Q_{ij} = Q_{ji}^T$

Basis Change and Coordinates

$$\underbrace{\{t_1, \dots, t_n\}}_{\text{new basis}} \quad \tilde{x} = \tilde{x}_1 t_1 + \tilde{x}_2 t_2 + \dots + \tilde{x}_n t_n$$

$$\tilde{x} = \begin{bmatrix} t_1 & \dots & t_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}_1 \\ \tilde{x}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{x}_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{x} = T \tilde{\tilde{x}} \quad y = Ax$$

$$\tilde{y} = T \tilde{\tilde{y}} \quad T \tilde{\tilde{y}} = AT \tilde{\tilde{x}}$$

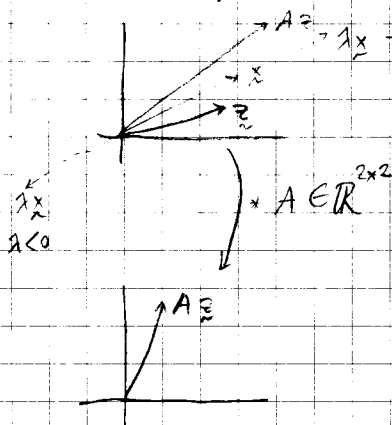
$$\tilde{\tilde{y}} = T^{-1} AT \tilde{\tilde{x}}$$

Eigenvalues - Eigenvectors

Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, λ is an eigenvalue of A if $\exists x \neq 0$, such that

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

x is called an eigenvector of A corresponding to λ .



How do we find eigenvalues of a given matrix? eigenvectors

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

$$Ax - \lambda x = 0$$

$$Ax - (\lambda I)x = 0$$

$$(A - \lambda I)x = 0 \Rightarrow N(A - \lambda I) \neq \{0\}$$

$$\Rightarrow A - \lambda I \text{ is not full rank}$$

is singular

is not invertible

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

$P_A(\lambda) = \lambda^n + c_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + c_0 = 0 \rightarrow$ Gauss: " n^{th} degree polynomial has at most n roots"
 Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

characteristic polynomial of A

by F.T.A. $P_A(\lambda)$ has n roots.

eigenvalues of $A \leftrightarrow$ roots of $P_A(\lambda)$

If λ_i is an eigenvalue then

$(A - \lambda_i I)$ has a non-trivial null space.

Eigenspace of A corresponding to $\lambda_i \leftarrow N(A - \lambda_i I) \leftrightarrow$ eigenvectors of A corresponding to λ_i .

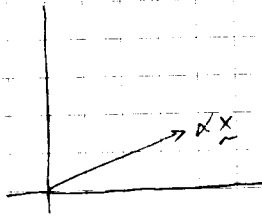
if $x \in N(A - \lambda_i I)$

$$(A - \lambda_i I)x = 0$$

$$Ax = \lambda_i x$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ x \\ x \end{bmatrix} \quad x_3 + x_2 = 1$$

How you obtain a null space of a matrix?



$$Ax = \lambda x$$

$$A(\alpha x) = \alpha Ax = \alpha \lambda x$$

$$A(\alpha x) = \lambda(\alpha x)$$

Suppose v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n are eigenvectors of A which are linearly independent

such that $Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$

$$A[v_1 \ v_2 \ \dots \ v_n] = [Av_1 \ Av_2 \ \dots \ Av_n]$$

$$V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = [\lambda_1 v_1 \ \lambda_2 v_2 \ \dots \ \lambda_n v_n]$$

$$= [v_1 \ v_2 \ \dots \ v_n] \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}}_{\Lambda}$$

$$AV = V\Lambda$$

v_i 's are linearly independent $\Leftrightarrow V$ is invertible

$$V^{-1}AV = \Lambda \quad \Leftrightarrow A = V\Lambda V^{-1}$$

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is diagonalizable \Leftrightarrow you can find n linearly independent eigenvectors of A .
sufficient condition not a necessary condition.
- if A has n distinct eigenvalues then it is diagonalizable (prove this in HW).

The reverse is not necessarily true. For example $A = I$.

If A is diagonalizable and if we have $Ax = k$

suppose $V = [v_1 \ \dots \ v_n]$ contains eigenvectors of A

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} Vx = x \\ Vb = b \end{array} \right\} \quad \begin{array}{l} V^{-1}AVx = \tilde{b} \\ \Lambda \tilde{x} = \tilde{b} \end{array}$$

Connotation is similar
To convert a complex condition to a multiplication in the new basis.

Not necessarily: $\text{span}\{\text{eigenvectors}\} = R(A) \rightarrow$

$$R(A) = R(A)$$

Signal subspace: In Hermitian matrices you can get a diagonal set of eigenvalues. If you remove the ones that are zero or small, you get a signal subspace.

• A, B are called simultaneously diagonalizable iff $\exists T$ such that

$$A = T \Lambda_1 T^{-1} \quad B = T \Lambda_2 T^{-1}$$

$$AB = T \Lambda_1 T^{-1} T \Lambda_2 T^{-1}$$

$$= T \Lambda_1 \Lambda_2 T^{-1}$$

$$= T \Lambda_2 \Lambda_1 T^{-1}$$

$$= T \Lambda_2 T^{-1} T \Lambda_1 T^{-1}$$

$AB = BA \rightarrow$ commute in terms of matrix multiplication.

Orthogonal (Unitary) Matrices

Small Note about N dimensional Complex Space \mathbb{C}^N

• \mathbb{C}^N contains all vectors \underline{x} with N complex entries

$$\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} \quad x_k \in \mathbb{C} \quad x_k = a_k + i b_k \quad a_k, b_k \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\bar{x}_k = x_k^* = a_k - i b_k \quad (\text{complex conjugate of a given complex number})$$

$$\underline{x}^H = \underline{x}^* = [x_1^* \quad x_2^* \quad \dots \quad x_N^*] \quad \text{Hermitian-Transpose Operation}$$

if $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$

$$A^H = A^* = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^* & a_{12}^* & \dots & a_{1n}^* \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1}^* & \dots & \dots & a_{mn}^* \end{bmatrix}$$

Transpose of A with elements complex conjugated.

Linear Dependence:

The vectors $\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_k \in \mathbb{C}^N$ are linearly independent if some non-trivial combination

$$c_1 \underline{v}_1 + c_2 \underline{v}_2 + \dots + c_k \underline{v}_k = \underline{0} \quad \text{where all } c_k \text{'s are all equal to zero.}$$

Now c_k 's may be complex numbers.

$$(\mathbb{V}, \mathbb{R}, +, \cdot)$$

$$(\mathbb{C}^N, \mathbb{C}, +, \cdot) \rightarrow \text{Complex vector space}$$

• Inner Product

For $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^N$, $\langle x, y \rangle = y^* x = \sum_{k=1}^N x_k y_k^*$

$\langle x, y \rangle = (\langle y, x \rangle)^*$

$a \in \mathbb{C} \quad \langle ax, y \rangle = a \langle x, y \rangle$

$\langle x, ay \rangle = a^* \langle x, y \rangle$

$x \in \mathbb{C}^N \Rightarrow \|x\| = \sqrt{x^* x}$

$= \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^N |x_k|^2}$
 $x_k x_k^* = \text{magnitude}$

$Ax = b$

Easy cases:

- 1. Diagonal
- 2. Upper Triangular
- 3. Orthogonal Matrix

$A^{-1} = A^T, \quad x = A^T b$

Exercises

- Orthogonal (Unitary)

- Special Matrices (Normal Matrices)
 (Unitary, Hermitian)

Complex Inner Product

• $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$

$\langle x, y \rangle = y^* x = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k y_k^* \quad \tilde{y}^* = [y_1^* \dots y_n^*]$

• $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is orthogonal $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$

• $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ if $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$

$A^H = A^* = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^* & a_{21}^* & \dots & a_{m1}^* \\ a_{12}^* & a_{22}^* & \dots & a_{m2}^* \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1n}^* & \dots & \dots & a_{mn}^* \end{bmatrix}$

Orthogonal Vectors

(Definition): A pair of vectors $\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ are orthogonal if

$$\underline{x}^* \underline{y} = \underline{y}^* \underline{x} = 0 = \langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle = \langle \underline{y}, \underline{x} \rangle$$

In general, they are not real but they are 2.

In the real 2-3 dimensional vectors orthogonal \Leftrightarrow right angle between the vectors.

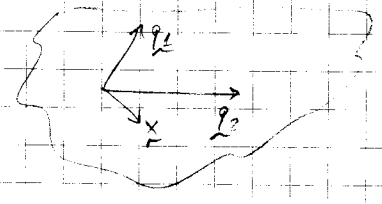
Two sets $X \subset \mathbb{C}^n, Y \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ are orthogonal if every $\underline{x} \in X$ is orthogonal to every $\underline{y} \in Y$.

A set of vectors $S \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ is orthogonal iff its elements are pairwise orthogonal.

$$\underline{x}, \underline{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n, \underline{x} \neq \underline{y} \Rightarrow \langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle = 0$$

A set of vectors $S \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ is orthonormal iff S is orthogonal and every $\underline{x} \in S$ has $\|\underline{x}\| = 1$. (Remember $\|\underline{x}\| = \sqrt{\underline{x}^* \underline{x}}$)

If $\underline{x} \in \text{Span}\{\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n\}$ where $\underline{x}, \underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n \in \mathbb{C}^m$ and $\{\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n\}$ is orthonormal.



$$\langle \underline{q}_i, \underline{q}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$

↓
Kronecker Delta function

$$\underline{x} = \alpha_1 \underline{q}_1 + \alpha_2 \underline{q}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \underline{q}_n = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{q}_1 & \dots & \underline{q}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$$

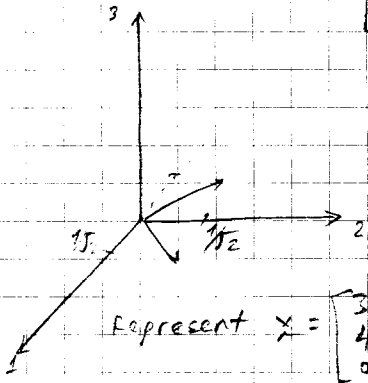
Take the inner product of both sides with \underline{q}_1

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \underline{x}, \underline{q}_1 \rangle &= \langle \alpha_1 \underline{q}_1 + \dots + \alpha_n \underline{q}_n, \underline{q}_1 \rangle \\ &= \langle \alpha_1 \underline{q}_1, \underline{q}_1 \rangle + \langle \alpha_2 \underline{q}_2, \underline{q}_1 \rangle + \dots + \langle \alpha_n \underline{q}_n, \underline{q}_1 \rangle \\ &= \alpha_1 \langle \underline{q}_1, \underline{q}_1 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\alpha_1 = \frac{\langle \underline{x}, \underline{q}_1 \rangle}{\langle \underline{q}_1, \underline{q}_1 \rangle} = \langle \underline{x}, \underline{q}_1 \rangle$$

Similarly, $\alpha_i = \langle \underline{x}, \underline{q}_i \rangle$

Example: Let $S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$



$\langle \hat{q}_1, \hat{q}_2 \rangle = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 0$
 $\|\hat{q}_i\| = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}} = 1$

S is orthonormal.

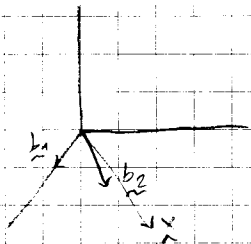
Represent $\hat{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \alpha_1 \hat{q}_1 + \alpha_2 \hat{q}_2$

$\alpha_1 = \langle \hat{x}, \hat{q}_1 \rangle = 3 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + 4 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{7}{\sqrt{2}}$

$\alpha_2 = \langle \hat{x}, \hat{q}_2 \rangle = 3 \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + 4 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

$\hat{x} = \frac{7}{\sqrt{2}} \hat{q}_1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \hat{q}_2$

What if we had basis $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$



$\hat{x} = \beta_1 \hat{b}_1 + \beta_2 \hat{b}_2$

Note: $\beta_i \neq \langle \hat{x}, \hat{b}_i \rangle$
 $\langle \hat{b}_i, \hat{b}_i \rangle$

$\hat{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\beta_1 = 4, \beta_2 = -1$

$\langle \hat{x}, \hat{b}_1 \rangle = 3, \langle \hat{x}, \hat{b}_2 \rangle = 7$

$\langle \hat{x}, \hat{b}_1 \rangle = \beta_1 \langle \hat{b}_1, \hat{b}_1 \rangle + \beta_2 \langle \hat{b}_2, \hat{b}_1 \rangle$

$\langle \hat{x}, \hat{b}_2 \rangle = \beta_1 \langle \hat{b}_1, \hat{b}_2 \rangle + \beta_2 \langle \hat{b}_2, \hat{b}_2 \rangle$

$3 = \beta_1 \cdot 1 + \beta_2 \cdot 1$

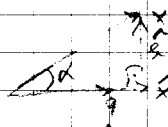
$7 = \beta_1 \cdot 1 + \beta_2 \cdot 2$

$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix}$

Using Cramer's rule:

$\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \det A = 1 \cdot 2 - 1 \cdot 1 = 1$
 $\beta_1 = \frac{\det \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 7 & 2 \end{bmatrix}}{\det A} = \frac{6 - 7}{1} = -1$
 $\beta_2 = \frac{\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}}{\det A} = \frac{7 - 3}{1} = 4$

- Orthogonal projection of a vector over another vector



$$\hat{x} = \frac{q}{\|q\|} (\|x\| \cos \alpha)$$

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{\langle x, q \rangle}{\|x\| \|q\|}$$

$$\hat{x} = \frac{q}{\|q\|} \left(\frac{\|x\| \langle x, q \rangle}{\|x\| \|q\|} \right)$$

$$\hat{x} = q \frac{\langle x, q \rangle}{\langle q, q \rangle}$$

When we write $\{q_1, \dots, q_n\}$ is an orthogonal set

$$x = \frac{\langle x, q_1 \rangle}{\langle q_1, q_1 \rangle} q_1 + \frac{\langle x, q_2 \rangle}{\langle q_2, q_2 \rangle} q_2 + \dots + \frac{\langle x, q_n \rangle}{\langle q_n, q_n \rangle} q_n$$

Orthogonal projection of x to q_1
Orthogonal projection of x to q_2
Orthogonal projection of x to q_n

In the orthonormal case

$$x = \langle x, q_1 \rangle q_1 + \langle x, q_2 \rangle q_2 + \dots + \langle x, q_n \rangle q_n$$

$$= (q_1 q_1^*) x + (q_2 q_2^*) x + \dots + (q_n q_n^*) x$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n (q_k q_k^*) x = \sum_{k=1}^n Q_k x \quad \text{where } Q_k = q_k q_k^*$$

Inner product
| = .
Outer product
| = []

$$Q_k x = q_k (q_k^* x)$$

Projection of x over q_k

has rank 1

$$Q_k = q_k q_k^* = \begin{bmatrix} q_{k1} & \dots & q_{kn} \\ q_{k1}^* & \dots & q_{kn}^* \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} |q_{k1}|^2 & q_{k1} q_{k2}^* & \dots \\ q_{k2} q_{k1}^* & |q_{k2}|^2 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} q_{k1} \\ \vdots \\ q_{kn} \end{bmatrix} q_k^* = \begin{bmatrix} q_{k1} q_k^* & \dots & q_{kn} q_k^* \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ q_{k1}^* q_k & \dots & q_{kn}^* q_k \end{bmatrix}$$

Hermitian matrix \rightarrow covariance matrix is also a Hermitian mat

Actually any outer matrix

$x x^*$ has rank 1.

Midterm: Nov. 15th Thursday

Orthogonal and Unitary Matrices

A set $\{\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n\}$ is orthogonal iff

$$\langle \underline{q}_i, \underline{q}_j \rangle = D_i \delta_{ij} \quad D_i = \|\underline{q}_i\|^2 \quad \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i=j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If $D_i = 1$, the set is orthonormal

Unitary Matrices

A matrix $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is unitary iff

$$U^* U = U U^* = I \iff U^* = U^{-1}$$

$$U \underline{x} = \underline{b}$$

* It is easy to solve linear system of equations with

$$\underline{x} = U^* \underline{b}$$

unitary matrices.

$$U = [\underline{u}_1 \dots \underline{u}_n]$$

$$U^* = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{u}_1^* \\ \vdots \\ \underline{u}_n^* \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U^* U = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{u}_1^* \\ \vdots \\ \underline{u}_n^* \end{bmatrix} [\underline{u}_1 \dots \underline{u}_n] = \begin{bmatrix} \langle \underline{u}_1, \underline{u}_1 \rangle & \langle \underline{u}_1, \underline{u}_2 \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \langle \underline{u}_n, \underline{u}_1 \rangle & \langle \underline{u}_n, \underline{u}_n \rangle \end{bmatrix} = I$$

$$\langle \underline{u}_i, \underline{u}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij} \iff \text{the columns of } U \text{ is an orthonormal set}$$

Actually $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \underline{u}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{u}_n \end{matrix} \right\}$ forms an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{C}^n .

So for any $\underline{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$

$$\underline{x} = \alpha_1 \underline{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \underline{u}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \underline{u}_n$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \underline{u}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{u}_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{x} = U \hat{\underline{x}}$$

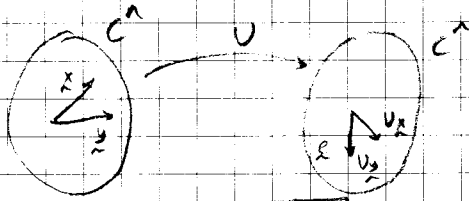
$$\hat{\underline{x}} = U^* \underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{u}_1^* \\ \vdots \\ \underline{u}_n^* \end{bmatrix} \underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle \underline{x}, \underline{u}_1 \rangle \\ \langle \underline{x}, \underline{u}_2 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle \underline{x}, \underline{u}_n \rangle \end{bmatrix} \quad \alpha_i = \langle \underline{x}, \underline{u}_i \rangle$$

$$\langle \underline{x}, \underline{u}_i \rangle = \alpha_1 \langle \underline{u}_1, \underline{u}_i \rangle + \alpha_2 \langle \underline{u}_2, \underline{u}_i \rangle + \dots + \alpha_n \langle \underline{u}_n, \underline{u}_i \rangle = \alpha_i$$

Some Properties

- Let $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and U is unitary

$$\langle Ux, Uy \rangle = (Uy)^* Ux = y^* U^* Ux = y^* x = \langle x, y \rangle$$



Angles are preserved under the unitary mapping.

- $\|Ux\| = \sqrt{\langle Ux, Ux \rangle} = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = \|x\|$ lengths are preserved under the unitary mapping.

For general linear mapping, \mathbb{R} can be small in the target domain

but large in the original domain. \rightarrow Important thing to check for stretch

- Eigenvalue λ of U has the property that $|\lambda| = 1$.



Proof: Let λ be an eigenvalue of U and let x be an eigenvector corresponding to λ , i.e.,

$$Ux = \lambda x$$

$$\|Ux\| = \|\lambda x\|$$

$$\|x\| = |\lambda| \|x\|$$

$$|\lambda| = 1$$

Orthogonal Matrices (\subset Unitary Matrices)

$Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is real orthogonal iff

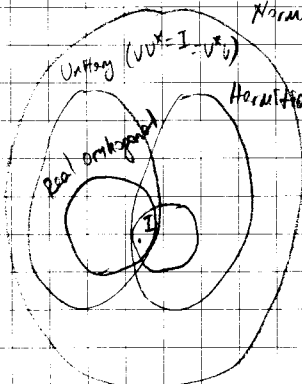
$$Q^T Q = Q Q^T = I$$

Orthogonal = Real unitary Matrix

Columns (rows) of Q form an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

General orthogonal matrices do not necessarily have unit norm. $\rightarrow Q^T Q = Q Q^T = I$

Normal matrices ($U U^* = U^* U$)



(Real) Symmetric Matrices

$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is symmetric iff

$$A = A^T$$

Adjoint

Hermitian Matrices

$A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is Hermitian iff $A = A^*$.

- Properties

- [3]

Covariance matrices are Hermitian.

* For all $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ $x^* A x \in \mathbb{R}$

quadratic in x (quadratic functions) A real number's complex conjugate is itself.
A generalization of $y = ax^2 + bx + c$

Proof: $(x^* A x)^* = x^* A^* x$
 $= x^* A x \quad \square$

* Every eigenvalue of a Hermitian matrix is real.

Proof: λ, v

$$Av = \lambda v$$

$$\underbrace{v^* A v}_{\text{real}} = \lambda \underbrace{v^* v}_{\text{real}} \quad \text{should be real}$$

* Eigenvectors of a Hermitian matrix, if they correspond to different eigenvalues are orthogonal to one another.

