



## Mathematical Foundations of Signal Processing

Hilbert Spaces and Projection Operators

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September 15, 2014

# Outline

- 1 Spaces
  - Vector spaces
  - Hilbert spaces
- 2 Operators
  - Linear operators
  - Projection operators
- 3 Summary

## Goal:

- Establish the basics in a Hilbert space setup through geometric intuition

## Readings:

- Chapter 2, "From Euclid to Hilbert", of *Foundations of Signal Processing*, Sections 2.1 to 2.4 (in particular 2.3.3 and 2.4)

# Vector Spaces

For a vector space, we need:

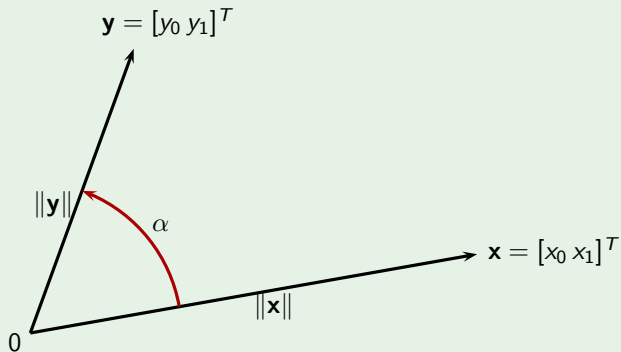
- A set of vectors  $V$ 
  - These can be vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ , functions, etc.
  - Think of geometry in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  or  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we will use pictures!
- A field of scalars  $F$ 
  - Real or complex numbers
- Vector addition  $+$
- Scalar multiplication  $\cdot$

Easy case:  $N$  finite, linear algebra, matrices

Beware:  $N$  goes to infinity... convergence!

# Vector spaces

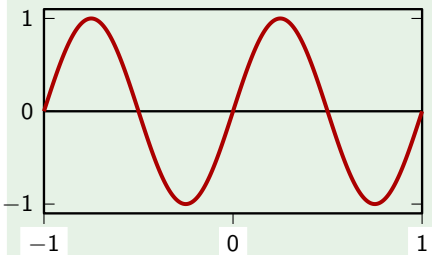
## Vectors in $\mathbb{R}^2$



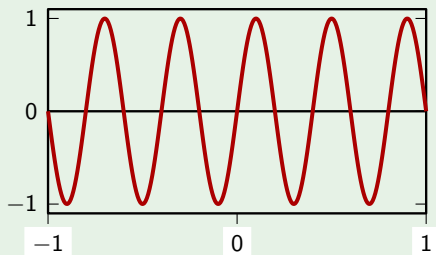
# Vector spaces

Vectors can be very general objects!

Example: space of square-integrable functions over  $[-1, 1]$ :  $\mathcal{L}^2([-1, 1])$



$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \sin(f_1 t), \quad f_1 = 2\pi$$



$$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \sin(f_2 t), \quad f_2 = 5\pi$$

$$\langle \mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(2)} \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 \sin(f_1 t) \sin(f_2 t) dt$$

# Vector spaces

## Axioms

- A vector space  $V$  is defined over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  (think  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ ) as a set with two operations
  - Vector addition:  $V \times V \rightarrow V$
  - Scalar multiplication:  $\mathbb{F} \times V \rightarrow V$

That satisfies the following axioms

1.  $x + y = y + x$
2.  $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$
3.  $\exists 0 \in V$  s.t.  $x + 0 = x$  for all  $x \in V$
4.  $\alpha(x + y) = \alpha x + \alpha y$
5.  $(\alpha + \beta)x = \alpha x + \beta x$
6.  $(\alpha\beta)x = \alpha(\beta x)$
7.  $0x = 0$  and  $1x = x$

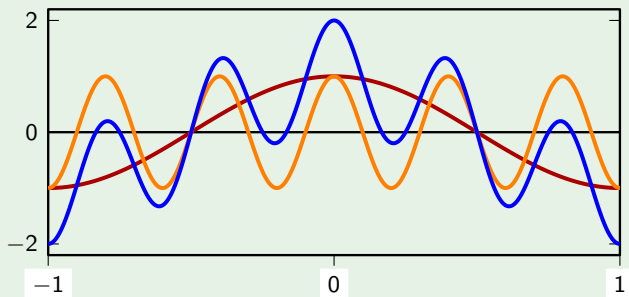
# Vector spaces

## Key notions

- Subspace
  - $S \subseteq V$  is a subspace when it is closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication:
    - For all  $x, y$  in  $S$ ,  $x + y$  is in  $S$
    - For all  $x$  in  $S$ ,  $\alpha$  in  $\mathbb{C}$  (or  $\mathbb{R}$ ),  $\alpha x$  is in  $S$

# Vector spaces

Subspace of symmetric functions over  $\mathcal{L}^2[-1, 1]$



$$\mathbf{x} = \cos(\pi t), \mathbf{y} = \cos(5\pi t) \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \text{ symmetric}$$



# Vector spaces

## Key notions

- Span

- $S$ : set of vectors (could be infinite)
- $\text{span}(S)$  = set of **all finite** linear combinations of vectors in  $S$

$$\text{span}(S) = \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \alpha_k \varphi_k \mid \alpha_k \in \mathbb{C} \text{ (or } \mathbb{R}), \varphi_k \in S \text{ and } N \in \mathbb{N} \right\}$$

- $\text{span}(S)$  is always a subspace

# Vector spaces

## Key notions

- Linear independence

- $S = \{\varphi_k\}_{k=0}^{N-1}$  is linearly independent when:

$$\text{If } \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \alpha_k \varphi_k = 0 \text{ then } \alpha_k = 0 \text{ for all } k$$

