

Lectures on Least Squares Methods

Part I: Linear Least Squares

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Table of Contents

- 1 Introduction
 - Prerequisites
 - Basic concepts and notation
 - General terminology for estimators
- 2 Ordinary Least Squares
 - Review of linear algebra
 - Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
 - Properties of the OLS estimator
 - Weighted least squares
 - Summary on the OLS estimator
- 3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system
 - A constrained optimization problem
- 4 Singular Value Decomposition
 - Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
 - Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof
- 5 General LS solution for ANY linear system
 - Introduction to the general LS solution
 - The general LS solution
 - Geometrical interpretation of LS
 - Properties of the general LS estimator
- 6 Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem
 - Introduction
 - Estimable linear functions
 - Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

● Prerequisites

- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
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6 Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
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- 1 Differential calculus and integrals with multiple variables
- 2 Linear algebra, from fundamentals to eigenvalues, eigenvectors, and spectral theorem
- 3 All the previous notions extended to the complex field
- 4 Fundamentals of probability theory: distributions, expected value, variance, covariance and their properties, Bayes theorem

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- **Basic concepts and notation**
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
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- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
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Basic concepts and notation

- 1 The least squares problem arises whenever one has a physical system described by a model in the form $\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta}$
 - H is the response function describing the system, in this case a linear function, i.e. a matrix, with $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ as its argument
 - $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ are the parameters or inputs of the system (independent variables)
 - \mathbf{b} are the observations or outputs of the system (dependent variables)

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 - $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ are the parameters or inputs of the system (independent variables)
 - \mathbf{b} are the observations or outputs of the system (dependent variables)
- 2 Experimentally, observations are affected by uncertainty due to system and measurement noise, and finite measurement resolution: $\mathbf{b} \neq H\boldsymbol{\theta} \Rightarrow \mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$
 - \mathbf{b} is a column vector with N components, representing observations
 - $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is a column vector with p parameters that are characteristic of the system, and that must be estimated
 - H is a known $N \times p$ matrix; N : number of equations, p number of parameters.
 - $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ is the noise and generally it is assumed: $E[\boldsymbol{\epsilon}] = 0$, and $\text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\epsilon}] = \sigma^2 I^a$

^aReminder: $\text{cov}[\mathbf{X}] = E[\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T] - E[\mathbf{X}]E[\mathbf{X}^T]$

Basic concepts and notation

- 3 Because of the noise, $\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is in general an inconsistent system of N equations
 - One then seeks the optimal solution that minimizes the **cost function**

$$\phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \|\mathbf{b} - H\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 = (\mathbf{b} - H\boldsymbol{\theta})^T (\mathbf{b} - H\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

- Thus, the least squares estimator is $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \|\mathbf{b} - H\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2$

Basic concepts and notation

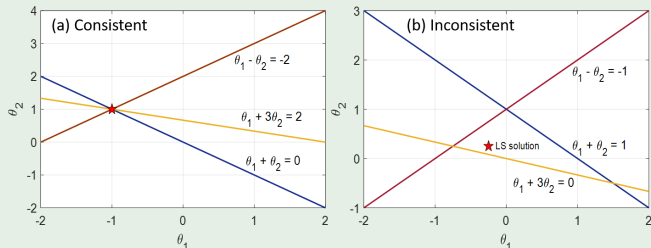
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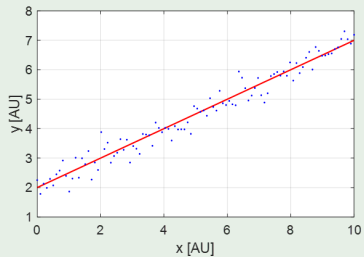
Example

$$(a) : \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$(b) : \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



At this level, only \mathbf{b} is affected by the uncertainty. When \mathbf{b} is changed, lines are just translated, slopes are not changed. When also H is affected by the uncertainty, slopes change: this is the Total Least Squares method, discussed later on.

LS regression examples



Linear regression, N observations,
 $p = 2$ parameters:

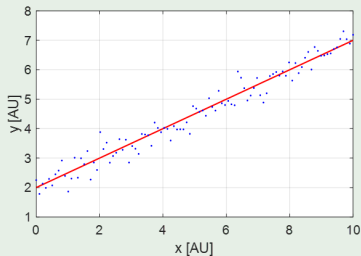
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{m}\mathbf{x} + q = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} m \\ q \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{b} \equiv \mathbf{y}$$

$$H \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} m \\ q \end{pmatrix}$$

LS regression examples



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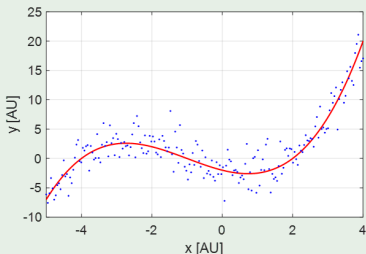
$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} m \\ q \end{pmatrix}$$

Polynomial regression, 3rd degree,
 N observations, $p = 4$ parameters:

$$y = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 = \begin{pmatrix} x & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{b} \equiv \mathbf{y} \quad H \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x & x^2 & x^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{pmatrix}$$



LS regression examples

Exponential regression, N observations,
 $p = 2$ parameters:

$$\mathbf{y} = A e^{bx^2}$$

A non-linear problem. It can be linearized by
using logarithms

$$\begin{aligned}\log \mathbf{y} &= \log A + bx^2 = \\ &= C + bx^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} C \\ b \end{pmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Warning: the uncertainty estimated for C will
propagate non-linearly on A

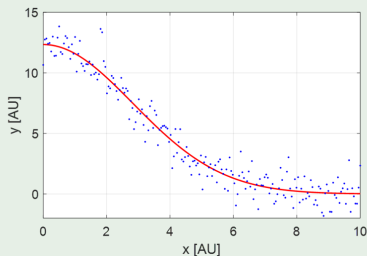


Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
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- Introduction to the general LS solution
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- Introduction
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General terminology for estimators

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- 2 A **statistic** is any function of the observations $g(\mathbf{z}) = g(z_1 \cdots z_N)$ not dependent on unknown parameters
- 3 Typically, formulating a **hypothesis** means assuming that observations are extracted from a probability density function p.d.f. $f(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ dependent on some parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1 \cdots \theta_N)$ that must be determined

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- 6 Typically, observations are independent, hence the p.d.f. is $f_{sample} = f_1(z_1) f_2(z_2) \dots f_N(z_N)$. If the sample consists of repeated observations of the same variable, then $f_1 = f_2 = \dots = f_N = f$, and:

$$\mathbb{E} [\hat{\theta}(\mathbf{z})] = \int_D \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{z}) f_{sample}(\mathbf{z}|\theta) d\mathbf{z} = \int \dots \int \hat{\theta}(\mathbf{z}) f_1(z_1) \dots f_N(z_N) dz_1 \dots dz_N$$

Unbiased estimator example: the sample (or arithmetic) mean

The sample mean is an unbiased estimator of the expected value of a p.d.f. $f(z)$, given a sample of N observations z_i

$$\mu = E[z] = \int zf(z) dz$$

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{z} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N z_i$$

$$E[\hat{\mu}(\mathbf{z})] = E\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N z_i\right] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N E[z_i] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mu = \frac{1}{N} N\mu = \mu$$

$$b = E[\hat{\mu}(\mathbf{z})] - \mu = \mu - \mu = 0$$

Biased estimator example: the sample variance

The sample variance

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (z_i - \bar{z})^2$$

is a biased estimator of the variance σ^2 , indeed, without performing all calculations

$$\mathbb{E}[s^2] = \frac{N-1}{N} \sigma^2$$

An unbiased estimator can be easily obtained:

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (z_i - \bar{z})^2 = \frac{N}{N-1} s^2$$
$$\mathbb{E}[S^2] = \frac{N}{N-1} \mathbb{E}[s^2] = \sigma^2$$

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
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2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

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4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
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- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
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Review of linear algebra

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- 2 The **rank** of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is the maximum number of linearly independent columns or rows: $\text{rank}(A) \leq \min(m, n)$; $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^\dagger)$.

