

Engr210a Lecture 5: Linear analysis

- Norms on vectors, signals, and matrices
- Inner products
- Topology
- Convergence and completeness
- Bounded operators
- Induced norms

Norms

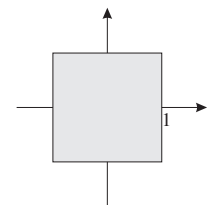
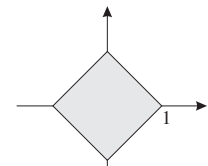
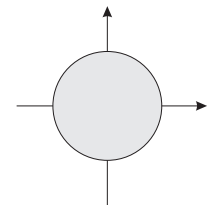
A *norm* $\|\cdot\|$ on a vector space \mathcal{V} is a function mapping $\mathcal{V} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$ which satisfies

- *Definiteness*: $\|v\| = 0$ if and only if $v = 0$
- *Homogeneity*: $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\|$
- *Triangle inequality*: $\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$

for all $u, v \in \mathcal{V}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

Examples on \mathbb{C}^n

- *Euclidean norm*: $\|v\|_2 = \sqrt{v^* v} = \left(|v_1|^2 + \dots + |v_n|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$
- *p-norm*: $\|v\|_p = \left(|v_1|^p + \dots + |v_n|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$
- *1-norm*: $\|v\|_1 = |v_1| + \dots + |v_n|$
- ∞ -norm: $\|v\|_\infty = \max\{|v_k| ; k = 1, \dots, n\}$



Norms on matrices

For a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$, we define

- *Frobenius norm*: $\|A\|_F = (\text{trace}(A^* A))^{\frac{1}{2}}$

If $A = [a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_n]$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \|A\|_F &= \left(\|a_1\|_2^2 + \|a_2\|_2^2 + \dots + \|a_n\|_2^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |A_{ij}|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

- *Spectral norm*:

$$\begin{aligned} \|A\| &= \max \left\{ \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} ; \lambda \text{ is an eigenvalue of } A^* A \right\} \\ &= \max \left\{ \lambda^{\frac{1}{2}} ; \lambda \text{ is an eigenvalue of } AA^* \right\} \\ &= \max_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|_2}{\|x\|_2} \end{aligned}$$

Norms on signals

The L_∞ space of signals on $(-\infty, \infty)$ is

$$L_\infty(-\infty, \infty) = \left\{ u : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n ; \|u\|_\infty = \operatorname{ess\,sup}_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \|u(t)\|_\infty \text{ is finite} \right\}$$

Notes

- $\operatorname{ess\,sup}_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \|u(t)\|_\infty < 1$ means $\|u(t)\|_\infty < 1$ at all t except a finite set of points $\{t_i\}$.
- Corresponds to the *peak* of a signal.
- The *spatial* norm is also the ∞ -norm.

The L_2 space of signals on $(-\infty, \infty)$ is

$$L_2(-\infty, \infty) = \left\{ u : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^n ; \|u\|_2 = \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \|u(t)\|_2^2 dt \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \text{ is finite} \right\}$$

Notes

- $u(t)$ must decay to zero as $t \rightarrow \infty$ for $\|u\|_2$ to be finite.
- Corresponds to the *total energy* in a signal.

Inner product spaces

An inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ on a vector space \mathcal{V} is a function mapping $\mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ which satisfies

- $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$, with $\langle v, v \rangle = 0$ if and only if $v = 0$
- $\langle v, \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 \rangle = \alpha_1 \langle v, u_1 \rangle + \alpha_2 \langle v, u_2 \rangle$
- $\langle u, v \rangle$ is the complex conjugate of $\langle v, u \rangle$

for all $u_1, u_2, u, v \in \mathcal{V}$ and $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Standard facts

- The inner-product captures the idea of *angle* between two vectors. If $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$ we say u, v are *orthogonal*.
- We can define $\|v\| = \langle v, v \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}$. This is a norm; i.e. it satisfies the required properties of a norm.
- *The Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality:*

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq \|u\| \|v\|$$

Examples of inner product spaces

- Euclidean space: $\langle x, y \rangle = x^*y$. The corresponding norm is the 2-norm.
- Matrices $C^{m \times n}$: $\langle A, B \rangle = \text{Trace}(A^*B)$. The corresponding norm is the Frobenius norm.

