

# ECEn 671: Mathematics of Signals and Systems

## Moon: Chapter 4.

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# Section 1

## Linear Operators

# Linear Operators

Recall from Chapter 3 the definition of a Linear operator:

## Definition

Let  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$  be vector spaces, then  $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{Y}$  is a linear operator if

$$\mathcal{A}[\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2] = \alpha_1 \mathcal{A}[x_1] + \alpha_2 \mathcal{A}[x_2]$$

$\forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{X}$  and  $\forall \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{F}$

See chapter 2 notes (slides 79–83) for examples of linear operators.

# Norm of a Linear Operator

An important concept is the norm of an operator. There are several ways to define norms for operators. The most important is the “induced” or “subordinate” norm.

## Definition

Let  $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{Y}$  then

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathcal{A}\| &= \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|\mathcal{A}[x]\|_{\mathbb{Y}}}{\|x\|_{\mathbb{X}}} \\ &= \sup_{\|x\|_{\mathbb{X}}=1} \|\mathcal{A}[x]\|_{\mathbb{Y}}\end{aligned}$$

Different norms on  $\mathcal{A}$  are defined by taking different norms in  $\mathbb{X}$  and  $\mathbb{Y}$ .

# Norm of a Linear Operator, Examples

## Example

Let  $\mathcal{A} : L_2 \rightarrow L_2$  then

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathcal{A}\|_2 &= \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|\mathcal{A}[x]\|_{L_2}}{\|x\|_{L_2}} \\ &= \sup_{\|x\|_{L_2}=1} \|\mathcal{A}[x]\|_{L_2}\end{aligned}$$

## Example

Let  $\mathcal{A} : L_\infty \rightarrow L_\infty$  then

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathcal{A}\|_\infty &= \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|\mathcal{A}[x]\|_{L_\infty}}{\|x\|_{L_\infty}} \\ &= \sup_{\|x\|_{L_\infty}=1} \|\mathcal{A}[x]\|_{L_\infty}\end{aligned}$$

# Norm of a Linear Operator, Examples

## Example

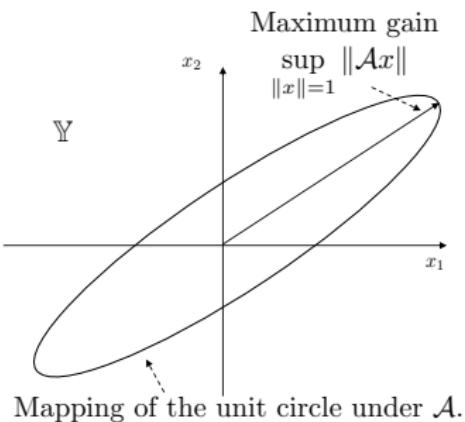
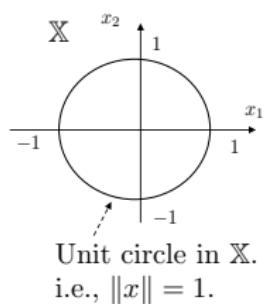
Let  $\mathcal{A} : L_p \rightarrow L_p$  then

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathcal{A}\|_p &= \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|\mathcal{A}[x]\|_{L_p}}{\|x\|_{L_p}} \\ &= \sup_{\|x\|_{L_p}=1} \|\mathcal{A}[x]\|_{L_p}\end{aligned}$$

Why is it called the induced or subordinate norm? The norm on the operator is induced by the vector norm.

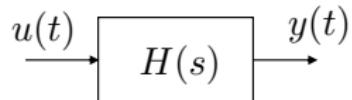
# Norm of a Linear Operator, Geometric Interpretation

$$\|A\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|$$



# Norm of a Linear Operator, System Interpretation

Given a linear system



The norm of the system  $H(s)$  is the maximum gain of the system.

## Norm of BIBO System

Let  $\mathcal{A} : L_\infty \rightarrow L_\infty$  be an LTI system that is BIBO stable with impulse response  $h(t)$ , then

$$y(t) = \int_0^t h(t-\tau)u(\tau)d\tau \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \mathcal{A}[u]$$

Find  $\|\mathcal{A}\|_\infty$ .

# Norm of BIBO System, cont

Lemma

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathcal{A}\|_{\infty} &= \|h\|_{L_1[0,\infty]} \\ &\triangleq \int_0^{\infty} |h(t)| dt\end{aligned}$$

Proof.

We need to prove two things

1.  $\|\mathcal{A}\|_{\infty} \leq \int_0^{\infty} |h(t)| dt$

2.  $\int_0^{\infty} |h(t)| dt \leq \|\mathcal{A}\|_{\infty}$



# Norm of BIBO System, Proof

## Proof of 1.

$$\begin{aligned}\sup_{\|x\|_\infty=1} \|\mathcal{A}[u]\|_\infty &= \sup_{\|u\|_\infty=1} \left\| \int_0^t h(t-\tau)u(\tau)d\tau \right\|_\infty \\&= \sup_{\|u\|_\infty=1} \left[ \sup_{t>0} \left| \int_0^t h(t-\tau)u(\tau)d\tau \right| \right] \\&\leq \sup_{\|u\|_\infty=1} \left[ \sup_{t>0} \int_0^t |h(t-\tau)u(\tau)| d\tau \right] \\&\leq \sup_{\|u\|_\infty=1} \left[ \|u\|_\infty \sup_{t>0} \int_0^t |h(t-\tau)| d\tau \right] \\&\leq \int_0^\infty |h(\tau)| d\tau = \|h\|_{L_1[0,\infty]}$$

## Norm of BIBO System, Proof

### Proof of 2.

$$\text{Let } \hat{u}_t(\tau) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } h(t - \tau) \geq 0 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Note that  $\|\hat{u}_t\|_\infty = 1 \ \forall t > 0$ , we have that

$$\int_0^t h(t - \tau) \hat{u}_t(\tau) d\tau = \int_0^t |h(t - \tau)| d\tau.$$

Therefore for this particular choice of  $\hat{u}_t$  we have that

$$\sup_{t>0} \left[ \int_0^t |h(t - \tau)| d\tau \right] = \|A\hat{u}_\infty\|_\infty = \int_0^\infty |h(\tau)| d\tau.$$

By definition of sup

$$\int_0^\infty |h(\tau)| d\tau = \|A\hat{u}_\infty\|_\infty \leq \sup_{\|u\|=1} \|Au\|_\infty.$$

# Operator Norm: Proof Technique

The proof technique shown here is the general approach to show that the norm of an operator is some value.

Suppose that you would like to prove that

$$\|\mathcal{A}\| = M.$$

You need to show two things

1.  $\|\mathcal{A}\| \leq M$
2.  $M \leq \|\mathcal{A}\|$ .

## Operator Norm: Proof Technique

To show (1) use triangle and other inequalities to show that

$$\|\mathcal{A}x\| \leq M \|x\|$$

which implies that

$$\sup_{\|x\|=1} \|\mathcal{A}x\| \leq \sup_{\|x\|=1} M \|x\| = M$$

To show (2), construct a specific  $\hat{x}$  such that

$$\|\hat{x}\| = 1 \text{ and } \|\mathcal{A}\hat{x}\| = M.$$

This implies that

$$M \leq \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|\mathcal{A}x\| = \|\mathcal{A}\|.$$

# Properties of Linear Operators

## Lemma

*For any induced operator norm,*

$$\|\mathcal{A}x\| \leq \|\mathcal{A}\| \|x\|.$$

Proof.

$$\|\mathcal{A}\| = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|\mathcal{A}x\|}{\|x\|}.$$

Therefore for any  $x \neq 0$  we must have that

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathcal{A}\| &\geq \frac{\|\mathcal{A}x\|}{\|x\|} \\ \Rightarrow \|\mathcal{A}x\| &\leq \|\mathcal{A}\| \|x\|.\end{aligned}$$



# Properties of Linear Operators, cont

## Lemma

All induced operator norms satisfy the “submultiplicative property,” i.e.,

$$\|\mathcal{A}\mathcal{B}\| \leq \|\mathcal{A}\| \|\mathcal{B}\|$$

## Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathcal{A}\mathcal{B}\| &= \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|\mathcal{A}\mathcal{B}x\| \\ &\leq \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|\mathcal{A}\| \|\mathcal{B}x\| \\ &\leq \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|\mathcal{A}\| \|\mathcal{B}\| \|x\| \\ &= \|\mathcal{A}\| \|\mathcal{B}\|\end{aligned}$$

# Properties of Linear Operators, cont

## Definition

An operator  $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{Y}$  is bounded if  $\|\mathcal{A}\| < \infty$

## Definition

The following three statements are equivalent

1.  $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{Y}$  is continuous
2.  $x_n \rightarrow x^* \Rightarrow \mathcal{A}[x_n] \rightarrow \mathcal{A}[x^*]$  for all convergent sequences in  $\mathbb{X}$
3.  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$  such that

$$\|x - y\| \leq \delta \Rightarrow \|\mathcal{A}[x] - \mathcal{A}[y]\| < \epsilon \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{X}$$

## Properties of Linear Operators, cont

Theorem (Moon Theorem 4.1)

A linear operator is bounded iff it is continuous.