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- 3 The rank of a matrix is the dimension of the space generated by its columns:
 $\text{rank}(A) = \dim[\text{Span}(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n)]$, $\text{Span}(\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n) \equiv \left\{ \mathbf{v} : \mathbf{v} = \sum_i c_i \mathbf{a}_i \right\}$

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- 4 **Kernel** of A :
 $\ker(A) \equiv \{ \mathbf{v} : A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \}$, $\forall A, (\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}) \in \ker(A)$, $\ker(A) \equiv \{ \mathbf{0} \} \Rightarrow \dim[\ker(A)] = 0$
 $\dim[\ker(A)]$ is called the **nullity** of A .

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Rank-nullity theorem

$$\forall A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}, \text{rank}(A) + \dim[\ker(A)] = n$$

A useful lemma

$$\forall A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}, \text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^\dagger A)$$

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Proof.

- From the rank-nullity theorem, it follows that:

$$\text{rank}(A) + \dim[\ker(A)] = n = \text{rank}(A^\dagger A) + \dim[\ker(A^\dagger A)]$$



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- From the rank-nullity theorem, it follows that:

$$\text{rank}(A) + \dim[\ker(A)] = n = \text{rank}(A^\dagger A) + \dim[\ker(A^\dagger A)]$$

- Then, one can prove that ranks are equal by proving that kernels are the same, i.e. by showing that if $\mathbf{v} \in \ker(A)$, then $\mathbf{v} \in \ker(A^\dagger A)$, and *vice versa*:

$$\mathbf{v} \in \ker(A) \Rightarrow A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow A^\dagger A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{v} \in \ker(A^\dagger A)$$

$$\mathbf{v} \in \ker(A^\dagger A) \Rightarrow A^\dagger A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{v}^\dagger A^\dagger A\mathbf{v} = 0 \Rightarrow \|A\mathbf{v}\|^2 = 0 \Rightarrow A\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \mathbf{v} \in \ker(A)$$



Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- **Ordinary Least Squares - OLS**
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

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- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
- Geometrical interpretation of LS
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6 Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
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OLS assumptions

- System $\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ has more equations than parameters ($N \geq p$)
- H is a full-rank matrix: $\text{rank}(H) = p$.

Ordinary Least Squares - OLS

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Consistent system

- When $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = 0$ the system is:

$$\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{h}_1 & \mathbf{h}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{h}_p \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \theta_p \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^p \theta_i \mathbf{h}_i$$

- The system has a solution when \mathbf{b} is a linear combination of the columns of H :

$$\mathbf{b} \in \text{Span}(H) \Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(H) = \text{rank} \left[\begin{pmatrix} H & \mathbf{b} \end{pmatrix} \right]$$

When H is full-rank, the solution is unique.

Inconsistent system

- In general $\epsilon \neq 0$ and the system is inconsistent: $\text{rank}(H) \neq \text{rank} \begin{bmatrix} H & \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix}$
- According to the lemma on the rank of $H^\dagger H$: $\text{rank}(H) = p = \text{rank}(H^\dagger H)$
- $H^\dagger H$ is a full-rank square $p \times p$ matrix, hence it is invertible

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Associated consistent system

- For the previous assumptions, the following system is consistent:

$$H^\dagger \mathbf{b} = H^\dagger H \boldsymbol{\theta} \Rightarrow \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (H^\dagger H)^{-1} H^\dagger \mathbf{b} = H^+ \mathbf{b}$$

- The **pseudo-inverse** or **Moore-Penrose** matrix has been introduced:

$$H^+ = (H^\dagger H)^{-1} H^\dagger \Rightarrow H^+ H = I, H H^+ \neq I$$

- H is a $N \times p$ matrix, and H^+ is $p \times N$. When H is square ($N = p$), then $H^+ = H^{-1}$

Ordinary Least Squares - OLS

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- H is a $N \times p$ matrix, and H^+ is $p \times N$. When H is square ($N = p$), then $H^+ = H^{-1}$

What does the solution $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (H^\dagger H)^{-1} H^\dagger \mathbf{b} = H^+ \mathbf{b}$ mean?

OLS problem

- Full-rank (p) inconsistent system: $\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \|\mathbf{b} - H\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2$
- Associated consistent system: $H^\dagger \mathbf{b} = H^\dagger H\boldsymbol{\theta}$
- Cost function:

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \|\mathbf{b} - H\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 = (\mathbf{b} - H\boldsymbol{\theta})^\dagger (\mathbf{b} - H\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \\ &= \boldsymbol{\theta}^\dagger H^\dagger H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \mathbf{b}^\dagger \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b}^\dagger H\boldsymbol{\theta} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^\dagger H^\dagger \mathbf{b} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^\dagger H^\dagger H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \mathbf{b}^\dagger \mathbf{b} - 2\text{Re}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^\dagger H^\dagger \mathbf{b})\end{aligned}$$

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OLS solution of the full-rank inconsistent system

The solution of the associated consistent system:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (H^\dagger H)^{-1} H^\dagger \mathbf{b} = H^+ \mathbf{b}$$

is also the solution that minimizes the cost function

OLS solution of the full-rank inconsistent system

The solution of the associated consistent system:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \left(H^\dagger H \right)^{-1} H^\dagger \mathbf{b} = H^+ \mathbf{b}$$

is also the solution that minimizes the cost function $\phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \|\mathbf{b} - H\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2$

OLS solution of the full-rank inconsistent system

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Proof.

We give a simple proof for the real case. The complex case will be proved later in the more general context of singular value decomposition. When H is real:

$$\phi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{\theta}^T H^T H \boldsymbol{\theta} + \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{b} - 2\boldsymbol{\theta}^T H^T \mathbf{b} = \sum_{jkl} \theta_j H_{kj} H_{kl} \theta_l + \sum_j b_j^2 - 2 \sum_{jk} \theta_j H_{kj} b_k$$

The minimum is attained where the jacobian matrix (the gradient in this case) is zero:

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \theta_i} = \sum_{jkl} (\delta_{ij} H_{kj} H_{kl} \theta_l + \theta_j H_{kj} H_{kl} \delta_{il}) - 2 \sum_{jk} \delta_{ij} H_{kj} b_k = 2 \sum_{jk} H_{ji} H_{jk} \theta_k - 2 \sum_j H_{ji} b_j$$

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Proof.

The minimum is attained where the jacobian matrix (the gradient in this case) is zero:

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \theta_i} = 2 \left(H^T H \boldsymbol{\theta} \right)_i - 2 (H \mathbf{b})_i \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} = 2 H^T H \boldsymbol{\theta} - 2 H \mathbf{b} = 0 \Rightarrow H^T H \boldsymbol{\theta} = H \mathbf{b}$$

from which the solution follows. \square

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- **Properties of the OLS estimator**
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
- Geometrical interpretation of LS
- Properties of the general LS estimator

6 Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
- Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

Properties of the OLS estimator

We assumed: $\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, $E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = 0$, and $\text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \sigma^2 I$, $N \geq p$

Observations \mathbf{b} are **homoscedastic** (from the greek *homo* “same” *skedasis* “dispersion”, i.e. they all have the same variance) and uncorrelated

Expected value of the OLS estimator

The OLS estimator $\boldsymbol{\theta} = H^+ \mathbf{b}$ is unbiased: $E[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \boldsymbol{\theta}$

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Proof.