The space L_2

- The inner product on $L_2(-\infty, \infty)$ is

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x(t))^* y(t) dt$$

- $L_2[0, \infty)$ is a subspace of $L_2(-\infty, \infty)$.

The open ball

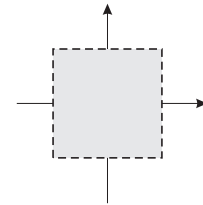
Suppose V is a normed space. The *open ball* $B(x, \varepsilon) \subset V$ is the set

$$B(x, \varepsilon) = \left\{ y \in \mathcal{V} ; \|x - y\| < \varepsilon \right\}$$

We say the ball has *radius* ε .

Example: In \mathbb{R}^2 , with the ∞ -norm, the ball of radius one at the origin is the square

$$B(0, 1) = \left\{ (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \quad |x_1| < 1 \text{ and } |x_2| < 1 \right\}$$



Note that the boundary is not included.

Interior points

Suppose $P \subseteq V$. Then the point $x \in P$ is an *interior point* if

there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $B(x, \varepsilon) \subset P$

Examples

- If P is the usual unit disk in \mathbb{R}^2 including boundary

$$\left\{ (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \quad x_1^2 + x_2^2 \leq 1 \right\}$$

Then the interior points are those points x which satisfy $x_1^2 + x_2^2 < 1$.

- If P is the plane $x_3 = 0$ in \mathbb{R}^3 , then P has no interior points.

Notes

- In finite dimensional space, the set of interior points of a set P is the same no matter which norm is used in the definition of the ball.
- In infinite dimensions, this is not true in general.

Open sets

The subset $P \subseteq V$ is called *open* if every point $x \in P$ is an interior point.

Examples

- The *open ball* $B(x, \varepsilon)$ is open for all $x \in V$ and all $\varepsilon > 0$.
- The interval $(a, b) \subset \mathbb{R} = \{x \in \mathbb{R} ; a < x < b\}$ is open.
- The subset of \mathbb{R}^2 defined by

$$\{(x_1, x_2) ; a < x_1 < b; x_2 = 0\}$$

is *not open*.

Closure points

A point $x \in V$ is called a *closure point* of the subset $P \subseteq V$ if

$$B(x, \varepsilon) \cap P \neq \emptyset \text{ for all } \varepsilon > 0.$$

That is, x is a closure point of P if every open ball around x intersects with P .

Example of closure points

- The closure points of the half-space in \mathbb{R}^2

$$\{(x_1, x_2) ; x_1 < b\}$$

is the half-space

$$\{(x_1, x_2) ; x_1 \leq b\}$$

Closed sets

The subset $P \subseteq V$ is called *closed* if every closure point x of P is an element of P .

Facts

- The complement of an open set is closed and the complement of a closed set is open.
- The whole space \mathcal{V} is both closed and open.
- If P_1 and P_2 are open, then both $P_1 \cap P_2$ and $P_1 \cup P_2$ are open.
- If P_1 and P_2 are closed, then both $P_1 \cap P_2$ and $P_1 \cup P_2$ are closed.

Caveat:

The intersection of an infinite number of open sets may not be open; for example, $\bigcap \{(1/k, 1/k) \subset \mathbb{R} ; k = 1, 2, \dots\} = \{0\}$ is not open.

Convergence

The sequence of elements $\{v_0, v_1, v_2, \dots, ; v_i \in \mathcal{V}\}$ in a normed space \mathcal{V} *converges* if there exists an element $x \in \mathcal{V}$ such that limit

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|v_k - x\| = 0$$

Note that

- Convergence in \mathcal{V} is defined in terms of convergence of real numbers.
- Whether a sequence converges or not depends on which norm is used.
- We need to know x to apply this definition.

Cauchy sequences

The sequence $\{v_0, v_1, v_2, \dots, \}$ is *Cauchy* if for any $\varepsilon > 0$,

there exists N such that $\|v_i - v_j\| < \varepsilon$ for all $i, j > N$

Notes

- A Cauchy sequence is one that *appears to converge*.

Facts

- Every convergent sequence is Cauchy.
- In a closed subset P of a normed space, every Cauchy sequence converges.