Proof.



( $\Rightarrow$ ) Suppose  $\|\mathcal{A}\| = M < \infty$ , let  $\{x_n\}$  be any convergent sequence with limit  $x^* \in \mathbb{X}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathcal{A}x_n - \mathcal{A}x^*\| &= \|\mathcal{A}(x_n - x^*)\| \leq \|\mathcal{A}\| \|x_n - x^*\| \\ &= M \|x_n - x^*\| \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \|\mathcal{A}x_n - \mathcal{A}x^*\| \rightarrow 0.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $\mathcal{A}$  is continuous.

## Proof, cont

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Assume  $\mathcal{A}$  is continuous and let  $\epsilon = 1$  and  $y = 0$  then  $\exists \delta$  such that  $\|x\| \leq \delta \Rightarrow \|\mathcal{A}x\| < 1$

Now let  $0 \neq x \in \mathbb{X}$  be arbitrary, then

$$\left\| \frac{\delta x}{\|x\|} \right\| = \frac{\delta}{\|x\|} \|x\| = \delta \leq \delta$$

implies that

$$\left\| \mathcal{A} \left( \frac{\delta x}{\|x\|} \right) \right\| = \frac{\delta}{\|x\|} \|\mathcal{A}x\| < 1$$

which implies that

$$\|\mathcal{A}x\| \leq \frac{1}{\delta} \|x\|$$

Therefore  $\mathcal{A}$  is bounded.

## Properties of Linear Operators, cont

### Theorem (Moon Theorem 4.2)

Let  $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{Y}$  be a linear operator. If  $\mathbb{X}$  is a finite dimensional Hilbert space, then  $\mathcal{A}$  is bounded.

Proof.

□

Let  $\dim(\mathbb{X}) = n$  and let  $\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$  be an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{X}$ , then

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^n \langle x, p_k \rangle p_k$$

## Proof, cont.

Define  $D = \max\{\|\mathcal{A}p_1\|, \|\mathcal{A}p_2\|, \dots, \|\mathcal{A}p_n\|\}$  then

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathcal{A}x\| &= \left\| \mathcal{A} \left( \sum_{k=1}^n \langle x, p_k \rangle p_k \right) \right\| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^n |\langle x, p_k \rangle| \|\mathcal{A}p_k\| \\ &\leq D \sum_{k=1}^n |\langle x, p_k \rangle| \\ &\leq D \sum_{k=1}^n \|x\| \|p_k\| \quad (\text{Cauchy-Schwartz}) \\ &= Dn \|x\|\end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $\mathcal{A}$  is bounded.

## Section 2

### Neumann Expansion

## Geometric Series

One of the most important series in analysis is the geometric series

$$S = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x^i$$

Noting that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + xS &= 1 + x + x^2 + \dots = S \\ \Rightarrow S(1 - x) &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$S = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x^i = \frac{1}{1-x} = (1-x)^{-1}$$

The series converges if  $|x| < 1$ .

# Geometric Series for Operators (Neumann Expansion)

For operators we have a similar expression:

**Theorem (Moon Theorem 4.3)**

*Suppose  $\|\cdot\|$  is a norm satisfying the submultiplicative property and  $\|\mathcal{A}\| < 1$ . Then  $(I - \mathcal{A})^{-1}$  exists and*

$$(I - \mathcal{A})^{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{A}^i = I + \mathcal{A} + \mathcal{A}^2 + \mathcal{A}^3 + \dots$$

where

$$\mathcal{A}^2 = \mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}$$

$$\mathcal{A}^3 = \mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^2$$

$$\mathcal{A}^k = \mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^{k-1}.$$

## Neumann Expansion, Proof

Suppose that  $(I - \mathcal{A})^{-1}$  does not exist. Then  $\mathcal{N}(I - \mathcal{A})$  is non-trivial.

Therefore,  $\exists x \neq 0$  such that

$$\begin{aligned}(I - \mathcal{A})x = 0 &\iff x = \mathcal{A}x \\ &\iff \|x\| = \|\mathcal{A}x\| \leq \|\mathcal{A}\| \|x\| < \|x\|,\end{aligned}$$

which is a contradiction.

Therefore  $(I - \mathcal{A})^{-1}$  exists.

## Neumann Expansion, cont.

Note that  $\|\mathcal{A}^k\| \leq \|\mathcal{A}\|^k$  since  $\|\cdot\|$  satisfies the submultiplication property.

Since  $\|\mathcal{A}\| < 1$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|\mathcal{A}^k\| = 0 \iff \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{A}^k = 0$$

Note that

$$(I - \mathcal{A})(I + \mathcal{A} + \mathcal{A}^2 + \cdots + \mathcal{A}^{k-1}) = I - \mathcal{A}^k$$

$k \rightarrow \infty$  gives

$$(I - \mathcal{A}) \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{A}^i \right) = I$$

Therefore

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{A}^i = (I - \mathcal{A})^{-1}.$$

## Section 3

### Matrix Norms

# Matrix Norms

For matrices  $A : \mathbb{C}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$  we have the following induced norm:

$$\|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{\|x\|_{\infty}=1} \|Ax\|_{\infty}$$

(Why max not sup?)

## Lemma

$$\|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{i=1:m} \sum_{j=1:n} |a_{ij}|$$

i.e., the largest row sum.

## Proof

First show that  $\|A\|_\infty \leq \max_{i=1:m} \sum_{j=1:n} |a_{ij}|$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\|A\|_\infty &= \max_{\|x\|_\infty=1} \left\| \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \right\|_\infty \\ &= \max_{\|x\|_\infty=1} \left[ \max \begin{pmatrix} \left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_{1j} x_j \right| \\ \vdots \\ \left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_{mj} x_j \right| \end{pmatrix} \right] \\ &\leq \max_{\substack{x \text{ s.t.} \\ \max|x_i|=1}} \left[ \max \left( \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{1j}| |x_j|, \dots, \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{mj}| |x_j| \right) \right] \\ &\leq \max_{\|x\|_\infty=1} \left[ \max \left( \|x\|_\infty \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{1j}|, \dots, \|x\|_\infty \sum_{j=1}^m |a_{mj}| \right) \right] \\ &= \max_{i=1:m} \sum_{j=1}^m |a_{ij}|\end{aligned}$$

## Proof, cont.

Now we need to show that  $\max_{i=1:m} \sum_{j=1:n} |a_{ij}| \leq \|A\|_\infty$ :

Let  $k = \arg \max_{i=1:m} \sum_{j=1:n} |a_{ij}|$

and let  $\hat{x}$  be such that

$$\hat{x}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a_{kj} \geq 0 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

then  $\|\hat{x}\|_\infty = 1$  and then

$$\|A\hat{x}\|_\infty = \max_{i=1:m} \sum_{j=1:n} |a_{ij}| \leq \max_{\|x\|_\infty=1} \|Ax\|_\infty = \|A\|_\infty.$$

# Other Matrix Norms

## Lemma

$$\begin{aligned}\|A\|_1 &= \max_{\|x\|_1=1} \|Ax\|_1 \\ &= \max_{j=1:n} \sum_{i=1}^m |a_{ij}| \quad (\text{largest column sum})\end{aligned}$$

## Lemma

$$\|A\|_2 = \max_i \sqrt{\lambda_i(A^H A)} = \text{largest singular value of } A$$

More discussion of this in Chapter 7.