By a straightforward calculation:

$$\begin{aligned} E[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] &= E\left[\left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger \mathbf{b}\right] = E\left[\left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger (H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})\right] = \\ &= \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger H E[\boldsymbol{\theta}] + \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \boldsymbol{\theta} \end{aligned}$$



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By a straightforward calculation^a:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{cov}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] &= \text{cov}\left[\left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger \mathbf{b}\right] = \text{cov}\left[\boldsymbol{\theta} + \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\right] = \\ &= \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger \text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] H \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} = \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger \sigma^2 I H \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} = \sigma^2 \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

□

^aReminder: $\text{cov}[\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{A} \text{cov}[\mathbf{X}] \mathbf{A}^\dagger$

A reminder on positive semi-definite and definite matrices

- A Hermitian matrix $A = A^\dagger$ is positive semi-definite (respectively definite) iff $\mathbf{z}^\dagger A \mathbf{z} \geq 0$ (respectively $\mathbf{z}^\dagger A \mathbf{z} > 0$), $\forall \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{C}^n$

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- The diagonal elements of a positive semi-definite (respectively definite) matrix A are always real positive semi-definite (respectively definite) values, indeed, by using the standard basis on \mathbb{C}^n , $\mathbf{z} \equiv \mathbf{e}_i$: $A_{ii} = \mathbf{e}_i^T A \mathbf{e}_i \geq 0$ (respectively $A_{ii} > 0$).

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- A matrix of the form $A^\dagger A$ is always positive semi-definite, indeed $\mathbf{z}^\dagger A^\dagger A \mathbf{z} = \|A \mathbf{z}\|^2 \geq 0$ by definition of norm.

Properties of the OLS estimator

Assumptions: $\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, $E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = 0$, and $\text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \sigma^2 I$, $N \geq p$

Gauss-Markov theorem

- The OLS estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is the unbiased linear estimator with minimum variance, i.e., given any other unbiased linear estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L = C\mathbf{b}$, then

$$\text{var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L] \geq \text{var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}]$$

- The OLS estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is the best linear unbiased estimator (BLUE), i.e., it has minimum squared error:

$$E\left[\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L - \boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2\right] \geq E\left[\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2\right]$$

Properties of the OLS estimator

Proof.

- For the first point: first we need an unbiased $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L$. C can always be written as $C = H^\dagger + D$, for a suitable D :

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L] &= \mathbb{E}[C\mathbf{b}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger + D\right) (H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})\right] \\ &= \left(\left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger + D\right) H\boldsymbol{\theta} = (I + DH)\boldsymbol{\theta}\end{aligned}$$

Hence $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L$ is unbiased iff $DH = 0$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L] &= \text{diag}(\text{cov}[C\mathbf{b}]) = \text{diag}\left(C\text{cov}[\mathbf{b}]C^\dagger\right) = \text{diag}\left(\sigma^2 CC^\dagger\right) \\ \sigma^2 CC^\dagger &= \sigma^2 \left(\left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger + D\right) \left(H\left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} + D^\dagger\right) \\ &= \sigma^2 \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} + \sigma^2 \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} (DH)^\dagger + \sigma^2 DH \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} + \sigma^2 DD^\dagger \\ &= \text{cov}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] + \sigma^2 DD^\dagger\end{aligned}$$

Since DD^\dagger is positive semi-definite, then $\text{var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L] \geq \text{var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}]$

Proof.

- The second point follows from the first, and from the fact that $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ are unbiased.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var} [\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L] &\geq \text{var} [\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] \\ \sum_i \text{var} [\hat{\theta}_{L,i}] &= \text{E} \left[\left\| \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L - \text{E} [\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L] \right\|^2 \right] \geq \text{E} \left[\left\| \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \text{E} [\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] \right\|^2 \right] = \sum_i \text{var} [\hat{\theta}_i] \\ \text{E} \left[\left\| \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L - \boldsymbol{\theta} \right\|^2 \right] &\geq \text{E} \left[\left\| \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \boldsymbol{\theta} \right\|^2 \right] \quad \square\end{aligned}$$

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- **Weighted least squares**
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
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- Introduction
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Weighted least squares

- Let us now consider the case: $\text{cov}[\mathbf{b}] = \text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\epsilon}] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \sigma_i^2 \delta_{ij}$ (i.e. $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is a diagonal matrix). When the variances σ_i^2 have different values, the random variable is called **heteroscedastic**.

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- Accordingly: $H_w = W^{\frac{1}{2}} H$, $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_w = W^{\frac{1}{2}} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, and

$$\text{cov}[\mathbf{b}_w] = \text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_w] = \text{cov}\left[W^{\frac{1}{2}} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\right] = W^{\frac{1}{2}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} W^{\frac{1}{2}} = I,$$

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i.e., \mathbf{b}_w is homoscedastic.

- Thus, the **weighted LS estimator** for the system $\mathbf{b}_w = H_w \boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_w$ is BLUE:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \left(H_w^\dagger H_w\right)^{-1} H_w^\dagger \mathbf{b}_w = \left(H^\dagger W H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger W \mathbf{b} = H_w^\dagger \mathbf{b}$$

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Lemma 1

A positive definite complex square matrix A is invertible. If A is positive semi-definite, but not positive definite, it is not invertible.

Proof.

If A is positive definite, it has only non-zero eigenvalues: $\forall \mathbf{z} \neq 0, A\mathbf{z} \neq 0$. Hence $\dim(\ker A) = 0$, and A is full-rank. Therefore, A is invertible. Otherwise, if A is positive semi-definite but not definite, it has a 0 eigenvalue and $\dim(\ker A) \neq 0 \Rightarrow A$ not invertible. \square

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Lemma 2

The covariance matrix $\text{cov}[\mathbf{b}]$ of a sample \mathbf{b} is positive definite and invertible iff for any non-zero \mathbf{z} , $\text{var}[\mathbf{z}^\dagger \mathbf{b}] \neq 0$.

Proof.

Since the covariance is positive semi-definite by definition, it is invertible only if it is also positive definite. If $\text{cov}[\mathbf{b}]$ is positive definite, then $\text{var}[\mathbf{z}^\dagger \mathbf{b}] \neq 0$, indeed $0 \neq \mathbf{z}^\dagger \text{cov}[\mathbf{b}] \mathbf{z} = \text{cov}[\mathbf{z}^\dagger \mathbf{b}] = \text{var}[\mathbf{z}^\dagger \mathbf{b}]$, since $\mathbf{z}^\dagger \mathbf{b}$ is a scalar. Conversely, if for any non-zero \mathbf{z} , $\text{var}[\mathbf{z}^\dagger \mathbf{b}] \neq 0$, then $\text{cov}[\mathbf{b}]$ is positive definite, hence invertible. \square

Weighted least squares

- If $\Sigma = \text{cov}[\mathbf{b}]$ is positive definite, its inverse can be factorized by Cholesky decomposition as $\Sigma^{-1} = \Omega\Omega^\dagger$, where Ω is an invertible lower-triangular matrix.

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Generalized Weighted Least Squares

The weighted observations \mathbf{b}_Ω are homoscedastic and non-autocorrelated, therefore, the weighted LS estimator for the system $\mathbf{b}_\Omega = H_\Omega \boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_\Omega$ is BLUE by Gauss-Markov theorem:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \left(H_\Omega^\dagger H_\Omega\right)^{-1} H_\Omega^\dagger \mathbf{b}_\Omega = \left(H^\dagger \Omega \Omega^\dagger H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger \Omega \Omega^\dagger \mathbf{b} = \left(H^\dagger \Sigma^{-1} H\right)^{-1} H^\dagger \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{b} = H_\Omega^\dagger \mathbf{b}$$
$$\text{cov}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \left(H_\Omega^\dagger H_\Omega\right)^{-1} = \left(H^\dagger \Omega \Omega^\dagger H\right)^{-1} = \left(H^\dagger \Sigma^{-1} H\right)^{-1}$$

Proof.

- $E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_\Omega] = E[\Omega^\dagger \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \Omega^\dagger E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = 0$
- $\text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_\Omega] = \text{cov}[\Omega^\dagger \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \Omega^\dagger \text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] \Omega = \Omega^\dagger \Sigma \Omega = \Omega^\dagger (\Omega \Omega^\dagger)^{-1} \Omega = \Omega^\dagger (\Omega^\dagger)^{-1} \Omega^{-1} \Omega = I$.
- The assumptions of the Gauss-Markov theorem are therefore satisfied.