Proof: $Ax = \lambda_1 x \quad Ay = \lambda_2 y \quad A = A^*$

$$y^* Ax = \lambda_1 \langle y, x \rangle \quad x^* Ay = \lambda_2 \langle x, y \rangle$$

$$\overline{x^* Ay} = \overline{\lambda_2 \langle x, y \rangle}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \langle y, x \rangle = \lambda_2 \langle y, x \rangle \quad \text{so when } \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2 \implies \langle x, y \rangle = 0$$

Normal Matrices

$A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is normal iff $AA^* = A^*A$

- Since $V^*V = VV^* = I$, unitary matrices are normal.

- Since $A^*A = AA^*$ for $A = A^*$, Hermitian matrices are normal.

- If $A^* = -A$, A is called skew-Hermitian. Skew-Hermitian matrices are normal.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & -1+i \\ 4i & 25 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 1-i \\ -1-i & -25 \end{bmatrix}$$

Skew-Hermitian $Ax = \lambda x$

$$v^* Ax = \lambda v^* v$$

$$\overline{v^* Ax} = \overline{\lambda v^* v}$$

$$-v^* Ax = \overline{\lambda} v^* v \implies \overline{\lambda} = -\lambda$$

Thus, skew-Hermitian matrices have purely imaginary eigenvalues.

- If $A \in C^{n \times n}$ has eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$, the following statements are equivalent:

- (a) A is normal
- (b) A is unitarily diagonalizable
- (c) $\sum_{i,j} |a_{ij}|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n |\lambda_i|^2$
- (d) There is an orthonormal set of eigenvectors

$$U^*AU = D \Rightarrow U^*AU = D$$

$$A = UDU^*$$

Unitary matrices are unitarily diagonalizable

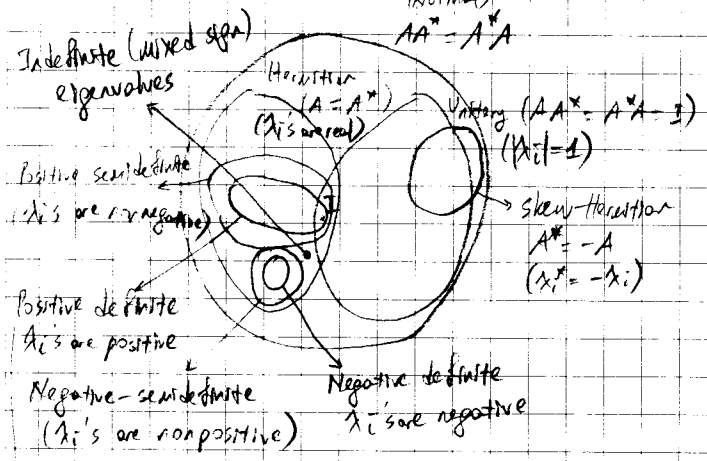
$$AU = UD$$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 u_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n u_n \end{bmatrix} \quad D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A u_i = \lambda_i u_i$$

$$\sum_{i,j} |a_{ij}|^2 = \text{Tr}(A^*A)$$

Normal Matrices (Normal)
 $AA^* = A^*A$



Normal Matrices

1) A is unitarily diagonalizable

$$A = UDU^* \quad D \text{ diagonal}$$

$$UU^* = I$$

2) A has orthonormal set of eigenvectors

$$AU = UD$$

$$A \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 u_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n u_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A u_i = \lambda_i u_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n |\lambda_i|^2$$

To prove 3: Use the following lemma

Lemma: For any $A \in C^{n \times n}$, $\text{Tr}(A^*A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2$

Quadratic form with parabola up

Proof: $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$

$$A^* = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^* \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1}^* \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^*A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^* & \dots & a_{1n}^* \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1}^* & \dots & a_{nn}^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^* a_{11} & \dots & a_{11}^* a_{1n} & \dots & a_{1n}^* a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n}^* a_{nn} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{11} & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{1n} & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{nn} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{11} & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{1n} & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{nn} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{11} & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{1n} & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{nn} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1}^* a_{11} & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{1n} & \dots & a_{n1}^* a_{nn} & \dots & a_{nn}^* a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Tr}(A^*A) = a_{11}^* a_{11} + \dots + a_{nn}^* a_{nn} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2$$

Show that $1 \Rightarrow 3$

$$A = UDU^*$$

$$\sum_{i,j} |a_{ij}|^2 = \text{Tr}(A^*A) = \text{Tr}(\underbrace{UD^*U^*}_{A^*} \underbrace{UDU^*}_{A})$$

$$= \text{Tr}(\underbrace{UD^*DU^*}_{X \ Y})$$

Trace Property

If the sizes are compatible

$$\text{Tr}(XY) = \text{Tr}(YX)$$

$$= \text{Tr}(U^*UD^*D)$$

$$= \text{Tr}(D^*D) = \text{Tr}\left(\begin{bmatrix} |\lambda_1|^2 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & |\lambda_n|^2 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n |\lambda_k|^2$$

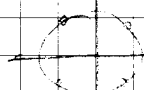
$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \quad D^* = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^* & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n^* \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D^*D = \begin{bmatrix} |\lambda_1|^2 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & |\lambda_n|^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \text{ is normal} \iff A = UDU^*$$

→ If λ_i 's are real $A^* = UDU^*U^*U = UDU^* = A$ (Hermitian)

→ If $|\lambda_i| = 1$ $AA^* = UDU^*UD^*U^*U = UDD^*U^* = U I U^* = I$ (Unitary)



→ If $\lambda_i^* = -\lambda_i$ $A = -A^* \iff$ skew hermitian

Analogy between $C^{n \times n} \rightarrow C$

* Hermitian matrices are analogous to real numbers. Any $A \in C^{n \times n}$ can be written

as $A = R + iJ$ $R = R^*$, $J = J^*$

$$R = \frac{A + A^*}{2} \quad J = \frac{A - A^*}{2i} \quad R + iJ = A$$

* Unitary matrices are analogous to complex numbers on unit circle.

Remember any complex number $x \in C$ can be written as

$$x = r e^{i\theta} \quad (\text{Polar form})$$

Positive real unit circle

similarly any $A \in C^{n \times n}$ (full rank)

$$A = R U$$

Hermitian matrix unitary matrix

Hermitian matrix with positive eigenvalues
= Positive definite Hermitian matrix

} Polar form

* A Hermitian matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is positive (negative) definite if all eigenvalues of A are strictly positive (negative)

Following are equivalent

* A is positive definite

* $\lambda_i > 0 \quad i=1, \dots, n$

* For any $x \neq 0 \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $x^* A x > 0 \rightarrow$ positive real number

$$A = UDU^*$$

$$x^* A x = x^* UDU^* x = y^* D y = \sum y_i^* \dots y_i \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_1 |y_1|^2 + \lambda_2 |y_2|^2 + \dots + \lambda_n |y_n|^2 > 0$$

U is always nonsingular since $\det(U) \neq 0 \rightarrow$ Always invertible.

$$y = U^* x$$

* A Hermitian matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is positive (negative) semidefinite if all eigenvalues of A are nonnegative (nonpositive)

Quadratic Function (Single variable \rightarrow multivariable)

* Single variable quadratic functions

Parabola-up $a > 0$

Parabola-down $a < 0$

$a = 0$

$$f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c = a(x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x + \frac{c}{a}) = a(x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x + \frac{b^2}{4a^2} + \frac{c}{a} - \frac{b^2}{4a^2})$$

$$= a(x + \frac{b}{2a})^2 + c - \frac{b^2}{4a}$$

$$= (x + \frac{b}{2a})^T (x + \frac{b}{2a}) + c - \frac{b^2}{4a}$$

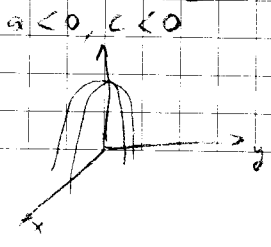
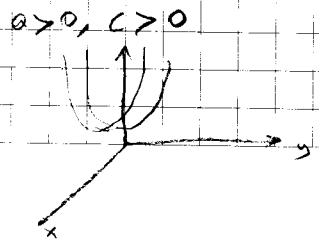
\Downarrow
Completion to square

* Two variable quadratic functions

$$f(x,y) = f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 + d$$

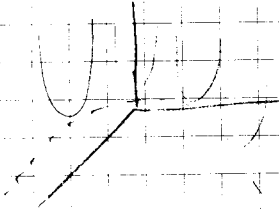
Let's assume $b=0$ for simplicity

$$f(x,y) = ax^2 + cy^2 + d = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + d$$



\rightarrow If A is positive definite, parabola-up
 \rightarrow If A is negative definite, parabola-down

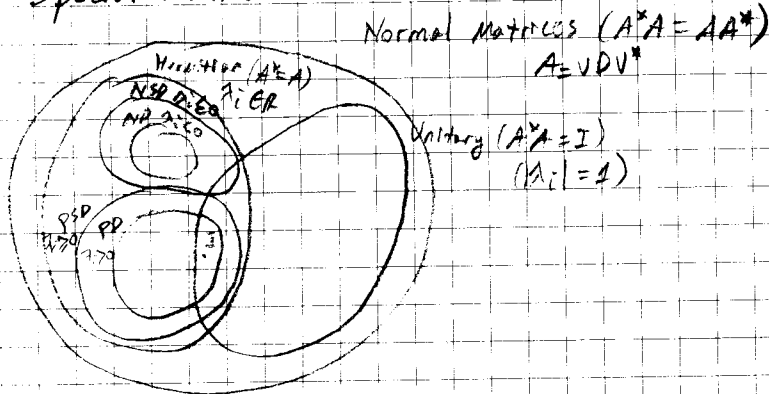
$a > 0, c < 0 \rightarrow A$ is indefinite



\rightarrow Major's pseudo function ist quadratisch

Saddle structure

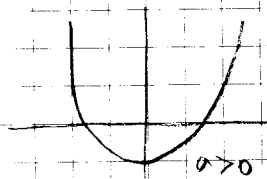
Special Matrices



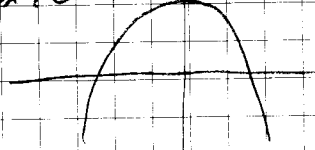
Quadratic Function

- Single variable case

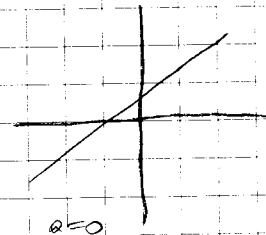
$$f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$$



$a > 0$



$a < 0$



$a = 0$

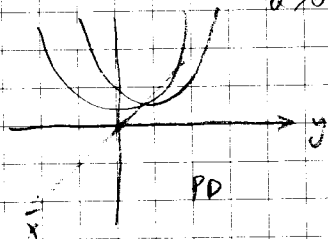
- Two variable case

$$f(x,y) = f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 + d$$

Assuming $b=0$

$$f(x,y) = ax^2 + cy^2 + d$$

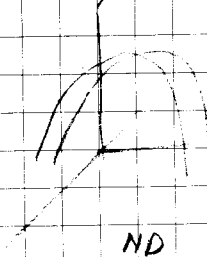
$a > 0, c > 0$



PD

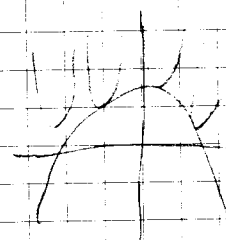
\rightarrow Prove this with matrix

$a < 0, c < 0$



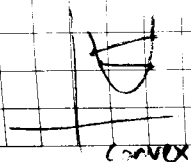
ND

$a > 0, c < 0$

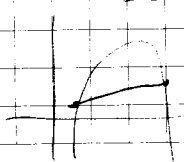


Indefinite

$$f(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + d$$



convex



concave

The case $b \neq 0$

$$f(x,y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2 + d = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & \alpha \\ \beta & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + d$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & b/2 \\ b/2 & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + d \quad \begin{matrix} ax^2 + cy^2 + \alpha xy + \beta xy + d \\ \alpha + \beta = b \end{matrix}$$

Symmetric matrix \Rightarrow PD or ND or Indefinite

$$= \underline{x}^T A \underline{x} + b \quad A = A^T$$

Side note: For $\underline{x}^T A \underline{x}$ where $A \neq A^T$, we can show that $\underline{x}^T A \underline{x} = \underline{x}^T \left(\frac{A+A^T}{2} \right) \underline{x}$

Proof: $A = \underbrace{\frac{A+A^T}{2}}_{\text{Symmetric}} + \underbrace{\frac{A-A^T}{2}}_{\text{Skew symmetric}}$

$$\underline{x}^T A \underline{x} = \underline{x}^T \left(\frac{A+A^T}{2} \right) \underline{x} + \underline{x}^T \left(\frac{A-A^T}{2} \right) \underline{x}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b/2 \\ b/2 & c \end{bmatrix} \quad \frac{A+A^T}{2} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b/2 \\ b/2 & c \end{bmatrix}$$

Scalar, so its transpose should be equal to itself.

$$\frac{\underline{x}^T A \underline{x} - \underline{x}^T A^T \underline{x}}{2} = 0$$

* You can work with the symmetric component of A in $\underline{x}^T A \underline{x}$.

$$f(\underline{x}) = f\left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) = \underline{x}^T \begin{bmatrix} a & b/2 \\ b/2 & c \end{bmatrix} \underline{x} + d$$

Symmetric, Real Hermitian matrix \Rightarrow I can diagonalize it.

Since $A=A^T$, $A = Q \Lambda Q^T \quad \Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

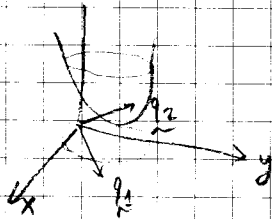
$$Q Q^T = I$$

$$f(\underline{x}) = \underline{x}^T Q \Lambda Q^T \underline{x} + d$$

$$\underline{z} = Q^T \underline{x}$$

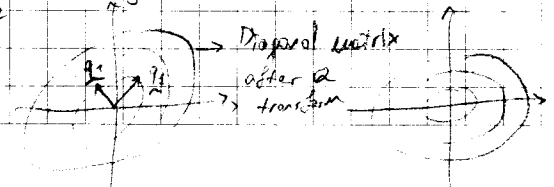
$$f(\underline{x}) = f(\underline{z}) = \underline{z}^T \Lambda \underline{z} + d = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 & z_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix} + d$$

$$= \lambda_1 z_1^2 + \lambda_2 z_2^2 + d$$



$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{q}_1 & \underline{q}_2 \end{bmatrix}$ \rightarrow orthogonal matrix \rightarrow It's always a rotation or a reflection

$$\underline{x} = Q \underline{z} = z_1 \underline{q}_1 + z_2 \underline{q}_2$$



Level set
Contour function method

If A is PD $\Rightarrow f(x)$ is parabola up (convex)

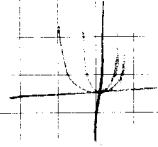
A is ND $\Rightarrow f(x)$ is parabola down

A is indefinite $\Rightarrow f(x)$ is saddle structure

n -variable quadratic functions (centered around origin)

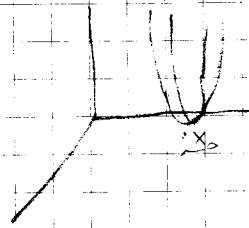
$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x + d$



quadratic function centered around x_0

$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} (x - x_0)^T A (x - x_0) + d$



Level Sets

$L_\alpha = \{x \mid f(x) = \alpha\}$

$f(x) = \alpha \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} x^T A x + d = \alpha$

In the two variable case

$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$

$a x_1^2 + b x_1 x_2 + c x_2^2 + d = \alpha$

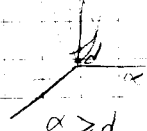
if A is PD

so $\frac{1}{2} x^T A x + d = \alpha$

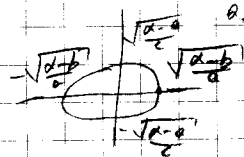
is an ellipse when A is PD.

if $b=0$

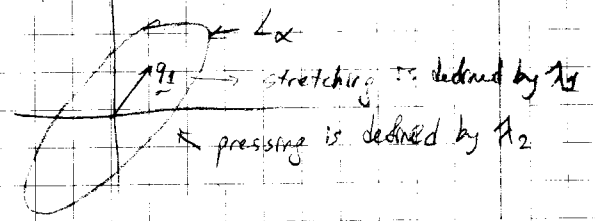
$a > 0, c > 0$



$a x_1^2 + c x_2^2 + d = \alpha$



if $b \neq 0$

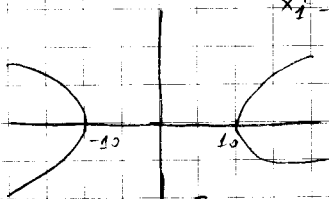


Suppose $b=0$

$a > 0, c < 0$

$a x_1^2 + c x_2^2 = \alpha'$

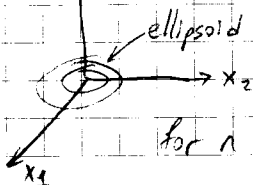
$x_1^2 - 2x_2^2 = 100$



← Try this in MATLAB

when $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$

$x^T A x + d = \alpha$ when A is PD



for n dimensional case we have hyperellipsoid

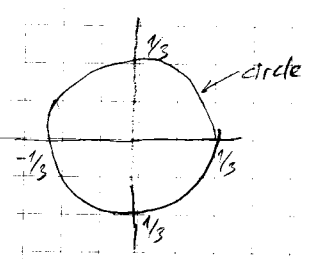
Examples

1. Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

$x^T A x = 1$

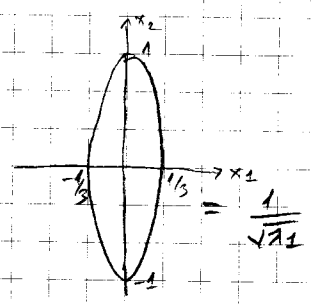
$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 1$

$3x_1^2 + 3x_2^2 = 1$



2. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_2$

$x^T A x = 1$ $3x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$



3. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

Let's find eigenvalues and eigenvectors

$\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$

$\det \begin{pmatrix} \lambda - 5 & -4 \\ -4 & \lambda - 5 \end{pmatrix} = 0$

$\lambda^2 - 10\lambda + 25 - 16 = 0$

$\lambda^2 - 10\lambda + 9 = 0$
 $\lambda_1 = 9 \quad \lambda_2 = 1$

Eigenspace for $\lambda_1 = 9 = N(9I - A)$

$= N \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -4 \\ -4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = \left\{ t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \mid t \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow$ unit norm in that direction

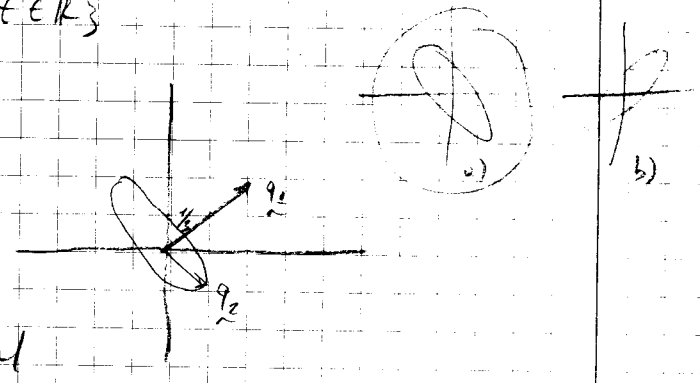
Eigenspace for $\lambda_2 = 1 = N(I - A)$

$= N \begin{pmatrix} -4 & -4 \\ -4 & -4 \end{pmatrix} = \left\{ t \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \mid t \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$

$Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$

$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$A = Q \Lambda Q^T$



Eigenvectors of A defines the principal axes of the ellipse.

Special Matrices (Positive Definite Matrices)

A matrix $A = A^* \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is PD if for all $x \neq 0 \in \mathbb{C}^n$

$x^* A x > 0$

A is PD $\Leftrightarrow \lambda_i(A) \in \mathbb{R} > 0, A=A^*$
 A is PD $\Leftrightarrow A \succ 0$ generalized inequality

$A \succ B$ means $A-B$ is positive semidefinite

\leq negative ...

$A \succ B$ means $A-B$ is positive definite

$<$ negative ...

If $A \succ 0$, then $f(x) = x^*Ax$ is convex (vp) We have seen that the level sets of $f(x)$ are ellipsoids.

