

## 7 Spectral Factorization

### 7.1 The $H_2$ norm

#### 7.1.1 Matrix $\ell_2$

We consider the matrix version of  $\ell_2$ , given by

$$\ell_2(\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}) = \{ H : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \mid \|H\|_2 \text{ is finite} \}$$

where the norm is

$$\|H\|_2^2 = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \|H\|_F^2$$

This space has the natural generalization to  $\ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+, \mathbb{R}^{m \times n})$ . If  $n = 1$  then each component is a vector, and the Frobenius norm is equal to the usual Euclidean norm in this case.

#### 7.1.2 Linear systems driven by noise

We'll consider the linear system with impulse response  $H \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+, \mathbb{R}^{m \times n})$ . Suppose  $u_0, u_1, \dots$  are IID Gaussian random variables with  $u_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$ , and

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} H_0 & & & \\ H_1 & H_0 & & \\ H_2 & H_1 & H_0 & \\ \vdots & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_0 \\ u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

where each  $H_k \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(y_{t+s}y_t^T) &= \mathbb{E} \sum_{k=0}^{t+s} \sum_{i=0}^t H_{t+s-k} u_k u_i^T H_{t-i}^T \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^t H_{t+s-k} H_{t-k}^T \\ &= \sum_{j=-t}^0 H_{s-j} H_j^T \end{aligned}$$

which is a convolution of  $H$  with the time-flip of  $H^T$ . Hence

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}(y_t y_t^T) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} H_i H_i^T$$

and

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E} \|y_t\|^2 = \|H\|_2^2$$

That is, the mean square response of the system to Gaussian white noise is the  $\ell_2$  norm of the impulse response. We use this to measure the size of the system  $S_H$ , as follows. We define the 2-norm of a semi-infinite Toeplitz operator to be

$$\|S_H\|_2 = \|H\|_2$$

Notice that this is a very unusual notation on the left; we cannot apply this 2-norm to any operator on  $\ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)$ , but only to Toeplitz operators. And we need  $H \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)$ . However, it's an extremely useful notation, precisely because it measures the mean-square norm of the output when the input is discrete Gaussian white noise.

If  $\hat{g} \in H_2$ , then we have

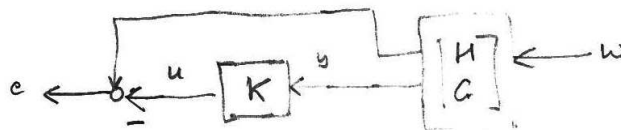
$$\|S_g\|_2 = \|\hat{g}\|_{H_2}$$

and so this norm is called the **H<sub>2</sub> norm** of  $S_g$ . If  $g$  is scalar, then since  $g = S_g e_0$  we have

$$\|S_g\|_2 = \|S_g e_0\|_2 \tag{1}$$

where  $e_0 \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)$  is  $e_0 = (1, 0, 0, \dots)$ .

## 7.2 Example: a filtering problem



We have the linear dynamical system

$$\begin{aligned} x_{t+1} &= Ax_t + Bw_t \\ r_t &= C_1 x_t \\ y_t &= C_2 x_t + Dw_t \end{aligned}$$

Here  $w_0, w_1, \dots$  is Gaussian white noise. We measure  $y_t$  and would like to estimate  $r_t$ . Because so far we have only analyzed scalar systems, we've made the simplifying assumption that the measurement  $y_t$  is corrupted by noise  $w_t$ , which is the same random signal that disturbs the dynamics.

Then we have two transfer functions

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{h}(\lambda) &= C_1(\lambda^{-1}I - A)^{-1}B \\ \hat{g}(\lambda) &= C_2(\lambda^{-1}I - A)^{-1}B + D \end{aligned}$$

and we'll use estimator

$$u = S_k y$$

defined by transfer function  $\hat{k}$ . Then the mean square error is

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E} \|y_t\|^2 = \|S_h - S_k S_g\|_2$$

and we'd like to find a transfer function  $\hat{k}$  to minimize this.