# Norm of $A^{-1}$

## Theorem

For induced matrix norms, where  $A^{-1}$  exists we have

$$\|A^{-1}\| = \frac{1}{\min_{\substack{x \neq 0 \\ \|x\|=1}} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|}} = \frac{1}{\min_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|}$$

## Proof.

Let  $Ax = b \Rightarrow x = A^{-1}b$  then

$$\begin{aligned}\|A^{-1}\| &= \max_{b \neq 0} \frac{\|A^{-1}b\|}{\|b\|} = \max_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|x\|}{\|Ax\|} = \max_{x \neq 0} \frac{1}{\frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\min_{\substack{x \neq 0 \\ \|x\|=1}} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|}} = \frac{1}{\min_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|}\end{aligned}$$

# Frobenius Norm

## Definition

The Frobenius norm of a matrix is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\|A\|_F &= \left( \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m |a_{ij}|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= \sqrt{\text{tr}(A^H A)}\end{aligned}$$

**Fact:** The Frobenius norm is NOT an induced norm.

## Matrix Convergence

For matrices: convergence in any norm implies convergence in any other norm. In particular

$$\|A\|_2 \leq \|A\|_F \leq \sqrt{n} \|A\|_2$$

$$\max |a_{ij}| \leq \|A\|_2 \leq \sqrt{mn} \max |a_{ij}|$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \|A\|_\infty \leq \|A\|_2 \leq \sqrt{m} \|A\|_\infty$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \|A\|_1 \leq \|A\|_2 \leq \sqrt{n} \|A\|_1$$

## Section 4

### Adjoint Operators

# Adjoint Operator

## Definition

Let  $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{Y}$  be a bounded linear operator from Hilbert space  $\mathbb{X}$  to Hilbert space  $\mathbb{Y}$ , then the adjoint of  $\mathcal{A}$  ( $\mathcal{A}^*$ ) is the linear operator  $\mathcal{A}^* : \mathbb{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{X}$  such that

$$\langle \mathcal{A}x, y \rangle_{\mathbb{Y}} = \langle x, \mathcal{A}^*y \rangle_{\mathbb{X}}$$

$\forall x \in \mathbb{X}$  and  $\forall y \in \mathbb{Y}$ .

$\mathcal{A}$  is self-adjoint if  $\mathcal{A}^* = \mathcal{A}$

# Adjoint Operator, Example

Example (Complex matrices)

$$A : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^m$$

What is  $A^*$ ?

By definition:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle Ax, y \rangle_{\mathbb{C}^m} &= \langle x, A^*y \rangle_{\mathbb{C}^n} \\ \iff y^H A x &= y^H (A^*)^H x \\ \iff A^* &= A^H\end{aligned}$$

Note  $A^H : \mathbb{C}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$

# Adjoint Operator, Example

Example (Real matrices)

$$A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

What is  $A^*$ ?

By definition,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle Ax, y \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^m} &= \langle x, A^*y \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n} \\ \iff x^\top A^\top y &= x^\top A^*y \\ \iff A^* &= A^\top\end{aligned}$$

# Adjoint Operator, Example

## Example (Convolution)

$$\mathcal{A} : L_2 \rightarrow L_2$$

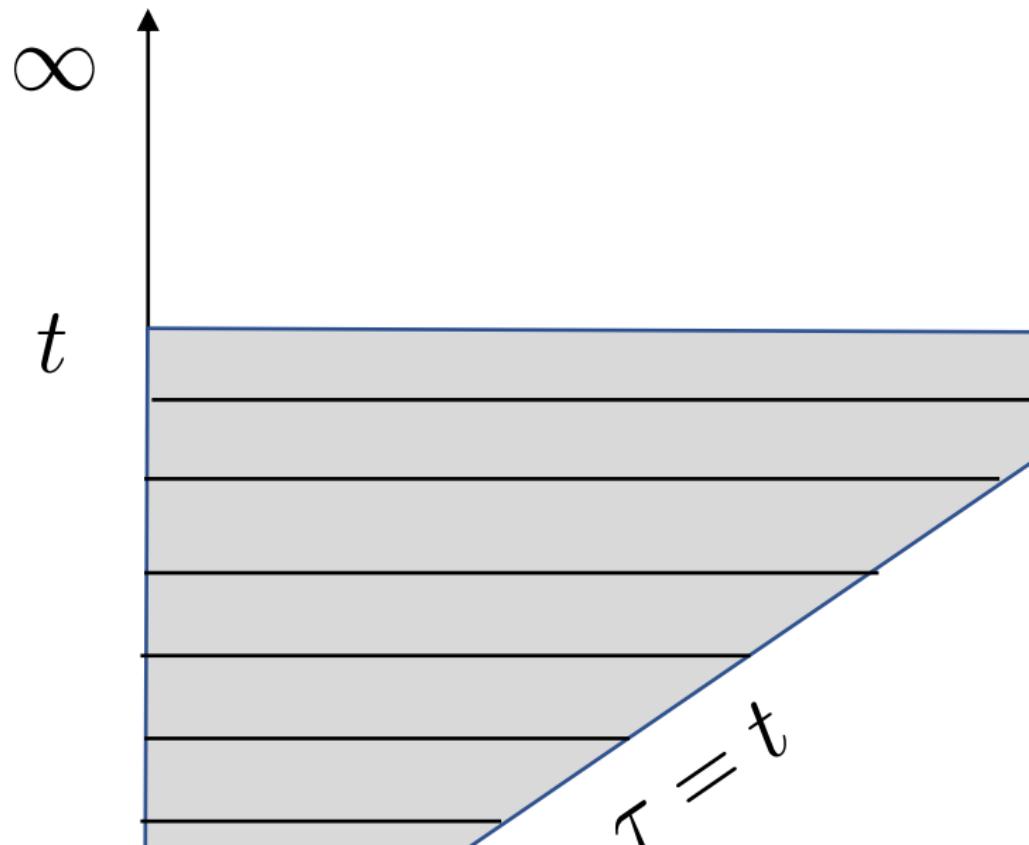
$$\mathcal{A}[x](t) = \int_0^{\top} h(t - \tau)x(\tau)d\tau$$

Let  $x \in L_2[0, \infty]$  and  $y \in L_2[0, \infty]$  then  $\mathcal{A}^*$  is defined by

$$\langle \mathcal{A}x, y \rangle_{L_2} = \langle x, \mathcal{A}^*y \rangle_{L_2}$$

$$\iff \int_{t=0}^{\infty} \left[ \int_{\tau=0}^t h(t - \tau)x(\tau)d\tau \right] y(t)dt = \int_0^{\infty} x(t)\mathcal{A}^*[y](t)dt$$

## Adjoint Operator, Example, Convolution, cont.



# Adjoint Operator, Example

Example (linear ode's)

$$\dot{x} = Fx \quad ; \quad x(0) = x_0$$

The solution is  $x(t) = e^{Ft}x_0$

Let  $\mathcal{A}[x_0](t) = e^{Ft}x_0$ , then

$$\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow L_{2[0,T]}$$

What is  $\mathcal{A}^*$ ?

## Adjoint Operator, Example, linear ODE, cont.

Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $y \in L_2[0, T]$  then by definition,

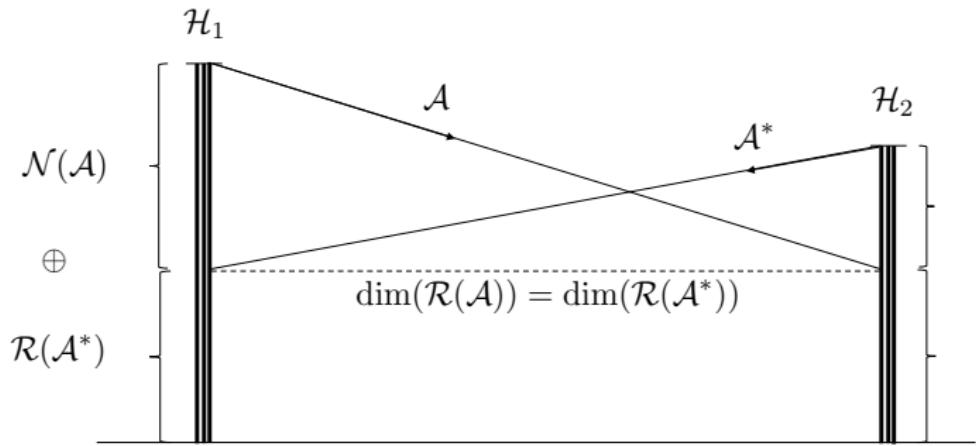
$$\begin{aligned}\langle \mathcal{A}[x_0], y \rangle_{L_2[0, T]} &= \langle x_0, \mathcal{A}^*y \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n} \\ \iff \int_0^T x_0^\top (e^{Ft})^\top y(t) dt &= x_0^\top \mathcal{A}^*y \\ \iff x_0^\top \int_0^T e^{F^\top t} y(t) dt &= x_0^\top \mathcal{A}^*y \\ \Rightarrow \boxed{\mathcal{A}^*[y] = \int_0^T e^{F^\top t} y(t) dt}\end{aligned}$$

## Section 5

### Fundamental Subspaces

# Fundamental Subspaces

Let  $\mathcal{A} : \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$  where  $\mathcal{H}_1$  and  $\mathcal{H}_2$  are Hilbert spaces.  
Then  $\mathcal{A}^* : \mathcal{H}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1$  and we have the following picture:



# Fundamental Subspaces, cont.

## Lemma

1.  $\mathcal{H}_1 = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}) \oplus \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*)$
2.  $\mathcal{H}_2 = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*) \oplus \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})$
3.  $\dim(\mathcal{H}_1) = \dim(\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A})) + \dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*))$
4.  $\dim(\mathcal{H}_2) = \dim(\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*)) + \dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}))$
5.  $\dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})) = \dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*))$

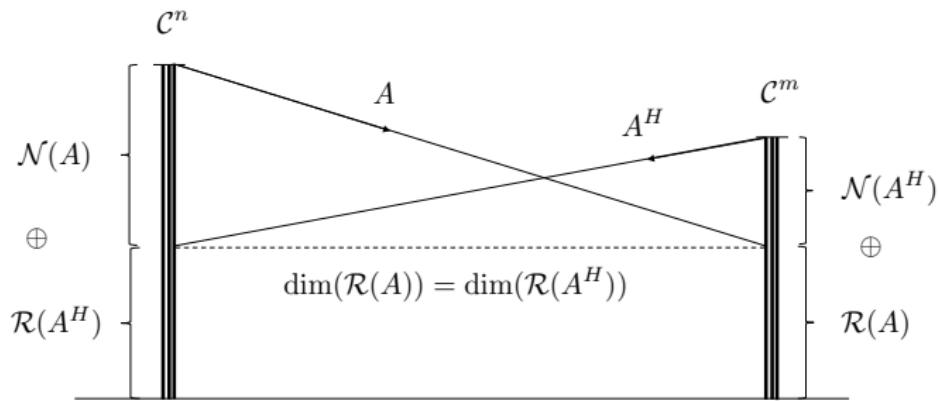
Proofs to follow.

# Fundamental Subspaces for Matrices

For matrices, the picture looks as follows:

$$A : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^m$$

$$A^* = A^H : \mathbb{C}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$$



$$\dim(\mathcal{R}(A^H)) = \dim(\mathcal{R}(A))$$

## Fundamental Subspaces, cont

### Theorem (Moon Theorem 4.5)

Let  $\mathcal{A} : \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$  be bounded and let  $\mathcal{H}_1$  and  $\mathcal{H}_2$  be Hilbert spaces and let  $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})$  and  $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*)$  be closed, then

1.  $[\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})]^\perp = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*)$
2.  $[\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*)]^\perp = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A})$

## Theorem 4.5, Proof

(1): To show that  $[\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})]^\perp = \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*)$  we need to show that  
 $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^\perp) \subseteq [\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})]^\perp$  and  $[\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})]^\perp \subseteq \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*)$ .

We first show that  $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*) \subseteq [\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})]^\perp$ :

Select any  $y \in \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*)$  and any  $\hat{y} \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})$ . Then  $\exists \hat{x} \in \mathcal{H}_1$  such that  $\hat{y} = \mathcal{A}\hat{x}$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \hat{y}, y \rangle &= \langle \mathcal{A}\hat{x}, y \rangle \\ &= \langle \hat{x}, \mathcal{A}^*y \rangle \\ &= \langle \hat{x}, 0 \rangle = 0 \\ \Rightarrow \quad y &\in [\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})]^\perp \\ \Rightarrow \quad \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*) &\subseteq [\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})]^\perp\end{aligned}$$

## Theorem 4.5, Proof, cont.

We first show that  $[\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})]^\perp \subseteq \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*)$ :

Select any  $y \in [\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})]^\perp$ . For every  $\hat{x} \in \mathcal{H}_1$  we have  $\hat{y} = \mathcal{A}\hat{x} \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})$ , and therefore

$$\langle \hat{y}, y \rangle = \langle \mathcal{A}\hat{x}, y \rangle = 0$$

By definition of the adjoint, we therefore have that

$$\langle \hat{x}, \mathcal{A}^*y \rangle = 0$$

Since this is true for every  $\hat{x} \in \mathcal{H}_1$  it must be that  $\mathcal{A}^*y = 0$ .

Therefore

$$y \in \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*),$$

which implies that

$$[\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})]^\perp \subseteq \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*).$$

Item (2) is shown similarly.

## Fundamental Subspaces, cont

Theorem 2.10 states that if  $\mathcal{H}$  is a Hilbert space and if  $\mathbb{V}$  a closed subspace in  $\mathcal{H}$  then

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{V} \oplus \mathbb{V}^\perp$$

Therefore Theorem 4.5 implies that

$$\mathcal{H}_1 = \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*) \oplus \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A})$$

$$\mathcal{H}_2 = \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}) \oplus \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*)$$

Which also implies that

$$\dim(\mathcal{H}_1) = \dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*)) + \dim(\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}))$$

$$\dim(\mathcal{H}_2) = \dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})) + \dim(\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*))$$

# Fundamental Subspaces, cont

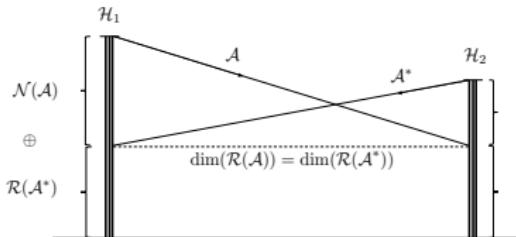
## Lemma

- ▶  $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AA^*)$
- ▶  $\mathcal{R}(A^*) = \mathcal{R}(A^*A)$

## Proof.

We will prove (1) by showing that:

- (a)  $\mathcal{R}(A) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(AA^*)$
- (b)  $\mathcal{R}(AA^*) \subseteq \mathcal{R}(A)$



## Fundamental Subspaces, cont

### Proof (cont.)

(a) Let  $y \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow \exists x \in \mathcal{H}_1$  such that  $y = \mathcal{A}x$   
Since  $\mathcal{H}_1 = \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*) \oplus \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A})$ ,  $x = x_n + x_r$  where

$$x_n \in \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}) \text{ and } x_r \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*)$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists \hat{y} \in \mathcal{H}_2 \text{ such that } x_r = \mathcal{A}^* \hat{y}$$

so

$$y = \mathcal{A}x = \mathcal{A}(x_n + x_r) = \mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^* \hat{y}$$

$$\Rightarrow y \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^*)$$

(b) let  $y \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^*) \Rightarrow \exists \hat{y} \in \mathcal{H}_2$  such that

$$y = \mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^* \hat{y} \Rightarrow y = \mathcal{A}\hat{x} \text{ where } \hat{x} \in \mathcal{H}_1$$

$$\Rightarrow y \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}).$$

# Fundamental Subspaces, cont

Theorem

$$\dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})) = \dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*))$$

Proof.

We need to show that

- (a)  $\dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})) \leq \dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*))$
- (b)  $\dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*)) \leq \dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}))$

## Fundamental Subspaces, cont

### Proof (cont.)

(a) Let  $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots\}$  be a Hamel basis for  $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})$  so  $\dim(\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})) = \text{cardinality of } P$ .

$$p_i \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow \exists \hat{q}_i \in \mathcal{H}_1 \text{ such that } p_i = \mathcal{A}\hat{q}_i$$

$$\mathcal{H}_1 = \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*) \oplus \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow \hat{q}_i = q_{i,n} + q_i$$

where  $q_{i,n} \in \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A})$  and  $q_i \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*)$

$$\Rightarrow p_i = \mathcal{A}q_i,$$

let

$$Q = \{q_1, q_2, \dots\}$$

we will show that  $Q$  is linearly independent  $\Rightarrow$  any Hamel basis of  $\mathcal{R}(A^*)$  contains  $Q \Rightarrow \dim(\mathcal{R}(A^*)) \geq \dim(\mathcal{R}(A))$ ,

## Fundamental Subspaces, cont

### Proof (cont.)

$P$  is a Hamel basis  $\Rightarrow$  all finite subsets of  $P$  are linearly independent, i.e.

$$\sum_{i \in I} c_i p_i = 0 \iff c_i = 0, i \in I$$

where  $I$  is a finite index set. But,

$$\sum_I c_i p_i = 0 \iff \sum_I c_i \mathcal{A} q_i = 0 \iff \mathcal{A}(\sum_I c_i q_i) = 0$$

but  $\sum_I c_i q_i \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A}^*) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A})$

so

$$\iff \sum_I c_i q_i = 0 \iff c_i = 0, i \in I$$

$\Rightarrow Q$  is linearly independent

(b) Substitute  $\mathcal{A}$  for  $\mathcal{A}^*$  and  $\mathcal{A}^*$  for  $\mathcal{A}$  is above argument.