- If  $S$  is infinite, we need every finite subset to be linearly independent

- Dimension

- $\text{Dim}(V) = N$  if  $V$  contains a linearly independent set with  $N$  vectors and every set with  $N + 1$  or more vectors is linearly dependent
- $V$  is infinite dimensional if no such finite  $N$  exists

# Inner products

## Definition (Inner product)

- Formalize the geometric notions of orientation and orthogonality
- Measure similarity between vectors
- An inner product for  $V$  is a function  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  satisfying
  - 1 Distributivity :  $\langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$
  - 2 Linearity in the 1<sup>st</sup> argument :  $\langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle$
  - 3 Hermitian symmetry :  $\langle x, y \rangle^* = \langle y, x \rangle$
  - 4 Positive definiteness :  $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$ ;  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$  iff  $x = 0$
- Note:  $\langle x, \alpha y \rangle = \alpha^* \langle x, y \rangle$

# Inner products

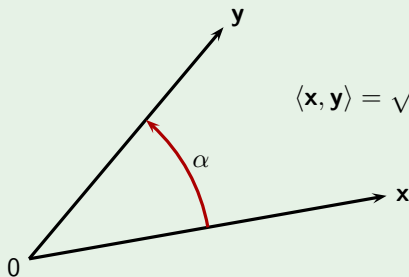
## Examples

- On  $\mathbb{C}^N$  :  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_n y_n^* = y^* x$
- On  $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{Z}}$  :  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} x_n y_n^* = y^* x$
- On  $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{R}}$  :  $\langle x, y \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) y^*(t) dt$

# Inner products

## Inner product in $\mathbb{R}^2$

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = x_0 y_0 + x_1 y_1$$

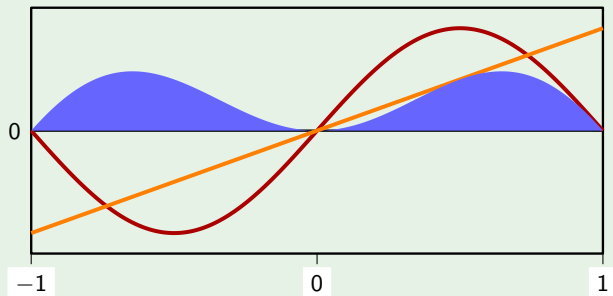


$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \sqrt{(x_0^2 + x_1^2)(y_0^2 + y_1^2)} \cos \alpha$$

# Inner products

## Inner product in $\mathcal{L}^2[-1, 1]$

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 x(t)y(t)dt = \int_{-1}^1 t \sin(\pi t)dt$$



$$\mathbf{x} = \sin(\pi t), \mathbf{y} = t, \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 2/\pi \approx 0.6367$$

# Orthogonality

Let  $S = \{\varphi_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$  be a set of vectors

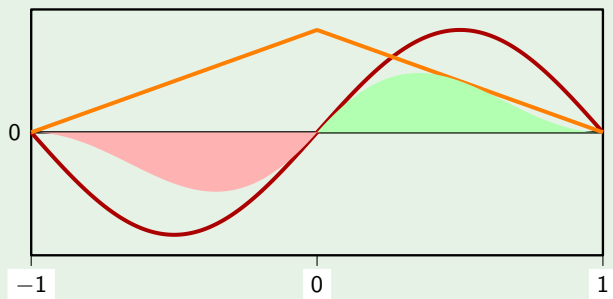
## Definition (Orthogonality)

- $x$  and  $y$  are orthogonal when  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$  written  $x \perp y$
- $S$  is orthogonal when for all  $x, y \in S$ ,  $x \neq y$  we have  $x \perp y$
- $S$  is orthonormal when it is orthogonal and for all  $x \in S$ ,  $\langle x, x \rangle = 1$
- $x$  is orthogonal to  $S$  when  $x \perp s$  for all  $s \in S$ , written  $x \perp S$
- $S_0$  and  $S_1$  are orthogonal when every  $s_0 \in S_0$  is orthogonal to  $S_1$ , written  $S_0 \perp S_1$

# Orthogonality

## Inner product in $L_2[-1, 1]$

$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$  from orthogonal subspaces



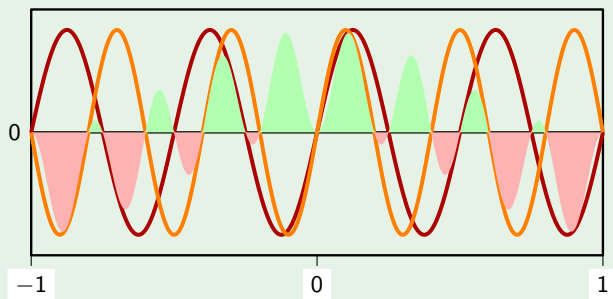
$$\mathbf{x} = \sin(\pi t), \mathbf{y} = 1 - |t|; \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$$



# Orthogonality

## Inner product in $L_2[-1, 1]$

$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$  from orthogonal subspaces



$$\mathbf{x} = \sin(4\pi t) , \quad \mathbf{y} = \sin(5\pi t) , \quad \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$$

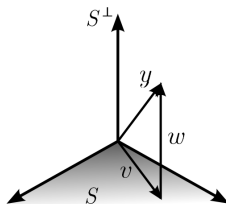
# Orthogonal complement

- If  $S$  is a subspace of  $V$ , the orthogonal complement of  $S$  (in  $V$ ) is the set

$$S^\perp = \{x \in V, x \perp S\}$$

- If  $V$  is closed (contains all limits) then given  $y \in V$ , there exists  $v \in S$ ,  $w \in S^\perp$  s.t.