The optimal  $\hat{k}$  to this problem is precisely given by the steady-state Kalman filter. We'll construct this in the frequency domain. We have

$$\begin{aligned} (S_h - S_k S_g)e_0 &= (S_h - S_g S_k)e_0 \\ &= h - S_g k \end{aligned}$$

and so, using (1) we have

$$\|S_h - S_k S_g\|_2 = \|h - S_g k\|_2$$

Therefore we'd like to solve

$$\min_{k \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)} \|h - S_g k\|_2$$

an *infinite-dimensional least-squares problem*. Note that the solution of this problem is **not** a single estimate, but is instead the **linear dynamical system** that maps measurements to estimates.

### 7.3 Least Squares

We would like to solve the problem

$$\min_{x \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)} \|y - Gx\|$$

where  $G : \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+) \rightarrow \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}^+)$  is a bounded linear map.

Suppose  $G$  is a real matrix and  $G^T G$  is invertible. Then completion of squares gives

$$\|y - Gx\|_2^2 = y^T (I - G(G^T G)^{-1} G^T) y + (G^T Gx - G^T y)^T (G^T G)^{-1} (G^T Gx - G^T y)$$

and hence any  $x$  such that  $G^T Gx = y$  is optimal. Exactly the same trick may be used for linear operators on infinite dimensional spaces.

**Theorem 1.** *Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  are Hilbert spaces, and  $G : X \rightarrow Y$  is a bounded linear operator. Then  $x$  minimizes*

$$\|y - Gx\|$$

*if and only if*

$$G^* Gx = G^* y$$

**Proof.** We will not give a complete proof here; it's straightforward, but a careful explanation of the infinite-dimensional case is a little too long. However, it's simple to see one direction in the case when  $G^* G$  is invertible. Then we have

$$\|y - Gx\|_2^2 = \langle y, (I - G(G^* G)^{-1} G^*) y \rangle + \langle G(x - (G^* G)^{-1} G^* y), G(x - (G^* G)^{-1} G^* y) \rangle$$

which may be verified by simply expanding the inner products. Then the second inner product is always nonnegative, and is minimized by the choice

$$x = (G^*G)^{-1}G^*y$$

as desired. ■

Notice that the theorem does not mention existence, and if  $\text{range } G$  is not closed there may not exist an optimal solution.

### 7.3.1 Least squares with a Toeplitz operator

We have  $\hat{g} \in RH_\infty$  and would like to solve

$$\min_{x \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)} \|y - S_g x\|$$

then  $S_g^* S_g = S_w$  where  $w = \tilde{g}g$ . Then since  $\text{range } S_w$  is closed and  $\text{null } S_w = \{0\}$ , one can show that  $S_w$  is invertible. Hence there exists a unique solution.

### 7.3.2 The Wiener-Hopf Problem

We would like to solve the **Wiener-Hopf equation**, which is

$$S_w x = v$$

for  $x \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)$ . We are given  $v \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)$ ; for the case of the filtering problem above we have  $v = S_g^* y$ . The function  $\hat{w}$  is positive and real on  $\mathbb{T}$ , and is usually given by

$$\hat{w}(\lambda) = \hat{g}(\lambda)\tilde{g}(\lambda)$$

where  $\hat{g} \in RH_\infty$  has no poles or zeros on  $\mathbb{T}$ .

## 7.4 Some linear algebra results

**Lemma 2.** *Suppose  $A$  is partitioned according to*

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

*Then  $A_{22}x = y$  if and only if there exists  $z$  such that*

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

**Proof.** The above equation is just

$$\begin{aligned} A_{12}x &= z \\ A_{22}x &= y \end{aligned}$$

and the proof is immediate. ■

**Lemma 3.** *Suppose  $A$  is partitioned according to*

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

*and  $A$  is invertible. Suppose also that  $U$  and  $L$  are invertible,  $U, U^{-1}$  are upper triangular, and  $L, L^{-1}$  are lower triangular, and*

$$A = UL$$

*Then let*

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

*Under these conditions, if  $A_{22}x = y$  then*

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \end{bmatrix} L^{-1} P U^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

**Proof.** Suppose  $A_{22}x = y$ . Then by Lemma 2 we have

$$A \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now, since  $A = UL$  we have

$$L \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{bmatrix} - U^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ y \end{bmatrix} = U^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} z \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and multiplying on the left by  $P$  gives

$$PL \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{bmatrix} - PU^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ y \end{bmatrix} = PU^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} z \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

