



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:

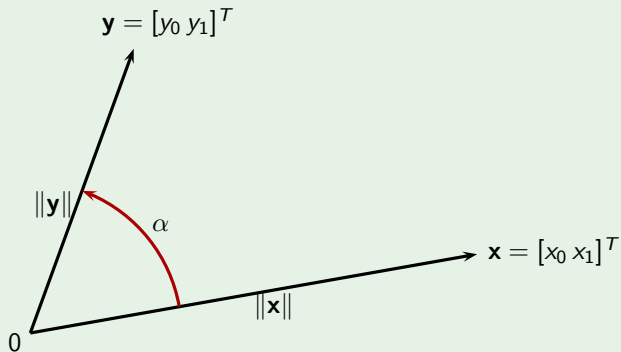
- A set of vectors V
 - These can be vectors in \mathbb{R}^N , functions, etc.
 - Think of geometry in \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{R}^3 , we will use pictures!
- A field of scalars F
 - Real or complex numbers
- Vector addition $+$
- Scalar multiplication \cdot

Easy case: N finite, linear algebra, matrices

Beware: N goes to infinity... convergence!

Vector spaces

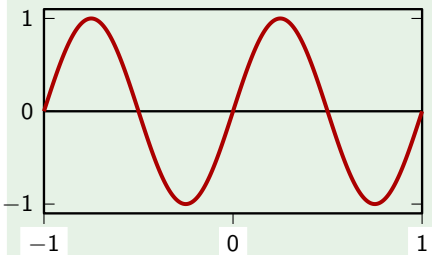
Vectors in \mathbb{R}^2



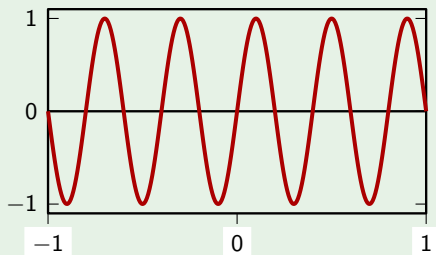
Vector spaces

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 $1x = x$

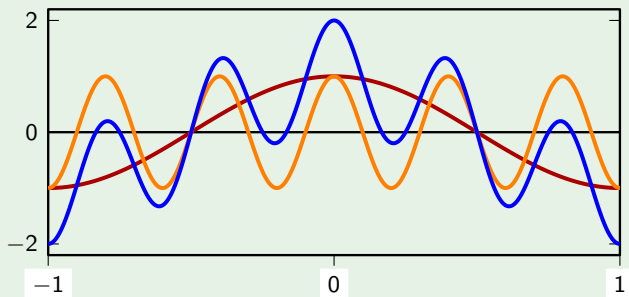
Vector spaces

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 , α in \mathbb{C} (or \mathbb{R}), αx is in S

Vector spaces

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



$x = \cos(\pi t)$, $y = \cos(5\pi t) \Rightarrow x + y$, 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 1st 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

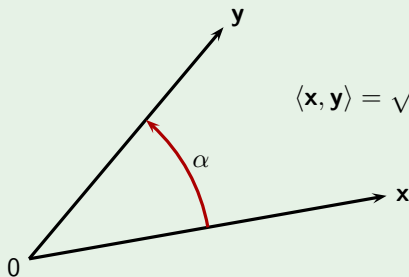
Examples

- 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

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

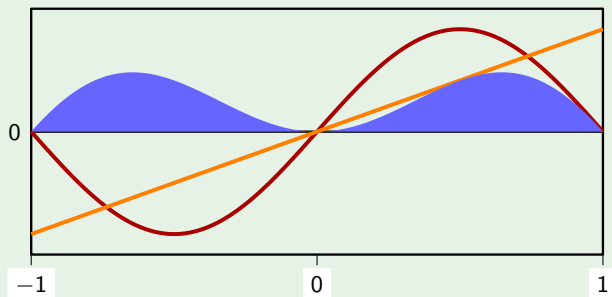


$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \sqrt{(x_0^2 + x_1^2)(y_0^2 + y_1^2)} \cos \alpha$$