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- **Summary on the OLS estimator**

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
- Geometrical interpretation of LS
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- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
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Summary on the OLS estimator

- Given a system $\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, with N observations, p parameters, $\text{rank}H = p$, $E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = 0$, $\text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \Sigma$ positive definite, the OLS estimator is:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \left(H^{\dagger}\Sigma^{-1}H\right)^{-1}H^{\dagger}\Sigma^{-1}\mathbf{b} \quad \left(= \left(H^{\dagger}H\right)^{-1}H^{\dagger}\mathbf{b} \text{ when } \Sigma = \sigma^2I\right)$$
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So far, so good! BUT when $\text{rank}H < p$, $H^\dagger H$ is not invertible and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is not defined.

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- $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is unbiased, i.e., $E[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \boldsymbol{\theta}$.
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$$\text{var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L] \geq \text{var}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}]$$
$$E\left[\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_L - \boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2\right] \geq E\left[\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2\right].$$

So far, so good! BUT when $\text{rank}H < p$, $H^\dagger H$ is not invertible and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is not defined.

How to proceed then when $\text{rank}(H) < p$?

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
- Geometrical interpretation of LS
- Properties of the general LS estimator

6 Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
- Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

Under-determined linear system

- In this section we consider the case $N < p$ and $\text{rank}(H) = N$, i.e. a system with less equations than parameters.
- The most general case ($\text{rank}(H) \leq \min(N, p)$, $\forall N$ and $\forall p$) will be treated later on.

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- Since $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{C}^N$ and $\text{rank}(H) = N$, then $\text{rank}(H) = \text{rank} \left[\begin{pmatrix} H & \mathbf{b} \end{pmatrix} \right]$, and the undetermined system $H\boldsymbol{\theta} = \mathbf{b}$ is consistent.

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- For the rank-nullity theorem $\dim(\ker H) = p - N$, therefore, there exist nonzero vectors $\mathbf{v} \in \ker H$, s.t. $H\mathbf{v} = 0 \Rightarrow H(\boldsymbol{\theta} + \mathbf{v}) = H\boldsymbol{\theta} = \mathbf{b}$, i.e., the system has infinite solutions.

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- The solution can be made unique by requiring that $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 = \boldsymbol{\theta}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}$ is minimum.
- Hence we have the following **constrained optimization problem**:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \arg \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 \\ \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = H\boldsymbol{\theta} - \mathbf{b} = 0 \end{cases}$$

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- The problem can be solved by using Lagrange multipliers. As for the the full-rank system, we now treat only the system in the real field. The complex case will be treated later on. Let us define the Lagrangian function with the Lagrange multiplier $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathbb{R}^N$:

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T (H\boldsymbol{\theta} - \mathbf{b})$$

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- The constrained problem becomes an unconstrained problem. Imposing the gradient is zero, the constraint is directly included in the second equation:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} = 2\boldsymbol{\theta} + H^T \boldsymbol{\lambda} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \boldsymbol{\lambda}} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} - \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{g}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = 0 \end{cases}$$

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- Therefore: $\boldsymbol{\theta} = -\frac{1}{2}H^T \boldsymbol{\lambda} \Rightarrow -\frac{1}{2}HH^T \boldsymbol{\lambda} = \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\lambda} = -2(HH^T)^{-1}\mathbf{b}$, and finally:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-1} \mathbf{b}$$

Transpose T has been substituted with conjugate transpose † , since the solution is correct also in the complex field, as will be proved later on. HH^\dagger is invertible because it is an $N \times N$ matrix and $\text{rank}(H) = N$.

Under-determined linear system

LS solution of the underdetermined linear system

The system $\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, with $N < p$, $\text{rank}H = N$, $E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = 0$, $\text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \sigma^2 I$, has the following LS solution:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-1} \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \text{cov}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \sigma^2 H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-2} H$$

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Proof.

Theorem already proved, except for the covariance:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] &= \text{cov}[H^\dagger \mathbf{b}] = \text{cov}\left[H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-1} \mathbf{b}\right] = H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-1} \text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] (HH^\dagger)^{-1} H = \\ &= \sigma^2 H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-1} (HH^\dagger)^{-1} H = \sigma^2 H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-2} H \end{aligned}$$

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- A general solution will be found that reduces to those already obtained for the two special cases discussed so far.

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- A general solution will be found that reduces to those already obtained for the two special cases discussed so far.
- In the next section, Singular Value Decomposition will be introduced and demonstrated.

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
- Geometrical interpretation of LS
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6 Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

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Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD

- Let be given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times p}$, $\text{rank}(A) = r \leq \min(N, p)$.

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- Let be given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times p}$, $\text{rank}(A) = r \leq \min(N, p)$.
- Then, $A^\dagger A \in \mathbb{C}^{p \times p}$, $AA^\dagger \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$ are semi-positive definite, and $\text{rank}(A^\dagger A) = \text{rank}(AA^\dagger) = r$.

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- Then, $A^\dagger A$ has $p - r$ orthogonal eigenvectors associated with the eigenvalue 0, and AA^\dagger has $N - r$ orthogonal eigenvectors associated with the eigenvalue 0.
- Since $A^\dagger A$ and AA^\dagger are Hermitian, they have an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors. E.g.:

$$\begin{aligned} A^\dagger A V &= A^\dagger A \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{v}_p \end{bmatrix} = \\ &= V \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \sigma_r^2 & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \dots & \dots & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}_{p \times p} = V \Sigma_p^2 ; \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} AA^\dagger U &= AA^\dagger \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{u}_N \end{bmatrix} = \\ &= U \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \sigma_r^2 & \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \dots & \dots & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}_{N \times N} = U \Sigma_N^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Same symbols σ_i^2 have been used for both Σ_N^2 and Σ_p^2 , indeed, as it will be proved in the following, the eigenvalues of $A^\dagger A$ and AA^\dagger are the same.

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
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3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

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- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
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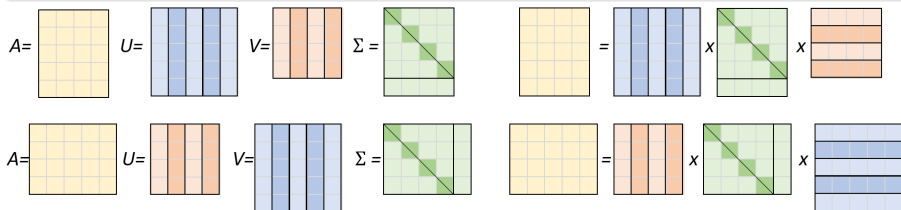
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Singular Value Decomposition

Singular Value Decomposition

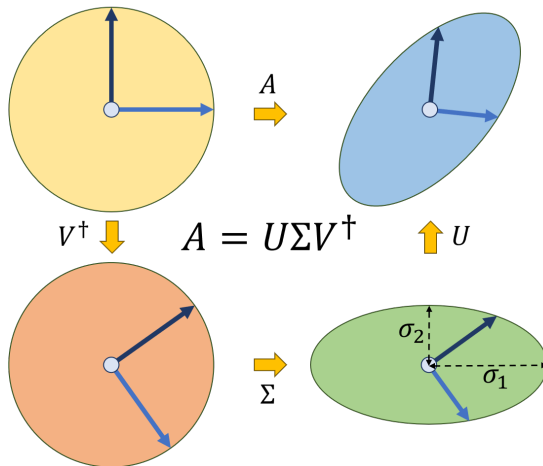
Any matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times p}$, of any rank $r \leq \min(N, p)$, can be factorized in the form $A = U\Sigma V^\dagger$,

- $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times p}$ is a diagonal matrix with r positive elements that can always be ordered as $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r$; σ_i are the so called **singular values**
- $U \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$ and $V \in \mathbb{C}^{p \times p}$ are unitary matrices
- U , V and Σ can be found by solving the eigenvalue problems $A^\dagger A V = V \Sigma_p^2$ and $A A^\dagger U = U \Sigma_N^2$, where $\Sigma_p^2 = \Sigma^\dagger \Sigma$ and $\Sigma_N^2 = \Sigma \Sigma^\dagger$.