But since  $U^{-1}$  is upper, we have

$$PU^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} z \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

and since  $L$  is lower

$$PL \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{bmatrix} = L \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence

$$L \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{bmatrix} = PU^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

and so

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{bmatrix} = L^{-1} PU^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

as desired. ■

## 7.5 Spectral Factorization

### 7.5.1 Trigonometric Polynomials

A rational function of the form

$$f(\lambda) = \sum_{k=-n}^n c_k \lambda^k$$

is called a *trigonometric polynomial*. There is no requirement that  $c_n$  or  $c_{-n}$  be zero, so for convenience we number the terms with positive and negative powers up to  $n$ . We can think of these as functions with *finite* Fourier series expansions, or as corresponding to *banded* Toeplitz operators. It is straightforward to see that, since the  $\lambda^k$  are a Fourier basis,  $f(\lambda)$  is real for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{T}$  if and only if

$$c_k = \overline{c_{-k}} \quad \text{for all } k$$

This then implies that

$$f(1/\bar{\lambda}) = \overline{f(\lambda)} \quad \text{for all } \lambda \in \mathbb{C} \quad (2)$$

and so if  $a$  is a root of  $f$  then so is  $1/\bar{a}$ .

### 7.5.2 Spectral Factorization of Trigonometric Polynomials

**Theorem 4.** *Suppose  $f$  is the trigonometric polynomial*

$$f(\lambda) = \sum_{k=-n}^n c_k \lambda^k$$

*and  $f(\lambda)$  is real for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{T}$ . Then*

$$f(\lambda) \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } \lambda \in \mathbb{T}$$

*if and only if there exists a polynomial*

$$q(\lambda) = a(\lambda - z_1) \dots (\lambda - z_n)$$

*with all  $|z_i| > 1$  such that*

$$f(\lambda) = q(\lambda)\tilde{q}(\lambda)$$

**Proof.** The *if* direction is immediate. For the converse direction, let the polynomial  $p$  be

$$p(\lambda) = \lambda^n f(\lambda)$$

Since  $p$  is a polynomial, not a trigonometric polynomial, we can factorize it. Suppose without loss of generality that  $c_n \neq 0$ , then  $p$  has  $2n$  roots, all of which are nonzero since  $c_{-n}$  is also nonzero. Then we factorize  $p$  as

$$p(\lambda) = c \prod_{i=1}^m (\lambda - z_i)(\lambda - 1/\bar{z}_i) \prod_{j=1}^r (\lambda - w_j)^2$$

where  $|z_i| > 1$  and  $|w_j| = 1$ . Since  $f$  is nonnegative on  $\mathbb{T}$ , and  $f$  is continuous, the roots  $w_1, \dots, w_r$  which are on  $\mathbb{T}$  must have even multiplicity. And each root  $z_i \notin \mathbb{T}$  must have a corresponding root  $1/\bar{z}_i$  by the symmetry property of  $f$  in (2). Hence

$$f(\lambda) = d \prod_{i=1}^m (\lambda - z_i)(\lambda^{-1} - \bar{z}_i) \prod_{j=1}^r (\lambda - w_j)^2 \quad (3)$$

where

$$d = c \prod_{i=1}^m \left( \frac{-1}{\bar{z}_i} \right)$$

and  $d > 0$  since each of the pairs of terms in (3) is positive. So we set

$$q(\lambda) = \sqrt{d} \prod_{i=1}^m (\lambda - z_i) \prod_{j=1}^r (\lambda - w_j)$$

and we have

$$f(\lambda) = q(\lambda)\tilde{q}(\lambda)$$

as desired. ■

This factorization is called a **spectral factorization** of  $f$ , or **Wiener-Hopf factorization**, and the above theorem is called the Riesz-Fejér theorem. It gives  $f$  as the product of a polynomial with all roots outside  $\mathbb{D}$  and a polynomial with all roots inside  $\mathbb{D}$ . The polynomial  $q$  is called **outer** because all of its zeros are outside  $\mathbb{D}$ .