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

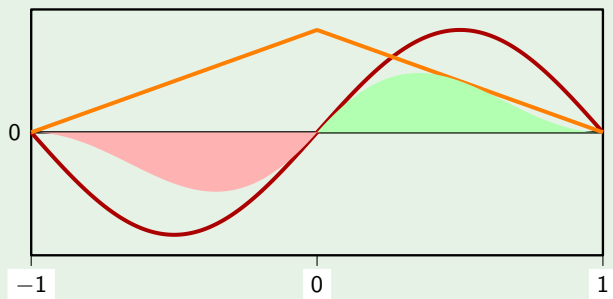
Definition (Orthogonality)

- 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

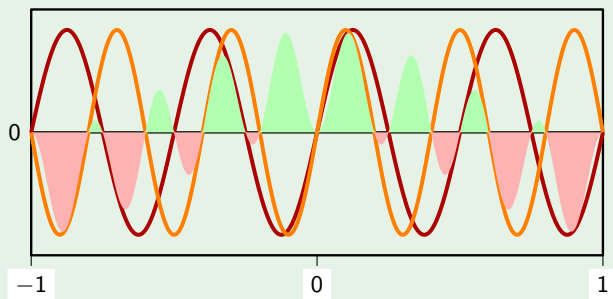


$$\mathbf{x} = \sin(\pi t), \mathbf{y} = 1 - |t|; \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$$

Orthogonality

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

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



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

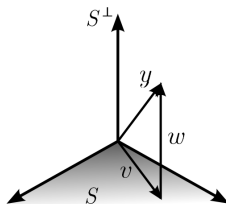
Orthogonal complement

- 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

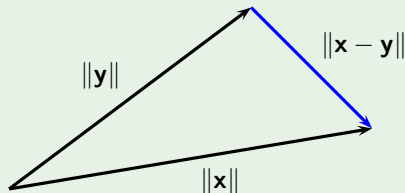
Distances, norms and inner products

Norm and distance in \mathbb{R}^2

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

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

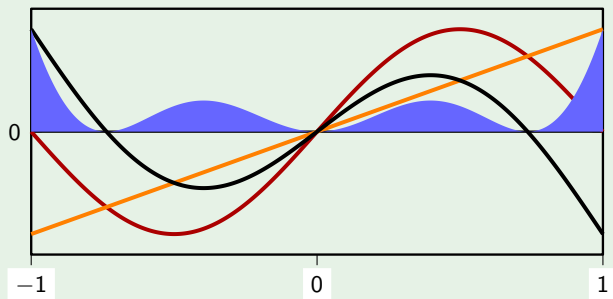
$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| = \sqrt{(x_0 - y_0)^2 + (x_1 - y_1)^2}$$



Distances, norms and inner products

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

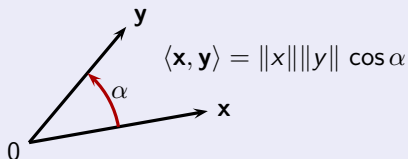
$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \int_{-1}^1 |x(t) - y(t)|^2 dt \text{ (MSE)}$$



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

Norms induced by inner products

Properties



- Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

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

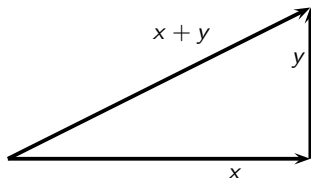
Norms induced by inner products

Properties

- Pythagorean theorem

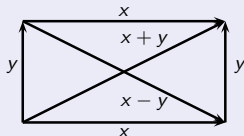
- $x \perp y \Rightarrow \|x + y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2$

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



Norms induced by inner products

Properties

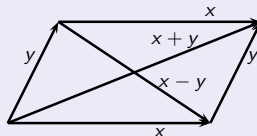


From Pythagorean theorem:

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

- 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

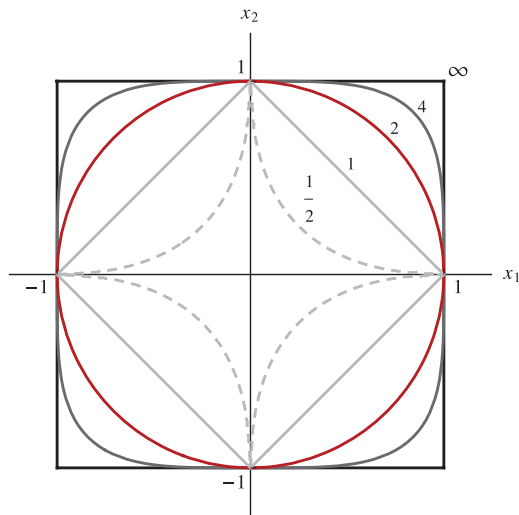
- \mathbb{C}^N : The p norm : $\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |x_n|^p \right)^{1/p}$, for $p \in [1, \infty)$
- $\ell^p(\mathbb{Z})$ spaces : $\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |x_n|^p \right)^{1/p}$, for $p \in [1, \infty)$
- Extend p norm to ℓ^∞ norm as $\|x\|_\infty = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |x_n|$
- $x \in \ell^p(\mathbb{Z})$ iff $\|x\|_p < \infty$
- $p = 2$: the only ℓ^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}^∞ 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 $N \times M$, α is $M \times 1$ and $N < M$.

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

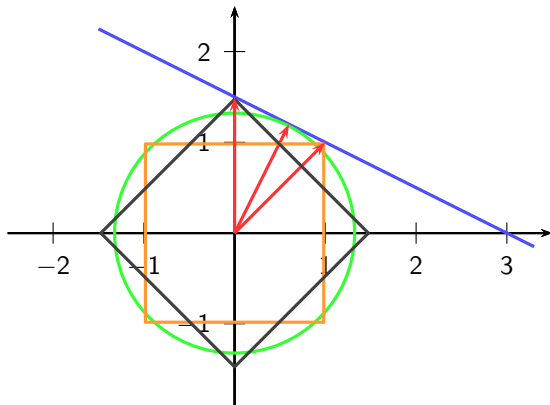
$$x = \frac{1}{5} \cdot [1 \ 2] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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_ε 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_ε 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

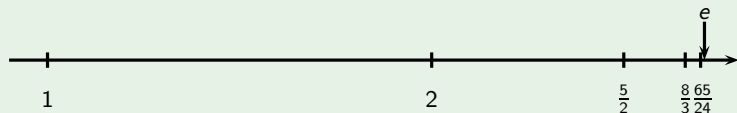
Hilbert spaces

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}^∞ norm
- Vector space of random variables as already defined is a Hilbert space