Singular Value Decomposition

- Geometrical interpretation: rotation, scaling and rotation



Singular Value Decomposition

Proof.

- Let us first consider the case $N \geq p$. Any matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times p}$ is a linear application that is completely defined by the values it takes on a given basis $\mathbf{v}_{1 \dots p}$ of the domain \mathbb{C}^p :

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A\mathbf{v}_1 = \sigma_1 \mathbf{u}_1 \\ \vdots \\ A\mathbf{v}_p = \sigma_p \mathbf{u}_p \end{array} \right.$$

- $\mathbf{u}_i \in \mathbb{C}^N$ are unit vectors, $\sigma_i \geq 0$, and it is always possible to reorder the basis so that the σ_i are in descending order.

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- $\mathbf{u}_i \in \mathbb{C}^N$ are unit vectors, $\sigma_i \geq 0$, and it is always possible to reorder the basis so that the σ_i are in descending order.
- A **convenient choice** of the basis is an **orthonormal set of eigenvectors**: $A^\dagger A V = V \Lambda$, where $\Lambda = \lambda_i \delta_{ij}$, and $V = [\mathbf{v}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_p]$ is unitary.

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- This choice implies that also $\tilde{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{u}_p]$ are orthonormal. Indeed, if $\sigma_{i,j} \neq 0$:

$$\mathbf{u}_i^\dagger \mathbf{u}_j = \frac{1}{\sigma_i \sigma_j} \mathbf{v}_i^\dagger A^\dagger A \mathbf{v}_j = \frac{\lambda_j}{\sigma_i \sigma_j} \mathbf{v}_i^\dagger \mathbf{v}_j = \frac{\lambda_j}{\sigma_i \sigma_j} \delta_{ij} \Rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} i \neq j \Rightarrow \mathbf{u}_i^\dagger \mathbf{u}_j = 0 \\ i = j \Rightarrow \mathbf{u}_i^\dagger \mathbf{u}_j = \|\mathbf{u}_i\|^2 = 1 \end{array} \right.$$

$\lambda_i = \sigma_i^2$ because each \mathbf{u}_i is a unit vector by construction.

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$\lambda_i = \sigma_i^2$ because each \mathbf{u}_i is a unit vector by construction.

- When $i > r$, $\sigma_i = 0$, and it is always possible to complete $[\mathbf{u}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{u}_r]$ to $[\mathbf{u}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{u}_p]$ by adding $p - r$ orthonormal vectors however chosen (e.g., Gram-Schmidt).

Singular Value Decomposition

Proof.

- We came up to: $AV = A[\mathbf{v}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{v}_p] = [\mathbf{u}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{u}_p] \text{diag}(\sigma_1 \ \cdots \ \sigma_r \ 0_{r+1} \ \cdots \ 0_p) = \tilde{U}\tilde{\Sigma}$.

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- \tilde{U} can be completed to a basis of \mathbb{C}^N :

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Singular Value Decomposition

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- For the case $N < p$, let us define $\bar{N} = p$ and $\bar{p} = N$, and $\bar{A} = A^\dagger \in \mathbb{C}^{\bar{N} \times \bar{p}}$, $\bar{N} > \bar{p}$:

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{A} &= \tilde{U} \tilde{\Sigma} \tilde{V}^\dagger & \bar{A}^\dagger \bar{A} \bar{V} &= \tilde{V} \tilde{\Sigma}_{\bar{p}}^2 & \bar{A} \bar{A}^\dagger \tilde{U} \tilde{\Sigma}_{\bar{N}}^2 & \\ & & AA^\dagger \tilde{V} &= \tilde{V} \tilde{\Sigma}_{\bar{p}}^2 & A^\dagger A \tilde{U} \tilde{\Sigma}_{\bar{N}}^2 & \\ \bar{V} &= U & \bar{U} &= V & \tilde{\Sigma} &= \Sigma^\dagger \end{aligned}$$

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Singular Value Decomposition

$$\bullet \quad N \geq p \Rightarrow A = U\Sigma V^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_N \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \sigma_r & \\ \vdots & & \cdots & \\ \cdots & \cdots & & 0_{(p-r) \times (p-r)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1^\dagger \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_p^\dagger \end{pmatrix}$$

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Alternative expression of the SVD

$$A = U\Sigma V^\dagger = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^\dagger \quad \forall A \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times p}, \forall N, \forall p$$

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
- Geometrical interpretation of LS
- Properties of the general LS estimator

6 Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
- Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

Introduction to the general LS solution

- For $N \geq p$ and $\text{rank}(H) = r = p$, the OLS solution of the inconsistent system $\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (H^\dagger H)^{-1} H^\dagger \mathbf{b} = H^+ \mathbf{b}$. A corrected observation vector $\hat{\mathbf{b}} = H\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is defined, s.t. the cost function $\phi = \|\mathbf{b} - \hat{\mathbf{b}}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{b} - H\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\|^2$ is minimum.

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- The solution can be made unique and it will be shown that:

General SVD pseudo-inverse

- The general form of the pseudo-inverse of $H = U\Sigma V^\dagger$ is $H^+ = V\Sigma^+ U^\dagger$.
- The unique LS solution $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = H^+ \mathbf{b}$ is s.t. both $\|\mathbf{b} - H\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\|^2$ and $\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\|^2$ are minimum.
- $HH^+H = H$ is always true, but $H^+H = I$ or $HH^+ = I$ do not hold in general.
- OLS : $r = p \leq N \Rightarrow H^+ = (H^\dagger H)^{-1} H^\dagger$, $r = N < p \Rightarrow H^+ = H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-1}$.
- $HH^+ = (HH^+)^\dagger$, $H^+H = (H^+H)^\dagger$

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
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- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
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 - $HH^+ = (HH^+)^\dagger$, $H^+H = (H^+H)^\dagger$
- Remark: as it will be shown, the pseudo-inverse of Σ , Σ^+ is obtained by transposing Σ and by replacing the elements of the diagonal with the reciprocals of their respective nonzero elements of Σ . E.g.:

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \Sigma^+ = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $N \geq p$, $r = p \Rightarrow \Sigma^+\Sigma = I$;
- $N \leq p$, $r = N \Rightarrow \Sigma\Sigma^+ = I$;
- $r < \min(N, p) \Rightarrow \Sigma^+\Sigma \neq I$, and $\Sigma\Sigma^+ \neq I$, but $\Sigma\Sigma^+\Sigma = \Sigma$ is always true.
- $\Sigma\Sigma^+ = (\Sigma\Sigma^+)^T = \Sigma^+{}^T\Sigma^T$; $\Sigma^+\Sigma = (\Sigma^+\Sigma)^T = \Sigma^T\Sigma^+{}^T$

An explanatory example on Σ and Σ^+

- If Σ is $N \times p$, then Σ^+ is $p \times N$, $\Sigma^+\Sigma$ is $p \times p$ and $\Sigma\Sigma^+$ is $N \times N$. E.g.:

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \Sigma^+ = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad \Sigma\Sigma^+ = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Matrices in the same form as $\Sigma\Sigma^+$, with only 0 and 1, can be called selection matrices of rank r , and denoted by the symbol I_N^r , where the superscript denotes rank, while the subscript denotes dimensions. Hence, $\Sigma\Sigma^+ = I_N^r$ and $\Sigma^+\Sigma = I_p^r$; obviously, $\text{tr}(\Sigma\Sigma^+) = \text{tr}(\Sigma^+\Sigma) = r$. In this example $\Sigma\Sigma^+ = I_4^2$.

Proof.