$$y = v + w, \quad V = S \oplus S^\perp$$



## Definition (Norm)

- Measure length, size of vectors
- A norm on  $V$  is a function  $\| \cdot \| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfying
  - 1 Positive definiteness :  $\|x\| \geq 0$  and  $\|x\| = 0$  iff  $x = 0$
  - 2 Positive scalability :  $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$
  - 3 Triangle inequality :  $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$  with equality iff  $y = \alpha x$
- Note: We use  $\| \cdot \|$  for the 2-norm. Other norms will be specified as well explicitly

# Norms

## Examples

- On  $\mathbb{C}^N$  :  $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = \left( \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |x_n|^2 \right)^{1/2}$
- On  $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{Z}}$  :  $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = \left( \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |x_n|^2 \right)^{1/2}$
- On  $\mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{R}}$  :  $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt \right)^{1/2}$

# Distances, norms and inner products

- A norm "induces" a distance

$$d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$$

- An inner product induces a norm

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$$

- Not all norms are induced by an inner product

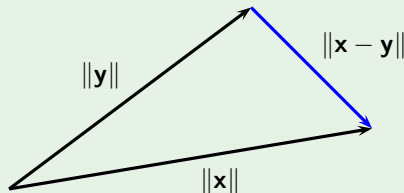
# Distances, norms and inner products

## Norm and distance in $\mathbb{R}^2$

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} = \sqrt{x_0^2 + x_1^2}$$

$$\|\mathbf{y}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle} = \sqrt{y_0^2 + y_1^2}$$

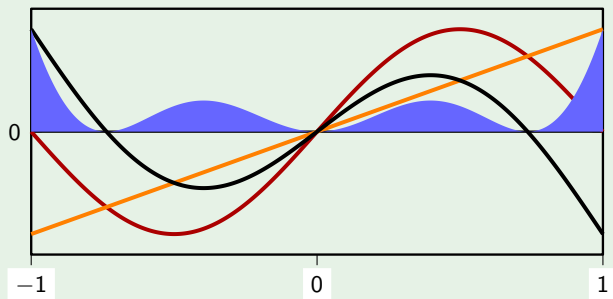
$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| = \sqrt{(x_0 - y_0)^2 + (x_1 - y_1)^2}$$



# Distances, norms and inner products

## Norm and distance in $\mathcal{L}^2[-1, 1]$

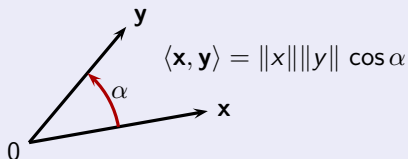
$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \int_{-1}^1 |x(t) - y(t)|^2 dt \text{ (MSE)}$$



$$\mathbf{x} = \sin(\pi t); \mathbf{y} = t; \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}; \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| = \sqrt{5/3 - 4/\pi} \approx 0.6272$$

# Norms induced by inner products

## Properties



- Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|$$



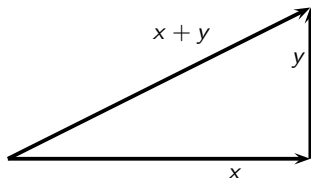
# Norms induced by inner products

## Properties

- Pythagorean theorem

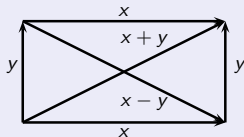
- $x \perp y \Rightarrow \|x + y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2$

- $\{x_k\}_{k \in K}$  orthogonal  $\Rightarrow \left\| \sum_{k \in K} x_k \right\|^2 = \sum_{k \in K} \|x_k\|^2$



# Norms induced by inner products

## Properties

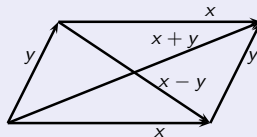


From Pythagorean theorem:

$$\|x + y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2; \quad \|x - y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2$$

- Parallelogram Law

$$\|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2 = 2(\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2)$$



## Normed vector spaces: Standard spaces

- $\mathbb{C}^N$  :  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_n y_n^*$ ,  $\|x\| = \left( \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |x_n|^2 \right)^{1/2}$
- $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$  : square-summable sequences ("finite energy sequences")

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} x_n y_n^*, \quad \|x\| = \left( \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |x_n|^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

- $\mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$  : square-integrable functions ("finite energy functions")

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) y^*(t) dt, \quad \|x\| = \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt \right)^{1/2}$$

# Normed vector spaces: Standard spaces

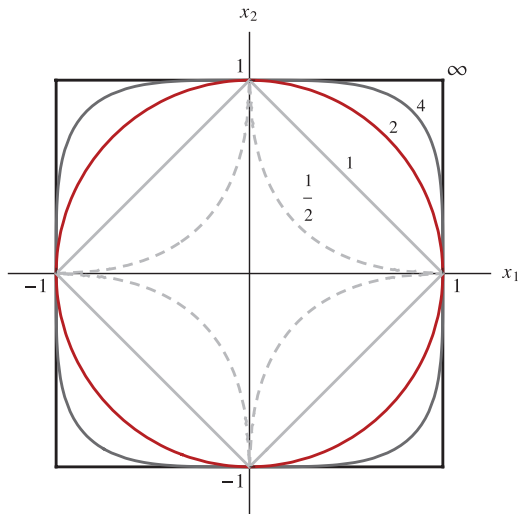
- $\mathbb{C}^N$  : The  $p$  norm :  $\|x\|_p = \left( \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |x_n|^p \right)^{1/p}$ , for  $p \in [1, \infty)$
- $\ell^p(\mathbb{Z})$  spaces :  $\|x\|_p = \left( \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |x_n|^p \right)^{1/p}$ , for  $p \in [1, \infty)$
- Extend  $p$  norm to  $\ell^\infty$  norm as  $\|x\|_\infty = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |x_n|$
- $x \in \ell^p(\mathbb{Z})$  iff  $\|x\|_p < \infty$
- $p = 2$ : the only  $\ell^p$  norm induced by an inner product