Some properties of PD matrices

- If $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is positive semidefinite, then so are all the powers $A^k, k=1,2,\dots$

Proof: if $A \succ 0$

$$A = UDU^*$$

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda_i \geq 0$$

$$A^2 = AA = UDU^*UDU^*$$

$$= \underbrace{UD^2U^*}_{\substack{\text{nonnegative} \\ \text{diagonal}}} \succ 0$$

Similarly $A^k = UD^kU^*$

- If $A = [a_{ij}] \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is Hermitian and strictly diagonally dominant, i.e.,

$$|a_{ii}| > \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^n |a_{ij}|, \text{ and}$$

if $a_{ii} > 0$ for all $i=1, \dots, n$ then A is PD.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ a_{n1} & & & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{if } x = e_i \quad e_i^* A e_i > 0$$

$$a_{ii} > 0$$

- A is PD $\Rightarrow a_{ii} > 0$

Any principal submatrix of A should be PD. (Pic it this)

removing the same columns and rows in the Hermitian case

Similarly

Congruence and Positive Definite Matrices

Definition: Let $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be given. If there exists a nonsingular matrix S such that

a) $B = SAS^*$ then B is said to be \ast -congruent to A .

b) $B = SAS^T$ then B is said to be T -congruent to A .

Similarity Transformation

$$B = SAS^{-1}$$

Characteristic polynomial of B

$$\begin{aligned} \det(\lambda I - B) &= \det(\lambda I - SAS^{-1}) = \det(S(\lambda S^{-1}S - A)S^{-1}) \\ &= \det(S(\lambda I - A)S^{-1}) = \det(S) \det(\lambda I - A) \det(S^{-1}) \\ &= \det S \det(\lambda I - A) \det S^{-1} \\ &= \det(\lambda I - A) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow A$ and B has same eigenvalues.

Congruence is an equivalence relation.

i.e. if A is \ast -congruent to B

B is \ast -congruent to C

$\Rightarrow A$ is \ast -congruent to C

So, congruent matrices form a set.

Definition: (Inertia) Let $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be Hermitian. The inertia of A is the ordered triple

$$i(A) = (i_+(A), i_-(A), i_0(A))$$

where

$i_+(A)$ is the number of positive eigenvalues of A

$i_-(A)$ ————— negative

$i_0(A)$ ————— zero

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $i(A) = (2, 1, 1)$

Theorem: Let $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be Hermitian matrices. There is a nonsingular matrix $S \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that $A = SBS^*$ if and only if A and B have the same inertia.

$$A, B \text{ are } \kappa\text{-congruent} \iff i(A) = i(B)$$

Let's assume $i(A) = i(B)$

Proof: Since $A = A^* \Rightarrow A = U_A D_A U_A^*$ $U_A U_A^* = I$ $D_A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{A,1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_{A,n} \end{bmatrix}$

$$\lambda_{A,k} > 0 \quad k=1, \dots, i_+(A)$$

$$\lambda_{A,k} < 0 \quad k=i_+(A)+1, \dots, i_+(A)+i_-(A)$$

$$\lambda_{A,k} = 0 \quad k > i_+(A) + i_-(A)$$

Similarly $B = U_B D_B U_B^*$ $D_B = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{B,1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_{B,n} \end{bmatrix}$

$$A = U_A D_A U_A^* \iff D_A = U_A^* A U_A$$

define $\gamma_A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\lambda_{A,1}|}} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\lambda_{A,i_+(A)+i_-(A)}|}} \\ & & & 1 \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

For example if $D_A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & & \\ & 16 & \\ & & -2 \\ & & & 0 \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

then $\gamma_A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & & & & \\ & \frac{1}{4} & & & \\ & & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & & \\ & & & 1 & \\ & & & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\gamma_A D_A \gamma_A^* = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & 1 & & & \\ & & -1 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \tilde{J} = \gamma_B D_B \gamma_B^* \text{ where } \gamma_B \text{ is defined similarly}$$

$$\gamma_B D_B \gamma_B^* = \gamma_A D_A \gamma_A^*$$

$$D_A = \gamma_A^{-1} \gamma_B D_B \gamma_B^* \gamma_A^*$$

Define $S = U_B \gamma_B \gamma_A^* U_A^*$

$$SAS^* = U_B \gamma_B \gamma_A^* U_A^* U_A D_A U_A^* U_A \gamma_A \gamma_B^* U_B^*$$

$$= U_B \gamma_B \gamma_A^* D_A \gamma_A \gamma_B^* U_B^*$$

$$= U_B D_B U_B^* = B$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & -1 & \\ & & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1^* \\ v_2^* \\ v_3^* \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{You can always change the order of eigenvalues.}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} v_2 & v_3 & v_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_2^* \\ v_3^* \\ v_1^* \end{bmatrix}$$

Property: A Hermitian matrix A is positive definite iff it is $*$ -congruent to I .

$\Rightarrow \exists$ invertible S

$$A = S I S^* = S S^*$$

a square root of A

If S is a square root of $A > 0$, i.e. SS^* , S is invertible then for any U , $UU^* = I$

$Y = SU$ is also a square root of A .

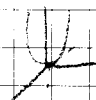
$$YY^* = SU(SU)^* = S U U^* S^* = S S^* = A.$$

Theorem (Cholesky Decomposition): A matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is positive definite iff there exists a nonsingular lower triangular matrix $L \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ with positive diagonal entries such that $A = LL^*$. If A is real then L may be taken as real.

P.D.

$$A = A^*, A > 0 = \begin{cases} x^* A x > 0 \quad \forall x \neq 0 \\ \lambda_i(A) > 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = x^* A x$$

 convex function

$x^* A x = c$ defines ellipse



For Hermitian matrices A, B

if $A = SBS^*$, where S invertible

$$\Rightarrow i(A) = i(B)$$

For any positive definite matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$

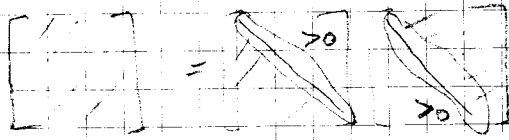
$$i(A) = i(B) \quad \exists S \leftarrow \text{invertible}$$

$A = SS^* \rightarrow S$ is a square root of A

$Y = SU$ for any $UU^* = I$ is also a square root of A .

Spectral Case: (Cholesky)

$A = LL^*$ $L \rightarrow$ lower triangular with positive diagonal entries



Applications of Cholesky Factorization

1. To solve $Hx = c$ where $H > 0$

$H = LL^*$

$LL^*x = c$

$Lz = c$

$z = c$

Due to Condition number

(Numerically, not a good idea!)

For a general overdetermined $m > n$

$Ax = b$

$A^*Ax = A^*b$ Normal equations

We'll see this in Least Squares discussion.

A^*A is Hermitian if A is full rank

$\Rightarrow A^*A$ is invertible (+ full rank)

Lemma: Given any $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, $A^*A \geq 0$

We should show for any x $x^*A^*Ax \geq 0$

$(Ax)^*Ax$

$\|Ax\|^2 \geq 0$

so $A^*A \geq 0$

When is $A^*A > 0$

$x \neq 0$ $x^*A^*Ax > 0$

$\Rightarrow \|Ax\|^2 > 0$

$\Rightarrow Ax \neq 0 \Rightarrow N(A) = \{0\}$

$m > n$, A is full rank

2. Computer Simulations of Random Vectors

Goal: Generate random vectors with correlation matrix $R > 0$ in MATLAB.

$R = E(x x^*) = E \left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1^* & x_2^* & \dots & x_n^* \end{bmatrix} \right) = E \begin{pmatrix} x_1 x_1^* & x_1 x_2^* & \dots & x_1 x_n^* \\ x_2 x_1^* & x_2 x_2^* & \dots & x_2 x_n^* \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_n x_1^* & x_n x_2^* & \dots & x_n x_n^* \end{pmatrix}$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} E(x_1 x_1^*) & E(x_1 x_2^*) \\ E(x_2 x_1^*) & E(x_2 x_2^*) \end{bmatrix}$$

R_{ij} → correlation of x_i with x_j

If x is uncorrelated then R is diagonal.
elements of x are mutually uncorrelated.

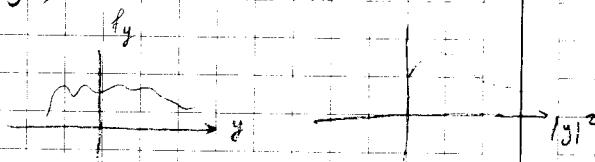
R → Hermitian ($R = R^*$)

R → $R \succeq 0$ → P.S.D

$$R \succeq 0 \Leftrightarrow \forall a \in \mathbb{C}^n \quad a^* R a \geq 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} a^* R a &= a^* E(x x^*) a \\ &= E(a^* x x^* a) = E(y y^*) \\ &= E(|y|^2) \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

so $R \succeq 0$

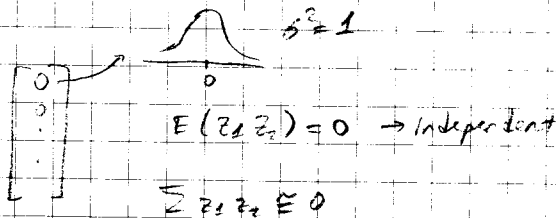


If R is invertible $R \succ 0$

In MATLAB if you use

$$z = \text{randn}(n, 1);$$

$$E(z z^*) = I \quad \text{Generates an uncorrelated vector}$$



$$L = \text{chol}(R); \quad (R = L L^*)$$

$$x = L z; \quad E(x x^*) = E(L z z^* L^*)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{I make the elements of } z \text{ correlated.} \\ &= L E(z z^*) L^* \\ &= L L^* = R \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & \\ l_{21} & l_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 = l_{11} z_1$$

$$x_2 = l_{21} z_1 + l_{22} z_2$$

coloring matrix

z → "white" = uncorrelated

x → "colored" = correlated

$\text{rank}(X^T Y^T) = 1$ but $\text{rank}(E(X^T Y^T))$ may be full.

$E \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1^* & \dots & x_n^* \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{x_1, \dots, x_n} x x^* P_X(x) \rightarrow$ We can also use this to prove that R is always PSD.

e.g. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
 rank=1 rank=1 rank=2

Algorithm for Computing Cholesky Factorization

Let $B > 0$, $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, $B = B^*$

$B = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \underline{v}^* \\ \underline{v} & B_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$ $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \alpha > 0$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{\underline{v}}{\alpha} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \underline{v}^* \\ \underline{v} & B_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \underline{v}^* \\ 0 & B_{n-1} - \frac{\underline{v}\underline{v}^*}{\alpha} \end{bmatrix}$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{\underline{v}}{\alpha} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \underline{v}^* \\ \underline{v} & B_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\frac{\underline{v}^*}{\alpha} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \underline{v}^* \\ 0 & B_{n-1} - \frac{\underline{v}\underline{v}^*}{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\frac{\underline{v}^*}{\alpha} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$

$= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & B_{n-1} - \frac{\underline{v}\underline{v}^*}{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{\underline{v}}{\alpha} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{\underline{v}^*}{\alpha} & I \end{bmatrix} = I$

$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \underline{v}^* \\ \underline{v} & B_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \frac{\underline{v}}{\alpha} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & B_{n-1} - \frac{\underline{v}\underline{v}^*}{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\frac{\underline{v}^*}{\alpha} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$

$= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\alpha} & 0 \\ \frac{\underline{v}}{\sqrt{\alpha}} & I \end{bmatrix}}_S \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & B_{n-1} - \frac{\underline{v}\underline{v}^*}{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\alpha} & \frac{\underline{v}^*}{\alpha} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}}_{S^*}$
 S invertible Hermitian > 0 $L_{n-1} L_{n-1}^*$

B and B' are *-congruent.

$i(B) = i(B') \iff B > 0 \iff B' > 0$

$= \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\alpha} & 0 \\ \frac{\underline{v}}{\sqrt{\alpha}} & L_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{\alpha} & \frac{\underline{v}^*}{\sqrt{\alpha}} \\ 0 & L_{n-1}^* \end{bmatrix}$

QR Factorization (Construction of Orthogonal Basis)

$A = QR \rightarrow$ Upper triangular matrix
 [ex. $\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & & \\ & a_{22} & \\ & & \dots \end{bmatrix}$]
 Matrix with orthonormal columns

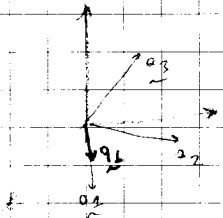
Given

$\text{Span}\{\underline{a}_1, \dots, \underline{a}_n\} = \text{Span}\{\underline{q}_1, \dots, \underline{q}_n\}$ $\langle \underline{q}_i, \underline{q}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$ (Elements have unit norm)

$n' \leq n$
 $n \in n'$ if the set is linearly independent. Orthonormal basis for the span of $\{\underline{a}_1, \dots, \underline{a}_n\}$

Let's look at construction of orthogonal basis problem:

One particular solution: Gram-Schmidt procedure

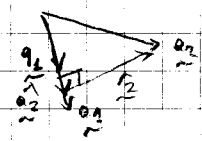


Let's assume $\{\underline{a}_1, \dots, \underline{a}_n\}$ is linearly independent.

1. Choose $\underline{q}_1 = \frac{\underline{a}_1}{\|\underline{a}_1\|}$

2. Define $\underline{r}_2 = \underline{a}_2 - \hat{\underline{a}}_2 \leftarrow$ projection of \underline{a}_2 over \underline{q}_1

$\hat{\underline{a}}_2 = \frac{\langle \underline{a}_2, \underline{q}_1 \rangle \underline{q}_1}{\langle \underline{q}_1, \underline{q}_1 \rangle} \rightarrow$ Alternatively $\hat{\underline{a}}_2 = \frac{\langle \underline{a}_2, \underline{a}_1 \rangle \underline{a}_1}{\langle \underline{a}_1, \underline{a}_1 \rangle}$



$\underline{r}_2 = \underline{a}_2 - \langle \underline{a}_2, \underline{q}_1 \rangle \underline{q}_1$

$\text{Span}\{\underline{q}_1\} = \text{Span}\{\underline{a}_1\}$

$\underline{q}_2 = \frac{\underline{r}_2}{\|\underline{r}_2\|}$

$\text{Span}\{\underline{q}_1, \underline{q}_2\} = \text{Span}\{\underline{a}_1, \underline{a}_2\}$

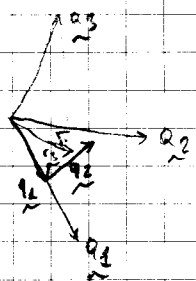
$\text{Span}\{\underline{q}_1, \underline{q}_2, \underline{q}_3\} = \text{Span}\{\underline{a}_1, \underline{a}_2, \underline{a}_3\}$

3.

$\underline{r}_3 = \underline{a}_3 - \hat{\underline{a}}_3 \leftarrow$ projection of \underline{a}_3 on $\text{Span}\{\underline{q}_1, \underline{q}_2\}$

$\hat{\underline{a}}_3 = \langle \underline{a}_3, \underline{q}_1 \rangle \underline{q}_1 + \langle \underline{a}_3, \underline{q}_2 \rangle \underline{q}_2$

$\neq \frac{\langle \underline{a}_3, \underline{a}_1 \rangle \underline{a}_1}{\langle \underline{a}_1, \underline{a}_1 \rangle} + \frac{\langle \underline{a}_3, \underline{a}_2 \rangle \underline{a}_2}{\langle \underline{a}_2, \underline{a}_2 \rangle}$



$\underline{q}_3 = \frac{\underline{r}_3}{\|\underline{r}_3\|}$

k^{th} step: $\underline{r}_k = \underline{a}_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \langle \underline{a}_k, \underline{q}_i \rangle \underline{q}_i$
 $\underline{q}_k = \frac{\underline{r}_k}{\|\underline{r}_k\|}$

If $\underline{a}_k \in \text{Span}\{\underline{a}_1, \dots, \underline{a}_{k-1}\}$

$\Rightarrow \underline{r}_k = \underline{0}$ ($\hat{\underline{a}}_k = \underline{a}_k$)

\Rightarrow skip defining a new \underline{q} vector.

$k' = k + 1$

$$\underline{q}_1 = \frac{a_1}{\|a_1\|} = r_{11}$$

$$\underline{q}_1 = q_1 \cdot r_{11} \quad r_{11} = \|a_1\|$$

$$\underline{q}_2 = \underbrace{q_2 \cdot \|a_2\|}_{r_{22}} + \underbrace{\langle a_2, q_1 \rangle}_{r_{21}} q_1$$

$$\underline{q}_3 = \underbrace{q_3 \cdot \|a_3\|}_{r_{33}} + \underbrace{\langle a_3, q_1 \rangle}_{r_{31}} q_1 + \underbrace{\langle a_3, q_2 \rangle}_{r_{32}} q_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & q_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ 0 & r_{22} & r_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & r_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

→ Since linear combination of columns, multiply from right.

Suppose

$$a_3 \in \text{span}\{a_1, a_2\}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ 0 & r_{22} & r_{23} \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{Reduced QR} \iff \text{If } A \text{ is full rank}$$

$$\text{Suppose } \underline{a}_k \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times 1} \hat{Q} \parallel \hat{R}$$

$$\text{size}(A) = \text{size}(Q)$$

$$\text{o.w. size}(A) > \text{size}(Q)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & q_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ 0 & r_{22} & r_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{Full QR}$$

orthogonal to q_1, q_2 → added column is silenced.

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \hat{Q} & q_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{R} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{Q} \hat{R} + \begin{bmatrix} q_3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Suppose $a_1, a_2, a_3 \in \mathbb{C}^{10, 1}$ and they are linearly independent

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & q_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & r_{13} \\ 0 & r_{22} & r_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & r_{33} \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{Reduced QR}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & q_3 & q_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_{11} \\ r_{22} \\ r_{33} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{Full QR} \quad \text{size}(A) = \text{size}(R)$$

If A is full rank square matrix

$$\Rightarrow \text{Full QR} = \text{Reduced QR}$$

Square matrices

Obtaining QR Factorization (Focus of MATH 504)

$A = Q_1 Q_2 \dots Q_n = Q$
 Triangular
 Orthogonalization

Algorithms:

1. Gram-Schmidt
2. Modified Gram-Schmidt
3. Householder Transformations ← Reflections
4. Givens Rotations ← Rotations

$$[q_1 \ q_2 \ \dots \ q_n] \ [q_1]$$

$$[q_1 \ q_2 \ \dots \ q_n]$$

→ projections on q_i are subtracted.

Orthogonal
 Triangularization

$Q_1 \dots Q_n A = R$

Useful Matrix Identities (Block Matrices)

Consider a block matrix

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ X & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ \underbrace{XA+C}_0 & XB+D \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det \left(\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \right) = \det \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & D - CA^{-1}B \end{bmatrix}$$

$\det M = \det A \cdot \det \Delta_A$ $\Delta_A \rightarrow$ Schur complement of A .

Similarly

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & -A^{-1}B \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ C & D - CA^{-1}B \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & -A^{-1}B \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ C & D - CA^{-1}B \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & \Delta_A \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & \Delta_A \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & -A^{-1}B \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} I & -A^{-1}B \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & \Delta_A^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -CA^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix}$$

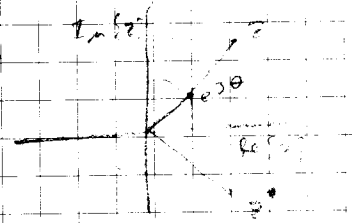
HW #3, Q2

A. singular, $A = RU$ $z = r e^{j\theta}$
 $\Rightarrow \|U\| = I$

$AA^* = RU(U^*)^*$

$= RR^*$

$z z^* = r e^{j\theta} r e^{-j\theta}$
 $= r^2$



closest point in the unit circle to z.

AA^* nonsingular \Rightarrow PD $\Rightarrow QDQ^*$

$R = QD^{1/2}Q^*$

$\Rightarrow QDQ^* = I$

$AA^* = RR^*$

\Rightarrow Both are the square roots of the same thing

$\Rightarrow A = RU$

$\hookrightarrow U$ is the closest unitary matrix among all matrices

Useful Matrix Identities

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ CA^{-1} & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & \Delta_A \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & A^{-1}B \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

$\det M = \det A \cdot \det \Delta_A = \det A \det (D - CA^{-1}B)$ \rightarrow Schur complement of A

$$M^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} I & -A^{-1}B & A^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & I & 0 & \Delta_A^{-1} \\ -CA^{-1} & I & 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} I & X \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X & 0 \\ 0 & X \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} I & BD^{-1} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} A - BD^{-1}C & 0 \\ 0 & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

Δ_D
Schur complement of D

$\det M = \det D \cdot \det \Delta_D$

$$M^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -D^{-1}C & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta_D^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & D^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & -BD^{-1} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\boxed{(A + BCD)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(C + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}}$$

Matrix Inversion Lemma

MEMORIS = 0

Ex: $(R + X Y^*)^{-1} = R^{-1} - R^{-1} X (I + Y^* R^{-1} X)^{-1} Y^* R^{-1}$
 $= R^{-1} \left(I - \frac{X Y^* R^{-1}}{(1 + Y^* R^{-1} X)} \right)$

$R_n = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k x_k^*$

Update of your covariance matrix with new data

$$R_n = R_{n-1} + \underline{x}_n \underline{y}_n^*$$

You may be using the inverse of R_n in your application.