- $H = U\Sigma V^\dagger = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_i^\dagger$
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- By defining $\mathbf{y} \equiv V^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}$ and $\mathbf{c} \equiv U^\dagger \mathbf{b}$:
$$\|\mathbf{b} - H\boldsymbol{\theta}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{c} - \Sigma \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^r |c_i - \sigma_i y_i|^2 + \sum_{i=r+1}^p |c_i|^2.$$

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- The cost function is minimum for $y_i = c_i / \sigma_i$, $i = 1, \dots, r$:

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 / \sigma_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_r / \sigma_r \\ \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{c} = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_N \end{pmatrix} = U^\dagger \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^\dagger \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_N^\dagger \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{b}$$

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- Since $i \leq r, j > r \Rightarrow \mathbf{v}_i^\dagger \mathbf{v}_j = 0$, then $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \perp \mathbf{v}_{\ker} \Rightarrow \|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} + \mathbf{v}_{\ker}\|^2 = \|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}_{\ker}\|^2 \geq \|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\|^2$

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- Thus:

$$AA^+ = U\Sigma V^\dagger V\Sigma^+U^\dagger = U\Sigma\Sigma^+U^\dagger = UIU^\dagger = I$$

$$A^+A = V\Sigma^+U^\dagger U\Sigma V^\dagger = V\Sigma^+\Sigma V^\dagger = VIV^\dagger = I$$

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- Indeed, in the first case, $H^\dagger H = (V\Sigma^T U^\dagger)(U\Sigma V^\dagger) = V\Sigma^T \Sigma V^\dagger$, and $H^+H^{\dagger+} = (V\Sigma^+ U^\dagger)(U\Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger) = V\Sigma^+ \Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger$

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- Indeed, in the first case, $H^\dagger H = (V\Sigma^T U^\dagger)(U\Sigma V^\dagger) = V\Sigma^T \Sigma V^\dagger$, and $H^+H^{\dagger+} = (V\Sigma^+ U^\dagger)(U\Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger) = V\Sigma^+ \Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger$
- Since Σ is $N \times p$, and all the elements on the main diagonal are non-zero, then $\Sigma^T \Sigma = \Sigma_p^2 = \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2 \cdots \sigma_p^2)$. Similarly, $\Sigma^+ \Sigma^{+T} = \Sigma_p^{+2} = \text{diag}(1/\sigma_1^2 \cdots 1/\sigma_p^2)$. Hence $\Sigma_p^2 \Sigma_p^{+2} = \Sigma_p^{+2} \Sigma_p^2 = I$.

Remark 2

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- With these expressions it is easy to verify that

$$H^+H^{\dagger+} = V\Sigma^+ \Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger = \left(H^\dagger H\right)^{-1} = \left(H^\dagger H\right)^+$$

- Similarly, it can be proved that:

$$H^{\dagger+}H^+ = U\Sigma^{+T} \Sigma^+ U^\dagger = \left(HH^\dagger\right)^{-1} = \left(HH^\dagger\right)^+$$

Proof.

- $HH^+H = U\Sigma V^\dagger V\Sigma^+U^\dagger U\Sigma V^\dagger = U\Sigma\Sigma^+\Sigma V^\dagger = U\Sigma V^\dagger = H$

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- $HH^+H = U\Sigma V^\dagger V\Sigma^+U^\dagger U\Sigma V^\dagger = U\Sigma\Sigma^+\Sigma V^\dagger = U\Sigma V^\dagger = H$
- $N \geq p, r = p \Rightarrow \Sigma^+\Sigma = I \Rightarrow H^+H = V\Sigma^+U^\dagger U\Sigma V^\dagger = V\Sigma^+\Sigma V^\dagger = VV^\dagger = I;$
- $N \geq p, r = p \Rightarrow (H^\dagger H)^{-1}H^\dagger = (H^\dagger H)^+H^\dagger = V\Sigma^+\Sigma^{+T}V^\dagger V\Sigma^T U^\dagger = V\Sigma^+U^\dagger$

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- $N \leq p, r = N \Rightarrow H^\dagger(HH^\dagger)^{-1} = H^\dagger(HH^\dagger)^+ = V\Sigma^T U^\dagger U\Sigma^{+T}\Sigma^+U^\dagger = V\Sigma^+U^\dagger$

General LS solution

Proof.

- $HH^+H = U\Sigma V^\dagger V\Sigma^+U^\dagger U\Sigma V^\dagger = U\Sigma\Sigma^+\Sigma V^\dagger = U\Sigma V^\dagger = H$
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- Proof that $HH^+ = (HH^+)^\dagger, H^+H = (H^+H)^\dagger$ is now obvious \square

General SVD pseudo-inverse

- The general form of the pseudo-inverse of $H = U\Sigma V^\dagger$ is $H^+ = V\Sigma^+U^\dagger$.
- The unique LS solution $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = H^+\mathbf{b}$ is s.t. both $\|\mathbf{b} - H\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\|^2$ and $\|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}\|^2$ are minimum.
- $HH^+H = H$ is always true, but $H^+H = I$ or $HH^+ = I$ do not hold in general.
- $OLS : r = p \leq N \Rightarrow H^+ = (H^\dagger H)^{-1}H^\dagger, r = N < p \Rightarrow H^+ = H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-1}$.
- $HH^+ = (HH^+)^\dagger, H^+H = (H^+H)^\dagger$

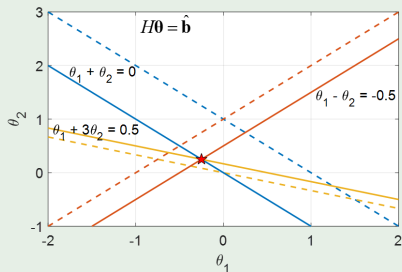
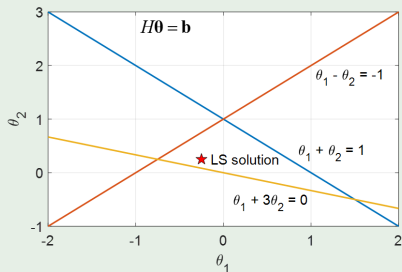
General LS solution

Example

- With Matlab, the SVD can be obtained by using the command $[U, S, V] = \text{svd}(H)$

$$H\theta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{b} \quad \hat{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} -0.25 \\ 0.25 \end{pmatrix} \quad \hat{\mathbf{b}} = H\hat{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix} \quad H\theta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix} = \hat{\mathbf{b}}$$

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} 0.3651 & 0.4472 & -0.8165 \\ -0.1826 & 0.8944 & 0.4082 \\ 0.9129 & 0 & 0.4082 \end{pmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 3.4641 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.4142 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad V = \begin{pmatrix} 0.3162 & 0.9487 \\ 0.9487 & -0.3162 \end{pmatrix}$$



An explanatory example on V

- In the following we will have to deal with product of the form $V^\dagger V_r$ or $V_r^\dagger V$, where V_r is the matrix formed by taking the first r columns of V , hence it is useful to visualize these products. If V is $p \times p$:

$$V^\dagger V_r = \left[\begin{array}{c} \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)_{r \times r} \\ \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{array} \right)_{(p-r) \times r} \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} I_r \\ 0_{(p-r) \times r} \end{array} \right]$$

$$V_r^\dagger V = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)_{r \times r} & \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)_{r \times (p-r)} \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} I_r & 0_{r \times (p-r)} \end{array} \right]$$

- They can be called expansion or selection matrices and denoted by the symbol $I_{p \times r}$ or $I_{r \times p}$. Obviously, entirely similar results apply to U .