# Normed vector spaces: Standard spaces

- $\mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{R})$  spaces :  $\|x\|_p = \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^p dt \right)^{1/p}$
- Extend to  $p = \infty$ :  $\mathcal{L}^\infty$  norm  $\|x\|_\infty = \operatorname{ess\,sup}_{t \in \mathbb{R}} |x(t)|$
- $x \in \mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{R})$  iff  $\|x\|_p < \infty$
- $p = 2$ : the only  $\mathcal{L}^p$  norm induced by an inner product

# The world looks different using different norms!

Unit balls in different norms: quasinorm  $\ell_{1/2}$ , norms  $\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_4, \ell_\infty$



# Solution of linear systems using different norms

- Consider an under-determined system of equations

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}\alpha$$

where  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $N \times 1$ ,  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $N \times M$ ,  $\alpha$  is  $M \times 1$  and  $N < M$ .

- Expansion with respect to an overcomplete set of vectors is not unique.
- Example:

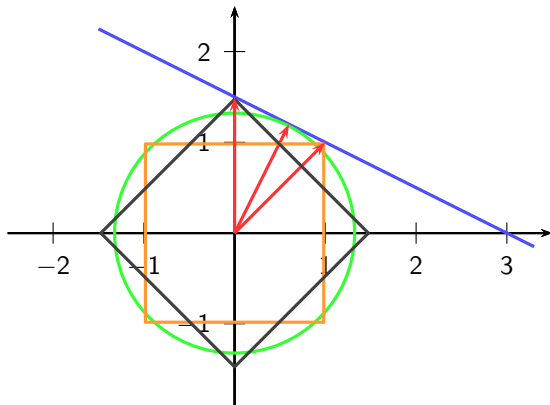
$$x = \frac{1}{5} \cdot [1 \ 2] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\alpha' = \alpha + \alpha^\perp = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \gamma,$$

This is a line with slope  $-1/2$  in the  $[\alpha_0, \alpha_1]$  plane.

# Solution of linear systems using different norms

Different norm minimizations  $\|\alpha\|_p$ ,  $p \in \{0, 1, 2\}$  give different solutions (Ex:  $x = 3/5$ )



and one of them is sparse!



# Space of random variables

- Random variables  $X$  with finite second moment

$$\mathbb{E}[|X|^2] < \infty$$

- Inner product and norm

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = \mathbb{E}[XY^*]$$

$$\|X\| = \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[|X|^2]}$$

- Apply all the abstract theorems to random variables.

## $C^p([a, b])$ Spaces

- $C([a, b])$ : inner product space of complex, continuous functions over interval  $[a, b]$
- $C^p([a, b])$ : inner product space of complex, continuous functions with  $p$ -continuous derivatives over interval  $[a, b]$
- Usual inner product, usual norm

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \int_a^b x(t) y^*(t) \, dt, \quad \|x\| = \left( \int_a^b |x(t)|^2 \, dt \right)^{1/2}$$

- **Example:** set of polynomial functions over an interval forms a subspace of  $C^p([a, b])$ , for any  $a, b$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $p$  in  $\mathbb{N}$ .
- **Why:** closed under vector space operations, and polynomials are indefinitely differentiable

# Hilbert spaces: Convergence

## Definition

A sequence of vectors  $x_0, x_1, \dots$  in a normed vector space  $V$  is said to **converge** to  $v \in V$  when  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|v - x_k\| = 0$ , or for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $K_\varepsilon$  such that  $\|v - x_k\| < \varepsilon$  for all  $k > K_\varepsilon$ .

- Choice of the norm in  $V$  is key

## Example

For  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , let

$$x_k(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for } t \in [0, 1/k]; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$v(t) = 0$  for all  $t$ . Then for  $p \in [1, \infty)$ ,

$$\|v - x_k\|_p = \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |v(t) - x_k(t)|^p dt \right)^{1/p} = \left( \frac{1}{k} \right)^{1/p} \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} 0,$$

For  $p = \infty$ :  $\|v - x_k\|_\infty = 1$  for all  $k$

# Hilbert spaces: Completeness

## Definitions

- A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  is a **Cauchy sequence** in a normed space when for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $k_\varepsilon$  such that  $\|x_k - x_m\| < \varepsilon$  for all  $k, m > k_\varepsilon$
- A normed vector space  $V$  is **complete** if every Cauchy sequence converges **in  $V$**
- A complete normed vector space is called a **Banach** space
- A complete inner product space is called a **Hilbert** space

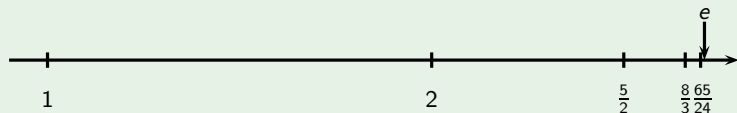
# Hilbert spaces

## Examples

- $\mathbb{Q}$  is **not** a complete space

- $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \longrightarrow \frac{\pi^2}{6} \in \mathbb{R}, \notin \mathbb{Q}$

- $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \longrightarrow e \in \mathbb{R}, \notin \mathbb{Q}$