# Solution of Operator Equations

We turn to solutions to the linear operator equation

$$\mathcal{A}x = y$$

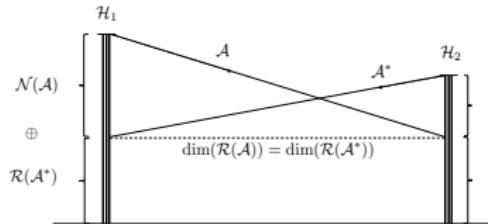
where  $\mathcal{A} : \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$  is bounded,  $\mathcal{H}_1$  and  $\mathcal{H}_2$  are Hilbert and  $\mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})$  is closed.

**Fact 1.**  $\mathcal{A}x = y$  has a solution

$$\iff y \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})$$

**Fact 2.**  $\mathcal{A}x = y$  has a solution

$$\iff y \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}^*)$$

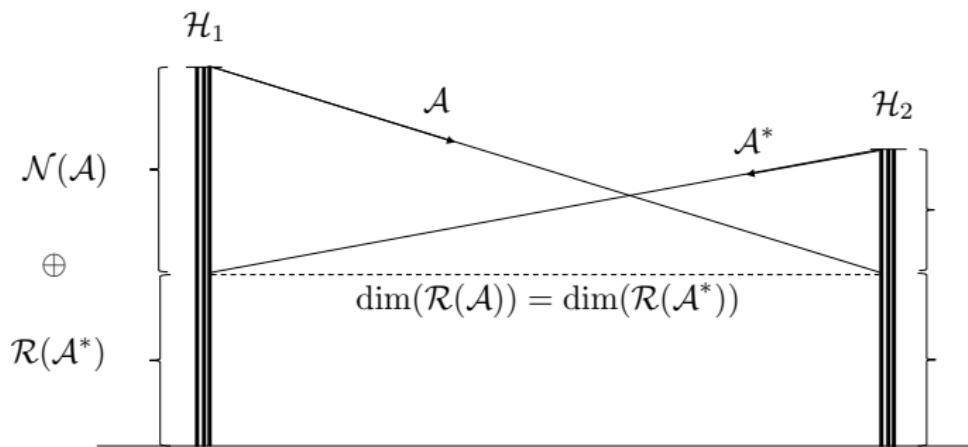


# Solution of Operator Equations

Fact 3. If  $\mathcal{A}x = y$  has a solution then it is unique  
 $\iff \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}) = \{0\}$

Fact 4. If  $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}) \neq \{0\}$  and  $y \in \mathcal{R}(\mathcal{A})$  then  $\mathcal{A}x = y$  has an infinite number of solutions.

Fact 5 .  $\mathcal{A}^{-1}$  exists  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{A}) = \{0\}$  (otherwise can't get back to all of  $\mathcal{H}$ ).



# Matrix Rank

## Definition (Row Rank)

The row rank of  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  is the number of linearly independent rows.

## Definition (Column Rank)

The column rank of  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  is the number of linearly independent columns.

- ▶ Since  $\mathcal{R}(A) = \text{span}\{\text{columns of } A\}$  we have that  
 $\dim(\mathcal{R}(A)) = \text{column rank}$
- ▶ Since  $\mathcal{R}(A^H) = \text{span}\{\text{rows of } A\}$  we have that  
 $\dim(\mathcal{R}(A^*)) = \text{row rank}$
- ▶ Therefore  $\dim(\mathcal{R}(A)) = \dim(\mathcal{R}(A^H))$  implies that  
column rank = row rank

# Matrix Rank

## Definition

The rank of  $A$  is the number of linearly independent rows or columns.

## Lemma

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^H)$$

## Definition

$A : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^m$  is full rank if  $\text{rank}(A) = \min(n, m)$

# Sylvester's Inequality

Lemma (Sylvester's Inequality)

Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{q \times n}$  and  $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times p}$  then

$$\text{rank}(A) + \text{rank}(B) - n \leq \text{rank}(AB) \leq \min(\text{rank}(A), \text{rank}(B)).$$

Example

Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  then

$$\text{rank}(xy^\top) = 1$$

## Section 6

### Matrix Inverses

# Matrix Inverses

## Definition

$A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  has a left inverse if  $\exists B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$  such that

$$\begin{matrix} B \\ n \times m \end{matrix} \quad \begin{matrix} A \\ m \times n \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} I \\ n \times n \end{matrix}$$

## Definition

$A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  has a right inverse if  $\exists D \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$  such that

$$\begin{matrix} A \\ m \times n \end{matrix} \quad \begin{matrix} C \\ n \times m \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} I \\ m \times m \end{matrix}$$

## Matrix Inverses, cont

### Example

The matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

has an infinite number of right inverses, namely

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{7} \\ c_1 & c_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \forall c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

since

$$AC = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

## Matrix Inverses, cont

- ▶ Suppose  $A$  has a left inverse, then

$$Ax = b \iff BAx = Bb \iff x = Bb$$

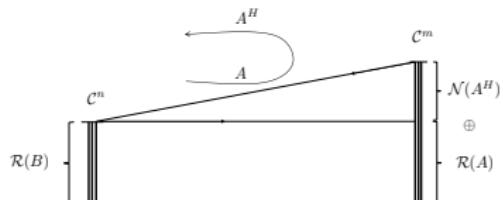
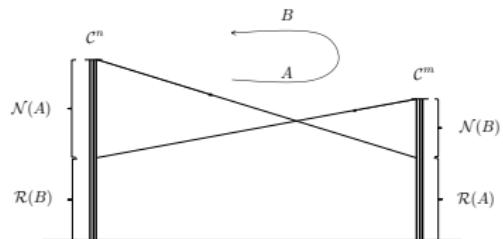
- ▶ Suppose  $A$  has a right inverse, then let

$$x = Cb \Rightarrow Ax = ACb = b$$

so  $x = Cb$  is a solution.

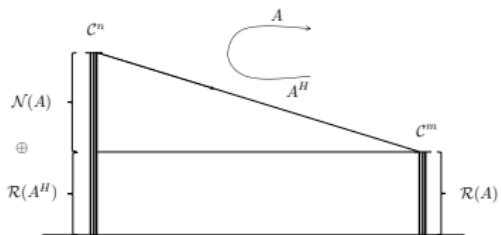
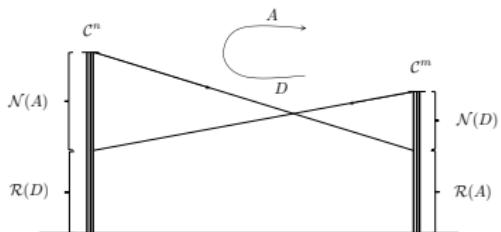
# Left Inverse

- ▶ Let  $B$  be a left inverse of  $A$ .
- ▶ Then  $BA = I : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n$ .
- ▶ Of necessity we must have that  $\mathcal{N}(A) = \{0\}$ , otherwise there are vectors  $x \in \mathcal{N}(A) \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$  such that  $BAx = B0 = 0 \neq x$ , i.e.,  $BA \neq I$ .
- ▶ Therefore  $Ax = b$  has at most one solution  
(since  $b$  may not be in  $\mathcal{R}(A)$ ).



# Right Inverse

- ▶ Let  $D$  be a right inverse of  $A$ .
- ▶ Then  $AD = I : \mathbb{C}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^m$ .
- ▶ Of necessity we must have that  $\mathcal{N}(A^H) = \{0\}$ , otherwise  $D^H A^H = I$  is impossible.
- ▶  $\mathcal{N}(A)$  may be nontrivial therefore if  $\hat{x}$  is a solution so is  $\hat{x} + x_n$  where  $x_n \in \mathcal{N}(A)$  since  $A(\hat{x} + x_n) = A\hat{x} = b$ . Therefore, there is at least one solution.



# Right and Left Inverses

## Lemma

1. If  $A$  has a left inverse then  $Ax = b$  has at most one solution.
2. If  $A$  has a right inverse then  $Ax = b$  has at least one solution.

## Regular Inverse

If  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  when the following statements are equivalent:

1.  $A^{-1}$  exists
2.  $\mathcal{N}(A) = \{0\}$  and  $\mathcal{N}(A^H) = \{0\}$ .
3.  $\text{rank}(A) = n$
4.  $\det(A) \neq 0$
5. (right inverse of  $A$ ) = (left inverse of  $A$ ) =  $A^{-1}$
6. there are no zero eigenvalues of  $A$
7.  $A^H A$  is positive definite
8.  $A$  is nonsingular

## Regular Inverse, cont.

If  $A^{-1}$  exists then

$$A^{-1} = \frac{\text{adj}(A)}{\det(A)}$$

where  $\text{adj}(A)$  is the adjugate of  $A$  where  $\text{adj}(A) = [B_{ij}]^\top$  and  $B_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} \det(M_{ij})$  and  $M_{ij}$  is the  $(i,j)^{\text{th}}$  minor of  $A$ .