Let's look at an example. Suppose

$$f(\lambda) = \frac{1}{4}(6\lambda^{-2} + 35\lambda^{-2} + 62 + 35\lambda + 6\lambda^2)$$

then clearly  $f$  is real on  $\mathbb{T}$ , and one can check that  $f$  is positive on  $\mathbb{T}$  also. Then

$$p(\lambda) = \frac{1}{4}(6 + 35\lambda + 62\lambda^2 + 35\lambda^3 + 6\lambda^4)$$

which factorizes as

$$p(\lambda) = \frac{3}{2}(\lambda + \frac{1}{2})(\lambda + 3)(\lambda + 2)(\lambda + \frac{1}{3})$$

and so

$$p(\lambda) = \frac{\lambda^2}{4}(\lambda + \frac{1}{2})(\frac{1}{\lambda} + 3)(\lambda + 2)(\frac{1}{\lambda} + \frac{1}{3})$$

so let

$$q = \frac{1}{2}(\lambda + 2)(\lambda + 3)$$

This result says that every real trigonometric polynomial which is nonnegative on the circle is the absolute value squared of a polynomial

$$f(\lambda) = |q(\lambda)|^2$$

One can also, by taking the real and imaginary parts of  $q$ , use this to show that every such polynomial is a **sum of squares** of two real polynomials. This and related results have many interesting connections to convex programming.

There are many generalizations of this result. The requirement that  $f$  be strictly positive may be relaxed. The result may be extended to operator-valued polynomials, and to factorization of general positive functions.

### 7.5.3 Spectral Factorization of Toeplitz Operators

**Theorem 5.** *Suppose  $\hat{g} \in RH_\infty$ , with no poles or zeros on  $\mathbb{T}$ . Then there exists  $\hat{p} \in H_\infty$  such that*

$$L_g^* L_g = L_p^* L_p$$

and both  $L_p$  and  $L_p^{-1}$  are causal.

**Proof.** We have

$$\hat{g}(\lambda) = \frac{\hat{b}(\lambda)}{\hat{a}(\lambda)}$$

where  $\hat{a}$  and  $\hat{b}$  are polynomials, and since  $\hat{g} \in H_\infty$  it has no poles in  $\mathbb{D}$ . We have

$$L_g^* L_g = L_w$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{w}(\lambda) &= \hat{g}(\lambda) \tilde{g}(\lambda) \\ &= \frac{\hat{b}(\lambda) \tilde{b}(\lambda)}{\hat{a}(\lambda) \tilde{a}(\lambda)} \end{aligned}$$

The numerator and denominator of this expression are trigonometric polynomials, so we find their spectral factors

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{b}(\lambda) \tilde{b}(\lambda) &= \beta(\lambda) \tilde{\beta}(\lambda) \\ \hat{a}(\lambda) \tilde{a}(\lambda) &= \alpha(\lambda) \tilde{\alpha}(\lambda) \end{aligned}$$

Then let

$$p(\lambda) = \frac{\beta(\lambda)}{\alpha(\lambda)}$$

Then since  $p$  has all its poles outside  $\bar{\mathbb{D}}$  we have  $L_p$  is causal. The polynomial  $\beta$  has no zeros on  $\mathbb{T}$  since  $\hat{g}$  has no zeros on  $\mathbb{T}$ , and so  $L_p$  is invertible. Also, since  $p$  has all its zeros outside  $\bar{\mathbb{D}}$  we know that  $L_p^{-1}$  is causal also.  $\blacksquare$

## 7.6 Least-Squares Using Spectral Factorization

### 7.6.1 The Wiener-Hopf Problem

We would like to solve the *Wiener-Hopf equation*, which is

$$S_w x = v$$

for  $x \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)$ . We are given  $v \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)$ . The function  $\hat{w}$  is positive and real on  $\mathbb{T}$ , and is usually given by

$$\hat{w}(\lambda) = \hat{g}(\lambda) \tilde{g}(\lambda)$$

where  $\hat{g} \in RH_\infty$  has no poles or zeros on  $\mathbb{T}$ .