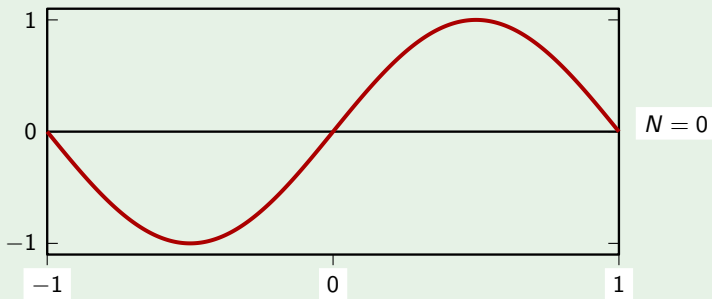
Hilbert spaces

Convergence and its pitfalls

Gibbs phenomenon

Approximating a square wave with partial sums of the Fourier series

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



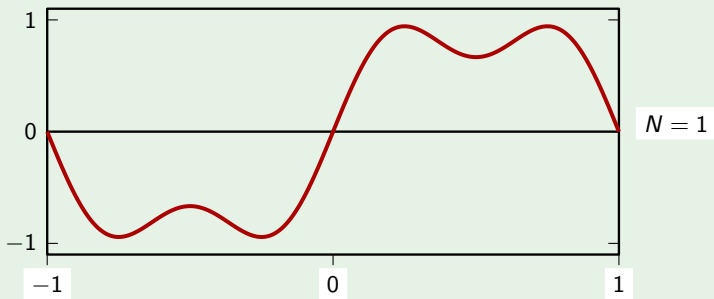
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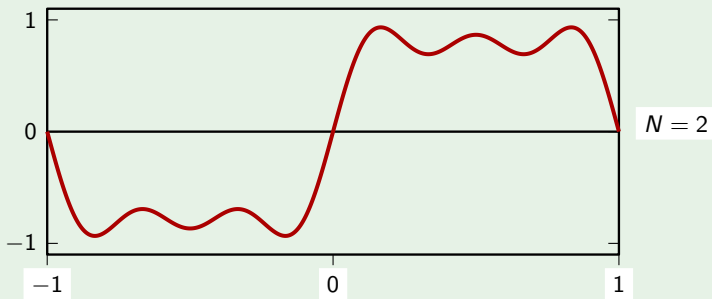
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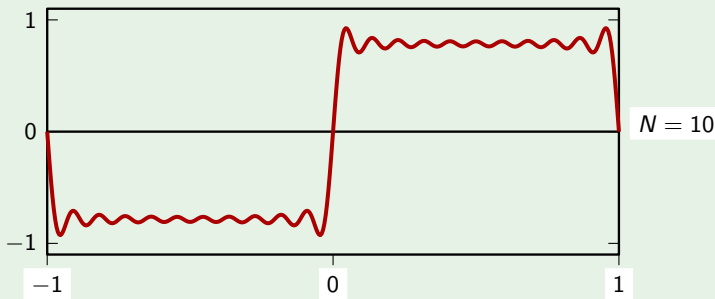
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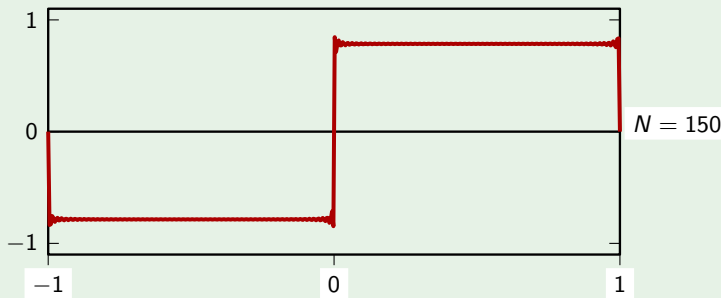
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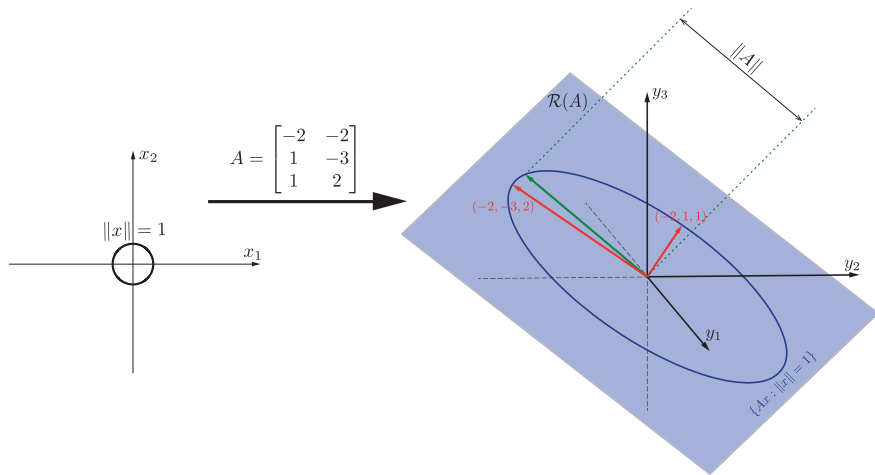
Linear operators

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)