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
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6 Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
- Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

Geometrical interpretation of LS

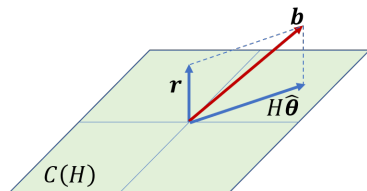
- Let us define the **residual**: $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{b} - H\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \mathbf{b} - HH^+\mathbf{b} = (I - HH^+)\mathbf{b} = P_{H^\perp}\mathbf{b}$

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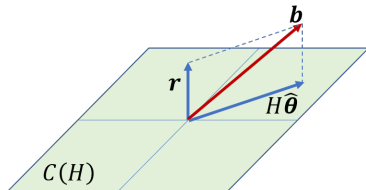
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- Let us also define $P_{H\parallel} = (I - P_{H^\perp}) = HH^+$
- P_{H^\perp} and $P_{H\parallel}$ are **orthogonal projections**



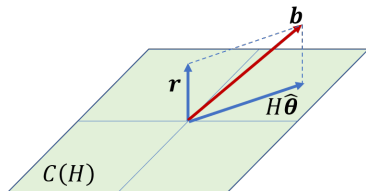
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- It is straightforward to prove they are idempotent and symmetric
- $P_{H\perp}P_{H\perp} = P_{H\perp}$, $P_{H\parallel}P_{H\parallel} = P_{H\parallel}$ idempotency
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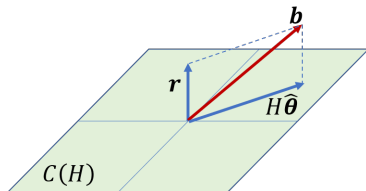
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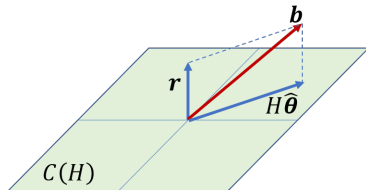
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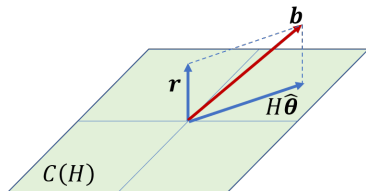
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- $P_{H\perp}$ projects \mathbf{b} onto space $C_\perp(H)$ orthogonal to $C(H)$
- The residual \mathbf{r} accounts for the observed component of \mathbf{b} that are not accounted for by the model $H\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$



Geometrical interpretation of LS

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- The expected value can be computed easily:

$$\begin{aligned} E[\phi(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})] &= E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^\dagger P_{H\perp}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = E[\text{tr}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^\dagger P_{H\perp}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})] = E[\text{tr}(P_{H\perp}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^\dagger)] = \\ &= \text{tr}(P_{H\perp}E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^\dagger]) = \text{tr}(P_{H\perp}\text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}]) = \text{tr}(P_{H\perp}\sigma^2 I) = \sigma^2 \text{tr}P_{H\perp} \\ \text{tr}P_{H\perp} &= \text{tr}(I_N - HH^+) = \text{tr}(I_N - U\Sigma\Sigma^+U^\dagger) = N - \text{tr}(\Sigma^+U^\dagger U\Sigma) = \\ &= N - \text{tr}(\Sigma^+\Sigma) = N - \text{tr}I_p^r = N - r \end{aligned}$$

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Estimator of σ^2

If σ^2 is not known a priori, an unbiased estimator can be obtained from the residual:

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\phi(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})}{N - r} = \frac{\|\mathbf{r}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})\|^2}{N - r} \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}[\hat{\sigma}^2] = \frac{\mathbf{E}[\phi(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})]}{N - r} = \frac{\sigma^2(N - r)}{N - r} = \sigma^2$$

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
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2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
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Covariance of the general LS estimator

- 1 For the general LS estimator, when $\text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \sigma^2 I$:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = V\Sigma^+U^\dagger\mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \text{cov}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \sigma^2 V\Sigma^+\Sigma^{+T}V^\dagger$$

- 2 When $N \geq p$, and $\text{rank}H = p$ (OLS):

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (H^\dagger H)^{-1} H^\dagger \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \text{cov}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \sigma^2 (H^\dagger H)^{-1}$$

- 3 When $N < p$, and $\text{rank}H = N$:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-1} \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \text{cov}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \sigma^2 H^\dagger (HH^\dagger)^{-2} H$$

The general covariance expression 1 yields the same values as the particular expressions 2 and 3, valid under the specified assumptions.

Properties of the general LS estimator

Proof.

$$\textcircled{1} \text{ cov} [\mathbf{b}] = \text{cov} [\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \sigma^2 I \Rightarrow$$

$$\text{cov} [\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \text{cov} [H^+ \mathbf{b}] = \text{cov} [V \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^+ U^\dagger \mathbf{b}] = V \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^+ U^\dagger \text{cov} [\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] U \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{+T} V^\dagger = \sigma^2 V \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^+ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{+T} V^\dagger$$

Properties of the general LS estimator

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Properties of the general LS estimator

Proof.

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$$\textcircled{3} \text{ cov}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \sigma^2 H^\dagger (H H^\dagger)^{-1} (H H^\dagger)^{-1} H =$$

$$\sigma^2 V \Sigma^T \Sigma^{+T} \Sigma^+ \Sigma^{+T} \Sigma^+ \Sigma V^\dagger = \sigma^2 V \Sigma^+ \Sigma \Sigma^+ \Sigma^{+T} \Sigma^+ \Sigma V^\dagger$$

Since $\Sigma \Sigma^+ = I$ when $\text{rank} H = N$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 V \Sigma^+ \Sigma^{+T} \Sigma^+ \Sigma V^\dagger &= \sigma^2 V \Sigma^+ \Sigma^{+T} \Sigma^T \Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger = \sigma^2 V \Sigma^+ \Sigma^{+T} \Sigma^T \Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger = \\ &= \sigma^2 V \Sigma^+ (\Sigma \Sigma^+)^T \Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger = \sigma^2 V \Sigma^+ \Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger \end{aligned}$$

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- **Gauss-Markov is not valid for the general LS estimator**, hence in general $\hat{\theta}$ is not BLUE.
- We will see how, for any rank r , it is always possible to extract r independent BLUE estimators from $\hat{\theta}$.

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
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2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
- Geometrical interpretation of LS
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6 Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
- Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

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- Be $r = \text{rank} H \leq \min(N, p)$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = H^+ \mathbf{b} = V \Sigma^+ U^\dagger \mathbf{b}$ the generalized LS estimator.
- Be $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_i^\dagger$, $i = 1 \cdots r$, any set of linearly independent vectors $\in R(H)$.
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- The theorem states that it is always possible to find at most r linear combinations of the components of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$, which are BLUE estimators.
 - There are infinite possible choices of $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_i^\dagger$.

Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
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2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
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- Introduction
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Definition of estimable linear function

A linear function $\lambda(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \equiv \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}$ of the unknown parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is **estimable** if, given observations \mathbf{b} s.t. $\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{b}] = \mathbf{E}[H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}] = H\boldsymbol{\theta}$, there exists an unbiased linear estimator $\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b}$ for some \mathbf{a} , s.t. $\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b}] = \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}$.

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Lemma on the estimability of linear functions

A linear function $\lambda(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \equiv \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}$ is estimable iff $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \in R(H)$, i.e. iff $\exists \mathbf{a}$ s.t. $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger = \mathbf{a}^\dagger H$.

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Lemma: uniqueness of the unbiased estimator

If a linear function $\lambda(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \equiv \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}$ is estimable, there exists a **unique unbiased estimator** $\mathbf{a}_\parallel^\dagger \mathbf{b}$, s.t. $\mathbf{a}_\parallel \in C(H)$, and $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{a}_\parallel^\dagger \mathbf{b}] = \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}$

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Uniqueness:

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- $(\mathbf{a}_\parallel - \mathbf{c}_\parallel)^\dagger H = 0 \Rightarrow (\mathbf{a}_\parallel - \mathbf{c}_\parallel) \in C_\perp(H)$; but, by assumption: $(\mathbf{a}_\parallel - \mathbf{c}_\parallel) \in C(H)$

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- $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta} = E[\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b}] = E[\mathbf{a}_\parallel^\dagger \mathbf{b}] + E[\mathbf{a}_\perp^\dagger \mathbf{b}] = E[\mathbf{a}_\parallel^\dagger \mathbf{b}]$.