Completeness

The space \mathcal{V} is called *complete* if every Cauchy sequence converges.

- A complete normed space is called a *Banach space*.
- A complete inner-product space is called a *Hilbert space*.

Example

The inner-product space

$$\mathcal{W} = \left\{ w \in L_2[0, \infty) ; \text{ there exists } T > 0 \text{ such that } w(t) = 0 \text{ for all } t \geq T \right\}$$

is not complete.

To see this, consider the sequence $\{w_0, w_1, \dots\} \subset \mathcal{W}$

$$w_k(t) = \begin{cases} e^{-t} & \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This sequence is Cauchy, since, for $l < k$

$$\begin{aligned} \|w_k - w_l\|^2 &= \int_l^k e^{-2t} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(e^{-2l} - e^{-2k}) \end{aligned}$$

with a similar result for $k < l$, and hence $\|w_k - w_l\| \leq e^{-\min\{k,l\}}$.

The sequence $\{w_0, w_1, \dots\} \subset L_2[0, \infty)$, and in that space it converges to the function $w(t) = e^{-t}$. But $w \notin \mathcal{W}$ and hence \mathcal{W} is not complete.

Operators

Linearity

The mapping $F : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}$ is called *linear* if

$$F(\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2) = \alpha_1 F(v_1) + \alpha_2 F(v_2)$$

for all $v_1, v_2 \in \mathcal{V}$ and $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Boundedness

The mapping $F : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{Z}$ is called *bounded* if there exists $K > 0$ such that

$$\|F(v)\| \leq K\|v\|$$

for all $v \in \mathcal{V}$.

- A bounded linear map is often called a *linear operator*.
- If F is linear, we often omit the brackets around its argument, and write $Fv = F(v)$, as in matrix multiplication.

Induced-norms

The *induced-norm* of a linear operator is

$$\|F\| = \sup_{v \neq 0} \frac{\|Fv\|}{\|v\|}$$

This is also often called the *operator norm*.

Notes

- $\|F\|$ measures the *maximum amplification* or *gain* of F .

Examples

- If $M : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a linear operator, and we put the 2-norm on \mathbb{R}^m and \mathbb{R}^n , then

$$\|M\| = \bar{\sigma}(M) \quad \text{the maximum singular value of } M$$

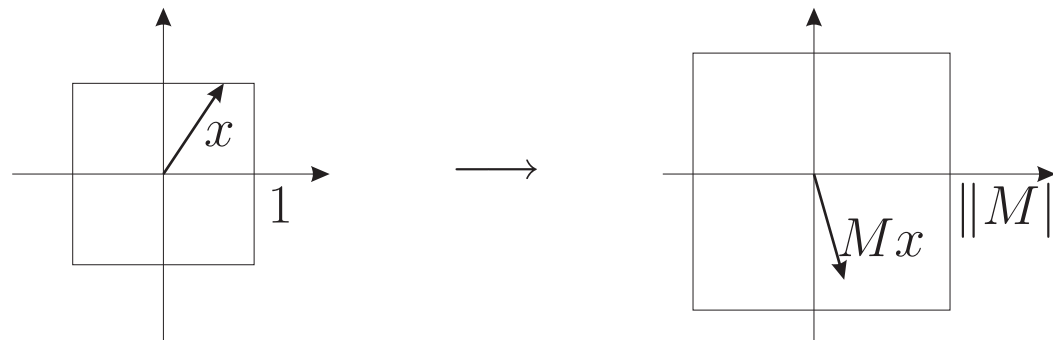
- If we use the ∞ -norm on \mathbb{R}^m and \mathbb{R}^n , then

$$\|M\|_{\infty \rightarrow \infty} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \sum_{j=1}^n |M_{ij}|$$

Interpretation of the induced ∞ -norm

The induced ∞ -norm of a matrix M is

$$\|M\|_{\infty \rightarrow \infty} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \sum_{j=1}^n |M_{ij}|$$



Interpretations

- If x fits within a square box of half-width 1, then Mx fits within a square box of half-width $\|M\|_{\infty \rightarrow \infty}$.
- The worst-case unit-norm x has the form $x_i = \pm 1$.