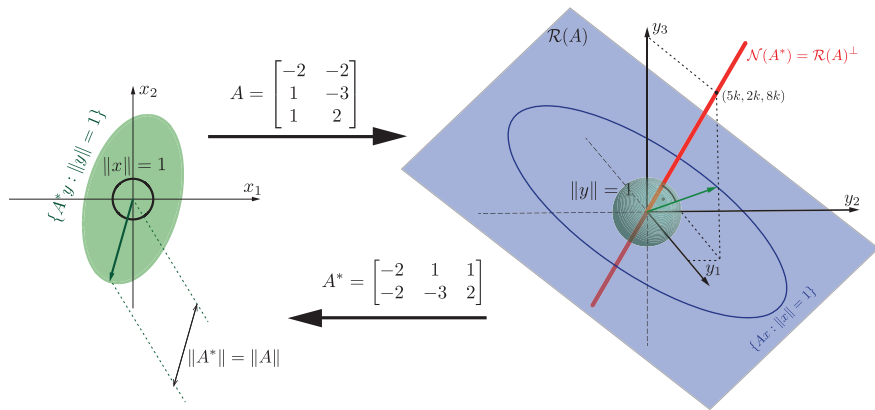
- $A^* : H_1 \rightarrow H_0$ is the **adjoint** of $A : H_0 \rightarrow H_1$ when

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

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

- Note that $\mathcal{N}(A^*) = \mathcal{R}(A)^\perp$

Adjoint operator: Illustration



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

Adjoint operators

Theorem (Adjoint properties)

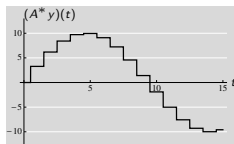
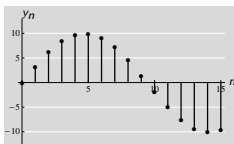
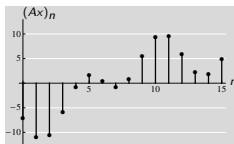
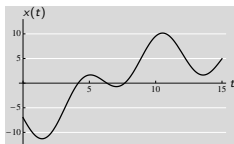
Let $A : H_0 \longrightarrow H_1$ be a bounded linear operator

- 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, $(BA)^* = A^*B^*$

Adjoint operators: Local averaging

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

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



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

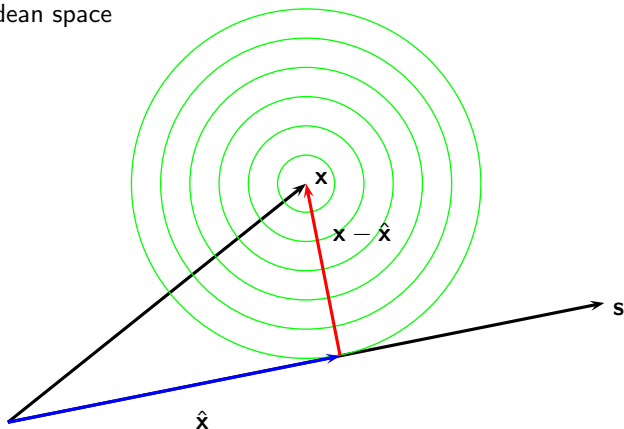
- A bounded linear operator P on H satisfies $\langle x - Px, Py \rangle = 0$ for all $x, y \in H$ iff P is an orthogonal projection operator

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



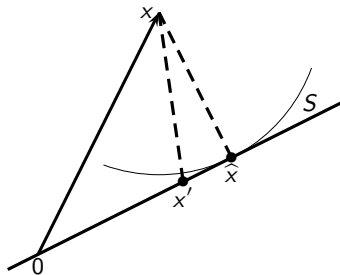
- Nearest point problem: Find $\hat{x} \in S$ that is closest to x
- Solution uniquely determined by $x - \hat{x} \perp S$
 - Circle must touch S in one point, radius \perp tangent

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:** $P = P^*$

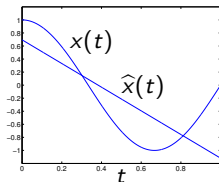
All “nearest vector in a subspace” problems in Hilbert spaces are the same

Example 1: Least-square polynomial approximation

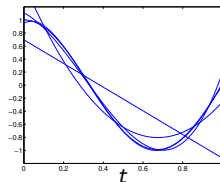
- Consider: $x(t) = \cos(\frac{3}{2}\pi t) \in \mathcal{L}^2([0, 1])$
- Find the degree-1 polynomial closest to x (in \mathcal{L}^2 norm)
- Solution: Use orthogonality