Simple minded approach: $R_n = R_{n-1} + \underline{x}_n \underline{y}_n^*$
 R_n^{-1}

Instead: $R_n^{-1} = R_{n-1}^{-1} \left(I - \frac{\underline{x}_n \underline{y}_n^* R_{n-1}^{-1}}{(1 + \underline{y}_n^* R_{n-1}^{-1} \underline{x}_n)} \right)$

Linear (Dynamical) Systems

- Linear Algebra & Matrix Theory
- Linear Systems ←
- Linear Estimation

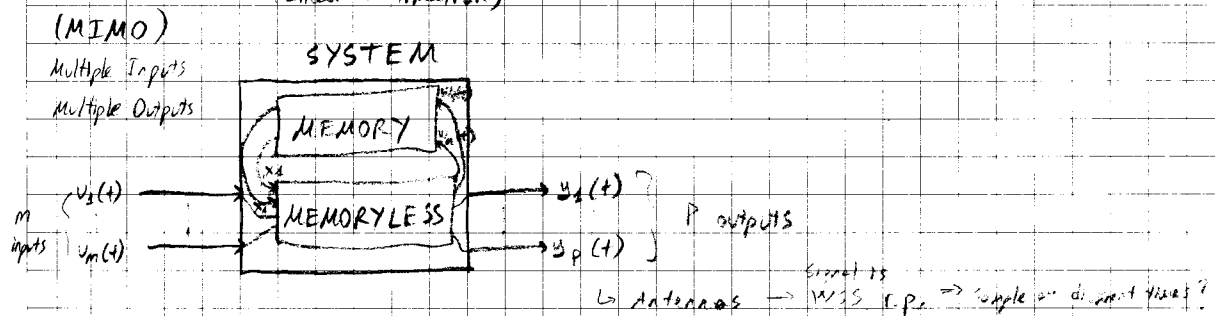
When you press the brake in a car it does not change its state ^{gas pedal}

immediately since previous states effect the current state dynamically.

- State Space Representation: Excellent way to model a dynamical system with memory.

Logical Structure of State Space Representation

SSR + Kalman Filtering (Linear Estimation) enabled us to land on moon.



$x(t)$ → input
 $y(t)$ → output
 System (memoryless) $y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau$
 $y(t) = \alpha x(t)$

$$y_1(t) = g_1(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t), u_1(t), \dots, u_m(t), t)$$

order of my system = # of memory elements used

$$y_p(t) = g_p(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t), u_1(t), \dots, u_m(t), t) \quad \text{if } p \rightarrow \text{MEMORYLESS}$$

$$\underline{y}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ y_p(t) \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{x}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ x_p(t) \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{u}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} u_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ u_m(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

$x_1(t-1)$ - previous states can also be added but that would be a different system (change the philosophy of this system)

$$\underline{y}(t) = g(\underline{x}(t), \underline{u}(t), t)$$

$$w_1(t) = f_1(x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t), u_1(t), \dots, u_m(t), t)$$

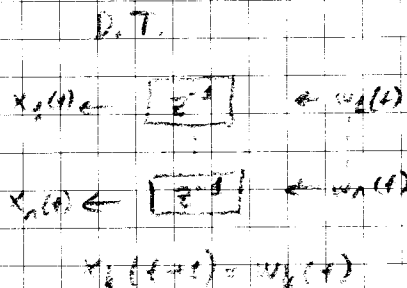
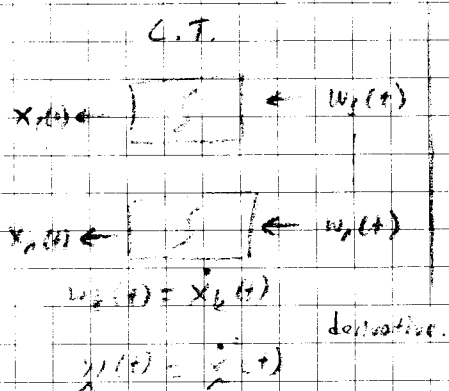
$$w_p(t) = f_p(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t), u_1(t), \dots, u_m(t), t)$$

$$\underline{w}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} w_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ w_p(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \underline{w}(t) &= f(\underline{x}(t), \underline{u}(t), t) \\ \rightarrow \underline{y}(t) &= g(\underline{x}(t), \underline{u}(t), t) \end{aligned}$$

How do we use $\underline{w}(t)$ to update $\underline{x}(t)$?

Basic idea: keep memory part as simple as possible.



C.T.S.S.

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\underline{x}}(t) &= f(\underline{x}(t), \underline{u}(t), t) \\ \underline{y}(t) &= g(\underline{x}(t), \underline{u}(t), t) \end{aligned}$$

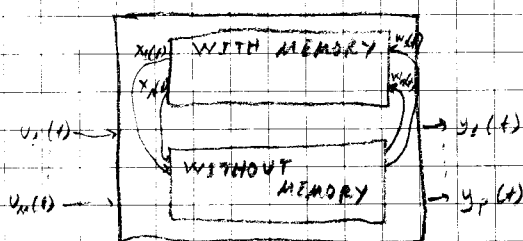
D.T.S.S.

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{x}(k+1) &= f(\underline{x}(k), \underline{u}(k), k) \\ \underline{y}(k) &= g(\underline{x}(k), \underline{u}(k), k) \end{aligned}$$

f, g are general non-linear functions. f, g are memoryless functions. They do not determine the state. They just determine the change in the state.

Nonlinear - time varying

Linear Dynamical Systems



C.T.

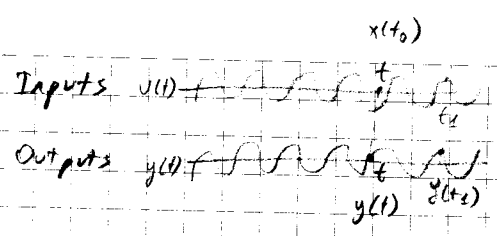
$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\underline{x}}(t) &= f(\underline{x}(t), \underline{u}(t), t) \\ \underline{y}(t) &= g(\underline{x}(t), \underline{u}(t), t) \end{aligned}$$

D.T.

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{x}_{k+1} &= f(\underline{x}_k, \underline{u}_k, k) \\ \underline{y}_k &= g(\underline{x}_k, \underline{u}_k, k) \end{aligned}$$

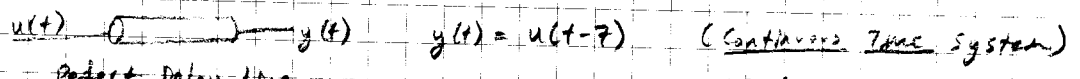
Concept of state

State is a set of quantities for which the present state is sufficient in predicting the current and future output given the present and future outputs.



To calculate $y(t_2)$ you need $\{u(t), t \leq t_2\}$ or $x(t_0)$ and $\{u(t), t_0 \leq t \leq t_2\}$

Example:

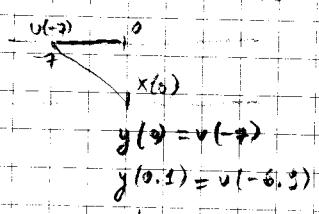


How many states does this system have?

- a) 0
- b) 1
- c) 7
- d) ∞
- e) none

(Continuous Time System)
 $H(t) = e^{-j2\pi t \cdot 7}$ $h(t) = \delta(t-7)$

finite bandwidth system.



We need infinitely many states.

If this was a discrete time system: Answer = 7

LINEARITY AND TIME INVARIANCE

a) Linear Time Varying

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\underline{x}}(t) &\in \mathbb{R}^n & \dot{\underline{x}}(t) &= \overset{n \times n}{\underline{A}(t)} \underline{x}(t) + \overset{n \times m}{\underline{B}(t)} \underline{u}(t) & \underline{u}(t) &\in \mathbb{R}^m \\ \underline{y}(t) &\in \mathbb{R}^p & \underline{y}(t) &= \overset{p \times n}{\underline{C}(t)} \underline{x}(t) + \overset{p \times m}{\underline{D}(t)} \underline{u}(t) & \underline{y}(t) &\in \mathbb{R}^p \end{aligned}$$

D.T.

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{x}_{k+1} &= \underline{A}(k) \underline{x}_k + \underline{B}(k) \underline{u}_k \\ \underline{y}_k &= \underline{C}(k) \underline{x}_k + \underline{D}(k) \underline{u}_k \end{aligned}$$

b) Linear Time Invariant (LTI)

C.T.	D.T.
$\dot{\underline{x}}(t) = \underline{A} \underline{x}(t) + \underline{B} \underline{u}(t)$	$\underline{x}_{k+1} = \underline{A} \underline{x}_k + \underline{B} \underline{u}_k$
$\underline{y}(t) = \underline{C} \underline{x}(t) + \underline{D} \underline{u}(t)$	$\underline{y}_k = \underline{C} \underline{x}_k + \underline{D} \underline{u}_k$

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\underline{x}}(t) \\ \underline{y}(t) \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \overset{n}{\underline{A}} \\ \overset{p}{\underline{C}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \overset{n}{\underline{B}} \\ \overset{p}{\underline{D}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{u}(t) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\underline{x}}(t) \\ \underline{y}(t) \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \underline{A} & \underline{B} \\ \underline{C} & \underline{D} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}(t) \\ \underline{u}(t) \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}_{k+1} \\ \underline{y}_k \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \underline{A} & \underline{B} \\ \underline{C} & \underline{D} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{x}_k \\ \underline{u}_k \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

SOLUTION OF STATE SPACE EQUATIONS

A. DISCRETE-TIME LTI CASE

Starting with $k=k_0$ (we assume we know $\underline{x}(k_0)$)

$$\underline{x}(k_0+1) = A\underline{x}(k_0) + B\underline{u}(k_0)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{x}(k_0+2) &= A(A\underline{x}(k_0) + B\underline{u}(k_0)) + B\underline{u}(k_0+1) \\ &= A^2\underline{x}(k_0) + AB\underline{u}(k_0) + B\underline{u}(k_0+1)\end{aligned}$$

$$\underline{x}(k_0+3) = A^3\underline{x}(k_0) + A^2B\underline{u}(k_0) + AB\underline{u}(k_0+1) + B\underline{u}(k_0+2)$$

for $k > k_0$ $\underline{x}(k) = A^{k-k_0}\underline{x}(k_0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-k_0-1} A^{k-k_0-j-1} B\underline{u}(k-j-1)$

$$\underline{x}(k) = A^{k-k_0}\underline{x}(k_0) + \begin{bmatrix} B & AB & A^2B & \dots & A^{k-k_0-1}B \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{u}(k-1) \\ \underline{u}(k-2) \\ \vdots \\ \underline{u}(k_0) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{y}(k) = C\underline{x}(k) + D\underline{u}(k)$$

$$= C A^{k-k_0}\underline{x}(k_0) + \begin{bmatrix} D & CB & CAB & \dots & CA^{k-k_0-1}B \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{u}(k) \\ \underline{u}(k-1) \\ \vdots \\ \underline{u}(k_0) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= C A^{k-k_0}\underline{x}(k_0) + \sum_{j=0}^{k-k_0} h(j)\underline{u}(k-j) \quad \leftarrow \text{input dependent} \quad \text{PVM matrix}$$

What is the impulse response?

Single Input Case $\underline{x}(0) = 0$ $\underline{u}(n) = \delta(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & n=0 \\ 0 & n \neq 0 \end{cases}$

$$\underline{y}(0) = C\underline{x}(0) + D\underline{u}(0) = D$$

$$\underline{x}(1) = C\underline{x}(0) + B\underline{u}(0) = B$$

$$\underline{y}(1) = C\underline{x}(1) + D\underline{u}(1) = CB$$

$$\underline{x}(2) = A\underline{x}(1) + B\underline{u}(1) = AB$$

$$\underline{y}(2) = C\underline{x}(2) + D\underline{u}(2) = CAB$$

$$\underline{y}(3) = CA^2B$$

B. CONTINUOUS TIME CASE

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t) \quad ?$$

vector differential equation (first order)

Let's first look at $u(t) = 0$ (Homogeneous case)

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1(t) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

Diagonal matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1(t) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1(t) = e^{a_{11}t} x_1(0)$$

Like the chicken-and-egg problem

$$x_1(t) - a_{12} x_2(t) = a_{11} x_1(t)$$

Diff. Eq. for $x_2(t)$. If we know $x_2(t)$ we could solve for $x_1(t)$

$$x_2(t) - a_{21} x_1(t) = a_{22} x_2(t)$$

If $x(t)$ is smooth

Taylor series expansion

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{(k)}(0)}{k!} t^k$$

$$f(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(t_0)}{k!} (t-t_0)^k$$

$$= x(0) + \dot{x}(0)t + \frac{\ddot{x}(0)}{2}t^2 + \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= x(0) + Ax(0)t + \frac{A^2 x(0)}{2}t^2 + \dots \\ &= \left(I + At + \frac{(At)^2}{2} + \frac{(At)^3}{3!} + \dots \right) x(0) \\ &= e^{At} x(0) \end{aligned}$$

$$e^{At} \triangleq \left(I + At + \frac{(At)^2}{2} + \dots \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} e^{At} &= A + A^2 t + \frac{A^3 t^2}{2} + \dots \\ &= A \left(I + At + \frac{(At)^2}{2!} + \dots \right) \\ &= A e^{At} \end{aligned}$$

$$x^{(3)}(t) + a_2 x^{(2)}(t) + a_1 x^{(1)}(t) + a_0 x(t) = 0$$

$$(s^3 + a_2 s^2 + a_1 s + a_0) X(s) = 0 \quad \text{Laplace trans.}$$

$$x(t) = C_1 e^{s_1 t} + C_2 e^{s_2 t} + C_3 e^{s_3 t}$$

Oppenheim s = complex

Linear System Theory

C.T.

D.T.

$$\dot{\underline{x}}(t) = A \underline{x}(t) + B \underline{u}(t)$$

$$\underline{x}_{k+1} = A \underline{x}_k + B \underline{u}_k$$

$$\underline{y}(t) = C \underline{x}(t) + D \underline{u}(t)$$

$$\underline{y}_k = C \underline{x}_k + D \underline{u}_k$$

$$\underline{y}(t) = F(\underline{x}(t_0), \{\underline{u}(t), t \geq t_0\})$$

$$\underline{u}(t) = 0$$

$$\dot{\underline{x}}(t) = A \underline{x}(t)$$

$$\underline{x}(t) = e^{At} \underline{x}(0) \rightarrow e^{A(t-t_0)} \underline{x}(t_0)$$

$$e^{At} = (I + tA + \frac{t^2 A^2}{2} + \frac{t^3 A^3}{3} + \dots)$$

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \alpha \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $A^k = 0$ for $k \geq 2$

$$e^{At} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \alpha t \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underline{x}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \alpha t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \underline{x}(0)$$

Example: Diagonal $A = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & \beta \end{bmatrix}$ $A^k = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha^k & 0 \\ 0 & \beta^k \end{bmatrix}$

$$e^{At} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha t & 0 \\ 0 & \beta t \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\alpha^2 t^2}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\beta^2 t^2}{2} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\alpha^3 t^3}{3!} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\beta^3 t^3}{3!} \end{bmatrix} + \dots$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \alpha t + \frac{\alpha^2 t^2}{2} + \frac{\alpha^3 t^3}{3!} + \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 + \beta t + \frac{\beta^2 t^2}{2} + \frac{\beta^3 t^3}{3!} + \dots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\alpha t} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\beta t} \end{bmatrix}$$

For an $n \times n$ diagonal matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \dots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$

$$e^{At} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & & 0 \\ & e^{\lambda_2 t} & \\ 0 & & e^{\lambda_n t} \end{bmatrix}$$

If A is diagonalizable $\Rightarrow A = T \Lambda T^{-1}$ $\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \dots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$ $A^k = T \Lambda^k T^{-1}$

$$e^{At} = I + At + \frac{A^2 t^2}{2} + \frac{A^3 t^3}{3!} + \dots$$

$$= T T^{-1} + T A T^{-1} t + T A^2 T^{-1} \frac{t^2}{2} + \dots = T (I + \Lambda t + \frac{\Lambda^2 t^2}{2} + \dots) T^{-1} = T e^{\Lambda t} T^{-1}$$

$$e^{At} = T \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & e^{\lambda_n t} \end{bmatrix} T^{-1}$$

- block diagonal form
- exists for all square matrices

If A is not diagonalizable \Rightarrow One can use Jordan Form instead of EVD.

$u(t) = 0$

$$T = [p_1 \dots p_n] \quad T^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} q_1^T \\ \vdots \\ q_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t)$

$x(t) = e^{A(t-t_0)} x(t_0)$

$$e^{At} = [p_1 \dots p_n] \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1 t} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & e^{\lambda_n t} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} q_1^T \\ \vdots \\ q_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

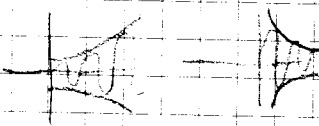
$$e^{At} = [e^{\lambda_1 t} p_1 \quad e^{\lambda_2 t} p_2 \quad \dots \quad e^{\lambda_n t} p_n]$$

\rightarrow Not Hermitian unless $p_k \perp q_k$

$$= e^{\lambda_1 t} p_1 q_1^T + e^{\lambda_2 t} p_2 q_2^T + \dots + e^{\lambda_n t} p_n q_n^T$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n e^{\lambda_k t} p_k q_k^T$$

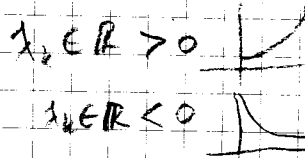
$x(t) = e^{At} x(0) = \sum_{k=1}^n e^{\lambda_k t} p_k q_k^T x(0)$



Eigenvalues of A should have negative real part = system is stable.

mode of the system - each mode has an associated expansion and direction.

$e^{(\sigma + j\omega)t}$
 $e^{(\sigma - j\omega)t}$
 $e^{\sigma t} \cos(\omega t + \theta)$



If $\langle x(0), q_k \rangle = 0$ the mode k will not be observed at $x(t)$.

$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t) \quad t=t_0 \quad u(t), t \geq t_0$

$x(t) = e^{A(t-t_0)} x(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A(t-\tau)} Bu(\tau) d\tau$

Zero-input Response Zero-state Response

Consider the scalar case
 $x(t) = e^{a(t-t_0)} x(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t b e^{a(t-\tau)} u(\tau) d\tau$
 $\dot{x}(t) = a x(t) + b u(t) \quad h(t) = ?$

$sX(s) = aX(s) + bU(s)$

$(s-a)X(s) = bU(s)$

$X(s) = \frac{bU(s)}{(s-a)}$

$\frac{x(s)}{u(s)} = \frac{b}{s-a} \quad h(t) = b e^{at} \quad t \geq 0$

$y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t)$

$= C e^{A(t-t_0)} x(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t C e^{A(t-\tau)} B u(\tau) d\tau + Du(t)$

$= C e^{A(t-t_0)} x(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t (C e^{A(t-\tau)} B + D \delta(t-\tau)) u(\tau) d\tau$

$$= C e^{A(t-t_0)} \underline{x}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t h(t-\tau) u(\tau) d\tau$$

$$h(t) = \underbrace{C}_{\substack{p \times n \\ \in \mathbb{R}}} e^{\underbrace{A}_{\substack{p \times n \\ \in \mathbb{R}}} t} \underbrace{B + D}_{\substack{p \times m \\ \in \mathbb{R}}} \delta(t) \leftarrow (A, B, C, D)$$

Impulse response

Transform Domain Approach

C.T. Case

$$\underline{X}(s) = \mathcal{L}\{\underline{x}(t)\} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{L}\{x_1(t)\} \\ \vdots \\ \mathcal{L}\{x_n(t)\} \end{bmatrix} \quad t_0=0$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} = \int_0^{\infty} f(t) e^{-st} dt$$

Now given the state space eqs.

$$\mathcal{L}\{\dot{\underline{x}}(t)\} = \mathcal{L}\{A \underline{x}(t)\} + \mathcal{L}\{B u(t)\}$$

$$s \underline{X}(s) - \underline{x}(0) = A \underline{X}(s) + B U(s)$$

$$sI \underline{X}(s) - A \underline{X}(s) = \underline{x}(0) + B U(s)$$

$$(sI - A) \underline{X}(s) = \underline{x}(0) + B U(s)$$

↳ freq. domain ↳ time domain

$$\underline{X}(s) = (sI - A)^{-1} \underline{x}(0) + (sI - A)^{-1} B U(s)$$

$$\underline{Y}(s) = C \underline{X}(s) + D U(s)$$

$$\underline{Y}(s) = C (sI - A)^{-1} \underline{x}(0) + (C (sI - A)^{-1} B + D) U(s)$$

$$y(t) = C e^{At} \underline{x}(0) + \int_0^t (C e^{A(t-\tau)} B + D \delta(t-\tau)) u(\tau) d\tau$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{e^{At}\} = (sI - A)^{-1}$$

$h(t)$

$$H(s) = C (sI - A)^{-1} B + D = \mathcal{L}\{C e^{At} B + D \delta(t)\}$$

Transfer function

State Space

(A, B, C, D)

Impulse Response

$$h(t) = C e^{At} B + D \delta(t)$$

Transfer Function

$$H(s) = C (sI - A)^{-1} B + D$$

Another way of calculating $C e^{At}$

$$= C \frac{\text{Adj}(sI - A)}{\det(sI - A)} B + D$$

$$= C \text{Adj}(sI-A)B + B \det(sI-A) / \det(sI-A)$$

Poles of $H(s)$ are when $\det(sI-A) \Rightarrow s$ is an eigenvalue of A .

$$\det(sI-A) = (s-\lambda_1)(s-\lambda_2)\dots(s-\lambda_n)$$

\Rightarrow If there is a factor in the numerator that would cancel $(s-\lambda_i)$, λ_i will not be a pole of $H(s)$
 \downarrow
 Pole zero cancellation.