- $\mathbb{R}$  is a complete space

# Hilbert spaces

## Examples

- All finite dimensional spaces are complete
- $\ell^p(\mathbb{Z})$  and  $\mathcal{L}^p(\mathbb{R})$  are complete
  - $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$  and  $\mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$  are Hilbert spaces
- $C^q([a, b])$ , functions on  $[a, b]$  with  $q$  continuous derivatives, are not complete except for  $q = 0$  under  $\mathcal{L}^\infty$  norm
- Vector space of random variables as already defined is a Hilbert space

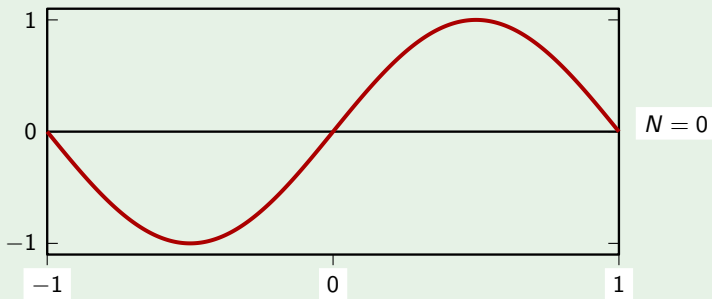
# Hilbert spaces

## Convergence and its pitfalls

### Gibbs phenomenon

Approximating a square wave with partial sums of the Fourier series

$$\sum_{k=0}^N \mathbf{x}^{(2k+1)}, \quad \mathbf{x}^{(n)} = \sin(\pi n t)/n, \quad t \in [-1, 1]$$



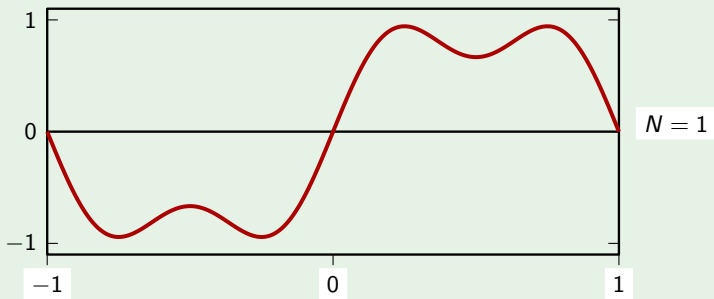
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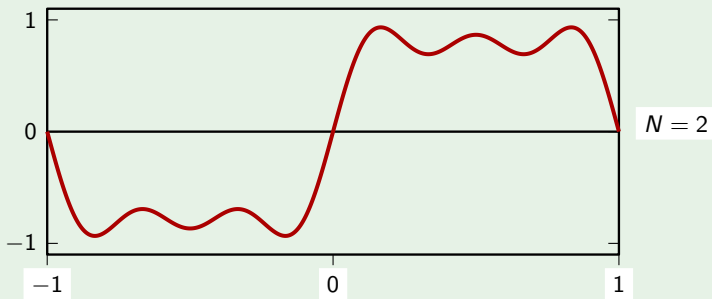
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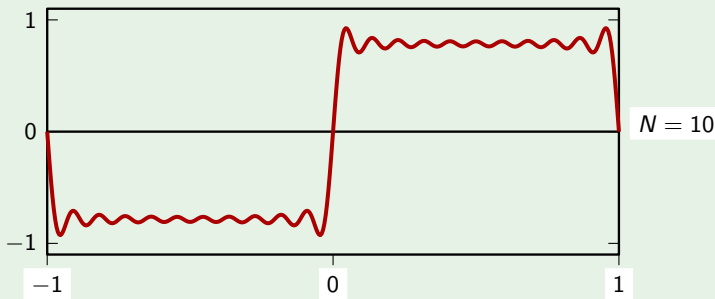
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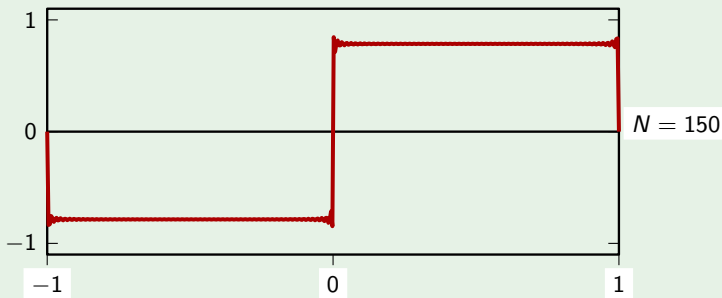
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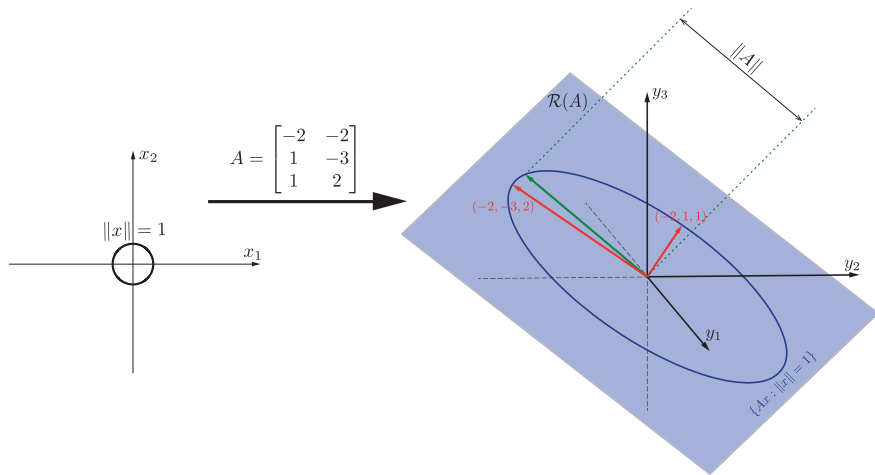
# Linear operators