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

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



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

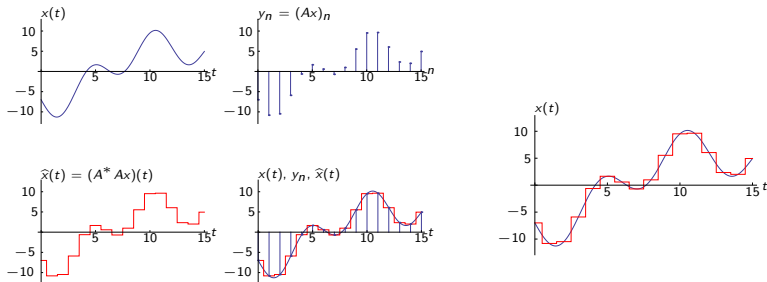
Example 3: Best piecewise-constant approximation

- Local averaging

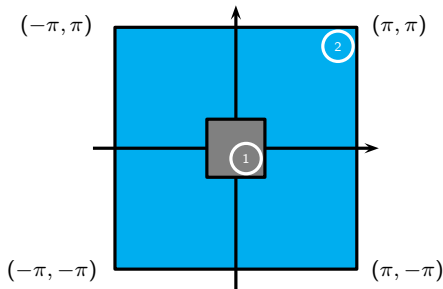
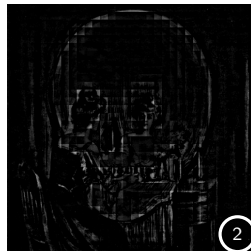
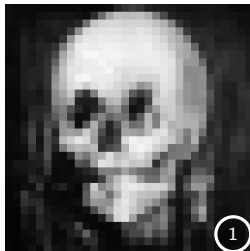
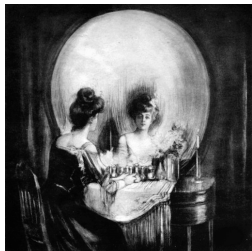
$$A : \mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \ell^2(\mathbb{Z}) \quad (Ax)_k = \int_{k-\frac{1}{2}}^{k+\frac{1}{2}} x(t) dt$$

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

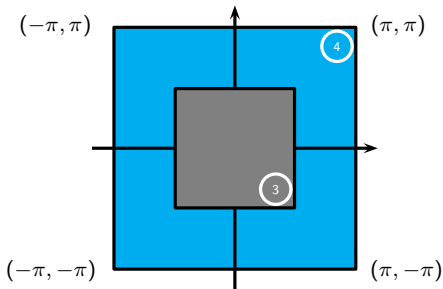
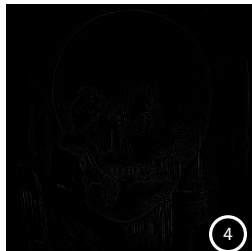
- AA^* is identity, so A^*A is orthogonal projection



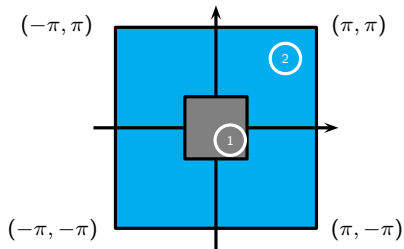
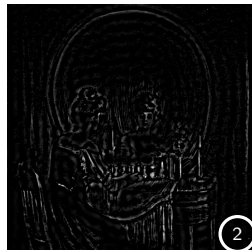
Example 4: Approximations of “All is vanity” image—Haar



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



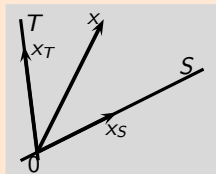
Example 4: Approximations of “All is vanity” image—sinc



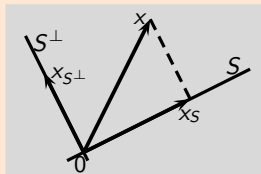
Projection and direct sums

Theorem

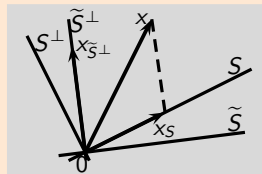
- P projection on H , $S = \mathcal{R}(P)$, $T = \mathcal{N}(P)$. Then $H = S \oplus T$



(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...