### Example

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{adj}(A) = \begin{pmatrix} (-1)^2|d| & (-1)^3|c| \\ (-1)^3|b| & (-1)^4|a| \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} d & -c \\ -b & a \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{so } A^{-1} = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} d & -c \\ -b & a \end{pmatrix}}{\det(A)} = \frac{\begin{pmatrix} d & -c \\ -b & a \end{pmatrix}}{ad - cb}$$

# Matrix Rank

## Lemma

Let  $A : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^m$  then

$$\text{rank}\left(\begin{matrix} A \\ m \times n \end{matrix}\right) = \text{rank}\left(\begin{matrix} A^H \\ n \times m \end{matrix}\right) = \text{rank}\left(\begin{matrix} A^H A \\ n \times n \end{matrix}\right) = \text{rank}\left(\begin{matrix} AA^H \\ m \times m \end{matrix}\right)$$

Proof.

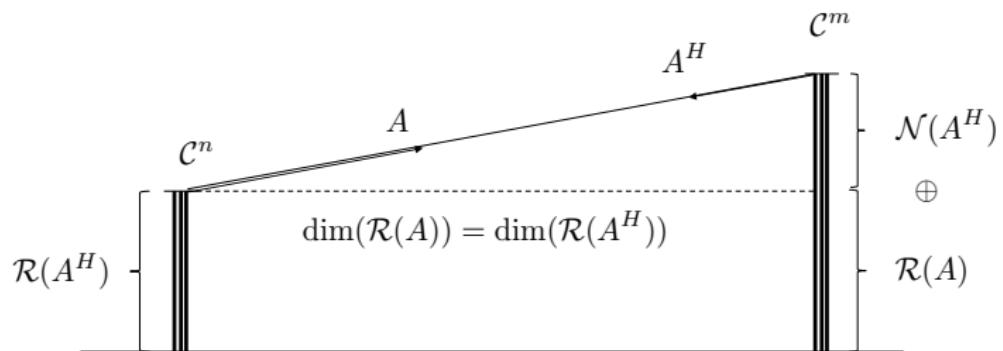
$$\begin{aligned}\text{rank}(B) &= \# \text{ of linearly independent columns} = \dim(\mathcal{R}(B)) \\ &= \# \text{ of linearly independent rows} = \dim(\mathcal{R}(B^H)).\end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\text{rank}(A) &= \dim(\mathcal{R}(A)) = \dim(\mathcal{R}(A^H)) = \text{rank}(A^H) \\ &= \dim(\mathcal{R}(AA^H)) = \text{rank}(AA^H) \text{ Since } \mathcal{R}(A^*) = \mathcal{R}(AA^*) \\ &= \dim(\mathcal{R}(A^H A)) = \text{rank}(A^H A) \text{ Since } \mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(A^*A)\end{aligned}$$

## Left Inverse: Least Squares

- ▶ Consider the solution of  $Ax = b$  where  $m > n$ , i.e.,  $A$  is tall.
- ▶ Assume  $A$  is full rank, i.e.,  $\text{rank}(A) = n$ .
- ▶ Assume  $b \in \mathcal{R}(A)$



- ▶ Map  $b$  to  $\mathcal{R}(A^*) : A^H b = A^H A x$
- ▶ Since  $\text{rank}(A) = n \iff \text{rank}(A^H A) = n$  so  $(A^H A)^{-1}$  exists

$$\Rightarrow x = (A^H A)^{-1} A^H b$$

## Left Inverse: Least Squares, cont.

What if  $b \notin \mathcal{R}(A)$ ? This is the least squares problem, e.g.

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & 1 \\ a_2 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ a_n & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}}_x = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}}_b$$

linear regression

Since there is no solution, it is reasonable to find  $x$  that minimizes  $\|e\|_2$  where

$$e = Ax - b$$

## Left Inverse: Least Squares, cont.

- ▶ Note that  $b = b_r + b_n$  where  $b_r \in \mathcal{R}(A)$  and  $b_n \in \mathcal{N}(A^H)$  so  $e = Ax - b_r - b_n$ .
- ▶ Since  $Ax - b_r \in \mathcal{R}(A) \perp \mathcal{N}(A^H)$  the best we can do is make  $Ax = b_r \Rightarrow e = b_n$ .
- ▶ Since  $b_n \in \mathcal{N}(A^H)$  we have

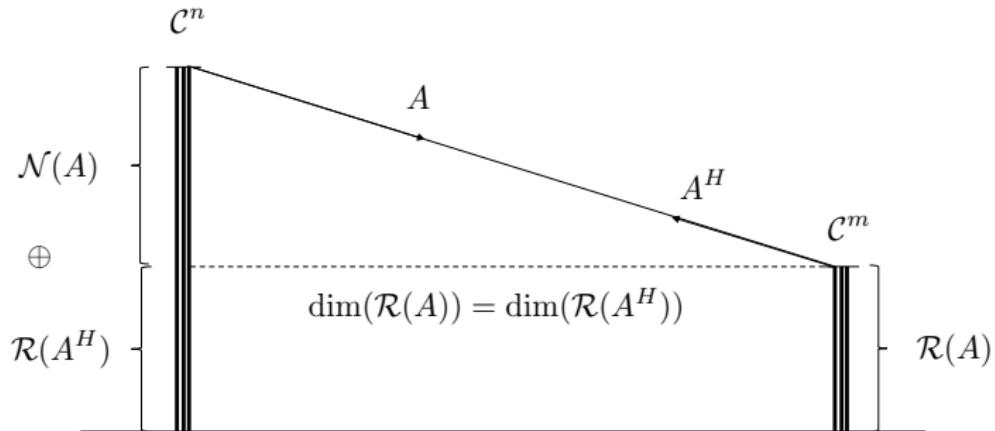
$$0 = A^H Ax - A^H b_r$$
$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{A^H Ax}_{\text{projection of } x \text{ onto } \mathcal{R}(A^H)} = A^H b_r = \underbrace{A^H b}_{\text{projection of } b \text{ onto } \mathcal{R}(A^H)}$$

- ▶ Since  $\text{rank}(A^H A) = \text{rank}(A) = n$  we have

$$\underbrace{x = (A^H A)^{-1} A^H b}_{\text{least square solution}}$$

## Right Inverse: Min-Norm Solution

- ▶ Consider the solution of  $Ax = b$  where  $m < n$ , i.e.,  $A$  is fat.
- ▶ Assume  $A$  is full rank, i.e.,  $\text{rank}(A) = m$ .



We would like to solve  $Ax = b$  note that since  $x = x_r + x_n$  where  $x_r \in \mathcal{R}(A^H)$  and  $x_n \in \mathcal{N}(A)$  and  $\mathcal{N}(A) \neq \{0\}$  there are an infinite number of solutions (i.e. add any thing in  $\mathcal{N}(A)$  to a solution). The minimum norm solution will be the element of  $\mathcal{R}(A^H)$  that satisfies  $Ax_r = b$ .

## Right Inverse: Min-norm Solution, cont.

$$x_r \in \mathcal{R}(A^H) \Rightarrow x_r = A^H y \text{ where } y \in \mathbb{C}^m$$

so we need to solve

$$\left( \begin{array}{cc} A & A^H \\ m \times n & n \times m \end{array} \right)_{m \times 1} y = \begin{array}{c} b \\ m \times 1 \end{array}$$

Since  $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(AA^H) = m$ ,  $(AA^H)^{-1}$  exists.

$$\Rightarrow y = (AA^H)^{-1}b$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{x_r = A^H(AA^H)^{-1}b}$$

Note that this is the same solution as

$$\min \|x\|_2$$

$$\text{s.t. } Ax = b$$

# Right and Left Inverses

## Lemma

If  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  where  $m > n$  and  $A$  is full rank, then  $(A^H A)^{-1} A^H$  is a left inverse of  $A$ .

## Proof.

$$(A^H A)^{-1} A^H A = I_n$$



## Lemma

If  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$  where  $m < n$  and  $A$  is full rank, then  $A^H (A A^H)^{-1} b$  is a right inverse of  $A$ .

## Proof.

$$A A^H (A A^H)^{-1} = I_m$$



- ▶ Both are examples of pseudo-inverses.
- ▶  $A^H (A A^H)^{-1}$  is called the Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse.
- ▶ In Matlab type `pinv(A)`.