Poles of $H(s) \subset$ eigenvalues of A

MT. QUESTIONS:

$$R(AA^T) \subseteq R(A) \rightarrow \begin{cases} R(AB) \subseteq R(A) \\ \subseteq R(B) \end{cases}$$

$$AA^T x = 0 \in R(A)$$

$$R(A) \neq R(A^T)$$

$$x \in N(A^T) \Rightarrow AA^T x = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x^T AA^T x = 0$$

$$AA^T x = 0 \Rightarrow x \in N(A^T)$$

$$N(AA^T) \subseteq N(A^T)$$

$$R(A) \subseteq R(AA^T)$$

$$\Rightarrow R(AA^T) = R(A)$$

Matrix Transformations:

Assume that we are transforming a given matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ with another matrix $T \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ (multiplying) with another matrix (a transformation matrix) $T \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$.

$$A_T = TA$$

Suppose we want the new matrix to have the same covariance as the previous one after being transformed.

Let $A = [a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_N]$, then the sample covariance matrix for the vector sequence is generated using the formula:

$$K_A = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N a_i a_i^* = \frac{1}{N} AA^*$$

$$K_{A_T} = \frac{1}{N} A_T A_T^* = \frac{1}{N} TAA^*T^* = TK_A T^*$$

$$\Rightarrow K_{A_T} - TK_A T^* = 0 \Rightarrow K_{A_T} - TK_{A_T} T^* = 0$$

Assume that K_{A_T} is P.D. Thus $K_{A_T} > 0$. Then $K_{A_T} = R^* R = LL^*$ (via Cholesky Factorization)

$$K_{A_T} = \frac{T L L^* T^*}{B B^*} = Q$$

$$K_{A_T} = B B^*$$

$$B = L U \quad \text{where } U \text{ is unitary.}$$

$$T L = L U$$

$$T = L U L^{-1}$$

$$L U L^{-1} K_{A_T} L^{-1} U^* L^* = Q$$

$$= L U L^{-1} L U L^{-1} K_{A_T} L^{-1} U^* L^* = Q$$

$$= L L^* = K_{A_T}$$

Therefore, to preserve the covariance matrix, T needs to be unitary. Furthermore, if K_{A_T} is P.D., then $T = L U L^{-1}$.

In some context, we may want to do the opposite of the coloring operation.

Let's remember the coloring operation. If K_A is P.D., then we can use the Cholesky factorization such that $K_A = R^* R = L L^*$. Then for a given random matrix:

$$\underline{z} = \text{randn}(M, N); \quad E(\underline{z} \underline{z}^*) = I$$

$$\underline{x} = L * \underline{z} \quad E(\underline{x} \underline{x}^*) = L \underline{z} \underline{z}^* L^* = L E(\underline{z} \underline{z}^*) L^* = L L^* = K_A$$

Thus, we made the elements of \underline{x} correlated with K_A . \underline{x} is now considered as "colored", whereas \underline{z} can be considered as "white".

If we do the opposite operation, then this can be called decoloring, whitening, or sphering:

$$\underline{z} = L^{-1} * \underline{x}, \quad \text{where } E(\underline{x} \underline{x}^*) = K_A = L L^*$$

From a machine learning perspective, decoloring operation makes the within-class covariance isotropic (i.e. covariance matrix is proportional to I) and the distributions of classes close to spheres in the space. When this is the case, Fisher's linear discriminant (PRML, page 183, Christopher Bishop) gives us the projection direction along which we can separate the classes from each other.

of poles on the left side

all poles are in the left side

LINEAR SYSTEM THEORY

C.T.

D.T.

$$\dot{\underline{x}}(t) = A \underline{x}(t) + B \underline{u}(t)$$

$$\underline{x}_{k+1} = A \underline{x}_k + B \underline{u}_k$$

$$\underline{y}(t) = C \underline{x}(t) + D \underline{u}(t)$$

$$\underline{y}_k = C \underline{x}_k + D \underline{u}_k$$

$$\underline{y}(t) = C e^{A(t-t_0)} \underline{x}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t (C e^{A(t-\tau)} B + D \delta(t-\tau)) \underline{u}(\tau) d\tau$$

$$h(t) = C e^{At} B + D \delta(t)$$

$$\underline{y}_k = CA^{k-1} \underline{x}_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} CA^i B \underline{u}_i + D \underline{u}_k$$

$$H(s) = C (sI - A)^{-1} B + D$$

$$Y(s) = C (sI - A)^{-1} \underline{x}(t_0) + H(s) U(s)$$

Transform Domain Approach for D.T.

$$Z \{ \underline{x}_{k+1} \} = Z \{ A \underline{x}_k + B \underline{u}_k \}$$

$$z \underline{X}(z) - z \underline{x}_0 = A \underline{X}(z) + B \underline{U}(z)$$

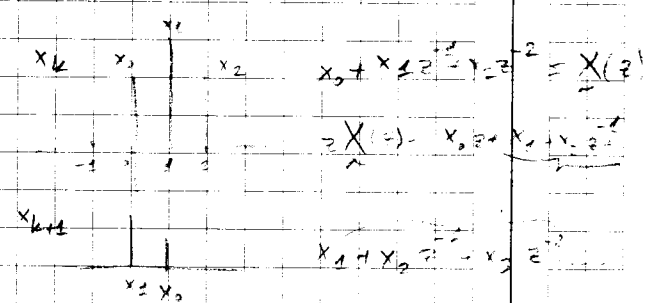
$$z \underline{X}(z) - A \underline{X}(z) = z \underline{x}_0 + B \underline{U}(z)$$

$$(zI - A) \underline{X}(z) = z \underline{x}_0 + B \underline{U}(z)$$

$$\underline{X}(z) = (zI - A)^{-1} z \underline{x}_0 + (zI - A)^{-1} B \underline{U}(z)$$

$$\underline{Y}(z) = C \underline{X}(z) + D \underline{U}(z)$$

$$\underline{Y}(z) = \underbrace{C (zI - A)^{-1} z \underline{x}_0}_{\text{zero-input response}} + \underbrace{(C (zI - A)^{-1} B + D) \underline{U}(z)}_{\text{zero-state response}}$$



SISO

$$H(s) = \frac{n(s)}{d(s)}$$

$$H(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}$$

Matrix fraction descriptions

Normed and Inner Product ^{Vector} Spaces

Halmos used these in estimation theory.

Gives us a geometric approach to estimation theory.

Norm Spaces

- Extension of the length concept in 2-D or 3-D Euclidian spaces to general vector spaces.

- Definition (Norm): Let S be a vector space with elements x . A real valued function $\|x\|$ is said to be a norm if $\|x\|$ satisfies the following

1) $\|x\| \geq 0$ for any $x \in S$ (non-negative)

2) $\|x\| = 0$ iff $x = 0$ (definiteness)

3) $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$ (scaling)

4) $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$ (Triangle inequality)

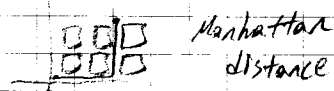
Examples: Let $S = \mathbb{C}^n$

$\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{|x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2}$ (Euclidian)

$\|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| + \dots + |x_n|$

$\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{k=1}^n |x_k|^p \right)^{1/p}$ $1 \leq p < \infty$

$\|x\|_\infty = \max_{k \in \{1, \dots, n\}} |x_k|$



if $p < 1$, then triangle inequality is not satisfied

Example: $x = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4i \end{bmatrix}$

$\|x\|_1 = |3| + |4i| = 3 + 4 = 7$

$\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{|3|^2 + |4i|^2} = 5$

$\|x\|_\infty = 4$

As $p \uparrow$ norm value \downarrow .

Example: Consider the vector space: Space Time: $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ t \end{bmatrix}$

Is the following function a norm?

$f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - c^2 t^2}$
 \hookrightarrow speed of light

Doesn't satisfy definiteness property. Not a ^(definite) norm! But used in Einstein's formulations. This is an indefinite norm.

Example: For function spaces, such as continuous functions defined over $[a, b]$

$$\|x(t)\|_1 = \int_a^b |x(t)| dt$$

$$\|x(t)\|_2 = \left(\int_a^b |x(t)|^2 dt \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\|x(t)\|_p = \left(\int_a^b |x(t)|^p dt \right)^{1/p}$$

$$d(x(t), y(t)) = \|x(t) - y(t)\| \quad (\text{Distance})$$

Example: Vector Space of zero-mean random variables

$$\|x\|^2 = \text{Var}(x) = E(x x^*) \quad (\text{measures how big a r.v. is})$$

If there is no variance, then your variable is not random. $\text{Var}(x)$ is a measure of uncertainty about x .

Example: In C^n weighted norm

$$\|x\|_w = (x^* W x)^{1/2} \quad w \in C^{n \times n} \quad \begin{array}{l} W \text{ needs to be Hermitian} \rightarrow \text{real values} \\ W > 0 \text{ s.t. } \|x\|_w = 0 \text{ iff } x = 0 \end{array}$$

Normed Vector Space: is a pair $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ where V is a vector space and $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm over V .

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x_k \rightarrow z \quad \text{iff} \quad \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|x_k - z\| \rightarrow 0 \quad (\text{use of norms allows such topological analysis tools})$$

Inner Products and Inner Product Spaces

Def: Let V be a vector space defined over a scalar field R . An inner product is a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow R$ with the following properties

- $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$ (complex conjugated)
- $\langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle$
- $\langle x+y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$
- $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0, \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \text{ iff } x = 0$

$$\langle x, \alpha y \rangle = \overline{\langle \alpha y, x \rangle} = \overline{\alpha \langle y, x \rangle} = \alpha^* \langle y, x \rangle$$

Example: In C^n

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x, y \rangle &= \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^* x_i \quad (\text{Usual inner product}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i^* \end{aligned}$$

Example: $V = \text{functions over } [a, b]$

$$\langle x(t), y(t) \rangle = \int_a^b x(t) y^*(t) dt$$

Example: $V = n \times n$ complex matrices

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \text{Tr}(B^* A)$$

Example: $V = \mathbb{C}^n$

$$\langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle_W = \underline{y}^* W \underline{x} \quad \begin{matrix} W \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n} \\ W > 0 \end{matrix} \quad \langle \underline{x}, \underline{x} \rangle \geq 0, \langle \underline{x}, \underline{x} \rangle = 0 \iff \underline{x} = \underline{0}$$

$$\|A\|_2 = \max_{\|\underline{x}\|_2=1} \|A\underline{x}\|_2 \quad (\text{Induced 2-norm})$$

$$\|\underline{x}\|_2 = 1 \implies \Sigma V^*$$

$$\|A\|_2 = \sigma_1 \quad \sigma_1, \sigma_2$$

- Normed Spaces

- Inner Product Spaces

$(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ is inner product space where

- V : Vector space

- $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is an inner product defined over that space

- Induced Norm: We can use inner product to produce a special norm called induced norm.

$$\|\underline{x}\| = (\langle \underline{x}, \underline{x} \rangle)^{1/2}$$

Example: $V = \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \text{Tr}(B^* A)$$

$$\|A\| = \langle A, A \rangle^{1/2}$$

$$\|A\|_F = (\text{Tr}(A^* A))^{1/2} \leftarrow \text{Frobenius norm} = (\text{Tr}(A A^*))^{1/2}$$

$$= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m |A_{ji}|^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^* A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^* & a_{21}^* & \dots & a_{m1}^* \\ a_{12}^* & a_{22}^* & \dots & a_{m2}^* \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1n}^* & a_{2n}^* & \dots & a_{mn}^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{bmatrix} a_{11}^* & a_{21}^* & \dots & a_{m1}^* \\ a_{12}^* & a_{22}^* & \dots & a_{m2}^* \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{1n}^* & a_{2n}^* & \dots & a_{mn}^* \end{bmatrix}} \right\} \text{Tr}(A^* A) = a_{11}^* a_{11} + a_{21}^* a_{21} + \dots + a_{m1}^* a_{m1} \\ = \|a_{1\cdot}\|_2^2 + \|a_{2\cdot}\|_2^2 + \dots + \|a_{m\cdot}\|_2^2$$

We can define a vec operator given $A = [a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_n]$

$$\text{vec}(A) \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times 1}$$

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \text{vec}(B)^* \text{vec}(A)$$

$$B = [b_1 \ \dots \ b_n]$$

$$A = [a_1 \ \dots \ a_n]$$

$$\text{Tr}(B^H A) = \text{Tr} \left(\begin{bmatrix} b_1^* \\ \vdots \\ b_n^* \end{bmatrix} [a_1 \ \dots \ a_n] \right)$$

$$= b_1^* a_1 + b_2^* a_2 + \dots + b_n^* a_n$$

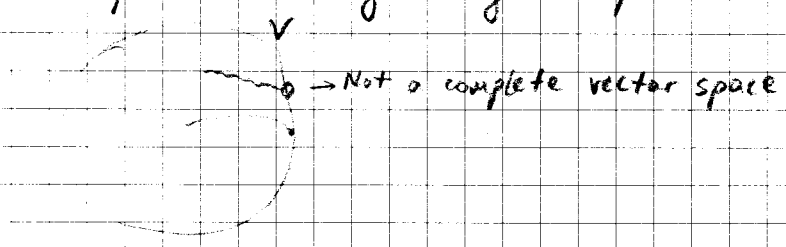
$$= \begin{bmatrix} b_1^* & \dots & b_n^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \text{vec}(B)^* \text{vec}(A)$$

$\|x\|_{\infty}$ does not have an associated inner product space.

Banach Space: Complete Normed Space

Hilbert Space: Complete Inner Product Space

Completeness: Every convergent sequence in V , converges to an element of V .



$\text{Tr}(A) = \text{Volume}$ of a box
 Is matrix multiplication a complex inner prod. space?

Gram-Schmidt Applied to General Inner Product Spaces

example: $V =$ Vector space of functions over $[-1, 1]$ for which

$$\int_{-1}^1 |f(t)|^2 dt < \infty \quad \text{where } f(t) \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\langle f(t), g(t) \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 f(t) g(t) dt$$

$(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle) \rightarrow$ Inner product space

$$\|f(t)\| = \langle f(t), f(t) \rangle^{1/2} = \left(\int_{-1}^1 |f(t)|^2 dt \right)^{1/2} \quad (\text{induced norm})$$

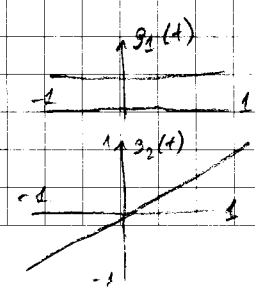
Let's have the set of functions

$$g_1(t) = 1 \quad t \in [-1, 1]$$

$$g_2(t) = t$$

$$\vdots$$

$$g_{n+1}(t) = t^n$$



$G = \{g_1(t), \dots, g_{n+1}(t)\}$ is a linearly independent set.

Find $H = \{h_1(t), \dots, h_{n+1}(t)\}$ such that $\text{Span}(H) = \text{Span}(G)$.

$\langle h_i(t), h_j(t) \rangle = \delta_{i-j}$

↑
polynomials of degree up to n .

Let's obtain $h_1(t)$'s

$h_1(t) = \frac{g_1(t)}{\|g_1(t)\|}$

$\|g_1(t)\| = \left(\int_{-1}^1 |g_1(t)|^2 dt \right)^{1/2}$
 $= \left(\int_{-1}^1 1 dt \right)^{1/2}$
 $= \sqrt{2}$

$h_1(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \quad t \in [-1, 1]$

projection over h_1

2. $v_2(t) = g_2(t) - \langle g_2(t), h_1(t) \rangle h_1(t)$

$\langle g_2(t), h_1(t) \rangle = \left(\int_{-1}^1 t \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} dt \right)$

$v_2(t) = g_2(t)$

$h_2(t) = \frac{v_2(t)}{\|v_2(t)\|}$

$\|v_2(t)\| = \|g_2(t)\| = \left(\int_{-1}^1 t^2 dt \right)^{1/2} = 0$
 $= \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}$

$h_2(t) = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} t \quad t \in [-1, 1]$

3. $v_3(t) = g_3(t) - (\langle g_3(t), h_1(t) \rangle h_1(t) + \langle g_3(t), h_2(t) \rangle h_2(t))$

$\langle g_3(t), h_1(t) \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 t^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} dt = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{t^3}{3} \Big|_{-1}^1 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3}$

$\langle g_3, h_2 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 t^2 \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}} t dt = 0$

$v_3(t) = g_3(t) - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = t^2 - \frac{1}{3}$

$h_3(t) = \frac{v_3(t)}{\|v_3(t)\|} = \frac{t^2 - \frac{1}{3}}{\left(\int_{-1}^1 \left(t^2 - \frac{2}{3}t + \frac{1}{3} \right) dt \right)^{1/2}}$
 $\frac{2}{5} - \frac{4}{3} + \frac{2}{3} = \frac{8}{45}$

orthogonal set

$\text{Span} \{v_1(t), v_2(t), v_3(t), \dots, v_{n+1}(t)\}$
 \uparrow
 $1 \quad t \quad t^2 - \frac{1}{3}$

← Legendre polynomials

polynomials of degree up to n .

If we change the inner product definition to

$\langle f(t), g(t) \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} f(t) g(t) dt$

If you apply G.S. procedure to G you obtain another orthogonal set

$T_n(t) = \cos((n-1)\cos^{-1}(t))$

Chebyshev Polynomials

$T_1(t) = 1$
 $T_2(t) = 2t^2 - 1$
 \vdots

Whole goal of inner product spaces is to convert algebraic problems into geometric problems and projection is very important in this interpretation

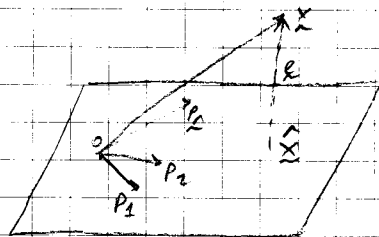
Projection Theorem: Let $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ be an inner product space, and $\|\cdot\|$ be the induced norm. Let p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n and $x \in V$. We call \hat{x} as the projection of x on $\text{Span}\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$ if it is the solution of

$$(*) \quad \hat{x} = \arg \min_{\tilde{x}} \|x - \tilde{x}\|$$

$$\hat{x} \in \text{Span}\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$$

Projection theorem states that if

$$r = x - \hat{x} \Rightarrow \langle r, p_i \rangle = 0 \quad i=1, \dots, n$$



Your original norm problem can be posed as an inner product problem when the norm used is an induced norm.

How to use projection thm. to solve our problem (*)

$$\hat{x} \in \text{Span}\{p_1, \dots, p_n\} \Rightarrow \hat{x} = \alpha_1 p_1 + \alpha_2 p_2 + \dots + \alpha_n p_n$$

Finding $\hat{x} =$ Finding $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ (n unknowns \Rightarrow we need at least n equations)

Use $\langle r, p_i \rangle = 0 \quad i=1, \dots, n$ to find α_i 's.

$$\langle x - \hat{x}, p_i \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle x, p_i \rangle = \langle \hat{x}, p_i \rangle = \langle \alpha_1 p_1 + \alpha_2 p_2 + \dots + \alpha_n p_n, p_i \rangle$$

$$= \alpha_1 \langle p_1, p_i \rangle + \alpha_2 \langle p_2, p_i \rangle + \dots + \alpha_n \langle p_n, p_i \rangle$$

$$i=1 \quad \alpha_1 \langle p_1, p_1 \rangle + \alpha_2 \langle p_2, p_1 \rangle + \dots + \alpha_n \langle p_n, p_1 \rangle = \langle x, p_1 \rangle$$

$$i=2 \quad \alpha_1 \langle p_1, p_2 \rangle + \alpha_2 \langle p_2, p_2 \rangle + \dots + \alpha_n \langle p_n, p_2 \rangle = \langle x, p_2 \rangle$$

$$i=n \quad \alpha_1 \langle p_1, p_n \rangle + \alpha_2 \langle p_2, p_n \rangle + \dots + \alpha_n \langle p_n, p_n \rangle = \langle x, p_n \rangle$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle p_1, p_1 \rangle & \langle p_2, p_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle p_n, p_1 \rangle \\ \langle p_1, p_2 \rangle & \langle p_2, p_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle p_n, p_2 \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle p_1, p_n \rangle & \langle p_2, p_n \rangle & \dots & \langle p_n, p_n \rangle \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle x, p_1 \rangle \\ \langle x, p_2 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle x, p_n \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

For $A > 0 \Rightarrow \det(A) > 0 \Rightarrow \|A\|_{\text{new}} = \log(\det(A))$ can be defined.