Linear operators generalize matrices

## Definitions

- $A : H_0 \rightarrow H_1$  is a **linear operator** when for all  $x, y \in H_0, \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ :
  - ① Additivity:  $A(x + y) = Ax + Ay$
  - ② Scalability:  $A(\alpha x) = \alpha(Ax)$
- **Null space** (subspace of  $H_0$ ):  $\mathcal{N}(A) = \{x \in H_0, Ax = 0\}$
- **Range space** (subspace of  $H_1$ ):  $\mathcal{R}(A) = \{Ax \in H_1, x \in H_0\}$
- **Operator norm**:  $\|A\| = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|$
- $A$  is **bounded** when:  $\|A\| < \infty$
- **Inverse**: Bounded  $B : H_1 \rightarrow H_0$  inverse of bounded  $A$  if and only if:
  - $BAx = x$ , for every  $x \in H_0$
  - $ABx = x$ , for every  $x \in H_1$

# Linear operators: Illustration



- $\mathcal{R}(A)$  is the plane  $5y_1 + 2y_2 + 8y_3 = 0$  since  $(-2, 1, 1) \times (-2, -3, 2) = (5, 2, 8)$ , where  $\times$  denotes the cross-product

# Adjoint operators

Adjoint generalizes Hermitian transposition of matrices

## Definition (Adjoint and self-adjoint operators)

- $A^* : H_1 \rightarrow H_0$  is the **adjoint** of  $A : H_0 \rightarrow H_1$  when

$$\langle Ax, y \rangle_{H_1} = \langle x, A^*y \rangle_{H_0} \text{ for every } x \in H_0, y \in H_1$$

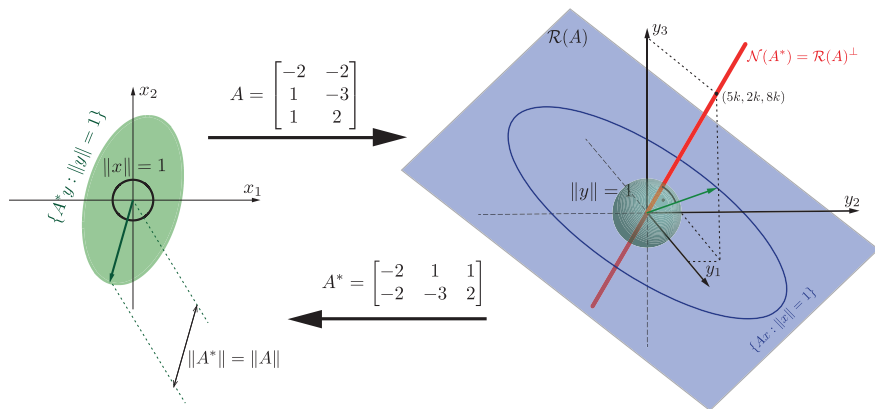
- If  $A = A^*$ ,  $A$  is **self-adjoint** or **Hermitian**

- Note that  $\mathcal{N}(A^*) = \mathcal{R}(A)^\perp$
- The matrix case: Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  be a matrix, then

$$\begin{aligned}\langle Ax, y \rangle &= y^*(Ax) \\ &= (y^*A)x \\ &= \langle x, A^*y \rangle\end{aligned}$$

- Intuition: “The action of  $A$  on  $H_0$  is **mimicked** by the action of  $A^*$  on  $H_1$ ”. This is only “visible” through the applicable inner product.

# Adjoint operator: Illustration



- $\mathcal{N}(A^*)$  is the line  $\frac{y_1}{5} = \frac{y_2}{2} = \frac{y_3}{8}$ , since again  $(-2, 1, 1) \times (-2, -3, 2) = (5, 2, 8)$

# Local averaging and its adjoint (I)

Consider the linear operator  $A : \mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R}) \mapsto \ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$  defined as

$$(Ax)_n = \int_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} x(t) dt, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

- Linearity follows by the linearity of integration
- It remains to show that  $A$  maps functions in  $\mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$  to sequences in  $\ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$

$$\begin{aligned}\|Ax\|_{\ell^2}^2 &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |(Ax)_n|^2 \\&= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \left| \int_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} x(t) dt \right|^2 \\&\leq \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \int_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} |x(t)|^2 dt \\&= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt = \|x\|_{\mathcal{L}^2}^2 < \infty\end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $Ax \in \ell^2(\mathbb{Z})$ .



# Local averaging and its adjoint (II)

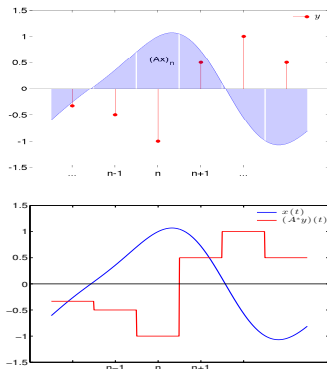
Let us now derive the adjoint of  $A$ , that is:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Find } A^* : \ell^2(\mathbb{Z}) &\mapsto \mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R}) \\ \text{s.t. } \langle Ax, y \rangle_{\ell^2} &= \langle x, A^*y \rangle_{\mathcal{L}^2}, \text{ for all } x \in \mathcal{L}^2, y \in \ell^2 \end{aligned}$$

Expand the inner products as

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Ax, y \rangle_{\ell^2} &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (Ax)_n y_n^* \\ &= \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \int_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} x(t) y_n^* dt \end{aligned}$$

$$\langle x, A^*y \rangle_{\mathcal{L}^2} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t) ((A^*y)(t))^* dt$$



Define  $(A^*y)(t) = y_n$  for  $t \in [n - 1/2, n + 1/2)$ . Then,  $\langle Ax, y \rangle_{\ell^2} = \langle x, A^*y \rangle_{\mathcal{L}^2}$ .