## Section 7

### Matrix Condition Number

# Matrix Condition Number

- ▶ Suppose that  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  is full rank and  $A^{-1}$  is to be computed numerically. How reliable is the computation?
- ▶  $Ax = b$  can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}$$

- ▶ Therefore, the solution  $x$  is the intersection of  $n$ -hyperplanes:

$$a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n = b_1$$

⋮

$$a_{n1}x_1 + \dots + a_{nn}x_n = b_n$$

## Matrix Condition Number, cont.

- ▶ The problem comes when these hyperplanes are almost parallel.
- ▶ In two dimensions we have two lines

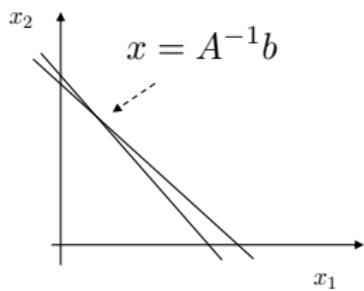
$$a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 = b_1$$

$$a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 = b_2$$

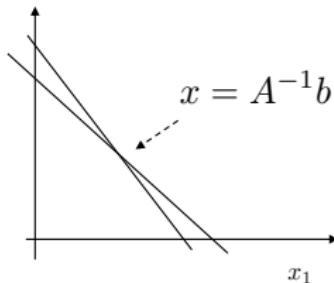
which can be rewritten as

$$x_2 = -\frac{a_{11}}{a_{12}}x_1 + \frac{b_1}{a_{12}}$$
$$x_2 = \underbrace{-\frac{a_{21}}{a_{22}}}_{\text{slope}} x_1 + \underbrace{\frac{b_2}{a_{22}}}_{\text{x-intercept}}$$

## Matrix Condition Number, cont.



Small change in  
 $y$ -intercept of  
second line has  
large impact on  
solution.



If the two lines are almost parallel then small changes in the slope or  $x_2$ -intercept of either line will result in large changes in  $x = A^{-1}b$ .

## Matrix Condition Number, cont.

- ▶ Since computers must represent numbers to finite precision, representation errors could significantly change the numerical solution to the equation  $Ax = b$ .
- ▶ The condition number quantifies this effect.

### Definition

The condition number of a square matrix is defined to be

$$\mathcal{K}(A) = \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$$

where  $\|\cdot\|$  is an induced matrix norm usually taken to be the induced 2-norm.

## Matrix Condition Number: Derivation

- ▶ Given the two equations  $Ax = b$  and  $(A + \epsilon E)x = b$  where  $\epsilon E$  is a “small” perturbation of  $A$  (introduced by finite machine precision of  $A$ )
- ▶ Let  $x_0 = A^{-1}b$  and

$$\begin{aligned}x_E &= (A + \epsilon E)^{-1}b \\&= [A(I + \epsilon A^{-1}E)]^{-1}b \\&= (I + \epsilon A^{-1}E)^{-1}A^{-1}b \\&= \underbrace{(I + \epsilon A^{-1}E)^{-1}}_{\text{perturbation}} x_0\end{aligned}$$

## Matrix Condition Number: Derivation, cont.

Using the Neumann expansion gives

$$(I + \epsilon A^{-1}E)^{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (-\epsilon A^{-1}E)^i. \text{ Therefore}$$

$$\begin{aligned}x_E &= (I + \epsilon A^{-1}E)^{-1}A^{-1}b \\&= (I - \epsilon A^{-1}E)A^{-1}b + O(\|\epsilon E\|^2 x_0) \\&= A^{-1}b - \epsilon A^{-1}EA^{-1}b + O(\|\epsilon E\|^2 x_0) \\&= x_0 - \epsilon A^{-1}Ex_0 + O(\|\epsilon E\|^2 x_0)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\underbrace{\frac{\|x_E - x_0\|}{\|x_0\|}}_{\text{relative change in the solution}} \leq \underbrace{\epsilon \|A^{-1}\| \|E\|}_{\text{want to relate to relative change in } A} + O(\|\epsilon E\|^2)$$

## Matrix Condition Number: Derivation, cont.

What is the relative change in  $A$ ?

$$\frac{\|A - (A + \epsilon E)\|}{\|A\|} = \frac{\epsilon \|E\|}{\|A\|} \triangleq \rho$$

Therefore

$$\frac{\|x_E - x_0\|}{\|x_0\|} \leq \rho \underbrace{\|A^{-1}\| \|A\|}_{\mathcal{K}(A)} + O(\|\epsilon E\|^2)$$

The condition number  $\mathcal{K}(A)$  relates (approximately) the relative change in  $A$  to the relative change in the solution  $x_0$ .

## Matrix Condition Number: Implication

### Rule of Thumb:

If the solution is computed to  $n$  digits then only

$$n - \log_{10} \mathcal{K}(A)$$

can be considered to be accurate.

## Section 8

# Schur Complement and the Matrix Inversion Lemma

# Schur Complement

## Definition

Consider the partitioned matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$

- When  $A_{11}$  is non-singular,

$$S_{ch}(A_{11}) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}$$

is called the Schur Complement of  $A_{11}$  in  $A$ .

- When  $A_{22}$  is non-singular,

$$S_{ch}(A_{22}) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} A_{11} - A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}$$

is called the Schur Complement of  $A_{22}$  in  $A$ .

## Schur Complement, cont.

### Lemma

When  $A_{11}$  is nonsingular,  $A$  is nonsingular if and only if  $S_{ch}(A_{11})$  is nonsingular, in which case

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^{-1} + A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}S_{ch}^{-1}(A_{11})A_{21}A_{11}^{-1} & -A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}S_{ch}^{-1}(A_{11}) \\ -S_{ch}^{-1}(A_{11})A_{21}A_{11}^{-1} & S_{ch}^{-1}(A_{11}) \end{bmatrix}$$

### Lemma

When  $A_{22}$  is nonsingular,  $A$  is nonsingular if and only if  $S_{ch}(A_{22})$  is nonsingular, in which case

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} S_{ch}^{-1}(A_{22}) & -S_{ch}^{-1}(A_{22})A_{12}A_{22}^{-1} \\ -A_{22}^{-1}A_{12}S_{ch}^{-1}(A_{22}) & A_{22}^{-1} + A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}S_{ch}^{-1}(A_{22})A_{12}A_{22}^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

### Proof.

By direct manipulation.

# Matrix Inversion Lemma

Lemma (Matrix Inversion Lemma)

If  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $R \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  are invertible, and  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  and  $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  then

$$(A + XRY)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}X(R^{-1} + YA^{-1}X)^{-1}YA^{-1}$$

Proof.

Equate the (2, 2) elements of  $A^{-1}$  in the previous slide, and re-label matrices.



## Matrix Inversion Lemma, cont.

- ▶ A special case of this matrix inversion lemma is the formula

$$(A + xy^H)^{-1} = A^{-1} - \frac{A^{-1}xy^HA^{-1}}{1 + y^HA^{-1}x}$$

where  $x$  and  $y$  are vectors.

- ▶ Sylvester's inequality gives

$$\text{rank}(x) + \text{rank}(y) - 1 \leq \text{rank}(xy^H) \leq \min(\text{rank}(x), \text{rank}(y)).$$

But

$$\text{rank}(x) + \text{rank}(y) - 1 = 1$$

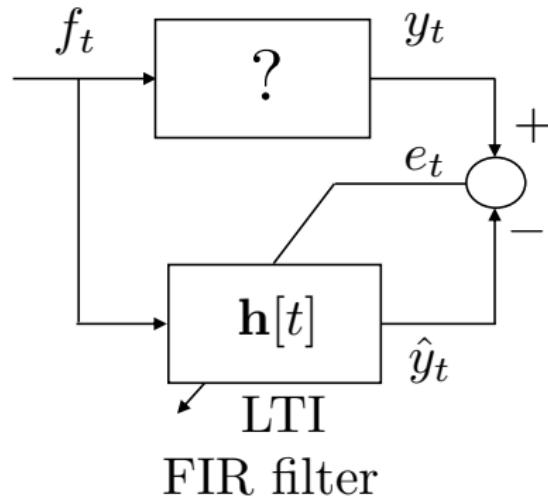
$$\min(\text{rank}(x), \text{rank}(y)) = 1$$

- ▶ Therefore  $\text{rank}(xy^H) = 1$

## Section 9

### Recursive Least Squares Filtering

# Least Squares Filtering Problem



**Problem Statement:** Given the input data  $f_t$  and  $y_t$ , find the FIR filter coefficients  $\mathbf{h}[t]$  that minimize the running least squared error  $e_t$ .

# Least Squares Filtering Problem

## Definition (Least Squares Filtering Problem)

Given the filter

$$\hat{y}_t = \sum_{i=1}^m h_i f_{t-i}$$

where the inputs  $f_t$  are known and we measure the actual outputs  $y_t$ , find the coefficients  $h_i$  such that the mean squared error

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

is minimized.