Matrix Transformations (continued)

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} \quad x_i \in \mathbb{C}^n$$

$$R_X = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N x_k x_k^* = \frac{1}{N} X X^*$$

$$Y = T X$$

1. $R_Y = R_X$, $Y = T_2 X$, T_2 is unitary $\Rightarrow \text{Cond}(Y) = \text{Cond}(X)$

$$X = U \Sigma V^*$$

$$X X^* = U \Sigma V V^* \Sigma^* U^* = U \Sigma^2 U^*$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{eig}(X X^*) = \text{sing}(X)^2$$

2. $R_Y = I$, $Y = T_2 X$, $\text{cond}(Y) = 1$.

Inner Product Spaces Projection Theorem

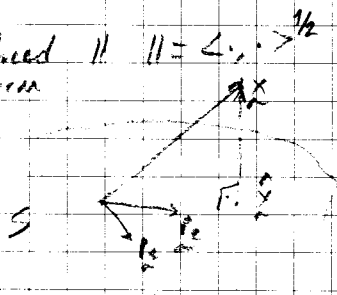
Inner product space

Projection Theorem

$$(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$$

\hat{x} minimizes $\|x - \hat{x}\| = \left\| x - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle x, p_i \rangle p_i \right\|$ $\perp \text{Span}\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$

Induced Norm $\|\cdot\| = \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle^{1/2}$



Core of the estimation theory \Rightarrow

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle p_1, p_1 \rangle & \langle p_1, p_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle p_1, p_n \rangle \\ \langle p_2, p_1 \rangle & \langle p_2, p_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle p_2, p_n \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle p_n, p_1 \rangle & \langle p_n, p_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle p_n, p_n \rangle \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle x, p_1 \rangle \\ \langle x, p_2 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle x, p_n \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{x} = \alpha_1 p_1 + \dots + \alpha_n p_n$$

Goal = choose α_i 's to minimize $\|x - \hat{x}\|$

If $\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$ is an orthonormal set then

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle p_1, p_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle p_1, p_n \rangle \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle p_n, p_1 \rangle & \dots & \langle p_n, p_n \rangle \end{bmatrix} = I$$

Gramian matrix = $P^* P \rightarrow$ PSD, Hermitian

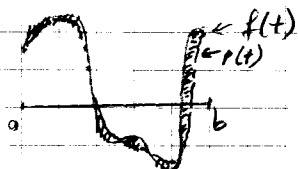
$$\Rightarrow \alpha_i = \langle x, p_i \rangle$$

Example: Find best n^{th} degree polynomial approximation of a given $f(t)$,

$t \in [a, b]$ such that

$$\int_a^b (f(t) - p(t))^2 dt \text{ is minimized}$$

polynomial approximation: $p(t) = c_0 + c_1 t + \dots + c_n t^n$



One way: Write down the Taylor series expansion for $p(t)$ and cut it down.

Define $V \rightarrow$ vector space of functions $\{g(t); t \in [a, b]\}$

Define $\langle g, h \rangle = \int_a^b g(t) h(t) dt$

where $\int_a^b (g(t))^2 dt < \infty \rightarrow$ square integrable in the domain t

Induced norm $\|g\| = \langle g, g \rangle^{1/2} = \left(\int_a^b (g(t))^2 dt \right)^{1/2}$

Our problem: minimize $\|f(t) - p(t)\|^2$

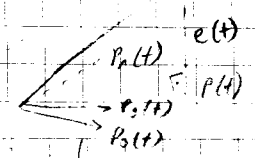
$$p(t) = c_0 + c_1 t + \dots + c_n t^n = \underbrace{c_0}_{\langle f, p_0 \rangle} p_0(t) + \underbrace{c_1}_{\langle f, p_1 \rangle} p_1(t) + \dots + \underbrace{c_n}_{\langle f, p_n \rangle} p_n(t)$$

$p_0(t) = 1$

$p_1(t) = t$

$p_2(t) = t^2$

Basis for n^{th} degree polynomials



$S =$ Space of n^{th} degree polynomials

Projection Theorem: $\langle e(t), p_i(t) \rangle = 0 \quad i=0, \dots, n$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle p_0(t), p_0(t) \rangle & \langle p_1(t), p_0(t) \rangle & \dots & \langle p_n(t), p_0(t) \rangle \\ \langle p_0(t), p_1(t) \rangle & \langle p_1(t), p_1(t) \rangle & \dots & \langle p_n(t), p_1(t) \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle p_0(t), p_n(t) \rangle & \langle p_1(t), p_n(t) \rangle & \dots & \langle p_n(t), p_n(t) \rangle \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle f(t), p_0(t) \rangle \\ \langle f(t), p_1(t) \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle f(t), p_n(t) \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\langle p_i(t), p_j(t) \rangle = \int_a^b t^{i+j} dt$$

Let $[a, b] = [0, 1]$

$$\langle p_i(t), p_j(t) \rangle = \int_0^1 t^{i+j} dt = \frac{1}{i+j+1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \dots \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \dots \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \dots & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{n+1} & \frac{1}{n+2} & \frac{1}{n+3} & \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \int_0^1 f(t) dt \\ \int_0^1 t f(t) dt \\ \vdots \\ \int_0^1 t^n f(t) dt \end{bmatrix}$$

Hilbert matrix

Moments of the function

ill conditioned for $n \rightarrow \infty$
 \rightarrow Harder to find the inverse

If we use Legendre polynomials instead $\{l_0(t), l_1(t), \dots, l_n(t)\}$

$$p(t) = b_0 l_0(t) + b_1 l_1(t) + \dots + b_n l_n(t)$$

$$\langle l_i(t), l_j(t) \rangle = 0 \iff i \neq j$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle l_0(t), l_0(t) \rangle & & \\ & \langle l_1(t), l_1(t) \rangle & \\ & & \ddots \\ & & & \langle l_n(t), l_n(t) \rangle \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \int_0^1 f(t) l_0(t) dt \\ \vdots \\ \int_0^1 f(t) l_n(t) dt \end{bmatrix}$$

$$b_i = \frac{\langle f(t), l_i(t) \rangle}{\langle l_i(t), l_i(t) \rangle} \rightarrow \text{we can easily scale this}$$

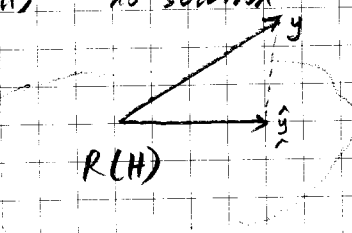
DETERMINISTIC LEAST SQUARES (Ch 2 of Kailath) > don't worry about this chapter

Suppose $Hx = y$ $H \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times n}$ $N \gg n$

if $y \in R(H) \rightarrow$ solution exists

if $y \notin R(H) \rightarrow$ no solution

\rightarrow there is some noise. I still want to pursue this.



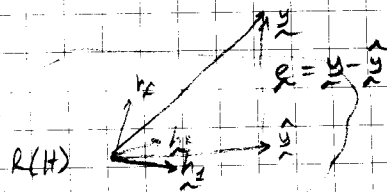
In $V = \mathbb{C}^n$, we are trying to minimize

$$\|y - Hx\|_2 \text{ where } \|a\| = (a^* a)^{1/2}$$

induced by

$$\langle a, b \rangle = b^* a$$

$$H = [h_1 \dots h_n] \Rightarrow Hx = h_1 x_1 + h_2 x_2 + \dots + h_n x_n$$



Goal: minimize $\|e\|_2 \iff e \perp R(H)$
 x_1, \dots, x_n

$$\Rightarrow e \perp h_i \quad i=1, \dots, n$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle e, h_i \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle e_0, h_i \rangle = 0$$

$e_0 =$ optimal e

$$h_i^* e_0 = 0 \quad i=1, \dots, n$$

$$e_0 = y - Hx_{opt}$$

$$\left. \begin{matrix} h_1^* e_0 = 0 \\ h_2^* e_0 = 0 \\ \vdots \\ h_n^* e_0 = 0 \end{matrix} \right\} H^* e_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow H^* e_0 = \underline{0} \Rightarrow H^* (y - Hx_{opt}) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow H^*y - H^*Hx_{opt} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{H^*Hx_{opt} = H^*y} \quad \text{Normal equations}$$

$\begin{matrix} n \times n & n \times n & n \times 1 \\ \hline & & \end{matrix}$

$$H^*y \in R(H^*H)$$

\Rightarrow always consistent (There is always a solution)

Why? $R(H^*H) = R(H^*)$

prove this!

* Normal equations always have a solution.

* Uniqueness?

if $N(H^*H) = \{0\}$, solution is unique.

\Updownarrow
 H is full rank ($N(H) = \{0\}$)

$$\hat{x}_{opt} = (H^*H)^{-1} H^*y$$

$$\hat{y} = H\hat{x}_{opt} = \underbrace{H(H^*H)^{-1}H^*}_{P_H} y$$

$P_H \Rightarrow$ orthogonal projection matrix

$$P_H^2 = P_H \quad \& \quad P_H = P_H^*$$

if H is not full rank

\Rightarrow infinitely many solutions

Least Squares

minimize $\|y - Hx\|_2$
 $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$

$Hx \approx y$

P.T. $y - Hx \perp h_i \quad i=1, \dots, n$

$$\begin{bmatrix} h_1^* \\ \vdots \\ h_n^* \end{bmatrix} (y - Hx) = 0$$

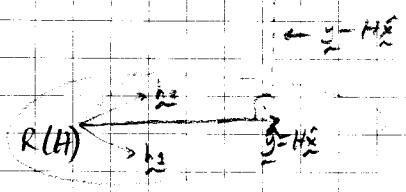
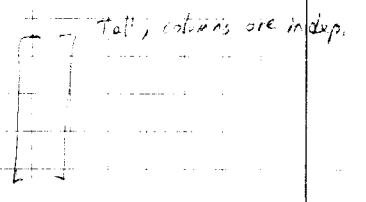
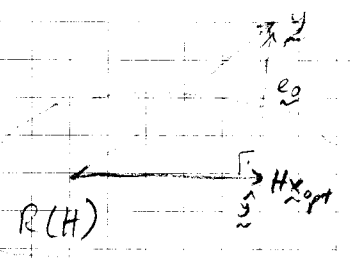
$$\boxed{H^*H\hat{x} = H^*y} \quad \leftarrow \text{Normal equations}$$

$H \rightarrow$ full rank $\Rightarrow (H^*H) \rightarrow$ full rank $\Rightarrow \hat{x} = (H^*H)^{-1} H^*y$

$H \rightarrow$ not full rank $\Rightarrow \hat{y}$ is still unique but \hat{x} is not unique

$$\hat{y} = \underbrace{H(H^*H)^{-1}H^*}_{P_H} y$$

orthogonal projection matrix



pseudo inverse of H

If H is not full rank, then

1. $H = \hat{Q} \hat{R}$ $\hat{Q} \hat{x}' = \hat{y}$

full rank $\hat{y} = \hat{Q} (\hat{Q}^* \hat{Q})^{-1} \hat{Q}^* \hat{y}$

2. Suppose you know the rank of H . Then you can search for the columns that are not independent from the rest.

3. $\hat{y} = H (H^* H)^{-1} H^* y$

Take the pseudo-inverse by SVD's pseudo-inverse, which is a better option.

Weighted Least Squares

$$e = \underline{y} - H \underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ \vdots \\ e_N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\| \underline{y} - H \underline{x} \|_W^2 = (\underline{y} - H \underline{x})^* W (\underline{y} - H \underline{x})$$

$$W > 0, \quad W = U \Lambda U^*$$

$$e^* W e$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1^* \\ \vdots \\ u_N^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} U^*$$

eigenvectors

$$e^* \begin{bmatrix} u_1^* \\ \vdots \\ u_N^* \end{bmatrix} \Lambda \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_N \end{bmatrix} e$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \langle e, u_1 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle e, u_N \rangle \end{bmatrix}^* \begin{bmatrix} \langle e, u_1 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle e, u_N \rangle \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{errors in each direction}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^N \lambda_k |\langle e, u_k \rangle|^2$$

If $U = I, e_i$

$$\| \underline{a} \|_W^2 = \underline{a}^* W \underline{a} = \langle \underline{a}, \underline{a} \rangle \quad \underline{a} \in \mathbb{C}^N$$

What should be the new inner product?

$$\langle \underline{a}, \underline{b} \rangle_W = \underline{b}^* W \underline{a} \quad \leftarrow \text{New inner product}$$

$$\hat{\underline{x}} \text{ is minimizing } \| \underline{y} - H \hat{\underline{x}} \|_W^2 \xrightarrow{\text{P.T.}} (\underline{y} - H \hat{\underline{x}}) \perp R(H)$$

$$\langle \underline{y} - H \hat{\underline{x}}, h_i \rangle_W = 0 \quad (i=1, \dots, n)$$

$$h_1^* W (\underline{y} - H \hat{\underline{x}}) = 0$$

$$h_2^* W (\underline{y} - H \hat{\underline{x}}) = 0$$

$$h_3^* W (\underline{y} - H \hat{\underline{x}}) = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} h_1^* \\ \vdots \\ h_n^* \end{bmatrix} W (\underline{y} - H \hat{\underline{x}}) = \underline{0}$$

$w > 0 \Rightarrow w_0 > 0$ (check)

$H^*WH \hat{x} = H^*Wy$ Normal Equations

$\det(H^*WH) = \det(H^*) \det(H)$

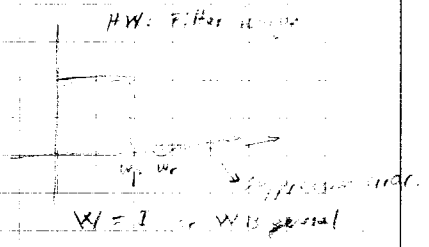
If H is full rank $\Rightarrow H^*WH$ is invertible (show this!)

$\hat{x} = (H^*WH)^{-1} H^*Wy$

Suppose H^*WH is not invertible, then:

$(\epsilon I + H^*WH)$

Regularization



A^*A is always PSD. If H is not full rank H^*WH is PSD.

ϵI is PD $\Rightarrow \epsilon I + H^*WH > 0$

$x^*(A+B)x > 0$ $x \neq 0$
 $A > 0$ $B > 0$

$x^*Ax + x^*Bx > 0$
 $\underbrace{x^*Ax}_{> 0} + \underbrace{x^*Bx}_{> 0}$

Regularized Least Squares

The new cost function

$J(x) = \|y - Hx\|_W^2 + (x - x_0)^* \Pi_0^{-1} (x - x_0)$ $\Pi_0 > 0$

Π_0^{-1} a weighting matrix
 Trying to keep x as close to x_0 as possible.
 Measure of distance of x from x_0 .

$\Pi_0 = 0.0001 \times I$ vs. $10.00 \times I$.

★ If we don't have enough information to fix x to a single point ($H^*WH \geq 0$), then keep x as close to x_0 as possible. ($x_0 =$ a priori information)

Π_0^{-1} reflects confidence about a priori information. (Maybe prob. of multiple translations) ★

Π_0 is not necessarily diagonal. Then, in some directions you have more confidence.

Π_0 can be a certain covariance matrix.

$x_0 \approx$ a priori guess about the solution

$J(x) = L + R$
 \downarrow Linear model (weather today)
 \rightarrow statistics from the past (weather statistics)
 Last 6 days

$$\underline{x}' = \underline{x} - \underline{x}_0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{y} - H\underline{x} &= \underline{y} - H(\underline{x}' + \underline{x}_0) \\ &= \underbrace{(\underline{y} - H\underline{x}_0)}_{\underline{y}'} - H\underline{x}' \end{aligned}$$

$$= \underline{y}' - H\underline{x}'$$

$$J(\underline{x}') = \|\underline{y}' - H\underline{x}'\|_W^2 + \underline{x}'^* \Pi_0^{-1} \underline{x}'$$

$X X^* \rightarrow$ There can be many such factorizations. One is Cholesky.

$\underline{y} \in \mathbb{C}^N$
 $\underline{x} \in \mathbb{C}^1$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (\underline{y}' - H\underline{x}')^* W (\underline{y}' - H\underline{x}') + \underline{x}'^* \Pi_0^{-1} \underline{x}' \\ &= (\underline{y}' - H\underline{x}')^* W (\underline{y}' - H\underline{x}') + (\underline{e} - \Pi_0^{-1/2} \underline{x}')^* I (\underline{e} - \Pi_0^{-1/2} \underline{x}') \end{aligned}$$

$$\underline{x}^* P_1 \underline{a} + \underline{b}^* P_2 \underline{b} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{a} \\ \underline{b} \end{bmatrix}^* \begin{bmatrix} P_1 & 0 \\ 0 & P_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \underline{a} \\ \underline{b} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \left(\begin{bmatrix} \underline{y}' \\ \underline{e} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} H \\ \Pi_0^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \underline{x}' \right)^* \begin{pmatrix} W & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{pmatrix} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \underline{y}' \\ \underline{e} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} H \\ \Pi_0^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \underline{x}' \right)$$

$$= \left\| \begin{bmatrix} \underline{y}' \\ \underline{e} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} H \\ \Pi_0^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \underline{x}' \right\|_{\begin{bmatrix} W & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}}^2$$

Let's define an inner product space

$$(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle): V = \mathbb{C}^{(N+1) \times 1}$$

$$\underline{a}, \underline{b} \in V \Rightarrow \langle \underline{a}, \underline{b} \rangle_{\begin{bmatrix} W & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}} \triangleq \underline{a}^* \begin{bmatrix} W & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \underline{b}$$

$(N+1) \times (N+1)$

P.T. $\left(\begin{bmatrix} \underline{y}' \\ \underline{e} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} H \\ \Pi_0^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \underline{x}' \right) \perp R \left(\begin{bmatrix} H \\ \Pi_0^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \right)$

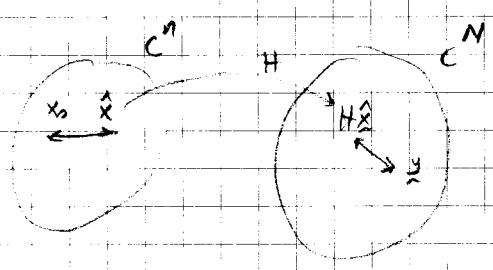
$$\begin{bmatrix} H^* & \Pi_0^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} W & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \underline{y}' \\ \underline{e} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} H \\ \Pi_0^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \underline{x}' \right) = \underline{0}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} H^* W & \Pi_0^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \underline{y}' \\ \underline{e} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} H \\ \Pi_0^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix} \underline{x}' \right) = \underline{0}$$

$$\boxed{(H^* W H + \Pi_0^{-1}) \underline{x}' = H^* W \underline{y}'}$$

$$\hat{x}' = (H^*WH + \Pi_0^{-1})^{-1} H^*W y'$$

$$\hat{x} = (H^*WH + \Pi_0^{-1})^{-1} H^*W (y - Hx_0) + x_0$$



If multiple x_0 initial guesses, then $\alpha^* P_1 y + \beta^* P_2 y + \dots$ \nearrow Bad

Indefinite hermitian $\Pi_0 \geq 0$ stabilizes $\Pi_0 \rightarrow$ \nearrow Bad

Indefinite hermitian $\Pi_0 \geq 0$ stabilizes $\Pi_0 \rightarrow$ \nearrow Bad

Bad Hilbert Space \rightarrow \nearrow Bad

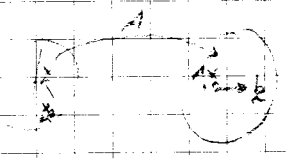
Inner space \rightarrow PD definit

Indefinite metric \rightarrow \nearrow Bad

Euclidean distance \rightarrow \nearrow Bad

DETERMINISTIC LEAST SQUARES

$$Ax = b$$



Ordinary L.S.	Weighted L.S.	Regularized L.S.
$\min_x \ Ax - b\ _2$	$\min_x \ Ax - b\ _W$	$J(x) = \ Ax - b\ _W^2 + (x - x_0)^* \Pi_0^{-1} (x - x_0)$
$\hat{x} = (A^*A)^{-1} A^*b$ <small>pseudo-inverse of A</small>	$\hat{x} = (A^*WA)^{-1} A^*Wb$	$\hat{x} = x_0 + (\Pi_0^{-1} + A^*WA)^{-1} A^*W(b - Ax_0)$