In other words, we'd like to find a solution to the linear system defined by a Hermitian Toeplitz operator. If  $x$  is a solution, then by Lemma 2 we know that there exists  $z \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_-)$  such that

$$L_w \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now apply Theorem 5, which gives

$$L_w = L_p^* L_p$$

Then Lemma 3 implies that  $x$  must satisfy

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \end{bmatrix} L_p^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} (L_p^*)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ v \end{bmatrix}$$

### 7.6.2 The Least-Squares Problem

And we can apply the Wiener-Hopf solution to solve the original least-squares problem

$$\min_{x \in \ell_2(\mathbb{Z}_+)} \|y - S_g x\|$$

where  $\hat{g} \in H_\infty$  and has no poles or zeros on  $\mathbb{T}$ . If  $S_g^* S_g$  is invertible, then Theorem 1 and the Wiener-Hopf solution immediately give that the optimal  $x$  is

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \end{bmatrix} L_p^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} (L_p^*)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ S_g^* y \end{bmatrix}$$

### 7.6.3 Example

We have

$$g = \frac{(2\lambda - 1)(5\lambda - 1)}{10(\lambda - (4 + 3i))(\lambda - (4 - 3i))}$$

and

$$h = -\frac{25\lambda(3\lambda - 1)}{(\lambda - (4 + 3i))(\lambda - (4 - 3i))}$$

In state space

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{8}{25} & -\frac{1}{25} \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad D = \frac{1}{250}$$

and

$$C_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{167}{6250} \\ \frac{249}{6250} \end{pmatrix} \quad C_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then

$$M_{\hat{g}}^* = \frac{(\lambda - 5)(\lambda - 2)}{10((4 - 3i)\lambda - 1)((4 + 3i)\lambda - 1)}$$

So

$$M_{\hat{g}}^* h = \frac{5(\lambda - 5)(\lambda - 2)\lambda(3\lambda - 1)}{2(i\lambda - (3 + 4i))(\lambda - (4 + 3i))((3 + 4i)\lambda - i)((4 + 3i)\lambda - 1)}$$

Now projecting onto positive time is the same as projecting onto  $H_2$ , which we do via partial fractions. We have

$$M_{\hat{g}}^* h = \frac{4441 - 478\lambda}{36720(25\lambda^2 - 8\lambda + 1)} - \frac{5(434\lambda - 6575)}{7344(\lambda^2 - 8\lambda + 25)} - \frac{3}{10}$$

and so

$$PM_{\hat{g}}^* h = -\frac{5(434\lambda - 6575)}{7344(\lambda^2 - 8\lambda + 25)} - \frac{3}{10}$$

which is just

$$PM_{\hat{g}}^* h = -\frac{11016\lambda^2 - 77278\lambda + 111025}{36720(\lambda - (4 + 3i))(\lambda - (4 - 3i))}$$

We also need to spectral factorize. We have

$$\tilde{g}(\lambda)g(\lambda) = \frac{(\lambda - 5)(\lambda - 2)(2\lambda - 1)(5\lambda - 1)}{100(\lambda - (4 + 3i))(\lambda - (4 - 3i))((4 - 3i)\lambda - 1)((4 + 3i)\lambda - 1)}$$

And so we set

$$\hat{p}(\lambda) = \frac{(\lambda - 5)(\lambda - 2)}{10(\lambda - (4 + 3i))(\lambda - (4 - 3i))}$$

Then

$$(M_{\hat{p}}^*)^{-1}(PM_{\hat{g}}^* h) = \frac{-275400\lambda^4 + 2020078\lambda^3 - 3404865\lambda^2 + 965478\lambda - 111025}{3672(10\lambda^4 - 87\lambda^3 + 307\lambda^2 - 183\lambda + 25)}$$

Again, partial fractions and projection gives

$$P(M_{\hat{p}}^*)^{-1}(PM_{\hat{g}}^* h) = -\frac{5(14943\lambda^2 - 100930\lambda + 127125)}{9962(\lambda^2 - 8\lambda + 25)}$$

Now

$$M_{\hat{p}}^{-1}P(M_{\hat{p}}^*)^{-1}(PM_{\hat{g}}^* h) = -\frac{25(14943\lambda^2 - 100930\lambda + 127125)}{4981(\lambda - 5)(\lambda - 2)}$$

And so, once more projecting via partial fractions gives

$$PM_{\hat{p}}^{-1}P(M_{\hat{p}}^*)^{-1}(PM_{\hat{g}}^* h) = -\frac{25(14943\lambda^2 - 100930\lambda + 127125)}{4981(\lambda - 5)(\lambda - 2)}$$