# Batch Least Squares Filtering

If we assume  $f_t = 0, t \leq 0$  we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_1 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\ f_2 & f_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \\ f_m & f_{m-1} & \cdots & \cdots & f_1 \\ f_{m+1} & f_m & f_{m-1} & \cdots & f_2 \\ \vdots & & & \ddots & \\ f_N & f_{N-1} & \cdots & \cdots & f_{N-m+1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ \vdots \\ h_m \end{pmatrix}$$

## Batch Least Squares Filtering, cont.

Define

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{q}_i &= (f_i \quad f_{i-1} \quad \dots \quad f_{i-m+1})^H \\ \mathbf{y}_N &= (\bar{y}_1 \quad \bar{y}_2 \quad \dots \quad \bar{y}_N)^H \\ \mathbf{h}[N] &= (\bar{h}_1[N] \quad \bar{h}_2[N] \quad \dots \quad \bar{h}_m[N])^H \\ A_N &= \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1^H \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{q}_m^H \end{pmatrix},\end{aligned}$$

then the least squares problem reduces to

$$\mathbf{e}_N = \mathbf{y}_N - \underbrace{A_N \mathbf{h}[N]}_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}_N}$$

where  $\mathbf{e}_N$  is the error to be minimized. From the projection theorem,  $\|\mathbf{e}\|_2$  is minimized when

$$\mathbf{h}[N] = \left( \begin{matrix} A_N^H \\ \vdots \\ A_N^H \end{matrix} \right)_{m \times 1}^{-1} \left( \begin{matrix} A_N^H \\ \vdots \\ A_N^H \end{matrix} \right)_{m \times NN \times m} \mathbf{y}_N \cdot \left( \begin{matrix} \mathbf{I}_{NN} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{I}_{NN} \end{matrix} \right)_{m \times NN \times 1}.$$

## Batch Least Squares Filtering

- ▶ Note that the size of  $y_N$  and  $A_N$  grow linearly with time  $N$ .
- ▶ Therefore, each time step requires more computation than the last step. This is obviously problematic as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .
- ▶ For some  $N$ , batch least squares is no longer a real-time algorithm.
- ▶ Note that at time  $N + 1$  the data include new samples, but includes all of the data available at time  $N$ .

??? Is it possible to design an algorithm with fixed computational cost at each time step, that produces the same least squares solution?

# Recursive Least Squares Filtering

Define

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{q}_t &= (f_i \quad f_{i-1} \quad \dots \quad f_{i-m+1})^H \\ \mathbf{y}_t &= (\bar{y}_1 \quad \bar{y}_2 \quad \dots \quad \bar{y}_t)^H \\ \mathbf{h}[t] &= (\bar{h}_1[t] \quad \bar{h}_2[t] \quad \dots \quad \bar{h}_m[t])^H \\ A_t &= \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1^H \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{q}_t^H \end{pmatrix}.\end{aligned}$$

Then at time  $t$  we have  $\mathbf{e}_t = \mathbf{y}_t - A_t \mathbf{h}[t]$ . From the projection theorem, the error is minimized when

$$\mathbf{h}[t] = (A_t^H A_t)^{-1} A_t^H \mathbf{y}_t.$$

## Recursive Least Squares Filtering, cont.

Let

$$R_{t-1} \stackrel{\triangle}{=} A_{t-1}^H A_{t-1} = (\mathbf{q}_1 \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{q}_{t-1}) \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1^H \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{q}_{t-1}^H \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{q}_i \mathbf{q}_i^H$$

be the associated Grammian when there are  $t - 1$  samples.

Suppose that we receive new data  $q_t$  and  $y_t$  at time  $t$ .

Then

$$R_t = \sum_{i=1}^t \mathbf{q}_i \mathbf{q}_i^H$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{q}_i \mathbf{q}_i^H + \mathbf{q}_t \mathbf{q}_t^H$$
$$= R_{t-1} + \mathbf{q}_t \mathbf{q}_t^H.$$

## Recursive Least Squares Filtering, cont.

In the solution  $\mathbf{h}_t = (A_t^H A_t)^{-1} A_t^H \mathbf{y}_t$ , we need  $R_t^{-1} \triangleq (A_t^H A_t)^{-1}$ . Note that

$$R_t^{-1} = (\underbrace{R_{t-1}}_A + \underbrace{q_t}_{X} \underbrace{R=1}_{Y} \underbrace{q_t^H}_{Y})^{-1}$$

and recall the matrix inversion lemma:

$$(A + XRY)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}X(R^{-1} + YA^{-1}X)^{-1}YA^{-1}$$

Therefore

$$R_t^{-1} = R_{t-1}^{-1} - R_{t-1}^{-1} \mathbf{q}_t (1 + \mathbf{q}_t^H R_{t-1}^{-1} \mathbf{q}_t)^{-1} \mathbf{q}_t^H R_{t-1}^{-1}.$$

## Recursive Least Squares Filtering, cont.

Defining  $P_t = R_t^{-1}$  gives

$$P_t = P_{t-1} - \frac{P_{t-1}\mathbf{q}_t\mathbf{q}_t^H P_{t-1}}{1 + \mathbf{q}_t^H P_{t-1} \mathbf{q}_t}.$$

Define the (Kalman) gain as

$$\mathbf{k}_t = \frac{P_{t-1}\mathbf{q}_t}{1 + \mathbf{q}_t^H P_{t-1} \mathbf{q}_t}$$

Then

$$P_t = P_{t-1} - \mathbf{k}_t \mathbf{q}_t^H P_{t-1}.$$

Note that we have found a fixed computational scheme to update

$$P_t = (A_t^H A_t)^{-1}$$

using old data  $P_{t-1}$  and new data  $\mathbf{q}_t$ .

## Recursive Least Squares Filtering, cont.

In the solution  $\mathbf{h}[t] = (A_t^H A_t)^{-1} A_t^H \mathbf{y}_t$ , we have found a clever way to update  $P_t = (A_t^H A_t)^{-1}$  recursively. Define

$$\mathbf{z}_t \triangleq A_t^H \mathbf{y}_t.$$

We need a recursive update for  $\mathbf{z}_t$ .

Toward that end note that

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{z}_t &= A_t^H \mathbf{y}_t \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^t \mathbf{q}_i y_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \mathbf{q}_i y_i + \mathbf{q}_t y_t \\ &= \mathbf{z}_{t-1} + \mathbf{q}_t y_t\end{aligned}$$

## Recursive Least Squares Filtering, cont.

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{h}_t &= (A_t^H A_t)^{-1} A_t^H \mathbf{y}_t \\&= P_t \mathbf{z}_t \\&= (P_{t-1} - \mathbf{k}_t \mathbf{q}_t^H P_{t-1})(\mathbf{z}_{t-1} + \mathbf{q}_t y_t) \\&= P_{t-1} \mathbf{z}_{t-1} - \mathbf{k}_t \mathbf{q}_t^H P_{t-1} \mathbf{z}_{t-1} + P_{t-1} \mathbf{q}_t y_t - \mathbf{k}_t \mathbf{q}_t^H P_{t-1} \mathbf{q}_t y_t \\&= \mathbf{h}_{t-1} - \underbrace{\mathbf{k}_t \mathbf{q}_t^H \mathbf{h}_{t-1}}_{P_t} + \underbrace{\left( P_{t-1} - \mathbf{k}_t \mathbf{q}_t^H P_{t-1} \right)}_{P_t} \mathbf{q}_t y_t \\&= \mathbf{h}_{t-1} + \mathbf{k}_t (y_t - \mathbf{q}_t^H \mathbf{h}_{t-1}) \\&\implies \mathbf{h}_t = \mathbf{h}_{t-1} + \mathbf{k}_t (y_t - \hat{y}),\end{aligned}$$

where we have used the fact that  $P_t q_t = \mathbf{k}_t$ .

Note that  $\hat{y}_t = \mathbf{q}_t^H \mathbf{h}_{t-1}$  is the predicted output, and  $e_t = y_t - \hat{y}_t$  is the quantity that is being minimized.

## Summary: Recursive Least Squares Filtering

At time  $t = 0$  initialize algorithm with

$$P_0 = \alpha I, \text{ where } \alpha > 0 \text{ is a large number}$$
$$\mathbf{h}_0 = 0.$$

At time  $t$ , get  $y_t$ ,  $f_t$ , and compute  $\mathbf{q}_t$  from  $f_t$ . Update the least squares estimate using

$$\mathbf{k}_t = \frac{P_{t-1}\mathbf{q}_t}{1 + \mathbf{q}_t^H P_{t-1} \mathbf{q}_t}$$
$$P_t = P_{t-1} - \mathbf{k}_t \mathbf{q}_t^H P_{t-1}$$
$$\mathbf{h}_t = \mathbf{h}_{t-1} + \mathbf{k}_t(y_t - \mathbf{q}_t^H \mathbf{h}_{t-1}).$$

This is equivalent to a discrete time Kalman filter with stationary dynamics.