UPDATING LEAST SQUARES SOLUTIONS: RLS ALGORITHM

$$Hx \cong y$$

$$H_{i-1} = \begin{bmatrix} h_{01}^* \\ \vdots \\ h_{i-1,1}^* \end{bmatrix} \quad y_{i-1} = \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ \vdots \\ y_{i-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$\hat{x}_{i-1} = \arg \min \|H_{i-1}x - y_{i-1}\|_2$ or \hat{x}_{i-1} is the solution of regularized LS for (H_{i-1}, y_{i-1}) .

$$H_i = \begin{bmatrix} H_{i-1} \\ h_i^* \end{bmatrix} \quad y_i = \begin{bmatrix} y_{i-1} \\ y_i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{x}_i = ?$$

Suppose \hat{x}_{i-1} is the solution of

$$\min_{\tilde{x}} (x^* \Pi_0^{-1} x + \|y_{i-1} - H_{i-1} x\|_2^2)$$

instead of W . In the more general case, W needs to extend to incorporate the new dimensions

We want to obtain the solution \hat{x}_i for

$$\min_{\tilde{x}} (x^* \Pi_0^{-1} x + \|y_i - H_i x\|_2^2)$$

$$\hat{x}_{i-1} = (\Pi_0^{-1} + H_{i-1}^* H_{i-1})^{-1} H_{i-1}^* y_{i-1}$$

$$\hat{x}_i = (\Pi_0^{-1} + H_i^* H_i)^{-1} H_i^* y_i$$

$$H_i = \begin{bmatrix} H_{i-1} \\ h_i^* \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_i = \begin{bmatrix} y_{i-1} \\ y_i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{x}_i = (\Pi_0^{-1} + \begin{bmatrix} H_{i-1}^* & h_i^* \\ h_i & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} H_{i-1} \\ h_i^* \end{bmatrix})^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} H_{i-1}^* & h_i^* \\ h_i & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_{i-1} \\ y_i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= (\Pi_0^{-1} + H_{i-1}^* H_{i-1} + h_i h_i^*)^{-1} (H_{i-1}^* y_{i-1} + h_i y_i)$$

$$P_i = (\Pi_0^{-1} + H_i^* H_i)^{-1} \quad P_{i-1} = (\Pi_0^{-1} + H_{i-1}^* H_{i-1})^{-1}$$

$$= (P_{i-1}^{-1} + h_i h_i^*)^{-1}$$

$$= P_{i-1} - P_{i-1} h_i (I + h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i)^{-1} h_i^* P_{i-1}$$

$$(A + BCD)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1} B (C^{-1} + D A^{-1} B)^{-1} D A^{-1}$$

$$P_i = P_{i-1} - \frac{P_{i-1} h_i h_i^* P_{i-1}}{(1 + h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i)}$$

Note that

$$\hat{x}_{i-1} = P_{i-1} H_{i-1}^* y_{i-1}$$

$$\hat{x}_i = P_i H_i^* y_i = P_i (H_{i-1}^* y_{i-1} + h_i y_i)$$

$$\hat{x}_i = \left(P_{i-1} - \frac{P_{i-1} h_i h_i^* P_{i-1}}{(1 + h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i)} \right) (H_{i-1}^* y_{i-1} + h_i y_i)$$

$$= P_{i-1} H_{i-1}^* y_{i-1} + P_{i-1} h_i y_i - \frac{P_{i-1} h_i h_i^* P_{i-1} H_{i-1}^* y_{i-1}}{1 + h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i} - \frac{P_{i-1} h_i h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i y_i}{1 + h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i}$$

$$= \hat{x}_{i-1} + P_{i-1} h_i \left(\frac{1 - h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i}{1 + h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i} \right) y_i - \frac{P_{i-1} h_i h_i^* \hat{x}_{i-1}}{(1 + h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i)}$$

$$\hat{x}_i = \hat{x}_{i-1} + \frac{P_{i-1} h_i}{(1 + h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i)} (y_i - h_i^* \hat{x}_{i-1})$$

$$O(N^3) \quad P_i = P_{i-1} - \frac{P_{i-1} h_i h_i^* P_{i-1}}{(1 + h_i^* P_{i-1} h_i)} \quad P_0 = \Pi_0$$

A special case of Kalman filtering.

$H_N = \begin{bmatrix} H_{N-1} \\ h_N \end{bmatrix}$ Amount of computation to solve $\|y - H_N x\|^2 + x^T \Pi_0^{-1} x$

$O(N^3) < O(N^2 m)$ in general.

$O(N^2 m)$
↑
 4000 * 1000

If H_N has a special structure, $O(N^3)$ can be reduced to $O(N)$.

Fast algorithms exists. If H_N is a convolution matrix, it has a shift structure. (presented in the book in a section)

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} h_0 & & & h_L \\ h_{-1} & h_0 & & h_L \\ h_{-2} & h_{-1} & h_0 & \dots & h_L \end{bmatrix}$$

Toeplitz matrix

FFT?

STOCHASTIC ESTIMATION

(models the ambiguity)
 Probabilistic Info.

Observations

(using the structure)
 (current measurements)

Preliminary Info:

Random Vectors

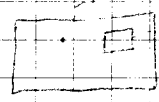
Probability Space $(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n), P)$

sample space

event space
 (a set of intervals & their intersections)

probability measure

$$f_x(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$



has a prob. = $\int_{\mathcal{E}} f_x(x) dx$

Mean $E\{x\} = \begin{bmatrix} E\{x_1\} \\ \vdots \\ E\{x_n\} \end{bmatrix} = \int \dots \int x f_x(\dots) dx_1 \dots dx_n$

Correlation Matrix: $E\{x x^T\} \geq 0$ (when $x \neq 0$)

x - bit ambiguous depends on what P.S.

Covariance Matrix: $E\{y y^T\} = E\{(x - E\{x\})(x - E\{x\})^T\}$

$$y = x - E\{x\}$$

$$= E\{x(x - E\{x\})^T\} - E\{E\{x\}(x - E\{x\})^T\}$$

$$= E\{x x^T\} - E\{x\} E\{x\}^T$$

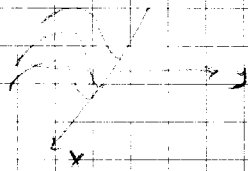
Complex Vectors

Correlation Matrix: $E\{x x^H\}$

Covariance Matrix: $E\{x x^H\} - E\{x\} E\{x\}^H$

PROBLEM OF STOCHASTIC ESTIMATION

→ Estimating random variable x from random variable y



Knowledge of y reduces the ambiguity in x .

$$E[(\hat{x} - x)^2] \rightarrow \text{mean square error.}$$

y : even $0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 2^2 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 4^2 \cdot \frac{1}{3} = \frac{20}{3} \rightarrow \text{choosing } 2 \rightarrow \frac{7}{3}$ P. of error

$2^2 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 4^2 \cdot \frac{1}{3} = \frac{8}{3} \rightarrow \text{choosing } 4 \rightarrow \frac{2}{3}$

if no y : $\frac{1}{6}$ mean square estimate: 3.5 \rightarrow P of error = 1.

STOCHASTIC LEAST SQUARES ESTIMATION

1. SCALAR CASE:

(μ, σ are not enough)

Given r.v.s x, y , we know f_{xy} . We observe y . We would like to estimate

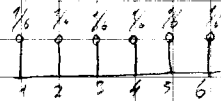
x using observation y .

$$\hat{x} = h(y) \begin{cases} \text{We can use different criteria such as} \\ \text{- Probability of error } P(\hat{x} \neq x) \rightarrow \text{For continuous variables, it generally becomes 1.} \\ \text{- MSE } E[(x - \hat{x})^2] \end{cases}$$

We choose $E[(x - \hat{x})^2]$

- Suppose no y value is given

$$\hat{x} = a$$



$$E[(x-a)^2] = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{6}$$

a that minimizes $E[(x-a)^2]$ is $a = E(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} E[(x-a)^2] &= E[(x-E(x) + E(x)-a)^2] = E[(x-E(x))^2] + 2E[(x-E(x))(E(x)-a)] + (E(x)-a)^2 \\ &= E[(x-E(x))^2] + (E(x)-a)^2 \\ &= \sigma_x^2 + (E(x)-a)^2 \quad (\text{minimized at } a = E(x)) \end{aligned}$$

Var - uncertainty instead of guess? σ_{guess}

- Suppose you know the value of y

Die experiment: $y = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq 3 \\ 1 & x > 3 \end{cases}$

$y = 1 \quad P_{xy}(x|y=1) = \frac{1/6}{1/3} = \frac{1}{3}$

Calculate new pmf of x pdf

$$P_{x|y}(x|y) = \frac{P_{xy}(x,y)}{P_y(y)}$$

$$f_{x|y}(x|y) = \frac{f_{xy}(x,y)}{f_y(y)}$$

The best MSE estimate = mean calculated based on new pmf

$E(x|y) \leftarrow$ in general a nonlinear function of y
- you need to know $f_{x|y}$ in general.

Constrain estimator to be linear fraction of y .

$$\hat{x} = ay + b \quad E(x - \hat{x})^2$$

(Best linear MSE estimator)

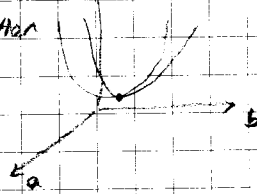
1. Approach

$$E(x - (ay + b))^2 = f(a, b)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial a} = 0$$

Convex function
(Why?)

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial b} = 0$$



2. Approach

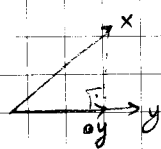
Assume first x, y zero mean

$$\hat{x} = ay \quad E(\hat{x}) = E(ay + b) = aE(y) + b = 0$$

Define a Hilbert (Inner product) Space zero mean random variables with inner product

$$\langle a, b \rangle = E(ab^*) \xrightarrow{\text{Induced Norm}} \|a\| = \langle a, a \rangle^{1/2} = (E(aa^*))^{1/2} = \sqrt{E(|a|^2)}$$

$$E(x - ay)^2 = \|x - ay\|^2$$



P.T. $(x - ay) \perp y$

Estimation error should be orthogonal to observations

$$\langle x - ay, y \rangle = 0$$

$$E((x - ay)y^*) = 0$$

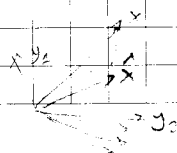
Estimation error and y should be uncorrelated.

$$E(xy^*) - aE(yy^*) = 0$$

$$a = \frac{E(xy^*)}{E(yy^*)} = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\langle y, y \rangle}$$

$$\hat{x} = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\langle y, y \rangle} y$$

If multiple observations, then this is equivalent to projection into the span of Y .



If x, y were not zero mean

$$E(x) = \mu_x \quad E(y) = \mu_y$$

Define $x' = x - \mu_x \quad E(x') = 0$

$$y' = y - \mu_y \quad E(y') = 0$$

$$\hat{x}' = \frac{\langle x', y' \rangle}{\langle y', y' \rangle} y'$$

$$\hat{x} - E(x) = \hat{x}' = \frac{E((x - \mu_x)(y - \mu_y)^*)}{E((y - \mu_y)(y - \mu_y)^*)} (y - \mu_y)$$

$$\hat{x} = \mu_x + \frac{\langle (x - E(x)), (y - E(y)) \rangle}{\langle (y - E(y)), (y - E(y)) \rangle} (y - \mu_y)$$

(without loss of generality)

For the rest of our classes we'll assume zero mean r.v.s WLOG.

2. VECTOR CASE:

Suppose $x \in C^m \leftarrow$ Desired

$y_i \in C^p \quad (i=1, \dots, N) \leftarrow$ Observations

What is the best linear minimum MSE estimate of x_i from y_i 's?

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x} &= K_1 y_1 + K_2 y_2 + \dots + K_N y_N \\ &= [K_1 \ K_2 \ \dots \ K_N] \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} = K y \end{aligned}$$

$$\hat{x} = K y$$

Estimation error: $e = x - K y \in C^m \rightarrow$ PSD matrix \rightarrow You can compare covariance matrices.

Criterion: minimize $E(e e^*) = P(K)$

\Rightarrow Find K_0 such that

$$P(K) \geq P(K_0) \text{ for all } K.$$

Approach: Geometric approach

$$e_k \perp y_l \quad \begin{matrix} k=1, \dots, m \\ l=1, \dots, Np \end{matrix}$$

$$E(e_k y_k^*) = 0$$

$$E(R y^*) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \langle R, y \rangle = 0 \quad E \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right) = E(e_k y_k^*)$$

Given vectors $\underline{a}, \underline{b}$ we can

define a generalized inner product

$$\langle \underline{a}, \underline{b} \rangle = E(\underline{a} \underline{b}^*)$$

$$E(\underline{e}_k y^*) = 0$$

$$E((x_k - K_0 y_k) y_k^*) = 0$$

$$E(x_k y_k^*) = K_0 E(y_k y_k^*)$$

← May have infinitely many solutions

if R_y is singular

$$\langle x, y \rangle = K_0 \langle y, y \rangle$$

$$R_{xy} = K_0 R_y$$

No longer a scalar

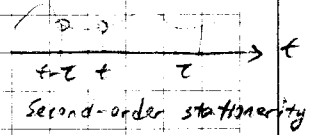
If R_y is nonsingular

$$K_0 = R_{xy} R_y^{-1} = \langle x, y \rangle \langle y, y \rangle^{-1}$$

Examples

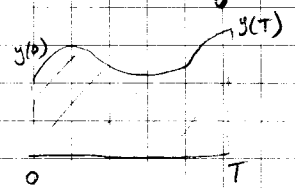
1. Consider zero-mean real valued $y(t)$ with autocovariance function

$$R_y(\tau) = \langle y(t), y(t-\tau) \rangle$$



Find the best linear MMSE estimator of its integral

$$z = \int_0^T y(t) dt \text{ from its end points } y(0), y(T)$$



Solution: Find estimate of z from $y(0), y(T)$

$$\hat{z} = a y(0) + b y(T)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a & b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y(0) \\ y(T) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$K = \langle z, y \rangle \langle y, y \rangle^{-1}$$

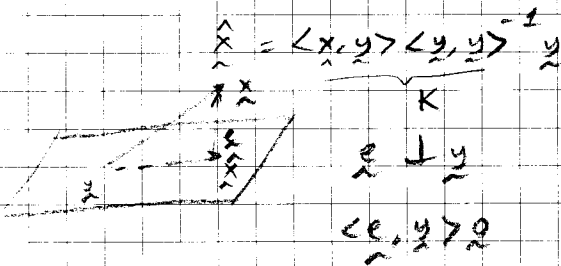
$$\text{Tr } E(e e^*) = \dots$$

LINEAR MMSE ESTIMATION THEORY

- Estimating a zero-mean r.v. x from y

$$\hat{x} = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\langle y, y \rangle} y \quad \langle x, y \rangle = E(x y^*)$$

- Estimate of a random vector \underline{x} from random vector \underline{y}



$$\hat{\underline{x}} = \frac{\langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle \langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle^{-1}}{K} \underline{y}$$

$$\underline{e} \perp \underline{y}$$

$$\langle \underline{e}, \underline{y} \rangle = 0$$

$$\underline{e} = \underline{x} - K \underline{y}$$

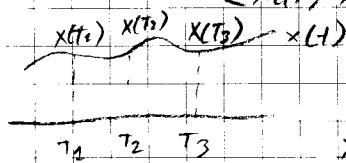
$$\langle \underline{x} - K \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle = K \langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle$$

$$K = \langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle \langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle^{-1}$$

Example 2: Consider a zero mean scalar process $\{x(t)\}$ with

$$\langle x(t), x(t-\tau) \rangle = R_x(\tau) = e^{-\alpha|\tau|}$$



Find the best linear MMSE estimate of $x(T_3)$ from

$x(T_1)$ and $x(T_2)$. ($T_1 < T_2 < T_3$)

Desired: $z = x(T_3)$

Observations: $\underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} x(T_1) \\ x(T_2) \end{bmatrix}$

$$\hat{z} = \frac{\langle z, \underline{y} \rangle}{\langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle} \underline{y}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle z, \underline{y} \rangle &= \langle x(T_3), \begin{bmatrix} x(T_1) \\ x(T_2) \end{bmatrix} \rangle = E(x(T_3) [x^*(T_1) \ x^*(T_2)]^T) \\ &= [E(x(T_3)x^*(T_1)) \ E(x(T_3)x^*(T_2))] \\ &= e^{-\alpha(T_3-T_1)} \cdot e^{-\alpha(T_3-T_2)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle &= E(\underline{y} \underline{y}^*) = E \left[\begin{bmatrix} x(T_1) \\ x(T_2) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x^*(T_1) & x^*(T_2) \end{bmatrix} \right] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} E(x(T_1)x^*(T_1)) & E(x(T_1)x^*(T_2)) \\ E(x(T_2)x^*(T_1)) & E(x(T_2)x^*(T_2)) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & e^{-\alpha(T_2 - T_1)} \\ e^{-\alpha(T_2 - T_1)} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -e^{-\alpha(T_2 - T_1)} \\ -e^{-\alpha(T_2 - T_1)} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1 - e^{-2\alpha(T_2 - T_1)}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \underline{z}, \underline{z} \rangle \langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_1)} & e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)} \\ e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_1)} & e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -e^{-\alpha(T_2 - T_1)} \\ -e^{-\alpha(T_2 - T_1)} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1 - e^{-2\alpha(T_2 - T_1)}} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} (e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_1)} - e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)}) & 0 \\ 0 & (e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_1)} - e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)}) \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1 - e^{-2\alpha(T_2 - T_1)}} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)} \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1 - e^{-2\alpha(T_2 - T_1)}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\langle \underline{z}, \underline{z} \rangle \langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)} \\ e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{\underline{x}}(T_3) = \hat{\underline{z}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)} \\ e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x(T_1) \\ x(T_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= e^{-\alpha(T_3 - T_2)} x(T_2)$$

→ Do not use $x(T_1)$. This is a special case

for the exponential r.v. we have used
↳ memoryless property of the autocorrelation function.

LINEAR MODELS

\underline{y} → Observation vector ($p \times 1$)

\underline{x} → Desired vector ($N \times 1$)

In many applications

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{y} &= H\underline{x} + \underline{v} & \underline{x}, \underline{v} \text{ zero mean} & \left. \begin{aligned} R_{\underline{x}} &= \langle \underline{x}, \underline{x} \rangle \\ R_{\underline{v}} &= \langle \underline{v}, \underline{v} \rangle \end{aligned} \right\} \text{are known.} \\ \text{observation} & \quad \text{desired} & \quad \text{noise} & \\ H \in \mathbb{C} & \quad \quad \quad & \quad \quad \quad & \end{aligned}$$

Goal: $\hat{\underline{x}} = K\underline{y}$

$$\hat{\underline{x}} = \langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle \langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle^{-1}$$

$$\langle H\underline{x}, \underline{x} \rangle = H \langle \underline{x}, \underline{x} \rangle$$

$$\langle \underline{x}, \underline{y} \rangle = \langle \underline{x}, H\underline{x} + \underline{v} \rangle = \langle \underline{x}, H\underline{x} \rangle + \langle \underline{x}, \underline{v} \rangle \quad (\text{Linearity of the inner product})$$

$$= E(\underline{x} \underline{x}^*) H^*$$

$$= \langle \underline{x}, \underline{x} \rangle H^*$$

$$= R_{\underline{x}} H^*$$

$$\langle y, y \rangle = \langle Hx + v, Hx + v \rangle = \langle Hx, Hx \rangle + \langle Hx, v \rangle + \langle v, Hx \rangle + \langle v, v \rangle$$

$$= H \langle x, x \rangle H^* + \langle v, v \rangle$$

$$= H R_x H^* + R_v$$

$$\hat{x} = R_x H^* (H R_x H^* + R_v)^{-1} y$$

If we assume R_x, R_v invertible

Apply MIL $\hat{x} = R_x H^* (R_x^{-1} - R_v^{-1} H (R_x^{-1} + H^* R_v^{-1} H)^{-1} H^* R_v^{-1}) y$

$$= R_x (I - H^* R_v^{-1} H (R_x^{-1} + H^* R_v^{-1} H)^{-1}) H^* R_v^{-1} y$$

$$= R_x (R_x^{-1} (R_x^{-1} + H^* R_v^{-1} H)^{-1}) H^* R_v^{-1} y$$

$$\hat{x} = (R_x^{-1} + H^* R_v^{-1} H)^{-1} H^* R_v^{-1} y$$

$$\hat{x} = R_x H^* (R_x + H R_x H^*)^{-1} y$$

$R_v^{-1} = \sigma_v^{-2} I$ (in general)
We can also choose R_x to be white.