Example

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & -6 \\ 0 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \|M\| = 9 \quad \text{Worst-case } x = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The induced ∞ -norm of a linear system

Recall the ∞ -norm of a signal $w \in L_\infty[0, \infty)$ is

$$\begin{aligned}\|w\|_\infty &= \operatorname{ess\,sup}_t \|w(t)\|_\infty \\ &= \operatorname{ess\,sup}_t \sup_i |w_i(t)|\end{aligned}$$

Consider the state-space linear system G given by

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}(t) &= Ax(t) + Bu(t) \\ y(t) &= Cx(t)\end{aligned}$$

with u and y scalar real-valued signals.

Suppose we know the $\|u\|_\infty$; that is, the worst-case peak of u is given by

$$|u(t)| \leq u_{\text{peak}}$$

We would like to find the worst-case peak value of the output signal y . This is given by

$$u_{\text{peak}} \|G\|_{\infty \rightarrow \infty}$$

How do we compute $\|G\|_{\infty \rightarrow \infty}$?

The induced ∞ -norm of a linear system

Recall G can be represented as the convolution

$$(Gu)(t) = \int_0^t g(t - \tau)u(\tau) d\tau$$

where $g(t) = Ce^{At}B$ is the *impulse response* of G .

Theorem

The induced L_∞ norm of G is the 1-norm of the impulse response.

$$\|G\|_{\infty \rightarrow \infty} = \|g\|_1 = \int_0^\infty |g(t)| dt$$

Proof: We have

$$\begin{aligned} |y(t)| &= \left| \int_0^t g(t - \tau)u(\tau) d\tau \right| \\ &\leq \int_0^t |g(t - \tau)||u(\tau)| d\tau \\ &\leq \int_0^\infty |g(t - \tau)| d\tau \|u\|_\infty = \|g\|_1 \|u\|_\infty \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have $\|G\|_{\infty \rightarrow \infty} \leq \|g\|_1$.

Proof continued

We have shown that $\|G\|_{\infty \rightarrow \infty} \leq \|g\|_1$. We need to show that $\|G\|_{\infty \rightarrow \infty} \geq \|g\|_1$.

Ideally we would like to find u such that

$$\|y\|_{\infty} = \|g\|_1 \|u\|_{\infty}$$

We need only consider u with $\|u\|_{\infty} = 1$. In fact we will show that for any $\varepsilon > 0$, we can find a u such that

$$\|y\|_{\infty} \geq \|g\|_1 - \varepsilon$$

Choose t such that

$$\int_0^t |g(t - \tau)| d\tau \geq \|g\|_1 - \varepsilon$$

and set $u(\tau) = \text{sgn}(g(t - \tau))$. Then

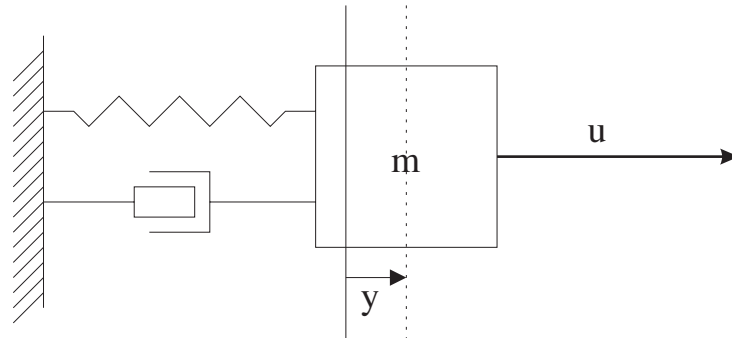
$$y(t) = \int_0^t g(t - \tau)u(\tau) d\tau = \int_0^t |g(t - \tau)| d\tau$$

Since y is continuous, we have

$$\|y\|_{\infty} \geq \|g\|_1 - \varepsilon$$

In general, the optimal input on $[0, T]$ is $u(t) = \text{sgn}(g(T - t))$. Note, this is *not* a sinusoid.

Example: mass-spring system



We have, with $m = 1$, $d = 0.2$ and $k = 0.2$,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -k/m & -d/m \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C = [1 \ 0]$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/m \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D = 0$$

Numerically, we find $\|g\|_1 = 1.447$ and $\|y\|_\infty = 1.430$.