Uniqueness:

- If $\exists \mathbf{c}_\parallel \in C(H)$, s.t. $E[\mathbf{c}_\parallel^\dagger \mathbf{b}] = \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}$, then $0 = E[\mathbf{a}_\parallel^\dagger \mathbf{b}] - E[\mathbf{c}_\parallel^\dagger \mathbf{b}] = (\mathbf{a}_\parallel - \mathbf{c}_\parallel)^\dagger H \boldsymbol{\theta}$, $\forall \boldsymbol{\theta}$.
- $(\mathbf{a}_\parallel - \mathbf{c}_\parallel)^\dagger H = 0 \Rightarrow (\mathbf{a}_\parallel - \mathbf{c}_\parallel) \in C_\perp(H)$; but, by assumption: $(\mathbf{a}_\parallel - \mathbf{c}_\parallel) \in C(H)$
- The only vector that is in both $C(H)$ and $C_\perp(H)$ is $(\mathbf{a}_\parallel - \mathbf{c}_\parallel) = 0$, then $\mathbf{a}_\parallel = \mathbf{c}_\parallel$. \square

Lemma: estimator of minimum variance

- The unique unbiased estimator $\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b}$ has minimum variance, i.e., for any other unbiased estimator $\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b}$ s.t. $E[\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b}] = \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}$, then $\text{var}[\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b}] \geq \text{var}[\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b}]$.
- The unique unbiased estimator $\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b}$ is BLUE, i.e. $E[|\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}|^2] \geq E[|\mathbf{a}^\dagger \mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}|^2]$.

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Proof.

- Each vector \mathbf{a} defining an unbiased estimator for $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\dagger} \boldsymbol{\theta}$ can be written as $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}_{\parallel} + \mathbf{a}_{\perp}$, where \mathbf{a}_{\parallel} is unique by the previous lemma.

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- $\text{var}[\mathbf{a}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b}] = E[|\mathbf{a}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b} - E[\mathbf{a}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b}]|^2] = E[|\mathbf{a}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\dagger} \boldsymbol{\theta}|^2]$, and BLUEness follows from the first part of the lemma. \square

Lemma: definition of the unbiased estimator

- The unique unbiased estimator $\mathbf{a}_{\parallel}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b}$ for $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\dagger} \boldsymbol{\theta}$, where $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\dagger} = \mathbf{a}_{\parallel}^{\dagger} H \in R(H)$ is defined as $\mathbf{a}_{\parallel}^{\dagger} \mathbf{b} = \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\dagger} \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$, where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is the general LS estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = H^+ \mathbf{b} = V \Sigma^+ U^{\dagger} \mathbf{b}$.

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Table of Contents

1 Introduction

- Prerequisites
- Basic concepts and notation
- General terminology for estimators

2 Ordinary Least Squares

- Review of linear algebra
- Ordinary Least Squares - OLS
- Properties of the OLS estimator
- Weighted least squares
- Summary on the OLS estimator

3 LS solution of an under-determined linear system

- A constrained optimization problem

4 Singular Value Decomposition

- Review of linear algebra preliminary to SVD
- Singular Value Decomposition - statement and proof

5 General LS solution for ANY linear system

- Introduction to the general LS solution
- The general LS solution
- Geometrical interpretation of LS
- Properties of the general LS estimator

6 Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

- Introduction
- Estimable linear functions
- Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

We can now easily prove the:

Generalized Gauss-Markov theorem

- Given any system $\mathbf{b} = H\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ with N equations and p unknown parameters, s.t. $E[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = 0$ and $\text{cov}[\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}] = \sigma^2 I_N$.
- Be $r = \text{rank}H \leq \min(N, p)$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = H^+ \mathbf{b} = V\Sigma^+ U^\dagger \mathbf{b}$ the generalized LS estimator.
- Be $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_i^\dagger$, $i = 1 \cdots r$, any set of linearly independent vectors $\in R(H)$.
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- By all the previous lemmas, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_i^\dagger \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is the unbiased, minimum variance, and BLUE estimator of $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_i^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta}$. \square

Covariance of the generalized Gauss-Markov estimator

- Let us define $\Lambda = [\boldsymbol{\lambda}_1 \ \cdots \ \boldsymbol{\lambda}_r]$. Hence, the generalized Gauss-Markov estimators can be collected in the single expression $\Lambda^\dagger \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$.

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- By noticing that $R(H) = R(H^\dagger H)$, it is possible to choose $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_j^\dagger = \mathbf{a}_j^\dagger H^\dagger H$, $\mathbf{a}_j \in C(H)$. Let us define $A = [\mathbf{a}_1 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{a}_r] \Rightarrow \Lambda^\dagger = A^\dagger H^\dagger H$. The covariance is then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov} [\Lambda^\dagger \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] &= \text{cov} [A^\dagger H^\dagger H H^+ \mathbf{b}] = \sigma^2 A^\dagger H^\dagger H H^+ (H^\dagger H H^+)^{\dagger} A = \\ &= \sigma^2 A^\dagger H^\dagger H H^+ H H^+ H A = \sigma^2 A^\dagger H^\dagger H A \end{aligned}$$

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- If $\Lambda = V_r$, where V_r are the first r columns of V , the **covariance is diagonal**, and $V_r^\dagger \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ are the **principal components** of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$:

$$\text{cov} [\Lambda^\dagger \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \sigma^2 V_r^\dagger V \Sigma + \Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger V_r = \sigma^2 I_{r \times p} \Sigma + \Sigma^{+T} I_{p \times r} = \sigma^2 \text{diag} (1/\sigma_1^2 \ \cdots \ 1/\sigma_r^2)$$

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- Since $C(H^\dagger) \equiv R(H)$, it is proved that $\mathbf{v} \in R(H)$.

Example

- Let us consider the following system:

$$H\theta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \\ \theta_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \\ b_4 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- Clearly, it is $r = \text{rank}H = 2$. SVD yields the following matrices:

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} -0.5 & -0.5 & -0.5 & -0.5 \\ -0.5 & -0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 \\ -0.5 & 0.5 & 0.5 & -0.5 \\ -0.5 & 0.5 & -0.5 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix} \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} -8.165 & 0 & -0.5774 \\ -0.4082 & -0.7071 & 0.5774 \\ -0.4082 & 0.7071 & 0.5774 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 2.4495 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.4142 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Sigma^+ = \begin{bmatrix} 0.4082 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.7071 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- But if check principal components: $V_r^\dagger\boldsymbol{\theta} = [-1.633 \ 0]^\dagger$ and $V_r^\dagger\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = [-1.633 \ 0]^\dagger$, perfectly matching.

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$$\text{cov}[\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \sigma^2 V\Sigma^+\Sigma^{+T}V^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0011 & 0.0006 & 0.0006 \\ 0.0006 & 0.0028 & -0.0022 \\ 0.0006 & -0.0022 & 0.0028 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- The LS estimator yields $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = V\Sigma^+U^\dagger = [1.3414 \ 0.6532 \ 0.6882]^\dagger$, with covariance:

$$\text{cov} [\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \sigma^2 V\Sigma^+\Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0011 & 0.0006 & 0.0006 \\ 0.0006 & 0.0028 & -0.0022 \\ 0.0006 & -0.0022 & 0.0028 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Principal components: $V_r^\dagger \boldsymbol{\theta} = [-1.633 \ 0]^\dagger$ and $V_r^\dagger \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = [-1.6429 \ 0.0247]^\dagger$, with:

$$\text{cov} [V_r^\dagger \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}] = \sigma^2 V_r^\dagger V\Sigma^+\Sigma^{+T} V^\dagger V_r = \sigma^2 \text{diag} (1/\sigma_1^2 \ \dots \ 1/\sigma_r^2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0017 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.0050 \end{bmatrix}$$