$p \rightarrow \infty, \dots$

$N \rightarrow \infty$

Resemblance with Regularized Deterministic Least Squares

Regularized Least Squares

Stochastic Least Squares with Non-zero Means

$$(\underline{x} - \underline{x}_0)^T \Pi_0^{-1} (\underline{x} - \underline{x}_0) + \|\underline{y} - H\underline{x} - \underline{v}_0\|_W^2$$

$$\hat{x} = \underline{x}_0 + (\Pi_0^{-1} + H^* W H)^{-1} H^* W (\underline{y} - H\underline{x}_0 - \underline{v}_0)$$

$$\hat{x} = \underline{m}_x + (R_x^{-1} + H^* R_v^{-1} H)^{-1} H^* R_v^{-1} (\underline{y} - H\underline{m}_x - \underline{m}_v)$$

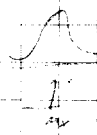
$\underline{v}_0 \rightarrow \underline{m}_v$

$\underline{x}_0 \rightarrow \underline{m}_x$

$\Pi_0 \rightarrow R_x$

$W \rightarrow R_v^{-1}$

→ when covariance, R_x , is small, Π_0^{-1} is large.



$$R_v = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{v_1}^2 & \\ & \sigma_{v_2}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{v_1}^{-2} & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_{v_2}^{-2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\|\underline{y}_1 + H_{1,1} \underline{x}\|_{\sigma_{v_1}^{-2}}^2 + \|\underline{y}_2 + H_{2,2} \underline{x}\|_{\sigma_{v_2}^{-2}}^2$$

$$\sigma_{v_1} > \sigma_{v_2} \Rightarrow \sigma_{v_1}^{-2} < \sigma_{v_2}^{-2} \quad \text{Weighted more}$$

Gives more weight to the observations with smaller noise.

If noise is very large, R will diminish.

Signal to noise ratio is important. (power of the signal) $(HR_x H^* \text{ vs. } R_y)$ \rightarrow Is there a condition number of an estimation problem?

\underline{x} from \underline{y}

$$\hat{\underline{x}} = K \underline{y}$$

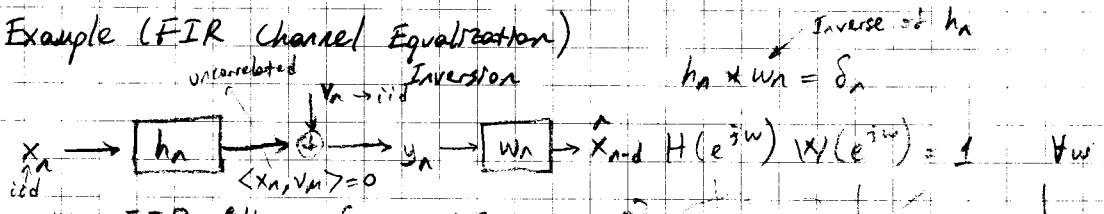
$$\underline{\hat{x}} - \underline{\hat{x}} \perp \underline{y} \Rightarrow E((\underline{x} - \hat{\underline{x}}) \underline{y}^*) = 0$$

$$E((\underline{x} - K \underline{y}) \underline{y}^*) = 0$$

$$R_{xy} = K R_y$$

$$R_y > 0 \rightarrow K = R_{xy} R_y^{-1}$$

Example (FIR Channel Equalization)



Determine w_n : FIR filter $\{w_n; n \in \{0, \dots, M-1\}\}$

Equal at all frequencies

such that $E((x_{n-d} - \hat{x}_{n-d})^2)$ is minimized.

$$\hat{x}_{n-d} = w_0 y_n + w_1 y_{n-1} + \dots + w_{M-1} y_{n-M+1}$$

$$= [w_0 \dots w_{M-1}] \begin{bmatrix} y_n \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-M+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{x}_{n-d} = W y_n$$

$$W = R_{x_{n-d} y_n}^{-1} R_{y_n x_{n-d}}$$

Assuming h_n is FIR also with N taps

$$\underline{y}_n = \begin{bmatrix} y_n \\ \vdots \\ y_{n-M+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y_n = h_0 x_n + h_1 x_{n-1} + \dots + h_{N-1} x_{n-N+1} + v_n$$

$$y_{n-1} = h_0 x_{n-1} + h_1 x_{n-2} + \dots + h_{N-1} x_{n-N} + v_{n-1}$$

$$\underline{y}_n = \begin{bmatrix} h_0 & h_1 & \dots & h_{N-1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & h_0 & h_1 & \dots & h_{N-1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ h_0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & h_{N-1} & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ h_0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & h_{N-1} & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_n \\ x_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n-N+1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n-N-M+2} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} v_n \\ \vdots \\ v_{n-M+1} \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Toeplitz Matrix

$$\underline{y}_n = H \underline{x}_n + \underline{v}_n$$

$$R_{x_{n-d} y_n} = E(x_{n-d} \underline{y}_n^*) = E(x_{n-d} (\underline{x}_n^* H^* + \underline{v}_n^*))$$

$$= E(x_{n-d} \underline{x}_n^*) H^* + E(x_{n-d} \underline{v}_n^*)$$

$$= E \left(x_{n-d} \begin{bmatrix} x_n^* & x_{n-1}^* & \dots & x_{n-M+M+2}^* \end{bmatrix} H^* \right)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_x^2 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} H^*$$

↑
d+1

$$R_{x_{n-d} y_n} = \sigma_x^2 \tilde{e}_{d+1}^T H^*$$

← standard basis vector

$$R_{y_n} = E(y_n y_n^*) = E((Hx_n + v_n)(Hx_n + v_n)^*)$$

$$= E(Hx_n x_n^* H^*) + E(Hx_n v_n^*) + E(v_n x_n^* H^*) + E(v_n v_n^*)$$

$$= H R_{x_n} H^* + R_{v_n}$$

$$= \sigma_x^2 H H^* + \sigma_v^2 I$$

$$W = R_{x_{n-d} y_n} R_{y_n}^{-1} = \sigma_x^2 \tilde{e}_{d+1}^T H^* (\sigma_x^2 H H^* + \sigma_v^2 I)^{-1}$$

$$= \tilde{e}_{d+1}^T H^* (H H^* + \frac{\sigma_v^2}{\sigma_x^2} I)^{-1}$$

ESTIMATION OF RANDOM PROCESSES

$\{s_i\}$ → not observable, desired signal to be estimated

$\{y_i\}$ → observation signal

Known statistics $R_{sy}(i, l) = \langle s_i, y_l \rangle$

$R_y(i, l) = \langle y_i, y_l \rangle$

We'll first look at finite window problem: i.e., estimating $\{s_1, \dots, s_N\}$ from $\{y_1, \dots, y_N\}$. (This is still vector estimation problem)

Three types of problems:

a) Smoothing: to estimate s_i , use $\{y_1, \dots, y_N\}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{s}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{s}_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} k_{11}^{(s)} & \dots & k_{1N}^{(s)} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ k_{N1}^{(s)} & \dots & k_{NN}^{(s)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$

Wiener

$$\hat{\underline{s}} = K^{(s)} \underline{y} \quad K^{(s)} \rightarrow \text{full matrix} \quad K^{(s)} = R_{s y} R_y^{-1}$$

b) Filtering Problem: to estimate s_i , use $\{y_1, \dots, y_i\}$ → causal

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{s}_1 \\ \hat{s}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{s}_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} k_{11}^{(f)} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ k_{21}^{(f)} & k_{22}^{(f)} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k_{N1}^{(f)} & \dots & \dots & k_{NN}^{(f)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{\underline{s}} = K^{(f)} \underline{y} \quad K^{(f)} \rightarrow \text{Lower triangular} \Rightarrow \text{Causal}$$

Hopf

minimize $E((\hat{z} - K^{(H)} y)(\hat{z} - K^{(H)} y)^*)$ s.t. $K^{(H)} \rightarrow$ Lower Triangular.

$s_i - \hat{s}_i \perp y_1, \dots, y_i$

$\{E((\hat{z} - \hat{z}) y^*)\}_{lower} = 0$

$\begin{Bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{Bmatrix}_{lower} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & 0 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$

$\{E((\hat{z} - K^{(H)} y) y^*)\}_{lower} = 0$

$\hat{z} = \hat{z} - \hat{z} \quad E(\hat{z} y^*)$

$\{E(\hat{z} y^* - K^{(H)} y y^*)\}_{lower} = 0$

$\begin{bmatrix} E(e_1 y_1^*) & E(e_1 y_2^*) \\ E(e_2 y_1^*) & E(e_2 y_2^*) \end{bmatrix} \dots I(e_2 y_N^*)$

$\{R_{yy} - K^{(H)} R_y\}_{lower} = 0 \quad K^{(H)} \rightarrow$ Lower Triangular

$\downarrow = 0$

$R_{yy} - K^{(H)} R_y = U \rightarrow$ strictly upper triangular

$R_y = L R_e L^* \quad L \rightarrow$ Lower Triangular (Diagonal elements = 1)

$R_e \rightarrow$ Diagonal

Cholesky Factorization

$R_{yy} - K^{(H)} L R_e L^* = U$

$R_{yy} L^* R_e^{-1} - K^{(H)} L = U L^* R_e^{-1}$
 Full in general lower triangular strictly upper triangular

$K^{(H)} L = \{R_{yy} L^* R_e^{-1}\}_{lower}$

$K^{(H)} = \{R_{yy} L^* R_e^{-1}\}_{lower} L^{-1} \quad \text{vs.} \quad \{R_{yy} L^* R_e^{-1} L^{-1}\}_{lower}$
 ad-hoc solution

\hat{z} from $y \quad \hat{z} = K y$

No constraints on K : $K = R_{yy}^{-1} R_y^*$

$K \rightarrow$ Lower triangular: $K = \{R_{yy} L^* R_e^{-1}\}_{lower} L^{-1} \quad R_y = L R_e L^*$

Example: Signals in additive white noise

$y = \hat{z} + v \quad \langle \begin{bmatrix} \hat{z} \\ v \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \hat{z} \\ v \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \rangle = \begin{bmatrix} R_s & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & R_v & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\rightarrow E(\hat{z} \hat{z}^*) = E(\hat{z}) = 0 \rightarrow$ means are zero.

Causal LMS estimator $K^{(H)} \rightarrow$ Lower triangular

$K^{(H)} = \{R_{yy} L^* R_e^{-1}\}_{lower} L^{-1}$

$R_{yy} = E(\hat{z} y) = E(\hat{z}(\hat{z} + v)) = E(\hat{z} \hat{z}^*) + E(\hat{z} v^*) = R_s$

$$R_y = E(\underline{y} \underline{y}^*) = E((\underline{s} + \underline{v})(\underline{s} + \underline{v})^*) = R_s + R_v$$

$$R_s = R_y - R_v$$

$$K^{(1)} = \left\{ \underbrace{(R_y - R_v)}_{R_{yy}} \underbrace{L^* Re^{-1}}_{\text{lower}} \right\} L^{-1}$$

$$R_{yy} = R_s$$

$$= \left\{ \underbrace{(L Re L^* L^* Re^{-1})}_I - \underbrace{R_v L^* Re^{-1}}_{\text{lower}} \right\} L^{-1}$$

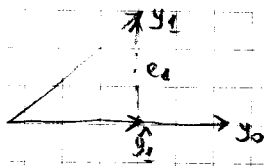
$$K^{(1)} = I - \left\{ R_v L^* Re^{-1} \right\}_{\text{lower}} L^{-1}$$

INNOVATIONS (NEW INFORMATION) PROCESS

Observations y_0, y_1, \dots, y_N

→ Their inner product is the correlation. I can use

either y_0 or y_1 if they are fully correlated.

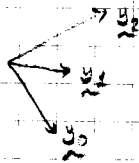


Linear MMSE
 $\hat{y}_1 = \langle y_1, y_0 \rangle \langle y_0, y_0 \rangle^{-1} y_0$ → Prediction of y_1 from y_0 .

$e_1 = y_1 - \hat{y}_1$ ← Prediction error

If $e_1 = 0$, then y_1 does not have any new information than y_0 .

e_1 is the new information embedded inside y_1 .



$$\text{Span}\{y_0, \dots, y_i\} = \text{Span}\{e_0, \dots, e_i\}$$

$$e_0 = y_0 \quad e_2 = y_2 - \hat{y}_2$$

\hat{y}_2 = the prediction of y_2 from e_0, e_1

Projection of y_2 over $\text{Span}\{e_0, e_1\} = \text{Span}\{y_0, y_1\}$

$$\hat{y}_2 = \sum_{k=0}^1 \langle y_2, e_k \rangle \langle e_k, e_k \rangle^{-1} e_k$$

$$\{y_0, \dots, y_N\} \xrightarrow[\text{without normalization}]{\text{Gram-Schmidt}} \{e_0, \dots, e_N\}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ l_{21} & 1 & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x & x & x & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_L \begin{bmatrix} e_0 \\ e_1 \\ \vdots \\ e_N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$e_1 = y_1 - \sum_{k=0}^0 l_{1k} e_k$$

$$y_1 = l_{10} e_0 + e_1$$

$$\underline{\hat{y}} = L \underline{e}$$

→ \underline{e} is related to \underline{y} by a causal mapping
 → \underline{e} is uncorrelated

$$L e = P e \text{ where } P = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_y = \langle \underline{y}, \underline{y} \rangle = \langle L \underline{e}, L \underline{e} \rangle = L \langle \underline{e}, \underline{e} \rangle L^* = L P e L^*$$

↳ since we are not doing normalization P is a diagonal matrix.

Suppose you want to estimate s_i from $\{y_0, \dots, y_N\}$.

$\hat{s}_i =$ Projection of s_i over $\text{span}\{y_0, \dots, y_N\}$
 \parallel
 $\text{span}\{e_0, \dots, e_N\}$

$$\hat{s}_i = \sum_{k=0}^N \langle s_i, e_k \rangle \langle e_k, e_k \rangle^{-1} e_k \rightarrow \text{since } e_k \text{ are uncorrelated, we can just sum the projections.}$$

$$\underline{e} = L^{-1} \underline{y}$$

↳ whitening since the Fourier Transform turns out to be constant at all frequencies. White light has all the frequencies.

$\underline{y} = L \underline{e} \rightarrow$ white since uncorrelated (not necessarily because covariances are equal).
 ↳ coloring
 ↳ colored

ESTIMATION WIDE SENSE STATIONARY RANDOM PROCESSES

Desired: $s_i \quad -\infty < i < \infty$ } jointly (zero mean)
 WSS
 Observation: $y_i \quad -\infty < i < \infty$

$$\text{Stationary process } \{x_i\} \Leftrightarrow f_{x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots, x_{i_n}} = f_{x_{i_1+m}, x_{i_2+m}, \dots, x_{i_n+m}}$$

↳ joint pdf is a function of the difference between the points.
 The process's behavior does not change.

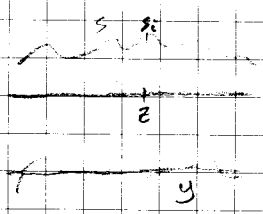
$$\text{WSS } E(x_i x_j^*) = E(x_{i+m} x_{j+m}^*) = R_x(i-j) \quad \forall m$$

$$E(x_i) = m_x \stackrel{\text{for vs}}{=} 0$$

Jointly WSS $\Rightarrow s_i$ is WSS
 $\Rightarrow y_i$ is WSS

$$\Rightarrow E(s_i y_j^*) = R_{sy}(i-j)$$

A. Smoothing



$$\hat{s}_i = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w_{ik} y_k$$

$$s_i - \hat{s}_i \perp y_l \quad -\infty < l < \infty$$

$$\langle s_i - \hat{s}_i, y_l \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle s_i - \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w_{ik} y_k, y_l \rangle = 0 \quad -\infty < l < \infty$$

$$\langle s_i, y_l \rangle - \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w_{ik} \langle y_k, y_l \rangle = 0$$

$$R_{sy}(i-l) - \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w_{ik} R_y(k-l) = 0 \quad -\infty < l < \infty$$

$$k' = k-l \Rightarrow k = k'+l$$

$$i' = i-l \Rightarrow i = i'+l$$

$$R_{sy}(i') - \sum_{k'=-\infty}^{\infty} w_{i'+l, k'+l} R_y(k') = 0 \quad -\infty < l < \infty$$

$$w_{i', k'} = w_{i'+l, k'+l} = w_{i'+l, k'+l} = v_{i'-k'}$$

$$R_{sy}(i') = \sum_{k'=-\infty}^{\infty} v_{i'-k'} R_y(k') \rightarrow \text{convolution.}$$

⇒ If your estimator is time-invariant, WSS, then you obtain a convolution.

$$R_{sy} = V * R_y$$

$$S_{sy}(e^{j\omega}) = \mathcal{F}\{R_{sy}\}$$

$$S_y(e^{j\omega}) = \mathcal{F}\{R_y\}$$

$$S_{sy}(e^{j\omega}) = V(e^{j\omega}) \cdot S_y(e^{j\omega})$$

$$V(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{S_{sy}(e^{j\omega})}{S_y(e^{j\omega})}$$

$\frac{\langle s, y \rangle}{\langle y, y \rangle}$

Wiener Filter

→ cross-spectrum of observations

$$\mathcal{F}\left\{\hat{s}\right\} = \frac{S_{sy}(e^{j\omega})}{S_y(e^{j\omega})} Y(e^{j\omega})$$

$$S_y(e^{j\omega})$$

→ spectrum of observations

B. Filtering

$$\hat{s}_i = \sum_{k=-\infty}^i v_{i-k} y_k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} v_k y_{i-k}$$

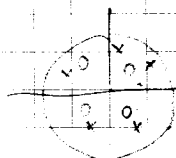
The solution is obtained through Wiener-Hopf procedure.

$$S_y(z) = L(z) r_e L^*(z^{-*})$$

↳ causal and causally invertible (minimum phase)

$L(z) \rightarrow$ poles } inside the unit circle
 z zeros }

$$V(z) = \left\{ \frac{S_{sy}(z) L^*(z^{-*}) r_e}{S_y(z)} \right\}_{\text{causal}} L^+(z)$$



Derivative w.r.t. a matrix:

$$A = E[(x-\hat{x})(x-\hat{x})^T] \quad \hat{x} = Ky + l$$

$$1) \frac{\partial \text{tr}(Aa)}{\partial a^T} \text{ and } \frac{\partial \text{tr}(Aa)}{\partial a^T} \text{ for any } a \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times 1}$$

$$2) \frac{\partial \text{vec}(A)}{\partial \text{vec}(K)}$$

Question: Given that A is a square matrix whose diagonal elements are all 1s. Compute $\det(e^A)$ given that A is diagonalizable.

$$A = TDT^{-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} e^A &= I + A + \frac{A^2}{2!} + \frac{A^3}{3!} + \dots = I + TDT^{-1} + \frac{TD^2T^{-1}}{2!} + \frac{TD^3T^{-1}}{3!} + \dots \\ &= T \left(I + D + \frac{D^2}{2!} + \frac{D^3}{3!} + \dots \right) T^{-1} \\ &= T e^D T^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\det(e^A) = \det(T) \cdot \det(e^D) \cdot \det(T^{-1})$$

$$= \det(e^D)$$

$$= e^{\lambda_1} \cdot e^{\lambda_2} \cdot \dots \cdot e^{\lambda_n}$$

$$= e^{\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i}$$

$$= e^{\text{tr}(D)}$$

$$e^D = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\lambda_1} & & 0 \\ & e^{\lambda_2} & \\ 0 & & e^{\lambda_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

fixed-point iteration

$$Ax = b \Rightarrow Ix + (A-I)x = b$$

$$Ix = (I-A)x + b$$

(Richardson iteration) $x_{k+1} = (I-A)x_k + b$

For convergence we require $\|I-A\| < 1$ > Iteration matrix

If $\|I-A\| \geq 1$, then $Bx = Ix + (BA-I)x = Bb$

$$x_{k+1} = (I-BA)x_k + Bb$$

If B is simple (i.e. diagonal) this is easy to compute. $\|I-BA\|$ is the iteration matrix

Conditional expectation is better than other orthogonal projections, because it preserves positivity ($\mathbb{E}^2 \geq 0 \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}^2 | \mathcal{Y}) \geq 0$) and enjoys the comparison principle ($|f| \leq g \Rightarrow |\mathbb{E}(f | \mathcal{X})| \leq \mathbb{E}(g | \mathcal{Y})$)