# Adjoint operators

## Theorem (Adjoint properties)

Let  $A : H_0 \longrightarrow H_1$  be a bounded linear operator

- 1  $A^*$  exists and is unique
- 2  $(A^*)^* = A$
- 3  $AA^*$  and  $A^*A$  are self-adjoint
- 4  $\|A^*\| = \|A\|$
- 5 If  $A$  invertible,  $(A^{-1})^* = (A^*)^{-1}$
- 6  $B : H_0 \longrightarrow H_1$  bounded,  $(A + B)^* = A^* + B^*$
- 7  $B : H_1 \longrightarrow H_2$  bounded,  $(BA)^* = A^*B^*$

# Unitary operators

## Definition (Unitary operators)

- A bounded linear operator  $A : H_0 \longrightarrow H_1$  is **unitary** when:
  - 1  $A$  is invertible
  - 2  $A$  preserves inner products:  $\langle Ax, Ay \rangle_{H_1} = \langle x, y \rangle_{H_0}$  for every  $x, y \in H_0$
- If  $A$  is unitary, then  $\|Ax\|^2 = \|x\|^2$
- $A$  is unitary if and only if  $A^{-1} = A^*$

# Projection operators

## Definition (Projection, orthogonal projection, oblique projection)

- $P$  is **idempotent** when  $P^2 = P$
- A **projection operator** is a bounded linear operator that is idempotent
- An **orthogonal projection** operator is a self-adjoint projection operator
- An **oblique projection** operator is not self adjoint

## Theorem

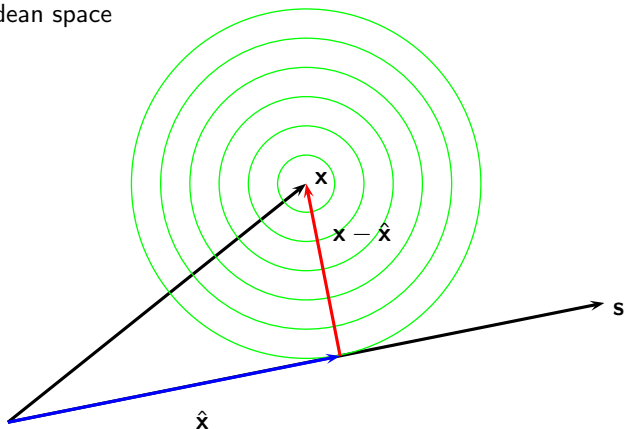
- A bounded linear operator  $P$  on  $H$  satisfies  $\langle x - Px, Py \rangle = 0$  for all  $x, y \in H$  iff  $P$  is an orthogonal projection operator

## Theorem

- If  $A : H_0 \rightarrow H_1$ ,  $B : H_1 \rightarrow H_0$  bounded and  $A$  is a left inverse of  $B$ , then  $BA$  is a projection operator. If  $B = A^*$  then,  $BA = A^*A$  is an orthogonal projection

# Best approximation: Euclidean geometry

- $x$  is a point in Euclidean space
- $S$  is a line in Euclidean space



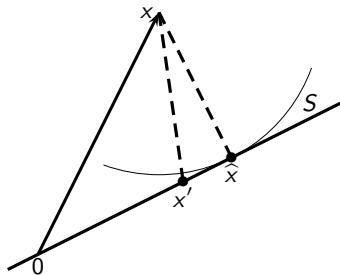
- Nearest point problem: Find  $\hat{x} \in S$  that is closest to  $x$
- Solution uniquely determined by  $x - \hat{x} \perp S$ 
  - Circle must touch  $S$  in one point, radius  $\perp$  tangent

# Best approximation: Hilbert space geometry

- $S$  closed subspace of a Hilbert space
- Best approximation problem:

Find  $\hat{x} \in S$  that is closest to  $x$

$$\hat{x} = \operatorname{argmin}_{s \in S} \|x - s\|$$



# Best approximation by orthogonal projection

## Theorem (Projection theorem)

Let  $S$  be a closed subspace of Hilbert space  $H$  and let  $x \in H$ .

- **Existence:** There exists  $\hat{x} \in S$  such that  $\|x - \hat{x}\| \leq \|x - s\|$  for all  $s \in S$
- **Orthogonality:**  $x - \hat{x} \perp S$  is necessary and sufficient to determine  $\hat{x}$
- **Uniqueness:**  $\hat{x}$  is unique
- **Linearity:**  $\hat{x} = Px$  where  $P$  is a linear operator
- **Idempotency:**  $P(Px) = Px$  for all  $x \in H$
- **Self-adjointness:**  $P = P^*$

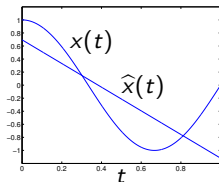
All “nearest vector in a subspace” problems in Hilbert spaces are the same

## Example 1: Least-square polynomial approximation

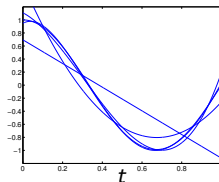
- Consider:  $x(t) = \cos(\frac{3}{2}\pi t) \in \mathcal{L}^2([0, 1])$
- Find the degree-1 polynomial closest to  $x$  (in  $\mathcal{L}^2$  norm)
- Solution: Use orthogonality

$$0 = \langle x(t) - \hat{x}(t), 1 \rangle_t = \int_0^1 (\cos(\frac{3}{2}\pi t) - (a_0 + a_1 t)) \cdot 1 \, dt = -\frac{2}{3\pi} - a_0 - \frac{1}{2}a_1$$

$$0 = \langle x(t) - \hat{x}(t), t \rangle_t = \int_0^1 (\cos(\frac{3}{2}\pi t) - (a_0 + a_1 t)) \cdot t \, dt = -\frac{4 + 6\pi}{9\pi^2} - \frac{1}{2}a_0 - \frac{1}{3}a_1$$



Approx. with degree 1 polynomial



Approx. with higher degree polynomials



## Example 2: MMSE estimate

- Consider: Real-valued random variable  $x$
- Find the constant  $c$  that minimizes  $E[(x - c)^2]$
- Note:
  - Expected square is a Hilbert space norm
  - Constants are a closed subspace in vector space of random variables
- Solution: Use orthogonality
  - $c$  determined uniquely by  $E[(x - c)\alpha c] = 0$  for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$
  - $c = E[x]$
- Alternative:
  - Expand into quadratic function of  $c$  and minimize with calculus
  - Not too difficult, but lacks insight

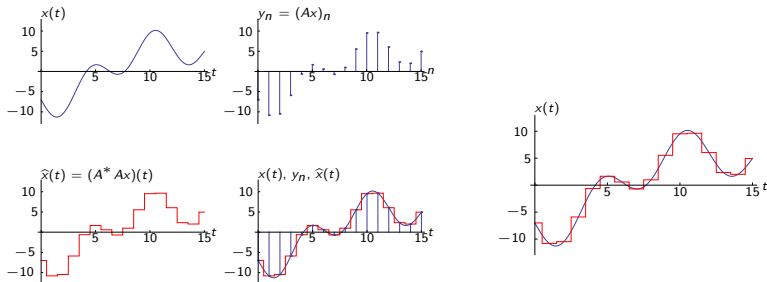
## Example 3: Best piecewise-constant approximation

- Local averaging

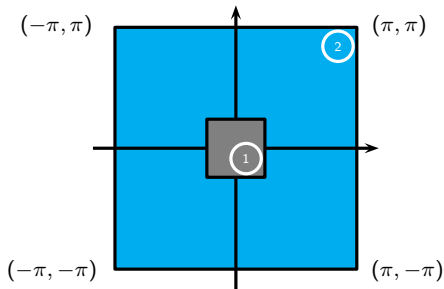
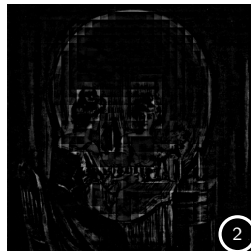
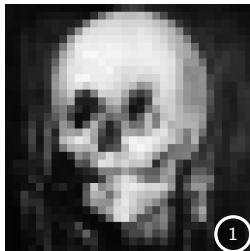
$$A : \mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \ell^2(\mathbb{Z}) \quad (Ax)_k = \int_{k-\frac{1}{2}}^{k+\frac{1}{2}} x(t) dt$$

has adjoint  $A^* : \ell^2(\mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$  that produces staircase function

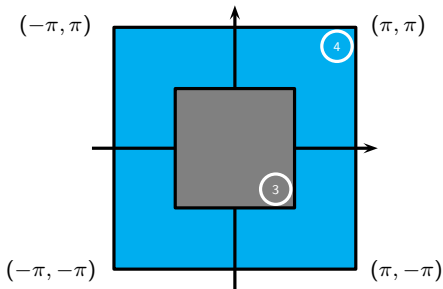
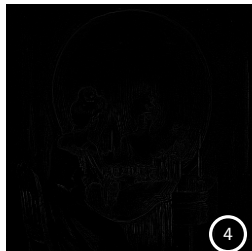
- $AA^*$  is identity, so  $A^*A$  is orthogonal projection



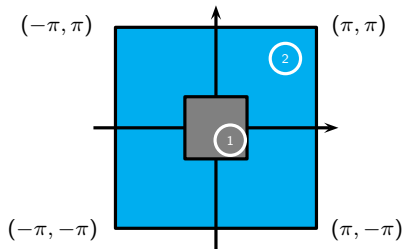
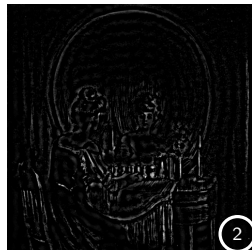
## Example 4: Approximations of “All is vanity” image—Haar



## Example 4: Approximations of “All is vanity” image—Haar



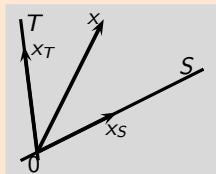
## Example 4: Approximations of “All is vanity” image—sinc



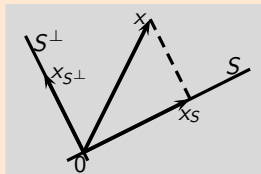
# Projection and direct sums

## Theorem

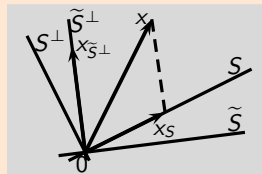
- $P$  projection on  $H$ ,  $S = \mathcal{R}(P)$ ,  $T = \mathcal{N}(P)$ . Then  $H = S \oplus T$



(a) Decomposition



(b) Orthogonal projection  
 $T = S^\perp$



(c) Oblique projection  
 $T = \tilde{S}^\perp$

- If  $S, T$  closed subspaces s.t.  $H = S \oplus T$  then there exists projection  $P$  on  $H$  s.t.  $S = \mathcal{R}(P)$  and  $T = \mathcal{N}(P)$

# Summary

- Geometry is key to gain intuition and understanding
- Vector spaces, subspaces
- Norms, inner products
- Hilbert spaces
- Linear operators, adjoints
- Projections

## As an exercise...

